

# Bayesian Statistics

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# Probability Theory

Approach	Probability definition
Frequentist Statistical Inference	$P(A)$ = long-run relative frequency with which $A$ occurs in identical repeats of an experiment. “ $A$ ” restricted to propositions about random variables.
Bayesian Inference	$P(A B)$ = a real number measure of the plausibility of a proposition/hypothesis $A$ , given (conditional on) the truth of the information represented by proposition $B$ . “ $A$ ” can be any logical proposition, <i>not</i> restricted to propositions about random variables.

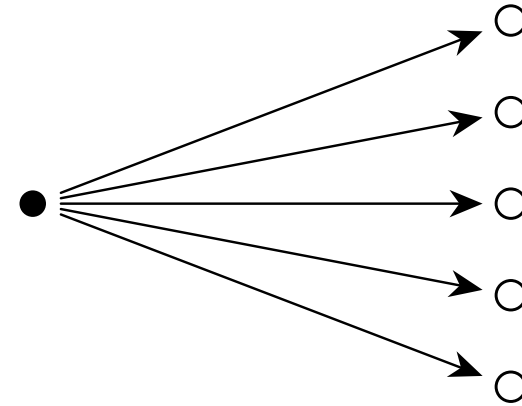
# Bayesian Statistics

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## Deductive Logic

(a)

Cause

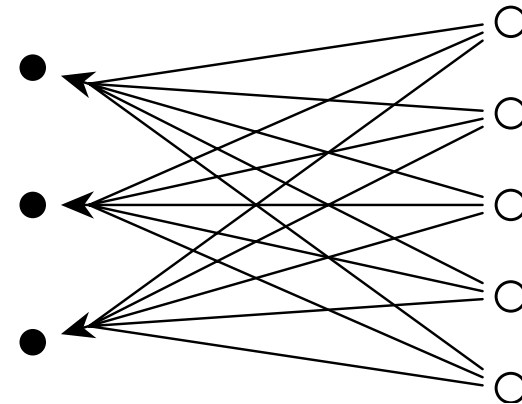


Effects  
or  
outcomes

## Inductive Logic

(b)

Possible  
causes



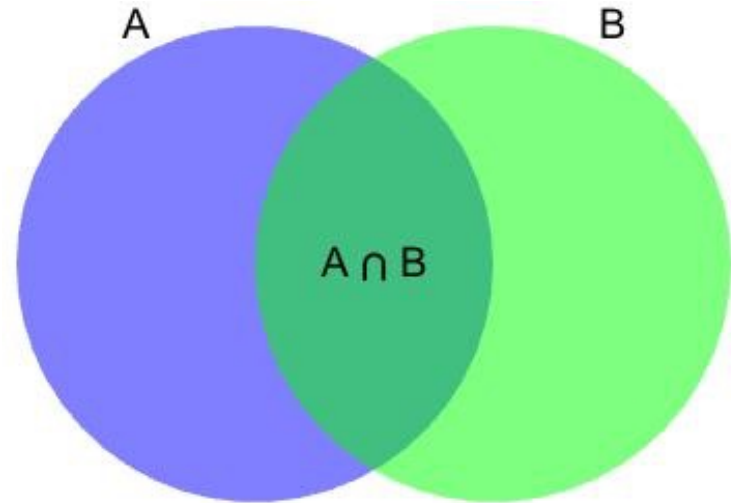
Effects  
or  
observations

# Bayesian Statistics

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## Conditional Probability

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



$P(A)$  Observing the data.

$P(B)$  The theory is true.

$P(A | B)$  The data is observed given that the theory is true

# Bayesian Statistics

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## Symmetry Rule

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

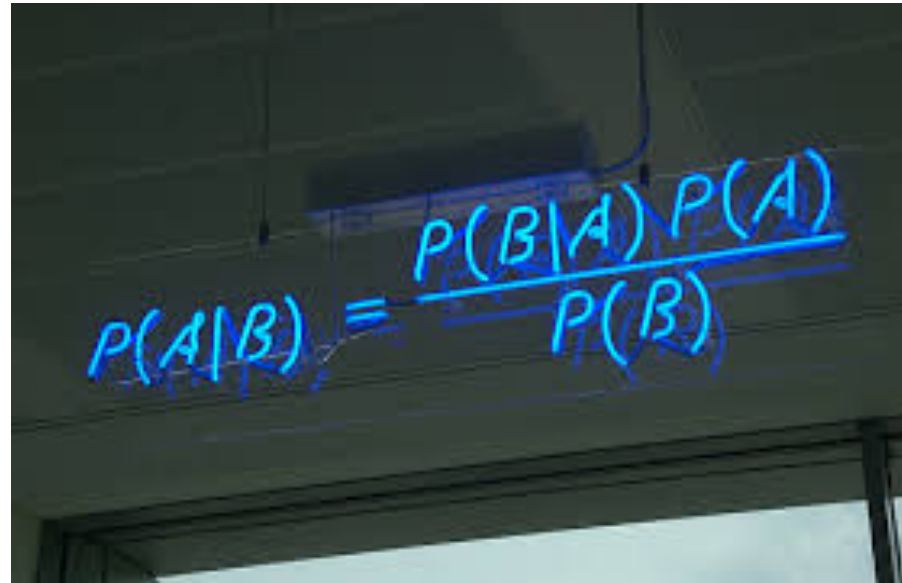
$$P(B|A)P(A) = P(A|B)P(B)$$

## Bayesian Rule

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

# Bayesian Statistics

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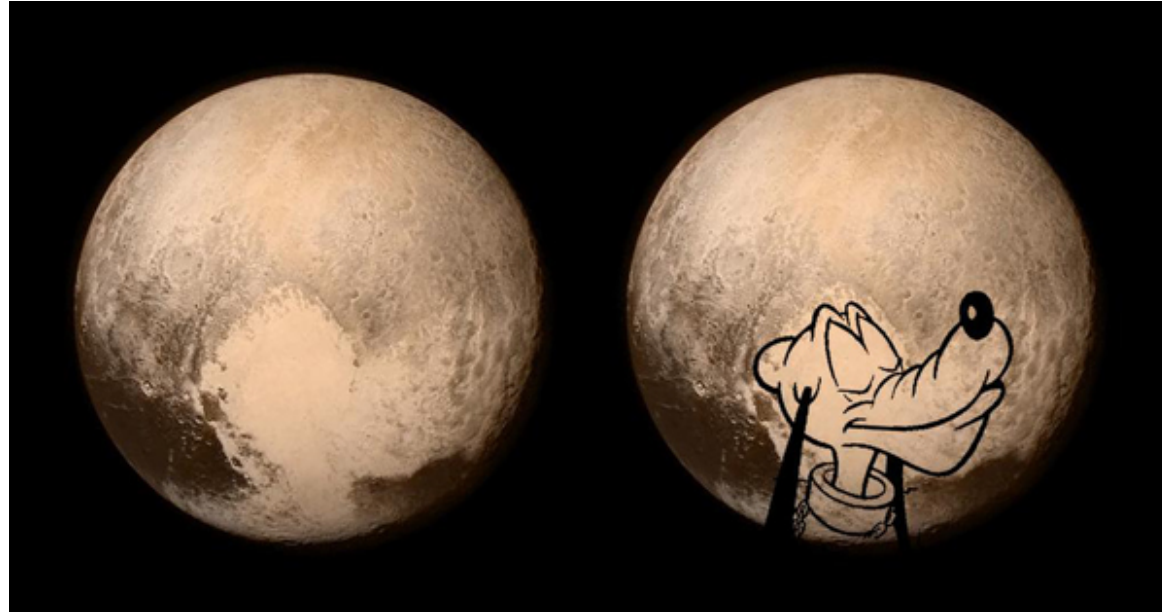


A photograph of a whiteboard with the Bayesian formula written in blue marker. The formula is  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$ . The whiteboard is slightly tilted and the background is dark.

**"There are no problems left in statistics except the assessment of probability"**

# Bayesian Statistics

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$$P(A | B) \neq P(B | A)$$

# Bayesian Statistics

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$$P(H | D) = \frac{P(D | H)P(H)}{P(D)}$$

$P(H)$	Probability that the hypothesis is true.	<b>Prior</b>
$P(D   H)$	Probability that the data is observed given that the hypothesis is true.	<b>Likelihood</b>
$P(D)$	Probability that the collections of data is liable.	<b>Evidence</b>
$P(H   D)$	Probability that the hypothesis is true given that the data is true.	<b>Posterior</b>



# Bayesian Statistics

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- A theory usually have many parameters, for example, a two-parameter model

$$\Theta = \{\Theta_1, \Theta_2\}$$

- The **hypothesis** is the assumption that the parameter have a particular value for example

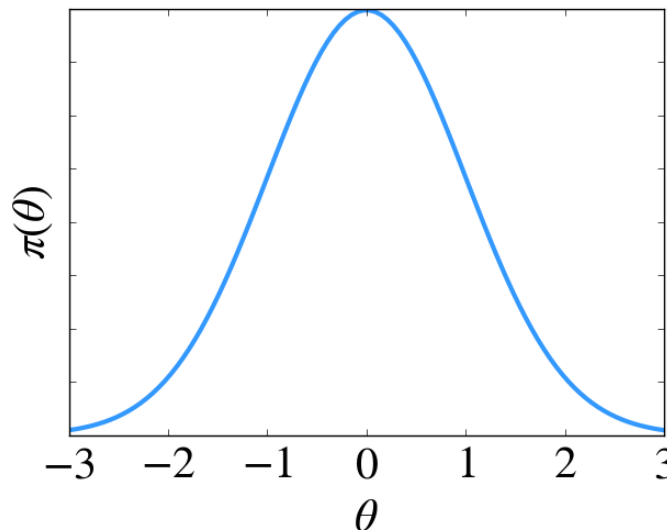
$$H_1 : \theta_1 = 1.0 \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_2 = 2.0$$

$$H_1 \equiv \theta_1 = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$$

# Bayesian Statistics

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- The prior probability is the distribution of the parameters we know before the experiment **(degree of believe)**.
- We can have a **uniform distribution** for total ignorance or a **normal distribution** if **mean** and **standard deviation** are given.



# Bayesian Statistics

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- The **evidence** is usually considered as a normalization constants — nothing to do with **parameter estimations**.

$$P(\theta | \mathbf{x}) \propto \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x} | \theta) \pi(\theta)$$

- However, the **evidence** is important **model comparison**.

# Bayesian Statistics

- In most cases, we are working the logarithm of the likelihood function called **log-likelihood**

$$L(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log_e \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Expanding around the maximum of the **log-likelihood** at  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$  i.e.

$$\left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_\alpha} \right|_{\boldsymbol{\theta}=\boldsymbol{\theta}_0} = 0$$

$$L(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = L(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha, \beta} \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_\alpha} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_\beta} \right|_{\boldsymbol{\theta}=\boldsymbol{\theta}_0} (\theta_\alpha - \theta_{\alpha 0}) (\theta_\beta - \theta_{\beta 0})$$

# Bayesian Statistics

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- We define the **precision matrix**  $\mathbf{P}$  as

$$L(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = L(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^T \cdot \mathbf{P} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$$

where

$$\mathbf{P}_{\alpha\beta} \equiv \left. \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial \theta_\alpha \partial \theta_\beta} \right|_{\boldsymbol{\theta}=\boldsymbol{\theta}_0}$$

- The **log likelihood** is given by

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^T \cdot \mathbf{P} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)\right)$$

# Bayesian Statistics

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- The inverse of the **precision matrix** is called **covariance matrix**

$$\mathbf{P} \equiv \mathbf{C}^{-1}$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)^T \cdot \mathbf{C}^{-1} \cdot (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)\right)$$

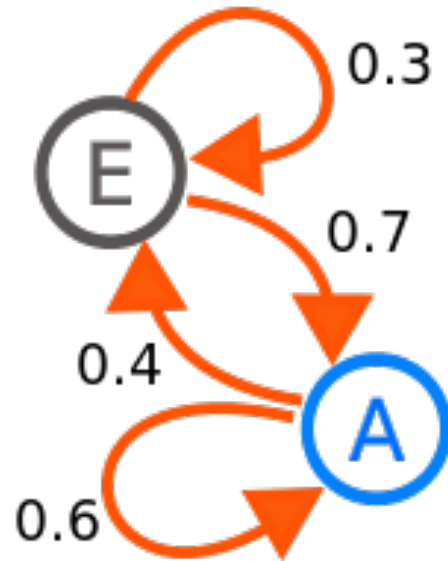
- The variance of the parameter can be estimated as

$$\text{Var}(\theta_\alpha) = C_{\alpha\alpha}$$

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

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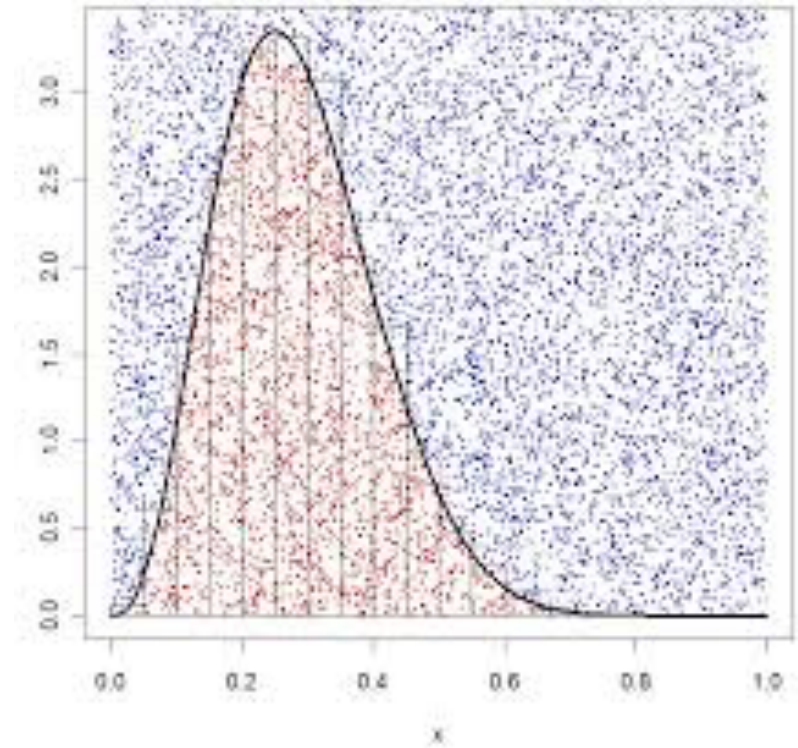
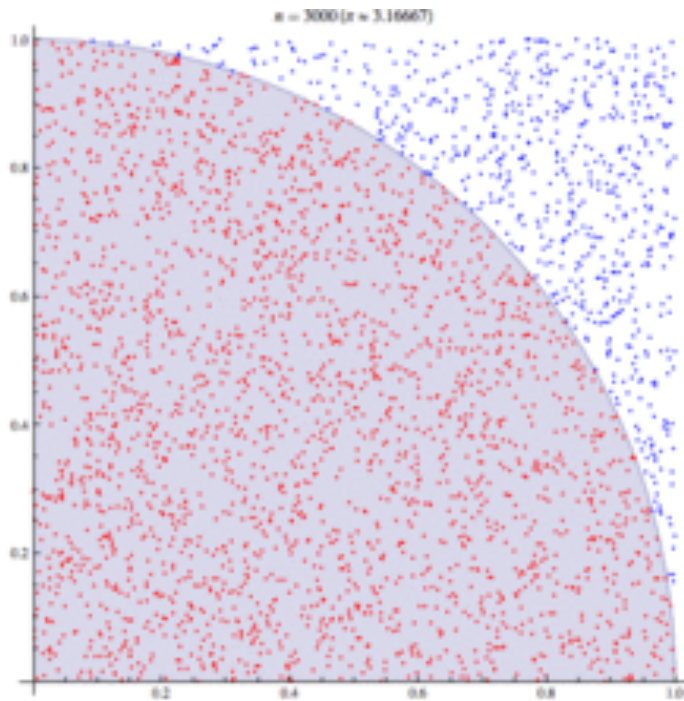
A **Markov chain** is a chain of states in a parameter space that is "memoryless" (Markov property).



How the state change depends only on the **current state**.

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

A **Monte Carlo** is a method using random walk to generate the output.



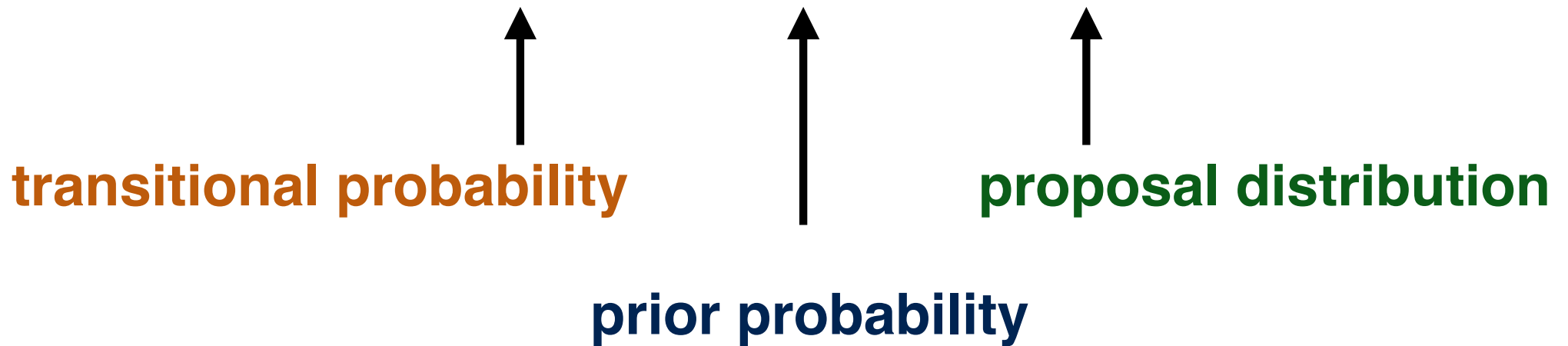


# Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

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The **Metropolis-Hastings algorithm** is an algorithm for random walks that will eventually converge to a true distribution of the parameter space.

$$P(\theta_1 \rightarrow \theta_2) \propto \pi(\theta_1) q(\theta_1 \rightarrow \theta_2)$$



# Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

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The change of state from  $\theta_1$  to  $\theta_2$  is governed by the **acceptance rate**

$$\alpha(\theta_1 \rightarrow \theta_2) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(\theta_2) q(\theta_2 \rightarrow \theta_1)}{\pi(\theta_1) q(\theta_1 \rightarrow \theta_2)} \right\}$$

We are assumed an equilibrium state; hence,

$$q(\theta_1 \rightarrow \theta_2) = q(\theta_2 \rightarrow \theta_1)$$

Therefore,

$$\alpha(\theta_1 \rightarrow \theta_2) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(\theta_2)}{\pi(\theta_1)} \right\}$$

# Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

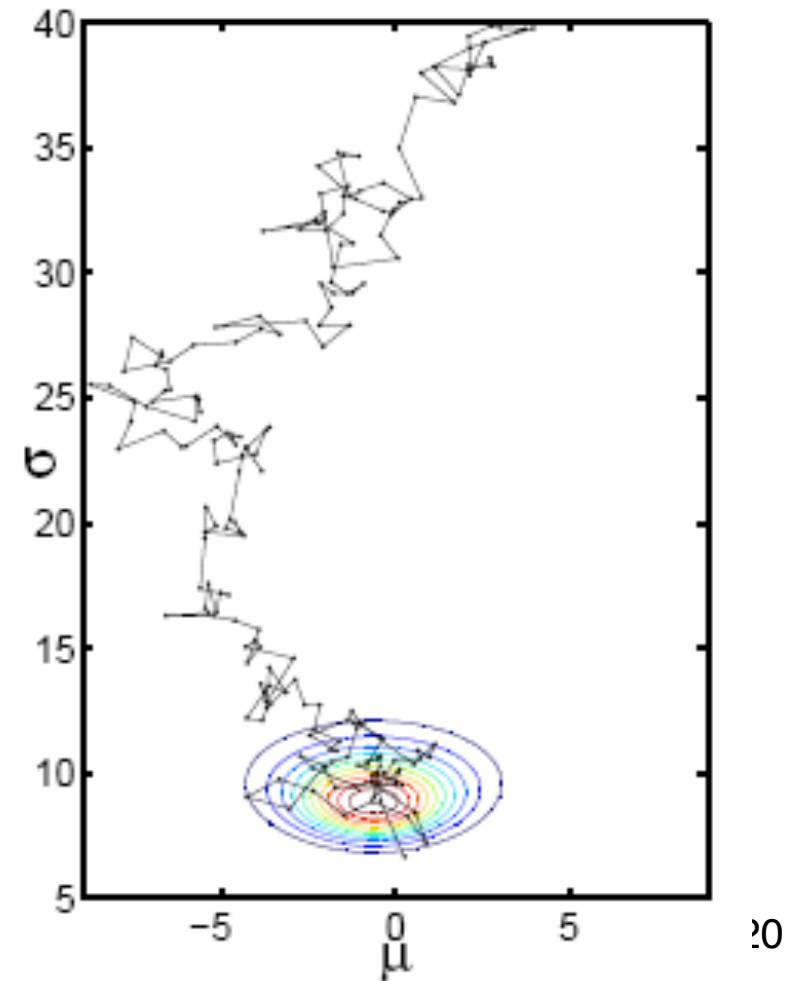
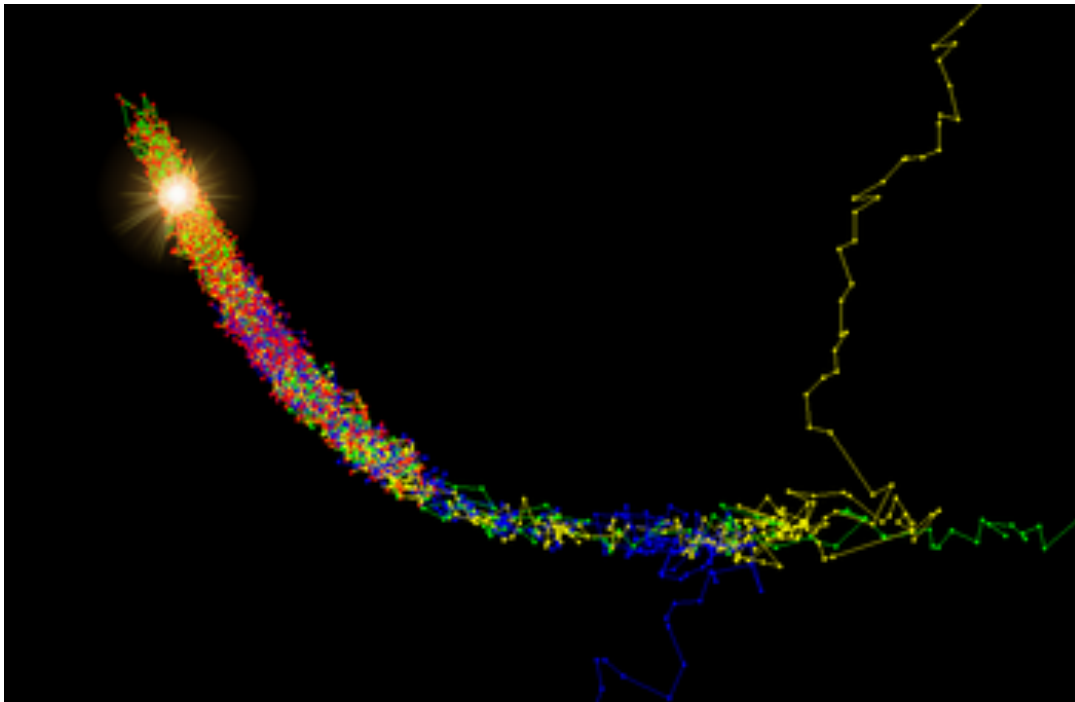
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## Pseudo code for Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

```
alpha = likelihood2 / likelihood1;
if alpha > 1:
    jump to the new state;
else:
    if alpha > rand();
        jump to the new state;
    else:
        remain in the same state;
```

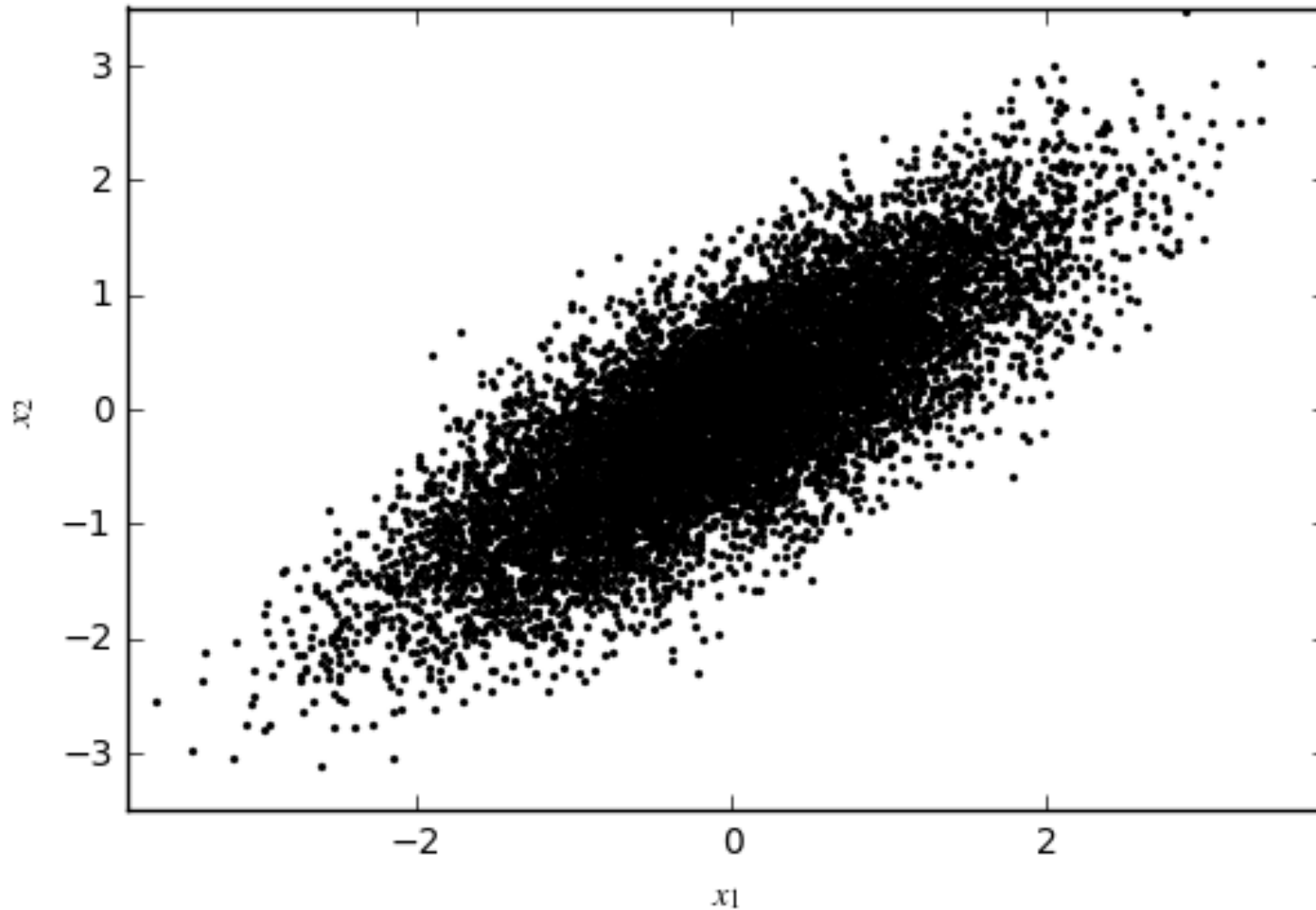
# Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

The chain will take some time to stabilize this is called the **burn-in phase**



# Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

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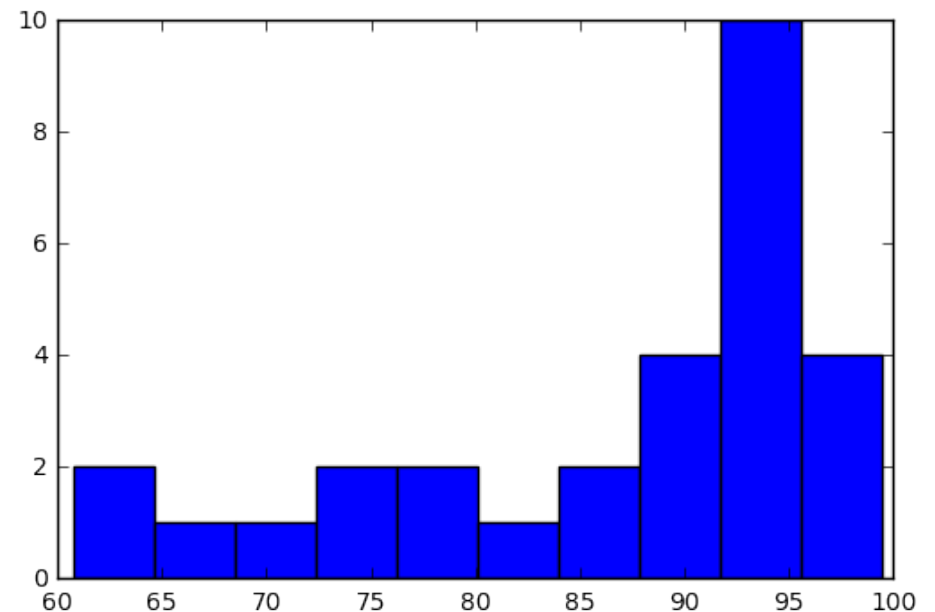
# Kernel Density Estimator

- Histogram is a common way to make sense of **discrete data**.

## Data

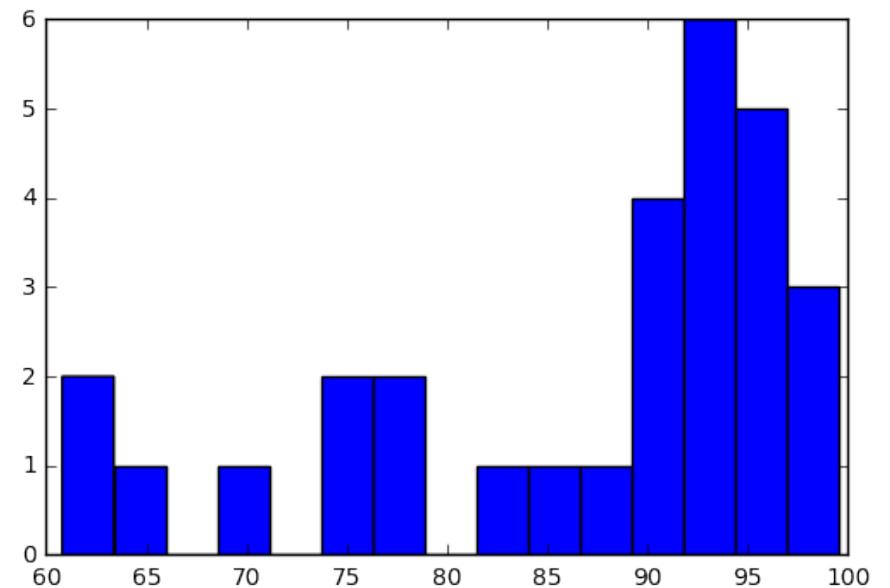
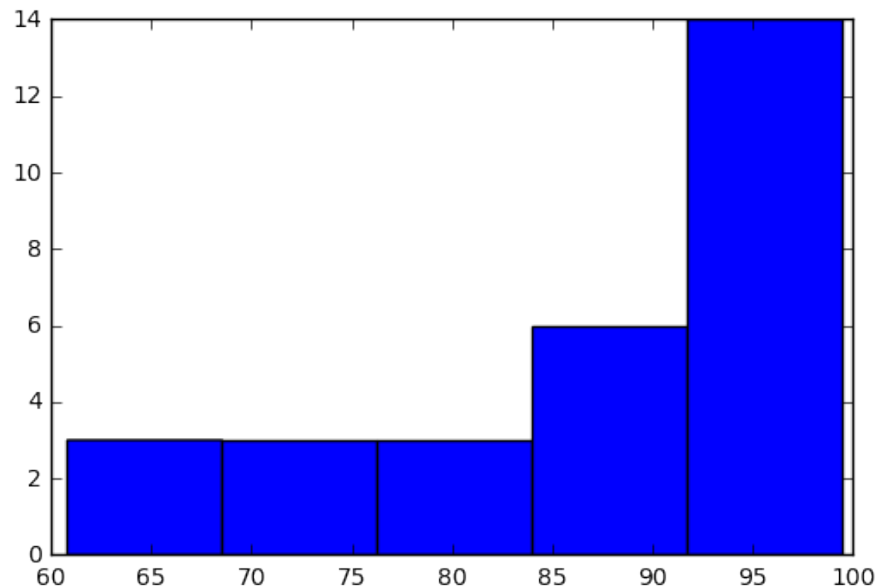
93.5, 93, 60.8, 94.5,  
82, 87.5, 91.5, 99.5,  
86, 93.5, 92.5, 78,  
76, 69, 94.5, 89.5,  
92.8, 78, 65.5, 98,  
98.5, 92.3, 95.5, 76,  
91, 95, 61.4, 96, 90

## Histogram



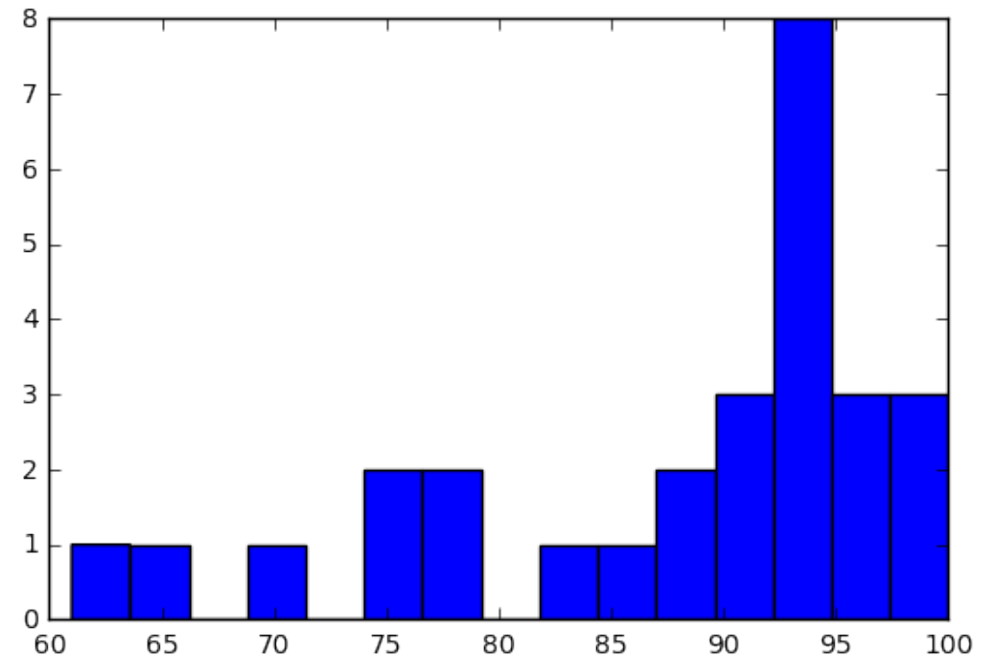
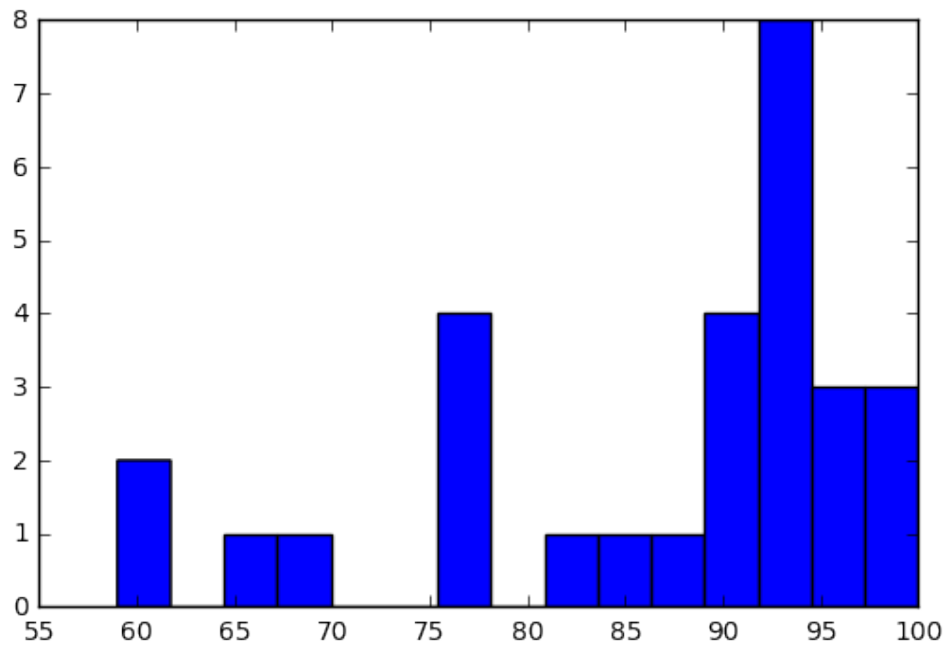
# Kernel Density Estimator

- The same data could generate **different histograms** with **different number of bins**.



# Kernel Density Estimator

- The same data could generate different histograms with different starts of left-edge of bins.





# Kernel Density Estimator

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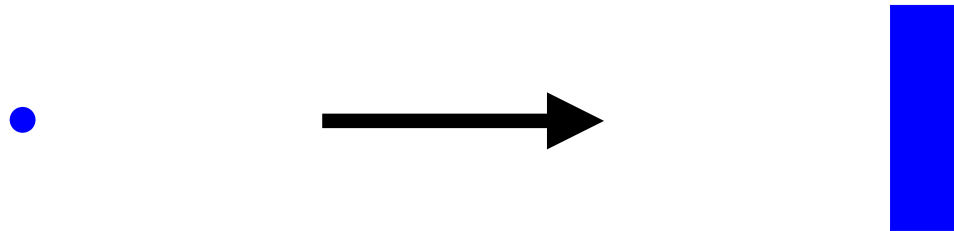
## Drawbacks of Histogram

- Not smooth
- Depend on width of bins
- Depends on end points of bins

# Kernel Density Estimator

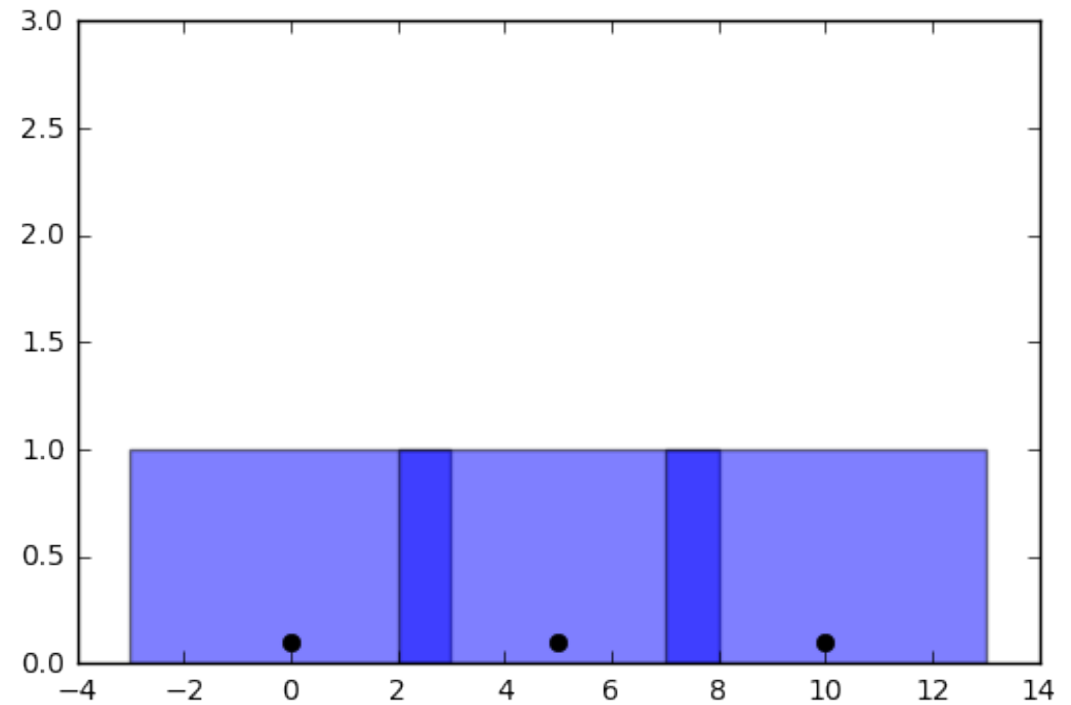
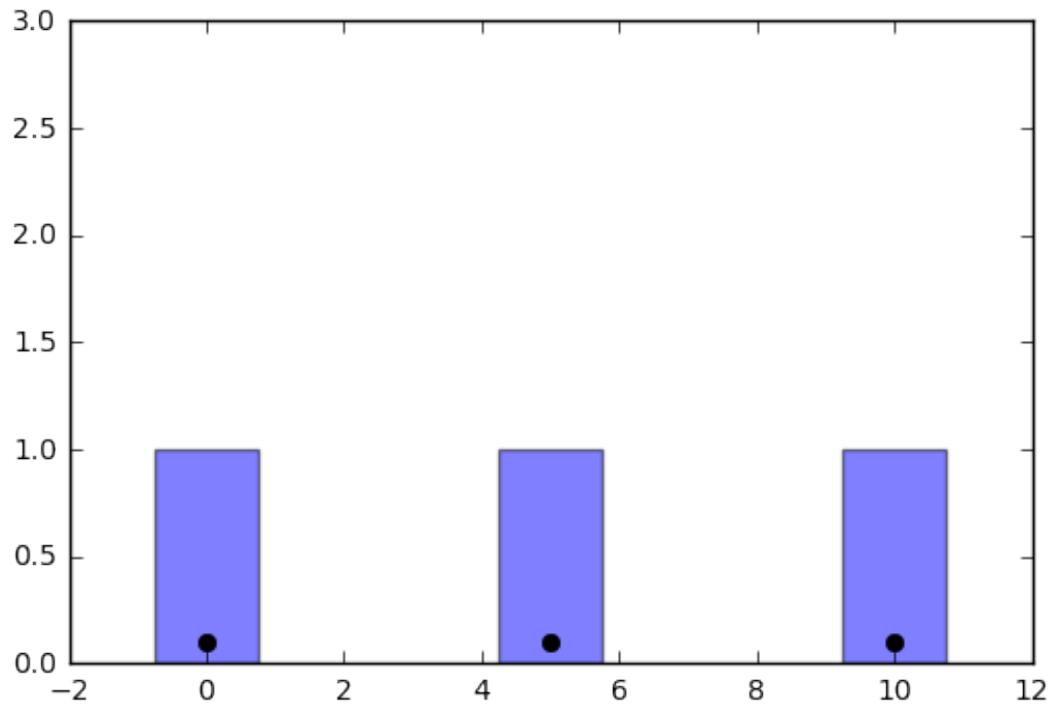
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- If we instead replace the data point by a kernel function



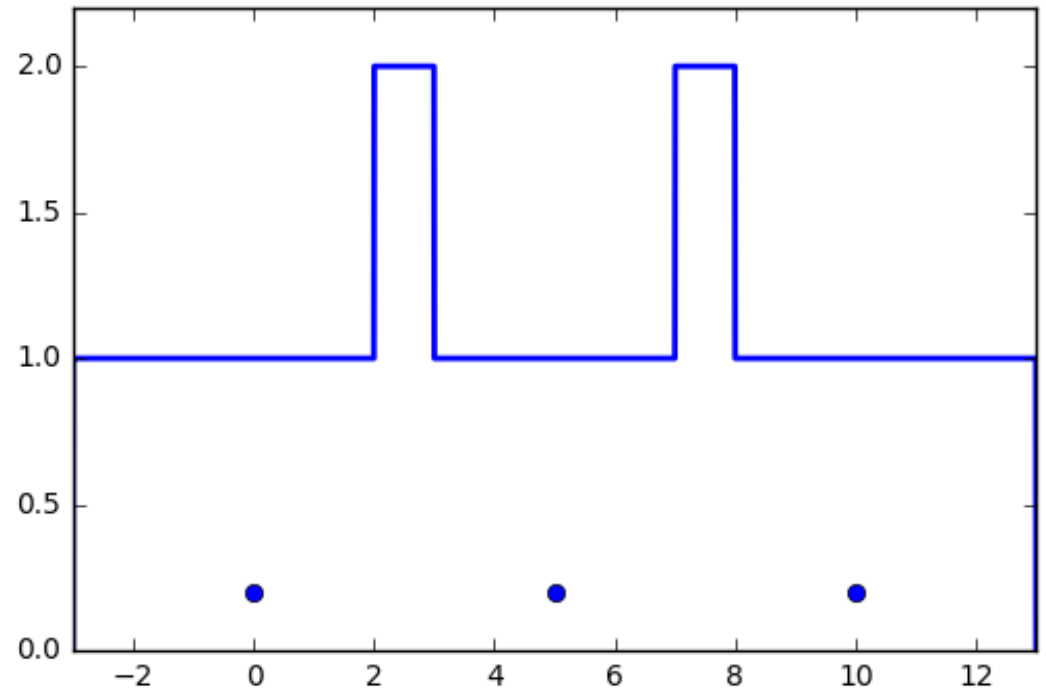
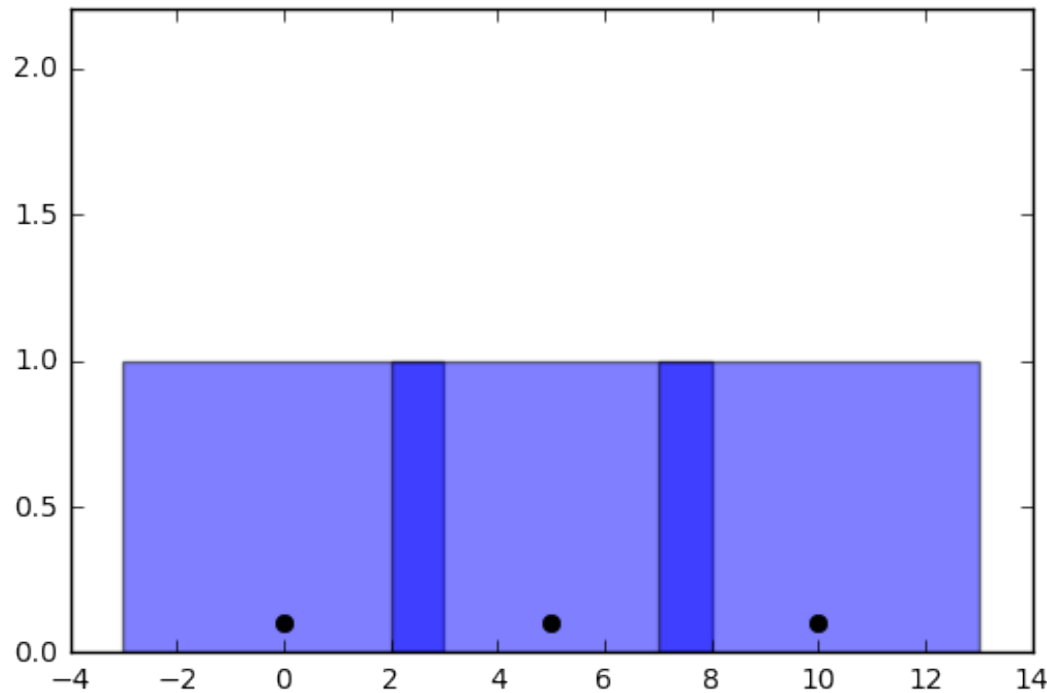
# Kernel Density Estimator

- For, simplicity suppose we have only three data points **0, 5, 10**



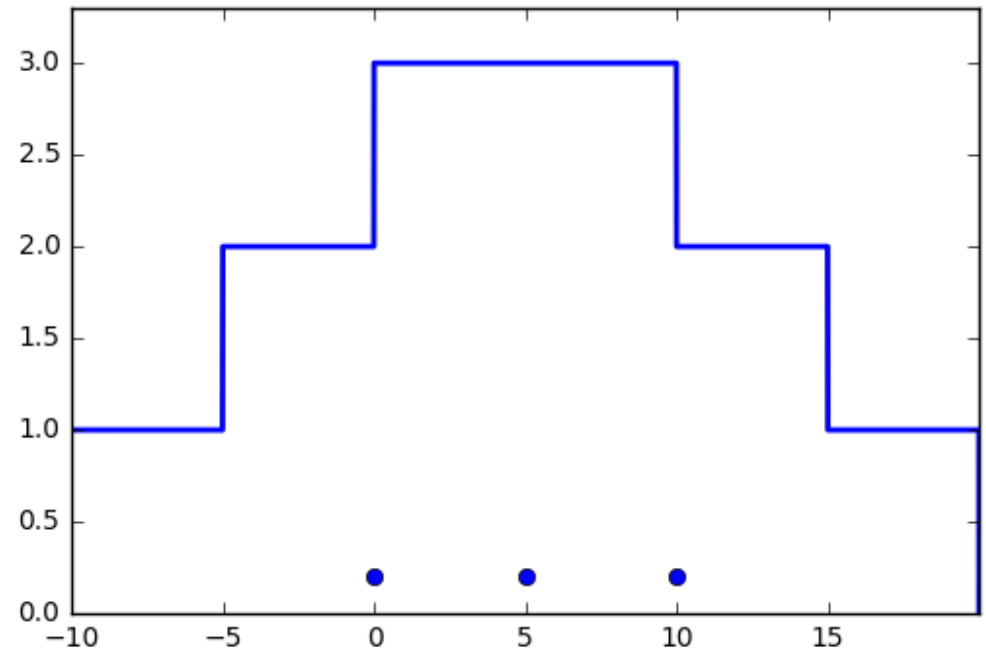
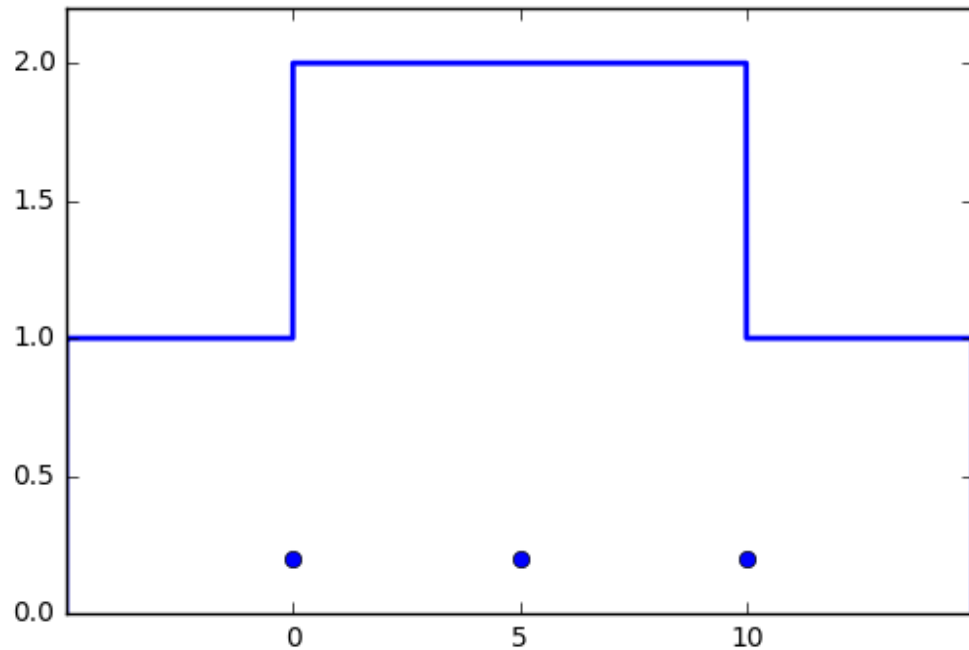
# Kernel Density Estimator

- For, simplicity suppose we have only three data points **0, 5, 10**



# Kernel Density Estimator

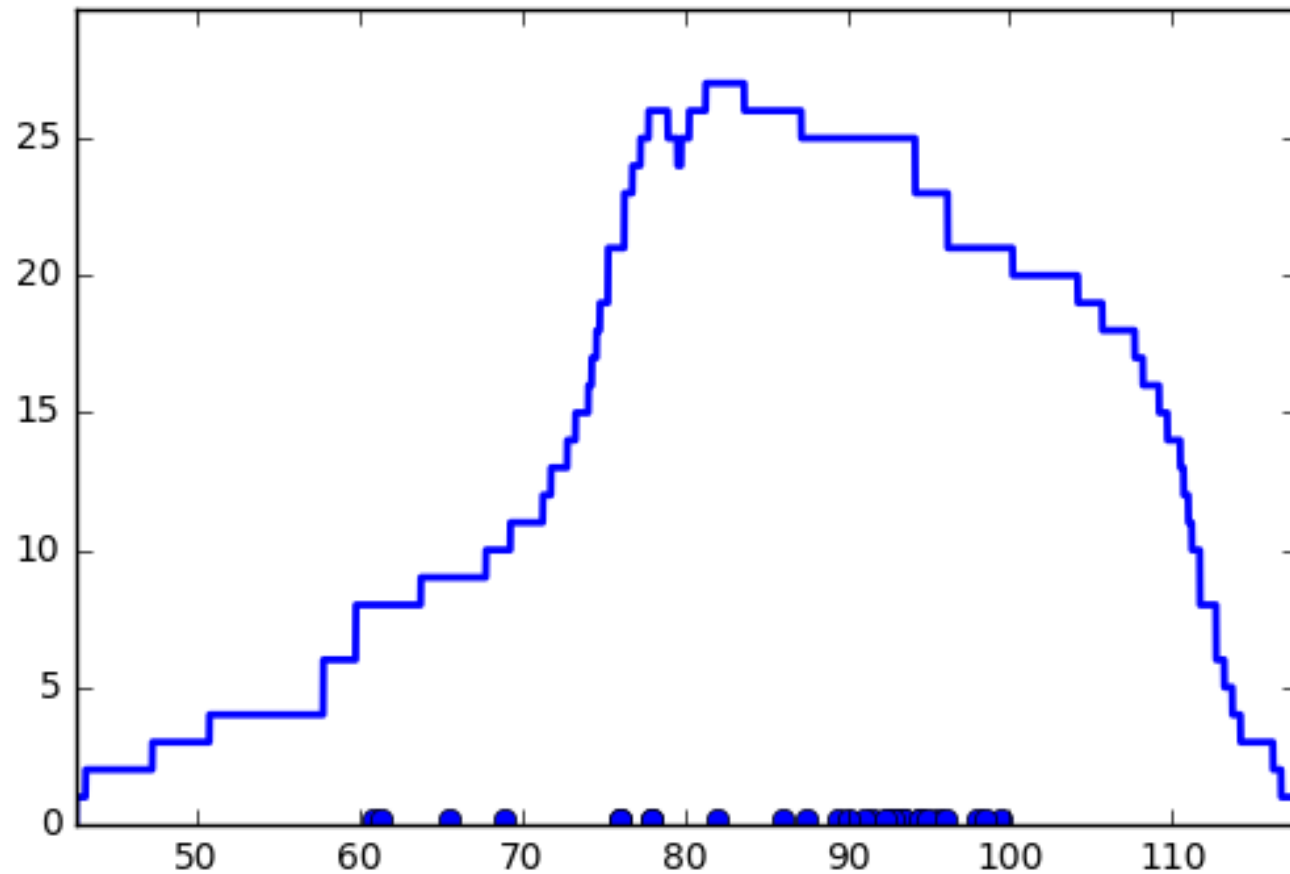
- For, simplicity suppose we have only three data points **0, 5, 10**



# Kernel Density Estimator

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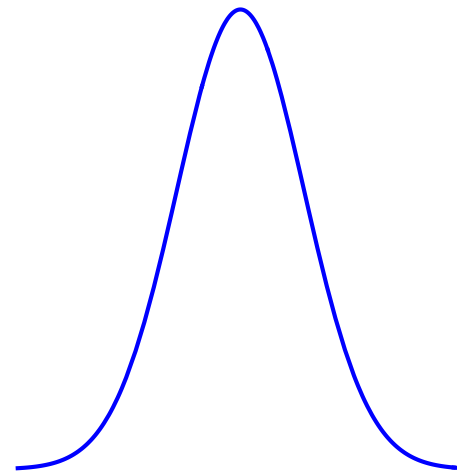
- With our previous data



# Kernel Density Estimator

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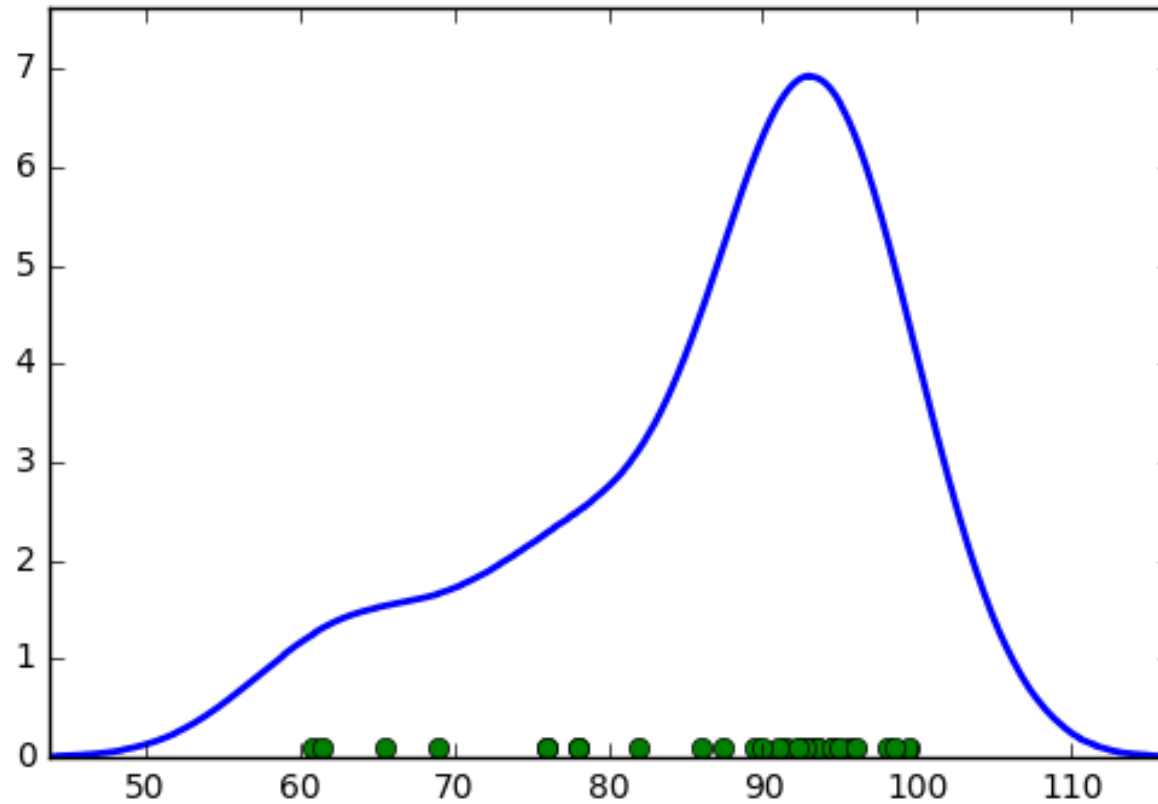
- The plot is not smooth because we have a non-smooth kernel function
- We can use a smooth kernel function for example a **Gaussian function**



# Kernel Density Estimator

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- We have a smooth distribution.



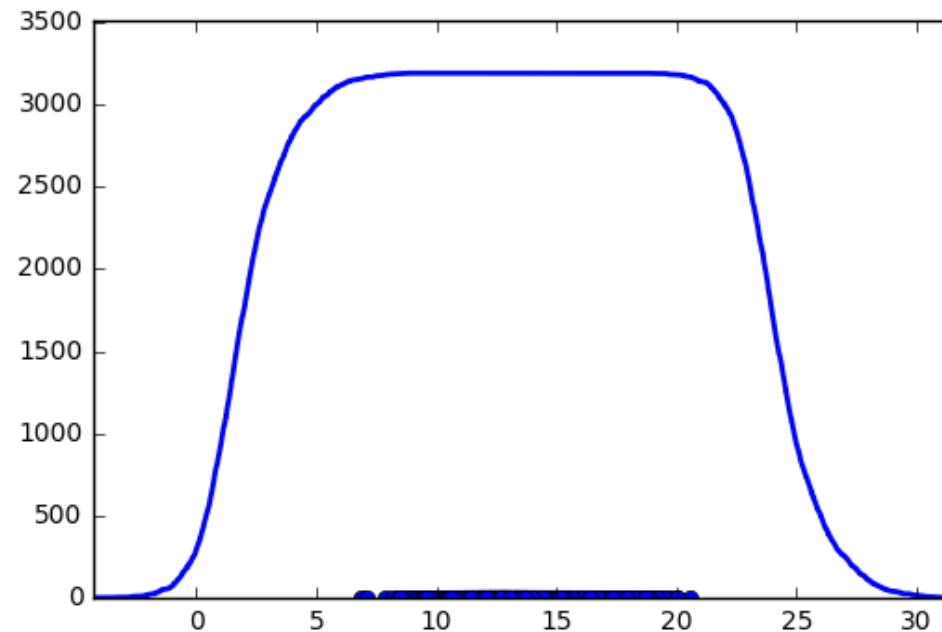


# Kernel Density Estimator

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- We oversmooth the distribution.

**Oversmoothed**



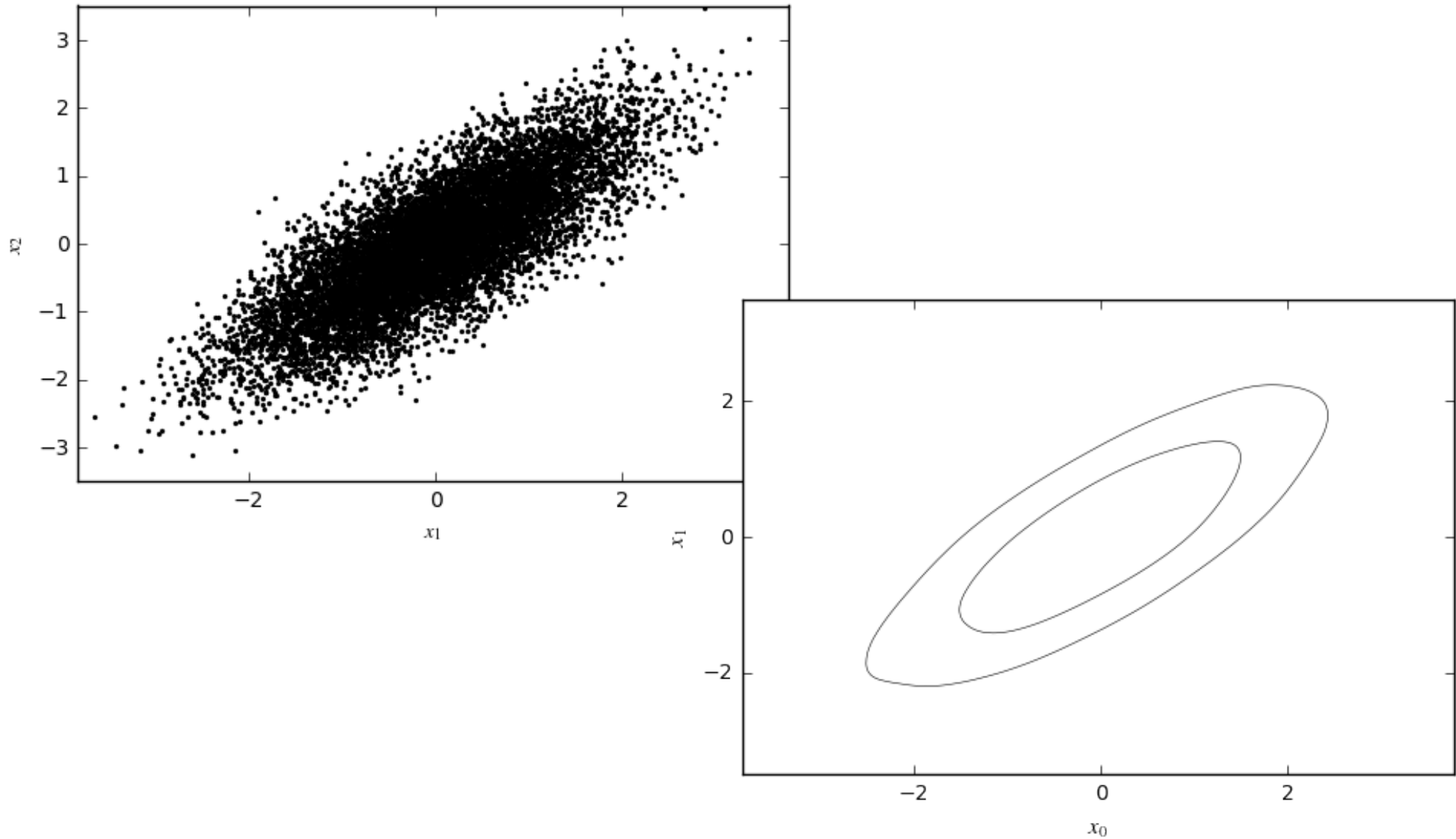
# Kernel Density Estimator

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- The optimal bandwidth has to be estimated.
- A normal way to estimate the optimal bandwidth is to minimize the **Asymptotic Mean Integrated Squared Error (AMISE)**

$$\int (f(x) - f_n(x))^2 dx$$

# Kernel Density Estimator



# Kernel Density Estimator

