

Model checking

Dr. Jarad Niemi

Iowa State University

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Outline

We assume $p(y|\theta)$ and $p(\theta)$, so it would be prudent to determine if these assumptions are reasonable.

- (Prior) sensitivity analysis
- Posterior predictive checks
 - Graphical checks
 - Posterior predictive pvalues

Prior sensitivity analysis

Since a prior specifies our prior belief, we may want to check to determine whether our conclusions would change if we held different prior beliefs. Suppose a particular scientific question can be boiled down to

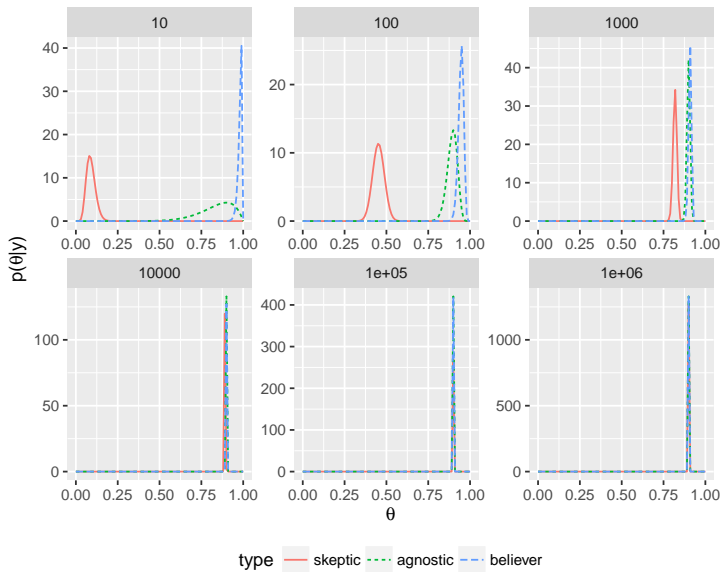
$$Y_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \text{Ber}(\theta)$$

and that there is wide disagreement about the value for θ such that the following might reasonably characterize different individual beliefs before the experiment is run:

- Skeptic: $\theta \sim \text{Be}(1, 100)$
- Agnostic: $\theta \sim \text{Be}(1, 1)$
- Believer: $\theta \sim \text{Be}(100, 1)$

An experiment is run and the posterior under these different priors are compared.

Posteriors



Hierarchical variance prior

Recall the normal hierarchical model

$$y_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\theta_i, s_i^2), \quad \theta_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(\mu, \tau^2)$$

which results in the posterior distribution for τ of

$$p(\tau|y) \propto p(\tau) V_{\mu}^{1/2} \prod_{i=1}^I (s_i^2 + \tau^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \hat{\mu})^2}{2(s_i^2 + \tau^2)}\right)$$

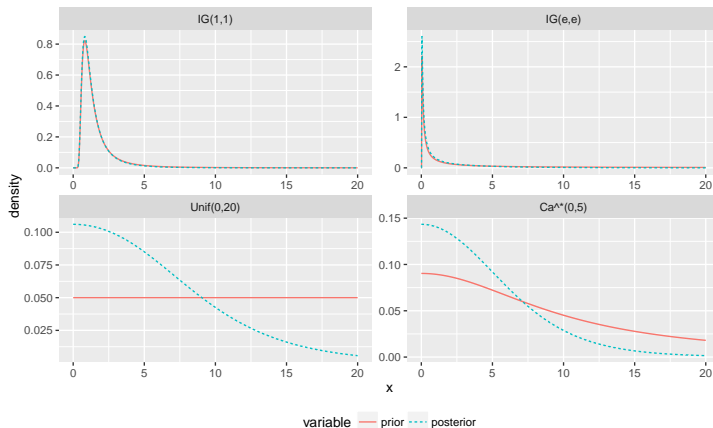
As an attempt to be non-informative, consider an $IG(\epsilon, \epsilon)$ prior for τ^2 . As an alternative, consider $\tau \sim \text{Unif}(0, C)$ or $\tau \sim \text{Ca}^+(0, C)$ where C is problem specific, but is chosen to be relatively large for the particular problem.

The 8-schools example has the following data:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
y	28	8	-3	7	-1	1	18	12
s	15	10	16	11	9	11	10	18

Posterior for 8-schools example

Reproduction of Gelman 2006:



Summary

For a default prior on a variance (σ^2) or standard deviation (σ), use

1. Easy to remember.
 - Half-Cauchy on the standard deviation ($\sigma \sim Ca^+(0, C)$).
2. Harder to remember
 - Data-level variance
 - Use default prior ($p(\sigma^2) \propto 1/\sigma^2$)
 - Hierarchical standard deviation
 - Use uniform prior ($\text{Unif}(0, C)$) if there are enough reps (5 or more) of that parameter.
 - Use half-Cauchy prior ($Ca^+(0, C)$) otherwise.

When assigning the values for C

- For a uniform prior ($\text{Unif}(0, C)$) make sure C is large enough to capture any reasonable value for the standard deviation.
- For a half-Cauchy prior ($Ca^+(0, C)$) err on the side of making C too small since the heavy tails will let the data tell you if the standard deviation needs to be larger whereas a value of C that is too large will put too much weight toward large values of the standard deviation and make the prior more informative.

Posterior predictive checks

Let y^{rep} be a replication of y , then

$$p(y^{rep}|y) = \int p(y^{rep}|\theta, y)p(\theta|y)d\theta = \int p(y^{rep}|\theta)p(\theta|y)d\theta.$$

where y is the observed data and θ are the model parameters.

To simulate a full replication:

1. Simulate $\theta^{(j)} \sim p(\theta|y)$ and
2. Simulate $y^{rep,j} \sim p(y|\theta^{(j)})$.

To assess model adequacy:

- Compare plots of replicated data to the observed data.
- Calculate posterior predictive pvalues.

Airline accident data

Let

- y_i be the number of fatal accidents in year i
- x_i be the number of 100 million miles flown in year i

Consider the model

$$Y_i \stackrel{ind}{\sim} Po(x_i \lambda) \quad p(\lambda) \propto 1/\sqrt{\lambda}.$$

	year	fatal_accidents	passenger_deaths	death_rate	miles_flown
1	1976	24	734	0	3863
2	1977	25	516	0	4300
3	1978	31	754	0	5027
4	1979	31	877	0	5481
5	1980	22	814	0	5814
6	1981	21	362	0	6033
7	1982	26	764	0	5877
8	1983	20	809	0	6223
9	1984	16	223	0	7433
10	1985	22	1066	0	7107

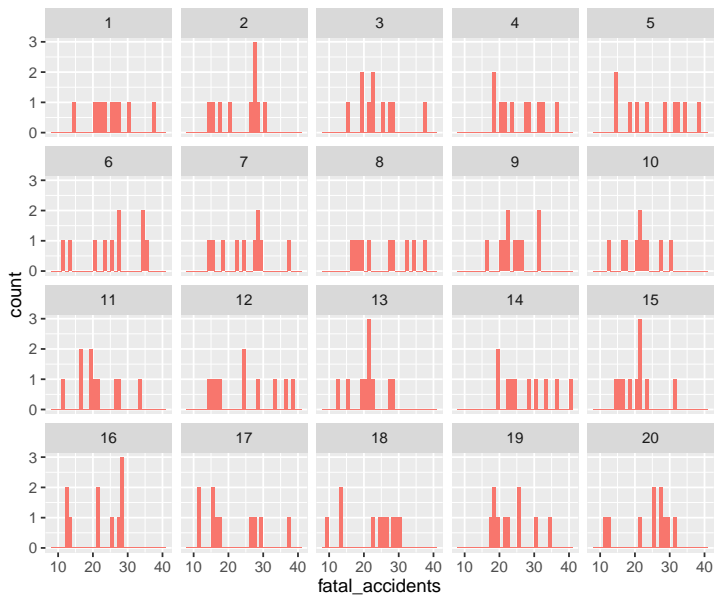
Posterior replications of the data

Under Jeffreys prior, the posterior is

$$\lambda|y \sim Ga(0.5 + n\bar{y}, n\bar{x}).$$

So to obtain a replication of the data, do the following

1. $\lambda^{(j)} \sim Ga(0.5 + n\bar{y}, n\bar{x})$ and
2. $y_i^{rep,j} \overset{ind}{\sim} Po(x_i \lambda^{(j)})$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.





How might this model not accurately represent the data?

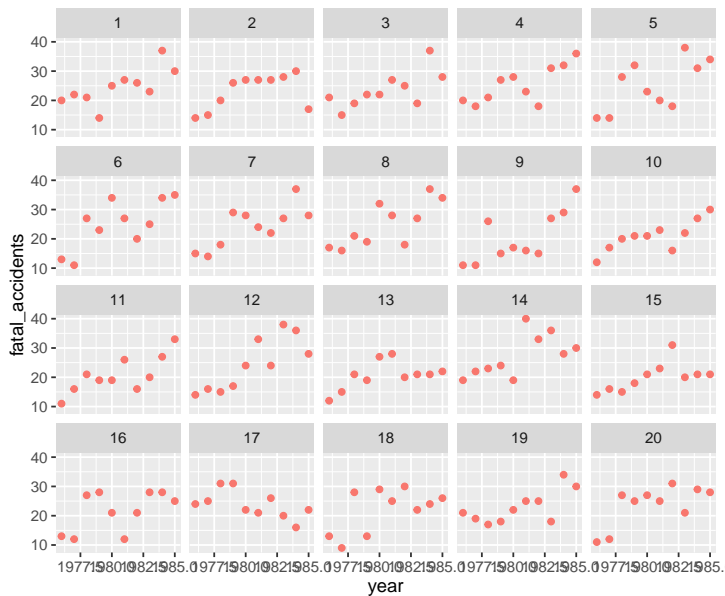
Let

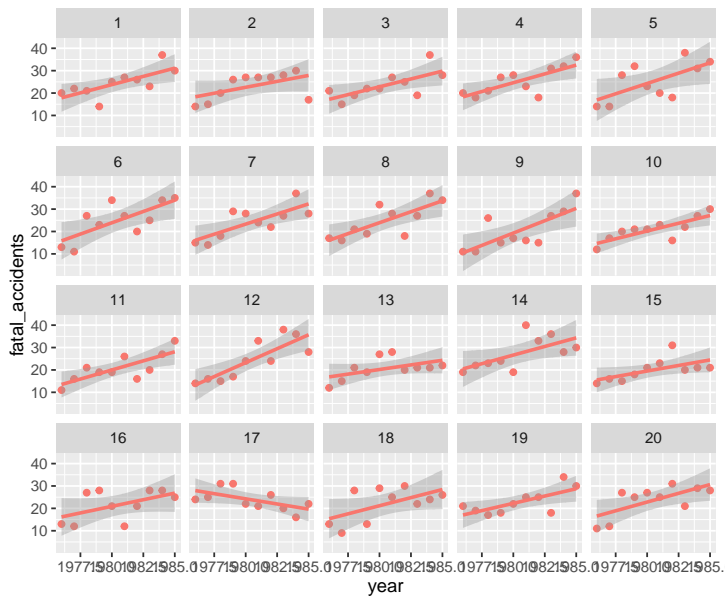
- y_i be the number of fatal accidents in year i
- x_i be the number of 100 million miles flown in year i

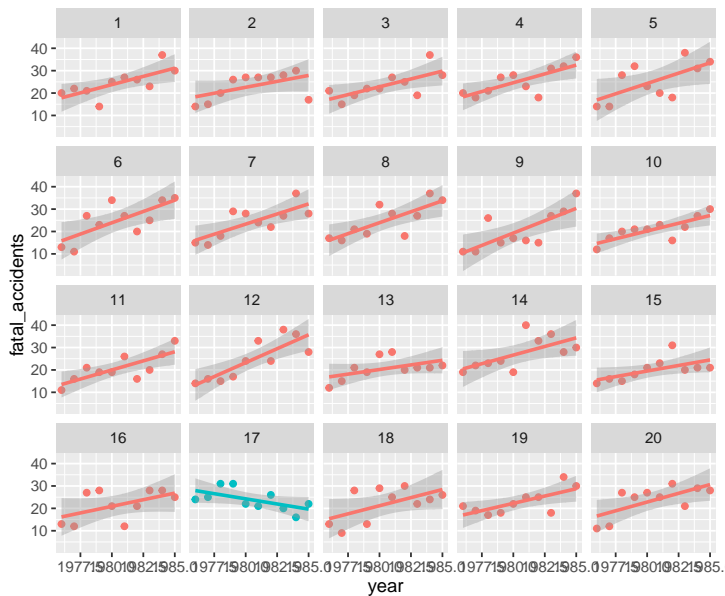
Consider the model

$$Y_i \stackrel{ind}{\sim} Po(x_i \lambda) \quad p(\lambda) \propto 1/\sqrt{\lambda}.$$

	year	fatal_accidents	passenger_deaths	death_rate	miles_flown	.n
1	1976	24	734	0	3863	9
2	1977	25	516	0	4300	9
3	1978	31	754	0	5027	9
4	1979	31	877	0	5481	9
5	1980	22	814	0	5814	9
6	1981	21	362	0	6033	9
7	1982	26	764	0	5877	9
8	1983	20	809	0	6223	9
9	1984	16	223	0	7433	9
10	1985	22	1066	0	7107	9







Posterior predictive pvalues

To quantify the discrepancy between observed and replicated data:

1. Define a test statistic $T(y, \theta)$.
2. Define the posterior predictive pvalue

$$p_B = P(T(y^{rep}, \theta) \geq T(y, \theta) | y)$$

where y^{rep} and θ are random. Typically this pvalue is calculated via simulation, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} p_B &= E_{y^{rep}, \theta} [\mathbb{I}(T(y^{rep}, \theta) \geq T(y, \theta)) | y] \\ &= \int \int \mathbb{I}(T(y^{rep}, \theta) \geq T(y, \theta)) p(y^{rep} | \theta) p(\theta | y) dy^{rep} d\theta \\ &\approx \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^J \mathbb{I}(T(y^{rep,j}, \theta^{(j)}) \geq T(y, \theta^{(j)})) \end{aligned}$$

where $\theta^{(j)} \sim p(\theta | y)$ and $y^{rep,j} \sim p(y | \theta^{(j)})$.

Small **or large** pvalues are (possible) cause for concern.

Posterior predictive pvalue for slope

Let

$$Y_i^{obs} = \beta_0^{obs} + \beta_1^{obs} i$$

where

- Y_i^{obs} is the observed number of fatal accidents in year i and
- β_1^{obs} be the test statistic.

Now, generate replicate data y^{rep} and fit

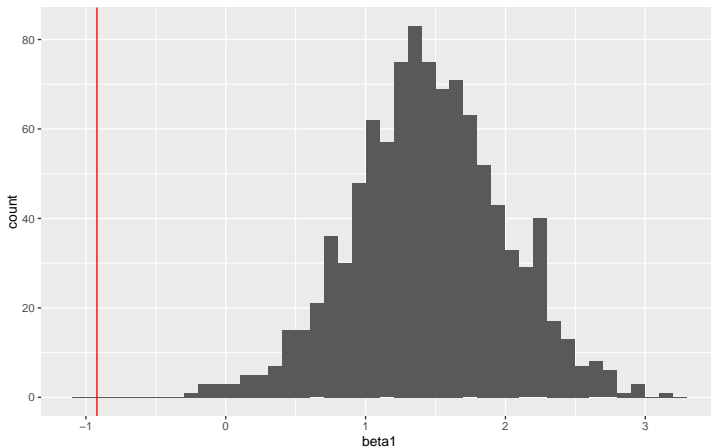
$$Y_i^{rep} = \beta_0^{rep} + \beta_1^{rep} i.$$

Now compare β_1^{obs} to the distribution of β_1^{rep} .

```
mean(rep$s$beta1>observed_slope)
```

```
[1] 1
```

```
ggplot(rep, aes(x=beta1)) + geom_histogram(binwidth=0.1) + geom_vline(xintercept=observed_slope, color="red")
```



Consider a linear model for the λ_i

Consider the model

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &\overset{\text{ind}}{\sim} \text{Po}(x_i \lambda_i) \\ \log(\lambda_i) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 i \end{aligned}$$

where

- Y_i is the number of fatal accidents in year i
- x_i is the number of 100 million miles flown in year i
- λ_i is the accident rate in year i

Here the λ_i are a deterministic function of year, but (possibly) different each year.

Stan linear model for accident rate

```
model = "  
data {  
  int<lower=0> n;  
  int<lower=0> y[n];  
  vector<lower=0>[n] x;  
}  
transformed data {  
  vector[n] log_x;  
  log_x <- log(x); # both x and logx need to be vectors  
}  
parameters {  
  real beta[2];  
}  
transformed parameters {  
  vector[n] log_lambda;  
  for (i in 1:n) log_lambda[i] <- beta[1] + beta[2]*i;  
}  
model {  
  y ~ poisson_log(log_x + log_lambda); # _log indicates mean on log scale  
}  
"  
  
m = stan_model(model_code = model)  
r = sampling(m, list(n=nrow(d), y=d$fatal_accidents, x=d$miles_flown))
```

Inference for Stan model: f31f3c3a893499595102498fe706a368.
 4 chains, each with iter=2000; warmup=1000; thin=1;
 post-warmup draws per chain=1000, total post-warmup draws=4000.

	mean	se_mean	sd	2.5%	25%	50%	75%	97.5%	n_eff	Rhat
beta[1]	-4.90	0.00	0.13	-5.15	-4.99	-4.90	-4.80	-4.65	881	1
beta[2]	-0.11	0.00	0.02	-0.15	-0.12	-0.11	-0.09	-0.06	873	1
log_lambda[1]	-5.00	0.00	0.11	-5.22	-5.08	-5.00	-4.92	-4.79	923	1
log_lambda[2]	-5.11	0.00	0.09	-5.29	-5.17	-5.11	-5.04	-4.93	1011	1
log_lambda[3]	-5.21	0.00	0.08	-5.37	-5.27	-5.21	-5.16	-5.06	1208	1
log_lambda[4]	-5.32	0.00	0.07	-5.45	-5.36	-5.32	-5.27	-5.18	1699	1
log_lambda[5]	-5.42	0.00	0.06	-5.55	-5.47	-5.42	-5.38	-5.30	2645	1
log_lambda[6]	-5.53	0.00	0.07	-5.67	-5.57	-5.53	-5.48	-5.40	2984	1
log_lambda[7]	-5.63	0.00	0.08	-5.79	-5.68	-5.63	-5.58	-5.48	2419	1
log_lambda[8]	-5.74	0.00	0.09	-5.92	-5.80	-5.74	-5.68	-5.56	1840	1
log_lambda[9]	-5.84	0.00	0.11	-6.06	-5.92	-5.84	-5.77	-5.63	1500	1
log_lambda[10]	-5.95	0.00	0.13	-6.20	-6.04	-5.95	-5.86	-5.70	1315	1
lp__	516.88	0.03	0.94	514.33	516.50	517.16	517.56	517.83	1265	1

Samples were drawn using NUTS(diag_e) at Mon Feb 15 08:36:45 2016.
 For each parameter, n_eff is a crude measure of effective sample size,
 and Rhat is the potential scale reduction factor on split chains (at
 convergence, Rhat=1).

Posterior predictive pvalue: slope

```
# Posterior predictive pvalue: slope  
mean(rep_slopes > observed_slope)
```

```
[1] 0.49425
```

