

Bayesian Statistics Crash Course

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Difference Between Frequentists and Bayesians (1)

- **Frequentist**

- Data are IID random sample from data generating process
- Parameters are fixed

- **Bayesian**

- Data are fixed (we have the data we observed)
- Parameters are unknown, described probabilistically

Difference Between Frequentists and Bayesians (2)

- **Frequentist**

- Probability derived from relative frequency / counting procedure
- Probabilistic quantity of interest $\rightarrow P(data|H_0)$

- **Bayesian**

- Probability represents “degree of belief”
 - Our belief is updated in the light of new information
- Probabilistic quantity of interest $\rightarrow P(\theta|data)$

Difference Between Frequentists and Bayesians (3)

- **Frequentist**

- Probability derived from relative frequency / counting procedure
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Difference Between Frequentists and Bayesians (4)

- **Frequentist**

- Report point estimates and standard errors
- Hypothesis testing with p-values and 95%
 - (or “fill your own” %) confidence intervals

- **Bayesian**

- Report posterior distribution
- Hypothesis testing is done with actual probability statements through posterior probabilities
 - Ex: What is $P(\text{actual issued rate increases by 5\%} \mid \text{AB test data})$?

Question: 95% Confidence Interval

- What is the correct interpretation of confidence interval?
- Is it useful?
- What interpretation do people want?
- An interval that has 95% probability of containing the true parameter values
- An interval that if we repeated the sampling, and test *infinite* (*read: really really big*) number of times would contain the true parameter values 95% of the time

Bayes Theorem

The diagram shows the Bayes Theorem formula with color-coded labels and arrows:

- Prior** (green text) with a green arrow pointing to $P(A)$.
- Likelihood** (orange text) with an orange arrow pointing to $P(B|A)$.
- Posterior** (black text) with a black arrow pointing to $P(A|B)$.
- Preposterior** (blue text) with a blue arrow pointing to $P(B)$.

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

- **A represents variable of interest**
- **B represents observation**
- Prior → Our belief of A before we see B
- Likelihood → Probability of observing B given A
- Posterior → Updated belief of A after observing B
- Preposterior → Probability of observing B

Example: Coin Flip

- I have a fair coin and a two-headed coin.
- I choose one of them with equal probability and I flip it.
- Given that I flipped a head, what is the probability that I chose the two-headed coin?

Example: Coin Flip – Solutions

1. Define the Bayesian updating objective:

Posterior $\rightarrow P(\text{choose two headed coins} \mid H)$

2. State the Bayesian equation to determine the components needed for updating:

$$P(\text{choose two headed coins} \mid H) = \frac{P(\text{choose two headed coins}) P(H \mid \text{choose two headed coins})}{P(H)}$$

Prior $\rightarrow P(\text{choose two headed coins}) = 0.5$

Likelihood $\rightarrow P(H \mid \text{choose two headed coins}) = 1$

Preposterior $\rightarrow P(H) = P(H, \text{choose two headed coins}) + P(H, \text{choose fair coins})$

$$P(H) = 1 * 0.5 + 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.75$$

Example: Coin Flip – Solutions

3. Use Bayesian Updating Equation

$$P(\text{choose two headed coins} \mid H) = \frac{P(\text{choose two headed coins}) P(H \mid \text{choose two headed coins})}{P(H)}$$

$$P(\text{choose two headed coins} \mid H) = \frac{0.5 * 1}{0.75} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Bayesian in Continuous Space (1)

- Bayesian formula we discussed so far is for updating **discrete probability distribution**
- However, many real world problems are often **continuous**
 - Revenue % increase can take any values from -inf to inf
 - Conversion ratio can take any values from 0 to 1
- For continuous distribution, we need to update the probability distribution, not the probability estimate

$$P(\theta|Data) = \frac{P(\theta) P(Data|\theta)}{P(Data)} \longrightarrow f(\theta|Data) = \frac{f(\theta) f(Data|\theta)}{\int_{\theta} f(\theta) f(Data|\theta) d\theta}$$

Bayesian in Continuous Space (2)

$$f(\theta|Data) = \frac{f(\theta) f(Data|\theta)}{\int_{\theta} f(\theta) f(Data|\theta) d\theta}$$

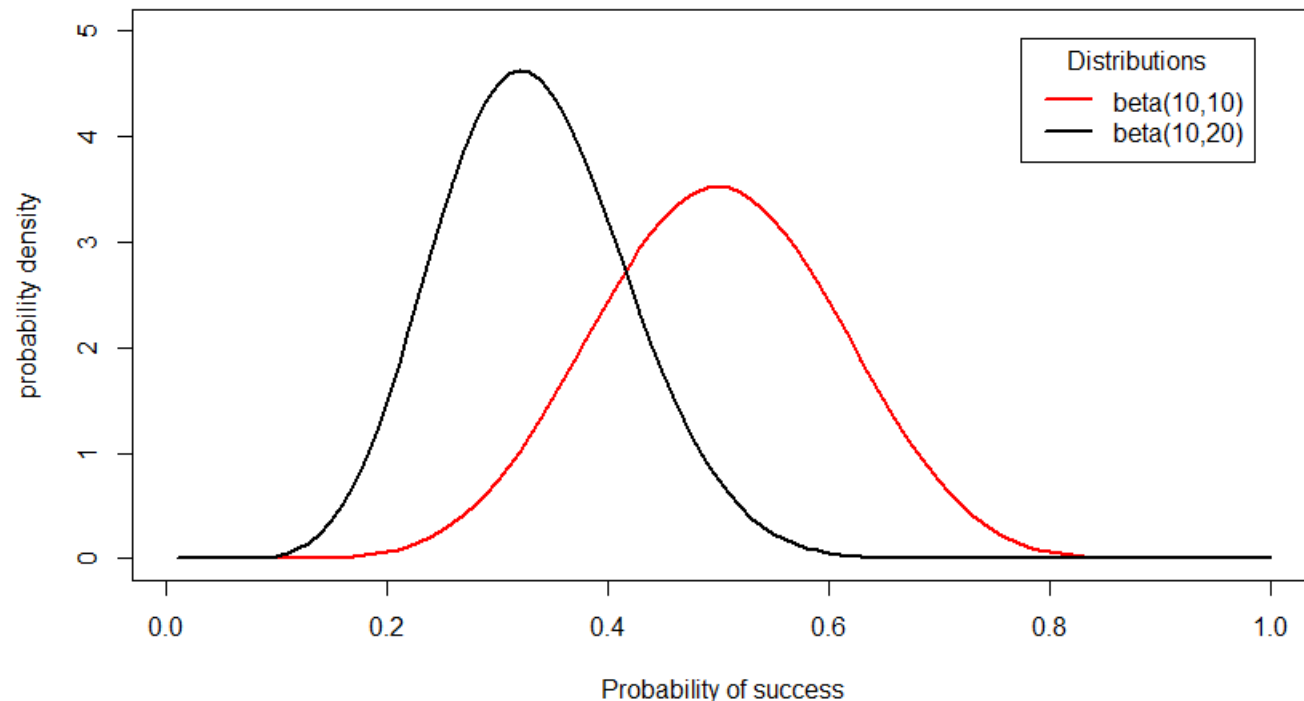
- The denominator of Bayes' Theorem (the integral part) makes the Bayesian updating difficult.
 - Intractable solutions
 - Computationally expensive
- For this reason, many clever algorithms are developed to efficiently for Bayesian updating
 - **Metropolis** → **Discussed briefly today**
 - Metropolis-Hastings
 - Gibbs Sampling
 - Hamiltonian Monte Carlo
- Whenever we can: Find tractable (or analytical) posterior
 - **Conjugate Prior** → **Discussed briefly today**

Conjugate Prior (1)

There are several prior-likelihood pairs that play nice to each other. This property is called **conjugacy**.

Example:

- Beta distribution is a commonly used probability distribution for describing probability of an event.
- $Beta(\alpha, \beta)$



Conjugate Prior (2)

- Let's imagine we have a coin
- What is the probability that the coin is fair?
 - The coin looks just like other coin
 - Fair coin generally seems to have probability around 0.5 of coming up heads
 - However, we are not quite certain that $P(\text{head})$ is 0.5
- Now, let's flip the coin 10 times.
- we observed 9 heads and 1 tail
- What is the probability that the coin is fair?
- Posterior = $P(\text{heads} \mid 9 \text{ heads and } 1 \text{ tail}) = ?$

Conjugate Prior (3)

- Let coming up head as π
- Describe prior $\rightarrow f(\pi)$

$$f(\pi) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)} \pi^{\alpha-1} (1 - \pi)^{\beta-1}$$

- Describe likelihood \rightarrow n flips, y heads \rightarrow binomial $p(y|\pi) \sim f(y|\pi)$

$$f(y|n, \pi) = \binom{n}{y} \pi^y (1 - \pi)^{n-y}$$

Conjugate Prior (4)

Side note:

Kernel of a PDF or PMF is a function that proportional to the distribution itself

- Posterior through Bayes' Theorem

$$f(\pi|y) = \frac{f(\pi)f(y|\pi)}{f(y)}$$

$$f(\pi|y) \propto f(\pi)f(y|\pi)$$

This is called kernel

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

$$f(\pi|y) \propto \pi^{\alpha-1}(1 - \pi)^{\beta-1} \pi^y(1 - \pi)^{n-y}$$

This is called kernel

$$f(\pi|y) = \pi^{\alpha+y-1}(1 - \pi)^{\beta+n-y-1}$$

$$f(\pi|y) = \text{Beta}(\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

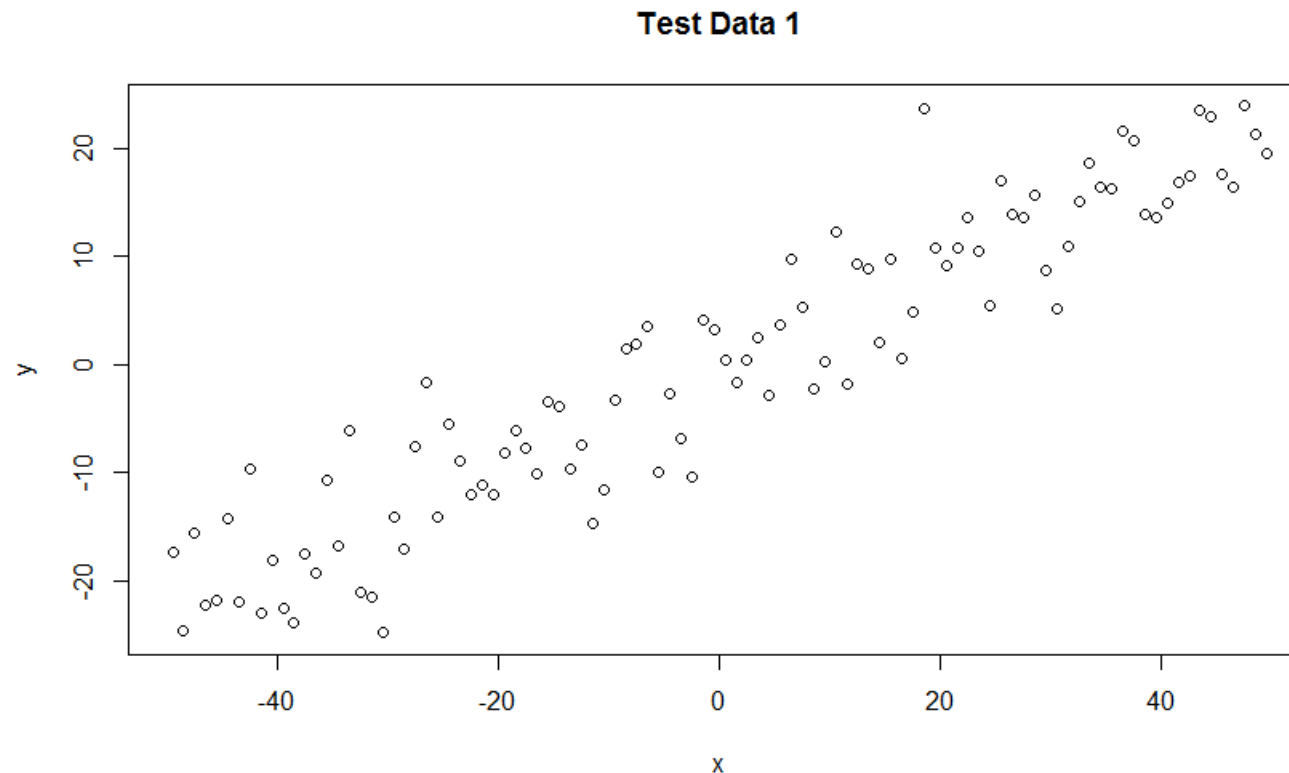
MCMC: Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- For cases where there is no conjugacy, we need to find a ways to directly sample the posterior
- The most common algorithm for this is using MCMC algorithm
 - Markov chain
 - Probability of state at $t+1$ only depend on t (memoryless)
 - Monte Carlo simulation
- The goal of MCMC is to produce dependent samples from posterior, $P(\theta|data)$
- This presentation will only discuss Metropolis/Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

MCMC - Linear Regression Example (1)

- Imagine data generating process from the following linear regression:

$$y = ax + b + N(0, \sigma)$$



MCMC - Linear Regression Example (2)

- We have the data.
- We want to generate the **posterior** for the regression constants (a, b) and the noise (standard deviation, σ)
- End result:
 - $P(a|data)$
 - $P(b|data)$
 - $P(\sigma|data)$

MCMC - Linear Regression Example (3)

Requirements:

- Define prior distribution for each parameter
- Define likelihood function given the proposed parameter
- Define the kernel of the posterior:
 - $posterior = prior * likelihood$
- Define proposal distribution (aka jumping distribution):
 - This is the distribution that proposed the new value for the posterior.
 - For Metropolis algorithm, this has to be symmetric (e.g. normal distribution)
- We are now ready to initiate Metropolis algorithm

MCMC - Linear Regression Example (4)

Steps:

- Define initial guess for each parameter
- Take one sample from proposed distribution
- Calculate the kernel of the posterior for the $posterior_{current}$ and $posterior_{proposed}$
- Calculate $r = \min(posterior_{proposed}/posterior_{current}, 1)$
- If $r > U(0,1)$: set $posterior_{current} = posterior_{proposed}$
- Else: set $posterior_{current} = posterior_{current}$
- Repeat for N iterations

Remember to throw away the first Z iterations for burn in process.

Useful algorithms developed From Bayes' Theorem

- Hierarchical Modelling
- Kalman Filter / Ensemble Kalman Filter
- Bayesian Network
 - Directed acyclic graph
 - Influence diagram
- Bayesian A/B test
- Bayesian Deep Learning
 - Advantage of using Bayesian: Interpretability, cons: large computing requirements
 - Advantage of using deep learning: accurate, efficient learner, cons: low interpretability (statistical properties are not fully understood)
- And many more algorithms

Library / Tools for MCMC

- BUGS (Bayesian Inference using Gibbs Sampling) → <http://www.mrc-bsu.cam.ac.uk/software/bugs/>
 - First generation MCMC sampler
 - Tricky implementation in linux
 - Old and inefficient
- JAGS (Just Another Gibbs Sampler) → <http://mcmc-jags.sourceforge.net/>
 - Rebuild from scratch
 - Has many useful features that makes gibbs sampling easy to be implemented
 - Fast and efficient algorithm
 - Most commonly used library
- STAN (Named after Stanislaw Ulam) → <http://mc-stan.org/>
 - Bayesian figureheads starting to move to STAN
 - Use Hamiltonian Monte Carlo which purported to be more efficient compared to Gibbs sampling
 - Andrew Gelman, John Kruschke has recommended to use STAN