LECTURE 6: FUNDAMENTALS OF OBSERVATIONAL COSMOLOGY (II)

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1. Bayes' Theorem

The Bayes' Theorem lays the foundation of Bayesian statistics, and it states,

(1)
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- P(A): The probability for event A to occur;
- P(B): The probability for event B to occur;
- P(A|B): The probability for event A to occur, under the condition that event B has occurred;
- P(B|A): The probability for event B to occur, under the condition that event A has occurred.

An easy proof:

(2)
$$P(B|A)P(A) = P(B \cap A) = P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$

The Bayes' Theorem has wide applications. For data analysis, we get,

(3)
$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

where D denotes observational data, and θ for a set of cosmological parameters.

- $P(\theta|D)$: The posterior distribution;
- $P(D|\theta)$: The liklihood function;
- $P(\theta)$: The prior (it could be flat, or Gaussian);
- P(D): The Evidence, usually is used as a trivial normalisation factor.

An example:

A mobile phone produced by The XPhone Company was found to be defective (D). There are three factories (A, B, C) where such phones are manufactured. A Quality Control Manager (QCM) is responsible for investigating the source of found defects. This is what the QCM knows about the company's phone production and the possible source of defects:

The QCM would like to answer the following question: If a randomly selected phone is defective, what is the probability that the phone was manufactured in factory A, B and C, respectively?

| Factory | % of total production | Probability of phones |
|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| A | 0.35 = P(A) | 0.015 = P(D A) |
| В | 0.35 = P(B) | 0.010 = P(D B) |
| \mathbf{C} | 0.30 = P(C) | 0.020 = P(D C) |

Solution:

(4)
$$P(A|D) = \frac{P(D|A)P(A)}{P(D)} = \frac{0.015 \times 0.35}{0.015.35 + 0.010 \times 0.35 + 0.020 \times 0.30} = 0.356$$

(5)
$$P(B|D) = \frac{P(D|B)P(B)}{P(D)} = \frac{0.010 \times 0.35}{0.015.35 + 0.010 \times 0.35 + 0.020 \times 0.30} = 0.237$$

(6)
$$P(C|D) = \frac{P(D|C)P(C)}{P(D)} = \frac{0.020 \times 0.30}{0.015.35 + 0.010 \times 0.35 + 0.020 \times 0.30} = 0.407$$

2. Mean, variance and covariance

(7)
$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i$$

(8)
$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \mu)^2$$

(9)
$$\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \mu_X)(Y_i - \mu_Y)$$

(10)
$$\operatorname{Corr}(X,Y) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(X_i - \mu_X)(Y_i - \mu_Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

3. The central limit theorem

In probability theory, the central limit theorem (CLT) establishes that, in some situations, when independent random variables are added, their properly normalized sum tends toward a normal distribution even if the original variables themselves are not normally distributed.

4. Gaussian distribution

(11)
$$f(x|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

(12)
$$f_{\boldsymbol{x}}(x_1,...,x_k) = \frac{\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}-\mu)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\mu)\right]}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^k |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}}$$

5. χ^2 FITTING

(13)
$$\chi^2 = -2\ln \mathcal{L} = (\boldsymbol{x} - \mu)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x} - \mu)$$
6. The 68, 95, 99% rule

(14)
$$\frac{\int_0^1 e^{-x^2/2} dx}{\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2/2} dx} = 68.3\%; \quad \frac{\int_0^2 e^{-x^2/2} dx}{\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2/2} dx} = 95.5\%; \quad \frac{\int_0^3 e^{-x^2/2} dx}{\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2/2} dx} = 99.7\%;$$

7. General cases

 χ^2 distribution:

(15)
$$f(x;k) = \frac{x^{\frac{k}{2} - 1} e^{-\frac{x}{2}}}{2^{\frac{k}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{k}{2})} (x > 0)$$

Cumulative:

(16)
$$F(x;k) = \frac{\gamma(\frac{k}{2}, \frac{x}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})}$$

where $\gamma(s,t)$ is the lower incomplete gamma function. Special cases:

(17)
$$F(x;1) = \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

(18)
$$F(x;2) = 1 - e^{-x/2}$$

So for 2-variables, $\Delta \chi^2 = 2.31, 6.18, 11.83$ for F = 68, 95, 99%.

References

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