Bayesian Statistics

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Historical Background

The Reverend Thomas Bayes, began the objective Bayesian theory, by solving a particular problem

- Suppose X is Binomial (n,p); an 'objective' belief would be that each value of X occurs equally often.
- The only prior distribution on p consistent with this is the uniform distribution.
- Along the way, he codified Bayes theorem.
- Alas, he died before the work was finally published in 1763.



REV. T. BAYES

Historical Background

The real inventor of Objective Bayes was Simon Laplace (also a great mathematician, astronomer and civil servant) who wrote *Théorie Analytique des Probabilité* in 1812

- He established the 'central limit theorem' showing that, for large amounts of data, the posterior distribution is asymptotically normal (and the prior does not matter).
- He virtually always utilized a 'constant' prior density (reasons: CLT; parameter choice; robustness).
- He solved very many applications, especially in physical sciences.
- He had numerous methodological developments, e.g., a version of the Fisher exact test.
- Later in his life he invented frequentist statistics.



What's in a name, part I

- It was called *probability theory* until 1838.
- From 1838-1950, it was called *inverse* probability, apparently so named by Augustus de Morgan.
- From 1950 on it was called *Bayesian* analysis (as well as the other names); for why, see Fienberg (2006).



Augustus de Morgan

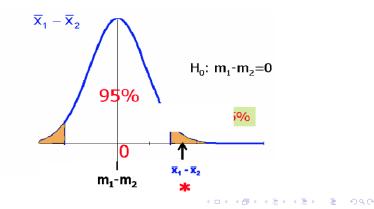
 1955 - : Emergence of Bayesian analysis, and development of Bayesian testing and model selection. ↓
Harold Jeffreys: fixed the logical flaw in inverse probability (objective Bayesian analysis)
↓
Bruno de Finetti and others: developed the logically sound subjective Bayes school.

- Assess whether a selected population for has a higher growth rate than a control population.
- Classical statistics: the hypothesis to be tested is that there is no difference between the two treatments
- Before making the experiment, the error of rejecting this hypothesis when it is actually true is fixed at a level of 5%)
- Data ($\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2$)
- ▶ true value of the difference between selected and control populations $(m_1 m_2)$

Motivation

If our sample lies in the shadow area,

- There is no difference between treatments, our sample is a rare one
- The treatments are different, and repeating an infinite number of times the experiment, $(\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2)$ will not be distributed around zero but around an unknown value different from zero.



- Natural to find the most probable value of a parameter based on our data rather than to find which value of this parameter, if it would be the true value, would produce our data with a highest probability.
- To make probability statements based on our data we need some prior information and it is not clear how to introduce this prior information in our analysis or how to express lack of information using probability statements.

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Apply Bayes Theorem!

► A, B are 2 events

$$P(A \mid B) = rac{P(B \mid A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- Interested in assessing effect of a drug on growth rate of a rabbit population
- Selected group of rabbits and a control group in which growth rate has been measured.
- S : Effect of the drug the selected group, C: Effect of the control group, Interested in assessing (S − C).
- ► Want to find the probabilities of all possible values of (S C) according to the information provided by our data.
- This can be expressed as $P(S C \mid y)$

The posterior distribution

$$P(S-C \mid y) = \frac{P(y \mid S-C)P(S-C)}{P(y)}$$

- ► P(y | S C) : distribution of the data for given value of the unknown, often known or assumed to be known from reasonable hypotheses.
- ► P(S C) : Prior probability of the difference between selected and control group independent of data.

• P(y): the probability of the sample.

- General set up: $y_i \sim f(y \mid \theta), \theta \sim \Pi(\theta)$ &
- Obtain posterior distribution $\Pi(\theta \mid y_1, \dots, y_n)$ as

$$\Pi(\theta \mid y_1, \ldots, y_n) = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i \mid \theta) \Pi(\theta)}{\int_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i \mid \theta) \Pi(\theta)}$$

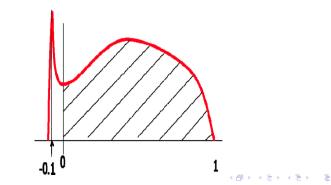
- Measure of Discrepancy $R = E_{\theta, y_1, \dots, y_n} L(\hat{\theta}(y_1, \dots, y_n), \theta)$
 - 1. Posterior mean: minimizes R with squared error L
 - 2. Posterior median: minimizes R with L as absolute deviation

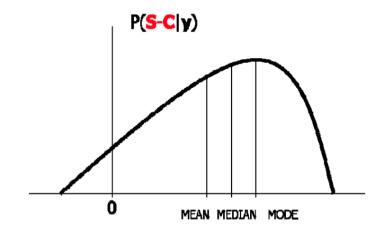
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3. Posterior mode minimizes R with L as the 0-1 loss.

Loss functions

- Mean: 2-fold inconvenience: penalizes high errors, this risk function is not invariant to transformations
- Mode: signifies the most probable value, easier to calculate in the pre-MCMC era - may not be representative
- Median: true value has a 50% of probability of being higher or lower than the median. Attractive loss - invariant to one-to-one transformations

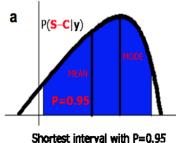


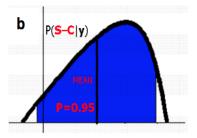


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- Confidence interval: How often the interval contains the parameter if the samples are generated according to the truth
- Bayesian credible intervals: Given the data, want to construct interval that encloses 95% of the posterior probability of the parameter
- $P(\theta \in [L(y), U(y)] \mid y) = 0.95$
- Can find the shortest interval with a 95% credible interval (called the Highest posterior density interval at 95%).

Highest posterior density credible interval





Symmetric interval with P=0.95

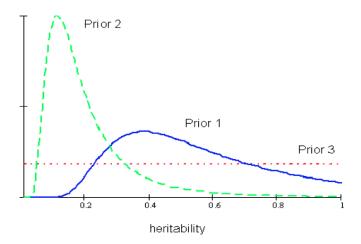
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- $X \sim Bin(n, p), p \sim Beta(a, b)$
- $p \mid X \sim \text{Beta}(a + X, n X + b)$

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How to choose *a* and *b*, Vague / No prior information

- Toss a coin n times want to estimate the probability of head
- Three states of beliefs were tested
- Prior 3 called objective or non-informative by Bayesian statisticians



Posterior mean for the Beta-Binomial problem

Posterior mean:

$$E(p \mid X) = \frac{a + X}{a + b + n}$$
$$= \frac{X}{n} \frac{n}{\alpha + \beta + n} + \frac{a}{a + b} \frac{a + b}{a + b + n}$$

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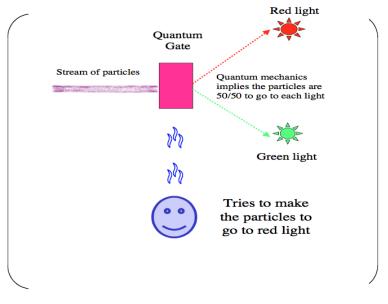
Posterior mean for the Normal-Normal model

- $Y_1,\ldots,Y_n \sim N(\mu,1), \mu \sim N(\mu_0,1)$
- $\blacktriangleright \mu \mid Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \sim N\big(\frac{n\bar{X}+\mu_0}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n+1}\big)$
- Posterior mean for $\mu = \frac{n\bar{X} + \mu_0}{n+1}$.
- Posterior mean = MLE * (precision of MLE) (precision of MLE + prior precision) + prior mean * (prior precision) (precision of MLE + prior precision)
- Conjugate prior: Posterior distribution has the same family as the prior distribution

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- Psychokinesis Example
- Does a subject possess Psychokinesis?
- Schmidt, Jahn and Radin (1987) used electronic and quantum-mechanical random event generators with visual feedback; the subject with alleged psychokinetic ability tries to "influence" the generator.

Some Anomalies: Psychokinesis Example



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Data and model

- Each "particle" is a Bernoulli trial (red = 1, green = 0), θ = probability of "1"
- ▶ *n* = 104, 490, 000 trials
- ► X = # successes
- X ~ Binomial(n, θ), x = 52, 263, 470 is the actual observation.
- To test H₀ : θ = 1/2 (subject has no influence) versus H₁ : θ ≠ 1/2 (subject has influence)
- P-value = $P_{\theta=1/2}(|X n| > |x n|) \approx 0.0003.$
- Is there strong evidence against H₀ (i.e., strong evidence that the subject influences the particles) ?

- Prior distribution for hypothesis: P(H_i) = prior probability that H_i is true, i = 0, 1;
- On $H_1: \theta \neq 1$, let $\pi(\theta)$ be the prior density for θ .
- Subjective Bayes: choose the P(H_i) and π(θ) based on personal beliefs.
- ► Objective (or default) Bayes: choose $P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 0.5$, $\pi(\theta) = 1$ on $0 < \theta < 1$.

Posterior probability of hypotheses:

$$P(H_0 \mid x) = \text{probability that } H_0 \text{ true, given data, } x$$

=
$$\frac{f(x \mid \theta = 1/2)P(H_0)}{f(x \mid \theta = 1/2)P(H_0) + Pr(H_1)\int f(x \mid \theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta}.$$

For the objective prior,

 $P(H_0 \mid x = 52, 263, 470) \approx 0.92$

(recall, p-value \approx .0003) Posterior density on $H_1: \theta \neq 1/2$ is

 $\pi(\theta \mid x, H_1) \propto \pi(\theta) f(x \mid \theta) \propto 1 \times \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n-x},$

which is $Be(\theta \mid 52263470, 52226530)$.

Bayes factor

Bayes Factor: An objective alternative to choosing $P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 1$ is to report the

Bayes factor = $\frac{\text{likelihood of observed data under } H_0}{\text{'average' likelihood of observed data under } H_1}$ $= \frac{f(x \mid \theta = 1/2)}{\int_0^1 f(x \mid \theta) \pi(\theta) d\theta} \approx 12.$ $\frac{P(H_0 \mid x)}{P(H_1 \mid x)} = \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)} \times BF_{01}$ Posterior odds = Prior odds × Bayes factor(BF_{01})

so BF_{01} is often thought of as "the odds of H_0 to H_1 provided by the data".

- In the example, p-value is .0003, but
- The objective posterior probability of the null is 0.92; (Bayes factor gives 12 to 1 odds in favor of the null).
- Was the prior on θ inappropriate? (Few would say it was unfair to give H₀ prior probability of 1/2.)
- But it was a neutral, objective prior.
- Any prior produces Bayes factors orders of magnitude larger than the p-value.

Another Example: A New(?) path for HIV vaccine



By Karen Kaplan and Thomas H. Maugh II

announced the achievement of a idea of a vaccine to prevent infec- reduction in infections was a stamilestone that had eluded them for tion with the human immunodefia quarter of a century, reality began ciency virus, HIV, had long been

tion of vaccines providing modest goal of producing a vaccine that reprotection against infection with liably shields people from HIV. the virus that causes AIDS, un- Some researchers questioned

Hours after HIV researchers leashing excitement worldwide. The whether the apparent 31 percent

See VACCINE, Page 14



two vaccines.

- Alvac had shown no effect, Aidsvax had shown no effect
- Question: Would Alvac as a primer and Aidsvax as a booster work?
- The Study: Conducted in Thailand with 16,395 individuals from the general (not high-risk) population:
 - 71 HIV cases reported in the 8198 individuals receiving placebos
 - 51 HIV cases reported in the 8197 individuals receiving the treatment

The test that was likely performed:

- Let p₁ and p₂ denote the probability of HIV in the placebo and treatment populations, respectively.
- Test H₀: p₁ = p₂ versus H₁: p₁ > p₂ (vaccines were not live, so p₁ < p₂ can probably be ignored)
- Normal approximation okay, so

$$z = \frac{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2}{\sigma_{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2}} = \frac{0.00866 - 0.00622}{0.00134} = 1.82.$$

is approximately $N(\theta, 1)$, where $\theta = (p_1 - p_2)/(0.00134)$.

- We thus test $H_0: \theta = 0$ versus $H_1: \theta > 0$, based on z.
- Observed z = 1.82, so the (one-sided) p-value is 0.034.

- ▶ Prior distribution: $P(H_i)$ = prior probability that H_i is true, i = 0, 1.
- On $H_1: \theta > 0$, let $\pi(\theta)$ be the prior density for θ .
- Objective (or default) Bayes: choose $P(H_0) = P(H_1) = 1/2$
- π(θ) = Uniform(0, 6.46), which arises from assigning: uniform for p₂ on 0 < p₂ < p₁, and plug in for p₁.

For the objective prior, P(H₀ | z = 1.82) ≈ 0.336, whereas one-sided p-value is 0.034.

- Robust Bayesian theory suggests a general and simple way to calibrate p-values. (Sellke, Bayarri and Berger, 2001 Am. Stat.; Sellke (2012)).
- ► Theorem: If $p < e^{-1}$, then $B_{01} \ge -ep \log p$ (or $B_{10} \le 1/\{-ep \log(p)\}$.

p	.2	.1	.05	.01	.005	.001	.0001	.00001
$-ep\log(p)$.879	.629	.409	.123	.072	.0189	.0025	.00031

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