

# Math Methods and Experimental Physics

Monte Carlo Methods or why I showed the unif. dist.  
Central limit theorem or why I showed the normal dist.

Multi-dimensional pdfs

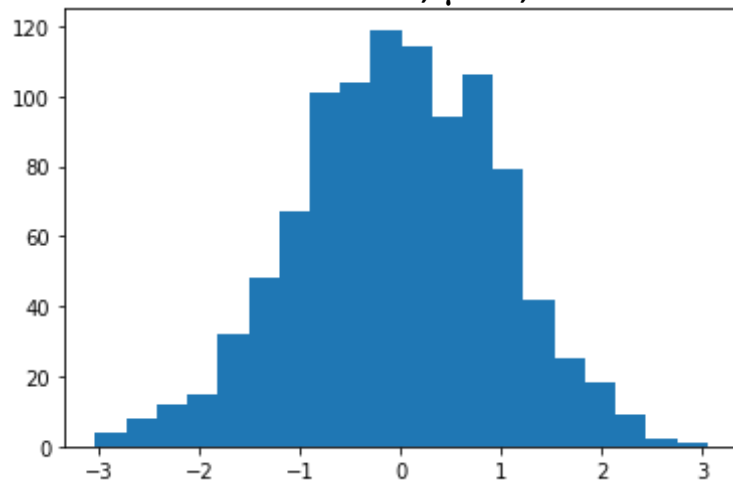
Correlation

Error propagation

# Monte Carlo sampling

Problem: We have a pdf:  $f(x)$  defined over  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . We want to produce a list of random numbers that are sampled from  $f(x)$ . In numpy, you can find a long list of common pdfs, to sample from. But let's say  $f(x)$  is not on this list.

10,000 normally distributed values,  $\mu=0, \sigma^2 = 1$



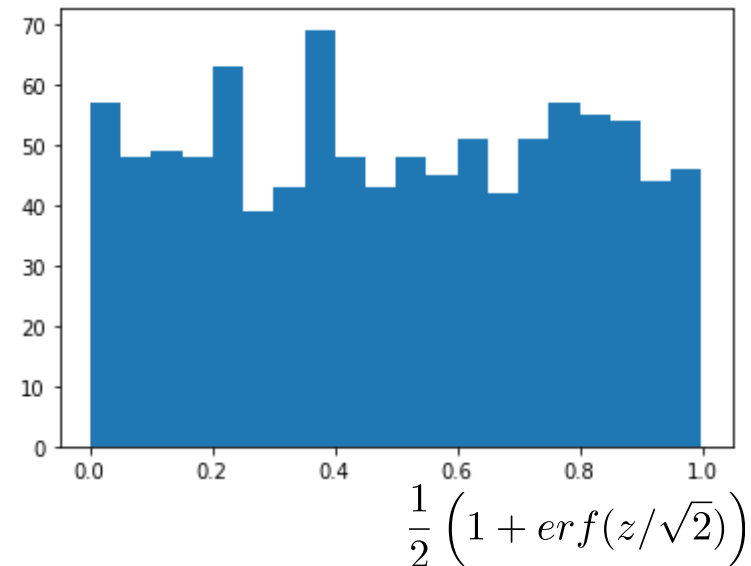
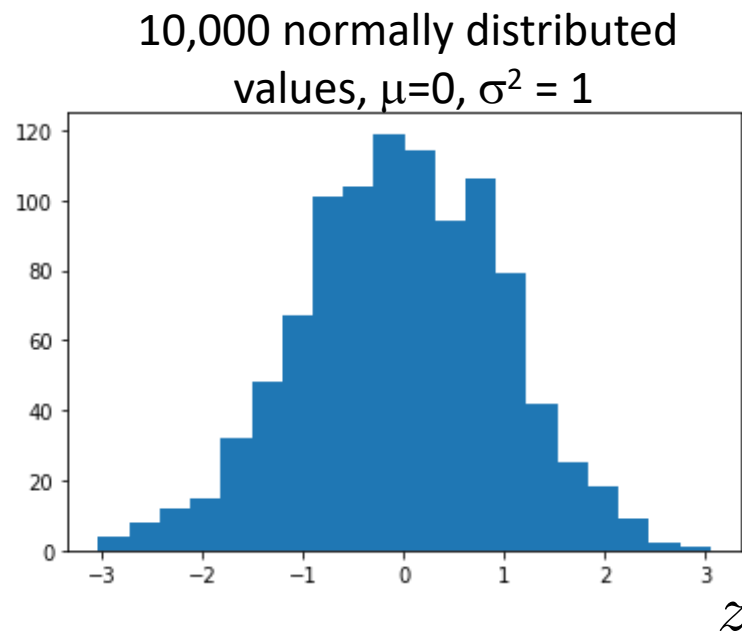
A histogram of 1000 random numbers that follow a normal distribution ( $\mu=0, \sigma=1$ ) using `numpy.random.normal()`

The most basic thing you'll find is a pseudo-random number generator of the uniform distribution.

# Monte Carlo sampling: Inverse transform

Let  $F(x)$  be the cumulative distribution function (cdf) of  $f(x)$ .

If a random variable  $z$  is distributed according to  $f(x)$ , then  $F(z)$  ( $= F(f(x))$ ) will be uniformly distributed in  $[0,1]$ .



# Monte Carlo sampling: Inverse transform

Let's invert this process!

- a) Generate a uniformly distributed list  $y$  in  $[0,1]$ .
- b) Find  $x = F^{-1}(y)$

Then  $x$ , will be distributed following  $f(x)$

# Central limit theorem

In the limit of  $n$  large, the sum of  $n$  independent continuous random variables  $x_i$  with means  $\mu_i$  and variances  $\sigma_i^2$  becomes a Gaussian random variable with mean

$$\mu = \sum_i \mu_i$$

and with variance

$$\sigma^2 = \sum_i \sigma_i^2$$

The importance of this theorem is that the form of  $\text{pdf}(x_i)$  is irrelevant.

# Central limit theorem – simple example

You have  $N$  measurements of a voltage,  $V_i$ . The voltage variances, are  $\delta V_i^2$ ,

The average voltage  $\langle V \rangle$  is normally distributed with mean:

$$\bar{V} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i V_i$$

And variance (unbiased):

$$\delta \bar{V}^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i \delta V_i^2$$

And you don't care whether  $V_i$  are normally distributed or not.

(\*) I distinguish  $\langle V \rangle$  a distribution and  $\bar{V}$ , a point estimate.

# Multi-dimensional pdfs

A single observation can result in multiple values.

Example: A neutrino detected in IceCube results in measurement of direction in the sky ( $\delta, RA$ ), energy, time, etc.

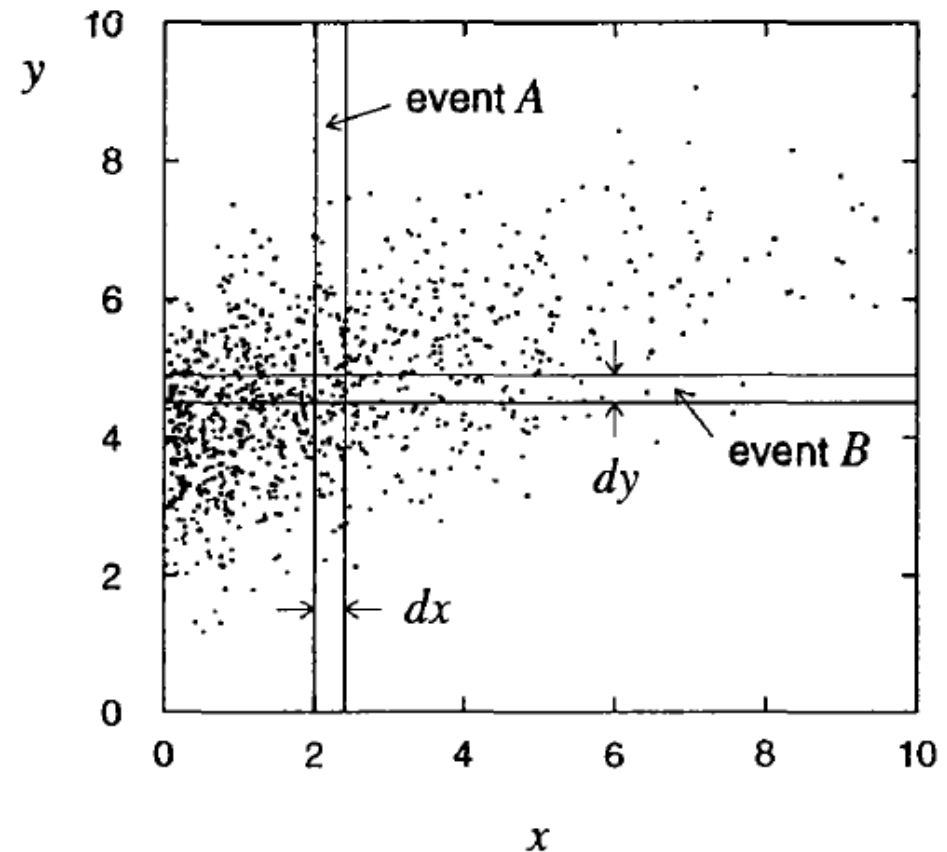
# Multi-dimensional distributions

We can have a joint pdf  $f(x,y)$  such that:

$$\int_S f(x,y) dx dy = 1$$

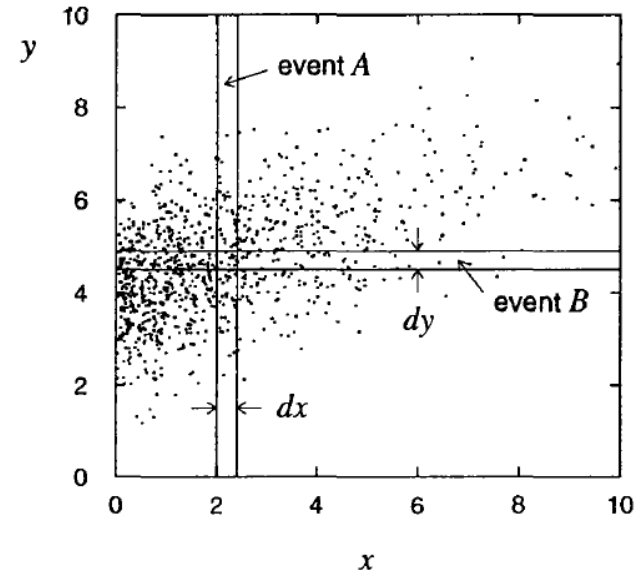
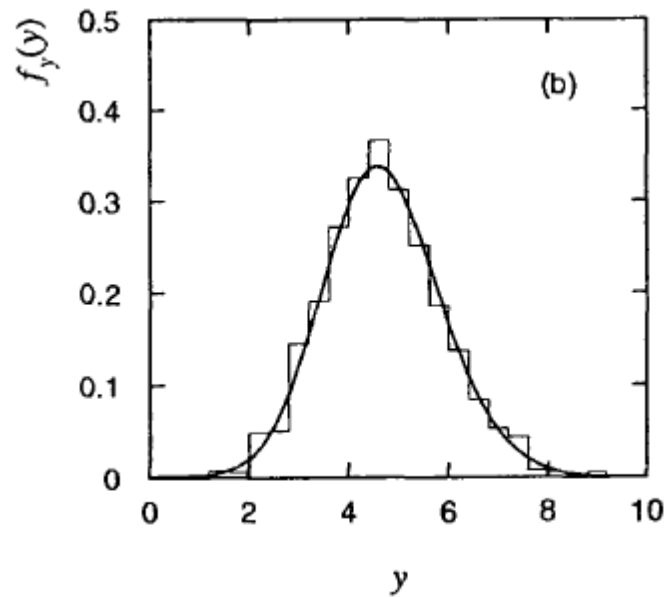
$f(x,y)dx dy$  is the probability in the squared defined by  $(x,y)$  and  $(x+dx,y+dy)$

This is the book example  
Histograms are useful too.





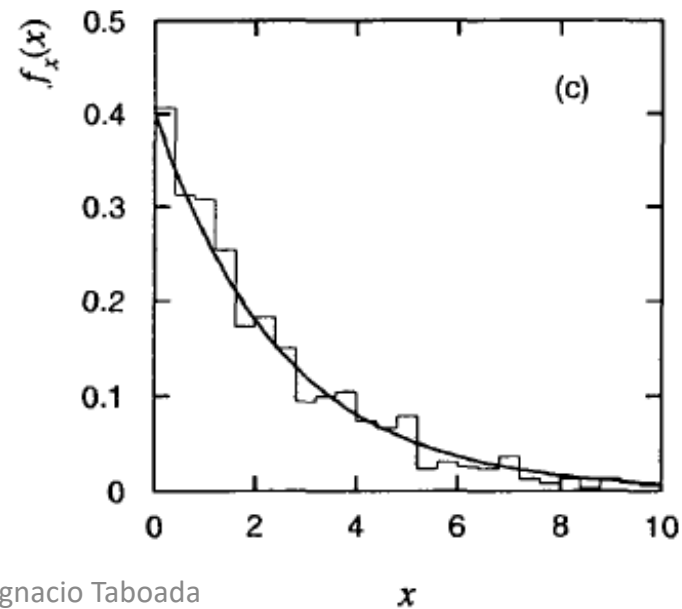
# Multi-dimensional distributions



Marginal pdfs

$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$$

$$f_y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx$$

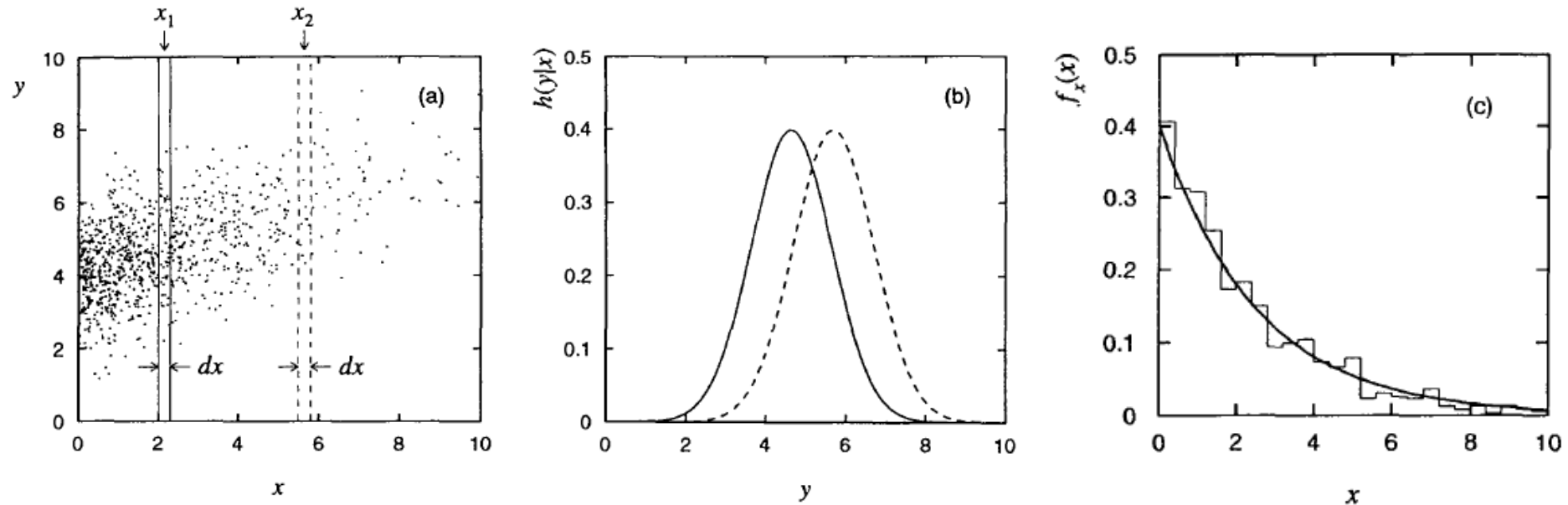


# Independence of multi-dimensional data

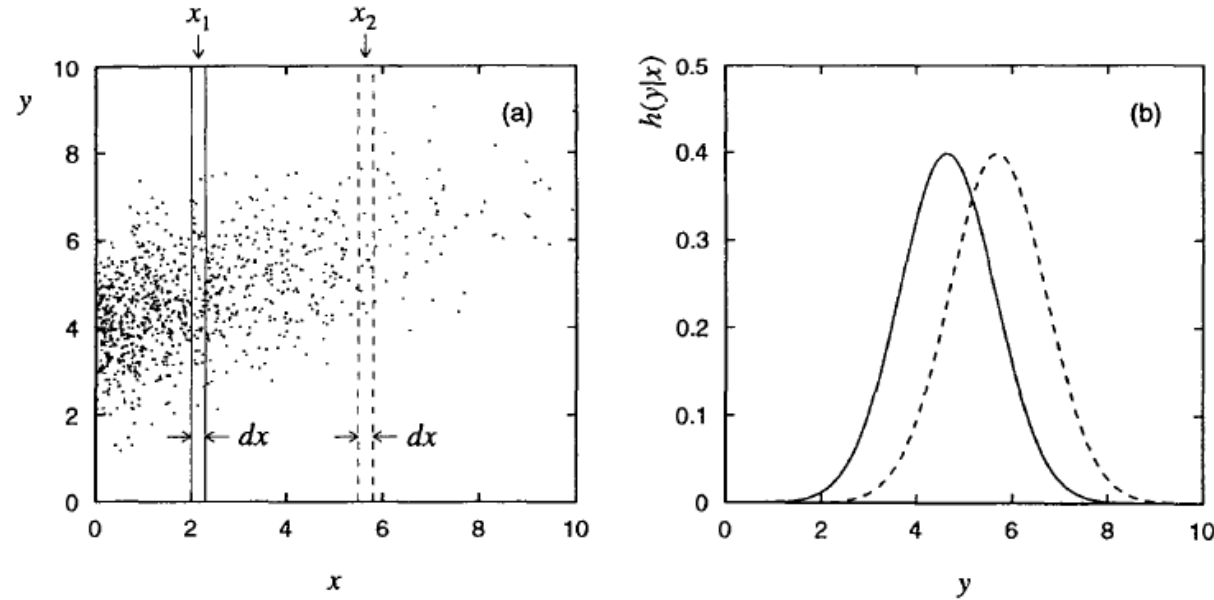
We can define conditional pdf:

$$h(y|x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_x(x)} = \frac{f(x, y)}{\int f(x, y') dy'} \quad g(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_y(y)} = \frac{f(x, y)}{\int f(x', y) dx'}$$

Note that  $h(y|x)$  is a function of  $y$  given the *parameter*  $x$ .



# Independent multi-dimensional data



If  $x, y$  are independent, then  $h(y|x)$  and  $g(x|y)$  are independent of the parameter  $x$  and  $y$  respectively. In the plot above,  $x$  and  $y$  are not independent.

# Covariance

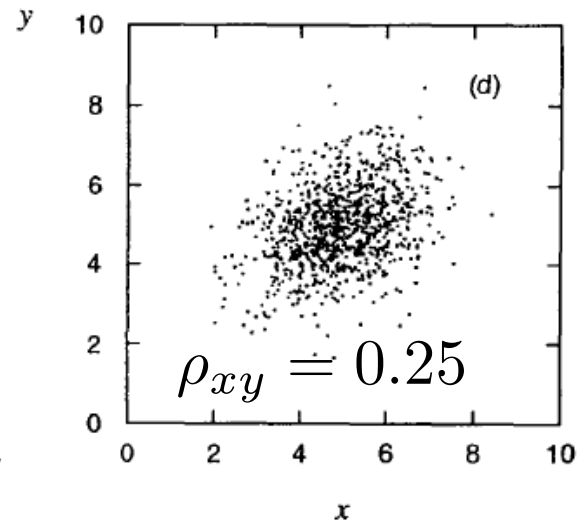
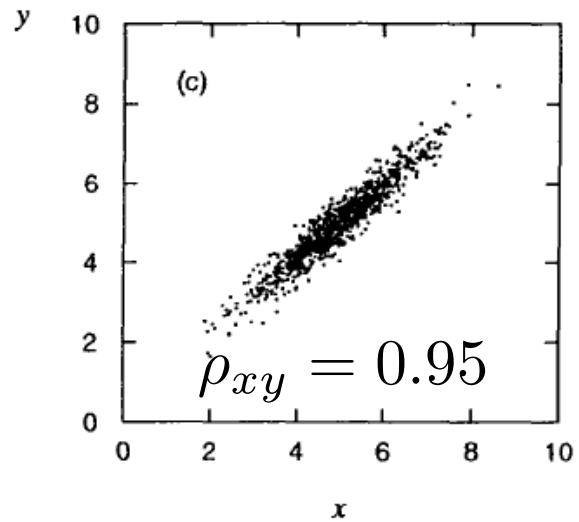
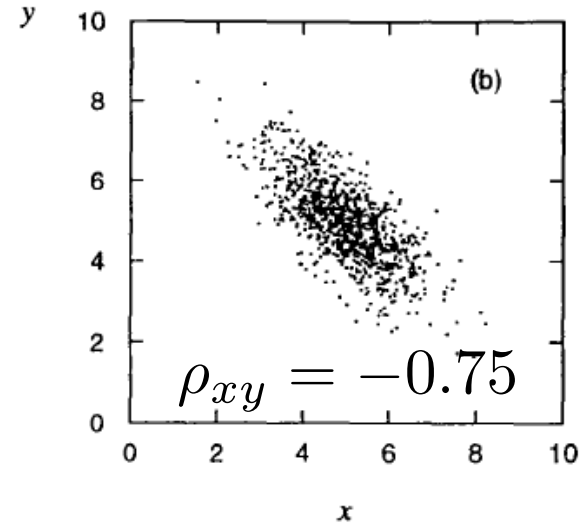
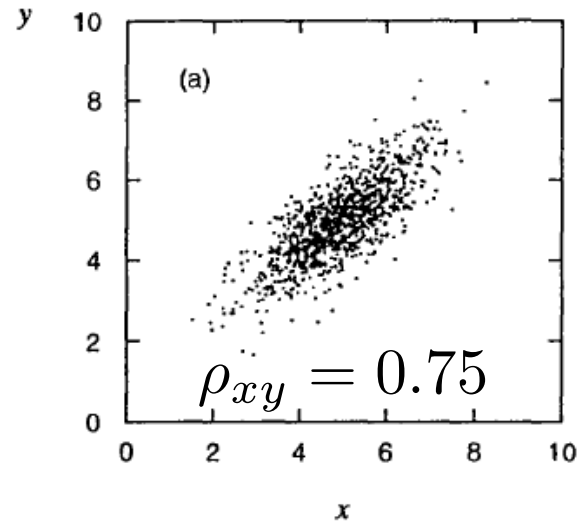
$$V_{xy} = E((x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y})) = E(xy) - \bar{x}\bar{y} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xy f(x, y) dx dy - \bar{x}\bar{y}$$

We can define also  $V_{xx'}$ ,  $V_{yy'}$ ,  $V_{yx}$  to form a 2x2 symmetric matrix. This can easily be extended to more dimensions. Since this matrix is symmetric it can always be diagonalized. The eigenvectors define new decorrelated variables  $x'$ ,  $y'$  (Whether the decorrelated variables have physical meaning, it's another issue).

Defining:  $\rho_{xy} = \frac{V_{xy}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$

The (unitless) correlation coefficient matrix is:  $Corr(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 1, \rho_{xy} \\ \rho_{xy}, 1 \end{pmatrix}$

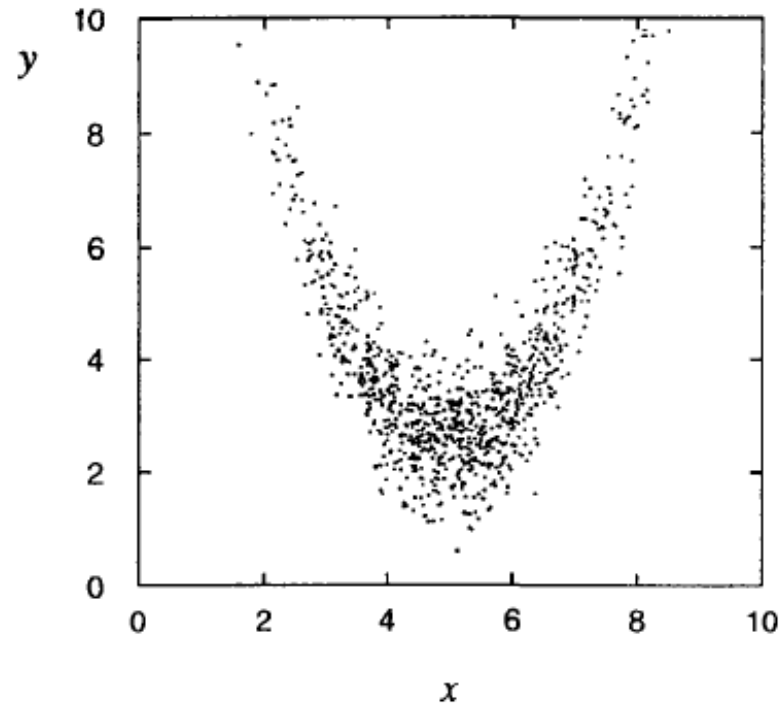
# Covariance



# Covariance

Uncorrelated data (x and y) have  $\rho_{xy} = 0$

But, it's possible to have  $\rho_{xy} = 0$  even when there is a correlation.  
(You can do more things to data, than a linear transformation)



# Error propagation

Let's have a measurement of  $\vec{x}$ . The joint pdf  $f(\vec{x})$  is unknown, but the expectation values  $\vec{\mu}$  and co-variance matrix  $V_{ij}$  are known  
(Given the data you can always get point estimates).

Let's have  $y(\vec{x})$  be a function of our measurements. What is  $\sigma_y$ ?

$$y(\vec{x}) \sim y(\vec{\mu}) + \sum_i \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \right|_{\vec{\mu}} (x_i - \mu_i)$$

Clearly:  $E[y(\vec{x})] \sim y(\vec{\mu})$

So:

$$E[y^2(\vec{x})] = y^2(\vec{\mu}) + 2y(\vec{\mu}) \sum_i \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \right|_{\vec{\mu}} E[x_i - \mu_i] \\ + E \left[ \left( \sum_i \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \right|_{\vec{\mu}} (x_i - \mu_i) \right) \left( \sum_j \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_j} \right|_{\vec{\mu}} (x_j - \mu_j) \right) \right]$$

# Error propagation

So:

$$E[y^2] \sim y^2(\vec{\mu}) + \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_j} \Big|_{\vec{\mu}} V_{ij}$$

And we can the estimate of the variance of  $y$ :

$$\sigma_y^2 \sim E[y^2(\vec{x})] - (E[y(\vec{x})])^2 = \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_j} \Big|_{\vec{\mu}} V_{ij}$$

For the simple case:  $y = x_1 + x_2$

$$\sigma_y^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + 2 \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_2} V_{12}$$

And for uncorrelated  $x_1, x_2$  (“Errors add in quadrature”)

$$\sigma_y^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$$