

# Bayesian Statistics

## Basics



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# Bayes' theorem

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- ▶  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|\bar{A})P(\bar{A})}$
- ▶ Suppose we have a model  $y|\theta \sim p(y|\theta)$ 
  - ▶  $y$ : data
  - ▶  $\theta$ : parameter
- ▶ Prior distribution:  $p(\theta)$ 
  - ▶ Very often, the notation  $\pi(\theta)$  is used
- ▶ Posterior distribution:
  - ▶  $p(\theta, y) = p(\theta)p(y|\theta)$
  - ▶  $p(y) = \sum_{\theta} p(\theta)p(y|\theta)$
  - ▶  $p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(\theta, y)}{p(y)} = \frac{p(\theta)p(y|\theta)}{p(y)} \propto p(\theta)p(y|\theta)$

# Likelihood principle

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- ▶ Likelihood Principle. In the inference about  $\theta$ , after  $y$  is observed, all relevant experimental information is contained in the likelihood function for the observed  $y$ . Furthermore, two likelihood functions contain the same information about  $\theta$  if they are proportional to each other.
- ▶ Consider testing the fairness of a coin.
$$H_0: \theta = \frac{1}{2} \text{ vs } H_1: \theta > \frac{1}{2}$$
- ▶ Data: An experiment is conducted and 9 heads and 3 tails are observed.

# Two possible experiments

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- ▶ Binomial: 12 toss in total
- ▶ Negative binomial: keep tossing until getting three tails
- ▶ Likelihoods are proportional
- ▶ Conclusions based on pvalues are contradictory → violation of likelihood principle
- ▶ Bayesian method has no difficulty → the same conclusion under both scenarios

# What did Bayes solve initially? → Binomial model

## Thomas Bayes

Thomas Bayes was an English mathematician and Presbyterian minister, known for having formulated a specific case of the theorem that bears his name: Bayes' theorem. [Wikipedia](#)

Born: 1701, [London](#)

Died: April 7, 1761, [Royal Tunbridge Wells](#)

Education: [University of Edinburgh](#)



## Pierre-Simon Laplace

Pierre-Simon, marquis de Laplace was a French mathematician and astronomer whose work was pivotal to the development of mathematical astronomy and statistics. [Wikipedia](#)

Born: March 23, 1749, [Beaumont-en-Auge](#)

Died: March 5, 1827, [Paris](#)

Education: [Caen University](#)

Spouse: [Marie-Charlotte de Courty de Romanges](#)

Books: [A philosophical essay on probabilities](#)



- ▶ A ball  $W$  is randomly thrown (according to a uniform distribution) on a rectangular table. The horizontal position of the ball on the table is  $\theta$ , expressed as a fraction of the table width.
- ▶ A ball  $O$  is randomly thrown  $n$  times. The value of  $y$  is the number of times  $O$  lands to the right of  $W$ .
- ▶ Question: What is the “inverse probability”  $P(\theta_1 < \theta < \theta_2 | y)$ ?

# In the Bayesian language

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- ▶ **Prior distribution** of  $\theta$ :  $U[0,1]$
- ▶ **Likelihood**:  $p(y|\theta)$ , i.e.  $y|\theta \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$
- ▶ **Posterior probability**

$$\begin{aligned} P(\theta_1 < \theta < \theta_2 | y) &= \frac{P(\theta_1 < \theta < \theta_2, y)}{p(y)} \\ &= \frac{\int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} p(y|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta}{p(y)} = \frac{\int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \binom{n}{y} \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y} d\theta}{p(y)} \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ **Marginal distribution**: Bayes succeeded in evaluating the denominator, for  $y = 0, \dots, n$ ,

$$p(y) = \int_0^1 \binom{n}{y} \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y} d\theta = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

- ▶ All possible values of  $y$  are equally likely *a priori*

# Laplace's application

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- ▶ Estimate the proportion of female births in a population.
- ▶ A total of 241,945 girls and 251,527 boys were born in Paris from 1745 to 1770.
- ▶ What is the probability the female birth rate is above 50%?
- ▶ Let  $\theta$  be the probability that any birth is female, Laplace showed that

$$P(\theta \geq 0.5 | y = 241945, n = 241945 + 251527) \\ \approx 1.15 \times 10^{-42}$$

# Posterior distribution

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$$p(\theta|y) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta) = \theta^y(1 - \theta)^{n-y}$$

- ▶ What is it?
  - ▶ In general, we will need to find the normalizing constant  $c^{-1} = \int \theta^y(1 - \theta)^{n-y}d\theta$ . But generally, this can be difficult to solve.
  - ▶ Alternative solution: Look up among commonly known probability distributions
    - ▶ Here, we can see this is a beta distribution,  $beta(n + 1, n - y + 1)$
  - ▶ What if it does not belong to any commonly known distribution?
    - ▶ Use simulation
    - ▶ But how do we simulate from a distribution when we do not know the normalizing constant?



# Prediction

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- ▶ Interested in the outcome of one new trial
- ▶ Let  $\tilde{y}$  denote the outcome of a new trial, and it is exchangeable with the previous  $n$  trials
  - ▶ Exchangeability:  $n$  values of  $y_i$  are regarded as exchangeable if the joint probability density  $p(y_1, \dots, y_n)$  is invariant to permutations of the indexes.
    - ▶ Independently and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables are exchangeable
- ▶ **Predictive distribution:**

$$\begin{aligned} P(\tilde{y} = 1|y) &= \int_0^1 p(\tilde{y} = 1|\theta, y)p(\theta|y)d\theta = \int_0^1 \theta p(\theta|y)d\theta \\ &= E(\theta|y) = \frac{y+1}{n+2} \end{aligned}$$

# Some general facts about Bayesian inference

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- ▶ On average, posterior distribution is less variable than the prior distribution
  - ▶  $\text{var}(\theta) = E(\text{var}(\theta|y)) + \text{var}(E(\theta|y)) \geq E(\text{var}(\theta|y))$
  - ▶ Prior variance:  $\text{var}(\theta)$
  - ▶ Posterior variance:  $\text{var}(\theta|y)$
- ▶ Sequential updates in Bayesian inference
  - ▶ Prior:  $p(\theta)$
  - ▶ After the first batch data of  $y_1 \rightarrow p(\theta|y_1) \propto p(y_1|\theta)p(\theta)$
  - ▶ After the second batch data of  $y_2$  (assume it is conditionally independent with  $y_1$ )  $\rightarrow p(\theta|y_1, y_2) \propto p(y_2|\theta)p(\theta|y_1) \propto p(y_2|\theta)p(y_1|\theta)p(\theta) = p(y_1, y_2|\theta)p(\theta)$
  - ▶ This is the same as if we have  $y_1, y_2$  together

# Some general facts about Bayesian inference (cont)

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- ▶ Inference can be performed based on the sufficient statistics
  - ▶ Sufficient statistics
    - ▶ Heuristic definition: We say  $T$  is a sufficient statistic if the statistician who knows the value of  $T$  can do just as good a job of estimating the unknown parameter  $\theta$  as the statistician who knows the entire random sample.
    - ▶ Mathematical definition: A statistic  $T$  is a *sufficient statistic* if for each  $t$ , the conditional distribution of data given  $T = t$  and  $\theta$  does not depend on  $\theta$ .
- ▶ For example,  $y|\theta \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$ , this model can be viewed as summarized from i.i.d. *Bernoulli*( $\theta$ ) random variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , where  $y = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$ . One can show that  $\theta|y$  and  $\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n$  have the same distribution.

# How to identify sufficient statistics?

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## ► Factorization theorem

- Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample (i.i.d. random variables) from a distribution with density  $p_\theta(x)$ . Then  $T(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is a sufficient statistic of  $\theta$  if and only if

$$\prod_{i=1}^n p_\theta(x_i) = g(T, \theta) h(X_1, \dots, X_n),$$

where

- $g(T, \theta)$  depends on the data only through the statistic  $T$ ,
  - $h(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  depends on the data but is the same for every  $\theta$ .
- Example:  $\bar{X}$  is a sufficient statistic of  $\mu$  for data from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  if  $\sigma^2$  is known.

- ▶ Consider  $y|\theta \sim p(y|\theta)$  and  $T$  is a sufficient statistic of  $\theta$
- ▶ By factorization theorem, we can write  $p(y|\theta) = p(T|\theta)h(y)$
- ▶ Then

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta|y) &= \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)} = \frac{p(T|\theta)h(y)p(\theta)}{\int p(T|\theta)h(y)p(\theta)d\theta} \\ &= \frac{p(T|\theta)p(\theta)}{\int p(T|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta} = \frac{p(T|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(T)} = p(\theta|T) \end{aligned}$$

# Some important results from probability theory

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- ▶ Conditional expectation:  $E(X) = E[E(X|Y)]$
- ▶ Conditional variance:  $\text{var}(X) = E[\text{var}(X|Y)] + \text{var}[E(X|Y)]$
- ▶ Change-of-variable formula
  - ▶  $Y = g(X)$ : one-to-one transformation

$$p_y(\mathbf{y}) = p_x(\mathbf{x}) \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \right) \right| = p_x(\mathbf{x}) |\det \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{y} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}}| = p_x(\mathbf{x}) |J_{\mathbf{y} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}}|$$

- ▶ Jacobian matrix

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{y}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial(y_1, \dots, y_m)}{\partial(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial y_m}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

# Simulate normal random variables: Box-Muller transformation

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For the Box-Muller transform, we require two random variables  $U, V$ , uniformly distributed on  $[0, 1]$ . Set

$$R = \sqrt{-2 \log V} \quad \text{and} \quad \Theta = 2\pi U.$$

and

$$Z_1 = R \cos \Theta = \sqrt{-2 \log V} \cos(2\pi U), \quad \text{and} \quad Z_2 = \sqrt{-2 \log V} \sin(2\pi U).$$

Then  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent standard normal random variables. To obtain two standard normal random variables with correlation  $\rho$ , take

$$X = Z_1 \quad \text{and} \quad Y = \rho Z_1 + \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} Z_2.$$