

# Bayesian Estimation using MCMC

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Presentation to GradQuant

October 29, 2015

# What is Bayesian inference? And why is it useful?

You are probably already familiar with frequentist inference . . .

## Philosophy of Frequentist Inference

Probability is a property of the external/natural world

- Probability is an inherent property of a coin or dice or population, etc. but cannot ever be observed
- Inferring this property requires repeated observation; e.g., 1,000 coin flips
- Reporting results is awkward; can't report probability of a heads but instead the probability that an interval will cover this property

# What is Bayesian inference? And why is it useful? (cont.)

## Philosophy of Bayesian Inference

Bayesian inference posits that probability is best conceived of as a *subjective belief*

- The goal of research is to change **beliefs** about properties of the world; Bayesian analysis is a way to inform your audience how they rationally should change their beliefs after observing data
- If you agree with the subjective view, cool things happen:
  - A single observation can be quite meaningful
  - Reporting results is intuitive; e.g., probability of a heads
  - Optional: we hold subjective beliefs about probabilities/distributions before we observe data, so that information should not be discarded

# What is Bayesian inference? And why is it useful? (still cont.)

Practical reasons to be Bayesian, given computational methods:

- Can approximate frequentist results
- But Bayesian methods are much more flexible and/or computationally faster
- Easier to state uncertainty about arbitrary functions of parameters
- Natural way to multiply impute missing data (additional parameters to estimate)

# Bayes rule illustration: testing for a disease

You run a test on a patient and you get an ALERT! Here is what we know about the test procedure.

- Incidence of the disease in a population,  $p(D) = 0.02$   
(**“Prior”**)
- Probability of the test giving an alert given the presence of the disease,  $p(A|D) = 0.95$  (**“Likelihood”**)
- Probability of the test giving an alert in the absence of the disease (false positive),  $p(A|D^c) = 0.03$ 
  - $D$  = “The patient has the disease”
  - $A$  = “The test gave an alert”

# Bayes rule: testing for a disease (cont.)

If test is positive (Alert occurs) use Bayes' Rule:

$$\begin{aligned} p(D|A) &= \frac{\text{prior} \times \text{likelihood}}{\text{constant}} \\ &= \frac{p(D)p(A|D)}{p(D)p(A|D) + p(D^c)p(A|D^c)} \\ &= \frac{0.02 \times 0.95}{0.02 \times 0.95 + 0.98 \times 0.03} = 0.38 \end{aligned}$$

⇒ subjective probability that patient has the disease, given only one observation (!)

- Patient went from subjective probability of 0.02 to 0.38 of having the disease
- But, just because test is positive does not mean the patient certainly has the disease

# Doing Bayesian statistical analysis

- General form of Bayes rule for statistical modeling:  
 $p(\theta|y) \propto p(\theta)p(y|\theta)$ 
  - In words, the posterior density (belief after seeing the data) is proportional to the prior density (belief before seeing the data) times the likelihood of observing the data given those prior beliefs
  - We can drop the normalizing constant that makes the posterior a true probability density
- The old fashioned way was to derive the posterior *analytically*, often using “conjugate” priors
  - A conjugate prior for a likelihood yields a posterior in the same form as the prior
  - Example, conjugate prior for a binomial distribution is the beta distribution; or normal-normal ...

# Old fashioned Bayesian statistics

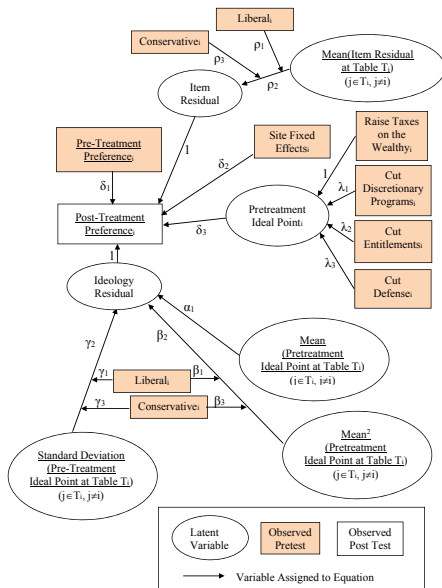
## Analytical solution for conjugate normal prior

Let  $y_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , with  $\sigma^2$  known, and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)'$ . If  $\mu \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$  is the prior density for  $\mu$ , the  $\mu$  has posterior density,

$$\mu|\mathbf{y} \sim N\left(\frac{\mu_0\sigma_0^{-2} + \bar{y}\frac{n}{\sigma^2}}{\sigma_0^{-2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}}, (\sigma_0^{-2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2})^{-1}\right)$$

- Define “Precision” as  $\frac{1}{\text{variance}} = \tau$
- Results:
  - *Posterior mean* is a precision-weighted average of the prior and data
  - *Posterior precision* is the sum of the prior precision and the data precision
  - Note: Bayesian and MLE converge with diffuse priors and/or lots of data





# Bayesian computational methods allow you to solve complex models

Recapping from earlier:

- Bayesian methods are much more flexible and/or computationally faster
- Easier to state uncertainty about arbitrary functions of parameters
- Natural way to multiply impute missing data (additional parameters to estimate)

and remember, with diffuse priors and/or large datasets Bayesian methods give similar results as MLE

# New-fangled Bayesian statistics: MCMC

“Bayesian estimation using Gibbs sampling” (WinBUGS, OpenBUGS, JAGS, Stan, etc.)

- Gibbs sampling: sample an estimate from a candidate posterior distribution for each parameter, conditional on the current estimate of all other parameters
- MCMC = “Markov Chain Monte Carlo” = run the Gibbs sampler repeatedly until the parameters estimates converge to the posterior distribution (proof: stochastic process must converge under minimal conditions if the model is identified, so can start process from an arbitrary point in the posterior space)

# New-fangled Bayesian statistics: MCMC (cont.)

Result is a simulated posterior distribution: computational approximation of the posterior

- The vector of draws post-convergence for each parameter is the marginal posterior distribution
- Use tools to assess convergence and conduct analysis/graphing
- For example, trivial to create sampling distributions of functions of parameters

# New-fangled Bayesian statistics: MCMC (still cont.)

## MCMC procedure

- 1 Specify model (likelihood and priors) with WinBUGS code
- 2 Load data and compile model
- 3 Provide initial values for parameters, latent variables, missing data
- 4 Run model for an initial “burn-in” period until MCMC converges on the posterior distribution
- 5 Save a sample of draws for parameters of interest
- 6 Summarize marginal distributions, plots, statistical tests

# Model of the mean

## Likelihood:

$\text{mass}_i \sim \phi(\mu, \tau) \quad \} 1 \leq i \leq \text{n.obs} \quad \text{IID assumption}$

## Priors:

$\mu \sim \text{dunif}(0, 5000)$  Flat positive prior ("informative" prior!)

$\tau = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$  Precision is inverse of variance

$\sigma^2 = \sigma \times \sigma$  Define variance in model

$\sigma \sim \text{dunif}(0, 100)$  Flat positive prior

Let's run this model in OpenBUGS ...

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# Common problems and some advice

- Always run multiple chains (usually three) in order to test convergence using BGR diagnostic
  - BGR diagnostic assesses within-to-between chain variance (assumes overdispersed/random initial values)
  - Consider both mathematical and empirical identification (just because you can write it down does not mean you should estimate it)
  - Best to start with simple model and build up complexity
- Assess burnin period, mixing carefully
- Be sure there are no missing data on RHS
- Read the manual; and Gelman and Hill (2006) is a great resource for multilevel modeling
- Learn scripting language

# Using OpenBUGS with R

In practice, you want to store your data and analyze/graph results within R (or Stata or SAS etc.)

- Once you know how to use OpenBUGS you can read documentation to these R packages:
  - R2OpenBUGS, BRugs = Interact with OpenBUGS within R
  - CODA = Suite of tools to assess convergence and describe results
  - BRugs installs/loads all three
- Prepare data and inits text files to read directly into OpenBUGS
- Read OpenBUGS output as MCMC object for use in CODA and presenting results
- Call OpenBUGS from R for automating Bayesian analysis