

# BST 6200 Spatial Statistics and Disease Mapping

## Bayesian Methods

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## Motivating Example

Medical devices are produced at three factories, in Atlanta (A), Boston (B), and Chicago (C). Factory A makes half of the devices, Factory B makes 30%, and Factory C makes 20%.

Defect rates vary across factories. In Factory A, 2% of devices are defective. The defective rates in Factories B and C are 3% and 5%, respectively.

All devices are shipped to a warehouse in Detroit before being sent to users.

**Q1:** What is the probability that an item selected at random in the warehouse is defective?

**Q2:** An item is found to be defective. What is the probability that it came from Factory A? From Factory B? From Factory C?

## Notation

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$\cap$  means set intersection, the logical “and”.

$\cup$  means set union or the logical “or”.

$P(A)$  means the probability of event  $A$ .

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

If  $A$  and  $B$  are *mutually exclusive*, then  $A \cap B = \emptyset$  and  
 $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

The conditional probability of  $A$  given  $B$  is

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

If events  $A$  and  $B$  are independent, then  $P(A|B) = P(A)$  and  $P(B|A) = P(B)$ . We can then show that  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ .

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## Law of Total Probability

Suppose  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k$  are mutually exclusive and when taken together cover the entire space of possible outcomes. (IOW, every time the random experiment is done, one and only one of the  $A_i$  occurs.)

Let  $B$  be any set. Then

$$B = (A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B) \cup \dots \cup (A_k \cap B)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= P((A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B) \cup \dots \cup (A_k \cap B)) \\ &= P(A_1 \cap B) + P(A_2 \cap B) + \dots + P(A_k \cap B) \\ &= P(A_1)P(B|A_1) + P(A_2)P(B|A_2) + \dots + P(A_k)P(B|A_k) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i)P(B|A_i) \end{aligned}$$

## Bayes Theorem

$$\begin{aligned}P(A_j|B) &= \frac{P(A_j \cap B)}{P(B)} \\&= \frac{P(A_j)P(B|A_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}\end{aligned}$$

Notice how Bayes Theorem “turns around” conditional probabilities.

## Thinking about Bayes theorem in context of inference:

- ▶ Prior: probabilities for each factory having made the device
- ▶ Unknown Parameter: which factory the device came from
- ▶ Data: whether an item is defective
- ▶ Posterior: probability for each factory having made the device given the data



## Moving toward Bayesian Inference: Example

Suppose I have three coins:

1. a “fake” coin where both sides are tails; this coin will always result in a tail.
2. a fair coin; this coin has probabilities of  $1/2$  of being a head on every toss.
3. a “fake” coin where both sides are heads; this coin will always result in a head.

I select one coin at random, i.e., each with probability  $1/3$ .

(a) What is the probability that on three tosses I obtain three heads?

(b) What is the probability that I have coin number 2 (the fair coin) given that I obtain three heads?

(c) Repeat (b) for coin 1 and coin 3.

Solutions:

## Thinking about Bayes theorem in context of inference:

- ▶ Prior: probabilities of selecting each coin
- ▶ Unknown Parameter: which coin was selected
- ▶ Data: how many heads we observed
- ▶ Posterior: probability that the selected coin is number 1, 2, or 3, given the number of observed heads.

## Moving closer to inference with Bayes Theorem

Suppose I run a small clinical trial. Of interest is the proportion of patients who are cured by the treatment. (This is a poorly designed trial because there is no control, but it is just for illustration.)

Let  $\theta$  be the probability that a person is cured.

We don't know  $\theta$ , so we run  $n = 10$  trials and we observe  $X = 7$  successes.

What can we say about  $\theta$  after observing  $X = 7$ ?

## How Bayesian statisticians look at this problem:

We don't know  $\theta$ .

We are uncertain about  $\theta$ .

We express our uncertainty in probabilistic terms. (Classical statisticians, or frequentists, don't do this!)

Before observing any data, we are completely ignorant about the value of  $\theta$ , so let's assume that  $\theta$  can be any of the numbers  $\theta = 0.00, 0.01, 0.02, \dots, 0.99, 1.00$ .

Since we are completely ignorant, we'll assign a prior probability of  $\frac{1}{101}$  to each of these 101 numbers.

## Find the Posterior Probability Distribution

1. What is the probability of observing  $X = 7$ ?
2. What is the probability that  $\theta = 0.50$  given that we observe  $X = 7$ ?
3. Repeat part (2) for an arbitrary value of  $\theta$ .
4. Sketch a graph of the posterior probabilities from part (3).

## Solution

## A continuous prior for $\theta$

Why couldn't  $\theta$  be *any* number between 0 and 1?

Suppose  $\theta$  has a uniform prior distribution over the interval  $[0, 1]$ .  
IOW,

$$p(\theta) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq \theta \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The *likelihood function*, denoted  $L(\theta|x)$  is the (joint) PDF or PMF of  $X$  for a given value of  $\theta$ .

$$L(\theta|x) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n-x}$$



# The Posterior Distribution

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

# Interpreting the Posterior Distribution

1. The posterior distribution reflects what we believe about  $\theta$  after observing the data.
2. If we want a point estimate of  $\theta$ , we can take the posterior mean. (Other options are available.)
3. If we want an interval estimate for  $\theta$ , we could find values  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $P(a < \theta < b) = 1 - \alpha$  for a given  $\alpha$ .





