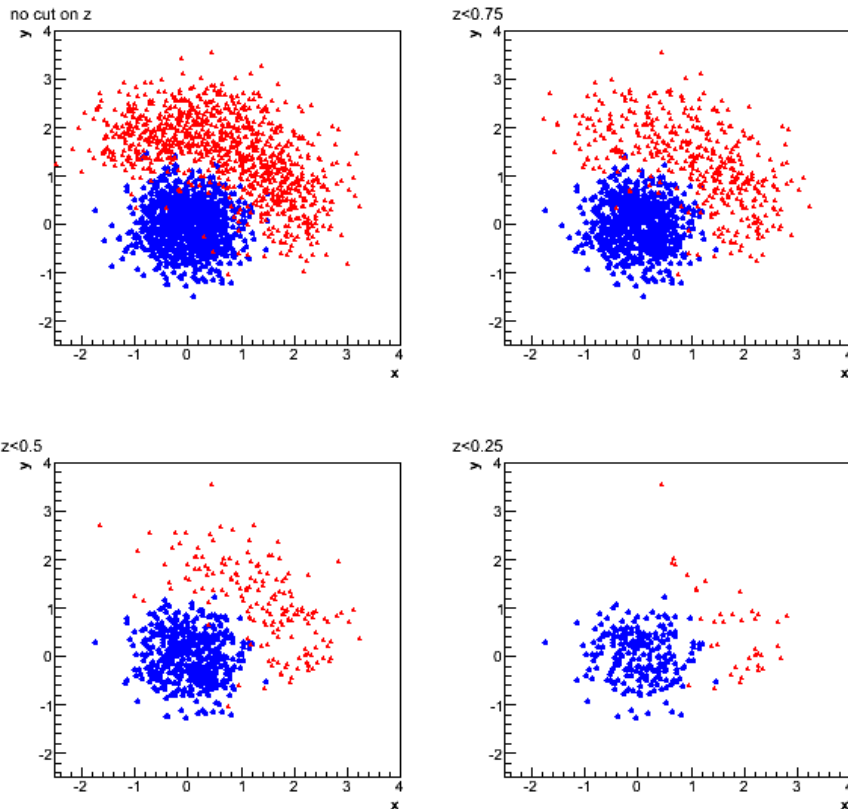


# Pre-lecture 11 comments on problem sheet 7

Problem sheet 7 involves modifying some C++ programs to create a Fisher discriminant and neural network to separate two types of events (signal and background):



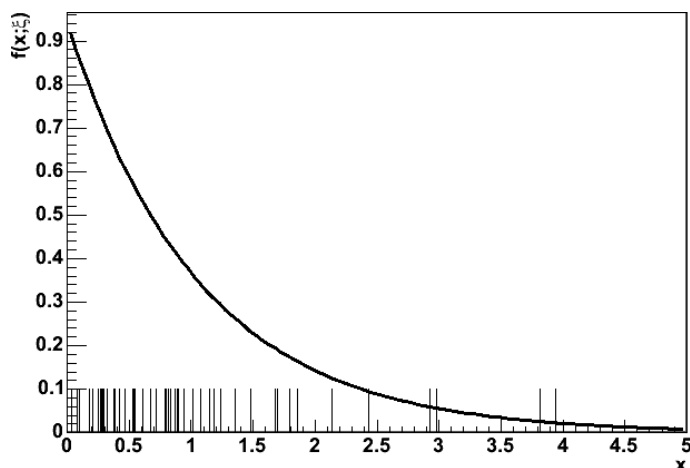
Each event is characterized by 3 numbers:  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$ .

Each "event" (instance of  $x, y, z$ ) corresponds to a "row" in an  $n$ -tuple. (here, a 3-tuple).

In ROOT,  $n$ -tuples are stored in objects of the `TTree` class.

# Comments on problem sheet 7

Problem sheet 7 also involves an ML fit using the root class `TMinuit`, which numerically minimizes the (negative) log-likelihood function.




An MC program is used to generate data from exponential, then the parameter is fitted using `TMinuit` (see code).

You then modify the code to do the problem of a mixture of exponentials:

$$f(x; \alpha, \xi_1, \xi_2) = \alpha \frac{1}{\xi_1} e^{-x/\xi_1} + (1 - \alpha) \frac{1}{\xi_2} e^{-x/\xi_2}$$

# Statistical Data Analysis: Lecture 11

- 1 Probability, Bayes' theorem
- 2 Random variables and probability densities
- 3 Expectation values, error propagation
- 4 Catalogue of pdfs
- 5 The Monte Carlo method
- 6 Statistical tests: general concepts
- 7 Test statistics, multivariate methods
- 8 Goodness-of-fit tests
- 9 Parameter estimation, maximum likelihood
- 10 More maximum likelihood
-  11 **Method of least squares**
- 12 Interval estimation, setting limits
- 13 Nuisance parameters, systematic uncertainties
- 14 Examples of Bayesian approach

# The method of least squares

Suppose we measure  $N$  values,  $y_1, \dots, y_N$ , assumed to be independent Gaussian r.v.s with

$$E[y_i] = \lambda(x_i; \theta) .$$

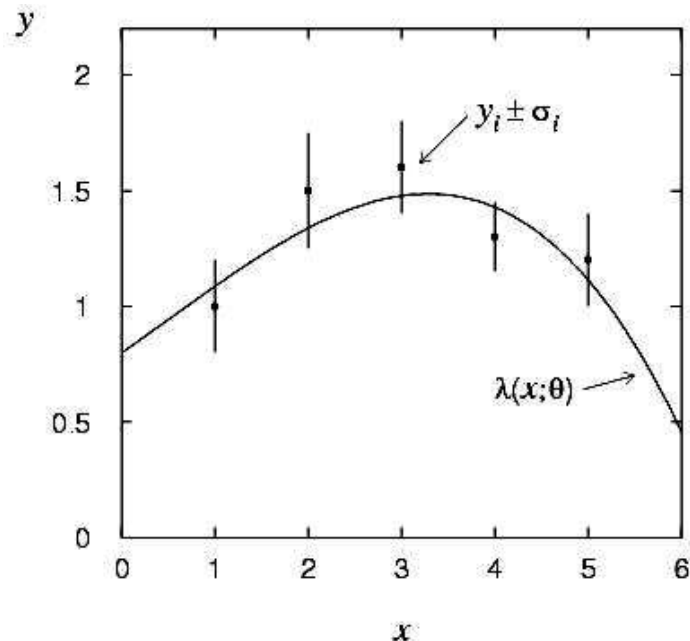
Assume known values of the control variable  $x_1, \dots, x_N$  and known variances

$$V[y_i] = \sigma_i^2 .$$

We want to estimate  $\theta$ , i.e., fit the curve to the data points.

The likelihood function is

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N f(y_i; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_i} \exp \left[ -\frac{(y_i - \lambda(x_i; \theta))^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right]$$



## The method of least squares (2)

The log-likelihood function is therefore

$$\ln L(\theta) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_i - \lambda(x_i; \theta))^2}{\sigma_i^2} + \text{terms not depending on } \theta$$

So maximizing the likelihood is equivalent to minimizing

$$\chi^2(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_i - \lambda(x_i; \theta))^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

Minimum defines the least squares (LS) estimator  $\hat{\theta}$ .

Very often measurement errors are  $\sim$ Gaussian and so ML and LS are essentially the same.

Often minimize  $\chi^2$  numerically (e.g. program MINUIT).

# LS with correlated measurements

If the  $y_i$  follow a multivariate Gaussian, covariance matrix  $V$ ,

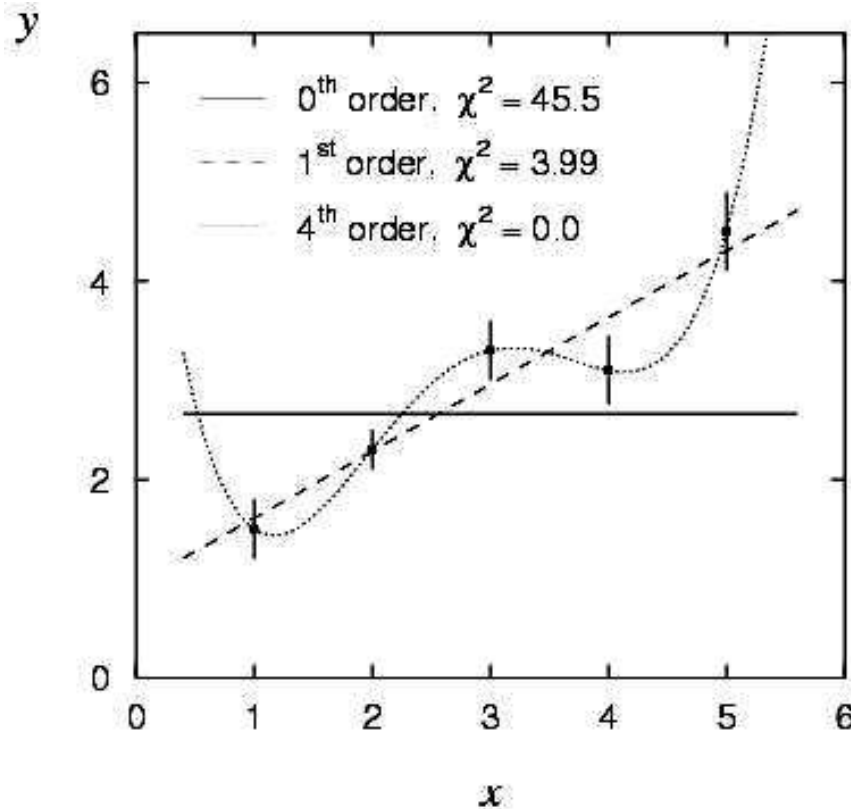
$$g(\vec{y}, \vec{\lambda}, V) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{N/2} |V|^{1/2}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (\vec{y} - \vec{\lambda})^T V^{-1} (\vec{y} - \vec{\lambda}) \right]$$

Then maximizing the likelihood is equivalent to minimizing

$$\chi^2(\vec{\theta}) = \sum_{i,j=1}^N (y_i - \lambda(x_i; \vec{\theta})) (V^{-1})_{ij} (y_j - \lambda(x_j; \vec{\theta}))$$

# Example of least squares fit

Fit a polynomial of order  $p$ :  $\lambda(x; \theta_0, \dots, \theta_p) = \sum_{n=0}^p \theta_n x^n$



# Variance of LS estimators

In most cases of interest we obtain the variance in a manner similar to ML. E.g. for data  $\sim$  Gaussian we have

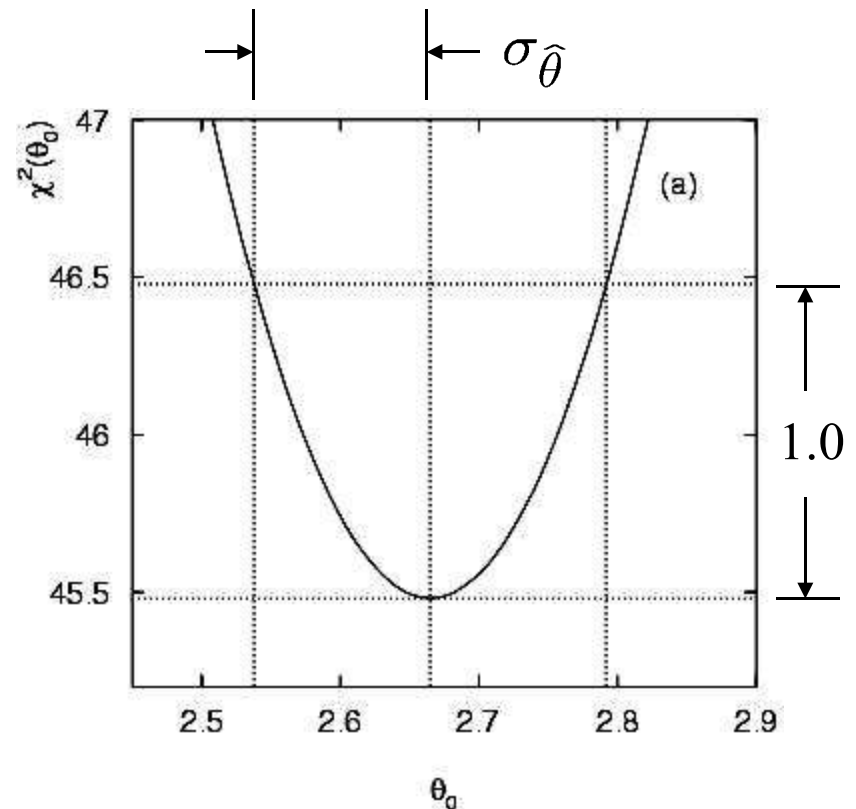
$$\chi^2(\theta) = -2 \ln L(\theta)$$

and so

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\theta}}^2 \approx 2 \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \chi^2}{\partial \theta^2} \right]_{\theta=\hat{\theta}}^{-1}$$

or for the graphical method we take the values of  $\theta$  where

$$\chi^2(\theta) = \chi_{\min}^2 + 1$$





# Two-parameter LS fit

2-parameter case (line with nonzero slope):

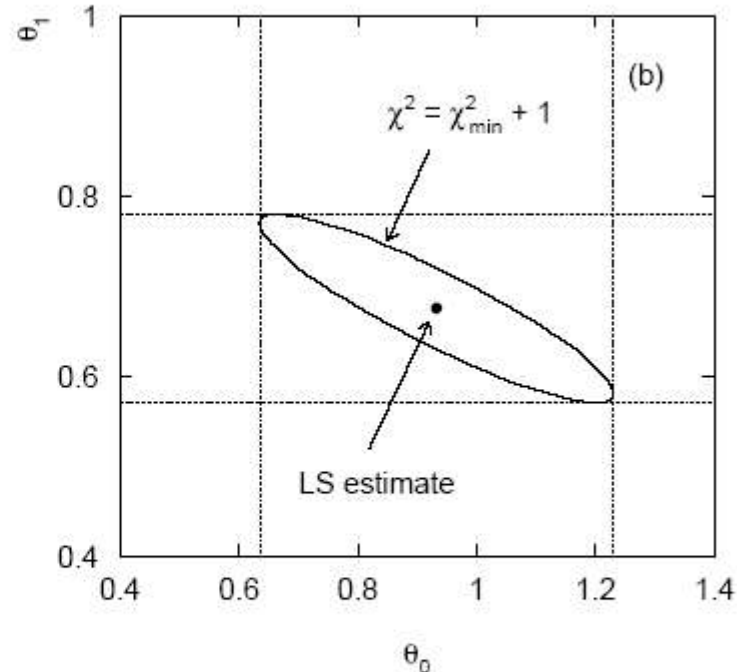
$$\hat{\theta}_0 = 0.93 \pm 0.30,$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 = 0.68 \pm 0.10$$

$$\widehat{\text{cov}}[\hat{\theta}_0, \hat{\theta}_1] = -0.028$$

$$r = -0.90$$

$$\chi^2 = 3.99$$



Tangent lines  $\rightarrow \sigma_{\hat{\theta}_0}, \sigma_{\hat{\theta}_1}$ .

Angle of ellipse  $\rightarrow$  correlation (same as for ML)

# Goodness-of-fit with least squares

The value of the  $\chi^2$  at its minimum is a measure of the level of agreement between the data and fitted curve:

$$\chi_{\min}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_i - \lambda(x_i; \hat{\theta}))^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

It can therefore be employed as a goodness-of-fit statistic to test the hypothesized functional form  $\lambda(x; \theta)$ .

We can show that if the hypothesis is correct, then the statistic  $t = \chi_{\min}^2$  follows the chi-square pdf,

$$f(t; n_d) = \frac{1}{2^{n_d/2} \Gamma(n_d/2)} t^{n_d/2-1} e^{-t/2}$$

where the number of degrees of freedom is

$$n_d = \text{number of data points} - \text{number of fitted parameters}$$

## Goodness-of-fit with least squares (2)

The chi-square pdf has an expectation value equal to the number of degrees of freedom, so if  $\chi^2_{\min} \approx n_d$  the fit is ‘good’.

More generally, find the  $p$ -value: 
$$p = \int_{\chi^2_{\min}}^{\infty} f(t; n_d) dt$$

This is the probability of obtaining a  $\chi^2_{\min}$  as high as the one we got, or higher, if the hypothesis is correct.

E.g. for the previous example with 1st order polynomial (line),

$$\chi^2_{\min} = 3.99, \quad n_d = 5 - 2 = 3, \quad p = 0.263$$

whereas for the 0th order polynomial (horizontal line),

$$\chi^2_{\min} = 45.5, \quad n_d = 5 - 1 = 4, \quad p = 3.1 \times 10^{-9}$$

# Goodness-of-fit vs. statistical errors

Small statistical error does not mean a good fit (nor vice versa).

Curvature of  $\chi^2$  near its minimum  $\rightarrow$  statistical errors ( $\sigma_{\hat{\theta}}$ )

Value of  $\chi_{\min}^2 \rightarrow$  goodness-of-fit

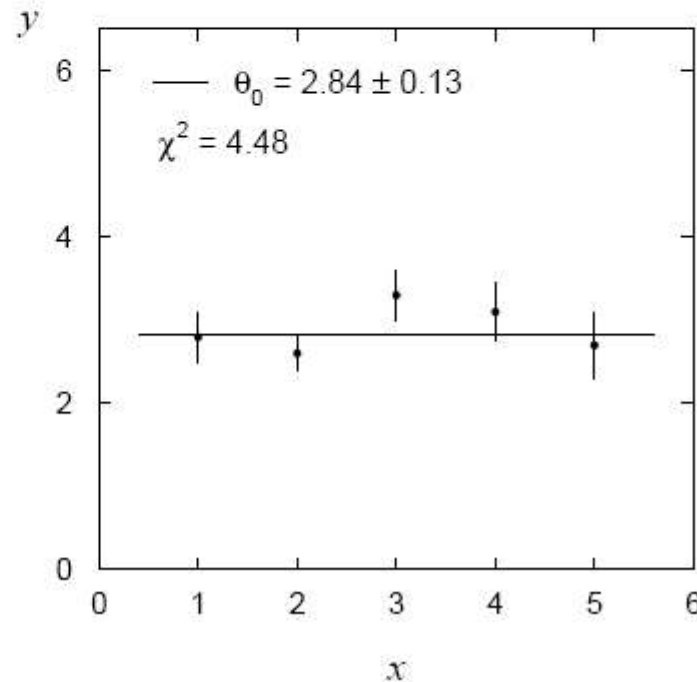
Horizontal line fit, move the data points, keep errors on points same:

$$\hat{\theta}_0 = 2.84 \pm 0.13$$

$$\chi_{\min}^2 = 4.48$$

Variance same as before,

now  $\chi_{\min}^2$  'good'.



## Goodness-of-fit vs. stat. errors (2)

→  $\chi^2(\theta_0)$  shifted down, same curvature as before.

Variance of estimator (statistical error) tells us:

if experiment repeated many times, how wide is the distribution of the estimates  $\hat{\theta}$ . (Doesn't tell us whether hypothesis correct.)

$P$ -value tells us:

if hypothesis is correct and experiment repeated many times, what fraction will give equal or worse agreement between data and hypothesis according to the statistic  $\chi_{\min}^2$ .

Low  $P$ -value → hypothesis may be wrong → **systematic error**.

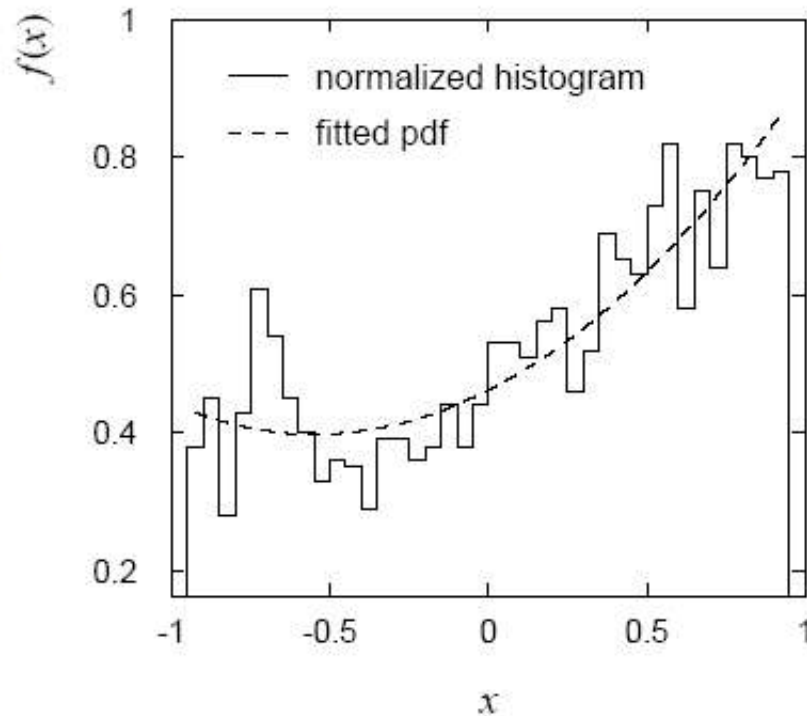
# LS with binned data

Histogram:

$N$  bins,  $n$  entries.

Hypothesized pdf:

$$f(x; \vec{\theta})$$



We have

$y_i$  = number of entries in bin  $i$ ,

$$\lambda_i(\vec{\theta}) = n \int_{x_i^{\min}}^{x_i^{\max}} f(x; \vec{\theta}) dx = np_i(\vec{\theta})$$

## LS with binned data (2)

LS fit: minimize

$$\chi^2(\vec{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_i - \lambda_i(\vec{\theta}))^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

where  $\sigma_i^2 = V[y_i]$ , here not known a priori.

Treat the  $y_i$  as Poisson r.v.s, in place of true variance take either

$$\sigma_i^2 = \lambda_i(\vec{\theta}) \quad (\text{LS method})$$

$$\sigma_i^2 = y_i \quad (\text{Modified LS method})$$

MLS sometimes easier computationally, but  $\chi_{\min}^2$  no longer follows chi-square pdf (or is undefined) if some bins have few (or no) entries.

# LS with binned data — normalization

Do **not** 'fit the normalization':

$$\lambda_i(\vec{\theta}, \nu) = \nu \int_{x_i^{\min}}^{x_i^{\max}} f(x; \vec{\theta}) dx = \nu p_i(\vec{\theta})$$

i.e. introduce adjustable  $\nu$ , fit along with  $\vec{\theta}$ .

$\hat{\nu}$  is a bad estimator for  $n$  (which we know, anyway!)

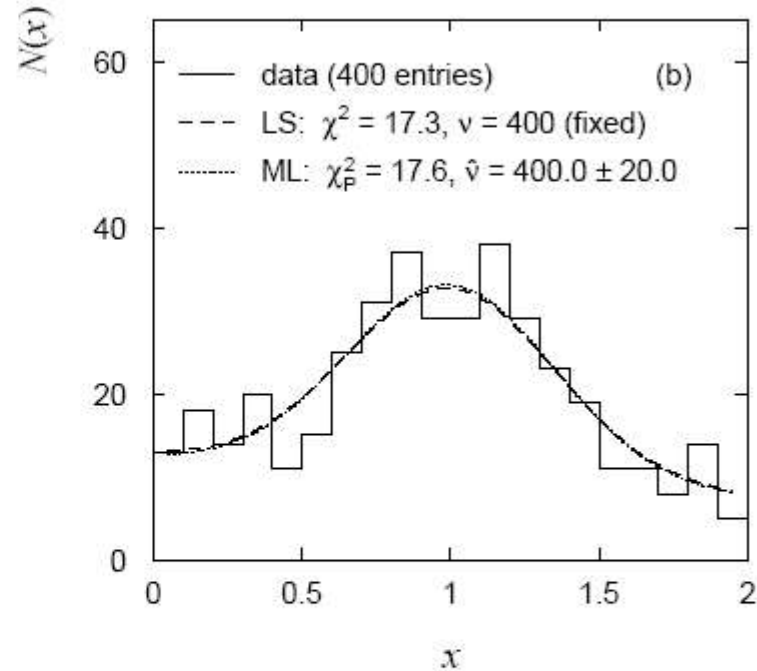
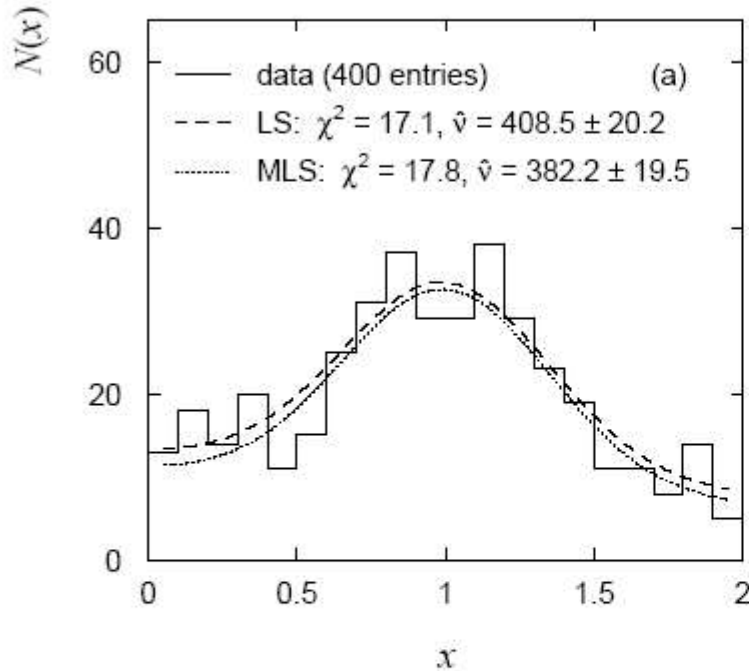
$$\hat{\nu}_{\text{LS}} = n + \frac{\chi_{\min}^2}{2}$$

$$\hat{\nu}_{\text{MLS}} = n - \chi_{\min}^2$$



# LS normalization example

Example with  $n = 400$  entries,  $N = 20$  bins:



Expect  $\chi_{\min}^2$  around  $N - m$ ,

→ relative error in  $\hat{v}$  large when  $N$  large,  $n$  small

Either get  $n$  directly from data for LS (or better, use ML).

# Using LS to combine measurements

Use LS to obtain weighted average of  $N$  measurements of  $\lambda$ :

$y_i$  = result of measurement  $i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$ ;

$\sigma_i^2 = V[y_i]$ , assume known;

$\lambda$  = true value (plays role of  $\theta$ ).

For uncorrelated  $y_i$ , minimize

$$\chi^2(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_i - \lambda)^2}{\sigma_i^2},$$

Set  $\frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial \lambda} = 0$  and solve,

$$\rightarrow \hat{\lambda} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N y_i / \sigma_i^2}{\sum_{j=1}^N 1 / \sigma_j^2} \quad V[\hat{\lambda}] = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^N 1 / \sigma_i^2}$$

# Combining correlated measurements with LS

If  $\text{cov}[y_i, y_j] = V_{ij}$ , minimize

$$\chi^2(\lambda) = \sum_{i,j=1}^N (y_i - \lambda)(V^{-1})_{ij}(y_j - \lambda),$$

$$\rightarrow \hat{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i y_i, \quad w_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N (V^{-1})_{ij}}{\sum_{k,l=1}^N (V^{-1})_{kl}}$$

$$V[\hat{\lambda}] = \sum_{i,j=1}^N w_i V_{ij} w_j$$

LS  $\hat{\lambda}$  has zero bias, minimum variance (Gauss–Markov theorem).

# Example: averaging two correlated measurements

Suppose we have  $y_1, y_2$ , and  $V = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\rightarrow \hat{\lambda} = wy_1 + (1-w)y_2, \quad w = \frac{\sigma_2^2 - \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2}$$

$$V[\hat{\lambda}] = \frac{(1-\rho^2)\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2\rho\sigma_1\sigma_2} = \sigma^2$$

The increase in inverse variance due to 2nd measurement is

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} = \frac{1}{1-\rho^2} \left( \frac{\rho}{\sigma_1} - \frac{1}{\sigma_2} \right)^2 > 0$$

$\rightarrow$  2nd measurement can only help.

# Negative weights in LS average

If  $\rho > \sigma_1/\sigma_2$ ,  $\rightarrow w < 0$ ,

$\rightarrow$  weighted average is not between  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  (!?)

Cannot happen if correlation due to common data, but possible for shared random effect; very unreliable if e.g.

$\rho$ ,  $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_2$  incorrect.

See example in SDA Section 7.6.1 with two measurements at same temperature using two rulers, different thermal expansion coefficients:

average is outside the two measurements; used to improve estimate of temperature.

# Wrapping up lecture 11

Considering ML with Gaussian data led to the method of Least Squares.

Several caveats when the data are not (quite) Gaussian, e.g., histogram-based data.

Goodness-of-fit with LS “easy” (but do not confuse good fit with small stat. errors)

LS can be used for averaging measurements.

Next lecture: Interval estimation