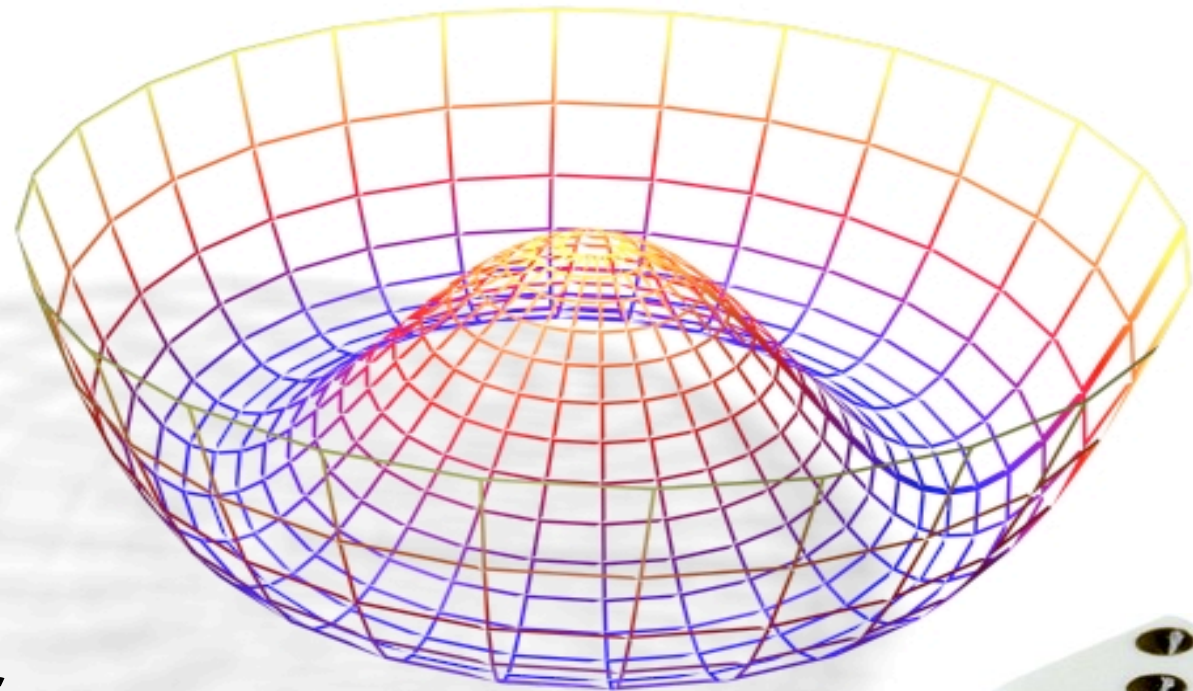




# *Practical Statistics for Particle Physics*

***Kyle Cranmer,***  
New York University



Statistics plays a vital role in science, it is the way that we:

- quantify our knowledge and uncertainty
- communicate results of experiments

Big questions:

- how do we make discoveries, measure or exclude theoretical parameters, ...
- how do we get the most out of our data
- how do we incorporate uncertainties
- how do we make decisions

Statistics is a very big field, and it is not possible to cover everything in 4 hours.  
In these talks I will try to:

- **explain** some fundamental ideas & prove a few things
- **enrich** what you already know
- **expose** you to some new ideas

I will try to go slowly, because if you are not following the logic, then it is not very interesting.

- Please feel free to ask questions and interrupt at any time

# Further Reading

By physicists, for physicists

G. Cowan, *Statistical Data Analysis*, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1998.

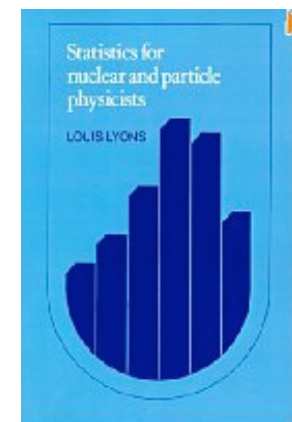
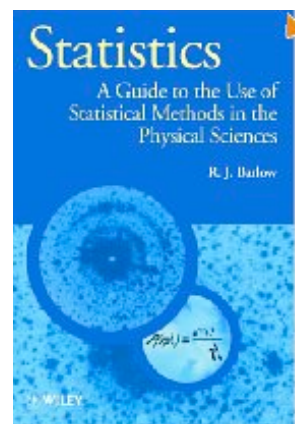
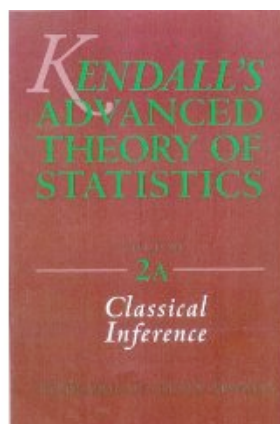
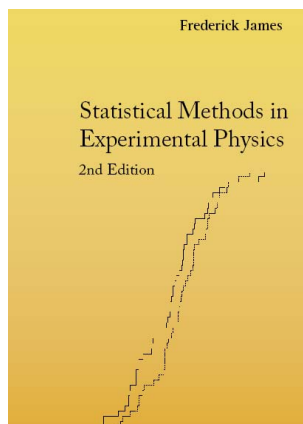
R.J.Barlow, *A Guide to the Use of Statistical Methods in the Physical Sciences*, John Wiley, 1989;

F. James, *Statistical Methods in Experimental Physics*, 2nd ed., World Scientific, 2006;

▸ W.T. Eadie et al., North-Holland, 1971 (1st ed., hard to find);

S.Brandt, *Statistical and Computational Methods in Data Analysis*, Springer, New York, 1998.

L.Lyons, *Statistics for Nuclear and Particle Physics*, CUP, 1986.



My favorite statistics book by a statistician:

Stuart, Ord, Arnold. “Kendall’s Advanced Theory of Statistics” Vol. 2A *Classical Inference & the Linear Model*.

## Fred James's lectures

[http://preprints.cern.ch/cgi-bin/setlink?base=AT&categ=Academic\\_Training&id=AT00000799](http://preprints.cern.ch/cgi-bin/setlink?base=AT&categ=Academic_Training&id=AT00000799)

<http://www.desy.de/~acatrain/>

## Glen Cowan's lectures

[http://www.pp.rhul.ac.uk/~cowan/stat\\_cern.html](http://www.pp.rhul.ac.uk/~cowan/stat_cern.html)

## Louis Lyons

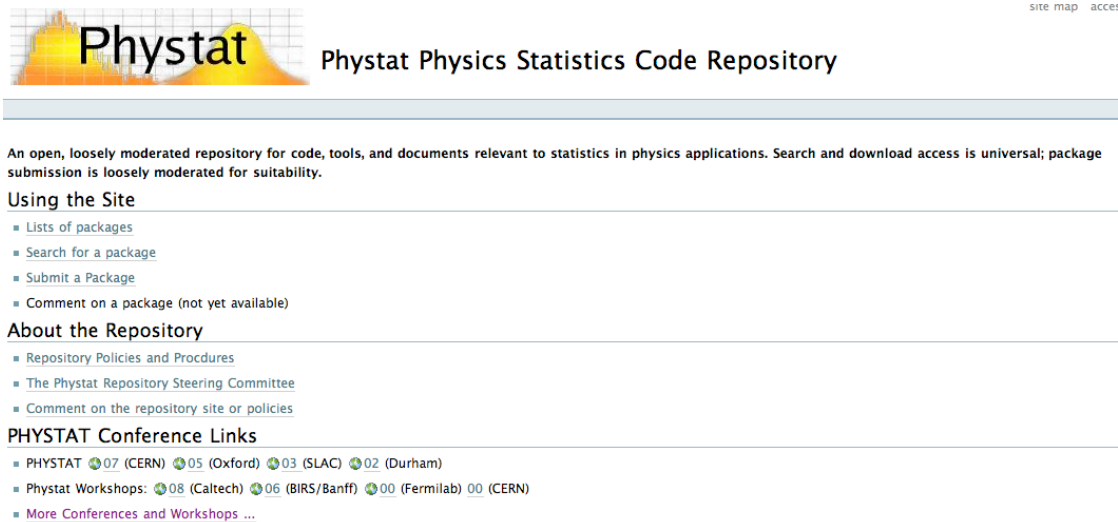
<http://indico.cern.ch/conferenceDisplay.py?confId=a063350>

## Bob Cousins gave a CMS lecture, may give it more publicly

## Gary Feldman "Journeys of an Accidental Statistician"

<http://www.hepl.harvard.edu/~feldman/Journeys.pdf>

## The PhyStat conference series at [PhyStat.org](http://PhyStat.org):



site map access

### PhyStat

PhyStat Physics Statistics Code Repository

An open, loosely moderated repository for code, tools, and documents relevant to statistics in physics applications. Search and download access is universal; package submission is loosely moderated for suitability.

#### Using the Site

- Lists of packages
- Search for a package
- Submit a Package
- Comment on a package (not yet available)

#### About the Repository

- Repository Policies and Procedures
- The PhyStat Repository Steering Committee
- Comment on the repository site or policies

#### PHYSTAT Conference Links

- PHYSTAT 07 (CERN) 05 (Oxford) 03 (SLAC) 02 (Durham)
- PhyStat Workshops: 08 (Caltech) 06 (BIRS/Banff) 00 (Fermilab) 00 (CERN)
- More Conferences and Workshops ...

## Practical Statistics for the LHC

*Kyle Cranmer*

Center for Cosmology and Particle Physics, Physics Department, New York University, USA

### Abstract

This document is a pedagogical introduction to statistics for particle physics. Emphasis is placed on the terminology, concepts, and methods being used at the Large Hadron Collider. The document addresses both the statistical tests applied to a model of the data and the modeling itself. I expect to release updated versions of this document in the future.

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# Lecture 1

## Lecture 1: Building a probability model

- ▶ preliminaries, the marked Poisson process
- ▶ incorporating systematics via nuisance parameters
- ▶ constraint terms
- ▶ examples of different “narratives” / search strategies

## Lecture 2: Hypothesis testing

- ▶ simple models, Neyman-Pearson lemma, and likelihood ratio
- ▶ composite models and the profile likelihood ratio
- ▶ review of ingredients for a hypothesis test

## Lecture 3: Limits & Confidence Intervals

- ▶ the meaning of confidence intervals as inverted hypothesis tests
- ▶ asymptotic properties of likelihood ratios
- ▶ Bayesian approach



# Preliminaries



# Probability Density Functions

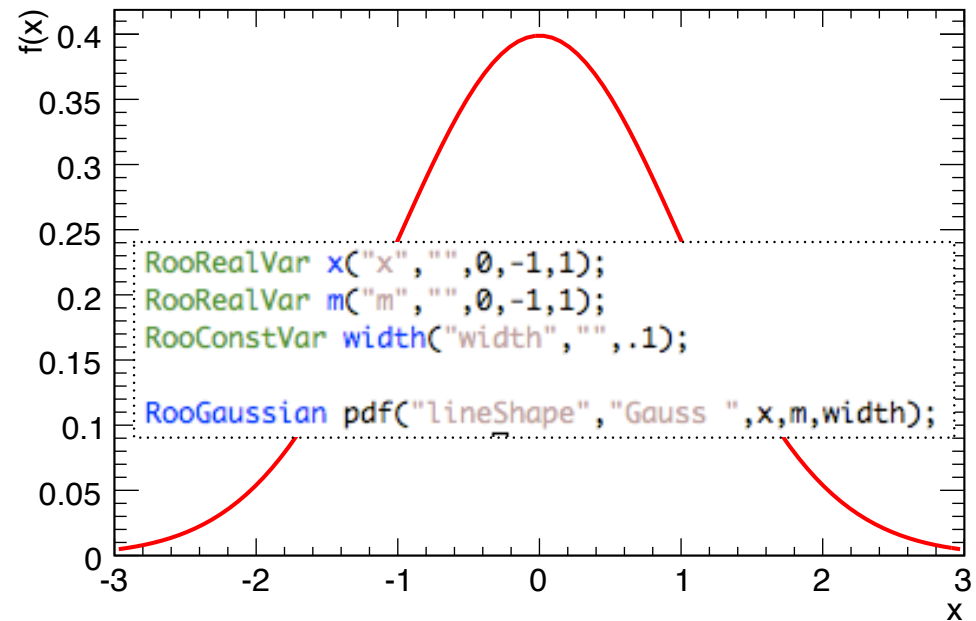
When dealing with continuous random variables, need to introduce the notion of a **Probability Density Function** (PDF... not parton distribution function)

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

Note,  $f(x)$  is NOT a probability

PDFs are always normalized

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



# The Likelihood Function

A Poisson distribution describes a discrete event count  $n$  for a real-valued mean  $\mu$ .

$$Pois(n|\mu) = \mu^n \frac{e^{-\mu}}{n!}$$

The likelihood of  $\mu$  given  $n$  is the same equation evaluated as a function of  $\mu$

- ▶ Now it's a continuous function
- ▶ But it is not a pdf!

$$L(\mu) = Pois(n|\mu)$$

Common to plot the  $-2 \ln L$

- ▶ helps avoid thinking of it as a PDF
- ▶ connection to  $\chi^2$  distribution

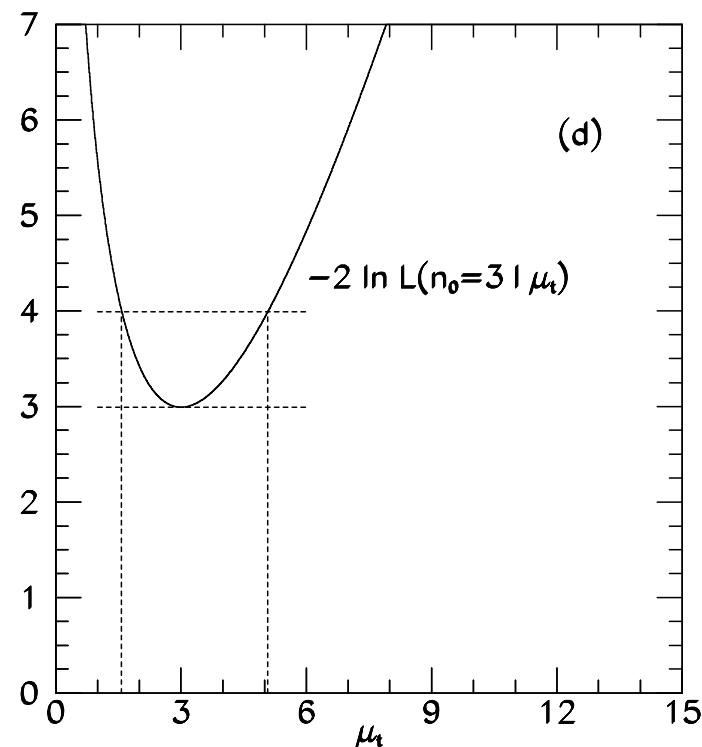


Figure from R. Cousins,  
Am. J. Phys. 63 398 (1995)



## Change of variable $x$ , change of parameter $\theta$

- For pdf  $p(x|\theta)$  and change of variable from  $x$  to  $y(x)$ :

$$p(y(x)|\theta) = p(x|\theta) / |dy/dx|.$$

**Jacobian modifies probability density, guaranties that**

$$P(y(x_1) < y < y(x_2)) = P(x_1 < x < x_2), \text{ i.e., that}$$

**Probabilities are invariant under change of variable  $x$ .**

- Mode of probability density is *not* invariant (so, e.g., criterion of maximum probability density is ill-defined).
- Likelihood ratio is invariant under change of variable  $x$ . (Jacobian in denominator cancels that in numerator).
- For likelihood  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  and reparametrization from  $\theta$  to  $u(\theta)$ :
  - $\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathcal{L}(u(\theta))$  (!).
  - Likelihood  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  is invariant under reparametrization of parameter  $\theta$  (reinforcing fact that  $\mathcal{L}$  is *not* a pdf in  $\theta$ ).

# Change of variables

If  $f(x)$  is the pdf for  $x$  and  $y(x)$  is a change of variables, then the pdf  $g(y)$  must satisfy

$$\int_{x_a}^{x_b} f(x) dx = \int_{y(x_a)}^{y(x_b)} g(y) dy$$

We can rewrite the integral on the right

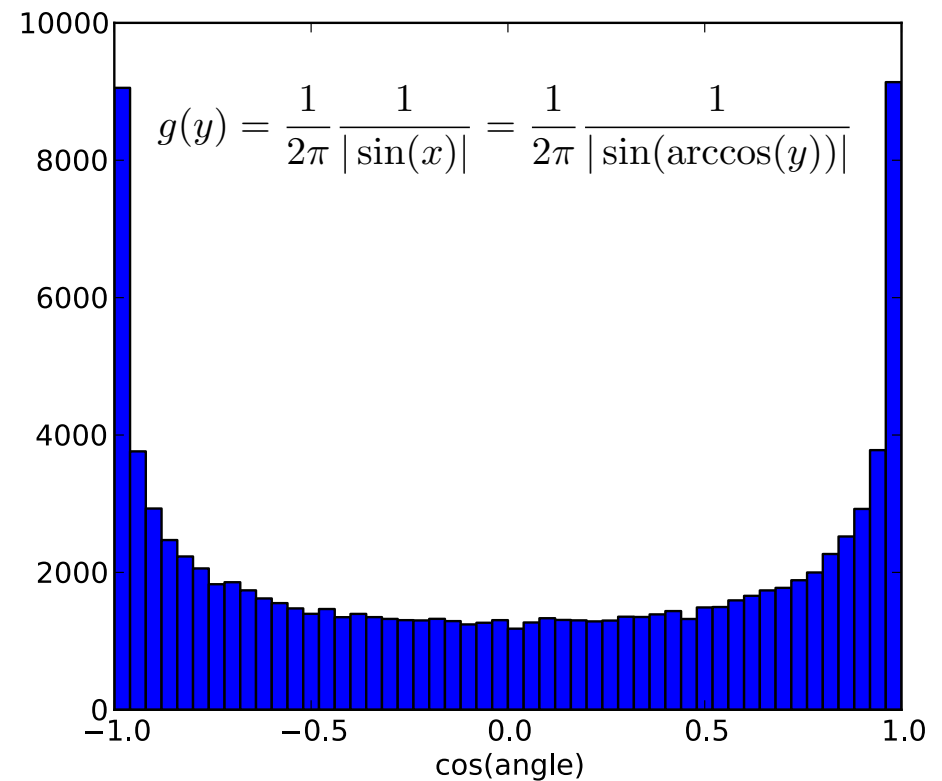
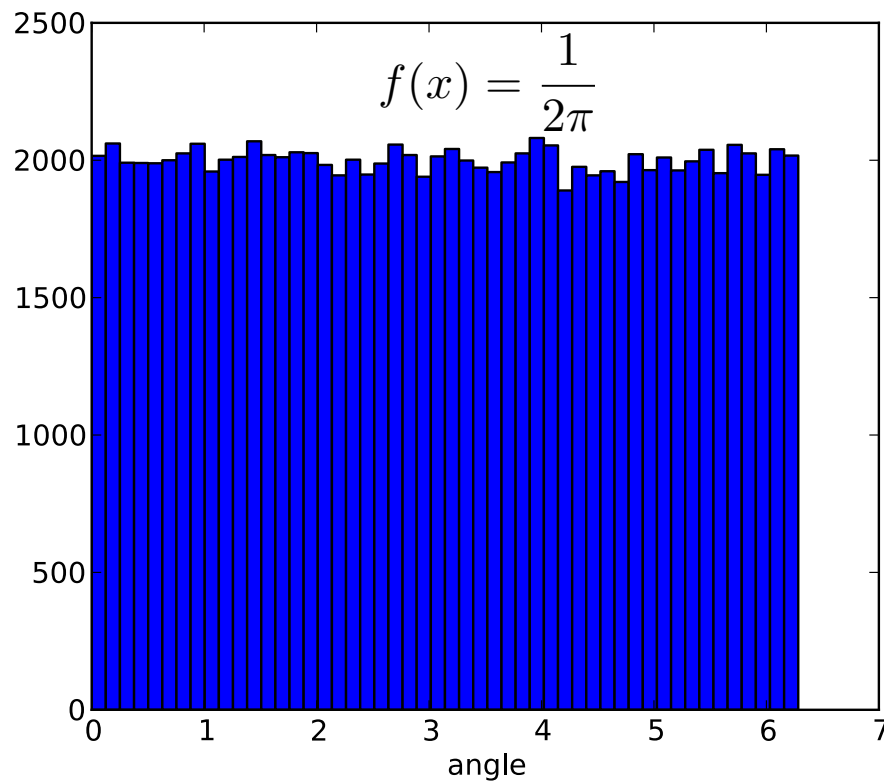
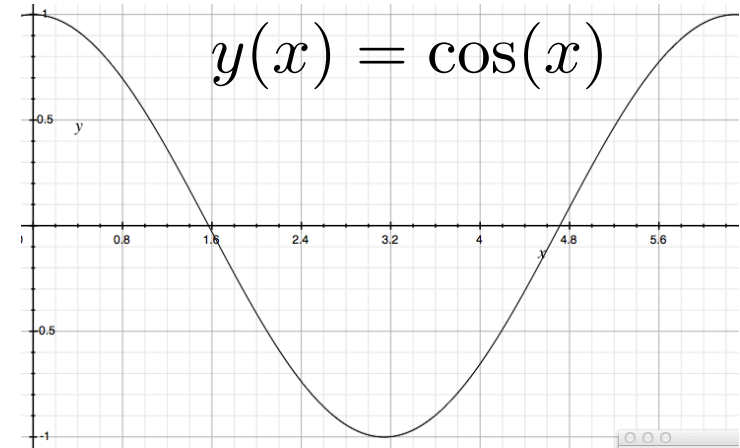
$$\int_{y(x_a)}^{y(x_b)} g(y) dy = \int_{x_a}^{x_b} g(y(x)) \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right| dx$$

therefore, the two pdfs are related by a Jacobian factor

$$f(x) = g(y) \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right|$$

# An example

$$f(x) = g(y) \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right|$$





## Probability Integral Transform

*“...seems likely to be one of the most fruitful conceptions introduced into statistical theory in the last few years”*

– Egon Pearson (1938)

Given continuous  $x \in (a,b)$ , and its pdf  $p(x)$ , let

$$y(x) = \int_a^x p(x') dx' .$$

Then  $y \in (0,1)$  and  $p(y) = 1$  (uniform) for all  $y$ . (!)

So there always exists a metric in which the pdf is uniform.

*Many* issues become more clear (or trivial) after this transformation\*. (If  $x$  is discrete, some complications.)

The specification of a Bayesian prior pdf  $p(\mu)$  for parameter  $\mu$  is equivalent to the choice of the metric  $f(\mu)$  in which the pdf is uniform. This is a *deep* issue, not always recognized as such by users of flat prior pdf's in HEP!

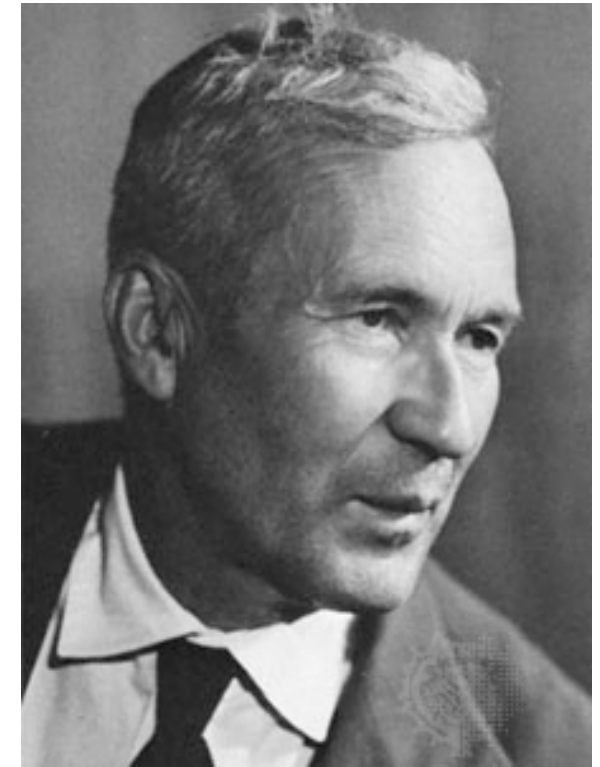
\*And the inverse transformation provides for efficient M.C. generation of  $p(x)$  starting from  $\text{RAN}()$ .

Bob Cousins, CMS, 2008

# Axioms of Probability

These Axioms are a mathematical starting point for probability and statistics

1. probability for every element,  $E$ , is non-negative  $P(E) \geq 0 \quad \forall E \subseteq \mathcal{F} = 2^\Omega$
2. probability for the entire space of possibilities is 1  $P(\Omega) = 1$ .
3. if elements  $E_i$  are disjoint, probability is additive  $P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots) = \sum_i P(E_i)$ .



Kolmogorov  
axioms (1933)

Consequences:

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$P(\Omega \setminus E) = 1 - P(E)$$

# Different definitions of Probability

## Frequentist

- defined as limit of long term frequency
- probability of rolling a 3 := limit of (# rolls with 3 / # trials)
  - you don't need an infinite sample for definition to be useful
  - sometimes ensemble doesn't exist
    - eg. P(Higgs mass = 120 GeV), P(it will snow tomorrow)
- Intuitive if you are familiar with Monte Carlo methods
- compatible with orthodox interpretation of probability in Quantum Mechanics. Probability to measure spin projected on x-axis if spin of beam is polarized along +z



$$|\langle \rightarrow | \uparrow \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

## Subjective Bayesian

- Probability is a degree of belief (personal, subjective)
  - can be made quantitative based on betting odds
  - most people's subjective probabilities are not **coherent** and do not obey laws of probability

<http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/sum2003/entries/probability-interpret/#3.1>



# Bayes' Theorem

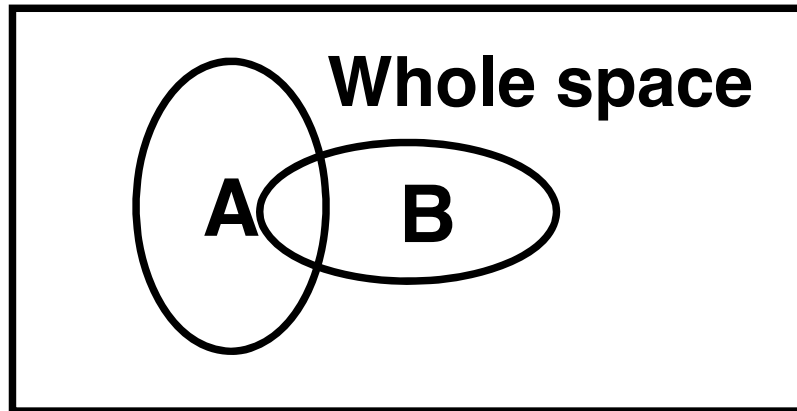
Bayes' theorem relates the conditional and marginal probabilities of events  $A$  &  $B$

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



- $P(A)$  is the prior probability or marginal probability of  $A$ . It is "prior" in the sense that it does not take into account any information about  $B$ .
- $P(A|B)$  is the conditional probability of  $A$ , given  $B$ . It is also called the posterior probability because it is derived from or depends upon the specified value of  $B$ .
- $P(B|A)$  is the conditional probability of  $B$  given  $A$ .
- $P(B)$  is the prior or marginal probability of  $B$ , and acts as a normalizing constant.

## P, Conditional P, and Derivation of Bayes' Theorem in Pictures



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

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

$$P(A|B) = \frac{\text{Area of } A \cap B}{\text{Area of B}}$$

$$P(B|A) = \frac{\text{Area of } A \cap B}{\text{Area of A}}$$

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

Don't forget about "Whole space"  $\Omega$ . I will drop it from the notation typically, but occasionally it is important.

$$\Rightarrow P(B|A) = P(A|B) \times P(B) / P(A)$$

$$P(\text{Data};\text{Theory}) \neq P(\text{Theory};\text{Data})$$

Theory = male or female

Data = pregnant or not pregnant

$P(\text{pregnant ; female}) \sim 3\%$

but

$P(\text{female ; pregnant}) \gg \gg 3\%$

# Bayes' Theorem

Bayes' theorem relates the conditional and marginal probabilities of events  $A$  &  $B$

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

$$\pi(\theta|x) = \frac{f(x|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{\mathcal{N}} \propto L(\theta)\pi(\theta)$$



- $P(A)$  is the prior probability or marginal probability of  $A$ . It is "prior" in the sense that it does not take into account any information about  $B$ .
- $P(A|B)$  is the conditional probability of  $A$ , given  $B$ . It is also called the posterior probability because it is derived from or depends upon the specified value of  $B$ .
- $P(B|A)$  is the conditional probability of  $B$  given  $A$ .
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# Modeling: The Scientific Narrative

# Building a model of the data

Before one can discuss statistical tests, one must have a “**model**” for the data.

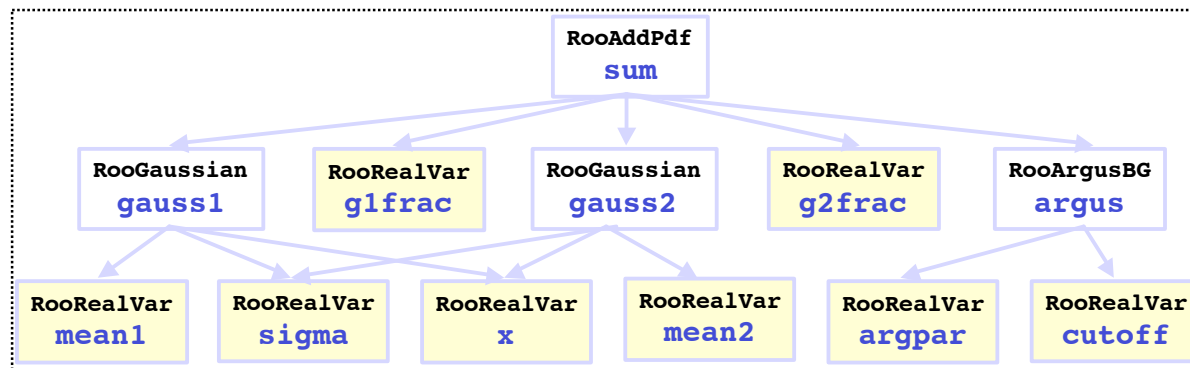
- ▶ by “model”, I mean the full structure of  $P(\text{data} \mid \text{parameters})$ 
  - holding parameters fixed gives a PDF for data
  - ability to evaluate generate pseudo-data (Toy Monte Carlo)
  - holding data fixed gives a **likelihood function** for parameters
    - note, likelihood function is not as general as the full model because it doesn't allow you to generate pseudo-data

Both Bayesian and Frequentist methods start with the model

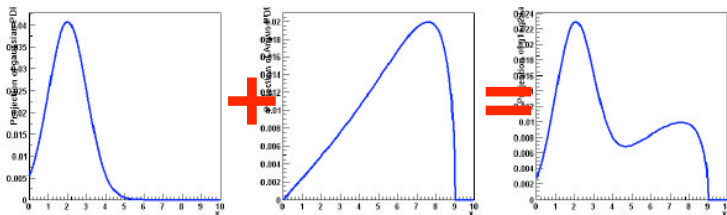
- ▶ it's the objective part that everyone can agree on
- ▶ it's the place where our physics knowledge, understanding, and intuiting comes in
- ▶ building a better model is the best way to improve your statistical procedure

# RooFit: A data modeling toolkit

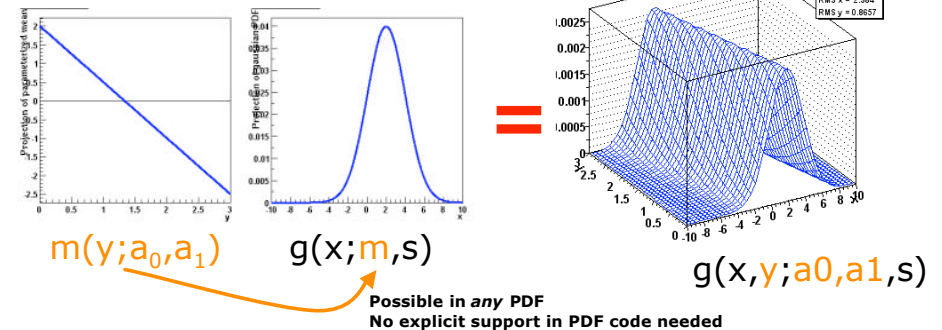
RooFit is a major tool developed at BaBar for data modeling.  
RooStats provides higher-level statistical tools based on these PDFs.



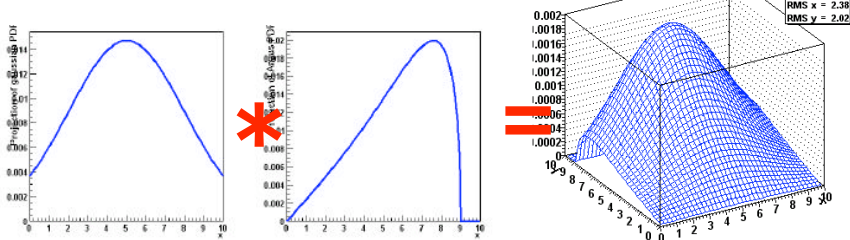
## - Addition



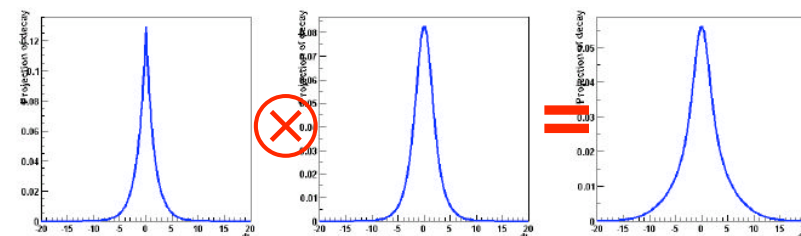
## - Composition ('plug & play')



## - Multiplication



## - Convolution



Wouter Verkerke,

Wouter Verkerke, UCSB

The model can be seen as a quantitative summary of the analysis

- ▶ If you were asked to justify your modeling, you would tell a **story** about why you know what you know
  - based on previous results and studies performed along the way
- ▶ the quality of the result is largely tied to how convincing this story is and how tightly it is connected to model

I will describe a few “narrative styles”

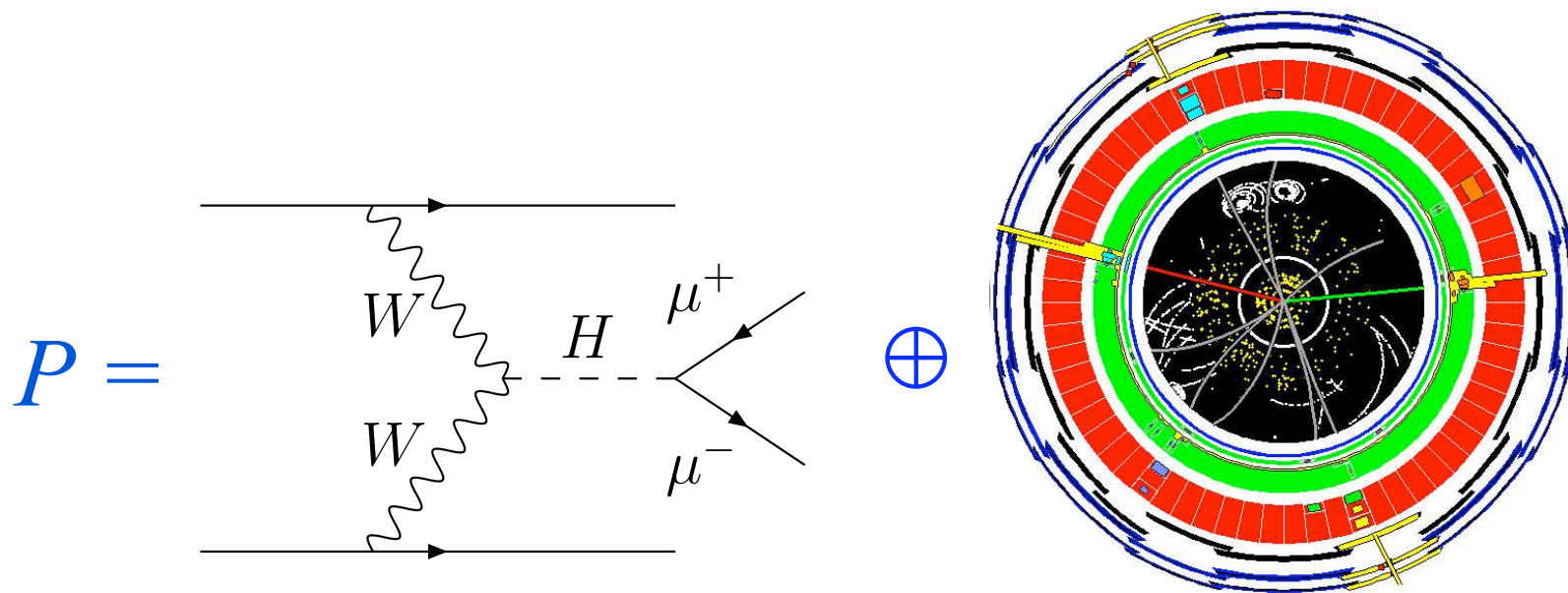
- ▶ The “Monte Carlo Simulation” narrative
- ▶ The “Data Driven” narrative
- ▶ The “Effective Modeling” narrative
- ▶ The “Parametrized Response” narrative

Real-life analyses often use a mixture of these



# The Monte Carlo Simulation narrative

Let's start with "the Monte Carlo simulation narrative", which is probably the most familiar



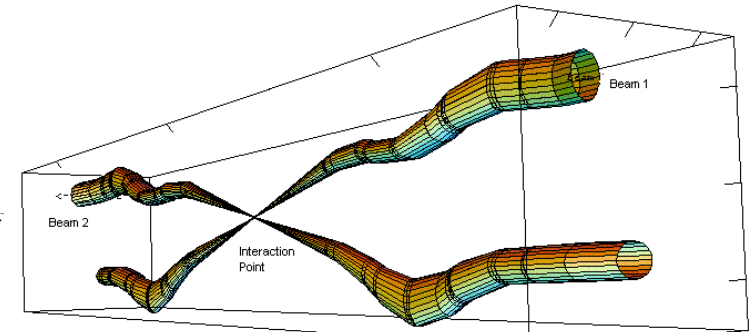
# The simulation narrative

1) The language of the Standard Model is Quantum Field Theory  
Phase space  $\Omega$  defines initial measure, sampled via Monte Carlo

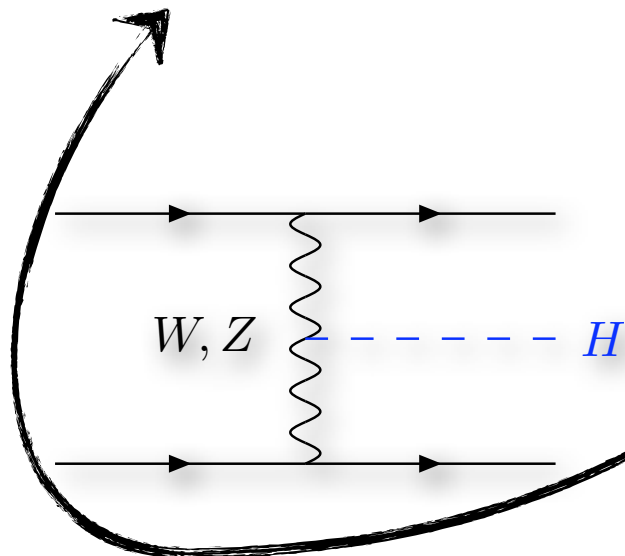
$$P = \frac{|\langle f|i \rangle|^2}{\langle f|f \rangle \langle i|i \rangle}$$

$$P \rightarrow L\sigma$$

$$d\sigma \rightarrow |\mathcal{M}|^2 d\Omega$$



Relative beam sizes around IP1 (Atlas) in collision



$$\mathcal{L}_{SM} =$$

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{4} \mathbf{W}_{\mu\nu} \cdot \mathbf{W}^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{4} B_{\mu\nu} B^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{4} G_{\mu\nu}^a G_a^{\mu\nu}}_{\text{kinetic energies and self-interactions of the gauge bosons}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\bar{L}\gamma^\mu (i\partial_\mu - \frac{1}{2}g\boldsymbol{\tau} \cdot \mathbf{W}_\mu - \frac{1}{2}g'YB_\mu)L + \bar{R}\gamma^\mu (i\partial_\mu - \frac{1}{2}g'YB_\mu)R}_{\text{kinetic energies and electroweak interactions of fermions}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} |(i\partial_\mu - \frac{1}{2}g\boldsymbol{\tau} \cdot \mathbf{W}_\mu - \frac{1}{2}g'YB_\mu)\phi|^2 - V(\phi)}_{\text{W}^\pm, Z, \gamma, \text{ and Higgs masses and couplings}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{g''(\bar{q}\gamma^\mu T_a q) G_\mu^a}_{\text{interactions between quarks and gluons}} + \underbrace{(G_1 \bar{L}\phi R + G_2 \bar{R}\phi_c L + h.c.)}_{\text{fermion masses and couplings to Higgs}}$$

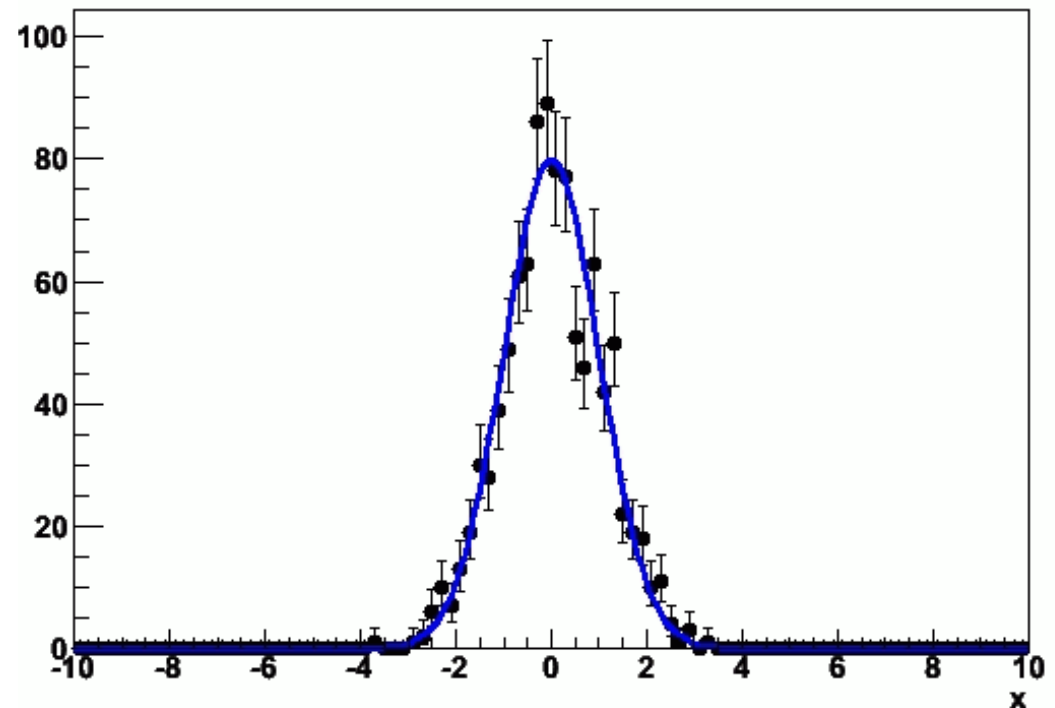
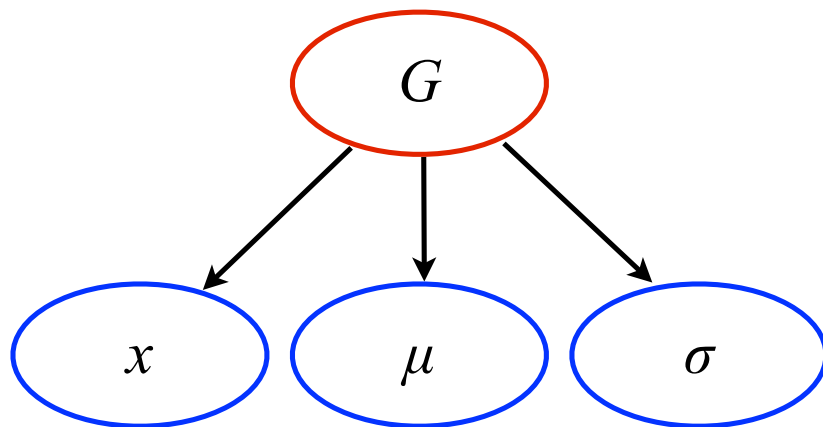


# A General Purpose Statistical Model

# Visualizing probability models

I will represent PDFs graphically as below (directed acyclic graph)

- ▶ eg. a Gaussian  $G(x|\mu, \sigma)$  is parametrized by  $(\mu, \sigma)$
- ▶ every node is a real-valued function of the nodes below



**Channel:** a subset of the data defined by some selection requirements.

- ▶ eg. all events with 4 electrons with energy  $> 10$  GeV
- ▶  $n$ : number of events observed in the channel
- ▶  $\nu$ : number of events expected in the channel

**Discriminating variable:** a property of those events that can be measured and which helps discriminate the signal from background

- ▶ eg. the invariant mass of two particles
- ▶  $f(x)$ : the p.d.f. of the discriminating variable  $x$

$$\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$$

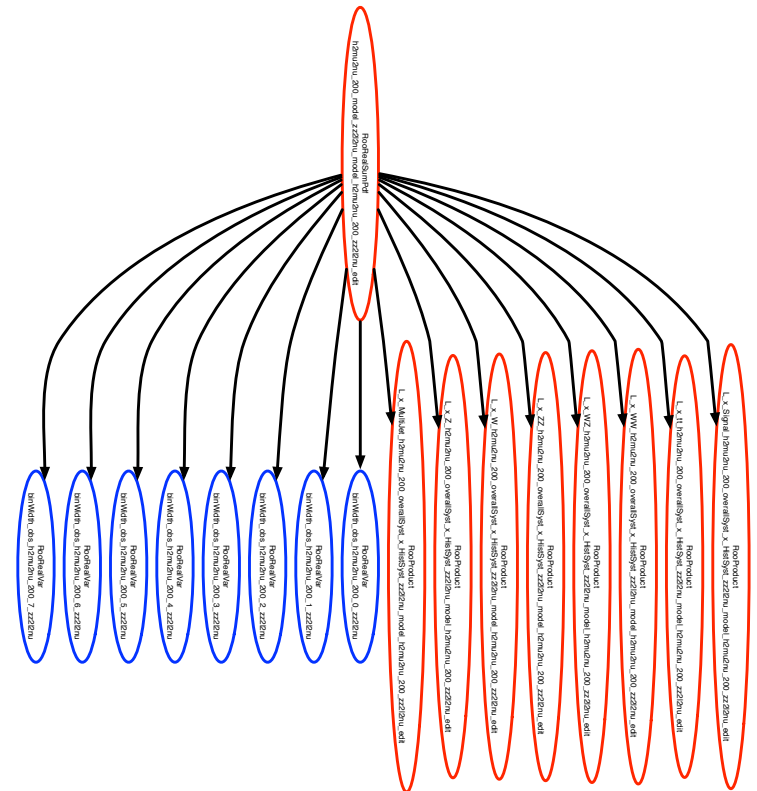
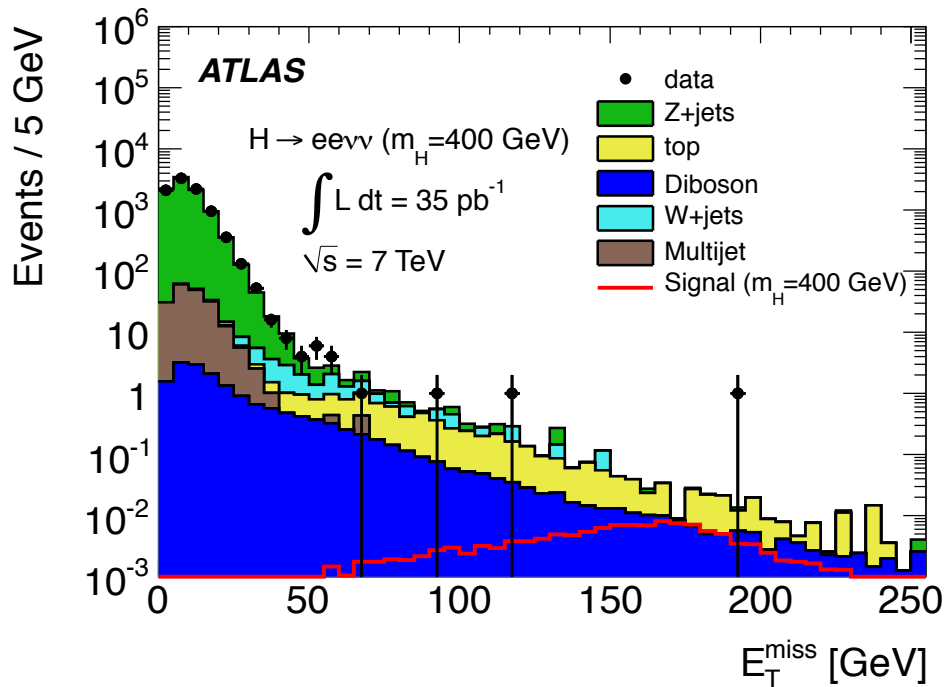
**Marked Poisson Process:**

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathcal{D}|\nu) = \text{Pois}(n|\nu) \prod_{e=1}^n f(x_e)$$

**Sample:** a sample of simulated events corresponding to particular type interaction that populates the channel.

▶ statisticians call this a mixture model

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\nu_{\text{tot}}} \sum_{s \in \text{samples}} \nu_s f_s(x), \quad \nu_{\text{tot}} = \sum_{s \in \text{samples}} \nu_s$$



## Parametrizing the model $\alpha = (\mu, \theta)$

**Parameters of interest ( $\mu$ ):** parameters of the theory that modify the rates and shapes of the distributions, eg.

- ▶ the mass of a hypothesized particle
- ▶ the “signal strength”  $\mu=0$  no signal,  $\mu=1$  predicted signal rate

**Nuisance parameters ( $\theta$  or  $\alpha_p$ ):** associated to uncertainty in:

- ▶ response of the detector (calibration)
- ▶ phenomenological model of interaction in non-perturbative regime

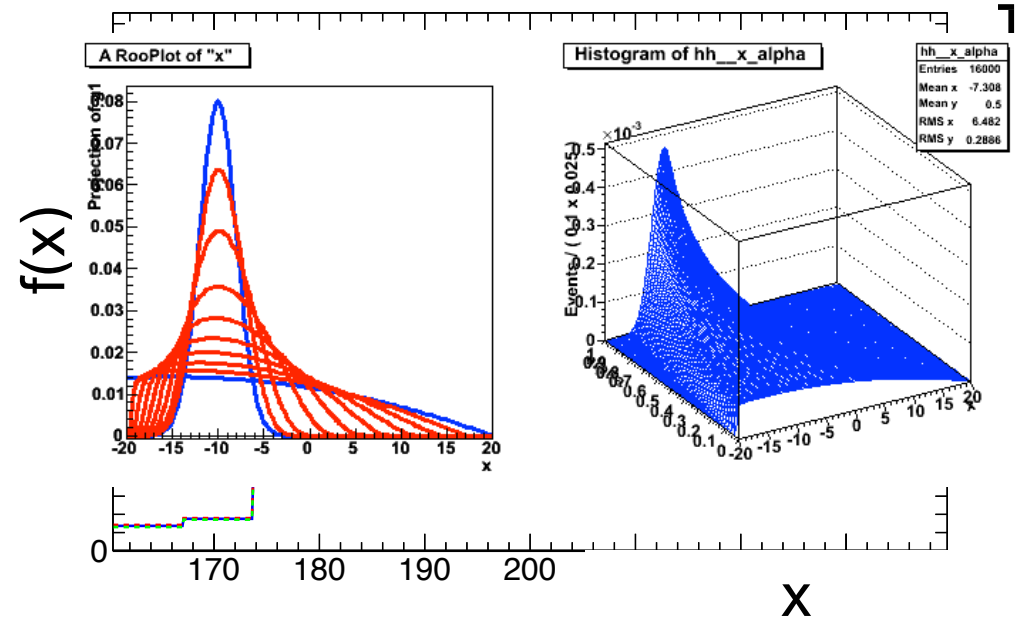
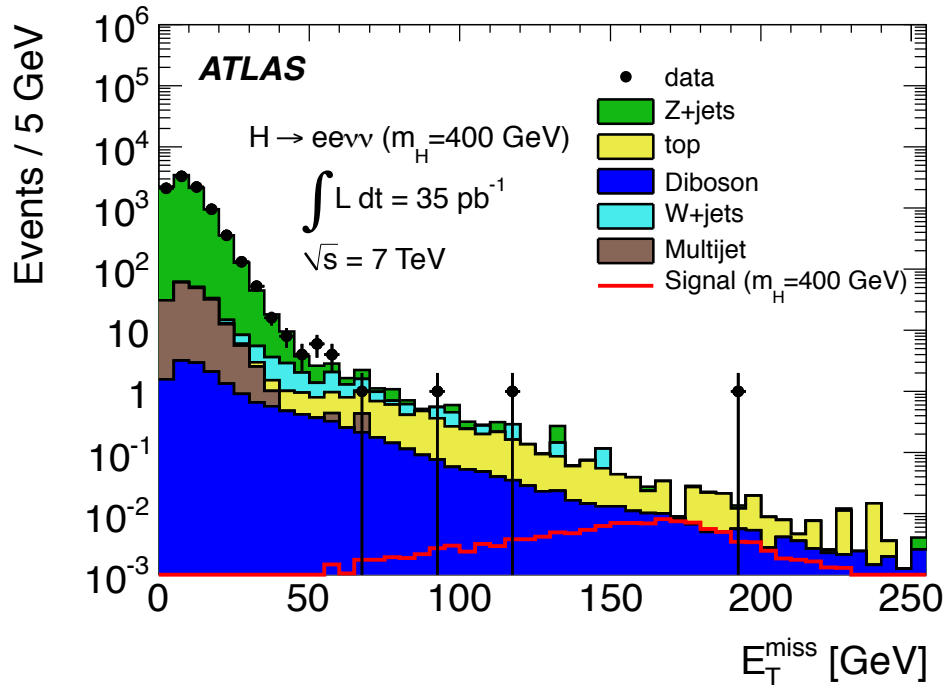
**Lead to a parametrized model:**  $\nu \rightarrow \nu(\alpha), f(x) \rightarrow f(x|\alpha)$

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathcal{D}|\alpha) = \text{Pois}(n|\nu(\alpha)) \prod_{e=1}^n f(x_e|\alpha)$$

# Incorporating Systematic Effects

Tabulate effect of individual variations of sources of systematic uncertainty

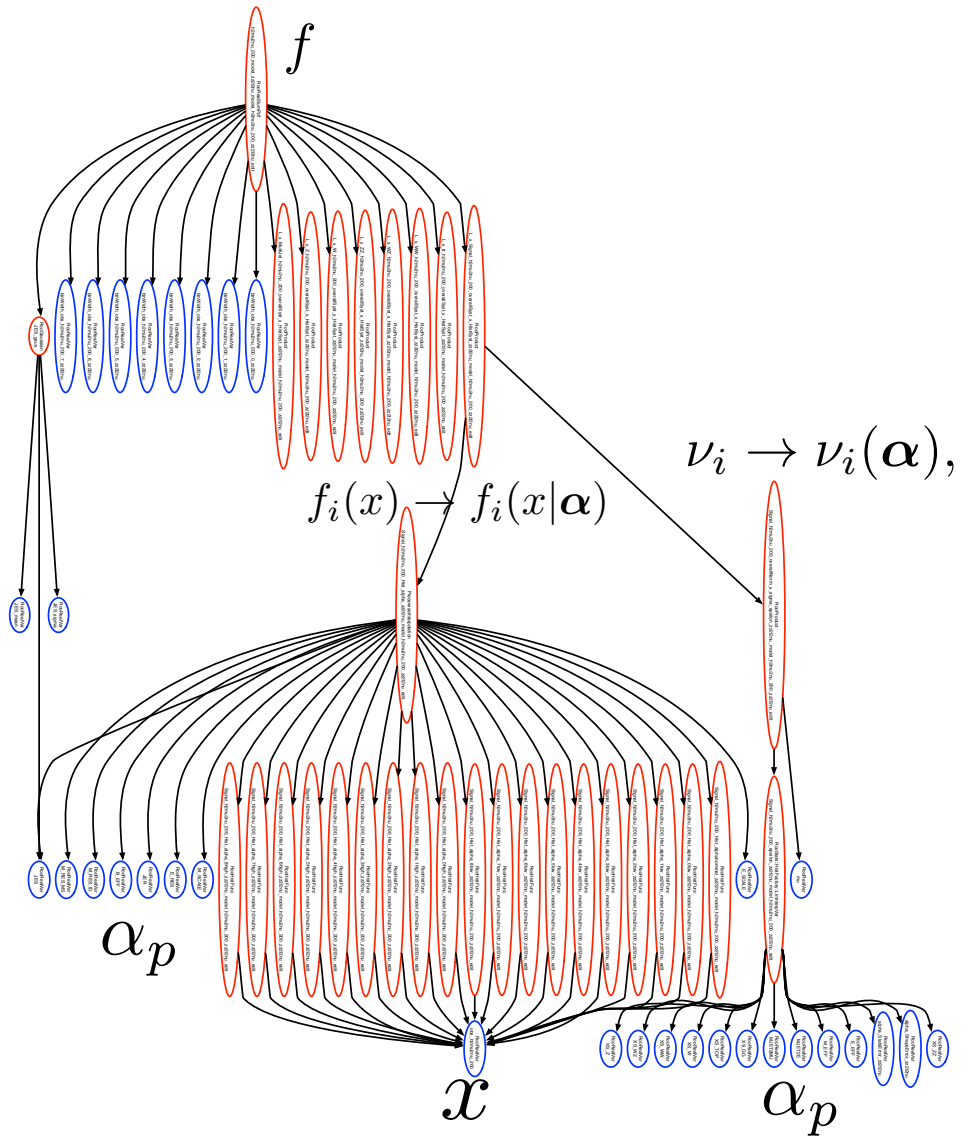
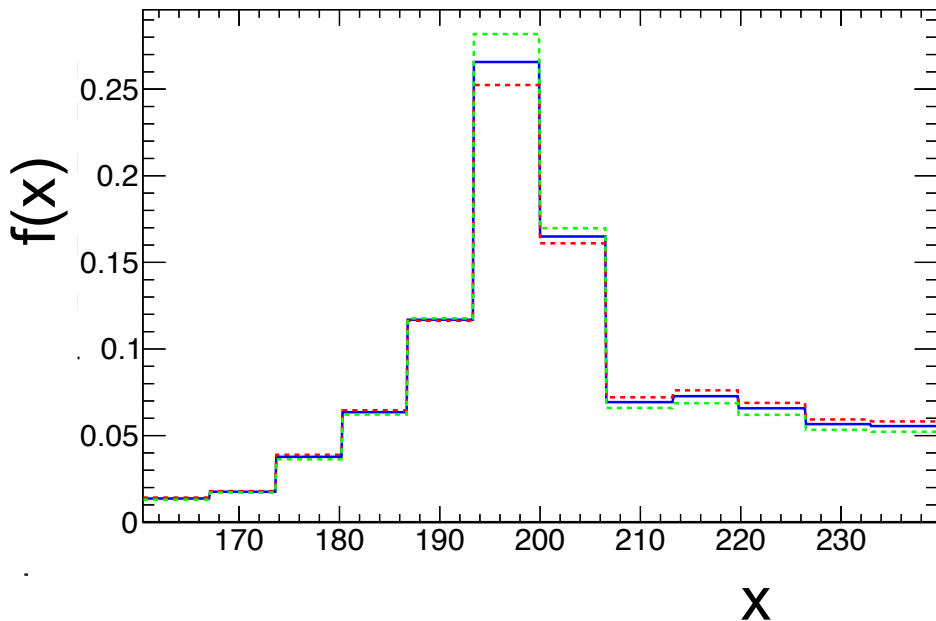
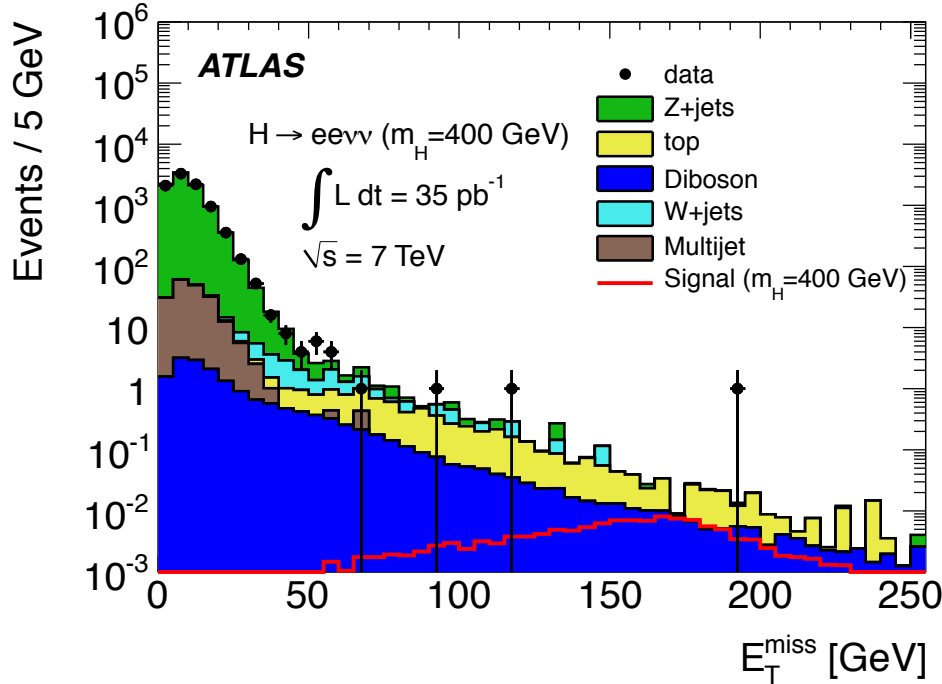
- typically one at a time evaluated at nominal and “ $\pm 1 \sigma$ ”
- use some form of interpolation to parametrize  $p^{\text{th}}$  variation in terms of nuisance parameter  $\alpha_p$



$$f(\mathcal{D}|\alpha) = \text{Pois}(n|\nu(\alpha)) \prod_{e=1}^n f(x_e|\alpha)$$

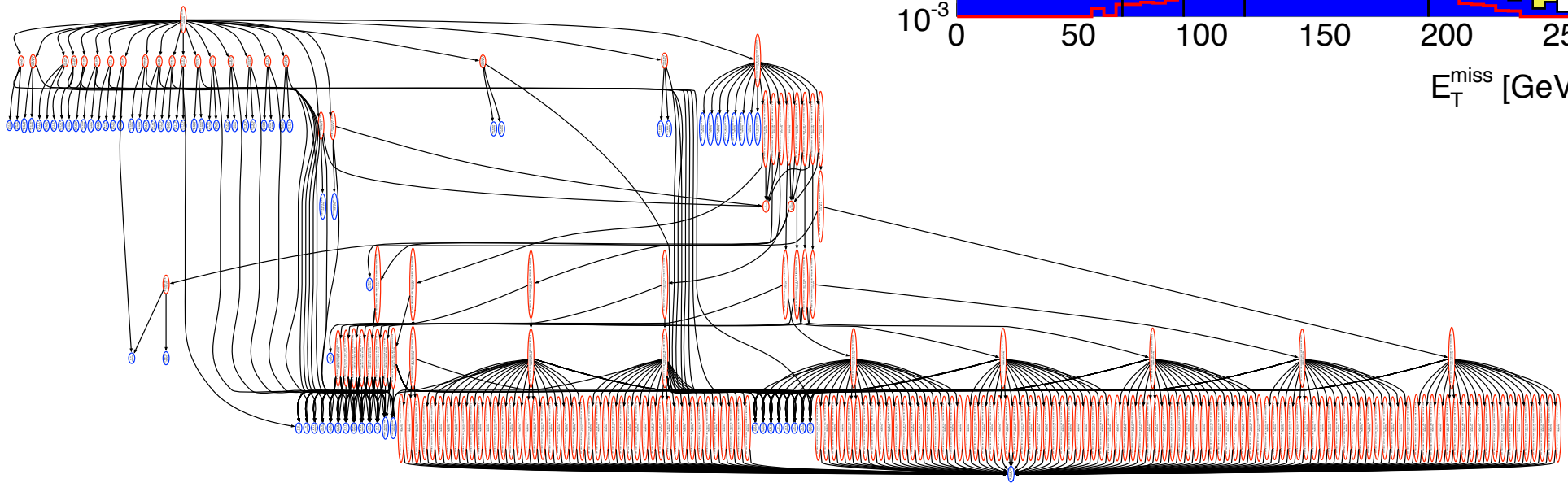
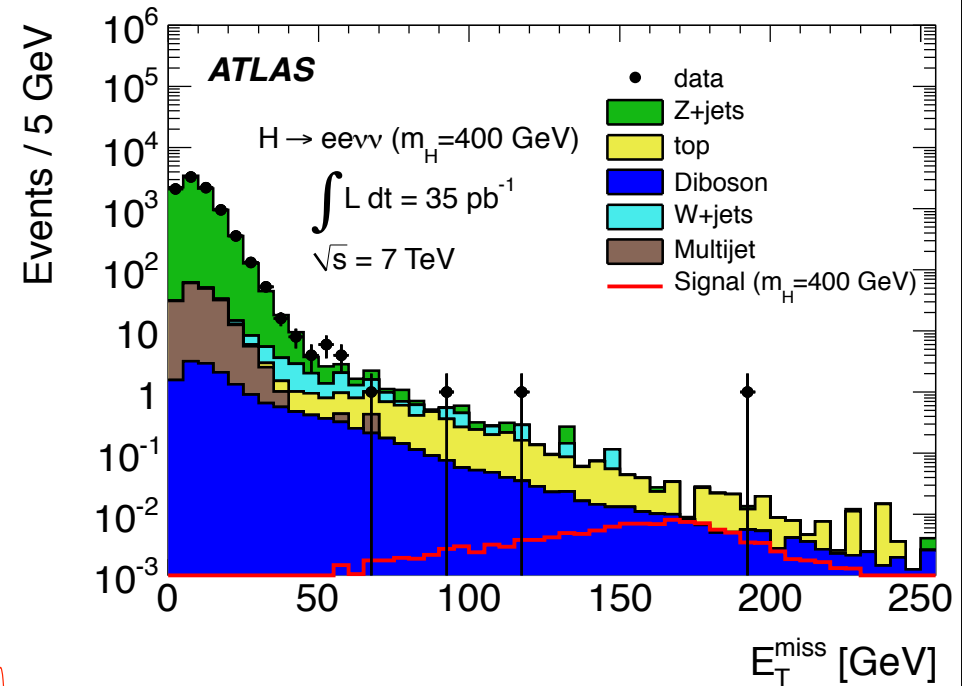


# Visualizing the model for one channel



# Visualizing the model for one channel

After parametrizing each component of the mixture model, the pdf for a single channel might look like this



**Simultaneous Multi-Channel Model:** Several disjoint regions of the data are modeled simultaneously. Identification of common parameters across many channels requires coordination between groups such that meaning of the parameters are really the same.

$$\mathbf{f}_{\text{sim}}(\mathcal{D}_{\text{sim}}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \prod_{c \in \text{channels}} \left[ \text{Pois}(n_c | \nu_c(\boldsymbol{\alpha})) \prod_{e=1}^{n_c} f_c(x_{ce} | \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \right]$$

where  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{sim}} = \{\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{c_{\text{max}}}\}$

**Control Regions:** Some channels are not populated by signal processes, but are used to constrain the nuisance parameters

- ▶ attempt to describe systematics in a statistical language
- ▶ **Prototypical Example: “on/off” problem with unknown  $\nu_b$**

$$\mathbf{f}(n, m | \mu, \nu_b) = \underbrace{\text{Pois}(n | \mu + \nu_b)}_{\text{signal region}} \cdot \underbrace{\text{Pois}(m | \tau \nu_b)}_{\text{control region}}$$

Often detailed statistical model for auxiliary measurements that measure certain nuisance parameters are not available.

- ▶ one typically has MLE for  $\alpha_p$ , denoted  $a_p$  and standard error

**Constraint Terms:** are idealized pdfs for the MLE.

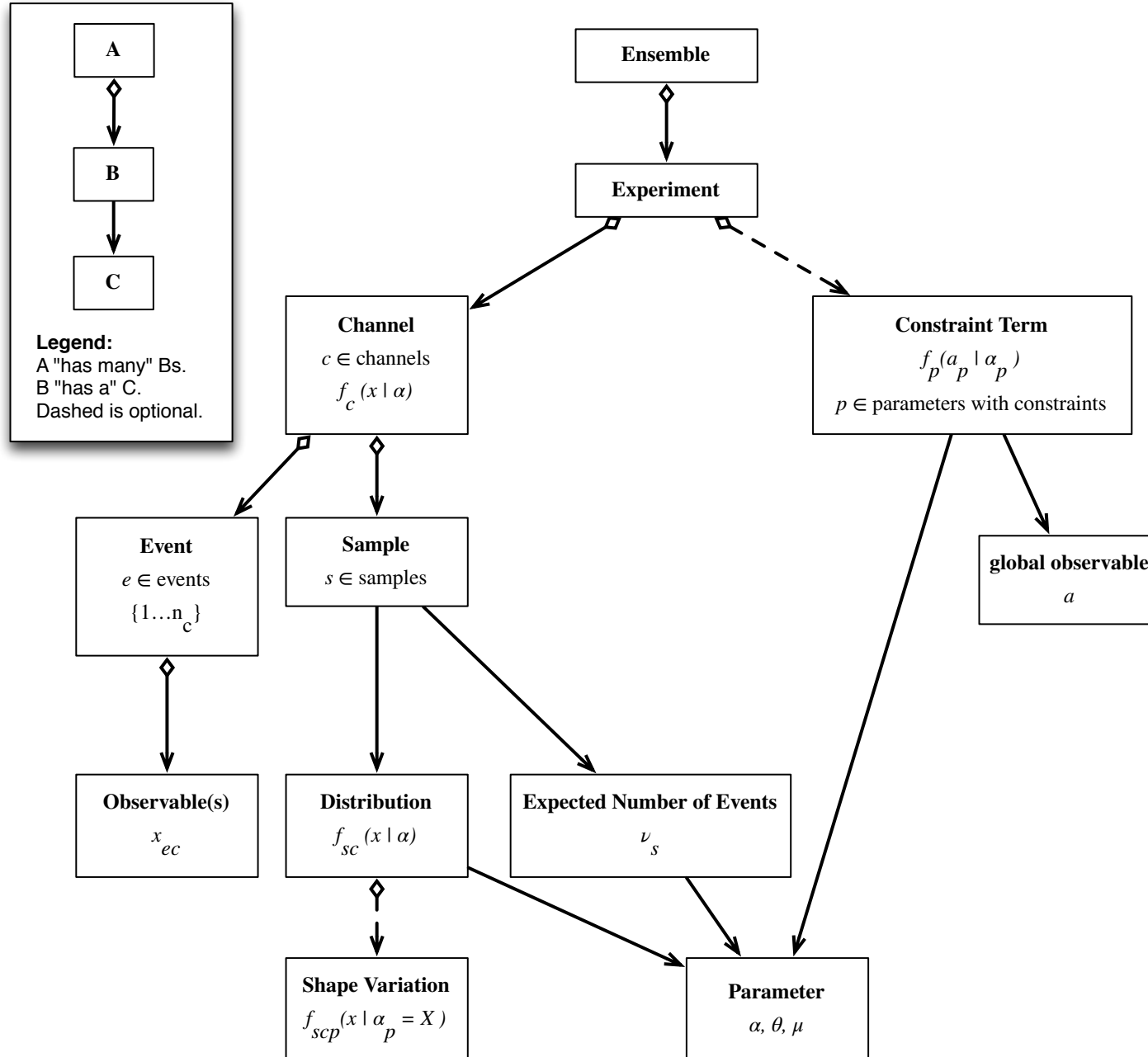
$$f_p(a_p | \alpha_p) \quad \text{for } p \in \mathbb{S}$$

- ▶ common choices are Gaussian, Poisson, and log-normal
- ▶ New: careful to write constraint term a frequentist way
- ▶ Previously:  $\pi(\alpha_p | a_p) = f_p(a_p | \alpha_p) \eta(\alpha_p)$  with uniform  $\eta$

**Simultaneous Multi-Channel Model with constraints:**

$$\mathbf{f}_{\text{tot}}(\mathcal{D}_{\text{sim}}, \mathcal{G} | \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \prod_{c \in \text{channels}} \left[ \text{Pois}(n_c | \nu_c(\boldsymbol{\alpha})) \prod_{e=1}^{n_c} f_c(x_{ce} | \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \right] \cdot \prod_{p \in \mathbb{S}} f_p(a_p | \alpha_p)$$

where  $\mathcal{D}_{\text{sim}} = \{\mathcal{D}_1, \dots, \mathcal{D}_{c_{\text{max}}}\}$ ,  $\mathcal{G} = \{a_p\}$  for  $p \in \mathbb{S}$



# Combined ATLAS Higgs Search

**State of the art:** At the time of the discovery, the combined Higgs search included 100 disjoint channels and >500 nuisance parameters

- ▶ Models for individual channels come from about 11 sub-groups performing dedicated searches for specific Higgs decay modes
- ▶ In addition low-level performance groups provide tools for evaluating systematic effects and corresponding constraint terms

Higgs Decay	Subsequent Decay	Additional Sub-Channels	$m_H$ Range	L [fb <sup>-1</sup> ]
$H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$	–	9 sub-channels ( $p_{T_i} \otimes \eta_\gamma \otimes$ conversion)	110-150	4.9
$H \rightarrow ZZ$	$lll'l'$	$\{4e, 2e2\mu, 2\mu 2e, 4\mu\}$	110-600	4.8
	$ll\nu\nu$	$\{ee, \mu\mu\} \otimes \{\text{low pile-up, high pile-up}\}$	200-280-600	4.7
	$llqq$	$\{b\text{-tagged, untagged}\}$	200-300-600	4.7
$H \rightarrow WW$	$lvlv$	$\{ee, e\mu, \mu\mu\} \otimes \{0\text{-jet, 1-jet, VBF}\}$	110-300-600	4.7
	$lvqq'$	$\{e, \mu\} \otimes \{0\text{-jet, 1-jet}\}$	300-600	4.7
$H \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-$	$ll4\nu$	$\{e\mu\} \otimes \{0\text{-jet}\} \oplus \{1\text{-jet, VBF, VH}\}$	110-150	4.7
	$l\tau_{\text{had}}3\nu$	$\{e, \mu\} \otimes \{0\text{-jet}\} \otimes \{E_T^{\text{miss}} \geq 20 \text{ GeV}\} \oplus \{e, \mu\} \otimes \{1\text{-jet, VBF}\}$	110-150	4.7
	$\tau_{\text{had}}\tau_{\text{had}}2\nu$	$\{1\text{-jet}\}$	110-150	4.7
$VH \rightarrow b\bar{b}$	$Z \rightarrow \nu\bar{\nu}$	$E_T^{\text{miss}} \in \{120 - 160, 160 - 200, \geq 200 \text{ GeV}\}$	110-130	4.6
	$W \rightarrow l\nu$	$p_T^W \in \{< 50, 50 - 100, 100 - 200, \geq 200 \text{ GeV}\}$	110-130	4.7
	$Z \rightarrow ll$	$p_T^Z \in \{< 50, 50 - 100, 100 - 200, \geq 200 \text{ GeV}\}$	110-130	4.7

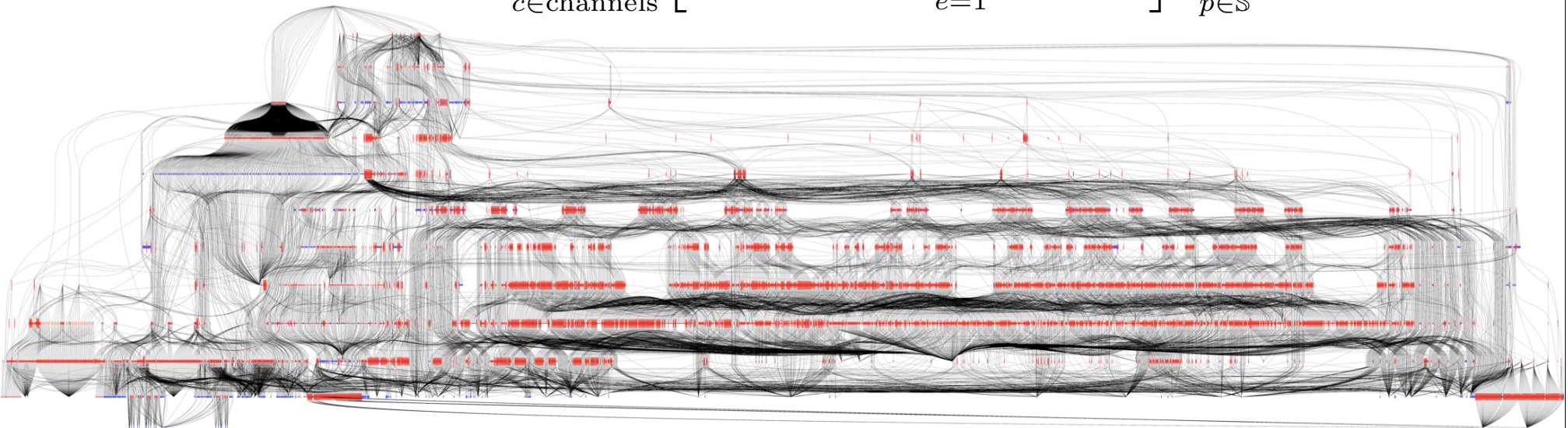
# Visualizing the combined model

**State of the art:** At the time of the discovery, the combined Higgs search included 100 disjoint channels and >500 nuisance parameters

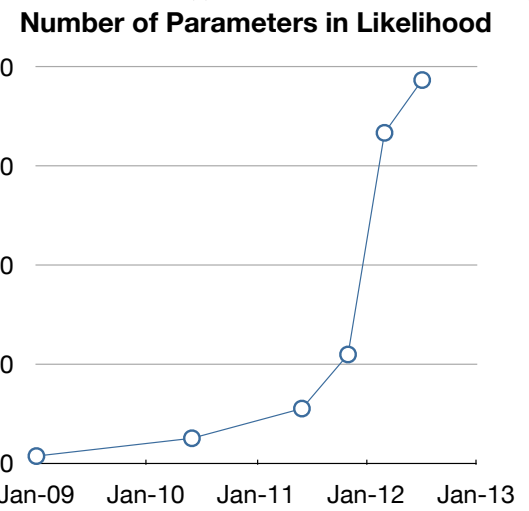
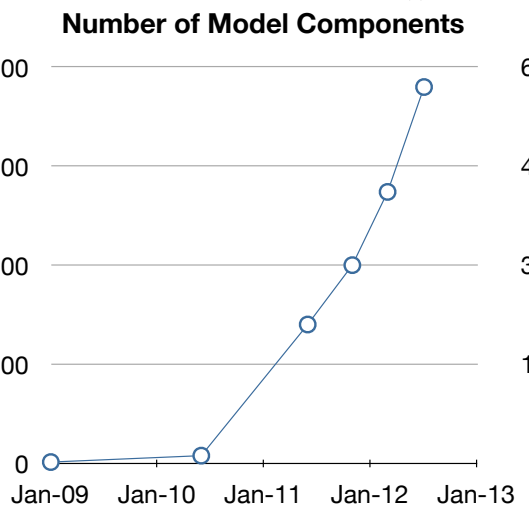
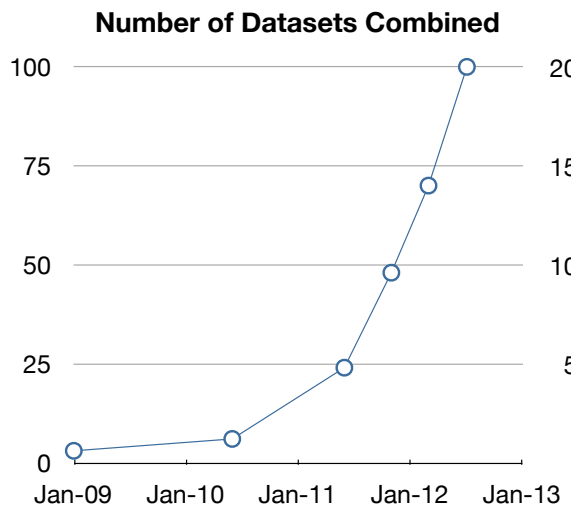
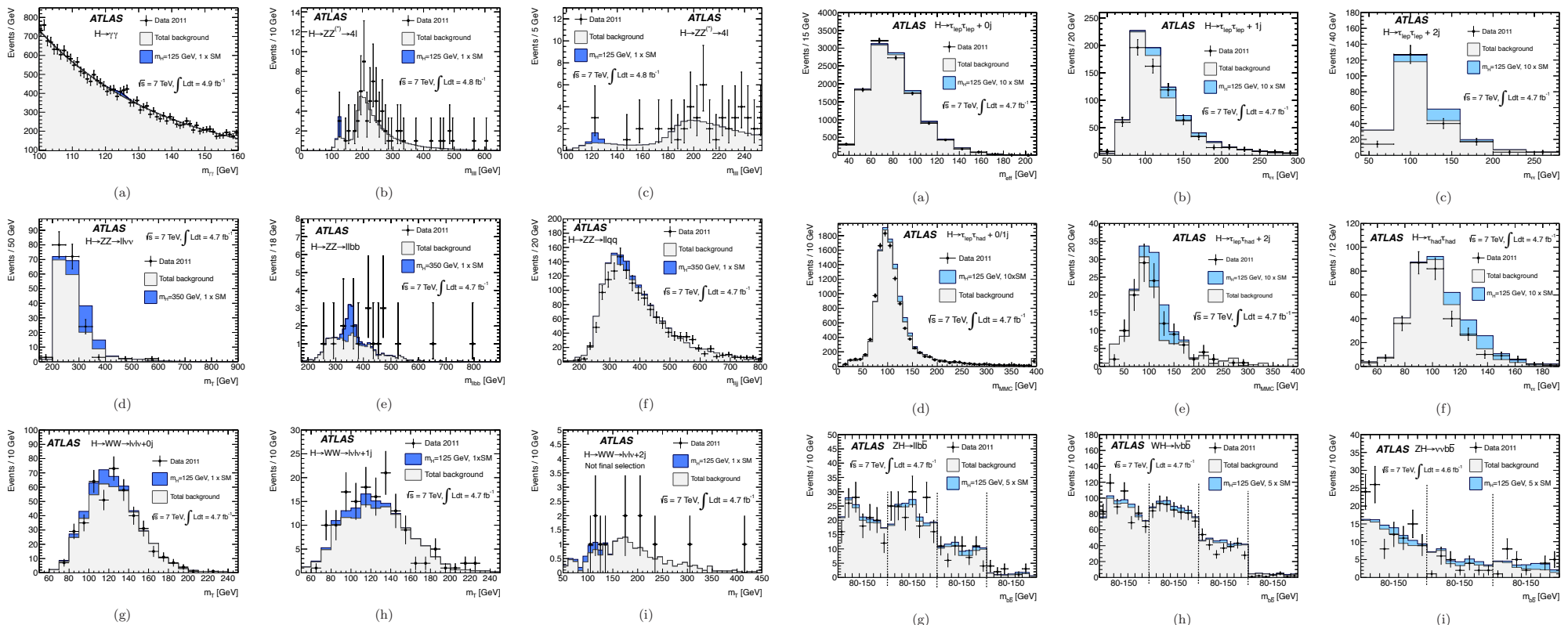
**RooFit / RooStats:** is the modeling language (C++) which provides technologies for collaborative modeling

- ▶ provides technology to publish likelihood functions digitally
- ▶ and more, it's the full model so we can also generate pseudo-data

$$f_{\text{tot}}(\mathcal{D}_{\text{sim}}, \mathcal{G} | \alpha) = \prod_{c \in \text{channels}} \left[ \text{Pois}(n_c | \nu_c(\alpha)) \prod_{e=1}^{n_c} f_c(x_{ce} | \alpha) \right] \cdot \prod_{p \in \mathcal{S}} f_p(a_p | \alpha_p)$$



# Evolution of Model Complexity







# Constraint Terms Auxiliary Measurements and Priors on Nuisance Parameters

# What do we mean by uncertainty?

Let's consider a simplified problem that has been studied quite a bit to gain some insight into our more realistic and difficult problems

- ▶ number counting with background uncertainty
  - in our main measurement we observe  $n_{\text{on}}$  with  $s+b$  expected

$$\text{Pois}(n_{\text{on}} | s + b)$$

- ▶ and the background has some uncertainty
  - but what is “background uncertainty”? Where did it come from?
  - maybe we would say background is known to 10% or that it has some pdf  $\pi(b)$ 
    - then we often do a **smearing** of the background:

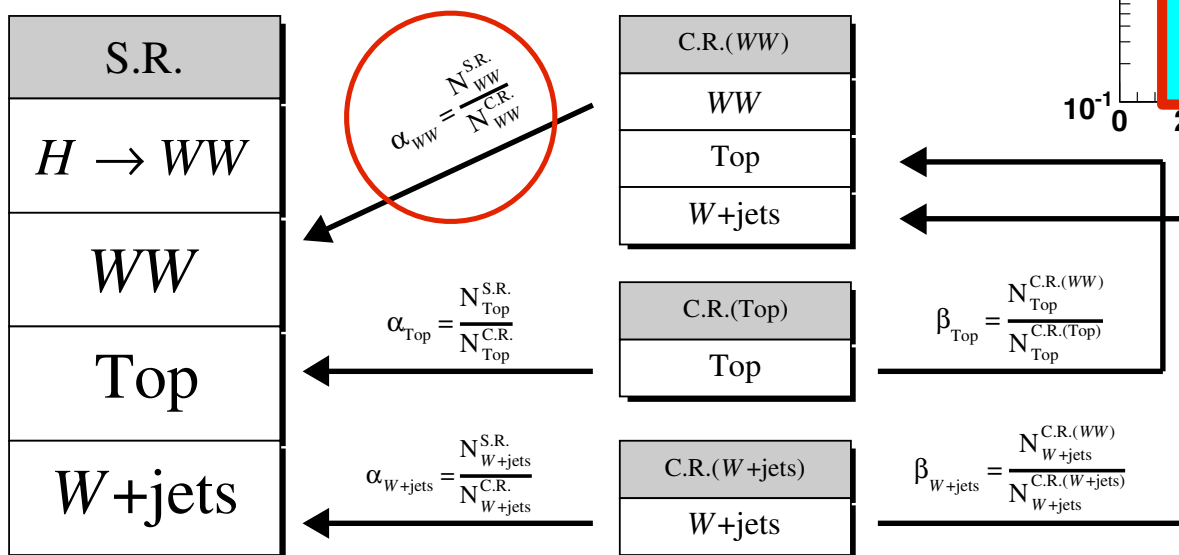
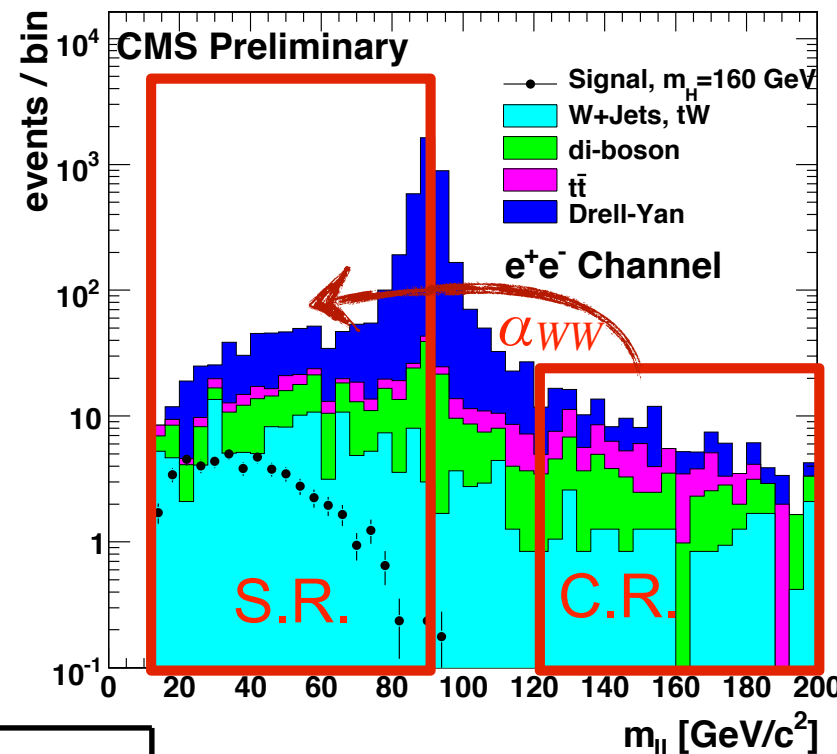
$$P(n_{\text{on}} | s) = \int db \text{Pois}(n_{\text{on}} | s + b) \pi(b),$$

- Where does  $\pi(b)$  come from?
  - did you realize that this is a Bayesian procedure that depends on some prior assumption about what  $b$  is?

# The Data-driven narrative

Regions in the data with negligible signal expected are used as control samples

- simulated events are used to estimate extrapolation coefficients
- extrapolation coefficients may have theoretical and experimental uncertainties



Notation for next slides:  
 # in S.R.  $\rightarrow n_{on}$   
 # in C.R.  $\rightarrow n_{off}$   
 $\alpha_{WW} \rightarrow \tau$

Figure 10: Flow chart describing the four data samples used in the  $H \rightarrow WW^{(*)} \rightarrow \ell\nu\ell\nu$  analysis. S.R and C.R. stand for signal and control regions, respectively.

# The “on/off” problem

Now let's say that the background was estimated from some control region or sideband measurement.

▶ We can treat these two measurements simultaneously:

- main measurement: observe  $n_{on}$  with  $s+b$  expected
- sideband measurement: observe  $n_{off}$  with  $\tau b$  expected

$$\underbrace{P(n_{on}, n_{off} | s, b)}_{\text{joint model}} = \underbrace{\text{Pois}(n_{on} | s + b)}_{\text{main measurement}} \underbrace{\text{Pois}(n_{off} | \tau b)}_{\text{sideband}}$$

- In this approach “background uncertainty” is a statistical error
- justification and accounting of background uncertainty is much more clear

How does this relate to the smearing approach?

$$P(n_{on} | s) = \int db \text{Pois}(n_{on} | s + b) \pi(b),$$

▶ while  $\pi(b)$  is based on data, it still depends on some original prior  $\eta(b)$

$$\pi(b) = P(b | n_{off}) = \frac{P(n_{off} | b) \eta(b)}{\int db P(n_{off} | b) \eta(b)}.$$

# Common Constraints Terms

Many uncertainties have no clear statistical description or it is impractical to provide

Traditionally, we use Gaussians, but for large uncertainties it is clearly a bad choice

- quickly falling tail, bad behavior near physical boundary, optimistic p-values, ...

For systematics constrained from control samples and dominated by statistical uncertainty, a Gamma distribution is a more natural choice [PDF is Poisson for the control sample]

- longer tail, good behavior near boundary, natural choice if auxiliary is based on counting

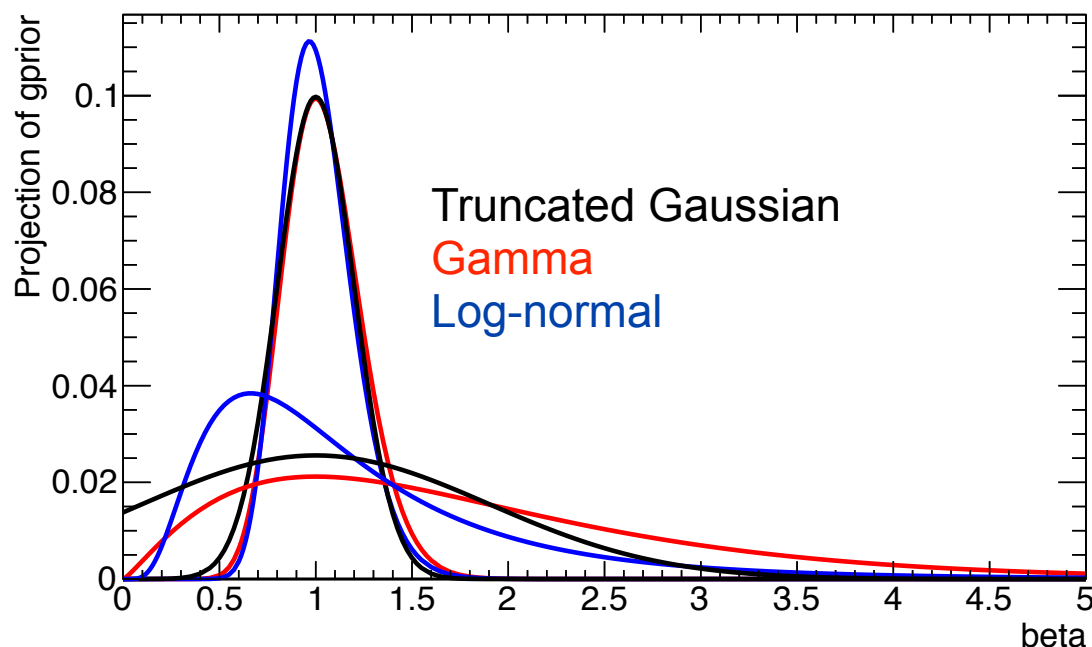
For “factor of 2” notions of uncertainty log-normal is a good choice

- can have a very long tail for large uncertainties

None of them are as good as an actual model for the auxiliary measurement, if available

To consistently switch between frequentist, Bayesian, and hybrid procedures, need to be clear about prior vs. likelihood function

PDF( $y \beta$ )	Prior( $\beta$ )	Posterior( $\beta y$ )
Gaussian	uniform	Gaussian
Poisson	uniform	Gamma
Log-normal	$1/\beta$	Log-Normal



# Classification of Systematic Uncertainties

Taken from Pekka Sinervo's PhyStat 2003 contribution

## Type I - "The Good"

- ▶ can be constrained by other sideband/auxiliary/ancillary measurements and can be treated as statistical uncertainties
  - scale with luminosity

## Type II - "The Bad"

- ▶ arise from model assumptions in the measurement or from poorly understood features in data or analysis technique
  - don't necessarily scale with luminosity
  - eg: "shape" systematics

## Type III - "The Ugly"

- ▶ arise from uncertainties in underlying theoretical paradigm used to make inference using the data
  - a somewhat philosophical issue

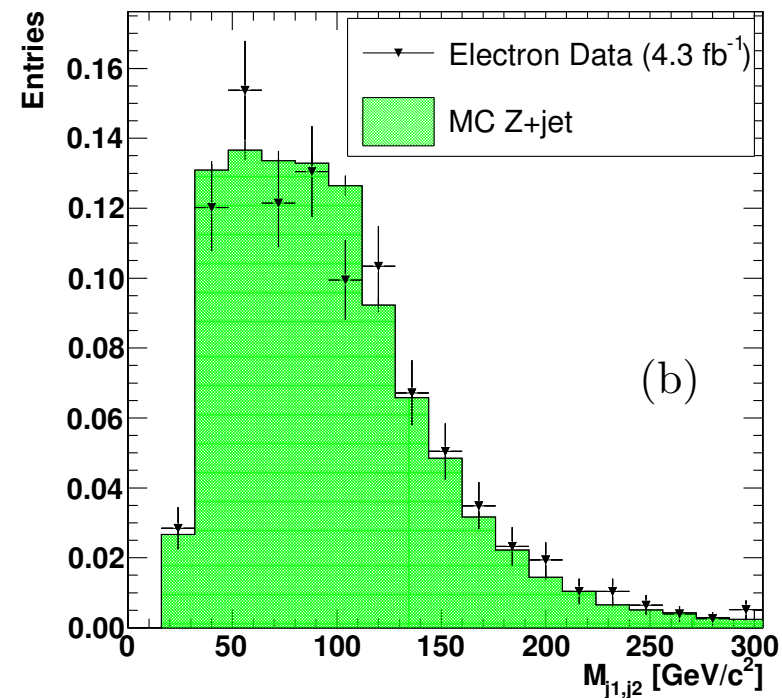
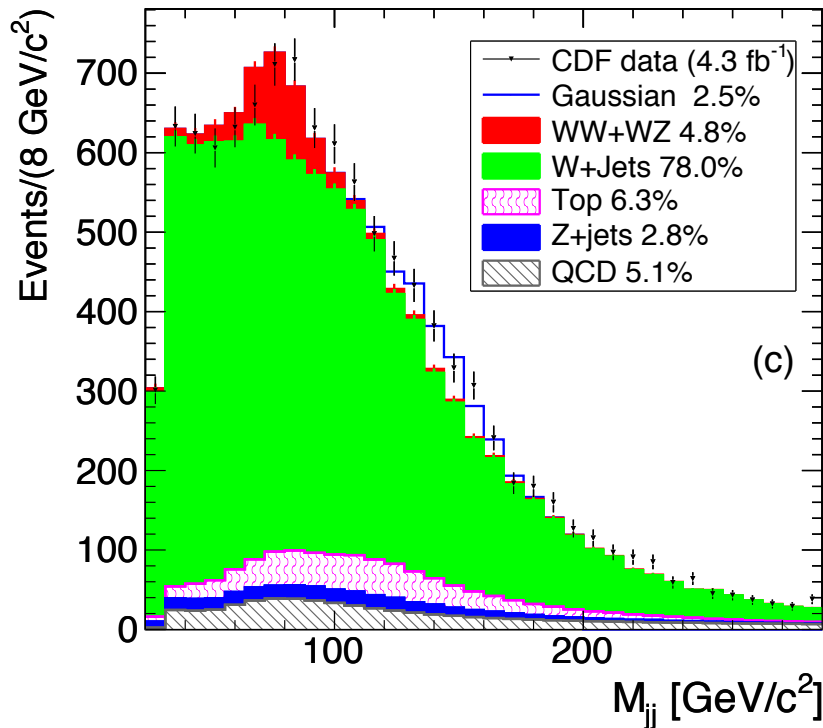
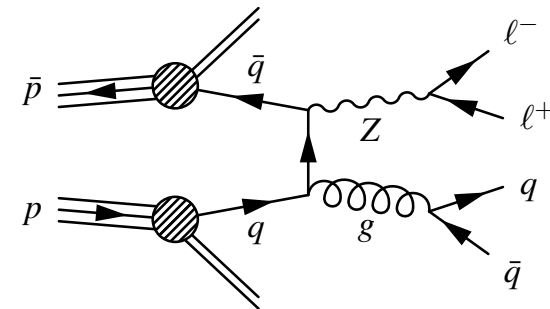
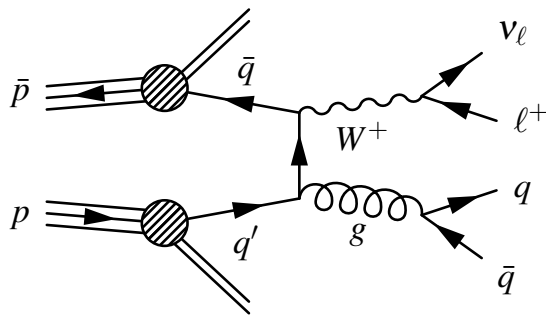




# Modeling: The Scientific Narrative (continued)

# Choice: Data driven vs. Simulation

In the case of the CDF bump, the Z+jets control sample provides a data-driven estimate, but limited statistics. Using the simulation narrative over the data-driven is a **choice**. If you trust that narrative, it's a good choice.



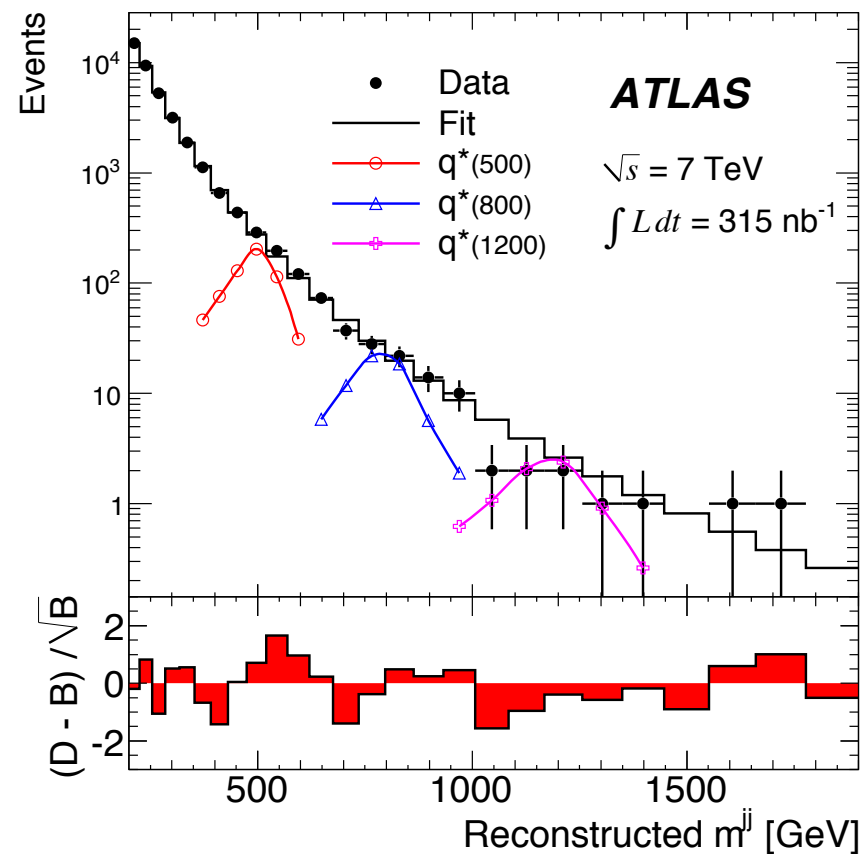
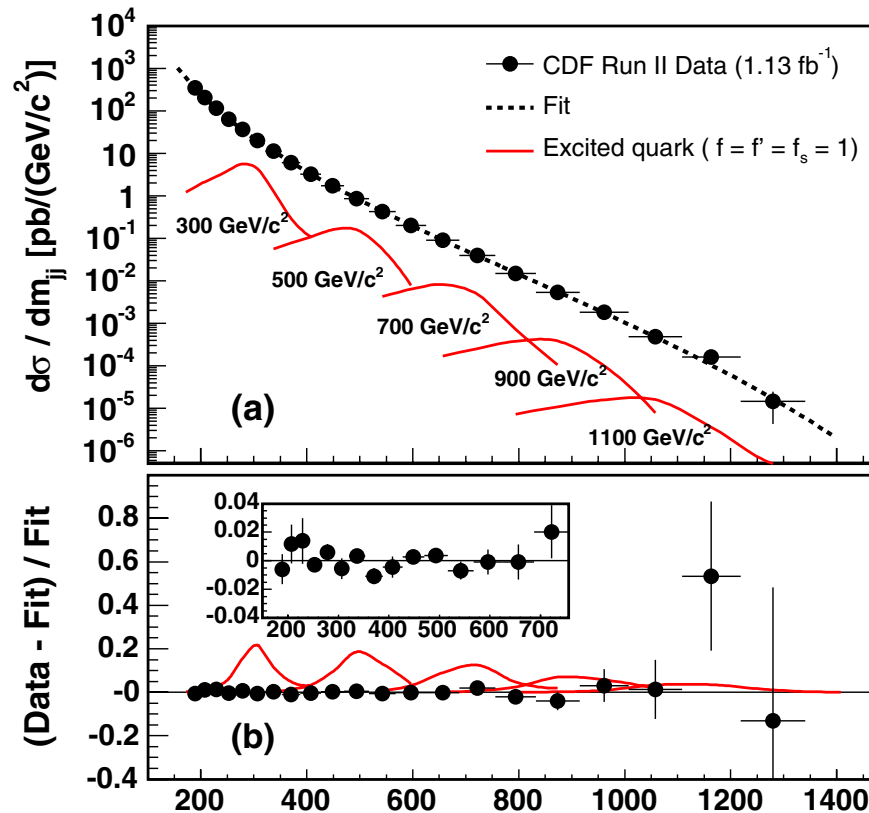


# The Effective Model Narrative

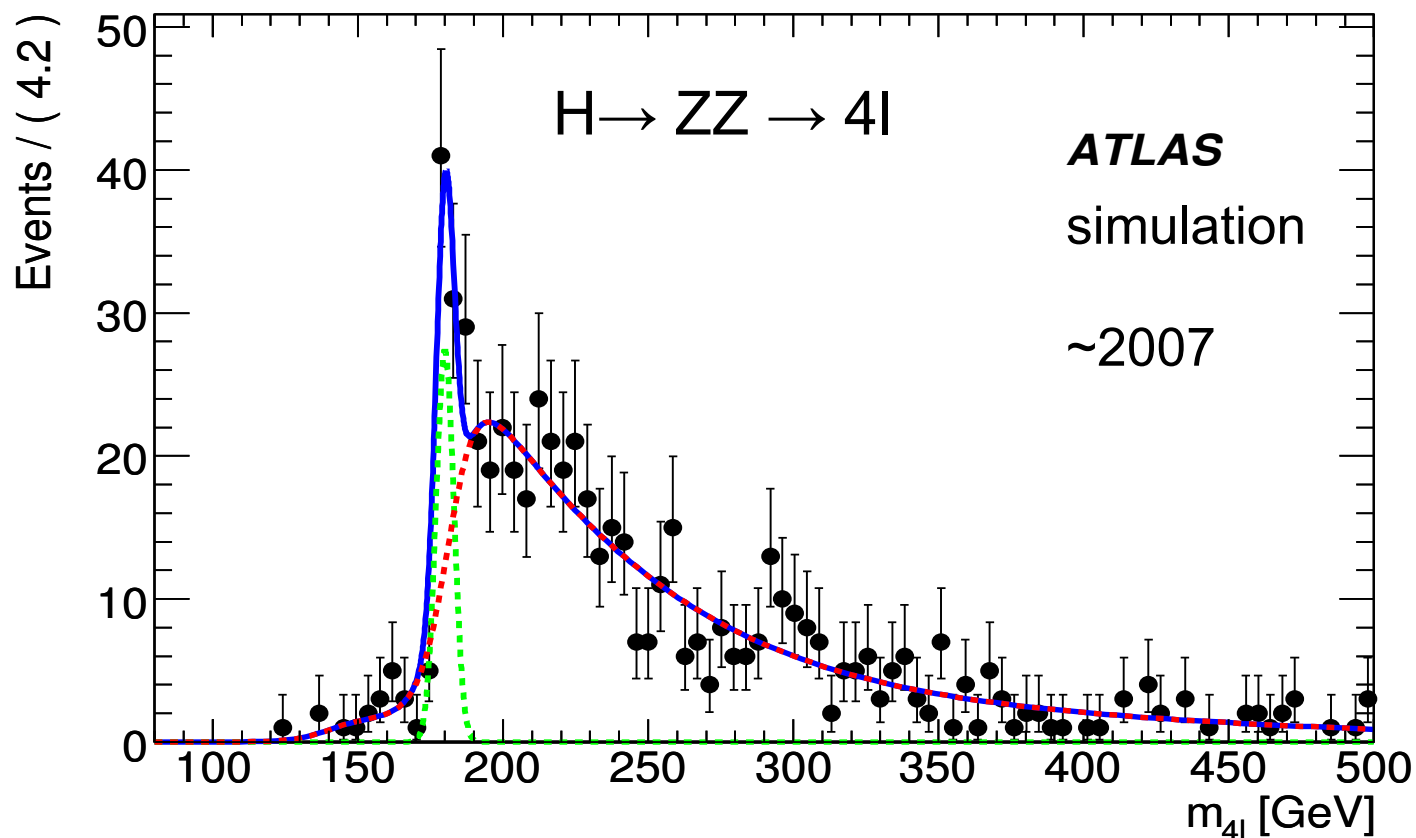
It is common to describe a distribution with some parametric function

- ▶ “fit background to a polynomial”, exponential, ...
- ▶ While this is convenient and the fit may be good, the narrative is weak

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$$\frac{d\sigma}{dm_{jj}} = p_0(1 - x)^{p_1} / x^{p_2 + p_3 \cdot \ln(x)}, \quad x = m_{jj} / \sqrt{s},$$

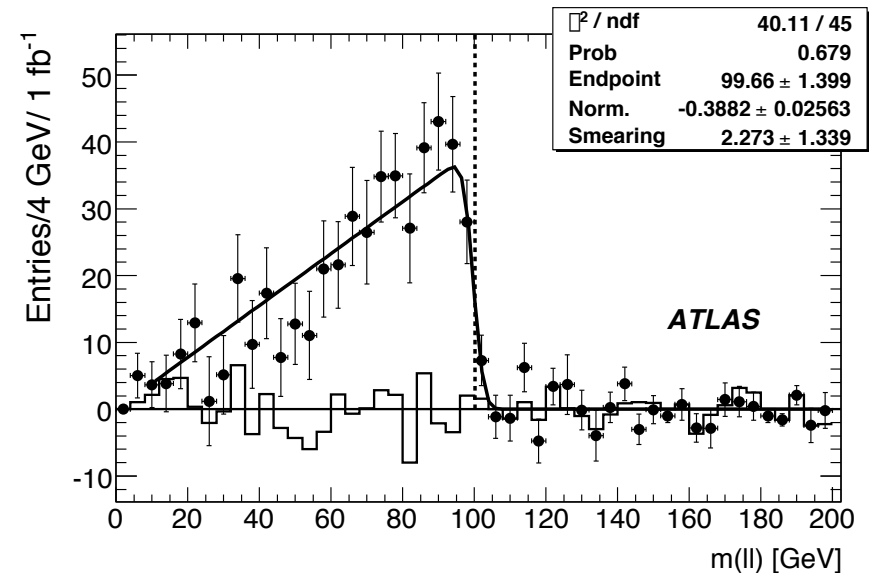
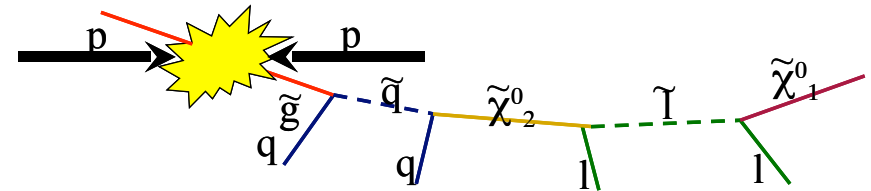
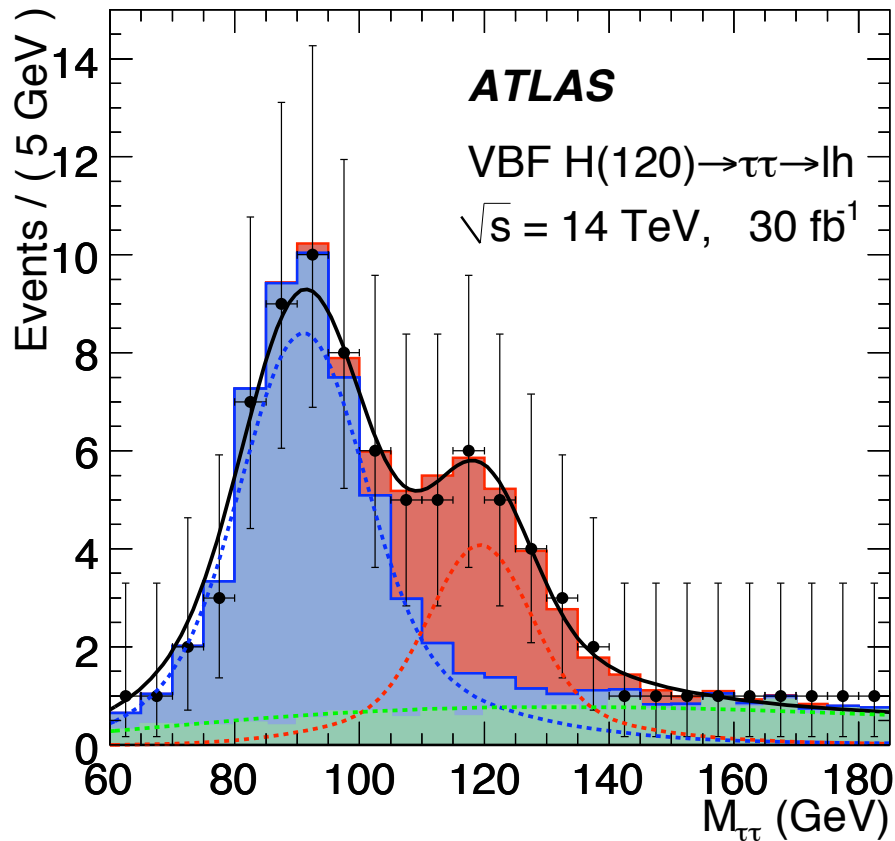


$$f(m_{ZZ}) = \frac{p_0}{\left(1 + e^{\frac{p_6 - m_{ZZ}}{p_7}}\right) \left(1 + e^{\frac{m_{ZZ} - p_8}{p_9}}\right)} + \frac{p_1}{\left(1 + e^{\frac{p_2 - m_{ZZ}}{p_3}}\right) \left(1 + e^{\frac{p_4 - m_{ZZ}}{p_5}}\right)}$$

# The Effective Model Narrative

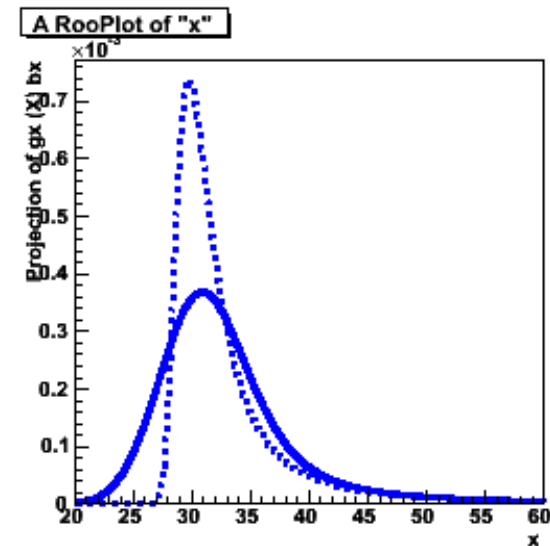
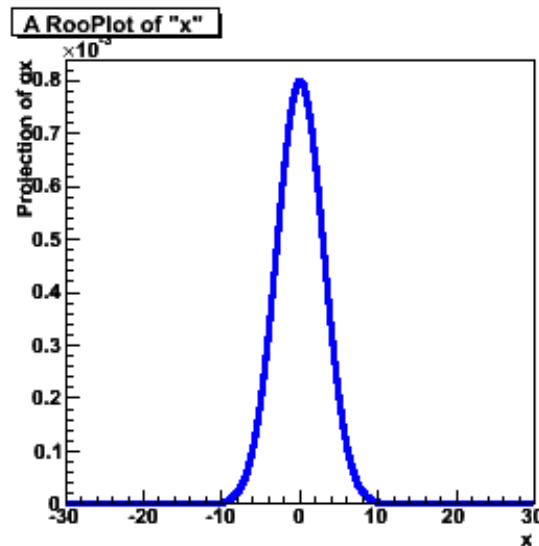
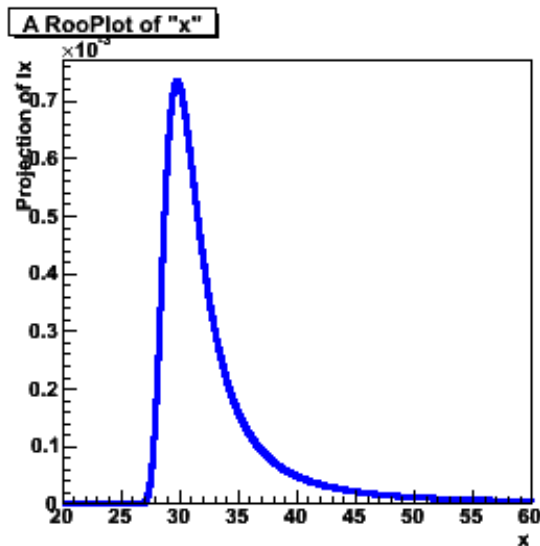
Sometimes the effective model comes from a convincing narrative

- convolution of detector resolution with known distribution
  - Ex: MissingET resolution propagated through  $M_{\tau\tau}$  in collinear approximation
  - Ex: lepton resolution convoluted with triangular  $M_{ll}$  distribution



- RooFit's convolution PDFs can aid in building more effective models with a more convincing narrative

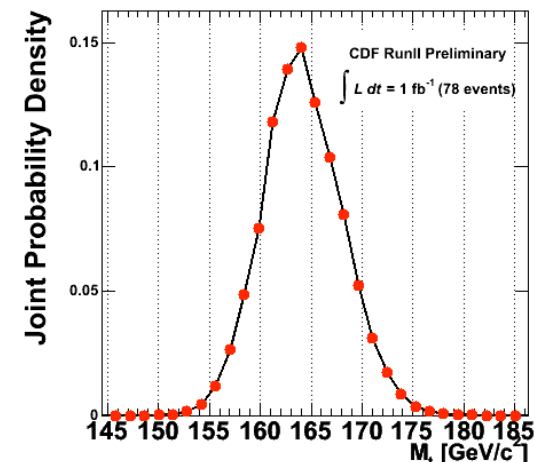
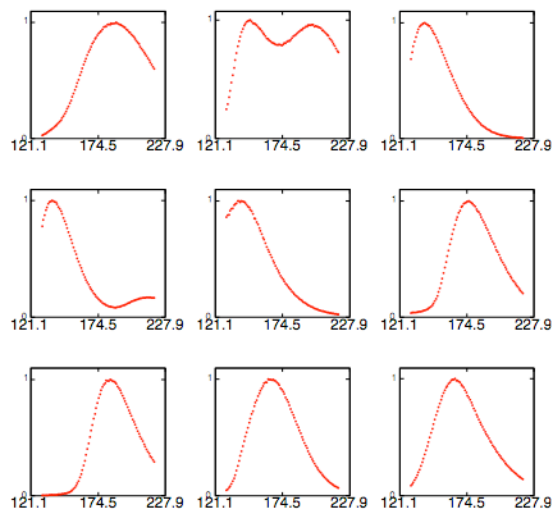
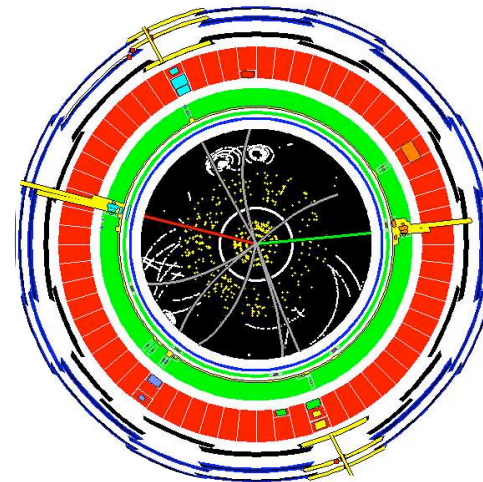
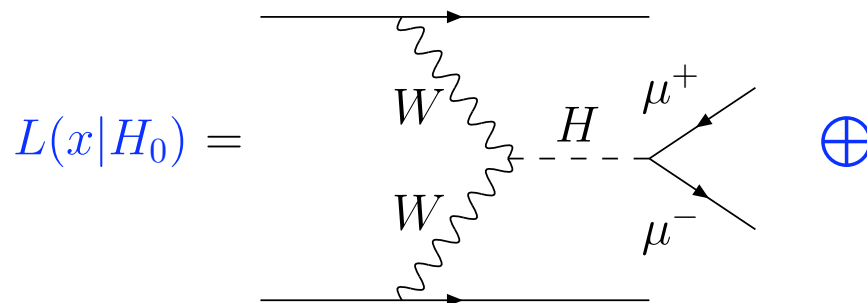
```
// Construct landau (x) gauss (10000 samplings 2nd order interpolation)  
t.setBins(10000,"cache") ;  
RooFFTConvPdf lxg("lxg","landau (X) gauss",t,landau,gauss,2) ;
```



# The parametrized response narrative

The Matrix-Element technique is conceptually similar to the simulation narrative, but the detector response is parametrized.

- Doesn't require building parametrized PDF by interpolating between non-parametric templates.



# Homework / Discussion Problem

Imagine a dataset with with observable  $m$  with range  $[0, 10]$

- ▶  $\sim 100$  events uniformly distributed in  $m$   $f_b(m) = 1/10$
- ▶  $\sim 30$  events Gaussian distributed with  $\mu = 5$ ,  $\sigma = 1$   $f_s(m) = G(m|\mu, \sigma)$

Recall our “marked Poisson”, where  $s, b$  are model parameters

$$P(\mathbf{m}|s) = \text{Pois}(n|s + b) \prod_j^n \frac{s f_s(m_j) + b f_b(m_j)}{s + b}$$

- ▶ What will be the “best fit”, maximum likelihood estimates of  $s, b$ ?
- ▶ What is the role of the Poisson term here?

Now imagine that we have a theory that predicts  $s/b = 0.5$ . How do things change?

Now imagine that we have a theory where  $\mu$  is a free parameter, but the signal rate is given by  $s(\mu) = 10^* \mu$ . How do things change?