

Section 4: Bayesian Statistical Inference

- *Purpose*
 - *Students will learn subjectivist view of probability, use of Bayesian updating, and applications to commonly encountered kinds of data*
- *Objectives*
 - *Students will learn*
 - *Probability interpreted as a quantification of degree of plausibility*
 - *Bayes' Theorem, Bayesian updates*
 - *Use of discrete priors*
 - *Conjugate priors for Poisson, binomial, and exponential data*
 - *Model validation, checking consistency of data and prior*
 - *Jeffreys noninformative prior for Poisson, binomial, and exponential data*
 - *Techniques for using other priors such as lognormal*

Bayesian Statistical Inference

- *Topics to be covered*
 - *Logic of Probability Theory*
 - *Subjective probability*
 - *Bayes' Theorem*
 - *Prior distributions*
 - *Discrete and continuous*
 - *Conjugate*
 - *Noninformative*
 - *Nonconjugate*

Bayesian Statistical Inference



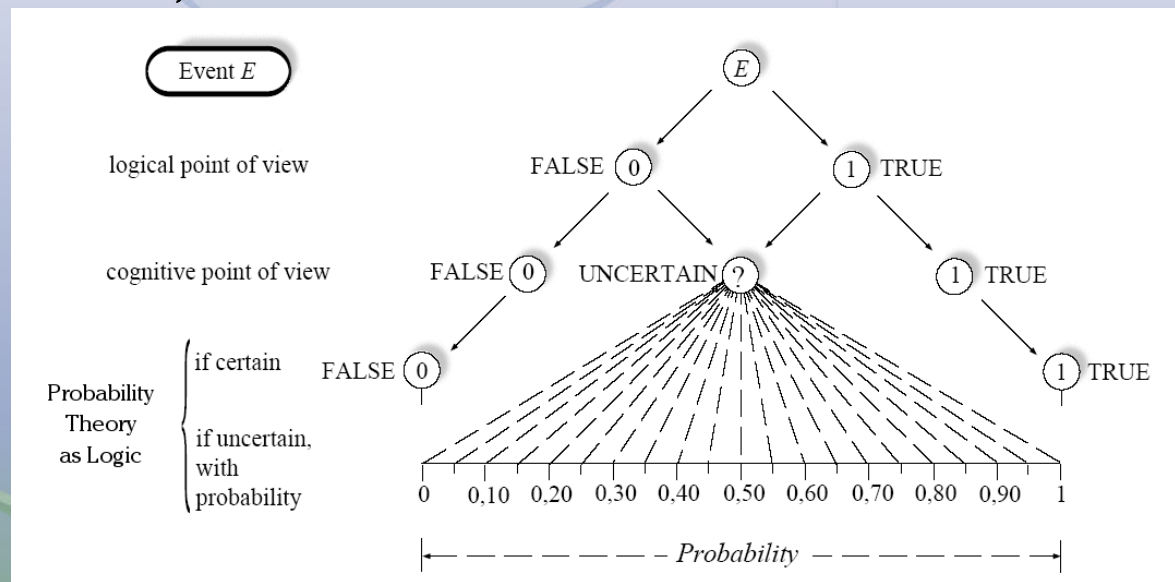
- *General framework is covered in HOPE...*
 - *Page 6-2 (one-page introduction)*
 - *Section 6.2.2 for initiating events and running failures*
 - *Failure to run is also covered in Section 6.5*
 - *Section 6.3.2 for failures on demand*
 - *Section 8.3 for hierarchical Bayes methods*
 - *Section B.5 for summary of Bayesian estimation*

Motivation for Bayesian Inference

- *Two problems with frequentist inference*
 - *If data are sparse, MLE can be unrealistic*
 - *No way to propagate uncertainties through the logic model*
- *Solution: A different interpretation of “probability”*
 - *Information about the parameter, beyond what is in the data, is included in the estimate*
 - *Use simulation to pass the uncertainties through the logic model*

Bayesian Statistical Inference

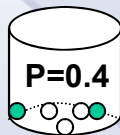
- In the **Bayesian**, or “subjectivist,” approach, probability is a **quantification of degree of belief**
 - It is used to describe the plausibility of an event
 - Plausibility – “Apparent validity”
 - A mechanism to encode **information**
- Note that, for “Bayes’ Theorem,”
 - Thomas Bayes never wrote it
 - Laplace first used it in real problems



Bayesian Statistical Inference (cont.)

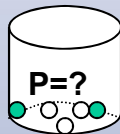
- So what we have is three types of probability

Classical (since 1600's)



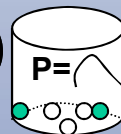
Equally likely outcomes, $P(\text{green}) = 0.4$
Known sample space, no data, thus no confidence interval

Frequentist (since 1920's)



$P = \lim x/n$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, data used for inference, confidence intervals used

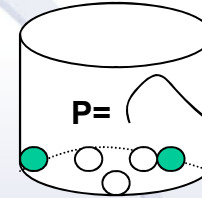
Bayesian (1700's, 1930's-)



P depends only on state of knowledge, unlike classical, no such thing as an inherent P , we **assign** probability

Bayesian Statistical Inference (cont.)

- Looking at the urn for the Bayesian case
 - We have different possible perspectives
 - $P(p=\# \mid \text{completely ignorant}) = ?$
 - $P(p=\# \mid \text{knowledge of other urns, selected a couple from urn}) = ?$
 - $P(p=\# \mid \text{“cheated” by looking in urn}) = ?$
 - Also, for Bayesian analysis, no “population” is needed
 - But of course, the more knowledge we have, the better off we are
 - Nuclear power plant PRA relies a great deal on the body of engineering knowledge in order to perform calculations



Bayesian Parameter[†] Estimation

- *The general procedure is:*
 1. *Begin with a prior distribution about parameter, quantifying uncertainty, i.e., quantifying degree of belief about possible parameter values*
 2. *Observe and analyze data*
 3. *Obtain the posterior distribution for the parameter*
- *We follow this process to determine the probability that a hypothesis is true, conditional on **all** available evidence*
 - *This approach is fundamentally different from the classical statistics methods*

[†] Note that in PRA, other uncertainties exist, such as model uncertainty

Bayesian Parameter Estimation (cont.)

- Consider the unknown parameter λ . Same idea if the parameter is p .
- For now, assume X is discrete, with $f(x | \lambda) = \Pr(X=x | \lambda)$.
- Also assume that the unknown parameter λ can only take discrete values, $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots$
- Define prior distribution, $g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda_i) = \Pr(\lambda = \lambda_i)$.
- By Bayes' Theorem,

$$\Pr(\lambda = \lambda_i) = \frac{\Pr(X = x | \lambda = \lambda_i) \Pr(\lambda = \lambda_i)}{\sum \Pr(X = x | \lambda = \lambda_j) \Pr(\lambda = \lambda_j)}$$

or

$$g_{\text{posterior}}(\lambda_i) = \frac{f(x | \lambda_i) g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda_i)}{\sum f(x | \lambda_j) g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda_j)}$$

- Denominator is a normalizing constant.

Bayesian Parameter Estimation (cont.)

- General version, including discrete and continuous cases
- Define $g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda)$, the prior p.d.f. of λ
- Let $f(x | \lambda)$ be the p.d.f. of X , dependent on λ
 - This is the **likelihood**
- The posterior p.d.f. of λ is

$$g_{\text{posterior}}(\lambda) \propto f(x | \lambda)g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda)$$

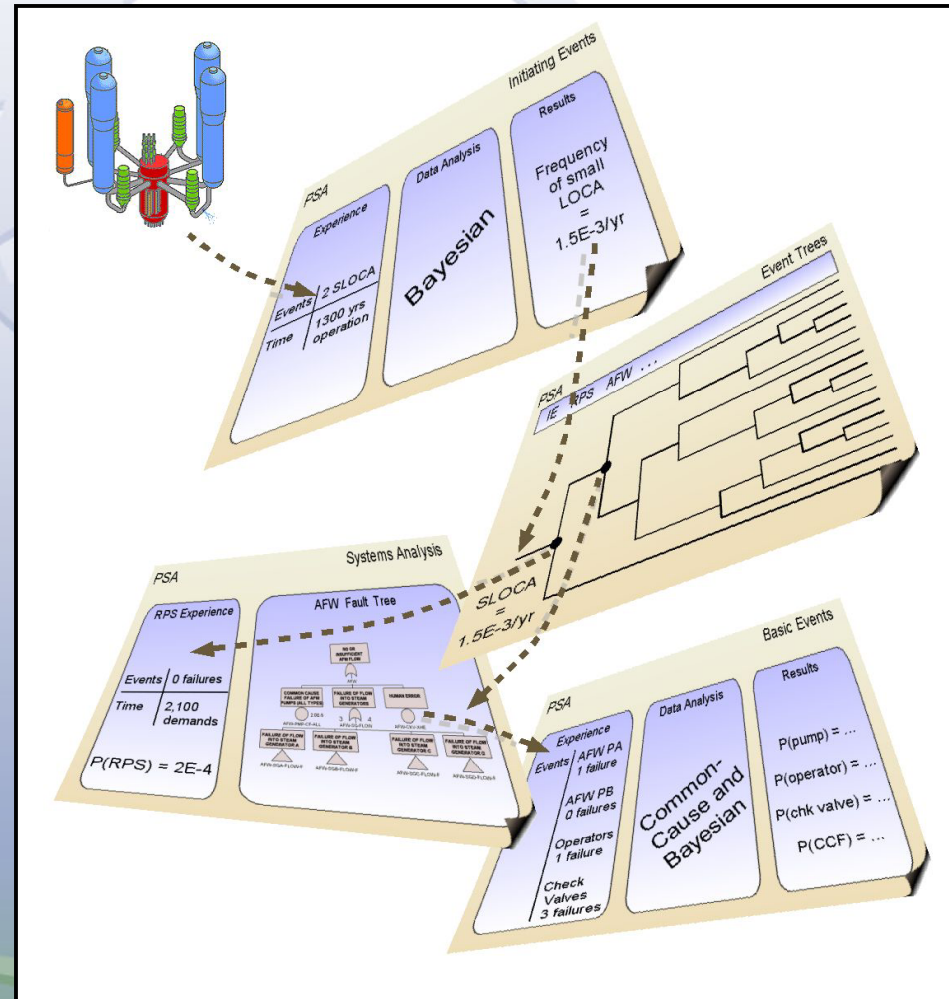
- $g_{\text{posterior}}$ **is proportional to** the expression on the right.

Bayesian Parameter Estimation (cont.)

- *If prior distribution is continuous, parameter has values over a continuous range (and infinitely many possible values).*
- *Even though our **goal** is to obtain a distribution $[g_{post}(\lambda | x)]$ on a parameter λ , need to remember*
 - *λ is assigned a distribution (i.e., information)*
 - *Often convenient to summarize distribution by metrics such as mean, variance, or percentiles*
 - *Note that the distribution is subjective, not a real, physical distribution*
 - *For example, the “urn” does not change even though information (and probability) on its contents may change*

Bayesian Parameter Estimation (cont.)

- In PRA, we repeat the estimation process and incorporate into our models



Uses of Posterior Distribution

- *For presentation purposes*
 - *Plot the posterior p.d.f.*
 - *Give the posterior mean*
 - *Give a **Bayes credible interval**, an interval that contains most of the posterior probability (e.g. 90% or 95%)*
- *For risk assessment*
 - *Sample from the distribution of each parameter*
 - *Combine the results to obtain sample from Bayes distribution of end-state frequency*

Historical Use of Bayes Theorem

- *Laplace, in 1774, used Bayesian methods to estimate the mass of Saturn*
 - *Assumed uniform prior density (what was known at the time)*
 - *Data consisted of mutual perturbations between Jupiter and Saturn*
- *His result was that he gave **odds** of 11,000 to 1 that his mass estimate is not in error by more than 1%*
 - *What do odds of 11,000 to 1 imply?*
 - *That the estimate $\pm 1\%$ is 99.99% credible interval*
- *200 years of science increased his estimate by about 0.6%*
 - *Laplace would have won his bet (so far!)*

PRA Applications of Bayes' Theorem

- *We are going to focus on three different situations related to **different types** of prior information*
 - *Discrete priors*
 - *Conjugate priors*
 - *Informative*
 - *Noninformative*
- *We will discuss, but not focus on, nonconjugate priors*

Discrete Prior Distributions

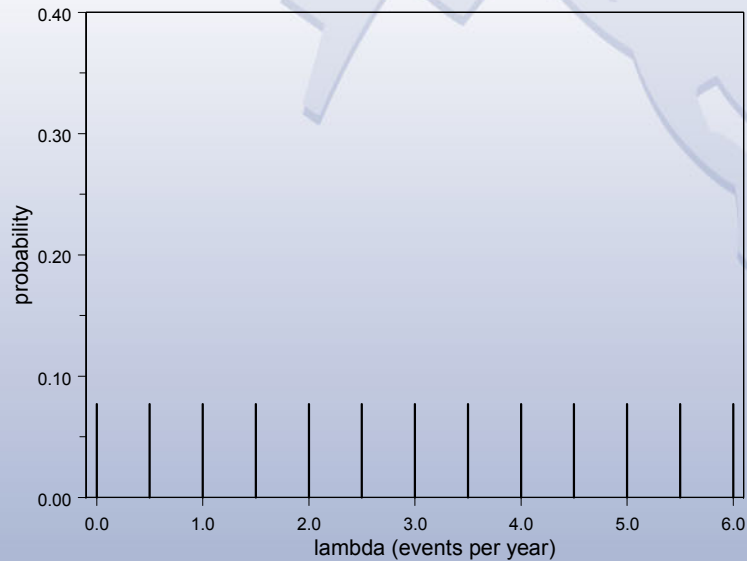
- *These priors are easy with a spreadsheet*
 - *Follows directly from Bayes' Theorem*
 - *For example, see page 4-7*

$$\Pr(\lambda = \lambda_i) = \frac{\Pr(X = x | \lambda = \lambda_i) \Pr(\lambda = \lambda_i)}{\sum \Pr(X = x | \lambda = \lambda_j) \Pr(\lambda = \lambda_j)}$$

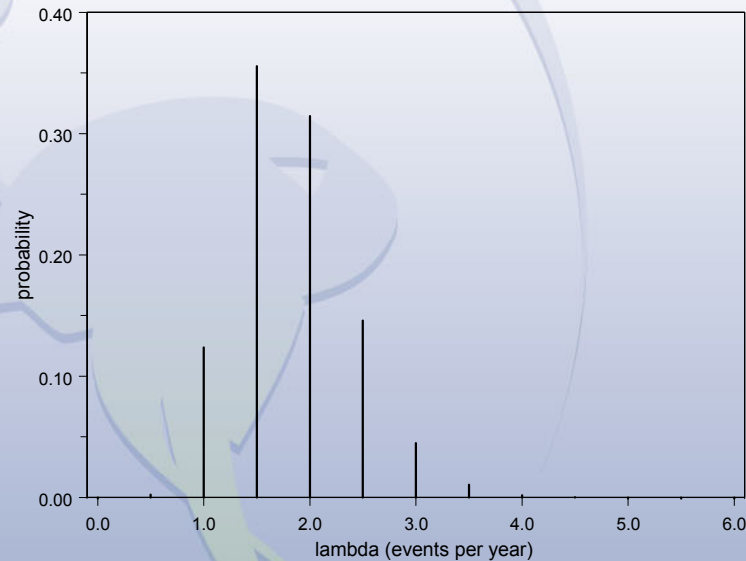
- *Numerator on right in Bayes' Theorem is the product of the likelihood times the prior probability of λ_i*
 - *To obtain full posterior probability, divide every such product by the sum of all such products*
 - *This makes the posterior probabilities (for all possible values of λ_j) sum to 1.0*



Example of Discrete Prior and Posterior



*Coarse discrete prior for λ
(events per year)*



*Posterior for λ , based on 10
observed events in 6 years*

Conjugate Priors

- *In this section, we will address **three** common cases found in PRA*
 - *Poisson process*
 - *Exponential process*
 - *Binomial process*

Industry Priors for LOSP Example (For Later Reference)

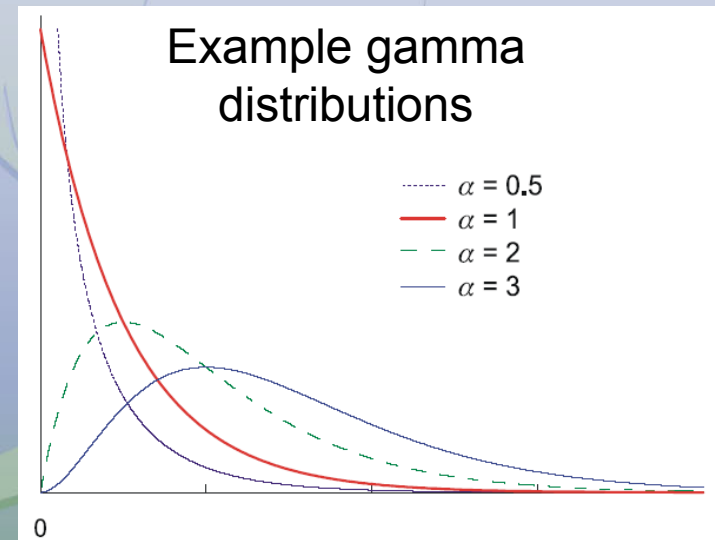
- $\lambda_{LOSP} \sim \text{gamma}(13.8, 747 \text{ reactor-critical years})$
 - From “Evaluation of Loss of Offsite Power Events at Nuclear Power Plants: 1986-2003,” NUREG/CR-????, 2005?
 - Above result is built from several subtypes of LOSP event
 - Above result excludes Aug. 14, 2003 widespread blackout (simultaneous LOSP at 8 operating plants)
- $\rho_{FTS} \sim \text{beta}(0.957, 190)$
 - From Eide (2003)
- $\lambda_{FTR} \sim \text{gamma}(1.32, 1137 \text{ hrs})$
 - From Eide (2003)
 - Above result constructed from two rates in paper

Conjugate Prior – Poisson Data

- *Facts about gamma(α , β) distribution, see HOPE*
 - *gamma(α , β) density is*
 - $g(\lambda) = C \lambda^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda\beta}$
 - *when $\alpha = 1$, then you have the **exponential** distribution*
 - *mean = α / β*
 - *Example, if $\alpha = 1$ and $\beta = 10$ then mean = 0.1*
 - *variance = α / β^2*
 - *100p percentile = $[\chi^2_p(2\alpha)] / (2\beta)$*

Conjugate Prior – Poisson Data (cont.)

- Some programs, including Excel, use $1/\beta$ instead of β as the second parameter for a **Gamma** distribution
 - Example, $\alpha=1.5$, $\beta=10$, in Excel
 - =Gammainv(p, α , $1/\beta$)
 - =Gammainv(0.05, 1.5, 0.1) = 0.0176 (which is the 5%)
 - Using chi-square (on previous page)
 - = $[\chi^2_p(2\alpha)] / (2\beta)$
 - = $[\chi^2_p(3)] / (20)$
 - = $0.35/20 = 0.018$
 - In SAPHIRE, specify mean and alpha, which gives $5^{th}=0.018$



Conjugate Prior – Poisson Data (cont.)

- Now, we have a component with x failures in time t
- If X is **Poisson**(λt) and $g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda)$ is **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{prior}}, \beta_{\text{prior}}$)
 - Then posterior distribution of λ is
 - **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{posterior}}, \beta_{\text{posterior}}$)
$$\alpha_{\text{posterior}} = \alpha_{\text{prior}} + x \quad (x = \# \text{ events})$$
$$\beta_{\text{posterior}} = \beta_{\text{prior}} + t \quad (t = \text{time related to seeing } x \text{ events})$$
 - Therefore, posterior mean = $(\alpha_{\text{prior}} + x)/(\beta_{\text{prior}} + t)$
 - compromise between MLE, x/t
and prior mean, $\alpha_{\text{prior}} / \beta_{\text{prior}}$
 - Posterior intervals generally shorter than those from data alone or prior alone

Conjugate Prior – Poisson Data (cont.)

- If X is Poisson(λt) and $g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda)$ is gamma($\alpha_{\text{prior}}, \beta_{\text{prior}}$), we indicated that $g_{\text{posterior}}(\lambda)$ is **also** a gamma distribution

$$\alpha_{\text{posterior}} = \alpha_{\text{prior}} + x \quad (x = \# \text{ events})$$

$$\beta_{\text{posterior}} = \beta_{\text{prior}} + t \quad (t = \text{time related to seeing } x \text{ events})$$

- Thus, the α parameter is **like** the number of failures while the β parameter is **like** the time period
 - If a PRA or a database indicates $\alpha = 1$ and $\beta = 100$ hr, then this is like seeing one failure in 100 hours of operation

Conjugate Prior – Exponential Data

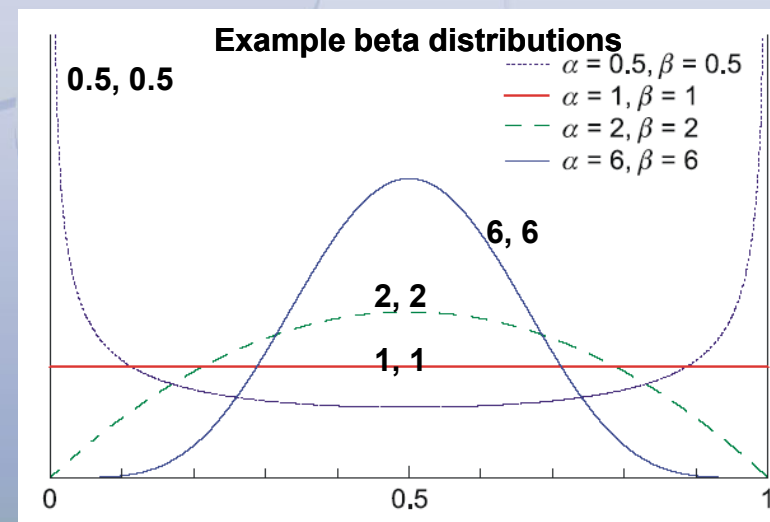
- If T_1, \dots, T_n are independent **exponential**(λ) and $g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda)$ is **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{prior}}, \beta_{\text{prior}}$)
 - Then posterior distribution of λ is
 - **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{posterior}}, \beta_{\text{posterior}}$)

$$\alpha_{\text{posterior}} = \alpha_{\text{prior}} + n \quad (n = \# \text{ events})$$

$$\beta_{\text{posterior}} = \beta_{\text{prior}} + \sum t_i \quad (t_i = \text{times related to seeing } n \text{ events})$$
- Again, for a **gamma**(α, β) distribution
 - mean = α / β
 - variance = α / β^2
 - 100p percentile = $[\chi^2_p(2\alpha)] / (2\beta)$

Conjugate Prior – Binomial Data

- *Facts about beta(α , β) distribution*
 - *beta(α , β) density is $g(p) = C p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1}$*
 - *mean = $\alpha / (\alpha + \beta)$*
 - *variance = $\text{mean}(1 - \text{mean}) / (\alpha + \beta + 1)$*
 - *Tables in Handbook, App. C*
 - *%-tiles in Table C.4*
 - *For more accuracy, use **BETAINV** in Excel*
=Betainv(p , α , β)



Conjugate Prior – Binomial Data (cont.)

- Now, we have a component with x failures in n demands
- If X is **binomial**(n, p) and $g_{\text{prior}}(p)$ is **beta**($\alpha_{\text{prior}}, \beta_{\text{prior}}$)
 - Then posterior distribution of p is
 - **beta**($\alpha_{\text{posterior}}, \beta_{\text{posterior}}$)
 - $\alpha_{\text{posterior}} = \alpha_{\text{prior}} + x$ ($x = \# \text{ events}$)
 - $\beta_{\text{posterior}} = \beta_{\text{prior}} + n - x$ ($n = \text{total } \# \text{ trials}$)
 - Posterior mean is $(\alpha_{\text{prior}} + x)/(\alpha_{\text{prior}} + \beta_{\text{prior}} + n)$
 - Again, this is a compromise between MLE, x/n and prior mean, $\alpha_{\text{prior}}/(\alpha_{\text{prior}} + \beta_{\text{prior}})$
 - Also, α is **like** the # of failures and β is **like** # of successes

Summary of Bayesian Estimates for LOSP Example



Parameter	Distribution	Point Est. (Mean)	90% Interval
λ_{LOSP}	<i>Industry Prior</i>	$1.8E-2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$	$(1.1E-2, 2.7E-2) \text{ yr}^{-1}$
	<i>Posterior</i>	$2.0E-2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$	$(1.2E-2, 2.9E-2) \text{ yr}^{-1}$
ρ_{FTR}	<i>Industry Prior</i>	$5.0E-3$	$(2.3E-4, 1.5E-2)$
	<i>Posterior</i>	$7.4E-3$	$(1.3E-3, 1.8E-2)$
λ_{FTR}	<i>Industry Prior</i>	$1.2E-3 \text{ hr}^{-1}$	$(1.1E-4, 3.2E-3) \text{ hr}^{-1}$
	<i>Posterior</i>	$1.0E-3 \text{ hr}^{-1}$	$(9.6E-5, 2.8E-3) \text{ hr}^{-1}$

Compare with frequentist results on p. 3-35

Comparing Prior and Data

- *The data and the prior should be consistent*
 - *This comparison is an aspect of model validation*
- *Picture: draw likelihood and prior distribution, see if they largely overlap*
- *Test of hypothesis that data and prior are consistent: calculate the marginal distribution of the data, equal to*
$$\Pr(X = x) = \int \Pr(X = x | \lambda) g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda) d\lambda$$
 - *Here the parameter is λ . Same idea if parameter is p .*
- *See if observed x is in either tail of this distribution*
 - *$\Pr(X \leq \text{observed } x)$ is small or*
 - *$\Pr(X \geq \text{observed } x)$ is small.*
 - *If so, question whether prior and data are consistent*

How to Get a Prior?

- *Four general types of priors*
 1. *Simple discrete (e.g., spreadsheet)*
 2. *Conjugate (simple formulas, lookup tables)*
 3. *Noninformative (some simple, some not simple)*
 4. *General (numerical techniques via computers)*
- *Prior should reflect belief/knowledge*
 - *But, people are (generally) terrible “probability generators”*
- *Warnings in HOPE*
 - *Beware of zero values for prior*
 - *Avoid conservatism (PRA is best estimate)*
- *When data is plentiful, do not invest too much effort in determining the prior*

Simplicity ↑

Noninformative Prior Distributions

“Ignorance is preferable to error...” (Thomas Jefferson, 1781)

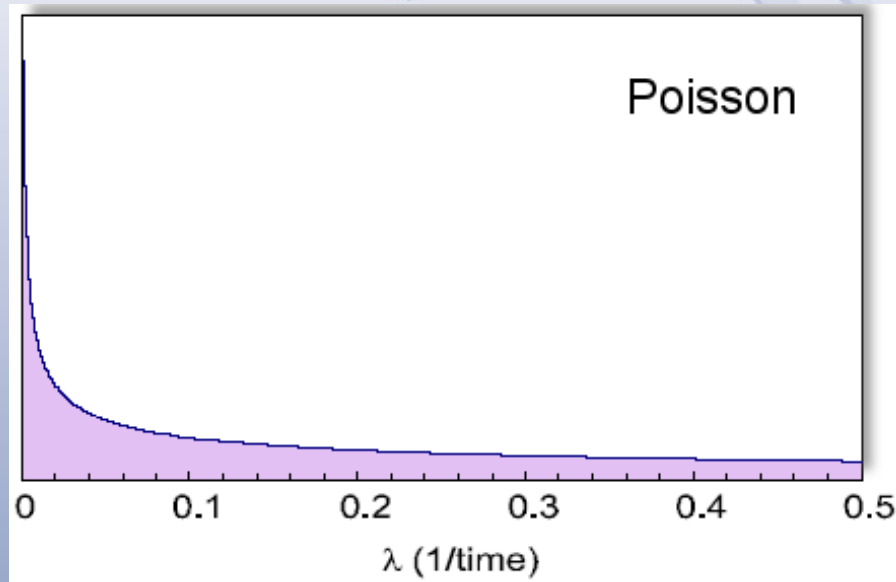
- *The point of “**noninformative**” priors is to answer question*
 - *How do we find a prior representing complete ignorance?*
- *Rev. Bayes suggested a **uniform** prior*
 - *Laplace used this in his activities with great success*
 - *But, there are philosophical/mathematical problems with this*
- *Jeffreys **suggested** a prior that was “ignorant” to variations in*
 - *Scale*
 - *Location*

Noninformative Prior Distributions (cont.)

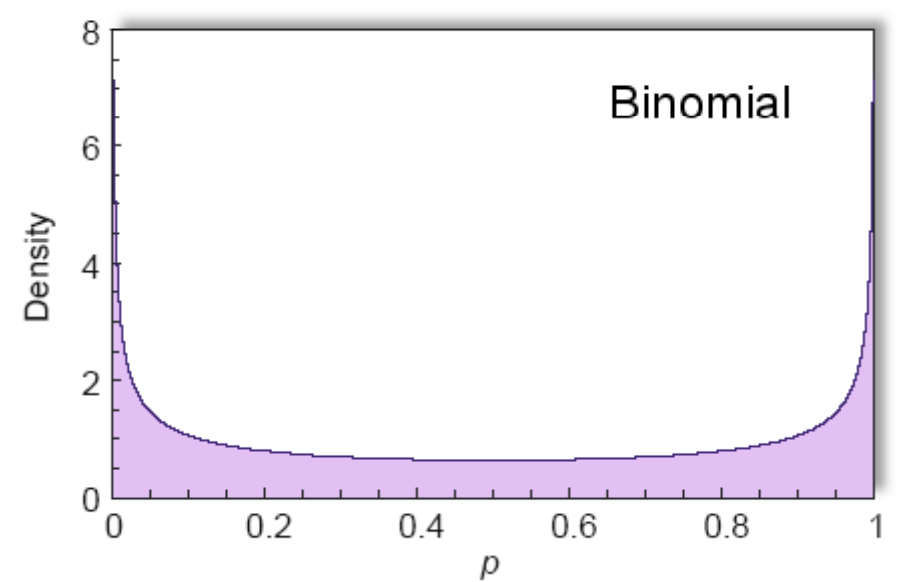
- *Consequently, so-called “noninformative” prior is typically **not** uniform!*
 - *Instead, it depends on the process generating the data*
 - *Has property that the Bayes posterior intervals are **approximately** equal to Frequentist confidence intervals*
- *For **Poisson**(λt) data*
 - *Noninformative prior for λ is proportional to **gamma**(1/2, 0)*
- *For **exponential**(λ) data*
 - *Noninformative prior for λ is proportional to **gamma**(0, 0)*
- *For **binomial**(n, p) data*
 - *Noninformative prior for p is **beta**(1/2, 1/2)*

Noninformative Prior Distributions (cont.)

- *Two of these priors look like*



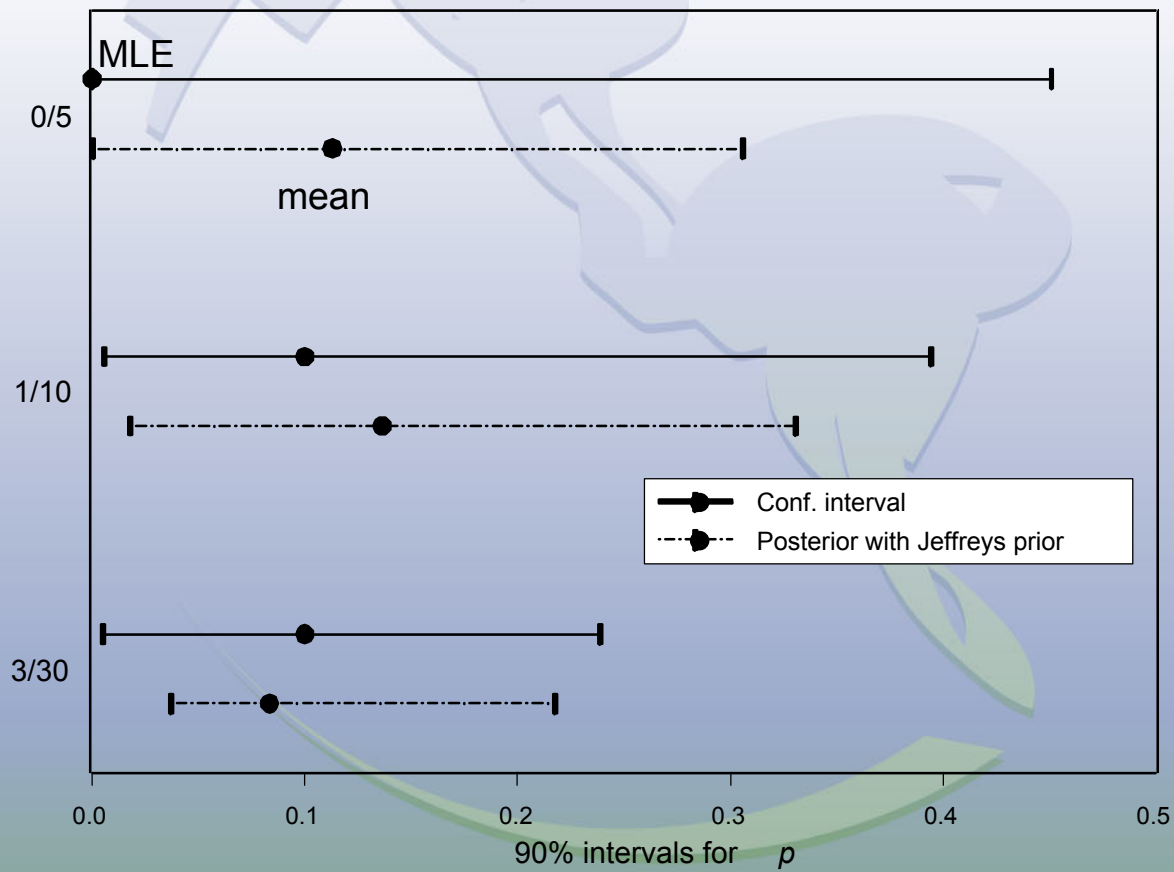
$\text{gamma}(1/2, 0)$



$\text{beta}(1/2, 1/2)$

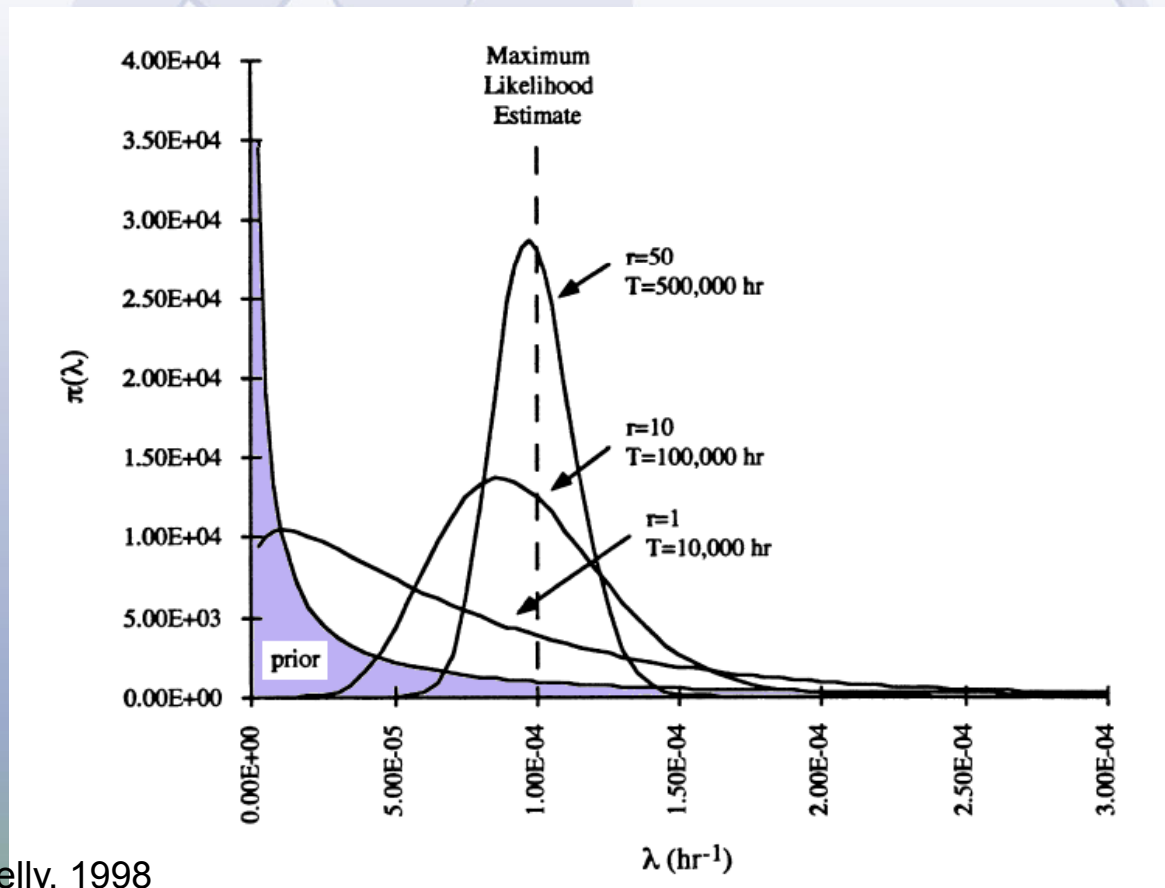
Noninformative Prior Distributions (cont.)

- Let us compare results from these priors to confidence intervals



Noninformative Prior Distributions (cont.)

- *But, as data increases, prior becomes less important*



Siu and Kelly, 1998

Lognormal Distribution

- *Definition of a lognormal distribution:*
 - X is **lognormal**(μ_{ln} , σ_{ln}^2) if $\ln(X)$ is **normal**(μ , σ^2)
- *Lognormal distribution is **often used** as a prior distribution in PRA, even though it is **not conjugate***
 - Median of X is e^μ
 - Mean (μ_{ln}) of X is $e^{\mu+(\sigma^2/2)}$
 - Variance (σ_{ln}^2) of X is $(\mu_{ln})^2 (e^{\sigma^2} - 1)$
 - Error factor (EF) is $e^{1.645\sigma}$
 - Other ways to write EF (applies only to lognormal)
 - $EF = 95^{th}/50^{th} = 50^{th}/5^{th} = (95^{th}/5^{th})^{1/2}$

Lognormal Distribution (cont.)

- $\Pr(X \leq x) = \Phi\left(\frac{\ln x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$
 where Φ is tabulated in HOPE, Appendix C
- Lognormal distribution is determined by **any two** of
 - μ
 - σ^2
 - mean (μ_{ln})
 - variance (σ_{ln}^2)
 - EF

Known parameters				Equation
Mean (μ_{ln})	Standard deviation (σ_{ln})	Error factor (EF)	Median (\tilde{x}_{ln})	
✓	✓			$EF = e^{1.645\sqrt{\ln(1 + (\sigma_{ln}/\mu_{ln})^2)}}$
	✓		✓	$\mu_{ln} = e^{\ln(\tilde{x}_{ln}) + \frac{1}{2}\ln(0.5 + 0.5\sqrt{1 + 4(\sigma_{ln}/\tilde{x}_{ln})^2})}$ $EF = e^{1.645\sqrt{\ln((\mu_{ln}/\tilde{x}_{ln})^2)}}$
		✓	✓	$\mu_{ln} = \tilde{x}_{ln} (EF)^{0.185 \ln(EF)}$
✓			✓	$EF = e^{1.645\sqrt{\ln((\mu_{ln}/\tilde{x}_{ln})^2)}}$

Nonconjugate Prior Distributions

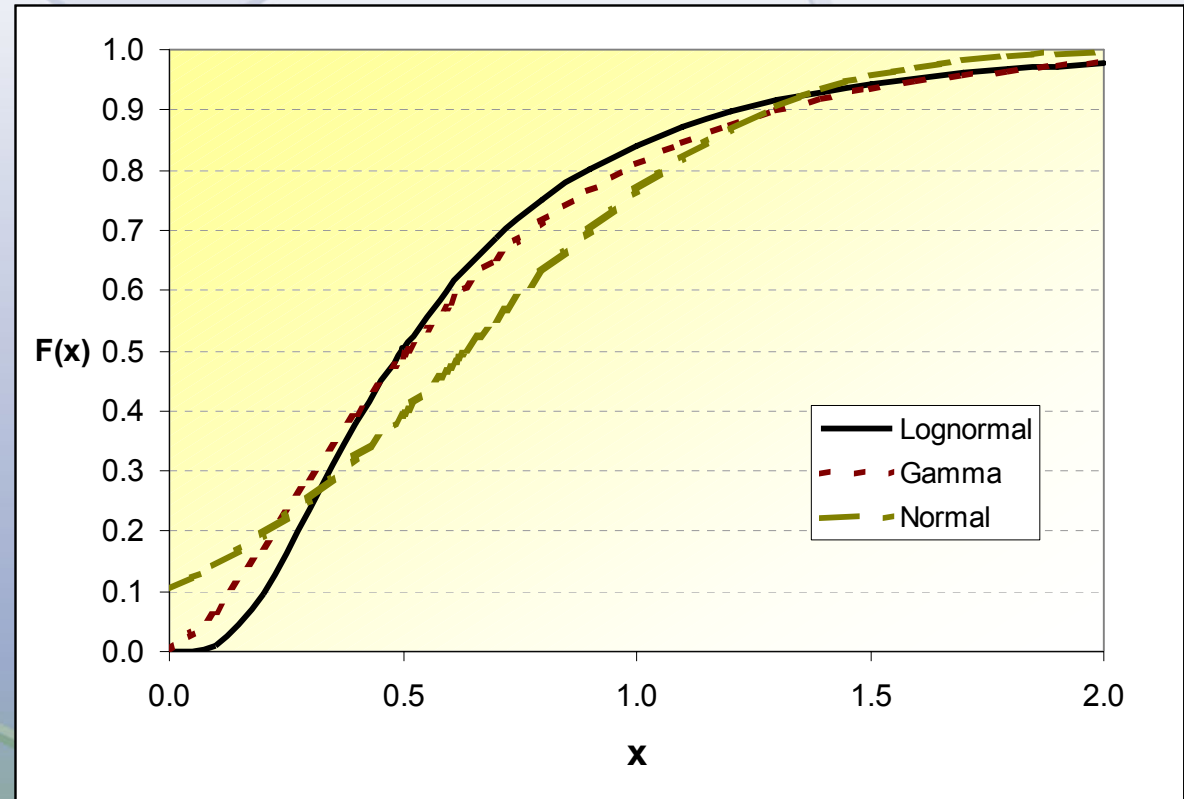
- If posterior distribution is **gamma**(α , β) or **beta**(α , β) with α small (much smaller than 0.5), then lower tail of distribution is unrealistically large (5th percentile value very small)
 - Example, Gamma(0.125, 1 hr)
 $\% \text{-tile} = [\chi^2_p(2\alpha)] / (2\beta) = [\chi^2_{0.05}(0.25)] / 2 = 4.8E-11/2 \approx 2E-11/\text{hr}$
- For this and other reasons, we may prefer a nonconjugate prior
 - When prior is not conjugate
 - Posterior distribution must be found by numerical integration or by simulation. This is mostly skipped in this course.

Nonconjugate Prior Distributions (cont.)

- *Sometimes, we have a prior, such as a nonconjugate prior, and we may prefer **not** to use it*
- *We may select a “similar” prior of a **different**, but more convenient functional form (such as a conjugate prior)*
 - *To replace one prior by another, **easiest** way (in most cases) is to make them have same mean and same variance*
 - *This “**matching**” approach can be done with algebra alone*
 - *Other ways, such as making them have same mean and same 95th percentile, are typically harder*
 - *Note that “similar” priors do not necessarily have similar percentiles, or produce posterior distributions with similar percentiles*

Nonconjugate Prior Distributions (cont.)

- For example, perhaps we have a **lognormal** prior
mean=0.63
s.dev=0.50
- We can find **other distributions** that have same moments
 - Gamma
 - Normal



Monte Carlo Sampling

- *Approximate a distribution by generating a large random sample from the distribution*
- *Useful for*
 - *Propagating uncertainties through logic model (e.g. fault tree or event tree)*
 - *Approximating posterior distribution when it does not have simple form (e.g. when prior is not conjugate)*

Monte Carlo Sampling (cont.)

Simulation of a Uniform(0,1) Distribution

- *Many software packages can simulate uniform distribution*
 - *Excel, Visual Basic, FORTRAN, SAPHIRE, etc.*
- *Completely deterministic, not random*
 - *“Looks” random*
 - *Really, the output is a long (e.g. $\sim 2^{31}$) sequence of distinct numbers in unpredictable order*
 - *User inputs a “seed”, or computer uses the clock time. This determines where in the sequence we start*

Monte Carlo Sampling (cont.)

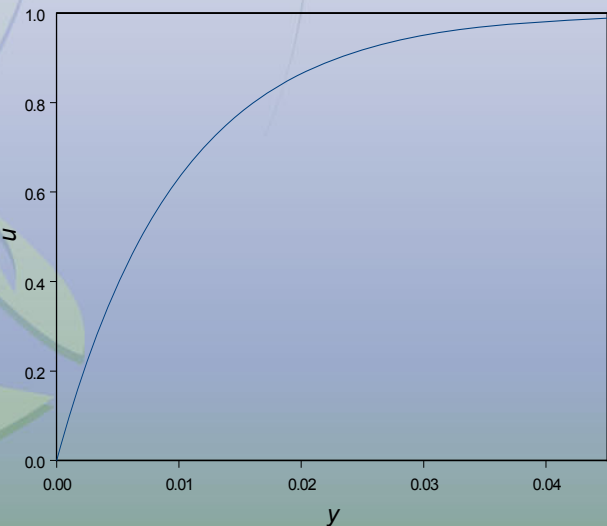
Simulation of a Binomial Random Variable

- To simulate a **binomial**(n,p) random variable, do this many times:
 - Generate n random numbers u_1 through u_n from a **uniform**(0,1) distribution
 - If $u_i < p$ define $x_i = 1$. Otherwise define $x_i = 0$.
 - Set $y = x_1 + \dots + x_n$
- The many values of y are a sample from a **binomial**(n,p) distribution

Monte Carlo Sampling (cont.)

Use of “Inverse c.d.f. method”

- Do the following many times
 - Generate u from a **uniform**(0,1) distribution
 - Set $y = F^{-1}(u)$, where
 - F is the c.d.f. of Y , $F(y) = \Pr(Y < y)$
 - F^{-1} is inverse function, $F(y) = u \iff F^{-1}(u)=y$
- Values of y are a random sample from the distribution of Y
- Idea...
 - Choose most values where F is steep



Monte Carlo Sampling (cont.)

Use of Transformation

- *For example, to generate lognormal Y*
 - *First generate n values from a normal distribution, with n large*
 - *Call them x_1 through x_n*
 - *Set $y_i = \exp(x_i)$, so that $\ln(y_i) = x_i$*
- *The y_i values are a random sample from a lognormal distribution*

Monte Carlo Sampling (cont.) How Big a Sample Is Needed?

- Let true distribution of Y have mean μ and variance σ^2
- Generate (large) sample, y_1, \dots, y_n
- Estimate μ by sample mean, i.e. average of sample values, \bar{y}
- Approximate 95% confidence interval for μ is

$$\bar{y} \pm 2s / \sqrt{n} \quad (n = \# \text{ samples})$$

- Here s is sample standard deviation, an estimate of σ
 - s / \sqrt{n} is called the **standard error**
- So to estimate μ and cut the error by a factor of 2, n must be increased by a factor of 4

Extra Info – The Path to “Bayes’ Theorem” (1 of 4)

- *Bayesian hypothesis tests leads to **Bayes’ Theorem**, which leads us to the world of parameter estimation*
 - *This path will, ultimately, take us back to and allow us to solve problems such as LOSP*
- *As part of this path, **objectivity** requires that we take into account all evidence*
 - *Classical statistics use subset of evidence*
- ***One** of these parts of evidence is $P(H \mid X)$*
 - *H = hypothesis*
 - *X = general information known prior to having updated information (or data) specific to problem at hand*

The Path to “Bayes’ Theorem” (2 of 4)

- $P(H | X)$ is the so-called **PRIOR**
- A couple of comments on the “prior”
 - Prior information may come **later** in time than our updated information
 - For example, a scientist runs an experiment, but reads a journal article with surprising findings related to his work before he had a chance to analyze his data
 - One person’s “prior probability” is another person’s “posterior probability”

The Path to “Bayes’ Theorem” (3 of 4)

- *For inference on our hypotheses, we know the “data” and want to know, via probabilities, can our model give us those results*
 - *In other words, which hypothesis (from a set) is logically more plausible given the evidence and data available*
- *This **logical plausibility** between information implies*

$$\begin{aligned}P(D | H | X) &= P(D | H X) P(H | X) \\ &= P(H | D X) P(D | X)\end{aligned}$$

D = the data

H = our hypothesis

X = general information known prior to data

The Path to “Bayes’ Theorem” (4 of 4)

- We can take the product rule and use it since we desire
 - Probabilities **not** conditional on H
 - This point is, again, very much **unlike** classical statistics
 - Confidence intervals are **very much** conditional upon the hypothesis test being performed
 - It is this point that results in “Bayes’ Theorem” occasionally being called the Theorem of Inverse Probabilities
- So, we directly write down, from the **product rule**, Bayes’ Theorem

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