



Physics 403

Propagation of Uncertainties

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Reading

- ▶ Sivia: Ch. 3.6
- ▶ Cowan: Ch. 7.6

Maximum Likelihood and Method of Least Squares

- ▶ Suppose we measure data x and we want to find the posterior of the model parameters θ . If our priors on the parameters are uniform then

$$p(\theta|x, I) \propto p(x|\theta, I) p(\theta|I) = p(x|\theta, I) = \mathcal{L}(x|\theta)$$

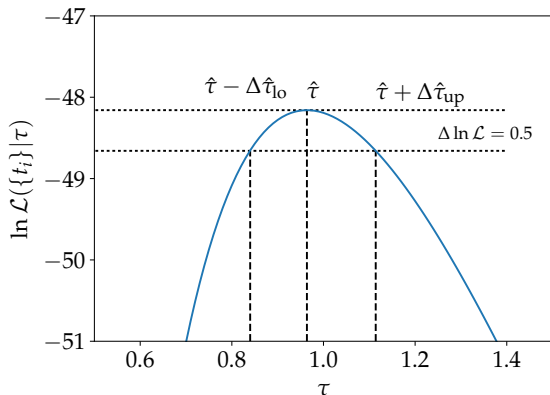
- ▶ In this case finding the best estimate $\hat{\theta}$ is equivalent to **maximizing the likelihood** \mathcal{L}
- ▶ If $\{x_i\}$ are independent measurements with **Gaussian errors** then

$$p(x|\theta, I) = \mathcal{L}(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\Sigma)^{N/2}} \exp \left(- \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(f(x_i) - x_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \right)$$

- ▶ **Least Squares**: equivalent to maximizing $\ln \mathcal{L}$, except you minimize

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(f(x_i) - x_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

Obtaining Uncertainty Intervals from $\Delta \ln \mathcal{L}$ and $\Delta \chi^2$



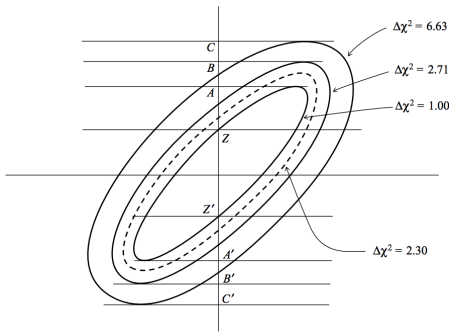
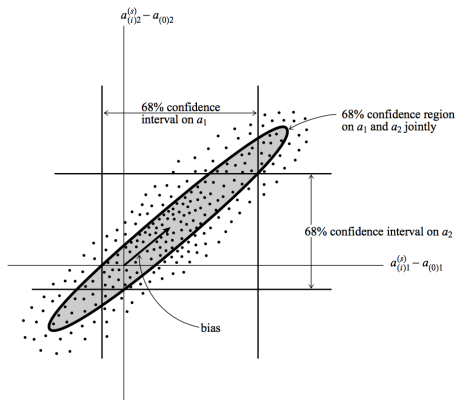
For Gaussian uncertainties we can obtain 1σ , 2σ , and 3σ intervals using the rules

Error	$\Delta \ln \mathcal{L}$	$\Delta \chi^2$
1σ	0.5	1
2σ	2	4
3σ	4.5	9

Even without Gaussian errors this can work reasonably well. But, a safe alternative is **simulation of $\ln \mathcal{L}$ with Monte Carlo**

Marginal and Joint Confidence Regions

The curves $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.00, 2.71, 6.63$ project onto **1D intervals** containing 68.3%, 90%, and 99% of normally distributed data



Note that it's the intervals, **not the ellipses themselves**, that contain 68.3%. The ellipse that contains 68% of the **2D space** is $\Delta\chi^2 = 2.30$ [1]

Joint Confidence Intervals

If we want **multi-dimensional error ellipses** that contain 68.3%, 95.4%, and 99.7% of the data, we use these contours in $\Delta \ln \mathcal{L}$:

Range	p	joint parameters					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1σ	68.3%	0.50	1.15	1.76	2.36	2.95	3.52
2σ	95.4%	2.00	3.09	4.01	4.85	5.65	6.4
3σ	99.7%	4.50	5.90	7.10	8.15	9.10	10.05

Or these in $\Delta\chi^2$ [1]:

Range	p	joint parameters					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1σ	68.3%	1.00	2.30	3.53	4.72	5.89	7.04
2σ	95.4%	4.00	6.17	8.02	9.70	11.3	12.8
3σ	99.7%	9.00	11.8	14.2	16.3	18.2	20.1

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Propagation of Uncertainties

- ▶ We know that measurements (or fit parameters) x have uncertainties, and these uncertainties need to be **propagated** when you calculate functions of measured quantities $f(x)$
- ▶ From undergraduate lab courses you know the formula [2]

$$\sigma_f^2 \approx \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 \sigma_{x_i}^2$$

- ▶ **Question:** what does this formula assume about the uncertainties on $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$?
- ▶ **Question:** what does this formula assume about the PDFs of the $\{x_i\}$ (if anything)?
- ▶ **Question:** what does this formula assume about f ?

Propagation of Uncertainties

- ▶ Let's start with a set of N random variables \mathbf{x} . E.g., the $\{x_i\}$ could be parameters from a fit
- ▶ We want to calculate a function $f(\mathbf{x})$, but suppose we don't know the PDFs of the $\{x_i\}$, just best estimates of their means $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ and the covariance matrix \mathbf{V}
- ▶ **Linearize the problem**: expand $f(\mathbf{x})$ to first order about the means of the x_i :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) + \sum_{i=1}^N \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} (x_i - \hat{x}_i)$$

- ▶ The name of the game: calculate the expectation and variance of $f(\mathbf{x})$ to derive the **error propagation formula**. To first order,

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{x})] \approx f(\hat{\mathbf{x}})$$

Error Propagation Formula

- Get the variance by calculating the expectation of f^2 :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[f^2(\mathbf{x})] &\approx f^2(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) + 2f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \sum_{i=1}^N \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} \mathbb{E}(x_i - \hat{x}_i) \\ &\quad + \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^N \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} (x_i - \hat{x}_i) \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^N \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} (x_j - \hat{x}_j) \right) \right] \\ &= f^2(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) + \sum_{i,j=1}^N \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} V_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

- Since $\text{var}(f) = \sigma_f^2 = \mathbb{E}(f^2) - \mathbb{E}(f)^2$, we find that

$$\sigma_f^2 \approx \sum_{i,j=1}^N \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} V_{ij}$$

Error Propagation Formula

- ▶ For a set of m functions $f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x})$, we have a covariance matrix

$$\text{cov}(f_k, f_l) = U_{kl} \approx \sum_{i,j=1}^N \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial f_l}{\partial x_j} \bigg|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} V_{ij}$$

- ▶ Writing the matrix of derivatives as $A_{ij} = \partial f_i / \partial x_j$, the covariance matrix can be written

$$\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{V} \mathbf{A}^\top$$

- ▶ For **uncorrelated** x_i , \mathbf{V} is diagonal and so

$$\sigma_f^2 \approx \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \bigg|_{\mathbf{x}=\hat{\mathbf{x}}} \sigma_i^2$$

This is the form you're used to from elementary courses.

Propagation of Uncertainties for Two Variables

- ▶ Let $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$. The general form of σ_f^2 is

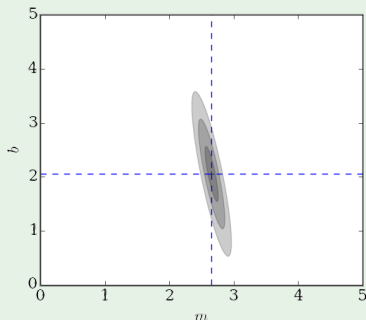
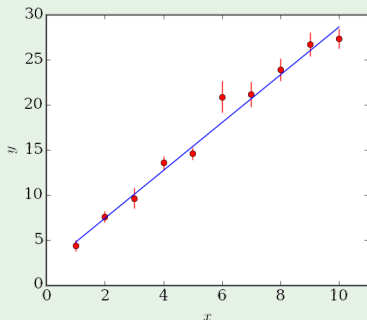
$$\sigma_f^2 = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 \sigma_x^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2 \sigma_y^2 + 2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \rho \sigma_x \sigma_y$$

- ▶ The final cross term is often in lab courses, but it's important! Since the correlation between x and y can be **negative**, you can overestimate the uncertainty in f by failing to include it
- ▶ Don't forget the assumptions underlying this expression:
 1. **Gaussian uncertainties with known covariance matrix**
 2. **f is approximately linear** in the range $(x \pm \sigma_x, y \pm \sigma_y)$
- ▶ If the assumptions are violated, the error propagation formula breaks down

Interpolation of Linear Fit

Example

Example LS fit: **best estimators** $\hat{m} = 2.66 \pm 0.10$, $\hat{b} = 2.05 \pm 0.51$,
 $\text{cov}(m, b) = -0.10 \implies \rho = -0.94$



$y(5.5) = 16.68 \pm 0.75$ without using the correlation. With the correlation, $y(5.5) = 16.68 \pm 0.19$.

Breakdown of Error Propagation

Example

Imagine two **independent variables** x and y with $\hat{x} = 10 \pm 1$ and $\hat{y} = 10 \pm 1$. The variance in the ratio $f = x^2/y$ is

$$\sigma_f^2 = \left[4 \left(\frac{x}{y} \right)^2 \sigma_x^2 + \left(\frac{x}{y} \right)^4 \sigma_y^2 \right]_{x=\hat{x}}$$

For $\hat{x} = \hat{y} = 10$ and $\sigma_x^2 = \sigma_y^2 = 1$,

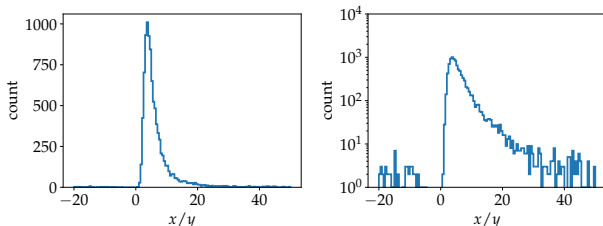
$$\sigma_f^2 = 4 \left(\frac{10}{10} \right)^2 (1)^2 + \left(\frac{10}{10} \right)^4 (1)^2 = 5$$

But, suppose $\hat{y} = 1$. Then the uncertainty **blows up**

$$\sigma_f^2 = 4 \left(\frac{10}{1} \right)^2 (1)^2 + \left(\frac{10}{1} \right)^4 (1)^2 = 10400$$

Breakdown of Error Propagation

- ▶ What happened? If $\hat{y} = 1$, then y can be very close to zero when $f(x, y)$ is expanded about the mean, so f can blow up and become **non-linear**
- ▶ **Note:** be careful even when the error propagation assumptions of small uncertainties and linearity apply; the resulting distribution could still be non-Gaussian. Example: x/y , with $\hat{x} = 5 \pm 1$ and $\hat{y} = 1 \pm 0.5$:



- ▶ In this case, reporting a central value and RMS for $f = x/y$ is **clearly inadequate**

Case Study: Polarization Asymmetry

Example

- ▶ Early evidence supporting the Standard Model of particle physics came from observing the difference in cross sections σ_R and σ_L for inelastic scattering of right- and left-handed polarized electrons on a deuterium target [3]
- ▶ The experiment studied the **polarization asymmetry** defined by

$$\alpha = \frac{\sigma_R - \sigma_L}{\sigma_R + \sigma_L}$$

- ▶ Must be careful about using the error on α to conclude whether or not **α is consistent with zero**
- ▶ More robust approach: check whether or not $\sigma_R - \sigma_L$ alone is consistent with zero

Averaging Correlated Measurements using Least Squares

- ▶ Imagine we have a set of measurements $x_i \pm \sigma_i$ of some “true value” λ . Since λ is the same for all measurements, we can minimize

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(x_i - \lambda)^2}{\sigma_i^2}$$

- ▶ The LS estimator for λ is the weighted average

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{\sum y_i / \sigma_i^2}{\sum 1 / \sigma_i^2}, \quad \text{var}(\hat{\lambda}) = \frac{1}{\sum 1 / \sigma_i^2}$$

- ▶ For **correlated measurements**, we can write

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i,j=1}^N (x_i - \lambda)(V^{-1})_{ij}(x_j - \lambda)$$

$$\therefore \hat{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i x_i, \quad w_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N (V^{-1})_{ij}}{\sum_{k,l=1}^N (V^{-1})_{kl}}, \quad \text{var}(\hat{\lambda}) = \sum_{i,j=1}^N w_i V_{ij} w_j$$

Example: Averaging Correlated Measurements

See Cowan Ch. 7.6.1

Example

We measure a length with two rulers made of different materials (and different coefficients of thermal expansion). Both are calibrated to be accurate at $T = T_0$ but otherwise have a temperature dependence

$$y_i = L_i + c_i(T - T_0)$$

We know the c_i and the uncertainties, T , and L_1 and L_2 from the calibration. We want to combine measurements and get \hat{y} . The variances and covariance are

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(y_i) &= \sigma_i^2 = \sigma_{L_i}^2 + c_i^2 \sigma_T^2 \\ \text{cov}(y_1, y_2) &= E(y_1 y_2) - \hat{y}^2 = c_1 c_2 \sigma_T^2\end{aligned}$$

Solve for \hat{y} with the **weighted mean** derived using **least squares**

Example: Averaging Correlated Measurements

Example

Plug in the following values: $T_0 = 25$, $T = 23 \pm 2$, and

Ruler	c_i	L_i	y_i
1	0.1	2.0 ± 0.1	1.80 ± 0.22
2	0.2	2.3 ± 0.1	1.90 ± 0.41

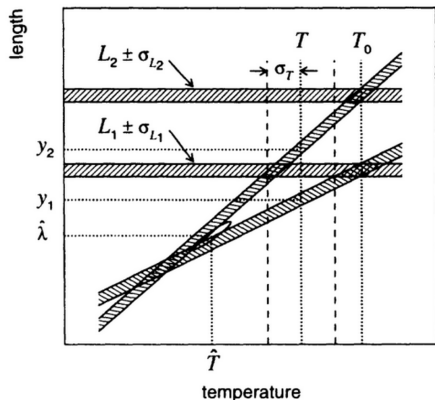
Solving, we find the weighted average is

$$\hat{y} = \frac{(\sigma_{L_2}^2 + (c_2^2 - c_1 c_2) \sigma_T^2) y_1 + \sigma_{L_1}^2 + (c_1^2 - c_1 c_2) \sigma_T^2) y_2}{\sigma_{L_1}^2 + \sigma_{L_2}^2 + (c_1 - c_2)^2 \sigma_T^2} = 1.75 \pm 0.19$$

So the effect of the correlation is that the weighted average is **less than either of the two individual measurements**. Moreover, if $\sigma_L \rightarrow \text{small}$ and $\sigma_T \rightarrow \text{large}$, $\sigma_y \rightarrow 0$.

Does that make sense?

Averaging Correlated Measurements



- ▶ Horizontal bands: lengths L_i from two rulers
- ▶ Slanted: lengths y_i corrected for T
- ▶ If L_1 and L_2 are known accurately, but y_1 and y_2 differ, then the **true temperature must be different than the measured value of T**
- ▶ The χ^2 favors reducing \hat{y} until $y_1(T)$ and $y_2(T)$ intersect
- ▶ If the correction $\Delta T \gg \sigma_T$, some assumption is probably wrong. This would be reflected as a **large value of χ^2** and a **small p -value**

Asymmetric Uncertainties

- ▶ You will often encounter published data with asymmetric error bars σ_+ and σ_- , e.g., if the author found an error interval with the **maximum likelihood method**
- ▶ What do you do if you have no further information about the form of the likelihood, which **is almost never published**?
- ▶ Suggestion due to Barlow [4, 5]: parameterize the likelihood as

$$\ln \mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\hat{x} - x)^2}{\sigma(x)^2}$$

where $\sigma(x) = \sigma + \sigma'(x - \hat{x})$. Requiring it to go through the $-1/2$ points gives

$$\ln \mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{(\hat{x} - x)(\sigma_+ + \sigma_-)}{2\sigma_+\sigma_- + (\sigma_+ - \sigma_-)(x - \hat{x})} \right)$$

- ▶ When $\sigma_+ = \sigma_-$ this reduces to an expression that gives the usual $\Delta \ln \mathcal{L} = 1/2$ rule

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Full Bayesian Approach

Transformation of Variables

- ▶ In the Bayesian universe, you would ideally know the complete PDF and use that to propagate uncertainties
- ▶ In this case, if we have some $p(x|I)$ and we define $y = f(x)$, then we need to map $p(x|I)$ to $p(y|I)$
- ▶ Consider a small interval δx around x' such that

$$p(x' + \delta x/2 \leq x < \delta x/2|I) \approx p(x = x'|I) \delta x$$

- ▶ $y = f(x)$ maps x' to $y' = f(x')$ and δx to δy . The range of y values in $y' \pm \delta y/2$ is equivalent to a variation in x between $x' \pm \delta x/2$, and so

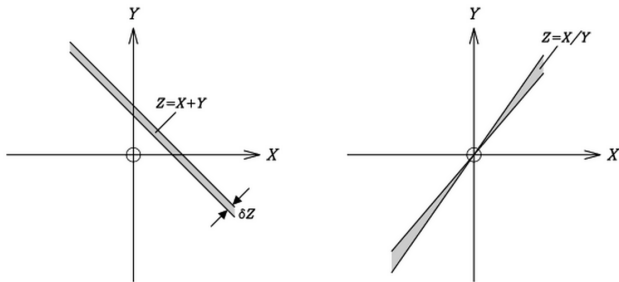
$$p(x = x'|I) \delta x = p(y = y'|I) \delta y$$

In the limit $\delta x \rightarrow 0$, this yields the **PDF transformation rule**

$$p(x|I) = p(y|I) \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right|$$

Application to Simple Problems

- ▶ If we want to estimate a sum like $z = x + y$ or a ratio $z = x/y$, we integrate the joint PDF $p(x, y|I)$ along the shaded strips defined by $\delta(z - f(x, y))$:



- ▶ The explicit marginalization is

$$\begin{aligned} p(z|I) &= \iint dx dy p(z|x, y, I) p(x, y|I) \\ &= \iint dx dy \delta(z - f(x, y)) p(x, y|I) \end{aligned}$$

Sum of Two Random Variables

- ▶ The sum $z = x + y$ requires that we marginalize

$$p(z|I) = \iint dx dy \delta(z - (x + y)) p(x, y|I)$$

- ▶ If we are given $x = \hat{x} \pm \sigma_x$ and $y = \hat{y} \pm \sigma_y$, then we can assume x and y are independent and factor the joint PDF into separate PDFs by the **product rule**:

$$\begin{aligned} p(z|I) &= \int dx p(x|I) \int dy p(y|I) \delta(z - x - y) \\ &= \int dx p(x|I) p(y = z - x|I) \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Assuming Gaussian PDFs for x and y ,

$$p(z|I) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y} \int dx \exp\left\{-\frac{(x - \hat{x})^2}{2\sigma_x^2}\right\} \exp\left\{-\frac{(z - x - \hat{y})^2}{2\sigma_y^2}\right\}$$

Sum of Two Random Variables

After some rearranging of terms and changes of variables, we can express

$$p(z|I) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y} \int dx \exp\left\{-\frac{(x - \hat{x})^2}{2\sigma_x^2}\right\} \exp\left\{-\frac{(z - x - \hat{y})^2}{2\sigma_y^2}\right\}$$

as

$$p(z|I) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_z} \exp\left\{-\frac{(z - \hat{z})^2}{2\sigma_z^2}\right\}$$

where

$$\hat{z} = \hat{x} + \hat{y} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_z^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2$$

Hence, we see how the **quadrature sum rule** for adding uncertainties derives directly from the assumption of Gaussian errors. Note that for a difference $z = x - y$, the uncertainties still add in quadrature but $\hat{z} = \hat{x} - \hat{y}$, as you'd expect

Case Study: Amplitude of a Bragg Peak in Crystallography

Isn't this **serious overkill** given that we have the error propagation formula? Unfortunately, recall that the formula can break down

Example

- ▶ In crystallography, one measures a **Bragg peak** $A = \hat{A} \pm \sigma_A$
- ▶ The peak is related to the **structure factor** $A = |F|^2$
- ▶ We want to estimate $f = |F| = \sqrt{A}$. From the propagation formula,

$$f = \sqrt{\hat{A}} \pm \frac{\sigma_A}{2\sqrt{\hat{A}}}$$

- ▶ Problem: suppose $\hat{A} < 0$, which is an **allowed measurement** due to reflections
- ▶ Now we're in trouble, because the error propagation formula requires us to take the square root of a negative number

Solution with Full PDF

- ▶ Let's write down the full posterior PDF

$$p(A|\{\text{data}\}, I) \propto p(\{\text{data}\}|A, I) p(A|I)$$

- ▶ By applying the error propagation formula, we assumed A is **distributed like a Gaussian**, so

$$p(\{\text{data}\}|A, I) \propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{(A - \hat{A})^2}{2\sigma_A^2} \right\}$$

- ▶ Since $A < 0$ is a problem, let's define the prior to force A into a **physical region**:

$$p(A|I) = \begin{cases} \text{constant} & A \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

When $\hat{A} < 0$, the prior will truncate the Gaussian likelihood

Solution with Full PDF

- ▶ Truncating the PDF violates the error propagation formula, because it depends on a Taylor expansion about a **central maximum**
- ▶ There is no such restriction on the formal change of variables to f :

$$p(f|\{\text{data}\}, I) = p(A|\{\text{data}\}, I) \cdot \left| \frac{dA}{df} \right|$$

- ▶ The **Jacobian** is $|dA/df| = 2f$, with $f = |F| \geq 0$, so

$$p(f|\{\text{data}\}, I) \propto f \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{(f^2 - \hat{A})^2}{2\sigma_A^2} \right\} \quad \text{for } f \geq 0$$

- ▶ Find \hat{f} by maximizing $\ln p$, and σ_f^2 from $\sigma_f^2 = (-\partial^2 \ln p / \partial f^2)^{-1}$:

$$2\hat{f}^2 = \hat{A} + \sqrt{\hat{A}^2 + 2\sigma_A^2}, \quad \sigma_f^2 = \left[\frac{1}{\hat{f}^2} + \frac{2(3\hat{f}^2 - \hat{A})}{\sigma_A^2} \right]^{-1}$$

Asymptotic Agreement of PDF and Error Propagation

- ▶ When $\hat{A} > 0$ and $\hat{A} \gg \sigma_A$, the expression for f is

$$\begin{aligned} 2\hat{f}^2 &= \hat{A} + \left(\hat{A}^2 + 2\sigma_A^2\right)^{1/2} \\ &= \hat{A} \left[1 + \left(1 + 2 \left(\frac{\sigma_A}{\hat{A}} \right)^2 \right)^{1/2} \right] \\ &\approx \hat{A} \left[1 + \left(1 + \left(\frac{\sigma_A}{\hat{A}} \right)^2 \right) \right] \approx 2\hat{A} \\ \therefore \hat{f} &\approx \sqrt{\hat{A}} \end{aligned}$$

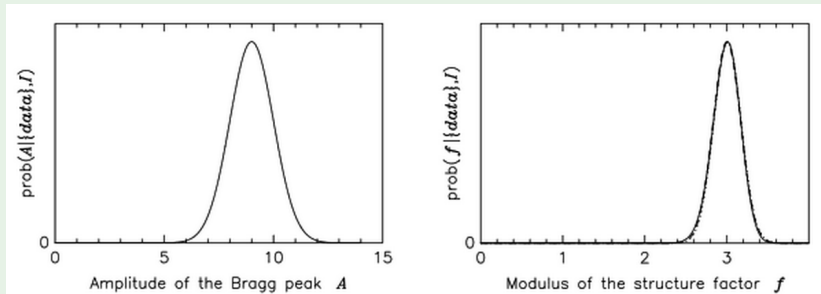
- ▶ Similarly, the expression for σ_f reduces to

$$\sigma_f^2 = \left[\frac{1}{\hat{f}^2} + \frac{2(3\hat{f}^2 - \hat{A})}{\sigma_A^2} \right]^{-1} \rightarrow \frac{\sigma_A^2}{4\hat{A}}$$

Asymptotic Agreement of PDF and Error Propagation

Example

For example, if $A = 9 \pm 1$, the posterior PDFs of A and f look very similar to the Gaussian PDF implied by the **error propagation formula**:

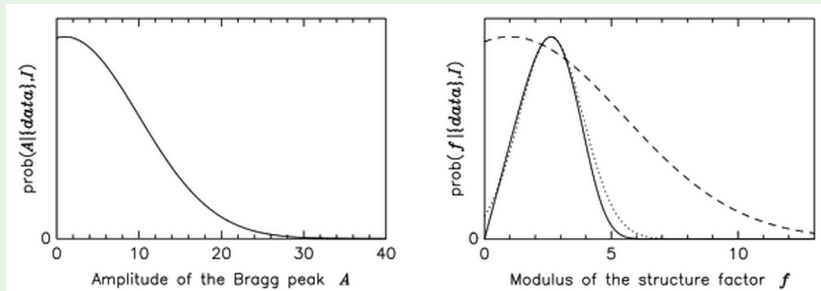


The transformed PDF is shown as a solid line, and the propagated Gaussian PDF is a dashed line.

Asymptotic Agreement of PDF and Error Propagation

Example

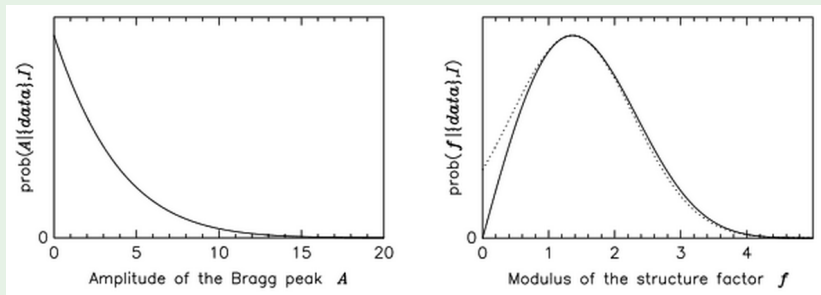
If $A = 1 \pm 9$, the error propagation formula (dashed) begins to **blow up** compared to the full PDF:



Asymptotic Agreement of PDF and Error Propagation

Example

If $A = -20 \pm 9$, the error propagation formula can't even be applied. The posterior PDF looks like a **Rayleigh distribution**:



The dotted line shows $2\hat{f}^2 = \hat{A} + (\hat{A}^2 + 2\sigma_A^2)^{1/2}$.

Summary

- ▶ The standard error propagation formula applies when **uncertainties are Gaussian** and $f(x)$ can be approximated by a **first-order Taylor expansion (linearized)**
- ▶ Most undergraduate courses emphasize only uncorrelated uncertainties, but you need to account for **correlations**
- ▶ Often authors will report asymmetric error bars, implying non-Gaussian uncertainties, without giving the form of the PDF. In this case there are some approximations to the likelihood that you can try to use
- ▶ Standard error propagation **breaks down** when the errors are asymmetric or $f(x)$ can't be linearized
- ▶ The general case is to use the **full PDF** to construct a new uncertainty interval on your best estimator. It's a pain (and often overkill) but it is always correct and can help you when standard error propagation fails

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