

# Lab 4

PSTAT 115

## Objectives

- Posterior credible intervals
- Posterior predictive distribution
- Integral trick

## Computing probability intervals with quantile functions

In addition to point summaries, it is nearly always important to report posterior uncertainty. Therefore, as in conventional statistics, an interval summary is desirable. A central interval of posterior probability, which corresponds, in the case of a  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  interval, to the range of values above and below which lies exactly  $100(\alpha/2)\%$  of the posterior probability.

**Example from lab 3:**

$$p(\theta|y) \propto p(\theta) * p(y|\theta) = \binom{n}{y} p^y (1-p)^{n-y} \text{ (in this context } \theta \text{ is } p) \propto p^y (1-p)^{n-y}$$

An early study concerning the sex of newborn Germany babies found that of a total of 98 births, 43 were female. Assume we are using the uniform prior. The posterior is a  $Beta(44, 56)$  distribution.

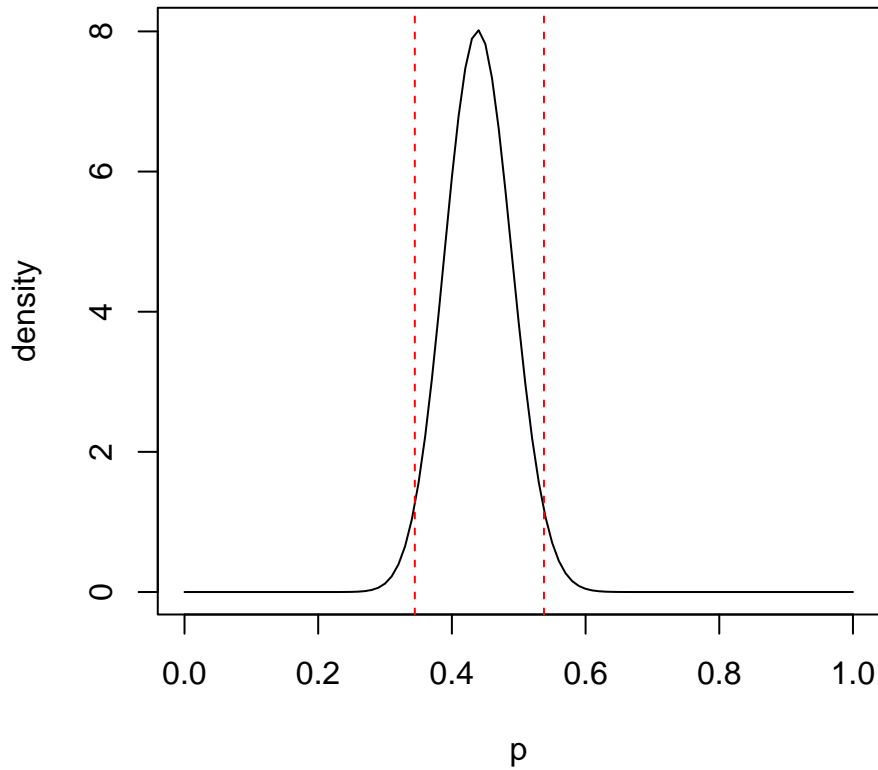
- What is the 95% central interval of the above posterior distribution?

```
a_post = 1 + 43
b_post = 1 + 98 - 43
alpha = 1 - 0.95
low = qbeta(alpha/2, a_post, b_post)
high = qbeta(1 - alpha/2, a_post, b_post)
print(c(low, high))
```

```
## [1] 0.3445430 0.5377312
```

- Visualize the above central interval

```
curve(gamma(a_post + b_post)/gamma(a_post)/gamma(b_post) *
      p^(a_post - 1) * (1-p)^(b_post - 1), from = 0, to = 1, xname = "p",
      xlab = "p", ylab = "density")
abline(v = low, col = "red", lty = 2)
abline(v = high, col = "red", lty = 2)
```



## Posterior predictive distribution

- An important feature of Bayesian inference is the existence of a predictive distribution for new observations.
  - Let  $\tilde{y}$  be a new (unseen) observation, and  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  the observed data.
  - The Posterior predictive distribution is  $p(\tilde{y} \mid y_1, \dots, y_n)$
- The predictive distribution does not depend on unknown parameters
- The predictive distribution only depends on observed data

The posterior predictive distribution allows us to find the probability distribution for new data given observations of old data.

$$p(\tilde{y} \mid y_1, \dots, y_n) = \int p(\tilde{y}, \theta \mid y_1, \dots, y_n) d\theta = \int p(\tilde{y} \mid \theta) p(\theta \mid y_1, \dots, y_n) d\theta$$

- The prior predictive distribution describes our uncertainty about a new observation before seeing data
- It incorporates uncertainty due to the sampling in a model  $p(\tilde{y} \mid \theta)$  and our prior uncertainty about the data generating parameter,  $p(\theta)$

## Example

- $\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$
- $\tilde{Y} \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda)$

$$\begin{aligned}
p(\tilde{y}) &= \int p(\tilde{y} | \lambda) p(\lambda) d\lambda \\
&= \int \left( \frac{\lambda^{\tilde{y}}}{y!} e^{-\lambda} \right) \left( \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \lambda^{(\alpha-1)} e^{-\beta\lambda} \right) d\lambda \\
&= \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)y!} \int (\lambda^{\alpha+y-1}) e^{-(\beta+1)\lambda} d\lambda
\end{aligned}$$

$\int (\lambda^{\alpha+y-1}) e^{-(\beta+1)\lambda} d\lambda$  looks like an unnormalized  $\text{Gamma}(\alpha + y, \beta + 1)$

## Integral trick (Gamma integral example)

Let  $K = \int L(\lambda; y) p(\lambda) d\lambda$  be the integral of the proportional posterior. Then the proper posterior density, i.e. a true density integrates to 1, can be expressed as  $p(\lambda | y) = \frac{L(\lambda; y) p(\lambda)}{K}$ . Compute this posterior density and clearly express the density as a mixture of two gamma distributions.

$$\begin{aligned}
K &= \int e^{-1767\lambda} \lambda^8 \left( \frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \lambda^2 e^{-2000\lambda} + \frac{1000^7}{\Gamma(7)} \lambda^6 e^{-1000\lambda} \right) d\lambda \\
&= \int \frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \lambda^{10} e^{-3767\lambda} d\lambda + \int \frac{1000^7}{\Gamma(7)} \lambda^{14} e^{-2767\lambda} d\lambda \\
&= \frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \frac{\Gamma(11)}{3767^{11}} + \frac{1000^7}{\Gamma(7)} \frac{\Gamma(15)}{2767^{15}} \\
p(\lambda|y) &= \frac{\frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \frac{\Gamma(11)}{3767^{11}}}{\frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \frac{\Gamma(11)}{3767^{11}} + \frac{1000^7}{\Gamma(7)} \frac{\Gamma(15)}{2767^{15}}} * \frac{3767^{11}}{\Gamma(11)} \lambda^{10} e^{-3767\lambda} + \frac{\frac{1000^7}{\Gamma(7)} \frac{\Gamma(15)}{2767^{15}}}{\frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \frac{\Gamma(11)}{3767^{11}} + \frac{1000^7}{\Gamma(7)} \frac{\Gamma(15)}{2767^{15}}} * \frac{2767^{15}}{\Gamma(15)} \lambda^{14} e^{-2767\lambda} \\
&:= wp_U(\lambda) + (1 - w)p_V(\lambda)
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$w = \frac{\frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \frac{\Gamma(11)}{3767^{11}}}{\frac{2000^3}{\Gamma(3)} \frac{\Gamma(11)}{3767^{11}} + \frac{1000^7}{\Gamma(7)} \frac{\Gamma(15)}{2767^{15}}}, U \sim \text{Gamma}(11, \frac{1}{3767}), V \sim \text{Gamma}(15, \frac{1}{2767})$$

which means that the posterior density is a mixture of two gamma distributions.

## Posterior Predictive Checking

The “hot hand” is the purported phenomenon that a person who experiences a successful outcome has a greater chance of success in further attempts. The concept originates from basketball whereas a shooter is allegedly more likely to score if their previous attempts were successful. While previous success at a task can indeed change the psychological attitude and subsequent success rate of a player, researchers for many years did not find evidence for a “hot hand” in practice, dismissing it as fallacious. However, later research questioned whether the belief is indeed a fallacy.

Let “1” denotes a valid shot and “0” denotes a invalid. Suppose we observe the following results of a player:

```
# observations #
set.seed(123)
y <- c(rep(1, 18), rep(0, 3), rep(1, 6), rep(0, 2),
       rbinom(67, 1, prob = 0.25), rep(1, 4))
```

Suppose  $Y_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  and  $p \sim \text{Beta}(3, 7)$

Find the posterior using conjugacy:

```

# prior #
a <- 3
b <- 7
#posterior #
a_post <- a + sum(y)
b_post <- b + (length(y) - sum(y))
a_post; b_post

```

```
## [1] 50
```

```
## [1] 60
```

Let the test stat. be the maximum number of the same consecutive results.

```

# observed test stat. #
test_stat_obs <- max(rle(y)$lengths)

# test stat. based on simulation #
nsim <- 1000
test_stat_rep <- rep(NA, nsim)
for (i in 1:1000) {
  p_post <- rbeta(1, a_post, b_post)
  y_rep <- rbinom(100, size = 1, prob = p_post)
  test_stat <- max(rle(y_rep)$lengths)
  test_stat_rep[i] <- test_stat
}

ggplot(tibble(test_stat_rep), aes(test_stat_rep)) +
  geom_histogram() + xlab("Max Num.") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = test_stat_obs, colour = "red")

```

