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Bayesian inference of polynomials

The following example will be discussed as a computer exercise in the lab course.

Suppose, a detector reports time ordered and independent measurements d_i recorded at times t_i . Every datum has a Gaussian uncertainty of variance σ_i^2 . We are interested in finding a time-varying signal

$$s(t_i) = s_i = \sum_{l=0}^M \alpha_l t_i^l \quad (11.1)$$

which is a polynomial of unknown order M and coefficients α_l . You may assume that you have prior knowledge on the coefficients α_l specified by a mean μ_l^α and uncertainty $(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2$.

The likelihood distribution of the data given the unknown polynomial coefficients for a model of order M can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(d_0, \dots, d_N | \alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_M, M) &= \pi(\{d_i\} | \{\alpha_l\}) \\ &= \prod_i \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(d_i - \sum_l \alpha_l t_i^l)^2}{\sigma_i^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{(d_i - \sum_l \alpha_l t_i^l)^2}{\sigma_i^2}}}{\prod_i \sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}} \end{aligned} \quad (11.2)$$

We may also have a priori knowledge on the mean μ_l^α and variance $(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2$ of the polynomial coefficients α . The maximum entropy prior is then given

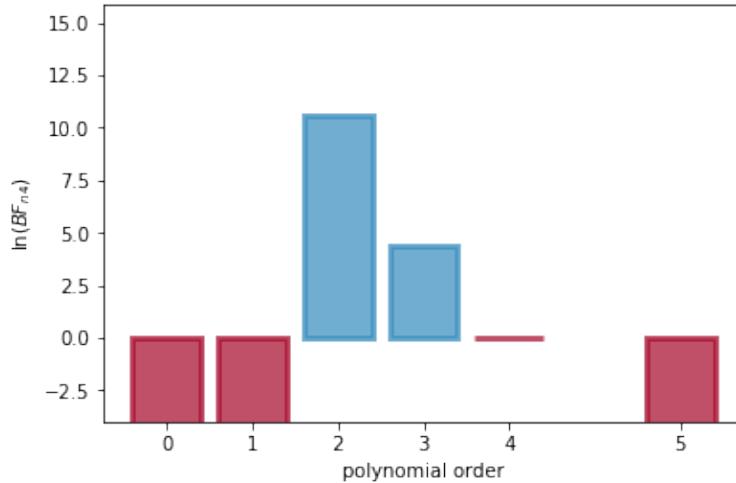


Figure 11.1: The plot shows the comparison of Bayes factors for 6 models of different polynomial order. The model with polynomial order $M = 2$ provides the optimal explanation of observed data.

by a multivariate normal distribution:

$$\pi(\{\alpha_l|M\}) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_l \frac{(\alpha_l - \mu_l^\alpha)^2}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}}}{\prod_l \sqrt{2\pi (\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}} \quad (11.3)$$

In order to compare models of different polynomial orders we need to estimate the evidence, which, in the following, will be derived from the joint distribution of data and polynomial coefficients:

$$\pi(\{\alpha_l|M\}) \pi(\{d_i\}|\{\alpha_l\}, M) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_l \frac{(\alpha_l - \mu_l^\alpha)^2}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}}}{\prod_l \sqrt{2\pi (\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{(d_i - \sum_l \alpha_l t_i^l)^2}{\sigma_i^2}}}{\prod_i \sqrt{2\pi \sigma_i^2}} \quad (11.4)$$

The logarithm of the joint distribution is given as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ln(\pi(\{\alpha_l|M\})\pi(\{d_i\}|\{\alpha_l\},M)) &= -\frac{1}{2}\sum_l \frac{(\alpha_l - \mu_l^\alpha)^2}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2} - \frac{1}{2}\sum_i \frac{(d_i - \sum_l \alpha_l t_i^l)^2}{\sigma_i^2} \\
 &\quad - \frac{1}{2}\sum_l \ln((\sigma_l^\alpha)^2) - \frac{1}{2}\sum_i \ln(\sigma_i^2) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \left[\sum_l \sum_m \alpha_l \left(\sum_i \frac{t_i^l t_i^m}{\sigma_i^2} + \frac{\delta_{lm}^K}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2} \right) \alpha_m \right. \\
 &\quad - 2 \sum_l \alpha_l \left(\frac{\mu_l^\alpha}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2} + \sum_i \frac{t_i^l d_i}{\sigma_i^2} \right) \\
 &\quad + \sum_l \frac{(\mu_l^\alpha)^2}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2} + \sum_l \ln((\sigma_l^\alpha)^2) \\
 &\quad \left. + \sum_i \frac{d_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} + \sum_i \ln(\sigma_i^2) \right],
 \end{aligned} \tag{11.5}$$

which can be simplified by introducing the inverse posterior covariance matrix:

$$(D_{lm}^P)^{-1} = \frac{\delta_{lm}^K}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2} + \sum_i \frac{t_i^l t_i^m}{\sigma_i^2} \tag{11.6}$$

where δ_{lm}^K is the Kronecker Delta. Furthermore let:

$$A_l = \frac{\mu_l^\alpha}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2} + \sum_i \frac{t_i^l d_i}{\sigma_i^2}, \tag{11.7}$$

Then the posterior mean can be expressed as:

$$\mu_l^P = \sum_m D_{lm}^P A_m, \tag{11.8}$$

which amounts to solving a linear system of equations. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(\pi(\{\alpha_l|M\})\pi(\{d_i\}|\{\alpha_l\},M)) &= -\frac{1}{2} \left[\sum_{lm} (\alpha_l - \mu_l^P) (D_{lm}^P)^{-1} (\alpha_m - \mu_m^P) \right. \\ &\quad - \sum_{lm} (\mu_l^P) (D_{lm}^P)^{-1} (\mu_m^P) \\ &\quad + \sum_l \frac{(\mu_l^\alpha)^2}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2} + \sum_l \ln((\sigma_l^\alpha)^2) \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_i \frac{d_i^2}{\sigma_i^2} + \sum_i \ln(\sigma_i^2) \right], \end{aligned} \quad (11.9)$$

By exponentiating the logarithm we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\{\alpha_l|M\})\pi(\{d_i\}|\{\alpha_l\},M) &= e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{lm}(\alpha_l-\mu_l^P)(D_{lm}^P)^{-1}(\alpha_m-\mu_m^P)} \\ &\quad \times e^{\frac{1}{2}\sum_{lm}(\mu_l^P)(D_{lm}^P)^{-1}(\mu_m^P)} \\ &\quad \times \prod_l \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(\mu_l^\alpha)^2}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}} \\ &\quad \times \prod_i \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{d_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}} \end{aligned} \quad (11.10)$$

The evidence can then be obtained by marginalizing over the polynomial

coefficients $\{\alpha_l\}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi(\{d_i\}|M) &= \int d\{\alpha_l\} \pi(\{\alpha_l|M\}) \pi(\{d_i\}|\{\alpha_l\}, M) \\
 &= \sqrt{\det(2\pi D^P)} \\
 &\quad \times e^{\frac{1}{2}\sum_{lm}(\mu_l^P)(D_{lm}^P)^{-1}(\mu_m^P)} \\
 &\quad \times \prod_l \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(\mu_l^\alpha)^2}{(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi(\sigma_l^\alpha)^2}} \\
 &\quad \times \prod_i \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{d_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}}
 \end{aligned} \tag{11.11}$$

The posterior distribution then yields a simple multivariate normal distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi(\{\alpha_l\}|\{d_i\}, M) &= \pi(\{\alpha_l|M\}) \frac{\pi(\{d_i\}|\{\alpha_l\}, M)}{\pi(\{d_i\}|M)} \\
 &\quad \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{lm}(\alpha_l-\mu_l^P)(D_{lm}^P)^{-1}(\alpha_m-\mu_m^P)}}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi D^P)}}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{11.12}$$

This Gaussian posterior is completely determined by the posterior mean μ_m^P of eq 11.8 and covariance matrix D_{lm}^P 11.6. In particular the mean μ_m^P corresponds to the Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) estimate for the coefficients α_l . A simple posterior prediction for the time dependent signal can then be obtained by using the polynomial equation:

$$s(t) = \sum_m \mu_m^P t^m. \tag{11.13}$$

For an illustration of posterior predicted results see Fig. 5.4 for analysis of six models of different polynomial order M .

Models of different polynomial order, e.g. $M = 2$ and $M = 4$ can then be selected by evaluating the Bayes factor:

$$BF_{24} = \frac{\pi(\{d_i\}|M=2)}{\pi(\{d_i\}|M=4)} \tag{11.14}$$

where $\pi(\{d_i\}|M=m)$ is given by eq 11.11, the evidence for a model of polynomial order m . For an illustration of Bayes factors for models of different polynomial order see Fig. 11.1.

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A running example

For the sake of the lecture, and to contrast Bayesian from Frequentists results we will design a small standard example. In an experiment N independent measurements d_i have been taken. We assume the following data model:

$$d_i = x + \epsilon_i, \quad (12.1)$$

where x is the target or signal and ϵ_i is a normally distributed zero-mean normal noise contribution with variance σ_n^2 .

The corresponding likelihood distribution for N independent measurements is:

$$\pi(d|x, \sigma_n^2) = \prod_{i=0}^N \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-d_i)^2}{\sigma_n^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_n^2}} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N \frac{(x-d_i)^2}{\sigma_n^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma_n^2)^{N/2}} \quad (12.2)$$

For various a priori arguments (e.g. x could indicate a physical mass) we will assume in our case that $x \in [0, \infty]$. In Bayesian statistics, these prior assumptions are made explicit by formulating a corresponding prior distribution $\pi(x)$. In our case the corresponding prior would be the Heaviside function:

$$\Theta(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In a Bayesian context, the combination of the likelihood and the prior

gives the posterior distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x|d, \sigma_n^2) &= \pi(x) \frac{\pi(d|x, \sigma_n^2)}{\pi(d)} \\ &\propto \Theta(x) \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^N \frac{(x-d_i)^2}{\sigma_n^2}}}{(2\pi\sigma_n^2)^{N/2}} \\ &\propto \Theta(x) \frac{e^{-\frac{N}{2\sigma_n^2} \left(x - \frac{\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{N} \right)^2}}{(2\pi\sigma_n^2)^{N/2}}\end{aligned}\quad (12.3)$$

where we used simple algebraic transformations and we ignored several constant factors. The product of Heaviside function and Gaussian likelihood yields a truncated normal distribution. Let:

$$\Phi(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}} \right) \right] \quad (12.4)$$

be the cumulative probability function of a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

The properly normalized posterior distribution is then given by:

$$\pi(x|d, \sigma_n^2) = \Theta(x) \frac{e^{-\frac{N}{2\sigma_n^2} \left(x - \frac{\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{N} \right)^2}}{\frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{-\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{\sqrt{2N\sigma_n^2}} \right) \right]} \quad (12.5)$$

12.0.1 Statistical Summaries for the running model

In Bayesian statistics, we do not report estimators, but we attempt to summarize the posterior distributions via a number of statistical summaries. This is because in Bayesian statistics we do not assume the parameter x to be fixed but to be a random variate. A random variate can only be fully described when reporting its probability distribution. Whether or not a few statistical summaries are sufficient to capture all details of the distribution has to be decided on a case by case basis. Correspondingly care has to be taken, when interpreting the random variate x based only on a finite number of possibly insufficient statistical summaries.

For the truncated Gaussian distribution we will report a few statistical summaries in the following:

1. Mode a.k.a the Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) value:

$$x_{\text{MAP}} = \begin{cases} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{N}, & \text{if } \frac{\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{N} \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note, that x_{MAP} is an "unbiased estimator" in the Frequentist sense, i.e. it converges to the correct results in the large sample limit if $x \in [0, \infty]$.

2. Mean:

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{N} + \frac{e^{-\frac{N}{2\sigma_n^2} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{N} \right)^2}}{\frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \text{erf} \left(\frac{-\sum_{i=0}^N d_i}{\sqrt{2N\sigma_n^2}} \right) \right]} \frac{\sigma_n}{\sqrt{N}} \quad (12.6)$$

Now, the mean is not an "unbiased estimator" in the Frequentist sense, since the second term will always introduce a slight bias. In particular, the second term will decay slower as the first term due to the $1/\sqrt{N}$ dependence that is why the bias term will always contribute.