# Advanced Methods in Biostatistics II Lecture 14

December 12, 2017

# Bayesian Inference

- Most statistical methods covered in introductory statistics courses are frequentist (or classical) methods.
- Bayesian inference is an alternative approach that provides a somewhat different perspective.
- Bayesian inference is the process of inductive learning using Bayes' rule.

# Classical vs Bayesian Approach

- The frequentist (or classical) point of view:
  - Probabilities describe long run relative frequencies.
  - Parameters are fixed unknown constants. Because they do not fluctuate, no useful probability statements can be made about them.
  - Statistical procedures should be designed to have well-defined long run frequency properties (e.g., hypothesis tests and confidence intervals).

# Classical vs Bayesian Approach

- The Bayesian point of view:
  - Probabilities describe a degree of belief.
  - Probability statements can be made about parameters, even though they are fixed constants.
  - Inferences are made about a parameter  $\theta$  by producing a probability distribution for it.

# Bayesian statistics

- In Bayesian analysis, one chooses a density  $p(\theta)$ , the prior, that expresses our beliefs about  $\theta$  before we see any data.
- Then one chooses a statistical model  $p(y|\theta)$ , the likelihood, that reflects our belief about y given  $\theta$ .
- After observing  $\mathbf{y}$ , we update our beliefs and calculate the posterior distribution  $p(\theta|\mathbf{y})$ .

# Bayes calculations

• Updating is is done as follows:

$$p(\operatorname{Param}|\operatorname{Data}) = \frac{p(\operatorname{Param},\operatorname{Data})}{p(\operatorname{Data})}$$
 $\propto p(\operatorname{Data}|\operatorname{Param}) \times p(\operatorname{Param})$ 
 $= \operatorname{Likelihood} \times \operatorname{Prior}.$ 

The posterior distribution is used for subsequent inference.

#### The Prior distribution

- The prior distribution is a subjective distribution, based on the experimenter's belief and is formulated prior to viewing the data.
- In the Bayesian framework the choice of prior is crucial.
- If no prior information about the parameters are available, non-informative priors can be used. These types of priors let the data 'speak for itself'.
- One can also choose the priors in such a way that the posterior lies in the same family of distributions as the prior (conjugate priors).

## The Posterior distribution

- The posterior distribution contains all current information about the parameter  $\theta$ .
- Numerical summarizes (e.g., mean, median, mode) of the distribution are used to obtain point estimates of the parameter.
- We can also make probability statements about the parameter of interest and create posterior intervals.

## Credible intervals

- For example, a credible interval is the Bayesian analogue of a confidence interval.
- Given a posterior distribution on a parameter  $\theta$ , a 1  $-\alpha$  credible interval [L, U] is an interval such that:

$$P(L \le \theta \le U \mid \mathbf{y}) = 1 - \alpha.$$

- Consider a series of coin flips,  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$ .
- The likelihood associated with this experiment is

$$p(x_1, \dots x_n | \theta) \propto \theta^{\sum_i x_i} (1 - \theta)^{n - \sum_i x_i}$$
$$= \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n - x}$$

where  $x = \sum_{i} x_{i}$ .

 Notice the likelihood depends only on the total number of successes.

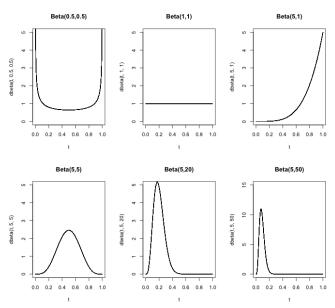
- Consider putting a Beta( $\alpha, \beta$ ) prior on  $\theta$ .
- This can be written as follows:

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

for  $0 \le \theta \le 1$ , and shape parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta > 0$ .

• Here the terms  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are refered to as hyperparameters.

## Beta distribution



The posterior distribution is given by

$$p(\theta \mid x_1, \dots x_n) \propto p(x_1, \dots x_n \mid \theta) \times p(\theta)$$
  
 $\propto \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}$ 

• Hence, the posterior distribution is Beta( $x + \alpha, n - x + \beta$ ).

The posterior mean is

$$E[\theta \mid x_1, \dots x_n] = \frac{x + \alpha}{n + \alpha + \beta}$$
$$= \delta \frac{x}{n} + (1 - \delta) \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

- Therefore, the posterior mean is a weighted average of the MLE  $(\hat{p} = x/n)$  and the prior mean  $\tilde{p} = \alpha(\alpha + \beta)^{-1}$ .
- The weight is given by the term:

$$\delta = \frac{n}{n + \alpha + \beta}.$$

- Note, as  $n \to \infty$  for fixed  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ,  $\delta \to 1$  and the MLE dominates.
- That is, as we collect more data, the prior becomes less relevant and the data, in the form of the likelihood, dominates.
- In contrast, for fixed n, as either α or β go to infinity (or both), the prior dominates (δ → 0).
- For the Beta distribution  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  going to infinity makes the distribution much more peaked.
- Thus, if we are more certain of our prior distribution, the data matters less.

# Conjugate prior

- In Bayesian analysis, if the posterior is in the same family as the distribution, the prior is called a conjugate prior for the likelihood function.
- The Beta distribution is a conjugate prior for the Binomial distribution, as it gives rise to a posterior that follows a Beta distribution.

## The Poisson model

- Now, let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(\theta)$ .
- The likelihood associated with this experiment is

$$p(x_1, \dots x_n | \theta) \propto \theta^{\sum_i x_i} e^{-n\theta}$$

$$\propto \theta^{x} e^{-n\theta}$$

where  $x = \sum_{i} x_{i}$ .

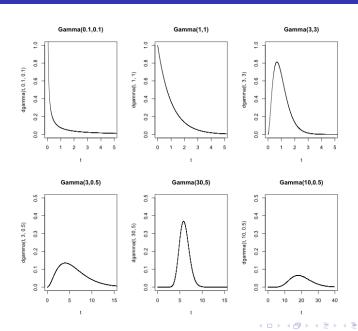
## The Poisson model

- Consider putting a Gamma( $\alpha, \beta$ ) prior on  $\theta$ .
- This can be written as follows:

$$p(\theta) = \frac{\beta^{\alpha} \theta^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\beta \theta}}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$$

for  $\theta > 0$ , and shape parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta > 0$ .

## Gamma distribution



## The Poisson model

The posterior is the given by

$$p(\theta \mid x_1, \dots x_n) \propto \theta^x e^{-n\theta} \theta^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta\theta}$$
  
=  $\theta^{x+\alpha-1} e^{-(\beta+n)\theta}$ .

- Thus the posterior is  $Gamma(x + \alpha, \beta + n)$ .
- The Gamma distribution is a conjugate prior for the Poisson distribution.

## The Poisson model

The posterior mean is:

$$E[\lambda \mid x] = \frac{x + \alpha}{\beta + n}$$
$$= \delta \frac{x}{n} + (1 - \delta) \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$$

where x/n is the MLE (the observed rate) and a/b is the prior estimate.

In this case

$$\delta = \frac{n}{\beta + n}.$$

• As  $n \to \infty$  the MLE dominates.

#### Posterior inference

- The posterior distribution is the basis for all Bayesian inference.
- In the previous examples our use of conjugate priors lead to simple expressions for the posterior means and variances.
- However, even if the posterior is known, it is sometimes difficult to obtain exact values of certain posterior quantities.

## Monte Carlo methods

- For example, we may want to calculate the probability that  $\theta \in A$  for some arbitrary set A, or alternatively the posterior distribution of some function of the parameters (e.g.,  $\max\{\theta_1, \dots \theta_n\}$ ).
- Obtaining exact values for these posterior quantities can be difficult.
- By generating random samples from the posterior, all quantities of interest can be approximated using Monte Carlo methods.

## Monte Carlo methods

- Let  $g(\theta)$  be some function of  $\theta$ .
- Suppose we want to estimate  $E(g(\theta) \mid \mathbf{x})$ .
- Generate an i.i.d sequence θ<sub>1</sub>,...θ<sub>N</sub> from the posterior distribution of θ.
- Estimate  $E(g(\theta) \mid \mathbf{x})$  using

$$\bar{g} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g(\theta_i)$$

• As  $N \to \infty$ ,  $\bar{g} \to E(g(\theta) \mid \mathbf{x})$ .

- In a sample of n = 860 individuals, x = 441 said that they agreed with a Supreme Court ruling that prohibited state or local governments from requiring the reading of religious texts in public schoool.
- Let  $\theta$  be the population proportion agreeing with the ruling.

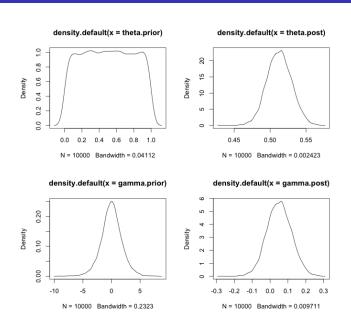
- In this example, the likelihood follows a Binomial model.
- Recall if we put a Beta( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ) prior on  $\theta$ , then the posterior distribution is Beta( $x + \alpha$ ,  $n x + \beta$ ).
- Here we choose  $\alpha = 1$  and  $\beta = 1$ .
- Thus, the posterior distribution of  $\theta$  is Beta(442, 420).

 Suppose we are interested in performing inference on the log odds:

$$\gamma = \log \left( \frac{\theta}{1 - \theta} \right).$$

 Let us use Monte Carlo methods to describe the posterior and perform inference.

```
> a=1
> h=1
> nsamp=10000
> theta.prior = rbeta(nsamp,a,b)
> gamma.prior = log(theta.prior/(1-theta.prior))
> theta.post = rbeta(nsamp, a+441, b+860-441)
> gamma.post = log(theta.post/(1-theta.post))
> par(mfrow=c(2,2))
> plot (density (theta.prior))
> plot(density(theta.post))
> plot(density(gamma.prior))
> plot(density(gamma.post))
```



#### Posterior inference

- Sampling from the posterior is effective when it can be implemented.
- However, it is often difficult in practice.
- For most probability distributions there is no simple way to simulate random variables of that particular distribution.

## **MCMC**

- Markov-chain Monte-Carlo (MCMC) is a method for sampling from a posterior distribution.
- A Markov chain is generated that has the desired distribution as its stationary distribution.
- The state of the chain after a large number of steps is used as a sample from the desired distribution.
- Can be extremely computationally expensive.

# Variational Bayes

- Variational Bayes (VB) is an approach towards approximating the posterior density which is less computationally intensive than MCMC.
- It allows one to approximate the posterior density with another density that has a more analytically tractable form.