# STA 360/602L: MODULE 2.8

## GAMMA-POISSON MODEL II; FINDING CONJUGATE DISTRIBUTIONS

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#### POSTERIOR PREDICTIVE DISTRIBUTION

- What is the posterior predictive distribution for the Gamma-Poisson  $\blacksquare$ model?
- Let  $a_n = a + \sum y_i$  and  $b_n = b + n$ .
- We have

$$
\begin{aligned} p(y_{n+1}|y_{1:n})&=\int p(y_{n+1}|\theta)\pi(\theta|y_{1:n})\,d\theta\\ &=\int \mathrm{Po}(y_{n+1}|\theta)\mathrm{Ga}(\theta|a_n,b_n)\,d\theta\\ &=\ldots\\ &=\ldots\\ &=\frac{\Gamma(a_n+y_{n+1})}{\Gamma(a_n)\Gamma(y_{n+1}+1)}\left(\frac{b_n}{b_n+1}\right)^{a_n}\left(\frac{1}{b_n+1}\right)^{y_{n+1}}\\ \end{aligned}
$$

which is the negative binomial distribution,  $\text{Neg-binomial}\left(\,a_n,\frac{1}{b-1}\,\right).$ 1  $\overline{b_n+1}$ 

#### NEGATIVE BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

- Originally derived as the number of successes in a sequence of independent  $\mathrm{Bernoulli}(p)$  trials before  $r$  failures occur.
- The negative binomial distribution  ${\hbox{Neg-binomial}}\left( r,p\right)$  is parameterized by  $r$  and  $p$  and the pmf is given by

$$
\Pr[Y=y|r,p]=\binom{y+r-1}{y}(1-p)^rp^y;\quad y=0,1,2,\ldots;\ \ \, p\in[0,1].
$$

Starting with this, the distribution can be extended to allow  $r\in (0,\infty)$  as

$$
\Pr[Y=y|r,p]=\frac{\Gamma(y+r)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(r)}(1-p)^rp^y;\quad y=0,1,2,\ldots;\quad p\in[0,1].
$$

Some properties:

\n- $$
\mathbb{E}[Y] = \frac{pr}{1-p}
$$
\n- $$
\mathbb{V}[Y] = \frac{pr}{(1-p)^2}
$$
\n

#### POSTERIOR PREDICTIVE DISTRIBUTION

- The negative binomial distribution is an over-dispersed generalization of the Poisson.
- **What does over-dispersion mean?**
- In marginalizing  $\theta$  out of the Poisson likelihood, over a gamma  $\blacksquare$ distribution, we obtain a negative-binomial.

$$
\quad \ \ \, \textbf{For}\,\left(y_{n+1}|y_{1:n}\right)\sim \text{Neg-binomial}\left(a_n,\frac{1}{b_n+1}\right)\text{, we have}
$$

$$
\textbf{E}[y_{n+1}|y_{1:n}]=\frac{a_n}{b_n}=\mathbb{E}[\theta|y_{1:n}]=\text{posterior mean, and}
$$

$$
\quad \quad \blacktriangleright \mathbb{V}[y_{n+1}|y_{1:n}]=\frac{a_n(b_n+1)}{b_n^2}=\mathbb{E}[\theta|y_{1:n}]\left(\frac{b_n+1}{b_n}\right)\! ,
$$

so that variance is larger than the mean by an amount determined by  $b_n$ , which takes the over-dispersion into account.



#### PREDICTIVE UNCERTAINTY

Note that as the sample size  $n$  increases, the posterior density for  $\theta$  $\blacksquare$ becomes more and more concentrated.

$$
\mathbb{V}[\theta|y_{1:n}]=\frac{a_n}{b_n^2}=\frac{a+\sum_i y_i}{(b+n)^2}\approx \frac{\bar{y}}{n}\rightarrow 0.
$$

- Also, recall that  $\mathbb{V}[y_{n+1}|y_{1:n}]=\mathbb{E}[\theta |y_{1:n}] \left( \left. \frac{\partial n+1}{h} \right. \right).$  $b_n + 1$  $b_n$
- As we have less uncertainty about  $\theta$ , the inflation factor

$$
\frac{b_n+1}{b_n}=\frac{b+n+1}{b+n}\to 1
$$

and the predictive density  $f(y_{n+1}|y_{1:n}) \to \text{Po}(\bar{y}).$ 

Of course, in smaller samples, it is important to inflate our predictive intervals to account for uncertainty in  $\theta$ .

#### BACK TO BIRTH RATES

Let's compare the posterior predictive distributions for the two groups of  $\blacksquare$ women.



#### **Posterior predictive distributions**



#### POISSON MODEL IN TERMS OF RATE

In many applications, it is often convenient to parameterize the Poisson  $\blacksquare$ model a bit differently. One option takes the form

 $y_i \sim \text{Po}(x_i \theta); \quad i = 1, \ldots, n.$ 

where  $x_i$  represents an explanatory variable and  $\theta$  is once again the population parameter of interest. The model is not exchangeable in the  $y_i$ 's but is exchangeable in the pairs  $(x, y)_i.$ 

- In epidemiology,  $\theta$  is often called the population "rate" and  $x_i$  is called the "exposure" of unit  $i$ .
- When dealing with mortality rates in different counties for example,  $x_i$ can be the population  $n_i$  in county  $i$ , with  $\theta =$  the overall mortality rate.
- The gamma distribution is still conjugate for  $\theta$ , with the resulting posterior taking the form

$$
\pi(\theta|\{x_i,y_i\}):\theta|\{x_i,y_i\}\sim \text{Ga}(a+\sum_i y_i, b+\sum_i x_i).
$$



### BDA EXAMPLE: ASTHMA MORTALITY RATE

- Consider an example on estimating asthma mortality rates for cities in the US.
- Since actual mortality rates can be small on the raw scale, they are often commonly estimated per 100,000 or even per one million.
- To keep it simple, let's use "per 100,000" for this example.
- For inference, ideally, we collect data which should basically count the number of asthma-related deaths per county.
- Note that inference is by county here, so county is indexes observations in the sample.
- Since we basically have count data, a Poisson model would be reasonable here.



### ASTHMA MORTALITY RATE

Since each city would be expected to have different populations, we might consider the sampling model:

$$
y_i \sim \text{Po}(x_i \theta); \quad i=1,\ldots,n.
$$

where

- $x_i$  is the "exposure" for county  $i$ , that is, population of county  $i$  is  $x_i \times 100,000$ ; and
- $\theta$  is the unknown "true" city mortality rate per 100,000.
- **Suppose** 
	- we pick a city in the US with population of 200,000;
	- we find that 3 people died of asthma, i.e., roughly 1.5 cases per 100,000.
- Thus, we have one single observation with  $x_i = 2$  and  $y_i = 3$  for this city.

#### ASTHMA MORTALITY RATE

- Next, we need to specify a prior. What is a sensible prior here?  $\blacksquare$
- Perhaps we should look at mortality rates around the world or in similar  $\blacksquare$ countries.
- Suppose reviews of asthma mortality rates around the world suggest rates above 1.5 per 100,000 are very rare in Western countries, with typical rates around 0.6 per 100,000.
- Let's try a gamma distribution with  $\mathbb{E}[\theta] = 0.6$  and  $\Pr[\theta \geq 1.5]$  very low!  $\blacksquare$
- A few options here, but let's go with  $\operatorname{Ga}(3,5)$ , which has  $\mathbb{E}[\theta] = 0.6$  and  $Pr[\theta > 1.5] \approx 0.02$ .
- Using trial-and error, explore more options in R!  $\blacksquare$



### ASTHMA MORTALITY RATE

**F** Therefore, our posterior takes the form

$$
\pi(\theta|\{x_i,y_i\}):\theta|\{x_i,y_i\}\sim \text{Ga}(a+\sum_i y_i, b+\sum_i x_i)
$$

which is actually

 $\pi(\theta|x,y) = Ga(a+y,b+x) = Ga(3+3,5+2) = Ga(6,7).$ 

- $\mathbb{E}[\theta|x,y]=6/7=0.86$  so that we expect less than 1 (0.86 to be exact) asthma-related deaths per 100,000 people in this city.
- In fact, the posterior probability that the long term death rate from asthma in this city is more than 1 per 100,000,  $Pr[\theta > 1 | x, y]$ , is 0.3.
- Also,  $\Pr[\theta \leq 2 | x, y] = 0.99$ , so that there is very little chance that we see more than 2 asthma-related deaths per 100,000 people in this city.
- Use  $p_{gamma}$  in R to compute the probabilities.  $\blacksquare$



#### PRIOR VS POSTERIOR



Posterior is to the right of the prior since the data suggests higher mortality rates are more likely than the prior suggests. However, we only have one **data point!** 

## FINDING CONJUGATE DISTRIBUTIONS



#### FINDING CONJUGATE DISTRIBUTIONS

- In the conjugate examples we have looked at so far, how did we know  $\blacksquare$ the prior distributions we chose would result in conjugacy?
- Can we figure out the family of distributions that would be conjugate for arbitrary densities?
- Let's explore this using the exponential distribution. The exponential  $\blacksquare$ distribution is often used to model "waiting times" or other random variables (with support  $(0, \infty)$ ) often measured on a time scale.
- If  $y \sim \text{Exp}(\theta)$ , we have the pdf

$$
p(y|\theta) = \theta e^{-y\theta}; \quad y > 0.
$$

where  $\theta$  is the rate parameter, and  $\mathbb{E}[y] = 1/\theta$ .

- Recall, if  $Y \sim \operatorname{Ga}(1, \theta)$ , then  $Y \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\theta)$ . What is  $\mathbb{V}[y]$  then?
- Let's figure out what the conjugate prior for this density would look like  $\blacksquare$ (to be done on the board).

## WHAT'S NEXT?

#### MOVE ON TO THE READINGS FOR THE NEXT MODULE!

