

Basic Bayesian Ideas

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Bayesian paradigm

- Probability distributions are used to model uncertain *knowledge*
- The goal of statistics is to investigate how this model changes when new information ("data") is received
- Examples:
 - Is a hypothesis true or not? Hypotheses that are initially unlikely needs more evidence
 - Knowledge about a value before and after it has been measured

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Updating knowledge

- Knowledge is updated when new information limits the possible "states of the world"
- The prior probability is rescaled to a smaller set.
- Often: We formulate our model so that θ represents what we want to know about, and y the "data" we will observe. Knowledge is represented as a joint probability distribution on both.
- The use of Bayes formula is a consequence of this setup.

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Bayes formula: Bayesian modelling

- Bayes formula: $\pi(\theta | y) = \frac{\pi(y | \theta)\pi(\theta)}{\pi(y)}$
 - θ : The parameter of interest (may have two possible values, many possible values, or be a continuous variable with one or more dimensions)
 - y : The observed data
 - $\pi(y | \theta)$: The probability of data y for a value of θ (likelihood)
 - $\pi(\theta)$: The prior, initial distribution for θ .
 - $\pi(\theta | y)$: The posterior distribution for θ , given the data
 - $\pi(y)$: The total probability for the given data y .
- Example, when θ is either 0 or 1:

$$\pi(\theta | y) = \frac{\pi(y | \theta)\pi(\theta)}{\pi(y | \theta = 1)\pi(\theta = 1) + \pi(y | \theta = 0)\pi(\theta = 0)}$$

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Example: Hemofiliac disease

- $\Theta=1$ or 0 : A mother (M) is a carrier of hemofiliac disease or not.
- Known: Mother of M is carrier, husband of M is healthy, son of M is healthy.
- Bayesian formulation:
 - Prior, given that mother of M is carrier:
 $p(\theta=1)=0.5$
 - Likelihood: $p(\text{healthy son} | \theta=1)=0.5$, $p(\text{healthy son} | \theta=0)=1$.
 - Find posterior for θ
 - Find predictions of health for second child.

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Example with two possible values for θ

- Assume about half of all people have trait A, but it is hard to observe directly. We know that 99% of all people with trait A also have trait B, whereas only 90% of all people without trait A have trait B. Given a person with trait B, what is the probability he has trait A?
- We code the information as
 - $\pi(A=1) = \pi(A=0) = 0.5$
 - $\pi(B=1|A=1) = 0.99$
 - $\pi(B=1|A=0) = 0.90$
- Solution:

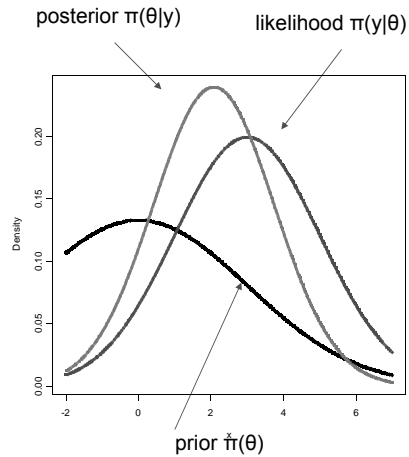
$$\pi(A=1|B=1) = \frac{\pi(B=1|A=1)\pi(A=1)}{\pi(B=1|A=1)\pi(A=1) + \pi(B=1|A=0)\pi(A=0)} = \frac{0.99 \cdot 0.5}{0.99 \cdot 0.5 + 0.90 \cdot 0.5} = 0.52$$

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Bayes formula with continuous θ

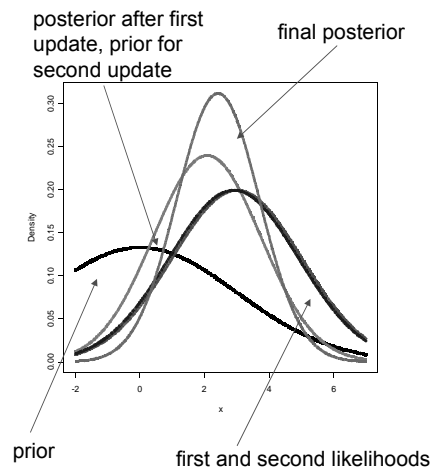
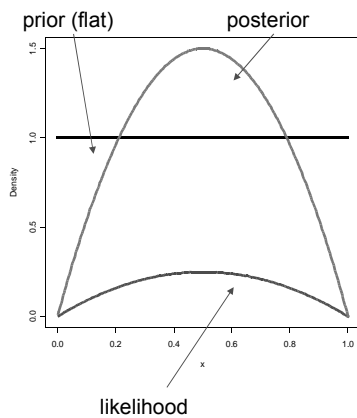
$$\pi(\theta | y) = \frac{\pi(y | \theta)\pi(\theta)}{\pi(y)}$$

- Now, $\pi(\theta | y)$ and $\pi(\theta)$ are continuous probability distributions for θ , and $\pi(y | \theta)$ is the likelihood function
- Fixing y we get $\pi(\theta | y) \propto \pi(y | \theta)\pi(\theta)$ meaning that the two sides are proportional as functions of θ .



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Examples



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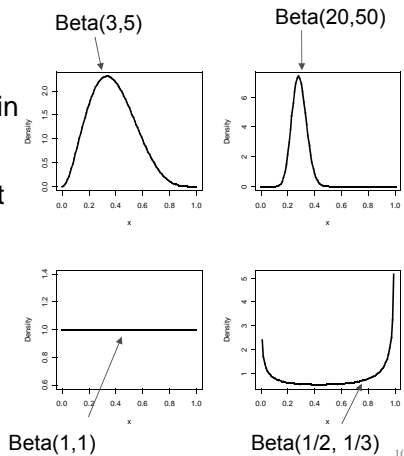
Combining information from different sources

- In general the knowledge about θ is held in a probability distribution.
- This probability distribution is updated when new data is considered, by multiplying it with the likelihood function, and scaling it so that it integrates to 1.
- The resulting posterior distribution can then be used as a new prior distribution which can be updated with further data.

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Example: The Beta distribution

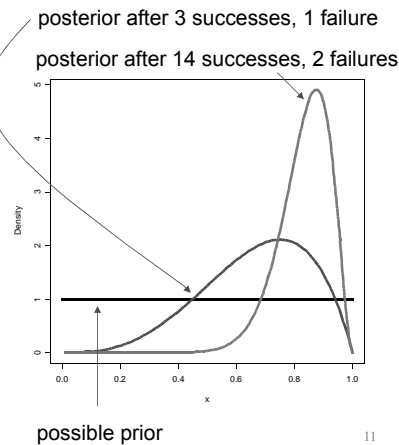
- The Beta distribution $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ is a distribution for numbers in the interval $[0,1]$.
- The probability distribution for θ when it is $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ is proportional to $\theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$
- Expectation $\alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$, variance $\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$
- R-functions dbeta and rbeta



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Using the Beta distribution for probabilities

- If p has a Beta distribution and you make a new observation whose probability for "success" is p , then the posterior distribution for p is also Beta.
- More precisely, if the prior for p is $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ and y is "success", then the posterior for p is $\text{Beta}(\alpha + 1, \beta)$, if y is a "failure", then the posterior is $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta + 1)$
- More generally, observing x successes and y failures gives the posterior $\text{Beta}(\alpha + x, \beta + y)$.



Example: Estimating a probability

- Assume you want to learn about the probability p for individuals from your species to have a certain condition. You investigate 3 individuals, and they all have the condition. What can you say about p ?
- If you believe that, apriori, any value of p is as likely as any other, use a $\text{Beta}(1, 1)$ prior. The posterior for p becomes $\text{Beta}(4, 1)$. The expected value for p is now $4/5 = 0.8$.
- Another approach is to make an estimate p_0 for p , as $p_0 = 3/3 = 1$. When is this a reasonable guess?
- Several other priors for p are reasonable, and used in many situations.

Example: Allele database

- DNA "fingerprinting" is dependent on establishing a database of the frequencies of different alleles at different genetical loci. This should be done separately for separate populations.
- It is then customary to say estimate the probability of observing an allele in this population is equal to its frequency in the database.
- If an allele has not been observed yet in the population, is it reasonable to say that the probability of observing it is zero?
- One solution: Use a prior for the probabilities assigning some low probability for each possible allele, and then update it with information from database

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Comparison with classical statistics

- In classical statistics, we have
 - An unknown parameter of interest
 - A model for how data depends on the parameter
 - A way to estimate the parameter from data
 - "Confidence intervals" for estimates, p-values for hypotheses
- Example: Getting an estimate, with confidence interval, from measurements.
- Classical methods can generally be described in the Bayesian setting, and vice versa
- "Bayesian methods": Applying Bayesian paradigm to situations where combination of information from different sources is central.

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