

# Likelihood and Bayesian Inference

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## Bayes' Theorem

Suppose we have related events,  $B$  and some other mutually exclusive events  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots, A_8$ . The probability of  $B$  given  $A_3$  (for example) is

$$\text{Prob}(A_3 | B) = \frac{\text{Prob}(A_3 \text{ and } B)}{\text{Prob}(B)}$$

and since it is also true that

$$\text{Prob}(B | A_3) = \frac{\text{Prob}(A_3 \text{ and } B)}{\text{Prob}(A_3)}$$

we can multiply by  $\text{Prob}(A_3)$  and substitute for  $\text{Prob}(A_3 \text{ and } B)$  to get

$$\text{Prob}(A_3 | B) = \frac{\text{Prob}(A_3) \text{Prob}(B | A_3)}{\text{Prob}(B)}$$

(Think of  $B$  as the data, and the  $A_i$  as different hypotheses).

# Getting Bayes' Rule

Since the denominator can be rewritten as

$$\text{Prob}(B) = \text{Prob}(A_1) \text{Prob}(B | A_1) + \dots + \text{Prob}(A_8) \text{Prob}(B | A_8)$$

We can substitute that in to get the final form of Bayes' Rule:

$$\text{Prob}(A_3|B) = \frac{\text{Prob}(A_3) \text{Prob}(B | A_3)}{\text{Prob}(A_1) \text{Prob}(B | A_1) + \dots + \text{Prob}(A_8) \text{Prob}(B | A_8)}$$

What this does is compute the probability of  $A_3$  given that we saw  $B$  from the prior probabilities of the  $A_i$  and the conditional probabilities of the observed data  $B$  given each  $A_i$ .

# Odds ratio, Bayes' Theorem, maximum likelihood

We start with an “odds ratio” version of Bayes' Theorem: take the ratio of the numerators for two different hypotheses and we get:

D    **the data**  
H<sub>1</sub>   **Hypothesis 1**  
H<sub>2</sub>   **Hypothesis 2**  
|    **the symbol for “given”**

$$\underbrace{\frac{\text{Prob}(H_1 | D)}{\text{Prob}(H_2 | D)}}_{\text{Posterior odds ratio}} = \underbrace{\frac{\text{Prob}(D | H_1)}{\text{Prob}(D | H_2)}}_{\text{Likelihood ratio}} \underbrace{\frac{\text{Prob}(H_1)}{\text{Prob}(H_2)}}_{\text{Prior odds ratio}}$$

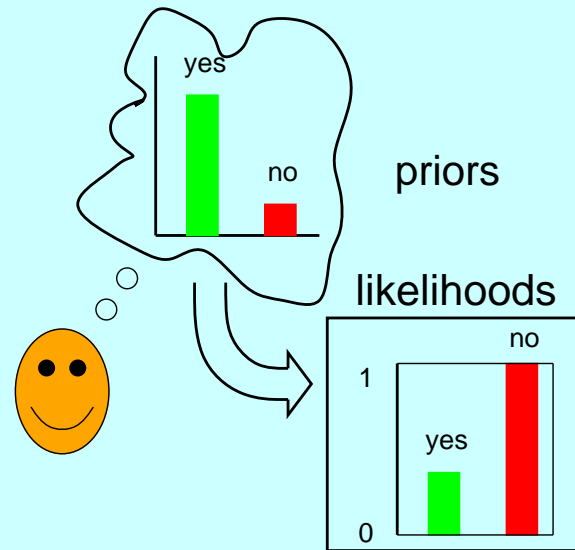
# A simple example of Bayes Theorem

If a space probe finds no Little Green Men on Mars, when it would have a 1/3 chance of missing them if they were there:



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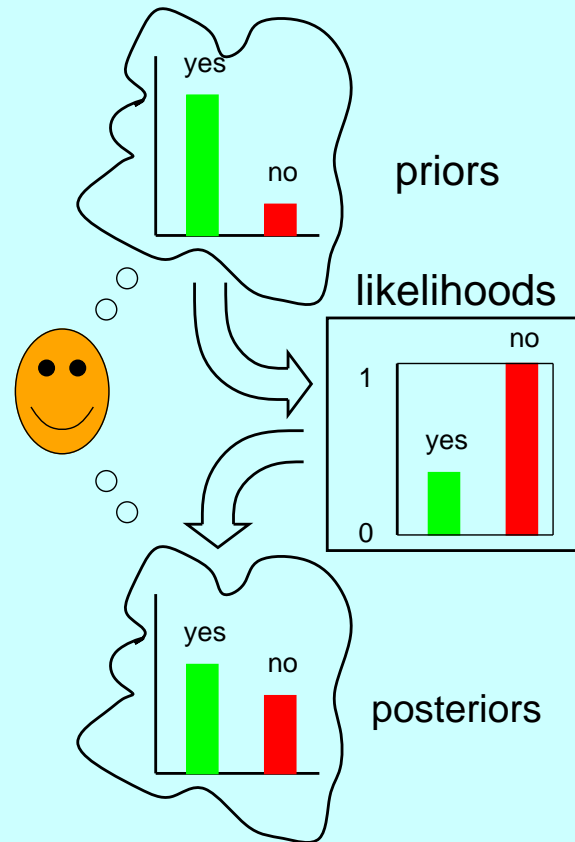
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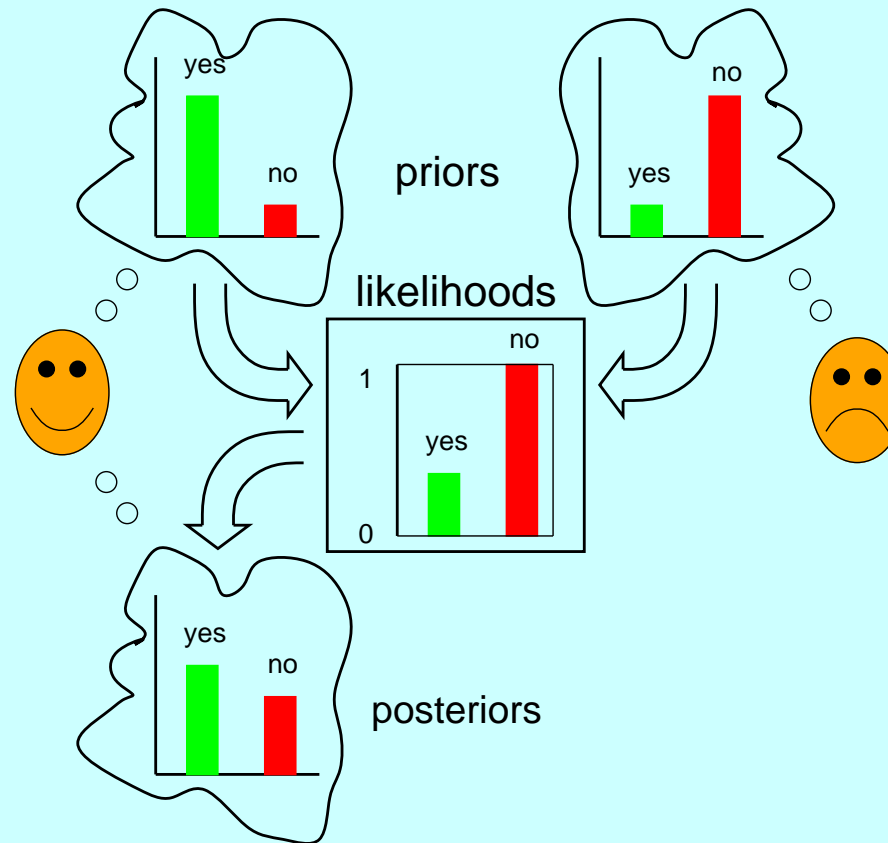
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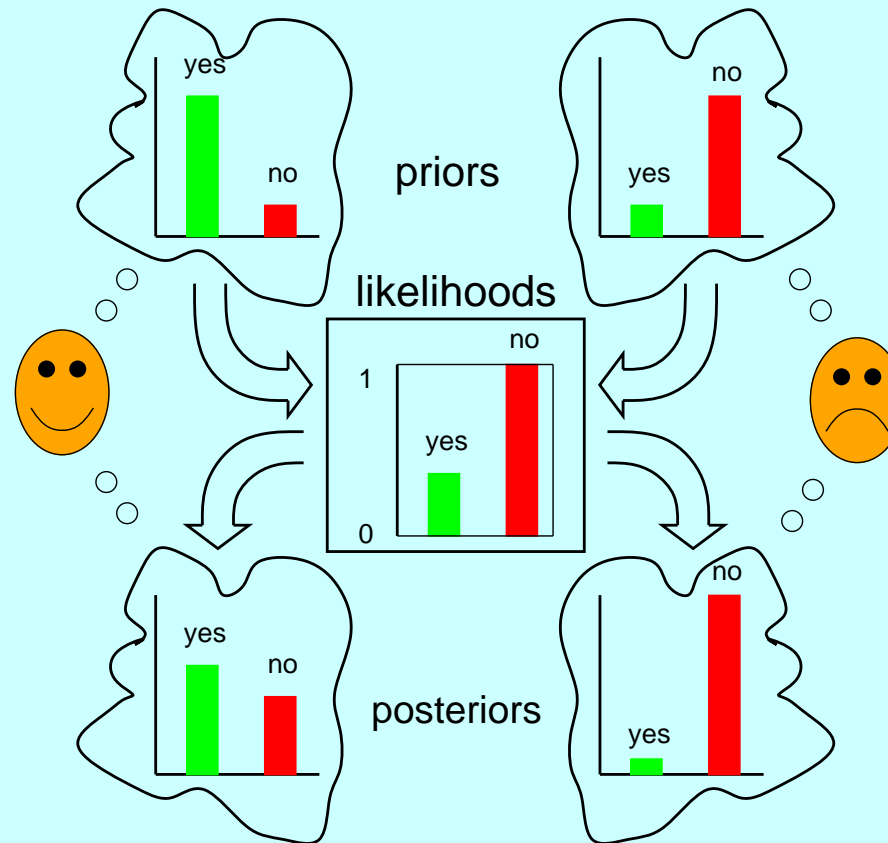
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$$\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1/3}{1} = \frac{1}{12}$$

## The likelihood ratio term ultimately dominates

If we see one Little Green Man, the likelihood calculation does the right thing:

$$\frac{\infty}{1} = \frac{2/3}{0} \times \frac{1}{4}$$

(put this way, this is OK but not mathematically kosher)

If after  $n$  missions, we keep seeing none, the likelihood ratio term is

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n$$

It dominates the calculation, overwhelming the prior.

Thus even if we don't have a prior we can believe in, we may be interested in knowing which hypothesis the likelihood ratio is recommending ...

# Likelihood in simple coin-tossing

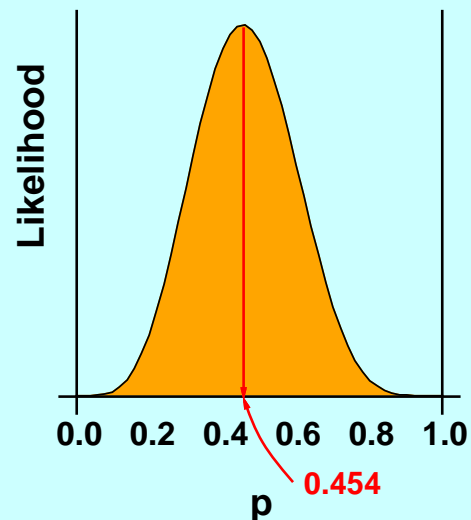
Tossing a coin  $n$  times, with probability  $p$  of heads, the probability of outcome HHTHTTTTHTTH is

$$pp(1 - p)p(1 - p)(1 - p)(1 - p)(1 - p)p(1 - p)(1 - p)p$$

which is

$$L = p^5(1 - p)^6$$

Plotting  $L$  against  $p$  to find its maximum:



## Differentiating to find the maximum:

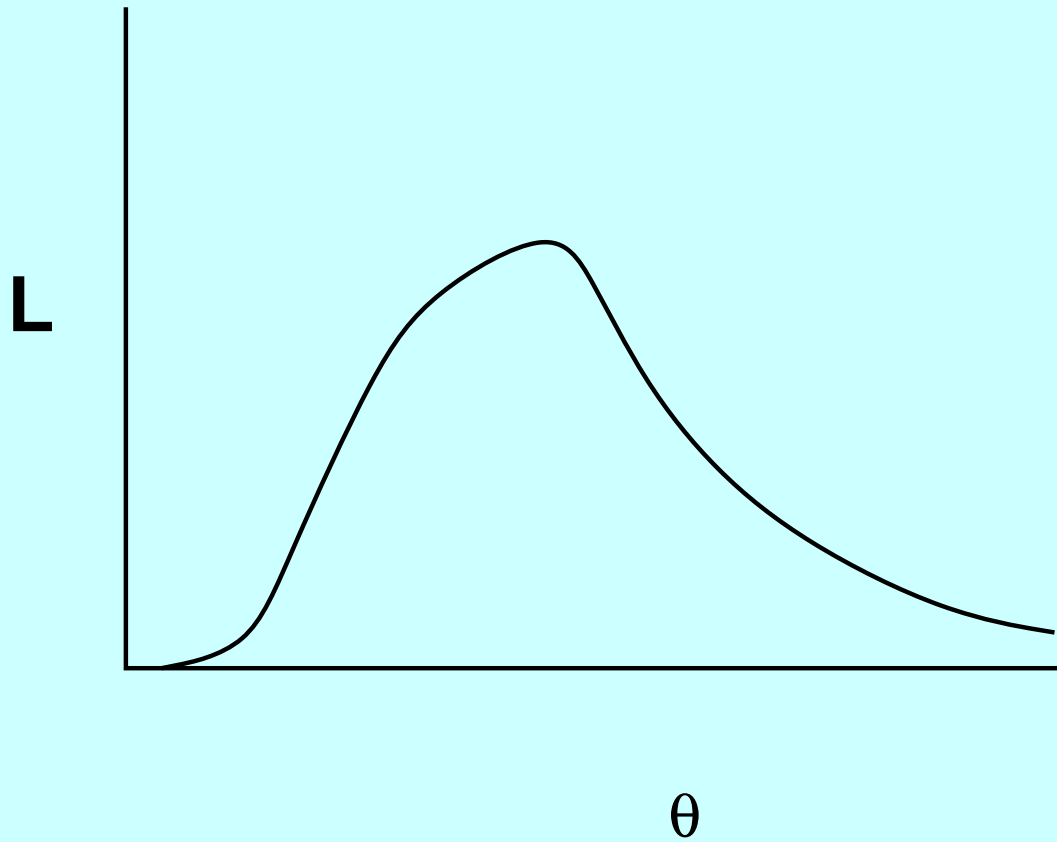
Differentiating the expression for  $L$  with respect to  $p$  and equating the derivative to 0, the value of  $p$  that is at the peak is found (not surprisingly) to be  $p = 5/11$ :

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial p} = \left( \frac{5}{p} - \frac{6}{1-p} \right) p^5 (1-p)^6 = 0$$

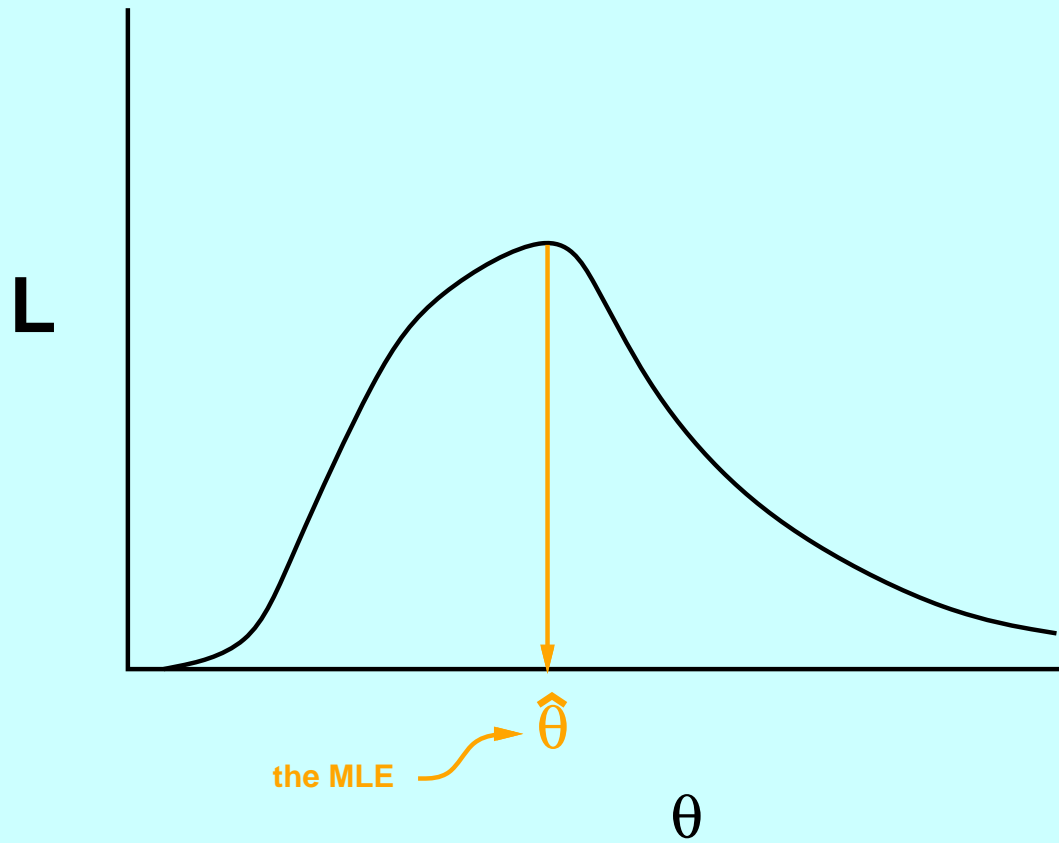
$$5 - 11p = 0$$

$$\hat{p} = \frac{5}{11}$$

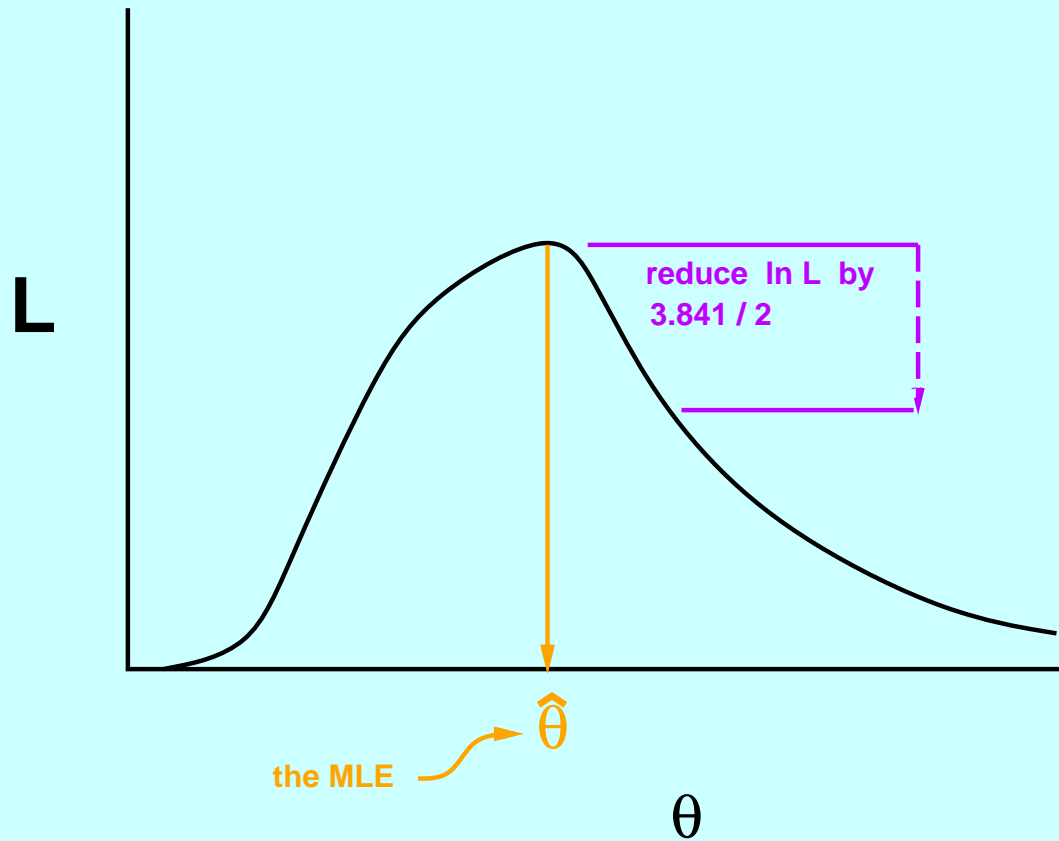
## A likelihood curve



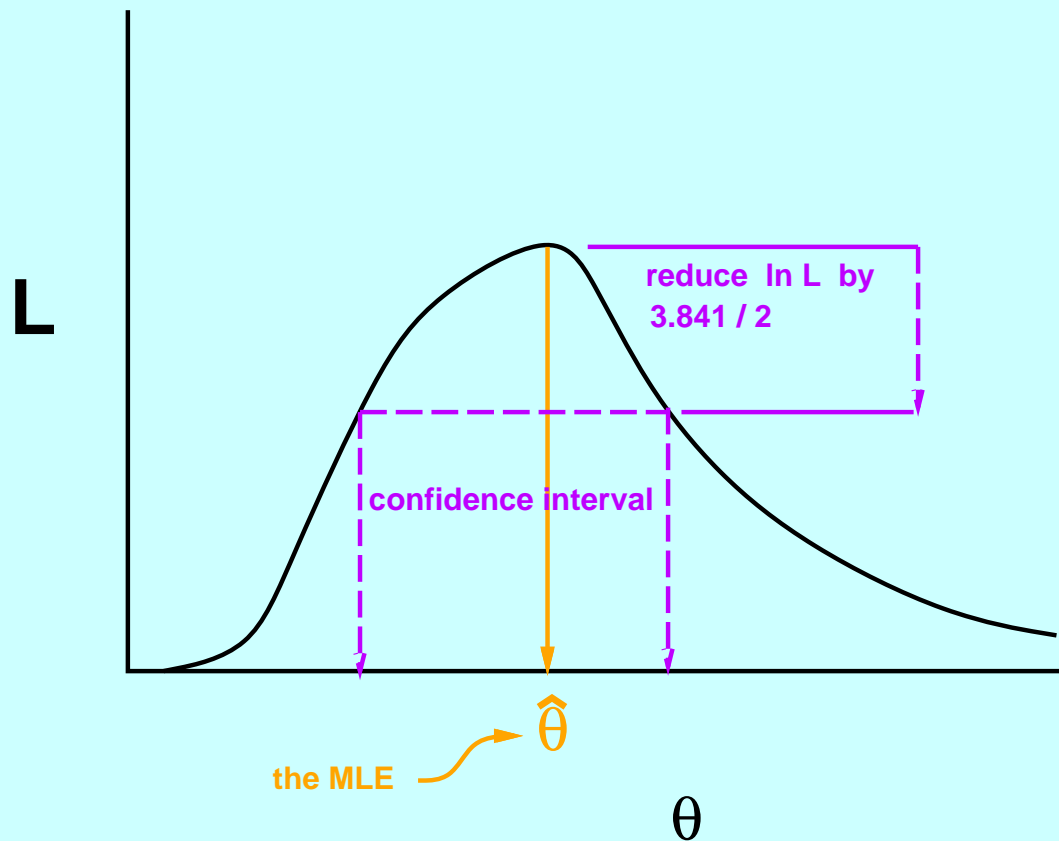
# Its maximum likelihood estimate



# Using the Likelihood Ratio Test

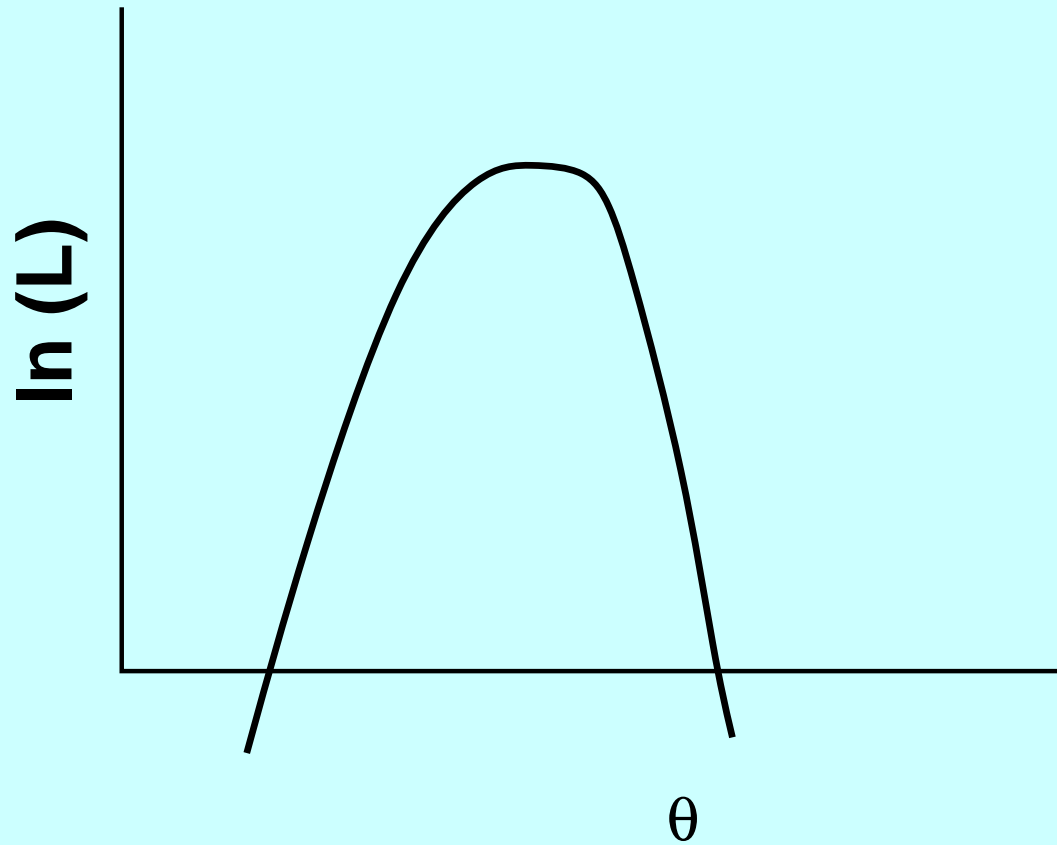


# The (approximate, asymptotic) confidence interval

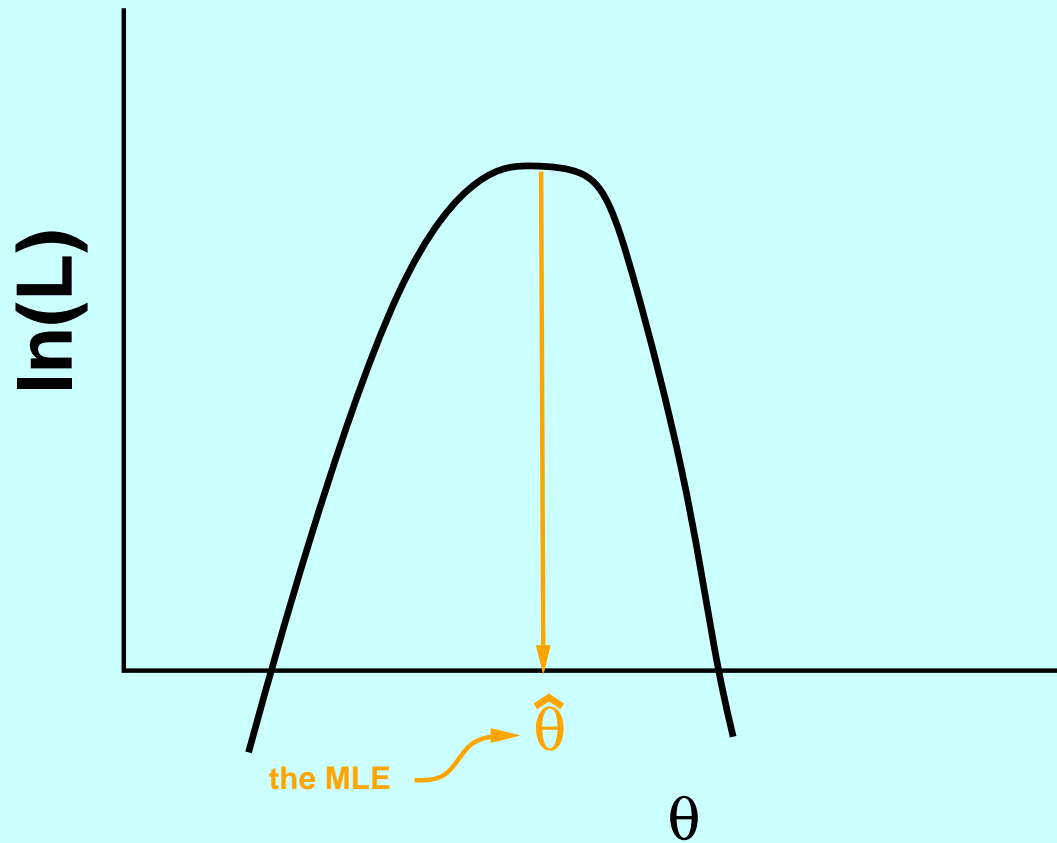




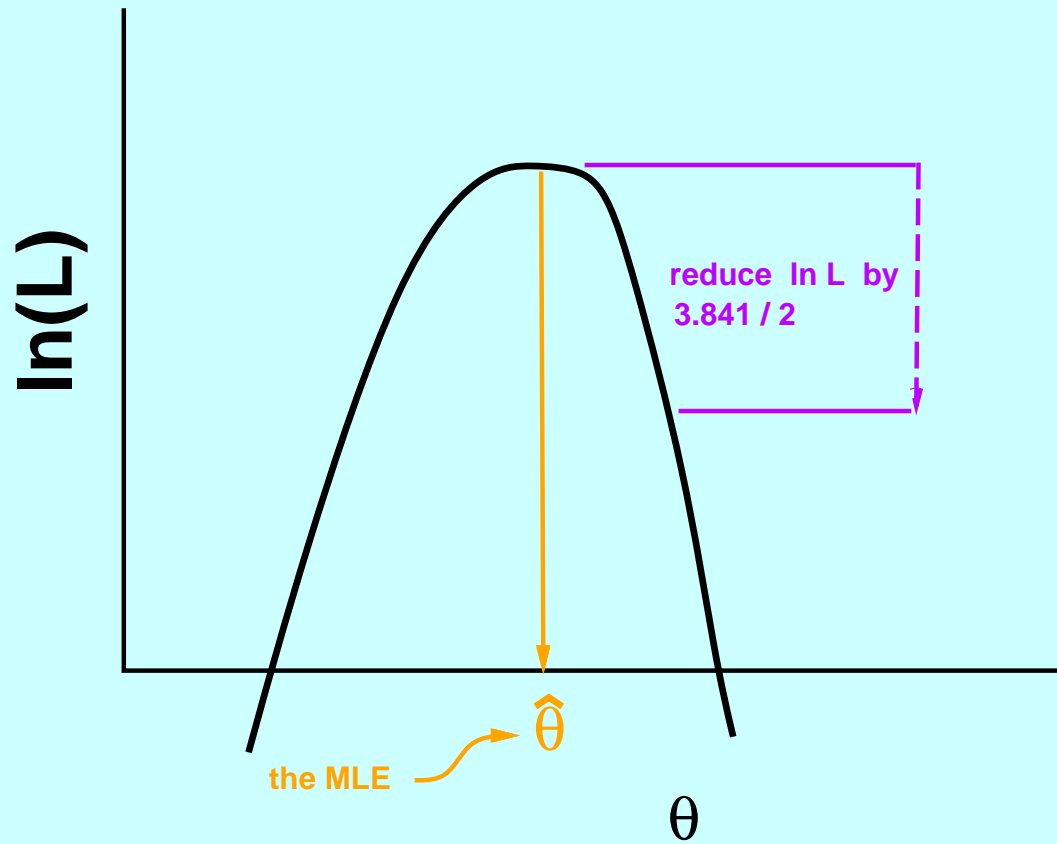
## Better to plot $\log(L)$ rather than $L$



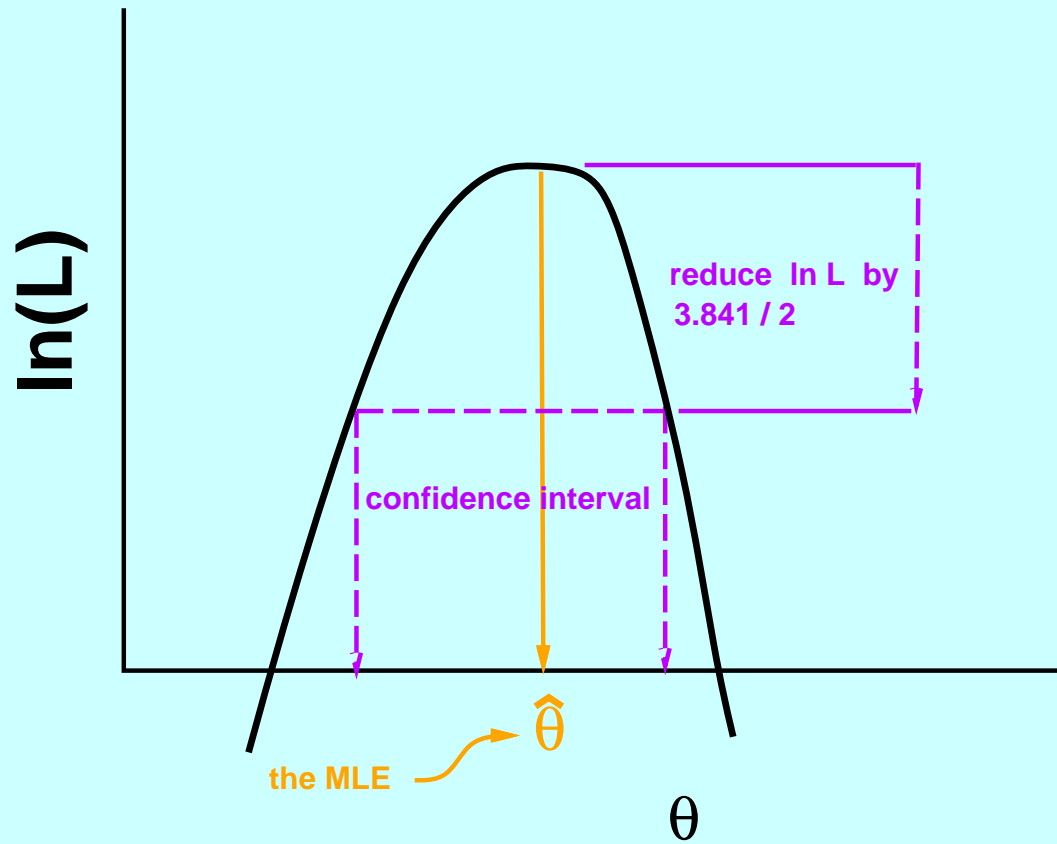
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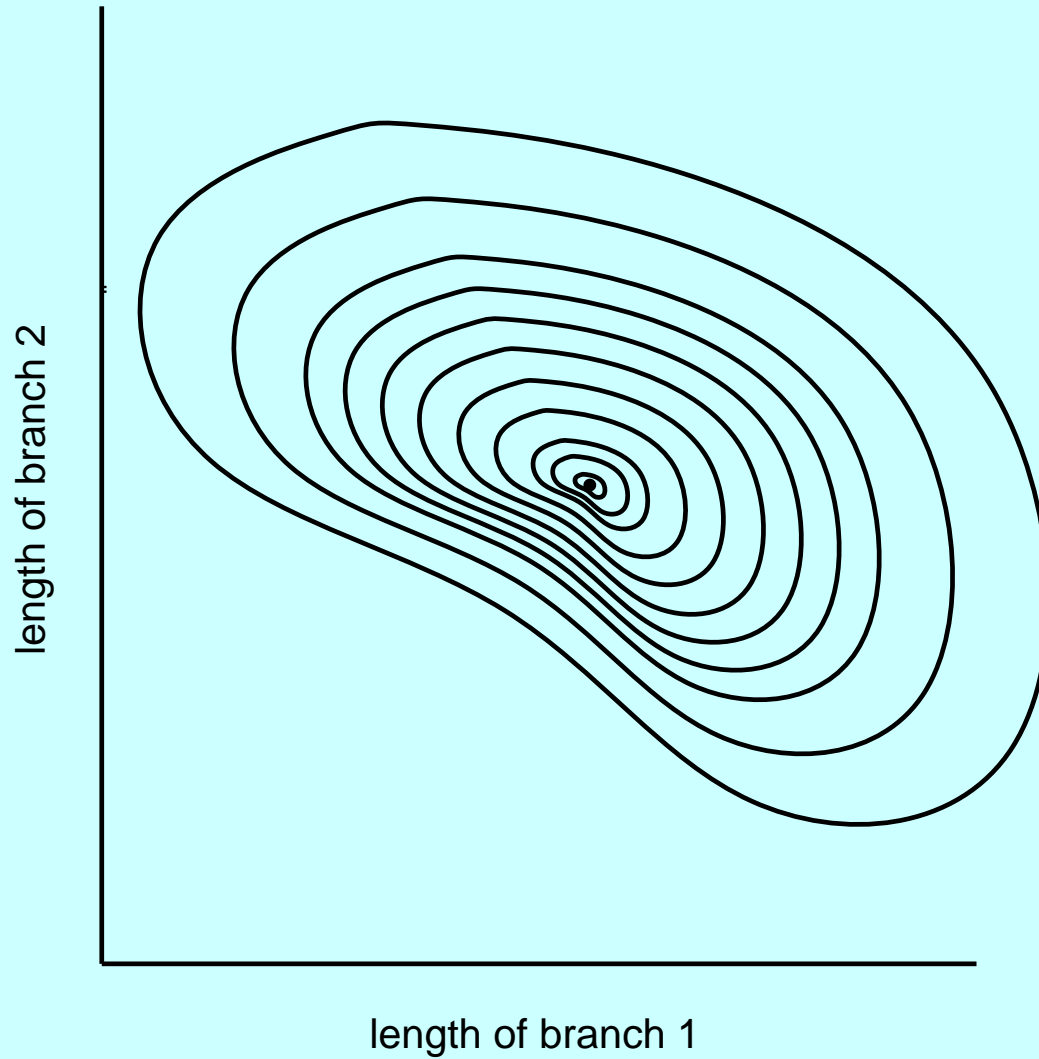
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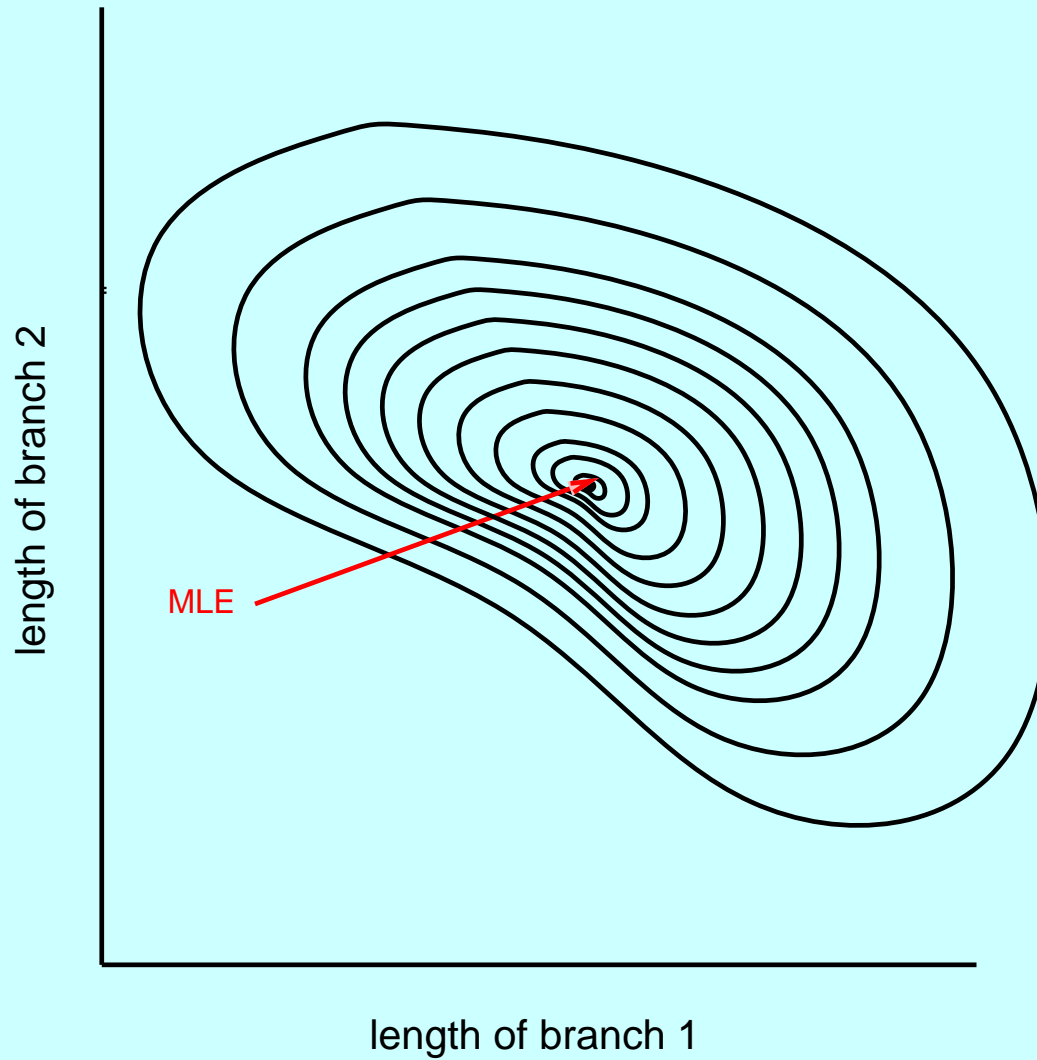
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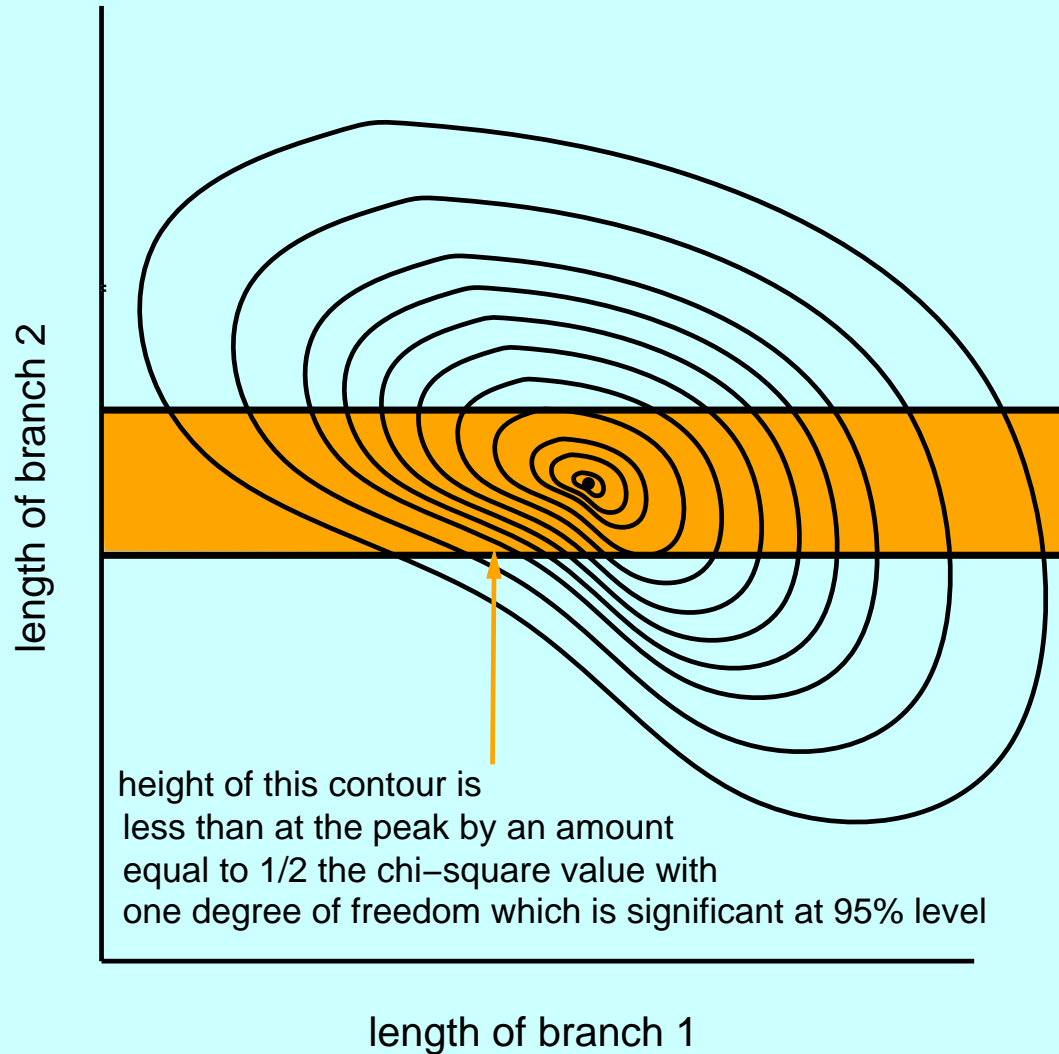
# Contours of a likelihood surface in two dimensions



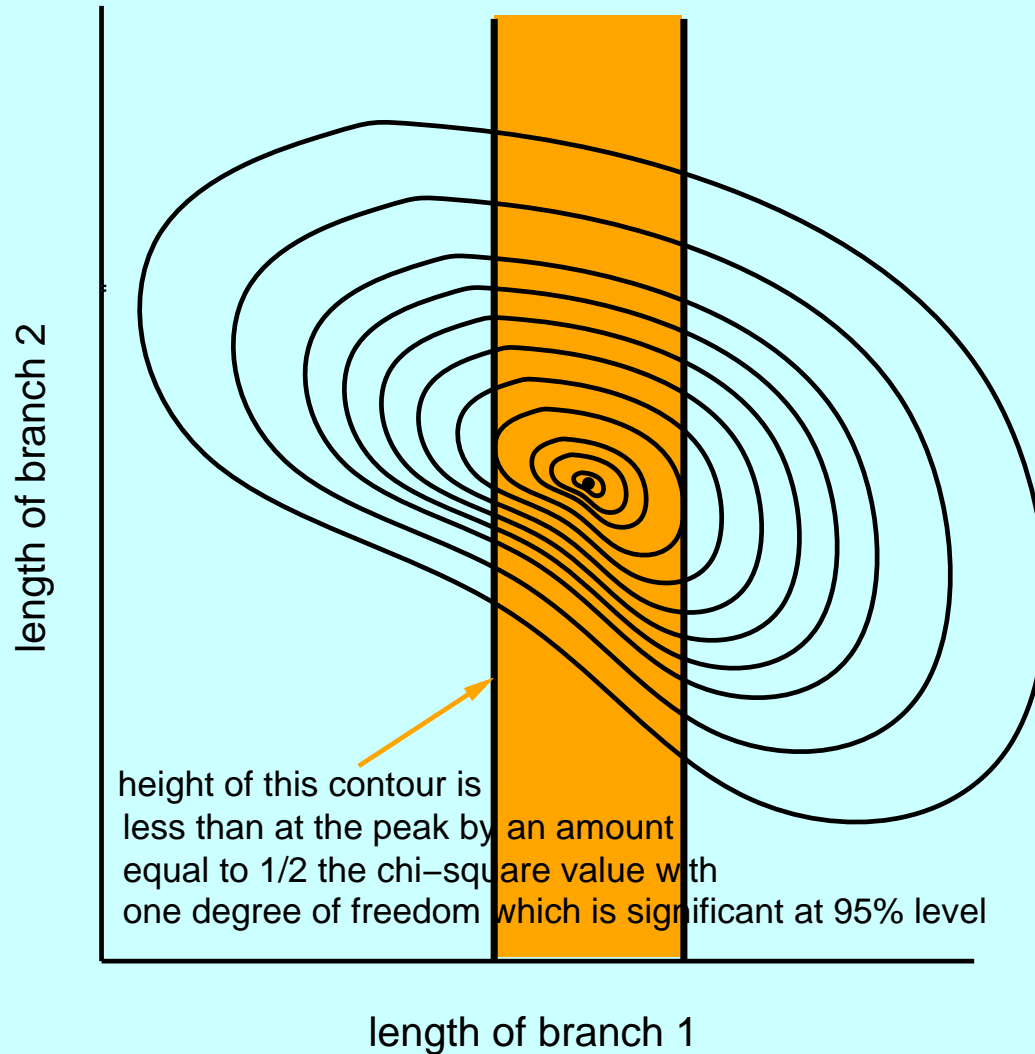
# Where the maximum likelihood estimate is



# Using the LRT to define a confidence interval



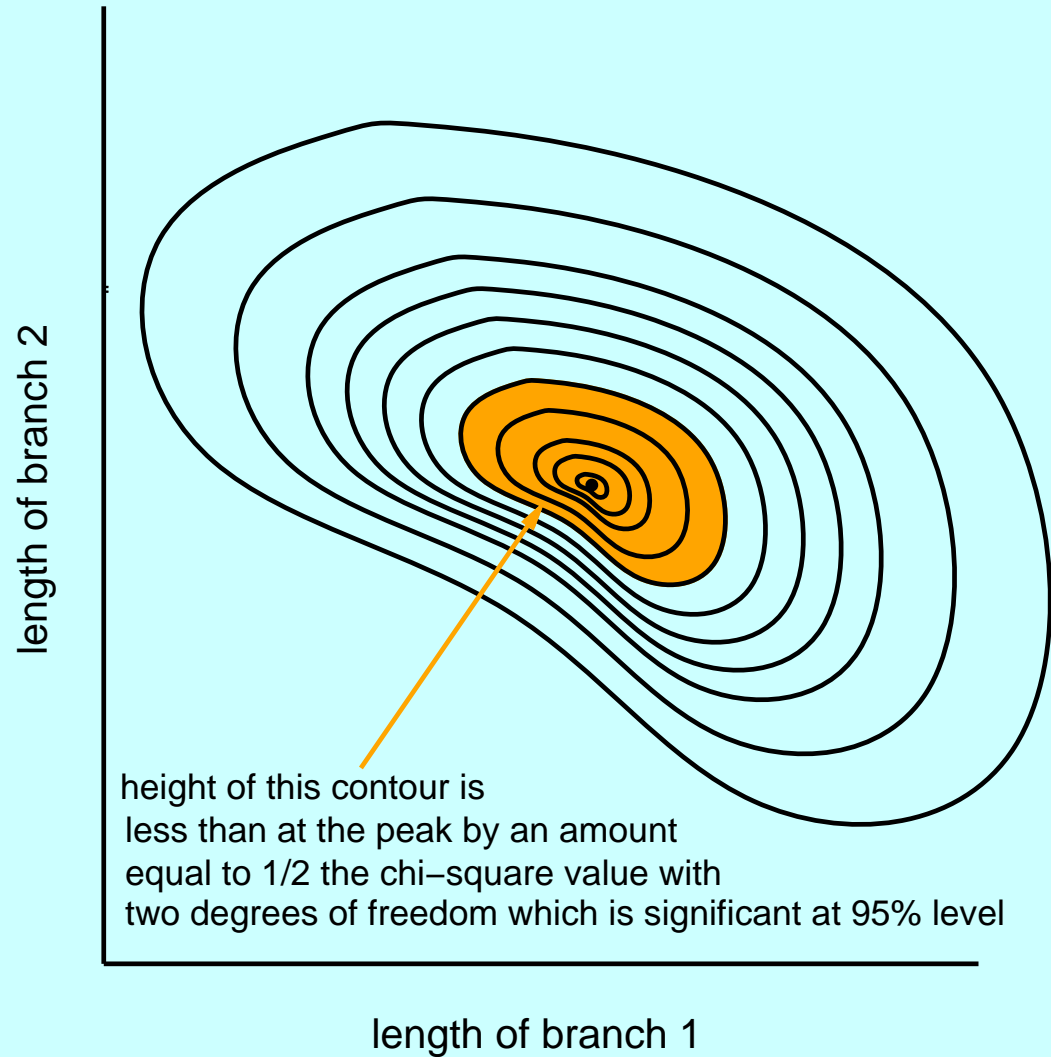
# Ditto, in the other variable



■ (shaded area is the joint confidence interval)



# A joint confidence region



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# The Likelihood Ratio Test

Remember that confidence intervals and tests are related: we test a null hypothesis by seeing whether the observed data's summary statistic is outside of the confidence interval around the parameter value for the null hypothesis.

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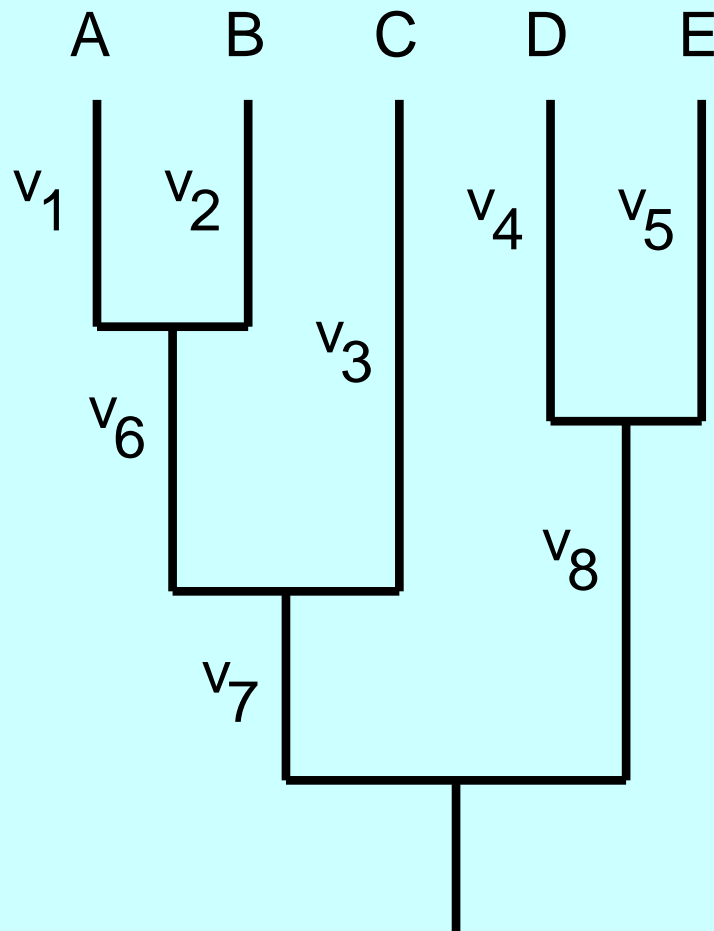
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- Take the log of the ratio of these likelihoods, or (what is the same), the difference of the logs of these two likelihoods:  $\ln(L(\theta_1)/L(\theta_0))$ .
- Double it, and look it up on a chi-square distribution with  $p_1 - p_0$  degrees of freedom.

# An example with phylogenies: molecular clock?



Constraints for a clock

$$v_1 = v_2$$

$$v_4 = v_5$$

$$v_1 + v_6 = v_3$$

$$v_3 + v_7 = v_4 + v_8$$

# Testing for a molecular clock

To test for a molecular clock:

- Obtain the likelihood with no constraint of a molecular clock (For primates data with  $T_s/T_n = 30$  we get  $\ln L_1 = -2616.86$ )
- Obtain the highest likelihood for a tree which is constrained to have a molecular clock:  $\ln L_0 = -2679.0$
- Look up  $2(\ln L_1 - \ln L_0) = 2 \times 62.14 = 124.28$  on a  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $n - 2 = 12$  degrees of freedom (in this case the result is significant)



## An example – samples from a Poisson distribution

Suppose we have  $m$  samples from a Poisson distribution whose (unknown) mean parameter is  $\lambda$ . Suppose the numbers of events we see are  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m$ . The likelihood is

$$L = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{n_1}}{n_1!} \times \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{n_2}}{n_2!} \times \dots \times \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{n_m}}{n_m!}$$

collecting powers and exponentials, this becomes

$$L = e^{-m\lambda} \lambda^{n_1+n_2+\dots+n_m} / (\text{lots of factorials})$$

Taking logarithms, which makes it easier

$$\ln L = -m\lambda + \left( \sum n_i \right) \ln \lambda + (\text{stuff not involving } \lambda)$$

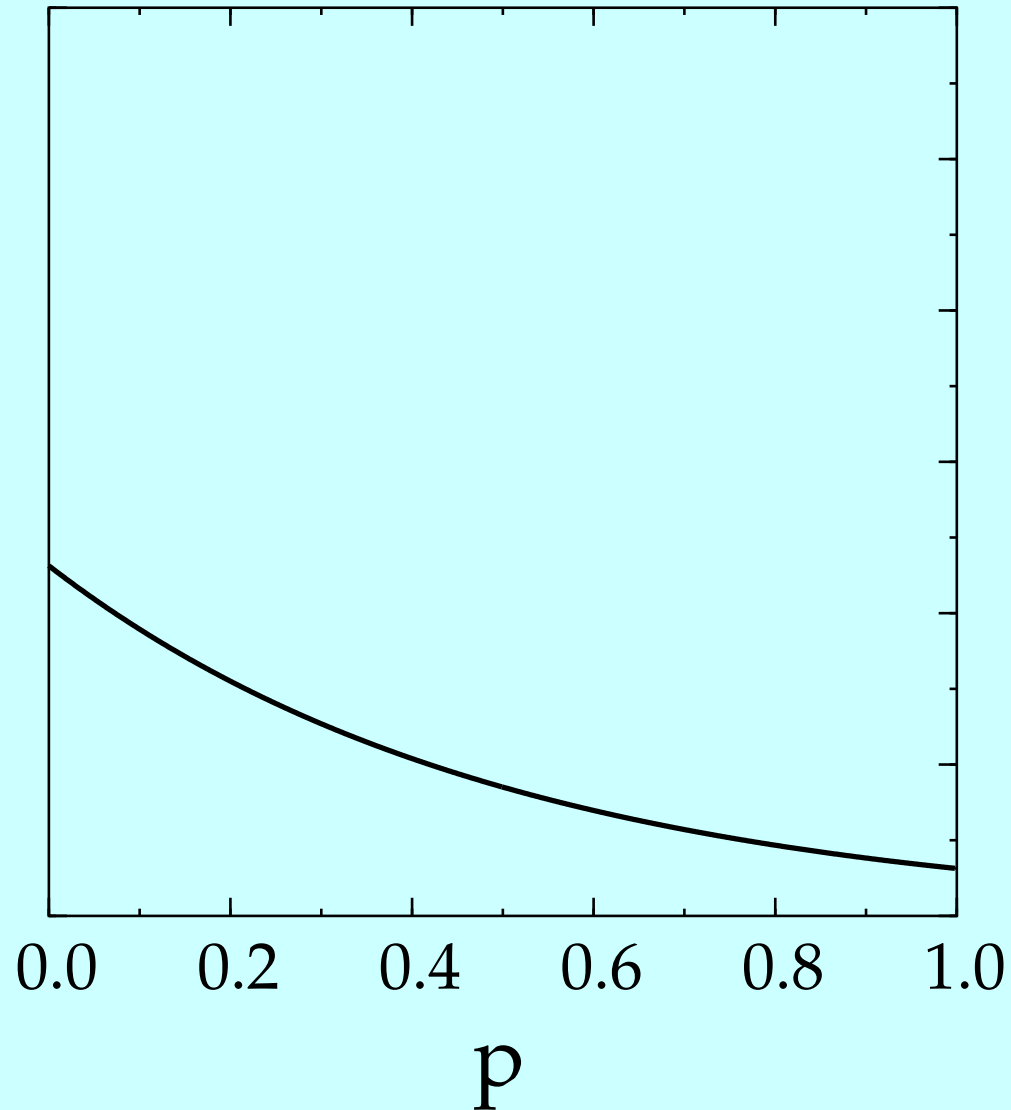
Differentiate this, set to zero:

$$\frac{\partial \ln L}{\partial \lambda} = -m + \left( \sum n_i \right) \frac{1}{\lambda} + 0 = 0$$

When you solve this for  $\lambda$ , you find that the MLE of  $\lambda$  is just the average number of events.

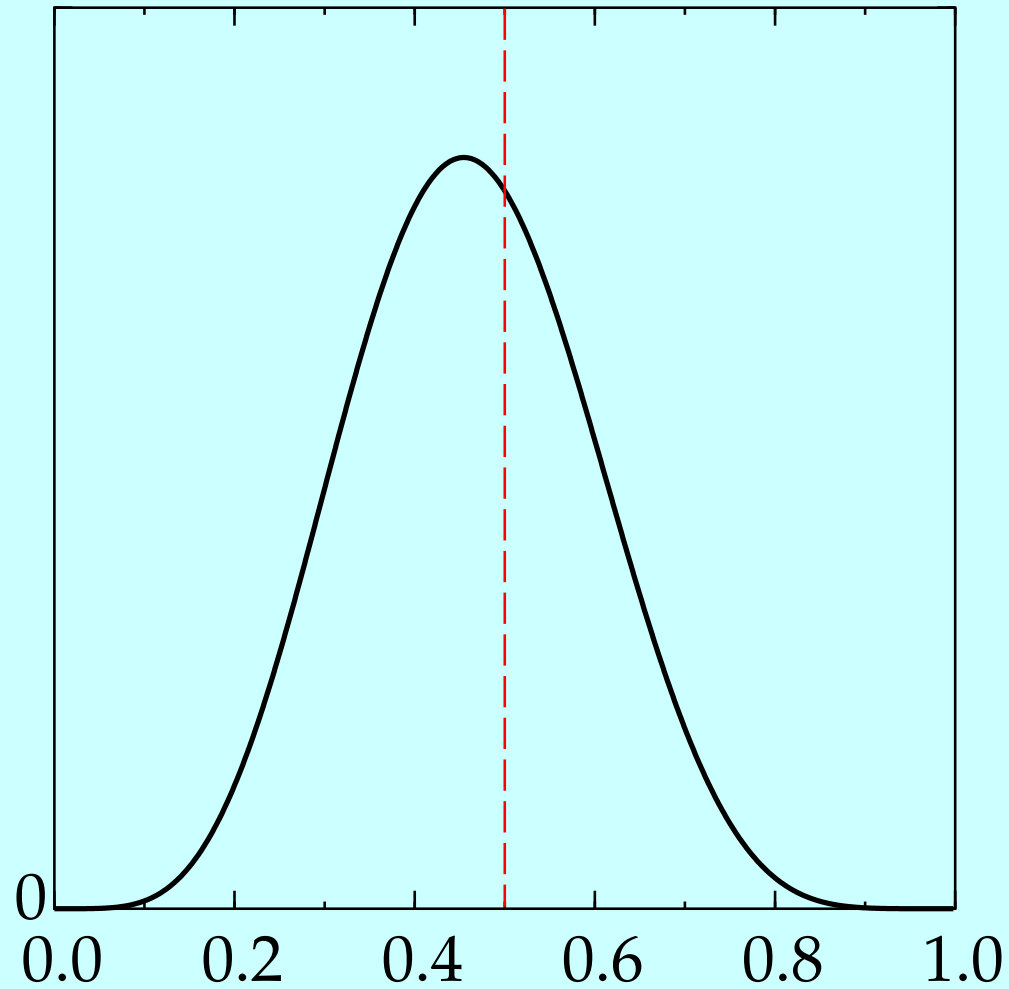
$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{\sum n_i}{m}$$

## An example of Bayesian inference with coins



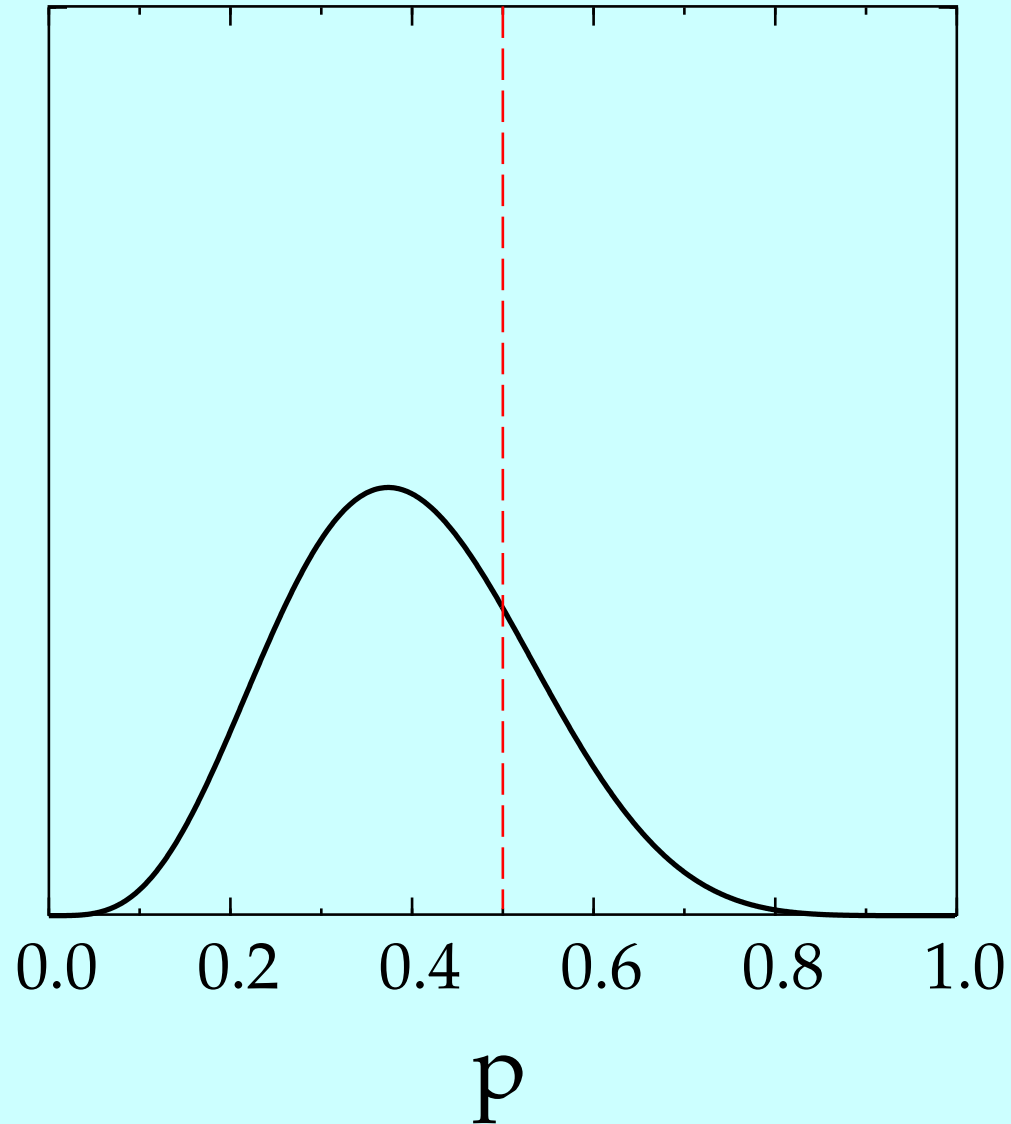
The prior on Heads probability – a truncated exponential distribution

## An example of Bayesian inference with coins



The likelihood curve for 11 tosses with 5 heads appearing.

# An example of Bayesian inference with coins



The resulting posterior on Heads probability

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- The controversy between Bayesians and non-Bayesians is really over just one thing – whether assuming you know the prior is justified.
- If the prior is flat in that region, the highest point on the likelihood curve (i.e., the MLE) is also the peak of the posterior density.