The Bayesian Block Algorithm

discover local structures in background data

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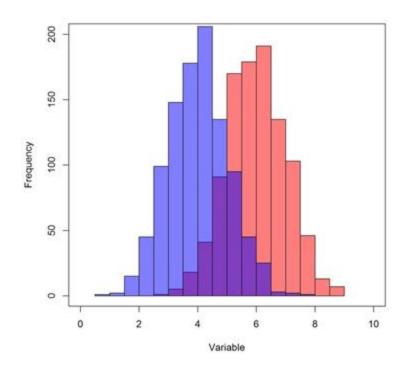


The problem: data visualization

Sometimes it's hard!

 What is the best data segmentation for our data?

Am I using all the information I have?



The Bayesian Block representation

 The Bayesian Blocks representation is a non parametric representation of data derived with a bayesian statistical procedure.

 Invented by Jeffrey D. Scargle and applied in the context of astronomical time series analysis [1].

Features in our wish list

- Non-parametric: generic representation of data
- Discover local structures in background data exploiting the full information brought by the data
- Impose few preconditions as possible on signal and background shapes
- Handle arbitrary sampling and dynamic ranges of data
- Operate in a bayesian framework and work with posterior probabilities:

$$P(M|D) \propto P(D|M)P(M)$$

Idea of the BB algorithm

Segmentation of the data interval into **variable-sized blocks**, each block containing consecutive data elements satisfying some well-defined criterion.

The optimal segmentation is the one that maximize some quantification of this criterion.

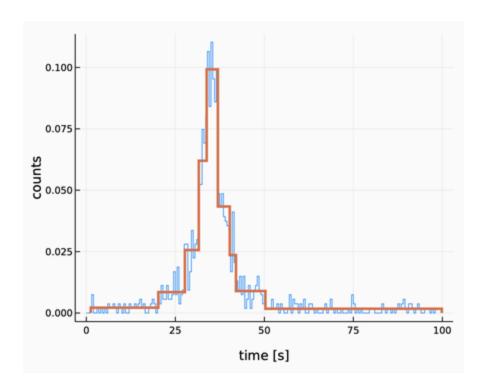


Image by Luigi Pertoldi [pertoldi@pd.infn.it]

The Piecewise Constant Model

The range of the independent variable (e.g. time) is divided into subintervals generally unequal in size, in which the dependent variable (e.g. intensity) is modeled as constant within errors.

- the blocks can be treated **independently** (block's fitness depends on its data only)
- Our model for each block has two parameters:
 - the signal amplitude, and is treated as a nuisance parameter
 - the **length** of the interval spanned by the block

Recipe: build the fitness function and than marginalize (maximize/minimize) w.r.t. the nuisance parameters

The fitness function

The algorithm relies on the additivity of the fitness function:

$$F_{total} = \sum_{k=1}^{N_{blocks}} f(B_k)$$

our best model is the one that maximize F_{total} over all possible partitions.

From a Bayesian point of view the fitness function corresponds to the likelihood

The fitness function - Cash Statistics

With a model $M(t,\theta)$, the unbinned log-likelihood reads:

$$\log L(\theta) = \sum_{n} \log M(t_n, \theta) - \int M(t, \theta) dt$$

our model is constant: $M(t,\lambda) = \lambda$ so for block k

$$\log L^{(k)}(\lambda) = N^{(k)} \log \lambda - \lambda T^{(k)}$$

now we maximize wrt the nuisance parameter λ (height of the block):

$$\log L_{max}^{(k)} = N^{(k)} (\log N^{(k)} - \log T^{(k)}) + N^{(k)}$$

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our model is constant: $M(t,\lambda) = \lambda$ so for block k

$$\log L^{(k)}(\lambda) = N^{(k)} \log \lambda - \lambda T^{(k)}$$

now we maximize wrt the nuisance parameter λ (height of the block):

independent of the partition

$$\log L_{max}^{(k)} = N^{(k)} (\log N^{(k)} - \log T^{(k)}) + N^{(k)}$$
$$= N^{(k)} (\log N^{(k)} - \log T^{(k)})$$

The fitness function - Cash Statistics

$$\log L_{max}^{(k)} = N^{(k)} (\log N^{(k)} - \log T^{(k)})$$

where $N^{(k)}$ number of events and $T^{(k)}$ is the length of the Kth block.

This fitness function has two nice features:

- is simple
- is scale invariant $(T \rightarrow \alpha T)$

The fitness of the entire partition will be then:

$$\log L = \sum_{k} \log L_{max}^{(k)}$$

The Prior on the number of blocks

We are interested in a representation where $N_{blocks} \ll N$ rather than $N_{blocks} \approx N$

Uniform prior looks unreasonable

We selected two candidate priors for our algorithm that assign smaller probability on a large number of blocks:

- Geometric Prior
- Calibrated Prior

Geometric Prior

$$P(N_{blocks}) = \begin{cases} P_0 \gamma^{N_{blocks}} & 0 \le N_{blocks} \le N \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$P_0 = \frac{1 - \gamma}{1 - \gamma^{N+1}}$$

• γ is a free parameter

we need to tune this parameter...

Geometric Prior

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The prior can be interpreted as a control on the false-positive rate for detecting change-points.

fixing the rate of Type-I errors

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- γ is a free parameter
- we need to tune this parameter...

The prior can be interpreted as a control on the false-positive rate for detecting change-points.

fixing the rate of Type-I errors

Recipe: running the algorithm with a few different values. In general, the number of change-points is insensitive to a large range of reasonable values of the "steepness" parameter.

Calibrated Prior

Another approach is to calibrate the prior as a function of the number of data points N and the false-positive rate p_0 on toy pure-noise experiments.

$$\log P(N, p_0) = \log(73.53p_0N^{-0.478}) - 4$$

$$p_0 = 1$$
 – (false positive probability)

 p_0 represents the frequency with which the algorithm correctly rejects the presence of a change-point in pure noise.

The algorithm takes in several parameters:

- data: the input data to be partitioned
- data_type: the type of input data (array or histogram)
- prior: the prior distribution to use (geometric or calibrated)
- gamma: the slope of the geometric prior
- p0: the correct detection rate parameter for the calibrated prior
- verbose: a boolean parameter that if set
 True prints useful informations on the
 algorithm

The algorithm starts by sorting and counting the data, then it creates a **set of possible bin edges**. The function then evaluates the fitness function for each possible partition, taking into account a prior distribution on the number of blocks. The algorithm then traces back through the previous partitions to find the optimal partition that maximizes the fitness function. The change points are then returned as the edges of the blocks.

```
if(data_type=='array'){
        require(plyr)
       x_sorted<-sort(data)
        x_unique<-unique(x_sorted)
                                          # not consider repeated data
        x_weight<-count(x_sorted)$freq
else if(data_type=='hist'){
       br<-data$breaks
       x_unique<-c(br[1],data$mids,br[length(br)])
       x_weight<-c(1,data$counts,1)
else{
    stop('\n\n ERROR: Invalid input type. \n\n Valid input type are: \n * array \n * hist \n\n' )
```

```
Sort the data in ascending
                                                                         order.
if(data_type=='array'){
        require(plyr)
       x_sorted<-sort(data)
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Sort the data in ascending
                                                                         order.
if(data_type=='array'){
        require(plyr)
       x_sorted<-sort(data)
        x_unique<-unique(x_sorted)
                                            # not consider repeated data
                                                                         Select only unique data.
        x_weight<-count(x_sorted)$freq
else if(data_type=='hist'){
        br<-data$breaks
       x_unique<-c(br[1],data$mids,br[length(br)])
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                                                                         Count the frequency of each
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                                                                         unique values.
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```
x <- x_unique
N \leftarrow length(x)
edges<-c(x[1], 0.5*(x[2:N] + x[1:(N-1)]), x[N])
block_length<-x[N]-edges
best<-matrix(0,nrow=1,ncol=N)
last<-matrix(0,nrow=1,ncol=N)
# log-fitness function (cash statistic)
log_fitness<-function(N_k,T_k){
            return(N_k * (log(N_k) - log(T_k)))
# log-prior distributions
log_prior<-function(string){
          if(string=='geometric'){
              return(-log(gamma))
          else if(string=='p0'){
              return(4 - log(73.53 * p0 * N^(-0.478)))
              stop('\n\n ERROR: Invalid prior selected. \n\n Valid priors are: \n * geometric \n * p0 \n\n')
# evaluate the prior on the number of blocks
ncp_prior<-log_prior(string=prior)
```

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```

Compute the **initial block edges** by taking the midpoint between each adjacent pair of unique values in x, and appending the minimum and maximum values of x to the beginning and end, respectively. This results in N+1 edges

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The **block length** is calculated as the difference between the final block edge and each of the block edges.

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                                                                                       the final block edge and each of the block edges.
# log-prior distributions
log prior<-function(string){
          if(string=='geometric'){
                                                                                       The best and last matrices are initialized to be zero
              return(-log(gamma))
                                                                                       matrices with dimensions (1, N). These matrices are used
                                                                                       to keep track of the optimal partition of the data at each
          else if(string=='p0'){
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                                                                                       step of the algorithm.
          elsel
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```

Compute the **initial block edges** by taking the midpoint between each adjacent pair of unique values in x, and appending the minimum and maximum values of x to the beginning and end, respectively. This results in N+1 edges and N blocks.

The **block length** is calculated as the difference between the final block edge and each of the block edges.

The **best** and **last** matrices are initialized to be zero matrices with dimensions (1, N). These matrices are used to keep track of the optimal partition of the data at each step of the algorithm.

The fitness function and the priors functions are

```
for(K in 1:N){
   # Compute the width and count of the final bin for all possible
   # locations of the K^th changepoint
   width<-block_length[1:K]-block_length[K+1]
   count_vec<-sort(cumsum(x_weight[1:K]),decreasing=T)</pre>
   # evaluate fitness function for these possibilities
   fit_vec<-log_fitness(N_k=count_vec,T_k=width)</pre>
   fit_vec<-fit_vec - ncp_prior
   fit_vec[2:K]<-fit_vec[2:K]+best[1:(K-1)]
   # max of the fitness
   i_max<-which.max(fit_vec)
   last[K]<-i_max</pre>
   best[K]<-fit_vec[i_max]
```

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```

Evaluate the **width** of each block

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   last[K]<-i max
   best[K] <- fit vec[i max]
```

Evaluate the width of each block

Compute the **cumulative sum of the weights** of the unique values up to the Kth index, and then sorts it in descending order.

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```

Evaluate the **width** of each block

Compute the **cumulative sum of the weights** of the unique values up to the Kth index, and then sorts it in descending order.

Compute the **fitness**.

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Evaluate the **width** of each block

Compute the **cumulative sum of the weights** of the unique values up to the Kth index, and then sorts it in descending order.

Compute the fitness.

Update the fitness values of all but the first possible changepoint locations by adding the best fitness values of all previous possible change-point locations.

```
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   fit vec[2:K]<-fit vec[2:K]+best[1:(K-1)]
   # max of the fitness
   i_max<-which.max(fit_vec)
   last[K]<-i max
   best[K] <- fit vec[i max]
```

Find the location of the maximum value in the fit_vec vector, which corresponds to the location of the Kth change-point that maximizes the log-likelihood of the data.

Evaluate the width of each block

Compute the **cumulative sum of the weights** of the unique values up to the Kth index, and then sorts it in descending order.

Compute the fitness.

Update the fitness values of all but the first possible changepoint locations by adding the best fitness values of all previous possible change-point locations.

```
change_points<-matrix(0,nrow=1,ncol=N)</pre>
i_cp<-N+1
ind < -N+1
while(TRUE){
    i_cp<-i_cp-1
    change_points[i_cp]<-ind
    if(ind==1){
        break
    ind<-last[ind-1]
change_points<-change_points[(i_cp):N]</pre>
```

```
return(edges[change_points])
```

```
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i_cp<-N+1
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while(TRUE){
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change_points<-change_points[(i_cp):N]</pre>
```

return(edges[change_points])

Determining the locations of the changepoints that form the optimal partitioning of the input data. The while loop starts from the last block and iteratively backtracks through the changepoints to identify their location, until it reaches the first block.

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```

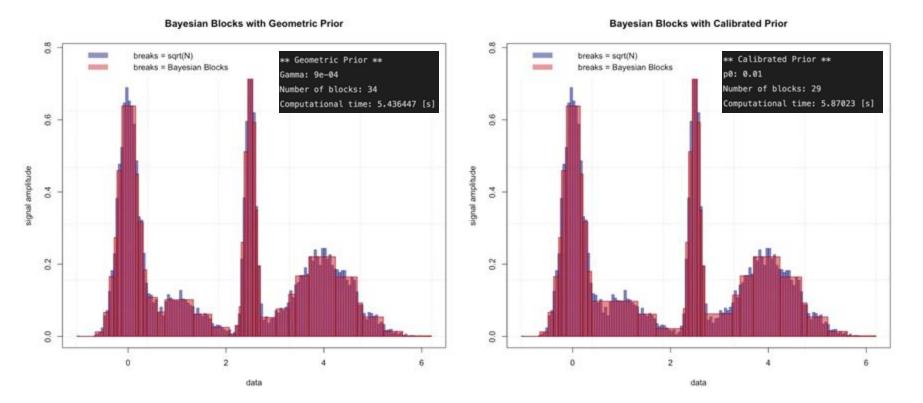
return(edges[change_points])

Determining the locations of the changepoints that form the optimal partitioning of the input data. The while loop starts from the last block and iteratively backtracks through the changepoints to identify their location, until it reaches the first block.

Return the vector of the estimated bin edges.

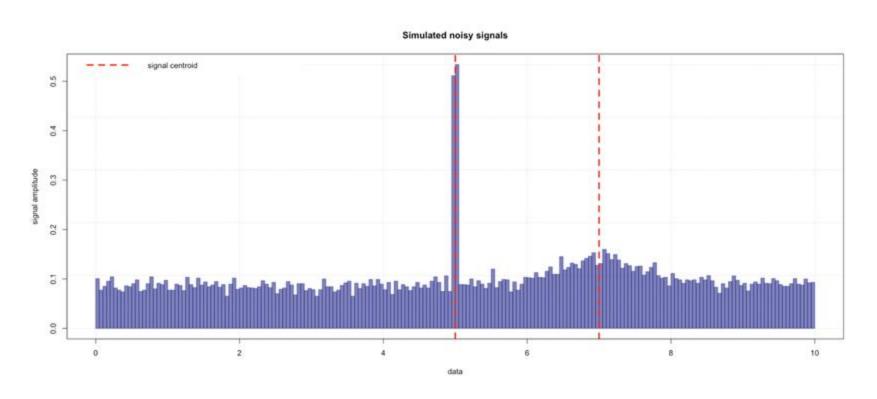
Applications: Binning of histograms

1500 random toy data generated from a mixture of four normal distributions (122 bins)

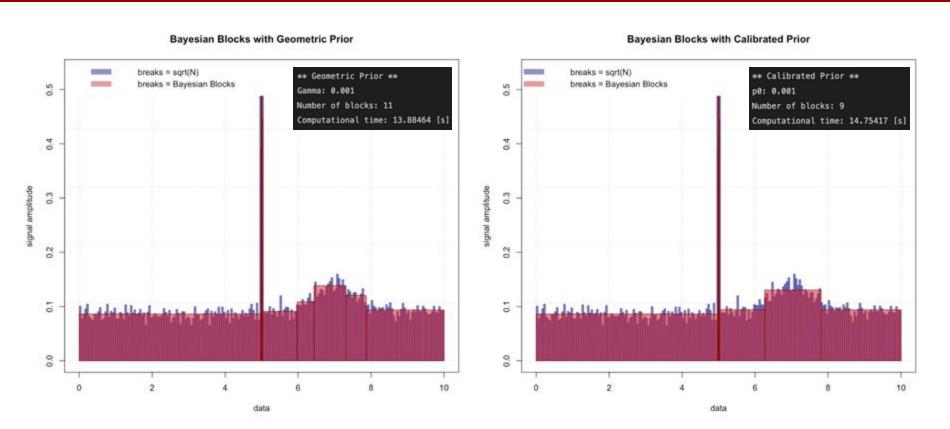


Applications: Signal detection

Uniform background noise with two gaussian signals (N (5,0.01), N (7,0.6))



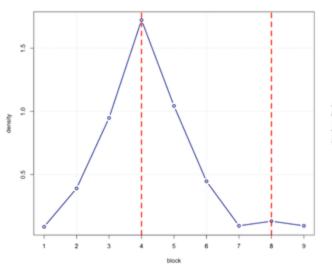
Applications: Signal detection

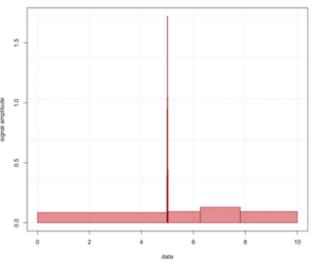


Applications: Signal detection

Information on single block can be easily inspected using the usual R's syntax for histograms.

block	counts	density	centroid
<int></int>	<int></int>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>
1	9865	0.08618566	2.489321
2	54	0.39008075	4.980639
3	201	0.94778926	4.988259
4	572	1.72327884	5.000085
5	157	1.04286187	5.010573
6	105	0.44602715	5.018964
7	2678	0.09408264	5.642871
8	4628	0.13036286	7.033420
9	4740	0.09390715	8.902470





position of the first peak: 5.000085 position of the second peak: 7.03342

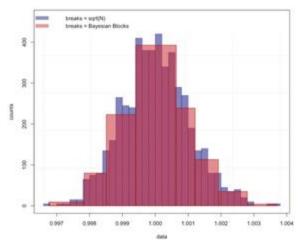
Applications: Kernel density estimator for SBAM

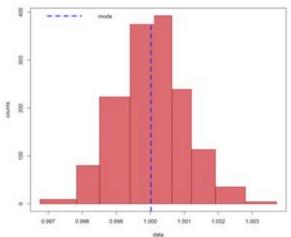
PySINDy is a sparse regression package with several implementations for the Sparse Identification of Nonlinear Dynamical systems (SINDy) [7].

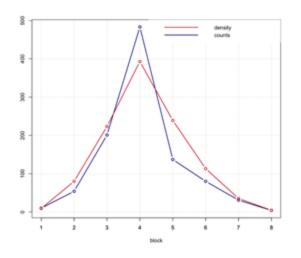
The **SBAM** (Sparse Bayesian Auxiliary Module) [5] [6] module provides a bayesian implementation for the sparsity in the original PySindy package. Through the use of a Gibbs Sampler, the module provides a posterior probability distribution of the coefficients of the candidate functions (features) that will be used to reconstruct the dynamics of the system.

In the SBAM module, the **mean** was used as the best estimator for such posterior. With the Bayesian Blocks algorithm, **we can implement a kernel density estimator**; in this way, the **mode** can be easily calculated and used as the best estimator for the posterior distributions.

Applications: Kernel density estimator for SBAM







** Calibrated Prior **
p0: 0.01

Number of blocks: 8

Computational time: 0.1700029 [s]

block	counts	density	centroid
<int></int>	<int></int>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>
1	10	9.280513	0.9972949
2	54	79.982000	0.9981712
3	201	223.158605	0.9989591
4	483	392.791012	1.0000243
5	137	239.014265	1.0009258
6	80	113.202986	1.0015657
7	31	35.185013	1.0023596
8	4	4.352431	1.0032596

mode: 1.000024

Conclusions

- The Bayesian Blocks algorithm provides an objective way for optimal data segmentation.
- The algorithm allows us to produce extremely understandable histograms
 that highlight the local background structure of the data by imposing as few
 preconditions as possible.
- The ease of code implementation and the possibility of customization by introducing new priors, make the Bayesian Block algorithm a powerful tool for studying time series, signal detection and as a kernel density estimator.

References

- [1] Studies in Astronomical Time Series Analysis. VI. Bayesian Block Representations, J. D. Scargle et al., Astrophys. J. 764 (2013) 167
- [2] Bayesian Blocks in High Energy Physics: Better Binning made easy! B. Pollack et al. (2017), arXiv:1708.00810
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