# Bayesian Inference

#### Probabilities:

Events: A and B

P(A): (marginal) probability

P(B): (marginal) probability

 $P(A \cap B: joint probability$ 

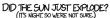
P(A|B): conditional probability

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(B \cap A)}{P(A)}$$

### Bayes Theorem:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$



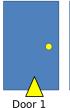


FREQUENTIST STATISTICIAN:

THE PROBABILITY OF THIS RESULT HAPPENING BY CHANCE IS \$ = 0.027. SINCE P<0.05, I CONCLUDE. THAT THE SUN HAS EXPLODED.



BAYESIAN STATISTICIAN:







Door 3

# What is 'Bayesian' analysis?

- Bayesian analysis is a different way to learn from your data
- ▶ It is based around the application of Bayes' theorem
- It is a type of statistical inference
- Bayesian analysis has two inputs:
  - What we knew before the we analyzed the data
  - The data itself
- Bayesian analysis tells us what the new state of knowledge is (including any uncertainty) after analyzing the data

#### Statistical inference

- ▶ Nearly all forms of statistical analysis follow these basic steps:
  - Construct a mathematical simplification of the study system that encapsulates the phenomena that you are interested in. This is referred to as a 'model'. Linear models (used in linear regression) are an example of a type of model.
  - Compare the model with the data
  - Make conclusions based on this comparison
- Up until now you have encountered a few different types of statistical inference:
  - null-hypothesis testing
  - (ordinary) least squares
  - maximum likelihood
- Bayesian inference is another type of statistical inference; it is not a model.

Example: coin flip

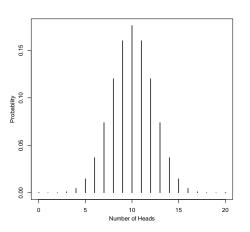
- We have a coin that may or may not be biased and we interested in finding out the degree of bias towards 'heads' (if one exists)
- the coin has been flipped 20 times and a total of 15 heads were observed
- First step: implement a model that describes how the data could be generated

### Example: coin flip

- ▶ Binomial model is a good choice for this exercise.
- ▶ Binomial model has two parameters:
  - ightharpoonup n = Number of trials and the probability of 'success' (p). n =
  - p = probability of 'success'

Probability of getting a value as or more extreme than the value observed given the Null hypothesis

- ▶ Null hypothesis: p = 0.5
- ▶ Calculate  $p(H \ge h|p = 0.5)$
- ► see if this quantity falls below a certain threshold (often set to be 0.05)
- If it does, then reject the Null hypothesis



$$p(H \ge h|p = 0.5) = 0.02 \ p \ne 0.5$$
  
Is  $p = 0.51$ ?

## Maximum Likelihood: Coin flip

- Coin: estimate the probability of getting head
- Flip the coin 20 times: 15 heads
- ► Construct a mathematical simplification of the study system that encapsulates the phenomena that you are interested in.
  - binomial distribution
    - n: number of trials
    - p: probability of success

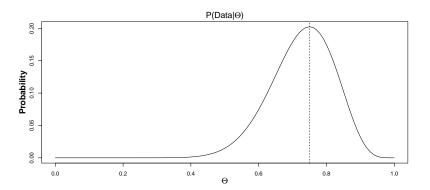
$$P(H = h|p) = \frac{n!p^{h}(1-p)^{n-h}}{h!(n-h)!}$$

h: number of heads

#### Likelihood Function

$$L(p) = P(H = h|p)$$

Probability of obtaining data as function of parameter



# Maximum Likelihood: Coin flip

$$L(p) = \frac{n!p^{h}(1-p)^{n-h}}{h!(n-h)!}$$

$$L(p) = \frac{n!}{h!(n-h)!}p^{h}(1-p)^{n-h}$$

$$I(p) = In\left(\frac{n!}{h!(n-h)!}\right) + In(p)h + In(1-p)(n-h)$$

n: number of trials

h: number of heads

#### Likelihood

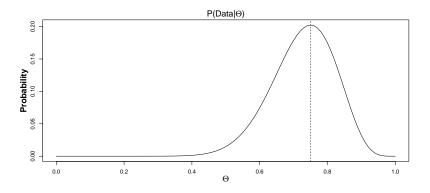
$$I(p) = In\left(\frac{n!}{h!(n-h)!}\right) + In(p)h + In(1-p)(n-h)$$

Derivative and set 0

$$\frac{dI(p)}{dp} = \frac{h}{p} - \frac{n-h}{1-p} = 0$$
$$h - hp = np - hp$$

$$p = \frac{h}{n}$$
 q.e.d.

## Likelihood function: Graphic



▶ Flip the coin 20 times: 15 heads

Maximum likelihood (classical inference): p = 0.75

## Bayesian inference vs maximum likelihood

#### Maximum Likelihood:

$$\hat{\theta} = arg \ max \ \{P(Data|\Theta)\}$$

Probability of getting a data set given a parameter value Bayesian inference

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(\Theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(Data)}$$

Probability of a parameter value given a data set

### Bayesian inference:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(\Theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(Data)}$$

Posterior : Probability of parameter value given data

Likelihood: Probability of data given parameter value

Prior : Probability of parameter value

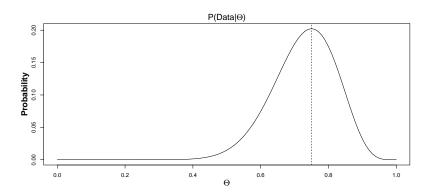
Normalizing constant

$$P(\Theta|Data) \propto P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)$$

#### Likelihood

$$P(\Theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(Data)}$$

#### Likelihood: Probability of data given parameter value



## Prior: Knowledge before looking at the data

- ► The prior takes into account all the information you know about the system before looking at the data
- ► The prior is usually expressed as a probability density/mass function
- If something is known about the system then probability functions with more weight on expected parameter values can be given. These are often called informative or sometimes subjective priors
- If nothing is known about the system then the investigator can specify flat looking priors. Flat-shaped priors are often called vague, uninformative, objective or minimally informative priors

# Prior: Knowledge before looking at the data

$$P(\Theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(Data)}$$

Prior : Probability of parameter value

Monty Hall problem:  $\frac{1}{3}$  probability of having car/chocolate behind/under each door/cup

#### Prior:

- Don't use a probability distribution for the prior that gives zero weight to a parameter value that is possible
  - ► Cromwell's rule "I beseech you, in the bowels of Christ, think it possible that you may be mistaken" Oliver Cromwell in a letter to the Synod of the Church of Scotland
- ▶ Do use an informative prior if there is information available
  - Previous research:
  - ► Field data
  - Meta-analysis of published literature
  - Known climatic, physical, or biological tolerances
- ▶ Do use a probability distribution for the prior that gives zero weight to a parameter value that is impossible such as:
  - Values outside of the range 0-1 for parameters that describe a probability
  - ▶ Values less than zero for measures of weight, length etc.
  - Values that represent some from of physical or biological impossibility

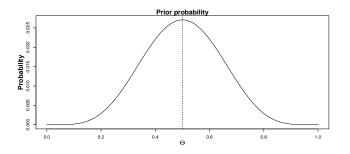
Prior: coin flip

Probability of heads: p
Any prior knowledge?

#### Prior:

Coin flip: reasonable to set a prior centered on  $\mathsf{p}=0.5$  (i.e. probability of heads and tails is equal)

20 flips with another coin, 10 heads



#### Beta distribution

### Normalizing constant:

$$P(\Theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(Data)}$$

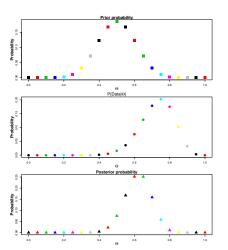
- ► The normalizing constant exists to ensure that the resulting posterior distribution is proper (sums to 1)
- ightharpoonup the normalizing constant does not depend on  $\Theta$

$$P(\Theta|Data) \propto P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)$$

#### Posterior: Normalized product of Likelihood and Prior

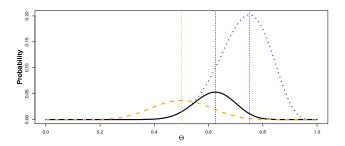
$$P(\Theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(Data)}$$

Posterior : Probability of parameter value given data



### Posterior: Normalized product of Likelihood and Prior

$$P(\Theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\Theta)P(\Theta)}{P(Data)}$$



#### Exercise 1

- Change number of coin flips used to build the prior
  - ▶ no coin flips
  - half the the data
  - twice the data
- Change number of coin flips used as data
- only four coin flips
- twice the number of prior flips
- five times the number of prior flips
- divide your coin flips into two parts:
  - 20 flips then use the new posterior as prior and add an additional 20 coin flips
  - compare this to 40 coin flips

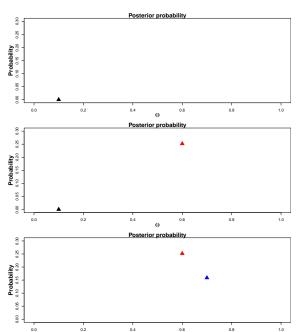
#### Posterior:

- more observations increase importance of likelihood compared to prior
- add data step wise and obtain the same posterior

### Sampling: Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- ▶ Draw parameter Θ at random
- Compute posterior probability for this parameter value
- Select a new parameter value (many different selection options)
- Compute posterior probability of proposed value
- ▶ ratio  $\frac{P_{prop}}{P_{old}}$
- ▶ if ratio > 1 move else ratio is probability of moving

### Sampling: Markov Chain Monte Carlo



### Sampling: MCMC

- Person wants to visit all states in the US repeatedly, number of visits depends on population size
- Start with a randomly chosen state
- Draw a new state at random
- Compare populations of the two states
- ▶ ratio  $\frac{P_{prop}}{P_{old}}$
- ▶ if ratio > 1 move else ratio is probability of moving

Repeat many times

Proportion of visits will converge to proportion of population

#### Linear regression

- ▶ Nearly all forms of statistical analysis follow these basic steps:
  - ► Construct a mathematical simplification of the study system that encapsulates the phenomena that you are interested in.
    - linear regression:

$$y_i = a + bx_i + e_i$$
  $e \sim N(0, s^2)$   
 $y_i \sim N(a + bx_i, s^2)$ 

Compare the model with the data

$$P(y|a,b,s^2) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a+bx_i-y_i}{s}\right)^2}$$

▶ Maximum Likelihood Choose a, b, and  $s^2$  so that probability is maximized

### Linear regression

Compare the model with the data

$$P(y|a,b,s^{2}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} C \frac{1}{s} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{a+bx_{i}-y_{i}}{s}\right)^{2}}$$

$$P(y|a,b,s^2) \propto \prod_{i+1}^n \frac{1}{s} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{a+bx_i-y_i}{s}\right)^2}$$

$$P(a,b,s^2|y) \propto P(y|a,b,s^2)P(a)P(b)P(s^2)$$

Prior for a?

Prior for b?

Prior for  $s^2$ ?

### Linear regression: result

With MCMC and 10000 samples from the posterior 10000 values of a, b, and  $s^2$  10000 possible regression models

