

2. Bayesian workflow

- ▶ Building and improving models, gaining confidence in results
- ▶ 3 examples:
 - ▶ Birthdays
 - ▶ Sex ratios
 - ▶ Spell checking

Bayesian data analysis: (1) Modeling

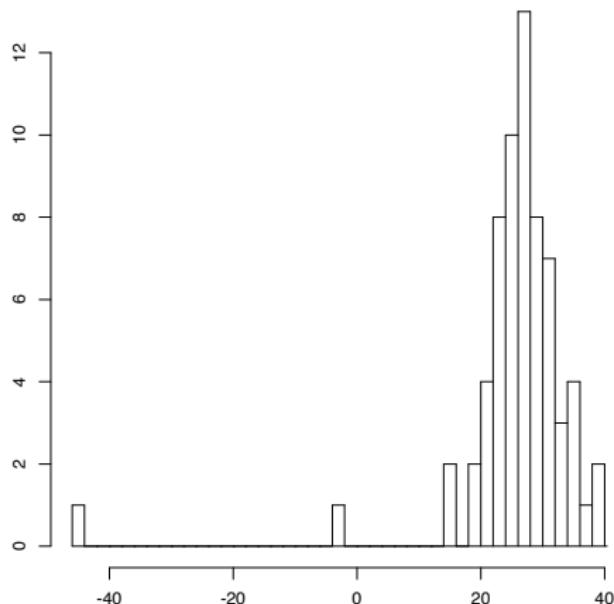
- ▶ “Generative models”
 - ▶ Data are a realization from a (multivariate) probability distribution
 - ▶ Data vector y , probability model $p(y|\theta)$, parameter vector θ
- ▶ Prior distributions
 - ▶ In Bayes inference, the parameter vector θ is a realization from a prior distribution, $p(\theta|\phi)$
 - ▶ Vector of hyperparameters ϕ is specified or itself modeled

Bayesian data analysis: (2) Inference

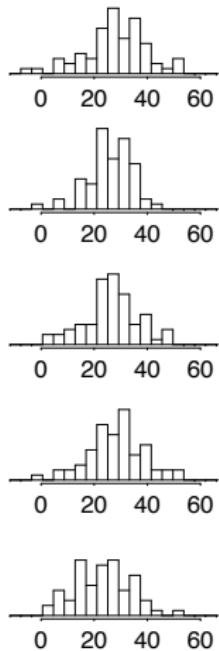
- ▶ Inference is represented by a matrix of posterior simulations
 - ▶ 1000 simulations of 90 parameters: a 1000×90 matrix
- ▶ Postprocessing
 - ▶ Inference for qoi's
 - ▶ Decision analysis

Bayesian data analysis: (3) Model checking/improvement

- ▶ A normal distribution is fit to the following data:

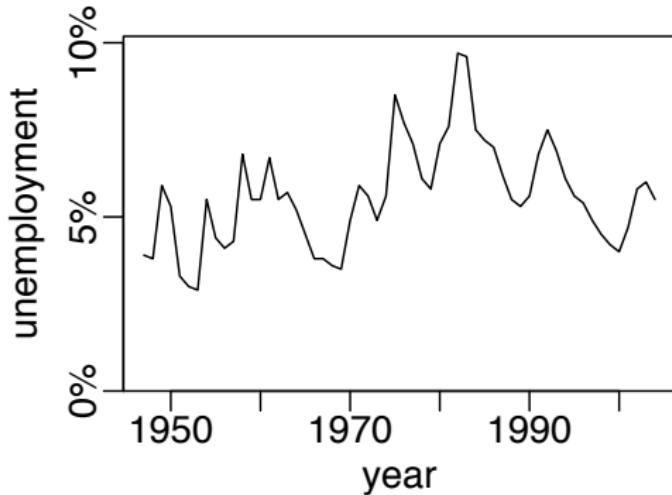


20 replications under the fitted model

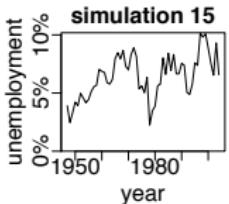
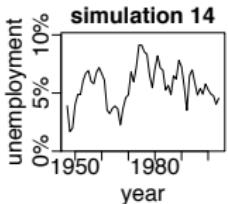
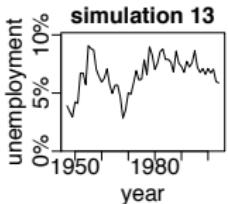
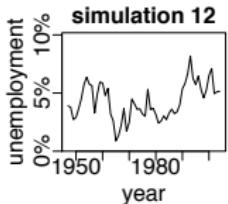
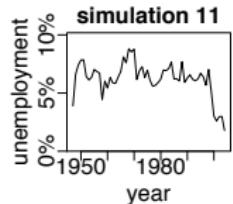
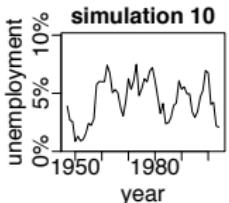
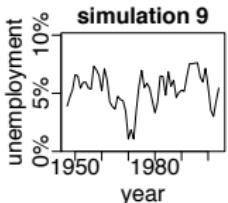
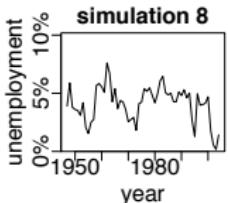
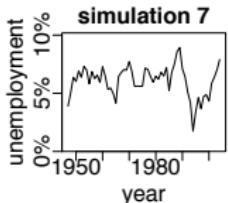
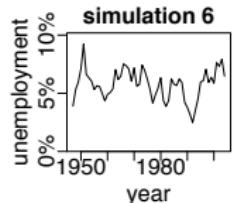
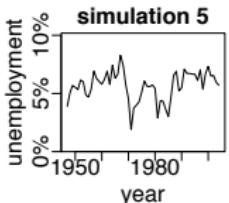
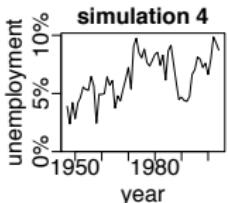
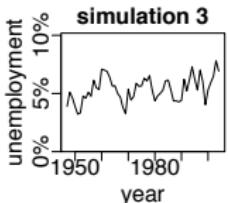
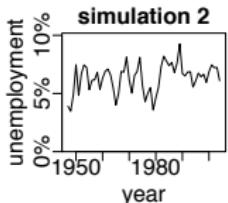
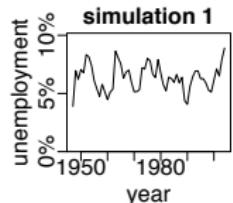


(Old) U.S. unemployment series

- ▶ Fit a first-order autoregression to these data:



15 replications under the fitted model





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Short report

Influence of Valentine's Day and Halloween on Birth Timing

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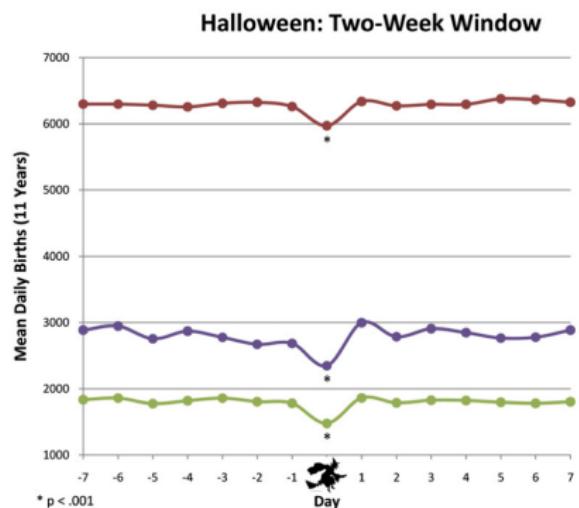
Biocultural

Birth

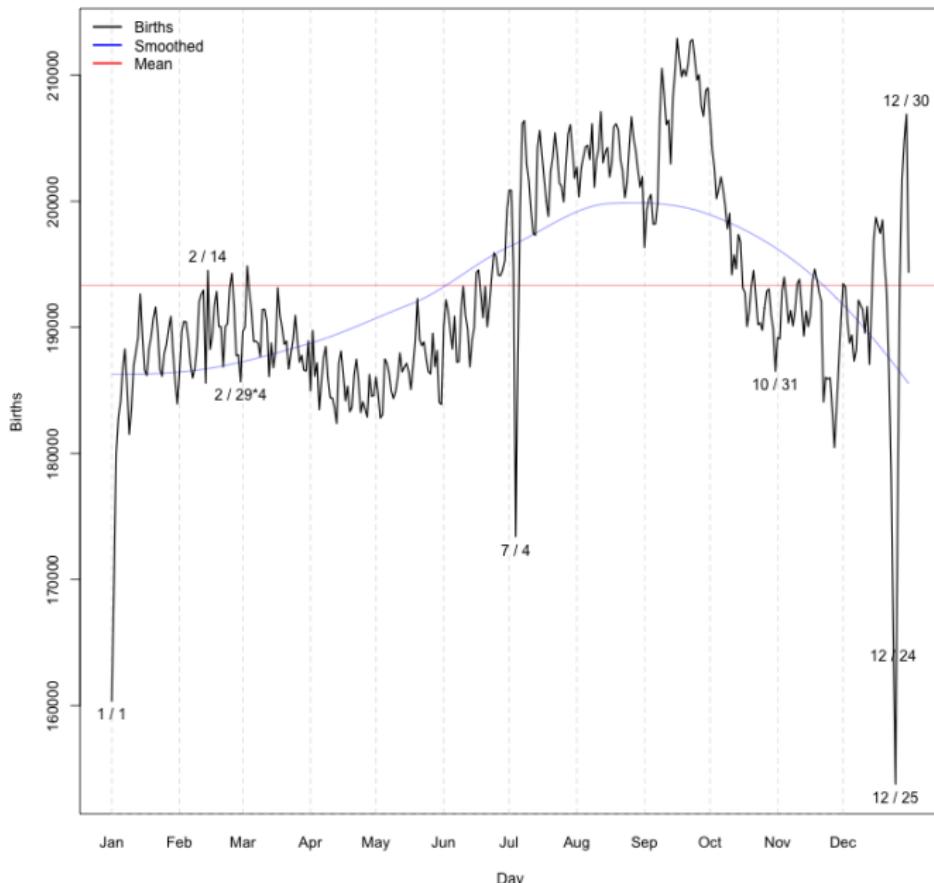
ABSTRACT

It is known that cultural representations, in the form of stereotypes, can influence functional health. We predicted that the influence of cultural representations, in the form of salient holidays, would extend to birth timing. On Valentine's Day, which conveys positive symbolism, there was a 3.6% increase in spontaneous births and a 12.1% increase in cesarean births. Whereas, on Halloween, which conveys negative symbolism, there was a 5.3% decrease in spontaneous births and a 16.9% decrease in cesarean births. These effects reached significance at $p < .0001$, after adjusting for year and day of the week. The sample was based on birth-certificate information for all births in the United States within one week on either side of each holiday across 11 years. The Valentine's-Day window included 1,676,217 births and the Halloween window included 1,809,304 births. Our findings raise the possibility that pregnant women may be able to control the timing of spontaneous births, in contrast to the traditional assumption, and that scheduled births are also influenced by the cultural representations of the two holidays.

The published graphs show data from 30 days in the year

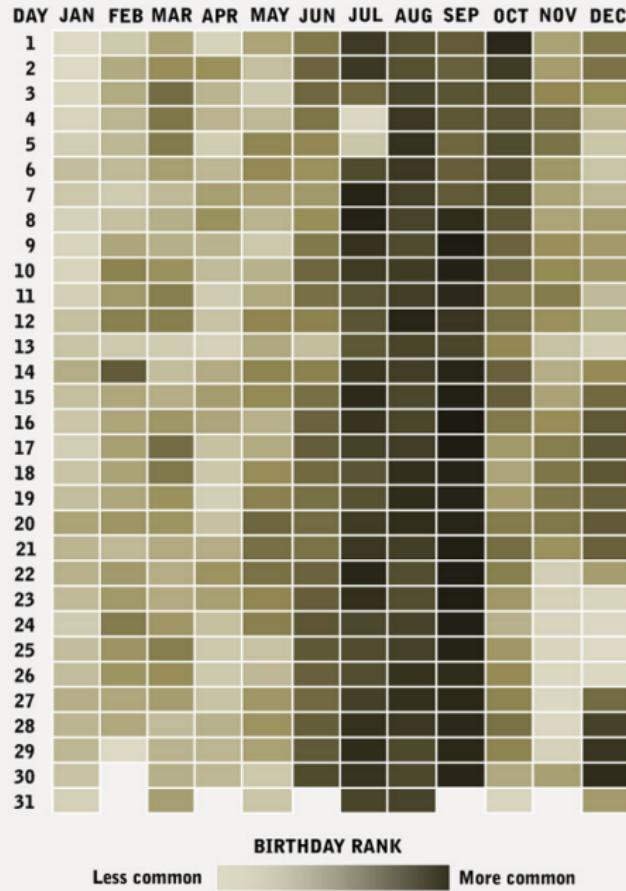


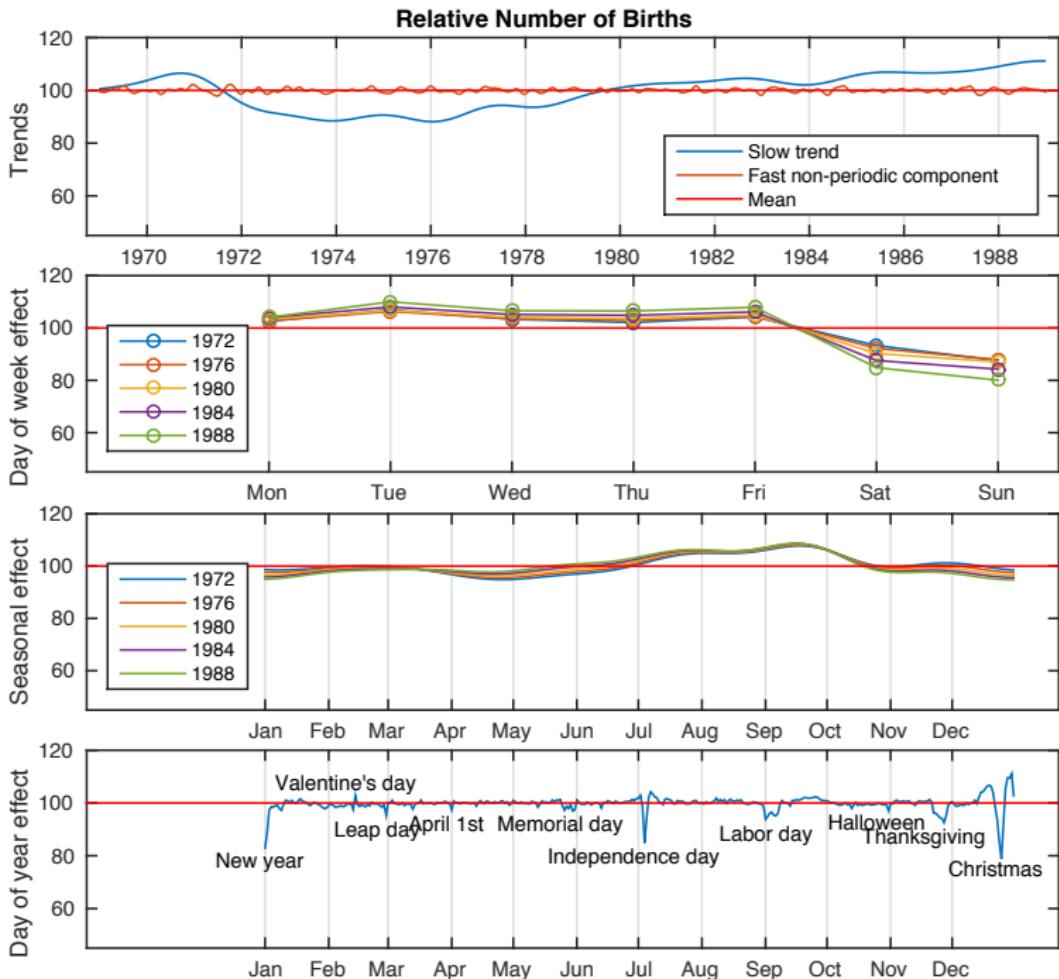
Births by Day of Year

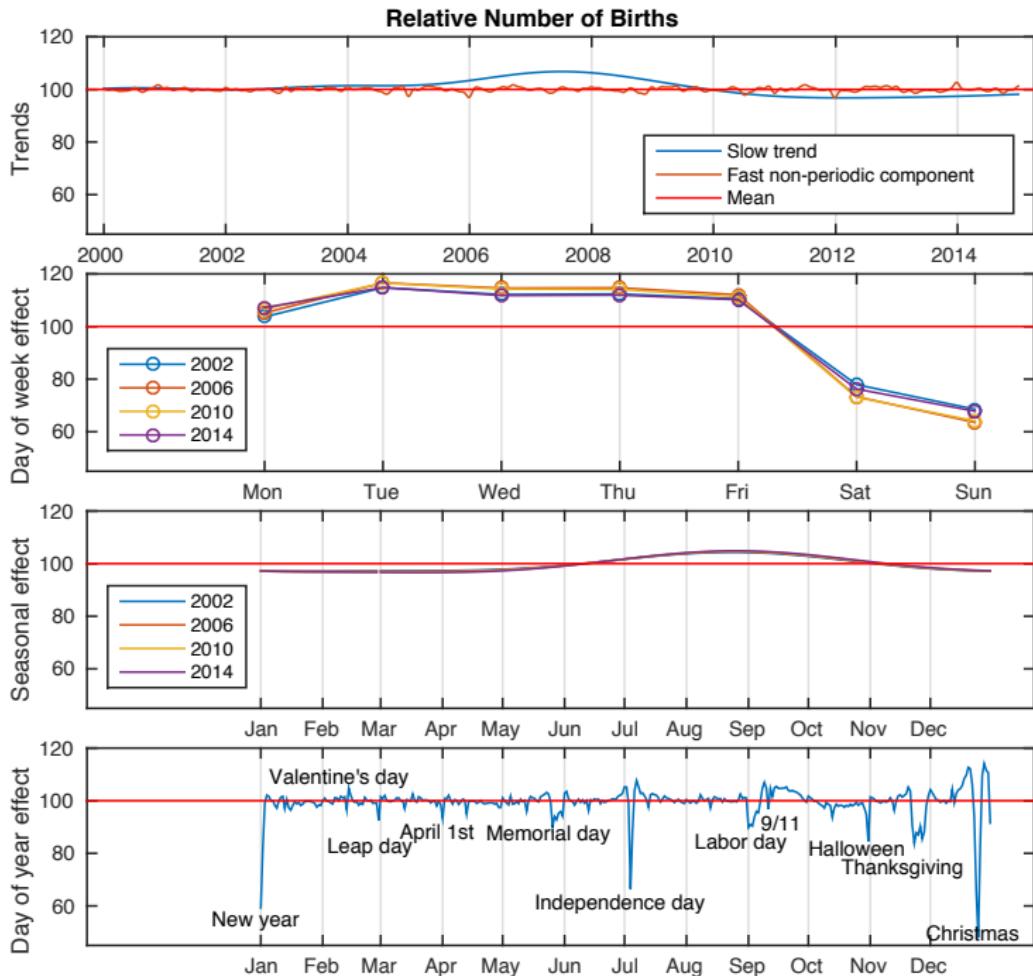


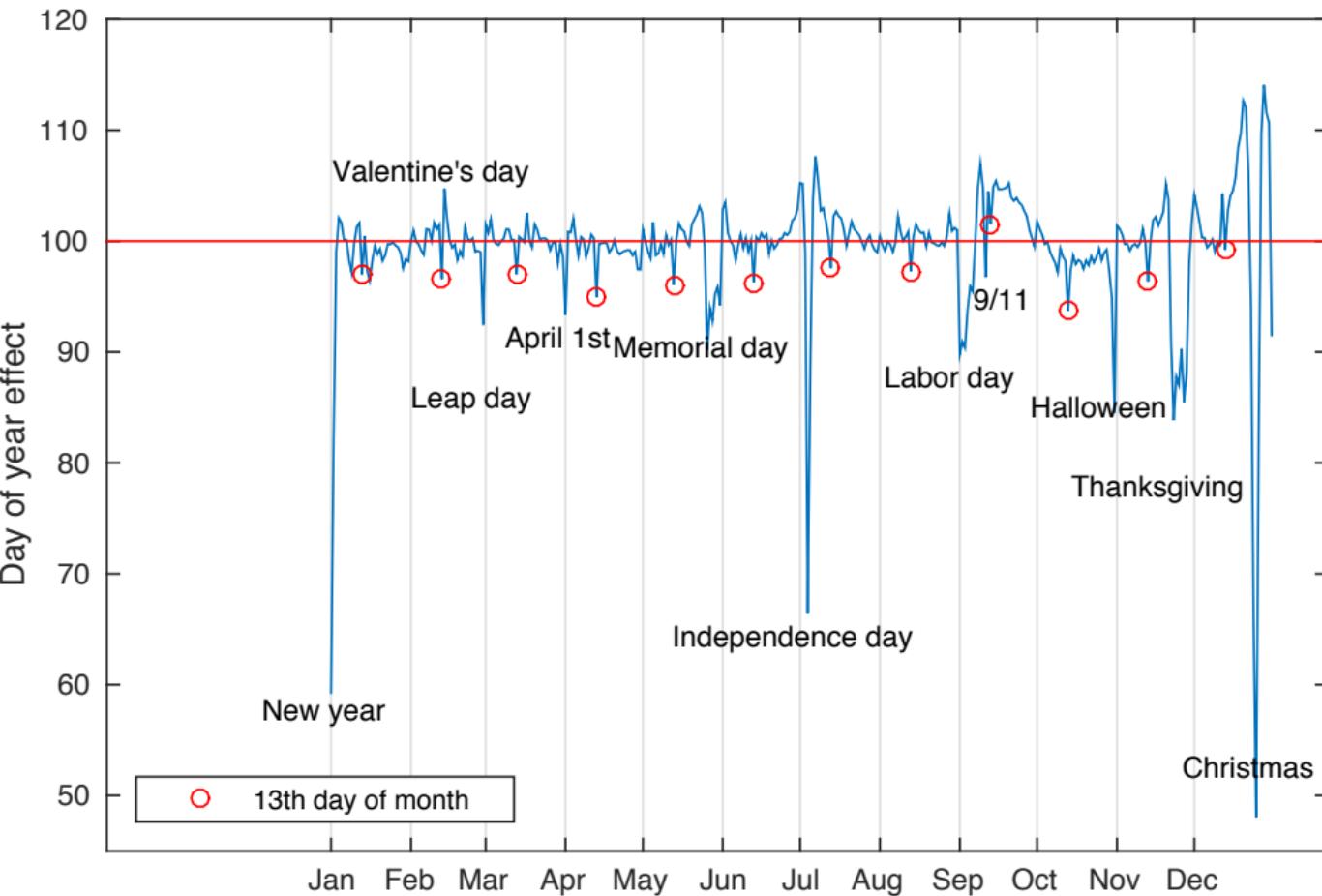
Source: National Vital Statistics System natality data, as provided by Google BigQuery. Graph by Chris Mulligan (chmullig.com)

Which Birth Dates Are Most Common?



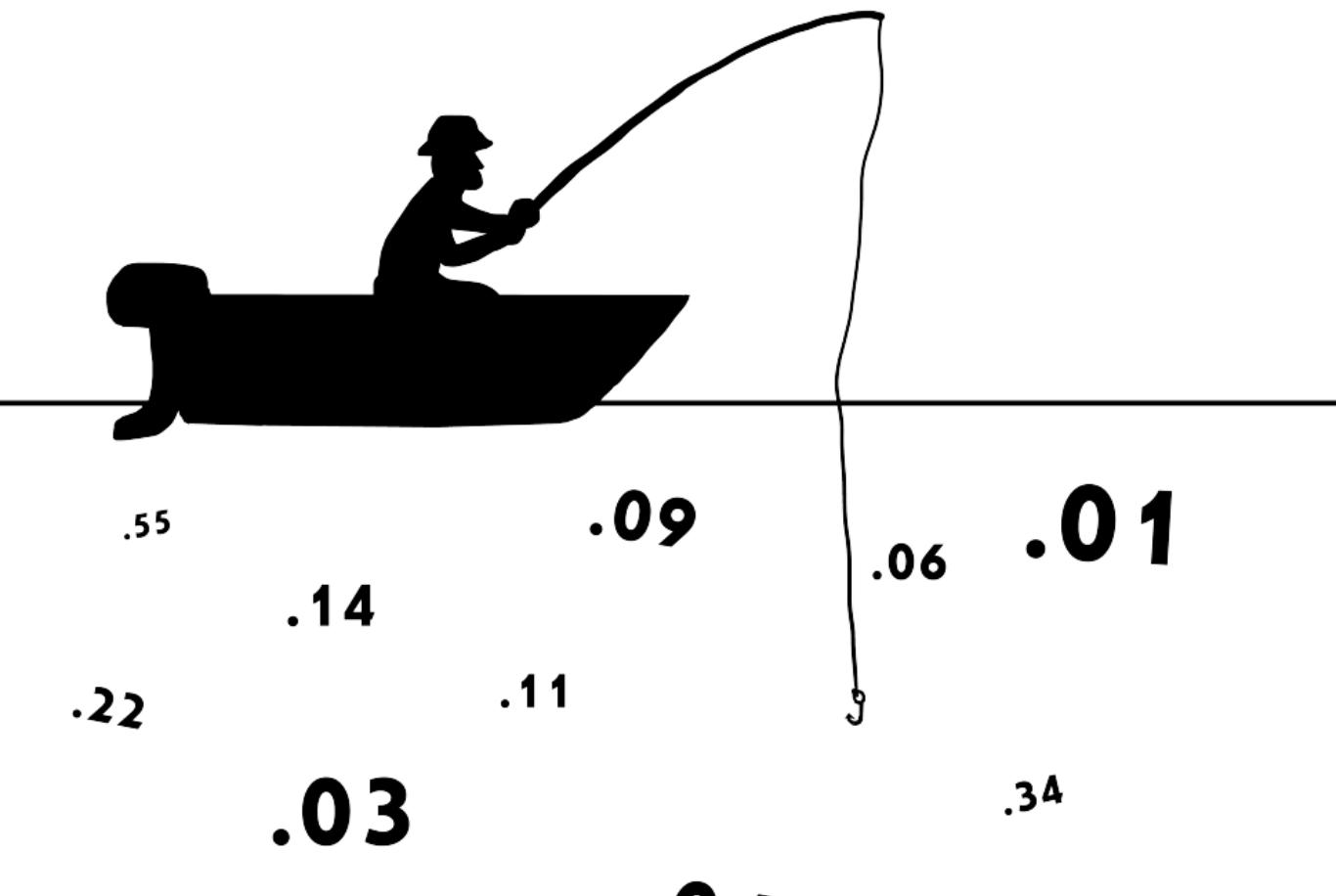






The blessing of dimensionality

- ▶ We learned by looking at 366 questions at once!
- ▶ Consider the alternative . . .



The Fluctuating Female Vote: Politics, Religion, and the Ovulatory Cycle

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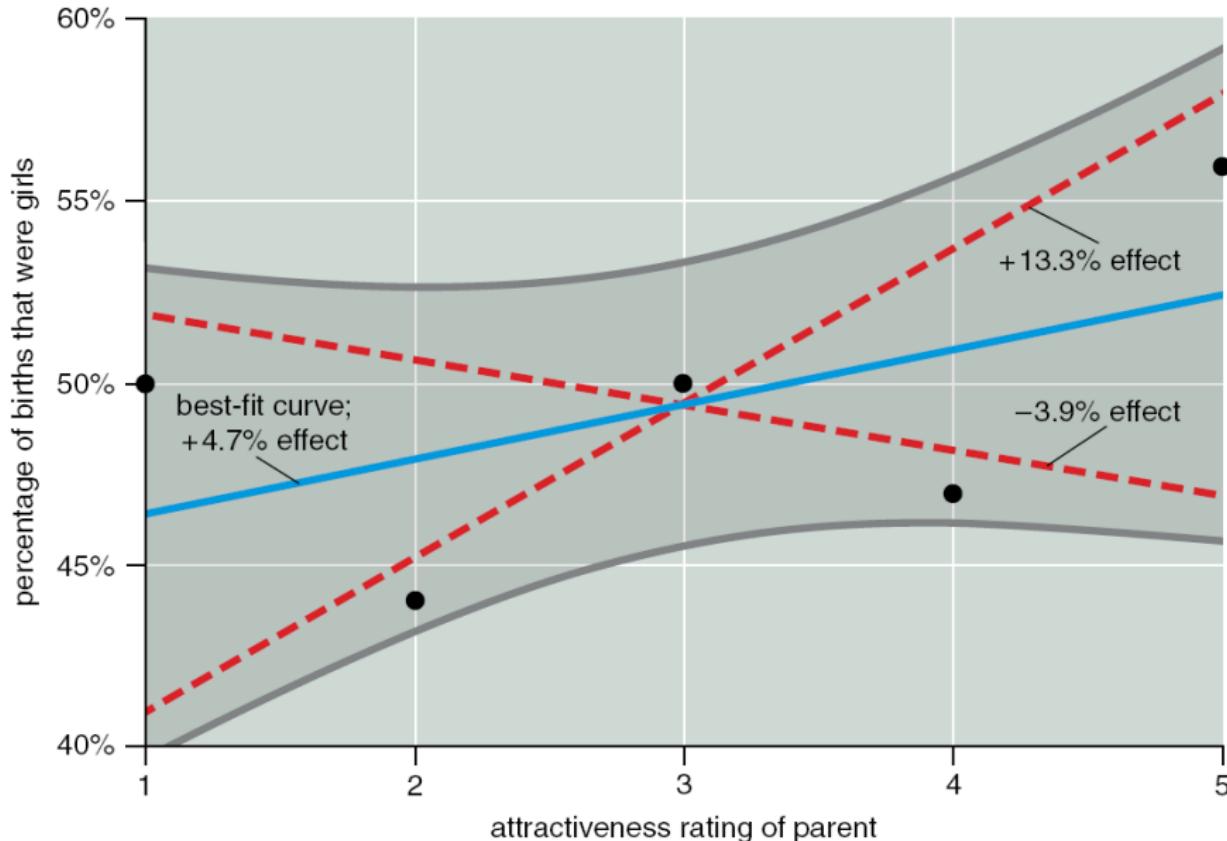
Abstract

Each month, many women experience an ovulatory cycle that regulates fertility. Although reproductive cycle influences women's mating preferences, we proposed that it might also change women's political views. Building on theory suggesting that political and religious orientation are linked to reproductive behavior, we examined how the reproductive cycle influenced women's politics, religiosity, and voting in the 2012 U.S. presidential election. Using two studies with large and diverse samples, ovulation had drastically different effects on single women than women in committed relationships. Ovulation led single women to become more liberal, less religious, and more likely to vote for Barack Obama. In contrast, ovulation led women in committed relationships to become more conservative and more likely to vote for Mitt Romney. In addition, ovulation-induced changes in political attitudes were associated with changes in women's voting behavior. Overall, the ovulatory cycle not only influences women's politics differently for single women than for women in relationships.

Beautiful parents have more daughters?

- ▶ S. Kanazawa (2007). Beautiful parents have more daughters: a further implication of the generalized Trivers-Willard hypothesis. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*.
- ▶ Attractiveness was measured on a 1–5 scale (“very unattractive” to “very attractive”)
 - ▶ 56% of children of parents in category 5 were girls
 - ▶ 48% of children of parents in categories 1–4 were girls
- ▶ Statistically significant (2.44 s.e.'s from zero, $p = 1.5\%$)
- ▶ But the simple regression of sex ratio on attractiveness is not significant (estimate is 1.5 with s.e. of 1.4)
- ▶ Multiple comparisons problem: 5 natural comparisons \times 4 possible time summaries!

The data and fitted regression line



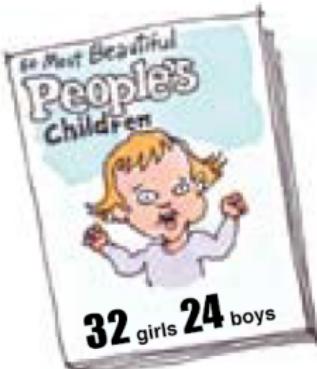
The larger statistical questions

- ▶ The questions
 - ▶ How to think about findings that are not “statistically significant”?
 - ▶ How to estimate small effects?
- ▶ The answers
 - ▶ Interpret the estimates in light of how large you think they might be (compared to your previous experience)
 - ▶ Estimate the pattern of effects rather than considering each individually

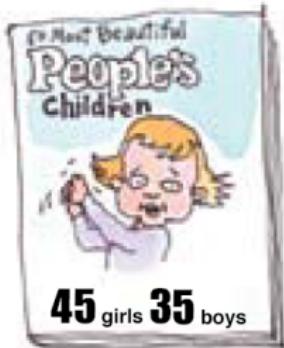
Prior information!

- ▶ $\text{Pr}(\text{boy birth}) \approx 51.5\%$
 - ▶ Boys die at a higher rate than girls
 - ▶ At age 20, the number of boys and girls is about the same
 - ▶ Evolutionary story
- ▶ What can affect $\text{Pr}(\text{boy births})$?
 - ▶ Race, parental age, birth order, maternal weight, season of birth: effects of about 1% or less
 - ▶ Extreme poverty and famine: effects as high as 3%
- ▶ We expect any effects of beauty to be less than 1%

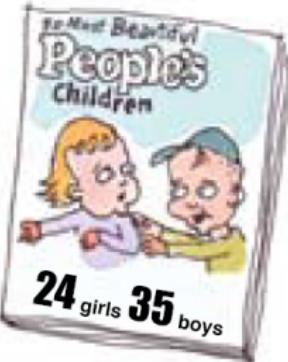
Another try: data from *People* magazine



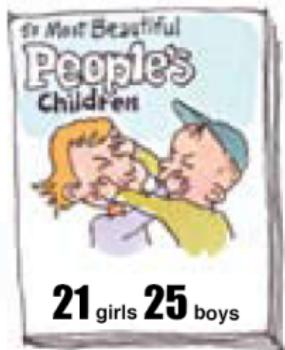
1995



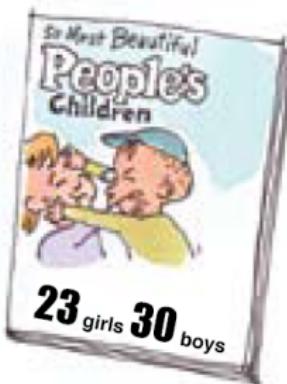
1996



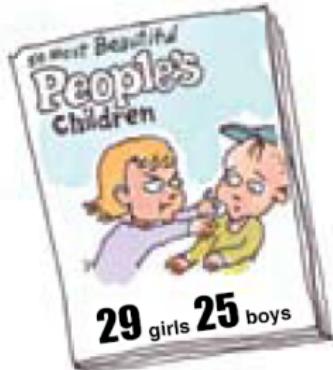
1997



1998



1999



2000

The children of each year's "50 most beautiful people"

- ▶ We collected data from 1995–2000
- ▶ 1995: 32 girls and 24 boys: 57.1% girls (standard error 8.6)
- ▶ 1996: 45 girls and 35 boys: $56.2\% \pm 7.8\%$
- ▶ 1995 + 1996: $56.6\% \pm 4.3\%$: almost statistically significant!
- ▶ 1997: 24 girls and 35 boys, ...
- ▶ Pooling 1995–2000: $47.7\% \pm 2.8\%$: not statistically significantly different from 48.5%

Why is this happening?

- ▶ Statistical theory and education are focused on estimating one effect at a time
- ▶ “Statistical significance” is a useful idea, but it doesn’t work when studying very small effects
- ▶ Methods exist for including prior knowledge of effect sizes, but these methods are not well integrated into statistical practice

Bayesian approach

- ▶ Data: difference in $\text{Pr}(\text{girl})$ estimated from 3000 respondents
 - ▶ 0.08 ± 0.03 (selected comparison)
 - ▶ 0.047 ± 0.043 (linear regression)
- ▶ Prior distribution: $N(0, 0.003^2)$
- ▶ Equivalent sample size:
 - ▶ Consider a survey with n parents
 - ▶ Compare sex ratio of prettiest $n/3$ to ugliest $n/3$
 - ▶ s.e. is $\sqrt{0.5^2/(n/3) + 0.5^2/(n/3)} = 0.5\sqrt{6/n}$
 - ▶ Equivalent info: $0.003 = 0.5\sqrt{6/n} \dots n = 166,000$
- ▶ A study with $n = 166,000$ people would be weighted equally with the prior

Example: Spell checking

- ▶ The typed word “Radom” is actually Random ($\theta = 1$), Radon ($\theta = 2$), or Radom ($\theta = 3$)
- ▶ Prior distribution:

θ	$p(\theta)$
random	7.60×10^{-5}
radon	6.05×10^{-6}
radom	3.12×10^{-7}

- ▶ Likelihood:

θ	$p(\text{"radom"} \theta)$
random	0.00193
radon	0.000143
radom	0.975

Spell checking

- ▶ Prior, likelihood, posterior distributions:

θ	$p(\theta)$	$p(y \theta)$	$p(\theta)p(y \theta)$	$p(\theta y)$
random	7.60×10^{-5}	0.00193	1.47×10^{-7}	0.325
radon	6.05×10^{-6}	0.000143	8.65×10^{-10}	0.002
radom	3.12×10^{-7}	0.975	3.04×10^{-7}	0.673

- ▶ Decision making
- ▶ Model checking
- ▶ Model improvement