

Uncertainty Propagation

Justification of the “Addition in Quadrature” rule

When uncertainties are random and independent, the usual rule is to add the uncertainties in quadrature (i.e. using squares of the uncertainties).

From measurements find:

$$x \pm \sigma_x \quad \text{and} \quad y \pm \sigma_y$$

And we want :

$$z = x + y$$

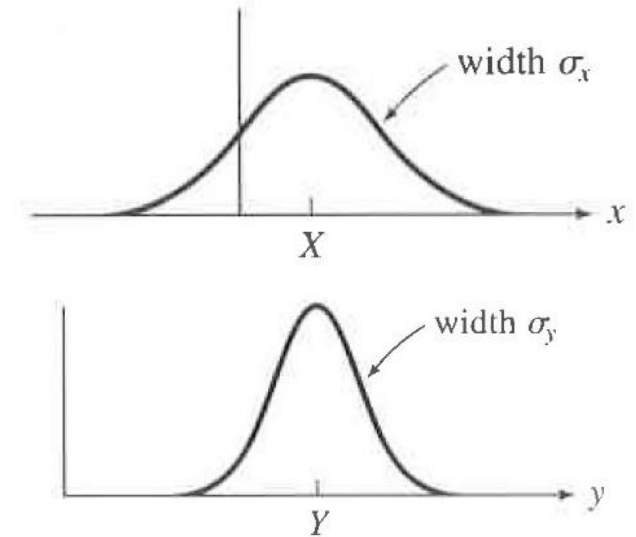
The uncertainty in z :

$$\Delta z = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2}$$

- We can now see where this rule comes from.

Assume:

- We make measurements of two parameters: values are given by a range of x and y .
- The **true value** of the parameters are X and Y .
- Measurements are normally distributed (Gaussian).
- The widths of the distributions are σ_x and σ_y respectively.



For simplicity, now assume that the true values of both X and Y are zero.

The probability of getting a particular value of x is:

$$Prob(x) \propto e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma_x^2}}$$

For y :

$$Prob(y) \propto e^{-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma_y^2}}$$

We are interested in the probability of finding any particular value of $z = x + y$:



- As x and y are independent, just multiply the probabilities.

The probability finding any given x **and** any given y :

$$Prob(x, y) \propto \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} \right) \right]$$

- As we are interested in $z = x + y$, we will re-write the exponent

$$\frac{x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y^2} = \frac{(x + y)^2}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2} + \frac{(\sigma_y^2 x - \sigma_x^2 y)^2}{\sigma_x^2 \sigma_y^2 (\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad = \frac{(x + y)^2}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2} + q^2$$

So:
$$Prob(x, y) \propto \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{(x + y)^2}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2} + q^2 \right) \right]$$

We now have an expression in terms of $x + y$ (and unfortunately q)

Rewrite:
$$Prob(x + y, q) \propto \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{(x + y)^2}{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2} \right) \right] \exp \left[\frac{-q^2}{2} \right]$$

To find the probability of $x + y$ irrespective of q :





- Integrate over all values of q :

$$Prob(x + y) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} Prob(x + y, q) dq .$$

- $\exp(-q^2 / 2)$ factor integrates to $\sqrt{2\pi}$

$$Prob(x + y) \propto \exp \left[\frac{-(x + y)^2}{2(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)} \right]$$

 z
 Δz

$$Prob(x) \propto e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma_x^2}}$$

- Thus the values of $z = x + y$ are normally distributed with a width of $\Delta z = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2}$.

**To generalise to the situation
where X and Y are nonzero:**

The diagram shows the equation $x + y = (x - X) + (y - Y) + (X + Y)$. A large dashed red circle encloses the terms $(x - X)$ and $(y - Y)$. A red arrow points from the text "True values" to this circle. Another dashed red circle encloses the term $(X + Y)$, with a red arrow pointing from the text "Value from measurements" to it. A dashed red line also points from the "True values" text to the first circle.

- These terms are centred about zero.
- The widths are σ_x and σ_y .
- For the sum, the width is $\sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2}$ (as we previously worked out).

- This is just a number.
- Moves the centre of the distribution (given by $x + y$) to position $X + Y$.

Overall:

The uncertainty in measuring $z = x + y$ is given by $\Delta z = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2}$ (independent of X and Y).

The General Expression for Uncertainty Propagation

There is a single “rule” for calculating uncertainties for any parameter calculated from measurements.

- Suppose we measure two independent quantities x and y whose observed values are each normally distributed.
- We want to calculate some quantity $q(x, y)$ which depends on x and y .

Assumption:

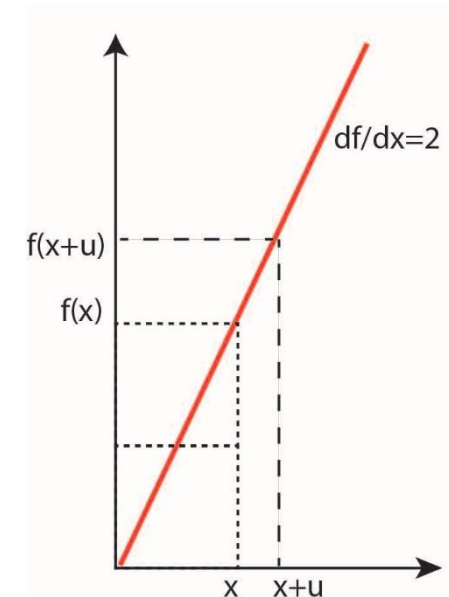


- The uncertainties in x and y , σ_x and σ_y are small relative to the true values X and Y .

Recall the definition of the derivative:

If a function has the value $f(x)$ at x , we can find the value of the function at a small increment u , by using the following approximation:

$$f(x + u) \approx f(x) + \frac{df}{dx} u$$



If the values of x and y are close to the true values of X and Y , we can write:

$$q(x, y) \approx q(X, Y) + \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}\right)(x - X) + \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial y}\right)(y - Y).$$

Our function that depends on x and y .

partial derivative of q with respect to x .

" u " in x direction

" u " in y direction

$q(X, Y) \Rightarrow$

- just a fixed number and so just shifts the centre of the distribution.

$\left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}\right)(x - X) \Rightarrow$

- the distribution of values of $(x - X)$ is just σ_x (centred on 0).

$$\left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}\right)(x - X) = \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}\right)\sigma_x$$

- Also, we assume that the derivatives are slowly varying, so that the shape of $\left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}\right)\sigma_x$ is still approximately a Gaussian.
- Hence, the width of the distribution for $q(x, y)$ is given by the sum of two Gaussians. (see p4.)

Result: The values of $q(x, y)$ are normally distributed about the true value, $q(X, Y)$ with a width:

$$\Delta q = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x}\sigma_x\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial y}\sigma_y\right)^2}$$

General formula for uncertainty propagation for random and independent uncertainties:

If $q = q(x, \dots, z)$ is a function of variables x, \dots, z the uncertainty in q is given by:

$$\Delta q = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial x} \Delta x\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\partial q}{\partial z} \Delta z\right)^2}$$

An example:

- Suppose we have an experiment to measure the acceleration due to gravity, g , using a simple pendulum.
- The relationship between g and the period of the pendulum's swing, T , is given by:

$$g = \frac{4\pi^2 l}{T^2}$$

← Length of the pendulum

- Values: $l = 92.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ cm}$ and $T = 1.936 \pm 0.004 \text{ s}$.
- Calculation (in SI units) gives $g = 9.785 \text{ ms}^{-2}$

The uncertainty in g is given by:

⇒
$$\Delta g = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial l} \Delta l\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial T} \Delta T\right)^2}$$

$$g = \frac{4\pi^2 l}{T^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial l} = \frac{4\pi^2}{T^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial l} \Delta l = 0.01053 \text{ ms}^{-2} \quad (\text{converting to SI units})$$

The units of each of the partial derivative terms must have the same dimensions as the quantity the uncertainty is being calculated for (here g in ms^{-2}).

Also:

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial T} = -8\pi^2 l T^{-3}$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial T} \Delta T = -0.04043 \text{ ms}^{-2}$$

Therefore:

$$\Delta g = \sqrt{(0.01053)^2 + (-0.04043)^2}$$

$$\Delta g = 0.0418 \text{ ms}^{-2}$$

Consequently:

$$g = 9.79 \pm 0.04 \text{ ms}^{-2}$$

The general expression for uncertainty propagation can be used in any situation.

- It is straightforward to derive the individual “rules” that will have been encountered previously.
- For some expressions the individual rules cannot be used and **only the general formula** will work.

$$\text{E.g. } q = \frac{x+y}{x+z}$$

Individual rules

Sums and differences: $q = x + \dots + z - (u + \dots + w)$

Rule: add the **absolute** uncertainties in quadrature: $\Delta q = \sqrt{\Delta x^2 + \dots + \Delta z^2 + \Delta u^2 + \dots + \Delta w^2}$

Products and quotients: $q = \frac{x \times \dots \times z}{u \times \dots \times w}$

Rule: add the **relative** uncertainties in quadrature: $\frac{\Delta q}{q} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta x}{x}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\Delta z}{z}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta u}{u}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\Delta w}{w}\right)^2}$

Powers:

$$q = x^n$$

$$\frac{\Delta q}{|q|} = |n| \frac{\Delta x}{|x|}$$

Functions of one variable:

$$q = q(x)$$

$$\Delta q = \left| \frac{dq}{dx} \right| \Delta x$$

Uncertainties when your quantity is calculated numerically

- In some situations, you don't have an analytical expression for your quantity.

Typical examples:

- The quantity is calculated by numerically integrating an expression.
- A computer script performs a calculation based on input parameters (a “black box” function).

In these situations you can evaluate the uncertainty by propagating small changes in your parameters through your function/script and observing the change in the output value that occurs.

Proof:

- Assume that the uncertainty in the “black box” function $q(x)$ is only due to the uncertainty in one parameter, x .

From the definition of the derivative:

$$q(x + \Delta x) = q(x) + \frac{dq}{dx} \Delta x$$

This is just Δq (from error prop. rules)

So we have:

$$\Delta q(x) = q(x + \Delta x) - q(x)$$

$$\Delta q(x) = q(x + \Delta x) - q(x)$$

To find the uncertainty in the function $\Delta q(x)$:

- Substitute $x + \Delta x$ into the function and then subtract off the value of the function calculated using x to give the uncertainty.

For functions of more than one variable:



- Calculate the final uncertainty by varying each variable in turn, and then combine the uncertainties found in quadrature:

$$\Delta q = \sqrt{(\Delta q(x))^2 + \dots + (\Delta q(z))^2}$$

Uncertainty due to varying x

Uncertainty due to varying z

Recipe:

1. Calculate the value of your function using your experimentally found values ($q(x)$).
2. Calculate the value of your function with one of the parameters increased by its uncertainty ($q(x + \Delta x)$).
3. Subtract off the original value of your function to give you the uncertainty due to varying this parameter (this gives $\Delta q(x)$).
4. Repeat the calculations by varying each parameter in turn by its uncertainty.
5. Calculate the final uncertainty by adding all the individual absolute uncertainties in quadrature.

Rejection of Data

- Some scientists believe that data should never be rejected unless you know there is a mistake.
- History has shown that anomalous results have been a window to new physics.

The best approach is to redo the measurement(s)

Assuming you can't
retake the data:

- Usually establishing a cause for anomalous results isn't possible.
- The Gaussian distribution can be used to provide insight into the plausibility of a particular measurement.

Assume you make N measurements, $x_1 \dots, x_n$, and one is suspiciously different, x_{sus} .

Chauvenet's Criterion:

If the expected number of measurements as deviated as the suspect one is less than 0.5, then reject the suspect measurement.

An example:

We have 6 measurements of the period of a pendulum (in s):

$$p = 3.8, 3.5, 3.9, 3.9, 3.4, 1.8.$$

Should we consider rejecting this measurement?

- Step 1.**
- Calculate how many standard deviations away from the mean the measurement is.

Mean: $\bar{p} = 3.4 \text{ s}$

Standard deviation: $\sigma_p = 0.8 \text{ s}$

So, the suspect measurement is $3.4 - 1.8 = 1.6 \text{ s}$ away from the mean.

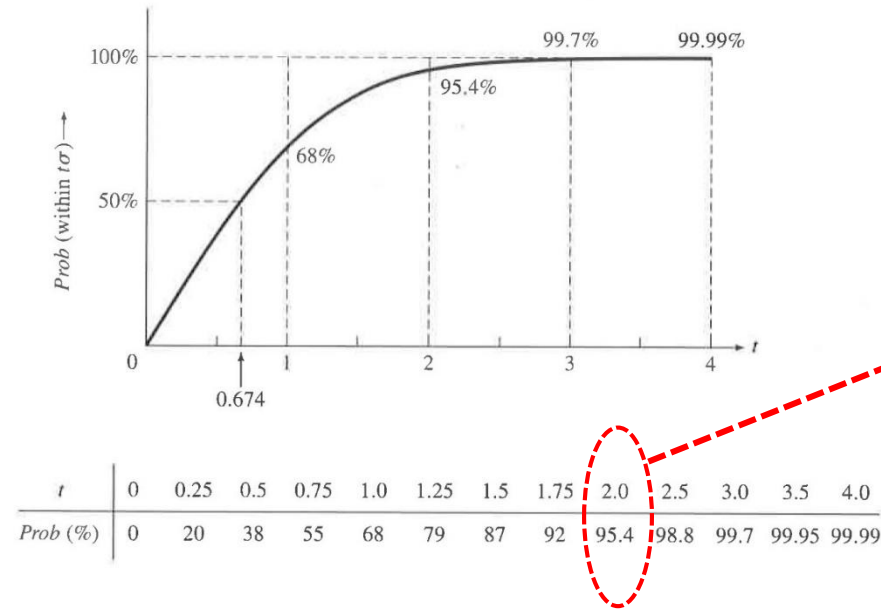
Thus, the number of standard deviations the measurement is away from the mean is:

$$n = \frac{1.6}{0.8} = 2.0$$

- Step 2.**
- Calculate the probability of a measurement occurring this far away from the mean.

Two options:

- Look up a table of probability vs sigma (no. of std dev) values:



2 standard deviations away

- Calculate the value numerically using the error function:

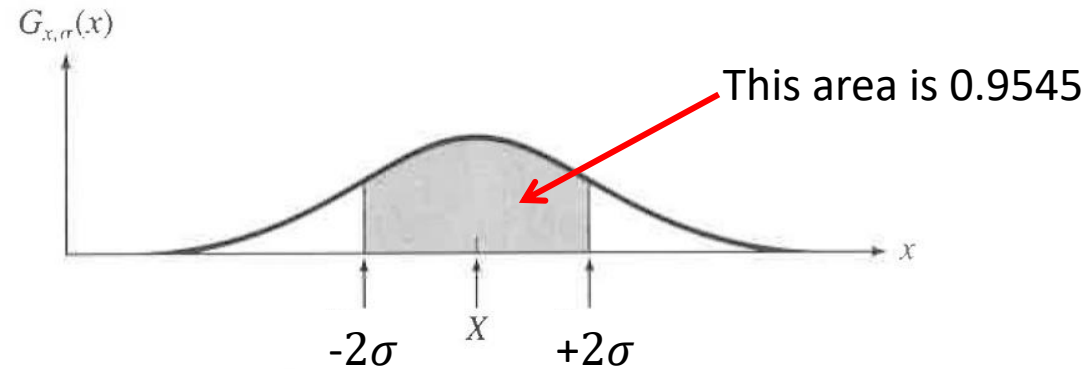
Probability of being within t sigma of the mean:

$$Prob(\text{within } t \times \sigma) = \text{erf}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

$$Prob(\text{within } 2.0\sigma) = 0.9545$$

So we expect that the probability of a measurement being as deviated as much the suspect one is:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}(\text{outside } 2.0\sigma) &= 1 - \text{Prob}(\text{within } 2.0\sigma) \\ &= 0.045 \end{aligned}$$



Step 3. Calculate the number of measurements in the experiment that would be expected to be as deviated as the suspect result.

Here we have $n=6$ measurements.

Consequently the number of measurements outside 2.0σ expected is:

$$\begin{aligned} n(\text{outside } 2.0\sigma) &= 0.045 \times 6 \\ &= 0.225 \end{aligned}$$

Step 4: Apply Chauvenet's criterion

As the expected number of deviant measurements is less than 0.5, rejection can be considered.

Rationale:

As you are only interested in measurements that are outside the distribution **on one side** (in our case the lower side), the number of expected deviant measurements is actually $0.5\times$ that calculated at step 3 (the “1-tailed” distribution).

The criterion of rejection if the number of expected events is less than 0.5 is arbitrary, but does provide a guide to how likely you are to see aberrant values.

If there is
more than 1
suspect point:

- Identify the most deviant data point and apply the test.
- Once you have rejected the most deviant point, recalculate the statistics to see if Chauvenet's criterion suggests exclusion for the next most deviant.