

Bayesian Inference

- As with frequentist inference, the objective is to learn properties about F .

- Further let's emphasize that F is a density from a family of densities.

$$F = \{ f_{\mu}(x); x \in X, \mu \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

The density from which our data comes

X comes from a sample space.

Potential values x can take
 μ from parameter space.

a density for x ,
with parameter vector μ

X : sample space
 μ (unobserved) is a point in the parameter space \mathbb{R} .

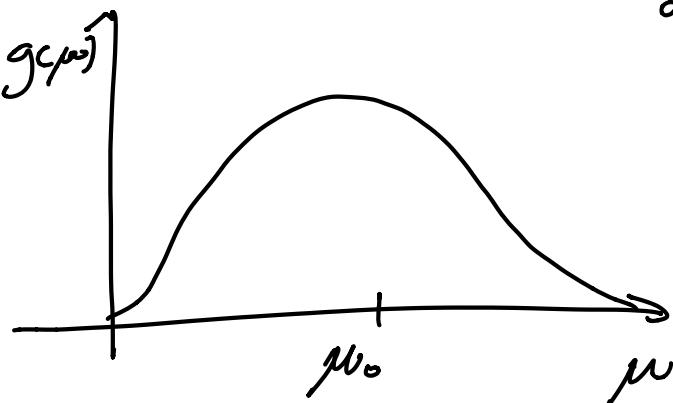
→ we observe x from $f_{\mu}(x)$ and we infer μ .

- Bayesian Inference adds one assumption:
+ the knowledge of a prior density $g(\mu)$,
 $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$.

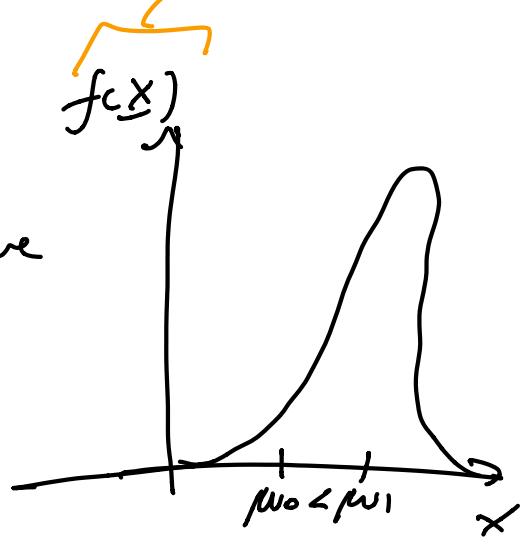
Bayes' Theorem is a rule for combining prior knowledge in $g(\mu)$ with current evidence in x .

Likelihood func.

Say, if you know



and you observe



How to consistently update our belief

about μ ?

Let $g(\mu|x)$ be the posterior density of μ .
(after observing x)

a.k.a $f(x|\mu)$

Bayes' Rule:

$$g(\mu|x) = \frac{g(\mu) \cdot f_{\mu}(x)}{f(x)}$$

$$g(\mu|x) \propto g(\mu) \cdot f_{\mu}(x)$$

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

undergrad version

where $f(x)$ is the marginal density of x

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mu}(x) \cdot g(\mu) d\mu$$

Brutally different from frequentist calculations.

Here \underline{x} is fixed and our belief of μ changes with observed data!

- We can also write Bayes rule as:

$$g(\mu|x) = \underbrace{c_x}_{\text{constant that depends on } \underline{x}} \cdot f_{\mu}(\underline{x}) g(\mu)$$

constant that depends on \underline{x}

Finally, for any two μ_1, μ_2 values on \mathcal{R} , the ratio of posterior densities is given by:

$$\frac{g(\mu_1|x)}{g(\mu_2|x)} = \frac{\cancel{c_x} g(\mu_1) f_{\mu_1}(\underline{x})}{\cancel{c_x} g(\mu_2) f_{\mu_2}(\underline{x})}$$

"The posterior odds ratio is the prior odds ratio times the likelihood ratio".

A warming Example

- Engineer knows she's having twins. She asks herself: what is the prob. that they'll be

Identical?

\Rightarrow Doctor says: $\frac{1}{3}$ of four brothers were identical!

- Say that X is the sonogram result (either same sex or opposite sex) and same sex is observed.

- So, applying Bayes Rule.

$$\frac{g(\text{Identical} \mid \text{Same})}{g(\text{Fraternal} \mid \text{Same})} = \frac{g(\text{Identical})}{g(\text{Fraternal})} \cdot \frac{f_{\text{Identical}}(\text{Same})}{f_{\text{Fraternal}}(\text{Same})}$$
$$= \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{2}{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{1/2} = 1$$

- Fraternal and Identical are equally likely.

		Same	Diff	
		$\frac{1}{3}$	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
Id	Same	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
	Diff	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$

$$g(\text{Identical} \mid \text{Same}) = .5$$
$$g(\text{Fraternal} \mid \text{Same}) = .5$$

Increased from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$!

A more elaborate Bayesian Inference

Example.

$$X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$$

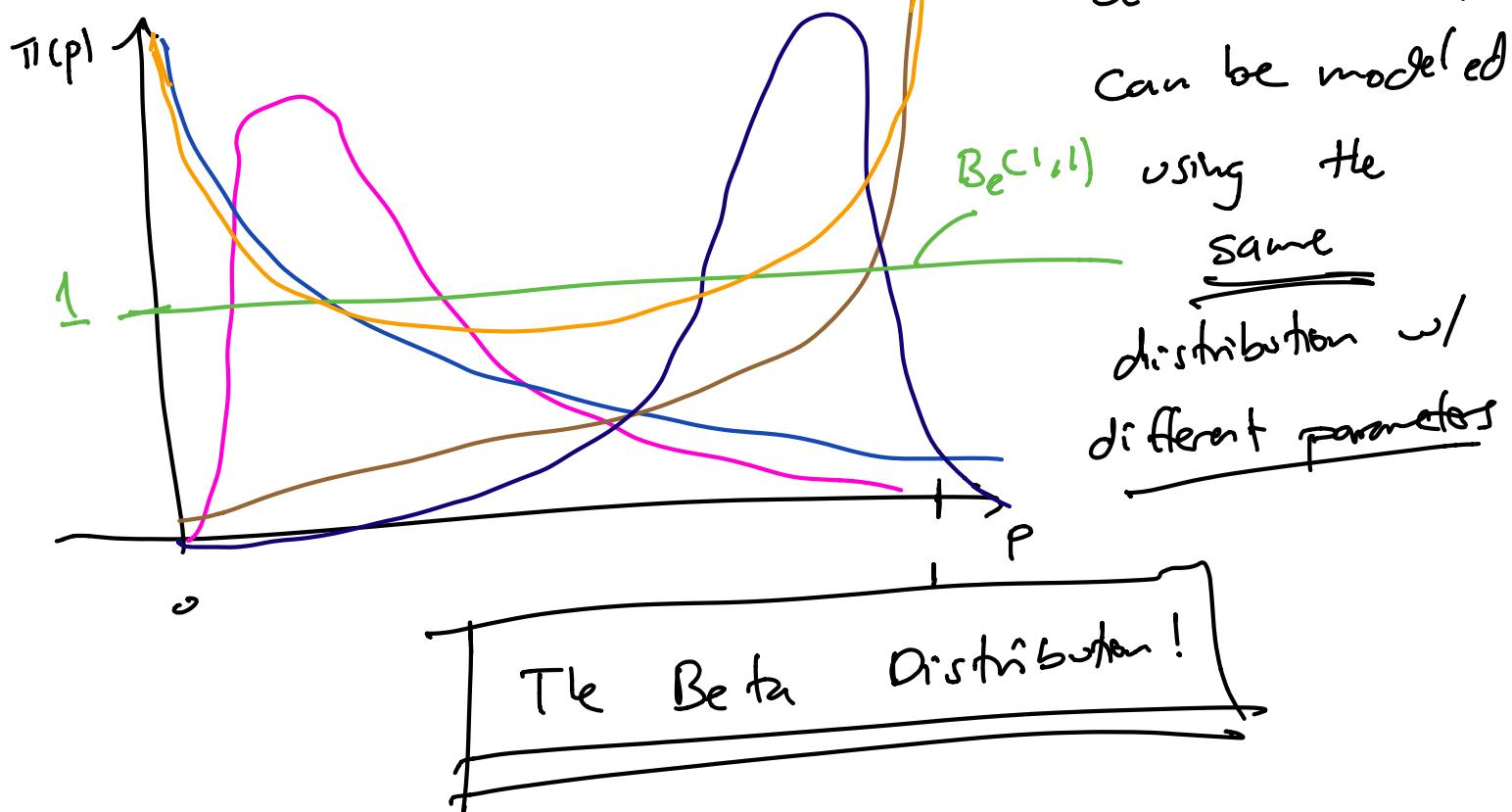
$$P(X=k | p, n) = \binom{n}{k} \cdot p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

↑

Prob. that # of successes
is exactly k

$$= \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!}$$

Furthermore, let's assume that before observing our data our belief of p looks either of the following ways:



$p \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ By definition of Beta density

$$g(p|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{p^{\alpha-1} \cdot (1-p)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}$$

to normalize
the pdf
to 1.

Beta function

$$B(\alpha, \beta) = \int_0^1 p^{\alpha-1} (1-p)^{\beta-1} dp$$

- The Beta function can be written in terms of the Gamma function

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty x^{z-1} e^{-x} dx \quad \text{for } z > 0$$

$$B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha) \cdot \Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}$$

- Further, the Gamma function can be thought of as a continuous generalization of the factorial function.

$$\Gamma(n+1) = n!$$

Beta Distr. Properties

$$E(p|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

For our following analysis, it is convenient to reparameterize our Beta distribution such that the mean can be represented using one 1 parameter.

$$\mu = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} ; M = \underline{\alpha + \beta}$$

$$\rightarrow g(p|\mu, M) = \text{Beta}(M \cdot \mu, m \cdot (1 - \mu))$$

By the way, under this parametrization

$$E(p|\mu, M) = \mu ; V(p|\mu, M) = \frac{\mu(1-\mu)}{m+1}$$

- Using all these definitions, we can finally compute posterior dist:

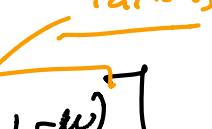
$$g(p|k) \underset{\text{Proportional to}}{\sim} f_p(k) \cdot \underbrace{g(p|\mu, M)}_{\substack{\text{Prior} \\ \text{Prior hyperparameters}}}$$

our belief
about p after
observing k successes
in n trials

$$g(p|k) \propto p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \cdot p^{\underline{M\mu-1}} \cdot (1-p)^{m(1-\mu)-1}$$

$$r_{n-k+m(1-\mu)-1}$$

$$\propto p^{(k+m\mu)-1} \cdot (1-p)^{n-k-m(1-\mu)}$$

Equivalent to "successes" 
 Failures 

$$\propto \text{Beta}[k+m\mu, n-k+m(1-\mu)]$$

So, if the prior for p is Beta and
 the likelihood is Binomial, then, the
posterior of p is also Beta .

This kind of prior is called a conjugate
 prior. i.e. the posterior is of the
 same family of the prior.