

# One Parameter Models

**Professor Rodrigo Targino**

# Announcements

- Reading: Chapter 2 and 3, Bayes Rules

# Bayesian Inference

- In frequentist inference,  $\theta$  is treated as a fixed unknown constant
- In Bayesian inference,  $\theta$  is treated as a random variable
- Need to specify a model for the joint distribution
$$p(y, \theta) = p(y \mid \theta)p(\theta)$$

# Setup

- The *sample space*  $\mathcal{Y}$  is the set of all possible datasets. We observe one dataset  $y$  from which we hope to learn about the world.
  - $Y$  is a random variable,  $y$  is a realization of that random variable
- The *parameter space*  $\Theta$  is the set of all possible parameter values  $\theta$ 
  - $\theta$  encodes the population characteristics that we want to learn about!

# Bayesian Inference in a Nutshell

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2. Our *sampling model*  $p(y \mid \theta)$  describes our belief about what data we are likely to observe when the true population parameter is  $\theta$ .
3. Once we actually observe data,  $y$ , we update our beliefs about  $\theta$  by computing *the posterior distribution*  $p(\theta \mid y)$ . We do this with Bayes' rule!

# Bayes' Rule

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(B \mid A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- $P(A \mid B)$  is the conditional probability of A given B
- $P(B \mid A)$  is the conditional probability of B given A
- $P(A)$  and  $P(B)$  are called the marginal probability of A and B (unconditional)



# Bayes' Rule for Bayesian Statistics

$$P(\theta \mid y) = \frac{P(y \mid \theta)P(\theta)}{P(y)}$$

- $P(\theta \mid y)$  is the posterior distribution
- $L(\theta) \propto P(y \mid \theta)$  is the likelihood
- $P(\theta)$  is the prior distribution
- $P(y) = \int_{\Theta} p(y \mid \tilde{\theta})p(\tilde{\theta})d\tilde{\theta}$  is the model evidence

# Computing the Posterior Distribution

$$\begin{aligned}P(\theta \mid y) &= \frac{P(y \mid \theta)P(\theta)}{P(y)} \\&\propto P(y \mid \theta)P(\theta) \\&\propto L(\theta)P(\theta)\end{aligned}$$

- Start with a subjective belief (prior)
- Update it with evidence from data (likelihood)
- Summarize what you learn (posterior)

**The posterior is proportional to the likelihood times the prior!**

# Bayesian vs Frequentist

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- In frequentist inference, unknown parameters treated as constants
  - Estimators are random (due to sampling variability)
  - Asks: what would I expect to see if I repeated the experiment?"
- In Bayesian inference, unknown parameters are random variables.
  - Need to specify a prior distribution for  $\theta$  (not easy)
  - Asks: "what do I *believe* are plausible values for the unknown parameters given the data?"
  - Who cares what might have happened, focus on what *did* happen by conditioning on observed data.

# **Example: estimating shooting skill in basketball**

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- On November 18, 2017, an NBA basketball player, Robert Covington, had made 49 out of 100 three point shot attempts.
- At that time, his three point field goal percentage, 0.49, was the best in the league and would have ranked in the top ten all time
- How can we estimate his true shooting skill?
  - Think of "true shooting skill" as the fraction he would make if he took infinitely many shots

# Example: estimating shooting skill in basketball

- Assume every shot is independent (reasonable) and identically distributed (less reasonable?)
- Let  $Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, \theta)$  where  $\theta$  corresponds to his true skill
- Frequentist inference tells us that the maximum likelihood estimate is simply  $\frac{y}{n} = 49/100 = 0.49$
- What would our estimates be if we use Bayesian inference?
  - What properties do we want for our prior distribution?



# Cromwell's Rule

The use of priors placing a probability of 0 or 1 on events should be avoided except where those events are excluded by logical impossibility.

If a prior places probabilities of 0 or 1 on an event, then no amount of data can update that prior.

I beseech [beg] you, in the bowels of Christ, think it possible that you may be mistaken.

--- Oliver Cromwell

# Cromwell's Rule

Leave a little probability for the moon being made of green cheese; it can be as small as 1 in a million, but have it there since otherwise an army of astronauts returning with samples of the said cheese will leave you unmoved.

--- Dennis Lindley (1991)

If  $p(\theta = a) = 0$  for a value of  $a$ , then the posterior distribution is always zero, regardless of what the data says

$$p(\theta = a|y) \propto p(y|\theta = a)p(\theta = a) = 0$$

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- Frequentist inference tells us that the maximum likelihood estimate is simply  $\frac{y}{n} = 49/100 = 0.49$
- What would our estimates be if we use Bayesian inference?
  - If our prior reflects "complete ignorance" about basketball?
  - What if we want to incorporate prior domain knowledge?

# The Binomial Model

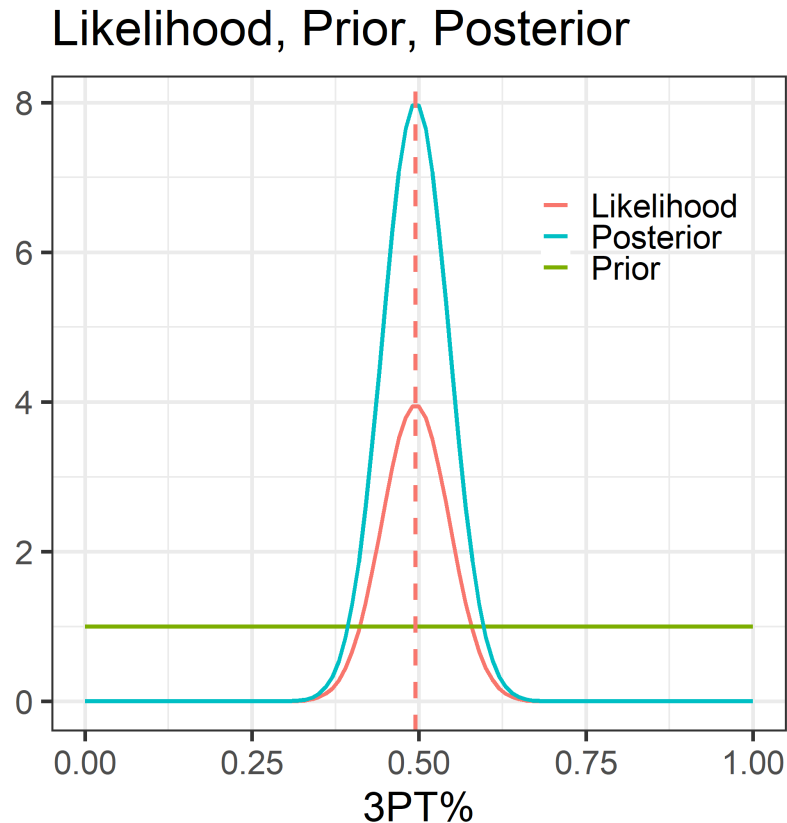
- The uniform prior:  $p(\theta) = \text{Unif}(0, 1) = \mathbf{1}\{\theta \in [0, 1]\}$ 
  - A "non-informative" prior
- Posterior:  $p(\theta \mid y) \propto \underbrace{\theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y}}_{\text{likelihood}} \times \underbrace{\mathbf{1}\{\theta \in [0, 1]\}}_{\text{prior}}$
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- The above posterior density is is a density over  $\theta$ .
- $p(\theta \mid y) \sim \text{Beta}(y + 1, n - y + 1) = \frac{\Gamma(n)}{\Gamma(n-y)\Gamma(y)} \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y}$

# Example: estimating shooting skill in basketball

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## Warning: Using `size` aesthetic for lines was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.  
## i Please use `linewidth` instead.
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Posterior is proportional to the likelihood

# Summarizing Posterior Results

- An entire distribution describes our beliefs about the value for  $\theta$ . How can we summarize these beliefs?

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  - $E[\theta \mid y] = \int_{\Theta} \theta p(\theta \mid y) d\theta$  (the posterior mean)
  - $\arg \max p(\theta \mid y)$  (*maximum a posteriori* estimate)



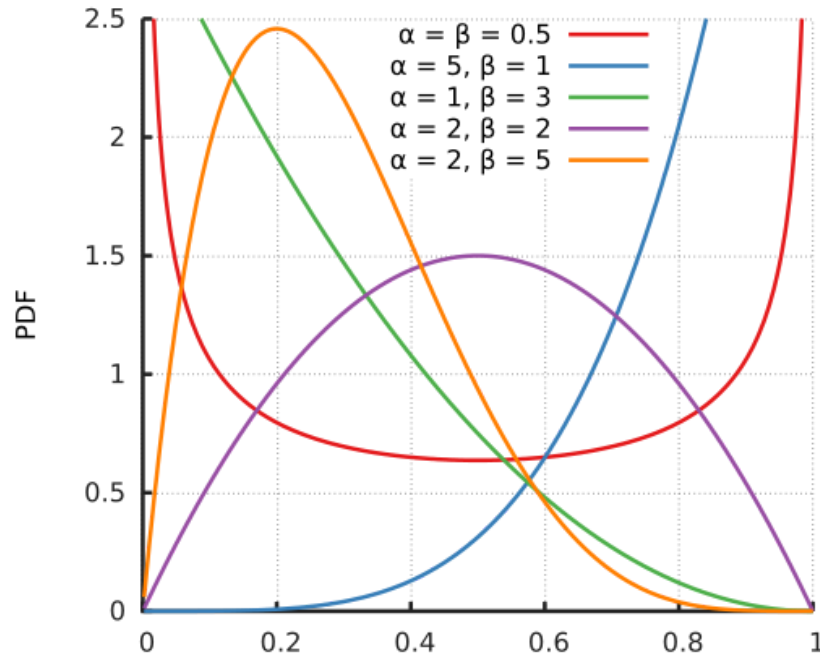
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- Posterior variance:  $\text{Var}[\theta | y] = \int_{\Theta} (\theta - E[\theta | y])^2 p(\theta | y) d\theta$
- Posterior credible intervals: for any region  $R(y)$  of the parameter space compute the probability that  $\theta$  is in that region:  $p(\theta \in R(y))$

# Beta Distributions



$$\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1}$$

# Summarizing Posterior Results

- $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1}$
- The mean of a  $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  distribution r.v.  $\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}$
- The mode of a  $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  distributed r.v. is  $\frac{\alpha-1}{\alpha+\beta-2}$
- The variance of a  $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  r.v. is  $\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$
- In R: `dbeta`, `rbeta`, `pbeta`, `qbeta`

# Informative prior distributions

- At that time, his three point field goal percentage, 0.49, was the best in the league and would have ranked in the top ten all time
- It seems very unlikely that this level of skill would continue for an entire season of play.
- A uniform prior distribution doesn't reflect our known beliefs. We need to choose a more *informative* prior distribution

# Informative prior distributions

- When  $p(\theta) \sim U(0, 1)$  then the posterior was a Beta distribution
- Remember: the binomial likelihood is  $L(\theta) \propto \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y}$
- Choose a prior with a similar looking form:  $p(\theta) \propto \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1}$

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- Then  $p(\theta \mid y) \propto \theta^{y+\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{n-y+\beta-1}$  is a  $\text{Beta}(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta)$
- For the binomial model, a beta prior distribution implies a beta posterior distribution!
- The family of Beta distributions is called a **conjugate prior** distribution for the binomial likelihood.

# Conjugate Prior Distributions

**Definition:** A class of prior distributions,  $\mathcal{P}$  for  $\theta$  is called *conjugate* for a sampling model  $p(Y|\theta)$  if  $p(\theta) \in \mathcal{P} \implies p(\theta|y) \in \mathcal{P}$



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- Conjugate priors are very convenient because they make calculations easy
- The parameters for conjugate prior distribution have nice interpretations
- Note: convenience is not correctness. Best to choose prior distributions that reflect your true knowledge / experience, not convenience. We'll return to this later.

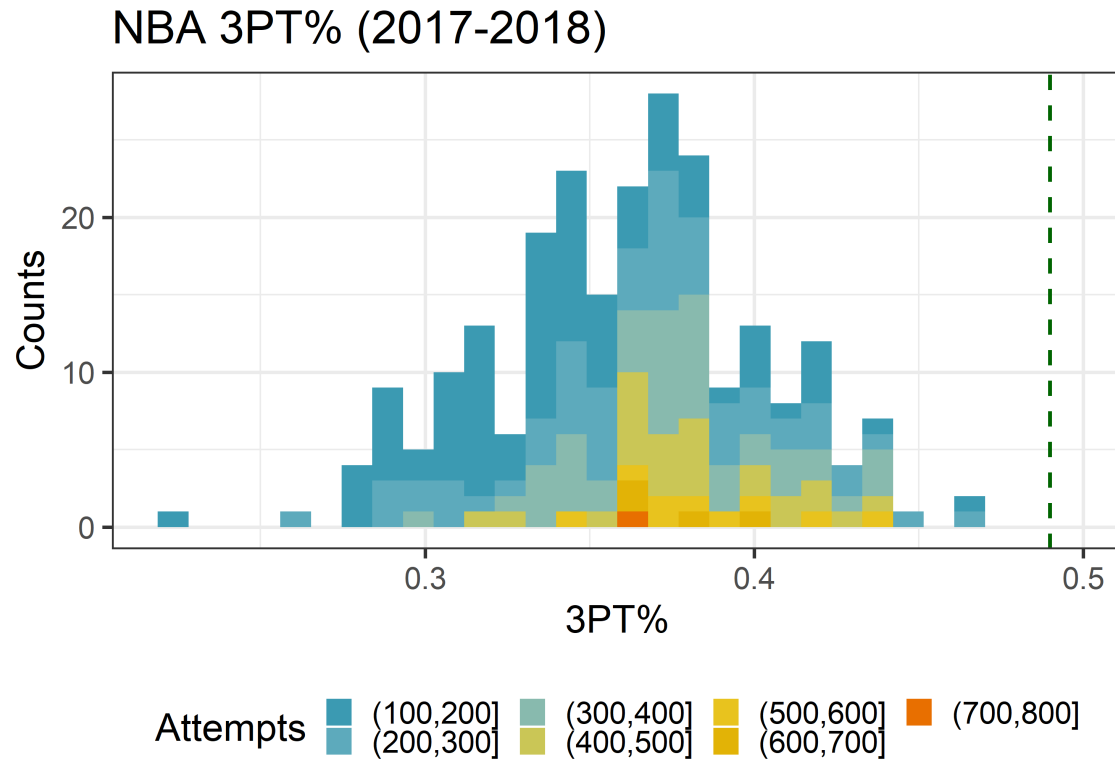
# Pseudo-Counts Interpretation

- Observe  $y$  successes,  $n - y$  failures
- If  $p(\theta) \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  then  $p(\theta \mid y) = \text{Beta}(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta)$
- What is  $E[\theta \mid y]$ ?

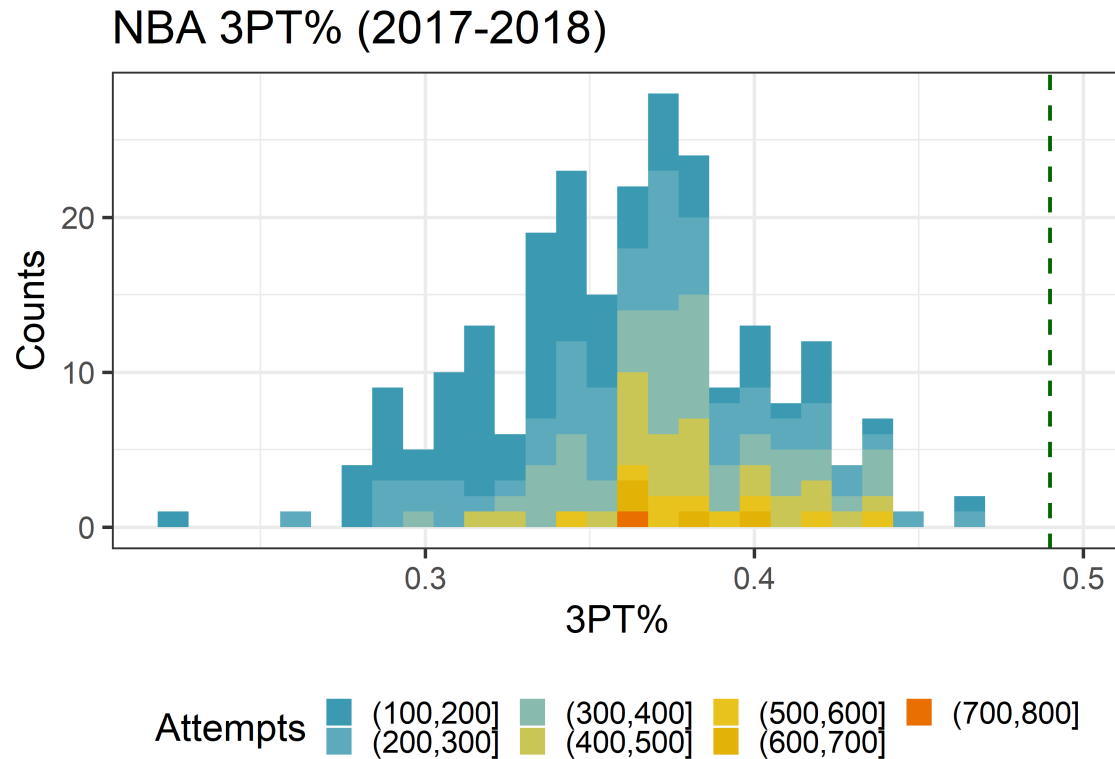
# Example: estimating shooting skill in basketball

- On November 18, 2017, an NBA basketball player, Robert Covington, had made 49 out of 100 three point shot attempts.
- At that time, his three point field goal percentage, 0.49, was the best in the league and would have ranked in the 10 ten all time
- Prior knowledge tells us it is unlikely this will continue!
- How can we use Bayesian inference to better estimate his true skill?

# Three point shooting in 2017-2018



# Three point shooting in 2017-2018



Regression Toward the Mean

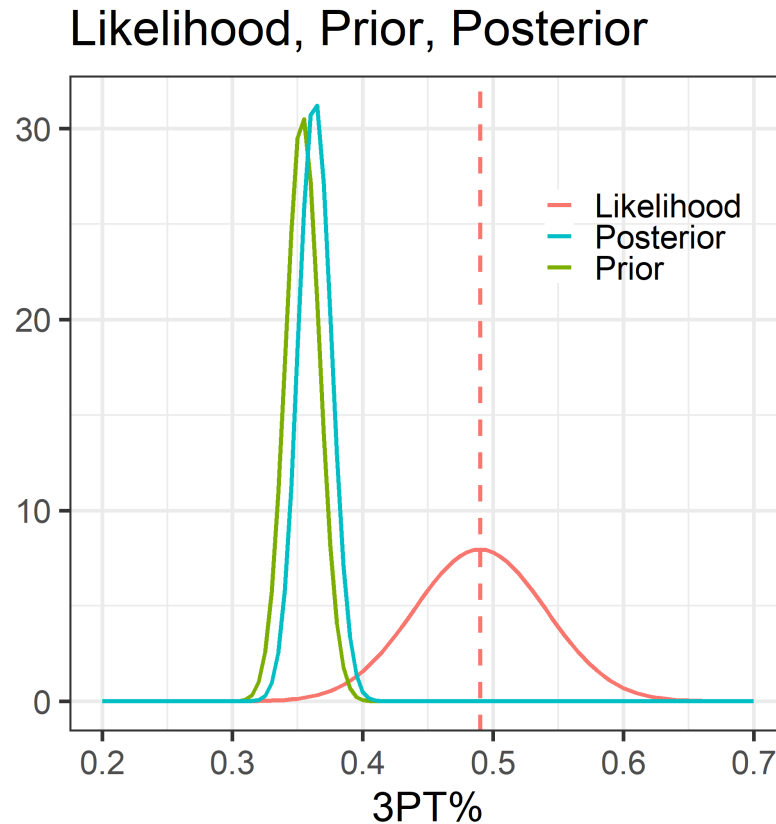


# What is a reasonable model?

- If we believe that his skill doesn't change much year to year, use past data to inform prior
- In his first 4 seasons combined Robert Covington made a total of 478 out of 1351 three point shots (0.35%, just below average).
- Choose a  $\text{Beta}(478, 873)$  prior (pseudo-count interpretation)

# R. Covington 2017-2018 estimates

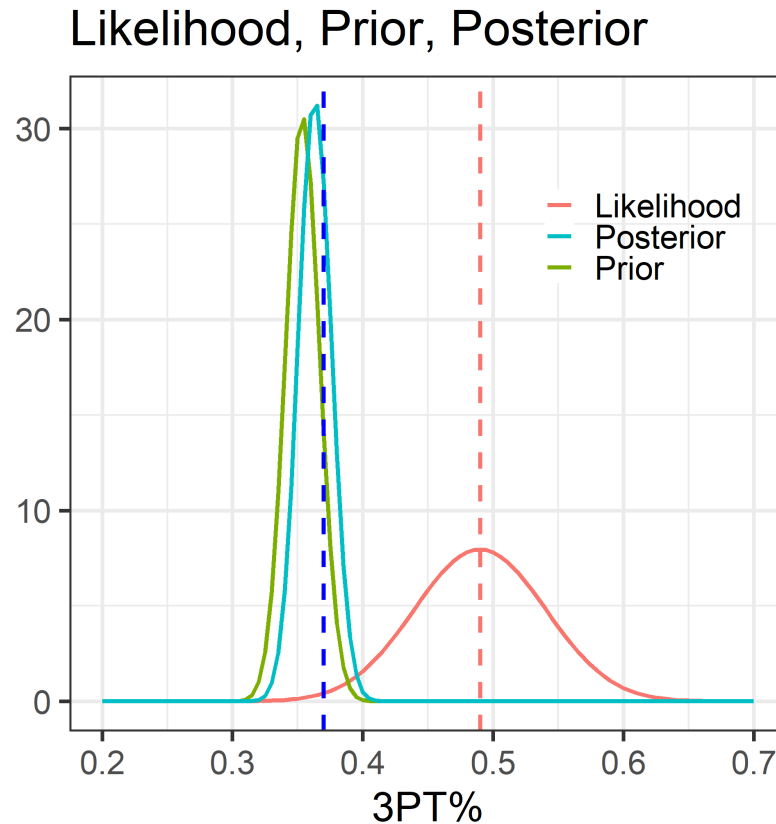
After 100 shots Robert Covington's 3PT% was 0.49



MLE = 0.49, posterior mean = 0.36

# How did we do?

Robert Covington's end of season 3PT% was 0.37



MLE = 0.49, posterior mean = 0.36

# The Poisson Distribution

- A useful model for count data
- Events occur independently at some rate  $\lambda$
- Mean = variance =  $\lambda$ .
- Example applications:
  - Epidemiology (disease incidence)
  - Astronomy (e.g. the number of meteorites entering the solar system each year)
  - The number of patients entering the emergency room
  - The number of times a neuron in the brain "fires"

# Poisson model

Assume  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  are  $n$  i.i.d. observations from a  $\text{Pois}(\lambda)$

# Poisson model with exposure

- Often times we include an "exposure" term in the Poisson model:

$$p(y_i \mid \nu_i \lambda) = (\nu_i \lambda)^{y_i} e^{-\nu_i \lambda} / y_i!$$

- How many cars do we expect to pass an intersection in one hour?  
How many in two hours?
  - If we model the distribution as Poisson, we expect twice as many in two hours as in one hours.
- Homework: exposure is the length of the chapter

# Poisson model example

- In a particular county 3 people out of a population of 100,000 died of asthma
- Assume a Poisson sampling model with rate  $\lambda$  (units are rate of deaths per 100,000 people)
- How do we specify a prior distribution for  $\lambda$ ?
- How would our Bayesian estimate for  $\lambda$  differ?

# Conjugate Prior for the Poisson Distribution

Assume  $n$  i.i.d observations of a  $\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$

$$\begin{aligned} p(\lambda \mid y_1, \dots, y_n) &\propto L(\lambda) \times p(\lambda) \\ &\propto \lambda^{\sum y_i} e^{-n\lambda} \times p(\lambda) \end{aligned}$$

- A prior distribution for  $\lambda$  should have support on  $\mathbb{R}^+$ , the positive real line
- Bayesian definition of sufficiency:  $p(\lambda \mid s, y_1, \dots, y_n) = p(\lambda \mid s)$ 
  - For the Poisson,  $\sum y_i$  is sufficient
- Can we find a density of the form  $p(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{k_1} e^{k_2 \lambda}$ ?



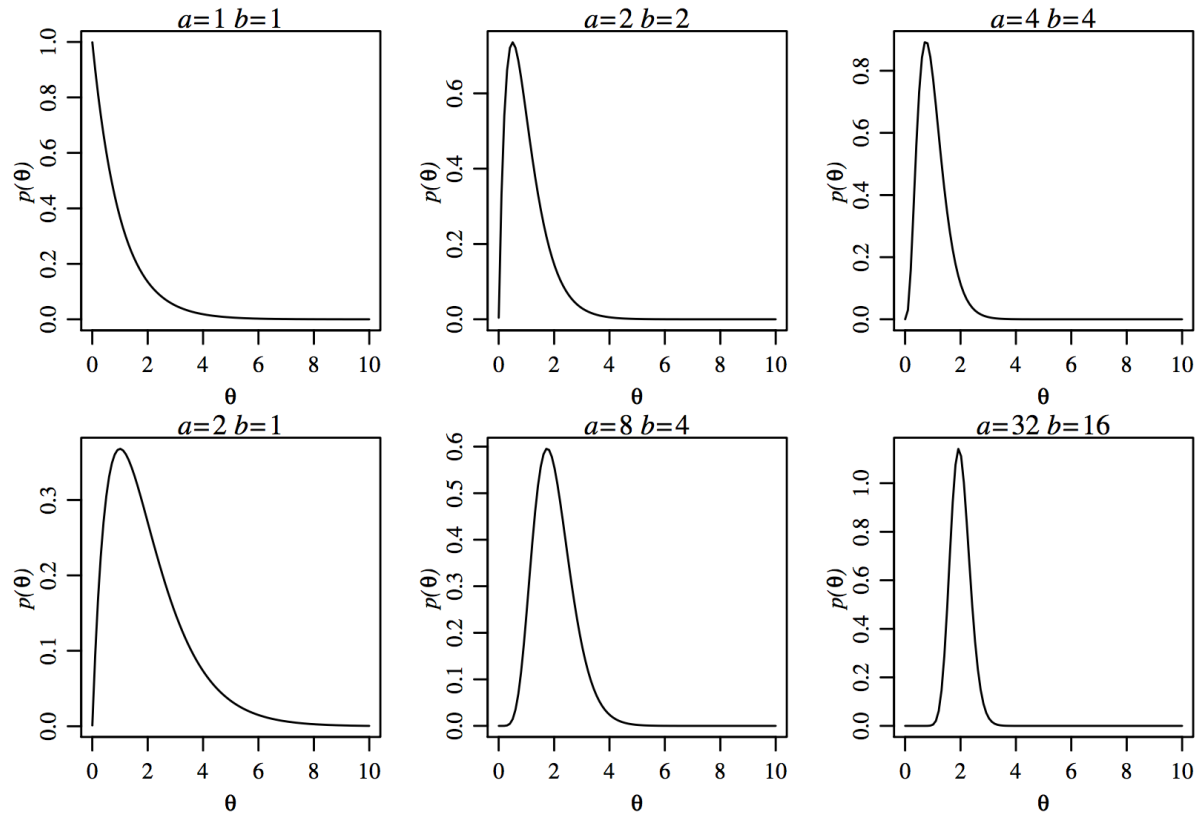
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- Can we find a density of the form  $p(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{k_1} e^{k_2 \lambda}$ ?
- $\text{Gamma}(a, b) = \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{a-1} e^{-b\lambda}$

# The Gamma distribution



**Fig. 3.8.** Gamma densities.

# The Gamma distribution

Useful properties of the Gamma distribution:

- $E[\lambda] = a/b$
- $\text{Var}[\lambda] = a/b^2$
- $\text{mode}[\lambda] = (a - 1)/b$  if  $a > 1$ , 0 otherwise
- In R: `dgamma`, `rgamma`, `pgamma`, `qgamma`

# The posterior in the Poisson-Gamma model

Assume one observation with  $y_i \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda\nu_i)$  where  $\nu_i$  is the exposure

$$\begin{aligned} p(\lambda \mid y_i) &\propto L(\lambda) \times p(\lambda) \\ &\propto (\lambda\nu_i)^{y_i} e^{-\lambda\nu_i} \times \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{a-1} e^{-b\lambda} \\ &\propto (\lambda)^{y_i+a-1} e^{-(b+\nu_i)\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

$$p(\lambda \mid y, a, b) = \text{Gamma}(y_i + a, b + \nu_i)$$

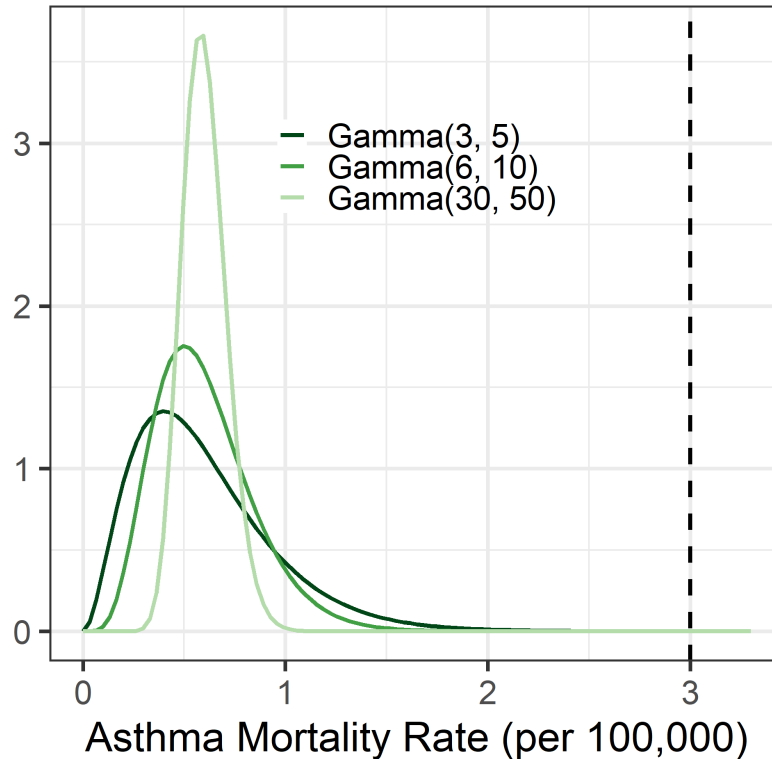
What is the posterior distribution for  $n$  observations,  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ , with exposures  $\nu_1 \dots \nu_n$ ?

# Poisson model example

- In a particular county 3 people out of a population of 100,000 died of asthma
- Assume a Poisson sampling model with rate  $\lambda$ 
  - Units are rate of deaths per 100,000 people/year
- Experts know that typical rates of asthma mortality in the US are closer to 0.6 per 100,000
- Let's choose a Gamma distribution with a mean of 0.6 and appropriate uncertainty.

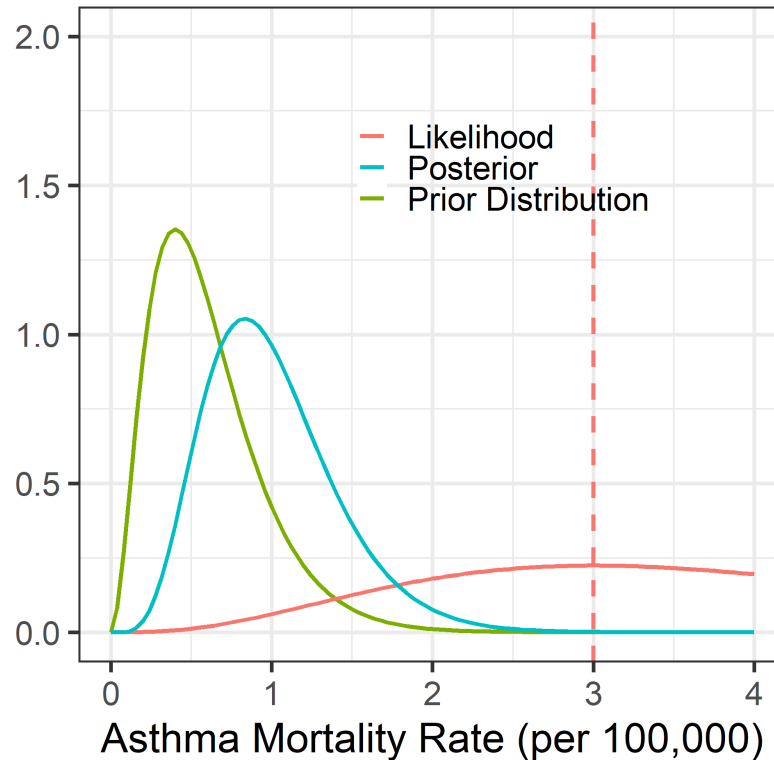
# Possible Gamma prior distributions

Some prior distributions



# Asthma Mortality

Likelihood, Prior and Posterior



Using Gamma(3, 5) prior distribution

# The posterior mean

$$\begin{aligned} E[\lambda \mid y_1, \dots, y_n] &= \frac{a + \sum y_i}{b + n} \\ &= \frac{b}{b + n} \frac{a}{b} + \frac{n}{b + n} \frac{\sum y_i}{n} \\ &= (1 - w) \frac{a}{b} + w \hat{\lambda}_{\text{MLE}} \end{aligned}$$

- $w \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (data dominates prior)
- $b$  can be interpreted as the number of *prior* observations
  - Analogous to  $n$  or total prior exposure
- $a$  can be interpreted as the sum of the counts from prior total exposure of  $b$ 
  - Analogous to  $\sum_i y_i$



# Asthma Mortality

- Suppose that nine additional years of data are obtained for the city
- The mortality rate of 3 per 100,000 is maintained: we find  $y = 30$  deaths over 10 years.
- How has the posterior distribution changed?

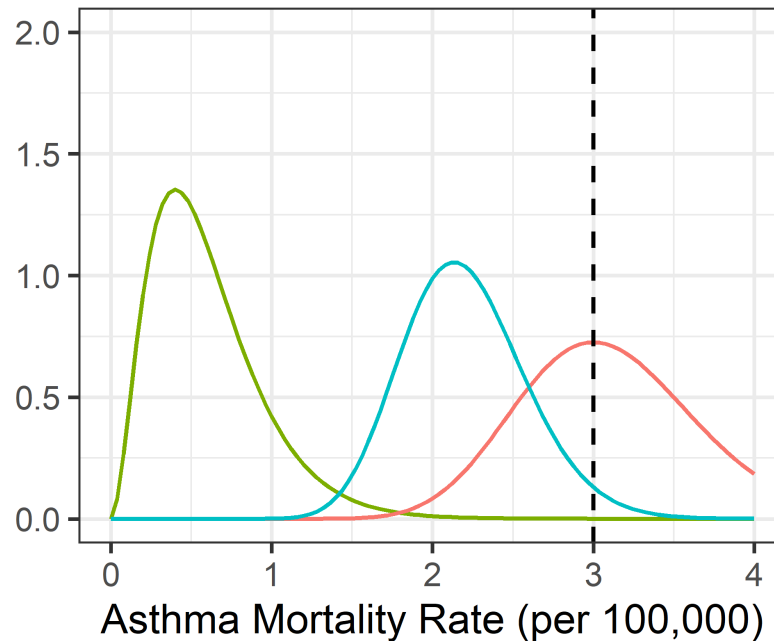
# Asthma Mortality

- Suppose that nine additional years of data are obtained for the city
- The mortality rate of 3 per 100,000 is maintained: we find  $y = 30$  deaths over 10 years.
- How has the posterior distribution changed?
- Two related approaches: use "all at once approach" or assume "Bayesian updating"

# Asthma Mortality ("All At Once" Approach)

## Likelihood, Prior and Posterior

— Likelihood — Posterior — Prior Distribution



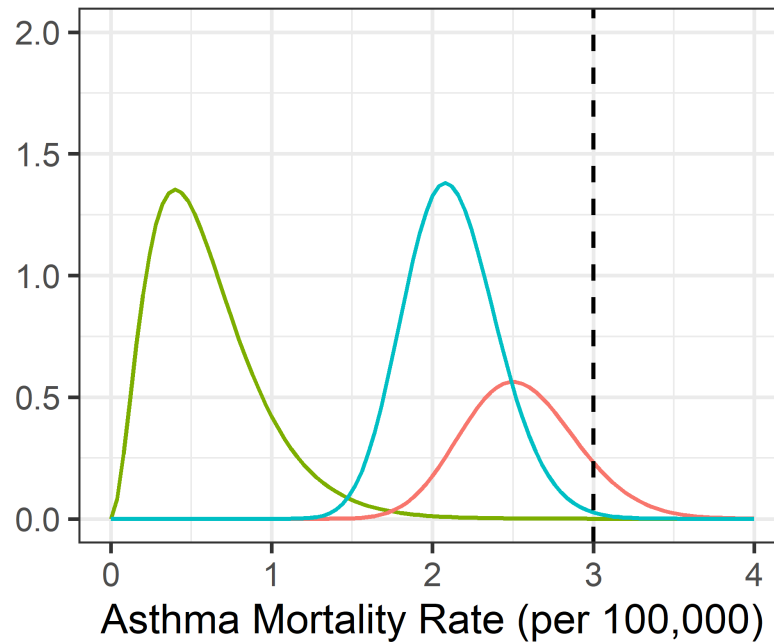
Using  $\text{Gamma}(3, 5)$  prior distribution

# Asthma Mortality ("All At Once" Approach)

After 20 years we've see 50 deaths...

## Likelihood, Prior and Posterior

— Likelihood — Posterior — Prior Distribution

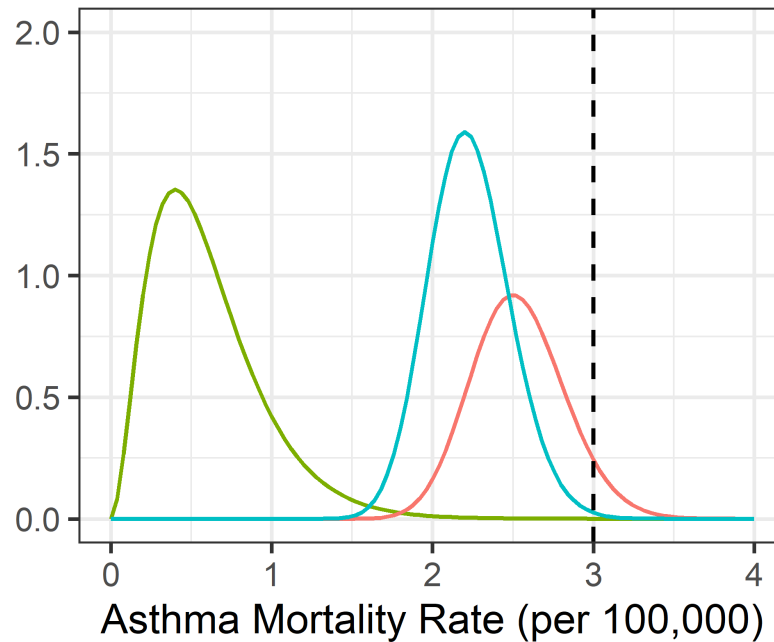


# Asthma Mortality ("All At Once" Approach)

After 30 years we've see 75 deaths...

## Likelihood, Prior and Posterior

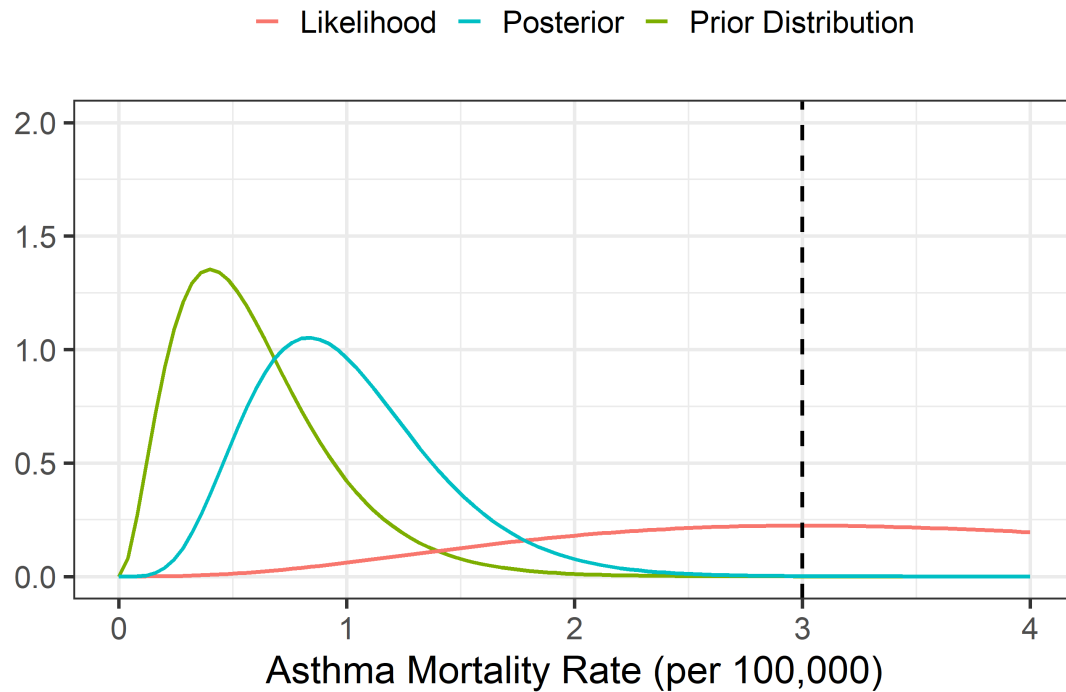
— Likelihood — Posterior — Prior Distribution



# Asthma Mortality (Updating)

Perspective of continuous "updating" of the posterior distribution

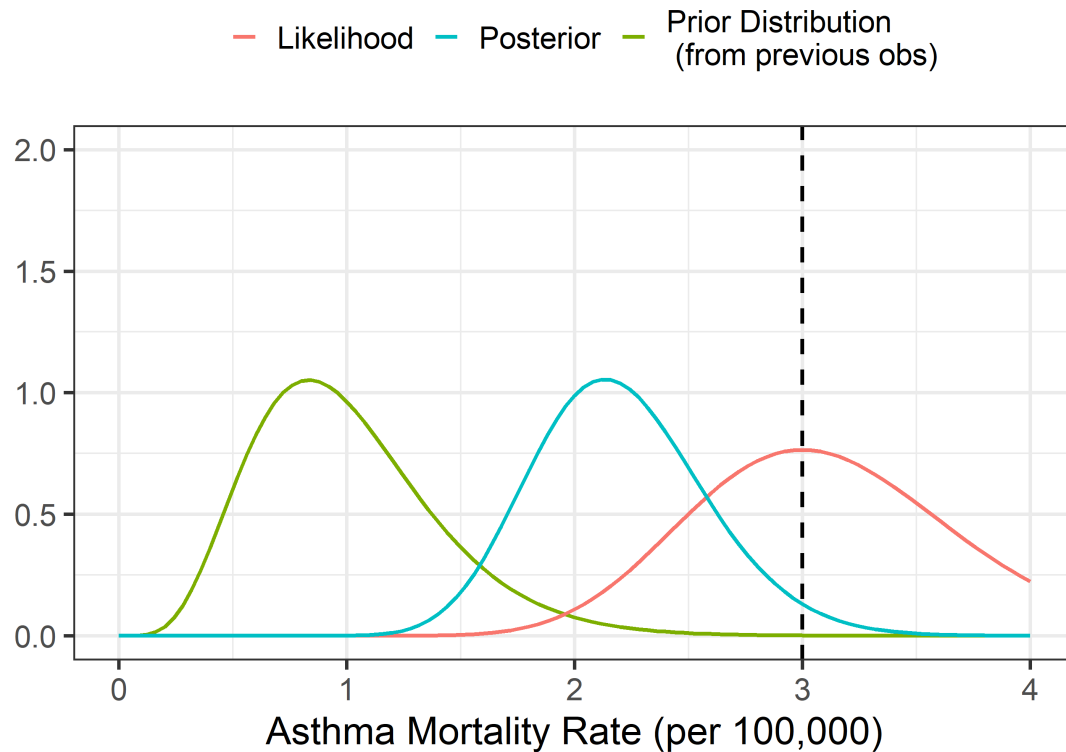
3 deaths in year 1



# Asthma Mortality (Continuous Updating)

Prior mean, previous data  $(3+3)/(5+1) = 1$

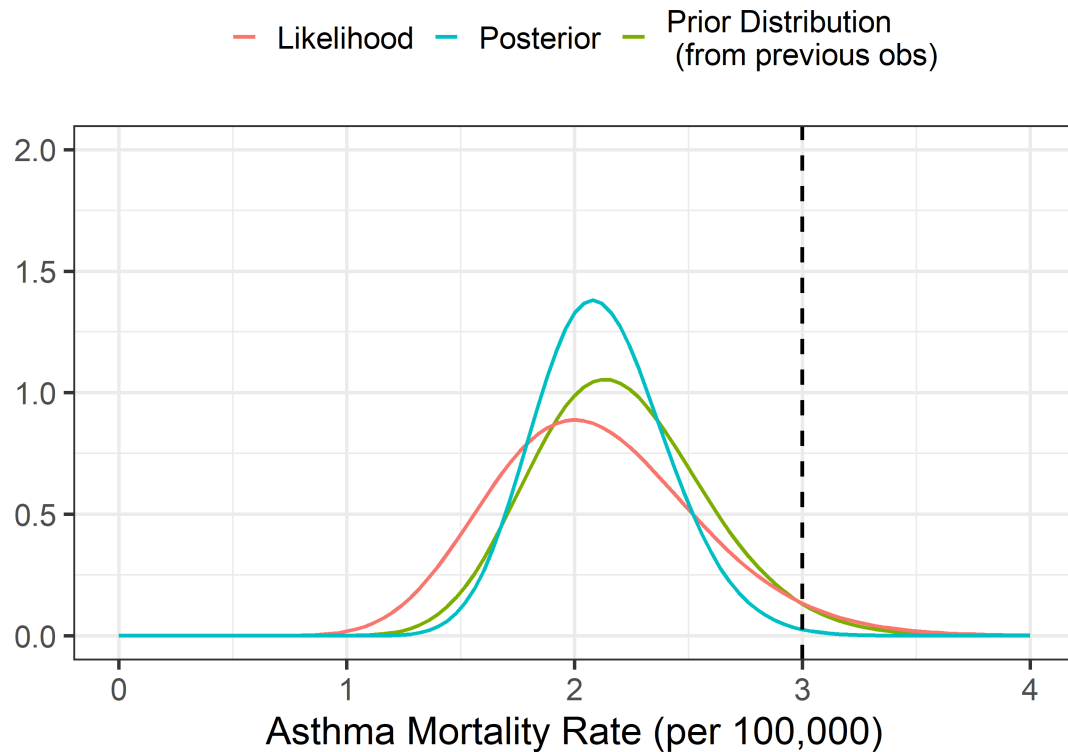
New data: 27 deaths in 9 more years,  $27/9 = 3$



# Asthma Mortality (Continuous Updating)

New prior" mean  $33/15 = 2.2$

New data, 20 deaths in 10 more years  $20/10 = 2$

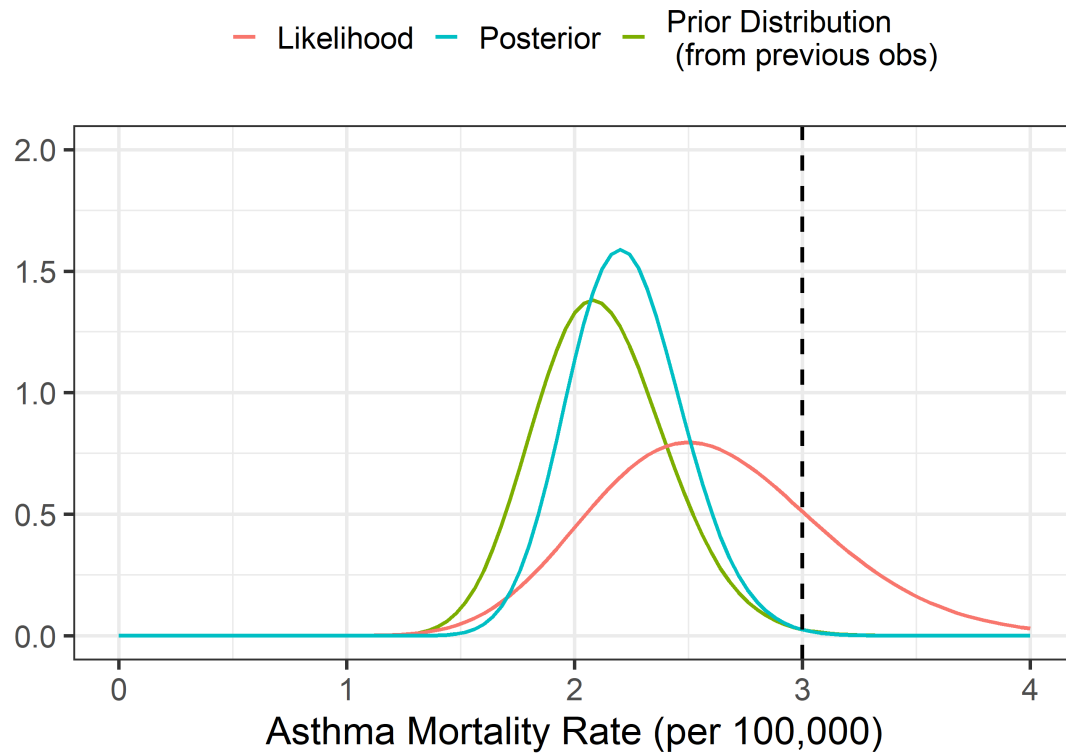




# Asthma Mortality

New prior" mean  $53/25 = 2.12$

New data, 25 deaths in 10 more years  $25/10 = 2.5$



# Summary

- The Beta distribution
  - Conjugate prior for Binomial likelihood
- The Gamma distribution
  - Conjugate prior for the Poisson likelihood
- Pseudo-counts interpretations of conjugate prior distributions