

36-617: Applied Linear Models

Bayes, Shrinkage, and Multi-Level Models

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Announcements

- Project 02 Schedule:
 - **Fri Nov 19:** Draft Technical Appendix with **HW 10**.
 - **Mon Nov 29 (or earlier):** Full IDMRAD paper first draft.
 - **Fri Dec 3:** Peer reviews due.
 - **Fri Dec 10 (or earlier):** Full IDMRAD paper final draft!
- Regular classes Nov 22, 29 & Dec 1
- No more graded hw's or quizzes
 - I may give one more **ungraded** hw, if I have time to set it up
 - End of semester feedback for me Nov 29
- *BJ's remaining office hours will be in the MSP space in FMS – **not** in his office.*

Outline

■ Today:

- Shrinkage
- Review of MLE
- Crash course in Bayes
- Normal-Normal Model & Shrinkage
- MLM's and Shrinkage

■ Mon:

- Multilevel glm's (multilevel binomial, poisson, etc.)

■ After Thanksgiving:

- Some ideas from nonparametric regression

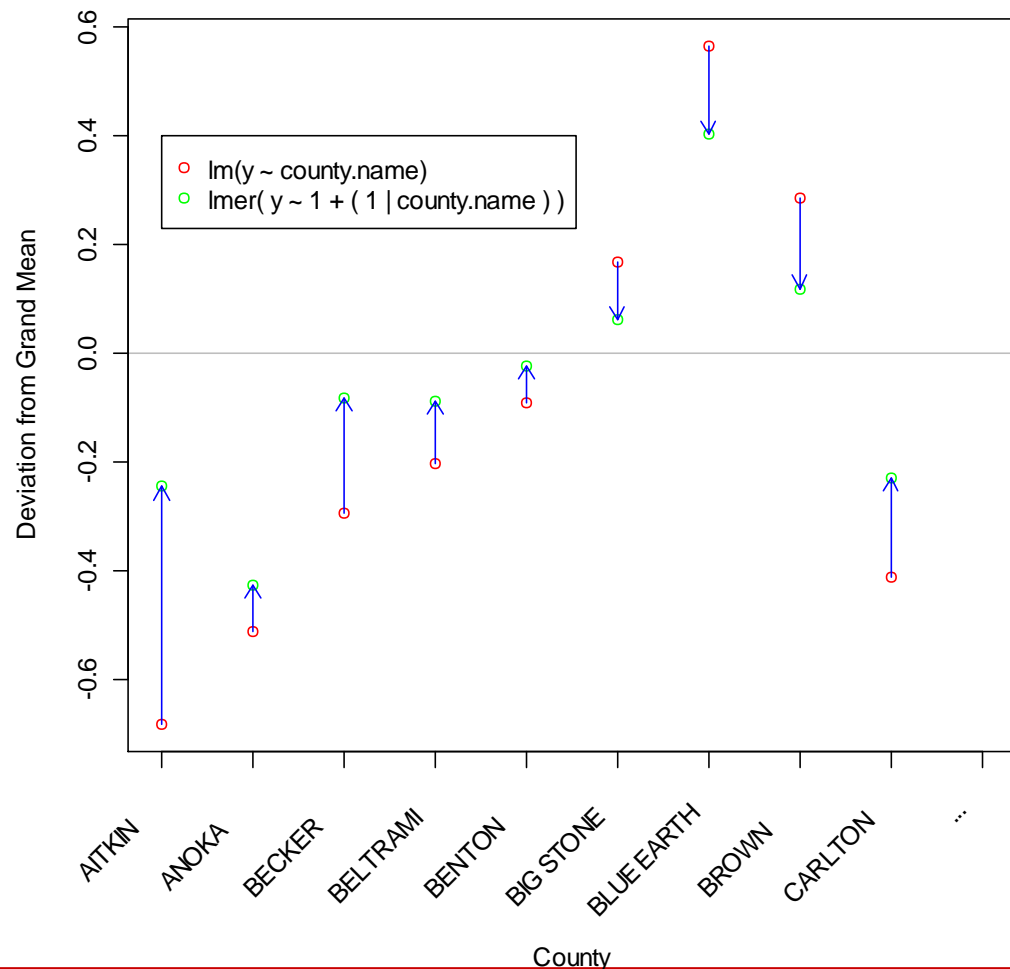
An MLM phenomenon: Shrinkage

The fitted multilevel model underpredicts high obs's and overpredicts low ones.

The distribution assumptions underlying lmer() “smooth out” extreme observations!

Multi-level models provide more smoothing/shrinkage to groups with smaller sample sizes (since there is less evidence that their values should be different from “grand mean”).

We'll talk about why today...



Methods of Estimation – How can we systematically construct “good” estimators?

- Several methods have proven useful:
 - Method of Moments (MoM): The k^{th} moment of X is $E[X^k]$. MoM estimators combine unbiased estimates of moments of X .
 - Least Squares (LS): Obtained by minimizing squared error $\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - E[Y_i])^2$. Ordinary linear regression!
 - Maximum likelihood (ML): The likelihood is the probability of the data we observed. ML estimators (MLE's) choose parameter values that maximize the likelihood.
 - Bayesian Estimation (Bayes): Treat the parameters as random variables, and use Bayes' rule to pick the parameter value most likely, given the data (the “reverse” of ML!)

Maximum Likelihood Estimators (MLE's)

- Let X_1, \dots, X_n be an iid sample from $f_X(x; \theta)$, x_1, \dots, x_n are the observed values
- The likelihood of the sample is the joint density

$$\begin{aligned} L(\theta) &= f(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta) = f(x_1; \theta) f(x_2; \theta) \cdots f(x_n; \theta) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta) \end{aligned}$$

- The maximum likelihood estimate $\hat{\theta}_{MLE}$ maximizes $L(\theta)$:

$$L(\hat{\theta}_{MLE}) \geq L(\theta) \quad \forall \theta$$

- Strategy: It's usually (but not always) easier to work with the log likelihood

$$LL(\theta) = \log L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(x_i; \theta) .$$

Florida, 2020 Pre-Election Poll

- Donald Trump (R) running for election to the presidency against Joe Biden (D)
- In a Suffolk University Poll (October 1-4, 2020):
 - 451 of 500 voters expressed a preference for Trump or Biden.
 - Of those 451: 226 prefer Donald Trump.
- In most polling, weights are attached to each response, to adjust the “representativeness” of the response for things like
 - who is likely to be home when survey worker calls
 - who refuses to answer
 - etc
- We will ignore weights etc and treat the 451 as a simple random sample.

Possible models for the data

- 451 individual Bernoulli coin flips, $x_i = 1$ for Trump, $x_i = 0$ for Biden

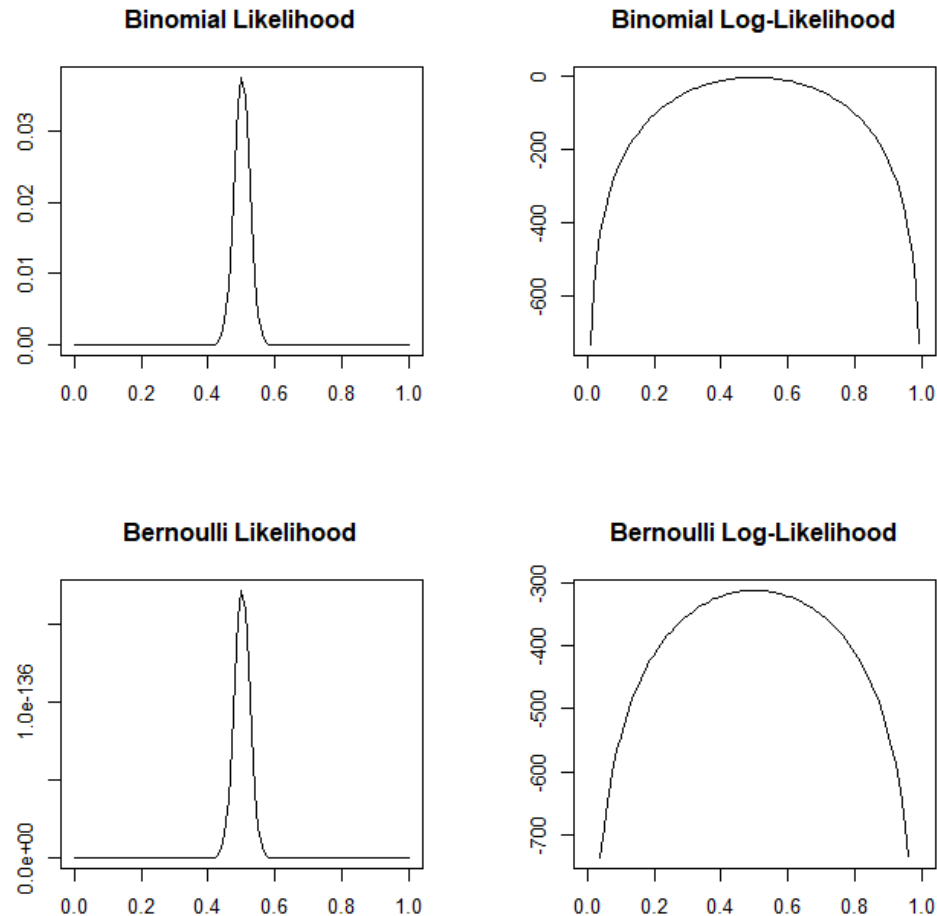
$$L_{ber}(p) = \prod_{i=1}^{451} p^{x_i} (1 - p)^{1-x_i} = p^{226} (1 - p)^{225}$$

- 451 trials, 226 “successes” (Trump voters)

$$L_{bin}(p) = \binom{451}{226} p^{226} (1 - p)^{225}$$

- What matters for MLE and SE is shape, not size!

Binomial and Bernoulli Likelihoods



Finding the MLE...

- If we use the Bernoulli likelihood,

$$\begin{aligned} LL_{ber}(p) &= \log L_{ber}(p) \\ &= \log p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = k \log p + (n-k) \log(1-p) \end{aligned}$$

- If we use the Binomial likelihood

$$\begin{aligned} LL_{bin}(p) &= \log L_{bin}(p) \\ &= \log \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \propto k \log p + (n-k) \log(1-p) \end{aligned}$$

- Either way we want to maximize

$$k \log p + (n-k) \log(1-p)$$

with $k = 226$, $n=451$

MLE: Point Estimate

- Differentiating and setting to zero...

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= LL'(p) = \frac{d}{dp} [k \log p + (n - k) \log(1 - p)] \\ &= \frac{k}{p} - \frac{n - k}{1 - p} = \frac{k - pn}{p(1 - p)} \end{aligned}$$

- so, clearly,

$$\hat{p} = \frac{k}{n} = \frac{226}{451} = 0.501$$

Bayes' Rule (a.k.a. Bayes' Theorem)

- A very simple idea with very powerful consequences
- We often start with information like $P[A|B]$ and what we really want is $P[B|A]$. Bayes' Theorem lets us “turn the conditioning around”:

$$\mathbf{P[B|A]} = \frac{P[A \& B]}{P[A]} = \frac{\mathbf{P[A|B]}P[B]}{P[A]}$$

- See https://arbital.com/p/bayes_rule/ for lots of examples and proselytizing.

Conditional probability & conditional density

- $P[A | B] = P[A \& B] / P[B]$

- $P[B] = P[B | A]P[A] + P[B | A^c]P[A^c]$

- $P[A \& B] = P[B | A]P[A]$

- Bayes' Theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} P[B|A] &= \frac{P[A \& B]}{P[A]} = \frac{P[A|B]P[B]}{P[A]} \\ &= \frac{P[A|B]P[B]}{P[A|B]P[B] + P[A|B^c]P[B^c]} \end{aligned}$$

- $f(x | y) = f(x, y) / f(y)$

- $f(y) = \int f(y|x)f(x)dx$

- $f(x, y) = f(y | x) f(x)$

- Bayes' Theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} f(y|x) &= \frac{f(x, y)}{f(x)} = \frac{f(x|y)f(y)}{f(x)} \\ &= \frac{f(x|y)f(y)}{\int f(x|y^*)f(y^*)dy^*} \end{aligned}$$

Bayes' Theorem for Data

■ Bayes' Theorem

$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f(x)} = \frac{f(x|y)f(y)}{f(x)}$$

$$= \frac{f(x|y)f(y)}{\int f(x|y^*)f(y^*)dy^*}$$

Dummy
variable of
integration

■ Let $x = \text{data}$, $y = \theta$ (parameter!); then

$$f(\theta|\text{data}) = \frac{f(\text{data}, \theta)}{f(\text{data})} = \frac{f(\text{data}|\theta)f(\theta)}{f(\text{data})}$$

$$= \frac{f(\text{data}|\theta)f(\theta)}{\int f(\text{data}|\theta^*)f(\theta^*)d\theta^*}$$

Bayes' Theorem for Data

- We call

- $f(\theta)$ the prior distribution
- $f(\text{data}|\theta) = L(\theta)$ the likelihood
- $f(\theta|\text{data})$ the posterior distribution

- So Bayes' Theorem says

$$f(\theta|\text{data}) = \frac{f(\text{data}|\theta)f(\theta)}{f(\text{data})} \propto f(\text{data}|\theta)f(\theta)$$

- Slogan: (posterior) \propto (likelihood) \times (prior)

Back to 2016 Florida pre-election poll

- The likelihood is the same as before:

$$L(p) \propto p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

- We need a prior distribution. One good choice is a *beta distribution*, with

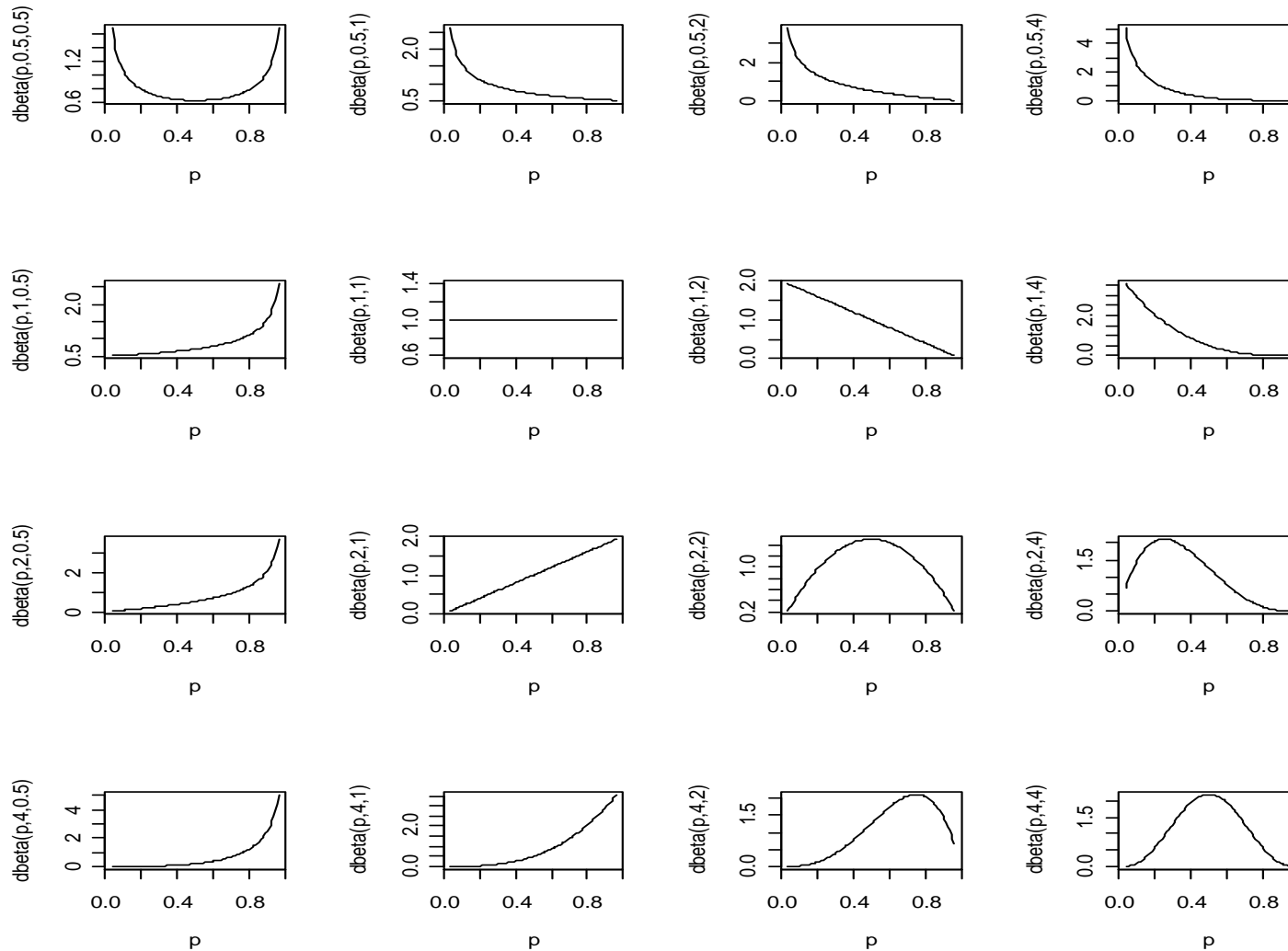
- Density $f(p|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} p^{\alpha-1} (1-p)^{\beta-1}$

- Mean $E[p] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}$

- Variance $\text{Var}(p) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$

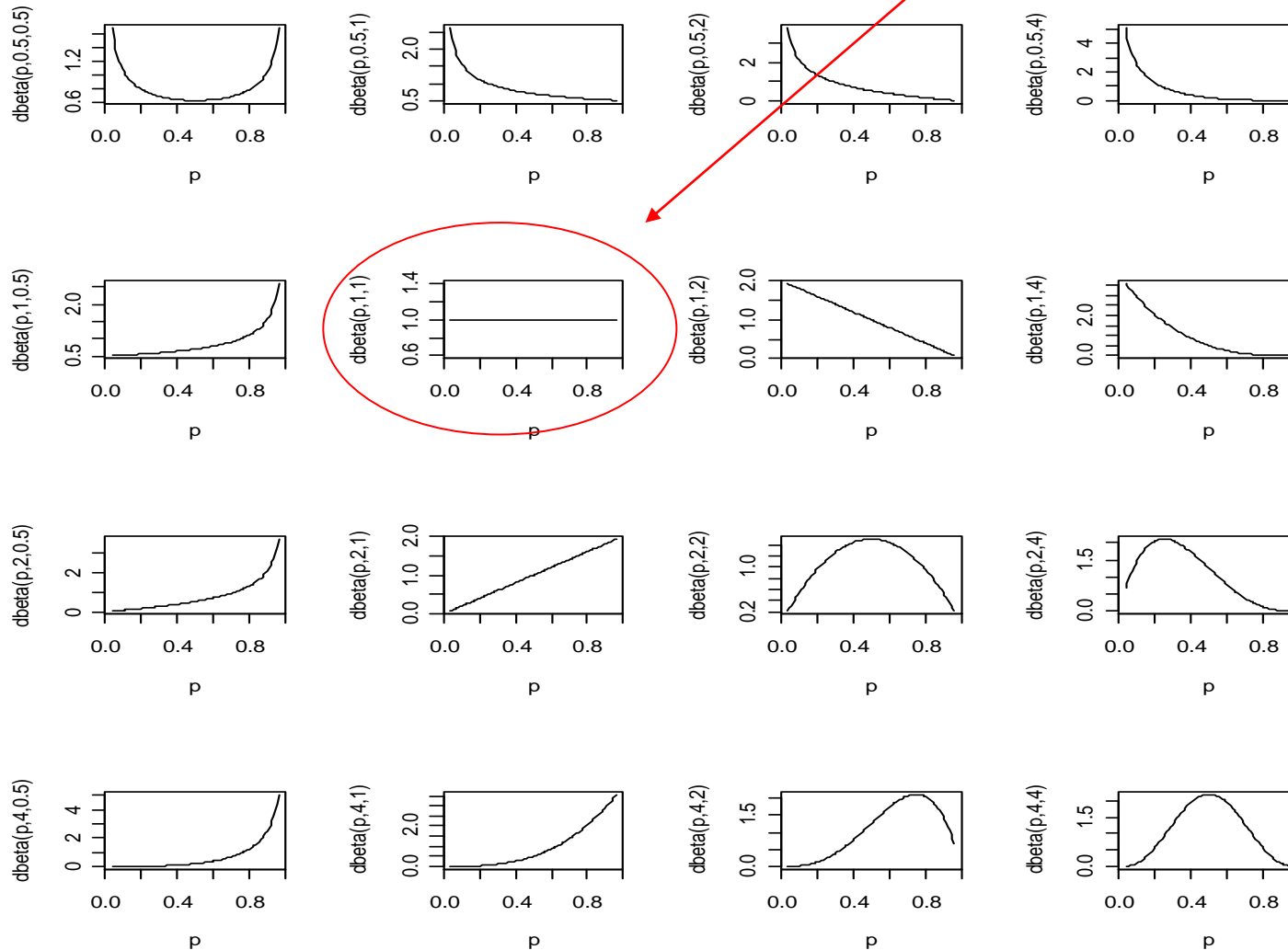
- Some graphs of beta densities appear on the next slide

Some Beta Densities



Some Beta Densities

uniform distribution!



Choosing prior parameters...

- The likelihood is the same as before:

$$L(p) \propto p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = p^{226}(1-p)^{225}$$

- The prior distribution is a beta distribution

$$f(p|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} p^{\alpha-1} (1-p)^{\beta-1}$$

- $\alpha = 1, \beta = 1$ gives a uniform distribution – no preference for one p over another!
- Suppose that in a previous poll, 942 prefer Trump and 1008 prefer Biden. Could set $\alpha=942, \beta=1008$

If $\alpha=1$ and $\beta=1$...

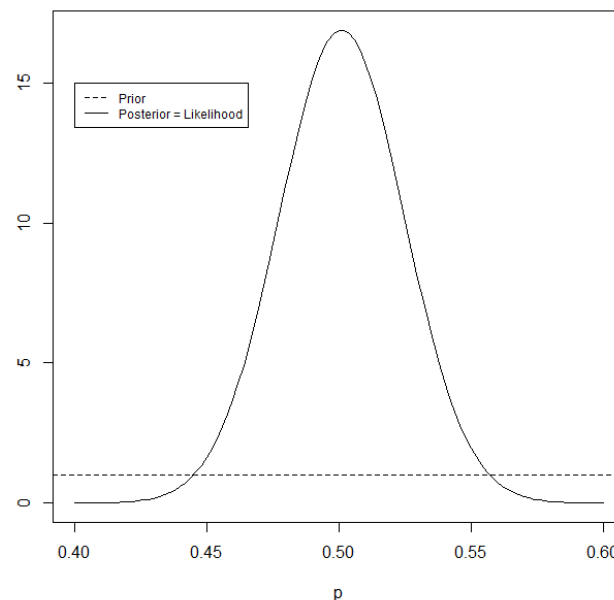
- (posterior) \propto (likelihood) \times (prior):

$$f(p|\text{data}) \propto L(p) \times 1 = p^{226}(1-p)^{225}$$

- Since $f(p|\text{data})=L(p)$,
posterior mode = MLE
= $226/451 = 0.5011086$
- Since $f(p|\text{data})$ is a beta

with $\alpha=227$, $\beta=226$,

$$E[p|\text{data}] = 227/453 = 0.5011038$$



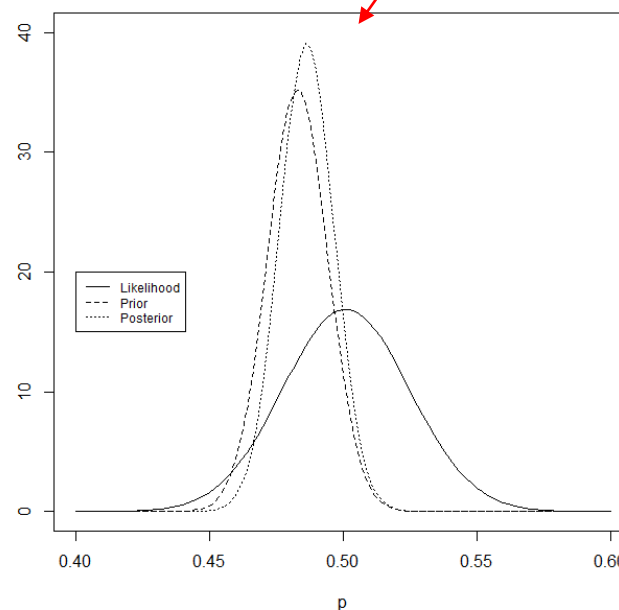
If $\alpha=942, \beta=1008...$

- (posterior) \propto (likelihood) \times (prior):

$$\begin{aligned} f(p|\text{data}) &\propto L(p) \times p^{941} (1-p)^{1007} \\ &= p^{1167} (1-p)^{1232} \end{aligned}$$

- Since $f(p|\text{data}) = \text{beta}(p, 1168, 1233)$,
 $E[p|\text{data}] = 1168/2401$
 $= 0.486$ vs MLE $= 0.501$

“shrinkage”:
posterior between
prior & likelihood



Normal Model: Estimate μ , with σ^2 Known, One Observation $y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

- For our prior distribution, we'll assume $\mu \sim N(\mu_0, \tau_0^2)$:

$$f(y|\mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\mu)^2}$$

$$f(\mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\tau_0} e^{-\frac{1}{2\tau_0^2}(\mu-\mu_0)^2}$$

$$f(\mu|y) \propto f(y|\mu)f(\mu) \propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\mu-\mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2} \right] \right\}$$

- Posterior must be normal for μ (quadratic in μ !); to identify it, complete the square...

- The exponent of $f(\mu | y)$ looks like $-1/2$ times

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{(y - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\mu - \mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2} &= \frac{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 \sigma^2} \left[\mu^2 - \frac{2y\mu\tau_0^2 + 2\mu\mu_0\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} + \frac{y^2\tau_0^2 + \mu_0^2\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 \sigma^2} \left[\left(\mu - \frac{y\tau_0^2 + \mu_0\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right)^2 + \text{junk}(y, \sigma^2, \mu_0, \tau_0^2) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\tau_1^2} (\mu - \mu_1)^2 + (\text{known junk})\end{aligned}$$

so that $\mu | y \sim N(\mu_1, \tau_1^2)$, where

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_1^2 &= \frac{\tau_0^2 \sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} = \frac{1}{1/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau_0^2} \\ \mu_1 &= \frac{y\tau_0^2 + \mu_0\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} = \left(\frac{\tau_0^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right) y + \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right) \mu_0\end{aligned}$$

- The exponent of $f(\mu | y)$ looks like $-1/2$ times

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{(y - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\mu - \mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2} &= \frac{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 \sigma^2} \left[\mu^2 - \frac{2y\mu\tau_0^2 + 2\mu\mu_0\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} + \frac{y^2\tau_0^2 + \mu_0^2\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right] \\
 &= \frac{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 \sigma^2} \left[\left(\mu - \frac{y\tau_0^2 + \mu_0\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right)^2 + \text{junk}(y, \sigma^2, \mu_0, \tau_0^2) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\tau_1^2} (\mu - \mu_1)^2 + (\text{known junk})
 \end{aligned}$$

so that $\mu | y \sim N(\mu_1, \tau_1^2)$, where

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tau_1^2 &= \frac{\tau_0^2 \sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} = \frac{1}{1/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau_0^2} \\
 \mu_1 &= \frac{y\tau_0^2 + \mu_0\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} = \left(\frac{\tau_0^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right) y + \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2} \right) \mu_0
 \end{aligned}$$

n Observations $y_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

■ Since

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_1, \dots, y_n | \mu) &= N(y_1, \dots, y_n | \mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y_i - \mu)^2} \\ &\propto N(\bar{y} | \mu, \sigma^2/n) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2/n}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2/n}(\bar{y} - \mu)^2} \end{aligned}$$

we can apply the results for one observation

□ $p(y_1, \dots, y_n | \mu) \propto N(\bar{y} | \mu, \sigma_n^2), \sigma_n^2 = \sigma^2/n$

□ $p(\mu) = N(\mu | \mu_0, \tau_0^2)$

□ $p(\mu | \text{data}) = N(\mu | \mu_n, \tau_n^2)$ where

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_n^2 &= \frac{1}{1/\sigma_n^2 + 1/\tau_0^2} = \frac{1}{n/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau_0^2} \\ \mu_n &= \frac{\bar{y}/\sigma_n^2 + \mu_0/\tau_0^2}{1/\sigma_n^2 + 1/\tau_0^2} = \left(\frac{\tau_0^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n} \right) \bar{y} + \left(\frac{\sigma^2/n}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n} \right) \mu_0 \end{aligned}$$

Normal Mean, Example

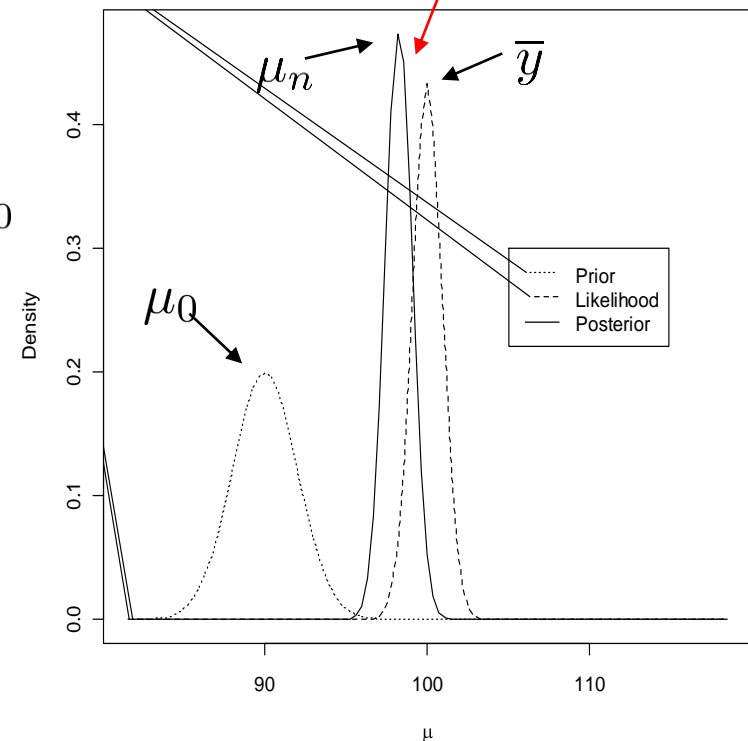
“shrinkage”:
posterior between
prior & likelihood

- Suppose we know $\sigma=12$, we look at $n=169$ IQ scores, and we find $\bar{y} = 100$.
- We use as prior $N(\mu_0, \tau_0^2)$ with $\mu_0=90, \tau_0^2 = 4$
- Shrinkage determined by

$$\mu_n = \left(\frac{\tau_0^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n} \right) \bar{y} + \left(\frac{\sigma^2/n}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n} \right) \mu_0$$

- $\frac{\tau_0^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n}$ is the reliability

- n larger \Rightarrow
reliability larger \Rightarrow
less shrinkage



Minnesota Radon Example

■ Emphasize Distribution Structure

$$\text{Level 2: } \mu_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_0, \tau_0^2)$$

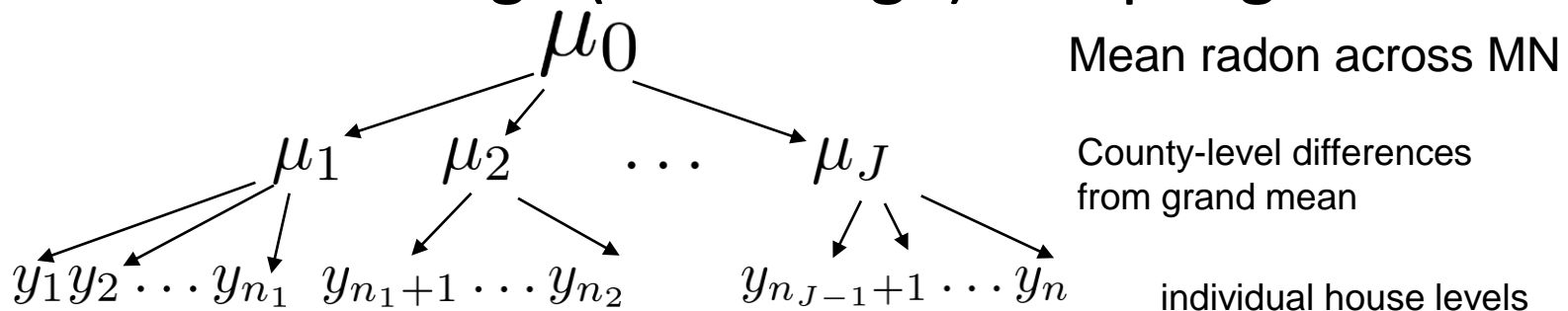
$$\text{Level 1: } y_{j[i]} \stackrel{indep}{\sim} N(\mu_j, \sigma^2)$$

■ Emphasize Bayesian point of view

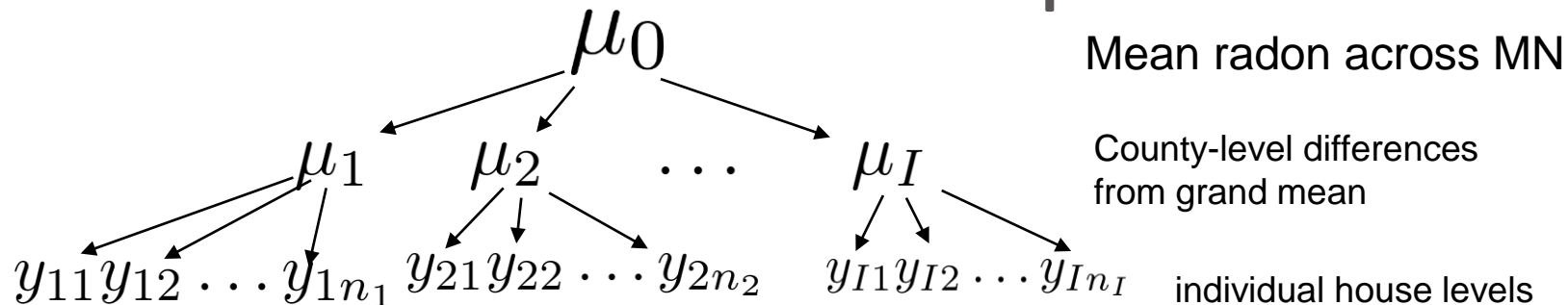
$$\text{Prior: } \mu_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_0, \tau_0^2)$$

$$\text{Likelihood: } y_{j[i]} \stackrel{indep}{\sim} N(\mu_j, \sigma^2)$$

■ Emphasize two-stage (multistage) sampling



Minnesota Radon Example



- In each county i with n_i houses, the posterior mean radon level $E[\mu_i | y_{i1}, \dots, y_{in_i}]$ will be

$$\mu_i^{post} = \left(\frac{\tau_0^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n_i} \right) \bar{y}_i + \left(\frac{\sigma^2/n_i}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n_i} \right) \mu_0$$

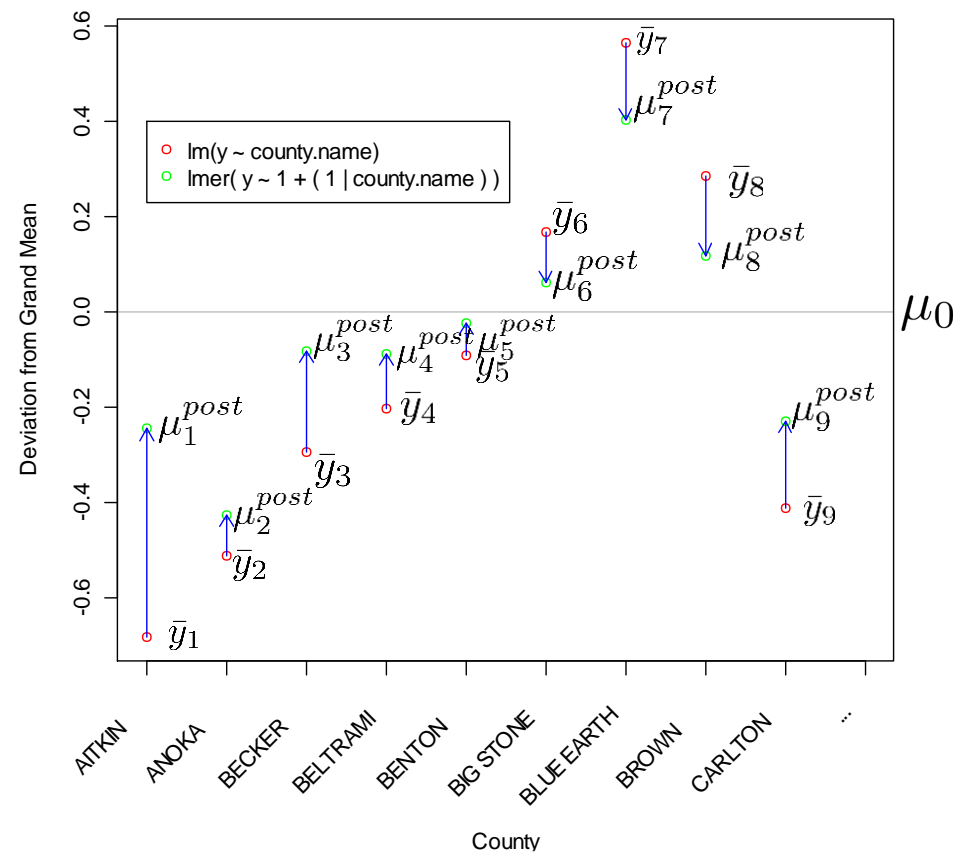
- When n_i large, $\mu_i^{post} \approx \bar{y}_i$
- When n_i small, $\mu_i^{post} \approx \mu_0$

Minnesota Radon Example

- In the figure, the grand mean is μ_0
- In each county i with n_i houses, posterior mean is

$$\mu_i^{post} = \left(\frac{\tau_0^2}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n_i} \right) \bar{y}_i + \left(\frac{\sigma^2/n_i}{\tau_0^2 + \sigma^2/n_i} \right) \mu_0$$

- When n_i large, $\mu_i^{post} \approx \bar{y}_i$
- When n_i small, $\mu_i^{post} \approx \mu_0$



MLM's and Shrinkage

- The random effect “estimates” that `lmer` produces with `ranef()` are a form of posterior means $E[\eta | \text{data}]$ for each η .
- The posterior means $E[\eta | \text{data}]$ are always shrunk toward the prior mean 0, so that the random effects α are always shrunk toward the corresponding level-2 fixed effects β .
- The Bayesian pov not only provides insights, but also
 - Novel ways to expand the multi-level model framework
 - Simulation-based methods of estimation (MCMC with `jags`, Hamiltonian MC with `stan`, etc.)

(all for a different course focusing on MLM's & Bayes!)

Summary

■ Today:

- Shrinkage
- Review of MLE
- Crash course in Bayes
- Normal-Normal Model & Shrinkage
- MLM's and Shrinkage

■ Mon:

- Multilevel glm's (multilevel binomial, poisson, etc.)

■ After Thanksgiving:

- Maybe a little practical Bayes / MCMC