

Statistics on Trial(s)

Frequentist vs Bayesian Inference

- *Objective p-values versus subjective posteriors*

P-values on trial: Sir Roy Meadow and Sally Clark



Sally Clark

- ▶ Young lawyer, gives birth to first son in September 1996
- ▶ son dies, apparently of SIDS, at 10 weeks
- ▶ second son born a year later
- ▶ dies, apparently of SIDS, at 8 weeks
- ▶ only evidence of trauma consistent with resuscitation attempts
- ▶ charged with two counts of murder



Sir Roy Meadow

- ▶ distinguished pediatrician
- ▶ as expert witness testifies:
 - ▶ probability of one SIDS death: $\frac{1}{8,500}$
 - ▶ probability of two: $\left(\frac{1}{8,500}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{72,250,000}$
 - ▶ 'if she's innocent, the chances of this happening are 1 in 72 million'
- ▶ jury convicts Sally Clark of murder in November 1999
- ▶ first appeal lost in October 2000
- ▶ second appeal succeeds and Sally Clark is released in January 2003
- ▶ she dies in 2007 at the age of 42

H_0 : Sally is innocent

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γ : 2 children die for no apparent cause

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y : 2 children die for no apparent cause

$$P\text{-value} = \Pr(y^+ \mid H_0)$$

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Meadow's calculation

$$\approx \frac{1}{8,500} \times \frac{1}{8,500} = \frac{1}{72,250,000}$$

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- Criticism :
- 1) assumes independence
 - 2) $\frac{1}{8,500}$ too small

Correct p-value is larger - maybe $\frac{1}{10,000}$!

BUT:

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Do we really want $P(y^+ | H_0)$?

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- must be close!?
- Is $P(Y^+ | H_0)$ a good proxy for $P(H_0 | Y)$?

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Don't we really want $P(H_0 | Y)$?

- must be close!?
- Is $P(Y^+ | H_0)$ a good proxy for $P(H_0 | Y)$?

Does it establish guilt beyond a reasonable doubt?

BUT:

Do we really want $P(Y^+ | H_0)$?

Don't we really want $P(H_0 | Y)$?

= must be close!?

= Is $P(Y^+ | H_0)$ a good

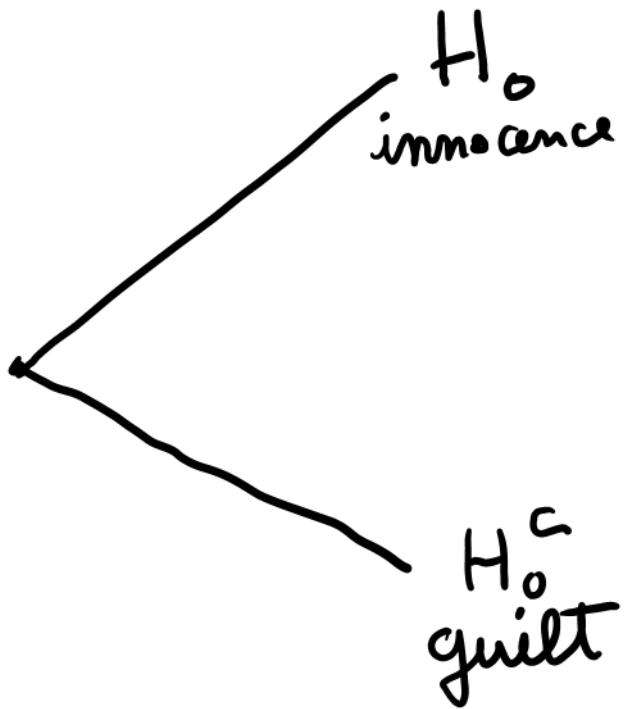
proxy for $P(H_0 | Y)$?

Let's find out:

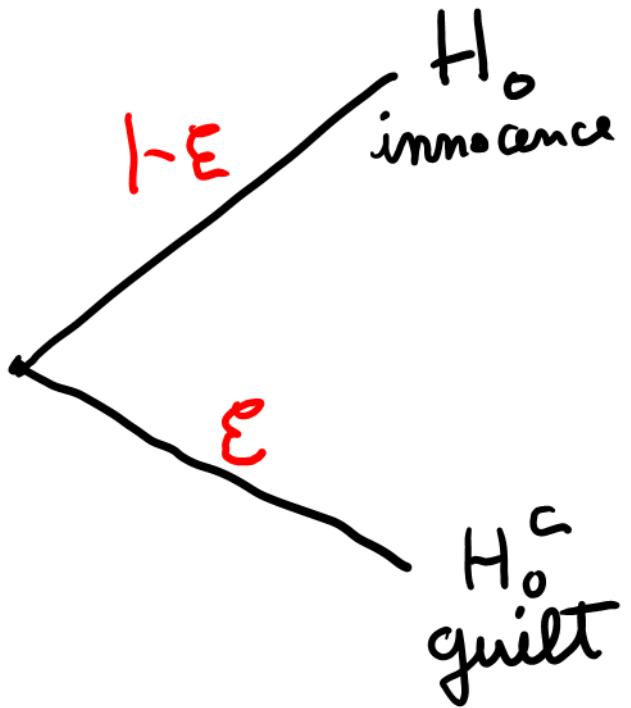
$$P(H_0 | Y) = \frac{P(H_0, Y)}{P(Y)} = \frac{P(Y | H_0) P(H_0)}{P(Y)}$$

Bayesian tree:

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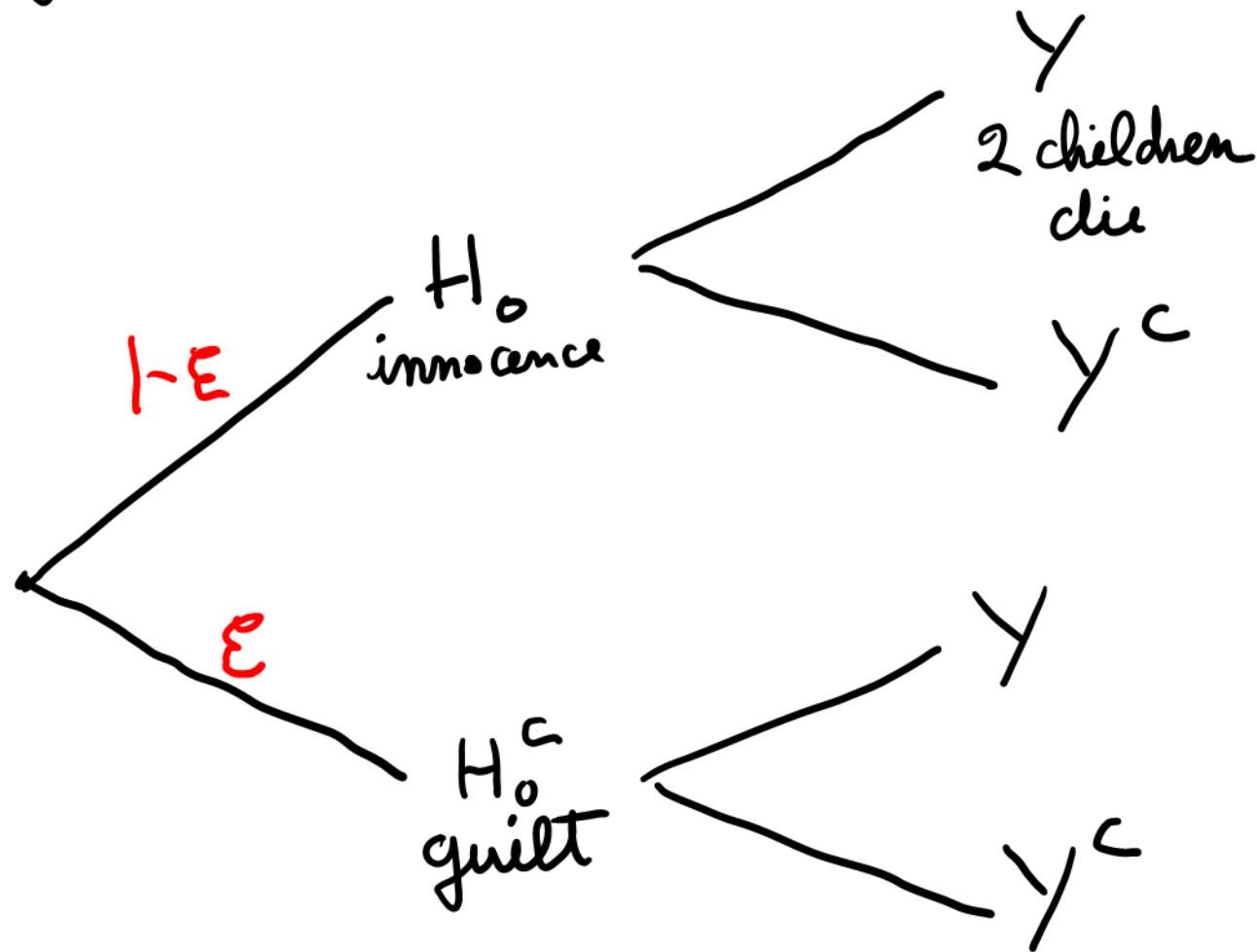


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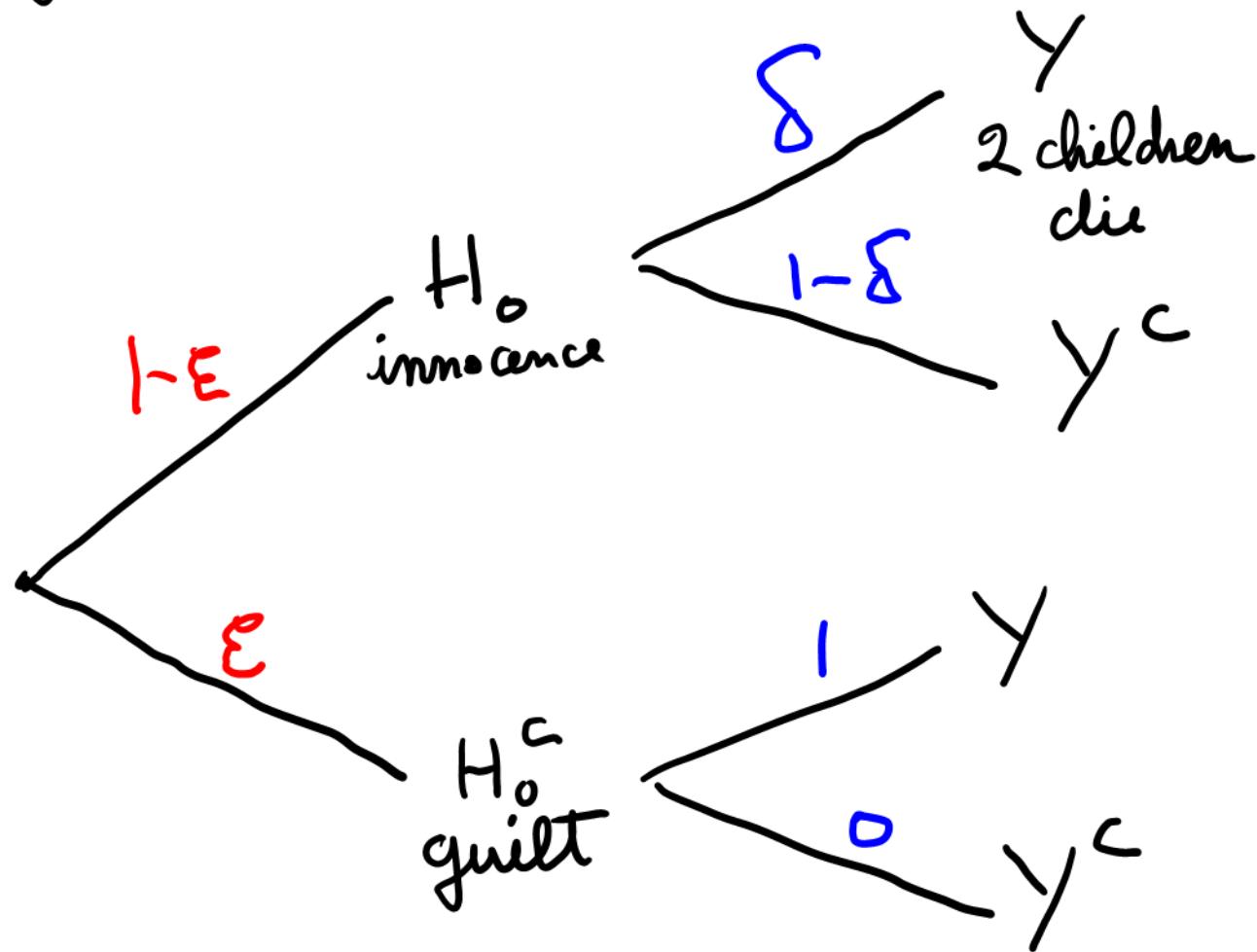


E = very small number

Bayesian tree:

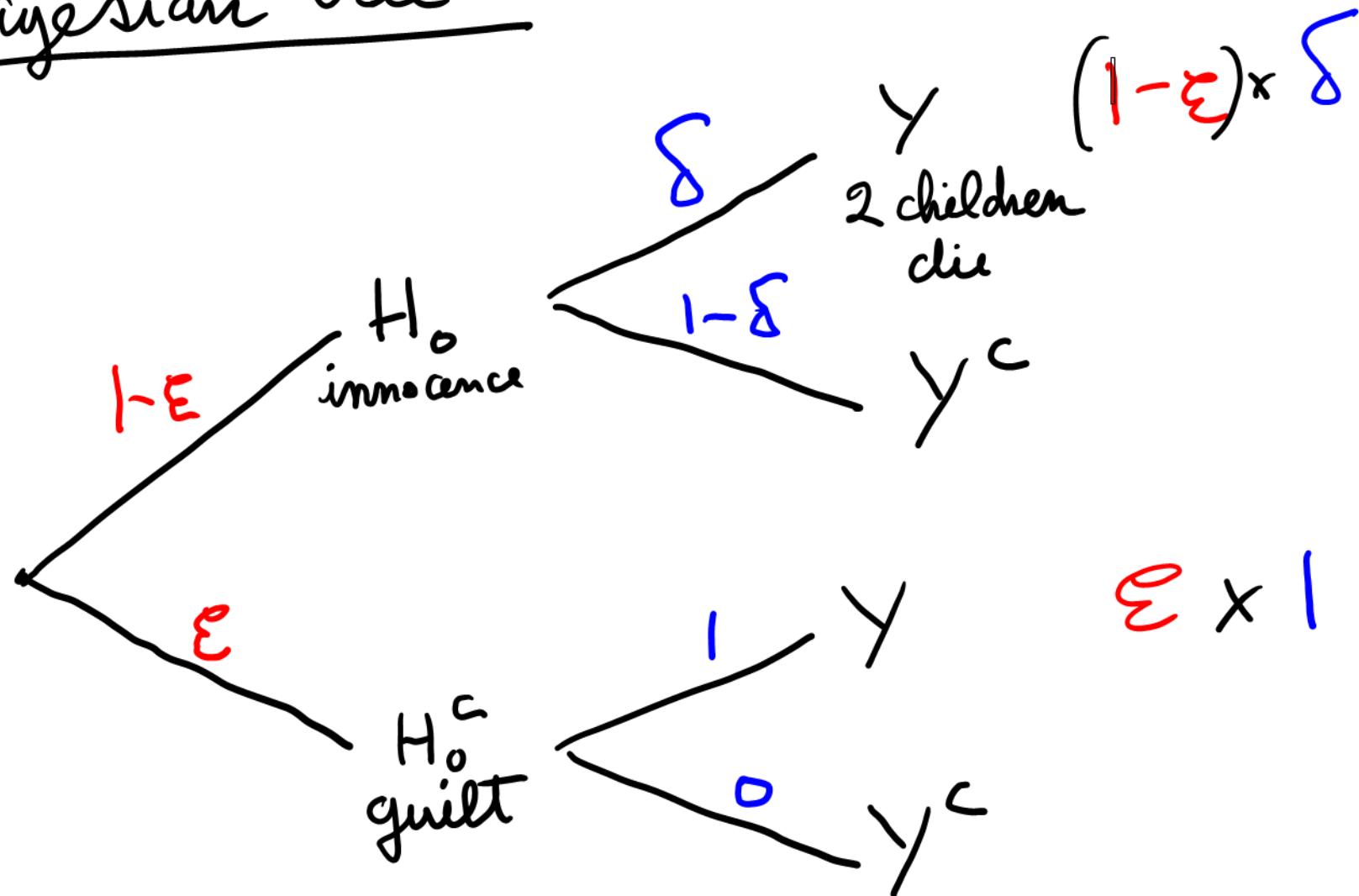


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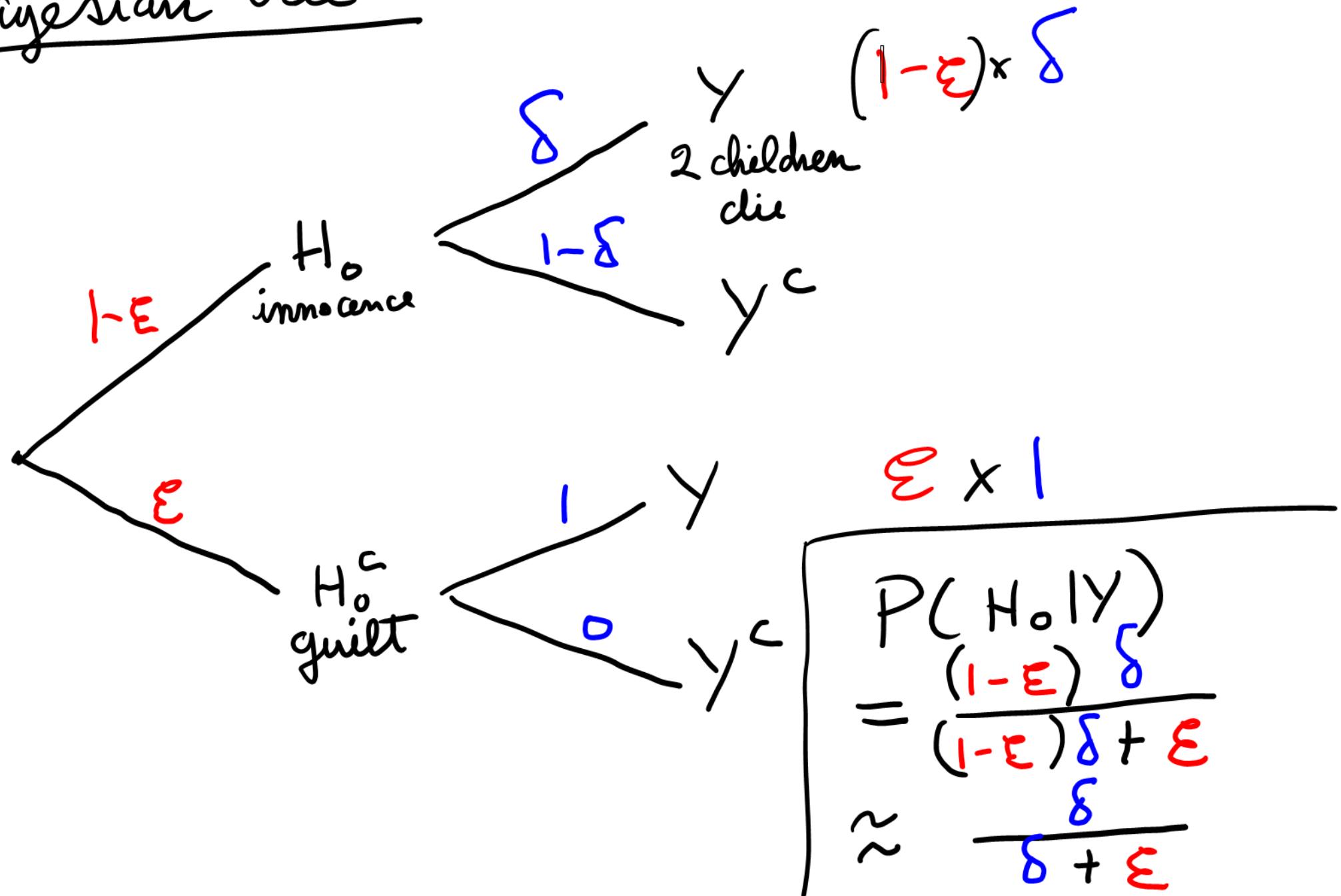
$\delta = \text{very small number}$

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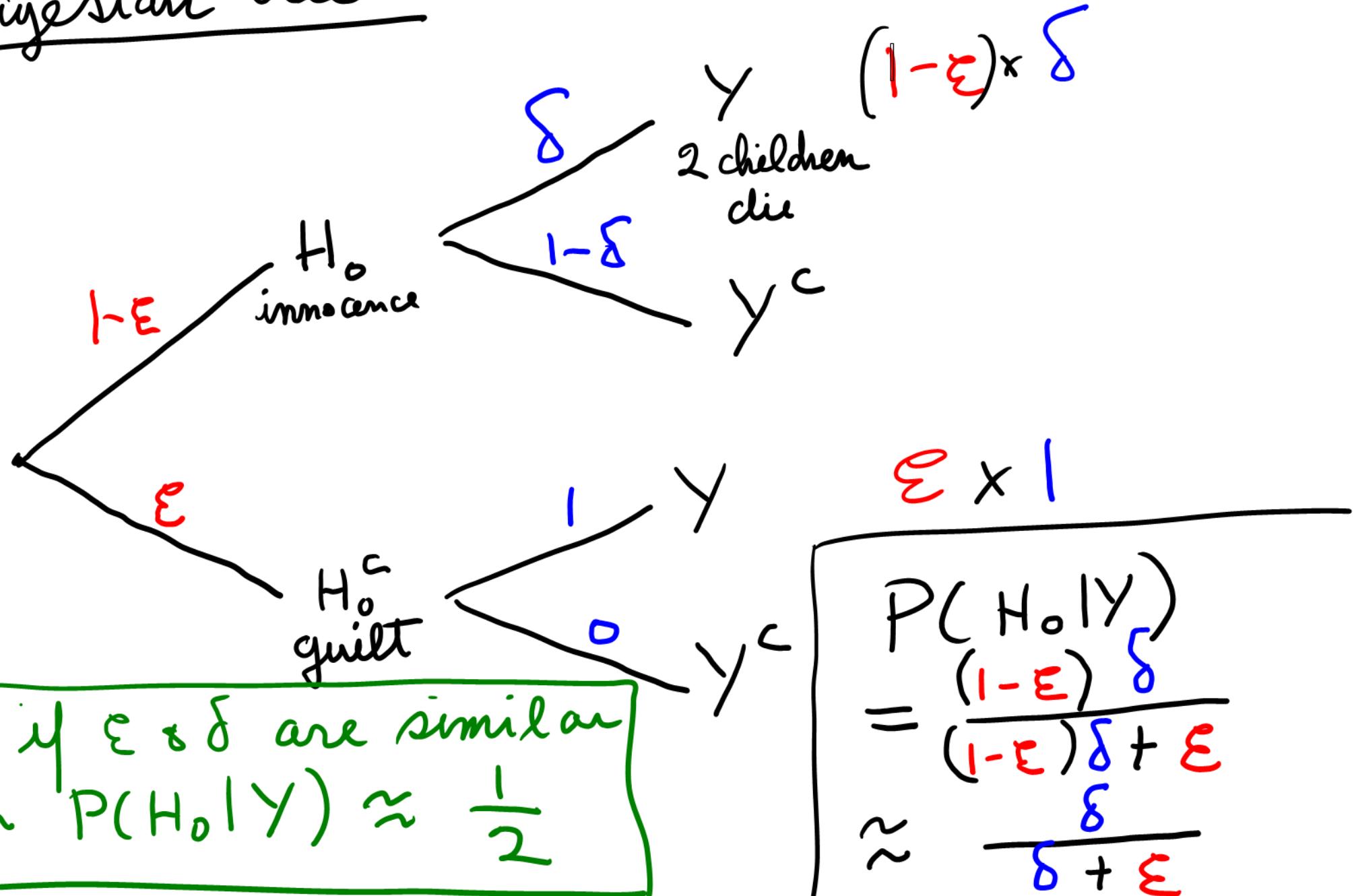


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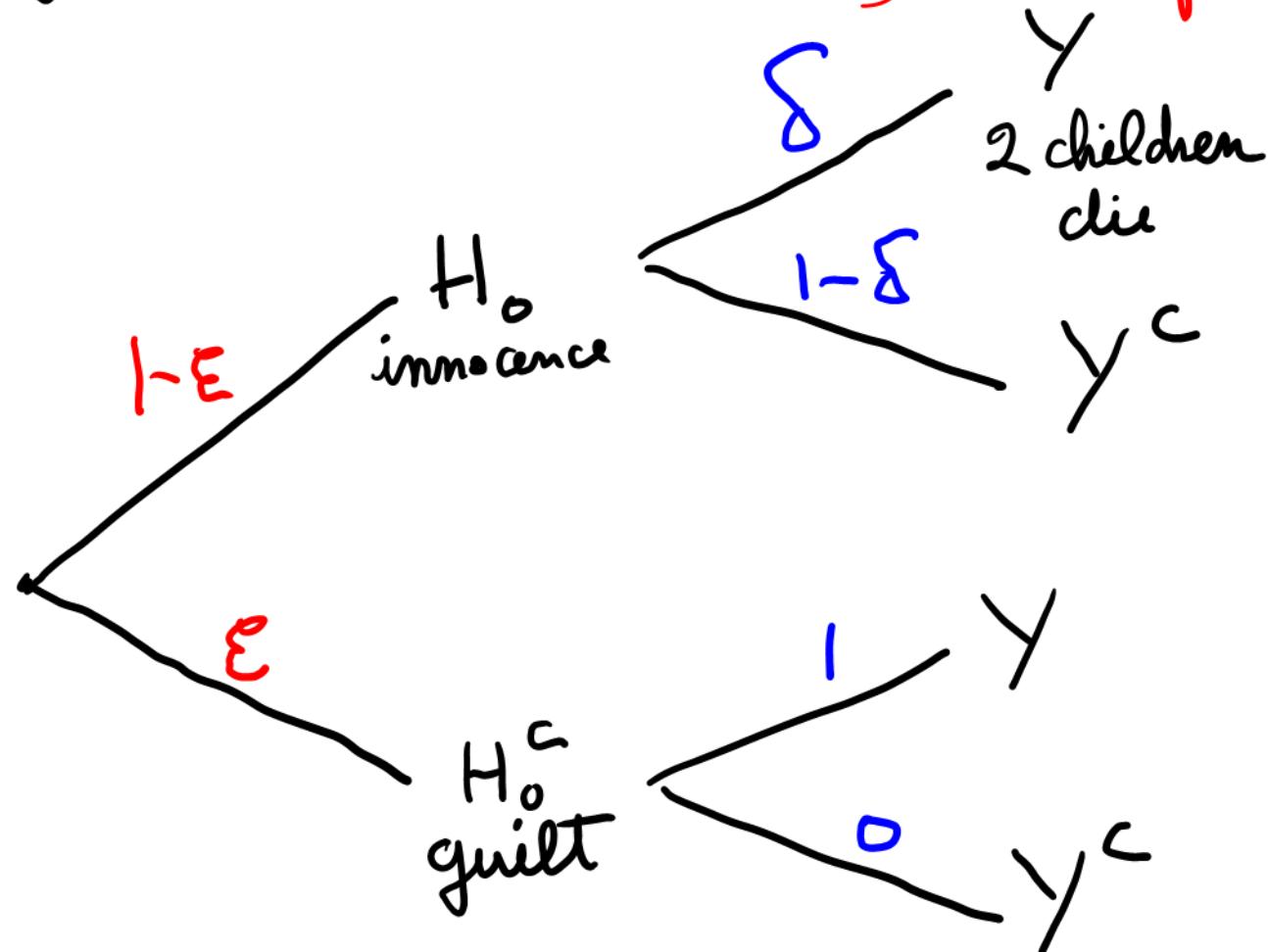
Bayesian tree:



So if $\epsilon \approx \delta$ are similar
then $P(H_0|Y) \approx \frac{1}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(H_0|Y) &= \frac{(1-\epsilon)\delta}{(1-\epsilon)\delta + \epsilon} \\
 &\approx \frac{\delta}{\delta + \epsilon}
 \end{aligned}$$

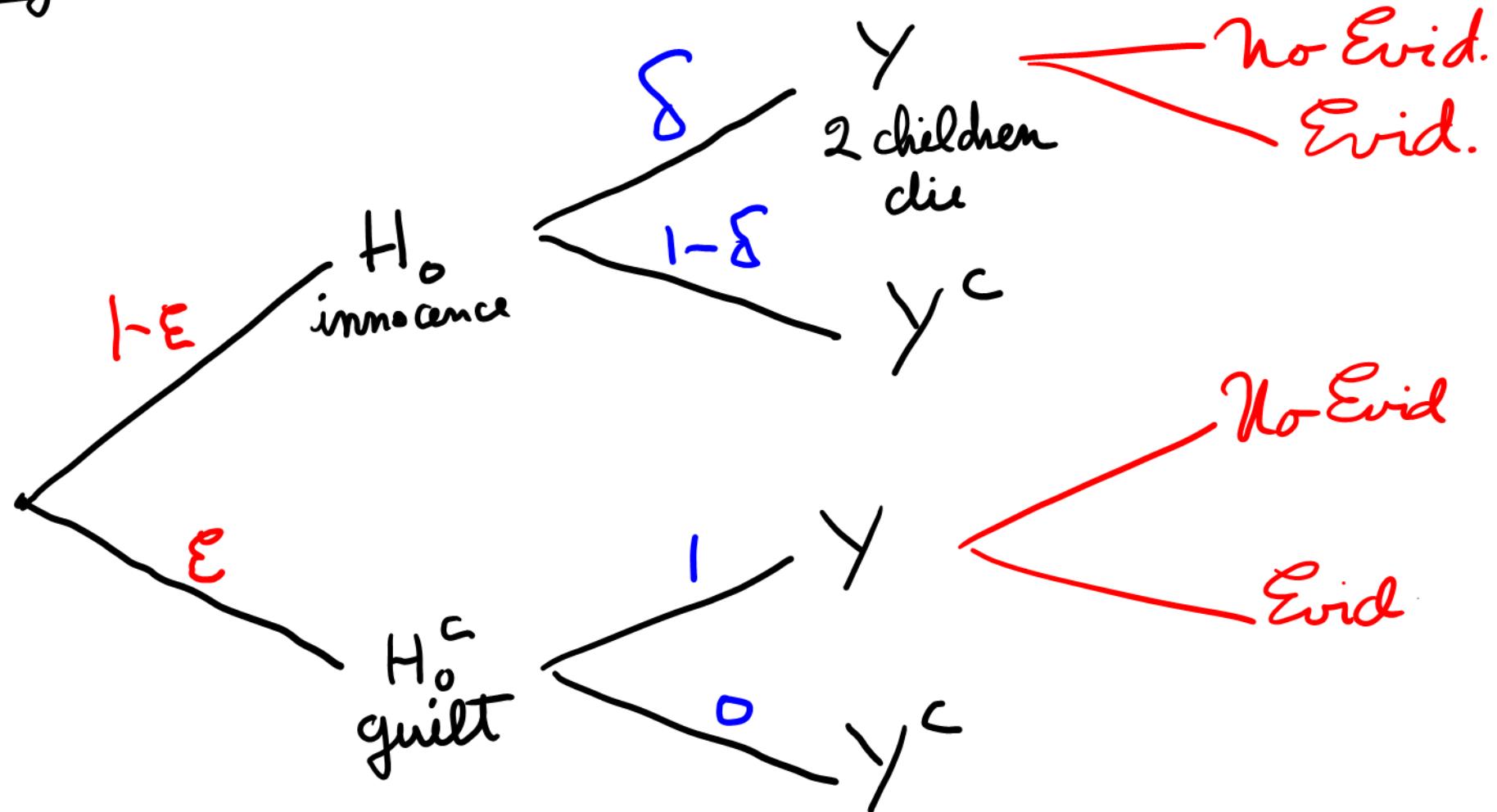
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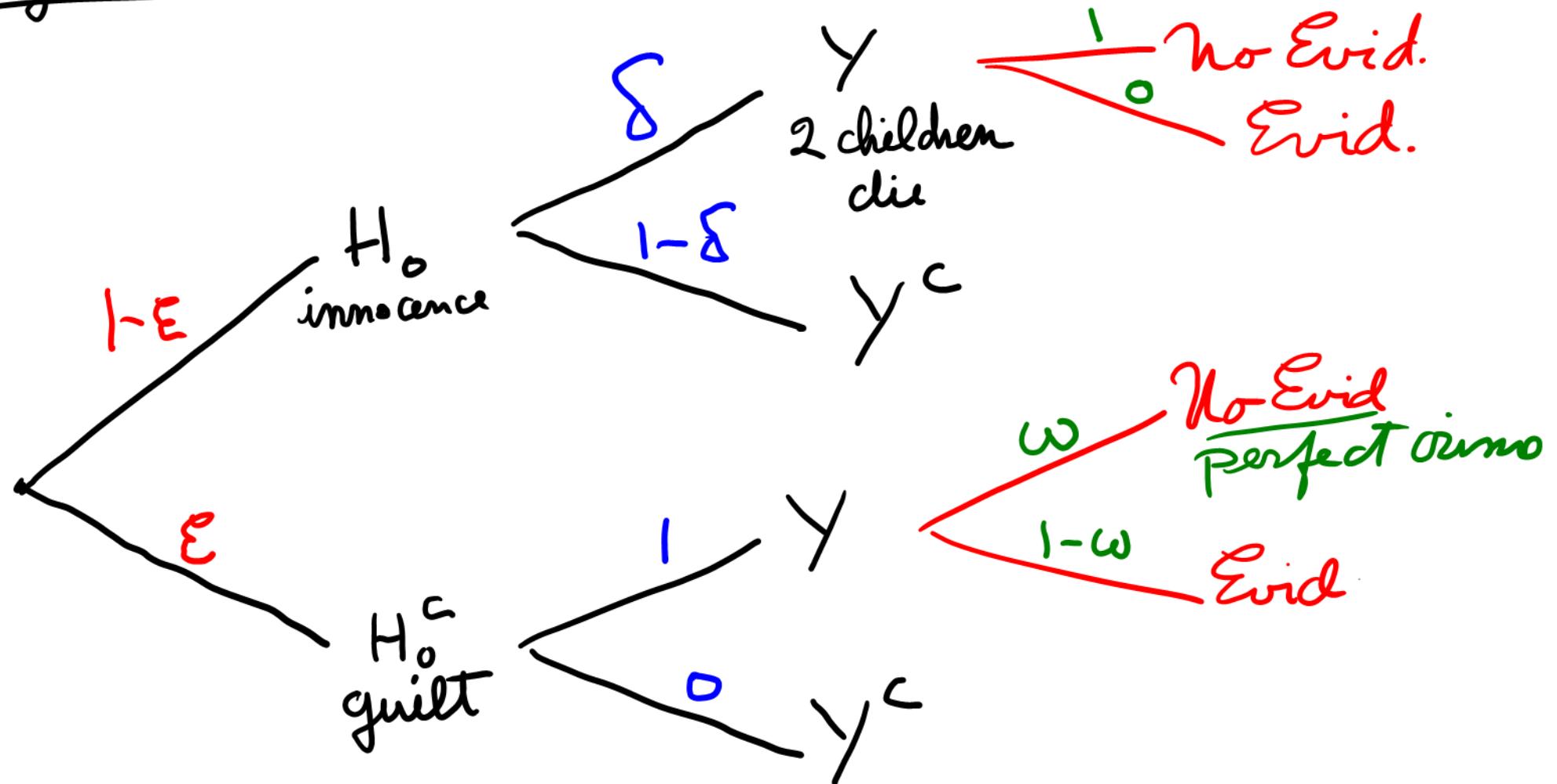
But this ignores
lack of evidence

If it's a
crime, it's
a "perfect"
crime - and,
presumably,
only a
small proportion
of crimes are
perfect crimes.

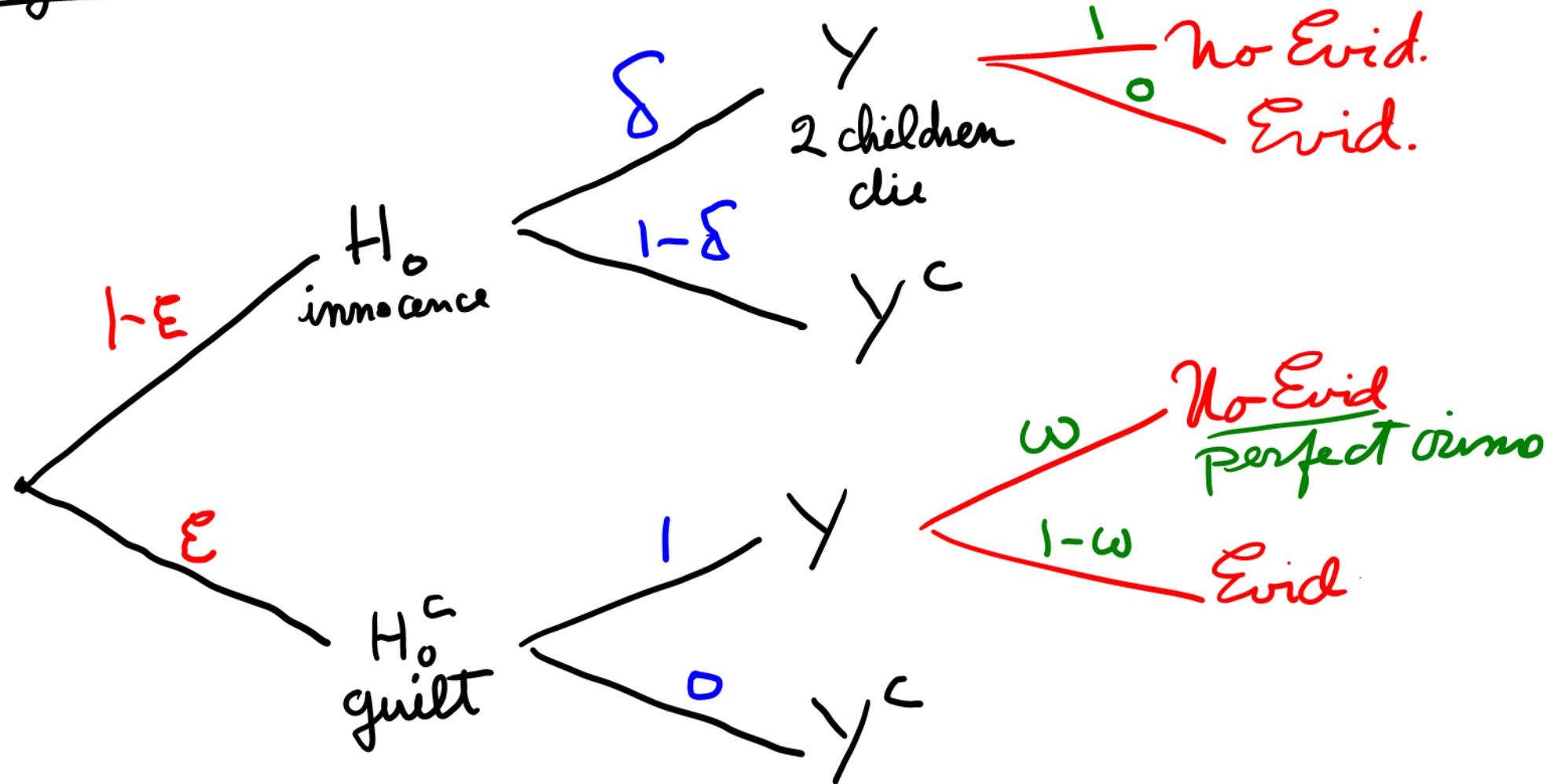
Bayesian tree:



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$$Pr(H_0 | y, \text{No Evid}) \approx \frac{\delta}{\delta + \epsilon \omega} \approx \text{close to } 1 !!$$

Sally Clark was
innocent beyond
a reasonable doubt.

$$P(y^+ | H_0)$$

was a very poor proxy for

$$P(H_0 | Y)$$

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- But many (most?) scientists only know about $P(Y^+ | H_0)$.
- Many have been trained to be adamantly opposed to using "subjective" Bayesian methods instead of "objective" Frequentist methods.

— Using the p-value as a proxy for $P(H_0 | Y)$
has come to be known as the
"Prosecutor's Fallacy"

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- But many (most?) scientists testifying don't know of other ways

— Using the p-value as a proxy for $P(H_0 | Y)$
has come to be known as the
"Prosecutor's Fallacy"

So, how did we get to this?

Why are we using p-values if
they are so bad?

Dilemma

Dilemma

(H) : unknown state of nature

Dilemma

H : unknown state of nature

Y : what's observed

Dilemma

H : unknown state of nature

Y : what's observed

What does Y say about H ?

Dilemma

Θ : unknown state of nature

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What does Y say about Θ ?

Model : $P(Y|\Theta)$

Dilemma

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From this we can get p-values,
confidence intervals, size- α tests.

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What does Y say about Θ ?

Model : $P(Y|\Theta)$

From this we can get p-values,
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But not $p(\Theta|Y)$ Posterior

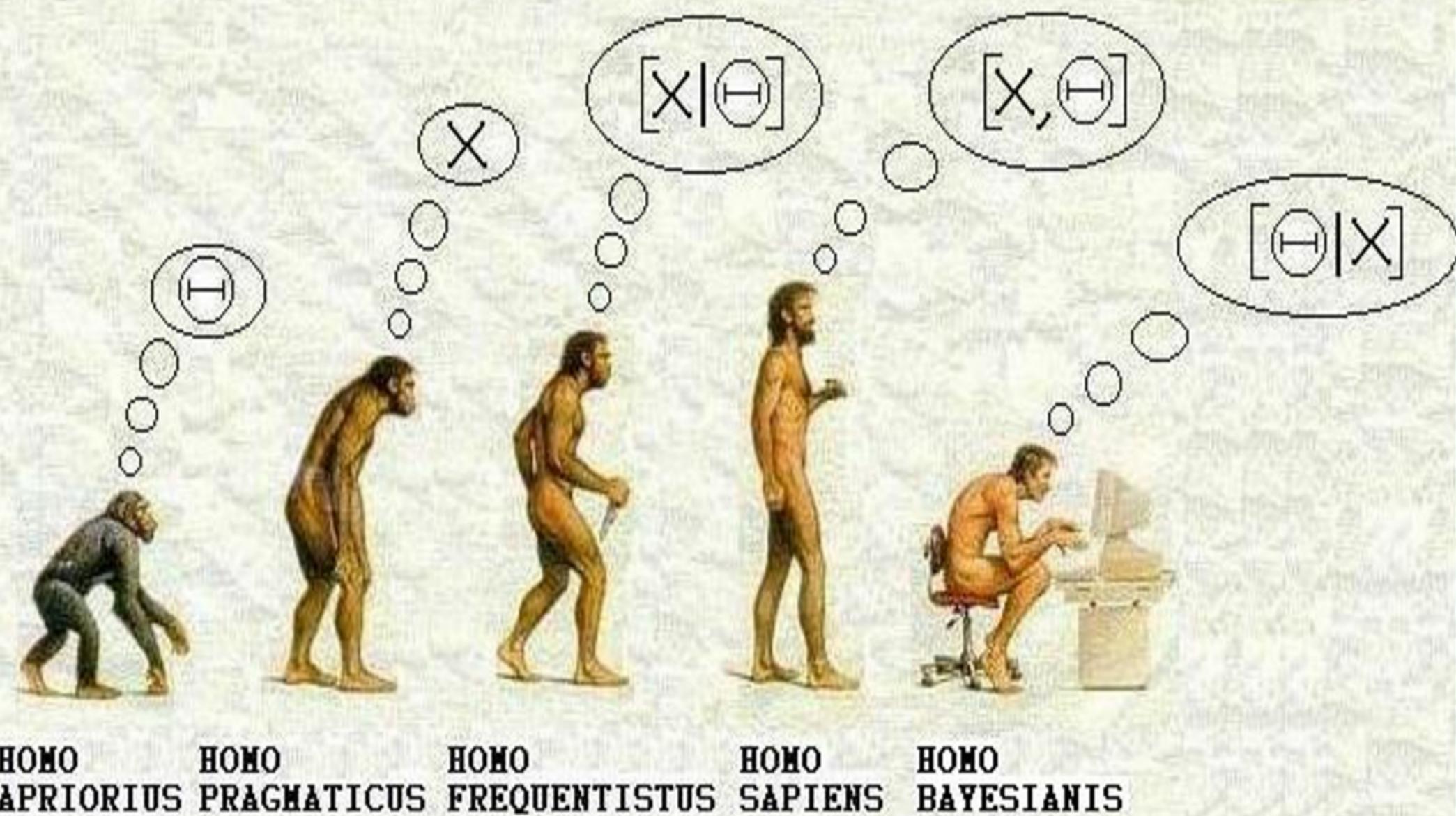
For that we need to start with $p(\Theta)$
Prior

To get what you really want, you
need to pay a price many are reluctant
to pay.

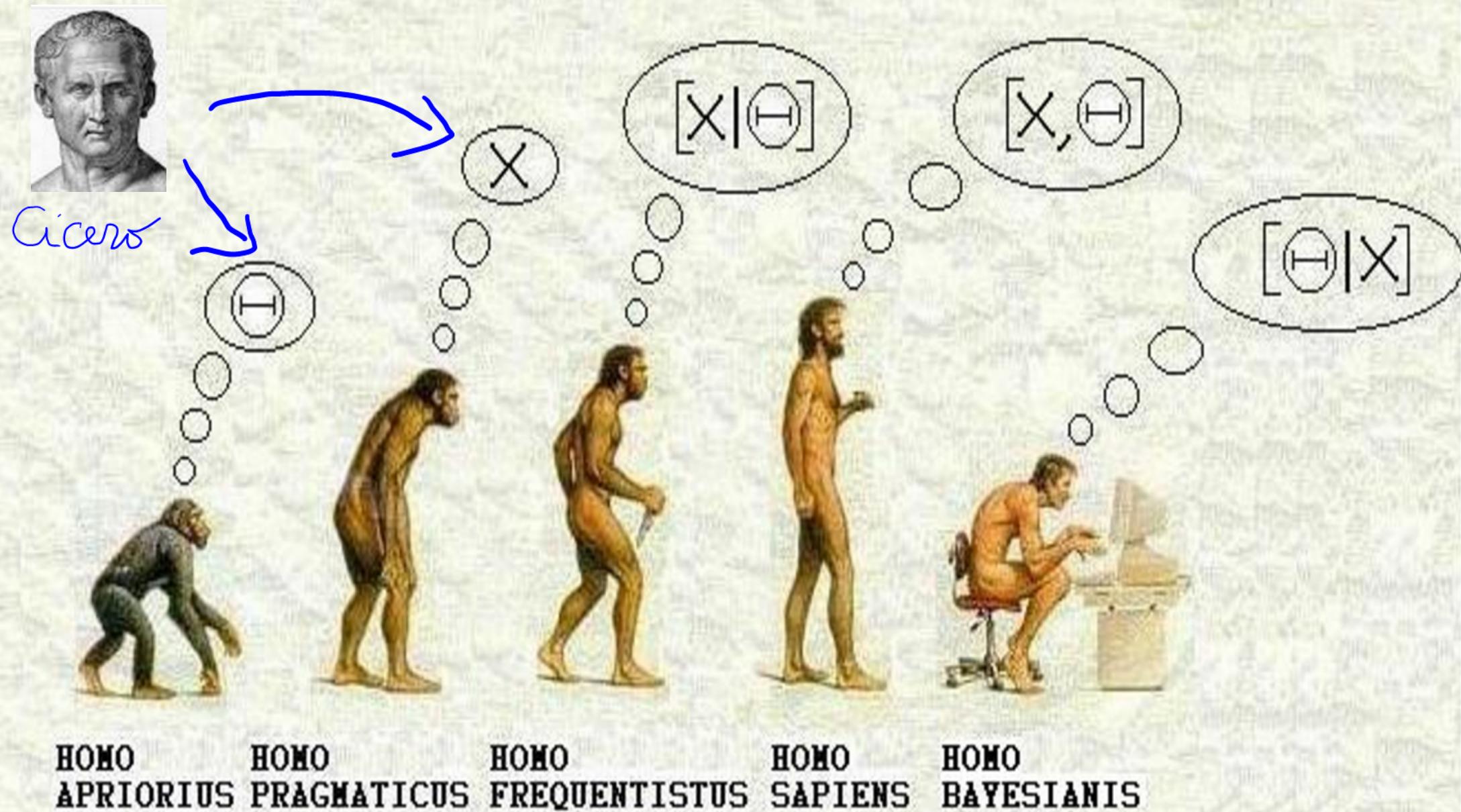
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A historical perspective

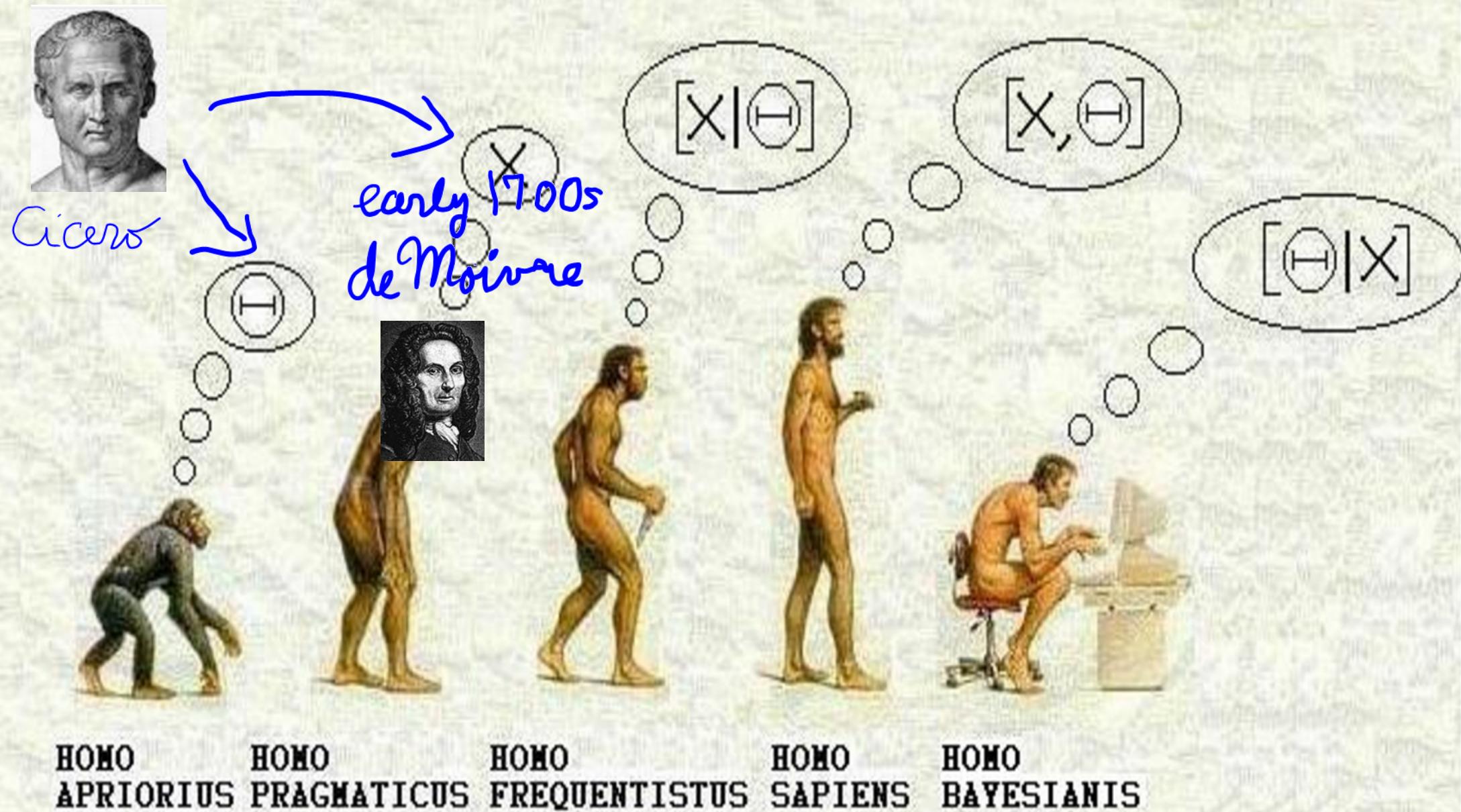
(YET ANOTHER) HISTORY OF LIFE AS WE KNOW IT...



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Bayes
Pascal } $P(\theta|x)$ using uniform $P(\theta)$



Cicero

early 1700s
de Moivre



late
1700s
1800s



HOMO
APRIORIUS



HOMO
PRAGMATICUS

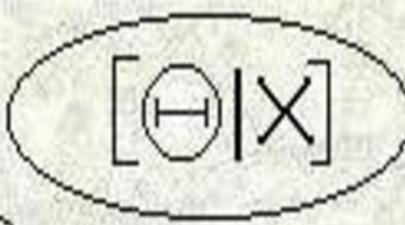
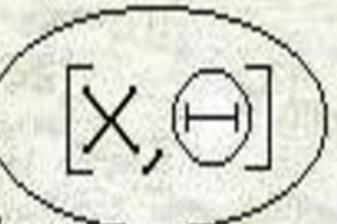
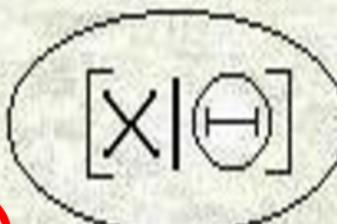
HOMO
FREQUENTISTUS



HOMO
SAPIENS



HOMO
BAYESIANIS



(YET ANOTHER) HISTORY OF LIFE AS WE KNOW IT...

Bayes
Pascal

$P(\theta|x)$ using uniform $P(\theta)$??



Cicero



early 1700s
de Moivre



1920
Fisher — p-values

Neyman — decision theory
Pearson — hypothesis testing



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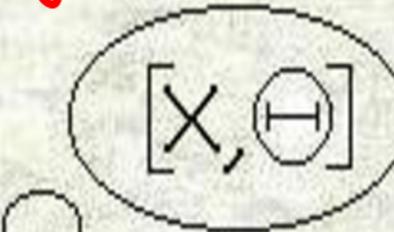
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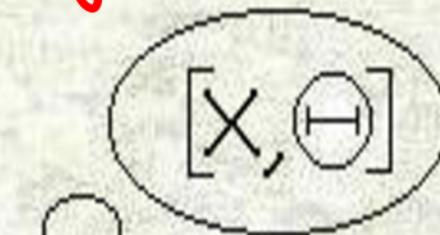
Cicero



early 1700s
de Moivre



1920
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1940-60
Fisher - fiducial
Fraser - structural



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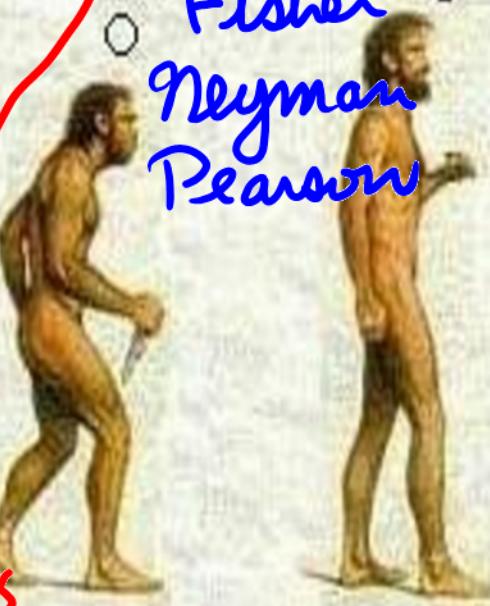


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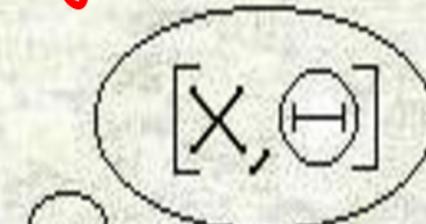
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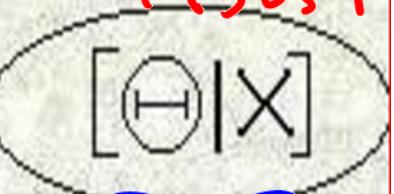
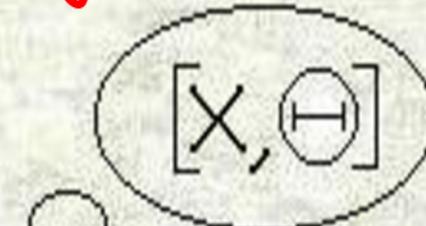
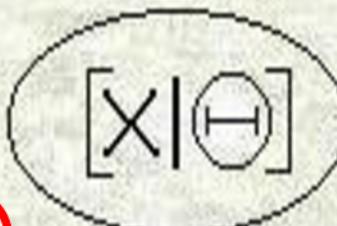


HOMO

Neyman
Pearson



HOMO
SAPIENS



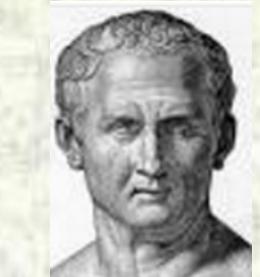
HMC
1990s+

1920
Fisher

1940-60
Fisher
Fraser



HMC
1990s+



(YET ANOTHER) HISTORY OF LIFE AS WE KNOW IT...

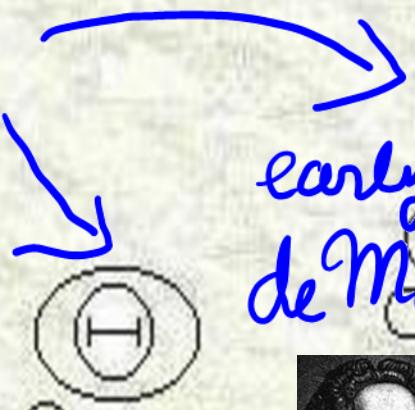
Bayes

Pascal

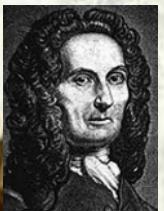
$P(\theta|x)$ using uniform $P(\theta)$



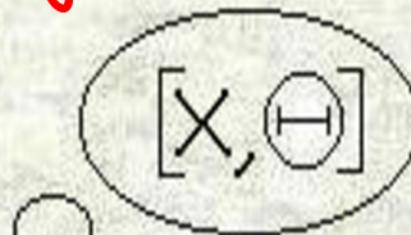
Cicero



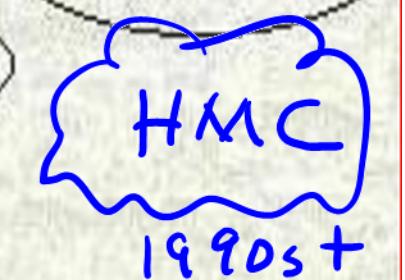
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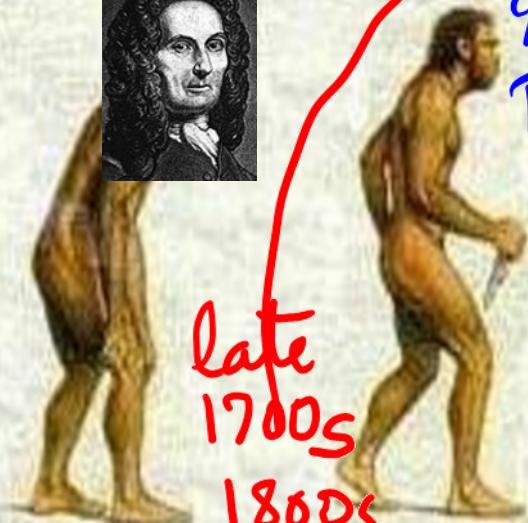
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HOMO

SAPIENS



HOMO
BAYESIANIS

late
1700s
1800s

Bayesian
Renaissance

Philosophical Basic problem

Philosophical
Basic problem

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$$\text{and } P(\theta|X) = \frac{P(X,\theta)}{P(X)}$$

Philosophical Basis problem

Given a model $P(X|\theta)$ *(model)*

To get $P(\theta|X)$

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Posterior

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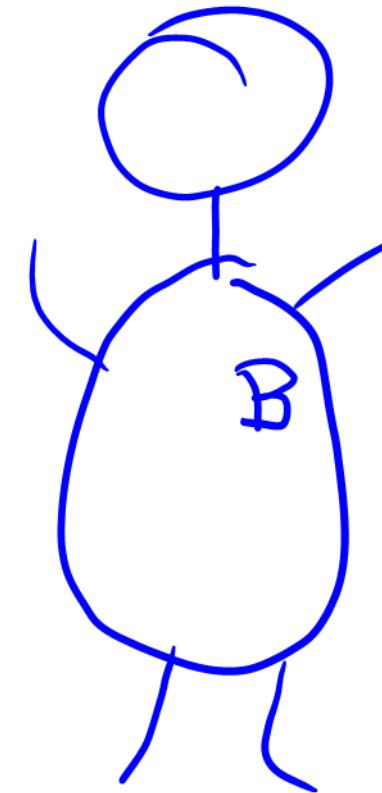
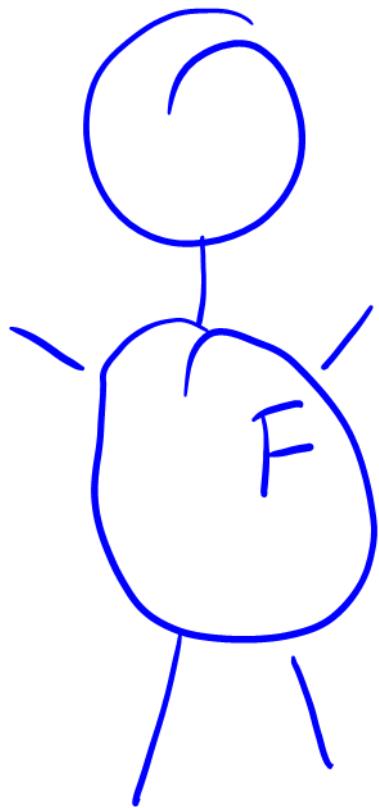
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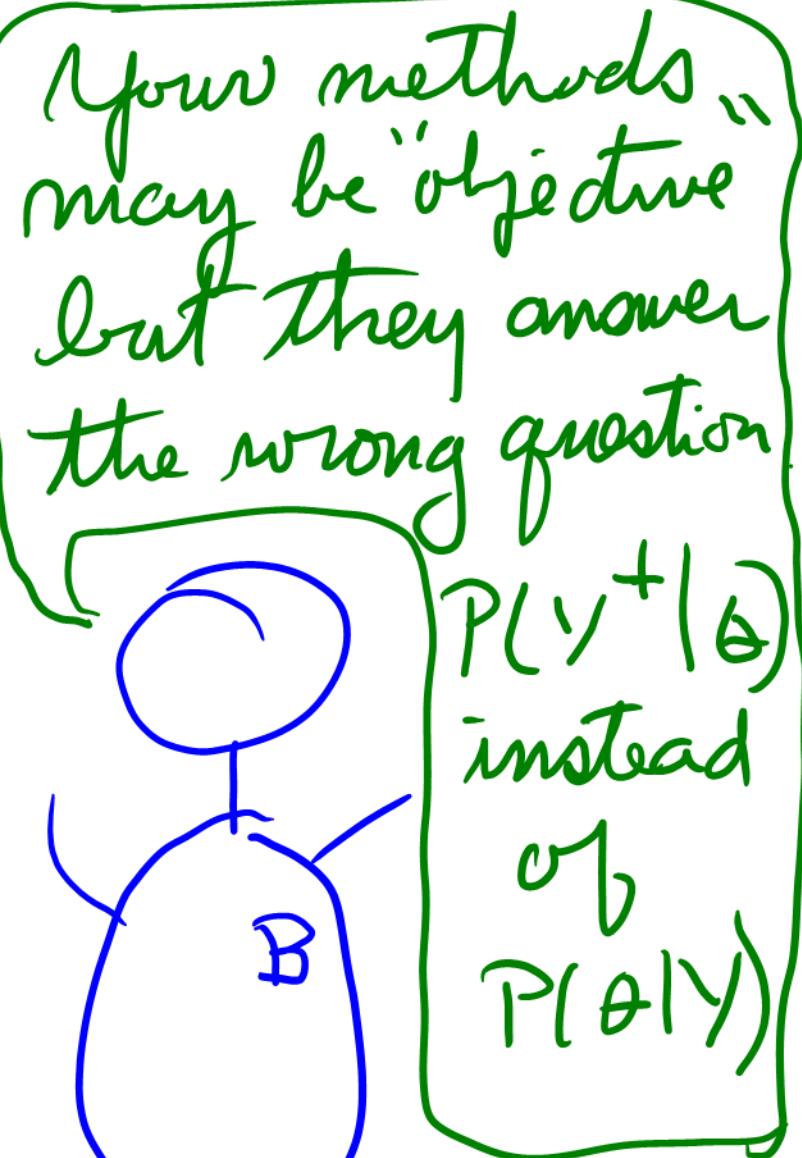
- You need a prior to get a posterior.
- Can we justify a particular prior?

Frequentists only use $P(X|\theta)$
and don't need $P(\theta)$

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and don't need $P(\theta)$

Your methods
are subjective.
you have no
objective
justification
for your prior



Your methods „
may be ‘objective’
but they answer
the wrong question



$P(Y^+|\theta)$
instead
of
 $P(\theta|Y)$

Practical problem:

$$p(x, \theta) = p(x | \theta) p(\theta)$$

Practical problem:

$$P(X, \theta) = P(X|\theta)P(\theta)$$

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Practical problem:

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$$\int P(x, \theta) d\theta$$

Practical problem:

$$P(X, \theta) = P(X|\theta)P(\theta)$$

$$P(\theta|X) = \frac{P(X, \theta)}{P(X)}$$

$$\int P(X, \theta) d\theta$$

If θ has high dimension
this becomes easily impossible.

Practical problem:

$$P(X, \theta) = P(X|\theta)P(\theta)$$

$$P(\theta|X) = \frac{P(X, \theta)}{P(X)}$$

MCMC (mid 20th C.)

comes to the rescue;

It's possible to sample from
 $P(\theta|X)$ knowing only $P(X, \theta)$

Posteriors without priors?

Fisher - Fiducial inference

Fraser - Structural inference

Objective Bayesian inference

Baking the Bayesian omelette
without breaking the
Bayesian egg.

Emerging practice:

Using weakly informative
priors.

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But don't take it for granted
Remember Sally Clark

Improper - vs proper priors

Posteriors.

Problems

HAC

Markov Chain Monte Carlo

use $P(\theta, x) = P(x|\theta)P(\theta)$

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joint model \times prior

Samples from $P(\theta|x)$ using only $P(\theta, x)$
i.e. no need to find elusive $P(x)$

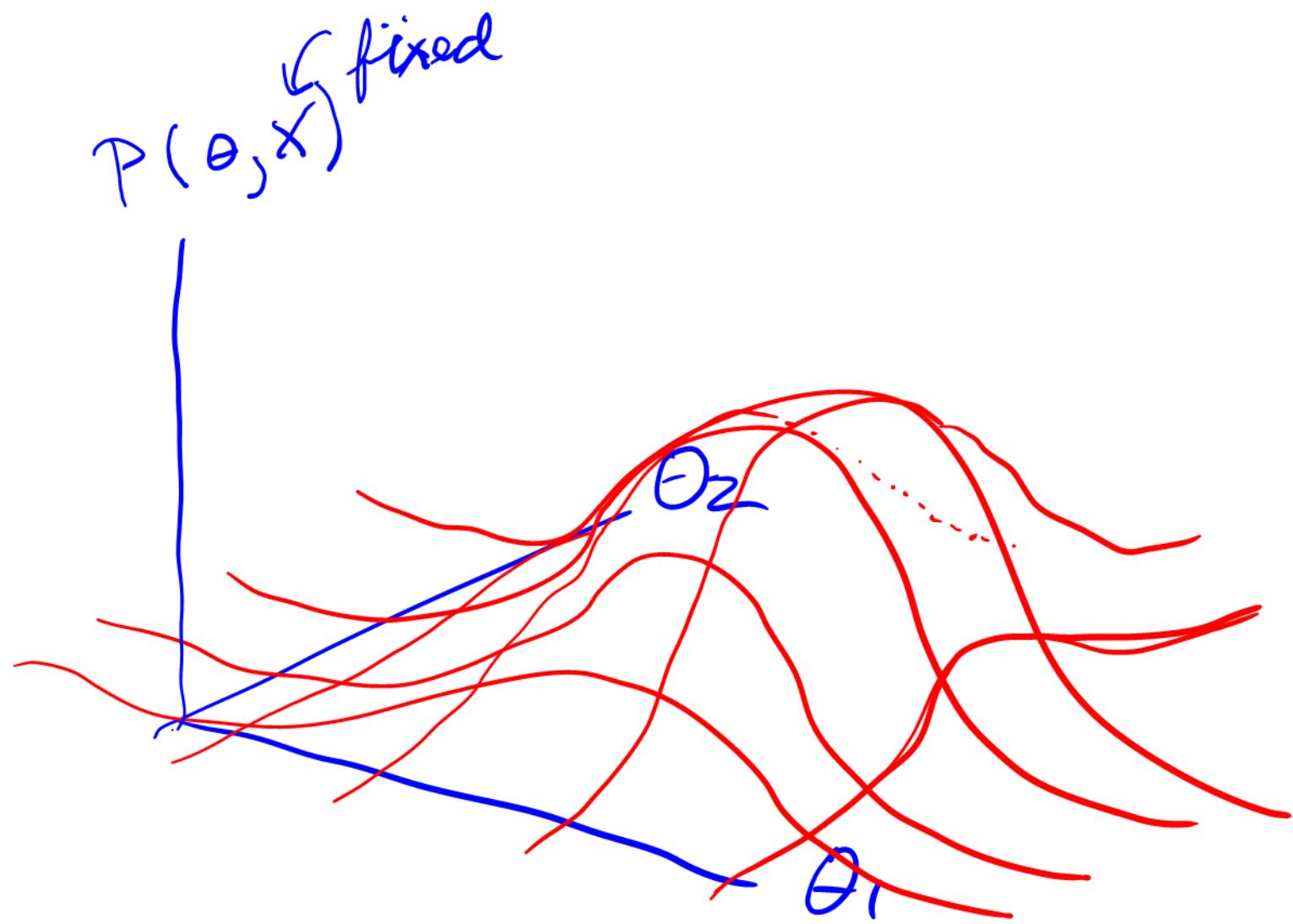
Markov Chain Monte Carlo

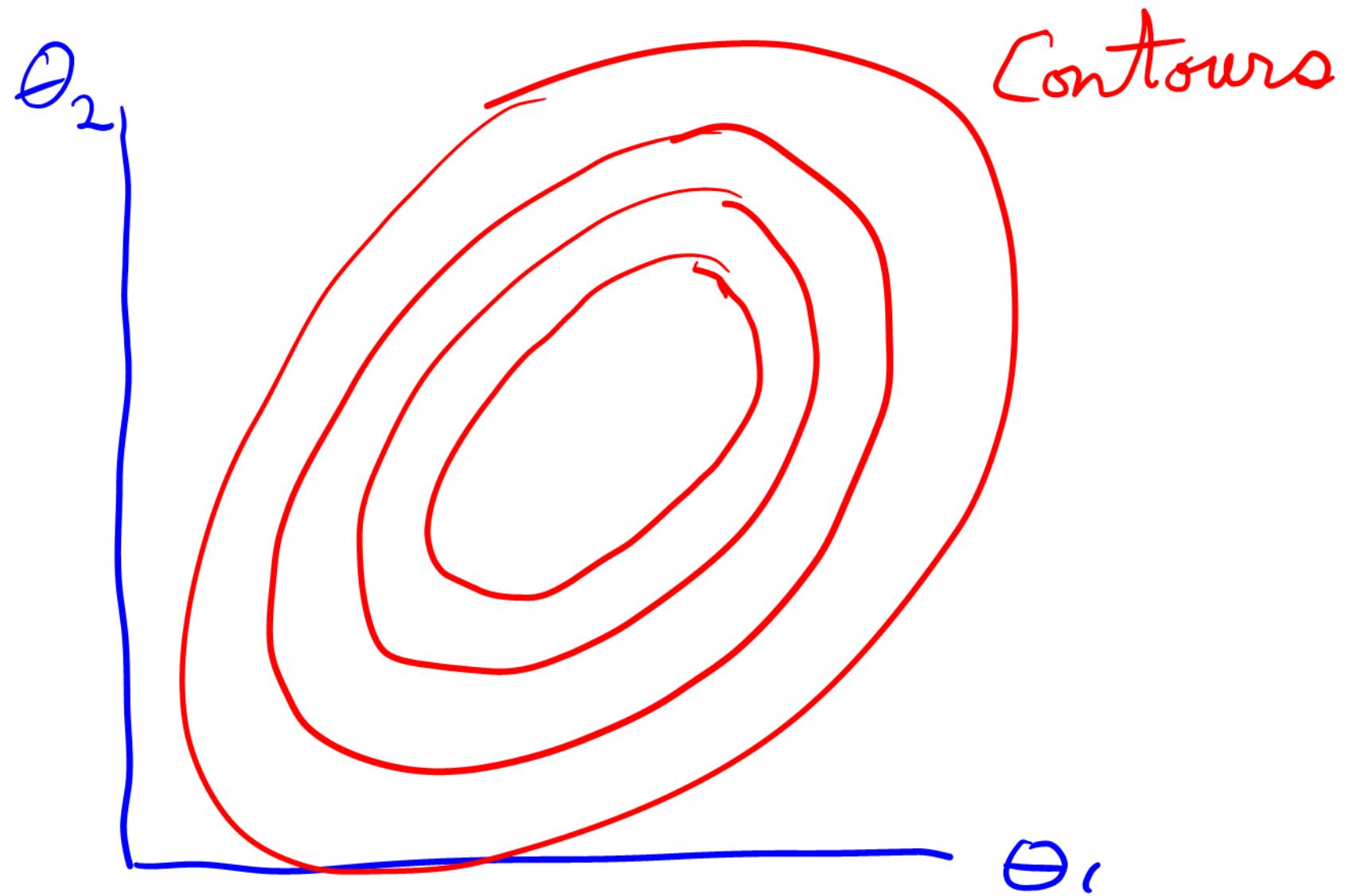
use $P(\theta, x) = P(x|\theta)P(\theta)$

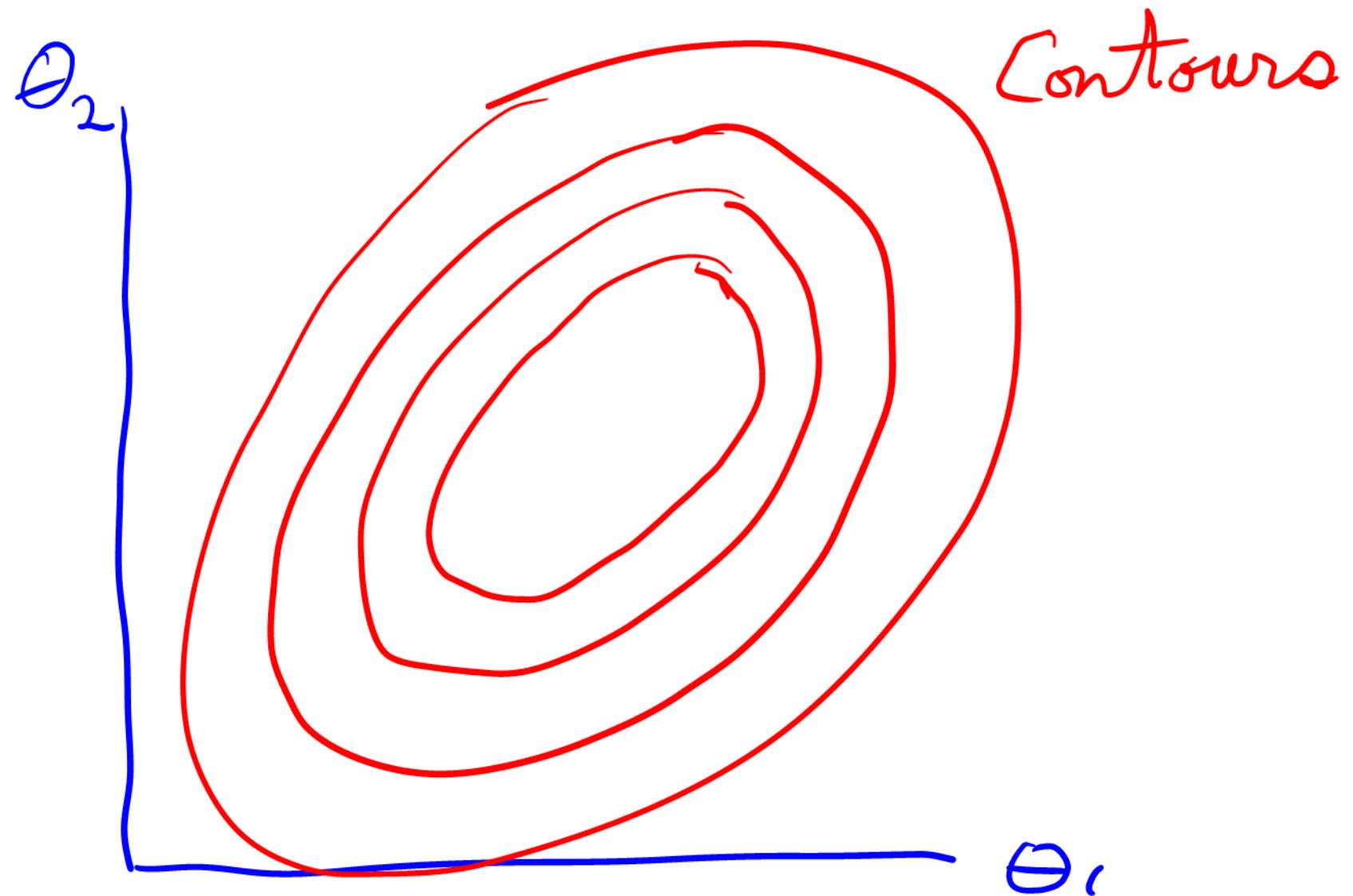
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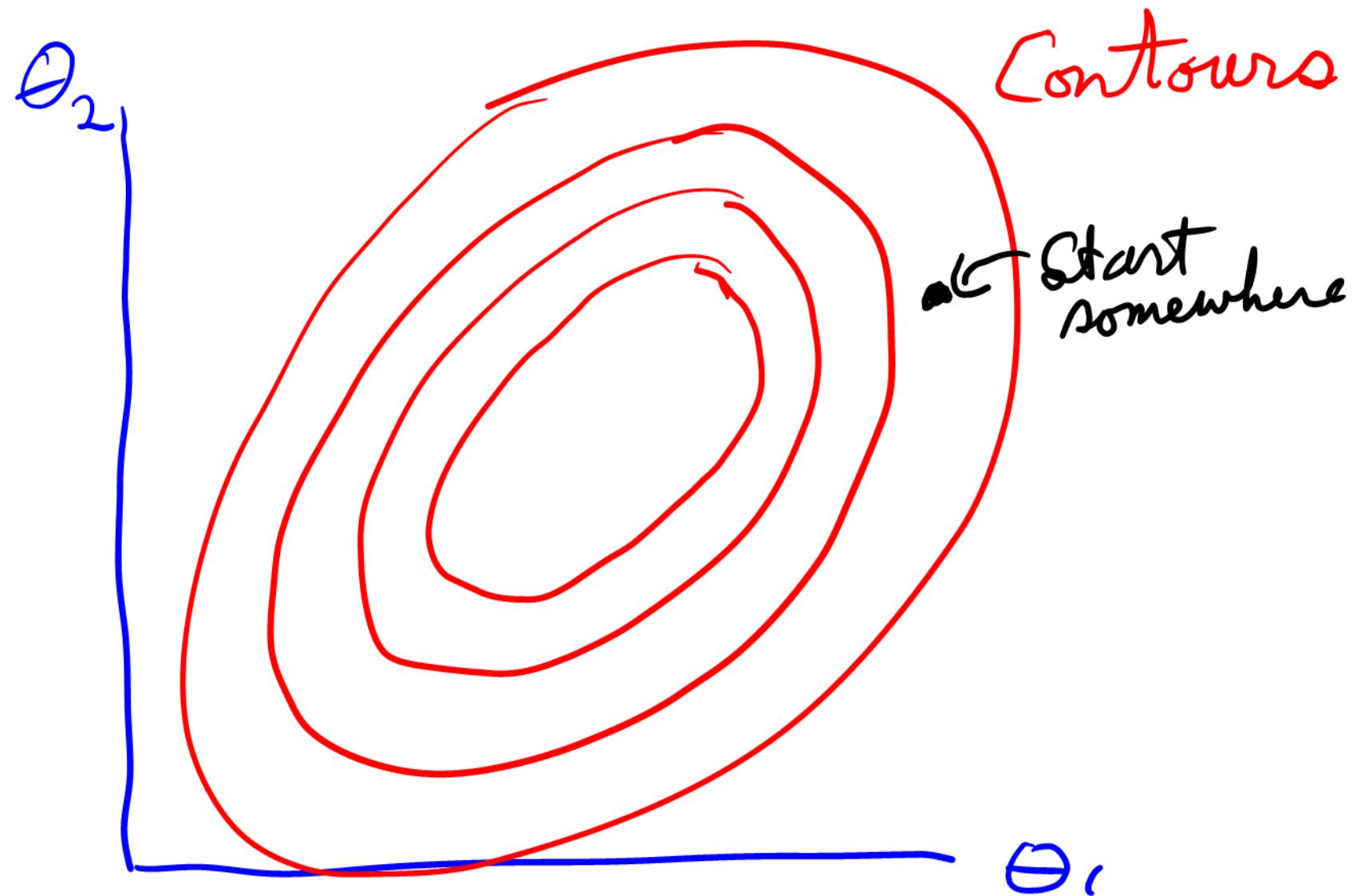
With X fixed, think of $P(\theta, x)$
as defining a mountain over θ space



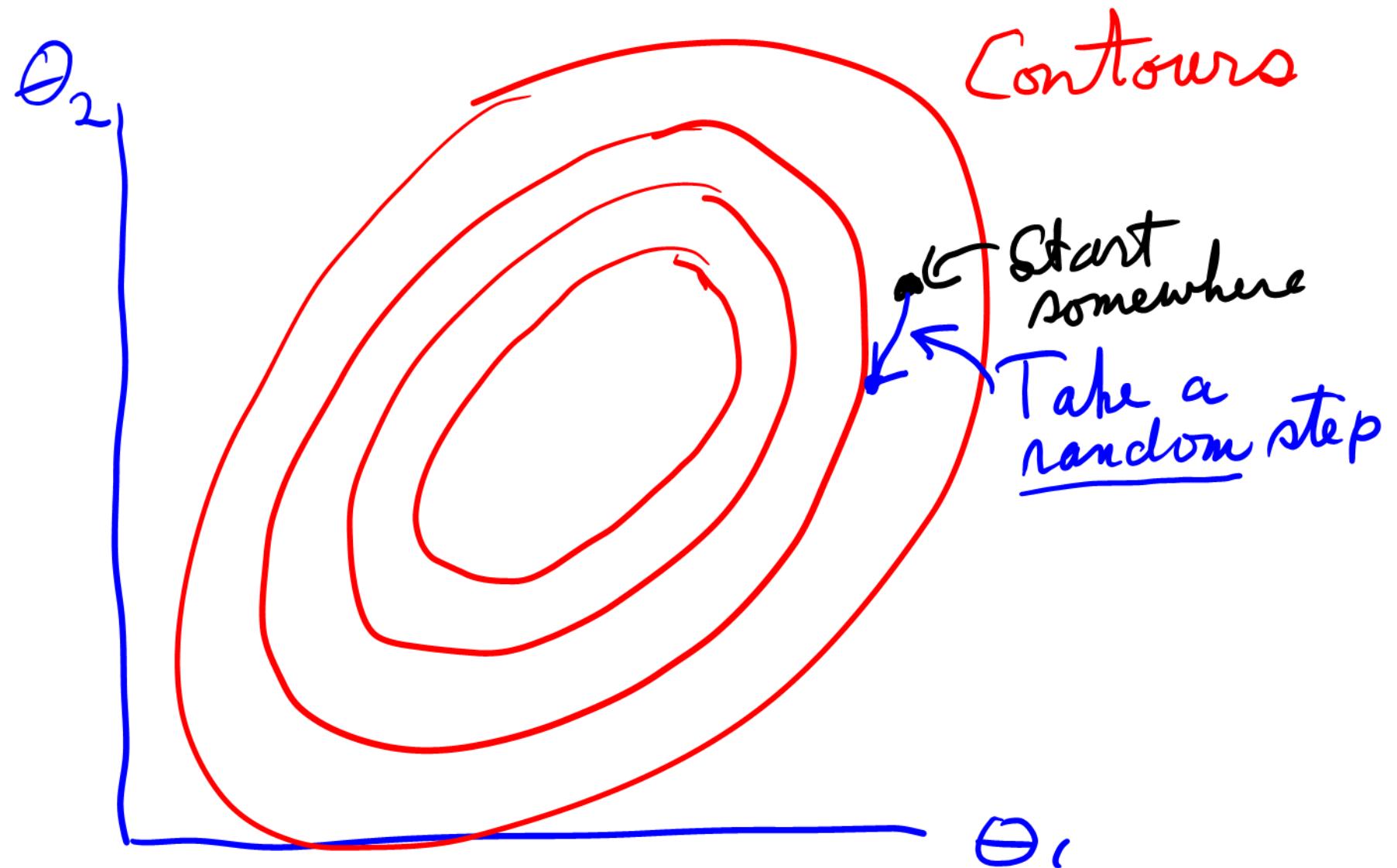




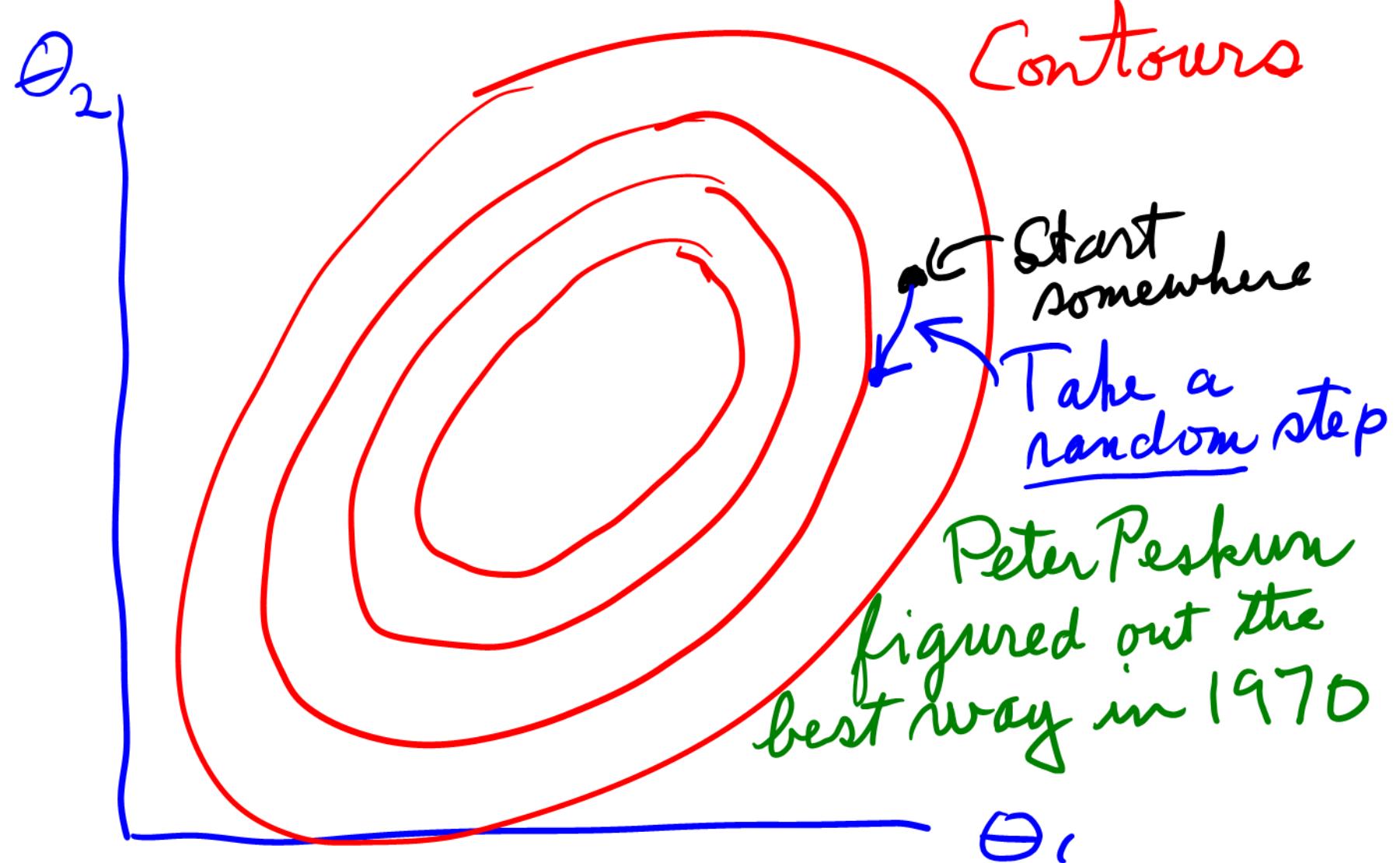
Metropolis-Hastings algorithm



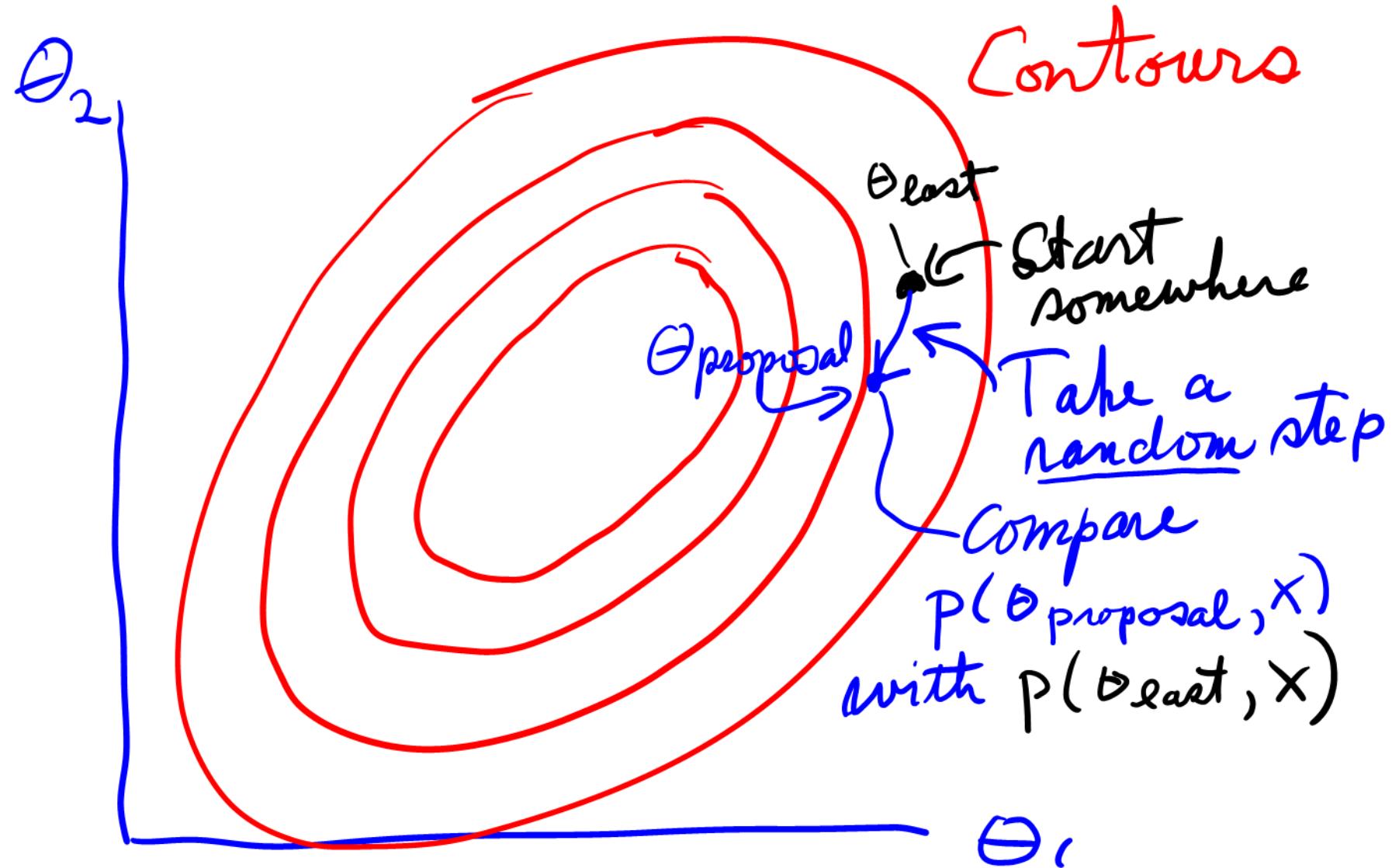
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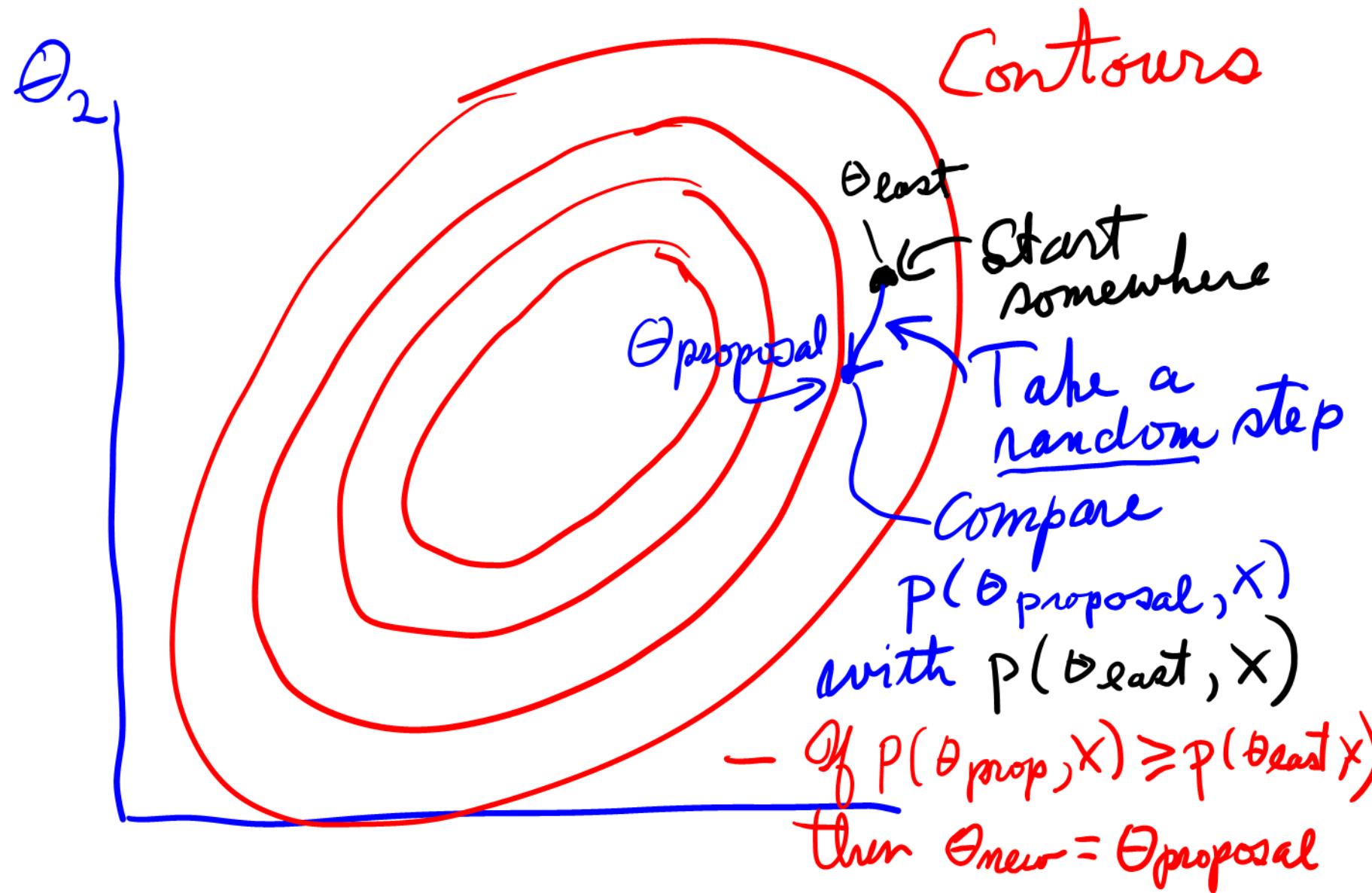
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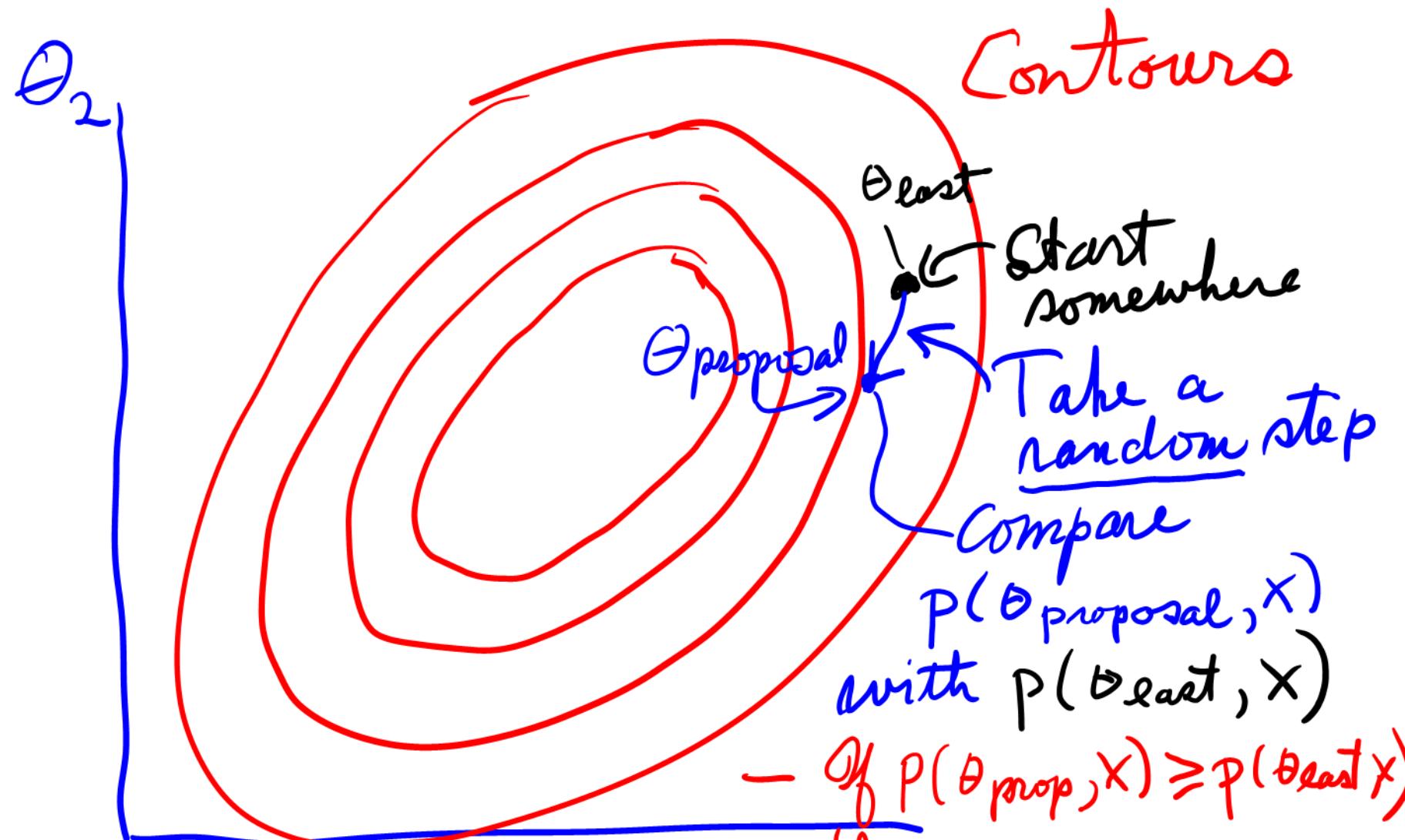


Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

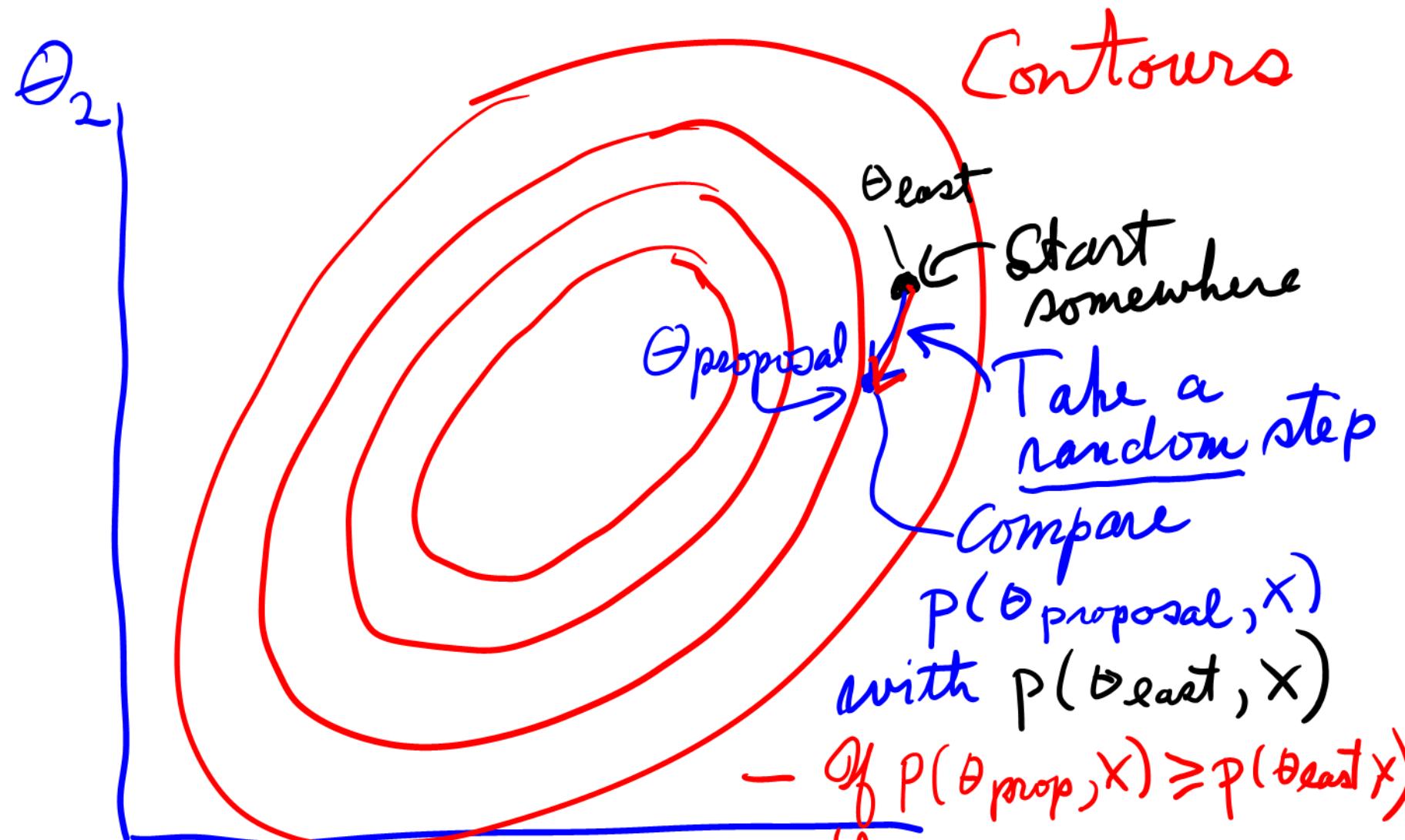


Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

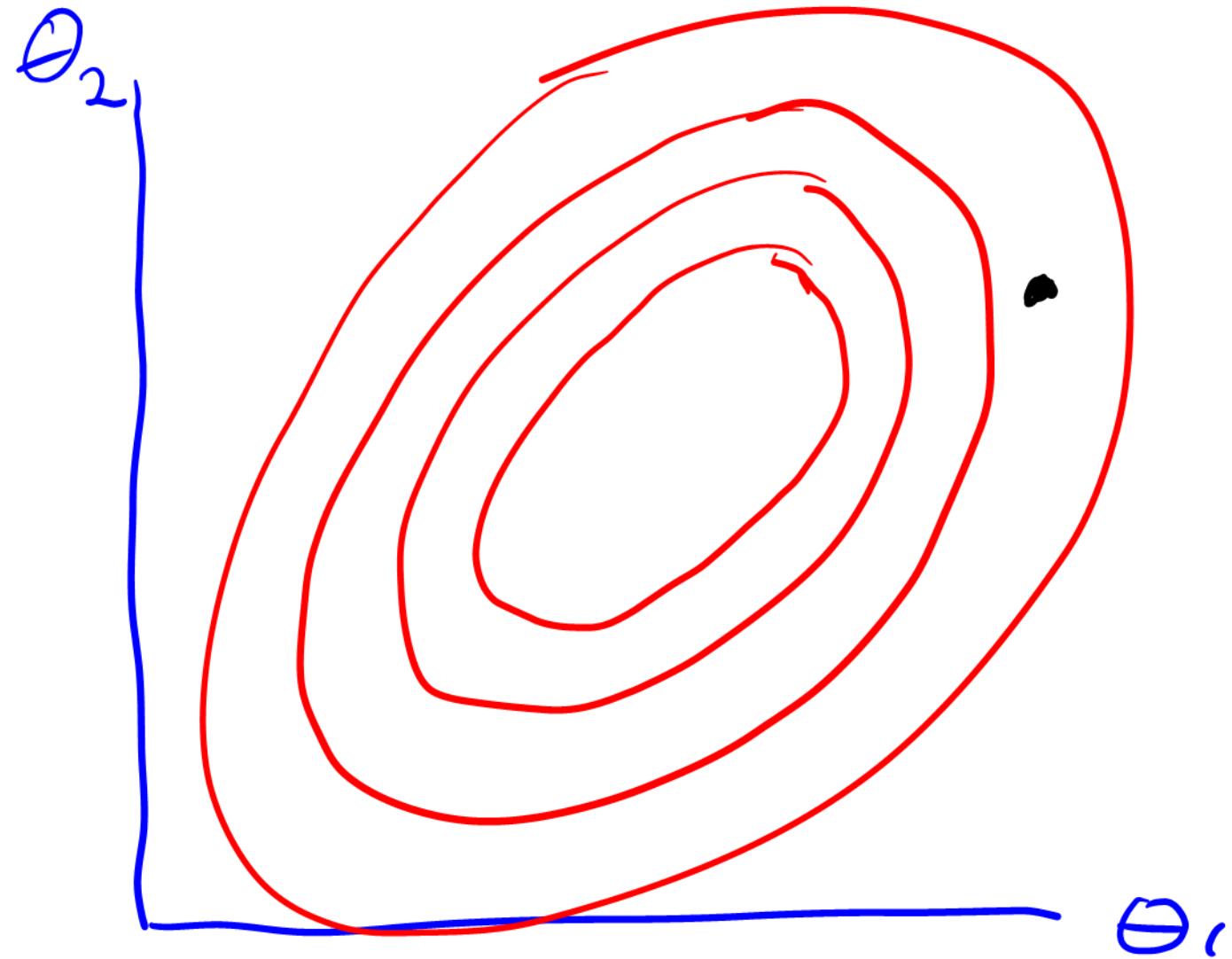


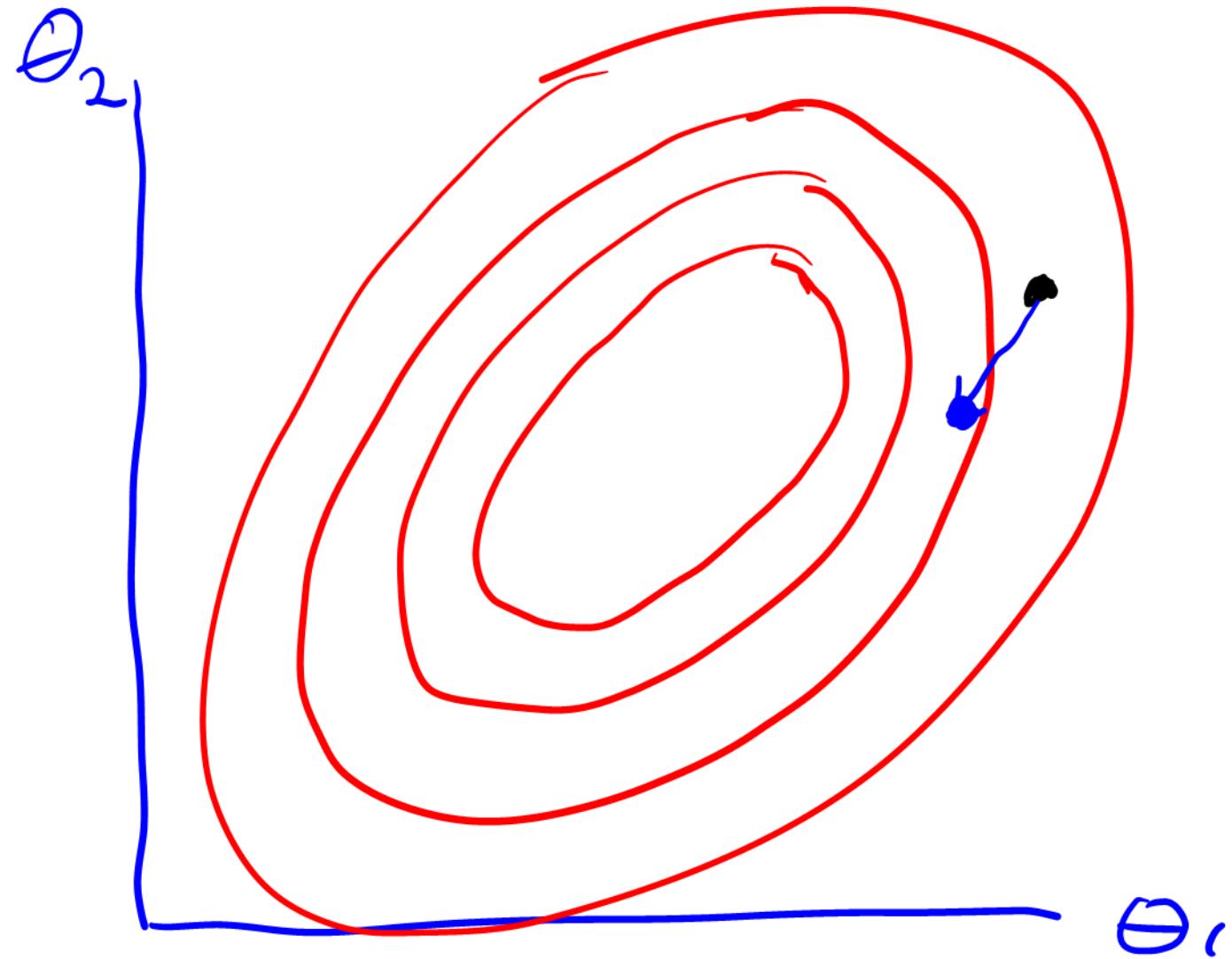


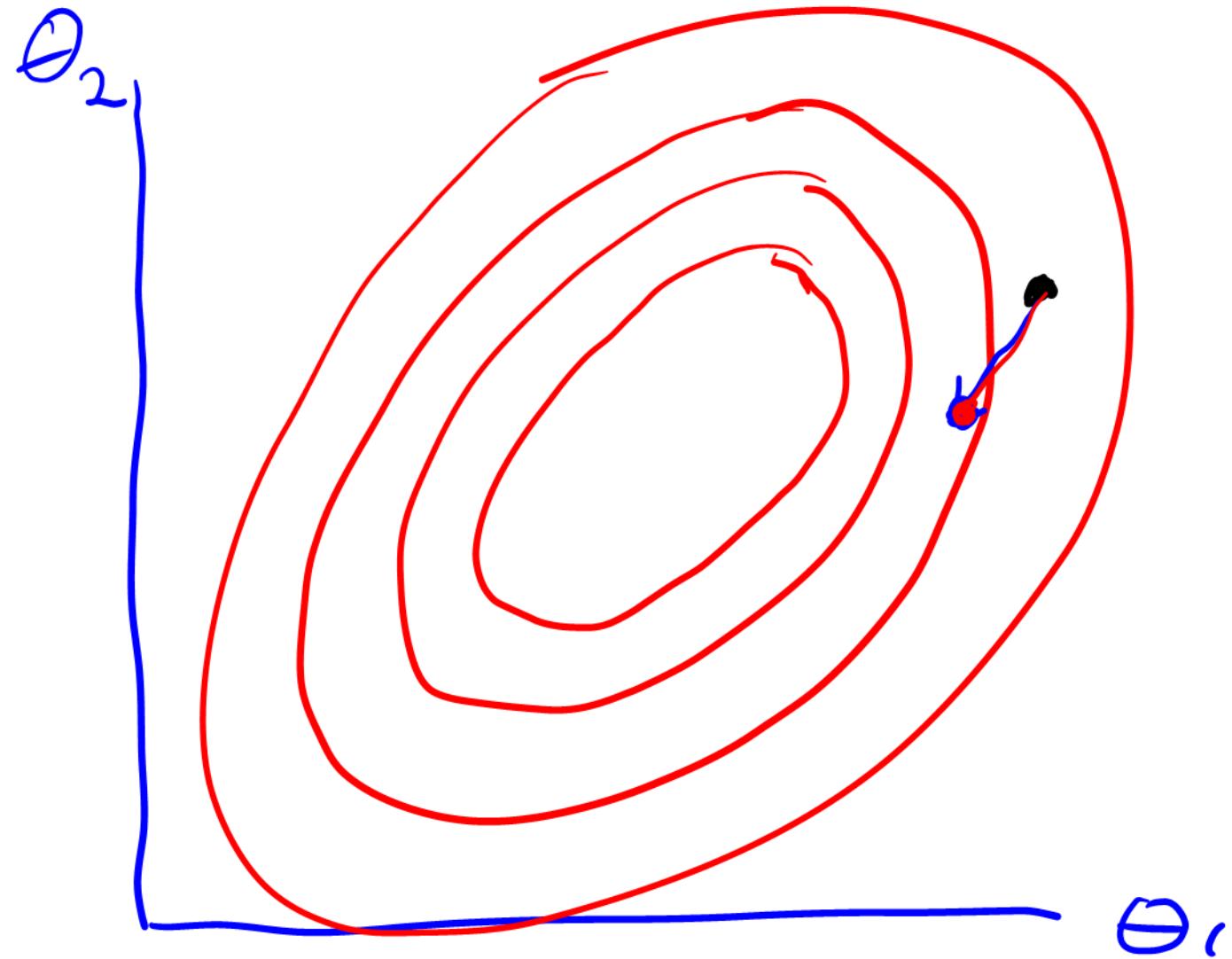
- Otherwise, i.e. if you have moved down in probability, set $\theta_{new} = \theta_{proposal}$ with prob $\frac{p(\theta_{prop}, x)}{p(\theta_{last}, x)}$ else $\theta_{new} = \theta_{last}$

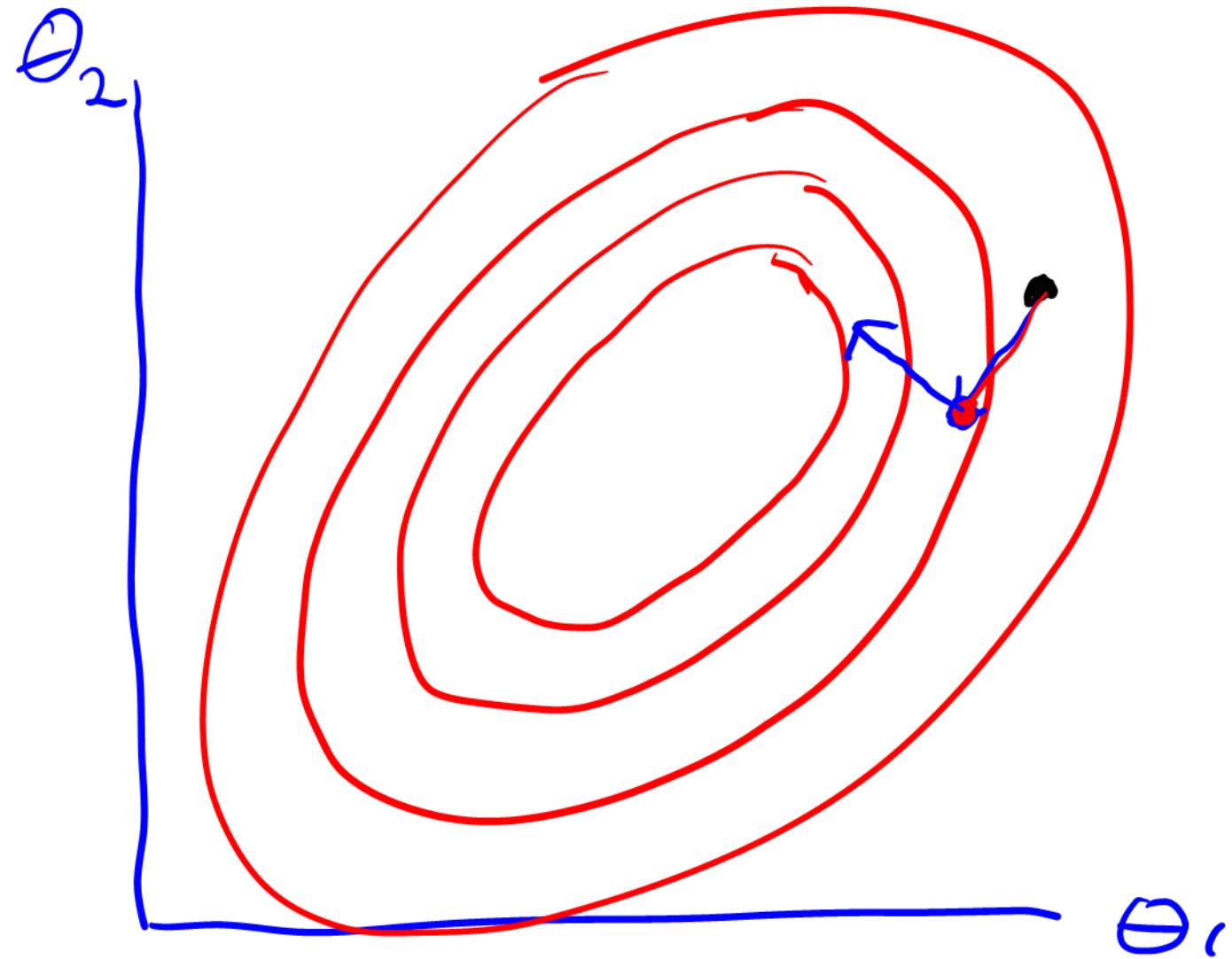


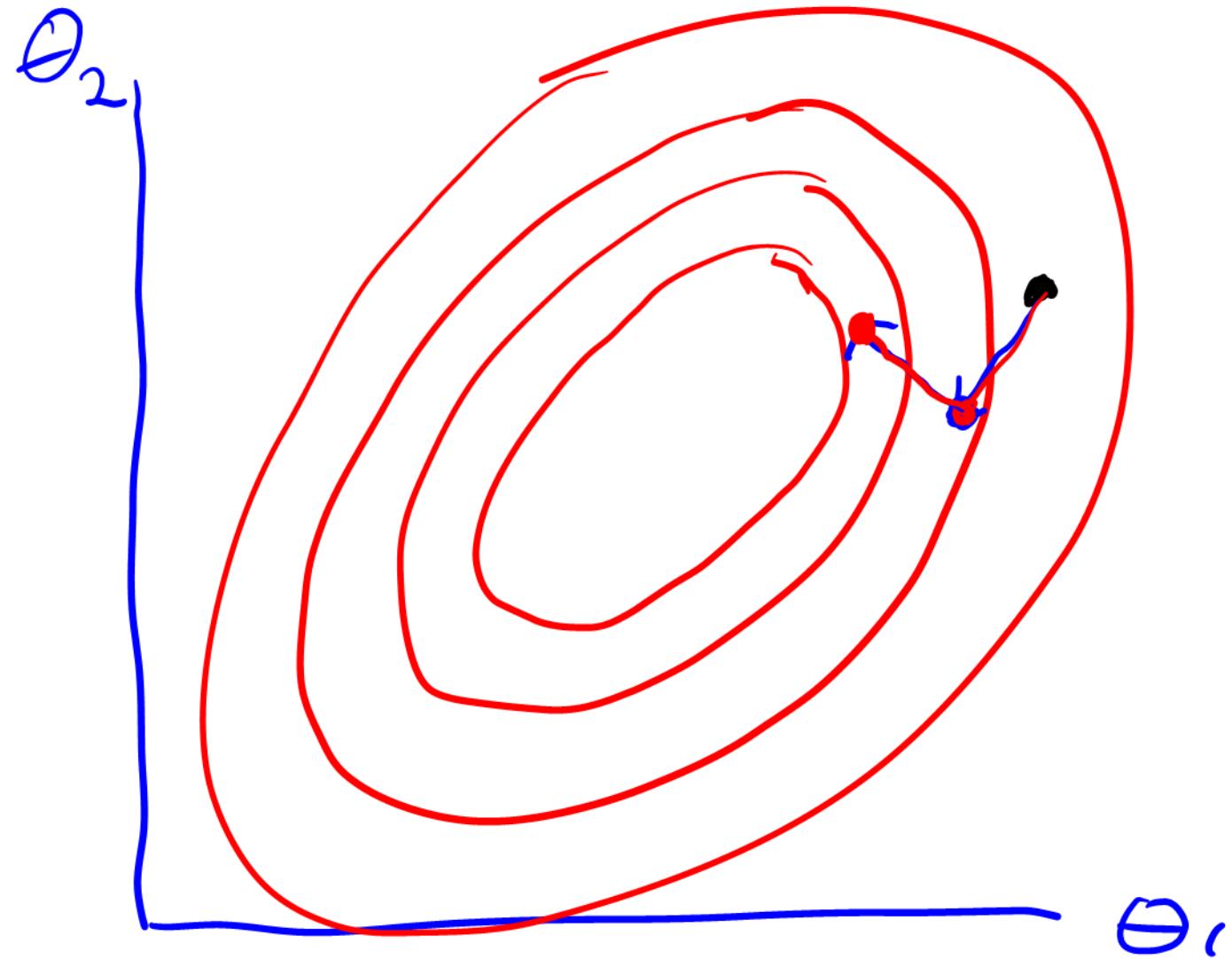
- Otherwise, i.e. if you have moved down in probability, set $\theta_{new} = \theta_{proposal}$ with prob $\frac{p(\theta_{prop}, X)}{p(\theta_{last}, X)}$ else $\theta_{new} = \theta_{last}$

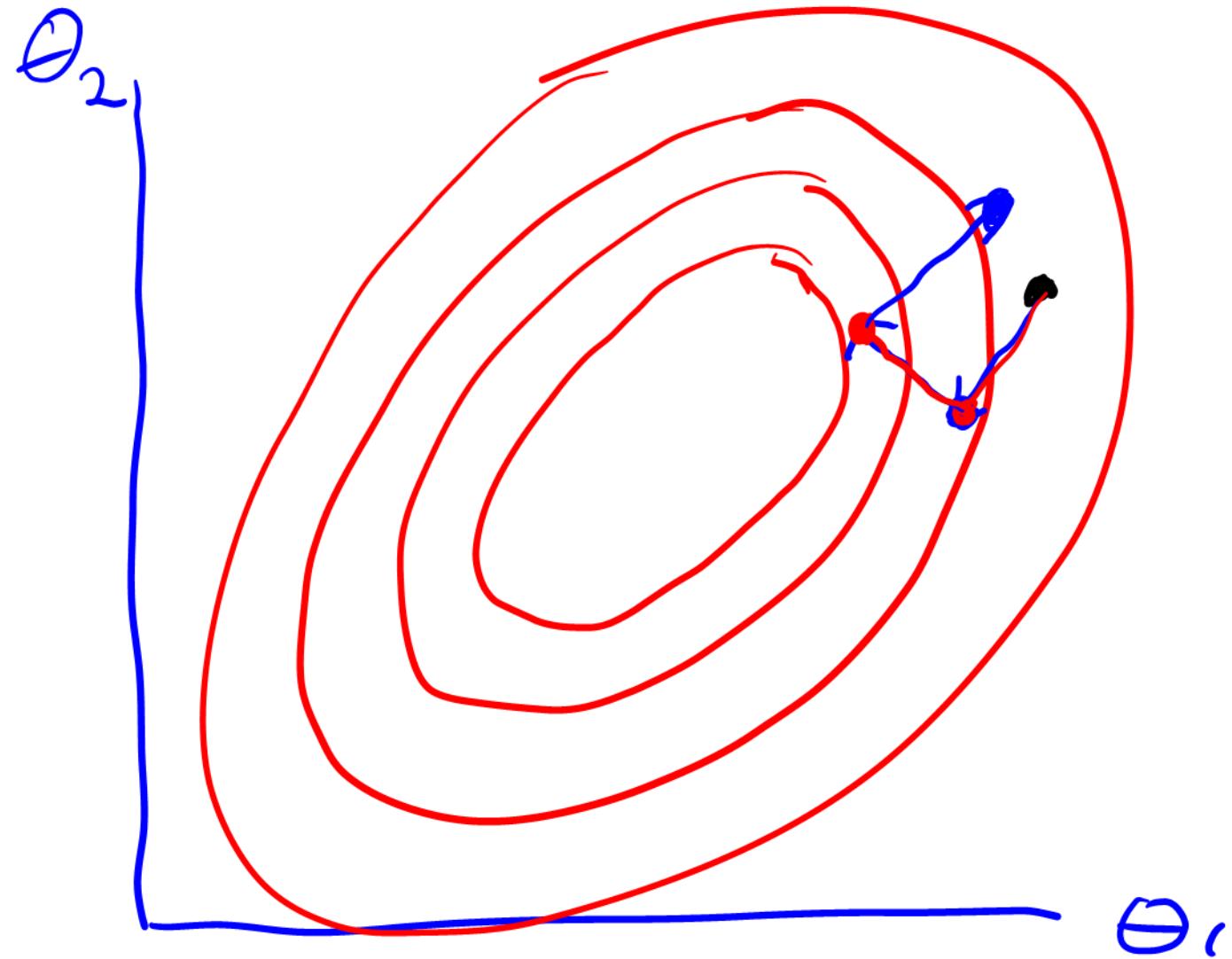


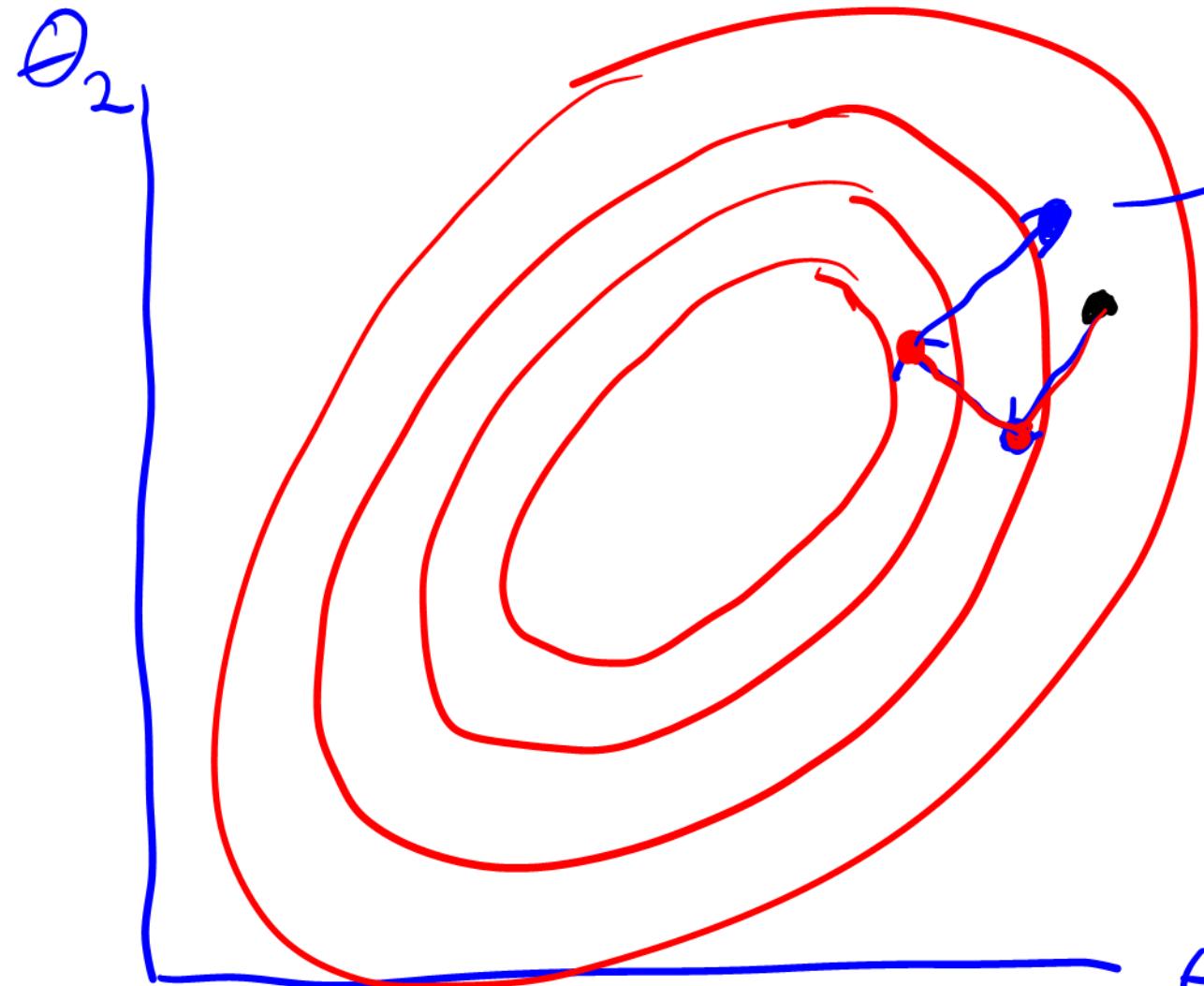










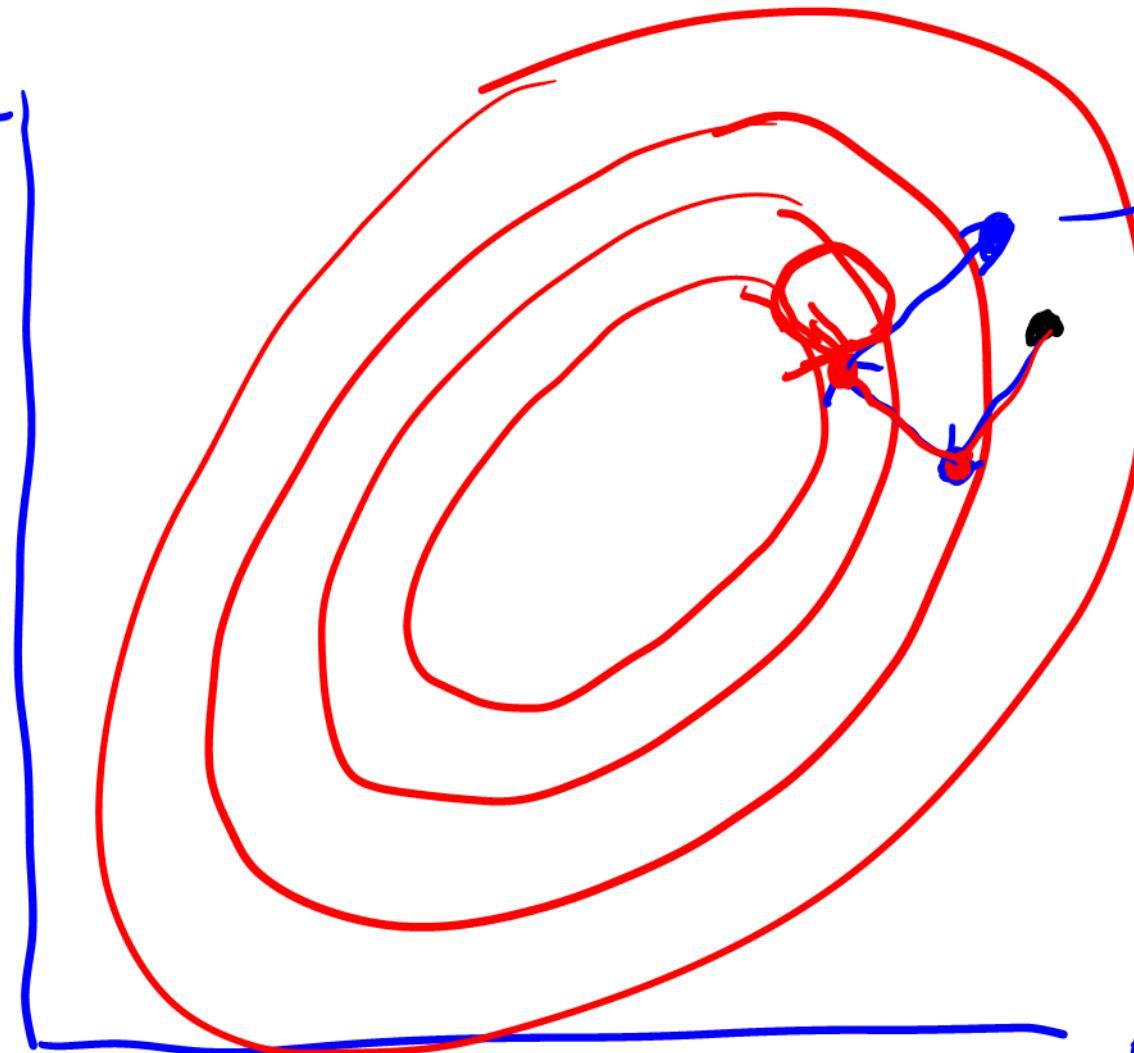


toss a biased coin with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

If Heads move
if Tails stay

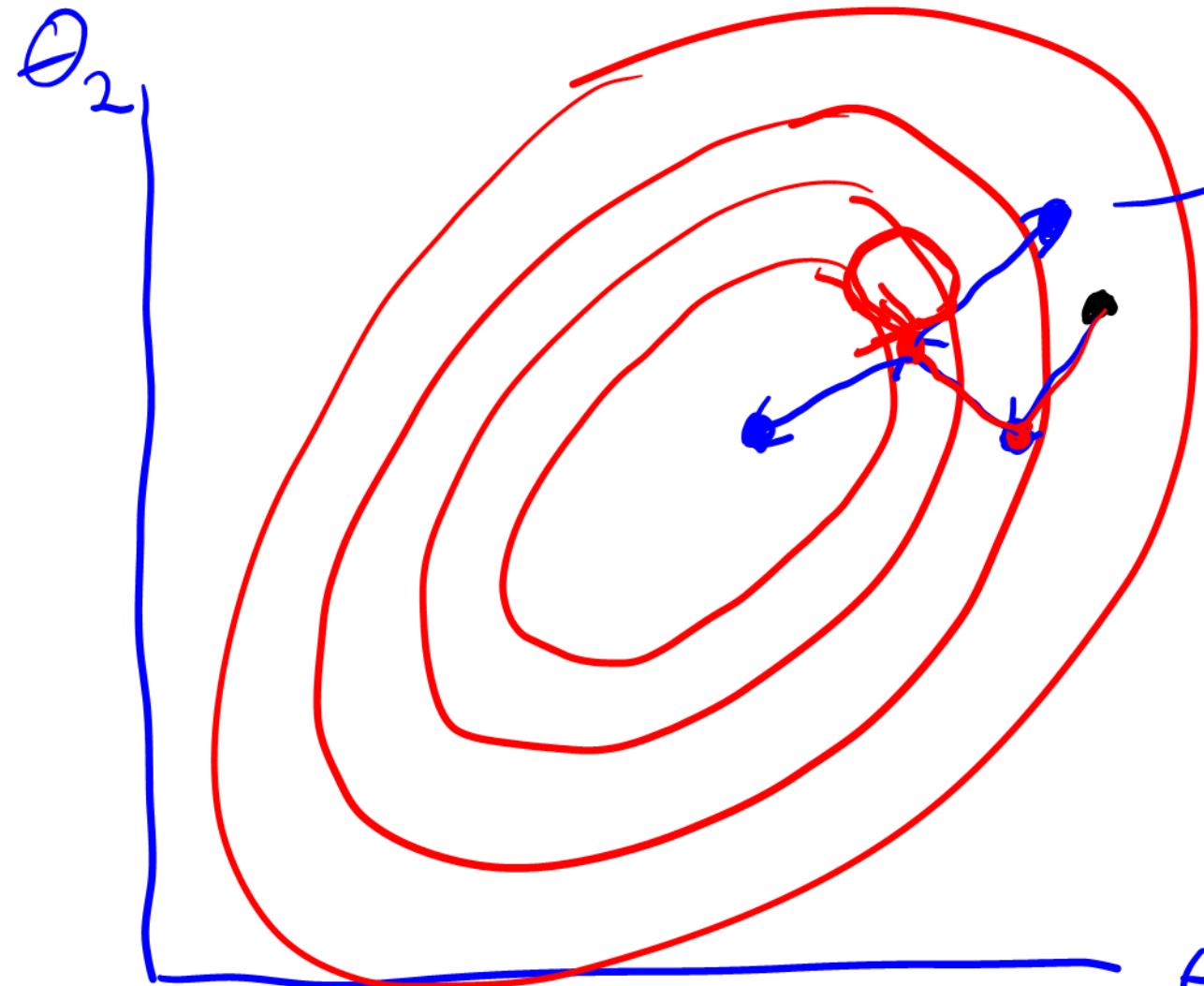
θ_2



toss a
biased
coin
with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

If Heads
move
if Tails
stay

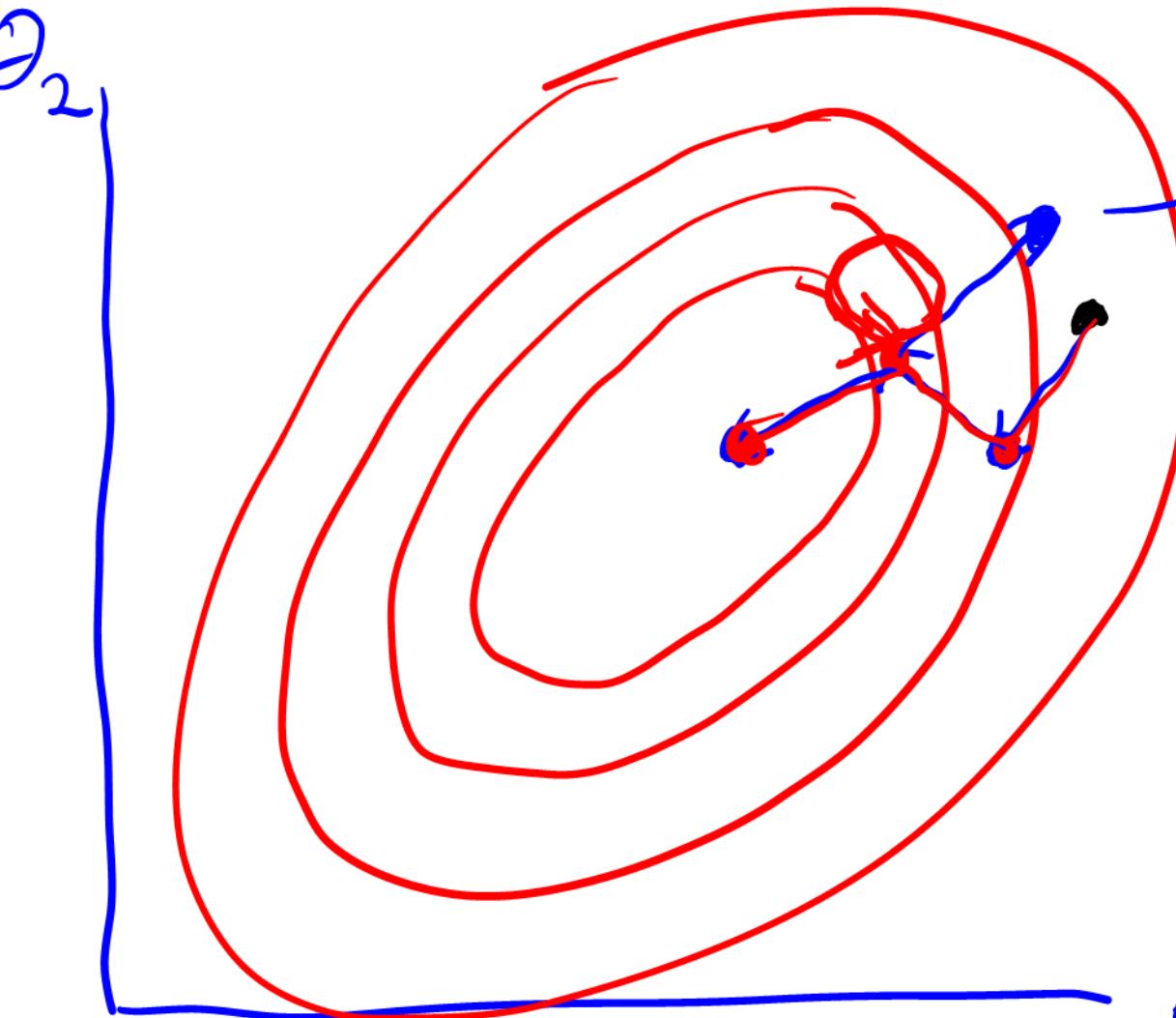


toss a biased coin with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

If Heads move
if Tails stay

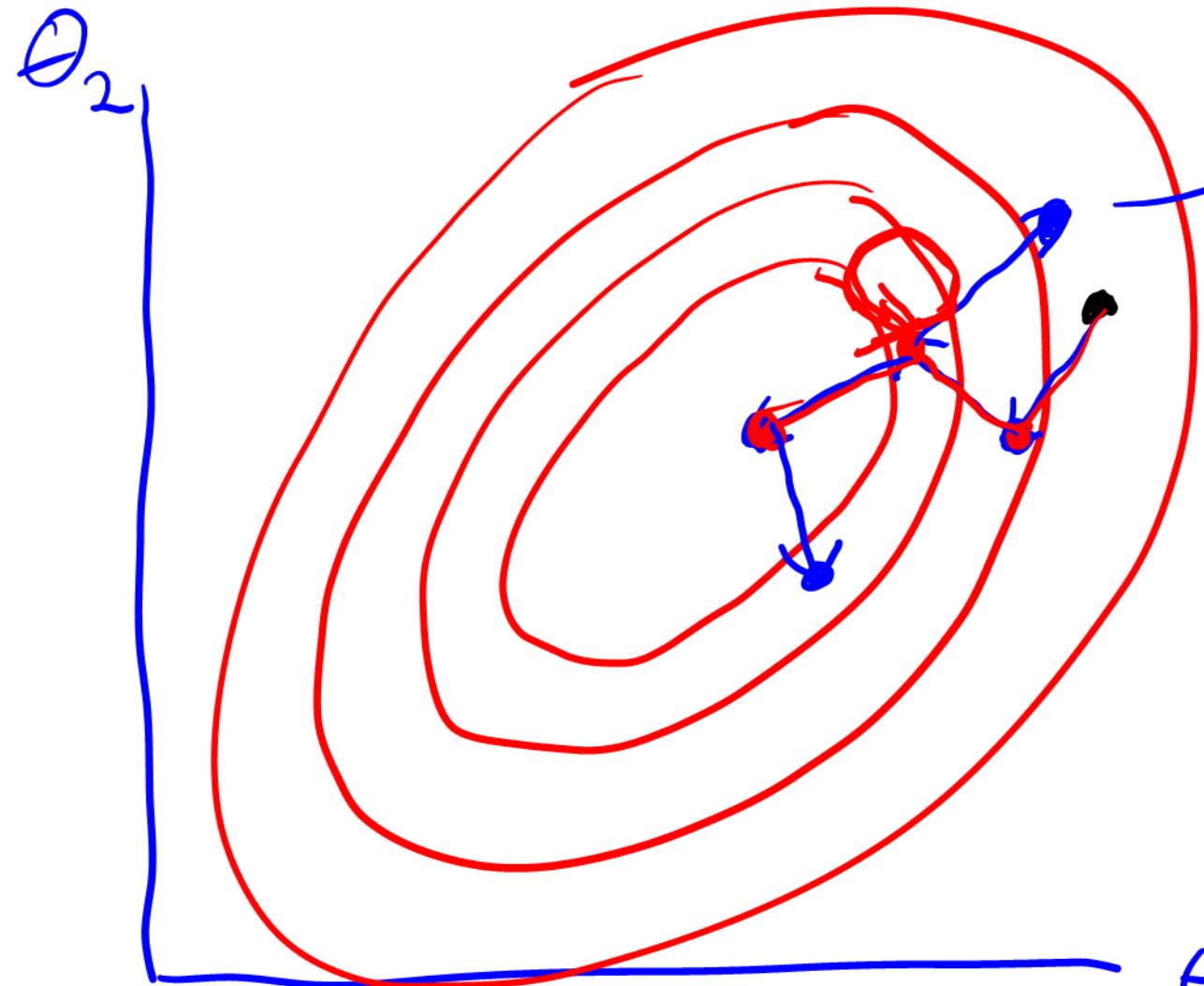
θ_2



toss a
biased
coin
with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

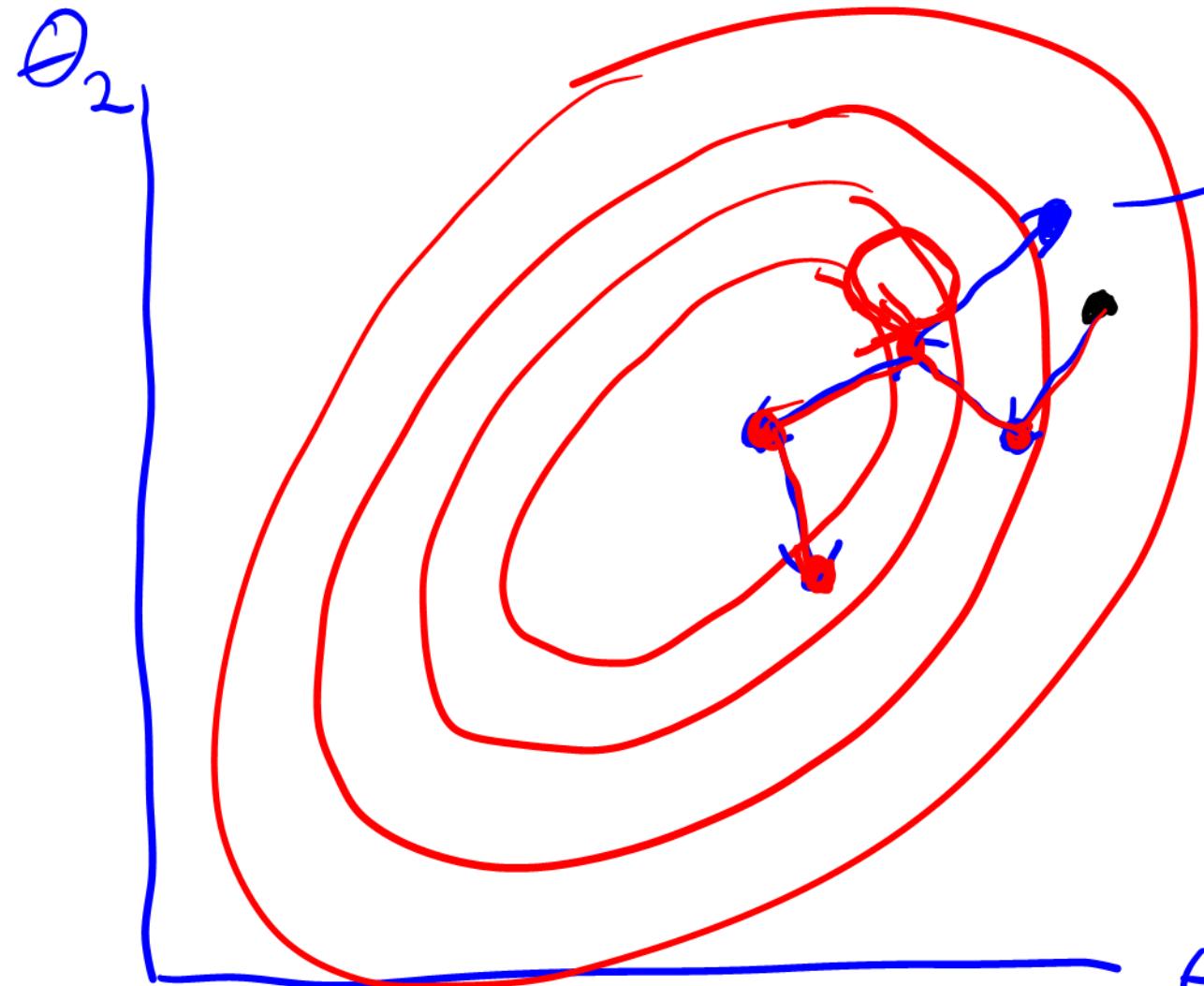
If Heads
move
if Tails
stay



toss a
biased
coin
with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

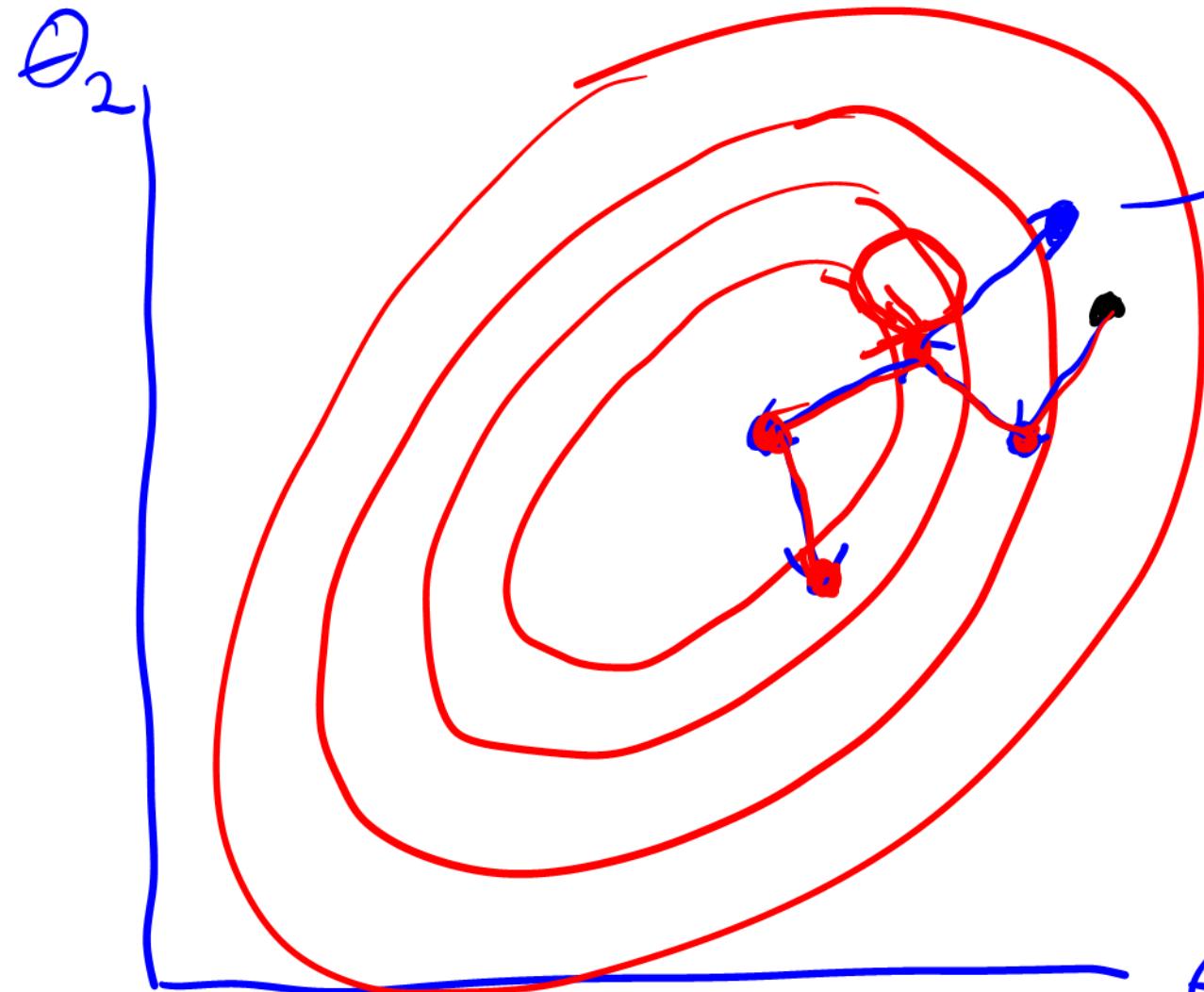
If Heads
move
if Tails
stay



toss a biased coin with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

If Heads move
if Tails stay

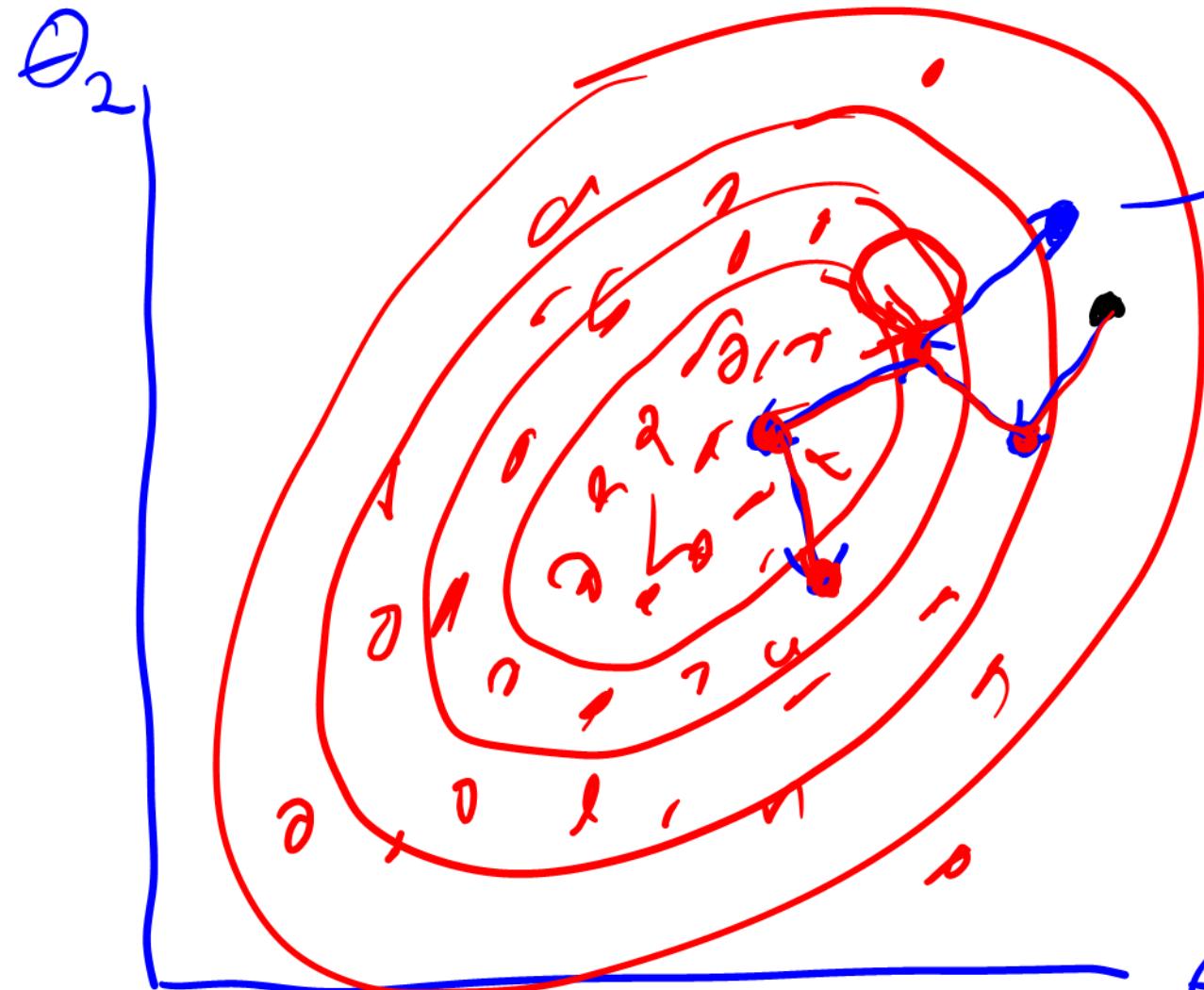


toss a biased coin with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

If Heads move
if Tails stay

Keep doing this for a very long time

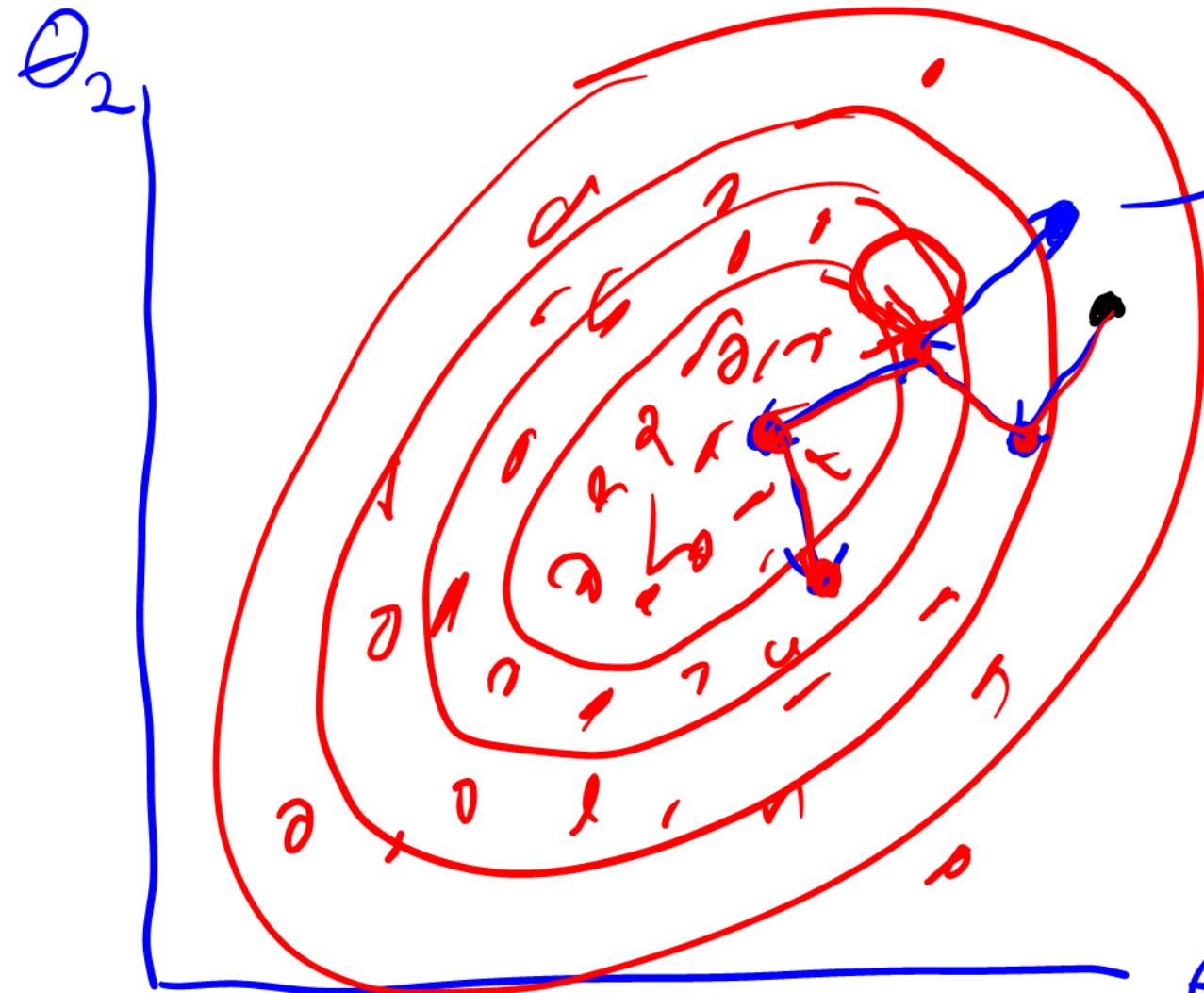


toss a biased coin with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

If Heads move
if Tails stay

Keep doing this for a very long time



toss a biased coin with

$$p(H) = \frac{P(\cdot)}{P(\cdot)}$$

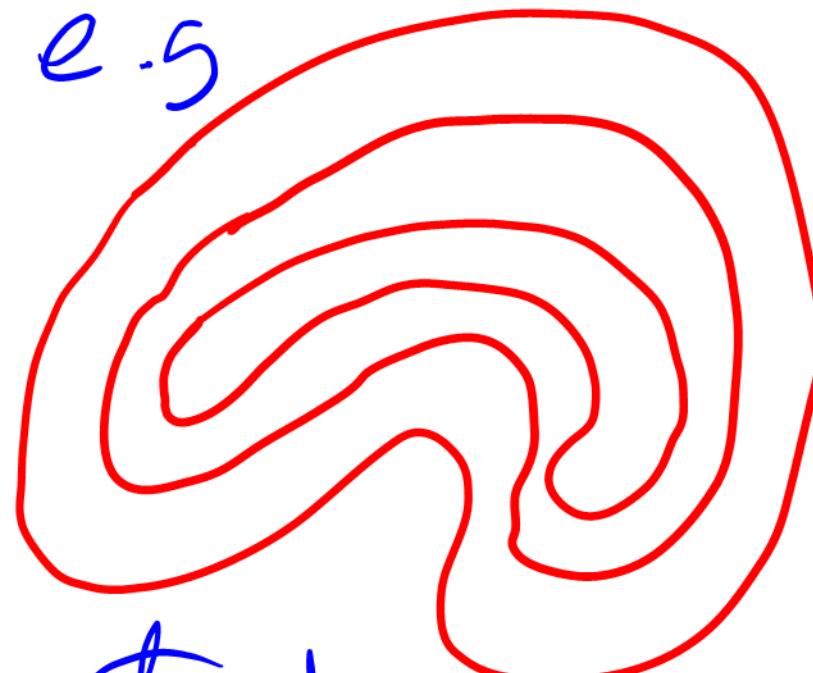
If Heads move
if Tails stay

Generates a sample from $P(\theta|X)$

That's the XX-H algorithm

That's the K-M algorithm

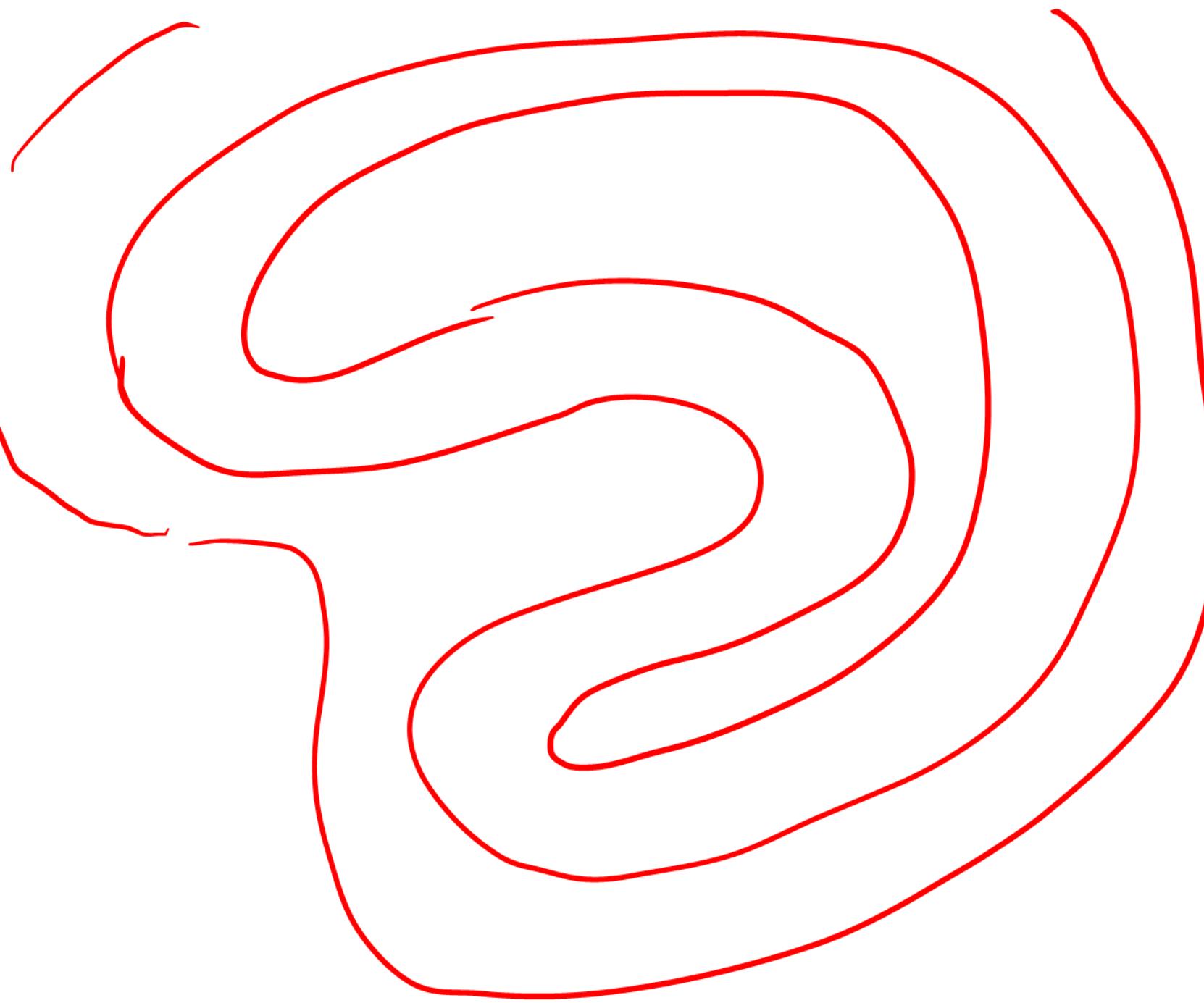
Can be very slow in high dimensions with non-elliptical contours, e.g.

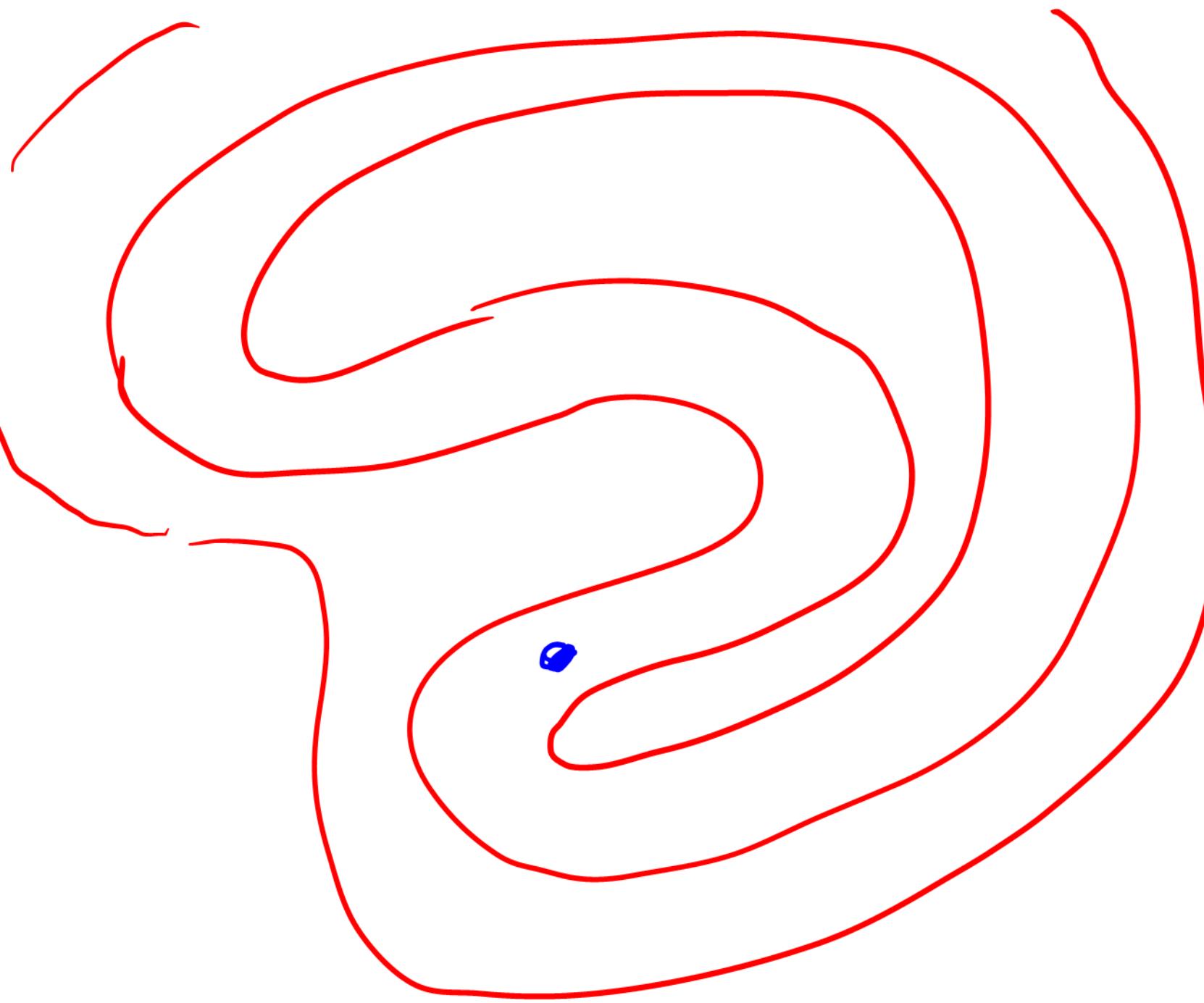


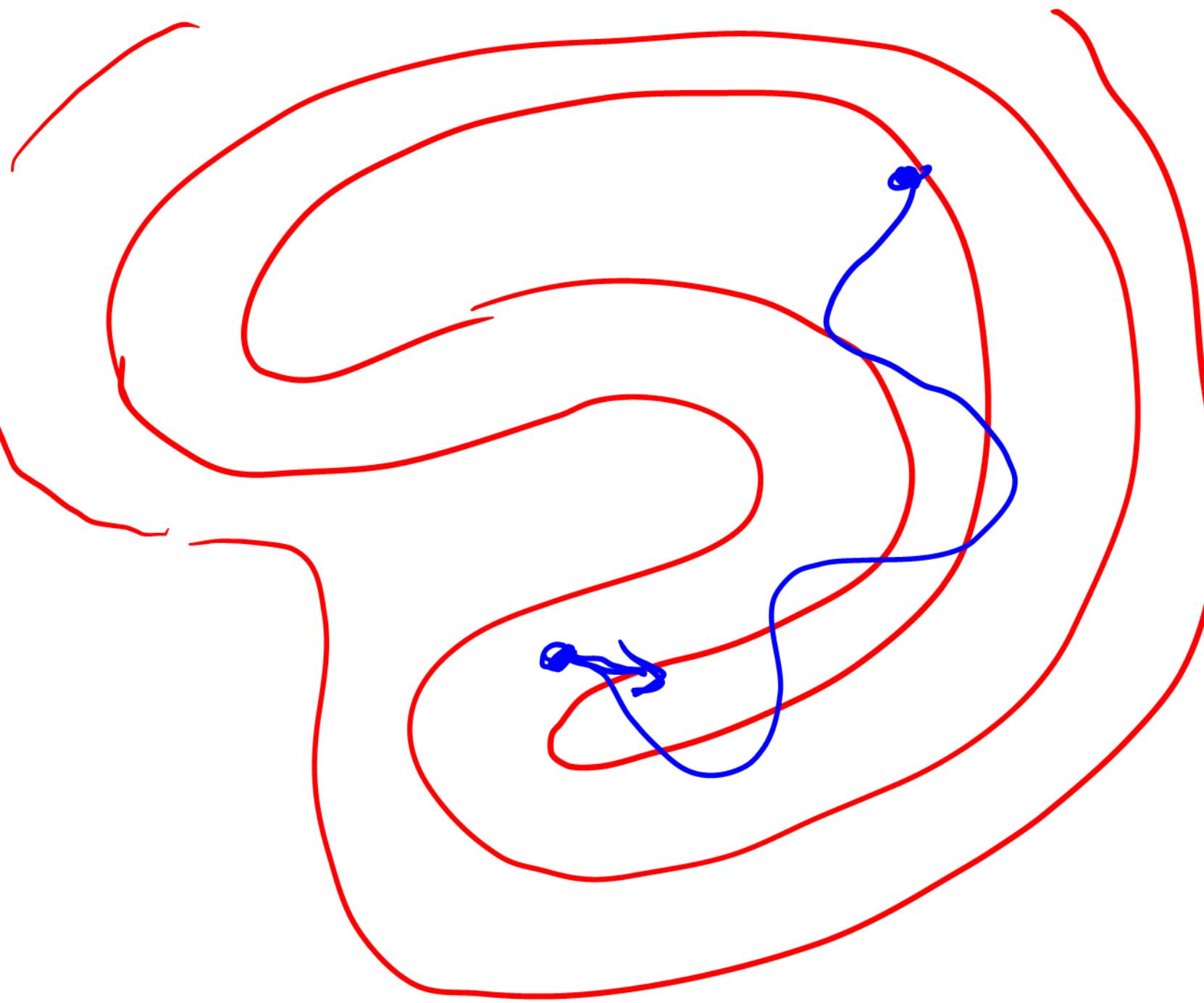
Can get stuck in corners for a long time!

H. Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

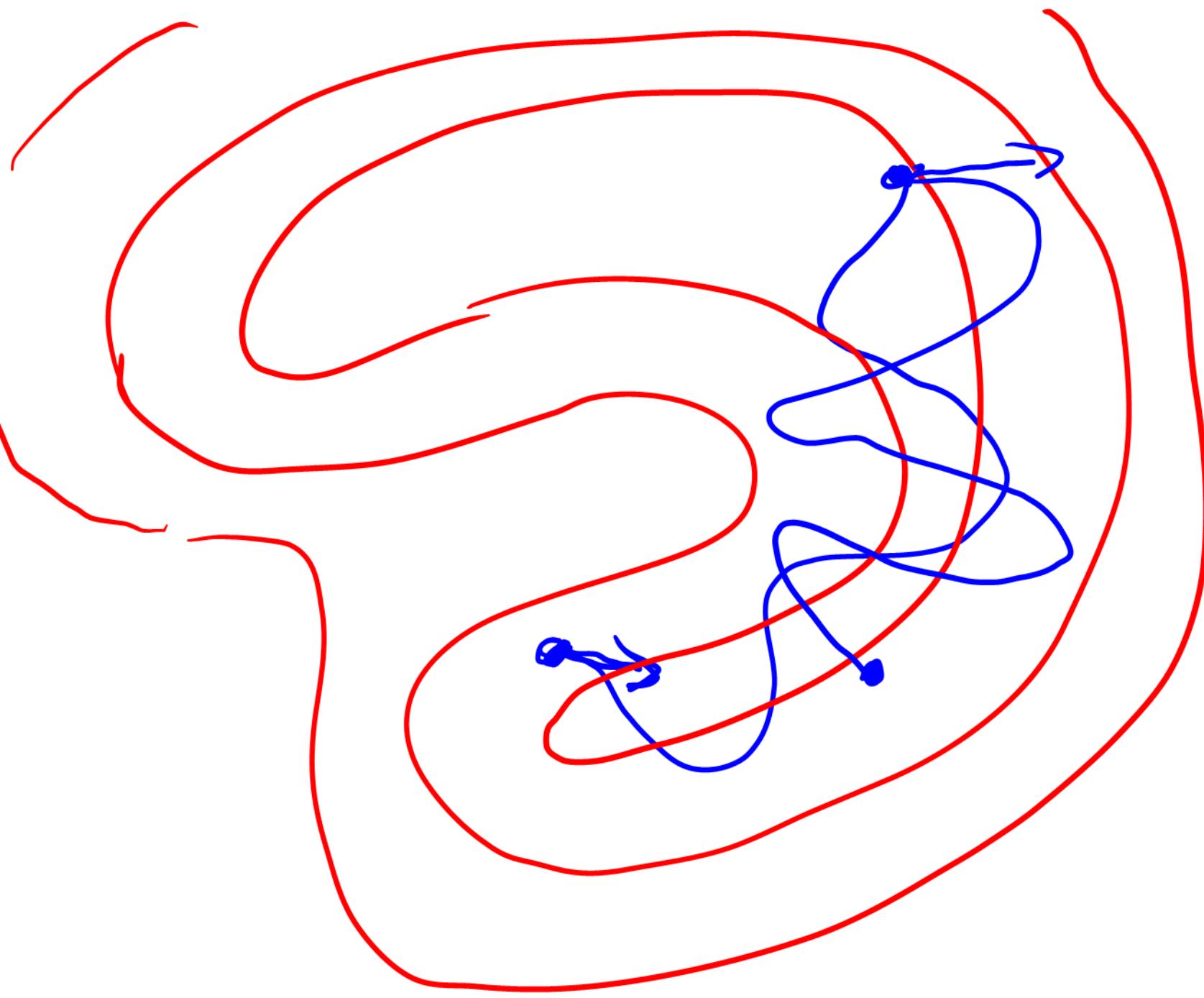
- Turn the mountain into a bowl by using $-\log P(\theta, x)$
- Instead of random steps)
go for a ride on a frictionless skateboard with swivel wheels - starting with a random push.

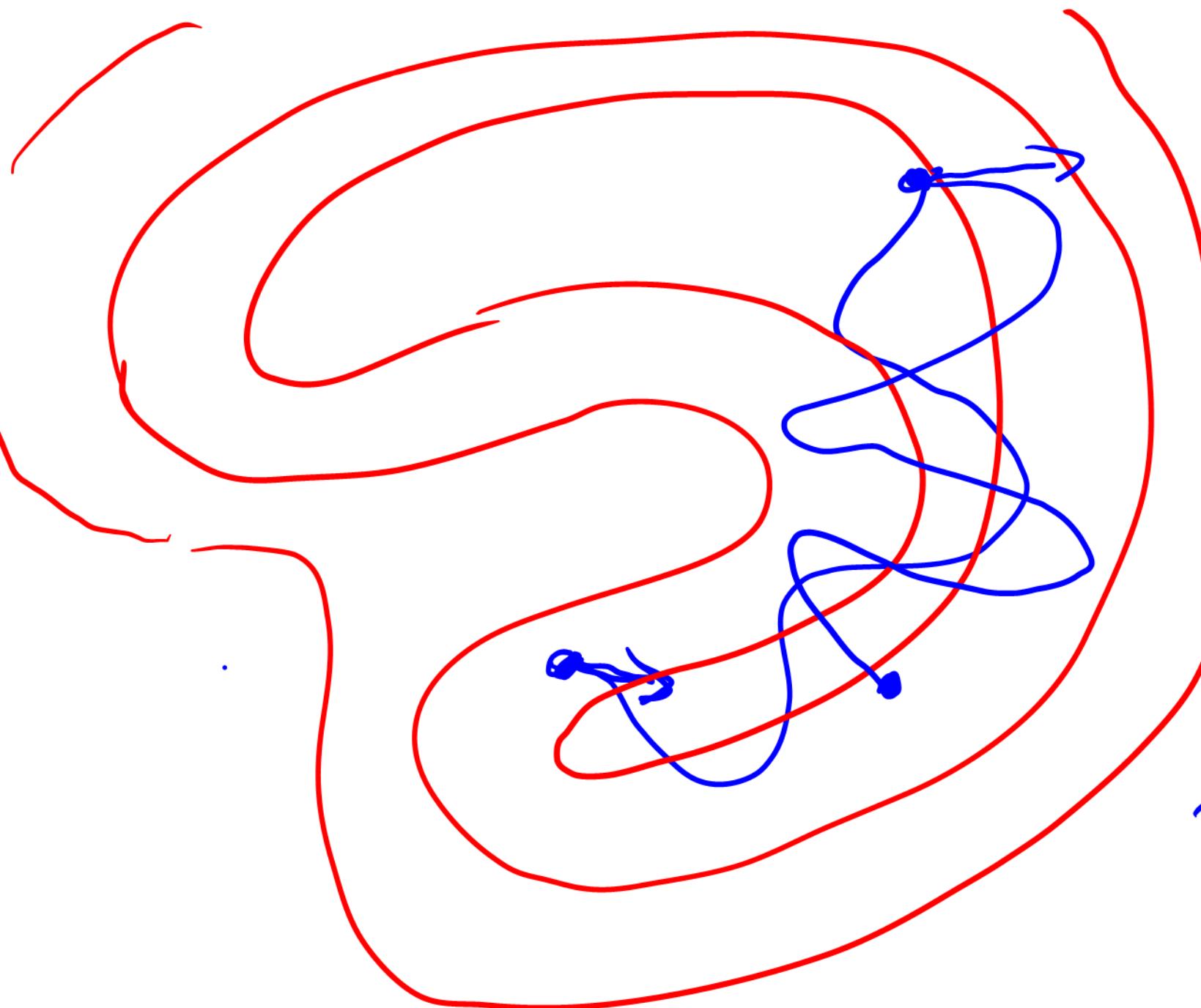




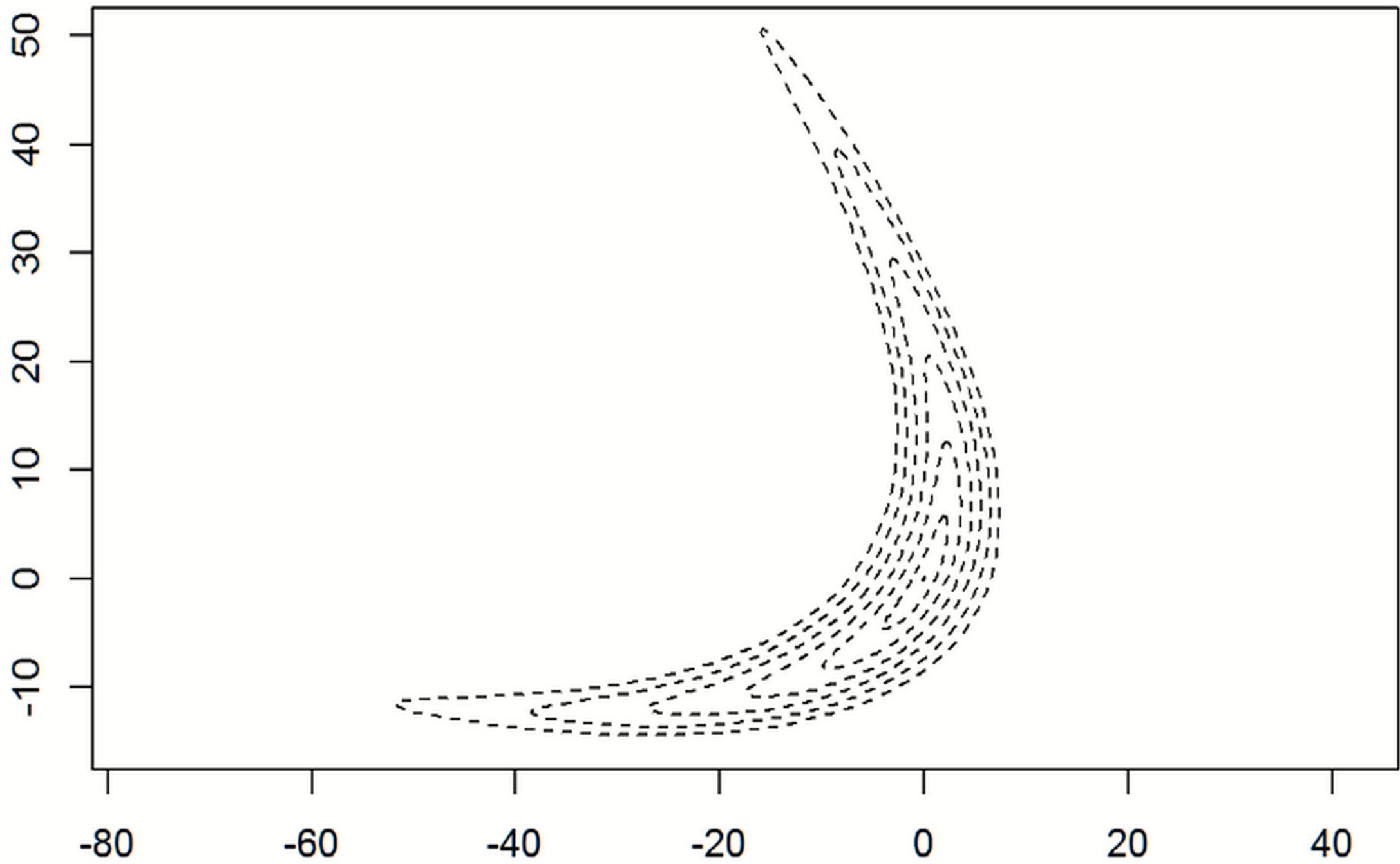


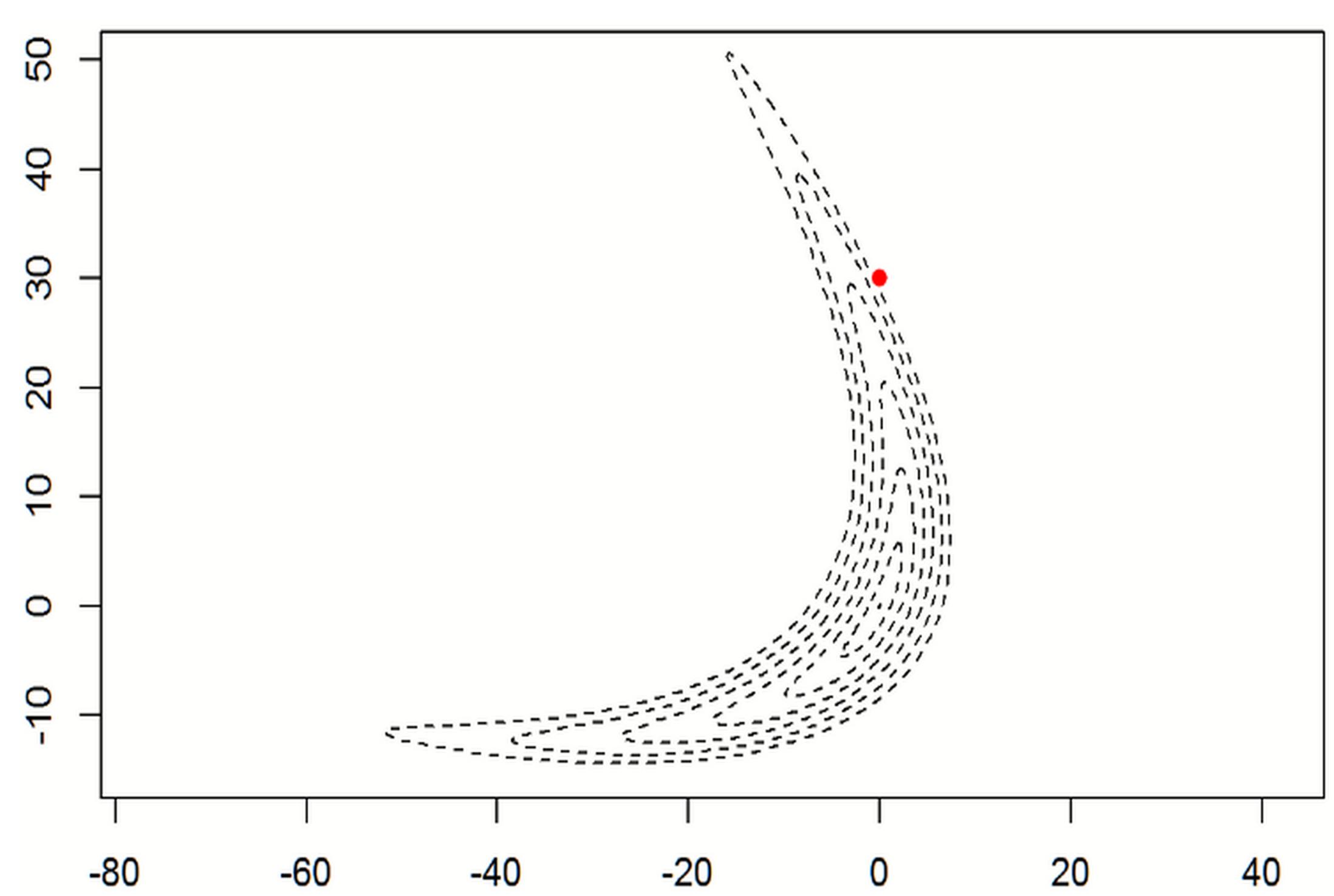
Stop
after
a set
time.

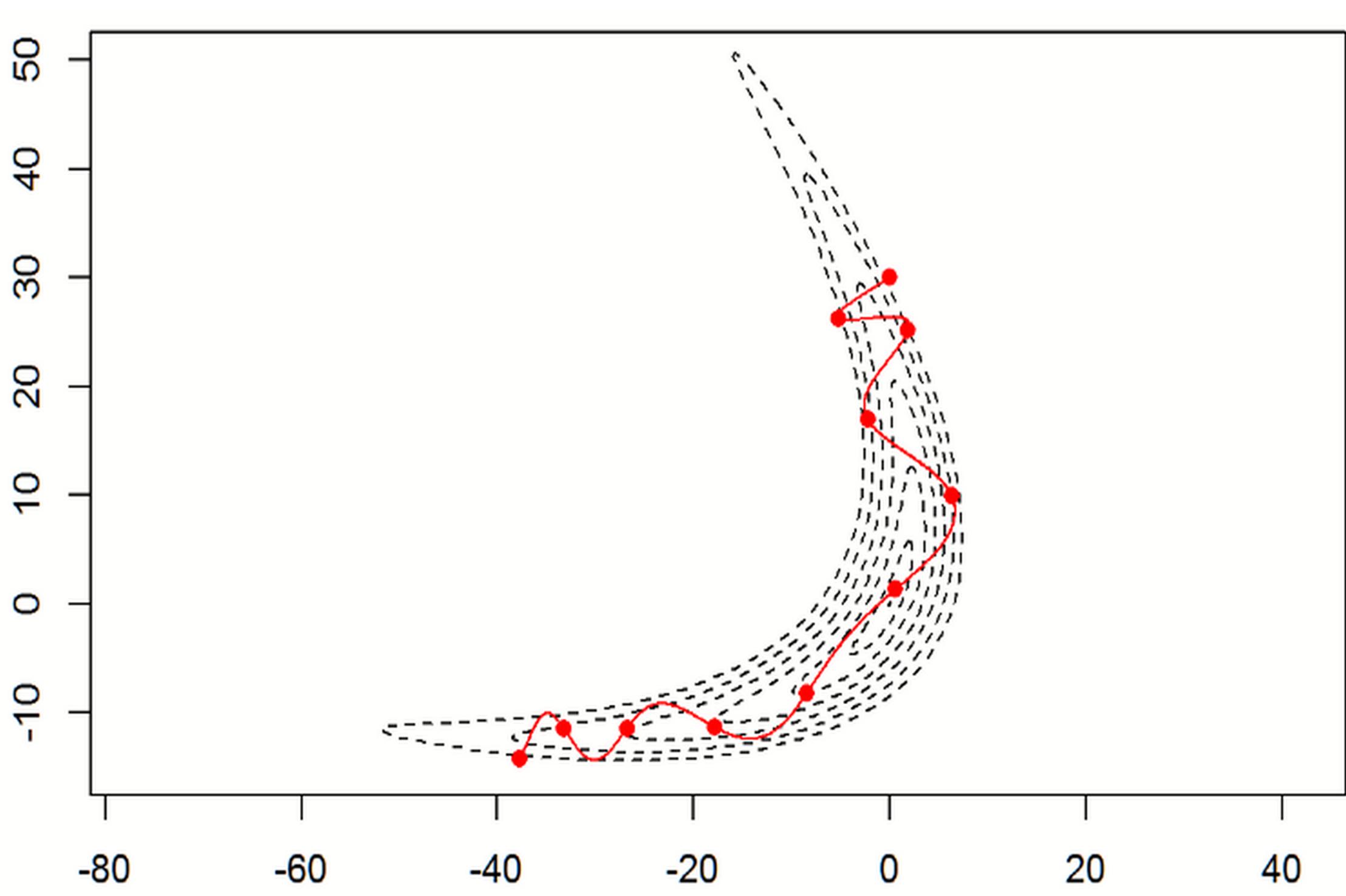


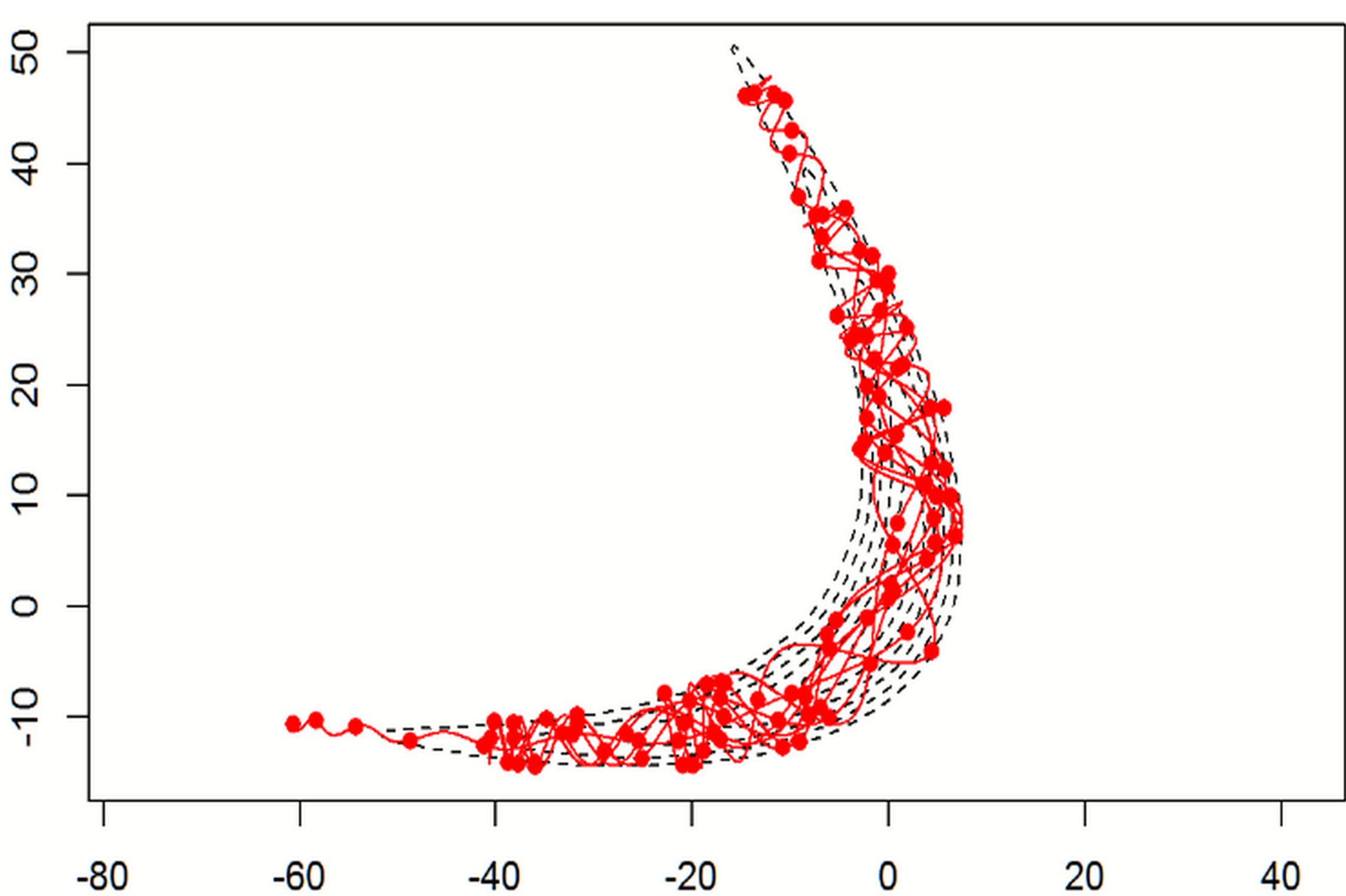


This
can do
a much
better
job of
covering
 $p(\theta|x)$,









L : # of leaps (Leapfrog) steps

ϵ : size of each step

$L\epsilon$: "distance" travelled in Θ -space

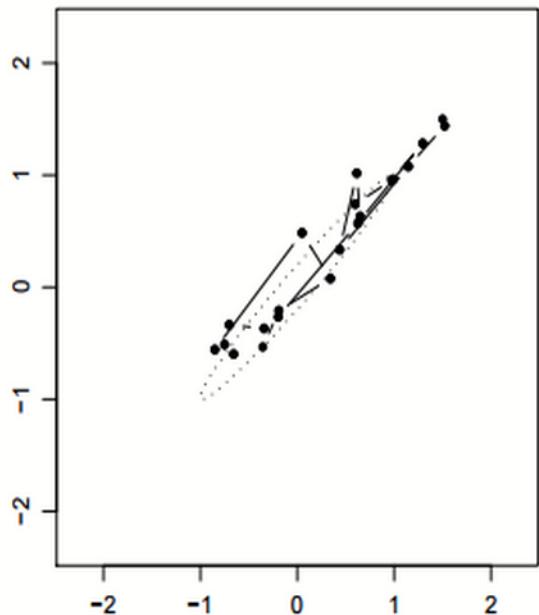
If ϵ too small - too much like random walk

If L too large - too much computing time

If ϵ too large - bad numerical approximation
to continuous path and too
high likelihood of rejecting proposal.

From Neal (2011)

Random-walk Metropolis



Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

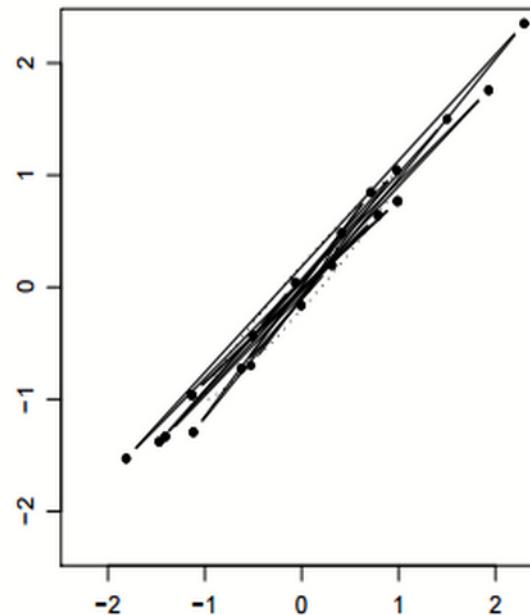
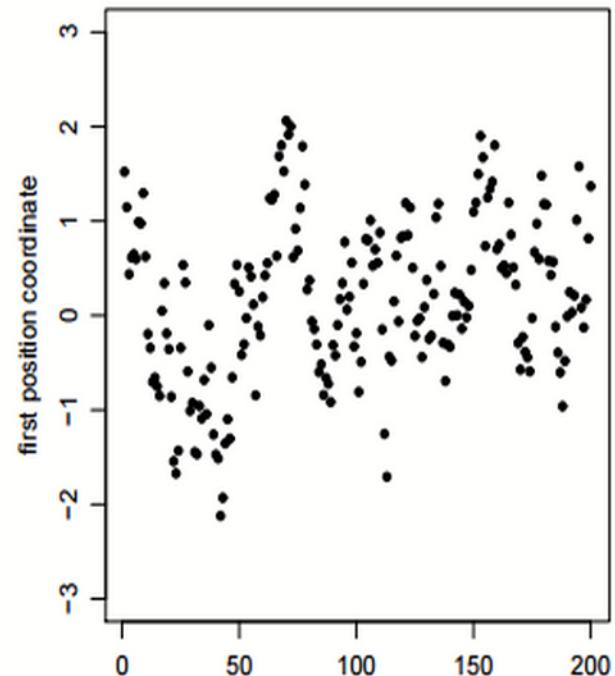


Figure 4: Twenty iterations of the random-walk Metropolis method (with 20 updates per iteration) and of the Hamiltonian Monte Carlo method (with 20 leapfrog steps per trajectory) for a 2D Gaussian distribution with marginal standard deviations of one and correlation 0.98. Only the two position coordinates are plotted, with ellipses drawn one standard deviation away from the mean.

Random-walk Metropolis



Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

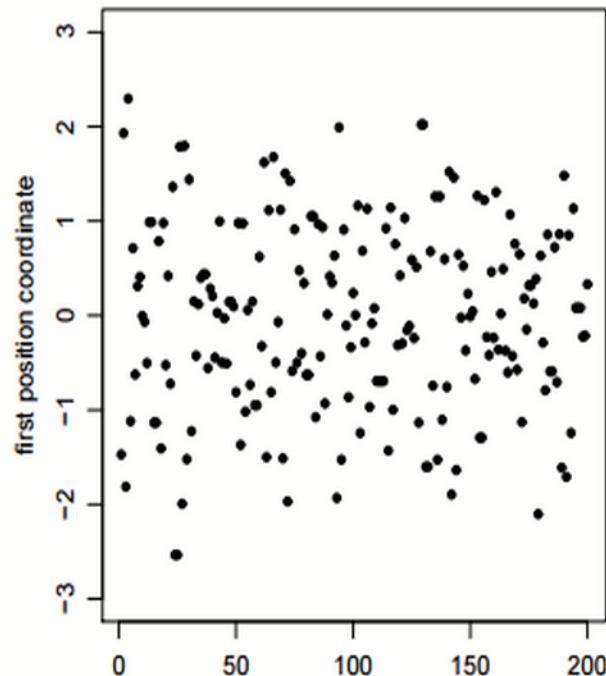


Figure 5: Two hundred iterations, starting with the twenty iterations shown above, with only the first position coordinate plotted.

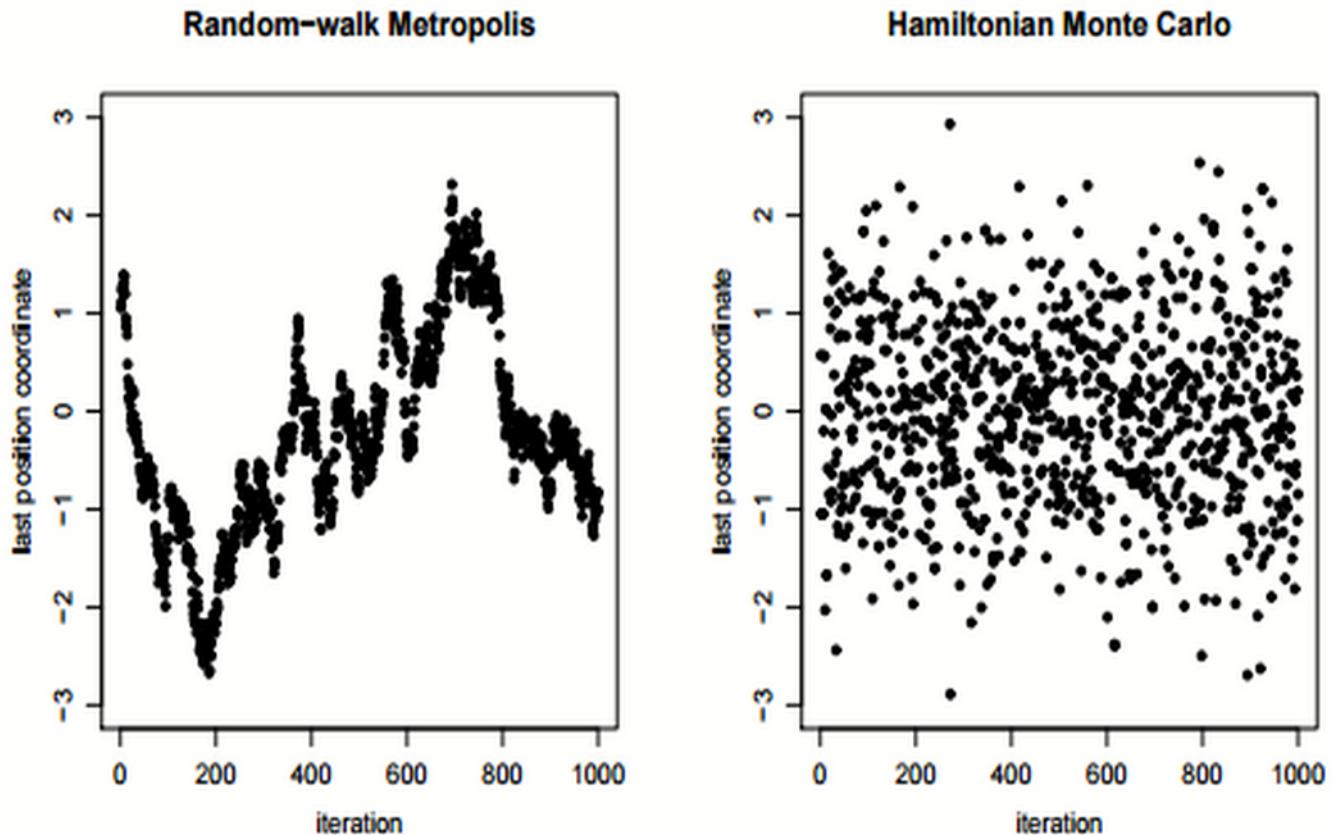


Figure 6: Values for the variable with largest standard deviation for the 100-dimensional example, from a random-walk Metropolis run and an HMC run with $L = 150$. To match computation time, 150 updates were counted as one iteration for random-walk Metropolis.