Introduction to Statistics – Day 2

Lecture 1

Probability

Random variables, probability densities, etc.

\longrightarrow Lecture 2

Brief catalogue of probability densities The Monte Carlo method.

Lecture 3

Statistical tests

Fisher discriminants, neural networks, etc Significance and goodness-of-fit tests

Lecture 4

Parameter estimation

Maximum likelihood and least squares

Interval estimation (setting limits)

Some distributions

Distribution/pdf Example use in HEP

Binomial Branching ratio

Multinomial Histogram with fixed N

Poisson Number of events found

Uniform Monte Carlo method

Exponential Decay time

Gaussian Measurement error

Chi-square Goodness-of-fit

Cauchy Mass of resonance

Landau Ionization energy loss

Binomial distribution

Consider *N* independent experiments (Bernoulli trials):

outcome of each is 'success' or 'failure', probability of success on any given trial is p.

Define discrete r.v. n = number of successes $(0 \le n \le N)$.

Probability of a specific outcome (in order), e.g. 'ssfsf' is

$$pp(1-p)p(1-p) = p^{n}(1-p)^{N-n}$$

But order not important; there are $\frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!}$

ways (permutations) to get n successes in N trials, total probability for n is sum of probabilities for each permutation.

Binomial distribution (2)

The binomial distribution is therefore

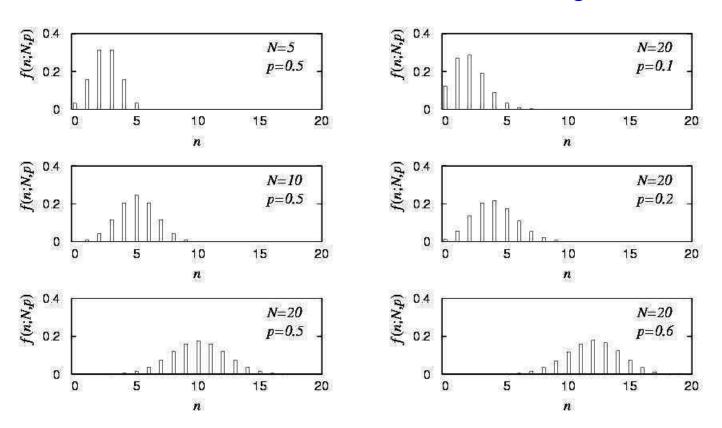
$$f(n; N, p) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^n (1-p)^{N-n}$$
random parameters
variable

For the expectation value and variance we find:

$$E[n] = \sum_{n=0}^{N} nf(n; N, p) = Np$$
$$V[n] = E[n^{2}] - (E[n])^{2} = Np(1-p)$$

Binomial distribution (3)

Binomial distribution for several values of the parameters:



Example: observe N decays of W^{\pm} , the number n of which are $W \rightarrow \mu \nu$ is a binomial r.v., p = branching ratio.

Multinomial distribution

Like binomial but now m outcomes instead of two, probabilities are

$$\vec{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_m), \text{ with } \sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1.$$

For *N* trials we want the probability to obtain:

 n_1 of outcome 1,

 n_2 of outcome 2,

. . .

 n_m of outcome m.

This is the multinomial distribution for $\vec{n} = (n_1, \dots, n_m)$

$$f(\vec{n}; N, \vec{p}) = \frac{N!}{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_m!} p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_m^{n_m}$$

Multinomial distribution (2)

Now consider outcome *i* as 'success', all others as 'failure'.

 \rightarrow all n_i individually binomial with parameters N, p_i

$$E[n_i] = Np_i, \quad V[n_i] = Np_i(1-p_i)$$
 for all i

One can also find the covariance to be

$$V_{ij} = Np_i(\delta_{ij} - p_j)$$

Example: $\vec{n} = (n_1, \dots, n_m)$ represents a histogram with m bins, N total entries, all entries independent.

Poisson distribution

Consider binomial *n* in the limit

$$N \to \infty$$
,

$$p \rightarrow 0$$
,

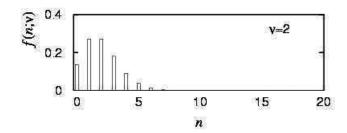
$$N \to \infty, \qquad p \to 0, \qquad E[n] = Np \to \nu.$$

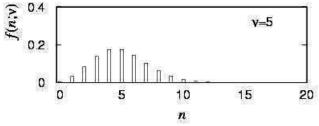
 $\rightarrow n$ follows the Poisson distribution:

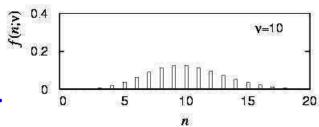
$$f(n; \nu) = \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu} \quad (n \ge 0)$$

$$E[n] = \nu \,, \quad V[n] = \nu \,.$$

Example: number of scattering events n with cross section σ found for a fixed integrated luminosity, with $\nu = \sigma \int L dt$.







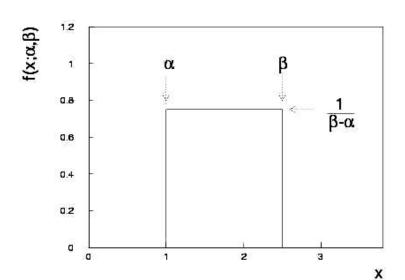
Uniform distribution

Consider a continuous r.v. x with $-\infty < x < \infty$. Uniform pdf is:

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} & \alpha \le x \le \beta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$E[x] = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta)$$

$$V[x] = \frac{1}{12}(\beta - \alpha)^2$$



N.B. For any r.v. x with cumulative distribution F(x), y = F(x) is uniform in [0,1].

Example: for $\pi^0 \to \gamma \gamma$, E_{γ} is uniform in $[E_{\min}, E_{\max}]$, with

$$E_{\min} = \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi} (1 - \beta), \quad E_{\max} = \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi} (1 + \beta)$$

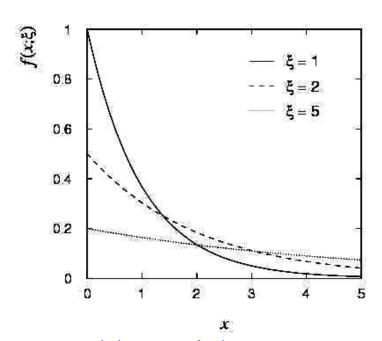
Exponential distribution

The exponential pdf for the continuous r.v. x is defined by:

$$f(x;\xi) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\xi}e^{-x/\xi} & x \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$E[x] = \xi$$

$$V[x] = \xi^2$$



Example: proper decay time t of an unstable particle

$$f(t;\tau) = \frac{1}{\tau}e^{-t/\tau}$$
 (τ = mean lifetime)

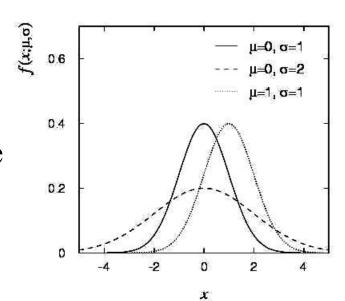
Lack of memory (unique to exponential): $f(t - t_0 | t \ge t_0) = f(t)$

Gaussian distribution

The Gaussian (normal) pdf for a continuous r.v. x is defined by:

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

 $E[x] = \mu$ (N.B. often μ , σ^2 denote mean, variance of any $V[x] = \sigma^2$ r.v., not only Gaussian.)



Special case: $\mu = 0$, $\sigma^2 = 1$ ('standard Gaussian'):

$$\varphi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$$
, $\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \varphi(x') dx'$

If $y \sim \text{Gaussian with } \mu$, σ^2 , then $x = (y - \mu) / \sigma$ follows $\varphi(x)$.

Gaussian pdf and the Central Limit Theorem

The Gaussian pdf is so useful because almost any random variable that is a sum of a large number of small contributions follows it. This follows from the Central Limit Theorem:

For *n* independent r.v.s x_i with finite variances σ_i^2 , otherwise arbitrary pdfs, consider the sum

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

In the limit $n \to \infty$, y is a Gaussian r.v. with

$$E[y] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i$$
 $V[y] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i^2$

Measurement errors are often the sum of many contributions, so frequently measured values can be treated as Gaussian r.v.s.

Central Limit Theorem (2)

The CLT can be proved using characteristic functions (Fourier transforms), see, e.g., SDA Chapter 10.

For finite n, the theorem is approximately valid to the extent that the fluctuation of the sum is not dominated by one (or few) terms.



Beware of measurement errors with non-Gaussian tails.

Good example: velocity component v_x of air molecules.

OK example: total deflection due to multiple Coulomb scattering. (Rare large angle deflections give non-Gaussian tail.)

Bad example: energy loss of charged particle traversing thin gas layer. (Rare collisions make up large fraction of energy loss, cf. Landau pdf.)

Multivariate Gaussian distribution

Multivariate Gaussian pdf for the vector $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$:

$$f(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, V) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |V|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})^T V^{-1} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})\right]$$

 \vec{x} , $\vec{\mu}$ are column vectors, \vec{x}^T , $\vec{\mu}^T$ are transpose (row) vectors,

$$E[x_i] = \mu_i, \,, \quad \operatorname{cov}[x_i, x_j] = V_{ij} \,.$$

For n = 2 this is

$$f(x_1, x_2, ; \mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \rho) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}$$

$$\times \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\left(\frac{x_1-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{x_2-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right)^2 - 2\rho\left(\frac{x_1-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)\left(\frac{x_2-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right)\right]\right\}$$

where $\rho = \text{cov}[x_1, x_2]/(\sigma_1 \sigma_2)$ is the correlation coefficient.

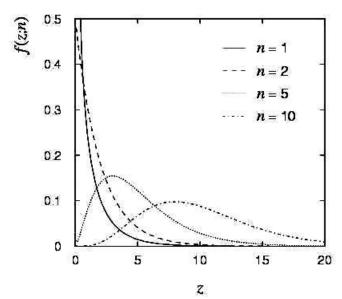
Chi-square (χ^2) distribution

The chi-square pdf for the continuous r.v. z ($z \ge 0$) is defined by

$$f(z;n) = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}\Gamma(n/2)} z^{n/2-1} e^{-z/2} \quad {\rm g}^{0.5}$$

n = 1, 2, ... = number of 'degrees of freedom' (dof)

$$E[z] = n, \quad V[z] = 2n.$$



For independent Gaussian x_i , i = 1, ..., n, means μ_i , variances σ_i^2 ,

$$z = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(x_i - \mu_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$
 follows χ^2 pdf with n dof.

Example: goodness-of-fit test variable especially in conjunction with method of least squares.

Cauchy (Breit-Wigner) distribution

The Breit-Wigner pdf for the continuous r.v. x is defined by

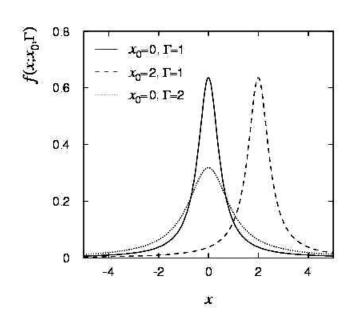
$$f(x; \Gamma, x_0) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\Gamma/2}{\Gamma^2/4 + (x - x_0)^2}$$

$$(\Gamma = 2, x_0 = 0 \text{ is the Cauchy pdf.})$$

E[x] not well defined, $V[x] \rightarrow \infty$.

 $x_0 = \text{mode (most probable value)}$

 Γ = full width at half maximum



Example: mass of resonance particle, e.g. ρ , K^* , ϕ^0 , ...

 Γ = decay rate (inverse of mean lifetime)

Landau distribution

For a charged particle with $\beta = v/c$ traversing a layer of matter of thickness d, the energy loss Δ follows the Landau pdf:

$$f(\Delta; \beta) = \frac{1}{\xi} \phi(\lambda) ,$$

$$\phi(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \exp(-u \ln u - \lambda u) \sin \pi u \, du ,$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\xi} \left[\Delta - \xi \left(\ln \frac{\xi}{\epsilon'} + 1 - \gamma_E \right) \right] ,$$

$$\xi = \frac{2\pi N_A e^4 z^2 \rho \sum Z}{m_E c^2 \sum A} \frac{d}{\beta^2} , \qquad \epsilon' = \frac{I^2 \exp \beta^2}{2m_E c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2} .$$

L. Landau, J. Phys. USSR 8 (1944) 201; see alsoW. Allison and J. Cobb, Ann. Rev. Nucl. Part. Sci. 30 (1980) 253.

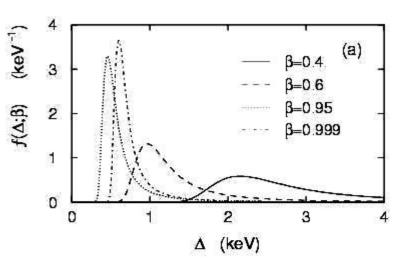
Landau distribution (2)

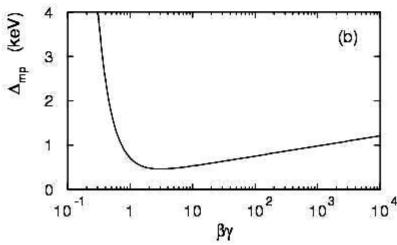
Long 'Landau tail'

 \rightarrow all moments ∞

Mode (most probable value) sensitive to β ,

→ particle i.d.

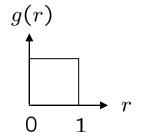




The Monte Carlo method

What it is: a numerical technique for calculating probabilities and related quantities using sequences of random numbers.

The usual steps:



- (1) Generate sequence $r_1, r_2, ..., r_m$ uniform in [0, 1].
- (2) Use this to produce another sequence $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ distributed according to some pdf f(x) in which we're interested (x can be a vector).
- (3) Use the x values to estimate some property of f(x), e.g., fraction of x values with a < x < b gives $\int_a^b f(x) dx$.
 - → MC calculation = integration (at least formally)

MC generated values = 'simulated data'

→ use for testing statistical procedures

Random number generators

```
Goal: generate uniformly distributed values in [0, 1].
       Toss coin for e.g. 32 bit number... (too tiring).
       → 'random number generator'
        = computer algorithm to generate r_1, r_2, ..., r_n.
Example: multiplicative linear congruential generator (MLCG)
       n_{i+1} = (a n_i) \mod m, where
       n_i = integer
       a = \text{multiplier}
       m = modulus
       n_0 = seed (initial value)
N.B. mod = modulus (remainder), e.g. 27 mod 5 = 2.
```

This rule produces a sequence of numbers $n_0, n_1, ...$

Random number generators (2)

The sequence is (unfortunately) periodic!

Example (see Brandt Ch 4):
$$a = 3$$
, $m = 7$, $n_0 = 1$
 $n_1 = (3 \cdot 1) \mod 7 = 3$
 $n_2 = (3 \cdot 3) \mod 7 = 2$
 $n_3 = (3 \cdot 2) \mod 7 = 6$
 $n_4 = (3 \cdot 6) \mod 7 = 4$
 $n_5 = (3 \cdot 4) \mod 7 = 5$
 $n_6 = (3 \cdot 5) \mod 7 = 1$ \leftarrow sequence repeats

Choose a, m to obtain long period (maximum = m-1); m usually close to the largest integer that can represented in the computer.

Only use a subset of a single period of the sequence.

Random number generators (3)

 $r_i = n_i/m$ are in [0, 1] but are they 'random'?

Choose a, m so that the r_i pass various tests of randomness:

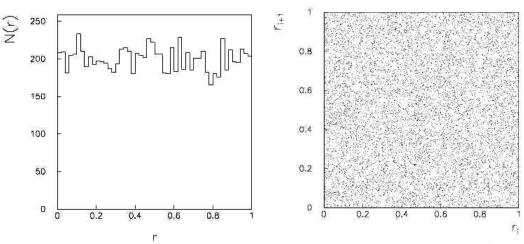
uniform distribution in [0, 1],

all values independent (no correlations between pairs),

e.g. L'Ecuyer, Commun. ACM 31 (1988) 742 suggests

$$a = 40692$$

 $m = 2147483399$

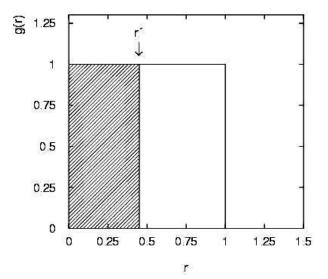


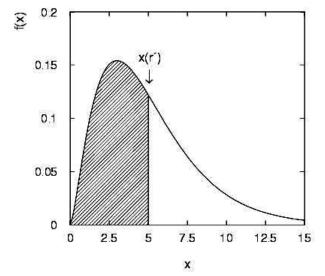
Far better algorithms available, e.g. **TRandom3**, period $2^{19937} - 1$

See F. James, Comp. Phys. Comm. 60 (1990) 111; Brandt Ch. 4

The transformation method

Given $r_1, r_2,..., r_n$ uniform in [0, 1], find $x_1, x_2,..., x_n$ that follow f(x) by finding a suitable transformation x(r).





Require: $P(r \le r') = P(x \le x(r'))$

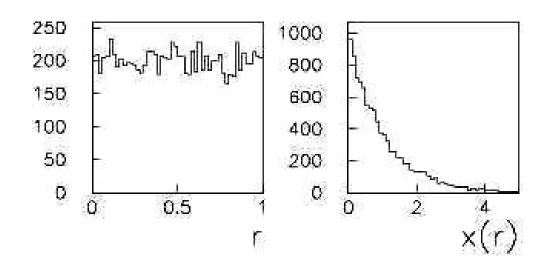
i.e.
$$\int_{-\infty}^{r'} g(r) dr = r' = \int_{-\infty}^{x(r')} f(x') dx' = F(x(r'))$$

Example of the transformation method

Exponential pdf:
$$f(x;\xi) = \frac{1}{\xi}e^{-x/\xi}$$
 $(x \ge 0)$

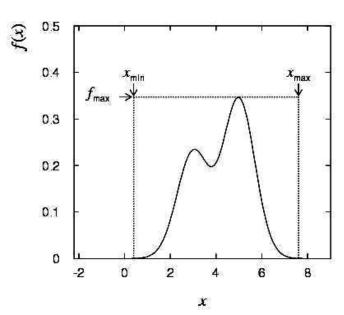
Set
$$\int_0^x \frac{1}{\xi} e^{-x'/\xi} dx' = r$$
 and solve for $x(r)$.

$$\rightarrow x(r) = -\xi \ln(1-r) \quad (x(r) = -\xi \ln r \text{ works too.})$$



The acceptance-rejection method

Enclose the pdf in a box:



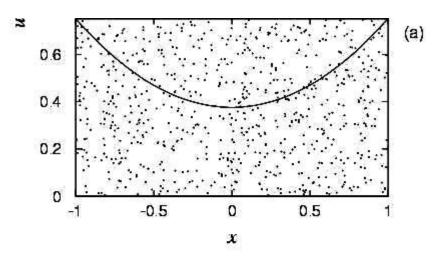
- (1) Generate a random number x, uniform in $[x_{\min}, x_{\max}]$, i.e. $x = x_{\min} + r_1(x_{\max} x_{\min})$, r_1 is uniform in [0,1].
- (2) Generate a 2nd independent random number u uniformly distributed between 0 and f_{max} , i.e. $u = r_2 f_{\text{max}}$.
- (3) If u < f(x), then accept x. If not, reject x and repeat.

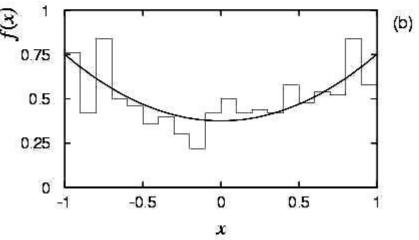
Example with acceptance-rejection method

$$f(x) = \frac{3}{8}(1+x^2)$$

$$(-1 \le x \le 1)$$

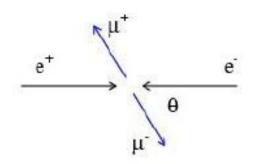
If dot below curve, use *x* value in histogram.





Monte Carlo event generators

Simple example: $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$



Generate $\cos \theta$ and ϕ :

$$f(\cos\theta; A_{\text{FB}}) \propto (1 + \frac{8}{3}A_{\text{FB}}\cos\theta + \cos^2\theta) ,$$

$$g(\phi) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \quad (0 \le \phi \le 2\pi)$$

Less simple: 'event generators' for a variety of reactions:

 $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$, hadrons, ...

pp → hadrons, D-Y, SUSY,...

e.g. PYTHIA, HERWIG, ISAJET...

Output = 'events', i.e., for each event we get a list of generated particles and their momentum vectors, types, etc.

A simulated event Event listing (summary) I particle/jet KS orig $P_{-}X$ 0,000 0.000 7000.000 7000.000 0,000 0.000 0.000 209 211 0.140 0.407 0.000 211 0.113 0.000 111 0.021 0,135 111 111 0.135 0.000 -211 211 321 -211 0.007 0.140 21 3 21 -4 21 1000022 218 0.140 111 111 -311 410 (pi0) -211 321 111 310 412 413 0.140 414 1.078 1,132 0.111 2,109 321 -211 417 pi-0.316 0.140 -2112 3,111 111 0.135 211 111 0.217 1,971 0.140 2112 -211 0.940 0.140 -0.0120.000 0.000 0.140 111 -211 111 0.135 **PYTHIA Monte Carlo** 1,141

pp → gluino-gluino

Monte Carlo detector simulation

Takes as input the particle list and momenta from generator.

Simulates detector response:

multiple Coulomb scattering (generate scattering angle), particle decays (generate lifetime), ionization energy loss (generate Δ), electromagnetic, hadronic showers, production of signals, electronics response, ...

Output = simulated raw data → input to reconstruction software: track finding, fitting, etc.

Predict what you should see at 'detector level' given a certain hypothesis for 'generator level'. Compare with the real data.

Estimate 'efficiencies' = #events found / # events generated.

Programming package: GEANT

Wrapping up lecture 2

We've looked at a number of important distributions:
Binomial, Multinomial, Poisson, Uniform, Exponential
Gaussian, Chi-square, Cauchy, Landau,

and we've seen the Monte Carlo method:

calculations based on sequences of random numbers, used to simulate particle collisions, detector response.

So far, we've mainly been talking about probability.

But suppose now we are faced with experimental data. We want to infer something about the (probabilistic) processes that produced the data.

This is statistics, the main subject of the next two lectures.