

Bayesian inference

Statistical Inference

Brian Caffo, Roger Peng, Jeff Leek Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health

Bayesian analysis

- · Bayesian statistics posits a *prior* on the parameter of interest
- · All inferences are then performed on the distribution of the parameter given the data, called the posterior
- · In general,

Posterior \propto Likelihood \times Prior

• Therefore (as we saw in diagnostic testing) the likelihood is the factor by which our prior beliefs are updated to produce conclusions in the light of the data

Prior specification

- The beta distribution is the default prior for parameters between 0 and 1.
- The beta density depends on two parameters α and β

$$rac{\Gamma(lpha+eta)}{\Gamma(lpha)\Gamma(eta)}\,p^{lpha-1}(1-p)^{eta-1}\quad ext{for }\,\,0\leq p\leq 1$$

- The mean of the beta density is $\alpha/(\alpha+\beta)$
- The variance of the beta density is

$$\frac{\alpha\beta}{\left(\alpha+\beta\right)^2\left(\alpha+\beta+1\right)}$$

- The uniform density is the special case where $\alpha=\beta=1$

```
## Exploring the beta density
library(manipulate)
pvals <- seq(0.01, 0.99, length = 1000)
manipulate(
    plot(pvals, dbeta(pvals, alpha, beta), type = "l", lwd = 3, frame = FALSE),
    alpha = slider(0.01, 10, initial = 1, step = .5),
    beta = slider(0.01, 10, initial = 1, step = .5)
)</pre>
```

Posterior

- Suppose that we chose values of α and β so that the beta prior is indicative of our degree of belief regarding p in the absence of data
- Then using the rule that

Posterior
$$\propto$$
 Likelihood \times Prior

and throwing out anything that doesn't depend on p, we have that

$$ext{Posterior} \propto p^x (1-p)^{n-x} imes p^{lpha-1} (1-p)^{eta-1} \ = p^{x+lpha-1} \left(1-p
ight)^{n-x+eta-1}$$

· This density is just another beta density with parameters $\tilde{lpha}=x+lpha$ and $\tilde{eta}=n-x+eta$

Posterior mean

$$\begin{split} E[p \mid X] &= \frac{\tilde{\alpha}}{\tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\beta}} \\ &= \frac{x + \alpha}{x + \alpha + n - x + \beta} \\ &= \frac{x + \alpha}{n + \alpha + \beta} \\ &= \frac{x}{n} \times \frac{n}{n + \alpha + \beta} + \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \times \frac{\alpha + \beta}{n + \alpha + \beta} \\ &= \text{MLE} \times \pi + \text{Prior Mean} \times (1 - \pi) \end{split}$$

Thoughts

- The posterior mean is a mixture of the MLE (\hat{p}) and the prior mean
- π goes to 1 as n gets large; for large n the data swamps the prior
- For small n, the prior mean dominates
- Generalizes how science should ideally work; as data becomes increasingly available, prior beliefs should matter less and less
- · With a prior that is degenerate at a value, no amount of data can overcome the prior

Example

- Suppose that in a random sample of an at-risk population 13 of 20 subjects had hypertension. Estimate the prevalence of hypertension in this population.
- x = 13 and n = 20
- Consider a uniform prior, $\alpha = \beta = 1$
- The posterior is proportional to (see formula above)

$$p^{x+lpha-1} \left(1-p
ight)^{n-x+eta-1} = p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

That is, for the uniform prior, the posterior is the likelihood

• Consider the instance where $\alpha=\beta=2$ (recall this prior is humped around the point .5) the posterior is

$$p^{x+\alpha-1} (1-p)^{n-x+\beta-1} = p^{x+1} (1-p)^{n-x+1}$$

• The "Jeffrey's prior" which has some theoretical benefits puts $\alpha=\beta=.5$

```
pvals \leq seq(0.01, 0.99, length = 1000)
x < -13; n < -20
myPlot <- function(alpha, beta){</pre>
    plot(0 : 1, 0 : 1, type = "n", xlab = "p", ylab = "", frame = FALSE)
    lines(pvals, dbeta(pvals, alpha, beta) / max(dbeta(pvals, alpha, beta)),
            lwd = 3, col = "darkred")
    lines(pvals, dbinom(x,n,pvals) / dbinom(x,n,x/n), lwd = 3, col = "darkblue")
    lines(pvals, dbeta(pvals, alpha+x, beta+(n-x)) / \max(dbeta(pvals, alpha+x, beta+(n-x))),
        lwd = 3, col = "darkgreen")
    title("red=prior, green=posterior, blue=likelihood")
manipulate(
    myPlot(alpha, beta),
    alpha = slider(0.01, 100, initial = 1, step = .5),
    beta = slider(0.01, 100, initial = 1, step = .5)
```

Credible intervals

- · A Bayesian credible interval is the Bayesian analog of a confidence interval
- A 95% credible interval, [a,b] would satisfy

$$P(p \in [a,b] \mid x) = .95$$

- The best credible intervals chop off the posterior with a horizontal line in the same way we did for likelihoods
- · These are called highest posterior density (HPD) intervals

Getting HPD intervals for this example

Install the \texttt{binom} package, then the command

```
library(binom)

## Error: there is no package called 'binom'

binom.bayes(13, 20, type = "highest")

## Error: could not find function "binom.bayes"
```

gives the HPD interval.

• The default credible level is 95% and the default prior is the Jeffrey's prior.

```
pvals \leq seq(0.01, 0.99, length = 1000)
x < -13; n < -20
myPlot2 <- function(alpha, beta, cl){</pre>
    plot(pvals, dbeta(pvals, alpha+x, beta+(n-x)), type = "l", lwd = 3,
    xlab = "p", ylab = "", frame = FALSE)
    out <- binom.bayes(x, n, type = "highest",
        prior.shape1 = alpha,
        prior.shape2 = beta,
        conf.level = cl)
    p1 <- out$lower; p2 <- out$upper
    lines(c(p1, p1, p2, p2), c(0, dbeta(c(p1, p2), alpha+x, beta+(n-x)), 0),
        type = "l", lwd = 3, col = "darkred")
manipulate(
    myPlot2(alpha, beta, cl),
    alpha = slider(0.01, 10, initial = 1, step = .5),
    beta = slider(0.01, 10, initial = 1, step = .5),
    cl = slider(0.01, 0.99, initial = 0.95, step = .01)
```