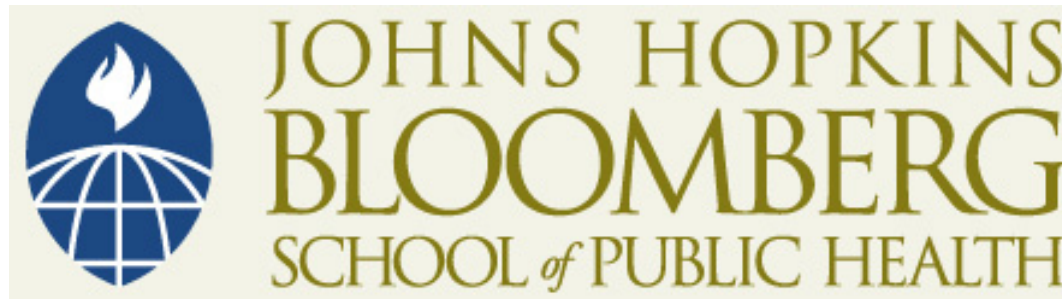


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# Outline

1. Confidence intervals for binomial proportions
2. Discuss problems with the Wald interval
3. Introduce Bayesian analysis
4. HPD intervals
5. Confidence interval interpretation

# Intervals for binomial parameters

- When  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$  we know that
  - a.  $\hat{p} = X/n$  is the MLE for  $p$
  - b.  $E[\hat{p}] = p$
  - c.  $\text{Var}(\hat{p}) = p(1 - p)/n$
  - d.  $\frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})/n}}$  follows a normal distribution for large  $n$
- The latter fact leads to the Wald interval for  $p$

$$\hat{p} \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})/n}$$

## Some discussion

- The Wald interval performs terribly
- Coverage probability varies wildly, sometimes being quite low for certain values of  $n$  even when  $p$  is not near the boundaries

Example, when  $p = .5$  and  $n = 40$  the actual coverage of a 95% interval is only 92%

- When  $p$  is small or large, coverage can be quite poor even for extremely large values of  $n$

Example, when  $p = .005$  and  $n = 1,876$  the actual coverage rate of a 95% interval is only 90%

## Simple fix

- A simple fix for the problem is to add two successes and two failures
- That is let  $\tilde{p} = (X + 2)/(n + 4)$
- The (Agresti-Coull) interval is

$$\tilde{p} \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\tilde{p}(1 - \tilde{p})/\tilde{n}}$$

- Motivation: when  $p$  is large or small, the distribution of  $\hat{p}$  is skewed and it does not make sense to center the interval at the MLE; adding the psuedo observations pulls the center of the interval towards .5
- Later we will show that this interval is the inversion of a hypothesis testing technique

# Discussion

- After discussing hypothesis testing, we'll talk about other intervals for binomial proportions
- In particular, we will talk about so called exact intervals that guarantee coverage larger than the desired (nominal) value

## Example

Suppose that in a random sample of an at-risk population 13 of 20 subjects had hypertension. Estimate the prevalence of hypertension in this population.

$$\hat{p} = .65, n = 20$$

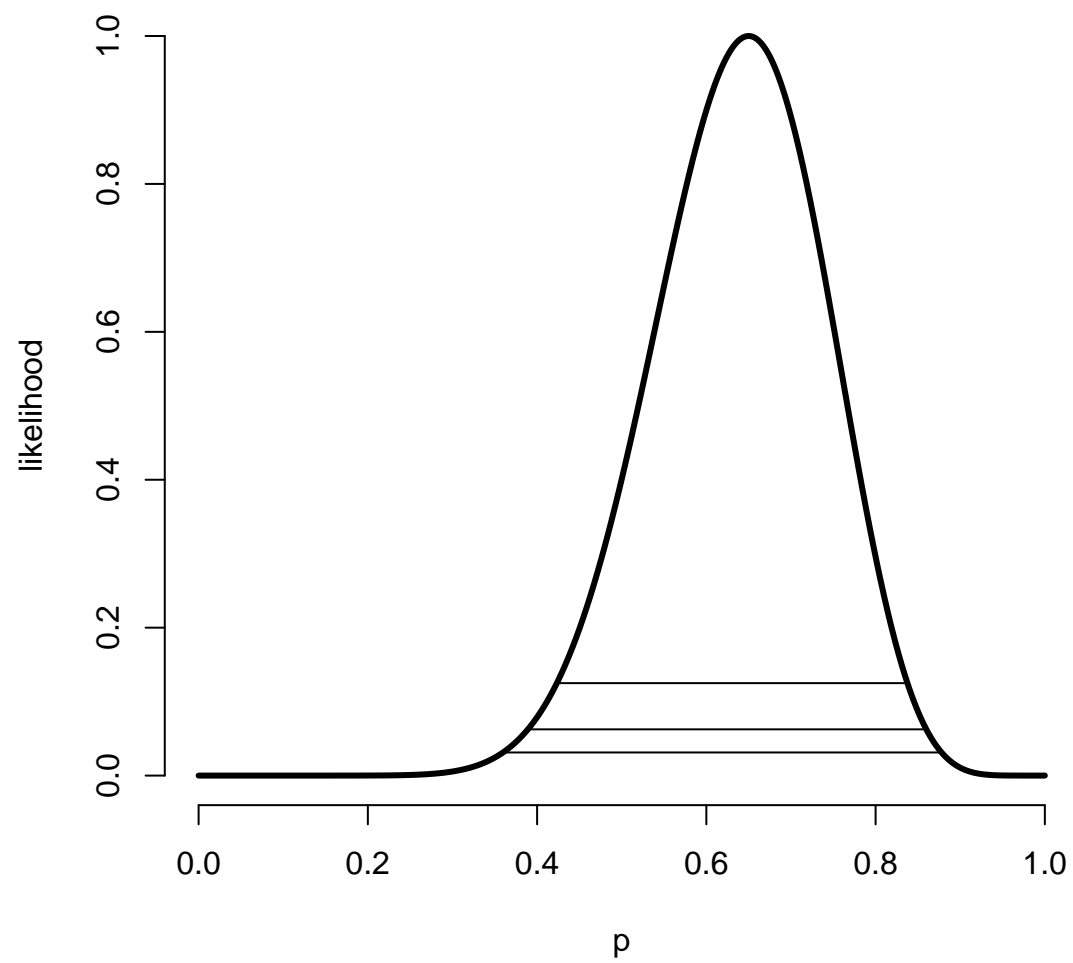
$$\tilde{p} = .63, \tilde{n} = 24$$

$$Z_{.975} = 1.96$$

Wald interval [.44, .86]

Agresti-Coull interval [.44, .82]

1/8 likelihood interval [.42, .84]



# Bayesian analysis

- Bayesian statistics posits a **prior** on the parameter of interest
- All inferences are then performed on the distribution of the parameter given the data, called the **posterior**
- In general,

$$\text{Posterior} \propto \text{Likelihood} \times \text{Prior}$$

- Therefore (as we saw in diagnostic testing) the likelihood is the factor by which our prior beliefs are updated to produce conclusions in the light of the data

## Beta priors

- The beta distribution is the default prior for parameters between 0 and 1.
- The beta density depends on two parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$

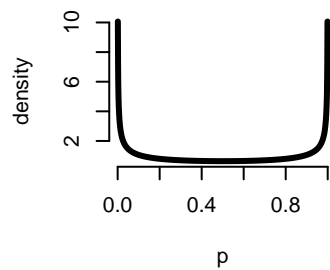
$$\frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} p^{\alpha-1} (1 - p)^{\beta-1} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq p \leq 1$$

- The mean of the beta density is  $\alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$
- The variance of the beta density is

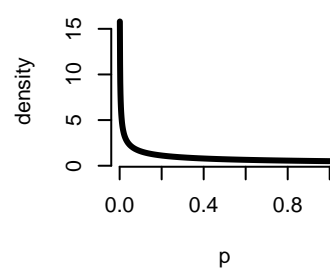
$$\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$$

- The uniform density is the special case where  $\alpha = \beta = 1$

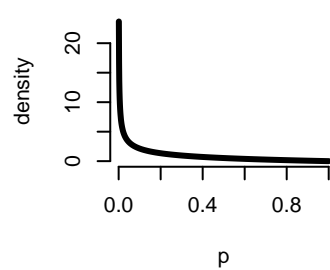
**alpha = 0.5 beta = 0.5**



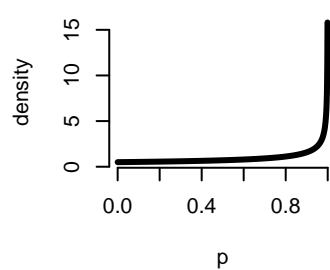
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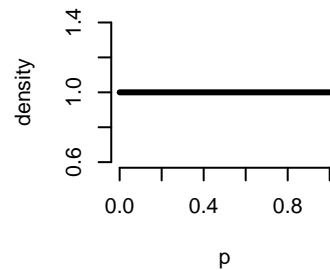
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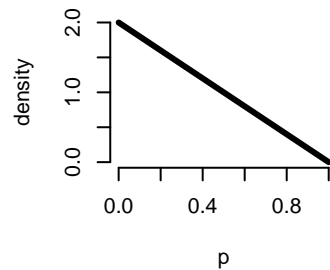
**alpha = 1 beta = 0.5**



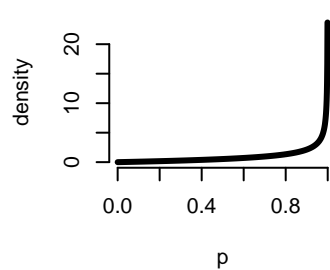
**alpha = 1 beta = 1**



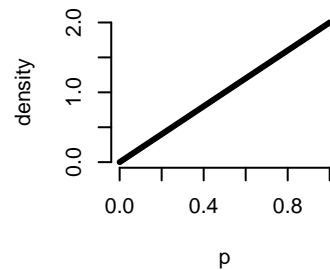
**alpha = 1 beta = 2**



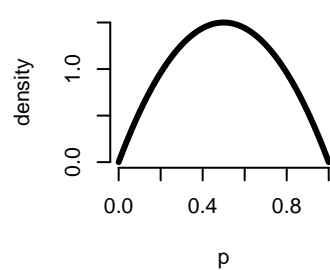
**alpha = 2 beta = 0.5**



**alpha = 2 beta = 1**



**alpha = 2 beta = 2**



# Posterior

- Suppose that we chose values of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  so that the beta prior is indicative of our degree of belief regarding  $p$  in the absence of data
- Then using the rule that

$$\text{Posterior} \propto \text{Likelihood} \times \text{Prior}$$

and throwing out anything that doesn't depend on  $p$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Posterior} &\propto p^x(1-p)^{n-x} \times p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1} \\ &= p^{x+\alpha-1}(1-p)^{n-x+\beta-1}\end{aligned}$$

- This density is just another beta density with parameters  $\tilde{\alpha} = x + \alpha$  and  $\tilde{\beta} = n - x + \beta$

# Posterior mean

- Posterior mean

$$E[p \mid X] = \frac{\tilde{\alpha}}{\tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\beta}}$$

$$= \frac{x + \alpha}{x + \alpha + n - x + \beta}$$

$$= \frac{x + \alpha}{n + \alpha + \beta}$$

$$= \frac{x}{n} \times \frac{n}{n + \alpha + \beta} + \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} \times \frac{\alpha + \beta}{n + \alpha + \beta}$$

$$= \text{MLE} \times \pi + \text{Prior Mean} \times (1 - \pi)$$

- The posterior mean is a mixture of the MLE ( $\hat{p}$ ) and the prior mean
- $\pi$  goes to 1 as  $n$  gets large; for large  $n$  the data swamps the prior
- For small  $n$ , the prior mean dominates
- Generalizes how science should ideally work; as data becomes increasingly available, prior beliefs should matter less and less
- With a prior that is degenerate at a value, no amount of data can overcome the prior

# Posterior variance

- The posterior variance is

$$\text{Var}(p \mid x) = \frac{\tilde{\alpha}\tilde{\beta}}{(\tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\beta})^2(\tilde{\alpha} + \tilde{\beta} + 1)} = \frac{(x + \alpha)(n - x + \beta)}{(n + \alpha + \beta)^2(n + \alpha + \beta + 1)}$$

- Let  $\tilde{p} = (x + \alpha)/(n + \alpha + \beta)$  and  $\tilde{n} = n + \alpha + \beta$  then we have

$$\text{Var}(p \mid x) = \frac{\tilde{p}(1 - \tilde{p})}{\tilde{n} + 1}$$

## Discussion

- If  $\alpha = \beta = 2$  then the posterior mean is

$$\tilde{p} = (x + 2)/(n + 4)$$

and the posterior variance is

$$\tilde{p}(1 - \tilde{p})/(\tilde{n} + 1)$$

- This is almost exactly the mean and variance we used for the Agresti-Coull interval

## Example

- Consider the previous example where  $x = 13$  and  $n = 20$
- Consider a uniform prior,  $\alpha = \beta = 1$
- The posterior is proportional to (see formula above)

$$p^{x+\alpha-1}(1-p)^{n-x+\beta-1} = p^x(1-p)^{n-x}$$

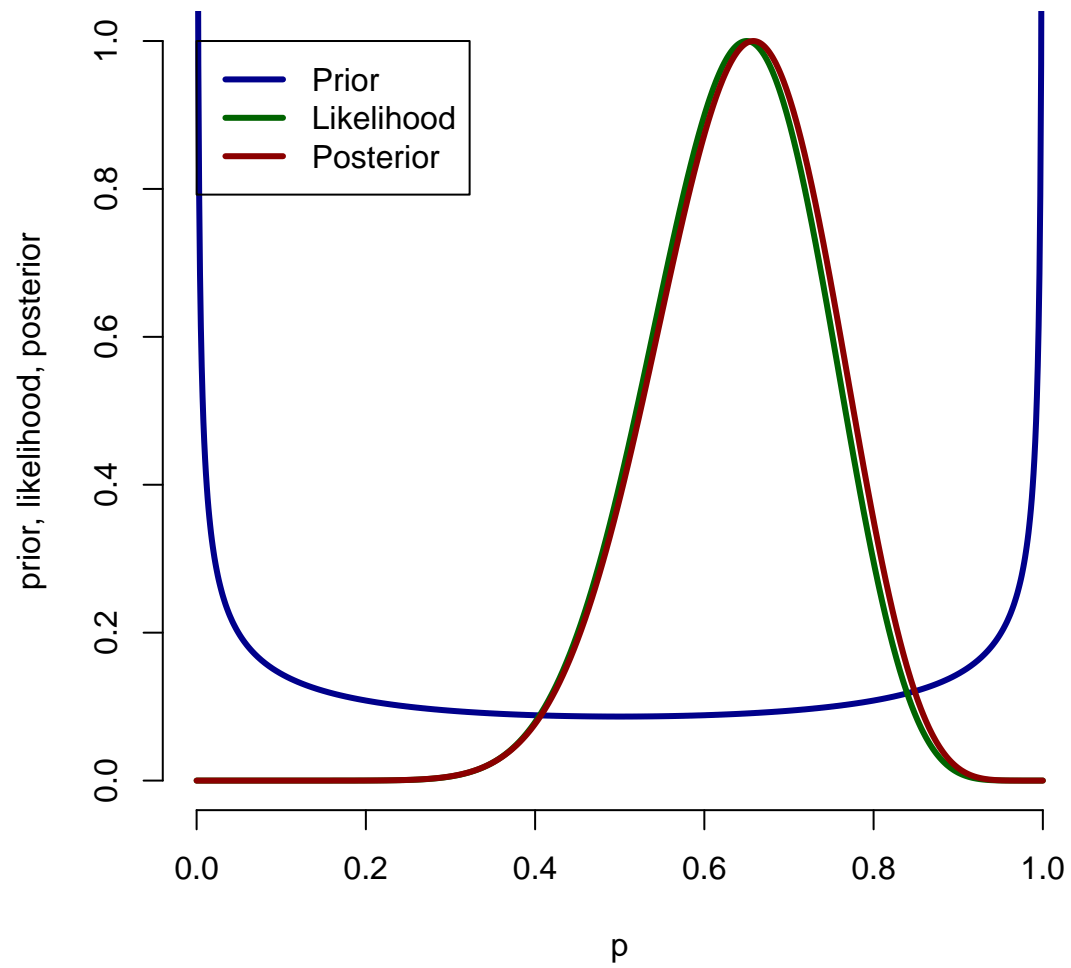
that is, for the uniform prior, the posterior is the likelihood

- Consider the instance where  $\alpha = \beta = 2$  (recall this prior is humped around the point .5) the posterior is

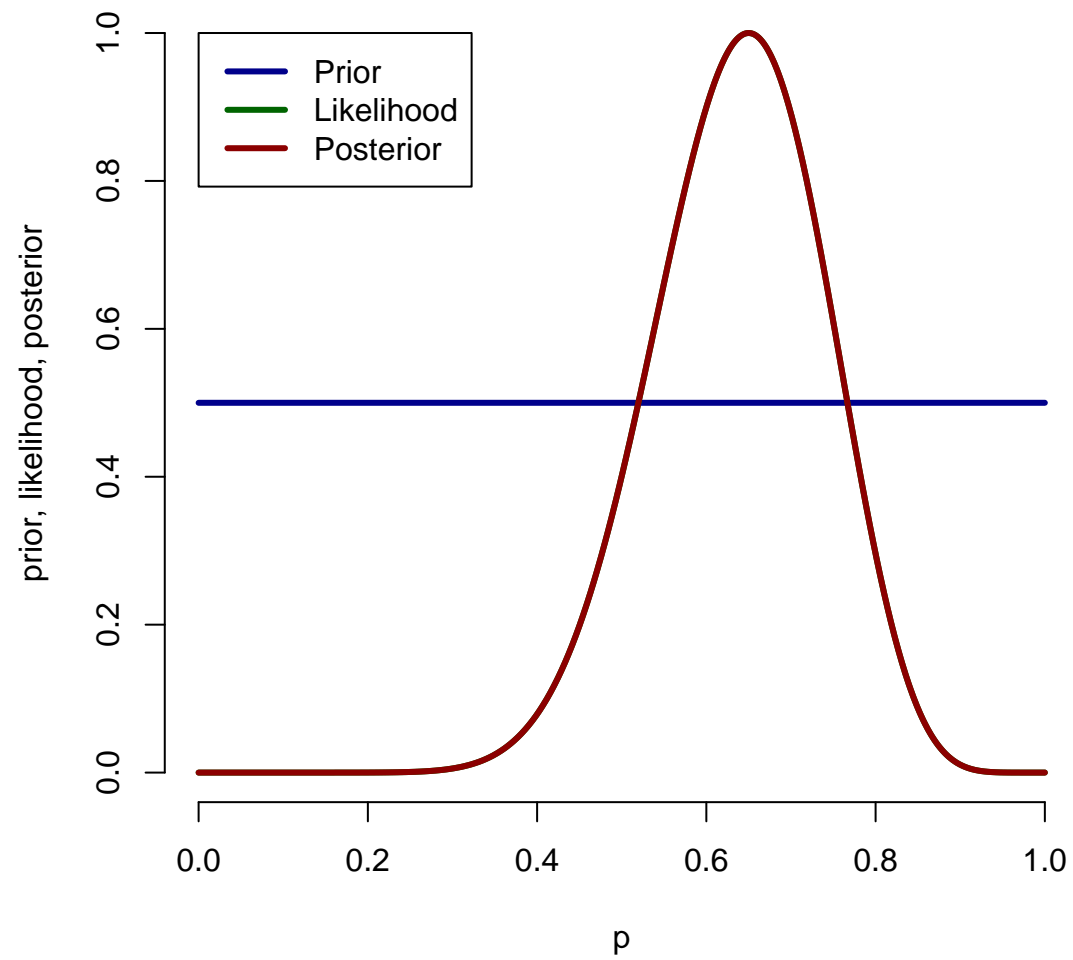
$$p^{x+\alpha-1}(1-p)^{n-x+\beta-1} = p^{x+1}(1-p)^{n-x+1}$$

- The “Jeffrey’s prior” which has some theoretical benefits puts  $\alpha = \beta = .5$

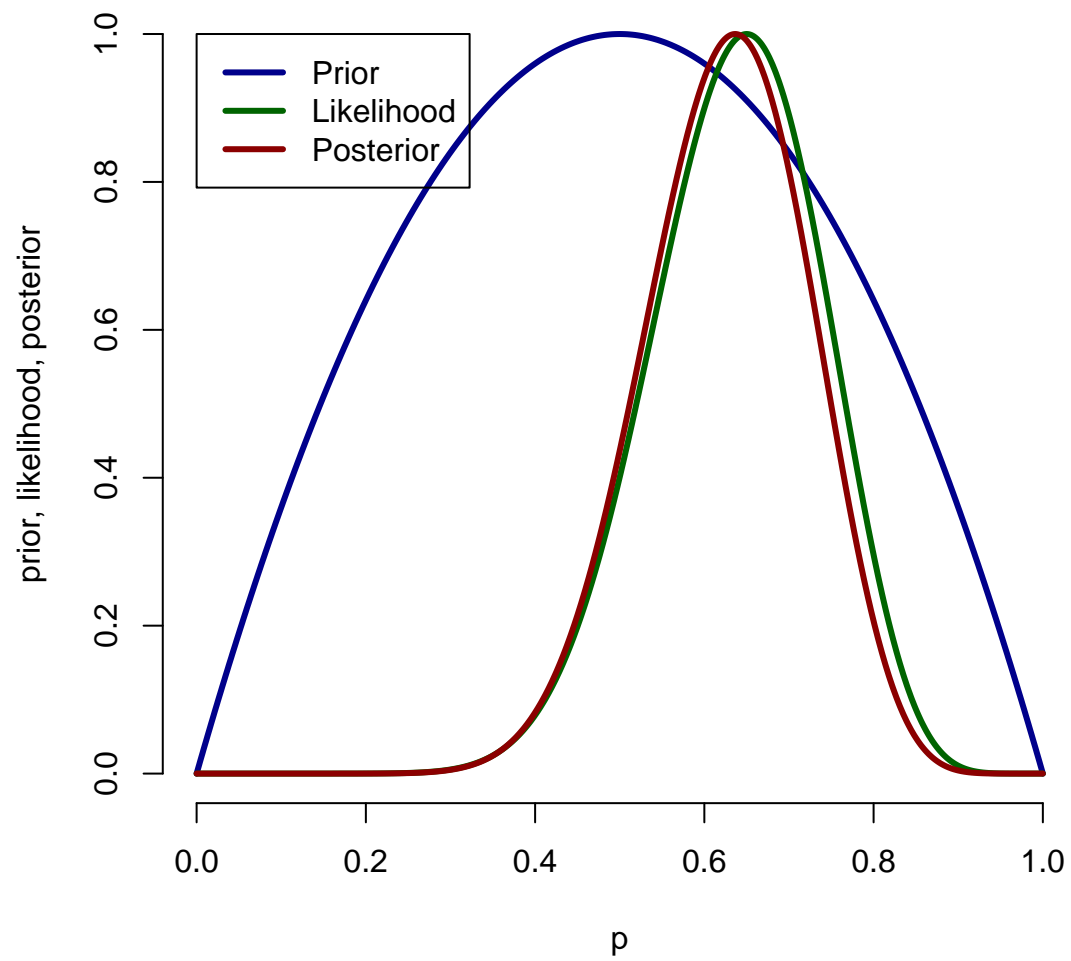
**alpha = 0.5 beta = 0.5**



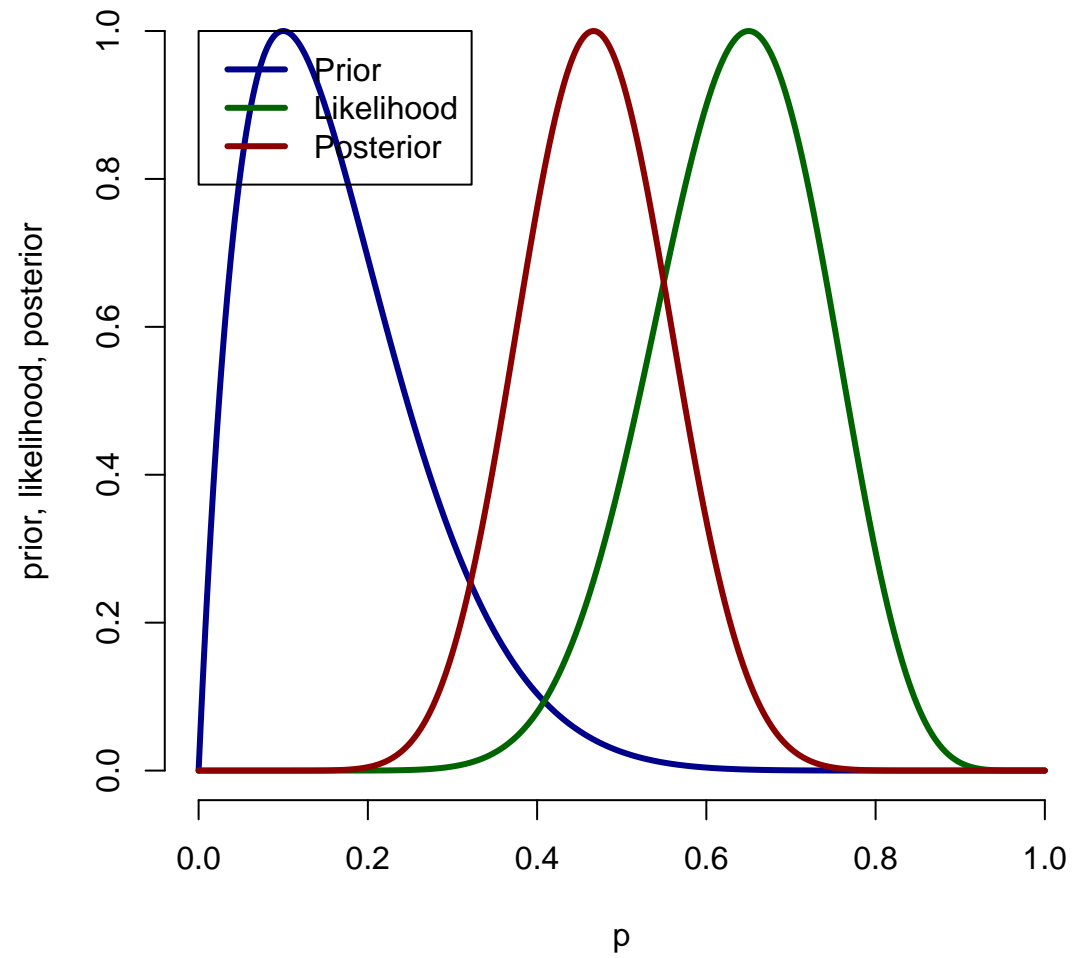
**alpha = 1 beta = 1**



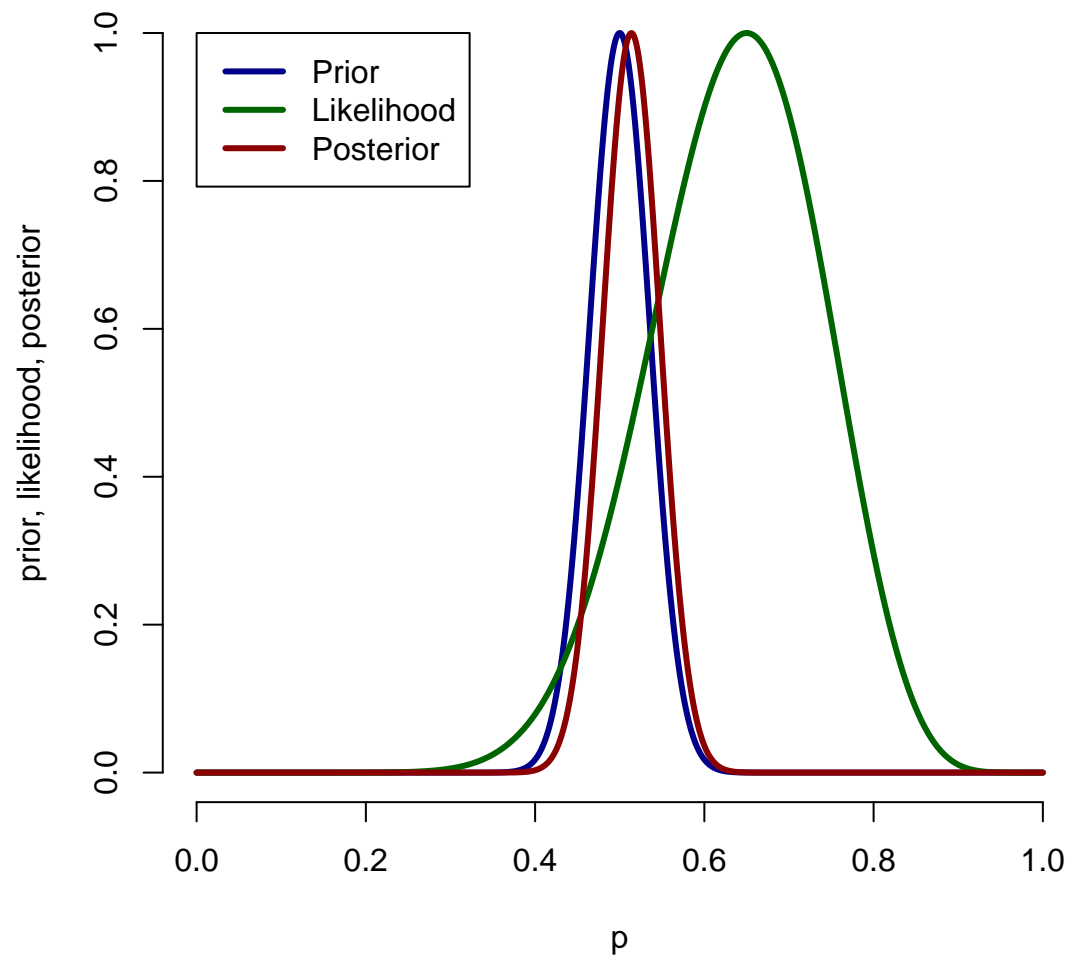
**alpha = 2 beta = 2**



**alpha = 2 beta = 10**



**alpha = 100 beta = 100**

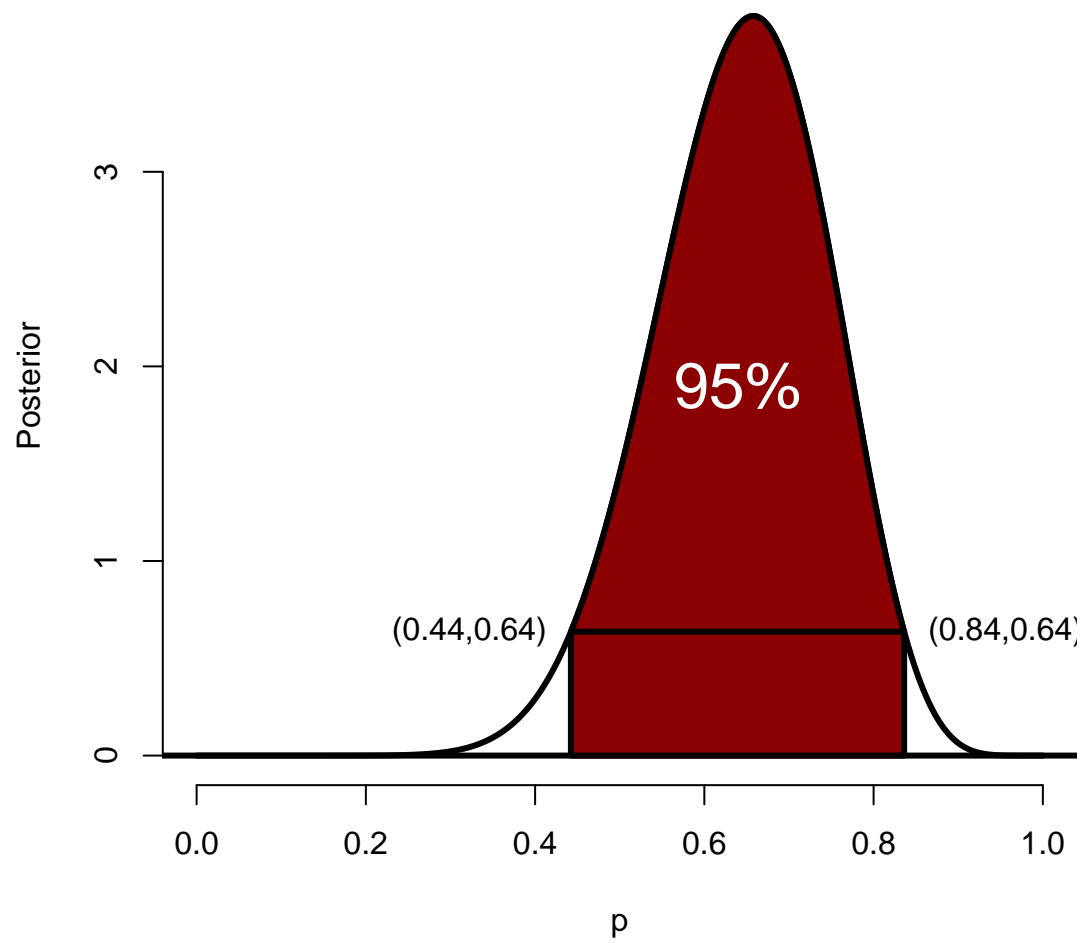


# Bayesian credible intervals

- A *Bayesian credible interval* is the Bayesian analog of a confidence interval
- A 95% credible interval,  $[a, b]$  would satisfy

$$P(p \in [a, b] \mid x) = .95$$

- The best credible intervals chop off the posterior with a horizontal line in the same way we did for likelihoods
- These are called highest posterior density (HPD) intervals



## R code

Install the `binom` package, then the command

```
library(binom)
```

```
binom.bayes(13, 20, type = "highest")
```

gives the HPD interval. The default credible level is 95% and the default prior is the Jeffrey's prior.

# Interpretation of confidence intervals

- Confidence interval: (Wald)  $[.44, .86]$

- Fuzzy interpretation:

We are 95% confident that  $p$  lies between .44 to .86

- Actual interpretation:

The interval .44 to .86 was constructed such that in repeated independent experiments, 95% of the intervals obtained would contain  $p$ .

- Yikes!

# Likelihood intervals

- Recall the  $1/8$  likelihood interval was  $[.42, .84]$

- Fuzzy interpretation:

The interval  $[.42, .84]$  represents plausible values for  $p$ .

- Actual interpretation

The interval  $[.42, .84]$  represents plausible values for  $p$  in the sense that for each point in this interval, there is no other point that is more than 8 times better supported given the data.

- Yikes!

## Credible intervals

- Recall the Jeffrey's prior 95% credible interval was  $[\cdot44, \cdot84]$
- Actual interpretation

The probability that  $p$  is between  $\cdot44$  and  $\cdot84$  is 95%.