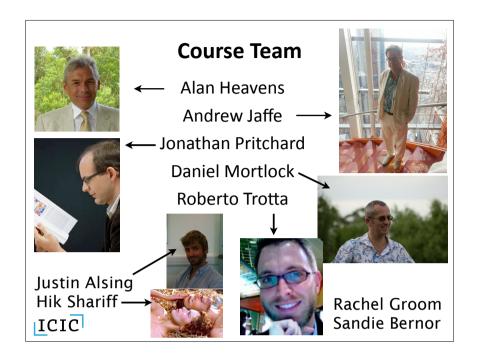
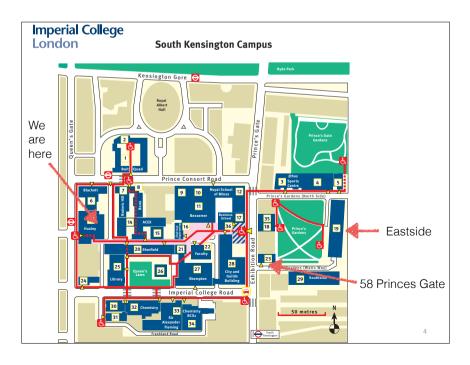




- Fire exits
- I/O: Tea/coffee/lunch (Blackett 311), toilets
- Breakfast 8.15-8.45 a.m.
- Events:
- Talk by Tom Babbedge (Winton) today ~5 p.m.
- Barbecue tonight 6 p.m. 58 Princes Gate
- Drinks reception 5:30 p.m. tomorrow
- Public engagement lunch, Wednesday





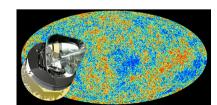


Outline of course

- · Basic principles
- Sampling
- Numerical methods (Parameter inference)
- MCMC
- Hybrid/Hamiltonian Monte Carlo
- Bayesian Hierarchical Models
- Bayesian Evidence (Model selection)

Outline

- Inverse problems: from data to theory
- Probability review, and Bayes' theorem
- Parameter inference
- Priors
- Marginalisation
- Posteriors



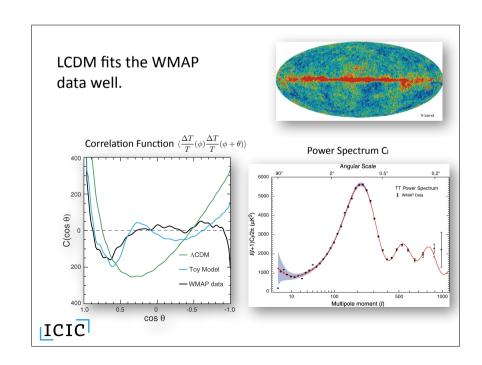


ICIC Data Analysis Workshop: the Bayesics



Alan Heavens
Imperial College London
ICIC Data Analysis Workshop
8 September 2014

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Inverse problems

- Most cosmological problems are *inverse problems*, where you have a set of data, and you
 want to infer something.
- generally harder than predicting the outcomes when you know the model and its parameters
- Examples
 - Hypothesis testing
 - Parameter inference
 - Model selection

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What is probability?

- Frequentist view: p describes the relative *frequency of outcomes* in infinitely long trials
- Bayesian view: p expresses our degree of belief
- Bayesian view is what we seem to want from experiments: e.g. given the Planck data, what is the probability that the density parameter of the Universe is between 0.9 and 1.1?

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Examples

- Hypothesis testing
 - Is the CMB radiation consistent with (initially) gaussian fluctuations?
- Parameter inference
 - In the Big Bang model, what is the value of the matter density parameter?
- Model selection
 - Do cosmological data favour the Big Bang theory or the Steady State theory?
 - Is the gravity law General Relativity or a different theory?

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Bayes' Theorem

- Rules of probability:
- p(x) + p(not x) = 1 sum rule
- p(x,y) = p(x|y) p(y) product rule
- $p(x) = \sum_{k} p(x,y_{k})$ marginalisation
- Sum \longrightarrow integral continuum limit (p=pdf) $p(x) = \int dy \, p(x,y)$
- p(x,y)=p(y,x) gives *Bayes' theorem*

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{p(x)}$$

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p(x|y) is not the same as p(y|x)

- x = female, y=pregnant
- p(y|x) = 0.03
- p(x|y) = 1



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Bayes' Theorem and Inference

• If we accept p as a degree of belief, then what we often want to determine is*

$$p(\theta|x)$$

 θ : model parameter(s), x: the data To compute it, use Bayes' theorem $p(\theta|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x)}$

Note that these probabilities are all conditional on a) prior information I, b) a model M

$$p(\theta|x) = p(\theta|x, I, M) \text{ or } p(\theta|x I M)$$

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*This is RULE 1: start by writing down what it is you want to know RULE 2: There is no RULE n, n>1



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The Monty Hall problem:

An exercise in using Bayes' theorem

You choose this one





Do you change your choice?

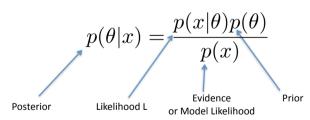
This is the Monty Hall problem







Posteriors, likelihoods, priors and evidence

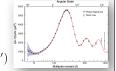


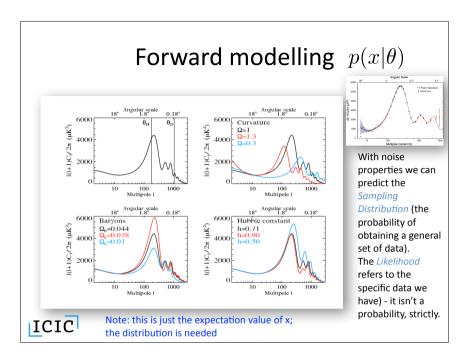
Remember that we interpret these in the context of a model M. so all probabilities are conditional on M (and on any prior info I). E.g. $p(\theta) = p(\theta|M)$

The evidence looks rather odd – what is the probability of the data? For parameter estimation, we can ignore it – it simply normalises the posterior. If you need it,

$$p(x) = \sum_{k} p(x|\theta_k)p(\theta_k) \text{ or } p(x) = \int d\theta \, p(x|\theta)p(\theta)$$

Noting that p(x)=p(x|M) makes its role clearer. In model selection (from M and M'), $p(x|M) \neq p(x|M')$





Set up the problem

- What is the model for the data, M?
- $M: x = \mu + n$
- Data: a set of values {x_i}, i=1...N
- Prior info /: noise $\langle n \rangle = 0 \langle n^2 \rangle = \sigma^2$ (known); gaussian distributed
- θ : the mean, μ
- Rule 1: what do we want?
- $p(\mu | \{x_i\})$
- See Jonathan's lectures for the solution

Case study: the mean

- Given a set of N independent samples $\{x_i\}$ from the same distribution, with gaussian dispersion σ , what is the mean of the distribution $\mu = \langle x \rangle$?
- Bayes: compute the *posterior probability* $p(\mu|\{x_i\})$
- Frequentist: devise an *estimator* $\hat{\mu}$ for μ . Ideally it should be *unbiased*, so $\langle \hat{\mu} \rangle = \mu$ and have as small an error as possible (*minimum variance*).
- These lead to superficially identical results (although they aren't), but the interpretation is very different

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Bayesian: no estimators - just posteriors

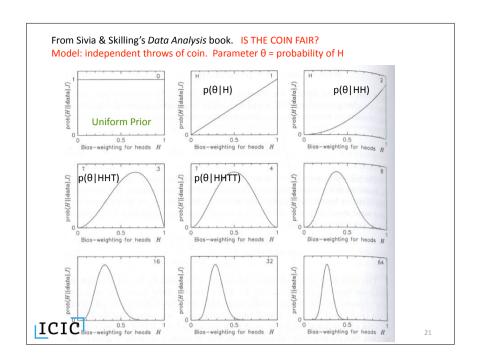
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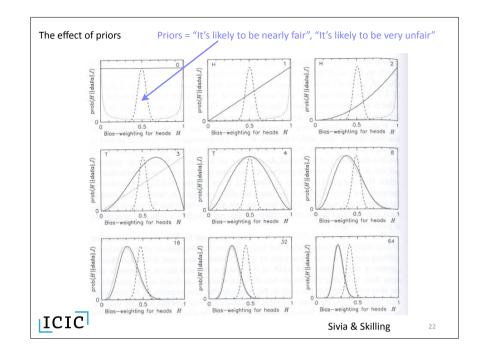
State your priors

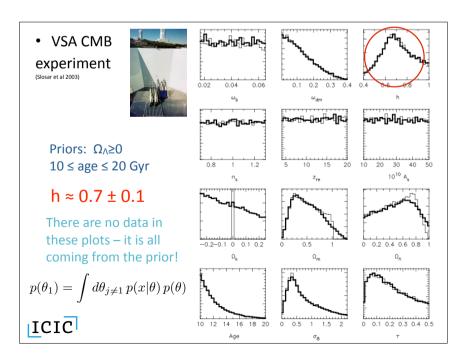
- In easy cases, the effect of the prior is simple
- As experiment gathers more data, the likelihood tends to get narrower, and the influence of the prior diminishes
- Rule of thumb: if changing your prior[†] to another reasonable one changes the answers a lot, you could do with more data
- Reasonable priors? Noninformative* constant prior
- scale parameters in $[0,\infty)$; uniform in log of parameter (Jeffreys' prior*)
- Beware: in more complicated, multidimensional cases, your prior may have subtle effects...
- † I mean the raw theoretical one, not modified by an experiment
- * Actually, it's better not to use these terms other people use them to mean different things just say what your prior is!

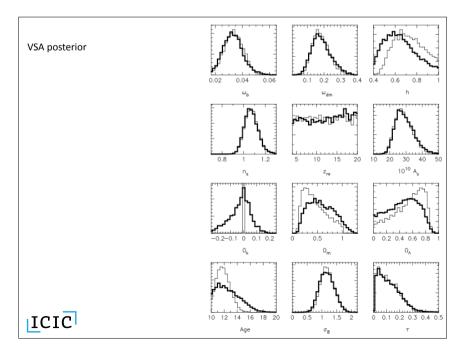


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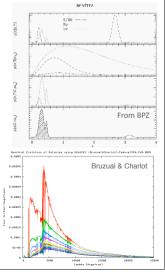
Inferring the parameter(s)

- What to report, when you have the posterior?
- Commonly the *mode* is used (the peak of the posterior)
- Mode = Maximum Likelihood Estimator, if the priors are uniform
- The posterior mean may also be quoted, but beware
- Ranges containing x% of the posterior probability of the parameter are called *credibility intervals* (or *Bayesian confidence intervals*)

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Multimodal posteriors etc

- Peak may not be gaussian
- Multimodal? Characterising it by a mode and an error is probably inadequate. May have to present the full posterior.
- Mean posterior may not be useful in this case – it could be very unlikely, if it is a valley between 2 peaks.





Errors

• If we assume uniform priors, then the posterior is proportional to the likelihood.

If further, we assume that the likelihood is single-moded (one peak at θ_0) , we can make a Taylor expansion of InL:

$$\ln L(x;\theta) = \ln L(x;\theta_0) + \frac{1}{2}(\theta_\alpha - \theta_{0\alpha}) \frac{\partial^2 \ln L}{\partial \theta_\alpha \partial \theta_\beta}(\theta_\beta - \theta_{0\beta}) + \dots$$
$$L(x;\theta) = L_0 \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2}(\theta_\alpha - \theta_{0\alpha}) H_{\alpha\beta}(\theta_\beta - \theta_{0\beta}) + \dots \right]$$

where the Hessian matrix is defined by these equations. Comparing this with a gaussian, the *conditional error* (keeping all other parameters fixed) is

$$\sigma_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{H_{\alpha\alpha}}}$$

Marginalising over all other parameters gives the marginal error

$$\sigma_{\alpha} = \sqrt{(H^{-1})_{\alpha\alpha}}$$

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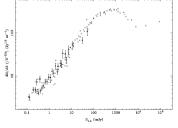
Non-gaussian likelihoods: number counts

• A radio source is observed with a telescope which can detect sources with fluxes above S_0 . The radio source has a flux $S_1 = 2S_0$ (assume it is precisely measured).

What is the slope of the number counts?

(Assume N(S)dS \propto S^{- α} dS)

Can you tell anything?





2

Summary

• Write down what you want to know. For parameter inference it is typically:

$$p(\theta|xIM)$$

- What is *M* ?
- What is/are θ ?
- What is *l* ?
- You might want p(M/x I)...this is Model Selection - see later



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