

Introduction to Statistics

CERN Summer Student Lecture Program 2012

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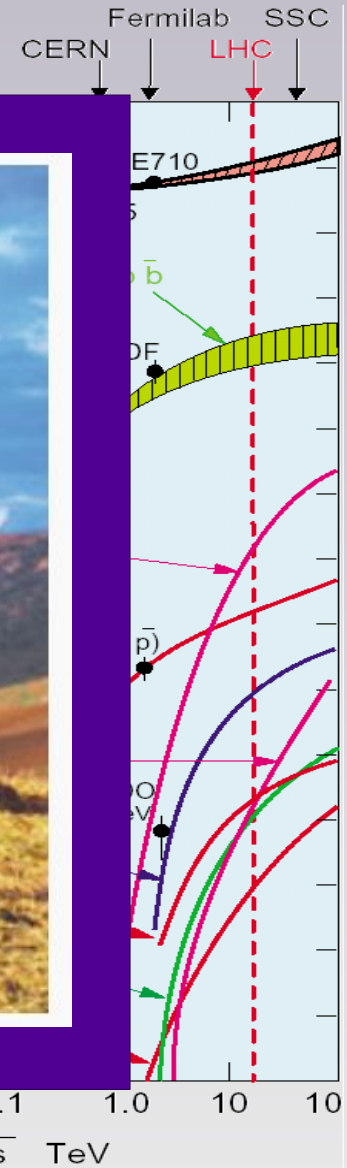


... and Machine Learning
(in the last lecture)

- **Why Statistics**
 - measurements etc...
 - review of (some) probability distributions and some of their properties
- **What is Probability :**
 - axioms
 - frequentist / Bayesian interpretation
- **Lecture 2-4**
 - Hypothesis testing
 - Maximum Likelihood fit
 - Confidence belts
 - Monte Carlo Methods (Random numbers/Integration/Re-sampling)
 - Machine Learning / Pattern Recognition

“typical” Higgs event (CMS simulation):

- ‘hidden’
- and rare



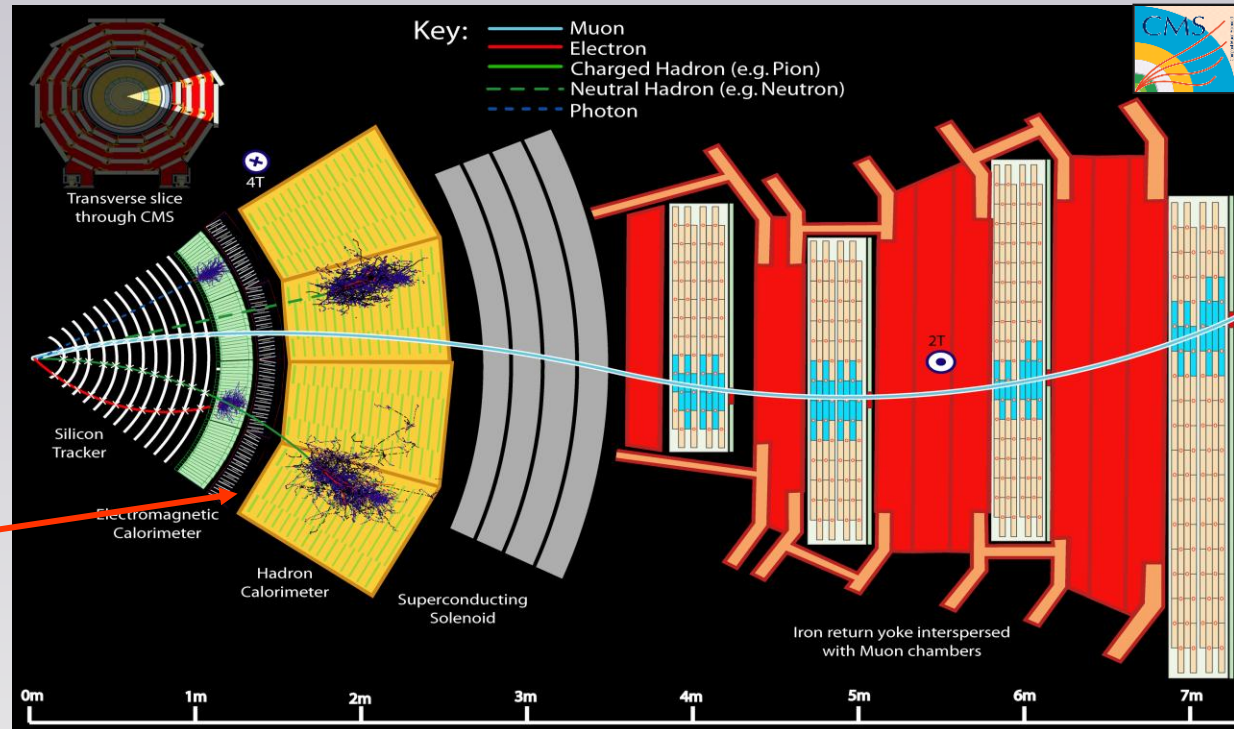
And while a the needle in the hay-stack would be already in one piece

→ particles: reconstructed from its decay products

→ decay products: reconstructed from detector signatures

→ etc..

“statistical/random”
processes



- What do we REALLY mean by:

- $m_W = 80.399_{\pm 0.023}$;
- $M_{\text{Higgs}} > 114.4 \text{ GeV}/c^2$ @95%CL

(and... how do others “interpret” this?)

- these things are results of:

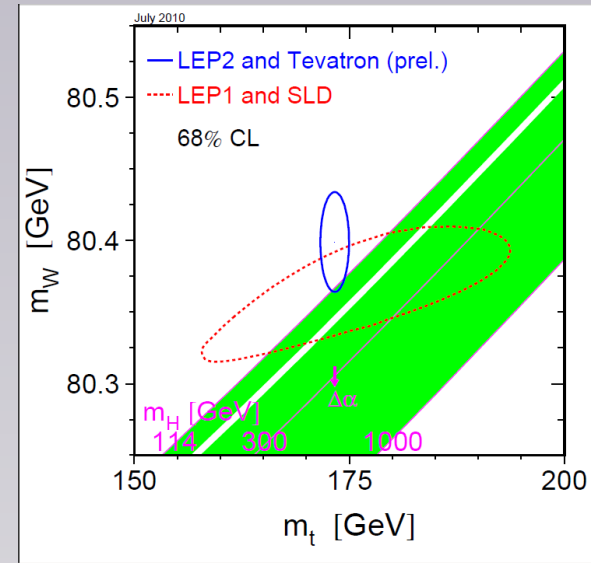
- involved measurements
- many “assumptions”/“Interpretations”

- correct statistical interpretation:

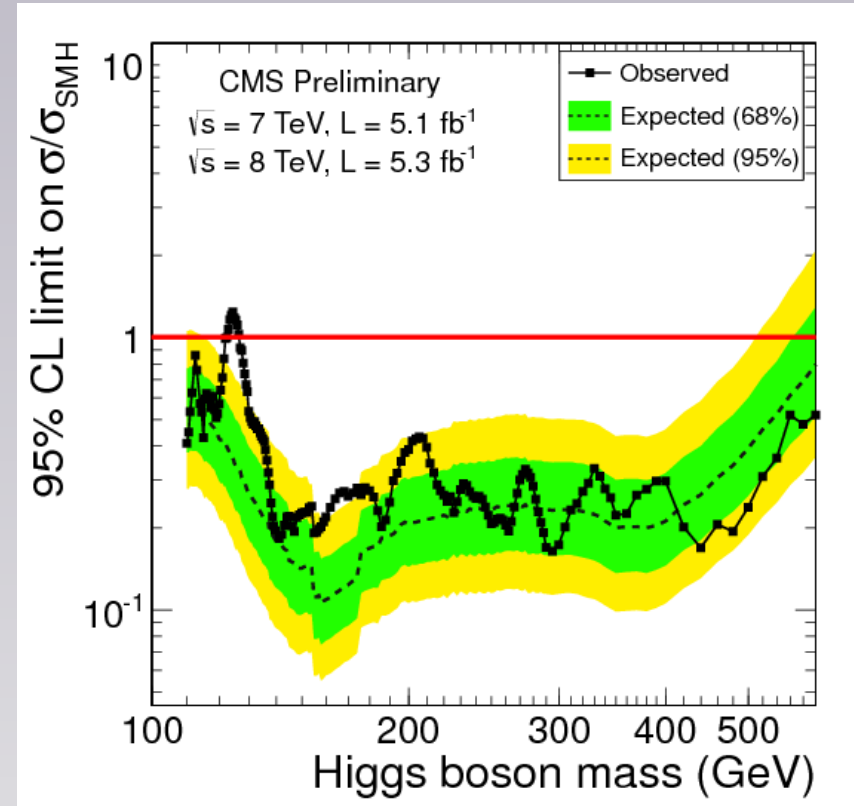
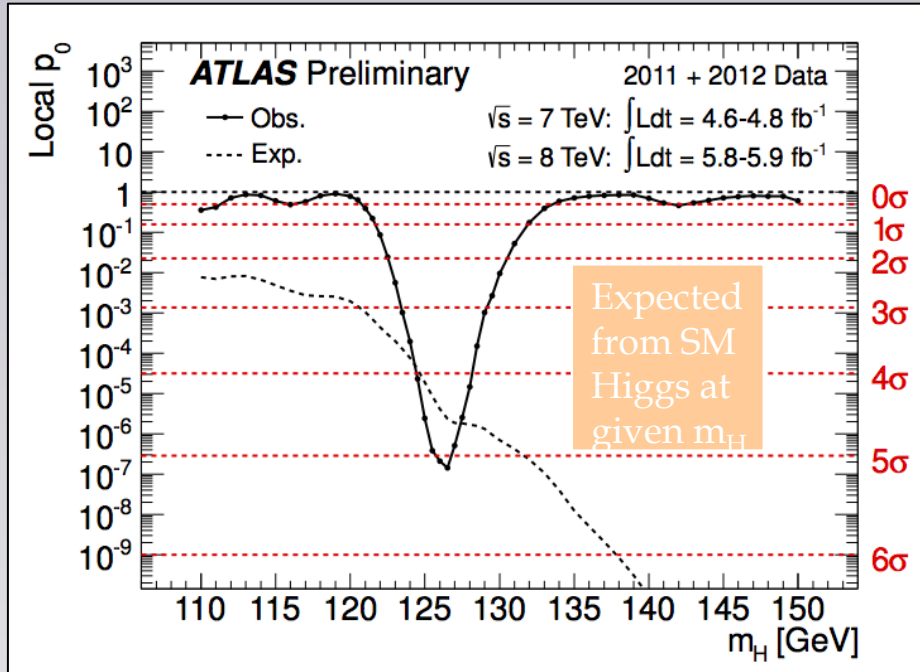
→ most ‘honest’ presentation of the result

→ unless: provide all details/assumptions that went into obtaining the results

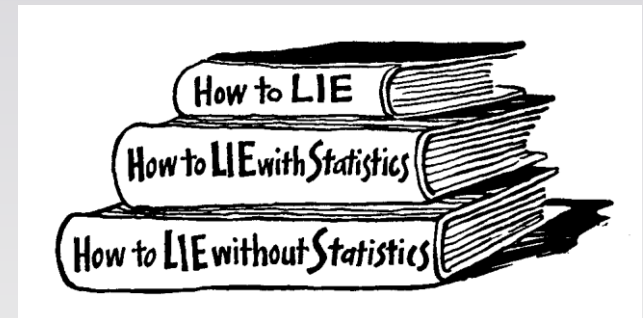
→ needed to correctly combine with others (unless we do a fully combined analysis)



- Be able to understand the latest Higgs search plots!



- rather than being fooled by “statistics”



Why Bother with Statistics?

- Physics laws have exact numbers: $F = m \cdot a$
 - ➔ derived from “non-exact” measurements
 - ➔ “non exact” \Leftrightarrow **statistically distributed**
 - ➔ know how to handle samples drawn from distributions
 - extract parameters of underlying (parent) distribution (i.e. mean value etc..)
 - know what they describe \rightarrow choose the right one 😊
 - e.g. Poisson \leftrightarrow Compound Poisson



Statistics plays important role in:

- Measurement errors
- Random processes (quantum physics, statistical physics)
- Fitting of model parameters
- Deciding on model hypothesis/data selection
 - Judging significance of some “New Physics” signal
- Monte Carlo simulation/integration

- **Measurements/Results typically follow some probability distribution**
 - ➔ **i.e. data is not at a fixed value, but “spreads out” in a particular way**
- **Which type of distribution it follows depends on the particular case**
 - ➔ **important to know the different distributions**
 - be able to pick the correct one when doing the analysis
 - ➔ **.. and know their characteristics**
 - be able to extract the “information” in the data

Note: in statistical context:

instead of **“data”** that follows a distribution,
one often (typically) speaks of a **“random variable”**

Probability Distribution/Density of a Random Variable

random variable x or k : characteristic quantity of point in sample space

discrete variables

continuous variables

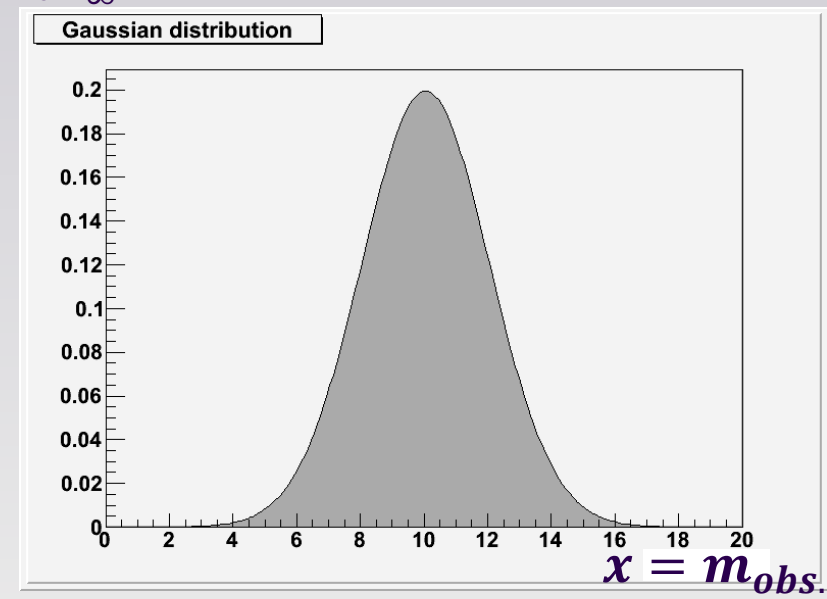
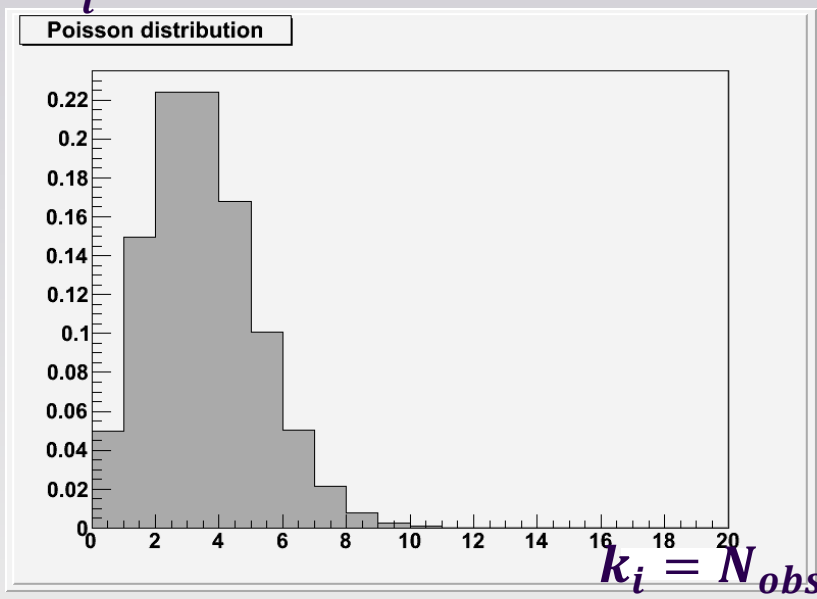
$$P(k_i) = p_i$$

$$P(x \in [x, x + dx]) = p(x)dx$$

normalisation (your parameter/event space covers all possibilities)

$$\sum_i P(k_i) = 1$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x)dx = 1$$



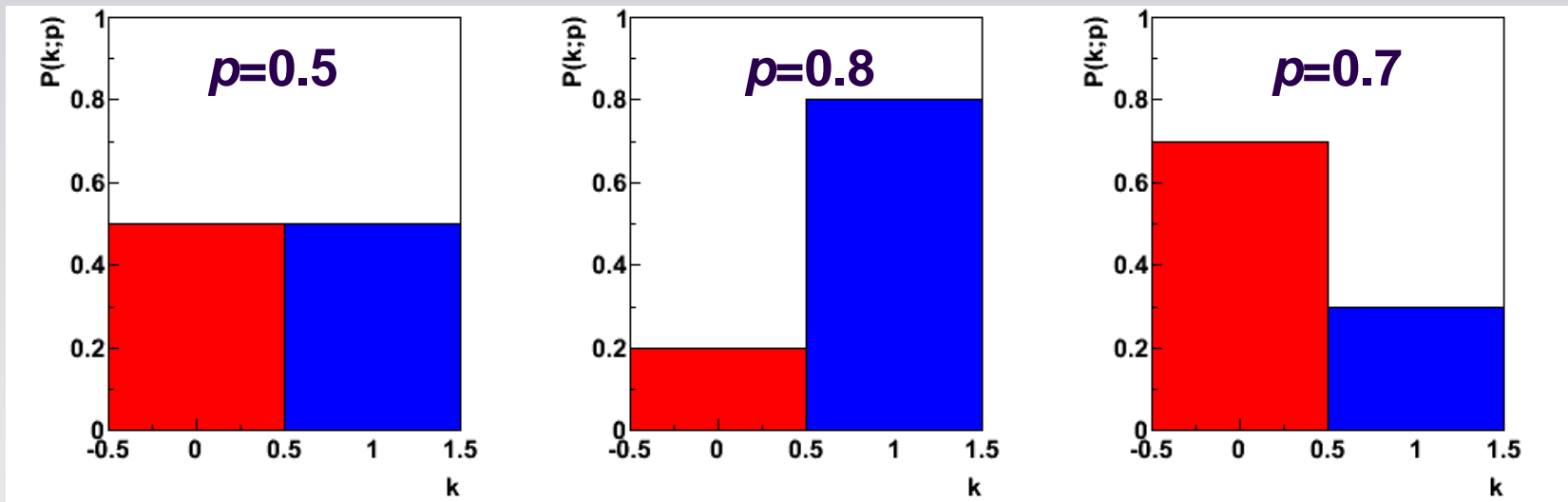
Bernoulli Distribution

- 2 possible outcomes:
 - Yes/No
 - Head/Tail
 -



- (fair) coin: $P(head) = p$ (e.g. $= \frac{1}{2}$), $P(tail) = 1 - P(head) = 1 - p$

$$P(k; p) = \begin{cases} p & : k = head = 1 \\ 1 - p & : k = tail = 0 \end{cases} = p^k (1 - p)^{1-k}$$



Binomial Distribution

throw N coins: (anything with two different possible outcomes)

→? how likely (often): $k \times \text{head}$ and $(N - k) \times \text{tail}$?

▶ each coin: $P(\text{head}) = p$, $P(\text{tail}) = 1 - p$

▶ pick k particular coins → the probability of all having *head* is:

$$P(k \times \text{head}) = P(\text{head}) * P(\text{head}) \dots * P(\text{head}) = P(\text{head})^k$$

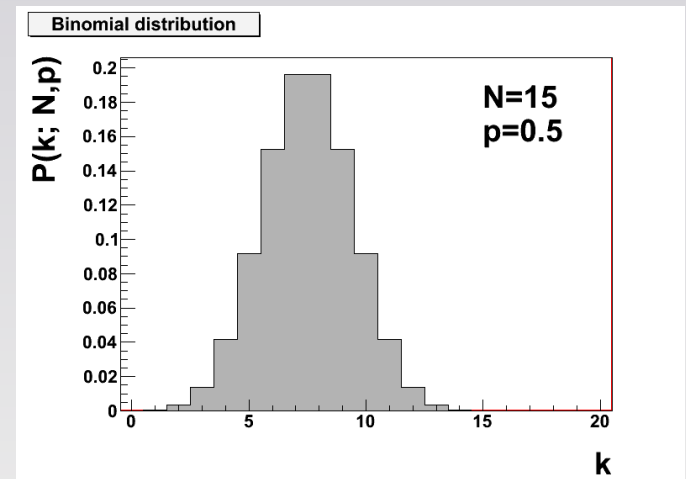
▶ at the same time: probability that all remaining $N-1$ coins land on *tail*

$$P(\text{head})^k P(\text{tail})^{N-k} = p^k (1 - p)^{N-k}$$

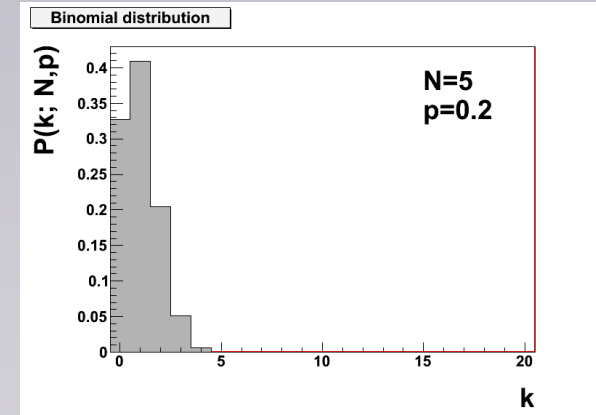
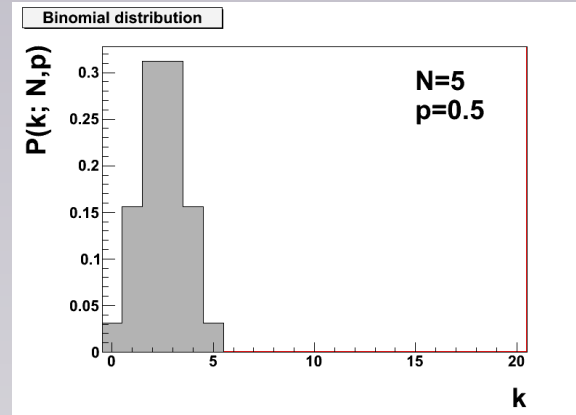
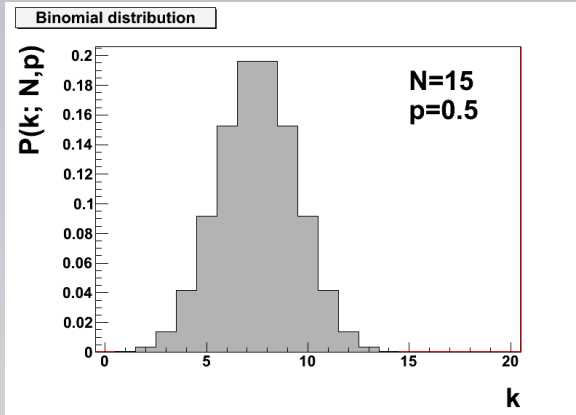
▶ That was for k particular coins:

$\binom{N}{k}$ possible permutations for *any* k coins

$$P(k; N, p) = p^k (1 - p)^{N-k} \binom{N}{k}$$



Examples:



- Expectation value: sum over all possible outcomes and “average”

- $E[k] = \sum kP(k) = Np$

- Variance:

- $V(k) = Np(1 - p)$

Some Characteristic Quantities of Distributions

discrete variables

- Expectation value E (mean value):

$$E = \langle k \rangle = \sum_{\text{all } k} kP(k)$$

- **Note:** mean/expectation of $f(x)$:

continuous variables

$$E[x] = \langle x \rangle = \int xP(x)dx$$

$$\rightarrow E[f(x)] = \int f(x)P(x)dx$$

- Variance ($V = \sigma^2$, with σ : “spread”): $E[(x - \langle x \rangle)^2] = E[x^2] - (E[x])^2$

$$V(k) = \sum_{\text{all } k} (k - \langle k \rangle)^2 P(k)$$

$$V(x) = \int (x - \langle x \rangle)^2 P(x)dx$$

- higher moments: Skew: $E[(x - \langle x \rangle)^3]$

- **Note:** expectation and variance \rightarrow properties of the full population. Unbiased estimates, derived from samples taken from the distribution:

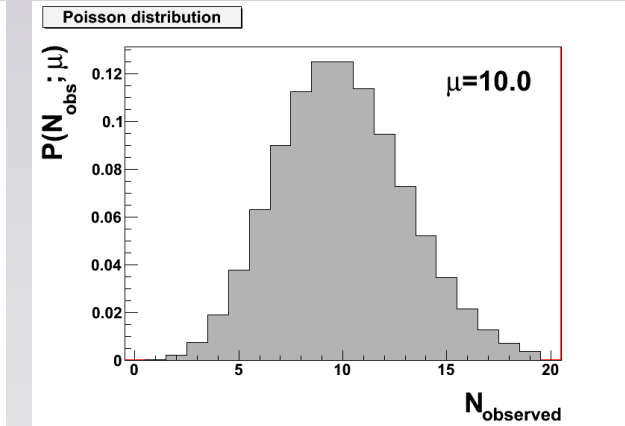
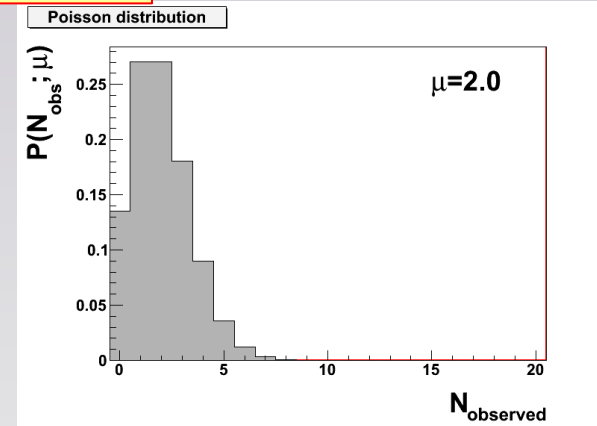
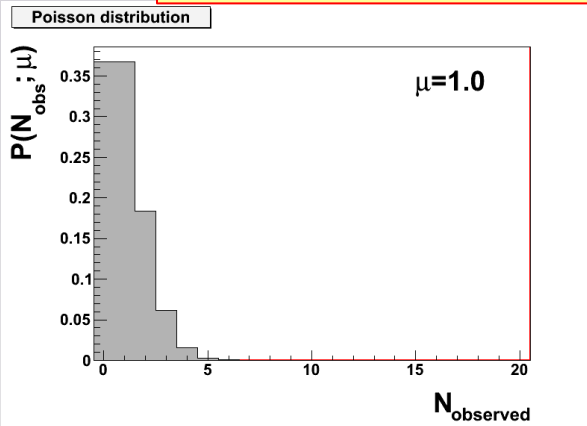
$$\hat{V} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i^{\text{samples}} (k_i - \bar{k})^2$$

$$\hat{V} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i^{\text{samples}} (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

Poisson Distribution

- Binomial distribution: Individual events with 2 possible outcomes
- How about: # counts in radioactive decays during Δt ?
 - events happen “randomly” but there is no 2nd
 - Δt : continuum \neq “N- discrete trials”
- μ : average #counts in Δt . **What’s the probability for n counts?**
- Limit of Binomial distribution for $N \rightarrow \infty$ with $Np = \mu$ fixed

→ **Poisson** $P(n) = \frac{\mu^n}{n!} e^{-\mu}$



▪ **Expectation value:**

$$E[n] = \sum nP(n) = \mu$$

▪ **Variance:**

$$V(n) = \mu$$

b.t.w. it’s a good approximation of Binomials for $N \gg Np = \mu$

- For large μ the Poisson distribution already looked fairly “Gaussian”
 - in fact in the limit it “becomes” Gaussian
 - just like almost everything: **Central Limit Theorem**
- Gaussian is the probably the most important distribution

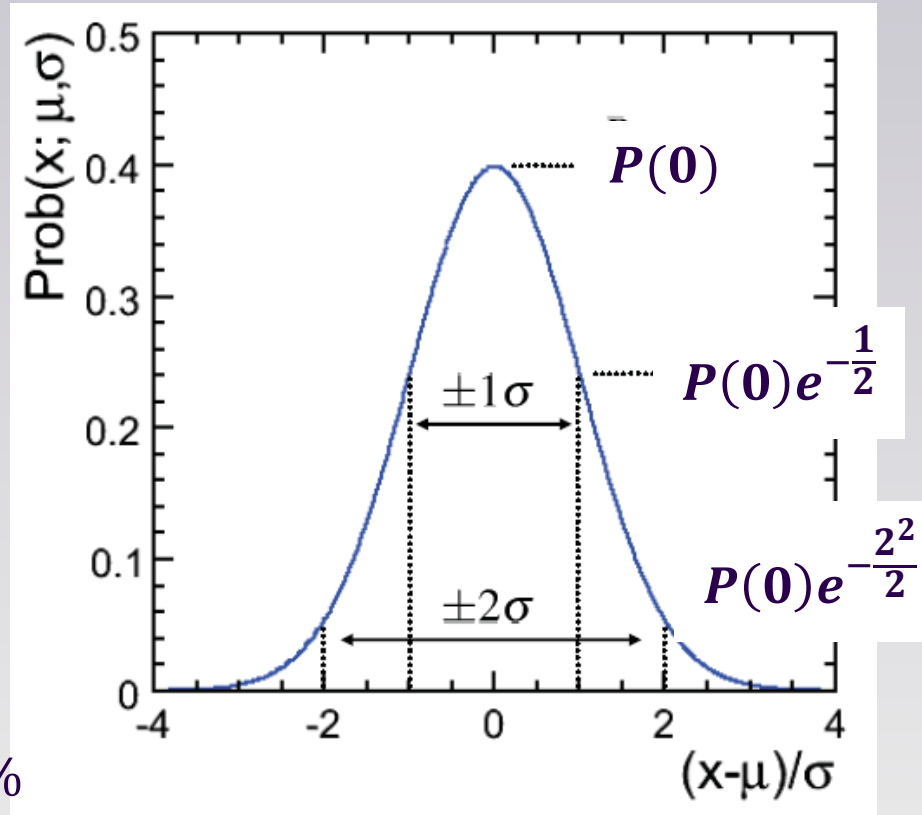
$$\text{Gauss: } P(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- Expectation value:
 $E[x] = \mu$

- Variance:
 $V(x) = \sigma^2$

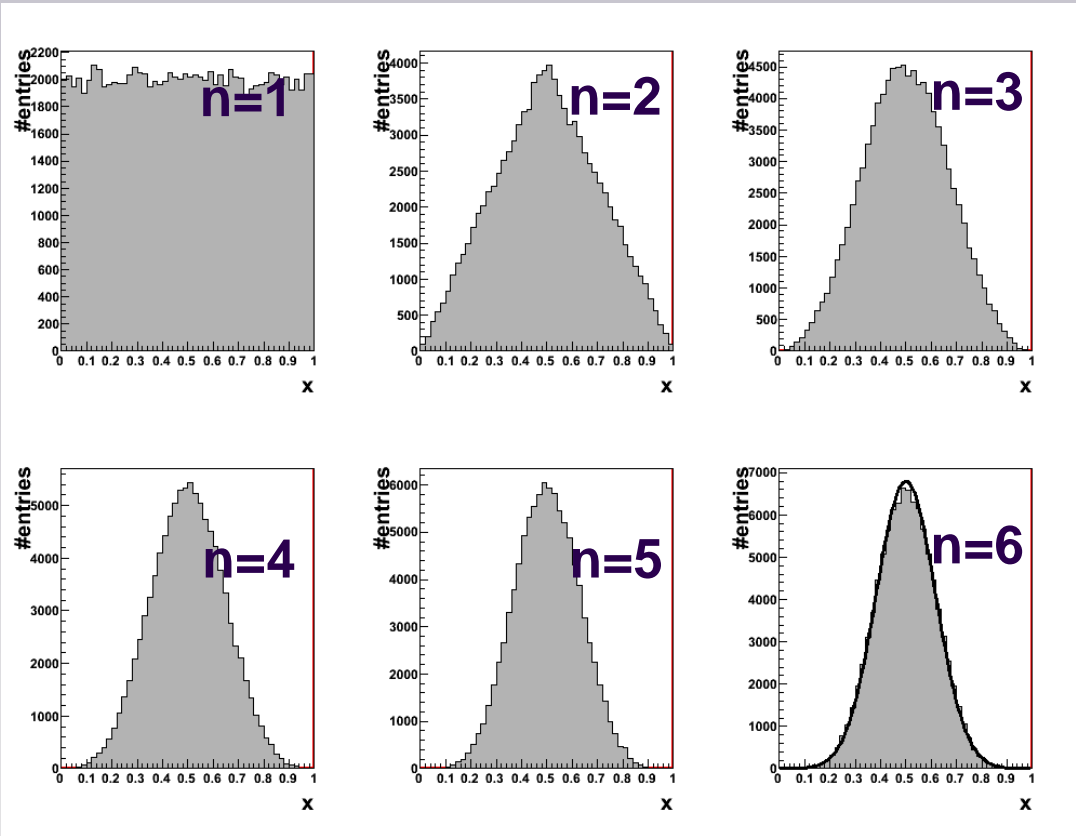
- Probability content:

$$\int_{-\sigma}^{\sigma} P(x) dx \cong 68\% \quad \int_{-2\sigma}^{2\sigma} P(x) dx \cong 95\%$$



Central Limit Theorem

- The mean y of n samples x_i from any distribution D with well defined expectation value and variance $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rightarrow$ Gaussian



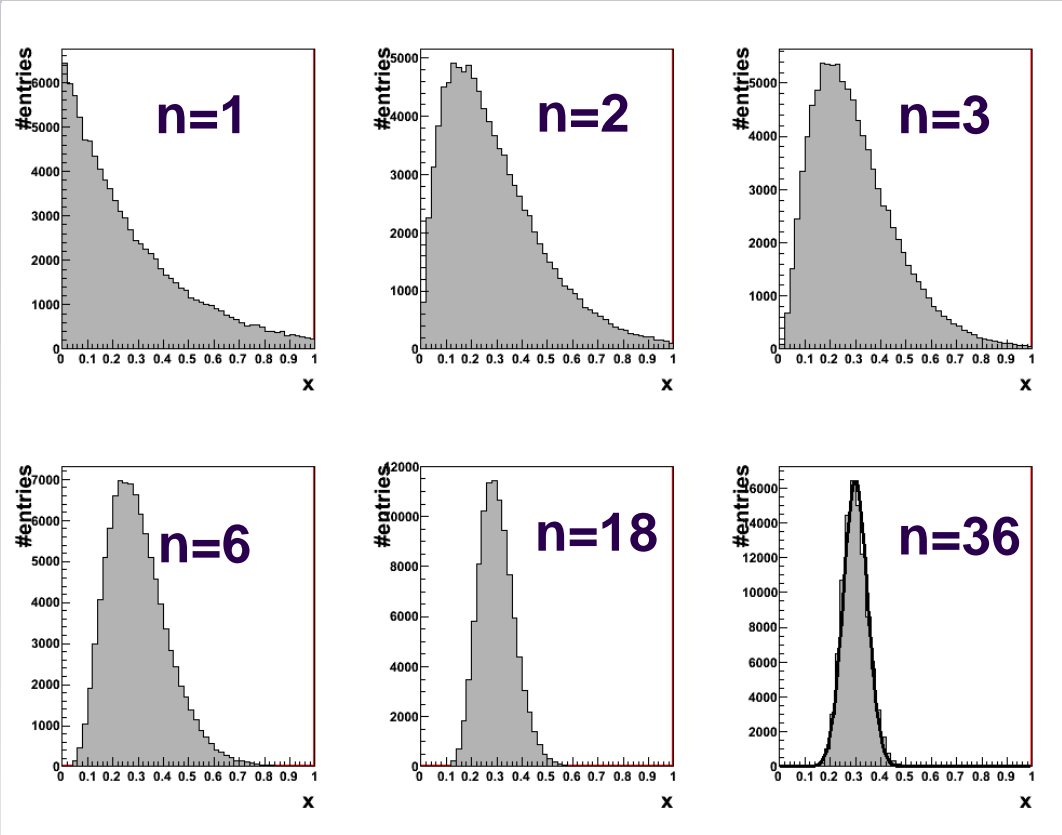
→ Averaging reduces the error



$$D: E_D[x] = \mu; V_D[x] = \sigma_D^2 \xrightarrow{\text{summation}} E_{Gauss}[y] = \mu; V_{Gauss}[y] = \frac{\sigma_D^2}{n}$$

Central Limit Theorem

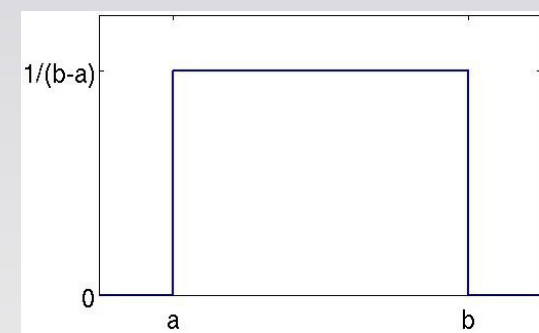
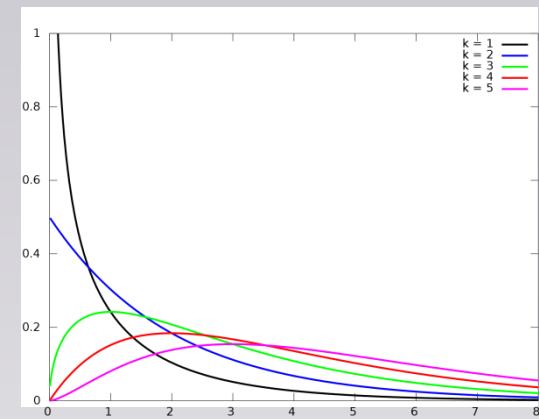
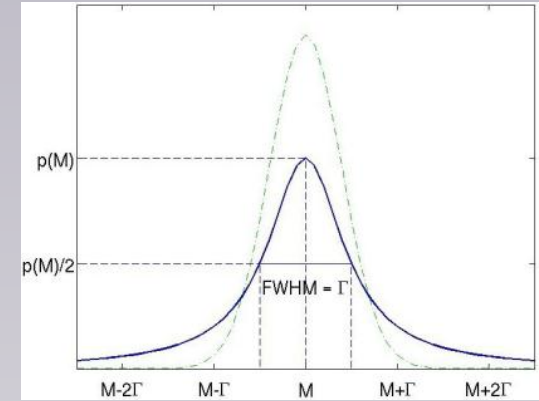
- Yes, even if D doesn't look „Gaussian“ at all !
e.g. „exponential distribution“



Measurement errors:

- Typically: many contributions
- Gaussian !

- **Exponential – distribution**
 - ➔ time distr. until particle decays (in it's own rest frame)
- **Breit–Wigner (Cauchy) – distribution**
 - ➔ mass peaks (resonance curve)
- **χ^2 – distribution**
 - ➔ sum of squares of Gaussian distributed variables
 - goodness-of-fit
- **Landau – distribution**
 - ➔ charge deposition in a silicon detector
- **Uniform – distribution**
- ... and many more:

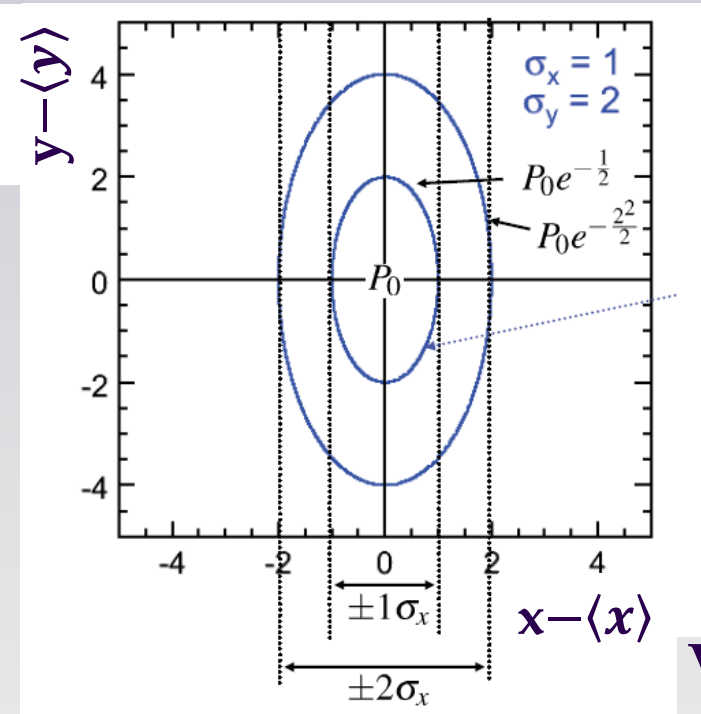
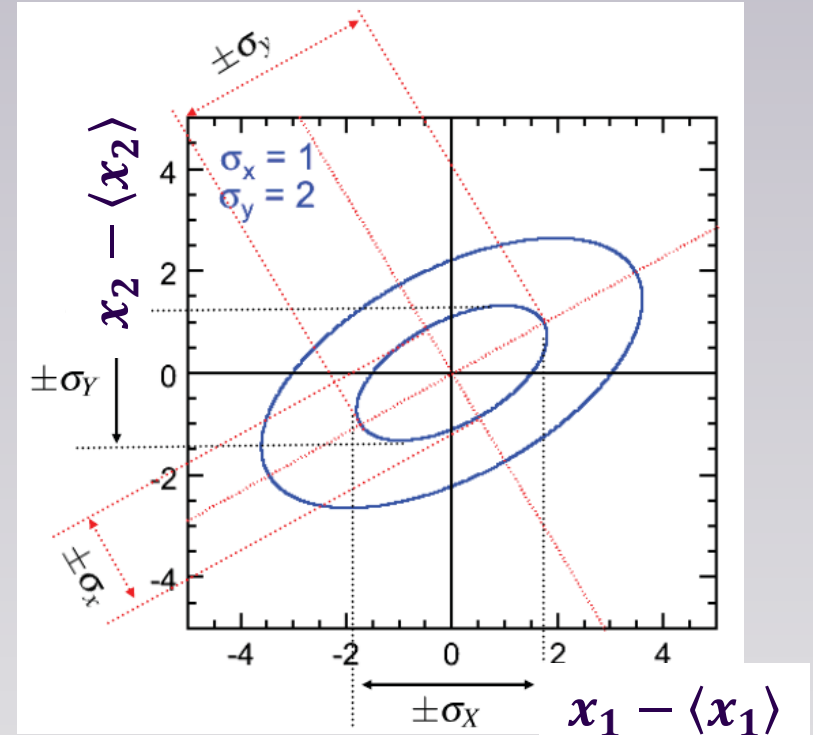


2D Gaussian

- If the 2 variables are independent:
 $P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$

$$P(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu_x)^2}{2\sigma_x^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y^2}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu_y)^2}{2\sigma_y^2}}$$

- Correlated Gaussians \Leftrightarrow transformed (rotated) variables



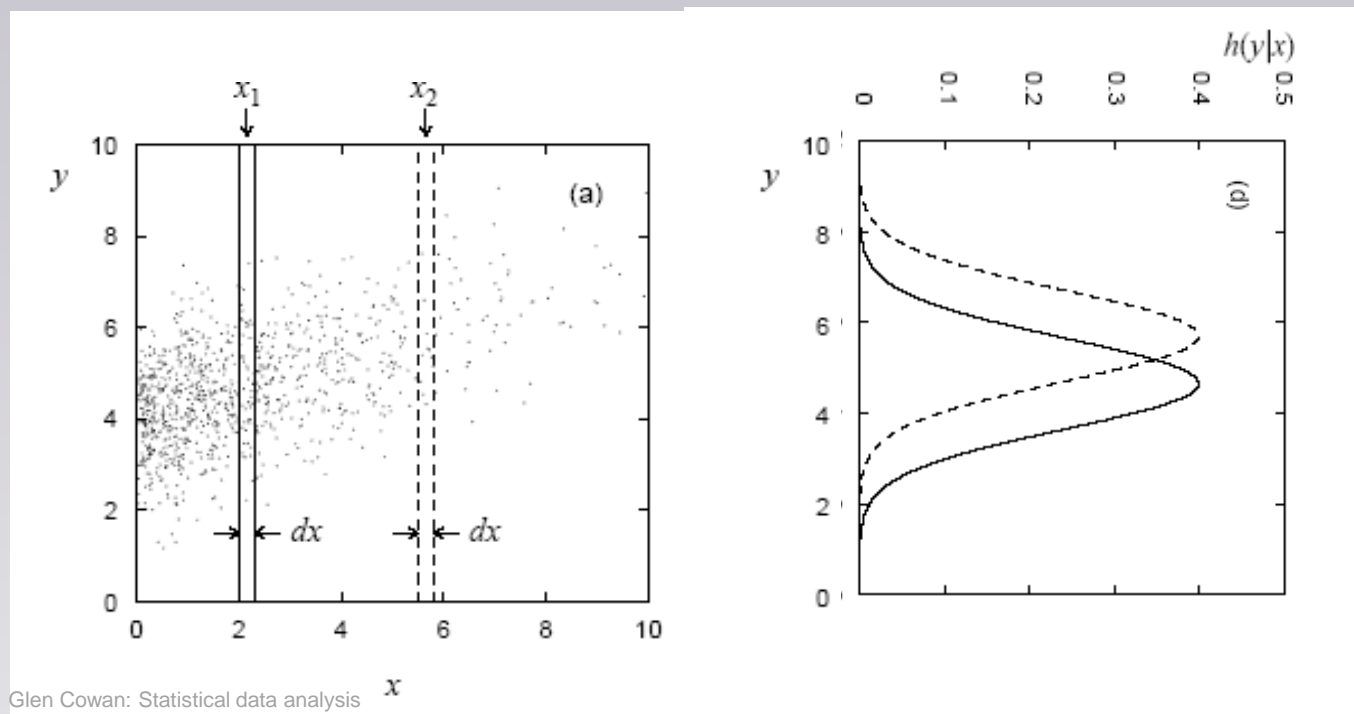
$$P(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\det(V)}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})^T V^{-1} (\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})}$$

with

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x_1^2 \rangle - \langle x_1 \rangle^2 & \langle x_1 x_2 \rangle - \langle x_1 \rangle \langle x_2 \rangle \\ \langle x_1 x_2 \rangle - \langle x_1 \rangle \langle x_2 \rangle & \langle x_2^2 \rangle - \langle x_2 \rangle^2 \end{pmatrix} \text{CO-variance matrix}$$

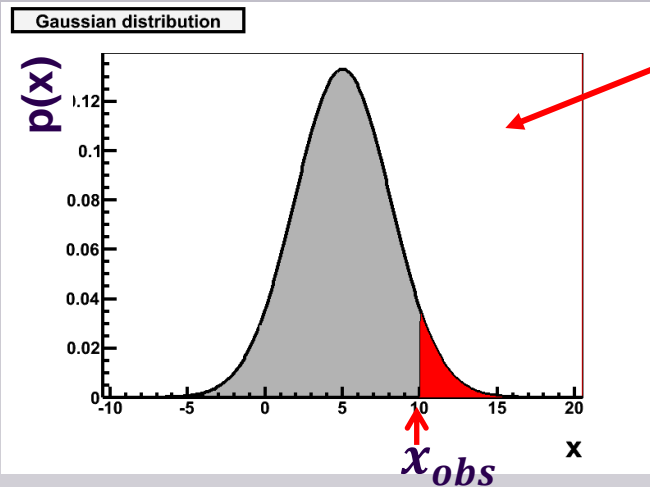
- conditional probability:**
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{p(x, y)dxdy}{p_x(x)dx}$$

↔ consider some variable in the joint PDF(x,y) as constant (given):



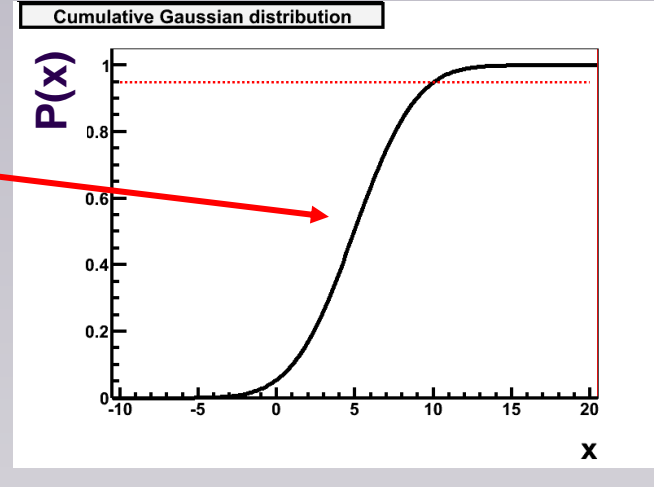
Glen Cowan: Statistical data analysis

- marginalisation:** If you are not interested in the dependence on “x”
 → project onto “y” (integrate “x out”)



PDF
(probability density function)
Cumulative distribution:

$$\int_{-\infty}^x p(x') dx' \equiv P(x)$$

$$\rightarrow p(x) = dP(x)/dx$$


- $p(x)$: probability distribution for some “measurement” x under the assumption of some model (parameter)

Example of Cumulative distribution usage:

- imagine you measure x_{obs}
 - how often expect | s.th. as far “off” the expectation (mean) value
 - $1 - \int_{-\infty}^{x_{obs}} p(x') dx' \equiv p - value$ for observing something at least as far away from what you expect

(one tailed as in example if “new physics” would be at higher x)

- similar: χ^2 -Probability

we will come back to this...

- A function of a random variable is itself a random variable.
 - ➔ x with PDF $p(x)$
 - ➔ function $f(x)$
 - e.g. extraction of a physics parameter from a measurement

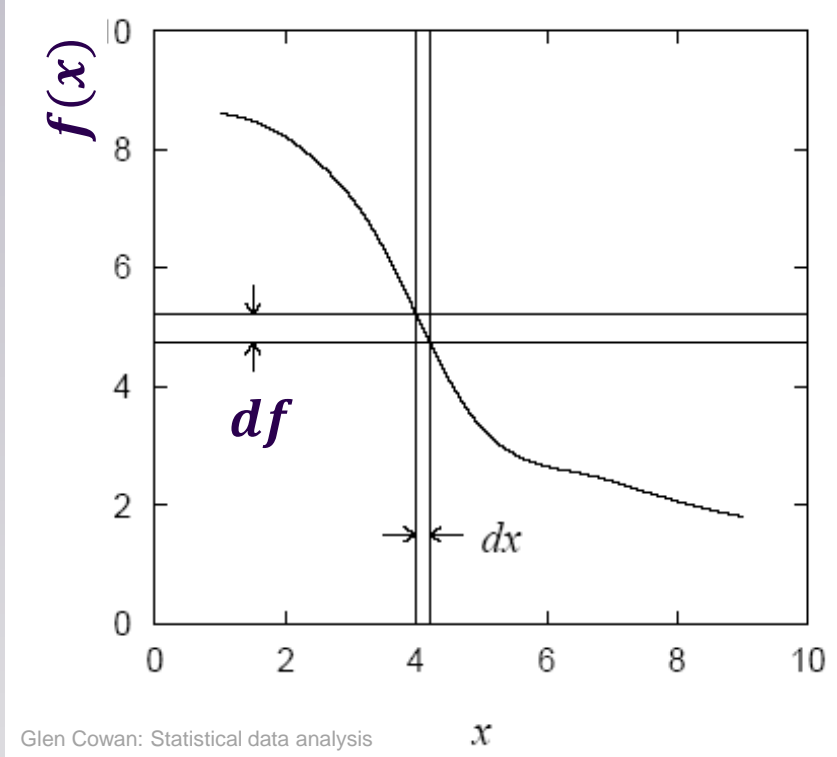
▪ PDF $g(f)$?

$$g(f)df = \int_{dS} p(x)dx$$

here: dS = region of x space for which

- f is in $[f, f + \Delta f]$
- For one-variable case with unique inverse this is simply:

➔ $g(f)df = p(x)dx \rightarrow g(f) = p(x(f)) \left| \frac{dx}{df} \right|$



Glen Cowan: Statistical data analysis

Note: this is NOT the standard error propagation but the FULL PDF !

- Either generate the FULL PDF of $f(x)$ based on the PDF for $x, p(x)$
 - often the full PDF for x is not known, but only a mean value μ and variance σ^2 (covariance matrix) have been estimated \bar{x} and \hat{V}
- then expand $f(x)$ around μ

$$f(x) \simeq f(\mu) + \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=\mu} (x - \mu)$$

$$\rightarrow E[f(x)] \simeq f(\mu) \quad (\text{as: } E[x - \mu] = 0)$$

now let: $f(\mu) = f(\bar{x})$ and write as \bar{y}

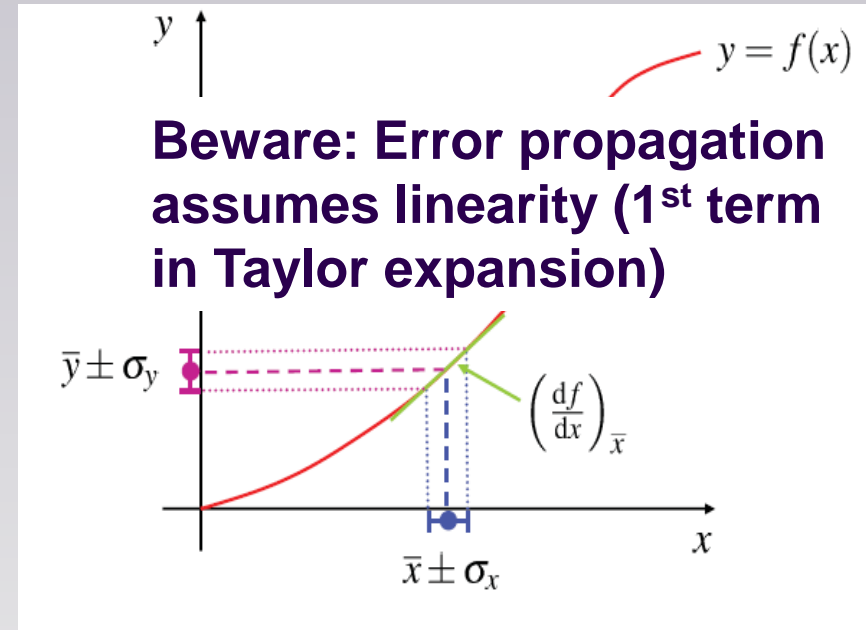
$$\rightarrow y - \bar{y} \simeq (x - \bar{x}) \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{\bar{x}}$$

$$\rightarrow E[(y - \bar{y})^2] = \left(\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{\bar{x}} \right)^2 E[(x - \bar{x})^2]$$

$$\rightarrow \sigma_y^2 = \left(\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{\bar{x}} \right)^2 \sigma_x^2$$

$$\rightarrow \text{the "usual" formula} \quad \sigma_y = \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{\bar{x}} \sigma_x$$

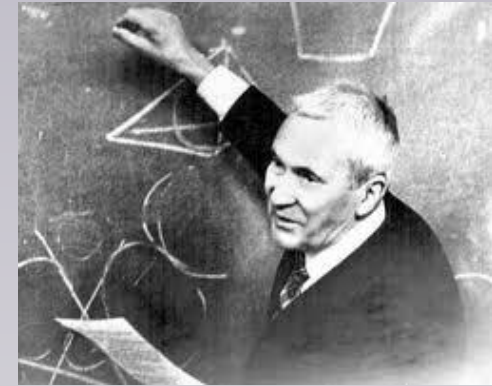
- several variables → covariance matrix and partial derivatives



What is Probability

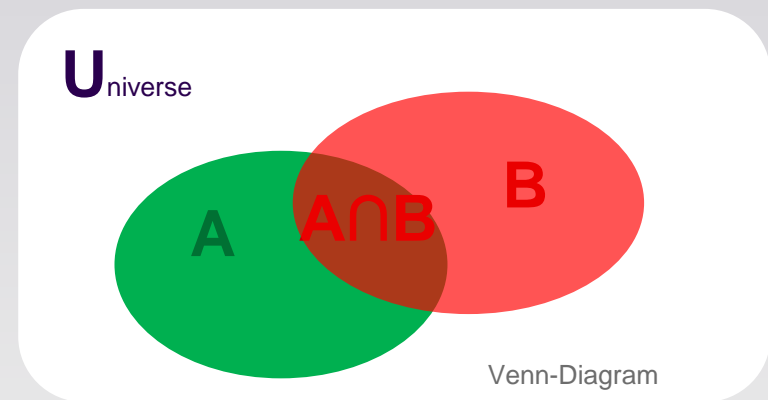
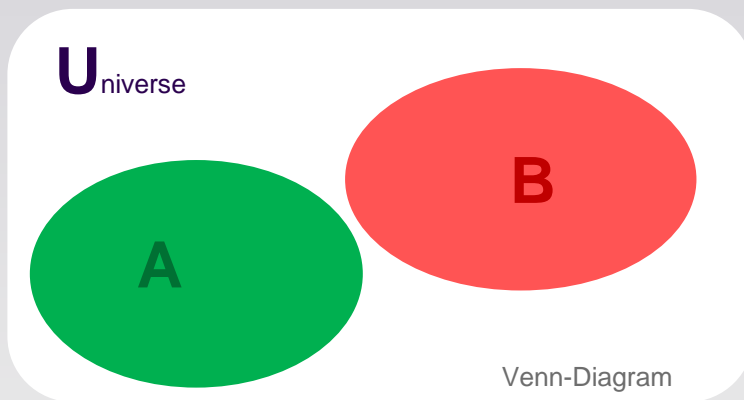
- **Axioms of probability: Kolmogorov (1933)**

- $P(A) \geq 0$
- $\int_U P(A) dU = 1$
- if: $(A \text{ and } B) \equiv (A \cap B) = 0$
(i.e disjoint/independent/exclusive)
→ $P(A \text{ or } B) \equiv (A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$



→ define e.g.: **conditional probability**

$$P(A|B) \equiv P(A \text{ given } B \text{ is true}) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$



What is Probability

- Axioms of probability: → pure “set-theory”

1) a measure of how likely an event will occur, expressed as a the ratio of favourable—to—all possible cases in repeatable trials

- Frequentist (classical) probability

$$P(\text{“Event”}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\text{\#outcome is “Event”}}{n - \text{“trials”}} \right)$$

2) the “degree of believe” that an event is going to happen

- Bayesian probability:
 - $P(\text{“Event”})$: degree of believe that “Event” is going to happen → no need for “repeatable trails”
 - degree of believe (in view of the data AND previous knowledge(believe) about the parameter) that a parameter has a certain “true” value



Frequentist vs. Bayesian

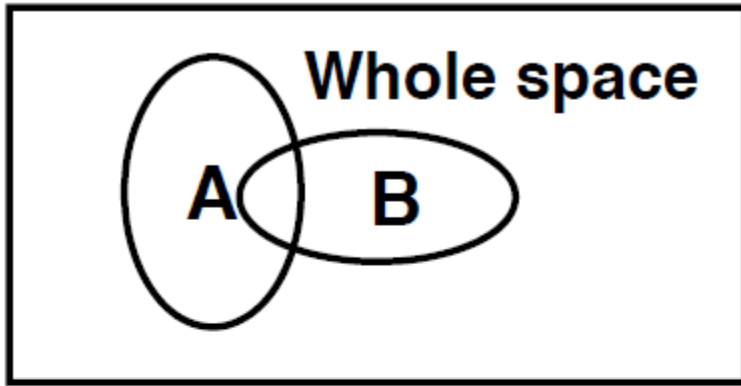
Bayes' Theorem

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

- This follows simply from the “conditional probabilities”:

Derivation of Bayes' Theorem

... in picture ...taken from Bob Cousins



$$P(A) = \frac{\text{Area of } A}{\text{Area of Whole space}}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{\text{Area of } B}{\text{Area of Whole space}}$$

Bob Cousins, CMS, 2008

Bayes' Theorem

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

- This follows simply from the “conditional probabilities”:

$$P(A|B)P(B) = P(A \cap B) = P(B \cap A) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

$$P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

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

Bayes' Theorem

$$P(\mu|n) = \frac{P(n|\mu)P(\mu)}{P(n)}$$

- $P(n|\mu)$: Likelihood function
- $P(\mu|n)$: posterior probability of μ
- $P(\mu)$: the “prior”
- $P(n)$: just some normalisation

B.t.w.: Nobody doubts Bayes' Theorem:
discussion starts **ONLY** if it is used to turn

frequentist statements:

- probability of the observed data given a certain model: **$P(\text{Data}|\text{Model})$**

into Bayesian probability statements:

- probability of a the model begin correct (given data): **$P(\text{Model}|\text{Data})$**

- ... there can be heated debates about ‘pro’ and ‘cons’ of either....

P (Data|Theory) \neq P (Theory|Data)

- Higgs search at LEP: the statement
 - the probability that the data is in agreement with the Standard Model background is less than 1% (i.e. $P(\text{data} | \text{SMbkg}) < 1\%$) went out to the press and got turned round to:

~~$P(\text{data} | \text{SMbkg}) < 1\% \rightarrow P(\text{SMbkg} | \text{data}) < 1\% \rightarrow P(\text{Higgs} | \text{data}) > 99\% !$~~

WRONG!

- easy Example: Theory = female (hypothesis) .. male (alternative)
Data = pregnant or not pregnant

$P(\text{pregnant} | \text{female}) \sim 2\text{-}3\%$ but $P(\text{female} | \text{pregnant}) = ?? \text{ ☺}$

→o.k... but what DOES it say?



The correct frequentist interpretation



we know: $P(\text{Data}|\text{Theory}) \neq P(\text{Theory}|\text{Data})$

rather: Bayes Theorem: $P(\text{Data}|\text{Theory}) = P(\text{Theory}|\text{Data}) \frac{P(\text{Theory})}{P(\text{Data})}$

Frequentists answer ONLY: $P(\text{Data}|\text{Theory})$

... although.. let's be honest, we are all interested in $P(\text{Theory}...)$

We only learn about the “probability” to observe certain data under a given theory. Without knowledge of how likely the theory (or a possible “alternative” theory) is .. that doesn't say anything about how unlikely this makes our current theory !

Later: we'll define “confidence levels” ... i.e. if $P(\text{data}) < 5\%$, discard theory.

- can accept/discard theory and state how often/likely we will be wrong in doing so. But again: It does not say how “likely” the theory itself (or the alternative) is true
- note the subtle difference !!

BBC: 2 July 2012: US sees stronger hints of Higgs

By Paul Rincon Science editor, BBC News website

- **The signal is seen at the 2.9-sigma level of certainty, which means there is roughly a one in 1,000 chance that the result is attributable to some statistical quirk in the data**
- **The number of standard deviations, or sigmas, is a measure of how unlikely it is that an experimental result is simply down to chance rather than a real effect**

- **Certainly: both have their “right-to-exist”**
 - **Some “probably” reasonable and interesting questions cannot even be ASKED in a frequentist framework :**
 - **“How much do I trust the simulation”**
 - **“How likely is it that it will raining tomorrow?”**
 - **“How likely is it that climate change is going to...**
 - **after all.. the “Bayesian” answer sounds much more like what you really want to know: i.e.**
 - **“How likely is the “parameter value” to be correct/true ?”**
- **BUT:**
 - **NO Bayesian interpretation w/o “prior probability” of the parameter**
 - **where do we get that from?**
 - **all the actual measurement can provide is “frequentist”!**

- “flat” prior $\pi(\theta)$ to state “no previous” knowledge (assumptions) about the theory?

- **often done, BUT WRONG:**

- e.g. flat prior in M_{Higgs} \rightarrow not flat in M_{Higgs}^2

- **Choose a prior that is invariant under parameter transformations**

- \rightarrow **Jeffrey’s Prior \rightarrow “objective Bayesian”:**

- “flat” prior in Fisher’s information space

- $\pi(\theta) \propto \sqrt{I(\theta)}$ $(\pi(\vec{\theta}) \propto \sqrt{\det I(\vec{\theta})}$ if several parameters)

$$I(\theta) = -E_x \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \log(f(x; \theta)) \right] :$$

- $f(x; \theta)$: Likelihood function of θ , probability to observe x for a give parameter θ
- amount of “information” that data x is ‘expected’ to contain about the parameter θ
- **personal remark: nice idea, but “WHY” would you want to dot that?**
 - still use a “arbitrary” prior, only make sure everyone does the same way
 - loose all “advantages” of using a “reasonable” prior if you choose already to use a Bayesian interpretation!

“Bayesians address the question everyone is interested in, by using assumptions no-one believes”

“Frequentists use impeccable logic to deal with an issue of no interest to anyone”

Louis Lyons, Academic Lecture at Fermilab, August 17, 2004

- Traditionally: most scientists are/were “frequentists”
 - no NEED to make “decisions” (well.. unless you want to announce the discovery of the Higgs particle..)
 - it’s ENOUGH to present data, and how likely they are under certain scenarios
 - keep doing so and combine measurements
- Bayesians are growing
 - well, at least now we have the means to do lots of prior comparisons: Computing power/ Markov Chain Monte Carlos

- **Statistics is everywhere in science**
 - need to be able to use it correctly
 - need to know about the available (possible) distributions
- **What is probability?**
 - the basics of “statistics”
 - axioms
 - frequentist interpretation
 - Bayesian interpretation
- **Tomorrow: How to use these things to answer your scientific questions**