

*Probabilistic Inference  
and Applications to Frontier Physics  
– Part 1 –*

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## Preamble

No 'prescriptions', but general ideas

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⇒ **Probabilistic approach**

- Mostly on basic concepts

- Extension to applications

“easy if you try” (at least conceptually)

**NO Exotic tests  
“with russian names”**

## Preamble

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



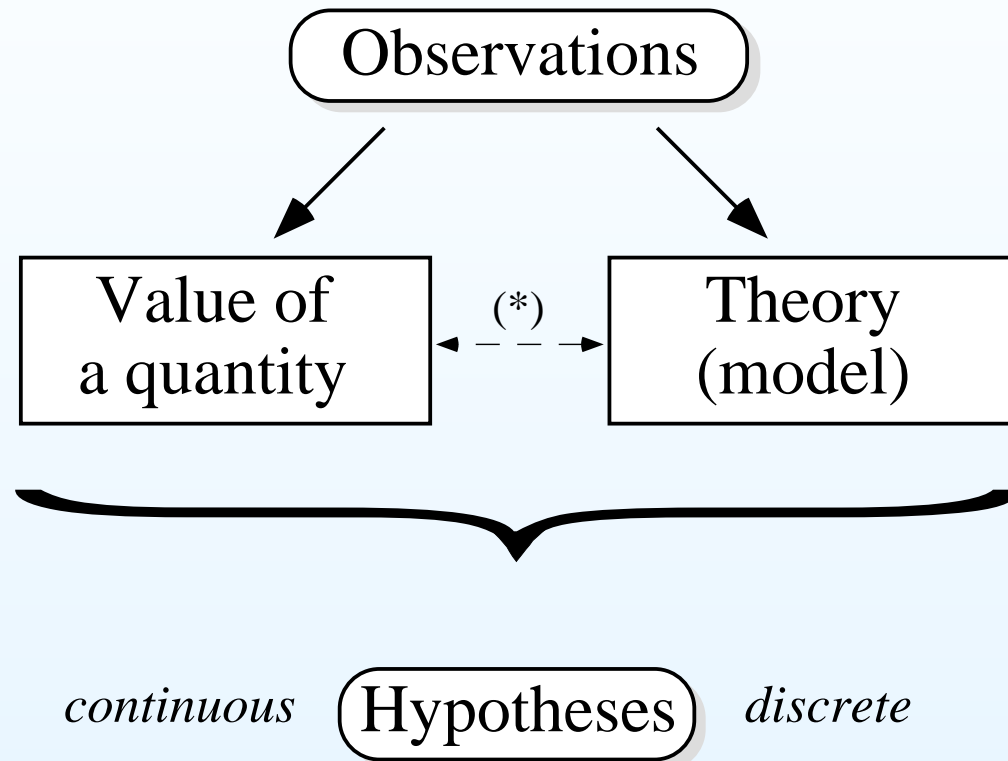
# Outline

- A short introduction from a physicist's point of view.
- Uncertainty, probability, decision.
- Causes  $\longleftrightarrow$  Effects  
*"The essential problem of the experimental method" (Poincaré).*
- A toy model and its physics analogy: **the six box game**  
*"Probability is either referred to real cases or it is nothing" (de Finetti).*
- Probabilistic approach, but What is probability?
- Basic rules of probability and Bayes rule.
- Bayesian inference and its graphical representation:  
 $\Rightarrow$  Bayesian networks
- Let us play a while with the toy
- **Some examples of applications in Physics**
- Conclusions

# Applications

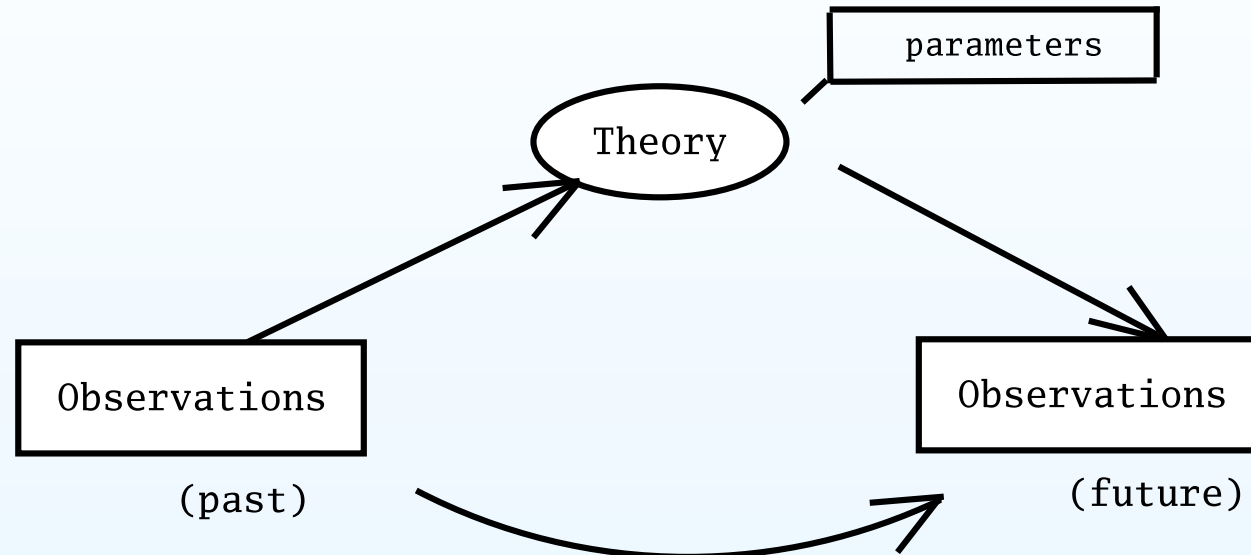
- Inferring a quantity and predicting a future observable
- Fits, including 'extra variability' of data and systematics
- Unfolding
- Setting limits ( $\rightarrow$  understand the role of the likelihood!)

# Physics



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

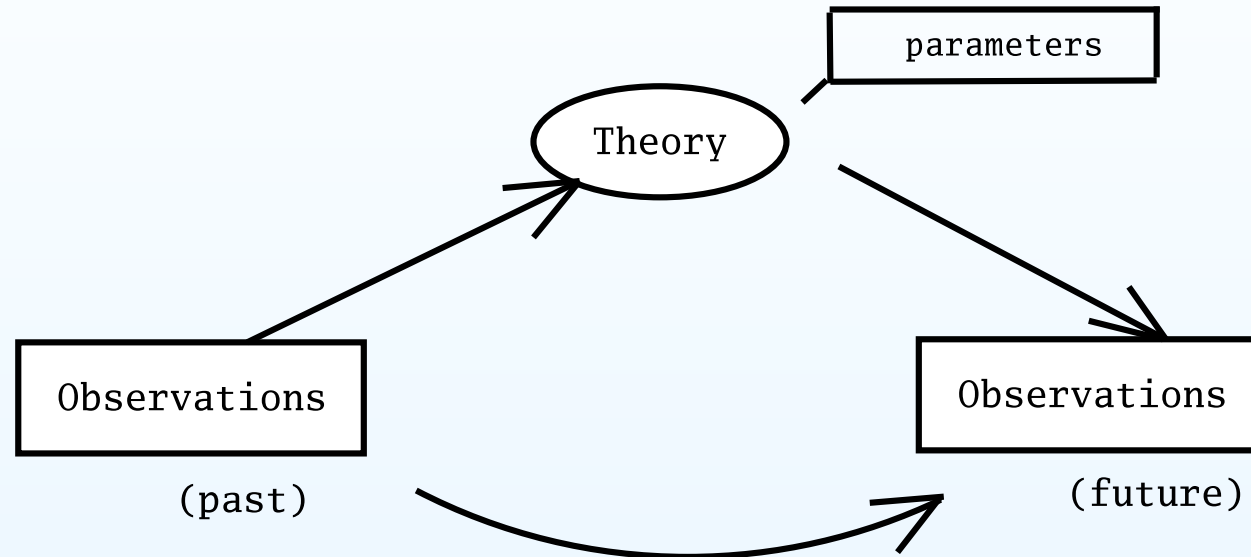
## From past to future



Task of the physicist:

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

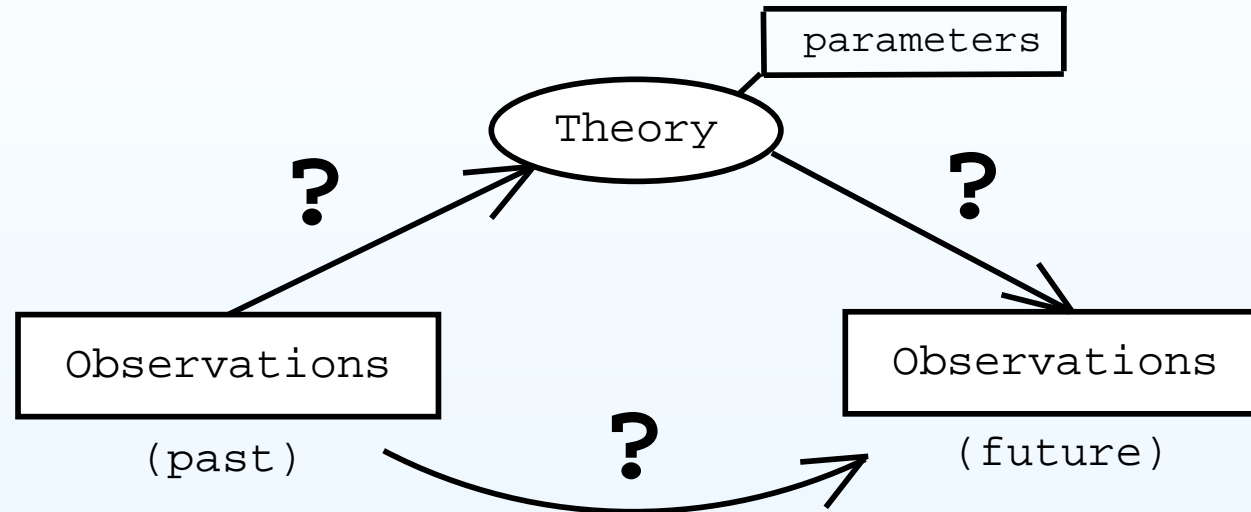
# From past to future



## Process

- neither automatic
- nor purely contemplative
  - ‘scientific method’
  - planned experiments (‘actions’) ⇒ **decision.**

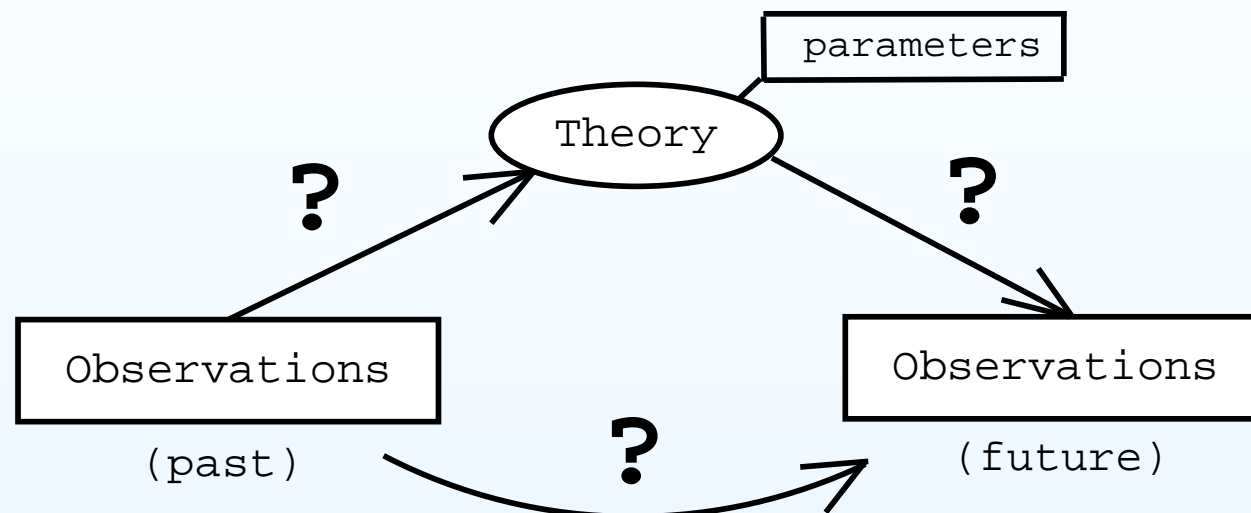
## From past to future



⇒ **Uncertainty:**

1. Given the past observations, in general we are not sure about the theory parameter (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.

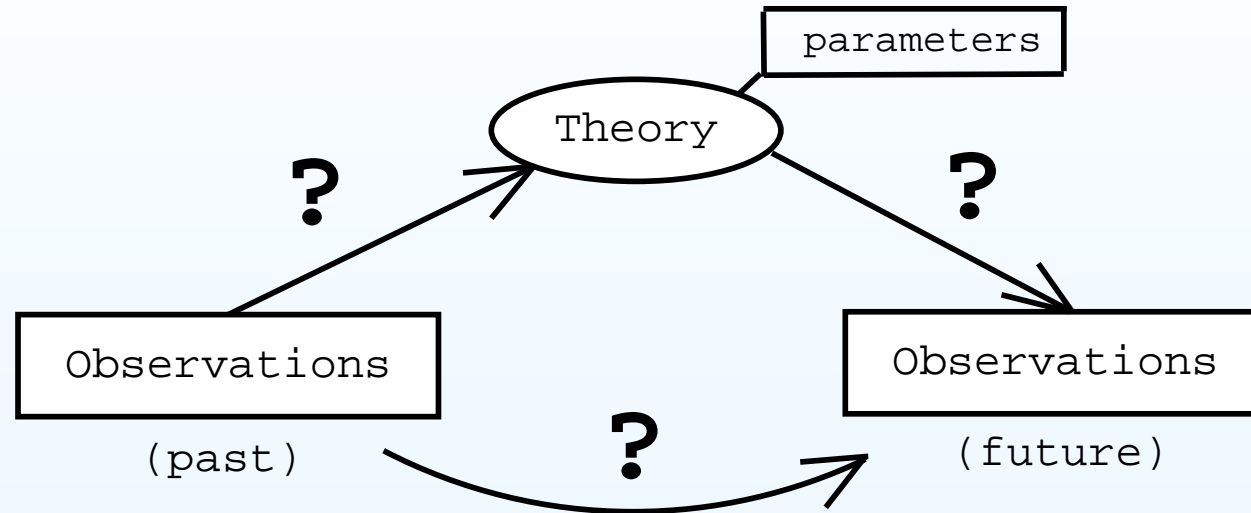
## From past to future



### ⇒ Decision

- What is the best action ('experiment') to take in order 'to be confident' that what we would like will occur? (Decision issues always assume uncertainty about future outcomes.)
- Before tackling problems of decision we need to learn to reason about uncertainty, possibly in a quantitative way.

# From past to future



## Deep reason of uncertainty

Theory — ? —> Future observations  
Past observations — ? —> Theory  
Theory — ? —> Future observations



## About predictions

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Remember:

*“Prediction is very difficult,  
especially if it’s about the future” (Bohr)*

## About predictions

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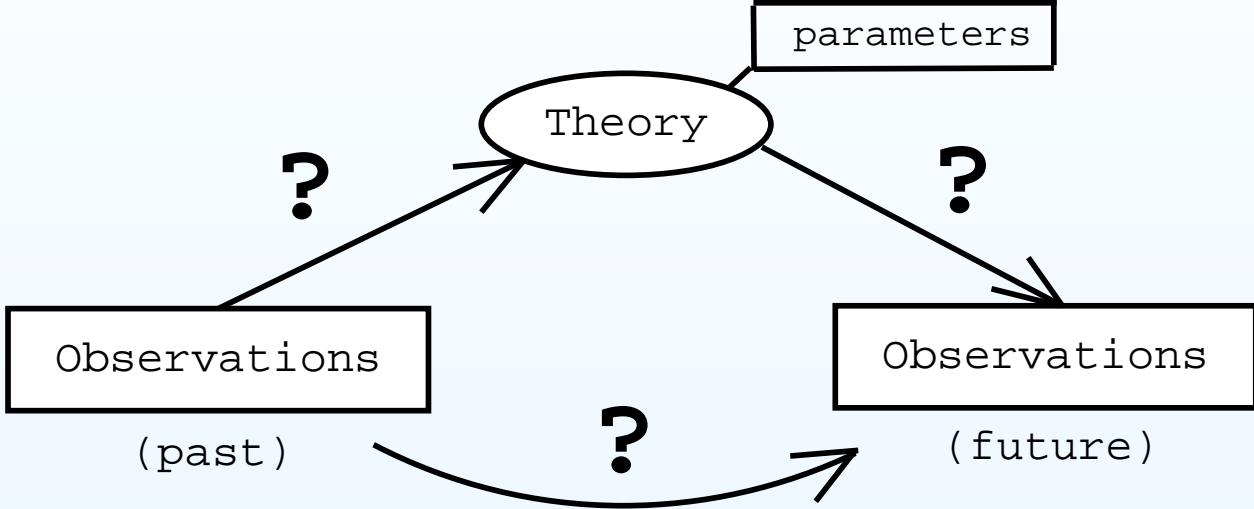
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*“Prediction is very difficult,  
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But, anyway:

*“It is far better to foresee even without  
certainty than not to foresee at all”*  
(Poincaré)

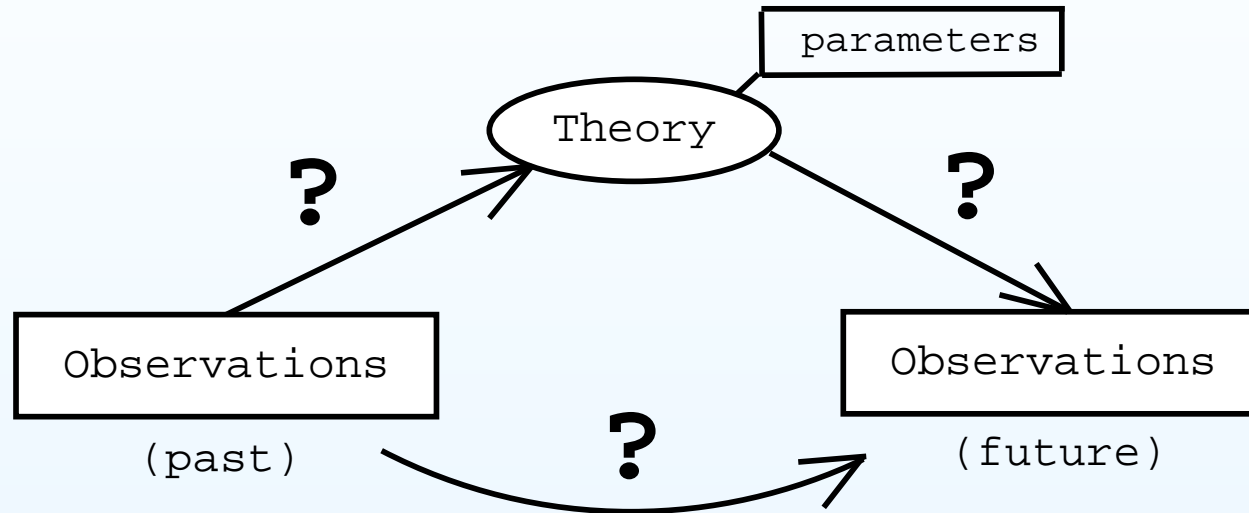
# Deep source of uncertainty



## Uncertainty:

Theory — ? —>  
Past observations — ? —>  
Theory — ? —> Future observations

# Deep source of uncertainty



## Uncertainty:

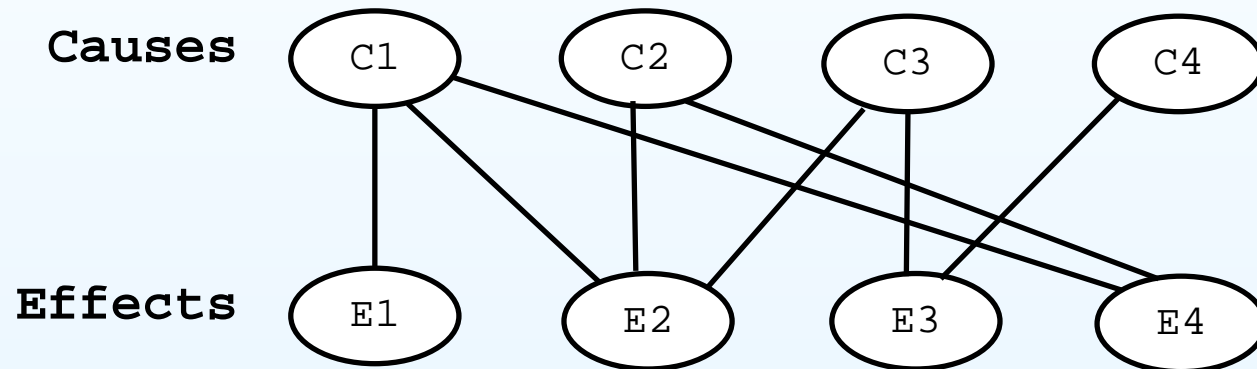
Theory — ? —> Future observations  
Past observations — ? —> Theory  
Theory — ? —> Future observations

⇒ **Uncertainty about causal connections**

**CAUSE** ⇔ **EFFECT**

## Causes → effects

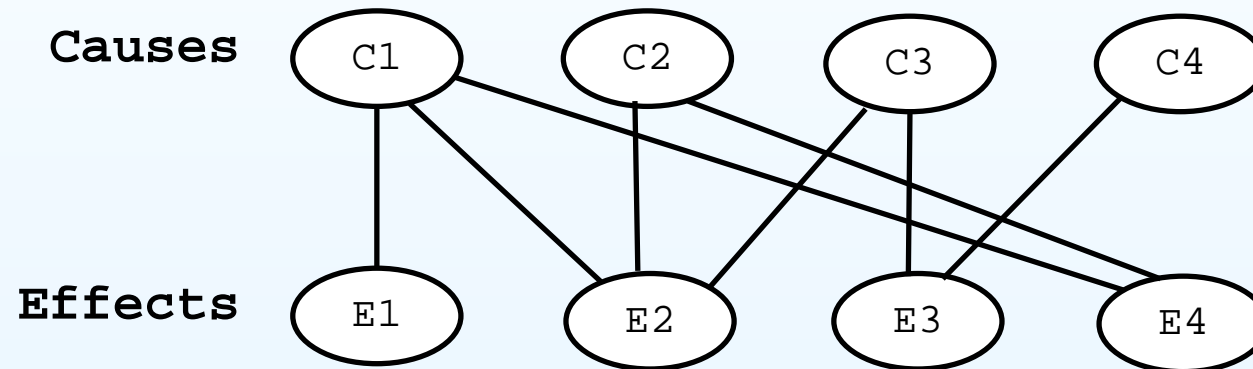
The same *apparent* cause might produce several, different effects



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

## Causes → effects

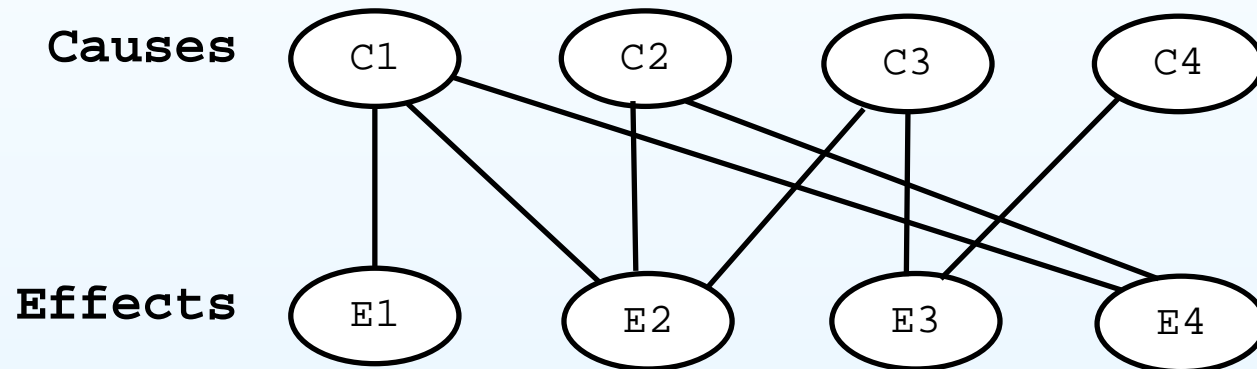
The same *apparent* cause might produce several, different **effects**



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

## Causes $\rightarrow$ 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.

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

## The essential problem of the experimental method

---

“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*)

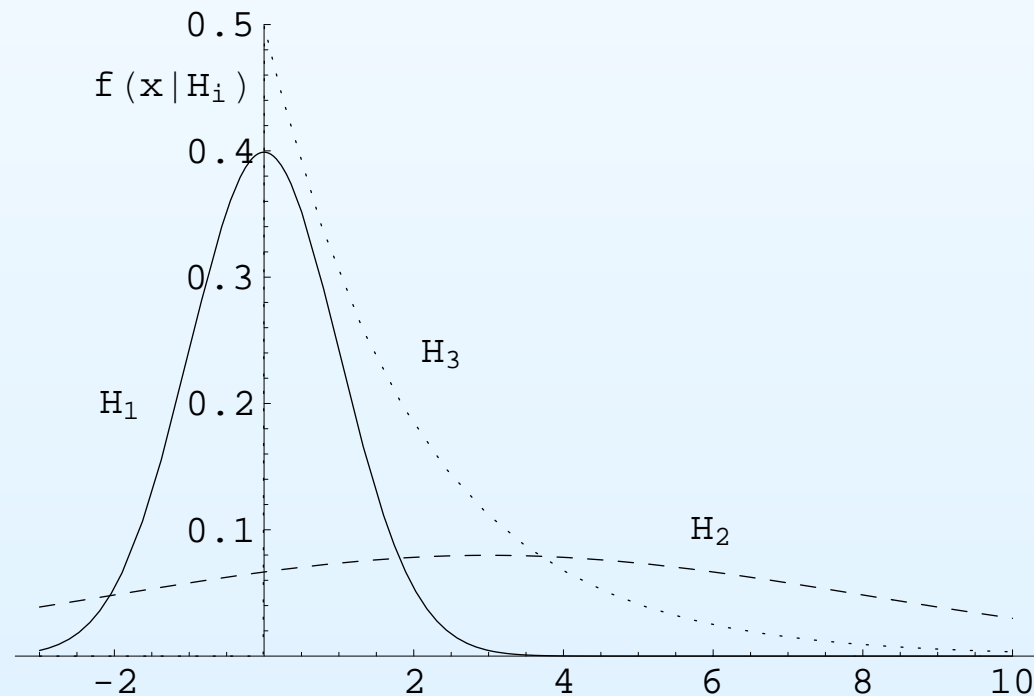
## A numerical example

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- Effect: number  $x = 3$  extracted 'at random'
- Hypotheses: one of the following random generators:
  - $H_1$  Gaussian, with  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$
  - $H_2$  Gaussian, with  $\mu = 3$  and  $\sigma = 5$
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- ⇒ Which one to prefer?

Note: ⇒ none of the hypotheses of this example can be excluded and, therefore, there is no way to reach a boolean conclusion. We can only state, somehow, our *rational preference*, based on the experimental result and our best knowledge of the behavior of each *model*.

## A numerical example

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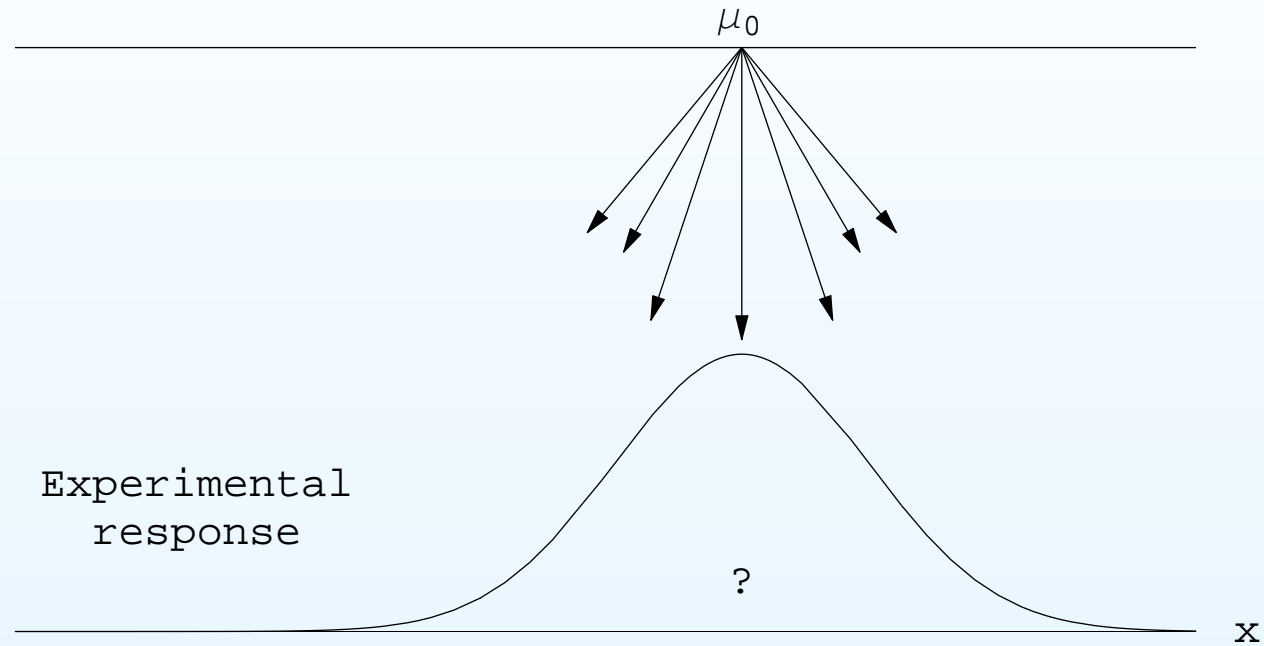
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- we can only state how much *we are sure* — or *confident* — on each of them;
- or “we consider each of them more or less *probable* (or *likely*)”;
- or “we *believe* each of them more or less than another one”

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- or “we consider each of them more or less *probable* (or *likely*)”;
- or “we *believe* each of them more or less than another one” or similar expressions, all referring to the intuitive concept of

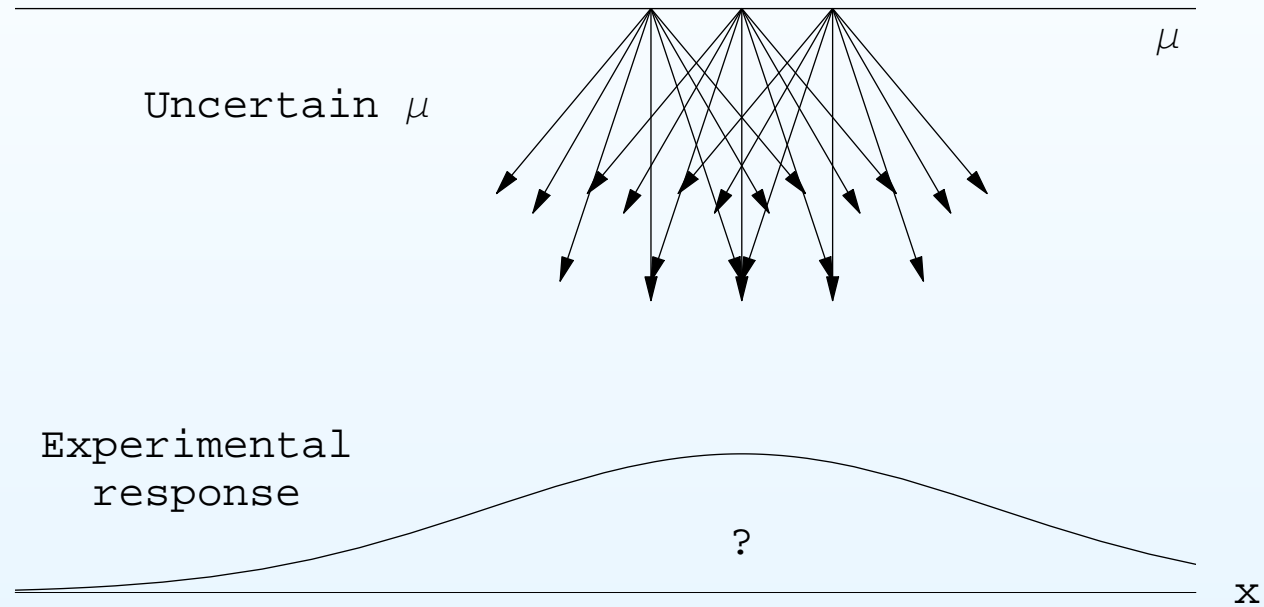
**probability.**

# From 'true value' to observations



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

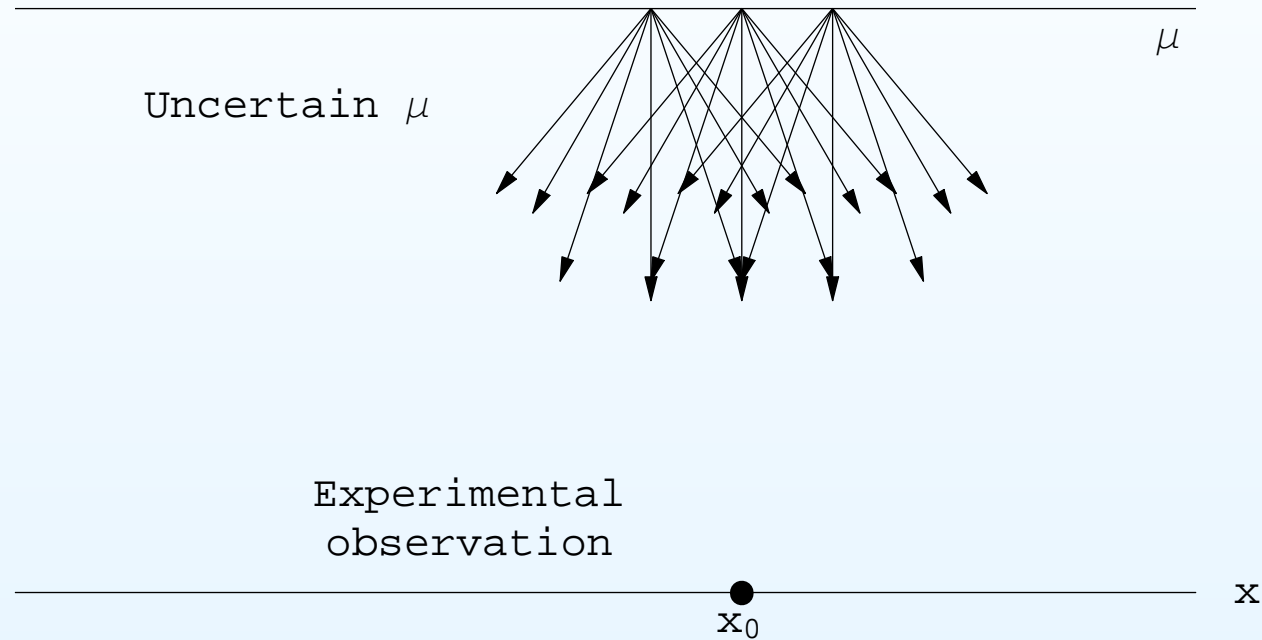
# From 'true value' to observations



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

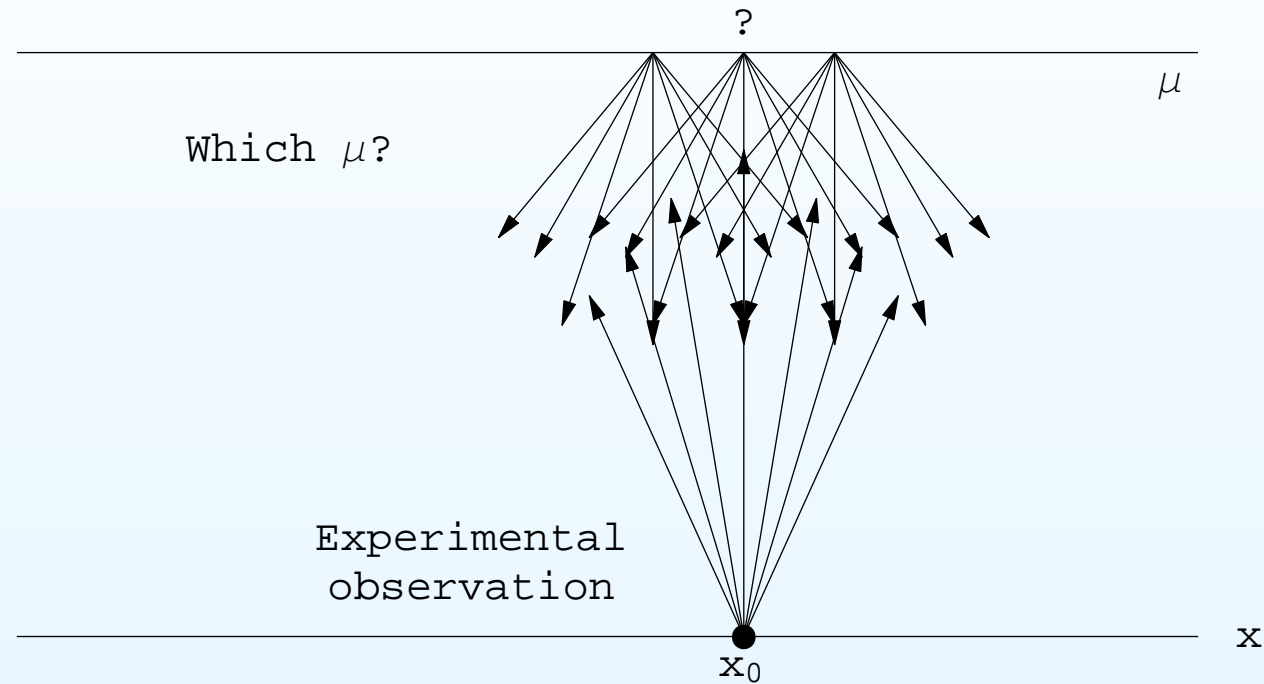


# Inferring a true value



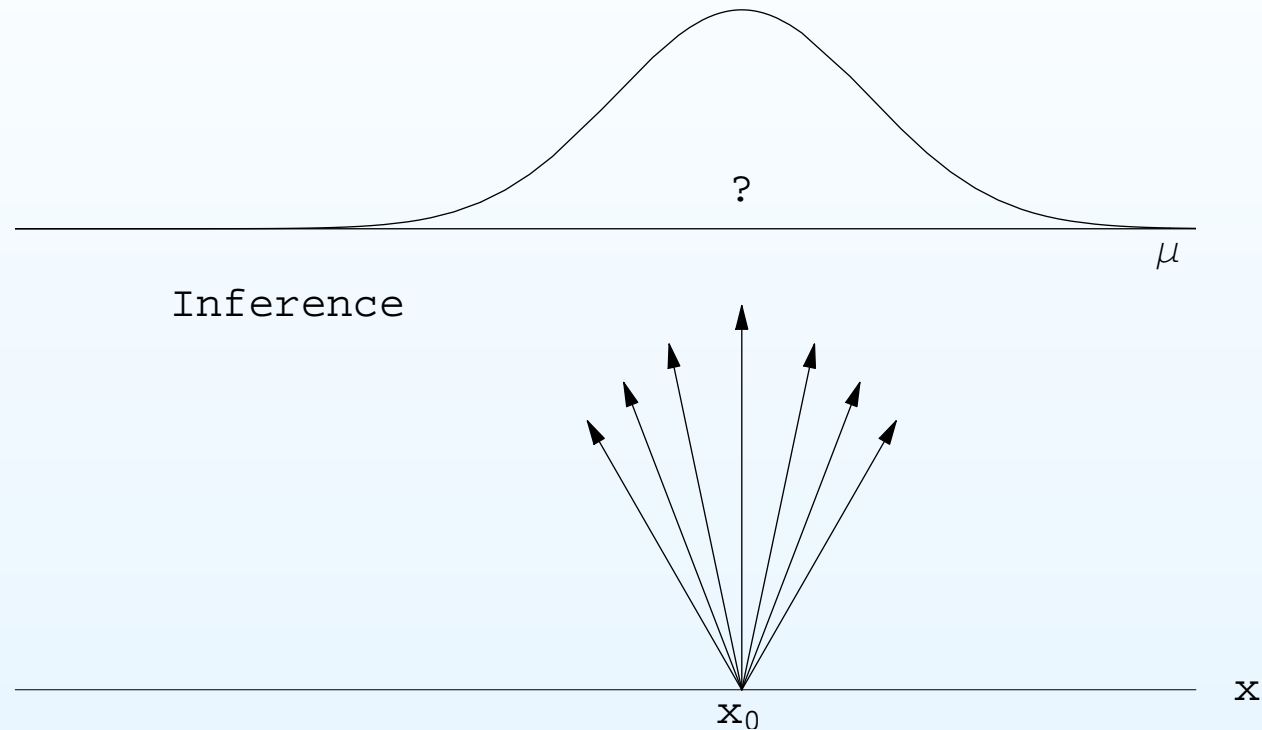
The observed data is certain:  $\rightarrow$  'true value' uncertain.

# Inferring a true value



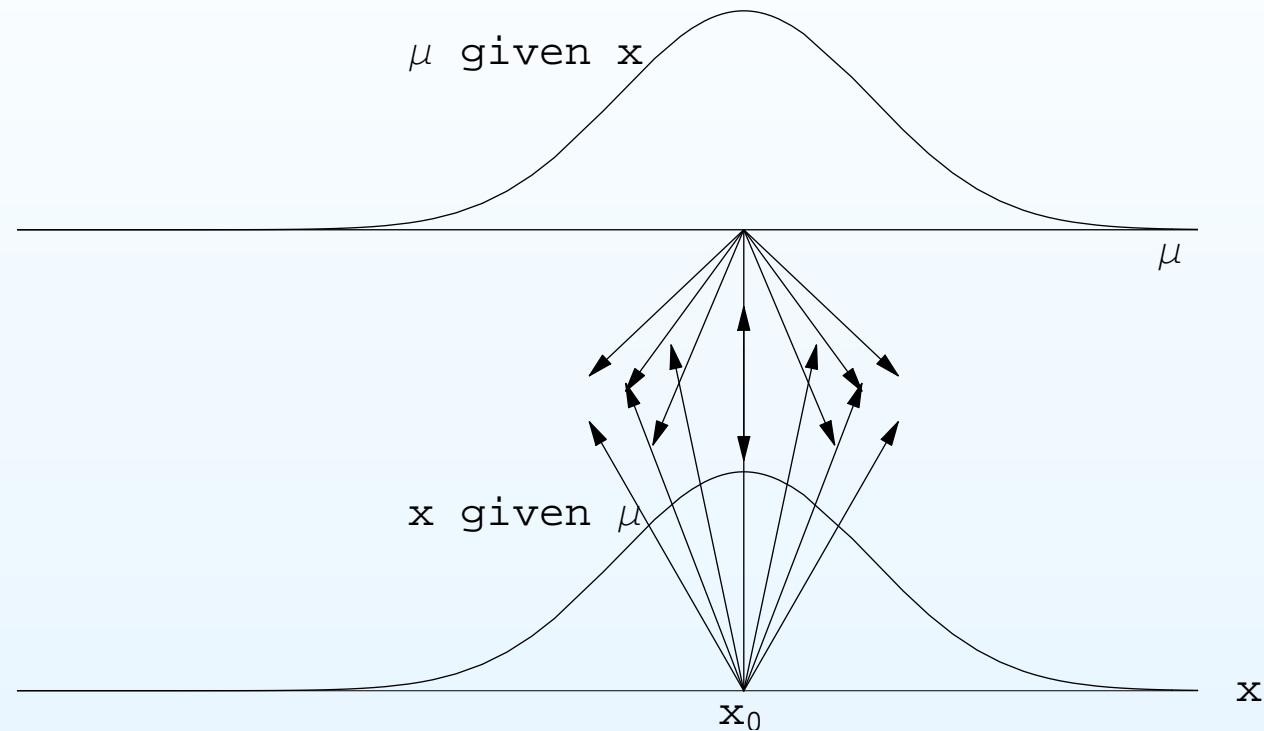
Where does the observed value of  $x$  comes from?

# Inferring a true value



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

# Inferring a true value



Note the symmetry in reasoning.

## Uncertainty and probability

We, as physicists, consider absolutely natural and meaningful statements of the following kind

- $P(-10 < \epsilon'/\epsilon \times 10^4 < 50) \gg P(\epsilon'/\epsilon \times 10^4 > 100)$
- $P(170 \leq m_{top}/\text{GeV} \leq 180) \approx 70\%$
- $P(M_H < 200 \text{ GeV}) > P(M_H > 200 \text{ GeV})$

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[The fact that for several people in this audience **this sentence is mysterious** is a clear indication of the confusion concerning this matter]

## Doing Science in conditions of uncertainty

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The constant status of uncertainty does not prevent us from doing Science (in the sense of Natural Science and not just Mathematics)



## Doing Science in conditions of uncertainty

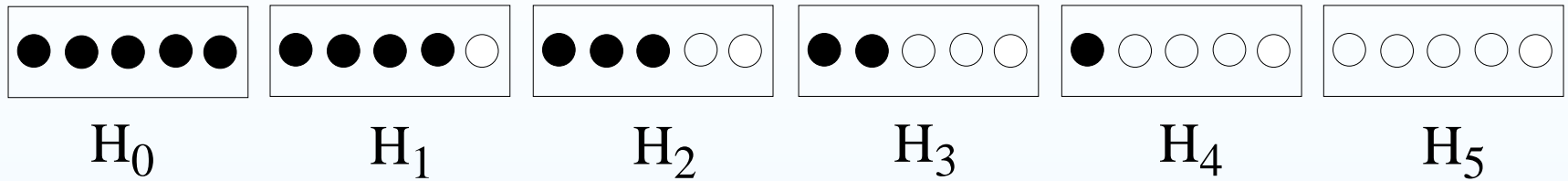
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Indeed

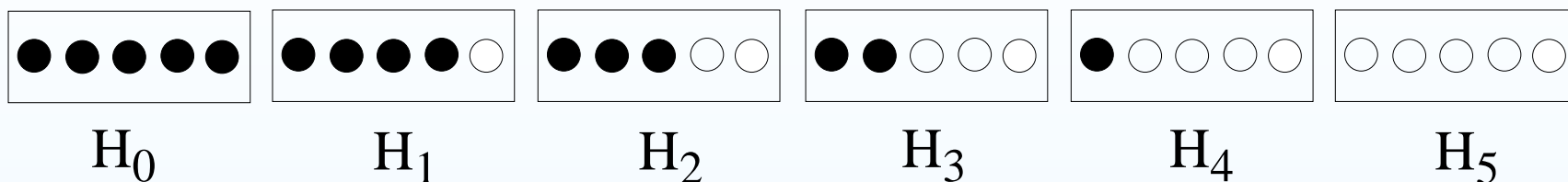
*“It is scientific only to say what is more likely and what is less likely”* (Feynman)

## The six box problem



Let us take randomly one of the boxes.

## The six box problem



Let us take randomly one of the boxes.

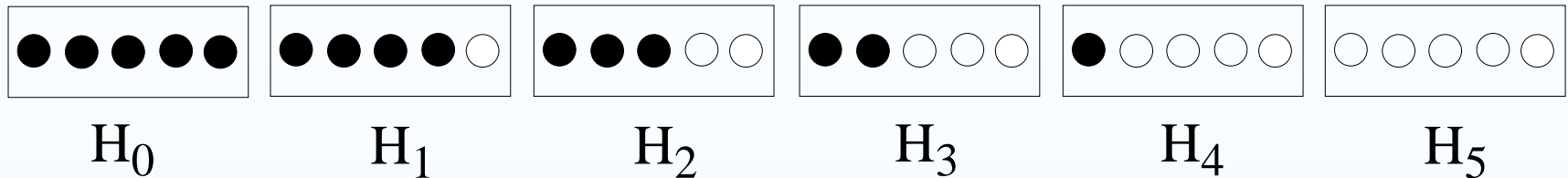
We are in a state of uncertainty concerning several *events*, the most important of which correspond to the following questions:

- (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 certainty:

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

## The six box problem

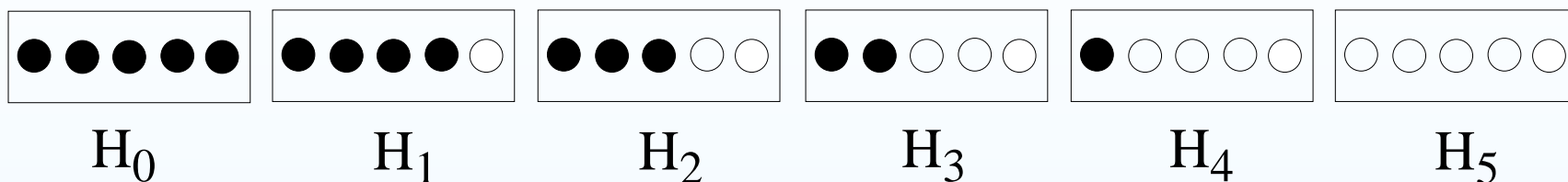


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    - Intuitively we now how to roughly change our opinion.
    - Can we do it quantitatively, in an objective way?

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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 and electron and read its properties, like we read the MAC address of a PC interface)

## An interesting exercise

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Probabilities of the 4 sequences from the first 2 extractions (with reintroduction) from the box of unknown composition:

- WW
- WB
- BW
- BB



## An interesting exercise

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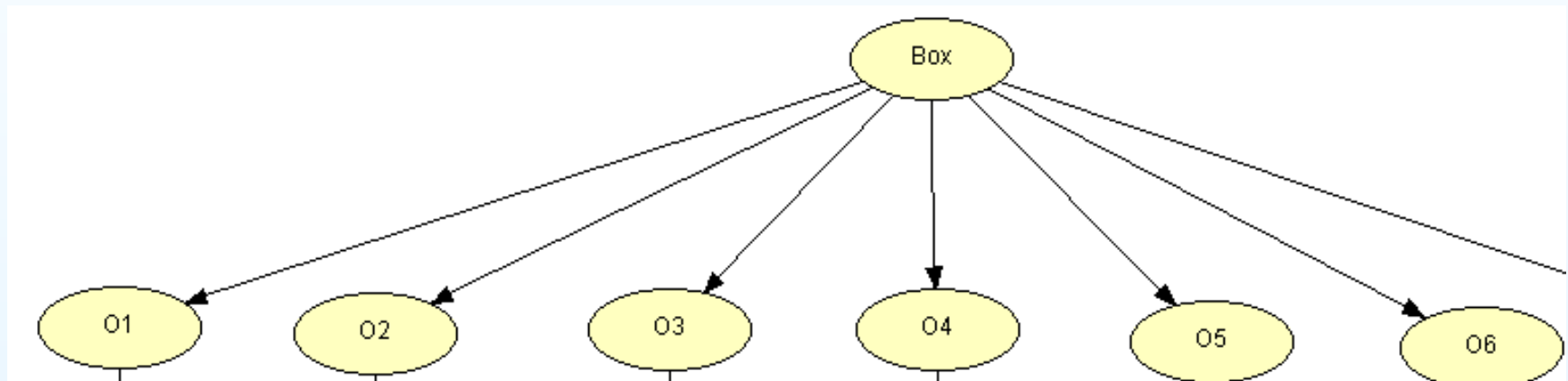
Probabilities of the 4 sequences from the first 2 extractions (with reintroduction) from the box of unknown composition:

- WW
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If you have the possibility to win a prize if you predict the right sequence, on which one would you put your money?

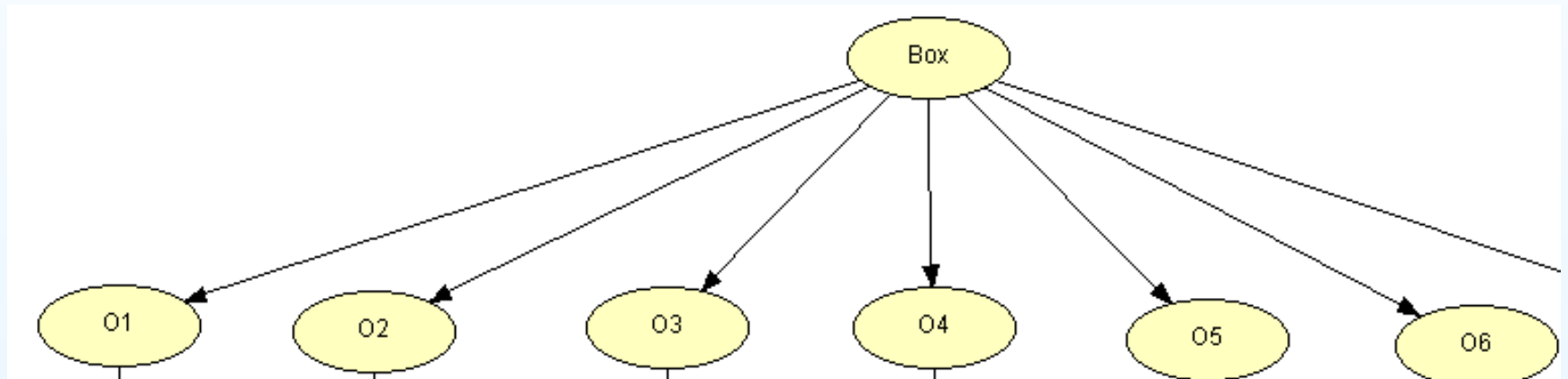
# Cause-effect representation

box content  $\rightarrow$  observed color



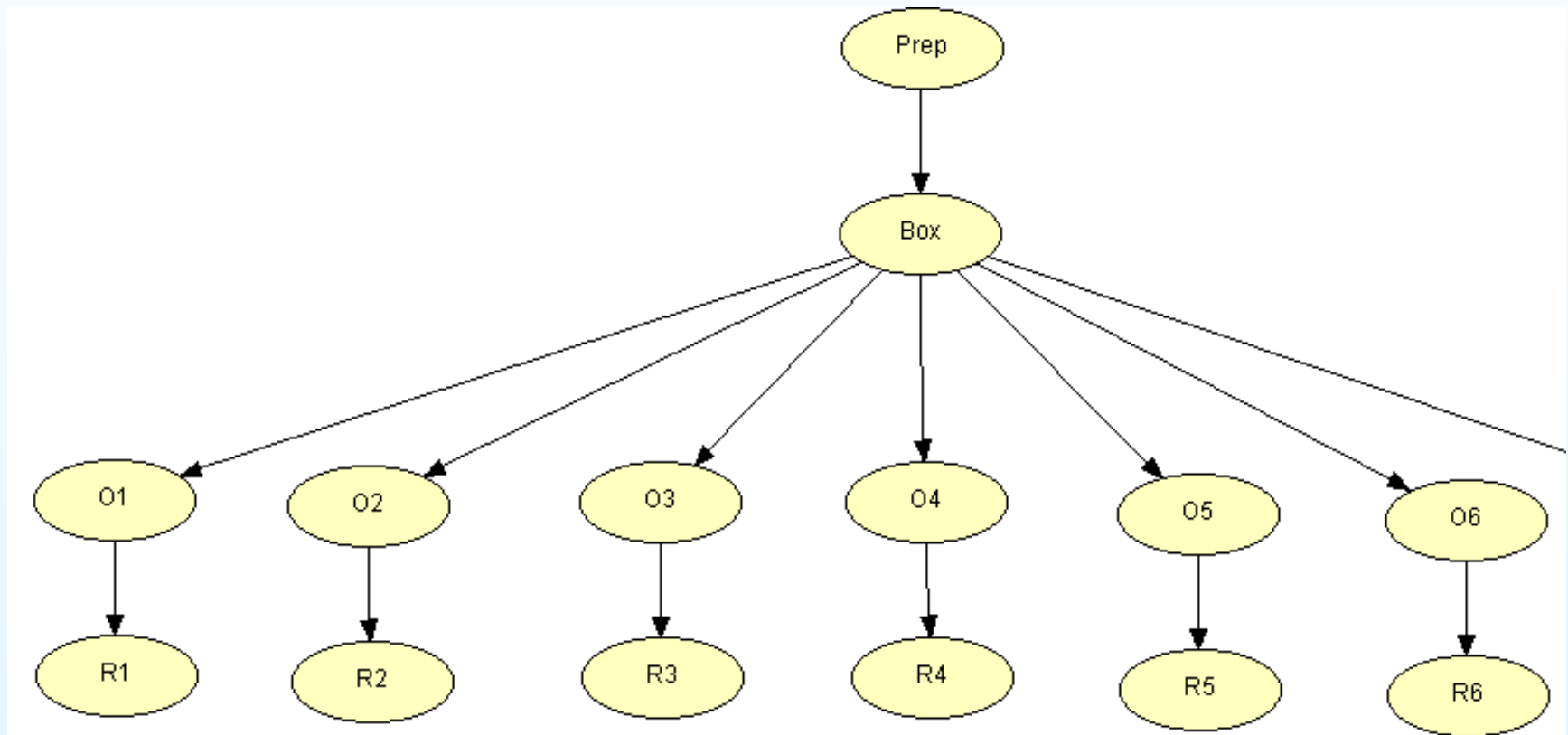
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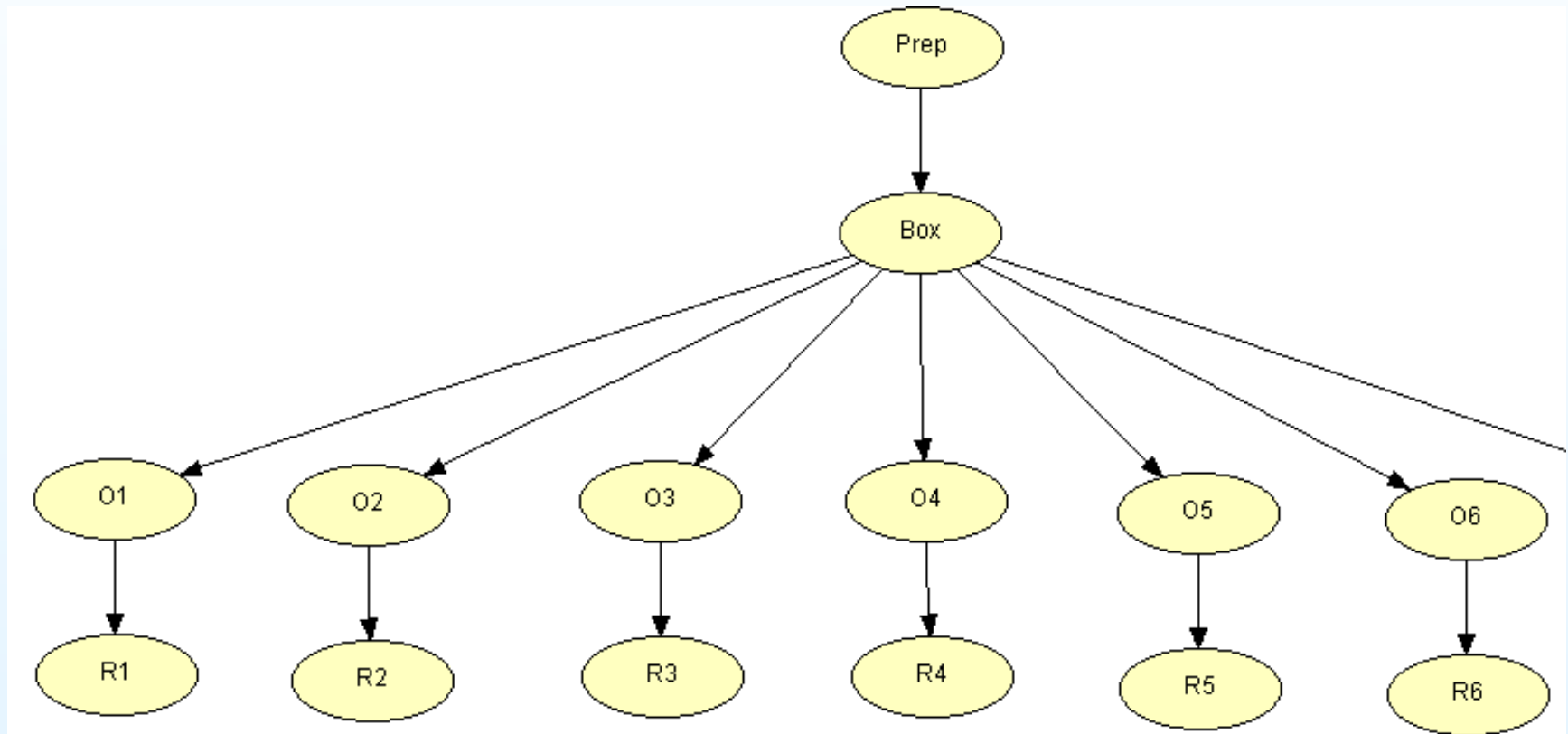


An effect might be the cause of another effect  $\longrightarrow$

# A network of causes and effects



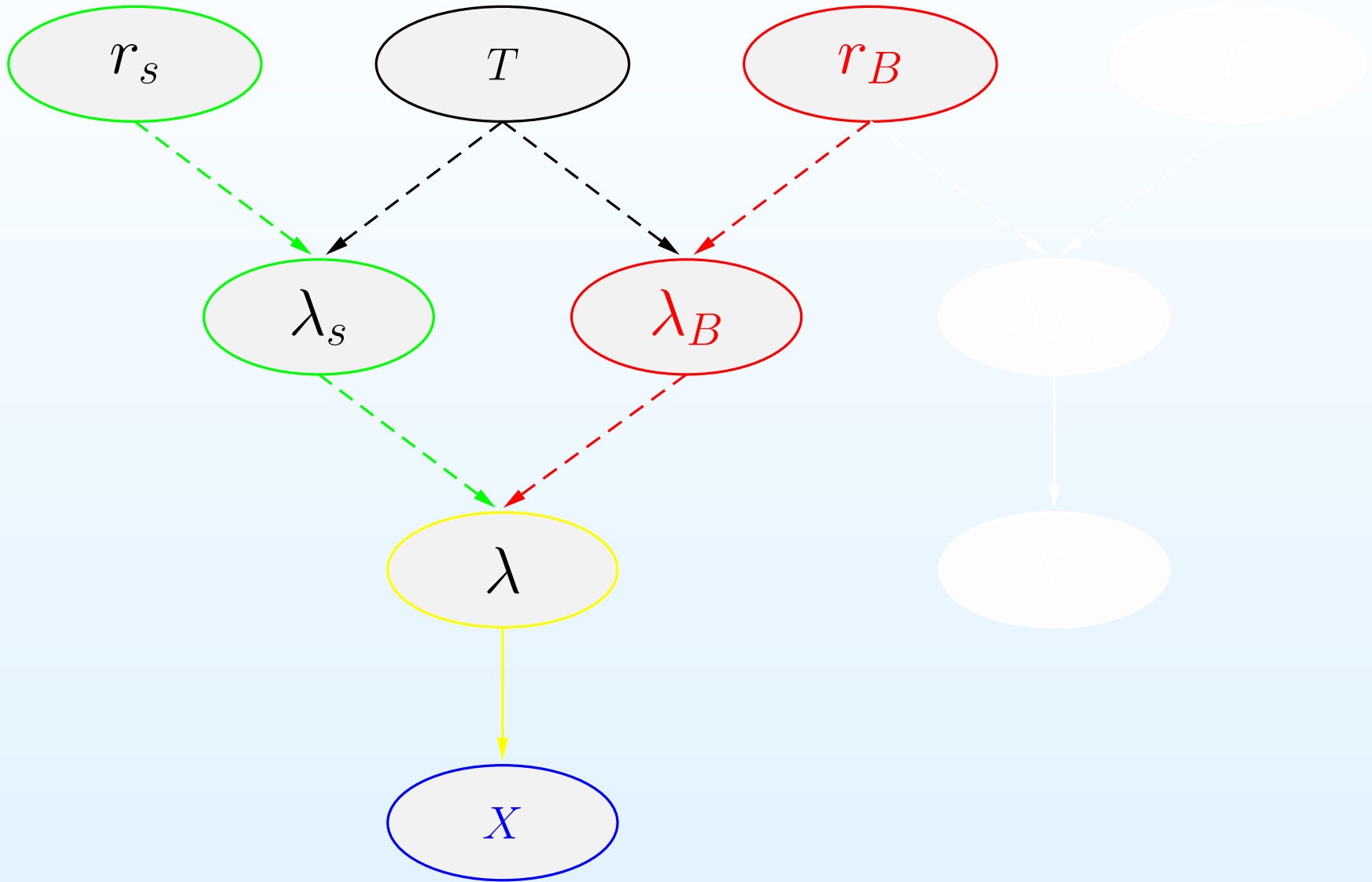
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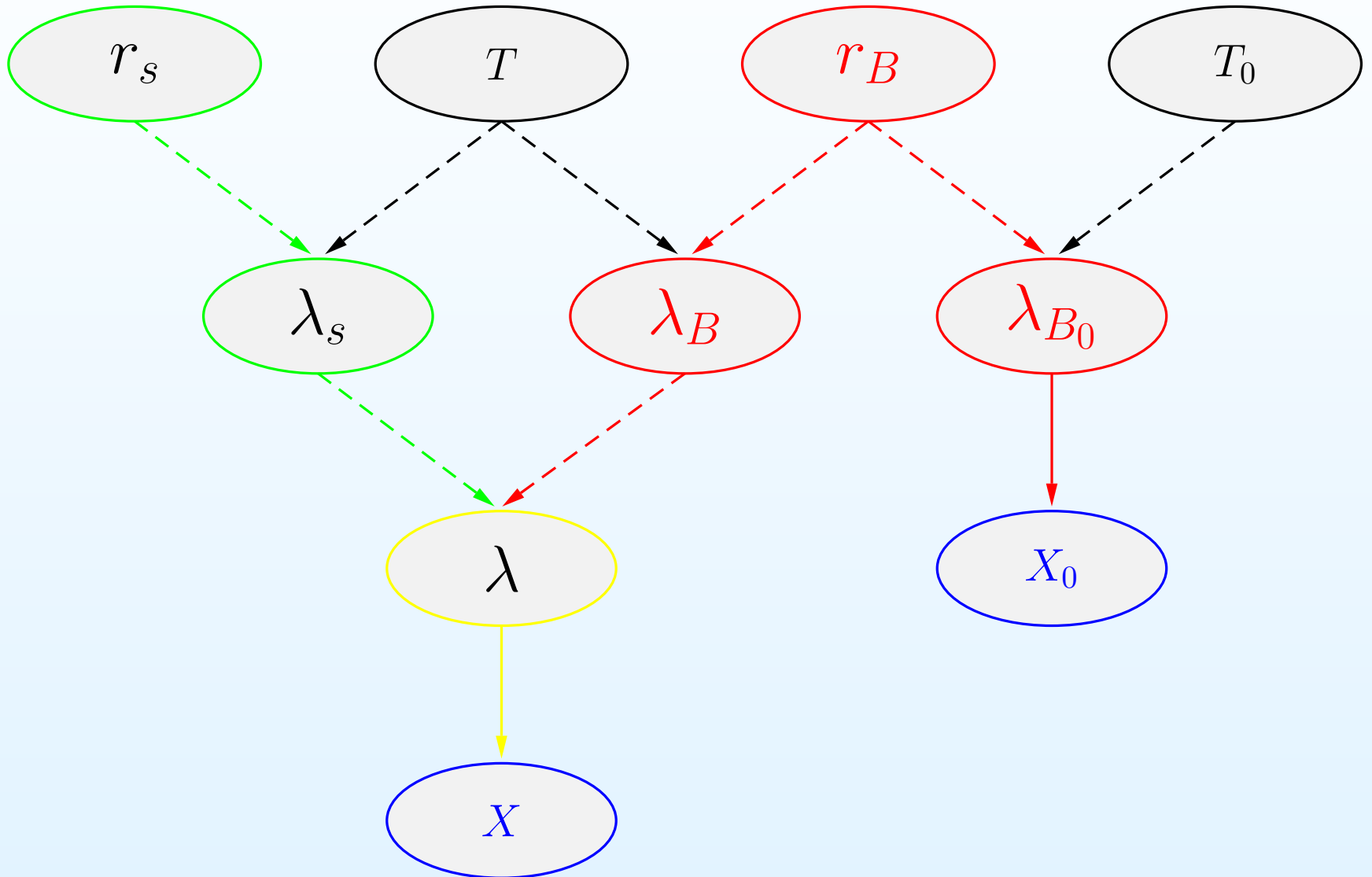
and so on...

⇒ **Physics applications**

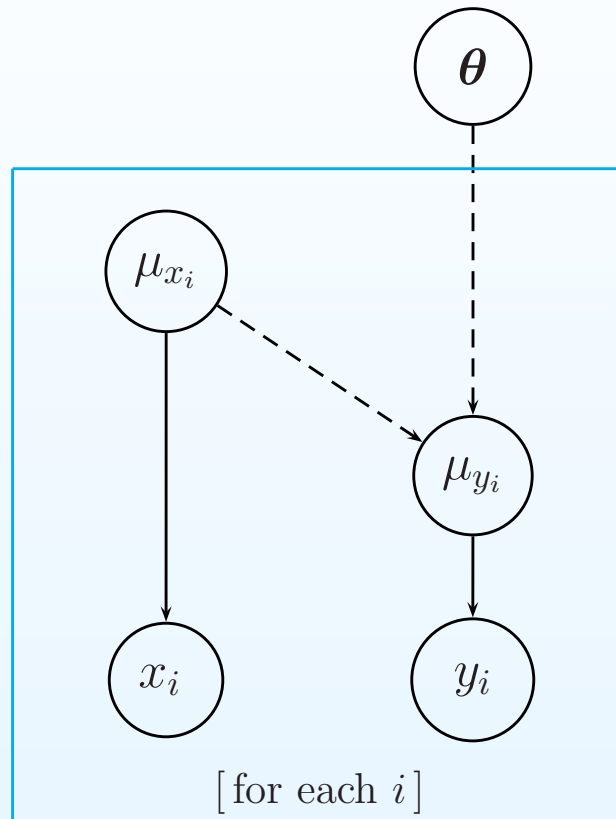
# Signal and background



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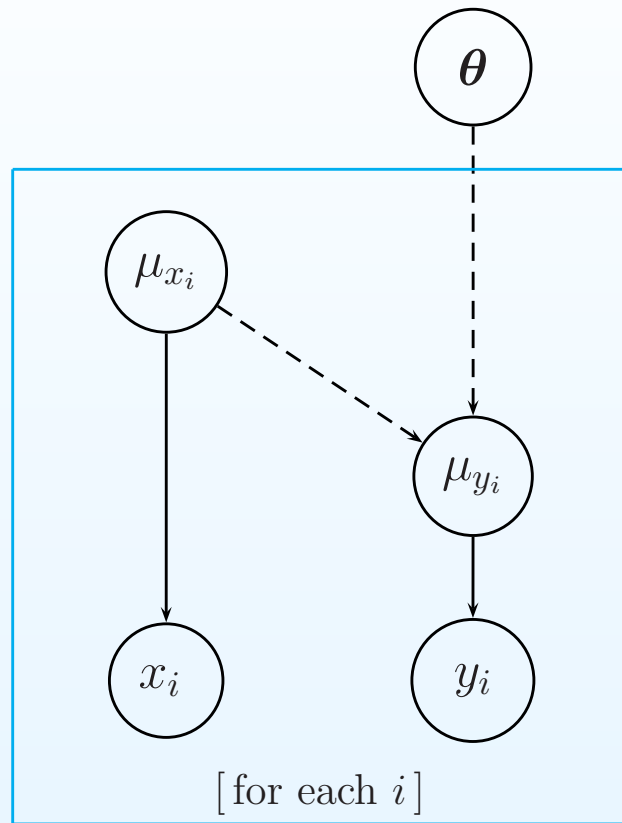
## A different way to view fit issues



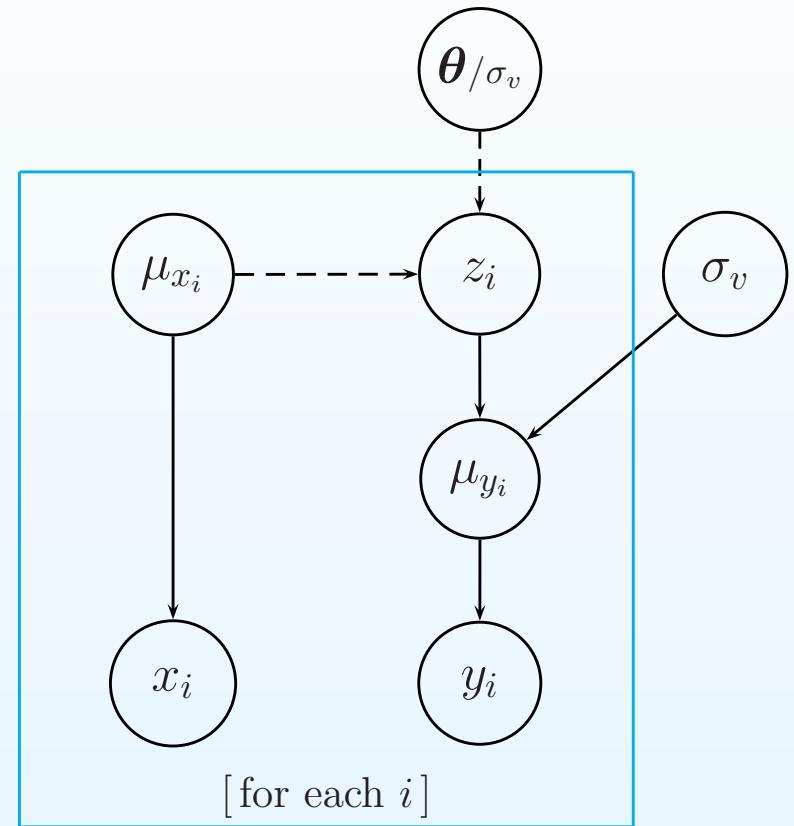
Deterministic link  $\mu_x$ 's to  $\mu_y$ 's  
Probabilistic links  $\mu_x \rightarrow x, \mu_y \rightarrow y$   
(errors on both axes!)  
 $\Rightarrow$  aim of fit:  $\{x, y\} \rightarrow \theta$



# A different way to view fit issues



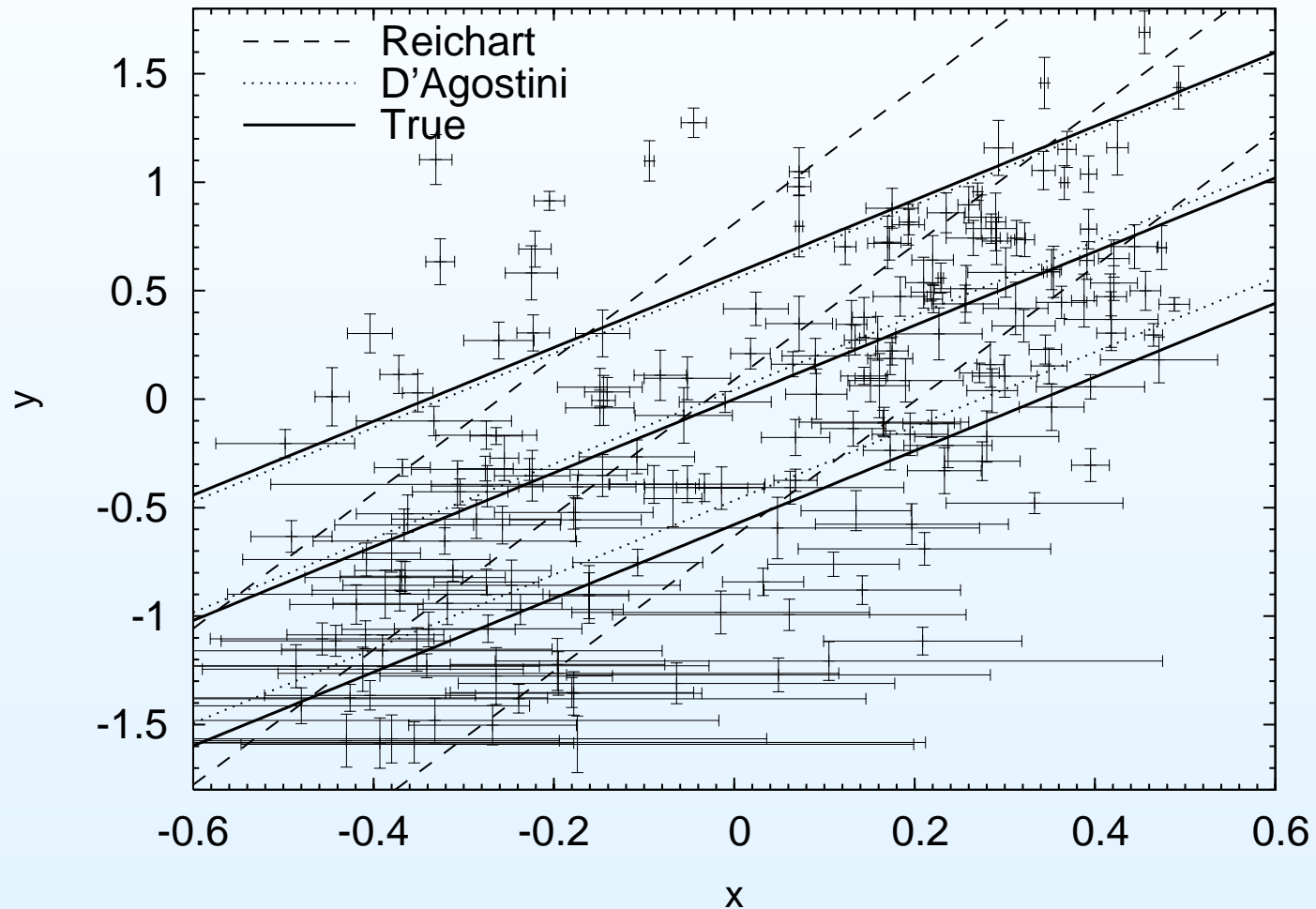
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Extra spread of the data points

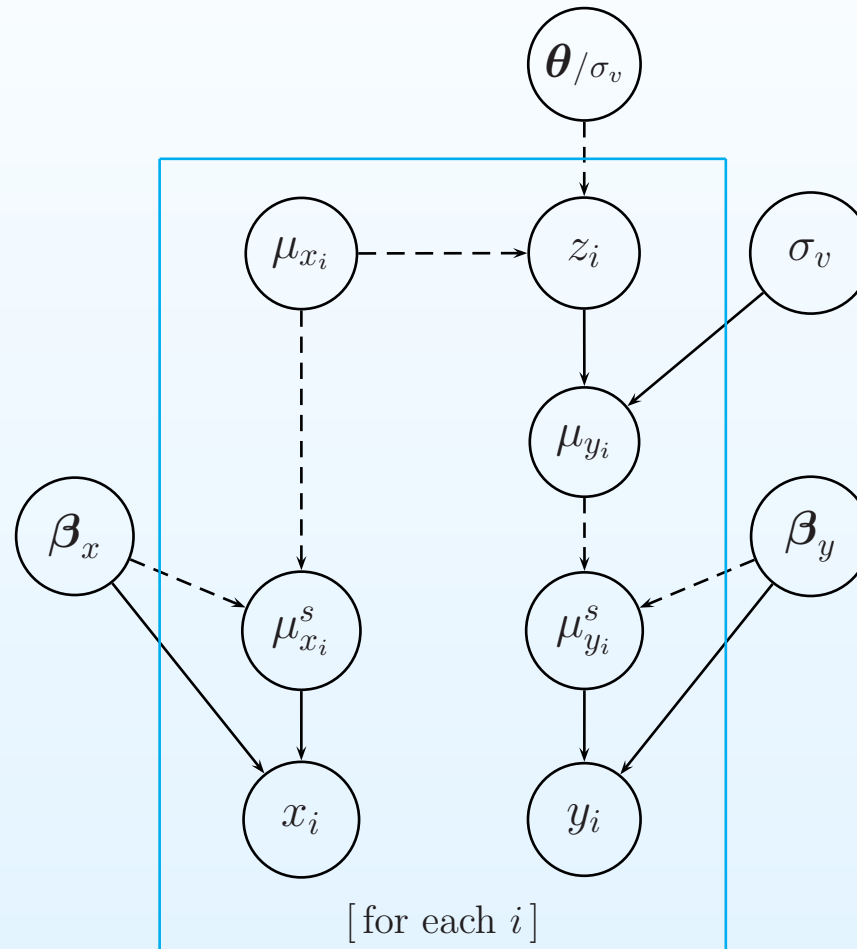
# A different way to view fit issues

A physics case (from Gamma ray bursts):



(Guidorzi et al., 2006)

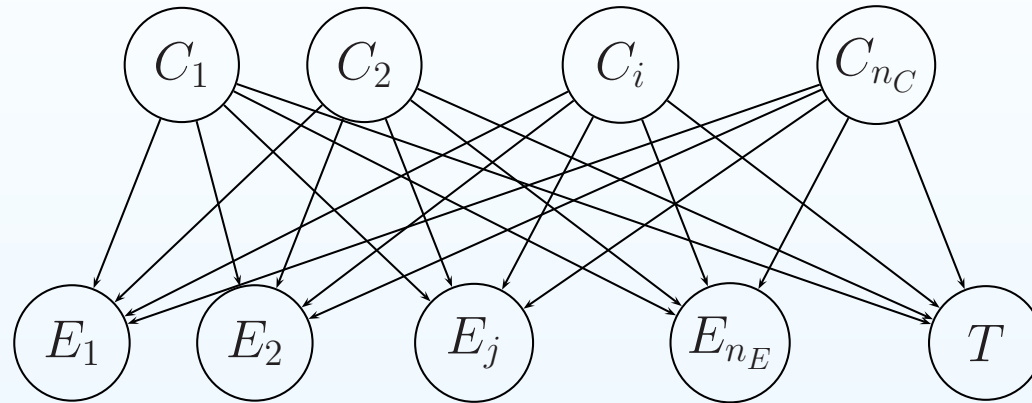
# A different way to view fit issues



Adding systematics

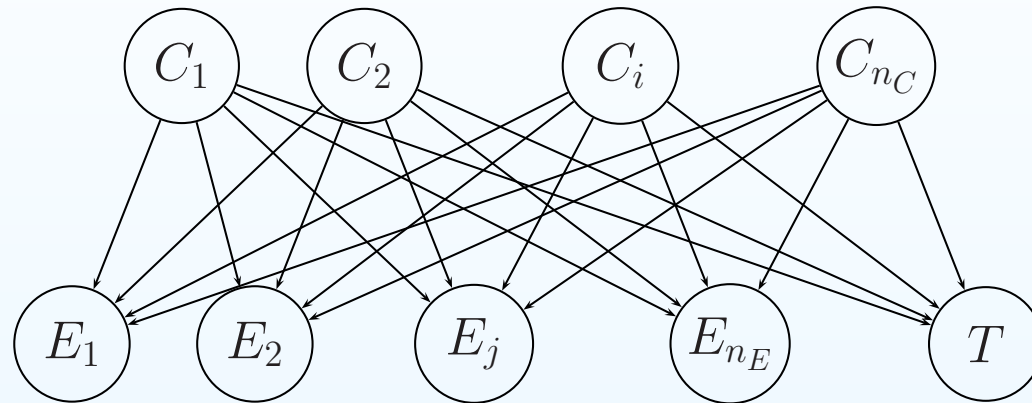
# Unfolding a discretized spectrum

Probabilistic links: Cause-bins  $\leftrightarrow$  effect-bins

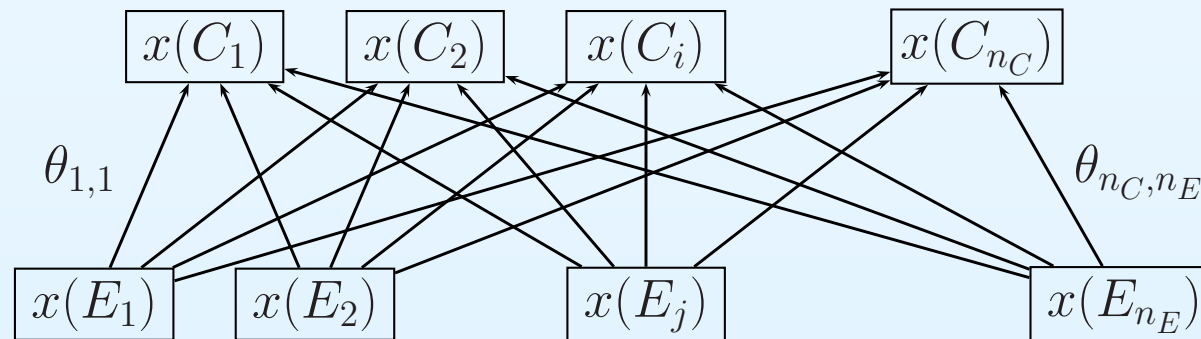


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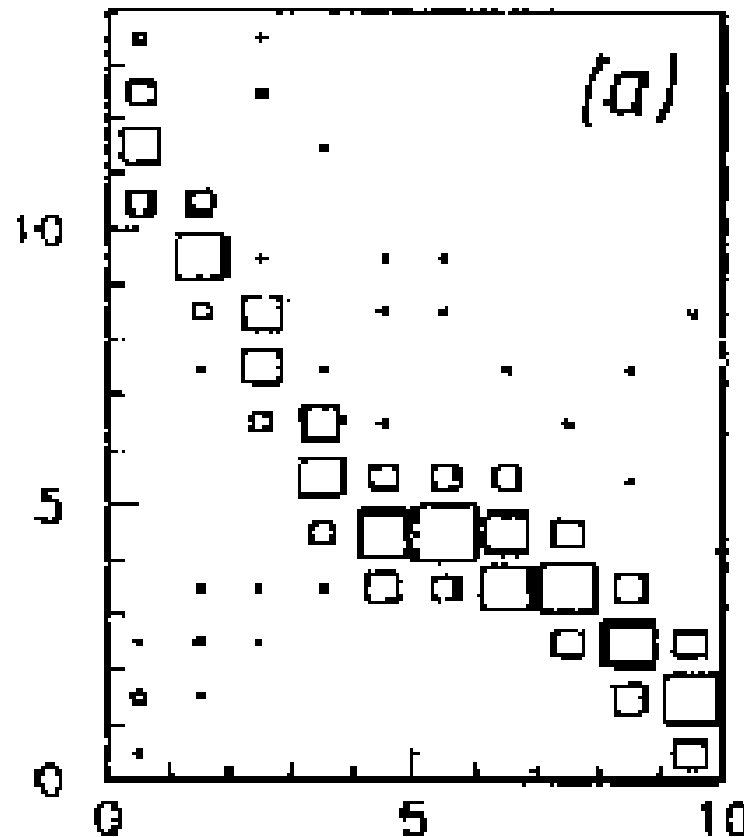
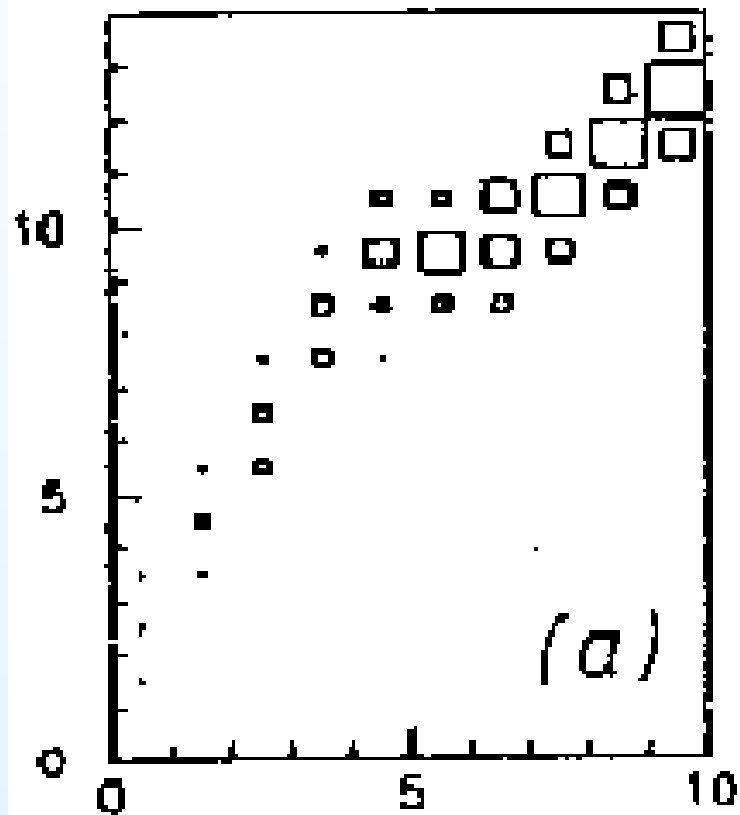


Sharing the observed events among the cause-bins



# Unfolding a discretized spectrum

Academic smearing matrices:



Learning about causes from effects

---

# Two main streams of reasoning

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- **Falsificationist approach**  
[and statistical variations over the theme].



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- **Falsificationist approach**

[and statistical variations over the theme].

- **Probabilistic approach**

[In the sense that probability theory is used throughly]

## Summary about 'falsificationism/statistics'

---

A) if  $C_i \not\rightarrow E$ , and we observe  $E$   
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OK

~~B) if  $C_i \xrightarrow{\text{small probability}} E$ , and we observe  $E$~~

~~NO~~

~~$\Rightarrow C_i$  has small probability to be true  
"most likely false"~~

~~(The base of tests, p-values, etc.)~~

## Example

An Italian citizen is selected at random to undergo an AIDS test. Performance of clinical trial is not perfect, as customary.

*Simplified model:*

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

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

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

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

$E_1 = \text{Positive}$

$H_2 = \overline{\text{'HIV'}}$  (Healthy)

$E_2 = \text{Negative}$

## Example

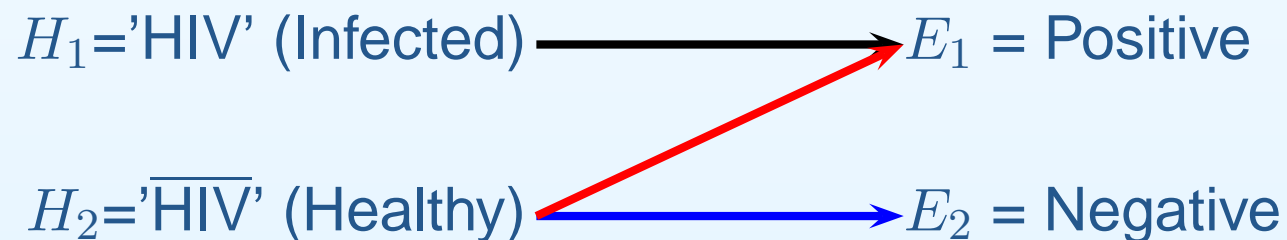
An Italian citizen is selected at random to undergo an AIDS test. Performance of clinical trial is not perfect, as customary.

*Simplified model:*

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

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Result:  $\Rightarrow$  Positive



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Infected or healthy?

## What to 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,  $P(\text{HIV} | \text{Pos, random Italian}) \approx 45\%$

(We will see in the sequel how to evaluate it correctly)

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⇒ **Serious mistake!** (not just 99.8% instead of 98.3% or so)

## 'Standard' statistical tests, p-values, etc

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But
  - as far as logic is concerned, the situation is worsened (. . . although p-values ‘often, by chance work’).
- Mistrust statistical tests, unless you know the details of what it has been done.  
→ You might take bad decisions!

## Example from particle/event classification

---

A discrimination analysis can find a ‘discriminator’  $d$  related to a particle  $p_i$ , or to a certain event of interest (e.g. as a result from neural networks or whatever).

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OK, but, in general

$$P(d \geq d_{cut} | p_i) \neq P(p_i | d \geq d_{cut}) !$$

(I am pretty sure that often what is called a probability of a particle, or an event, of being something is not really that probability...)

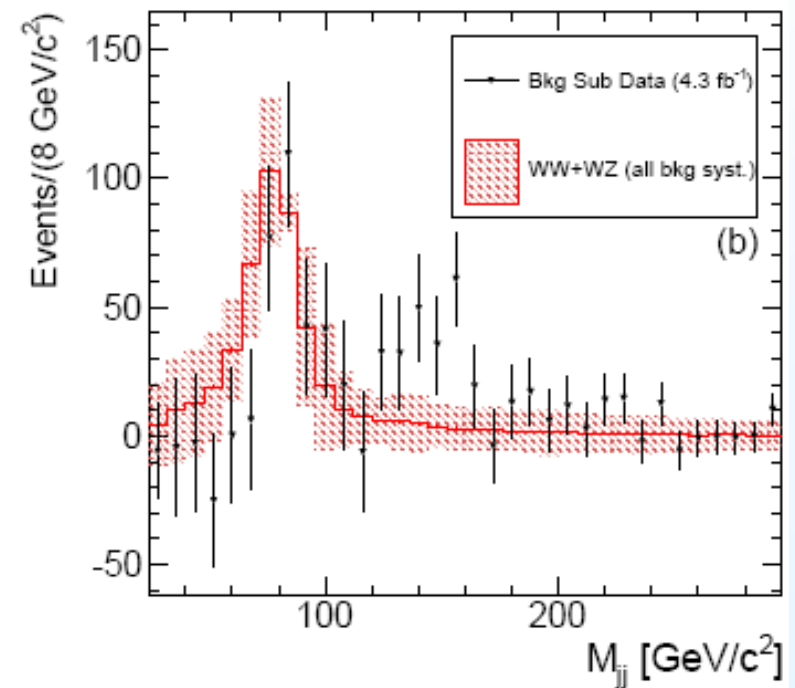
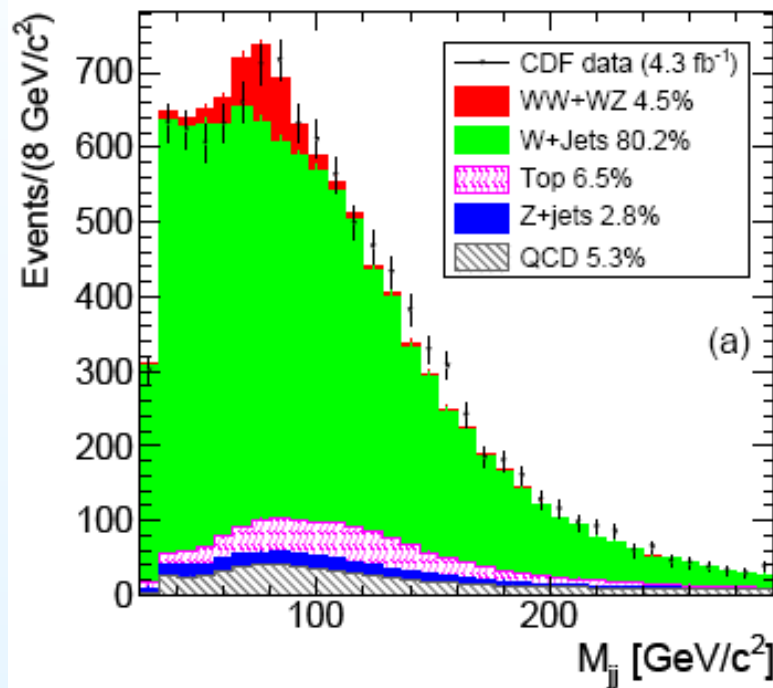
## Claims of discoveries based on p-values

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But, amazingly, there are 'claims' of discoveries based on logical mistakes of this kind a p-value **misunderstood** as probability of the hypothesis to test.

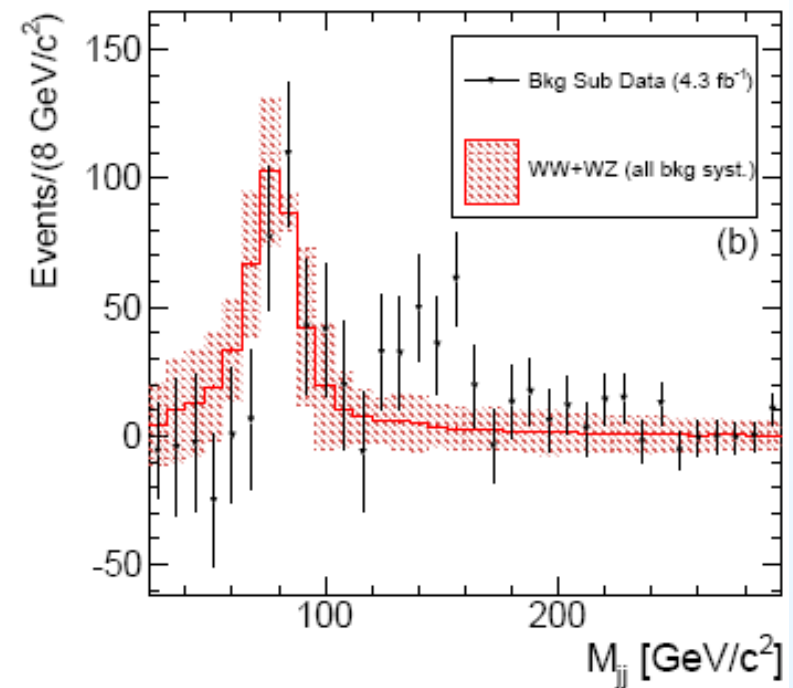
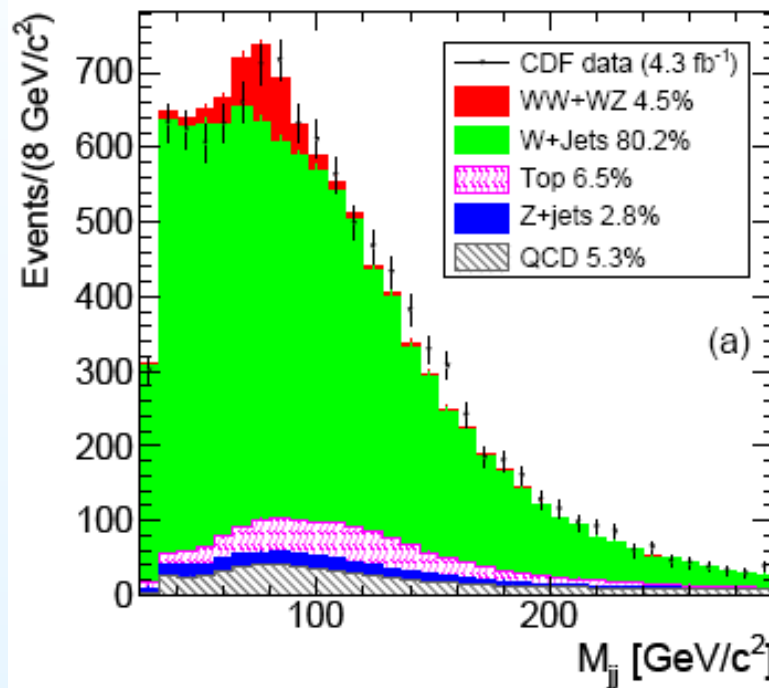
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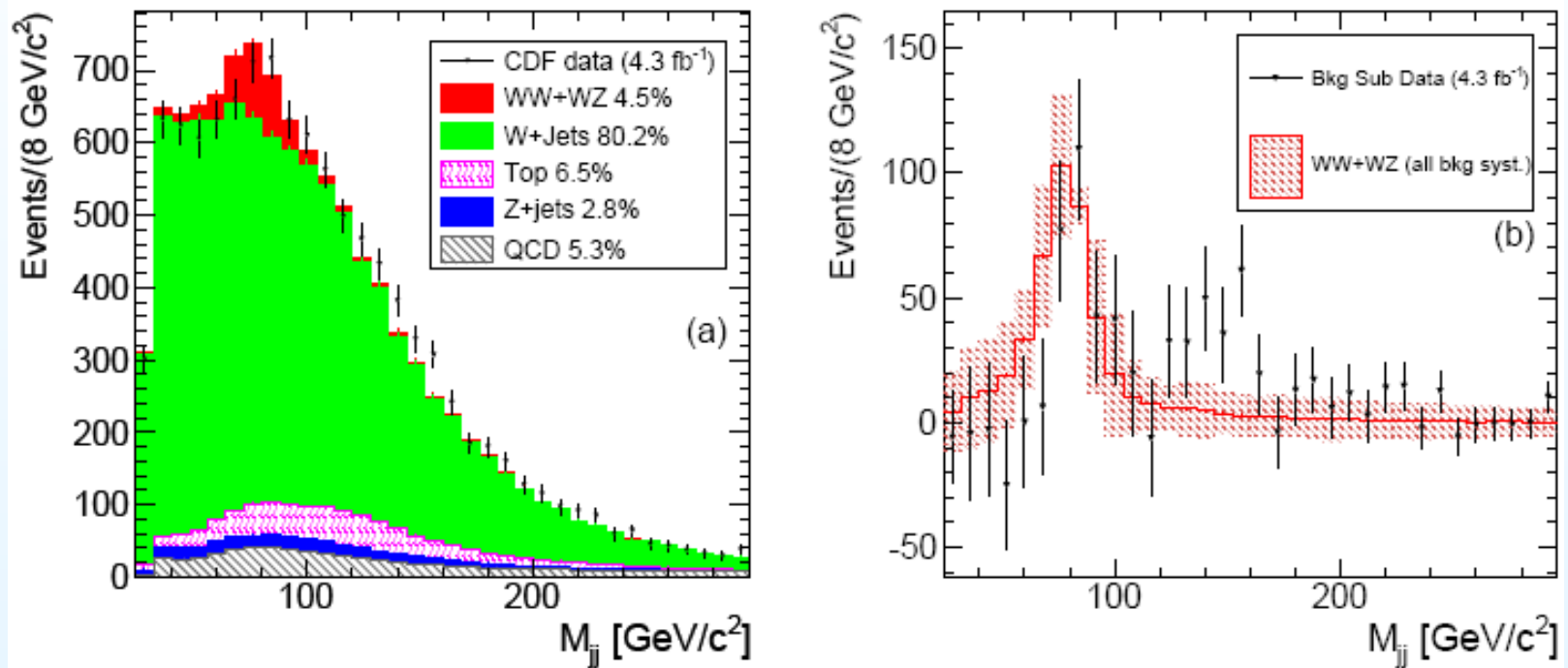


p-value  $0.8 \times 10^{-3}$ : probability of observing an excess equal or larger than the observed one, given the best understanding of Standard Model, detector, etc.



# Claims of discoveries based on p-values

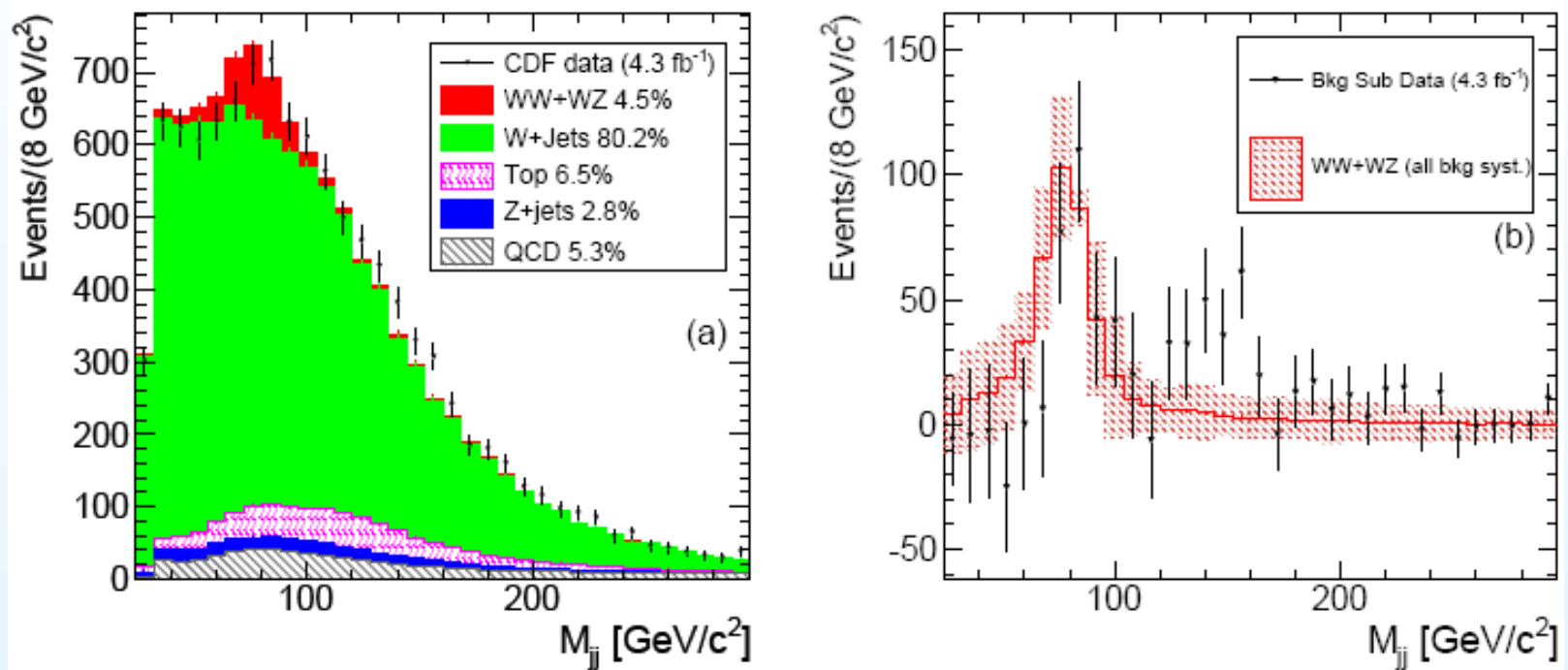
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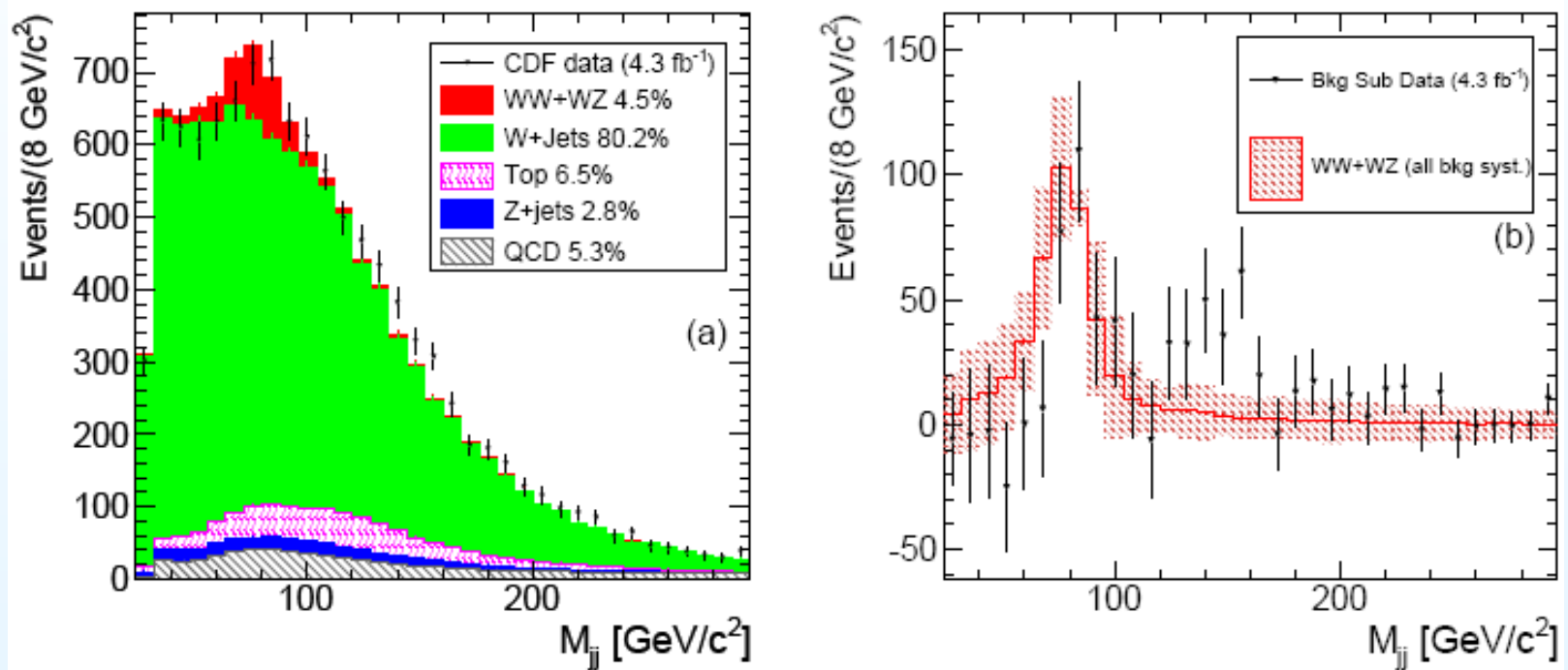


So, what?

What is the probability that the first two speakers of this school meet twice, the same morning, within meters on Gran Sasso mountain?

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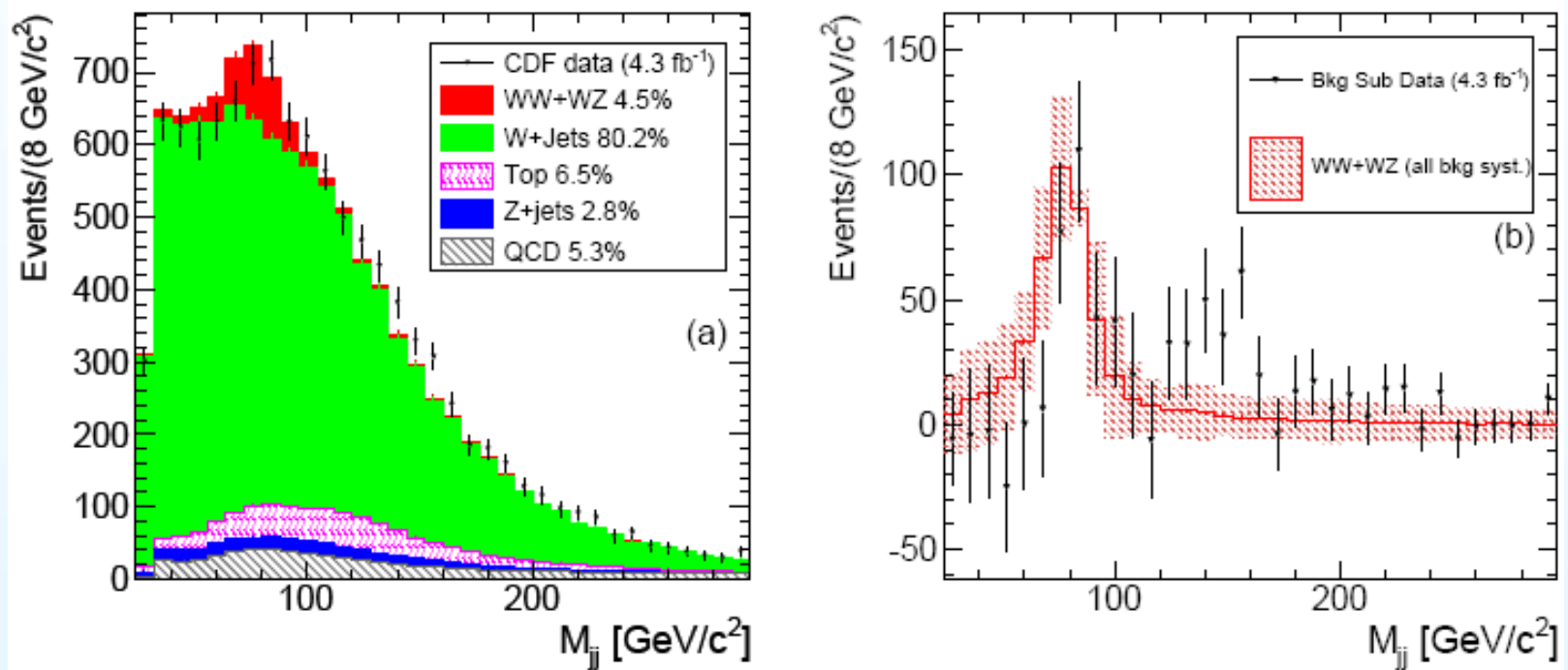


So, what?

If such an event happens, should we be logically compelled to think that it was not 'by chance', but there must be a particular cause to cause it?  
(A sign of God?)

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No problem about evaluation of p-values, but about their meaning, and how they are perceived by scientists and are spread to the media:

→ **unjustified excitement and expectations**

## From p-values to beliefs (?!)

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- ⇒ His beliefs are in clear contradictions with the way he tried to explain to the general public the meaning of the p-value!

## Conflict: natural thinking $\Leftrightarrow$ cultural superstructure

---

Why? 'Who' is responsible?

- Since beginning of '900 it is dominant an unnatural approach to probability, in contrast to that of the founding fathers (Poisson, Bernoulli, Bayes, Laplace, Gauss, ...).

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- $\Rightarrow$  **BUT** people think naturally in terms of probability of causes, and use p-values as if they were probabilities of null hypotheses.  $\Rightarrow$  **Terrible mistakes!**



## “Probability” Vs probability...

### Errors on ratios of small numbers of events F. James<sup>(\*)</sup> and M. Roos

When the result of the measurement of a physical quantity is published as  $R=R_0 \pm \sigma_0$  without further explanation, it is implied that  $R$  is a Gaussian-distributed measurement with mean  $R_0$  and variance  $\sigma_0^2$ . This allows one to calculate various confidence intervals of given "probability", i.e. the "probability"  $P$  that the true value of  $R$  is within a given interval.  $P$  is given by the area under the corresponding part of the Gaussian curve, and is the basis of well-known rules-of-thumb such as "the probability of exceeding two standard deviations is 5%".

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Nowhere in the article is clarified why “probability” is in quote marks!  $\Rightarrow$  they know they are not allowed to speak about “probability of true values”

## Probabilistic reasoning

---

What to do?

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But benefitting of

- Theoretical progresses in probability theory
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- "It's easy if you try"
- But first you have to recover the intuitive concept of probability.

## Probability

What is probability?

End

FINE