Statistical Data Analysis: Lecture 4

- 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

Some distributions

Distribution/pdf Binomial Multinomial Poisson Uniform Exponential Gaussian Chi-square Cauchy Landau

Example use in HEP **Branching ratio** Histogram with fixed NNumber of events found Monte Carlo method Decay time Measurement error Goodness-of-fit Mass of resonance 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

$$\frac{1}{n!(N-n)!}$$

 \mathbf{M}

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:

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

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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

$$\vec{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_m)$$
, 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

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

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

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

 \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:



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

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Exponential distribution

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



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): $f(t - t_0 | t \ge t_0) = f(t)$

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Gaussian distribution

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

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

$$E[x] = \mu$$

$$K[x] = \mu$$

$$F[x] = \mu$$

$$F[x] = \sigma^2$$

$$F[$$

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

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

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

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μ=0, σ=1 μ=0, σ=2 μ=1, σ=1

0

x

2

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

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

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

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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.)

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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,

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

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

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Chi-square (χ^2) distribution

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

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

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 ,

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

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

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Cauchy (Breit-Wigner) distribution

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

$$f(x; \Gamma, x_0) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\Gamma/2}{\Gamma^2/4 + (x - x_0)^2}$$
$$(\Gamma = 2, x_0 = 0 \text{ is the Cauchy pdf.})$$
$$E[x] \text{ not well defined, } V[x] \to \infty.$$
$$x_0 = \text{mode (most probable value)}$$

 Γ = full width at half maximum



Example: mass of resonance particle, e.g. ρ , K^{*}, ϕ^0 , ... Γ = decay rate (inverse of mean lifetime)

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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:



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

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Landau distribution (2)

Long 'Landau tail'

 \rightarrow all moments ∞

Mode (most probable value) sensitive to β , \rightarrow particle i.d.

4 (keV⁻¹) (a) B=0.43 B=0.6 $f(\Delta;\beta)$ B=0.95 2 β=0.999 1 0 3 2 0 (keV) 4 Δ_{mp} (keV) (b) 3 2 1 0 10² 10⁻¹ 103 104 10 βγ

Beta distribution

 \mathbf{n}

$$f(x;\alpha,\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}$$

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

Often used to represent pdf of continuous r.v. nonzero only between finite limits.



Gamma distribution

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}$$

$$V[x] = \alpha \beta^2$$

 $\Gamma[m] - \alpha \beta$

Often used to represent pdf of continuous r.v. nonzero only in $[0,\infty]$.

Also e.g. sum of *n* exponential r.v.s or time until *n*th event in Poisson process ~ Gamma



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Student's t distribution

$$f(x;\nu) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{\nu\pi}\,\Gamma(\nu/2)} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{\nu}\right)^{-\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}$$

$$E[x] = 0 \quad (\nu > 1)$$
$$V[x] = \frac{\nu}{\nu - 2} \quad (\nu > 2)$$

v = number of degrees of freedom (not necessarily integer)

v = 1 gives Cauchy,

 $v \rightarrow \infty$ gives Gaussian.



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Student's *t* distribution (2)

- If $x \sim$ Gaussian with $\mu = 0$, $\sigma^2 = 1$, and
 - $z \sim \chi^2$ with *n* degrees of freedom, then

 $t = x / (z/n)^{1/2}$ follows Student's t with v = n.

This arises in problems where one forms the ratio of a sample mean to the sample standard deviation of Gaussian r.v.s.

The Student's *t* provides a bell-shaped pdf with adjustable tails, ranging from those of a Gaussian, which fall off very quickly, $(v \rightarrow \infty)$, but in fact already very Gauss-like for v = two dozen), to the very long-tailed Cauchy (v = 1).

Developed in 1908 by William Gosset, who worked under the pseudonym "Student" for the Guinness Brewery. Wrapping up lecture 4

We've looked at a number of important distributions: Binomial, Multinomial, Poisson, Uniform, Exponential Gaussian, Chi-square, Cauchy, Landau, Beta, Gamma, Student's *t*

and we've seen the important Central Limit Theorem: explains why Gaussian r.v.s come up so often

For a more complete catalogue see e.g. the handbook on statistical distributions by Christian Walck from http://www.physto.se/~walck/