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Conference Summary: Astronomy Perspective of Astro-Statistics

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Abstract. This is a summary of the ‘Astronomy Perspective’ of the 4th meeting on *Statistical Challenges in Modern Astronomy* held at Penn State University in June 2006. We comment on trends in the Astronomy community towards Bayesian methods and model selection criteria. We describe two examples where Bayesian methods have improved our inference: (i) photometric redshift estimation (ii) orbital parameters of extra-solar planets. We also comment on the pros and cons of Globalization of scientific research. Communities like Astronomy, High Energy Physics and Statistics develop ideas separately, but also have frequent interaction. This illustrates the benefits of ‘comparing notes’.

1. Introduction

The dramatic increase of data in Astronomy has renewed interest in the principles and applications of statistical inference methods. These methods can be viewed as a bridge between the data and the models. For example, the same statistic can be applied to both data and models as an effective way of comparing the two.

The meeting focused on the following applications in Astronomy:

- Cosmology
- Small-N problems (including High Energy Physics)
- Astronomical surveys
- Planetary systems
- Periodic variability

The common statistical problems in these and other examples from Astronomy and Physics fall broadly into the following tasks:

- Data compression (e.g. galaxy images or spectra).
- Classification (e.g. of stars, galaxies or Gamma Ray Bursts).
- Reconstruction (e.g. of blurred galaxy images or mass distribution from weak gravitational lensing).
- Feature extraction (e.g. signatures feature of stars, galaxies or quasars).

- Parameter estimation (e.g. orbital parameters of extra-solar planets or cosmological parameters).
- Model selection (e.g. are there 0,1,2,... planets around a star, or is a cosmological model with non-zero neutrino mass more favourable).

It is possible for these tasks to be related. For example, estimation of cosmological parameters from the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) or galaxy redshift surveys are commonly deduced from a compressed information, usually in the form of the angular and 3D power spectra, respectively. As further example is classification of galaxy spectra. It can be achieved in a compressed space of the spectra, or in the space of astrophysical parameters estimated from the spectra.

The Astro-Statistics community is fortunate to have these days textbooks written by astronomers and physicists, among them (in chronological order): Lyons (1991), Lupton (1993), Babu & Feigelson (1996), Sivia (1996), Cowan (1998), Starck & Murtagh (2002), Martinez & Saar (2002), Press et al. (1992), Wall & Jenkins (2003), Saha (2003) and Gregory (2005).

2. Inference Methods

There is an ongoing debate between the ‘Frequentist’ approach and the ‘Bayesian’ methodology. The ‘Frequentist’ approach interpret probability as the frequency of the outcome of a repeatable experiment. In contrast, the ‘Bayesian’ methodology (first published in 1764) views the interpretation of probability more generally and it includes a degree of belief, formulated as:

$$P(model|data) = P(data|model)P(model)/P(data),$$

where on the right hand side the first term is the *likelihood*, the second is the *prior* and the third is the *evidence*.

In the Bayesian approach the choice of *priors* may strongly affect the inference. However it is an ‘honest’ approach in the sense that all the assumptions are explicitly spelled out in a logical manner.

2.1. Sources of Systematics

A major part of research in Astronomy is devoted to the effect of systematic errors. Consider the example of estimating a specific parameter, e.g. the Dark Energy equation of state parameter w from Baryon Acoustic Oscillations observed in galaxy clustering (e.g. Eisenstein et al. 2005). We can distinguish three types of systematics:

- Cosmological uncertainty (due to the assumption on the other $N - 1$ cosmological parameters associated priors).
- Astrophysical uncertainty (e.g. what is the relation between the clustering of luminous galaxies and the matter fluctuations).
- Observational uncertainty (e.g. selection effects in the galaxy sample).

Each of these contributes to the error budget of w in a different way and should be incorporated in the statistical analysis accordingly.

2.2. Justifying Priors

The choice of prior is crucial in the Bayesian framework, yet the justification of each prior is not always spelled out in research articles. To give an example, a prior on the curvature of the universe can be justified in a number of ways; some theoretical, some empirical:

- Theoretical prejudice (e.g. ‘according to Inflation, the universe must be flat’).
- Previous observations (e.g. ‘we know from the CMB WMAP experiment the universe is flat to within 2%, under the assumption of other priors’).
- Parameterized ignorance (e.g. ‘a uniform prior’ or ‘a Jeffreys prior’).

2.3. Recent Trends in Astro-statistics

We note some recent trends expressed in this, and other conferences.

- Astro-Statistics has become a ‘respectable’ discipline of its own.
- ‘Bayesian’ approaches are more commonly used, and in better co-existence with ‘Frequentist’ methods.
- There is more awareness of model selection methods, e.g. the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), see e.g. Liddle et al. (2006).
- Computer intensive methods, e.g. Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) are more popular.
- Free software packages are more widely used.

It is beyond the scope of this review to cover every topic discussed at the meeting. We heard interesting discussions on the role of statistics in cutting edge research in Astronomy, e.g. the analyses of the CMB maps (Szapudi, Hinshaw), galaxy surveys (Martinez, Loredó), micro-lensing (Kochanek), weak Gravitational lensing (Bernstein, Lupton), Gravitational waves (Woan), visualization (Inselberg) and the Virtual Observatories (Hanisch). In this short summary I shall focus on two examples; photometric redshifts and extrasolar planets. Both cases illustrate how Bayesian approaches have improved our inference on the science questions of interest.

3. An Example From Cosmology: Photometric Redshifts

Mapping the galaxy distribution in 3D requires the galaxy redshifts. In the absence of spectroscopic data, redshifts of galaxies may be estimated using multi-band photometry, which may be thought of as very low-resolution spectroscopy. While the redshift error per galaxy is relatively large, having a great number of galaxies could reduce the errors on measures of the galaxy clustering. Photometric surveys over large areas of the sky may compete well with spectroscopic

surveys. Photo- z methods proved very useful e.g. in recent analyses of the GOODS, COMBO-17 and SDSS Luminous Red Galaxies. Several wide-field photometric redshifts are planned for the future, e.g. the Dark Energy Survey, PanSTARRS and LSST. Understanding the photometric redshift errors is crucial for quantifying the errors on e.g. the Dark Energy equation of state parameter w from galaxy clustering or weak lensing.

In more detail, photometric redshift methods rely on measuring the signal in the photometric data arising from prominent "break" features present in galaxy spectra e.g. the 4000 Å break in red, early-type galaxies, or the Lyman break at 912 Å in blue, star-forming galaxies. There are two basic approaches to measuring a galaxy photometric redshift z (e.g. Csabai et al. 2003 and references therein). The first, template matching, relies on fitting model galaxy spectral energy distributions (SEDs) to the photometric data, where the models span a range of expected galaxy redshifts and spectral types. This is done via a simple χ^2 statistic, i.e. via the likelihood $P(\text{colours}|z)$, but it may lead to catastrophic errors. Benitez (2000) generalized the method by incorporating Bayesian priors. The prior $P(z|\text{magnitude})$ for the redshift of a galaxy given its magnitude (apparent luminosity) then multiplies the likelihood to give the posterior

$$P(z|\text{colours}, \text{magnitude}) \propto P(\text{colours}|z) \times P(z|\text{magnitude}) .$$

This Bayesian chain, which can also be generalized to include galaxy type, greatly reduces the number of outliers.

Another approach utilises an existing spectroscopic redshift sample as a training set to derive an empirical photometric redshift fitting relation. An example of a training-based method, ANNz, which is also Bayesian, utilizes Artificial Neural Networks (Collister & Lahav 2004). When applied to SDSS galaxies the rms error using ANNz is $\sigma_z = 0.02$, compared with $\sigma_z = 0.07$ using a template method.

4. An Example From Extra-solar Planets: Orbital Parameter Estimation

Astronomers have faced a growing number of free parameters in modelling astrophysical systems, for example cosmological parameters or extra-solar planet orbital parameters. In the case of a model with N free parameters marginalizing over $N-1$ parameters, it proves to be computationally expensive if the parameter space is mapped into a grid. An alternative method, the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC), has been known since the 1950's and a wide range of methods exists in the literature to implement it, e.g. the Metropolis-Hasting algorithm.

The key idea is to turn a probability distribution function in N dimensions into a cloud of points which represents the probability distribution function. The probability distribution function could incorporate the probabilities for the priors, in the Bayesian spirit. The MCMC algorithm constructs a random walk in the model parameter space with steps drawn from a multi-dimensional proposal distribution (e.g. a Gaussian). It is crucial to apply tests for convergence, i.e. to ensure that the parameter space is properly sampled, in particular if there are several peaks in a highly dimensional space.

MCMC algorithms have been applied recently to parameter estimation from the CMB and other cosmological data sets (e.g. Lewis & Bridle 2003; Verde et al. 2003) and to both detecting and characterizing orbits of extrasolar planets (e.g. Gregory 2005; Ford 2005; and Ford and Gregory in this volume).

Nearly 200 extrasolar planets have been discovered over the past decade. Most of those were discovered using measurements of the radial velocity of the host star. The radial velocity curve can be modelled by approximately a dozen parameters, depending on the complexity of the assumed model. It is also important to allow for more than one planet around the star, hence for more free parameters. This leads to the challenging problem of non-linear minimization in a highly dimensional parameter space. Deriving these parameters accurately is very important as this can then influence the interpretation for an individual object, as well as the statistics of orbital parameters for an ensemble of extra-solar planets.

For example, in many of the discovery papers the approach taken is to estimate first the period P and then for that fixed P to solve later for the orbital parameters. As there is degeneracy of parameters and dependence on their priors this could lead to the wrong value of P . This was pointed out by Gregory (2005), who developed an MCMC Bayesian approach to cope with the multi-parameter estimation. He illustrated the method for the data for HD73526, where he found three possible solutions for P . In fact the previously reported one turned out to be the least probable orbit (but apparently the data for this system somewhat changed since the publication of the paper).

5. Future Work in Astro-statistics

Based on the discussions during the meeting, the following topics call attention call for further work in Astro-statistics:

- Model selection methodology (e.g. which criteria and the role of priors).
- MCMC machinery and extensions (e.g. nested sampling).
- Detection of non-Gaussianity and shape finders (e.g. for galaxy survey and CMB maps).
- Blind de-convolution (e.g. for recovering galaxy shapes from blurred images).
- Object classification (e.g. stars, galaxies and quasars).
- Comparing simulations with data (e.g. large galaxy surveys with N-body and hydrodynamic simulations).
- Visualization (of e.g. 3D galaxy surveys or multi-parameter space).
- Virtual Observatories (including both Real Data and Mock data).

6. The Globalization of Scientific Research

We shall discuss now the pros and cons of information exchange between scientific communities, first communities with common scientific interests which were separated by political boundaries, and then communities which have different research interests.

The society at large is going through a ‘Globalization’ process. There is a diversity of definitions for Globalization, some in positive context, others with negative connotations. The sociologist Anthony Giddens defines Globalization as “decoupling of space and time - emphasizing that with instantaneous communications, knowledge and culture can be shared around the world simultaneously¹.” Another definition given in the same website sees Globalization as being “an undeniably capitalist process. It has taken off as a concept in the wake of the collapse of the Soviet Union and of socialism as a viable alternate form of economic organization.”

A further discussion on Globalization can be seen through Thomas Friedman’s book (2005) “the World is Flat” (indeed an interesting title in the context of Cosmology!). He questions whether “the world has got too small and too flat for us to adjust”.

Research in academia is of course a human activity affected, like any other sector, by the social and technological changes and trends. The advantages of Globalization for academic research are numerous: open access to data sources for all (e.g. via the World Wide Web), rapid exchange of ideas, and international research teams. These aspects make science more democratic and they enable faster achievements in ‘searching for the truth’. The numerous conferences, electronic archives and tele-conferences generate a ‘global village of thinkers’. While this could lead to a faster convergence in answering fundamental questions, there is also the risk of preventing independent and original ideas from developing, as most researchers might be *too influenced by the consensus view*.

Let us consider the current popular cosmological ‘concordance’ model. Cosmological measurements of Supernovae Type Ia, Large Scale Structure and the CMB WMAP3 (e.g. Spergel et al. 2006) are consistent with a ‘concordance’ model in which the universe is flat and contains approximately 4% baryons, 21% dark matter and 75% dark energy. However the two main ingredients, Dark Matter and Dark Energy, are still poorly understood. We do not know if they are ‘real’ or they are the modern ‘epicycles’, i.e. ‘fudge factors’ which help to fit the data better, until a new theory will greatly simplify our understanding of the observations.

A disturbing question is whether the popular cosmological ‘concordance model’ is a result of Globalization? It is interesting to contrast the present day research in Cosmology with the research in the 1970’s and 1980’s. This was the period of the ‘Cold War’ between the former Soviet Union and the West. During the 1970’s the Russian school of Cosmology, led by Y. Zeldovich, advocated massive neutrinos, ‘Hot Dark Matter’, as the prime candidate for dark matter. As neutrinos were relativistic when they decoupled, they wiped out structure of small scales. This led to the ‘top-down’ scenario of structure formation.

¹<http://globalisationguide.org/>

In this picture ‘Zeldovich pancakes’ of the size of superclusters formed first, and then they fragmented into clusters and galaxies. This was in conflict with observations, and cosmologists concluded that neutrinos are not massive enough to make up all of the dark matter. The downfall of the top-down ‘Hot Dark Matter’ scenario of structure formation, and the lack of evidence for neutrino masses from terrestrial experiments made this model unpopular. The Western school of Cosmology, led by J. Peebles and others, advocated a ‘bottom up’ scenario, in framework which later became known as the popular Cold Dark Matter. However the detection of neutrino oscillations showed that neutrinos indeed have a mass, i.e. Hot Dark Matter does exist, even if in small quantities. Current upper limits are in the range between 4% (from LSS or CMB alone) to 0.5% (from a combination of cosmic probes). therefore both forms, Cold Dark Matter and Hot Dark Matter, may exist in nature. This example illustrates that having two independent schools of thoughts was actually beneficial for progress in Cosmology.

Luckily, despite the current global village effect, we still have communities that work independently, not geographically or politically, but in different areas of research. Astronomy, High Energy Physics and Statistics are examples of such independent communities. Fortunately, these three communities talk to each other from time to time to ‘compare notes’. This meeting provided an excellent example of such fruitful interaction. Fundamental issues in statistical inference from data will not go away. With the exponential growth of data in Astronomy there is a great need for further interaction of astronomers with experts in other fields.

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