

Measurements, uncertainties and probabilistic inference/forecasting

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“Probability is good sense reduced to a calculus”

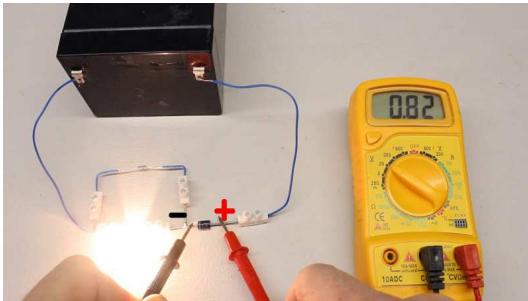
(S. Laplace)

What is measurement?



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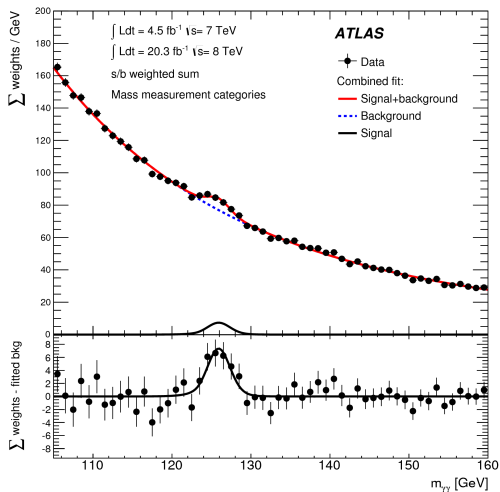


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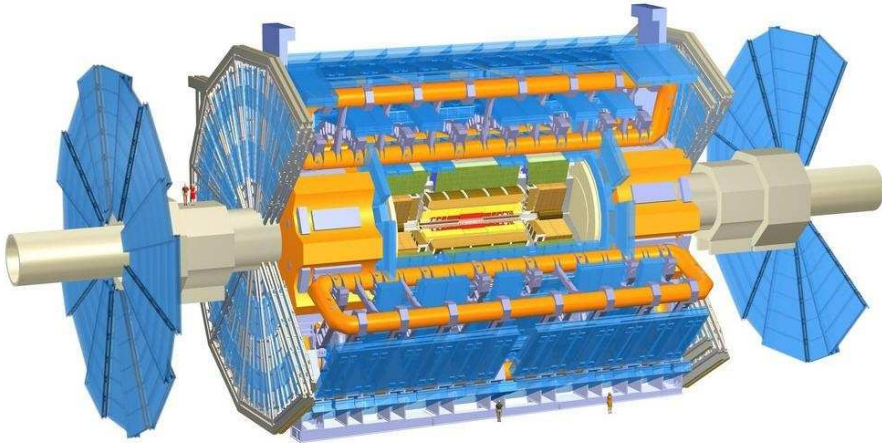
Higgs $\rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ (2012)



Two-photon *invariant mass*

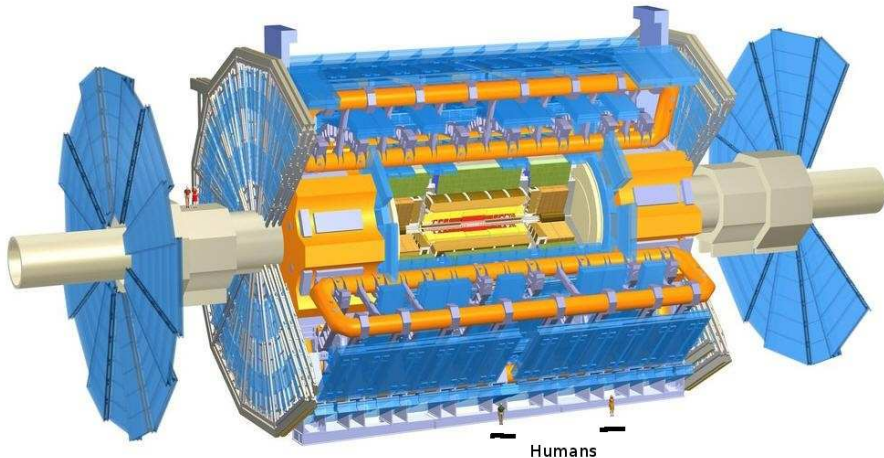
What is measurement?

ATLAS Experiment at LHC (CERN, Geneva)



What is measurement?

ATLAS Experiment at LHC [length: 46 m; \varnothing 25 m]

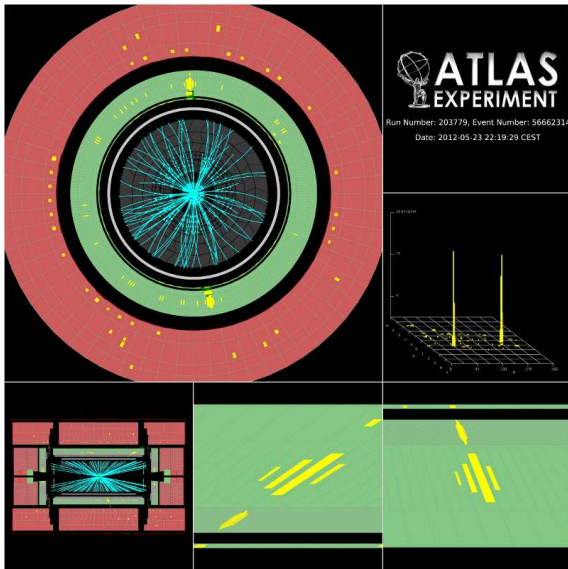


\approx 3000 km cables

\approx 7000 tonnes

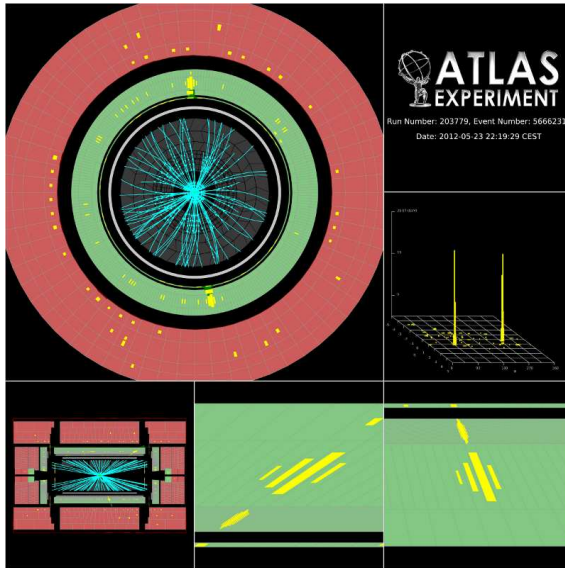
\approx 100 millions electronic channels

What is measurement?



Two flashes of 'light' (2γ 's) in a 'noisy' environment.

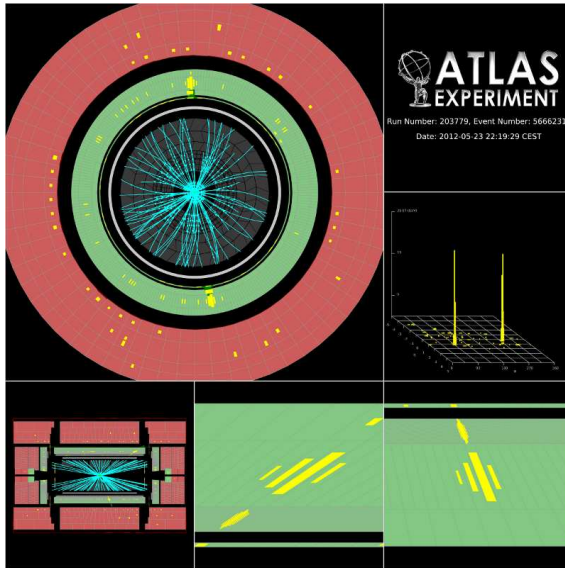
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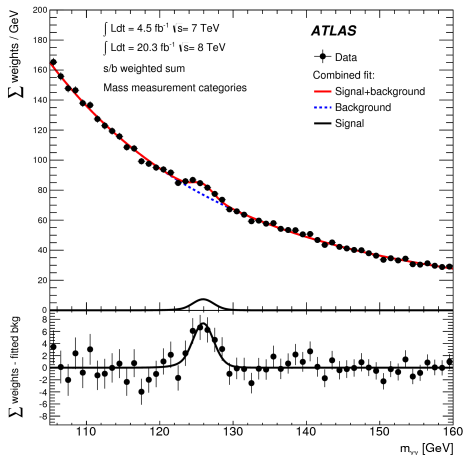


Two flashes of 'light' (2γ 's) in a 'noisy' environment.

Higgs $\rightarrow \gamma\gamma$? Probably not...

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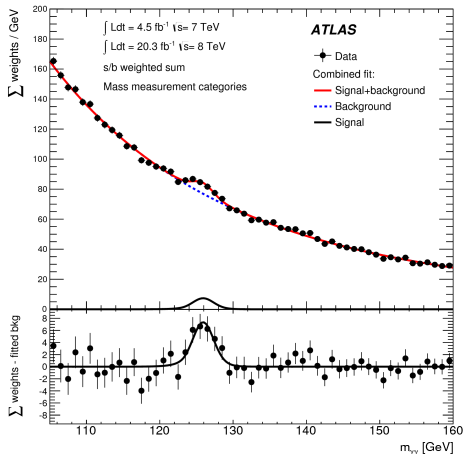
Higgs $\rightarrow \gamma\gamma$



\Rightarrow { Mass value
Production rate

What is measurement?

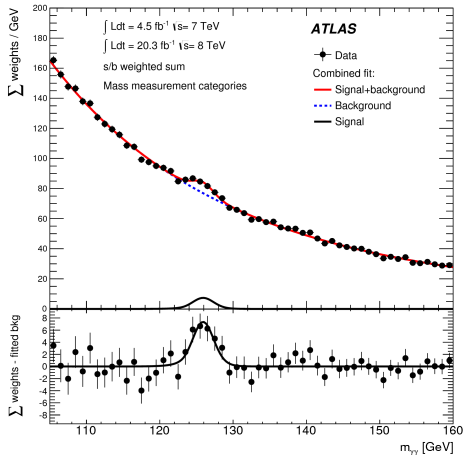
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\Rightarrow {
Mass value
Production rate
(with uncertainties)

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\Rightarrow { Mass value
Production rate
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Quite indirect measurements of something we do not “see”!

Can we “see” physics quantities?

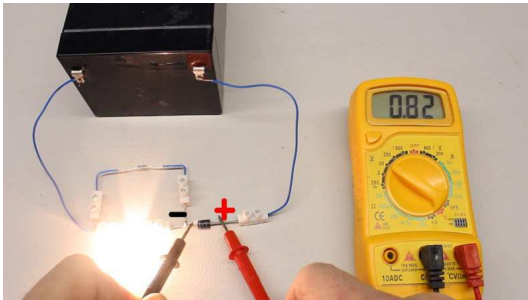
But, can we see our mass?



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Can we “see” physics quantities?

... or a voltage?



Can we “see” physics quantities?

... or our blood pressure?



Can we “see” physics quantities?

Certainly not!

Can we “see” physics quantities?

Certainly not!

... although for some quantities we can have

a ‘vivid impression’ (in the David Hume’s sense)

Measuring a mass on a scale



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Equilibrium:

$$mg - k\Delta x = 0$$

$$\Delta x \rightarrow \theta \rightarrow \text{scale reading}$$

(with 'g' gravitational acceleration; 'k' spring constant.)

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From the reading to the value of the mass:

$$\text{scale reading} \xrightarrow{\text{given } g, k, \text{ "etc."...}} m$$

Measuring a mass on a balance

scale reading $\xrightarrow{\text{given } g, k, \text{ "etc."} \dots}$ m

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Certainly not to watch our weight 😊

But think about it!

Measuring a mass on a balance

scale reading $\xrightarrow{\text{given } g, k, \text{ "etc." ...}}$ m

Dependence on 'k':

- ▶ temperature
- ▶ non linearity
- ▶ ...

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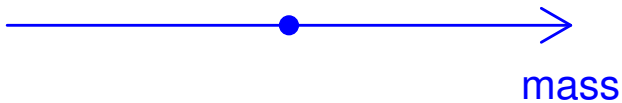
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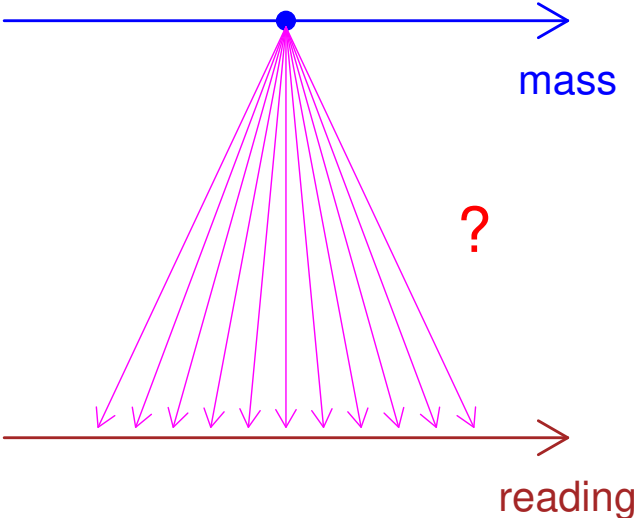
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$\Rightarrow m??$

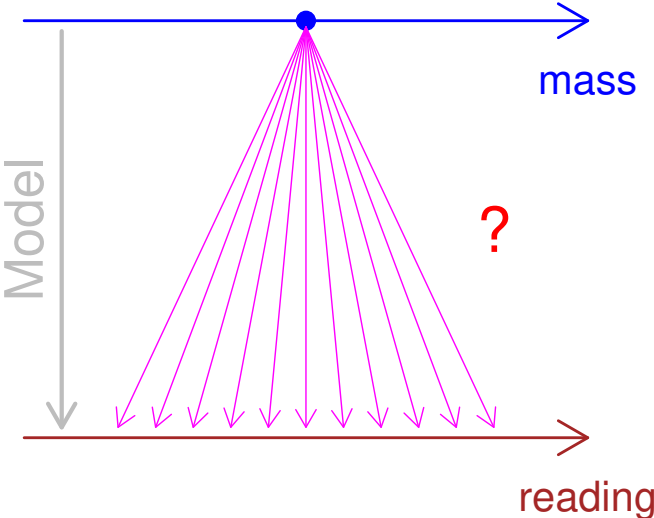
Mass \longrightarrow Reading



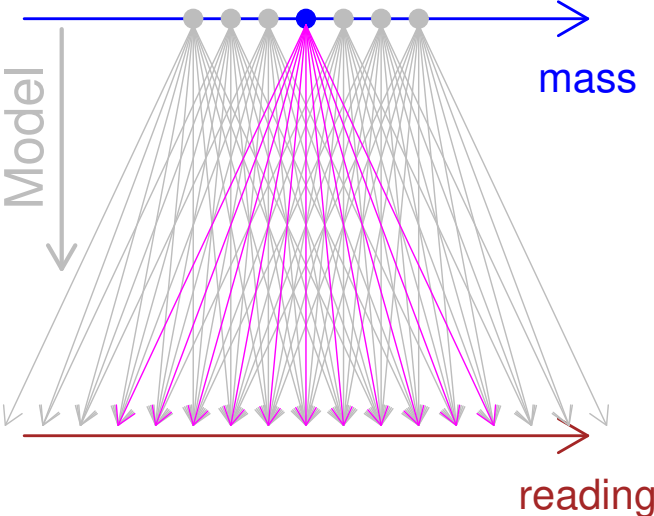
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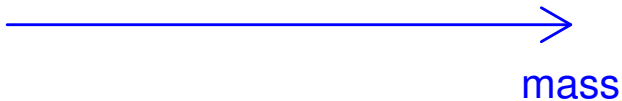
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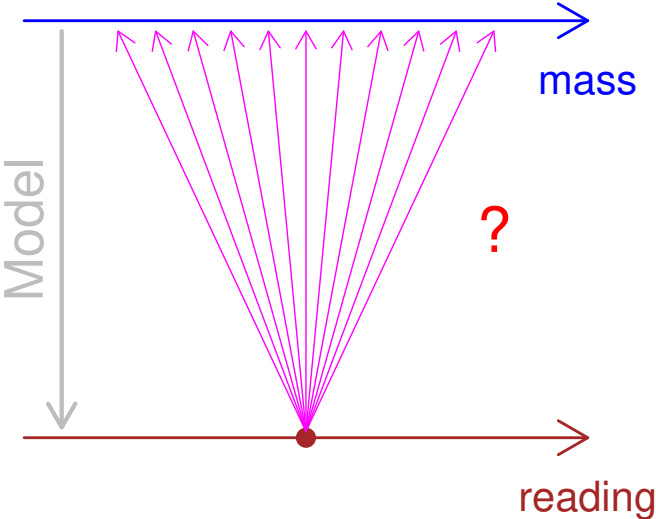
Mass \rightarrow Reading



Reading \longrightarrow 'true' mass



Reading \rightarrow 'true' mass



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Note

- ▶ Sources not necessarily independent
- ▶ In particular, sources 1-9 may contribute to 10 (e.g. not-monitored electric fluctuations)

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Error and uncertainty are not synonyms!

Observation \rightarrow value of a quantity



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scale reading $\xrightarrow{\text{given } g, k, \text{ "etc." ...}}$ m

Observations → hypotheses

This problem occurs not only “determining”
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- ▶ Experimental observation ('data') → responsible cause.

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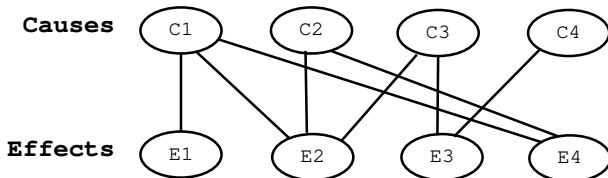
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- ▶ Experimental observation (‘data’) → responsible cause.

(But logically no substantial difference.)

Causes → effects

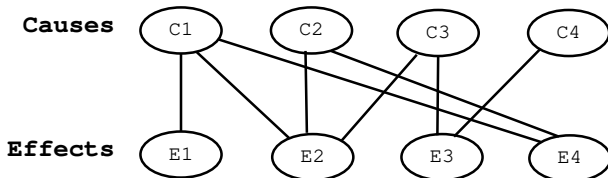
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Given an observed effect, we are not sure about the exact cause that has produced it.

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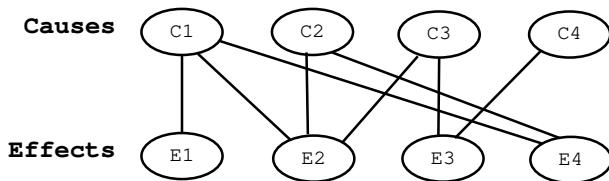
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$$E_2 \Rightarrow \{C_1, C_2, C_3\}?$$

The “essential problem” of the Sciences

“Now, these problems are classified as *probability of causes*, and are most interesting of all for their scientific applications. I play at *écarté* with a gentleman whom I know to be perfectly honest. What is the chance that he turns up the king? It is $1/8$. This is a problem of the *probability of effects*.”

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I play with a gentleman whom I do not know. He has dealt ten times, and he has turned the king up six times. What is the chance that he is a sharper? This is a problem in the *probability of causes*. It may be said that **it is the essential problem of the experimental method.**”

(H. Poincaré – *Science and Hypothesis*)

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(H. Poincaré – *Science and Hypothesis*)

Why we (or most of us) have not been taught how to tackle this kind of problems?

A minimalist though not trivial problem of the kind

An example easy to understand:

- ▶ two causes;
- ▶ two effects;

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- ▶ two causes;
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- ▶ medical diagnostics helps to clarify the issues:
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 - ⇒ **a formal guide** helps us avoiding errors
 - ⇒ **logics of the uncertain** (theory of probabilities)

AIDS test

An Italian citizen is selected at random to undergo an AIDS test.

→ Performance of clinical trial is not perfect, as customary:

$$P(\text{Pos} \mid \text{HIV}) = 100\%$$

$$P(\text{Pos} \mid \overline{\text{HIV}}) = 0.2\%$$

$$P(\text{Neg} \mid \overline{\text{HIV}}) = 99.8\%$$

$H_1 = \text{'HIV'}$ (Infected)

$E_1 = \text{Positive}$

$H_2 = \overline{\text{'HIV'}}$ (Not infected)

$E_2 = \text{Negative}$

AIDS test

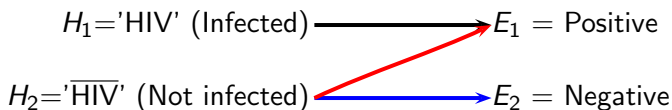
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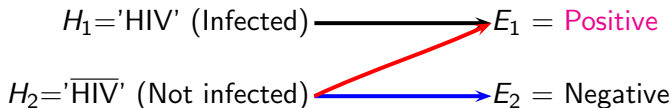
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Result: \Rightarrow Positive

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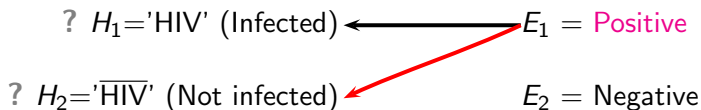
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Result: ⇒ Positive

Infected or not infected?

AIDS test: how to interpret the result?

Being $P(\text{Pos} | \overline{\text{HIV}}) = 0.2\%$ and having observed 'Positive',
can we say?

- ▶ "It is practically impossible that the person is not infected, since it was practically impossible that a non infected person would result positive"

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- ▶ "We are 99.8% confident that the person is infected"
- ▶ "The hypothesis $H_1 = \text{'no HIV'}$ is ruled out with 99.8% C.L."

?

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Being $P(\text{Pos} | \overline{\text{HIV}}) = 0.2\%$ and having observed 'Positive',
can we say

- ▶ ~~"It is practically impossible that the person is not infected, since it was practically impossible that a non infected person would result positive"~~
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(We will learn in the sequel how to evaluate it correctly)

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AIDS test

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⇒ A sound formal guidance can rescue us

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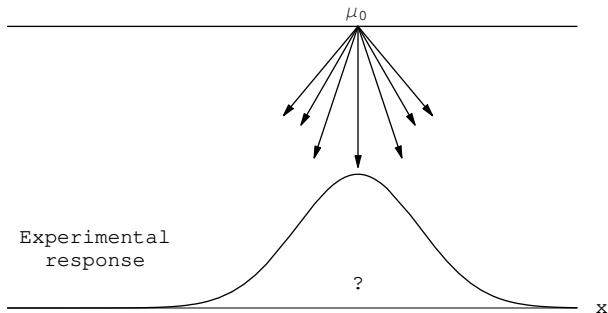
⇒ Prosecutor's fallacy

⇒ **Misunderstanding p-values** (a *related logical mistake*)

→ Probability of causes

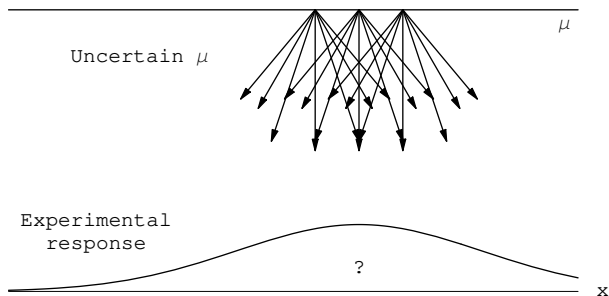
“the essential problem of the experimental method”

From 'true value' to observations



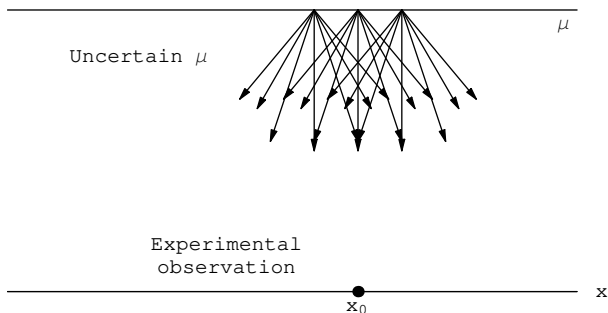
Given μ (exactly known) we are uncertain about x

From 'true value' to observations



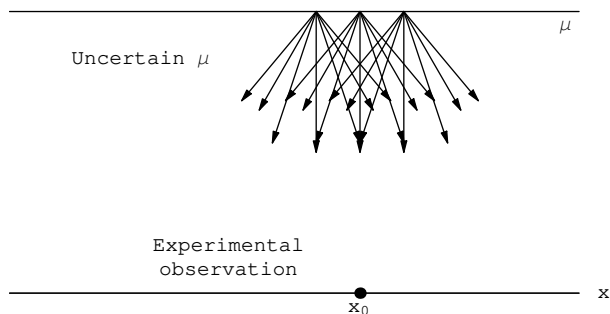
Uncertainty about μ makes us more uncertain about x

...and back: Inferring a true value



The observed data is certain: \rightarrow 'true value' uncertain.

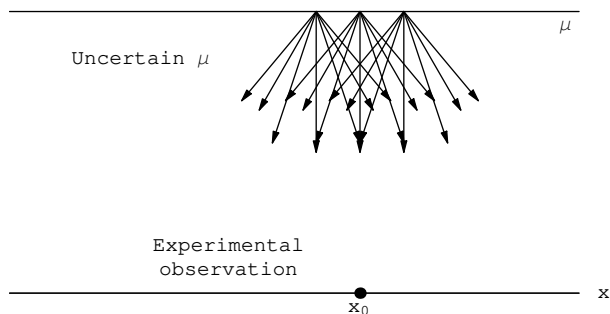
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“data uncertainty” ?

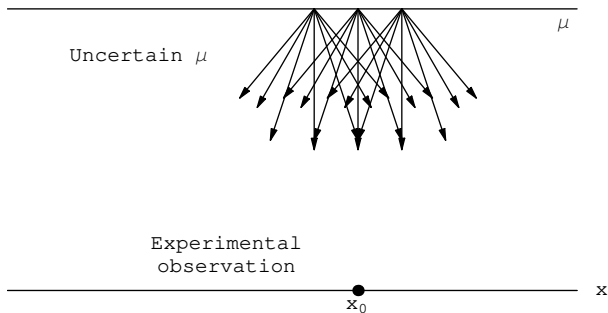
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“data uncertainty” ? Data corrupted?

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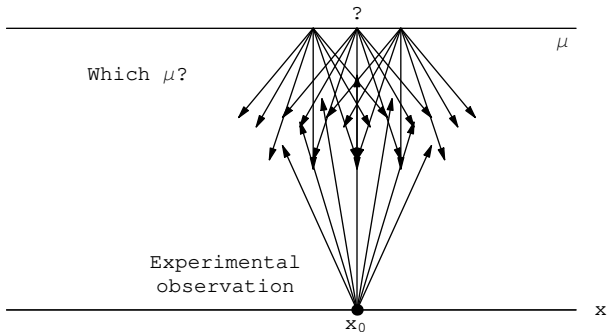


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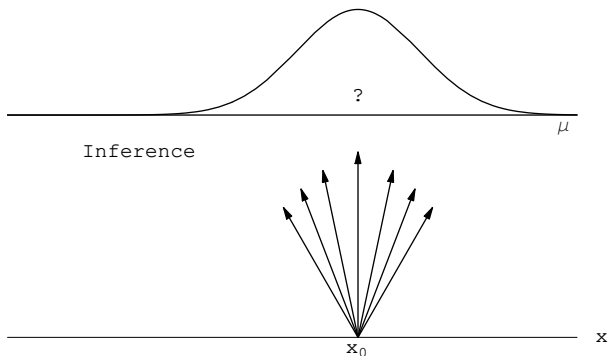
Even if the data were corrupted, the data were the corrupted data!!...

...and back: Inferring a true value



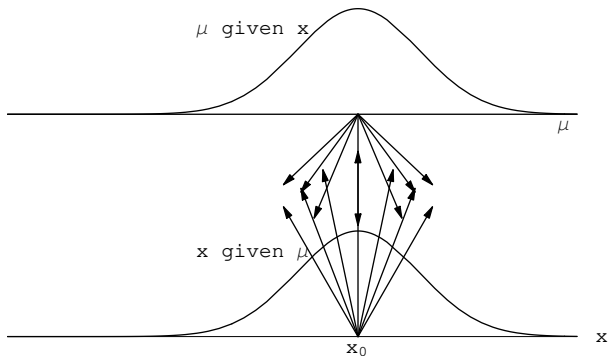
Where does the observed value of x comes from?

...and back: Inferring a true value



We are now **uncertain about μ** , given x .

...and back: Inferring a true value



Note the symmetry in reasoning.

Basic rules of probability

1. $0 \leq P(A | I) \leq 1$
2. $P(\Omega | I) = 1$
3. $P(A \cup B | I) = P(A | I) + P(B | I)$ [if $P(A \cap B | I) = 0$]
4. $P(A \cap B | I) = P(A | B, I) \cdot P(B | I) = P(B | A, I) \cdot P(A | I)$

Remember that probability is always conditional probability!

I is the background condition (related to information ' I_s ')

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⇒ easily extended to **uncertain numbers** ('*random variables*')

Subjective nature of probability

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Probability depends on **the status of information of the *subject*** who evaluates it.

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$$P(E) \longrightarrow P(E | I_s(t))$$

where $I_s(t)$ is the information available to *subject s* at time t .

Mathematics of beliefs

An even better news:

The fourth basic rule
can be fully exploited!

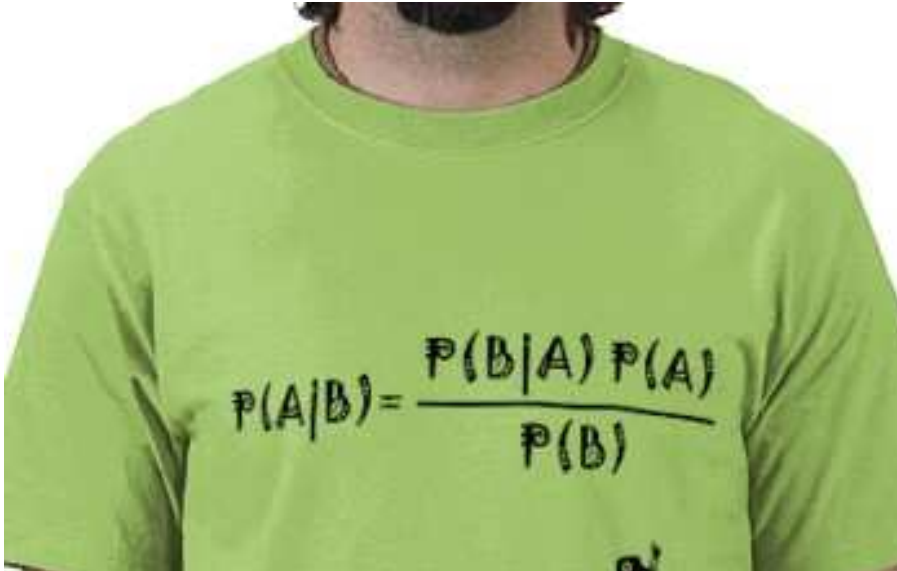
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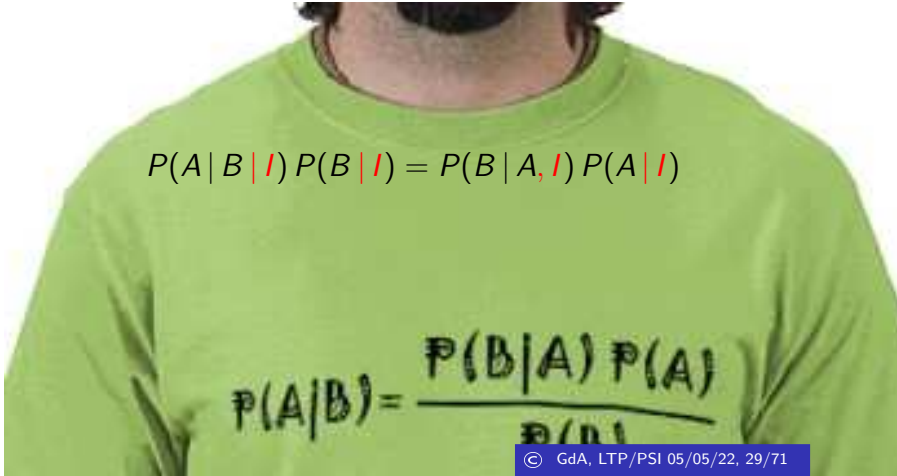
(Liberated by a **curious ideology** that forbids its use)

A simple, powerful formula

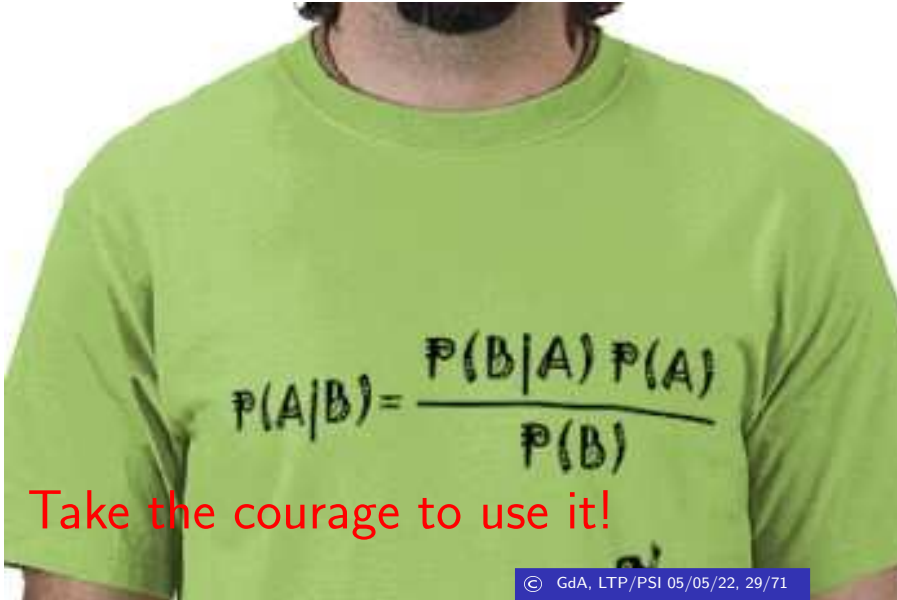
A person is wearing a bright green t-shirt. On the front of the t-shirt, the formula for conditional probability is written in black marker. The formula is $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$. The person's face is partially visible at the top of the frame, showing a beard and mustache.
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

A simple, powerful formula

$$P(A | B, I) P(B | I) = P(B | A, I) P(A | I)$$

A person wearing a green t-shirt with a handwritten formula on it. The formula is Bayes' theorem: $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$.
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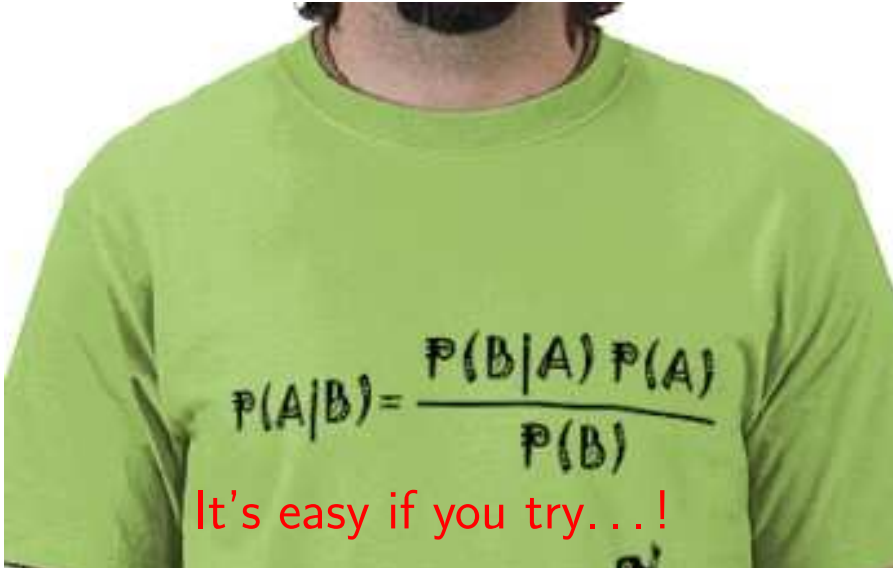
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A person wearing a green t-shirt with a mathematical formula printed on it. The formula is Bayes' theorem:
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The image shows a person from the chest up, wearing a bright green t-shirt. The t-shirt has the mathematical formula for conditional probability, Bayes' theorem, printed in black ink. The formula is $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$. The person's face is partially visible at the top, showing a beard and mustache.

Take the courage to use it!


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It's easy if you try...!

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[Bayes Theorem]

Laplace's "Bayes Theorem"

"The greater the probability of an observed event given any one of a number of causes to which that event may be attributed, the greater the likelihood of that cause {given that event}.

$$P(C_i | E) \propto P(E | C_i)$$

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(Philosophical Essai on Probabilities)

[In general $P(E) = \sum_j P(E | C_j) P(C_j)$ (weighted average, with weights being the probabilities of the conditions) if C_j form a complete class of hypotheses]

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(*) In his “Philosophical essay” Laplace calls ‘principles’ the ‘fundamental rules’.

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Most convenient way to remember Bayes theorem

Laplace's teaching

$$\frac{P(H_0 | \text{data})}{P(H_1 | \text{data})} = \frac{P(\text{data} | H_0)}{P(\text{data} | H_1)} \times \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

- ▶ We should possibly use the data, rather than the test variables ' θ ' (χ^2 etc);
[although in some case 'sufficient summaries' do exist]

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- ▶ There is **no conceptual problem** with the fact that $P(\text{data} | H_1) \rightarrow 0$ (e.g. 10^{-37}), provided the ratio $P(\text{data} | H_0)/P(\text{data} | H_1)$ is not undefined.

Bayes factor ('likelihood ratio')

$$\frac{P(H_0 | \text{data})}{P(H_1 | \text{data})} = \frac{P(\text{data} | H_0)}{P(\text{data} | H_1)} \times \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)}$$

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$$\text{Prob. ratio}|_{\text{posterior}} = \text{Bayes factor} \times \text{Prob. ratio}|_{\text{prior}}$$

(*prior/posterior w.r.t. data*)

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$$\text{Prob. ratio}|_{\text{posterior}} = \text{Bayes factor} \times \text{Prob. ratio}|_{\text{prior}}$$

(*prior/posterior* w.r.t. data)

If H_0 and H_1 are 'complementary', that is $H_1 = \overline{H_0}$, then

$$\text{posterior odds} = \text{Bayes factor} \times \text{prior odds}$$

Telling it with Gauss' words

A quote from the *Princeps Mathematicorum*
(Prince of Mathematicians) is a must.

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$$P(C_i | \text{data}) = \frac{P(\text{data} | C_i)}{P(\text{data})} P_0(C_i)$$

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Arguments used to derive Gaussian distribution

- ▶ $f(\mu | \{x\}) \propto f(\{x\} | \mu) \cdot f_0(\mu)$
- ▶ $f_0(\mu)$ 'flat' (all values a priori equally possible)
- ▶ posterior maximized at $\mu = \bar{x}$

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Note: indeed Gauss had also invented the "Bayes Factor"! (GdA, arXiv:2003.10878 [math.HO])

Probabilistic inference/prediction applied to the 'binomial' case

Namely the original problem tackled by Laplace and Bayes

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applied to the 'binomial' case

Namely the original problem tackled by Laplace and Bayes,
but in modern notation and making use of a graphical model:

Probabilistic inference/prediction

applied to the 'binomial' case

Namely the original problem tackled by Laplace and Bayes, but in modern notation and making use of a graphical model:

1. draw the graphical model;
2. write down the joint pdf of all variables entering the game;
3. use Bayes theorem in order to condition on what is known/assumed;
4. marginalize over all variables on which we are not interesting;
5. do somehow the math.

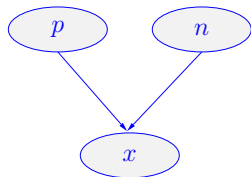
n independent *Bernoulli processes*

General case

n independent *Bernoulli* processes

General case

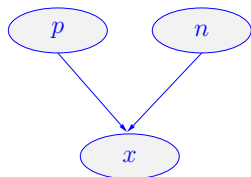
Model



n independent *Bernoulli* processes

General case

Model



Joint pdf (omitting **background condition** I)

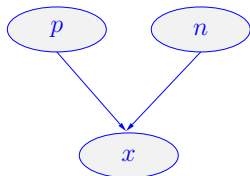
→ making use of the **chain rule**:

$$f(x, p, n) = f(x | p, n) \cdot f(p, n)$$

n independent *Bernoulli* processes

General case

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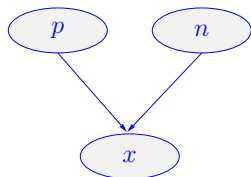
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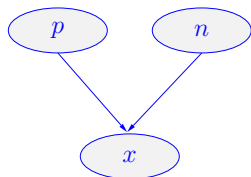
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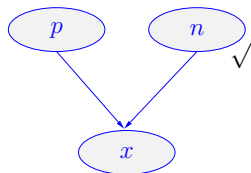
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(n and p are independent)

n independent Bernoulli processes

Usual case $\rightarrow n$ fixed (for the moment)

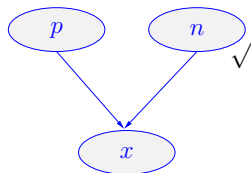
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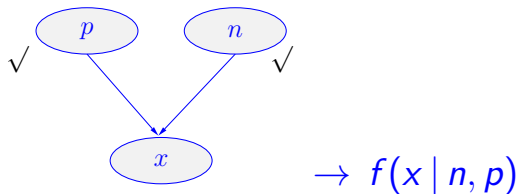


Joint pdf

$$f(x, p | n) = f(x | p, n) \cdot f(p)$$

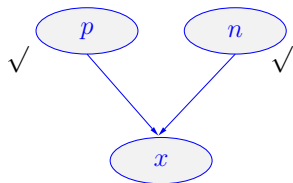
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Graphical models of the typical problems

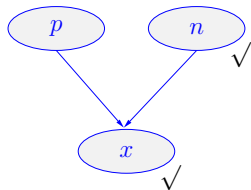


n independent Bernoulli processes

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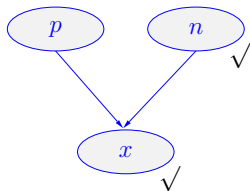
$$\rightarrow f(x | n, p)$$



$$\rightarrow f(p | n, x)$$

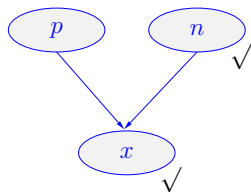
n independent Bernoulli processes

Inferring p



n independent Bernoulli processes

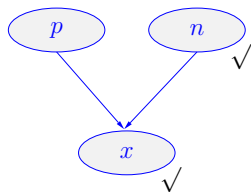
Inferring p



$$f(p|x, n) = \frac{f(p, x | n)}{f(x | n)}$$

n independent Bernoulli processes

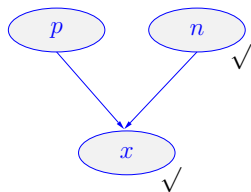
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$$\begin{aligned} f(p|x, n) &= \frac{f(p, x | n)}{f(x | n)} \\ &= \frac{f(x | n, p) \cdot f_0(p)}{f(x | n)} \end{aligned}$$

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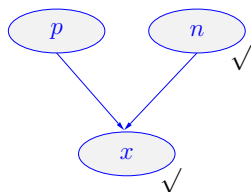
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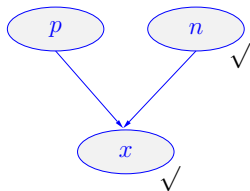
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Inferring “Bernoulli’s p ”

We just need to make explicit $f(x | n, p)$:

$$f(x | n, p) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$$

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(The binomial coefficient is irrelevant, not depending on p)

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- ▶ In our case these two numbers are integer and the integral becomes equal to

$$\frac{x! (n-x)!}{(n+1)!}$$

Inferring “Bernoulli’s p ”

Solution for uniform prior

$$f(p|x, n) = \frac{(n+1)!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

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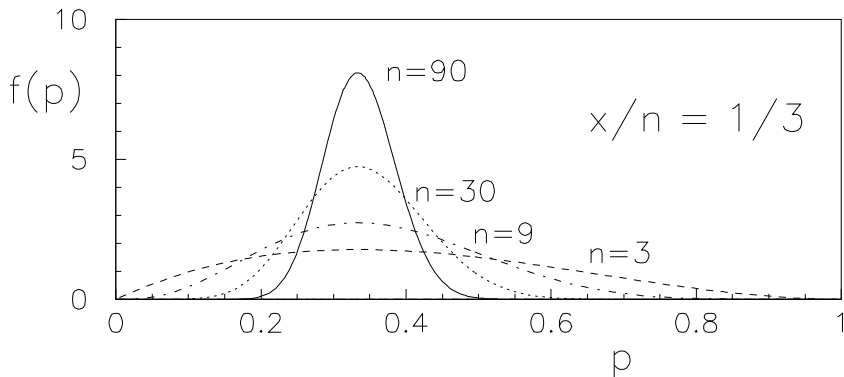
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Summaries of the **posterior distribution**

$$p_m = \text{mode}(p) = \frac{x}{n}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(p) &= \frac{(x+1)(n-x+1)}{(n+3)(n+2)^2} \\ &= \frac{x+1}{n+2} \left(\frac{n+2}{n+2} - \frac{x+1}{n+2} \right) \frac{1}{n+3} \\ &= E(p) (1 - E(p)) \frac{1}{n+3}\end{aligned}$$

Inferring the “Bernoulli’s p ”

About the meaning of $E(p)$

- ▶ We have used the “first”^(*) n trials to learn about “ p ”.
[^(*) “First” does not imply time order, but just order in usage.]

Inferring the “Bernoulli’s p ”

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$E(p)$ (and not the mode!) is the probability of every ‘future’ event which is believed to have the **same** p of the ‘previous’ ones.

Related recent applications

(with many details, including general introduction to the relevant ideas and methods, and program samples)

- ▶ GdA and A. Esposito, [Checking individuals and sampling populations with imperfect tests](#), (arXiv:2009.04843 [q-bio.PE])
- ▶ GdA and A. Esposito, [What is the probability that a vaccinated person is shielded from Covid-19? A Bayesian MCMC based reanalysis of published data with emphasis on what should be reported as 'efficacy'](#), (arXiv:2102.11022 [stat.AP])

Inferring the “Bernoulli’s p ”

Large number behaviour: summary

When

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(remember: in the binomial what is ‘success’ and what is ‘failure’)

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$$E(p) \approx \frac{x}{n}$$
$$\sigma(p) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sqrt{\frac{x}{n} \left(1 - \frac{x}{n}\right)}$$

Inferring the “Bernoulli’s p ”

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$$f(x | \text{Beta}(r, s)) = \frac{1}{\beta(r, s)} x^{r-1} (1-x)^{s-1} \quad \begin{cases} r, s > 0 \\ 0 \leq x \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

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(In particular, the **Gaussian is self-conjugate**,
which is not so great...)

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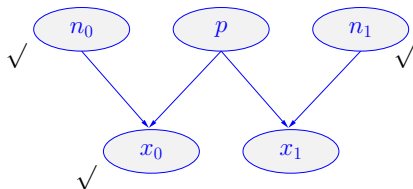
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- ▶ But we are not sure about it: we need to take into account all possible values, each weighted by $f(p)$

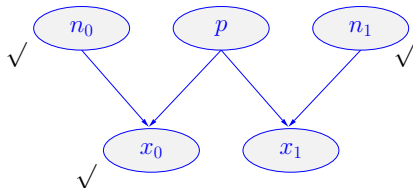
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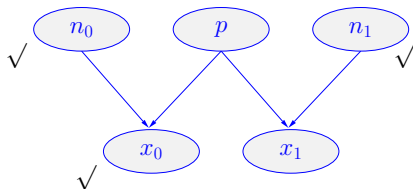
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- ▶ We need to take into account all possible values of p , each weighted by how much we believe it, i.e. by $f(p)$

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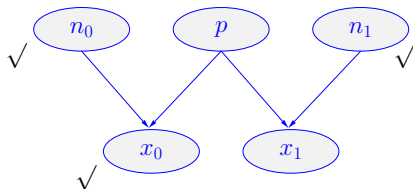
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- ▶ We need to take into account all possible values of p , each weighted by how much we believe it, i.e. by $f(p)$
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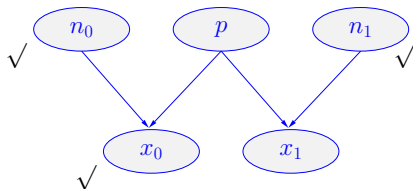
- ▶ More precisely,

$$f(x_1 | n_1, n_0, x_0) = \int_0^1 f(x_1 | n_1, p) f(p | x_0, n_0) dp$$

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- ▶ $X_1 \rightarrow f_1$ (Predicting a **future frequency from a past frequency**)

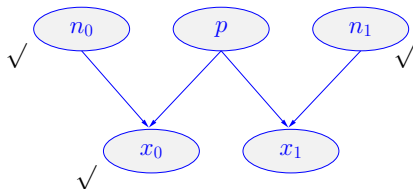
Predictive distribution

Some examples

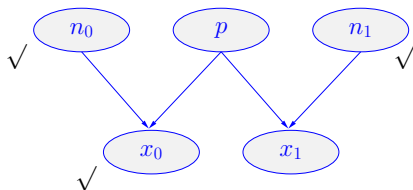
$f(x_1 | n_0, x_0, n_1 = 10)$ in %

| X_1 | $\frac{x_1}{n_1}$ | $\begin{cases} x_0 = 1 \\ n_0 = 2 \end{cases}$ | $\begin{cases} x_0 = 10 \\ n_0 = 20 \end{cases}$ | $\begin{cases} x_0 = 100 \\ n_0 = 200 \end{cases}$ | $\begin{cases} x_0 = 1000 \\ n_0 = 2000 \end{cases}$ |
|---------------|-------------------|--|--|--|--|
| 0 | 0 | 3.85 | 0.42 | 0.12 | 0.10 |
| 1 | 0.1 | 6.99 | 2.29 | 1.11 | 0.99 |
| 2 | 0.2 | 9.44 | 6.51 | 4.67 | 4.42 |
| 3 | 0.3 | 11.19 | 12.54 | 11.88 | 11.74 |
| 4 | 0.4 | 12.24 | 18.07 | 20.21 | 20.48 |
| 5 | 0.5 | 12.59 | 20.33 | 24.02 | 24.55 |
| 6 | 0.6 | 12.24 | 18.07 | 20.21 | 20.48 |
| 7 | 0.7 | 11.19 | 12.54 | 11.88 | 11.74 |
| 8 | 0.8 | 9.44 | 6.51 | 4.67 | 4.42 |
| 9 | 0.9 | 6.99 | 2.29 | 1.11 | 0.99 |
| 10 | 1 | 3.84 | 0.42 | 0.12 | 0.10 |
| $E(X_1)$ | | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| $\sigma[X_1]$ | | 2.64 | 1.87 | 1.62 | 1.58 |

Joint inference and prediction



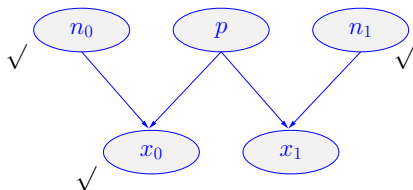
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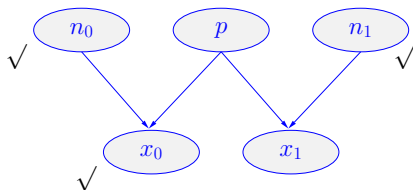
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conditioning on what is 'known' (or 'assumed'):

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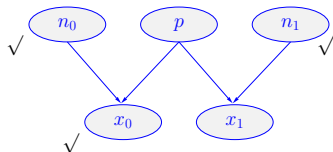
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⇒ The denominator is just a constant.

⇒ **Very important observation** in order to solve the problem numerically or by Monte Carlo methods! (And remember that the numerator can be obtained using the chain rule)

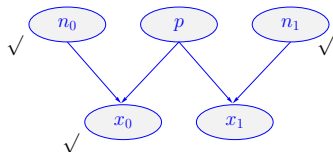
Graphical models



Terminology:

- ▶ nodes (observed/unobserved);
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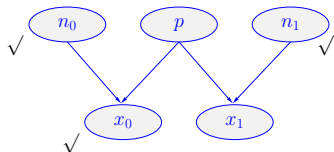
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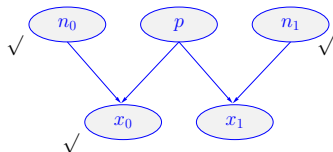
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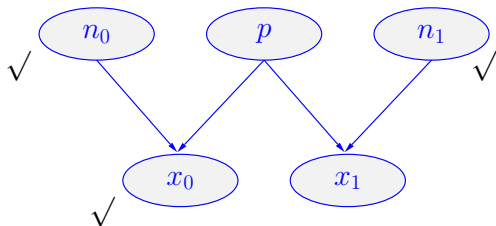
Software to analyse it:

- ▶ instructions which remind the description of the model by a suitable chain rule;
- ▶ computation performed by Markov Chain Monte Carlo.

Joint inference and prediction in JAGS

JAGS: Just Another Gibbs Sampler

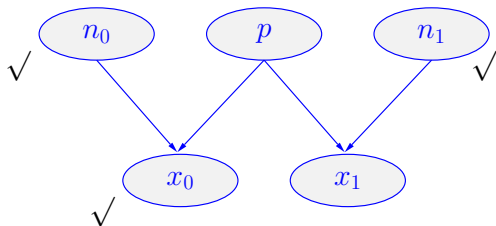
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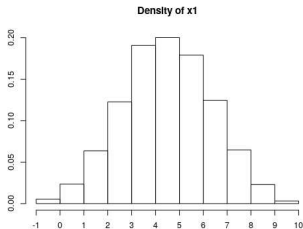
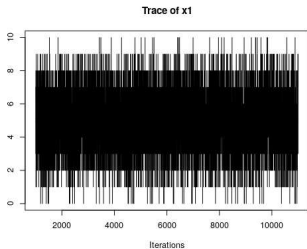
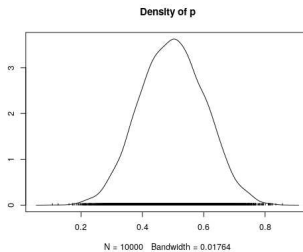
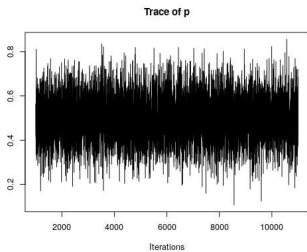


Model:

```
model{
  x0 ~ dbin(p, n0)
  x1 ~ dbin(p, n1)
  p ~ dbeta(1, 1)      # flat prior in terms of a Beta
}
```

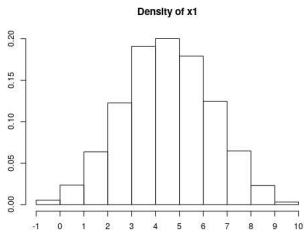
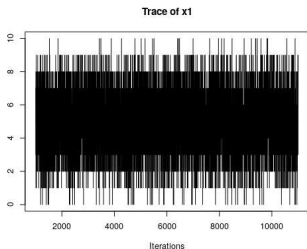
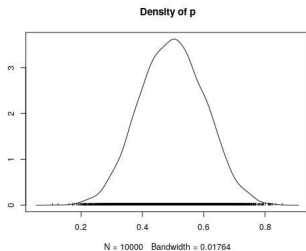
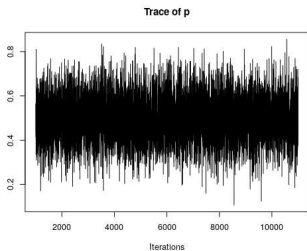
Use of JAGS from R via rjags

($n0 = 20$, $x0 = 10$, $n1 = 10$)



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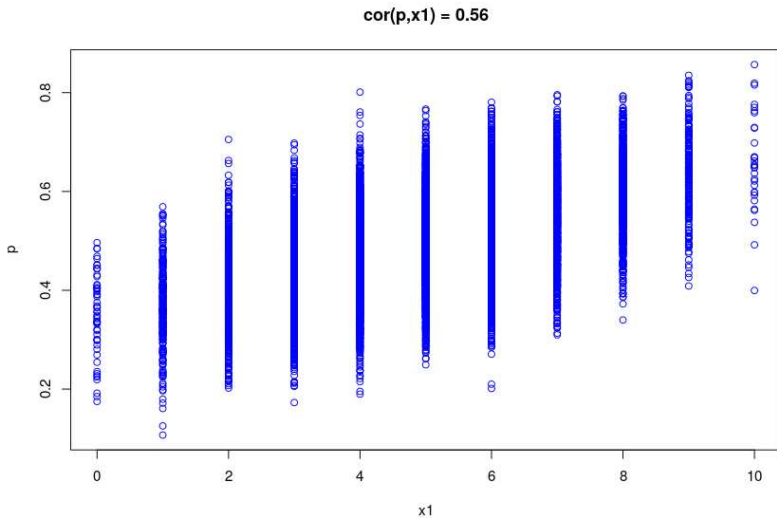
($n_0 = 20$, $x_0 = 10$, $n_1 = 10$)



$p = 0.498 \pm 0.105$; $x_1 = 4.98 \pm 1.86$ (10000 samples).

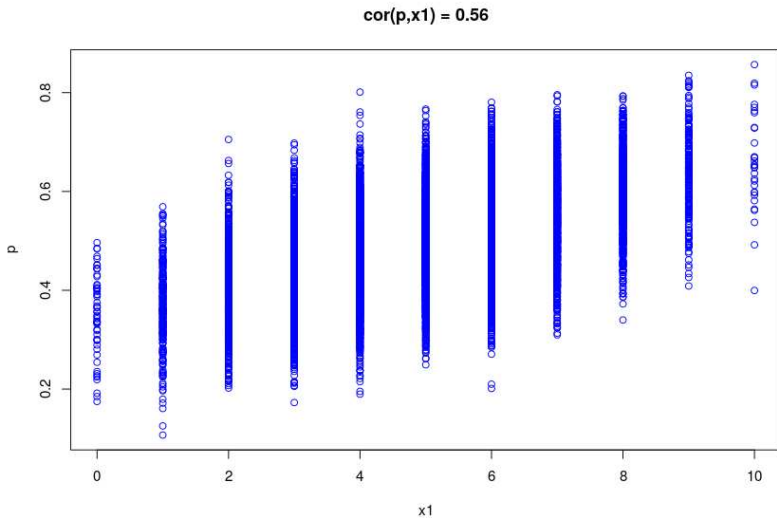
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Scatter plot of sampled $f(p, x_1 | n_0, x_0, n_1)$



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A package more suited for Physics analysis (especially HEP)



<https://bat.mpp.mpg.de/>

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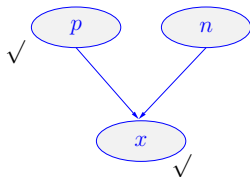


<https://bat.mpp.mpg.de/>

Presently rewritten in Julia: <https://github.com/bat/BAT.jl>

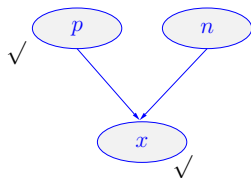
n independent Bernoulli processes

Inferring n



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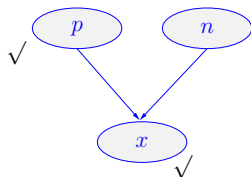
Inferring n



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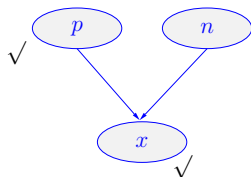


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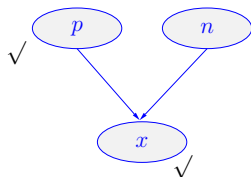


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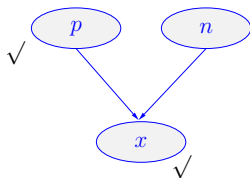
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n independent Bernoulli processes

Extending the model

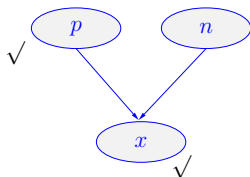
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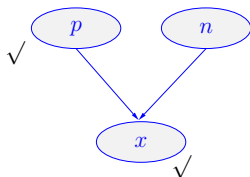


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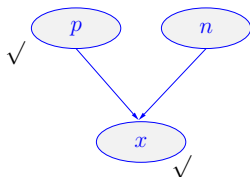


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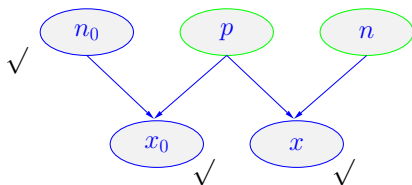
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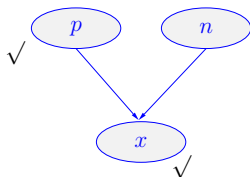
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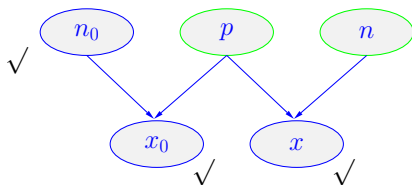
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But what is n ?

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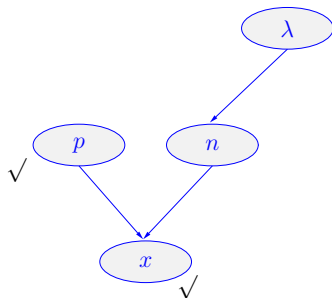
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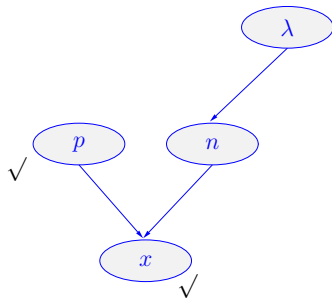


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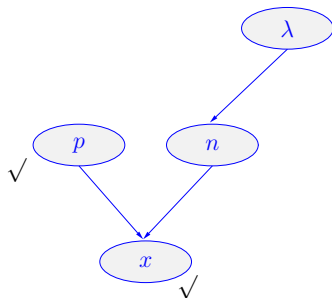
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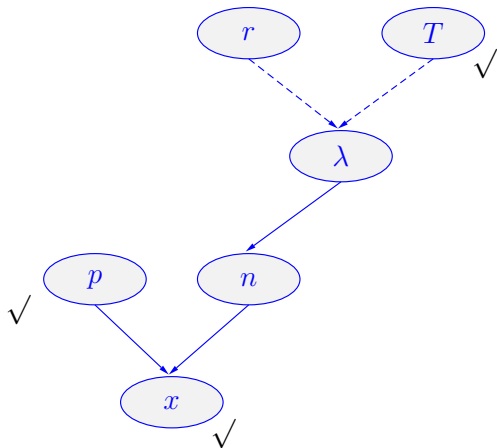
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(r : intensity of the Poisson process).

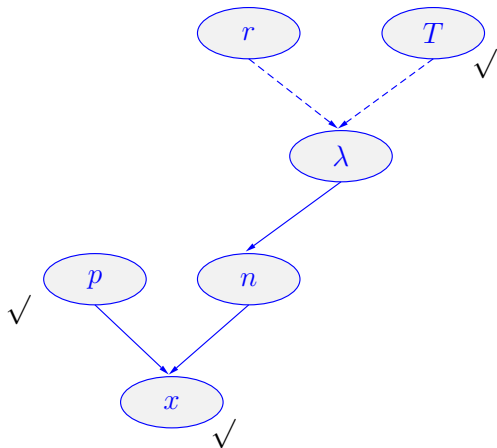
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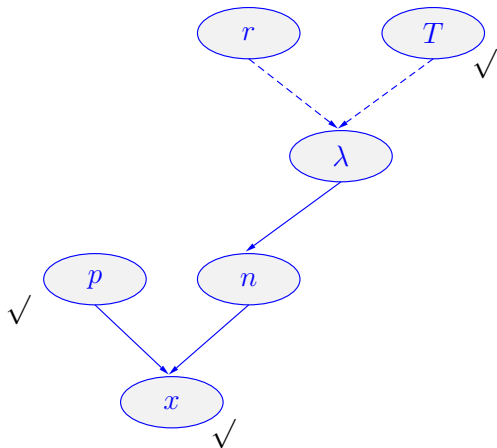
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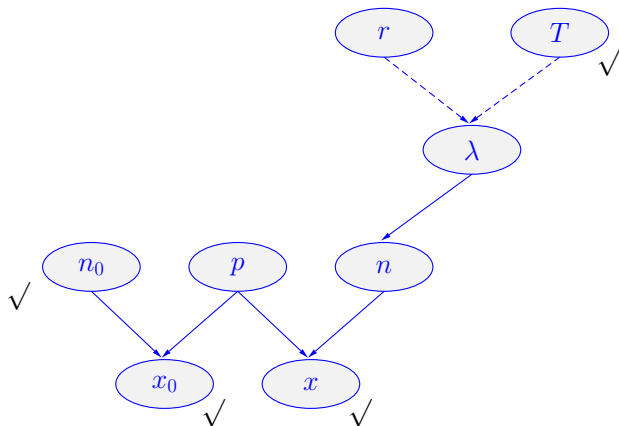


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In JAGS, e.g., `lambda <- r * T;`

Extending the model

Remembering that p was got from a measurement:

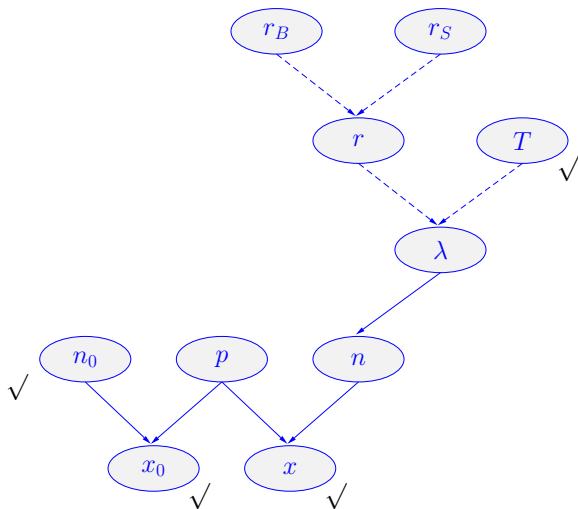


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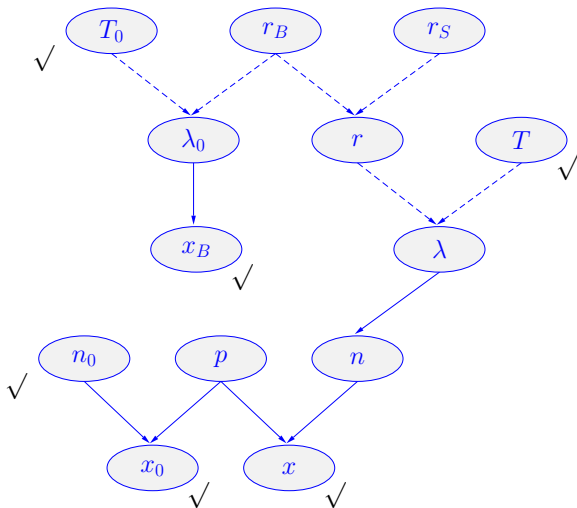
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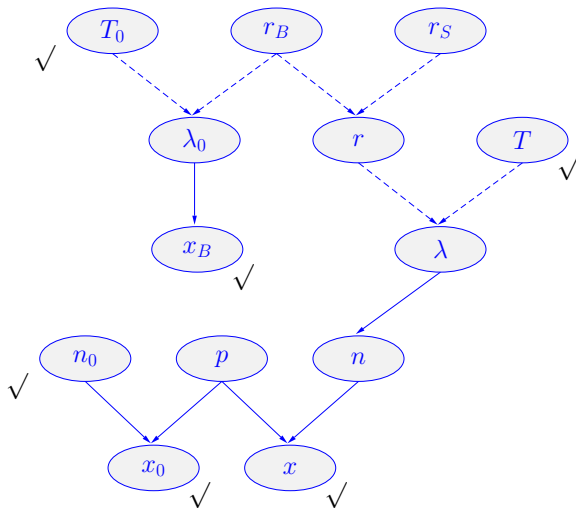
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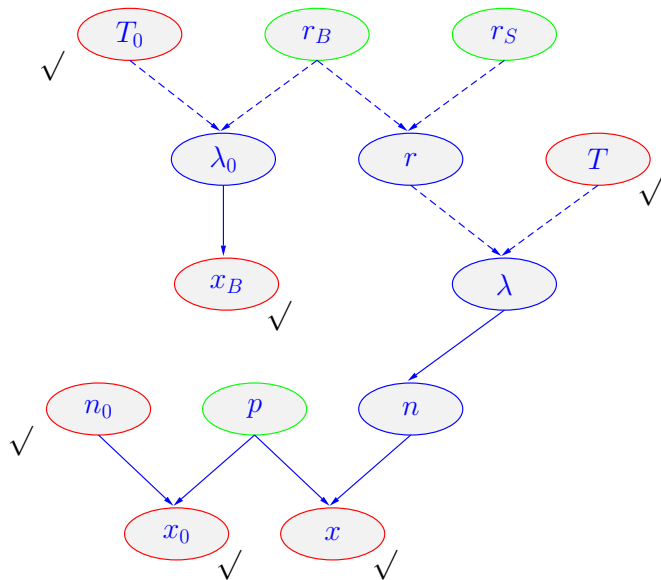
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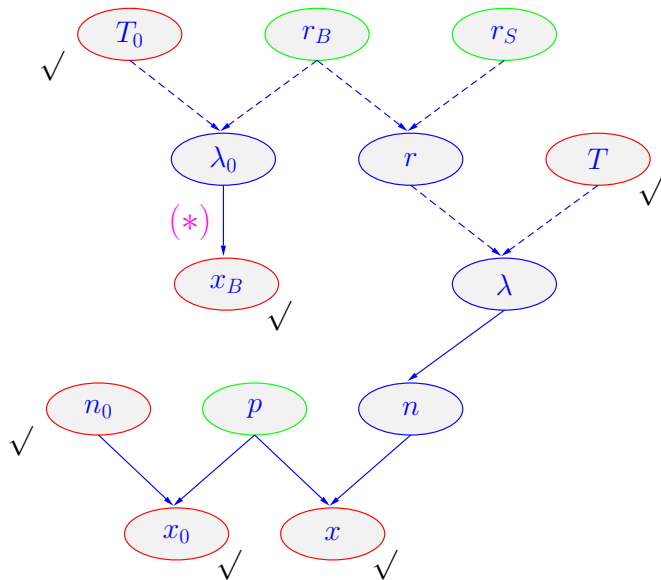


(T_0 and T assumed to be measured with sufficient accuracy)

Extending the model

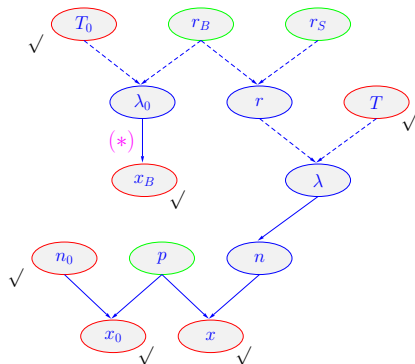


Extending the model



(*) Assuming unity efficiency

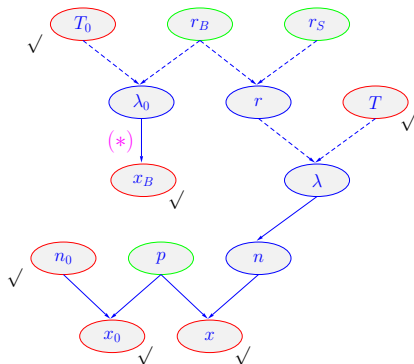
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All the rest is a technical question of

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Or, more easily, use software **grounded on probability theory**, like BUGS, JAGS, BAT, etc.

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More [detailed applications](#) (including scripts) in

- ▶ <https://www.roma1.infn.it/~dagos/prob+stat.html>

[For [BAT](#) and [BAT.jl](#) see their web pages]

Summing up

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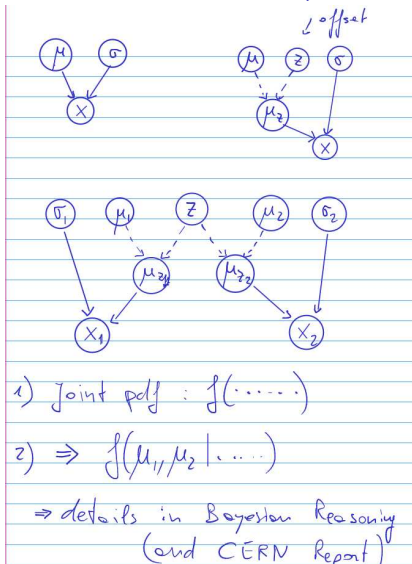
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Handling systematics in the probabilistic approach

(Answering to a question: diagrams show the case of uncertain offset systematics, best known to be, after proper calibration, $z = 0 \pm \sigma_z$)



References

- ▶ **As starting points**, particularly recommended are the last papers, in which **graphical models** are systematically exploited:
 - ▶ arXiv:2001.03466 [physics.data-an]
 - ▶ arXiv:2009.04843 [q-bio.PE]
 - ▶ arXiv:2012.04455 [stat.ME]
 - ▶ arXiv:2102.11022 [stat.AP]
- ▶ **Much more** can be found in
 - ▶ <https://www.roma1.infn.it/~dagos/prob+stat.html>
 - ▶ https://www.roma1.infn.it/~dagos/dott-prob_31/