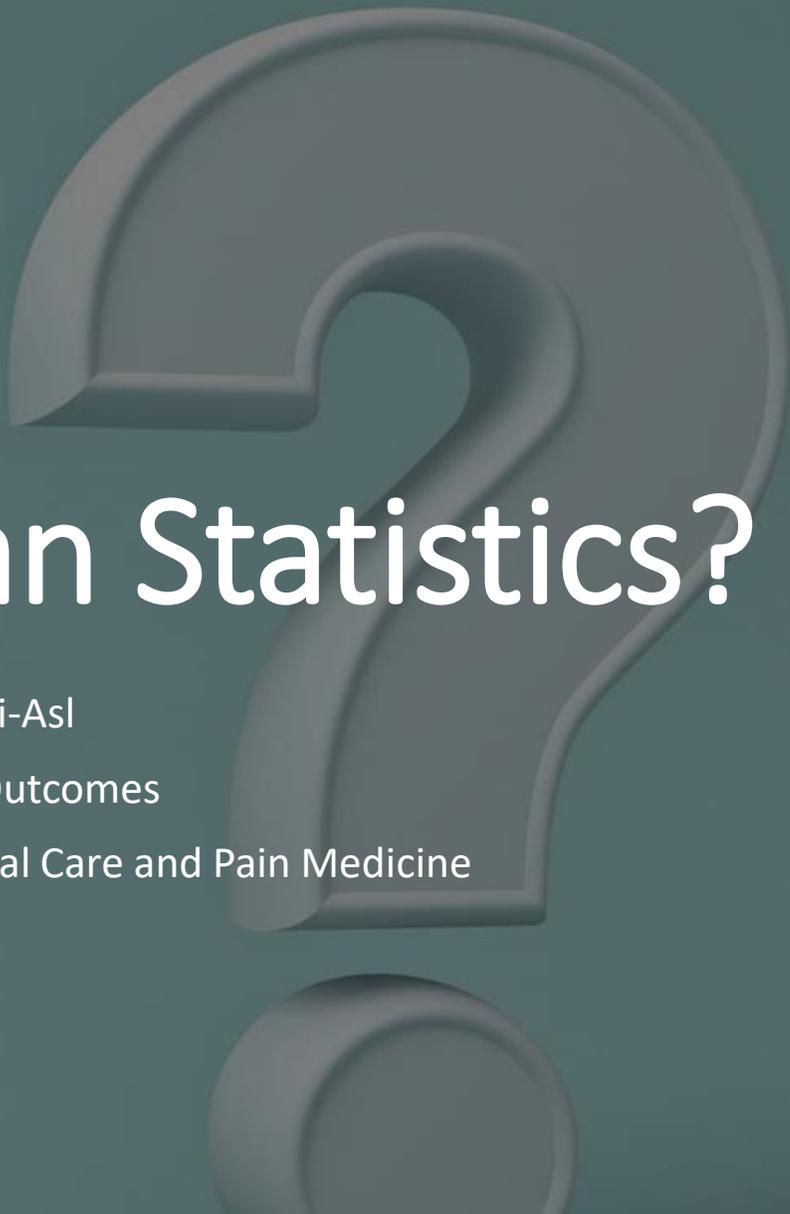


What is Bayesian Statistics?



Alireza Akhondi-Asl

MSICU Center For Outcomes

Department of Anesthesiology, Critical Care and Pain Medicine

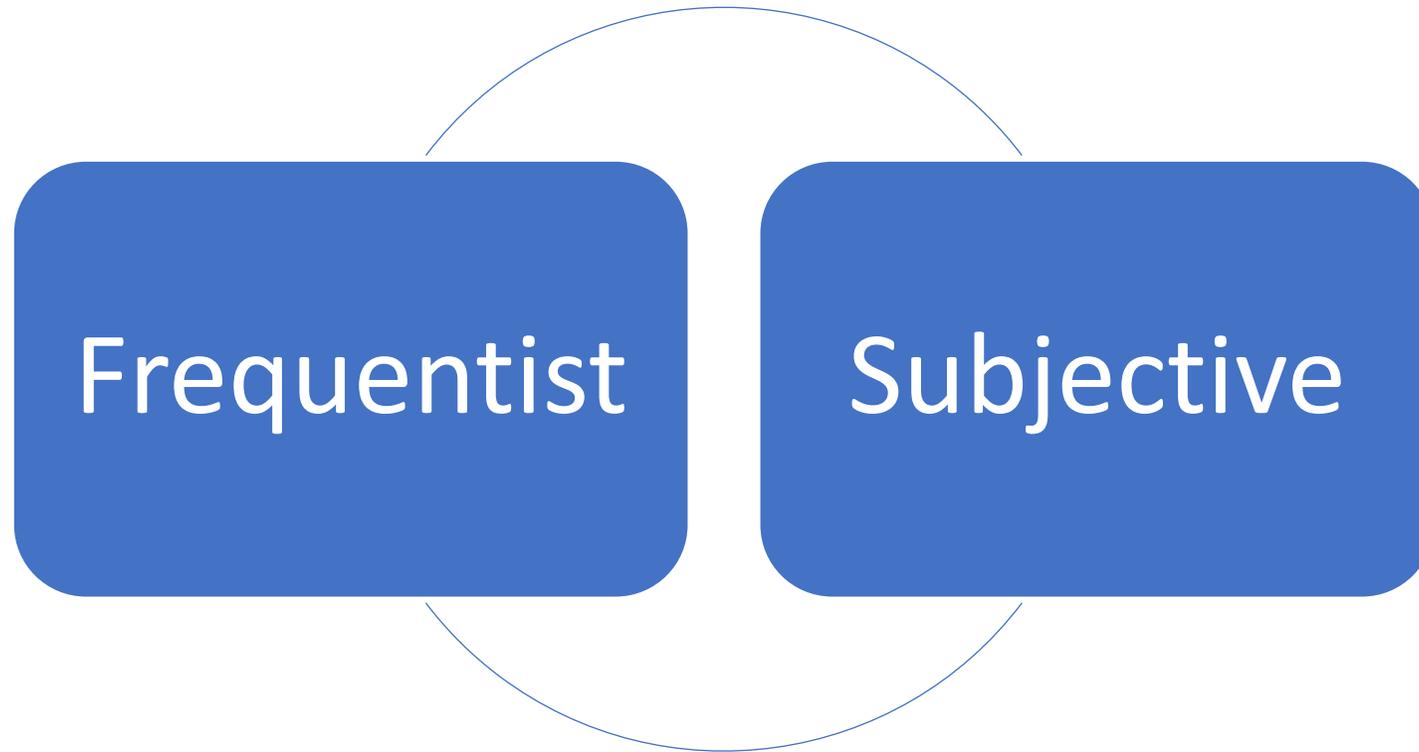
Learning Objectives



- What is Bayes' Rule?
- Mechanism of belief update in Bayesian statistics?
- What are the Differences with the frequentist statistics?



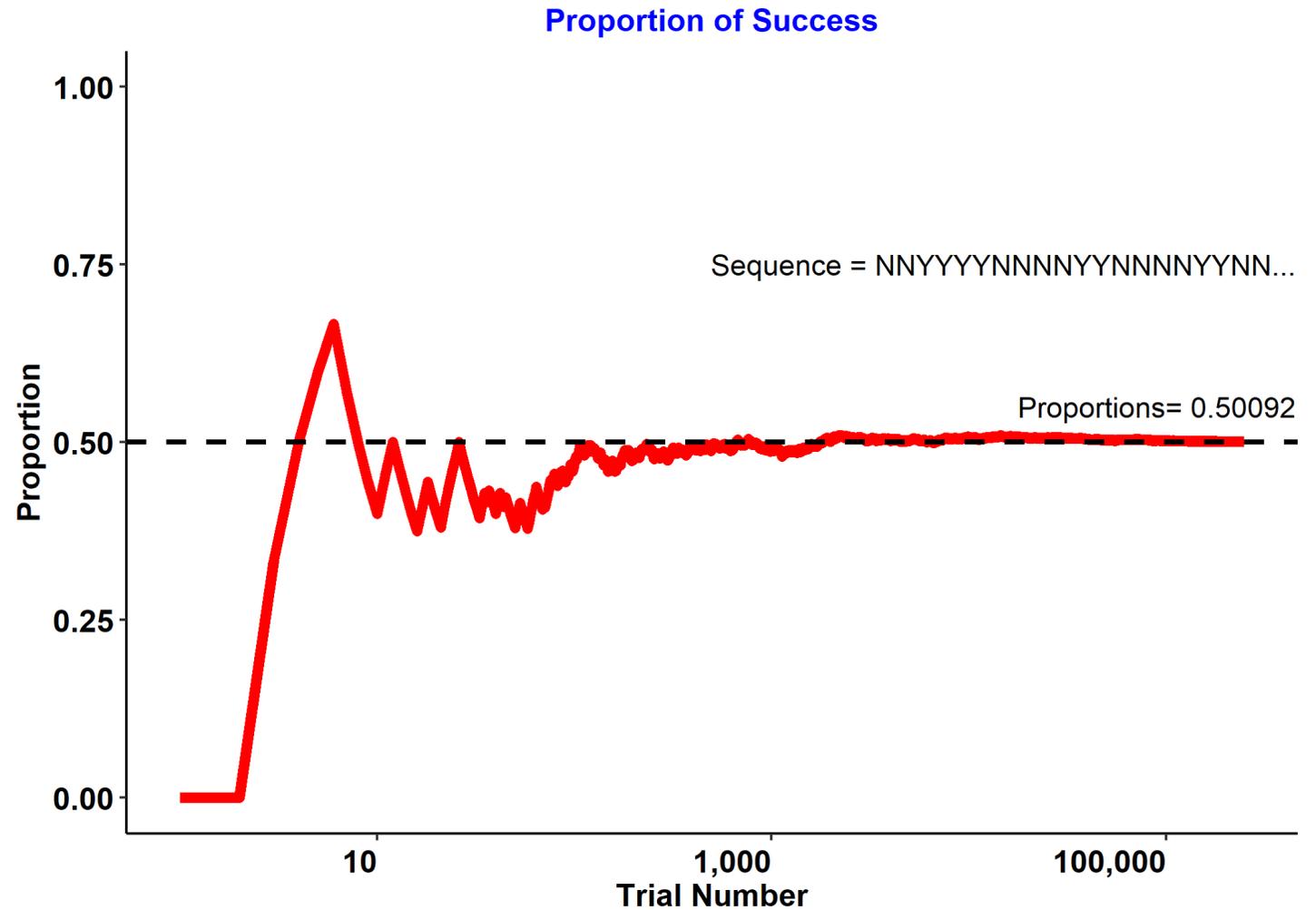
Probability Interpretations



Frequentist Probability

- Relative Frequency of an Event in long run:

$$P(e) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\# \text{times } e \text{ happend}}{n}$$



Subjective Probability

It is inside the head probability

- How strongly do you believe that a patient is going to survive?
- The probability of the Democrats winning the 2024 US presidential election.

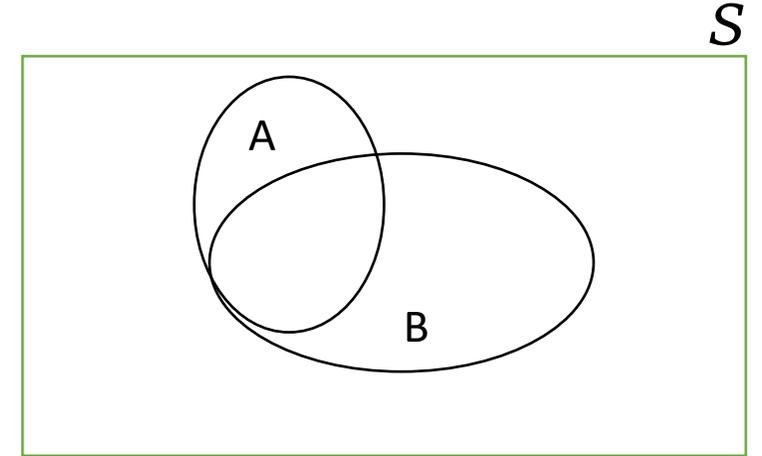
Sometimes it is hard to quantify our belief.

- Thinking about a fair bet.
- Comparing with other events with clear probabilities

We should be coherent.

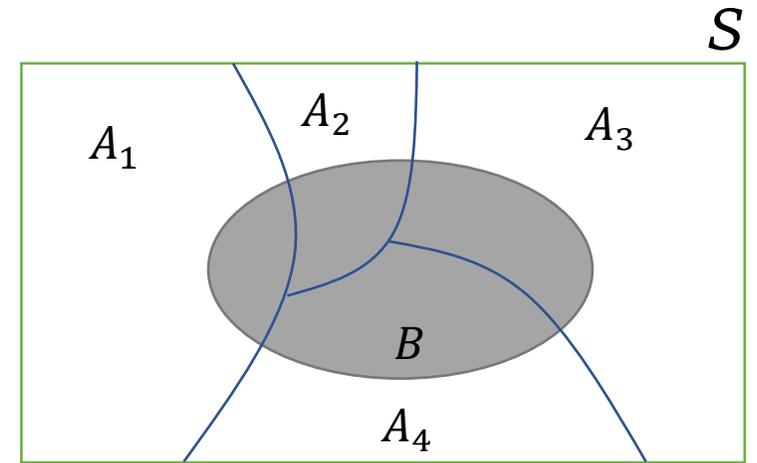
Conditional probability

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(B \cap A)}{P(A)}, \text{ with } P(A) > 0$$



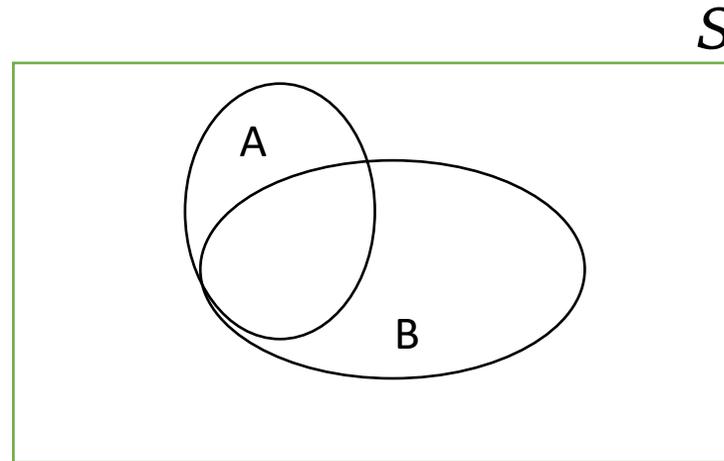
Law of total probability

If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n is a partition of the sample space, then for any event B we have:



$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= P(B|A_1)P(A_1) + P(B|A_2)P(A_2) + P(B|A_3)P(A_3) + P(B|A_4)P(A_4) \\ &= \sum_i P(B|A_i)P(A_i) \end{aligned}$$

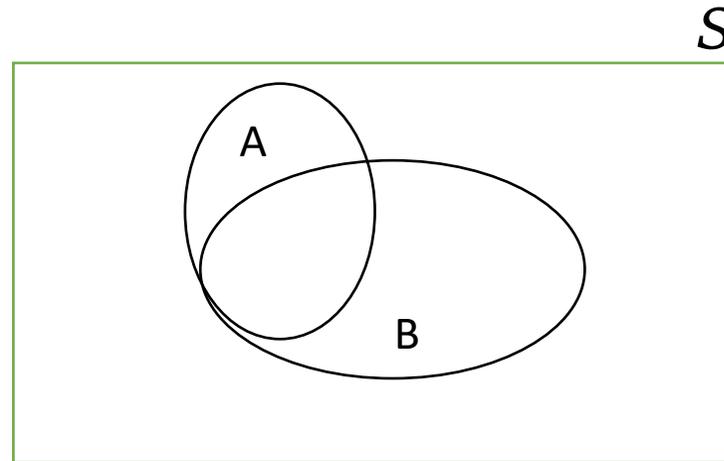
Bayes' Rule



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



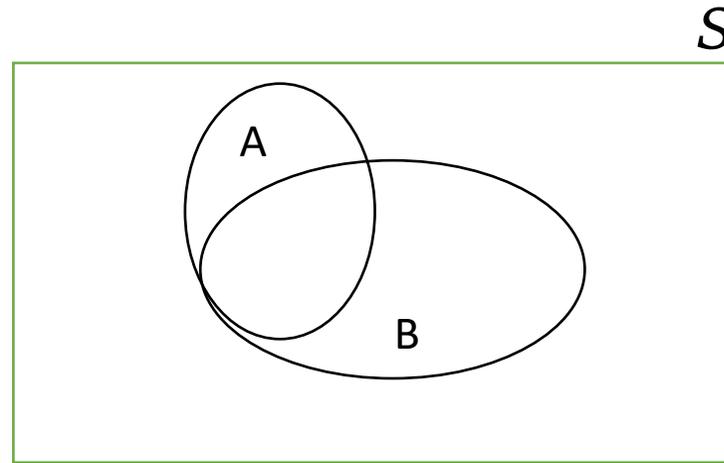
Bayes' Rule



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



Bayes' Rule

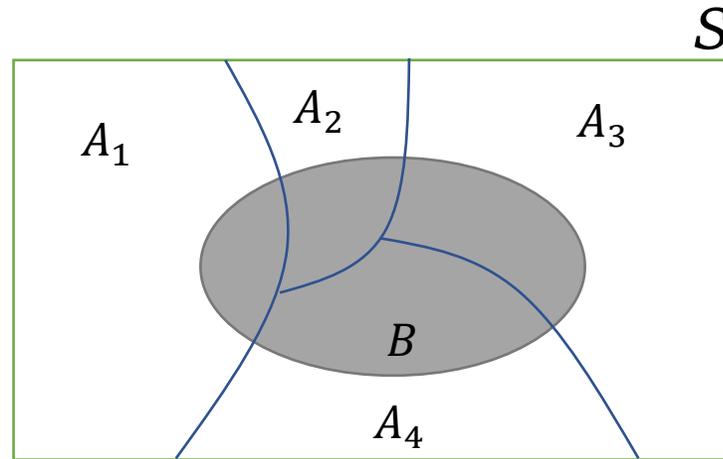


$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

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



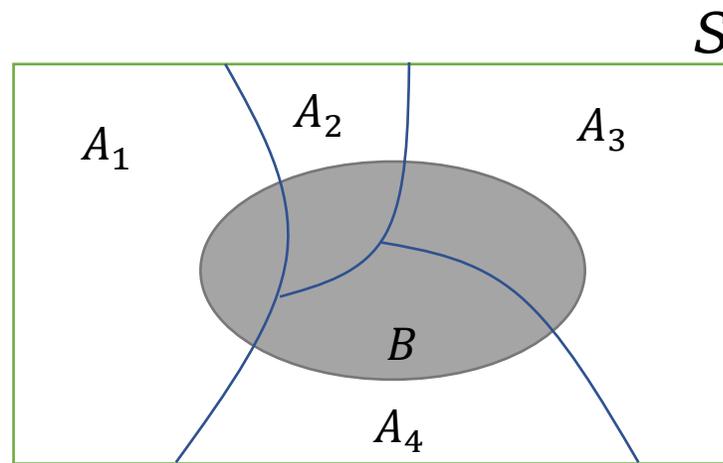
Bayes' Rule



$$P(A_1), P(A_2), P(A_3), P(A_4)$$



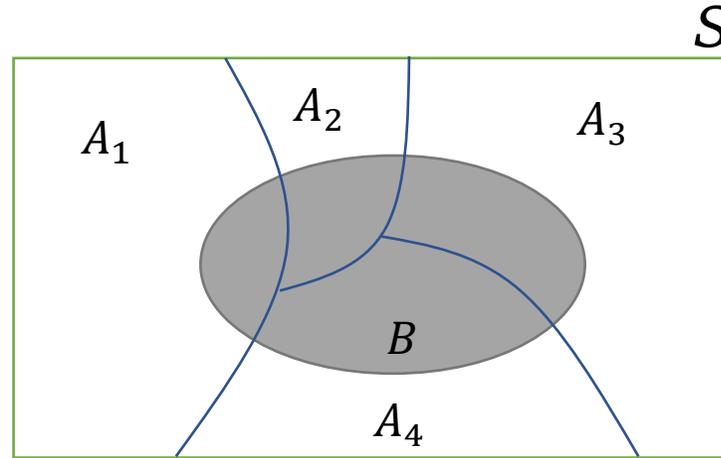
Bayes' Rule



$$P(A_1), P(A_2), P(A_3), P(A_4)$$

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

Bayes' Rule



$$P(A_1), P(A_2), P(A_3), P(A_4)$$

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{\sum_j P(B|A_j)P(A_j)}$$



Medical Test

- A certain disease affects about 1 out of 1000 people in a population.
- $P(\text{☹})=0.001$
- $P(\text{☺})=0.999$
- There is a test to check whether the person has the disease. The test has very high sensitivity and specificity. In particular, we know that:
 - $P(T+ | \text{☹})=0.98$
 - $P(T+ | \text{☺})=0.01$



Medical Test

If you test positive for this disease, what are the chances that you have the disease?

A) 98 Percent

B) Less than 10 percent

Medical Test

$$P(\text{☹} | T+) = \frac{P(T+ | \text{☹})P(\text{☹})}{P(T+)}$$



Medical Test

$$P(\text{☹} | T+) = \frac{P(T+ | \text{☹})P(\text{☹})}{P(T+ | \text{☹})P(\text{☹}) + P(T+ | \text{☺})P(\text{☺})}$$



Medical Test

$$P(\text{☹} | T+) = \frac{P(T+ | \text{☹})P(\text{☹})}{P(T+ | \text{☹})P(\text{☹}) + P(T+ | \text{☺})P(\text{☺})} = \frac{0.98 \times 0.001}{0.98 \times 0.001 + 0.01 \times 0.999} = 0.089$$



Medical Test

$$P(\text{☹} | T+) = \frac{P(T+ | \text{☹})P(\text{☹})}{P(T+ | \text{☹})P(\text{☹}) + P(T+ | \text{☺})P(\text{☺})} = \frac{0.98 \times 0.001}{0.98 \times 0.001 + 0.01 \times 0.999} = 0.089$$

The test **updates your chances** of having the diseases from 0.001 to 0.089.



Medical Test

If you test positive for this disease, what are the chances that you have the disease?

A) 98 Percent

✓ B) Less than 10 percent





Richard Royall's Three Questions



What does present evidence tell?



What should we believe?



What should we do?



Medical Test Paradox

- **A second independent test with the same accuracy is done and it is positive again. What are the chances that you have the disease?**
 - A) More than 90 percent
 - B) Less than 10 percent



Medical Test Paradox

- $P(\ominus | T+) = \frac{P(T+ | \ominus)P(\ominus)}{P(T+ | \ominus)P(\ominus) + P(T+ | \oplus)P(\oplus)}$
- $P(\ominus) = ?$
- $P(\oplus) = ?$



Medical Test Paradox

- $P(\ominus | T+) = \frac{P(T+ | \ominus)P(\ominus)}{P(T+ | \ominus)P(\ominus) + P(T+ | \odot)P(\odot)}$
- $P(\ominus) = 0.089$
- $P(\odot) = 0.911$



Medical Test Paradox

- $P(\ominus | T+) = \frac{P(T+ | \ominus)P(\ominus)}{P(T+ | \ominus)P(\ominus) + P(T+ | \oplus)P(\oplus)} = \frac{0.98 \times 0.089}{0.98 \times 0.089 + 0.01 \times 0.911} = 0.906$
- $P(\ominus) = 0.089$
- $P(\oplus) = 0.911$





Medical Test Paradox

- A second independent test with the same accuracy is done and it is positive again. What are the chances that you have the disease?
- ✓ • A) More than 90 percent
- B) Less than 10 percent



Statistical Analysis

Frequentist

Bayesian

Likelihoodist

Frequentist

The most popular method for statistical inference

Parameters are fixed but unknown constants

We cannot make any probability statement about the parameters

Probabilities are long-run relative frequencies from the repeated experiments

Data is assumed to be random

Randomness is due to sampling from a fixed population.

The uncertainty is due to sampling variation.



Frequentist

- $P(Data|\theta)$
 - Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - P-values : $P(Data|\theta = \theta_0)$
 - Confidence Intervals, Effect Size
 - No probability statement about θ
-

Bayesian

Probability is interpreted as “degree of subjective belief”.

- The events do not need to be repeatable.

We don't know the value of parameters and therefore, we consider them to be random variables.

- Epistemic uncertainty.
- Parameters are probabilistic in nature.

Since we have observed data, it is fixed.

We Update our prior belief based on observed data. The updated belief is called posterior belief

- We use Bayes' rule to calculate posterior.

Bayesian

- Update our belief in a parameter using new evidence or data.
 - Based on Bayes' rule

$$P(\theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(Data)}$$



Bayesian

- Update our belief in a parameter using new evidence or data.
 - Based on Bayes' rule

$$P(\theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\theta) \overset{\text{Prior}}{P(\theta)}}{P(Data)}$$

Prior



Bayesian

- Update our belief in a parameter using new evidence or data.
 - Based on Bayes' rule

$$P(\theta|Data) = \frac{\overset{\text{Likelihood}}{P(Data|\theta)} \overset{\text{Prior}}{P(\theta)}}{P(Data)}$$



Bayesian

- Update our belief in a parameter using new evidence or data.
 - Based on Bayes' rule

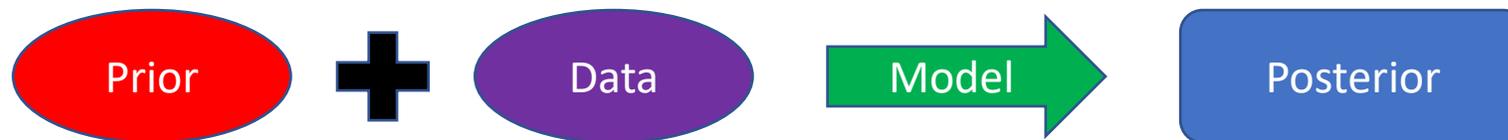
$$P(\theta|Data) = \frac{\overset{\text{Likelihood}}{P(Data|\theta)} \overset{\text{Prior}}{P(\theta)}}{\underset{\text{Evidence}}{P(Data)}}$$



Bayesian

- Update our belief in a parameter using new evidence or data.
 - Based on Bayes' rule

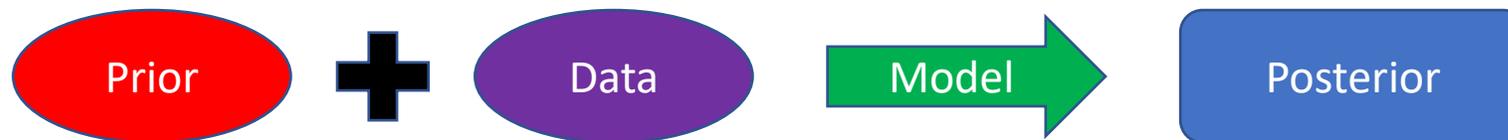
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Posterior} \\ P(\theta | \text{Data}) \end{array} = \frac{\begin{array}{c} \text{Likelihood} \\ P(\text{Data} | \theta) \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Prior} \\ P(\theta) \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} P(\text{Data}) \\ \text{Evidence} \end{array}}$$



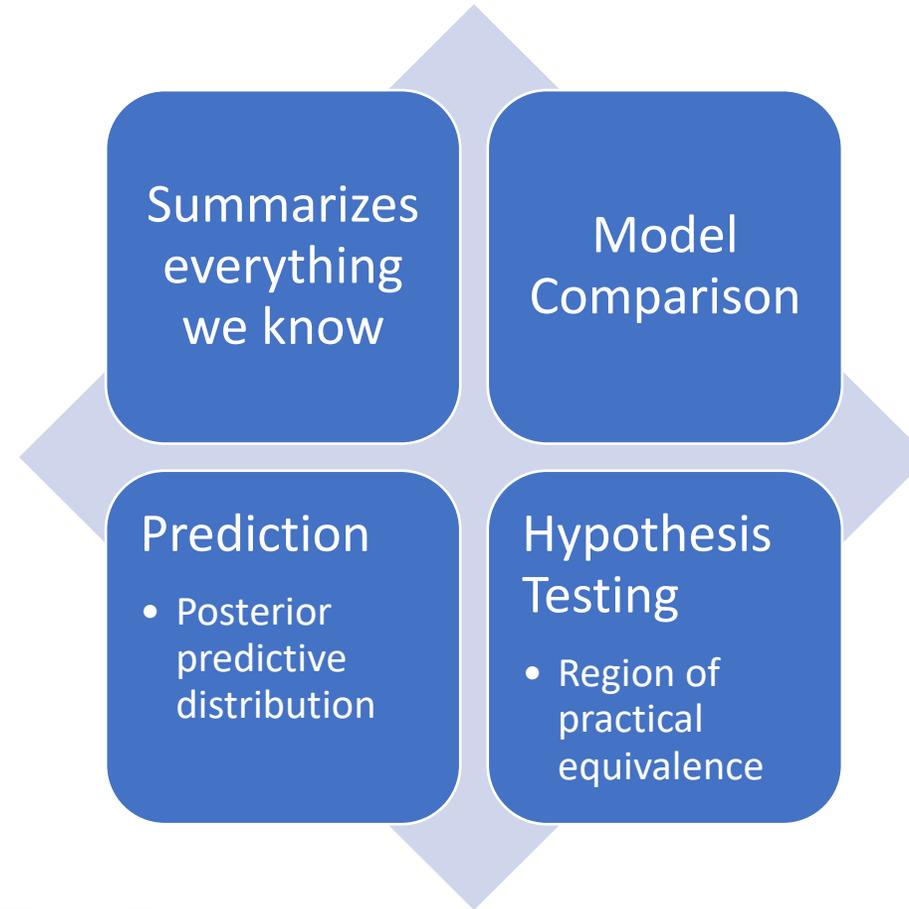
Bayesian

- Update our belief in a parameter using new evidence or data.
 - Based on Bayes' rule

$$\text{Posterior } P(\theta|Data) \propto \text{Likelihood } P(Data|\theta) \text{ Prior } P(\theta)$$



Posterior Distribution



Example

A new treatment approach is proposed. We would like to infer about the success rate of this treatment.

We observe results of treatment of N patients.

Likelihood

- Since the outcome is binary and samples are independent, for a fixed number of trials, N , we can use binomial distribution to describe our data generation model:

$$p(Data|\theta) = p(E|N, \theta) = \binom{N}{E} \theta^E (1 - \theta)^{N-E}$$



Example: Frequentist

Our Null Hypothesis
is that $\theta_0 = 0.5$

Frequentist

$N=6$

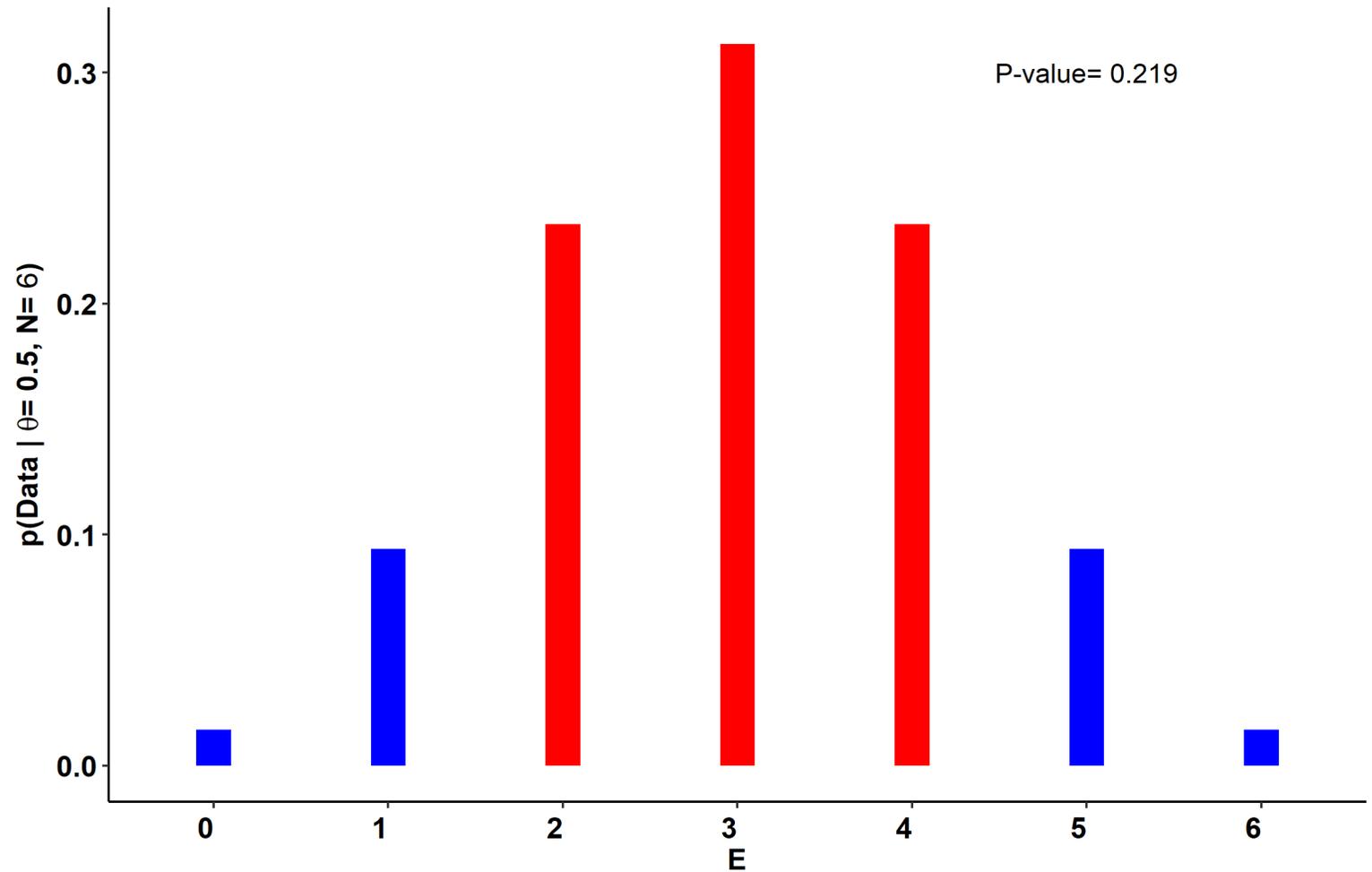
$E=5$

CI: 0.36-1.0

$\hat{\theta} = 0.833$

Frequentist: Binomial distribution: $E=5$

Outcome Space ■ Observed or more extreme ■ Others



Frequentist

N=18

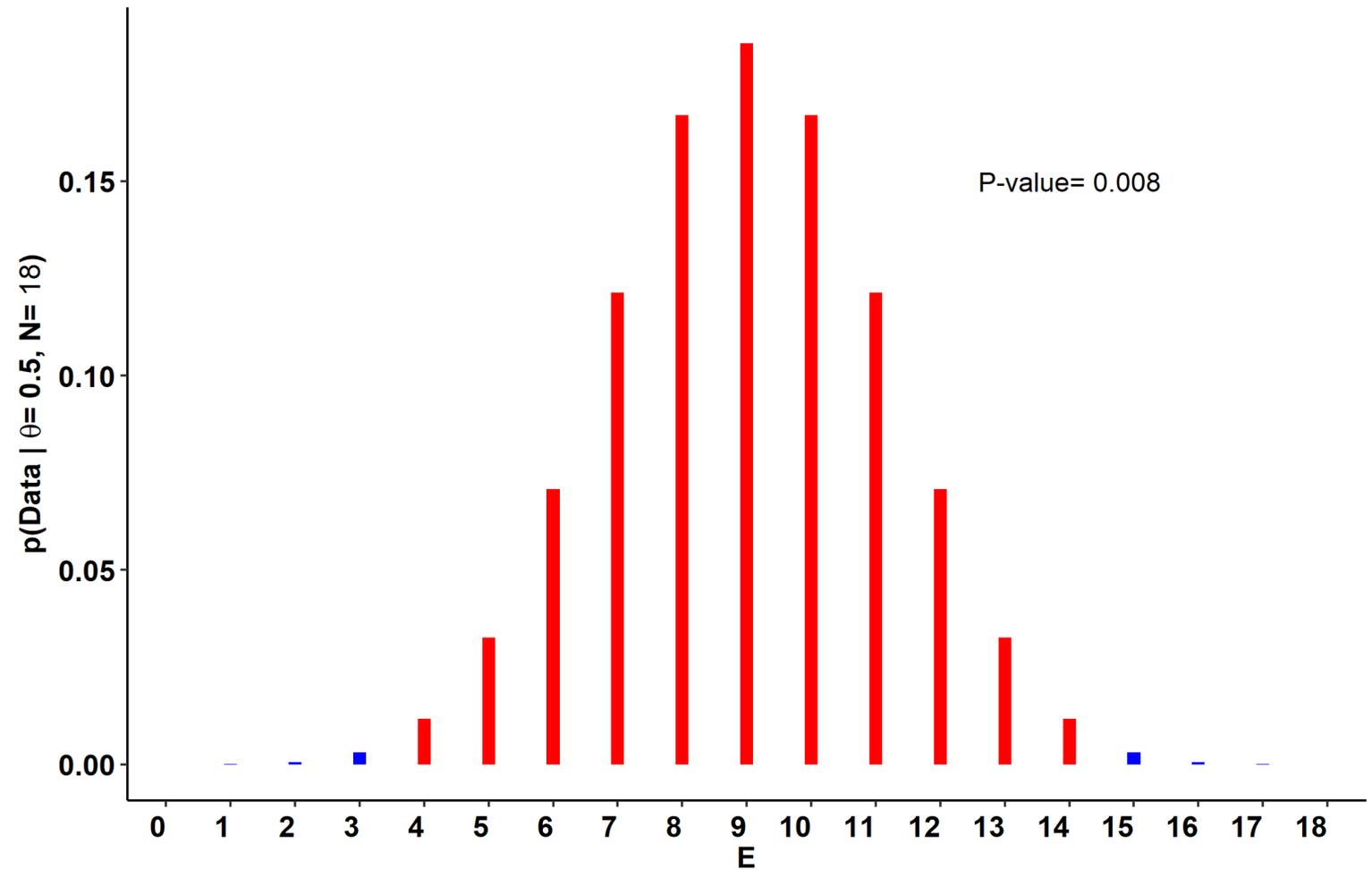
E=15

CI: 0.59-0.96

$\hat{\theta} = 0.833$

Frequentist: Binomial distribution: E=15

Outcome Space ■ Observed or more extreme ■ Others



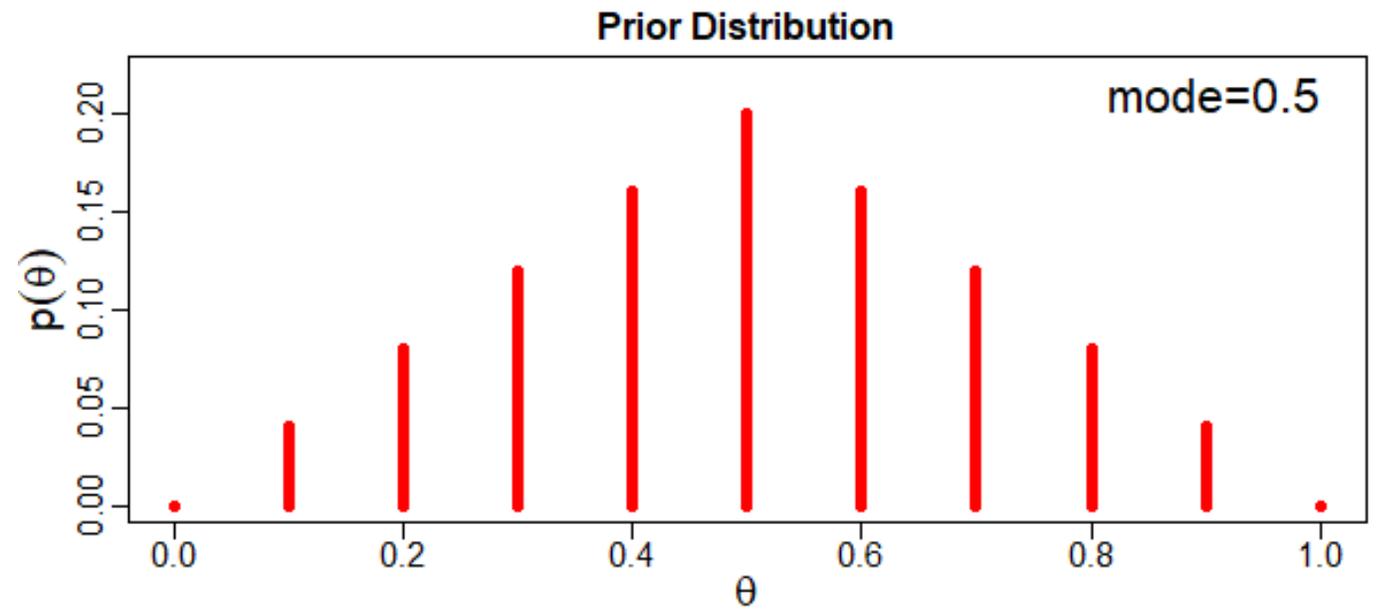
Example: Bayesian

Let's assume that we believe the success rate is around 50%.

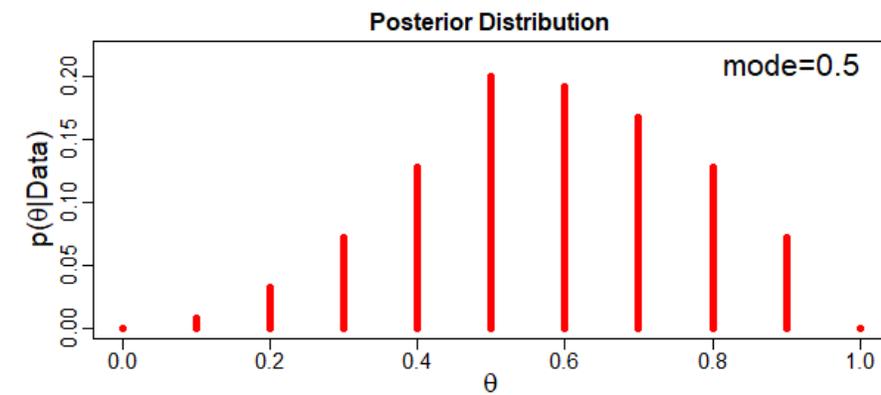
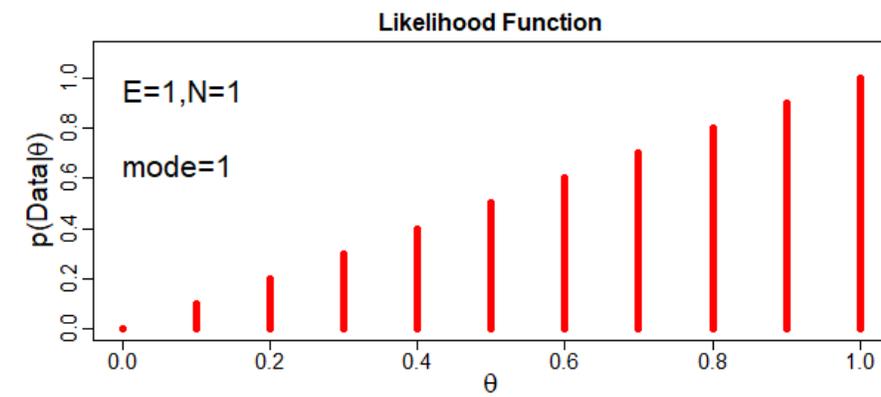
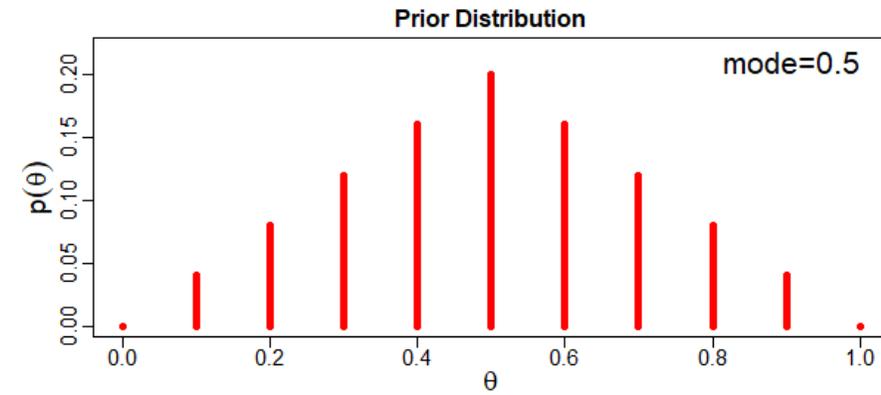
This is our prior belief before observing any data.

We update our belief after observing each outcome.

Prior

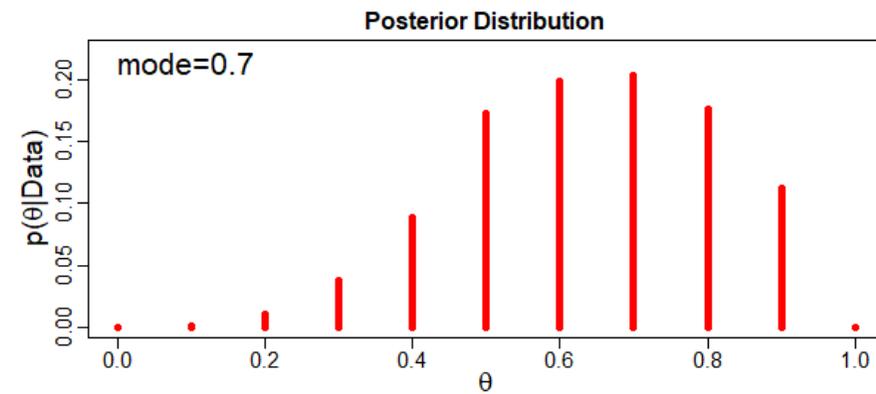
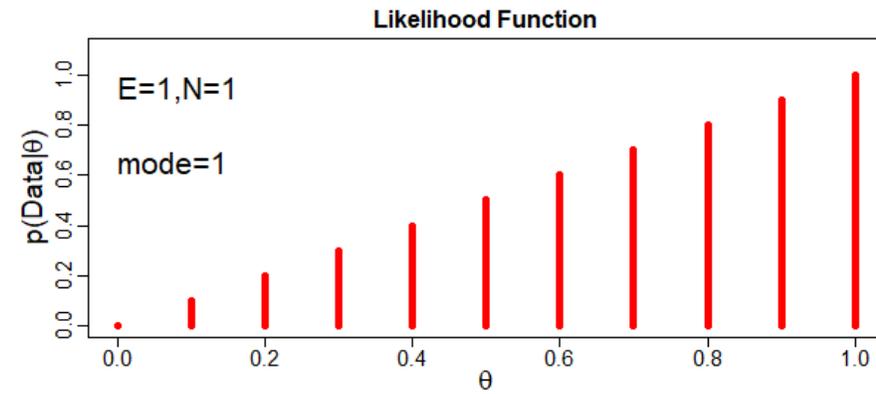
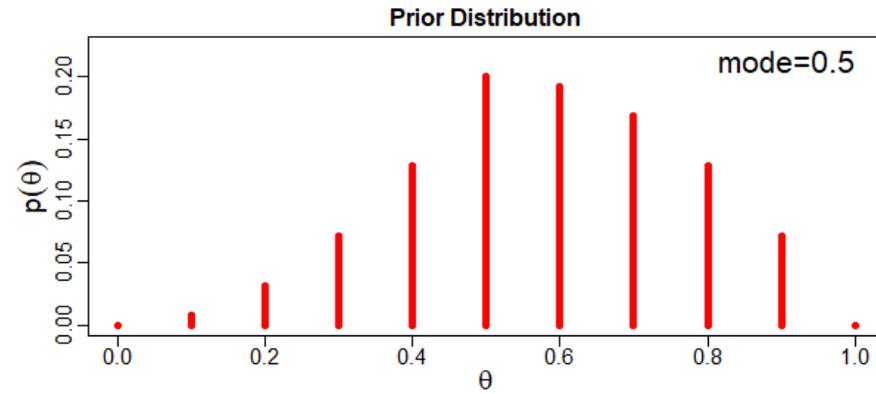


$$O_1=Y$$

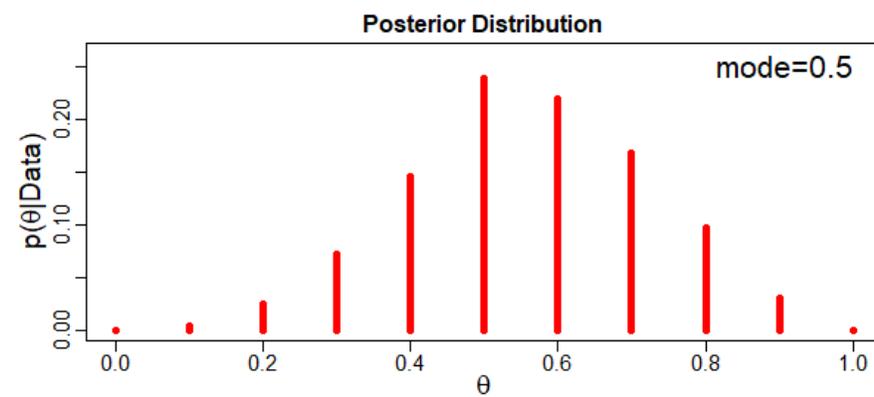
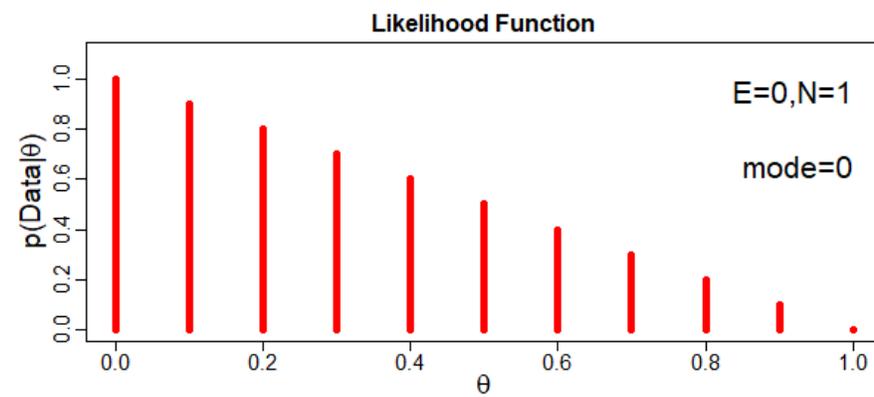
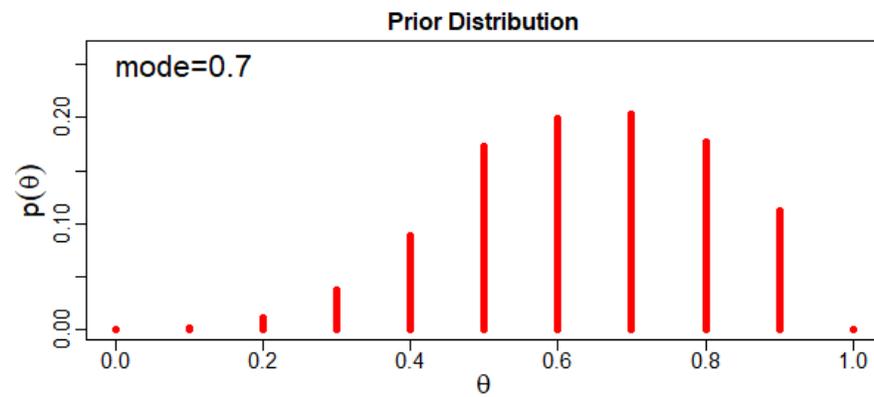


$$O_2=Y$$

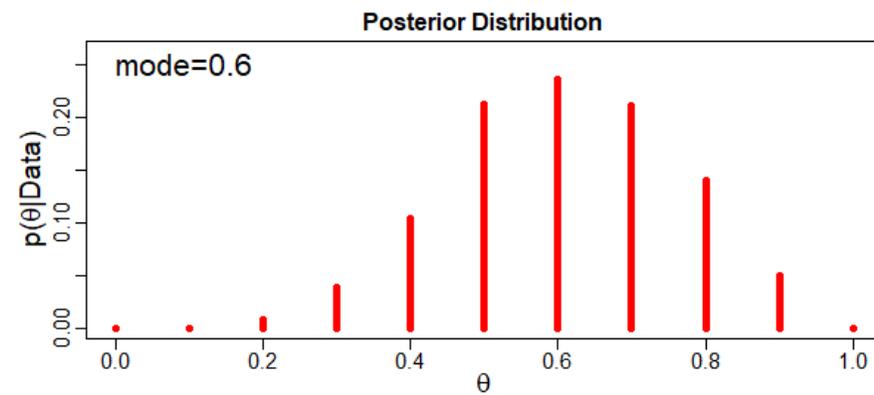
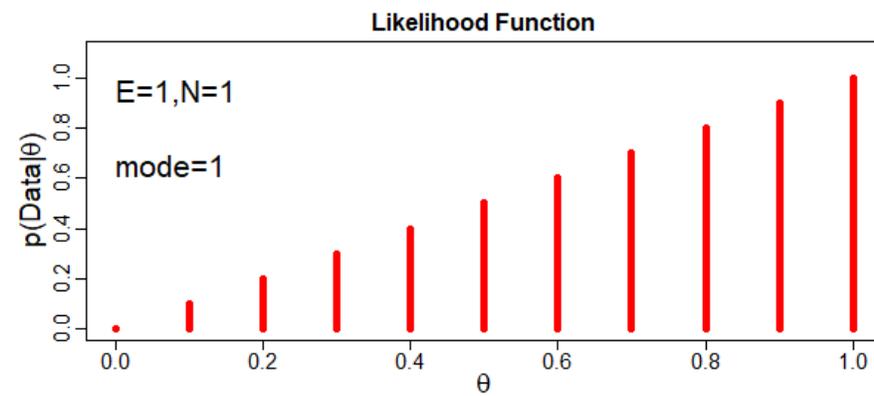
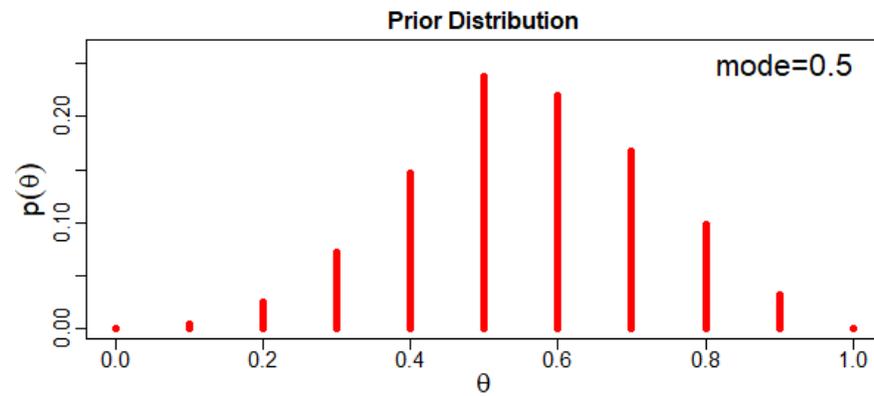
“Today's posterior is tomorrow's prior”
— Lindley



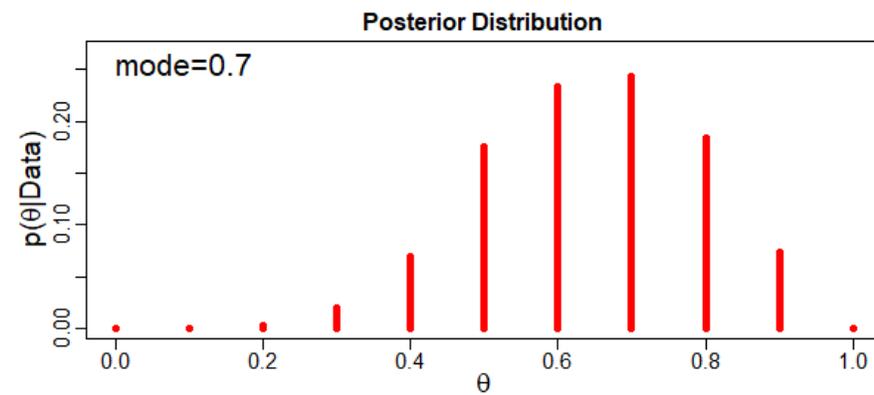
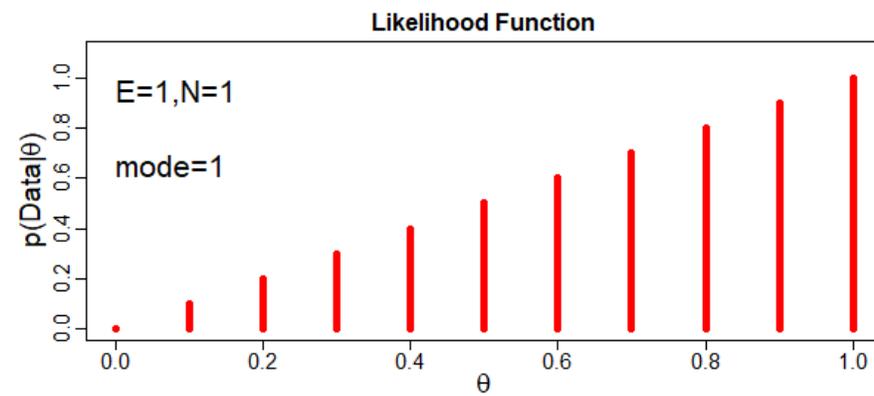
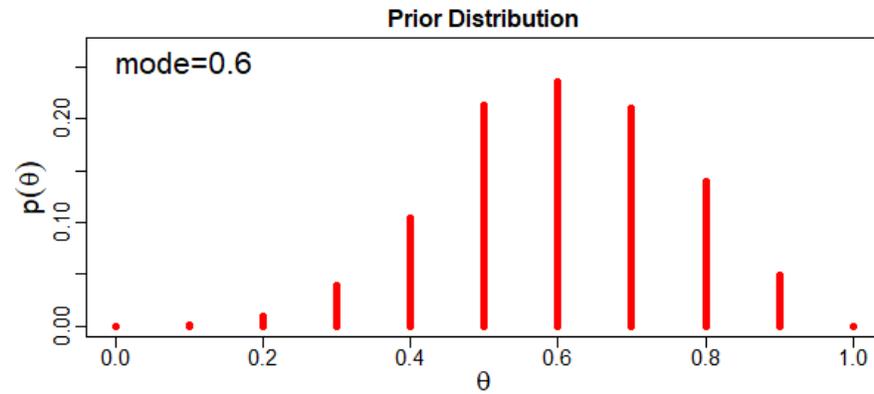
$$O_3 = N$$



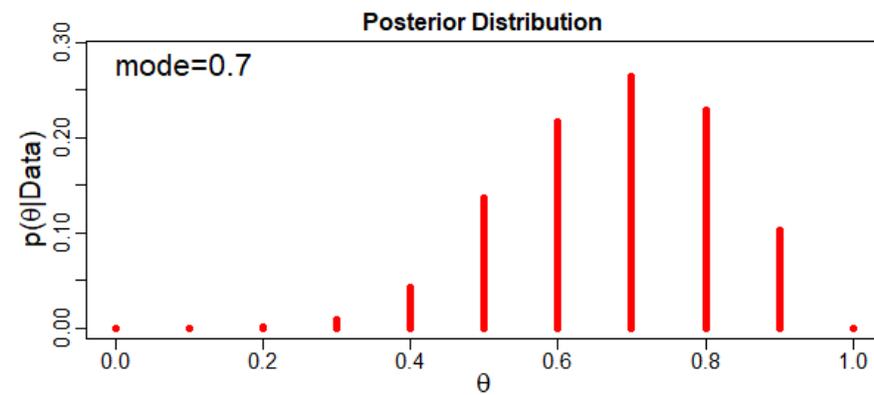
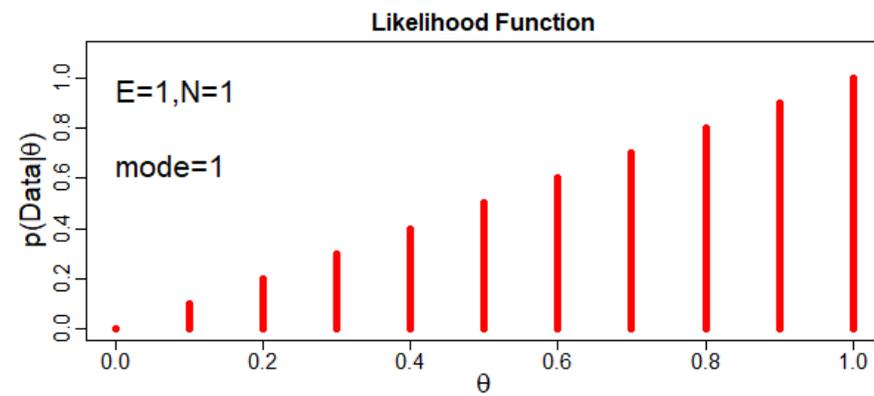
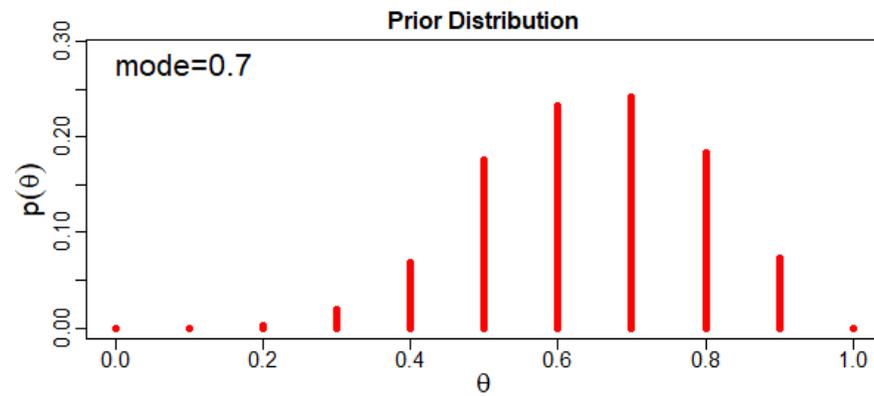
$$O_4 = Y$$



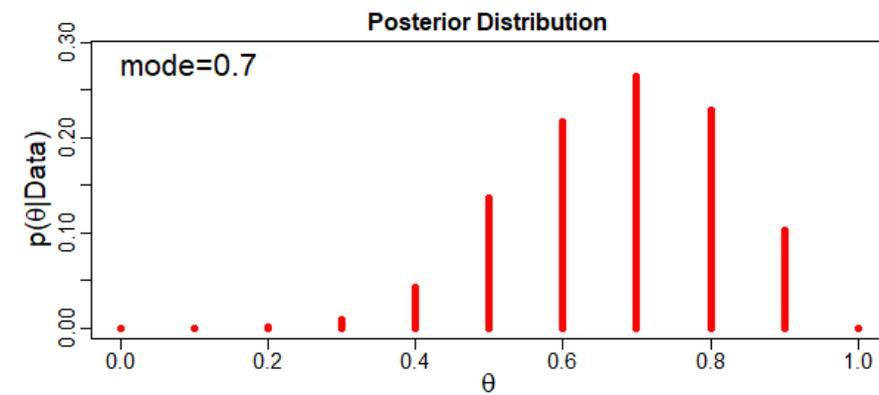
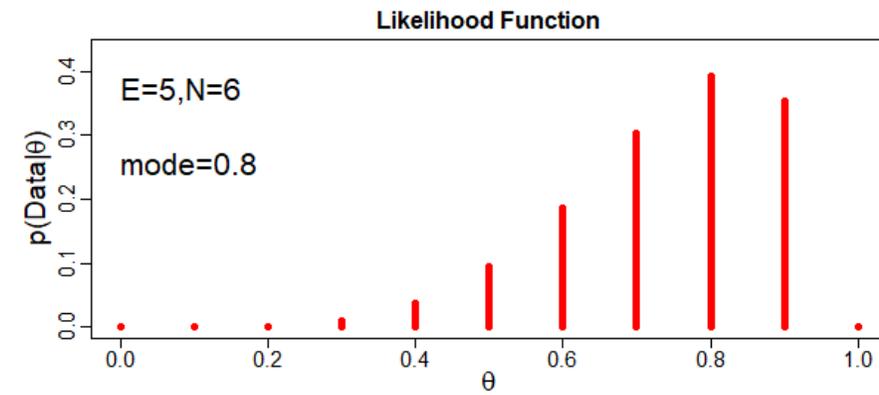
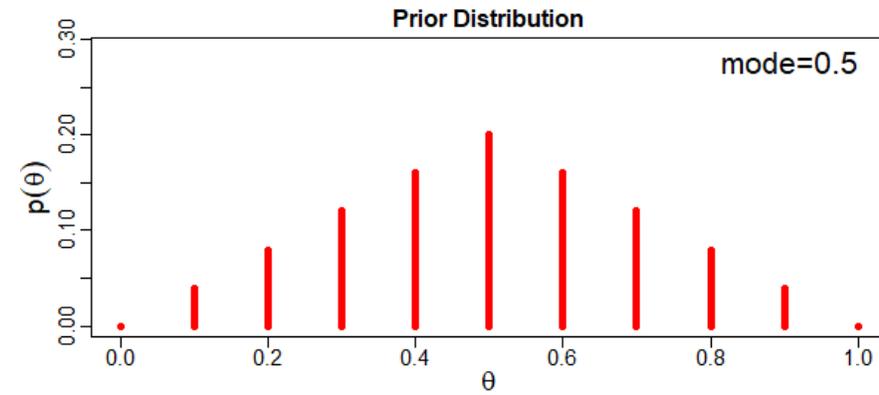
$$O_5 = Y$$



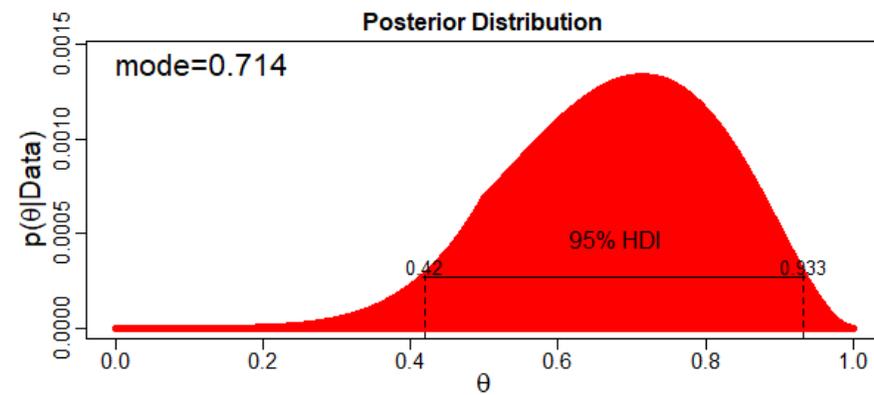
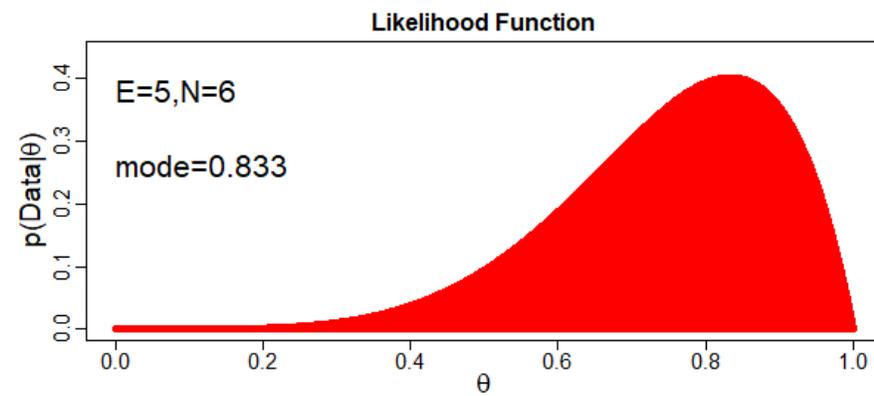
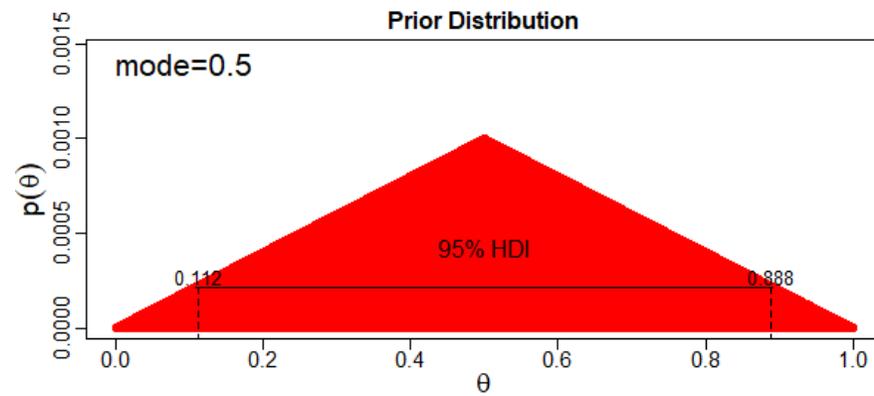
$$O_6 = Y$$



$O_{1..6} = \text{YYNYYY}$



Higher resolution



Conjugate Prior

- We need a distribution to describe our prior belief such that posterior has a closed form distribution
- Beta distribution is an excellent option for parameters in the range $[0,1]$
 - It is the conjugate prior for binomial distribution.
 - Beta prior + binomial = Beta posterior

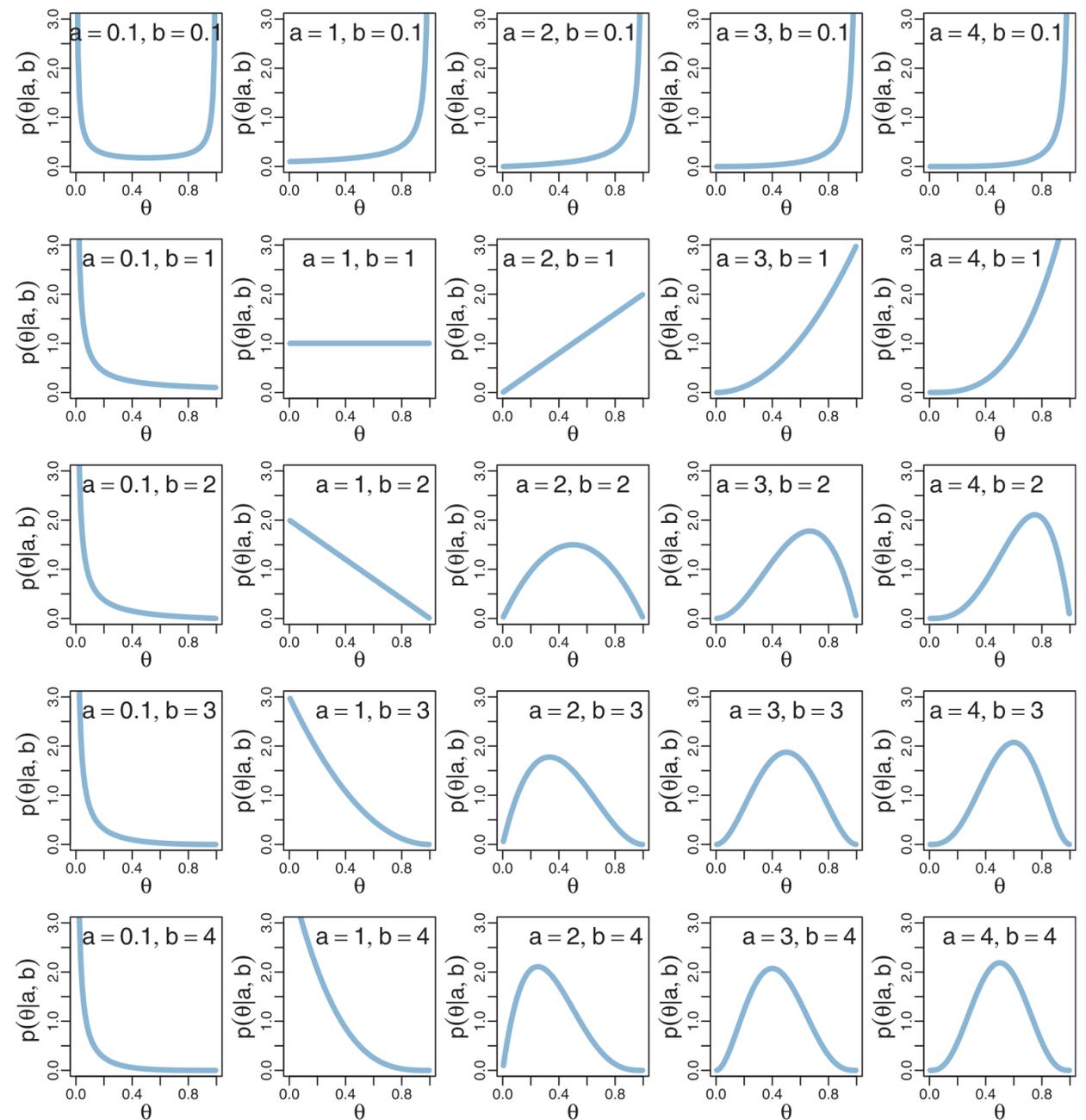
$$p(\theta|a, b) = \text{beta}(a, b) \propto \theta^{(a-1)}(1 - \theta)^{(b-1)}, 0 \leq \theta \leq 1$$

- Mean = $\frac{a}{a+b}$
- Mode = $\frac{a-1}{a+b-2}$
- N samples and E events

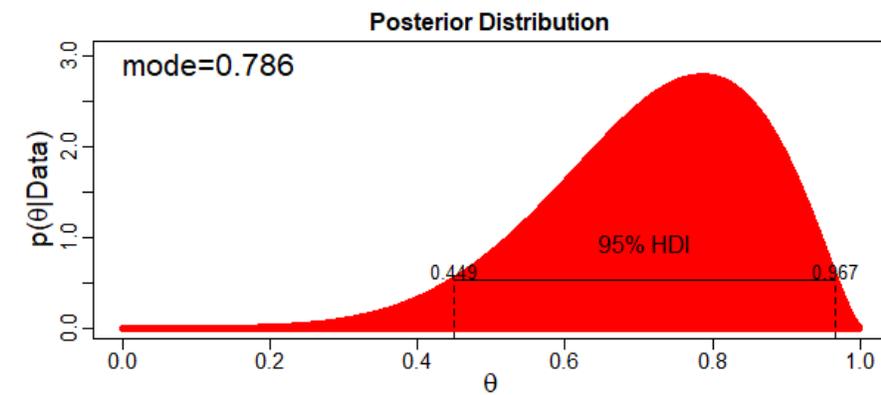
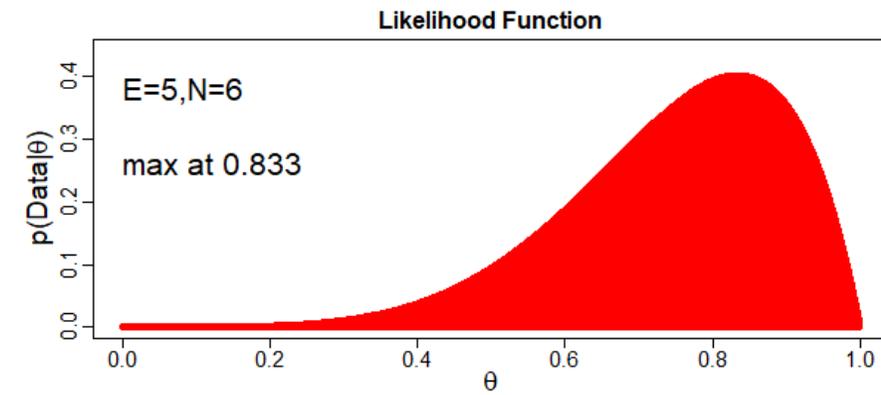
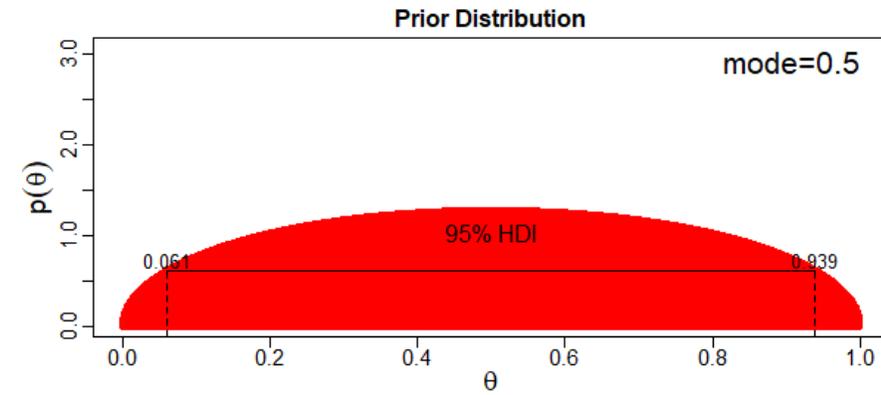
$$p(\text{data}|\theta) = \text{beta}(a + E, b + N - E)$$

- $a + b$ is effective sample size of prior

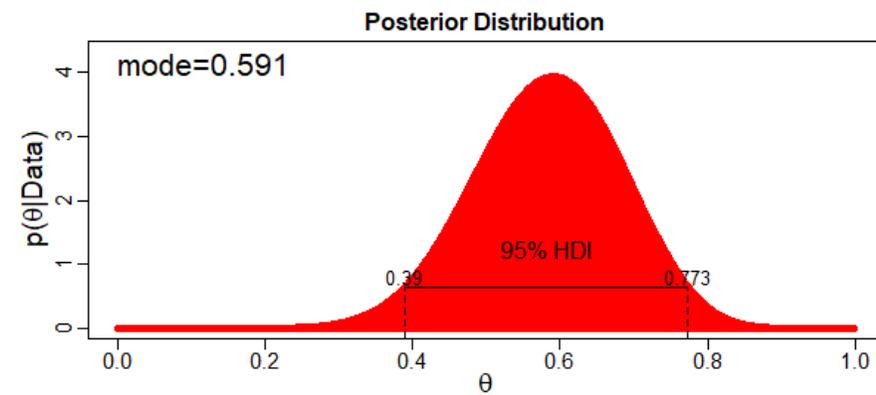
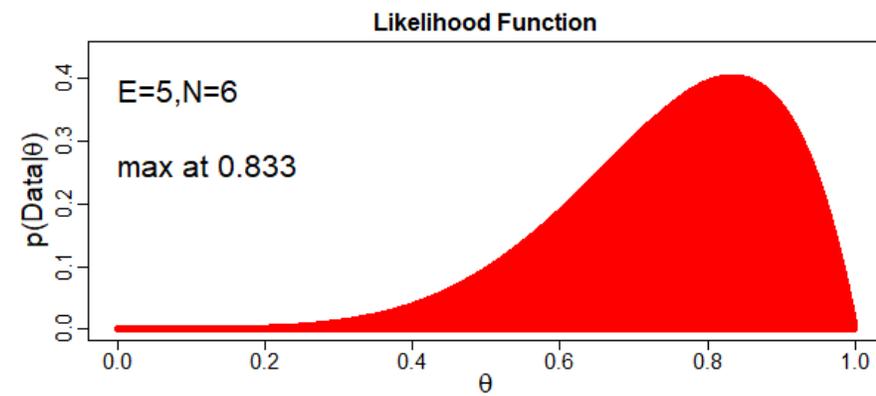
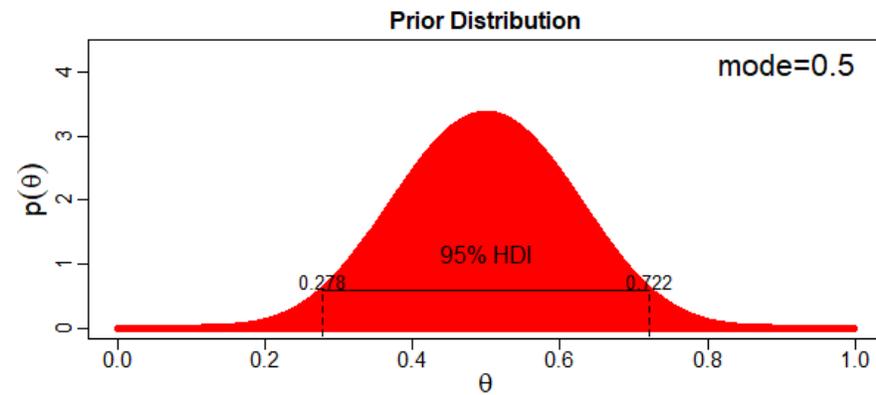
Beta Distribution



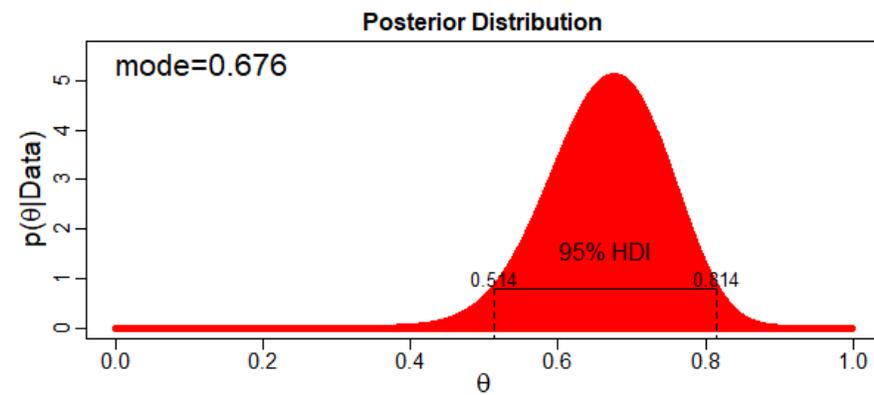
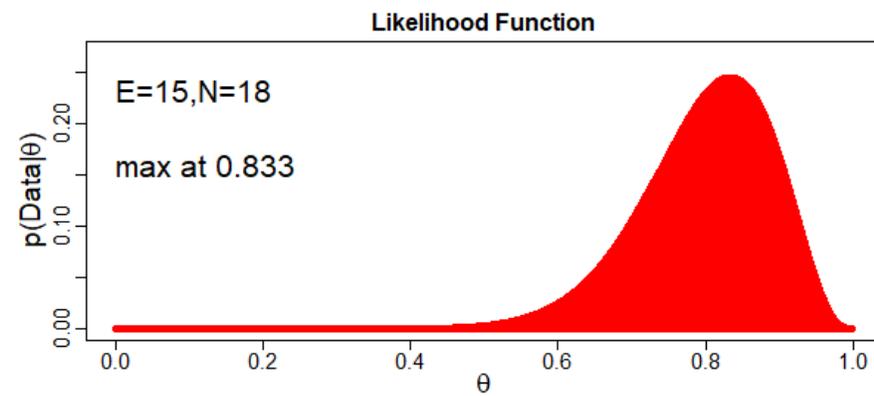
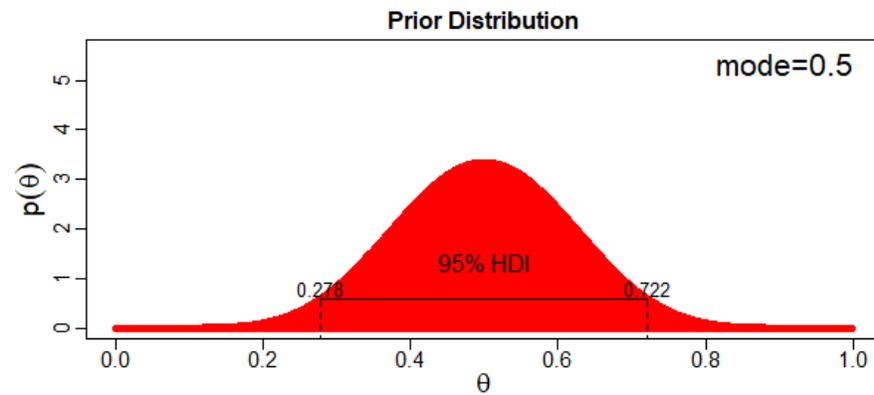
beta(1.5, 1.5)



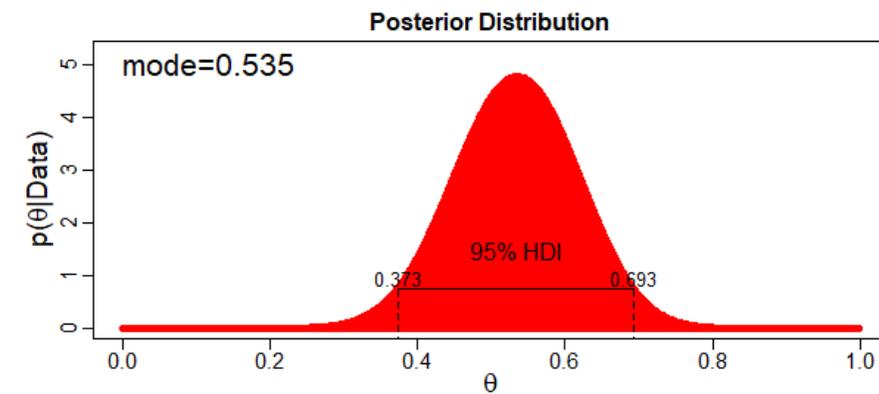
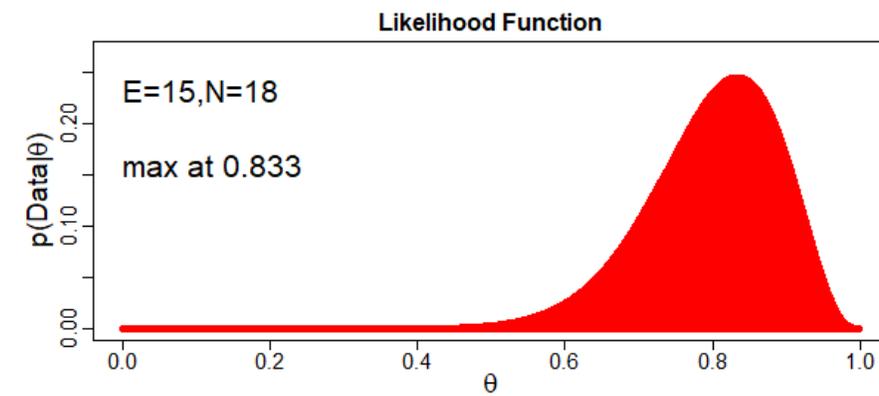
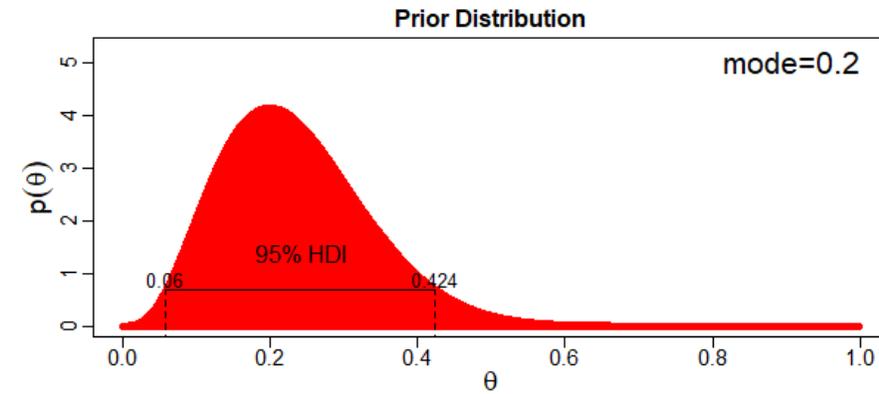
beta(9, 9)



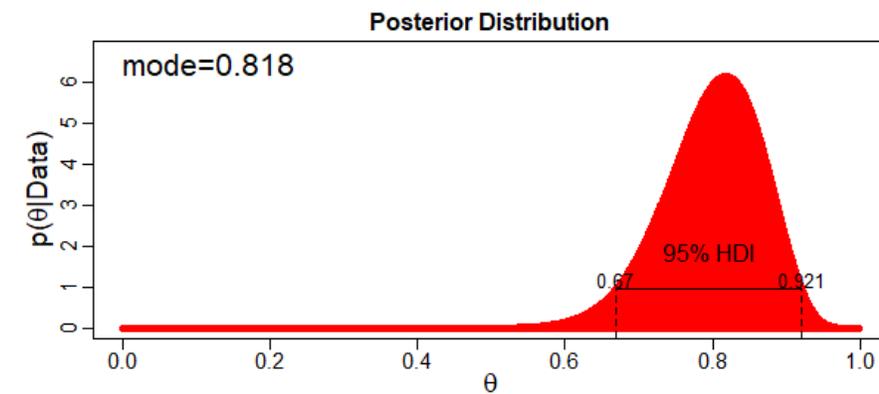
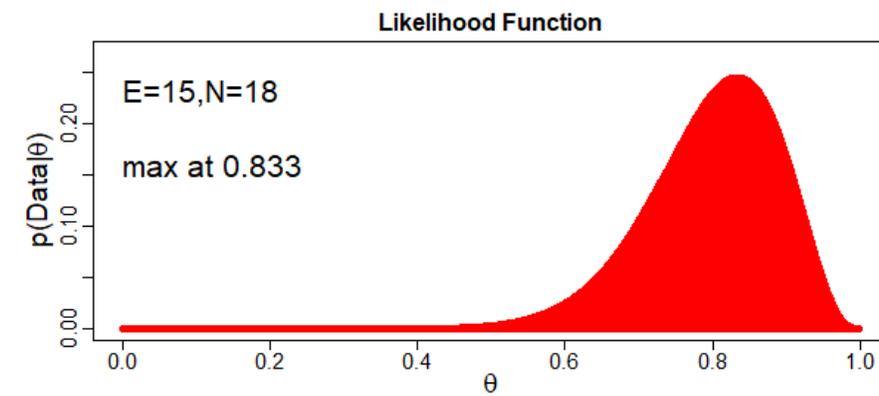
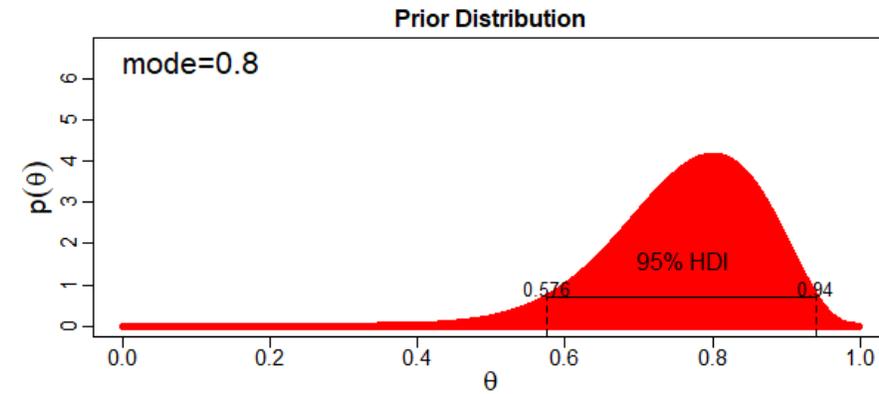
beta(9, 9)



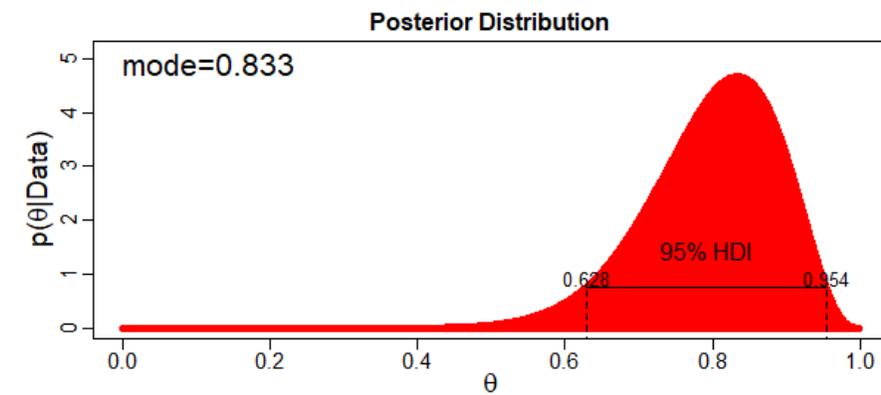
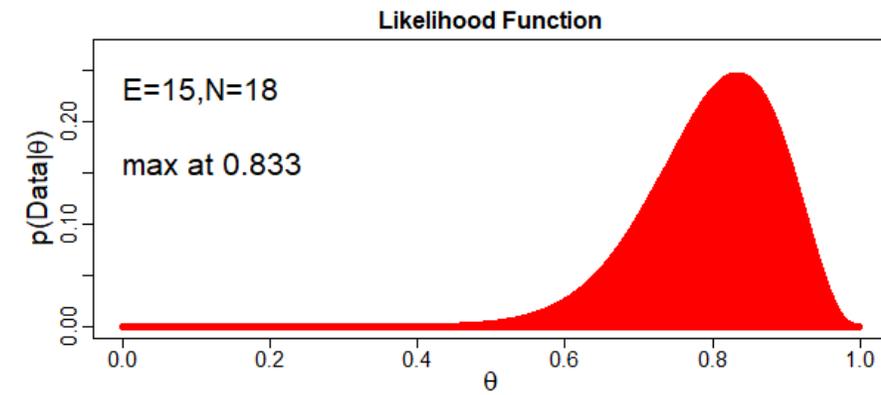
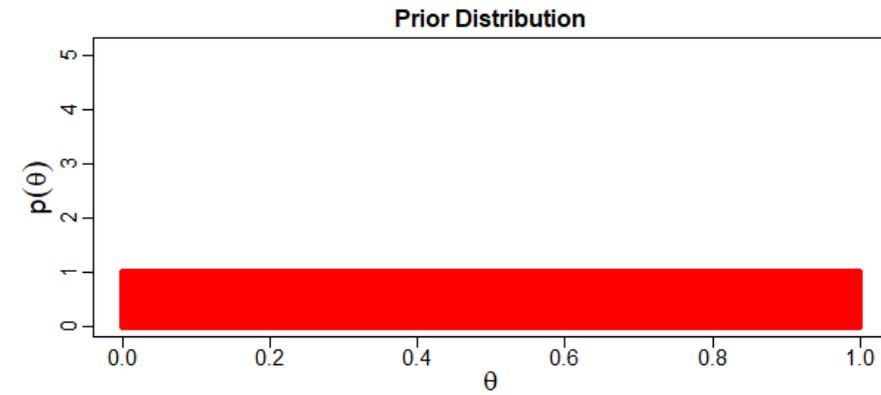
beta(4.2, 13.8)



beta(13.8, 4.2)



beta(1.0, 1.0)



Example: Stopping Rules



$N=24$ and $E=7$.



N is fixed.

Binomial

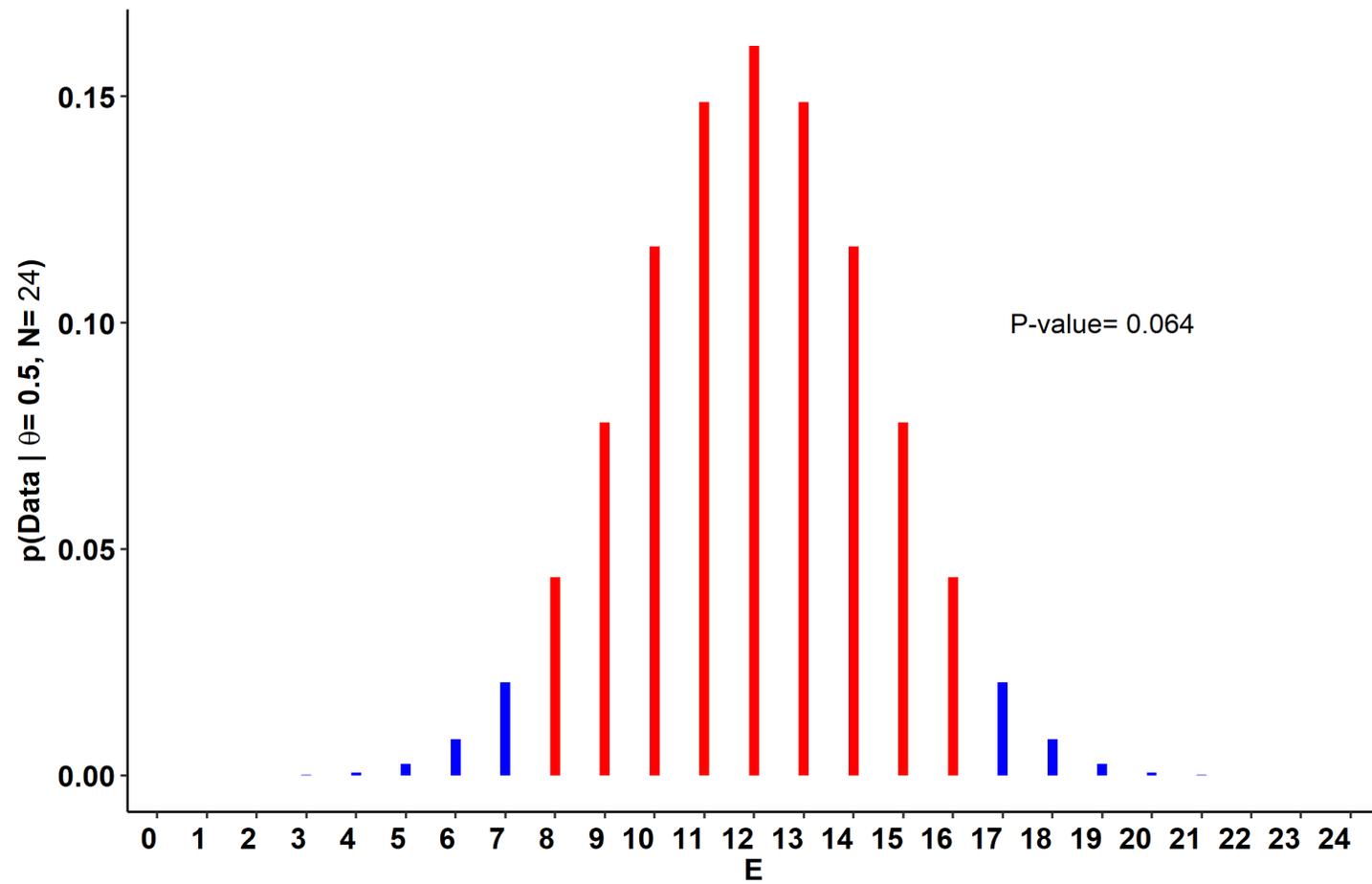


E is fixed.

**Negative
Binomial**

Frequentist: Fixed N, Binomial

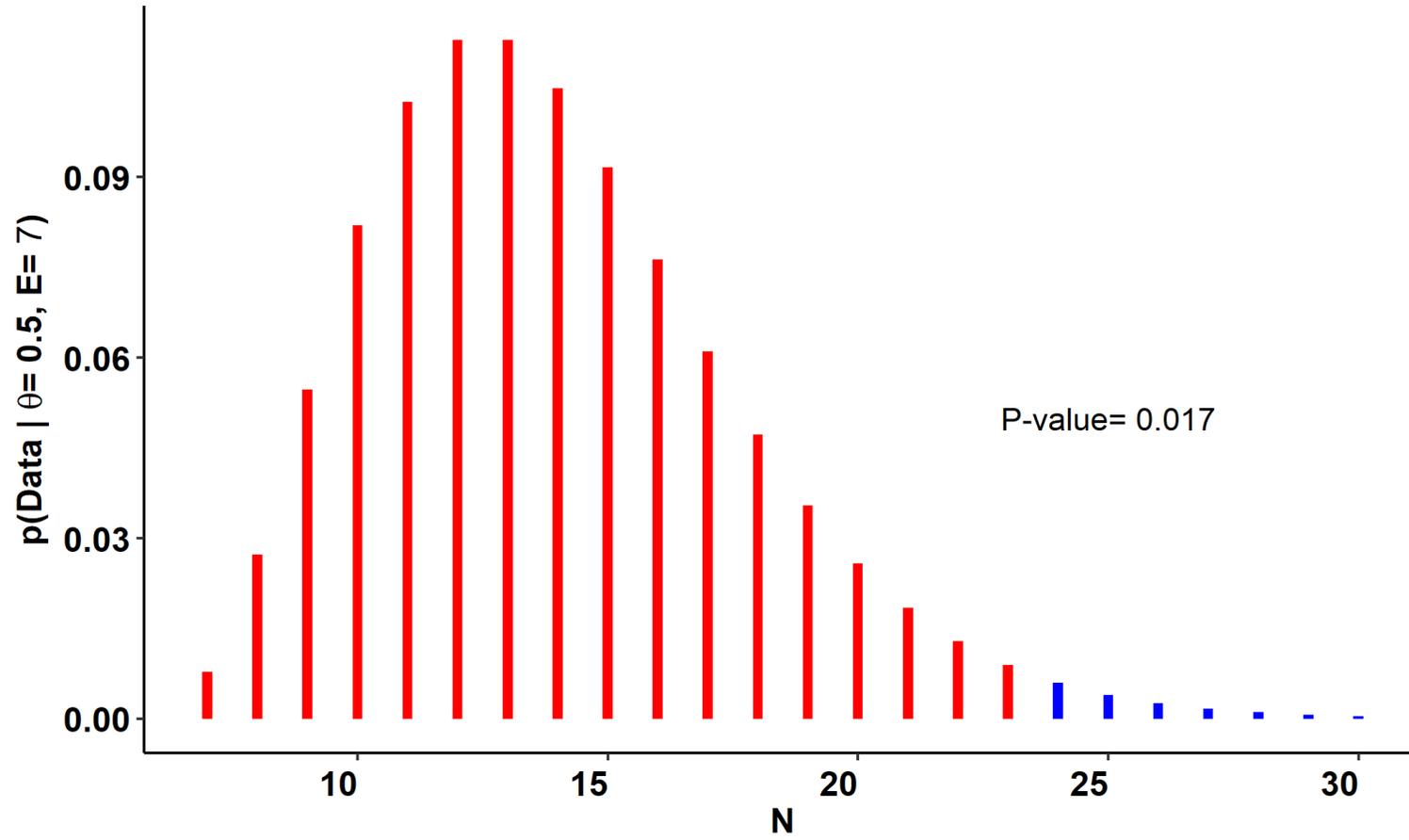
Outcome Space ■ Observed or more extreme ■ Others



Fixed N

Frequentist: Fixed E, Negative Binomial

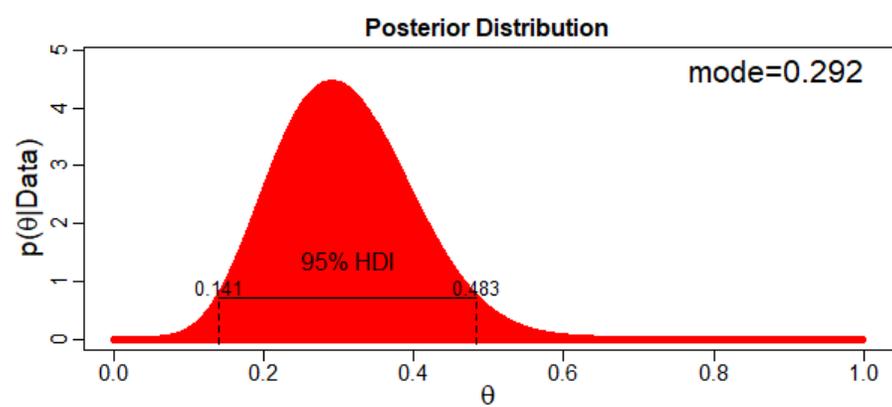
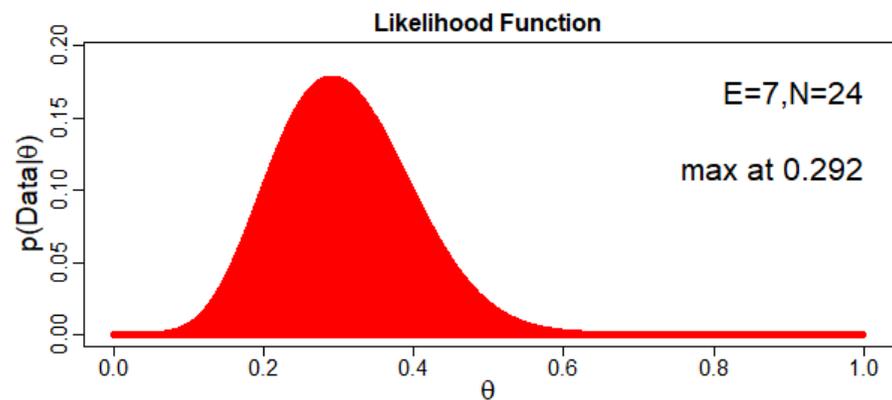
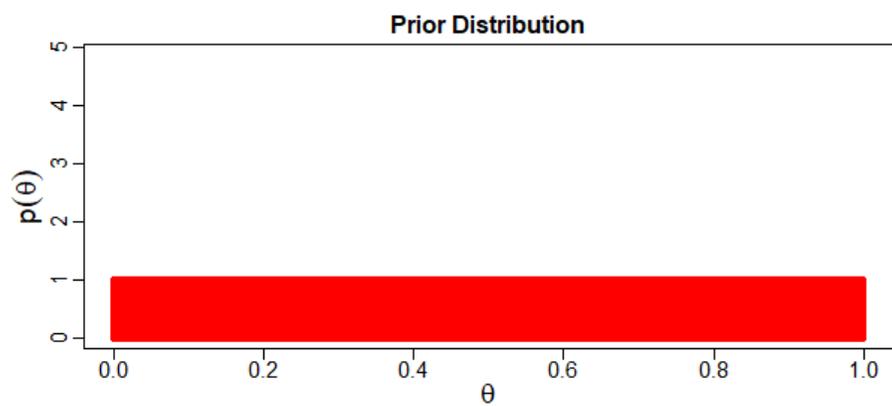
Outcome Space ■ Observed or more extreme ■ Others



P-value= 0.017



Fixed E



Uniform
Prior

Problems with Bayesian Inference

Subjectivity

- Most serious objection to Bayesian statistics.
- Two observers/researchers can arrive at different conclusions
 - Same statistical model
 - Different priors

Denominator is hard to calculate

- In some cases, we can use conjugate priors
 - But in many cases, we cannot
- If the number of parameters are small, we can use grid approximation
- However, even when we have moderate number of parameters, it is not practical to use grid approximation.

Problems with Bayesian Inference

$$P(\theta|Data) = \frac{P(Data|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(Data)} =$$

$$\frac{P(Data|\theta)P(\theta)}{\int_{\theta'} P(Data|\theta')p(\theta')d\theta'}$$

Subjectivity

- Most serious objection to Bayesian statistics.
- Two observers/researchers can arrive at different conclusions
 - Same statistical model
 - Different priors

Denominator is hard to calculate

- In some cases, we can use conjugate priors
 - But in many cases, we cannot
- If the number of parameters are small, we can use grid approximation
- However, even when we have moderate number of parameters, it is not practical to use grid approximation.

Sampling from Posterior

Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- Metropolis–Hastings
 - Gibbs sampling
- JAGS, BUGS

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC)

- STAN



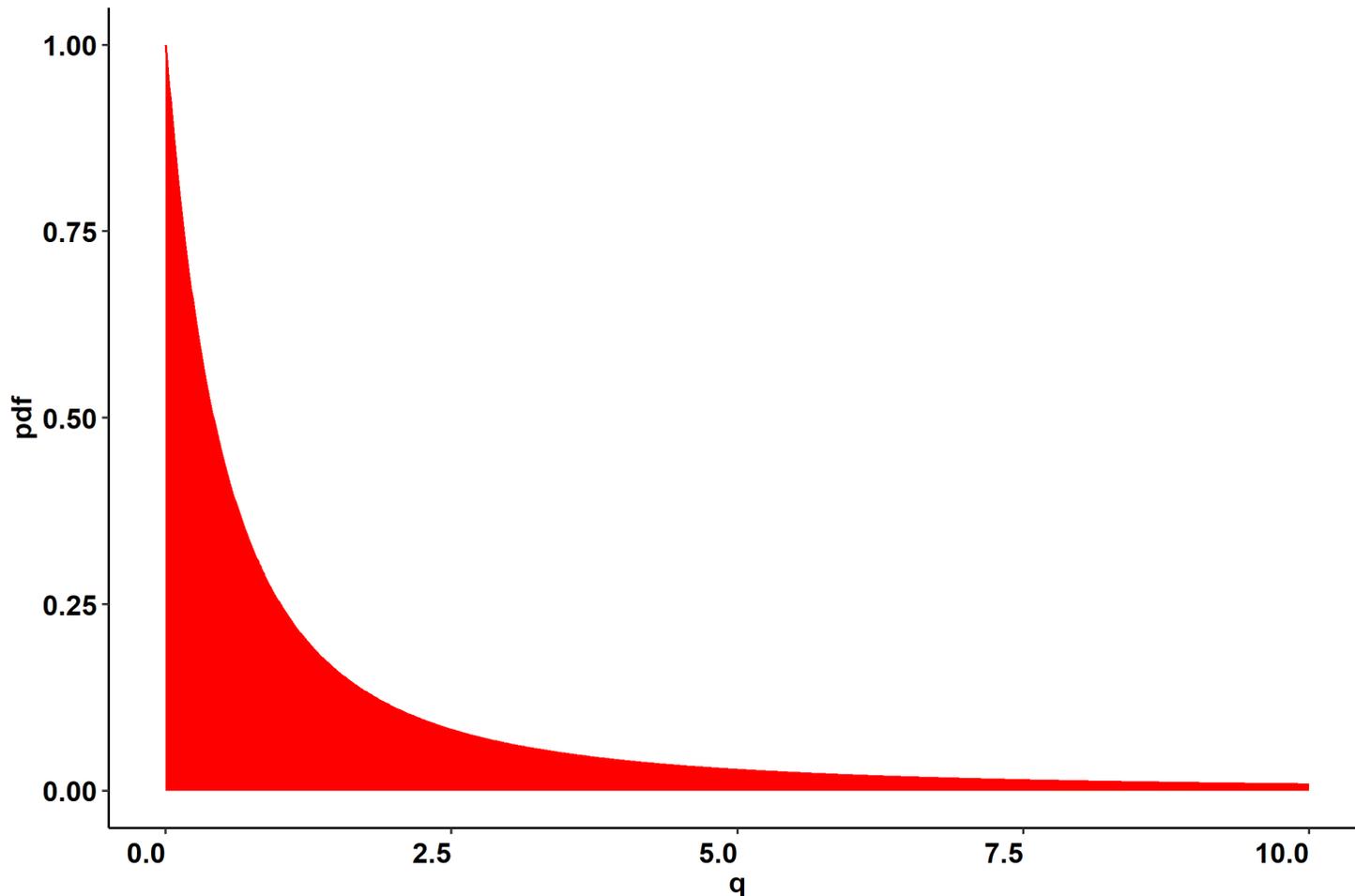
Principle of Indifference

- *“If you are completely ignorant about which of a set of exclusive and exhaustive propositions is true, that you should assign them equal probabilities that sum to one.”*

SOBER, ELLIOTT (2008): Evidence and evolution. The logic behind the science. Cambridge University Press.

Bayesian Inference Violates Principle of indifference

Odds distribution of prior,
when prior distribution for probability is uniform



- Uniform prior.
 - We believe all $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$ have the same prior probability.
 - We might think that this prior is “*uninformative*”.
- Change the θ which is the probability metric to odds

$$q = \frac{\theta}{1-\theta}$$

How to set the prior?

Weakly Informative

Informative priors

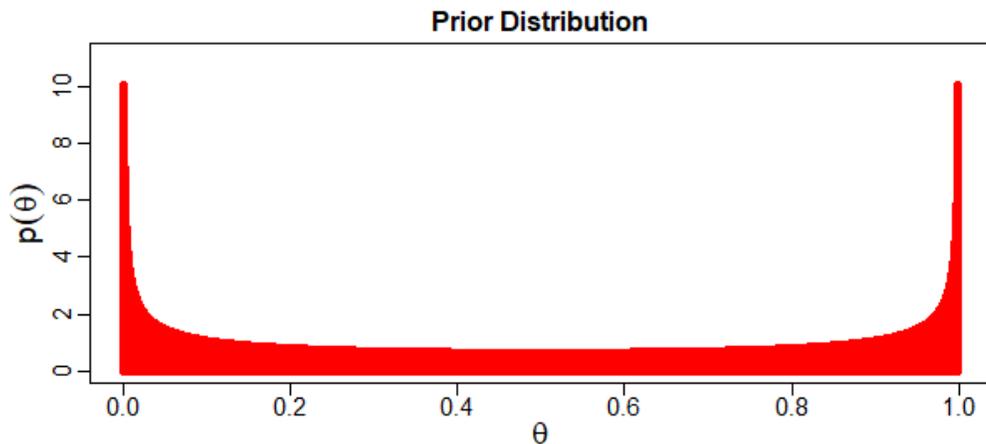
- Prior Studies
 - Moment-Matching
- Expert Knowledge

Objective Priors

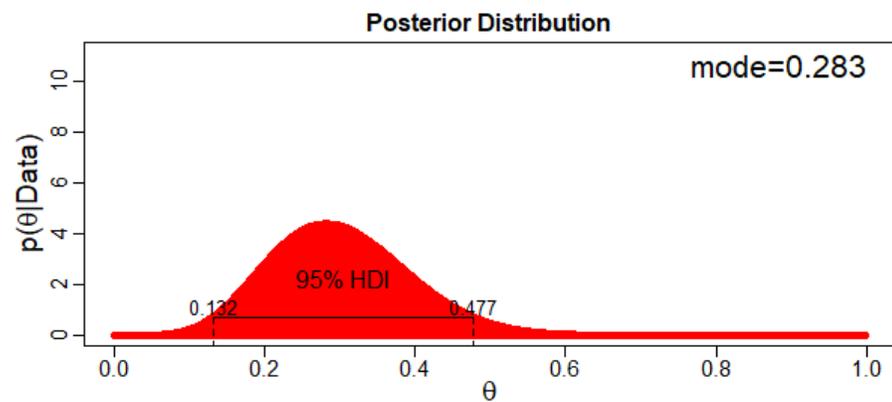
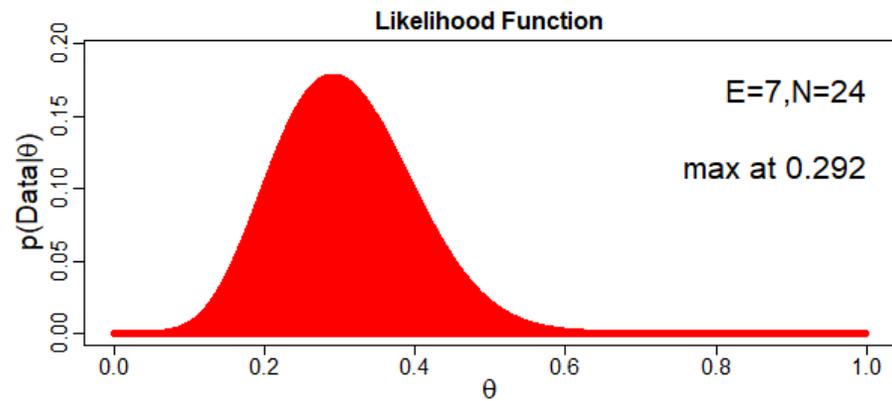
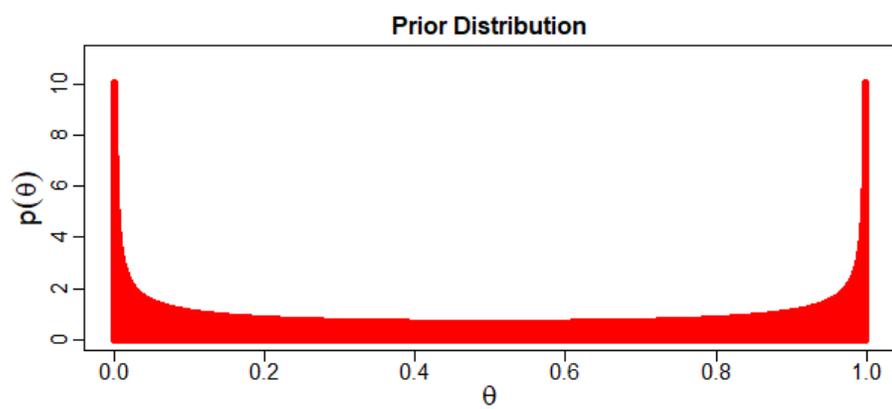
- Jeffreys Prior
- Reference Prior



Jeffreys Prior



- Jeffreys proposed an “objective” prior that is invariant under monotone transformations of the parameter.
 - Based on Fisher information
 - It is not uninformative
- For example, for binomial distribution, Jeffreys Prior is $\text{beta}(0.5,0.5)$.



Jeffreys
prior

Reading Suggestions

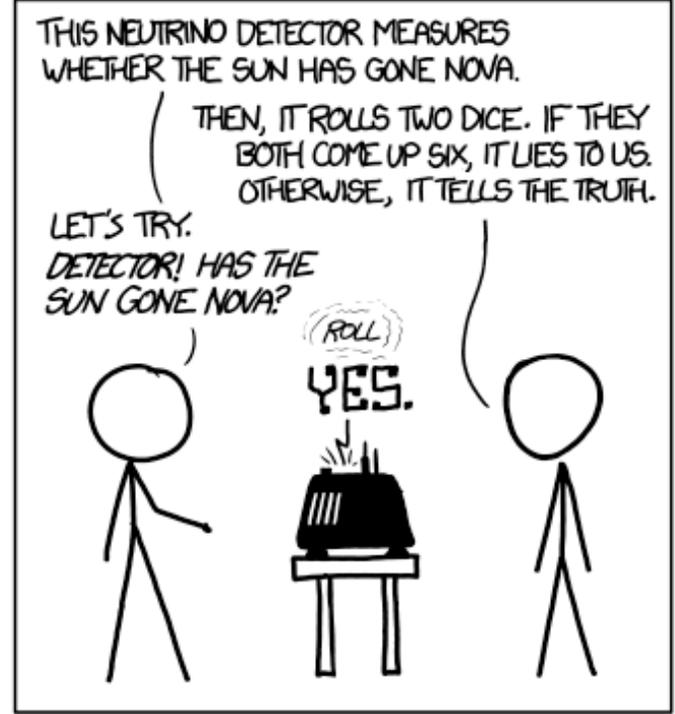
- Kruschke, John K. (Ed.) (2014): Doing Bayesian data analysis. A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press.
 - Some of the simulations was based on the codes from this book.
- Lambert, Ben (2018): A student's guide to Bayesian statistics. 1st. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- McElreath, Richard (2020): Statistical rethinking. A Bayesian course with examples in R and Stan. Taylor and Francis CRC Press.
- SOBER, ELLIOTT (2008): Evidence and evolution. The logic behind the science. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.



Conclusions

- Bayesian Statistics is a very flexible approach
 - Update our belief after observing data
 - Natural statement about the parameters
- Bayesian Inference Violates Principle of indifference

DID THE SUN JUST EXPLODE? (IT'S NIGHT, SO WE'RE NOT SURE.)



FREQUENTIST STATISTICIAN:



BAYESIAN STATISTICIAN:



Thank you!

