

STAT 578: Advanced Bayesian Modeling

## Week 1 — Lesson 3

# Bayesian Fundamentals

Fall 2019

# A Binomial Example

Reminder:

We specify that a random variable has a named distribution using

$$\cdot \sim \textit{name}(\cdots)$$

for a marginal distribution and

$$\cdot \mid \cdot \sim \textit{name}(\cdots)$$

for a conditional distribution.

See BDA3, Tables A.1 and A.2 for naming conventions.

# Scenario

You want to start a dog-walking service.

What percentage of households in your community would be potential clients?

You conduct a limited survey of 20 households, finding 2 that would be interested in your service.

# Sampling Distribution

- ▶  $\theta$  = proportion of population with some characteristic
- ▶  $n$  = size of a random sample from population
- ▶  $y$  = number in sample who have characteristic

Sampling distribution (for a large population):

$$y \mid \theta \sim \text{Bin}(n, \theta)$$

Sampling density (BDA3, Table A.2):

$$p(y \mid \theta) = \binom{n}{y} \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y} \quad y = 0, \dots, n$$

For your survey data,

$y = 2$  responded positively from among  $n = 20$

and  $\theta$  is the proportion in the entire community who would be interested.

The likelihood:

$$\begin{aligned} p(y = 2 \mid \theta) &= \binom{20}{2} \theta^2 (1 - \theta)^{20-2} \\ &\propto \theta^2 (1 - \theta)^{18} \end{aligned}$$

Remember: Bayes' rule requires this to be known only up to proportionality in  $\theta$ .

## Prior Distribution

You could make a prior for  $\theta$  based on your best guess (later).

For now, let's be cautious and choose a uniform prior (BDA3, Table A.1):

$$\theta \sim \text{U}(0, 1)$$

so that

$$p(\theta) = 1 \quad 0 < \theta < 1$$

Such a “flat” prior often allows the conclusions to be driven mainly by the data.

# Applying Bayes' Rule

The posterior density:

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta \mid y = 2) &\propto 1 \cdot \theta^2 (1 - \theta)^{18} \\ &\propto \theta^2 (1 - \theta)^{18} \quad 0 < \theta < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Note: This *does* fully define the posterior distribution (even though it is in unnormalized form).

We will avoid computing the normalizing factor.



Scan a table of densities (BDA3, Table A.1) for something similar ...

Find

$$\frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} \propto \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} \quad 0 < \theta < 1$$

the density of a  $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  distribution.

Compare with

$$\theta^2 (1 - \theta)^{18} \quad 0 < \theta < 1$$

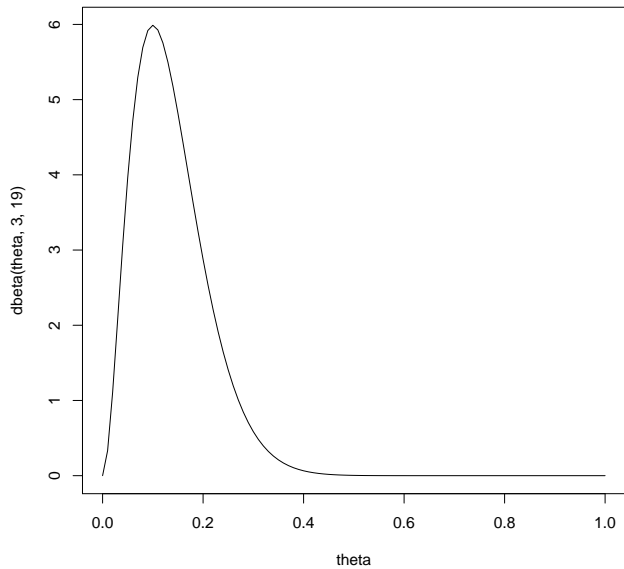
to identify the posterior:

$$\theta \mid y = 2 \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha = 3, \beta = 19)$$

In the R statistical computing environment, function `dbeta` gives the density of the beta distribution.

Let's view the density curve for the posterior ...

```
> curve(dbeta(theta,3,19), 0, 1, xname="theta")
```



Most posterior probability for  $\theta$  ranges between 0.05 and 0.2.

This is compatible with the “raw” estimate that 10% of households might be interested in the dog-walking service.

## Another Prior

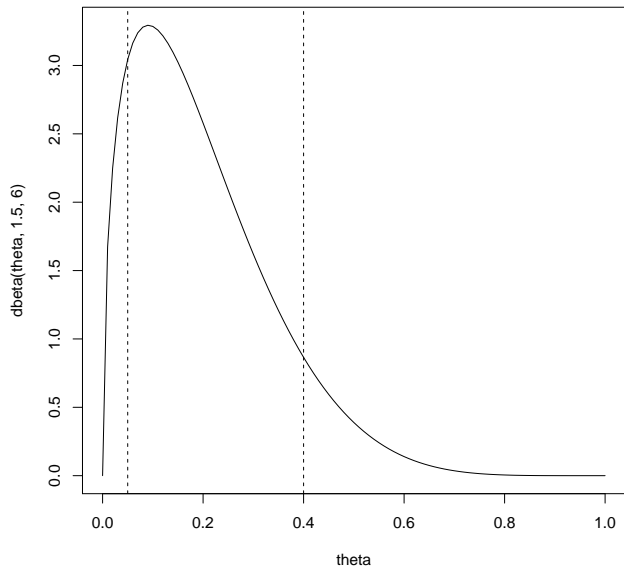
Let's try a more **informative** prior – one reflecting prior beliefs (possibly subjective).

Suppose you were fairly certain that between 5% and 40% of households would be interested.

With some trial and error, you find that a  $\text{Beta}(\alpha = 1.5, \beta = 6)$  distribution gives roughly 80% probability to the range (0.05, 0.4):

```
> pbeta(c(0.05,0.4), 1.5, 6) # beta distribution function
[1] 0.1128297 0.9049012

> curve(dbeta(theta,1.5,6), 0, 1, xname="theta")
> abline(v=c(0.05,0.4), lty=2)
```



For the  $\text{Beta}(\alpha = 1.5, \beta = 6)$  prior,

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta) &\propto \theta^{1.5-1} (1-\theta)^{6-1} \\ &\propto \theta^{0.5} (1-\theta)^5 \quad 0 < \theta < 1 \end{aligned}$$

so (by Bayes' rule) the posterior

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta \mid y = 2) &\propto \theta^{0.5} (1-\theta)^5 \cdot \theta^2 (1-\theta)^{18} \\ &\propto \theta^{2.5} (1-\theta)^{23} \quad 0 < \theta < 1 \end{aligned}$$

is a  $\text{Beta}(\alpha = 3.5, \beta = 24)$  distribution.

Notice: Using a beta prior produced a beta posterior.

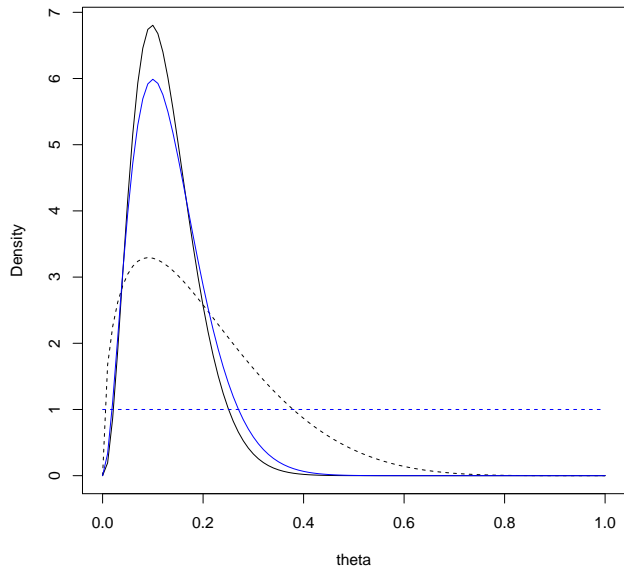
This is **conjugacy**: A family of priors is **conjugate** for a sampling distribution if each of them produces a posterior that is of that same family.

While not necessary, a conjugate prior is often convenient.



Let's view our priors and posteriors:

```
> curve(dbeta(theta,3.5,24), 0, 1, xname="theta", ylab="Density")
>                                     # posterior (informative prior)
> curve(dbeta(theta,1.5,6), 0, 1, xname="theta", add=TRUE, lty=2)
>                                     # informative prior
> curve(dbeta(theta,3,19), 0, 1, xname="theta", add=TRUE, col="blue")
>                                     # posterior (flat prior)
> curve(dbeta(theta,1,1), 0, 1, xname="theta", add=TRUE, col="blue", lty=2)
>                                     # flat prior
```



Note:

- ▶ Both posteriors are very similar (driven mainly by the data).
- ▶ The more informative prior led to a slightly more concentrated posterior.

Next: How can you use the posterior?