



Data-driven Design and Analyses of Structures and Materials (3dasm)

Lecture 5

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**OPTION 1.** Run this notebook **locally** in your computer:

1. Confirm that you have the 3dasm conda environment (see Lecture 1).
2. Go to the 3dasm\_course folder in your computer and pull the last updates of the **repository**:

```
git pull
```

3. Open command window and load jupyter notebook (it will open in your internet browser):

```
conda activate 3dasm  
jupyter notebook
```

4. Open notebook of this Lecture.

**OPTION 2.** Use **Google's Colab** (no installation required, but times out if idle):

1. go to **<https://colab.research.google.com>**
2. login
3. File > Open notebook
4. click on Github (no need to login or authorize anything)
5. paste the git link: **[https://github.com/bessagroup/3dasm\\_course](https://github.com/bessagroup/3dasm_course)**
6. click search and then click on the notebook for this Lecture.

## Outline for today

- Bayesian inference for one hidden rv
  - Prior
  - Likelihood
  - Marginal likelihood
  - Posterior
  - Gaussian pdf's product

**Reading material:** This notebook + Chapter 3

Recall the "slightly more complicated" car stopping distance problem (with two rv's)

We defined the governing model with two rv's  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  as:

$$y = z_1 \cdot x + z_2 \cdot x^2$$

- $y$  is the **output**: the car stopping distance (in meters)
- $z_1$  is an **rv** representing the driver's reaction time (in seconds)
- $z_2$  is another **rv** that depends on the coefficient of friction, the inclination of the road, the weather, etc. (in  $\text{m}^{-1}\text{s}^{-2}$ ).
- $x$  is the **input**: constant car velocity (in m/s).

where we knew the "true" distributions of the rv's:  $z_1 \sim \text{N}(\mu_{z_1} = 1.5, \sigma_{z_1}^2 = 0.5^2)$ , and  $z_2 \sim \text{N}(\mu_{z_2} = 0.1, \sigma_{z_2}^2 = 0.01^2)$ .

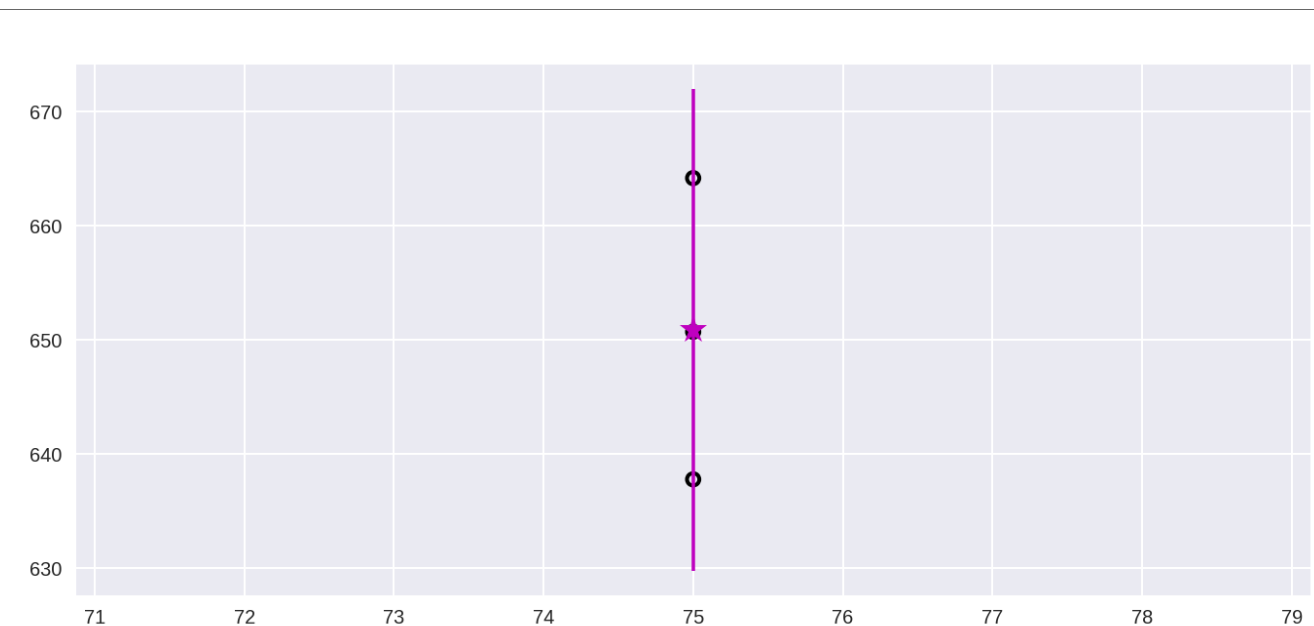
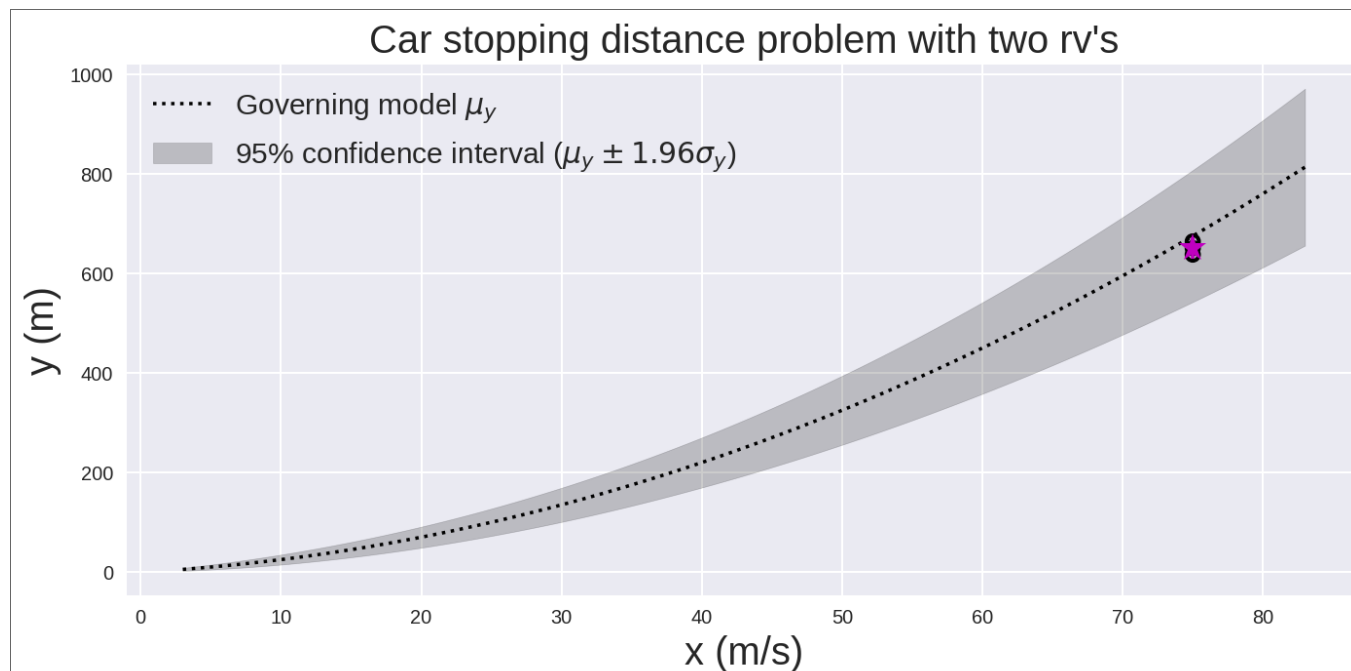
In [4]:

```

# vvvvvvvvvvvv this is just a trick so that we can run this cell multiple times vvvvvvvvvvvv
fig_car_new, ax_car_new = plt.subplots(1,2); plt.close() # create figure and close it
if fig_car_new.get_axes():
    del ax_car_new; del fig_car_new # delete figure and axes if they exist
    fig_car_new, ax_car_new = plt.subplots(1,2) # create them again
# ~~~~~ end of the trick ~~~~~
N_samples = 3 # CHANGE THIS NUMBER AND RE-RUN THE CELL
x = 75; empirical_y = samples_y_with_2rvs(N_samples, x); # Empirical measurements of N_samples at x=75
empirical_mu_y = np.mean(empirical_y); empirical_sigma_y = np.std(empirical_y); # empirical mean and std
car_fig_2rvs(ax_car_new[0]) # a function I created to include the background plot of the governing model
for i in range(2): # create two plots (one is zooming in on the error bar)
    ax_car_new[i].errorbar(x, empirical_mu_y, yerr=1.96*empirical_sigma_y, fmt='m*', markersize=15);
    ax_car_new[i].scatter(x*np.ones_like(empirical_y), empirical_y, s=40,
        facecolors='none', edgecolors='k', linewidths=2.0)
print("Empirical mean[y] is", empirical_mu_y, "(real mean[y]=675)")
print("Empirical std[y] is", empirical_sigma_y, "(real std[y]=67.6)")
fig_car_new.set_size_inches(25, 5) # scale figure to be wider (since there are 2 subplots)

```

```
Empirical mean[y] is 650.874924199532 (real mean[y]=675)
Empirical std[y] is 10.765521210487918 (real std[y]=67.6)
```



Car stopping distance problem with 2 rv's but only 1 rv being unknown

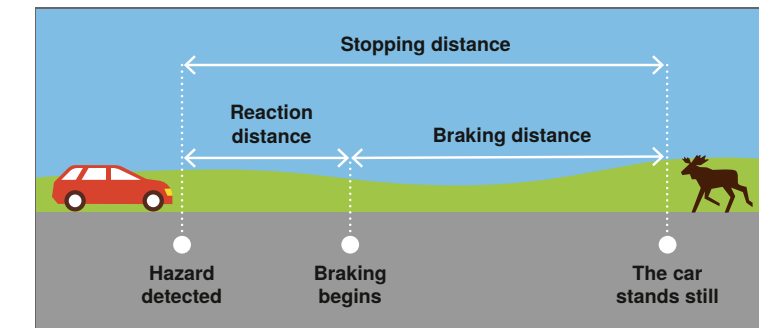
Today we will finally do some predictions!

Recall the Homework of Lecture 4, and consider the car stopping distance problem for constant velocity  $x = 75$  m/s and for which **it is known** that  $z_2 \sim N(z_2 | \mu_{z_2} = 0.1, \sigma_{z_2}^2 = 0.01^2)$ .

The only information that we do not know is the driver's reaction time  $z$  (here we call it  $z$ , instead of  $z_1$  as in Lecture 4, because this is the only hidden variable so we can **simplify the notation**).

- Can we predict  $p(y)$  without knowing  $p(z)$ ?

Yes!! If we use Bayes' rule!



Recall the Homework of Lecture 4

From last lecture's Homework, you demonstrated that the conditional pdf of the stopping distance given the reaction time  $z$  (for convenience we write here  $z$  instead of  $z_1$ ) is

$$p(y|z) = N\left(y | \mu_{y|z} = wz + b, \sigma_{y|z}^2 = s^2\right)$$

where  $w$ ,  $b$  and  $s$  are all constants that you determined to be:

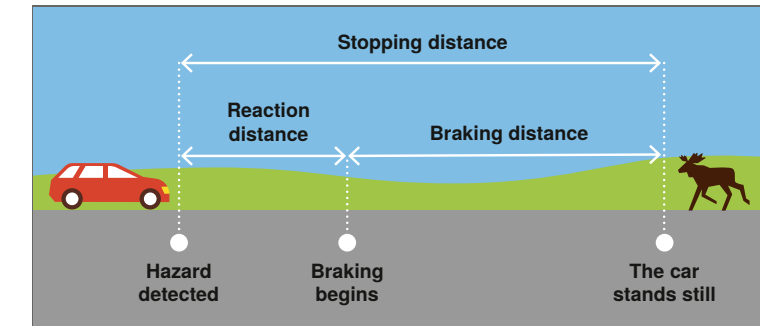
$$w = x = 75$$

$$b = x^2 \mu_{z_2} = 75^2 \cdot 0.1 = 562.5$$

$$s^2 = (x^2 \sigma_{z_2})^2 = (75^2 \cdot 0.01)^2 = 56.25^2$$

because we are considering that the car is going at constant velocity  $x = 75$  m/s and that we know

$$z_2 = N(z_2 | \mu_{z_2} = 0.1, \sigma_{z_2}^2 = 0.01^2).$$





## Understanding the Bayes' rule

$$p(z|y) = \frac{p(y|z)p(z)}{p(y)}$$

- $p(z)$  is the **prior distribution**
- $p(y|z)$  is the **observation distribution** (conditional pdf)
- $p(y)$  is the **marginal distribution**
- $p(z|y)$  is the **posterior distribution**

## Understanding the Bayes' rule

Let's start by understanding the usefulness of Bayes' rule by calculating the posterior  $p(z|y)$  for the car stopping distance problem (Homework of Lecture 4).

As we mentioned, for our problem we know the **observation distribution**:

$$p(y|z) = \mathcal{N}\left(y \mid \mu_{y|z} = wz + b, \sigma_{y|z}^2\right)$$

where  $\sigma_{y|z} = \text{const}$ , as well as  $w$  and  $b$ .

but we **don't know** the prior  $p(z)$ .

Prior: our beliefs about the problem

If we have absolutely no clue about what the distribution of the hidden rv  $z$  is, then we can use a **Uniform distribution** (a.k.a. uninformative prior).

This distribution assigns equal probability to any value of  $z$  within an interval  $z \in (z_{min}, z_{max})$ .

$$p(z) = \frac{1}{C_z}$$

where  $C_z = z_{max} - z_{min}$  is the **normalization constant** of the Uniform pdf, i.e. the value that guarantees that  $p(z)$  integrates to one.

For the time being, we will not assume any particular values for  $z_{max}$  and  $z_{min}$ . So, we will consider the completely uninformative prior:  $z_{max} \rightarrow \infty$  and  $z_{min} \rightarrow -\infty$ . If we had some information, we could consider some values for these bounds (e.g.  $z_{min} = 0$  seconds would be the limit of the fastest reaction time that is humanly possible, and  $z_{max} = 3$  seconds would be the slowest reaction time of a human being).

## Summary of our Model

### 1. The **observation distribution**:

$$\begin{aligned} p(y|z) &= N\left(y | \mu_{y|z} = wz + b, \sigma_{y|z}^2\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{C_{y|z}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{y|z}^2}(y - \mu_{y|z})^2\right] \end{aligned}$$

where  $C_{y|z} = \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{y|z}^2}$  is the **normalization constant** of the Gaussian pdf, and where  $\mu_{y|z} = wz + b$ , with  $w$ ,  $b$  and  $\sigma_{y|z}^2$  being constants, as previously mentioned.

1. and the **prior distribution**:  $p(z) = \frac{1}{C_z}$

where  $C_z = z_{max} - z_{min}$  is the **normalization constant** of the Uniform pdf, i.e. the value that guarantees that  $p(z)$  integrates to one.

Posterior from Bayes' rule

Since we have defined the **observation distribution** and the **prior distribution**, we can now compute the posterior distribution from Bayes' rule.

But this requires a bit of algebra... Let's do it!

First, in order to apply Bayes' rule  $p(z|y) = \frac{p(y|z)p(z)}{p(y)}$  we need to calculate  $p(y)$ .

$p(y)$  is obtained by marginalizing the joint distribution wrt  $z$ :

$$p(y) = \int p(y|z)p(z)dz$$

which implies an integration over  $z$ . So, let's rewrite  $p(y|z)$  so that the integration becomes easier.

$$\begin{aligned}
p(y|z) &= \mathcal{N}\left(y | \mu_{y|z} = wz + b, \sigma_{y|z}^2\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{C_{y|z}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{y|z}^2}(y - (wz + b))^2\right] \\
&= \frac{1}{C_{y|z}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}\left[z - \left(\frac{y-b}{w}\right)\right]^2\right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{|w|} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}\left[z - \left(\frac{y-b}{w}\right)\right]^2\right\}
\end{aligned}$$

Note: This Gaussian pdf  $\mathcal{N}\left(z | \frac{y-b}{w}, \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2\right)$  is unnormalized when written wrt  $z$  (due to  $\frac{1}{|w|}$ ).

We can now calculate the marginal distribution  $p(y)$ :

$$p(y) = \int p(y|z)p(z)dz$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{|w|} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}\left[z - \left(\frac{y-b}{w}\right)\right]^2\right\} \frac{1}{C_z} dz$$

We can rewrite this expression as,

$$p(y) = \frac{1}{|w| \cdot C_z} \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}\left[z - \left(\frac{y-b}{w}\right)\right]^2\right\} dz$$

What is the result for the **blue term**?

From where we conclude that the marginal distribution is:

$$p(y) = \frac{1}{|w| C_z}$$



So, now we can determine the posterior:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(z|y) &= \frac{p(y|z)p(z)}{p(y)} \\
 &= |w| C_z \cdot \frac{1}{|w|} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2 \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2} \left[ z - \left( \frac{y-b}{w} \right) \right]^2 \right\} \cdot \frac{1}{C_z} \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2 \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2} \left[ z - \left( \frac{y-b}{w} \right) \right]^2 \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

which is a **normalized** Gaussian pdf in  $z$ :  $N\left(z \mid \frac{y-b}{w}, \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2\right)$

- **This is what the Bayes' rule does!** Computes the posterior  $p(z|y)$  from  $p(y|z)$  and  $p(z)$ .

Why should we care about the Bayes' rule?

There are a few reasons:

1. As we will see, models are usually (always?) wrong.
1. But our beliefs may be a bit closer to reality! Bayes' rule enables us to get better models if our beliefs are reasonable!
1. We don't observe distributions. We observe **DATA**. Bayes' rule is a very powerful way to predict the distribution of our quantity of interest (here:  $y$ ) from data!

Bayes' rule applied to observed data

Previously, we already introduced Bayes' rule when applied to observed data  $D_y$ .

$$p(z | y = D_y) = \frac{p(y = D_y | z)p(z)}{p(y = D_y)} = \frac{p(y = D_y, z)}{p(y = D_y)}$$

- $p(z)$  is the **prior** distribution
- $p(y = D_y | z)$  is the **likelihood** function
- $p(y = D_y, z)$  is the **joint likelihood** (product of likelihood function with prior distribution)
- $p(y = D_y)$  is the **marginal likelihood**
- $p(z | y = D_y)$  is the **posterior**

We can write Bayes' rule as **posterior**  $\propto$  **likelihood**  $\times$  **prior**, where we are ignoring the denominator  $p(y = D_y)$  because it is just a **constant** independent of the hidden variable  $z$ .

Bayes' rule applied to observed data

But remember that Bayes' rule is just a way to calculate the posterior:

$$p(z|y = D_y) = \frac{p(y = D_y|z)p(z)}{p(y = D_y)}$$

Usually, what we really want is to be able to predict the distribution of the quantity of interest (here:  $y$ ) after observing some data  $D_y$ :

$$p(y|y = D_y) = \int p(y|z)p(z|y = D_y)dz$$

which is often written in simpler notation:  $p(y|D_y) = \int p(y|z)p(z|D_y)dz$

Bayesian inference for car stopping distance problem

Now we will solve the first Bayesian ML problem from some given data  $y = D_y$ :

$y_i$ (m)
601.5
705.9
693.8
...
711.3

where the data  $D_y$  could be a Pandas dataframe with  $N$  data points ( $N$  rows).

- **Very Important Question (VIQ):** Can we calculate the **likelihood** function from this data?

Likelihood for car stopping distance problem

Of course! As we saw a few cells ago, the **likelihood** is obtained by evaluating the **observation distribution** at the data  $D_y$ .  
Noting that each observation in  $D_y$  is independent of each other, then:

$$p(y = D_y | z) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(y = y_i | z) = p(y = y_1 | z) p(y = y_2 | z) \cdots p(y = y_N | z)$$

which gives the **probability density** of observing that data if using our observation distribution (part of our model!).

## CALCULATING THE LIKELIHOOD

Let's calculate it:

$$p(y = D_y | z) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(y = y_i | z)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{C_{y|z}} \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2 \left( \frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w} \right)^2} \left[ z - \left( \frac{y_i - b}{w} \right) \right]^2 \right\}$$

This seems a bit daunting... I know. Do not despair yet!

Product of Gaussian pdf's of the same rv  $z$

It can be shown that the product of  $N$  univariate Gaussian pdf's of the same rv  $z$  is:

$$\prod_{i=1}^N N(z|\mu_i, \sigma_i^2) = C \cdot N(z|\mu, \sigma^2)$$

with mean:  $\mu = \sigma^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\mu_i}{\sigma_i^2} \right)$

variance:  $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}}$

and normalization constant:  $C = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{(N-1)/2}} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{\prod_{i=1}^N \sigma_i^2}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\mu_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} - \frac{\mu^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \right]$

Curiosity: the normalization constant  $C$  is itself a Gaussian! You can see it more clearly if you consider  $N = 2$



## HOMEWORK

Show that the product of two Gaussian pdf's for the same rv  $z$  is:

$$N(z | \mu_1, \sigma_1^2) \cdot N(z | \mu_2, \sigma_2^2) = C \cdot N(z | \mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2}}$$

$$\mu = \sigma^2 \left( \frac{\mu_1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{\mu_2}{\sigma_2^2} \right)$$

$$C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)} (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2 \right]$$

BACK TO CALCULATING THE LIKELIHOOD

$$\begin{aligned} p(y = \mathbf{D}_y | z) &= \prod_{i=1}^N p(y = y_i | z) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{|w|} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}} \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2 \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2} \left[ z - \left( \frac{y_i - b}{w} \right) \right]^2 \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{|w|^N} \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2}} \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2 \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2} \left[ z - \left( \frac{y_i - b}{w} \right) \right]^2 \right\} \end{aligned}$$

So, using the result of a product of  $N$  Gaussian pdf's to calculate the likelihood, and noting that  $\sigma_i = \frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}$  and  $\mu_i = \frac{y_i - b}{w}$  we get:

$$p(y = D_y | z) = \frac{1}{|w|^N} \cdot C \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (z - \mu)^2 \right]$$

where

$$\mu = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_i^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i = \frac{w^2 \sigma^2}{\sigma_{y|z}^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{w^2 N}{\sigma_{y|z}^2}} = \frac{\sigma_{y|z}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N w^2 N}$$

$$C = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{(N-1)/2}} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{\left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}^2}{w^2}\right)^N}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{w^2}{\sigma_{y|z}^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i - \frac{\mu^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \right]$$

## CALCULATING THE MARGINAL LIKELIHOOD

$$\begin{aligned} p(y = D_y) &= \int p(y = D_y | z) p(z) dz \\ &= \int \frac{1}{|w|^N} C \cdot N(z | \mu, \sigma^2) \cdot \frac{1}{C_z} dz \\ &= \frac{C}{|w|^N C_z} \int N(z | \mu, \sigma^2) dz = \frac{C}{|w|^N C_z} \end{aligned}$$

We can now calculate the posterior:

$$\begin{aligned} p(z | y = D_y) &= \frac{p(y = D_y | z) p(z)}{p(y = D_y)} \\ &= \frac{1}{p(y = D_y)} \cdot \frac{1}{|w|^N} C \cdot N(z | \mu, \sigma^2) \cdot \frac{1}{C_z} \\ &= N(z | \mu, \sigma^2) \end{aligned}$$

## CALCULATING THE POSTERIOR PREDICTIVE DISTRIBUTION (PPD)

Having found the posterior, we can determine the PPD:

$$p(y | D_y) = \int p(y | z) p(z | D_y) dz$$

To calculate this, we will have to use the identity for a product of two Gaussians.

$$\begin{aligned} p(y | D_y) &= \int \frac{1}{|w|} N\left(z \mid \frac{y - b}{w}, \left(\frac{\sigma_{y|z}}{w}\right)^2\right) N(z \mid \mu, \sigma^2) dz \\ &= \int \frac{1}{|w|} C^* N\left(z \mid \mu^*, \left(\sigma^*\right)^2\right) dz \end{aligned}$$

Next class

In the next class we will finish this example, by solving this integral to determine the PPD  $p(y | D_y)$ .

See you next class

Have fun!