#### Outline of Lecture 2

- Binomial model is the simplest model
  - useful to introduce observation model, likelihood, posterior, prior, integration, posterior summaries
  - very commonly used as a building block
  - examples:
    - coin tossing
    - chips from bag
    - COVID tests and vaccines
    - classification / logistic regression

## Outline of Chapter 2

- 2.1 Binomial model (repeated experiment with binary outcome)
- 2.2 Posterior as compromise between data and prior information
- 2.3 Posterior summaries
- 2.4 Informative prior distributions (skip exponential families and sufficient statistics)
- 2.5 Gaussian model with known variance
- 2.6 Other single parameter models
  - the normal distribution with known mean but unknown variance is the most important
  - glance through Poisson and exponential
- 2.7 glance through this example, which illustrates benefits of prior information, no need to read all the details (it's quite long example)
- 2.8–2.9 Noninformative and weakly informative priors

• Probability of event 1 in trial is  $\theta$ 

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- Probability of several events in independent trials is e.g.  $\theta\theta(1-\theta)\theta(1-\theta)(1-\theta)\dots$
- If there are n trials and we don't care about the order of the events, then the probability that event 1 happens y times is

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta, n) = \binom{n}{\mathbf{y}} \theta^{\mathbf{y}} (1 - \theta)^{n - \mathbf{y}}$$

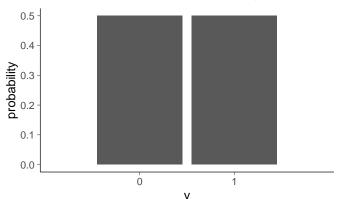
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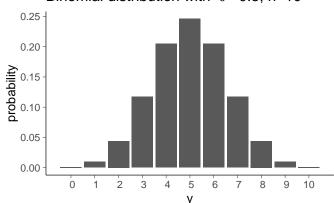
Binomial distribution with  $\theta = 0.5$ , n=1



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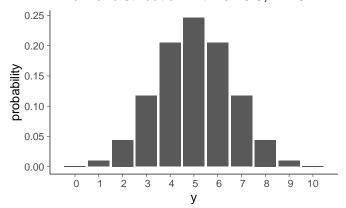
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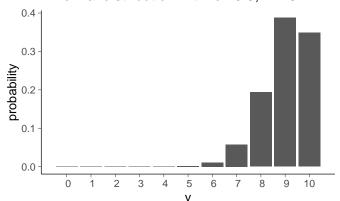


 $p(y|n = 10, \theta = 0.5)$ : 0.00 0.01 0.04 0.12 0.21 0.25 0.21 0.12 0.04 0.01 0.00

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Binomial distribution with  $\theta = 0.9$ , n=10



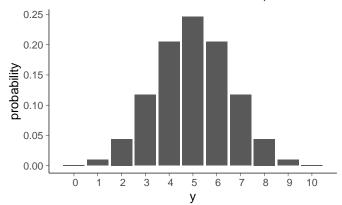
 $p(y|n = 10, \theta = 0.9)$ : 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.01 0.06 0.19 0.39 0.35

## Binomial: what if y = 6?

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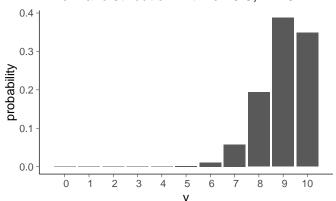
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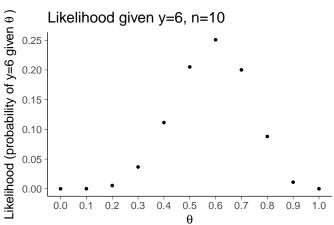
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• Likelihood (function of  $\theta$ , continuous)

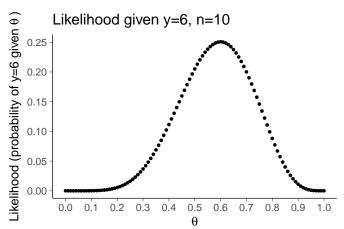
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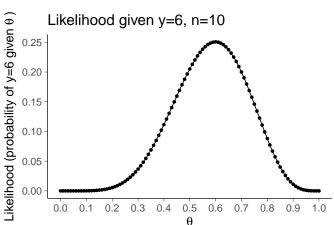
$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\theta}, n) = \binom{n}{y} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{y} (1 - \boldsymbol{\theta})^{n-y}$$



we can compute the value for any  $\theta$ , but in practice can compute only for finite values

Likelihood (function of θ, continuous)

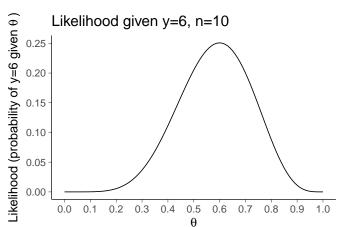
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with sufficient many evaluations, linearly interpolated plot looks smooth

Likelihood (function of θ, continuous)

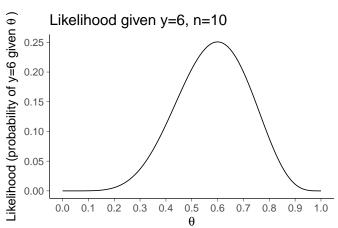
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looks smooth, and we'll get back to later to computational cost issues

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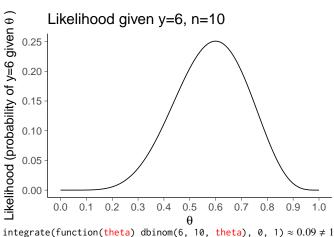
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likelihood function describes uncertainty, but is not normalized distribution

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- Posterior with Bayes rule (function of  $\theta$ , continuous)

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{n}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{n})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{n})}{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{n})}$$

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Then

$$p(\theta|y,n) = \frac{p(y|\theta,n)}{p(y|n)} = \frac{\binom{n}{y}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}}{\int_{0}^{1}\binom{n}{y}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}d\theta}$$
$$= \frac{1}{Z}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}$$

Normalization term Z (constant given y)

$$Z = p(y|n) = \int_0^1 \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y} d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}{\Gamma(n+2)}$$

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• Evaluate with y = 6, n = 10y<-6;n<-10;

```
integrate(function(theta) theta^y*(1-theta)^(n-y), 0, 1) \approx 0.0004329 gamma(6+1)*gamma(10-6+1)/gamma(10+2) \approx 0.0004329
```

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- Normalization term in closed form is not in general available
  - later you learn approximate integration methods that work without knowing the normalization term

Posterior is

$$p(\theta|y,n) = \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)} \frac{\theta^{y}}{(1-\theta)^{n-y}},$$

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$$p(\theta|y,n) = \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)} \theta^{y} (1-\theta)^{n-y},$$

which is called Beta distribution

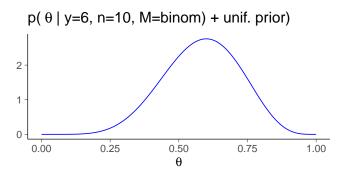
$$\theta | y, n \sim \text{Beta}(y+1, n-y+1)$$

# Binomial: computation

- R
  - density dbeta
  - CDF pbeta
  - quantile qbeta
  - random number rbeta
- Python
  - from scipy.stats import beta
  - density beta.pdf
  - CDF beta.cdf
  - quantile beta.ppf
  - random number beta.rvs

## Binomial: computation

- Beta CDF not trivial to compute
- For example, pbeta in R uses a continued fraction with weighting factors and asymptotic expansion
- Laplace developed normal approximation (Laplace approximation, BDA3 Ch 4), because he didn't know how to compute Beta CDF

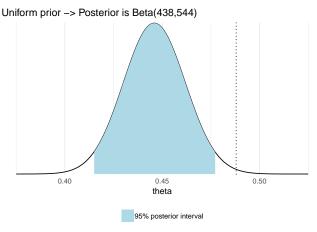


## Placenta previa

- Probability of a girl birth given placenta previa (BDA3 p. 37)
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Extreme cases

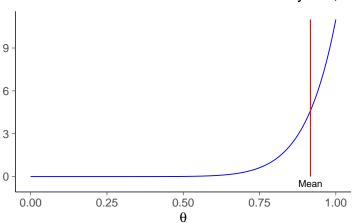
$$p(\tilde{y} = 1 | y = 0, n, M) = \frac{1}{n+2}$$
$$p(\tilde{y} = 1 | y = n, n, M) = \frac{n+1}{n+2}$$

cf. maximum likelihood

# Benefits of integration

Example: n = 10, y = 10

Posterior of  $\theta$  of Binomial model with y=10, n=



### Predictive distribution

• Prior predictive distribution for new  $\tilde{y}$  (discrete)

$$p(\tilde{y} = 1|M) = \int_0^1 p(\tilde{y} = 1|\theta, M) p(\theta|M) d\theta$$

• Posterior predictive distribution for new  $\tilde{y}$  (discrete)

$$p(\tilde{y} = 1|y, n, M) = \int_0^1 p(\tilde{y} = 1|\theta, y, n, M) p(\theta|y, n, M) d\theta$$

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  - tell your guess to the next one

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- Posterior predictive distribution for  $\tilde{l}$  is Beta-Binomial  $(\tilde{l}|N-n,\alpha+l,\beta+r) = \int_0^1 \text{Bin}(\tilde{l}|N-n,\theta) \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha+l,\beta+r)d\theta$

# Justification for uniform prior

- $p(\theta|M) = 1$  if
  - 1) we want the prior predictive distribution to be uniform

$$p(y|n, M) = \frac{1}{n+1}, \quad y = 0, \dots, n$$

nice justification as it is based on observables y and n

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- nice justification as it is based on observables y and n
- 2) we think all values of  $\theta$  are equally likely

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• Demo: https://handedness.streamlit.app

#### **Priors**

- Conjugate prior (BDA3 p. 35)
- Noninformative prior (BDA3 p. 51)
- Proper and improper prior (BDA3 p. 52)
- Weakly informative prior (BDA3 p. 55)
- Informative prior (BDA3 p. 55)
- Prior sensitivity (BDA3 p. 38)

### Conjugate prior

- Prior and posterior have the same form
  - only for exponential family distributions (plus for some irregular cases)
- Used to be important for computational reasons, and still sometimes used for special models to allow partial analytic marginalization (Ch 3)
  - with Hamiltonian Monte Carlo / NUTS used e.g. in Stan no computational benefit

Prior

Beta
$$(\theta | \alpha, \beta) \propto \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$

Posterior

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) \propto \theta^{y} (1 - \theta)^{n-y} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1}$$

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Posterior

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$$\propto \theta^{y + \alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{n - y + \beta - 1}$$

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$$\propto \theta^{y + \alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{n - y + \beta - 1}$$

after normalization

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

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Posterior

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) \propto \theta^{y} (1 - \theta)^{n - y} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$
$$\propto \theta^{y + \alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{n - y + \beta - 1}$$

after normalization

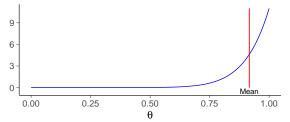
$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

- $(\alpha 1)$  and  $(\beta 1)$  can be considered to be the number of prior observations
- Uniform prior when  $\alpha = 1$  and  $\beta = 1$

# Benefits of integration and prior

Example: n = 10, y = 10 - uniform vs Beta(2,2) prior

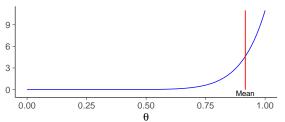
p(
$$\theta \mid y=10, n=10, M=binom) + unif. prior$$

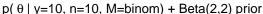


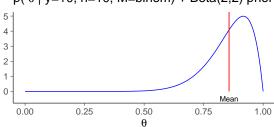
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Posterior

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

Posterior mean

$$E[\theta|y] = \frac{\alpha + y}{\alpha + \beta + n}$$

- combination prior and likelihood information
- when  $n \to \infty$ ,  $E[\theta|y] \to y/n$

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- when  $n \to \infty$ ,  $E[\theta|y] \to y/n$
- Posterior variance

$$Var[\theta|y] = \frac{E[\theta|y](1 - E[\theta|y])}{\alpha + \beta + n + 1}$$

- decreases when n increases
- when  $n \to \infty$ ,  $Var[\theta|y] \to 0$

### Noninformative prior, proper and improper prior

- Vague, flat, diffuse, or noninformative
  - try to "to let the data speak for themselves"
  - flat is not non-informative
  - flat can be stupid
  - making prior flat somewhere can make it non-flat somewhere else
- Proper prior has  $\int p(\theta) = 1$
- Improper prior density doesn't have a finite integral
  - the posterior can still sometimes be proper

### Weakly informative priors

- Weakly informative priors produce computationally better behaving posteriors
  - quite often there's at least some knowledge about the scale
  - useful also if there's more information from previous observations, but not certain how well that information is applicable in a new case uncertainty

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#### Construction

- Start with some version of a noninformative prior distribution and then add enough information so that inferences are constrained to be reasonable.
- Start with a strong, highly informative prior and broaden it to account for uncertainty in one's prior beliefs and in the applicability of any historically based prior distribution to new data.
- Stan team prior choice recommendations https://github.com/ stan-dev/stan/wiki/Prior-Choice-Recommendations

### Informative prior for left handedness

- Papadatou-Pastou et al. (2020). Human handedness: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 146(6), 481–524. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000229
  - totaling 2 396 170 individuals
  - varies between 9.3% and 18.1%, depending on how handedness is measured
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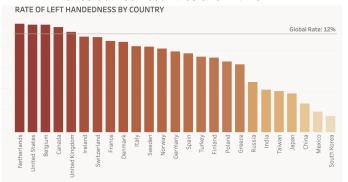


Fig from https://www.reddit.com/r/dataisbeautiful/comments/s9x1ya/history\_of\_lefthandedness\_oc/

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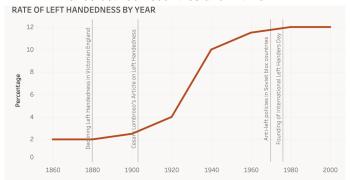
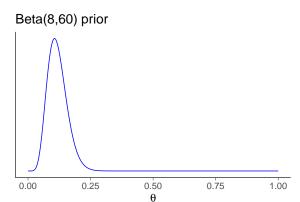


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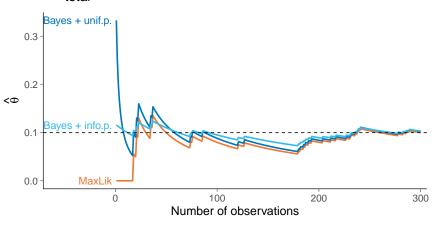


#### Left handedness

- What we know and don't know
  - N = L + R is the total number of students in the lecture hall, N is known in the beginning
    - L and R are the number of left and right handed students, not known before we start asking
  - n = l + r is the number of students we have asked
    - I and r are the numbers of left and right handed students from the students we asked
    - we also know that  $l \le L \le (N-r)$  and  $r \le R \le (N-l)$
- After observing n students with l left handed, what we know about L?
  - We define  $L = l + \tilde{l}$ , where  $\tilde{l}$  is the unobserved number of left handed students among those who we did not yet ask
  - We know l, r, and N, and want to predict  $\tilde{l}$  and L
- Posterior distribution for  $\theta$  is Beta $(\alpha + l, \beta + r)$
- Posterior predictive distribution for  $\tilde{l}$  is Beta-Binomial  $(\tilde{l}|N-n, \alpha+l, \beta+r)=$ 
  - $\int_0^1 \operatorname{Bin}(\tilde{l}|N-n,\theta) \operatorname{Beta}(\theta|\alpha+l,\beta+r)d\theta$
- Demo: https://handedness.streamlit.app

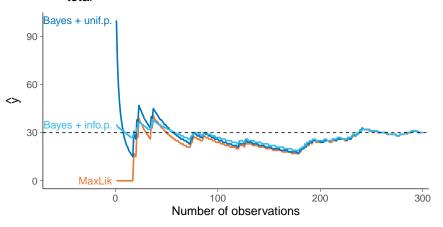
### Benefits of integration and prior

• Left handed simulation with L=30 left handed and N=300 total



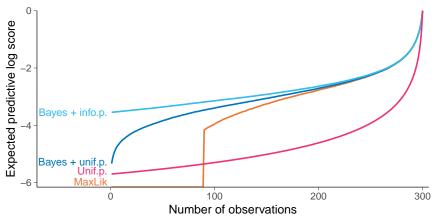
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### Benefits of integration and prior

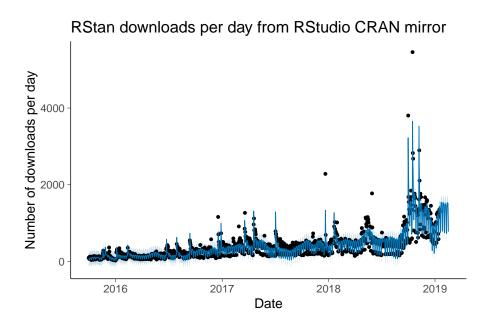
- Left handed simulation with true  $\theta = 0.1$  and N = 300
  - repeated 10 000 times
  - average log predictive probability for guessing L after n ≤ N observations



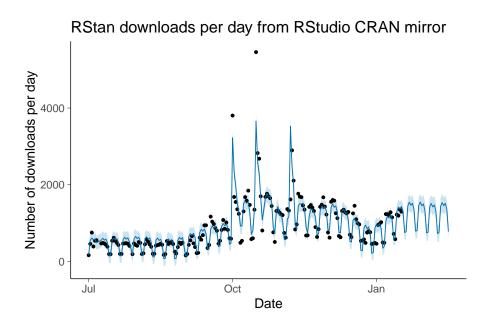
### Effect of incorrect priors?

- Introduce bias, but often still produce smaller estimation error because the variance is reduced
  - bias-variance tradeoff

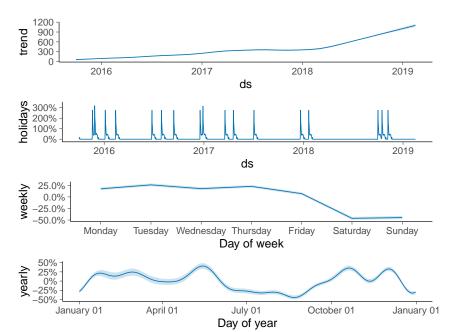
### Structural information in predicting future



### Structural information in predicting future



## Structural information – Prophet by Facebook



#### Binomial: unknown $\theta$

Sometimes conditioning on the model M is explicitly shown

• Posterior with Bayes rule (function of  $\theta$ , continuous)

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{n},\boldsymbol{M}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta},\boldsymbol{n},\boldsymbol{M})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{n},\boldsymbol{M})}{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{n},\boldsymbol{M})}$$

where 
$$p(y|n, M) = \int p(y|\theta, n, M)p(\theta|n, M)d\theta$$

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- makes it more clear that likelihood and prior are both part of the model
- makes it more clear that there is no absolute probability for p(y|n), but it depends on the model M
- in case of two models, we can evaluate marginal likelihoods  $p(y|n, M_1)$  and  $p(y|n, M_2)$  (more in Ch 7)

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- usually dropped to make the notation more concise

#### Sufficient statistics

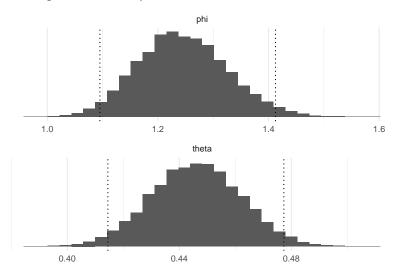
 The quantity t(y) is said to be a sufficient statistic for θ, because the likelihood for θ depends on the data y only through the value of t(y).

#### Sufficient statistics

- The quantity t(y) is said to be a *sufficient statistic* for  $\theta$ , because the likelihood for  $\theta$  depends on the data y only through the value of t(y).
- For binomial model the sufficient statistics are y and n (the order doesn't matter)

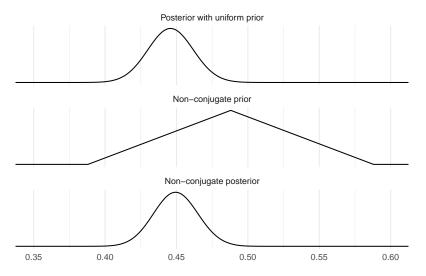
#### Posterior visualization and inference demos

• demo2\_3: Simulate samples from Beta(438,544), and draw a histogram of  $\theta$  with quantiles.



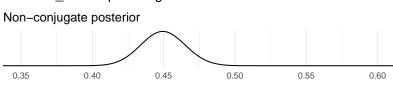
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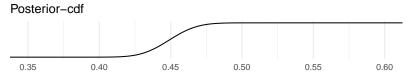
demo2\_4: Compute posterior distribution in a grid.

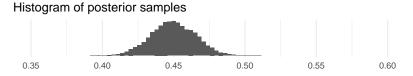


#### Posterior visualization and inference demos

demo2\_4: Sample using the inverse-cdf method.







## Algae

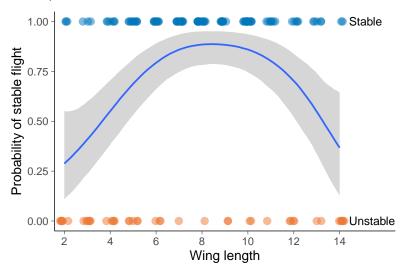
#### Assignment

Algae status is monitored in 274 sites at Finnish lakes and rivers. The observations for the 2008 algae status at each site are presented in file algae.(rda|txt) ('0': no algae, '1': algae present). Let  $\theta$  be the probability of a monitoring site having detectable blue-green algae levels.

- Use a binomial model for observations and a Beta(2, 10) prior.
- What can you say about the value of the unknown  $\theta$ ?
- Experiment how the result changes if you change the prior.

### Binomial model with $\theta = f(x)$

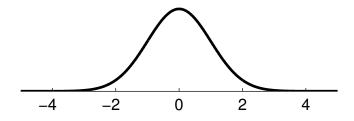
• Next week you learn how the binomial model parameter  $\theta$  can depend on some other measurement x



#### Normal / Gaussian

- Observations y real valued
- Mean  $\theta$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  (or deviation  $\sigma$ )
  This week assume  $\sigma^2$  known (preparing for the next week)

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\mathbf{y} - \theta)^2\right)$$
$$\mathbf{y} \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2)$$



#### Reasons to use Normal distribution

- Normal distribution often justified based on central limit theorem
- More often used due to the computational convenience or tradition

#### Central limit theorem\*

- De Moivre, Laplace, Gauss, Chebysev, Liapounov, Markov, et al.
- Given certain conditions, distribution of sum (and mean) of random variables approach Gaussian distribution as  $n \to \infty$
- Problems
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  - does not hold for distributions with infinite variance, e.g., Cauchy
  - may require large n,
     e.g. Binomial, when θ close to 0 or 1
  - does not hold if one the variables has much larger scale

• Assume  $\sigma^2$  known

Likelihood 
$$p(y|\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\theta)^2\right)$$

Prior 
$$p(\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_0^2}(\theta - \mu_0)^2\right)$$

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Posterior 
$$p(\theta|y) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(y-\theta)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\theta-\mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2}\right]\right)$$

Posterior (highly recommended to do BDA 3 Ex 2.14a)

$$p(\theta|y) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{(y-\theta)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\theta-\mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2} \right] \right)$$
$$\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_1^2} (\theta-\mu_1)^2\right)$$

$$\theta | y \sim N(\mu_1, \tau_1^2), \text{ where } \mu_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} \mu_0 + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} y}{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2}} \text{ and } \frac{1}{\tau_1^2} = \frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$

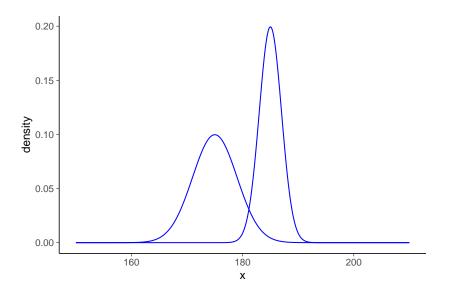
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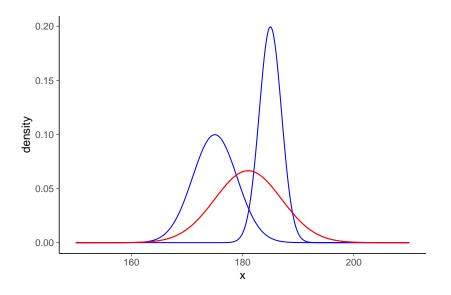
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- 1/variance = precision
- Posterior precision = prior precision + data precision
- Posterior mean is precision weighted mean

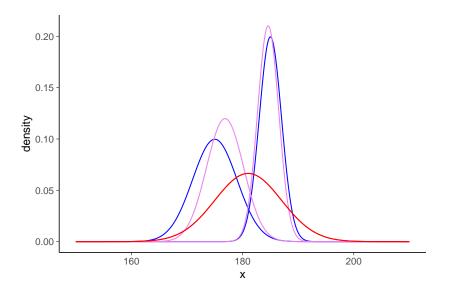
## Normal distribution - example



# Normal distribution - example



# Normal distribution - example



Several observations – use chain rule

• Several observations  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ 

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_n, \boldsymbol{\tau}_n^2)$$

where 
$$\mu_n = \frac{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} \mu_0 + \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \bar{y}}{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}}$$
 ja  $\frac{1}{\tau_n^2} = \frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}$ 

• If  $\tau_0^2 = \sigma^2$ , prior corresponds to one virtual observation with value  $\mu_0$ 

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- If  $\tau_0^2 = \sigma^2$ , prior corresponds to one virtual observation with value  $\mu_0$
- If τ<sub>0</sub> → ∞ when n fixed or if n → ∞ when τ<sub>0</sub> fixed

$$p(\theta|y) \approx N(\theta|\bar{y}, \sigma^2/n)$$

Posterior predictive distribution

$$\begin{split} p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}|y) &= \int p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}|\theta) p(\theta|y) d\theta \\ p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}|y) &\propto \int \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\tilde{\mathbf{y}}-\theta)^2\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_1^2}(\theta-\mu_1)^2\right) d\theta \end{split}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}|\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{N}(\mu_1, \sigma^2 + \tau_1^2)$$

• Predictive variance = observation model variance  $\sigma^2$  + posterior variance  $\tau_1^2$ 

### Normal model

- Gets more interesting when both mean and variance are unknown
  - next week

#### Normal model

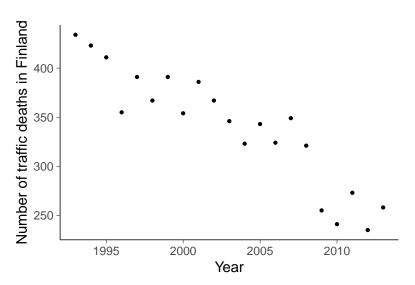
- Gets more interesting when both mean and variance are unknown
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- The mean can be also a function of covariates
  - e.g. normal linear regression  $y \sim N(\alpha + \beta x, \sigma^2)$

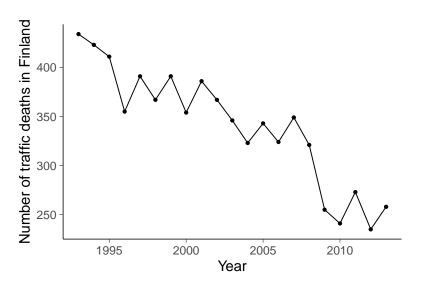
#### Normal model

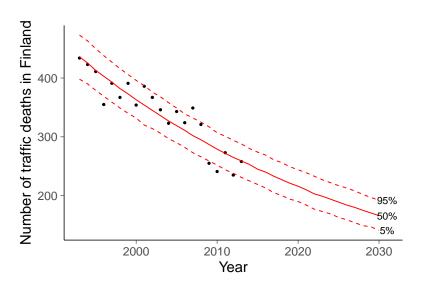
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- Gaussian processes, Kalman filters, variational inference, Laplace approximaion, etc.

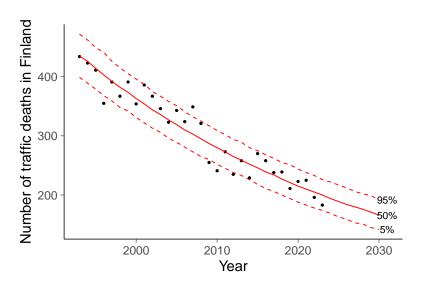
### Some other one parameter models

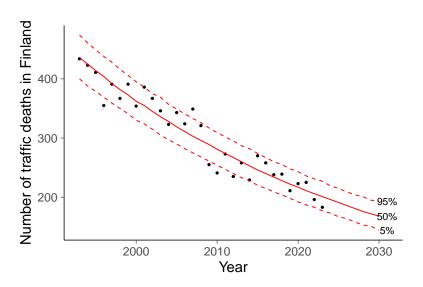
- Poisson, useful for count data (e.g. in epidemiology)
- Exponential, useful for time to an event (e.g. particle decay)











### Thinking priors

- Make a guess of some quantities and then find out useful prior information for that. E.g.
  - proportion of students using MS Windows vs. Apple macOS vs. Linux
  - proportion of students who are longer than 1.9m
  - proportion of students, who submitted the first assignment, attending the next lecture
  - proportion of students, who submitted the first assignment, submitting the last assignment