

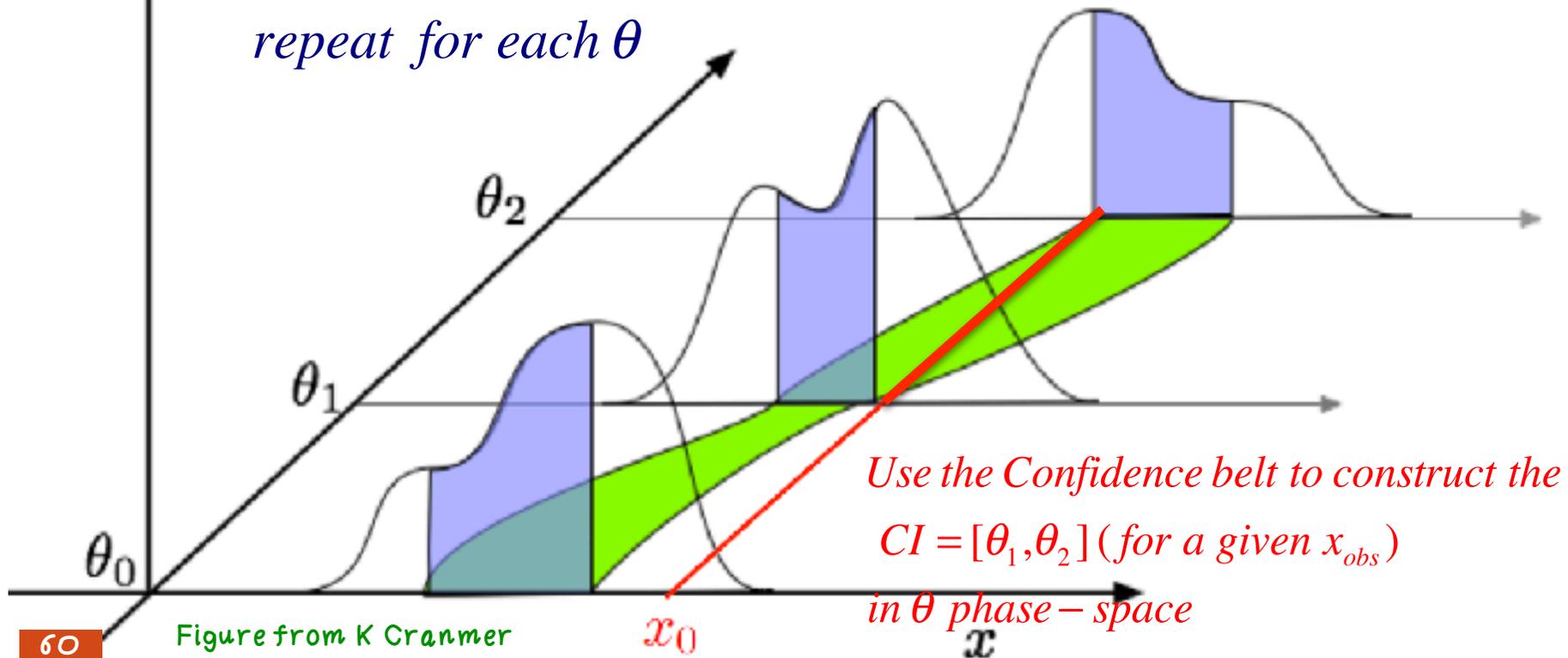
# Neyman Construction

$\theta \equiv s_{\text{true}}$     $x \equiv s_{\text{measured}}$    pdf  $f(x|\theta)$  is known  
 for each prospective  $\theta$  generate  $x$

$f(x|\theta)$  construct an interval in DATA phase – space

$$\text{Interval} = \int_{x_l}^{x_h} f(x|\theta) dx = 68\%$$

repeat for each  $\theta$

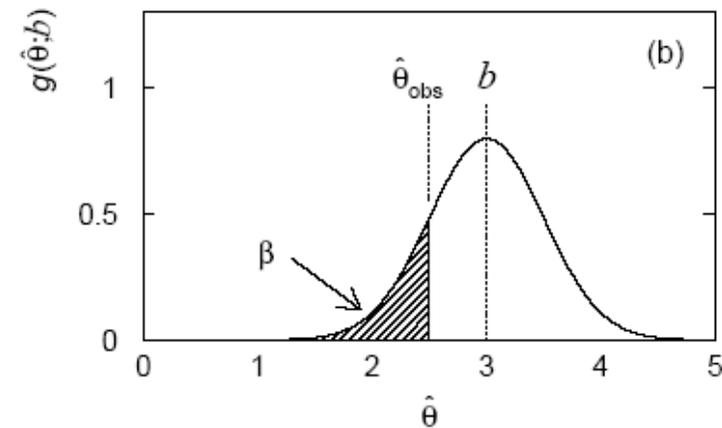
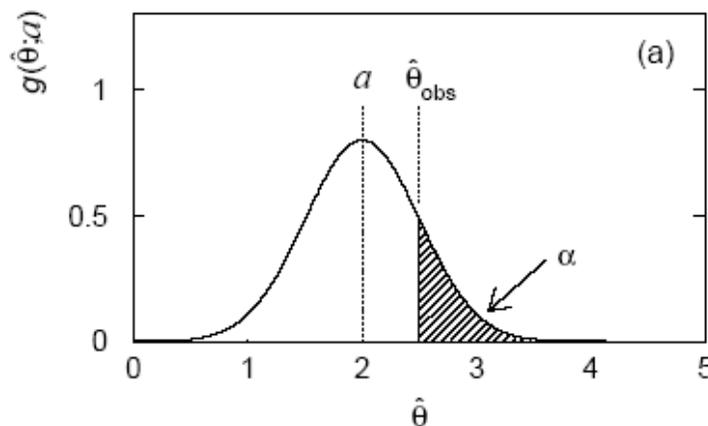


# Confidence intervals in practice

The recipe to find the interval  $[a, b]$  boils down to solving

$$\alpha = \int_{u_\alpha(\theta)}^{\infty} g(\hat{\theta}; \theta) d\hat{\theta} = \int_{\hat{\theta}_{\text{obs}}}^{\infty} g(\hat{\theta}; a) d\hat{\theta},$$

$$\beta = \int_{-\infty}^{v_\beta(\theta)} g(\hat{\theta}; \theta) d\hat{\theta} = \int_{-\infty}^{\hat{\theta}_{\text{obs}}} g(\hat{\theta}; b) d\hat{\theta}.$$



→  $a$  is hypothetical value of  $\theta$  such that  $P(\hat{\theta} > \hat{\theta}_{\text{obs}}) = \alpha$ .

→  $b$  is hypothetical value of  $\theta$  such that  $P(\hat{\theta} < \hat{\theta}_{\text{obs}}) = \beta$ .

## Meaning of a confidence interval

**N.B.** the interval is random, the true  $\theta$  is an unknown constant.

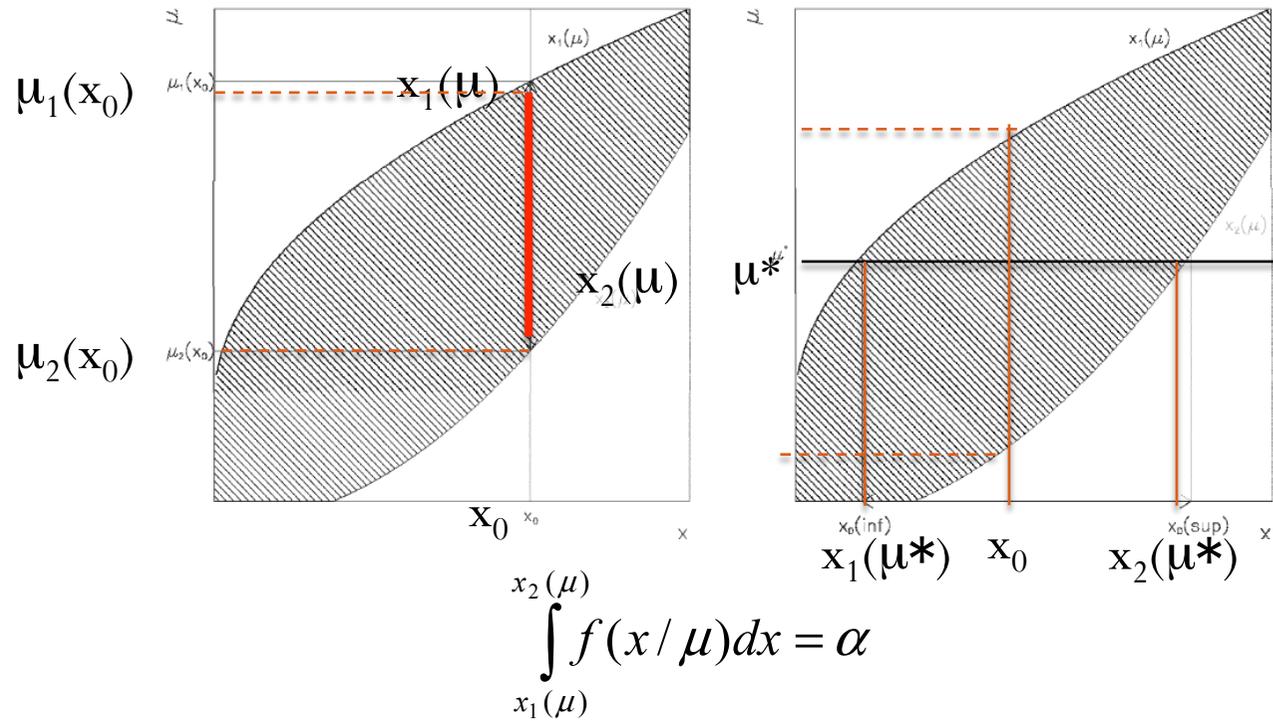
Often report interval  $[a, b]$  as  $\hat{\theta}_{-c}^{+d}$ , i.e.  $c = \hat{\theta} - a$ ,  $d = b - \hat{\theta}$ .

So what does  $\hat{\theta} = 80.25_{-0.25}^{+0.31}$  mean? It does **not** mean:

$P(80.00 < \theta < 80.56) = 1 - \alpha - \beta$ , but rather:

repeat the experiment many times with same sample size,  
construct interval according to same prescription each time,  
in  $1 - \alpha - \beta$  of experiments, interval will cover  $\theta$ .

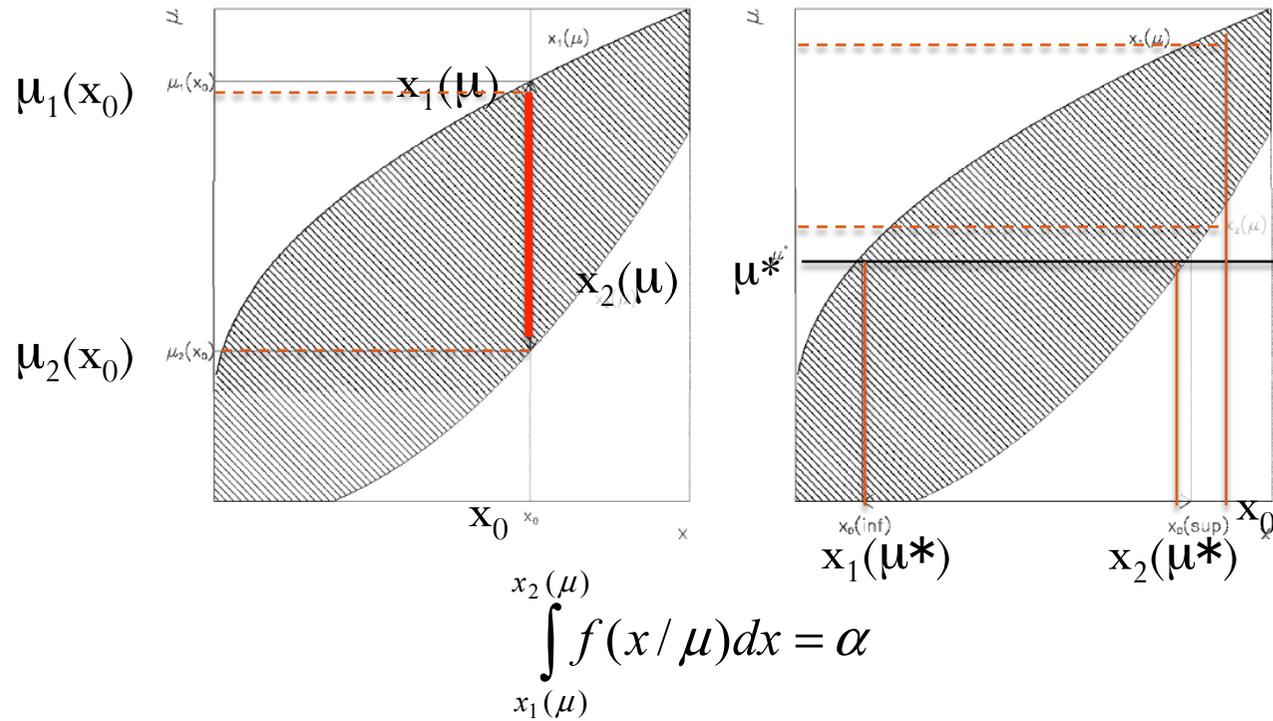
## Neyman's construction



Coverage: suppose  $\mu^*$  the true value

$$P(x_1(\mu^*) < x_0 < x_2(\mu^*)) = \alpha$$

## Neyman's construction



Coverage: suppose  $\mu^*$  the true value

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# “Logic” of an EPP experiment - VI

- End of the selection: CANDIDATES sample  $N_{cand}$
- Which relation is there between  $N_{cand}$  and  $N_X$ ?
  - **Efficiency**: not all searched final states are selected and go to the candidates sample. (Trigger efficiencies are particularly delicate to treat.) Efficiency includes also the **acceptance**.
  - **Background**: few other final states are faking good ones and go in the candidates sample.

$$\epsilon N_X = N_{cand} - N_b$$

- where:
  - $\epsilon$  = efficiency ( $0 < \epsilon < 1$ );  $\epsilon = A \times \epsilon_d$
  - $N_b$  = number of background events
- Estimate  $\epsilon$  and  $N_b$  is a crucial work for the experimentalist and can be done either using simulation (this is typically done before the experiment and updated later) or using data themselves.

## Binomial distribution

Consider  $N$  independent experiments (Bernoulli trials):

outcome of each is ‘success’ or ‘failure’,  
probability of success on any given trial is  $p$ .

Define discrete r.v.  $n =$  number of successes ( $0 \leq n \leq N$ ).

Probability of a specific outcome (in order), e.g. ‘ssfsf’ is

$$pp(1-p)p(1-p) = p^n(1-p)^{N-n}$$

But order not important; there are  $\frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!}$

ways (permutations) to get  $n$  successes in  $N$  trials, total probability for  $n$  is sum of probabilities for each permutation.

## Binomial distribution (2)

The binomial distribution is therefore

$$f(n; N, p) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^n (1-p)^{N-n}$$

random  
variable

parameters

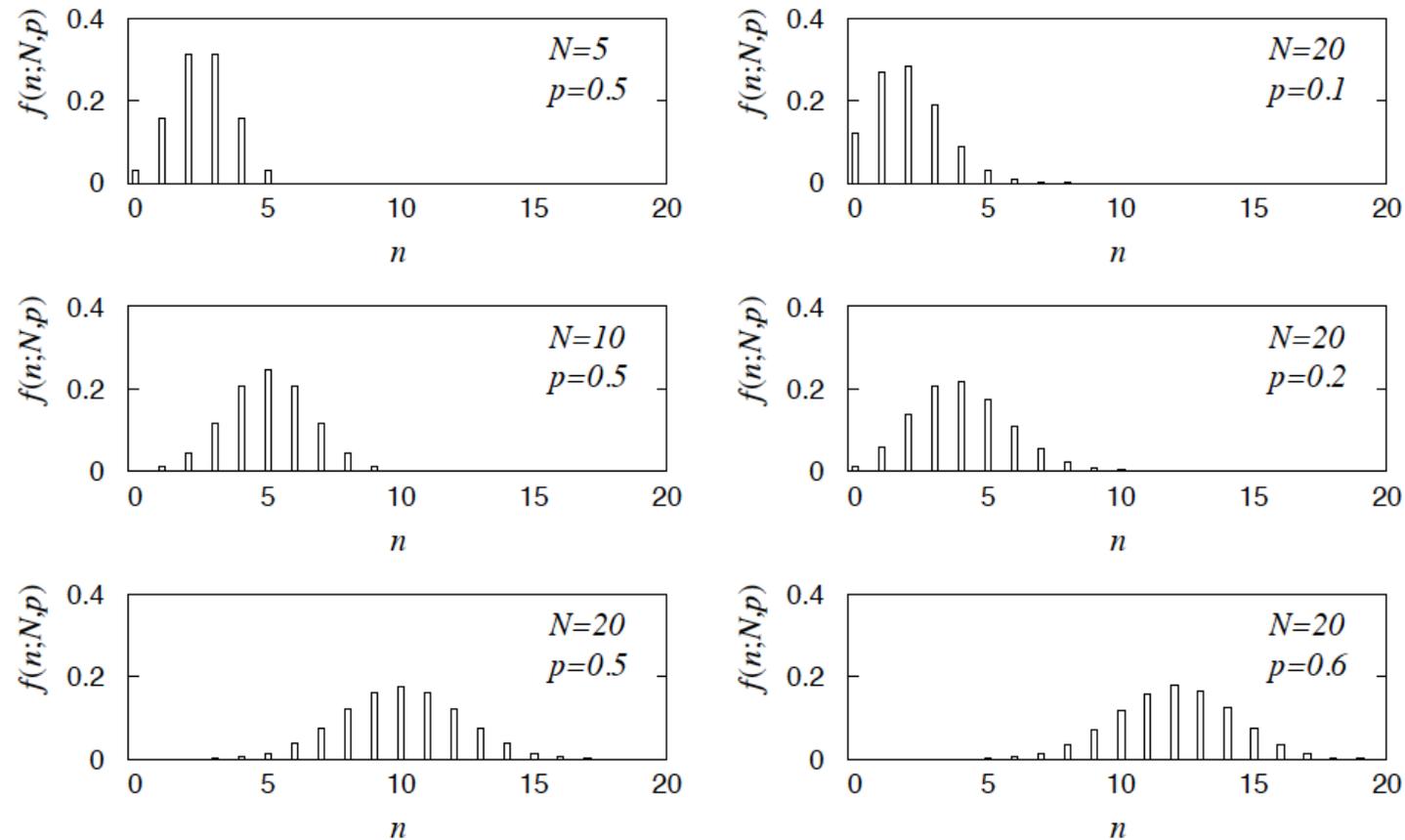
For the expectation value and variance we find:

$$E[n] = \sum_{n=0}^N n f(n; N, p) = Np$$

$$V[n] = E[n^2] - (E[n])^2 = Np(1-p)$$

## Binomial distribution (3)

Binomial distribution for several values of the parameters:



Example: observe  $N$  decays of  $W^\pm$ , the number  $n$  of which are  $W \rightarrow \mu\nu$  is a binomial r.v.,  $p =$  branching ratio.

## Multinomial distribution

Like binomial but now  $m$  outcomes instead of two, probabilities are

$$\vec{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_m), \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1 .$$

For  $N$  trials we want the probability to obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} n_1 &\text{ of outcome 1,} \\ n_2 &\text{ of outcome 2,} \\ &\vdots \\ n_m &\text{ of outcome } m. \end{aligned}$$

This is the multinomial distribution for  $\vec{n} = (n_1, \dots, n_m)$

$$f(\vec{n}; N, \vec{p}) = \frac{N!}{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_m!} p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_m^{n_m}$$

## Multinomial distribution (2)

Now consider outcome  $i$  as ‘success’, all others as ‘failure’.

→ all  $n_i$  individually binomial with parameters  $N, p_i$

$$E[n_i] = Np_i, \quad V[n_i] = Np_i(1 - p_i) \quad \text{for all } i$$

One can also find the covariance to be

$$V_{ij} = Np_i(\delta_{ij} - p_j)$$

Example:  $\vec{n} = (n_1, \dots, n_m)$  represents a histogram with  $m$  bins,  $N$  total entries, all entries independent.

# Poisson distribution

Consider binomial  $n$  in the limit

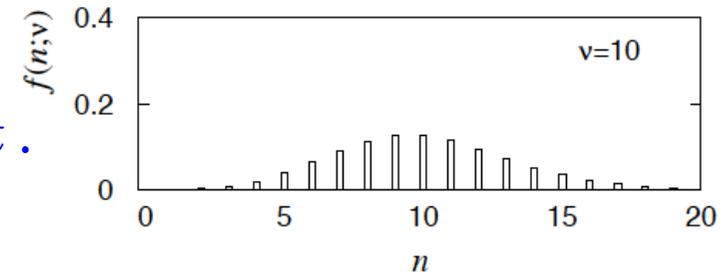
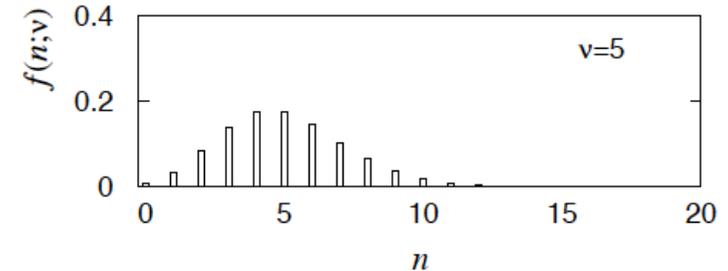
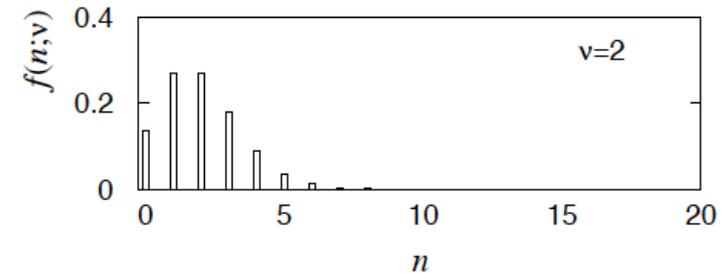
$$N \rightarrow \infty, \quad p \rightarrow 0, \quad E[n] = Np \rightarrow \nu .$$

→  $n$  follows the Poisson distribution:

$$f(n; \nu) = \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu} \quad (n \geq 0)$$

$$E[n] = \nu, \quad V[n] = \nu .$$

Example: number of scattering events  $n$  with cross section  $\sigma$  found for a fixed integrated luminosity, with  $\nu = \sigma \int L dt$ .



# In a Nut Shell



The binomial distribution with parameters  $n$  and  $p$  is the discrete probability distribution of the number of successes in a sequence of  $n$  independent experiments.  
(Wikipedia)

$$P(k : n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$$

If  $X \sim B(n, p)$

$$E[X] = np$$



$$P(k:n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

The Poisson distribution with parameter  $\lambda = np$  can be used as an approximation to  $B(n, p)$  of the binomial distribution if  $n$  is sufficiently large and  $p$  is sufficiently small.

$$P(k:n, p) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty, np = \lambda} \text{Poiss}(k; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$$

$$\text{If } X \sim \text{Poiss}(k; \lambda)$$

$$E[X] = \text{Var}[X] = \lambda$$

# From Binomial to Poisson to Gaussian

$$P(k : n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

$$P(k : n, p) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty, np = \lambda} \text{Poiss}(k; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$$

$$\langle k \rangle = \lambda, \quad \sigma_k = \sqrt{\lambda}$$

$$k \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow x = k$$

Using Stirling Formula

$$\text{prob}(x) = G(x, \sigma = \sqrt{\lambda}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-(x-\lambda)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

*This is a Gaussian, or Normal distribution  
with mean and variance of  $\lambda$*

# Histograms

$N$  collisions

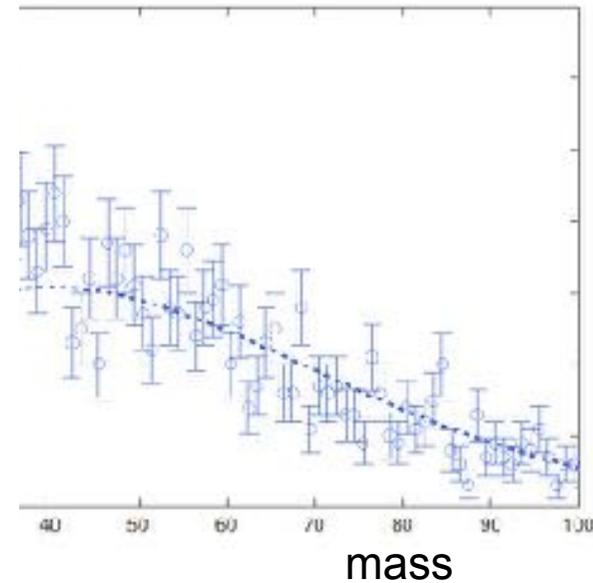
$$p(\text{Higgs event}) = \frac{\mathcal{L}\sigma(pp \rightarrow H) A\epsilon_{ff}}{\mathcal{L}\sigma(pp)}$$

Prob to see  $n_H^{obs}$  in  $N$  collisions is

$$P(n_H^{obs}) = \binom{N}{n_H^{obs}} p^{n_H^{obs}} (1-p)^{N-n_H^{obs}}$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} P(n_H^{obs}) = \text{Poiss}(n_H^{obs}, \lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{n_H^{obs}}}{n_H^{obs}!}$$

$$\lambda = Np = \mathcal{L}\sigma(pp) \cdot \frac{\mathcal{L}\sigma(pp \rightarrow H) A\epsilon_{ff}}{\mathcal{L}\sigma(pp)} = n_H^{exp}$$



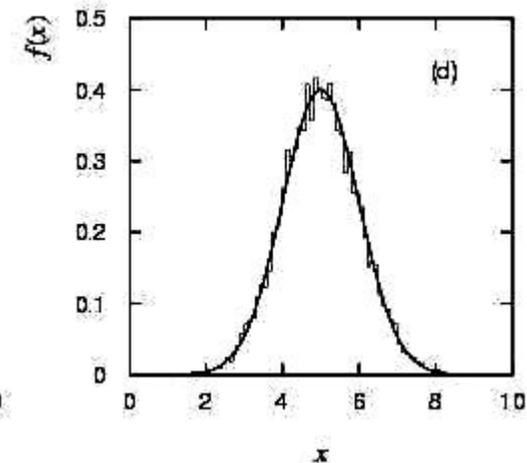
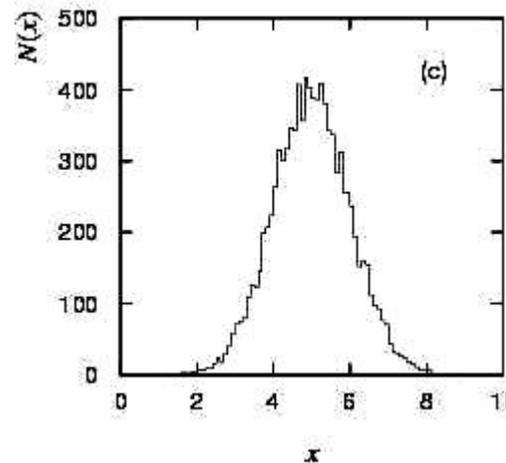
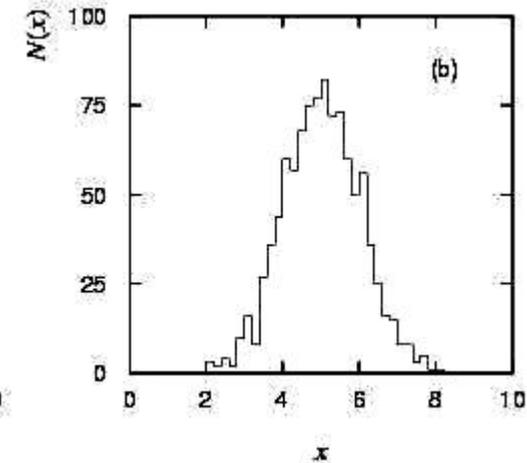
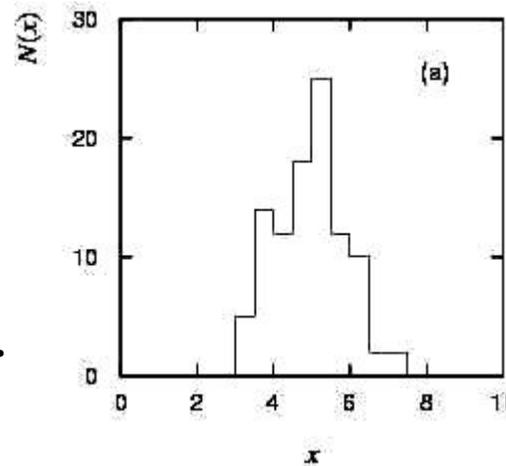
# Histograms

pdf = histogram with  
infinite data sample,  
zero bin width,  
normalized to unit area.

$$f(x) = \frac{N(x)}{n\Delta x}$$

$n$  = number of entries

$\Delta x$  = bin width



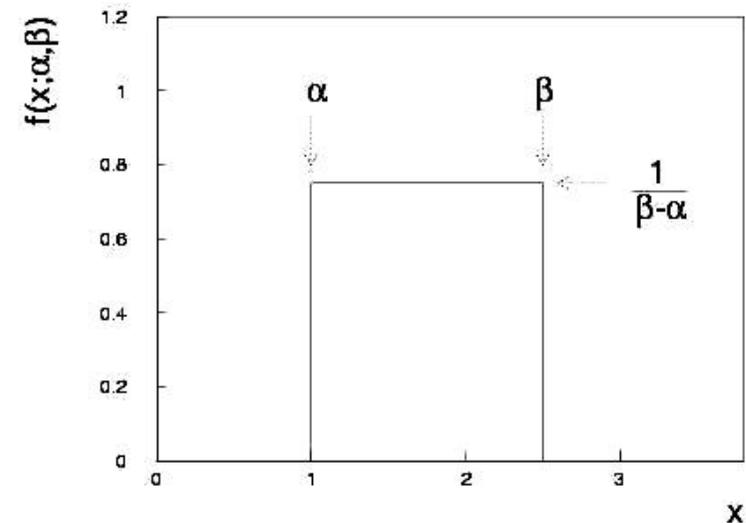
# Uniform distribution

Consider a continuous r.v.  $x$  with  $-\infty < x < \infty$ . Uniform pdf is:

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} & \alpha \leq x \leq \beta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$E[x] = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta)$$

$$V[x] = \frac{1}{12}(\beta - \alpha)^2$$



N.B. For any r.v.  $x$  with cumulative distribution  $F(x)$ ,  $y = F(x)$  is uniform in  $[0,1]$ .

Example: for  $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ ,  $E_\gamma$  is uniform in  $[E_{\min}, E_{\max}]$ , with

$$E_{\min} = \frac{1}{2}E_\pi(1 - \beta), \quad E_{\max} = \frac{1}{2}E_\pi(1 + \beta)$$

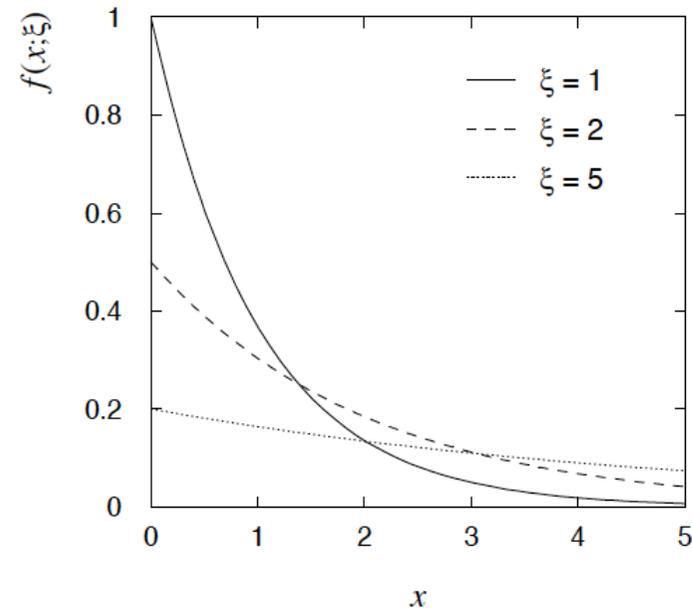
# Exponential distribution

The exponential pdf for the continuous r.v.  $x$  is defined by:

$$f(x; \xi) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\xi} e^{-x/\xi} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$E[x] = \xi$$

$$V[x] = \xi^2$$



Example: proper decay time  $t$  of an unstable particle

$$f(t; \tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} e^{-t/\tau} \quad (\tau = \text{mean lifetime})$$

Lack of memory (unique to exponential):  $f(t - t_0 | t \geq t_0) = f(t)$

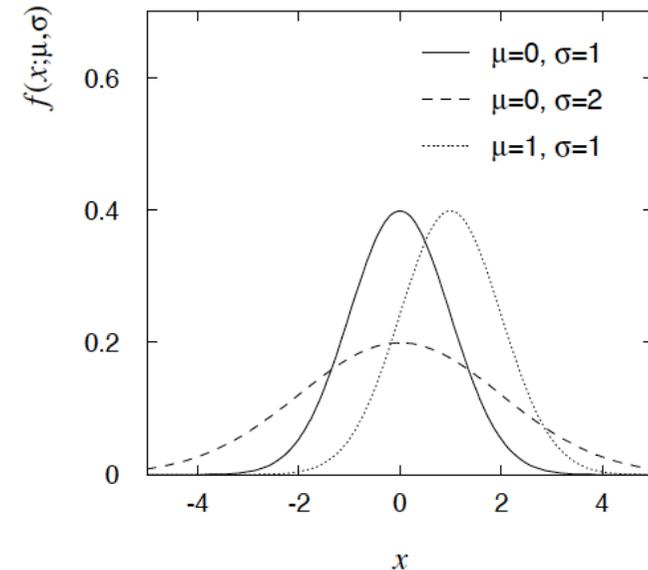
# Gaussian distribution

The Gaussian (normal) pdf for a continuous r.v.  $x$  is defined by:

$$f(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

$$E[x] = \mu \quad (\text{N.B. often } \mu, \sigma^2 \text{ denote mean, variance of any}$$

$$V[x] = \sigma^2 \quad \text{r.v., not only Gaussian.)}$$



Special case:  $\mu = 0, \sigma^2 = 1$  ('standard Gaussian'):

$$\varphi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}, \quad \Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \varphi(x') dx'$$

If  $y \sim$  Gaussian with  $\mu, \sigma^2$ , then  $x = (y - \mu) / \sigma$  follows  $\varphi(x)$ .

# Gaussian pdf and the Central Limit Theorem

The Gaussian pdf is so useful because almost any random variable that is a sum of a large number of small contributions follows it. This follows from the Central Limit Theorem:

For  $n$  independent r.v.s  $x_i$  with finite variances  $\sigma_i^2$ , otherwise arbitrary pdfs, consider the sum

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

In the limit  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $y$  is a Gaussian r.v. with

$$E[y] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \quad V[y] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2$$

Measurement errors are often the sum of many contributions, so frequently measured values can be treated as Gaussian r.v.s.

# Quantities to measure

- In order to estimate  $N_X$  we need to measure:
  - $N_{cand}$
  - $\epsilon$
  - $N_b$
- We already know that each of these variables have a fluctuation model:
  - $N_{cand}$  is described by a Poisson process
  - $\epsilon$  is described by a Bernoulli process
  - $N_b$

# $N_{cand}$ : a Poisson variable

- If events come in a random way (without any time structure) the event count  $N$  is a Poisson variable.
- $\rightarrow$  if I count  $N$ , the best estimate of  $\lambda$  is  $N$  itself and the uncertainty is  $\sqrt{N}$
- If  $N$  is large enough ( $N > 20$ ) Poisson  $\rightarrow$  Gaussian.  $\rightarrow N \pm \sqrt{N}$  is a 68% probability interval for  $N$ .
- If  $N$  is small (close to 0) the Gaussian limit is not ok, a specific treatment is required (see later in the course).

## $N_{cand}$ : a Poisson variable

- If events come in a random way (without any time structure) the event count  $N$  is a Poisson variable.
- **→** if I count  $N$ , the best estimate of  $\lambda$  is  $N$  itself ( or better  $N + 1$ ) and the uncertainty is  $\sqrt{N}$

$$P(N, \lambda) = \lambda^N e^{-\lambda} / N! \Rightarrow P(\lambda | N) = \lambda^N e^{-\lambda} / N!$$

$$E[\lambda] = N + 1$$

$$\text{var}[\lambda] = N + 1$$

- If  $N$  is large enough ( $N > 20$ ) Poisson **→** Gaussian. **→**  $N \pm \sqrt{N}$  is a 68% probability interval for  $N$ .
- If  $N$  is small (close to 0) the Gaussian limit is not ok, a specific treatment is required (see later in the course).

# Efficiency: a binomial variable - I

- Bernoulli process: success/failure  $N$  proofs,  $0 < n < N$ ,  $p =$  success probability.  $p \equiv \varepsilon$

$$P(n / N, p) = \binom{N}{n} p^n (1 - p)^{N-n}$$

$$E[n] = Np$$

$$\text{var}[n] = Np(1 - p)$$

- Inference: given  $n$  and  $N$  which is the best estimate of  $p$  ?  
And its uncertainty ? (*see previous lectures*)

$$\varepsilon = \hat{p} = \frac{n+1}{N+2}$$

$$\sigma(\varepsilon) = \frac{\sigma(n)}{N} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N+2}} \sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}$$

# Efficiency: a binomial variable - I

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# Efficiency: a binomial variable - II

- How measure it ?
  - From data: Sample of  $N$  true particles and I measure how many, out of these give rise to a signal in my detector
  - From MC: I generate  $N_{gen}$  “signal” events. If I select  $N_{sel}$  of these events out of  $N_{gen}$ , the efficiency is (assume  $N_{gen}$  and  $N_{sel}$  large numbers):

$$\varepsilon = \frac{N_{sel}}{N_{gen}}$$

$$\sigma(\varepsilon) = \frac{\sigma(N_{sel})}{N_{gen}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{gen}}} \sqrt{\frac{N_{sel}}{N_{gen}} \left(1 - \frac{N_{sel}}{N_{gen}}\right)}$$

# Background $N_b$

- Simulation of  $N_{gen}$  “bad final states”;  $N_{sel}$  are selected. What about  $N_b$  ?
- We define the “rejection factor”  $R = N_{gen} / N_{sel} > 1$
- We also need a correct normalization in this case: we need to know  $N_{exp}$  = total number of expected “bad final states” in our sample ( $N_{exp}$  related to luminosity and cross-section).

$$N_b = N_{sel} \frac{N_{exp}}{N_{gen}} = \frac{N_{exp}}{R}$$

$$\sigma(N_b) = \sigma(N_{sel}) \frac{N_{exp}}{N_{gen}} = \sqrt{N_{sel}} \frac{N_{exp}}{N_{gen}} = \frac{N_{exp}}{\sqrt{RN_{gen}}}$$

# Statistical Errors

- In all cases there is an unreducible error on  $N_X$  given by limited statistics. It is a random error, coming from the procedure of “sampling” that is intrinsic in our experiments.
- In all cases increasing the statistics, the error decreases

$$\frac{\sigma(N_{cand})}{N_{cand}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{cand}}}$$

$$\sigma(\varepsilon) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{gen}}}$$

$$\sigma(N_b) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_{gen}}}$$