#### **Model Summary**

#### Large population case: Poisson data model

Dependent variable:

Count of disease within a small area:

$$y_i$$
,  $i = 1,...,n$   
(sometimes  $n_i$  is used instead of  $y_i$ )

Each area also has and expected rate/count and a relative risk. These are denoted  $e_i$  and  $\theta_i$ .

Data level model:

$$y_i \sim Pois(\mu_i)$$
  
 $\mu_i = e_i \theta_i$   
 $\log(\theta_i) = model \ terms$ 

#### Finite population case: binomial model

Note: if you have a count within a finite population in a small area (e. g. birth defects within total births within areas) then the model is naturally binomial. In that case we would have

 $y_i$  and  $n_i$ 

are the case count and population and  $p_i$  the probability of a case in i th area and

$$y_i \sim bin(p_i, n_i)$$
and

$$logit(p_i) = log(\frac{p_i}{1 - p_i}) = model \ terms$$

#### **Hierarchical Models**

Using conditioning we have

$$y \mid \theta$$

$$\theta \mid a, b$$

as a simple model form. Here the data model depends on  $\theta$  and  $\theta$  depends on a, b.

Example of a spatial model:

Log-normal model:

$$\log(\theta_i) = \alpha + v_i$$

$$v_i \sim N(0, \tau_v)$$

$$\alpha \sim N(0, \tau_{\alpha})$$

Here we have an intercept ( $\alpha$ ) and an effect in each area that is independent ( $v_i$ ). They both have normal distributions with zero mean and variance  $\tau_v$  and  $\tau_\alpha$ 

The BYM model is an extension of this with another effect added:

$$\log(\theta_i) = \alpha + v_i + u_i$$

$$v_i \sim N(0, \tau_v)$$

$$u_i \mid \{u_j\}_{j \neq i} \sim N(\overline{u}_{\delta_i}, \tau_u \mid n_{\delta_i})$$

$$\alpha \sim N(0, \tau_\alpha)$$

## **Prior Choice**

### Prior Choice: some notes

- In Bayesian modeling we usually want to be as 'non-informative' as we can be.
- However we can choose priors to 'fix' parameters also
- Prior sensitivity is important
- Choice of priors can affect convergence or even run success

## Some Recommendations

# Regression parameters

- Natural to consider any prior which is zero centered
- And can provide non-informativeness
- Zero mean Gaussian is often used: N(o,tau)
- Double exponential is also used: ddexp(o,tau)
  - Useful in triaging large predictor sets (Machine Learning)

### **Precisions**

- Precisions: usually the SD ~U(o,C)
- ie tau<-pow(sd,-2); sd ~dunif(o,C)</pre>
- Important when it is a random effect (less so for regression parameter precisions)
- Weakly informative but upper bound must be monitored
- Alternative of tau~Ga(a,b) is used more in INLA and CARBayes, but is less stable computationally in Win/OpenBUGS (see Win/OpenBUGS examples)
- A common weakly informative prior is  $tau\sim GA(2,0.5)$
- Gamma distribution is conjugate for precisions

# Correlation priors

Correlation is often assigned a uniform prior distribution

$$-1 < \rho < 1$$
  
 $\rho \sim U(-1,1)$   
or  
 $1 < \rho$  then  
 $\rho \sim U(0,1)$   
or  $-\log(\rho) \sim Ga(1,1)$   
i.e.  $-\log(\rho) \sim Exp(1)$ 

### **Probabilities**

- Probabilities are on the range (0,1) and
- Often a Beta prior distribution is used (which is conjugate for binomial)

```
p \sim Beta(1,1)
or p \sim Beta(0.5,0.5)
or
logit(p) \sim N(0,\tau)
```