

Probability: More Examples & Concepts

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Road map

- Examples
 - Gaussian Linear models
 - Poisson statistics
- Confidence intervals
- Hierarchical Models
 - Nuisance parameters
 - Sufficient and nearly-sufficient statistics
- Model comparison: Model likelihood/Bayesian Evidence

References

- Loredó's *Bayesian Inference in the Physical Sciences*:
 - <http://astrosun.tn.cornell.edu/staff/loredo/bayes>
 - “The Promise of Bayesian Inference for Astrophysics” & “From Laplace to SN 1987a”
- MacKay, *Information theory, Inference & Learning Algorithms*
- Jaynes, *Probability Theory: the Logic of Science*
 - And other refs at <http://bayes.wustl.edu>
- Hobson et al, *Bayesian Methods in Cosmology*
- Sivia, *Data Analysis: A Bayesian Tutorial*

The Gaussian Distribution

$$P(x|\mu\sigma I) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right]$$

- **Moments:** $\langle x \rangle = \mu$ $\langle (x - \mu)^2 \rangle = \sigma^2$
 - all higher cumulants $\kappa_n = 0$
- **Central Limit Theorem**
 - Arises very often: sum of many independent “random variables” tends to Gaussian
 - Additive noise is often well-described as Gaussian
- **Maximum Entropy**
 - Bayesian interpretation: if you know only the mean and variance, Gaussian is the “least informative” consistent distribution.

Inference from a Gaussian: Averaging

- Consider $data = signal + noise$,
- $d_i = s + n_i$
- Noise, n_i , has zero mean, known variance σ^2
 - Assign a Gaussian to $(d_i - s)$
 - Alternately: keep n_i as a parameter and marginalize over it with $p(d_i | n_i, s, I) = \delta(d_i - n_i - s)$
- Prior for s (i.e., a and b)?
 - To be careful of limits, use Gaussian with width Σ , take $\Sigma \rightarrow \infty$ at end of calculation
 - Same answer with uniform dist'n in $(-\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2) \rightarrow (-\infty, \infty)$

Inference from a Gaussian: Averaging

- Posterior:

$$P(s|dI) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_b^2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(s - \bar{d})^2}{\sigma_b^2} \right]$$

- best estimate of signal is average \pm stdev:

- $s = \bar{d} \pm \sigma_b = \bar{d} \pm \sigma/\sqrt{N}$

- What if we don't know σ ? try Jefferys $P(\sigma|I) \propto 1/\sigma$

- marginalized $P(s|I) \propto [s - 2s \langle d \rangle + \langle d^2 \rangle]^{-1/2}$

- (very broad distribution!)

Inference from a Gaussian: Straight-line fitting

- Now consider $data = signal + noise$, where signal depends linearly on time:

- $d_i = at_i + b + n_i$, with “iid” gaussian noise $\langle n_i \rangle = 0$; $\langle n_i^2 \rangle = \sigma^2$

- Likelihood function is

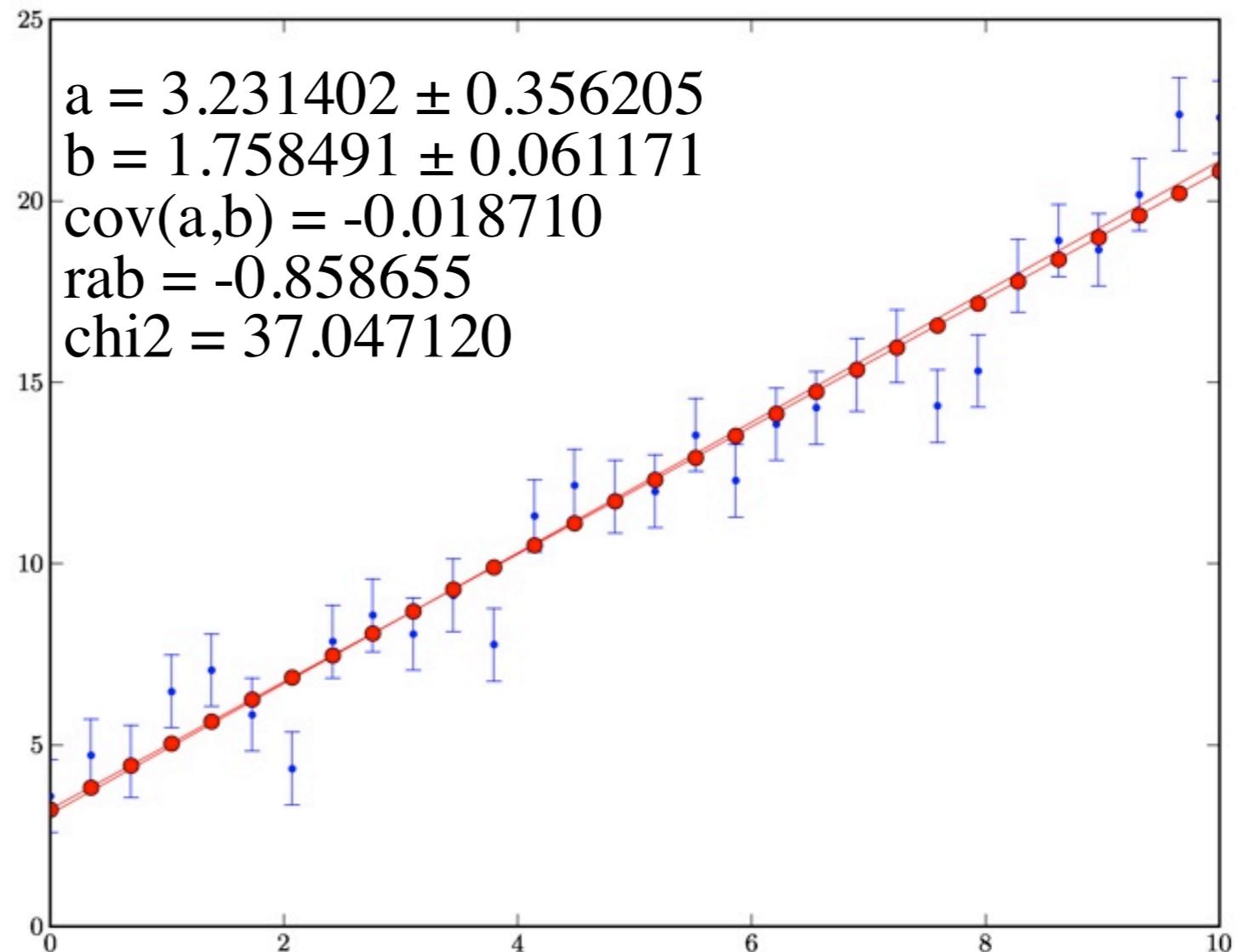
$$P(d|a, b, I) = \prod_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(d - at_i - b)^2}{\sigma^2} \right]$$

- Multivariate gaussian in d
- Linear in (a, b) : also has form of a multivariate gaussian in (a, b)
 - but not a distribution in (a, b) until you apply Bayes’ theorem and add a prior
- Maximized at the value of the “least squares” est. for (a, b) , with the same numerical values for the errors (& covariance)
 - (but, recall, with a very different interpretation of those errors)

marginals?

Inference from a Gaussian: Straight-line fitting

- This means that for these problems you can just use usual canned routines...



General linear models (I)

- Consider $d(t_i) = \sum_p x_p f_p(t_i) + n_i$
i.e., a sum of known functions with unknown amplitudes,
plus noise — want to estimate a_p
 - e.g., linear fit: $f_0(t)=1, f_1(t)=t$
- assume **zero-mean Gaussian noise**, possibly
correlated: $\langle n \rangle = 0, \langle n_i n_j \rangle = \mathbf{N}_{ij}$
 - typically, noise is stationary (isotropic): $\mathbf{N}_{ij} = N(t_i - t_j)$
- rewrite in matrix-vector form:

$$d_i = \sum_p A_{ip} x_p + n_i \quad \text{with } A_{ip} = f_p(t_i)$$

- **Likelihood:**

$$P(d_i | x_p I) = \frac{1}{|2\pi N|^{1/2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (d - Ax)^T N^{-1} (d - Ax) \right]$$

General linear models (II)

$$d_i = \sum_p A_{ip} x_p + n_i \quad \text{with } A_{ip} = f_p(t_i)$$

complete
the square

- Can rewrite the likelihood as

$$\begin{aligned} P(d_i | x_p I) &\propto \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (d - A\bar{x})^T N^{-1} (d - A\bar{x}) \right] \times \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (x - \bar{x})^T C^{-1} (x - \bar{x}) \right] \\ &\propto \underbrace{\exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (d - AWd)^T N^{-1} (d - AWd) \right]}_{\text{depends on data, not params}} \times \underbrace{\exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (x - Wd)^T C^{-1} (x - Wd) \right]}_{\text{depends on data and params}} \end{aligned}$$

- with $W = (A^T N^{-1} A)^{-1} A^T N^{-1}$ and $C = (A^T N^{-1} A)^{-1}$

- Parameter-independent factor is just $e^{-\chi_{\max}^2}$

- Parameter-dependent factor shows that

likelihood is multivariate Gaussian with mean

$$\bar{x} = Wx = (A^T N^{-1} A)^{-1} A^T N^{-1} d$$

and variance C

General linear models (III)

- In limit of an infinitely wide uniform (or Gaussian) prior on x :

$$P(x_p | dI) = \frac{1}{|2\pi C|^{1/2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (x - Wd)^T C^{-1} (x - Wd) \right]$$

nb. normalization cancels out $e^{-\chi_{\max}^2}$

- Covariance matrix $\langle \delta x_p \delta x_q \rangle = C_{pq}$ gives error $\sigma_p^2 = C_{pp}$ if we *marginalize* all other parameters.
- Inverse covariance gives error $\sigma_p^2 = 1/C_{pp}^{-1}$ if we *fix* other parameters
 - nb. marginalization doesn't move mean (max) values *for this case*
 - cf. Fisher matrix $F \Leftrightarrow C^{-1}$
- Aside: with a finite Gaussian prior on x , can derive the *Wiener filter*, as well as power-spectrum estimation formalism (see tomorrow's lecture on the CMB)

Chi-squared

- The exponential factor of a Gaussian is always of the form $\exp(-\chi^2/2)$
- Likelihood: $\chi^2 = \sum (\text{data}_i - \text{model}_i)^2 / \sigma_i^2$
- For fixed model, χ^2 has χ^2 distribution for $\nu = N_{\text{data}} - N_{\text{parameters}}$ “degrees of freedom”
 - peaks at $\chi^2 = \nu \pm \sqrt{2\nu}$
- model may be bad if χ^2 is too big
 - *or* too small (“overfitting” — too many parameters)
- (frequentist argument, but good rule of thumb)

Poisson rates

- Likelihood: probability of observing n counts if the rate is r

$$P(n|rI) = \frac{e^{-r} r^n}{n!}$$

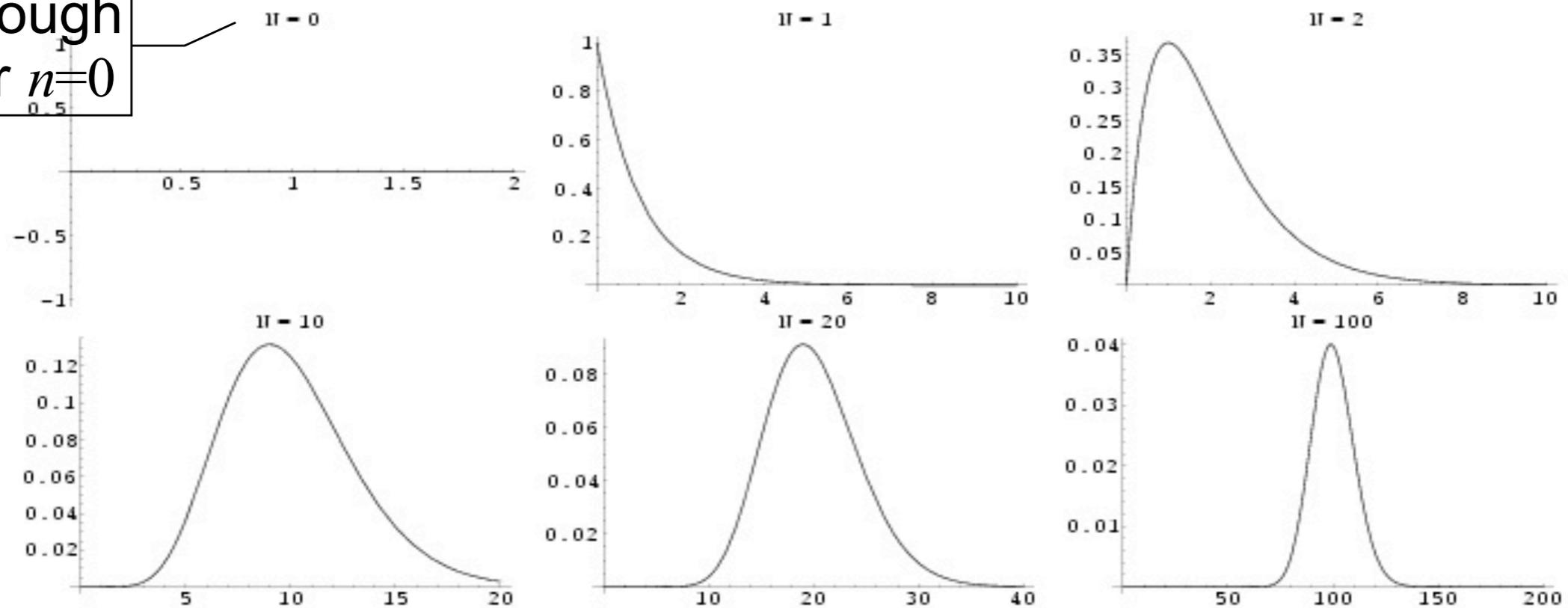
- Posterior: probability that rate is r given n counts

$$P(r|nI) = \frac{e^{-r} r^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$$

- nb. $(n-1)$ comes from $p(r|I)dr \propto 1/r$

Inferences for a Poisson rate

Not enough
info for $n=0$



Infer: $r = n \pm \sqrt{n}$ (mean \pm $\sqrt{\text{variance}}$)
Note “asymptotic gaussianity” for large N



Poisson rates

- Complications [see Loredo articles and optional problems]
 - **Backgrounds:** $n = b + s$
 - *Can solve for/marginalize over known or unknown b*
 - e.g., n_b counts from time T_b spent observing background rate b , n_s from T_s spent observing $(s+b)$
 - (e.g., Loredo)
 - Spatial or temporal variation in the signal (or background): $s = s(t)$

Credible Intervals

- The posterior contains the full inference from the data and our priors
- Sometimes, this can be a bit unwieldy.
- Traditionally, we compress this down into “credible intervals” (cf. frequentist “confidence intervals”)
- A 100α % credible interval (a,b) is defined s.t.

$$P(x \in [x_-, x_+] | d, I) = \int_{x_-}^{x_+} P(x | d, I) dx = \alpha$$

- We typically pick traditional values of α such as 68%, 95%, 99% ($1, 2, 3\sigma$)

- if the mean is $\bar{x} = \int x P(x | d, I) dx$

 this is often reported as $x = \bar{x} \pm (x_+ - x_-)$

Confidence Intervals

- A 100α % confidence interval (a,b) is defined s.t. a fraction α of all realizations contain the correct value.
- Doesn't depend on the prior. But depends on the distribution of possible experimental results (i.e., the likelihood, considered as a function of the data, not the theoretical parameters) — **results that didn't arise!**
 - We typically pick traditional values of α such as 68%, 95%, 99% (1, 2, 3 σ)
 - if the mean is $\bar{x} = \int xP(x|dI) dx$
this is often reported as $x = \bar{x} \pm (x_+ - x_-)$
 - because this **looks the same as a credible interval** (and for problems like the **Gaussian is numerically identical**), there is occasionally **confusion...**

Confidence Intervals in Practice

- Neyman-Pearson approach
- Especially complicated when the possible parameter region has boundaries
- Feldman & Cousins, “Unified approach to the classical statistical analysis of small signals”, *PRD57*, 7, 1998
- For data d and CL f , find $[x_-, x_+]$ s.t.
$$P(d \in [x_-, x_+] | \mu) = f$$
- See also, Daniel’s discussion of p-values...

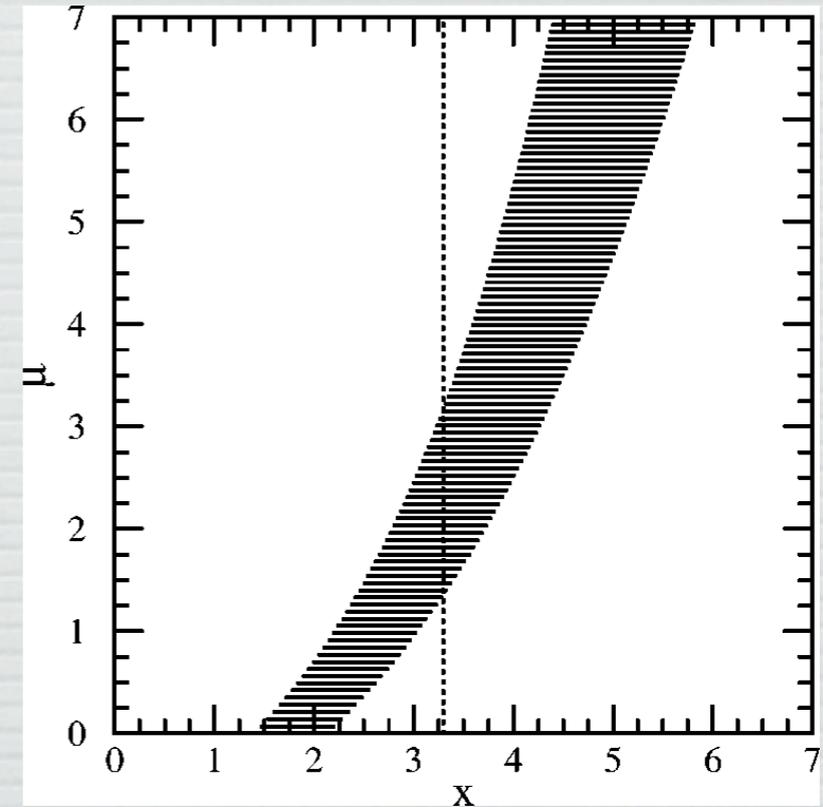


FIG. 1. A generic confidence belt construction and its use. For each value of μ , one draws a horizontal acceptance interval $[x_1, x_2]$ such that $P(x \in [x_1, x_2] | \mu) = \alpha$. Upon performing an experiment to measure x and obtaining the value x_0 , one draws the dashed vertical line through x_0 . The confidence interval $[\mu_1, \mu_2]$ is the union of all values of μ for which the corresponding acceptance interval is intercepted by the vertical line.

Nuisance parameters

- We can sometimes separate our parameter space into those parameters that we “care about” and those we don’t.
 - E.G.,
 - detector characteristics
 - phenomenological parameters for non-physical models
- We call these “nuisance parameters” and very often marginalize over them.
- *Beware*: if the posterior for the nuisance parameter is complicated, marginalization may be dangerous

Bayes' Theorem

$$P(\theta|DI) d\theta = \frac{P(\theta|I)P(D|\theta I)}{\int d\theta' P(\theta'|I)P(D|\theta' I)} d\theta$$

- Theory parameterized by (continuous) θ :
 - Use probability densities

- Marginalization

$$P(\theta|DI) = \int d\varphi P(\theta\varphi|DI)$$

- φ : “nuisance” parameter
 - e.g., Background level, unknown noise, etc.
 - (but a nuisance in one context is signal in another!)

Hierarchical Models

- “Data reduction” vs “Data Analysis” (vs “Science”?)
- Describe inference from data as a series of levels:
 - parameters describing:
 - the instrument
 - e.g., gain, noise properties
 - individual observations
 - e.g., supernova brightness at a particular epoch; galaxy shape for weak lensing
 - the whole survey
 - e.g., mean (unstretched) supernova light curves; luminosity functions
 - the “scientific content” of the data
 - e.g., Hubble diagram; lensing power spectrum
 - the cosmological or astrophysical goals of the survey
 - e.g., Ω_m , etc
 - Some parameters need external priors (e.g., instrumental)
 - Some parameters get priors from the next level in the hierarchy
 - e.g., the prior for the Hubble diagram depends on the prior for the cosmological parameters

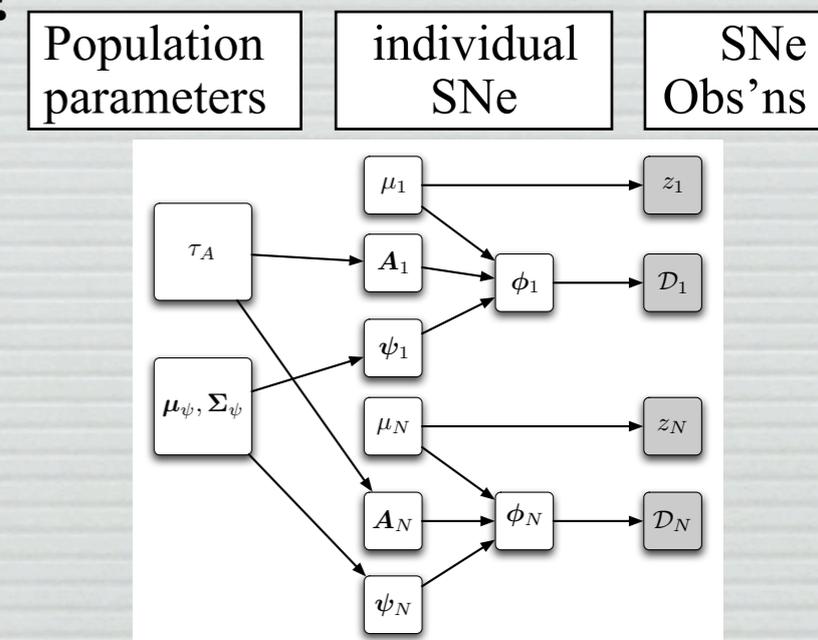
Hierarchical Models

□ Linear Models with errors in both dimensions

- e.g., Kelly, B. C. (2007). “Some Aspects of Measurement Error in Linear Regression of Astronomical Data”, *ApJ* 665:1489, 2007, arXiv:0705.2774v1
- Unlike 1-d errors, **need full model for generating data**
 - $x = \xi + n_x; y = \eta + n_y; \eta = \eta(\xi; \theta)$ (e.g., $\eta = \alpha\xi + \beta$)
 - actual independent variable $\xi \sim p(\xi | \psi, I)$
 - actual dependent variable (“signal”) $\eta \sim p(\eta | \xi, \theta, I)$
 - observed data $x, y \sim p(x, y | \eta, \xi, I)$
 - no analytic solution even for simple models!
(see Daniel’s discussion tomorrow)

□ Models as Directed Acyclic Graphs

- e.g., Mandel et al, “Type IA Supernova Light Curve Inference”, *ApJ* 704:629, 2009, arXiv:0908.0536



Sufficient Statistics

- Sometimes, the likelihood only depends on a [simple] function of the data, a “statistic”, $S(D)$
- $P(D | \text{theory}) dD = P(S(D) | \text{theory}) dS$
 - trivial if you can invert to get $D(S)$, but can be true in other cases
- e.g., when estimating the mean of *iid* Gaussian data, the likelihood only depends on $\sum_i d_i/n$ and n .
 - (independent of the prior)
 - i.e., the sufficient statistic is what we’re interested in
- This is especially nice in the context of *hierarchical models* as we can consider each step as *data compression*
 - Will see this in more detail tomorrow with the CMB
- Sometimes this is only approximately true
 - e.g., an *estimate* of the power spectrum \hat{C}_ℓ (even with errors) contains most but not all information about the underlying field
 - not to be confused with the full likelihood $P(\text{data} | C_\ell)$

Bayesian Model Comparison

- Until now, given a model, measure its parameters
- Move “up” a level: choose between models
 - Deuterium line or interloper?
 - Flat universe or curved?
 - Dark Energy or cosmological constant?
 - Is a given star/galaxy a member of a cluster or a superposition?
 - Dark matter or MOND?
 - (nb. not just between two)
- But really, just apply the same machinery

Bayesian Model Comparison

- How do we tell if our **model** (choice of parameters, θ) is a **good description of the data**?
- Need to specify **alternatives**: can choose amongst models (but no pure “goodness-of-fit” test)
- Let the prior information be $I = I_0 (I_1 + I_2 + \dots)$
 - common information (I_0) and a choice between Model 1 (I_1), Model 2 (I_2), ...
 - Now, use Bayes' thm to get $P(I_i | \text{data})$

Bayesian Model Comparison

- Full set of parameters are then
 - i : choose between models
 - θ_i : parameters for each model
 - (can be different for each model – and different numbers of parameters per model)
- Joint likelihood for model i and its parameters:

$$P(i\theta_i|DI) \propto P(i|I)P(\theta_i|I_0I)P(D|\theta_iI_0I)$$

Bayes' theorem and model comparison

- Marginalize over parameters θ_i :

$$P(i\theta_i|DI) \propto P(i|I)P(\theta_i|I_0I)P(D|\theta_iI_0I)$$

but recall usual Bayes' thm:

$$P(\theta|DI) d\theta = \frac{P(\theta|I)P(D|\theta I)}{\int d\theta' P(\theta'|I)P(D|\theta' I)} d\theta$$
$$\propto \frac{P(\theta|I)P(D|\theta I)}{P(D|I)} d\theta$$

so

$$P(i|DI) \propto P(i|I)P(D|II_i)$$

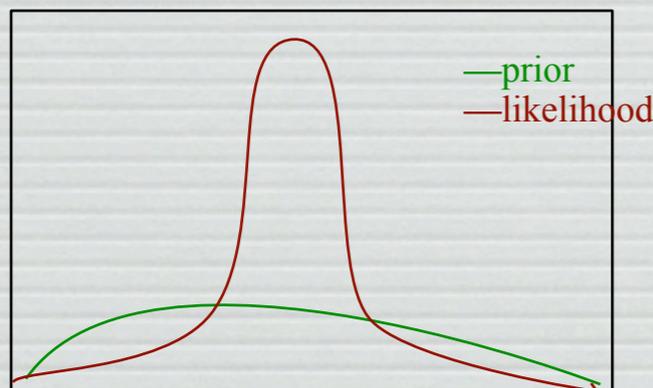
— just the normalization!

Model likelihood
(sometimes called
“evidence”)

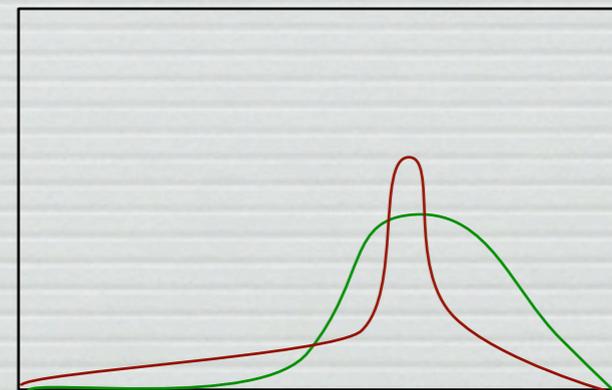
Model Comparison

$$\begin{aligned} P(i|DI) &\propto P(i|I)P(D|II_i) \\ &= P(i|I) \int d\theta_i P(\theta_i|II_i)P(D|\theta_i I_i I) \end{aligned}$$

- model probability \propto **average likelihood, weighted by prior**
- automatic penalty for more complicated models (\equiv more parameter 'volume')
- recall for the linear model, normalization $\propto e^{-\chi_{\max}^2}$ gives factor $\sim |N|^{1/2} \propto$ volume of error ellipsoid



likelihood strongly-peaked compared to prior, but better "best fit"

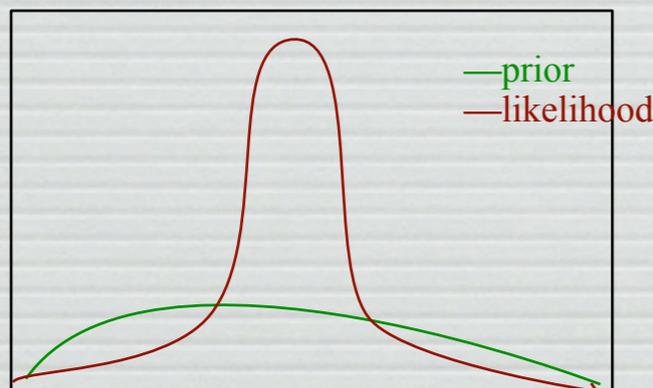


Ockham's Razor

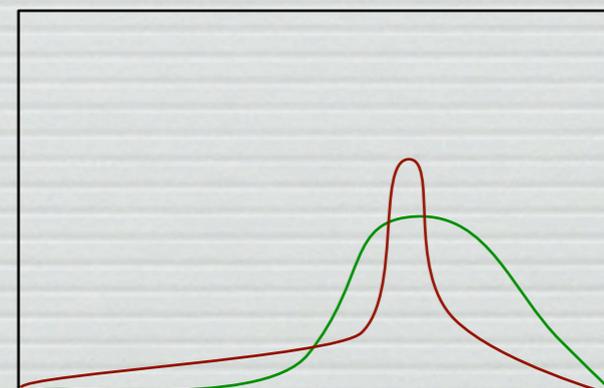
$$\begin{aligned} P(i|DI) &= P(i|I) \int d\theta_i P(\theta_i|II_i) P(D|\theta_i I_i I) \\ &\simeq P(i|I) P_{\max}(D|\theta_i I_0 I_i) \frac{\text{posterior volume}}{\text{prior volume}} \end{aligned}$$

favors better-fitting model
(often, more complicated one)

Favors simpler model
“Ockham Factor”



likelihood strongly-peaked compared to prior, but better “best fit”



Ockham's Razor

$$P(i|DI) = P(i|I) \int d\theta_i P(\theta_i|II_i) P(D|\theta_i I_i I)$$
$$\simeq P(i|I) P_{\max}(D|\theta_i I_0 I_i) \frac{\text{posterior volume}}{\text{prior volume}}$$

□ Linear, Gaussian models:

- $P_{\max}(D|\theta_i I) = \frac{1}{|2\pi M|^{1/2}} e^{-\chi_{\min}^2/2}$

- volume $\propto |M|^{1/2} = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \sigma_3 \dots \sigma_N$ for correlation matrix M
- must have *proper* prior distributions (finite $|M|$) for this to make sense

Model comparison and parameter priors $P(\theta_i|I)$

- Now, all *priors must be normalized*
- Model likelihoods must converge:

$$P(D|II_i) = \int d\theta_i P(\theta_i|II_i) P(D|\theta_i I_i I)$$

- e.g., linear models
- This is a very serious restriction in some cases.
 - Note that the posterior for a parameter may — and usually does — exist in the limit of an infinitely-wide prior, but in general the evidence does not:

$$P(i|DI) \simeq P(i|I) P_{\max}(D|\theta_i I_0 I_i) \frac{\text{posterior volume}}{\text{prior volume}}$$
$$\rightarrow 0$$

Application: is the Universe flat?

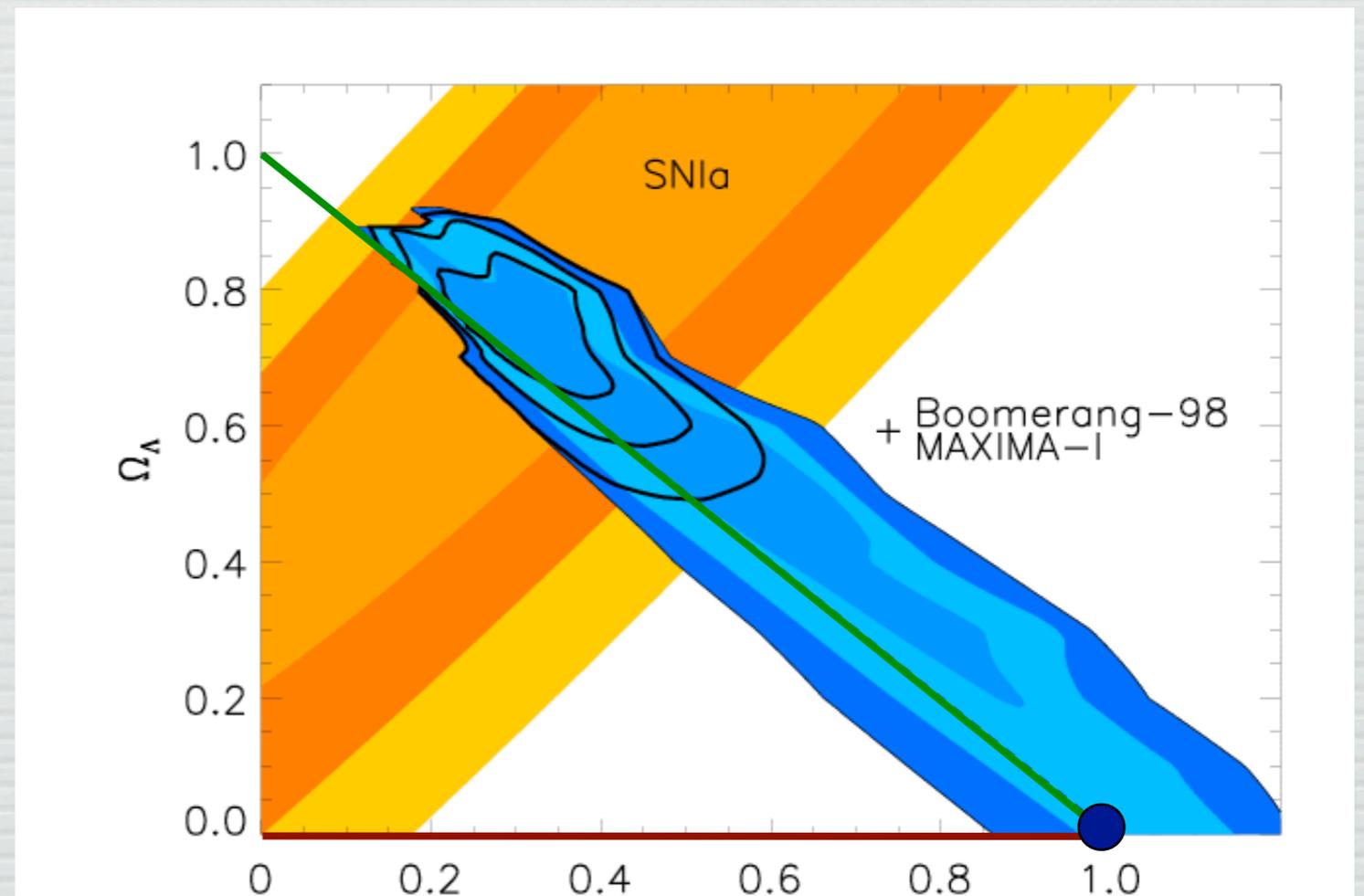
□ nested models:

- old std CDM:
 $\Omega_\Lambda=0, \Omega_m=1$

- flat: $\Omega_\Lambda+\Omega_m=1$

- $\Omega_\Lambda=0, 0\leq\Omega_m\leq 1$

- $0\leq\Omega_m\leq 1, 0\leq\Omega_\Lambda\leq 1$



- Integrate likelihood over regions for each model:

- CMB alone prefers both **std CDM** & **flat**

- CMB+SNe prefers flat

- (would really prefer $\Omega_\Lambda=0.7, \Omega_m=0.3$, but that's not an *a priori* model that would occur to us!)

Conclusions

- **Gaussian linear models** are equivalent to “generalized least squares”
- **Hierarchical Models** can describe the full solution for a general scientific problem from data gathering to science exploitation
 - there is very often a lot of **data compression** along the way, in the form of sufficient (or nearly sufficient) statistics
- The model likelihood (aka Bayesian Evidence) is a tool for **comparing** well-specified **models** (but there is no real “alternative-free” test in the Bayesian formalism).

Lunchtime logistics

- On campus: SCR ◆ & JCR ◆
— go out main walkway from here ★ (Huxley 311). Other cafeterias are available.
- Off campus: Gloucester Road
- After lunch: please sit in alternate rows for the problem session (so we can reach you, not to avoid working together!)

