Introduction to Bayesian inference

Joachim Vandekerckhove

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- Forthcoming (2017) Special issue of Psychonomic Bulletin & Review

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- Bayesian statistics is a set of formal methods for statistical inference, used by statisticians and scientists to make statements about unobserved parameters starting from the observed data
- Not to be confused with "Bayes-in-the-head", a set of psychological theories about how lay humans perform inference in daily life

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- In another meaning—the classical, or frequentist meaning—probability is a statement of expected frequency over many repetitions

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- ► We are not usually interested in the frequency with which a well-defined process will achieve a certain outcome.

The Sum and Product Rules of probability

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These notations can be combined: $P(A, B|\neg C, \neg D)$ is the probability that A and B are both true assuming that C and D are both false.

The Product Rule of probability

With this notation in mind, we introduce the **Product Rule of probability**:

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The **Sum Rule of probability** requires one further concept: the *disjunctive set*:

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 - ► The possible outcomes of a coin flip: {heads, tails}
 - ► The possible outcomes of a roll of a six-sided die: {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}
 - ▶ The truth of some hypothesis H, which must be either true or false: $\{H, \neg H\}$

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- Now there are four possible combinations of *joint events*: $(A, B), (A, \neg B), (\neg A, B), \text{ and } (\neg A, \neg B)$

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▶ In words, the probability it rains today is the sum of two joint probabilities: (1) the probability it rains today and tomorrow, and (2) the probability it rains today but not tomorrow.

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In general, if $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_K\}$ is a disjunctive set, the **Sum Rule** of probability states

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That is, the probability of event A alone is the sum of all the joint probabilities between A and the elements of a disjunctive set.

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Together, these two rules allow us to calculate probabilities in an incredible variety of circumstances. One combination of the two rules in particular is useful for scientific inference is *hypothesis* testing.

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 - Conditional on the truth of an hypothesis, likelihood functions specify the probability of a given outcome and are usually only interpretable in relation to other hypotheses' likelihoods
- ▶ Of interest is the probability that H is true, given the data X, or P(H|X).

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This is one common formulation of **Bayes' Rule**, and analogous versions can be written for each of the other competing hypotheses; for example, Bayes' Rule for $\neg H$ is

$$P(\neg H|X) = \frac{P(\neg H)P(X|\neg H)}{P(X)}.$$

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- ▶ The name varies by how one uses Bayes' Rule
- When one uses it to explain Bayes' Rule, the prior predictive probability of the data P(X) is the probability of observing a given outcome in the experiment, taking into account all the possible hypotheses we are considering

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Which gives a weighted-average probability of observing the outcome.

A more complete formulation of Bayes' Rule

$$P(H|X) = \frac{P(H)P(X|H)}{P(H)P(X|H) + P(\neg H)P(X|\neg H)}.$$

Bayes' Rule is obtained as a necessary consequence of the Product Rule and the Sum Rule of probability.



The Lady Tasting Tea

This story is set in the early 1900s, in a dining hall at Rothamsted Agricultural Experiment Station.

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- But Dr. Muriel protested, preferring her tea prepared the other way (first milk, then infusion)

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- ▶ In the experiment, Dr. Bristol was able to make the correct discrimination five times, but erred on the sixth: RRRRW
- ► So, can she truly tell the difference or not? How do we decide?

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 - Suppose the lady is completely unable to do what she claims she is effectively guessing. Let's call this the null hypothesis, H₀
 - Then try to discredit (*nullify*) H_0 by demonstrating that it makes the data very unlikely (p < .05)

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 - ► The result is said to be "significant" with p = .016

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 - Every possible outcome of the experiment (each of the 64 RWWWW, WRWRW, ...) has the same probability of .016
 - ► So using this reasoning, we would reject the *H*₀ *no matter what the data were*
 - Fisher realized this absurdity, and made a second attempt

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 - The probability of this happening at $P_R = 0.5$ is $6 \times P_R^5 P_W = \frac{6}{64} = 0.094$
 - ▶ No longer "significant" at .05!

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 - Consider a bigger tea-tasting study with 256 trials
 - ► The lady performs exactly at chance level, with 128R and 128W (the most likely pattern)
 - Each pattern has a probability of 2^{-256}
 - \triangleright ... but there are 5.7 \times 10⁷5 of these "128R, 128W" patterns
 - ▶ $p = 5.7 \times 10^{75} \times 2^{-256} \approx .049$, and we again reject H_0 for every possible outcome

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 - ▶ If 1 error in 6 is significant, surely so is no error, or 6 R's
 - We compute p as the probability of observing data that is at least as extreme as the real data, assuming that H_0 is true
 - Absurdly, we now use as evidence an imaginary data pattern (RRRRR) that we did not observe and that no hypothesis we hold predicts (more on this in a moment)

► Fisher's third attempt is now the dominant statistical paradigm in psychology

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 - For the outcome RRRRRW, there are 5 others as extreme and 1, with no errors, more extreme, giving 7 cases in all and a total probability of $7 \times 2^{-6} = .109$, not significant at 5%

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- ► In this example, Fisher takes other possibilities with 6 pairs of cups
- ▶ But why fix 6? Did they decide that in advance, or did Dr. Bristol have a meeting to go to after tea? Had the cups been prepared less efficiently, might she have done fewer?

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- ► This is absurd! What does it matter what might have happened, but didn't?

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But $p(x|H_0)$ is not what we are after—we are interested in $p(H_0|x)$.

An alternative analysis

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- To answer this consider another lady...