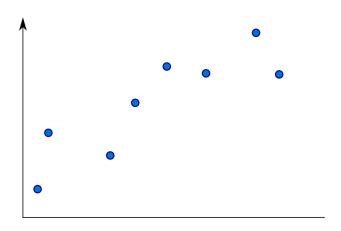
Basics of statistics Getting used to noise

Elena Sellentin

Université de Genève Département de Physique Théorique

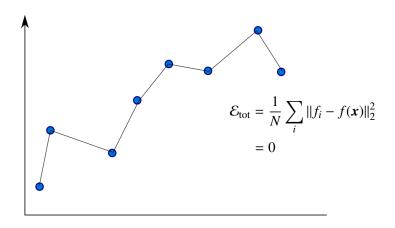
MACSS Summer school 8th-12th May 2017

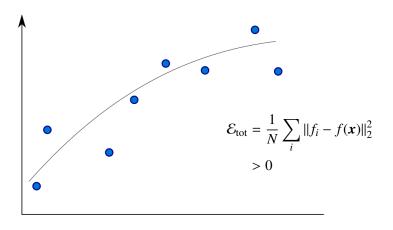
Given the following data points, how do we prove which curve describes the data best?

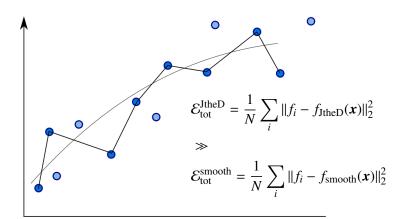


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We all know this is wrong, but how do we prove it?







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- We saw that join-the-dots 'perfectly' explains one data set, but then failed catastrophically on the repeated measurement.
- The fitted curve explained the first dataset somewhat 'worse', but then correctly predicted the outcome of the second measurement.

The best model minimizes...

$$\mathcal{E}_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} ||f_i - f(x)||_2^2$$
 (1)

- ... for current and future measurements.
- \Rightarrow It minimizes the distance to taken data, \pmb{and} not taken but statistically iid data.

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Measuring in noisy data space

We know how to calculate the distance with a Euclidean metric.

$$\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \Rightarrow \sqrt{D(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)} = \sqrt{(x_1^1 - x_2^1)^2 + (x_1^2 - x_2^2) + \dots + (x_1^n - x_2^n)^2}$$
 (2)

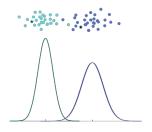
$$D(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 - x_2)^T \mathbb{I}(x_1 - x_2).$$
 (3)

Now generalize this concept to a noisy space....

Measuring in noisy data space

Noise ⇒ Distances must become uncertain.

Dimensionful parameters ⇒ metric must measure in those units.



The covariance matrix:

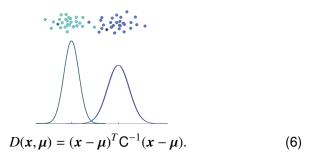
$$C = \langle (x - \langle x \rangle)(x - \langle x \rangle)^T \rangle \tag{4}$$

$$D(x, \mu) = (x - \mu)^{T} C^{-1}(x - \mu).$$
 (5)

Mahalanobis distance: measure in units of the expected scatter.

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Measuring in noisy data space



⇒ 'Distance' now measures compatibility, expectations and suprises.

Imagine you have taken one measurement x_1 and worked out your measurement errors. Now you repeat and get x_2 .

- Huge $D(x_1, x_2)$: Eeew, that came unexpectedly!
- Tiny $D(x_1, x_2)$: Someone must be fooling you...

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Consequences of Mahalanobis distances

Introduce parameters: trying to explain the data with a parametric model.

$$D(x, \mu(p)) = (x - \mu(p))^{T} C^{-1}(x - \mu(p)).$$
 (7)

- Which values do the parameters need to take, such that my model is most compatible with the data?
 - \Rightarrow minimize $D(x, \mu(p)) \Rightarrow$ 'Fitting' procedure.
- How much wiggle room is then still left? $\Rightarrow \hat{p} \pm \Delta p$.
- Which D_{crit} = D_{min}(x, μ(p̂)) + ΔD(x, μ(p)) is impossibly far away?
- \rightarrow where $\Delta \chi^2$ comes from (just **one** example).
- \rightarrow depends on the chosen metric: C, I, F⁻¹

Likelihoods

If x is random, then any f(x) is random, hence $D(x, \mu(p))$ is also a random variable.

⇒ If possible, work with a full likelihood.

Most famously:

$$\mathcal{G}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{p}), \mathbf{C}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|2\pi\mathbf{C}|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}[\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{p})]^T \mathbf{C}^{-1}[\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{p})]\right).$$
(8)

Minimizing $\chi^2 \leftrightarrow$ maximizing a Gaussian likelihood.

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Rules for the Game of Noise

- Random variables are drawn from probability distribution functions. We write $x \sim \mathcal{P}(x)$ in the univariate case, $x \sim \mathcal{P}(x)$ in the multivariate case and $S \sim \mathcal{P}(S)$ in the matrix-variate case.
- For any function f, if x is a random variable, so is f(x).
- P ≥ 0
- $\sum_{i} P_i = 1$, especially $P(A) + P(\bar{A}) = 1$, or $\int \mathcal{P}(x) dx = 1$
- P(A, B|C) = P(A|C)P(B|A, C) = P(B|C)P(A|B, C),
- Exchange of variables:

$$g(\mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x} = \tilde{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x}))|J| \tag{9}$$

where the Jacobian is

$$|J| = \det\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right). \tag{10}$$

• Bayes' Theorem: $P(A|B,C) = \frac{P(A|C)P(B|A,C)}{P(B|C)}$

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Consequences

- Estimators, e.g. best-fitting parameters, are random variables (they are a function of the data).
- Sometimes you must get, and will get, 'untypical' measurements. They come from the tail of the distributions $\mathcal{P}(x)$.
- Non-linear functions of Gaussian random variables follow non-Gaussian distributions, and the CLT agrees with this.
 - the ratio of two Gaussian rv follows a Cauchy distribution
 - the exponential of a Gaussian rv is log-normally distributed
 - the absolute value of Fourier modes from a Gaussian random field follow a Rayleigh distribution
 - many more ⇒ Exercises.

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Bayesian Inference

Bayesian Inference

Inverse Problem: Given data x, how do we explain them?

- Given: a dataset x and a model $\mathcal{M}(p)$
- To which posterior do the data x constrain the parameters p?
- Given two models M₁ and M₂, which one explains the data better?

$$\mathcal{P}(\theta, \mathcal{M}|x) = \frac{L(x|\theta, \mathcal{M})\pi(\theta)}{\epsilon(x|\mathcal{M})}$$
(11)

Bayesian Inference

$$\mathcal{P}(\theta, \mathcal{M}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{L(\mathbf{x}|\theta, \mathcal{M})\pi(\theta)}{\epsilon(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{M})}$$
(12)

- $\mathcal{P}(\theta, \mathcal{M}|x)$: the posterior.
- $L(x|\theta,\mathcal{M})$: the likelihood.
- $\pi(\theta)$: the priors.
- $\epsilon(x|\mathcal{M})$: the evidence ('marginal likelihood').

→ Even for a known likelihood, the posterior can be difficult to obtain. Need sampling techniques (MCMC, Gibbs...) & DALI.

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