

# Bayesian inference for sample surveys

Roderick Little

Trivellore Raghunathan

Module 5: Bayesian models for simple random samples



# Consulting Example

- In India (during the late 70's), any person possessing a radio, transistor or television has to pay a license fee.
- In a densely populated area with mostly makeshift houses practically no one was paying these fees.
- It was determined that for enforcement to be fiscally meaningful, the proportion of households possessing one or more of these devices must exceed certain limit.

# Consulting example (continued)

$N$  = Population Size

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if household } i \text{ has a device} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i / N \quad \text{Proportion of households with a device}$$

Question of Interest:  $\Pr(Q \geq 0.3)$

- If the probability of  $Q$  exceeding 0.3 is very high then enforcement might be fiscally sensible
- Conduct a small scale survey to answer the question of interest
- Note that question only makes sense under Bayes paradigm

# General Setup

- Model for  $I = (I_1, I_2, \dots, I_N)$  : Sample Design
- Model for  $Y = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_N)$  : Prior
- Frame/Design Variables:  $Z$
- Joint distribution:  $\Pr(Y, I | Z)$
- Observed Data:  $(Y_{inc}, I, Z)$
- Missing or Unobserved Data:  $Y_{exc}$
- Inference:  $\Pr(Y_{exc} | Y_{inc}, I, Z)$

$I$	$Z$	$Y$
1		$Y_{inc}$
1		
1		
0		$Y_{exc}$
0		
0		
0		
0		

# Simple Random Sample

- Consider  $Z$  is not available
- $Pr(Y, I) = Pr(Y)Pr(I)$
- Exchangeable Prior/Model for  $Y$ 
  - For any two permutations of the labels or index used in  $Y$

$$(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_N) \text{ and } (j_1, j_2, \dots, j_N) \\ \Pr(Y_{i_1}, Y_{i_2}, \dots, Y_{i_N}) = \Pr(Y_{j_1}, Y_{j_2}, \dots, Y_{j_N})$$

- That is, the labels have no “information” relevant for the inference
- de Finetti (1937), Hewitt & Savage (1955) and Diaconis & Freedman (1980)
- Exchangeable distribution can be expressed as

$$\Pr(Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_N) = \int \prod_{i=1}^N \Pr(Y_i | \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta$$

# Consulting example

srs of size  $n$ ,  $Y_{\text{inc}} = \{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$ ,  $Y_{\text{exc}} = \{Y_{n+1}, \dots, Y_N\}$

$$Y_i \mid \theta \sim iid \text{ Bernoulli}(\theta)$$

Model for observable

$$\pi(\theta) = 1 \quad \theta \in (0,1)$$

Prior distribution

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

$$f(x \mid \theta) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n-x}$$

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i / N = \left( x + \sum_{i=n+1}^N Y_i \right) / N$$

Estimand

# Binomial Example

The posterior distribution is

$$p(\theta | x) = \frac{f(x | \theta)\pi(\theta)}{\int f(x | \theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta} \propto f(x | \theta)\pi(\theta)$$

$$p(\theta | x) = \frac{\binom{n}{x}\theta^x(1-\theta)^{n-x} \times 1}{\int \binom{n}{x}\theta^x(1-\theta)^{n-x} d\theta}$$

$$\theta | x \sim \text{Beta}(x+1, n-x+1)$$

$$Q = (x + \sum_{i=n+1}^N Y_i) / N$$

$$\left( \sum_{i=n+1}^N Y_i | \theta, x \right) \sim \text{Bin}(N-n, \theta)$$

# Infinite Population

*For  $N \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\bar{Y}_N \rightarrow \theta$*

$$\Pr(\bar{Y}_N \geq 0.3 \mid x) \approx \Pr(\theta \geq 0.3 \mid x)$$

Compute using cumulative distribution function of a beta distribution which is a standard function in most software such as SAS, R

What is the maximum proportion of households in the population with devices that can be said with great certainty?

$$\Pr(\theta \leq ? \mid x) = 0.9$$

Inverse CDF of Beta Distribution



# Numerical Example

- $N=270$  households
- $n=20$  SRS sample
- $x=8$  out of 20 had a device
- *Simulation*

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\bar{Y}_N \geq 0.3 \mid x) &= \Pr(Y_{N-n} \geq 0.3 \times N - x \mid x) \\ &= \int_0^1 \Pr(Y_{N-n} \geq 0.3 \times N - x \mid \theta, x) \pi(\theta \mid x) d\theta\end{aligned}$$

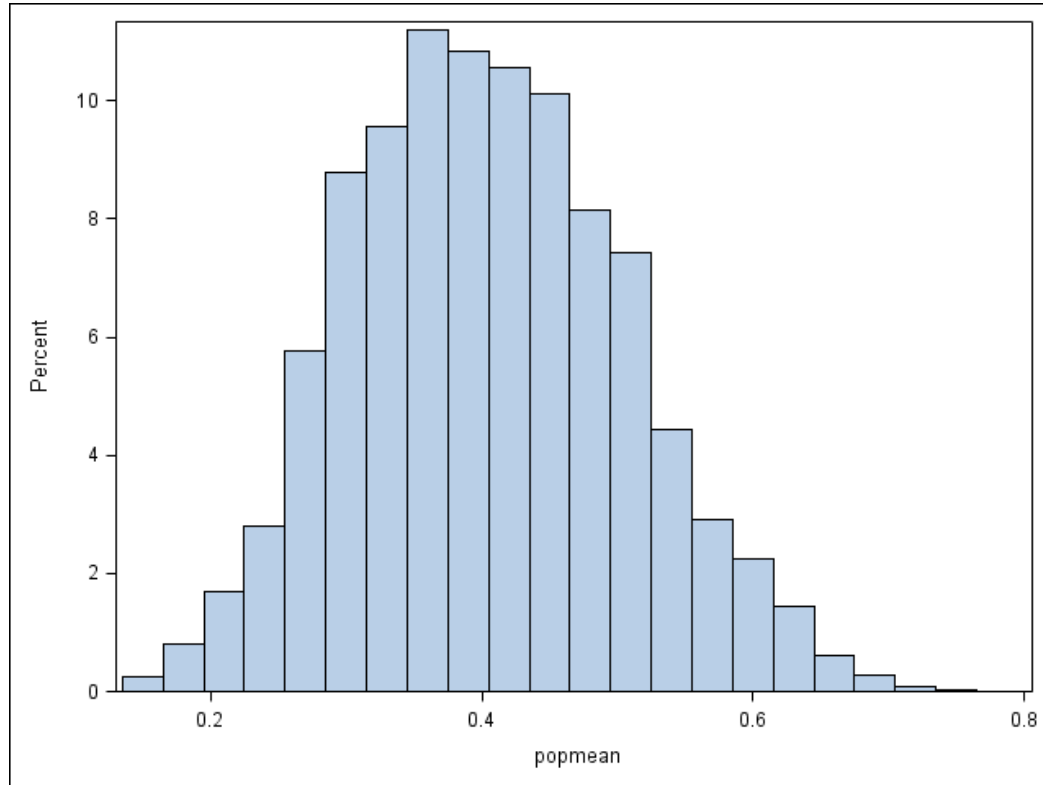
- Write a R-code for  $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(9,13)$ ;  $X_{N-n} \sim \text{Bin}(250, \theta)$ ; and compute  $\bar{Y}_N = (x + X_{N-n}) / N$
- Generate Treat 250 households with missing values and use missing data package (for example IVEware or MICE in R or MI in Stata) which fits the model

$$\Pr(Y = 1) = \exp(\beta) / (1 + \exp(\beta)), \pi(\beta) \propto 1$$

or

$$Y \sim \text{Bern}(\theta), \pi(\theta) \propto \theta^{-1} (1 - \theta)^{-1}$$

# Histogram of the 2,500 Draws



Proportion of Draws exceeding  
0.3=84%

Posterior mean: 0.4051

Posterior standard deviation:  
0.1007

Normal Approximation credible  
interval:  
(0.2077, 0.6025)

# Point Estimates

- Point estimate is often used as a single summary “best” value for the unknown  $Q$
- Some choices are the mean, mode or the median of the posterior distribution of  $Q$
- For symmetrical distributions an intuitive choice is the center of symmetry
- For asymmetrical distributions the choice is not clear. It depends upon the “loss” function.

# Interval Estimation

- Better summary is an interval estimate
- Fix the coverage rate  $1-\alpha$  in advance and determine the *highest posterior density* region  $C$  to include most likely values of  $Q$  totaling  $1-\alpha$  posterior probability
- Fix the value  $Q_o$  in advance, determine  $C$  by the collection of values of  $Q$  more likely than  $Q_o$  and calculate the coverage  $1-\alpha$  as the posterior probability of this  $C$

# Interval Estimates

$C$  is such that

$$(1) \quad p(Q | Y_{\text{inc}}) > p(Q' | Y_{\text{inc}})$$

$$Q \in C, Q' \notin C$$

$$(2) \quad \Pr(Q \in C | Y_{\text{inc}}) = 1 - \alpha$$

“Most likely” is usually defined by highest posterior density

- Highest Posterior Density Region
- For symmetric unimodal posterior distributions,  $(1 - \alpha)$  HPD interval is  $(q_{\alpha/2}, q_{1-\alpha/2})$  where  $\Pr(Q \leq q_{\alpha/2}) = \alpha/2$
- In the Binomial example, the beta density of  $\theta$  used to determine the interval estimate of  $Q$

# Normal simple random sample

$$Y_i \sim \text{iid } N(\mu, \sigma^2); i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$$\pi(\mu, \sigma^2) \propto \sigma^{-2}$$

simple random sample results in  $Y_{\text{inc}} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$

$$Q = \bar{Y} = \frac{n\bar{y} + (N - n)\bar{Y}_{\text{exc}}}{N}$$

$$= f \times \bar{y} + (1 - f) \times \bar{Y}_{\text{exc}}$$

Derive posterior distribution of  $Q$

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# Normal Example

Posterior distribution of  $(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mu, \sigma^2 \mid Y_{\text{inc}}) &\propto (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i \in \text{inc}} \frac{(y_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \\ &\propto (\sigma^2)^{-n/2-1} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{i \in \text{inc}} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 / \sigma^2 - n(\mu - \bar{y})^2 / \sigma^2 \right)\right] \end{aligned}$$

The above expressions imply that

$$(1) \quad \sigma^2 \mid Y_{\text{inc}} \sim \sum_{i \in \text{inc}} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 / \chi_{n-1}^2$$

$$(2) \quad \mu \mid Y_{\text{inc}}, \sigma^2 \sim N(\bar{y}, \sigma^2 / n)$$



# Posterior Distribution of $Q$

$$\bar{Y}_{\text{exc}} \mid \mu, \sigma^2 \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{N-n}\right)$$

$$\bar{Y}_{\text{exc}} \mid \sigma^2, Y_{\text{inc}} \sim N\left(\bar{y}, \frac{\sigma^2}{N-n} + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{\sigma^2}{(1-f)n}\right)$$

$$Q = f \times \bar{y} + (1-f) \times \bar{Y}_{\text{exc}}$$

$$Q \mid \sigma^2, Y_{\text{inc}} \sim N\left(\bar{y}, \frac{(1-f)\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

$$\bar{Y}_{\text{exc}} \mid Y_{\text{inc}} \sim t_{n-1}\left(\bar{y}, \frac{s^2}{(1-f)n}\right)$$

$$Q \mid Y_{\text{inc}} \sim t_{n-1}\left(\bar{y}, \frac{(1-f)s^2}{n}\right)$$

# HPD Interval for $Q$

Note the posterior  $t$  distribution of  $Q$  is symmetric and unimodal -- values in the center of the distribution are more likely than those in the tails.

Thus a  $(1-\alpha)100\%$  HPD interval is:

$$\bar{y} \pm t_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{(1-f)s^2}{n}}$$

Like frequentist confidence interval, but recovers the  $t$  correction

# Some other Estimands

- Suppose  $Q$ =Median or some other percentile
- One is better off inferring about all non-sampled values
- As we will see later, simulating values of  $Y_{exc}$  add enormous flexibility for drawing inferences about any finite population quantity
- Modern Bayesian methods heavily rely on simulating values from the posterior distribution of the model parameters and predictive-posterior distribution of the nonsampled values
- Computationally, if the population size,  $N$ , is too large then choose any arbitrary value  $K$  large relative to  $n$ , the sample size
  - National sample of size 2000
  - US population size 306 million
  - For numerical approximation, we can choose  $K=2000/f$ , for some small  $f=0.01$  or  $0.001$ .

# Comparison of Two Populations

- Population 1

*Population size =  $N_1$*   
*Sample size =  $n_1$*   
 *$Y_{1i} \sim \text{ind } N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$*   
 *$\pi(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) \propto \sigma_1^{-2}$*



*Sample Statistics :  $(\bar{y}_1, s_1^2)$*   
*Posterior distributions :*  
 *$(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 / \sigma_1^2 \sim \chi_{n_1-1}^2$*   
 *$\mu_1 \sim N(\bar{y}_1, \sigma_1^2 / n_1)$*   
 *$Y_{1i} \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2), i \in \text{exc}$*

- Population 2

*Population size =  $N_2$*   
*Sample size =  $n_2$*   
 *$Y_{2i} \sim \text{ind } N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$*   
 *$\pi(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2) \propto \sigma_2^{-2}$*



*Sample Statistics :  $(\bar{y}_2, s_2^2)$*   
*Posterior distributions :*  
 *$(n_2 - 1)s_2^2 / \sigma_2^2 \sim \chi_{n_2-1}^2$*   
 *$\mu_2 \sim N(\bar{y}_2, \sigma_2^2 / n_2)$*   
 *$Y_{2i} \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2), i \in \text{exc}$*

# Estimands

- Examples
  - $\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2$  (Finite sample version of Behrens-Fisher Problem)
  - Difference  $\Pr(Y_1 > c) - \Pr(Y_2 > c)$
  - Difference in the population medians
  - Ratio of the means or medians
  - Ratio of Variances
- It is possible to analytically compute the posterior distribution of some these quantities
- It is a whole lot easier to simulate values of non-sampled  $Y_1^{'s}$  in Population 1 and  $Y_2^{'s}$  in Population 2

# Bayesian Nonparametric Inference

- Population:  $Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, \dots, Y_N$
- All possible distinct values:  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_K$
- Model:  $\Pr(Y_i = d_k) = \theta_k$
- Prior:  $\pi(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k) \propto \prod_k \theta_k^{-1}$  if  $\sum_k \theta_k = 1$
- Mean and Variance:

$$E(Y_i | \theta) = \mu = \sum_k d_k \theta_k$$

$$\text{Var}(Y_i | \theta) = \sigma^2 = \sum_k d_k^2 \theta_k - \mu^2$$

# Bayesian Nonparametric Inference (continued)

- SRS of size  $n$  with  $n_k$  equal to number of  $d_k$  in the sample
- Objective is to draw inference about the population mean:  $Q = f \times \bar{y} + (1 - f) \times \bar{Y}_{\text{exc}}$
- As before we need the posterior distribution of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$

# Nonparametric Inference (continued)

- Posterior distribution of  $\theta$  is Dirichlet:

$$\pi(\theta | Y_{\text{inc}}) \propto \prod_k \theta_k^{n_k - 1} \text{ if } \sum_k \theta_k = 1 \text{ and } \sum_k n_k = n$$

- Posterior mean, variance and covariance of  $\theta$

$$E(\theta_k | Y_{\text{inc}}) = \frac{n_k}{n}, \text{Var}(\theta_k | Y_{\text{inc}}) = \frac{n_k(n - n_k)}{n^2(n + 1)}$$

$$\text{Cov}(\theta_k, \theta_l | Y_{\text{inc}}) = -\frac{n_k n_l}{n^2(n + 1)}$$



# Inference for $Q$

$$E(\mu | Y_{\text{inc}}) = \sum_k d_k \frac{n_k}{n} = \bar{y}$$

$$Var(\mu | Y_{\text{inc}}) = \frac{s^2}{n} \frac{n-1}{n+1}; s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i \in \text{inc}} (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

$$E(\sigma^2 | Y_{\text{inc}}) = s^2 \frac{n-1}{n+1}$$

Hence posterior mean and variance of  $Q$  are:

$$E(Q | Y_{\text{inc}}) = f \times \bar{y} + (1-f)E(\mu | Y_{\text{inc}}) = \bar{y}$$

$$Var(Q | Y_{\text{inc}}) = (1-f) \frac{s^2}{n} \frac{n-1}{n+1}$$

# Posterior Predictive Distribution

*Sample* :  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$

*Non – sample* :  $y_{n+1}, y_{n+2}, \dots, y_N$

*Predictive distribution* :

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y_{n+1}, y_{n+2}, \dots, y_N \mid y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) &= \Pr(y_{n+1} \mid y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \times \\ &\Pr(y_{n+2} \mid y_{n+1}, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \times \Pr(y_{n+3} \mid y_{n+2}, y_{n+1}, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \times \\ &\dots \times \Pr(y_N \mid y_{N-1}, \dots, y_{n+1}, y_{n+1}, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \end{aligned}$$

The Polya Urn Model can be used to obtain  
draws from the posterior predictive distribution  
(Ghosh and Meeden (1997), Feller (1967))

# Simple random Sample with Auxiliary Variables

## Ratio and Regression Estimates

- Population:  $(y_i, x_i; i=1, 2, \dots, N)$
- Sample:  $(y_i, i \in \text{inc}, x_i, i=1, 2, \dots, N)$ .

Objective: Infer about the population mean

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i$$

Excluded  $Y$ 's are missing values  $\longrightarrow$

$y_1$	$x_1$
$y_2$	$x_2$
.	.
.	.
.	.
$y_n$	$x_n$
	$x_{n+1}$
	$x_{n+2}$
	.
	.
	.
	$x_N$

# Model Specification

$$(Y_i | x_i, \beta, \sigma^2) \sim \text{ind } N(\beta x_i, \sigma^2 x_i^{2g})$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$g$  known

Prior distribution:  $\pi(\beta, \sigma^2) \propto \sigma^{-2}$

$g=1/2$ : Classical Ratio estimator. Posterior variance equals randomization variance for large samples

$g=0$ : Regression through origin. The posterior variance is nearly the same as the randomization variance.

$g=1$ : HT model. Posterior variance equals randomization variance for large samples.

Note that, no asymptotic arguments have been used in deriving Bayesian inferences. Makes small sample corrections and uses t-distributions.

# Some Remarks

- For large samples, estimate and its variance under nonparametric model assumptions are very nearly the same as those under the normal model assumptions
- For large  $N$ , the population size, the finite population quantity is very nearly same as the model parameter ( $Q \approx \mu$ ).
- For large samples,

$$\frac{Q - E(Q | Y_{\text{inc}})}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(Q | Y_{\text{inc}})}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

# Remarks (Continued)

- Bayesian Interpretation: Summary of the excluded portion of the population has approximate normal distribution conditional on the observed data. *That is  $Y_{\text{inc}}$  is fixed and  $Q$  is random.*
- Frequentist Interpretation: Under repeated sampling, the distribution of estimates of  $Q$ . *That is  $Q$  is fixed and  $Y_{\text{inc}}$  is random.*
- For large samples, the frequentist and Bayes will nearly give the same numerical answers but interpretations would differ.

# Remarks

- In much practical analysis the prior information is diffuse, and the likelihood dominates the prior information.
- Jeffreys (1961) developed “noninformative priors” based on the notion of very little prior information relative to the information provided by the data.
- Jeffreys derived the noninformative prior requiring invariance under parameter transformation.
- In general,

$$\pi(\theta) \propto |J(\theta)|^{1/2}$$

where

$$J(\theta) = -E \left( \frac{\partial^2 \log f(y | \theta)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta^t} \right)$$

# Examples of noninformative priors

Normal:  $\pi(\mu, \sigma^2) \propto \sigma^{-2}$

Binomial:  $\pi(\theta) \propto \theta^{-1/2} (1 - \theta)^{-1/2}$

Poisson:  $\pi(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{-1/2}$

Normal regression with slopes  $\beta$ :  $\pi(\beta, \sigma^2) \propto \sigma^{-2}$

In simple cases these noninformative priors result in numerically same answers as standard frequentist procedures



# Summary

- Considered Bayesian predictive inference for population quantities
- Focused here on the population mean, but other posterior distribution of more complex finite population quantities  $Q$  can be derived
- Key is to compute the posterior distribution of  $Q$  conditional on the data and model
  - Summarize the posterior distribution using posterior mean, variance, HPD interval etc
- Modern Bayesian analysis uses simulation technique to study the posterior distribution
- Models need to incorporate complex design features like unequal selection, stratification and clustering