And apologies. Slides are dense to serve as future references...

My Goal

Teach you the concepts, the language and provide the references to start googling and implementing your own analysis code

Resources

<u>videolectures.net</u> (Amazing lectures presented at different levels, from simple to advanced presented...on a poorly designed website).

Simple+ intermediate:

1) Sivia and Skilling, Data Analysis: A Bayesian Introduction, Second edition, 2011.

2) Bishop, Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning, 2006.

Harder:

3) Gelman et al., Bayesian Data Analysis, Third Edition, 2014.

Tailored for Natural Sciences:

I am writing a book on stochastic processes and data analysis. One year to go! Until then, see above.

Resources



As Physical/Biological Scientists & Engineers here is what we...

Learn	Improvise
Chemistry	
Physics	Data Analysis
Biology	Statistics
Biochemistry	

:

There is only one right way to analyze your data

It is normally not possible to analyze your data in this way

Wrong ways should only be used for computational tractability (provided your conclusions are not qualitatively affected by your short-cuts).

It is only possible to see what approximate way is needed once the correct way is written down.

Why should this sound so controversial?

Why should this sound so controversial?

There is only one right way to write down an electrodynamics problem that satisfies Maxwell's equations (and the built-in Lorentz invariance) and boundary conditions

Wrong ways should only be used for computational tractability (provided your conclusions are not qualitatively affected by your short-cuts).

It is only possible to see what approximate way is needed once the correct way is written down.

Outline

Setting up the problem

System models and observation models

Latent variables and graphical models

Likelihoods and EM algorithm

Bayesian methods, priors

Monte Carlo, Metropolis-Hastings

Imagine a coin flip experiment w HTHHHTH and we want to determine the probability of heads and tails

The N outcomes of this experiment are random variables.

$$\mathbf{y}_{1:N} = \{y_1, y_2, \cdots , y_N\} = \{H, T, H, H, H, \cdots\}$$

In other words y_1 is heads with probability p is tails with probability 1-p

To determine the probability of heads/tails, we ask:

What is the likelihood of having observed the sequence of outcomes HTHHHTH?

likelihood =
$$p^5(1-p)^2$$





Step 1) Write down the model.

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

Step 3) Maximize your likelihood to determine the parameters of your model

Steps 1-3 are involved in performing "Maximum Likelihood"

Step 1) Write down the model.



From a single particle track, we want to determine it's diffusion coefficient

Step 1) Write down the model.



Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

$$P(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_N | D)$$

Now data points are vectors/positions in 3D

$$\mathbf{y_i} = \{x_i, y_i, z_i\}$$

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

For coin flip, we had...

$$P(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_N | p) = P(\mathbf{y}_1 | p) P(\mathbf{y}_2 | p) \cdots P(\mathbf{y}_N | p)$$

But that doesn't make sense for diffusion. How can we pick positions at random? Where we land at time t depends on where we just were!

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.



 $P(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2 | D) = P(\mathbf{y}_2 | \mathbf{y}_1, D) P(\mathbf{y}_1)$

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

 $P(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_N | D) = P(\mathbf{y}_N | \mathbf{y}_{N-1}, D) \cdots P(\mathbf{y}_3 | \mathbf{y}_2, D) P(\mathbf{y}_2 | \mathbf{y}_2, D) P(\mathbf{y}_1)$

What are $P(\mathbf{y}_t | \mathbf{y}_{t-\delta t}, D)$?

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

What are $P(\mathbf{y}_t | \mathbf{y}_{t-\delta t}, D)$?

The model tells us (requires solving the PDE):

$$P(\mathbf{y}_t | \mathbf{y}_{t-\delta t}, D) = \frac{1}{(4\pi D\delta t)^{3/2}} e^{-\frac{(\mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{y}_{t-\delta t})^2}{4D\delta t}}$$

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

Now we can write down the full-likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|D) = \frac{1}{(4\pi D\delta t)^{3(N-1)/2}} e^{-\sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_{i-1})^2}{4D\delta t}} p(\mathbf{y}_1)$$

Step 3) Maximize your likelihood to determine the parameters of your model

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|D,\delta t) = -\frac{3(N-1)}{2}\log(4\pi D\delta t) - \sum_{i=2}^{N}\frac{(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_{i-1})^2}{4D\delta t} + \log p(\mathbf{y}_1)$$

Take derivative with respect to D and set to 0

$$-\frac{3(N-1)}{2D} + \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_{i-1})^2}{4D^2 \delta t} = 0$$

Step 3) Maximize your likelihood to determine the parameters of your model

Take derivative with respect to D and set to 0

. .

$$-\frac{3(N-1)}{2D} + \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_{i-1})^2}{4D^2 \delta t} = 0$$
$$6D = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=2}^{N} \frac{(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_{i-1})^2}{\delta t}$$

Graphical Models



Step 1) Write down the model.



Step 1) Write down the model.



Step 1) Write down the model.



Kinetic model

Step 1) Write down the model.



Observation model $\mathbf{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_t, \sigma^2 \sim \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{3/2}} e^{-\frac{(\mathbf{y}_t - \mathbf{x}_t)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$

Step 1) Write down the model.



Assumptions: measurement error in all directions is the same. Diffusion is isotropic, only one diffusion coefficient etc...

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

$$P(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_N | D, \sigma^2)$$

Diffusion w measurement noise



Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

$$(\mathbf{x}_1) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{x}_2) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{x}_3) \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow (\mathbf{x}_N)$$

 $P(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_N | D) = P(\mathbf{x}_N | \mathbf{x}_{N-1}, D) \cdots P(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{x}_1, D) P(\mathbf{x}_1)$

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

$$(\mathbf{x}_1) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{x}_2) \longrightarrow (\mathbf{x}_3) \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow (\mathbf{x}_N)$$

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$$P(\mathbf{x}_1) = \delta(\mathbf{x}_1 - 0)$$

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.



 $P(\mathbf{y}_N|\mathbf{x}_N,\sigma^2)P(\mathbf{x}_N|\mathbf{x}_{N-1},D)\cdots P(\mathbf{y}_2|\mathbf{x}_2,\sigma^2)P(\mathbf{x}_2|\mathbf{x}_1,D)P(\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{x}_1,\sigma^2)P(\mathbf{x}_1)$

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.



 $P(\mathbf{x}_1,\cdots,\mathbf{x}_N,\mathbf{y}_1,\cdots,\mathbf{y}_N|D,\sigma^2) =$

 $P(\mathbf{y}_N|\mathbf{x}_N,\sigma^2)P(\mathbf{x}_N|\mathbf{x}_{N-1},D)\cdots P(\mathbf{y}_2|\mathbf{x}_2,\sigma^2)P(\mathbf{x}_2|\mathbf{x}_1,D)P(\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{x}_1,\sigma^2)P(\mathbf{x}_1)$

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.

Complete-data likelihood

$$P(\mathbf{x}_1,\cdots,\mathbf{x}_N,\mathbf{y}_1,\cdots,\mathbf{y}_N|D,\sigma^2)$$

Incomplete-data likelihood

 $P(\mathbf{y}_1,\cdots,\mathbf{y}_N|D,\sigma^2)$
Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model.



We marginalize over the complete-data likelihood to get the incomplete-data likelihood

Step 3) Maximize your likelihood to determine the parameters of your model

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma^2} \log P(\mathbf{y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_N, | D, \sigma^2) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial D} \log P(\mathbf{y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_N, | D, \sigma^2) = 0$$

Step 3) Maximize your likelihood to determine the parameters of your model

For 1 data point...

$$6D = \frac{(\mathbf{y}_2 - \mathbf{y}_1)^2}{\delta t} - \frac{5\sigma^2}{\delta t}$$

true for small σ^2



Intuitively this makes sense. If measurement noise is large, we overestimate diffusion coefficient and have to correct for the fact that the true diffusion coefficient appears artificially large.



kinetics

In general calculating the incomplete-data likelihood is very difficult

 $\int d\mathbf{x}_{1:N} P(\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{y}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{y}_N | D, \sigma^2)$

In general calculating the incomplete-data likelihood is very difficult

 $\int d\mathbf{x}_{1:N} P(\mathbf{x}_{1:N}, \mathbf{y}_{1:N} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$

Conceptual EM algorithm E Step:

 $\int d\mathbf{x}_{1:N} p(\mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \log p(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$

M Step: Maximize with respect to θ

 $\int d\mathbf{x}_{1:N} p(\mathbf{x}_{1:N}|\mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \log p(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \mathbf{x}_{1:N}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$

This maximization is still quite difficult....

Thus we want to iteratively determine the parameters where we call j the iteration index.

EM algorithm

Initiate $\theta_{j=0} = \theta_0$ E Step:

 $Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_j) = \int d\mathbf{x}_{1:N} p(\mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1}) \log p(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$

M Step: Maximize $Q(\theta_{j-1}, \theta_j)$ with respect to θ_j

EM algorithm

Initiate $\theta_{j=0} = \theta_0$ E Step:

 $Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_j) = \int d\mathbf{x}_{1:N} p(\mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1}) \log p(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$

M Step: Maximize $Q(\theta_{j-1}, \theta_j)$ with respect to θ_j

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_j = f(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1})$$

Iterate away until

$$|\boldsymbol{\theta}_j - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1}| < \epsilon$$

EM algorithm

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_j) = \int d\mathbf{x}_{1:N} p(\mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j-1}) \log p(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}, \mathbf{x}_{1:N} | \boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$$

In general this is hard to calculate...

For dynamical systems, it will require "filters"





Is all learning in biophysics accomplished by principled data analysis? If so...

oblem

Should all data analysis be Bayesian?

Should all Bayesian analysis be nonparametric?





Different from diffusion only in so far that space is discrete and in 1D



Different from diffusion only in so far that space is discrete and in 1D

riving to σ_j .

e on our notation is a spropriate here Throughout this surge we adopt*tildes* $to denote work of the system's state space (Step 3 is Ward) <math>\tilde{\pi}_{\sigma_k}$. Shortly, we will adopt bar. th components over time.

the system reaches a state σ_k , observations x are emitted stochastically according to a on unique to σ_k ; see Fig. 1 (righte. MiddlemiMiarkowsModelbution" $F_{\sigma_k}(x)$. It is oft emission distributions by a general family $F(\phi; x)$ and use ϕ to distinguish its members. For ssume $F_{\sigma_k}(x) = \{ F(\mathfrak{F}_k) : where (\phi_{\mathcal{S}_k} i g) = there (\mathfrak{F}_k - \mathfrak{g}) = cific parameters associated with <math>\sigma_k$. F Gaussian emissions, as in Fig. 1, we choose Simp

 $= (\mu, \sigma)$ stands for the mean and standard deviation (width) of the observations produced by e 14 M M – together with its priors illustrated in Fig. 3 – takes the following to my, let σ_n illustrated in Fig. 3 – takes the following to my, let σ_n illustrated in Fig. 3 – takes the following its mo on. Thus, we label with n the states of the system as it evolves through time forming $\beta \approx GEM_{S}(\gamma)$ $\rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow s_N$, with each s_n being equal to some state s_k chosen from S. t common in the statistical literatur $\tilde{e}_{\sigma \tilde{\pi}}$ and \tilde{e}_{sp} and \tilde{e}_{sp} we will borrow from this notation t 1 – we express the HMM compactly using the following scheme $\phi_{\sigma \not\approx \sigma_k} \sim H_H$

 σ_1

 $s_n s_n \tilde{\tilde{\pi}} \tilde{\tilde{\pi}} \mathcal{O} (\tilde{\tilde{\pi}}_{ssn+1})$

- riving to σ_j .
- e on our notation is a supprising here reproductively it is surger we adopt *tildes* to denote work over S, the system's state space (Step 3 is Hard) $\tilde{\pi}_{\sigma_k}$. Shortly, we will adopt *bar*s the components over time.
- the system reaches a state σ_k , observations x are emitted stochastically according to a on unique to σ_k ; see Fig. 1 (right: Micklenni Markovs Mockel bution" $F_{\sigma_k}(x)$. It is oft emission distributions by a general family $F(\phi; x)$ and use ϕ to distinguish its members. For ssume $F_{\sigma_k}(x) = F(\mathfrak{F}_k, x)$, where $\phi_{\mathcal{F}_k}$ is a the specific parameters associated with σ_k . F Gaussian emissions, as in Fig. 1, we choose





Kinetic model

$$s_n | s_{n-1} \sim Categorical(\pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_1}, \cdots, \pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_K})$$

Observation model $y_n | s_n \sim F_{s_n}(\tilde{\phi}_{s_n})$

 $s_n | s_{n-1} \sim Categorical(\pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_1}, \cdots, \pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_K})$

 $\pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_1}$ $\pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_2} \quad \pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_3} \quad \pi_{s_{n-1} \to \sigma_4}$

service source and the service service

1

$$\tilde{\tilde{\pi}} = \begin{pmatrix} \pi_{\sigma_1 \to \sigma_1} & \pi_{\sigma_1 \to \sigma_2} & \pi_{\sigma_1 \to \sigma_3} & \pi_{\sigma_1 \to \sigma_4} \\ \pi_{\sigma_2 \to \sigma_1} & \pi_{\sigma_2 \to \sigma_2} & \pi_{\sigma_2 \to \sigma_3} & \pi_{\sigma_2 \to \sigma_4} \\ \pi_{\sigma_3 \to \sigma_1} & \pi_{\sigma_3 \to \sigma_2} & \pi_{\sigma_3 \to \sigma_3} & \pi_{\sigma_3 \to \sigma_4} \\ \pi_{\sigma_4 \to \sigma_1} & \pi_{\sigma_4 \to \sigma_2} & \pi_{\sigma_4 \to \sigma_3} & \pi_{\sigma_4 \to \sigma_4} \end{pmatrix}$$

The idea is always the same...

Write down complete-data likelihood $P(y_{1:N}, s_{1:N} | \tilde{\tilde{\pi}}, (\sigma^2)_{1:K}, \mu_{1:K}, ...)$

But we are interested in maximizing the incomplete-data likelihood

$$\sum_{s_{1:N}} P(y_{1:N}, s_{1:N} | \tilde{\tilde{\pi}}, (\sigma^2)_{1:K}, \mu_{1:K}, ...)$$

If we are just interested in the most probable state sequence we use the "Viterbi algorithm"

But we are interested in maximizing the incomplete data likelihood

$$\sum_{s_{1:N}} P(y_{1:N}, s_{1:N} | \tilde{\tilde{\pi}}, (\sigma^2)_{1:K}, \mu_{1:K}, \ldots)$$

Since we cannot do this exactly, we will use EM

N.B. for HMM

-People normally use EM to approximately evaluate the maximum likelihood and (within EM) use filtering.

-You need to put in by hand: the number of states, specify the emission distribution







no dynamics...



System model $x_n | \tilde{\pi} \sim Categorical(\pi_1, \pi_2, \cdots, \pi_K)$

Observation model $\mathbf{y}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_n, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_n^2 \sim \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_n)^{3/2}} e^{-\frac{(\mathbf{y}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)^2}{2\sigma_n^2}}$

System model $x_n | \tilde{\pi} \sim Categorical(\pi_1, \pi_2, \cdots, \pi_K)$



System model $x_n | \tilde{\pi} \sim Categorical(\pi_1, \pi_2, \cdots, \pi_K)$

Observation model
$$\mathbf{y}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_n, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_n^2 \sim \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_n)^{3/2}} e^{-\frac{(\mathbf{y}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)^2}{2\sigma_n^2}}$$



In clustering, just as with HMMs, we build complete-data likelihoods, then derive incomplete-data likelihoods to be maximized (this can all be done exactly or approximately, e.g. through variational methods such as EM)

 $\mathbf{y}_{1:N} \rightarrow \pi_{1:K}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{1:K}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{1:K}$

Big assumptions: number of clusters is inputed by hand, the emission distribution is specific by hand, etc...

Likelihoods need not only be maximized

e.g. likelihood ratio test can be used to compare parameter values

$$\frac{P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|D = 10\mu m^2/s)}{P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|D = 5\mu m^2/s)}$$

e.g. likelihoods's curvature near maximum value tells you something about estimate uncertainty (how sharp the likelihood is around the maximum)

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial D^2} P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|D)|_{D=D*}$$

Physics dictates likelihoods. A good understanding of the data collection process and underlying physics can be used to approximate likelihoods

A proper understanding and use of likelihoods avoids having to de-noise the time trace, average down the data etc...

e.g. of more sophisticated models we cover in my class

$$\zeta d\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}dt + BdW_t$$
$$W_t - W_{t-dt} \sim Normal(0, dt)$$
$$\mathbf{y}_t = \frac{1}{t_E} \int_{t-t_E}^t d\mathbf{x}(t) + B'(W_t - W_{t-t_E})$$

-the above is relevant if you have finite exposure time

e.g. of more sophisticated models we cover in my class

$$\zeta d\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v}dt + BdW_t$$
$$W_t - W_{t-dt} \sim Normal(0, dt)$$
$$\mathbf{y}_t = \frac{1}{t_E} \int_{t-t_E}^t d\mathbf{x}(t) + B'(W_t - W_{t-t_E})$$

$$\sigma_n | \sigma_{n-1}, \tilde{\pi}_{n-1} \sim Cat(\tilde{\pi}_{n-1})$$
$$W_t - W_{t-dt} \sim Normal(0, dt)$$
$$\zeta d\mathbf{x} = -\nabla U_{\sigma_n}(\mathbf{x}) dt + B_{\sigma_n} dW_t.$$
$$\mathbf{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_t \sim p(\mathbf{y}_t | \mathbf{x}_t, \boldsymbol{\theta}_o)$$

-the above is relevant if you switch between behaviors

Everything we have done so far is frequentist.

-we have assumed that there exists true parameter values (as opposed to assuming that parameters themselves are random variables distributed according to some probability distribution)

-frequentist (at least as our discussion here goes) means maximum likelihood

However...

-we may want to calculate a full distribution over parameters ... like $P(D|\mathbf{y}_{1:N})$ instead of just D

-we may want to bias our estimates for the parameter by inputting prior knowledge (e.g. we may have a range to within a order of magnitude what the diffusion coefficient should be).

-we may want to grow the dimensionality of our model based on the the data...

The Bayesian paradigm...from Laplace!

"26. La probabilité $P(\theta)$ plupart $P(\theta)$ $y_{1:N}$ de toutes les valeurs comla considérant a priori, et θ $y_{1:N}$ de toutes les valeurs comprises entre zéro et l'uprior ais, si l'**posterior** n résultat composé de plusieurs de ces événements, la manière dont ils y entrent rend quelques-unes de ces valeurs plus probables que les autres. Ainsi, à mesure que le résultat observé se compose par le développement des événements simples, leur vraie possibilité se fait de plus en plus connaître, et il devient de plus en plus probable qu'elle tombe dans des limites qui, se resserrant sans cesse, finiraient par coïncider, si le nombre des événements simples devenait infini. Pour déterminer

The Bayesian paradigm...from Laplace!

Bayes' theorem

"26. La probabilité de la plupart des événements simples est inconnue: en la considérant *a priori*, elle nous paraît susceptible de toutes les valeurs comprises entr $P(\theta|\mathbf{y}_{1:N})P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}) = P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|\theta)P(\theta)$ mposé de plusieurs de ces val **posterior** bles que les autres de **likelihood prior** le résultat observé se compose par le développement des événements simples, leur vraie possibilité se fait de plus en plus connaître, et il devient de plus en plus probable qu'elle tombe dans des limites qui, se resserrant sans cesse, finiraient par coincider, si le nombre des événements simples devenait infini. Pour déterminer

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what we want

dictated by physics of the experiment at hand specified by hand - or dictated by physics outside the experiment generating the data
$P(\theta|\mathbf{y}_{1:N}) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|\theta)P(\theta)$ prises entre zéro et l'unité; mais, si l'on a observé un résultat composé de plu- **Imagine repeated experiments...** $P(\theta|\mathbf{y}_1) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_1|\theta)P(\theta)$ possibilité se fa $P(\theta|\mathbf{y}_1) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_1|\theta)P(\theta)$ bable qu'elle tombe dans des limites qui, se resservant sans cesse, finiraient par coincider, si le nombre des événements simples devenait infini. Pour déterminer

 $P(\boldsymbol{ heta}|\mathbf{y}_{1:N}) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|\boldsymbol{ heta})P(\boldsymbol{ heta})$ Imagine repeated experiments... $P(\boldsymbol{ heta}|\mathbf{y}_1) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_1|\boldsymbol{ heta})P(\boldsymbol{ heta})$ $P(\boldsymbol{ heta}|\mathbf{y}_1,\mathbf{y}_2) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_2|\boldsymbol{ heta},\mathbf{y}_1)P(\boldsymbol{ heta}|\mathbf{y}_1)$

 $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_{1:N}) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ Imagine repeated experiments... $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_1) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}) P(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_1,\mathbf{y}_2) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_2|\boldsymbol{\theta},\mathbf{y}_1)P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_1)$

 $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_1,\mathbf{y}_2) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_2|\boldsymbol{\theta},\mathbf{y}_1)P(\mathbf{y}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

This motivates the idea that all "priors" (which become posteriors for the next iteration) should have the same form...

prises entre zéro et l'unité; mais, si l'on a observé un résultat composé de plusieurs de ces événements, la manière $P(\theta)$ s y entrent rend quelques-unes de ces valeurs plus probables que les autres. Ainsi, à mesure que le résultat observé se compose par le dévelop: $P(\theta|\mathbf{y}_1)$ événements simples, leur vraie possibilité se fait de plus en plus contaitre, et il devient de plus en plus probable qu'elle tombe dans des limites qui, se resserrant sans cesse, finiraient par coîncider, si le nombre des événen $P(\theta|\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{y}_2)$ evenait infini. Pour déterminer

 $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_1,\mathbf{y}_2,\mathbf{y}_3)$

"26. La probabilité de la plupart des événements simples est inconnue: en la considérant *a priori*, elle nous paraît susceptible de toutes les valeurs comprises entre zéro et l'unité; mais, si l'on a observé un résultat composé de plusieurs de ces événements, la manière dont ils y entrent rend quelques-unes de ces valeurs plus probables que les autres. Ainsi, à mesure que le résultat observé se compose par le développement des événements simples, leur vraie possibil $P(\mathbf{0})$ fait de plus en plus connaître, et il devient de plus en plus probable qu'elle tombe dans des limites qui, se resserrant sans cesse, finiraient par coïncider, si le nombre des événements simples devenait infini.

Model parameters, θ

Laplace Book II, Chapter VI, Page 370

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Model parameters, θ

Laplace Book II, Chapter VI, Page 370

"26. La probabilité de la plupart des événements simples est inconnue: en la considérant *a priori*, elle nous paraît susceptible de toutes les valeurs comprises entre zéro et l'unité; mais, si l'on a observé un résultat composé de plusieurs de ces événements, la manière dont ils y entrent rend quelques-unes de ces valeurs plus probables que les autres. Ainsi, à mesure que le résultat observé se compose par le développement des événements simples, leur vraie $P(\theta | y_1^{\circ}, y_2^{\circ}, y_3^{\circ})$ plus en plus connaître, et il devien bable qu'elle tombe dans des limites qui, se resserrant sans cesse, finiraient par coïncider, si le nombre des événements simples devenait infini.

Model parameters, θ

Laplace Book II, Chapter VI, Page 370

The Bayesian paradigm

Thus — once the physics that dictates the likelihood is set it is convenient to select a prior that is conjugate to the likelihood. Meaning, we seek a prior that, once multiplied by the likelihood, yields a posterior of the same mathematical form as the prior. This simplifies computation considerably.



The Bayesian paradigm

Thus — once the physics that dictates the likelihood is set it is convenient to select a prior that is conjugate to the likelihood. Meaning, we seek a prior that, once multiplied by the likelihood, yields a posterior of the same mathematical form as the prior. This simplifies computation considerably.

$$P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_{1:N}) \propto P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) P(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Conjugate

prior distribution

Normal

Norma

Inverse gamma

Scaled invers

Gamma

e.g.

Likelihood	Model parameters	Conjugate prior distribution		Likelihood
Bernoulli	p (probability)	Beta		Normal
Binomial	p (probability)	Beta		with known variance <i>o</i> ²
Negative binomial with known failure number, r	p (probability)	Beta		Normal with known precision τ
Poisson	λ (rate)	Gamma		Normal with known mean μ
Categorical	<i>p</i> (probability vector), <i>k</i> (number of categories; i.e., size of <i>p</i>)	Dirichlet	-	Normal with known mean µ
Multinomial	<i>p</i> (probability vector), <i>k</i> (number of categories; i.e., size of <i>p</i>)	Dirichlet		Normal with known mean μ

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conjugate_prior

N.B. Normalizations

$$\int d\boldsymbol{\theta} \quad P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_{1:N}) = 1$$
$$\int d\boldsymbol{\theta} \quad P(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = 1$$
$$\int d\mathbf{y}_{1:N} \quad P(\mathbf{y}_{1:N}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = 1$$

Imagine coin flip experiment w HTHHHTH and we want to determine the probability of heads and tails

The N outcomes of this experiment are random variables.

$$\mathbf{y}_{1:N} = \{y_1, y_2, \cdots , y_N\} = \{H, T, H, H, H, \cdots\}$$

In other words y_1 is heads with probability p is tails with probability 1-p

The likelihood is a Bernoulli distribution. So our conjugate prior will be Beta distribution.

To determine the posterior probability of heads/tails, we ask

What is the likelihood of having observed the sequence of outcomes HTHHHTH?

likelihood =
$$p^5(1-p)^2$$

We set our prior

prior =
$$\frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)}p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1}$$

To determine the posterior probability of heads/tails, we ask

What is the likelihood of having observed the sequence of outcomes HTHHHTH?



posterior
$$\propto p^5(1-p)^2 \times p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1}$$



posterior
$$\propto p^5(1-p)^2 \times p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p}$$
 likelihood = 0 \rightarrow $p = \frac{5}{5+2} = \frac{5}{7}$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \text{posterior} = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow p = \frac{5+\alpha-1}{5+2+\alpha-1+\beta-1} = \frac{5+(\alpha-1)}{5+\alpha+\beta}$$

posterior
$$\propto p^5(1-p)^2 \times p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \text{likelihood} = \mathbf{0} \quad \rightarrow \qquad \qquad p = \frac{5}{5+2} = \frac{5}{7}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \text{posterior} = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \qquad p = \frac{5+\alpha-1}{5+2+\alpha-1+\beta-1} = \frac{5+(\alpha-1)}{5+\alpha+\beta}$$

You can do much more than maximize a posterior. You can obtain a full distribution over all unknowns where the error is rigorously propagated from your emission distribution that contains all features of the measurement model.

Most simple functions can be sampled from directly using the inverse cdf method



Most simple functions can be sampled from directly using the inverse cdf method

 $\theta \sim P(\theta)$

e.g.
$$P(\theta) = b^{-1} e^{-\theta/b}$$

$$cdf(A) = \int_0^A d\theta P(\theta)$$

Most simple functions can be sampled from directly using the inverse cdf method

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For the exponential the y starts from 0. However for a Gaussian spanning all real numbers the integral would start from $-\infty$.

Most simple functions can be sampled from directly using the inverse cdf method



Most simple functions can be sampled from directly using the inverse cdf method

Step 1) Sample random #, x, uniformly from 0 to 1



Step 2) Find the A to which this corresponds



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$$P(\theta) = b^{-1}e^{-\theta/b}$$
$$cdf(A) = 1 - e^{-A/b}$$

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$$P(\theta) = b^{-1}e^{-\theta/b}$$

$$cdf(A) = 1 - e^{-A/b}$$

$$x = 1 - e^{-A/b}$$

$$A = b \ln \frac{1}{1 - x}$$

Step 2) Find the A to which this corresponds

$$A = b \ln \frac{1}{1 - x}$$

You have now converted a uniform random number (x), which we know how to sample on a computer, into an exponential random variable, A.

Approximate Sampling

Goal: sample from a target distribution, $\pi(r)$, whose cdf cannot be computed

As a result, we generate a Markov chain of samples using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

$$r^{(0)} \to r^{(1)} \to r^{(2)} \to \dots \to r^{(j)} \to r^{(j+1)} \to \dots \to r^{(J)}$$

Approximate Sampling

Markov chain

$$r^{(0)} \to r^{(1)} \to r^{(2)} \to \dots \to r^{(j)} \to r^{(j+1)} \to \dots \to r^{(J)}$$



How we do Metropolis-Hastings (a type of MCMC)

Consider a proposal distribution, Q

$$Q_{r^{\text{old}}}(r^{\text{prop}}) = p(r^{\text{prop}}|r^{\text{old}})$$

Conditions on Q:

- the simulation of random variables r^{prop} | r^{old} ~ Q_{r^{old}} is possible,
 the simulation of random variables r^{prop} | r^{old} ~ Q_{r^{old}} allows the generation of any feasible value.

Write down the acceptance ratio:

$$A_{r^{\text{old}}}(r^{\text{prop}}) = \underbrace{\frac{\bar{\pi}(r^{\text{prop}})}{\bar{\pi}(r^{\text{old}})}}_{\text{target}} \underbrace{\frac{Q_{r^{\text{prop}}}(r^{\text{old}})}{Q_{r^{\text{old}}}(r^{\text{prop}})}}_{\text{proposal}}$$

How we do Metropolis-Hastings (a type of MCMC)

Write down the acceptance ratio:



Algorithm 5.1: Metropolis-Hastings sampler for arbitrary targets

Given a target $\bar{\pi}(r)$, a proposal $Q_{r^{\text{old}}}(r^{\text{prop}})$, and a feasible initial sample $r^{(0)}$, the Metropolis-Hastings sampler proceeds as follows:

For each j from 1 to J:

- Generate a proposal r^{prop} ~ Q_{r(j-1)}.
 Compute the acceptance ratio A_{r(j-1)}(r^{prop}).
 Generate u ~ Uniform_[0,1].
- If $u < A_{r(j-1)}(r^{\text{prop}})$; set $r^{(j)} = r^{\text{prop}}$, else set $r^{(j)} = r^{(j-1)}$.

Example 5.2: Two Metropolis-Hastings schemes for the truncated Normal distribution

Consider a random variable R distributed according to a Normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 truncated below 0. That is, R has a probability density given by

$$\mathbf{\tau}(r) \propto \bar{\pi}(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(r-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), & r \ge 0\\ 0, & r < 0 \end{cases}.$$

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$$\mathbb{Q}_{r^{\mathrm{old}}} = \mathsf{Normal}(r^{\mathrm{old}}, \lambda^2)$$

$$A_{r^{\text{old}}}(r^{\text{prop}}) = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\frac{(r^{\text{old}}-\mu)^2 - (r^{\text{prop}}-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), & r^{\text{prop}} \ge 0\\ 0, & r^{\text{prop}} < 0 \end{cases}.$$

Example 5.4: Choice of proposals in MCMC

$$\Pi = 0.3 \operatorname{Normal}_{2} \left(\begin{bmatrix} -1\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0.25^{2} & 0\\0 & 0.25^{2} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
$$+ 0.3 \operatorname{Normal}_{2} \left(\begin{bmatrix} +1\\0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0.25^{2} & 0\\0 & 0.25^{2} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$
$$+ 0.4 \operatorname{Normal}_{2} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\+1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0.25^{2} & 0\\0 & 0.25^{2} \end{bmatrix} \right)$$



SPRINGER TEXTS IN STATISTICS

Monte Carlo Statistical Methods

SECOND EDITION

Christian P. Robert George Casella

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Christian P. Robert George Casella

Introducing Monte Carlo Methods with R



Use R!

Step 1) Write down the model.

Step 2) Write down the likelihood of your data under the assumption of your model. Pick a prior which is either conjugate or otherwise informed by some physics.

Step 3) Compute your posterior to find the probability of your model parameters

Steps 1-3 are collectively called Bayesian model learning/training

Step 3) Compute your posterior to find the probability of your model parameters

 $P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}_{1:N}) = P(\theta_1, \cdots, \theta_K|\mathbf{y}_{1:N})$

Thanks!

Data Modeling in the Sciences Applications, Basics, Computations

Steve Pressé and Ioannis Sgouralis