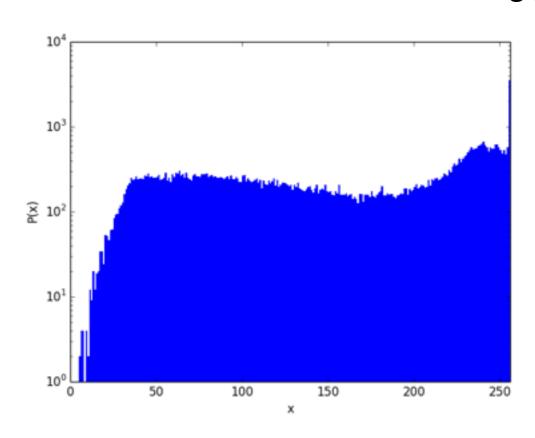
# Statistics & Bayesian Inference Lecture 1

Joe Zuntz





# Lecture 1 Essentials of probability

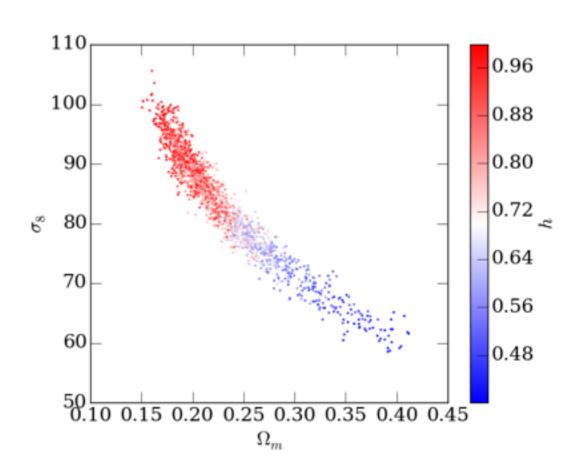
- Motivations
- Definitions
- Probability
   Distributions
- Basic probability operations

- Some analytic distributions
- Bayes Theorem
- Models & Parameter Spaces
- How scientists can use probability

#### Motivations

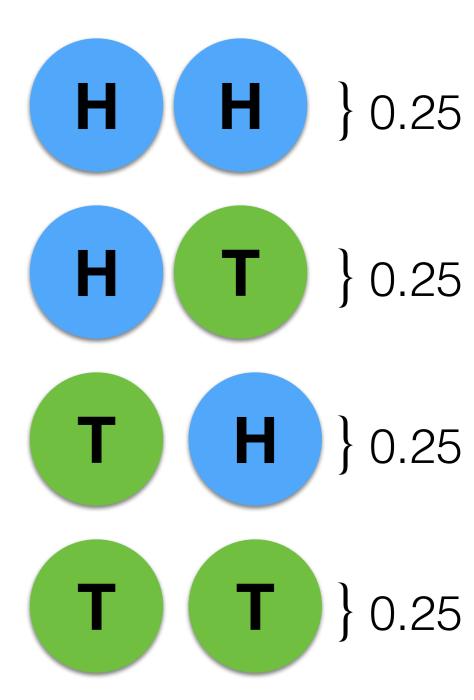
- Learn as much as possible from our (expensive) data
  - Constrain parameters in models
  - Test & compare models
- Characterize collections of numbers

$$H_0 = (72 \pm 8) \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{Mpc}^{-1}$$



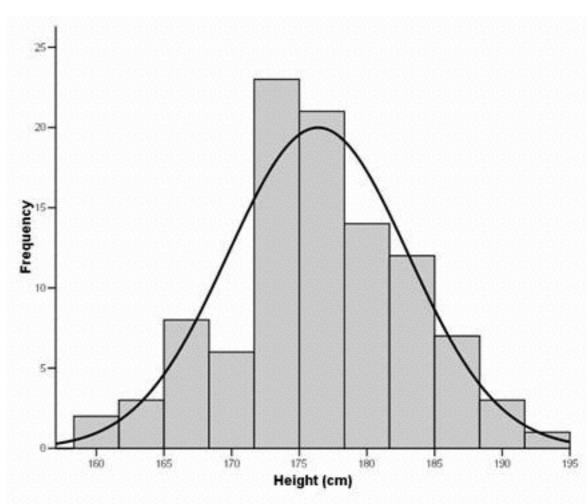
### Probability Distributions: Definitions

- Assign real number P ≥ 0 to each member of a sample space (discrete or continuous, finite or infinite)
- P=probability density function (PDF) or probability mass function (PMF)
- This set represents possible outcomes of an experiment/game/event/situation
- e.g. possible results tossing two coins, height of next person to walk through door



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### Probability Distributions: Definitions

- A random variable X is any value subject to randomness, e.g.:
  - was first toss heads?
     was the sequence Heads-Tails?
     were both tosses the same?
- Discrete X: P is a list of values
- Continuous X: P is a function, PDF, (which we have to integrate to answer questions)

# Probability Distributions: Basic properties

Since X must have exactly one value:

$$\sum_{x \in X} P(x) = 1$$

• Continuous:

$$\int_{x \in X} P(x) \mathrm{d}x = 1$$

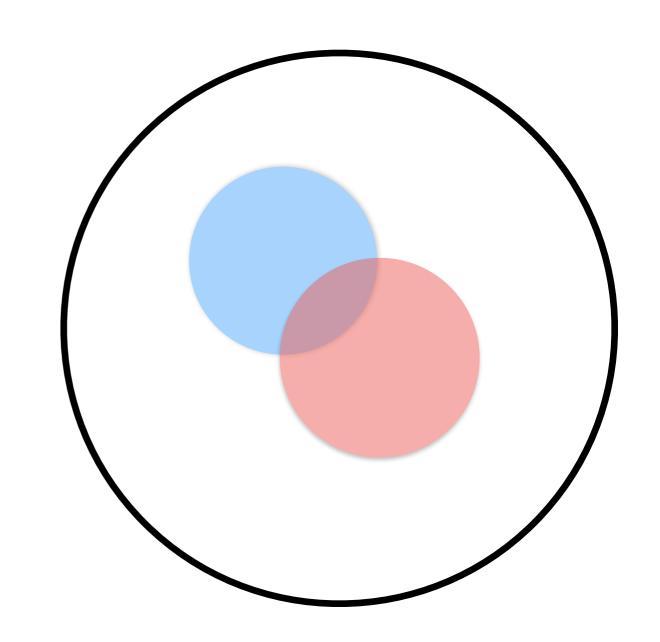
P(X=x) = f(x)
 Usually just write P(X) = f(x)

• 
$$0 \le P(x) \le 1$$

# Probability Distributions: Combining Probabilities

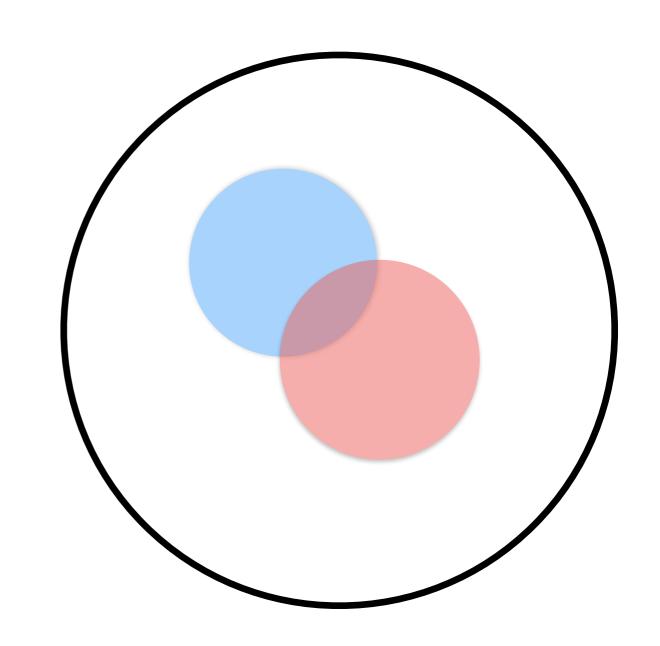
Joint probability

UnionP(X=x or Y=y)P(XuY)



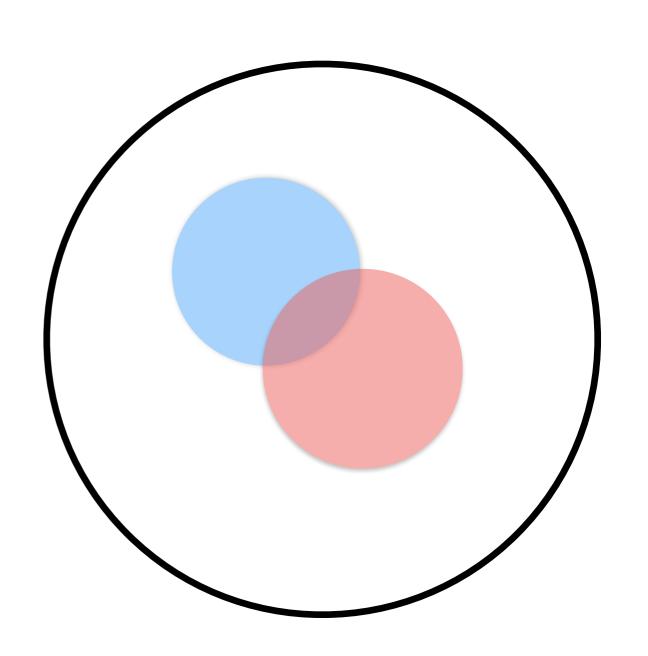
# Probability Distributions: Combining Probabilities

- Conditional
   P(X=x given Y=y)
   P(X|Y)
- Independence:
  - P(X|Y) = P(X)
  - X independent of Y



### Probability Distributions: Identities

- P(not X) = 1-P(X)
- P(XY) = P(X|Y) P(Y)
- $P(XY) = P(X) + P(Y) P(X \cap Y)$



# Probability Distributions: Expectations

The expectation (or mean) of a random variable X is given by:

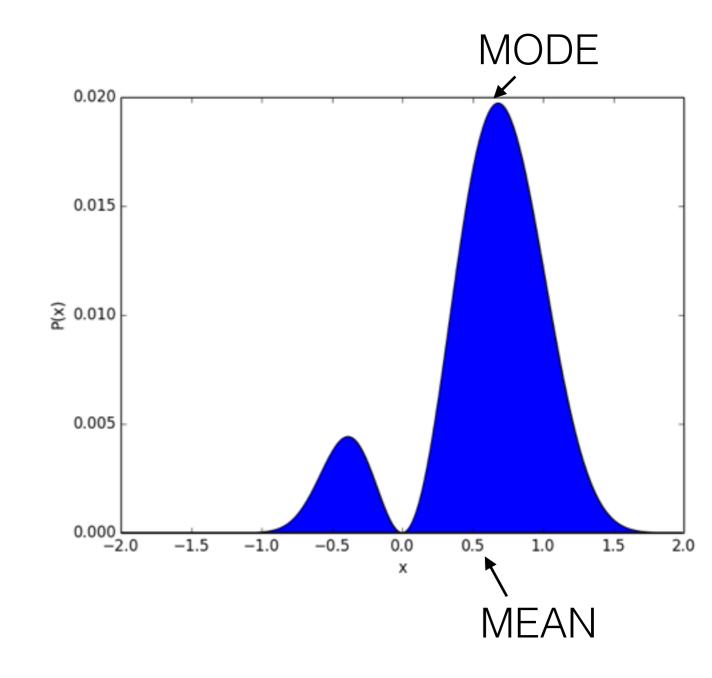
$$E(X) = \sum P(X)X$$
  $E(X) = \int P(X)X dX$ 

Or a function of it by:

$$E(f(X)) = \sum P(X)f(X) \qquad E(f(X)) = \int P(X)f(X)dX$$

# Probability Distributions: Expectations

- Expectations are one measure if centrality, and not always a good one.
- Mode and median also exist
- All just ways of reducing or characterizing a distribution



# Probability Distributions: Marginalizing

Discrete:

$$P(x) = \sum_{i} P(x|y_i)P(y_i)$$

Continuous:

$$P(x) = \int P(x|y)P(y)dy$$

• If you don't care about something, marginalize over it

# Probability Distributions: Changing variables

- Probability mass u = f(x) must be conserved,  $P(u)\mathrm{d} u = P(x)\mathrm{d} x$  not density  $\mathrm{d} x$
- Relate with a Jacobian
- Be especially careful in more dimensions

$$u = f(x)$$

$$P(u)du = P(x)dx$$

$$P(u) = P(x)\frac{dx}{du}$$

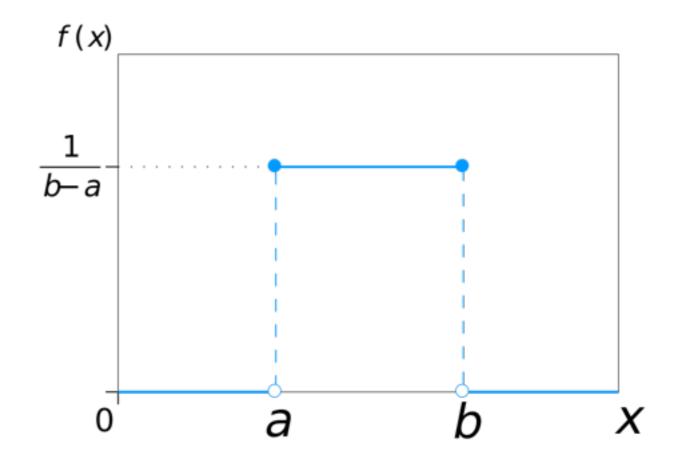
$$= P(x)/\frac{du}{dx}$$

$$= P(x)/f'(x)$$

# Probability Distributions: Drawing samples

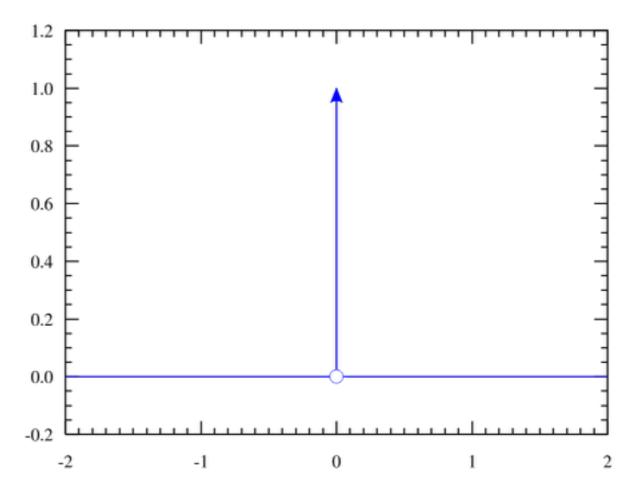
- Generate values of X with probability specified by P(X)
- Draw enough samples: histogram looks like PDF
- See lecture 3

- Wikipedia is brilliant for this
- Uniform
- Delta function
- Gaussian (normal)
- Exponential
- Poisson



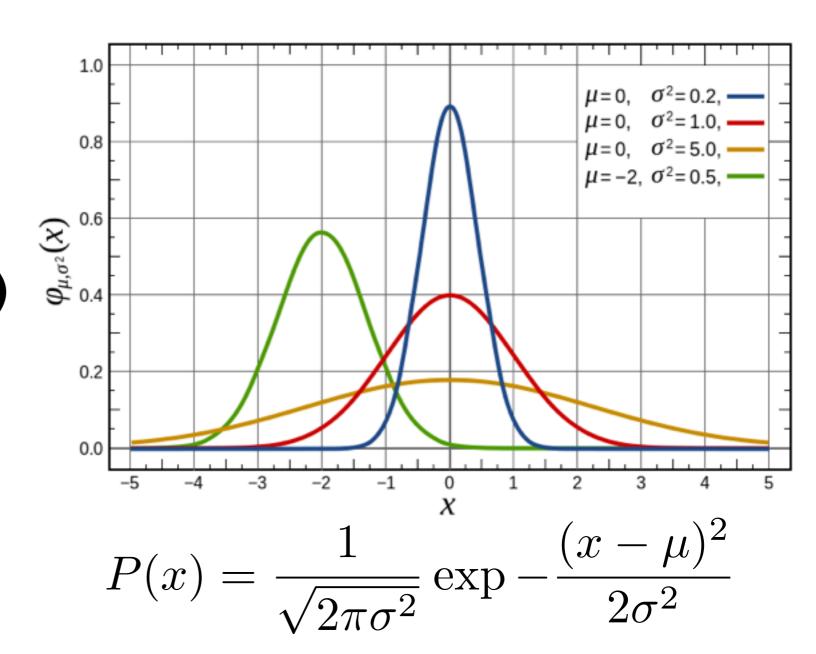
$$P(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}, \ x \in [a,b]$$

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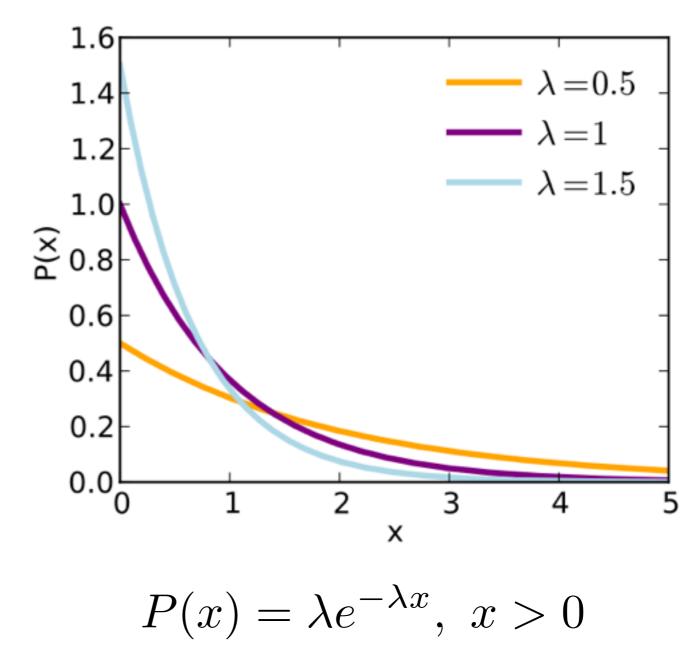


$$P(x) = \delta(x - x_0)$$

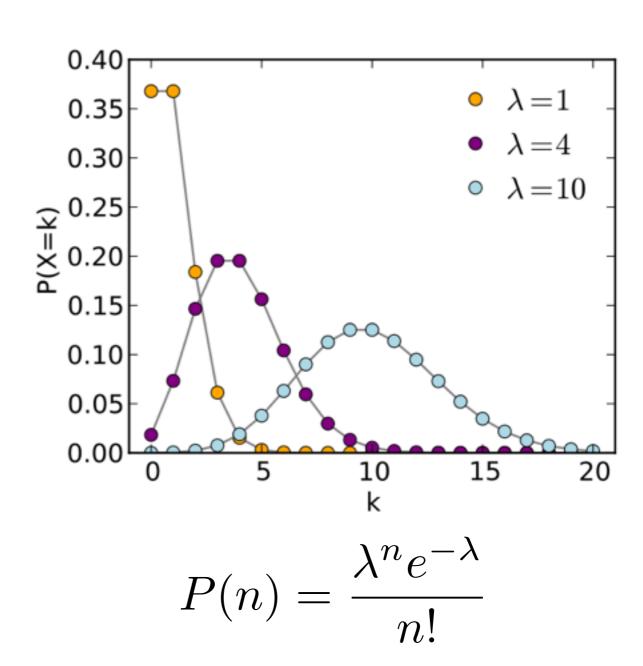
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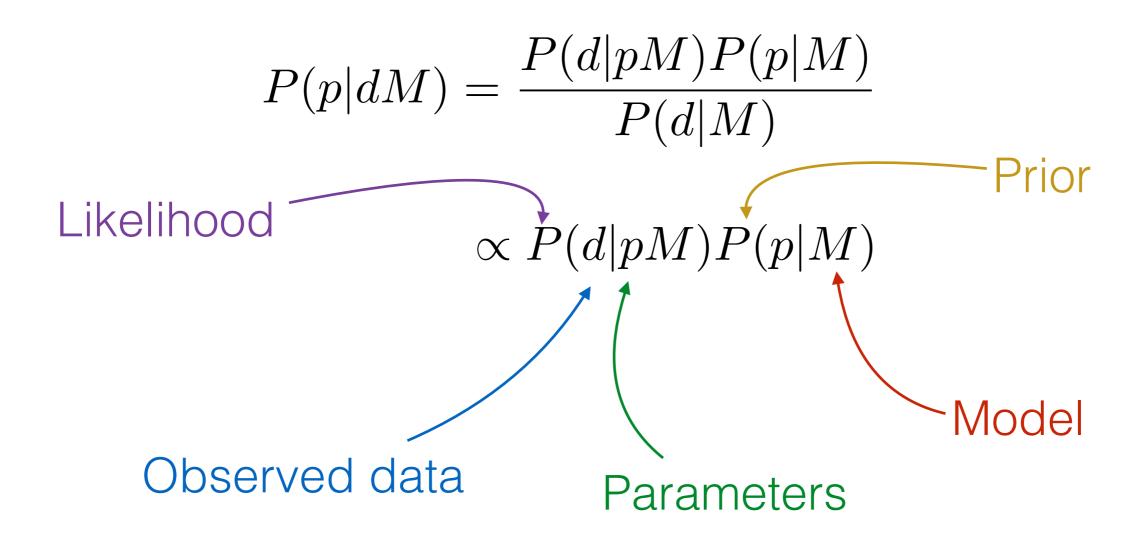
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$$P(AB) = P(A|B)P(B)$$
$$= P(B|A)P(A)$$

$$P(AB) = P(A|B)P(B)$$
$$= P(B|A)P(A)$$

$$\therefore P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

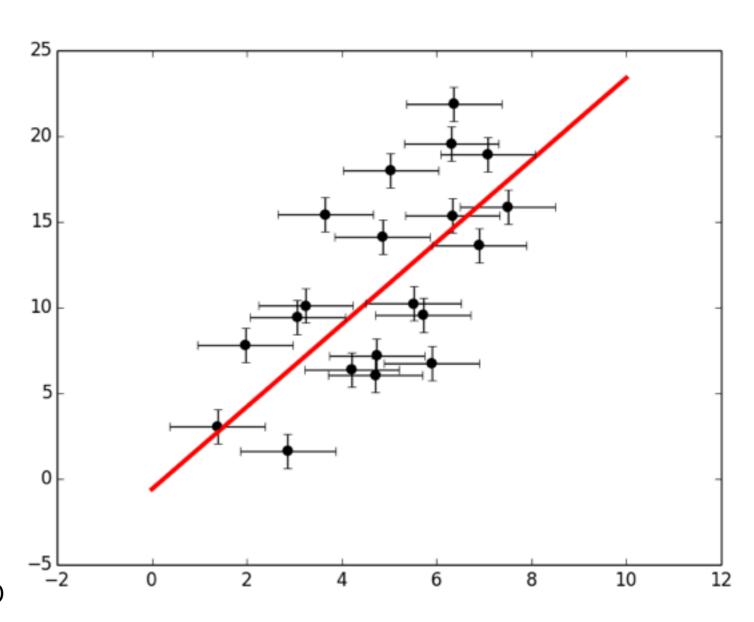


What you know after looking at the data =

what you knew before+ what the data told you

#### Models & Parameters

- A model is the mathematical theory that describes how your data arose.
  - It is **not** a theory of how what you **wanted** to measure arose.
- Non-trivial models include some deterministic and some stochastic parts.
  - Noise is one stochastic; many (most?) astrophysical models also have others too

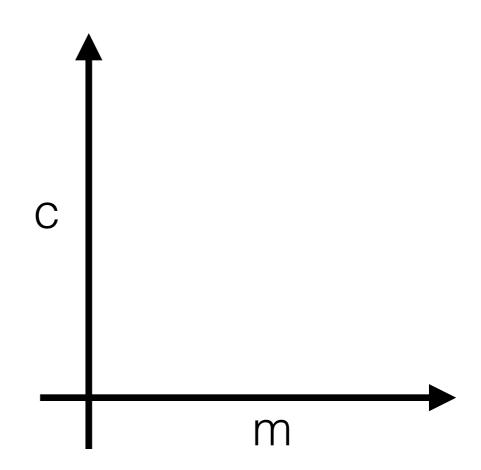


#### Models & Parameters

- Parameters are any unknown numerical values in your model
  - A parameter can have probability distributions
- You need (and have) some prior (background) information about all your parameters
  - This may be subjective!

#### Parameter Spaces

- Can use continuous parameters as dimensions in an abstract space
- Probabilities become functions of many variables: P(uvwxyz)
- As the dimension of this space increases your intuition becomes worse



#### Descriptive Statistics

- Reduce samples or distribution to set of characteristic numbers
  - In a analytic cases this is all you need to describe a distribution
- Statistics of samples
  - = estimators/approximations to underlying distribution stats

### Descriptive Statistics: Mean

- Distribution mean
- Sample mean

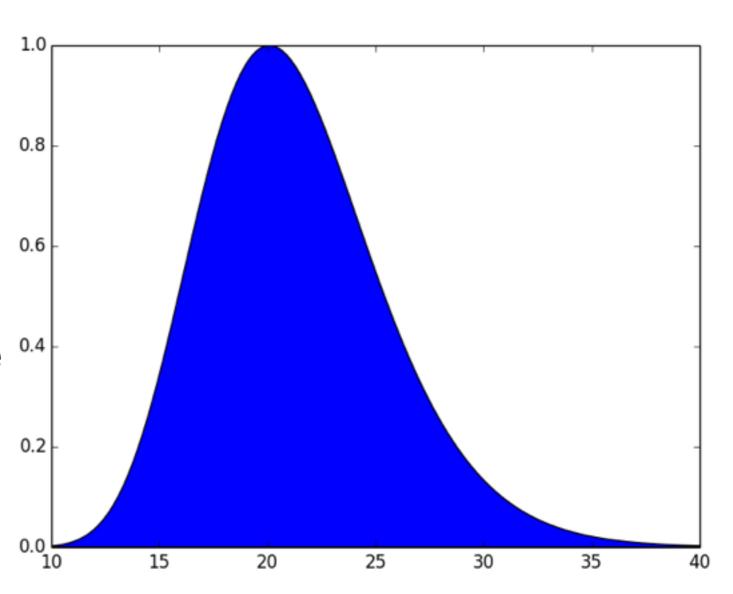
$$E[X] = \int XP(X)dX$$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X_i}{N}$$

### Descriptive Statistics: Mean

Means can be misleading!

 Most distributions are asymmetric



### Descriptive Statistics: Variance

Distribution variance

$$Var(X) = E[(X - \bar{X})^2]$$
$$= \int (X - \bar{X})^2 P(X) dX$$

Sample variance

$$\sigma_X^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - X)^2}{N}$$

Population variance

$$s_X^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - X)^2}{N - 1}$$

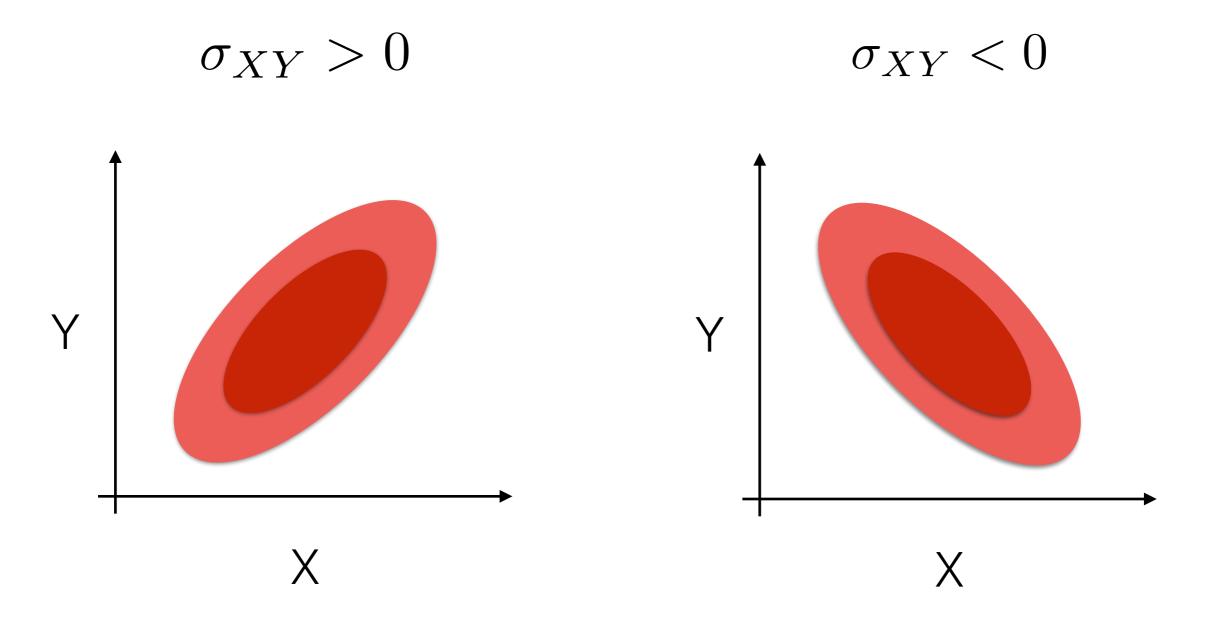
### Descriptive Statistics: Covariance

$$Cov(X,Y) = E[(X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})]$$
$$= \int (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})P(XY)dXdY$$

Covariance

$$\sigma_{XY} = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{N}$$

### Descriptive Statistics: Covariance

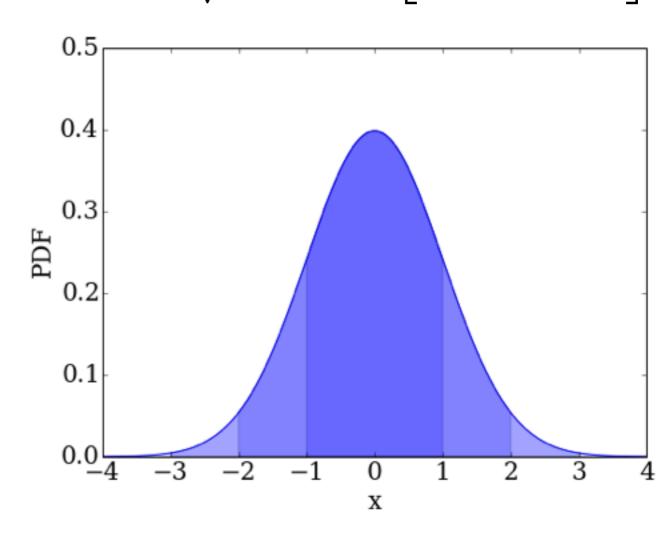


#### Gaussians: The Basics

One dimensional continuous PDF

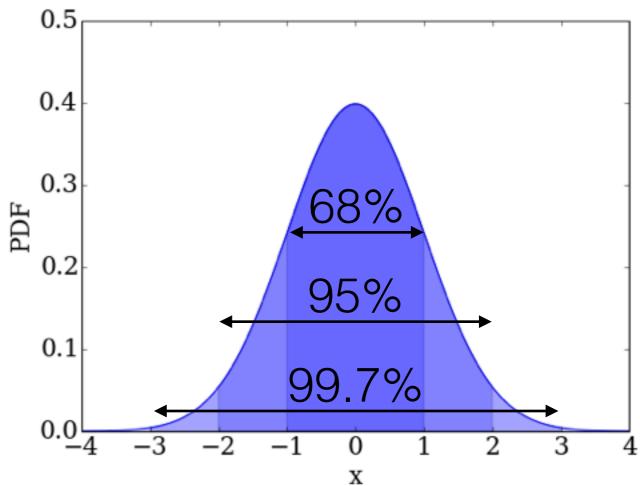
$$P(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$$

- Two parameters:
   Mean μ
   Standard deviation σ
- Symmetric
- Common! But often an over-simplification.



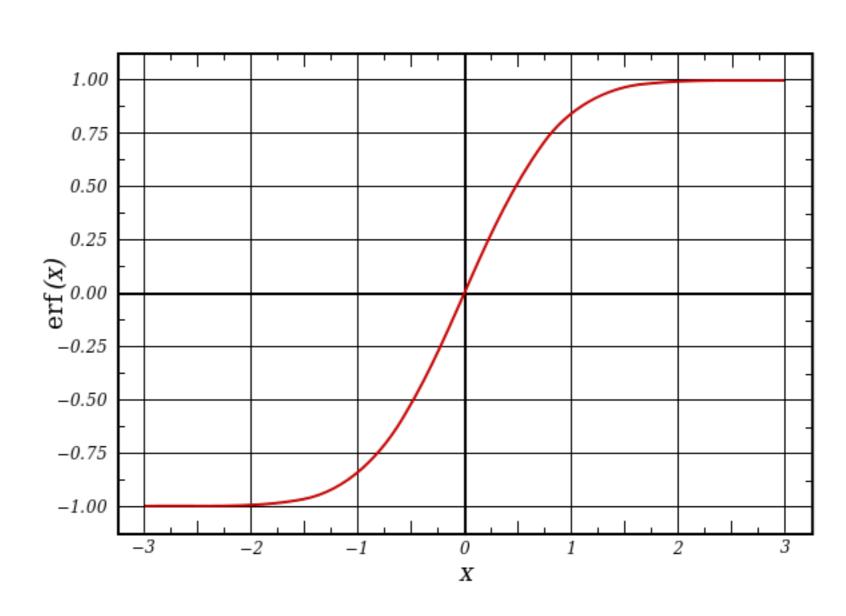
#### Gaussians: Sigma numbers

- Distance from mean defined in number of standard deviations sigma
- Probability mass:
  - 68% within 1σ
  - 95% within 2 σ
  - 99.7% within 3σ



#### Gaussians: Properties

- Error function is cumulative integral of Gaussian
- Sigma numbers can be read off



# Gaussians: Properties

Sum of Gaussians has simple form:

$$X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$$

$$Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$$

$$\implies X + Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x + \mu_y, \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)$$

 Especially useful for sum of identical Gaussians, and leads to formula that error on the mean ~ n<sup>1/2</sup>

# Gaussians: Properties

#### Central limit theorem:

Given a collection of random variables X<sub>i</sub>:

$$\frac{1}{s_n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu_i) \to \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

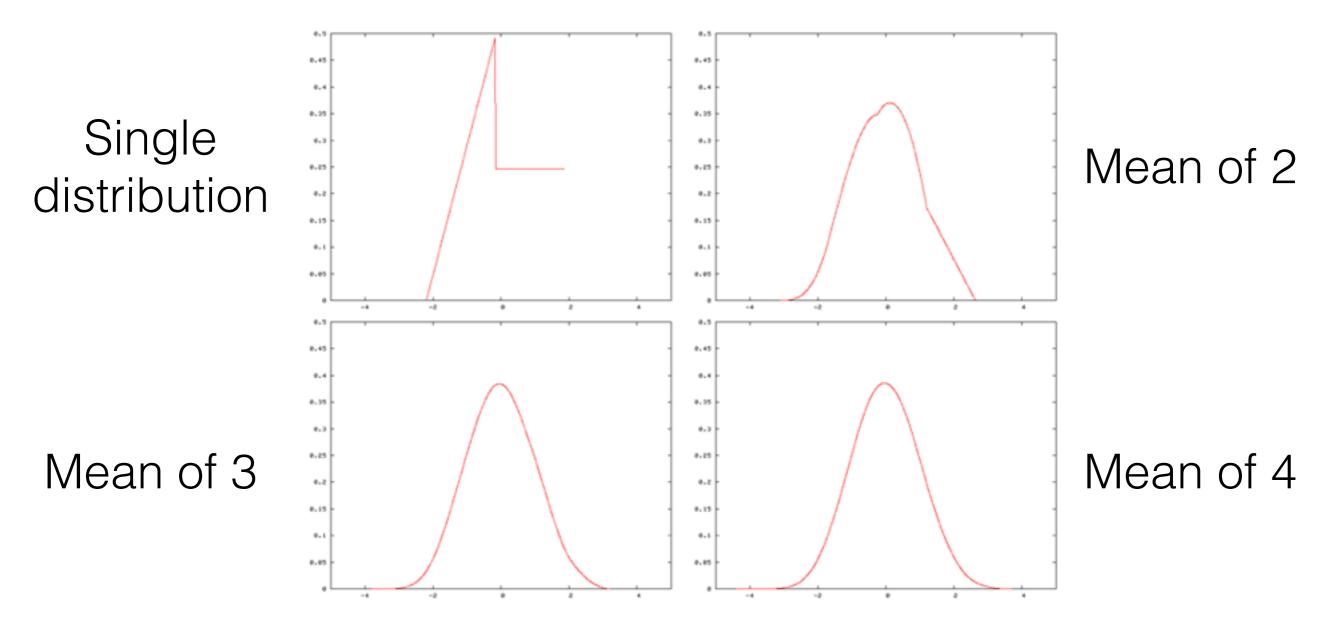
$$s_n^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2$$

Provided that:

$$\frac{1}{s_n^2} \sum E\left[ (X - \mu_i)^2 \right] \to 0$$

# Gaussians: Properties

#### Central limit theorem:



### Gaussians: Multivariate

$$P(\underline{\boldsymbol{x}}; \underline{\boldsymbol{\mu}}, C) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} |C|} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\underline{\boldsymbol{x}} - \underline{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^T C^{-1} (\underline{\boldsymbol{x}} - \underline{\boldsymbol{\mu}})\right]$$

- C is the covariance matrix describes correlations between quantities
  - For example: data points often have correlated errors

	Frequentists	Bayesians
Use probabilities to	describe frequencies	quantify information
Think model parameters are	fixed unknowns	random variables with probabilities
Think data is	a repeatable random variable	observed and therefore fixed
Call their work	"Statistics"	"Inference"
Make statements about	intervals covering the truth x% of the time	constraints on model parameters
Have	many approaches with lots of implicit choices	one approach with explicit choices

# Why Bayesian probability for science?

- Answers the right question
  - We want facts about the world, not about hypothetical ensembles of experiments
- The ideal process is always clear
  - Practical implementations more difficult
- Problems and questions are more explicit

- Frequentist approach:
  - Construct an estimator, a single number derived from your data points
  - Simulate data under different models and hypotheses and see how often measured estimator value appears

- Bayesian approach:
  - Construct a probability of the parameters given the data
  - Compute that probability for various points in parameter space to see if they are good fits

- Most astronomy data analysis takes neither of these approaches
  - Make up a statistic using rules of thumb and things you half remember from undergrad

#### A few maxims

- Don't model your data.
   Model the process that led to your data.
- Everything is a distribution.
   Distrust point estimates.
- You can't learn anything without making assumptions.
   All probabilities are conditional.

# Easy Questions

- Show that if X is independent of Y then Y is independent of X
- Linda is 31, single, outspoken, and very bright. She majored in philosophy in college. As a student, she was deeply concerned with racial discrimination and other social issues, and participated in anti-nuclear demonstrations. Estimate the probability of these things being true:
  - (1) Linda is active in the feminist movement.
  - (2) Linda is a bank teller.
  - (3) Linda is a bank teller and active in the feminist movement.
- Show that  $P(XY) \le P(X)$  and  $P(XY) \le P(Y)$
- If a roll a twenty-sided dice and cube the number shown, what is the expectation of the result?

#### Medium Question

• Photons arrive at a detector with a Poisson distribution with  $\lambda = 1$  photon/s

Each photon has an energy drawn from a Gaussian distribution with  $\mu = 1000$  eV and  $\sigma = 100$  eV.

Plot the probability distribution of the amount of energy arriving per second.

The energy of each photon is independent of the number that arrive.

#### Hard Question

 On my journey to work I can see the bus stop for the last 3 minutes of my walk towards it.

On my first day I saw one bus go past it before I got there. How long did I think I would have to wait for the next bus?

- You can assume that buses obey Poisson statistics. This
  is reasonable for British buses.
- If you need to make any other assumptions then describe and justify them.