

# Fitting and statistical inference in science and modelling

- Models in physics have 'free' or unknown parameters

⇒ • Q: Please give examples

- How do we compare models with unknown parameters to data?
- We need techniques (and tools) to 'fit' models to data, and to make statistical inferences

## Interlude - Bernoulli (Lindley + Phillips, 1976)

- I will be the scientist; you are statisticians and data analysts
- I look this pen. I practised tossing it so it spun many times in flight. I let it land  
Spoon!
- I tossed it 12 times. 9 times it landed up. 3 times it pointed downwards

⇒ • Q: what's the chance of up on my 13<sup>th</sup> toss?

⇒ • Before you answer, you are free to ask any questions you like

...

• 3U, D, U, D, 5U, D [9U, 3D]

YOU DON'T HAVE ENOUGH INFO  
FOR ANY CLASSICAL STATISTICAL  
INFERENCE!

was pin unbiased?

P-value: Probability of obtaining a result as or more extreme than observed result under null hypothesis

$$p = \Pr(\lambda \geq \lambda_{\text{obs}} \mid H_0)$$

- Let's take  $H_0$ : pin unbiased,  $p(\text{up}) = p(\text{down}) = 0.5$ , and investigate whether  $p(\text{up}) > p(\text{down})$
- we observed 3 down, 9 up; or more extreme:  $d = 0, 1, 2, 3$ ,

⇒ Q: Compute p-value, analytically and/or by MC

• Hint: PTD  $\times 2$

Stop - why 12?

- Why was 100 not 20 possible?

MAYBE I TOSSED UNTIL I OBSERVED  
3 DOWN!

- Maybe I stopped when my son started crying! We need a clearly stated plan!

⇒ Q: Compute p-value if I stopped after 3 down results.

- We needed to know the stopping rule

Likelihood principle

- Another way of saying it is that we needed to know the sample space - all the outcomes we could have observed
- Why are things that might have happened, but did not, relevant?

Likelihood Principle: inferences depend on observed data, not sample space of unobserved data

## Estimating $p$

- Now suppose I want to estimate  $p(\text{up})$ .

Unbiased estimate: An estimator is unbiased, if, on average it equals the true value in a long-run of repeated experiments

$$E[\hat{p}] = p$$

$\Rightarrow$  Q: compute unbiased estimate of  $p$  when  $n=12$  fixed and when  $n(\text{down})=3$  fixed?

$\Rightarrow$  Q: show that they are unbiased through simulation

- hints: we can use `scipy.stats`,

`pip install scipy`

- the relevant distributions are binomial and negative binomial - `binom` and `nbinom`

- The unbiased estimators are

$$\rightarrow \hat{p} = \frac{u}{n} \quad (n \text{ fixed})$$

$$\rightarrow \hat{p} = 1 - \frac{d-1}{u+d-1} \quad (d \text{ fixed})$$

# A Bayesian analysis - modelling

- Let's model the pin tosses using Bayesian statistics
- Use probability to describe reasonable degree of belief
- Probability will be updated using Bayes' theorem:

$$p(A|B) = p(B|A) \cdot \frac{p(A)}{p(B)}$$

## Exchangeability and de Finetti

- Suppose we consider the tosses to be exchangeable: position and order are irrelevant.

UUUUUU  $\Leftrightarrow$  any 4 U's and 2 D's

- de Finetti's theorem: the probability must have the form

$$P(\underbrace{u}_{\text{any order}}, n) = \int \underbrace{\theta^u (1-\theta)^{n-u}}_{\text{Bernoulli}} p(\theta) d\theta$$

- $\theta$  is the unknown  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u}{n} = \theta$ , but

has the interpretation of frequency of  $u$  in long run

- Now, return to question, what is probability of up on 13<sup>th</sup> toss?

$$P \equiv P(\text{up on 13} \mid 9\text{U}, 3\text{D}) = P(10\text{U}, 3\text{D}) / P(9\text{U}, 3\text{D})$$

by Bayes' theorem

- Using de Finetti,

$$P = \int \theta \{ \theta^9 (1-\theta)^3 P(\theta) / P(9\text{U}, 3\text{D}) \} d\theta$$

noting that

$$P(\theta \mid 9\text{U}, 3\text{D}) = \frac{P(9\text{U}, 3\text{D} \mid \theta) P(\theta)}{P(9\text{U}, 3\text{D})}$$

$$P = \int \theta P(\theta \mid 9\text{U}, 3\text{D}) d\theta$$

- we have our answer! Alas it depends on a prior  $P(\theta)$

## Bernoulli on Stan / PyMC etc

prior - our belief about the parameter before seeing the data.

=> Q: Before seeing the data, what did you think about the coin toss? what would you pick for  $p(\theta)$ ?

MCMC - Markov Chain Monte Carlo. Algorithm for Bayesian computation. sample-based representation of posterior using chain of correlated steps through possible parameter values.

- Problem defined by

target & likelihood & prior

- In our case, likelihood is the Bernoulli

$$\theta^u (1-\theta)^{n-u}$$

by de Finetti

## MCMC analysis

- Markov Chain  $(i+1)$ -th state depends only on  $i$ -th state
- states are accepted in Metropolis - Hastings with a probability

$$\alpha = \min \left( 1, \frac{\pi(\theta_{i+1})}{\pi(\theta_i)} \frac{Q(\theta_i, \theta_{i+1})}{Q(\theta_{i+1}, \theta_i)} \right)$$

$\hat{\alpha}$  pdf is  
2<sup>nd</sup> var

- "Downhill" moves are possible
- Build chain of correlated samples that are asymptotically marginal draws from target — stationary dist<sup>n</sup> = target
- How to pick  $\theta_{i+1}$ ? many of these tools use Hamiltonian Monte Carlo — exploiting Hamilton's eq'ns and Liouville th'm



- we wanted

$$p = \int \mathcal{O}_p(\mathcal{O} | 90, 30) d\mathcal{O}$$

$\Rightarrow Q$ : Find posterior mean of  $\mathcal{O}$ .

R-hat and ESS, trace plots

$\Rightarrow Q$ : How many steps was enough?

- ESS - effective sample size. Remember, samples are not independent.

$$\text{errors} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{\text{ESS}}}$$

- sample until have enough ESS ( $\approx 400$  or so usually ok) for p.v.i
- $\hat{R}$  - Gelman-Rubin diagnostic. Compares inter- and intra-chain variances.  $\hat{R} < 1.001$  for p.v.i.
- Hint: we will use arviz library

pip install arviz

## Summary + refs.

- Bayesian and frequentist methods differ as latter depends on sample space and stopping rule (Lindley + Phillips, 1976)
- we computed p-value, probability data as or more extreme than observed, for 2 stopping rules
- Bayesian approach needed a prior.
- Update prior with data using MCMC (Hoggan + Foreman-Mackey, 2017, 1710.06068)
- Explored emcee, pymc, numpyro  
↓  
ensemble                      UMC, derivatives, PPL
- Analysed results using arviz - including diagnostics (Margossian, et al, 2024, 2110.13017)

## Bonus tracks

### CLs

- If you look at LHC results, you will often see "CLs".

- Step back. What is a confidence interval?

Informally, the range of parameter values "allowed" by an experiment.

- We often want upper limits - how big is allowed?

An  $x\%$  upper limit for a parameter  $\theta$  is a value  $V$  generated by an experiment that in repeated sampling has an  $x\%$  probability of being greater than the true value of  $\theta$ .

- Suppose true value of new effect  $\mu = 0$  (no effect). We will obtain  $V = 0$  at a rate  $(1 - x)\%$ .

- If that bothers you, use CLs!
- It might bother you if you consider

$$b = 100, s = 10$$

$$\lambda = b + \mu s$$

→ background fluctuates downwards, observe 70 events. Exclude all values of  $\mu$ !

- Including  $\mu = 10^{-10}$ , which surely your experiment was never sensitive to!

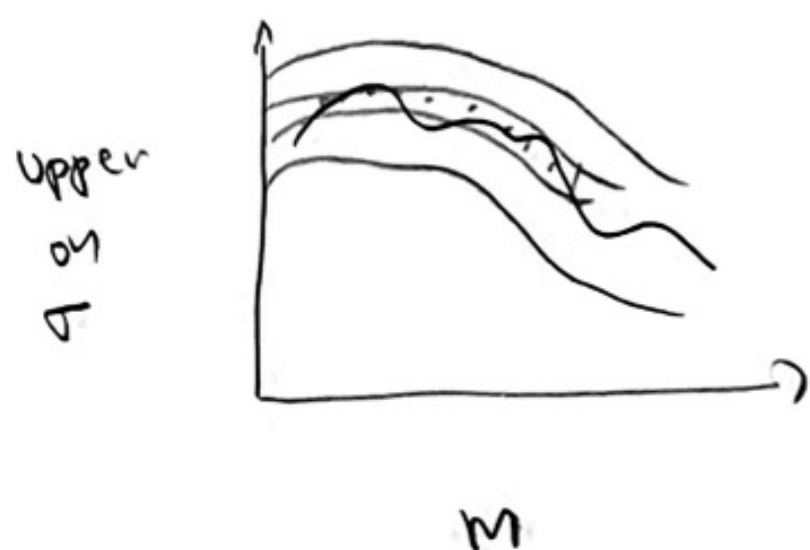
- Enter CLs! Modify upper limit etc.

→ "frequentist" definition violated

→ never exclude  $\mu = 0$ , even if big downward fluctuation in background

- Curiously, CLs equivalent to a Bayesian procedure in some cases

## Brazil Band Plot



- observed upper limit as function of mass
  - Brazil band - what do we expect if  $\sigma = 0$ ? simulate it!
  - we would get a different result in each simulation
  - plot quantiles ( $\sim 2.5\%$ ,  $\sim 16\%$ ,  $50\%$ ,  $\sim 84\%$ ,  $\sim 97.5\%$ )
- THIS IS BRAZIL BAND
- Does not depend on observed data; shows our expectations if  $\sigma = 0$