

# Is it possible to be a subjective Bayesian when working on 21st Century problems?

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- 3 Coexchangeable classes and posterior belief assessment
- 4 Application: Calibrating NEMO

# Motivation, Meaning and Clarity

# Meaning and clarity in statistical inference

- When working as a statistician, it is not uncommon to be asked to work on the following types of problem:
- What is **the** probability that *something will happen*?
  - **Example:** What is the probability that the Earth will warm by more than  $2^\circ$  by 2050?
- Quantify **the** uncertainty in *some real world quantity*
  - **Example:** Quantify the uncertainty in change in UK rainfall by 2080 due to climate change
- Are these questions meaningful?
- Is it clear to scientist and statistician what our analysis means?

# Subjective Bayes

- Subjective Bayes is a route towards modest meaning and clarity for statistical analysis.
- You are uncertain about the world
- You specify your uncertainty in the form of a prior probability distribution
- You specify a probability model describing the data generating process you will use to learn about the world.
- You update your prior to your posterior uncertainty through Bayes theorem having seen the data.
- The resulting uncertainty is **yours**.
- Calculated probabilities are **your** probabilities.

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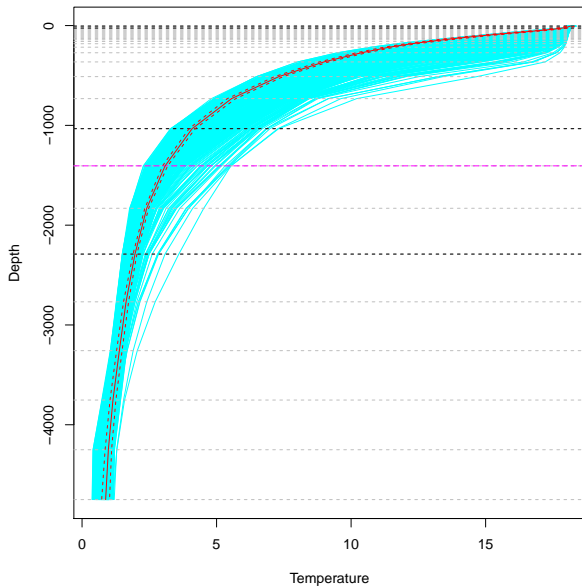
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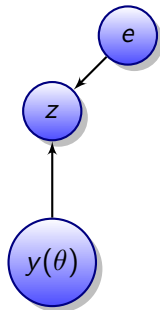
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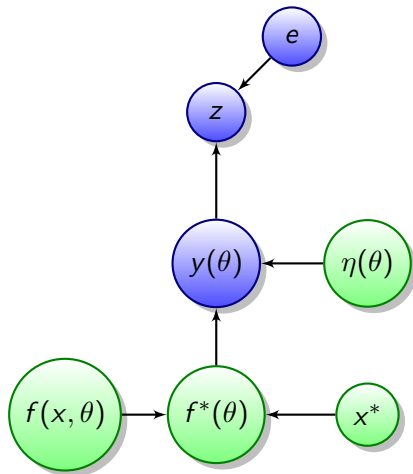
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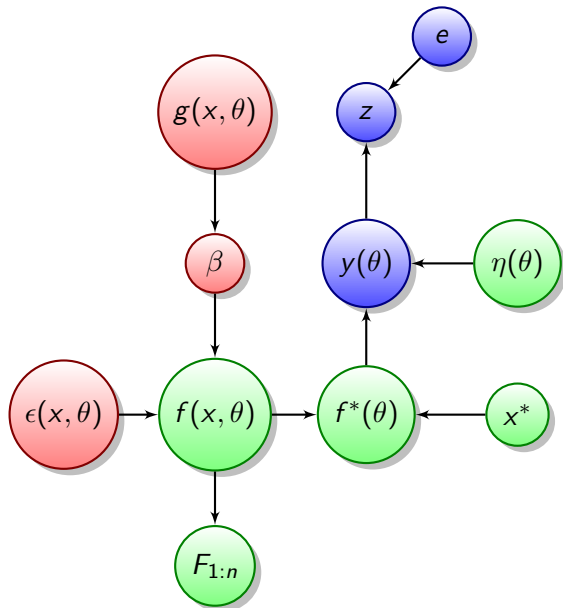
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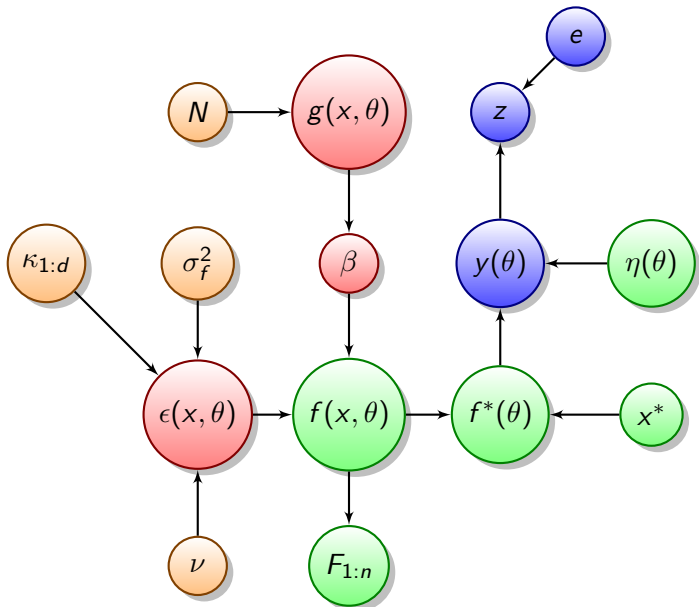


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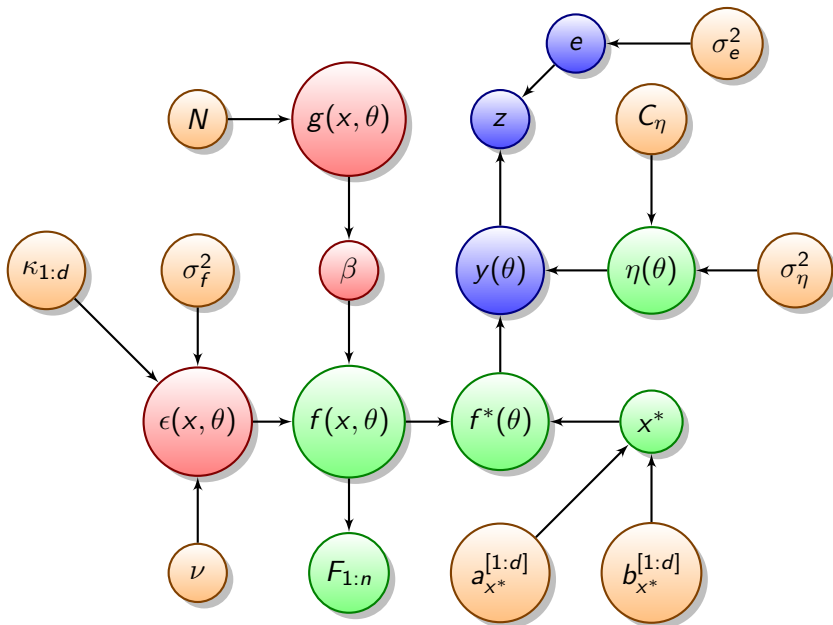




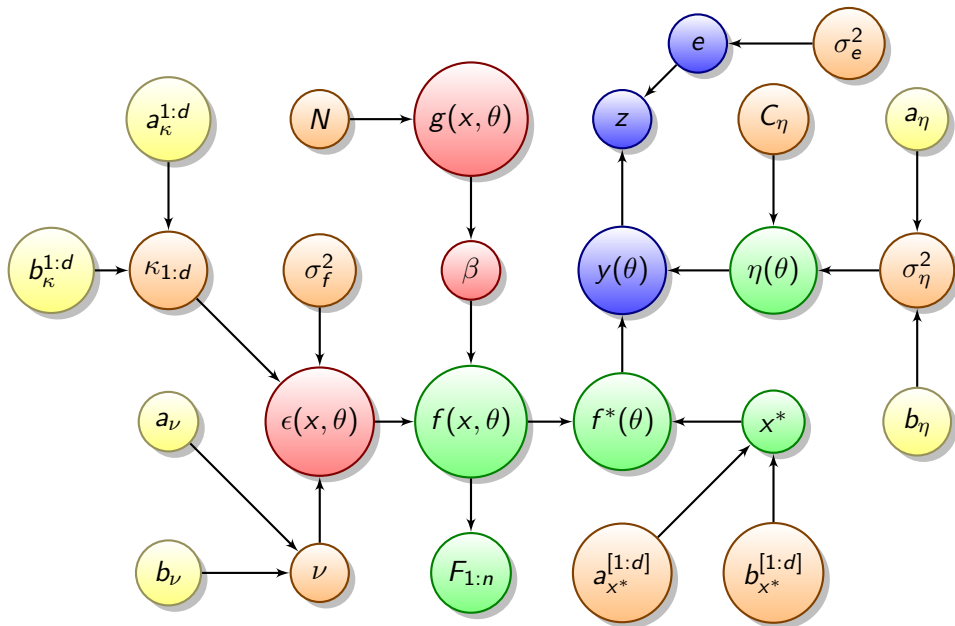
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- Who owns the final judgments? Both of us? Either?
- If not either, what meaning do we give the results?
- Is there anything we can conclude about our own uncertainty from a Bayesian analysis?

# Posterior belief assessment



# Expectation as primitive

## Definition

*Your expectation,  $E[X]$  for random quantity  $X$  is your preferred choice for the value of  $c$  when confronted with the random penalty  $(X - c)^2$ .*

- For any value  $V$ , you prefer  $(X - E[X])^2$  to  $(X - V)^2$ .
- Equivalently

$$E[(X - E[X])^2] \leq E[(X - V)^2]$$

## Bayes as a model for inference

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- $E[X|D]$  is a bet that will be called off unless the conditioning event occurs (one you make now).
- $P_t(X)$  is the posterior probability that you are free to assign at time  $t$  having seen the event.
- There is no obvious formal relationship between  $E[X|D]$  and  $P_t(X)$  whatsoever!
- As such, conditional probability can **only** be interpreted as a *model* for real world inference.

# Temporal Sure Preference

- To relate the model (conditional probability) to reality (actual posterior prevision) requires something more.
- Suppose that we have two random penalties  $A$  and  $B$  that we must choose between

## Definition

*We say that we have a **sure preference** for  $A$  over  $B$  at future time  $t$  if we are sure now that, at time  $t$ , we will prefer  $A$  to  $B$ .*

## The Temporal Sure Preference Principle

*If we have a sure preference for  $A$  over  $B$  at  $t$ , then we should not have a preference for  $B$  over  $A$  now*

# Interpreting our modelling judgements

- Let our quantities of interest be vector  $y$  with relevant data  $z$ .
- Define our current modelling judgements as the set  $J_0$ 
  - Form of prior and likelihood
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  - Computational methods
- **We do not need to believe all of the probability statements implied by  $J_0$**
- We view  $J_0$  as “representative enough” of the structure of the problem and any scientific judgements that we do hold so that we view  $E[y|z; J_0]$  as *informative* for our posterior prevision for  $y$ .
- $J_0$  will not be unique.

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- Or in ways that are subtle so that we would still view the analysis as informative for  $y$ .
- For example, certain prior choices made for convenience (e.g. conjugacy) may be reconsidered here.
- Consider a finite (for now) set of alternative judgements  $J_1, \dots, J_k$  that we view as potentially informative for our prevision for  $y$  if we were to conduct the Bayesian analysis under each and compute  $E[y|z; J_i]$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .
- What does the existence of alternative judgements imply for our uncertainty?

# Interpretation

- There is no need to posit a true but unknown judgement set  $J^*$ .
- Could any expert have infinite resolution and own all of  $J^*$ ?
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# Interpretation

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- Could any expert have infinite resolution and own all of  $J^*$ ?
- If so, and we just don't have enough time to elicit it, is this useful?
- Our view is that an expert can hold previsions for a small set of key quantities ( $y$ ) and that a Bayesian analysis under any  $J_0, J_1, \dots, J_k$  is informative, in some way, for that prevision.
- This view uses probability in two ways:
  1. What we actually believe: our previsions.
  2. A rich and powerful modelling language for transforming judgements into previsions.



# Posterior belief assessment

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- However, is there some vector valued function  $\Gamma(z)$  so that

$$E [(y_i - \Gamma_i(z))^2] \leq E [(y_i - E [y_i|z; J_0])^2]?$$

## Posterior belief assessment

Define  $\mathcal{G}$  to be the vector

$(E[y|z; J_0], E[y|z; J_1], \dots, E[y|z; J_k]) = (\mathcal{G}_1, \dots, \mathcal{G}_{k+1})$ . Let  $\mathcal{G}_0$  be the unit constant.

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### Theorem

Let

$$E_{\mathcal{G}}[y] = E[y] + \text{Cov}[y, \mathcal{G}] \text{Var}[\mathcal{G}]^{-1} (\mathcal{G} - E[\mathcal{G}]). \quad (1)$$

Then

(i)  $E_{\mathcal{G}}[y]$  is at least as close to  $y$  as  $E[y|z; J_0]$ . Equivalently, for each  $i$ ,

$$E[(y_i - E_{\mathcal{G}}[y_i])^2] \leq E[(y_i - E[y_i|z; J_0])^2].$$

where  $E_{\mathcal{G}}[y_i]$  is the  $i$ th component of  $E_{\mathcal{G}}[y]$ .

(ii)  $E_{\mathcal{G}}[y]$  is at least as close to  $P_t(y)$  as  $E[y|z; J_0]$ . Equivalently, for each  $i$ ,

$$E[(P_t(y_i) - E_{\mathcal{G}}[y_i])^2] \leq E[(P_t(y_i) - E[y_i|z; J_0])^2].$$

# An algorithm for computing Posterior belief assessments

- Assume we can elicit  $E[y]$ ,  $\text{Var}[y]$  and  $E[z|\hat{y}]$ ,  $\text{Var}[z|\hat{y}]$

**Step 1** Sample a value  $\hat{y}$  and  $\hat{z}$  from  $(E[y], \text{Var}[y])$  and  $(E[z|\hat{y}], \text{Var}[z|\hat{y}])$  respectively.

**Step 2** Use the full Bayes machinery to compute each  $E[y|\hat{z}; J_0]$ ,  $E[y|\hat{z}; J_1], \dots$ , and use them to form  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ .

**Step 3** Repeat this process to obtain a large number,  $N$ , of sample pairs  $(\hat{y}_1, \hat{\mathcal{G}}_1), \dots, (\hat{y}_N, \hat{\mathcal{G}}_N)$ .

**Step 4** Assess  $E[\mathcal{G}]$ ,  $\text{Var}[\mathcal{G}]$  and  $\text{Cov}[y, \mathcal{G}]$  by computing the sample means and variances of the  $\hat{\mathcal{G}}$ s and their covariance with the  $\hat{y}$ s.

# Coexchangeable classes and posterior belief assessment

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- Running a large number of alternative Bayesian analyses (say by MCMC) may be computationally challenging or infeasible.
- We collect judgements  $J_1, J_2, \dots$  into classes  $C_1, \dots, C_k$  so that we judge each collection  $E[y|z; J_{[C]1}] , E[y|z; J_{[C]2}] , E[y|z; J_{[C]3}] , \dots$  to be infinite **second order exchangeable**.

## Co-exchangeable classes of exchangeable judgements

$X_1, X_2, X_3 \dots$  are second order exchangeable if

$$E[X_i] = \mu; \quad \text{Var}[X_i] = \Sigma \quad \forall i; \quad \text{Cov}[X_i, X_j] = \Gamma \quad \forall i \neq j.$$

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Also, for an infinite second order exchangeable collection we have

$$X_j = \mathcal{M}(X) + \mathcal{R}_j(X)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} E[\mathcal{M}(X)] &= \mu; & \text{Var}[\mathcal{M}(X)] &= \Gamma; \\ E[\mathcal{R}_j(X)] &= 0; & \text{Var}[\mathcal{R}_j(X)] &= \Sigma - \Gamma; \\ \text{Cov}[\mathcal{M}(X), \mathcal{R}_j(X)] &= \text{Cov}[\mathcal{R}_j(X), \mathcal{R}_k(X)] = 0 & \forall j, k \neq j \end{aligned}$$

# Co-exchangeable classes of exchangeable judgements

- Further, if we are willing to impose exchangeability on each class, it is quite natural to impose co-exchangeability between the classes.
- Co-exchangeability implies

$$\text{Cov} [E [y|z; J_{[C_k]}i] , E [y|z; J_{[C_l]}j]] = \Sigma_{kl} \quad \forall i, j.$$

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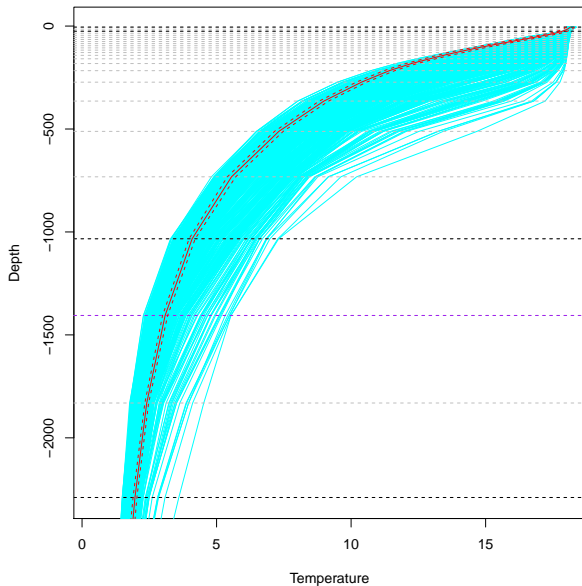
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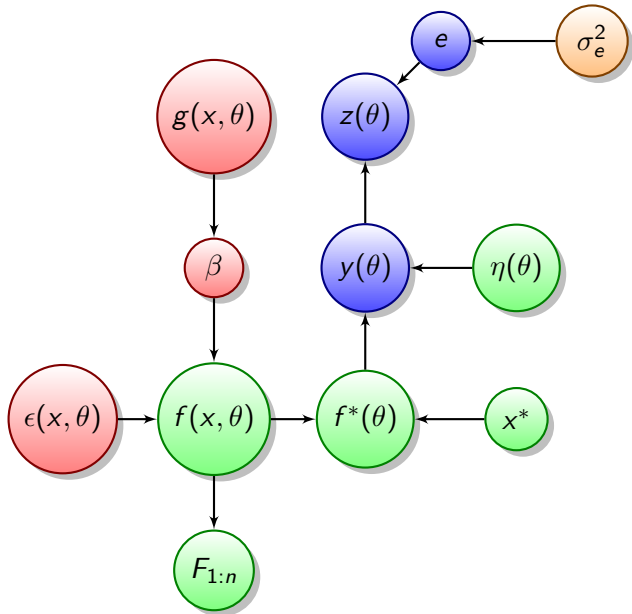
- We now have a rich structure from which we can make inferences.
- In particular, if we can list all of the classes,  $C_1, \dots, C_k$ , we can design a handful of extra Bayesian analyses to run under judgements  $J_{[C_{l(1)}]j(1)}, \dots, J_{[C_{l(n)}]j(n)}$ .
- We can then use  $\mathbb{E} \left[ y|z; J_{[C_{l(1)}]j(1)} \right], \dots, \mathbb{E} \left[ y|z; J_{[C_{l(n)}]j(n)} \right]$  to make inference about the conditional expectations output from any alternative Bayesian analysis under different judgements.

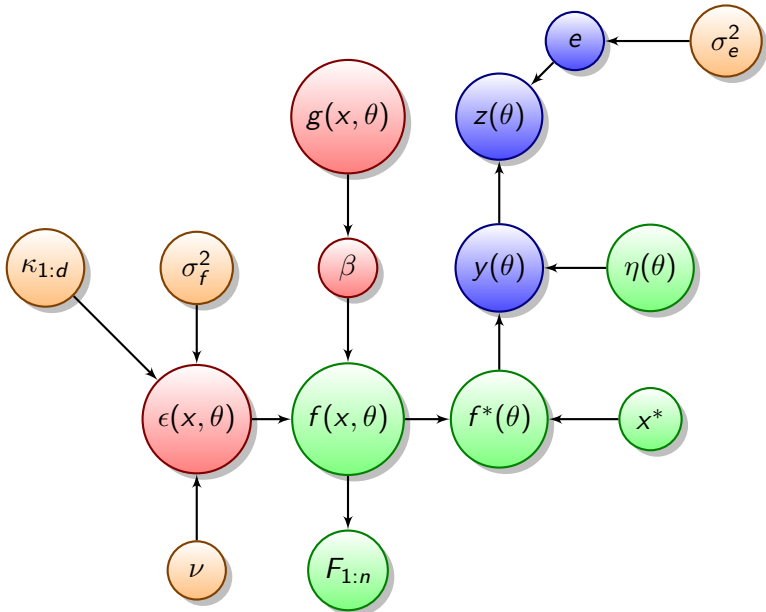
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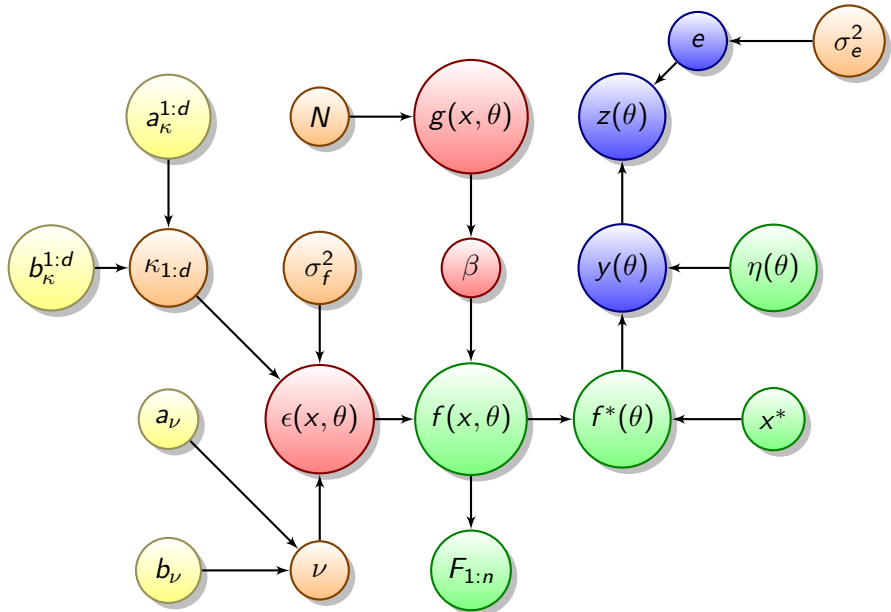


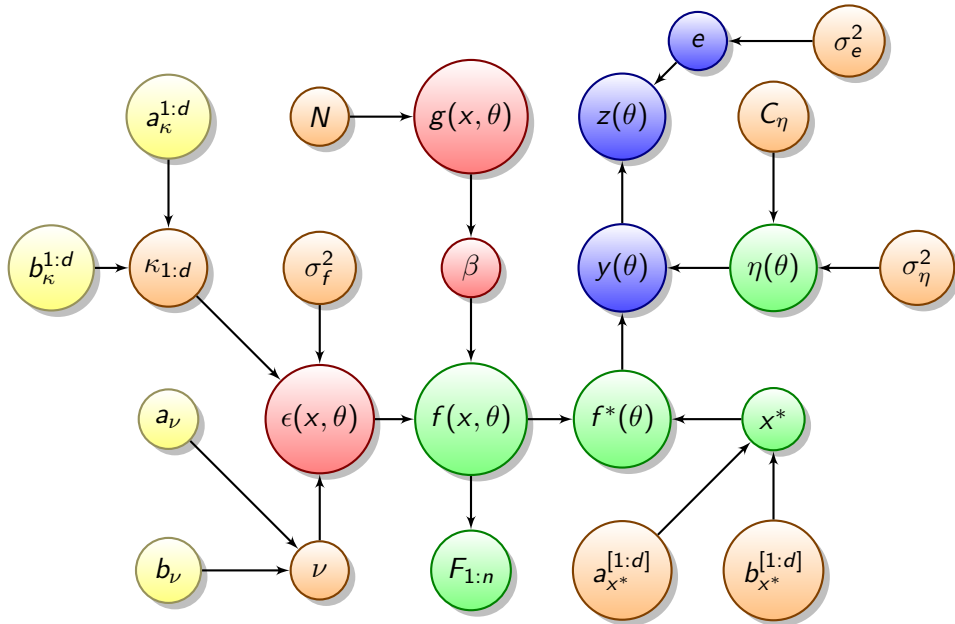
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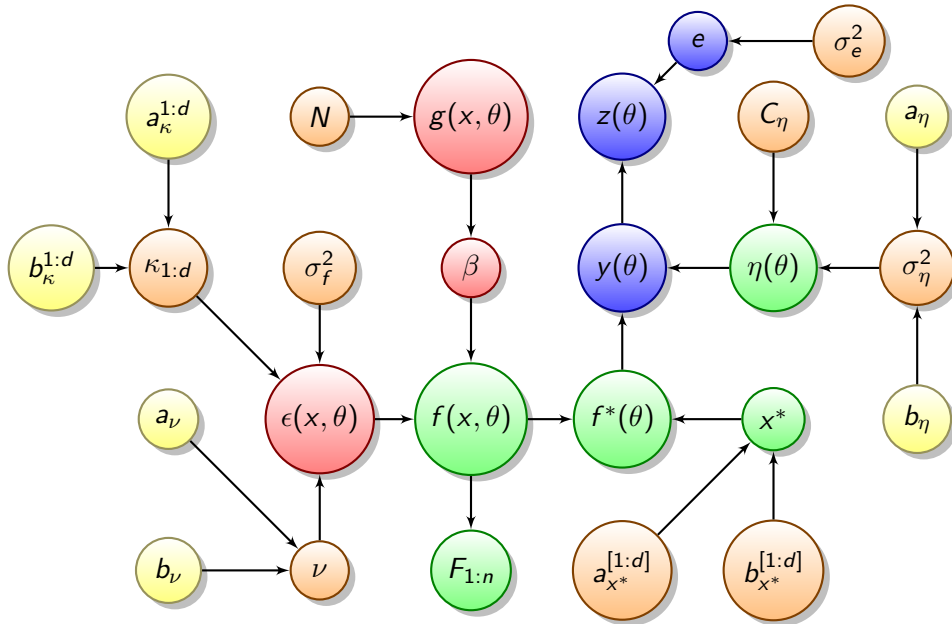












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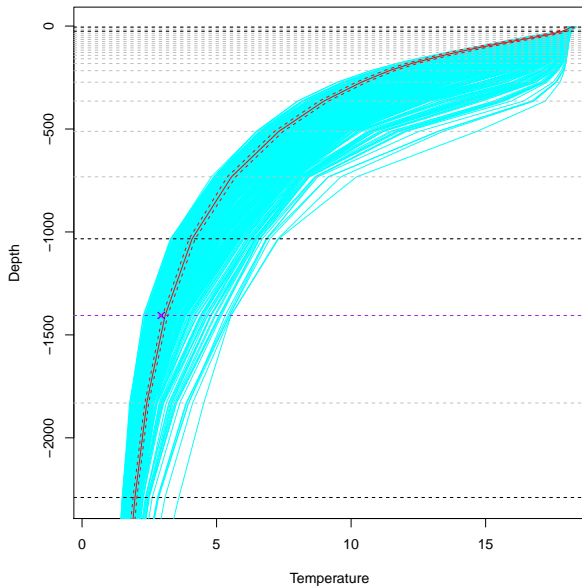
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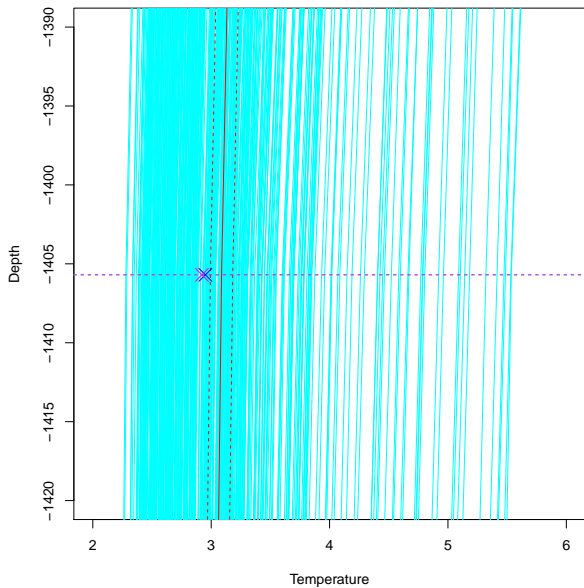
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- We used our algorithm to get all of the required quantities to do the PBA
- $E[y|z; J_0] = 2.951^\circ\text{C}$ .  $E_{\mathcal{G}}[y] = 2.921^\circ\text{C}$ .
- The uncertainty reduction achieved through completing here was at least 14%.

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- We contend that this will never be true for complex problems.
- We argued that we are only interested in a handful of posterior expectations and that alternative representations of our judgements exist to help us get to these.

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- We used Bayesian analyses under alternative judgements to derive posterior belief assessments,  $E_G[y]$ , that we proved were closer to posterior prevision than our original analysis.
- We used exchangeability to allow us to perform a small set of further Bayesian analyses that allowed us to compute  $E_G[y]$ .



Williamson, D. Goldstein M. (2015),

*Posterior belief assessment: extracting meaningful subjective judgements from Bayesian analyses with complex statistical models*,  
**Bayesian Analysis**, To Appear (December Issue).

# Bayesian model averaging (BMA)

- Put a probability distribution over an alternative set of models  $M_1, \dots, M_n$
- Then, for some real world quantity  $y$ , given data  $D$ ,

$$p(y|D) = \int p(y|D, M)p(M|D)dM$$

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- BMA suffers all of the same issues as the original analysis!
  - How do we elicit  $p(M)$  and what would it mean? Is there a true model?
  - If  $p(M)$  can't be owned, how do we extract meaning?
  - How do we avoid the infinite regress (alternative versions of our distribution over the models)?