Algebraic Statistics

Benjamin C. W. Brown B.Brown@ed.ac.uk

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Statistical Models

planetmath.org

A *statistical model* is usually parameterised by a function, called a *parametrisation*

$$\Theta \to \mathcal{P}, \quad \text{given by} \quad \theta \mapsto P_{\theta}, \quad \text{so that} \quad \mathcal{P} = \{P_{\theta}: \theta \in \Theta\},$$

where Θ is the *parameter space*. Θ is usually a subset of \mathbb{R}^n .

McCullagh, 2002

This should be defined using category theory.

2. Independence Models

Two-by-Two Contingency Tables

A contingency table contains counts obtained by cross-classifying observed cases according to two or more discrete criteria.

Example

TODO: Figure (Florida death sentences)

We ask whether the sentences were made independently of the defendant's race.

Two-by-Two Contingency Tables

- ► Classify using two criteria with *r* and *c* levels, yields two random variables *X* and *Y*.
- ► Code outcomes as $[r] := \{1, ..., r\}$, and $[c] := \{1, ..., c\}$.

All information about *X* and *Y* is contained in the *joint probabilities*

$$p_{ij} = P(X = i; Y = j), \quad i \in [r], j \in [c].$$

► These in turn determine the *marginal probabilities*:

$$p_{i+} := \sum_{j=1}^{c} p_{ij} = P(X = i), \quad i \in [r],$$

 $p_{+j} := \sum_{i=1}^{r} p_{ij} = P(Y = j), \quad j \in [c].$

Definition

Two random variables X and Y are *independent* if the joint probabilities factor as $p_{ij} = p_{i+} \cdot p_{+j}$, for all $i \in [r]$ and $j \in [c]$. Denote independence of X and Y by $X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y$.

Proposition

Two random variables X and Y are independent if and only if the $(r \times c)$ -matrix, $p = (p_{ij})$, has rank one.

For a (2×2) -table, we thus have:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} & P(Y=1) & P(Y=2) \\ \hline P(X=1) & p_{11} & p_{12} \\ P(X=2) & p_{21} & p_{22} \end{array} \quad \xrightarrow{X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y} \quad p_{11}p_{22} = p_{12}p_{21}.$$

Suppose now we select *n* cases, giving rise to *n* independent pairs of discrete random variables:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \chi^{(1)} \\ \gamma^{(1)} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \chi^{(2)} \\ \gamma^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} \chi^{(n)} \\ \gamma^{(n)} \end{pmatrix},$$

all drawn from the same distribution, i.e.:

$$P(X^{(k)} = i; Y^{(k)} = j) = p_{ij}, \text{ for all } i \in [r], j \in [c], k \in [n].$$

Joint probability matrix $p = (p_{ij})$ is an *unknown* element of the (rc-1)-dimensional *probability simplex*,

$$\Delta_{\mathit{rc}-1} = \bigg\{ q \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathit{r} \times \mathit{c}}: \ \mathit{q_{ij}} \geq 0, \ \mathsf{for \ all} \ \mathit{i,j}, \ \mathsf{and} \ \sum_{i=1}^{\mathit{r}} \sum_{j=1}^{\mathit{c}} \mathit{q_{ij}} = 1 \bigg\}.$$

Definitions

A statistical model \mathcal{M} is a subset of Δ_{rc-1} . It represents the set of all candidates for the unknown distribution p. The *independence model* for X and Y is the set

$$\mathcal{M}_{X \perp \! \! \perp Y} := \{ p \in \Delta_{rc-1} : \operatorname{rank}(p) = 1 \}.$$

 $\mathcal{M}_{X \perp \! \! \! \perp Y}$ is the intersection of Δ_{rc-1} and the set of all matrices $p=(p_{ij})$ such that

$$p_{ij}p_{kl} - p_{il}p_{jk} = 0$$
, for all $1 \le i < k \le r$, and $1 \le j < l \le c$.

These are examples of Segre varieties in algebraic geometry.

Foray Into Algebraic Geometry

Projective Space

Playing field is *n*-dimensional projective space, \mathbb{P}^n :

$$\mathbb{P}^n := \{(z_0, \dots, z_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n\} / (\mathbf{x} \sim \lambda \cdot \mathbf{y}), \quad \lambda \neq 0,$$

that is, its elements consists of *lines through the origin* in \mathbb{C}^n .

TODO: FIGURE

3. Classical Algebraic Geometry

Varieties

Varieties are the geometric studied in algebraic geometry, and are the vanishing sets¹ for a system of polynomials.

TODO: FIGURES

¹from 'Verschwindungsmenge'

3. Classical Algebraic Geometry

Segre Varieties

Segre varieties come from $\sigma: \mathbb{P}^n \times \mathbb{P}^m \to \mathbb{P}^{(n+1)(m+1)-1}$, that sends ([X], [Y]) to the pairwise products of their components:

$$\sigma:([X_1,\ldots,X_{n+1}],[Y_1,\ldots,Y_{m+1}])\mapsto [\ldots,X_iY_j,\ldots],$$

Example

$$\sigma: \mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1 \to \mathbb{P}^3, \ ([X_1, X_2], [Y_1, Y_2]) \mapsto [X_1 Y_1, X_1 Y_2, X_2 Y_1, X_2 Y_2].$$

Set
$$[X_1Y_1, X_1Y_2, X_2Y_1, X_2Y_2] = [p_{11}, p_{12}, p_{21}, p_{22}],$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \det \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} \end{pmatrix} = 0 \iff \operatorname{rank} \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} \end{pmatrix} \le 1.$$

Rulings

 $\sigma(\mathbb{P}^1 \times \mathbb{P}^1) = \{[p_{11}, p_{12}; p_{21}, p_{22}] : \det(p_{ij}) = 0\}$ is an example of a *determinantal variety*.

This example has two families of lines inside of it; the images of $\sigma([p_{11}, p_{12}] \times \{Q\})$ and $\sigma(\{Q\} \times [p_{21}, p_{22}])$, which are called *rulings of the surface*.

Manifold of Independence

Let $\Delta \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ be the tetrahedron with vertices given by the four basis vectors, $A_i = e_i$, and let a general point $p = (p_{ij})$ inside of Δ be represented by

$$p_{ij} = (p_{11}, p_{12}, p_{21}, p_{22}) = \begin{vmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} \end{vmatrix}$$

Fienberg and Gilbert have shown that the two rulings are given by

which is a hyperbolic paraboloid inside of Δ .

► They call this the *manifold of independence*; any point on this surface has independent row and column marginal totals.

3. Classical Algebraic Geometry

TODO: FIGURE.

Hidden Variables

- ▶ Suppose $\mathcal{P} \subset \Delta_{r-1}$ is a model for a random variable X with state space [r].
- ▶ Moreover, assume that there is a *hidden* or *latent* random variable Y with state space [s], and for each $j \in [s]$, the conditional distribution of X given Y = j is $p^{(j)} \in \mathcal{P}$.
- ▶ The hidden variable Y also has some probability distribution $\pi \in \Delta_{s-1}$.

So the joint distribution of *Y* and *X* is given by the formula

$$P(Y=j;X=i)=\pi_j\cdot p_i^{(j)}.$$

Mixture Models

▶ But as *Y* is hidden, we can only observe the marginal distribution of *X*, that is

$$P(X=i) = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \pi_j \cdot p_i^{(j)}.$$

In other words, the marginal distribution of X is the convex combination of the s distributions $p^{(1)}, \ldots, p^{(s)}$, with weights given by π .

Definition

Let $\mathcal{P} \subset \Delta_{r-1}$ be a statistical model. The *s-th mixture model* is

$$\operatorname{Mixt}^s(\mathcal{P}) := \bigg\{ \sum_{j=1}^s \pi_j \cdot p^{(j)} : \pi \in \Delta_{s-1}, \ p^{(j)} \in \mathcal{P}, \ \text{for all } j \bigg\}.$$

Mixture Models

- Mixture models provide ways to build complex models out of simpler ones.
- ▶ Basic assumption is that the underlying population to be modelled can be split into *s* disjoint sub-populations.
- Restricted to each sub-population, the observable X follows a probability distribution from the simple model P.
- ► After marginalisation though, the structure becomes significantly more complex as it is now a convex combination of these simple distributions.

4. Mixture Models & Secant Varieties

Phylogenetic Trees

► Introduce *phylogenetic trees*; describe the descent of species from a common ancestor:

Example Cartoon

Molecular Phylogenetics

- Sequence of DNA molecules in a genome is represented as a sequence of letters from the four letter alphabet Σ = {A, C, G, T}.
- At a particular site of the genome, any of the four nucleotides $X \in \Sigma$, say, might be observed.
- Based on a particular ancestral nucleotide of X, might expect evolution to occur in a way that the state of the current nucleotide is independent of one another:

$$A \mapsto X$$
, $C \mapsto X$, $G \mapsto X$, or $T \mapsto X$.

So for each ancestral nucleotide, we have an independence model; its distribution is determined by a point of $\Delta_3 = \Delta_{4-1}$.

Example

- X is a hidden variable though; could have been any one of A, C, G, or T.
- ▶ For *exactly one choice* of X, we had the distribution Δ_3 ; need to consider *all choices* of ancestral nucleotide.
- ▶ Hence we get the mixture model: $Mixt^4(\Delta_3) =$

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{4} \operatorname{Prob}(X=i) \cdot \lambda_{i} : i \in \Sigma, \ \lambda_{i} \in [0,1], \ \lambda_{1} + \ldots + \lambda_{4} = 1 \right\}.$$

▶ **Q**?: What is the analogue for mixture models in algebraic statistics?

Secant Varieties

► A!: Secant² varieties!

Definitions

► Consider two varieties $V, W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$. The *join* of V and W is the variety

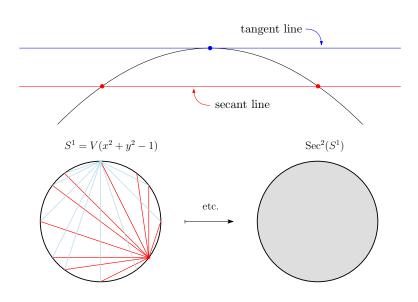
$$\mathcal{J}(\mathit{V},\mathit{W}) := \{\lambda\mathit{v} + (1-\lambda)\mathit{w} : \mathit{v} \in \mathit{v}, \mathit{w} \in \mathit{W}, \lambda \in [0,1]\}.$$

▶ If V = W, then this is the *secant variety* of V, denoted $Sec^2(V) = \mathcal{J}(V, V)$. The *s-th higher secant variety* is:

$$\operatorname{Sec}^{1}(V) := V, \qquad \operatorname{Sec}^{s}(V) := \mathcal{J}(\operatorname{Sec}^{s-1}(V), V).$$

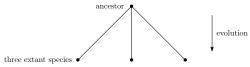
²from secare, "to cut" in Latin; c.f. tangō, "to touch".

Secant Varieties



More Complicated Phylogenetic Trees

- ► Last example only had one extant species; $X \stackrel{?}{\longmapsto} A, C, G, T$.
- What if we had three extant species, coming from one ancestor?



- Now we have to consider: $Sec^4(\mathbb{P}^3 \times \mathbb{P}^3 \times \mathbb{P}^3)$; or equivalently $Mixt^4(\Delta_3 \times \Delta_3 \times \Delta_3)$.
- Finding the minimal set of polynomials defining $\operatorname{Sec}^4(\mathbb{P}^3 \times \mathbb{P}^3 \times \mathbb{P}^3)$ once gave rise to a very important application of algebraic statistics...

4. Mixture Models & Secant Varieties

The Salmon Problem

Statement

Determine the ideal³ defining $Sec^4(\mathbb{P}^3 \times \mathbb{P}^3 \times \mathbb{P}^3)$.

Prize

Personally caught, and smoked just for you, copper river salmon from Alaska.

Current Status

Solved.

- At an IMA workshop in 2007, Elizabeth Allman offered this prize to whomever solved the above problem.
- ▶ It was solved in 2010 by Shmuel Friedland.

³"set of defining polynomials".