Likelihood, Prior to Posterior probability, Posterior Distributions

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What will be discussed...

• Bayesian inference :

How does the Bayesian theorem work to obtain posterior information about unknown parameters?

- Example for discrete parameters
- Beta-Binomial Bayesian model

- Likelihood function: how do we form a likelihood given observed data?
 - kernel and normalizing constant
- In Bayesian statistics spotting kernels of distributions can be very useful in deriving posterior distributions.

Statistics Using Bayes' Theorem

- We now consider inference about parameters, based on data.
- Generically denote an unknown parameter of interest as θ and data as D.
- Our probability model for the data, given a value of θ , is denoted $P(D|\theta)$.
- Our model for our prior knowledge about θ is denoted $P(\theta)$.
- We seek to make formal probability statements about θ given some observed data : $P(\theta \mid D)$, posterior probability

$$P(\theta \mid D) = \frac{P(D \mid \theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

Bayes' Theorem in Parametric Distributions

• For (continous) random variables *X* and *Y*,

$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x,y)}{f(x)} = \frac{f(x|y)f(y)}{f(x)}$$
$$= \frac{f(x|y)f(y)}{\int f(x,y)dy} = \frac{f(x|y)f(y)}{\int f(x|y)f(y)dy}$$

 Bayesian inference specifies a probability distribution for the unknown parameter

$$f(\theta | x) = \frac{\overbrace{f(x|\theta)} \overbrace{f(\theta)}}{f(x)} \propto f(x|\theta)f(\theta)$$

posterior of θ marginal density (normalizing constant)

Review: joint, marginal, conditional density (Aside)

Let X and Y be random variables with the joint density $f_{XY}(x,y)$.

- The marginal density of X is $f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y) dy$
- The conditional density of Y given X=x: $f(y|x) = f_{XY}(x,y)/f_X(x)$
- When X and Y are independent,

$$- f_{XY}(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y)$$

$$- f(y|x) = f_Y(y)$$
 $- f(x|y) = f_X(x)$

• When X and Y are (conditionally) independent given Z, f(x,y|z) = f(x|z) f(y|z)

Bayesian Method for Inference

1. Prior

Specify the prior distribution: $[\theta]$, $f(\theta)$ which expresses our knowledge about θ prior to observing the data.

2. Likelihood

Model a set of observations with a probability distribution (expressed in the form of the likelihood function) with unknown parameter(s): $[x|\theta]$, $f(x|\theta)$

3. Posterior

Apply Bayes' theorem to derive posterior distribution : $[\theta | x]$, $f(\theta | x)$ which expresses all that is known about θ after observing the data.

4. Inference

Derive appropriate inference statements from the posterior distribution: e.g. point / interval estimates, probabilities of specified hypotheses.

Two main approaches to statistical inference

- Frequentist/conventional/classical approach
 - Parameters are fixed but unknown quantities
 - Data are drawn from a distribution of known form but with an unknown parameter. Often this distribution arises from explicit randomization.
- Inferences regard the data as random and repeated sampling is assumed.
- Bayesian approach
- Parameters (unknown quantities) are random variables
- Probability distributions are assumed for the unknown parameters and for the observations (i.e. both parameters and observations are random quantities).
- Inferences are based on the prior distribution and the observed data.

Why do people use classical methods?

- If there is no prior information available about the parameter(s).
- If they prefer "cookbook"-type formulas with little input from the scientists /researchers.
- Bayesian methods require a bit more mathematical formalism.
- Historically (**but not now**) realistic Bayesian analyses had been infeasible due to a lack of computing power.
- Many methods were developed in the context of controlled experiments.
 Then, the parameters of interest can be regarded as truly fixed quantities.

Why use Bayesian methods?

- We can specifically incorporate previous knowledge (and expert judgement) we have about a parameter of interest.
- To logically update our knowledge about the parameter after observing data.
- Offers flexibility in statistical modelling: e.g. Highly nonlinear models with many parameters can be analyzed.
- Can handle "nuisance" parameters that pose problems for frequentist inference.
- Does not rely on large sample asymptotics, but gives valid inference also for small sample sizes.

The Likelihood Function

- Suppose that $X_1,...,X_n$ are from a distribution with $f(x:\theta)$, a probability mass function (pmf) for a discrete random variable (rv) X, or a probability density function (pdf) for a continuous X.
- Def: Given that X = x (i.e. $X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n$), the function of θ defined by $L(\theta) \equiv L(\theta : x) = k f(x : \theta)$

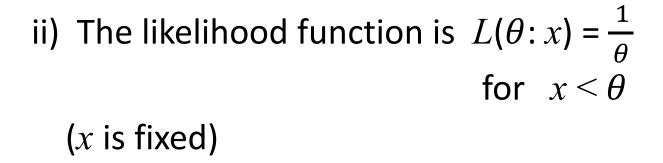
is called the likelihood function, where k > 0 and k does not depend on θ .

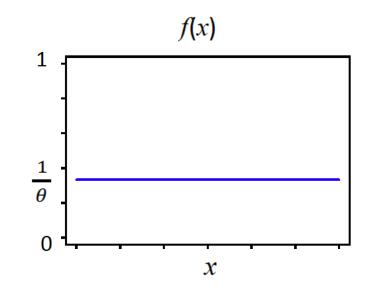
- The likelihood function $L(\theta: x)$ is formed from the joint pdf or pmf of X, but is viewed as a function of θ with data $X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n$ held fixed.
- The pmf or pdf $f(x:\theta)$ is a model that describes the random behavior of X when θ is fixed.

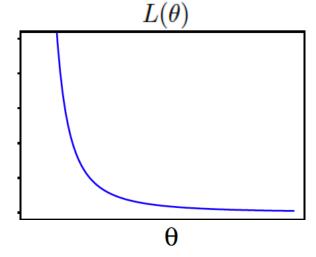
Example 1

• $X \sim \text{Unif}(0, \theta)$

i) The pdf of X is $f(x: \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}$ for $0 < x < \theta$ (θ is fixed)



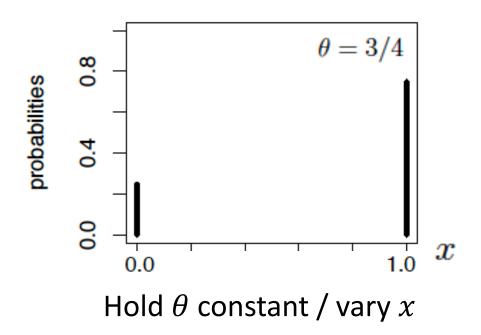


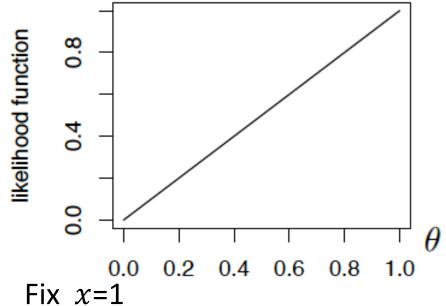


E.g. Flip a coin :
$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if tail} \\ 1 & \text{if head} \end{cases}$$

• Let θ be the probability of head: $\begin{cases} P(X=0|\theta) = 1 - \theta & \text{if tail} \\ P(X=1|\theta) = \theta & \text{if head} \end{cases}$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $P(X = x | \theta) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x}$ where $x = 0$ or 1





iii) Suppose that $X_1,...,X_6 \sim i.i.d.$ Unif(0, θ)

Then,
$$L(\theta: (x_1, ..., x_6)) = L(\theta: x) \equiv f(x: \theta) =$$

or
$$L(\theta: x) = \prod_{i=1}^{6} f(x_i: \theta) =$$

iv) Suppose that $X_1,...,X_n \sim i.i.d$. Gamma(α , $1/\beta$)

$$L(\alpha, \beta; \mathbf{x}) = \prod f(x_i) = \prod \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x_i^{\alpha - 1} \exp(-\beta x_i)$$

iii) Suppose that $X_1,...,X_6 \sim i.i.d.$ Unif(0, θ)

Then,
$$L(\theta: (x_1, ..., x_6)) = L(\theta: \mathbf{x}) \equiv f(\mathbf{x}: \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} \times \cdots \times \frac{1}{\theta} = \left[\frac{1}{\theta}\right]^6$$

or $L(\theta: \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^6 f(x_i: \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^6 \frac{1}{\theta} = \left[\frac{1}{\theta}\right]^6$

iv) Suppose that $X_1,...,X_n \sim i.i.d$. Gamma(α , $1/\beta$)

$$L(\alpha, \beta; x) = \prod f(x_i) = \prod \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x_i^{\alpha - 1} \exp(-\beta x_i)$$
$$= \left[\frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \right]^n \prod x_i^{\alpha - 1} \exp\left(-\beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i\right)$$

Inference with Likelihood function

- The likelihood function $L(\theta; x)$ is a function of θ that shows how "likely" various parameter values of θ may have produced the data x that were observed.
- In classical (frequentist) statistics, the specific value of θ that maximizes $L(\theta; x)$ is the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) of θ .

Here, we ask "what value of θ makes the data most likely to occur?"

- In a Bayesian context, we are interested in:
 - "what value of θ is most likely given the data?"
- In a classical analysis this question makes no sense, since all the randomness within $L(\theta \mid x)$ is attached to X, not to θ .

Example 2 Bayesian method for Discrete parameters

• Suppose that there are three states of nature A_1 , A_2 , A_3 and two possible data D_1 , D_2 :

	P(D A)		
	D_1	D_2	Prior
A_1	0.0	1.0	0.3
A_2	0.7	0.3	0.5
A_3	0.2	0.8	0.2

• What happens to our belief about A_1 , A_2 , A_3 if we observe D_2 ? (if we observe D_1 ?)

Posterior Probabilities with D_2

	Likelihood	Prior	Lkhd x prior (joint)	Posterior
A_1	1.0	0.3	0.3	
A_2	0.3	0.5		
A_3	0.8	0.2		
		1	$P(D_2) = 0.61$	1

•
$$P(A_1|D_2) = \frac{P[D_2|A_1]P(A_1)}{P[D_2]}$$

Posterior Probabilities with D_2

	Likelihood	Prior	Lkhd x prior (joint)	Posterior
A_1	1.0	0.3	0.3	$0.3/0.61 \approx 0.4918$
A_2	0.3	0.5	0.15	$0.15/0.61 \approx 0.2459$
A_3	0.8	0.2	0.16	0.16/ <mark>0.61</mark> ≈ 0.2623
		1	$P(D_2) = 0.61$	1

•
$$P(A_1|D_2) = \frac{P[D_2|A_1]P(A_1)}{P[D_2]} = \frac{P[D_2|A_1]P(A_1)}{P[D_2,A_1]+P[D_2,A_2]+P[D_2,A_3]}$$

$$= \frac{P[D_2|A_1]P(A_1)}{P[D_2|A_1]P(A_1)+P[D_2|A_2]P(A_2)+P[D_2|A_3]P(A_3)}$$

$$= \frac{0.3}{0.3+0.3\times0.5+0.8\times0.2} = 0.4918$$

Posterior Probabilities

	Likelihood	Prior	Lkhd x prior (joint)	Posterior
A_1	0.0	0.3	0	0
A_2	0.7	0.5	0.35	0.35/0.39 ≈ 0.8974
A_3	0.2	0.2	0.04	0.04/0.39≈ 0.1026
		1	$P(D_1) = 0.39$	1

•
$$P(A_2|D_1) = \frac{P[D_1|A_2]P(A_2)}{P[D_1]} = \frac{P[D_1|A_2]P(A_2)}{P[D_1,A_1]+P[D_1,A_2]+P[D_1,A_3]}$$

$$= \frac{P[D_1|A_2]P(A_2)}{P[D_1|A_1]P(A_1)+P[D_1|A_2]P(A_2)+P[D_1|A_3]P(A_3)}$$

$$= \frac{0.7\times0.5}{0+0.7\times0.5+0.2\times0.2} = 0.8974$$

Example 3

- A black male mouse is mated with a female black mouse whose mother had a brown coat.
- B and b are alleles of the gene for coat color. The gene for black fur is given the letter B and the gene for brown fur is given the letter b where B is the dominant allele to b. The mouse is brown only if it is homozygous bb.
- The male and female have a litter with 5 pups that are all black. We want to determine the male's genotype.
- The prior information suggests that P(BB) = 1/3 and P(Bb) = 2/3.
- Q. What is the posterior probability that the male's genotype is BB?

- Black female's mother is brown (Mother: bb) \Longrightarrow Black female must be Bb.
- Litter of 5 pups are all black:

<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>		<u>Pup</u>	Prob. of a black pup
BB }	Bb	\Longrightarrow	BB or Bb } BB,Bb,bB,bb	$\left. \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{array} \right\}$

• Lkhd: P(pup 1 black,..., pup 5 black) = P(pup 1 is black)x····xP(pup 5 is black)

Male	Likelihood	Prior	Lkhd x prior	posterior
ВВ	1 ⁵	$\frac{1}{3}$		
Bb	$(\frac{3}{4})^5$	$\frac{3}{2}$		
		sum to 1		sum to 1

P(male is BB| 5 pups are black) =?

- Black female's mother is brown (Mother: bb) \Longrightarrow Black female must be Bb.
- Litter of 5 pups are all black:

<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>		<u>Pup</u>	Prob. of a black pup
BB } Bb }	Bb	\Longrightarrow	BB or Bb } BB,Bb,bB,bb	$\left. \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{array} \right\}$

• Lkhd: P(pup 1 black,..., pup 5 black) = P(pup 1 is black)x····xP(pup 5 is black)

Male	Likelihood	Prior	Lkhd x prior	posterior
ВВ	1 ⁵	$\frac{1}{3}$	0.333	$0.333/0.491 \approx 0.678$
Bb	$(\frac{3}{4})^5$	$\frac{2}{3}$	0.158	0.158/ <mark>0.491</mark> ≈ 0.322
		sum to 1	0.491	sum to 1

P(male is BB| 5 pups are black) ≈ 0.678

(updated from 0.333)

Kernel & Normalizing Constant

- For a random variable X with density (or mass) function $f_X(x)$:
- (1) $f_X(x) \ge 0$ (must be nonnegative) for each value of random variable (rv) X
- (2) $\sum f_X(x) = 1$ for a discrete rv.
 - $\int f_X(x)dx = 1$ for continuous rv.
- If $f(x|\theta)$ can be expressed in the form $cq(x|\theta)$ where c is a constant, not depending upon x, then any such $q(x|\theta)$ is a kernel of the density $f(x|\theta)$.

The constant c is called a normalizing constant with the fact

$$\int f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) dx = \int cq(\mathbf{x}|\theta) dx = 1 \implies \int q(\mathbf{x}|\theta) dx = \frac{1}{c}$$

For the discrete case, the integral is replaced by a sum.

• In Bayesian statistics spotting kernels of distributions can be very useful in computing/finding posterior distributions.

i)
$$Y_i \mid \lambda \sim \text{Poiss}(\lambda)$$

$$f(y_i \mid \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^{y_i} e^{-\lambda}}{y_i!} \qquad \sum_{y_i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{y_i} e^{-\lambda}}{y_i!} = 1 \implies ?$$

ii)
$$\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$$
 $0 < \theta < 1$

$$P(\theta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$

• In Bayesian statistics spotting kernels of distributions can be very useful in computing/finding posterior distributions.

i)
$$Y_i \mid \lambda \sim \text{Poiss}(\lambda)$$

$$\sum_{y_i=0}^{\infty} f(y_i \mid \lambda) = \sum_{y_i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{y_i} e^{-\lambda}}{y_i!} = 1 \implies e^{-\lambda} \sum_{y_i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\overline{\lambda^{y_i}}}{y_i!} = 1$$

normalizing constant (n.c.)

ii)
$$\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$$
 $0 < \theta < 1$

$$P(\theta) = \underbrace{\frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}}_{\text{kernel}} \underbrace{\theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1}}_{\text{kernel}} \implies \int_{0}^{1} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}$$

normalizing constant

List of some probability distributions (p11 in notes)

- $Y_i|(\alpha,\beta) \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha,\beta)$ distribution

$$f(y_i|\alpha,\beta) = \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha)} y_i^{\alpha-1} \exp(-y_i/\beta) \quad y_i > 0, \quad \alpha > 0, \beta > 0$$
$$E[Y_i|(\alpha,\beta)] = \alpha\beta, \quad Var[Y_i|(\alpha,\beta)] = \alpha\beta^2.$$

- $Y_i|(\alpha,\beta) \sim \text{Inverse Gamma}(\alpha,\beta) \text{ distribution}$

$$f(y_i|\alpha,\beta) = \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha)} y_i^{-(\alpha+1)} \exp(1/(-y_i\beta)) \quad y_i > 0, \quad \alpha > 0, \beta > 0$$
$$E[Y_i|(\alpha,\beta)] = \frac{1}{(\alpha-1)\beta}, \quad Var[Y_i|(\alpha,\beta)] = \frac{1}{(\alpha-1)^2(\alpha-2)\beta^2}.$$

- $Y_i|(\mu,\sigma^2) \sim \text{Normal } (\mu,\sigma^2) \text{ distribution}$

$$f(y_i|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad -\infty < y_i < \infty \quad \mu > 0, \sigma^2 > 0.$$

$$E[Y_i|(\mu,\sigma^2)] = \mu, \quad Var[Y_i|(\mu,\sigma^2)] = \sigma^2.$$

- $Y_i|\lambda \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda) \text{ distribution}$

$$f(y_i|\lambda) = \lambda^{y_i} e^{-\lambda}/y_i! \ y_i = 0, 1, 2, ...$$

$$E[Y_i|\lambda] = \lambda, \quad Var[Y_i|\lambda] = \lambda.$$

- $Y_i|p \sim \text{Binomial }(n,p) \text{ distribution}$

$$f(y_i|n,p) = \binom{n}{y_i} p^{y_i} (1-p)^{n-y_i}, \quad y_i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$E[Y_i|p] = np, \quad Var[Y_i|p] = np(1-p).$$

- $Y_i|(\alpha,\beta) \sim \text{Beta }(\alpha,\beta) \text{ distribution}$

$$f(y_i|\alpha,\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} y_i^{\alpha-1} (1-y_i)^{\beta-1}, \quad 0 < y_i < 1 \quad \alpha > 0, \beta > 0.$$

$$E[Y_i|(\alpha,\beta)] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}, \quad Var[Y_i|(\alpha,\beta)] = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}.$$

Example: Binomial-Beta

- Suppose that $X|\theta \sim \text{Binom}(n,\theta)$: $f(x|\theta) = \binom{n}{x}\theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x}$
- Since the parameter θ is restricted to be between 0 and 1, we should choose a prior distribution with support on [0, 1].
 - Can specify a prior distribution for θ : $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ for α , $\beta > 0$ known

$$f(\theta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1} \qquad \text{for } 0 \le \theta \le 1$$

where α and β are the **hyperparameters** of this prior model, ideally reflecting our prior beliefs about θ .

• Using Bayes' theorem, the posterior is

$$f(\theta|x) = \frac{f(x|\theta)f(\theta)}{f(x)} = \frac{f(x|\theta)f(\theta)}{\int f(x|\theta)f(\theta)d\theta}$$

Combine Prior & Likelihood

1.
$$f(x|\theta)f(\theta) = \binom{n}{x}\theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

=

2.
$$\int f(x|\theta)f(\theta)d\theta = \int_{0}^{1} {n \choose x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} d\theta$$

Since
$$\int_0^1 f(x|\theta)f(\theta)d\theta = 1$$
,
$$\int_0^1 \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(x+\alpha)\Gamma(n-x+\beta)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha+\beta)} : \frac{1}{normalizing \ const}$$

Combine Prior & Likelihood

1.
$$f(x|\theta)f(\theta) = \binom{n}{x}\theta^{x}(1-\theta)^{n-x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}\theta^{\alpha-1}(1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$
$$= \binom{n}{x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}\theta^{x+\alpha-1}(1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}$$

2.
$$\int f(x|\theta)f(\theta)d\theta = \int_{0}^{1} {n \choose x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} d\theta$$
$$= {n \choose x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_{0}^{1} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} d\theta$$

Since
$$\int_0^1 f(x|\theta)f(\theta)d\theta = 1$$
,
$$\int_0^1 \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(x+\alpha)\Gamma(n-x+\beta)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha+\beta)} : \frac{1}{normalizing\ const}$$

Derive the Posterior Distribution

3.
$$f(\theta|x) = \frac{f(x|\theta)f(\theta)}{\int f(x|\theta)f(\theta)d\theta}$$

$$f(\theta|x) = \frac{\binom{n}{x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}}{\binom{n}{x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \frac{\Gamma(x+\alpha)\Gamma(n-x+\beta)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha+\beta)}}$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(n+\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(x+\alpha)\Gamma(n-x+\beta)} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} : \text{density of Beta}(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)$$

Thus, the posterior distribution : $\theta \mid x \sim \text{Beta}(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)$

Short-cut to derive a posterior dist.

• $f(\theta|x) \propto f(x|\theta)f(\theta)$: posterior \propto lkhd x prior

• Lkhd x prior:
$$f(x|\theta)f(\theta) = \binom{n}{x}\theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

Ignoring constants (in θ),

$$f(x|\theta)f(\theta) \propto \theta^{x} (1-\theta)^{n-x} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$
$$= \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}$$

: This is a kernel of Beta($x+\alpha$, $n-x+\beta$)

Then, the posterior distribution is $\theta \mid x \sim \text{Beta}(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)$

Recap – to derive the posterior dist.

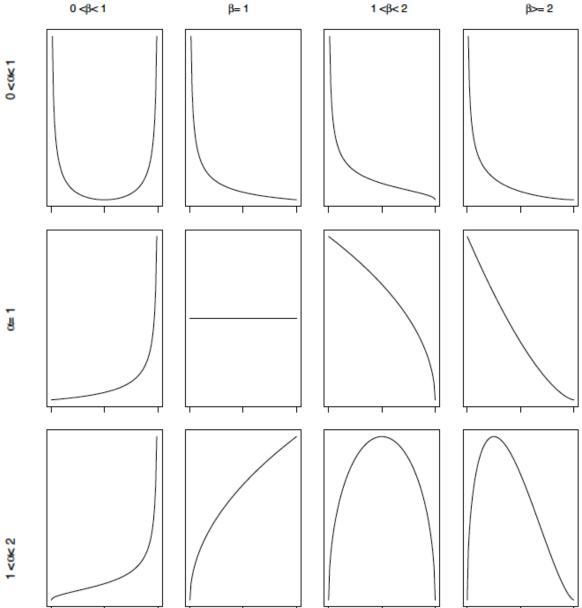
•
$$f(\theta|x) = \frac{f(x|\theta)f(\theta)}{f(x)} = \frac{f(x|\theta)f(\theta)}{\int f(x|\theta)f(\theta)d\theta}$$

- The denominator f(x) is just a normalizing constant and we don't actually have to calculate it (except posterior probabilities for discrete cases).
- We can use the fact that the posterior is proportional to the prior times the likelihood, i.e.

$$f(\theta|x) \propto f(x|\theta)f(\theta)$$
 : posterior \propto lkhd x prior

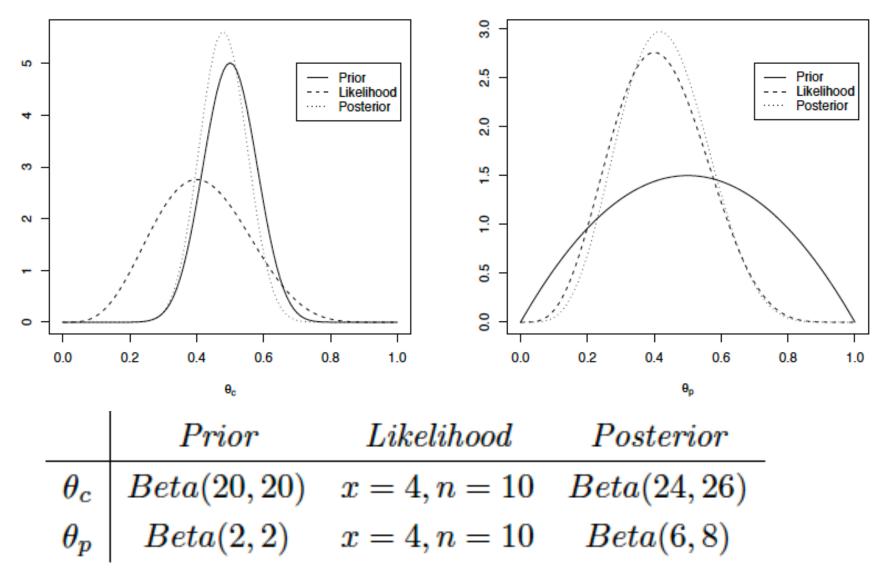
- Notice that we can ignore all of the normalizing constants in the likelihood and the prior.
- This leaves us with only the kernel of the posterior distribution. This kernel leads us to identify the posterior distribution we want to find.

• Plots of the Beta pdf for various values of α and β can help inform the prior specification 0.4<1 pt 1.4<2 pt 2.2



Plots of prior, likelihood & posterior

• Eg. Observe 4 heads out of 10 tosses.



Examples

 Write down the probability density function and find a correseponding kernel. Refer to the list of probability distributions (in p11 of course notes)

1)
$$\phi \sim \text{Gamma}(b + x, \frac{1}{2d})$$

2)
$$\lambda \sim \text{Normal}(\frac{1}{a}, \frac{1}{b^2})$$

3) The pdf of θ is

$$\frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{\beta}\right)^{\alpha+y-1}\Gamma(\alpha+y-1)} \,\theta^{-(\alpha+y-1+1)} \,\exp\left(\frac{-1}{\theta\left(\frac{1}{\beta}\right)}\right)$$

What distribution does θ follow? Find the kernel of the density.