Statistical Models and Inference - Part I

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AA 2019/2020 - Stat Lect. 6



Data Modeling

- we perform experiments and make observations to learn about a phenomenon
- to interpret data, we have to model them

Inference

- make general statements about a phenomenon through a model, using noisy and incomplete data
- must describe both the Phenomenon (i.e. Model) and the Measurement Process

Data Modeling

- given some data, D, we want to perform three actions:
- ▷ parameter estimation: for a specific Model M, with parameters θ , infere the values of model parameters, i.e. $P(\theta \mid DM)$, the parameter posterior pdf
- ightharpoonup model comparison: given a set of models $\{M_j\}$, find out which one is best supported by data. This means finding $P(M_i|D)$, the model posterior probability
- prediction:
 given a model M, inferred from the data, predict new data at some new location (in
 the parameter space or time)

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Bayesian Model Comparison

- we start by looking at model comparison for the simple case of models with no parameters
- \triangleright using our data D, we look for $P(M \mid D)$
- since $M \cdot \overline{M} = 0$ and $M + \overline{M} = \Omega$, we can write

$$P(D) = P(DM) + P(D\overline{M})$$

= $P(D \mid M) P(M) + P(D \mid \overline{M}) P(\overline{M})$

• our quantity of interest, $P(M \mid D)$, is related to Bayes' theorem by

$$P(M \mid D) = \frac{P(D \mid M) P(M)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(D \mid M) P(M)}{P(D \mid M) P(M) + P(D \mid \overline{M}) P(\overline{M})}$$
$$= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P(D \mid \overline{M}) P(\overline{M})}{P(D \mid M) P(M)}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{R}}$$

• with $R = \frac{P(D \mid M) \ P(M)}{P(D \mid \overline{M}) \ P(\overline{M})}$ the posterior odd ratio of the models

Bayesian Model Comparison

it is easy to demonstrate that

$$\frac{P(M \mid D)}{P(\overline{M} \mid D)} = R = \frac{P(D \mid M) P(M)}{P(D \mid \overline{M}) P(\overline{M})}$$

- in order to determine $P(M \mid D)$, we need three quantities:
- $\triangleright P(D \mid M)$: the probability of measuring D when M is true
- $\triangleright P(D \mid \overline{M})$: the probability of measuring D when M is not true (i.e. false)
- $ho P(\underline{M})$: the probability that \underline{M} is true, independently of the data (and, of course, $P(\overline{M}) = 1 P(M)$) $\Rightarrow P(M)$ tells us how probable the model is
- but, shouldn't we have information to tell us that M is more likely than M̄, we could set

$$P(M) = P(\overline{M})$$

• and R becomes the Bayes factor

$$BF = \frac{P(D \mid M)}{P(D \mid \overline{M})}$$

• i.e. the ratio of the probability of the data under each model

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Bayesian Model Comparison

• should we have more models, $\{M_j\}$, with $\sum P(M_j) = 1$, the probability of data becomes

$$P(D) = \sum_{j} P(D \mid M_{j}) P(M_{j})$$

• and the posterior probability of model # 1, M₁, becomes

$$P(M_1 \mid D) = \frac{P(D \mid M_1) P(M_1)}{P(D)}$$

 if we do not have a complete set of models, we cannot compute the posterior probabilities, but we can still compute the odds ratio or Bayes factor between any two models

$$BF = \frac{P(D \mid M_1)}{P(D \mid M_2)}$$
 and $R = \frac{P(D \mid M_1) P(M_1)}{P(D \mid M_2) P(M_2)}$

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Example

Problem

- a test for a disease is 90% reliable
- the probability of testing positive, in absence of the disease, is 0.07
- we know that among people aged 40 to 50 with no symptoms 8 in 1000 have the disease
- Q: if a person in his/her 40 tests positive, what is the probability that he/she has the disease?

Background information

- we build the following propositions:
- D: a person is tested positive
- M: a person has the disease
- and probabilities
- $P(D \mid M) = 0.9$
- $P(D \mid \overline{M}) = 0.07$
- -P(M) = 0.008

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Example - analytical solution

we build

$$R = \frac{P(D \mid M) \ P(M)}{P(D \mid \overline{M}) \ P(\overline{M})} = \frac{9 \cdot 10^{-1} \times 8 \cdot 10^{-3}}{7 \cdot 10^{-2} \times (1 - 8 \cdot 10^{-3})} = 0.1035$$

therefore

$$P(M \mid D) = \frac{1}{1 + 1/R} = 0.094$$

- even though a positive test result is quite probable (assuming the person has the disease), it is very unlikely that he/she has the disease
- what is decisive in the computation of $P(M \mid D)$ is the ratio between

$$P(D M) = P(D | M) P(M) = 7.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$$

(positive result, assuming the disease is present)

and

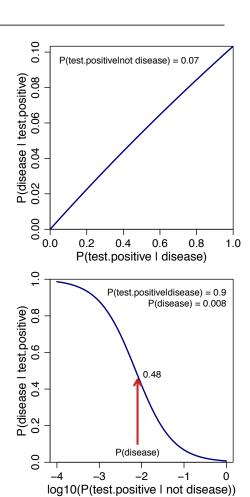
$$P(D \overline{M}) = P(D | \overline{M}) P(\overline{M}) = 7 \cdot 10^{-2}$$

(positive result, assuming the disease is absent)

Example - R solution

```
post <- function(p.d.m, p.d.notm, p.m) {</pre>
   p.notm <-1 - p.m
   odds.ratio <- (p.d.m * p.m) /
                  (p.d.notm * p.notm)
   p.m.d \leftarrow 1/(1 + 1/odds.ratio)
}
p.d.m \leftarrow seq(0, 1, 0.01) \# True positive
                     # False positive
p.d.notm <- 0.07
p.m < -0.008
                          # Disease Prior
p.m.d <- post(p.d.m, p.d.notm, p.m)</pre>
plot(p.d.m, p.m.d, type='1', lwd=2, col='navy')
                                 # True positive
p.d.m < -0.9
p.d.notm <- 10^seq(-4,0, 0.02) # False positive
p.m < -0.008
                                 # Disease Prior
p.m.d <- post(p.d.m, p.d.notm, p.m)</pre>
plot(log10(p.d.notm), p.m.d, type='l', col='navy')
```

 only once the false positive rate drops below the base rate (P(M)) does the test starts to be useful



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Data Modeling with Parametric Models

- generative model: theory predicting observable data from model parameters
- the model just studied did not have any parameter: it was either true or false
- the simplest generative model is a straight line

$$f(x; a, b) = a + b \cdot x$$

but our measurements will differ from the model due to noise

$$y = f(x; a, b) + \epsilon$$

- and the noise model we call it the measurement model has also parameters
- given our set of data $D = \{y_j\}$ at specified values $\{x_j\}$, we want to infer the values of the parameters for the generative model
- in some cases we want to find the best set of parameters that predicts the data
- but data are noisy → there is no unique solution
- we look for the probability distributions of the parameters, $P(\theta \mid DM)$, also called parameter posterior pdf. Thanks to Bayes' theorem

$$P(\theta \mid D M) = \frac{P(D \mid \theta M) P(\theta \mid M)}{P(D \mid M)}$$

The Likelihood

- $P(D \mid \theta M)$ is the Likelihood probability
- it is a key function since it describes both the phenomenon and the data
- it tells us the probability of getting the data we measured, given some value of the parameters
- M specifies: the equation for the straight line f(x; a, b)
- a generative model
- a measurement model \leftarrow how the measurement of y at a given x differs from f(x; a, b) due to noise
- the measurement model describes ϵ in $y = f(x; a, b) + \epsilon$
- example: Gaussian distribution with variance σ^2 . The Likelihood for any measurement is

$$P(y \mid \theta M) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y - f(x; a, b))^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- telling us that the measurement has a Gaussian distribution about the true value
- $\theta = \theta(a, b; \sigma)$ is the union of the generative and measurements models

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The Prior

- $P(\theta \mid M)$ is the Prior probability
- it encapsulates all the information we have, independent of the data
- it is called Prior because is the background information we have before obtaining the Data
- different people may have different information, or different opinion on what prior information is important
- this is not a weakness of inference
- it just reflects reality: we do not only use our immediate measurements to reach scientific conclusions

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The Posterior

- $P(\theta \mid DM)$ is the Posterior probability
- it is the pdf over the model parameters, given data and background information
- from Bayes' theorem

Posterior ∝ Likelihood × Prior

• the proportionality is through $P(D \mid M)$, a normalization factor which is independent of θ . Therefore:

$$P(\theta \mid D M) = \frac{1}{Z}P(D \mid \theta M)P(\theta \mid M)$$

- with $Z = P(D \mid M)$
- from a conceptual point of view, inference is really that strightforward
- Bayesian inference is the process of improving our knowledge of the model paramaters by using the data
- ▶ we update the Prior using the Likelihood to obtain the Posterior

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The Evidence

- $P(D \mid M)$ is the Evidence
- is the denominator of Bayes's equation and it gives the probability of observing the Data D, assuming the model M to be true, for any values of θ

$$P(D \mid M) = \int P(D \mid \theta M) P(\theta \mid M) d\theta$$

- evidence plays a key role in model comparison
- as a normalization constant, it is very important if we want to compute certain quantities from the posterior
- sometimes the integral can be calculated analytically, but for many real-world problems, we have to resort to numerical integration → Markov Chain Monte Carlo

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