Intro to Bayes

Daniel Andersor Week 7

Agenda

[We're not going to get through it all]

- Review Homework 2
- Some equation practice
- Introduce Bayes theorem
 - Go through an example with estimating a mean
- Discuss Bayes in the context of regression modeling

Homework 2 Review

Equation practice

The data

From an example in the Mplus manual. I made up the column names.

```
mplus_d <- read_csv(here::here("data", "mplus920.csv"))</pre>
mplus d
## # A tibble: 7,500 \times 6
##
         score baseline sch treatment dist ses schid distid
##
         <dbl>
                   <dbl>
                                <dbl>
                                          <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
##
   1 5.559216 1.383101
                                    1 - 0.642262
## 2 -0.107394 -0.789654
                                    1 -0.642262
##
                                    1 -0.642262
   3 0.049476 -0.760867
## 4 -2.387703 -0.798527
                                    1 -0.642262
##
   5 1.180393 -0.411377
                                    1 -0.642262
## 6 3.959005 -0.987154
                                    1 -0.642262
## 7 -0.895792 -1.966773
                                    1 -0.642262
## 8 2.879087 0.42117
                                    1 -0.642262
                                    1 -0.642262
## 9 5.611088 1.67047
                                    1 -0.64226 1 30
## 10 2.828119 0.001154
## # ... with 7,490 more rows
```

Fit the following model

```
egin{aligned} 	ext{score}_i &\sim N\left(lpha_{j[i]}, \sigma^2
ight) \ lpha_j &\sim N\left(\mu_{lpha_j}, \sigma^2_{lpha_j}
ight), 	ext{for distid j} = 1, \ldots, &J \end{aligned}
```

```
lmer(score ~ 1 + (1|distid), data = mplus_d)
```

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Fit the following model

```
egin{aligned} 	ext{score}_i &\sim N\left(lpha_{j[i],k[i]} + eta_1(	ext{baseline}), \sigma^2
ight) \ lpha_j &\sim N\left(\mu_{lpha_j}, \sigma^2_{lpha_j}
ight), 	ext{for schid j} = 1, \ldots, 	ext{J} \ lpha_k &\sim N\left(\mu_{lpha_k}, \sigma^2_{lpha_k}
ight), 	ext{for distid k} = 1, \ldots, 	ext{K} \end{aligned}
```



Fit the following model

```
egin{aligned} & \operatorname{score}_i \sim N\left(lpha_{j[i],k[i]} + eta_{1j[i]}(\operatorname{baseline}), \sigma^2
ight) \ \left(egin{aligned} lpha_j \ eta_{1j} \end{aligned}
ight) \sim N\left(\left(egin{aligned} \mu_{lpha_j} \ \mu_{eta_{1j}} \end{aligned}
ight), \left(egin{aligned} \sigma^2_{lpha_j} & 
ho_{lpha_jeta_{1j}} \ 
ho_{eta_{1j}lpha_j} \end{aligned}
ight), 	ext{ for schid } \mathbf{j} = 1, \ldots, \mathbf{J} \ lpha_k \sim N\left(\gamma_0^lpha + \gamma_1^lpha(\operatorname{dist\_ses}) + \gamma_2^lpha(\operatorname{baseline} 	imes \operatorname{dist\_ses}), \sigma^2_{lpha_k} 
ight), 	ext{ for distid } \mathbf{k} = 1, \end{aligned}
```



Fit the following model

```
egin{aligned} & \operatorname{score}_i \sim N\left(lpha_{j[i],k[i]} + eta_{1j[i]}(\operatorname{baseline}), \sigma^2
ight) \ \left(egin{aligned} lpha_j \ eta_{1j} \end{aligned}
ight) \sim N\left(\left(egin{aligned} \gamma_0^lpha + \gamma_1^lpha(\operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \ \mu_{eta_{1j}} \end{aligned}
ight), \left(egin{aligned} \sigma_{lpha_j}^2 & 
ho_{lpha_jeta_{1j}} \ 
ho_{eta_{1j}lpha_j} & \sigma_{eta_{1j}}^2 \end{aligned}
ight) 
ight), 	ext{ for schid } 	ext{j} = 1 \ lpha_k \sim N\left(\gamma_0^lpha + \gamma_1^lpha(\operatorname{dist\_ses}), \sigma_{lpha_k}^2\right), 	ext{ for distid } 	ext{k} = 1, \ldots, 	ext{K} \end{aligned}
```

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Fit the following model

```
egin{aligned} & \operatorname{score}_i \sim N\left(lpha_{j[i],k[i]} + eta_{1j[i]}(\operatorname{baseline}),\sigma^2
ight) \ \left(egin{aligned} lpha_j \ eta_{1j} \end{aligned}
ight) \sim N\left(\left(egin{aligned} \gamma_0^lpha + \gamma_{1k[i]}^lpha(\operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \ \gamma_0^{lpha_1} + \gamma_1^{eta_1}(\operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \end{aligned}
ight), \left(egin{aligned} \sigma_{lpha_j}^2 & 
ho_{lpha_jeta_{1j}} \ 
ho_{eta_{1j}lpha_j} & \sigma_{eta_{1j}}^2 \end{aligned}
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```

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Fit the following model

```
egin{aligned} &\operatorname{score}_i \sim N\left(lpha_{j[i],k[i]} + eta_{1j[i],k[i]}(\operatorname{baseline}),\sigma^2
ight) \ \left(egin{aligned} lpha_j \ eta_{1j} \end{aligned}
ight) \sim N\left(egin{aligned} \gamma_{0}^{lpha} + \gamma_{1k[i]}^{lpha}(\operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \ \gamma_{1k[i0}^{lpha} + \gamma_{1k[i]}^{lpha}(\operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \end{aligned}
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ho_{lpha_jeta_{1j}} \ 
ho_{eta_{1j}lpha_j} & \sigma_{eta_{1j}}^2 \end{aligned}
ight), 	ext{for schid } j=1,\ldots,J \ \left(egin{aligned} lpha_k \ eta_{1k} \ \gamma_{1k} \ \gamma_{1k} \ \gamma_{1k} \end{aligned}
ight) \sim N\left(egin{aligned} \gamma_0^{lpha} + \gamma_1^{lpha}(\operatorname{dist\_ses}) \ \mu_{eta_{1k}} \ \mu_{\gamma_{1k}} \ \mu_{\gamma_{1k}} \end{aligned}
ight), \left(egin{aligned} \sigma_{lpha_k}^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & \sigma_{eta_{1k}}^2 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & \sigma_{\gamma_{1k}}^2 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_{\gamma_{1k}}^2 \end{aligned}
ight), 	ext{for distid } k=1,\ldots,K \end{aligned}
```

Final one

Fit the following model

```
egin{aligned} & \operatorname{score}_i \sim N\left(lpha_{j[i],k[i]} + eta_{1j[i],k[i]}(\operatorname{baseline}),\sigma^2
ight) \ \left(egin{aligned} lpha_j \ eta_{1j} \end{aligned}
ight) \sim N\left(\left(egin{aligned} \gamma_0^lpha + \gamma_1^lpha(\operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \ \gamma_0^{eta_1} + \gamma_1^{eta_1}(\operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \end{aligned}
ight), \left(egin{aligned} \sigma_{lpha_j}^2 \ 
ho_{lpha_jeta_1j} \end{aligned}
ight) 
ight), 	ext{for schid } 	ext{j} = 1, \ldots, 	ext{J} \ \left(egin{aligned} lpha_k \ eta_{1k} \end{aligned}
ight) \sim N\left(\left(egin{aligned} \gamma_0^lpha + \gamma_1^lpha(\operatorname{dist\_ses}) + \gamma_2^lpha(\operatorname{dist\_ses} 	imes \operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \ \gamma_0^{eta_1} + \gamma_1^{eta_1}(\operatorname{dist\_ses}) + \gamma_1^{eta_1}(\operatorname{dist\_ses} 	imes \operatorname{sch\_treatment}) \end{aligned}
ight), \left(egin{aligned} \sigma_{lpha_k}^2 & 
ho_{lpha_keta_{1k}} \ 
ho_{eta_{1k}lpha_k} & \sigma_{eta_{1k}}^2 \end{aligned}
ight) 
ight), 	ext{for distid } 	ext{k} = 1, \ldots, 	ext{For large partial section of the large partial
```

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Bayes

A disclaimer

- There is **no** chance we'll really be able to do Bayes justice in this class
- The hope for today is that you'll get an introduction
- By the end you should be able to fit the models you already can, but in a Bayes framework
- Hopefully you also recognize the tradeoffs, and potential extensions

Bayes theorem

In equation form

You'll see this presented many different ways, perhaps mostly commonly as

$$p(B \mid A) = rac{p(A \mid B) imes p(B)}{p(A)}$$

where \mid is read as "given" and p is the probability

I prefer to give A and B more meaningful names

$$p(ext{prior} \mid ext{data}) = rac{p(ext{data} \mid ext{prior}) imes p(ext{prior})}{ ext{data}}$$

A real example

Classifying a student with a learning disability. We want to know

$$p(ext{LD} \mid ext{Test}_p) = rac{p(ext{Test}_p \mid ext{LD}) imes p(ext{LD})}{ ext{Test}_p}$$

Notice, this means we need to know:

- True positive rate of the test, $p(\text{Test}_p \mid \text{LD})$
- ullet Base rate for learning disabilities, $p(\mathrm{LD})$
- ullet Base rate for testing positive, Test_p

Estimating

If we have these things, we can estimate the probability that a student has a learning disability, given a positive test.

Let's assume:

- $p(\text{Test}_p \mid \text{LD}) = 0.90$
- p(LD) = 0.10
- $Test_p = 0.20$

$$p(ext{LD} \mid ext{Test}_p) = rac{.90 imes .10}{.20}$$
 $p(ext{LD} \mid ext{Test}_p) = 0.45$

A bit less than you might have expected? Probability is hard...

When we see things like "90% true positive rate" we want to interpret it as $p(LD \mid Test_p)$, when it's actually $p(Test_p \mid LD)$

Pieces

If we know all the pieces, we can estimate Bayes theorem directly.



Unfortunately this is almost never the case...

Alternative view

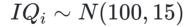
$$updated \ beliefs = \frac{likelihood \ of \ data \times prior \ information}{average \ likelihood}$$

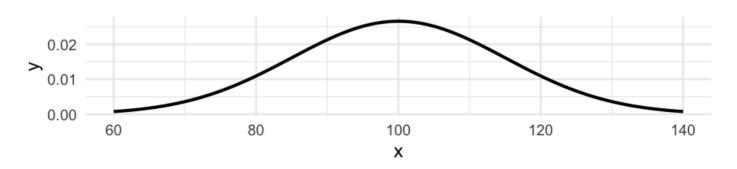
How do we calculate the likelihood of the data? We have to assume some distribution.

Example with IQ

```
#install.packages("carData")
iqs <- carData::Burt$IQbio
iqs</pre>
```

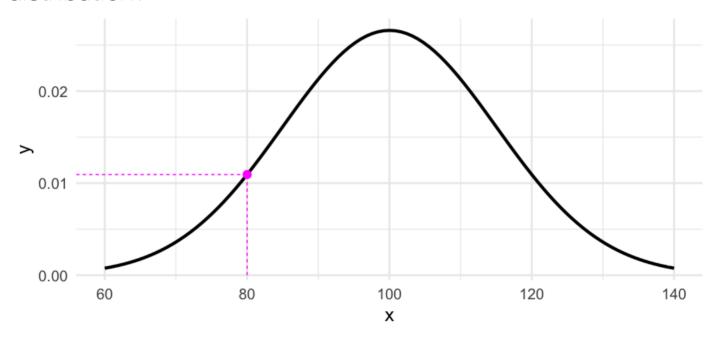
IQ scores are generally assumed to be generated from a distribution that looks like this:





Likelihood

What's the likelihood of a score of 80, assuming this distribution?



```
dnorm(80, mean = 100, sd = 15)
```

[1] 0.010934

Likelihood of the data

[1] -114.3065

We sum the likelihood to get the overall likelihood of the data. However, this leads to very small numbers. Computationally, it's easier to sum the *log* of these likelihoods.

```
dnorm(iqs, mean = 100, sd = 15, log = TRUE)

## [1] -4.346989 -4.515878 -3.946989 -3.769211 -4.195878 -4.269211 -5.9025
## [8] -5.495878 -5.015878 -3.735878 -3.682544 -3.946989 -3.895878 -6.6692
## [15] -4.802544 -4.062544 -4.269211 -3.735878 -3.646989 -4.002544 -3.70698
## [22] -3.662544 -3.946989 -4.002544 -3.706989 -3.735878 -3.635878

sum(dnorm(iqs, mean = 100, sd = 15, log = TRUE))
```

Alternative distributions

What if we assumed the data were generated from an alternative distribution, say $IQ_i \sim N(115,5)$?

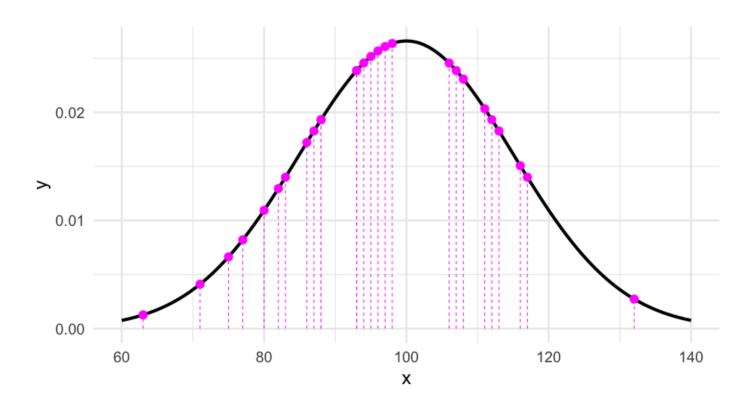
```
sum(dnorm(iqs, mean = 115, sd = 5, log = TRUE))
```

```
## [1] -416.3662
```

The value is *much* lower. In most models, we are estimating μ and σ , and trying to find values that *maximize* the sum of the log likelihoods.

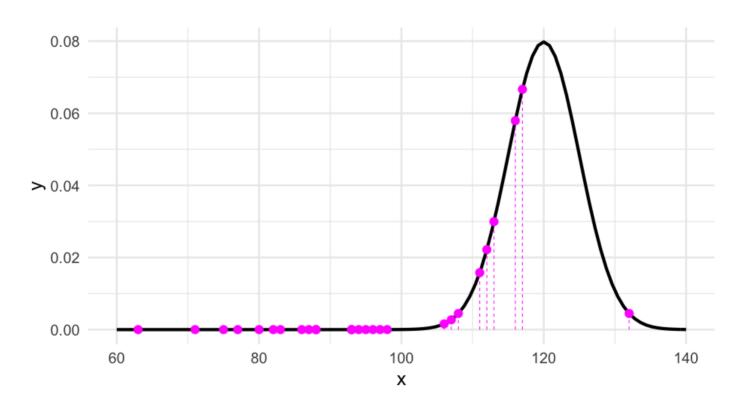
Visually

The real data generating distribution



Visually

The poorly fitting one



Non-Bayesian

In a frequentist regression model, we would find parameters that *maximize* the likelihood. Note – the distributional mean is often conditional.

This is part of why I've come to prefer notation that emphasizes the data generating process.

Example

I know we've talked about this before, but a simple linear regression model like this

is generally displayed like this

$$IQbio = \alpha + \beta_1(class_{low}) + \beta_2(class_{medium}) + \epsilon$$

But we could display the same thing like this

$$egin{aligned} ext{IQbio} &\sim N(\widehat{\mu}, \widehat{\sigma}) \ \widehat{\mu} &= lpha + eta_1(ext{class}_ ext{low}) + eta_2(ext{class}_ ext{medium}) \end{aligned}$$

Priors

Bayesian posterior

$$posterior = \frac{likelihood \times prior}{average\ likelihood}$$

The above is how we estimate with Bayes.

In words, it states that our updated beliefs (posterior) depend on the evidence from our data (likelihood) and our prior knowledge/conceptions/information (prior).

Our prior will shift in accordance with the evidence from the data

Basic example

Let's walk through a basic example where we're just estimating a mean. We'll assume we somehow magically know the variance. Please follow along.

First, generate some data

```
set.seed(123)
true_data <- rnorm(50, 5, 1)</pre>
```

Grid search

We're now going to specify a grid of possible means for our data. Let's search anywhere from -3 to 12 in 0.1 intervals.

```
grid <- tibble(possible_mean = seq(-3, 12, 0.1))</pre>
```

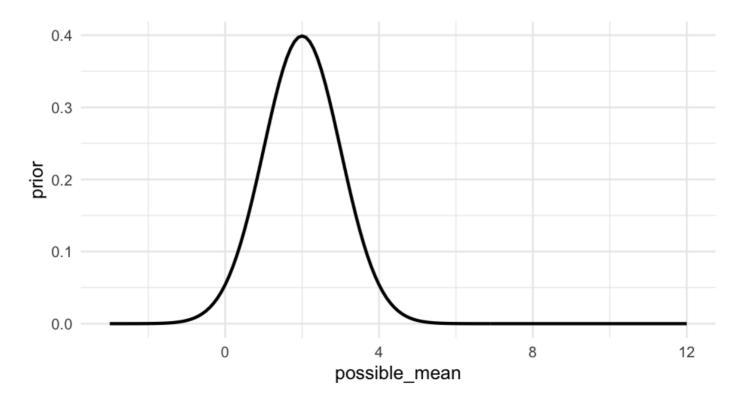
Next, we'll specify a *prior distribution*. That is – how likely do we *think* each of these possible means are?

Let's say our best guess is $\mu = 2$. Values on either side of 2 should be less likely.

```
prior <- dnorm(grid$possible_mean, mean = 2, sd = 1)</pre>
```

Plot our prior

```
grid %>%
  mutate(prior = prior) %>%
  ggplot(aes(possible_mean, prior)) +
  geom_line()
```



Look at other priors

Set prior

- Let's go with a fairly conservative prior, with $\mu=2,\sigma=3$.
- We also need to normalize it so the probability sums to
 1.0

```
grid <- grid %>%
  mutate(prior = dnorm(possible_mean, mean = 2, sd = 3),
      prior = prior / sum(prior)) # normalize
```

Observe 1 data point

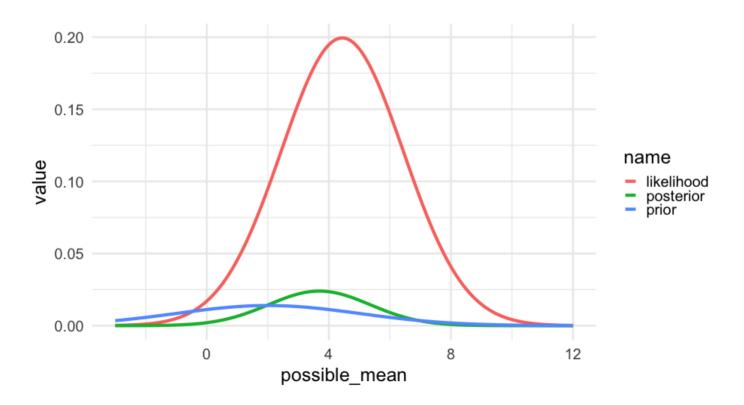
```
grid <- grid %>%
  mutate(likelihood = dnorm(true_data[1], possible_mean, 2))
grid
```

```
# A tibble: 151 x 3
    possible mean
##
                      prior likelihood
             <dbl>
##
                         <dbl>
                                     <dbl>
##
              -3 0.003477802 0.0001973758
   1
##
             -2.9 0.003674439 0.0002374240
   3
##
              -2.8 0.003877883 0.0002848850
##
              -2.7 0.004088046 0.0003409800
##
              -2.6 0.004304813 0.0004071013
##
              -2.5 0.004528041 0.0004848308
##
   7
             -2.4 0.004757554 0.0005759600
##
             -2.3 0.004993151 0.0006825094
##
  9
            -2.2 0.005234594 0.0008067505
## 10
       -2.1 0.005481619 0.0009512268
## # ... with 141 more rows
```

Compute posterior

Plot

```
grid %>%
  pivot_longer(-possible_mean) %>%
ggplot(aes(possible_mean, value)) +
  geom_line(aes(color = name))
```

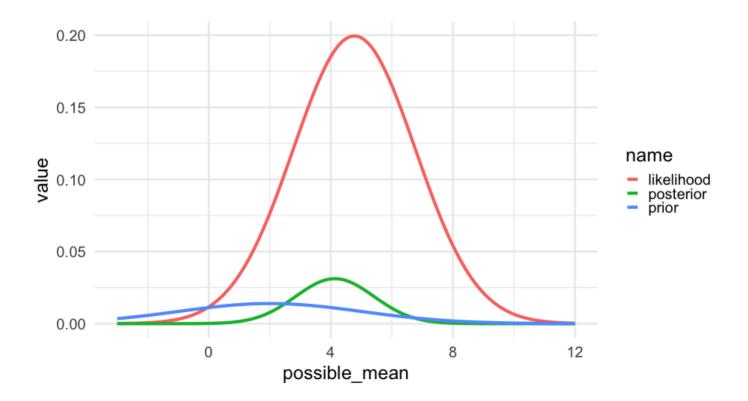


Observe a second data point

The old posterior becomes our new prior

Plot

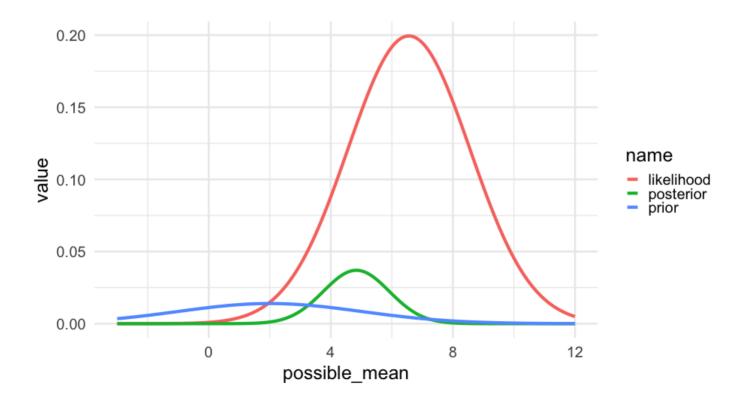
```
grid %>%
  pivot_longer(-possible_mean) %>%
ggplot(aes(possible_mean, value)) +
  geom_line(aes(color = name))
```



Observe a third data point

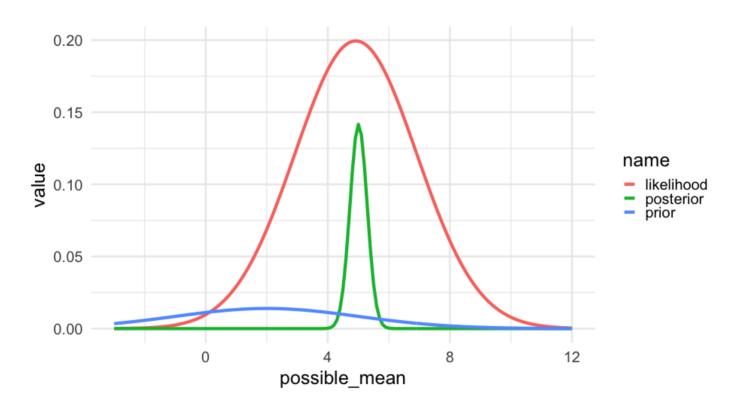
Plot

```
grid %>%
  pivot_longer(-possible_mean) %>%
ggplot(aes(possible_mean, value)) +
  geom_line(aes(color = name))
```



All the data

```
grid %>%
  pivot_longer(-possible_mean) %>%
ggplot(aes(possible_mean, value)) +
  geom_line(aes(color = name))
```



Posterior

- We can summarize our posterior distribution
- This is a fundamental difference between Bayesian & frequentist approaches
 - In Bayes, our data is assumed fixed, our parameters random
 - In frequentist, our data is assumed random, our parameters fixed

Most likely?

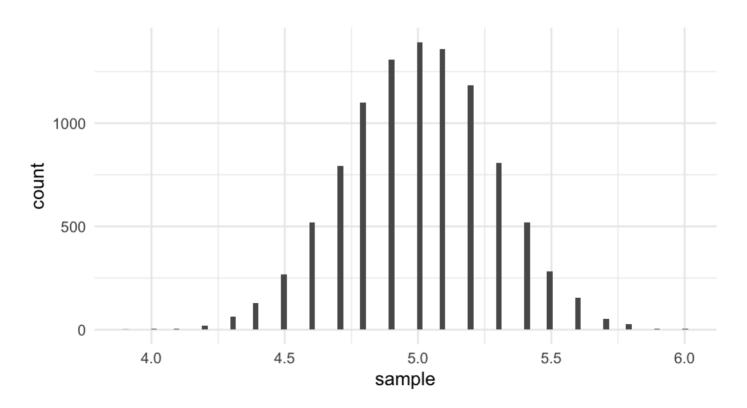
Sampling

- Now that we have a posterior distribution, we can sample from it to help us with inference
- Each possible mean should be sampled in accordance with its probability specified by the posterior.
- Let's draw 10,000 samples

Inference

First, let's plot the samples

```
ggplot(data.frame(sample = posterior_samples), aes(sample)) +
  geom_histogram(bins = 100)
```



Central tendency

[1] 0.278466

```
mean(posterior_samples)
## [1] 5.00441
median(posterior_samples)
## [1] 5
Spread
sd(posterior_samples)
```

Credible intervals

Let's compute an 80% credible interval

```
tibble(posterior_samples) %>%
   summarize(ci_80 = quantile(posterior_samples, c(0.1, 0.9)))

## # A tibble: 2 x 1
## ci_80
## <dbl>
## 1 4.6
## 2 5.4
```

What's the chance the "true" mean is less than 4.8?

```
sum(posterior_samples < 4.8) / length(posterior_samples) * 100</pre>
```

Ranges

What's the probability the "true" mean is between 5.2 and 5.5?

```
sum(posterior_samples >= 5.2 & posterior_samples <= 5.5) /
length(posterior_samples) * 100</pre>
```

[1] 27.94

Greater than 4.5?

```
sum(posterior_samples > 4.5) / length(posterior_samples) * 100
```

[1] 95.05

Note this is much more natural than frequentist statistics

Change our prior

Let's try again with a tighter prior

```
grid %>%
  pivot_longer(-possible_mean) %>%
ggplot(aes(possible_mean, value)) +
  geom_line(aes(color = name))
```

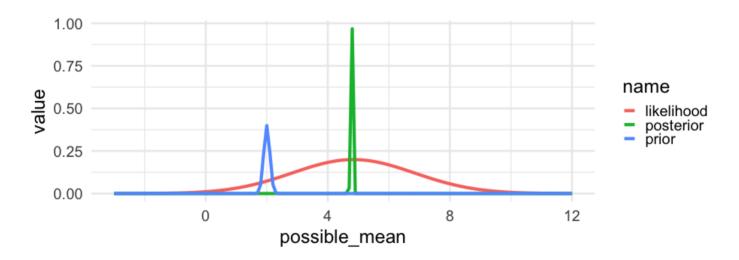


```
grid %>%
  filter(posterior == max(posterior))
```

More data

Same thing, but this time with tons of data

```
grid %>%
  pivot_longer(-possible_mean) %>%
ggplot(aes(possible_mean, value)) +
  geom_line(aes(color = name))
```



```
grid %>%
  filter(posterior == max(posterior))
```

Taking a step back

- The purpose of the prior is to include what you already know into your analysis
- The strength of your prior should depend on your prior research
- Larger samples will overwhelm priors quicker, particularly if they are diffuse
- Think through the lens of updating your prior beliefs
- This whole framework is quite different, but also gives us a lot of advantages in terms of probability interpretation, as we'll see

Bayes for regression

More complicated

Remember our posterior is defined by

$$posterior = \frac{likelihood \times prior}{average\ likelihood}$$

When we just had a single parameter to estimate, μ , this was tractable with grid search.

With even simple linear regression, however, we have three parameters: α , β , and σ

Our Bayesian model then becomes considerably more complicated:

$$P(\alpha, \beta, \sigma \mid x) = \frac{P(x \mid \alpha, \beta, \sigma) P(\alpha, \beta, \sigma)}{\iiint P(x \mid \alpha, \beta, \sigma) P(\alpha, \beta, \sigma) d\alpha d\beta d\sigma}$$

Estimation

Rather than trying to compute the integrals, we *simulate* observations from the joint posterior distribution.

This sounds a bit like magic - how do we do this?

Multiple different algorithms, but all use some form of Markov-Chain Monte-Carlo sampling

Conceptually

- Imagine the posterior as a hill
- We start with the parameters set to random numbers
 - Estimate the posterior with this values (our spot on the hill)
- Use information from the prior sample to determine whether and how to change the current parameter values
- Try to "walk" around in a way to a complete "picture" of the hill from the samples
- Use these samples as your posterior distribution

Metropolis-Hastings

We will use is called the Metropolis-Hastings algorithm:

- Compute a candidate "step" for the parameters
- Calculate an acceptance ratio $\alpha = f(x')/f(x_t)$. This will fall between 0 and 1.
- Generate number, u, from a random uniform distribution between 0 and 1
 - \circ if $u \leq \alpha$, accept the candidate
 - \circ if $u \geq \alpha$, reject the candidate

Complicated, but conceptually we're trying to sample the joint posterior distribution in a way that conforms with the

Script

- The mh-alg.R script works through the Metropolis— Hastings algorithm to get samples from the joint posterior of a simple linear regression model.
- The data are simulated, so we know the true values
- It's complicated, and not required at all, but it's there for you if you want more info

Next time

Continue discussing Bayes – more emphasis on model results & plotting

Fit and interpret multilevel logistic regression models