# Introduction to Bayesian inference: Key examples

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# Key examples: 3 sampling distributions

## **1** Binomial distribution (probability & frequency)

**2** Normal distribution (additive noise)

**3** Poisson distribution (rates & counts)

### Supplement

- Binary classification with binary data
- Negative binomial distribution, stopping rules
- Likelihood principle
- Relationships between probability & frequency

# Key examples: 3 sampling distributions

## **1** Binomial distribution (probability & frequency)

**2** Normal distribution (additive noise)

**B** Poisson distribution (rates & counts)

# Binary Outcomes: Parameter Estimation

M = Existence of two outcomes, S and F; for each case or trial, the probability for S is  $\alpha$ ; for F it is  $(1 - \alpha)$ 

 $H_i$  = Statements about  $\alpha$ , the probability for success on the next trial  $\rightarrow$  seek  $p(\alpha|D, M)$ 

D = Sequence of results from N observed trials: FFSSSSFSSSFS (n = 8 successes in N = 12 trials)

Likelihood (Bernoulli process):

$$p(D|\alpha, M) = p(\text{failure}|\alpha, M) \times p(\text{failure}|\alpha, M) \times \cdots$$
$$= \alpha^{n} (1 - \alpha)^{N-n}$$
$$= \mathcal{L}(\alpha)$$

#### Prior

Starting with no information about  $\alpha$  beyond its definition, use as an "uninformative" prior  $p(\alpha|M) = 1$ Justifications:

- Intuition: Don't prefer any  $\alpha$  interval to any other of same size
- *Prior predictive ignorance:* Bayes's suggested "ignorance" here can mean that before doing the *N* trials, we have no preference for how many will be successes:

$$P(n \operatorname{successes}|M) = \frac{1}{N+1} \longrightarrow p(\alpha|M) = 1$$

Consider the uniform prior a *convention*—an assumption added to M to make the problem well posed

#### **Prior Predictive**

$$p(D|M) = \int d\alpha \ \alpha^{n} (1-\alpha)^{N-n}$$
$$= B(n+1, N-n+1) = \frac{n!(N-n)!}{(N+1)!}$$
A Beta integral,  $B(a,b) \equiv \int dx \ x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} = \frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)}$ 

#### Posterior

$$p(\alpha|D, M) = \frac{(N+1)!}{n!(N-n)!} \alpha^n (1-\alpha)^{N-n}$$

A Beta distribution. Summaries:

- Best-fit: mode  $\hat{\alpha} = \frac{n}{N} = 2/3$ ;  $\langle \alpha \rangle = \frac{n+1}{N+2} \approx 0.64$
- Uncertainty:  $\sigma_{\alpha} = \sqrt{\frac{(n+1)(N-n+1)}{(N+2)^2(N+3)}} \approx 0.12$ Find credible regions numerically, or with incomplete beta function

Note that the posterior depends on the data only through n, not the N binary numbers describing the sequence

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n is a (minimal) sufficient statistic
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### Beta distribution (in general)

A two-parameter family of distributions for a quantity  $\alpha$  in the unit interval [0, 1]:

$$p(\alpha|\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \frac{1}{B(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})} \alpha^{\mathbf{a}-1} (1-\alpha)^{\mathbf{b}-1}$$

Summaries:

- Mode:  $\hat{\alpha} = \frac{a-1}{(a-1)+(b-1)}$
- Mean:  $\mu \equiv \mathsf{E}(\alpha) \equiv \langle \alpha \rangle = \frac{\mathsf{a}}{\mathsf{a}+\mathsf{b}}$
- Variance:  $\sigma^2 \equiv \operatorname{Var}(\alpha) = \frac{ab}{(a+b)^2(a+b+1)}$
- Cumulative distribution via incomplete beta function

### Binary Outcomes: Model Comparison Equal Probabilities?

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textit{M}_1: \ \alpha = 1/2 \\ \textit{M}_2: \ \alpha \in [0,1] \text{ with flat prior} \end{array}$ 

Maximum Likelihoods

$$M_1: \qquad p(D|M_1) = \frac{1}{2^N} = 2.44 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$M_2: \quad \mathcal{L}(\hat{\alpha}) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{N-n} = 4.82 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\frac{p(D|M_1)}{p(D|\hat{\alpha},M_2)} = 0.51$$

Maximum likelihoods favor  $M_2$  (on the basis of best-fit  $\alpha$ )

Bayes Factor (ratio of model likelihoods)

$$p(D|M_1) = \frac{1}{2^N};$$
 and  $p(D|M_2) = \frac{n!(N-n)!}{(N+1)!}$ 

$$\rightarrow B_{12} \equiv \frac{p(D|M_1)}{p(D|M_2)} = \frac{(N+1)!}{n!(N-n)!2^N}$$
  
= 1.57

Bayes factor (odds) favors  $M_1$  (equiprobable)

Note that for n = 6,  $B_{12} = 2.93$ ; for this small amount of data, we can never be very sure results are equiprobable

If n = 0,  $B_{12} \approx 1/315$ ; if n = 2,  $B_{12} \approx 1/4.8$ ; for extreme data, 12 flips *can* be enough to lead us to strongly suspect outcomes have different probabilities

(Frequentist significance tests can reject null for any sample size)

# **Binary Outcomes: Binomial Distribution**

Suppose D = n (number of heads in N trials), rather than the actual sequence. What is  $p(\alpha|n, M)$ ?

### Likelihood

Let S = a sequence of flips with *n* heads.

$$p(n|\alpha, M) = \sum_{\mathcal{S}} p(\mathcal{S}|\alpha, M) p(n|\mathcal{S}, \alpha, M) \\ = \alpha^{n} (1-\alpha)^{N-n} C_{n,N}$$

 $C_{n,N} = \#$  of sequences of length N with n heads.

$$\rightarrow p(n|\alpha, M) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} \alpha^n (1-\alpha)^{N-n}$$

The *binomial distribution* for *n* given  $\alpha$ , *N*.

#### Posterior

$$p(\alpha|n,M) = \frac{\frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!}\alpha^n(1-\alpha)^{N-n}}{p(n|M)}$$

$$p(n|M) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} \int d\alpha \, \alpha^n (1-\alpha)^{N-n}$$
$$= \frac{1}{N+1}$$

$$\rightarrow p(\alpha|n, M) = \frac{(N+1)!}{n!(N-n)!} \alpha^n (1-\alpha)^{N-n}$$

Same result as when data specified the actual sequence (An example of the *likelihood principle*—see supplement)

# The beta-binomial conjugate model

Generalize from the flat prior to a  $Beta(\alpha|a, b)$  prior for  $\alpha$ 

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 $\Rightarrow$  the posterior is Beta( $\alpha | n + a, N - n + b$ )

When the prior and likelihood are such that the posterior is in the same family as the prior, the prior and likelihood are a *conjugate* pair

A Beta prior is a conjugate prior for both the binomial and Bernoulli process sampling distributions

 $\label{eq:conjugacy} \mbox{Conjugacy} \rightarrow \mbox{it's easy to chain inferences from multiple} experiments$ 

# Key examples: 3 sampling distributions

## **1** Binomial distribution (probability & frequency)

## **2** Normal distribution (additive noise)

## **③** Poisson distribution (rates & counts)

## Inference With Normals/Gaussians

Gaussian PDF

$$p(x|\mu,\sigma) = rac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-rac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad ext{over} \; [-\infty,\infty]$$

Common abbreviated notation:  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

Parameters

$$\mu = \langle x \rangle \equiv \int dx \, x \, p(x|\mu,\sigma)$$
  
$$\sigma^2 = \langle (x-\mu)^2 \rangle \equiv \int dx \, (x-\mu)^2 \, p(x|\mu,\sigma)$$

## Gauss's Observation: Sufficiency

Suppose our data consist of N measurements with additive noise:

$$d_i = \mu + \epsilon_i, \qquad i = 1 \text{ to } N$$

Suppose the noise contributions are independent, and  $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ 

$$p(D|\mu, \sigma, M) = \prod_{i} p(d_{i}|\mu, \sigma, M)$$

$$= \prod_{i} p(\epsilon_{i} = d_{i} - \mu|\mu, \sigma, M)$$

$$= \prod_{i} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{(d_{i} - \mu)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^{N}(2\pi)^{N/2}} e^{-Q(\mu)/2\sigma^{2}}$$

Find dependence of Q on  $\mu$  by completing the square:

$$Q = \sum_{i} (d_{i} - \mu)^{2} \qquad [\text{Note: } Q/\sigma^{2} = \chi^{2}(\mu)]$$

$$= \sum_{i} d_{i}^{2} + \sum_{i} \mu^{2} - 2 \sum_{i} d_{i}\mu$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i} d_{i}^{2}\right) + N\mu^{2} - 2N\mu\overline{d} \qquad \text{where } \overline{d} \equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} d_{i}$$

$$= N(\mu - \overline{d})^{2} + \left(\sum_{i} d_{i}^{2}\right) - N\overline{d}^{2}$$

$$= N(\mu - \overline{d})^{2} + Nr^{2} \quad \text{where } r^{2} \equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (d_{i} - \overline{d})^{2}$$

Likelihood depends on  $\{d_i\}$  only through  $\overline{d}$  and r:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma^{N}(2\pi)^{N/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{Nr^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{N(\mu-\overline{d})^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right)$$

The sample mean and variance are sufficient statistics

This is a miraculous compression of information—the normal dist'n is highly *abnormal* in this respect!

## **Estimating a Normal Mean**

#### Problem specification

Model:  $d_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$ ,  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\sigma$  is known  $\rightarrow I = (\sigma, M)$ . Parameter space:  $\mu$ ; seek  $p(\mu|D, \sigma, M)$ 

#### Likelihood

$$p(D|\mu,\sigma,M) = \frac{1}{\sigma^{N}(2\pi)^{N/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{Nr^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{N(\mu-\overline{d})^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right)$$
$$\propto \exp\left(-\frac{N(\mu-\overline{d})^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right)$$

#### "Uninformative" prior

- Translation invariance:  $\Rightarrow p(\mu) \propto C$ , a constant
- Reference prior: Asymptotic information theory criterion  $\Rightarrow p(\mu) \propto C$

This prior is improper unless bounded; formally we should bound it and take  $\infty$  limit

(Minimal sample size arguments suggest impropriety is a *desirable* feature of uninformative priors)

Prior predictive/normalization

$$p(D|\sigma, M) = \int d\mu \ C \exp\left(-\frac{N(\mu - \overline{d})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
$$= C(\sigma/\sqrt{N})\sqrt{2\pi}$$

... minus a tiny bit from tails, using a proper prior

#### Posterior

$$p(\mu|D,\sigma,M) = \frac{1}{(\sigma/\sqrt{N})\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{N(\mu-\overline{d})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Posterior is  $N(\overline{d}, w^2)$ , with standard deviation  $w = \sigma/\sqrt{N}$ 

68.3% HPD credible region for  $\mu$  is  $\overline{d} \pm \sigma / \sqrt{N}$ 

Note that C drops out  $\rightarrow$  limit of infinite prior range is well behaved

#### Informative Conjugate Prior

Use a normal prior,  $\mu \sim \textit{N}(\mu_0, w_0^2)$ 

Conjugate because the posterior turns out also to be normal

### Posterior

Normal  $N(\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{w}^2)$ , but mean, std. deviation *"shrink"* towards prior

Define 
$$B=rac{w^2}{w^2+w_0^2}$$
, so  $B<1$  and  $B=0$  when  $w_0$  is large; then

$$\widetilde{\mu} = \overline{d} + B \cdot (\mu_0 - \overline{d}) \widetilde{w} = w \cdot \sqrt{1 - B}$$

*Principle of stable estimation/precise measurement* — The prior affects estimates only when data are not informative relative to prior (J. Savage)

Conjugate normal examples:

- Data have  $\overline{d} = 3$ ,  $\sigma/\sqrt{N} = 1$
- Priors at  $\mu_0 = 10$ , with  $w = \{5, 2\}$



Note we always have  $\widetilde{w} < w$  (in the normal-normal setup)

## Estimating a Normal Mean: Unknown $\sigma$

**Supplement:** Handling  $\sigma$  uncertainty by marginalizing over  $\sigma \rightarrow$ *Student's t distribution* (heavier tails than normal)

### **Gaussian Background Subtraction**

Measure background rate  $b = \hat{b} \pm \sigma_b$  with source off Measure total rate  $r = \hat{r} \pm \sigma_r$  with source on Infer signal source strength *s*, where r = s + bWith flat priors,

$$p(s, b|D, M) \propto \exp\left[-\frac{(b-\hat{b})^2}{2\sigma_b^2}\right] \times \exp\left[-\frac{(s+b-\hat{r})^2}{2\sigma_r^2}\right]$$

Marginalize b to summarize the results for s (complete the square to isolate b dependence; then do a simple Gaussian integral over b):

$$p(s|D, M) \propto \exp \left[-rac{(s-\hat{s})^2}{2\sigma_s^2}
ight] \qquad egin{array}{c} \hat{s} = \hat{r} - \hat{b} \ \sigma_s^2 = \sigma_r^2 + \sigma_b^2 \end{array}$$

⇒ Background *subtraction* is a special case of background *marginalization*; i.e., marginalization "told us" to subtract a background estimate—but it won't always do that!

Recall the standard derivation of background uncertainty via "propagation of errors" based on Taylor expansion (statistician's *Delta-method*)

Marginalization provides a generalization of error propagation/the Delta method—without approximation!

## **Bayesian Curve Fitting & Least Squares** Setup

Data  $D = \{d_i\}$  are measurements of an underlying function  $f(x; \theta)$  at N sample points  $\{x_i\}$ . Let  $f_i(\theta) \equiv f(x_i; \theta)$ :  $d_i = f_i(\theta) + \epsilon_i, \qquad \epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_i^2)$ 

We seek to learn  $\theta$ , or to compare different functional forms (model choice, M)

#### Likelihood

$$p(D|\theta, M) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d_i - f_i(\theta)}{\sigma_i}\right)^2\right]$$
$$\propto \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left(\frac{d_i - f_i(\theta)}{\sigma_i}\right)^2\right]$$
$$= \exp\left[-\frac{\chi^2(\theta)}{2}\right]$$

# **Bayesian Curve Fitting & Least Squares**

Posterior

For prior density  $\pi(\theta)$ ,

$$p(\theta|D, M) \propto \pi(\theta) \exp\left[-rac{\chi^2( heta)}{2}
ight]$$

If you have a least-squares or  $\chi^2$  code:

- Think of  $\chi^2(\theta)$  as  $-2\log \mathcal{L}(\theta)$
- Bayesian inference amounts to exploration and numerical integration of  $\pi(\theta)e^{-\chi^2(\theta)/2}$

# Important Case: Separable Nonlinear Models

A (linearly) separable model has parameters  $\theta = (A, \psi)$ :

- Linear amplitudes  $A = \{A_{\alpha}\}$
- Nonlinear parameters  $\psi$

 $f(x; \theta)$  is a linear superposition of M nonlinear components  $g_{\alpha}(x; \psi)$ :

Why this is important: You can marginalize over A analytically  $\rightarrow$  Bretthorst algorithm ("Bayesian Spectrum Analysis & Param. Est'n" 1988)

Algorithm is closely related to linear least squares, diagonalization, SVD; for sinusoidal  $g_{\alpha}$ , generalizes periodograms

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# Poisson Dist'n: Infer a Rate from Counts

### Problem:

Observe n counts in T; infer rate, r

Likelihood

Poisson distribution:

$$\mathcal{L}(r) \equiv p(n|r, M)$$
$$= \frac{(rT)^n}{n!} e^{-rT}$$

See Jaynes, "Probability theory as logic" (MaxEnt 1990) for an instructive derivation

### Prior

Two simple "uninformative" standard choices:

• r known to be *nonzero*: it is a scale parameter; scale invariance  $\rightarrow$ 

$$p(r|M) = \frac{1}{\ln(r_u/r_l)} \frac{1}{r}$$

This corresponds to a flat prior on  $\lambda = \log r$ 

• *r* may *vanish*; require prior predictive  $p(n|M) \sim \text{Const}$ :

$$p(r|M) = \frac{1}{r_u}$$

The reference prior is  $p(r|M) \propto 1/r^{1/2}$ 

Prior predictive

$$p(n|M) = \frac{1}{r_u} \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^{r_u} dr(rT)^n e^{-rT}$$
$$= \frac{1}{r_u} \frac{1}{T} \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^{r_u} d(rT)(rT)^n e^{-rT}$$
$$\approx \frac{1}{r_u} \frac{1}{T} \quad \text{for} \quad r_u \gg \frac{n}{T}$$

#### Posterior

A gamma distribution:

$$p(r|n, M) = \frac{T(rT)^n}{n!} e^{-rT}$$

## **Gamma Distributions**

A 2-parameter family of distributions over nonnegative x, with shape parameter  $\alpha$  and scale parameter  $\lambda$  (or inverse scale  $\epsilon$ ):

$$p_{\Gamma}(x|\alpha,\lambda) \equiv \frac{1}{\lambda\Gamma(\alpha)} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\lambda}$$
$$\equiv \frac{\epsilon}{\Gamma(\alpha)} (x\epsilon)^{\alpha-1} e^{-x\epsilon}$$

Moments:

$$\mathsf{E}(x) = \alpha \lambda = \frac{\alpha}{\epsilon}$$
  $\mathsf{Var}(x) = \lambda^2 \alpha = \frac{\alpha}{\epsilon^2}$ 

Our posterior corresponds to  $\alpha = n + 1$ ,  $\lambda = 1/T$ .

- Mode  $\hat{r} = \frac{n}{T}$ ; mean  $\langle r \rangle = \frac{n+1}{T}$  (shift down 1 with 1/r prior)
- Std. dev'n  $\sigma_r = \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{T}$ ; credible regions found by integrating (can use incomplete gamma function)



#### Conjugate prior

Note that a gamma distribution prior is the conjugate prior for the Poisson sampling distribution:

$$\begin{array}{ll} p(r|n,M') & \propto & \operatorname{Gamma}(r|\alpha,\epsilon) \times \operatorname{Pois}(n|rT) \\ & \propto & r^{\alpha-1}e^{-r\epsilon} \times r^n e^{-rT} \\ & \propto & r^{\alpha+n-1} \exp[-r(T+\epsilon)] \end{array}$$

### Useful conventions

- Use a flat prior for a rate that may be zero
- Use a log-flat prior  $(\propto 1/r)$  for a nonzero scale parameter
- Use proper (normalized, bounded) priors
- Plot posterior with abscissa that makes prior flat (use log r abscissa for scale parameter case)

# The On/Off Problem

### Basic problem

- Look off-source; unknown background rate bCount  $N_{
  m off}$  photons in interval  $T_{
  m off}$
- Look on-source; rate is r = s + b with unknown signal sCount  $N_{on}$  photons in interval  $T_{on}$
- Infer s

### Conventional solution

$$\begin{split} \hat{b} &= N_{\rm off}/T_{\rm off}; \quad \sigma_b &= \sqrt{N_{\rm off}}/T_{\rm off} \\ \hat{r} &= N_{\rm on}/T_{\rm on}; \quad \sigma_r &= \sqrt{N_{\rm on}}/T_{\rm on} \\ \hat{s} &= \hat{r} - \hat{b}; \qquad \sigma_s &= \sqrt{\sigma_r^2 + \sigma_b^2} \end{split}$$

But  $\hat{s}$  can be negative!

### **Examples**

Spectra of X-Ray Sources



#### Spectrum of Ultrahigh-Energy Cosmic Rays



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# *N* is Never Large

Sample sizes are never large. If N is too small to get a sufficiently-precise estimate, you need to get more data (or make more assumptions). But once N is 'large enough,' you can start subdividing the data to learn more (for example, in a public opinion poll, once you have a good estimate for the entire country, you can estimate among men and women, northerners and southerners, different age groups, etc etc). N is never enough because if it were 'enough' you'd already be on to the next problem for which you need more data.

- Andrew Gelman (blog entry, 31 July 2005)

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Similarly, you never have quite enough money. But that's another story.

- Andrew Gelman (blog entry, 31 July 2005)

## **Bayesian Solution to On/Off Problem**

First consider off-source data; use it to estimate *b*:

$$p(b|N_{\mathrm{off}}, I_{\mathrm{off}}) = rac{T_{\mathrm{off}}(bT_{\mathrm{off}})^{N_{\mathrm{off}}}e^{-bT_{\mathrm{off}}}}{N_{\mathrm{off}}!}$$

Use this as a prior for b to analyze on-source data

For on-source analysis  $I_{\rm all} = (I_{\rm on}, N_{\rm off}, I_{\rm off})$ :

 $p(s,b|N_{\mathrm{on}}) \propto p(s)p(b)[(s+b)T_{\mathrm{on}}]^{N_{\mathrm{on}}}e^{-(s+b)T_{\mathrm{on}}} || I_{\mathrm{all}}$ 

 $p(s|I_{\mathrm{all}})$  is flat, but  $p(b|I_{\mathrm{all}}) = p(b|N_{\mathrm{off}}, I_{\mathrm{off}})$ , so

$$p(s,b|N_{\mathrm{on}},I_{\mathrm{all}}) \propto (s+b)^{N_{\mathrm{on}}}b^{N_{\mathrm{off}}}e^{-s\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{on}}}e^{-b(\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{on}}+\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{off}})}$$

Now marginalize over b;

$$p(s|N_{\rm on}, I_{\rm all}) = \int db \ p(s, b \mid N_{\rm on}, I_{\rm all})$$

$$\propto \int db \ (s+b)^{N_{\rm on}} b^{N_{\rm off}} e^{-sT_{\rm on}} e^{-b(T_{\rm on}+T_{\rm off})}$$

Expand  $(s + b)^{N_{\mathrm{on}}}$  and do the resulting  $\Gamma$  integrals:

$$p(s|N_{\rm on}, I_{\rm all}) = \sum_{i=0}^{N_{\rm on}} C_i \frac{T_{\rm on}(sT_{\rm on})^i e^{-sT_{\rm on}}}{i!}$$
$$C_i \propto \left(1 + \frac{T_{\rm off}}{T_{\rm on}}\right)^i \frac{(N_{\rm on} + N_{\rm off} - i)!}{(N_{\rm on} - i)!}$$

Posterior is a weighted sum of Gamma distributions, each assigning a different number of on-source counts to the source (evaluate via recursive algorithm or confluent hypergeometric function)

Example On/Off Posteriors—Short Integrations



Example On/Off Posteriors—Long Background Integrations



**Supplement:** Two more solutions of on/off problem (including data augmentation); multibin case

# **Recap of Key Ideas From Examples**

- Sufficient statistic: Model-dependent summary of data
- Default priors: proper, improper, symmetry, prediction, reference, minimum sample size
- Conjugate prior/likelihood pairs:
  - Beta-binomial
  - Normal-normal
  - Gamma-Poisson
- Marginalization: Generalizes background subtraction (*don't just subract!*), propagation of errors, data augmentation
- Likelihood principle
- Notable results: Bernoulli/binomial Bayes factor, Student's *t*, Poisson on/off, Bretthorst algorithm

# **Recommended** exercises

- Do the flat-prior normal & Poisson calculations with *proper* priors (use the error function or the normal CDF, Φ(x) for the normal case, incomplete gamma function for Poisson case)
- Do the algebra for the normal-normal case, deriving the equations for  $\widetilde{\mu},~\widetilde{w}$
- Show that a prior  $\propto 1/r$  is a flat prior for  $\lambda = \log r$
- Work through the marginalization of σ giving the Student's t distribution (see Supp)
- Work through the algebra/calculus for background marginalization:
  - Normal case: Complete the square in b & do Gaussian integral; complete the square in s in final result
  - *Poisson case:* Derive the C<sub>i</sub> formula; also data augmentation version (Supp)
- Learn about the Bretthorst algorithm (GLB's book, TL's Bayesian harmonic analysis)