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# Basic principles of statistical inference

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#### What Is Statistical Inference?

"The use of a sample of data to draw inferences or conclusions about some aspect of the situation from which the data were taken."



#### HOLY DATA

MODEL

#### HYPOTHESIS

Holy Trinity Hendrik van Balen, 1620

### Data

- Typically an alignment of gene sequences, with date and location of sampling for each. Sometimes phenotypic trait data is available.
- Population genetic inference usually requires that sequences are randomly sampled.
- Phylogenetic inference problems often don't require random sampling.
- The data is assumed to be correct, although uncertainty in the data can sometimes be modelled (e.g. ambiguous nucletoides).
- Alignment uncertainty is usually ignored.

# Model

- A mathematical representation of the situation under study (or of some aspect of the situation).
- There are several types of evolutionary models, often used in combination.
  - Nucleotide substitution models (e.g. JC, HKY, GTR)
  - Molecular clock models (e.g. strict, relaxed, local)
  - Trait evolution models (e.g. strict, relaxed random walks)
  - Population models (e.g. coalescent models)
- Each model has a number of model parameters.
- Is a phylogeny a model or a set of parameters?

# Hypothesis

- A theory about the situation under study.
- Mathematically, a hypothesis is some statement about the parameter values of the model.

e.g. "the dN/dS of my sequences is >1" e.g. "the date of this phylogenetic node is 1982" or "the tree topology of my sequences is  $\sqrt{2}$ 

e.g. "the tree topology of my sequences is ?

- The data can be used to assess whether a given hypothesis is reasonable or not.
- The model may have many parameters but the hypothesis may only concern one of them. The rest are called **nuisance parameters**.

#### POINT ESTIMATION

- Using the data to estimate values for one or more model parameters.
- e.g. "When was the most recent common ancestor of my sampled sequences?"
  - Data: sequence alignment, dates of sampling, tree topology
  - Model: HKY
  - Estimated parameter: age of root node
  - Nuisance parameters: ages of the other nodes in the tree

#### **INTERVAL ESTIMATION**

• Using the data to provide a range that represents the degree of uncertainty in the estimate of a parameter.

e.g. "What are the 95% confidence intervals for the evolutionary rate of my sequences?"

#### **HYPOTHESIS TESTING**

• Using the data to measure the relative plausibility of different statements about the model parameters.

e.g. "Is my estimated dN/dS value significantly greater than 1?"

e.g. "Does REV fit my data better than HKY?"

e.g."Can I reject a strict molecular clock?"

e.g. "Do sequences A, B & C form a clade in my tree?"

#### MODEL SELECTION

- The process of finding the most appropriate model for your data.
- It involves a trade-off between "goodness of fit" and "predictive power".
- Adding parameters increases the former but decreases the latter.
- Remember, even the best-fitting model may explain the data poorly.



### Inference Frameworks

- There are several different types of statistical inference.
- Evolutionary problems often involve complex models with many parameters, sometimes limited amounts of data.
- Likelihood and Bayesian inference are practical methods in this situation. They are related, but differ philosophically in the way they view probability.

#### Inference Frameworks

- <u>Likelihood (frequentist) inference</u>: Probabilities refer only to the outcome of experiments (i.e. data). They represent the frequencies of outcomes if the experiment were repeated many times. The degree to which data supports a hypothesis is termed likelihood.
- <u>Bayesian inference</u>: Both data and model parameters are described by probabilities. Probability reflects our degree of belief in a hypothesis, as well as representing the outcome of experiments. Hence hypotheses have probabilities even in the absence of data.

# Properties of Inference Methods

- BIAS: The average deviation of an estimate from the true value.
- VARIANCE: Imprecision, or the degree of uncertainty in an estimate. Reflected in large confidence intervals, or in a wide "spread" of values when estimation is re-run many times.
- CONSISTENCY: The convergence of an estimate to the true parameter value as sample size increases.
- ERROR: The failure of hypothesis tests to get the right answer as often as they should.





# Likelihood

- "A technique for assessing the relative merits of different hypotheses in the light of the data."
- The probability of observing data D, given hypothesis H, is denoted P(D|H). It is defined by the model and is a probability density function.
- The likelihood of hypothesis H, given data D, is denoted L(H|D). This is a likelihood function and is directly proportional to P(D|H).

i.e.  $L(H|D) \propto P(D|H)$ 

- The constant of proportionality is arbitrary, but is the same for all hypotheses under the same data.
- Unlike probabilities, likelihoods do not sum to 1!

#### Likelihood Ratios

 Inferences are made by comparing the likelihoods of different hypotheses on the same data (D).

e.g. hypotheses  $H_1 \& H_2$  have likelihoods  $L(H_1|D) \& L(H_2|D)$ 

#### • NEVER COMPARE LIKELIHOODS ON DIFFERENT DATA!

- Likelihoods are very small numbers, so the natural logarithm of the likelihood, denoted I(H|D), is used.
- Likelihood ratios are therefore log-likelihood differences. i.e.  $L(H_1|D) / L(H_2|D) = I(H_1|D) - I(H_2|D)$

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Suppose we have a model with one parameter,  $x_1$ .
- We find the value of  $x_1$  that maximises the likelihood. This value is the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of  $x_1$ .
- A plot of  $x_1$  against log-likelihood is a log-likelihood curve.
- Algebra or optimisation algorithms find the highest point of the curve.



#### Maximum Likelihood Estimation



# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- If we have two parameters, x<sub>1</sub> & x<sub>2</sub>, then the pair of x<sub>1</sub> & x<sub>2</sub>
  values that maximises the likelihood function must be found.
- Optimisation algorithms try to find the maximum point.
- This can be a computationally difficult problem.



### Likelihood Ratio Statistic

- The likelihood ratio statistic (LRS) is used to compare hypotheses.
- Suppose we have two hypotheses, H<sub>1</sub> & H<sub>2</sub>. These can represent specific parameter values, or regions of parameter space, or whole models.
- LRS = 2 \* {  $max[l(H_1|D)] max[l(H_2|D)]$  }

### Likelihood Ratio Statistic

- If the hypotheses are nested (one is a special case of the other) then the LRS can be used to compare their goodness-of-fit.\*
- The LRS is also used to calculate confidence limits for MLEs.\*
- Non-nested hypotheses can be compared using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). For hypothesis H:

AIC(H) = max[I(H|D)] - n

where *n* is the number of parameters in the model.

• "Better" hypotheses have higher AIC values.

### **Bayesian Inference**

- Bayesian inference produces a **posterior probability distribution** rather than a likelihood curve.
- The "posterior" combines information from the data and from previous knowledge. (Likelihood = the data only.)
- Each parameter in the model has a **prior probability distribution** representing our previous knowledge about that parameter.
- The "prior" can be strong or weak...
  - e.g. "Human heights follow a normal distribution with mean = 1.7m and standard deviation = 15cm"
  - e.g. "Human heights follow a uniform (flat) distribution between 10<sup>-10</sup> m and 10<sup>26</sup> m."







https://xkcd.com/1132/

#### **Bayesian Inference**

If the posterior and the prior look similar then the data is not very informative about the parameter in question.



Posterior distributions are defined using **Bayes' Theorem.**\*

\* Not covered in this lecture.

#### **Posterior Distributions**

Posterior distributions are very difficult to calculate directly. However, we can approximate the posterior distribution by using Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling.

This algorithm walks around parameter space in a pseudo-random way. It moves quickly through 'low' regions and slowly in 'high' regions whilst keeping a record of where it has been.



#### **Posterior Distributions**

Parameters are estimated by finding the mean or median of the posterior distribution. These are Bayesian posterior estimates (BPEs).



#### **Posterior Distributions**

Here, the posterior is cut off at x=0.75 by the prior. The data support values of x>0.75, but the prior won't allow this.



#### Credible Regions

The Bayesian equivalent of a confidence interval is called the highest posterior density (HPD) credible region. This is the smallest region that contains 95% of the posterior probability.



#### Credible Regions



# Bayesian Hypothesis Testing

- Posteriors are proper probability distributions (unlike likelihood curves). So hypotheses can be tested by simply inspecting areas under the curve (e.g. is parameter x>1.0?)
- The Bayesian equivalent of the likelihood ratio statistic is the "Bayes Factor".



### **Bayesian Model Selection**

- The Bayes factor (*BF*) is the ratio of the probability of model I to the probability of model 2, on data D.  $BF = p(D|M_1) / p(D|M_2)$
- The models don't have to be nested.
- $M_1$  and  $M_2$  can represent different models or different regions of parameter space (e.g.  $M_1 = x < 1 \text{ vs } M_2 = x > 1$ ).
- Calculating  $p(D|M_i)$  is computationally difficult.

### **Bayesian Model Selection**

<b>Bayes factor</b>	Interpretation
<1	M1 is actually worse than M2
1 to 3	Barely worth mentioning
3 to 10	Substantial support for M1
10 to 30	Strong support for M1
30 to 100	Very strong support for M1
>100	Decisive evidence in favour of M1