

Bayesian Analysis

Bayes' Rule

Bayes' rule (or Bayes' theorem) was named after Thomas Bayes (1701-1761), letting A and B be two events,

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

- Math to English translation:
 - $P(A)$: probability that event A happens
 - $P(A | B)$: given that event B happens, the probability that event A happens
- The proof of Bayes' rule is straight-forward (ignoring technical assumptions)

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A | B)P(B) = P(B | A)P(A)$$

Here $P(A \cap B)$ is the probability that events A and (" \cap ") event B both happen

Example

Scenario: A student takes a rapid COVID test and it comes back **positive**.

Assume the following:

- The test is 95% for infected individuals: $P(\text{Positive} | \text{COVID}) = 0.95$
- The test gives a false positive 3% of the time: $P(\text{Positive} | \text{No COVID}) = 0.03$
- Only 1% of people in the school currently have COVID: $P(\text{COVID}) = 0.01$

But how likely is it that the student is actually infected ($P(\text{COVID} | \text{Positive})$)?

Solution

Step 1: Bayes' Rule

We want to find $P(\text{COVID} | \text{Positive})$ using

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

where $A \equiv$ has COVID and $B \equiv$ tests positive

Step 2: Compute total probability of a positive test

$$P(B) = P(B | A) \times P(A) + P(B | \text{not } A) \times P(\text{not } A) = 0.95 \times 0.01 + 0.03 \times 0.99 =$$

Step 3: Apply Bayes' Rule

$$P(A | B) = \frac{0.95 \cdot 0.01}{0.0392} = \frac{0.0095}{0.0392} \approx 0.242$$

Conclusion: Even after a positive test, there's not even 50% chance that the student actually has COVID.

Bayes' Rule in Statistical Modeling

Recall Bayes' rule

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

Let $A \equiv \{\text{True parameter equals } \theta\}$ and $B \equiv \{\text{Observe dataset } \mathcal{D}\}$. We can write

$$P(\theta | \mathcal{D}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D} | \theta) P(\theta)}{P(\mathcal{D})}$$

- $P(\theta)$ **Prior** belief/distribution about parameter θ
- $P(\mathcal{D} | \theta)$: **Likelihood** of seeing data \mathcal{D} if θ were true
- $P(\theta | \mathcal{D})$: **Posterior** belief *after* seeing data
- $P(\mathcal{D})$: Evidence/normalizing constant

Bayesian vs. Frequentist Thinking

Feature	Frequentist	Bayesian
Parameters (θ)	Fixed but unknown	Random variables with distributions
Data (D)	Random draw from population	Observed <i>fixed</i> evidence
Estimand	Point estimate $\hat{\theta}$	Full posterior $P(\theta D)$
Inference output	Confidence intervals	Full posterior $P(\theta D)$, credible interval

Both a powerful tools for data analysis:

- Use Frequentist methods for its convenience and "objectivity"
- Use Bayesian methods to incorporate prior knowledge, combine multi-view data, handle network data

Recipe for Bayesian Analysis

1. Choose a prior $P(\theta)$
 - Encodes what we believe *before* seeing data
 - Should be chosen *before* looking at the data to avoid double-counting
2. Write down the likelihood $P(D | \theta)$
 - Comes from the data-generating model (e.g., Binomial for coin flips)
3. Obtain the posterior $P(\theta | D) \propto P(\theta)P(D | \theta)$
 - A. Analytic solution for *conjugate* pairs of prior and likelihood
 - B. Sampling from the posterior
 - C. Approximation (variational inference)
4. Summarize and inference
 - Posterior mean, median, credible interval
 - Posterior predictive distribution for new data

Examples

1. [One sample test of means \(freq v.s. bayes\)](#)
2. [Conjugate priors v.s. sampling](#)
3. [Variational inference](#)