Model Fitting

I have data.

I have a model.*

I want to learn about my parameters of my model (and/or physics) based on my data.

* often based on physics

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

D = Data
Theta = Model parameters

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Probability of Theta conditioned on (or given) on Data "Posterior Probability Distribution Function" aka "The Posterior"

D = Data
Theta = Model parameters

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

Probability of Data conditioned on (or given) Theta
"Likelihood Function" or "Data Model"
aka
"The Likelihood"

D = Data
Theta = Model parameters

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

Marginal or Prior Probability(ies) for Theta aka

"The Prior(s)"

D = Data
Theta = Model parameters

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

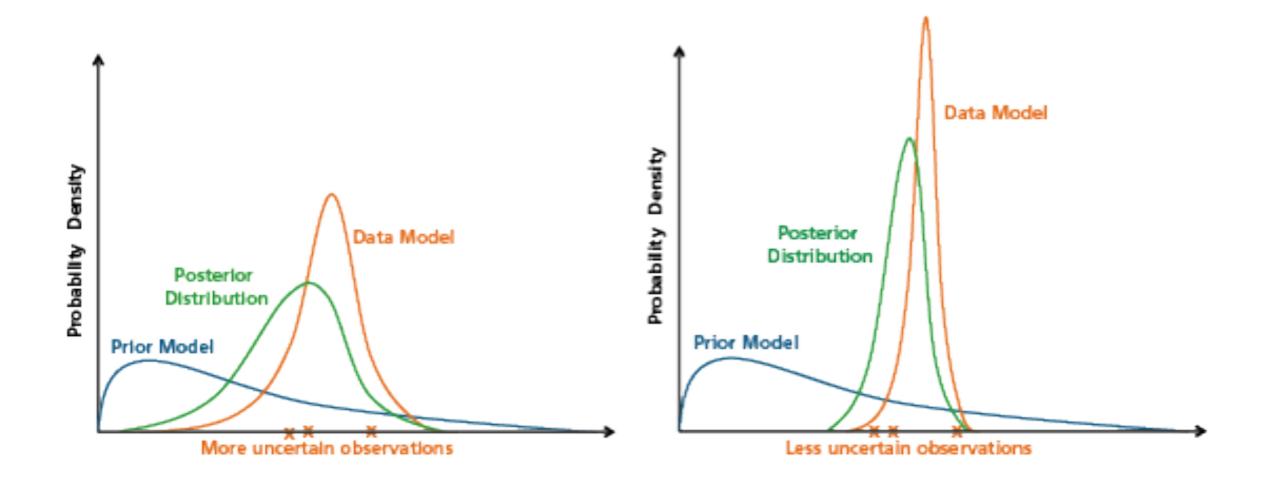
Probability of the Data or "The Evidence"

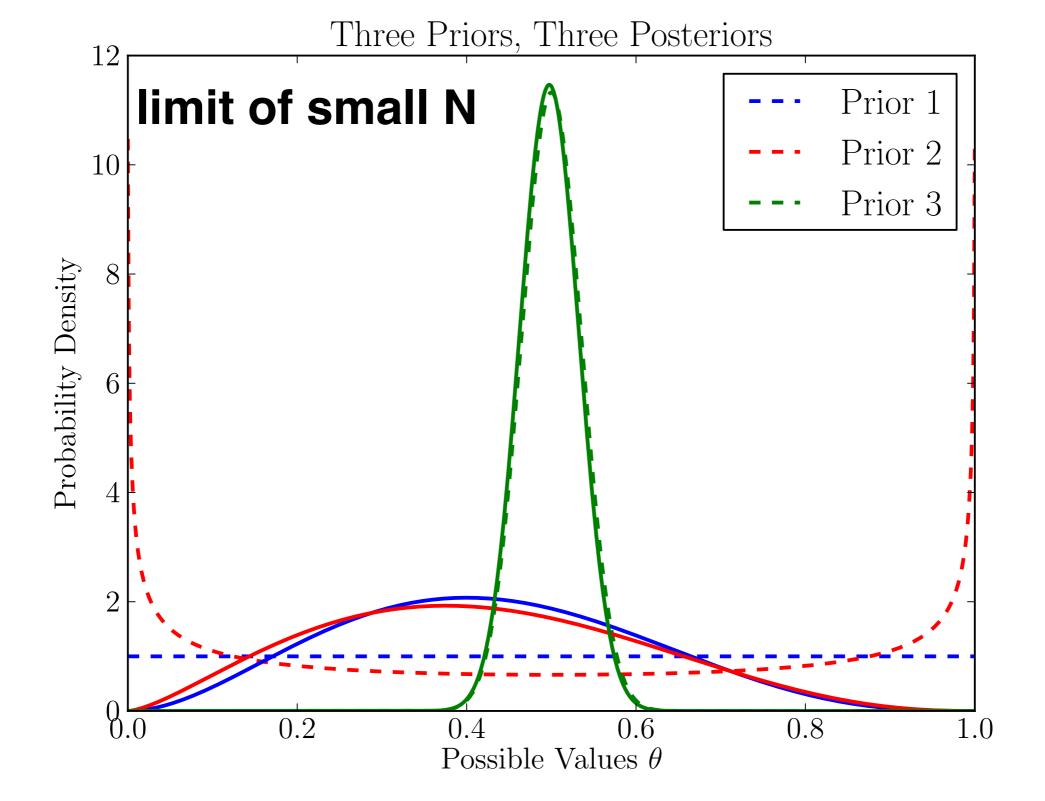
$$P(heta|D) = rac{P(D| heta)P(heta)}{P(D)}$$
 Posterior Evidence

D = Data
Theta = Model parameters

Updating Beliefs: Graphically

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

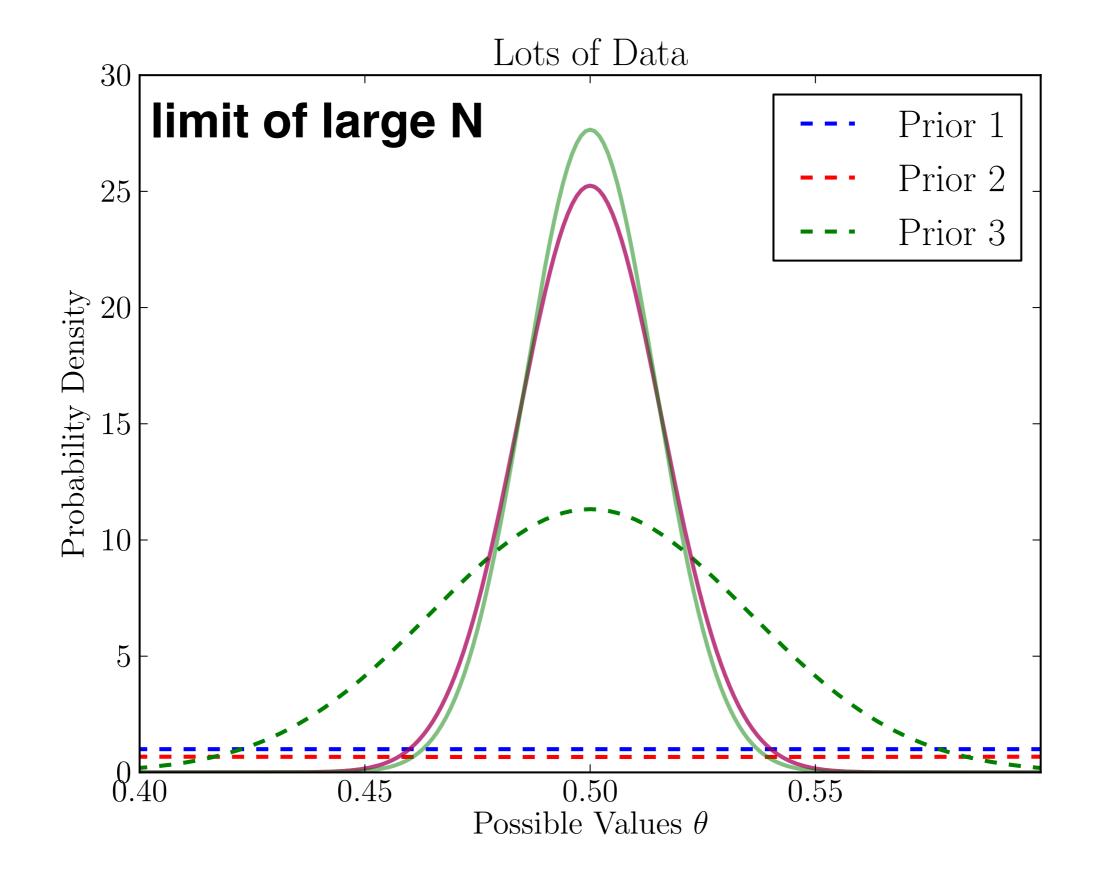




prior 1: "flat prior", "prior ignorance", "uninformative prior" ("improper")

prior 2: emphasizing the extremes ("informative prior")

prior 3: good prior knowledge ("informative prior")



Data analysis recipes: Fitting a model to data*

David W. Hogg

Center for Cosmology and Particle Physics, Department of Physics, New York University Max-Planck-Institut für Astronomie, Heidelberg

Jo Bovy

Center for Cosmology and Particle Physics, Department of Physics, New York University

Dustin Lang

Department of Computer Science, University of Toronto Princeton University Observatory

Abstract

We go through the many considerations involved in fitting a model to data, using as an example the fit of a straight line to a set of points in a two-dimensional plane. Standard weighted least-squares fitting is only appropriate when there is a dimension along which the data points have negligible uncertainties, and another along which all the uncertainties can be described by Gaussians of known variance; these conditions are rarely met in practice. We consider cases of general, heterogeneous, and arbitrarily covariant two-dimensional uncertainties, and situations in which there are bad data (large outliers), unknown uncertainties, and unknown but expected intrinsic scatter in the linear relationship being fit. Above all we emphasize the importance of having a "generative model" for the data, even an approximate one. Once there is a generative model, the subsequent fitting is non-arbitrary because the model permits direct computation of the likelihood of the parameters or the posterior probability distribution. Construction of a posterior probability distribution is indispensible if there are "nuisance parameters" to marginalize away.

It is conventional to begin any scientific document with an introduction that explains why the subject matter is important. Let us break with tradition and observe that in almost all cases in which scientists fit a straight line to their data, they are doing something that is simultaneously *wrong* and *unnecessary*. It is wrong because circumstances in which a set of two

^{*}The notes begin on page 39, including the license¹ and the acknowledgements².

"All models are wrong, but some are useful."

~ George Box, 1978

Well-known example

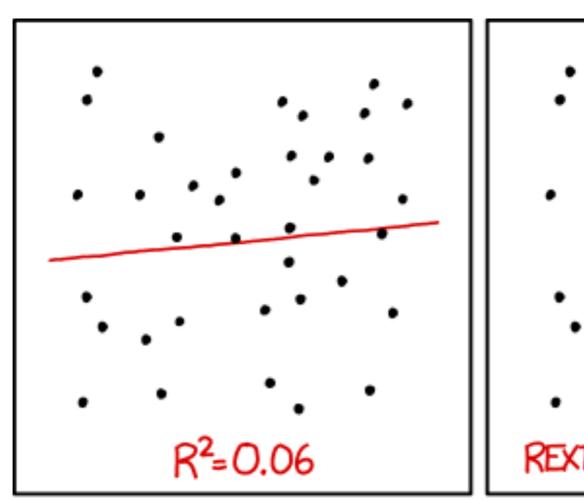
$$PV = nkT$$

Well-known example

$$y = mx + b$$

"A model is a simplification or approximation of reality and hence will not reflect all of reality. ...

Box noted that "all models are wrong, but some are useful." While a model can never be "truth," a model might be ranked from very useful, to useful, to somewhat useful to, finally, essentially useless."





I DON'T TRUST LINEAR REGRESSIONS WHEN IT'S HARDER TO GUESS THE DIRECTION OF THE CORRELATION FROM THE SCATTER PLOT THAN TO FIND NEW CONSTELLATIONS ON IT.

Given a model, what can we learn about its parameters

e.g.,
$$y = mx + b$$

"Model Selection"

Given multiple models, can we decide which one better represents the data

$$y = mx + b$$

VS.

$$y = b + mx + nx^2 + px^3$$

We can compute the posterior up to a normalization constant:

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

This constant, **Z**, is the evidence:

$$Z = P(D) = \int P(D|\theta) P(\theta) d\theta$$

Usually done in (natural) log-probability space.

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{1}{Z}P(D|\theta) P(\theta) \longrightarrow$$

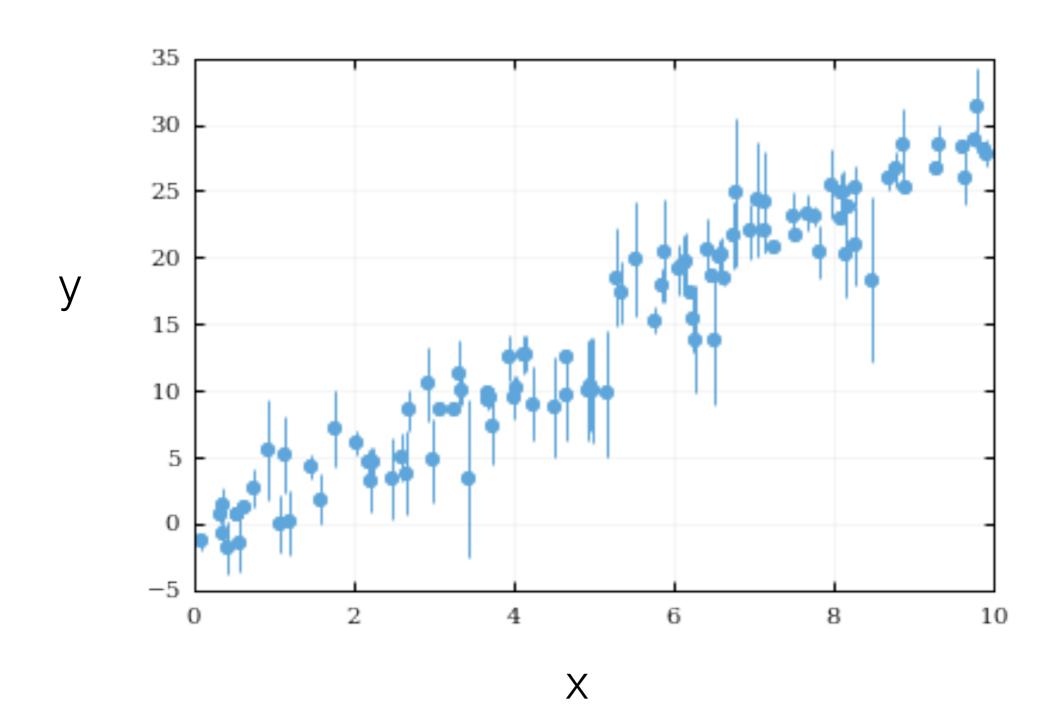
$$\ln P(\theta|D) = \ln P(D|\theta) + \ln P(\theta) + \ln(\frac{1}{Z})$$

"In P"

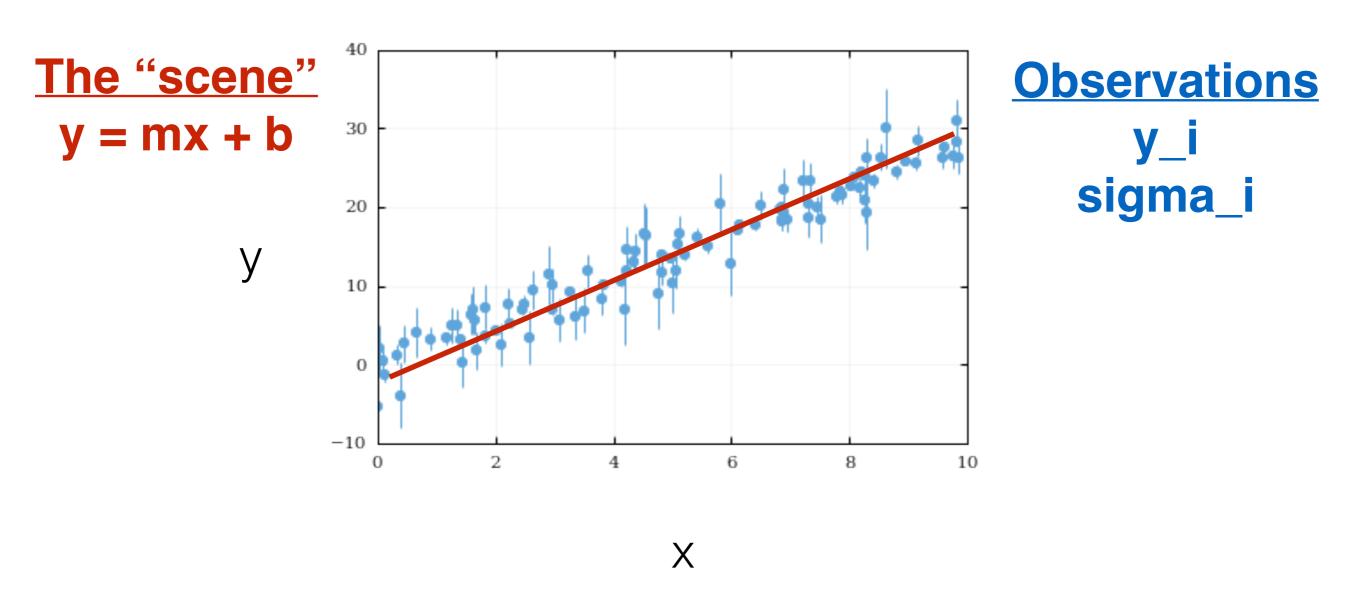
"In like" "In Prior" "log-likelihood" "Prior"

just a constant, don't need to compute

"Parameter Estimation": fitting a line to noisy data



Graphically



find values of **m** and **b**, given data (i.e., **y** and **sigma**)

Define Likelihood Function

Assume Gaussian error distribution for data, yields: χ^2

$$P(D|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi\sigma^2)}} e^{\frac{-(y-\bar{y})^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

the data (or observations)

$$y = set of data points ("D")$$

$$\sigma = uncertainties$$

the model

$$\bar{y} = mx + b$$

$$\theta = (m, b)$$

Define Likelihood Function

Assume Gaussian error distribution for data, yields: χ^2

$$P(D|\theta) = \prod_{i}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi\sigma_{i}^{2})}} e^{\frac{-(y_{i} - \bar{y_{i}})^{2}}{2\sigma_{i}^{2}}}$$

assume data are drawn "identically and independently" (iid)

the data (or observations)

 $y_i = ith \, data \, point$

 $\sigma_i = uncertainty on ith data point$

the model

$$\bar{y_i} = mx_i + b_i$$

$$\theta = (m, b)$$

Define Likelihood Function

$$P(D|\theta) = \prod_{i}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi\sigma_{i}^{2})}} e^{\frac{-(y_{i} - \bar{y_{i}})^{2}}{2\sigma_{i}^{2}}}$$

write as log-likelihood

$$\ln P(D|\theta) = -0.5 \sum_{i}^{N} \left(\frac{(y_i - \bar{y_i^2})}{\sigma_i^2} + \ln(2\pi\sigma_i^2) \right)$$

How do we actually get the values for m and b?

$$\ln P(\theta|D) = \ln P(D|\theta) + \ln P(\theta) + \ln(\frac{1}{Z})$$

How do we actually get the values for m and b?

- 1. Solve the problem exactly.
- 2. Compute P(x) at gridded values of x.
- 3. Optimize.
- 4. Sample.

MCMC is a general purpose technique for generating fair samples from a probability distribution.

The resulting density of samples is proportional to the underlying probability distribution

You get marginalization for free

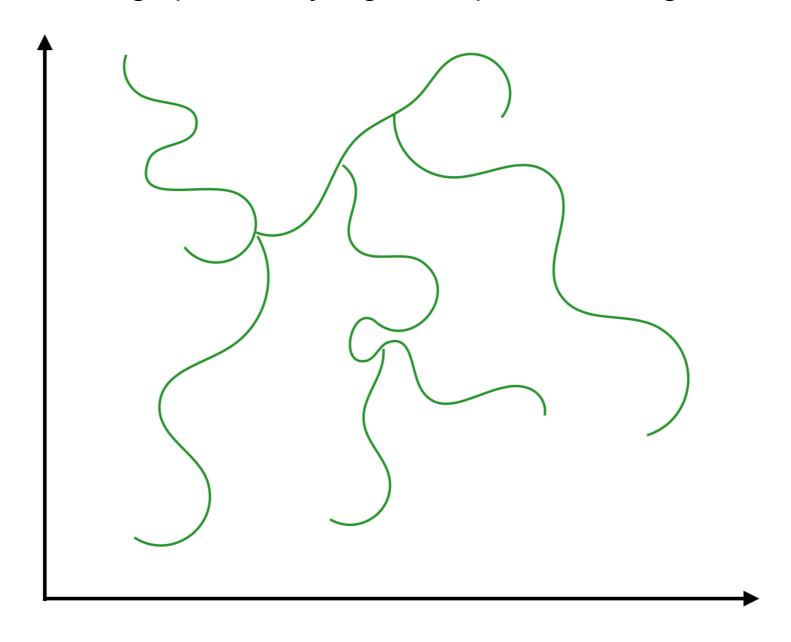
Goal is to determine the form of:

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

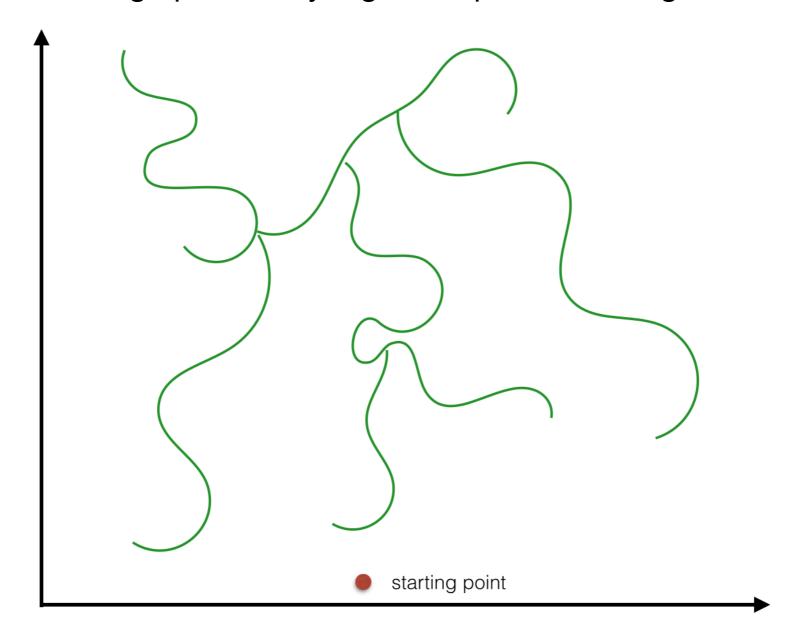
In low dimensions, this can be done efficiency in many ways

In high dimensions, it gets more complicated.

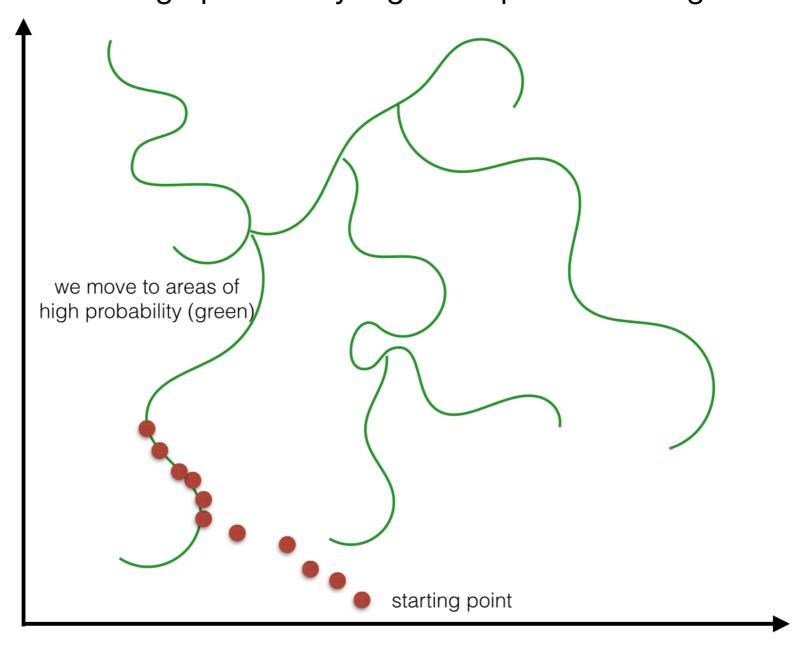
Imagine we have some complicated function
With high probability regions represented in green.



Imagine we have some complicated function
With high probability regions represented in green.



Imagine we have some complicated function
With high probability regions represented in green.



Markov chain — where we go next only depends on the previous state (Markov)

Monte Carlo — simulating the data

Metropolis MCMC Sampling

Metropolis Algorithm (1953)

- **1** Choose a starting point, θ^0 .
- 2 For t = 1, 2, ...:
 - (a) Sample a proposal θ^* from a proposal (jumping) distribution, $J_t(\theta^*|\theta^{t-1})$.

The proposal distribution must be symmetric for the Metropolis algorithm, with $J_t(\theta_a|\theta_b) = J_t(\theta_b|\theta_a) \ \forall \ \theta_a, \theta_b, t$

(b) Calculate the ratio of the posteriors,

$$r = rac{oldsymbol{p}(heta^*|\mathbf{x})}{oldsymbol{p}(heta^{t-1}|\mathbf{x})}$$

(c) Set the next point in the Markov chain to

$$heta^t = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} heta^* & ext{with probability min}(r,1) \ heta^{t-1} & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

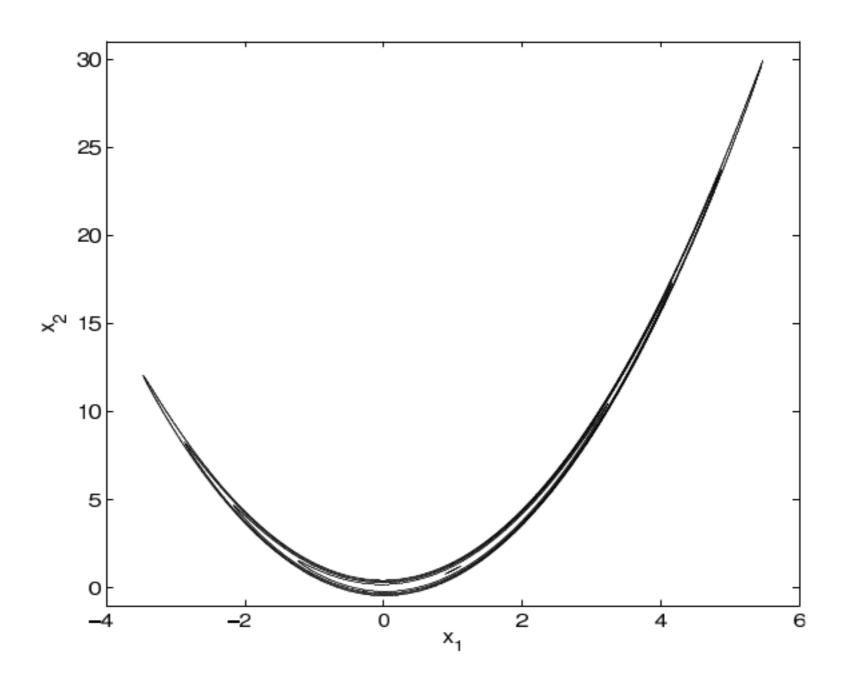
- ▶ We always accept proposals for which $p(\theta^*|\mathbf{x}) \ge p(\theta^{t-1}|\mathbf{x})$
- ▶ We sometimes accept proposals for which $p(\theta^*|\mathbf{x}) < p(\theta^{t-1}|\mathbf{x})$
- So the MCMC does not always go uphill, and is thus does not get stuck in local minima (MCMC techniques are useful for optimization)

Metropolis MCMC Sampling Visual

https://chi-feng.github.io/mcmc-demo/

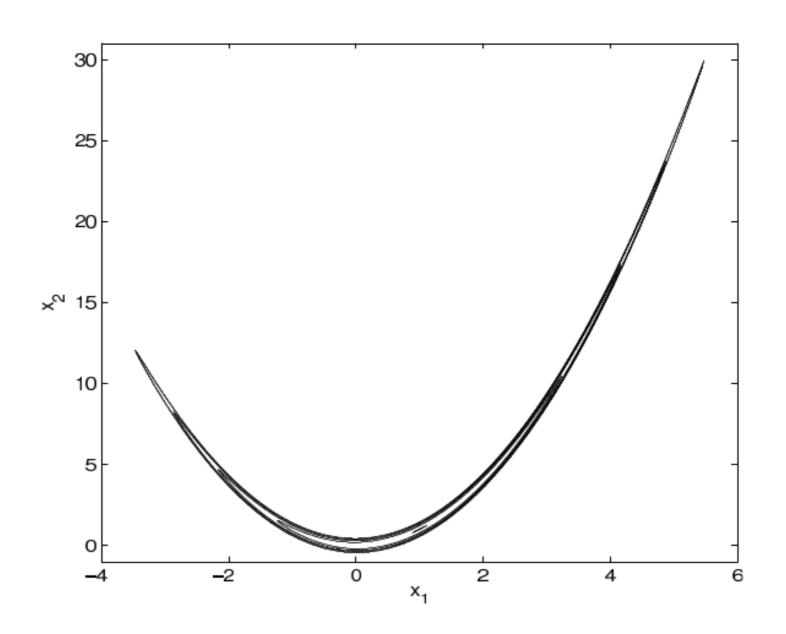
Challenge for M-H sampler: Rosenbrock

$$p(X) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{100(X_2 - X_1^2)^2 + (1 - X_1)^2}{20}\right)$$



Challenge for M-H sampler: Rosenbrock

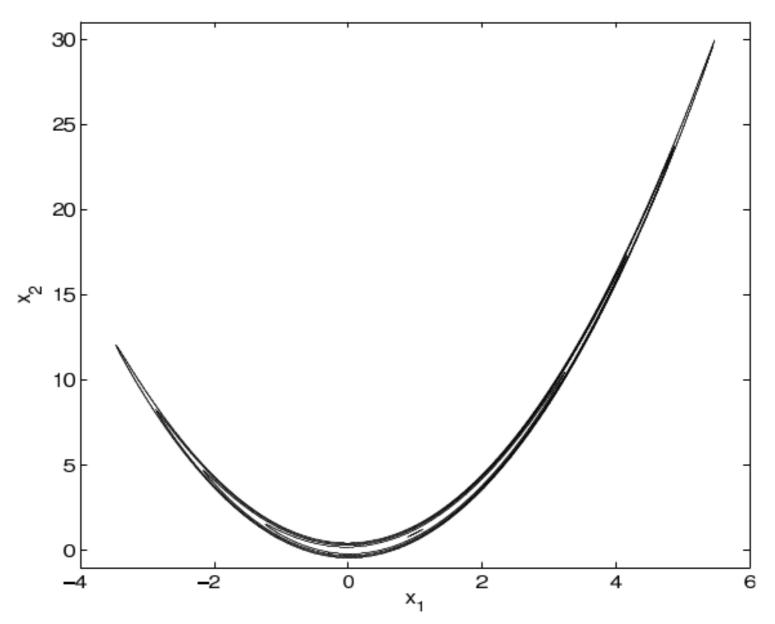
M-H sampler is inefficient Proposal distribution is Gaussian (for example) Sampling distribution is clearly non-Gaussian



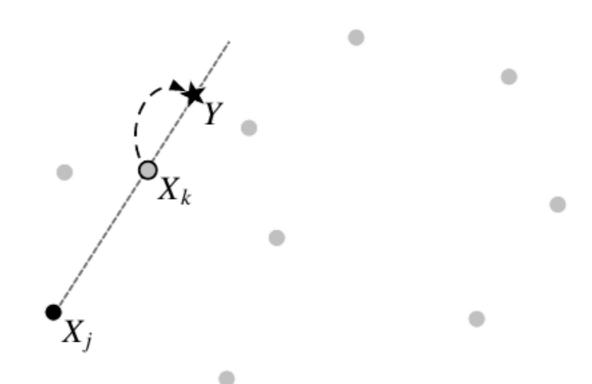
https://chi-feng.github.io/mcmc-demo/

Affine Invariant MCMC Sampling

- Affine transformation is a linear mapping method that preserves points, straight lines, and planes.
- Sets of parallel lines remain parallel after an affine transformation.
- The affine transformation technique is typically used to correct for geometric distortions.



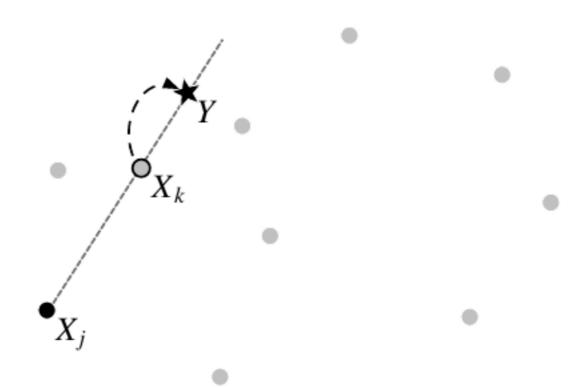
Affine Invariant MCMC Sampling



- Ensemble of "walkers"
- Use information from all walkers to choose next step
- Each walker gets a partner
- A walker's next step is a "stretch move" along a line of its partner
- Markov properties satisfied
- Very little computational overhead

Affine Invariant MCMC Sampling

Pure python implementation: emcee



http://dfm.io/emcee/current/

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yow7Ol88DRk