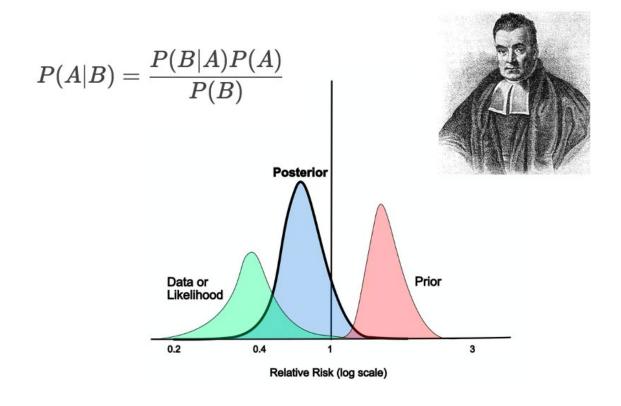
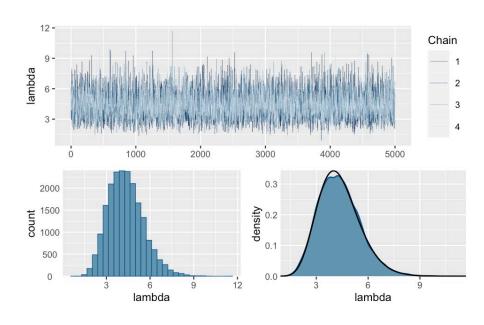
Bayesian Analysis Workshop:

Introduction to Bayesian Framework





Overview

- What's a statistical model?
- Frequentist vs. Bayesian
- Bayes Theorem
- Review of (generalized) linear models
- Side-by-side comparison of frequentist and Bayesian analysis
- Steps of Bayesian data analysis

Acknowledgements

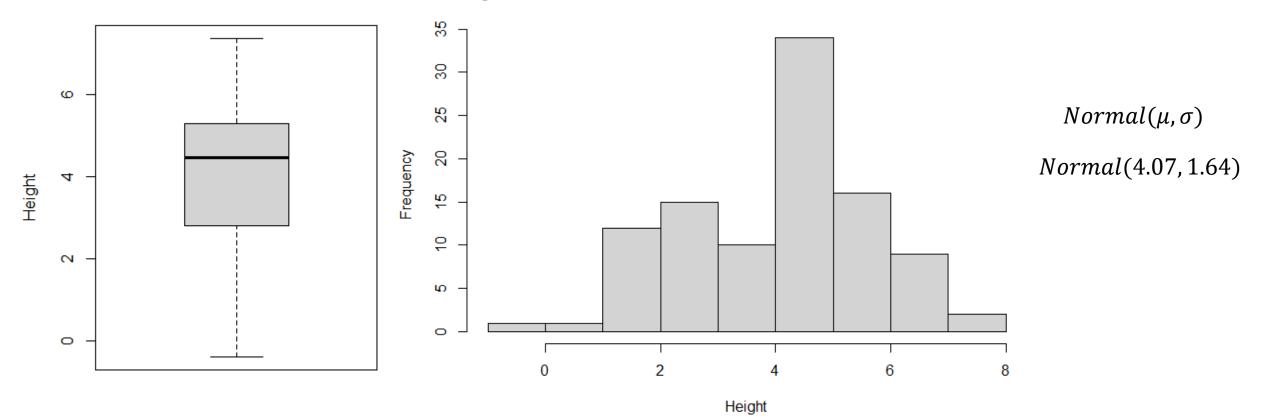
- Ohio Division of Wildlife Sponsor
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- Dennis Hull Support, coordination, logistics
- Trisha Taylor Catering support





Purpose of statistical models

- Help describe how we think a system works
- Can summarize data (e.g., mean, SD)

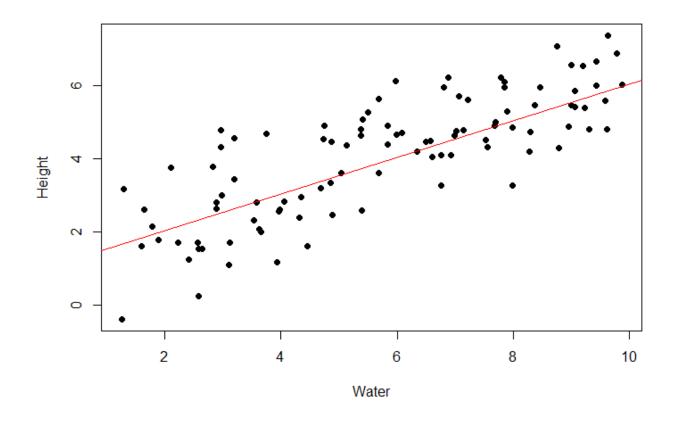


Purpose of statistical models

- Help describe how we think a system works
- Can summarize data (e.g., mean, SD)
- Comparing model predictions with data helps our understanding of the system
- Models allow for predictions, including estimates of uncertainty
 - Help with decision making
- Statistics help us make probabilistic conclusions about parameters, based on a model and observations

What's a statistical model?

- (simplified) mathematical expression of reality
- Data are observations of a system
- Express what we know about a system
 - No model is perfect, but a good model is useful!



Statistical Approaches

* Data = observed realization of stochastic systems containing random processes

* Differ in their definition of probability



Classical (Frequentist)

- Parameters (random processes) are fixed and unknown constants
- Uncertainty evaluated in terms of *frequency* of hypothetical data sets
- Relative frequency of a feature of observed data

Bayesian

- Parameters are viewed as unobserved realizations of random processes
- Uncertainty evaluated using posterior distribution of parameter
- Probability used to express uncertainty of estimated parameters

Bayesian vs. Frequentist

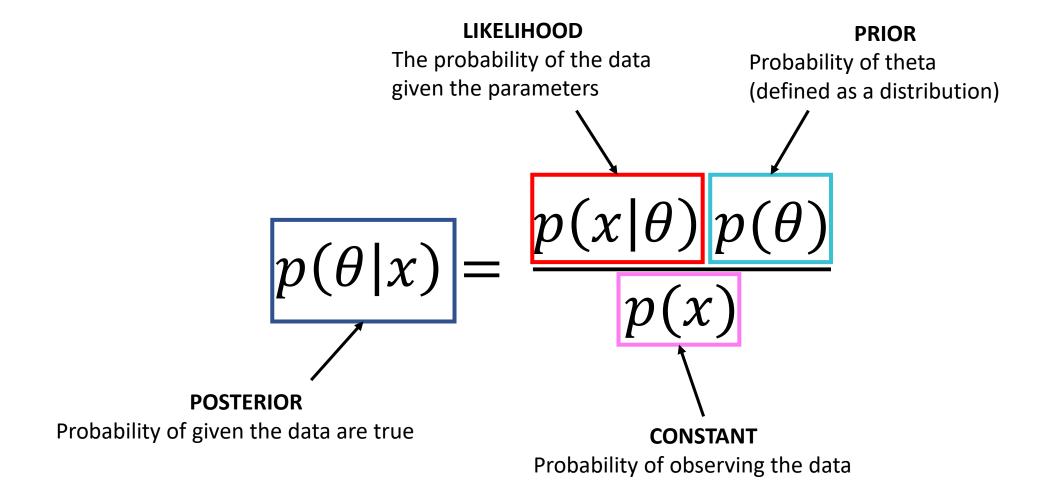
- Both rely on defining a likelihood function
 - $p(x|\theta)$
 - Reads: "Probability of data, given theta"
- Bayesian distinguishes between observable (x) and unobservable (θ)
 - $\theta \rightarrow$ Random quantities that can only be determine probabilistically
 - Statistical parameters, missing data, mismeasured data, future outcomes (predictions)
 - Makes inference about entire distribution of possibilities
- Frequentist approach seeks point estimate (maximum likelihood estimate) of θ , which is an unknown constant

Posterior Distribution

• The conditional probability distribution of all unknown quantities (parameters), given the **data**, the **model**, and what we know about these quantities (**priors**) before conducting the analysis

Bayes' Theorem

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



Posterior distribution ∝ Likelihood × Prior distribution

Struggles with Priors

- Perhaps the most 'contentious' aspect of Bayesian modeling
- Prior represents our understanding and/or assumptions about a parameter before modeling

Posterior distribution ∝ Likelihood × Prior distribution

Benefits of Bayes

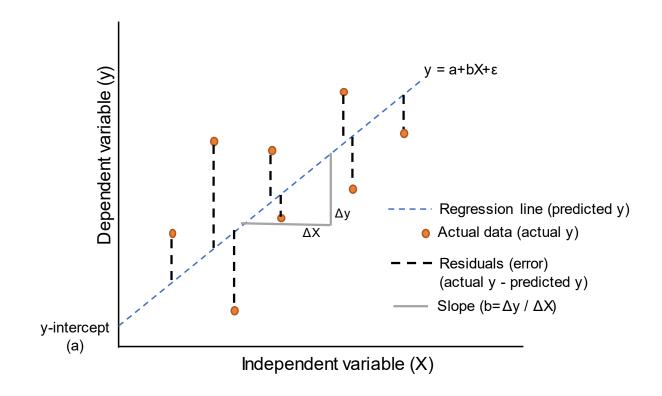
- Valid with small sample size
 - More reliance placed on prior information
- Principled way of combining prior information with data
- Flexible and customizable...virtually anything is possible if you can code it!
- With large sample sizes and/or uninformed priors, Bayesian models give similar point estimates to frequentist MLE models
- Provides interpretable answers
 - Bayes: "The true parameter θ has a 0.95 probability of falling within the estimated 95% credible interval"
 - Frequentist: "Given an infinite number of calculated intervals, the true parameter θ will be within the confidence interval 95% of the time

Worked example

- Overview / Description of Data
 - Data summary, descriptive stats, scatterplot
- Frequentist
 - Linear model estimates
- Bayesian (brms)
 - uninformed priors
 - informed priors

(Generalized) Linear Models – Refresher

- Broadly and generally used
- Two parts
 - Systematic
 - Describes how predictors (x) relate to observations (y)
 - Produces fitted value (i.e. slope and intercept)
 - Stochastic
 - Describes the uncertainty/scatter around our estimates
 - Residuals



Linear Model Assumptions

- The observed y-values are *independent*, conditional on x.
- The y-values are *normally distributed* with *constant variance*
 - $y \sim N(\mu y, \sigma^2)$
- There is a *straight-line relationship* between the mean of y and each x:
 - $\mu y = \beta 0 + xT \beta$
- There is a straight-line relationship between some known function of the mean of y and each \boldsymbol{x}
 - $g(\mu y) = \beta 0 + xT \beta$

Generalized Linear Model Assumptions

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```
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```

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•
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- There is a straight-line relationship between some known function of the mean of y and each \boldsymbol{x}
 - $g(\mu y) = \beta 0 + xT \beta$

$$g(\mu_y) = \beta_0 + X^T \beta$$

- Link function
 - Transforms predicted values into the range of the *linear* predictor ($-\infty$ to $+\infty$)

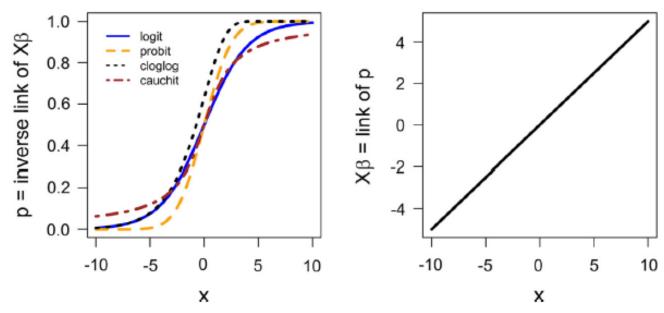


FIGURE 8-3 Left panel: Shape of different link functions commonly used in binomial models. Right panel: The relationship between the predictor X (x-axis) and p on the scale of the link function (y-axis) is assumed to be linear.

Table 10.1: Common choices of distribution and suggested link functions $g(\mu)$ in generalised linear models. Each distribution implies a particular mean–variance assumption $V(\mu)$. The required family argument to use each of these in R is also given

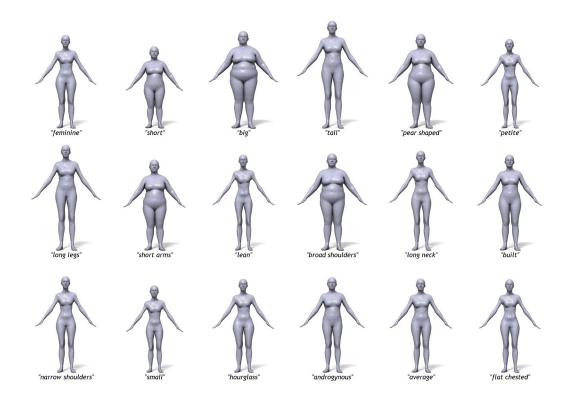
Distribution	$V(\mu)$	Good for	Link, $g(\mu)$	family=
Binomial	$n\mu(1-\mu)$	Binary responses (e.g. presence–absence)	$\log\left(\frac{\mu}{1-\mu}\right)$ Probit $\log\left(-\log(1-\mu)\right)$	<pre>binomial binomial("probit") binomial("cloglog")</pre>
Poisson	μ	Counts ^a	$\log(\mu)$	poisson
Negative bi- nomial	$\mu + \phi \mu^2$	Counts	$\log(\mu)$	"negative.binomial" (in mvabund)
Tweedie	$a\mu^p$	Biomass	$\log(\mu)$	<pre>tweedie(p,link=0) (in statmod)</pre>
Normal	$ \sigma^2 $	Continuous responses	μ	gaussian

^a But does not account for overdispersion (i.e. all individuals being counted need to be independent, no missing predictors in the model.)

Height Weight example

Goal: estimate the relationship between height and weight

- 1. Simulate heights and weights
- 2. Fit three models:
 - 1. Maximum likelihood estimation
 - 2. Bayesian estimation (flat priors)
 - 3. Bayesian estimation (informed priors)
- 3. Compare estimates



Simulated dataset

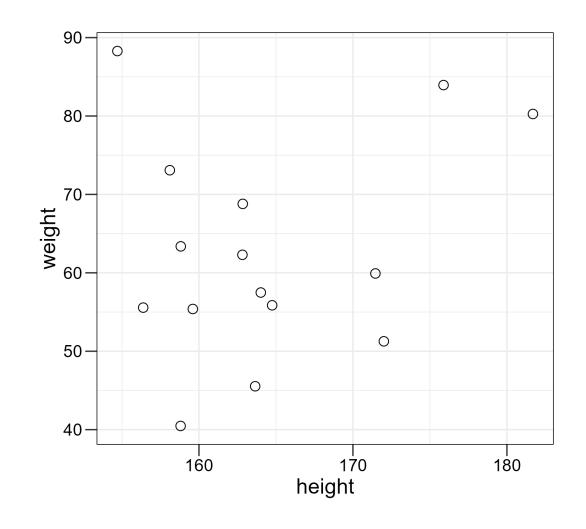
Simulation parameters

$$N = 15$$

$$bH = 0.5$$

$$error = 10$$

$$Y_i = 66 + 0.5 * X_i + error$$



Three models

Maximum likelihood estimator
 Parameters based on theoretical t-distribution

2. Bayesian estimator

brms default: Flat priors for slopes (uniform), t-distribution for intercept

3. Bayesian estimator

brms: informed priors (next slide)

Priors for models 2 & 3

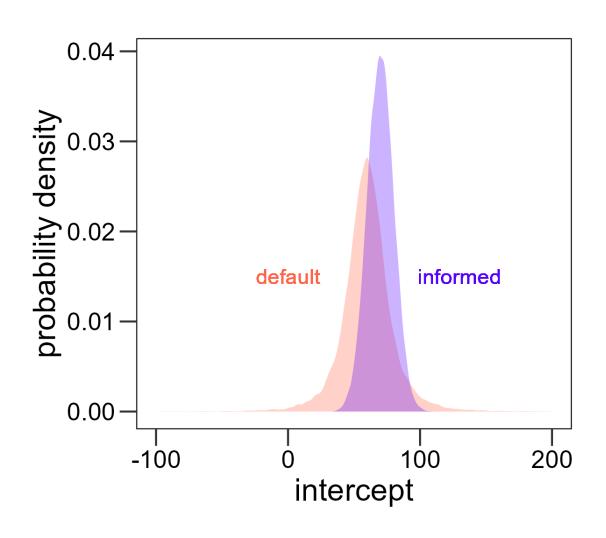
intercept

student-t(3, 0, 12.8) uniform(-Inf, Inf) half-student-t(3, 0, 12.8) normal(70,10) half-normal(70,10) exponential(1) 0.04 -0.4 8.0 probability density probability density informed informed default informed default default 0.00 0.0 0.0-100 200 -10 10 20 10 15 20 -100 -20

slope

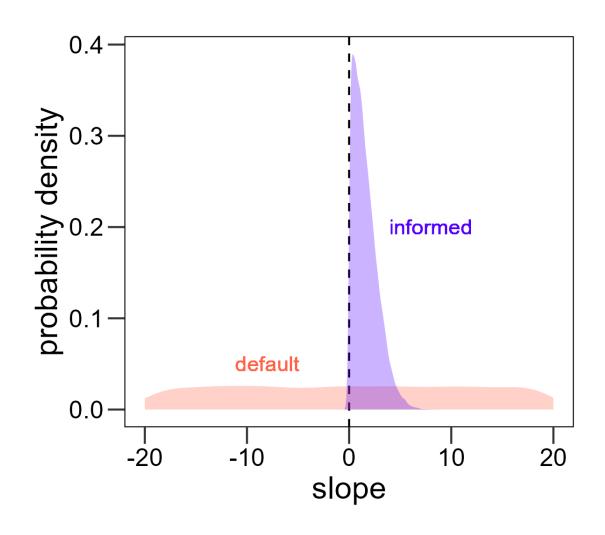
sigma

Intercept priors



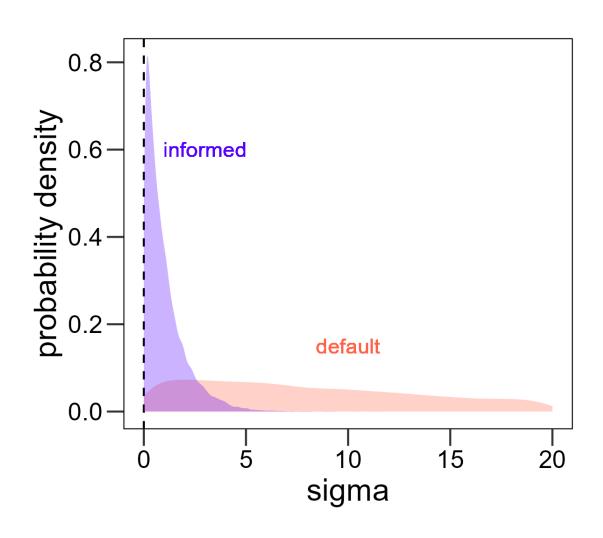
- Default is a student-t with long tails that allows negative weight
- Informed uses a normal with a mean of 70 and SD of 10
- Informed prior encodes our expectation that average weight will be normally distributed and greater than 0.

Slope priors



- Default is a flat uniform; any slope value equally likely
- Informed uses a half-normal with a mean of 0 and SD of 2
- Informed prior encodes our expectation that the relationship between height and weight must be positive

Sigma priors



- Default is a half-student-t, again with a very long tail
- Informed uses an exponential with rate of 1.
- Informed prior is skeptical of extreme levels of error

Results

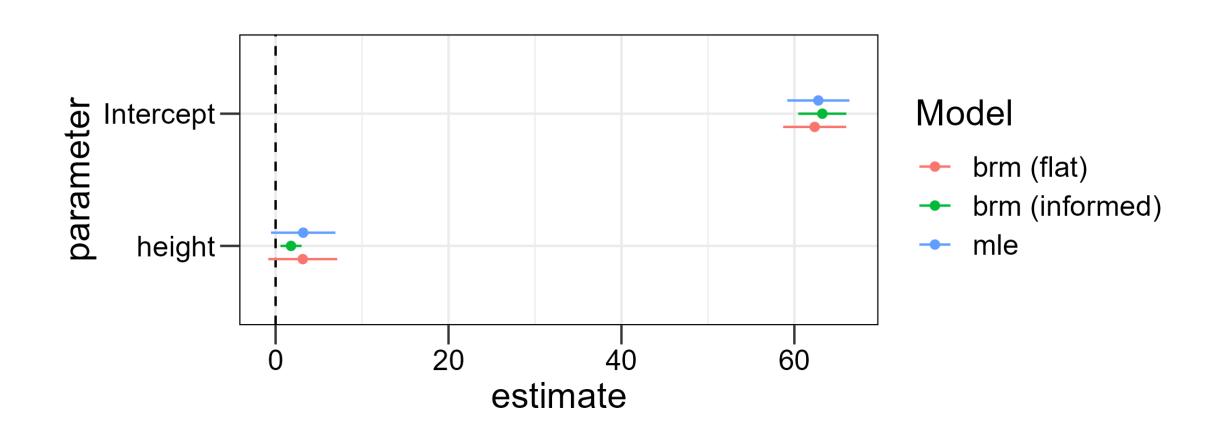
True values

bH = 0.5

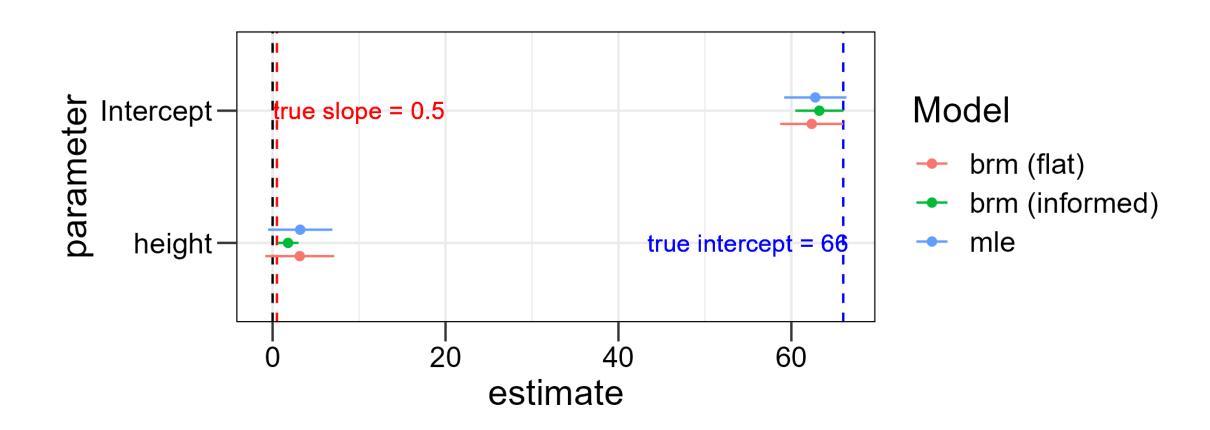
b_intercept = 66

Model	Intercept (SE)	Height (SE)
MLE	62.77 (3.60)	3.19 (3.72)
Bayesian (flat)	62.35 (3.65)	3.14 (3.99)
Bayesian (informed)	63.23 (2.78)	1.78 (1.22)

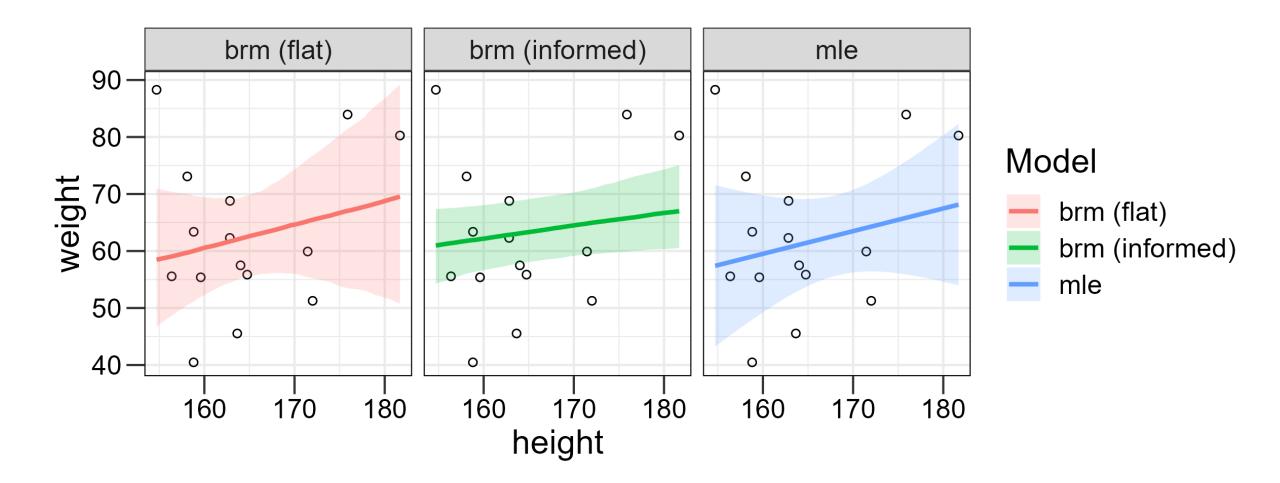
Informed models performs best



Informed models performs best



Predictions



Steps to Bayesian Data Analysis

- Data: Identify variables to be predicted and variables that act as predictors
- Define a descriptive model
- Specify a prior distribution on the parameters
- Use Bayesian inference to re-allocate credibility across parameter values.
- Check that posterior predictions mimic the data with reasonable accuracy (i.e., posterior predictive check)