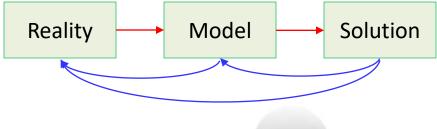
L5. Model Checking, Evaluating, Comparing and Expanding models

Model checking is a crucial step

- 1. Constructing a probability model
- 2. Computing the posterior distribution of all estimands
- 3. Assessing the fit of the model to the data and to our substantive knowledge

It is impossible to include in a probability distribution all of one's knowledge about a problem, and so it is wise to investigate what aspects of reality are not captured by the model



We need to check....

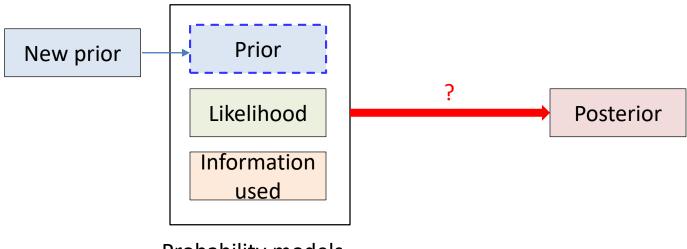
- prior
- sampling distribution
- hierarchical structure
- explanatory variables...



Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis:

how much do posterior inferences change when other reasonable probability models are used in place of the present model?



Probability models

We need to examine:

- How our model fail to fit reality
- How sensitive the resulting posterior distributions are to arbitrary specifications

Sensitivity analysis

Is our model true or false?

V.S.

Do the model's deficiencies have a noticeable effect on the substantive inferences?

- Rat tumor example : Beta population distribution for tumor rates
- Eight schools example: Normal distribution for the eight school effects

→ Little bit arbitrary and convenience chaise, but they have little impact on the inferences of most interests

How to judge when *assumptions of convenience* can be made safely is a central task of Bayesian sensitivity analysis

Do the inferences from the model make sense?

For reasons of convenience or objectivity, there will be knowledge that is not included formally in either the prior or likelihood



If the additional information suggests that posterior inferences of interest are false



Potential for creating a more accurate probability model for the parameters and data collection process

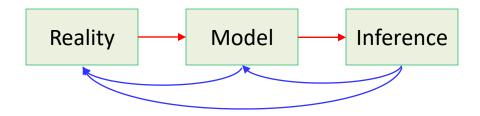
External validation

- Prediction about future data v.s. collected external data
- Often we need to check the model before obtaining new data or waiting for the future to happen
- → Require a method of approximating external validation using the data we already have

Posterior predictive checking

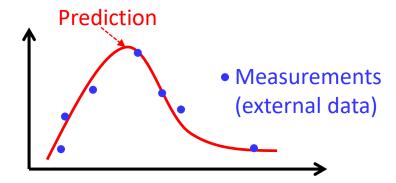
• Use global summaries to check the joint predictive distribution $p(\tilde{y}|y)$

Do the inferences from the model make sense?



When inference does not capture reality, we need more accurate probability model for the parameters and data collection process

External validation



- Prediction about future data v.s. collected external data
- When there is no external data received yet,
- → Require a method of approximating external validation using the data we already have

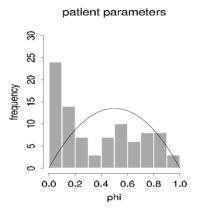
Two approaches of modal checking

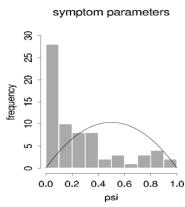
· Posterior predictive checking

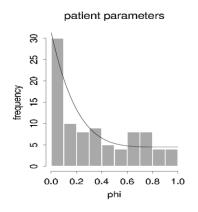
 $p(\tilde{y}|y)$

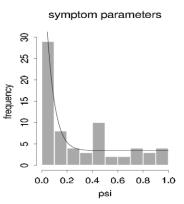
 $\tilde{y} = \tilde{y}_1, ..., \tilde{y}_n$: A Joint prediction on future data

Graphical Checking



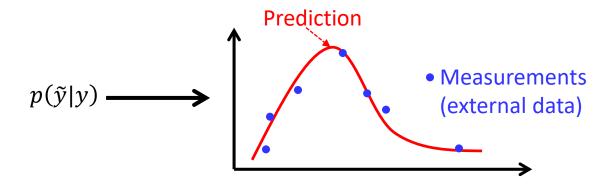






Self-consistency check:

Replicated data generated under the model should look similar to observed data. That is, the observed data should look plausible under the posterior predictive distribution



 y^{rep} is replication (simulation) of the observed data y using the trained model



Posterior predictive distribution on the replication is

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

prior
$$p(\mu, \sigma^2) \propto (\sigma^2)^{-1}$$

Likelihood $y|\mu, \sigma^2 \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

 $p(\mu, \sigma^{2} | y) \longrightarrow \text{Sample } (\mu, \sigma^{2}) \rightarrow \text{sample } 66 \ \tilde{y}_{i}$ $0 \ 20 \ 40 \ 60 \qquad 0 \ 20 \ 40 \ 60 \ 0 \ 20 \ 40 \ 60 \ 0 \ 20 \ 40 \ 60 \ 20 \ 40 \ 60 \ 20$

Replicated $p(y^{rep}|y)$



Too small!

Actual measurement p(y)

 y^{rep} is replication (simulation) of the observed data y using the trained model

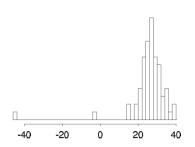


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Likelihood $y|\mu, \sigma^2 \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$



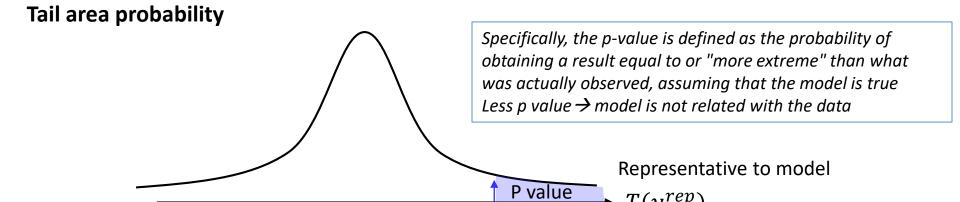
Replicated $p(y^{rep}|y)$

Test quantities

- In cases with less obvious discrepancies than the outliers in the speed of light data, it is often also useful to measure the "statistical significance" of the lack of fit
- Measure the discrepancy between model and data by defining test quantities
 - \checkmark Classical setting : T(y), called test statistic
 - ✓ Bayesian setting : $T(y, \theta)$, which take into account the dependency on the model parameter θ

The procedure for carrying out a posterior predictive model check

- 1. Specify a test quantity, T(y) or $T(y, \theta)$
- 2. Specify an appropriate predictive distribution for the replications y^{rep}
- 3. Measure discrepancy between T(y) and $T(y^{rep})$, for example using p-value



T(y)Observed value $T(v^{rep})$

- Classical p values : $p_C = Pr(T(y^{rep}) \ge T(y)|\theta)$: Parameter is fixed θ is fixed and should be substituted
- Bayesian p values : $p_B = Pr(T(y^{rep}|\theta) \ge T(y|\theta)|y)$: Data is fixed $= \int \int I_{T(y^{rep}|\theta) \ge T(y|\theta)} p(y^{rep}, \theta|y) dy^{rep} d\theta$
 - \checkmark Where the probability is taken over the posterior distribution of θ and the posterior predictive distribution of y^{rep} , i.e., $p(\theta, y^{rep} | \theta)$
 - Usually, the posterior predictive distribution can be computed using simulation: count the number of $T(y^{rep_s}, \theta^s) \ge T(y, \theta^s)$, s = 1, ..., S

Posterior predictive p-values

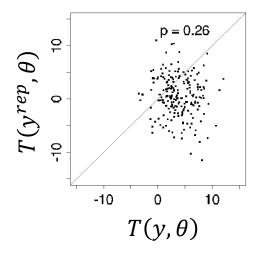
- An extreme p-values implies that the model cannot be expected to capture this aspect
 of the data.
- → Extreme tail-area probabilities (less than 0.01 or higher than 0.99) can be addressed by expanding the model appropriately.
- Typically, we evaluate a model with respect to several test quantities
- Not: Do the data come from the assumed model?
- Yes: Quantify the discrepancies between data and model, and assess whether they could have arisen by chance, under the model's own assumptions.
- Bayesian predictive checking generalizes classical hypothesis testing by averaging over the posterior distribution of the unknown parameter vector θ rather than fixing it at some estimate $\hat{\theta}$.

Speed of light example with test quantity

- Use other test quantities to illustrate how the fit of a model depends on the aspects of the data and parameters being monitored.
- Assess whether the model is adequate except for the extreme tails by considering a model check based on a test quantity sensitive to asymmetry in the center of the distribution

$$T(y, \theta) = |y_{61} - \theta| - |y_6 - \theta|$$

- The 61st and 6th order statistics are chosen to represent approximately the 90% and 10% points of the distribution.
- The test quantity should be scattered about zero for a symmetric distribution.



Choosing test quantities

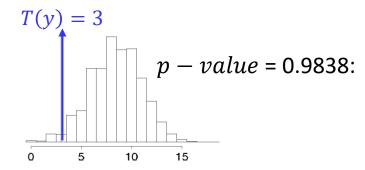
Example: Check the independence assumption

- A sequence of binary outcomes, $y_1, ..., y_n$, modeled as specified number of independent trial with a common probability of success, θ , that is given a uniform prior distribution.
- The posterior distribution is $p(\theta|y) \propto \theta^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i} (1-\theta)^{n-\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}$

Perform a posterior predictive test using with

T(y) = number of switches between 0 and 1

- 1. draw θ^{s} for s = 1, ..., S = 1,0000
- 2. for each *s* draw $y^{rep_{_s}} = (y_1^{rep_s}, ..., y_{20}^{rep_s})$
- 3. compute $T(y^{rep_s})$



The discrepancy cannot be explained by chance, but is likely to be explained by modeling failure

Choosing test quantities

- Posterior predictive checking is a useful direct way of assessing the fit of the model to these various aspects of the data.
- Ideally, the test quantities T will be chosen to reflect aspects of the model that are relevant to the scientific purposes to which the inference will be applied.
- Test quantities are commonly chosen to measure a feature of the data not directly addressed by the probability model; for example, ranking and correlation

Interpreting posterior (Bayesian) p-values

- The goal of examining p-value is not to answer the question 'Do the data come from the assumed model?, but to quantify the discrepancies between data and model, and assess whether they could have arisen by chance, under the model's own assumption
- An extreme p-value implies that the model cannot be expected to capture this aspect of the data
- Bayesian predictive checking generalized classical hypothesis testing by averaging over the posterior distribution of the unknown parameter vector θ rather than fixing it at some estimate $\widehat{\theta}$
- In Bayesian inference, the data enter the posterior distribution only through the likelihood function; thus, it is sometimes stated as a principle that inferences should depend on the likelihood and no other aspect of the data.

Marginal predictive checks

- The focus has been on replicated data from the joint posterior predictive distribution
 - \rightarrow An alternative approach is to compute the probability distribution for each marginal prediction $p(\tilde{y}_i|y)$ separately and then compare these separate distributions to data in order to find outliers or check overall calibration.

$$p_i = \Pr(T(y_i^{rep}) \le T(y_i)|y)$$

If y_i is scalar,

$$p_i = \Pr(y_i^{rep} \le y_i | y)$$

A related approach is to replace predictive distributions with cross-validation predictive distributions, for each data point comparing to the inference given all the other data.

$$p_i = \Pr(y_i^{rep} \le y_i | y_{-i})$$

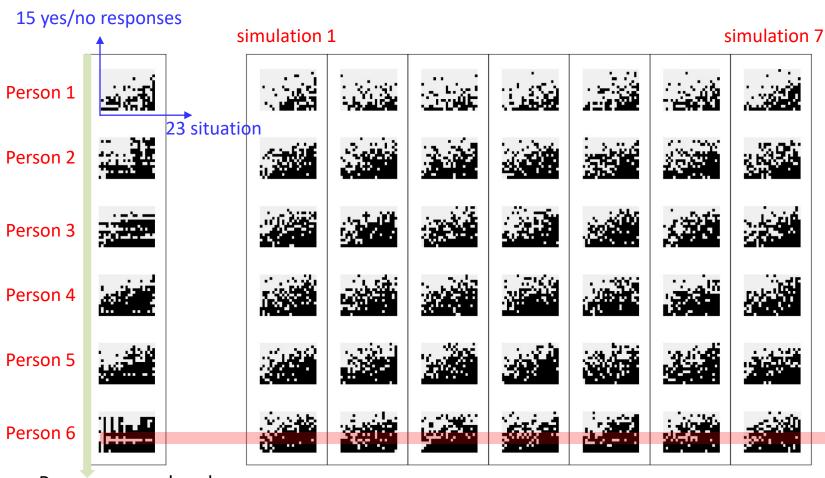
Graphical posterior predictive checks

Graphical model checking is to display the data alongside simulated data from the fitted model, and to look for systematic discrepancies between real and simulated data from the fitted model, and look for systematic discrepancies between real and simulated data.

- Direct display of all the data
- Display of data summaries or parameter inferences
- Graphs of residuals or other measures of discrepancy between model and data

Direct display of all the data

Experiment in Psychology



Persons are ordered with their response rate

Model misfit

T(y) $T(y^{rep})$

Graphical representations with special ordering itself is a test statistics

Displaying summary statistics or inferences

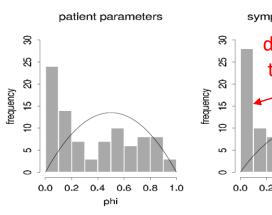
Inference from a hierarchical model from psychology (Model specification is now shown here)

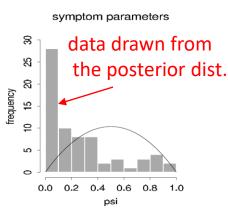
Two vector of parameters:

- Patient parameters: $\phi_1, ..., \phi_{90}$
- Psychological symptom parameters: $\psi_1, ..., \psi_{69}$

$$p(\phi_i) \sim Beta(\phi_i|2,2)$$

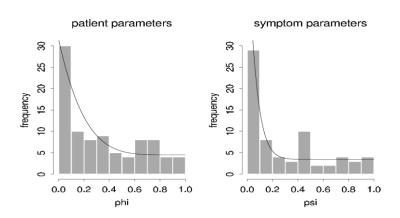
 $p(\psi_i) \sim Beta(\phi_i|2,2)$





$$p(\phi_i) = 0.5 \text{Beta}(\phi_i | 1,6) + 0.5 \text{Beta}(\phi_i | 1,1)$$

 $p(\psi_i) = 0.5 \text{Beta}(\phi_i | 1,16) + 0.5 \text{Beta}(\phi_i | 1,1)$



Prior distribution can be viewed as a posterior predictive check in which a new set of patients and symptom parameters.

Residual plots and binned residual plots

Linear or nonlinear regression model

$$g(x,\theta) = E(y|x,\theta)$$

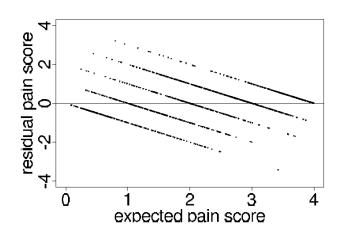
• Given unknown parameter heta and the predictors x_i for a data point y_i , the realized residual is

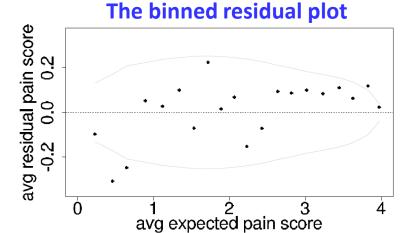
$$y_i - g(x_i, \theta)$$

the classical residual is

$$y_i - g(x_i, \hat{\theta})$$

with a fixed point estimate of $\hat{ heta}$





Graphical model checking for the 8 schools example

8 schools example assumptions:

- (1) Normality of the estimates y_i given θ_i and σ_i (known)
 - →randomization, large sample size,...
- (2) Exchangeability of the prior distribution of the θ_i
 - → we will let the data tell us about the relative ordering and similarity of effects in the schools.
 - \rightarrow In the absence of any information, the exchangeability assumption implies that the prior distribution of the θ_j 's can be considered as independent samples from a population whose distribution is indexed by some hyper-parameters
- (3) Normality of the prior distribution of each θ_i given μ and τ

$$\theta_i \sim N(\mu, \tau)$$

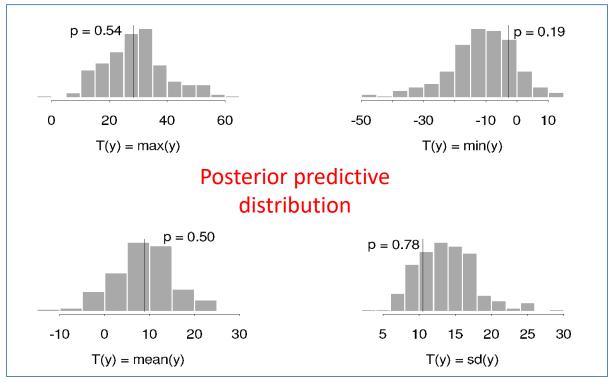
(4) Uniformity of the hyper prior distribution of (μ, τ)

$$(\mu, \tau) \sim 1$$

(3) And (4) are hard to justify (before seeing data)

Mathematical tractability is one reason for the choice of models, but if the family of probability models is inappropriate, Bayesian answers can be misleading

School Coaching Example: Suppose we perform 200 posterior predictive simulations of the coaching experiments



- The summaries suggest that the model generates predicted results similar to the observed data in the study: that is, the actual observations are typical of the predicted observations generated by the model
- Other reasonable models might provide just as good a fit but lead to different conclusions. Sensitivity analysis can then be used to assess the effect of alternative analyses on the posterior inferences.