

STA 365: Applied Bayesian Statistics

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Week 3A: Beta/Binomial



A proper distribution whose density integrates to 1.

$$\sum_{y=0}^n \pi(Y = y \mid \theta) = 1, \quad \int \pi(\theta \mid \alpha, \beta) d\theta = 1.$$

An improper distribution whose “density” does not integrate to one (or even a finite number for that matter) over the support of its argument.

$$h(\theta) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0, \beta \rightarrow 0} \pi(\theta \mid \alpha, \beta), \quad \int h(\theta) d\theta = \infty.$$

When the posterior distribution is proper?

$$\int \pi(y \mid \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta < \infty.$$

Improper Priors

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Improper priors

Application

The Likelihood
Principle

Prediction

Prediction

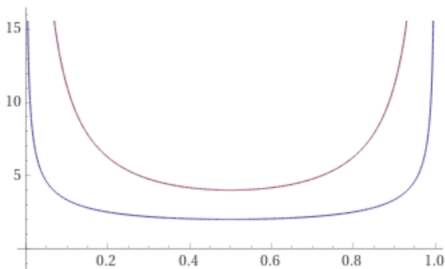
Normal Model

- If $\alpha = \beta = 1/2$, then

$$\pi(\theta) \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\theta(1-\theta)}}$$

- If $\alpha = \beta = 0$, then

$$\pi(\theta) \propto \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)}$$



Prior/Post Expectation and Variance

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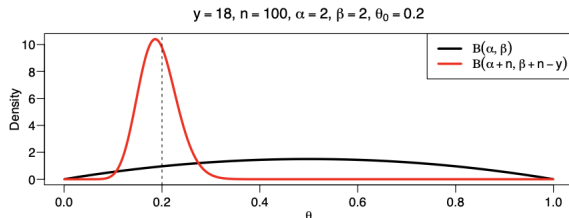
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Prior expectation is the average of the posterior expectation by *the law of iteration expectation*:

$$E(\theta) = E\{E(\theta | y)\}.$$

Posterior variance is (on average) smaller than the prior variance by *the law of total variation*:

$$\text{Var}(\theta) = E\{\text{Var}(\theta | y)\} + \text{Var}\{E(\theta | y)\}.$$

Example: Placenta Previa

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- A study was conducted in Germany of 980 births from women with placenta previa. Out of the 980 births, $y = 437$ were baby girls.
- Note: $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$ and $Y = \sum X_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$
- The established proportion of female births in the general population is 0.485.
- The scientific question of interest is whether the proportion of female births in this subpopulation is less than that in the general population.
- Let θ denote the proportion of female births.
- Assume $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(1, 1) = \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$.
- Find $\theta|y$
- Find $E(\theta|y)$
- Find 95% credible interval of $\theta|y$
- To run R code, you can log in to UofT Jupyter Hub: <http://jupyter.utoronto.ca>
- You can also execute simple commands here: <https://rdr.io/snippets/>
- Repeat the above with $\alpha = 9.7, \beta = 10.3$
- Repeat the above with $\alpha = 97, \beta = 103$
- Create a table with the prior mean, posterior mean, and credible interval

Example: Placenta Previa

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Improper priors

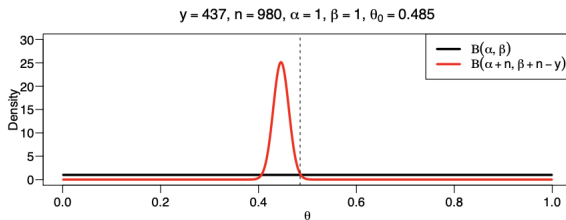
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Normal Model



$E(\theta)$	$\alpha + \beta$	$E(\theta y)$	95% Credible Interval
0.5	2	0.446	(0.415, 0.477)
0.485	2	0.446	(0.415, 0.477)
0.485	20	0.447	(0.416, 0.478)
0.485	200	0.453	(0.424, 0.481)

Note that $y/n = 0.445$.

Example: Placenta Previa

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Improper priors

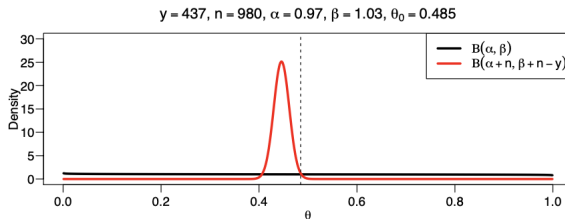
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Improper priors

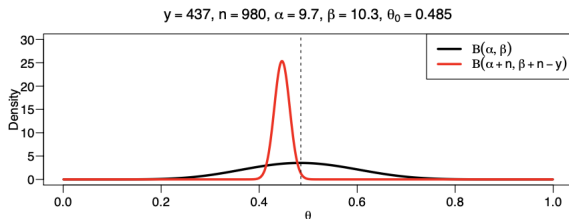
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Example: Placenta Previa

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Improper priors

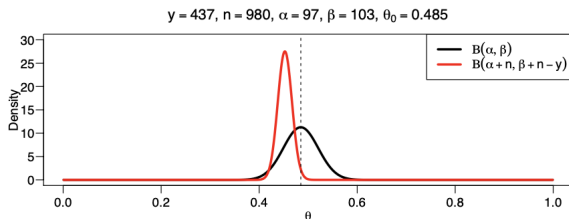
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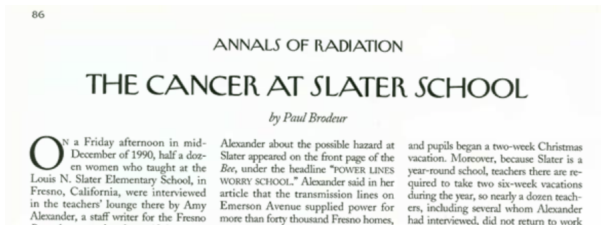
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- The Slater school is an elementary school in Fresno, California
- Teachers and staff were “concerned about the presence of two high-voltage transmission lines that ran past the school ...”
- Their concern centered on the “high incidence of cancer at Slater ...”
- To address their concern, Dr. Raymond Neutra of the California Department of Health Services’s Special Epidemiological Studies Program conducted a statistical analysis
- He found that there were 8 instances of cancer out of 145 total staff.
- He also calculated that given national rate, the average ages, the gender distribution, the expected number, or prevalence, would have been 4.2.

- Let θ be the chance of cancer (same for each employee)
- Let Y be the number of cancers out of 145 employees
- Then $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$:

$$\Pr(Y = y|\theta) = \binom{n}{y} \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y}, \quad y = 0, \dots, n$$

- In particular, $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(145, \theta)$.
- We observed: The event $\{Y = 8\}$
- According to Dr. Neutra, the expected number of cancers is 4.2. We formulate a theory (Theory A): $\theta = 4.2/145 = 0.03$
- An alternative theory (Theory B): $\theta = 0.06$.

- To compare the theories we see how well each one explains the data. That is, for each value of θ , we calculate

$$\Pr(Y = 8|\theta) = \binom{145}{8} \theta^8 (1 - \theta)^{137}$$

- $\Pr(Y = 9|\theta = 0.03) \approx 0.036$
-
- $\Pr(Y = 9|\theta = 0.06) \approx 0.136$
- Hence, the alternative theory explains the data about four times as well.

The Likelihood Principle

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Improper priors

Application

The Likelihood Principle

Prediction

Prediction

Normal Model

- $\Pr(Y = y|\theta)$ is a function of two variables, y and θ . Once $Y = 8$ has been observed, then $\Pr(Y = 8|\theta)$ describes how well each theory, or value of θ , explains the data.
- It is a function only of θ ; no value of Y other than 8 is relevant.
- Is $\Pr(Y = 9|\theta = 0.03)$ relevant? Does it describe how well theory explains the observed data?
- **The Likelihood Principle:** Once Y has been observed, say $Y = y_0$, then no other value of Y matters and we should treat $\Pr(Y = y_0|\theta)$ as a function only of θ .
- This principle is central to Bayesian thinking.

- Suppose $\Pr(\text{Theory A}) = \Pr(\text{Theory B}) = 1/2$
- Then,

$$\Pr(A|Y = 8) = \frac{\Pr(Y = 8|A) \Pr(A)}{\Pr(Y = 8|A) \Pr(A) + \Pr(Y = 8|B) \Pr(B)}$$

- This is ≈ 0.21
- What about Theory B?
- This is ≈ 0.79
- Hence, theory B is almost four times as likely after observing $Y = 8$.

Consider the hypothesis testing problem

$$H_0 : \theta = 0.03, \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : \theta > 0.03.$$

What is the p-value?

- The probability under H_0 of observing an outcome at least as extreme as the outcome actually observed.
- In the Slater problem,

$$\text{p-value} = \Pr(Y = 8 \mid \theta = 0.03) + \dots + \Pr(Y = 145 \mid \theta = 0.03) \approx 0.07$$

Why the p-value is not appropriate here?

- Hypotheses should be compared by how well they explain the data,
- the p-value does not account for how well the alternative hypotheses explain the data, and
- the summands of $\Pr(Y = 9 \mid \theta = 0.03), \dots, \Pr(Y = 145 \mid \theta = 0.03)$ are irrelevant because they do not describe how well any hypothesis explains any observed data

The p-value does not obey the Likelihood Principle!

Back to the Coin Example

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Improper priors

Application

The Likelihood
Principle

Prediction

Prediction

Normal Model

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(\theta) \text{ where } n = 12.$$

$$H_0 : \theta = 0.5$$

$$H_1 : \theta > 0.5$$

Recall that from our experiment,

$$H, T, H, H, H, H, H, T, H, H, H, T$$

$$9H, 3T$$

Need to compute the probability of observing our result, or a more extreme result, under $H_0 : \theta = 0.5$.

P-value in the Coin Example

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Application

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Principle

Prediction

Prediction

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Let $Y = \sum X_i$. Then

$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y \geq 9 | \theta = 0.5, n = 12) &= \sum_{y=9}^{12} \binom{12}{y_i} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{y_i} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{12-y_i} \\ &= \left[\binom{12}{3} + \binom{12}{2} + \binom{12}{1} + \binom{12}{0} \right] \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{12} \\ &= \frac{299}{4096} \approx 0.07 \end{aligned}$$

The result is not statistically significant.

An Unexpected Mixup

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Application

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Principle

Prediction

Prediction

Normal Model

- After you report the results back to your RA, you learn there was a mix up!
- You thought you told the RA to toss the coin 12 times.
- But your RA actually tossed it until observing 3 tails.
- As it happens, it took 12 tosses to get 3 tails.
- Should this matter? The evidence is what it is isn't it?
- But now n is random and Y is fixed.
- Thus, a result more extreme than $(9, 3)$ is no longer $(10, 2)$, $(11, 1)$, and $(12, 0)$. Rather, it is $(10, 3)$, $(11, 3)$, $(12, 3)$, and so on.
- We have to re-calculate the p -value. Thoughts on how to do this?

$$\Pr(N = n | \theta, r) = \binom{n-1}{r-1} \theta^r (1-\theta)^{n-r}$$

where r is the number of tails.

$$\begin{aligned}P(N \geq 12 | \theta = 0.5, r = 3) &= \sum_{n=12}^{\infty} \binom{n_i - 1}{r - 1} .5^r .5^{n_i - r} \\&= \sum_{n=12}^{\infty} \binom{n_i - 1}{2} .5^{n_i} \\&= 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{11} \binom{n_i - 1}{2} .5^{n_i} \\&\approx 0.03\end{aligned}$$

Now the result *is* statistically significant!

What if the RA stopped tossing the coin so that they can get a coffee?

Or to watch Narcos on Netflix?

Sometimes there are ethical reasons to stop collecting data
(HIV antiretroviral drugs, Covid-19 antiviral drugs)

- An important feature of Bayesian inference is the existence of a predictive distribution for new observations.
- Let y_1, \dots, y_n be the outcomes from a $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$ sample. And let $\tilde{Y} \in \{0, 1\}$ be an additional outcome from the same population that has yet to be observed.
- The predictive distribution of \tilde{Y} is the conditional distribution of \tilde{Y} given $\{Y_1 = y_1, \dots, Y_n = y_n\}$. For conditionally iid Bernoulli RVs this distribution can be derived from the distribution of \tilde{Y} given θ and the posterior distribution of θ .

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\tilde{Y} = 1|y_1, \dots, y_n) &= \int_0^1 \Pr(\tilde{Y} = 1, \theta|y_1, \dots, y_n) d\theta \\ &= \int_0^1 \Pr(\tilde{Y} = 1|\theta, y_1, \dots, y_n) \pi(\theta|y_1, \dots, y_n) d\theta \\ &= \int_0^1 \theta \pi(\theta|y_1, \dots, y_n) d\theta \\ &= E[\theta|y_1, \dots, y_n] = \frac{\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\alpha + \beta + n}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\rightarrow \Pr(\tilde{Y} = 0|y_1, \dots, y_n) &= 1 - E[\theta|y_1, \dots, y_n] \\ &= \frac{\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - y_i)}{\alpha + \beta + n}\end{aligned}$$

- The predictive distribution does not depend on any unknown quantities. If it did, we would not be able to use it to make predictions.
- The predictive distribution depends on observed data. Otherwise, we could never infer anything about the unsampled population from the sampled cases.
- Laplace's Rule of Succession: $(y + 1)/(n + 2)$. The predictive distribution under a uniform prior.

- Important in many statistical modeling problems
- Often useful as approximation or a component in more complicated models
- We will treat separately cases with known variance and known mean.

If \mathcal{F} is a class of sampling distributions $\pi(y | \theta)$, and \mathcal{P} is a class of prior distributions for θ , then the class \mathcal{P} is conjugate for \mathcal{F} is

$$\pi(\theta | y) \in \mathcal{P}, \text{ for all } \pi(\cdot | \theta) \in \mathcal{F} \text{ and } \pi(\cdot) \in \mathcal{P}.$$

Is beta distribution conjugate for binomial distribution?

What distributions are conjugate for normal distribution?

The natural conjugate prior families: \mathcal{P} is the set of all densities having the same functional form as the likelihood.

Normal Model: Unknown Mean, Known Variance

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The Likelihood
Principle

Prediction

Prediction

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- Suppose $x_i | \mu \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known. Let $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$.
- What is the likelihood?

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x | \mu, \sigma^2) &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \right] \\ &\propto \exp \left[-(\sigma^2)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

- What is the natural conjugate prior?
- Goal: pick a prior that has the same functional form as the likelihood, then derive the posterior and evaluate whether it too will have the same functional form.
- Expanding the quadratic term in the exponent, we see that $\pi(x_1, \dots, x_n | \mu, \sigma^2)$ depends on x_1, \dots, x_n through:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2 \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n \frac{\mu^2}{\sigma^2}$$

- We simplify this and isolate μ on the next slide.

Unknown mean, known variance

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Principle

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- Write the likelihood as follows:

$$\pi(x|\mu) \propto \exp \left[A\mu^2 + B\mu + C \right]$$

- Note that:

$$A = -n(2\sigma^2)^{-1}$$

$$B = \sigma^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$C = -(2\sigma^2)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

- To specify natural conjugate prior, set

$$\pi(\mu) \propto \exp \left[a^* \mu^2 + b^* \mu + c^* \right] = \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2\tau_0^2} (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \right]$$

- This implies that $\mu \sim N(\mu_0, \tau_0^2)$ with hyperparameters μ_0 and τ_0^2 .
- Now: if $\pi(\mu|\sigma^2) \sim N$ and $x_1, \dots, x_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is $\pi(\mu|x_1, \dots, x_n, \sigma^2)$ also normal?