

Introduction to Bayes Linear Statistics

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- In this methodology, our uncertainty about any quantities of interest is quantified by **probability distributions**
- Our updated beliefs about the quantity of interest, θ , given the data, D , are then obtained via application of **Bayes Theorem**:

$$p(\theta|D) = \frac{p(D|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(D)}$$

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- These first three elements are the heart of Bayesian inference, which can be remembered as

$$\text{Posterior} \propto \text{Likelihood} \times \text{Prior}$$

Some interesting questions

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- When the prior and likelihood have specific forms, then this posterior can be found analytically (conjugacy)
 - Are those distributions really REALLY conjugate, or are they just convenient?
- In all other cases, we must rely on intensive computational methods to arrive a distribution for $p(\theta|D)$
 - If we don't completely believe our prior specification, what faith should we have in this posterior?

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- In higher-dimensions the likelihood surface can be very complicated, making full Bayes calculations potentially highly non-robust.
- Therefore if we are unable to make and analyse full prior probability specifications, we require methods based around simpler belief specifications

Expectation as Primitive

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- [de Finetti](#) spent most of his life studying subjective conceptions of probability.
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- We construct partial belief specifications using only **means**, **variances** and **covariances** for all uncertain quantities
- We may view the Bayes linear approach as
 - Offering a **simple approximation** to a full Bayes analysis
 - **Complementary** to the full Bayes approach, offering new interpretative and diagnostic tools
 - A **generalisation** of the full Bayes approach where we lift the restriction of requiring a full probabilistic prior before we may learn anything from data

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- **Diagnostic tools** are an important part of the approach
 - How prior beliefs affect conclusions
 - How beliefs change by the adjustment
 - How beliefs about observables compare to the observations themselves

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- Important special cases - **multivariate Gaussian**

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- However, as we consider expectation as primitive we make our belief specifications in terms of the low-order moments of the random quantities of interest.
- (If we have beliefs about higher orders we can include these in the analysis too)
- For example, say we are interested in predicting $B = (B_1, B_2)^T$ from knowledge of $D = (D_1, D_2)^T$ which we will measure soon, then all we need to specify are $E(B)$, $E(D)$, $\text{Var}(B)$, $\text{Var}(D)$ and $\text{Cov}(B, D)$.

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 $F = (B_1, B_2, D_1, D_2)^T$
- We observe values of $D = (D_1, D_2)^T$, and want to analyse the effects on our beliefs about B
- We have a very simple prior specification:

$$E(F)_i = 0, \quad \text{Var}(F)_{ii} = 100,$$

and we have a correlation structure as follows

	B_1	B_2	D_1	D_2
B_1	1.00	0.56	0.52	0.61
B_2	0.56	1.00	0.32	0.98
D_1	0.52	0.32	1.00	0.28
D_2	0.61	0.98	0.28	1.00

Stages of belief analysis

A typical Bayes linear analysis of beliefs proceeds in the following stages:

- 1 **Specification** of prior beliefs
- 2 Interpret the expected adjustments **a priori**
- 3 Given observations, perform and interpret the **adjustments**
- 4 Make **diagnostic comparisons** between actual and expected beliefs

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- We look among the collection of **linear estimates**, i.e. those of form $c_0 + c_1 D_1 + c_2 D_2$, and choose constants c_0, c_1, c_2 to minimise the prior expected squared error loss in estimating each of B_1 and B_2 :

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- The choices of constants may be easily computed, and the estimators $E_D(B) = (E_D(B_1), E_D(B_2))^T$ turn out to be given by:

$$E_D(B) = E(B) + \text{Cov}(B, D) \text{Var}(D)^{\dagger} (D - E(D)).$$

which we refer to as the **adjusted expectation** for collection B given collection D .

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- We can partition the vector B as the sum of two uncorrelated vectors:

$$B = E_D(B) + \mathbb{A}_B(D),$$

Adjusted variance

- We partition the variance matrix of B into two variance components:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(B) &= \text{Var}(E_D(B)) + \text{Var}(\mathbb{A}_B(D)) \\ &= \text{RVar}_D(B) + \text{Var}_D(B)\end{aligned}$$

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- The variance matrices are calculated as

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- Our variance matrices must be non-negative definite.
- We use the Moore-Penrose generalized inverse (A^\dagger) to allow for degeneracy.

Resolution

- We summarize the expected effect of the data D for the adjustment of B by a scale-free measure which we call the **resolution** of B induced by D ,

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- Similar in spirit to an R^2 measure for the adjustment.

Example: The Adjustment

- We can calculate our adjusted expectations for points B given D algebraically as:

$$E_D(B_1) = 0.381D_1 + 0.507D_2 + 0$$

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- We see that B_2 is mainly determined by the value of D_2 – unsurprising given the strength of $\text{Corr}(B_2, D_2)$.
- We can also calculate the adjusted variance and resolutions

$$\text{Var}_D(B) = \begin{pmatrix} 49.06 & -5.83 \\ -5.83 & 4.64 \end{pmatrix}, \quad R_D(B) = \begin{pmatrix} 0.509 \\ 0.954 \end{pmatrix}$$

- We can see that we resolve much of the uncertainty about B_2

Example: Variance Partition

- We can decompose the prior variance into its resolved and unresolved portions:

$$\text{Var}(B) = \text{RVar}_D(B) + \text{Var}_D(B)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 100.00 & 55.71 \\ 55.71 & 100 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 50.94 & 61.54 \\ 61.54 & 95.36 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 49.06 & -5.83 \\ -5.83 & 4.64 \end{pmatrix}$$

The observed adjustment

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- B_1 is weakly correlated with D and so is adjusted only a little, whereas B_2 is strongly correlated to D_2 and so its expectation shifts substantially towards the value $d_2 = 10$

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Interpretations of belief adjustment

■ An approximation

- If we're fully Bayesian, then adjusted expectation is a tractable linear approximation to the full Bayes conditional expectation
- Adjusted variance is then an easily-computable upper bound on the full Bayes preposterior risk, under quadratic loss

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- Adjusted variance is then the mean-squared error of the estimator $E_D(B)$

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■ A primitive

- Adjusted expectation is a primitive quantification of further aspects of our beliefs about B having 'accounted for' D
- Adjusted variance is also a primitive, but applied to the 'residual variance' in B having removed the effects of D

Conditional Expectation

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- Adjusted expectation does not require D to be a partition, and so can be considered as a generalization of conditional expectation

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- So by specifying $E(B)$ and $\text{Var}(B)$ we have **implicitly specified** expectations and variances for all elements of $\langle B \rangle$
- Similarly, by calculating $E_D(B)$ and $\text{Var}_D(B)$, we have **implicitly calculated the adjustment** for all $X \in \langle B \rangle$

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- The Bayes linear methodology has a rich variety of diagnostic tools available (more than in a fully Bayesian analysis).
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- Three important versions are:
 - Prior Diagnostics.
 - Adjustment Diagnostics.
 - Final Observation Diagnostics.

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- If we observe that quantity, we may compare **what we expect to happen** with **what actually happens**.
- Once we observe the values of $D = d$, we can check whether the data is **consistent** with our prior specifications.
- For a single random quantity, we can calculate the **standardized change** and the **discrepancy**:

$$S(d_i) = \frac{d_i - E(D_i)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(D_i)}}, \quad \text{Dis}(d) = \frac{[d_i - E(D_i)]^2}{\text{Var}(D_i)} = S(d_i)^2$$

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- Once we observe the values of $D = d$, we can check whether the data is **consistent** with our prior specifications.
- For a single random quantity, we can calculate the **standardized change** and the **discrepancy**:

$$S(d_i) = \frac{d_i - E(D_i)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(D_i)}}, \quad \text{Dis}(d) = \frac{[d_i - E(D_i)]^2}{\text{Var}(D_i)} = S(d_i)^2$$

- $E(S(d_i)) = 0$ and $\text{Var}(S(d_i)) = 1$, so if we observe $S(d_i)$ greater than about 3 this suggests an inconsistency.

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- Large $\text{Dr}(d)$ will of course also suggest inconsistencies.

Further Topics

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- Let the normed right eigenvectors of $\mathbb{T}_{B:D}$ be v_1, \dots, v_{r_B} , ordered by eigenvalues $1 \geq \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_{r_B} \geq 0$ and scaled as $v_i^T \text{Var}(B) v_i = 1$

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- So the collection $\{Y_1, Y_2, \dots\}$ forms a **mutually uncorrelated 'grid' of directions** over $\langle B \rangle$, summarizing the effects of the adjustment.
- Y_1 is the quantity we learn most about. Y_2 is the quantity we learn next most about, given that it is uncorrelated with Y_1 .
 $Y_{\text{rk}\{B\}}$ is the quantity we learn least about.
- Relationship to canonical correlation analysis (and PCA)

Canonical properties and system resolution

- Each $X \in \langle B \rangle$ can be expressed using the canonical structure as

$$X - E(X) = \sum_i \text{Cov}(X, Y_i) Y_i,$$

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- $R_D(B)$ is a scalar summary of the **effectiveness of the adjustment** by D for the entire collection $\langle B \rangle$

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- Suppose we have already adjusted our beliefs about B given data, $H = D \cup F$
 - What were the individual effects of adjusting by D or F ?
- To answer either of these questions would require a partial analysis, where we consider the effects of subsets of the data on our beliefs

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- We evaluate **partial adjustments** which represent the change in adjustment as we accumulate data.
- Suppose we intend to adjust our beliefs about B by observations on D and F , we adjust B by $(D \cup F)$ but separate the effects of the subsets by adjusting B in stages, first by D , then adding F (or vice versa)
- How do we separate the effects of D and F on B ?

Separating things out

- If $D \perp\!\!\!\perp F$, then adjusted expectations are additive so

$$E_{D \cup F}(B - E(B)) = E_D(B - E(B)) + E_F(B - E(B))$$

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- If D and F are correlated, then we obtain a similar expression by removing the ‘common variability’ between F and D .
- For any D, F , the vectors D and $\mathbb{A}_F(D) = F - E_D(F)$ are **uncorrelated**.
- So, for any D, F

$$E_{D \cup F}(B - E(B)) = E_D(B - E(B)) + E_{\mathbb{A}_F(D)}(B - E(B))$$

The partial adjustment

- The partial adjustment of B by F given D , denoted $E_{[F/D]}(B)$, is

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- The partial resolved variance matrix of B by F given D is

$$\text{RVar}_{[F/D]}(B) = \text{Var}(E_{[F/D]}(B))$$

The end

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We have seen:

- How we represent our beliefs – using expectation as primitive
- How we would update our beliefs – the BL adjustment
- How we can investigate potential problems in our belief specification – diagnostics
- How we can understand how our beliefs are affected by the data – canonical analysis
- How we would incorporate additional information – partial analysis