Statistics for Particle Physicists
Lecture 3: Hypothesis Tests, Confidence
Intervals
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## Outline

Lecture 1: Introduction, probability,

Lecture 2: Parameter estimation

 Lecture 3: Hypothesis tests and confidence intervals (some exercises <u>here</u>).

Lecture 4: Systematic uncertainties and further examples

#### Frequentist hypothesis tests

Suppose a measurement produces data x; consider a hypothesis  $H_0$  we want to test and alternative  $H_1$ 

 $H_0$ ,  $H_1$  specify probability for  $\mathbf{x}$ :  $P(\mathbf{x}|H_0)$ ,  $P(\mathbf{x}|H_1)$ 

A test of  $H_0$  is defined by specifying a critical region w of the data space such that there is no more than some (small) probability  $\alpha$ , assuming  $H_0$  is correct, to observe the data there, i.e.,

$$P(\mathbf{x} \in w \mid H_0) \le \alpha$$

Need inequality if data are discrete.

 $\alpha$  is called the size or significance level of the test.

If x is observed in the critical region, reject  $H_0$ .



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## Definition of a test (2)

But in general there are an infinite number of possible critical regions that give the same size  $\langle .$ 

Use the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  to motivate where to place the critical region.

Roughly speaking, place the critical region where there is a low probability ( $\alpha$ ) to be found if  $H_0$  is true, but high if  $H_1$  is true:



#### Classification viewed as a statistical test

Suppose events come in two possible types:

s (signal) and b (background)

For each event, test hypothesis that it is background, i.e.,  $H_0 = b$ .

Carry out test on many events, each is either of type s or b, i.e., here the hypothesis is the "true class label", which varies randomly from event to event, so we can assign to it a frequentist probability.

Select events for which where  $H_0$  is rejected as "candidate events of type s". Equivalent Particle Physics terminology:

background efficiency 
$$arepsilon_{\mathbf{b}} = \int_W f(\mathbf{x}|H_0) \, d\mathbf{x} = lpha$$

signal efficiency  $\varepsilon_{\mathbf{s}} = \int_{W} f(\mathbf{x}|H_1) \, d\mathbf{x} = 1 - \beta = \text{power}$ 

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#### Example of a test for classification



For each event in a mixture of signal (s) and background (b) test

 $H_0$ : event is of type b

using a critical region W of the form:  $W = \{x : x \le x_c\}$ , where  $x_c$  is a constant that we choose to give a test with the desired size  $\alpha$ .

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#### Classification example (2)

Suppose we want  $\alpha = 10^{-4}$ . Require:

$$\alpha = P(x \le x_{c}|b) = \int_{0}^{x_{c}} f(x|b) \, dx = \frac{4x^{4}}{4} \Big|_{0}^{x_{c}} = x_{c}^{4}$$

and therefore  $x_{
m c} = lpha^{1/4} = 0.1$ 

For this test (i.e. this critical region W), the power with respect to the signal hypothesis (s) is

$$M = P(x \le x_{\rm c}|{\rm s}) = \int_0^{x_{\rm c}} f(x|{\rm s}) \, dx = 2x_{\rm c} - x_{\rm c}^2 = 0.19$$

Note: the optimal size and power is a separate question that will depend on goals of the subsequent analysis.

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#### Classification example (3)

Suppose that the prior probabilities for an event to be of type s or b are:

 $\pi_{\rm s} = 0.001$  $\pi_{\rm b} = 0.999$ 

The "purity" of the selected signal sample (events where b hypothesis rejected) is found using Bayes' theorem:

$$P(\mathbf{s}|x \le x_{\mathbf{c}}) = \frac{P(x \le x_{\mathbf{c}}|\mathbf{s})\pi_{\mathbf{s}}}{P(x \le x_{\mathbf{c}}|\mathbf{s})\pi_{\mathbf{s}} + P(x \le x_{\mathbf{c}}|\mathbf{b})\pi_{\mathbf{b}}}$$

= 0.655

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#### Testing significance / goodness-of-fit

Suppose hypothesis *H* predicts pdf f(x|H) for a set of observations  $x = (x_1,...,x_n)$ .

We observe a single point in this space:  $x_{obs}$ .

How can we quantify the level of compatibility between the data and the predictions of *H*?

Decide what part of the data space represents equal or less compatibility with H than does the point  $x_{obs}$ . (Not unique!)



#### *p*-values

Express level of compatibility between data and hypothesis (sometimes 'goodness-of-fit') by giving the *p*-value for *H*:

 $p = P(\mathbf{x} \in \omega_{\leq}(\mathbf{x}_{obs})|H)$ 

- probability, under assumption of H, to observe data
   with equal or lesser compatibility with H relative to the
   data we got.
- probability, under assumption of H, to observe data as discrepant with H as the data we got or more so.

Basic idea: if there is only a very small probability to find data with even worse (or equal) compatibility, then *H* is "disfavoured by the data".

If the *p*-value is below a user-defined threshold  $\alpha$  (e.g. 0.05) then *H* is rejected (equivalent to hypothesis test of size  $\alpha$  as seen earlier).



The *p*-value of H is not the probability that *H* is true!

In frequentist statistics we don't talk about P(H) (unless H represents a repeatable observation).

If we do define P(H), e.g., in Bayesian statistics as a degree of belief, then we need to use Bayes' theorem to obtain

$$P(H|\vec{x}) = \frac{P(\vec{x}|H)\pi(H)}{\int P(\vec{x}|H)\pi(H) \, dH}$$

where  $\pi(H)$  is the prior probability for *H*.

For now stick with the frequentist approach; result is p-value, regrettably easy to misinterpret as P(H). The Poisson counting experiment Suppose we do a counting experiment and observe *n* events.

Events could be from *signal* process or from *background* – we only count the total number.

Poisson model:

$$P(n|s,b) = \frac{(s+b)^n}{n!}e^{-(s+b)}$$

s = mean (i.e., expected) # of signal events

*b* = mean # of background events

Goal is to make inference about *s*, e.g.,

test s = 0 (rejecting  $H_0 \approx$  "discovery of signal process")

test all non-zero s (values not rejected = confidence interval)

In both cases need to ask what is relevant alternative hypothesis.

Poisson counting experiment: discovery *p*-value Suppose b = 0.5 (known), and we observe  $n_{obs} = 5$ . Should we claim evidence for a new discovery?

Give *p*-value for hypothesis s = 0:

$$p$$
-value =  $P(n \ge 5; b = 0.5, s = 0)$   
=  $1.7 \times 10^{-4} \ne P(s = 0)!$ 



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### Significance from *p*-value

Often define significance Z as the number of standard deviations that a Gaussian variable would fluctuate in one direction to give the same p-value.



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

in ROOT: in p
p = 1 - TMath::Freq(Z) p =
Z = TMath::NormQuantile(1-p) Z =

in python (scipy.stats): p = 1 - norm.cdf(Z) = norm.sf(Z) Z = norm.ppf(1-p)

Result Z is a "number of sigmas". Note this does not mean that the original data was Gaussian distributed.

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# Poisson counting experiment: discovery significance Equivalent significance for $p = 1.7 \times 10^{-4}$ : $Z = \Phi^{-1}(1-p) = 3.6$ Often claim discovery if Z > 5 ( $p < 2.9 \times 10^{-7}$ , i.e., a "5-sigma effect")



In fact this tradition should be revisited: *p*-value intended to quantify probability of a signallike fluctuation assuming background only; not intended to cover, e.g., hidden systematics, plausibility signal model, compatibility of data with signal, "look-elsewhere effect" (~multiple testing), etc.

#### Confidence intervals by inverting a test

In addition to a 'point estimate' of a parameter we should report an interval reflecting its statistical uncertainty.

Confidence intervals for a parameter  $\theta$  can be found by defining a test of the hypothesized value  $\theta$  (do this for all  $\theta$ ):

Specify values of the data that are 'disfavoured' by  $\theta$ (critical region) such that  $P(\text{data in critical region} | \theta) \le \alpha$ for a prespecified  $\alpha$ , e.g., 0.05 or 0.1.

If data observed in the critical region, reject the value  $\theta$ .

Now invert the test to define a confidence interval as:

set of  $\theta$  values that are not rejected in a test of size  $\alpha$  (confidence level CL is  $1 - \alpha$ ).

Relation between confidence interval and *p*-value

Equivalently we can consider a significance test for each hypothesized value of  $\theta$ , resulting in a *p*-value,  $p_{\theta}$ .

If  $p_{\theta} \leq \alpha$ , then we reject  $\theta$ .

The confidence interval at  $CL = 1 - \alpha$  consists of those values of  $\theta$  that are not rejected.

E.g. an upper limit on  $\theta$  is the greatest value for which  $p_{\theta} > \alpha$ .

In practice find by setting  $p_{\theta} = \alpha$  and solve for  $\theta$ .

For a multidimensional parameter space  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_M)$  use same idea – result is a confidence "region" with boundary determined by  $p_{\theta} = \alpha$ .

#### Coverage probability of confidence interval

If the true value of  $\theta$  is rejected, then it's not in the confidence interval. The probability for this is by construction (equality for continuous data):

 $P(\text{reject } \theta | \theta) \leq \alpha = \text{type-I error rate}$ 

Therefore, the probability for the interval to contain or "cover"  $\theta$  is

*P*(conf. interval "covers"  $\theta | \theta \ge 1 \square \alpha$ 

This assumes that the set of  $\theta$  values considered includes the true value, i.e., it assumes the composite hypothesis  $P(\mathbf{x}|H,\theta)$ .

#### Frequentist upper limit on Poisson parameter

Consider again the case of observing  $n \sim \text{Poisson}(s + b)$ . Suppose b = 4.5,  $n_{\text{obs}} = 5$ . Find upper limit on s at 95% CL. Relevant alternative is s = 0 (critical region at low n) p-value of hypothesized s is  $P(n \le n_{\text{obs}}; s, b)$ Upper limit  $s_{\text{up}}$  at  $\text{CL} = 1 - \alpha$  found from

$$\alpha = P(n \le n_{\text{obs}}; s_{\text{up}}, b) = \sum_{n=0}^{n_{\text{obs}}} \frac{(s_{\text{up}} + b)^n}{n!} e^{-(s_{\text{up}} + b)}$$

$$s_{\rm up} = \frac{1}{2} F_{\chi^2}^{-1} (1 - \alpha; 2(n_{\rm obs} + 1)) - b$$

$$=\frac{1}{2}F_{\chi^2}^{-1}(0.95;2(5+1))-4.5=6.0$$

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#### $n \sim \text{Poisson}(s+b)$ : frequentist upper limit on s

For low fluctuation of *n*, formula can give negative result for  $s_{up}$ ; i.e. confidence interval is empty; all values of  $s \ge 0$  have  $p_s \le \alpha$ .



### Approximate confidence intervals/regions from the likelihood function

Suppose we test parameter value(s)  $\theta = (\theta_1, ..., \theta_n)$  using the ratio

$$\lambda(\theta) = \frac{L(\theta)}{L(\hat{\theta})} \qquad \qquad 0 \le \lambda(\theta) \le 1$$

Lower  $\lambda(\theta)$  means worse agreement between data and hypothesized  $\theta$ . Equivalently, usually define

$$t_{\theta} = -2\ln\lambda(\theta)$$

so higher  $t_{\theta}$  means worse agreement between  $\theta$  and the data.

*p*-value of 
$$\theta$$
 therefore  $p_{\theta} = \int_{t_{\theta,obs}}^{\infty} f(t_{\theta}|\theta) dt_{\theta}$  need pdf

#### Confidence region from Wilks' theorem

Wilks' theorem says (in large-sample limit and provided certain conditions hold...)

 $f(t_{\theta}|\theta) \sim \chi_n^2 \qquad \qquad \text{chi-square dist. with # d.o.f. =} \\ \# \text{ of components in } \theta = (\theta_1, ..., \theta_n).$ 

Assuming this holds, the *p*-value is

$$p_{m{ heta}} = 1 - F_{\chi^2_n}(t_{m{ heta}}) \quad \leftarrow \text{set equal to } lpha$$

To find boundary of confidence region set  $p_{\theta} = \alpha$  and solve for  $t_{\theta}$ :

$$t_{\theta} = F_{\chi_n^2}^{-1}(1-\alpha)$$

 $t_{\theta} = -2\ln\frac{L(\theta)}{L(\hat{\theta})}$ 

Recall also

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Confidence region from Wilks' theorem (cont.) i.e., boundary of confidence region in  $\theta$  space is where

$$\ln L(\theta) = \ln L(\hat{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2}F_{\chi_n^2}^{-1}(1-\alpha)$$

For example, for  $1 - \alpha = 68.3\%$  and n = 1 parameter,

$$F_{\chi_1^2}^{-1}(0.683) = 1$$

and so the 68.3% confidence level interval is determined by

$$\ln L(\theta) = \ln L(\hat{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2}$$

Same as recipe for finding the estimator's standard deviation, i.e.,

 $[\hat{\theta} - \sigma_{\hat{\theta}}, \hat{\theta} + \sigma_{\hat{\theta}}]$  is a 68.3% CL confidence interval.

#### Example of interval from $\ln L(\theta)$

For n=1 parameter, CL = 0.683,  $Q_{\alpha} = 1$ .



#### Multiparameter case

For increasing number of parameters,  $CL = 1 - \alpha$  decreases for confidence region determined by a given

$$Q_{\alpha} = F_{\chi_n^2}^{-1}(1-\alpha)$$

$Q_{lpha}$	1-lpha						
	n = 1	n = 2	n = 3	n = 4	n = 5		
1.0	0.683	0.393	0.199	0.090	0.037		
2.0	0.843	0.632	0.428	0.264	0.151		
4.0	0.954	0.865	0.739	0.594	0.451		
9.0	0.997	0.989	0.971	0.939	0.891		

#### Multiparameter case (cont.)

Equivalently,  $Q_{\alpha}$  increases with *n* for a given  $CL = 1 - \alpha$ .

$1 - \alpha$	$ar{Q}_{lpha}$						
	n = 1	n = 2	n = 3	n = 4	n = 5		
0.683	1.00	2.30	3.53	4.72	5.89		
0.90	2.71	4.61	6.25	7.78	9.24		
0.95	3.84	5.99	7.82	9.49	11.1		
0.99	6.63	9.21	11.3	13.3	15.1		



Limits near a boundary of the parameter space

Suppose e.g. b = 2.5 and we observe n = 0.

If we choose CL = 0.9, we find from the formula for  $s_{up}$ 

 $s_{\rm up} = -0.197$  (CL = 0.90)

Physicist:

We already knew  $s \ge 0$  before we started; can't use negative upper limit to report result of expensive experiment!

#### Statistician:

The interval is designed to cover the true value only 90% of the time — this was clearly not one of those times.

Not uncommon dilemma when testing parameter values for which one has very little experimental sensitivity, e.g., very small *s*.

#### Expected limit for s = 0

Physicist: I should have used CL = 0.95 — then  $s_{up} = 0.496$ 

Even better: for CL = 0.917923 we get  $s_{up} = 10^{-4}$  !

Reality check: with b = 2.5, typical Poisson fluctuation in n is at least  $\sqrt{2.5} = 1.6$ . How can the limit be so low?



#### Obvious where to put *W*?

In the 1930s there were great debates as to the role of the alternative hypothesis.

Fisher held that one could test a hypothesis  $H_0$  without reference to an alternative.

Suppose, e.g.,  $H_0$  predicts that x (suppose positive) usually comes out low. High values of x are less characteristic of  $H_0$ , so if a high value is observed, we should reject  $H_0$ , i.e., we put W at high x:



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#### Or not so obvious where to put W?

But what if the only relevant alternative to  $H_0$  is  $H_1$  as below:



Here high x is more characteristic of  $H_0$  and not like what we expect from  $H_1$ . So better to put W at low x.

Neyman and Pearson argued that "less characteristic of  $H_0$ " is well defined only when taken to mean "more characteristic of some relevant alternative  $H_1$ ".

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#### Type-I, Type-II errors

Rejecting the hypothesis  $H_0$  when it is true is a Type-I error.

The maximum probability for this is the size of the test:

 $P(x \in W \mid H_0) \leq \langle$ 

But we might also accept  $H_0$  when it is false, and an alternative  $H_1$  is true.

This is called a Type-II error, and occurs with probability

 $P(x \in \mathbf{S} - W | H_1) = \mathcal{B}$ 

One minus this is called the power of the test with respect to the alternative  $H_1$ :

Power =  $1 - \mathcal{R}$ 

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#### Distribution of the *p*-value

The *p*-value is a function of the data, and is thus itself a random variable with a given distribution. Suppose the *p*-value of *H* is found from a test statistic t(x) as

$$p_H = \int_t^\infty f(t'|H)dt'$$

The pdf of  $p_H$  under assumption of H is

$$g(p_H|H) = \frac{f(t|H)}{|\partial p_H/\partial t|} = \frac{f(t|H)}{f(t|H)} = 1 \quad (0 \le p_H \le 1)$$

In general for continuous data, under assumption of H,  $p_H \sim \text{Uniform}[0,1]$ and is concentrated toward zero for some (broad) class of alternatives.



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### Using a *p*-value to define test of $H_0$

One can show that under assumption of a hypothesis  $H_0$ , its p-value,  $p_0$ , follows a uniform distribution in [0,1].

So the probability to find  $p_0$  less than a given  $\alpha$  is

$$P(p_0 \le \alpha | H_0) = \alpha$$



So we can define the critical region of a test of  $H_0$  with size  $\alpha$  as the set of data space where  $p_0 \leq \alpha$ .

Formally the *p*-value relates only to  $H_0$ , but the resulting test will have a given power with respect to a given alternative  $H_1$ .