



Bayesian Inference using Python

PSAM 18

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Supporting Material

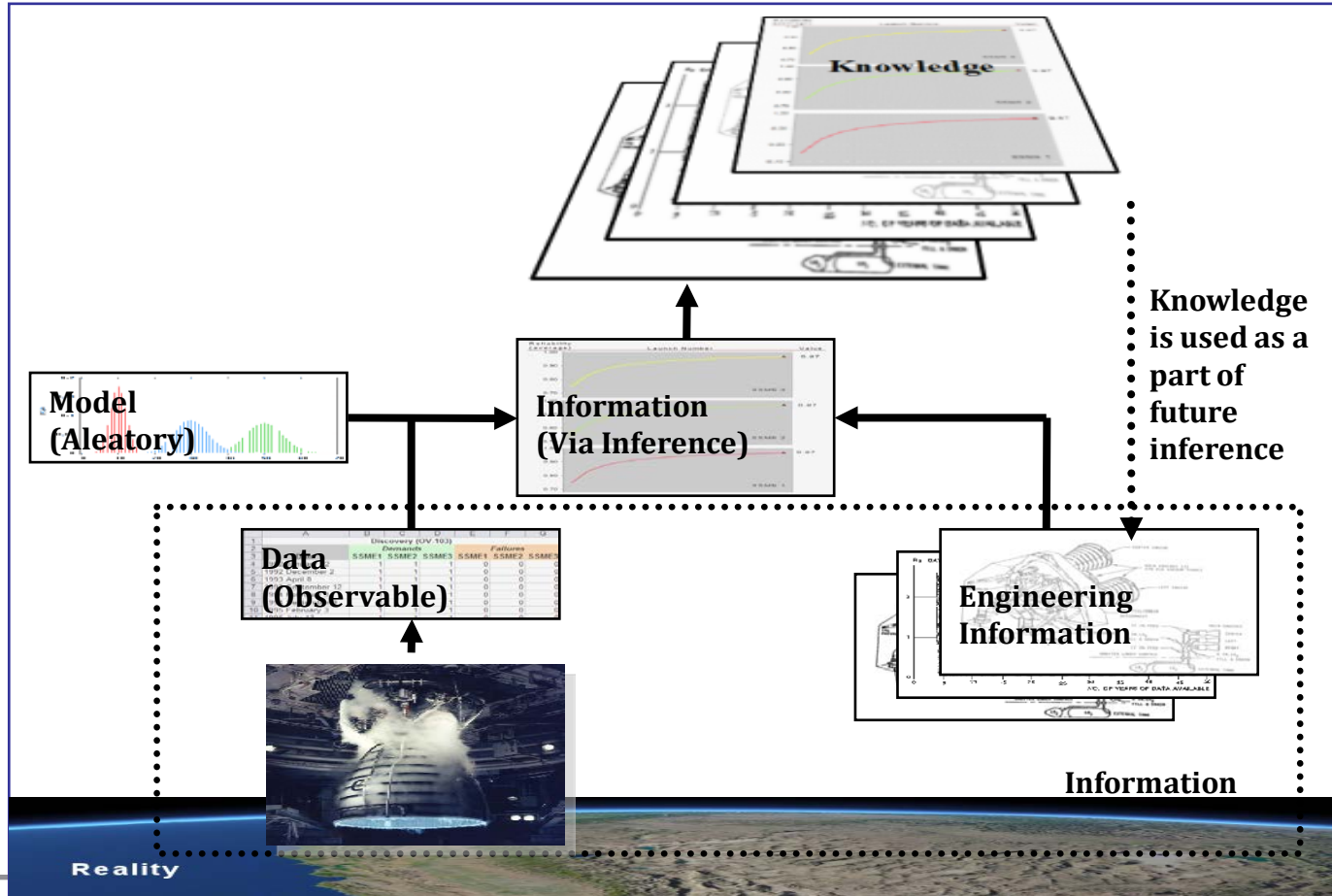
- Kelly and Smith, *Bayesian Inference for Probabilistic Risk Assessment*
- *Bayesian Inference for NASA Probabilistic Risk and Reliability Analysis*, NASA/SP-2009-569
 - <https://ntrs.nasa.gov/citations/20090023159>
- Google Colab (python)
- PyMC
 - <https://www.pymc.io/projects/docs/en/stable/learn.html>

Topics

- **Overview of Bayesian Parameter Estimation**
- **Parameters in Failure Models**
- **Conjugate Priors**
- **Noninformative Priors**
- **Nonconjugate Priors**
- **Bayesian Parameter Estimation in Python**
- **Uncertain Data**

Overview of Bayesian Parameter Estimation

Visual Taxonomy of Bayesian Inference

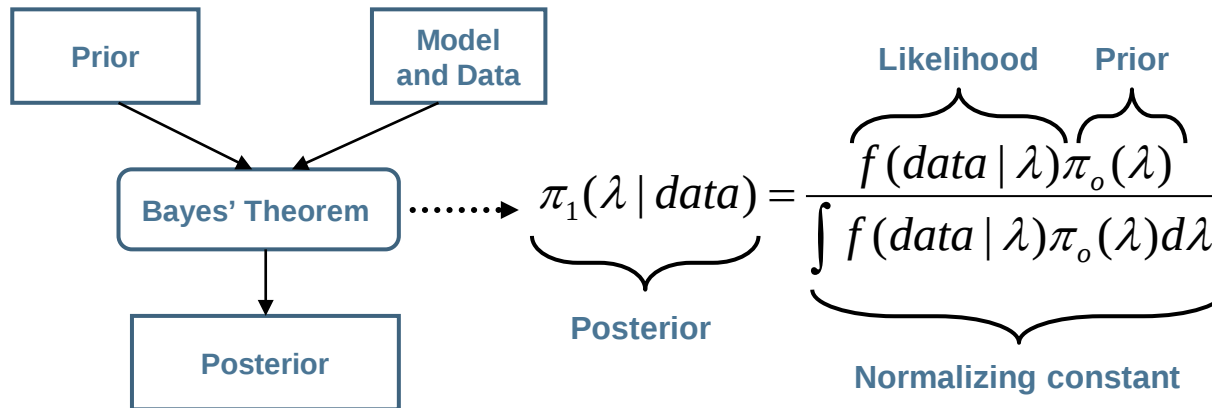


Bayesian Parameter Estimation

- **The general procedure is:**
 - Begin with an aleatory model for the process of interest
 - Specify a prior distribution for parameter(s) in this model, quantifying epistemic uncertainty, i.e., quantifying state of knowledge about the possible parameter values
 - Collect data
 - Obtain the posterior (i.e., updated) distribution for the parameter(s) of interest
 - Check validity of model
- **We follow this process to make inferences, that is, to determine the probability that a model or hypothesis is reasonable, conditional on all available evidence**

Bayesian Updating – Process Overview

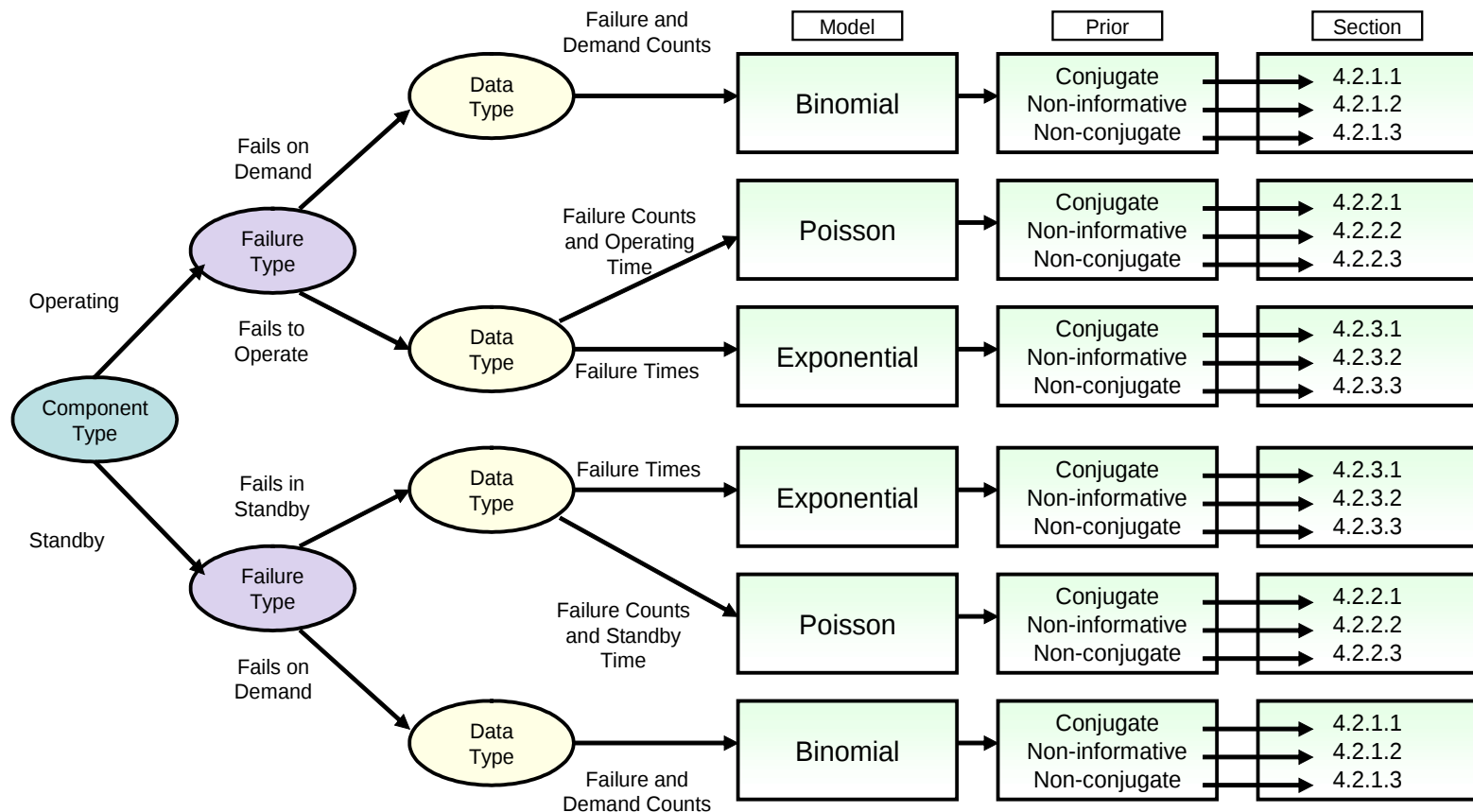
- **The types of information available for parameter values include:**
 - Prior knowledge such as general engineering knowledge and historical information from similar events
 - The observed data for the event of interest in the system under study
- **The Bayesian approach provides a formal mechanism for combining all available information**
 - Including engineering and qualification test data, field experience, expert judgment, and data from similar systems



Common Aleatory Models in Failure Modeling

- **Binomial**
 - **Poisson**
 - **Exponential**
-
- **We use these models to count failures or estimate failure times**

A Modeling “Roadmap” (from NASA/SP-2009-569)



Parameters in Failure Models

Binomial Distribution: Functional Form

$$\binom{n}{x} = \frac{n!}{k! (n - k)!}$$

- The random variable X has a binomial(n , p) distribution:

$$f(x) = \mathbf{P}(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x} \quad \text{for } x = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

(x = number of failures)

- Distribution parameters are p (unknown) and n (specified)
- For Bayesian inference, we write $f(x)$ as $f(x|p)$, called the likelihood function, sometimes denoted $L(p)$
 - For example, if we see $n=10$ and $x = 2$, then $L(p) = \binom{10}{2} p^2 (1 - p)^8$
 - Leads to frequentist maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) for p of x/n
 - X is observed (failures) and **p is unknown** (focus of inference)

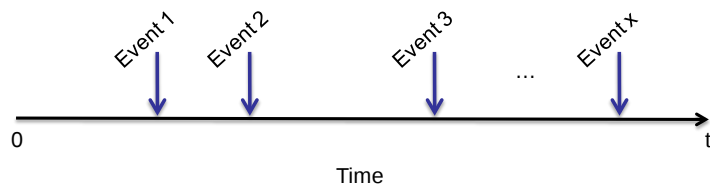


Poisson Distribution: Functional Form

- The random variable X has a $\text{Poisson}(\lambda t)$ distribution:

$$f(x) = \frac{(\lambda t)^x e^{-\lambda t}}{x!}$$

for $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
(x = number of events)



- The distribution depends on one quantity, λt , (λ unknown, t specified)
 - Therefore, product λt is sometimes written as μ (or even λ), and the distribution is called $\text{Poisson}(\mu)$
- For Bayesian inference, we write $f(x)$ as $f(x|\lambda)$, called the likelihood function, sometimes denoted $L(\lambda)$
 - Leads to frequentist MLE for λ of x/t

Prior Distributions

- **We can have different types of prior information**
 - Discrete priors (not discussed)
 - **Conjugate** priors
 - Informative
 - Noninformative
 - **Nonconjugate** priors
 - Hybrid priors (a combination of discrete and continuous, also not discussed)
- **In any situation though, the prior is intended to represent knowledge about a parameter independent of the data collected for that parameter**

Conjugate Priors

Prior Distributions

- In risk and reliability assessment, we tend to use one of two types of priors
 1. Conjugate (distributions where the posterior and prior have the same distribution type)
 - These can be informative or noninformative
 2. Nonconjugate
 - These can be informative or noninformative
- For example, to estimate $P(\text{component fails to start})$ we could
 - Use a **binomial** model with a **beta prior** $\rightarrow \text{beta}(0.5, 0.5)$
 - This would be a **conjugate** using a **noninformative** prior (i.e., Jeffreys)
 - Use a **binomial** model with a **beta prior** $\rightarrow \text{beta}(10, 55)$
 - This would be a **conjugate** using an **informative** prior
 - Use a **binomial** model with a **gamma prior** $\rightarrow \text{gamma}(1, 5)$
 - This would be a **nonconjugate** using an **informative** prior
- In all cases, the prior should represent what we know about the problem at hand, independent of data

Conjugate Priors for Common Failure Models

- If X is **binomial**(n, p) and $g_{\text{prior}}(p)$ is **beta**($\alpha_{\text{prior}}, \beta_{\text{prior}}$)
 - Then **posterior** distribution of p is
 - **beta**($\alpha_{\text{post}}, \beta_{\text{post}}$)
$$\alpha_{\text{post}} = \alpha_{\text{prior}} + x \quad (x = \# \text{ events})$$
$$\beta_{\text{post}} = \beta_{\text{prior}} + n - x \quad (n = \text{total } \# \text{ trials})$$
- If X is **Poisson**(λt) and $g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda)$ is **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{prior}}, \beta_{\text{prior}}$)
 - Then **posterior** distribution of λ is
 - **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{post}}, \beta_{\text{post}}$)
$$\alpha_{\text{post}} = \alpha_{\text{prior}} + x \quad (x = \# \text{ events})$$
$$\beta_{\text{post}} = \beta_{\text{prior}} + t \quad (t = \text{observation time})$$
- If $T_1, \dots, T_n$ are times from **exponential**(λ) distribution and $g_{\text{prior}}(\lambda)$ is **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{prior}}, \beta_{\text{prior}}$)
 - Then **posterior** distribution of λ is
 - **gamma**($\alpha_{\text{post}}, \beta_{\text{post}}$)
$$\alpha_{\text{post}} = \alpha_{\text{prior}} + n \quad (n = \# \text{ events})$$
$$\beta_{\text{post}} = \beta_{\text{prior}} + \sum t_i \quad (t_i = \text{observed times of } n \text{ events})$$

Noninformative Priors

Noninformative (Formal) Prior Distributions

- The original intent of “noninformative” priors was to answer question
 - How do we find a prior representing complete ignorance?
- **Rev. Bayes suggested a uniform prior**
 - Laplace used this in his activities with great success
 - But, there are philosophical & mathematical problems with this
- **Sir Harold Jeffreys suggested a prior that was invariant to changes in**
 - Scale
 - Location
- **Consequently, a “noninformative” prior is typically not uniform for the parameter of interest**
 - It is uniform (or approximately so) for some transformed parameter
 - It depends on the process generating the data
 - Has property that the Bayes posterior intervals are approximately equal to frequentist confidence interval
 - Formal priors “let the data speak for themselves”



Jeffreys Prior Distributions for Our Failure Models

- **For binomial(n, p) aleatory model**
 - Jeffreys noninformative prior for p is $\text{beta}(1/2, 1/2)$, which is a proper prior (integral equals 1)
- **For Poisson(λt) aleatory model**
 - Jeffreys noninformative prior for λ is $\text{gamma}(1/2, 0)$ (improper prior, integral diverges)
- **For exponential(λ) aleatory model**
 - Jeffreys noninformative prior for λ is $\text{gamma}(0, 0)$ (improper prior, integral diverges)

Updating Jeffreys Prior Distributions

- **For binomial(n, p) aleatory model**
 - Jeffreys noninformative prior for p is $\text{beta}(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$
 - **Posterior** is $\text{beta}(x + \frac{1}{2}, n - x + \frac{1}{2})$
- **For Poisson(λt) aleatory model**
 - Jeffreys noninformative prior for λ is $\text{gamma}(\frac{1}{2}, 0)$
 - **Posterior** is $\text{gamma}(x + \frac{1}{2}, t)$
- **For exponential(λ) aleatory model**
 - Jeffreys noninformative prior for λ is $\text{gamma}(0, 0)$
 - **Posterior** is $\text{gamma}(n, \sum t_i)$

Constrained Noninformative (CNI) Prior

- **Recall that Jeffreys prior for binomial likelihood is $\text{beta}(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$**
 - The prior mean is 0.5 (quite large if a failure probability)
- **With sparse data, prior mean can influence results too much**
- **To overcome this, can use prior which has specified mean, but is close to Jeffreys prior otherwise**
 - Goal is to maximize uncertainty but still start with an acceptable mean
 - Specified mean might be industry average value
- **Result is called “constrained noninformative” (CNI) prior**

Left to right: Claude Shannon,
Edward Jaynes, Corwin Atwood



Constrained Noninformative Prior

- Cannot be written in form of standard distribution for case of binomial likelihood
 - Approximated well by **beta** distribution with $\alpha = 0.5$
 - For the beta, the mean = $\alpha / (\alpha + \beta)$, thus β can be found to be
 - $\beta = \alpha(1 - \text{mean}) / \text{mean}$
- For Poisson likelihood, CNP prior is **gamma**($\frac{1}{2}$, $1/(2 * \text{mean})$)
- For exponential likelihood, cannot define CNP prior, as it is not proper, therefore cannot have finite mean
 - Alternative is maximum entropy prior, which is
 - **Gamma**(1, $1/\text{mean}$)
 - This is an exponential distribution

Nonconjugate Priors

Nonconjugate Priors

- **For each aleatory model, there is at *most* one conjugate prior type**
 - All other distributional forms are **nonconjugate**
 - Integral in denominator of Bayes' Theorem must (typically) be done numerically
- **A common nonconjugate prior in risk assessment is lognormal distribution**
 - Originally used in WASH-1400 to represent plant-to-plant variability in parameter values
 - Very convenient when uncertainty spans several orders of magnitude
 - Useful in expert elicitation (e.g., seismic analysis)
 - Elicit median and upper bound, 5th and 95th percentiles, etc.
 - Generic failure rate and failure probability databases often express uncertainty in terms of lognormal distribution
- **Definition of a lognormal distribution**
 - X is **lognormal**(μ, σ) if $\ln(X)$ is **normal**(μ, σ)

Nonconjugate Prior with Binomial

- If we use a lognormal distribution as a prior for a binomial failure model
 - This is nonconjugate
- Bayes' theorem looks like this with the integration

$$P(p|x) = \frac{\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma p} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln p - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}{\int_0^1 \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma p} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln p - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dp}$$

- The problem is even more complicated if we want the **expected value** of the posterior

- That involves another integration $E[p] = \int_0^1 p P(p|x) dp$

How to Solve the Example

- **The more general case is to solve Bayes numerically**
- **One approach is Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)**
 - The idea is to estimate the posterior distribution directly
 - Sample from $\Pr(p \mid x)$
- **Different algorithms exist**
 - Simplest is Random Walk Metropolis
 - Guess value of $p \rightarrow$ call it p'
 - Check a branching condition r
 - Get random value from ordinate of $\Pr(p' \mid x)$'s CDF
 - This is a pick from uniform distribution from 0 to 1
 - Check against branching condition r to keep p' (or not)
- **Solution tools**
 - MultiBUGS or Python (e.g., pymc library)

Bayesian Parameter Estimation in Python

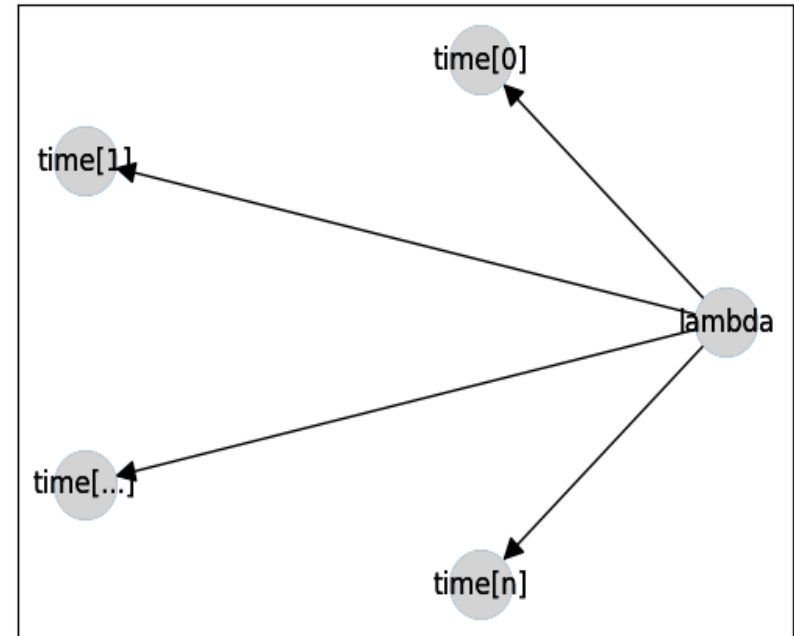
Models for Time to _____ (e.g., recovery, failure, ...)

- How do we represent a duration?
- We create a probability distribution that represents the time of interest
 - These times could represent any process, repairing components, failures, suppressing a fire, an adversary breaching a barrier, ...
- One of the *simplest* aleatory model for time is the **exponential** distribution
 - $T \sim \exp(\lambda)$ Recall that $E[T] = \text{Mean Time to } ___ = 1/\lambda$
 - The unknown parameter is λ , a rate
- Our example data is series of times for recovery, assumed to be represented by $\exp(\lambda)$

Influence Diagram Representation

- Assume a facility records the time it takes (in minutes) to restore a system

105, 5, 1263, 72, 37, 814, 11.5, 211,
330, 7929, 296, 31, 120, 441



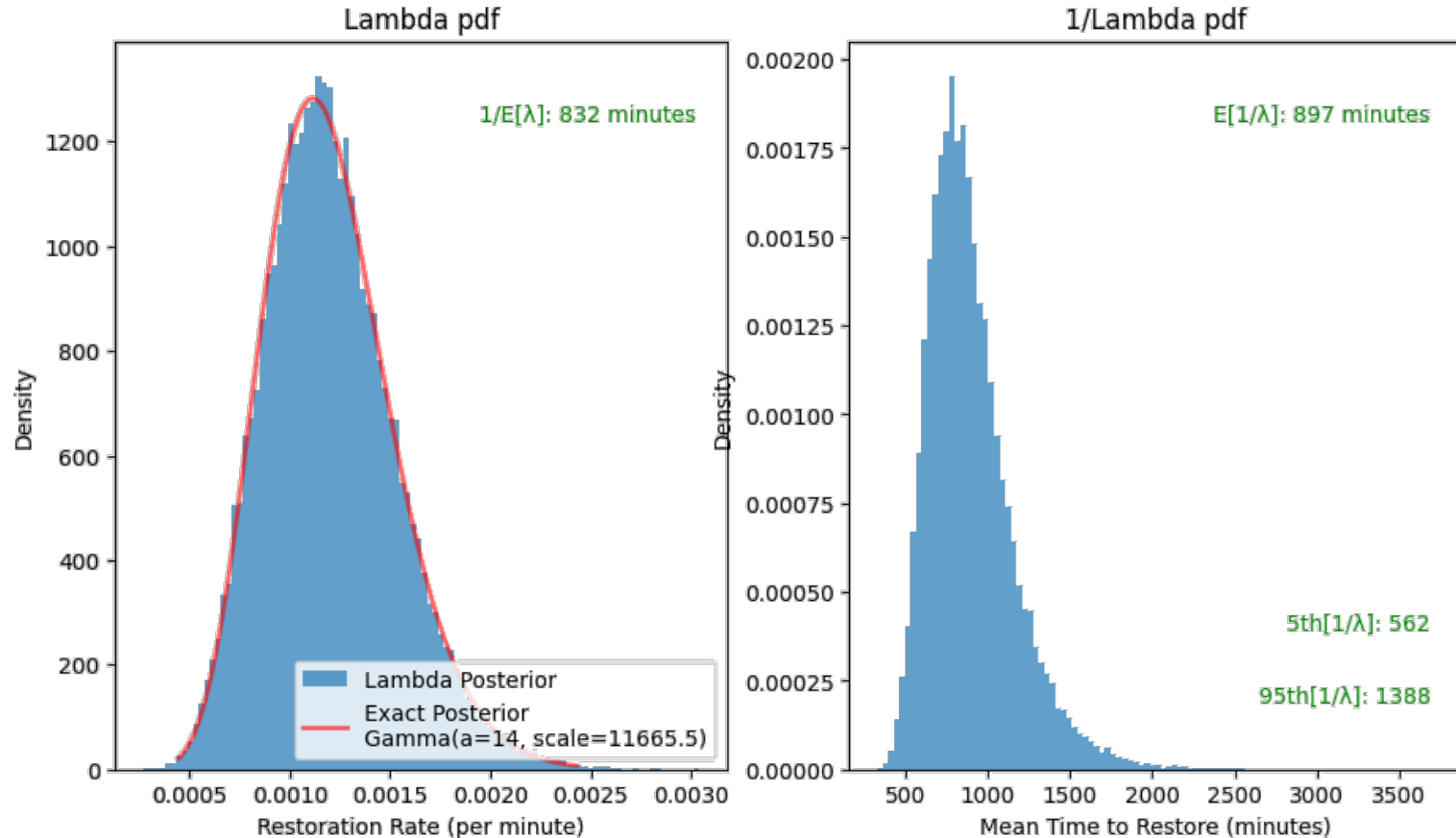
The Python Model

```
import pymc as pm
number_samples = 20_000
tune_samples = int(number_samples * 0.1)
restoration_times = [105, 5, 1263, 72, 37, 814, 11.5, 211, 330, 7929, 296, 31, 120, 441] # Minutes
n = len(restoration_times)
sum_times = np.sum(restoration_times)

# Define the PyMC Model
with pm.Model() as model:
    # Prior for the restoration rate Jeffreys Gamma(0,0)
    lambda_param = pm.Gamma('lambda_param', alpha=0.001, beta=0.001)
    # Likelihood: Exponential time observation
    obs = pm.Exponential("obs", lam=lambda_param, observed=restoration_times)
    # Inference: Sample from posterior
    idata = pm.sample(num_samples, tune=tuning_samples, cores=2, target_accept=0.9)

# Get posterior samples
lambda_samples = idata.posterior['lambda_param'].values.flatten()
```

Running the Script in Python Provides



Lambda versus MTTR versus Predicted Restoration Times

- The posterior results

<i>Variable</i>		<i>Mean</i>	<i>5th</i>	<i>95th</i>
MTTR (min.)	900	560	1400	
Lambda (/min)	1.2E-3	7.2E-4	1.8E-3	

- Okay, how might we use this information in risk or reliability?
 - MTTR only represents the prediction of *mean time* to restore, it is **not a predictive** model of possible restoration times
 - The Python posterior samples represent uncertainty in Lambda
- We could also produce a **posterior predictive distribution** of times
 - This is accomplished by using the aleatory model (exponential in this case) with the uncertainty in Lambda

What is the Posterior Predictive Distribution?

- **Posterior predictive distribution**
 - Where we (via Bayes) create a distribution using the **aleatory model + posterior distributions for parameters in that model**
 - This predictive distribution represents a way to make future predictions about the process represented by the aleatory model
- **For $T \sim \exp(\lambda)$**
 - Predictions of a future time (t_{pred}) is obtained by averaging over the posterior distribution for all model parameters (only λ in this case)

$$\begin{aligned} f(t_{\text{pred}} | t_1, \dots, t_N) &= \int_0^{\infty} f(t_{\text{new}} | \lambda) p(\lambda | t_1, \dots, t_N) d\lambda \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda t_{\text{new}}} g(\lambda | t_1, \dots, t_N) d\lambda \end{aligned}$$

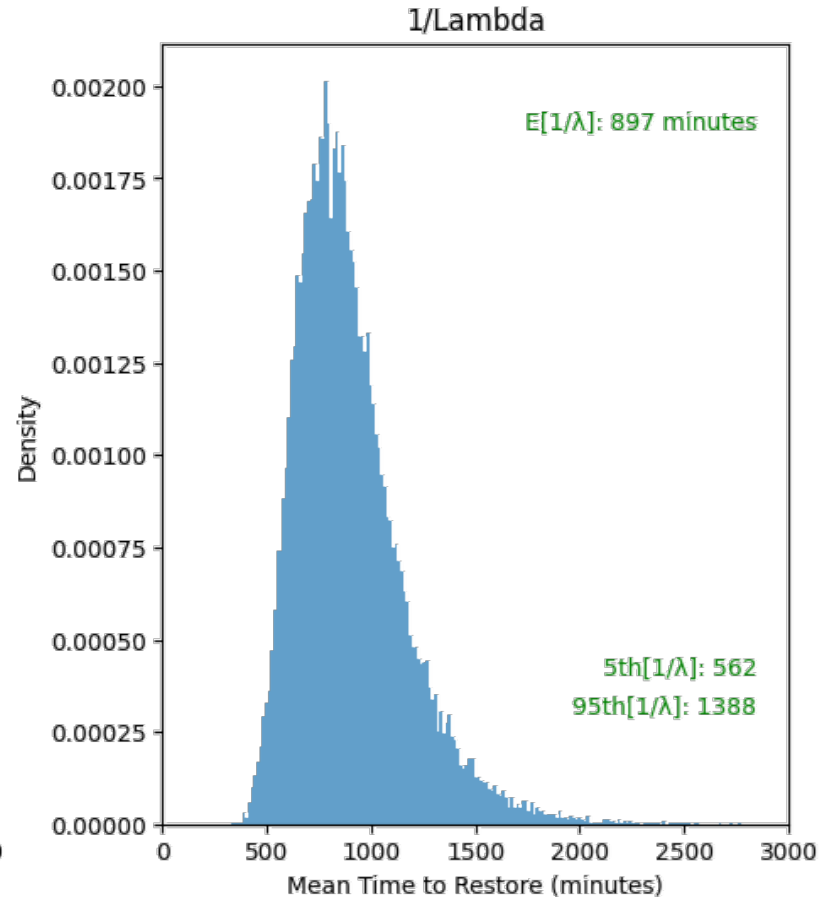
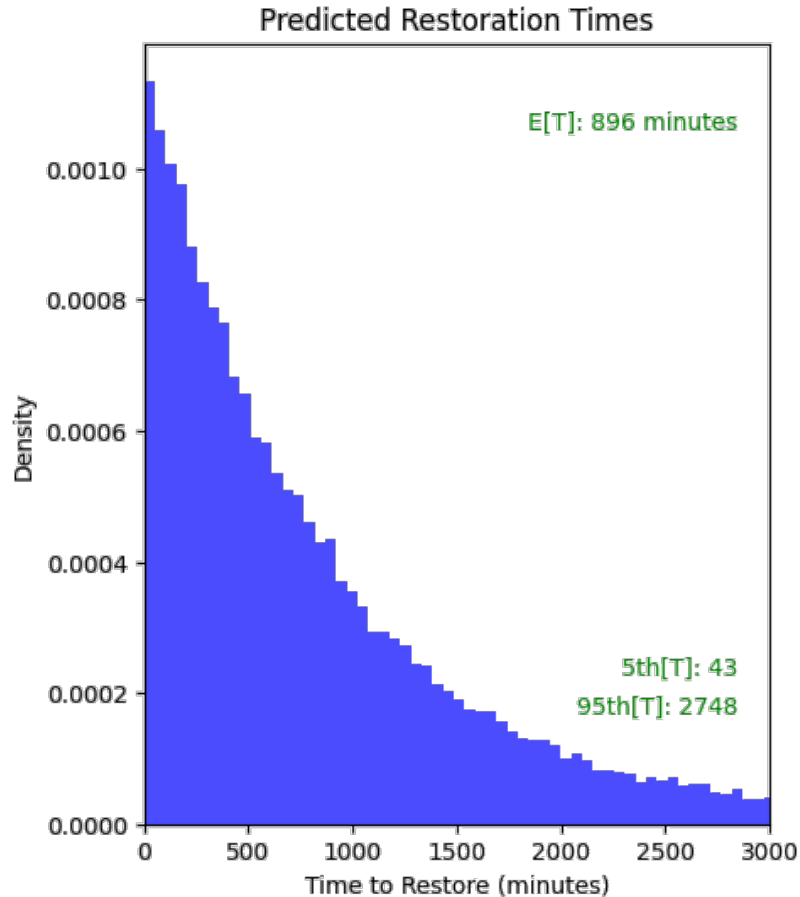
Determining the Posterior Predictive Distribution

- Since we have the aleatory model & associated parameter distributions, it is easy to calculate the posterior predictive distribution
 - Add a new line to the Python script
`exp_times = [expon.rvs(scale=1/lam) for lam in lambda_samples]`
 - It uses the distribution on lambda to predict restoration times
 - These predicted times are stored in the exp_times variable
- **The posterior results**

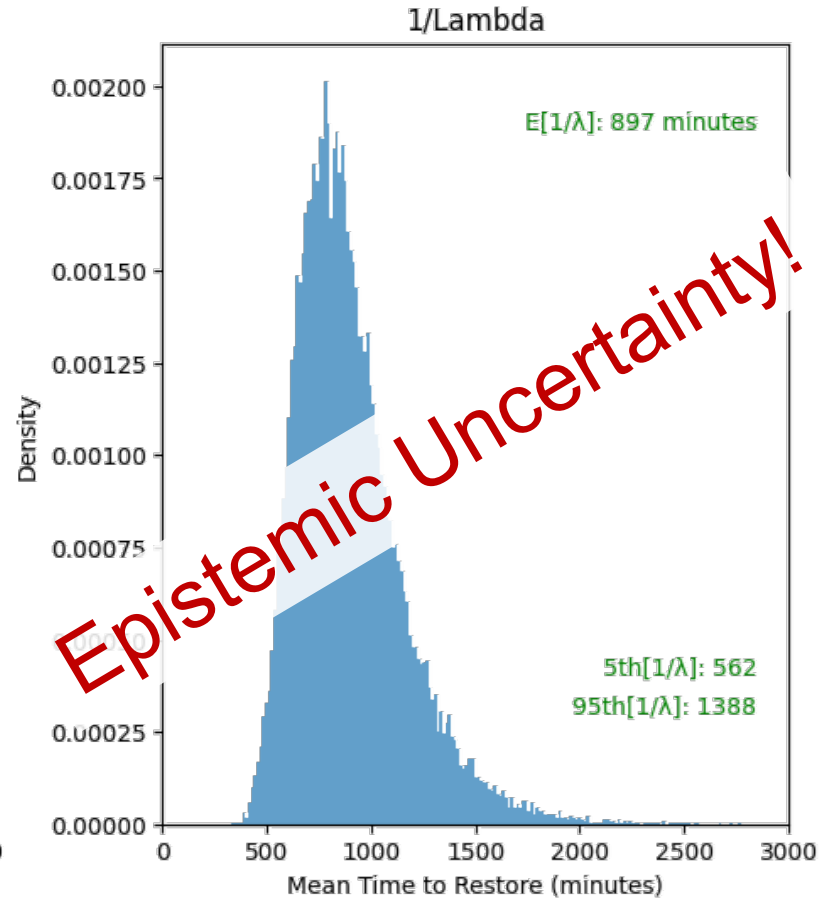
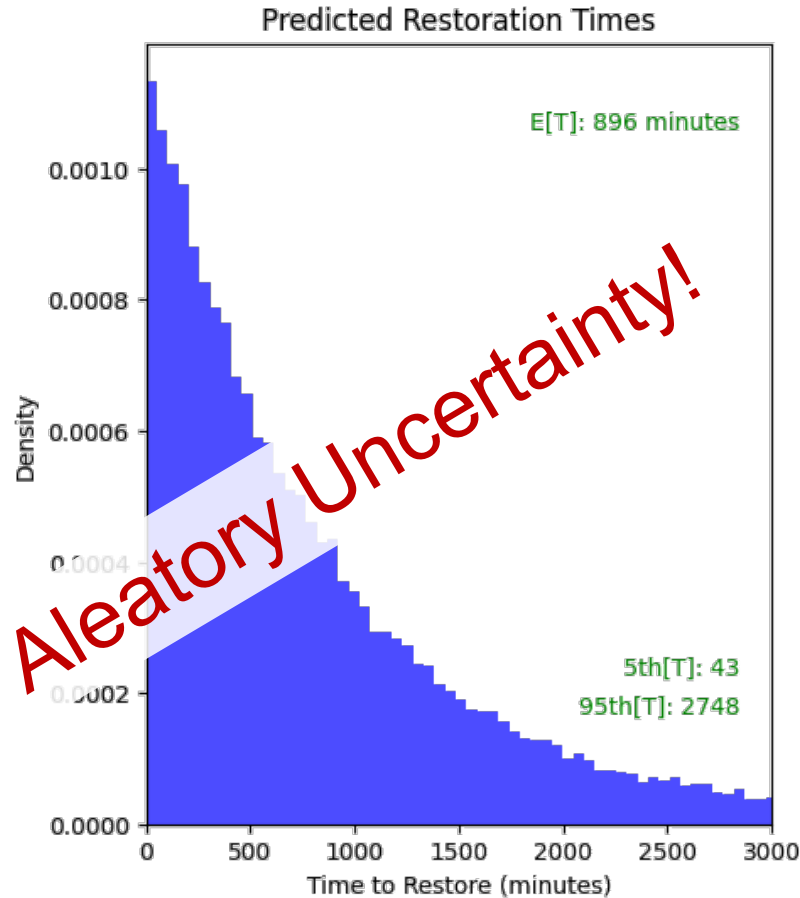
<u>Variable</u>		<u>Mean</u>	<u>5th</u>	<u>95th</u>
MTTR (min.)	900	560	1400	
exp_times (min.)	900	43	2700	

- **Note the larger uncertainty for exp_times compared to MTTR**
 - The predictive distribution uses *all* the uncertainty contained in λ

Plotting the Posterior Predictive Distribution



Plotting the Posterior Predictive Distribution



Uncertain Data

What is Uncertain Data?

- Occasionally, observed data are uncertain or “fuzzy”
- For example, we see
 - Various types of censoring of data
 - Unclear whether failure occurred (or not)
 - Number of demands not known with certainty
- We can treat these complications using a Bayesian approach to directly account for the uncertainty in the data
- While accounting for unknown information will lead to more imprecise parameter estimation
 - Not accounting for this information may lead to false inference

Three Cases can be Considered

- **We could consider the following cases**
 - Uncertain **durations**
 - For example, data is collected related to the time it takes to recover power to a facility once it is lost
 - The actual duration of real events may not be known exactly
 - Uncertain **demands**
 - For example, a facility may occasionally test a component, but poor record keeping leads to uncertainty in the actual number of demands recorded
 - Uncertain **failures**
 - For example, an actual event is recorded as a failure but upon review we are not certain that the component was not able to perform its intended function

When Durations are Uncertain

- Consider following data for fire suppression time

<i>Event</i>	<i>Duration (mins.)</i>
1	< 5
2	< 5
3	< 15
4	14
5	15
6	15
7	10 - 30
8	15
9	150
10	100 - 300

When Durations are Uncertain

- Treat the data (observations) as uncertain
- Assume a simple model for T (fire duration) as exponential
 - $T_{\text{supp}} \sim \exp(\lambda)$ where λ is suppression rate, units of min^{-1}
- Some data are **left-censored**, some are **interval-censored** (only have an interval for some points)
- Handled in Python by using censored likelihood approach
- Specifying the data

```
# Set up the data type
```

```
# KEY: 0: Observed
```

```
#      1: Right Censored (time is greater than t)
```

```
#      2: Interval Censored (time between high and low t)
```

```
#      3: Left Censored (time is less than t)
```

```
type = np.array([3,3,3,0,0,0,2,0,0,2])
```

```
low  = np.array([0.01,0.01, 0.01,14,15,15,10,15,150,100])
```

```
high = np.array([ 5, 5, 15,14,15,15,30,15,150,300])
```

When Durations are Uncertain

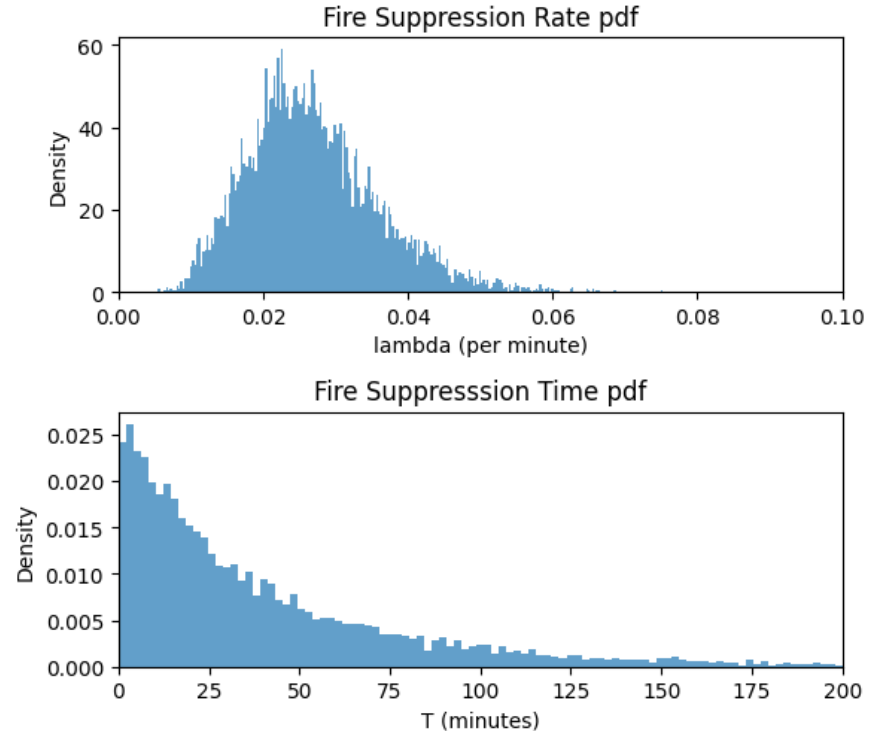
- Excerpt from the Python program in the Colab file

```
with pm.Model() as mixed_model:
    # Specify the prior on the RATE of the exponential model
    lambda_param = pm.Gamma('lambda_param', alpha=0.001, beta=0.001)
    # Define the exponential distribution representing times
    dist = pm.Exponential.dist(scale=1/lambda_param)
    # Custom logp for mixed censoring
    def mixed_logp(value, lower, upper, type, dist):
        logp_obs = pm.logp(dist, lower) # TYPE 0:
        logp_right = pm.logccdf(dist, lower) # Type 1
        logp_int = pm.logcdf(dist, lower) + at.log(at.expm1(pm.logcdf(dist, upper) -
pm.logcdf(dist, lower))) # Type 2
        logp_left = pm.logcdf(dist, upper) # Type 3
        # Combine based on type indicator
        return at.switch(at.eq(type, 0), logp_obs,
                        at.switch(at.eq(type, 1), logp_right,
                        at.switch(at.eq(type, 2), logp_int, logp_left)))
```

When Durations are Uncertain

- **** OpenBUGS results ****
- Lambda Mean: $2.7\text{E-}02$
- Lambda 5th Percentile: $1.4\text{E-}02$
- Lambda 95th Percentile: $4.2\text{E-}02$
- **** PyMC results ****
- Lambda Mean: $2.7\text{E-}02$
- Lambda 5th Percentile: $1.4\text{E-}02$
- Lambda 95th Percentile: $4.3\text{E-}02$
- Fire Suppression Time Mean: $4.2\text{E+}01$
- Fire Suppression 5th Percentile: $2.1\text{E+}00$
- Fire Suppression 95th Percentile: $1.3\text{E+}02$

Uncertain Duration Example



Example When Demands are Uncertain

- **Assumptions:**

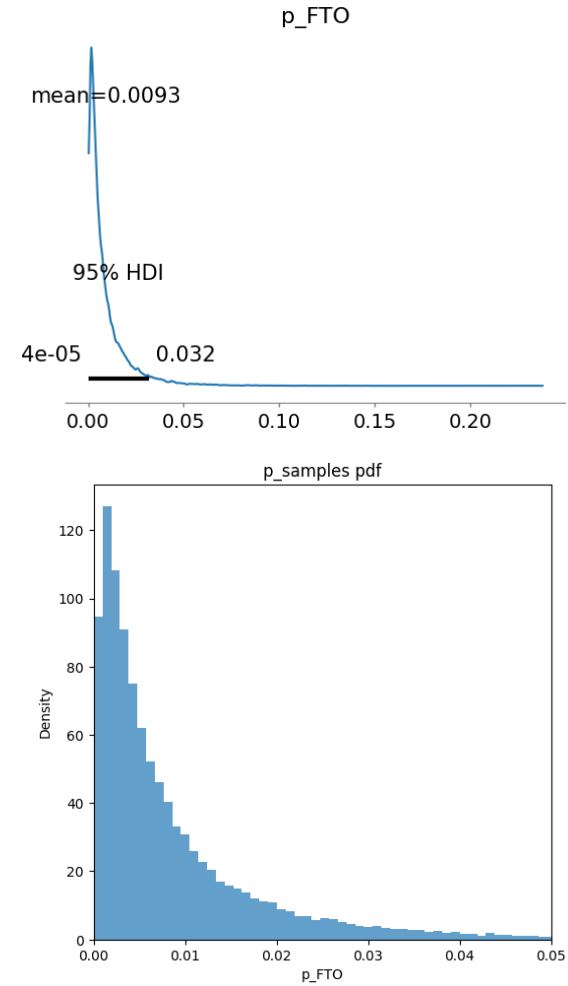
- Prior distribution for MOV fails to open (FTO) probability is lognormal with mean = 0.003 and EF = 10
 - Convert (via DSW) mean and EF to mu (-6.79) and sigma (1.4)
- One failure is seen
- Demands are not recorded, but are known to be between 12 and 40

- **Excerpt from the Python model**

```
with pm.Model() as model:
    # Distribution for uncertain n
    n = pm.DiscreteUniform("n", lower=demands_low, upper=demands_high)
    # Prior for probability FTO p
    p_FTO = pm.LogNormal("p_FTO", mu=-6.79, sigma=1.4)
    # Binomial Likelihood with uncertain n
    y = pm.Binomial("y", n=n, p=p_FTO, observed=num_FTO)
    # Sampling
    idata = pm.sample(num_samples, tune=tuning_samples, cores=2, target_accept=0.9)
```

When Demands are Uncertain

- Posterior results
- p_{FTO} Mean: $9.16\text{E-}03$
- p_{FTO} 5th Percentile: $6.66\text{E-}04$
- p_{FTO} 95th Percentile: $3.12\text{E-}02$



When Failures Are Uncertain

- Information from event reports and other information sources may not be clear enough to ascertain exact number of failures
- Sloppy record-keeping may result in imprecise estimates
 - Analogous to rounding of value
- Two approaches
 1. **Posterior-averaging**
 - Allows weighting of each posterior
 - For example, if the failure count might be 4, 5, or 6, we can assign a weight to each possible outcome
 2. **Likelihood-based**
 - Similar to posterior-averaging, but assumes all possible outcomes have equal weight

Posterior-Averaging Approach

- Analyst must develop subjective prior distribution for number of observed events
- **Example 1: plugging of service water strainers**
 - Inspection Report (IR) describes 7 plugging events over time period of interest
 - Three of these **may not** have been complete plugging events from perspective of a risk scenario
 - Therefore, actual number of events is 4, 5, 6, or 7
 - We are just uncertain as to which is “correct”
 - The total operation time was 48,180 hours

Posterior-Averaging Approach

- By poring over the IR, and applying expert knowledge, we come up with following distribution for actual number of complete plugging events:
 - $\Pr(x = 4) = 0.75$
 - $\Pr(x = 5) = 0.15$
 - $\Pr(x = 6) = 0.075$
 - $\Pr(x = 7) = 0.025$
- Note that probabilities must sum to unity
- What Python will do is run four cases (where $x=4$, $x=5$, $x=6$, and $x=7$) then weight the posterior distributions
 - Results in one overall distribution though

Posterior-Averaging Approach

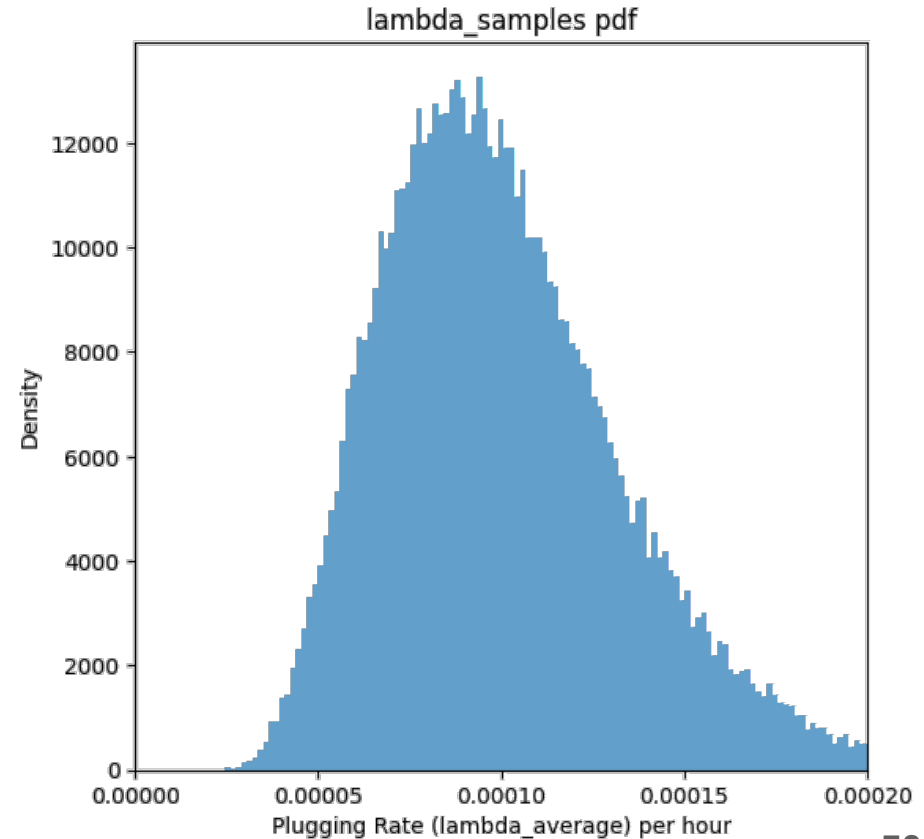
- Excerpt of Python program for the example

```
# Use a Jeffreys prior
a_prior = 0.5
b_prior = 0
t = 48180 # hours
num_samples = 50000
posteriors = [
    np.random.gamma(shape=a_prior + 4, scale=1/(b_prior+t), size=num_samples),
    np.random.gamma(shape=a_prior + 5, scale=1/(b_prior+t), size=num_samples),
    np.random.gamma(shape=a_prior + 6, scale=1/(b_prior+t), size=num_samples),
    np.random.gamma(shape=a_prior + 7, scale=1/(b_prior+t), size=num_samples)
]
# Assign weights to each model (must sum to 1)
weights = [0.75, 0.15, 0.075, 0.025]
# Perform weighted averaging using the posteriors
lambda_samples = posteriors[0] * weights[0] + posteriors[1] * weights[1] +
posteriors[2] * weights[2] + posteriors[3] * weights[3]
```

Posterior-Averaging Approach

Uncertain Failures Example (Posterior Averaging)

- Posterior results for example
- Lambda Mean: $1.01\text{E-}04$
- Lambda 5th: $5.48\text{E-}05$
- Lambda 95th: $1.64\text{E-}04$



50

Conclusions

- **Thank you for your attention!**
- **Send me an email if you would like a copy of the slides or have questions**