R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.

- R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.
 - linear model: $y \sim 1 + x$ or $y \sim x$

 R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.

```
• linear model: y \sim 1 + x or y \sim x
```

spline model: y ~ s(x)

- R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.
 - linear model: $y \sim 1 + x$ or $y \sim x$
 - spline model: y ~ s(x)
 - binomial model:

deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial

- R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.
 - linear model: $y \sim 1 + x$ or $y \sim x$
 - spline model: y ~ s(x)
 - binomial model:

```
deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial
```

```
weight \sim age + (age | ratid)
```

- R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.
 - linear model: $y \sim 1 + x$ or $y \sim x$
 - spline model: y ~ s(x)
 - binomial model:

```
deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial
```

```
weight \sim age + (age | ratid)
```

- rstanarm has pre-compiled Stan models
 - no need to wait compilation time
 - limited size of the pre-compiled binaries in CRAN limits the number of model, family, prior combinations

- R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.
 - linear model: $y \sim 1 + x$ or $y \sim x$
 - spline model: y ~ s(x)
 - binomial model:

```
deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial
```

```
weight \sim age + (age | ratid)
```

- rstanarm has pre-compiled Stan models
 - no need to wait compilation time
 - limited size of the pre-compiled binaries in CRAN limits the number of model, family, prior combinations
- brms
 - extended formula syntax, e.g. heteroscedastic linear model: bf (y \sim x, sigma \sim x)
 - user defined families
 - requires compilation of the generated Stan code

- R (and systems before R) have used a formula syntax to describe models, e.g.
 - linear model: $y \sim 1 + x$ or $y \sim x$
 - spline model: y ~ s(x)
 - binomial model:

```
deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial
```

```
weight \sim age + (age | ratid)
```

- rstanarm has pre-compiled Stan models
 - no need to wait compilation time
 - limited size of the pre-compiled binaries in CRAN limits the number of model, family, prior combinations
- brms
 - extended formula syntax, e.g. heteroscedastic linear model: bf (y \sim x, sigma \sim x)
 - user defined families
 - requires compilation of the generated Stan code
- bambi implements formula syntax in Python

Chapter 8: Modelling accounting for data collection

Highly recommended to read. Very informative, but also a dense chapter.

- We need to model the data collection unless it is ignorable
- We need to know when data collection is ignorable

Chapter 8: Modelling accounting for data collection

Highly recommended to read. Very informative, but also a dense chapter.

- We need to model the data collection unless it is ignorable
- We need to know when data collection is ignorable
- Data collection
 - Sample surveys
 - Designed experiments
 - Randomization
 - Observational studies
 - Censoring and truncation

- Justification of conditional modeling
 - if joint model factorizes $p(y, x | \theta, \phi) = p(y | x, \theta) p(x | \phi)$ we can model just $p(y | x, \theta)$

- Justification of conditional modeling
 - if joint model factorizes $p(y, x | \theta, \phi) = p(y | x, \theta) p(x | \phi)$ we can model just $p(y | x, \theta)$
- Gaussian linear model with conjugate prior
 - the conditional posterior is multivariate normal
 - with fixed prior on weights, the joint posterior is N-Inv-χ²

- Justification of conditional modeling
 - if joint model factorizes $p(y, x|\theta, \phi) = p(y|x, \theta)p(x|\phi)$ we can model just $p(y|x, \theta)$
- Gaussian linear model with conjugate prior
 - the conditional posterior is multivariate normal
 - with fixed prior on weights, the joint posterior is N-Inv- χ^2
 - these properties are sometimes useful and thus good to know, but with probabilistic programming less often needed

- Justification of conditional modeling
 - if joint model factorizes $p(y, x|\theta, \phi) = p(y|x, \theta)p(x|\phi)$ we can model just $p(y|x, \theta)$
- Gaussian linear model with conjugate prior
 - the conditional posterior is multivariate normal
 - with fixed prior on weights, the joint posterior is N-Inv- χ^2
 - these properties are sometimes useful and thus good to know, but with probabilistic programming less often needed
- Bit on causal analysis (see much more in ROS Ch 18-21)

- Justification of conditional modeling
 - if joint model factorizes $p(y, x|\theta, \phi) = p(y|x, \theta)p(x|\phi)$ we can model just $p(y|x, \theta)$
- Gaussian linear model with conjugate prior
 - the conditional posterior is multivariate normal
 - with fixed prior on weights, the joint posterior is N-Inv- χ^2
 - these properties are sometimes useful and thus good to know, but with probabilistic programming less often needed
- Bit on causal analysis (see much more in ROS Ch 18–21)
- Assembling matrix of explanatory variables (see also ROS Ch 10,12)
 - identifiability, collinearity, nonlinear relations, indicator and categorical variables, interactions
 - variable selection is not much discussed (extra lecture)

- Justification of conditional modeling
 - if joint model factorizes $p(y, x | \theta, \phi) = p(y | x, \theta) p(x | \phi)$ we can model just $p(y | x, \theta)$
- Gaussian linear model with conjugate prior
 - the conditional posterior is multivariate normal
 - with fixed prior on weights, the joint posterior is N-Inv- χ^2
 - these properties are sometimes useful and thus good to know, but with probabilistic programming less often needed
- Bit on causal analysis (see much more in ROS Ch 18–21)
- Assembling matrix of explanatory variables (see also ROS Ch 10,12)
 - identifiability, collinearity, nonlinear relations, indicator and categorical variables, interactions
 - variable selection is not much discussed (extra lecture)
- Regularization (see also ROS Ch 12)
 - not much discussed (see extra lectures)

- Justification of conditional modeling
 - if joint model factorizes $p(y, x|\theta, \phi) = p(y|x, \theta)p(x|\phi)$ we can model just $p(y|x, \theta)$
- Gaussian linear model with conjugate prior
 - the conditional posterior is multivariate normal
 - with fixed prior on weights, the joint posterior is N-Inv- χ^2
 - these properties are sometimes useful and thus good to know, but with probabilistic programming less often needed
- Bit on causal analysis (see much more in ROS Ch 18–21)
- Assembling matrix of explanatory variables (see also ROS Ch 10,12)
 - identifiability, collinearity, nonlinear relations, indicator and categorical variables, interactions
 - variable selection is not much discussed (extra lecture)
- Regularization (see also ROS Ch 12)
 - not much discussed (see extra lectures)
- Unequal variances and correlations

 Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted

- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori

- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, marginal modes of weak effects go to zero first

- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, marginal modes of weak effects go to zero first
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, also the relevant coefficients are shrunk towards zero

- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, marginal modes of weak effects go to zero first
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, also the relevant coefficients are shrunk towards zero
 - sometimes relaxed lasso is used, where after variable selection coefficients are re-estimated

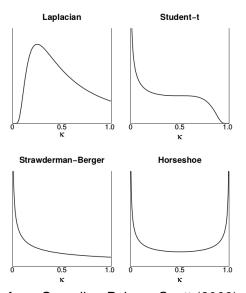
- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, marginal modes of weak effects go to zero first
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, also the relevant coefficients are shrunk towards zero
 - sometimes relaxed lasso is used, where after variable selection coefficients are re-estimated
- Bayesian lasso uses Laplace distribution as prior
 - Laplace prior is equivalent to L1 penalty

- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, marginal modes of weak effects go to zero first
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, also the relevant coefficients are shrunk towards zero
 - sometimes relaxed lasso is used, where after variable selection coefficients are re-estimated
- Bayesian lasso uses Laplace distribution as prior
 - Laplace prior is equivalent to L1 penalty
 - but the Bayesian inference includes distribution for parameters and that distribution doesn't shrink to a point at zero, even if the mode would be at zero

- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, marginal modes of weak effects go to zero first
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, also the relevant coefficients are shrunk towards zero
 - sometimes relaxed lasso is used, where after variable selection coefficients are re-estimated
- Bayesian lasso uses Laplace distribution as prior
 - Laplace prior is equivalent to L1 penalty
 - but the Bayesian inference includes distribution for parameters and that distribution doesn't shrink to a point at zero, even if the mode would be at zero
 - empirically better results obtained with more sparse priors

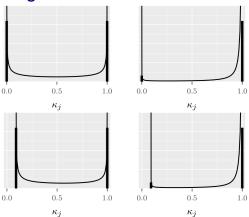
- Lasso is penalized maximum likelihood linear regression, with L1 one penalty where the amount penalty is adapted
 - penalized maximum likelihood finds the mode given the penalty parameter, and is almost the same as maximum a posteriori
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, marginal modes of weak effects go to zero first
 - when the amount of penalty is increased, also the relevant coefficients are shrunk towards zero
 - sometimes relaxed lasso is used, where after variable selection coefficients are re-estimated
- Bayesian lasso uses Laplace distribution as prior
 - Laplace prior is equivalent to L1 penalty
 - but the Bayesian inference includes distribution for parameters and that distribution doesn't shrink to a point at zero, even if the mode would be at zero
 - empirically better results obtained with more sparse priors
 - it's best to separate selection of sensible prior, good posterior inference, and the decision analysis of which variables are important

Sparse priors



from Carvalho, Polson, Scott (2009).

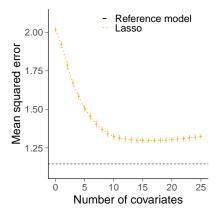
Regularized horseshoe



- Piironen and Vehtari (2017). Sparsity information and regularization in the horseshoe and other shrinkage priors. In Electronic Journal of Statistics, 11(2):5018-5051. Online
- rstanarm: prior=hs()
- brms: prior=horseshoe()

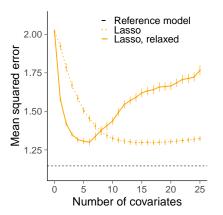
See projpred in an extra lecture

Same simulated regression data as in lecture 9,3, n = 50, p = 500, $p_{rel} = 150$, $\rho = 0.5$



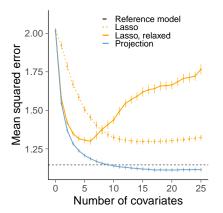
See projpred in an extra lecture

Same simulated regression data as in lecture 9,3, n = 50, p = 500, $p_{rel} = 150$, $\rho = 0.5$



See projpred in an extra lecture

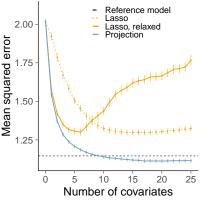
Same simulated regression data as in lecture 9,3, n = 50, p = 500, $p_{rel} = 150$, $\rho = 0.5$

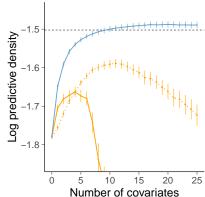


See projpred in an extra lecture

Same simulated regression data as in lecture 9,3,

$$n = 50$$
, $p = 500$, $p_{rel} = 150$, $\rho = 0.5$





Chapter 15: Hierarchical linear models

- Since you know hierarchical models, theory is easy
- With probabilistic programming computation is also easy
 - BDA3 discusses some other computational issues
 - section on transformations for HMC is relevant (see also Stan user guide 21.7 Reparameterization)

Chapter 15: Hierarchical linear models

- Since you know hierarchical models, theory is easy
- With probabilistic programming computation is also easy
 - BDA3 discusses some other computational issues
 - section on transformations for HMC is relevant (see also Stan user guide 21.7 Reparameterization)
- Fixed, random, and mixed effects models
 - we don't recommend using these terms, but they are so popular that it's useful to know them

Chapter 15: Hierarchical linear models

- Since you know hierarchical models, theory is easy
- With probabilistic programming computation is also easy
 - BDA3 discusses some other computational issues
 - section on transformations for HMC is relevant (see also Stan user guide 21.7 Reparameterization)
- Fixed, random, and mixed effects models
 - we don't recommend using these terms, but they are so popular that it's useful to know them

ANOVA in section 15.6 (see also stan_aov)

Chapter 16: Generalized linear models

Bioassay model is an example of GLM

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$
 - 3. Outcome distribution model with location parameter μ

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$
 - 3. Outcome distribution model with location parameter μ
 - the distribution can also depend on dispersion parameter ϕ

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$
 - 3. Outcome distribution model with location parameter μ
 - the distribution can also depend on dispersion parameter ϕ
 - originally just exponential family distributions (e.g. Poisson, binomial, negative-binomial), which all have natural location-dispersion parameterization

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$
 - 3. Outcome distribution model with location parameter μ
 - the distribution can also depend on dispersion parameter ϕ
 - originally just exponential family distributions (e.g. Poisson, binomial, negative-binomial), which all have natural location-dispersion parameterization
 - after MCMC made computation easy, GLM can refer to models where outcome distribution is not part of exponential family and dispersion parameter may have its own latent linear predictor

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$
 - 3. Outcome distribution model with location parameter μ
 - the distribution can also depend on dispersion parameter ϕ
 - originally just exponential family distributions (e.g. Poisson, binomial, negative-binomial), which all have natural location-dispersion parameterization
 - after MCMC made computation easy, GLM can refer to models where outcome distribution is not part of exponential family and dispersion parameter may have its own latent linear predictor

```
deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial
```

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$
 - 3. Outcome distribution model with location parameter μ
 - the distribution can also depend on dispersion parameter ϕ
 - originally just exponential family distributions (e.g. Poisson, binomial, negative-binomial), which all have natural location-dispersion parameterization
 - after MCMC made computation easy, GLM can refer to models where outcome distribution is not part of exponential family and dispersion parameter may have its own latent linear predictor

```
deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial
```

Hierarchical GLM natural extension

- Bioassay model is an example of GLM
- Components: (see also ROS Ch 13–15)
 - 1. The linear predictor $\eta = X\beta$
 - 2. The link function $g(\cdot)$ and $\mu = g^{-1}(\eta)$
 - 3. Outcome distribution model with location parameter μ
 - the distribution can also depend on dispersion parameter ϕ
 - originally just exponential family distributions (e.g. Poisson, binomial, negative-binomial), which all have natural location-dispersion parameterization
 - after MCMC made computation easy, GLM can refer to models where outcome distribution is not part of exponential family and dispersion parameter may have its own latent linear predictor

```
deaths \sim dosage, family = binomial
```

- Hierarchical GLM natural extension
- 16.3 Weakly informative priors section is excellent although the recommendation on using Cauchy has changed (see https://github.com/stan-dev/stan/wiki/ Prior-Choice-Recommendations)

Chapter 17: Models for robust inference

For example (see also ROS Ch 15)
 normal → t-distribution

 $\hbox{Poisson} \quad \to \quad \hbox{negative-binomial} \\$

binomial \rightarrow beta-binomial

 $probit \qquad \rightarrow \quad logistic \ / \ robit$

Chapter 17: Models for robust inference

- For example (see also ROS Ch 15)
 normal → t-distribution
 Poisson → negative-binomial
 binomial → beta-binomial
 probit → logistic / robit
- Computation with MCMC easy
 - posterior can be multimodal

Chapter 17: Models for robust inference

For example (see also ROS Ch 15)

normal \rightarrow *t*-distribution

Poisson → negative-binomial

binomial → beta-binomial

probit \rightarrow logistic / robit

- Computation with MCMC easy
 - posterior can be multimodal
 - rstanarm doesn't have t-distribution for outcome, but brms has

- Extends the data collection modelling from Chapter 8
- Useful terms

- Extends the data collection modelling from Chapter 8
- Useful terms
 - Missing completely at random (MCAR) missingness does not depend on missing values or other observed values (including covariates)

- Extends the data collection modelling from Chapter 8
- Useful terms
 - Missing completely at random (MCAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values or other
 observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing at random (MAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values but may
 depend on other observed values (including covariates)

- Extends the data collection modelling from Chapter 8
- Useful terms
 - Missing completely at random (MCAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values or other
 observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing at random (MAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values but may
 depend on other observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing not at random (MNAR) missingness depends on missing values

- Extends the data collection modelling from Chapter 8
- Useful terms
 - Missing completely at random (MCAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values or other
 observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing at random (MAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values but may
 depend on other observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing not at random (MNAR) missingness depends on missing values
- Multiple imputation
 - 1. make a model predicting missing data
 - sample repeatedly from the missing data model to generate multiple imputed data sets
 - 3. make usual inference for each imputed data set
 - 4. combine results

- Extends the data collection modelling from Chapter 8
- Useful terms
 - Missing completely at random (MCAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values or other
 observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing at random (MAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values but may
 depend on other observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing not at random (MNAR) missingness depends on missing values
- Multiple imputation
 - 1. make a model predicting missing data
 - sample repeatedly from the missing data model to generate multiple imputed data sets
 - 3. make usual inference for each imputed data set
 - 4. combine results
 - mice package is ver flexible

- Extends the data collection modelling from Chapter 8
- Useful terms
 - Missing completely at random (MCAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values or other
 observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing at random (MAR)
 missingness does not depend on missing values but may
 depend on other observed values (including covariates)
 - Missing not at random (MNAR) missingness depends on missing values
- Multiple imputation
 - 1. make a model predicting missing data
 - sample repeatedly from the missing data model to generate multiple imputed data sets
 - 3. make usual inference for each imputed data set
 - 4. combine results
 - mice package is ver flexible
- brms can handle some missing data

- Gaussian process is
 - infinite dimensional extension of normal distribution
 - useful prior for non-linear functions
 - for any finite number of variables, the marginal is multivariate normal $f_1, \ldots, f_n \sim N(\mu(x_1, \ldots, x_n), K(x_1, \ldots, x_n))$

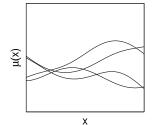
- Gaussian process is
 - infinite dimensional extension of normal distribution
 - useful prior for non-linear functions
 - for any finite number of variables, the marginal is multivariate normal $f_1, \ldots, f_n \sim \mathbb{N}\left(\mu(x_1, \ldots, x_n), K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\right)$
- Often a priori $\mu = 0$

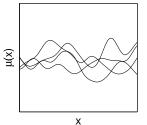
- Gaussian process is
 - infinite dimensional extension of normal distribution
 - useful prior for non-linear functions
 - for any finite number of variables, the marginal is multivariate normal $f_1, \ldots, f_n \sim N(\mu(x_1, \ldots, x_n), K(x_1, \ldots, x_n))$
- Often a priori $\mu = 0$
- Prior for smooth non-linear functions, e.g. with $k(x, x') = \tau^2 \exp\left(-\frac{|x-x'|^2}{2l^2}\right)$

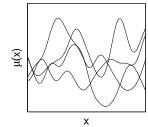
- Gaussian process is
 - infinite dimensional extension of normal distribution
 - useful prior for non-linear functions
 - for any finite number of variables, the marginal is multivariate normal $f_1, \ldots, f_n \sim \mathbb{N}\left(\mu(x_1, \ldots, x_n), K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\right)$
- Often a priori $\mu = 0$
- Prior for smooth non-linear functions, e.g. with

$$k(x, x') = \tau^2 \exp\left(-\frac{|x - x'|^2}{2l^2}\right)$$

 $\tau = 1/2, l = 2$ $\tau = 1/4, l = 1/2$







 $\tau = 1/2$, I = 1/2

- Gaussian process is
 - infinite dimensional extension of normal distribution
 - useful prior for non-linear functions
 - for any finite number of variables, the marginal is multivariate normal $f_1, \ldots, f_n \sim \mathbb{N}\left(\mu(x_1, \ldots, x_n), K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\right)$
- Often a priori $\mu = 0$
- Prior for smooth non-linear functions, e.g. with

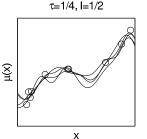
$$k(x, x') = \tau^2 \exp\left(-\frac{|x - x'|^2}{2l^2}\right)$$

$$\tau = 1/2, I = 2$$

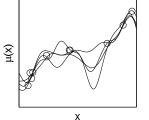
Х

 $\frac{1}{8}$





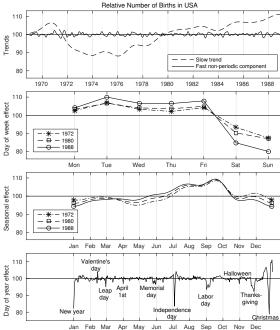




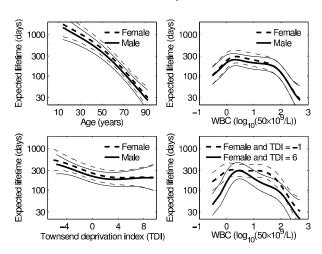
- Conditional on covariance function parameter the posterior is just multivariate normal
 - need to make inference for covariance function parameters given the marginal likelihood
 - the exact computation of the marginal likelihood scales $O(N^3)$

Easy to make additive models

$$y_t(t) = f_1(t) + f_2(t) + f_3(t) + f_4(t) + f_5(t) + \epsilon_t$$



- For non-Gaussian outcome models similar extension as GLMs
- Survival model example:



GPs in Stan

- GP specific software (e.g. GPy, GPflow, GPyTorch) scale computationally better for GPs than Stan
- Stan has some built-in covariance functions
- Hilbert space basis function approximation of GPs is fast for 1D-3D (Riutort-Mayol et al., 2022)
 - Birthday example
 - Motorcycle example
- In case of non-Gaussian outcome models, sampling of latent variables can be slow (Laplace integration over the latents coming)

GPs in Stan

- GP specific software (e.g. GPy, GPflow, GPyTorch) scale computationally better for GPs than Stan
- Stan has some built-in covariance functions
- Hilbert space basis function approximation of GPs is fast for 1D-3D (Riutort-Mayol et al., 2022)
 - Birthday example
 - Motorcycle example
- In case of non-Gaussian outcome models, sampling of latent variables can be slow (Laplace integration over the latents coming)
- brms:
 - covariance matrix based computation:
 - $y \sim qp(x)$
 - Hilbert space basis function approximation:

$$y \sim qp(x, k=20)$$

Regression and Other Stories

- Gelman, Hill, and Vehtari (2020). Regression and Other Stories.
 - uses Bayesian inference, but maths and computation is minimal
 - focuses on different models and how think about modeling
 - a lot of different examples
 - https://avehtari.github.io/ROS-Examples/

Bayesian workflow

Gelman, Vehtari, Simpson, Margossian, Carpenter, Yao, Kennedy, Gabry, Bürkner, and Modrák (2020). Bayesian workflow. arXiv:2011.01808

