

Classical, or frequentist, statistical paradigm:

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Bayesian statistical paradigm

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Axioms of Probability

Kolmogorov's Axioms of Probability:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

The textbook discusses the idea of belief functions. The important thing to note here is that a probability function can be used to express beliefs in a principled manner.

Partitions and Bayes Rule

A collection of sets $\{H_1, \dots, H_K\}$ is a **partition** of another set \mathcal{H} if

- 1.
- 2.

Examples

- Let \mathcal{H} be a Bozemanite's favorite ski hill. Partitions include:

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- Let \mathcal{H} be the number of stats courses taken by people in this room. Partitions include:

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Suppose $\{H_1, \dots, H_K\}$ is a partition of \mathcal{H} , $Pr(\mathcal{H}) = 1$, and E is some specific event. The axioms of probability imply the following statements:

1. **Rule of Total Probability:** $\sum_{k=1}^K Pr(H_k) =$

2. **Rule of Marginal Probability:**

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(E) &= \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

3. **Bayes rule:**

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(H_j|E) &= \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

Example. Assume a sample of MSU students are polled on their skiing behavior. Let $\{H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4\}$ be the events that a randomly selected student in this sample is in, the first quartile, second quartile, third quartile and 4th quartile in terms of number of hours spent skiing.

Then $\{Pr(H_1), Pr(H_2), Pr(H_3), Pr(H_4)\} = \{.25, .25, .25, .25\}$.

Let E be the event that a person has a GPA greater than 3.0.

Then $\{Pr(E|H_1), Pr(E|H_2), Pr(E|H_3), Pr(E|H_4)\} = \{.40, .71, .55, .07\}$.

Now compute the probability that a student with a GPA greater than 3.0 falls in the first quartile for hours spent skiing: $Pr(H_1|E)$

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(H_1|E) &= \\ &= \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $Pr(H_2|E) = .41$, $Pr(H_3|E) = .32$, and $Pr(H_4|E) = .04$.

Independence

Two events F and G are conditionally independent given H if $Pr(F \cap G|H) = Pr(F|H)Pr(G|H)$.
If F and G are conditionally independent given H then:

Example. What is the relationship between $Pr(F|H)$ and $Pr(F|H \cap G)$ in the following situation?

$F = \{ \text{you draw the jack of hearts} \}$

$G = \{ \text{a mind reader claims you drew the jack of hearts} \}$

$H = \{ \text{the mind reader has extrasensory perception} \}$

$I = \{ \text{the mind reader is Paul} \}$

$Pr(F|H) =$

$Pr(F|G \cap H) =$

$Pr(F|G \cap I) =$

Random Variables

In Bayesian inference a random variable is defined as an unknown numerical quantity about which we make probability statements. For example, the quantitative outcome of a study is performed. Additionally, a fixed but unknown population parameter is also a random variable.

Discrete Random Variables

Let Y be a random variable and let \mathcal{Y} be the set of all possible values of Y . Y is discrete if the set of possible outcomes is countable, meaning that \mathcal{Y} can be expressed as $\mathcal{Y} = \{y_1, y_2, \dots\}$.

The event that the outcome Y of our study has the value y is expressed as $\{Y = y\}$. For each $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, our shorthand notation for $Pr(Y = y)$ will be $p(y)$. This function (known as the probability distribution function (pdf)) $p(y)$ has the following properties.

- 1.
- 2.

Example 1. Binomial Distribution

Let $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ for some positive integer n . Then $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$ has a binomial distribution with probability θ if

Example 2. Poisson Distribution

Let $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. Then $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$ has a Poisson distribution with mean θ if

Continuous Random Variables

Suppose that the sample space \mathcal{Y} is \mathbb{R} , then $Pr(Y \leq 5) \neq \sum_{y \leq 5} p(y)$ as this sum does not make sense. Rather define the cumulative distribution function (cdf) $F(y) = Pr(Y \leq y)$. The cdf has the following properties:

1. $F(\infty) =$
2. $F(-\infty) =$
3. $F(b) \leq F(a)$ if

Probabilities of events can be derived as:

- $Pr(Y > a) =$
- $Pr(a < Y < b) =$

If F is continuous, then Y is a continuous random variable. Then $F(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a p(y)dy$.

Example. Normal distribution.

Let $\mathcal{Y} = (-\infty, \infty)$ with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then y follows a normal distribution if

$$p(y|\mu, \sigma^2) =$$

Moments of Distributions

The mean or expectation of an unknown quantity Y is given by

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y] &= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(y) \text{ if } Y \text{ is discrete and} \\ E[Y] &= \int_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(y) \text{ if } Y \text{ is continuous.} \end{aligned}$$

The variance is a measure of the spread of the distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} Var[Y] &= E[(Y - E[Y])^2] \\ &= E[Y^2 - 2YE[Y] + E[Y]^2] \\ &= E[Y^2] - 2E[Y]^2 + E[Y]^2 \\ &= E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2 \end{aligned}$$

If $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$, then $E[Y] =$ and $Var[Y] =$

if $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$, then $E[Y] =$ and $Var[Y] =$

if $Y \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $E[Y] =$ and $Var[Y] =$

Joint Distributions

Let Y_1, Y_2 be random variables, then the joint pdf or joint density can be written as

$$P_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = Pr(\{Y_1 = y_1\} \cap \{Y_2 = y_2\}), \text{ for } y_1 \in \mathcal{Y}_1, y_2 \in \mathcal{Y}_2$$

The marginal density of Y_1 can be computed from the joint density:

$$\begin{aligned} p_{Y_1}(y_1) &= Pr(Y_1 = y_1) \\ &= \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{Y}_2} Pr(\{Y_1 = y_1\} \cap \{Y_2 = y_2\}) \\ &= \sum_{y_2 \in \mathcal{Y}_2} p_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2). \end{aligned}$$

Note this is for discrete random variables, but a similar derivation holds for continuous.

The conditional density of Y_2 given $\{Y_1 = y_1\}$ can be computed from the joint density and the marginal density.

$$\begin{aligned} p_{Y_2|Y_1}(y_2|y_1) &= \frac{Pr(\{Y_1 = y_1\} \cap \{Y_2 = y_2\})}{Pr(Y_1 = y_1)} \\ &= \frac{p_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2)}{p_{Y_1}(y_1)} \end{aligned}$$

Note the subscripts are often dropped, so $p_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = p(y_1, y_2)$, ect...

Independent Random Variables and Exchangeability

Suppose Y_1, \dots, Y_n are random variables and that θ is a parameter corresponding to the generation of the random variables. Then Y_1, \dots, Y_n are conditionally independent given θ if

$$Pr(Y_1 \in A_1, \dots, Y_n \in A_n | \theta) = Pr(Y_1 \in A_1 | \theta) \times \dots \times Pr(Y_n \in A_n | \theta)$$

where $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$ are sets. Then the joint distribution can be factored as

$$p(y_1, \dots, y_n | \theta) = p_{Y_1}(y_1 | \theta) \times \dots \times p_{Y_n}(y_n | \theta).$$

If the random variables come from the same distribution then they are conditionally independent and identically distributed, which is noted $Y_1, \dots, Y_n | \theta \sim i.i.d. p(y | \theta)$ and

Exchangeability

Let $p(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ be the joint density of Y_1, \dots, Y_n . If $p(y_1, \dots, y_n) = p(y_{\pi_1}, \dots, y_{\pi_n})$ for all permutations π of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, then Y_1, \dots, Y_n are exchangeable.

Example. Assume data has been collected on apartment vacancies in Bozeman. Let $y_i = 1$ if an *affordable* room is available. Do we expect $p(y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 1) = p(y_1 = 1, y_2 = 0, y_3 = 0, y_4 = 0)$? If so the data are exchangeable.

Let $\theta \sim p(\theta)$ and if Y_1, \dots, Y_n are conditionally i.i.d. given θ , then marginally (unconditionally on θ) Y_1, \dots, Y_n are exchangeable.

Proof omitted, see textbook for details.