Lab: Giving a good estimate for p = p(H)

This lab, worth 15 points, is due on Friday, November 15 in class.

Tabulated in the table to the right are some data based on flipping an unfair coin where p = p(H) is the probability that Heads was flipped.

Sample size	Number H
10	1
100	16
1000	207
n	n_1

THE Frequentist APPROACH

1.	Give the best approximation to p you	can for ϵ	each of	the four	sample sizes.	Then	briefly	explain	why	this	is
	the 'frequentist' approach and which e	stimate c	of p vou	believe t	to be the mos	t accur	rate.				

THE **Bayesian** APPROACH: Now you will give a Bayesian posterior estimate for p. This will be a density function for the random variable p. The next questions will step you through this.

2. Preliminary: Maximizing a function of the form $y = x^m(1-x)^n$ on the interval [0,1] when m, n > 1.

The quick way to maximize this function is to take its log and since $\log(y)$ is an increasing function, the value of x that maximizes $\log(y)$ is the same value that maximizes y. (Indeed, you know that y has a global maximum on [0,1] by our study of Beta-distributed random variables so just finding critical points should be enough.) For starters, the value(s) of x that maximizes $y = x^m(1-x)^n$ is the same as the x that maximizes $\log(y) = \log(x^m(1-x)^n) = m\log(x) + n\log(1-x)$. Find the maximizer x of function y above in terms of m and n. (This is a Calculus I problem, find the critical points, etc.) Store this information away in your brain for use multiple times in the next problem.

The maximizer is x =

3. If the sample size is n, then Y: number of H in n coin tosses is modeled by a binomial random variable $Y \sim \text{Binom}(n,p)$. Letting n_1 denote the number of H in n tosses and n_2 the number of T (so that $n_1 + n_2 = n$), then the likelihood function $L(p \mid \text{data}) = L(p \mid n_1, n_2) = P(\text{data} \mid p)$ is

$$L(p \mid n_1, n_2) = \binom{n}{n_1} p^{n_1} (1-p)^{n_2},$$

and the Likelihood function is proportional to $L(p \mid \text{data}) \propto p^{n_1}(1-p)^{n_2}$.

Stating Bayes' Rule in this context we have

$$P(p \mid \text{data}) = \frac{L(p \mid \text{data}) \pi(p)}{P(\text{data})}$$

where the constituent parts are indicated in the following color-coded equation.

The first simplification we will make is that the posterior probability of p, informally 'the posterior', is a **density** function. In particular, if we can find a formula $\varphi(p)$ for the posterior $P(p \mid \text{data})$ that is correct up to a normalizing constant, then we can find the posterior exactly by integrating $\varphi(p)$ over the support $p \in [0,1]$ to find the posterior. That is, simply divide (or multiply) $\varphi(p)$ by an appropriate normalizing constant to get the posterior distribution for p.

To this end, the posterior of p is proportional to $\varphi(p)$, the product of the likelihood $L(p \mid \text{data})$ and the prior $\pi(p)$ via

$$P(p \mid \text{data}) \propto \varphi(p) = p^{n_1} (1 - p)^{n_2} \pi(p).$$

Your goal is to find 1) the formula for the posterior distribution $P(p \mid \text{data})$; 2) plot the posterior density; and 3) find the mode of the posterior density for each of the three sample sizes n = 1,100,1000 and for two choices of prior $\pi(p) \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$ and $\pi(p) \sim \text{Beta}(2,8)$. Then you will comment on your findings. To be clear, there are **SIX** posterior probabilities you are finding, one for each choice of sample size and prior.

SOLUTIONS

Below are the formulas and plots of the posterior probability densities, labelled by the choice of sample size and prior.

1. Sample size n = 10 and $\pi(p) \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ so that $\pi(p) = 1$ on [0, 1].

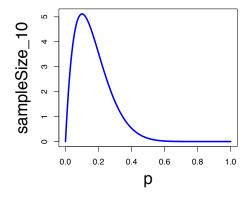
A quick calculation shows that the posterior density is proportional to

$$P(p \mid n_1 = 1) \propto \varphi(p) = p^1 (1-p)^9 \cdot 1 = p (1-p)^9 \text{ for } 0 \le p \le 1.$$

Thus, φ is, up to a constant, $\varphi(p) \sim \text{Beta}(2, 10)$ and we compute that multiplying by $C = 1/\text{Beta}(2, 10) = \frac{\Gamma(12)}{\Gamma(2)\Gamma(10)} = 11 \cdot 10 = 110$ will give us total probability 1. (The 110 is the reciprocal of the normalizing constant since we multiply by it, instead of dividing.) Putting this together, we find that the posterior is

$$P(p \mid n_1 = 1) = 110 p (1 - p)^9 \text{ for } 0$$

whose graph is shown below.



The global maximum of the posterior occurs at p = .1 and values of p around that value are also highly likely to be close to the true value of p.

2. Sample size n=100 and $\pi(p)\sim \mathrm{Unif}(0,1)$ so that $\pi(p)=1$ on [0,1].

3. Sample size n=1000 and $\boldsymbol{\pi}(p)\sim \mathrm{Unif}(0,1)$ so that $\boldsymbol{\pi}(p)=1$ on [0,1].

4. Sample size n=10 and $\pi(p)\sim \mathrm{Beta}(2,8)$ so that $\pi(p)=$ ______ on [0,1].

5. Sample size n=100 and $\pi(p)\sim \mathrm{Beta}(2,8)$ so that $\pi(p)=$ ______ on [0,1].

6. Sample size n=1000 and $\pi(p)\sim \mathrm{Beta}(2,8)$ so that $\pi(p)=$ ______ on [0,1].

7. Commentary: What do you notice about the posteriors as the sample size $n \to \infty$? Do you prefer a uniform prior or a beta prior? Why? What do you think about the Frequentist approach versus the Bayesian one? What have you learned?