Statistical Inference, pt. I

ECON 3640-001

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Motivation

Housekeeping

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Notes based on Johnson et al. (2022):
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- Chapters 1 and 2
- Available here

The road so far

After studying descriptive statistics and probability theory, it is time **combine** these two areas and produce **informed conclusions** about a problem of interest.

This is the process of **statistical inference**.

Over the next few weeks, we will approach this topic from **both** Bayesian and classical (frequentist) perspectives.

We start with the *Bayesian*.

Regardless of the approach one adopts for inference, the main interest is to learn from data.

This process allows one to make *predictions*, evaluate *hypotheses*, fit statistical *models*, and so on.

Both approaches will also draw conclusions based on **sample data**.

The key distinction lies in the **logic** and **interpretations** derived from each point of view.

While for a frequentist a probability means a *long-run relative frequency* of a repeatable event, a Bayesian defines it as a *measure of relative plausibility* of an event.

Moreover, a frequentist assumes that the data alone drives any further information.

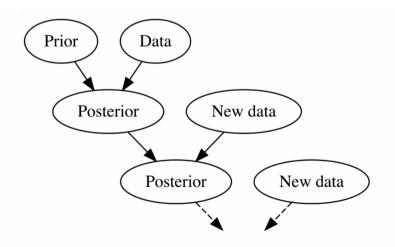
A Bayesian, on the other hand, uses data **along** with incoming (*prior*) information.

This way, while a Bayesian asks: "in light of these data, what is the plausibility of my hypothesis being correct?"; a frequentist asks: "in case my hypothesis is not correct, what are the odds of having observed such data?"

As we accumulate life experiences (i.e., incorporate new information), we **update** our knowledge about our interests and surroundings.

Thus, it is almost impossible not to use some **previous background** (prior information) when trying to answer a question.

Whether one's previous knowledge will be *overwhelmed* by reality or not is at the crux of the Bayesian inferential process.



Before we move on, let us recall some key probability concepts that we will use in a moment.

- Marginal probability: an unconditional probability, describing the behavior of a single variable.
 - P(A)
- Joint probability: a statement about the simultaneous behavior of two (or more) variables.
 - ∘ P(A and B)
- Conditional probability: describes how one event is dependent upon another event.
 - ∘ P(A | B)

Now, recall the **mathematical definition** of a conditional probability:

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

And since $P(A \cap B) = P(B \cap A)$, we can rewrite the above as

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

... which is **Bayes' theorem**.

Now, we can replace events A and B with other elements. The usual notation is as follows:

$$P(heta|y) = rac{P(heta) \ P(y| heta)}{P(y)}$$

where θ may be a population *parameter*, a specific *hypothesis*, or whatever the researcher's *interest* may be.

And y is the available data/information they have.

 $P(\theta \mid y)$ is known as a **posterior distribution**.

Each element in Bayes' theorem has a special name and function.

- $P(\theta)$ is the **prior** belief/information we incorporate into our analysis.
 - Notice that it is a marginal probability, thus reflecting what we know about the subject before seeing any data.
- $P(y|\theta)$ is the **likelihood** function.
 - It describes the ways in which we can observe the data (y), **given that our hypothesis** (θ) **is true**. It quantifies the extent to which the evidence supports our proposition.
- P(y) is the **marginal likelihood** (aka denominator, normalizing constant, probability of the data).
 - It can be interpreted as the probability of observing the data under all possible scenarios.

Since the denominator in Bayes' theorem is simply a normalizing constant, we can rewrite it as

$$P(\theta|y) \propto P(\theta) P(y|\theta)$$

where the \propto symbol means "proportional to."

In other words, the normalizing constant's function is to *ensure* that the posterior is a *proper probability distribution*.

• i.e., sums/integrates to 1.

This is especially *convenient* since, for complex situations, properly calculating the denominator may be *computationally expensive*.

Suppose we are interested in the underlying *proportion* of Bayesians vs. frequentists in the Social Science fields.

We then gather some data from surveys, asking people whether they would define themselves as frequentists or Bayesians.

In terms of Bayes' theorem, we have

$$P(heta|y) = rac{P(heta) \; P(y| heta)}{P(y)}$$

where θ is the entire population proportion of Bayesians (B) to frequentists (F), and y is the data from the survey.

Let us understand this setting logical and graphically.

Assume we interview 4 people, and you do not know how many are B and how many are F.

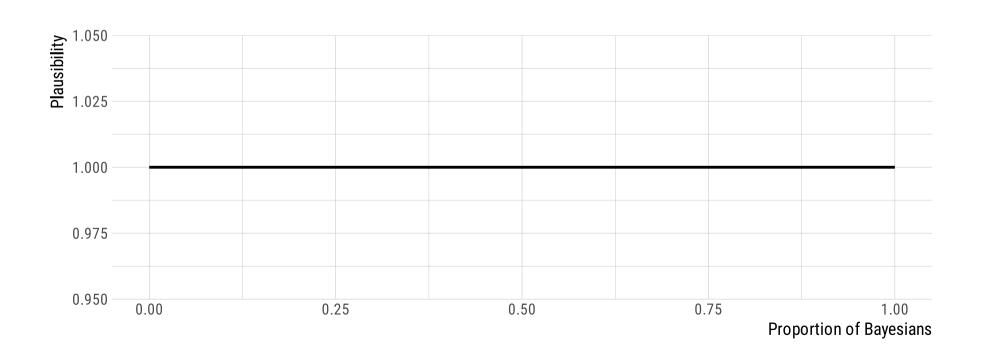
What are the **possible outcomes** from this experiment?

After we know the ways in which we can observe the outcomes, how do we use this information for **inference** about the proportion of interest?

For simplicity, let us assume that, before seeing any data, any proportion is equally likely.

What does this imply?

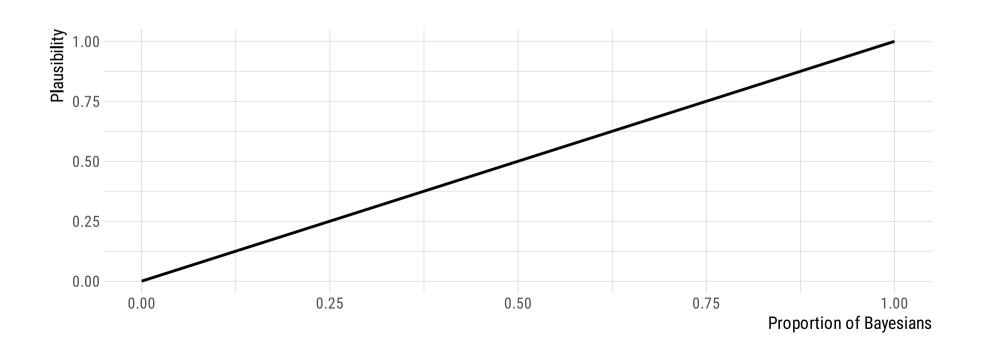
$$heta \sim \mathrm{Unif}(0,1)$$



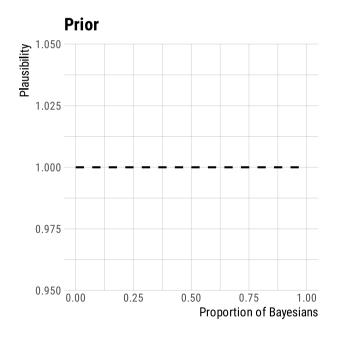
How do we define $P(y|\theta)$?

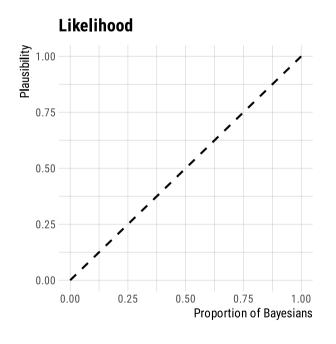
The survey follows a binomial experiment.

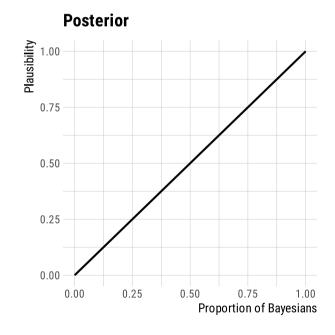
Now, assume we ask the first person, and she answers "Bayesian."



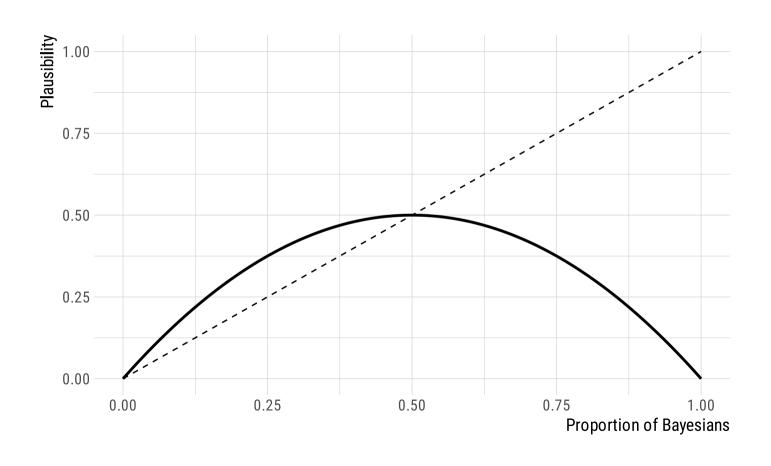
Combining prior and likelihood...



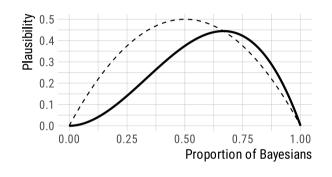


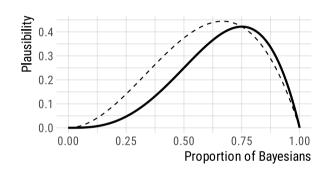


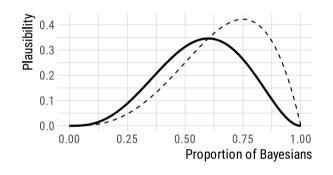
Now, we ask a second person. She answers "Frequentist."

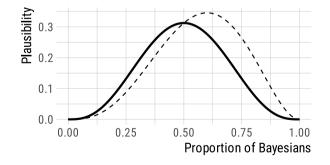


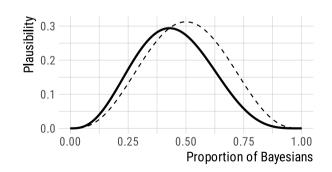
And off we go...

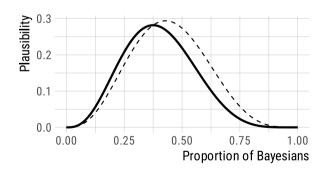












What Bayes's theorem (and Bayesian inference) does is **updating** previous plausibilities in light of new data, producing a *new set* of plausibilities (the posterior distribution).

Next time: More examples!