

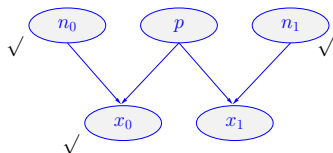
# Measurements, uncertainties and probabilistic inference/forecasting

Giulio D'Agostini

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Roma, Italy

# Back to the 'binomial' model

# Joint inference and prediction

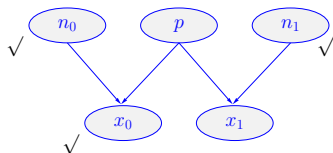


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(and neglecting all factors that do not depend on  $p$  and  $x_1$ ):

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

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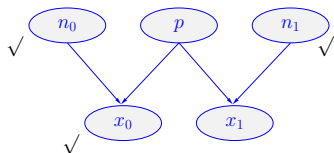


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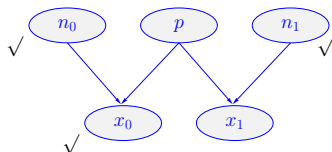
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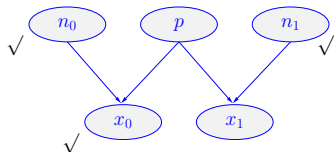
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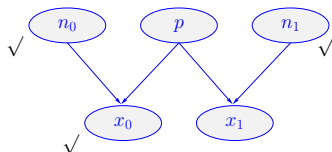
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- Possibly calculate the **normalization**, then all moments and **probability intervals** of interest.

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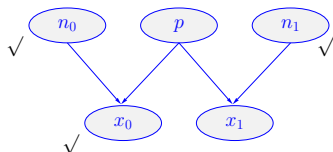
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## Problem almost solved

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- Do it **numerically**,



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## Problem almost solved

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

## Details of the numeric solution ( $\rightarrow$ inf\_p\_pred\_numeric.R)

```
# prior on p (unnormalized beta)
uf0p <- function(p) {
  r0 = 1
  s0 = 1
  ifelse(pp >= 0 && pp <= 1, p^(r0-1)*(1-p)^(s0-1), 0)
}

# unnormalized distribution
uf <- function(p, x1, n0, x0, n1) {
  if(p<0 || p>1)      return(0)
  if(x1 <0 || x1>n1) return(0)
  return( p^(x0+x1)*(1-p)^(n0+n1-x0-x1) /
          (factorial(x1)*factorial(n1-x1)) * uf0p(p) )
}

# normalized distribution (after 'norm' has been evaluated)
f <- function(p, x1, n0, x0, n1) {
  uf(p, x1, n0, x0, n1)/norm}
```

## Details of the numeric solution – cont.d

```
# grid in the (p,x1) space
x1 <- 0:n1
N.x1 = n1+1
N.p <- 50                                # nr of intervals in p
Dp = 1/N.p
p <- seq(Dp/2, 1-Dp/2, Dp)              # centers of intervals!

# normalization
norm = 0
for (i in 1:N.p) {
  for (j in 1:N.x1) {
    norm <- norm + uf(p[i], x1[j], n0, x0, n1)
  }
}
```

## Details of the numeric solution – cont.d

```
# marginal of p (discretized)
f.p <- rep(0, N.p)
for (i in 1:N.p) {
  for (j in 1:N.x1) {
    f.p[i] <- f.p[i] + f(p[i], x1[j], n0, x0, n1)
  }
}

# marginal of x1
f.x1 <- rep(0, N.x1)
for (j in 1:N.x1) {
  for (i in 1:N.p) {
    f.x1[j] <- f.x1[j] + f(p[i], x1[j], n0, x0, n1)
  }
}
```

## Details of the numeric solution – cont.d

```
# moments of p
E.p      <- sum(p*f.p)
sigma.p  <- sqrt( sum(p^2*f.p) - E.p^2 )
cat(sprintf("\n  p = %.3f +. %.3f\n", E.p, sigma.p))

# moments of x1
E.x1     <- sum(x1*f.x1)
sigma.x1 <- sqrt( sum(x1^2*f.x1) - E.x1^2 )
cat(sprintf("\n x1 = %.3f +. %.3f\n", E.x1, sigma.x1))

# covariance and correlation coefficient
E.p.times.x1 <- 0 # 1. expected value of the product
for (i in 1:N.p) {
  for (j in 1:N.x1) {
    E.p.times.x1 <- E.p.times.x1 + p[i] * x1[j] *
      f(p[i], x1[j], n0, x0, n1)
  }
}
```

## Details of the numeric solution – cont.d

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# covariance and correlation coefficient

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      f(p[i], x1[j], n0, x0, n1)
  }
}

# 2. covariance
Cov <- E.p.times.x1 - E.p*E.x1

# 3. correlation coefficient
rho <- Cov / (sigma.p * sigma.x1)

cat(sprintf("\n rho(p,x1) = %.3f\n", rho))
```

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A flash/practical introduction in 1D

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⇒ The **Metropolis algorithm** is one of the most powerful one.

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[Note how we are using the variable  $t$ , instead of the usual  $i$ , to order the steps, to remind of an *evolution in time* of *system*.]

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  - **propose** a new position  $x^*$  chosen **at random** among the possible states with a *symmetric* proposing function  $q()$ , i.e.  $q(x_i | x_j) = q(x_j | x_i)$ ;

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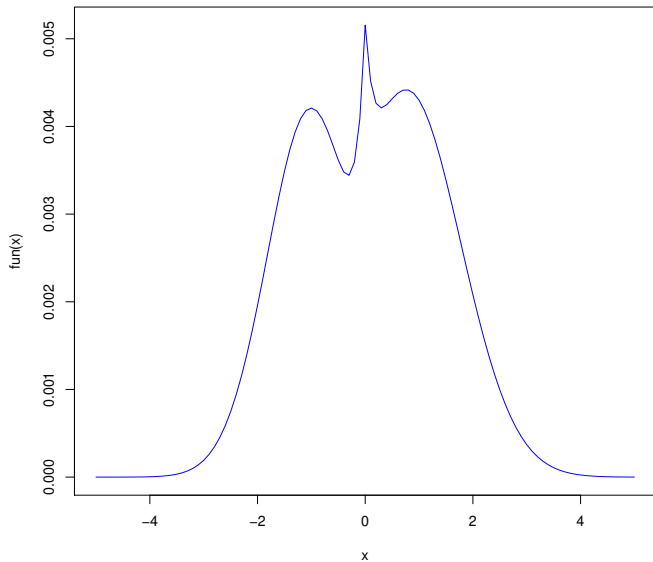
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Technically, it can be proved that the algorithm has the *desired properties* to produce a Markov Chain.

## Metropolis applied to unnormalized pdf's



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⇒ `metropolis.R`

```
prop <- function(x) {d=1; x + runif(1, -d, d)}
```

```
metropolis <- function(n, x0) {  
  x = rep(0,n)  
  x[1] = x0  
  for (i in 2:n) {  
    x.p <- prop(x[i-1])  
    A <- fun(x.p)/fun(x[i-1])  
    x[i] <- ifelse (runif(1) <= A, x.p, x[i-1])  
  }  
  return(x)  
}
```



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    x[i] <- ifelse (runif(1) <= A, x.p, x[i-1])  
  }  
  return(x)  
}
```

```
> n <- 10000
```

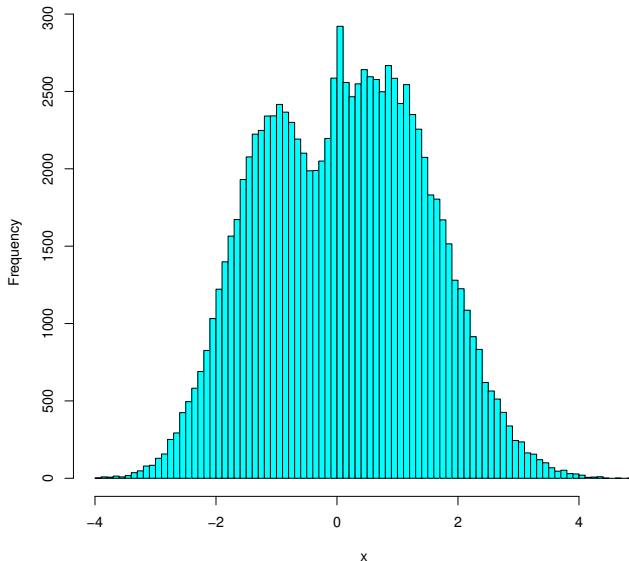
```
> x0 <- 0
```

```
> x <- metropolis(n, x0, fun, prop)
```

```
> hist(x, nc=100, col='cyan')
```

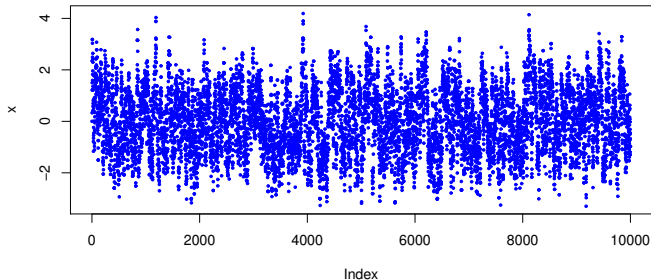
# Metropolis applied to unnormalized pdf's

Uniform proposal with  $d = 1$



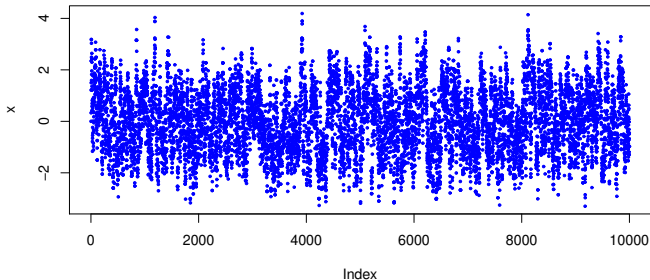
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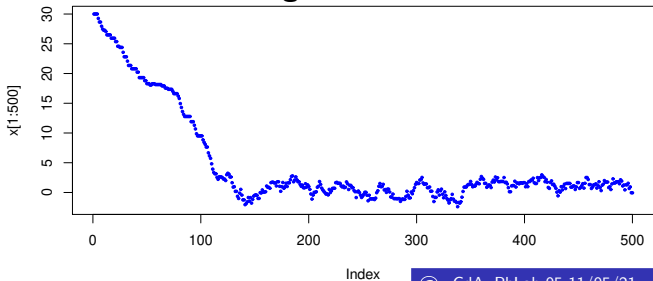


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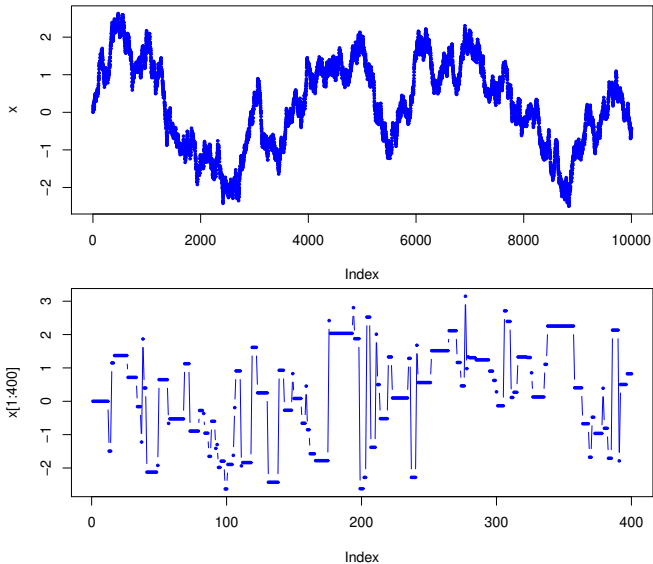


**Starting from  $x = 30$**



# Metropolis applied to unnormalized pdf's

Uniform proposal with  $d = 0.1$  and  $d = 10$



# Understanding Metropolis

Proposed exercise Try to use Metropolis in order to make a random walk inside a square, with uniform distribution

## Metropolis applied to our binomial problem ( $\rightarrow \{p, x_1\}$ )

```
⇒ inf_p_pred_metropolis.R
```

```
#model parameters
```

```
n0 = 20; x0 = 10; n1 = 10
```

```
# Metropolis parameters
```

```
N = 10000
```

```
Dx = 2; Dp = 0.1
```

```
# unnormalized distr. (you might want to add a prior)
```

```
uf <- function(p, x1, n0, x0, n1) {
```

```
  if(p<0 || p>1)      return(0)
```

```
  if(x1 <0 || x1>n1) return(0)
```

```
  return( p^x0*(1-p)^(n0-x0) * p^x1*(1-p)^(n1-x1) /  
          (factorial(x1)*factorial(n1-x1)) )
```

```
}
```

```
# proposal functions
```

```
pr.p <- function(p.o, Dp) p.o + runif(1, -Dp, +Dp)
```

```
pr.x1 <- function(x1.o, Dx) x1.o + sample(-Dx:Dx)[1]
```

## Metropolis applied to our binomial problem ( $\rightarrow \{p, x_1\}$ )

```
# inits (just empty vectors)
p <- x1 <- numeric(N)

# initial p and x1 (not to confused with the prior on p!!)
p[1] = rbeta(1,1,1)          # uniform (or anything you like...)
x1[1] = rbinom(1, n1, p[1])

# Metropolis
for (i in 2:N) {
  p.p    <- pr.p(p[i-1], Dp)          # proposals
  x1.p    <- pr.x1(x1[i-1], Dx)
  A <- min(1, uf(p.p, x1.p, n0, x0, n1) / uf(p[i-1], x1[i-1], n0, x0, n1) ) # acceptance
  if ( runif(1) <= A ) {
    p[i]    <- p.p
    x1[i]    <- x1.p
  } else {
    p[i]    <- p[i-1]
    x1[i]    <- x1[i-1]
  }
}
```



# More on Poisson processes

## Adding background – a practical introduction with Jags

- ▶ Just an **extra, independent, Poisson process** in the production of events in the observation time  $T$ :

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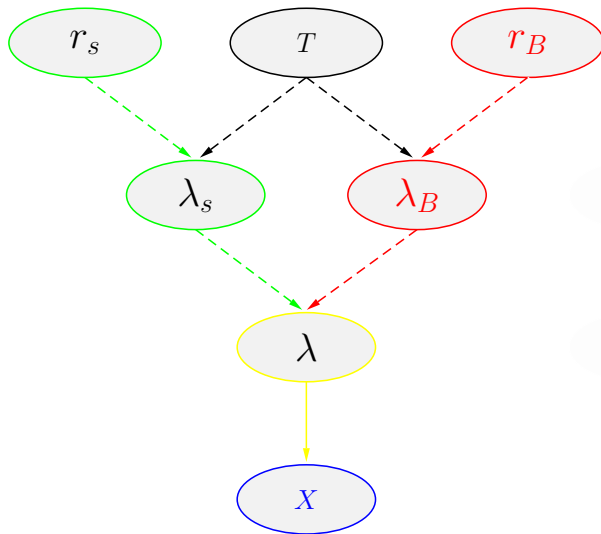
$$\begin{aligned}X &\sim \mathcal{P}_\lambda \\ f(r | x, r_B, T) &\propto f(x | r, r_B, T) \cdot f_0(r)\end{aligned}$$

**Uncertainty on  $r_B$ ?** Usual way: integrate over all possible values

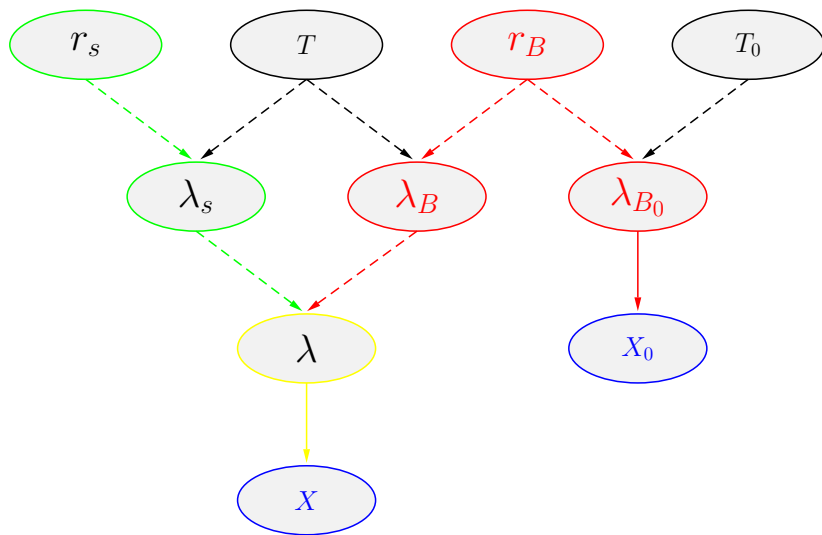
$$f(r | x, T) = \int_0^\infty f(r | x, r_B, T) \cdot f(r_B) dr_B$$



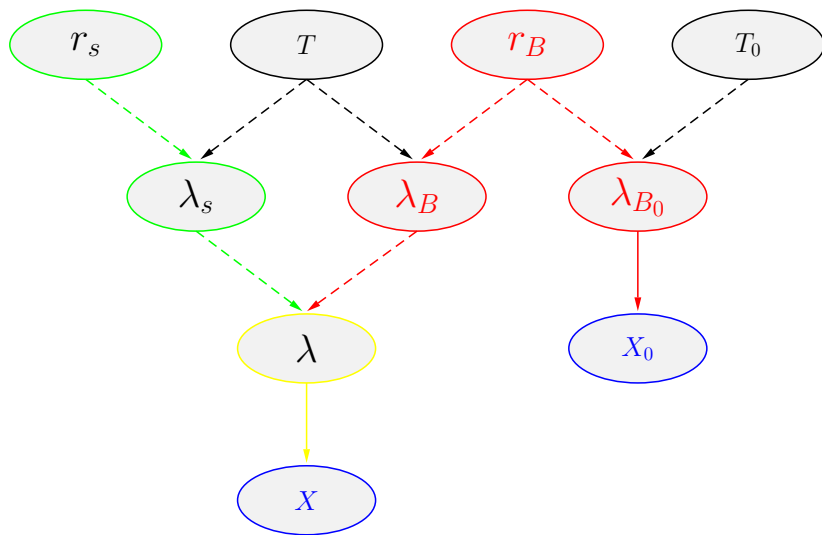
## Signal and background



## Signal and background



## Signal and background



$\Rightarrow$  inf\_r\_bck\_measured.R

$\Rightarrow$  inf\_r\_bck\_measured.bug

# Signal + background

JAGS model ( $\Rightarrow$  `inf_r_bck_measured.bug`)

```
model {  
  X ~ dpois(lambda)  
  lambda <- ls + lB  
  ls <- r * T  
  r ~ dgamma(1, 0.00001) # gamma, but indeed dexp(0.00001)  
  lB <- rB * T  
  
  # experiment with background only  
  lB0 <- rB * TB  
  XB ~ dpois(lB0)  
  rB ~ dgamma(1, 0.00001) # vague prior also on the background  
}
```

# Signal + background

Steering code ( $\Rightarrow$  inf\_r\_bck\_measured.R)

```
model = "inf_r_bck_measured.bug" # model file

data <- NULL # R list containing data
data$X <- 100 # observed nr of counts from signal+background
data$T <- 10 # time of measurement signal+background
data$TB <- 4 # time of measurement of background alone
data$XB <- 20 # observed nr of counts from background alone

jm <- jags.model(model, data) # define the model

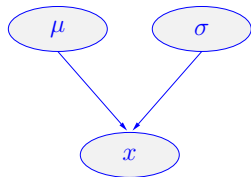
update(jm, 100) # "burn in": the chain runs but history
                # not recorded -> just to get rid of initial
                # position (exaggerated in this case!)
chain <- coda.samples(jm, c("r","rB"), n.iter=10000) # sampling

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

# Gaussian model

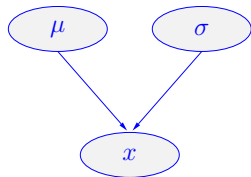
# Inferring $\mu$ of the normal distribution

Setting up the problem



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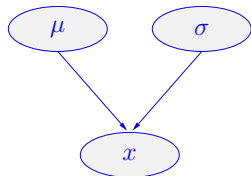


► In general  $f(x, \mu, \sigma \mid I)$



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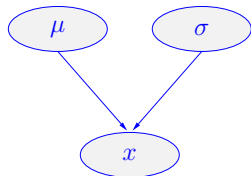
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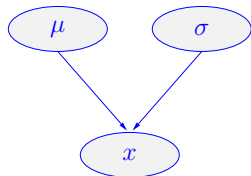
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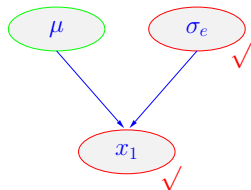
- ▶  $\sigma_e$  assumed perfectly known;
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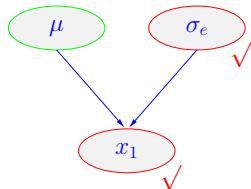
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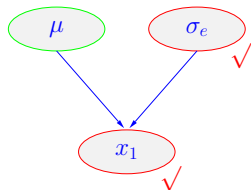
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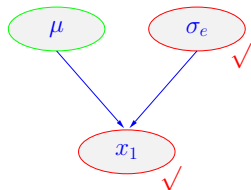


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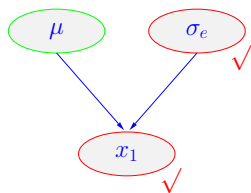
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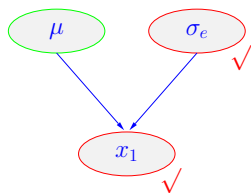
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'data' can be a set of observations

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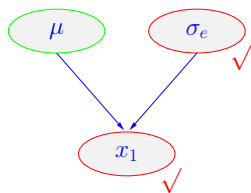
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(Considering implicit the condition  $\sigma_e$  as well as  $I$ )

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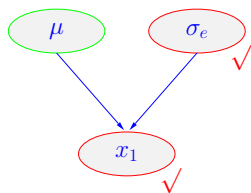


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# Inferring $\mu$ of the normal distribution

Solution for a flat prior

Starting as usual from a flat prior

$$f(\mu | x_1) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_e} e^{-\frac{(x_1-\mu)^2}{2\sigma_e^2}}}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_e} e^{-\frac{(x_1-\mu)^2}{2\sigma_e^2}} d\mu}$$

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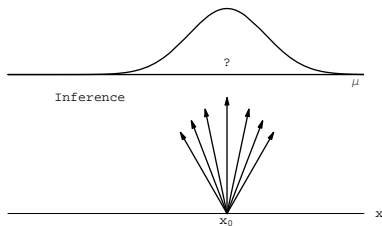
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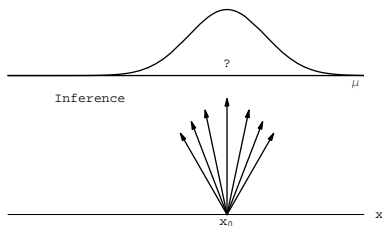
Note the **swap of  $\mu$  and  $x_1$**  at the exponent,  
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- ▶  $\mu$  is the variable;
- ▶  $x_1$  is a parameter

# Inferring $\mu$ of the normal distribution

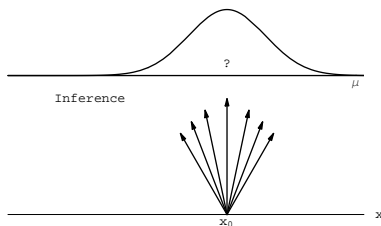


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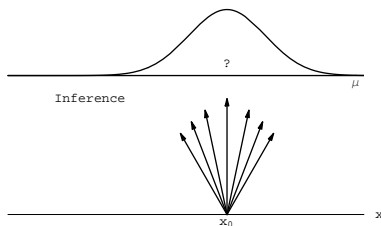
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**Summaries:**

$$E[\mu] = x_1$$

$$\sigma(\mu) = \sigma_e$$

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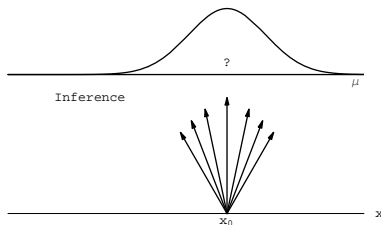
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All **probability intervals** calculated from the pdf.

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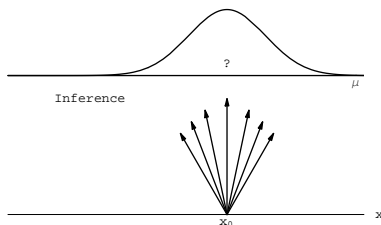
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All **probability intervals** calculated from the pdf.

⇒ really **probability intervals**, and not 'confidence intervals'



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⇒ really **probability intervals**, and not 'confidence intervals'(\*)

(\*) The expressions "confidence interval" and "confidence limits" are jeopardized having often **little to do with 'confidence'** – sic!

# Yes, but the prior?

Think about it...

Next time  $\implies$

# Inference and prediction related to Gaussian errors

We have seen the simple case

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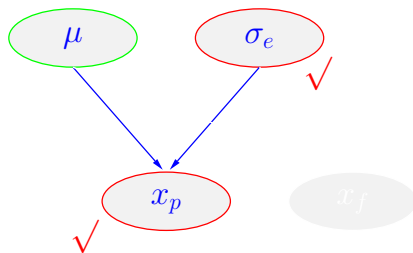
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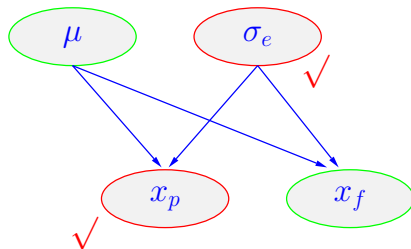
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- ▶ predicting a new ('future') value of  $x$ ;
- ▶ taking into account of systematics – general introduction and exact solution for an important case in Physics.

# Predictive distribution

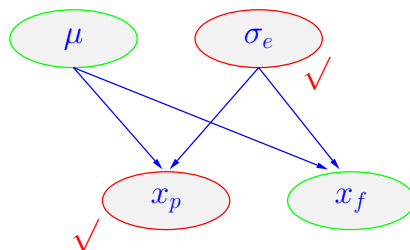


# Predictive distribution



What shall we observe in a **next measurement**  $x_f$  ('f' as 'future'), given our knowledge on  $\mu$  based on the **previous observation**  $x_p$ ?

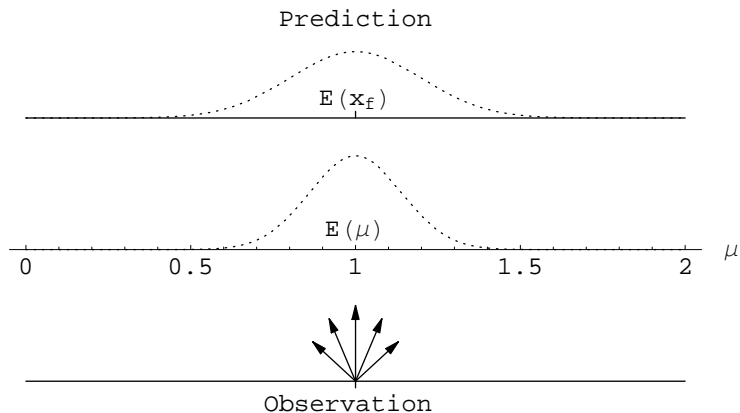
# Predictive distribution



What shall we observe in a **next measurement**  $x_f$  ('f' as 'future'), given our knowledge on  $\mu$  based on the **previous observation**  $x_p$ ? (Note the new evocative name for the observation, instead of  $x_1$ )

# Predictive distribution

$$x_p \rightarrow \mu \rightarrow x_f$$



# Predictive distribution

Probability theory teaches us how to include the uncertainty concerning  $\mu$ :

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# Predictive distribution

Probability theory teaches us how to include the uncertainty concerning  $\mu$ :

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In particular, if  $\sigma_p = \sigma_f = \sigma$ , then

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Also the question concerning  $x_f$  (meant a **single observation**) is rather easy to answer:

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(Glen Cowan, *Statistical Data Analysis*)

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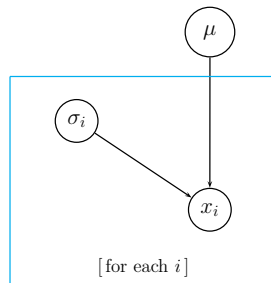
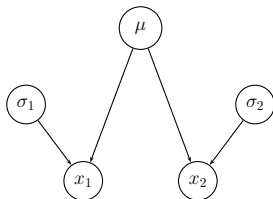
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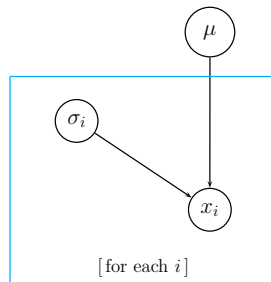
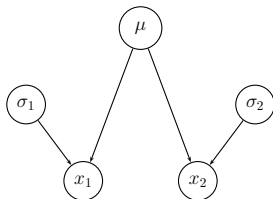
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# Inferring $\mu$ from several '*independent*' measurements



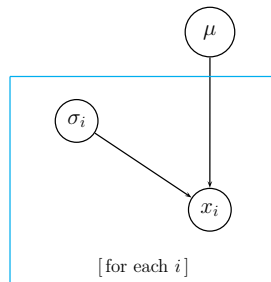
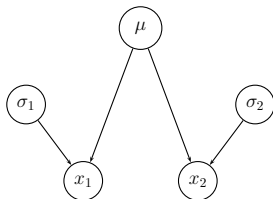


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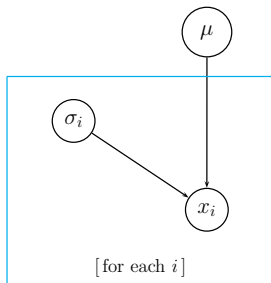
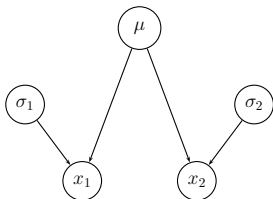
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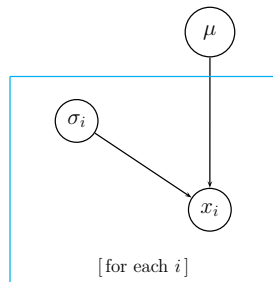
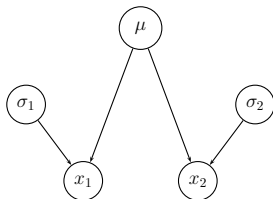


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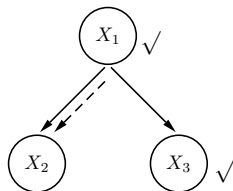
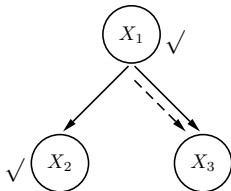
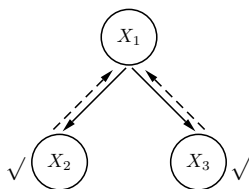
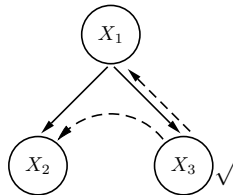
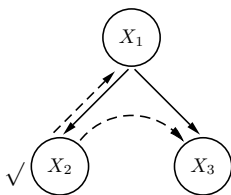
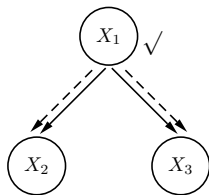
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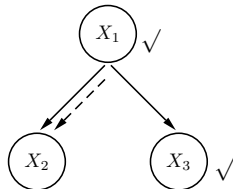
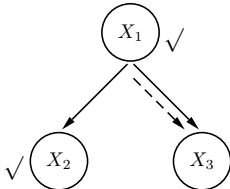
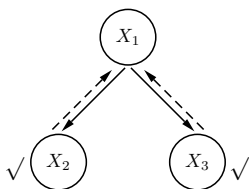
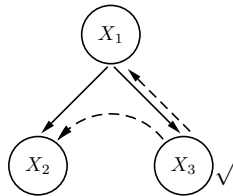
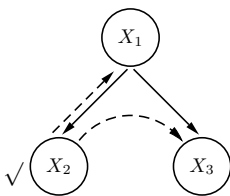
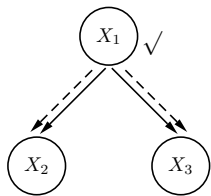
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## Propagation of evidence in a 'divergent connection'



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More in [arXiv:1504.02065](https://arxiv.org/abs/1504.02065) (*"Learning about probabilistic inference and forecasting by playing with multivariate normal distributions"*)

## From two observations to $n$ observations

Using the chain rule

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## From two observations to $n$ observations

Using the chain rule

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, x_2, \mu, \mid \sigma_1, \sigma_2, I) &= f(x_1 \mid x_2, \mu, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, I) \cdot \\ &\quad f(x_2 \mid \mu, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, I) \cdot \\ &\quad f(\mu \mid \sigma_1, \sigma_2, I) \\ &= f(x_1 \mid \mu, \sigma_1, I) \cdot f(x_2 \mid \mu, \sigma_2, I) \cdot f(\mu \mid I) \end{aligned}$$

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$$\Rightarrow f(\underline{x}, \mu, | \underline{\sigma}) = \left[ \prod_i f(x_i | \mu, \sigma_i) \right] \cdot f_0(\mu)$$

Using (for the moment) a uniform prior (*practically flat* distribution in the region of interest):

$$f(\mu | \underline{x}, \underline{\sigma}, f_0(\mu) = k) \propto f(\underline{x}, \mu, | \underline{\sigma}) = \prod_i f_{\mathcal{N}}(x_i | \mu, \sigma_i)$$

## Details of the calculations

$$f(\mu | \underline{x}, \underline{\sigma}, f_0(\mu) = k) \propto \prod_i \exp \left[ -\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2 \sigma_i^2} \right]$$

## Details of the calculations

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mu | \underline{x}, \underline{\sigma}, f_0(\mu) = k) &\propto \prod_i \exp \left[ -\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2 \sigma_i^2} \right] \\ &\propto \exp \left[ -\sum_i \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2 \sigma_i^2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

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## Inferring $\mu$ from $n$ 'independent' measurements

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(having used the technique of complementing the exponential)  
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And Gauss was the first to realize that  
**the Gaussian is indeed 'wrong'!**

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(Just **measurement** nr 1, or **nr 0**, if you prefer. . .)



## Adding a prior piece of information

$$f(\mu | \underline{x}, \underline{\sigma}) \propto \prod_{i=1}^n \exp \left[ -\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2 \sigma_i^2} \right] \cdot f_0(\mu)$$

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$\sigma_0^2 \gg \sigma_C^2 \Rightarrow \text{irrelevant } (\approx \text{'uniform'})$ .



## Joint inference of $\mu$ and $\tau$ ( $\rightarrow \sigma$ ) with JAGS/rjags

**Model** (to be written in the model file)

```
model{  
  for (i in 1:length(x)) {  
    x[i] ~ dnorm(mu, tau);  
  }  
  mu ~ dnorm(0.0, 1.0E-6);  
  tau ~ dgamma(1.0, 1.0E-6);  
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## Simulated data

```
mu.true = 3; sigma.true = 2; sample.n = 20  
x = rnorm(sample.n, mu.true, sigma.true)
```

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```

## Simulated data

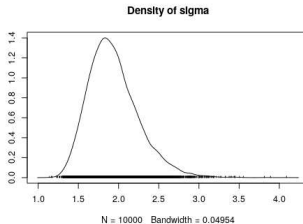
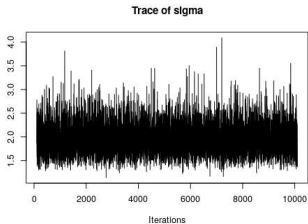
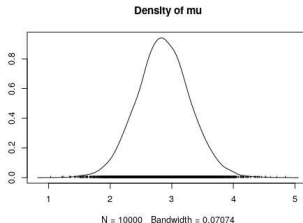
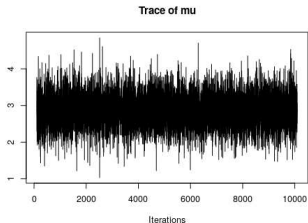
```
mu.true = 3; sigma.true = 2; sample.n = 20  
x = rnorm(sample.n, mu.true, sigma.true)
```

## JAGS calls

```
data = list(x=x)  
inits = list(mu=mean(x), tau=1/var(x))  
jm <- jags.model(model, data, inits)  
update(jm, 100)  
chain <- coda.samples(jm, c("mu", "sigma"), n.iter=10000)
```

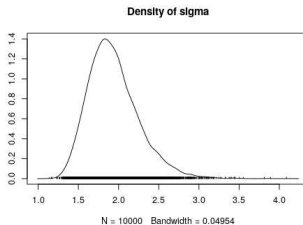
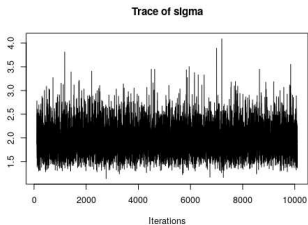
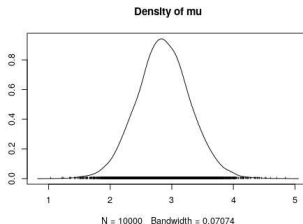
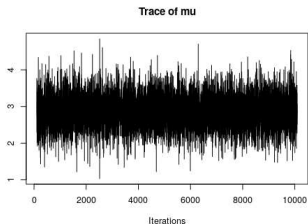
# Joint inference of $\mu$ and $\tau$ ( $\rightarrow \sigma$ ) with JAGS/rjags

$\Rightarrow$  `inf_mu_sigma.R`



# Joint inference of $\mu$ and $\tau (\rightarrow \sigma)$ with JAGS/rjags

$\Rightarrow$  `inf_mu_sigma.R`



$\overline{\mu} = 2.87$ ,  $\text{std}(\mu) = 0.44$ ;

$\overline{\sigma} = 1.94$ ,  $\text{std}(\sigma) = 0.31$

## Proposed exercise

Try to reproduce the results of `inf_mu_sigma.R`  
by a self-written Metropolis algorithm

Remark: the priors about  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  (there is no need to use  $\tau$ ) can be simply uniform, but, obviously, the unnormalized joint distribution has to return 0 for  $\sigma \leq 0$ , such that the MC chain cannot make a jump into such unphysical region.

# The End