

# Measurements, uncertainties and probabilistic inference/forecasting

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[ Plus other **prescriptions** you might imagine. . . ]

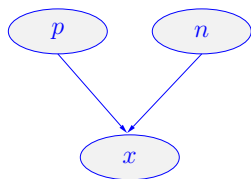
# $n$ independent Bernoulli processes

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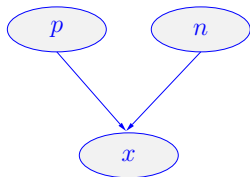
## Model



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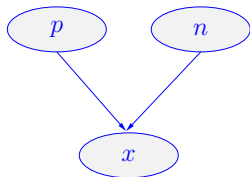
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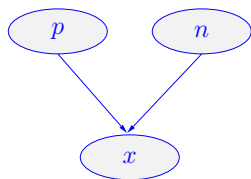
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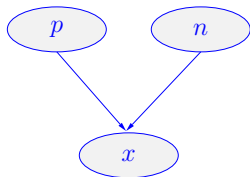
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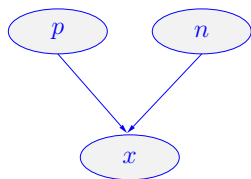
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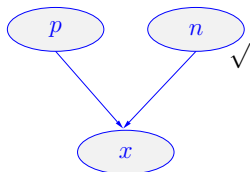
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( $n$  and  $p$  are independent)

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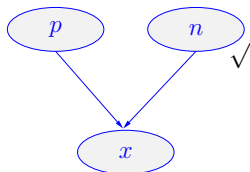
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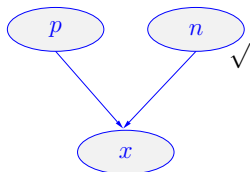
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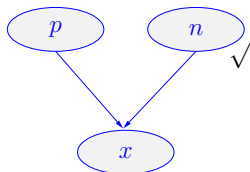
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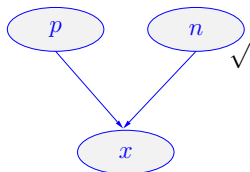
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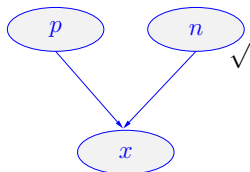
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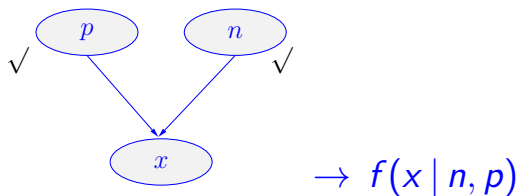
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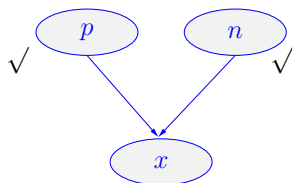
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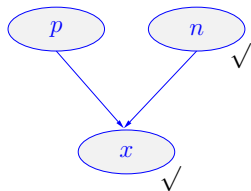


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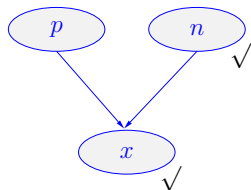
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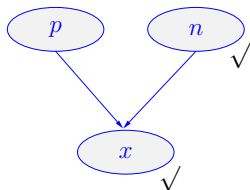
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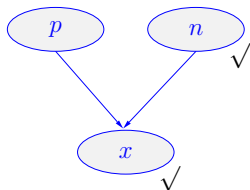
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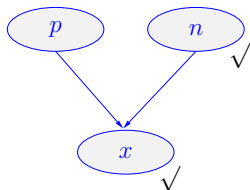
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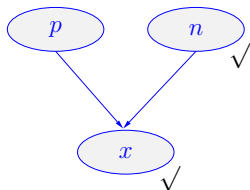
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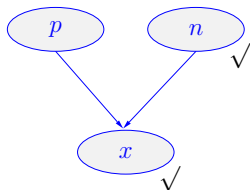
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(denominator just normalization!)

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(The binomial coefficient is irrelevant, not depending on  $p$ )

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- ▶ The integral at the denominator is the **special function “ $\beta$ ”** (also defined for real values of  $x$  and  $n$ ).
- ▶ In our case these two numbers are integer and the integral becomes equal to

$$\frac{x! (n-x)!}{(n+1)!}$$

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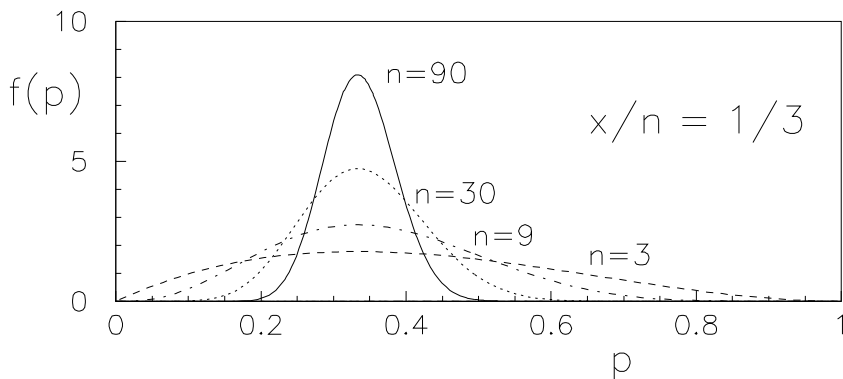
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$E(p)$  (and not the mode!) is the probability of every ‘future’ event which is believed to have the **same  $p$**  of the ‘previous’ ones.

# Inferring the “Bernoulli’s $p$ ”

About the meaning of  $E(p)$

- ▶ We have used the “first”<sup>(\*)</sup>  $n$  trials to learn about “ $p$ ”.  
[<sup>(\*)</sup> “First” does not imply time order, but just order in usage.]
- ▶ What will be the probability of other trials?

$$P(E_{i>n}) = ??$$

- ▶ If we were sure about  $p$ , then  $p$  would be our probability:

$$P(E_i | p) = p$$

- ▶ But since we are uncertain about it, we have to take into account all possible values, weighing them with our degree of belief.

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(But keep in mind the **inductivist turkey!**)

# Inferring the “Bernoulli’s $p$ ”

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When the number of successes and the number of failures become ‘large’ ( $\times$  large is not enough, as it can be easily understood from the symmetric properties of the binomial  $p \leftrightarrow q$ ):

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(Similarly to Bernoulli’s theorem, it is not a ‘mathematical’ limit!)

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Large number behaviour: summary

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- **The probability of a future events is evaluated from the relative frequency of the past events**
- **No need of ‘frequentistic definition’!**

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Frequency and probability are **related** in probability theory:

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- ▶ There is no need to identify the two concepts.
- ▶ It does not justify the frequentistic definition.

# Propagation of **errors** in the evaluation of efficiency

From a recent '**tesi di laurea**' in Rome ('quadriennale')  
(undergraduate thesis)

Da questa analisi si ottengono

$$N = (82502 \pm 287) \quad n_S = (82378 \pm 287).$$

dove  $\sigma_{N(n)} = \sqrt{N(n)}$ .

Da  $N$  e  $n_S$  si ricava il valore dell'efficienza in Pos 1:

$$\epsilon_{S(Pos1)} = \frac{n_S}{N} = (99.847)\%$$

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$$\frac{\sigma(\epsilon)^{\text{wrong}}}{\sigma(\epsilon)^{\text{correct}}} = \frac{1/\sqrt{N} \sqrt{n/N \cdot (1 + n/N)}}{1/\sqrt{N} \sqrt{n/N \cdot (1 - n/N)}}$$

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## Propagation of errors... and of mistakes

Eseguendo queste operazioni otteniamo il seguente risultato:

$$\epsilon_{S(Pos1)} = (99.847 \pm 0,005^{(stat)} \pm 0,010^{(sist)})\%.$$

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**Good luck to the experiment!**

# Inferring the “Bernoulli’s $p$ ”

Approximate solution using the ‘Gaussian trick’

## Exercise

- ▶ Given  $f(p) \propto p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$ ,
- ▶ define  $\varphi(p) = -\ln f(p)$
- ▶ and evaluate
  - ▶  $\frac{d\varphi}{dp}$
  - ▶  $\frac{d^2\varphi}{dp^2}$
- ▶ Then estimate
  - ▶  $E(p) \approx p_m$  from minimum;
  - ▶  $\sigma^2(p)$  from second derivative at the minimum.

# Inferring “Bernoulli’s $p$ ”

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$$f(0 \mid \mathcal{B}_{n,p}) = (1 - p)^n,$$

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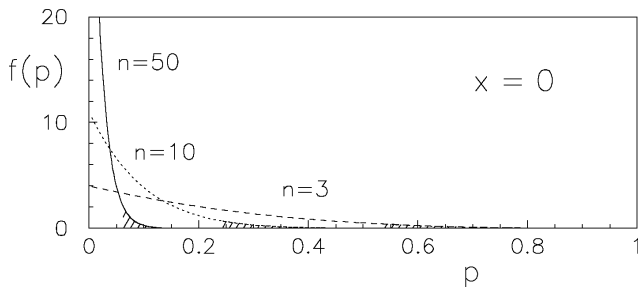
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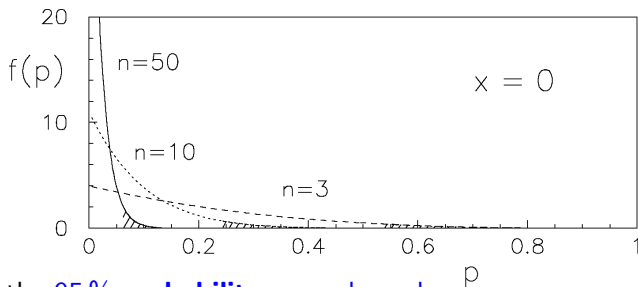
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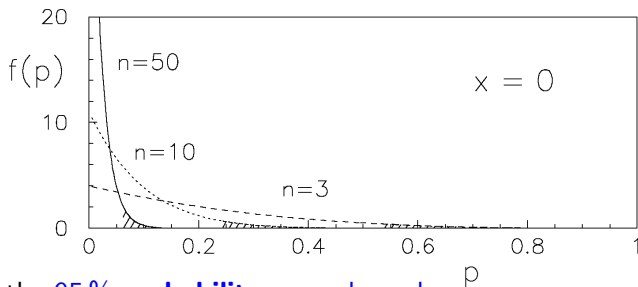
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A glance to upper/lower probabilistic limits

	Probability level = 95 %		
$n$	$x = n$	$x = 0$	
	binomial	binomial	Poisson approx. ( $p_0 = 3/n$ )
3	$p \geq 0.47$	$p \leq 0.53$	$p \leq 1$
5	$p \geq 0.61$	$p \leq 0.39$	$p \leq 0.6$
10	$p \geq 0.76$	$p \leq 0.24$	$p \leq 0.3$
50	$p \geq 0.94$	$p \leq 0.057$	$p \leq 0.06$
100	$p \geq 0.97$	$p \leq 0.029$	$p \leq 0.03$
1000	$p \geq 0.997$	$p \leq 0.003$	$p \leq 0.003$

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**Really do you believe so?**

**Exercise:** try to plot  $f(p | x = 0, n = 100)$  in log-log scale

```
> p=10^seq(-5,-1,len=100);  
> plot(p, (1-p)^100, ty='l', log='xy'); grid()  
(and think about it!)
```

# Very rare processes

Sensitivity bounds: some hints for **self study**

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- ▶ Do the math and calculate the posterior.
- ▶ Anticipation of the result
  - ▶ **if the prior is not updated** at all, or if it is not changed significantly, than **the experimental information is irrelevant.**

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Indeed, such a pdf exists ( $a = r - 1$ ;  $b = s - 1$ ).

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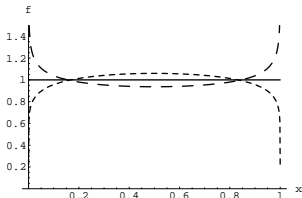
**Try e.g.**

```
> p<-seq(0,1,by=0.01)
> plot(p, dbeta(p, 3, 5), ty='l', col='blue')
```

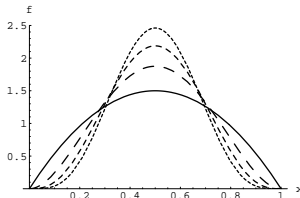
# Beta distribution

## Some examples

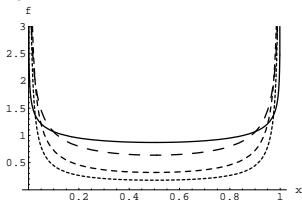
**A)**  $r = s = 1, 1.1 \text{ e } 0.9$



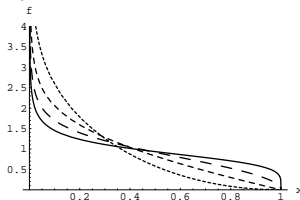
**B)**  $r = s = 2, 3, 4, 5$



**C)**  $r = s = 0.8, 0.5, 0.2, 0.1$



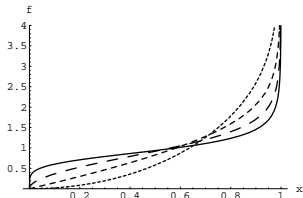
**D)**  $r = 0.8; s = 1.2, 1.5, 2, 3$



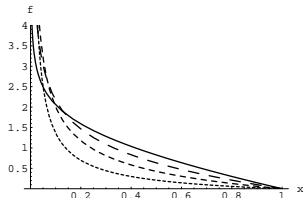
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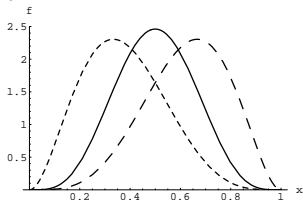
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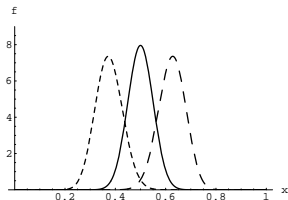
**F)**  $s = 2$ ;  $r = 0.8, 0.6, 0.4, 0.2$



**G)**  $(r, s) = (3, 5), (5, 5), (5, 3)$



**H)**  $(r, s) = (30, 50), (50, 50), (50, 30)$



# Beta distribution

## Summaries

$$\begin{aligned}E(X) &= \frac{r}{r+s} \\ \text{Var}(X) &= \frac{rs}{(r+s+1)(r+s)^2}.\end{aligned}$$

Mode, **unique** if  $r > 1$  and  $s > 1$ :

$$\frac{r-1}{r+s-2}$$

# A useful app

<https://play.google.com/store/apps/details?id=com.mbognar.probdist>



## Probability Distributions

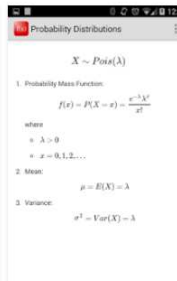
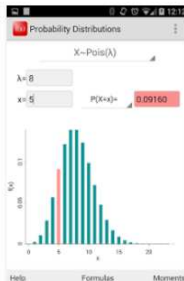
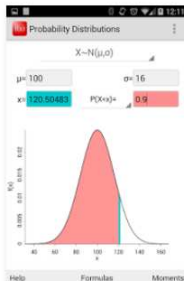
Matthew Bognar Istruzione

★★★★★ 562

PEGI 3

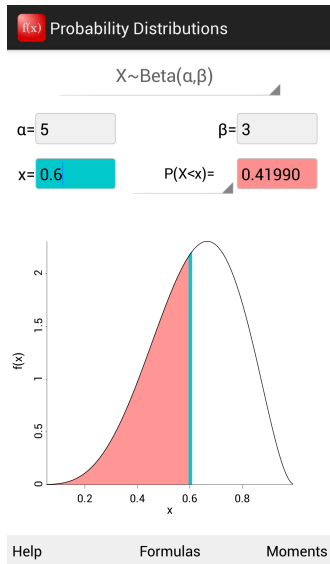
L'app è compatibile con alcuni dei tuoi dispositivi.

Installata



# A useful app

## An example



## Beta distribution as prior

Let us finally apply it to infer the Bernoulli's  $p$

$$\begin{aligned} f(p \mid n, x, \text{Beta}(r_i, s_i)) &\propto [p^x (1-p)^{n-x}] \times [p^{r_i-1} (1-p)^{s_i-1}] \\ &\propto p^{x+r_i-1} (1-p)^{n-x+s_i-1}. \end{aligned}$$

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(In particular, the *Gaussian is self-conjugate*,  
which is not so great. . . )

# More on priors

## Data dominated inference

Let's look again at how the prior gets updated

$$\begin{aligned} f(p \mid n, x, r_i, s_i) &\propto [p^x(1-p)^{n-x}] \times [p^{r_i-1}(1-p)^{s_i-1}] \\ &\propto p^{x+r_i-1}(1-p)^{n-x+s_i-1} \end{aligned}$$

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If  $x \gg r_i$  and  $(n - x) \gg s_i$

$$r_f \approx x$$

$$s_f \approx (n - x)$$

# Predictive distribution

Predicting future nr. of successes and future frequencies

- Imagine we have have got 5 successes in 10 trials.

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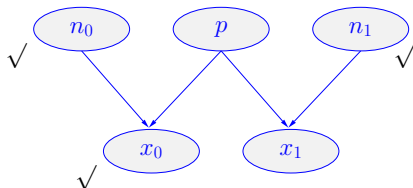
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- ▶ But we are not sure about it: we need to take into account all possible values, each weighted by  $f(p)$

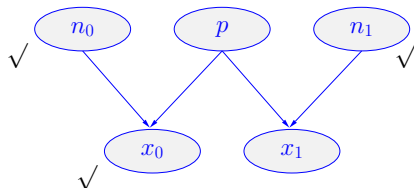
# Predictive distribution

Predicting future nr. of successes and future frequencies



# Predictive distribution

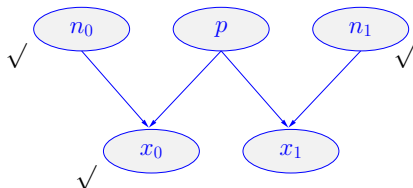
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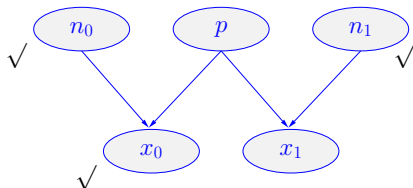
Predicting future nr. of successes and future frequencies



- ▶ We need to take into account all possible values of  $p$ , each weighted by how much we believe it, i.e. by  $f(p)$
- ▶  $f(x) = \int_0^1 f(x | p) f(p) dp$ .

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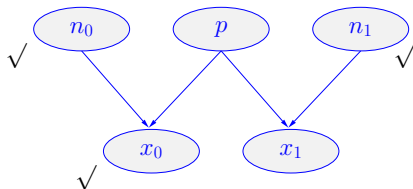
- ▶ More precisely,

$$f(x_1 | n_1, n_0, x_0) = \int_0^1 f(x_1 | n_1, p) f(p | x_0, n_0) dp$$

- ▶  $X_1 \rightarrow f_1$

# Predictive distribution

Predicting future nr. of successes and future frequencies



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- ▶  $X_1 \rightarrow f_1$  (Predicting a **future frequency from a past frequency**)

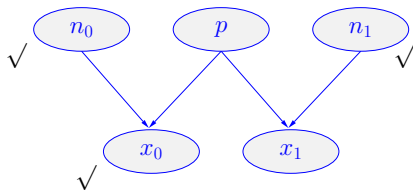
# Predictive distribution

Some examples

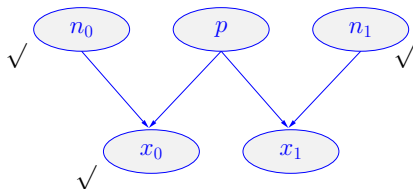
$f(x_1 | n_0, x_0, n_1 = 10)$  in %

$X_1$	$\frac{x_1}{n_1}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1 \\ n_0 = 2 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 10 \\ n_0 = 20 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 100 \\ n_0 = 200 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1000 \\ n_0 = 2000 \end{cases}$
0	0	3.85	0.42	0.12	0.10
1	0.1	6.99	2.29	1.11	0.99
2	0.2	9.44	6.51	4.67	4.42
3	0.3	11.19	12.54	11.88	11.74
4	0.4	12.24	18.07	20.21	20.48
5	0.5	12.59	20.33	24.02	24.55
6	0.6	12.24	18.07	20.21	20.48
7	0.7	11.19	12.54	11.88	11.74
8	0.8	9.44	6.51	4.67	4.42
9	0.9	6.99	2.29	1.11	0.99
10	1	3.84	0.42	0.12	0.10
$E(X_1)$		5	5	5	5
$\sigma[X_1]$		2.64	1.87	1.62	1.58

## Joint inference and prediction



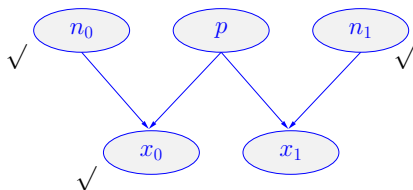
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In reality the general solution starts from

$$f(n_0, p, n_1, x_0, x_1)$$

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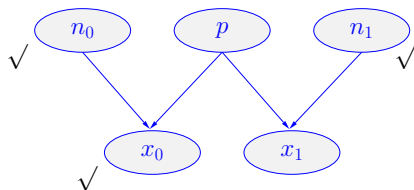
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conditioning on what it is 'known' (or 'assumed'):

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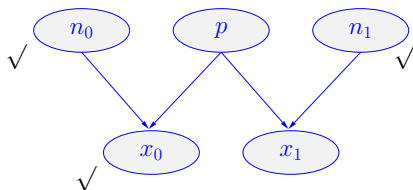
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$\Rightarrow$   **$p$  and  $x_1$  are correlated!**

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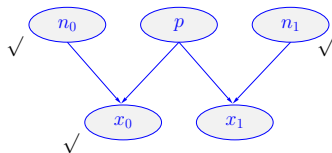
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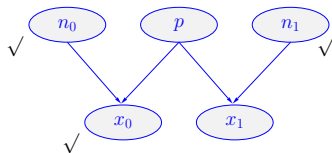
$$\rho(p, x_1) > 0$$

## Joint inference and prediction



Let's do the math.

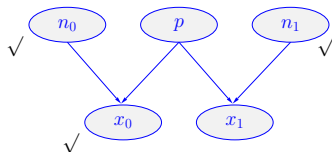
# Joint inference and prediction



Let's do the math.

- Three **observed variables**

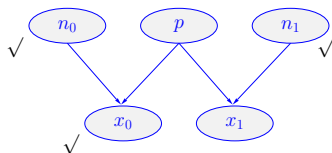
# Joint inference and prediction



Let's do the math.

- ▶ Three **observed variables** (no uncertainty):  $n_0$ ,  $x_0$  and  $n_1$ .

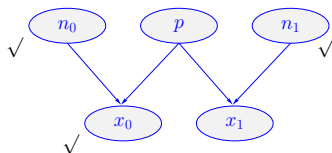
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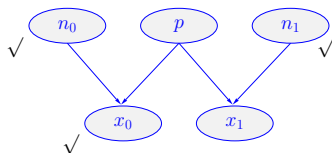
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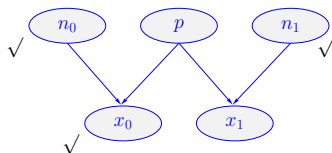
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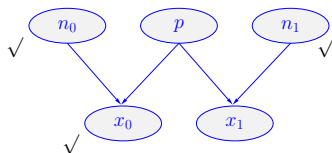
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# Joint inference and prediction



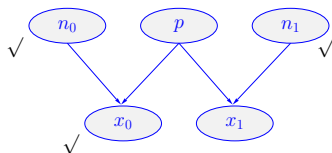
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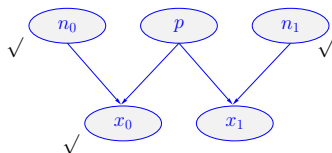
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$$\tilde{f}(p, x_1 \mid n_0, x_0, n_1) = f(p, x_1, n_0, n_1, x_0)$$

$\tilde{f}()$ : unnormalized pdf.

# Joint inference and prediction

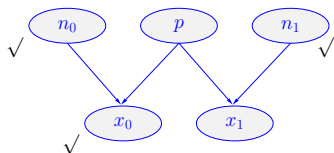


Using the **chain rule** ('bottom-up')

(and neglecting all factors that do not depend on  $p$  and  $x_1$ ):

$$f(p, x_1 \mid n_0, x_0, n_1) \propto f(x_0 \mid n_0, p) \cdot f(x_1 \mid p, n_1) \cdot f_0(p)$$

# Joint inference and prediction

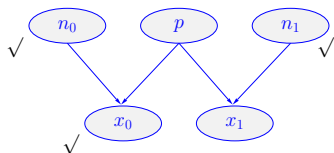


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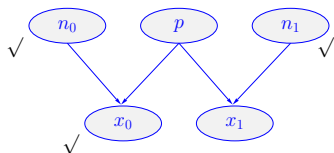
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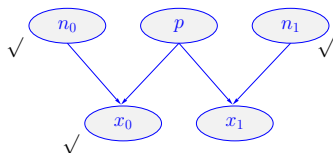
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**Problem almost solved**

# Joint inference and prediction



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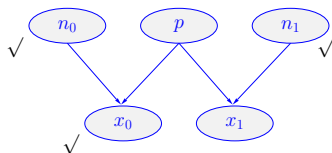
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- Possibly calculate the **normalization**, then all moments and **probability intervals** of interest.

# Joint inference and prediction



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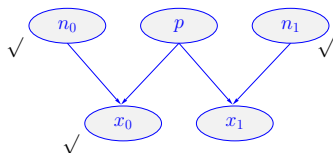
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# Joint inference and prediction



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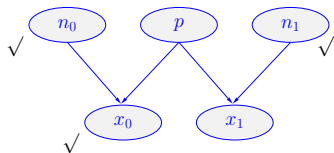
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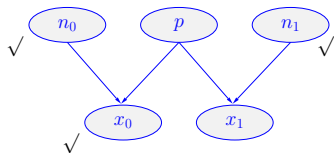
- Possibly calculate the **normalization**, then all moments and **probability intervals** of interest.
- Do it **numerically**,
- or by **by sampling**.

## Joint inference and prediction



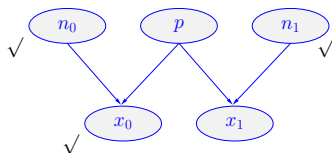
$\Rightarrow$  sample  $\tilde{f}(p, x_1 \mid n_0, x_0, n_1)$

## Joint inference and prediction



⇒ sample  $\tilde{f}(p, x_1 \mid n_0, x_0, n_1)$  using Monte Carlo techniques

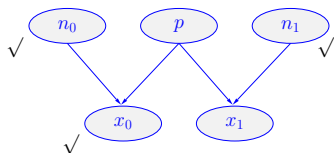
## Joint inference and prediction



⇒ sample  $\tilde{f}(p, x_1 \mid n_0, x_0, n_1)$  using Monte Carlo techniques

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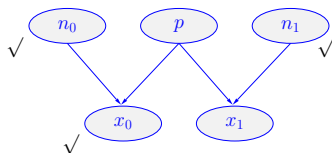


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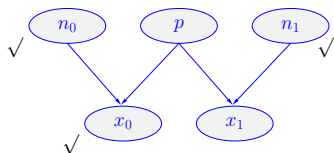
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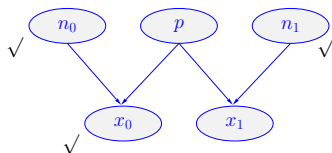
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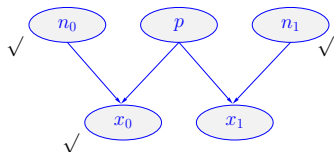
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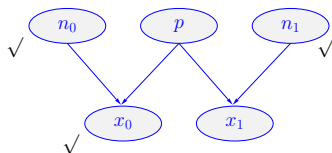
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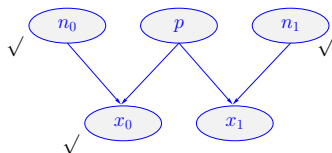
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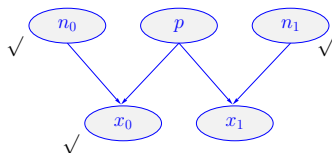
(No details on MCMC provided → see references on the web site)

## Graphical models: some terminology



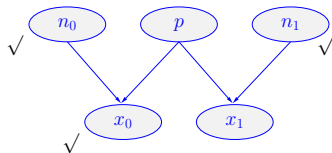
- ▶ nodes (observed/unobserved);
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- ▶ parent(s).

## Graphical models: some terminology



- ▶ nodes (observed/unobserved);
- ▶ child/childred;
- ▶ parent(s).
- ▶ **A node without parents needs a prior**  
(node  $p$  in this case)

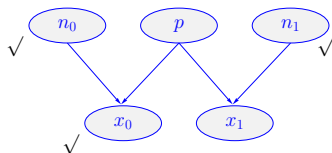
# Joint inference and prediction in JAGS



## Model

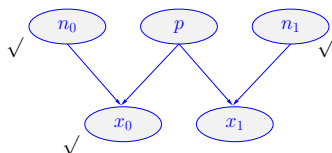
```
model{  
  x0 ~ dbin(p, n0);  
  x1 ~ dbin(p, n1);  
  p ~ dbeta(1, 1);  
}
```

## Joint inference and prediction in JAGS



Then the model has to be in a file.

# Joint inference and prediction in JAGS



Then the model has to be in a file.

For such a small model we can write it directly from R on a temporary file:

```
model = "tmp_model.bug"
write("
model{
  x0 ~ dbin(p, n0);
  x1 ~ dbin(p, n1);
  p ~ dbeta(1, 1);
}
", model)
```

# Use of JAGS from R via rjags

Second part of the R script ( $\Rightarrow$  `inf_p_pred.R` )

```
library(rjags)
```

```
data = list(n0=20, x0=10, n1=10)
```

```
jm <- jags.model(model, data)
```

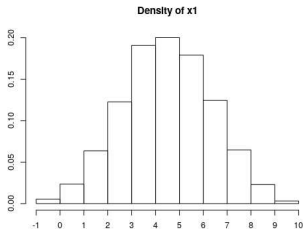
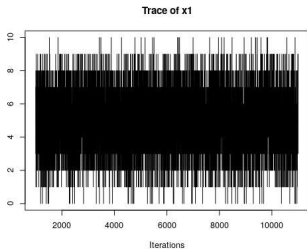
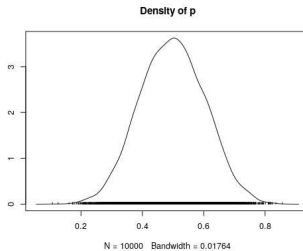
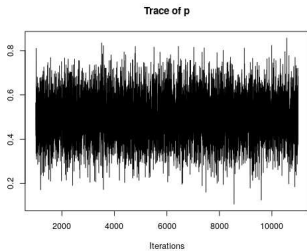
```
chain <- coda.samples(jm, c("p", "x1"), n.iter=10000)
```

```
plot(chain)
```

```
print(summary(chain))
```

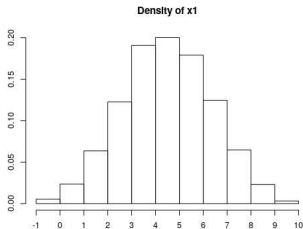
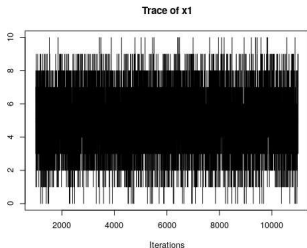
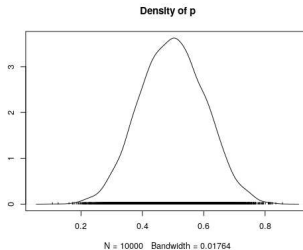
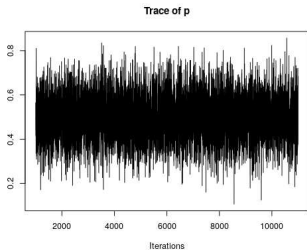
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( $n0 = 20$ ,  $x0 = 10$ ,  $n1 = 10$ )



# Use of JAGS from R via rjags

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$p = 0.498 \pm 0.105$ ;  $x_1 = 4.98 \pm 1.86$  (10000 samples).

# Inference and prediction with JAGS/rjags

Comparison with exact result of  $f(x_1 | n_0, x_0, n_1)$

$f(x_1 | n_0, x_0, n_1 = 10)$  in %

$X_1$	$\frac{X_1}{n_1}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1 \\ n_0 = 2 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 10 \\ n_0 = 20 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 100 \\ n_0 = 200 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1000 \\ n_0 = 2000 \end{cases}$
0	0	3.85	0.42	0.12	0.10
1	0.1	6.99	2.29	1.11	0.99
2	0.2	9.44	6.51	4.67	4.42
3	0.3	11.19	12.54	11.88	11.74
4	0.4	12.24	18.07	20.21	20.48
5	0.5	12.59	20.33	24.02	24.55
6	0.6	12.24	18.07	20.21	20.48
7	0.7	11.19	12.54	11.88	11.74
8	0.8	9.44	6.51	4.67	4.42
9	0.9	6.99	2.29	1.11	0.99
10	1	3.84	0.42	0.12	0.10
$E(X_1)$		5	5	5	5
$\sigma[X_1]$		2.64	1.87	1.62	1.58

# Inference and prediction with JAGS/rjags

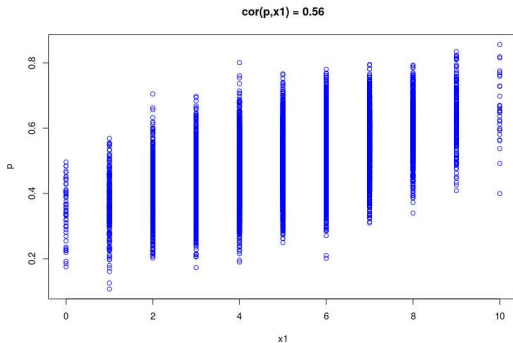
Scatter plot of sampled  $f(p, x_1 \mid n_0, x_0, n_1)$

```
p <- as.vector(chain[[1]][,1])
x1 <- as.vector(chain[[1]][,2])
plot(x1, p, col='blue',
      main=sprintf("cor(p,x1) = %.2f", cor(p,x1)))
print( table(x1)/10000 )
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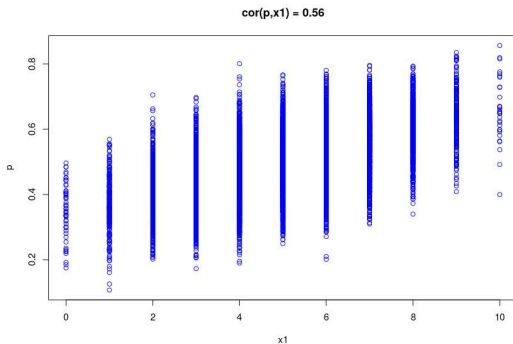
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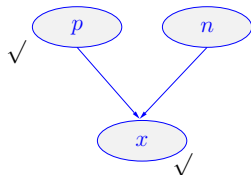
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(The last command, `print(...)`, produces the relative frequencies of occurrence of  $x_1 \rightarrow$  **try it**)

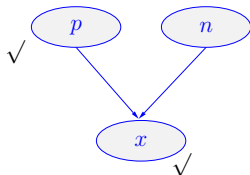
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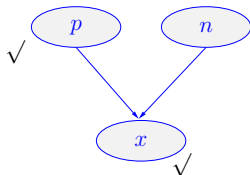
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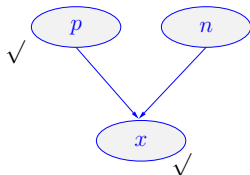


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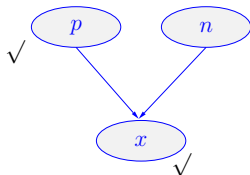


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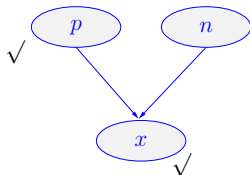


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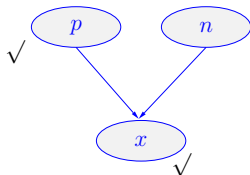
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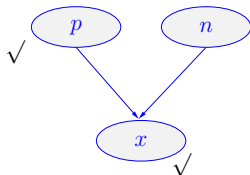
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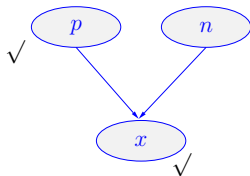
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[or, more precisely, what is the rate  $r$ ?  $\longrightarrow f(r | x, T)$ ?]

# $n$ independent Bernoulli processes

Extending the model

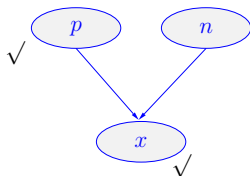
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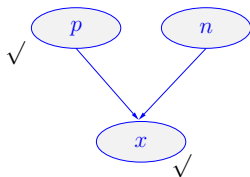


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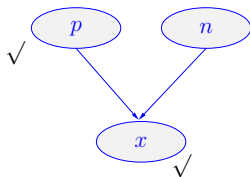


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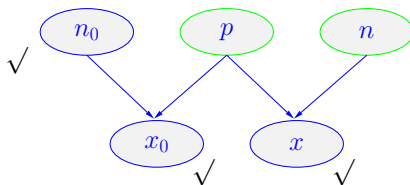
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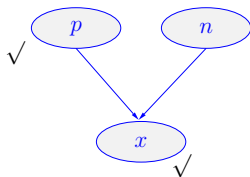
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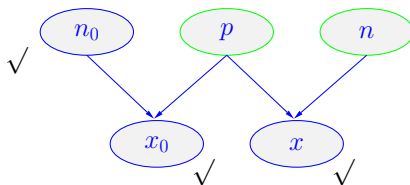
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**But what is  $n$ ?**

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In Physics we are usually not interested in the numbers we do see, but in those which have 'physical meaning'.

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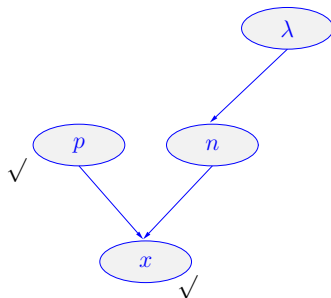
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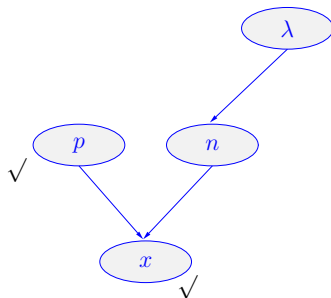


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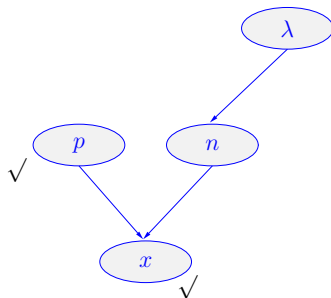
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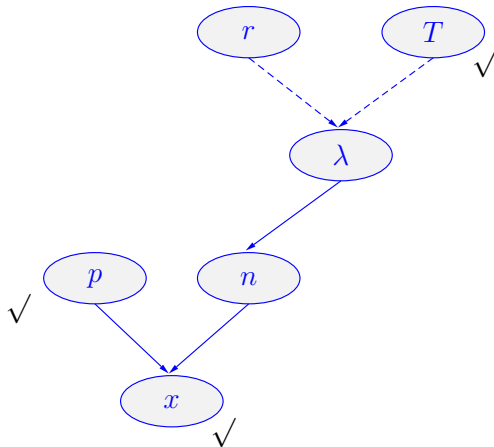


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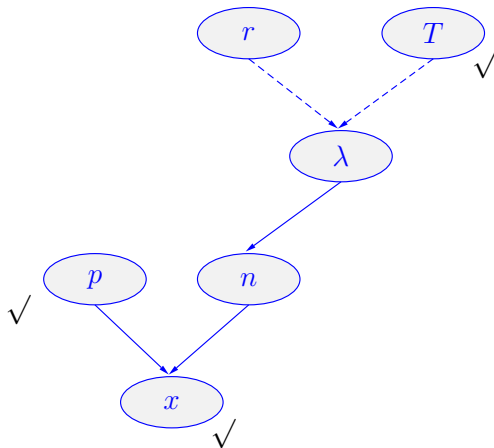
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$$\lambda = r \cdot T:$$



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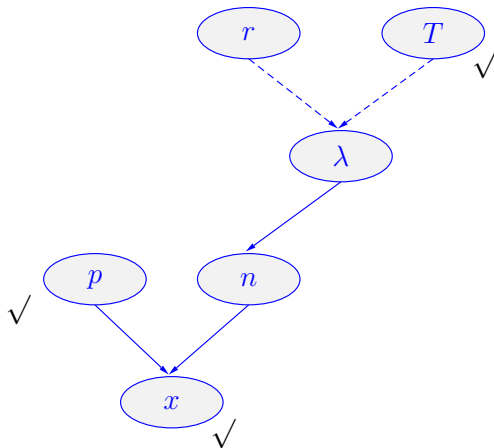
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(Dashed arrows used in literature for deterministic links)

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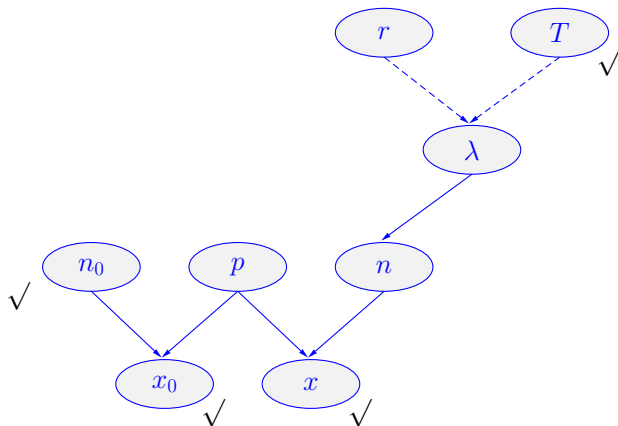


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In JAGS, e.g., `lambda <- r * T;`

# Extending the model

Remembering that  $p$  was got from a measurement:

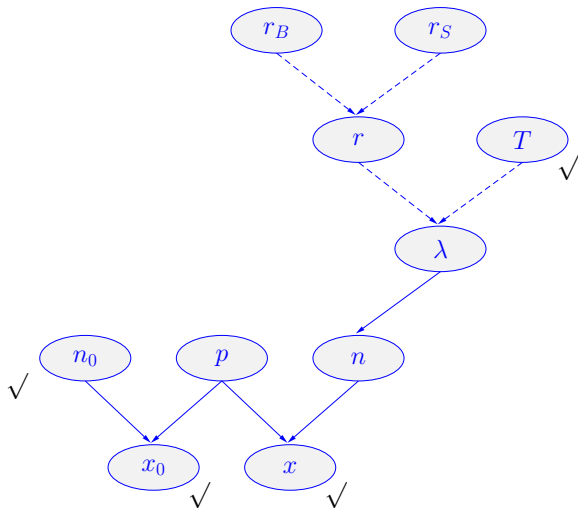


## Extending the model

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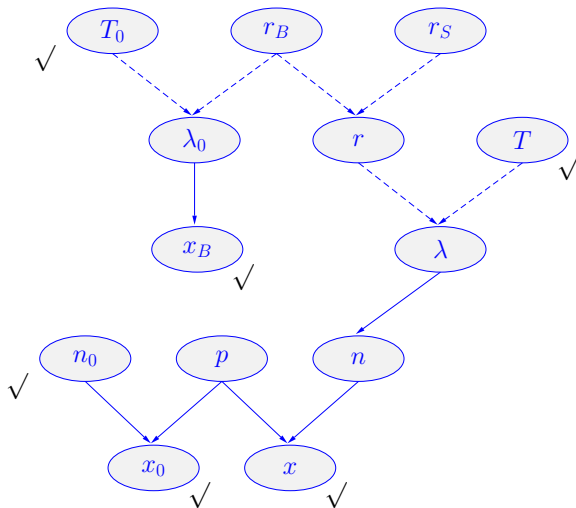
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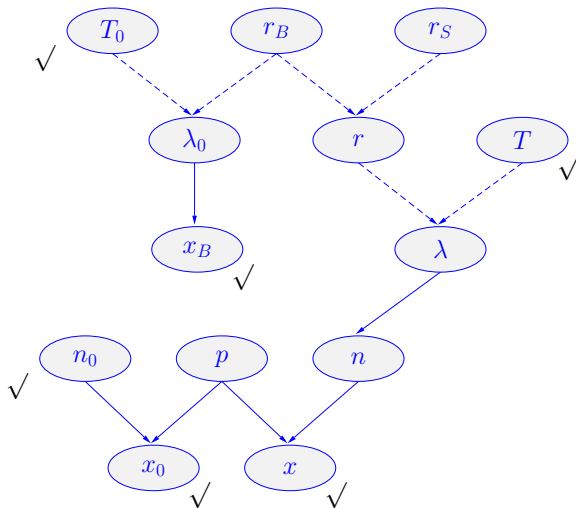
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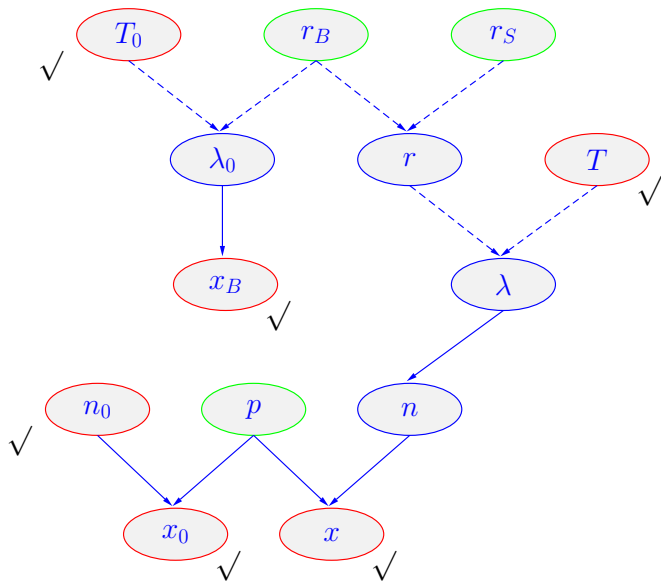
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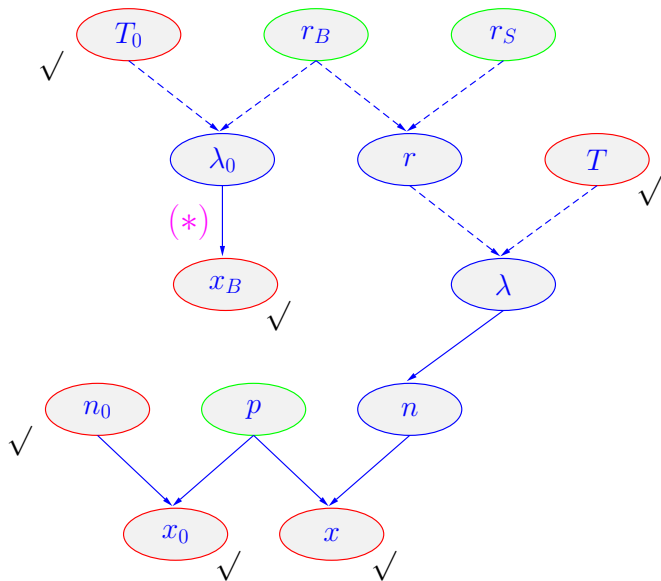


( $T_0$  and  $T$  assumed to be measured with sufficient accuracy)

## Extending the model



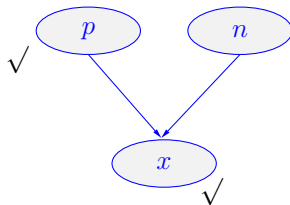
## Extending the model



(\*) Assuming unity efficiency

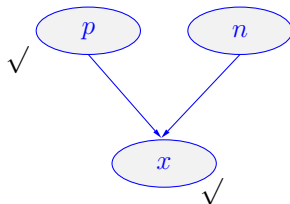
## Inferring $n$ 'assuming' $p$ and $x$

Back to our initial problem



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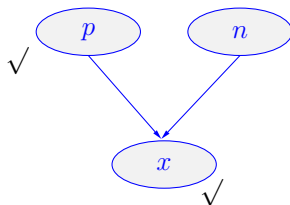
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$$f(n \mid p, x) \propto f(x \mid n, p) \cdot f_0(n)$$

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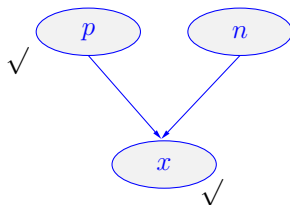
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$$\begin{aligned} f(n \mid p, x) &\propto f(x \mid n, p) \cdot f_0(n) \\ &\propto f(x \mid n, p) \quad [\text{uniform prior}] \end{aligned}$$

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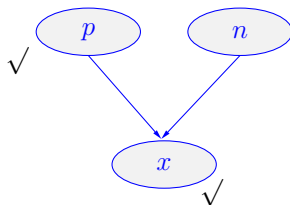
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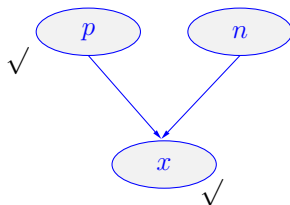
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## Inferring $n$ 'assuming' $p$ and $x$

Example in R with  $p = 0.75$  and  $x = 10$

```
p = 0.75; x = 10
```

```
n.max = 30
```

```
n = x:n.max
```

```
fn = factorial(n)/factorial(n-x)*(1-p)^n
```

```
fn = fn/sum(fn)
```

```
media.n = sum(fn*n)
```

```
media.n2 = sum(fn*n^2)
```

```
sigma.n = sqrt(media.n2 - media.n^2)
```

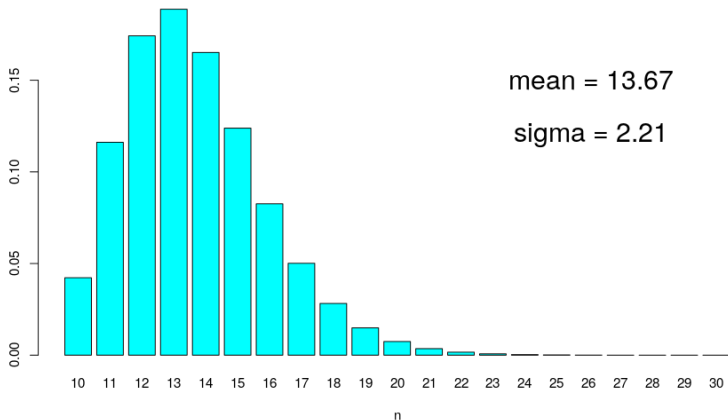
```
barplot(fn, names=n, col='cyan', xlab='n')
```

```
text(20,0.15, sprintf("mean = %.2f", media.n), cex=2)
```

```
text(20,0.12, sprintf("sigma = %.2f", sigma.n),cex=2)
```

## Inferring $n$ 'assuming' $p$ and $x$

$$f(n \mid x = 10, p = 0.75)$$



# Inferring $n$ 'assuming' $p$ and $x$

Or we can feed JAGS with the following simple model

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model{  
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The remaining **R code is left as exercise**

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- ▶ the case of no events observed;
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- ▶ predictive distribution;
- ▶ from  $\lambda$  to  $r$  (not covered, since it is straightforward; but remember that the 'physical quantity' is  $r$ )

## Inferring Poisson's $\lambda$

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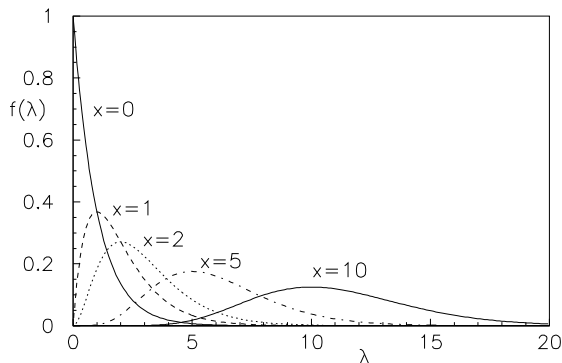
Summaries

$$E(\lambda) = x + 1,$$

$$\text{Var}(\lambda) = x + 1,$$

$$\lambda_m = x$$

## Some examples of $f(\lambda)$

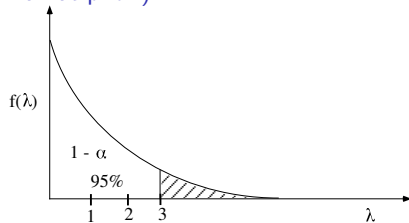


For 'large'  $x$   $f(\lambda)$  it becomes Gaussian with expected value  $x$  and standard deviation  $\sqrt{x}$ .

The difference between the most probable  $\lambda$  and its expected value for small  $x$  is due to the asymmetry of  $f(\lambda)$ .

# Inferring $\lambda$ from $x = 0$

(From a flat prior!)

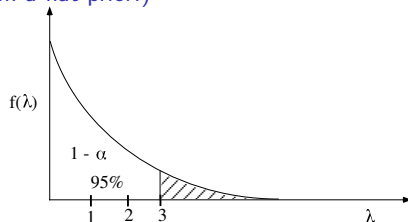


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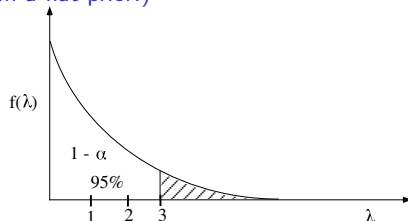
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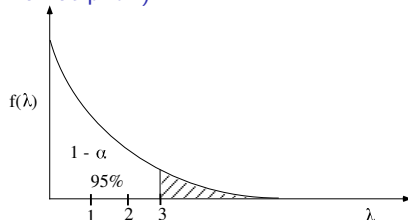
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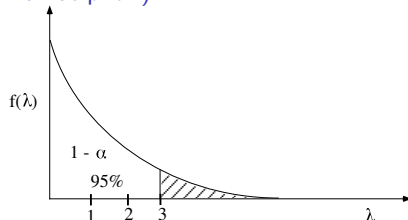
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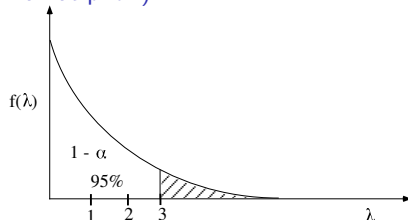
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*In this case it works just by chance*

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Do you remember? (From first lecture)

In general  $P(A | B) \neq P(B | A)$

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Very little to laugh...



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Conjugate prior

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$\Rightarrow$  Gamma distribution

## Gamma distribution

$X \sim \text{Gamma}(c, r)$ :

$$f(x | \text{Gamma}(c, r)) = \frac{r^c}{\Gamma(c)} x^{c-1} e^{-rx} \quad \begin{cases} r, c > 0 \\ x \geq 0 \end{cases},$$

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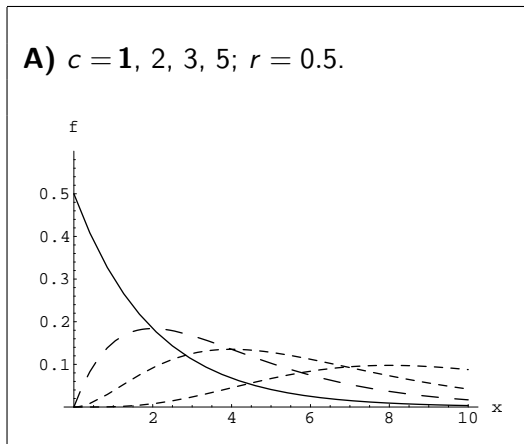
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The **Erlang distribution** is important to get a physical intuition of the properties of Gamma and then of the  $\chi^2$ !

# Gamma distribution

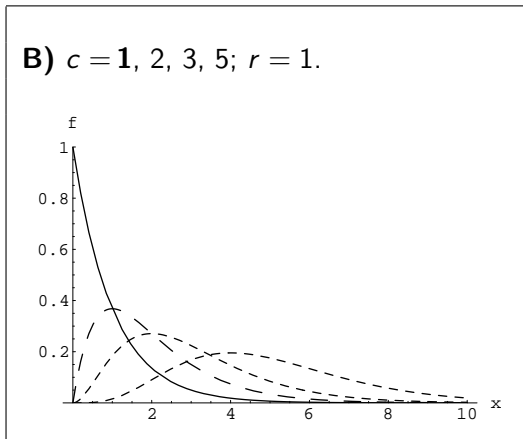
## Some examples



$r$ : rate (if the variable is a time, then  $r$  is Poisson rate).

# Gamma distribution

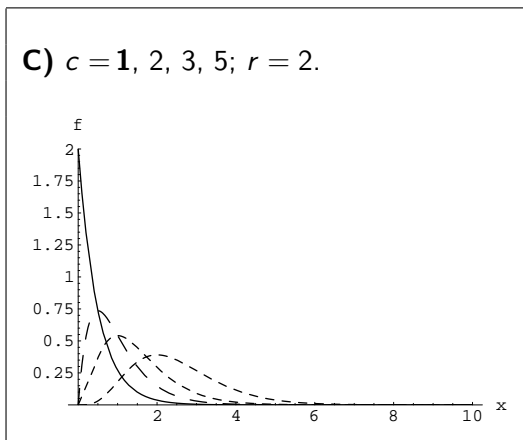
Some examples



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# Gamma (and $\chi^2$ ) distribution

## Summaries

$$E(X) = \frac{c}{r}$$

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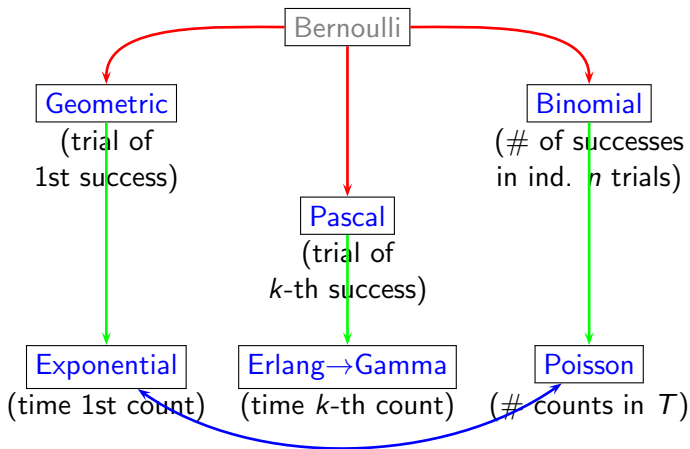
Therefore, for the  $\chi^2$  ( $\rightarrow c = \nu/2, r = 1/2$ )

$$E(\chi^2) = \nu$$

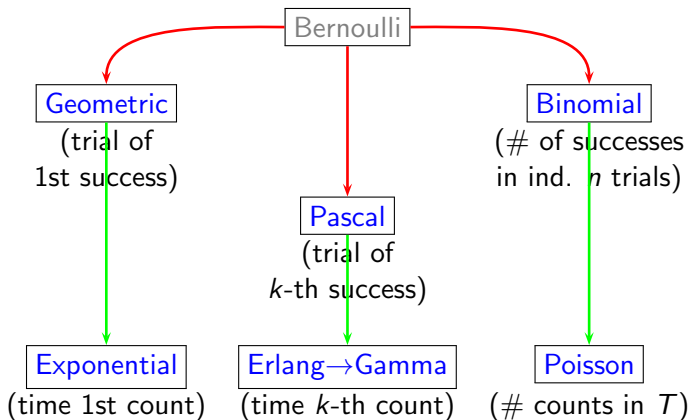
$$\text{Var}(\chi^2) = 2\nu$$

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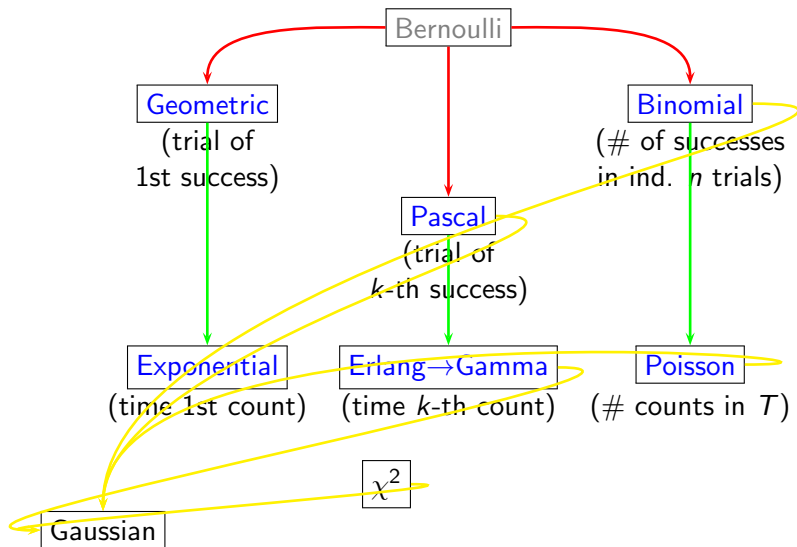
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# Inferring the Poisson's $\lambda$

Use of gamma conjugate prior



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$$f(\lambda | x, \text{Gamma}(c_i = 1, r_i \rightarrow 0)) \propto \lambda^x e^{-\lambda}$$

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## Example with JAGS

```
# inf_lambda_pred.bug
model {
  X ~ dpois(lambda);
  lambda ~ dexp(0.00001)
  Y ~ dpois(lambda);
}
```

```
# inf_lambda_pred.R
library(rjags)
modello = "inf_lambda_pred.bug" # file con il modello
dati <- NULL # oggetto con i dati
dati$X <- 100
jm <- jags.model(modello, dati) # definisce il modello
update(jm, 100) # burn in
catena <- coda.samples(jm, c("lambda","Y"), n.iter=10000)
print(summary(catena))
plot(catena)
```

# The End