



Probability and Statistics

Basic concepts

(from a physicist point of view)

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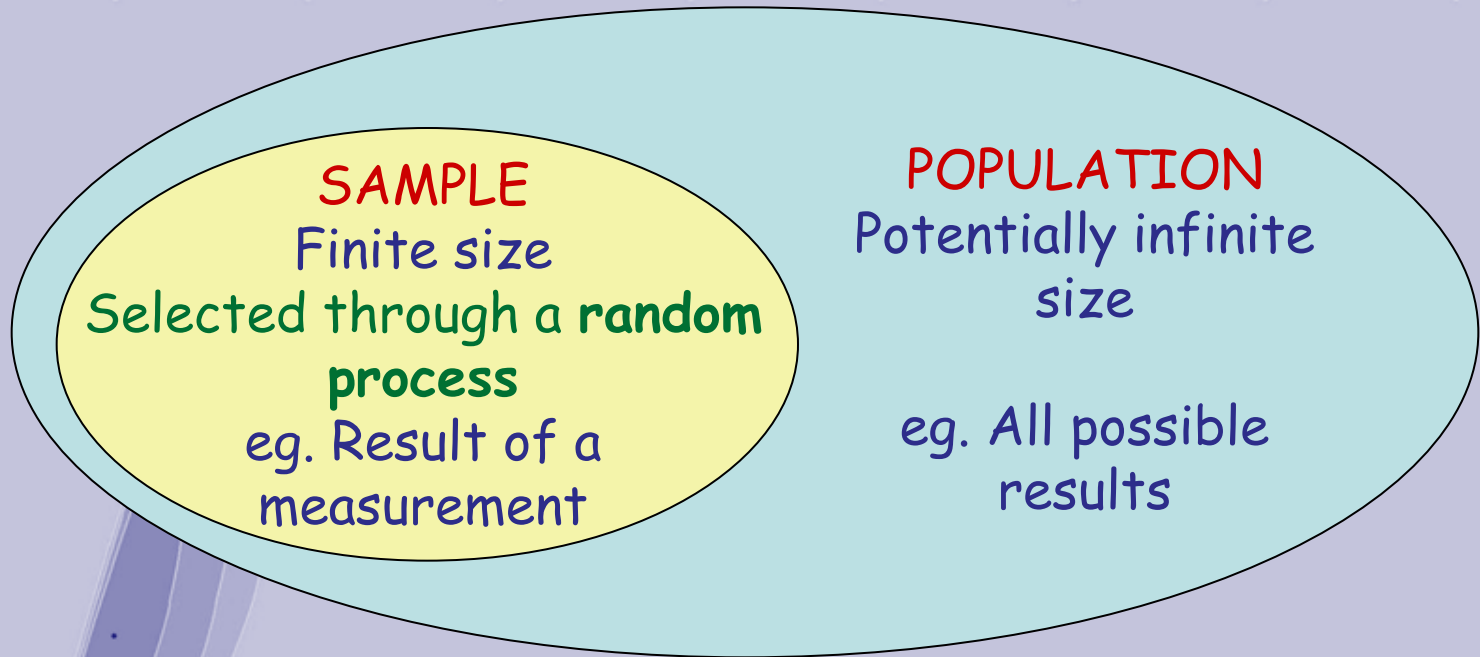
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Sample and population



Characterizing the sample, the population and the drawing procedure :

-> **Probability theory** (today's lecture)

Using the sample to estimate the characteristics of the population

-> **Statistical inference** (tomorrow's lecture)

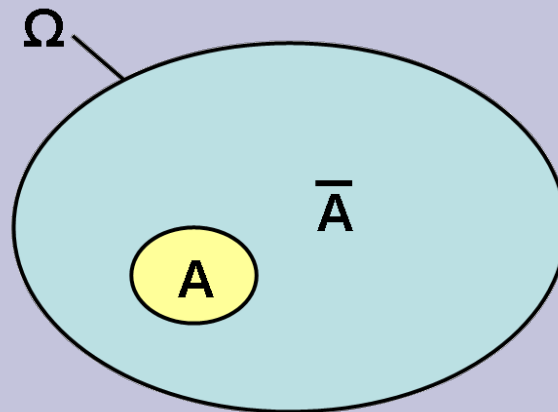
Random process

A random process (« measurement » or « experiment ») is a process whose **outcome cannot be predicted with certainty.**

It will be described by :

Universe: Ω = set of all possible outcomes.

Event : logical condition on an outcome. It can either be true or false; an event splits the universe in 2 subsets.



An event \mathcal{A} will be identified by the subset A for which \mathcal{A} is true.

Probability

A **probability function** P is defined by : (Kolmogorov, 1933)

$$P : \{\text{Events}\} \rightarrow [0:1]$$

$$A \rightarrow P(A)$$

satisfying :

$$P(\Omega) = 1$$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) \quad \text{if } A \cap B = \emptyset$$

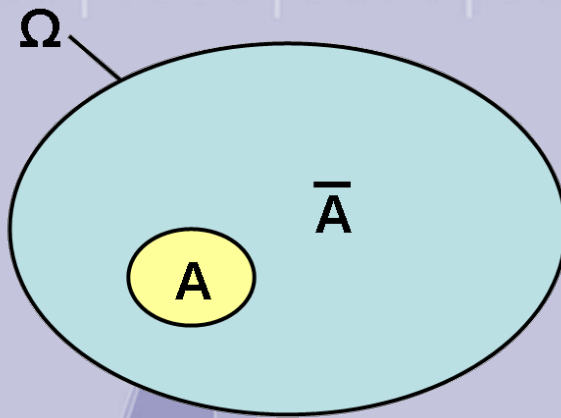
Interpretation of this number :

- **Frequentist approach** : if we repeat the random process a great number of times n , and count the number of times the outcome satisfy event A , n_A then the ratio :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{n_A}{n} = P(A) \quad \text{defines a probability}$$

- **Bayesian interpretation** : a probability is a measure of the credibility associated to the event.

Simple logic

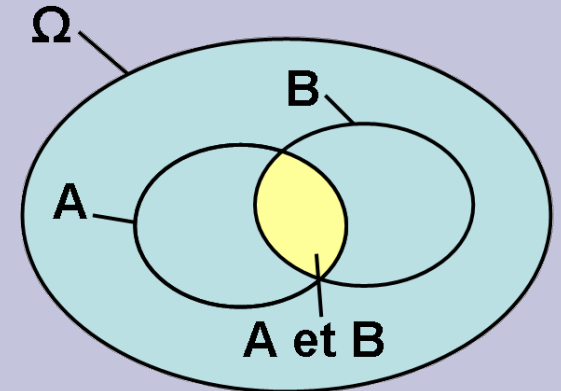


Event « not A » is associated with the complement \bar{A} .

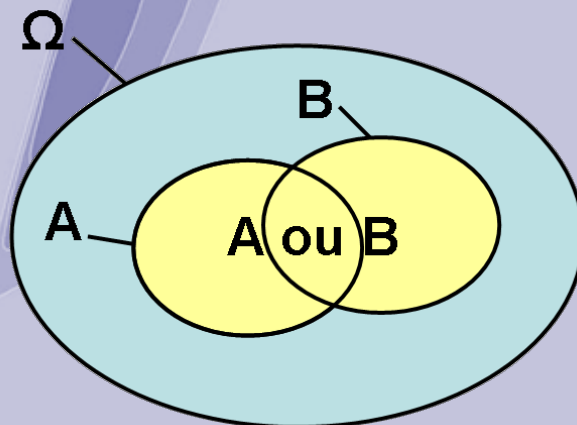
$$P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

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

Event « A and B » is associated with the ensemble $A \cap B$.



Event « A or B » is associated with the ensemble $A \cup B$.



$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

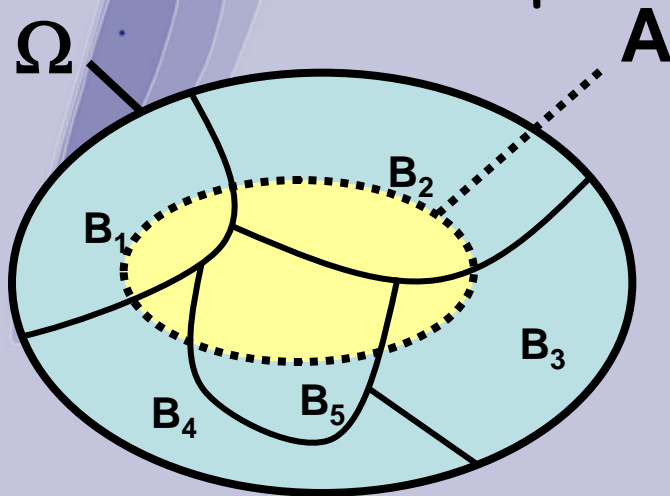
Incompatibility and partition

Two **incompatible** events cannot be true simultaneously, then :

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = 0 \text{ and } P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

A **partition** is a set of incompatible events that cover the full universe :

$$\Omega = \bigcup_i B_i, \quad B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset \quad (i \neq j)$$



Then, for any event A :

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(A \text{ and } B_i)$$

Similar to a basis in linear algebra.

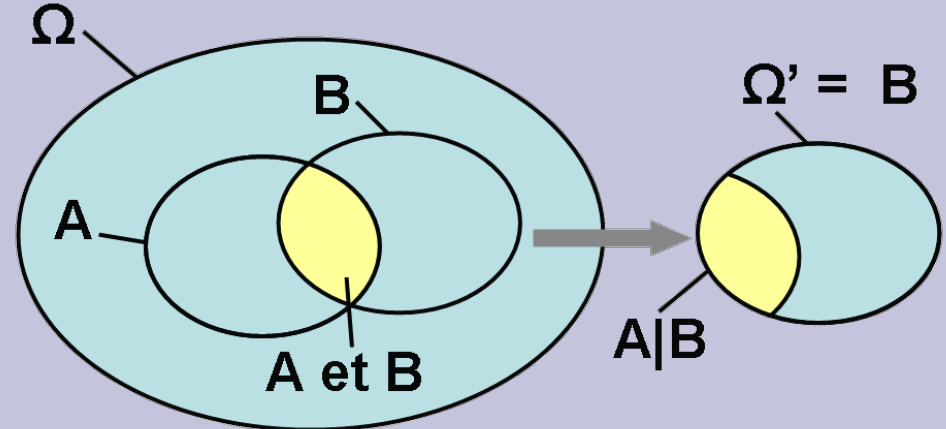
Conditional probability and independence

If an event **B** is known to be true, one can restrain the universe to $\Omega' = B$ and define a new probability function on this universe, the **conditional probability**.

$P(A|B)$ = « probability of A given B »

From Venn diagram :

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



Two events are **independent**, if the realization of one is not linked in any way to the realization of the other :

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

From the previous relations: $P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A).P(B)$

Bayes theorem

The definition of conditional probability leads to :

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

Hence relating $P(A|B)$ to $P(B|A)$ by the **Bayes theorem** :

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

Or, using a partition $\{B_i\}$:

$$P(B_i | A) = \frac{P(A | B_i).P(B_i)}{\sum_i P(A \text{ and } B_i)} = \frac{P(A | B_i).P(B_i)}{\sum_i P(A | B_i).P(B_i)}$$

This theorem will play a major role in Bayesian inference : given data and a set of models, it translates into :

$$P(\text{model}_i | \text{data}) = \frac{P(\text{data} | \text{model}_i).P(\text{model}_i)}{\sum_i P(\text{data} | \text{model}_i).P(\text{model}_i)}$$

Application of Bayes

100 dices in a box :

70 are equiprobable (**A**) 30 have a probability 1/3 to get 6 (**B**)

You pick one dice, throw it until you reach 6 and count the number of try. Repeating the process thrice, you get 2, 4 and 1.

What's the probability that the dice is equilibrated ?

$$\text{For one throw : } P(n | A) = (1 - p_6)^{n-1} p_6 = \frac{5^{n-1}}{6^n} \quad P(n | B) = \frac{2^{n-1}}{3^n}$$

Combining several throw: (for one dice, throws are independents)

$$P(n_1 \text{ and } n_2 \text{ and } n_3 | A) = P(n_1 | A)P(n_2 | A)P(n_3 | A) = \frac{5^{n_1+n_2+n_3-3}}{6^{n_1+n_2+n_3}}$$

$$P(n_1 \text{ and } n_2 \text{ and } n_3 | B) = \frac{2^{n_1+n_2+n_3}}{3^{n_1+n_2+n_3}}$$

$$P(A | n_1, n_2, n_3) = \frac{P(n_1, n_2, n_3 | A)P(A)}{P(n_1, n_2, n_3 | B)P(B) + P(n_1, n_2, n_3 | A)P(A)}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{5^{n_1+n_2+n_3-3}}{6^{n_1+n_2+n_3}} \times 0.7}{\frac{2^{n_1+n_2+n_3-3}}{3^{n_1+n_2+n_3}} \times 0.3 + \frac{5^{n_1+n_2+n_3-3}}{6^{n_1+n_2+n_3}} \times 0.7} = \frac{\frac{5^4}{6^7} \times 0.7}{\frac{2^4}{3^7} \times 0.3 + \frac{5^4}{6^7} \times 0.7} \approx 0.42$$

Random variable

When the outcome of the random process is a **number** (real or integer), we associate to the random process, a **random variable X** . Each realization of the process leads to a particular result : **$X=x$** . x is a realization of **X** .

For a discrete variable :

Probability law : $p(x) = P(X=x)$

For a real variable : $P(X=x)=0$,

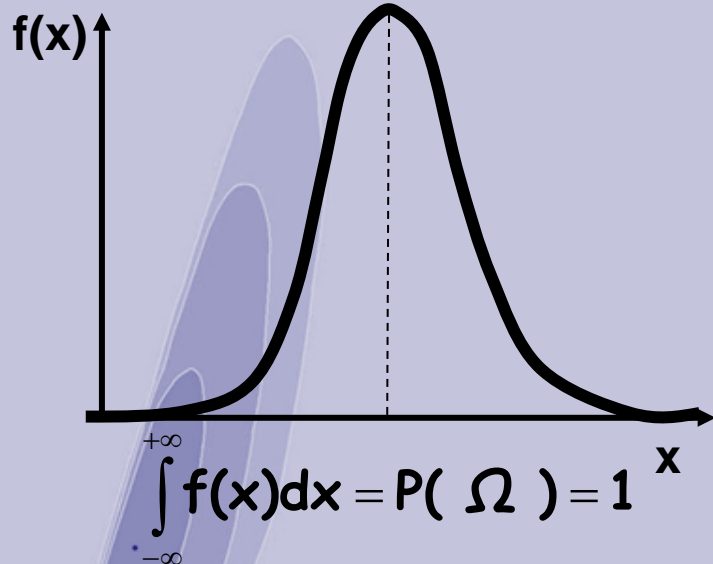
Cumulative density function : $F(x) = P(X < x)$

$$\begin{aligned} dF &= F(x+dx) - F(x) = P(X < x+dx) - P(X < x) \\ &= P(X < x \text{ or } x < X < x+dx) - P(X < x) \\ &= P(X < x) + P(x < X < x+dx) - P(X < x) \\ &= P(x < X < x+dx) = f(x)dx \end{aligned}$$

Probability density function (pdf) : $f(x) = \frac{dF}{dx}$

Density function

Probability density function

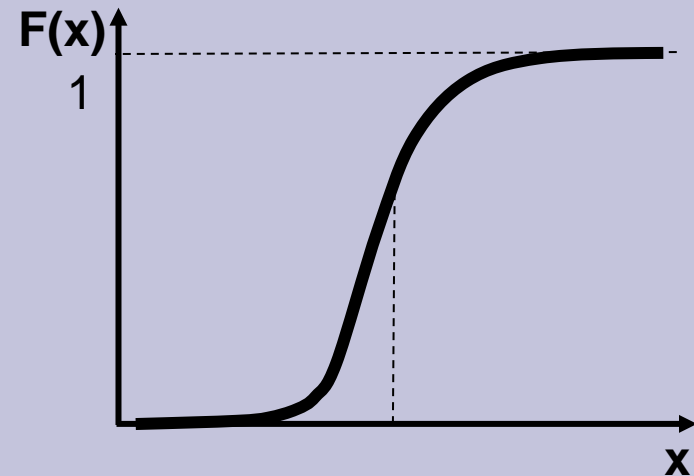


Note : discrete variables can also be described by a probability density function using Dirac distributions:

$$f(x) = \sum_i p(i)\delta(i - x)$$

$$\sum_i p(i) = 1$$

Cumulative density function



By construction :

$$F(-\infty) = P(\emptyset) = 0$$

$$F(+\infty) = P(\Omega) = 1$$

$$F(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx$$

$$P(a < X < b) = F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

Change of variable

Probability density function of $Y = \varphi(X)$

For φ bijective

• φ increasing : $X < x \Leftrightarrow Y < y$

$$P(X < x) = F_X(x) = P(Y < y) = F_Y(Y) = F_Y(\varphi(x)) \Rightarrow f_Y(y) = \frac{dF(x)}{dy} = \frac{f(x)}{\varphi'(x)}$$

• φ decreasing : $X < x \Leftrightarrow Y > y$

$$P(X < x) = F_X(x) = P(Y > y) = 1 - F_Y(Y) = 1 - F_Y(\varphi(x)) \Rightarrow f_Y(y) = -\frac{dF(x)}{dy} = \frac{f(x)}{-\varphi'(x)}$$

in both case

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{f(x)}{|\varphi'(x)|} = \frac{f(\varphi^{-1}(y))}{|\varphi'(\varphi^{-1}(y))|}$$

If φ not bijective : split into several bijective parts φ_i

$$f_Y(y) = \sum_i \frac{f(x)}{|\varphi_i'(x)|} = \sum_i \frac{f(\varphi_i^{-1}(y))}{|\varphi_i'(\varphi_i^{-1}(y))|}$$

Very useful for Monte-Carlo : if X is uniformly distributed between 0 and 1 then $Y = F^{-1}(X)$ has F for cumulative density

Multidimensional PDF (1)

Random variables can be generalized to random vectors :

$$\vec{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

the **probability density function** becomes :

$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{x})d\vec{x} &= f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)dx_1dx_2 \dots dx_n \\ &= P(x_1 < X_1 < x_1 + dx_1 \text{ and } x_2 < X_2 < x_2 + dx_2 \dots \\ &\quad \dots \text{and } x_n < X_n < x_n + dx_n) \end{aligned}$$

and $P(a < X < b \text{ and } c < Y < d) = \int_a^b dx \int_c^d dy f(x, y)$

Marginal density : probability of only one of the component

$$\begin{aligned} f_x(x)dx &= P(x < X < x + dx \text{ and } -\infty < Y < +\infty) = \int (f(x, y)dx)dy \\ &\Rightarrow f_x(x) = \int f(x, y)dy \end{aligned}$$

Multidimensional PDF (2)

For a fixed value of $Y=y_0$:

$f(x|y_0)dx = \ll$ Probability of $x < X < x+dx$ knowing that $Y=y_0$ \gg is , a **conditional density for X**. It is proportional to $f(x,y)$, so

$$f(x | y) \propto f(x, y) \quad \int f(x | y) dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x | y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{\int f(x, y) dx} = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_y(y)}$$

The two random variables X and Y are **independent** if all events of the form $x < X < x+dx$ are independent from $y < Y < y+dy$

$$f(x|y)=f_x(x) \text{ and } f(y|x)=f_y(y) \text{ hence } f(x,y)= f_x(x).f_y(y)$$

Translated in term of pdf's, Bayes' theorem becomes:

$$f(y | x) = \frac{f(x | y)f_y(y)}{f_x(x)} = \frac{f(x | y)f_y(y)}{\int f(x | y)f_y(y)dy}$$

D.Sivia's lecture will detail the use of this formula for statistical inference

Sample PDF

A **sample** is obtained from a **random drawing** within a **population**, described by a probability density function.

We're going to discuss how to **characterize, independently from one another:**

- a **population**
- a **sample**

To this end, it is useful, to consider a sample as a finite set from which one can randomly draw elements, with equiprobability

We can then associate to this process a probability density, the **empirical density** or **sample density**

$$f_{\text{sample}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \delta(\mathbf{x} - i)$$

This density will be useful to translate properties of distribution to a finite sample.

Characterizing a distribution

How to reduce a distribution/sample to a finite number of values ?

- ❖ **Measure of location:**

Reducing the distribution to **one central value**

-> Result

- ❖ **Measure of dispersion:**

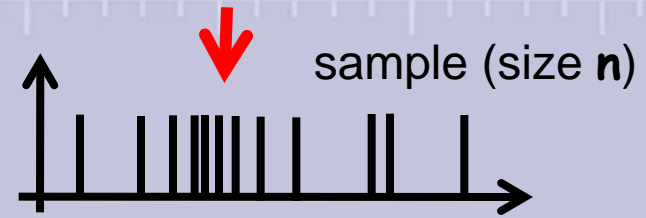
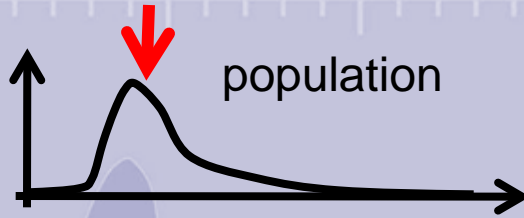
Spread of the distribution around the central value

-> Uncertainty/Error

- ❖ **Higher order measure of shape**

- ❖ **Frequency table/histogram** (for a finite sample)

Measure of location



Mean value : Sum (integral) of all possible values weighted by the probability of occurrence:

$$\mu = \bar{x} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} xf(x)dx$$

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

Median : Value that split the distribution in 2 equiprobable parts

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\text{med}(x)} f(x)dx = \int_{\text{med}(x)}^{+\infty} f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{med}(x) = \begin{cases} x_{(n+1)/2} & , \text{ odd } n \\ \frac{1}{2} (x_{n/2} + x_{1+n/2}) & , \text{ even } n \end{cases}$$

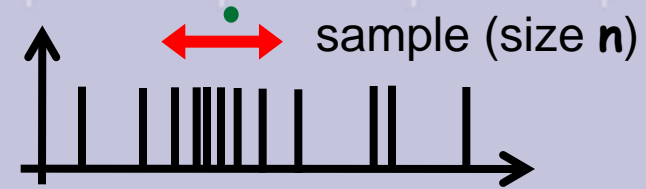
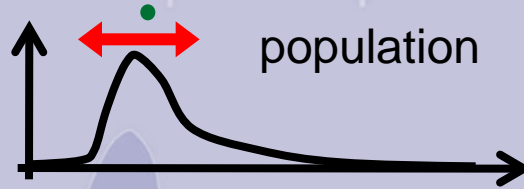
$$x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n$$

Mode : The most probable value = maximum of pdf

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=\text{mod}(x)} = 0, \quad \left. \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} \right|_{x=\text{mod}(x)} < 0$$

?

Measure of dispersion



Standard deviation (σ) and variance ($v = \sigma^2$) : Mean value of the squared deviation to the mean :

$$v = \sigma^2 = \int (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx$$

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

Koenig's theorem :

$$\sigma^2 = \int x^2 f(x) dx + \mu^2 \int f(x) dx - 2\mu \int x f(x) dx$$

$$\sigma^2 = \overline{x^2} - \mu^2 = \overline{x^2} - \bar{x}^2$$

Interquartile difference : generalize the mean by splitting the distribution in 4 :

$$\int_{-\infty}^{q_1} f(x) dx = \int_{q_1}^{q_2} f(x) dx = \int_{q_2}^{q_3} f(x) dx = \int_{q_3}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\text{med}(x) = q_2$$

$$\delta = q_3 - q_1$$

Bienaymé-Chebyshev

Consider the interval : $\Delta =]-\infty, \mu - a[\cup]\mu + a, +\infty[$

Then for $x \in \Delta$: $\left(\frac{x - \mu}{a}\right)^2 > 1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{x - \mu}{a}\right)^2 f(x) > f(x)$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\Delta} \left(\frac{x - \mu}{a}\right)^2 f(x) dx > \int_{\Delta} f(x) dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{x - \mu}{a}\right)^2 f(x) dx > \int_{\Delta} f(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sigma^2}{a^2} > P(|X - \mu| > a)$$

Finally **Bienaymé-Chebyshev's inequality**

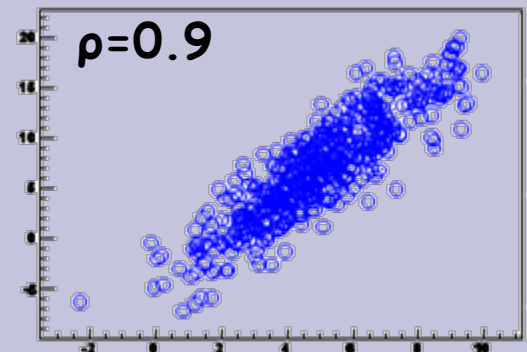
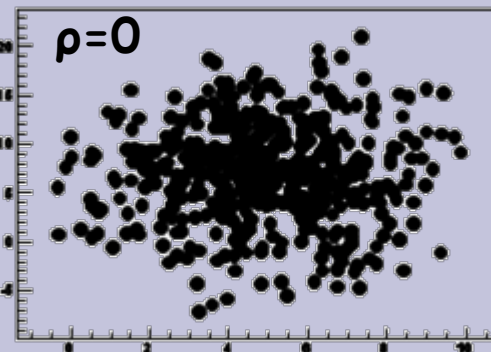
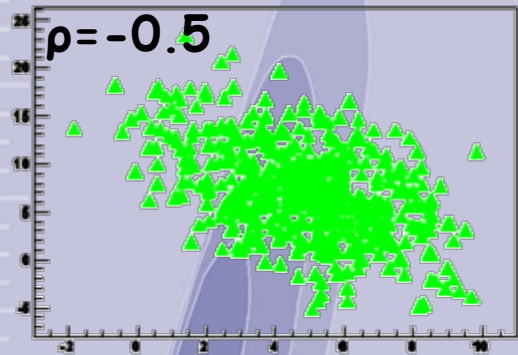
$$P(|X - \mu| \leq a\sigma) > 1 - \frac{1}{a^2}$$

It gives a bound on the **confidence level** if the interval $\mu \pm a\sigma$

a	1	2	3	4	5
Chebyshev's bound	0	0.75	0.889	0.938	0.96
Normal distribution	0.683	0.954	0.997	0.99996	0.9999994

Multidimensional case

A random vector (X, Y) can be treated as **2 separate variables**
 marginal densities : mean and variance for each variable : $\mu_X \mu_Y \sigma_X \sigma_Y$
 Doesn't take into account correlations between the variables



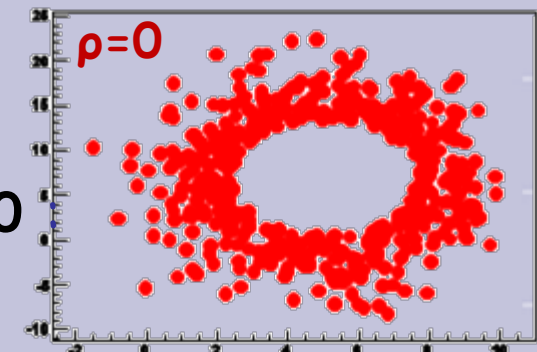
Generalized measure of dispersion : **Covariance of X and Y**

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \iint (x - \mu_X)(y - \mu_Y) f(x, y) dx dy = \rho \sigma_X \sigma_Y = \mu_{XY} - \mu_X \mu_Y$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_X)(y_i - \mu_Y)$$

Correlation : $\rho = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$ **Uncorrelated** : $\rho=0$

Independent  **Uncorrelated**

only quantify linear correlation

Decorrelation

Covariance matrix for n variables X_i :

$$\Sigma_{ij} = \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) \Rightarrow \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \cdots & \rho_{1n}\sigma_1\sigma_n \\ \rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & \rho_{2n}\sigma_2\sigma_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho_{1n}\sigma_1\sigma_n & \rho_{2n}\sigma_2\sigma_n & \cdots & \sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

For **uncorrelated variables** Σ is **diagonal**

Matrix **real** and **symmetric** : can be diagonalized

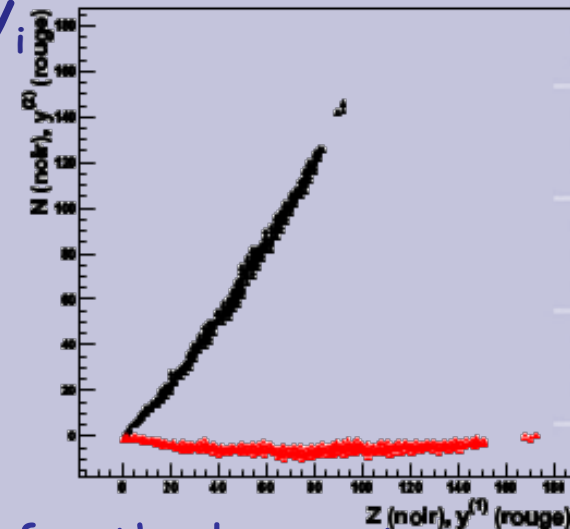
One can define n new uncorrelated variables Y_i

$$\Sigma' = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1'^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2'^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma_n'^2 \end{pmatrix} = B^{-1}\Sigma B, \quad Y = BX$$

$\sigma_i'^2$ are the **eigenvalues** of Σ ,

B contains the **orthonormal eigenvectors**.

The Y_i are the **principal components**. Sorted for the larger to the smaller σ' they allow **dimensionality reduction**



Regression

Measure of location:

- a point : (μ_x, μ_y)
- a curve : line closest to the points -> **linear regression**

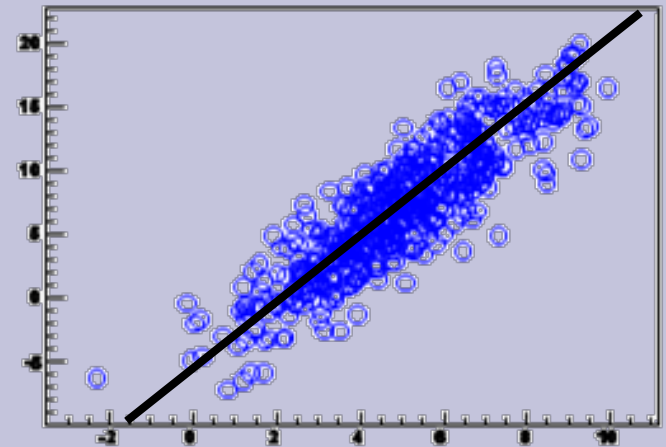
Minimizing the dispersion between the curve « $y=ax+b$ » and the distribution :

$$w(a,b) = \iint (y - ax - b)^2 f(x,y) dx dy \left(= \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (y_i - ax_i - b)^2 \right)$$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial w}{\partial a} = 0 = \iint x(y - ax - b)f(x,y) dx dy \\ \frac{\partial w}{\partial b} = 0 = \iint (y - ax - b)f(x,y) dx dy \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a(\sigma_x^2 - \mu_x^2) + b\mu_x = \rho\sigma_x\sigma_y + \mu_x\mu_y \\ a\mu_x + b = \mu_y \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a = \rho \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x} \\ b = \mu_y - \rho \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x} \mu_x \end{cases}$$



Fully correlated $\rho=1$
 Fully anti-correlated $\rho=-1$
 Then $Y = aX+b$

Moments

For any function $g(x)$, the **expectation** of g is :

$$E[g(X)] = \int g(x)f(x)dx \quad \text{It's the mean value of } g$$

Moments μ_k are the expectation of X^k .

0th moment : $\mu_0=1$ (pdf normalization)

1st moment : $\mu_1=\mu$ (mean)

$X' = X - \mu_1$ is a **central variable**

2nd central moment : $\mu'_2 = \sigma^2$ (variance)

Characteristic function $\varphi(t) = E[e^{ixt}] = \int f(x)e^{ixt} dx = FT^{-1}[f]$

From Taylor expansion : $\varphi(t) = \int \sum_k \frac{(itx)^k}{k!} f(x) dx = \sum_k \frac{(it)^k}{k!} \mu_k$

$$\mu_k = -i^k \left. \frac{d^k \varphi}{dt^k} \right|_{t=0}$$

Pdf entirely defined by its moments

CF : useful tool for demonstrations

Skewness and kurtosis

Reduced variable : $X'' = (X - \mu) / \sigma = X' / \sigma$

Measure of asymmetry :

3rd reduced moment : $\mu''_3 = \sqrt{\beta_1} = \gamma_1$: skewness
 $\gamma_1 = 0$ for symmetric distribution. Then mean = median

Measure of shape :

4th reduced moment : $\mu''_4 = \beta_2 = \gamma_2 + 3$: kurtosis
 For the normal distribution $\beta_2 = 3$ and $\gamma_2 = 0$

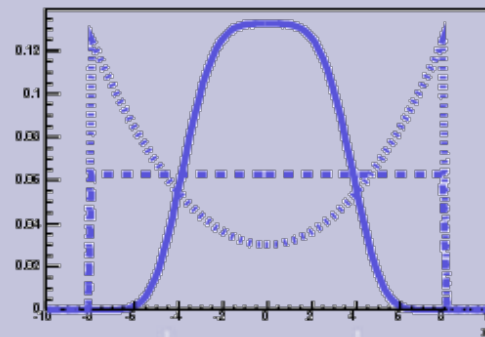
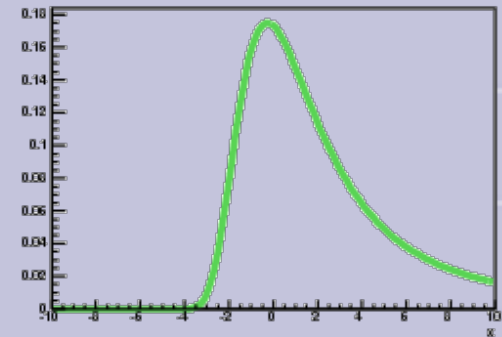
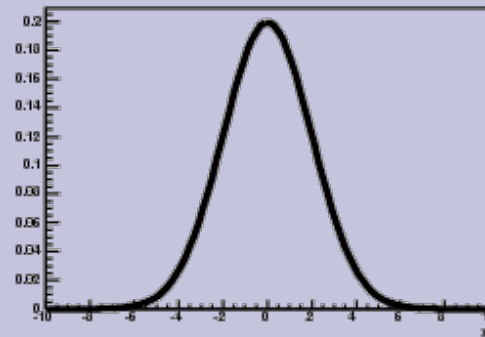
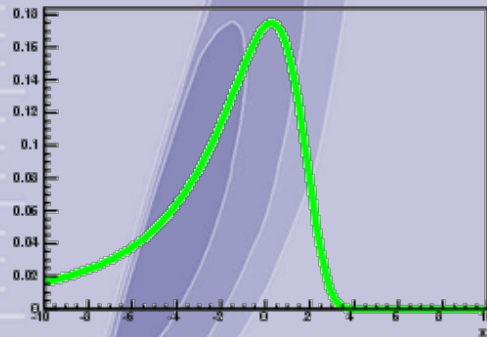
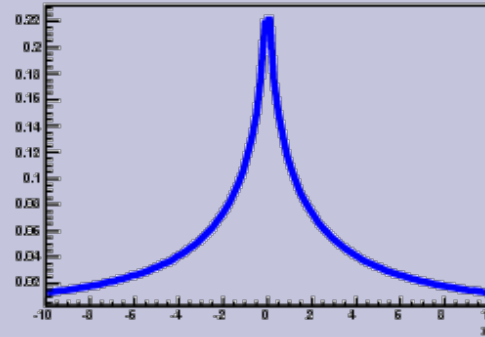
Generalized Koenig's theorem

$$\mu'_n = (-1)^n (1 - n) \mu_1^n + \sum_{k=2}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} (-\mu_1)^{n-k} \mu_k$$

$$\mu''_n = \left(\frac{1}{\mu'_2} \right)^{n-2} \mu'_n$$

Skewness and kurtosis (2)

- $\gamma_1=0, \gamma_2=0$ (normale)
- $\gamma_1 < 0$
- $\gamma_1 > 0$
- $\gamma_2 > 0$
- $-1.2 < \gamma_2 < 0$
- - - $\gamma_2 = -1.2$ (uniforme)
- o o o o o o o o o o $\gamma_2 < -1.2$



Discrete distributions

Binomial distribution: randomly choosing K objects within a finite set of n , with a fixed drawing probability of p

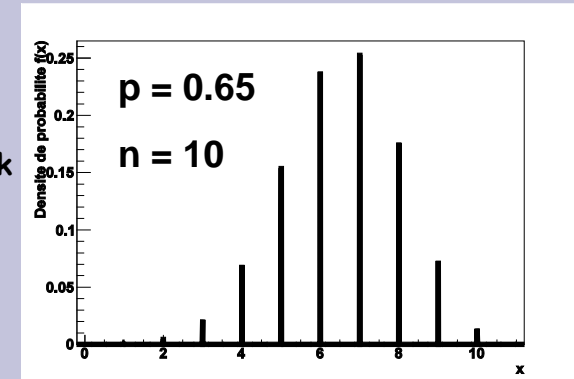
Variable : K

Parameters : n, p

Law : $P(k; n, p) = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$

Mean : np

Variance : $np(1-p)$



Poisson distribution : limit of the binomial when $n \rightarrow +\infty, p \rightarrow 0, np = \lambda$
Counting events with fixed probability per time/space unit.

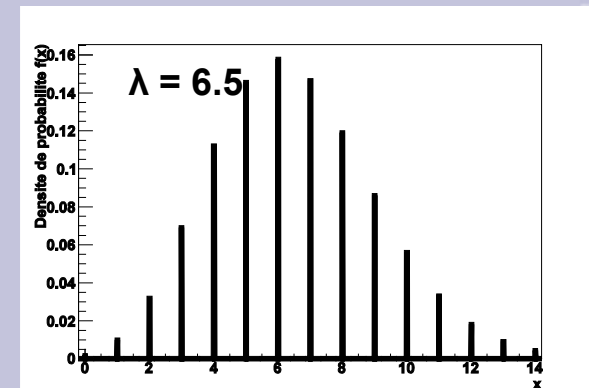
Variable : K

Parameters : λ

Law : $P(k; \lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}$

Mean : λ

Variance : λ



Real distributions

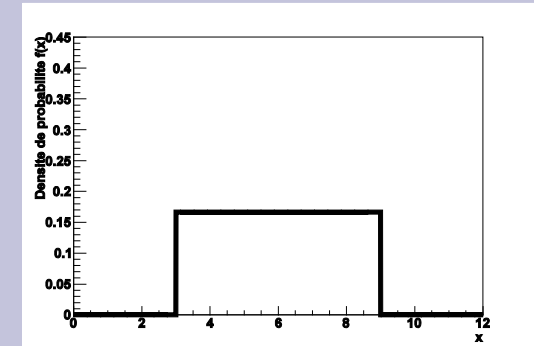
Uniform distribution : equiprobability over a finite range [a,b]

Parameters : a, b

Law : $f(x; a, b) = \frac{1}{b-a}$ if $a < x < b$

Mean : $\mu = (a+b)/2$

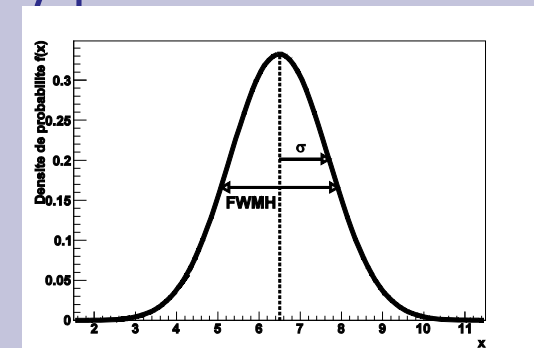
Variance : $v = \sigma^2 = (b-a)^2 / 12$



Normal distribution (Gaussian) : limit of many processes

Parameters : μ, σ

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



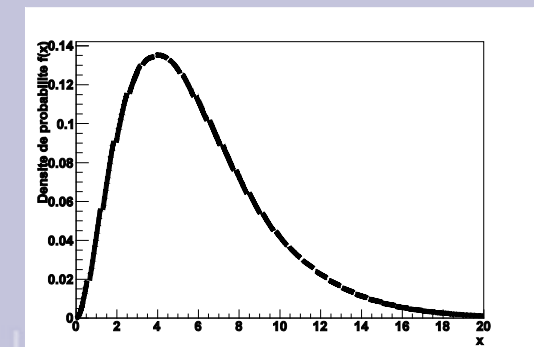
Chi-square distribution : sum of the square of n normal reduced variables

Variable : $C = \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\frac{X_k - \mu_{X_k}}{\sigma_{X_k}} \right)^2$

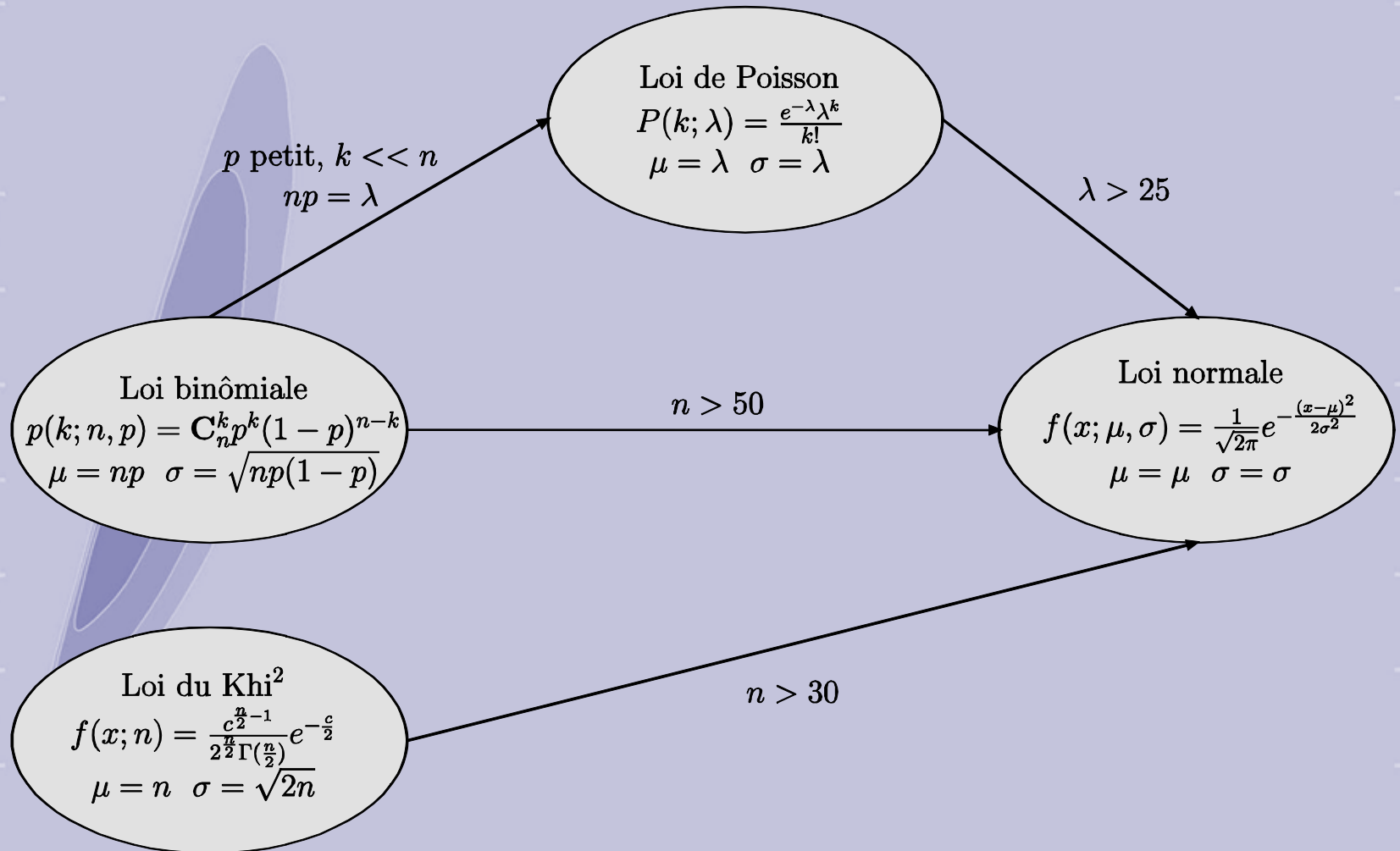
Parameters : n

Law : $f(c; n) = c^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{c}{2}} / 2^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$

Mean : n Variance : 2n



Convergence



Multidimensional Pdfs

Multinomial distribution : randomly choosing K_1, K_2, \dots, K_s objects within a finite set of n , with a fixed drawing probability for each category p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s with $\sum K_i = n$ and $\sum p_i = 1$

Parameters : n, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s

Law : $P(\vec{k}; n, \vec{p}) = \frac{n!}{k_1! k_2! \dots k_s!} p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \dots p_s^{k_s}$

Mean : $\mu_i = np_i$

Variance : $\sigma_i^2 = np_i(1 - p_i)$ $\text{Cov}(K_i, K_j) = -np_i p_j$

Rem : variables are not independent. The binomial, correspond to $s=2$, but has only one independent variable.

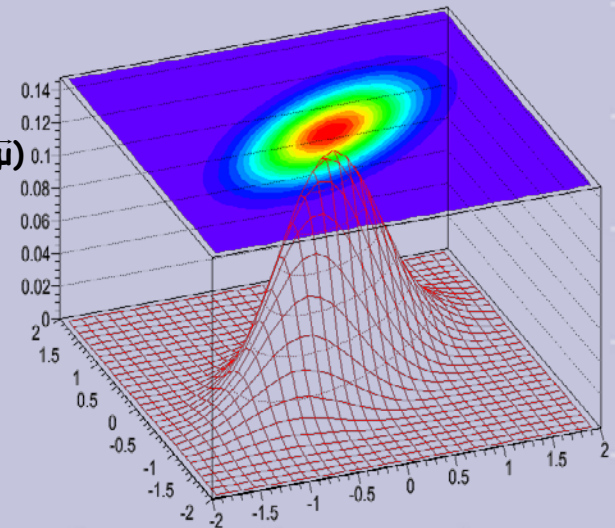
Multinormal distribution :

Parameters : $\vec{\mu}, \Sigma$

Law : $f(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} |\Sigma|} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})}$

if uncorrelated $f(\vec{x}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \prod \frac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \mu_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}$

Independent \longleftrightarrow Uncorrelated



Sum of random variables

The sum of several random variable is a new random variable S

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Assuming the mean and variance of each variable exists,

Mean value of S :

$$\mu_S = \int \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right) f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \int x_i f_{X_i}(x_i) dx_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i$$

The mean is an additive quantity

Variance of S :

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_S^2 &= \int \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \mu_{X_i} \right)^2 f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{X_i}^2 + 2 \sum_i \sum_{j < i} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) \end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma_S^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n \sigma_{X_k}^2$$

For **uncorrelated** variables,

the variance is additive -> used for error combinations

Sum of random variables

Probability density function of S : $f_S(s)$

Using the characteristic function :

$$\varphi_S(\mathbf{t}) = \int f_S(s) e^{ist} ds = \int f_{\vec{x}}(\vec{x}) e^{it \sum x_i} d\vec{x}$$

For **independent variables**

$$\varphi_S(\mathbf{t}) = \prod \int f_{x_k}(x_k) e^{itx_k} dx_k = \prod \varphi_{x_i}(\mathbf{t})$$

The characteristic function factorizes.

Finally the pdf is the **Fourier transform** of the cf, so :

$$f_S = f_{X_1} * f_{X_2} * \dots * f_{X_n}$$

The pdfs of the sum is a **convolution**.

Sum of Normal variables \rightarrow Normal

Sum of Poisson variables (λ_1 and λ_2) \rightarrow Poisson, $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$

Sum of Khi-2 variables (n_1 and n_2) \rightarrow Khi-2, $n = n_1 + n_2$

Sum of independent variables

Weak law of large numbers

Sample of size n = realization of n independent variables, with the same distribution (mean μ , variance σ^2).

The sample mean is a realization of $M = \frac{S}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_i$

Mean value of M : $\mu_M = \mu$

Variance of M : $\sigma_M^2 = \sigma^2/n$

From Bienaymé-Chebyshev : $P(|M - \mu| > a) < \frac{\sigma^2}{na^2} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \quad (\forall a)$

Central-Limit theorem

n independent random variables of mean μ_i and variance σ_i^2

Sum of the reduced variables : $C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum \frac{X_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$

The pdfs of C converge to a reduced normal distribution :

$$f_C(c) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{c^2}{2}}$$

Central limit theorem

Naive demonstration:

For each $X_i : X''_i$ has mean 0 and variance 1. So its characteristic function is :

$$\varphi_{X_i''}(\mathbf{t}) = 1 - \frac{\mathbf{t}^2}{2} + o(\mathbf{t}^2)$$

Hence the characteristic function of C :

$$\varphi_C(\mathbf{t}) = \varphi_{X_i''} \left(\frac{\mathbf{t}}{\sqrt{n}} \right)^n = \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{t}^2}{2n} + o \left(\frac{\mathbf{t}^2}{n} \right) \right)^n$$

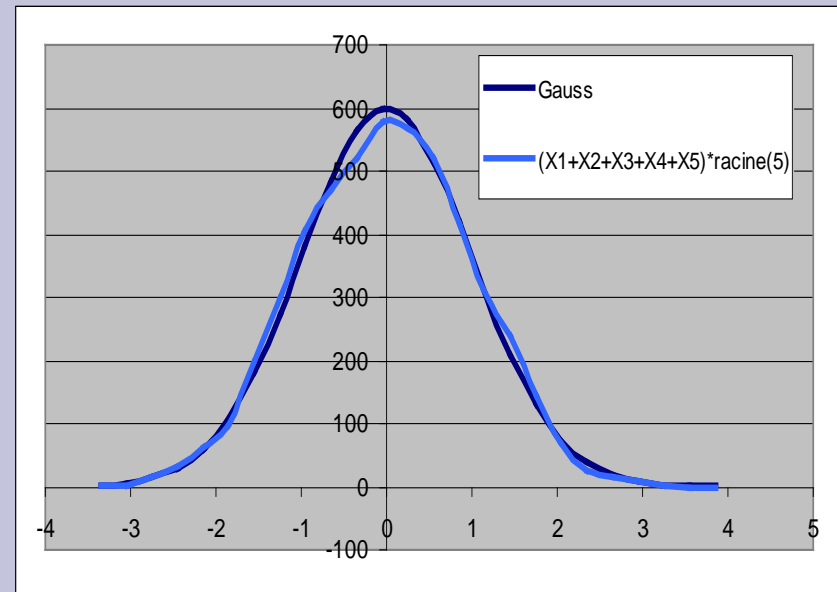
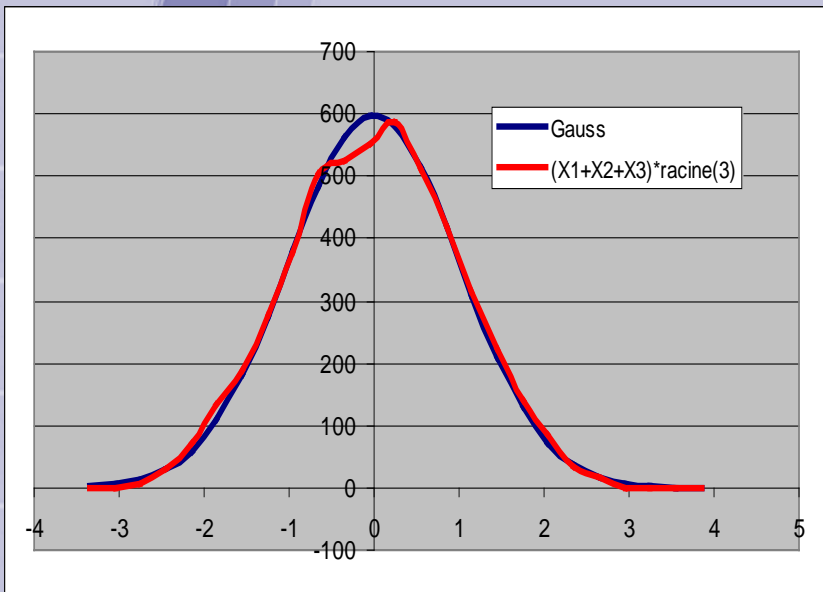
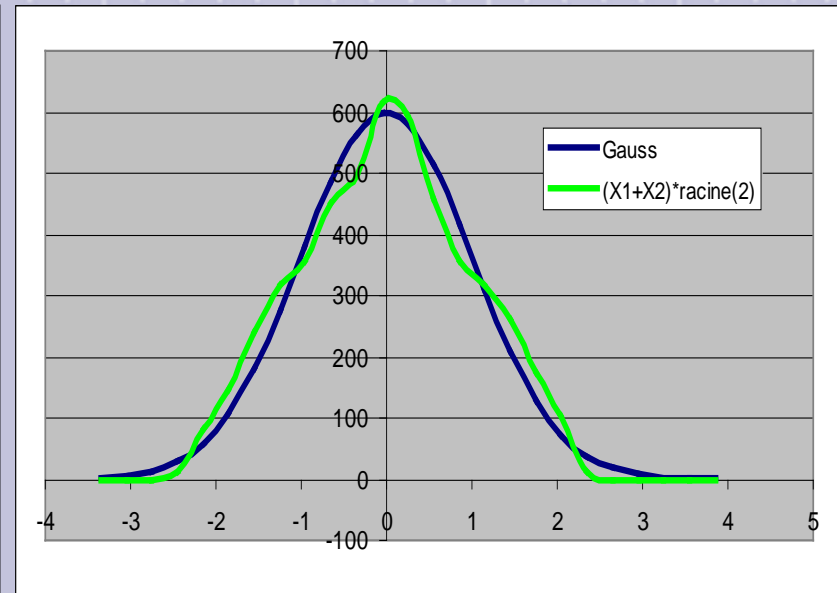
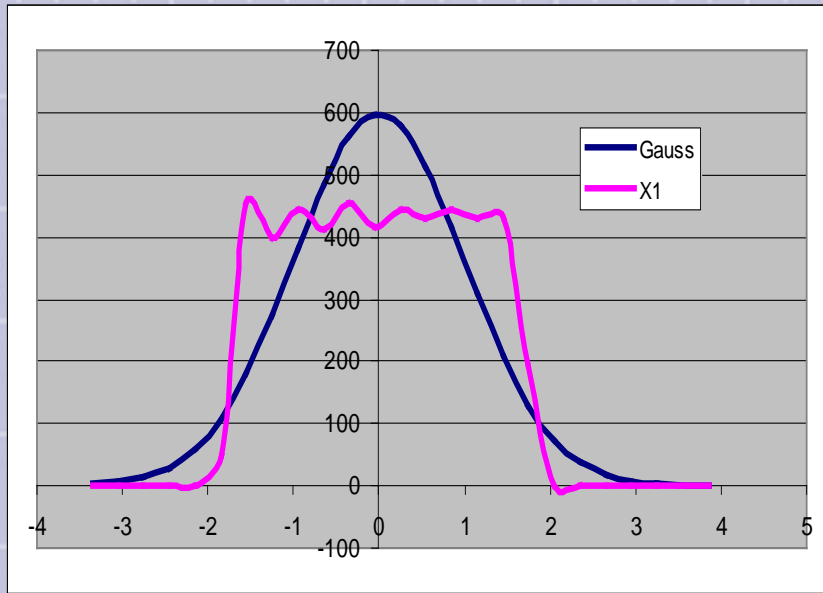
For n large :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \varphi_C(\mathbf{t}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{t}^2}{2n} \right)^n = e^{-\frac{\mathbf{t}^2}{2}} = \text{FT}^{-1}[f_C]$$

This is a naive demonstration, because we assumed that the moments were defined.

For CLT, only mean and variance are required (much more complex)

Central limit theorem



Dispersion and uncertainty

Any measure (or combination of measure) is a realization of a random variable.

- Measured value : θ
- True value : θ_0

Uncertainty = quantifying the difference between θ and θ_0 :
 -> **measure of dispersion**

We will postulate : $\Delta\theta = \alpha\sigma_\theta$ Absolute error, always positive

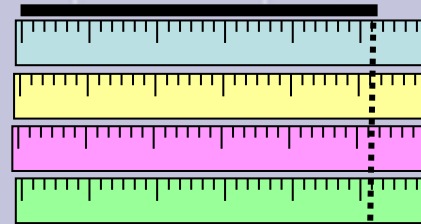
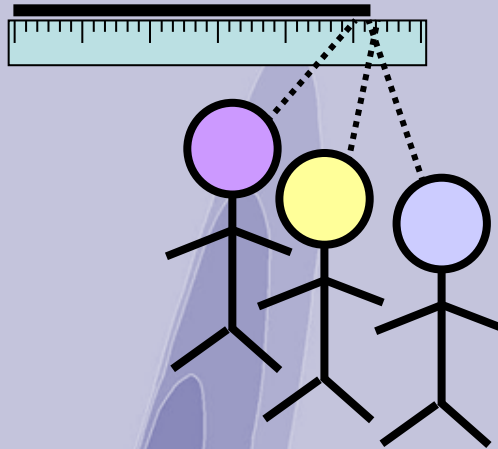
Usually one differentiates

- **Statistical error** : due to the measurement Pdf.
- **Systematic errors** or bias -> fixed but unknown deviation (equipment, assumptions,...)

Systematic errors can be seen as statistical error in a set of similar experiences.

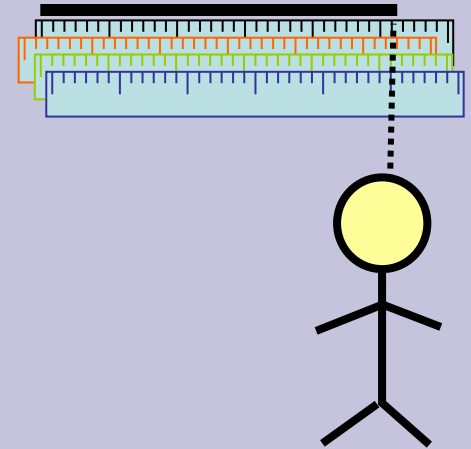
Error sources

Observation error : Δ_o



Scaling error: Δ_s

Position error : Δ_p



$$\theta = \theta_0 + \delta_o + \delta_s + \delta_p$$

Each δ_i is a realization of a random variable : mean 0 (negligible) and variance σ_i^2 . For **uncorrelated error sources** :

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Delta_o = a\sigma_o \\ \Delta_s = a\sigma_s \\ \Delta_p = a\sigma_p \end{array} \right\} \Delta_{\text{tot}}^2 = (a \sigma_{\text{tot}})^2 = a^2 (\sigma_o^2 + \sigma_s^2 + \sigma_p^2) = \Delta_o^2 + \Delta_s^2 + \Delta_p^2$$

Choice of a ?

If many sources, from central-limit \rightarrow normal distribution

$a=1$ gives (approximately) a 68% confidence interval

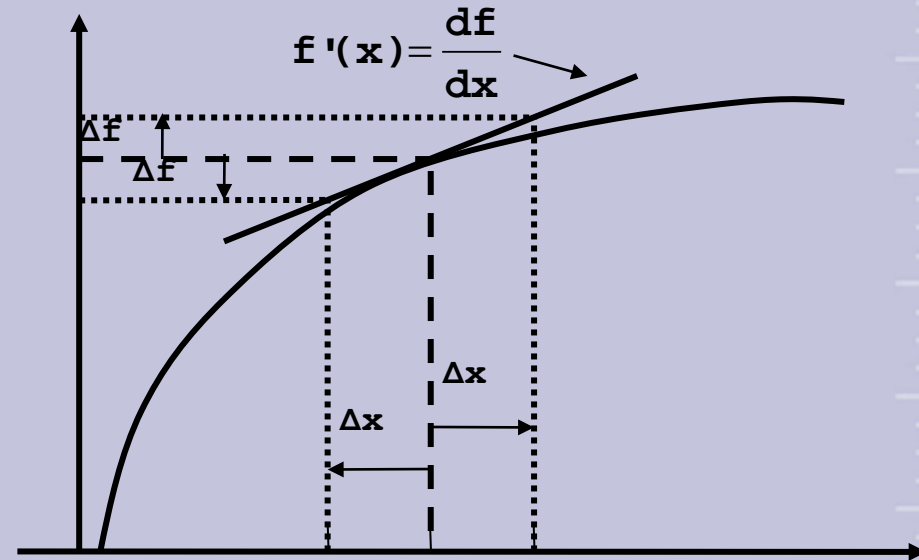
$a=2$ gives 95% CL (and at least 75% from Bienaymé-Chebyshev)

Error propagation

Measure : $x \pm \Delta x$

Compute : $f(x) \rightarrow \Delta f$? $f(x)$

Assuming small errors,
using Taylor expansion :



$$f(x + \Delta x) = f(x) + \frac{df}{dx} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \Delta x^2 \left(+ \frac{1}{6} \frac{d^3 f}{dx^3} \Delta x^3 + \frac{1}{24} \frac{d^4 f}{dx^4} \Delta x^4 \right)$$

$$f(x - \Delta x) = f(x) - \frac{df}{dx} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \Delta x^2 \left(- \frac{1}{6} \frac{d^3 f}{dx^3} \Delta x^3 + \frac{1}{24} \frac{d^4 f}{dx^4} \Delta x^4 \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta f = \frac{1}{2} |f(x + \Delta x) - f(x - \Delta x)| = \frac{df}{dx} \Delta x \left(+ \frac{1}{6} \frac{d^3 f}{dx^3} \Delta x^3 \right)$$

Error propagation

Measure : $x \pm \Delta x, y \pm \Delta y, \dots$

Compute : $f(x, y, \dots) \rightarrow \Delta f$?

Idea : treat the effect of each variable as separate error sources

$$\Delta_x f = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right| \Delta x, \quad \Delta_y f = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right| \Delta y$$

Then

$$\Delta f^2 = \Delta_x f^2 + \Delta_y f^2 + \rho_{xy} \Delta_x f \Delta_y f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta y \right)^2 + \rho_{xy} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta x \Delta y$$

$$\Delta f^2 = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \Delta x_i \right)^2 + \sum_{i,j < i} \rho_{x_i x_j} \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \right| \Delta x_i \Delta x_j$$

uncorrelated

$$\Delta f^2 = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \Delta x_i \right)^2$$

correlated

$$\Delta f = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right| \Delta x + \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right| \Delta y$$

anticorrelated

$$\Delta f = \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right| \Delta x - \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right| \Delta y$$

