## Bayesian Statistics in One Hour

Patrick Lam

### Outline

Introduction

Bayesian Models

Applications
Missing Data
Hierarchical Models

### Outline

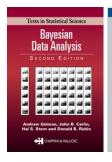
#### Introduction

Bayesian Models

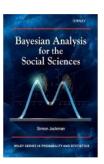
Applications
Missing Data
Hierarchical Models













Western, Bruce and Simon Jackman. 1994. "Bayesian Inference for Comparative Research." American Political Science Review 88(2): 412-423.

Jackman, Simon. 2000. "Estimation and Inference via Bayesian Simulation: An Introduction to Markov Chain Monte Carlo." American Journal of Political Science 44(2): 375-404.

Jackman, Simon. 2000. "Estimation and Inference Are Missing Data Problems: Unifying Social Science Statistics via Bayesian Simulation." *Political Analysis* 8(4): 307-332.

Three general approaches to statistics:

Three general approaches to statistics:

► frequentist (Neyman-Pearson, hypothesis testing)

#### Three general approaches to statistics:

- ► frequentist (Neyman-Pearson, hypothesis testing)
- likelihood (what we've been learning all semester)

#### Three general approaches to statistics:

- frequentist (Neyman-Pearson, hypothesis testing)
- likelihood (what we've been learning all semester)
- Bayesian

Three general approaches to statistics:

- frequentist (Neyman-Pearson, hypothesis testing)
- ▶ likelihood (what we've been learning all semester)
- Bayesian

Today's goal: Contrast {frequentist, likelihood} with Bayesian,

Three general approaches to statistics:

- frequentist (Neyman-Pearson, hypothesis testing)
- likelihood (what we've been learning all semester)
- Bayesian

Today's goal: Contrast {frequentist, likelihood} with Bayesian, with emphasis on Bayesian versus likelihood.

Three general approaches to statistics:

- frequentist (Neyman-Pearson, hypothesis testing)
- likelihood (what we've been learning all semester)
- Bayesian

Today's goal: Contrast {frequentist, likelihood} with Bayesian, with emphasis on Bayesian versus likelihood.

We'll go over some of the Bayesian critiques of non-Bayesian analysis

Three general approaches to statistics:

- frequentist (Neyman-Pearson, hypothesis testing)
- likelihood (what we've been learning all semester)
- Bayesian

Today's goal: Contrast {frequentist, likelihood} with Bayesian, with emphasis on Bayesian versus likelihood.

We'll go over some of the Bayesian critiques of non-Bayesian analysis and non-Bayesian critiques of Bayesian analysis.

Objective view of probability (non-Bayesian):

➤ The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.

- ➤ The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.
- ▶ The observed proportion in a population.

Objective view of probability (non-Bayesian):

- ► The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.
- ▶ The observed proportion in a population.

Objective view of probability (non-Bayesian):

- ► The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.
- ▶ The observed proportion in a population.

Subjective view of probability (Bayesian):

Individual's degree of belief in a statement

Objective view of probability (non-Bayesian):

- ► The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.
- ▶ The observed proportion in a population.

- Individual's degree of belief in a statement
- Defined personally

#### Objective view of probability (non-Bayesian):

- ▶ The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.
- ▶ The observed proportion in a population.

- Individual's degree of belief in a statement
- Defined personally (how much money would you wager on an outcome?)

#### Objective view of probability (non-Bayesian):

- ► The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.
- ▶ The observed proportion in a population.

- Individual's degree of belief in a statement
- Defined personally (how much money would you wager on an outcome?)
- Can be influenced in many ways (personal beliefs, prior evidence)

Objective view of probability (non-Bayesian):

- ▶ The relative frequency of an outcome of an experiment over repeated runs of the experiment.
- ▶ The observed proportion in a population.

Subjective view of probability (Bayesian):

- Individual's degree of belief in a statement
- Defined personally (how much money would you wager on an outcome?)
- Can be influenced in many ways (personal beliefs, prior evidence)

Bayesian statistics is convenient because it does not require repeated sampling or large n assumptions.



$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$
$$= p(y|\theta)k(y)$$

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$
$$= p(y|\theta)k(y)$$
$$\propto p(y|\theta)$$

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

$$= p(y|\theta)k(y)$$

$$\propto p(y|\theta)$$

$$L(\theta|y) = p(y|\theta)$$

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

$$= p(y|\theta)k(y)$$

$$\propto p(y|\theta)$$

$$L(\theta|y) = p(y|\theta)$$

There is a fixed, true value of  $\theta$ ,

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

$$= p(y|\theta)k(y)$$

$$\propto p(y|\theta)$$

$$L(\theta|y) = p(y|\theta)$$

There is a fixed, true value of  $\theta$ , and we maximize the likelihood to estimate  $\theta$  and make assumptions to generate uncertainty about our estimate of  $\theta$ .

# Bayesian

## Bayesian

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

## Bayesian

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\rho(\theta|y) & = & \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)} \\
& \propto & p(y|\theta)p(\theta)
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\rho(\theta|y) & = & \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)} \\
& \propto & p(y|\theta)p(\theta)
\end{array}$$

 $\triangleright$   $\theta$  is a random variable.

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

$$\propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

- $\triangleright$   $\theta$  is a random variable.
  - ightharpoonup heta is stochastic and changes from time to time.

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

$$\propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

- $\triangleright$   $\theta$  is a random variable.
  - lacktriangleright heta is stochastic and changes from time to time.
  - ightharpoonup heta is truly fixed, but we want to reflect our uncertainty about it.

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$
  
 $\propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$ 

- $\triangleright$   $\theta$  is a random variable.
  - lacktriangleright heta is stochastic and changes from time to time.
  - ightharpoonup heta is truly fixed, but we want to reflect our uncertainty about it.
- We have a prior subjective belief about  $\theta$ , which we update with the data to form posterior beliefs about  $\theta$ .

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

$$\propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

- $\triangleright$   $\theta$  is a random variable.
  - ightharpoonup heta is stochastic and changes from time to time.
  - lacktriangledown is truly fixed, but we want to reflect our uncertainty about it.
- We have a prior subjective belief about  $\theta$ , which we update with the data to form posterior beliefs about  $\theta$ .
- ▶ The posterior is a probability distribution that must integrate to 1.

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

$$\propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

- $\triangleright$   $\theta$  is a random variable.
  - ightharpoonup heta is stochastic and changes from time to time.
  - lacktriangledown is truly fixed, but we want to reflect our uncertainty about it.
- We have a prior subjective belief about  $\theta$ , which we update with the data to form posterior beliefs about  $\theta$ .
- ▶ The posterior is a probability distribution that must integrate to 1.
- ► The prior is usually a probability distribution that integrates to 1 (proper prior).

Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$  fixed):

**E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) =$

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) =$

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$  fixed):

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$  fixed):

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

Bayesian approach ( $\theta$  random):

▶ Find the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ .

#### Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$ fixed):

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

- ▶ Find the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ .
- Take quantities of interest from the distribution (posterior mean, posterior SD, posterior credible intervals)

#### Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$ fixed):

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

- ▶ Find the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ .
- Take quantities of interest from the distribution (posterior mean, posterior SD, posterior credible intervals)
- We can make probability statements regarding  $\theta$ .

#### Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$ fixed):

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

- ▶ Find the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ .
- Take quantities of interest from the distribution (posterior mean, posterior SD, posterior credible intervals)
- We can make probability statements regarding  $\theta$ .
  - ▶ 95% Credible Interval:

#### Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$ fixed):

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

- ▶ Find the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ .
- Take quantities of interest from the distribution (posterior mean, posterior SD, posterior credible intervals)
- We can make probability statements regarding  $\theta$ .
  - ▶ 95% Credible Interval:  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0.95$

#### Non-Bayesian approach ( $\theta$ fixed):

- **E**stimate  $\theta$  with measures of uncertainty (SE, CIs)
- ▶ 95% Confidence Interval: 95% of the time,  $\theta$  is in the 95% interval that is estimated each time.
  - ▶  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0 \text{ or } 1$
- ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = 0 \text{ or } 1$

- ▶ Find the posterior distribution of  $\theta$ .
- Take quantities of interest from the distribution (posterior mean, posterior SD, posterior credible intervals)
- We can make probability statements regarding  $\theta$ .
  - ▶ 95% Credible Interval:  $P(\theta \in 95\% \text{ CI}) = 0.95$
  - ▶  $P(\theta > 2) = (0,1)$

 $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$ 

 $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$ 

NB: Bayesians introduce priors that are not justifiable.

 $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$ 

NB: Bayesians introduce priors that are not justifiable.

 $\hbox{B: $\underline{$N$ on-Bayesians are just doing Bayesian statistics with uninformative priors,} \\ \underline{which may be equally unjustifiable.}$ 

 $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$ 

NB: Bayesians introduce priors that are not justifiable.

 $\hbox{B: $\underline{$N$on-Bayesians are just doing Bayesian statistics with uninformative priors,} \\ \underline{{which may be equally unjustifiable.}}$ 

NB: Unjustified Bayesian priors are driving the results.

#### $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$

NB: Bayesians introduce priors that are not justifiable.

 $\hbox{B: $\underline{$N$on-Bayesians are just doing Bayesian statistics with uninformative priors,} \\ \underline{which may be equally unjustifiable.}$ 

NB: Unjustified Bayesian priors are driving the results.

B: Bayesian results  $\approx$  non-Bayesian results as n gets larger (the data overwhelm the prior).

#### $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$

NB: Bayesians introduce priors that are not justifiable.

 $\hbox{B: $\underline{$N$on-Bayesians are just doing Bayesian statistics with uninformative priors,} \\ \underline{which may be equally unjustifiable.}$ 

NB: Unjustified Bayesian priors are driving the results.

B: Bayesian results  $\approx$  non-Bayesian results as n gets larger (the data overwhelm the prior).

NB: Bayesian is too hard. Why use it?

#### $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$

NB: Bayesians introduce priors that are not justifiable.

 $\hbox{B: $\underline{$N$on-Bayesians are just doing Bayesian statistics with uninformative priors,} \\ \underline{which may be equally unjustifiable.}$ 

NB: Unjustified Bayesian priors are driving the results.

B: Bayesian results  $\approx$  non-Bayesian results as n gets larger (the data overwhelm the prior).

NB: Bayesian is too hard. Why use it?

B: Bayesian methods allow us to easily estimate models that are too hard to estimate (cannot computationally find the MLE) or unidentified (no unique MLE exists) with non-Bayesian methods.

#### $Posterior = Evidence \times Prior$

NB: Bayesians introduce priors that are not justifiable.

 $\hbox{B: $\frac{\hbox{Non-Bayesians are just doing Bayesian statistics with uninformative priors,} \\ \underline{\hbox{which may be equally unjustifiable.} }$ 

NB: Unjustified Bayesian priors are driving the results.

B: Bayesian results  $\approx$  non-Bayesian results as n gets larger (the data overwhelm the prior).

NB: Bayesian is too hard. Why use it?

B: Bayesian methods allow us to easily estimate models that are too hard to estimate (cannot computationally find the MLE) or unidentified (no unique MLE exists) with non-Bayesian methods. Bayesian methods also allow us to incorporate prior/qualitative information into the model.

### Outline

Introduction

### Bayesian Models

Applications
Missing Data
Hierarchical Models

Non-Bayesian:

#### Non-Bayesian:

1. Specify a probability model (distribution for *Y*).

#### Non-Bayesian:

- 1. Specify a probability model (distribution for *Y*).
- 2. Find MLE  $\hat{\theta}$  and measures of uncertainty (SE, CI). Assume  $\hat{\theta}$  follows a (multivariate) normal distribution.

#### Non-Bayesian:

- 1. Specify a probability model (distribution for *Y*).
- 2. Find MLE  $\hat{\theta}$  and measures of uncertainty (SE, CI). Assume  $\hat{\theta}$  follows a (multivariate) normal distribution.
- Estimate quantities of interest analytically or via simulation.

### Running a Model

#### Non-Bayesian:

- 1. Specify a probability model (distribution for *Y*).
- 2. Find MLE  $\hat{\theta}$  and measures of uncertainty (SE, CI). Assume  $\hat{\theta}$  follows a (multivariate) normal distribution.
- Estimate quantities of interest analytically or via simulation.

#### Bayesian:

1. Specify a probability model (distribution for Y and priors on  $\theta$ ).

### Running a Model

#### Non-Bayesian:

- 1. Specify a probability model (distribution for *Y*).
- 2. Find MLE  $\hat{\theta}$  and measures of uncertainty (SE, CI). Assume  $\hat{\theta}$  follows a (multivariate) normal distribution.
- Estimate quantities of interest analytically or via simulation.

### Bayesian:

- 1. Specify a probability model (distribution for Y and priors on  $\theta$ ).
- 2. Solve for posterior and summarize it (mean, SD, credible interval, etc.). We can do both analytically or via simulation.

### Running a Model

#### Non-Bayesian:

- 1. Specify a probability model (distribution for *Y*).
- 2. Find MLE  $\hat{\theta}$  and measures of uncertainty (SE, CI). Assume  $\hat{\theta}$  follows a (multivariate) normal distribution.
- Estimate quantities of interest analytically or via simulation.

#### Bayesian:

- 1. Specify a probability model (distribution for Y and priors on  $\theta$ ).
- Solve for posterior and summarize it (mean, SD, credible interval, etc.). We can do both analytically or via simulation.
- 3. Estimate quantities of interest analytically or via simulation.

There is a Bayesian way to do any non-Bayesian parametric model.

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season.

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games.

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games. Suppose the Lakers win each game with probability  $\pi$ .

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games. Suppose the Lakers win each game with probability  $\pi$ . Estimate  $\pi$ .

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games. Suppose the Lakers win each game with probability  $\pi$ . Estimate  $\pi$ .

We have 82 Bernoulli observations or one observation Y, where

$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \pi)$$

with n = 82.

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games. Suppose the Lakers win each game with probability  $\pi$ . Estimate  $\pi$ .

We have 82 Bernoulli observations or one observation Y, where

$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \pi)$$

with n = 82.

Assumptions:

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games. Suppose the Lakers win each game with probability  $\pi$ . Estimate  $\pi$ .

We have 82 Bernoulli observations or one observation Y, where

$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \pi)$$

with n = 82.

### Assumptions:

► Each game is a Bernoulli trial.

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games. Suppose the Lakers win each game with probability  $\pi$ . Estimate  $\pi$ .

We have 82 Bernoulli observations or one observation Y, where

$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \pi)$$

with n = 82.

#### Assumptions:

- Each game is a Bernoulli trial.
- ▶ The Lakers have the same probability of winning each game.

The Los Angeles Lakers play 82 games during a regular NBA season. In the 2008-2009 season, they won 65 games. Suppose the Lakers win each game with probability  $\pi$ . Estimate  $\pi$ .

We have 82 Bernoulli observations or one observation Y, where

$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \pi)$$

with n = 82.

#### Assumptions:

- Each game is a Bernoulli trial.
- ▶ The Lakers have the same probability of winning each game.
- ▶ The outcomes of the games are independent.

$$p(\pi|y) \propto p(y|\pi)p(\pi)$$

```
\begin{array}{lll} \rho(\pi|y) & \propto & \rho(y|\pi)\rho(\pi) \\ & = & \mathrm{Binomial}(n,\pi) \times \mathrm{Beta}(\alpha,\beta) \end{array}
```

$$\rho(\pi|y) \propto \rho(y|\pi)\rho(\pi) 
= \text{Binomial}(n,\pi) \times \text{Beta}(\alpha,\beta) 
= \binom{n}{y} \pi^y (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\rho(\pi|y) &\propto & \rho(y|\pi)\rho(\pi) \\
&= & \operatorname{Binomial}(n,\pi) \times \operatorname{Beta}(\alpha,\beta) \\
&= & \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)} \\
&\propto & \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}
\end{aligned}$$

$$p(\pi|y) \propto p(y|\pi)p(\pi)$$

$$= \text{Binomial}(n,\pi) \times \text{Beta}(\alpha,\beta)$$

$$= \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$\propto \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$p(\pi|y) \propto \pi^{y+\alpha-1} (1-\pi)^{n-y+\beta-1}$$

$$p(\pi|y) \propto p(y|\pi)p(\pi)$$

$$= \text{Binomial}(n,\pi) \times \text{Beta}(\alpha,\beta)$$

$$= \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$\propto \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$p(\pi|y) \propto \pi^{y+\alpha-1} (1-\pi)^{n-y+\beta-1}$$

The posterior distribution is simply a Beta $(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta)$  distribution.

$$p(\pi|y) \propto p(y|\pi)p(\pi)$$

$$= \text{Binomial}(n,\pi) \times \text{Beta}(\alpha,\beta)$$

$$= \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$\propto \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$p(\pi|y) \propto \pi^{y+\alpha-1} (1-\pi)^{n-y+\beta-1}$$

The posterior distribution is simply a Beta $(y+\alpha,n-y+\beta)$  distribution. Effectively, our prior is just adding  $\alpha-1$  successes and  $\beta-1$  failures to the dataset.

$$p(\pi|y) \propto p(y|\pi)p(\pi)$$

$$= \text{Binomial}(n,\pi) \times \text{Beta}(\alpha,\beta)$$

$$= \binom{n}{y} \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$\propto \pi^{y} (1-\pi)^{(n-y)} \pi^{(\alpha-1)} (1-\pi)^{(\beta-1)}$$

$$p(\pi|y) \propto \pi^{y+\alpha-1} (1-\pi)^{n-y+\beta-1}$$

The posterior distribution is simply a Beta $(y+\alpha,n-y+\beta)$  distribution. Effectively, our prior is just adding  $\alpha-1$  successes and  $\beta-1$  failures to the dataset.

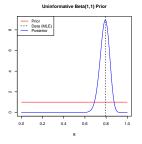
Bayesian priors are just adding pseudo observations to the data.

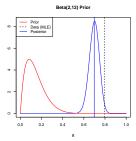
posterior mean

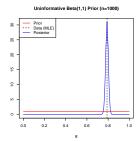
- posterior mean
- posterior standard deviation

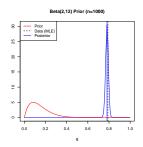
- posterior mean
- posterior standard deviation
- posterior credible intervals (credible sets)

- posterior mean
- posterior standard deviation
- posterior credible intervals (credible sets)
- highest posterior density region









$$Beta(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta) = \frac{Binomial(n, \pi) \times Beta(\alpha, \beta)}{p(y)}$$

$$Beta(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta) = \frac{Binomial(n, \pi) \times Beta(\alpha, \beta)}{p(y)}$$

We knew that the likelihood  $\times$  prior produced something that looked like a Beta distribution up to a constant of proportionality.

$$Beta(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta) = \frac{Binomial(n, \pi) \times Beta(\alpha, \beta)}{p(y)}$$

We knew that the likelihood  $\times$  prior produced something that looked like a Beta distribution up to a constant of proportionality.

Since the posterior must be a probability distribution, we know that it is a Beta distribution and we can easily solve for the normalizing constant

$$Beta(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta) = \frac{Binomial(n, \pi) \times Beta(\alpha, \beta)}{p(y)}$$

We knew that the likelihood  $\times$  prior produced something that looked like a Beta distribution up to a constant of proportionality.

Since the posterior must be a probability distribution, we know that it is a Beta distribution and we can easily solve for the normalizing constant (although we don't need to since we already have the posterior).

$$Beta(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta) = \frac{Binomial(n, \pi) \times Beta(\alpha, \beta)}{p(y)}$$

We knew that the likelihood  $\times$  prior produced something that looked like a Beta distribution up to a constant of proportionality.

Since the posterior must be a probability distribution, we know that it is a Beta distribution and we can easily solve for the normalizing constant (although we don't need to since we already have the posterior).

When the posterior is the same distribution family as the prior, we have **conjugacy**.

$$Beta(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta) = \frac{Binomial(n, \pi) \times Beta(\alpha, \beta)}{\rho(y)}$$

We knew that the likelihood  $\times$  prior produced something that looked like a Beta distribution up to a constant of proportionality.

Since the posterior must be a probability distribution, we know that it is a Beta distribution and we can easily solve for the normalizing constant (although we don't need to since we already have the posterior).

When the posterior is the same distribution family as the prior, we have **conjugacy**.

Conjugate models are great because we can find the exact posterior,

$$Beta(y + \alpha, n - y + \beta) = \frac{Binomial(n, \pi) \times Beta(\alpha, \beta)}{p(y)}$$

We knew that the likelihood  $\times$  prior produced something that looked like a Beta distribution up to a constant of proportionality.

Since the posterior must be a probability distribution, we know that it is a Beta distribution and we can easily solve for the normalizing constant (although we don't need to since we already have the posterior).

When the posterior is the same distribution family as the prior, we have **conjugacy**.

Conjugate models are great because we can find the exact posterior, but we almost never have conjugacy except in very simple models.

# What Happens When We Don't Have Conjugacy?

$$p(\beta|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda_i) \times \operatorname{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$p(\beta|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda_{i}) \times \operatorname{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$\lambda_{i} = \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\beta)$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda_{i}) \times \operatorname{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$\lambda_{i} = \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\exp(-e^{\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!} \times \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

Consider a Poisson regression model with Normal priors on  $\beta$ .

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda_{i}) \times \operatorname{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$\lambda_{i} = \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\exp(-e^{\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!} \times \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

Likelihood  $\times$  prior doesn't look like any distribution we know (non-conjugacy)

Consider a Poisson regression model with Normal priors on  $\beta$ .

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda_{i}) \times \operatorname{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$\lambda_{i} = \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\exp(-e^{\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!} \times \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

Likelihood  $\times$  prior doesn't look like any distribution we know (non-conjugacy) and normalizing constant is too hard to find,

Consider a Poisson regression model with Normal priors on  $\beta$ .

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda_{i}) \times \operatorname{Normal}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$\lambda_{i} = \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\exp(-e^{\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \exp(\mathbf{x}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}}}{y_{i}!} \times \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

Likelihood  $\times$  prior doesn't look like any distribution we know (non-conjugacy) and normalizing constant is too hard to find, so how do we find our posterior?

Ideal Goal:

Ideal Goal: Produce **independent** draws from our posterior distribution via simulation and summarize the posterior by using those draws.

Ideal Goal: Produce **independent** draws from our posterior distribution via simulation and summarize the posterior by using those draws.

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): a class of algorithms that produce a chain of simulated draws from a distribution where each draw is **dependent** on the previous draw.

Ideal Goal: Produce **independent** draws from our posterior distribution via simulation and summarize the posterior by using those draws.

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): a class of algorithms that produce a chain of simulated draws from a distribution where each draw is **dependent** on the previous draw.

Theory:

Ideal Goal: Produce **independent** draws from our posterior distribution via simulation and summarize the posterior by using those draws.

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): a class of algorithms that produce a chain of simulated draws from a distribution where each draw is **dependent** on the previous draw.

Theory: If our chain satisfies some basic conditions, then the chain will **eventually converge** to a stationary distribution (in our case, the posterior)

Ideal Goal: Produce **independent** draws from our posterior distribution via simulation and summarize the posterior by using those draws.

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): a class of algorithms that produce a chain of simulated draws from a distribution where each draw is **dependent** on the previous draw.

Theory: If our chain satisfies some basic conditions, then the chain will **eventually converge** to a stationary distribution (in our case, the posterior) and we have approximate draws from the posterior.

Ideal Goal: Produce **independent** draws from our posterior distribution via simulation and summarize the posterior by using those draws.

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): a class of algorithms that produce a chain of simulated draws from a distribution where each draw is **dependent** on the previous draw.

Theory: If our chain satisfies some basic conditions, then the chain will **eventually converge** to a stationary distribution (in our case, the posterior) and we have approximate draws from the posterior.

But there is no way to know for sure whether our chain has converged.

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

$$\theta_1^{t+1} \sim p(\theta_1|\theta_2^t,\ldots,\theta_k^t,\mathbf{y})$$

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \theta_1^{t+1} & \sim & p(\theta_1|\theta_2^t,\ldots,\theta_k^t,\mathbf{y}) \\ \theta_2^{t+1} & \sim & p(\theta_2|\theta_1^{t+1},\ldots,\theta_k^t,\mathbf{y}) \end{array}$$

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta^t_1, \dots, \theta^t_k)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \theta_1^{t+1} & \sim & p(\theta_1|\theta_2^t, \dots, \theta_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ \theta_2^{t+1} & \sim & p(\theta_2|\theta_1^{t+1}, \dots, \theta_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ & \vdots \end{array}$$

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

$$\begin{array}{lll} \theta_1^{t+1} & \sim & p(\theta_1|\theta_2^t,\ldots,\theta_k^t,\mathbf{y}) \\ \theta_2^{t+1} & \sim & p(\theta_2|\theta_1^{t+1},\ldots,\theta_k^t,\mathbf{y}) \\ & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \theta_k^{t+1} & \sim & p(\theta_k|\theta_1^{t+1},\ldots,\theta_{k-1}^{t+1},\mathbf{y}) \end{array}$$

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  from the following distributions:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 | \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^t, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2 | \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k | \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{k-1}^{t+1}, \mathbf{y}) \end{array}$$

Repeat m times to get m draws of our parameters from the approximate posterior (assuming convergence).

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  from the following distributions:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 | \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^t, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2 | \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k | \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{k-1}^{t+1}, \mathbf{y}) \end{array}$$

Repeat m times to get m draws of our parameters from the approximate posterior (assuming convergence).

Requires that we know the conditional distributions for each  $\theta$ .

Let  $\theta^t = (\theta_1^t, \dots, \theta_k^t)$  be the tth draw of our parameter vector  $\theta$ .

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  from the following distributions:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 | \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^t, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2 | \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^t, \mathbf{y}) \\ & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\theta}_k^{t+1} & \sim & p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k | \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{t+1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{k-1}^{t+1}, \mathbf{y}) \end{array}$$

Repeat m times to get m draws of our parameters from the approximate posterior (assuming convergence).

Requires that we know the conditional distributions for each  $\theta$ . What if we don't?



Draw a new vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{t+1}$  in the following way:

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*|\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)$ 

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\theta^*|\theta^t)$  (usually a symmetric distribution such as the multivariate normal).

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

- 1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\theta^*|\theta^t)$  (usually a symmetric distribution such as the multivariate normal).
- 2. Draw a proposed parameter vector  $\theta^*$  from the jumping distribution.

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

- 1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\theta^*|\theta^t)$  (usually a symmetric distribution such as the multivariate normal).
- 2. Draw a proposed parameter vector  $\theta^*$  from the jumping distribution.
- 3. Accept  $\theta^*$  as  $\theta^{t+1}$  with probability min(r,1), where

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

- 1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\theta^*|\theta^t)$  (usually a symmetric distribution such as the multivariate normal).
- 2. Draw a proposed parameter vector  $\theta^*$  from the jumping distribution.
- 3. Accept  $\theta^*$  as  $\theta^{t+1}$  with probability min(r,1), where

$$r = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)}{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)}$$

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

- 1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\theta^*|\theta^t)$  (usually a symmetric distribution such as the multivariate normal).
- 2. Draw a proposed parameter vector  $\theta^*$  from the jumping distribution.
- 3. Accept  $\theta^*$  as  $\theta^{t+1}$  with probability min(r,1), where

$$r = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)}{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)}$$

If  $\theta^*$  is rejected, then  $\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t$ .

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

- 1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\theta^*|\theta^t)$  (usually a symmetric distribution such as the multivariate normal).
- 2. Draw a proposed parameter vector  $\theta^*$  from the jumping distribution.
- 3. Accept  $\theta^*$  as  $\theta^{t+1}$  with probability min(r,1), where

$$r = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)}{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)}$$

If  $\theta^*$  is rejected, then  $\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t$ .

Repeat m times to get m draws of our parameters from the approximate posterior (assuming convergence).

Draw a new vector  $\theta^{t+1}$  in the following way:

- 1. Specify a jumping distribution  $J_{t+1}(\theta^*|\theta^t)$  (usually a symmetric distribution such as the multivariate normal).
- 2. Draw a proposed parameter vector  $\theta^*$  from the jumping distribution.
- 3. Accept  $\theta^*$  as  $\theta^{t+1}$  with probability min(r,1), where

$$r = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)}{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^t)}$$

If  $\theta^*$  is rejected, then  $\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t$ .

Repeat m times to get m draws of our parameters from the approximate posterior (assuming convergence).

M-H always works, but can be very slow.



#### Outline

Introduction

Bayesian Models

Applications
Missing Data
Hierarchical Models

Suppose we have missing data.

Suppose we have missing data. Define D as our data matrix and M as our missingness matrix.

Suppose we have missing data. Define D as our data matrix and M as our missingness matrix.

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} y & x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ 1 & 2.5 & 432 & 0 \\ 5 & 3.2 & 543 & 1 \\ 2 & ? & 219 & ? \\ ? & 1.9 & ? & 1 \\ ? & 1.2 & 108 & 0 \\ ? & 7.7 & 95 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad M = \begin{pmatrix} y & x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose we have missing data. Define D as our data matrix and M as our missingness matrix.

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} y & x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ 1 & 2.5 & 432 & 0 \\ 5 & 3.2 & 543 & 1 \\ 2 & ? & 219 & ? \\ ? & 1.9 & ? & 1 \\ ? & 1.2 & 108 & 0 \\ ? & 7.7 & 95 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad M = \begin{pmatrix} y & x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

One non-Bayesian approach to dealing with missing data is **multiple imputation**.

We need a method for filling in the missing cells of D as a first step **before** we go to the analysis stage.

We need a method for filling in the missing cells of D as a first step **before** we go to the analysis stage.

1. Assume a joint distribution for  $D_{obs}$  and M:

We need a method for filling in the missing cells of D as a first step **before** we go to the analysis stage.

1. Assume a joint distribution for  $D_{obs}$  and M:

$$p(D_{obs}, M|\phi, \gamma) = \int p(D|\phi)p(M|D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)dD_{mis}$$

We need a method for filling in the missing cells of D as a first step **before** we go to the analysis stage.

1. Assume a joint distribution for  $D_{obs}$  and M:

$$p(D_{obs}, M|\phi, \gamma) = \int p(D|\phi)p(M|D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)dD_{mis}$$

If we assume MAR, then

$$p(D_{obs}, M|\phi, \gamma) \propto \int p(D|\phi) dD_{mis}$$



$$L(\phi|D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \int p(D_{i,obs}|\phi) dD_{mis}$$

$$L(\phi|D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \int p(D_{i,obs}|\phi) dD_{mis}$$

How do we do this integral?

$$L(\phi|D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \int p(D_{i,obs}|\phi) dD_{mis}$$

How do we do this integral?

Assume Normality since the marginals of a multivariate Normal are Normal.

$$L(\phi|D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \int p(D_{i,obs}|\phi) dD_{mis}$$

How do we do this integral?

Assume Normality since the marginals of a multivariate Normal are Normal.

$$L(\mu, \Sigma | D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} N(D_{i,obs} | \mu_{obs}, \Sigma_{obs})$$

$$L(\phi|D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \int p(D_{i,obs}|\phi) dD_{mis}$$

How do we do this integral?

Assume Normality since the marginals of a multivariate Normal are Normal.

$$L(\mu, \Sigma | D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} N(D_{i,obs} | \mu_{obs}, \Sigma_{obs})$$

3. Find  $\hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma}$  and its distribution via EM algorithm and bootstrapping.

$$L(\phi|D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \int p(D_{i,obs}|\phi) dD_{mis}$$

How do we do this integral?

Assume Normality since the marginals of a multivariate Normal are Normal.

$$L(\mu, \Sigma | D_{obs}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} N(D_{i,obs} | \mu_{obs}, \Sigma_{obs})$$

- 3. Find  $\hat{\mu}, \hat{\Sigma}$  and its distribution via EM algorithm and bootstrapping.
- 4. Draw  $m \mu, \Sigma$  values, then use them to predict values for  $D_{mis}$ .

What we end up with is m datasets with missing values imputed.

What we end up with is m datasets with missing values imputed.

We then run our regular analyses on the m datasets and combine the results using Rubin's rule.

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

So we can set up the missing data as a "parameter" that we need to find.

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

So we can set up the missing data as a "parameter" that we need to find.

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(M | D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)$$
  
 $p(\gamma) p(\phi)$ 

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

So we can set up the missing data as a "parameter" that we need to find.

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(M | D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)$$
  
 $p(\gamma) p(\phi)$ 

If we assume MAR:

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

So we can set up the missing data as a "parameter" that we need to find.

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(M | D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)$$
  
 $p(\gamma) p(\phi)$ 

If we assume MAR:

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(\phi)$$

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

So we can set up the missing data as a "parameter" that we need to find.

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(M | D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)$$
  
 $p(\gamma) p(\phi)$ 

If we assume MAR:

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(\phi)$$

Use Gibbs Sampling or M-H to sample both  $D_{mis}$  and  $\phi$ .

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

So we can set up the missing data as a "parameter" that we need to find.

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(M | D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)$$
  
 $p(\gamma) p(\phi)$ 

If we assume MAR:

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(\phi)$$

Use Gibbs Sampling or M-H to sample both  $D_{mis}$  and  $\phi$ .

We don't have to assume normality of D to integrate over  $D_{mis}$ .

Bayesian paradigm: Everything unobserved is a random variable.

So we can set up the missing data as a "parameter" that we need to find.

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(M | D_{obs}, D_{mis}, \gamma)$$
  
 $p(\gamma) p(\phi)$ 

If we assume MAR:

$$p(D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(\phi)$$

Use Gibbs Sampling or M-H to sample both  $D_{mis}$  and  $\phi$ .

We don't have to assume normality of D to integrate over  $D_{mis}$ . We can just drop the draws of  $D_{mis}$ .



We can also incorporate both imputation and analyses in the same model.

$$p(\theta, D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(\mathbf{y}_{obs}, \mathbf{y}_{mis} | \theta) p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi)$$

$$p(\phi) p(\theta)$$

We can also incorporate both imputation and analyses in the same model.

$$p(\theta, D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(\mathbf{y}_{obs}, \mathbf{y}_{mis} | \theta) p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(\phi) p(\theta)$$

Again, find the posterior via Gibbs Sampling or M-H.

We can also incorporate both imputation and analyses in the same model.

$$p(\theta, D_{mis}, \phi, \gamma | D_{obs}, M) \propto p(\mathbf{y}_{obs}, \mathbf{y}_{mis} | \theta) p(D_{obs} | D_{mis}, \phi) p(D_{mis} | \phi) p(\phi) p(\theta)$$

Again, find the posterior via Gibbs Sampling or M-H.

Moral: We can easily set up an application specific Bayesian model to incorporate missing data.

Suppose we have data in which we have  $i=1,\ldots,n$  observations that belong to one of  $j=1,\ldots,J$  groups.

Suppose we have data in which we have  $i=1,\ldots,n$  observations that belong to one of  $j=1,\ldots,J$  groups.

Examples:

Suppose we have data in which we have  $i=1,\ldots,n$  observations that belong to one of  $j=1,\ldots,J$  groups.

#### Examples:

students within schools

Suppose we have data in which we have  $i=1,\ldots,n$  observations that belong to one of  $j=1,\ldots,J$  groups.

#### Examples:

- students within schools
- multiple observations per country

## Multilevel Data

Suppose we have data in which we have  $i=1,\ldots,n$  observations that belong to one of  $j=1,\ldots,J$  groups.

### Examples:

- students within schools
- multiple observations per country
- districts within states

### Multilevel Data

Suppose we have data in which we have  $i=1,\ldots,n$  observations that belong to one of  $j=1,\ldots,J$  groups.

### Examples:

- students within schools
- multiple observations per country
- districts within states

We can have covariates on multiple levels.

### Multilevel Data

Suppose we have data in which we have  $i=1,\ldots,n$  observations that belong to one of  $j=1,\ldots,J$  groups.

### Examples:

- students within schools
- multiple observations per country
- districts within states

We can have covariates on multiple levels. How do we deal with this type of data?

We can let the intercept  $\alpha$  vary by group:

We can let the intercept  $\alpha$  vary by group:

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

We can let the intercept  $\alpha$  vary by group:

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

This is known as the **fixed effects** model.

We can let the intercept  $\alpha$  vary by group:

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

This is known as the **fixed effects** model.

This is equivalent to estimating dummy variables for J-1 groups.

We can let the intercept  $\alpha$  vary by group:

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

This is known as the **fixed effects** model.

This is equivalent to estimating dummy variables for J-1 groups.

We can use this model if we think that there is something inherent about the groups that affects our dependent variable.

We can let the intercept  $\alpha$  vary by group:

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

This is known as the **fixed effects** model.

This is equivalent to estimating dummy variables for J-1 groups.

We can use this model if we think that there is something inherent about the groups that affects our dependent variable.

However, the fixed effects model involves estimating many parameters, and also cannot take into account group-level covariates.

A more flexible alternative is to use a **hierarchical model**, also known as a multilevel model, mixed effects model, or random effects model.

A more flexible alternative is to use a **hierarchical model**, also known as a multilevel model, mixed effects model, or random effects model.

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

A more flexible alternative is to use a **hierarchical model**, also known as a multilevel model, mixed effects model, or random effects model.

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  
 $\alpha_j \sim N(\alpha, \sigma_{\alpha}^2)$ 

A more flexible alternative is to use a **hierarchical model**, also known as a multilevel model, mixed effects model, or random effects model.

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  
 $\alpha_j \sim N(\alpha, \sigma_{\alpha}^2)$ 

Instead of assuming a completely different intercept for each group, we can assume that the intercepts are drawn from a common (Normal) distribution.

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  
$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j = \gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1 + \eta_j$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

$$y_{i} = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_{1} + x_{i2}\beta_{2} + \epsilon_{i}$$

$$\alpha_{j} = \gamma_{0} + u_{j1}\gamma_{1} + \eta_{j}$$

$$\eta_{j} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\alpha}^{2})$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  
$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

or equivalently

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j = \gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1 + \eta_j$$
  

$$\eta_j \sim N(0, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

This is a relatively difficult model to estimate using non-Bayesian methods. The lme4() package in R can do it.

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

We can do hierarchical models easily using Bayesian methods.

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

We can do hierarchical models easily using Bayesian methods.

$$p(\alpha, \beta, \gamma | \mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y} | \alpha, \beta, \gamma) p(\alpha | \gamma) p(\gamma) p(\beta)$$

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  

$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

We can do hierarchical models easily using Bayesian methods.

$$p(\alpha, \beta, \gamma | \mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y} | \alpha, \beta, \gamma) p(\alpha | \gamma) p(\gamma) p(\beta)$$

Solve for the joint posterior using Gibbs Sampling or M-H.

$$y_i = \alpha_{j[i]} + x_{i1}\beta_1 + x_{i2}\beta_2 + \epsilon_i$$
  
$$\alpha_j \sim N(\gamma_0 + u_{j1}\gamma_1, \sigma_\alpha^2)$$

We can do hierarchical models easily using Bayesian methods.

$$p(\alpha, \beta, \gamma | \mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y} | \alpha, \beta, \gamma) p(\alpha | \gamma) p(\gamma) p(\beta)$$

Solve for the joint posterior using Gibbs Sampling or M-H.

We incorporate data with more than two levels easily as well.

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

#### Pros:

Incorporate outside/prior knowledge

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models
- CI have more intuitive meaning

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models
- CI have more intuitive meaning
- Helps with unidentified models

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

#### Pros:

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models
- CI have more intuitive meaning
- Helps with unidentified models

#### Cons:

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

#### Pros:

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models
- CI have more intuitive meaning
- Helps with unidentified models

#### Cons:

It's hard(er)

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

#### Pros:

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models
- CI have more intuitive meaning
- Helps with unidentified models

### Cons:

- ► It's hard(er)
- ► Computationally intensive

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

#### Pros:

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models
- CI have more intuitive meaning
- Helps with unidentified models

#### Cons:

- ► It's hard(er)
- Computationally intensive
- ► Need defense of priors

There are pros and cons to using Bayesian statistics.

#### Pros:

- Incorporate outside/prior knowledge
- Estimate much more difficult models
- CI have more intuitive meaning
- Helps with unidentified models

#### Cons:

- It's hard(er)
- Computationally intensive
- ► Need defense of priors
- No guarantee of MCMC convergence

Statistical packages for Bayesian are also less developed (MCMCpack() in R, WinBUGS, JAGS).