Have We Seen a Signal Yet?
A Necessary Condition for Claiming Discovery

Michael Woodroofe and Bodhisattva Sen
The University of Michigan and Columbia University
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Abstract

We consider experiments in which events may be either background or signals, and suppose that auxiliary variables have been attached to the events, providing partial information about their nature. The question of interest is whether any signal events are present. We adopt a Bayesian approach and derive an upper bound for the probability that a signal event has been observed that is independent of the prior distribution within broad limits.

Key words and phrases: Bayesian tests; inequalities; marked Poisson variables.

1 Marked Poisson Variables

Consider events, like neutrino oscillations, to which marks (auxiliary variables) are attached—for example, energy levels. The events may either be signal events or background, and the marks provide partial information about their nature. The problem is to determine whether any signal events have been observed. The problem is statistical but of current interest in high energy physics. [Need more detail here].

To formalize the statistical problem, we introduce random variables \( N, J_1, J_2, \ldots \) and \( X_1, X_2, \ldots \). Here \( N \) represents the total number of events observed and is supposed to have a Poisson distribution with mean \( b + s \), where \( b \) and \( s \) are the expected values of the (unobserved) total number of background and signal events. The variable \( J_i \) is 0 if the \( i \)th event is a background event and 1 if it is a signal; \( J_i \) takes on the values 0 and 1 with probabilities \( b/(b+s) \) and \( s/(b+s) \) and is not observed directly. However, \( X_i \) is observed and is supposed to have one probability density or mass function \( g \), say, for a background event \( (J_i = 0) \) and another probability density or mass function...
h, say, for a signal event \((J_i = 1)\) and, thereby, provides partial information about \(J_i\). Observe that \(M = J_1 + \cdots + J_N\) and \(N - M\) are the (unobserved) total number of signal and background events. The probability model is completed supposing that \(N, (J_1, X_1), (J_2, X_2), \cdots\) are mutually independent. It can then be shown that \(M\) and \(N - M\) are independent Poisson variables with means \(s\) and \(b - s\) and that \(X_1, X_2, \cdots\) have common (overall) density

\[
\frac{bg(x) + sh(x)}{b + s},
\]  

(1)

We suppose throughout that \(b\) and \(g\) are known and that \(h\) is known to belong to a parametric family, say \(h = h_t\), where \(t\) takes values in a subset of \(T\) of a Euclidean space \(\mathbb{R}^d\). Thus, \(s\) and \(t\) are unknown parameters. In support of these assumptions, we observe that \(b\) and \(g\) may be estimated from off-line experiments and that physical models may suggest the form of \(h\). [Need more here] We call \(t\) a nuisance parameter below, because it complicates the discovery question.

The derivations are less cumbersome for discrete \(X_i\), and we will consider only this case below, although our results remain valid for \(X_i\) that have a density or a mixed distribution. Further, we use \(P_{s,t}\) to denote probability computed under the assumption that \(s\) is the value of the expected signal and \(t\) is the value of the nuisance parameter; and we write \(X\) for \((X_1, \cdots, X_N)\). Thus,

\[
P_{s,t}[N = n, X = x] = \frac{e^{-(b+s)}}{n!} \prod_{i=1}^{n} [bg(x_i) + sh_t(x_i)].
\]  

(2)

From a statistical perspective, (2) is just the likelihood function, \(L(s, t|n, x) = P_{s,t}[N = n, X = x]\). Observe that \(L(s, t|n, x)\) does not depend on \(t\) when \(s = 0\), and let \(L_0(n, x)\) denote the common value, \(L(0, t|n, x) = L_0(n, x)\). Then

\[
L(s, t|n, x) = L_0(n, x) \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left[1 + \frac{s}{b} r_t(x_i)\right] e^{-s},
\]  

(3)

where \(r_t(x) = h_t(x)/g(x)\).

The problem considered here is determining whether there is a positive signal, sometimes called looking for a needle in a Haystack in cases, like the Higgs, where the signal is small compared to the background. In the case of the Higgs, there is interest in significance at the 5σ level, roughly \(\alpha = 10^{-6}\). The conventional formulation is as a test of \(H_0 : s = 0\), though we prefer an alternative formulation, described below. We adopt a Bayesian approach and derive a necessary condition for claiming discovery, (10) below, that is independent of the prior, within broad limits. This bound is offered as a reality check on claims of a discovery. An example may illustrate its usefulness.

**Example.** The data in Figure 1 below were simulated from a model in which the distribution of the marks in normal with mean \(-1\) for background events, \(+1\) for signal
events, and unit standard deviation for both. For this model the locally most powerful
test of \( s = 0 \) rejects for large values of
\[
Z = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} [r(X_i) - 1]}{\sqrt{b(e^1 - 1)}}
\]
which has mean 0, unit standard deviation, and an asymptotic normal distribution as
\( b \to \infty \) under the null hypothesis.

For the data displayed in Figure 1, \( Z = 5.3975... \) and the approximate
\( P \)-value is \( 3.3789 \times 10^{-8} \), using normal approximation. That is, the data are significant at the
5\( \sigma \) level. However, the lower bound on the probability of on-discovery is .00515\( \cdots \),
a small value but far short of the 5\( \sigma \) criterion. There are (at least) two factors that
affect the this discrepancy. One is the difference between significance levels and pos-
terior probabilities, described by Berger and Sellke [1]. Another is the use of normal
approximation far out in the tails of the distribution.

2 The Testing Problem: A Bayesian View

In a Bayesian formulation the unknown parameters are regarded as random variables
or vectors, and it is convenient to have a notation for these random parameters. Thus,
let \( S \) be a random variable and \( T \) be random vector with a joint apriori distribution.
We will suppose that \( S \) and \( T \) are independent, apriori, with distribution functions
\( \Xi \) and \( \rho \). In the Bayesian formulation \( P_{s,t} \) becomes the conditional probability given
\( S = s \) and \( T = t \). Thus, denoting probability in the Bayesian model by \( P \) (with no sub
or superscripts),
\[
P[S \leq u, \ N = n, \ X = x] = \int_{0}^{u} \int_{T} P_{s,t}[N = n, \ X = x] d\rho(t)d\Xi(s).
\]

The Conventional Formulation. The conventional way to formulate the question is
as a testing problem \( H_0 : S = 0 \). Letting \( \pi_0 \) be the prior probability that \( S = 0 \), and \( \xi \)
the conditional density of \( S \) given \( S > 0 \), we find
\[
P[N = n, \ X = x] = P[S = 0, \ N = n, \ X = x] + P[S > 0, \ N = n, \ X = x]
\]
\[
= \pi_0 P_0[N = n, \ X = x]
\]
\[
+ (1 - \pi_0) \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{T} P_{s,t}[N = n, \ X = x] d\rho(t)\xi(s) ds,
\]
where \( P_0 \) denotes the common value of \( P_{0,t} \). Using (3), this is
\[
P[N = n, \ X = x] = L_0(n, x) [\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0)Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x)], \tag{4}
\]
where
\[
Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x) = \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{T} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 + \frac{s}{b} r_t(x_i) \right] e^{-s} d\rho(t)\xi(s) ds. \tag{5}
\]
So, the posterior probability that $S = 0$ is
\[
\pi_0^* := P[S = 0|N = n, X = x] = \frac{\pi_0}{\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0)Q_{\rho, \xi}(n, x)},
\]
and the posterior odds in favor of $S = 0$ are
\[
\frac{\pi_0^*}{1 - \pi_0^*} = \left(\frac{\pi_0}{1 - \pi_0}\right) \frac{1}{Q_{\rho, \xi}(n, x)}.
\]

The Bayesian test is to reject $H_0$ if $\pi_0^*$ is sufficiently small. Unfortunately, $\pi_0^*$ depends crucially on $\pi_0$. The (so called) Bayes Factor $1/Q_{\rho, \xi}(n, x)$ represents the amount of change in the odds. It does not depend on $\pi_0$, but only on $\rho$ and $\xi$.

**An Alternative Formulation.** Another way to pose the discovery problem is to ask whether $M > 0$; that is, have we seen a signal event yet? As in (4),
\[
P[M = 0, N = n, X = x] = \int_0^\infty \int_T b^ne^{-(b+s)} \prod_{i=1}^n g(x_i)dp(t)d\Xi(s)
\]
\[
= L_0(n, x)[\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0)\mu_0],
\]
where $\mu_0 = \int_0^\infty e^{-s}\xi(s)ds$. Combining this with (4) and (5),
\[
P[M = 0|N = n, X = x] = \frac{\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0)\mu_0}{\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0)Q_{\rho, \xi}(n, x)}.
\]

The alternative test is to reject if (6) is small. In the next section, it is shown that (6) is minimized when $\pi_0 = 0$ and has an easily computable lower bound that does not depend on $\xi$ or $\rho$ within broad limits.

Of course, if $M > 0$, then necessarily $s > 0$; and it seems unlikely (to us) that anyone would want to claim a discovery without strong evidence that $M > 0$. In this sense, the two formulations are roughly equivalent. To the extent that the two formulations differ, we prefer the alternative, because it is closer to the data: The variable $M$ is defined in terms the experiment; the parameter $s$ is only defined in terms of the mathematical model for the experiment. This is very much in the spirit of [2].

**Computational Issues and Some Algebra.** For later reference observe that
\[
\prod_{i=1}^n \left[1 + \frac{s}{b}r_t(x_i)\right] = \sum_{k=0}^n C_{n,k}(t)\left(\frac{s}{b}\right)^k,
\]
where
\[
C_{n,k}(t) = \sum_{j_1 + \cdots + j_n = k} \prod_{i=1}^n r_t(x_i)^{j_i},
\]
and the summation extends over all $(j_1, \ldots, j_n)$ for which $j_i = 0$ or $1$ for each $i$ and $j_1 + \cdots + j_n = k$. The $C_{n,k}$'s may be computed recursively using
\[
C_{n,k}(t) = C_{n-1,k}(t) + r_t(x_n)C_{n-1,k-1}(t),
\]
as in Roe and Woodroofe [3]. Then

$$Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \bar{C}_{n,k} \left( \frac{\mu_k}{k!} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)$$

where

$$\mu_k = \int_0^{\infty} s^k e^{-s} \xi(s) ds,$$

$$\bar{C}_{n,k} = \int C_{n,k}(t) d\rho(t).$$

3 Inequalities

For situations in which the signal is thought to be small, it seem reasonable to suppose that $\xi$ is a non-increasing function. A lower bound for (6) over all $0 < \pi_0 < 1$, all non-increasing $\xi$, and all $\rho$ is developed in steps below; but first an auxiliary result is needed.

The Correlation Inequality. The following result is intuitive: the correlation between a non-decreasing function of a random variable and a non-increasing function of the same variable is non-positive: that is, if $F$ is a distribution function, $u$ is a non-decreasing function, and $v$ is a non-increasing function for which

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} (|u| + |v|) dF < \infty,$$

then

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} uv dF \leq \left[ \int_{\mathbb{R}} u dF \right] \left[ \int_{\mathbb{R}} v dF \right].$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)$$

See, ··· for the details.

Dependence on $\pi_0$. For any $\xi$, (6) is minimized when $\pi_0 = 0$. This is also intuitive. To see it mathematically observe first that $\mu_0$ is the first term in the sum (7), so that $\mu_0 < Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x)$; and clearly $\mu_0 < 1$. So, the derivative of the logarithm of (6) with respect to $\pi_0$ is

$$\frac{1 - \mu_0}{\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0) \mu_0} - \frac{1 - Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x)}{\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0) Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x)} \geq \frac{1 - \mu_0}{\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0) Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x)} - \frac{1 - Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x)}{\pi_0 + (1 - \pi_0) Q_{\rho,\xi}(n, x)} \geq 0,$$

and the minimum is attained when $\pi_0 = 0$.

Dependence on $\xi$. By (8) applied with $u(s) = s^k$, $v(s) = \xi(s)$, $F(s) = 1 - e^{-s}$ for $s > 0$ and, therefore, $dF(s) = e^{-s} ds$,

$$\mu_k = \int_{0}^{\infty} s^k e^{-s} \xi(s) ds \leq \left[ \int_{0}^{\infty} s^k e^{-s} ds \right] \left[ \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-s} \xi(s) ds \right] = k! \mu_0.$$
So, when \( \pi_0 = 0 \)

\[
\frac{1}{P[M = 0 | N = n, X = x]} = \frac{Q_\rho,\xi(n, x)}{\mu_0}
\]

\[
= \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{1}{b^k} C_{n,k} \left( \frac{\mu_k}{\mu_0} \right) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k! C_{n,k}}{b^k},
\]

which is the same value obtained from (6) by letting \( \pi_0 = 0 \) and formally setting \( \xi(s) \equiv 1 \). So,

\[
P[M = 0 | N = n, X = x] \geq \frac{1}{\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k! C_{n,k}}{b^k}}
\]

for all \( 0 < \pi_0 < 1 \), all non-increasing \( \xi \), and all \( \rho \).

**Dependence on \( \rho \).** The right side of (9) still depends on \( \rho \), but may be easily bounded. Let \( \bar{L} \) denote the integrated likelihood

\[
\bar{L}(t|n, x) = \int_{0}^{\infty} L(s|n, x) ds.
\]

Then

\[
\bar{L}(t|n, x) = L_0(n, x) Q(n, x, t),
\]

where

\[
Q(n, x, t) = \int_{0}^{\infty} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 + \frac{s}{b} r_{i}(x_i) \right] e^{-s} ds = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k! C_{n,k}(t)}{b^k}.
\]

Next, let \( \hat{t} \) maximize the integrated likelihood function, so that

\[
Q(n, x, \hat{t}) = \max_{t} Q(n, x, t) = \hat{Q}(n, x), \text{ say.}
\]

Then

\[
\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k! C_{n,k} b^{-k}}{\hat{Q}(n, x)} \leq \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k! C_{n,k}(\hat{t})}{b^k}}{\hat{Q}(n, x)}
\]

in (9), and

\[
P[M = 0 | N = n, X = x] \geq \frac{1}{\hat{Q}(n, x)}
\]

for all \( 0 < \pi_0 < 1 \), all non-increasing \( \xi \), and all \( \rho \). So, from a Bayesian perspective, a necessary condition for claiming discovery is that

\[
\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k! C_{n,k}(\hat{t})}{b^k} \geq \frac{1}{\alpha} \approx 10^6.
\]

### 4 Remarks, References, and Acknowledgments

The derivation of (11) also leads to a bound on the Bayes factor: Since \( \mu_0 \leq 1 \), \( Q_\rho,\xi(n, x) \) is at most the left side of (11). The derivation of (11) is patterned after Berger and Sellke [1], and the bound on the Bayes factor is a special case of their results.

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References

