## Outline of the chapter 2

- 2.1 Binomial model (repeated experiment with binary outcome)
- 2.2 Posterior as compromise between data and prior information
- 2.3 Posterior summaries
- 2.4 Informative prior distributions (skip exponential families and sufficient statistics)
- 2.5 Gaussian model with known variance
- 2.6 Other single parameter models
  - the normal distribution with known mean but unknown variance is the most important
  - glance through Poisson and exponential
- 2.7 glance through this example, which illustrates benefits of prior information, no need to read all the details (it's quite long example)
- 2.8 Noninformative and weakly informative priors

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- Probability of several events in independent trials is e.g.  $\theta\theta(1-\theta)\theta(1-\theta)(1-\theta)\dots$
- If there are n trials and we don't care about the order of the events, then the probability that event 1 happens y times is

$$p(y|\theta,n) = \binom{n}{y} \theta^{y} (1-\theta)^{n-y}$$

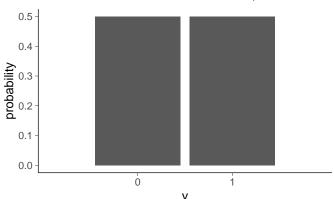
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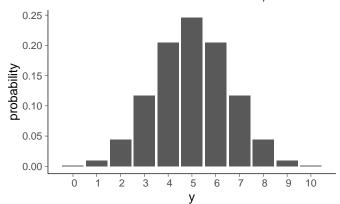
### Binomial distribution with $\theta = 0.5$ , n=1



• Observation model (function of *y*, discrete)

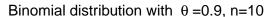
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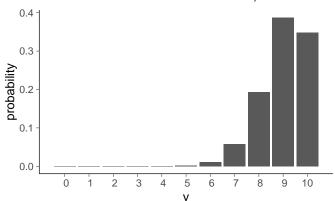
### Binomial distribution with $\theta = 0.5$ , n=10



• Observation model (function of *y*, discrete)

$$p(y|\theta,n) = \binom{n}{y} \theta^{y} (1-\theta)^{n-y}$$





• Posterior with Bayes rule (function of  $\theta$ , continuous)

$$p(\theta|y,n,M) = \frac{p(y|\theta,n,M)p(\theta|n,M)}{p(y|n,M)}$$

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Start with uniform prior

$$p(\theta|n, M) = p(\theta|M) = 1$$
, kun  $0 \le \theta \le 1$ 

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Then

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \frac{p(y|\theta, n, M)}{p(y|n, M)} = \frac{\binom{n}{y}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}}{\int_{0}^{1} \binom{n}{y}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}d\theta}$$
$$= \frac{1}{Z}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}$$

Normalization term Z (constant given y)

$$Z = p(y|n, M) = \int_0^1 \theta^y (1-\theta)^{n-y} d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}{\Gamma(n+2)}$$

- Normalisation term has Beta function form
  - when integrated over (0, 1) the result can presented with Gamma functions
  - with integers  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$
  - for large integers even this is challenging and usually log Γ(·) is computed instead of Γ(·)

Posterior is

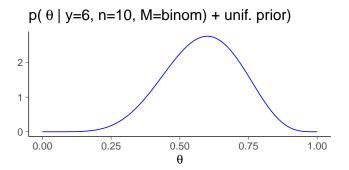
$$p(\theta|y,n,M) = \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y},$$

Posterior is

$$p(\theta|y,n,M) = \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y},$$

which is called Beta distribution

$$\theta|y,n\sim \text{Beta}(y+1,n-y+1)$$



# Binomial: computation

- R
- density dbeta
- CDF pbeta
- quantile qbeta
- random number rbeta
- Python
  - from scipy.stats import beta
  - density beta.pdf
  - CDF beta.cdf
  - prctile beta.ppf
  - random number beta.rvs

## Binomial: computation\*

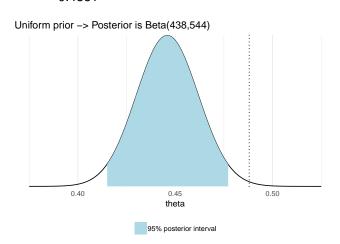
- Beta CDF not trivial to compute
- For example, pbeta in R uses a continued fraction with weighting factors and asymptotic expansion
- Laplace developed normal approximation (Laplace approximation), because he didn't know how to compute Beta CDF

### Placenta previa

- Probability of a girl birth given placenta previa (BDA3 p. 37)
  - 437 girls and 543 boys have been observed
  - is the ratio 0.445 different from the population average 0.485?

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$$p(\tilde{y}=1|\theta,y,n,M)$$

$$p(\tilde{y}=1|y,n,M)=\int_0^1 p(\tilde{y}=1|\theta,y,n,M)p(\theta|y,n,M)d\theta$$

$$p(\tilde{y} = 1|y, n, M) = \int_0^1 p(\tilde{y} = 1|\theta, y, n, M)p(\theta|y, n, M)d\theta$$
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$$= \int_0^1 \theta p(\theta|y, n, M)d\theta$$
$$= E[\theta|y]$$

• Predictive distribution for new  $\tilde{y}$  (discrete)

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With uniform prior

$$\mathsf{E}[\theta|y] = \frac{y+1}{n+2}$$

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Extreme cases

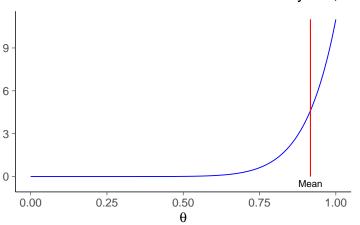
$$p(\tilde{y} = 1 | y = 0, n, M) = \frac{1}{n+2}$$
  
 $p(\tilde{y} = 1 | y = n, n, M) = \frac{n+1}{n+2}$ 

cf. maximum likelihood

## Benefits of integration

Example: n = 10, y = 10

Posterior of  $\theta$  of Binomial model with y=10, n=



#### Predictive distribution

• Prior predictive distribution for new  $\tilde{y}$  (discrete)

$$p(\tilde{y}=1|M)=\int_0^1 p(\tilde{y}=1|\theta,y,n,M)p(\theta|M)d\theta$$

$$p(\tilde{y}=1|y,n,M)=\int_0^1 p(\tilde{y}=1|\theta,y,n,M)p(\theta|y,n,M)d\theta$$

## Justification for uniform prior

- $p(\theta|M) = 1$  if
  - 1) we want the prior predictive distribution to be uniform

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- nice justification as it is based on observables y and n
- 2) we think all values of  $\theta$  are equally likely

#### **Priors**

- Conjugate prior (BDA3 p. 35)
- Noninformative prior (BDA3 p. 51)
- Proper and improper prior (BDA3 p. 52)
- Weakly informative prior (BDA3 p. 55)
- Informative prior (BDA3 p. 55)
- Prior sensitivity (BDA3 p. 38)

## Conjugate prior

- Prior and posterior have the same form
  - only for exponential family distributions (plus for some irregular cases)
- Used to be important for computational reasons, and still sometimes used for special models to allow partial analytic marginalization (Ch 3)
  - with Hamiltonian Monte Carlo used e.g. in Stan no any computational benefit

Prior

Beta
$$(\theta | \alpha, \beta) \propto \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) \propto \theta^{y} (1-\theta)^{n-y} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

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$$= Beta(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

Prior

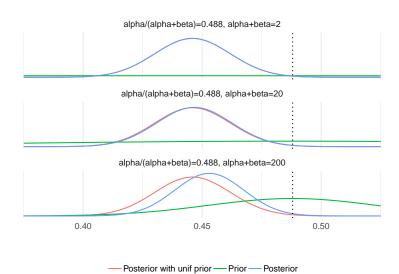
Beta
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$$= \theta^{y + \alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{n - y + \beta - 1}$$
$$= \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

- $(\alpha 1)$  and  $(\beta 1)$  can considered to be number of prior observations
- Uniform prior when  $\alpha = 1$  and  $\beta = 1$

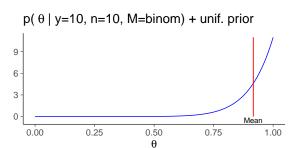
## Placenta previa

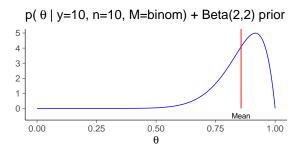
Beta prior centered on population average 0.485



## Benefits of integration and prior

Example: n = 10, y = 10 - uniform vs Beta(2,2) prior





## Beta prior for Binomial model

Posterior

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

Posterior mean

$$\mathsf{E}[\theta|y] = \frac{\alpha + y}{\alpha + \beta + n}$$

- combination prior and likelihood information
- when  $n \to \infty$ ,  $\mathsf{E}[\theta|y] \to y/n$

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- combination prior and likelihood information
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- Posterior variance

$$Var[\theta|y] = \frac{E[\theta|y](1 - E[\theta|y])}{\alpha + \beta + n + 1}$$

- decreases when n increases
- when  $n \to \infty$ ,  $Var[\theta|y] \to 0$

## Noninformative prior, proper and improper prior

- Vague, flat, diffuse of noninformative
  - try to "to let the data speak for themselves"
  - flat is not non-informative
  - flat can be stupid
  - making prior flat somewhere can make it non-flat somewhere else
- Proper prior has  $\int p(\theta) = 1$
- Improper prior density doesn't have a finite integral
  - the posterior can still sometimes be proper

## Weakly informative priors

- Weakly informative priors produce computationally better behaving posteriors
  - quite often there's at least some knowledge about the scale
  - useful also if there's more information from previous observations, but not certain how well that information is applicable in a new case uncertainty

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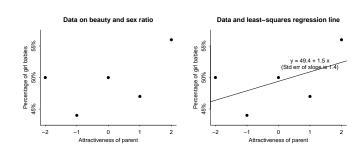
#### Construction

- Start with some version of a noninformative prior distribution and then add enough information so that inferences are constrained to be reasonable.
- Start with a strong, highly informative prior and broaden it to account for uncertainty in one's prior beliefs and in the applicability of any historically based prior distribution to new data.
- Stan team prior choice recommendations https://github. com/stan-dev/stan/wiki/Prior-Choice-Recommendations

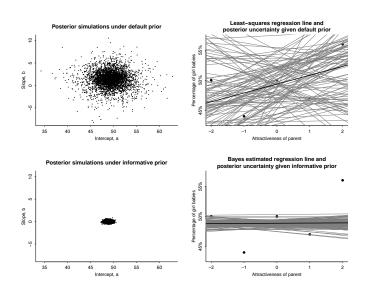
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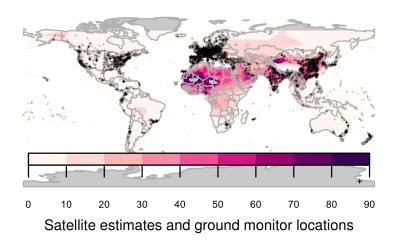


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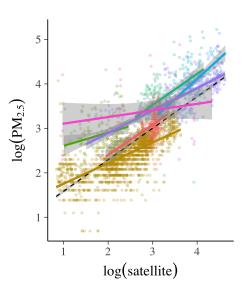


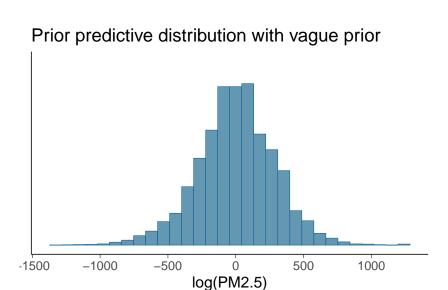
- Gabry et al (2019). Visualization in Bayesian workflow.
  - Estimation of human exposure to air pollution from particulate matter measuring less than 2.5 microns in diameter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>)
  - A recent report estimated that PM<sub>2.5</sub> is responsible for three million deaths worldwide each year (Shaddick et al, 2017)

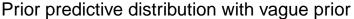
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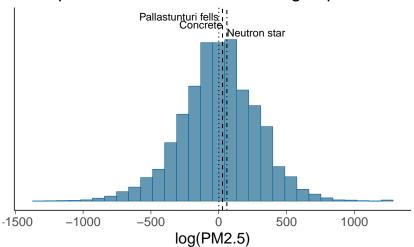


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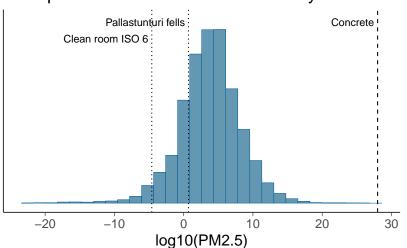








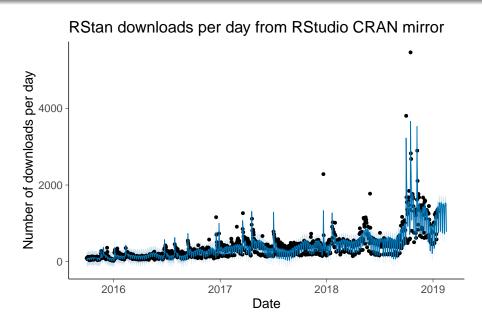
### Prior predictive distribution with weakly informative



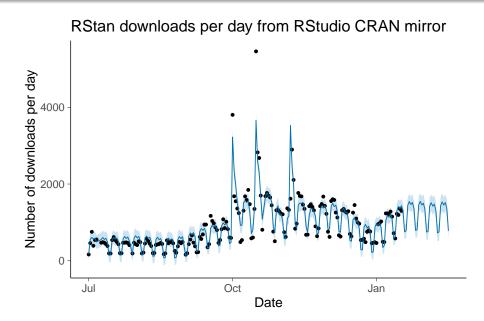
## Effect of incorrect priors?

- Introduce bias, but often still produce smaller estimation error because the variance is reduced
  - bias-variance tradeoff

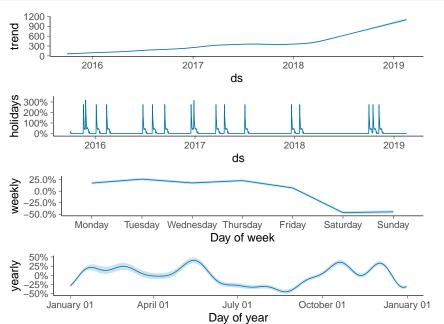
## Structural information in predicting future



## Structural information in predicting future



## Structural information – Prophet by Facebook

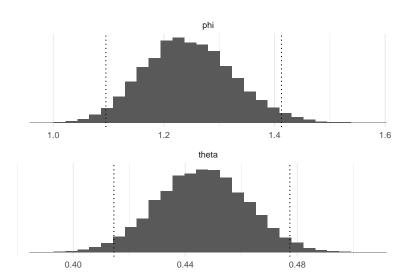


#### Sufficient statistics\*

• The quantity t(y) is said to be a *sufficient statistic* for  $\theta$ , because the likelihood for  $\theta$  depends on the data y only through the value of t(y).

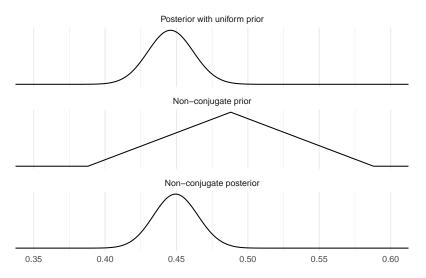
### Posterior visualization and inference demos

• demo2\_3: Simulate samples from Beta(438,544), and draw a histogram of  $\theta$  with quantiles.



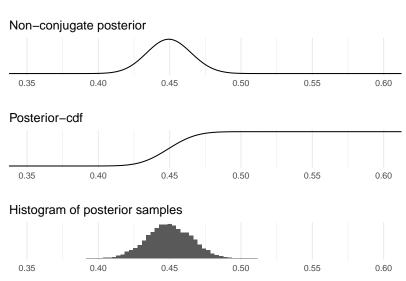
#### Posterior visualization and inference demos

demo2\_4: Compute posterior distribution in a grid.



#### Posterior visualization and inference demos

demo2\_4: Sample using the inverse-cdf method.



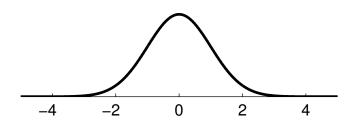
Algae status is monitored in 274 sites at Finnish lakes and rivers. The observations for the 2008 algae status at each site are presented in file algae.mat ('0': no algae, '1': algae present). Let  $\pi$  be the probability of a monitoring site having detectable blue-green algae levels.

- Use a binomial model for observations and a beta(2,10) prior.
- What can you say about the value of the unknown  $\pi$ ?
- Experiment how the result changes if you change the prior.

#### Normal / Gaussian

- Observations y real valued
- Mean  $\theta$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  (or deviation  $\sigma$ ) (first assume  $\sigma^2$  known)

$$p(y|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\theta)^2\right)$$
$$y \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2)$$



#### Reasons to use Normal distribution

- Normal distribution often justified based on central limit theorem
- More often used due to the computational convenience or tradition

#### Central limit theorem\*

- De Moivre, Laplace, Gauss, Chebysev, Liapounov, Markov, et al.
- Given certain conditions sum (and mean) of random variables approach Gaussian distribution as d  $n \to \infty$
- Problems
  - does not hold for all distributions, e.g., Cauchy
  - may require large n, e.g. Binomial, when  $\theta$  close to 0 or 1
  - does not hold if one the variables has much larger scale

• Assume  $\sigma^2$  known

Likelihood 
$$p(y|\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\theta)^2\right)$$

Prior 
$$p(\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_0^2}(\theta-\mu_0)^2\right)$$

• Assume  $\sigma^2$  known

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 $\exp(a)\exp(b) = \exp(a+b)$ 

• Assume  $\sigma^2$  known

$$p(y|\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\theta)^2\right)$$

$$p( heta) \propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2 au_0^2}( heta-\mu_0)^2
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$$\exp(a)\exp(b)=\exp(a+b)$$

$$p(\theta|y) \propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}\left[rac{(y- heta)^2}{\sigma^2} + rac{( heta-\mu_0)^2}{ au_0^2}
ight]
ight)$$

Posterior (see ex 2.14a)

$$p(\theta|y) \propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}\left[rac{(y- heta)^2}{\sigma^2} + rac{( heta-\mu_0)^2}{ au_0^2}
ight]
ight) \ \propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2 au_1^2}( heta-\mu_1)^2
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$$heta|y \sim N(\mu_1, au_1^2), \quad ext{where} \quad \mu_1 = rac{rac{1}{ au_0^2} \mu_0 + rac{1}{\sigma^2} y}{rac{1}{ au_0^2} + rac{1}{\sigma^2}} \quad ext{and} \quad rac{1}{ au_1^2} = rac{1}{ au_0^2} + rac{1}{\sigma^2}$$

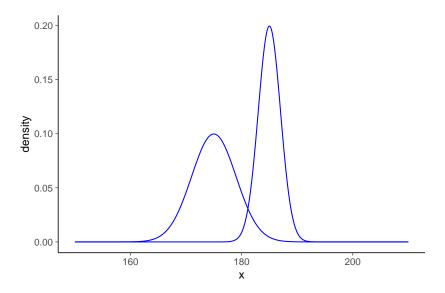
Posterior (see ex 2.14a)

$$\begin{split} p(\theta|y) &\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(y-\theta)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\theta-\mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2}\right]\right) \\ &\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_1^2}(\theta-\mu_1)^2\right) \end{split}$$

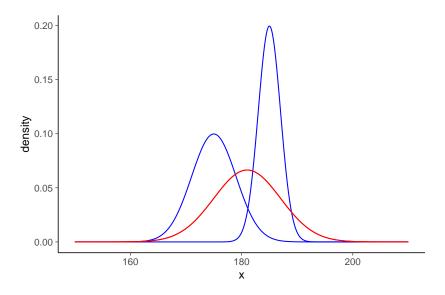
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- 1/variance = precision
- Posterior precision = prior precision + data precision
- Posterior mean is precision weighted mean

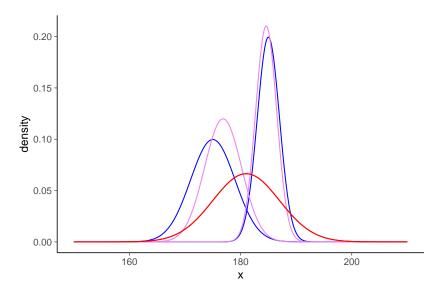
## Normal distribution - example



## Normal distribution - example



# Normal distribution - example



Several observations – use chain rule

• Several observations  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ 

$$p(\theta|y) = N(\theta|\mu_n, \tau_n^2)$$

where 
$$\mu_n = \frac{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} \mu_0 + \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \bar{y}}{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}}$$
 ja  $\frac{1}{\tau_n^2} = \frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}$ 

• If  $\tau_0^2 = \sigma^2$ , prior corresponds to one virtual observation with value  $\mu_0$ 

• Several observations  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ 

$$p(\theta|y) = \mathsf{N}(\theta|\mu_n, \tau_n^2)$$

where 
$$\mu_n = \frac{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} \mu_0 + \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \bar{y}}{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}}$$
 ja  $\frac{1}{\tau_n^2} = \frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}$ 

- If  $\tau_0^2 = \sigma^2$ , prior corresponds to one virtual observation with value  $\mu_0$
- If  $\tau_0 \to \infty$  when n fixed or if  $n \to \infty$  when  $\tau_0$  fixed

$$p(\theta|y) \approx N(\theta|\bar{y}, \sigma^2/n)$$

Posterior predictive distribution

$$\begin{split} & \rho(\tilde{y}|y) = \int \rho(\tilde{y}|\theta) \rho(\theta|y) d\theta \\ & \rho(\tilde{y}|y) \propto \int \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\tilde{y}-\theta)^2\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_1^2}(\theta-\mu_1)^2\right) d\theta \\ & \tilde{y}|y \sim \mathsf{N}(\mu_1, \sigma^2 + \tau_1^2) \end{split}$$

• Predictive variance = observation model variance  $\sigma^2$  + posterior variance  $\tau_1^2$