Outline of the chapter 2

- 2.1 Binomial model (repeated experiment with binary outcome)
- 2.2 Posterior as compromise between data and prior information
- 2.3 Posterior summaries
- 2.4 Informative prior distributions (skip exponential families and sufficient statistics)
- 2.5 Gaussian model with known variance
- 2.6 Other single parameter models
 - the normal distribution with known mean but unknown variance is the most important
 - glance through Poisson and exponential
- 2.7 glance through this example, which illustrates benefits of prior information, no need to read all the details (it's quite long example)
- 2.8 Noninformative and weakly informative priors

ullet Probability of event 1 in trial is θ

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- ullet Probability of event 2 in trial is 1 $-\theta$

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- Probability of event 2 in trial is 1θ
- Probability of several events in independent trials is e.g. $\theta\theta(1-\theta)\theta(1-\theta)(1-\theta)\dots$

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- Probability of event 2 in trial is 1θ
- Probability of several events in independent trials is e.g. $\theta\theta(1-\theta)\theta(1-\theta)(1-\theta)\dots$
- If there are n trials and we don't care about the order of the events, then the probability that event 1 happens y times is

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

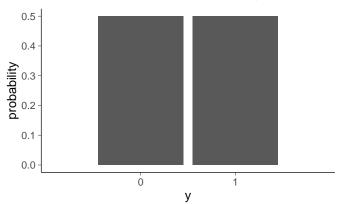
• Observation model (function of y, discrete)

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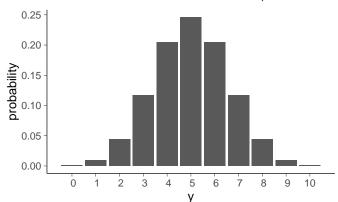
Binomial distribution with $\theta = 0.5$, n=1



• Observation model (function of *y*, discrete)

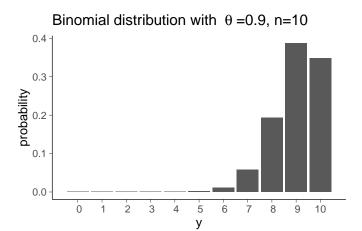
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Start with uniform prior

$$p(\theta|n, M) = p(\theta|M) = 1$$
, when $0 \le \theta \le 1$

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, when $0 \le \theta \le 1$

Then

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \frac{p(y|\theta, n, M)}{p(y|n, M)} = \frac{\binom{n}{y}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}}{\int_{0}^{1} \binom{n}{y}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}d\theta}$$
$$= \frac{1}{Z}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y}$$

Normalization term Z (constant given y)

$$Z = \int_0^1 \theta^y (1-\theta)^{n-y} d\theta = \frac{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}{\Gamma(n+2)}$$

- Normalisation term has Beta function form
 - when integrated over (0,1) the result can presented with Gamma functions
 - with integers $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$
 - for large integers even this is challenging and usually $\log \Gamma(\cdot)$ is computed instead of $\Gamma(\cdot)$

Posterior is

$$p(\theta|y,n,M) = \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y},$$

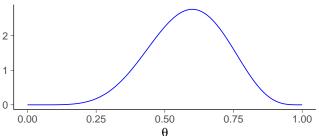
Posterior is

$$p(\theta|y,n,M) = \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(n-y+1)}\theta^{y}(1-\theta)^{n-y},$$

which is called Beta distribution

$$\theta|y,n\sim \text{Beta}(y+1,n-y+1)$$

p(
$$\theta \mid y=6, n=10, M=binom) + unif. prior$$
)



Binomial: computation

- R
- density dbeta
- CDF pbeta
- quantile qbeta
- random number rbeta
- Python
 - from scipy.stats import beta
 - density beta.pdf
 - CDF beta.cdf
 - prctile beta.ppf
 - random number beta.rvs

Binomial: computation*

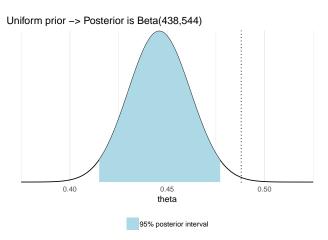
- Beta CDF not trivial to compute
- For example, pbeta in R uses a continued fraction with weighting factors and asymptotic expansion
- Laplace developed normal approximation (Laplace approximation), because he didn't know how to compute Beta CDF

Placenta previa

- Probability of a girl birth given placenta previa (BDA3 p. 37)
 - 437 girls and 543 boys have been observed
 - is the ratio 0.445 different from the population average 0.485?

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$$p(\tilde{y}=1|y,n,M)=\int_0^1 p(\tilde{y}=1|\theta,y,n,M)p(\theta|y,n,M)d\theta$$

$$p(\tilde{y} = 1|y, n, M) = \int_0^1 p(\tilde{y} = 1|\theta, y, n, M)p(\theta|y, n, M)d\theta$$
$$= \int_0^1 \theta p(\theta|y, n, M)d\theta$$

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$$= E[\theta|y]$$

• Predictive distribution for new \tilde{y} (discrete)

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With uniform prior

$$\mathsf{E}[\theta|y] = \frac{y+1}{n+2}$$

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Extreme cases

$$p(\tilde{y} = 1 | y = 0, n, M) = \frac{1}{n+2}$$

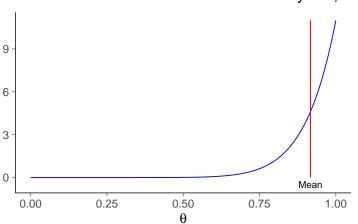
 $p(\tilde{y} = 1 | y = n, n, M) = \frac{n+1}{n+2}$

cf. maximum likelihood

Benefits of integration

Example: n = 10, y = 10

Posterior of θ of Binomial model with y=10, n=



Predictive distribution

• Prior predictive distribution for new \tilde{y} (discrete)

$$p(\tilde{y} = 1|M) = \int_0^1 p(\tilde{y} = 1|\theta, y, n, M) p(\theta|M) d\theta$$

$$p(\tilde{y}=1|y,n,M) = \int_0^1 p(\tilde{y}=1|\theta,y,n,M) p(\theta|y,n,M) d\theta$$

Justification for uniform prior

- $p(\theta|M) = 1$ if
 - 1) we want the prior predictive distribution to be uniform

$$p(y|n, M) = \frac{1}{n+1}, \quad y = 0, \dots, n$$

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- 2) we think all values of θ are equally likely

Priors

- Conjugate prior (BDA3 p. 35)
- Noninformative prior (BDA3 p. 51)
- Proper and improper prior (BDA3 p. 52)
- Weakly informative prior (BDA3 p. 55)
- Informative prior (BDA3 p. 55)
- Prior sensitivity (BDA3 p. 38)

Conjugate prior

- Prior and posterior have the same form
 - only for exponential family distributions (plus for some irregular cases)
- Used to be important for computational reasons, and still sometimes used for special models to allow partial analytic marginalization (Ch 3)
 - with dynamic Hamiltonian Monte Carlo used e.g. in Stan no any computational benefit

Prior

Beta
$$(\theta | \alpha, \beta) \propto \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$

Posterior

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) \propto \theta^{y} (1-\theta)^{n-y} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

Prior

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Posterior

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{M}) \propto \theta^{\mathbf{y}} (1 - \theta)^{n - \mathbf{y}} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$
$$\propto \theta^{\mathbf{y} + \alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{n - \mathbf{y} + \beta - 1}$$

Prior

$$\mathsf{Beta}(\theta|\alpha,\beta) \propto \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

Posterior

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) \propto \theta^{y} (1 - \theta)^{n - y} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$
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after normalization

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

Prior

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Posterior

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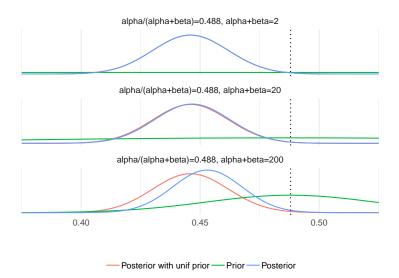
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$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

- $(\alpha 1)$ and $(\beta 1)$ can considered to be number of prior observations
- Uniform prior when $\alpha = 1$ and $\beta = 1$

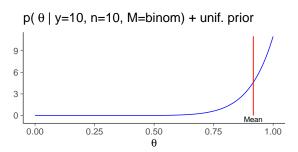
Placenta previa

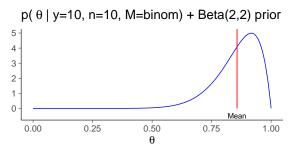
Beta prior centered on population average 0.485



Benefits of integration and prior

Example: n = 10, y = 10 - uniform vs Beta(2,2) prior





Beta prior for Binomial model

Posterior

$$p(\theta|y, n, M) = \text{Beta}(\theta|\alpha + y, \beta + n - y)$$

Posterior mean

$$\mathsf{E}[\theta|y] = \frac{\alpha + y}{\alpha + \beta + n}$$

- combination prior and likelihood information
- when $n \to \infty$, $\mathsf{E}[\theta|y] \to y/n$

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- combination prior and likelihood information
- when $n \to \infty$, $\mathsf{E}[\theta|y] \to y/n$
- Posterior variance

$$Var[\theta|y] = \frac{E[\theta|y](1 - E[\theta|y])}{\alpha + \beta + n + 1}$$

- decreases when n increases
- when $n \to \infty$, $Var[\theta|y] \to 0$

Noninformative prior, proper and improper prior

- Vague, flat, diffuse of noninformative
 - try to "to let the data speak for themselves"
 - flat is not non-informative
 - flat can be stupid
 - making prior flat somewhere can make it non-flat somewhere else
- Proper prior has $\int p(\theta) = 1$
- Improper prior density doesn't have a finite integral
 - the posterior can still sometimes be proper

Weakly informative priors

- Weakly informative priors produce computationally better behaving posteriors
 - quite often there's at least some knowledge about the scale
 - useful also if there's more information from previous observations, but not certain how well that information is applicable in a new case uncertainty

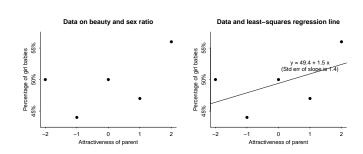
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- Construction
 - Start with some version of a noninformative prior distribution and then add enough information so that inferences are constrained to be reasonable.
 - Start with a strong, highly informative prior and broaden it to account for uncertainty in one's prior beliefs and in the applicability of any historically based prior distribution to new data.
- Stan team prior choice recommendations https://github. com/stan-dev/stan/wiki/Prior-Choice-Recommendations

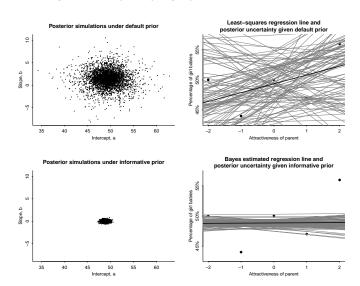
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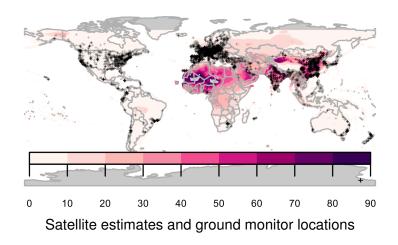


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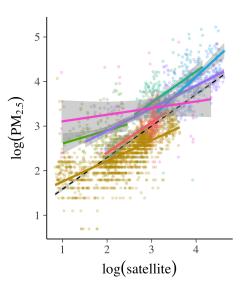


- Gabry et al (2019). Visualization in Bayesian workflow.
 - Estimation of human exposure to air pollution from particulate matter measuring less than 2.5 microns in diameter (PM_{2.5})
 - A recent report estimated that PM_{2.5} is responsible for three million deaths worldwide each year (Shaddick et al, 2017)

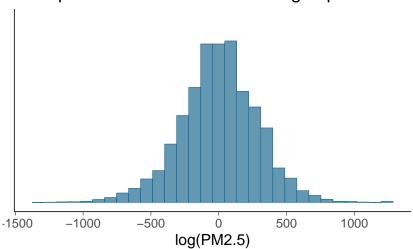
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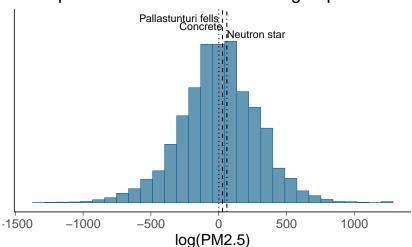
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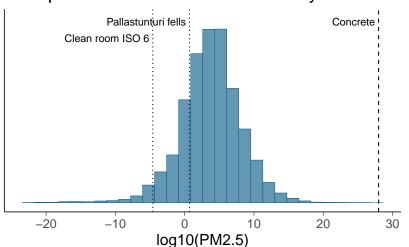




Prior predictive distribution with vague prior



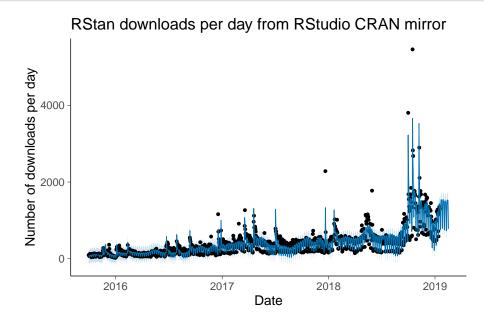
Prior predictive distribution with weakly informative



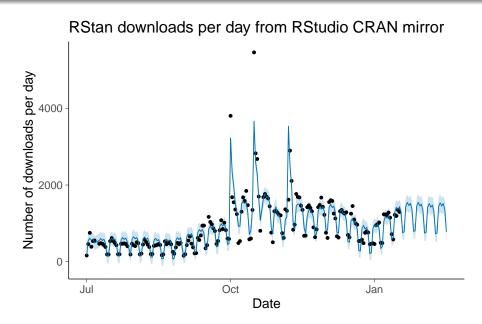
Effect of incorrect priors?

- Introduce bias, but often still produce smaller estimation error because the variance is reduced
 - bias-variance tradeoff

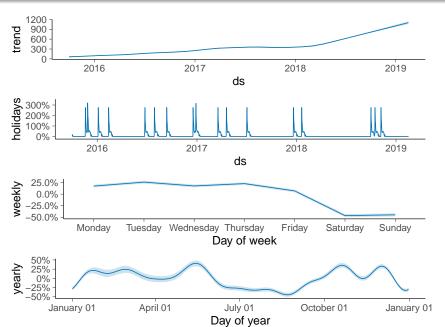
Structural information in predicting future



Structural information in predicting future



Structural information – Prophet by Facebook

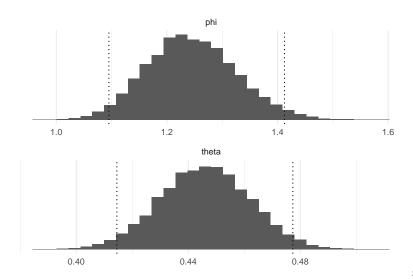


Sufficient statistics*

• The quantity t(y) is said to be a *sufficient statistic* for θ , because the likelihood for θ depends on the data y only through the value of t(y).

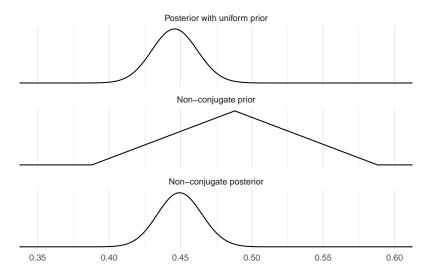
Posterior visualization and inference demos

• demo2_3: Simulate samples from Beta(438,544), and draw a histogram of θ with quantiles.



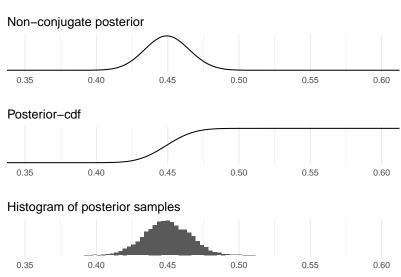
Posterior visualization and inference demos

demo2_4: Compute posterior distribution in a grid.



Posterior visualization and inference demos

demo2_4: Sample using the inverse-cdf method.



Algae status is monitored in 274 sites at Finnish lakes and rivers. The observations for the 2008 algae status at each site are presented in file algae.mat ('0': no algae, '1': algae present). Let π be the probability of a monitoring site having detectable blue-green algae levels.

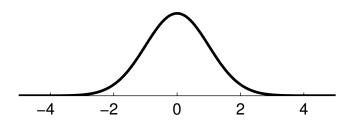
- Use a binomial model for observations and a beta(2,10) prior.
- What can you say about the value of the unknown π ?
- Experiment how the result changes if you change the prior.

Normal / Gaussian

- Observations y real valued
- Mean θ and variance σ^2 (or deviation σ) (first assume σ^2 known)

$$p(y|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\theta)^2\right)$$

 $y \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2)$



Reasons to use Normal distribution

- Normal distribution often justified based on central limit theorem
- More often used due to the computational convenience or tradition

Central limit theorem*

- De Moivre, Laplace, Gauss, Chebysev, Liapounov, Markov, et al.
- Given certain conditions sum (and mean) of random variables approach Gaussian distribution as d $n \to \infty$
- Problems
 - does not hold for all distributions, e.g., Cauchy
 - may require large n,
 e.g. Binomial, when θ close to 0 or 1
 - does not hold if one the variables has much larger scale

• Assume σ^2 known

Likelihood
$$p(y|\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\theta)^2\right)$$

Prior
$$p(\theta) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_0^2}(\theta-\mu_0)^2\right)$$

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 $\exp(a)\exp(b) = \exp(a+b)$

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$$\exp(a)\exp(b)=\exp(a+b)$$

Posterior
$$p(\theta|y) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(y-\theta)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\theta-\mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2}\right]\right)$$

Posterior (see ex 2.14a)

$$egin{split}
ho(heta|y) &\propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}\left[rac{(y- heta)^2}{\sigma^2} + rac{(heta-\mu_0)^2}{ au_0^2}
ight]
ight) \ &\propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2 au_1^2}(heta-\mu_1)^2
ight) \end{split}$$

$$\theta|y \sim N(\mu_1, \tau_1^2), \quad \text{where} \quad \mu_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2}\mu_0 + \frac{1}{\sigma^2}y}{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\tau_1^2} = \frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$

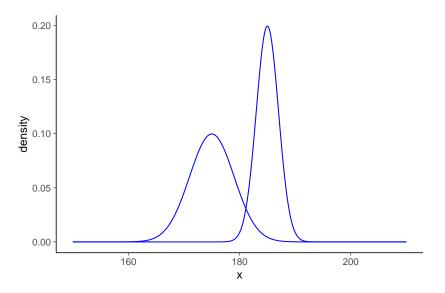
Posterior (see ex 2.14a)

$$p(\theta|y) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(y-\theta)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(\theta-\mu_0)^2}{\tau_0^2}\right]\right)$$
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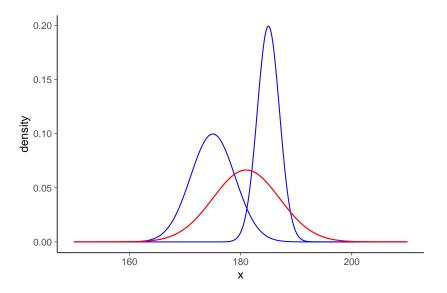
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- 1/variance = precision
- Posterior precision = prior precision + data precision
- Posterior mean is precision weighted mean

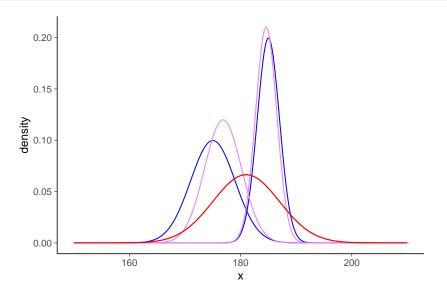
Normal distribution - example



Normal distribution - example



Normal distribution - example



Several observations – use chain rule

• Several observations $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$

$$p(\theta|y) = N(\theta|\mu_n, \tau_n^2)$$

where
$$\mu_n = \frac{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} \mu_0 + \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \bar{y}}{\frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}}$$
 ja $\frac{1}{\tau_n^2} = \frac{1}{\tau_0^2} + \frac{n}{\sigma^2}$

• If $\tau_0^2 = \sigma^2$, prior corresponds to one virtual observation with value μ_0

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- If $\tau_0^2 = \sigma^2$, prior corresponds to one virtual observation with value μ_0
- If $\tau_0 \to \infty$ when n fixed or if $n \to \infty$ when τ_0 fixed

$$p(\theta|y) \approx N(\theta|\bar{y}, \sigma^2/n)$$

Posterior predictive distribution

$$\begin{split} & p(\tilde{y}|y) = \int p(\tilde{y}|\theta) p(\theta|y) d\theta \\ & p(\tilde{y}|y) \propto \int \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\tilde{y} - \theta)^2\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\tau_1^2} (\theta - \mu_1)^2\right) d\theta \\ & \tilde{y}|y \sim \mathsf{N}(\mu_1, \sigma^2 + \tau_1^2) \end{split}$$

• Predictive variance = observation model variance σ^2 + posterior variance τ_1^2