Bayesian Data Analysis

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About

This is an independent study of the text **Bayesian Data Analysis** by Andrew Gelman and the more introductory text **A First Course In Bayesian Statistical Methods** by Peter D. Hoff. We will read through most of the chapters and typeset the major definitions. The Gelman text can be difficult, and for difficult chapters, we will lean more on the Hoff textbook.

Independent study

We will typeset each chapter of the Gelman text book, unless the chapter is too difficult, then we will use the introductory text **A First Course In Bayesian Statistical Methods** by Hoff. Each chapter will summarize the definitions, and attempt several problems selected.

Supervised learning

Dr. Paul Marjoram will supervise the learning and have a general oversight to the learning process.

6 CONTENTS

Fundamentals of Bayesian Inference

The first few chapters of Gelman's text are introductory, and we attempt to highlight the key definitions and summarize each chapter. At the end of each chapter we attempt several problems. Probability and inference is defined using three steps

- 1. setting up the full probability model for a joint distribution for all observable and unobservable quantities.
- 2. Conditioning on observed data: computing the appropriate *posterior* distribution, the conditional probability distribution of the unobserved quantities of oltimate interest, given the observed data.
- 3. Evaluating the fit of the model.

1.1 General notation for statistical inference

There are two different kinds of estimands, the first are potentially observable quantities, such as future observations of a process, and the second are quantities that are not directly observable, namely the parameters that govern a process being investigated.

Exchangeability

One key assumption is that the n values y_i are regarded as exchangeable, meaning that the uncertainty can be expressed as a joint probability $p(y_1, ..., y_n)$ that is invariant to permutations of indexes. Often times the exchangeable distribution is modeled as iid.

Explanatory variables

It is common to have observations on each unit which have non-random variables called explanatory variables or covariates. The explanatory variables are usually denoted by X. However treating X as random then exchangeability can be extended $(x,y)_i$ which is invariant to permutations of the indexes. Further, it is always appropriate to assume exchangeability of y, conditioned on sufficient information of X, where the indexes can be thought of as randomly assigned. It follows that if two units have the same value of x, then the distributions of y are the same.

Hierarchical modeling

for a model across patients across different cities, we can assume exchangability to patients within a city. Further conditioned on the explanatory variables at the individual, the conditional distribution given these explanatory variables would be exchangeable.

1.2 Bayesian inference

The prior, $p(\theta)$, and the sampling distribution, or the data distribution, $p(y|\theta)$ is

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

Where using Bayes' rule the posterior distribution

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(\theta)p(y|\theta)}{p(y)} \tag{1.1}$$

Where $p(y) = \int p(\theta)p(y|\theta)d\theta$, or a sum in discrete case. An equivalent form of (1.1) is the unnormalized posterior density given as

$$p(\theta|y) \propto p(\theta)p(y|\theta)$$
 (1.2)

Note that $p(y|\theta)$ is taken as a function of θ , not of y.

Prediction

Inferences about an unknown *observable* variable, are called predictive inferences. Beofre the data y are considered, the distribution of the unknown, observable, y is

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

this is defined as the marginal distribution of y, and also called *prior predictive distribution*. Prior refers that the data is not conditional on any previous observation, and predictive refers to the data being observable.

The posterior predictive distribution is conditional on the observed y, but is predictive because it is predicting observable values.

$$p(\hat{y}|y) = \int p(\hat{y}, \theta|y)d\theta$$

$$= \int p(\hat{y}|\theta, y)p(\theta|y)d\theta$$

$$= \int p(\hat{y}|\theta)p(\theta|y)d\theta$$
(1.3)

Likelihood

The data y affects the posterior inference only through (1.2) likelihood function $p(y|\theta)$ which is regarded as a function of θ for fixed y. The *likelihood function* is defined as $p(y|\theta)$, and the *likelihood principle* is for any given sample, and any two likelihood models $p(y|\theta)$, two models with the same likelihood will have the same inference for θ .

Subjectivity and Objectivity

The frequentist models, MLEs, have subjectivity in their assumptions because they rely on long sequence of identical trials, that are iid. The Bayesian model relies on the prior distribution. If any experiment is repeatable and can replicated, the the prior distribution can be estimated from the data themselves and the analysis is more 'objective'. Replication increases objectivity of a given model. However the Bayesian approach allows for (1) the ability to combine information from multiple sources (allowing for greater objectivity) and (2) more encompassing by accounting for uncertainity about the unknowns in a statistical problem.

It is important to include as much background information as possible

1.3 Exercises

```
1. Suppose for \theta=1, then y \sim N(1,\sigma), and if \theta=2, y \sim N(2,\sigma). Where P(\theta=1)=P(\theta=2)=0.5.
```

```
(a) For \sigma=2; we must write the formula for the pdf of y. p(y)=\sum_{\theta}p(y|\theta)p(\theta)=(1/2)N(1,\sigma^2)+(1/2)N(2,\sigma^2) as the marginal density.
```

```
fy \leftarrow function(y) \{return(0.5*dnorm(y, mean=1, sd=2)+0.5*dnorm(y, 2, sd=2))\}
```

```
(b) P(\theta=1 | y=1) = \frac{p(\theta=1)p(y|\theta=1)}{p(y)} = \frac{(1/2)N(1,4)}{(1/2)}
```

```
dy<-function(y){ return( (1/2)*dnorm(y,mean=1,sd=2)/fy(y))}
dy(1)</pre>
```

[1] 0.5312094

- 4. twelve games with point spread of 8 points.
 - (a) Using relative frequency, P(favorite wins | point spread =8) = 0.67. P(favorite wins by at least 8 | point spread =8) = 0.42. and P(fav. wins by at least 8 | spread =8, favorite team wins) = 0.62.

```
## outcome of the games favor score - underdog score
games<-c(-7,-5,-3,-3,1,6,7,13,15,16,20,21)
## frequentist approach
fav.wins<- mean(games>0)
message(paste0("(frequentist): fav wins: ", round(fav.wins,2)))

## (frequentist): fav wins: 0.67

fav.by.8<- mean((games>8))
message(paste0("(frequentist): fav wins by 8: ", round(fav.by.8,2)))

## (frequentist): fav wins by 8: 0.42

## P( fav. wins >8 | fav. wins) = P(fav. wins > 8, fav. wins) / P(fav. wins)
cond<-sum(games>8 & games>0)/sum(games>0)
c<-fav.by.8/fav.wins
message(paste0("(frequentist): fav wins by 8 given fav. wins: ", round(cond,2)))</pre>
```

```
## (frequentist): fav wins by 8 given fav. wins: 0.62
```

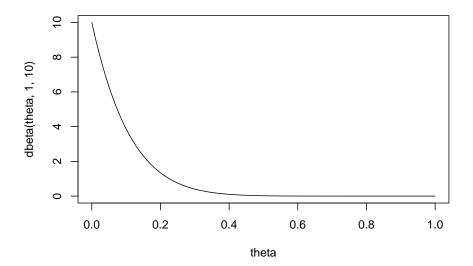
- (b) now we assume a normal distribution with $d|x \sim N(-1.25, 10.10)$. So $P(d>-x)=P(Z\sigma+\mu>-x)=P(Z>-x-\mu/\sigma)$
- (c) Probablity fav team wins is 0.75
- (ii) fav team wins by 8 (beats the spread) is 0.45, we expect this to be 0.5 (the middle of the normal distribution because we centered on the spread)
- (iii) P(wins by 8 | favorite team wins) = P(favorite team wins | wins by 8)P(wins by 8)/P(favorite team wins) = P(wins by 8)/P(fav. team wins) since the conditional prob. =1 given the favorite team wins. The prob. that they win by at least 8 is 0.6.

```
## part b
  d<-games-8
  sample.mean <-mean(d)</pre>
  sample.sd < -sd(d)
  ## assume d/x \sim N(0,10.10)
  fav.wins.norm<- 1-pnorm(-8,mean=sample.mean,sd=sample.sd)
   message(paste0("(normal): fav wins: ", round(fav.wins.norm,2)))
## (normal): fav wins: 0.75
  fav.by.8.norm<-1-pnorm(0,mean=sample.mean,sd=sample.sd)</pre>
    message(paste0("(normal): fav wins by 8: ", round(fav.by.8.norm,2)))
## (normal): fav wins by 8: 0.45
## Pr(Wins by 8 | Fav. wins) = P(Fav. wins | wins by 8)P(wins by 8) / P(fav. wins)
    ## P(Fav. wins | wins by 8) = 1
  cond.norm<-fav.by.8.norm/fav.wins.norm</pre>
   message(paste0("(normal): fav wins by 8 given fav. wins: ", round(cond.norm,2)))
## (normal): fav wins by 8 given fav. wins: 0.6
```

- 5. We need to estimate the probability that there is at least one congressional election that is tied in the next U.S. election. There are 435 senate elections.
 - (a) The parameters of interest are θ_i the true probability that the election is tied. We can let the $prior\ \theta \sim Beta(\alpha,\beta)$. The likelihood is $y|\theta_i \sim Binomial(435,\theta_i) = \theta^{\sum y_i}(1-\theta)^{435-\sum y_i}$ follows a Binomial distribution (ignoring the binomial coefficient) where we assume each election is independent. Hence the posterior for theta

 $f(\theta|y) \sim Beta(\sum y_i + \alpha, n - \sum y_i + \beta)$. where α, β are set to 1 for the uniform prior. For this case we set α, β equal to 1, 10 which has a prior mean of 0.09.

```
theta=seq(from=0,to=1,by=.01)
plot(theta,dbeta(theta,1,10),type='l')
```



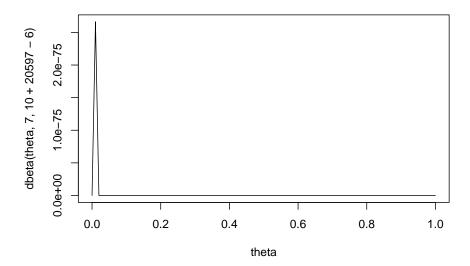
(b) In the period of 1900-1992, there were 20,597 elections, out of which 6 were decided by less than 10 votes, and 49 were decided by less than 100 votes

we can estimate the probability of a tie to be less than 6/20,597 and bounded by 49/20,597. So for the Binomial trials the sum of the successes is 6, and n=20,597, so the posterior could be $\theta|y\sim Beta(1+6,10+20,597-6)$ is the posterior for θ . This assumes that 10 votes is within the neighborhood of an election tie.

The question asks to compute at least one election tie, from a total of 435 elections. This follows a Binomial(435, $\hat{\theta}$). Where we use the posterior mean to estimate θ . The posterior mean using the Beta(7,20601) yields a mean of $\hat{\theta} = \frac{7}{20608} = 3.4e - 04$ as the posterior mean.

Then the probability that at least 1 election is tied, from 435 total elections will follow a Binomial (435, $\hat{\theta}$), where we can use the posterior distribution for $\theta|y$ in the Binomial likelihood $P(X \ge 1|\hat{\theta}) = 1 - P(X \le 0|\hat{\theta})$ which has a probability of 0.14 of at least 1 election tie.

```
# the posterior for theta is Beta(1+6,10+20597-6)
plot(theta,dbeta(theta,7,10+20597-6),type='1')
```



```
## posterior mean is 7/(20601)
## then P(X>=1) = 1-P(X<=0 | p)
1-pbinom(0,435,prob=7/20608)</pre>
```

[1] 0.1373819

- 9. A clinic has three doctors. Patients come into the clinic at random, starting at 9 a.m. according to a Poisson process, with a time parameter, t, of 10 minutes; that is after opening the first patient appears follows an exponential distribution with average waiting time of 10 minutes. Then the next patient arrives with a waiting time of an expected 10 minutes as iid exponential distribution. After a patient arrives, the patient waits until a doctor is available, and the doctor visits a patient uniformly between 5-20 minutes. The clinic stops admitting patients at 4 pm, and closes after the last patient is completed with the visit.
 - (a) Simulate this process once. how many patients visited the office? how many had to wait for a doctor? what was the average wait? when did office close?

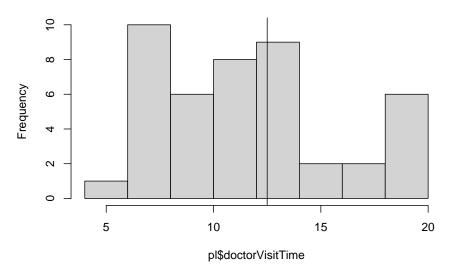
```
### waiting time for a new patient to arrive in the clinic
# patientList is the data frame of all patients
# closeTime is the time to stop admitting (420 minutes)
# currentPatient Number
# current time is the running total of time
 newPatientArrival<-function(patientList,</pre>
                            closeTime=timeToClose,
                             waitTime,
                            visitTime,
                            currentPatientNumber=0,
                            currentTime,
                            assignedDoctor="none",
                            completionTime=0){
   # waiting time for next patient
    patientTime<-round(rexp(1,rate=1/10),2)</pre>
   # current time of existing patients
    current<-max(patientList$currentTime)</pre>
  ## the clinic stops admitting patients at 4pm
  if( (current+patientTime) <= closeTime) {</pre>
    ## in minutes
  newPatient<-createPatientChart(currentPatientNumber,patientTime,waitTime,visitTime,
   newPatient<-createPatientChart(currentPatientNumber,patientTime,waitTime,visitTime
  return(newPatient)
####################
computeWaitTime<-function(doctors=NULL,</pre>
                          patientList=NULL,
                          patientID=1){
  ## need to compute visiting time (booked)
  ## next time available
  ## required input current time for a specific doctor/patient ?
  # patient time (minutes)
  ## FIX ME: it is grabbing 2 patient IDs?
  currentTime<-patientList$currentTime[which(patientList$patient==patientID)]</pre>
  visitTime<-runif(1,min=5,max=20) ## minutes</pre>
  if(any(doctors$nextTimeAvail<currentTime)){</pre>
```

```
waitTime=0
    assignedDr<-sample(doctors$dr[which(doctors$nextTimeAvail<currentTime)],1)
    ### current time + visitTime
    nextAvailTime<- visitTime+currentTime+waitTime
    ## completion time for patient exit (closing time).
 }else if(any(doctors$nextTimeAvail<currentTime)==FALSE){</pre>
    # all doctors are booked, no available doctors.
    # wait time is the difference between next available time (assuming all times are greater the
    waitTime<-min(doctors$nextTimeAvail-currentTime)</pre>
    assignedDr<-doctors$dr[which( (doctors$nextTimeAvail-currentTime) == min(doctors$nextTimeAvail
      if(length(assignedDr)>1){
        assignedDr<-assignedDr[1]
   nextAvailTime<- visitTime+currentTime+waitTime ## completion time for patient to exit
   }## if all doctors unavail
   #print(assignedDr)
   #print(currentTime)
   ## update doctor list
    doctors[which(doctors$dr==assignedDr),'visitingPatient']<-patientID</pre>
    doctors[which(doctors$dr==assignedDr), 'nextTimeAvail'] <-nextAvailTime</pre>
    doctors[which(doctors$dr==assignedDr),'currentTime']<-currentTime ## patient time
    doctors[which(doctors$dr==assignedDr),'visitTimeLength']<-visitTime</pre>
    # flag avail to no.
    doctors[which(doctors$dr==assignedDr), 'avail']<-'no'</pre>
    ## update patient list
    patientList[which(patientList$patient==patientID), 'doctorWaitTime'] <- waitTime</pre>
    patientList[which(patientList$patient==patientID),'doctorVisitTime']<-visitTime</pre>
    patientList[which(patientList$patient==patientID), 'assignedDoctor'] <- assignedDr</pre>
    patientList[which(patientList$patient==patientID), 'completionTime'] <-nextAvailTime</pre>
 return(list(patient=patientList, doctor=doctors))
## creates a patient object
createPatientChart<-function(currentPatientNumber,arrivalTime,waitTime,visitTime,currentTime,ass</pre>
 patientID<-data.frame(patient=currentPatientNumber+1,</pre>
                         arrivalTime=arrivalTime,
                         doctorWaitTime=waitTime,
                         doctorVisitTime=visitTime,
                         currentTime=currentTime,
                         assignedDoctor=assignedDoctor,
                         completionTime=0)
 return(patientID)
}
```

```
updatePatientList<-function(patientList,patientID){
   patientList<-rbind(patientList,patientID)</pre>
   return(patientList)
 }
updateTime<-function(currentTime, newTime=NULL, p1){
 p1$currentTime<-currentTime+newTime
 return(p1)
 totalPatients<-0
## this is the simulation
## first task : loop through the time update for patients
 ## second task : include the doctor assignment query.
simulateProcess<-function(doctors=NULL,
                           totalWait=NULL,
                           totalPatients=0,
                           timeToClose=420,
                           currentTime=NULL) {
  ## initiate Patient List
 patientList<-data.frame(patient=0,</pre>
                          arrivalTime=0,
                         doctorWaitTime=0,
                         doctorVisitTime=0,
                          currentTime=0,
                          assignedDoctor='none',
                          completionTime=0)
 ## not sure what to put here.
 currentTime<-patientList$currentTime[which(patientList$patient==max(patientList$patient)
 currentPatientNumber<-0
 ## timeToClose (minutes) is stopping to admit patients
 while(currentTime<timeToClose){</pre>
    ## patient enters after the (i-1) patient enters.
    p1<-newPatientArrival(patientList,</pre>
                              closeTime=timeToClose,
                           waitTime=0,
                           visitTime=0,
                              currentPatientNumber=currentPatientNumber,
                              currentTime)
    ## update time
    p1<-updateTime(p1$currentTime, newTime=p1$arrivalTime, p1)
    # given a patient time, switch the availability of any doctor
    # if a doctors next available time is less than the current time, switch him to av
    ## FIX ME: need to ensure this flag is correct.
```

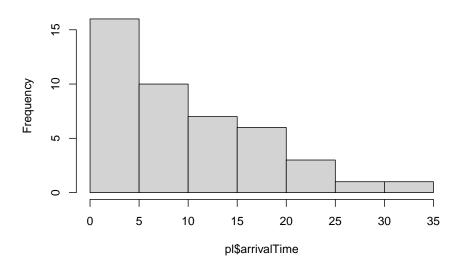
```
if(any(doctors$nextTimeAvail<p1$currentTime)){</pre>
      doctors$avail[which(doctors$nextTimeAvail<p1$currentTime)]<-'yes'</pre>
   }
    ## create a patient list
    if(currentPatientNumber==0){
      patientList<-p1
     # update patient number
      currentPatientNumber<-currentPatientNumber+1</pre>
    }else{
      patientList<-rbind(patientList,p1)</pre>
     # update patient number
      currentPatientNumber<-currentPatientNumber+1</pre>
    ## task 2 assign a doctor
     ### check for doctor availability
     ## compute wait time, and/or compute the next available time
     ## returns a list object.
    clinicList<-computeWaitTime(doctors,patientList,patientID=patientList$patient[currentPatient]
   doctors<-clinicList[["doctor"]]</pre>
   patientList<-clinicList[["patient"]]</pre>
   ## update flags
     # update currentTime
    ## current time is cumulative sum of the arrival times.
   currentTime<-patientList$currentTime[which(patientList$patient==max(patientList$patient))] ##
   ## fix me:
   ## reset doctor availability based on current patient time.
   upID<-which(doctors$nextTimeAvail<currentTime)</pre>
   doctors$nextTimeAvail[upID]<-currentTime</pre>
   doctors$currentTime[upID]<-currentTime</pre>
   doctors$visitTimeLength[upID]<-0</pre>
 }## while loop
 return(list(patient=patientList,doctors=doctors))
 doctors<-data.frame(dr=c('a','b','c'),</pre>
                      visitingPatient=c(0,0,0), ## who is doctor seeing (patient ID)
                      visitTimeLength=c(0,0,0), # length of doctor visit U(5,20)
                      currentTime=c(0,0,0), ## current Time
                      nextTimeAvail=c(0,0,0), ## current time + visitTimeLength = next avail time
                      avail=c("yes","yes","yes"))
## initiate times
```

Histogram of pl\$doctorVisitTime



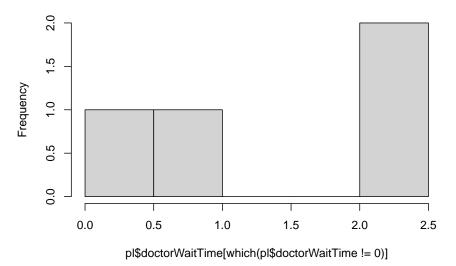
hist(pl\$arrivalTime) ## should be close to 10 exp(1/10) has mean 10

Histogram of pl\$arrivalTime



hist(pl\$doctorWaitTime[which(pl\$doctorWaitTime!=0)]) ## about 2.41

Histogram of pl\$doctorWaitTime[which(pl\$doctorWaitTime != 0)]



```
print(max(pl$completionTime)-420) ## closing time

## [1] 14.23636

print(max(pl$patient)) ## total patient should be 42

## [1] 44

## (20-5)/6 + 10 this is about 12.5 minutes of arrival + visit time. which is approxim
## the arrival time is about 10 minutes.

## we should expect 42 patients
##20/10

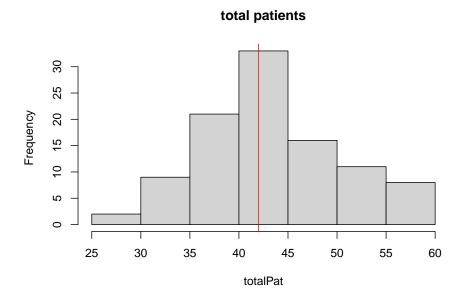
## sanity check
#all(pl$currentTime+pl$doctorWaitTime+pl$doctorVisitTime-pl$completionTime==0)
```

Simulation 100 times

total number of patients was approximately 42, which we expect since the total 420/10. The total number waiting with 3 doctors is 6.61 for 1 day. the average waiting time was about 4-5 minutes. For 1 day, the average closing time was 5.32 minutes after 4 pm

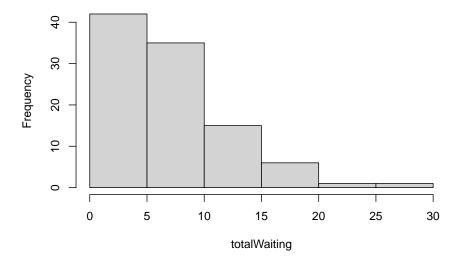
```
totalPat<-NULL
totalWaiting<-NULL
avgWaiting<-NULL
closing <- NULL
patientList<-NULL
p1<-NULL
for(i in 1:100){
doctors<-data.frame(dr=c('a','b','c'),</pre>
                     visitingPatient=c(0,0,0), ## who is doctor seeing (patient ID)
                     visitTimeLength=c(0,0,0), # length of doctor visit U(5,20)
                     currentTime=c(0,0,0),
                                              ## current Time
                     nextTimeAvail=c(0,0,0), ## current time + visitTimeLength = next
                     avail=c("yes","yes","yes"))
## initiate times
totalWait<-0
totalPatients<-0
```

```
currentPatientNumber<-0</pre>
 ## clinic opens at 9am -4pm that is 7 hours (420 min.)
timeToClose<-7*60 ## stops admiting patienets in 420 minutes
 ## current time is 0
 ## this will be the running total of minutes.
 currentTime<-0</pre>
res<-simulateProcess(doctors,</pre>
                           totalWait,
                           totalPatients,
                           timeToClose,
                           currentTime)
pl<-res$patient[which(res$patient$currentTime<=420),]</pre>
 totalPat<-c(totalPat,max(pl$patient))</pre>
  totalWaiting<-c(totalWaiting,nrow(pl[which(pl$doctorWaitTime!=0),]))</pre>
 avgWaiting<-c(avgWaiting,mean(pl[which(pl$doctorWaitTime!=0),"doctorWaitTime"]))
 closing<-c(closing,max(pl$completionTime))</pre>
}
hist(totalPat,main="total patients")
 abline(v=420/10,col='red')
```



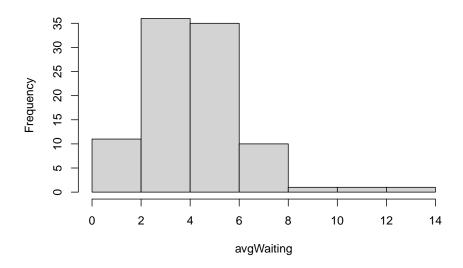
hist(totalWaiting,main="total number waiting")

total number waiting



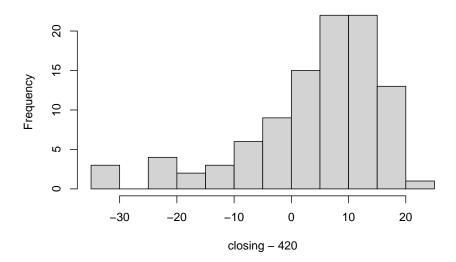
hist(avgWaiting, main="avg. waiting (min)")

avg. waiting (min)



hist(closing-420, main="closing time")

closing time



Single parameter models

2.1 Estimating a probability from binomial data

$$p(y|\theta) = \binom{n}{y} \theta^y (1-\theta)^{n-y} \tag{2.1}$$

To perform Bayesian inference we assume $\theta \sim U(0,1)$ where the posterior is

$$p(\theta|y) \propto \theta^y (1-\theta)^{n-y} \tag{2.2}$$

which is the form of a beta distribution $\theta|y \sim Beta(y+1, n-y+1)$

2.2 Posterior as a compromise between data and prior information

The posterior is less variable than the prior because it incorporates the information from the data.

$$E(\theta) = E(E(\theta|y)) \tag{2.3}$$

$$V(\theta) = E(V(\theta|y)) + V(E(\theta|y)) \tag{2.4}$$

where $\theta|y$ is the posterior. So the average of the prior, is the average of the posterior means over the distribution of possible data. The variance of the prior (2.4) says the posterior variance is on average smaller than the prior variance.

2.3 Summarizing the posterior inference

The mean, median, mode, and standard deviation of the posterior distribution summarize the all the current information about a model.

Posterior quantiles and intervals

The posterior uncertainty can be reported by presenting the quantiles of the posterior distribution. The interval, a central interval of posterior probability corresponds to the case of $100(1-\alpha)\%$, to the range of values above and below which lies exactly $100(\alpha/2)\%$ of the posterior probability. The interval estimates are posterior intervals. This differences from the confidence interval because the confidence interval is not a probability interval, because either the parameter is within the region or it is not, but the confidence interval provides information in the long run over repeated experimentation as to how many experiments would contain the true parameter.

There is also the *highest posterior interval* which is a probabilistic interval that is not less than any region outside of the interval.

2.4 Informative prior distributions

the property that the posterior distribution follows the same parametric form as the prior distribution is called *conjugacy*. Where the beta prior distribution is a *conjugate family* for the binomial likelihood.

so given the binomial likelihood $p(y|\theta) \propto \theta^a (1-\theta)^b$, and a prior density $p(\theta) \propto \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$ the posterior is of the beta family.

$$\begin{split} p(\theta|y) &\propto \theta^y (1-\theta)^{n-y} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1} \\ &= \theta^{y+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-y+\beta-1} \\ &= Beta(\theta|\alpha+y, \beta+n-y) \end{split}$$

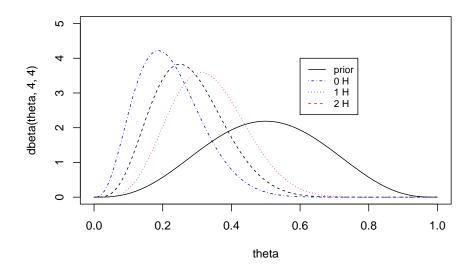
Conjugate prior distributions

Conjugacy is formally defined as if F is a class of sampling distributions $p(y|\theta)$, and P is a class of prior distributions for θ , then the class P is conjugate for F if $p(\theta|y) \in P$ for all $p(.|\theta) \in F$ and $p(.) \in P$.

2.5 Exercises

Question 1

prior Beta(4,4), where a coin is tossed 10 times and heads appears fewer than 3 times. the exact posterior is Beta(4+y, 4+10-y) for y=0,1,2. Since we don't know the observed heads, but that y < 3 we plot the posterior distributions for each possibility. For 2 heads it is closer to the prior, with posterior mean of 0.33, which is closest to the prior mean of 1/2.



Normal approximation example

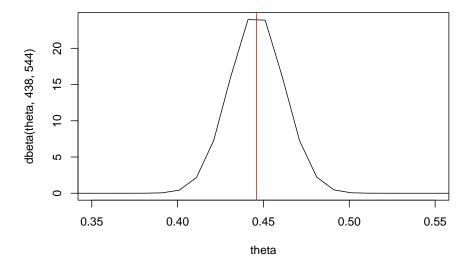
For female births we have beta(438,544) we use the normal approximation

```
theta<-seq(from=0.001,to=1,by=0.01)
## example births
postMean <-function(alpha,beta,y,n){
    return( (alpha+y)/(alpha+beta+n))
}
postVar<-function(alpha,beta,y,n){
    return( ((alpha+y)*(beta+n-y))/( (alpha+beta+n)^2*(alpha+beta+n+1)) )
}
sdnorm<-sqrt(postVar(438,544,0,0))
logitMean<-log( postMean(438,544,0,0)/(1-postMean(438,544,0,0)))

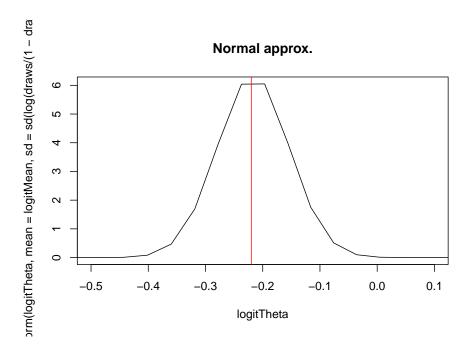
logitTheta<-log(theta/(1-theta))

plot(theta,dbeta(theta,438,544),type='l',xlim=c(0.35,0.55),main="posterior beta")
abline(v=0.446,col='red')</pre>
```

posterior beta



```
draws<-rbeta(1000,438,544)
plot(logitTheta,dnorm(logitTheta,mean =logitMean, sd=sd(log(draws/(1-draws)))),type
abline(v=-0.22,col='red')</pre>
```

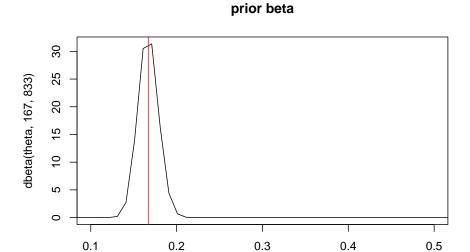


Question 3

Predictive distributions for the number of 6's in a fair roll, tossed 1,000 times. Let y be the number of 6's in 1000 rolls of fair die, the probability for a 6 is 1/6, so the number of 6's in this trial is approximately 167, and 833 failures. We plot the beta distribution of the expected number of heads in 1000 tosses.

The normal approximation shows the probability of heads in a given 1000 tosses, using a non-informative prior beta (167,833) which is the same for number of success in 1000 tosses. We find the distribution of a given success and the predictive interval follows a beta with 95% (0.12,0.17) for hte probability of rolling a 6

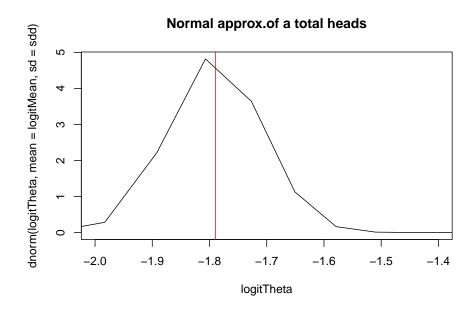
```
## based on normal approximation sketch the distribution of y
## for normal we use the logit transform
## n = 1,000
## first lets construct a beta distribution.
## let the prior be beta(4,4) or even beta(1,1)
plot(theta,dbeta(theta,167,833),type='l',xlim=c(0.1,0.5),main="prior beta") ## prior
abline(v=0.167,col='red') ##
```



theta

```
# qbeta(c(0.05,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.95),167,833)
## predictive on normal scale.
draws<-rbeta(1000,167,833)
logitMean<-log( 167/1000)
sdd<-sd(log(draws/(1-draws)))

plot(logitTheta,dnorm(logitTheta,mean =logitMean, sd=sdd ),type='l',main="Normal apprabline(v=logitMean,col='red')</pre>
```



```
### the number of heads.
#exp(logitMean)/(1+exp(logitMean))

qx<-(qnorm(c(0.05,0.25,0.5,0.75,0.95),mean =logitMean, sd=sdd ))
## this is the probability of landing 6 for theta
exp(qx)/(1+exp(qx))</pre>
```

[1] 0.1275435 0.1365390 0.1431020 0.1499256 0.1602099

```
## wald 95% prior interval
c( exp(logitMean-1.96*sdd)/(1+exp(logitMean-1.96*sdd)), exp(logitMean+1.96*sdd)/(1+exp(logitMean+1.96*sdd))
```

[1] 0.1247327 0.1636705

Parts

You can add parts to organize one or more book chapters together. Parts can be inserted at the top of an .Rmd file, before the first-level chapter heading in that same file.

Add a numbered part: # (PART) Act one {-} (followed by # A chapter)

Add an unnumbered part: # (PART*) Act one {-} (followed by # A chapter)

Add an appendix as a special kind of un-numbered part: # (APPENDIX) Other stuff {-} (followed by # A chapter). Chapters in an appendix are prepended with letters instead of numbers.

Footnotes and citations

4.1 Footnotes

Footnotes are put inside the square brackets after a caret ^[]. Like this one ¹.

4.2 Citations

Reference items in your bibliography file(s) using @key.

For example, we are using the **bookdown** package [Xie, 2022] (check out the last code chunk in index.Rmd to see how this citation key was added) in this sample book, which was built on top of R Markdown and **knitr** [Xie, 2015] (this citation was added manually in an external file book.bib). Note that the .bib files need to be listed in the index.Rmd with the YAML bibliography key.

The RStudio Visual Markdown Editor can also make it easier to insert citations: https://rstudio.github.io/visual-markdown-editing/#/citations

¹This is a footnote.

Blocks

5.1 Equations

Here is an equation.

$$f\left(k\right) = \binom{n}{k} p^{k} \left(1 - p\right)^{n - k} \tag{5.1}$$

You may refer to using \@ref(eq:binom), like see Equation (5.1).

5.2 Theorems and proofs

Labeled theorems can be referenced in text using \@ref(thm:tri), for example, check out this smart theorem 5.1.

Theorem 5.1. For a right triangle, if c denotes the length of the hypotenuse and a and b denote the lengths of the **other** two sides, we have

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

 $Read\ more\ here\ https://bookdown.org/yihui/bookdown/markdown-extensions-by-bookdown.html.$

5.3 Callout blocks

The R Markdown Cookbook provides more help on how to use custom blocks to design your own callouts: https://bookdown.org/yihui/rmarkdown-cookbook/custom-blocks.html

Sharing your book

6.1 Publishing

HTML books can be published online, see: https://bookdown.org/yihui/bookdown/publishing.html

6.2 404 pages

By default, users will be directed to a 404 page if they try to access a webpage that cannot be found. If you'd like to customize your 404 page instead of using the default, you may add either a _404.Rmd or _404.md file to your project root and use code and/or Markdown syntax.

6.3 Metadata for sharing

Bookdown HTML books will provide HTML metadata for social sharing on platforms like Twitter, Facebook, and LinkedIn, using information you provide in the index.Rmd YAML. To setup, set the url for your book and the path to your cover-image file. Your book's title and description are also used.

This gitbook uses the same social sharing data across all chapters in your bookall links shared will look the same.

Specify your book's source repository on GitHub using the edit key under the configuration options in the _output.yml file, which allows users to suggest an edit by linking to a chapter's source file.

Read more about the features of this output format here:

https://pkgs.rstudio.com/bookdown/reference/gitbook.html

Or use:

?bookdown::gitbook

Bibliography

Yihui Xie. Dynamic Documents with R and knitr. Chapman and Hall/CRC, Boca Raton, Florida, 2nd edition, 2015. URL http://yihui.org/knitr/. ISBN 978-1498716963.

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