

REMINDER ON PROBABILITIES

- When the result of an experiment (or trial) cannot be predicted with certainty, the result (or outcome, measurement) is described by a random variable X taking its values in the "sample space" Ω

Coin tossing $\Omega = \{\text{heads, tails}\}$

throwing a die $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

Time of decay of a particle $\Omega = \{x \in [0, \infty[\}$

- Any subspace of Ω is called an event.

$A \subset \Omega$ the event A is true if the outcome $x \in A$.

- X is given a probability law by defining for all events their probability $P(A) \in [0, 1]$ of being true, satisfying

$$P(\Omega) = 1 \quad P(\emptyset) = 0$$

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

- Definition A and B are exclusive events if $A \cap B = \emptyset$

$$\text{For exclusive events, } P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

- Definition. The conditional probability $P(A|B)$ of A being true, knowing that B is true, is

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

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

- Definition: A is independent of B if $P(A|B) = P(A)$
it implies that B is independent of A

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

1. X is discrete: $\Omega = \{x_i\}$

Probability law for X totally specified by $p_i = P(x_i)$
with $p_i \in [0, 1]$ $\sum_i p_i = 1$ (sum is finite or infinite)

2. X is continuous

Probability law specified by $F(x_0) = P(x \leq x_0)$
 $F(x)$ is the cumulative function, with $F(-\infty) = 0$, $F(+\infty) = 1$
 F monotonous \nearrow

The probability density function is $f(x)$ such as
 $f(x)dx = P(X \in [x, x+dx]) = F(x+dx) - F(x)$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$$

3. X continuous, bidimensional $\{X, Y\}$

The pdf is $f(x, y)$, positive function with $\int f(x, y) dx dy = 1$

The marginal p.d.f. for X is $f_x(x) = \int f(x, y) dy$

The conditional p.d.f. for X , knowing that $y = y_0$ is

$$f_c(x|y_0) = \frac{f(x, y_0)}{\int f(x, y_0) dx}$$

If X and Y are independent, $f_c(x|y_0) = f_x(x) \forall y_0$

$$\Rightarrow f(x, y) = f_x(x) f_y(y)$$

4. Change of variables $x \rightarrow y$ (or $\vec{x} \rightarrow \vec{y}$) (3)

$$y = H(x) \text{ or } \vec{y} = \vec{H}(\vec{x}) \text{ analytical relation.}$$

(4a) x, y of dimension 1 - p.d.f of x is $f(x)$, of y is $g(y)$

$$\text{If } H \text{ is bijective, } g(y) dy = f(x) dx$$

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

If H is non bijective, one sums on all parent values of x for a given value of x .

$$\text{Examples: } g(|x|) = f(x) + f(-x)$$

$$y = x^2 \quad g(y) = \frac{f(\sqrt{y})}{2\sqrt{y}} + \frac{f(-\sqrt{y})}{2\sqrt{y}}$$

(4b) \vec{x}, \vec{y} of dimension k - Bijective relation.

$$g(\vec{y}) = \frac{f(\vec{x})}{\left| \det \left(\frac{\partial \vec{H}}{\partial \vec{x}} \right) \right|} \leftarrow \text{Jacobian}$$

(5) Some moments of the probability law

5a) Mean value (or expectation) of x

$$\langle x \rangle = \bar{x} = E(x) = \begin{cases} \rightarrow \sum p_i x_i & (\text{discrete case}) \\ \rightarrow \int x f(x) dx & (\text{continuous case}) \end{cases}$$

$$\text{If } y = a(x) \quad \langle y \rangle = \begin{cases} \rightarrow \sum p_i y_i \\ \rightarrow \int y g(y) dy = \int a(x) f(x) dx \end{cases}$$

5b) Variance of x :

(4)

$$V_x = \sigma_x^2 = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2 = \langle (x - \bar{x})^2 \rangle$$

$\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$ is called standard deviation (or uncertainty, error...)

5c) Multidimensional case : Covariance.

$$f(x, y) : C_{xy} = \langle (x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y}) \rangle = \langle xy \rangle - \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle$$

If x and y are independent, $C_{xy} = 0$.

THE RECIPROCAL IS WRONG.

$$\text{Correlation coefficient } r_{xy} = \frac{C_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \in [-1, +1]$$

$\vec{x} = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$: Variance-covariance matrix

$$V_{\vec{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{x_1}^2 & C_{x_1 x_2} & \dots & C_{x_1 x_k} \\ C_{x_1 x_2} & \sigma_{x_2}^2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \sigma_{x_k}^2 \\ C_{x_1 x_k} & \dots & \dots & \sigma_{x_k}^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

V is symmetric, semi-definite positive
(eigenvalues are ≥ 0)

6 - Variance on new variables:

6a) linear change: $y_i = \sum m_{ij} x_j$ $\vec{Y} = M \vec{X}$
 not necessarily the same dimension

$$V_{\vec{Y}} = M V_{\vec{X}} M^T$$

matrix of m_{ij}

Applications • $y = kx \rightarrow \sigma_y^2 = k^2 \sigma_x^2$

• $f(x, y)$ with $V_{xy} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & C_{xy} \\ C_{xy} & \sigma_y^2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\delta = x + y$

$$V_{\delta} = \sigma_{\delta}^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + 2C_{xy}$$

If x and y are uncorrelated ($C_{xy}=0$) $\sigma_{x+y}^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2$

• N outcomes of X for N independent trials pdf: $f(x)$ for each trial, with mean \bar{x} and variance σ^2

$$\delta_N = \sum x_i \quad \sigma_{\delta_N}^2 = N \sigma^2$$

$$\bar{z}_N = \frac{\sum x_i}{N} \quad \sigma_{\bar{z}_N}^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$$

6b) Non linear variable change $\vec{Y} = H(\vec{X})$

No exact formula for $V_{\vec{Y}}$

However, $V_{\vec{Y}} \approx D V_{\vec{X}} D^T$

with D the matrix of derivatives computed at $\vec{x} = \langle \bar{x} \rangle$

is often used **YOU NEED TO BE CAREFUL!**

SOME USUAL LAWS

6

1) Exponential law (particle decay)

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-t/\tau} \quad \langle t \rangle = \tau \quad \sigma_t^2 = \tau^2$$

2) Gaussian (or normal) law

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} = G_{\mu, \sigma^2}(x) \quad \langle x \rangle = \mu \quad \sigma_x^2 = \sigma^2$$

Multidimensional normal: \vec{x} of dimension k

$$f(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2} |\det V|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu}) V^{-1}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})^T\right]$$

$$\langle \vec{x} \rangle = \vec{\mu} \quad V_{\vec{x}} = V \quad \text{Each component } x_i \text{ is normally distributed}$$

3) Binomial law

X taking values in Ω . Consider $A \subset \Omega$ with $P(A) = p$.

N independent trials $\rightarrow N$ outcomes: m successes ($x \in A$)
 $N-m$ failures ($x \notin A$)

m follows a binomial law:

$$B_{N,p}(m) = C_N^m p^m (1-p)^{N-m} \quad C_N^m = \frac{N!}{m!(N-m)!}$$

$$\langle m \rangle = Np \quad \sigma_m^2 = Np(1-p)$$

Application N events filling an histogram

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each bin corresponds to a probability p_i ($\sum p_i = 1$)
and contains m_i events (m_i are random variables with $\sum m_i = N$)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} m_1 &\rightarrow B_{N, p_1}(m_1) \\ m_2 &\rightarrow B_{N, p_2}(m_2) \\ m = m_1 + m_2 &\rightarrow B_{N, p_1 + p_2}(m) \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} &\text{Exercise: deduce} \\ &C_{m_1 m_2} = -N p_1 p_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{multinomial law } P(m_1, \dots, m_k) = \frac{N!}{m_1! \dots m_k!} p_1^{m_1} \dots p_k^{m_k}$$

4) Poisson law

$\mathcal{P}_a(m)$ is the limit of $B_{N, p}(m)$ when $\begin{matrix} N \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 0 \end{matrix}$ $Np \rightarrow a$.

$$P(m) = \mathcal{P}_a(m) = e^{-a} \frac{a^m}{m!} \quad (\text{Exercise: prove it})$$

$$\langle n \rangle = a \quad \sigma_n^2 = a.$$

Application N events filling an histogram, N poisson distributed

The populations of each bin, m_i , are independent random variables which are Poisson distributed

ASYMPTOTIC THEOREMS

(8)

1) Binomial law $B_{N,p}(m) = C_N^m p^m (1-p)^{N-m}$

$f_N = \frac{m}{N}$ frequency of success

$$\langle f_N \rangle = p \quad \sigma_{f_N}^2 = \frac{p(1-p)}{N} \rightarrow 0 \text{ when } N \rightarrow \infty$$

Constructive way of defining probability law on Ω

2) X with p.d.f $f(x)$ N independent trials giving x_1, \dots, x_N

$$\langle x \rangle = \bar{x} \quad \sigma_x^2 = \sigma^2$$

$S_N = \sum_1^N x_i$ has a mean $N\bar{x}$ and a variance $\sigma_x^2 N$

$\frac{S_N}{N}$ has a mean \bar{x} and a variance $\frac{\sigma^2}{N} \rightarrow 0$ when $N \rightarrow \infty$

$$\text{p.d.f for } S_2 : g(S_2) = \int f(S_2 - x) f(x) dx = f * f$$

$$\text{p.d.f for } S_N = f^{*N}$$

Central limit theorem:

When $N \rightarrow \infty$, the p.d.f for $S_N \rightarrow G_{N\bar{x}, N\sigma^2}$

the p.d.f for $\frac{S_N}{N} \rightarrow G_{\bar{x}, \frac{\sigma^2}{N}}$

$$t_N = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{N}} \sum_1^N (x_i - \bar{x}) \quad \text{p.d.f for } t_N \rightarrow G_{0,1}$$

Note: This theorem will give the asymptotic properties of the estimates of unknown parameters.

PARAMETER ESTIMATION

(9)

X is a random variable with p.d.f $f(x; \theta_0)$, where θ_0 is the true value of an unknown parameter θ .

N independent trials x_i are summarized into a statistic $t_N = h(x_1, \dots, x_N)$ (defined for any N)

t_N will be an unbiased estimator of θ_0 if $\langle t_N \rangle = \theta_0$.

If $\langle t_N \rangle = \theta_0 + b_N$, t_N is biased

t_N will be a convergent estimator of θ_0 if, as $N \rightarrow \infty$,

$$b_N \rightarrow 0 \text{ like } \frac{1}{N} \text{ and } \sigma_{t_N}^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ like } \frac{1}{N}$$

t_N will be an optimal estimator if it is unbiased and of minimal variance.

t_N will be an efficient estimator if it is unbiased and if its variance reaches the theoretical lower bound (given by the theory of information)

Note Efficient estimators do NOT necessarily exist.

A. Moment method

X with p.d.f $f(x; \theta_0)$

$$\text{build } Y = a(x) \quad \begin{cases} E(Y) = \int a(x) f(x; \theta_0) dx = g(\theta_0) \\ \sigma^2(Y) = \int [a(x) - g(\theta_0)]^2 f(x; \theta_0) dx \end{cases}$$

$$N \text{ trials } x_i \Rightarrow \text{build } z_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N a(x_i)$$

z_N is an unbiased convergent estimator of $g(\theta_0)$

z_N is in general not optimal

$$\langle z_N \rangle = g(\theta_0) \quad \sigma_{z_N}^2 = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{N}$$

From central limit theorem, z_N is asymptotically normally distributed.

Note: $g^{-1}(z_N)$ is a biased and convergent estimator of θ_0

The asymptotic variance of $\hat{\theta} = g^{-1}(z_N)$ is $\frac{1}{N} \left| \frac{\partial g}{\partial \theta}(\hat{\theta}) \right|^{-2} V_Y$

B. Maximum of likelihood

X of p.d.f $f(x; \theta_0)$ N independent trials

$\hat{\theta}_N$ is the value of θ maximizing

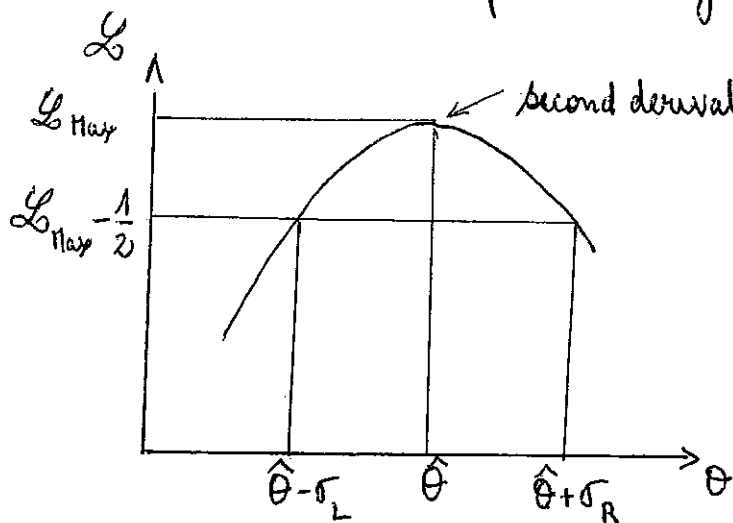
$$\ln \mathcal{L} = \sum_1^N \ln f(x_i; \theta)$$

$\hat{\theta}_N$ is an asymptotically efficient estimator of θ_0

N finite: $\hat{\theta}_N$ is a biased, non optimal, convergent estimator of θ_0

$$V(\hat{\theta}) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \left[-E \left(\frac{\partial^2 \ln f(x; \theta)}{\partial \theta^2} \Big|_{\theta = \theta_0} \right) \right]^{-1}$$

estimated in practice by $\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \ln \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta^2} \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}} \right]^{-1} = -D_2^{-1}$



$$N \rightarrow \infty \quad \hat{\theta} \rightarrow \theta_0$$

$$\sigma_L^2, \sigma_R^2 \text{ and } D_2^{-1} \rightarrow V_{\hat{\theta}} \rightarrow 0$$

$\mathcal{L}_{\max} - \frac{1}{2} \text{ rule}$

Special case: Darmois theorem

If $f(x; \theta) = \exp \{ \alpha(x) a(\theta) + \beta(x) + c(\theta) \}$
 and if Ω_x independent of θ

Then $\frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N \alpha(x_i)$ is an efficient estimator

of $\tau(\theta_0) = - \frac{\frac{dc}{d\theta}(\theta_0)}{\frac{da}{d\theta}(\theta_0)}$

C - Least-squares estimator

k measurements x_i with mean $\mu_i(\theta_0)$ and variance $\sigma_i^2(\theta_0)$

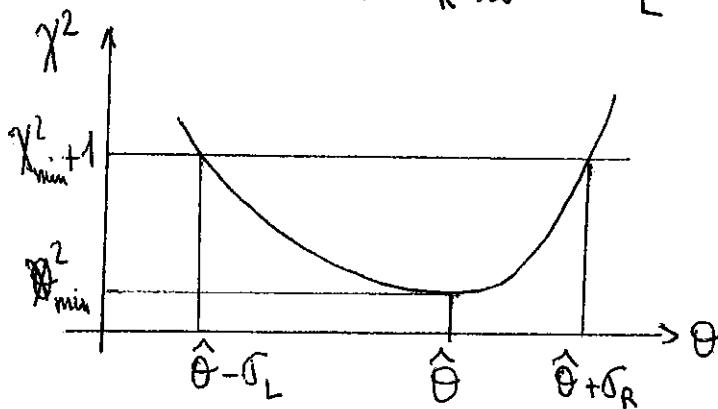
θ_0 true value of unknown parameter θ .

$\hat{\theta}$ is the value of θ which minimizes

$$\chi^2 = \sum_1^k \frac{(x_i - \mu_i(\theta))^2}{\sigma_i^2(\theta)}$$

$\hat{\theta}$ is a biased, convergent, non optimal estimator of θ_0 .

$$V_{\hat{\theta}} \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} 2 \left[\left\langle \frac{\partial^2 \chi^2}{\partial \theta^2} \right\rangle_{\theta = \theta_0} \right]^{-1} \sim 2 D_2^{-1} \text{ at } \hat{\theta}$$



$\chi^2_{\min} + 1 \text{ rule}$

$$k \rightarrow \infty \quad \sigma_R^2, \sigma_L^2, 2D_2^{-1} \rightarrow V_{\hat{\theta}} \rightarrow 0$$

Special case : Linear model

When 1) $\mu_i(\theta)$ are linear functions of θ

2) $V_{\vec{x}}$ is independent of θ .

The minimization of $\chi^2 = (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}(\theta)) V_{\vec{x}}^{-1} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}(\theta))^T$ gives an optimal, convergent estimator of θ_0 .

$$V_{\hat{\theta}} \equiv 2 \left[\frac{\partial^2 \chi^2}{\partial \theta^2} \right]^{-1}$$

χ^2 law

When observations x_i are normally distributed with mean μ_i and variance σ_i^2

$$Q_0 = \chi^2(\theta_0) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{[x_i - \mu_i(\theta_0)]^2}{\sigma_i^2(\theta)}$$
 is distributed

according to a χ^2 law at k degrees of freedom

$$f(\chi_k^2) = \frac{(\chi_k^2)^{\frac{k}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{\chi_k^2}{2}}}{2 \Gamma(\frac{k}{2})} \quad \langle \chi_k^2 \rangle = k$$

$$V_{\chi_k^2} = 2k$$

When the model is linear, $Q_{\min} = \chi^2(\hat{\theta})$

follows a χ_{k-r}^2 law and $Q_0 - Q_{\min}$ a χ_r^2 law (where r is the dimension of θ)

and $\hat{\theta}$ has a k -dimensional normal law (see page 6)

with mean θ_0 and variance $2 D_2^{-1}$ ($D_2 = \frac{\partial^2 \chi^2}{\partial \theta_i \partial \theta_j}$)

Histogram fitting

NOT a linear χ^2

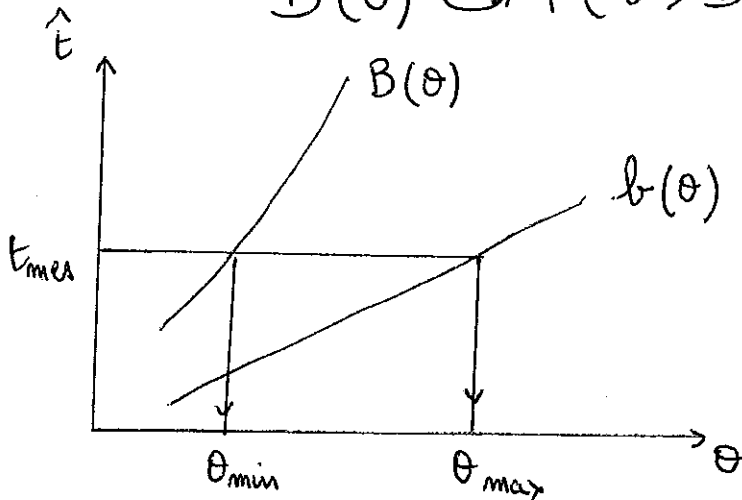
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|---|-------------------------------|---|---|
| $\textcircled{1} \chi^2 = \sum_1^k \frac{(n_i - \bar{n}_i(\theta))^2}{\bar{n}_i(\theta)}$ | non linear | } | 3 different estimators of θ_0 .
Empirical rule
$\textcircled{3}$ should be preferred |
| $\textcircled{2} \chi^2 = \sum_1^k \frac{(n_i - \bar{n}_i(\theta))^2}{n_i}$ | linear but approximate | | |
| $\textcircled{3} \ln \mathcal{L} = C + \sum_{i=1}^k n_i \ln \bar{n}_i(\theta)$ | likelihood of multinomial law | | |

ESTIMATION BELTS

\hat{E} being an estimator of θ_0 of known p.d.f $f(\hat{E}; \theta)$
 one defines 2 curves: dimension 1

$$b(\theta) \rightarrow P(\hat{E} < b(\theta); \theta) = \alpha$$

$$B(\theta) \rightarrow P(\hat{E} > B(\theta); \theta) = \alpha$$



From the value t_{mes} found for \hat{E} , one derives θ_{min} and θ_{max} (Neyman construction)

$$P(\theta_0 < \theta_{max}) = 1 - \alpha$$

$$P(\theta_0 > \theta_{min}) = 1 - \alpha$$

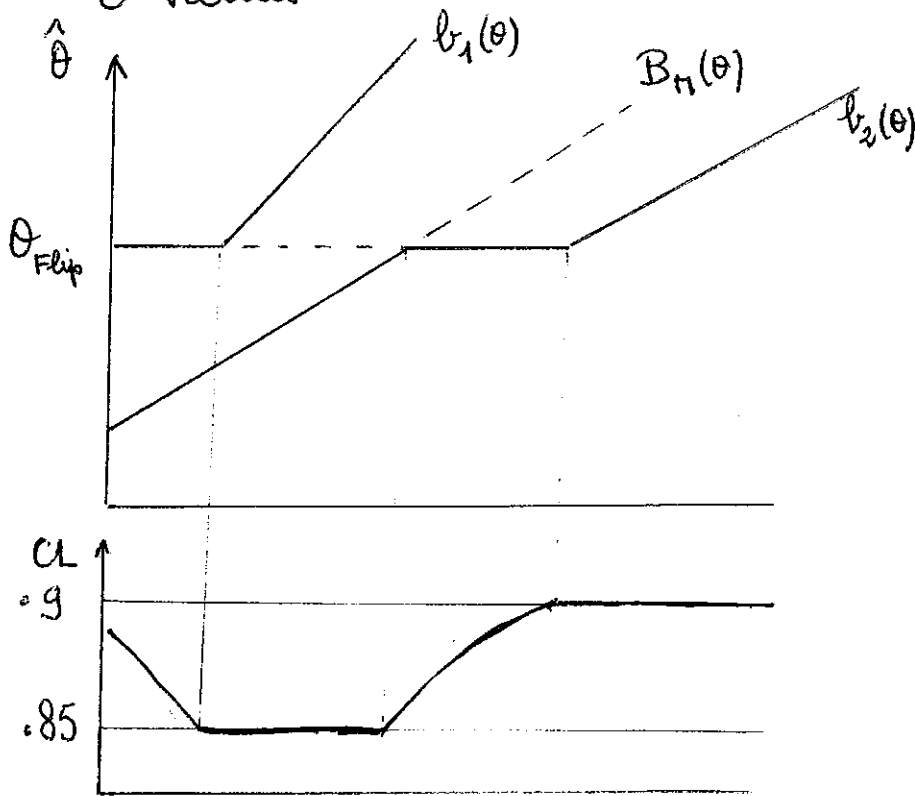
$$P(\theta_{min} < \theta_0 < \theta_{max}) = 1 - 2\alpha$$

These probabilities refer to the random variables θ_{min} and θ_{max} , and are called confidence levels

Note Bayesian statisticians reinterpret these probabilities as referring to the unknown parameter θ_0 .

A. Flip-flop problem

If I decide to publish a 90% CI interval if $\hat{\theta} > \theta_{Flip}$ and a 90% CI upper bound when $\hat{\theta} < \theta_{Flip}$, the true confidence level is smaller (i.e. 85%) for some θ values



$$P(\hat{\theta} > b_1(\theta)) = 5\%$$

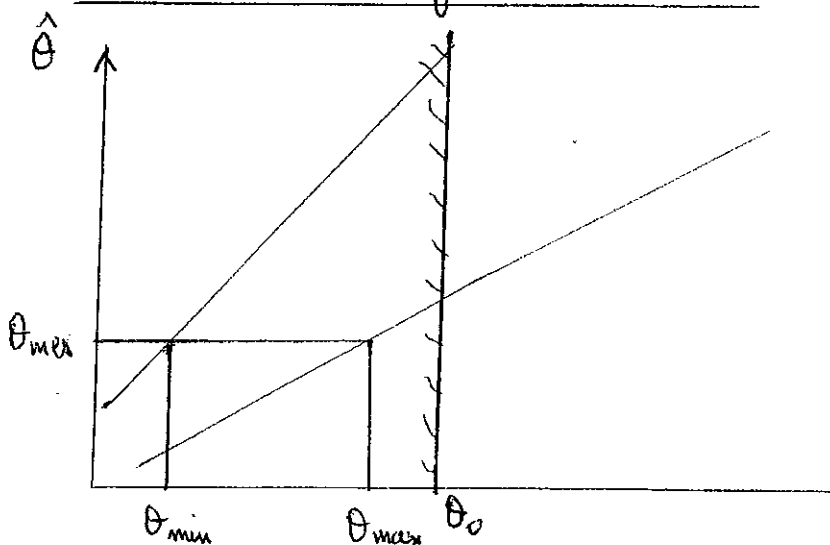
$$P(\hat{\theta} < b_2(\theta)) = 5\%$$

$$P(\hat{\theta} < B_n(\theta)) = 10\%$$

Conclusion

One has to decide beforehand whether to publish an interval or an upper bound, independently of the value found for $\hat{\theta}$

B. Null results for bounded θ



I publish $\theta_{min} < \theta < \theta_{max}$ while I know that $\theta > \theta_0$!
I am victim of a large fluctuation of $\hat{\theta}$ towards low value

Cure: Feldman-Cousins construction

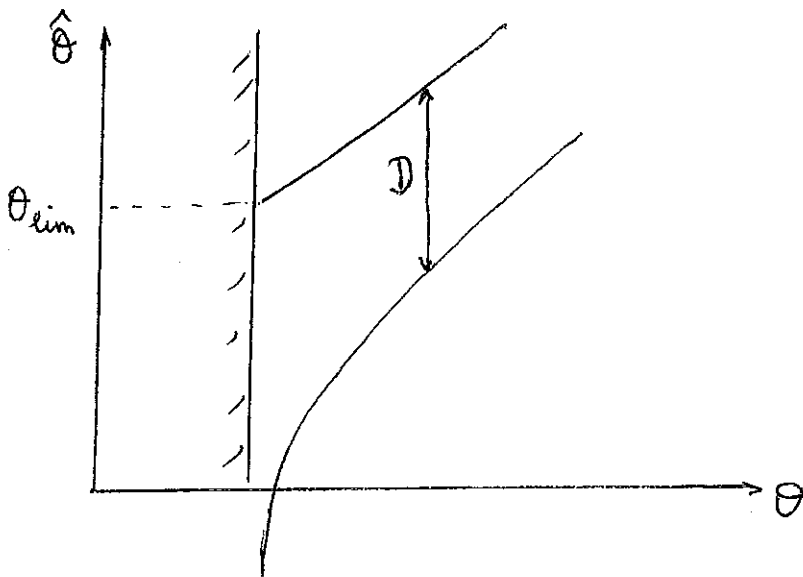
(16)

New way of building $b_1(\theta)$ and $b_2(\theta)$

For every physical value of θ , build the domain D of $\hat{\theta}$ values such that

$$\int_{r > r_c} f(\hat{\theta}; \theta) d\hat{\theta} = 1 - \alpha \quad \text{with } r = \frac{f(\hat{\theta}; \theta)}{f(\hat{\theta}; \theta_{\text{best}})}$$

θ_{best} is the physical value of θ maximizing $f(\hat{\theta}; \theta)$



- 1) Solves flip-flop The CL of the upper bound if $\hat{\theta} < \theta_{\text{lim}}$ or of the interval if $\hat{\theta} > \theta_{\text{lim}}$ is exactly $1 - \alpha$
- 2) Solves null results (actually, not always true)
- 3) Gives a straightforward generalization for multidimensional θ [$r(\hat{\theta}; \theta)$ gives an ordering for $\hat{\theta}$ whatever the dimension of θ]

This method is now recommended by P.D.G.

$\hat{\theta}$ estimator of θ_0 with variance $\sigma_{\hat{\theta}}^2$

I shall write $\theta_0 = \hat{\theta} \pm \sigma_{\hat{\theta}}$ (statistical uncertainty)

$$\sigma_{\hat{\theta}} \rightarrow 0 \text{ like } N^{-1/2}$$

But due to some limitations, the physical parameter is $\theta_0 + b$, and I have an estimator \hat{b} of b of mean 0 and variance $\sigma_{\hat{b}}^2$.

Thus I will write $\theta_0 = \hat{\theta} \pm \sigma_{\hat{\theta}} \pm \sigma_{\hat{b}}$ (systematic uncertainty)

$$\text{which means } \theta_0 = \hat{\theta} \pm \sqrt{\sigma_{\hat{\theta}}^2 + \sigma_{\hat{b}}^2}$$

$\sigma_{\hat{b}}$ is constant when $N \rightarrow \infty$

Example 2 experiments at LEP measure M_{Z^0} .

But the energy scale is known up to a translation of mean 0 and variance σ_E^2 . Thus

$$\text{Exp}^t 1 \quad M_{Z^0} = M_1 \pm \sigma_1 (\text{stat}) \pm \sigma_E (\text{syst})$$

$$\text{Exp}^t 2 \quad M_{Z^0} = M_2 \pm \sigma_2 (\text{stat}) \pm \sigma_E (\text{syst})$$

$$V_{M_1 M_2} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_E^2 & \sigma_E^2 \\ \sigma_E^2 & \sigma_2^2 + \sigma_E^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = \sigma^2$ Combining expts:

$$M_{Z^0} = \frac{M_1 + M_2}{2} \pm \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2}} (\text{stat}) + \sigma_E (\text{syst})$$

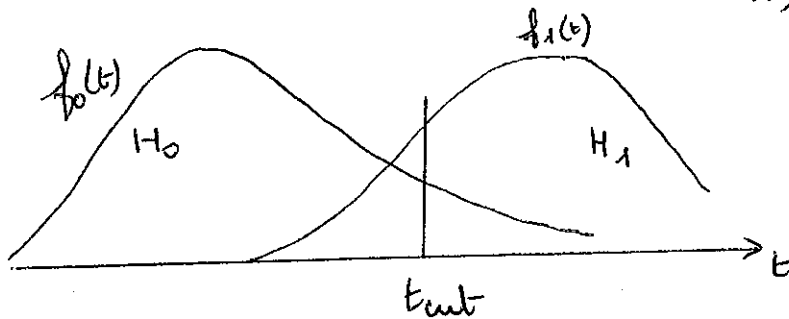
HYPOTHESIS TESTING

I Classifying observations between 2 categories

Each observation summarized by a few "discriminating" random variables x_i

Build a test t as a function of these x_i

If the observation belongs to category H_0 , pdf of t is $f_0(t)$
 " " " " H_1 " " $f_1(t)$



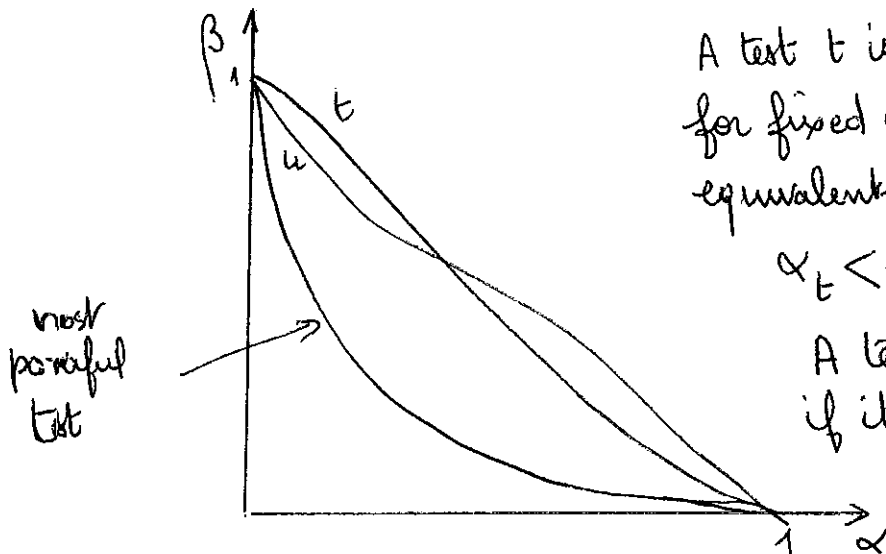
Choose t_{cut} Reject H_0 if $t > t_{cut}$ and put in category 1
 Reject H_1 if $t < t_{cut}$ and put in category 0.

For category H_0 the loss of the test is $\alpha = P(t > t_{cut} | H_0)$
 and the contamination is $\beta = P(t < t_{cut} | H_1)$

For category H_1 , loss is β and contamination is α

A test t is better than test u if
 for fixed α , $\beta_t < \beta_u$ or
 equivalently if for fixed β ,
 $\alpha_t < \alpha_u$

A test is said most powerful
 if it is better than any other
 for all values of α and β



Theorem The most powerful test for totally specified hypotheses (no unknown parameter) H_0 and H_1 is the likelihood ratio (19)

$$t(\vec{x}) = \frac{f(\vec{x} | H_0)}{f(\vec{x} | H_1)} = \frac{f_0(\vec{x})}{f_1(\vec{x})}$$

Parametric hypotheses

$$f(\vec{x}; \theta) \quad \begin{array}{l} H_0 \quad \theta \in \Omega_0 \\ H_1 \quad \theta \in \Omega_1 \end{array} \quad \Omega_0 \cap \Omega_1 = \emptyset$$

$$t(\vec{x}) = \frac{\max_{\theta \in \Omega_0} f(\vec{x}; \theta)}{\max_{\theta \in \Omega_0 \cup \Omega_1} f(\vec{x}; \theta)}$$

$t \in [0, 1]$ It is not a most powerful test

If $\Omega_0 = \{\theta_0\}$ and $\Omega_0 \cup \Omega_1 = \Omega$, then

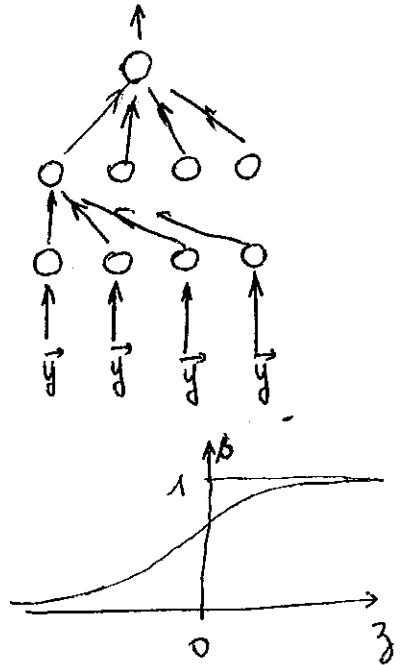
$-2 \ln t$ will asymptotically be distributed according to ~~the~~ a χ^2_k law (k being the dimension of θ) when H_0 is true.

Application = search for a small potential signal (20)

2 categories: signal, background

1. Study characteristics of each category using MC simulation
2. Determine a set of "discriminating variables" for each event (topology, missing energy, ...), noted \vec{y}
3. Tune the MC in areas where there is no signal
4. With MC simulations, determine the p.d.f of \vec{y} for signal events $f_S(\vec{y})$ and for background events $f_B(\vec{y})$. In general too difficult = approximate f_S and f_B keeping only the higher correlations
5. Determine the distributions of the (pseudo) likelihood ratio $r(\vec{y}) = \frac{f_S(\vec{y})}{f_B(\vec{y})}$ for signal and for background.
6. Determine the best value at which to cut on r to get the best sensitivity on the signal, i.e. maximize $E_S / \sqrt{E_B}$ for the cut.
7. Finally, look at real data, selecting those events with $r > r_{\text{cut}}$, and compare to the background predicted by the MC simulation
8. Conclude on the presence/absence of a signal and give an estimate of the signal size.

Approximating the likelihood ratio with a neural network

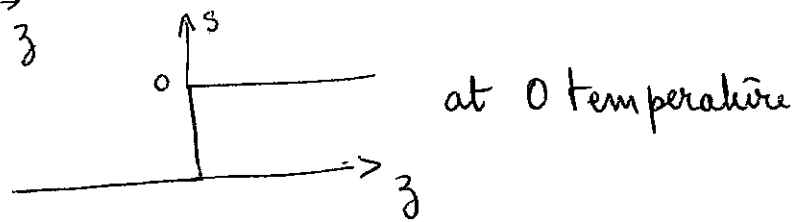


each neuron in one row receive as inputs the outputs of the previous row
 The neuron j builds a linear combination of its inputs e_i

$$z_j = \sum_k W_{jk} e_k + c_j$$

and outputs $s_j = \underbrace{(1 - e^{-\lambda z_j})^{-1}}_{\text{sigmoid of temperature } \lambda}$

Perceptron



→ each ~~neuron~~ neuron defines an hyperplane in \vec{y} space
 → this neuron selects a volume in \vec{y} space limited by the hyperplanes

Training: determine W_{jk} so that the output s_i is near 0 for background events and near 1 for signal events

by minimizing $\sum_{N_S} (s_i - 1)^2 + \sum_{N_B} s_i^2$

At finite λ , the boundary is made non planar and the transition between 0 and 1 smoother, s approximating in a non linear way the likelihood ratio

"GOODNESS OF FIT" TESTS

(22)

Are my observations compatible with hypothesis H_0 ?

Likelihood is useless.

⇒ Use a χ^2 test on observations. It gives χ^2_0

• If H_0 true the p.d.f. for χ^2 is known or can be determined by M.C. simulation, so that

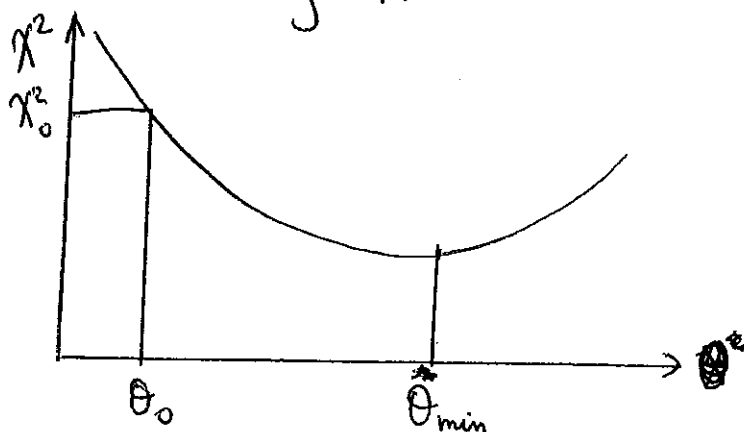
$$P(\chi^2 > \chi^2_0 | H_0) = \alpha$$

α is called the probability of the test. If α is small,

• One will reject H_0 ~~at α~~ at $(1-\alpha)$ CL

(the loss for H_0 from this test being α)

Understanding apparent paradoxes



Testing $\theta = \theta_0$ $\chi^2(\theta_0)$ follows a χ^2_k law if $\theta = \theta_0$.

Testing θ family $\chi^2(\theta_{\min})$ follows a χ^2_{k-1} law if some θ describes data

Estimating θ : One takes for granted that Nature has chosen the θ family for some value θ_v

Estimation based on $\chi^2(\theta) - \chi^2(\theta_{\min})$

3 different ways of using $\chi^2(\theta) \Rightarrow$ Different answers.

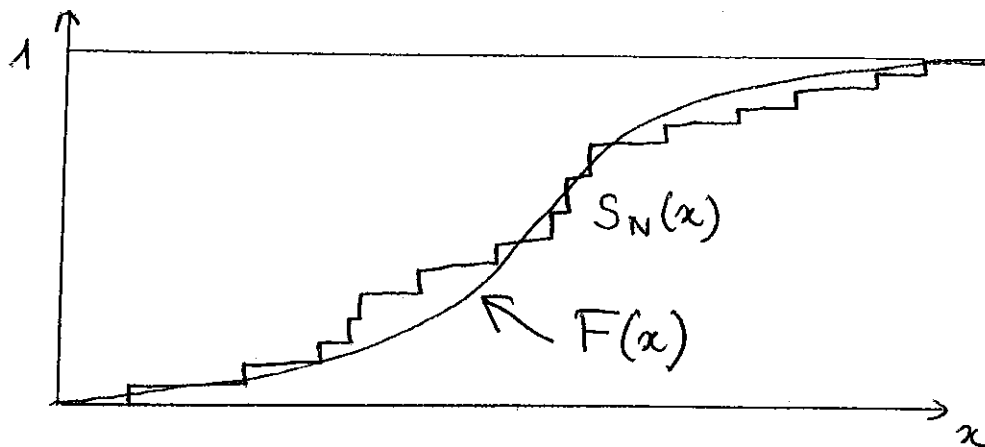
Tests better than χ^2

(23)

N observations x_i . Are they compatible with p.d.f $f(x)$?

Build $S_N(x)$ as a staircase function with steps of height $\frac{1}{N}$ at each value x_i , and compare

$S_N(x)$ with the cumulative function $F(x)$



SMIRNOV test $W_N^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (S_N - F)^2 f(x) dx$

if H_0 true W_N p.d.f is a universal tabulated function

KOLMOGOROV test $K_N = \text{Max} |F - S_N|$

if H_0 true, K_N p.d.f is asymptotically ($N > 180$)
a universal tabulated law.

COMBINING 2 INDEPENDANT TESTS OF H_0

(24)

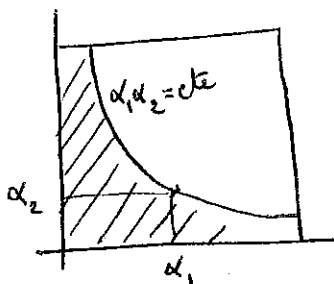
Test 1 has a probability α_1 for H_0

Test 2 has a probability α_2 for H_0

Note: If H_0 true α_1 p.d.f is flat on $[0,1]$
 α_2 " " "

$$\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha_2$$

$$P(\alpha < a) = a(1 - \ln a)$$



The probability of the combined test is therefore

$$\alpha_1 \alpha_2 (1 - \ln \alpha_1 \alpha_2)$$

Application Test 1 rejects H_0 at 83% Cl [$\alpha_1 = 0.17$]

Test 2 rejects H_0 at 75% Cl [$\alpha_2 = 0.25$]

\Rightarrow Combined test rejects H_0 at 82% Cl

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- Jean-Pierre Lecoutre
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