

STA261 - Module 6

Bayesian Statistics

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August 6-8, 2024

(Long Spiel)

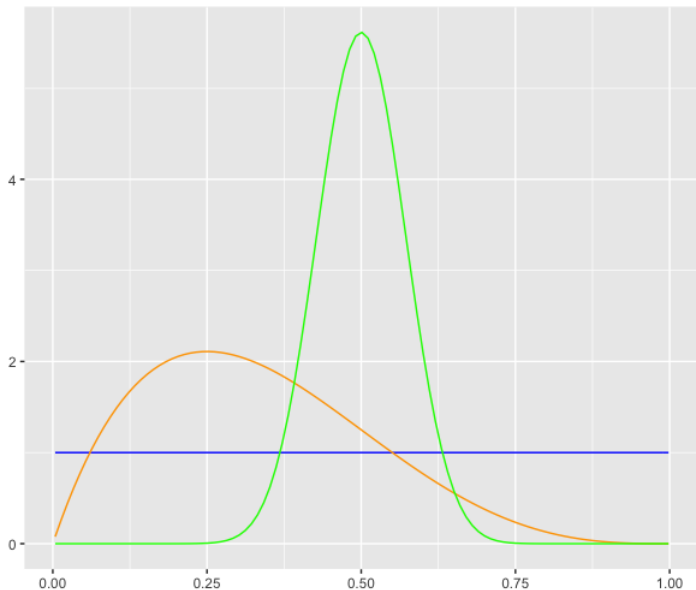
The Bayesian Model

- So θ is now treated as a *random variable* with its own distribution expressing our beliefs
- The Bayesian framework for inference contains the statistical model $\{f_\theta : \theta \in \Theta\}$ and adds a **prior probability measure** $\Pi : \Theta \rightarrow [0, 1]$ describing our beliefs about θ *before* we observe the data
- We usually refer to the prior by its pdf/pmf, which we denote generically as $\pi(\cdot)$

A Simple Example of a Prior

- Suppose we're shown a coin, and we are told to infer whether it's biased or not just from looking at it
- If $X = \mathbb{1}_{\text{heads}}$, then we want to make inferences about the random variable p , where $X \mid p \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$
- What should our prior on $\Theta = [0, 1]$ look like?
- It depends on what we know (or don't know) about the coin
- Here are three of many possible choices

Prior Distributions for the Coin Example



The Prior Predictive Distribution

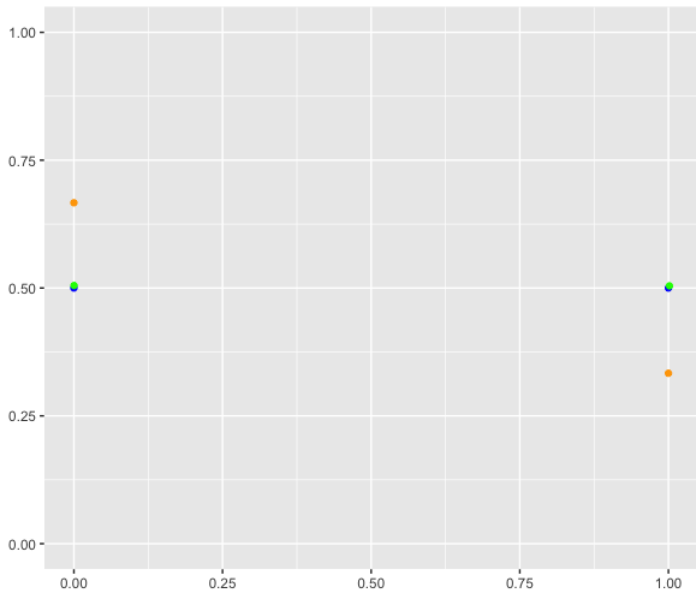
- What if we were asked to predict the likelihood of the coin coming up heads at this point?
- It's reasonable to take a weighted average of all possible Bernoulli (p) distributions, each one weighted by our prior confidence $\pi(p)$, which is

$$\int_{\Theta} \mathbb{P}_p(X = 1) \cdot \pi(p) dp = \int_0^1 p \cdot \pi(p) dp$$

- There's a name for this
- **Definition 6.1:** Given a pdf f_{θ} and a prior distribution π on θ , the **prior predictive distribution** of the data \mathbf{x} is given by the pdf

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{\Theta} f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta) d\theta.$$

Prior Predictive Distributions for the Coin Example

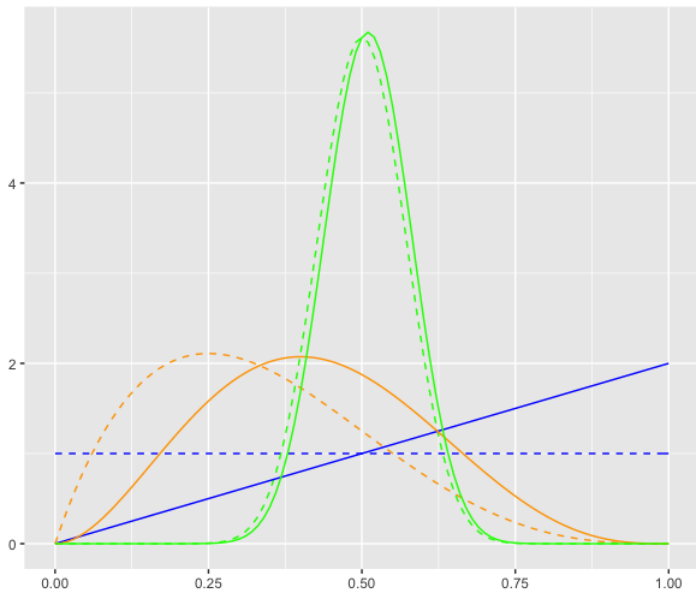


The Posterior Distribution - A Motivation

- Now, suppose we actually flip the coin once and observe $X = 1$
- If we were asked what the likelihood of some $p' \in [0, 1]$ is now, we could take our prior probability $\pi(p')$ and weigh it down by the likelihood of observing $X = 1$ if the “true” parameter really were p'
- That is, it's reasonable to answer with $\mathbb{P}_{p'}(X = 1) \cdot \pi(p')$, since data in support of p' will make this relatively high, while data in support of some p'' far away from p' will make it relatively low
- To put everything on the same scale, may as well normalize those quantities over all possible $p \in [0, 1]$ and answer instead with

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}_{p'}(X = 1) \cdot \pi(p')}{\int_0^1 \mathbb{P}_p(X = 1) \cdot \pi(p) dp} = \frac{p' \cdot \pi(p')}{\int_0^1 p \cdot \pi(p) dp}$$

Posterior Distributions for the Coin Example ($X = 1$)



The Posterior Distribution - A Derivation

- In general, $f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta)$ is the joint pdf of (\mathbf{X}, θ)
- From Bayes' rule, the conditional pdf of $\theta \mid \mathbf{X}$ is given by

$$\frac{f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta)}{f(\mathbf{x})}$$

- There's also a name for this
- **Definition 6.2:** The **posterior distribution of θ** is the conditional distribution of $\theta \mid (\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$, given by the pdf

$$\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta)}{\int_{\Theta} f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta) d\theta}.$$

Poll Time!

On Quercus: Module 6 - Poll 1

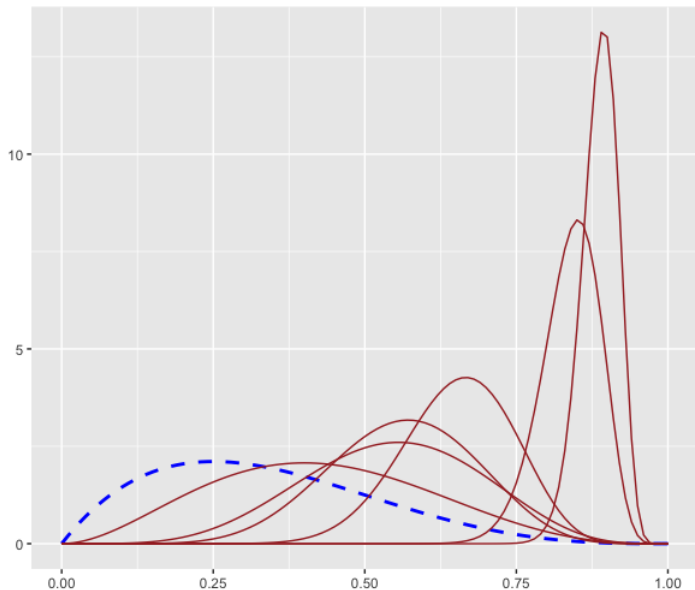
More on the Posterior

- The posterior $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{x})$ is a function of θ , and the data \mathbf{x} is *observed*
- So we could write $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{x}) \propto f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta)$
- Thus, $[\int_{\Theta} f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta) d\theta]^{-1}$ plays the role of normalizing constant for the unnormalized pdf $f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta)$
- If the functional form of $f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta)$ looks familiar, then we'll know what $(\int_{\Theta} f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\theta) d\theta)^{-1}$ must be, and we can get $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{x})$ for free
- **Example 6.1:** Suppose we calculate $f_{\theta}(x) \cdot \pi(\theta) \propto \theta^{x+1}(1-\theta)^{2-x}$ for $\theta \in (0, 1)$. What is $\pi(\theta \mid x)$?

More on the Posterior

- The observed data dictates how much the posterior distribution differs from the prior
- Consider three different priors:
 - ▶ π_1 is highly concentrated at $\theta_1 \in \Theta$
 - ▶ π_2 is highly concentrated at $\theta_2 \in \Theta$
 - ▶ π_3 is $\text{Unif}(\Theta)$
- Now we observe \mathbf{x} ; suppose the likelihood $L(\theta | \mathbf{x}) = f_\theta(\mathbf{x})$ “supports” θ_2 in the frequentist sense
- What do the posteriors look like?
 - ▶ $\pi_1(\cdot | \mathbf{x})$
 - ▶ $\pi_2(\cdot | \mathbf{x})$
 - ▶ $\pi_3(\cdot | \mathbf{x})$
- Even if the prior is strong, the likelihood will eventually “overpower” it as the sample size n grows

When the Prior and the Data Disagree



Computing Posteriors: Examples

- **Example 6.2:** Suppose that $\pi(p) = \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ and $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. Find the posterior $\pi(p \mid \mathbf{x})$.

Computing Posteriors: Examples

- **Example 6.3:** Suppose that $\pi(\lambda) = \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ and $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. Find the posterior $\pi(\lambda \mid \mathbf{x})$.

The Return of Sufficiency

- What if instead of observing \mathbf{x} , we only have access to a sufficient statistic $T(\mathbf{x})$?
- Sufficiency kind of carries over to the Bayesian setting, in the following sense
- **Theorem 6.1:** Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f_\theta$ and let $\pi(\theta)$ be a prior on θ . If $T(\mathbf{X})$ is a sufficient statistic for θ (in the frequentist sense), then $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x}) = \pi(\theta | T(\mathbf{x}))$.

Computing Posteriors: Examples

- **Example 6.4:** Suppose that $\pi(p) = \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ and $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. Find the posterior $\pi(p \mid \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)$.

Hyperparameters

- In the previous example, the prior $\pi(\theta) = \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ had its own set of parameters:
- **Definition 6.3:** The parameters λ of a prior distribution $\pi_\lambda(\cdot)$ in a parametric family $\{\pi_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ are called **hyperparameters**.
- Sometimes the hyperparameter λ is a given constant (either known from prior experience or chosen based on the situation)
- Other times, we go meta and assign a prior distribution to λ itself (called a **hyperprior**, possibly with its own **hyperhyperparameters**)
- Models of this sort are called **hierarchical Bayesian models**
- We could keep going and assign a hyperhyperprior to the hyperhyperparameters, and a hyperhyperhyperprior to the hyperhyperhyperparameters, and...

Poll Time!

On Quercus: Module 6 - Poll 2

Choosing Priors

- How do we choose an appropriate prior (both for the parameter associated with the data, as well as any hyperparameters)?
- There's no single answer to this question
- One of a Bayesian statistician's key roles is arguing with other statisticians about prior selection
- Some priors are simply not sensible given the parametric family for the data
- **Example 6.5:**
- We'll discuss several commonly used methods of prior selection, but these certainly aren't the only ones (nor are they mutually exclusive)

Objectivity Versus Subjectivity

- One can very roughly classify Bayesians into two groups: *objective Bayesians* and *subjective Bayesians*
- Subjective Bayesians prefer to integrate personal beliefs about the world – or lack thereof – into their inferences, and they would choose priors that reflect their beliefs (to the extent possible)
- Of course, these would influence the posterior, so two subjective Bayesians might come up with different posteriors (even if they both agree on a model for the data itself); these reflect their differing opinions
- Objective Bayesians prefer to let the data speak for itself, and they would choose priors that do not reflect any personal biases
- To an objective Bayesian, there should be a fixed procedure for choosing a prior, and therefore everyone should agree on the same posterior

Conjugate Priors

- In the previous examples, the posterior distribution was in the same parametric family as the prior (albeit with “updated” parameters)
- This doesn't always happen – most of the time, the posterior will be an unfamiliar distribution – but when it does happen, there's a special name for it
- **Definition 6.4:** A family of priors $\{\pi_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ for the parameter θ of the model $\mathcal{F} = \{f_\theta : \theta \in \Theta\}$ is called **conjugate for \mathcal{F}** if, for all data $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$ and all $\lambda \in \Lambda$, the posterior $\pi(\cdot | \mathbf{x}) \in \{\pi_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$
- Example 6.6:
- Example 6.7:

Conjugate Priors

- **Example 6.8:** Suppose that $\pi(\mu) = \mathcal{N}(\theta, \tau^2)$ and $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where σ^2 is known. Find the posterior $\pi(\mu \mid \mathbf{x})$.

Conjugate Priors

- In those examples, it was no coincidence that both prior and likelihood were in exponential families
- **Theorem 6.2:** Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f_\theta$ where f_θ is in an exponential family:

$$f_\theta(x) = h(x) \cdot g(\theta) \cdot \exp \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \eta_j(\theta) \cdot T_j(x) \right).$$

If we choose an exponential family prior of the form

$$\pi(\theta) \propto g(\theta)^\nu \cdot \exp \left(\sum_{j=1}^k \eta_j(\theta) \cdot \xi_j \right)$$

where ν and ξ_1, \dots, ξ_k are hyperparameters, then $\pi(\theta)$ is a conjugate prior for f_θ .

Why Conjugate Priors?

- Conjugacy is very mathematically convenient
- But is a conjugate family actually *relevant* to whatever the statistical situation is?
- It's widely acknowledged that most conjugate families are rich enough to express a wide spectrum of prior beliefs
- Example 6.9:

Elicitation

- Even if we do have a particular parametric family $\{\pi_\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ selected for our prior, how do we actually set the hyperparameters?
- Ideally, we'll have some experts in the field (possibly ourselves) available to give us their thoughts on what they believe is plausible, based on their own past experiences
- We can't expect them to just tell us raw numbers for λ , but with enough information, we can try and work out the best match
- Translating those thoughts into a choice of hyperprior is called **prior elicitation**

Poll Time!

On Quercus: Module 6 - Poll 3

Elicitation: Examples

- **Example 6.10:** Suppose we're sampling from an $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ distribution with μ unknown and σ^2 known, and we restrict attention to the family $\{\mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \tau^2) : \mu_0 \in \mathbb{R}, \tau^2 > 0\}$. If an expert tells us they're 50% certain that μ lies between 2 and 3, how can we elicit our prior?

Expressing Ignorance

- What if the experts are keeping quiet and we have nothing to work with?
- Or maybe we're objective Bayesians and “expert advice” is irrelevant to us
- How do we choose a prior that expresses *complete* ignorance about θ ?
- In the coin example, choosing $\pi(p) = \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ would work
- What about a completely objective prior on μ in the $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ model?
There's no uniform distribution on \mathbb{R}
- And yet, if we take $\pi(\mu) = 1$,

Uninformative Priors

- **Definition 6.5:** A function $\pi(\theta)$ used in place of a true prior distribution that does not reflect any prior beliefs about θ is called an **uninformative** (or **noninformative** or **default** or **reference**) **prior**.
- **Example 6.11:**
- We have a special name for choices like $\pi(\mu) = 1$ above
- **Definition 6.6:** If an uninformative prior $\pi(\theta)$ is not a true distribution (i.e., $\int_{\Theta} \pi(\theta) d\theta$ is divergent), then it is called an **improper prior**.
- Improper priors are controversial, and they're difficult to interpret probabilistically
- Moreover, if chosen haphazardly they can lead to improper posteriors (which are truly meaningless)

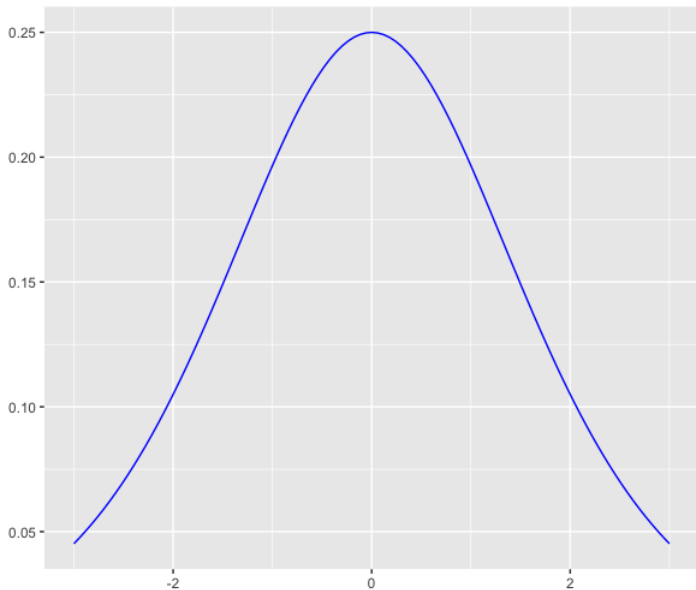
Problems With Uninformative Priors

- **Example 6.12:** Suppose that $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. What is the posterior $\pi(p \mid x)$ based on the **Haldane prior** $\pi(p) = \frac{1}{p(1-p)}$?

Problems With Uninformative Priors

- **Example 6.13:** Suppose that $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ and we choose $\pi(p) = \text{Unif}(0, 1)$. What prior does this correspond to for the log-odds $\tau = \log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)$?

Oh No



Ignorance From All Perspectives

- The previous example shows that ignorance about θ does not necessarily translate to the same ignorance about $\tau(\theta)$
- In other words, if π_θ is a prior for the model parameterized by θ and π_τ is a prior for the model parameterized by $\tau = \tau(\theta)$,

$$\pi_\tau(t) \neq \pi_\theta(\tau^{-1}(t)) \cdot \left| \frac{d}{dt} \tau^{-1}(t) \right|$$

in general

- What if we insisted on “equivalent” ignorance for all monotone re-parametrizations of θ ?
- It turns out there’s a way to make this happen using the Fisher information

Jeffreys' Prior

- **Definition 6.7:** Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f_\theta$ where θ is univariate. **Jeffreys' prior** for θ is given by $\pi_\theta^J(\theta) \propto \sqrt{I_1(\theta)}$.
- Notice that this prior *depends only the model* – there's no room for any subjectivity beyond the choice of model
- Jeffreys felt that invariance under monotone transformations is a suitably uninformative property for a prior
- **Theorem 6.3:** Under the regularity conditions of the Cramér-Rao Lower Bound, Jeffreys' prior is invariant under monotone transformations, in the sense that

$$\pi_\tau^J(t) = \pi_\theta^J(\tau^{-1}(t)) \left| \frac{d}{dt} \tau^{-1}(t) \right|$$

if $\tau : \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is monotone and differentiable.

Proof.

Jeffreys' Prior: Examples

- **Example 6.14:** Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim}$ Bernoulli (p). Determine Jeffreys' prior for this model, and determine the posterior $\pi(p \mid \mathbf{x})$ based on it.

Jeffreys' Prior: Examples

- **Example 6.15:** Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known. Determine Jeffreys' prior for this model, and determine the posterior $\pi(\mu | \mathbf{x})$ based on it.

Inferences Based On the Posterior

- If we're satisfied with a choice of prior and we've computed (or estimated) the posterior, what do we actually do with this distribution?
- The inferential techniques of Modules 2-4 (point estimation, hypothesis testing, and confidence intervals) can't be directly applied here, since $\theta | \mathbf{x}$ is not a fixed constant
- Our goal is to find Bayesian analogues of these techniques

Bayesian Point Estimation

- If $\mathbf{X} \sim f_\theta$, how do we “estimate” either θ itself or some quantity $\tau = \tau(\theta)$ in the Bayesian context?
- We have a posterior distribution $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$ to work with
- What quantities can we extract from it that can meaningfully take the place of our frequentist estimates?
- If we use some characteristic $\hat{\theta}$ of $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$, then it must be a function of the data \mathbf{x} and we can write $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$
- That makes $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})$ a genuine point estimator, which we can compare to our favourite frequentist estimators like the MLE
- To keep the notation simple, we'll work with θ itself, but everything carries over to $\tau(\theta)$

MAP Estimators

- One reasonable approach is to choose the value that the posterior says is most probable – that is, the mode of the posterior
- **Definition 6.8:** Given a posterior distribution $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$, a **maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimator** of θ is given by the conditional mode of the posterior:

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}(\mathbf{X}) = \underset{\theta \in \Theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \pi(\theta | \mathbf{X}).$$

- If we want the MAP estimator of $\tau = \tau(\theta)$, we'll need to maximize $\pi(\tau | \mathbf{x})$
- But that's the same as maximizing $f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \pi(\tau | \mathbf{x}) = \pi(\tau) \cdot f_{\tau}(\mathbf{x})$, so we don't need to bother with the normalizing constant $f(\mathbf{x})$, which is usually a nasty integral

Posterior Means

- We might prefer to take a weighted average of all $\theta' \in \Theta$, each weighed down by how probable the posterior says it is – that is, the expectation of the posterior
- **Definition 6.9:** Given a posterior distribution $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$, the **posterior mean estimator** – if it exists – is given by the conditional expectation of the posterior:

$$\hat{\theta}_B(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E}[\theta | \mathbf{X}] = \int_{\Theta} \theta \cdot \pi(\theta | \mathbf{x}) d\theta.$$

- The posterior mean estimator is nice because it minimizes the *expected MSE* under the posterior:

$$\hat{\theta}_B(\cdot) = \operatorname{argmin}_{T(\cdot)} \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{MSE}_{\theta}(T(\mathbf{X}))]$$

Bayesian Point Estimation: Examples

- **Example 6.16:** Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim}$ Bernoulli(p), and suppose we place a Beta(α, β) prior on p . Find the MAP estimator and the posterior mean estimator for p , and describe how they compare to the MLE.

Bayesian Point Estimation: Examples

- **Example 6.17:** Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known, and suppose we place a $\mathcal{N}(\theta, \tau^2)$ prior on μ . Find the MAP estimator and the posterior mean estimator for μ , and describe how they compare to the MLE.

Poll Time!

On Quercus: Module 6 - Poll 4

Bayesian Hypothesis Testing

- What about Bayesian hypothesis testing?
- We might think to test every hypothesis by simply computing probability under $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$, we'd quickly run into problems
- For example, if the posterior is continuous, then we'd reject every simple hypothesis $H : \theta = \theta_0$
- We might try to get around this by computing a **Bayesian p -value** $\Pi(\{\theta : \pi(\theta | \mathbf{x}) \leq \pi(\theta_0 | \mathbf{x})\} | \mathbf{x})$, but there can be problems with that as well

Bayesian p -Values Aren't Great

- **Example 6.18:** Suppose $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x}) = \text{Beta}(2, 1)$. Compute Bayesian p -values for $H_0 : \theta = \frac{3}{4}$ under the posterior of $\theta | \mathbf{x}$ and the posterior of $\theta^2 | \mathbf{x}$.

Tweaking the Prior

- These issues happen when the prior $\pi(\theta)$ assigns zero probability to H_0 , and can be avoided by tweaking the prior in such a way to fix this
- This isn't unreasonable; if we have reason to test $H : \theta \in A$, then we suspect it *could* be true, which would be contradicted if $\Pi(\theta \in A) = 0$
- If we start with a continuous prior π_2 , we can create a new one using

$$\pi(\theta) = \alpha \cdot \pi_1(\theta) + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \pi_2(\theta),$$

where π_1 is degenerate at θ_0 and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$

- This gives

$$\Pi(\{\theta_0\} | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\alpha f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\alpha f_1(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \alpha) f_2(\mathbf{x})},$$

where $f_i(\mathbf{x})$ is the prior predictive distribution under the prior π_i

Bayes Factors

- There's a popular approach to Bayesian hypothesis testing involves the odds
- **Definition 6.10:** Let $\pi(\theta)$ be a prior, let $\mathbf{X} \sim f_\theta(\mathbf{x})$, and let $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$ be the posterior for the model. Suppose that $H_0 : \theta \in \Theta_0$ and $H_A : \theta \in \Theta_0^c$ are two competing hypotheses about plausible values of θ .

The **prior odds** in favour of H_0 is the ratio $\frac{\Pi(\Theta_0)}{\Pi(\Theta_0^c)} = \frac{\Pi(\Theta_0)}{1 - \Pi(\Theta_0)}$.

The **posterior odds** in favour of H_0 is the ratio $\frac{\Pi(\Theta_0 | \mathbf{x})}{\Pi(\Theta_0^c | \mathbf{x})} = \frac{\Pi(\Theta_0 | \mathbf{x})}{1 - \Pi(\Theta_0 | \mathbf{x})}$.

Provided that $\Pi(\Theta_0) > 0$, the **Bayes factor** in favour of H_0 is given by the ratio of the posterior odds to the prior odds:

$$BF_{H_0} = \frac{\Pi(\Theta_0 | \mathbf{x})}{1 - \Pi(\Theta_0 | \mathbf{x})} \bigg/ \frac{\Pi(\Theta_0)}{1 - \Pi(\Theta_0)}$$

Bayes Factors

- What's the point of Bayes factors?
- For one, if we let r be the prior odds, then

$$\Pi(\Theta_0 \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{r \cdot BF_{H_0}}{1 + r \cdot BF_{H_0}}$$

- So a small/large Bayes factor means a small/large posterior probability of H_0
- Moreover, Bayes factors have a surprising connection to likelihood ratios
- **Theorem 6.4:** If we want to test $H_0 : \theta \in \Theta_0$ and we choose a prior mixture $\pi(\theta) = \alpha \cdot \pi_1(\theta) + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \pi_2(\theta)$ such that $\Pi_1(\Theta_0) = \Pi_2(\Theta_0^c) = 1$, then

$$BF_{H_0} = \frac{f_1(\mathbf{x})}{f_2(\mathbf{x})}.$$

Bayes Factors: Examples

- **Example 6.19:** Suppose that $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim}$ Bernoulli (θ) and we place a Unif($0, 1$) prior on θ . Compute the Bayes factor in favour of $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$.

Credible Intervals

- Assuming that $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, what's a reasonable Bayesian analogue of confidence intervals?
- Now, it's perfectly reasonable to ask what the probability is that $l \leq \theta \leq u$ for $l, u \in \Theta$
- **Definition 6.11:** Let $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$ be a posterior distribution on Θ . A **$(1 - \alpha)$ -credible interval** for θ is an interval $[L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})] \subseteq \Theta$ such that

$$\Pi(L(\mathbf{x}) \leq \theta \leq U(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{x}) = \int_{L(\mathbf{x})}^{U(\mathbf{x})} \pi(\theta | \mathbf{x}) d\theta \geq 1 - \alpha.$$

- As with confidence intervals, there are usually plenty of credible intervals available for a given posterior, so we look for some desirable properties

Two Types of Credible Intervals

- **Definition 6.12:** If $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$ is unimodal, the $(1 - \alpha)$ -credible interval $[L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})]$ such that the length $U(\mathbf{x}) - L(\mathbf{x})$ is minimized is called the **$(1 - \alpha)$ -highest posterior density (HPD) interval** for θ
- An HPD interval really does capture the most likely values in Θ , since any region outside of it will be assigned a lower posterior probability

- **Definition 6.13:** The $(1 - \alpha)$ -credible interval $[L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})]$ which satisfies

$$\Pi((-\infty, L(\mathbf{x})) | \mathbf{x}) = \Pi([U(\mathbf{x}), \infty) | \mathbf{x}) = \alpha/2$$

is called the **$(1 - \alpha)$ -equal tailed interval (ETI)** for θ

- An ETI exists for any continuous posterior, unimodal or otherwise
- One can show that if $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x})$ is symmetric, unimodal, and continuous, then the HPD interval and the ETI will be equal

Credible Intervals: Examples

- **Example 6.20:** Suppose that $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where σ^2 is known, and we place a $\mathcal{N}(\theta, \tau^2)$ prior on μ . What do $(1 - \alpha)$ -HPD intervals and ETIs for μ look like? What happens as $\tau^2 \rightarrow \infty$?

Credible Intervals: Examples

- **Example 6.21:** Suppose that $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ and we place a $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ prior on λ . What do 95% HPD intervals and ETIs for λ look like?

ETIs are Invariant

- We've seen that posterior distributions can do unexpected things when we're interested in inferences of $\tau(\theta)$
- In general, a credible interval for θ may tell us nothing about a credible interval (or credible region) for $\tau(\theta)$
- But ETIs have a special property that bypasses this issue
- **Theorem 6.5:** ETIs are invariant under monotone transformations of θ , in the sense that if $(L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x}))$ is a $(1 - \alpha)$ -ETI for θ and $\tau : \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is monotone increasing, then $(\tau(L(\mathbf{x})), \tau(U(\mathbf{x})))$ is a $(1 - \alpha)$ -ETI for $\tau(\theta)$.

Proof.

- **Example 6.22:**

Poll Time!

On Quercus: Module 6 - Poll 5

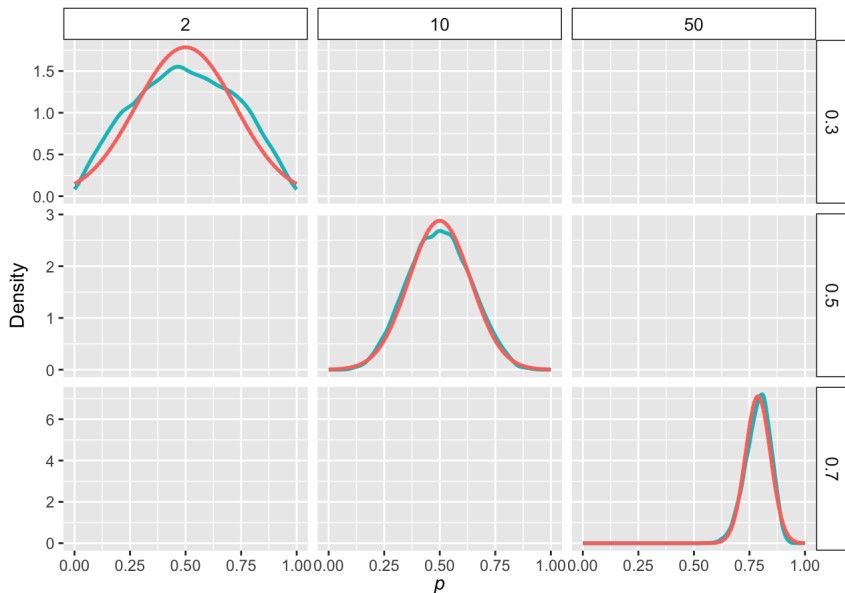
The Bernstein-von Mises Theorem

- Bayesian and frequentist inference unite in this monumental result
- **Theorem 6.6 (Bernstein-von Mises)**: Let $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f_{\theta_0}$, let $\pi(\theta)$ be a prior distribution placing positive mass around θ_0 , and let $\theta_n \sim \pi(\theta | \mathbf{x}_n)$. Under suitable regularity conditions,

$$\sqrt{n} \left(\theta_n - \hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N} \left(0, \frac{1}{I_1(\theta_0)} \right).$$

- This statement is a *vast* simplification of the actual Bernstein-von Mises theorem, but it preserves the essence
- The takeaway is that as the sample size of our data n gets larger, the choice of $\pi(\theta)$ matters less and the likelihood dominates
- Roughly speaking, the posterior $\pi(\theta | \mathbf{x}_n)$ converges to a degenerate distribution on θ_0 , for *any* well-behaved prior (!)

The Bernstein-von Mises Theorem: It's True



The End

