

- MCMC recap
- Hamiltonian Monte
 Carlo
 Dynamic HMC and NUTS
- HMC diagnostics
- Probabilistic
- Probabilistic
 Programming
- Stan

Bayesian Statistics and Data Analysis Lecture 6

Måns Magnusson Department of Statistics, Uppsala University Thanks to Aki Vehtari, Aalto University



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- Markov Chain Monte Carlo
 - A transition distribution $T(heta_0 o heta_1)$ with a unique stationary distribution
 - Target: setup T so that $p(\theta|y)$ is the stationary distribution



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- Gibbs sampling
 - Conditional (or block) sampling of θ

$$\theta_{j} \sim p(\theta_{j}|\theta_{-j},y)$$



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Recap: MCMC, Gibbs and Metropolis

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- Metropolis(-Hastings) sampling
 - Joint (or block) sampling of θ
 - Proposal distribution J (i.e. T)



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- Metropolis(-Hastings) sampling
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 - Proposal distribution J (i.e. T)
 - + better for correlated posteriors
 - scale need to be tuned for efficient sampling
 - hard to propose in high dimensions (many small steps or many rejections)



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Section 2

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo



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Why Hamiltonian Monte Carlo?

- Want to build an efficient Markov Chain
 - We want to sample jointly all θ
 - We know the unnormalized posterior $q(\theta|y) = Z \cdot p(\theta|y)$, were Z is the normalization constant.
 - Can we use this to create a good proposal distribution *J*?



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 - Hamiltonian Monte Carlo!



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Add momentum variables to our posterior (canonical distribution)

$$p(\psi, \theta|y) = p(\psi|\theta, y) \cdot p(\theta|y),$$

in practice we let $p(\psi|\theta, y) = p(\psi)$



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- Idea from Physics (Mechanics):
 - θ : position
 - ψ : momentum



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 Add momentum variables to our posterior (canonical distribution)

$$p(\psi, \theta|y) = p(\psi|\theta, y) \cdot p(\theta|y),$$

in practice we let $p(\psi|\theta,y) = p(\psi)$

- Idea from Physics (Mechanics):
 - θ : position
 - ψ : momentum
- Define the Hamiltonian as

$$H(\psi, \theta) = -\log(p(\psi) - \log(p(\theta|y)) \tag{1}$$

$$=K(\psi)+V(\theta), \qquad (2)$$

where $K(\psi)$ is the kinetic energy and $V(\theta)$ is the potential energy



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Hamiltonian Dynamics (preserve energy)

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \psi} = \frac{\partial K}{\partial \psi} \tag{3}$$

$$\frac{d\psi}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \theta} \tag{4}$$

- Let $V(\theta) = -\log(q(\theta|y)) = -\log p(\theta) \log p(y|\theta)$
- Let $\psi \sim N(0, M)$ where M is the mass matrix
- Hence, $K(\psi) = -\log p(\psi) \propto 0.5 \psi^T M^{-1} \psi + C$



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- Let $V(\theta) = -\log(q(\theta|y)) = -\log p(\theta) \log p(y|\theta)$
- Let $\psi \sim N(0, M)$ where M is the mass matrix
- Hence, $K(\psi) = -\log p(\psi) \propto 0.5 \psi^T M^{-1} \psi + C$
- We need to choose *M* in a smart way.
 - 1. Ideally, $M^{-1} = Cov(\theta|y)$
 - 2. In practice, $M^{-1} = V(\theta|y)$



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The leapfrog integrator

• We want to simulate Hamiltonian dynamics

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = M^{-1}\psi\tag{5}$$

$$\frac{d\psi}{dt} = \frac{\partial \log q(\theta|y)}{\partial \theta} \tag{6}$$

• A discrete approximation: the leapfrog integrator



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The leapfrog integrator

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- A discrete approximation: the leapfrog integrator
- We take L leapfrog steps with step size ϵ as

$$\psi \leftarrow \psi + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{d \log q(\theta|y)}{d\theta} \tag{7}$$

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \epsilon M^{-1} \psi \tag{8}$$

$$\psi \leftarrow \psi + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{d \log q(\theta|y)}{d\theta} \tag{9}$$



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• Discretization introduce a error depending on ϵ (not $L\epsilon$)



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Hamiltonian Monte Carlo Algorithm

1. Sample momentum

 $\psi_0 \sim N(0, M)$



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Hamiltonian Monte Carlo Algorithm

1. Sample momentum

$$\psi_0 \sim N(0, M)$$

2. Simulate values (θ^*, ψ^*) using the leapfrog integrator L steps with stepsize ϵ , starting from (θ_{t-1}, ψ_0)



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Hamiltonian Monte Carlo Algorithm

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$$\psi_0 \sim N(0, M)$$

- 2. Simulate values (θ^*, ψ^*) using the leapfrog integrator L steps with stepsize ϵ , starting from (θ_{t-1}, ψ_0)
- 3. Accept the proposed values $(\theta^{\star}, \psi^{\star})$ with probability

$$r = \min\left(1, \frac{q(\theta^{\star}|y)}{q(\theta_{t-1}|y)} \frac{p(\psi^{\star})}{p(\psi_0)}\right)$$



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Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

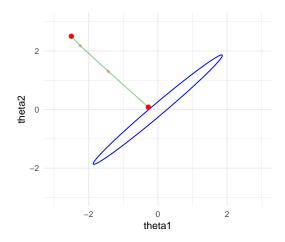
Bivariate Normal HMC example



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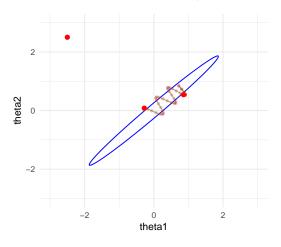




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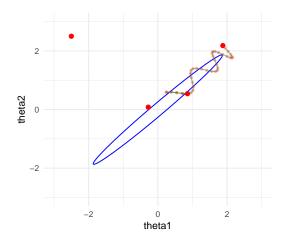




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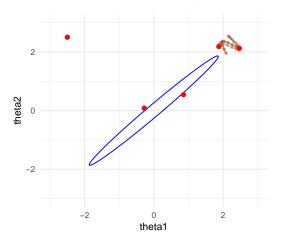




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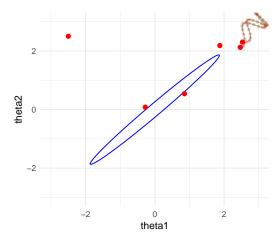




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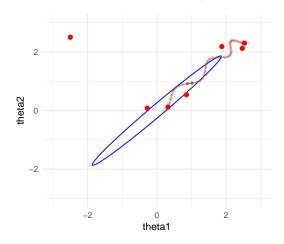




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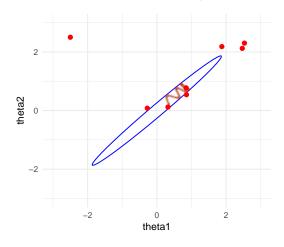




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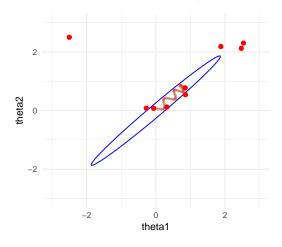




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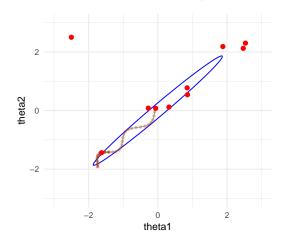




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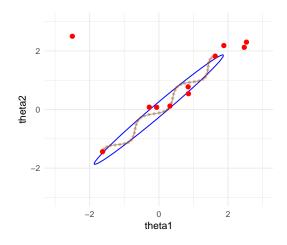




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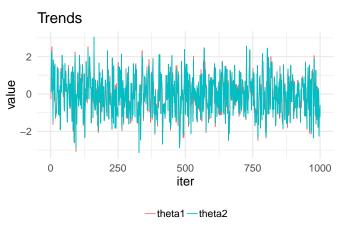




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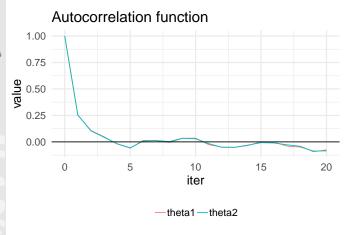




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- Parameters:
 - ϵ step size



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- Parameters:
 - ϵ step size
 - L leapfrog steps



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- Parameters:
 - ϵ step size
 - L leapfrog steps
 - M mass matrix



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- Parameters:
 - ϵ step size
 - L leapfrog steps
 - M mass matrix
- + Can be very efficient (S_{eff})
- + Additional diagnostics



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- Parameters:
 - € step size
 - **L** leapfrog steps
 - M mass matrix
- + Can be very efficient (S_{eff})
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- Can be difficult to tune (U-turns)
- Bounded parameters needs handling
- Ideally, we should adapt ϵL
- Costly to run each iteration (*L* log density gradient evaluations)



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demo



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Dynamic HMC

- Goal: Simplify/adapt the tuning of HMC
- Dynamic HMC refers to dynamic trajectory length of the leapfrog integrator (i.e. L is chosen on the fly)



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- The NUTS/dynamic algorithm:
 - 1. Grow a binary tree of leapfrog steps L
 - Grow (randomly) in two directions (to keep reversibility of Markov chain)
 - 3. Stop to grow tree when encounter a U-turn $(\theta_{t-1} \theta_L) \cdot \psi)$
 - Sample one of the step at the trajectory (higher probability further away)



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 - Sample one of the step at the trajectory (higher probability further away)
- Dynamic simulation is discretized
 - small ε gives accurate simulation, but requires more log density evaluations
 - large ϵ reduces computation, but increases simulation error



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- Parameters:
 - ϵ step size



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Dynamic Hamiltonian Monte Carlo Summary

- Parameters:
 - € step size
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- + Can be very efficient (S_{eff})
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- Bounded parameters needs handling
- Costly to run each iteration (L log density gradient evaluations)

demo

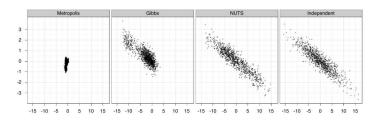


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HMC / NUTS

Comparison of algorithms on **highly correlated** 250-dimensional Gaussian distribution

- Do 1,000,000 draws with both Random Walk Metropolis and Gibbs, thinning by 1000
- •Do 1,000 draws using Stan's NUTS algorithm (no thinning)
- •Do 1,000 independent draws (we can do this for multivariate normal)



Source: Jonah Gabry



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Section 3

HMC diagnostics



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Max tree depth

- Dynamic HMC specific diagnostic
- Indicates inefficiency in sampling leading to higher autocorrelations and lower ESS $(n_{
 m eff})$
- Different parameterizations can help/matter



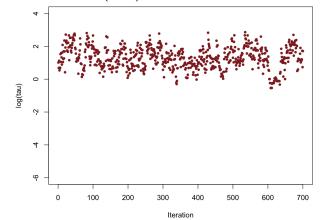
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- HMC specific diagnostic
- indicates that Hamiltonian dynamic simulation has problems with unexpected fast changes in log-density
 - indicates possibility of biased estimates
 - Different parameterizations matter
- See Betancourt (2017)



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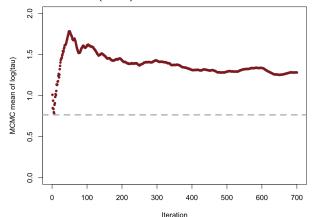
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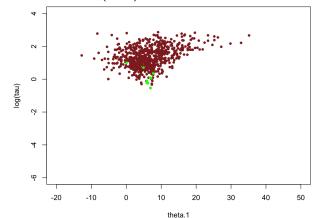
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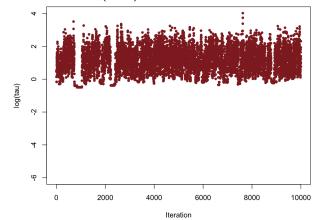
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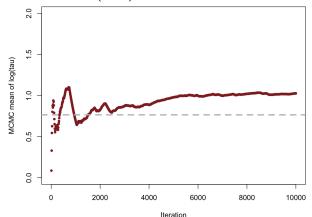
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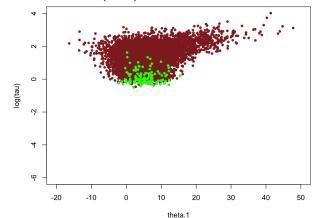
- HMC specific diagnostic
- indicates that Hamiltonian dynamic simulation has problems with unexpected fast changes in log-density
 - indicates possibility of biased estimates
- Different parameterizations matter
- See Betancourt (2017)





- MCMC recap
- Hamiltonian Monte
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 Dynamic HMC and NUTS
- LIMC Promoder
- HMC diagnostics
- Probabilistic Programming
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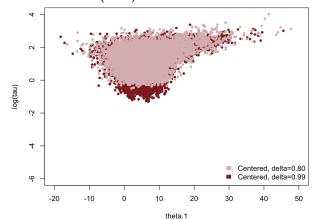
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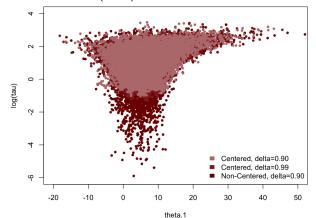
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- Nonlinear dependencies
 - simple mass matrix scaling doesn't help



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- Nonlinear dependencies
 - simple mass matrix scaling doesn't help
- Funnels
 - optimal step size depends on location



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- Nonlinear dependencies
 - simple mass matrix scaling doesn't help
- **Funnels**
 - optimal step size depends on location
- Multimodal
 - difficult to move from one mode to another



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• Nonlinear dependencies

- simple mass matrix scaling doesn't help
- Funnels
 - optimal step size depends on location
- Multimodal
 - difficult to move from one mode to another
- Long-tailed with non-finite variance and mean
 - efficiency of exploration is reduced
 - central limit theorem doesn't hold for mean and variance



• MCMC recap

- Hamiltonian Monte Carlo
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Extra (optional) material for HMC

 Michael Betancourt (2018). A Conceptual Introduction to Hamiltonian Monte Carlo.

https://arxiv.org/abs/1701.02434

 Michael Betancourt (2017). Diagnosing Biased Inference with Divergences.

https://mc-stan.org/users/documentation/case-studies/divergences_and_bias.html



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Section 4

Probabilistic Programming



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The Box process: Probabilistic modeling

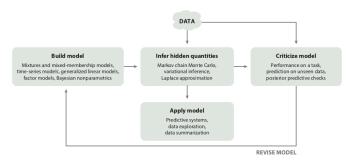


Figure: The Box approach (Box, 1976, Blei, 2014)



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Probabilistic programming languages

 Wikipedia "A probabilistic programming language (PPL) is a programming language designed to describe probabilistic models and then perform inference in those models"



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Probabilistic programming languages

- Wikipedia "A probabilistic programming language (PPL) is a programming language designed to describe probabilistic models and then perform inference in those models"
- To make probabilistic programming useful
 - easy workflow to build and revise models
 - inference has to be as automatic as possible
 - diagnostics for telling if the automatic inference doesn't work



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Probabilistic programming

- Enables agile (incremental) workflow for developing probabilistic models
 - language
 - automated inference
 - diagnostics
- Many frameworks Stan, PyMC3, Pyro (Uber), Edward (Google), Birch (Uppsala), ...



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Section 5

Stan



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- Language, inference engine, user interfaces, documentation, case studies, diagnostics, packages, ...
 - autodiff to compute gradients of the log density





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- Language, inference engine, user interfaces, documentation, case studies, diagnostics, packages, ...
 - autodiff to compute gradients of the log density
- More than ten thousand users in social, biological, and physical sciences, medicine, engineering, and business





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- R, Python, Julia, Scala, Stata, Matlab, command line interfaces
- More than 100 R packages using Stan





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Stan

- Stanislaw Ulam (1909-1984)
 - Monte Carlo method
 - H-Bomb



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- Dynamic HMC using growing tree to increase simulation trajectory until no-U-turn criterion stopping
 - max treedepth to keep computation in control



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 - pick a draw along the trajectory with probabilities adjusted to take into account the error in the discretized dynamic simulation



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 - mass matrix refers to having different scaling for different parameters and optionally also rotation to reduce correlations



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- After adaptation the algorithm parameters are fixed
- After warmup store iterations for inference



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- After adaptation the algorithm parameters are fixed
- After warmup store iterations for inference
- See more details in Stan reference manual



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```
data {
  int < lower = 0 > N; // number of experiments
  int < lower = 0, upper = N > y; // number of successes
parameters {
  real < lower = 0, upper = 1> theta; // parameter of the
model -
  theta \sim beta(1,1); //prior
  y ~ binomial(N, theta); // observation model
```



MCMC recap

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MCMC recap

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- Data type and size are declared
- Stan checks that given data matches type and constraints



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- Data type and size are declared
- Stan checks that given data matches type and constraints
 - If you are not used to strong typing, this may feel annoying, but it will reduce the probability of coding errors, which will reduce probability of data analysis errors



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```
parameters {
    real < lower=0, upper=1> theta;
}
```

- Parameters may have constraints
- Stan makes transformation to unconstrained space and samples in unconstrained space
 - e.g. log transformation for <lower=a>
 - e.g. logit transformation for <lower=a,upper=b>



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```
parameters {
    real < lower=0, upper=1> theta;
}
```

- Parameters may have constraints
- Stan makes transformation to unconstrained space and samples in unconstrained space
 - e.g. log transformation for <lower=a>
 - e.g. logit transformation for <lower=a,upper=b>
- For these declared transformation Stan automatically takes into account the Jacobian of the transformation (see BDA3 p. 21)



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• target is the log posterior density



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```
model {
  theta ~ beta(1,1);  // prior
  y ~ binomial(N,theta); // likelihood
}

• ~ is syntactic sugar and this is equivalent to

model {
  target += beta_lpdf(theta | 1, 1);
```

 $target += binomial_lpmf(y | N, theta);$

- target is the log posterior density
- _lpdf for continuous, _lpmf for discrete distributions (discrete for the left hand side of |)



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ullet \sim is syntactic sugar and this is equivalent to

```
model {
  target += beta_lpdf(theta | 1, 1);
  target += binomial_lpmf(y | N, theta);
}
```

- target is the log posterior density
- _lpdf for continuous, _lpmf for discrete distributions (discrete for the left hand side of |)
- for Stan sampler there is no difference between prior and likelihood, all that matters is the final target



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```

- target is the log posterior density
- _lpdf for continuous, _lpmf for discrete distributions (discrete for the left hand side of |)
- for Stan sampler there is no difference between prior and likelihood, all that matters is the final target
- you can write in Stan language any program to compute the log density (Stan language is Turing complete)



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Stan

- Stan compiles (transplies) the model written in Stan language to C++
 - this makes the sampling for complex models and bigger data faster
 - also makes Stan models easily portable, you can use your own favorite interface



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RStan

```
RStan
```

```
library (rstan)
rstan_options (auto_write = TRUE)
options (mc.cores = parallel::detectCores())
```



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RStan

```
RStan
```

```
library (rstan)
rstan_options (auto_write = TRUE)
options (mc.cores = parallel::detectCores())
```

```
\begin{array}{lll} d_-bin <& - \mbox{ list} \left(N=10\,,\ y=7\right) \\ \mbox{fit\_bin} <& - \mbox{ stan} \left(\mbox{ file} = \mbox{ 'binom.stan'}, \mbox{ data} = d_-bin\right) \end{array}
```



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PyStan

PyStan

```
import pystan
import stan_utility
```

```
data = dict(N=10, y=8)
model = stan_utility.compile_model('binom.stan')
fit = model.sampling(data=data)
```



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PyStan

```
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```

```
import pystan
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fit = model.sampling(data=data)
```



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Stan

- Compilation (unless previously compiled model available)
- Warm-up including adaptation
- Sampling
- Generated quantities
- Save posterior draws
- Report divergences, $n_{E_{\text{max}}}$, \widehat{R}



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Difference between proportions

- An experiment was performed to estimate the effect of beta-blockers on mortality of cardiac patients
- A group of patients were randomly assigned to treatment and control groups:
 - out of 674 patients receiving the control, 39 died
 - out of 680 receiving the treatment, 22 died



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Difference between proportions

```
data {
  int < lower = 0 > N1;
  int < lower = 0 > y1;
  int < lower = 0 > N2:
  int < lower = 0 > y2;
parameters {
  real<lower=0, upper=1> theta1;
  real < lower=0, upper=1> theta2;
model {
  theta1 \sim beta(1,1);
  theta2 \sim beta(1,1);
  y1 ~ binomial(N1, theta1);
  y2 ~ binomial(N2, theta2);
generated quantities {
  real oddsratio:
  oddsratio = \frac{(theta2/(1-theta2))}{(theta1/(1-theta2))}
```



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```
data {
  int < lower = 0 > N1:
  int < lower = 0 > v1:
  int <lower=0> N2:
  int < lower = 0 > y2;
parameters {
  real < lower = 0, upper = 1> theta1;
  real < lower=0, upper=1> theta2;
model
  theta1 \sim beta(1,1);
  theta2 \sim beta(1,1);
  y1 ~ binomial(N1, theta1);
  y2 ~ binomial(N2, theta2);
generated quantities {
```

real oddsratio; oddsratio = (theta2/(1-theta2))/(theta1/(1-theta2))



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Difference between proportions

```
generated quantities {
  real oddsratio;
  oddsratio = (theta2/(1-theta2))/(theta1/(1-theta2))
}
```

• generated quantities is run after the sampling



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Difference between proportions

 $d_bin2 <-$ list (N1 = 674, y1 = 39, N2 = 680, y2 = 2 fit $_bin2 <-$ stan (file = 'binom2.stan', data = d $_bin$

```
starting worker pid=10151 on localhost:11783 at 10:03:27.872 starting worker pid=10164 on localhost:11783 at 10:03:28.087 starting worker pid=10176 on localhost:11783 at 10:03:28.295 starting worker pid=10185 on localhost:11783 at 10:03:28.461
```

SAMPLING FOR MODEL 'binom2' NOW (CHAIN 1).

Gradient evaluation took 6e–06 seconds 1000 transitions using 10 leapfrog steps per transition would take 0.06 seconds. Adjust your expectations accordingly!

SAMPLING FOR MODEL 'binom2' NOW (CHAIN 2).



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monitor(fit_bin2, probs = $\mathbf{c}(0.1, 0.5, 0.9)$)

Inference for the input samples
(4 chains: each with iter=1000; warmup=0):

	mean	se_mean	sd	10%	50%	90%	n_eff	Rhat
theta1	0.1	0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	3280	1
theta2	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3171	1
oddsratio	0.6	0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	3108	1
l p	-253.5	0	1.0	-254.8	-253.2	-252.6	1922	1

For each parameter, n_{-} eff is a crude measure of effective samp and Rhat is the potential scale reduction factor on split chair convergence, Rhat=1).



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monitor(fit_bin2, probs = $\mathbf{c}(0.1, 0.5, 0.9)$)

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	mean	se_mean	sd	10%	50%	90%	n_eff	Rhat
theta1	0.1	0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	3280	1
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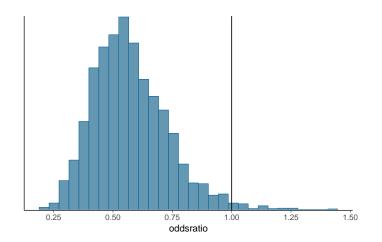
For each parameter, n_{-} eff is a crude measure of effective samp and Rhat is the potential scale reduction factor on split chair convergence, Rhat=1).

• lp__ is the log density, ie, same as target



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```
draws <- as.data.frame(fit_bin2)
mcmc_hist(draws, pars = 'oddsratio') +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 1) +
  scale_x_continuous(breaks = c(seq(0.25,1.5,by=0.</pre>
```





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HMC specific diagnostics

```
check_treedepth(fit_bin2)
check_div(fit_bin2)
```

- $\left[1\right]$ "O of 4000 iterations saturated the maximum tree depth of $\left[1\right]$
- $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$ "O of 4000 iterations ended with a divergence (0%)"

get_num_leapfrog_per_iteration(fit_bin2)



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Shinystan

• Graphical user interface for analysing MCMC results

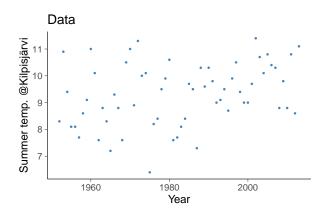


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Kilpisjärvi summer temperature

- Temperature at Kilpisjärvi in June, July and August from 1952 to 2013
- Is there change in the temperature?





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Gaussian linear model

```
data {
    int < lower = 0 > N; // number of data points
    vector[N] x; //
    vector[N] y; //
parameters {
    real alpha;
    real beta:
    real < lower = 0 > sigma;
transformed parameters {
    vector[N] mu;
    mu <- alpha + beta*x;
model {
    y ~ normal(mu, sigma);
```



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Gaussian linear model

```
data {
    int < lower = 0 > N; // number of data points
    vector[N] x; //
    vector[N] y; //
}
```

• difference between vector[N] x and real x[N]



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Gaussian linear model

```
parameters {
    real alpha;
    real beta;
    real < lower=0> sigma;
}
transformed parameters {
    vector[N] mu;
    mu <- alpha + beta*x;
}</pre>
```

• transformed parameters are deterministic transformations of parameters and data



MCMC recap

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Priors for Gaussian linear model

```
data {
    int < lower = 0 > N; // number of data points
    vector[N] x; //
    vector[N] y; //
    real pmualpha; // prior mean for alpha
    real psalpha; // prior std for alpha
    real pmubeta; // prior mean for beta
    real psbeta; // prior std for beta
transformed parameters {
    vector[N] mu;
    mu \leftarrow alpha + beta*x;
model {
    alpha ~ normal(pmualpha, psalpha);
    beta ~ normal(pmubeta, psbeta);
    y ~ normal(mu, sigma);
```



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Student-t linear model

```
parameters {
  real alpha;
  real beta:
  real < lower = 0 > sigma;
  real < lower=1, upper=80> nu;
transformed parameters {
  vector[N] mu;
  mu \leftarrow alpha + beta*x;
model {
  nu ~ gamma(2,0.1);
  y ~ student_t(nu, mu, sigma);
```



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Priors

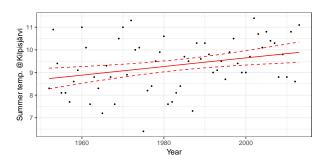
• Prior for temperature increase?



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Kilpisjärvi summer temperature

Posterior fit

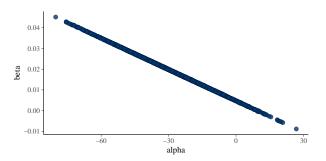




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Posterior draws of alpha and beta

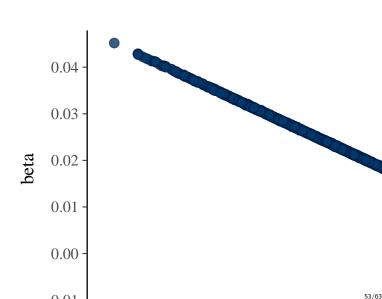




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Posterior draws of alpha and beta





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Linear regression model in Stan

```
data {
  int < lower = 0 > N; // number of data points
  vector [N] x; //
  vector [N] y; //
  real xpred; // input location for prediction
}
transformed data {
  vector [N] x.std;
  vector [N] y.std;
  real xpred.std;
  x.std = (x - mean(x)) / sd(x);
  y.std = (y - mean(y)) / sd(y);
  xpred.std = (xpred - mean(x)) / sd(x);
}
```



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RStanARM

- RStanARM provides simplified model description with pre-compiled models
 - no need to wait for compilation
 - a restricted set of models

Two group Binomial model:

```
d_bin2 <- data frame (N = c(674, 680), y = c(39,22), grp2 = c(0 fit_bin2 <- stan_glm(y/N ~ grp2, family = binomial(), data = d weights = N)
```



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RStanARM

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Two group Binomial model:

```
d_bin2 <- data.frame(N = c(674, 680), y = c(39,22), grp2 = c(0 fit_bin2 <- stan_glm(y/N ~ grp2, family = binomial(), data = d weights = N)
```

Gaussian linear model

```
fit_lin <- stan_glm(temp ~ year, data = d_lin)</pre>
```



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BRMS

- BRMS provides simplified model description
 - a larger set of models than RStanARM, but still restricted
 - need to wait for the compilation

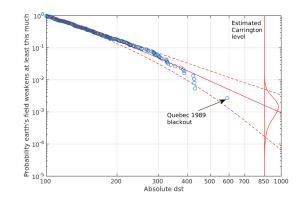
```
\label{eq:fit_lin_t}  \text{fit_lin_t} \leftarrow \text{brm(temp ~ year, } \  \, \text{data} = \text{d_lin} \, , \  \, \text{family} = \text{student())}
```



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Extreme value analysis

Geomagnetic storms





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Extreme value analysis

```
data {
  int < lower = 0 > N:
  vector<lower=0>[N] y;
  int < lower=0> Nt;
  vector<lower=0>[Nt] yt;
transformed data {
  real ymax;
  ymax <- max(y);
parameters {
  real < lower=0> sigma;
  real < lower = - sigma / ymax > k;
model
  y ~ gpareto(k, sigma);
generated quantities {
  vector[Nt] predccdf;
  predccdf<-gpareto_ccdf(yt,k,sigma);</pre>
```



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Functions

```
functions {
  real gpareto_lpdf(vector y, real k, real sigma) {
    // generalised Pareto log pdf with mu=0
    // should check and give error if k<0
    // and max(y)/sigma > -1/k
    int N:
   N \leftarrow dims(y)[1];
    if (fabs(k) > 1e-15)
      return -(1+1/k)*sum(log1pv(y*k/sigma)) -N*log(sigma)
    else
      return -sum(y/sigma) -N*log(sigma); // limit k->0
  vector gpareto_ccdf(vector y, real k, real sigma) {
    // generalised Pareto log ccdf with mu=0
    // should check and give error if k<0
    // and max(y)/sigma < -1/k
    if (fabs(k) > 1e-15)
      return \exp((-1/k)*\log 1pv(y/sigma*k));
    else
      return \exp(-y/\text{sigma}); // limit k = > 0
```



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Other packages

- R
- shinystan interactive diagnostics
- bayesplot visualization and model checking (see model checking in Ch 6)
- loo cross-validation model assessment, comparison and averaging (see Ch 7)
- projpred projection predictive variable selection
- Python
 - ArviZ visualization, and model checking and assessment (see Ch 6 and 7)



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Different interfaces

- RStan / PyStan
 - C++ functions of Stan are called directly from R / Python
 - Higher integration between R/Python and Stan, but maybe more difficult to install due to more requirements of compatible C++ compilers and libraries
- CmdStanR / CmdStanPy
 - Lightweight interface on top of commandline program CmdStan
 - Lacks some features that are not needed in this course, but is usually easier to install
- More recent useful R packages
 - posterior: for handling posterior draws, convergence diagnostics, and summaries
 - tidybayes + ggdist: pretty plots



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Extra material for Stan

- Andrew Gelman, Daniel Lee, and Jiqiang Guo (2015)
 Stan: A probabilistic programming language for Bayesian inference and optimization.
 - http://www.stat.columbia.edu/~gelman/research/published/stan_jebs_2.pdf
- Carpenter et al (2017). Stan: A probabilistic programming language. Journal of Statistical Software 76(1).
 https://dox.doi.org/10.18637/jss.v076.i01
- Stan User's Guide, Language Reference Manual, and Language Function Reference (in html and pdf) https://mc-stan.org/users/documentation/
 - easiest to start from Example Models in User's guide
- Basics of Bayesian inference and Stan, part 1 Jonah Gabry & Lauren Kennedy (StanCon 2019 Helsinki tutorial)
 - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZRpo41102KQ&
 index=6&list=PLuwyh42iHquU4hUBQs20hkBsKSMrp6H0J
 - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6cc4N1vT8pk& index=7&list=PLuwyh42iHquU4hUBQs20hkBsKSMrp6H0J