Statistical methods and error analysis

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#### **Conditional probability**

A familiar example of conditional probability is dice throws. Suppose you have thrown a dice 3 times and got a 6 each time. What is the probability of getting a 6 in the next throw given that you have got three 6's in a three previous throws.

The answer is it's still  $\frac{1}{6}$  since the events are independent or the answer is the probability of getting four 6's in a row is  $(\frac{1}{6})^4$ , so the probability is  $(\frac{1}{6})^4$  for getting a 6 in a next throw.

**Definition 8:** If A and B are events in S, and P(B) 0 then the conditional probability of A given B, written P(A|B), is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \tag{1}$$

#### Conditional probability example

#### Example application of conditional probability:

Draw four cards from top of a deck of cards. What is the probability that all four are aces? The answer is  $\frac{1}{5^2C_4} = \frac{1}{270725}$ But in a alternative way, Probability of  $1^{st}$  card to be ace is  $P(ace) = \frac{4}{52}$ Probability of  $2^{nd}$  card to be ace given first is ace is  $P(ace|1^{st} is ace) = \frac{3}{51}$  and so on.  $\implies P(all four ace) = \frac{4}{52} \cdot \frac{3}{51} \cdot \frac{2}{50} \cdot \frac{1}{49} = \frac{1}{270725}$ 

#### **Bayes Theorem**

Re-expressing (1) we have,

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

Using symmetry,

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

This is often called **Bayes Theorem**.

Theorem 4: Bayes Rule

Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a partition of the sample space and let B be any set. Then, for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ 

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{\phi(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P(B|A_j)P(A_j)}$$

**Example:** Suppose we have 30% electron contamination in a pion beam in a calorimeter test beam run, i.e.  $P(e) = \frac{3}{10}$   $P(\pi) = \frac{7}{10}$  in beam. Due to reconstruction error, there is a 5% chance that a prion gets reconstructed as electron and vice-versa. If in an event a pron has been detected, what is the probability that truly a pion hit the detector?

Solution: Problem 1.44 (Casella-Berger).

Consider a sample space S divided into disjoint subsets  $A_i$ ,

i.e. 
$$S = \bigcup_i A_i$$
, and  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for  $i \neq j$ .



Consider a subset  $B \subset S$ , it can be expressed as

 $B = B \cap S = B \cap (\cup_i A_i) = \cup_i (B \cap A_i)$   $\implies P(B) = P(\cup_i (B \cap A_i)) = \sum_i P(B \cap A_i)$   $\implies P(B) = \sum_i P(B|A_i)P(A_i) \quad \text{law of total probability}$ Thus, Payor' theorem becomes

Thus, Bayes' theorem becomes

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

Consider a disease D carried by 0.1% of people i.e., the prior probabilities are P(D) = 0.001,

P(no D) = 0.999

Consider a test that identifies the disease, the result is +ve or -ve

Suppose the probabilities to (in)correctly identify a person with the disease are,

P(+|D) = 0.98,P(-|D) = 0.02

Similarly, suppose the probabilities to (in)correctly identify a healthy person

P(+|no D) = 0.01,P(-|no D) = 0.99

What is the probability to have the disease if someone is tested  $+ \mbox{ve}?$ 

We can calculate it using the Bayes' theorem i.e., the probability to have the disease given a +ve test result is

$$P(D|+) = \frac{P(+|D)P(D)}{P(+|D)P(D) + P(+|no D)P(no D)}$$
  
=  $\frac{0.98 \times 0.001}{0.98 \times 0.001 + 0.01 \times 0.999}$   
= 0.089 (posterior probability)

What does it mean?

Patient's view: Probabilty for him to have the disease is 8.9%. Doctor's view: 8.9% of people like this have the disease.

# Independent but identically distributed (iid)

Let us consider a perfectly homogeneous radioactive sample consisting of 2N atoms. Let us divide it into 2 exact halves, A and B such that each piece contains exactly N atoms. Let X denotes the number of decays in A in 5 seconds and Y denotes the decays in B in 5 seconds. Quite clearly both X and Y are binomially distributed and for every x = 0, 1, 2, 3...N we have,

$$P_X(X=x) = P_Y(Y=x)$$

but, X and Y are drawn from two different pieces and are obviously independent statistically. We will say, X and Y are *independent but identically distributed random variable* or *iid*.

## Bernoulli trial, Bernoulli distribution

- Bernoulli trial: Example coin toss
- Bernoulli random variable N has two outcomes
- n=1 (success), n = 0 (failure)
- Success probability P(n=1) = p is the only parameter
- Bernoulli distribution (pmf) : P(1) = p, p(0) = (1-p)
- Can also be written as p<sup>n</sup>(1-p)<sup>1-n</sup>



#### **Binomial distribution**

- If we do n bernoulli trials, what is the probability of X successes? (e.g. 4 tails in 10 coin tosses)
- Pmf = Binomial(X=x; n, p) =  ${}^{n}C_{x}p^{x}(1-p)^{n-x}$



### Negative Binomial distribution

- Number of successes(r) is fixed parameter
- Number of trials (X) is the random variable
- binomial\*(X; r,p) ~  $^{X-1}C_{r-1}p^{r}(1-p)^{X-r}$



#### Moments of a distribution

#### Definition 14: Mean

The expected value/ expectation value/ expectation/ mean (all are equivalent words) of a random variable X is defined as

$$E(X) = \langle X \rangle = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \\ \sum_{x \in \chi} x f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \end{cases}$$

(2)

(3)

For any general function of X, g(X), which is also a random variable

$$< g(X) >= \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \\ \sum_{x \in \chi} g(x) f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \end{cases}$$

Let us calculate the mean when X is uniformly distributed.

$$\langle X \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \int_{a}^{b} x \frac{1}{b-a} dx = \frac{b+a}{2}$$

Therefore in the range  $(0, 1) < X > = \frac{1}{2}$ .

#### Higher moments

Eq. (3) defines the expectation of any function g(x) of X.  $g_n(X) = \langle X^n \rangle$  is a class of functions of particular interest. These quantities are called the  $n^{th}$  moment of X, we will denote them by  $\mu'_n$ .

The  $n^{th}$  central moment of X is

$$\mu_n = \langle (X - \langle X \rangle)^n \rangle = \langle (X - \mu)^n \rangle \quad where, \ \mu = \mu'_1 = \langle X \rangle$$

The central moments contain information about the shape of the distribution around the mean.

The 2<sup>nd</sup> central moment, known as <u>variance</u>  $\langle (X - \langle X \rangle)^2 \rangle = \mu_2$ gives a measure of how widely the random no. X is distributed about its mean  $\mu$ . The square root of variance  $\sigma = \sqrt{(X - \langle X \rangle)^2}$  is called the *standard deviation* (s.d.).

**Imporant:** Often  $\pm \sigma$  is quoted as *statistical uncertainty* or *statistical error*.

#### Skewness and Kurtosis

Definition 15: Skewness & Kurtosis  $\alpha_3 = \frac{\mu_3}{(\mu_2)^{3/2}}$  where,  $\mu_3 = \langle (X - \mu)^3 \rangle$  is called *skewness* and is a measure of how asymmetric the distribution  $f_X(x)$  of X is.

 $\alpha_4 = \frac{\mu_4}{(\mu_2)^2}$  where,  $\mu_4$  is the 4<sup>th</sup> central moment  $\langle (X - \mu)^4 \rangle$ , is called *kurtosis* and is the measure of how sharply peaked a distribution is.



### Moment generating function (MGF)

The moment generating function of a random variable X is defined as,

 $M_X(x) = \langle e^{tx} \rangle \quad \text{note that the expectation may not exist}$  $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx \quad for \ X \ continuous$  $= \sum_x e^{tx} P(X = x) \quad for \ X \ discrete$ 

To see how  $M_X(t)$  generates moments, let us differentiate  $M_X$  w.r.t t,

$$\frac{dM_X(t)}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{-infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx$$
$$= \int_{-infty}^{\infty} x e^{tx} f_X(x) dx$$
$$= \langle x e^{tx} \rangle$$

 $\therefore \frac{d}{dt} M_X(x)|_{t=0} = \langle X \rangle \qquad \text{Similarly, } \frac{d^n}{dt^n} M_X(x) = \langle X^n \rangle$ 

### Bernoulli MGF

- Moment generating function of Bernoulli distribution: calculate expectation of (exp(tn)) where n is the outcomes of Bernoulli trials
- It will have just two terms for n=0,1

$$M(t) = \langle e^{tn} \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{1} e^{tn} p^n (1-p)^{1-n} = e^0 (1-p) + e^t p,$$

#### Homework

**Exercise 2.1.** Show that if X is binomially distributed, its given by

$$P(X = x) = {}^{n}C_{x}p^{x}(1-p)^{n-x}$$

then  $\langle X \rangle = np$ 

**Exercise 2.2.** We will often encounter Cauchy distribution or Breit-Wigner distribution, which is a more generalized form of Cauchy distribution. An interesting property of a Cauchy distributed variable X is  $\langle |X| \rangle = \infty$ . Prove this property.

**Exercise 2.3.** Another useful property relating the distance of a random variable X to some constant b is

$$< (X - b)^{2} > = < (X - < X >)^{2} > + (< X > -b)^{2}$$

Prove this property.

**Exercise 2.4.** Show that if X is a random variable then  $var(aX + b) = a^2 var(X)$ . Note that  $var(X) = \langle X^2 \rangle - \langle X \rangle^2$ .

**Exercise 2.5.** Show that the variance of  $X \sim binomial(n, p)$  (i.e. X is a random variable distributed binomially, with n and p as the parameters of the binomial) is,

$$np(1-p)$$

**Exercise 2.6.** In physics there are many examples of quantities that follow an exponential distribution

$$f_X(x) = Ae^{-x/\tau}$$

where, A is a constant such that  $\int_0^\infty f_X(x)dx = 1$  and  $\tau$  is a constant. e.g. The life-time of a radioactive nuclei, free path of a high energy photon in some material before it converts to an  $e^+e^-$  pair, or the free path travelled by a charged pion  $(\pi^+, \pi^-)$  in a piece of material before it does a nuclear interaction.

- (i) Exponential is a single parameter distribution, depending only on the parameter  $\tau$ . Prove that the const. A (called the normalization const.) is  $\frac{1}{\tau}$ .
- (ii) Find  $\mu = \langle X \rangle$  if X is an exponentially distributed random no.
- (iii) Find  $\sigma^2 = \langle (X \mu)^2 \rangle$

Exercise 2.7. A gamma distribution is given by the pdf

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} \quad where, \ 0 < x < \infty, \ \alpha > 0, \ \beta > 0$$

Prove that

$$M_X(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\frac{\beta}{1-\beta t}}$$
$$= (\frac{1}{1-\beta t})^{\alpha}$$

From this prove that if X is gamma distributed then  $\langle X \rangle = \alpha \beta$ 

**Exercise 2.8.** Show that if  $X \sim binomial(n, p)$  then

$$M_X(t) = [pe^t + (1-p)]^n$$