

Lecture 3: January 13

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3.1 (Agresti 1.6) Bayesian Models for Proportions

3.1.1 Beta-Binomial Model

A common Bayesian model for a binomial proportion π is the beta-binomial model. Here, we assume that the prior distribution on π is

$$\pi \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2), \text{ i.e. prior density } g(\pi) \propto \pi^{\alpha_1-1}(1-\pi)^{\alpha_2-1}, 0 \leq \pi \leq 1.$$

The likelihood is given by

$$Y \mid \pi \sim \text{Binom}(n, \pi), \text{ i.e. mass function } f(y \mid \pi) = \binom{n}{y} \pi^y (1-\pi)^{n-y}, y = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Hence, the posterior distribution of π given the data has density

$$\begin{aligned} h(\pi \mid y) &\propto f(y \mid \pi)g(\pi) \\ &\propto \pi^{\alpha_1+y-1}(1-\pi)^{\alpha_2+n-y-1}, \\ \pi \mid y &\sim \text{Beta}(\alpha_1 + y, \alpha_2 + n - y). \end{aligned}$$

This is an example of **conjugacy**, i.e. a Bayesian model where the posterior distribution is in the same family as the prior.

3.1.2 Multinomial-Dirichlet Model

This is basically a generalization of the beta-binomial model from 2 categories to k categories.

The prior distribution for π is given by

$$\pi \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k), \text{ i.e. prior density } g(\pi) \propto \prod_{i=1}^k \pi^{\alpha_i-1}.$$

The likelihood is given by $Y \mid \pi \sim \text{Multinom}(n, \pi)$. Using the same technique as the previous subsection, the posterior distribution turns out to be $\pi \mid y \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1 + y_1, \dots, \alpha_k + y_k)$.

3.2 (Agresti 2.1) Contingency Tables

Say we have two categorical variables: X with I levels, and Y with J levels. A **contingency table** is simply an $I \times J$ table summary of the data, where cell (i, j) records the number of cases with explanatory variable level i and response level j .

Typically X is an explanatory variable and Y is a response variable, and we want to see if X has any effect on Y .

Some notation:

- $Y_{ij} :=$ number of observations in cell (i, j) .
- $\pi_{ij} := P\{X = i, Y = j\}$ (joint probabilities).
- $\pi_{i+} := P\{X = i\}$, $\pi_{+j} := P\{Y = j\}$ (marginal probabilities).
- $\pi_{j|i} = P\{Y = j \mid X = i\}$ (conditional probabilities).

3.2.1 Sampling Models

There are a number of ways that we could go about sampling subjects.

1. **Poisson sampling model.** Fix a λ , and let $N \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. Then, get a simple random sample of size N and check which cell of the contingency table each subject falls in.

It can be shown that $Y_{ij} \stackrel{\text{ind.}}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\lambda_{ij})$.

2. **Multinomial sampling model.** Instead of letting the sample size be Poisson-distributed, let it be some fixed number n . (Row and column counts are not fixed.) Then we have $Y \sim \text{Multinom}(n, (\pi_{ij}))$.
3. **Independent multinomial sampling model.** This can be used when either row or column totals are fixed. If row totals are fixed, then we can model the counts by $Y[i,] \sim \text{Multinom}(Y_{i+}, \pi_{\cdot|i})$. (Similar set-up if column totals are fixed).

3.2.2 (Agresti 2.2) Comparing Two Proportions

This is for the special case of the 2×2 contingency table. Say we have an explanatory variable consisting of two groups (labeled 1 or 2), and a response variable (“Yes” or “No”).

Define $\pi_1 := \theta_{Y_{es}|1}$, $\pi_2 := \theta_{Y_{es}|2}$. Then there are few different ways to measure the relationship between π_1 and π_2 :

1. **Difference of proportions** $\pi_1 - \pi_2$.
2. **Relative risk** $r := \frac{\pi_1}{\pi_2}$.
3. **Odds ratio** $\theta := \frac{\text{Odds}(\pi_1)}{\text{Odds}(\pi_2)} := \frac{\pi_1/(1 - \pi_1)}{\pi_2/(1 - \pi_2)}$.

In the Poisson and Multinomial sampling models, $\theta = 1$ is equivalent to X and Y being independent. In the independent multinomial sampling model, $\theta = 1$ and $r = 1$ individually imply that $\pi_1 = \pi_2$.

Note that when π_1 and π_2 are small, $\theta \approx r$ (known as *rare disease hypothesis*). This is important because sometimes one of them can be estimated well while the other cannot.