How Good Are Your Fits?

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ATHOS 2012

June 21st, 2012



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A common situation in physics is that an unbinned maximum likelihood fit to the data has been performed to obtain estimators for any unknown parameters in a PDF (f_0).

The question is then "How well does the fit PDF describe the data?" Unfortunately, \mathcal{L} does not provide any information that would help answer this question (beware of claims to the contrary!).

How do we answer this question? Typically we (somehow) determine the "*p*-value". The *p*-value is the probability that, if f_0 is the true PDF (*f*), a repeat of the experiment would have lesser agreement with the data than what we observe in our experiment^{*}.

*The *p*-value is not the probability that $f_0 = f$. If $f_0 = f$, then the *p*-value distribution is uniform on (0, 1) for an ensemble of data sets sampled from *f*.



If the data is dense enough, it can be binned. One would then be tempted to use the χ^2 test to get a *p*-value ... but be careful!

If we started by binning the data and determined the estimators for all unknown parameters in f_0 by minimizing the χ^2 , then the distribution of the χ^2 statistic $(g(\chi^2))$ is known if $f_0 = f$. Thus, we can determine the *p*-value from, *e.g.*, TMath::Prob(chi2,nbins-npars).

The problem here is that we started by getting the estimators by maximizing \mathcal{L} . This means that we don't know g; all we know is that $\chi^2(n_b - n_p) \leq \chi^2 \leq \chi^2(n_b)$.

In other words, had we explicitly minimized χ^2 then its value would have been \leq the one we obtain from the PDF that maximizes \mathcal{L} (by definition). This is something to be aware of and a mistake that is often made in physics analyses.



In many analyses, binning just isn't a viable option (high dimensions and/or low stats). Contrary to popular (physics) belief, there are many methods in the statistics literature that deal with these situations.

I put the available methods into 5 categories:

- mixed-sample methods;
- point-to-point dissimilarity methods;
- distance to nearest-neighbor methods;
- local-density methods;
- kernel-based methods.

Clearly, I don't have time to discuss them all^{*}; in this (very short) talk I'll just discuss one method from the point-to-point dissimilarity category.

*See M. Williams, JINST 5, P09004 (2010) [arXiv:1006.3019] for a full review.

Point-to-Point Dissimilarity Methods

If the parent PDF, $f(\vec{x})$, of the data were known, then the GOF of a test PDF, $f_0(\vec{x})$, could be obtained using the statistic

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \int (f(\vec{x}) - f_0(\vec{x}))^2 \, d\vec{x}.$$

Since f is not known, T cannot be calculated. Of course, if f were known there would also be no reason to perform a fit.

A more general expression involves correlating the difference b/t f and f_0 at different points in the multivariate space using a weighting function:

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \int \int (f(\vec{x}) - f_0(\vec{x})) (f(\vec{x}') - f_0(\vec{x}')) \psi(|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|) d\vec{x} d\vec{x}'.$$

N.b. the 1^{st} expression is the case $\psi(|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|) = \delta(|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|)$.

This quantity can be calculated w/o knowing f (using the data)!



Using the data and a MC data set sampled from f_0 , T can be written as

$$T = \frac{1}{n_d(n_d-1)} \sum_{j>i} \psi(|\vec{x}_i - \vec{x}_j|) + \frac{1}{n_{mc}(n_{mc}-1)} \sum_{j>i} \psi(|\vec{y}_i - \vec{y}_j|) - \frac{1}{n_d n_{mc}} \sum_{i,j} \psi(|\vec{x}_i - \vec{y}_j|).$$

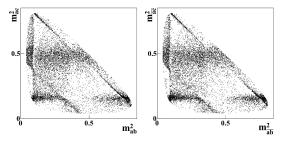
Values of the weighting function found in the statistical literature:

 ψ(z) = z² [C.M. Cuadras and J. Fortiana, various works (1997-2003)]
ψ(z) = z [L. Baringhaus and C. Franz, J. Multivariate Anal. 88 (2004) 190-206]
ψ(z) = 1/z, -log z or e^{-z²/2σ²} [B. Aslan and G. Zech, Stat. Comp. Simul. 75, Issue 2 (2004) 109-119]

A&Z note that for $\psi(z) = \frac{1}{z} T$ is the electrostatic energy of two charge distributions w/ opposite sign (which is minimized if $f = f_0$); hence, they called it the "energy test".



Dalitz model with a (very!) small amount of CP Violation



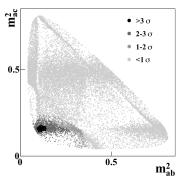
We can use the energy test to tell us if these two data sets are consistent with sharing the same parent distribution (model-independent method for observing CP violation!)^{*}.

*M. Williams, PRD 84 054015 (2011) [arXiv:1105.5338]

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Example: CPV in Dalitz Plots

At the 95% confidence level, the no CPV hypothesis is rejected (3 ± 2) % by the χ^2 test but (52 ± 5) % by the energy test! The χ^2 test is blind to the CPV here but the energy test is powerful enough to detect it.



This test can also be used to perform non-parametric regression: M. Williams, JINST 6, P10003 (2011) [arXiv:1107.2285].



- Choose your test before you look at the data (or, at least, before you calculate the *p*-value)! You can always find a test that will reject the true PDF and another that will except (almost any) alternative PDF.
- Resolution in this test (and any other MC based one) can be handled when generating the MC. Alternatively, resolution can be put into the PDF directly.
- A small *p*-value could mean either you don't understand the physics or the detector or both! The PDF is a product of the two and no statistical test (using just the data and MC) can determine which is the culprit.



- For binned analyses, the χ² test provides a simple way of obtaining the GOF (but be careful as there are a few common mistakes that can bite you).
- For unbinned analyses, there are many GOF tests on the market. Many are very powerful (some are not!). Some are slow; some are fast; etc. Choose the right tool for the job.
- It's always a good idea to validate a GOF method for your analysis in MC. Any true GOF method produces a uniform *p*-value distribution when the true PDF is used.