

Computing and Statistical Data Analysis

2005/06 University of London Lectures

PH4515 and HEP PhD students

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- [Course web page:](#)

`http://www.pp.rhul.ac.uk/~cowan/stat_course`

- [Tentative schedule for 2005:](#)

Mostly Mondays 12:00 to 13:00 and 14:00 to 15:00

(with a few exceptions to be announced).

Course aims

- Understand role of uncertainty and probability in relating experiment and theory.
- Understand statistical tools needed for analysis of experimental data.
- Practice using statistics on the computer.
- Learn computing tools for High Energy Physics.

Books

G. Cowan, *Statistical Data Analysis*, Clarendon, Oxford, 1998

see also alephwww.cern.ch/~cowan/stat

R.J. Barlow, *Statistics: A Guide to the Use of Statistical Methods in the Physical Sciences*, Wiley, 1989

see also hepwww.ph.man.ac.uk/~roger/book.html

L. Lyons, *Statistics for Nuclear and Particle Physics*, CUP, 1986

W. Eadie et al., *Statistical Methods in Experimental Physics*, North-Holland, 1971

S. Brandt, *Statistical and Computational Methods in Data Analysis*, Springer, New York, 1998

comes with FORTRAN and C program library on CD

S. Eidelman et al., *Physics Letters B* 592, 1 (2004); see also pdg.lbl.gov.

[sections on probability, statistics, Monte Carlo](#)

Exercises (almost every week)

Tools (flexible):

C++

ROOT, MINUIT, etc.

gnuplot?

other (???)

non-computer exercises

Half-day tutorial/workshop for HEP PhD students

At a central venue, date to be decided

Assessment

for PhD students: exercises (100%)

for MSc/MSci students: exercises and written exam

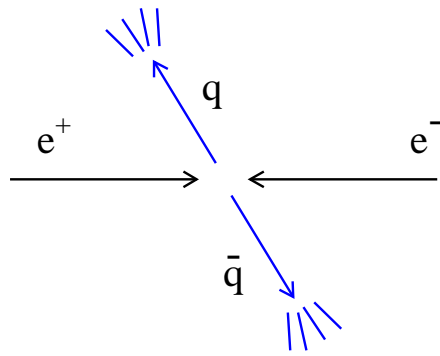
- **Probability.** Definition and interpretation, Bayes' theorem, random variables, probability density functions, expectation values, transformation of variables, error propagation.
- **Examples of probability functions.** Binomial, multinomial, Poisson, uniform, exponential, Gaussian, chi-square, Cauchy distributions.
- **The Monte Carlo method.** Random number generators, the transformation method, the acceptance-rejection method.
- **Statistical tests.** Significance and power of a test, choice of the critical region. Constructing test statistics: the Fisher discriminant, neural networks. Testing goodness-of-fit, χ^2 -test, P -values.
- **Parameter estimation: general concepts.** Samples, estimators, bias. Estimators for mean, variance, covariance.
- **The method of maximum likelihood.** The likelihood function, ML estimators for parameters of Gaussian and exponential distributions. Variance of ML estimators, the information inequality, extended ML, ML with binned data.
- **The method of least squares.** Relation to maximum likelihood, linear least squares fit, LS with binned data, testing goodness-of-fit, combining measurements with least squares.
- **Interval estimation.** Classical confidence intervals: with Gaussian distributed estimator, for mean of Poisson variable. Setting limits, limits near a physical boundary.
- **Unfolding.** Formulation of the problem: response function and matrix. Inversion of the response matrix, bin-by-bin correction factors. Regularized unfolding: regularization functions, bias and variance of estimators, choice of regularization parameter.

1. **Probability**

- (a) definition
- (b) interpretation
- (c) Bayes' theorem

2. **Random variables**

- (a) probability densities and derived quantities



Observe n events
of a certain type

Measure characteristics of each event (angles, event shapes
particle multiplicity, number found for a given $\int Ldt, \dots$)

Theories (e.g. SM) predict distributions of these properties
up to free parameters, e.g. $\alpha, G_F, M_Z, \alpha_s, m_H, \dots$

Some tasks of statistical data analysis:

Estimate the parameters.

Quantify the uncertainty of the parameter estimates.

Test to what extent the predictions of a theory are in agreement
with the data.

There are various elements of **uncertainty** :

theory is not deterministic,

random measurement errors,

things we could know in principle but don't,...

→ quantify using **PROBABILITY**

Definition of probability

Consider a set S with subsets A, B, \dots

For all $A \subset S$, $P(A) \geq 0$

$$P(S) = 1$$

If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

Kolmogorov axioms
(1933)

From these axioms one can derive further properties e.g.

$$P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

$$P(A \cup \bar{A}) = 1$$

$$P(\emptyset) = 0$$

if $A \subset B$, then $P(A) \leq P(B)$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

Also define conditional probability of A given B (with $P(B) \neq 0$) as

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

Subsets A, B independent if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.

If A, B independent, $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A)$

N.B. do not confuse with disjoint subsets, i.e. $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

I. Relative frequency

A, B, \dots are outcomes of a repeatable experiment

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{outcome is } A}{n}$$

(cf. quantum mechanics, particle scattering, radioactive decay, ...)

II. Subjective probability

A, B, \dots are hypotheses (statements that are true or false)

$P(A)$ = degree of belief that A is true

- Both interpretations consistent with Kolmogorov axioms
- Data analysis in HEP: frequency interpretation often most natural, but subjective probability has some attractive features, e.g. more natural treatment of phenomena that are not repeatable:

Systematic errors (same upon repetition of experiment)

The particle in this event was a positron

Nature is supersymmetric

Billionth digit of π is 7

It will rain tomorrow (uncertain future event)

It rained in Cairo on March 8, 1587 (uncertain past event)

What is $P(0.118 \leq \alpha_s \leq 0.122)$?

Frequentist: 0 or 1 (but I don't know which)

Subjectivist (Bayesian): 68% (statement of knowledge)

i.e. $P(0.118 \leq \alpha_s \leq 0.122) = 0.68$ (subjective) means:

my uncertainty that $0.118 \leq \alpha_s \leq 0.122$ is same as uncertainty to draw white ball out of container of 100 balls, 68 of which are white.

(cf. G. D'Agostini, CERN Yellow Report 99-03, July 1999)

→ **Calibration** by relation to frequency (or symmetry, betting, etc.)

If a large group of Bayesians say things like:

$$P(\text{Brazil will win 2002 World Cup}) = 68\%$$

$$P(0.118 \leq \alpha_s \leq 0.122) = 68\%$$

$$P(\text{Al Gore president in 2001}) = 68\%$$

then 68% of these statements should wind up being true.

N.B. Calibration not always feasible, e.g.

$$P(\text{Ivanov will win chess tournament in Tomsk in 2017}) = ???$$

Attempt to rescue frequency: can $P(0.118 \leq \alpha_s \leq 0.122) = 68\%$ mean,

Consider an ensemble of universes in which Nature assigns different values of α_s ; 68% of these will have α_s in $[0.118, 0.122]$ (???)

Fine ... but this is just a way of phrasing degree of belief.

Bayes' theorem

From the definition of conditional probability,

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \quad \text{and} \quad P(B|A) = \frac{P(B \cap A)}{P(A)},$$

but $P(A \cap B) = P(B \cap A)$, so

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

Bayes' theorem

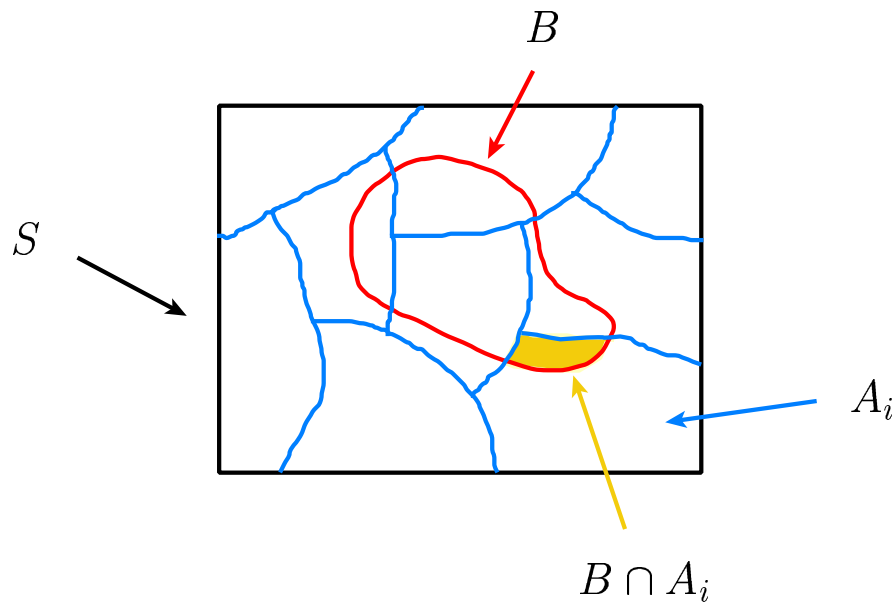
First published (posthumously) by
the Reverend Thomas Bayes
(1702–1761)



An essay towards solving a problem in the doctrine of chances,
Philos. Trans. R. Soc. **53** (1763) 370.
Reprinted in *Biometrika*, **45** (1958) 293.

The law of total probability

Consider a subset B of the sample space S ,



divided into disjoint subsets A_i such that $\cup_i A_i = S$,

$$\rightarrow B = B \cap S = B \cap (\cup_i A_i) = \cup_i (B \cap A_i)$$

$$\rightarrow P(B) = P(\cup_i (B \cap A_i)) = \sum_i P(B \cap A_i) \quad (\text{since } B \cap A_i \text{ disjoint})$$

$$\rightarrow P(B) = \sum_i P(B|A_i) P(A_i) \quad (\text{law of total probability})$$

Bayes' theorem becomes

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

Suppose the probabilities (for anyone) to have AIDS are:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{AIDS}) &= 0.001 && \leftarrow \text{prior probabilities, i.e.} \\ P(\text{no AIDS}) &= 0.999 && \text{before any test carried out} \end{aligned}$$

Consider an AIDS test: result is + or –

$$\begin{aligned} P(+|\text{AIDS}) &= 0.98 && \leftarrow \text{probabilities to (in)correctly} \\ P(-|\text{AIDS}) &= 0.02 && \text{identify AIDS infected person} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(+|\text{no AIDS}) &= 0.03 && \leftarrow \text{probabilities to (in)correctly} \\ P(-|\text{no AIDS}) &= 0.97 && \text{identify person without AIDS} \end{aligned}$$

Suppose your result is +. How worried should you be?

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{AIDS}|+) &= \frac{P(+|\text{AIDS}) P(\text{AIDS})}{P(+|\text{AIDS}) P(\text{AIDS}) + P(+|\text{no AIDS}) P(\text{no AIDS})} \\ &= \frac{0.98 \times 0.001}{0.98 \times 0.001 + 0.03 \times 0.999} \\ &= 0.032 && \leftarrow \text{posterior probability} \end{aligned}$$

i.e. you're probably OK!

Your viewpoint: my degree of belief that I have AIDS is 3.2%

Your doctor's viewpoint: 3.2% of people like this guy will have AIDS

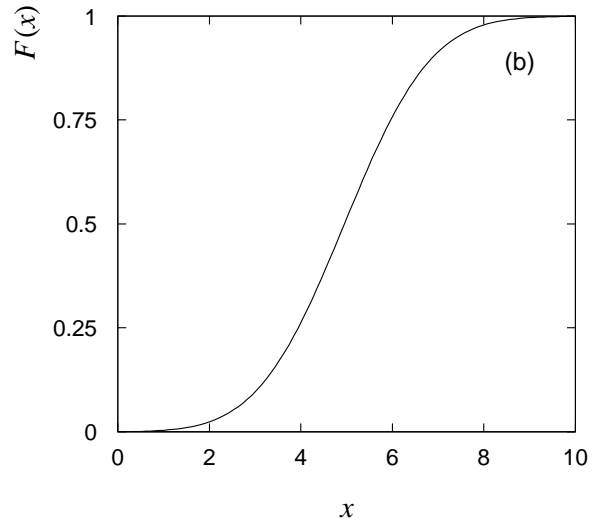
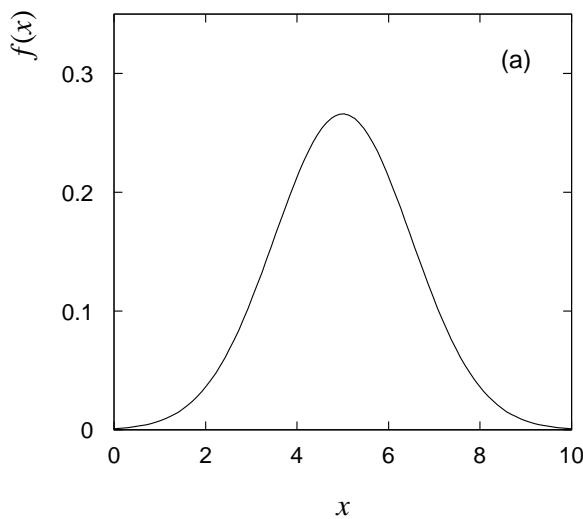
Suppose outcome of experiment is x (label for element of sample space)

$$P(x \text{ found in } [x, x + dx]) = f(x) dx$$

→ $f(x)$ = probability density function (pdf)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1 \quad (x \text{ must be somewhere})$$

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(x') dx' \quad \leftarrow \text{cumulative distribution function}$$



For discrete case:

$$f_i = P(x_i)$$

$$\sum_i f_i = 1$$

$$F(x) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} P(x_i)$$

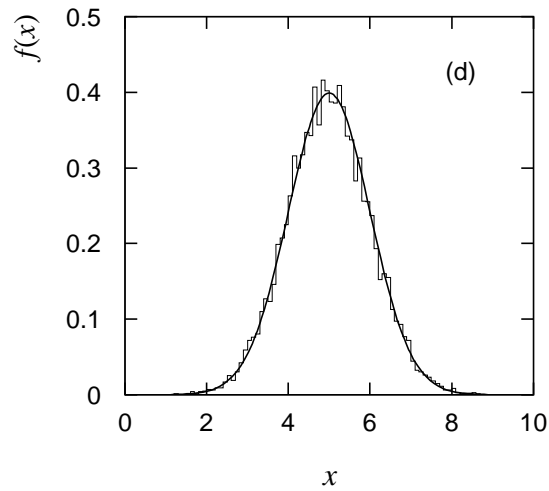
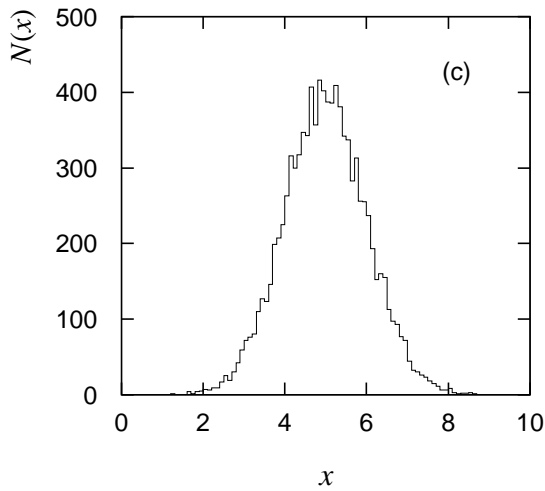
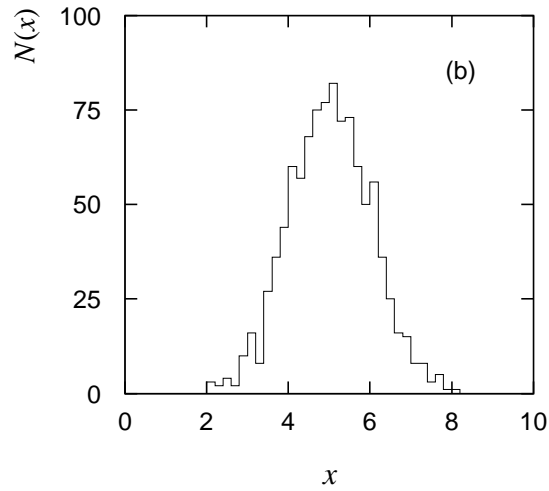
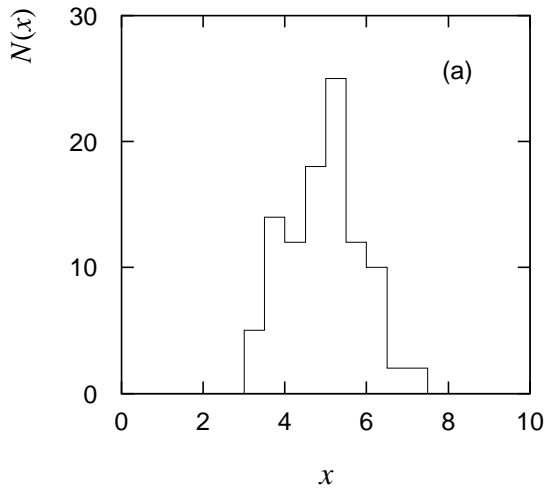
Histograms

pdf = histogram with:

infinite data sample

zero bin width

normalized to unit area

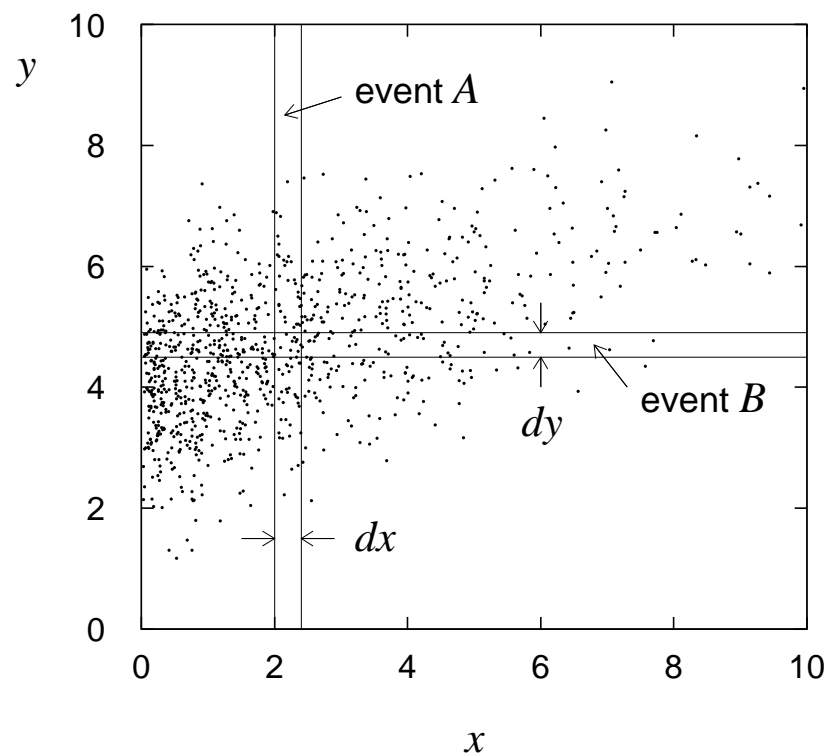


$$f(x) = \frac{N(x)}{n\Delta x}$$

n = number of entries

Δx = bin width

Outcome characterized by > 1 quantity, e.g. x and y

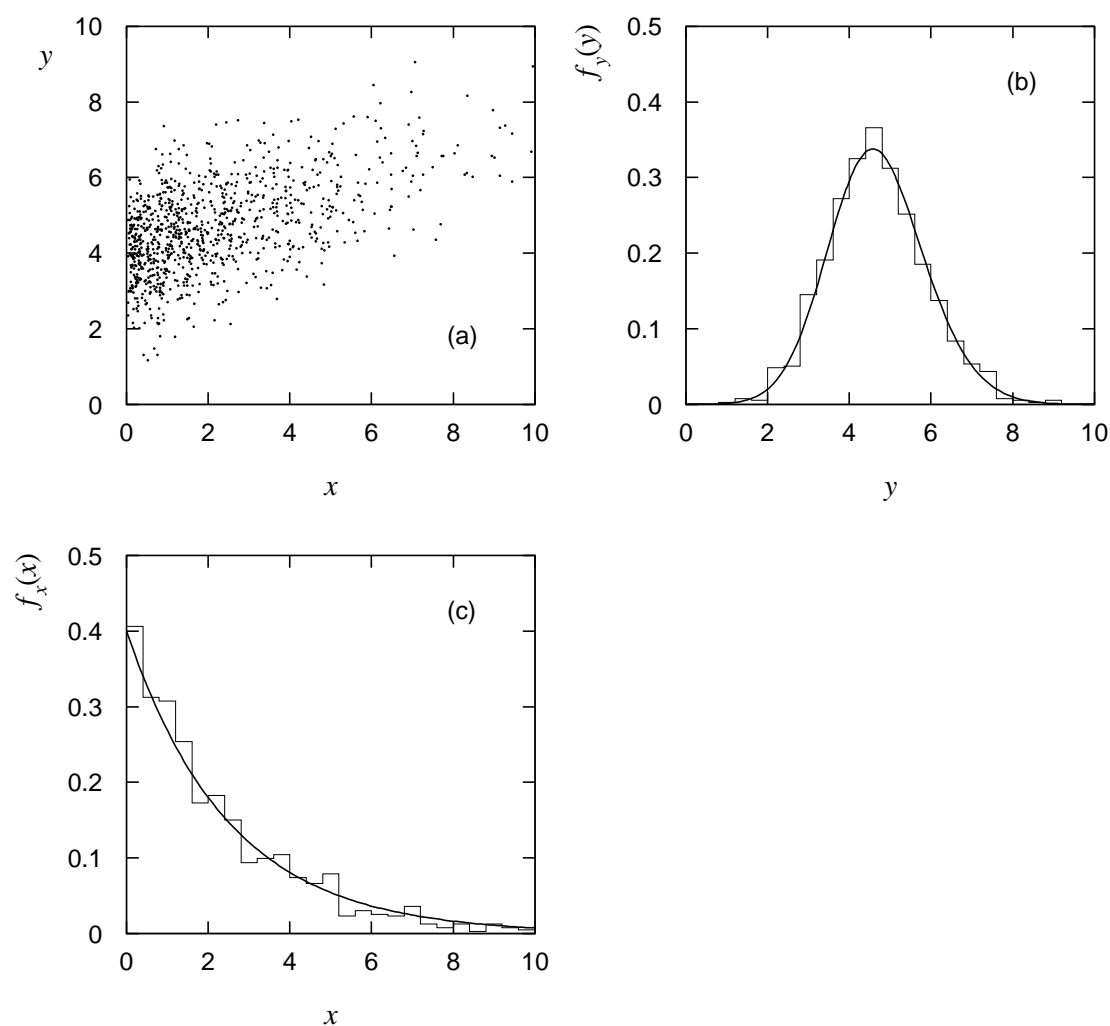


$$P(A \cap B) = \int \int f(x, y) dx dy$$

→ $f(x, y) =$ joint pdf

$$\int \int f(x, y) dx dy = 1$$

Projections of joint pdf (scatter plot) onto x , y axes:



$$f_x(x) = \int f(x, y) dy$$

$$f_y(y) = \int f(x, y) dx$$

→ $f_x(x)$, $f_y(y)$ = marginal pdfs

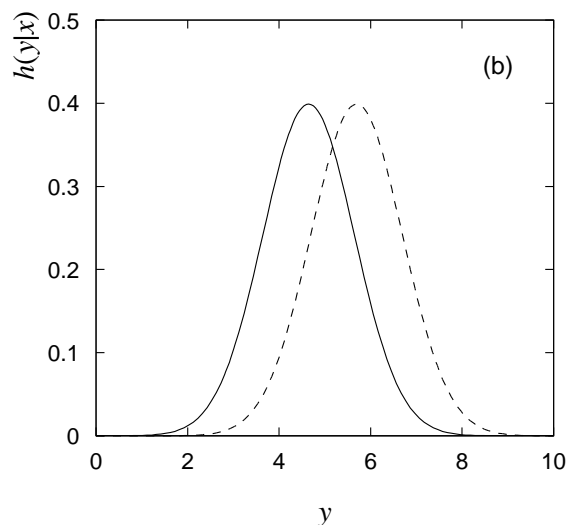
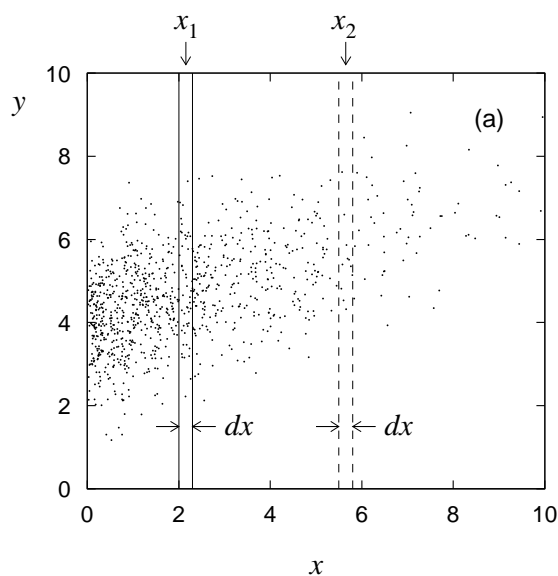
Recall conditional probability:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} = \frac{f(x, y) dx dy}{f_x(x) dx}$$

Define $h(y|x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_x(x)}$

$$g(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_y(y)}$$

↙ conditional pdfs
↘



Bayes' theorem becomes

$$g(x|y) = \frac{h(y|x) f_x(x)}{f_y(y)}$$

Recall A, B independent if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

⇒ x, y independent if $f(x, y) = f_x(x) f_y(y)$

1. Probability

- (a) definition: Kolmogorov axioms + conditional probability
- (b) interpretation: frequency or degree of belief
- (c) Bayes' theorem

2. Random variables

- (a) probability density functions (pdf), e.g. $f(x)$
- (b) cumulative distribution functions, $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(x') dx'$
- (c) joint pdf, e.g. $f(x, y)$
- (d) marginal pdf, e.g. $f_x(x) = \int f(x, y) dy$
- (e) conditional pdf, e.g. $g(x|y) = f(x, y) / f_y(y)$