# Example of Bayesian Model Selection

- Example in R with Oxygen Data Set
- We can consider all possible subsets of set of predictor variables:

We can consider only certain subsets (here, we only consider including the interaction term when both first-order terms appear):

- Suppose we have built our Bayesian regression model using response data y and explanatory data matrix X.
- Suppose we consider future observations whose explanatory variable values are in the matrix X\*.
- What is the marginal distribution of the corresponding future response values y\*?
- This is the posterior predictive distribution

 $\pi(\mathbf{y}^*|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}^*, \mathbf{X}).$ 

We will use this later as a tool for checking the fit of our regression model.

# The Posterior Predictive Distribution of the Data

► In our analysis with the noninformative priors, note that  $\pi(\mathbf{y}^*, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}^*, \mathbf{X}) = \pi(\mathbf{y}^* | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2, \mathbf{X}^*) \pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$ 

Then integrating out β and σ<sup>2</sup>, it can be shown that the posterior predictive distribution of y\* is multivariate-t with (n - k) degrees of freedom so that

$$E(\mathbf{y}^*) = \mathbf{X}^* \hat{\mathbf{b}} \text{ and}$$
  
covariance matrix  $= \frac{(n-k)\hat{\sigma}^2}{n-k-2} [\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{X}^* (\mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^{*'}]$ 

- Intuition: Our original data are multivariate normal, given the model.
- Our future predictions are multivariate-t (reflects added uncertainty about the model).

## CHAPTER 5 SLIDES START HERE

- A prior distribution **must** be specified in a Bayesian analysis.
- The choice of prior can substantially affect posterior conclusions, especially when the sample size is not large.
- We now examine several broad methods of determining prior distributions.

We know that conjugacy is a property of a prior along with a likelihood that implies the posterior distribution will have the same *distributional form* as the prior (just with different parameter(s)).

We have seen some examples of conjugate priors:
 Data/Likelihood
 Prior

- 1. Bernoulli  $\rightarrow$  Beta for p
- 2. Poisson  $\rightarrow$  Gamma for  $\lambda$
- 3. Normal  $\rightarrow$  Normal for  $\mu$
- 4. Normal  $\rightarrow$  Inverse gamma for  $\sigma^2$

Other examples:

- 1. Multinomial  $\rightarrow$  Dirichlet for  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k$
- 2. Negative Binomial  $\rightarrow$  Beta for p
- 3. Uniform(0,  $\theta$ )  $\rightarrow$  Pareto for upper limit
- 4. Exponential  $\rightarrow$  Gamma for  $\beta$
- 5. Gamma ( $\beta$  unknown)  $\rightarrow$  Gamma for  $\beta$
- 6. Pareto ( $\alpha$  unknown)  $\rightarrow$  Gamma for  $\alpha$
- 7. Pareto ( $\beta$  unknown)  $\rightarrow$  Pareto for  $\beta$

- Consider the family of distributions known as the one-parameter exponential family.
- This family consists of any distribution whose p.d.f. (or p.m.f.) can be written as:

$$f(x|\theta) = e^{[t(x)u(\theta)]}r(x)s(\theta)$$

where t(x) and r(x) do not depend on the parameter  $\theta$  and  $u(\theta)$  and  $s(\theta)$  do not depend on x.

Note that any such density can be written as

$$f(x|\theta) = e^{\{t(x)u(\theta) + \ln[r(x)] + \ln[s(\theta)]\}}$$

► If we observe an iid sample X<sub>1</sub>,..., X<sub>n</sub>, the joint density of the data is thus

$$f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = e^{\{u(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^{n} t(x_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln[r(x_i)] + n \ln[s(\theta)]\}}$$

Consider a prior for θ (with the prior parameters k and γ) having the form:

$$p(\theta) = c(k, \gamma) e^{\{ku(\theta)\gamma + k \ln[s(\theta)]\}}$$

# Conjugate Priors: Exponential Family

Then the posterior is

$$\pi(\theta|\mathbf{x}) \propto f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)p(\theta)$$

$$\propto \exp\left\{u(\theta)\sum t(x_i) + n\ln[s(\theta)] + ku(\theta)\gamma + k\ln[s(\theta)]\right\}$$

$$= \exp\left\{u(\theta)\left[\sum t(x_i) + k\gamma\right] + (n+k)\ln[s(\theta)]\right\}$$

$$= \exp\left\{(n+k)u(\theta)\left[\frac{\sum t(x_i) + k\gamma}{n+k}\right] + (n+k)\ln[s(\theta)]\right\}$$

which is of the same form as the prior, except with "k" = n + kand " $\gamma$ " =  $\frac{\sum t(x_i) + k\gamma}{n+k}$ .  $\Rightarrow$  If our data are iid from a one-parameter exponential family, then a conjugate prior will exist.

- Conjugate priors are mathematically convenient.
- Sometimes they are quite flexible, depending on the specific hyperparameters we use.
- But they reflect very specific prior knowledge, so we should be wary of using them unless we truly possess that prior knowledge.

- These priors intentionally provide very little specific information about the parameter(s).
- A classic uninformative prior is the *uniform* prior.
- A *proper* uniform prior integrates to a finite quantity.
- **Example 1**: For Bernoulli( $\theta$ ) data, a uniform prior on  $\theta$  is

$$p(\theta) = 1, \ \ 0 \leq \theta \leq 1.$$

• This makes sense when  $\theta$  has **bounded support**.

## **Uninformative Priors**

Example 2: Consider N(0, σ<sup>2</sup>) data. If it is "reasonable" to assume, that, say σ<sup>2</sup> < 100, we could use the uniform prior</p>

$$p(\sigma^2) = rac{1}{100}, \ \ 0 \le \sigma^2 \le 100$$

(even though  $\sigma^2$  is not intrinsically bounded).

- An **improper** uniform prior integrates to  $\infty$ :
- Example 3:  $N(\mu, 1)$  data with

$$p(\mu) = 1, \ -\infty < \mu < \infty.$$

- This is fine as long as the resulting **posterior** is proper.
- But be careful: Sometimes an improper prior will yield an improper posterior.

- A problem with the uniform prior is that its "lack of information" is **not invariant** under transformation.
- **Example 1 again**: Consider the **odds** of success  $\tau = \frac{\theta}{1-\theta}$ .

• Then if  $p(\theta) = 1$ , with the Jacobian

$$J = \left| \frac{\mathsf{d}}{\mathsf{d}\tau} \left( \frac{\tau}{1+\tau} \right) \right| = \frac{1}{(1+\tau)^2},$$
  
then  $p(\tau) = \frac{1}{(1+\tau)^2}, \ 0 < \tau < \infty$ 

# Invariance Property

#### Picture:

A Prior on the Odds of Success



- This same prior is now an "informative" prior for the odds.
- ▶ (However, note that  $P(0 < \tau < 1) = P(\tau > 1) = 0.5.)$

- Jeffreys (1961) developed a class of priors that were invariant under transformation.
- For a single parameter θ and data having joint density f(x|θ), the Jeffreys prior

$$p_J( heta) \propto \left[ -E\left(rac{\mathsf{d}^2}{\mathsf{d} heta^2} \ln f(\mathbf{x}| heta)
ight) 
ight]^{1/2} = [I( heta)]^{1/2}$$

(square root of Fisher information)

For a parameter vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ :

$$p_J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \propto \left[ E\left\{ \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \ln f(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right]' \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \ln f(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right] \right\} \right]^{1/2}$$

# Jeffreys Prior

• Example 1 yet again: For  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{x}| heta) = inom{n}{y} heta^y (1- heta)^{n-y}, \ \ 0 \le heta \le 1,$$

where 
$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$
.  

$$\Rightarrow \ln f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \ln \binom{n}{y} + y \ln(\theta) + (n-y) \ln(1-\theta)$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \ln f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \frac{y}{\theta} - \frac{n-y}{1-\theta}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{d\theta} \ln f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = -\frac{y}{\theta} - \frac{n-y}{1-\theta}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\theta^2}\ln f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = -\frac{y}{\theta^2} - \frac{n-y}{(1-\theta)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow -E\left[\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\ln f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)\right] = \frac{n\theta}{\theta^2} + \frac{n-n\theta}{(1-\theta)^2} = \frac{n}{\theta} + \frac{n}{1-\theta}$$
$$= \frac{n(1-\theta)+n\theta}{\theta(1-\theta)} = \frac{n}{\theta(1-\theta)}$$

$$\Rightarrow p_J( heta) \propto \left[rac{n}{ heta(1- heta)}
ight]^{1/2} \ \Rightarrow p_J( heta) \propto heta^{-1/2}(1- heta)^{-1/2} = heta^{1/2-1}(1- heta)^{1/2-1}$$

## ⇒ Jeffreys prior for $\theta$ is a Beta(1/2, 1/2): Picture:

Jeffreys Prior for a Success Probability



▶ Invariance: If  $p_J(\theta)$  is the Jeffreys prior for  $\theta$ , for any transformation  $\phi = g(\theta)$ ,

$$p_J(\theta) = p_J(\phi) \Big| \frac{\mathsf{d}\phi}{\mathsf{d}\theta} \Big|.$$