

Statistical Rethinking

Winter 2019

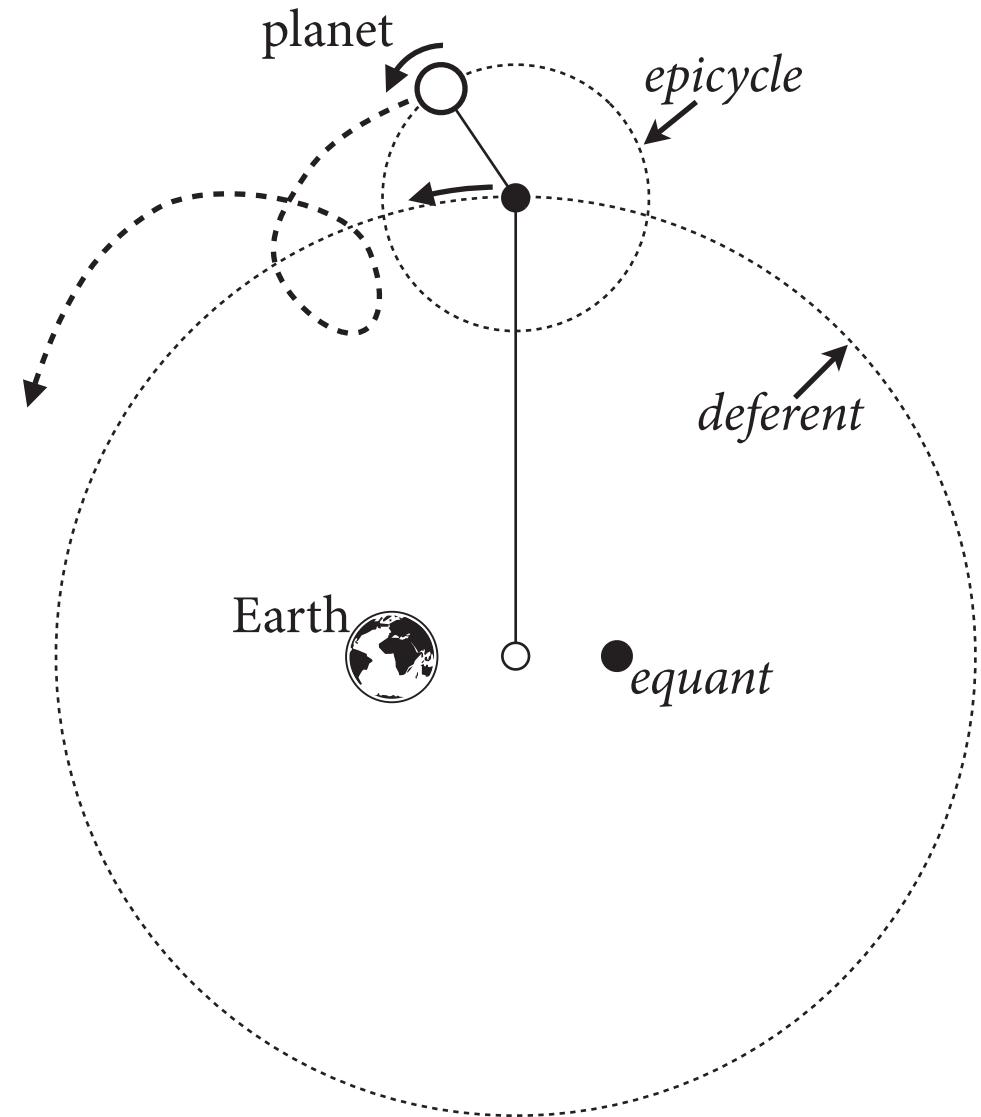
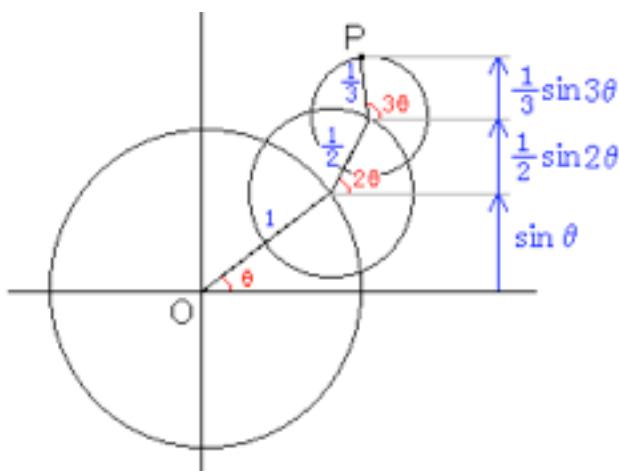
Lecture 03 / Week 2

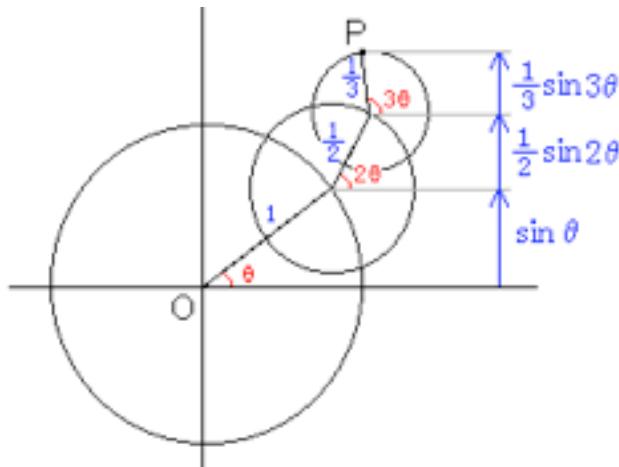
Geocentric Models



Triumph of Geocentrism

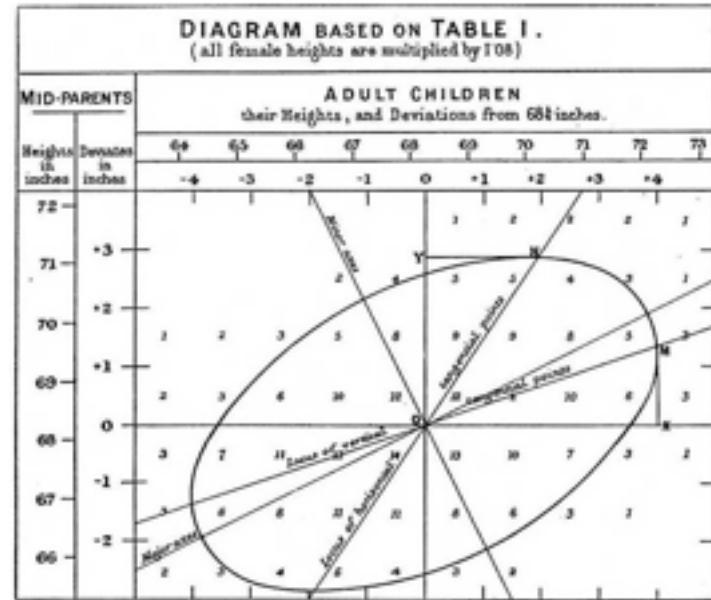
- Claudius Ptolemy (90–168)
 - Egyptian mathematician
 - Accurate model of planetary motion
 - Epicycles: orbits on orbits
 - Fourier series





Geocentrism

- Descriptively accurate
- Mechanistically wrong
- General method of approximation
- Known to be wrong

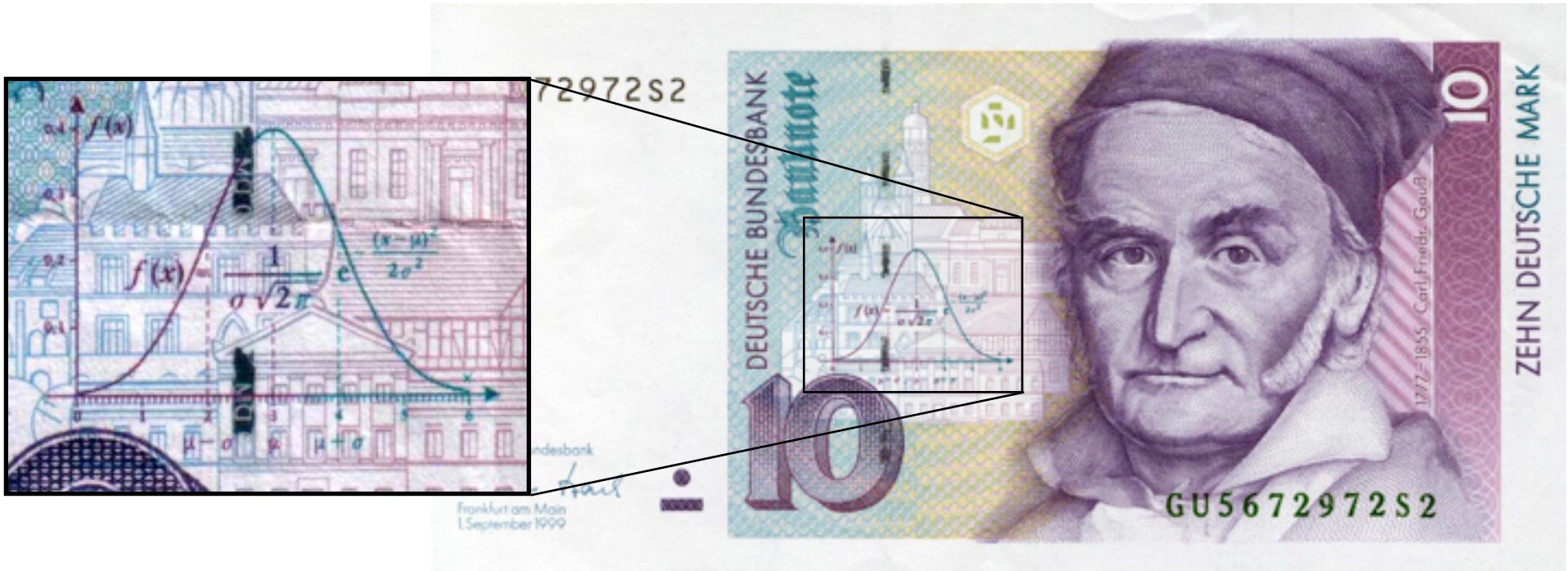


Regression

- Descriptively accurate
- Mechanistically wrong
- General method of approximation
- Taken too seriously

Linear regression

- Simple statistical golems
 - Model of mean and variance of normally (Gaussian) distributed measure
 - Mean as *additive* combination of *weighted* variables
 - Constant variance



1809 Bayesian argument for normal error and least-squares estimation

THEORIA
MOTVS CORPORVM
COELESTIVM

IN

SECTIONIBVS CONICIS SOLEM AMBIENTIVM

AUCTORE

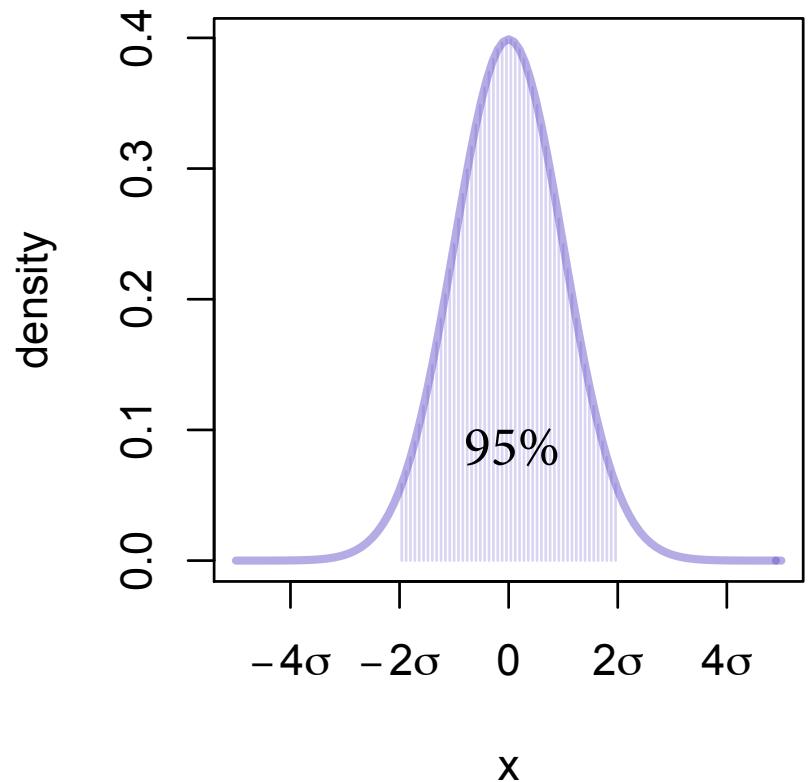
CAROLO FRIDERICO GAVSS

HAMBVRGI SVMTIBVS FRID. PERTHES ET I. H. BESSER

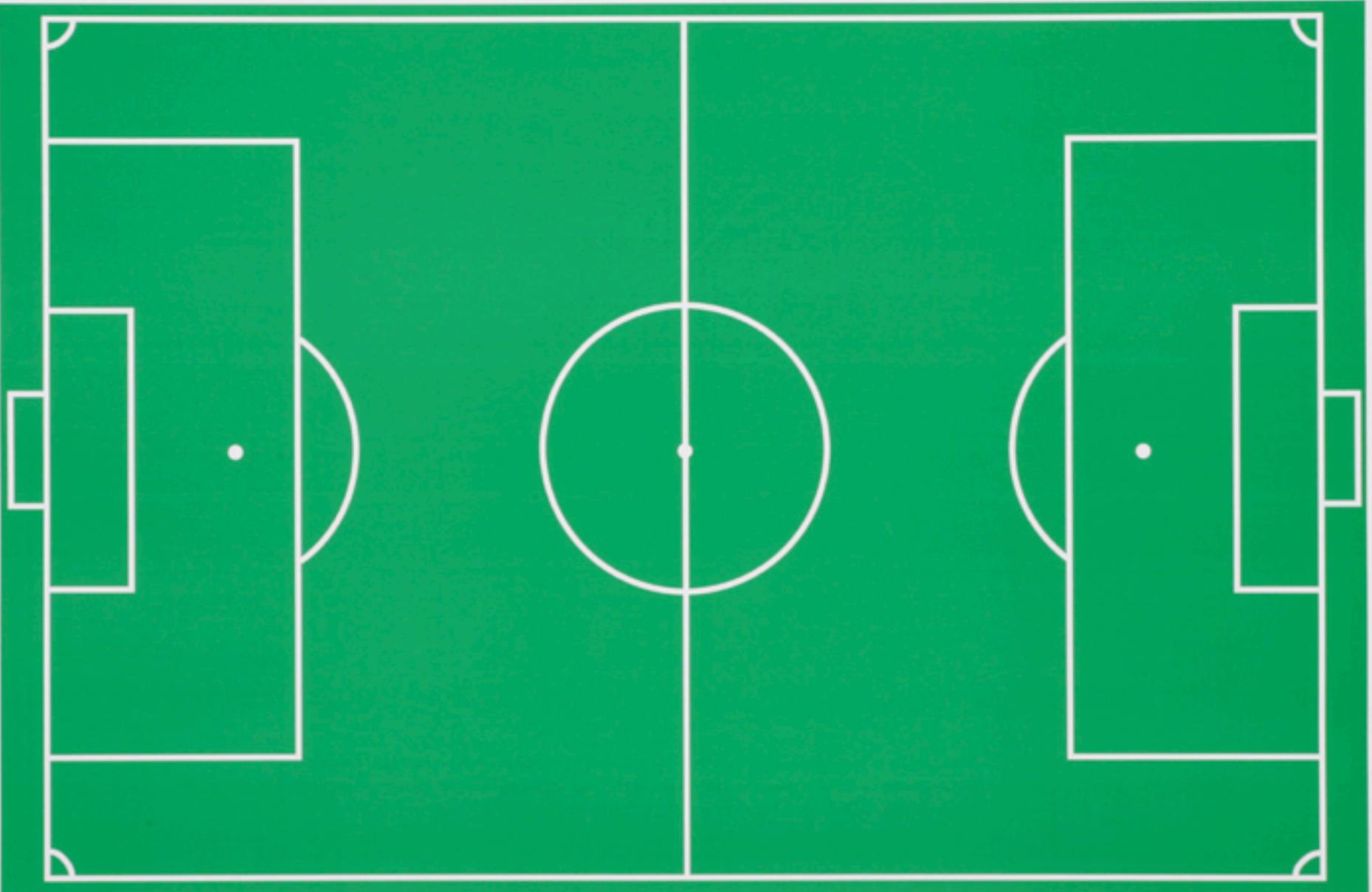
1809.

Why normal?

- Why are normal (Gaussian) distributions so common in statistics?
 1. Easy to calculate with
 2. Common in nature
 3. Very conservative assumption



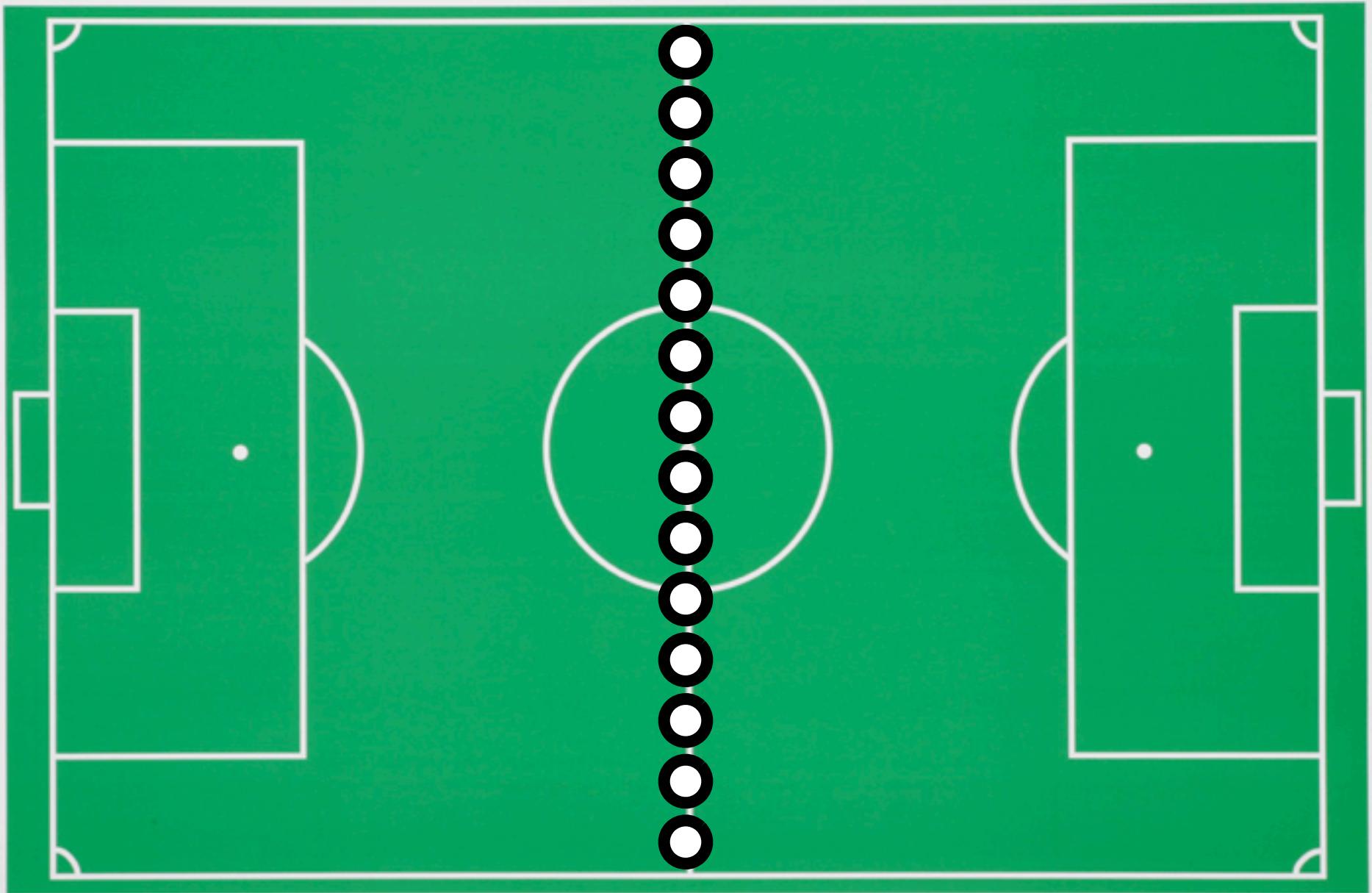
Football



Game Plan - Strategy Overlay

Use in conjunction with a magnetic board such as the A2 Folding Wedge, use only dry-wipe markers, clean with a soft cloth as harsh or abrasive solvents will damage the surface.

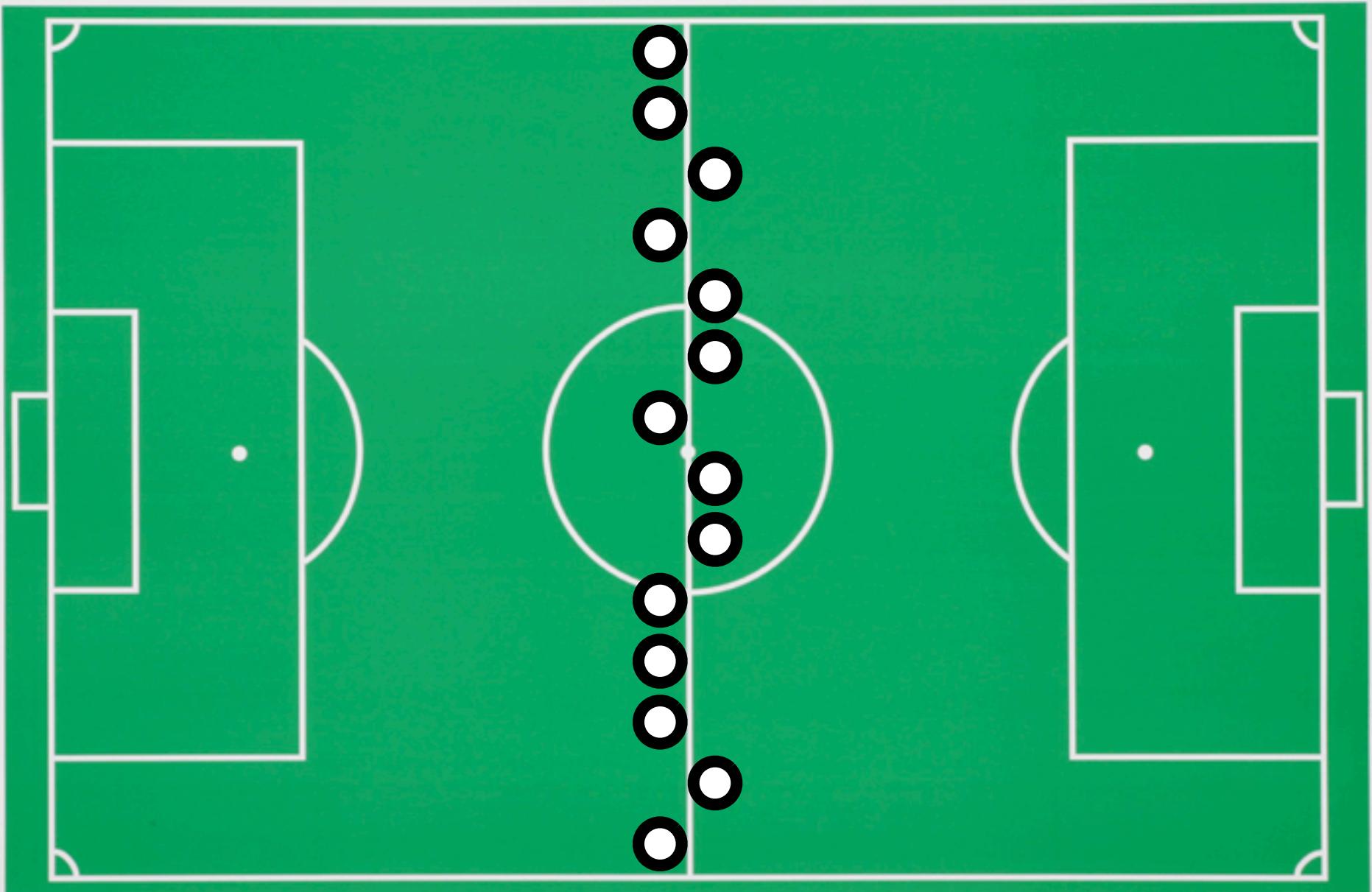
Football



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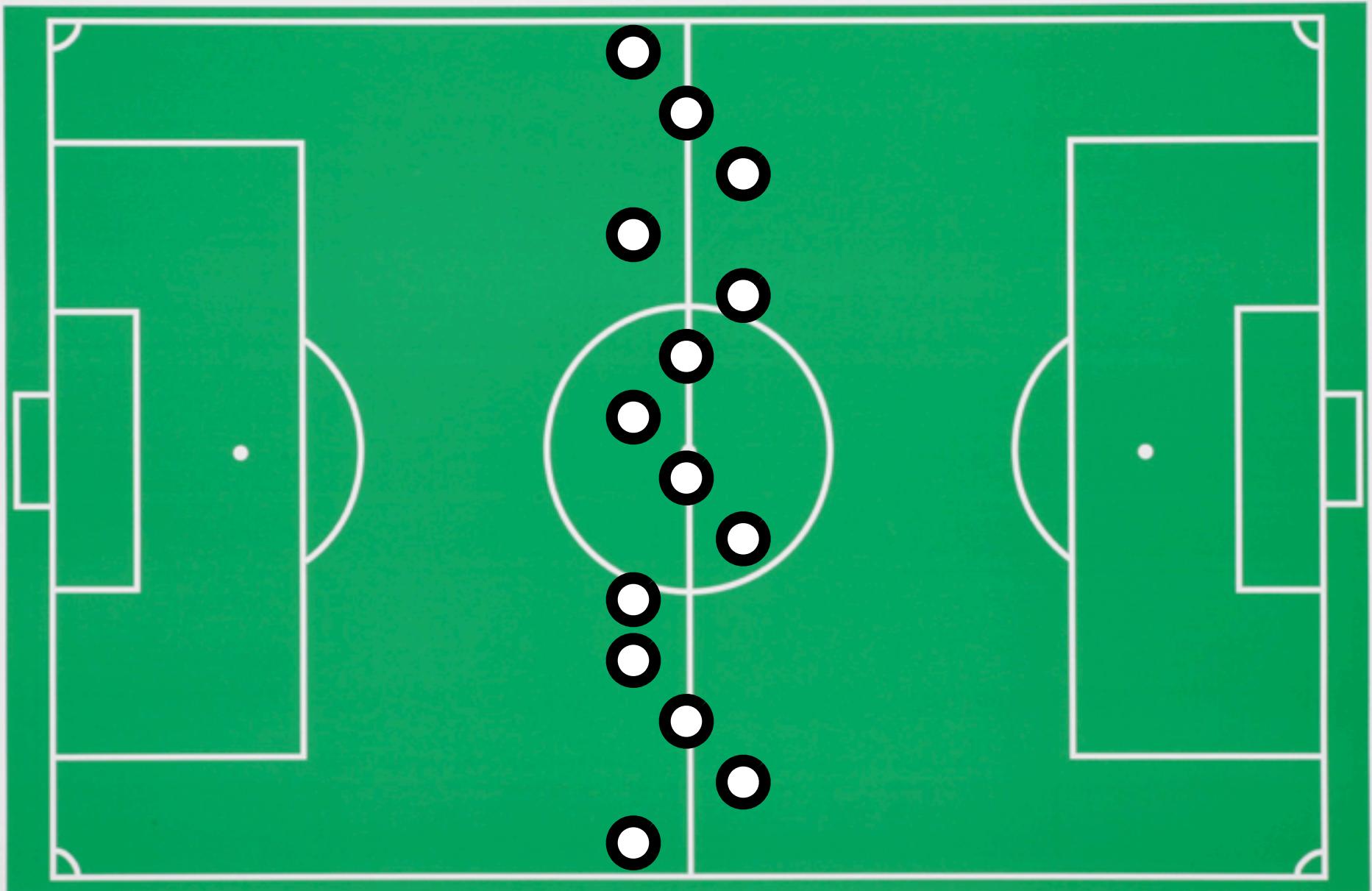
Football



Game Plan - Strategy Overlay

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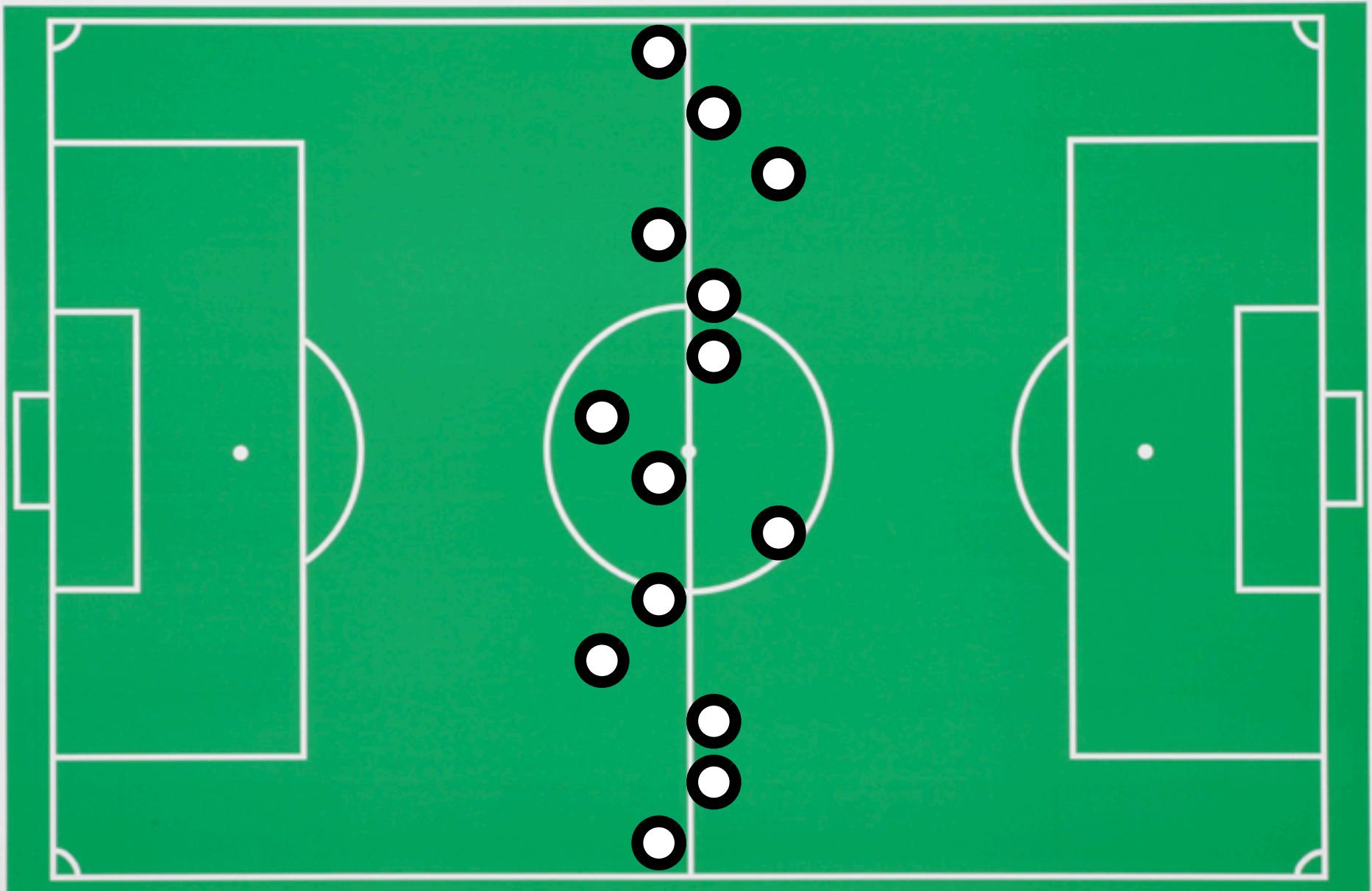
Football



Game Plan - Strategy Overlay

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Football



Game Plan - Strategy Overlay

Use in conjunction with a magnetic board such as the A2 Folding Wedge, use only dry-wipe markers, clean with a soft cloth as harsh or abrasive solvents will damage the surface.

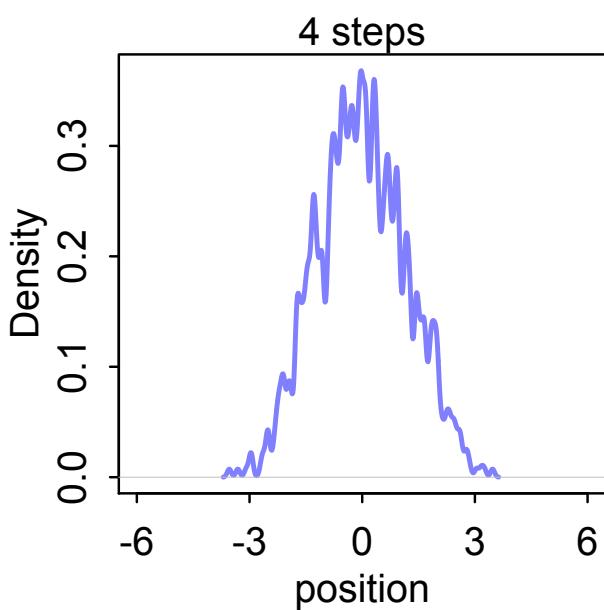
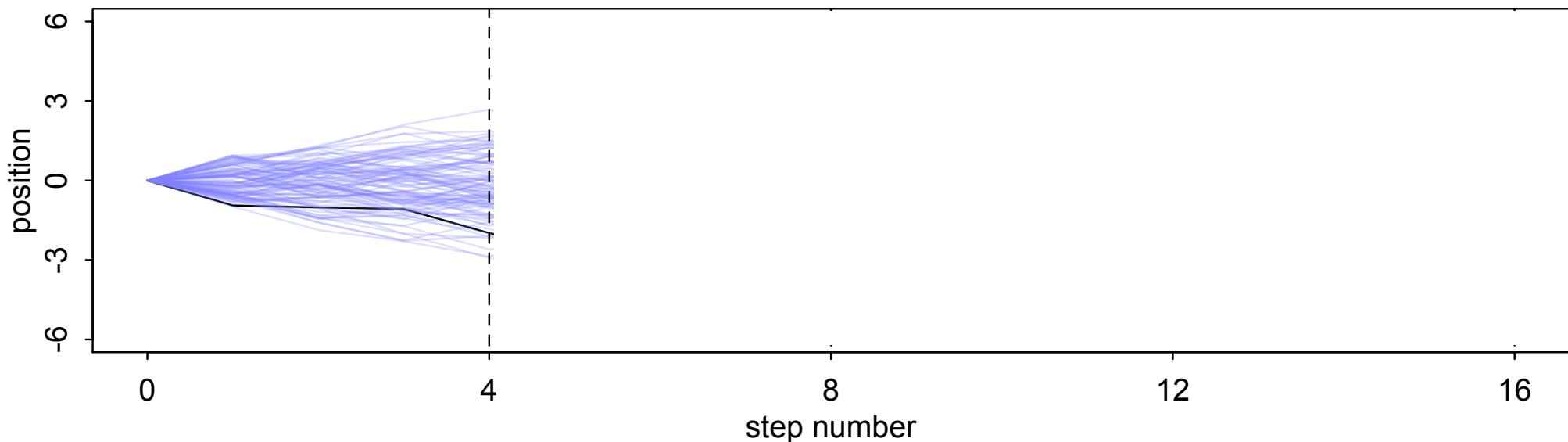


Figure 4.2

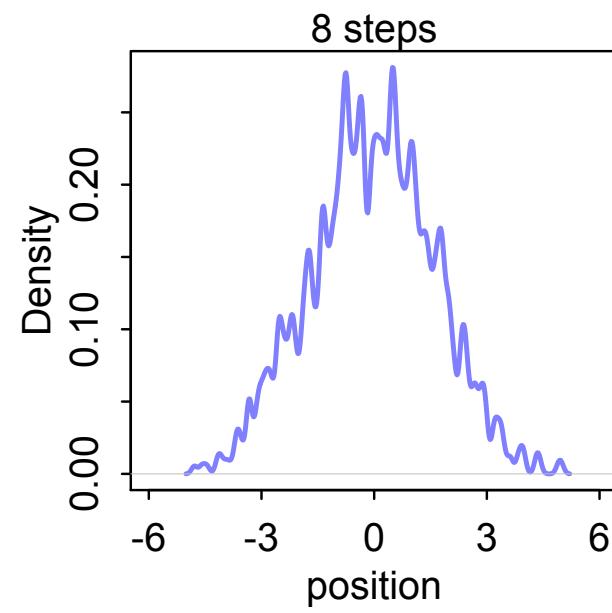
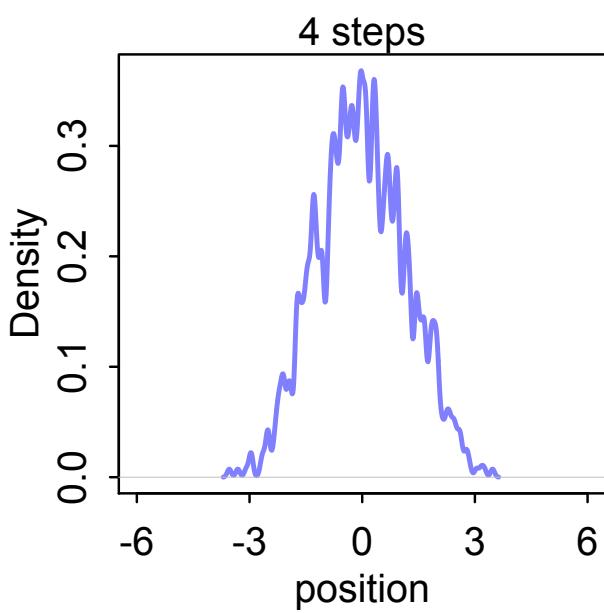
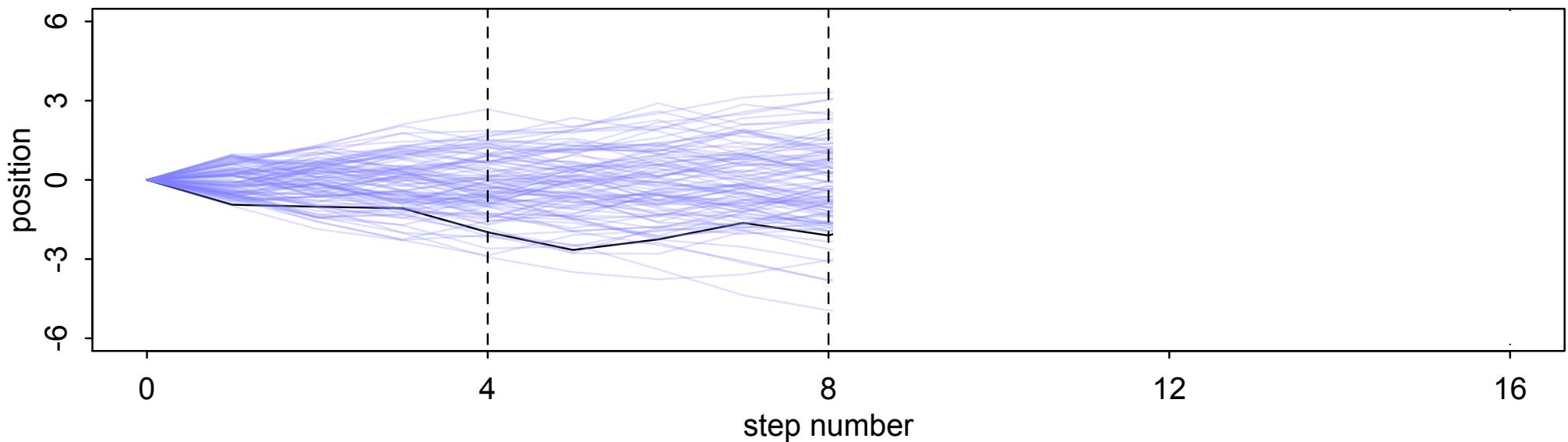


Figure 4.2

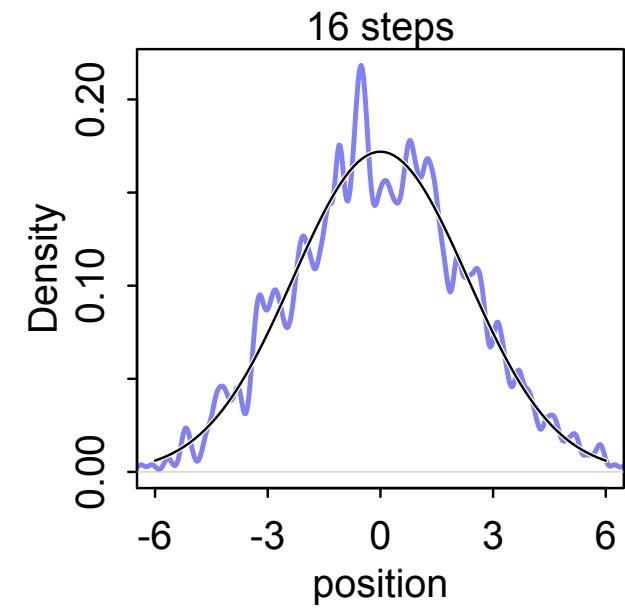
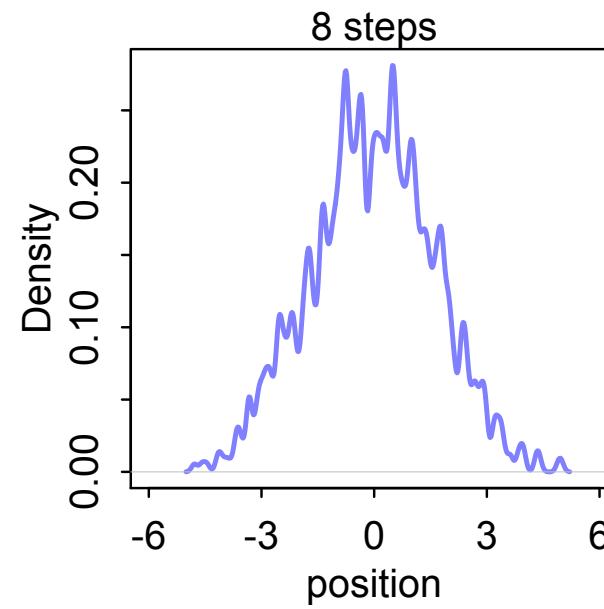
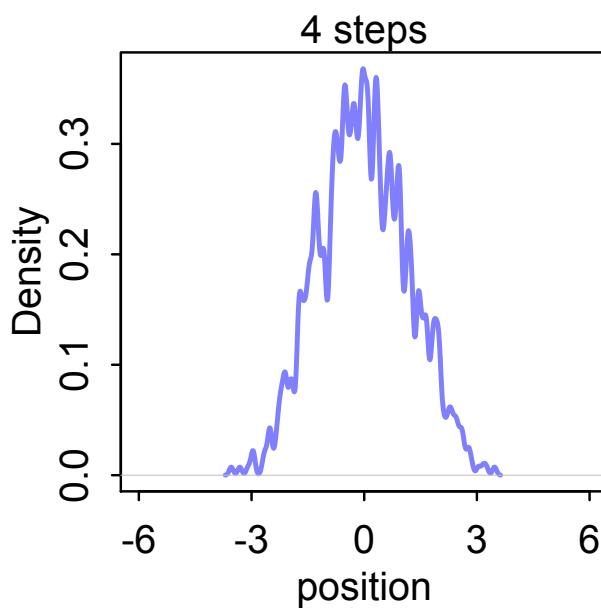
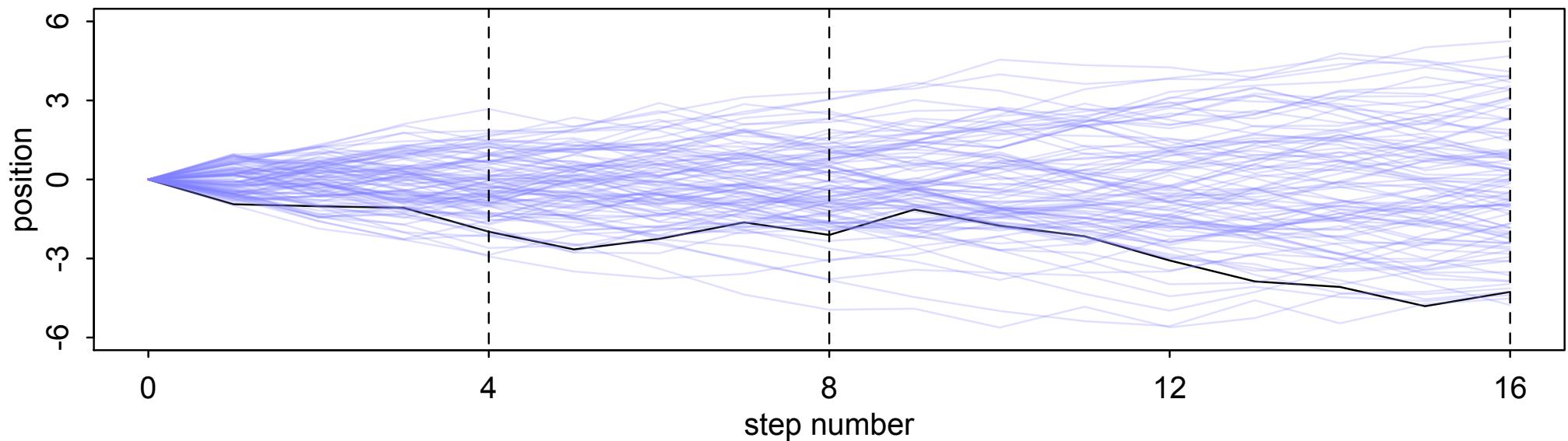
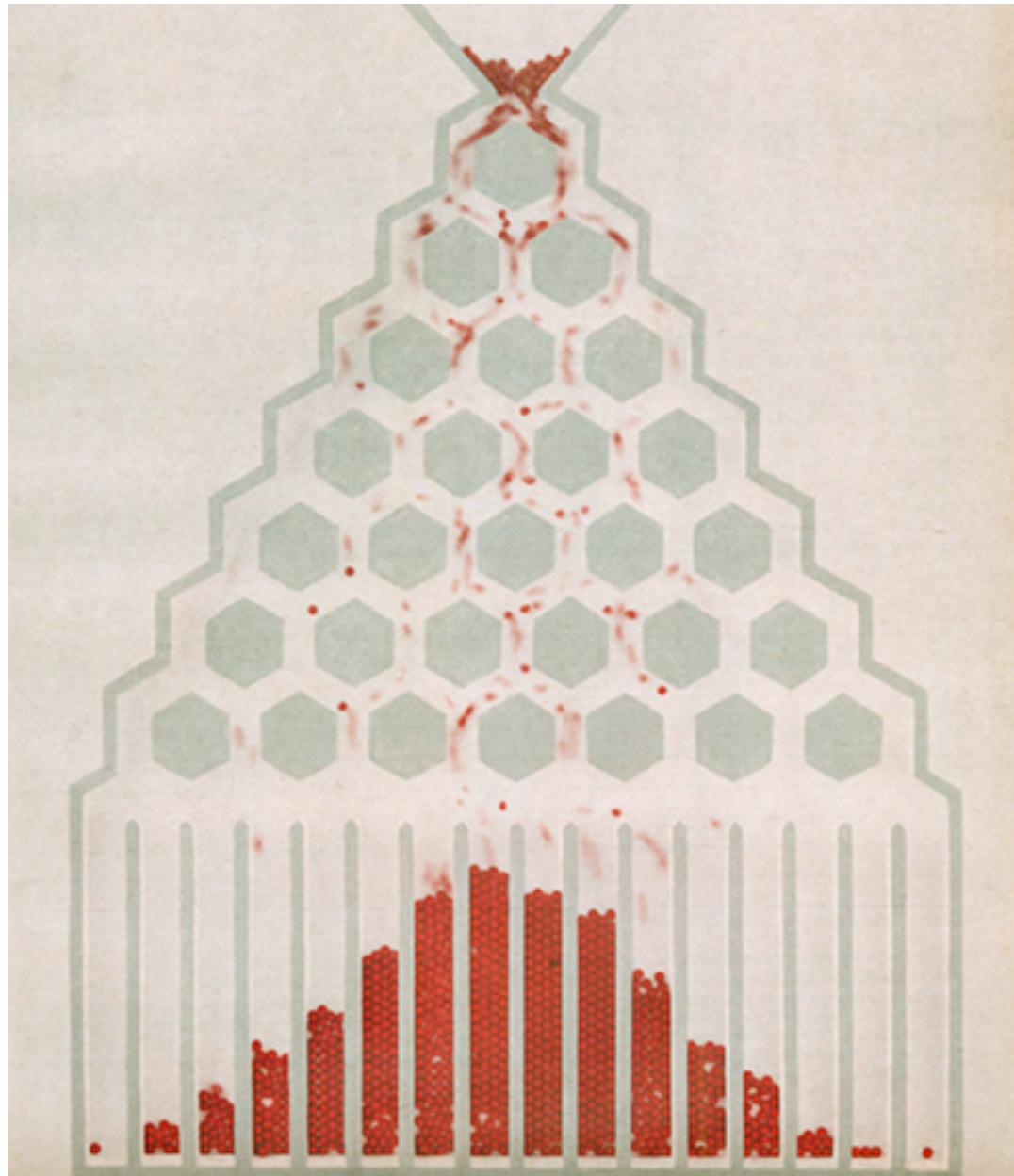


Figure 4.2

Why normal?

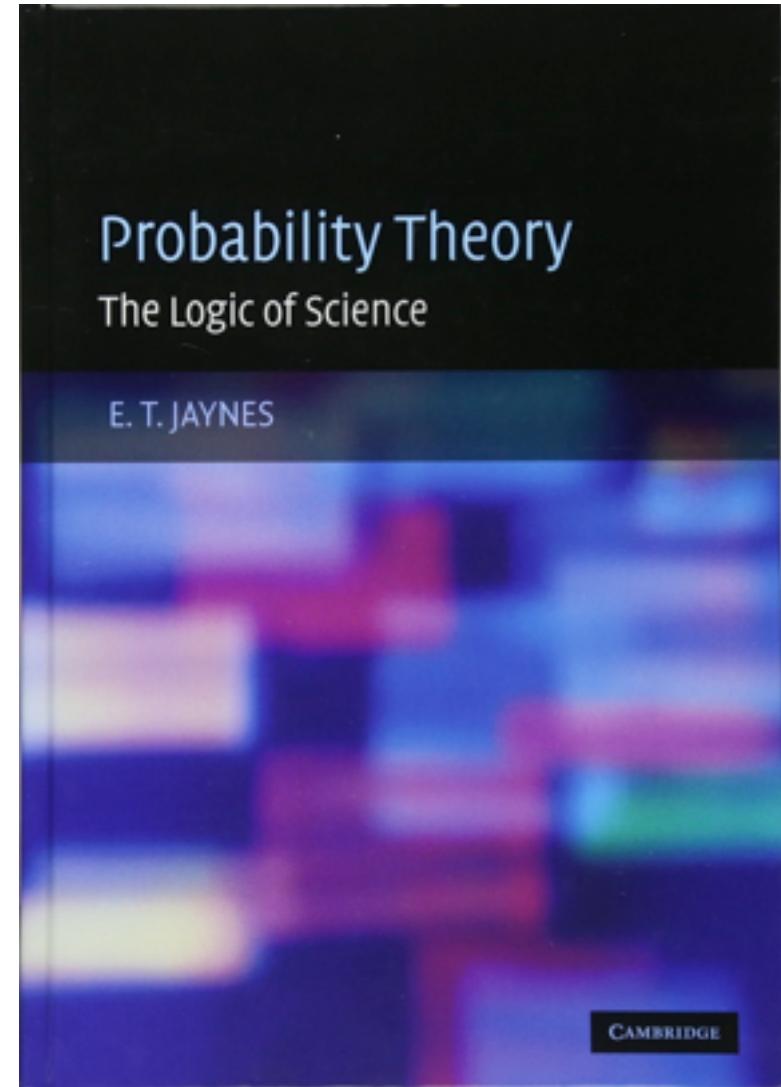
- Processes that produce normal distributions
 - Addition
 - Products of small deviations
 - Logarithms of products



Francis Galton's 1894 "bean machine" for simulating normal distributions

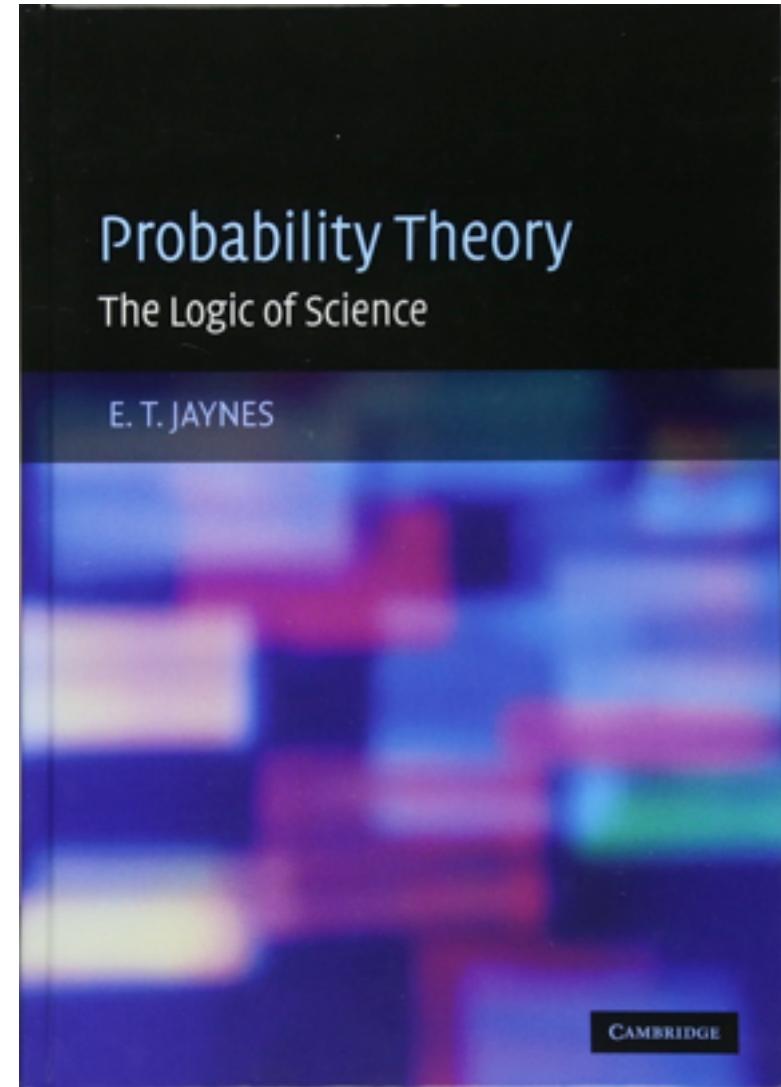
Why normal?

- Ontological perspective
 - Processes which add fluctuations result in dampening
 - Damped fluctuations end up Gaussian
 - No information left, except mean and variance
 - Can't infer process from distribution!



Why normal?

- Ontological perspective
 - Processes which add fluctuations result in dampening
 - Damped fluctuations end up Gaussian
 - No information left, except mean and variance
 - Can't infer process from distribution!
- Epistemological perspective
 - Know only *mean* and *variance*
 - Then least surprising and most conservative (*maximum entropy*) distribution is Gaussian
 - Nature likes maximum entropy distributions



Linear models

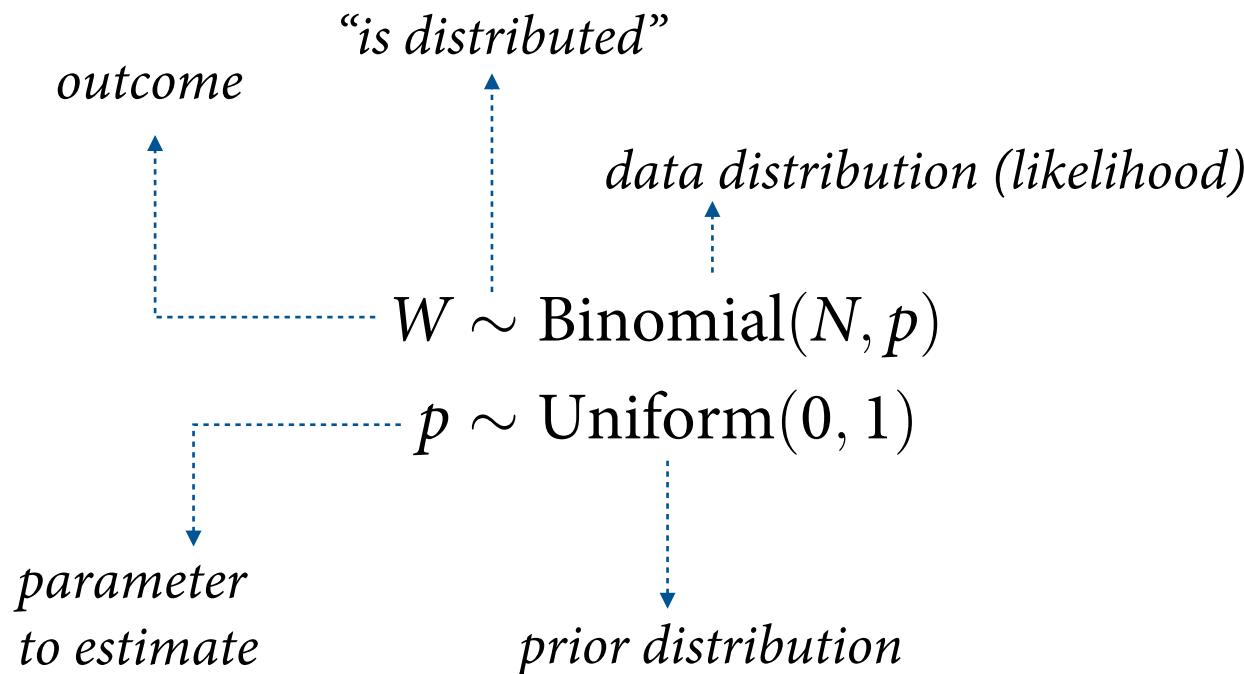
- Models of normally distributed data common
 - “General Linear Model”: t -test, single regression, multiple regression, ANOVA, ANCOVA, MANOVA, MANCOVA, yadda yadda yadda
 - All the same thing
- Learn strategy, not procedure



Willard Boepple

Language for modeling

- Revisit globe tossing model:



Language for modeling

Define the variables:

$$y_i$$

$$\mu_i$$

$$\beta$$

$$\sigma$$

$$x_i$$

Language for modeling

Give them definitions:

$$y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$

$$\mu_i = \beta x_i$$

$$\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

$$\sigma \sim \text{Exponential}(1)$$

$$x_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

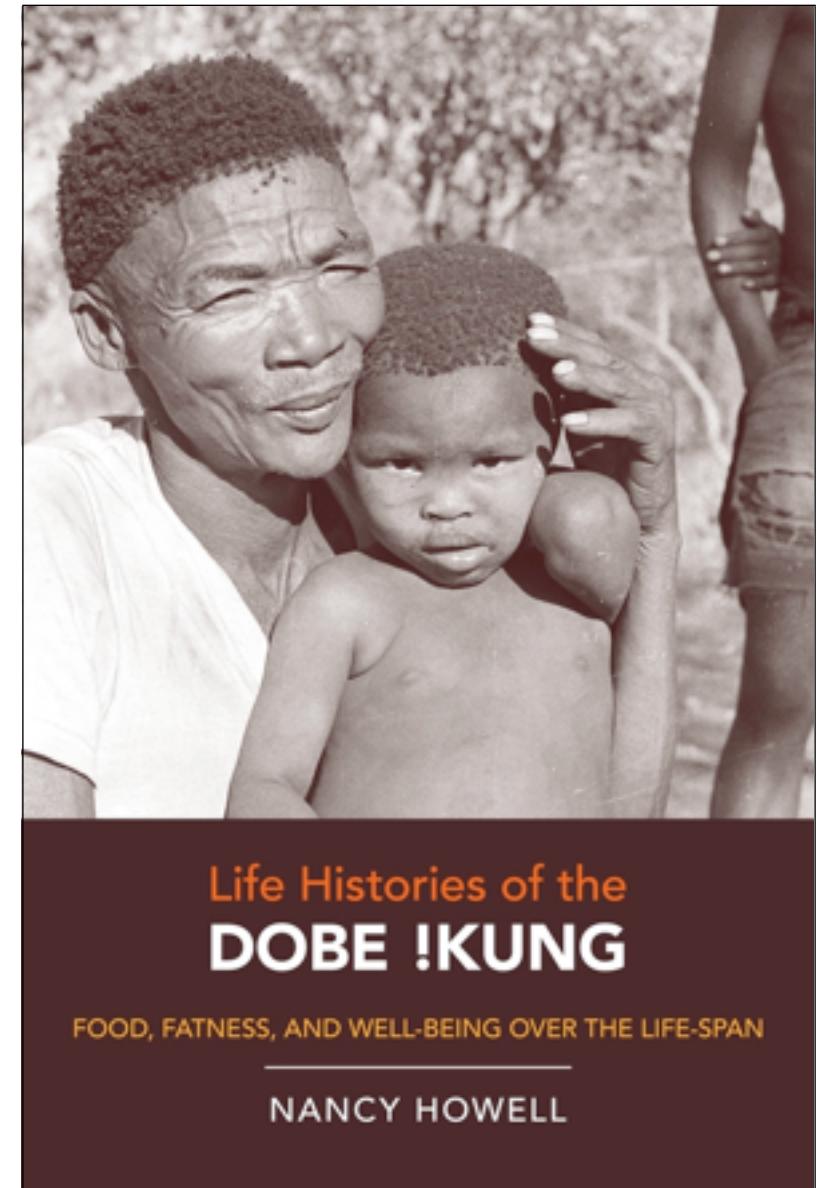
Some data: Kalahari foragers

```
library(rethinking)
data(Howell1)
d <- Howell1
```

```
precis( d )
```

'data.frame': 544 obs. of 4 variables:

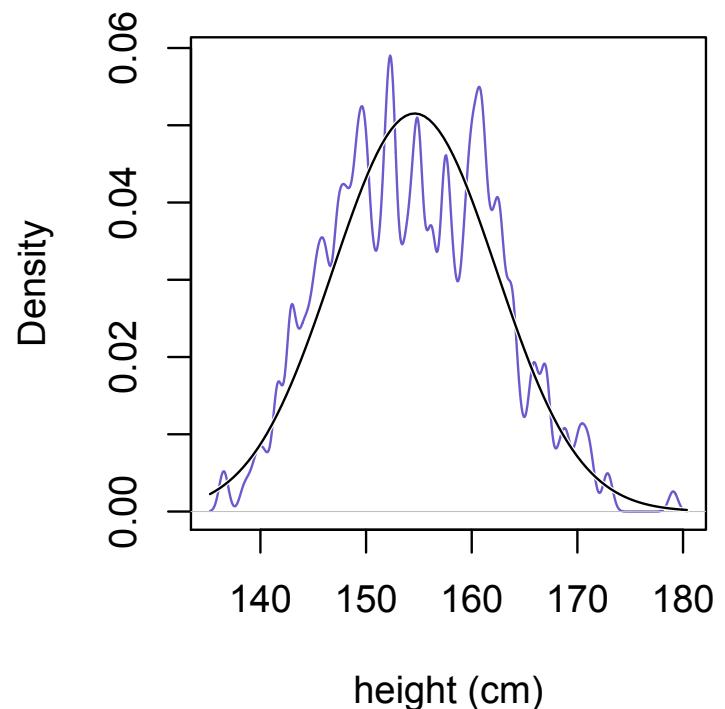
	mean	sd	5.5%	94.5%	histogram
height	138.26	27.60	81.11	165.74	
weight	35.61	14.72	9.36	54.50	
age	29.34	20.75	1.00	66.13	
male	0.47	0.50	0.00	1.00	



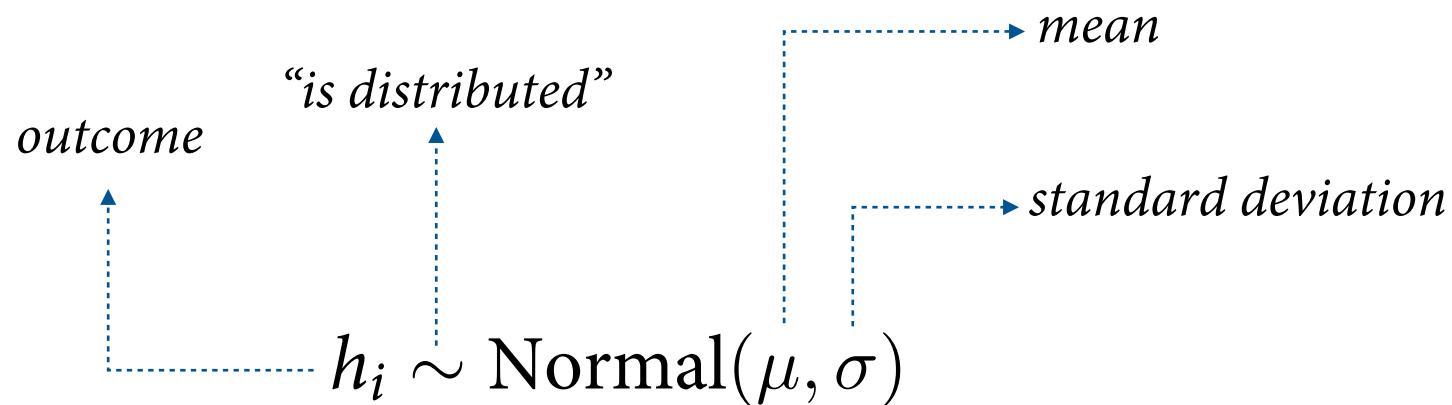
Gaussian model

- A first model:

$$h_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$$



Gaussian model



Height h_i of an individual i is distributed normally, with mean μ and standard deviation σ .

Gaussian model

- Add priors:

$$h_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$$

$$\mu \sim \text{Normal}(178, 20)$$

$$\sigma \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 50)$$

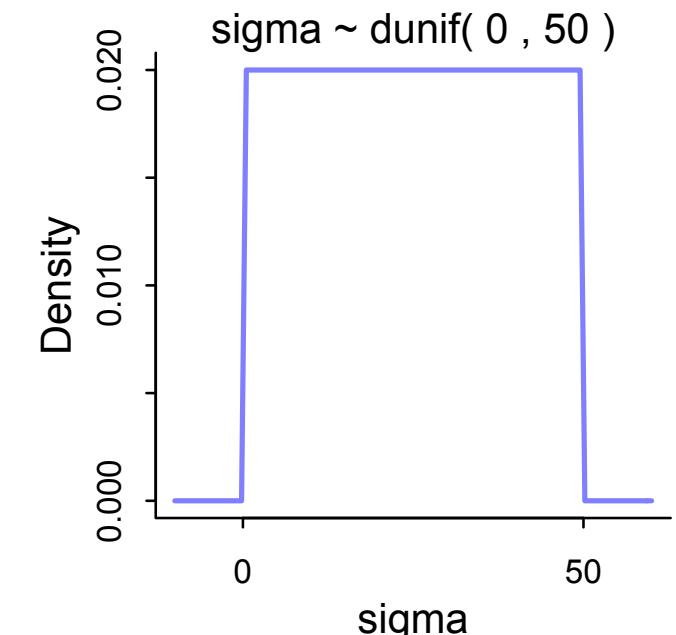
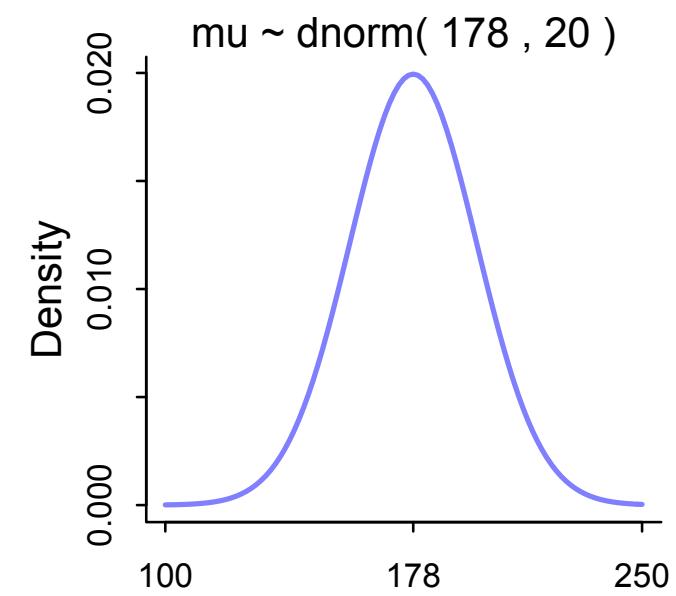


Figure 4.3

Prior predictive distribution

- What do these priors imply about height, before we see data? Simulate! => *prior predictive distribution*

```
sample_mu <- rnorm( 1e4 , 178 , 20 )
sample_sigma <- runif( 1e4 , 0 , 50 )
prior_h <- rnorm( 1e4 , sample_mu , sample_sigma )
dens( prior_h )
```

R code
4.14

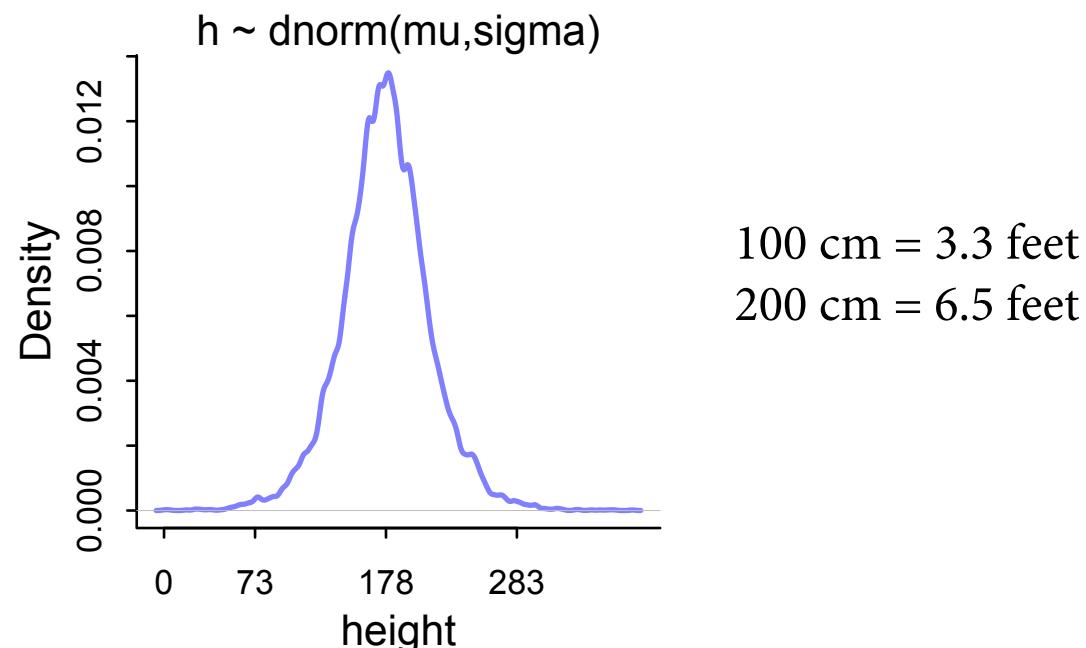


Figure 4.3

Prior predictive distribution

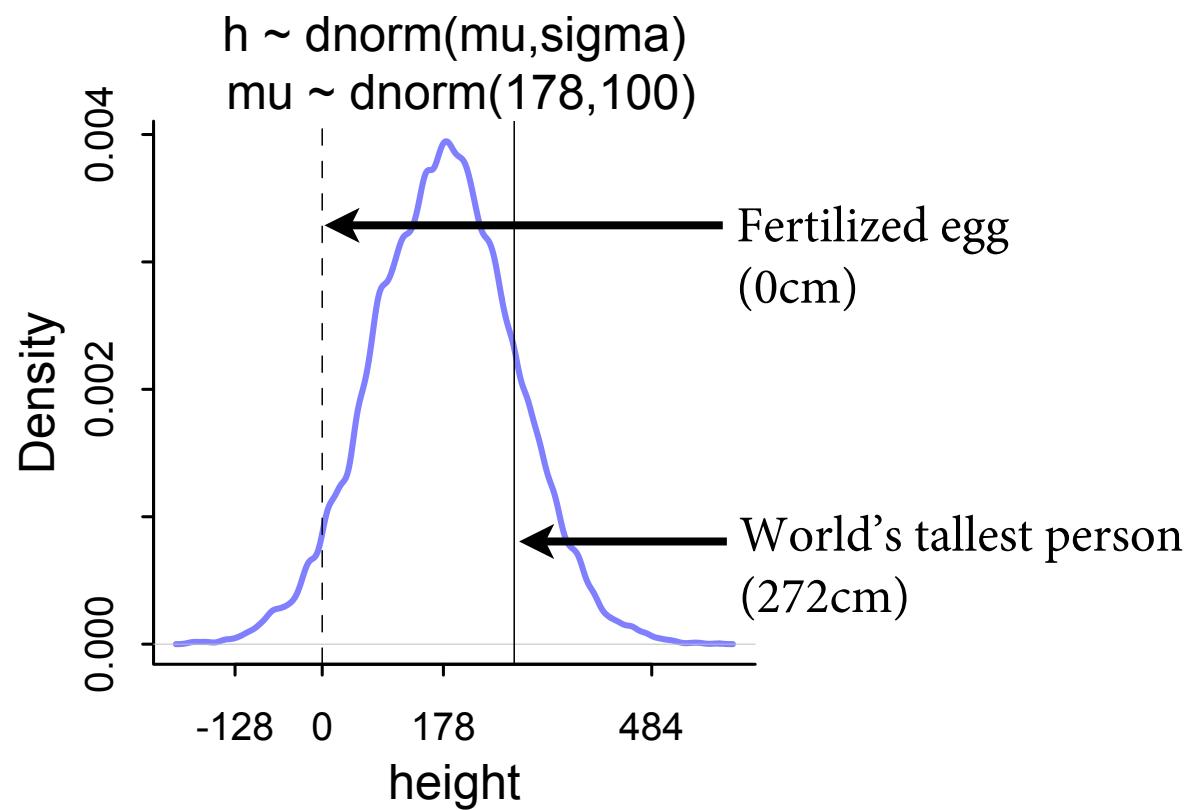
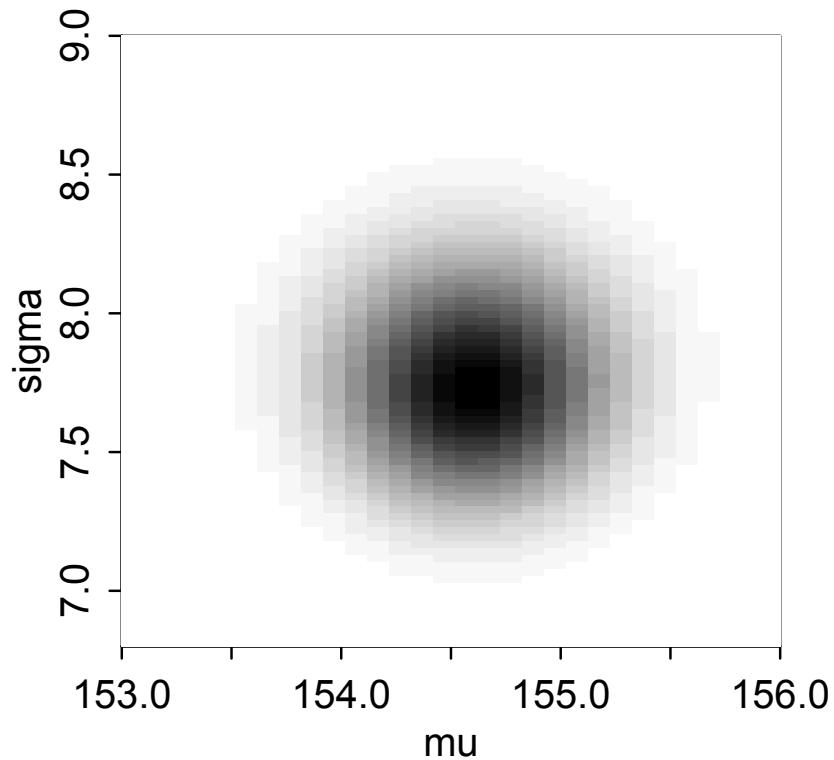


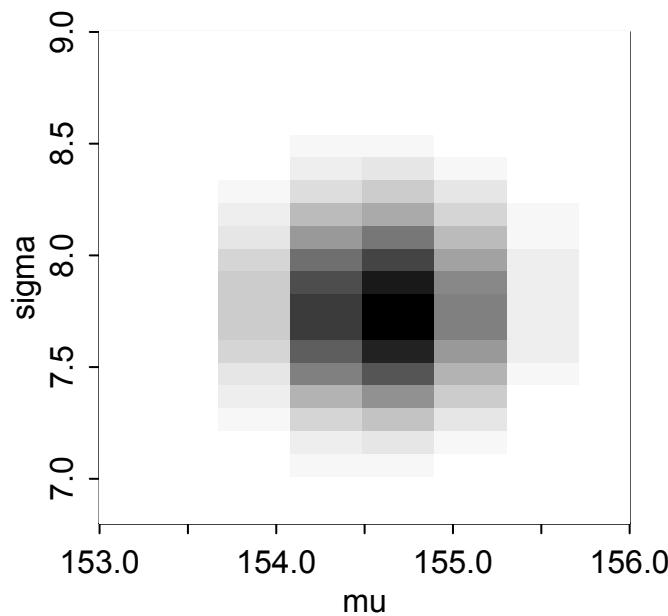
Figure 4.3

Computing the posterior

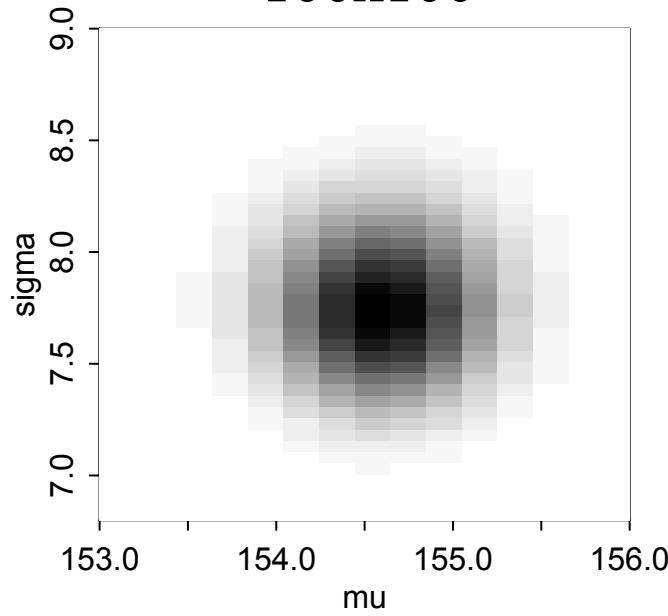
- Aim for the posterior distribution, which is now 2-dimensional
- Grid approximation: Compute posterior for many combinations of μ and σ



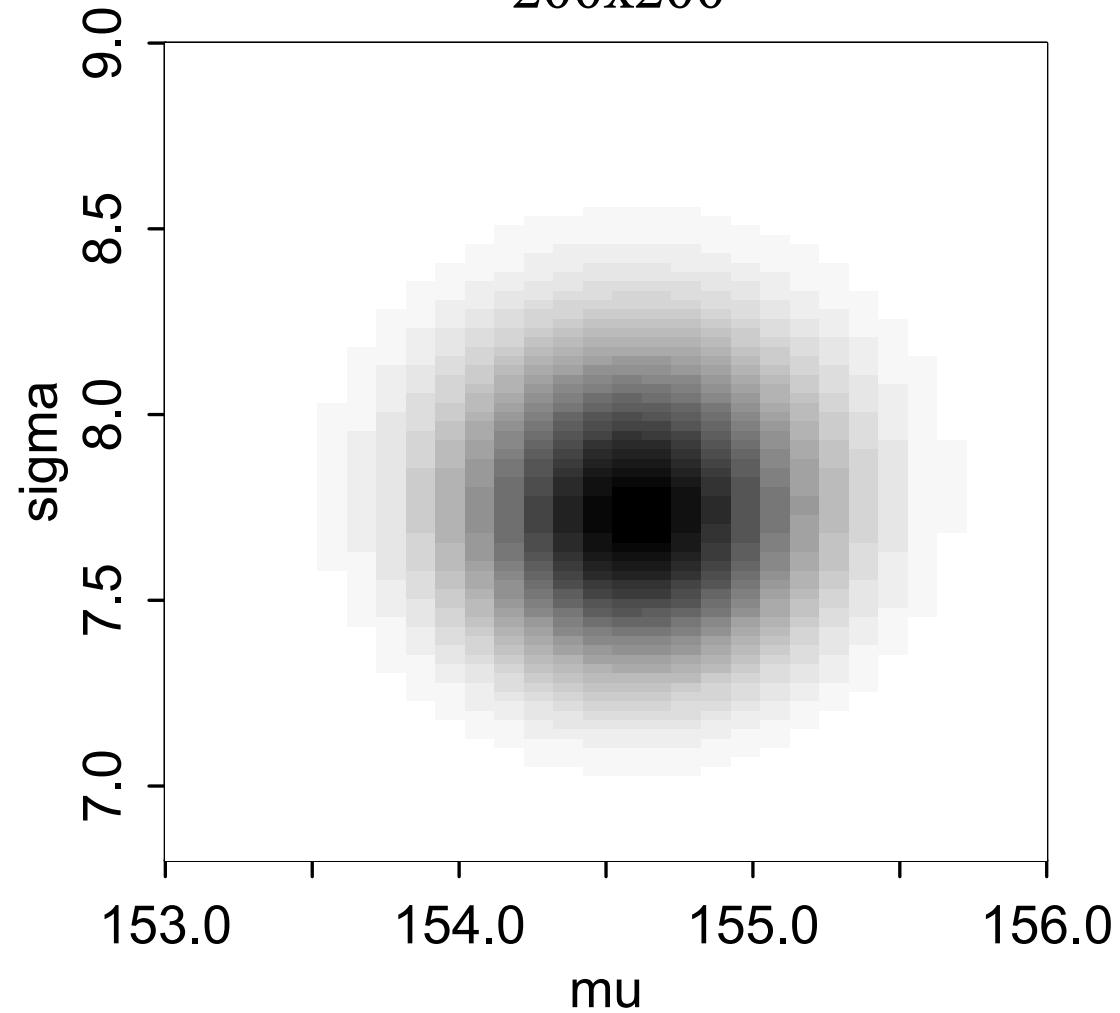
50x50



100x100



200x200



Drawing samples to work with

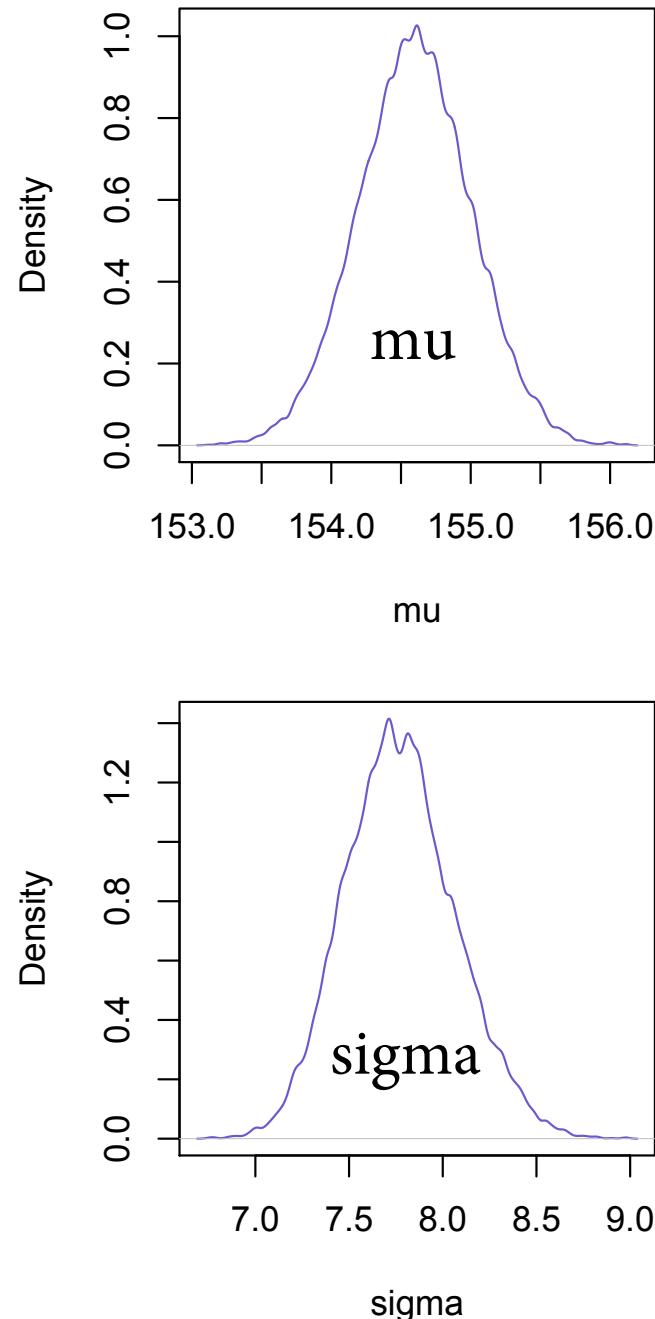
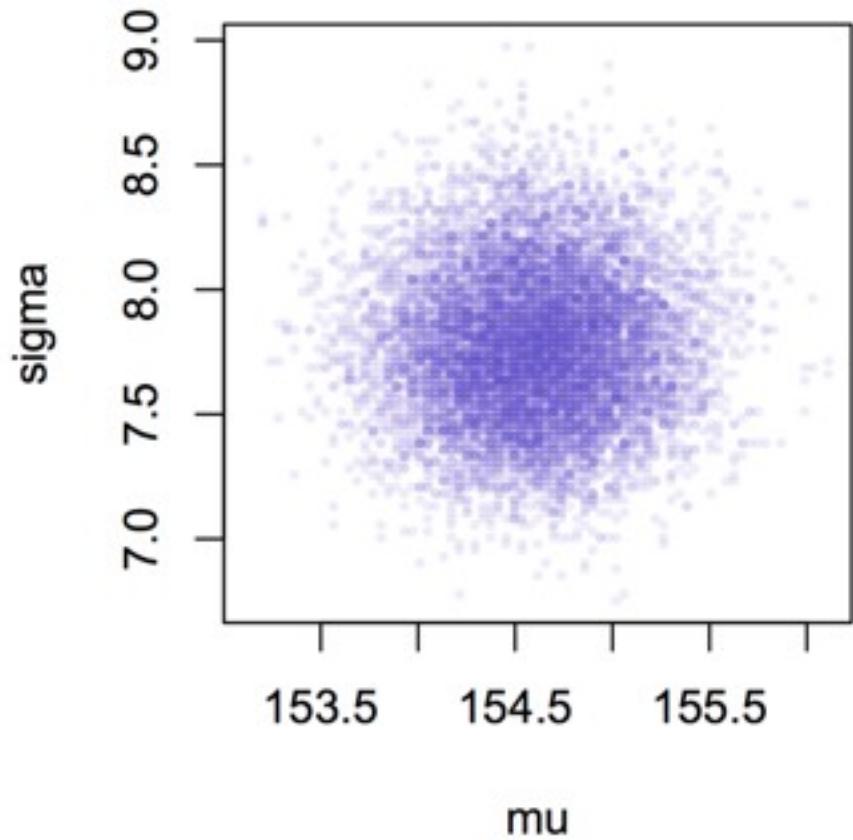


Figure 4.4

Quadratic approximation

- Approximate posterior as Gaussian
- Can estimate with two things:
 - Peak of posterior, *maximum a posteriori* (MAP)
 - Standard deviations & correlations of parameters (covariance matrix)
- With flat priors, same as conventional *maximum likelihood estimation*



Using quap

R code
4.27

```
flist <- alist(  
  height ~ dnorm( mu , sigma ) ,  
  mu ~ dnorm( 178 , 20 ) ,  
  sigma ~ dunif( 0 , 50 )  
)
```

$$\begin{aligned} h_i &\sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma) \\ \mu &\sim \text{Normal}(178, 20) \\ \sigma &\sim \text{Uniform}(0, 50) \end{aligned}$$

Using quap

R code
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R code
4.28

```
m4.1 <- quap( flist , data=d2 )
```

Using quap

R code
4.27

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flist <- alist(  
  height ~ dnorm( mu , sigma ) ,  
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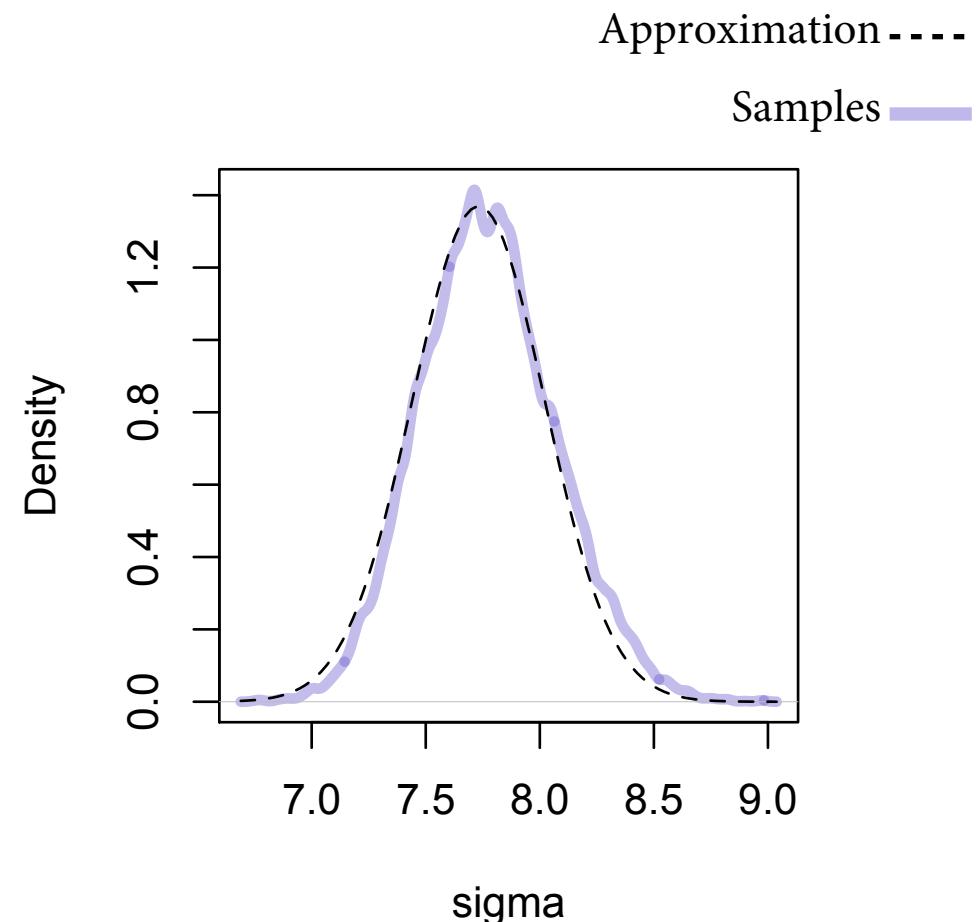
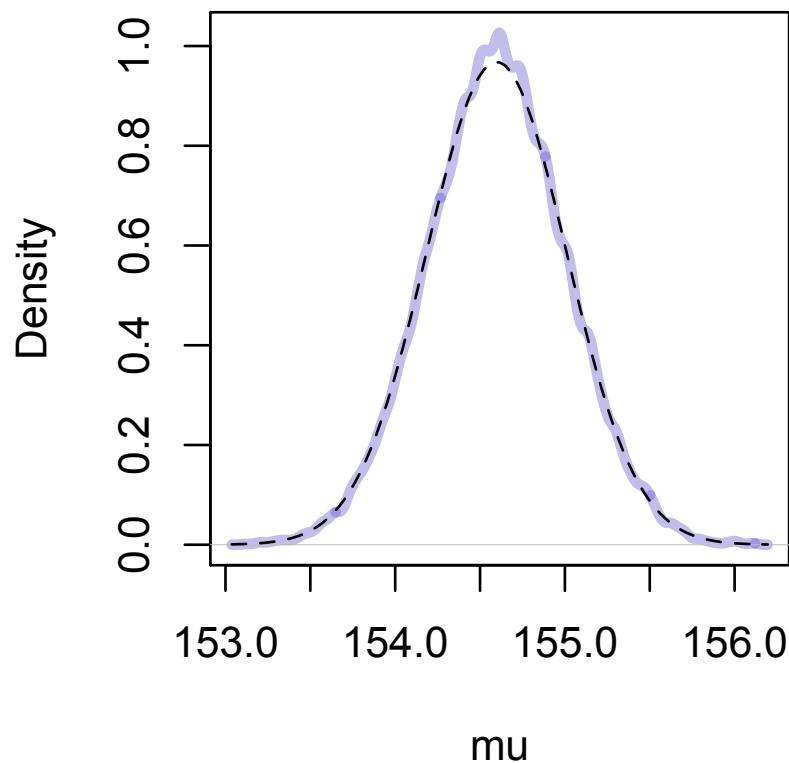
```
precis( m4.1 )
```

	Mean	StdDev	5.5%	94.5%
mu	154.61	0.41	153.95	155.27
sigma	7.73	0.29	7.27	8.20

```
library(rethinking)
post <- extract.samples( m4.1 , n=1e4 )
head(post)
```

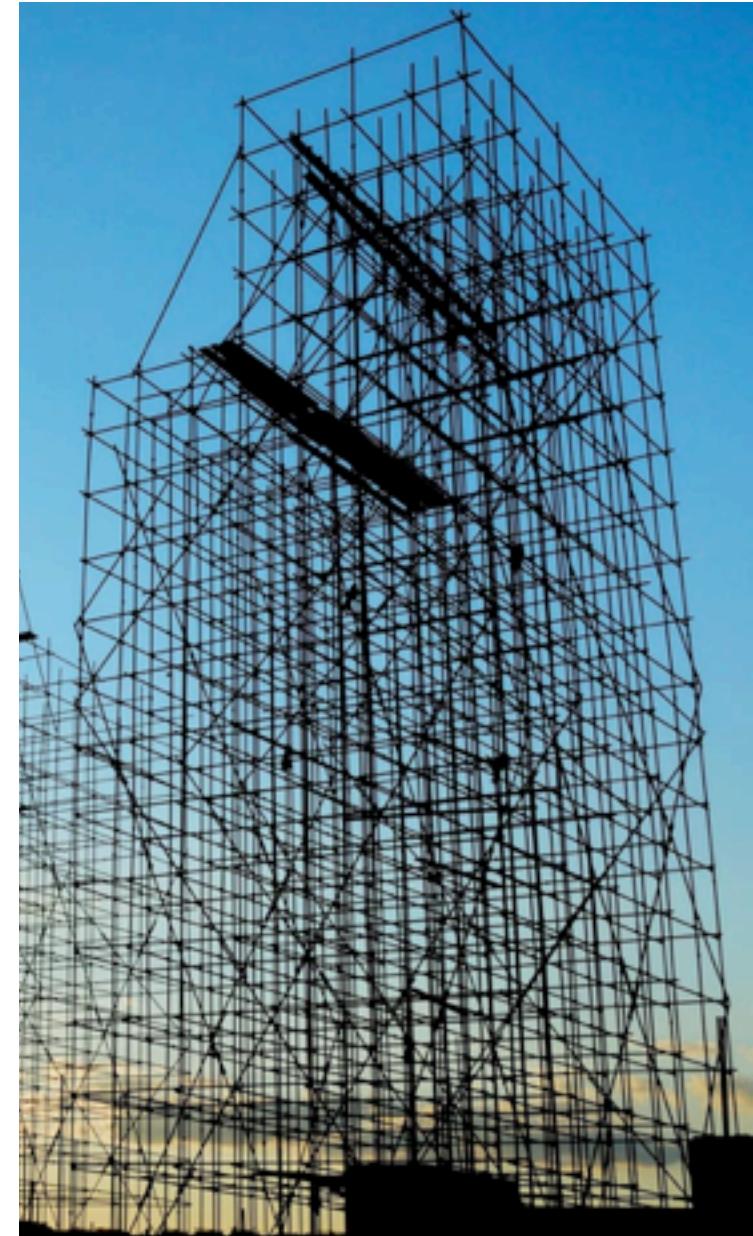
R code
4.34

	mu	sigma
1	155.0031	7.443893
2	154.0347	7.771255
3	154.9157	7.822178
4	154.4252	7.530331
5	154.5307	7.655490
6	155.1772	7.974603



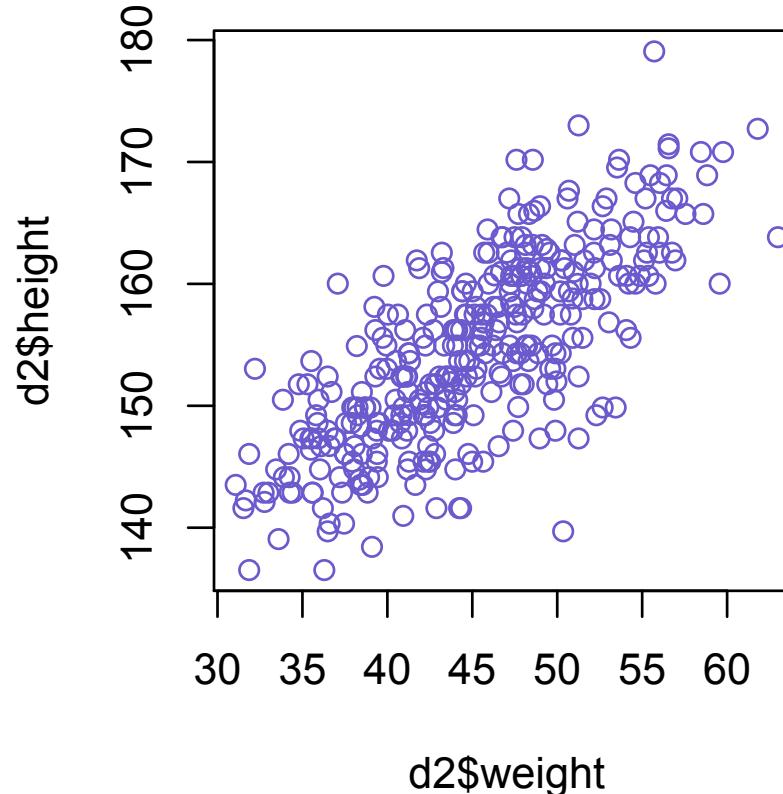
Scaffolds

- quap is a scaffold
 - Forces full specification of model, so you learn it
 - Works with a very wide class of models
 - Same as *penalized maximum likelihood*
 - Not always a good way to approximate posterior



Adding a predictor variable

- How does weight describe height?



Adding a predictor variable

- Use a linear model of the mean, μ :

$$h_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma) \quad [\text{likelihood}]$$

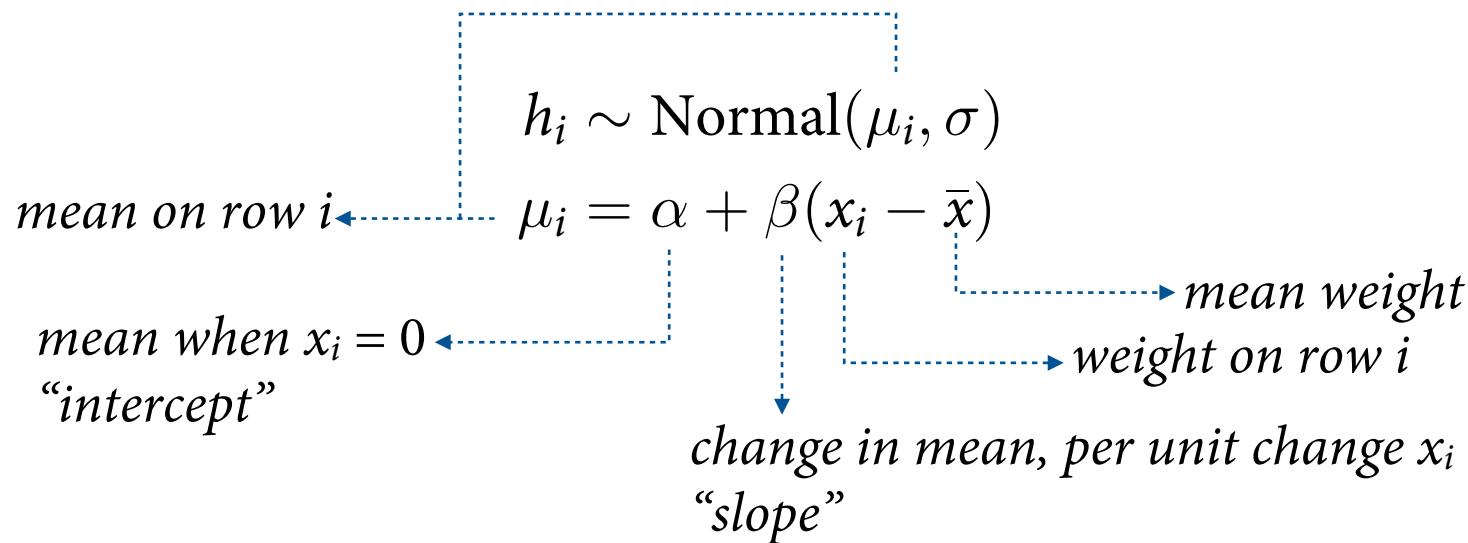
$$\mu_i = \alpha + \beta(x_i - \bar{x}) \quad [\text{linear model}]$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(178, 20) \quad [\alpha \text{ prior}]$$

$$\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10) \quad [\beta \text{ prior}]$$

$$\sigma \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 50) \quad [\sigma \text{ prior}]$$

Adding a predictor variable



Prior predictive distribution

- What do these priors mean?
- Let's simulate to find out!

$$h_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma) \quad [\text{likelihood}]$$

$$\mu_i = \alpha + \beta(x_i - \bar{x}) \quad [\text{linear model}]$$

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$$\sigma \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 50) \quad [\sigma \text{ prior}]$$

Prior predictive distribution

```
set.seed(2971)
N <- 100                      # 100 lines
a <- rnorm( N , 178 , 20 )
b <- rnorm( N , 0 , 10 )
```

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(178, 20)$$

$$\beta \sim \text{Normal}(0, 10)$$

R code
4.38

Prior predictive distribution

```
set.seed(2971)
N <- 100 # 100 lines
a <- rnorm( N , 178 , 20 )
b <- rnorm( N , 0 , 10 )
```

R code
4.38

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(178, 20)$$
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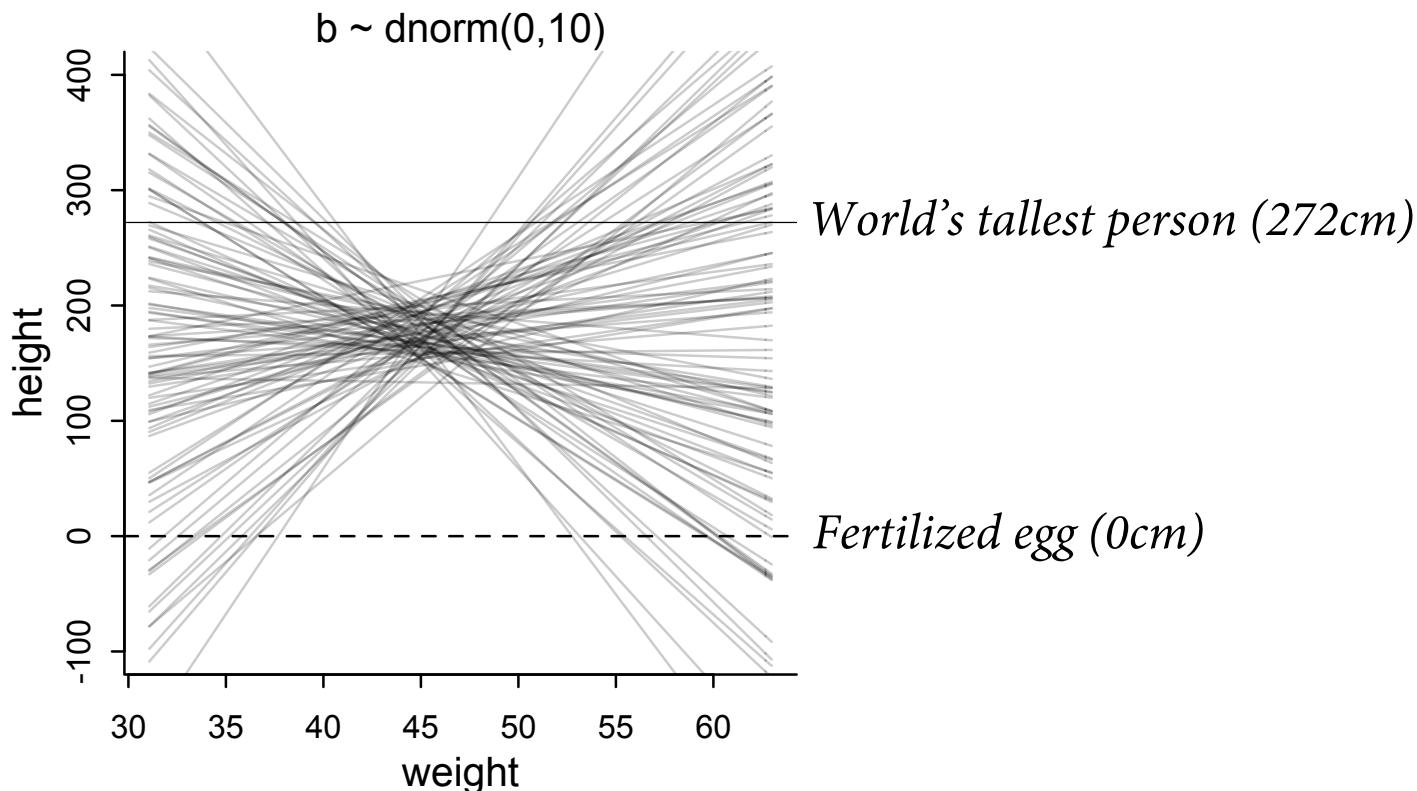


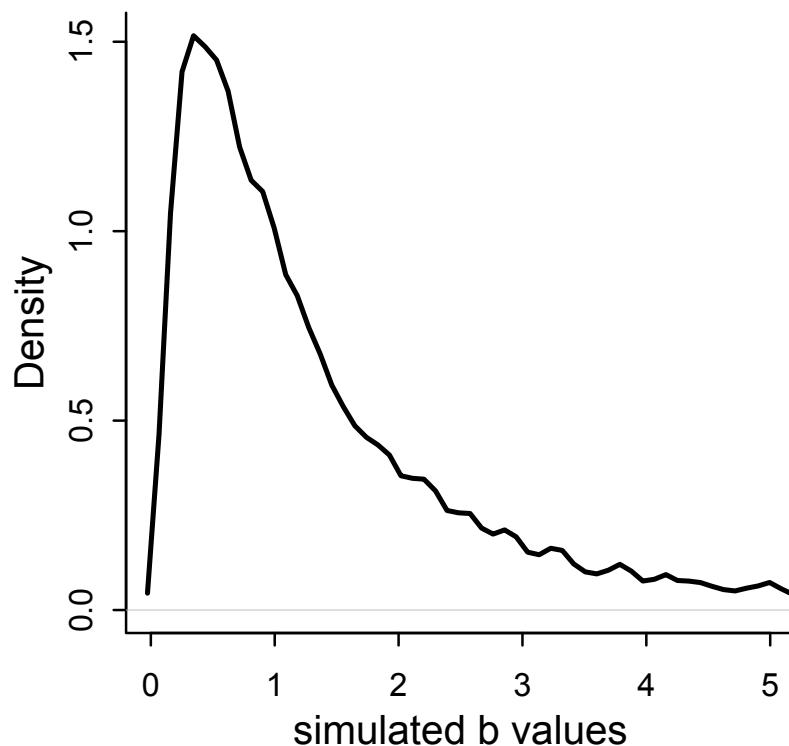
Figure 4.5

Prior predictive distribution

R code
4.40

```
b <- rlnorm( 1e4 , 0 , 1 )  
dens( b , xlim=c(0,5) , adj=0.1 )
```

$$\beta \sim \text{Log-Normal}(0, 1)$$



Prior predictive distribution

R code
4.41

```
set.seed(2971)
N <- 100 # 100 lines
a <- rnorm( N , 178 , 20 )
b <- rlnorm( N , 0 , 1 )
```

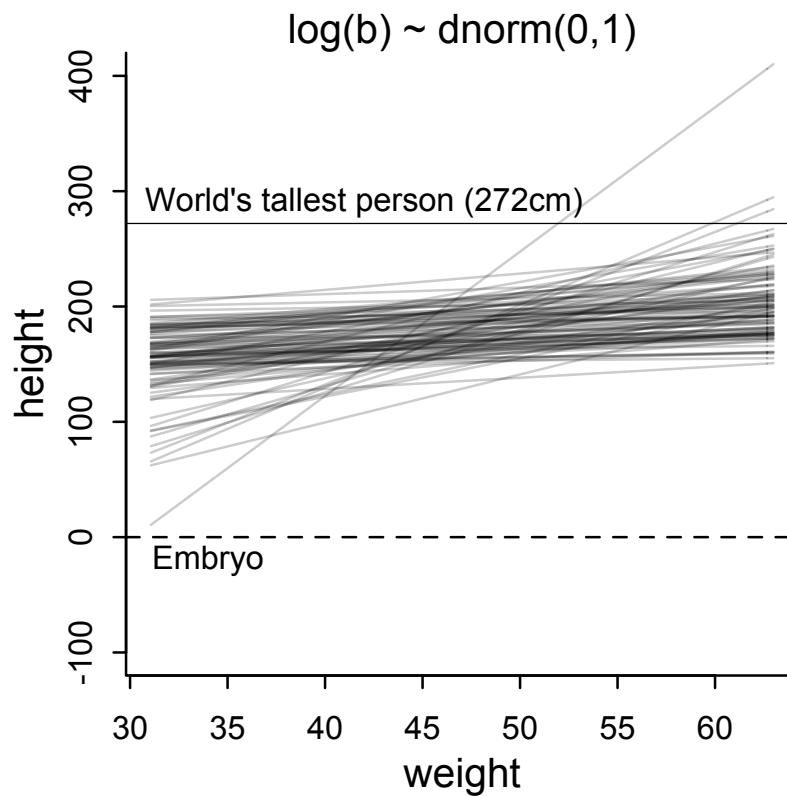
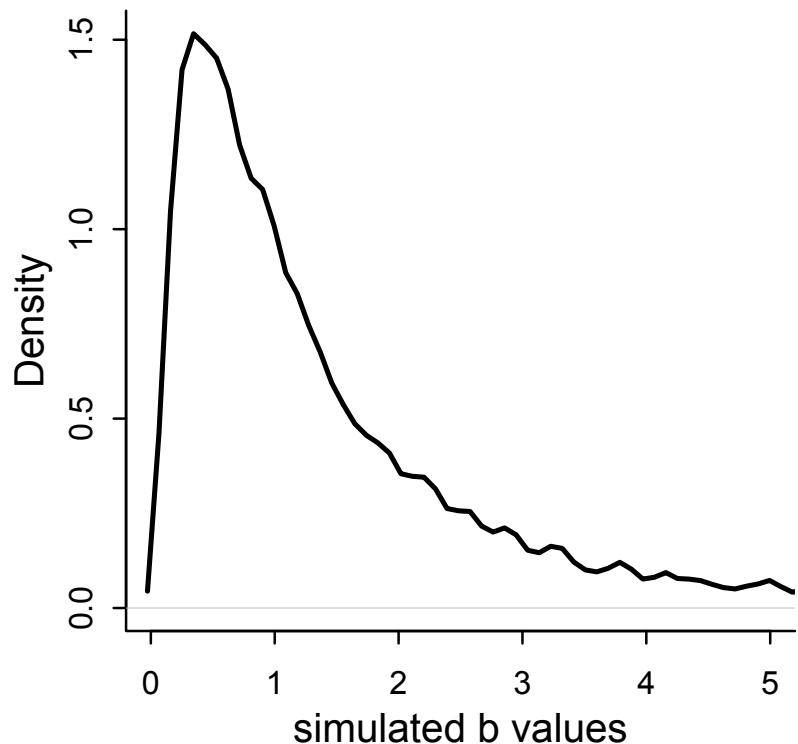


Figure 4.5

Approximate the posterior

R code
4.42

```
# load data again, since it's a long way back
library(rethinking)
data(Howell1)
d <- Howell1
d2 <- d[ d$age >= 18 , ]

# define the average weight, x-bar
xbar <- mean(d2$weight)

# fit model
m4.3 <- quap(
  alist(
    height ~ dnorm( mu , sigma ) ,
    mu <- a + b*( weight - xbar ) ,
    a ~ dnorm( 178 , 20 ) ,
    b ~ dlnorm( 0 , 1 ) ,
    sigma ~ dunif( 0 , 50 )
  ) ,
  data=d2 )
```

$$h_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_i, \sigma)$$

$$\mu_i = \alpha + \beta(x_i - \bar{x})$$

$$\alpha \sim \text{Normal}(178, 20)$$

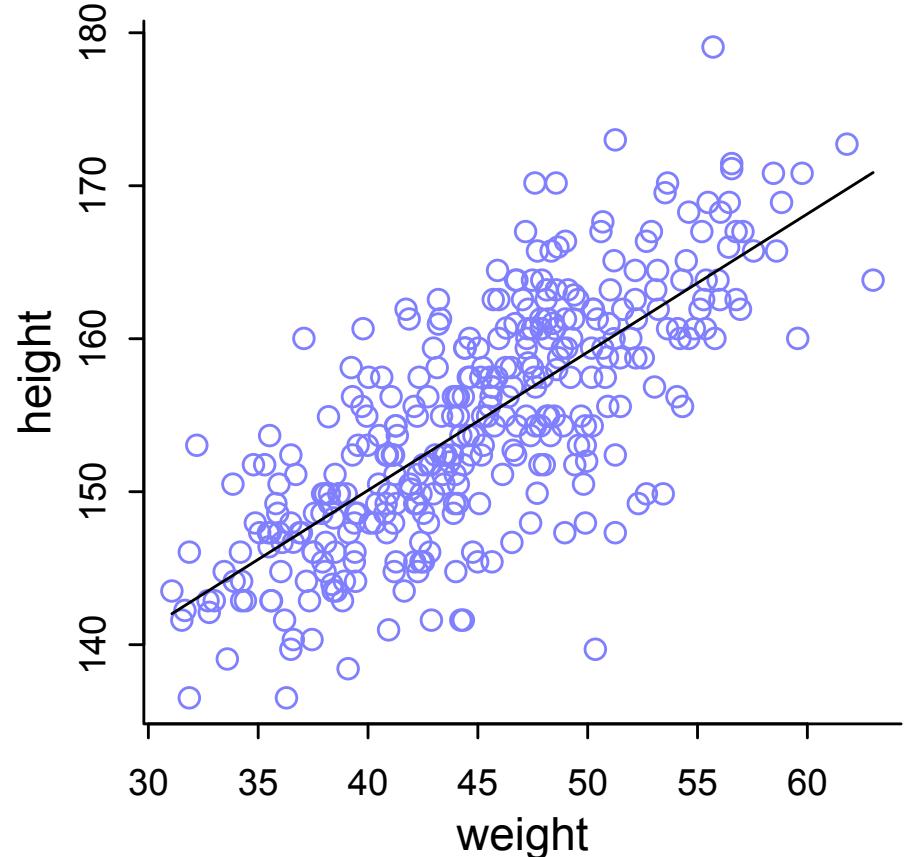
$$\beta \sim \text{Log-Normal}(0, 1)$$

$$\sigma \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 50)$$

R code
4.44

```
precis( m4.3 )
```

	mean	sd	5.5%	94.5%
a	154.60	0.27	154.17	155.03
b	0.90	0.04	0.84	0.97
sigma	5.07	0.19	4.77	5.38



R code
4.46

```
plot( height ~ weight , data=d2 , col=rangi2 )
post <- extract.samples( m4.3 )
a_map <- mean(post$a)
b_map <- mean(post$b)
curve( a_map + b_map*(x - xbar) , add=TRUE )
```

Figure 4.6

Sampling from the posterior

- Want to get uncertainty onto that graph
- Again, sample from posterior
 1. Use mean and standard deviation to approximate posterior
 2. Sample from *multivariate normal* distribution of parameters
 3. Use samples to generate predictions that “integrate over” the uncertainty

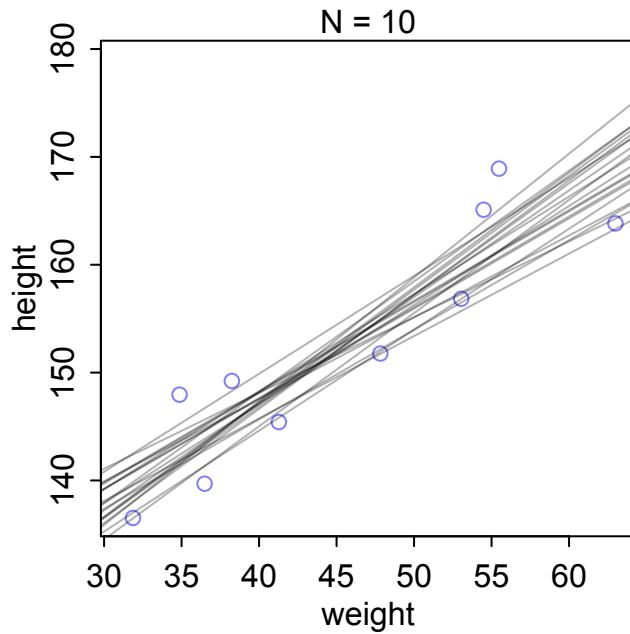
Sampling from the posterior

R code
4.47

```
post <- extract.samples( m4.3 )
post[1:5,]
```

	a	b	sigma
1	154.5505	0.9222372	5.188631
2	154.4965	0.9286227	5.278370
3	154.4794	0.9490329	4.937513
4	155.2289	0.9252048	4.869807
5	154.9545	0.8192535	5.063672

Posterior is full of lines



R code
4.47

```
post <- extract.samples( m4.3 )
post[1:5, ]
```

	a	b	sigma
1	154.5505	0.9222372	5.188631
2	154.4965	0.9286227	5.278370
3	154.4794	0.9490329	4.937513
4	155.2289	0.9252048	4.869807
5	154.9545	0.8192535	5.063672

Figure 4.7

Posterior is full of lines

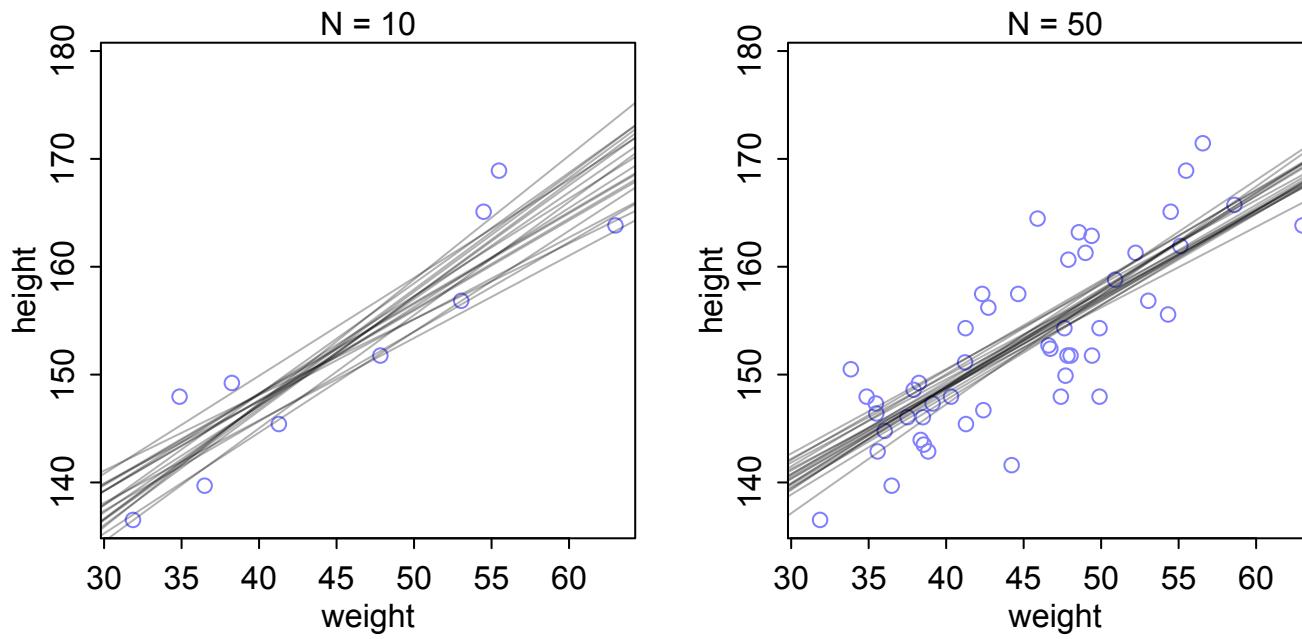


Figure 4.7

Posterior is full of lines

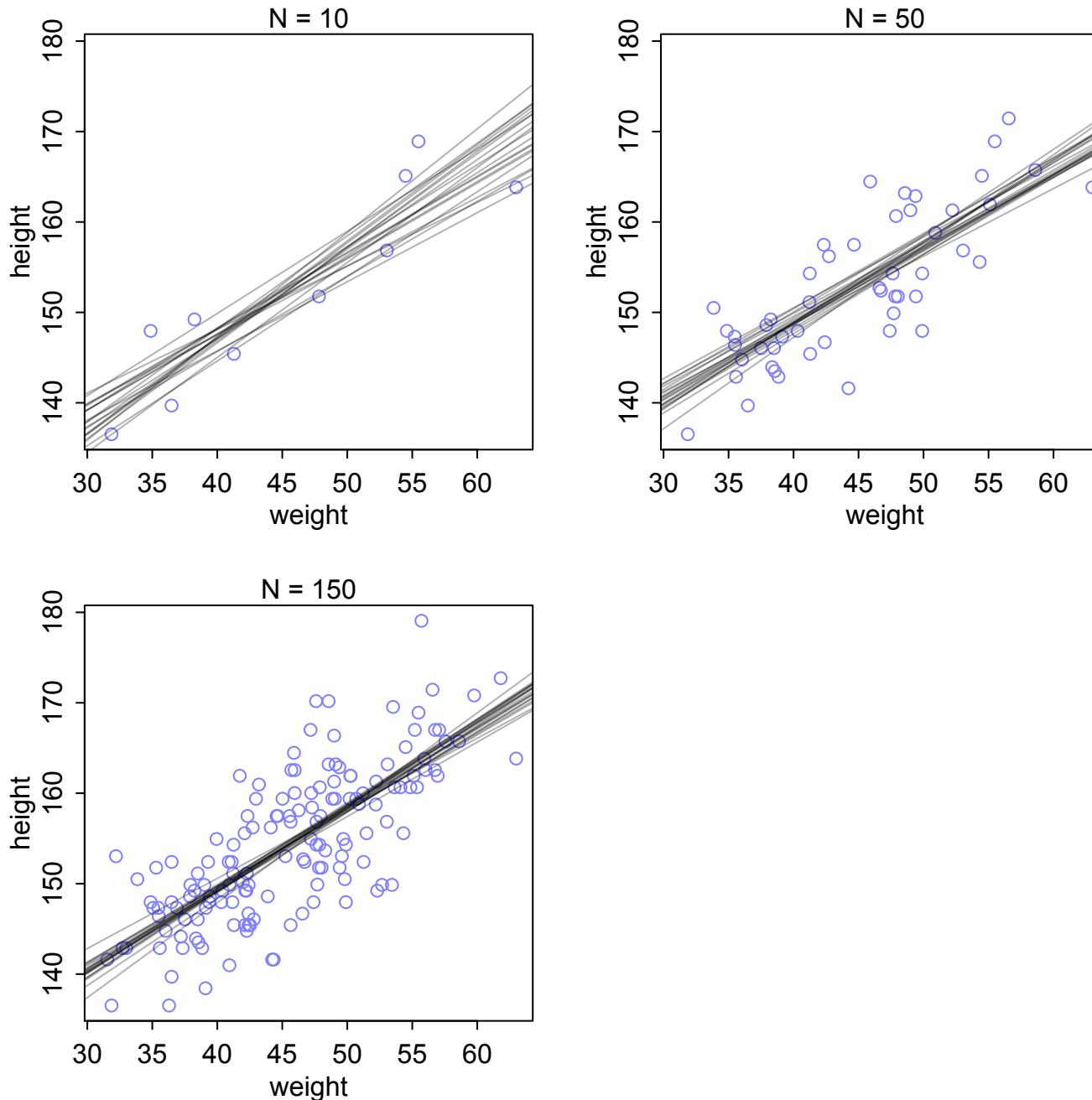


Figure 4.7

Posterior is full of lines

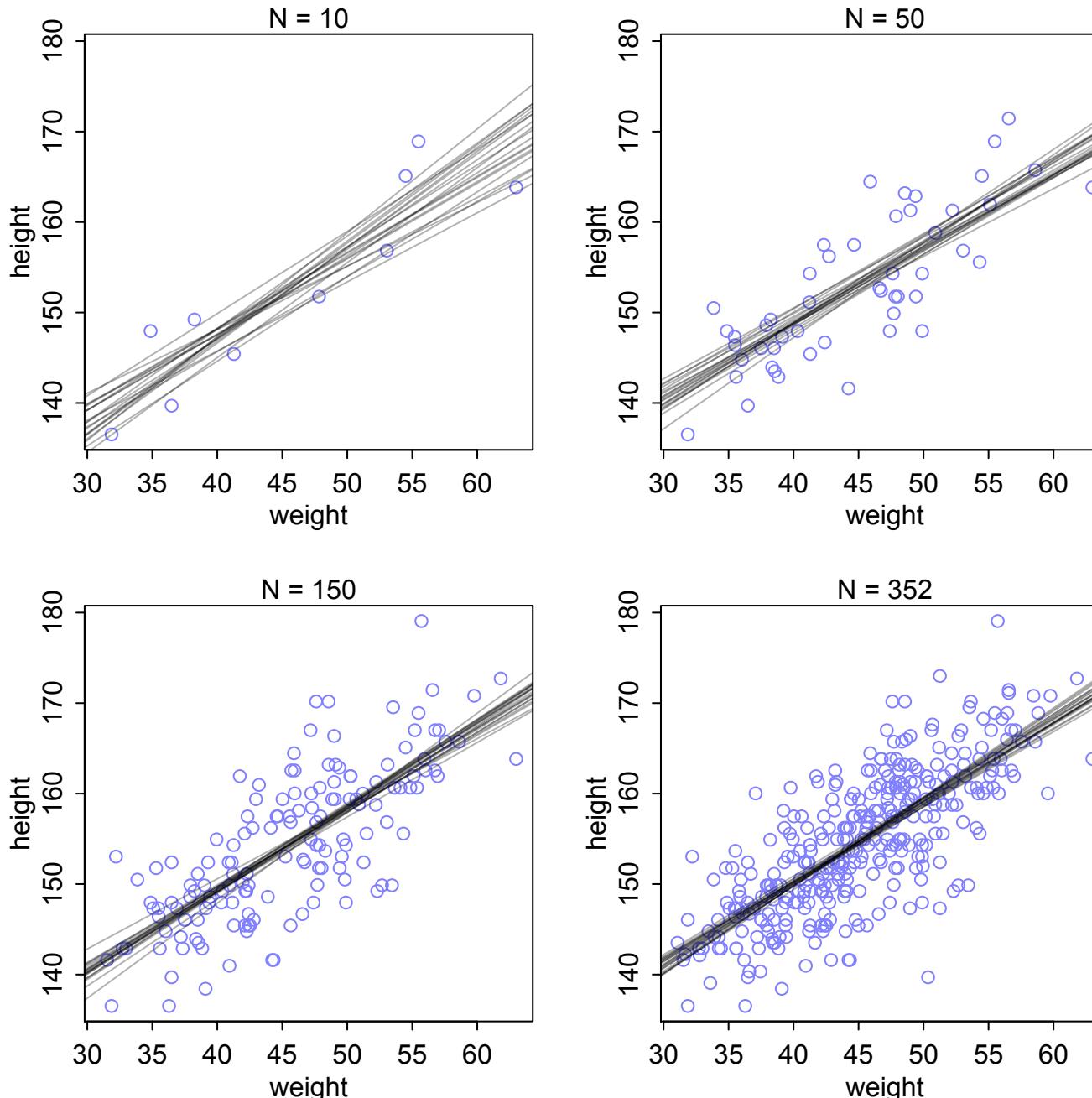


Figure 4.7