## COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

✤ If we want Eh(X) but the maths is too complicated, we can approximate  $Eh(x) \approx n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} h(x_i)$ where  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are sampled from X

✤ This approximation also tells us how to estimate probabilities, since  $\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = \mathbb{E}1_{X \in A}$ 





 For computational Bayes, we need something a bit fancier: *weighted samples* probability of heads, unknown





$$X \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n, \Theta)$$

number of heads from 4 coin tosses

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- 0. First write out our probability model for the data  $Pr_X(x|\Theta = \theta)$
- 1. Write out  $Pr_{\Theta}(\theta)$
- 2. Use the formula  $Pr_{\Theta}(\theta|X = x) = \kappa Pr_{\Theta}(\theta)Pr_X(x|\Theta = \theta)$ then find  $\kappa$  to make this integrate to 1

... but these are usually intractable

This lets us calculate probabilities:  $\mathbb{P}(\Theta \in \text{range} | X = x) = \int_{\theta \in \text{range}} \Pr_{\Theta}(\theta | X = x) \, d\theta$ 

## One way to do COMPUTATIONAL BAYES

- 1. Generate a sample  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$  from  $\Theta$
- 2. Compute weights  $w_i = \Pr_X(x|\Theta = \theta_i),$ then rescale weights to sum to one

$$\mathbb{P}(\Theta \in \operatorname{range} X \neq x) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i 1_{\theta_i} \operatorname{trange}$$

It's more elegant to use the generalized version

 $\mathbb{E}[h(\Theta)|X=x] \approx \Sigma_i w_i h(\theta_i)$ 

### ALGEBRAIC BAYES

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- 1. Write out  $\Pr_{\Theta}(\theta)$
- 2. Use the formula  $\operatorname{Rr}_{\Theta}(\theta | X \neq x) = \kappa \operatorname{Pr}_{\Theta}(\theta) \operatorname{Pr}_{\varepsilon}(\kappa | \Theta = \lambda)$ then find  $\kappa$  to make this integrate to 1

... but these are usually intractable

This lets us calculate probabilities:  $\mathbb{P}(\Theta \in \operatorname{range} X \neq \chi)$  $\Pr_{\Theta}(\mathfrak{A}|X =$ 

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```
Reason about (\Theta | X = x) indirectly, using

\mathbb{E}[h(\Theta) | X = x] \approx \Sigma_i w_i h(\theta_i)
```



I got x = 1 head out of n = 4 coin tosses. I propose the probability model  $X \sim Bin(n, \Theta)$ . I don't know  $\Theta$ , so I'll treat it as a random variable,  $\Theta \sim U[0,1]$ .

Plot the distribution of  $(\Theta | X = x)$ .

Likelihood of the data:

$$X \sim Bin(n, \Theta)$$
  $\Pr_{X}(x \mid \Theta = \Theta) = \binom{n}{x} \Theta^{X}(1-\Theta)^{n-X}$   
= 4  $\Theta$   $(1-\Theta)^{3}$  for  $n=4, x=1$ 

Generate a sample  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$  from  $\Theta$ :

```
θsamp = np.random.uniform(0,1, size=1000)
```

Compute weights  $w_i = \Pr_X(x|\Theta = \theta_i)$ , then rescale weights to sum to one:

```
w = 4 * θsamp**1 * (1-θsamp)**3
w = w / np.sum(w)
```

```
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Plot the distribution of  $(\Theta | X = x)$ .

Reason about 
$$(\Theta|X = x)$$
 indirectly, using  

$$\mathbb{E}[h(\Theta)|X = x] \approx \sum_{i} w_{i} h(\theta_{i})$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\Theta \in bin | data) = \mathbb{E}(1 \otimes bin | data)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(h(\Theta) | dota) \quad where \quad h(\Theta) = 1 \otimes bin$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\Theta \in bin | X = x)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\Theta \in bin | X$$

For samples of a continuous random variable, I prefer to plot *density histograms*, where the bar heights are rescaled so that the total area is 1.

This makes them directly comparable to a pdf.

plt.hist(0samp, weights=w) density=True)





Likelihood of the data: Pry (0.2 ( X = 2) = scipy. stats. norm. pdf (0.2, loc = x \*\*2, scale = 0.1)

Generate a sample  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$  from  $\emptyset$ :

xsamp = np.random.uniform(-1, 1, size=10000)

 $\Pr_{X}(0^{2} | X = x_{i})$ Compute weights  $w_{i} = \Pr_{X}(x | \Theta = \theta_{i})$ , then rescale weights to sum to one: # weight[i] = Pr\_Y(0.2 | x=xsamp[i])
w = scipy.stats.norm.pdf(.2, loc=xsamp\*\*2, scale=0.1)
w = w / np.sum(w)

plt.hist(xsamp, weights=w, density=True, bins=np.linspace(-1,1,100))
plt.show()

#### Exercise 8.3.2 (Multiple unknowns)

We have a dataset  $[x_1, ..., x_n]$ . We propose to model it as independent samples from U[A, A + B], where A and B are unknown parameters.

Using  $A \sim \text{Exp}(0.5)$  and  $B \sim \text{Exp}(1.0)$  as prior distributions for the unknown parameters, find the distribution of (B|data).

Likelihood of the data:  

$$Pr(x_1, \dots, x_n \mid A = a, B = b) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} Pr(x_i \mid A = a, B = b) \text{ since our model says rhey're independent}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ \frac{1}{b} \ 1_{a \in x_i \in b} \right\} \text{ the pdf of } U[a, a + b]$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} 1_{a \in min \times i} 1_{max \times i \in a + b}$$

 $((a_1,b_1), \dots, (a_n,b_n))$   $(A_1B)$  x = [2, 3]

x = [2, 3, 2.1, 2.4, 3.14, 1.8]

Generate a sample  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)$  from  $\emptyset$ :

$$Pr(dota((A,B)=(a,b))$$

Compute weights  $w_i = \Pr_X(x|\Theta = \theta_i)$ , then rescale weights to sum to one: # Assume that A and B are independent. To generate samples of (A,B) ...
asamp = np.random.exponential(scale=1/0.5, size=1000000)
bsamp = np.random.exponential(scale=1/1.0, size=1000000)
#absamp = zip(asamp, bsamp)

 $w = 1/bsamp^{**}len(x) * np.where((asamp <= min(x)) & (max(x) <= asamp+bsamp), 1, 0)$ w = w / np.sum(w)

plt.hist(bsamp, weights=w, density=True, bins=np.linspace(0,5,100))
plt.show()

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**TIP.** If *n* is large, you can run into underflow problems if you compute  $Pr(x_1, ..., x_n | \text{params})$  directly. Be clever about rescaling the weights, using the log-sum-exp trick (exercise 8.3.4).

**TIP.** First find the joint posterior distribution for *all* the unknown parameters. Then, pick out just the one you're interested in.

We call this *marginalization*.



Why does computational Bayes work?



Χ  $\sim N(\Theta^2, 0.1^2)$ 

distribution

Joint pdf



 $\propto \Pr_{\Theta}(\theta) \times \Pr_{X}(x|\Theta = \theta)$ 

 $\propto \Pr_{\Theta,X}(\theta, x)$  $\propto \Pr_{\Theta}(\theta) \Pr_{X}(x|\Theta = \theta)$  §6.2



Reverend Thomas Bayes, 1701–1761

# Bayes's rule for random variables $Pr_X(x|Y = y) = Pr_X(x) \frac{Pr_Y(y|X = x)}{Pr_Y(y)}$

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A | Y = y) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \mathbb{1}_{x_i \in A}$$

X unobserved (latent) variable

Y we have observed the value of Y



### Bayesianism

Whenever there's an unknown parameter, you should express your uncertainty about it by treating it as a random variable.



Isn't it crazy to take the unknown parameter to be a random variable? Would a physicist be prepared to say "Let the speed of light be a random variable?" No!

THOUGHT EXPERIMENT. If I draw a card, and ask you "What's the probably of Hearts", you'll likely answer ¼. You'll give this answer even if I can see the card. In other words, you're treating it as random *even though the value is known.* You're using randomness to express your uncertainty.

#### SCIENCEalert

The Way You Flip a Coin Could Mean It's Not as Random as You'd Expect



darkmatterphotography/Moment/Getty Imag

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We all know a coin toss has an even chance of coming up heads or tails, right? A new experiment shows that in certain situations, it's actually more likely to land on one side rather than the other.

The international team of researchers responsible for the experiment certainly put the work in, finding the average result of a total of 350,757 coin flips between them – a gigantic number that eclipses anything the authors had seen in coin toss academia.

An analysis of their results supports a theory from 2007 proposed by mathematician Persi Diaconis, stating the side facing up when you flip the coin is the side more likely to be facing up when it lands.

These latest experiments show that's the case 50.8 percent of the time. The bias seemed to apply across different coin types, but not across different individuals – so your own experience may vary. When we create a probability model, we're not claiming that its randomness is a true reflection of the actual physical world. (The actual physical world does have randomness, via Schroedinger's equation, but no sane data modeller would ever use that as their randomness.) When we model a coin as  $Bin(1, \theta)$  that's not meant to express the underlying physical reality. It's just a mental construct – it's all in our heads.