Joachim Vandekerckhove

• The posterior distribution gives a lot of information

- The posterior distribution gives a lot of information
- Ideally, we could just show a graph of it and leave the interpretation to the reader

- The posterior distribution gives a lot of information
- Ideally, we could just show a graph of it and leave the interpretation to the reader
  - But often the posterior will have many dimensions

- The posterior distribution gives a lot of information
- Ideally, we could just show a graph of it and leave the interpretation to the reader
  - But often the posterior will have many dimensions
  - And also that seems lazy

- The posterior distribution gives a lot of information
- Ideally, we could just show a graph of it and leave the interpretation to the reader
  - But often the posterior will have many dimensions
  - And also that seems lazy
- We need a way to describe the posterior distribution

- The posterior distribution gives a lot of information
  - Ideally, we could just show a graph of it and leave the interpretation to the reader
    - But often the posterior will have many dimensions
    - And also that seems lazy
- We need a way to describe the posterior distribution
  - Mean? SD? Skew? Kurtosis? Mass at or around a certain value?  $p(.8 \le P_R \le .9 | \#R, \#W)$ ?

Determining these summary statistics analytically can be daunting and may in fact not be possible in general.

Determining these summary statistics analytically can be daunting and may in fact not be possible in general.

Here, with the discrete domain of  $P_R$ :

$$p(.8 \le P_R \le .9 | \#R, \#W) =$$

$$p(P_R = .80 | \#R, \#W)$$

$$+p(P_R = .85 | \#R, \#W)$$

$$+p(P_R = .90 | \#R, \#W)$$

 $\bullet$  A more continuous case on  $x=\frac{P_R+1}{2}$ 

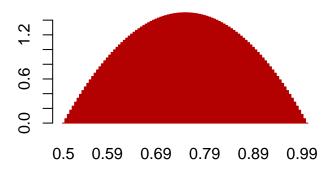
- $\bullet$  A more continuous case on  $x=\frac{P_R+1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1} = B(x|\alpha,\beta)$

- A more continuous case on  $x = \frac{P_R + 1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha 1}(1 x)^{\beta 1} = B(x|\alpha, \beta)$
  - $\bullet$  Beta distribution, say  $\alpha=\beta=2$

- A more continuous case on  $x = \frac{P_R + 1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha 1}(1 x)^{\beta 1} = B(x|\alpha, \beta)$
  - $\bullet$  Beta distribution, say  $\alpha=\beta=2$

- A more continuous case on  $x = \frac{P_R + 1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha 1}(1 x)^{\beta 1} = B(x|\alpha, \beta)$
  - $\bullet \quad \text{Beta distribution, say } \alpha = \beta = 2$

# wine



 $\bullet$  A more continuous case on  $x=\frac{P_R+1}{2}$ 

- A more continuous case on  $x = \frac{P_R + 1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1} = B(x|\alpha,\beta)$

- A more continuous case on  $x = \frac{P_R + 1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha 1}(1 x)^{\beta 1} = B(x|\alpha, \beta)$
  - $\bullet \ \ {\rm Beta \ distribution, \ say} \ \alpha = \beta = 2$

- A more continuous case on  $x = \frac{P_R + 1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1} = B(x|\alpha,\beta)$
  - Beta distribution, say  $\alpha = \beta = 2$
  - Likelihood is the same:  $p(\#R, \#W|P_R) = CP_R^{\#R}(1-P_R)^{\#W}$

- A more continuous case on  $x = \frac{P_R + 1}{2}$ 
  - $p(x) = Kx^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1} = B(x|\alpha,\beta)$
  - Beta distribution, say  $\alpha = \beta = 2$
  - Likelihood is the same:  $p(\#R, \#W|P_R) = CP_R^{\#R}(1-P_R)^{\#W}$
  - So the posterior must be:  $p(P_R|\#R,\#W) \propto \left(\frac{P_R+1}{2}\right)^{\alpha-1} \left(1-\frac{P_R+1}{2}\right)^{\beta-1}$

# **Functional programming**

Sometimes it is useful in R to turn a function into a variable to change it quickly

You can make a function "on the fly" inside a function or script file like this:

```
funcname <- function(n, x) { rep(x, n) }</pre>
```

So that prior and likelihood can be written like:

```
prior <- function(p) { dbeta(2 * (p-.5), 2, 2) }
likelihood <- function(p) { dbinom(5, 6, p) }</pre>
```

# **Functional programming**

Prior and likelihood:

```
prior <- function(p) { dbeta(2 * (p-.5), 2, 2) }
likelihood <- function(p) { dbinom(5, 6, p) }</pre>
```

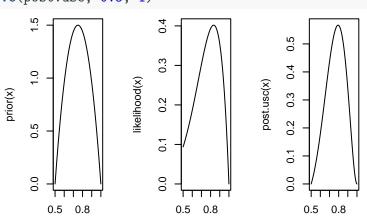
Given those, building the posterior is trivial:

```
post.usc <- function(p) { prior(p) * likelihood(p) }</pre>
```

Exercise: implement this, plot the three functions

# **Functional programming**

```
par(mfrow=c(1,3))
curve(prior, 0.5, 1)
curve(likelihood, 0.5, 1)
curve(post.usc, 0.5, 1)
```



 These graphs don't tell us the mean of the posterior (or any other useful statistic)

- These graphs don't tell us the mean of the posterior (or any other useful statistic)
- How do we determine the mean of an arbitrary, somewhat complicated function?

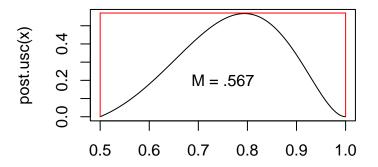
- These graphs don't tell us the mean of the posterior (or any other useful statistic)
- How do we determine the mean of an arbitrary, somewhat complicated function?
- As it turns out, drawing random samples from a distribution is an efficient way to do that

- These graphs don't tell us the mean of the posterior (or any other useful statistic)
- How do we determine the mean of an arbitrary, somewhat complicated function?
- As it turns out, drawing random samples from a distribution is an efficient way to do that
  - Methods for doing this are called Monte Carlo methods

- These graphs don't tell us the mean of the posterior (or any other useful statistic)
- How do we determine the mean of an arbitrary, somewhat complicated function?
- As it turns out, drawing random samples from a distribution is an efficient way to do that
  - Methods for doing this are called Monte Carlo methods
  - Math win: Monte Carlo methods don't need those hard-to-compute K and C scaling constants

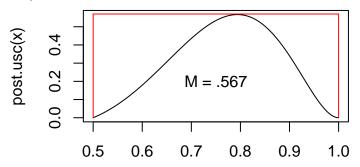
One Monte Carlo method is the rejection sampler:

1) Draw a sample from some basic distribution S(x|...)



One Monte Carlo method is the rejection sampler:

- 1) Draw a sample from some basic distribution S(x|...)
- 2) Reject the sample with probability  $q=\frac{fx}{M\times S(x)}$ , where M is chosen so that this is always  $\leq 1$  (but ideally sometimes close to 1)



• Exercise: Implement a rejection algorithm

- Exercise: Implement a rejection algorithm
- 1. Sample  $P_R$  from  $g(P_R) = U(0.5, 1.0)$  and u from U(0, 1)

- Exercise: Implement a rejection algorithm
- 1. Sample  $P_R$  from  $g(P_R) = U(0.5, 1.0)$  and u from U(0, 1)
- 2. Check if  $u < p(P_R|\#R, \#W)/M$  (or, better, if  $uM < p(P_R|\#R, \#W)$ )

- Exercise: Implement a rejection algorithm
- 1. Sample  $P_R$  from  $g(P_R) = U(0.5, 1.0)$  and u from U(0, 1)
- 2. Check if  $u < p(P_R|\#R,\#W)/M$  (or, better, if  $uM < p(P_R|\#R,\#W)$ )
  - lacktriangle If true, accept x

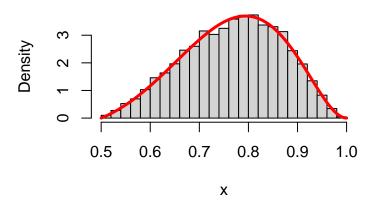
- Exercise: Implement a rejection algorithm
- 1. Sample  $P_R$  from  $g(P_R) = U(0.5, 1.0)$  and u from U(0, 1)
- 2. Check if  $u < p(P_R|\#R,\#W)/M$  (or, better, if  $uM < p(P_R|\#R,\#W)$ )
  - If true, accept x
  - Otherwise, reject the value and draw a new sample

- Exercise: Implement a rejection algorithm
- 1. Sample  $P_R$  from  $g(P_R) = U(0.5, 1.0)$  and u from U(0, 1)
- 2. Check if  $u < p(P_R|\#R,\#W)/M$  (or, better, if  $uM < p(P_R|\#R,\#W)$ )
  - If true, accept x
  - Otherwise, reject the value and draw a new sample
- 3. Repeat many times to get a few thousand samples

- Exercise: Implement a rejection algorithm
- 1. Sample  $P_R$  from  $g(P_R) = U(0.5, 1.0)$  and u from U(0, 1)
- 2. Check if  $u < p(P_R|\#R, \#W)/M$  (or, better, if  $uM < p(P_R|\#R, \#W)$ )
  - If true, accept x
  - Otherwise, reject the value and draw a new sample
- 3. Repeat many times to get a few thousand samples
- 4. Make a histogram and compare the shapes of the distribution

```
N < -10000
x <- vector(,N)
c <- 1
M < -.567
while(c <= N) {
  x[c] \leftarrow runif(1, 0.5, 1)
  u \leftarrow runif(1, 0, M)
  if (u < post.usc(x[c])) c <- c + 1;
hist(x, breaks=25,freq=FALSE)
K <- integrate(post.usc, 0.5, 1)$value</pre>
lines(domain, post.usc(domain)/K, lwd=3, col='red')
```





 With a few thousand samples, the shape of the posterior is well approximated

- With a few thousand samples, the shape of the posterior is well approximated
  - Now we can compute the mean of that sample: 0.7691297

- With a few thousand samples, the shape of the posterior is well approximated
  - Now we can compute the mean of that sample: 0.7691297
  - ullet ... or the proportion of samples that are > .85: 0.2326

- With a few thousand samples, the shape of the posterior is well approximated
  - Now we can compute the mean of that sample: 0.7691297
  - ullet ... or the proportion of samples that are > .85: 0.2326
  - ... or indeed any quality we fancy

Basic unit of a Bayesian model is a distribution function

- Basic unit of a Bayesian model is a distribution function
- The posterior is defined through a generative model representation

- Basic unit of a Bayesian model is a distribution function
- The posterior is defined through a generative model representation
  - ... which is basically a sequence of distributional assumptions

- Basic unit of a Bayesian model is a distribution function
- The posterior is defined through a generative model representation
  - which is basically a sequence of distributional assumptions
  - In Bayesian statistics, a "model" is just a special kind of distribution function over parameters and data (and so with possibly very many dimensions)

Let's define a really trivial model  $\mathcal{M}_t$  in which we estimate the parameters  $\mu$  and  $\tau$  (=  $1/\sigma^2$ ) of a normal distribution, applied to some data points  $d_j$ :

$$\mathcal{M}_t: \begin{cases} \forall j \in (1, \dots, J) : d_j \sim N(\mu, \tau) \\ \mu \sim N(0, 0.1) \\ \tau \sim \Gamma(4, 0.01) \end{cases}$$

Let's define a really trivial model  $\mathcal{M}_t$  in which we estimate the parameters  $\mu$  and  $\tau$  (=  $1/\sigma^2$ ) of a normal distribution, applied to some data points  $d_j$ :

$$\mathcal{M}_t: \begin{cases} \forall j \in (1, \dots, J) : d_j \sim N(\mu, \tau) \\ \mu \sim N(0, 0.1) \\ \tau \sim \Gamma(4, 0.01) \end{cases}$$

Notice how every statement is a distributional assumption! (Either priors on parameters or likelihoods on data.)

Let's define a really trivial model  $\mathcal{M}_t$  in which we estimate the parameters  $\mu$  and  $\tau$  (=  $1/\sigma^2$ ) of a normal distribution, applied to some data points  $d_j$ :

$$\mathcal{M}_t: \begin{cases} \forall j \in (1, \dots, J) : d_j \sim N(\mu, \tau) \\ \mu \sim N(0, 0.1) \\ \tau \sim \Gamma(4, 0.01) \end{cases}$$

Notice how every statement is a distributional assumption! (Either priors on parameters or likelihoods on data.)

$$p(d_1, \dots, d_J \mid \mathcal{M}_t) = \left( \prod_{j=1}^J N(d_j \mid \mu, \tau) \right) \times N(\mu \mid 0, 0.1) \times \Gamma(\tau \mid 4, 0.01)$$

# JAGS code is (almost) perfect

```
\mathcal{M}_s: \begin{cases} \forall j \in (1, \dots, J) : d_j \sim N(\mu, \tau) \\ \mu \sim N(0, 0.1) \\ \tau \sim \Gamma(4, 0.01) \end{cases}
```

The program needs to know the specifics of the model:

```
model {
    for (j in 1:J) {
        d[j] ~ dnorm(mu, tau)
    }
    mu ~ dnorm(0,0.1)
    tau ~ dgamma(4,0.01)
}
```

## A psychological model: Signal detection theory

$$\mathcal{M}_{sdt}: \begin{cases} \delta \sim N(1,1) & \beta \sim N(0,1) \\ \phi_h = \Phi(\delta/2 - \beta) & \phi_f = \Phi(-\delta/2 - \beta) \\ h \sim B(\phi_h, n_s) & f \sim B(\phi_f, n_n) \end{cases}$$

# A psychological model: Signal detection theory

```
\mathcal{M}_{sdt}: \begin{cases} \delta \sim N(1,1) & \beta \sim N(0,1) \\ \phi_h = \Phi(\delta/2 - \beta) & \phi_f = \Phi(-\delta/2 - \beta) \\ h \sim B(\phi_h, n_s) & f \sim B(\phi_f, n_n) \end{cases}
```

```
model {
    d ~ dnorm(1, 1)
    b ~ dnorm(0, 1)

phih <- phi( d / 2 - b)
    phif <- phi(-d / 2 - b)

h ~ dbin(phih, sigtrials)
    f ~ dbin(phif, noistrials)
}</pre>
```

# Signal detection theory $\sim$ implementation

```
library(rjags)
data \leftarrow list(h = 32, sigtrials = 39,
               f = 12 , noistrials = 60 )
modelString = "
    model {
        d \sim dnorm(1, 1)
        b \sim dnorm(0, 1)
        phih \leftarrow phi(d/2-b)
        phif \leftarrow phi(-d / 2 - b)
        h ~ dbin(phih, sigtrials)
         f ~ dbin(phif, noistrials)
11
```

# Signal detection theory $\sim$ implementation

```
writeLines( modelString , con = "sdt.txt" )
jagsModel = jags.model( file = "sdt.txt" ,
                      data =
                                    data ,
                                    3,
                      n.chains =
                      n.adapt = 1000)
set.seed(0)
update( jagsModel , n.iter = 1000 ) # burn-in
samples = coda.samples( jagsModel ,
                      variable.names = c("d", "b"),
                      n.iter
                                           10000)
```

# Signal detection theory ~ results



2000

Trace of b

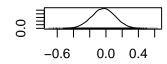
Minorita reproductive de la constitución de la cons

12000

Iterations

6000

Density of b



N = 10000 Bandwidth = 0.0196

0.5

# Trace of d

2000 6000 12000

Iterations

0.

1.5

Density of d

N = 10000 Bandwidth = 0.0380

2.5

# Signal detection theory ~ summary statistics

##

```
summary(samples)$statistics
##
           Mean
                      SD
                            Naive SE Time-series SE
## b -0.03165139 0.1457964 0.0008417558 0.001140143
     1.71291639 0.2831377 0.0016346961 0.002190106
summary(samples)$quantiles
          2.5%
                   25%
                                50% 75% 97.59
```

## b -0.3193518 -0.1283052 -0.03050893 0.06667904 0.250343 ## d 1.1729249 1.5215252 1.70972316 1.89924948 2.280572

# Signal detection theory ~ convergence

```
effectiveSize(samples)
##
## 16367.05 16743.76
gelman.diag(samples)
## Potential scale reduction factors:
##
##
     Point est. Upper C.I.
## b
## d
##
## Multivariate psrf
##
## 1
```

The outcome of a Bayesian analysis is a probability distribution over parameters of interest

The outcome of a Bayesian analysis is a probability distribution over parameters of interest

To communicate results, we needed a method to summarize arbitrary distributions

The outcome of a Bayesian analysis is a probability distribution over parameters of interest

To communicate results, we needed a method to summarize arbitrary distributions

Monte Carlo methods provide such a method

The outcome of a Bayesian analysis is a probability distribution over parameters of interest

To communicate results, we needed a method to summarize arbitrary distributions

Monte Carlo methods provide such a method

JAGS (and Stan) have a straightforward modeling language that lets users specify a model

The outcome of a Bayesian analysis is a probability distribution over parameters of interest

To communicate results, we needed a method to summarize arbitrary distributions

Monte Carlo methods provide such a method

JAGS (and Stan) have a straightforward modeling language that lets users specify a model

They then draw samples from the posterior distributions, so we can calculate any summaries we like