# Lecture 1 Probability and Statistics

#### Wikipedia:

- Benjamin Disraeli, British prime minister and literary figure (1804 1881):
  - \* There are three kinds of lies: lies, damned lies, and statistics.
    - popularized in US by Mark Twain
    - the statement shows the persuasive power of numbers
      - use of statistics to bolster weak arguments
      - tendency of people to disparage statistics that do not support their positions
- The purpose of P416:
  - ★ how to understand the statistical uncertainty of observation/measurement
  - ★ how to use statistics to argue against a weak argument (or bolster a weak argument?)
  - ★ how to argue against people disparaging statistics that do not support their positions
  - \* how to lie with statistics?

#### **Introduction:**

- Understanding of many physical phenomena depend on statistical and probabilistic concepts:
  - ★ Statistical Mechanics (physics of systems composed of many parts: gases, liquids, solids.)
    - 1 mole of anything contains  $6 \times 10^{23}$  particles (Avogadro's number)
    - $\bullet$  impossible to keep track of all  $6x10^{23}$  particles even with the fastest computer imaginable
      - resort to learning about the group properties of all the particles
      - partition function: calculate energy, entropy, pressure... of a system
  - ★ Quantum Mechanics (physics at the atomic or smaller scale)
    - wavefunction = probability amplitude
      - ightharpoonup probability of an electron being located at (x,y,z) at a certain time.
- Understanding/interpretation of experimental data depend on statistical and probabilistic concepts:
  - ★ how do we extract the best value of a quantity from a set of measurements?
  - ★ how do we decide if our experiment is consistent/inconsistent with a given theory?
  - ★ how do we decide if our experiment is internally consistent?
  - ★ how do we decide if our experiment is consistent with other experiments?
  - In this course we will concentrate on the above experimental issues!

# **Definition of probability:**

- Suppose we have N trials and a specified event occurs r times.
  - \* example: rolling a dice and the event could be rolling a 6.
  - define probability (P) of an event (E) occurring as:

$$P(E) = r/N$$
 when  $N \rightarrow \infty$ 

- ★ examples:
  - six sided dice: P(6) = 1/6
  - oin toss: P(heads) = 0.5
    - $\sim$  P(heads) should approach 0.5 the more times you toss the coin.
    - for a single coin toss we can never get P(heads) = 0.5!
- ♦ by definition probability is a non-negative real number bounded by  $0 \le P \le 1$ 
  - $\star$  if P = 0 then the event never occurs
  - $\star$  if P = 1 then the event always occurs
  - $\star$  sum (or integral) of all probabilities if they are mutually exclusive must = 1.
    - events are independent if:  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$

∩=intersection, U= union

- oin tosses are independent events, the result of next toss does not depend on previous toss.
- events are mutually exclusive (disjoint) if:  $P(A \cap B) = 0$  or  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ 
  - in coin tossing, we either get a head or a tail.

- Probability can be a discrete or a continuous variable.
  - Discrete probability: *P* can have certain values only.
    - ★ examples:
      - tossing a six-sided dice:  $P(x_i) = P_i$  here  $x_i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$  and  $P_i = 1/6$  for all  $x_i$ .
      - tossing a coin: only 2 choices, heads or tails.
    - ★ for both of the above discrete examples (and in general) when we sum over all mutually exclusive possibilities:  $\sum P(x_i) = 1$
  - Continuous probability: *P* can be any number between 0 and 1.
    - \* define a "probability density function", pdf, f(x) $f(x)dx = dP(x \le \alpha \le x + dx)$  with  $\alpha$  a continuous variable
    - ★ probability for x to be in the range  $a \le x \le b$  is:

$$P(a \le x \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

★ just like the discrete case the sum of all probabilities must equal 1.

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} f(x)dx = 1$$

- f(x) is normalized to one.
- $\star$  probability for x to be exactly some number is zero since:

$$\int_{x=a}^{x=a} f(x)dx = 0$$

Notation:  $x_i$  is called a random variable

• Examples of some common P(x)'s and f(x)'s:

$$\underline{\text{Discrete}} = P(x) \qquad \underline{\text{Continuous}} = f(x)$$

binomial uniform, i.e. constant

Poisson Gaussian

exponential

chi square

- How do we describe a probability distribution?
  - mean, mode, median, and variance
  - for a continuous distribution, these quantities are defined by:

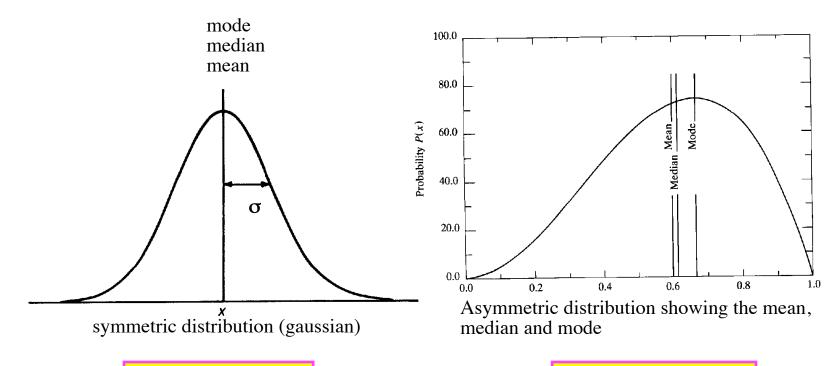
Mean	Mode	Median	Variance
average	most probable	50% point	width of distribution
$\mu = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f(x) dx$	$\left. \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x} \right _{x=a} = 0$	$0.5 = \int_{-\infty}^{a} f(x)dx$	$\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) (x - \mu)^2 dx$

• for a discrete distribution, the mean and variance are defined by:

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

$$\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2}$$

- Some continuous *pdf*:
  - Probability is the area under the curves!



For a Gaussian pdf, the mean, mode, and median are all at the same x. For most pdfs, the mean, mode, and median are at different locations.

- Calculation of mean and variance:
  - example: a <u>discrete data set</u> consisting of three numbers: {1, 2, 3}
    - $\star$  average ( $\mu$ ) is just:

$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{x_i}{n} = \frac{1+2+3}{3} = 2$$

- complication: suppose some measurement are more precise than others.
  - if each measurement  $x_i$  have a weight  $w_i$  associated with it:

$$\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} w_{i} / \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}$$

"weighted average"

\* variance  $(\sigma^2)$  or average squared deviation from the mean is just:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2$$

variance describes the width of the pdf!

- $\sigma$  is called the standard deviation

rewrite the above expression by expanding the summations:  

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \mu^2 - 2\mu \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \mu^2 - 2\mu^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \mu^2$$

$$= \left\langle x^2 \right\rangle - \left\langle x \right\rangle^2$$
<> \( \equiv \) average

 $\blacksquare$  n in the denominator would be n -1 if we determined the average ( $\mu$ ) from the data itself.

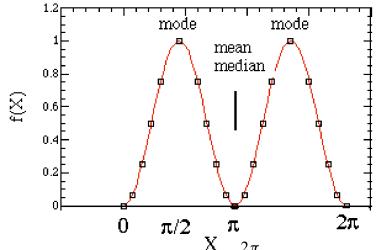
\* using the definition of  $\mu$  from above we have for our example of  $\{1,2,3\}$ :

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - \mu^2 = 4.67 - 2^2 = 0.67$$

★ the case where the measurements have different weights is more complicated:

$$\sigma^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2} / \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} x_{i}^{2} / \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} - \mu^{2}$$

- $\blacksquare$   $\mu$  is the weighted mean
- if we calculated  $\mu$  from the data,  $\sigma^2$  gets multiplied by a factor n/(n-1).
- example: a <u>continuous probability distribution</u>,  $f(x) = \sin^2 x$  for  $0 \le x \le 2\pi$ 
  - ★ has two modes!
  - ★ has same mean and median, but differ from the mode(s).



★ f(x) is not properly normalized:  $\int_{0}^{X} \sin^{2} x dx = \pi \neq 1$ 

normalized pdf: 
$$f(x) = \sin^2 x / \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \sin^2 x$$

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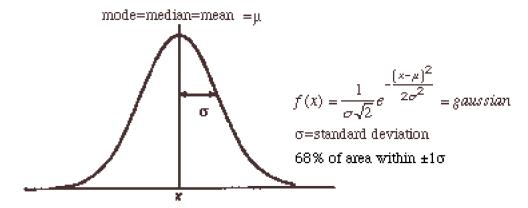
★ for continuous probability distributions, the mean, mode, and median are calculated using either integrals or derivatives:

$$\mu = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi} x \sin^2 x dx = \pi$$

mode: 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \sin^2 x = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}$$

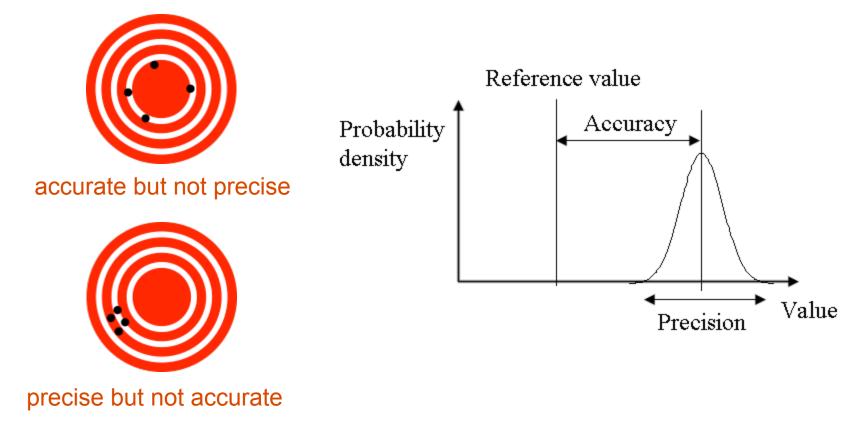
median: 
$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\alpha} \sin^{2} x dx = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \alpha = \pi$$

• example: Gaussian distribution function, a continuous probability distribution



# **Accuracy and Precision:**

- Accuracy: The accuracy of an experiment refers to how close the experimental measurement is to the true value of the quantity being measured.
- Precision: This refers to how well the experimental result has been determined, without regard to the true value of the quantity being measured.
  - just because an experiment is precise it does not mean it is accurate!!



### **Measurement Errors (Uncertainties)**

- Use results from probability and statistics as a way of indicating how "good" a measurement is.
  - most common quality indicator:
     relative precision = [uncertainty of measurement]/measurement
    - \* example: we measure a table to be 10 inches with uncertainty of 1 inch. relative precision = 1/10 = 0.1 or 10% (% relative precision)
  - uncertainty in measurement is usually square root of variance:

 $\sigma$  = standard deviation

★ usually calculated using the technique of "propagation of errors".

## **Statistics and Systematic Errors**

• Results from experiments are often presented as:

$$N \pm XX \pm YY$$

N: value of quantity measured (or determined) by experiment.

XX: statistical error, usually assumed to be from a Gaussian distribution.

- with the assumption of Gaussian statistics we can say (calculate) something about how well our experiment agrees with other experiments and/or theories.
  - $\star$  Expect an 68% chance that the true value is between N XX and N + XX.

YY: systematic error. Hard to estimate, distribution of errors usually not known.

• examples: mass of proton =  $0.9382769 \pm 0.0000027$  GeV (only statistical error given) mass of W boson =  $80.8 \pm 1.5 \pm 2.4$  GeV • What's the difference between statistical and systematic errors?

$$N \pm XX \pm YY$$

• statistical errors are "random" in the sense that if we repeat the measurement enough times:

$$XX -> 0$$

- systematic errors do not -> 0 with repetition.
  - \* examples of sources of systematic errors:
    - voltmeter not calibrated properly
    - a ruler not the length we think is (meter stick might really be < meter!)
- because of systematic errors, an experimental result can be precise, but not accurate!
- How do we combine systematic and statistical errors to get one estimate of precision?
  - big problem!
  - two choices:
    - ★  $\sigma_{\text{tot}} = XX + YY$  add them linearly
    - ★  $\sigma_{\text{tot}} = (XX^2 + YY^2)^{1/2}$  add them in quadrature
- Some other ways of quoting experimental results
  - lower limit: "the mass of particle *X* is > 100 GeV"
  - upper limit: "the mass of particle X is < 100 GeV"
  - asymmetric errors: mass of particle  $X = 100^{+4}_{-3}$  GeV