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# Probabilistic Reasoning in Frontier Physics

– inference, forecasting, decision –

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“Probability is good sense reduced to a calculus” (Laplace)

# Preamble

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- What can we say in just a few hours?  
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- ⇒ **Probabilistic approach**
-



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An invitation to (re-)think  
on fundamental aspects  
of data analysis.

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This first lesson:

1. *Claims of discoveries based on 'sigmas'*  
(based on a lecture to Italian teachers in Frascati,  
<http://www.lnf.infn.it/edu/incontri/2012/>)
2. *Basic of probabilistic inference*  
(and related topics)

Tomorrow other applications will be shown

⇒ [Lorenzo Bellagamba](#)

# 2011: non only Opera...

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- April, **CDF**: absolutely unexpected excess at about 150 GeV

$$\approx 3.2 \sigma$$

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$$\approx 6 \sigma$$

- December, ATLAS e CMS at **LHC**: signal compatible with the Higgs at about 125 GeV:

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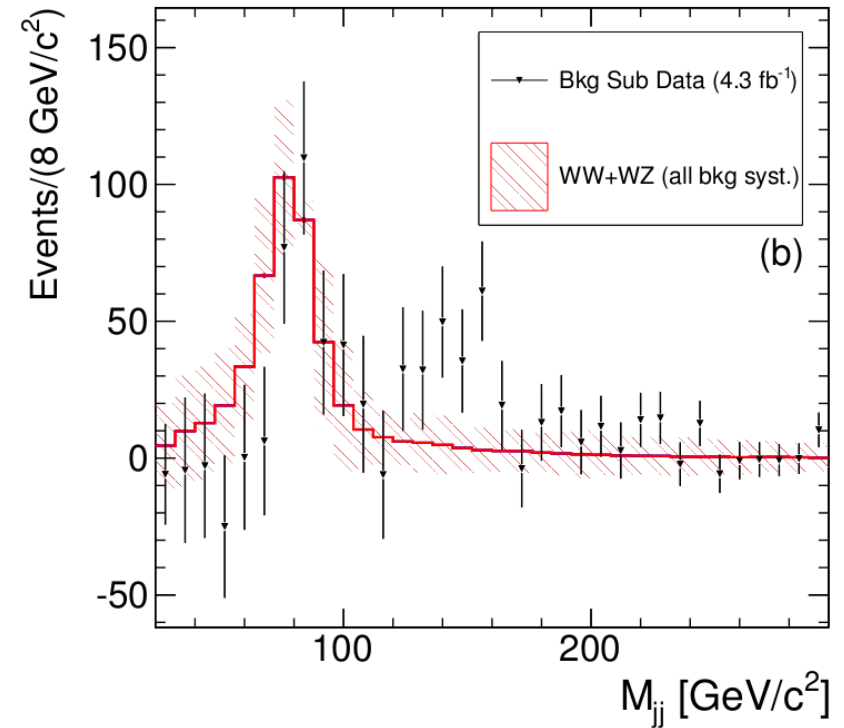
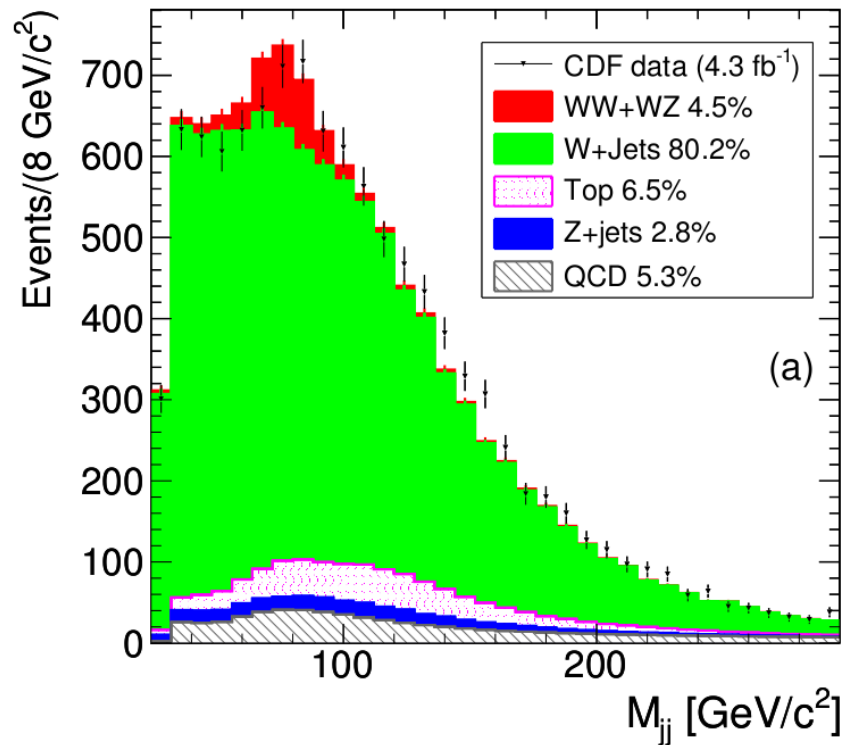
- December, ATLAS e CMS at **LHC**: signal compatible with the Higgs at about 125 GeV:

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Why there was substantial **scepticism towards the first two announcements**, in contrast with a cautious/pronounced **optimism towards the third one**?

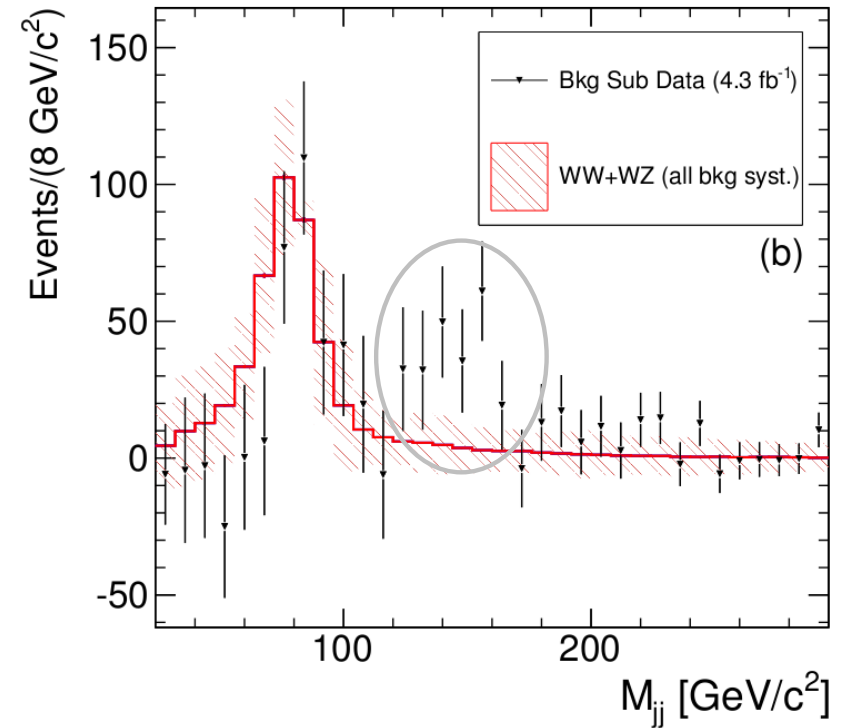
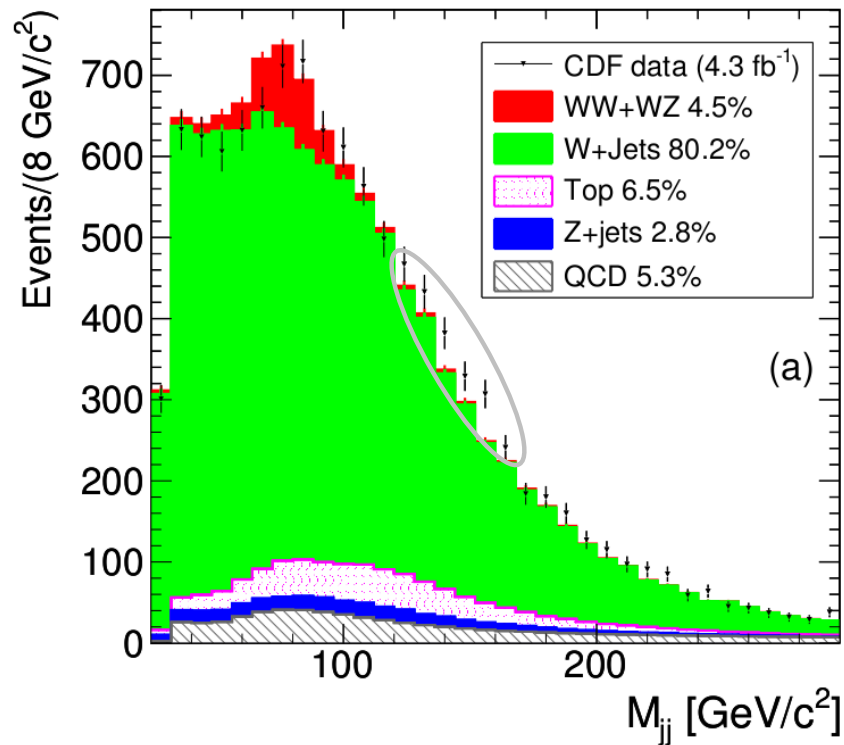
# April 2011

## CDF Collaboration at the Tevatron



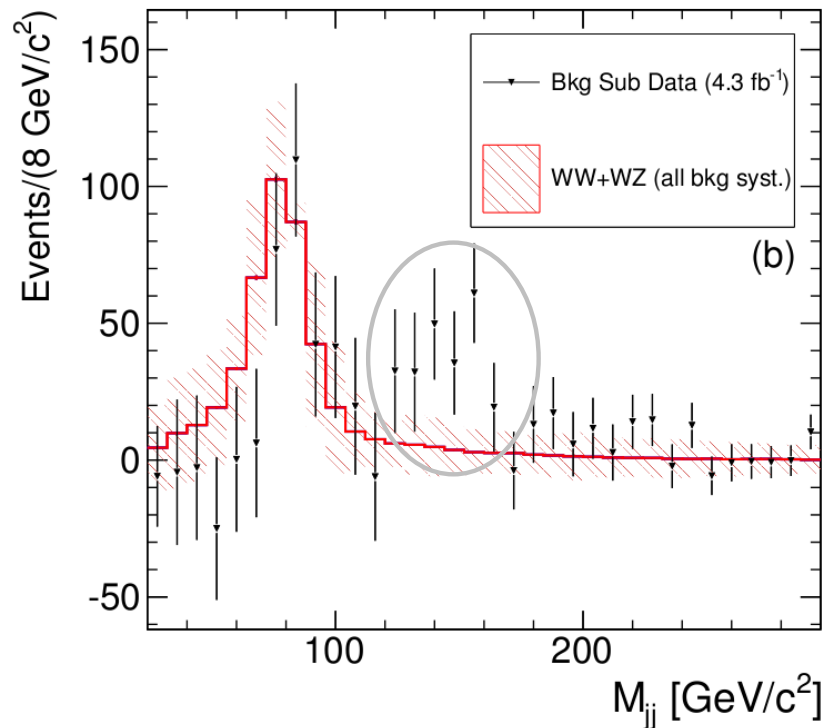
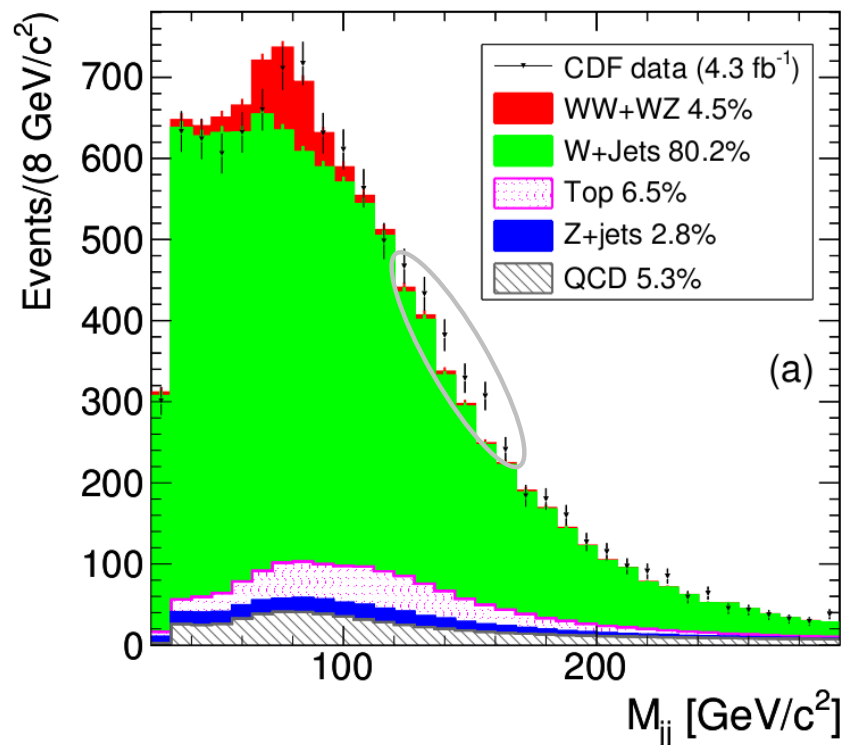
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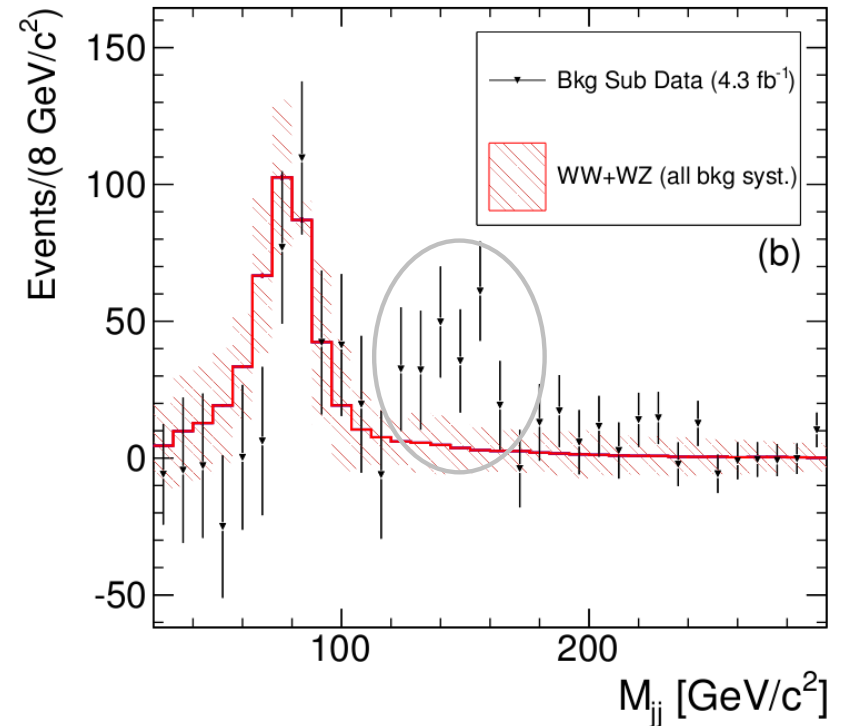
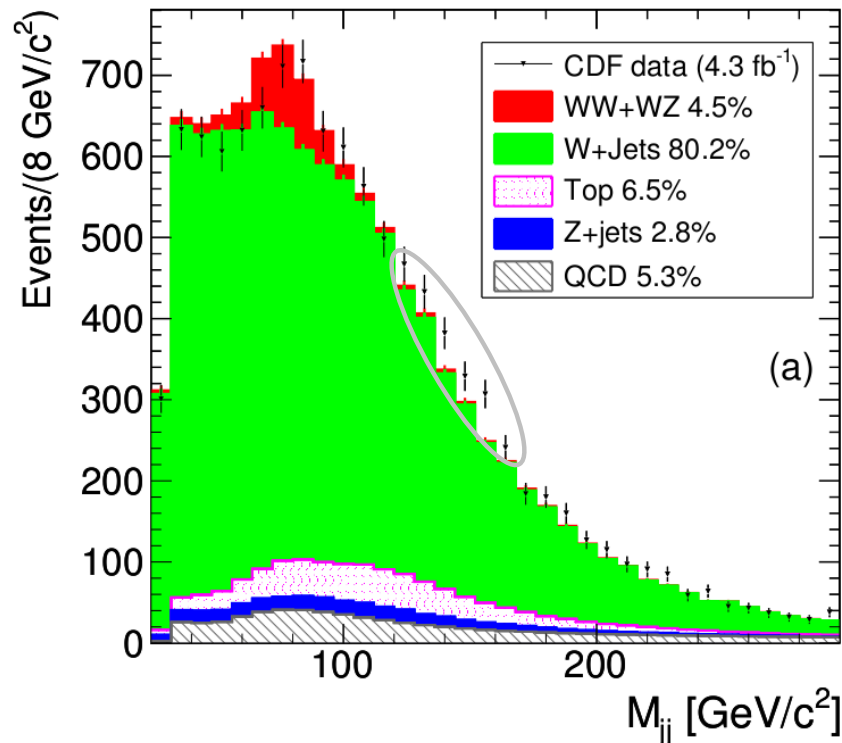
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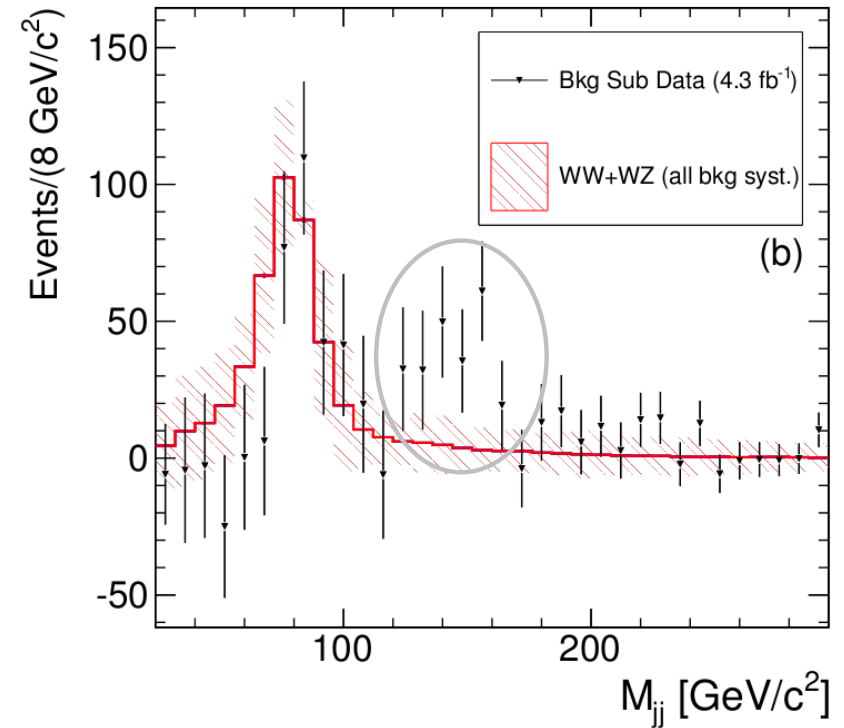
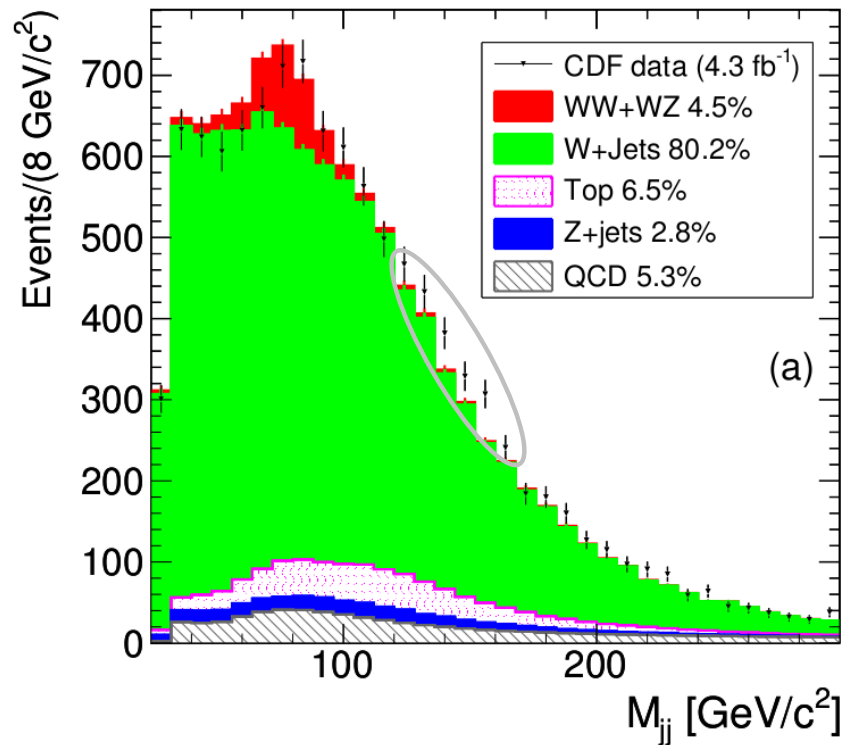
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**3.2  $\sigma$  !**



# April 2011

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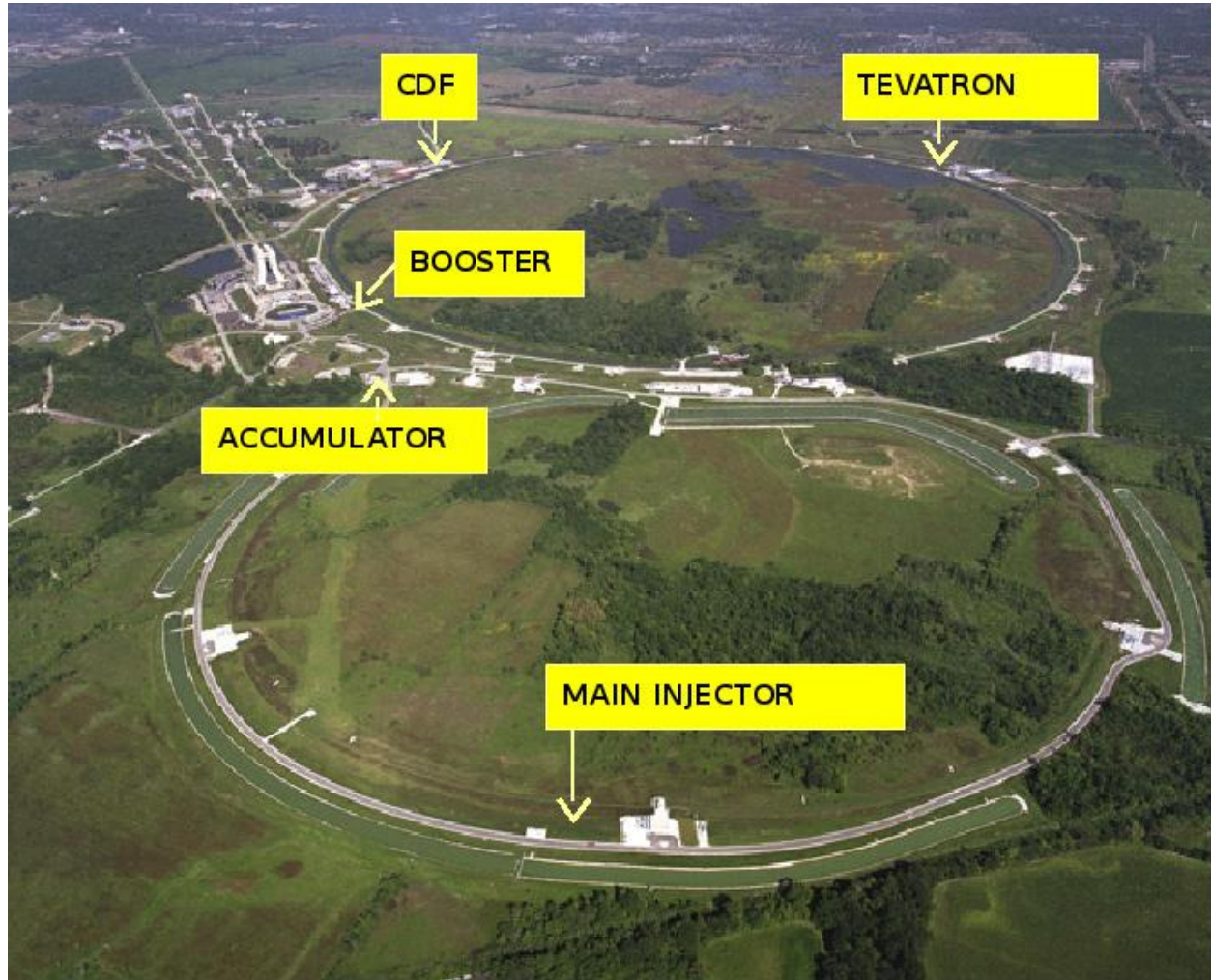


What does it mean?

# Tevatron and CDF

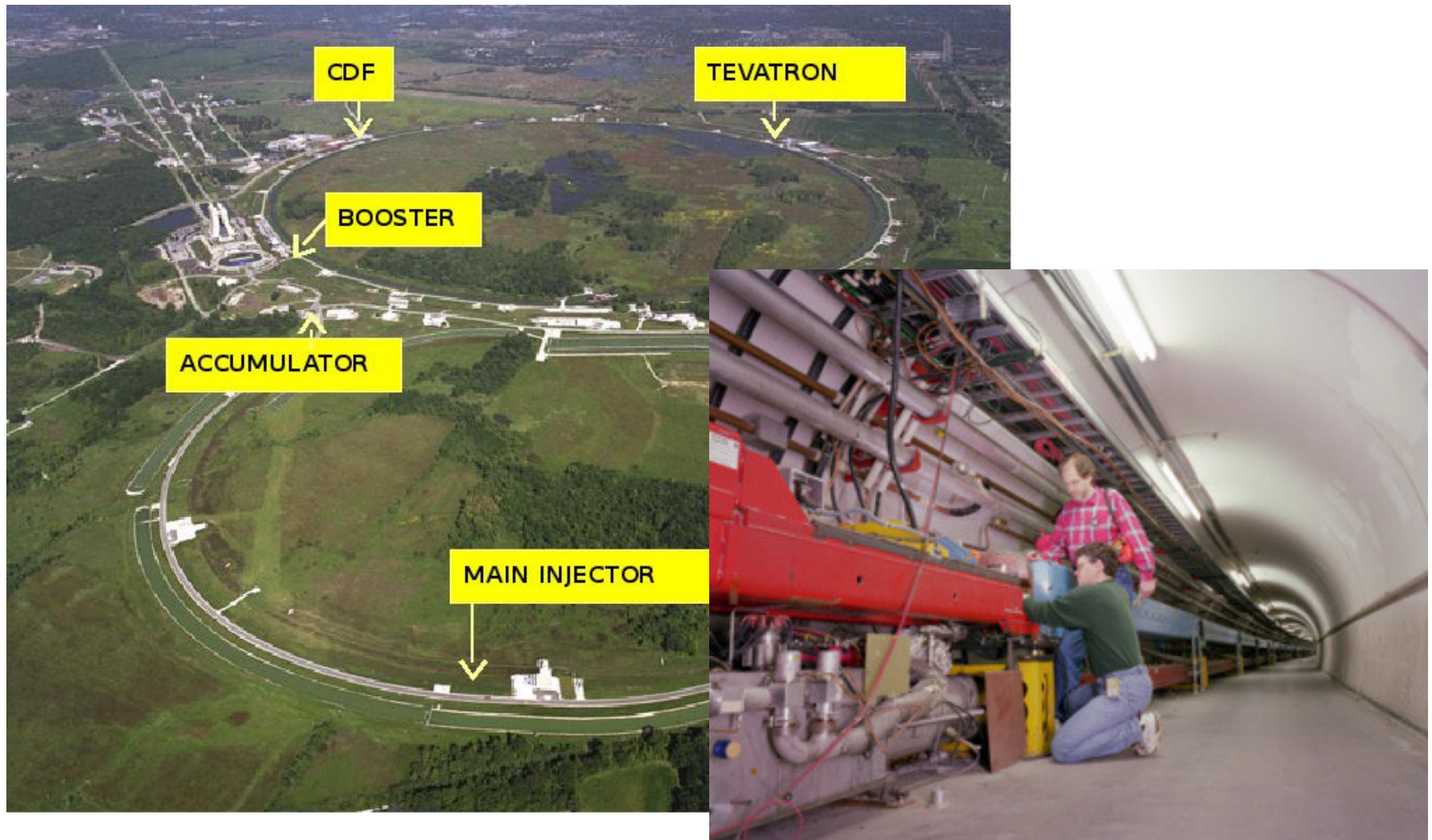
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6.28 km, near Chicago



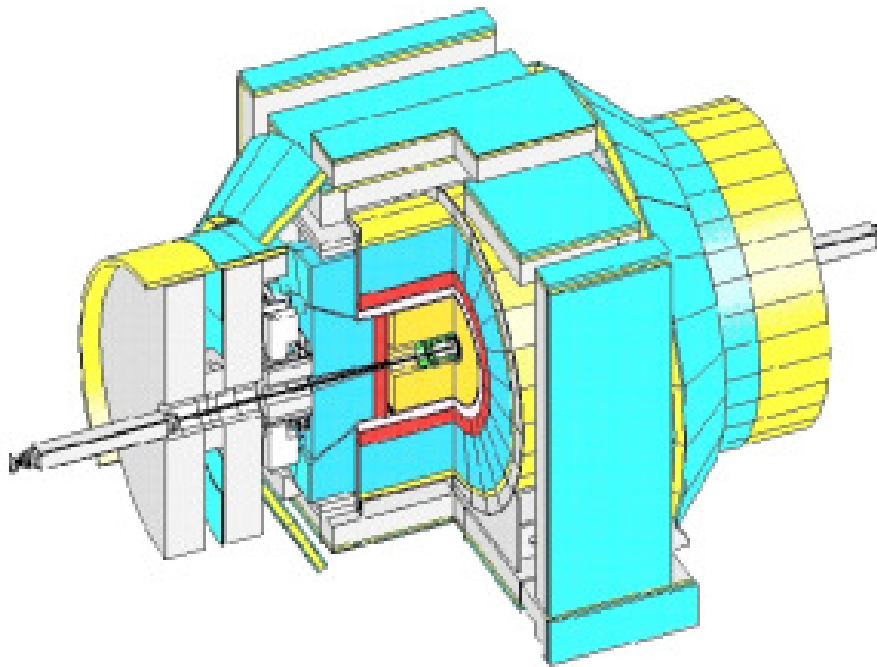
# Tevatron and CDF

$$p \rightarrow \cdot \leftarrow \bar{p} \quad [\approx 1 \text{ TeV} + 1 \text{ TeV}]$$



# Tevatron and CDF

CDF: a multipurpose ('hermetic') detector



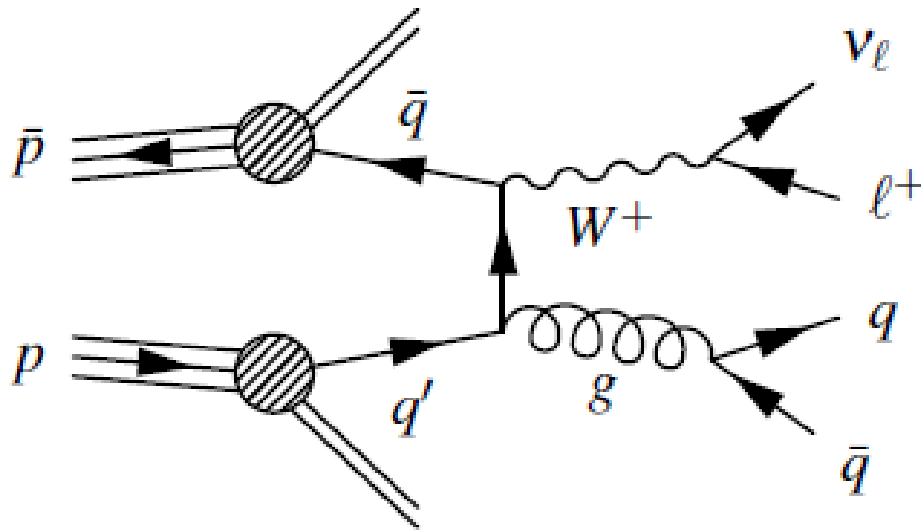
# Tevatron and CDF

... a large, very sophisticated detector!



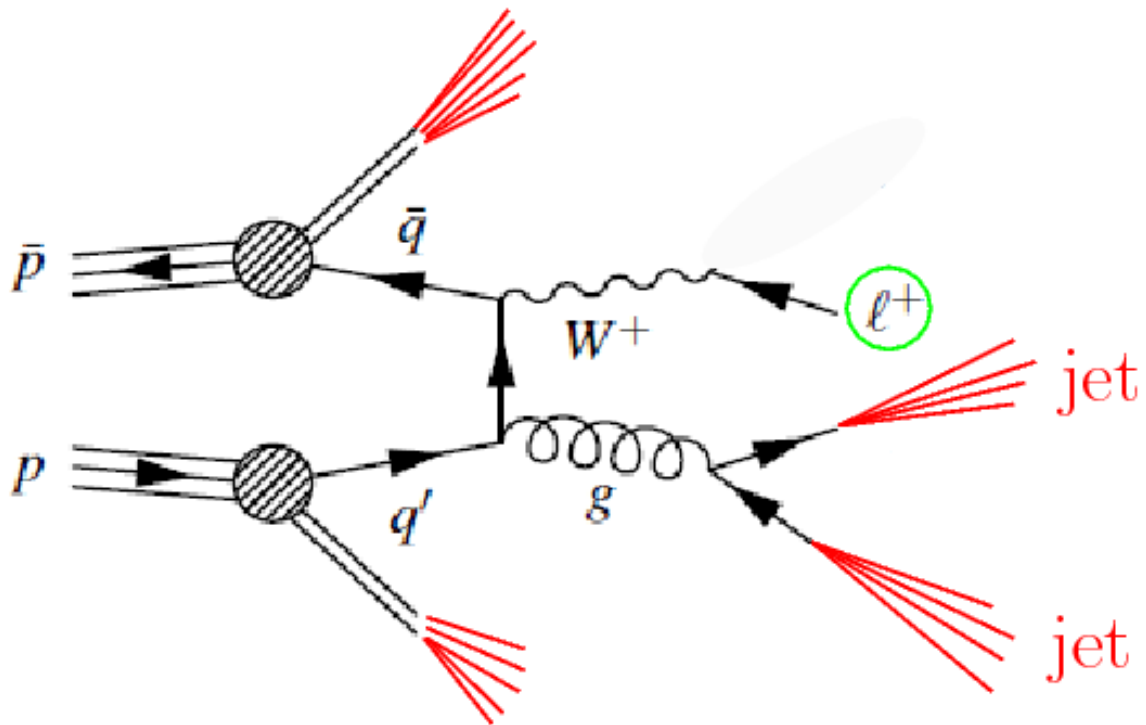
# Jet-jet + W

$W + (q\bar{q})$  [+ 'remnants']



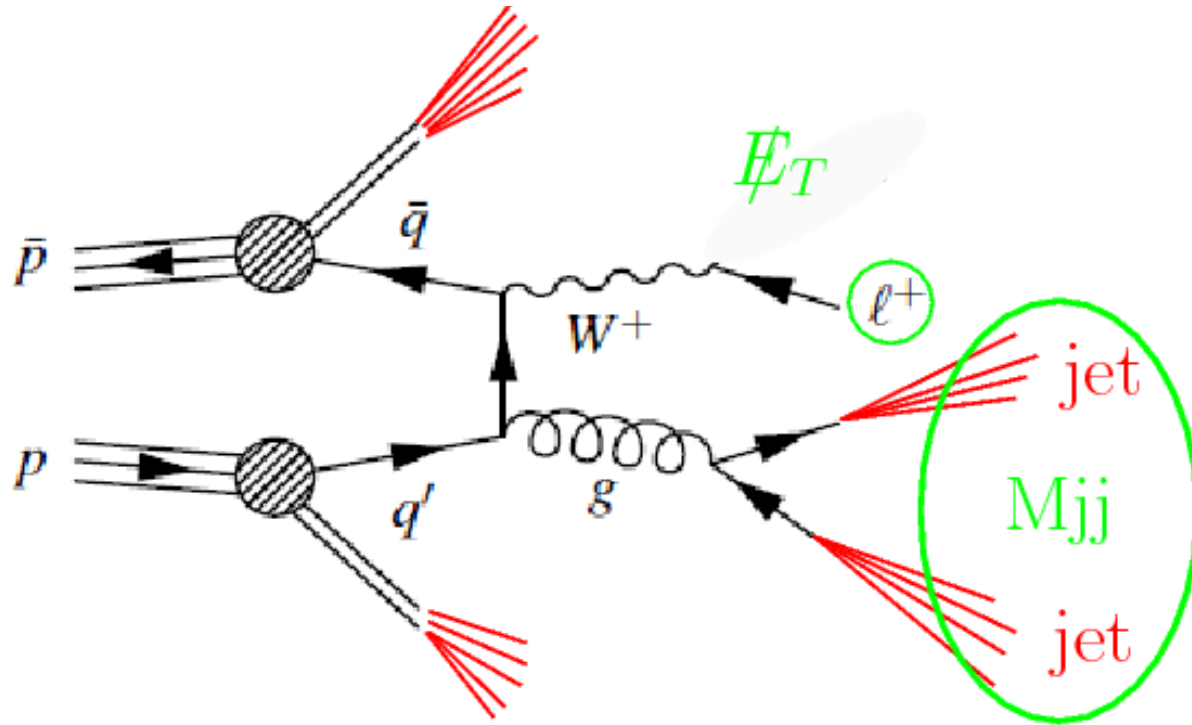
# Jet-jet + W

$W + 2\text{jet}$  [ + much more ]



# Jet-jet + W

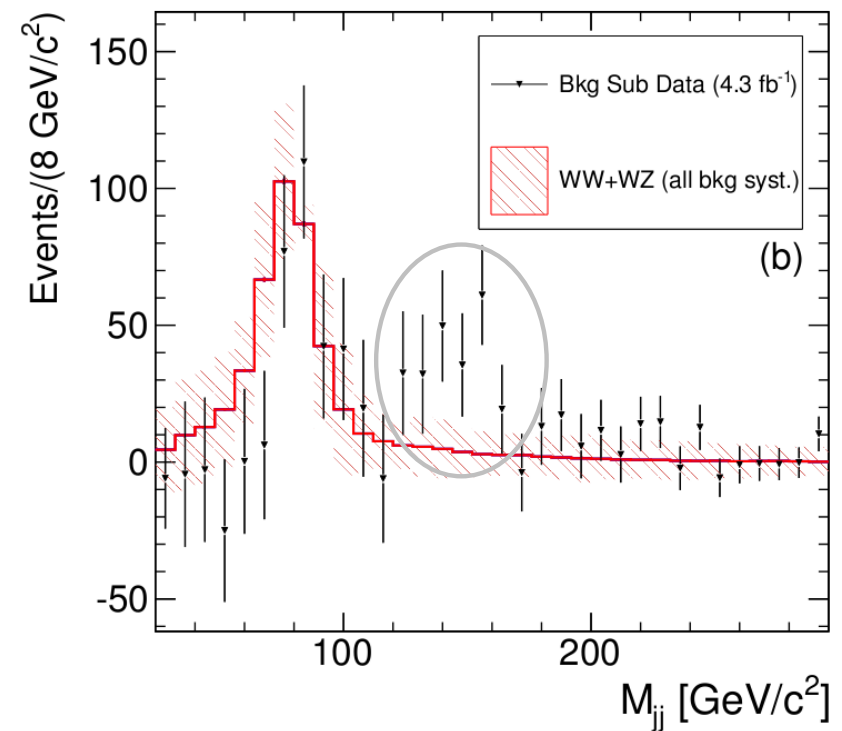
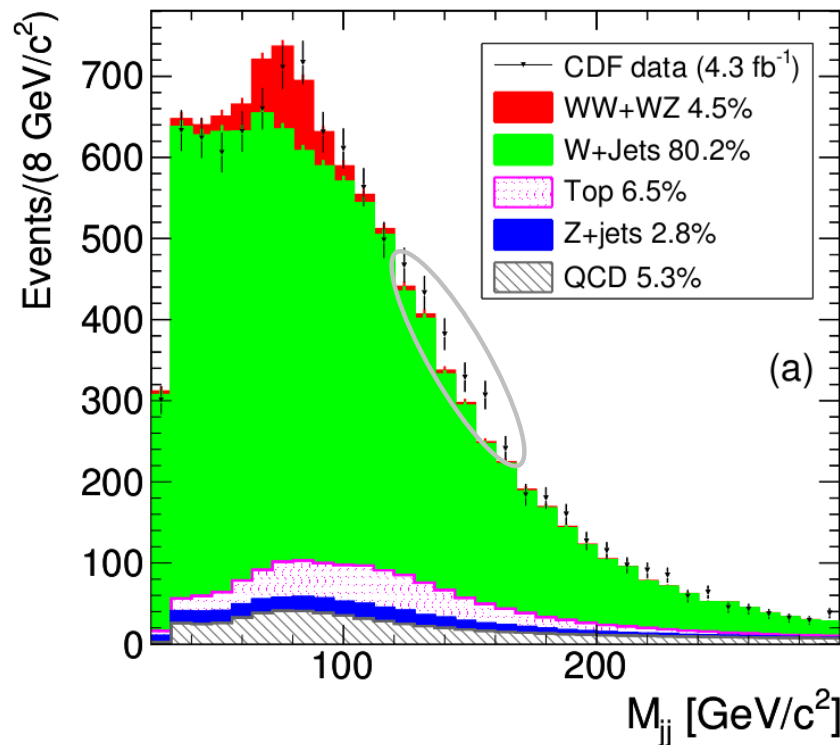
$\Rightarrow M_{jj} + W + \dots$





# The ‘bump’!

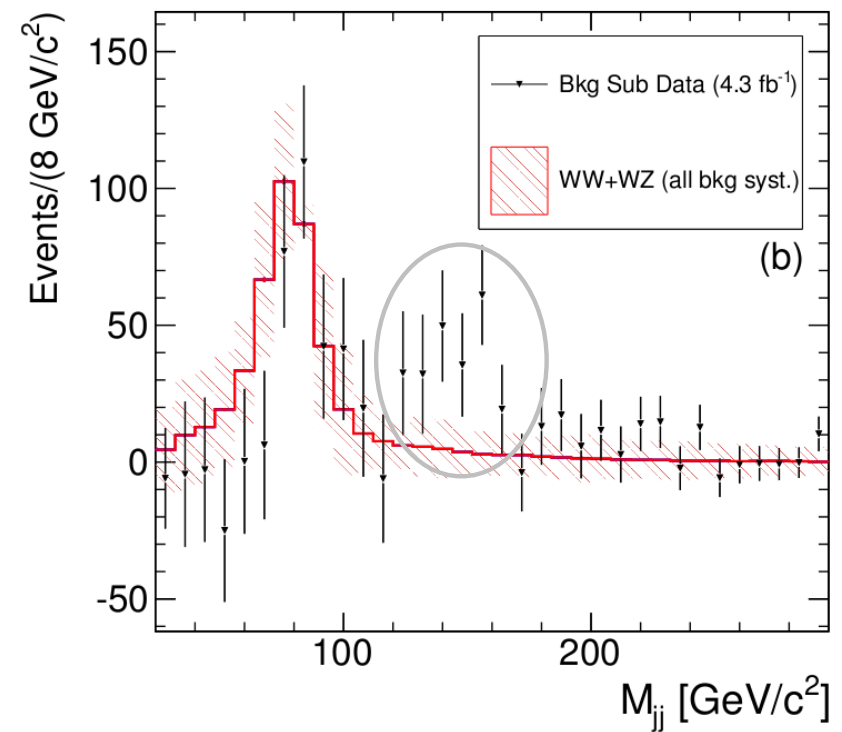
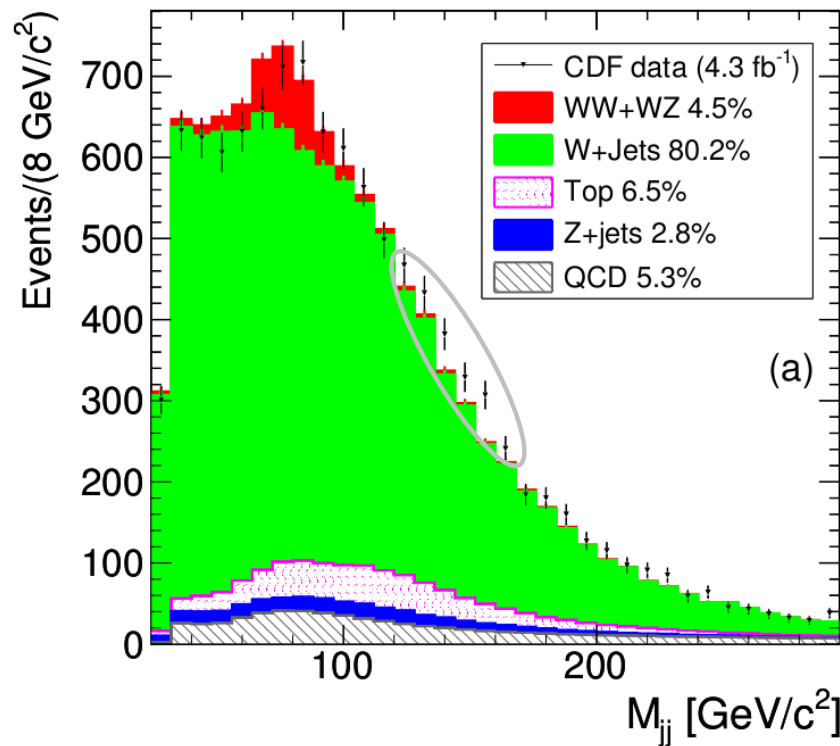
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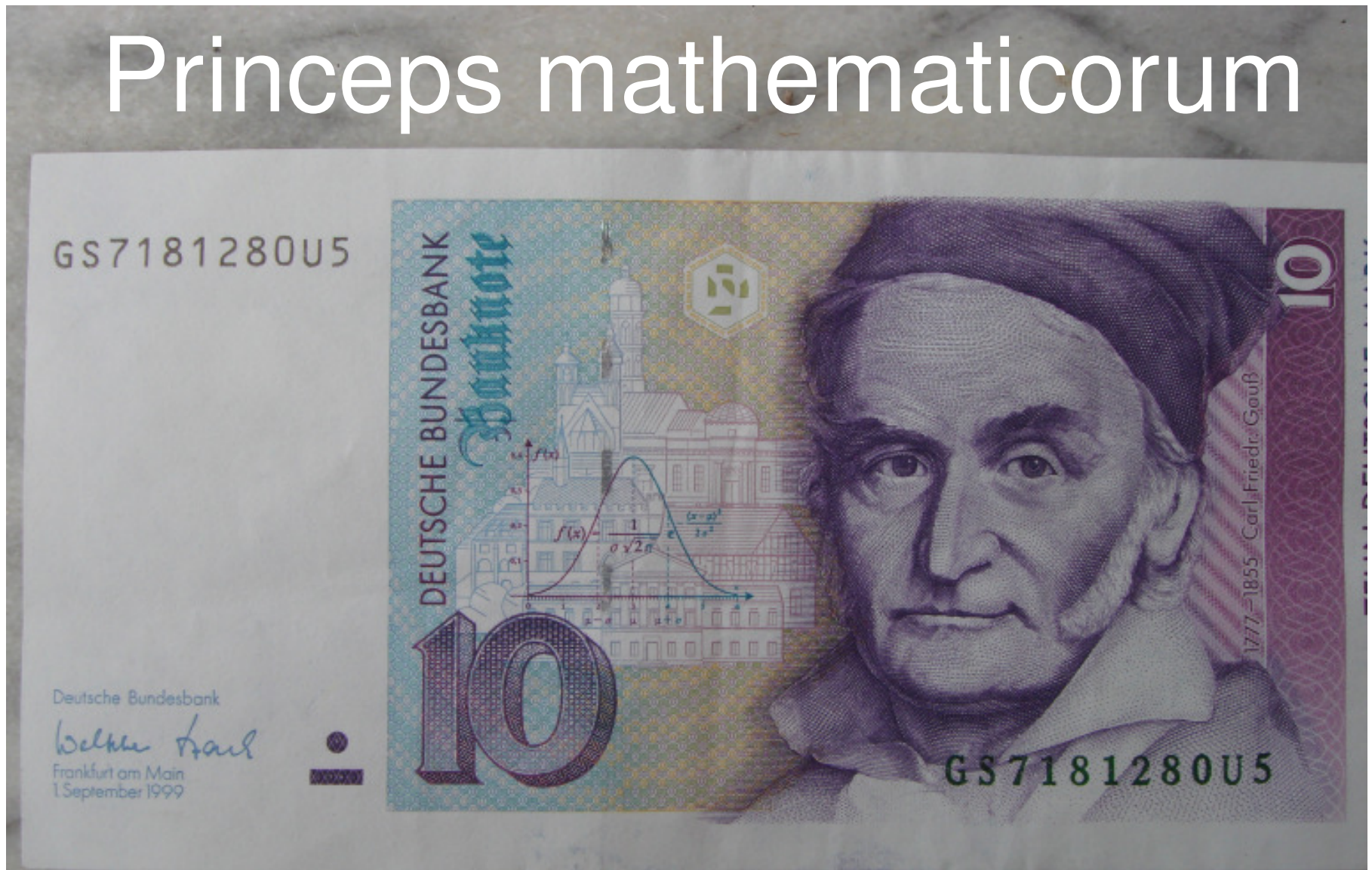
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What does it mean?

# Sigma and gaussian distribution

## Princeps mathematicorum



# Sigma and gaussian distribution



# Sigma e probability [gaussian!]

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If the random number  $X$  is described by a gaussian pdf

$$P(-\sigma \leq X \leq +\sigma) = 68.3\%$$

$$P(-2\sigma \leq X \leq +2\sigma) = 95.4\%$$

$$P(-3\sigma \leq X \leq +3\sigma) = 99.73\%$$

$$1 - P(-3\sigma \leq X \leq +3\sigma) = 0.27\%$$

$$1 - P(-4\sigma \leq X \leq +4\sigma) = 6.3 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\dots = \dots$$

$$1 - P(-6\sigma \leq X \leq +6\sigma) = 2.0 \times 10^{-9}$$

$$1 - P(-3.2\sigma \leq X \leq +3.2\sigma) = 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$P(X \geq +3.17\sigma) = 7.6 \times 10^{-4} \quad \checkmark$$

# p-value, significance and sigma

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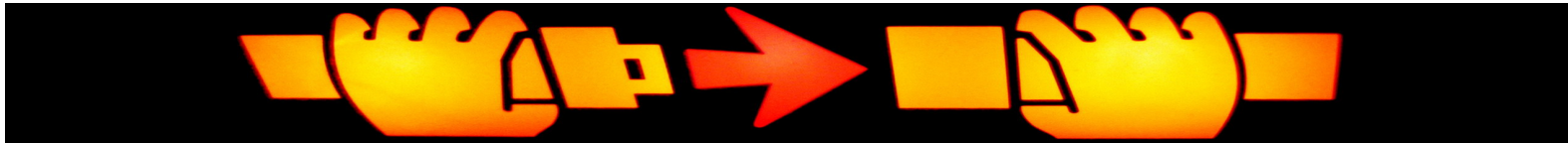
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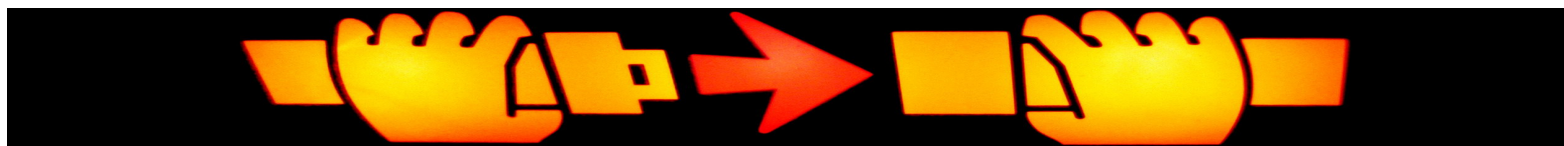


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- In so far does it provides us a ‘**significance**’?

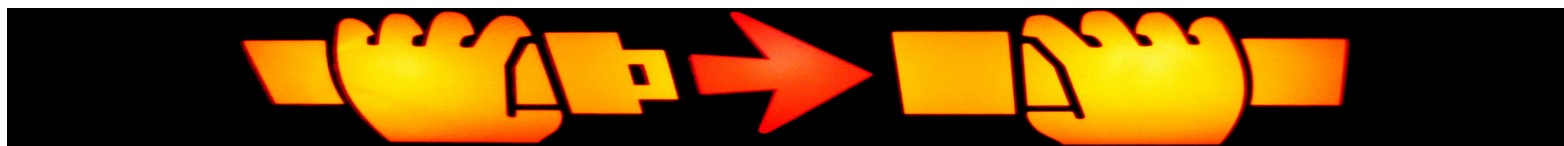


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In short,

- Is  $7.6 \times 10^{-4}$  a **probability**?
- **of what?**

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*“Physicists at the Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory are planning to announce Wednesday that they have found a suspicious bump in their data that could be evidence of a new elementary particle or even, some say, a new force of nature.*

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[ Do not ask me how  $7.6 \times 10^{-4}$  becomes  $< 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$   
(but this can be considere a minor detail... ) ]

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From my experience, journalists might make imprecisions, bad they do not invent pieces of news [. . . at least scientific ones. . . :-) ]

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$$1/1375 = 7.3 \times 10^{-4} \Rightarrow P(\text{No stat. fluct.}) = 99.93\% \quad !$$

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It seems we are understanding well, besides the fact of how 99.9% becomes 99.7%...

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But, at the end of the post:

1. "My money is on the false alarm at the moment,..."
2. "...but I would be very happy to lose it."
3. "And I reserve the right to change my mind rapidly as more data come in!"

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Assolutetly meaningful! (A part from the initial mismatch)

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But how must our convictions rationally change on the light of new experimental data? Is there a **logical rule**?

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Indeed, **the largest majority of physicists disbelieve it.**

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“de Rujula’s paradox”:

*“If you disbelieve every result presented as having a 3 sigma – or “equivalently” a 99.7% chance – of being correct... You will turn out to be right 99.7% of the times.”*

(Alvaro de Rujula, private communication)

# The cemetery of Physics

THE CEMETERY OF PHYSICS  
IS FULL OF WONDERFUL  
EFFECTS...



...THAT VERY OFTEN LEAD  
TO THEORETICAL, EXPERIMENTAL PROGRESS

*Alvaro de Rujula*

# Testing one hypothesis

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  - let's start from a 'conventional' model  
[Standard Modell, rather 'established theory', etc:]  
→ " $H_0$ " ("null hypothesis")

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[Standard Modell, rather 'established theory', etc:]  
→ " $H_0$ " ("null hypothesis")  
⇒ search for violations of  $H_0$
- Ideally  
→ 'falsify'  $H_0$

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⇒ search for violations of  $H_0$
- Ideally  
→ 'falsify'  $H_0$
- In practice:
  - does it make sense?
  - how is it done?

# Testing one hypothesis

---

- Basic Idea:
  - let's start from a 'conventional' model  
[Standard Modell, rather 'established theory', etc:]  
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- Ideally  
→ 'falsify'  $H_0$
- In practice:
  - does it make sense?
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Let's review the practice and what is behind it ⇒

# Falsificationism

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It seems OK – '*obvious*'! – but it is indeed naïve for several aspects.

# Proof by contradiction ... 'extended' ...

---

Falsification rule: to what is 'inspired'?

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Proof by contradiction of classical, deductive logic:

- Assume that a hypothesis is true;
- Derive 'all' logical consequence;
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is this extension legitimate?

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E.g.  $H_i$  being a Gaussian  $f(x | \mu_i, \sigma_i)$

⇒ Given any pair of parameters  $\{\mu_i, \sigma_i\}$  (i.e.  $\forall H_i$ ), all values of  $x$  from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$  are possible.

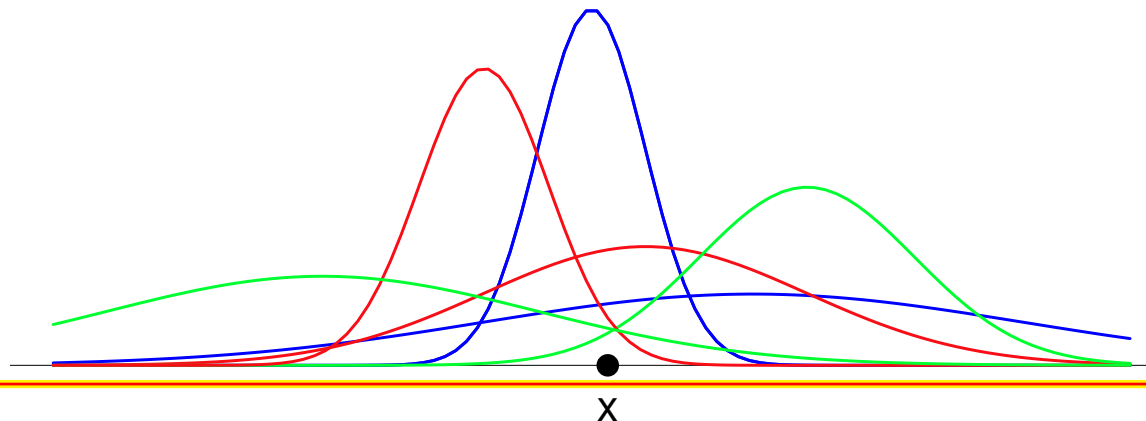
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⇒ Having observed any value of  $x$ , none of  $H_i$  can be, strictly speaking, falsified.



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---

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⇒ **Practically never in the experimental sciences!**

# Falsificationism in action...

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Obviously, this does not mean that falsificationism never works, **as long** as **no stochastic** processes are involved (randomness inherent to the physical processes, or due to 'errors' in measurement). Certainly it works against itself:

- Science proceeds, in practice, rather differently:

The natural development of Science shows that researches are carried along the directions that seem more credible (and hopefully fruitful) at a given moment. A behaviour “*179 degrees or so out of phase from Popper’s idea that we make progress by falsifying theories*”

(Wilczek,

<http://arxiv.org/abs/physics/0403115>)

# Falsificationism in action...

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Obviously, this does not mean that falsificationism never works, **as long** as **no stochastic** processes are involved (randomness inherent to the physical processes, or due to 'errors' in measurement). Certainly it works against itself:

⇒ logically speaking, falsificationism has to be considered ... falsified!

# Falsificationism and statistics

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... then, statisticians have invented the “hypothesis tests”, in which **the impossible** is replaced by the **improbable!**

But from the **impossible** to the **improbable** there is not just a question of **quantity**, but a question of **quality**.

This mechanism, logically flawed, is particularly dangerous because is deeply rooted in most scientists, due to education and custom, although not supported by logic.

⇒ **Basically responsible of all fake claims of discoveries in the past decades.**

*[I am particularly worried about claims concerning our health, or the status of the planet, of which I have no control of the experimental data.]*

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"most likely false"~~

NO

**But** it is behind the rational behind  
the statistical hypothesis tests!

---

# Example

---

An Italian citizen is chosen at random and sent to take an AIDS test (test is not perfect, as it is the case in practice).

*Simplified model:*

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

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

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

$E_1 = \text{Positive}$

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

$E_2 = \text{Negative}$

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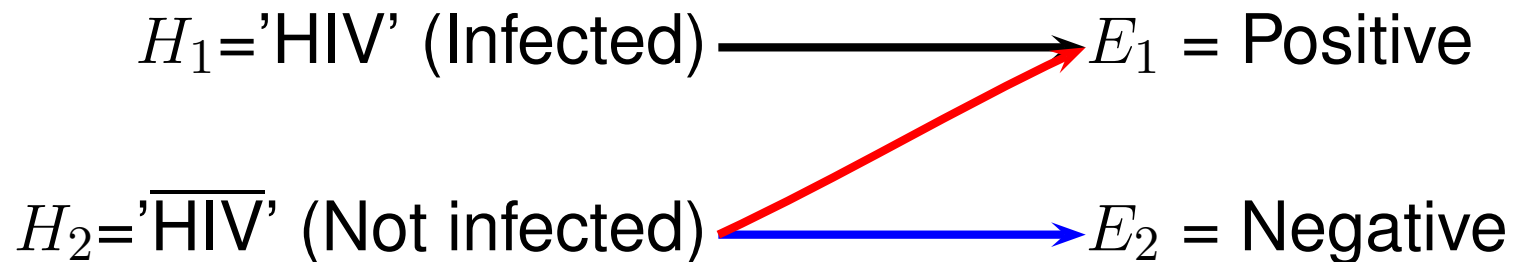
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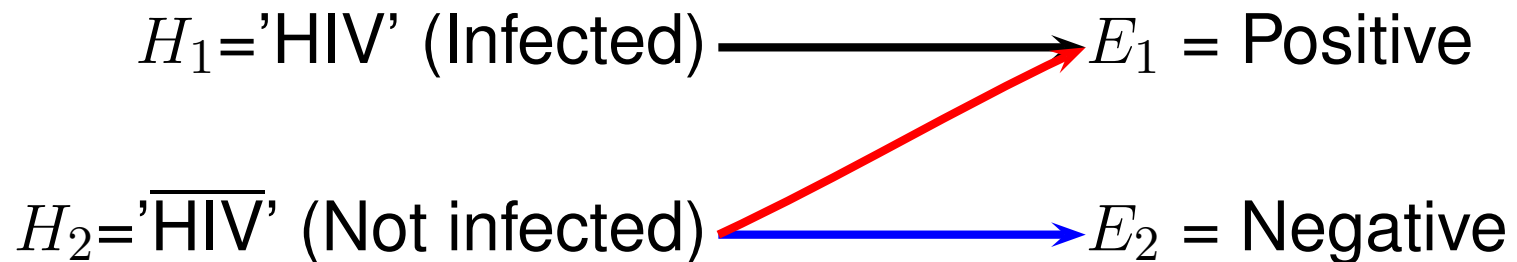
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Result:  $\Rightarrow$  Positive

HIV or not HIV?

# What shall we conclude?

---

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

- "It is practically impossible that the person is healthy, since it was practically impossible that an healthy person would result positive"?



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**NO**

Instead,  $P(\text{HIV} | \text{Pos, randomly chosen Italian}) \approx 45\%$

Think about it (a crucial information is missing!)

---

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**NO**

Instead,  $P(\text{HIV} | \text{Pos, randomly chosen Italian}) \approx 45\%$   
 $\Rightarrow$  **Serious mistake!** (not just 99.8% instead of 98.3%)

---

$$P(A | B) \leftrightarrow P(B | A)$$

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Pay attention no to arbitrary revert conditional probabilities:

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In particular

- A cause might produce a given effect with very low probability, and nevertheless could be the most probable cause of that effect, often the only one!
-

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For example, imagine a Gaussian random generator ( $H_0$ , with  $\mu = 3, \sigma = 1$ ) gives us  $X = 3.1416$ .

→ What was the probability to give exactly that number?:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = 3.1416 | H_0) &= \int_{3.14155}^{3.14165} f_{\mathcal{G}}(x | \mu, \sigma) dx \\ &\approx f_{\mathcal{G}}(3.1416 | \mu, \sigma) \times \Delta x \\ &\approx f_{\mathcal{G}}(3.1416 | \mu, \sigma) \times 0.0001 \\ &\approx 39 \times 10^{-6} \end{aligned}$$

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→ What is the probability that  $X$  comes from  $H_0$ ?

- Certainly **NOT**  $\approx 39 \times 10^{-6}$ ;
- Indeed, it is **exactly 1**, since  $H_0$  is the only cause which can produce that effect:

$$P(X = 3.1416 | H_0) \approx 39 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$P(H_0 | X = 3.1416) = 1.$$

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→ what matter is not the probability of the  $X$ , but rather the probability of  $X$  or of any other less probable number (or a number farther than  $X$  from the expected value – the story is a bit longer...):

$$P(X \geq 3.1416) = \int_{3.14155}^{+\infty} f_G(x | \mu, \sigma) dx \approx 44\%$$

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$$P(X \geq 3.1416) [= P(X \geq x_{obs})] \Rightarrow \text{'p-value'}$$

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Besides the fact that the reasoning based only on the probability of the event given the cause is logically flawed, the 'technical issue' of low probability events which would lead to reject any hypothesis forces the statistician to rethink the question...

- ⇒ Magically the result 'becomes' rather probable!  
Why, we, silly, worried about it?
- ⇒ The statisticians are happy...

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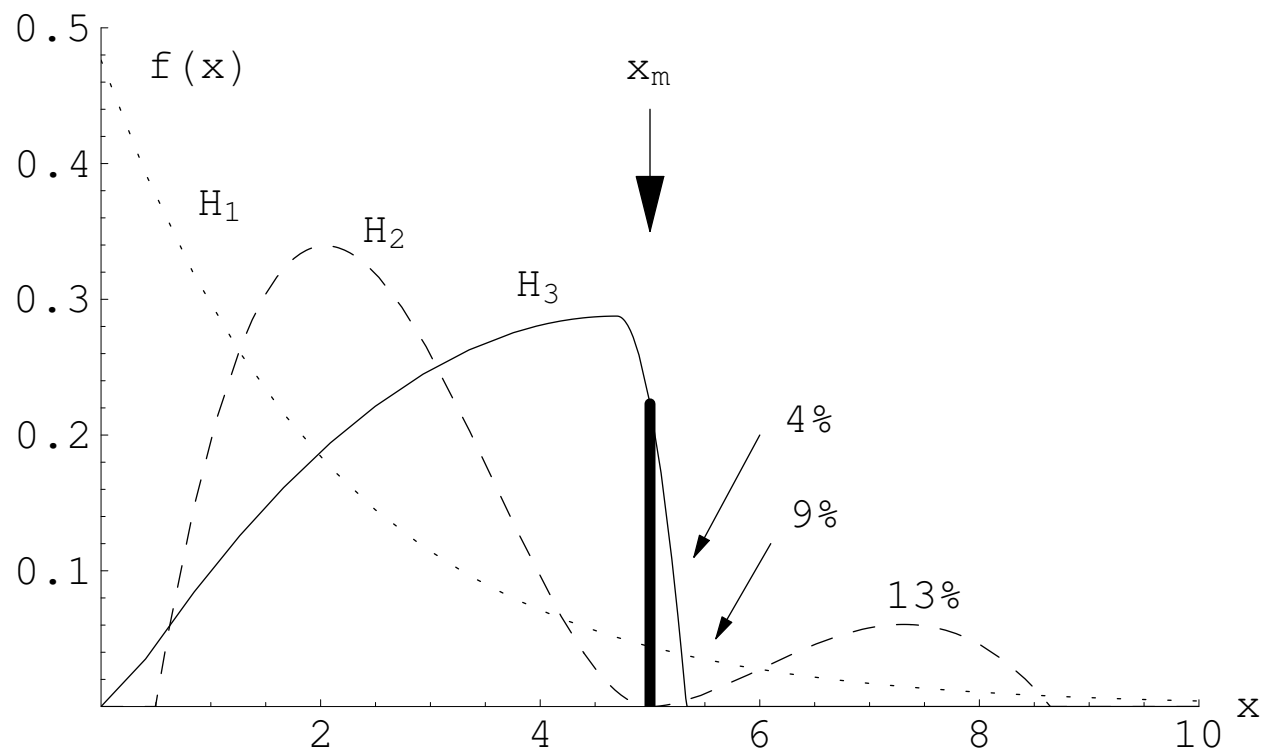
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Why, we, silly, worried about it?

⇒ The statisticians are happy... scientists and general public cheated...

# Comparing three hypotheses

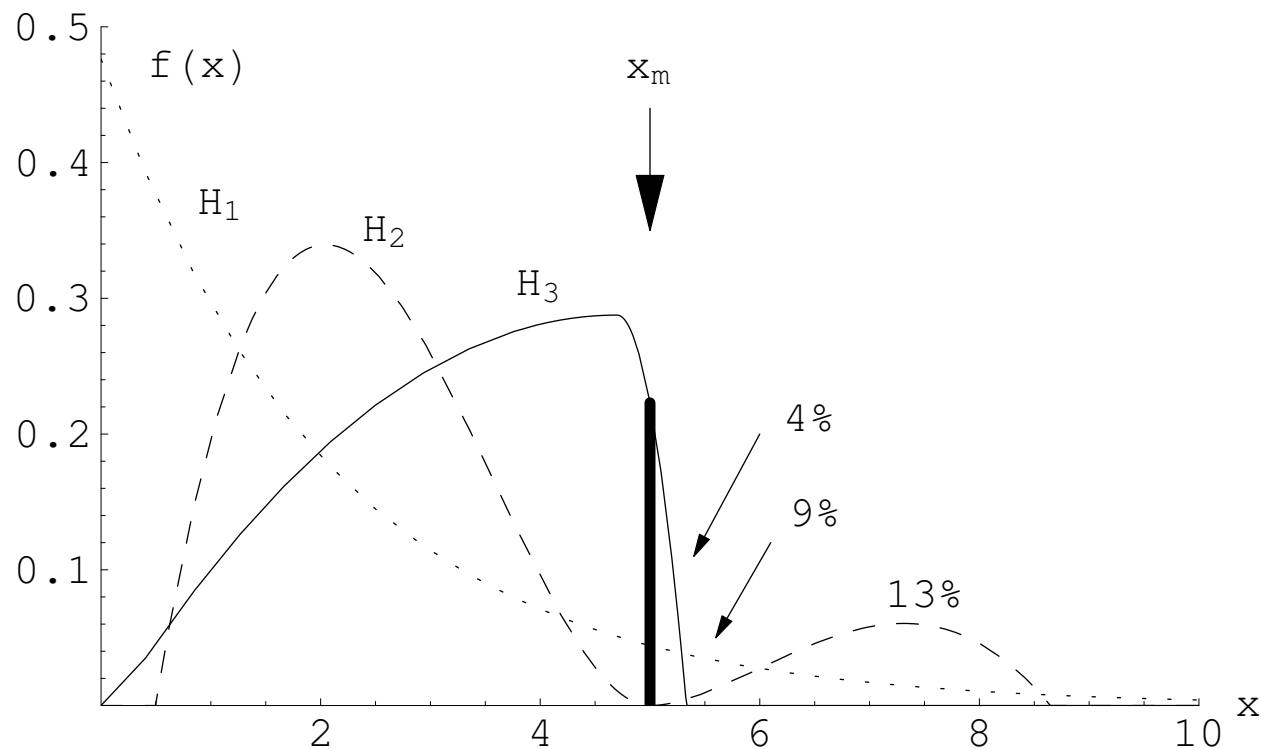
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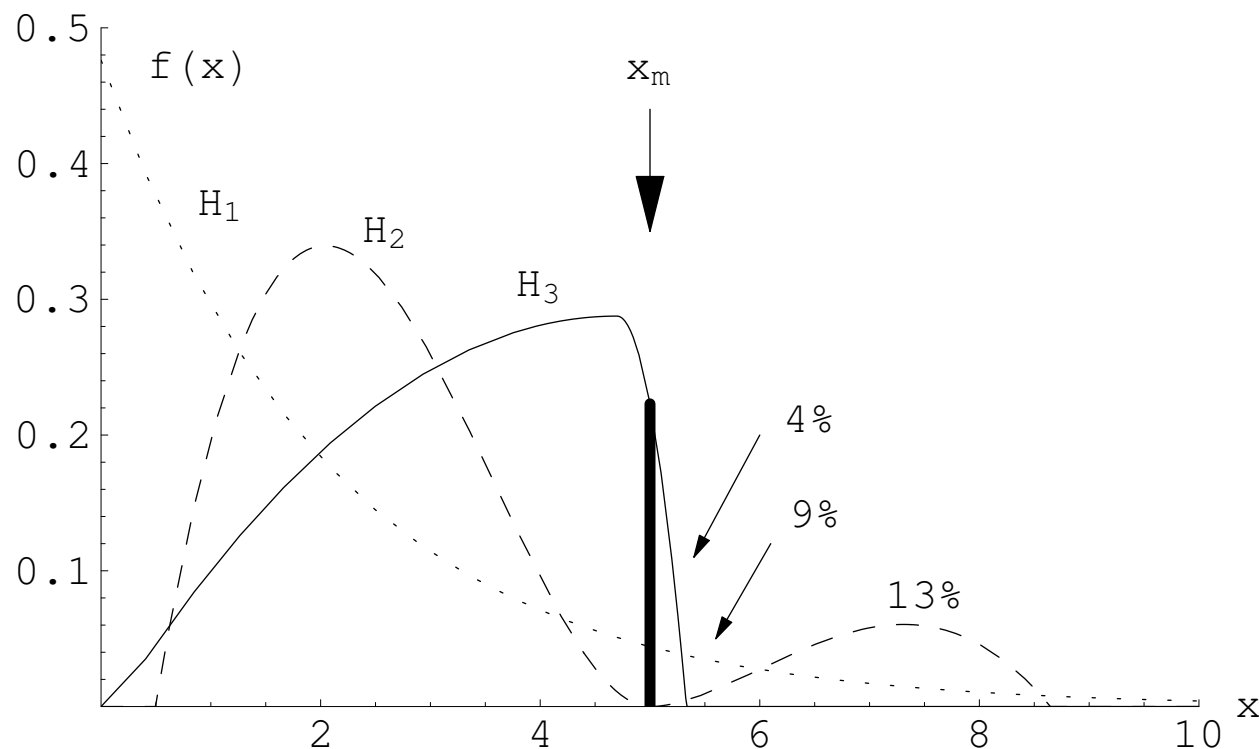


$$P(x_m | H_3) > P(x_m | H_1) > P(x_m | H_2) = 0 \quad (!)$$

Even if  $P(x_m | H_i) \rightarrow 0$  (it depends on resolution)

# Comparing three hypotheses

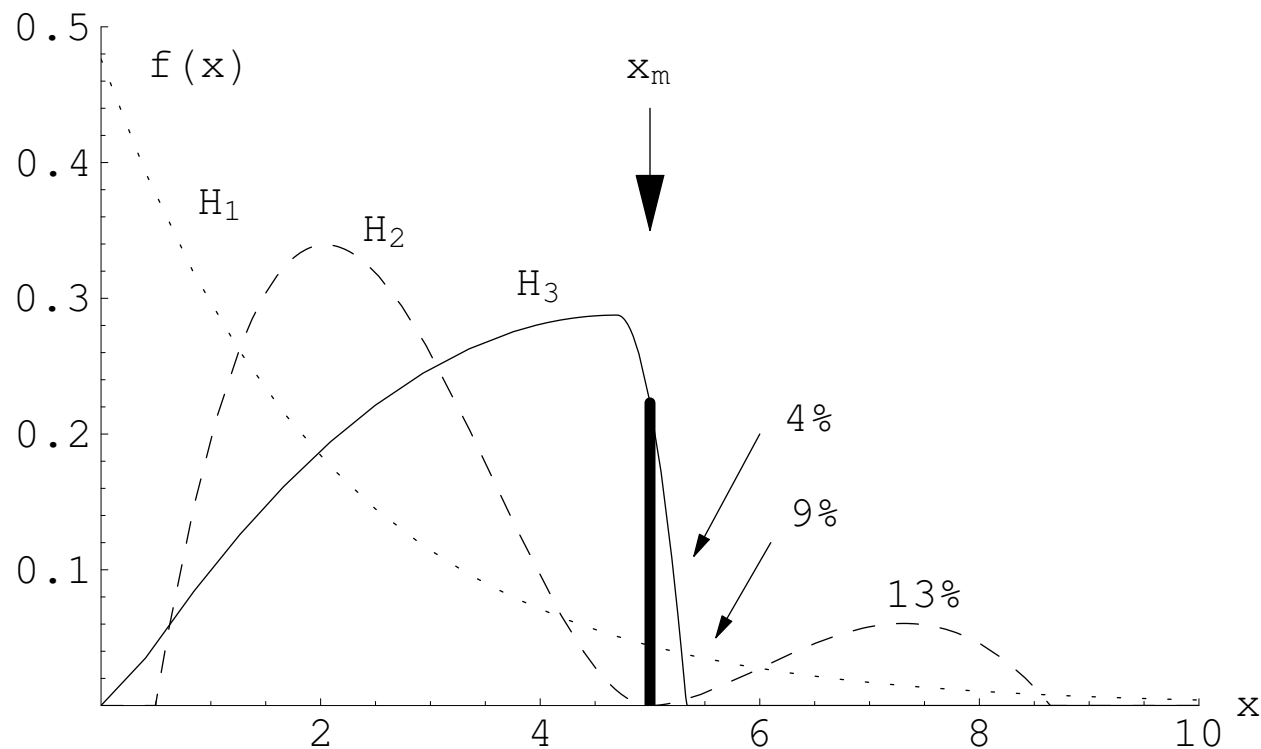
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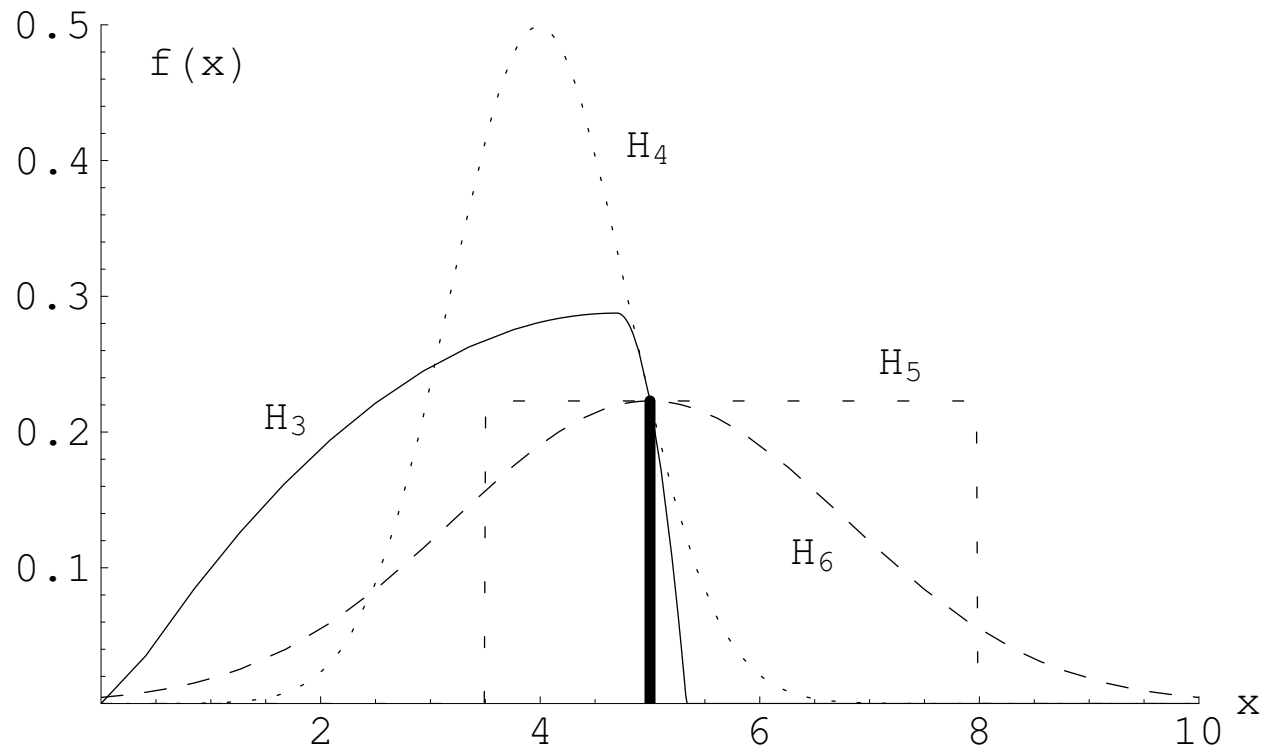
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In particular, the hypothesis  $H_2$  is (truly) falsified (impossible!), although it yields the largest ‘p-value’, or ‘probability of the tail(s)’

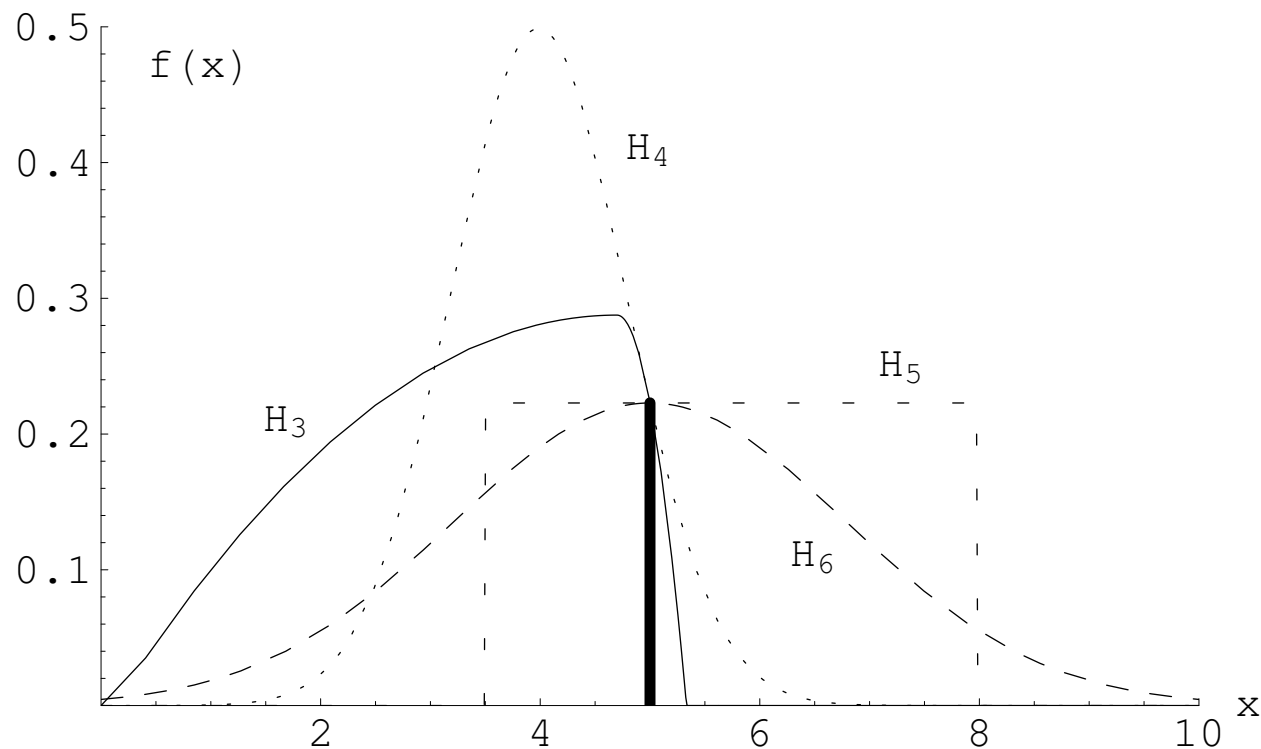
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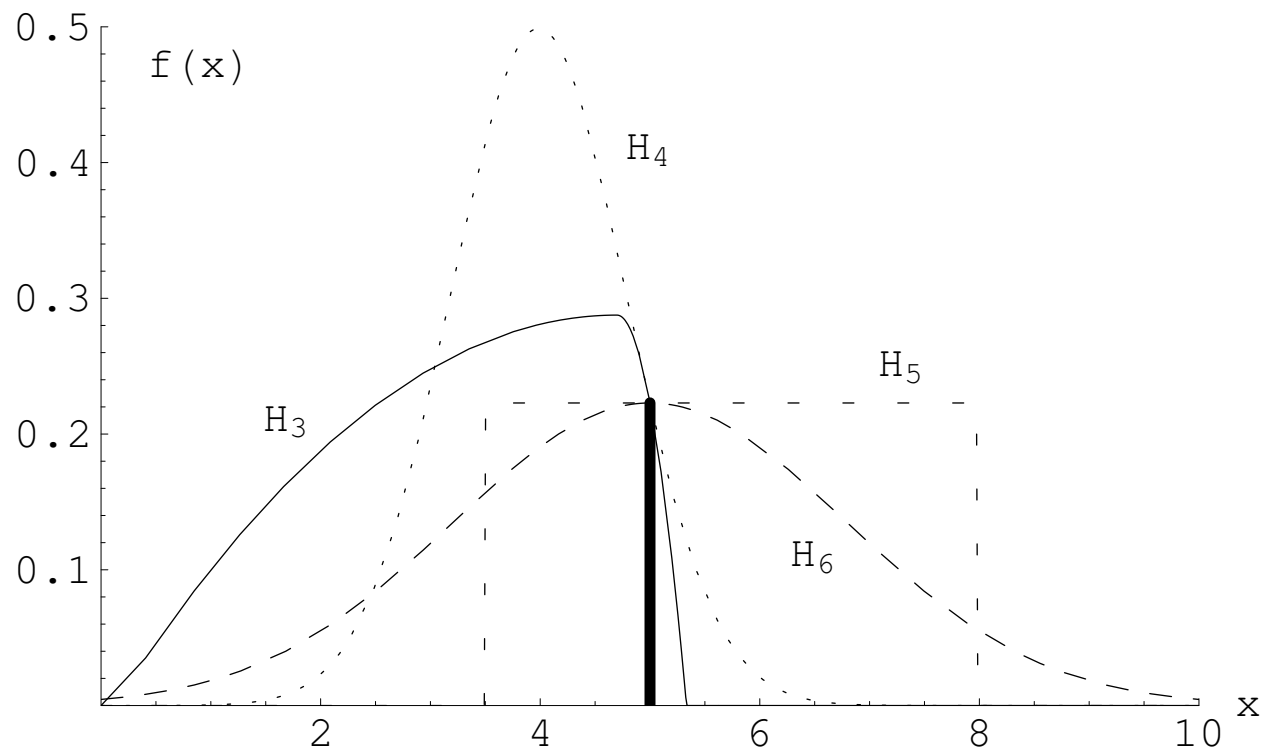


$$P(x_m | H_3) = P(x_m | H_4) = P(x_m | H_5) = P(x_m | H_6)$$

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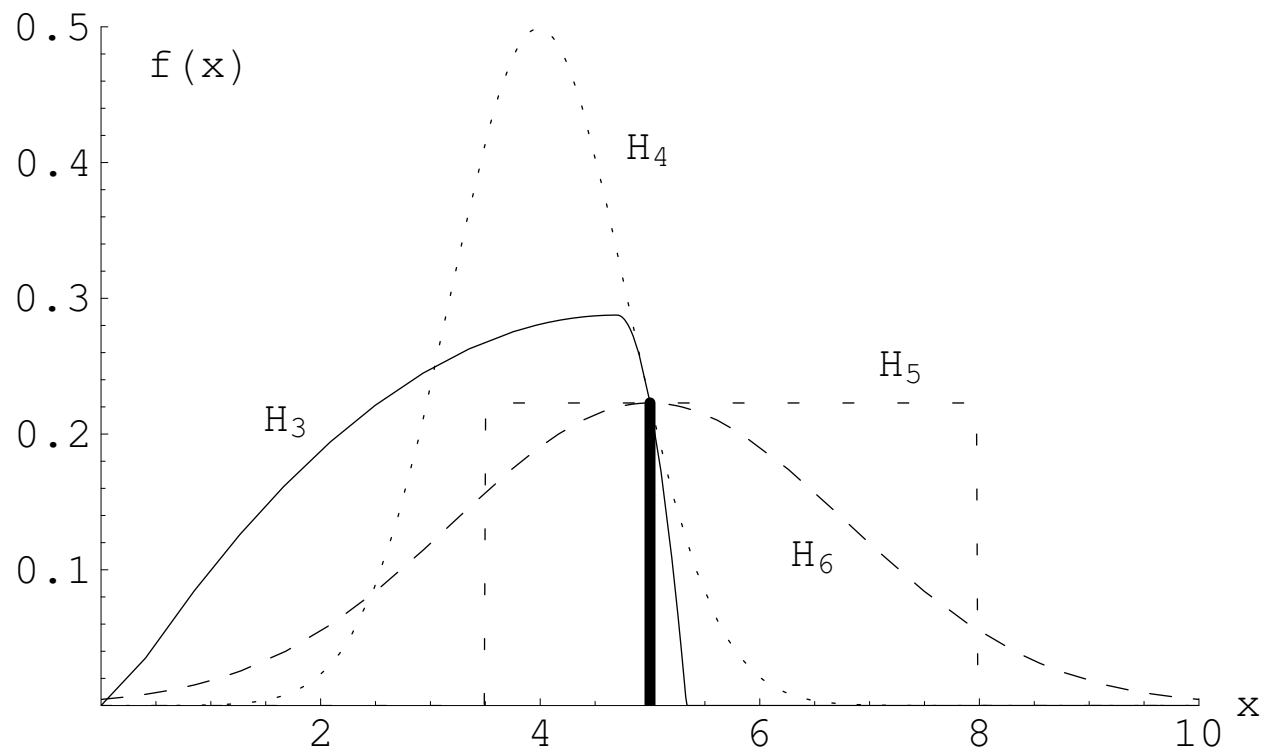


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⇒ *The experimental result is irrelevant!*  
→ we maintain our opinions about  $H_i$

# An irrelevant experiment

Which hypothesis is favored by the experimental observation  $x_m$ ?



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⇒ *The experimental result is irrelevant!*

⇒ *... no matter what the different the p-values are!*

# Which p-value?...

---

*'p-value' = 'probability of the tail(s)'*



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## Of what?

→ the test variable (' $\theta$ ') is absolutely arbitrary:

$$\theta = \theta(\mathbf{x})$$

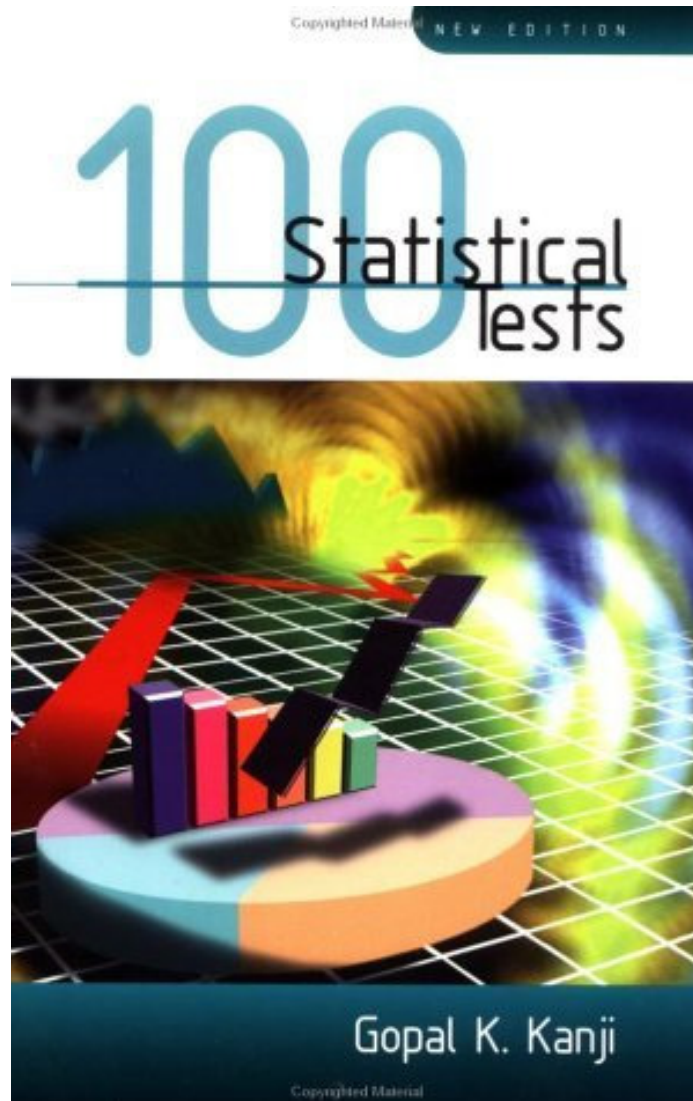
$$\rightarrow f(\theta) \text{ [p.d.f]}$$

$$\text{Experiment: } \rightarrow \theta_{mis} = \theta(\mathbf{x}_{mis})$$

$$\text{p-value} = P(\theta \geq \theta_{mis}) \quad (\text{'one tail'})$$

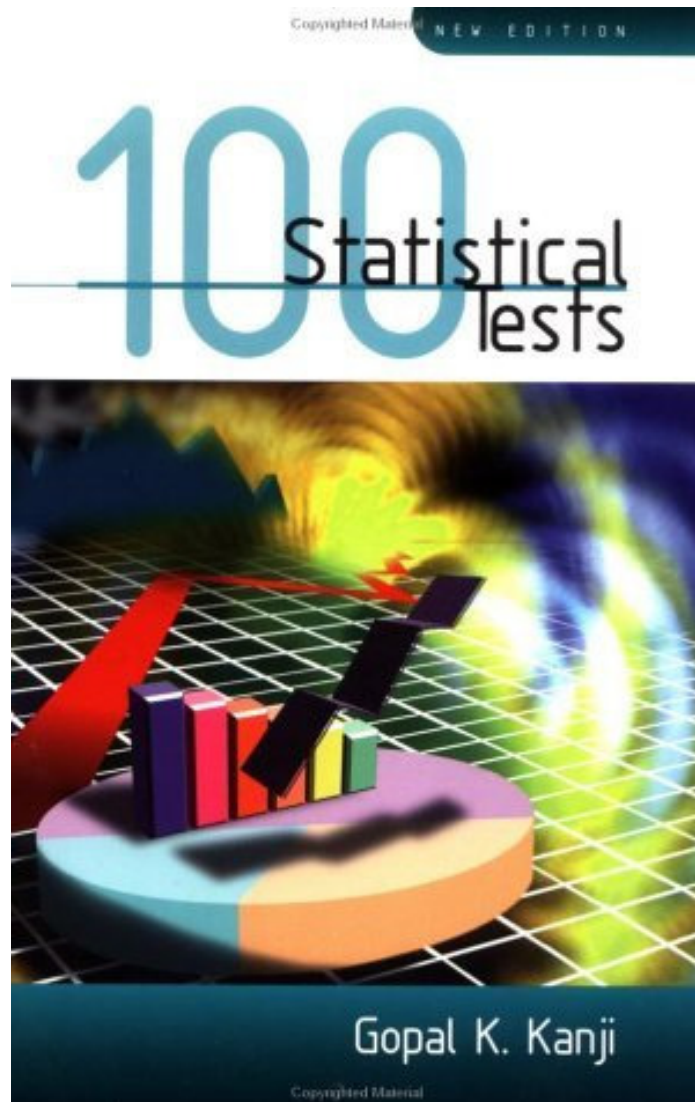
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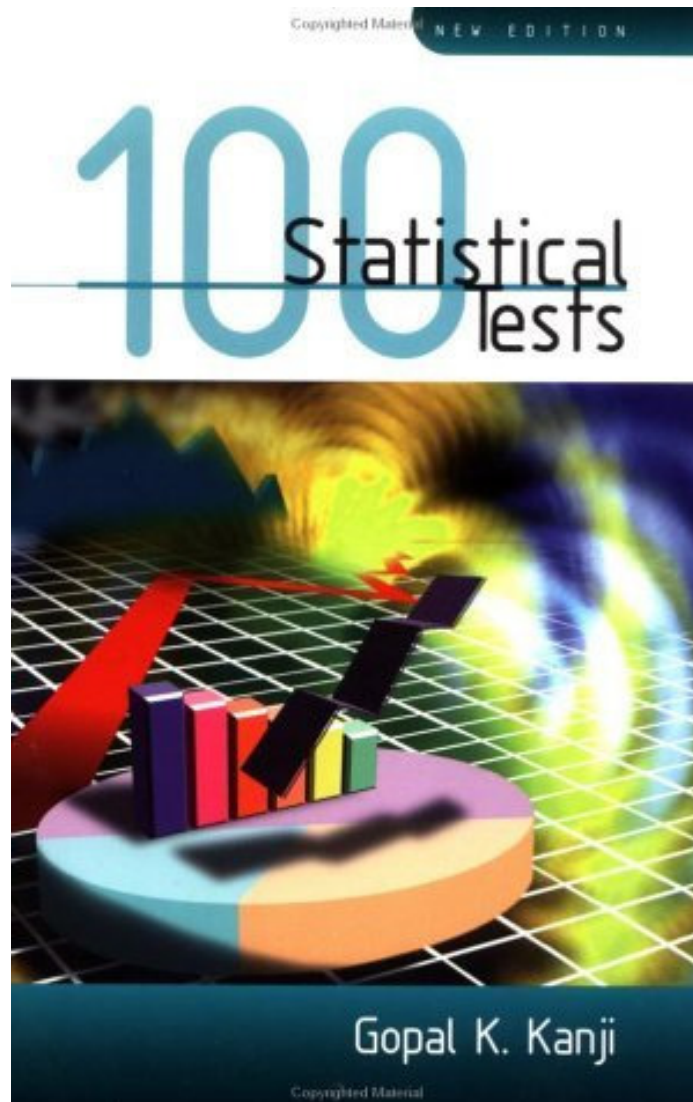
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- far from exhaustive list,

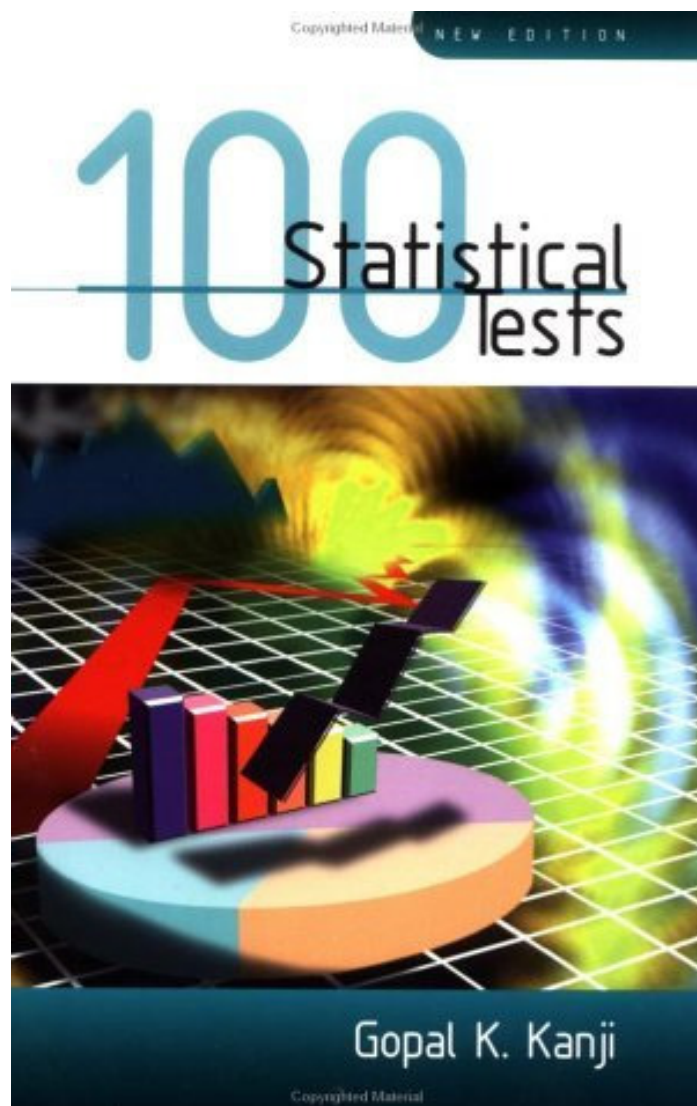
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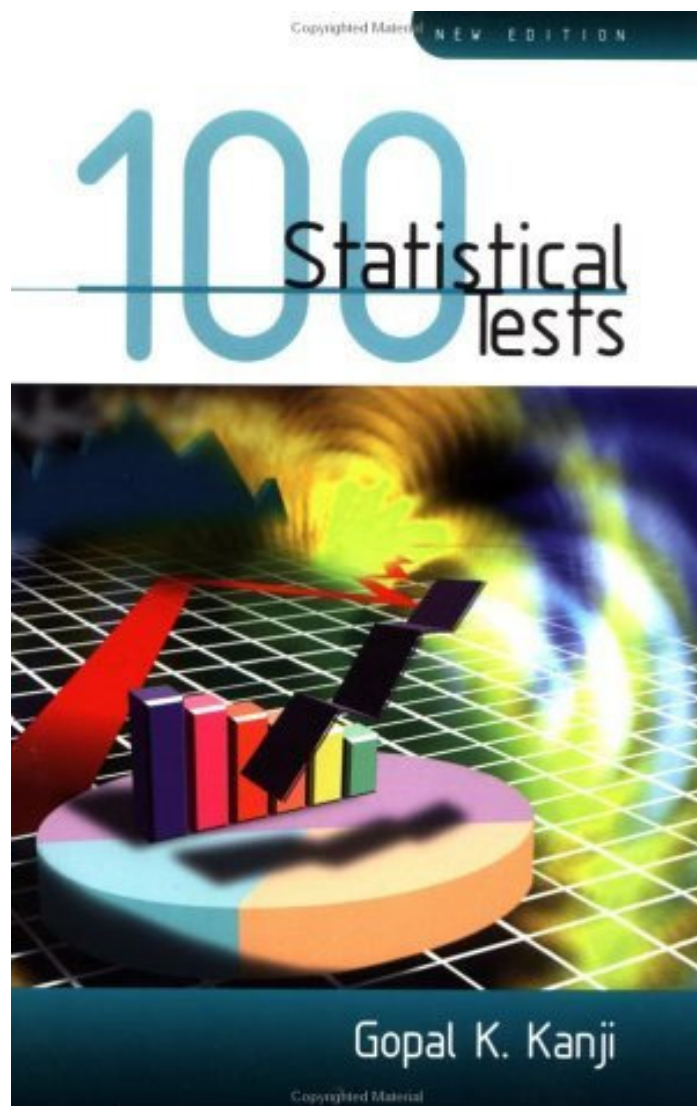
- far from exhaustive list,
- with **arbitrary** variants:

# Which p-value?...



- far from exhaustive list,
- with **arbitrary** variants:
  - ⇒ practitioner chose the one that provide the result they like better:
    - *like if you go around until "someone agrees with you"*

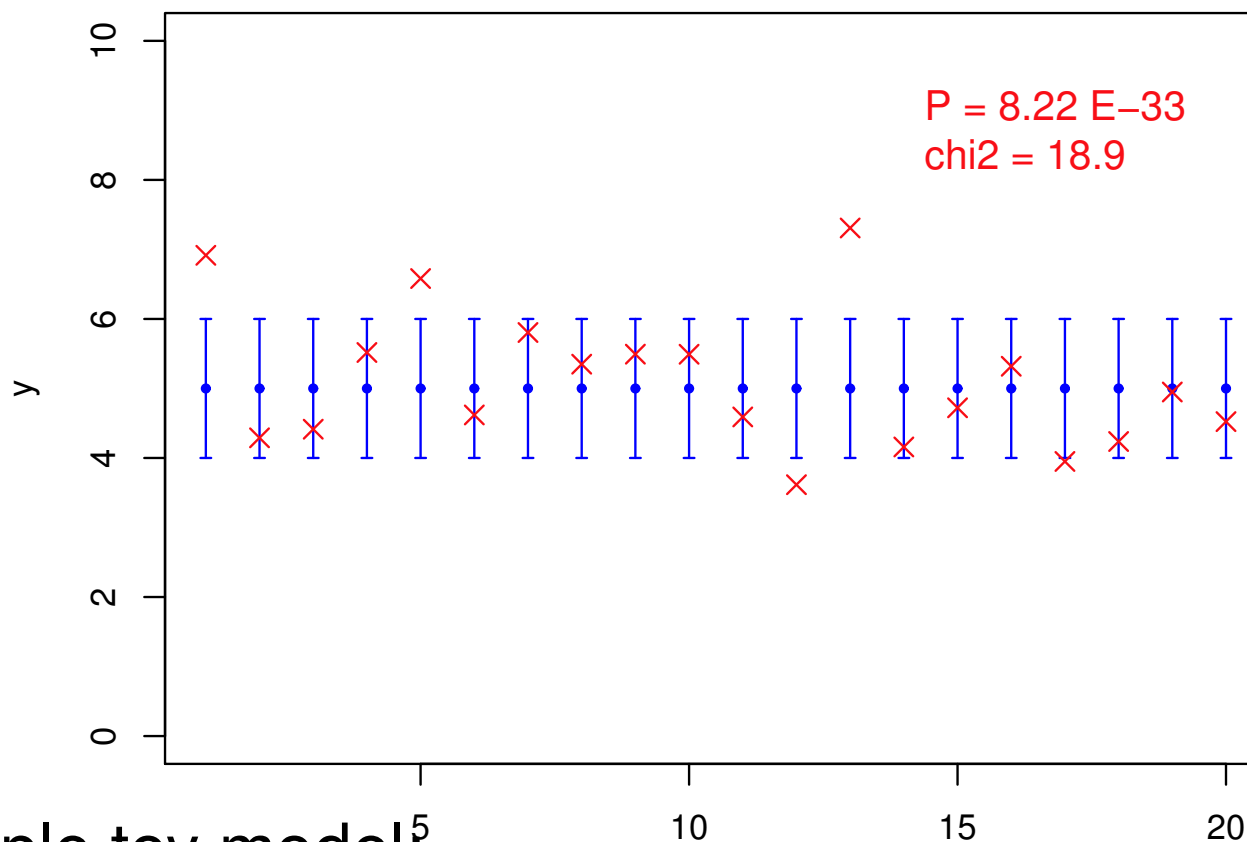
# Which p-value?...



- far from exhaustive list,
- with **arbitrary** variants:
  - ⇒ practitioner chose the one that provide the result they like better:
    - *like if you go around until "someone agrees with you"*
- personal **'golden rule'**:
  - "the more exotic is the name of the test, the less I believe the result", because I'm pretty shure that several 'normal' tests have been descarded in the meanwhile...

# $\chi^2$ ... the mother of all p-values

Theory Vs experiment (*bars: expectation uncertainty*):



Very simple toy model.<sup>5</sup>

- True value of  $y$ : 5, independently of  $x$  (a.u.);
- Gaussian instrumental error with  $\sigma = 1$ .



# Probability of the data sample

---

$P = 8.22 \times 10^{-33}$  is the probability of the 'configuration' of experimental points:

- obtained multiplying the probability of each point (independent measurements):

$$P = \prod_i P_i$$

where

$$P_i = \int_{y_{m_i} - \Delta y/2}^{y_{m_i} + \Delta y/2} f(y) dy$$

- as seen,  $P_i$  depends on the 'resoluzion'  $\Delta y$  (instrumental 'discretization'):

$$\rightarrow \text{we use } \Delta y = \frac{1}{10} \sigma$$

# 'Distance' Experiment-theory: $\chi^2$

The construction of the  $\chi^2$  is very popular  
(usually in first lab. courses – 'Fisichetta'):

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \left( \frac{y_{m_i} - y_{th_i}}{\sigma_i} \right)^2$$

$$\rightarrow \sum_i \left( \frac{y_{m_i} - y_0}{\sigma} \right)^2$$

$$\chi^2 \sim \Gamma(\nu/2, 1/2) \quad [\rightarrow \nu = 20]$$

$$\mathbf{E}[\chi^2] = \nu \quad [\rightarrow 20]$$

$$\mathbf{Var}[\chi^2] = 2\nu \quad [\rightarrow 40]$$

$$\mathbf{Std}[\chi^2] = \sqrt{2\nu} \quad [\rightarrow 6.3]$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\boxed{\chi^2 = 20 \pm 6}$$

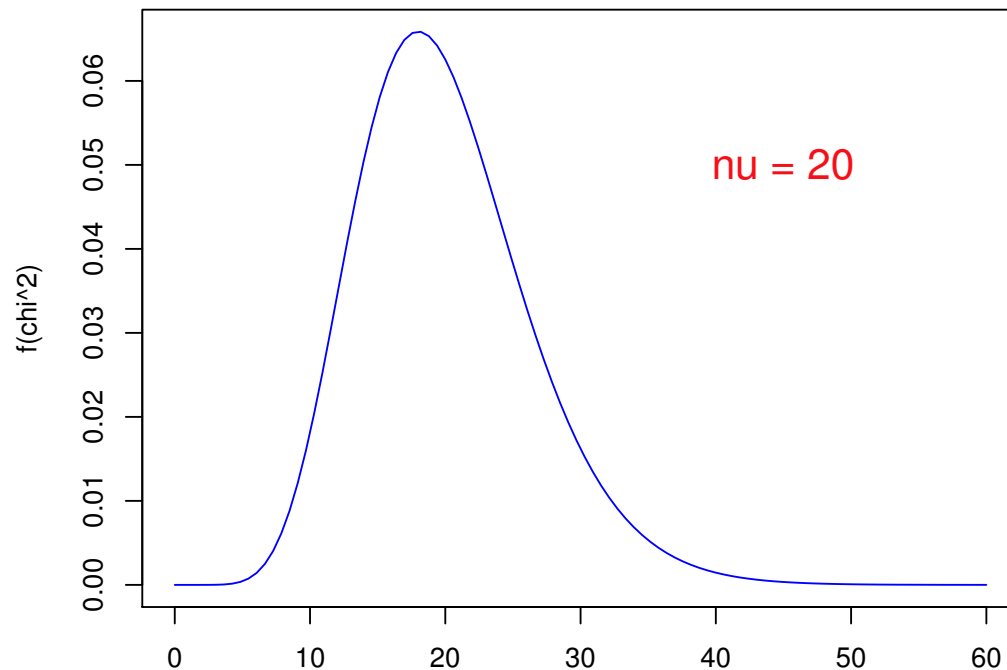
# Our expectations about $\chi^2$

$$\begin{aligned} E[\chi^2] &= \nu & [\rightarrow 20] \\ \text{Std}[\chi^2] &= \sqrt{2\nu} & [\rightarrow 6.3] \end{aligned}$$

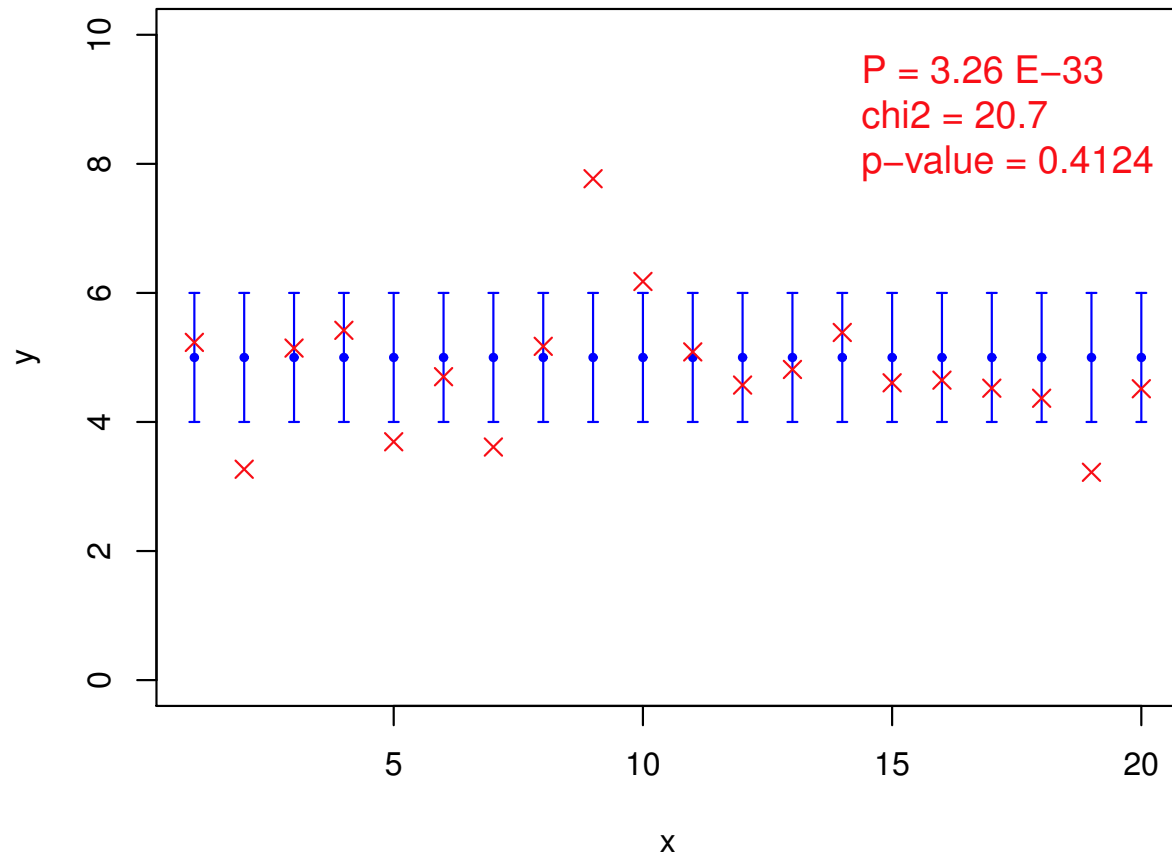
$\Rightarrow$

$$\chi^2 = 20 \pm 6$$

[ mode: 18 ]



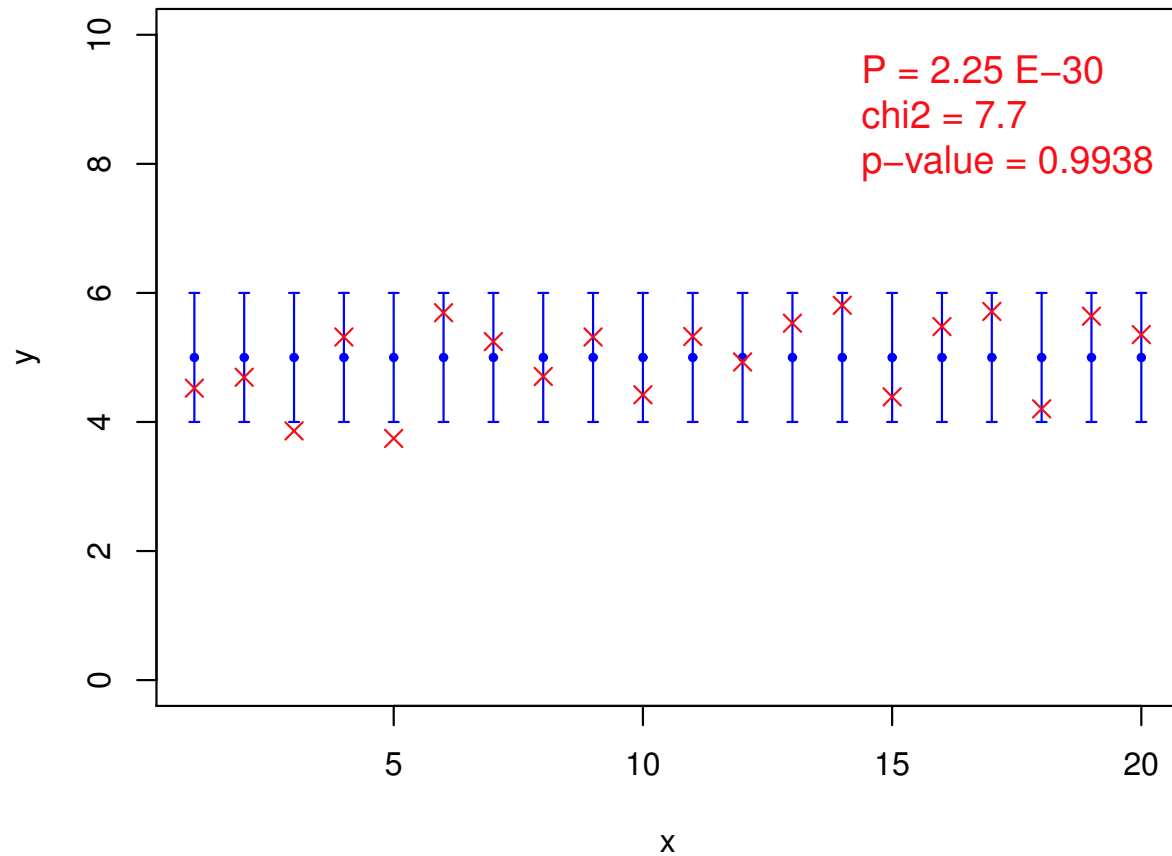
# Some examples



In the average.

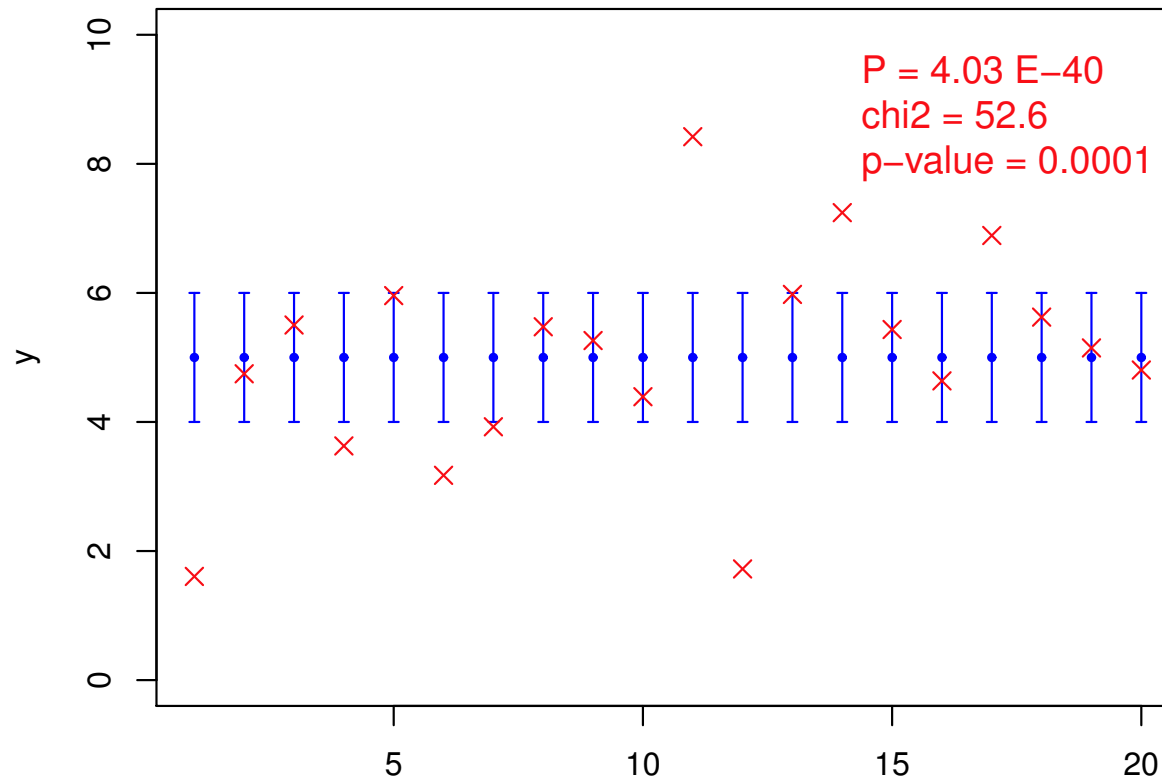
*(but someone could see the points forming a 'constellation'...)*

# Some examples



Too good?

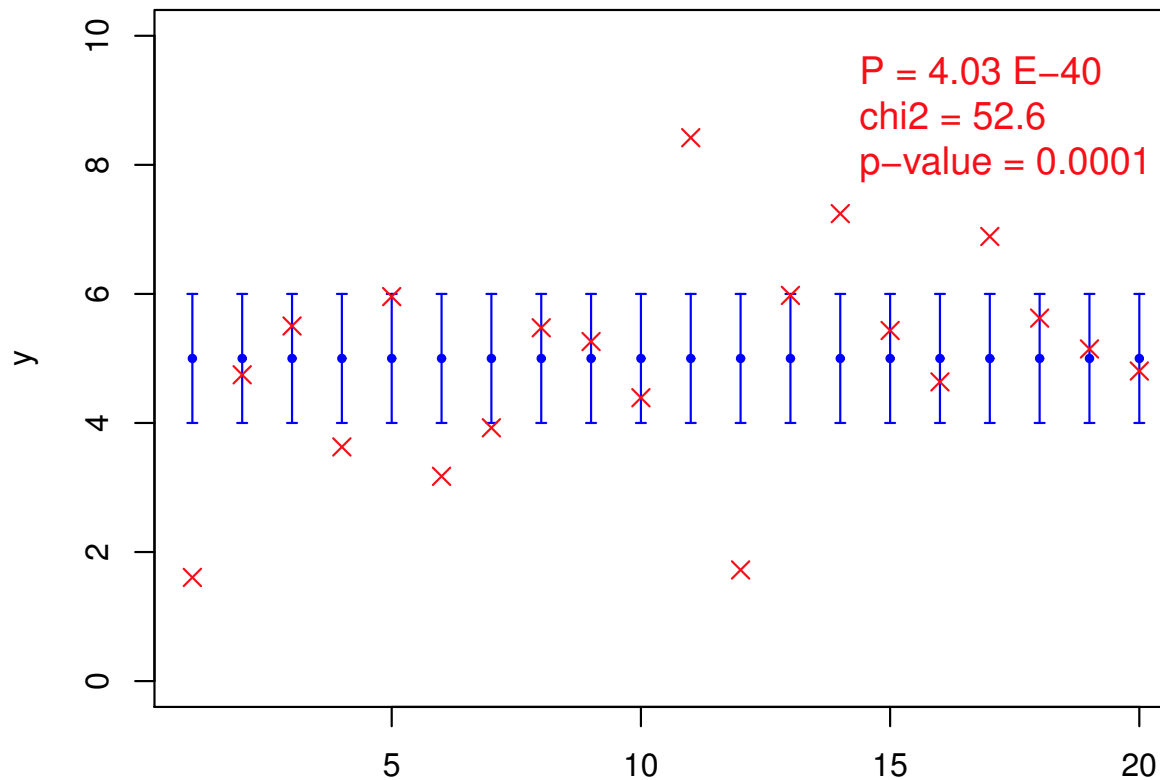
# Some examples



$\chi^2 = 52.6$ , with a p-value =  $0.93_x \times 10^{-4}$

At limit?

# Some examples

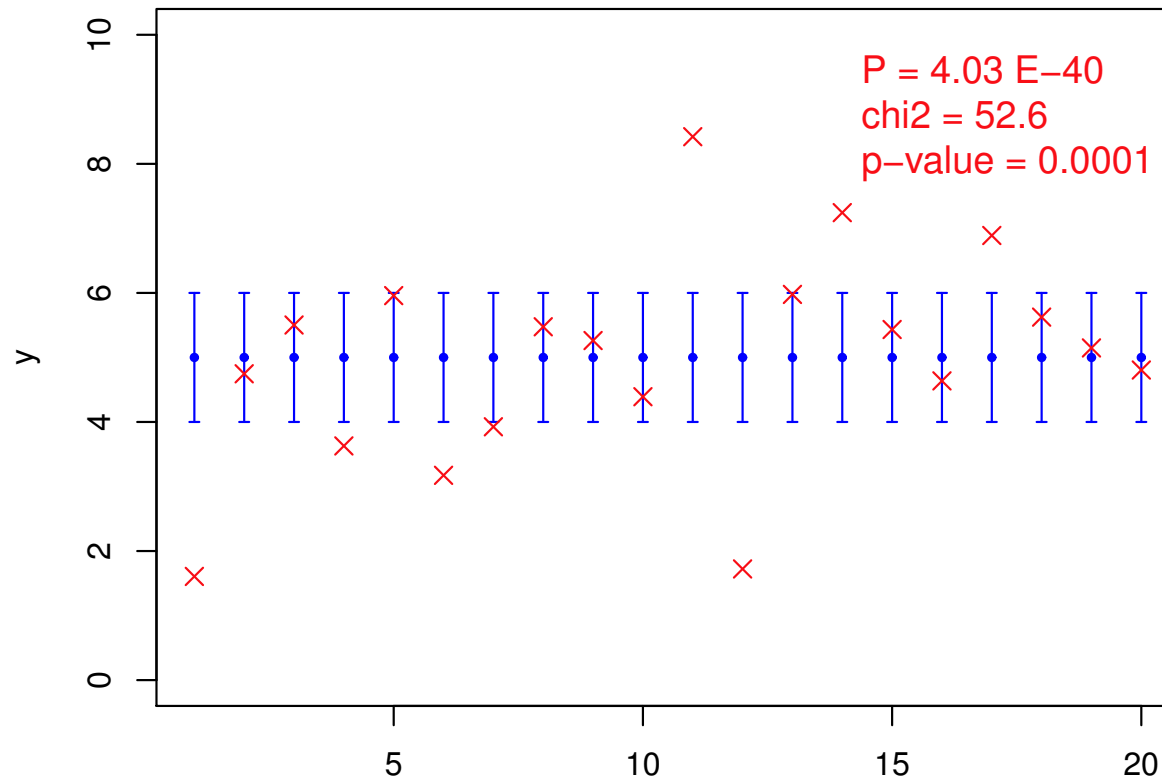


$\chi^2 = 52.6$ , with a p-value =  $0.93_x \times 10^{-4}$

At limit? Just come out at the first time (October 9, 13:01)

```
while (chi2.y() < 38) source ("chi2_1.R")
```

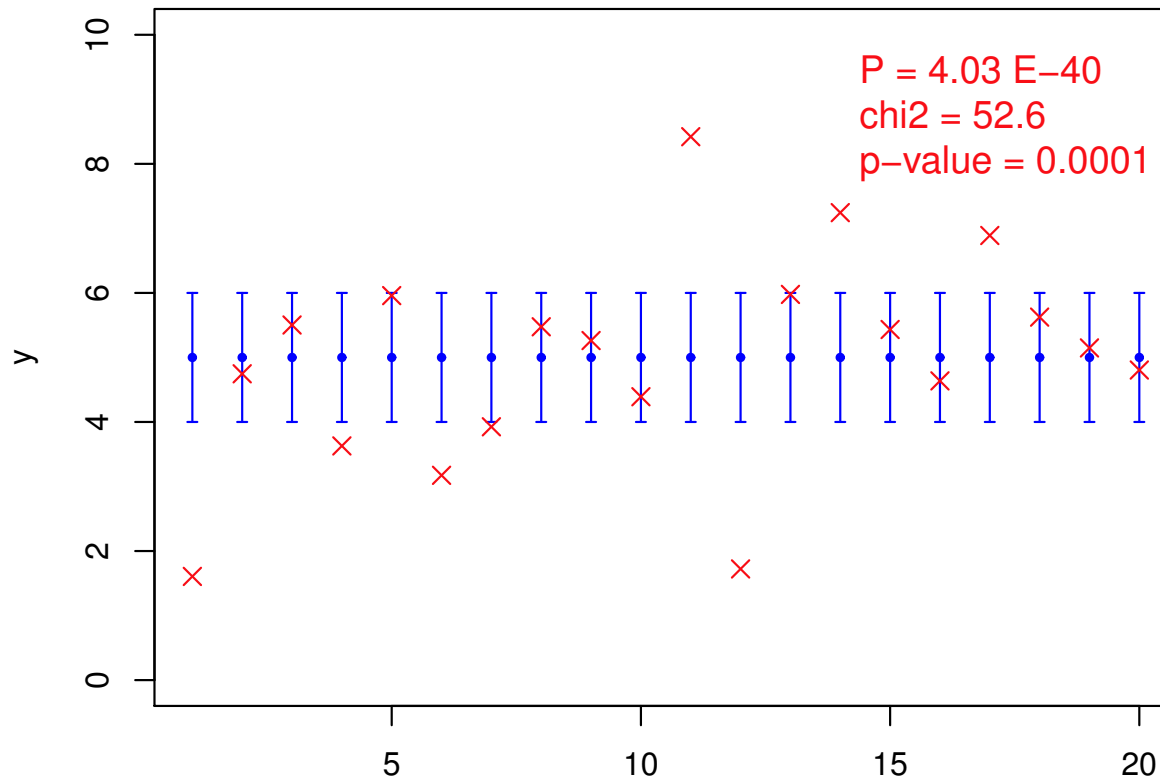
# Some examples



Note:  $\chi_{mis}^2$  52.6 is  $5.1\sigma$  from its  $\chi^2$  expectation  $\left[ \frac{52.6 - 20}{\sqrt{40}} = 5.1 \right]$

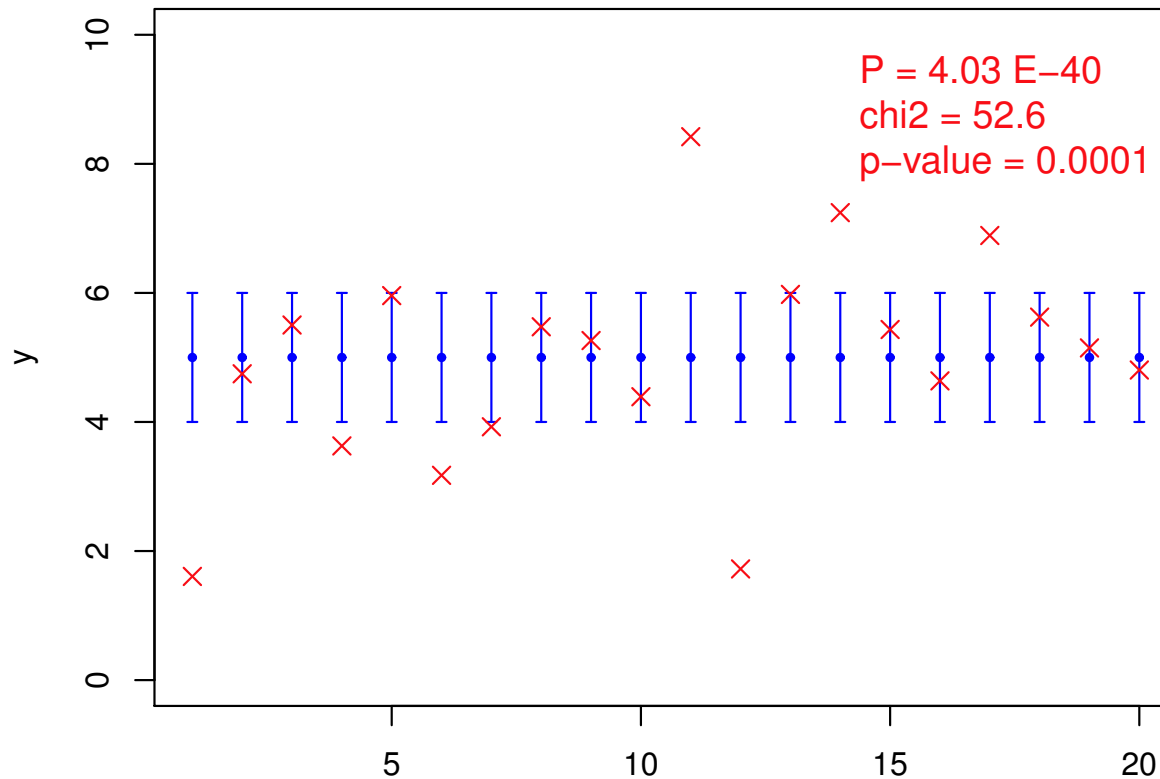


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# Some examples

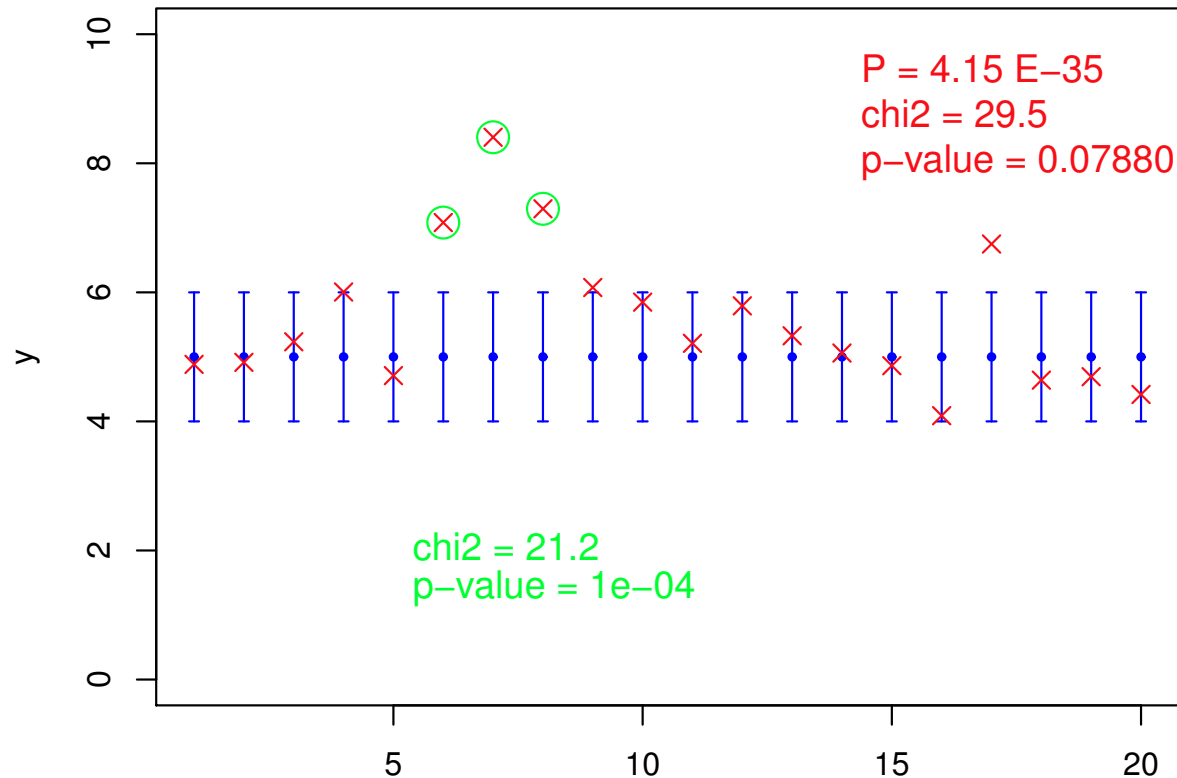


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*(as if there were already not enough confusion...)*

# The art of $\chi^2$

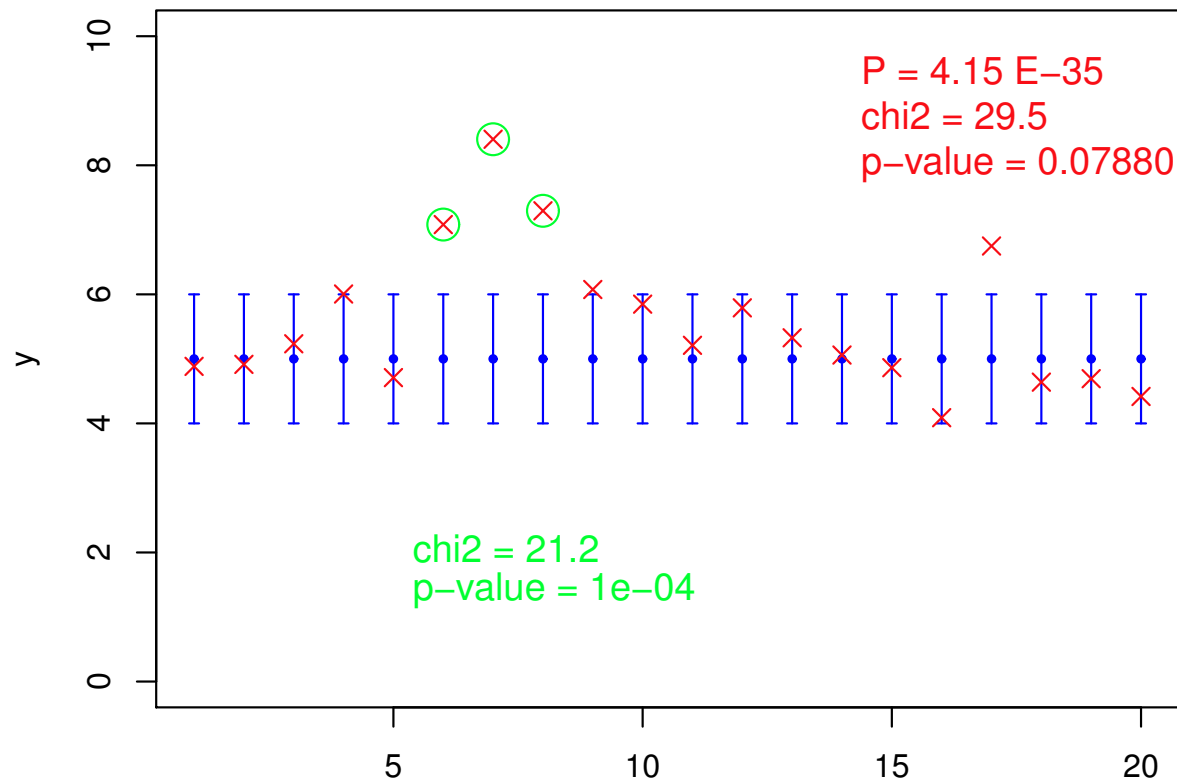
Sometimes the  $\chi^2$  test does not give “the wished result”



Then it is calculated in the ‘suspicious region’

# The art of $\chi^2$

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Then it is calculated in the ‘suspicious region’

⇒ If we add the two side points,  $\chi^2$  becomes 22.2.

⇒ But with 5 points we had got a p-value of  $5 \times 10^{-4}$

# p-value: what they are

---

p-value:

- Probability of the tail(s) of a ‘test variable’ (a “statistic”):

$$P(\theta \geq \theta_{mis}) = \int_{\theta_{mis}}^{\infty} f(\theta | H_0) d\theta$$

$$P[(\theta \geq \theta_{mis}) \cap (\theta \leq (\theta^c)_{mis})] = 1 - \int_{(\theta^c)_{mis}}^{\theta_{mis}} f(\theta | H_0) d\theta$$

- $\theta$  is an arbitrary function of the data.
- ... and often of a subsample of the data.
- $f(\theta | H_0)$  is obtained ‘somehow’, analitically, numerically, or by Monte Carlo methods.

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⇒ BUT the p-value do not provide this:

$$P(\theta \geq \theta_{mis} \mid H_0) \not\iff P(H_0 \mid \theta_{mis})$$

⇒ Although they are erroneously confused with this!



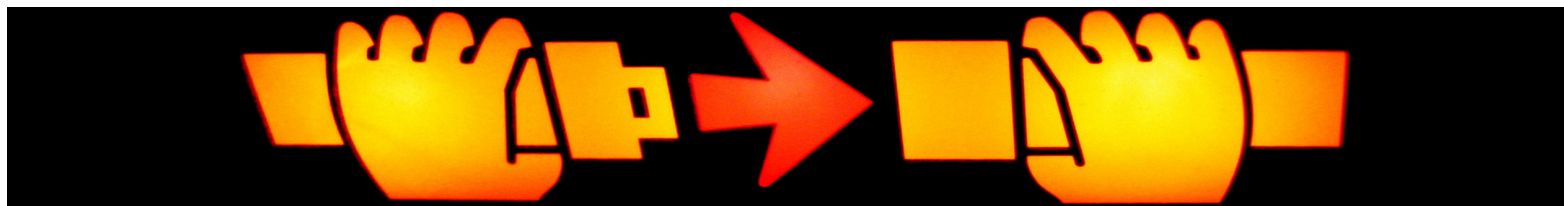
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**Tight seat belts!**



# Misunderstandings p-values

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<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/P-value#Misunderstandings>

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...
- 7. ...**

# The 5 sigma Higgs!

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July 2012

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<http://www.roma1.infn.it/~dagos/badmath/#added>

---

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- 'Mismatch' between our natural way of thinking and the statistics theory:

- $P(H_0 \mid \text{data}) \longleftrightarrow P(\theta \geq \theta_{mis} \mid H_0)$



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- The 'classical' framework of hypothesis tests misses – because explicitly forbidden! – the fundamental thing we need in our game:
- It is enough get rid of '900 statisticians (the 'frequentists') and reload 'serious guys',  
→ restart from Laplace, together with Gauss, Bayes, etc.,

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- “how much I am confident in something”
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*“The usual touchstone, whether that which someone asserts is merely his persuasion – or at least his subjective conviction, that is, his firm belief – is betting. It often happens that someone propounds his views with such positive and uncompromising assurance that he seems to have entirely set aside all thought of possible error. A bet disconcerts him.*

*Sometimes it turns out that he has a conviction which can be estimated at a value of one ducat, but not of ten. For he is very willing to venture one ducat, but when it is a question of ten he becomes aware, as he had not previously been, that it may very well be that he is in error.” (Kant)*

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[*‘subjective nature of probability’*]
- “I am rationally ready to change my opinion”
- “... but more unlikely hypotheses initially were, the stronger evidence is needed, possible provided (independently) by several persons I trust”



# 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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“This is the **fundamental principle (\*)** of that branch of the analysis of chance that consists of reasoning *a posteriori* **from events to causes**”

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

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**Note:** denominator is just a normalization factor.

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

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 ' $\theta$ ' ( $\chi^2$  etc);  
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- If  $P(\text{data} | H_i) = 0$ , it follows  $P(H_i | \text{data}) = 0$ :  
 $\Rightarrow$  **falsification** (the 'serious' one) is a **corollary of the theorem**, rather than a principle.

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 $\Rightarrow$  **falsification** (the 'serious' one) is a **corollary of the theorem**, rather than a principle.
- 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.

# But statistical tests do work!

---

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- **Certainly!** I agree!  
As it *usually work overtakes in curve* on remote mountain road!

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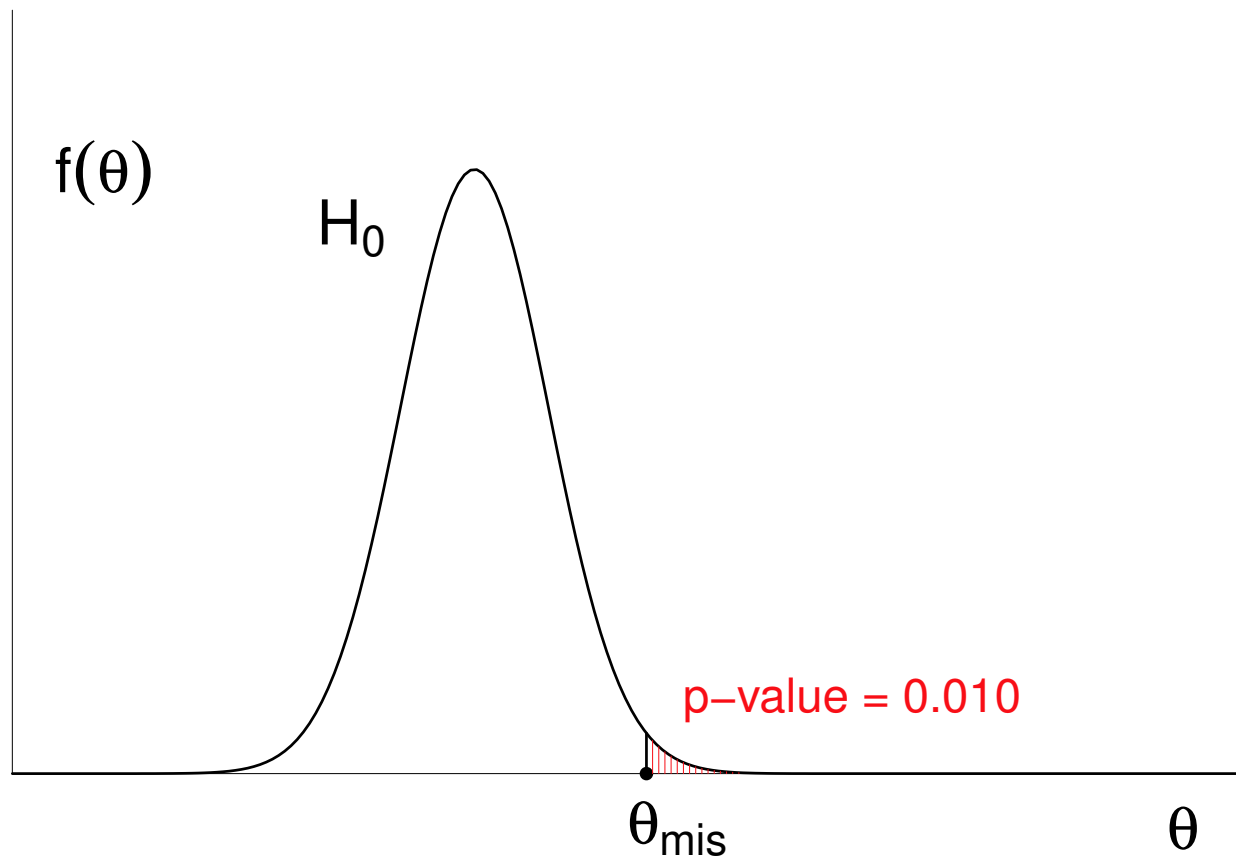
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Someone would object that p-values and, in general, 'hypothesis tests' *usually* do work!

- **Certainly!** I agree!  
As it *usually work overtakes in curve* on remote mountain road!
- But now we are also able to **explain the reason**.

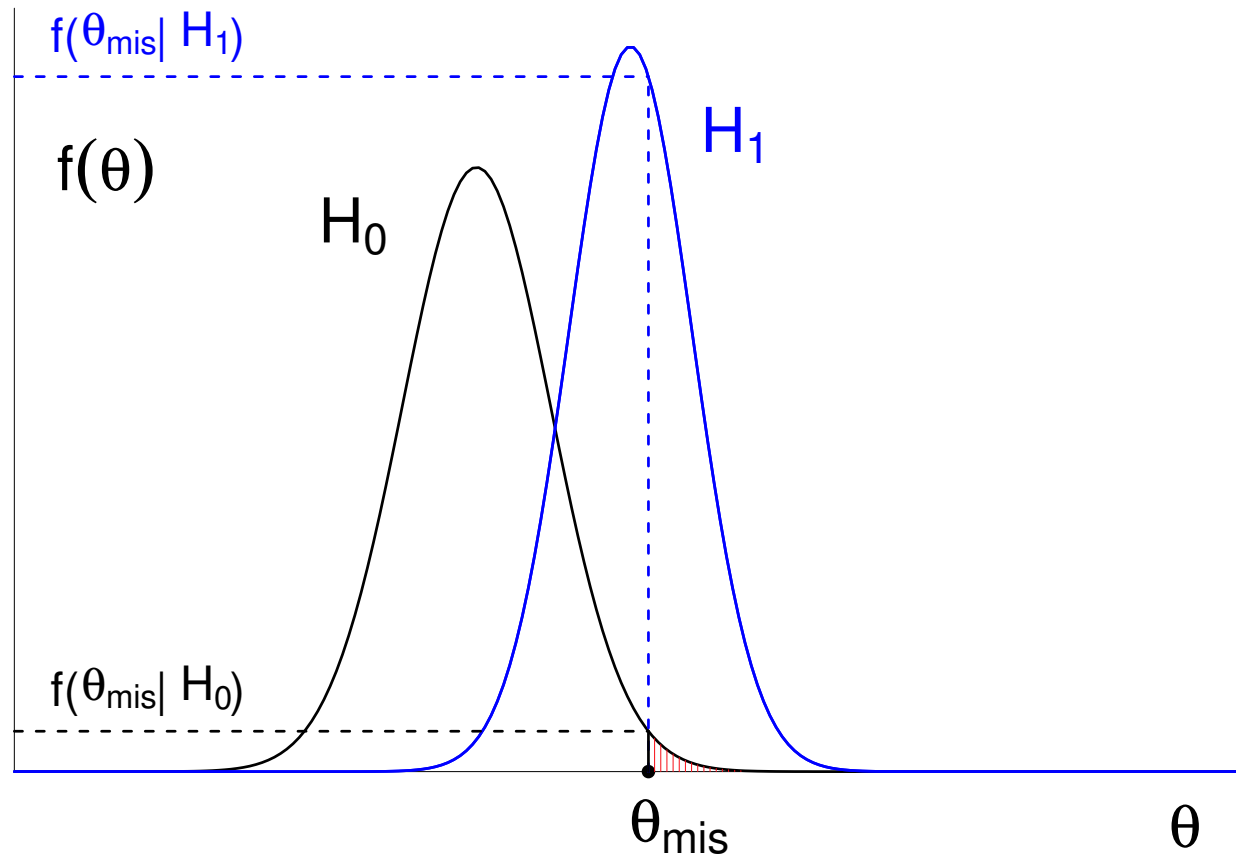
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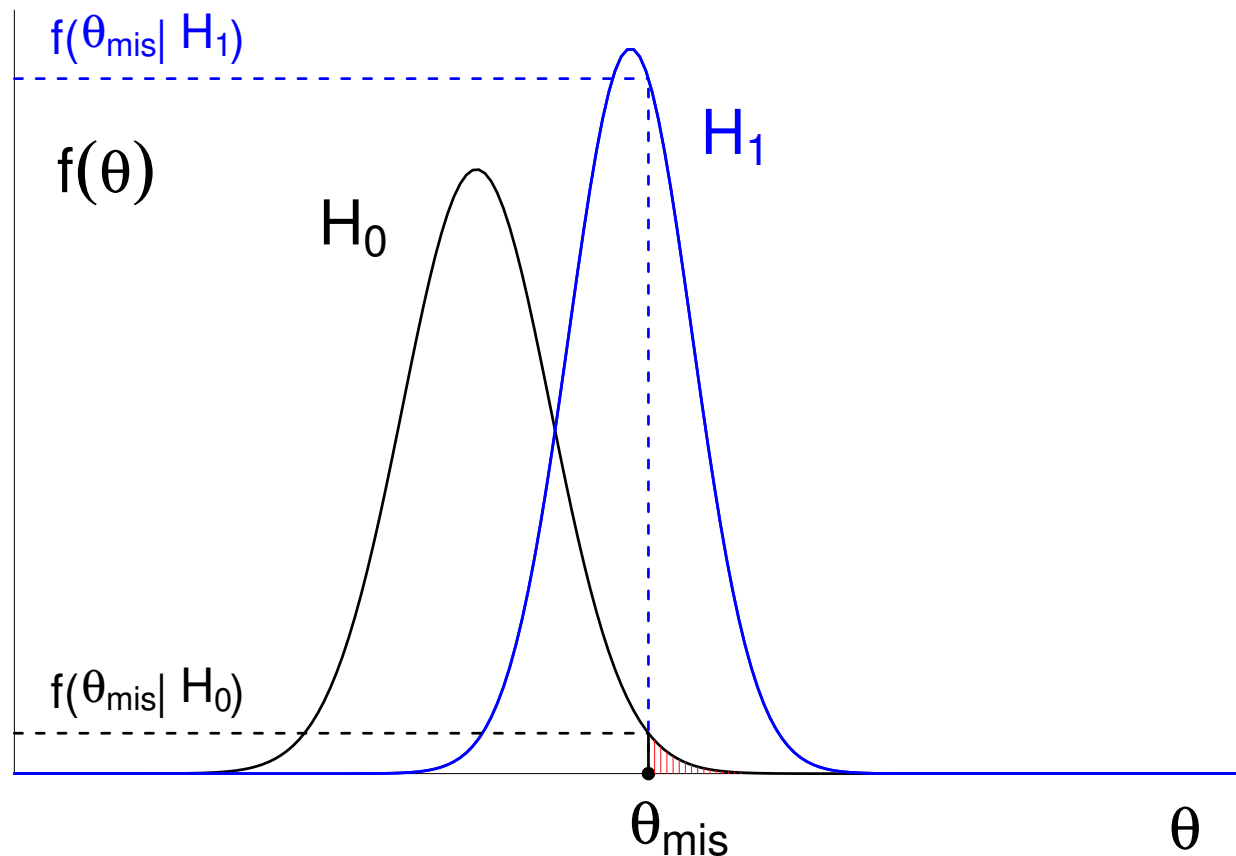
Why should the observation of  $\theta_{mis}$  should diminish our confidence on  $H_0$ ?

# But statistical tests do work!



Because *often* we give *some chance* to a possible alternative hypothesis  $H_1$ , even if we are not able to exactly formulate it.

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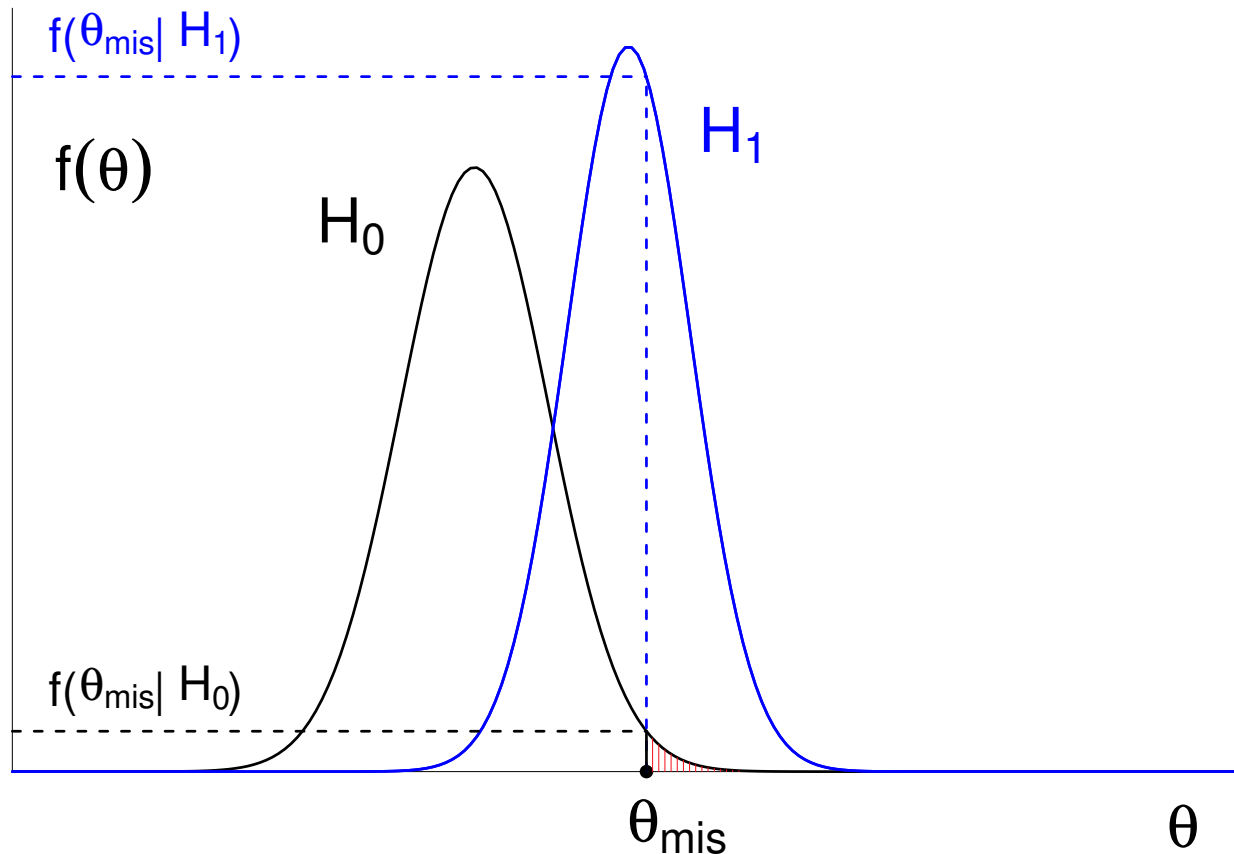


Indeed, what really matters is not the **area** to the right of  $\theta_{mis}$ . What matters is the ratio of  $f(\theta_{mis} | H_1)$  to  $f(\theta_{mis} | H_0)$ !  
 $\Rightarrow$  to a 'small' area it corresponds a 'small'  $f(\theta_{mis} | H_0)$ .



# But statistical tests do work!

---



But is the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  is unconceivable, or hardly believable, the ‘smallness’ of the area is irrelevant

# Sensational announcements Vs sound Physics

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As it was quite obvious that what the LHC experiments were glimpsing at the end of 2011 was **the 30 years searched for Higgs boson** (Also because in that case the great discovery would have been not to find it!)

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---

At this point it is rather clear why most physicists disbelieved the 2011 announcements by CDF and Opera

As it was quite obvious that what the LHC experiments were glimpsing at the end of 2011 was **the 30 years searched for Higgs boson** (Also because in that case the great discovery would have been not to find it!)

Don't get confused by sigma's and 'strange significances' that do not tell you how how much to believe in the claim.

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→ **The excess is surely a particle only if it is the Higgs!**

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It is a question of Physics not (only) of statistics:

- success of standard model;
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(the diagrams entering R.C. are essentially the same the produce the Higgs in the final state!)
- **Physics is something SERIOUS!** (not a statistician’s toy)

# Conclusions of Part 1

---

Philip Ball (Guardian, 23 dicembre 2011)

(<http://www.guardian.co.uk/commentisfree/2011/de>

*“So D’Agostini recommends that, instead of heeding impressive-sounding statistics, we should ask what scientists actually believe. Better, we should find out if they had put money on it – and how much. After all, that is a tactic endorsed by none other than Kant.”*

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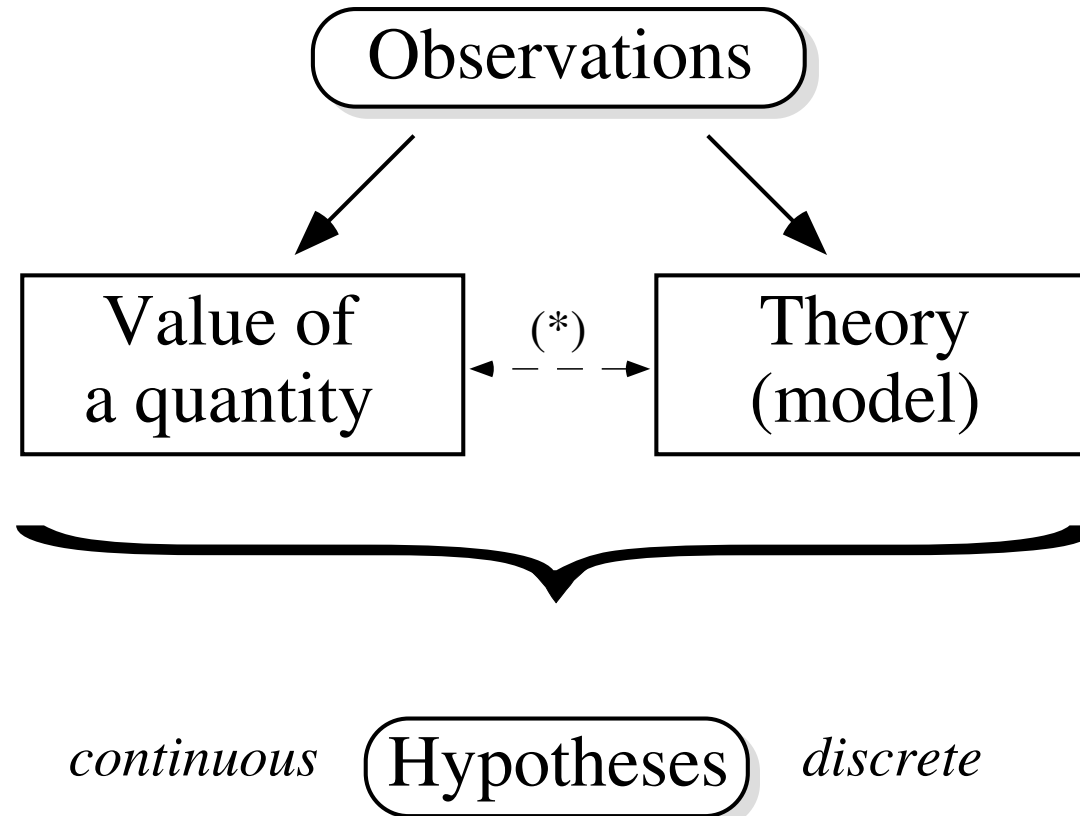
*⇒ He has finally won both bets!*

---



# Physics

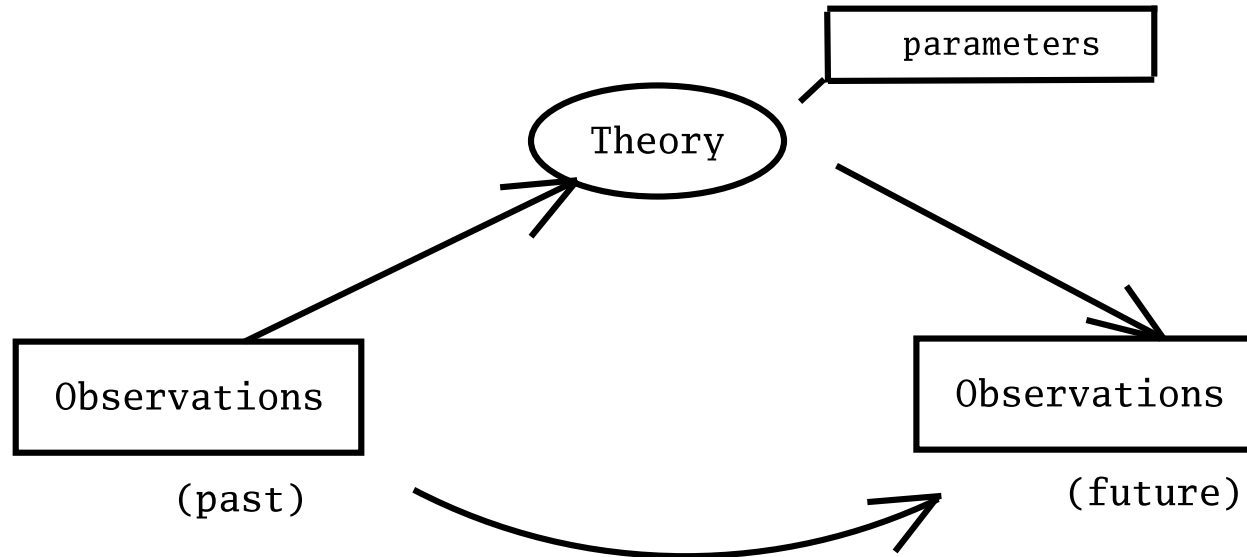
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(\*) A quantity might be meaningful only within a theory/model

# From past to future

---

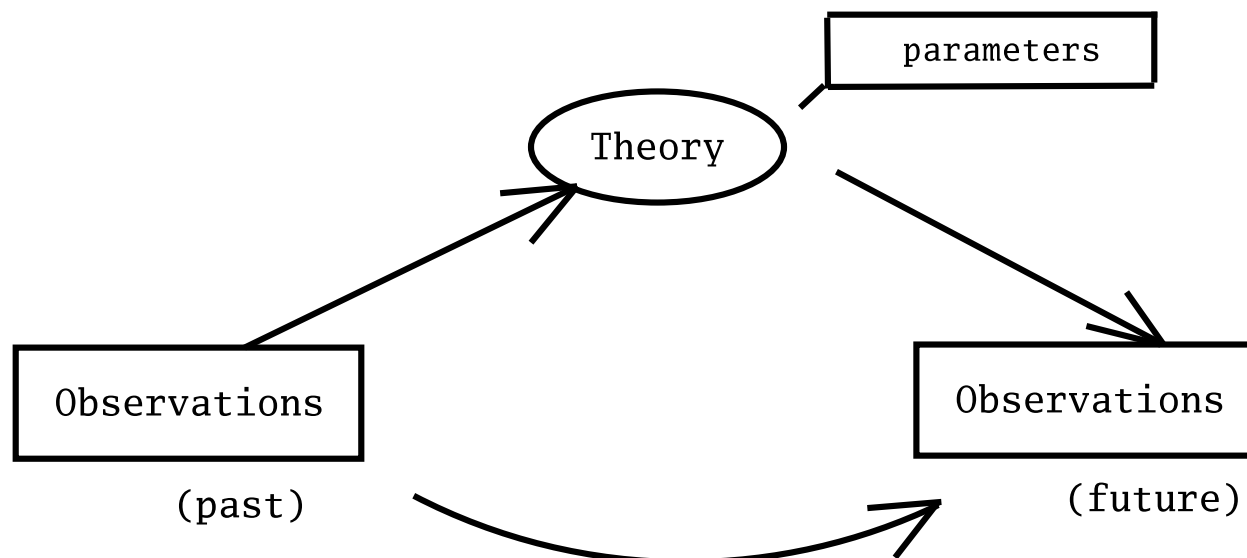


Task of physicists:

- Describe/understand the physical world  
⇒ **inference** of laws and their parameters
- Predict observations  
⇒ **forecasting**

# From past to future

---

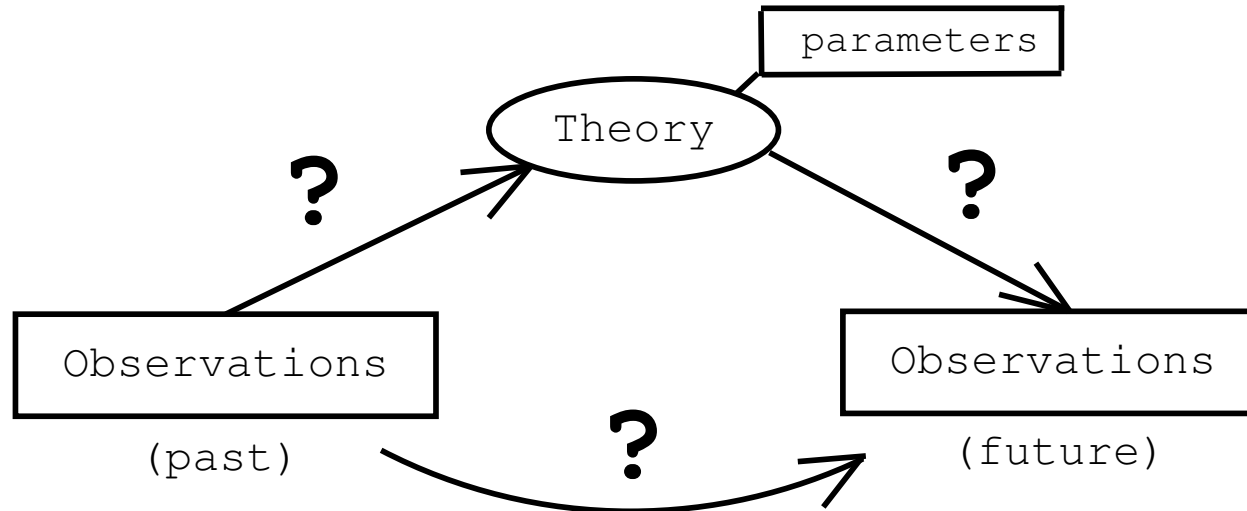


## ⇒ Uncertainty:

1. Given the past observations, in general we are not sure about the theory parameters (and/or the theory itself)
2. Even if we were sure about theory and parameters, there could be internal (e.g. Q.M.) or external effects (initial/boundary conditions, 'errors', etc) that make the forecasting uncertain.

# Deep source of uncertainty

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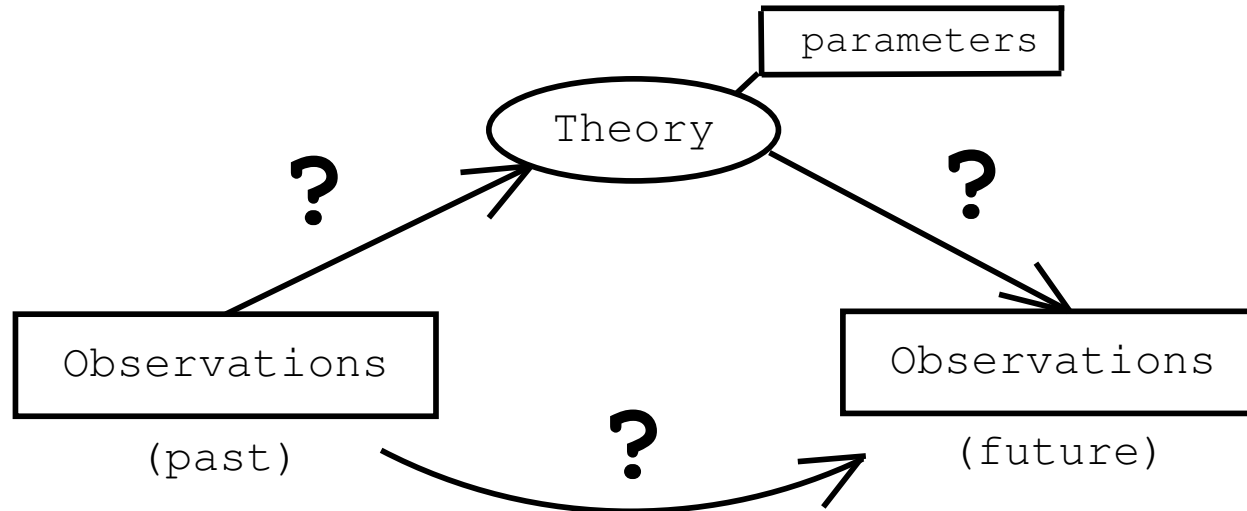


Uncertainty:

Theory — ? → Future observations  
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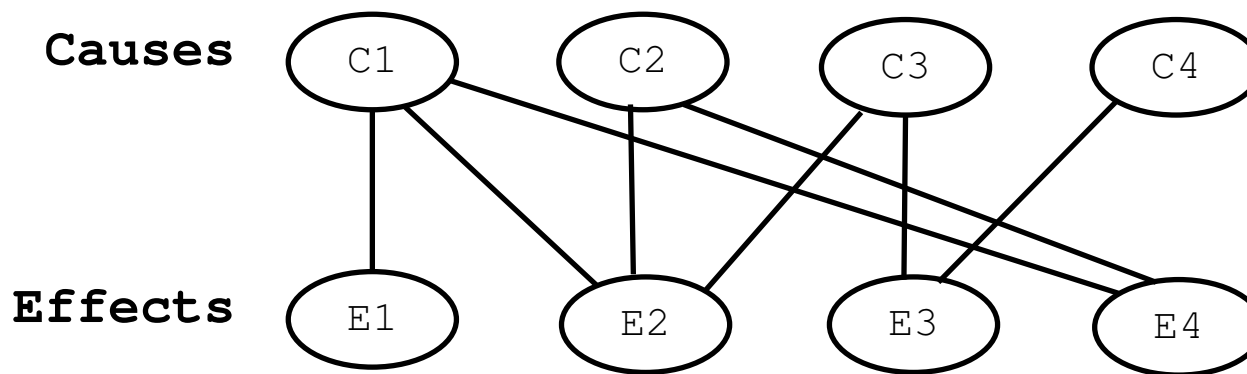
⇒ **Uncertainty about causal connections**

**CAUSE ⇌ EFFECT**

# Causes → effects

---

The same *apparent* cause might produce several, different effects

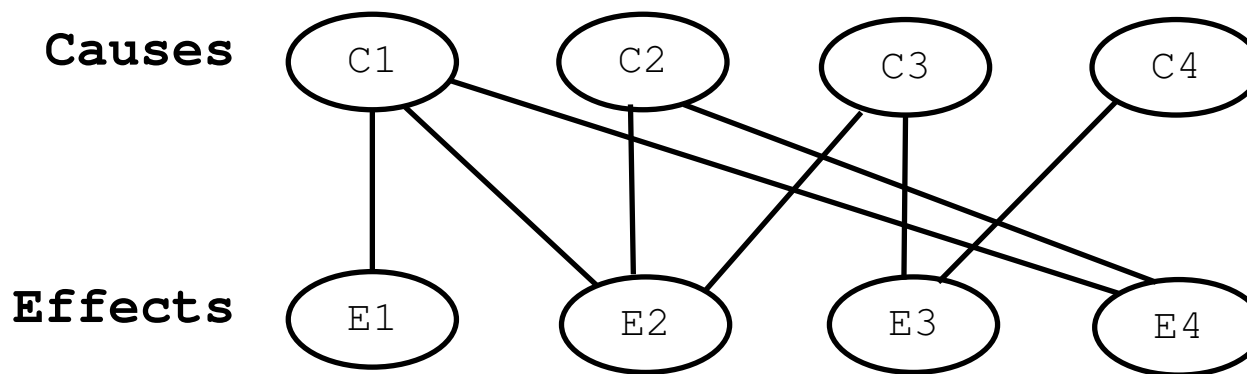


Given an observed effect, we are not sure about the exact cause that has produced it.

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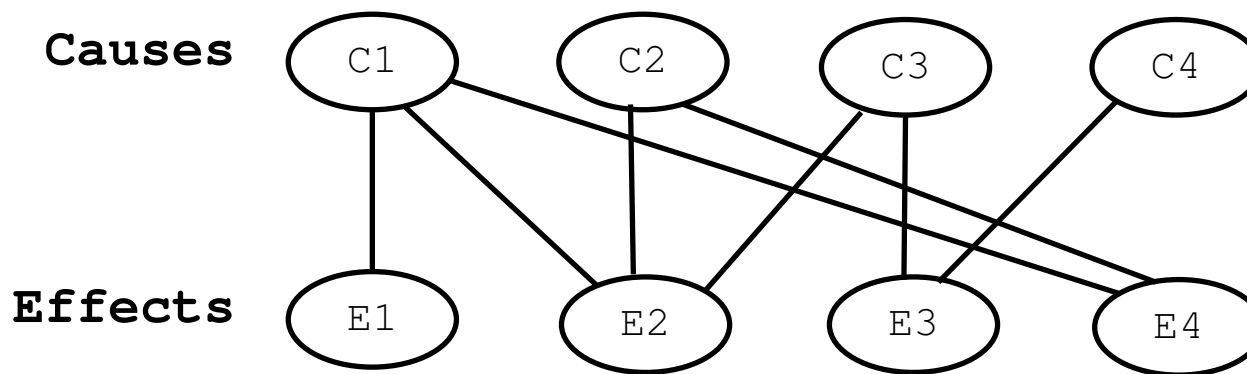


Given an **observed effect**, we are not sure about the **exact cause** that has produced it.

# Causes → effects

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

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



# The “essential problem” of the Sciences

---

“Now, these problems are classified as *probability of causes*, and are most interesting of all 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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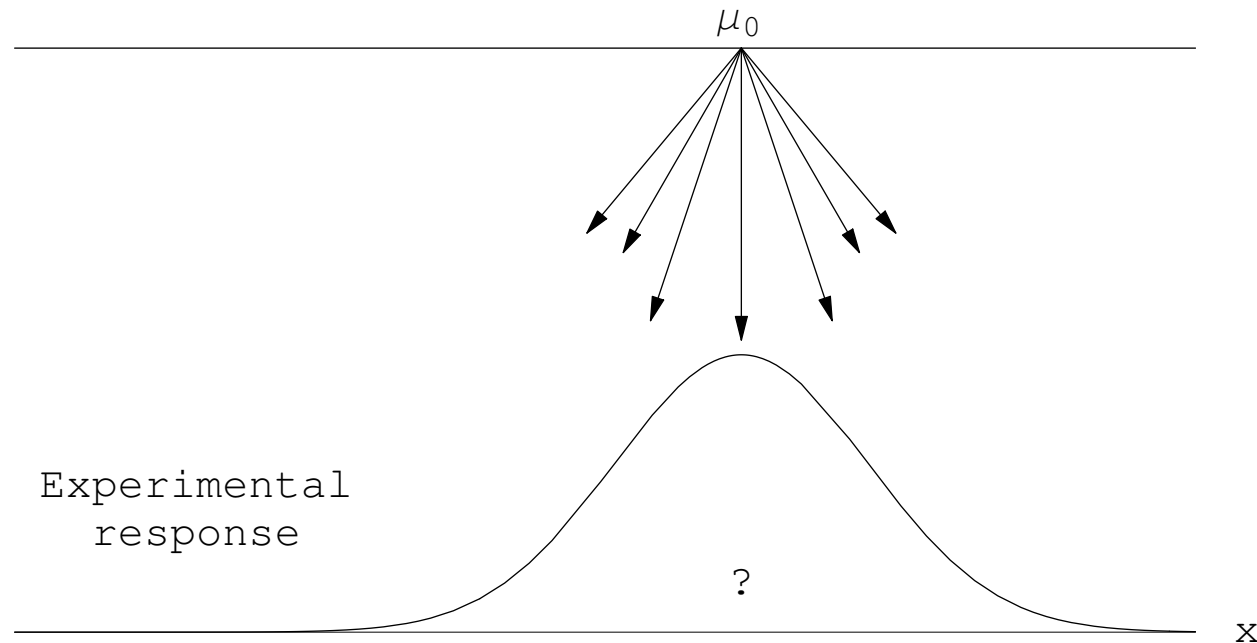
(H. Poincaré – *Science and Hypothesis*)

Why physics students are not taught how to tackle this kind of problems?

---

# From 'true value' to observations

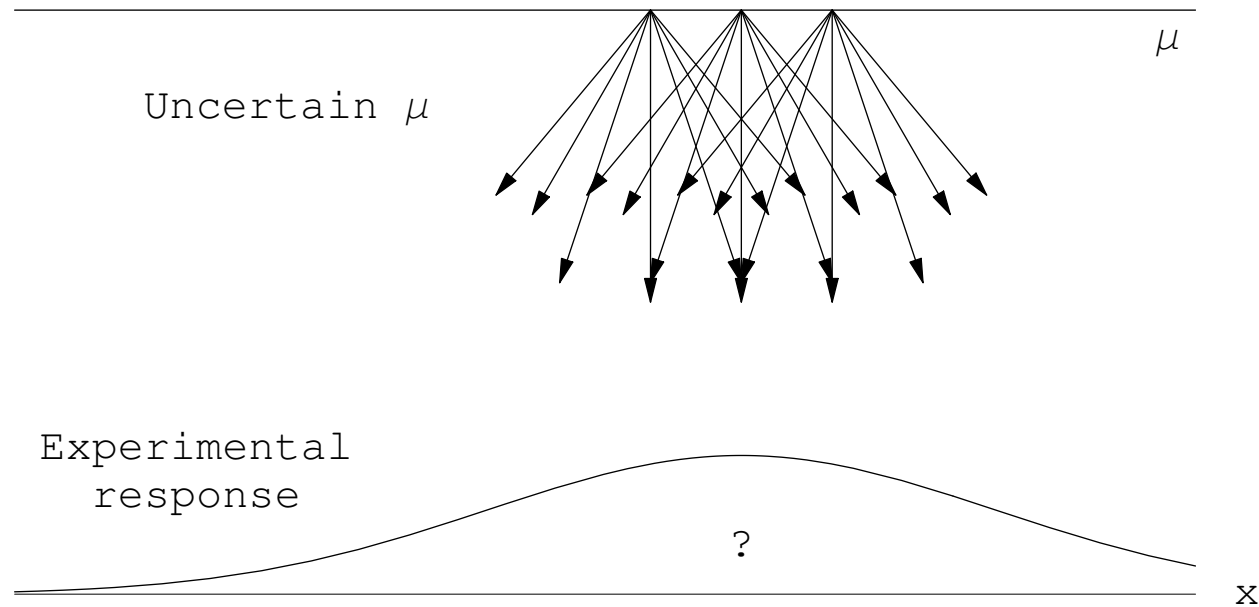
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Given  $\mu$  (exactly known) we are uncertain about  $x$

# From 'true value' to observations

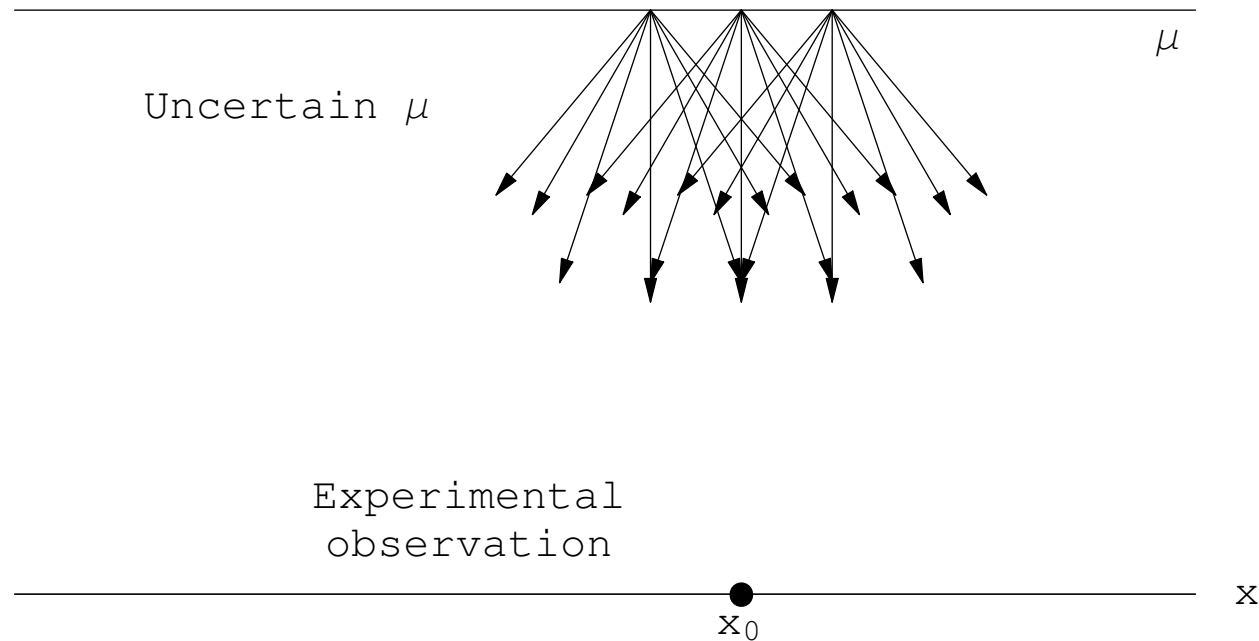
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Uncertainty about  $\mu$  makes us more uncertain about  $x$

# ... and back: Inferring a true value

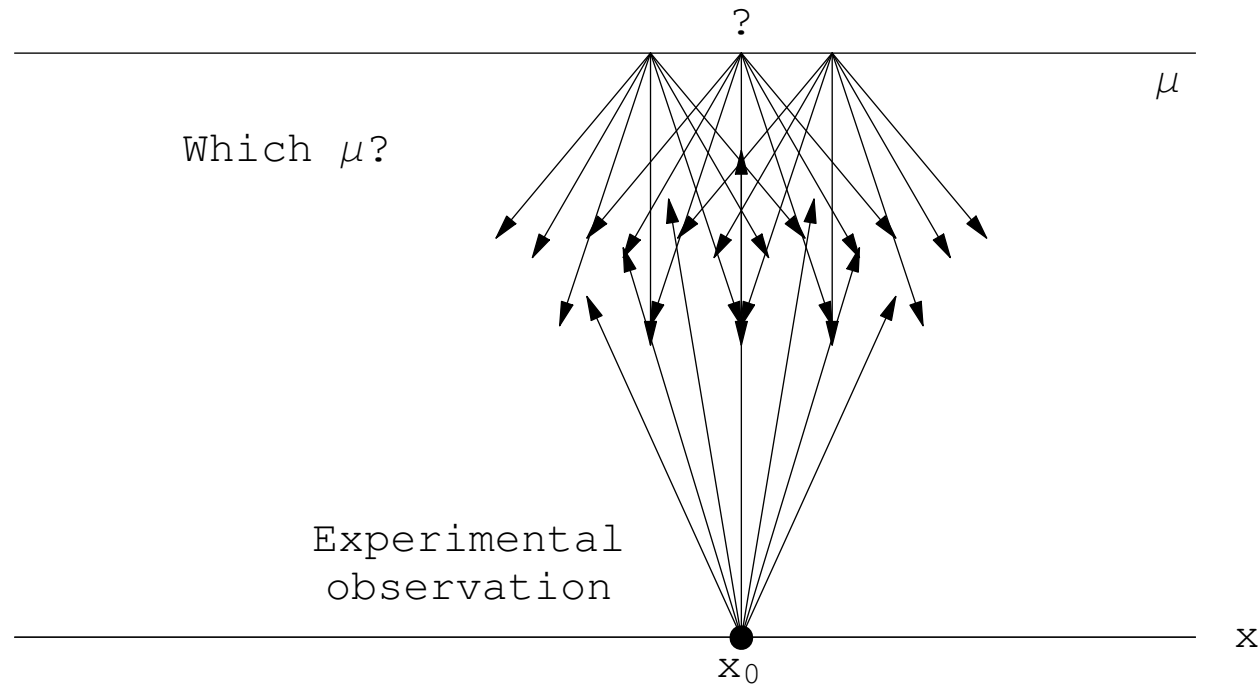
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The observed data is certain:  $\rightarrow$  'true value' uncertain.

# ... and back: Inferring a true value

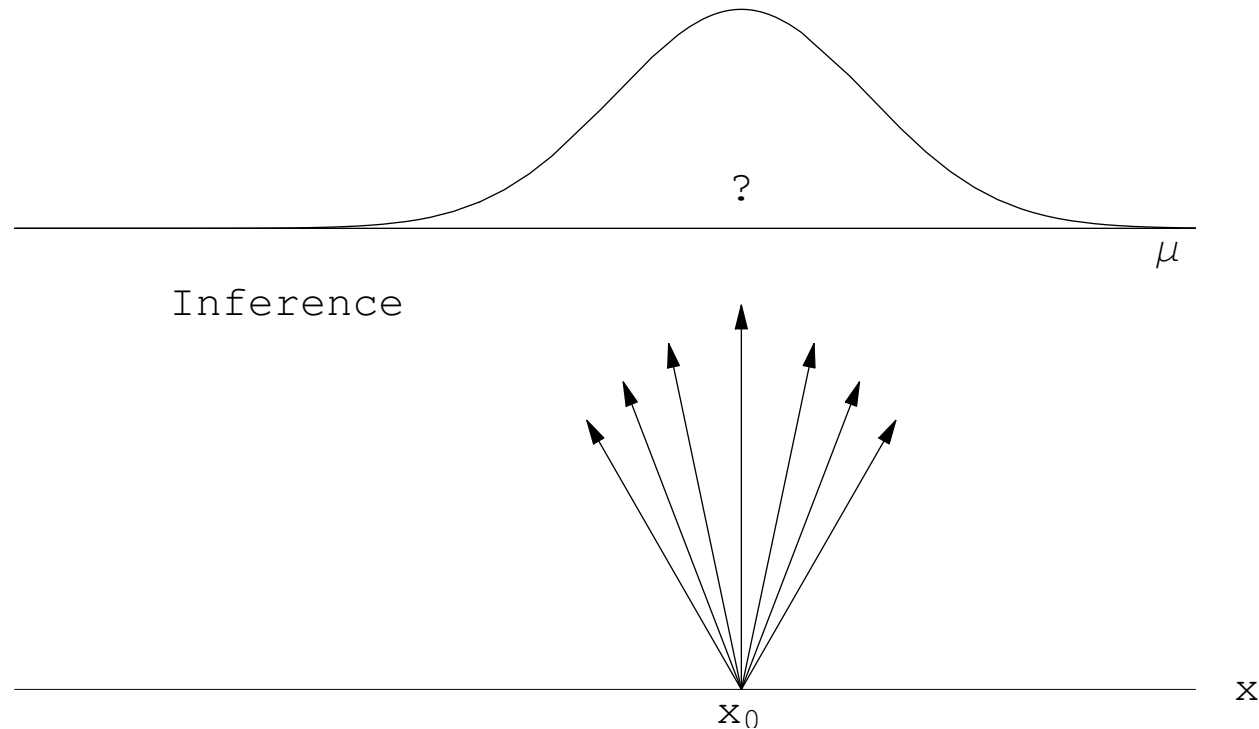
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Where does the observed value of  $x$  comes from?

# ... and back: Inferring a true value

---

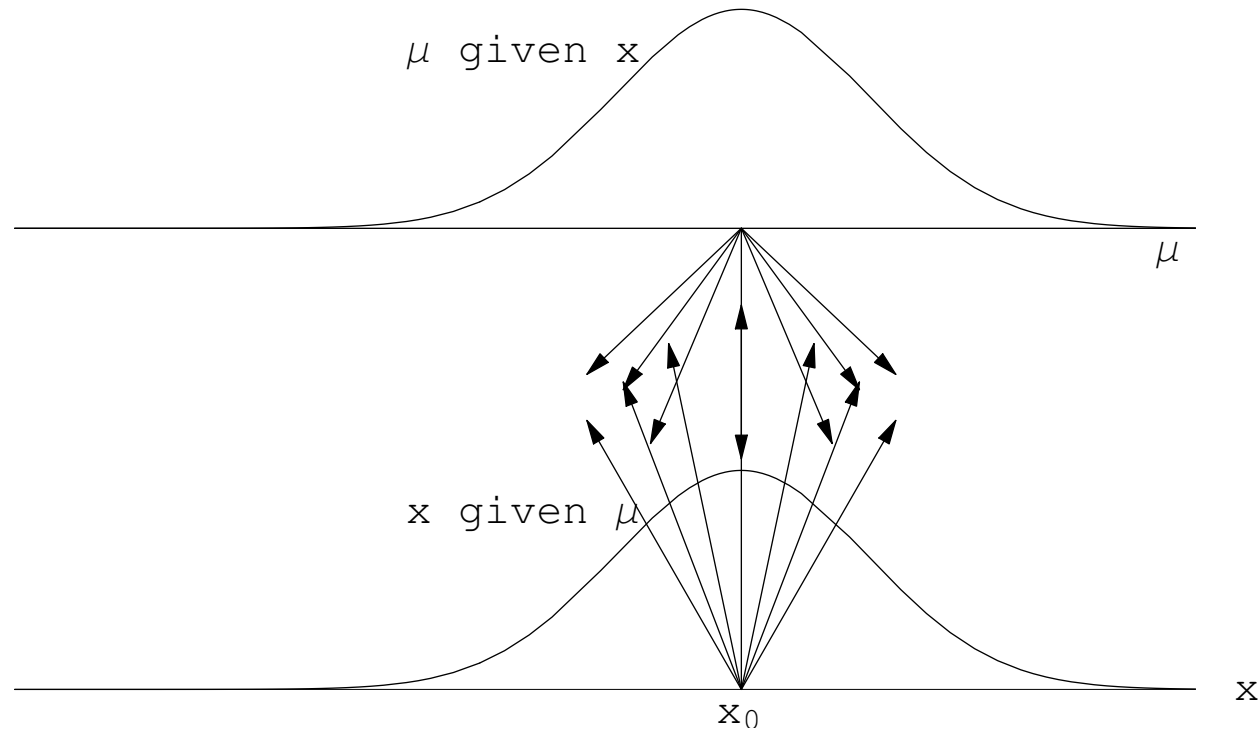


We are now uncertain about  $\mu$ , given  $x$ .



# ... and back: Inferring a true value

---



Note the **symmetry in reasoning**.

# A very simple experiment

---

Let's make an experiment

# A very simple experiment

---

Let's make an experiment

- Here
- Now

# A very simple experiment

---

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- Now

For simplicity

- $\mu$  can assume only six possibilities:

$0, 1, \dots, 5$

- $x$  is binary:

$0, 1$

[ (1, 2); Black/White; Yes/Not; ... ]

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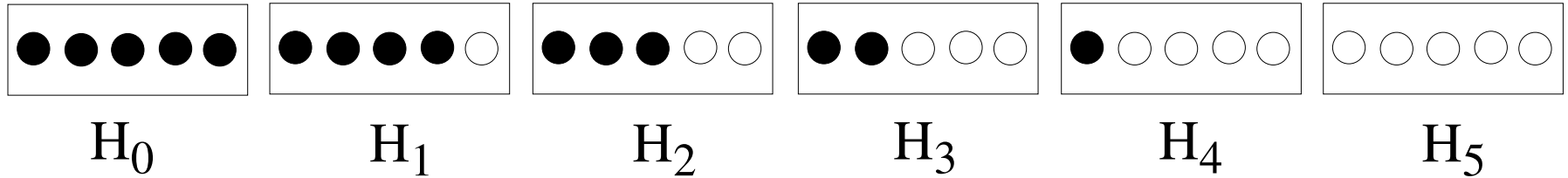
$[(1, 2); \text{Black/White}; \text{Yes/Not}; \dots]$

$\Rightarrow$  Later we shall make  $\mu$  continuous.

---

# Which box? Which ball?

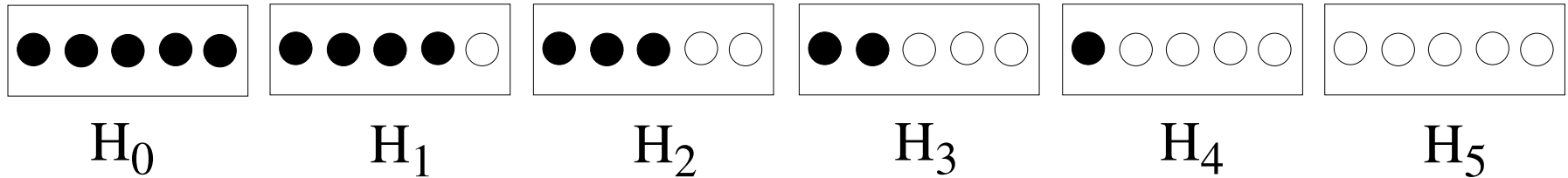
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Let us take randomly one of the boxes.

# Which box? Which ball?

---



Let us take randomly one of the boxes.

We are in a state of uncertainty concerning several *events*, the most important of which correspond to the following questions:

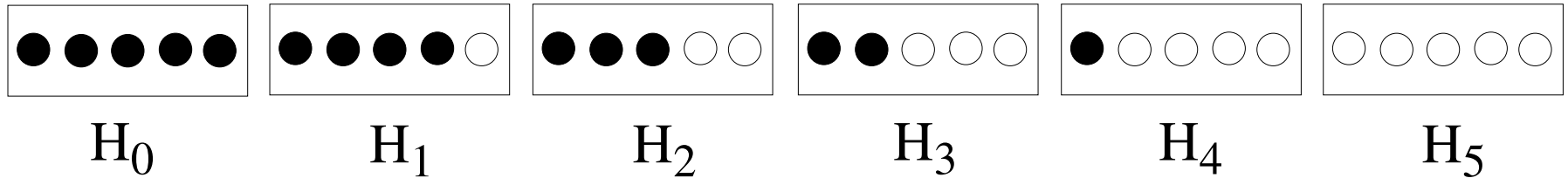
- (a) Which box have we chosen,  $H_0, H_1, \dots, H_5$ ?
- (b) If we extract randomly a ball from the chosen box, will we observe a white ( $E_W \equiv E_1$ ) or black ( $E_B \equiv E_2$ ) ball?

Our certainties:

$$\bigcup_{j=0}^5 H_j = \Omega$$
$$\bigcup_{i=1}^2 E_i = \Omega.$$

# Which box? Which ball?

---



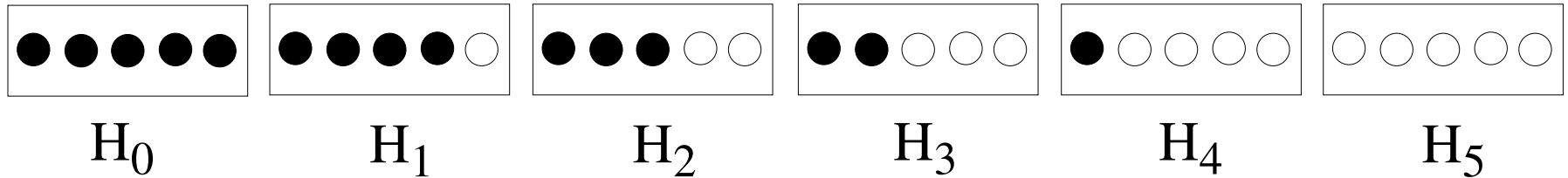
Let us take randomly one of the boxes.

- What happens after we have extracted one ball and looked its color?
  - Intuitively feel *how to roughly change* our opinion about
    - the possible cause
    - a future observation



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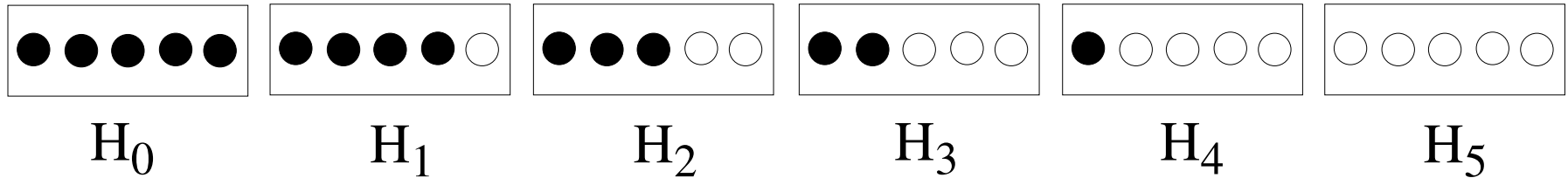


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  - Can we do it *quantitatively*, in an ‘objective way’?

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- What happens after we have extracted one ball and looked its color?
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  - Can we do it *quantitatively*, in an ‘objective way’?
- And after a sequence of extractions?

# The toy inferential experiment

---

The aim of the experiment will be to **guess** the content of the box **without looking inside it**, only extracting a ball, record its color and reintroducing in the box

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This toy experiment is conceptually very close to what we do in Physics

⇒ try to guess what we cannot see (the electron mass, a branching ratio, etc)

... from what we can see (somehow) with our senses.

The rule of the game is that we are not allowed to watch inside the box! (As **we cannot open an electron and read its properties**, unlike we read the MAC address of a PC interface.)

# *Where is probability?*

---

We all agree that the **experimental results change**

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*Where is the probability?*

**Certainly not *in* the box!**



# Subjective nature of probability

---

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

---

# Probability is always conditional probability

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

where  $I_s$  is the information available to *subject*  $s$ .

# What are we talking about?

---

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“Given the state of **our knowledge** about everything that could possibly have any bearing on the coming true... the numerical **probability**  $P$  of this event is to be a real number by the indication of which we try in some cases to setup a **quantitative measure of the strength of our conjecture** or anticipation, founded on the said knowledge, that the event comes true”

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⇒ **How much we believe something**

---

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→ ‘Degree of belief’ ←

# Beliefs and 'coherent' bets

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Remarks:

- **Subjective** does not mean arbitrary!

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*“The usual touchstone, whether that which someone asserts is merely his persuasion – or at least his subjective conviction, that is, his firm belief – is betting. It often happens that someone propounds his views with such positive and uncompromising assurance that he seems to have entirely set aside all thought of possible error. A bet disconcerts him. Sometimes it turns out that he has a conviction which can be estimated at a value of one ducat, but not of ten. For he is very willing to venture one ducat, but when it is a question of ten he becomes aware, as he had not previously been, that it may very well be that he is in error.” (Kant)*



# Beliefs and 'coherent' bets

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11/07 20:30							
 VOJVODINA - HIBERNIANS	1,05	10,00	25,00	3,10	1,30	2,55	1,42
 GLENTORAN - KR REYKJAV	4,75	3,50	1,65	1,90	1,75	1,75	1,90
 HONV BUDAP. - CELIK NIKS.	1,15	7,00	12,00	2,80	1,35	2,00	1,70
 GERMANIA - OLANDA	1,15	6,50	13,00	2,50	1,45	2,20	1,57
11/07 20:45							
 S PATRICKS - ZALGIRIS	1,90	3,40	3,50	1,75	1,90	1,73	1,95
11/07 21:00							
 LIBERTAS - SARAJEVO	22,00	8,00	1,08	3,20	1,28	2,25	1,55
11/07 22:00							
 STJARNAN - HAFNARFJOR	2,65	3,40	2,35	2,15	1,60	1,50	2,35

1 X 2

# Beliefs and 'coherent' bets

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“His [Bouvard] calculations give him the mass of Saturn as 3,512th part of that of the sun. Applying my probabilistic formulae to these observations, I find that the **odds are 11,000 to 1** that the error in this result is not a hundredth of its value.” (Laplace)

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$$\rightarrow P(3477 \leq M_{Sun}/M_{Sat} \leq 3547 | I(\text{Laplace})) = 99.99\%$$

# 'C.L.' Vs Degree of Confidence

---

Is a 'conventional' 95% C.L. lower/upper bound a 19 to 1 bet?

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For more on the subject:

<http://arxiv.org/abs/1112.3620>

<http://www.roma1.infn.it/~dagos/badmath/#added>

# Mathematics of beliefs

---

The good news:

The basic laws of degrees of belief are the same we get from the inventory of favorable and possible cases, or from events occurred in the past.

[ Details skipped... ]

# 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  $P(A \cap B | I) = \emptyset$ ]
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 ' $I'_s$ ')

→ usually implicit (we only care on 're-conditioning')

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**Note:** 4. does not define conditional probability.  
(Probability is always conditional probability!)

# Mathematics of beliefs

---

An even better news:

The fourth basic rule  
can be fully exploited!

# Mathematics of beliefs

---

An even better news:

The fourth basic rule  
can be fully exploited!

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

# A simple, powerful formula

---

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$

# A simple, powerful formula

---


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

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$



# A simple, powerful formula

---

A person wearing a green t-shirt with a mathematical formula printed on it. The formula is Bayes' theorem: 
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$

The image shows a person from the chest up, wearing a bright green t-shirt. The t-shirt has the mathematical formula for Bayes' theorem printed on it in black ink. The person's face is partially visible at the top, showing a beard and mustache. The background is plain white.

Take the courage to use it!

# A simple, powerful formula

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$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$

It's easy if you try...!

# Telling it with Gauss' words

---

A quote from the [Princeps Mathematicorum](#) (Prince of Mathematicians) is a must in this town and in this place.

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*“post illa observationes”*

*“ante illa observationes”*

(Gauss)

# Bayes formulae

---

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or even (my preferred form to grasp its meaning):

$$\frac{P(C_i | E | I)}{P(C_j | E | I)} = \frac{P(E | C_i | I)}{P(E | C_j | I)} \cdot \frac{P(C_i | I)}{P(C_j | I)}$$

# Bayesian parametric inference

---

If we want to infer a continuous parameter  $p$  from a set of **data**

→ straightforward extension to probability density functions (pdf)

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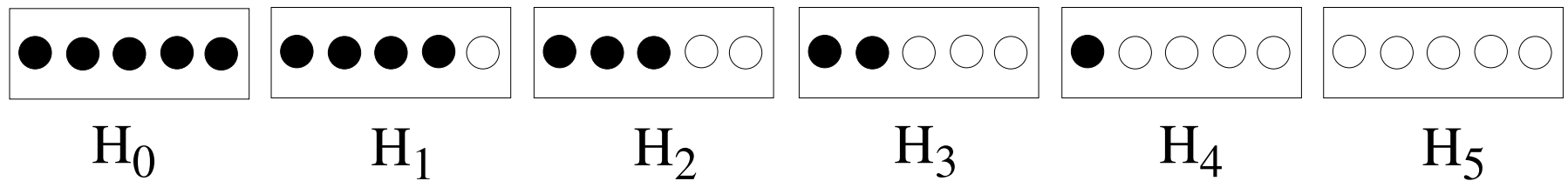
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⇒ Several examples tomorrow by Lorenzo

# Application to the six box problem

---



Remind:

- $E_1 = \text{White}$
- $E_2 = \text{Black}$



# Collecting the pieces of information we need

---

Our tool:

$$P(H_j | E_i, I) = \frac{P(E_i | H_j, I)}{P(E_i | I)} P(H_j | I)$$

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Our **prior** belief about  $H_j$

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Probability of  $E_i$  under a well defined hypothesis  $H_j$   
It corresponds to the 'response of the apparatus in measurements.

→ **likelihood** (traditional, rather confusing name!)

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→ How much we are confident that  $E_i$  will occur.

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Probability of  $E_i$  taking account all possible  $H_j$

→ How much we are confident that  $E_i$  will occur.

We can rewrite it as

$$P(E_i | I) = \sum_j P(E_i | H_j, I) \cdot P(H_j | I)$$



# We are ready

---

Now that we have set up our formalism, let's play a little

- analyse real data
- some simulations

Then

- $H_j \longleftrightarrow j \longleftrightarrow p_j$
- extending  $p$  to a continuum:  
⇒ Bayes' billiard  
(prototype for all questions related to efficiencies,  
branching ratios)
- On the meaning of  $p$

# Which box? Which ball?

---

Inferential/forecasting history:

1.  $k = 0$

$$P_0(H_j) = P(H_j | I_0) \text{ (priors)}$$

2. begin loop:

$$k = k + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow E^{(k)} \quad (k\text{-th extraction})$$

3.  $P_k(H_j | I_k) \propto P(E^{(k)} | H_j) \times P_{k-1}(H_j | I_k)$

$$P_k(E_i | I_k) = \sum_j P(E_i | H_j) \cdot P_k(H_j | I_k)$$

4.  $\rightarrow$  go to 2

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Let's play!

# Bayes' billiard

---

This is the original problem in the theory of chances solved by Thomas Bayes in late '700:

- imagine you roll a ball at random on a billiard;
- you mark the relative position of the ball along the billiard's length ( $l/L$ ) and remove the ball
- then you roll at random other balls
  - write down if it stopped left or right of the first ball;
  - remove it and go on with  $n$  balls.
- Somebody has to guess the position of the first ball knowing only how many balls stopped left and how many stopped right

# Bayes' billiard and Bernoulli trials

---

It is easy to recognize the analogy:

- Left/Right  $\rightarrow$  Success/Failure
- if Left  $\leftrightarrow$  Success:
  - $l/L \leftrightarrow p$  of binomial (Bernoulli trials)

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Imagine a sequence  $\{S, S, F, S, \dots\}$  [ $f_0$  is uniform]:

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...

$$f(p | \#S, \#F) \propto p^{\#S} (1 - p)^{\#F} = p^{\#S} (1 - p)^{(1 - \#s)}$$

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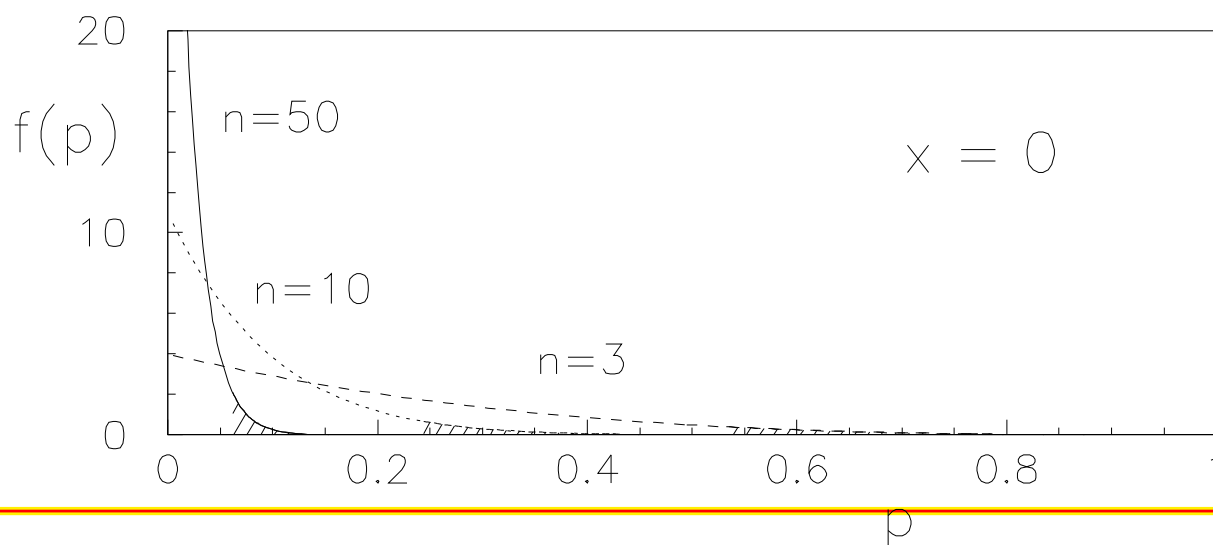
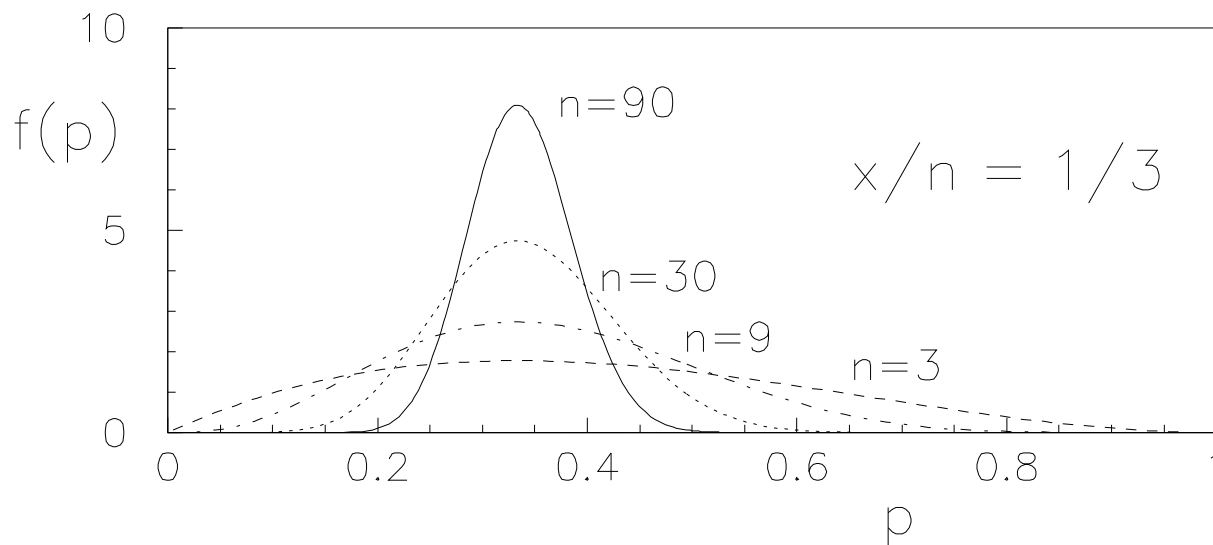
...

$$f(p | \#S, \#F) \propto p^{\#S} (1 - p)^{\#F} = p^{\#S} (1 - p)^{(1 - \#s)}$$

$$f(p | x, n) \propto p^x (1 - p)^{(n-x)} \quad [x = \#S]$$

# Inferring the Binomial $p$

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



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

$$\mathbf{E}(p) = \frac{x+1}{n+2}$$

Laplace's rule of successions

$$\mathbf{Var}(p) = \frac{(x+1)(n-x+1)}{(n+3)(n+2)^2}$$

$$= \mathbf{E}(p) (1 - \mathbf{E}(p)) \frac{1}{n+3}.$$

# Interpretation of $E(p)$

---

Think at any future event  $E_{i>n}$

$\Rightarrow$  if we were sure of  $p$ , then our confidence on  $E_{i>n}$  will be exactly  $p$ , i.e.

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$$\begin{aligned} P(E_{i>n} | x, n, \mathcal{B}) &= \int_0^1 P(E_i | p) f(p | x, n, \mathcal{B}) \, dp \\ &= \int_0^1 p f(p | x, n, \mathcal{B}) \, dp \\ &= \mathbf{E}(p) \\ &= \frac{x+1}{n+2} \quad (\text{for uniform prior}). \end{aligned}$$



# From frequencies to probabilities

---

$$\mathbf{E}(p) = \frac{x + 1}{n + 2}$$

Laplace's rule of successions

$$\mathbf{Var}(p) = \mathbf{E}(p) (1 - \mathbf{E}(p)) \frac{1}{n + 3}.$$

For 'large'  $n$ ,  $x$  and  $n - x$ : asymptotic behaviors of  $f(p)$ :

$$\mathbf{E}(p) \approx p_m = \frac{x}{n} \quad [\text{with } p_m \text{ mode of } f(p)]$$

$$\sigma_p \approx \sqrt{\frac{p_m (1 - p_m)}{n}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

$$p \sim \mathcal{N}(p_m, \sigma_p).$$

Under these conditions the **frequentistic** "definition" (evaluation rule!) of probability ( $x/n$ ) is recovered.

---

# Special case with $x = 0$

---

$$f(p | 0, n, \mathcal{B}) = (n + 1) (1 - p)^n$$

$$F(p | 0, n, \mathcal{B}) = 1 - (1 - p)^{n+1}$$

$$p_m = 0$$

$$\mathbf{E}(p) = \frac{1}{n + 2} \longrightarrow \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\sigma(p) = \sqrt{\frac{(n + 1)}{(n + 3)(n + 2)^2}} \longrightarrow \frac{1}{n}$$

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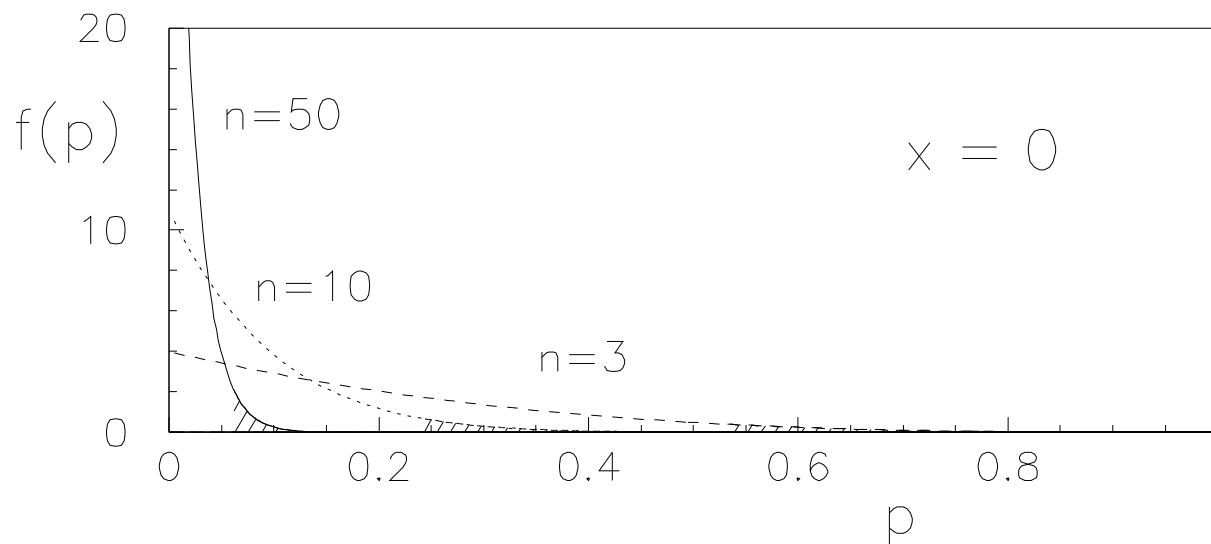
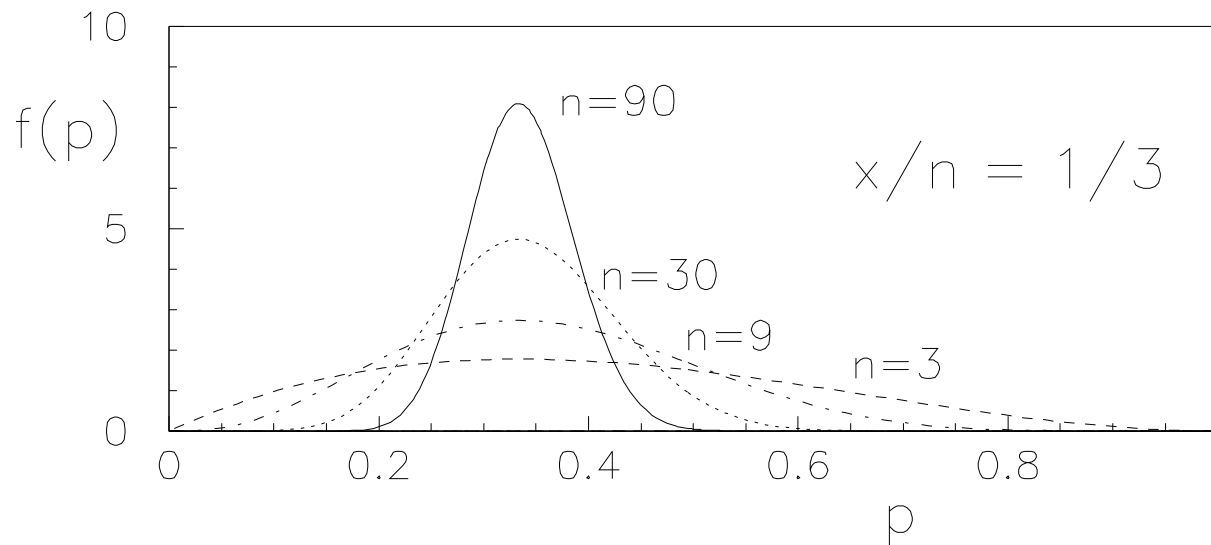
$$P(p \leq p_u | 0, n, \mathcal{B}) = 95\%$$

$$\Rightarrow p_u = 1 - \sqrt[n+1]{0.05} :$$

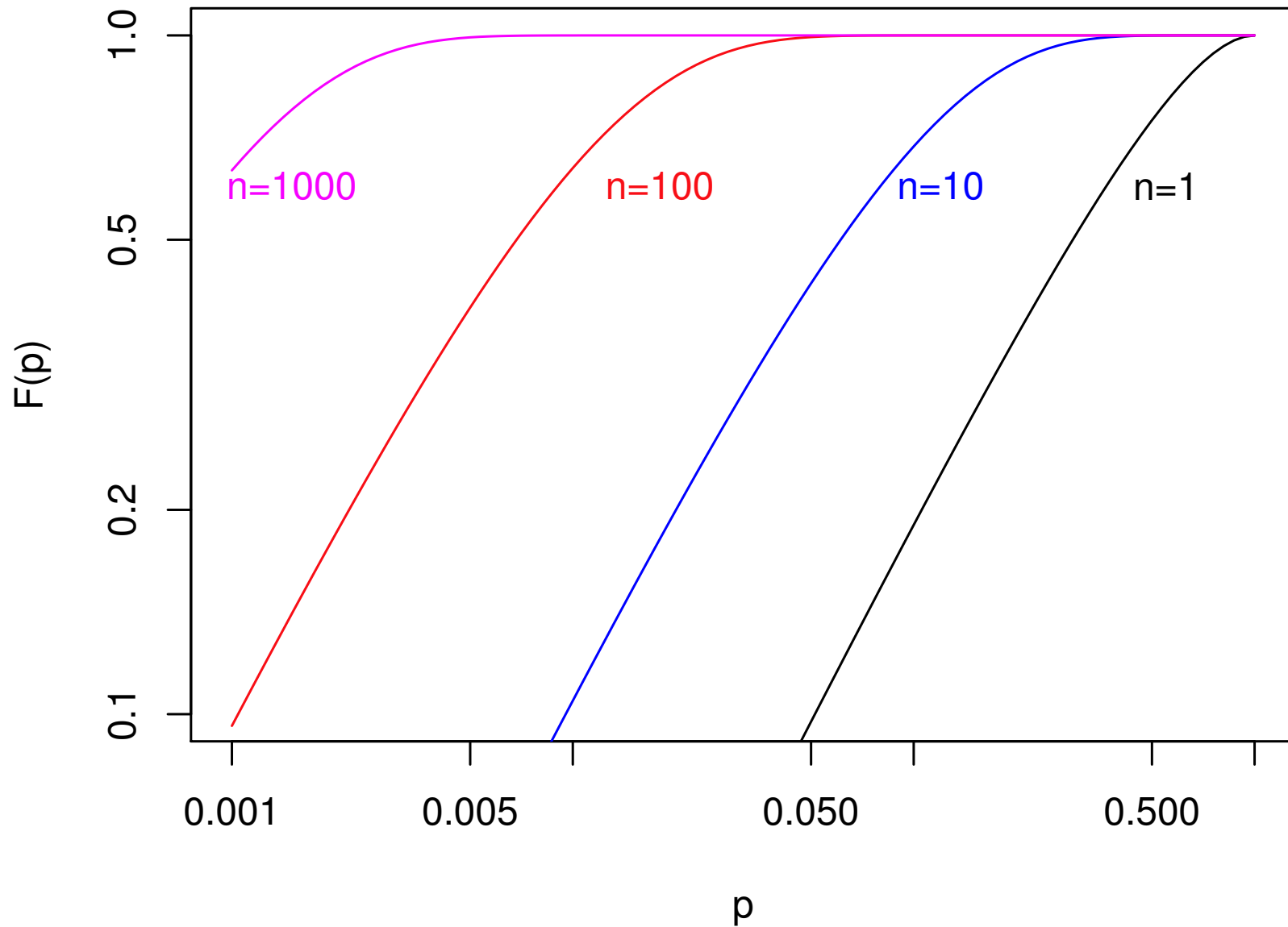
Probabilistic upper bound

---

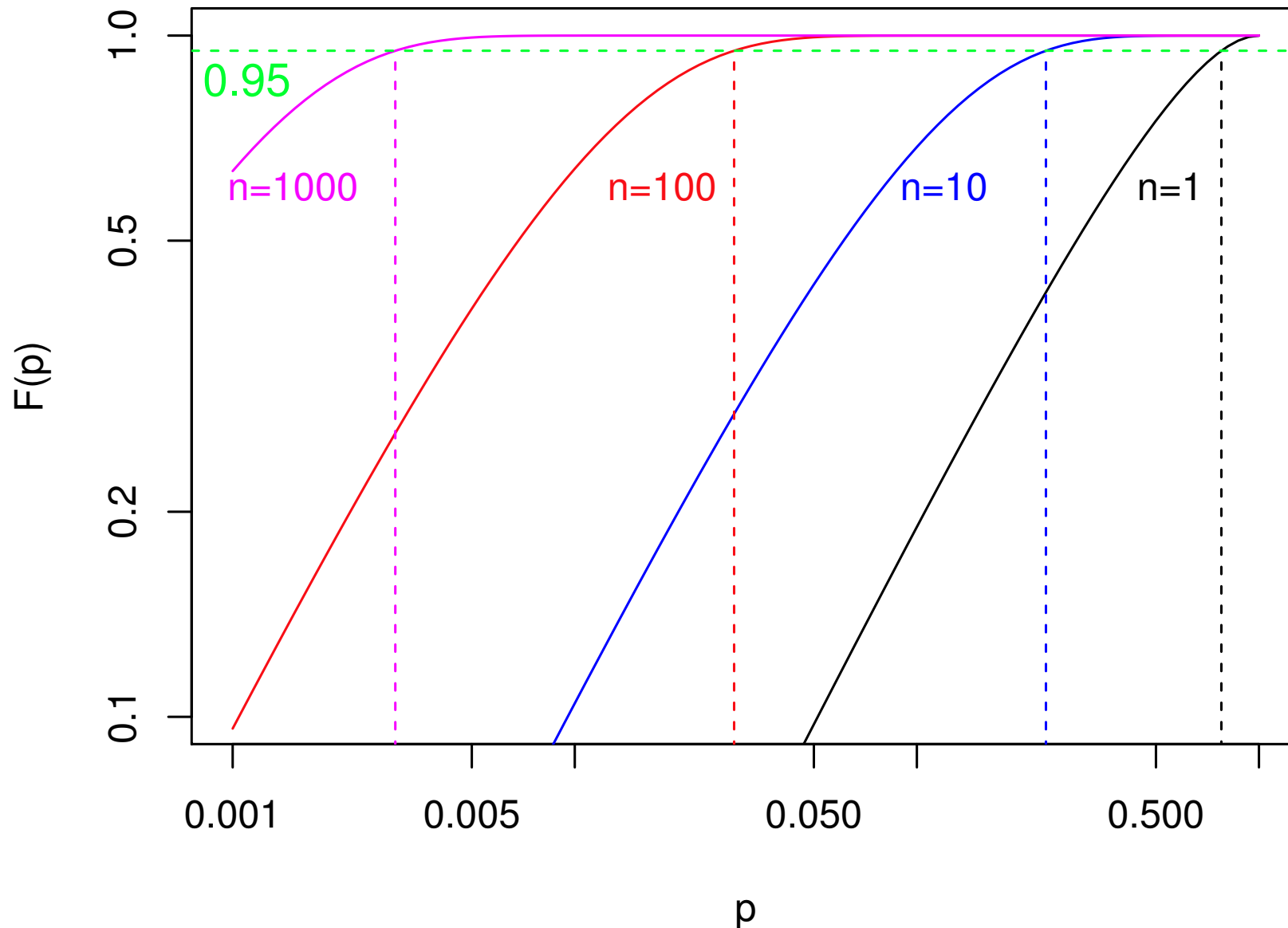
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---

For the case  $x = n$

(like 'observing' a 100% efficiency):

→ just reason on the complementary  
parameter

$$q = 1 - p$$

# Continuing the game

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We have seen how to tackle with a single idea problems that are treated differently in 'standard statistics':

- comparing hypotheses
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$$\rightarrow f(p_1, p_2, \dots | \text{data}, I)$$

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**We have no longer excuses!!**

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⇒ some 'appetizers' will be provided tomorrow by [Lorenzo](#)

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- **Mistrust all prior-free methods** that pretend to provide numbers that should mean **how you have to be confident** in something.

# OK, ... but the priors?

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Priors are an important ingredient of the framework:

- They are crucial in the Bayes theorem:
  - there is **no other way** to perform a probabilistic inference without passing through priors
    - ... although they can be often so vague to be ignored.
- They allow us to **use consistently all pieces of prior information**. And we all have much prior information in our job!  
Only the perfect idiot has no priors
- **Mistrust all prior-free methods** that pretend to provide numbers that should mean **how you have to be confident** in something.  
(Diffidate chi vi promette di **far germogliare zucchini nel Campo dei Miracoli!** – Pinocchio docet)

# Conclusions

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- But it is now possible thank to progresses in applied mathematics and computation.
- It makes little sense to stick to old 'ah hoc' methods that had their *raison d'être* in the computational barrier.
- Mistrust all results that sound as 'confidence', 'probability' etc about physics quantities, if they are obtained by methods that do not contemplate 'beliefs'.