

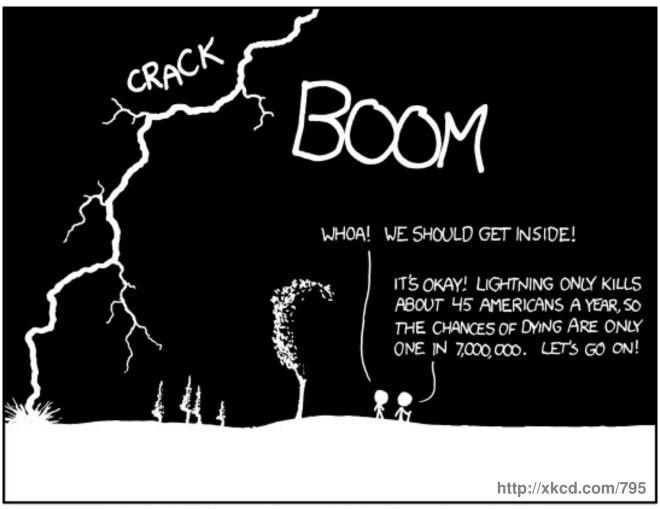
# Statistische Methoden der Datenanalyse

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### Idea of this lecture

- Show common statistical tools and best practice methods
- Explain basics and foundations
- Use lots of examples (be practical, but simple)
- See textbooks for completeness, details, and proofs

### Humor



THE ANNUAL DEATH RATE AMONG PEOPLE WHO KNOW THAT STATISTIC IS ONE IN SIX.

A little knowledge is a dangerous thing...

### Lecture summary

- Thursday
  - Probability
  - Model fitting
  - Confidence intervals
- Friday
  - Confidence limits
  - Monte-Carlo and resampling methods
  - Testing hypotheses
- Saturday
  - Probability density estimation
  - Multivariate classification
  - Optional: Artificial neural networks

### Literature

- G. Cowan, Statistical data analysis, Claredon Press (1998)
- F. James, Statistical Methods in Experimental Physics 2nd edition, World Scientific (2006)
- B. Efron and R. Tibshirani, An introduction to the bootstrap, Chapman and Hall (1993)
- V. Blobel and E. Lohrmann, Statistische und numerische Methoden der Datenanalyse, Teubner Verlag (1998)
- A. J. Izenmann, Modern Multivariate Statistical Techniques, Springer (2008)
- TMVA Workshop @ CERN, January 2011 http://indico.cern.ch/event/tmva\_workshop
- Davison and Hinkley, Bootstrap methods and their applications,
   Cambridge University Press (1997)
- Press, Teukolsky, Vettering, Flannery, Numerical Recipes 3rd edition,
   Cambridge University Press (2007)

### **Useful software**

```
Python + numpy + scipy + matplotlib
www.python.org www.scipy.org www.numpy.org matplotlib.sourceforge.net
```

ROOT (in particular RooFit, RooStats) root.cern.ch/drupal

R (main tool of statisticians) www.r-project.org

TMVA tmva.sourceforge.net

# **Topics for today**

- Probability
  - Bayesian and Frequentist views
  - Bayes theorem
  - Probability distributions and probability density functions
- Model fitting
  - Maximum-likelihood method
  - (Linear) least-squares method
- Calculation and interpretation of fit uncertainties

# **Probability**

## **Probability**

# Bayesian view

P = degree of belief (betting odds!)

Allows one to calculate *P* of non-repeatable events, e.g. "probability" of a theory being correct

### **Frequentist view**

P = frequency of outcome from a (in principle) repeatable process

Objective statements

Confidence regions based on coverage

No objective statements Results depend on *prior beliefs* 

Can handle systematic uncertainties

### Calculus for probabilities

Both Bayesian and Frequentist probabilities obey the Kolmogorov axioms Let's regard a set of exclusive events  $X_i$ , with probability  $P(X_i)$  of occurrence of  $X_i$ 

a)  $P(X_i) \geq 0$  for all i

probabilities cannot be negative

b)  $P(X_i \text{ or } X_i) = P(X_i) + P(X_i)$  probabilities of mutually exclusive events add up

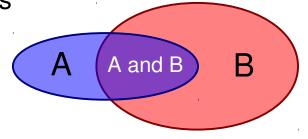
 $c) \sum_{i} P(X_i) = 1$ 

probabilities of all mutually exclusive events add up to one

More general rules follow for non-exclusive events

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$



A and B are independent if P(A|B) = P(A), then P(A and B) = P(A)P(B)

Bayes theorem

(Bayesian and Frequentist)

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(B|A_i) P(A_i)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A_i) P(A_i)}{\sum_i P(B|A_i) P(A_i)}$$

### Bayesian use of Bayes theorem

After looking at LHC data, should I believe in the Higgs? Use Bayes theorem:

$$P(\text{Higgs}|\text{data}) = \frac{P(\text{data}|\text{Higgs}) P(\text{Higgs})}{P(\text{data}|\text{Higgs}) P(\text{Higgs}) + P(\text{data}|\text{no Higgs}) P(\text{no Higgs})}$$

What is my prior belief in the Higgs? I don't know.

$$P({\rm Higgs}) = P({\rm no\,Higgs}) = 0.5$$
 Uninformative prior

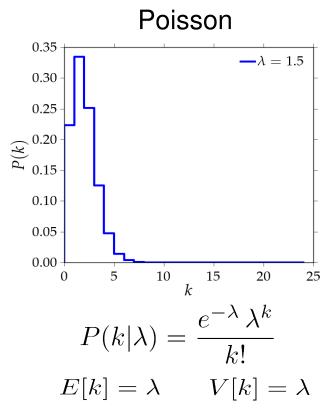
Use of Bayes theorem with *uninformative priors* is the closest to objective inference that Bayesian methodology has to offer

- a) P(data|Higgs) = 0.6 P(data|no Higgs) = 0.1  $\Rightarrow$  P(Higgs|data) = 0.75 Odds to explain data with/without the Higgs 6 to 1, still the Higgs is not a sure bet
- **b)** P(data|Higgs) = 0.8 P(data|no Higgs) = 0.8  $\Rightarrow P(\text{Higgs}|\text{data}) = 0.5$

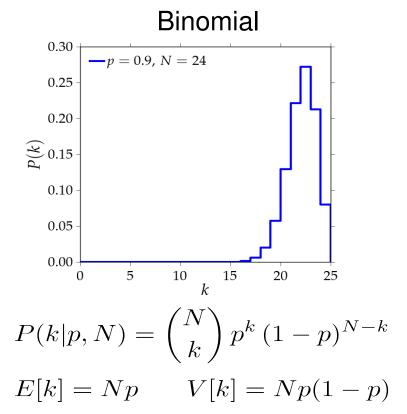
Data did not allow to discriminate between the hypotheses, no update of my belief

Discrete outcomes (e.g. event/particle counts)

$$\operatorname{Expectation} E[k] = \sum_i k_i P(k_i) \quad \operatorname{Variance} V[k] = \sum_i k_i^2 P(k_i) - \Big(\sum_i k_i P(k_i)\Big)^2$$

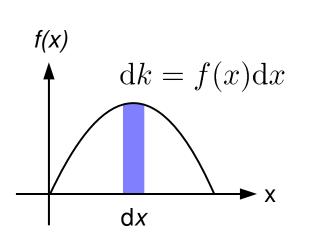


Count of events from a source



Selection of k events out of N events

Continuous outcomes (e.g. energy deposited in a detector)



$$E[x] = \int dx \, x f(x)$$
  $E[g(x)] = \int dx \, g(x) f(x)$ 

Linearity E[ax + by] = aE[x] + bE[y]

In general for non-linear g(x)  $E[g(x)] \neq g(E[x])$ 

$$V[x] = E[x^2] - E[x]^2$$

$$V[a x + b y] = a^{2} V[x] + b^{2} V[y] + 2ab \operatorname{cov}[x, y]$$

#### Multivariate case

$$dk = f(\vec{x}) d\vec{x} = f(\vec{x}) dx_0 \cdots dx_n$$

$$E[g(\vec{x})] = \int d\vec{x} g(\vec{x}) f(\vec{x}) = \int dx_0 \cdots dx_n g(\vec{x}) f(\vec{x})$$

Covariance matrix 
$$\operatorname{cov}[x_i, x_j] = E[x_i \, x_j] - E[x_i] \, E[x_j] \qquad \operatorname{cov}[x_i, x_i] = V[x_i]$$

Correlation 
$$\operatorname{corr}[x_i, x_j] = \frac{\operatorname{cov}[x_i, x_j]}{\sigma[x_i] \sigma[x_j]} -1 \le \operatorname{corr}[x_i, x_j] \le 1$$

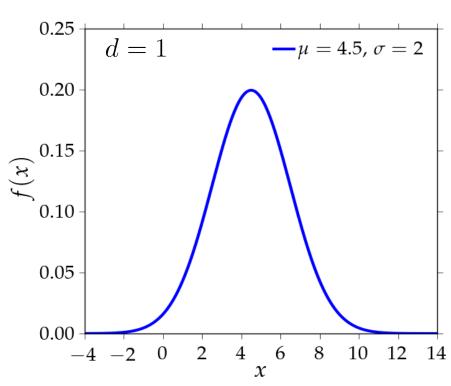
Continuous outcomes (e.g. energy deposited in a detector)

Multivariate normal (Gaussian)

$$f(\vec{x}|\vec{\mu}, V) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi^d}|V|} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})^T V^{-1}(\vec{x} - \vec{\mu})\right)$$

$$E[\vec{x}] = \vec{\mu}$$
$$cov[x_i, x_j] = V_{ij}$$

Limit of many random fluctuations added up



Continuous outcomes (e.g. energy deposited in a detector)

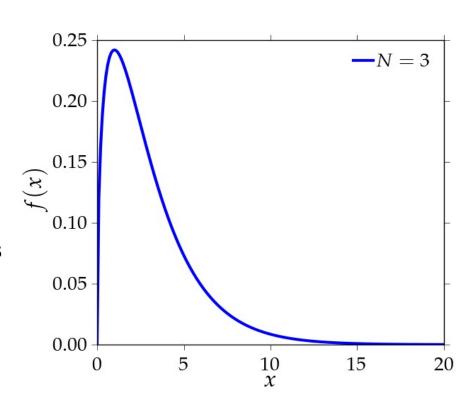
Chi-square  $\chi^2$ 

$$f(x) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{N/2-1} e^{-x/2}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{N}{2}\right)}$$

$$E[x] = N$$

$$V[x] = 2N$$

Sum of *N* normal distributed variables with  $\mu = 0$ ,  $\sigma = 1$ 



### Some words about correlation

Example A:  $x_0$  and  $x_1$  from normal distribution with  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ 

Variance of average  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{2}(x_0 + x_1)$ 

$$V\left[\frac{1}{2}(x_0 + x_1)\right] = \frac{1}{4}(\sigma^2 + \sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2}\underbrace{\cos[x_0, x_1]}_{\rho\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(1 + \rho)$$

$$ho=0\Rightarrow V[ar{x}]=rac{1}{2}\sigma^2$$
 Variance decreases  $\propto 1/N$ 

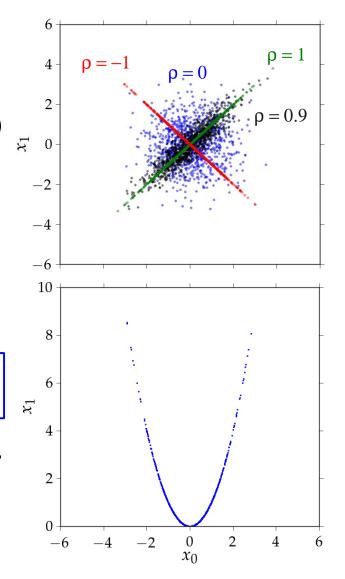
$$\rho=1\Rightarrow V[\bar{x}]=\sigma^2$$
   
   
No information gained

$$ho = -1 \Rightarrow V[\bar{x}] = 0$$
 No randomness

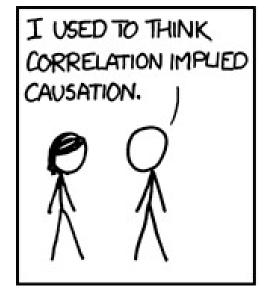
Independence of  $x_i$  and  $x_i$   $cov[x_i, x_i] = 0$ 

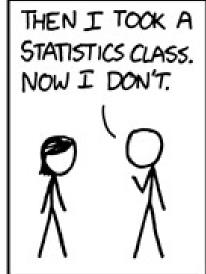


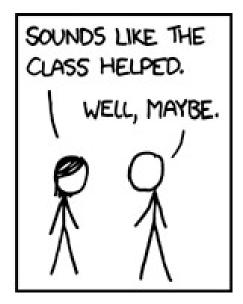
Example B:  $x_0$  from normal distribution with  $\mu = 0$ ,  $x_1 = x_0^2$  $cov[x_0, x_1] = E[x_0 x_1] - E[x_0]E[x_1]$  $= E[x_0^3] - E[x_0]E[x_0^2] = 0$ 



### Humor







http://xkcd.com/552

### Change of variables

Choice of random variable of continuous distribution is usually not unique How to transform  $x \to y$ ?

$$dk = f(x) dx = g(y) dy$$

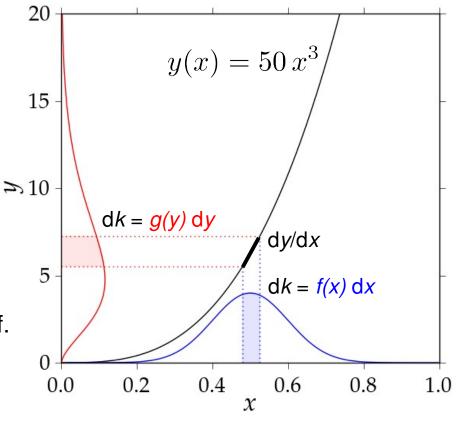
$$g(y) = f(x) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right|^{-1}$$

$$g(\vec{y}) = f(\vec{x}) \left| \frac{\partial \vec{y}}{\partial \vec{x}} \right|^{-1}$$

determinant of Jacobian matrix

Special case

$$y=\int_{-\infty}^x \mathrm{d}x' f(x')=F(x)$$
 c.d.f.  $g(y)=f(x)\frac{1}{f(x)}=1$  flat



useful to judge by eye whether random variable x follows f(x)

# **Model fitting**

### **Model fitting**

Unbinned data  $x_i$  or histogram  $\bar{x}_i, k_i$ 

fitting

Optimal parameters in light of data? Uncertainty due to limited sample?

Model or empirical parametrization with free parameters  $f(x|p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ 

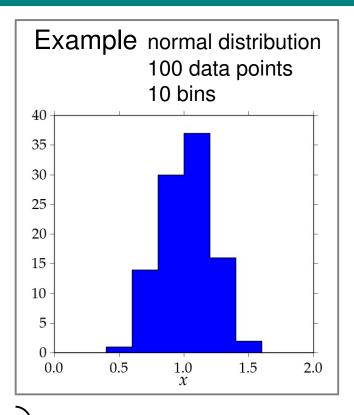
Maximum-likelihood method
Most general and most powerful method
Solution may depend on initial guess

#### Least-squares method

Good numerical properties but usually an approximation Solution may depend on initial guess

#### Linear least-squares method

Fast unique solution *independent* of initial guess



use solution as starting point for full ML

### Maximum-likelihood method

Idea: Model should maximize joint probability of all data points = likelihood

$$L(p_1,\ldots,p_n)=L(\vec{p})=\prod_i P_i(\vec{p})$$
 depends only on the model parameters  $\vec{p}$ 

If the  $x_i$  are direct samples of a p.d.f. f(x), this can be simplified

$$L(\vec{p}) = \prod_{i} P(x_i | \vec{p}) = \prod_{i} \int_{x_i}^{x_i + \Delta x_i} dx \, f(x | \vec{p}) \quad \xrightarrow{\Delta x_i \to 0} \quad \prod_{i} f(x_i | \vec{p}) \, \Delta x_i$$

we can choose the intervals arbitrarily small

Sums are easier to handle so maximize lnL instead of L (logarithm is monotonic)

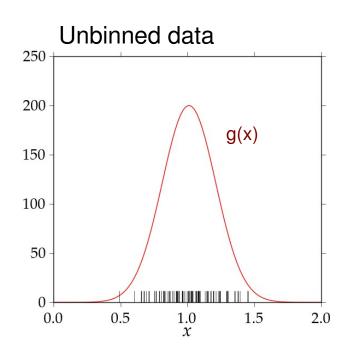
$$\ln L(\vec{p}) = \sum_{i} \ln P(x_i | \vec{p}) = \sum_{i} \ln f(x_i | \vec{p}) + \sum_{i} \Delta x_i \equiv \sum_{i} \ln f(x_i | \vec{p})$$

constant with respect to  $\vec{p}$ !

Maximizing InL means solving  $\partial_{\vec{p}} \ln L(\vec{p}) \stackrel{!}{=} 0$  Generally a non-linear problem Minimization done numerically (e.g. with MINUIT)

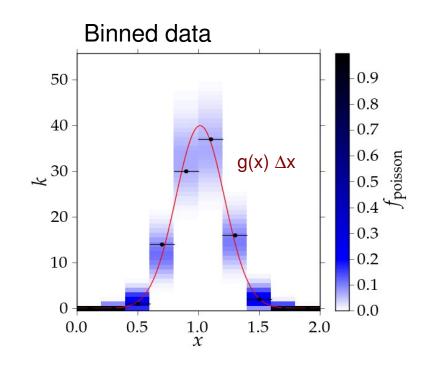
# **Example**

$$g(x|N, \mu, \sigma) = N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$



#### Fit directly to point distribution

$$g$$
 has to be normalized  $\ln L = \sum_i \ln[g(x_i|N,\mu,\sigma)/N] + \ln f_{
m poisson}(N_{
m tot},N)$ 



#### Fit to Poisson distributed histogram counts

$$\ln L = \sum_{i} \ln f_{\text{poisson}}(k_i, \lambda_i(N, \mu, \sigma))$$
$$\lambda_i = \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} dx \, f_{\text{model}}(x|N, \mu, \sigma)$$

## Least-squares method

Special case of maximum-likelihood method

Only usable with binned data (or in general: x<sub>i</sub>, y<sub>i</sub> pairs)

Assumes multivariate-normal distribution of deviations from model

$$L(\vec{p}) \propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}(\vec{y} - \vec{f}(\vec{x}|\vec{p}))^T \tilde{V}^{-1}(\vec{y} - \vec{f}(\vec{x}|\vec{p}))\right) egin{aligned} x_i, y_i & \text{data pairs} \\ \tilde{V}_{ij} &= \cos(y_i, y_j) \\ f_i(x_i) & \text{model prediction} \end{aligned}$$

Common case of independent observations

$$L(\vec{p}) \propto \exp\left(\sum_{i} \left(\frac{y_i - y(x_i|\vec{p})}{\sigma(x_i|\vec{p})}\right)^2\right)$$

Minimize 
$$LS(\vec{p}) = -2 \ln \frac{L(\vec{p})}{L(\hat{\vec{p}})} = \sum_i \left( \frac{y_i - y(x_i|\vec{p})}{\sigma(x_i|\vec{p})} \right)^2$$
 = sum of squared residuals  $\rightarrow$  method of least squares

Another common simplification

Replace  $\sigma(x_i|\vec{p})$  by point-wise estimates  $\sigma_i$  (e.g. for histogram entries  $\sigma_i = \sqrt{k_i}$ )

# Linear least-squares method

Special case of least-squares method

Often used to get starting point for numerical minimization of LS or ML methods Solution is unique, statistically unbiased and has minimum variance

Linear model 
$$y(x) = \sum_j p_j \, b_j(x)$$
 e.g. polynomial  $y(x) = p_0 + p_1 \, x + p_2 \, x^2$ 

$$LS(\vec{p}) = (\vec{y} - A\vec{p})^T \vec{V}^{-1} (\vec{y} - A\vec{p})$$

$$\tilde{V}_{ij} = \operatorname{cov}(y_i, y_j) \quad A_{ik} = b_k(x_i)$$

Minimum condition can be solved analytically

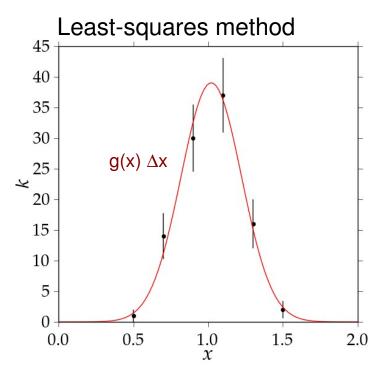
$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} \partial_{\vec{p}} LS = -2A^T \tilde{V}^{-1} (\vec{y} - A \vec{p}) \quad \text{ with } \quad \partial_{\vec{x}} (\vec{x}^T M \vec{x}) = 2M \vec{x}, \text{ if } M^T = M$$
 
$$A^T \tilde{V}^{-1} \vec{y} = A^T \tilde{V}^{-1} A \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p} = (A^T \tilde{V}^{-1} A)^{-1} A^T \tilde{V}^{-1} \vec{y}$$

# Example

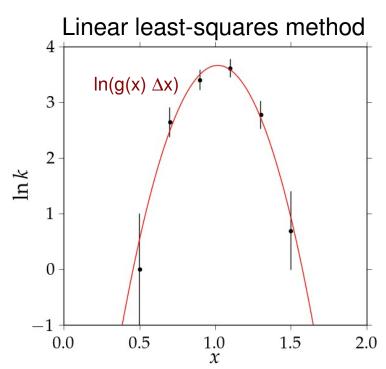
$$g(x|N, \mu, \sigma) = N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Fit model to histogram counts assuming normal distribution of residuals with  $\sigma_i = \sqrt{y_i}$ 



$$LS(N, \mu, \sigma) = \sum_{i} \frac{(k_i - g(\bar{x}_i | N, \mu, \sigma) \Delta x)^2}{k_i}$$

Cannot use entries with  $k_i = 0$ → loss of information



$$LS(N, \mu, \sigma) = \sum_{i} \frac{(k_i - g(\bar{x}_i | N, \mu, \sigma) \Delta x)^2}{k_i} \quad LLS(a, b, c) = \sum_{i} \frac{(\ln k_i - a + b \,\bar{x}_i + c \,\bar{x}_i^2)^2}{1/\sqrt{k_i}}$$

Transform after fit  $a, b, c \rightarrow N, \mu, \sigma$ 

# Calculation and interpretation of fit uncertainties

### **Uncertainty of ML-estimate**

In L for observation  $\hat{\mu}$  from normal distribution with unknown  $\mu$  and known  $\sigma^2$ :

$$L(\mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(\mu - \hat{\mu})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$\ln\frac{L(\mu)}{L(\hat{\mu})} = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mu - \hat{\mu})^2$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} \stackrel{!}{=} -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mu - \hat{\mu})^2 \implies (\mu - \hat{\mu}) = \pm \sigma$$

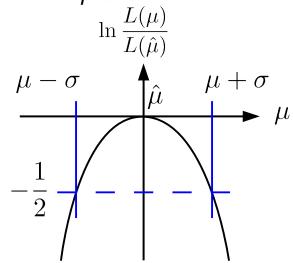
Due to properties of normal distribution

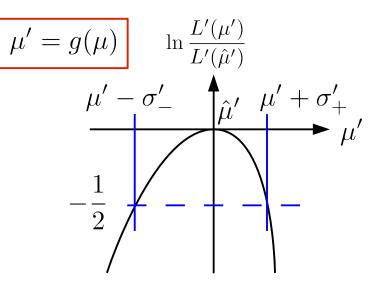
$$P[-\sigma \le \mu - \hat{\mu} \le \sigma] = 68\%$$

$$P[\hat{\mu} - \sigma \le \mu \le \hat{\mu} + \sigma] = 68\%$$

Approach also valid in case of non-normal distribution

Invariance of likelihood ratio 
$$\frac{L'(\mu')}{L'(\hat{\mu}')} = \frac{L(\mu) \, \partial \mu / \partial \mu'}{L(\hat{\mu}) \, \partial \mu / \partial \mu'}$$





### **Uncertainty of ML-estimate**

Alternative approach if  $\ln L(\mu)$  is approximately parabolic

Taylor expansion around maximum 
$$\ln L(\mu)\big|_{\mu=\hat{\mu}} \approx \ln L(\hat{\mu}) + \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\mu}^2 \ln L(\mu)\big|_{\mu=\hat{\mu}} (\mu-\hat{\mu})^2 + O(\mu-\hat{\mu})^3$$
 
$$\ln L(\mu) = \ln L(\hat{\mu}) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\mu-\hat{\mu})^2$$

#### General multivariate case

Maximum-likelihood method

$$\ln \frac{L(\vec{p})}{L(\hat{\vec{p}})} \stackrel{!}{=} -\frac{1}{2} \implies p_i^{+\sigma_i^+}_{-\sigma_i^-}$$
or
$$V \approx -\left(\partial_{p_i}\partial_{p_j} \ln L(\vec{p})\big|_{\vec{p}=\hat{\vec{p}}}\right)^{-1}$$

Least-squares method

$$LS(\vec{p}) \stackrel{!}{=} 1 \implies p_i {}^{+\sigma_i^+}_{-\sigma_i^-}$$
 or 
$$V \approx 2 \left( \partial_{p_i} \partial_{p_j} LS(\vec{p}) \big|_{\vec{p} = \hat{\vec{p}}} \right)^{-1}$$

Linear least-squares method

$$V = (A^T \tilde{V}^{-1} A)^{-1} \quad \text{exact!}$$

### Bias of ML-estimate

Example: normal distribution with unknown  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ 

$$f(x|\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)^2$$

$$\ln L(\sigma^2) \equiv -\frac{N}{2} \ln \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i} (x_i - \mu)^2 \implies 0 \stackrel{!}{=} \partial_{\sigma^2} \ln L(\sigma^2) = -\frac{N}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i} (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i \qquad \text{biased estimator of } \sigma^2$$

$$E[\hat{\sigma}^2] = \frac{1}{N} N E[(x_i - \hat{\mu})^2] = E[(x_i - \mu + \mu - \hat{\mu})^2]$$

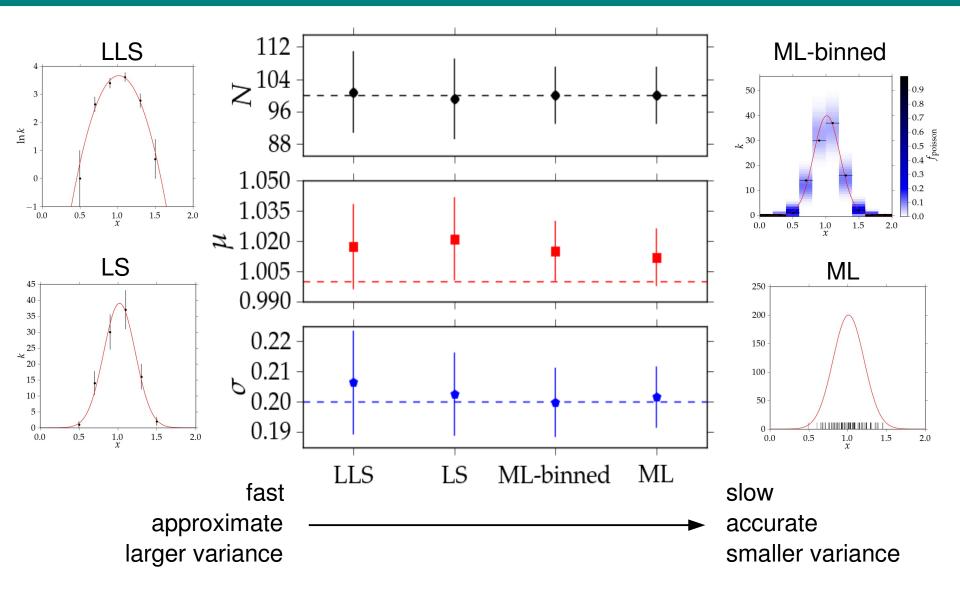
$$= E[(x_i - \mu)^2 + (\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2 - 2(\hat{\mu} - \mu)(x_i - \mu)] = \sigma^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{N} - \frac{2\sigma^2}{N} = \sigma^2 - \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$$

$$s^2 = \frac{N}{N-1}\hat{\sigma}^2$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{unbiased estimator of } \pmb{\sigma}^2 \\ \text{with increased variance} \end{array} \qquad V[s^2] = \left(\frac{N}{N-1}\right)^2 V[\hat{\sigma}^2]$$

In general: ML-estimate biased if  $\ln L$  not parabolic  $E[p-\hat{p}] \propto \partial_n^3 \ln L(p)$ 

# Method comparison



## Coverage

How to interpret confidence regions from  $\ln \frac{L(\vec{p})}{L(\hat{\vec{p}})} \stackrel{!}{=} -\frac{1}{2}$  or  $LS(\vec{p}) \stackrel{!}{=} 1$  ?

If experiment would be repeated...

Intervals along each dimension cover true value in 68 % of all cases

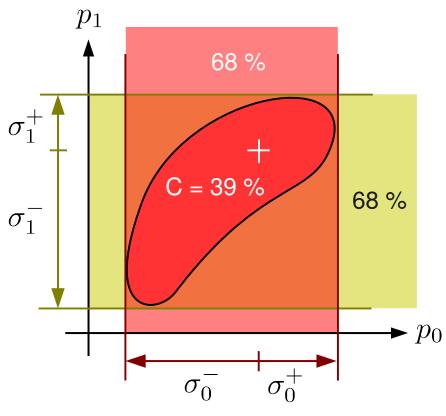
**But**: 2d-region covers true values only in C = 39 % of all cases

How to get C = 90 % or 99 % regions?

General case: *N* parameters *C* confidence of coverage

$$\ln \frac{L(\vec{p})}{L(\hat{\vec{p}})} \stackrel{!}{=} -\frac{1}{2} \chi_{\beta}(C) \text{ or } LS(\vec{p}) \stackrel{!}{=} \chi_{\beta}(C)$$

with  $\int_0^{\chi_\beta^2} \mathrm{d}x \, f_{\chi^2}(x|N) \stackrel{!}{=} C$  solved for  $\chi_\beta$ 



$$N=1, C=68\% \rightarrow \chi_{\beta} \approx 1$$

$$N = 2, C = 68 \% \rightarrow \chi_{\beta} \approx 1.51$$

## Some fitting advice

- Think carefully about the fluctuations in your problem
- Use un-binned maximum-likelihood method if possible
  - Under very general conditions, ML-estimate is asymptotically unbiased and has minimum variance (Cramer-Rao bound)
- Use linear models for empirical parametrizations
  - Fourier terms, polynomials, B-splines, ...
- If you use approximate variance formula, check whether it applies
- If confidence interval is not symmetric, result is usually biased

### Bayesian vs. Frequentist inference

Frequentist (Reproducability) Bayesian (Decision theory)

Inference principle

Likelihood function Bayes theorem and **prior probabilities** 

"Objective Bayesian": Jeffreys or Reference priors

#### Point estimation

Maximum of likelihood function Mean of posterior probability density

Invariant to transformations

Not invariant to transformations

#### Interval estimation

Based on likelihood ratio Quantiles of posterior probability density

Coverage Credible interval tells nothing about coverage

#### Restriction of a parameter at a physical boundary

Via parameter transformation Via prior probabilities