

TABLE A.3  
Determination of the first two nonzero roots of  $\alpha = \tan \alpha$

Trial	First root		Second root	
	x	y	x	y
(a) Newton's Method†				
0	4.40000	1.30368	7.70000	1.25713
1	4.53598	-1.07376	7.73028	-0.31270
2	4.50186	-0.17769	7.72545	-0.01188
3	4.49375	-0.00679	7.72525	-0.00002
4	4.49341	-0.00001	7.72525	-0.00000
5	4.49341	-0.00000		
(b) Secant Method‡				
0	4.40000	1.30368	7.80000	-10.70682
0	4.50000	-0.13733	7.70000	1.25713
1	4.49047	0.05854	7.71051	0.78849
2	4.49332	0.00184	7.72819	-0.17931
3	4.49341	-0.00003	7.72491	0.02025
4	4.49341	0.00000	7.72524	0.00047
5			7.72525	-0.00000

†The calculation continues without assistance after the initial trial value has been selected.

‡Two x, y pairs are required for each stage of the calculation. After the first trial, the most recently calculated x, y pair was used with whichever of the two previous pairs was closer to the root.

solve for the parameters  $a$  and  $b$ . We used the secant method to solve these equations.

Consider the two equations

$$f_a(u, v) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f_b(u, v) = 0 \quad (\text{A.47})$$

which we wish to solve for  $u$  and  $v$ . We define the first *partial divided differences*,

$$\begin{aligned} f_{au} &= f_a[u_0, v_0; u_1, v_1] \equiv \frac{f_a(u_1, v_1) - f_a(u_0, v_0)}{u_1 - u_0} \\ f_{av} &= f_a[u_0, v_0; u_0, v_1] \equiv \frac{f_a(u_0, v_1) - f_a(u_0, v_0)}{v_1 - v_0} \\ f_{bu} &= f_b[u_0, v_0; u_1, v_0] \equiv \frac{f_b(u_1, v_0) - f_b(u_0, v_0)}{u_1 - u_0} \\ f_{bv} &= f_b[u_0, v_0; u_0, v_1] \equiv \frac{f_b(u_0, v_1) - f_b(u_0, v_0)}{v_1 - v_0} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.48})$$

and, following Equation (A.43), write for a first-order expansion

$$\begin{aligned} f_a(u, v) &= f_a(u_0, v_0) + (u - u_0)f_{au} + (v - v_0)f_{av} \\ f_b(u, v) &= f_b(u_0, v_0) + (u - u_0)f_{bu} + (v - v_0)f_{bv} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.49})$$

and

If we assume that  $f_a$  and  $f_b$  are linear in  $u$  and  $v$ , we can find a first approximation to the roots by setting  $f_a(u, v)$  and  $f_b(u, v)$  to zero in Equation (A.49) and solving the two coupled linear equations for  $u$  and  $v$ :

$$\begin{aligned} uf_{au} + vf_{av} - u_0f_{au} - v_0f_{av} + f_a(u_0, v_0) &= 0 \\ uf_{bu} + vf_{bv} - u_0f_{bu} - v_0f_{bv} + f_b(u_0, v_0) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.50})$$

Solution by the determinant method gives

$$\begin{aligned} u_2 &= u = (Af_{bv} - Bf_{av})/D \\ v_2 &= v = (Bf_{au} - Af_{bu})/D \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.51})$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} D &= f_{au}f_{bv} - f_{av}f_{bu} \\ A &= -u_0f_{au} - v_0f_{av} + f_a(u_0, v_0) \\ B &= -u_0f_{bu} - v_0f_{bv} + f_b(u_0, v_0) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.52})$$

We then repeat the procedure with coordinate pairs  $(u_1, v_1)$  and  $(u_2, v_2)$ , to obtain the next approximation, until the roots have been found to the desired degree of accuracy.

## A.6 DATA SMOOTHING

The concept of smoothing is not one that meets with universal approval. The discussion that follows should be considered with one caveat: For rigorously valid least-squares fitting, smoothing is neither desirable nor permissible; however, there are cases where smoothing can be beneficial, and, therefore, the techniques are introduced.

Consider, for example, the discussion of Section 9.2 of the determination of the area under a peak from a least-squares fit to a histogram of the data. Least-squares fitting techniques applied to data that are distributed according to Poisson distributions, rather than Gaussian distributions, underestimate the area of a peak by an amount equal to the value of  $\chi^2$ . We have seen that we can improve the result by decreasing the value of  $\chi^2$  at its minimum. Similarly, if the shape of the fitting function does not exactly simulate that of the parent distribution, a better fit to the data by decreasing  $\chi^2$  can yield an improved estimate of the area under a peak.

Another example that might benefit from application of a smoothing algorithm is the parameterization of data for use in a Monte Carlo or other program. In preparing experimental proposals, it is often necessary to estimate yields and distributions based on currently available data. Such data are often sparse and generally must be expressed in parametric form for ease and speed of use in the Monte Carlo simulation program. Smoothing can be useful to average out fluctuations and allow the data to be expressed with a few parameters by a least-squares fit or an interpolation procedure.

In other words, if rigorously valid results are not required, but rather an averaged estimate of the distribution, smoothing may help obtain more reliable estimates. The improvement in the estimate of one parameter must, of course, be accompanied by a decrease in information of some other parameter or parameters.

For example, an improved estimate of the area under a peak would be accompanied by an increased uncertainty in the estimates of the width and position of the peak.

Whatever smoothing or other manipulation is done must conserve the information pertaining to the desired parameters. The averaging techniques that we shall discuss, for example, conserve the area under a peak but not the width of the peak. Similarly, this method would be useful for improving the estimate of the constant term of a polynomial but not the coefficients of the other terms.

Data smoothing is similar to the data "smearing" introduced in Chapter 5 to simulate measuring uncertainties in "measurements" generated by a Monte Carlo program. In the Monte Carlo program we used Gaussian smearing; that is, we allowed each event a Gaussian probability distribution about its mean.

In this section, we are dealing with binned data, and thus, for Gaussian smoothing, could consider a Gaussian integration that spreads each event over adjacent bins. Because our object here is to smooth the data, we are at liberty to choose the width of the smearing function to produce the desired degree of uniformity in the data, limited by the requirement that we do not damage the very variable we are trying to study.

The binomial distribution is a useful smoothing function. Suppose we want to smooth low statistics experimental data that follow a Gaussian peak in a way that preserves the area under the peak. Let us assume that the background slope is gentle enough that smoothing will not affect its determination drastically.

We can approximate the Gaussian peak with a binomial distribution with  $p = \frac{1}{2}$  (see Section 2.1):

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^n \approx \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \frac{n!}{X!(n-X)!} \quad (\text{A.53})$$

We can relate the widths  $\sigma$  and the means of the two distributions

$$\sigma_B^2 = np(1-p) = n/4 = \sigma^2 \quad \bar{X} = np = n/2 \quad \bar{x} = \mu \quad (\text{A.54})$$

to find the relationships among the parameters

$$n = 4\sigma^2 \quad X = x - \mu + n/2 = x - \mu + 2\sigma^2 \quad (\text{A.55})$$

We can then express the binomial distribution of Equation (A.53) as

$$y(x) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \frac{n!}{(n/2+x-\mu)!(n/2-x+\mu)!} \quad (\text{A.56})$$

Let us smooth the data by averaging over adjacent channels with a binomial distribution spanning three channels:

$$y'(x) = 1/4y(x-1) + 1/2y(x) + 1/4y(x+1) \quad (\text{A.57})$$

If we fold this averaging into the distribution of Equation (A.53), the result is also binomial:

$$y'(x) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+2} \frac{(n+2)!}{(n/2+1+x-\mu)!(n/2+1-x+\mu)!} \quad (\text{A.58})$$

The new distribution has the same mean  $\bar{x} = \mu$  but a larger width  $\sigma'^2 = n'/4 = (n+2)/4$  with the variance increased by  $\frac{1}{2}$ :

$$\sigma'^2 = \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2} \quad (\text{A.59})$$

Similarly, we could smooth over five channels by using a formula similar to Equation (A.57) but with five terms with coefficients given by the binomial expansion

$$y''(x) = 1/16y(x-2) + 1/4y(x-1) + 3/8y(x) + 1/4y(x+1) + 1/16y(x+2) \quad (\text{A.60})$$

A five-channel smoothing is identical to two successive smoothings over three channels and yields a variance that is increased accordingly,  $\sigma''^2 = \sigma^2 + 1$ . Any such smoothings over  $2n+1$  adjacent channels is equivalent to  $n$  smoothings over three channels.

If we apply the smoothing of Equation (A.57) to a Gaussian distribution, the resulting distribution will also be nearly Gaussian because the shapes of the binomial and Gaussian distributions are nearly alike. In fact, if we are applying the smoothing because the original shape is not Gaussian enough, the averaging may make the shape more nearly Gaussian. If we apply binomial smoothing to a distribution that is not Gaussian, we should be aware that we are distorting the shape of the peak and making it more Gaussian.

If the width of the original Gaussian is not too small ( $\sigma > 1$ ), the increase of Equation (A.59) should not be drastic because the addition is in quadrature. For a width  $\sigma = 2$ , for example, the new width  $\sigma' = 2$  is only 5% larger. If the original width is very small ( $\sigma < 1$ ), the approximation of Equation (A.53) is not valid because the Gaussian and binomial distributions are only similar in the limits of large  $n$ . A Gaussian fit to the data without smoothing would not be valid either, however, because the parameters of the fit are only meaningful if  $\sigma \geq 1$ . Because the averaging itself is a binomial distribution, the result is still expected to be a better approximation to a Gaussian distribution than the original data. For a smoothing over three channels, a Gaussian fit requires  $\sigma \geq \sqrt{1/2}$  for the original data.

# APPENDIX B MATRICES

## B.1 DETERMINANTS

In applying the method of least squares to both linear and nonlinear functions, we required the solution of a set of  $n$  simultaneous equations in  $n$  unknowns  $a_i$  similar to the following:

$$\begin{aligned}y_1 &= a_1 X_{11} + a_2 X_{12} + a_3 X_{13} \\y_2 &= a_1 X_{21} + a_2 X_{22} + a_3 X_{23} \\y_3 &= a_1 X_{31} + a_2 X_{32} + a_3 X_{33}\end{aligned}\quad (\text{B.1})$$

where the constants  $y_i$  and  $X_{ij}$  are known quantities calculated from the data.

The symmetry of the right-hand side suggests that we write elements of the equations in a two-dimensional array

$$\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ X_{31} & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

and separate the other terms and coefficients into one-dimensional arrays.

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B.3})$$

Such arrays are called matrices, and we can write Equations (B.1) in matrix form as

$$\beta = \alpha \cdot \mathbf{a} \quad (\text{B.4})$$

Alternatively, because in our problems the matrix  $\alpha$  is always symmetric, that is, the element  $\alpha_{ij}$  is equal to the element  $\alpha_{ji}$ , we can write the matrices  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\beta$  as row matrices

$$\mathbf{a} = [a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3] \quad \text{and} \quad b = [y_1 \ y_2 \ y_3] \quad (\text{B.5})$$

and express Equation (B.1) as

$$\beta = \mathbf{a} \cdot \alpha \quad (\text{B.6})$$

We shall be concerned primarily with linear one-dimensional matrices and with symmetric square two-dimensional matrices that have the same number of rows and columns and are mirror-symmetric about the diagonal. Consider a square matrix  $A$ :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1n} & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2n} & \cdots & A_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{j1} & A_{j2} & \cdots & A_{jn} & \cdots & A_{jn} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n2} & \cdots & A_{nn} & \cdots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B.7})$$

The *degree* of the matrix  $A$  is the number  $n$  of rows and columns; the  *$jk$ th element* (or *component*) of the matrix is  $A_{jk}$ ; the *diagonal terms* are  $A_{jj}$ . If the matrix is *diagonally symmetric*,  $A_{jk} = A_{kj}$  and there are  $n^2$  elements but only  $n(n + 1)/2$  different elements.

## Matrix Algebra

If  $A$  and  $B$  are two square symmetric matrices of degree  $n$ , then their sum  $S$  is a square symmetric matrix of degree  $n$  with elements that are the sums of the corresponding elements of the two matrices

$$A + B = S \quad S_{jk} = A_{jk} + B_{jk} \quad (\text{B.8})$$

The product  $P$  of the matrices  $A$  and  $B$  is a square matrix of degree  $n$ , with elements determined in the following way:

$$AB = P \quad P_{jk} = \sum_{m=1}^n (A_{jm} B_{mk}) \quad (\text{B.9})$$

The elements of the  $j$ th row of  $A$  are multiplied by the elements of the  $k$ th column of  $B$  and the products are summed to obtain the  $jk$ th element of  $P$ . In general, the matrix  $P$  will not be symmetric.

If  $a$  is a linear one-dimensional matrix, the product of  $A$  and  $a$  is only well defined if the product is taken in a particular order. If  $a$  is a column matrix, it must be multiplied on the left by the square matrix to yield another column matrix  $c$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ A_{j1} & \cdots & A_{jk} & \cdots & A_{jn} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & \cdots & \cdots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_k \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_k \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} \quad c_j = \sum_{k=1}^n (A_{jk} a_k) \quad (\text{B.10})$$

If  $\mathbf{a}$  is a row matrix, it must multiply the square matrix on the left to yield another row matrix  $\mathbf{r}$ .

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_j & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \cdots & \cdots & A_{1n} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ A_{j1} & \cdots & A_{jk} & \cdots & A_{jn} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & \cdots & \cdots & A_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = [r_1 \cdots r_k \cdots r_n] \quad r_j = \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i A_{ji}) \quad (\text{B.11})$$

The product of two linear matrices depends on the order of multiplication. The product of a row matrix  $\mathbf{a}$  times a column matrix  $\mathbf{b}$  is a scalar. If the order is reversed, the result is a square matrix that is *diagonal*; that is, for which only the diagonal terms are nonzero:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j b_j)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & a_j b_j & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \cdots & a_n b_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B.12})$$

### Determinants

The *determinant* of a square matrix is defined in terms of its algebra. The *order* of the determinant of a square matrix is equal to the degree  $n$  of the matrix. In this section, we shall mainly use determinants of order 3 as examples, although, unless otherwise specified, the comments apply to matrices of all orders. Manipulation of the rows may be substituted for columns throughout.

1. The determinant of the *unity matrix* is 1 where the unity matrix is defined as the diagonal matrix with all diagonal elements equal to 1:

$$|1| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \quad (\text{B.13})$$

2. If a column matrix of degree  $n$  is added to one column of a square matrix of degree  $n$ , the determinant of the result is the sum of the determinant of the original square matrix plus that of another square matrix obtained by substituting the column matrix for the modified column:

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} + a_1 & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} + a_2 & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} + a_3 & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ a_2 & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ a_3 & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.14})$$

3. If one column of a square matrix is multiplied by a scalar, the determinant of the result is the product of the scalar and the determinant of the original matrix:

$$\begin{vmatrix} cA_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ cA_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ cA_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} = c \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.15})$$

4. If two columns of a square matrix are interchanged, the determinant retains the same magnitude but changes sign:

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_{12} & A_{11} & A_{13} \\ A_{22} & A_{21} & A_{23} \\ A_{32} & A_{31} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.16})$$

5. The *minor*  $A^{jk}$  of an element  $A_{jk}$  of a square matrix of degree  $n$  is defined as the determinant of the square matrix of degree  $n - 1$  formed by removing the  $j$ th row and the  $k$ th column:

$$A = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad A^{21} = \begin{vmatrix} A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.17})$$

6. The *cofactor*  $\text{cof}(A_{jk})$  of an element  $A_{jk}$  of a square matrix of degree  $n$  is defined as the product of the minor and a phase factor:

$$\text{cof}(A_{jk}) = (-1)^{j+k} A^{jk} \quad (\text{B.18})$$

7. With the preceding definitions 5 and 6, the determinant of a square matrix of degree  $n$  can be expressed in terms of cofactors of minors:

$$|\mathbf{A}| = \sum_{k=1}^n [A_{jk} \text{cof}(A_{jk})] = \sum_{k=1}^n [(-1)^{j+k} A_{jk} A^{jk}] \quad (\text{B.19})$$

Equation (B.19) is an iterative definition, because the cofactor is itself a determinant. The determinant of a matrix of degree 1, however, is equal to the single element of that matrix. The determinant of a square matrix of degree 2 is encountered often enough to make its explicit formula useful:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc \quad (\text{B.20})$$

and we can evaluate the determinant of a third-order matrix with the help of Equation (B.19):

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} = A_{11} \begin{vmatrix} A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} - A_{12} \begin{vmatrix} A_{21} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} + A_{13} \begin{vmatrix} A_{21} & A_{22} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.21})$$

### Computation

Matrix computation is generally simpler if we can manipulate matrices into diagonal form in which only the diagonal elements  $A_{jj}$  are nonzero. The determinant of a diagonal matrix is equal to the product of all the diagonal elements and the trace is their sum:

$$|\mathbf{A}_{\text{diag}}| = \prod_{j=1}^n A_{jj} \quad (\text{B.22})$$

If we combine rules 2, 3, and 4 of the algebra for determinants, we can show that the determinant of a matrix is unchanged if the elements of any column, multiplied by an arbitrary scalar, are added to the elements of any other column. The determinant of the sum is equal to the sum of the two determinants, but one of these determinants has two identical columns except for a scalar factor that may be extracted, and is therefore equal to 0:

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} + cA_{12} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} + cA_{22} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} + cA_{32} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} &= \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} A_{12} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{22} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{32} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= |\mathbf{A}| \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.23})$$

Thus, it is possible to eliminate all elements except one from a row by successively subtracting one column, appropriately scaled, from each of the others. For example, if we perform the subtraction

$$A'_{jk} = A_{jk} - A_{1j} \frac{A_{11}}{A_{11}} \quad (\text{B.24})$$

on each row except the first, we eliminate all elements of the first column except  $A_{11}$  to obtain

$$\mathbf{A}' = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ 0 & A'_{22} & A'_{23} \\ 0 & A'_{32} & A'_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.25})$$

Similarly, if we subsequently start with element  $A'_{22}$  and subtract an appropriately scaled second row from the rest of the rows,

$$A''_{jk} = A'_{jk} - A'_{2k} A'_{22} / A'_{22} \quad (\text{B.26})$$

all the elements of the second column vanish except  $A'_{22}$ :

$$\mathbf{A}'' = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & A''_{13} \\ 0 & A''_{22} & A''_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & A''_{33} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.27})$$

Note that  $A'_{22}$  is not the original value  $A_{22}$ , but is modified as a result of the first subtraction.

By successively subtracting rows (or columns) scaled to their diagonal elements, we can produce a matrix that is diagonal. In practice, it is sufficient to eliminate only half of the nondiagonal elements so that all elements on one side of a diagonal are 0:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} &= \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & 0 \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ 0 & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & A_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & A_{33} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= A_{11} A_{22} A_{33} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.28})$$

### B.2 SOLUTION OF SIMULTANEOUS EQUATIONS BY DETERMINANTS

Consider the following set of three equations in three coefficients  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ , and  $a_3$ . We shall consider the  $y_k$  and  $X_{jk}$  to be known quantities; that is, constants:

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= a_1 X_{11} + a_2 X_{12} + a_3 X_{13} \\ y_2 &= a_1 X_{21} + a_2 X_{22} + a_3 X_{23} \\ y_3 &= a_1 X_{31} + a_2 X_{32} + a_3 X_{33} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.29})$$

Let us consider the set of equations as if they were one matrix equation as in Equation (B.10):

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ X_{31} & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B.30})$$

with  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  represented by linear matrices and  $\mathbf{X}$  represented by a square matrix. If we multiply the first equation of Equations (B.29) by the cofactor of  $X_{11}$  in the matrix of Equation (B.30), multiply the second equation by the cofactor of  $X_{21}$ , and multiply the third by the cofactor of  $X_{31}$ , then the sum of the three equations is an equation involving determinants according to Equation (B.18):

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} y_1 & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ y_2 & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ y_3 & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{vmatrix} &= a_1 \begin{vmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ X_{31} & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_2 \begin{vmatrix} X_{12} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{22} & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ X_{32} & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{vmatrix} \\ &\quad + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} X_{13} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{23} & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ X_{33} & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{vmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.31})$$

The determinants in the two rightmost terms of Equation (B.31) both vanish because they have two columns that are identical. Thus, the solution for the coefficient  $a_1$  is the ratio of the two determinants:

$$a_j = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} y_1 & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ y_2 & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ y_3 & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & X_{23} \\ X_{31} & X_{32} & X_{33} \end{vmatrix}} \quad (\text{B.32})$$

The denominator is the determinant of the square matrix  $X$  of Equation (B.30) and the numerator is the determinant of a matrix that is formed by substituting the column matrix  $y$  for the first column of the  $X$  matrix.

Similarly, Cramér's rule gives the solution for the  $j$ th coefficient  $a_j$  of a set of  $n$  simultaneous equations as the ratio of two determinants:

$$\begin{aligned} y_k &= \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j X_{kj}) \quad k = 1, n \\ a_j &= \frac{|X'(j)|}{|X|} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.33})$$

The denominator is the determinant of the  $X$  matrix. The numerator  $|X'(j)|$  is the determinant of the matrix formed by substituting the  $y$  matrix for the  $j$ th column.

A matrix is singular if its determinant is 0. If the  $X$  matrix is singular, there is no solution for Equation (B.33). For example, if two of the  $n$  simultaneous equations are identical, except for a scale factor, there are really only  $n - 1$  independent simultaneous equations, and therefore no solution for the  $n$  unknowns. In this case, the  $X$  matrix has two identical rows and therefore a 0 determinant.

### Solution by Matrix Equations

Let us consider Equation (B.33) as if it were a matrix equation as in Equation (B.30). If the  $X$  matrix is square, we can consider the  $y$  and  $a$  linear matrices as either column matrices as in Equation (B.10) or row matrices as in Equation (B.11):

$$[y_k] = [a_j][X_{kj}] \quad (\text{B.34})$$

If we could multiply this matrix by another matrix  $X'$  such that the right-hand side becomes just the linear matrix  $a$ , then we will have our solution for the coefficients  $a_j$  directly. The multiplication of matrices is associative; that is,

$$A(BC) = (AB)C \quad (\text{B.35})$$

Therefore, we require a matrix  $X'$  such that if it is multiplied by the matrix  $X$ , the result is the unity matrix:

$$[X_{kj}][X'_{kj}] = 1 \quad (\text{B.36})$$

The matrix  $X'$  that satisfies Equation (B.36) is called the inverse matrix  $X^{-1}$  of  $X$ . Equation (B.34) multiplied from the right by  $X^{-1}$  gives the coefficients  $a_j$  explicitly, because any matrix is unchanged when multiplied by the unity matrix:

$$[y_k][X_{kj}]^{-1} = [a_j]1 = [a_j] \quad (\text{B.37})$$

We can express Equation (B.37) in more conventional form to give the solution for each of the coefficients  $a_j$ :

$$a_j = \sum_{k=1}^n (y_k X_{kj}^{-1}) \quad (\text{B.38})$$

Thus, the solution for the  $n$  unknowns with  $n$  simultaneous equations is reduced to evaluating the elements of the inverse matrix  $X^{-1}$ .

### B.3 MATRIX INVERSION

The adjoint  $A^\dagger$  of a matrix  $A$  is defined as the matrix obtained by substituting for each element  $A_{jk}$  the cofactor of the transposed element  $A_{kj}$ :

$$A_{jk}^\dagger = \text{cof}(A_{kj}) \quad (\text{B.39})$$

For a square symmetric matrix, the transposition makes no difference.

The inverse matrix  $A^{-1}$  defined in Equation (B.36) may be evaluated by dividing the adjoint matrix  $A^\dagger$  by the determinant of  $A$ :

$$A_{jk}^{-1} = \frac{A_{jk}^\dagger}{|A|} \quad (\text{B.40})$$

To show that this equality holds, we multiply both sides of Equation (B.40) by  $|A|A$ .

$$|A|AA^{-1} = |A|I = AA^\dagger \quad (\text{B.41})$$

Diagonal terms of the matrices in Equation (B.41) are equivalent to the formula of Equation (B.19) for evaluating the determinant:

$$|A| = \sum_{k=1}^n (A_{jk} A_{kj}^\dagger) = \sum_{k=1}^n [A_{jk} \text{cof}(A_{kj})] \quad (\text{B.42})$$

Off-diagonal elements can be shown to vanish like those of the determinants of Equation (B.31). If the matrix  $A$  is singular (that is, if  $|A| = 0$ ), the inverse matrix  $A^{-1}$  does not exist and there is no solution to the matrix equation of Equation (B.34).

### Gauss-Jordan Elimination

The formula of Equation (B.40) is generally too cumbersome for use in computing the inverse of a matrix. Instead, the Gauss-Jordan method of elimination is used to invert a matrix by building up the inverse matrix from a unity matrix while reducing the original matrix to unity.

Consider the inverse matrix  $A^{-1}$  as the ratio of the unity matrix divided by the original matrix,  $A^{-1} = 1/A$ . If we manipulate the numerator and denominator of this ratio in the same manner (multiplying rows or columns by the same constant factor)

and adding the same rows scaled to the same constants), the ratio remains unchanged. If we perform the proper manipulation, we can change the denominator into the unity matrix; the numerator must then become equal to the inverse matrix  $A^{-1}$ .

Let us write the  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $A$  and the  $3 \times 3$  unity matrix side by side and manipulate both to reduce the matrix  $A$  to the unity matrix. We start by using the formula of Equation (B.24) to eliminate the two off-diagonal elements of the first column:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{array} \right] \quad \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ 0 & A_{22} - A_{12} \frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} & A_{23} - A_{13} \frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} \\ 0 & A_{32} - A_{12} \frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} & A_{33} - A_{13} \frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} \end{array} \right] \quad \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \quad (\text{B.43})$$

Now, we divide the first row by  $A_{11}$  to get a diagonal element of

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & \frac{A_{12}}{A_{11}} & \frac{A_{13}}{A_{11}} \\ 0 & A_{22} - A_{12} \frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} & A_{23} - A_{13} \frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} \\ 0 & A_{32} - A_{12} \frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} & A_{33} - A_{13} \frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} \end{array} \right] \quad \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{1}{A_{11}} & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\quad (\text{B.44})$$

The left matrix now has the proper first column. Let us relabel the matrices  $B$  (on the left) and  $B'$  (on the right) and perform the corresponding manipulations to obtain zeros in place of  $B_{12}$  and  $B_{32}$ , and then divide the second row by  $B_{22}$ :

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & B_{13} - B_{23} \frac{B_{12}}{B_{22}} \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{B_{23}}{B_{22}} \\ 0 & 0 & B_{33} - B_{23} \frac{B_{32}}{B_{22}} \end{array} \right] \quad \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} B'_{11} - B'_{21} \frac{B_{12}}{B_{22}} & -\frac{B_{12}}{B_{22}} & 0 \\ \frac{B'_{21}}{B_{22}} & \frac{1}{B_{22}} & 0 \\ B'_{31} - B'_{21} \frac{B_{32}}{B_{22}} & -\frac{B_{32}}{B_{22}} & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\quad (\text{B.45})$$

After similar manipulation of the third column, the matrix on the left becomes the unity matrix and that on the right, therefore, must be the inverse matrix.

For computational purposes, even this method is somewhat inefficient in that two matrices must be manipulated throughout. Note, however, that at each stage of the reduction, there are only  $n$  (or three) useful columns of information in the two matrices. As each column is eliminated from the left matrix, the corresponding column is accumulated on the right.

Therefore, we can combine the manipulation into the range of a single matrix. We start with the matrix  $A$  and use the formula of Equation (B.24) as for Equation

(B.43), but instead of applying this formula to the first column, we divide the first column by  $-A_{11}$  to get the first column on the right of Equation (B.43); the diagonal element must be divided twice to become  $1/A_{11}$ . Divide the rest of the first row by  $A_{11}$  to get the composite of the two matrices of Equation (B.44):

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} \frac{1}{A_{11}} & \frac{A_{12}}{A_{11}} & \frac{A_{13}}{A_{11}} \\ -\frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} & A_{22} - A_{12} \frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} & A_{23} - A_{13} \frac{A_{21}}{A_{11}} \\ -\frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} & A_{32} - A_{12} \frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} & A_{33} - A_{13} \frac{A_{31}}{A_{11}} \end{array} \right] \quad (\text{B.46})$$

A corresponding manipulation of the second column yields a matrix with the first two columns identical to those of the right side of Equation (B.45) whereas the last column is identical to that of the left side of Equation (B.45). Thus the inverse matrix is accumulated in the space vacated by the original matrix.

**Computer Routine** **PROGRAM B.1 MATRIX (WEBSITE)** includes two routines, **MATINV** and **LINEARBYSQUARE**. **MATINV** inverts a square matrix and calculates its determinant, substituting the inverted matrix into the same array as the original matrix.<sup>1</sup> Input variables are **ARRAY**, the matrix to be inverted, and **NORDER**, the order of its determinant.

The initial program loop iterates through the  $n$  columns of the matrix, reorganizing the matrix to get the largest element in the diagonal in order to reduce rounding errors and improve computational precision. The inversion procedure discussed above is then carried out and the determinant **DET** of the matrix is calculated from the diagonalized matrix. After inversion, the inverted matrix is stored back in **ARRAY** and the variable **DET**, the value of the determinant of the original matrix, is returned.

**LINEARBYSQUARE** multiplies a linear matrix (on the right) by a square matrix (on the left). For example, see Equation (B.30).

<sup>1</sup>The subroutine **MATINV** follows the procedure of the subroutine **MINV** of the IBM System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package.

# APPENDIX C

## GRAPHS AND TABLES

The tables and graphs in this appendix are provided for easy reference. Computer routines for calculating several of the distributions and probability functions are listed in Appendix E. Routines are also available on the website for calculating probabilities.

### C.1 GAUSSIAN PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION

The probability density function  $p_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  for the Gaussian or normal error distribution is given by

$$p_G(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$$

If measurements of a quantity  $x$  are distributed in this manner around a mean  $\mu$  with standard deviation  $\sigma$ , the probability  $dP_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  for observing a value of  $x$ , within an infinitesimally small interval  $dx$ , in a random sample measurement is given by

$$dP_G(x; \mu, \sigma) = p_G(x; \mu, \sigma) dx$$

Values of the probability density function  $p_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  are tabulated in Table C.1 as a function of the dimensionless deviation

$$z = |x - \mu|/\sigma$$

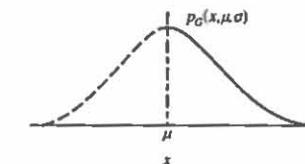
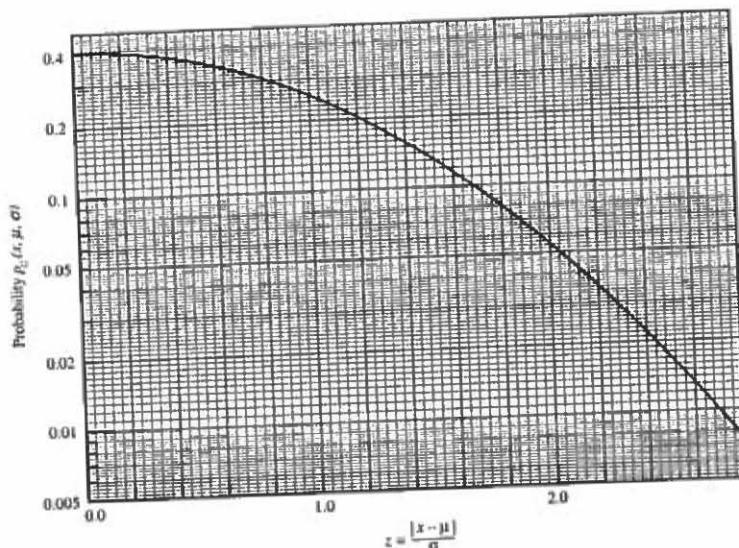


TABLE C.1  
Gaussian probability density distribution. The Gaussian or normal error distribution  $p_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  versus  $z = |x - \mu|/\sigma$

$z$	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
0.0	0.39894	0.39892	0.39886	0.39876	0.39862	0.39844	0.39822	0.39797	0.39767	0.39733
0.1	0.39695	0.39654	0.39608	0.39559	0.39505	0.39448	0.39387	0.39322	0.39253	0.39181
0.2	0.39104	0.39024	0.38940	0.38853	0.38762	0.38667	0.38568	0.38466	0.38361	0.38251
0.3	0.38139	0.38023	0.37903	0.37780	0.37654	0.37524	0.37391	0.37255	0.37115	0.36973
0.4	0.36827	0.36678	0.36526	0.36371	0.36213	0.36053	0.35889	0.35723	0.35553	0.35381
0.5	0.35207	0.35029	0.34849	0.34667	0.34482	0.34294	0.34105	0.33912	0.33718	0.33521
0.6	0.33322	0.33121	0.32918	0.32713	0.32506	0.32297	0.32086	0.31874	0.31659	0.31443
0.7	0.31225	0.31006	0.30785	0.30563	0.30339	0.30114	0.29887	0.29659	0.29431	0.29200
0.8	0.28969	0.28737	0.28504	0.28269	0.28034	0.27799	0.27562	0.27324	0.27086	0.26848
0.9	0.26609	0.26369	0.26129	0.25888	0.25647	0.25406	0.25164	0.24923	0.24681	0.24439
1.0	0.24197	0.23995	0.23713	0.23471	0.23230	0.22988	0.22747	0.22506	0.22266	0.22025
1.1	0.21785	0.21546	0.21307	0.21069	0.20831	0.20594	0.20357	0.20122	0.19887	0.19652
1.2	0.19419	0.19186	0.18955	0.18724	0.18494	0.18265	0.18038	0.17811	0.17585	0.17361
1.3	0.17137	0.16915	0.16694	0.16475	0.16256	0.16039	0.15823	0.15609	0.15395	0.15184
1.4	0.14973	0.14764	0.14557	0.14351	0.14147	0.13944	0.13742	0.13543	0.13344	0.13148
1.5	0.12952	0.12759	0.12567	0.12377	0.12189	0.12002	0.11816	0.11633	0.11451	0.11271
1.6	0.11093	0.10916	0.10741	0.10568	0.10397	0.10227	0.10059	0.09893	0.09729	0.09567
1.7	0.09406	0.09247	0.09090	0.08934	0.08780	0.08629	0.08478	0.08330	0.08184	0.08039
1.8	0.07896	0.07755	0.07615	0.07477	0.07342	0.07207	0.07075	0.06944	0.06815	0.06688
1.9	0.06562	0.06439	0.06316	0.06196	0.06077	0.05960	0.05845	0.05731	0.05619	0.05509
2.0	0.05400	0.05293	0.05187	0.05083	0.04981	0.04880	0.04781	0.04683	0.04587	0.04492
2.1	0.04399	0.04307	0.04217	0.04129	0.04041	0.03956	0.03871	0.03788	0.03707	0.03627
2.2	0.03548	0.03471	0.03395	0.03320	0.03247	0.03175	0.03104	0.03034	0.02966	0.02899
2.3	0.02833	0.02769	0.02705	0.02643	0.02582	0.02522	0.02464	0.02406	0.02350	0.02294
2.4	0.02240	0.02187	0.02135	0.02083	0.02033	0.01984	0.01936	0.01889	0.01843	0.01798
2.5	0.01753	0.01710	0.01667	0.01626	0.01585	0.01545	0.01506	0.01468	0.01431	0.01394
2.6	0.01359	0.01324	0.01290	0.01256	0.01224	0.01192	0.01160	0.01130	0.01100	0.01071
2.7	0.01042	0.01015	0.00987	0.00961	0.00935	0.00910	0.00885	0.00861	0.00837	0.00814
2.8	0.00792	0.00770	0.00749	0.00728	0.00707	0.00688	0.00668	0.00649	0.00631	0.00613
2.9	0.00595	0.00578	0.00562	0.00546	0.00530	0.00514	0.00500	0.00485	0.00471	0.00457
	0.00	0.10	0.20	0.30	0.40					
3.0	0.0044318	0.0032668	0.0023841	0.0017226	0.0012322					
3.5	0.00087269	0.00061191	0.00042479	0.00029195	0.00019866					
4.0	0.00013383	0.000089264	0.000058945	0.000038536	0.000024943					
4.5	0.000015984	0.000010141	0.0000063701	0.0000039615	0.0000024391					
5.0	0.0000014868	0.0000089730	0.0000053614	0.0000031716	0.0000018575					
5.5	0.00000010771	0.0000006183	0.0000003514	0.0000001978	0.00000010102					



**FIGURE C.1**  
Gaussian probability density distribution,  $p_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  versus  $z = |x - \mu|/\sigma$

for  $z$  ranging from 0.0 to 3.0 in increments of 0.01 and up to 5.9 in increments of 0.1. This function is graphed on a semi-logarithmic scale as a function of  $z$  in Figure C.1.

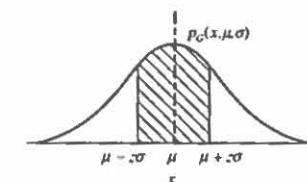
## C.2 INTEGRAL OF GAUSSIAN DISTRIBUTION

The integral  $P_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  of the probability density function  $p_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  for the Gaussian or normal error distribution is given by

$$P_G(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mu-\sigma}^{\mu+\sigma} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right] dx$$

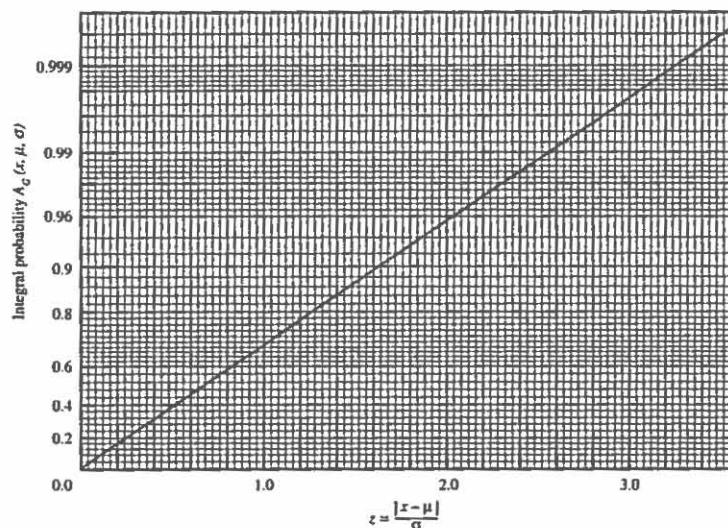
with

$$z = \frac{|x - \mu|}{\sigma}$$



**TABLE C.2**  
Integral of Gaussian distribution. The integral of the Gaussian probability density distribution,  $P_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  versus  $z = |x - \mu|/\sigma$

$z$	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
0.0	0.0	0.00798	0.01596	0.02393	0.03191	0.03988	0.04784	0.05581	0.06376	0.07171
0.1	0.07966	0.08759	0.09552	0.10343	0.11134	0.11924	0.12712	0.13499	0.14285	0.15069
0.2	0.15852	0.16633	0.17413	0.18191	0.18967	0.19741	0.20514	0.21284	0.22052	0.22818
0.3	0.23582	0.24344	0.25103	0.25860	0.26614	0.27366	0.28115	0.28862	0.29605	0.30346
0.4	0.31084	0.31819	0.32551	0.33280	0.34006	0.34729	0.35448	0.36164	0.36877	0.37587
0.5	0.38292	0.38995	0.39694	0.40389	0.41080	0.41768	0.42452	0.43132	0.43809	0.44481
0.6	0.45149	0.45814	0.46474	0.47131	0.47783	0.48431	0.49075	0.49714	0.50350	0.50981
0.7	0.51607	0.52230	0.52847	0.53461	0.54070	0.54674	0.55274	0.55870	0.56461	0.57047
0.8	0.57629	0.58206	0.58778	0.59346	0.59909	0.60467	0.61021	0.61570	0.62114	0.62653
0.9	0.63188	0.63718	0.64243	0.64763	0.65278	0.65789	0.66294	0.66795	0.67291	0.67783
1.0	0.68269	0.68750	0.69227	0.69699	0.70166	0.70628	0.71085	0.71538	0.71985	0.72428
1.1	0.72866	0.73300	0.73728	0.74152	0.74571	0.74985	0.75395	0.75799	0.76199	0.76595
1.2	0.76985	0.77371	0.77753	0.78130	0.78502	0.78869	0.79232	0.79591	0.79945	0.80294
1.3	0.80639	0.80980	0.81316	0.81647	0.81975	0.82298	0.82616	0.82930	0.83240	0.83546
1.4	0.83848	0.84145	0.84438	0.84727	0.85012	0.85293	0.85570	0.85843	0.86112	0.86377
1.5	0.86638	0.86895	0.87148	0.87397	0.87643	0.87885	0.88123	0.88358	0.88588	0.88816
1.6	0.89039	0.89259	0.89476	0.89689	0.89898	0.90105	0.90308	0.90507	0.90703	0.90896
1.7	0.91086	0.91272	0.91456	0.91636	0.91813	0.91987	0.92158	0.92326	0.92491	0.92654
1.8	0.92813	0.92969	0.93123	0.93274	0.93422	0.93568	0.93711	0.93851	0.93988	0.94123
1.9	0.94256	0.94386	0.94513	0.94638	0.94761	0.94882	0.95000	0.95115	0.95229	0.95340
2.0	0.95449	0.95556	0.95661	0.95764	0.95864	0.95963	0.96059	0.96154	0.96247	0.96338
2.1	0.96426	0.96513	0.96599	0.96682	0.96764	0.96844	0.96922	0.96999	0.97074	0.97147
2.2	0.97219	0.97289	0.97358	0.97425	0.97490	0.97555	0.97617	0.97679	0.97739	0.97797
2.3	0.97855	0.97911	0.97965	0.98019	0.98071	0.98122	0.98172	0.98221	0.98268	0.98315
2.4	0.98360	0.98404	0.98448	0.98490	0.98531	0.98571	0.98610	0.98648	0.98686	0.98722
2.5	0.98758	0.98792	0.98826	0.98859	0.98891	0.98922	0.98953	0.98983	0.99012	0.99040
2.6	0.99067	0.99094	0.99120	0.99146	0.99171	0.99195	0.99218	0.99241	0.99264	0.99285
2.7	0.99306	0.99327	0.99347	0.99366	0.99385	0.99404	0.99422	0.99439	0.99456	0.99473
2.8	0.99489	0.99504	0.99520	0.99534	0.99549	0.99563	0.99576	0.99589	0.99602	0.99615
2.9	0.99627	0.99638	0.99650	0.99661	0.99672	0.99682	0.99692	0.99702	0.99712	0.99721
	0.00	0.10	0.20	0.30	0.40					
3.0	0.9973002	0.9980648	0.9986257	0.99903315	0.99932614					
3.5	0.99953474	0.99968178	0.99978440	0.99985530	0.999903805					
4.0	0.9999316656	0.999958684	0.999973308	0.999982920	0.999989174					
4.5	0.9999932043	0.9999957748	0.9999973982	0.9999984132	0.99999904149					
5.0	0.99999942657	0.99999966024	0.99999980061	0.9999998410	0.99999993327					
5.5	0.99999996193	0.99999997847	0.99999998793	0.99999999328	0.99999999627					



**FIGURE C.2**  
Integral of the Gaussian probability density distribution,  $P_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  versus  $z = |x - \mu|/\sigma$

If measurements of the quantity  $x$  are distributed according to the Gaussian distribution around a mean  $\mu$  with standard deviation  $\sigma$ ,  $P_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  is equal to the probability for observing a value of  $x$  in a random sample measurement that is between  $\mu - z\sigma$  and  $\mu + z\sigma$ ; that is, it is the probability that  $|x - \mu| < z\sigma$ .

Values of the integral  $P_G(x; \mu, \sigma)$  are tabulated in Table C.2 as a function of  $z$ , for  $z$  ranging from 0.0 to 3.0 in increments of 0.01 and up to 5.9 in increments of 0.1. This function is graphed on a probability scale as a function of  $z$  in Figure C.2.

A related function is the *error function* erf  $Z$ :

$$\text{erf } Z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-Z}^Z e^{-z^2} dz = P_G(z\sqrt{2}; 0, 1)$$

The function that is tabulated and graphed is the shaded area between the limits  $\mu \pm z\sigma$  as indicated.

### C.3 LINEAR-CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

The probability distribution  $p_r(r, v)$  for the linear-correlation coefficient  $r$  for  $v$  degrees of freedom is given by

$$p_r(r; v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{\Gamma[(v+1)/2]}{\Gamma(v/2)} (1 - r^2)^{(v-2)/2}$$

The probability of observing a value of the correlation coefficient larger than  $r$  for a random sample of  $N$  observations with  $v$  degrees of freedom is the integral of this probability  $P_c(r; N)$ :

$$P_c(r; N) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{\Gamma[(v+1)/2]}{\Gamma(v/2)} \int_{|r|}^1 (1 - x^2)^{(v-2)/2} dx \quad v = N - 2$$

If two variables of a parent population are uncorrelated, the probability that a random sample of  $N$  observations will yield a correlation coefficient for those two variables greater in magnitude than  $|r|$  is given by  $P_c(r; N)$ .

Values of the coefficient  $|r|$  corresponding to various values of the probability  $P_c(r; N)$  are tabulated in Table C.3 for  $N$  ranging from 3 to 100, and values of  $P_c(r; N)$  ranging from 0.001 to 0.5. The functional dependence of  $r$  corresponding to representative values of  $P_c(r; N)$  is graphed on a semi-logarithmic scale as a smooth variation with the number of observations  $N$  in Figure C.3.

The function that is tabulated and graphed is the shaded area under the tails of the probability curve for values larger than  $|r|$  as indicated.

### C.4 $\chi^2$ DISTRIBUTION

The probability density distribution  $p_x(\chi^2; v)$  for  $\chi^2$  is given by

$$p_x(\chi^2; v) = \frac{1}{2^{v/2} \Gamma(v/2)} (\chi^2)^{(v-2)/2} e^{-\chi^2/2}$$

The probability of observing a value of  $\chi^2$  that is larger than a particular value for a random sample of  $N$  observations with  $v$  degrees of freedom is the integral of this probability  $P_x(\chi^2; v)$ :

$$P_x(\chi^2; v) = \frac{1}{2^{v/2} \Gamma(v/2)} \int_{\chi^2}^{\infty} (x^2)^{(v-2)/2} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

Values of the reduced chi-square  $\chi_v^2 = \chi^2/v$  corresponding to various values of the integral probability  $P_x(\chi^2; v)$  of exceeding  $\chi^2$  in a measurement with  $v$  degrees of freedom are tabulated in Table C.4 for  $v$  ranging from 1 to 200. The functional dependence of  $P_x(\chi^2; v)$  corresponding to representative values of  $v$  is graphed in Figure C.4 as a smooth variation with the reduced chi-square  $\chi_v^2$ .

The function that is tabulated and graphed is the shaded area under the tail of the probability curve for values larger than  $\chi^2$  as indicated.

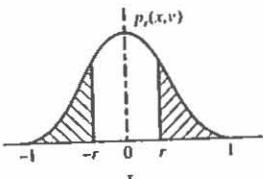


TABLE C.3  
Linear-correlation coefficient. The linear-correlation coefficient  $r$  versus the number of observations  $N$  and the corresponding probability  $P_c(r; N)$  of exceeding  $r$  in a random sample of observations taken from an uncorrelated parent population ( $\rho = 0$ )

$N$	$P$									
	0.50	0.20	0.10	0.050	0.020	0.010	0.005	0.002	0.001	
3	0.707	0.951	0.988	0.997	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
4	0.500	0.800	0.900	0.950	0.980	0.990	0.995	0.998	0.999	
5	0.404	0.687	0.805	0.878	0.934	0.959	0.974	0.986	0.991	
6	0.347	0.608	0.729	0.811	0.882	0.917	0.942	0.963	0.974	
7	0.309	0.551	0.669	0.754	0.833	0.875	0.906	0.935	0.951	
8	0.281	0.507	0.621	0.707	0.789	0.834	0.870	0.905	0.925	
9	0.260	0.472	0.582	0.666	0.750	0.798	0.836	0.875	0.898	
10	0.242	0.443	0.549	0.632	0.715	0.765	0.805	0.847	0.872	
11	0.228	0.419	0.521	0.602	0.685	0.735	0.776	0.820	0.847	
12	0.216	0.398	0.497	0.576	0.658	0.708	0.750	0.795	0.823	
13	0.206	0.380	0.476	0.553	0.634	0.684	0.726	0.772	0.801	
14	0.197	0.365	0.458	0.532	0.612	0.661	0.703	0.750	0.780	
15	0.189	0.351	0.441	0.514	0.592	0.641	0.683	0.730	0.760	
16	0.182	0.338	0.426	0.497	0.574	0.623	0.664	0.711	0.742	
17	0.176	0.327	0.412	0.482	0.558	0.606	0.647	0.694	0.725	
18	0.170	0.317	0.400	0.468	0.543	0.590	0.631	0.678	0.708	
19	0.165	0.308	0.389	0.456	0.529	0.575	0.616	0.662	0.693	
20	0.160	0.299	0.378	0.444	0.516	0.561	0.602	0.648	0.679	
22	0.152	0.284	0.360	0.423	0.492	0.537	0.576	0.622	0.652	
24	0.145	0.271	0.344	0.404	0.472	0.515	0.554	0.599	0.629	
26	0.138	0.260	0.330	0.388	0.453	0.496	0.534	0.578	0.607	
28	0.133	0.250	0.317	0.374	0.437	0.479	0.515	0.559	0.588	
30	0.128	0.241	0.306	0.361	0.423	0.463	0.499	0.541	0.570	
32	0.124	0.233	0.296	0.349	0.409	0.449	0.484	0.526	0.554	
34	0.120	0.225	0.287	0.339	0.397	0.436	0.470	0.511	0.539	
36	0.116	0.219	0.279	0.329	0.386	0.424	0.458	0.498	0.525	
38	0.113	0.213	0.271	0.320	0.376	0.413	0.446	0.486	0.513	
40	0.110	0.207	0.264	0.312	0.367	0.403	0.435	0.474	0.501	
42	0.107	0.202	0.257	0.304	0.358	0.393	0.425	0.463	0.490	
44	0.104	0.197	0.251	0.297	0.350	0.384	0.416	0.453	0.479	
46	0.102	0.192	0.246	0.291	0.342	0.376	0.407	0.444	0.469	
48	0.100	0.188	0.240	0.285	0.335	0.368	0.399	0.435	0.460	
50	0.098	0.184	0.235	0.279	0.328	0.361	0.391	0.427	0.451	
60	0.089	0.168	0.214	0.254	0.300	0.330	0.358	0.391	0.414	
70	0.082	0.155	0.198	0.235	0.278	0.306	0.332	0.363	0.385	
80	0.077	0.145	0.185	0.220	0.260	0.286	0.311	0.340	0.361	
90	0.072	0.136	0.174	0.207	0.245	0.270	0.293	0.322	0.341	
100	0.068	0.129	0.165	0.197	0.232	0.256	0.279	0.305	0.324	

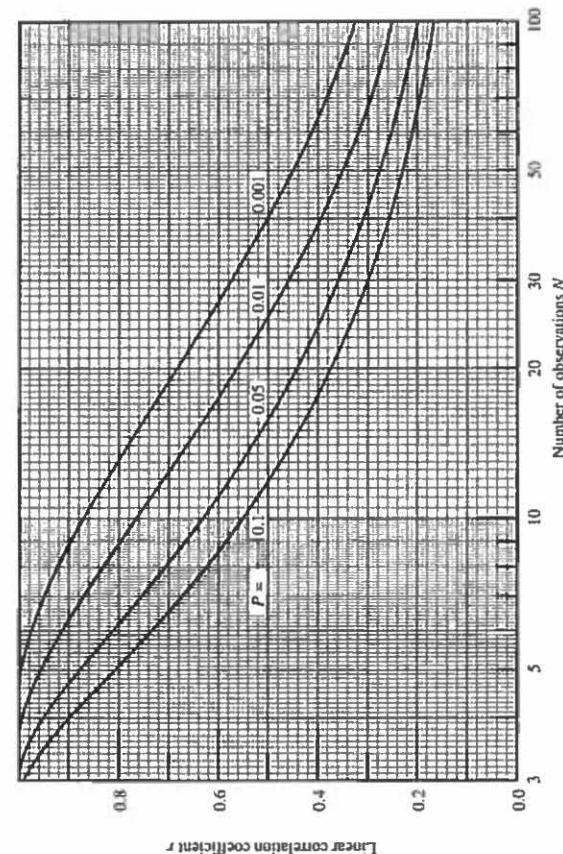
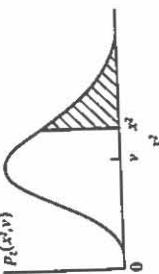


FIGURE C.3  
The linear-correlation coefficient  $r$  versus the number of observations  $N$  and the corresponding probability  $P_c(r; N)$  that the variables are not correlated.

TABLE C.4  
(continued)TABLE C.4  
Values of the reduced chi-square  $\chi^2_v = \chi^2/v$  corresponding to  
 $\chi^2$  distribution. Values of the reduced chi-square  $\chi^2_v = \chi^2/v$  corresponding to  
the probability  $P(\chi^2; v)$  of exceeding  $\chi^2$  versus the number of degrees of  
freedom  $v$ 

$v$	0.99	0.98	0.95	0.90	0.80	0.70	0.60	0.50	$P$
1	0.00016	0.00063	0.00393	0.0158	0.0642	0.148	0.275	0.455	1.074
2	0.0100	0.0202	0.0515	0.105	0.223	0.357	0.511	0.693	1.204
3	0.0383	0.0617	0.117	0.195	0.335	0.475	0.623	0.789	1.222
4	0.0742	0.107	0.178	0.266	0.412	0.549	0.688	0.839	1.240
5	0.111	0.150	0.229	0.322	0.469	0.600	0.731	0.870	1.256
6	0.145	0.189	0.273	0.367	0.512	0.638	0.762	0.891	1.271
7	0.177	0.223	0.310	0.405	0.546	0.667	0.785	0.907	1.198
8	0.206	0.254	0.342	0.436	0.574	0.691	0.803	0.918	1.379
9	0.232	0.281	0.369	0.463	0.598	0.710	0.817	0.927	1.444
10	0.256	0.306	0.394	0.487	0.618	0.727	0.830	0.934	1.477
11	0.278	0.328	0.416	0.507	0.635	0.741	0.840	0.940	1.513
12	0.298	0.348	0.436	0.525	0.651	0.753	0.848	0.945	1.548
13	0.316	0.367	0.453	0.542	0.674	0.764	0.856	0.949	1.583
14	0.333	0.383	0.469	0.556	0.676	0.773	0.863	0.953	1.616
15	0.349	0.399	0.484	0.570	0.687	0.781	0.869	0.956	1.647
16	0.363	0.413	0.500	0.582	0.697	0.789	0.874	0.959	1.677
17	0.377	0.427	0.510	0.593	0.706	0.796	0.879	0.961	1.707
18	0.390	0.439	0.522	0.604	0.714	0.802	0.883	0.963	1.737
19	0.402	0.451	0.532	0.613	0.722	0.808	0.887	0.965	1.767
20	0.413	0.462	0.543	0.622	0.729	0.813	0.890	0.967	1.797
22	0.434	0.482	0.561	0.638	0.742	0.823	0.897	0.969	1.837
24	0.452	0.500	0.577	0.592	0.652	0.753	0.831	0.970	1.877
26	0.469	0.516	0.592	0.665	0.762	0.838	0.907	0.974	1.917
28	0.484	0.530	0.605	0.676	0.771	0.845	0.911	0.976	1.957
30	0.498	0.544	0.616	0.687	0.779	0.850	0.915	0.978	1.997
32	0.511	0.556	0.627	0.696	0.786	0.855	0.918	0.979	2.037
34	0.523	0.567	0.637	0.693	0.792	0.860	0.921	0.980	2.077
36	0.534	0.577	0.646	0.712	0.798	0.864	0.924	0.981	2.117
38	0.545	0.587	0.655	0.720	0.804	0.868	0.926	0.983	2.157
40	0.554	0.596	0.663	0.726	0.809	0.872	0.928	0.983	2.197
42	0.563	0.604	0.670	0.731	0.813	0.875	0.930	0.984	2.237
44	0.572	0.612	0.677	0.738	0.818	0.878	0.932	0.985	2.277
46	0.580	0.620	0.683	0.744	0.822	0.881	0.934	0.986	2.317
48	0.587	0.627	0.690	0.749	0.825	0.884	0.936	0.987	2.357
50	0.594	0.633	0.695	0.754	0.829	0.886	0.937	0.987	2.397
60	0.625	0.662	0.670	0.720	0.774	0.844	0.905	0.949	2.437
70	0.649	0.684	0.677	0.738	0.790	0.856	0.905	0.952	2.477
80	0.669	0.703	0.755	0.740	0.803	0.873	0.917	0.955	2.517
90	0.686	0.718	0.683	0.768	0.814	0.879	0.921	0.958	2.557
100	0.701	0.731	0.779	0.824	0.879	0.928	0.962	0.994	2.597
120	0.724	0.753	0.798	0.850	0.898	0.934	0.965	0.995	2.637
140	0.743	0.770	0.812	0.860	0.905	0.938	0.968	0.996	2.677
160	0.758	0.784	0.823	0.860	0.905	0.942	0.970	0.996	2.717
180	0.771	0.796	0.833	0.868	0.910	0.945	0.972	0.997	2.757
200	0.782	0.806	0.841	0.874	0.915	0.952	0.983	0.998	2.797

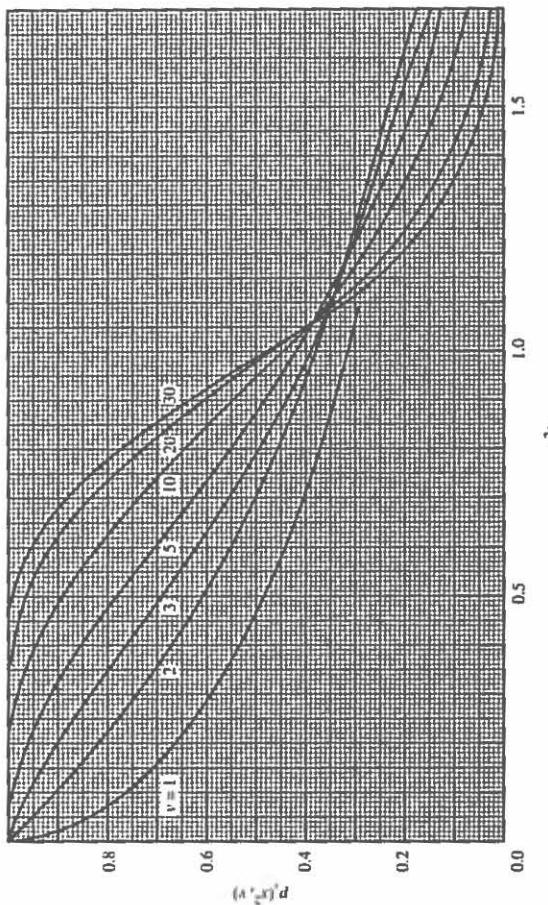


FIGURE C.4  
The probability  $P_{\chi^2}(x^2; v)$  of exceeding  $\chi^2$  versus the reduced chi-square  $x^2 = \chi^2/v$  and the number of degrees of freedom  $v$ .

### C.5 F DISTRIBUTION

The probability distribution for  $F$  is given by

$$p_f(f; v_1, v_2) = \frac{\Gamma[(v_1 + v_2)/2]}{\Gamma(v_1/2)\Gamma(v_2/2)} \left(\frac{v_1}{v_2}\right)^{v_1/2} \frac{f^{(v_1-2)/2}}{(1 + fv_1/v_2)^{(v_1+v_2)/2}}$$

The probability of observing a value of  $F$  that is larger than a particular value for a random sample with  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  degrees of freedom is the integral of this probability:

$$P_F(F; v_1, v_2) = \int_F^\infty p_f(f; v_1, v_2) df$$

Values of  $F$  corresponding to various values of the integral probability  $P_F(F; v_1, v_2)$  of exceeding  $F$  in a measurement are tabulated in Table C.5 for  $v_1 = 1$  and graphed in Figure C.5 as a smooth variation with the probability. Values of  $F$  corresponding to various values of  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  ranging from 1 to  $\infty$  are listed in Table C.6 and graphed in Figure C.6 for  $P_F(F; v_1, v_2) = 0.05$  and in Table C.7 and Figure C.7 for  $P_F(F; v_1, v_2) = 0.01$ . These values were adapted by permission from Dixon and Massey (1969).

The function that is tabulated and graphed is the shaded area under the tail of the probability curve for values larger than  $F$  as indicated.

### C.6 STUDENT'S $t$ DISTRIBUTION

The probability distribution for Student's  $t$  is given by<sup>1</sup>

$$f(t, v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(v\pi)}} \frac{\Gamma[(v+1)/2]}{\Gamma(v/2)} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{v}\right)^{-(v+1)/2}$$

Student's  $t$  distribution describes, as a function of the number of degrees of freedom  $v$ , the distribution of the parameter  $t = |x - \bar{x}|/s_\mu$ , where  $t$  is the number of standard deviations  $s_\mu$  of the sample distribution by which  $x$  differs from  $\bar{x}$ . This distribution takes account of the fact that the sample standard deviation  $s_\mu$  is an estimate of the parent standard error  $\sigma_\mu$  and, as such, will vary for different samples drawn from the same parent distribution, just as the sample means vary. If  $\bar{x}$  represents the mean of  $N$  numbers and  $x$  is not derived from the data, then  $v = N - 1$ . If both  $x$  and  $\bar{x}$  are means,  $s_\mu$  must be the joint standard deviation of both  $x$  and  $\bar{x}$ , and  $v$  must be the total number of degrees of freedom. In the limit of large numbers of degrees of freedom, Student's  $t$  and Gaussian probability distributions agree; for small  $v$ , that is, low-statistics experiments, the Gaussian distribution overestimates the probability and Student's  $t$  is preferred.

Table C.8 lists probabilities obtained by integrating Student's  $t$  distribution from  $x = \bar{x} - ts_\mu$  to  $x = \bar{x} + ts_\mu$  where  $t = |\bar{x} - x|/s_\mu$ . The integrals are listed as functions of  $t$  and of the number of degrees of freedom  $v$ . The values corresponding to Gaussian probability (which are independent of  $v$ ) are listed in the last column.

<sup>1</sup>"Review of Particle Physics" *The European Physical Journal C*, vol. 15 (2000), p. 193.

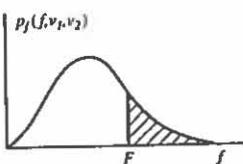


TABLE C.5  
 $F$  distribution,  $v = 1$ . Values of  $F$  corresponding to the probability  $P_F(F; 1, v_2)$  of exceeding  $F$  (with  $v_1 = 1$  degrees of freedom) versus the larger number of degrees of freedom  $v_2$ .

Degrees of freedom $v_2$	Probability ( $P$ ) of exceeding $F$							
	0.50	0.25	0.10	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	0.001
1	1.000	5.83	39.90	161.00	648.00	4050.00	16200.00	406000.0
2	0.667	2.57	8.53	18.50	38.50	98.50	198.00	998.0
3	0.585	2.02	5.54	10.10	17.40	34.10	55.60	167.0
4	0.549	1.81	4.54	7.71	12.20	21.20	31.30	74.1
5	0.528	1.69	4.06	6.61	10.00	16.30	22.80	47.2
6	0.515	1.62	3.78	5.99	8.81	13.70	18.60	35.5
7	0.506	1.57	3.59	5.59	8.07	12.20	16.20	29.2
8	0.499	1.54	3.46	5.32	7.57	11.30	14.70	25.4
9	0.494	1.51	3.36	5.12	7.21	10.60	13.60	22.9
10	0.490	1.49	3.28	4.96	6.94	10.00	12.80	21.0
11	0.486	1.47	3.23	4.84	6.72	9.65	12.20	19.7
12	0.484	1.46	3.18	4.75	6.55	9.33	11.80	18.6
15	0.478	1.43	3.07	4.54	6.20	8.68	10.80	16.6
20	0.472	1.40	2.97	4.35	5.87	8.10	9.94	14.8
24	0.469	1.39	2.93	4.26	5.72	7.82	9.55	14.0
30	0.466	1.38	2.88	4.17	5.57	7.56	9.18	13.3
40	0.463	1.36	2.84	4.08	5.42	7.31	8.83	12.6
60	0.461	1.35	2.79	4.00	5.29	7.08	8.49	12.0
120	0.458	1.34	2.75	3.92	5.15	6.85	8.18	11.4
$\infty$	0.455	1.32	2.71	3.84	5.02	6.63	7.88	10.8

Note: For larger values of the probability  $P$ , the value of  $F$  is approximately  $F = [1.25(1 - P)]^2$ .

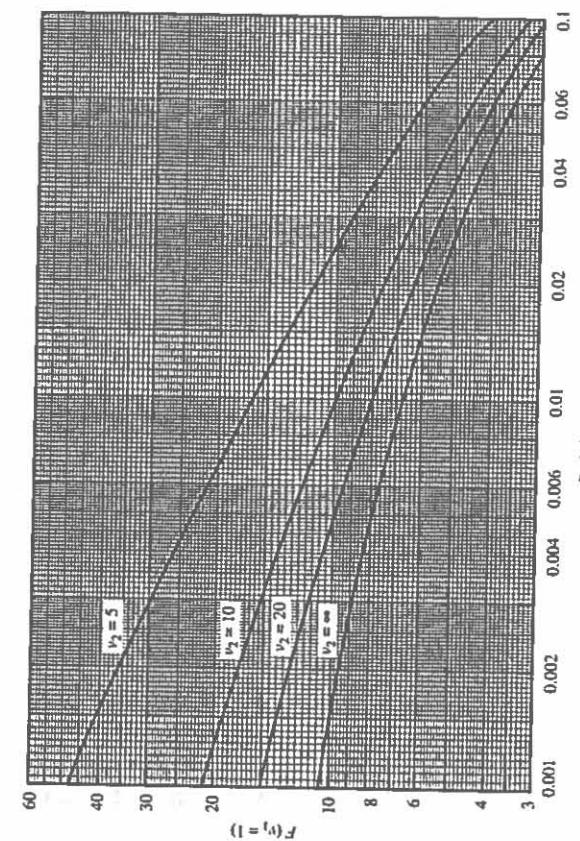


FIGURE C.5  
The probability  $P_F(F; 1, v_2)$  of exceeding  $F$  versus  $F$  and  $v_2$  for  $v_1 = 1$ .

TABLE C.6  
 $F$  distribution, 5%. Values of  $F$  corresponding to the probability  
 $P_F(F; v_1, v_2) = 0.05$  of exceeding  $F$  for  $v_1$  versus  $v_2$  degrees of freedom

Degrees of freedom $v_2$	Degrees of freedom $v_1$							
	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	100
1	200.00	225.00	234.00	239.00	242.00	246.00	248.00	253.00
2	19.00	19.20	19.30	19.40	19.40	19.40	19.40	19.50
3	9.55	9.12	8.94	8.85	8.79	8.70	8.66	8.55
4	6.94	6.39	6.16	6.04	5.96	5.86	5.80	5.66
5	5.79	5.19	4.95	4.82	4.73	4.62	4.56	4.41
6	5.14	4.53	4.28	4.15	4.00	3.94	3.87	3.71
7	4.74	4.12	3.87	3.73	3.64	3.51	3.44	3.27
8	4.46	3.84	3.58	3.44	3.35	3.22	3.15	2.97
9	4.26	3.63	3.37	3.23	3.14	3.01	2.94	2.76
10	4.10	3.48	3.22	3.07	2.98	2.85	2.77	2.59
11	3.98	3.36	3.09	2.95	2.85	2.72	2.65	2.46
12	3.89	3.26	3.00	2.85	2.75	2.62	2.54	2.35
15	3.68	3.06	2.79	2.64	2.54	2.40	2.33	2.12
20	3.49	2.87	2.60	2.45	2.35	2.20	2.12	1.91
24	3.40	2.78	2.51	2.36	2.25	2.11	2.03	1.80
30	3.32	2.69	2.42	2.27	2.16	2.01	1.93	1.70
40	3.23	2.61	2.34	2.18	2.08	1.92	1.84	1.59
60	3.15	2.53	2.25	2.10	1.99	1.84	1.75	1.48
120	3.07	2.45	2.18	2.02	1.91	1.75	1.66	1.37
∞	3.00	2.37	2.10	1.94	1.83	1.67	1.57	1.24

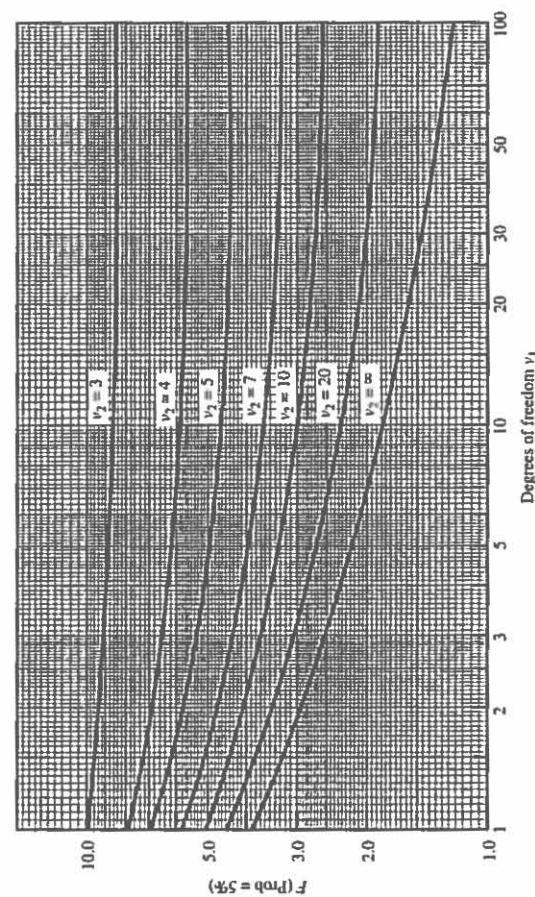


FIGURE C.6  
 Test values of  $F(v_1, v_2)$  versus the numbers of degrees of freedom  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  for a probability  $P_F(F, v_1, v_2) = 0.05$  of exceeding  $F$ .

TABLE C.7  
 $F$  distribution, 1%. Values of  $F$  corresponding to the probability  
 $P_F(F; v_1, v_2) = 0.01$  of exceeding  $F$  for  $v_1$  versus  $v_2$  degrees of freedom

Degrees of freedom $v_2$	Degrees of freedom $v_1$							
	2	4	6	8	10	15	20	100
1	5000.00	5620.00	5860.00	5980.00	6060.00	6160.00	6210.00	6330.00
2	99.00	99.20	99.30	99.40	99.40	99.40	99.40	99.50
3	30.80	28.70	27.90	27.50	27.20	26.90	26.70	26.20
4	18.00	16.00	15.20	14.80	14.50	14.20	14.00	13.60
5	13.30	11.40	10.70	10.30	10.10	9.72	9.55	9.13
6	10.90	9.15	8.47	8.10	7.87	7.56	7.40	6.99
7	9.55	7.85	7.19	6.84	6.62	6.31	6.16	5.75
8	8.65	7.01	6.37	6.03	5.81	5.52	5.36	4.96
9	8.02	6.42	5.80	5.47	5.26	4.96	4.81	4.42
10	7.56	5.99	5.39	5.06	4.85	4.56	4.41	4.01
11	7.21	5.67	5.07	4.74	4.54	4.25	4.10	3.71
12	6.93	5.41	4.82	4.50	4.30	4.01	3.86	3.47
15	6.36	4.89	4.32	4.00	3.80	3.52	3.37	2.98
20	5.85	4.43	3.87	3.56	3.37	3.09	2.94	2.54
24	5.61	4.22	3.67	3.36	3.17	2.89	2.74	2.33
30	5.39	4.02	3.47	3.17	2.98	2.70	2.55	2.13
40	5.18	3.83	3.29	2.99	2.80	2.52	2.37	1.94
60	4.98	3.65	3.12	2.82	2.63	2.35	2.20	1.75
120	4.79	3.48	2.96	2.66	2.47	2.19	2.03	1.56
8	4.61	3.32	2.80	2.51	2.32	2.04	1.88	1.36

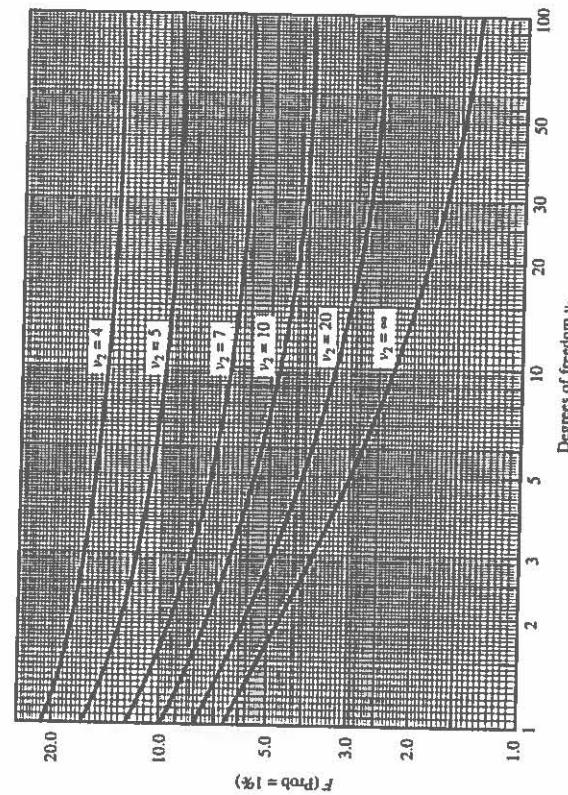


FIGURE C.7  
 Test values of  $F(v_1, v_2)$  versus the numbers of degrees of freedom  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  for a probability  
 $P_F(F; v_1, v_2) = 0.01$  of exceeding  $F$ .

TABLE C.8  
 $P_T(x; \mu, \sigma)$  versus  $t = |x - \mu|/\sigma$ ; Integral of Student's  $t$  distribution between  
 $x = \bar{x} - ts_\mu$  and  $\bar{x} + ts_\mu$ , expressed in percent.

$t$	$v = N - 1$														Gaussian probability	
	2	3	4	5	6	8	10	12	16	20	25	30	35	40	50	
0.6	39.1	40.9	41.9	42.5	43.0	43.5	43.8	44.0	44.3	44.5	44.6	44.7	44.8	44.8	44.9	45.1
0.7	44.4	46.6	47.8	48.5	49.0	49.6	50.0	50.3	50.6	50.8	51.0	51.1	51.1	51.2	51.3	51.6
0.8	49.3	51.8	53.2	54.0	54.6	55.3	55.8	56.1	56.5	56.7	56.9	57.0	57.1	57.2	57.3	57.6
0.9	53.7	56.6	58.1	59.1	59.7	60.6	61.1	61.4	61.9	62.1	62.3	62.5	62.6	62.7	62.8	63.2
1.0	57.8	60.9	62.6	63.7	64.4	65.3	65.9	66.3	66.8	67.1	67.3	67.5	67.6	67.7	67.8	68.3
1.1	61.4	64.8	66.7	67.9	68.7	69.7	70.3	70.7	71.2	71.6	71.8	72.0	72.1	72.2	72.3	72.9
1.2	64.7	68.4	70.4	71.6	72.5	73.6	74.2	74.7	75.2	75.6	75.9	76.0	76.2	76.3	76.4	77.0
1.3	67.7	71.6	73.7	75.0	75.9	77.0	77.7	78.2	78.8	79.2	79.5	79.7	79.8	79.9	80.0	80.6
1.4	70.4	74.4	76.6	78.0	78.9	80.1	80.8	81.3	81.9	82.3	82.6	82.8	83.0	83.1	83.2	83.8
1.5	72.8	77.0	79.2	80.6	81.6	82.8	83.6	84.1	84.7	85.1	85.4	85.6	85.7	85.9	86.0	86.6
1.6	75.0	79.2	81.5	83.0	83.9	85.2	85.9	86.4	87.1	87.5	87.8	88.0	88.1	88.3	88.4	89.0
1.7	76.9	81.3	83.6	85.0	86.0	87.3	88.0	88.5	89.2	89.5	89.9	90.1	90.2	90.3	90.5	91.1
1.8	78.7	83.1	85.4	86.8	87.8	89.1	89.8	90.3	90.9	91.3	91.6	91.8	92.0	92.1	92.2	92.8
1.9	80.2	84.7	87.0	88.4	89.4	90.6	91.3	91.8	92.4	92.8	93.1	93.3	93.4	93.5	93.7	94.3
2.0	81.7	86.1	88.4	89.8	90.8	92.0	92.7	93.1	93.7	94.1	94.4	94.5	94.7	94.8	94.9	95.4
2.1	83.0	87.4	89.7	91.0	92.0	93.1	93.8	94.3	94.8	95.1	95.4	95.6	95.7	95.8	95.9	96.4
2.2	84.1	88.5	90.8	92.1	93.0	94.1	94.8	95.2	95.7	96.0	96.3	96.4	96.6	96.6	96.8	97.2
2.3	85.2	89.5	91.7	93.0	93.9	95.0	95.6	96.0	96.5	96.8	97.0	97.1	97.3	97.3	97.4	97.9
2.4	86.2	90.4	92.6	93.9	94.7	95.7	96.3	96.7	97.1	97.4	97.6	97.7	97.8	97.9	98.0	98.4
2.5	87.1	91.3	93.3	94.6	95.4	96.3	96.9	97.2	97.6	97.9	98.1	98.2	98.3	98.3	98.4	98.8
2.6	87.9	92.0	94.0	95.2	95.9	96.8	97.4	97.7	98.1	98.3	98.5	98.6	98.6	98.7	98.8	99.1
2.7	88.6	92.6	94.6	95.7	96.5	97.3	97.8	98.1	98.4	98.6	98.8	98.9	99.0	99.1	99.2	99.5
2.8	89.3	93.2	95.1	96.2	96.9	97.7	98.1	98.4	98.7	98.9	99.0	99.1	99.2	99.2	99.3	99.6
2.9	89.9	93.8	95.8	96.6	97.3	98.0	98.4	98.7	99.0	99.1	99.2	99.3	99.4	99.4	99.5	99.7
3.0	90.5	94.3	96.0	97.0	97.6	98.3	98.7	98.9	99.2	99.3	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.6	99.6	99.7
3.2	91.5	95.1	96.7	97.6	98.2	98.7	99.1	99.2	99.4	99.6	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.8	99.9
3.4	92.4	95.8	97.3	98.1	98.6	99.1	99.3	99.5	99.6	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9
3.6	93.1	96.3	97.7	98.5	98.9	99.3	99.5	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0
3.8	93.7	96.8	98.1	98.8	99.1	99.5	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
4.0	94.3	97.2	98.4	99.0	99.3	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: The Gaussian probability for each value of  $t$  is listed in the last column.

## APPENDIX D

### HISTOGRAMS AND GRAPHS

Graphs of experimental data and of theoretical predictions have always been important tools for scientists, in both the actual performance of research and in presentations of results. In recent years we have seen a proliferation of graphics displays as fast inexpensive computers and printers have facilitated the display-making process. Scientists have benefited from the new techniques and equipment, with many excellent commercial programs available for creating high-quality scientific graphics suitable for publication.

In science, the object is to present results in a straightforward manner so that relevant points are illustrated clearly and without bias. Graphs with suppressed zeros, which are common in advertisements, are not often seen in scientific papers. Bar graphs tend to be simple histograms rather than the multibar, brightly colored displays of magazines and newspapers. In fact, although the use of color is growing, especially in direct publication on the Internet, few scientific preprints and papers are printed in color, although discrete use can clarify graphical presentations significantly. Error bars, which are rare indeed in advertisements, are essential in a scientific presentation. Exaggerated perspective and distorted scales have very limited use in scientific work whereas semilogarithmic plots that are often used in science are not often seen in business publications.

It is often convenient to have graphics routines that are part of a simulation or an analysis program, rather than to use a separate graphing program. For example, in a Monte Carlo simulation, it is essential to be able to produce histograms and data graphs quickly at each stage of the study. Generations of scientists have made simple histograms on monitors or printers to make preliminary studies of their data. We provide some simple routines of this type in the source files associated with this book.

More elegant and detailed graphs can be created by using the graphics features of particular programming languages, and those provided by data analysis programs and spreadsheets. Such programs can produce high-quality graphs and charts suitable for presentations and publications. Many of the graphs in this book, such as those in Chapter 2, were created by programs written in Fortran and Pascal. Others, such as those in Chapter 11, were created in Origin, a very powerful data analysis program with strong graphing features.

### D.1 MAKING A GRAPH

Whether a scientific graph is produced by hand or by computer, there are several basic principles that should be followed. The graph should be large enough to be read and understood easily, with appropriately proportioned abscissa and ordinate. Axes should be labeled with large, clean letters, and the axes scales should be clearly indicated. If more than a single function is displayed, or if both data and curves are displayed, a box, or legend, may be superimposed on the graph to indicate the meaning of different symbols. In scientific journals, a description of the graph is generally included as text below the abscissa label. In internal papers and preprints, these descriptions are often collected in a separate section of the paper. For visual presentation, some descriptive material may be included in a box on the graph, but it is important that text be large enough to be clearly legible. One should avoid scattering too much material over any graph, which gives a busy appearance. A properly made graph should not require many words of explanation.

It is generally advisable to plot the independent variable as the abscissa and the dependent variable as the ordinate. However, if the independent data have a high degree of uncertainty while the corresponding measurements of the dependent data can be made with high precision, then it might be wise to interchange the two axes to simplify least-squares fitting.

Reasonable, convenient values and intervals should be chosen for the scale marks on the two axes. For example, if abscissa values range from 0 to 400, it might be reasonable to divide the  $x$ -axis into eight parts and thus to mark the abscissa with major, labeled ticks at 0, 100, 200, 300, and 400, with minor ticks half-way between. Dividing the axis into six parts and putting ticks at 66.7, 133.3, and so forth, would make it very difficult for a reader to interpret.

In general, error bars should be included for ordinate variables except for simple histograms where the text clearly specifies that the uncertainties are statistical and therefore given by the square root of the value of the coordinate. Unless otherwise noted, error bars generally indicate the standard deviation. Error bars usually are not necessary for abscissa variables. However, if appropriate, they may be drawn to indicate the resolution of the measurement or setting, or they may simply indicate the range of the variable over which data have been collected or grouped, as in the case of the width of a histogram bin. The text must explain the meaning of such error bars. If no error bar is shown for the abscissa, then it is useful to draw a circle or other symbol at each data point to indicate the position of the central values of each coordinate pair.

### D.2 GRAPHICAL ESTIMATION OF PARAMETERS

A graph of  $y$  versus  $x$  often provides a convenient way of estimating parameters of the relation  $y = y(x)$ . The simplest example is the straight line

$$y = A + Bx \quad (\text{D.1})$$

where the slope and the intercept can be estimated by making a graph and drawing a straight line that relates  $y$  to  $x$ . Clearly the better way to handle this problem is by a least-squares fitting technique, but the graphical method can be useful in both research and instructional laboratories for obtaining quick preliminary estimates of experimental results.

If we wish to find from the graph the uncertainty in our estimate of the slope, then we should attempt to draw two lines through the data, corresponding to estimates of the largest and smallest *reasonable* slopes,  $s_1$  and  $s_2$ . We should take account in the uncertainties in the data points, if they are available, and, because we are trying to estimate the uncertainty as a standard deviation, we should attempt to draw these two lines to bracket about two-thirds of the data points—not all the points. Making this estimate is often difficult and subjective, especially if there are few points and they exhibit a lot of scatter. The mean slope  $s$  is just the average of our two slopes,

$$s = (s_1 + s_2)/2 \quad (\text{D.2})$$

and an approximate estimate of the uncertainty is the magnitude of half the difference

$$\sigma = |s_1 - s_2|/2 \quad (\text{D.3})$$

To gain practice in determining parameters from a graph, it is a worthwhile exercise to estimate the parameters from the graph and to compare those estimates with the results of a least-squares fit to the data. We should note that the two lines selected to give a reasonable estimate of the uncertainty in the slope may not be the same two lines we might draw to obtain a reasonable estimate of the uncertainty in the intercept. Figure D.1 displays the data of Figure 1.1b, with lines bracketing the points to show (a) reasonable ranges for estimating the intercept, and (b) reasonable ranges for estimating the slope. These lines were actually calculated from the results of a least-squares fit of the equation  $Y = A + Bx$  to the data, which yielded the parameters  $A$  and  $B$  and their uncertainties  $\sigma_A$  and  $\sigma_B$ . We calculated the two lines in Figure D.1a from the equations  $Y = (A \pm \sigma_A) + Bx$  and those in Figure D.1b from the equations  $Y = A + (B \pm \sigma_B)x$ . We note that these lines are just particular examples of an infinite number of such lines corresponding to all combinations of the slope and intercept within one standard deviation ranges, and in any given graph, a decision must be made on which lines to draw. In particular, allowing the lines to intersect at the intercept as in Figure D.1b may not give the best solution, although it can be a good starting point.

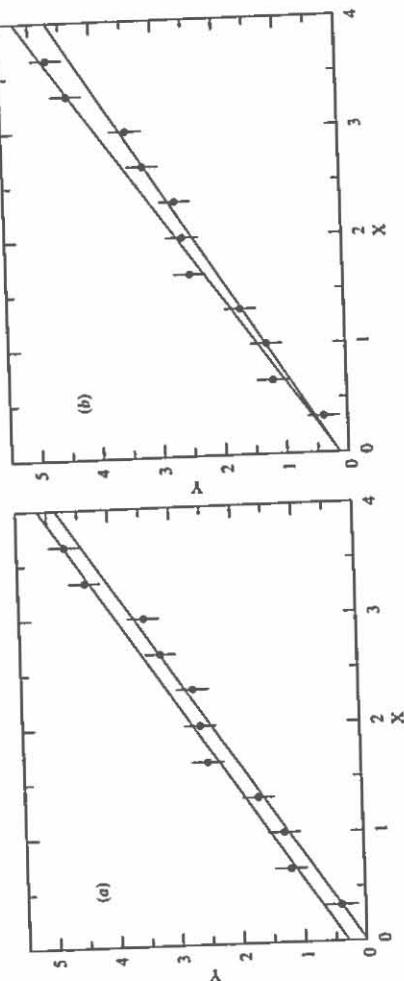


FIGURE D.1  
Results of a least-squares fit of a straight line to the data of Figure 1.1b plotted to show separately the range of  $\pm 1$  standard deviation.  
(a) in the intercept, and (b) in the slope. Units on the axes are arbitrary.

### Semilogarithmic Graphs

When dealing with an exponential decay function, it is convenient to display the activity as a function of time on a semilogarithmic graph. That is, if the relation is

$$y(t) = y_0 e^{-\alpha t} \quad (D.4)$$

we plot a graph of  $\log(y)$  versus  $x$ . Fortunately semilogarithmic graph paper is readily available so that it is not necessary actually to calculate any logarithms to make this plot. We merely have to select paper with the appropriate number of powers of 10 for our plot, label the axes, and plot  $y$  versus  $x$  on the graph. Such a graph is illustrated in Figure 8.1 for Example 8.1.

Semilogarithmic graph paper comes in various *cycles*, corresponding to the number of *decades* or powers of 10 that can be plotted on a single sheet. Thus, for example, on three-cycle paper we can plot  $y$  values that range from 1 to 1000 (or from 0.01 to 10.0, etc.). Note that we can never plot  $y$  values that are zero or negative on semilogarithmic paper. This is a problem when dealing with subtracted distributions, such as the counting experiment of Example 8.1, where, if we wish to plot the number of counts remaining after we have subtracted the average background from cosmic rays, we discover that, at large times, some bins have negative net counts. Those points, of course, cannot be displayed on a semilogarithmic graph. A full, least-squares fit to the total, unsubtracted data sample is clearly the right way to solve this problem, but if we are to attempt a graphical solution, we should be aware of this limitation.

We can determine from our data the parameter  $a$  in Equation (D.4) by finding the slope of the straight line on the semilogarithmic graph just as we found the slope on ordinary graph paper for a simple linear plot. Note that when calculating the slope we must compute the logarithms of the  $y$  values. Thus, if the two ends of the straight line have coordinates  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$ , the slope is given by

$$s = \frac{\ln(y_2) - \ln(y_1)}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{\ln(y_2/y_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \quad (D.5)$$

The uncertainty in the slope can again be determined by drawing two straight lines that bracket the mean slope, although the logarithmic form of the plot decreases the accuracy in this determination.

### Full-Logarithmic Graphs

If we wish to display a power relation of the form  $y = Ax^n$ , we may make a plot of  $y$  versus  $x$  on full-logarithmic paper or *log-log* paper. The result will be a straight line with slope  $n$  and we can obtain the slope, and therefore the exponent  $n$ , from the graph. This technique could be used, for example, to check the  $1/r^2$  law for radiation intensity as a function of distance, by plotting a graph of intensity versus distance on log-log paper.

In Section 7.4 we discuss variable transformation as a method of converting a nonlinear fitting problem to a linear problem, and the distortions that may be

introduced into the uncertainties in the process. Plotting on semilogarithmic or full-logarithmic paper is equivalent to such a variable change and we should attempt to compensate for these distortions, if necessary.

### D.3 HISTOGRAMS AND FREQUENCY PLOTS

If we wish to display the frequency distribution of a measured variable  $x$ , then a histogram is generally the simplest and clearest form of presentation. For example, we may have observed particles emitted in the decay of an unstable state and wish to present the number detected in successive time intervals as in Example 2.4. Alternatively, we may have measured secondary particles in a scattering experiment and wish to display the distribution of their energies. In such cases, we can display the frequency distribution of the individual measurements, or *events*, as a histogram of  $f(x)$  versus  $x$ , where  $f(x_i)$  is the number of events that have values of  $x$  between  $x_i$  and  $x_i + \Delta x$ , and  $\Delta x$  is the histogram interval or bin width.

An alternate procedure for displaying binned data, which is especially useful for distributions with large numbers of bins, or for data with nonstatistical uncertainties, is to make a regular graph of frequency versus the measured variable, a *frequency plot*, with the data points indicated by crosses and uncertainties by error bars. This procedure is especially convenient when there are many bins or when error bars must be displayed, as illustrated in Figure 8.1.

A convenient procedure for finding the frequency distribution of (or *binning*) a continuous variable  $x$  is to label a bin with a tick mark at the lower limit  $x_i$  of the bin and to count within a bin those events for which  $x_i \leq x < x_i + \Delta x$ . This is suitable for most, but not all, data sets. Choice of the bin width depends on a number of factors. In the ideal situation with a large quantity of high-precision data, the bin width could be chosen to be very small. However, in real experiments, the number of events may not be very large and each  $x$  coordinate will have some uncertainty. As a general rule, the bin width should not be less than the uncertainty in the measured variable  $x$  and one should be very wary of any data structure that is narrower than the uncertainty in  $x$ . If the number of events is relatively small, then even wider binning may be necessary. With such data, the competition between statistical significance and resolution of narrow effects in the histogram may become important. A histogram with less than ten events in its highest bin is not generally very informative, considering that the uncertainty in that bin will be over 30%.

A problem arises when the bin width of a histogram is close to or equal to the least count of the data. This can happen when the data are integral numbers or with data that have been collected by a digital device. The previous suggestions that the histogram bins be labeled with the lower limit at the left of the bin may not be reasonable for such data, and it may be better to place tick marks at the center of the bins.

**EXAMPLE D.1** A student in an introductory physics laboratory attempts to measure the value of the acceleration of gravity by timing a ball that she drops 50 times from a height of 3 m. She uses an electronic timer with a least count of 0.01 s. The

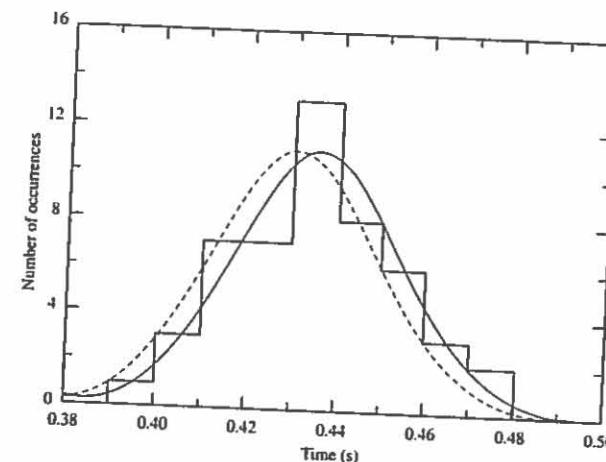


FIGURE D.2

Histogram of measured times plotted with the bin width equal to the least count of a digital clock. The numbers on the abscissa correspond to the lower time limit of the bin. The dashed Gaussian curve was calculated from the mean and standard deviation of the measurements. The solid curve was calculated with the mean increased by half the bin width to correct for the truncation of the data.

timer starts when the ball is released and stops when it hits the floor. Uncertainties in the measurements come mainly from variations in the starting and stopping times.

The student's measurements have been plotted in the histogram of Figure D.2 where the bin width is equal to the least count (0.01 s). We assume that the digital clock truncates the measured times so each time measurement corresponds to the left-hand edge of a bin and the actual value of the time is somewhere within the bin limits. Thus, in this case it is appropriate to indicate the lower value of the bin limit at the left-hand edge of the bin.

The dashed Gaussian curve was calculated from the mean ( $i = 0.431$  s) and standard deviation ( $s = 0.0184$ ) of the measurements. The curve clearly is shifted to the left relative to the data. The discrepancy is caused by the fact that we neglected to correct for the truncation of the data by the digital clock. To correct the mean we must add to it half the width of a bin to obtain  $i = 0.431 + 0.005 = 0.436$  s. The Gaussian curve, calculated from the corrected mean, is shown as a solid line.

#### Normalized Curves on Histograms

When superimposing a theoretical curve on a data histogram, we often want to scale the area of the curve to that of the histogram, or to *normalize* the curve. The required scale factor can be determined in the following way. We assume that the curve has been calculated from a probability distribution function that is normalized

to unit area, such as the Gaussian probability function of Equation (2.23). The area of one event on the histogram is equal to the bin width  $\Delta x$  multiplied by a unit interval on the ordinate. Thus, the total area of the histogram is equal to the bin width multiplied by the total number of events ( $A = N\Delta x$ ). To scale the curve to the area of the histogram, we multiply the values  $p(x_i)$ , calculated from the equation of the probability distribution, by the product of the number of events on the plot and the bin width, so that the plotted curve becomes

$$y(x_i) = p(x_i) \times N\Delta x \quad (\text{D.6})$$

#### D.4 GRAPHICS ROUTINES

We include source files on the website for routines which can be used to make simple graph and histograms. Most of the sample computer routines in this book make calls to these routines.

**Program D.1 QUIKSCRIP** (website) accepts data that define graphs and histograms and writes a script file that can be read and interpreted by the executable program **QDISPLAY.EXE** (website) to produce displays on the monitor. Details of the calling procedures can be seen in the routine **PLOTIT** in the program unit **\CHAPT-6\FITUTIL** (website) called from the program **\CHAPT-6\FITLINE** (APPENDIX E). For this program QuikScrp writes an output file **FITLINE.SCR**.

**Program D.2 QUIKHIST** (website) collects data and presents a character-based histogram on the monitor. Printed output is also available. **PROGRAM 5.2: \CHAPT-5\POISDCAY** illustrates use of this program.

**Program D.3 QDISPLAY.EXE** (website) is an executable program that reads a script file written by **QUIKSCRIP** and interprets the file to create a graphics display on the monitor. The command line instruction for running **QDISPLAY** with the script file produced by the program **FITLINE** is **QDISPLAY FITLINE**.

## APPENDIX E

### COMPUTER ROUTINES IN FORTRAN

This appendix lists several routines that illustrate the material of the text. The routines are listed in Fortran 77, an old, but quite readable version of that ever-popular programming language. All routines have been tested; however, most of them require subsidiary routines and drivers that are not listed. Complete programs and routines are available on the Web in C++ as well as in Fortran. Readers are urged to log onto the website at [www.mhhe.com/bevington](http://www.mhhe.com/bevington) to download these programs.

We have tried to keep the routines simple, trading efficiency for clarity where necessary. To make explicit which modules are required to form a complete program, and to avoid the need for command strings to link the object programs into an executable program, we have chosen to use the **INCLUDE** statement to present the compiler with a single source file from which to compile a single object module incorporating all required routines. We also use the **INCLUDE** statement to copy blocks of **COMMON** and other variable-defining statements into routines.

Because readers may not be familiar with Fortran, we list a few basic principles that should help in understanding the instructions and following their logic. This list includes only a selection of language elements that appear in the sample programs.

#### STATEMENTS

The format of Fortran statements was defined in terms of the 80-column Hollerith card:

column 1: blank or with a "C" to indicate that the information on the line is a "Comment";

columns 2-5: statement label (a number);  
 column 6: reserved for a single digit number to indicate a continuation of the statement from the previous line;  
 columns 7-72: program statements;  
 columns 73-80: not used.

Although it is not necessary to follow rigorously this scheme with a modern interactive compiler on a personal computer (for example, "tabs" can be used), the general order must be followed.

### PROGRAM FLOW

Program flow can be controlled by IF statements, by IF THEN statements (with ELSEIF and ENDIF), by DO AND DOWHILE statements that may refer to a termination label (all statements labels are numerical) or to the DO terminator, ENDDO, and by GOTO statements. Excessive use of the GOTO statement can lead to very confusing programs. In order to facilitate following the program flow, we have indented groups of instructions that are accessed through a control statement, such as IF THEN, or DO.

**Examples**

```
DO 100 I = 1 TO 20    DO I = 1 TO 20    X = 1
  X = I                  X = I                DO WHILE X .LE. 20
  Y(I) = SQRT(X)        Y = SQRT(X)        Y = SQRT(X)
  100 CONTINUE          ENDDO              X = X + 1
                                ENDDO
```

### VARIABLE DEFINITIONS

Fortran does not require the rigorous variable typing of newer languages. As default typing, variables with names beginning with I, J, K, L, M, or N are defined as INTEGER; variable names beginning with other letters are identified as REAL. However, we have attempted to identify most of the variables in the routines and in some instances have violated the default typing for program clarity.

**Examples**

```
INTEGER S1, S3, N/10/
REAL X, T, TPRIME, SIGMAT/1.0/
LOGICAL NEXTVAR/.FALSE./
```

Note that the variables N, SIGMAT and, NEXTVAR in the preceding examples have been initialized to the values 10, 1.0, and FALSE, respectively. The DATA statement also can be used to initialize variables. DATA SQRTPI/1.7724539/

Other types include:

CHARACTER  
 COMPLEX  
 DOUBLE PRECISION

Variables defined in named COMMON statements are available to any routine that includes the statement. Local variables can be defined in DIMENSION STATEMENTS. Array sizes may be defined in PARAMETER statements or directly in a COMMON or DIMENSION statement.

**Examples**

```
PARAMETER(MAXPARAM 10)
COMMON/FITVARS/ NPTS, M, NFREE, MARRAY(MAXPARAM),
ZARRAY(200)
DIMENSION NPLAN(30).
```

Fortran has several types of subprograms that can be called from another routine: SUBROUTINE and FUNCTION are the most common. Data types defined in a subprogram must be consistent with the definitions in the calling routine. A function name must specify its own data type.

**Examples**

```
CALL SETRANDOMDEVIATESEED(S1, S2, S3)
TPRIME = GAUSSSMEAR(T,SIGMAT)
REAL FUNCTION GAUSSSMEAR(X,DX)
SUBROUTINE SETRANDOMDEVIATESEED(SA,SB,SC)
```

The INCLUDE statement copies the specified file into the body of the program.

**Example**

```
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR'
```

As well as comment statements that begin with a "C" in column 1, comments may appear in statement lines, preceded by the exclamation point (!).

**E.1 Routines from Chapter 5**

```
C PROGRAM 5.1: \CHAPT-5\HOTROD.FOR
C SIMULATED VARIATION OF TEMPERATURE ALONG A METAL ROD
C 10 CM ROD-TEMPERATURE IS ZERO AT ONE END, 100 DEGREES C AT OTHER.
C USES MONTELIB

PROGRAM HOTROD
  INTEGER S1, S2, S3, N/10/      !--- GENERATE 10 POINTS AT 1 CM INTERVALS
  REAL X, T, TPRIME, SIGMAT/1.0/ !--- WITH AN UNCERTAINTY OF +/- 1 DEGREE
  REAL GAUSSMEAR
  S1 = 1171
  S2 = 343
  S3 = 1322
  CALL SETRANDOMDEVIATESEED(S1, S2, S3)
  PRINT *, ' HOT ROD TEST DATA, SIGMA=1, SIGMAT'
  X = -0.5
  DO 100 I = 1, N
    X = X + 1.0      !--- POSITION ALONG ROD
    T = 10.0*X       !--- CALCULATE MEAN TEMPERATURE AT POINT
    TPRIME = GAUSSMEAR(T, SIGMAT)      !--- SMEAR IT
    PRINT *, I, X, T, TPRIME
100 CONTINUE
  CALL EXIT
END
INCLUDE C\CHAPT-5\MONTELIB.FOR

C PROGRAM 5.2: \CHAPT-5\POISDCAY.FOR
C SIMULATED DECAY OF AN UNSTABLE STATE.
C USES QUIKHIST, MONTELIB

PROGRAM POISDCAY      !--- GENERATE A 200-EVENT POISSON HISTOGRAM
  REAL LO/0/, INT/1/, HI/2/
  INTEGER NEVENTS/400/, PoissonDeviate
  REAL MU/8.4/
  INTEGER S1, S2, S3, I, K
  REAL X
  S1 = 1171
  S2 = 343
  S3 = 1322
  CALL SETRANDOMDEVIATESEED(S1, S2, S3)
  CALL HISTINIT('')      !---OUTPUT FILE NAME OR '' FOR MONITOR OUTPUT
  CALL HISTSETUP(1,LO,INT,HI,'POISSON - COUNTS/10 SEC')
  K=PoissonDeviate(MU,.TRUE.)      !--- INITIALIZE = MAKE THE TABLE
  DO 100 I = 1, NEVENTS
    K = PoissonDeviate(MU,.FALSE.)
    X = K
    CALL HISTOGRAM(1,X)
100 CONTINUE
  CALL HistDisplayAll(.FALSE.) !DUMMY ARG-COMPAT. WITH QUIKSCR
  CALL EXIT
END
INCLUDE \CHAPT-5\MONTELIB.FOR
INCLUDE \APPEND-D\QUIKHIST.FOR !REPLACE WITH QUIKSCR FOR GRAPHICS
```

**C PROGRAM 5.3: \CHAPT-5\MONTELIB.FOR**  
**C MONTE CARLO LIBRARY ROUTINES**

```
SUBROUTINE SETRANDOMDEVIATESEED(SA,SB,SC)
INCLUDE \CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR'
```

```
INTEGER SA, SB, SC
SEED1 = SA
SEED2 = SB
SEED3 = SC
RETURN
END
```

```
SUBROUTINE GETRANDOMDEVIATESEED(SA,SB,SC)
INCLUDE \CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR'
```

```
INTEGER SA, SB, SC
SA = SEED1
SB = SEED2
SC = SEED3
RETURN
END
```

```
REAL FUNCTION RANDOMDEVIATE()           !--- WICHMANN AND HILL
INCLUDE \CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR'
```

```
REAL TEMP
SEED1 = 171*MOD(SEED1,177) - 2*(SEED1 / 177)
IF (SEED1 .LT. 0) SEED1 = SEED1 + 30269
SEED2 = 172*MOD(SEED2,178) - 35*(SEED2 / 178)
IF (SEED2 .LT. 0) SEED2 = SEED2 + 30307
SEED3 = 170*MOD(SEED3,178) - 63*(SEED3 / 178)
IF (SEED3 .LT. 0) SEED3 = SEED3 + 30323
TEMP = SEED1/30269. + SEED2/30307. + SEED3/30323.
RANDOMDEVIATE = TEMP-AINT(TEMP)
RETURN
END
```

**C -FIND A RANDOM VARIABLE DRAWN FROM THE GAUSSIAN DISTRIBUTION-**  
**REAL FUNCTION RANDOMGAUSSDEVIATE()** !--- BOX-MUELLER

```
INCLUDE \CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR'
LOGICAL NEXTVAR/.FALSE./
REAL R, F, Z1, Z2, X1RANGAUSS, RANDOMDEVIATE
IF (NEXTVAR) THEN
  NEXTVAR = .FALSE.
  RANDOMGAUSSDEVIATE = X2RANGAUSS
```

```
ELSE
100   Z1 = -1 + 2*RANDOMDEVIATE()
      Z2 = -1 + 2*RANDOMDEVIATE()
      R = Z1*Z1 + Z2*Z2
      IF (R .GE. 1) GOTO 100
      F = SQRT(-2* ALOG(R)/R)
      X1RANGAUSS = Z1*F
      X2RANGAUSS = Z2*F
      RANDOMGAUSSDEVIATE = X1RANGAUSS
```

```

NEXTVAR = .TRUE.
ENDIF
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION GAUSSSMEAR(X,DX)
REAL X, DX
REAL RANDOMGAUSSDEVIATE
GAUSSSMEAR = X + RANDOMGAUSSDEVIATE() * DX
RETURN
END

C -RECURSION METHOD FOR POISSON PROBABILITY (P(N,M). TO FIND P(N,M) MUST
C ALL WITH SUCCESSIVE ARGUMENTS J=0,1..N. MAX MU=85, NO LIMIT ON X
REAL FUNCTION POISSONRECUR(J, M)
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR'
INTEGER J
REAL M
IF (J.EQ.0) THEN
  POISS = EXP(-M)
ELSE
  POISS = (POISS*M)/J      !--- POISS = (M^J)EXP(-MU/J)
ENDIF
POISSONRECUR = POISS
RETURN
END

C -FIND A RANDOM VARIABLE DRAWN FROM THE POISSON DISTRIBUTION
INTEGER FUNCTION POISSONDEVIATE(MU, INIT)
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR'
INTEGER I, X, N
REAL MU, P, R, POISSONRECUR
LOGICAL INIT
IF (INIT) THEN           !--- MAKE TABLE OF SUMS ---
  N = AINT(MU + 8* SQRT(MU)) !---IE., 8*SIGMA
  IF (N.GT. MAXBINS) THEN
    PRINT *, 'OVERFLOW ERROR IN ROUTINE POISSON DEVIATE'
    CALL EXIT
  ENDIF
  PTABLE(0) = POISSONRECUR(0,MU)
  DO 100 I = 1, N-1
    P = POISSONRECUR(I,MU)
    PTABLE(I) = PTABLE(I-1)+P
  100 CONTINUE
  PTABLE(N) = 1             !--- ASSURE UNIT PROBABILITY ---
ELSE
  X = -1
  R = RANDOMDEVIATE()
  200 X = I + X
  IF (PTABLE(X) .LE. R) GOTO 200 !--- REPEAT UNTIL PTABLE(X) >= X
  POISSONDEVIATE = X
END

```

```

ENDIF
RETURN
END

```

**PROGRAM 5.4: \CHAPT-5\DECAY.FOR (WEBSITE)**  
**C ILLUSTRATION OF EXAMPLE 5.7**

```

C PROGRAM 5.5: \CHAPT-5\MONTEINC.FOR
C COMMON FOR MONTE CARLO LIBRARY
COMMON/MC/ SEED1, SEED2, SEED3, X2RANGAUSS, POISS, PTABLE
PARAMETER (MAXBINS = 100)
INTEGER SEED1, SEED2, SEED3
REAL X2RANGAUSS, PTABLE(0:MAXBINS)
REAL*8 POISS
C-----END MONTEINC -----

```

## E.2 Routines from Chapter 6

```

C PROGRAM 6.1: \CHAPT-6 FITLINE.FOR
C LEAST-SQUARES FIT TO A STRAIGHT LINE BY METHOD OF DETERMINANTS
C USES FITUTIL
PROGRAM FITLINE
C-----MAIN ROUTINE-----
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6 FITVARS.FOR'
CHARACTER*40 TITLE
CHARACTER*I VORG, READCHAR
INTEGER I
REAL DET, CHI2, CALCCHISQ
M = 2                                         !--- FIND 2 PARAMETERS
PRINT *, '(V)OLTS OR (G)EIGER? '
VORG = READCHAR()
IF (VORG .EQ. 'V') THEN
  CALL FETCHDATA('CHAPT-6VOLTS.DAT',TITLE)   !--- EXAMPLE 6.1
ELSEIF ((VORG .EQ. 'G') .OR. (VORG .EQ. 'G')) THEN
  CALL FETCHDATA('CHAPT-6GEIGER.DAT',TITLE)   !--- EXAMPLE 6.2
  DO 100 I = 1, NPTS
    X(I) = I/X(I)**2                         !--- FITTING I/R^2
  100 CONTINUE
ENDIF
CALL LINEFIT(DET)
CALL CALCULATEY          !--- FILL ARRAY YCALC FOR CALCCHISQ AND PLOTIT
CHI2 = CALCCHISQ()
CALL OUTPUT(.FALSE., 'CON', CHI2, TITLE) !--- FALSE FOR NO ERROR MATRIX
IF (VORG .EQ. 'V') THEN
  CALL PLOTIT('FITLINE.SCR',.FALSE.,.FALSE., !--- SCRPT FILE, LOG?, SPLINE?
  1  'C', ABS(X(2)-X(1))/20, !--- DATA CIRCLE, RAD OF CIRCLE
  2  0.0, 0.0, 100.0, 3.0, !--- X1,Y1,X2,Y2

```

```

3   5, 6,          I--- # X-DIV, # Y-DIV
4   'X (CM)', 'POTENTIAL DIFFERENCE (VOLTS)' I--- AXIS LABELS
ELSEIF (VORG .EQ. 'G') THEN
  CALL PLOTIT('FITLINE.SCR',.FALSE.,.FALSE.,
1   'C', ABS(X(2)-X(1))/50, 0.0, 0.0, 30.0, 1000.0, 6, 5,
2   'SQUARED INVERSE DISTANCE (1/M^2)', 'NUMBER OF COUNTS PER SEC')
ENDIF
READ *
CALL CLOSEGRAPHICS
END

SUBROUTINE CALCULATEY      I--- FILLS ARRAY YCALC
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
INTEGER I
DO 100 I= 1 , NPTS
  YCALC(I) = A(1) + A(2)*X(I)
100 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION CALCCHISQ() I--- ASSUMES ARRAY YCALC HAS BEEN FILLED
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
INTEGER I
REAL CHI2
CHI2=0.
DO 100 I = 1 , NPTS
  CHI2 = CHI2 + ((Y(I)-YCALC(I))/SIGY(I))**2
100 CONTINUE
CALCCHISQ = CHI2
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE LINEFIT(DET)
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
REAL DET
INTEGER I
REAL SUMWT, SUMX, SUMY, SUMX2, SUMY2, SUMXY, WEIGHT
SUMWT = 0
SUM   = 0
SUMY  = 0
SUMX2 = 0
SUMY2 = 0
SUMXY = 0
C ----- ACCUMULATE WEIGHTED SUMS -----
DO 100 I= 1 , NPTS
  WEIGHT = 1/SIGY(I)**2
  SUMWT = SUMWT + WEIGHT
  SUMX  = SUMX  + WEIGHT * X(I)
  SUMY  = SUMY  + WEIGHT * Y(I)
  SUMX2 = SUMX2 + WEIGHT * X(I)**2
  SUMY2 = SUMY2 + WEIGHT * Y(I)**2
  SUMXY = SUMXY + WEIGHT * X(I)*Y(I)
100 CONTINUE

```

```

SUMY  = SUMY + WEIGHT * Y(I)
SUMX2 = SUMX2 + WEIGHT * X(I)**2
SUMY2 = SUMY2 + WEIGHT * Y(I)**2
SUMXY = SUMXY + WEIGHT * X(I)*Y(I)
100 CONTINUE
C ---CALCULATE THE PARAMETERS - CUT OUT IF DETERMINANT IS NOT > 0 ---
DET = SUMWT * SUMX2 - SUMX * SUMX
IF (DET .GT. 0 ) THEN
  A(1)  = (SUMX2*SUY - SUMX*SUY)/DET
  A(2)  = (SUMXY*SUY - SUMX*SUY)/DET
  SIGA(1) = SQRT(SUMX2/DET)
  SIGA(2) = SQRT(SUMWT/DET)
ELSE
  CALL ERRORABORT('DETERMINANT < OR = 0 IN LINEFIT')
ENDIF
RETURN
END
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITUTIL.FOR' ! FITUTIL INCLUDES QUIKSCR.P.FOR
```

C PROGRAM 6.2: \CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR (WEBSITE)  
C INCLUDE FILE OF CONSTANTS, VARIABLES AND ARRAYS FOR LEAST-SQUARES FITS  
C ALL GLOBAL TYPES, CONSTANTS AND VARIABLES ARE DECLARED HERE.  
C THE ARRAY LIMITS MAXDATA AND MAXPARAM CAN BE SET AS REQUIRED  
FOR PARTICULAR PROBLEMS.

C PROGRAM 6.3: \CHAPT-6\FITUTIL.FOR (WEBSITE)  
C GENERAL UTILITY ROUTINES

### E.3 Routines from Chapter 7

C PROGRAM 7.1: \CHAPT-7\MULTREGR.FOR  
C LEAST-SQUARES FIT TO A POWER SERIES AND TO LEGENDRE POLYNOMIALS.  
C USES FITFUNC7, MAKEAB7, MATRIX, FITUTIL

PROGRAM MULTREGR
C M = NUM OF PARAMETERS, NPTS=NUMBER OF DATA PAIRS,
C DATA AND UNCERTAINTIES ARE IN ARRAYS X, Y, DY.
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
COMMON /FITVARS7/PAE
CHARACTER \* 1 PAE
REAL DET, CHI2, CALCCHISQ
INTEGER I
LOGICAL SPL
CHARACTER\*I READCHAR
CHARACTER\*40 TITLE
PRINT \*, '(P)OWER SERIES, (A)LL LEGENDRE TERMS TO L = 4,'

```

PRINT *, 'OR (E)VEN LEGENDRE TERMS(L = 0,2,4).'
PRINT *, 'TYPE P,A OR E'
PAE = READCHAR()
1000 FORMAT(A1)
IF (PAE .EQ. 'P') THEN
  CALL FETCHDATA ('CHAPT-7\THERMCOU.DAT', TITLE)
  PRINT *, 'TYPE NUMBER OF PARAMETERS'
  READ *, M
ELSEIF (PAE .EQ. 'A') THEN
  CALL FETCHDATA ('CHAPT-7\LEGENDRE.DAT', TITLE)
  M = 5
ELSEIF (PAE .EQ. 'E') THEN
  CALL FETCHDATA ('CHAPT-7\LEGENDRE.DAT', TITLE)
  M = 3
ENDIF I-- PAE
CALL MAKEBETA           !-- SET UP THE LINEAR BETA MATRIX
CALL MAKEALPHA          !-- SET UP THE SQUARE ALPHA MATRIX
CALL MATINV(M, ALPHA, DET) !-- INVERT ALPH TO GET EPSILON MATRIX
CALL LINEARBYSQUARE(M,BETA,ALPHA,A) !-- BETA X EPS = PARAMETER MATRIX
CALL CALCULATEY
CHI2 = CALCCHISQ()
DO 100 I = 1, M
  SIGA(I) = SQRT(ALPHA(I,I))
100 CONTINUE
CALL OUTPUT(.TRUE., 'CON', CHI2, TITLE) !-- TRUE TO PRINT ERROR MATRIX
IF (M .GT. 2 ) THEN
  SPL = .TRUE.           !-- PLOT A CURVE
ELSE
  SPL = .FALSE.          !-- PLOT A LINE
ENDIF
IF (PAE .EQ. 'P') THEN
  CALL PLOTIT('MULTREGR.SCR', .FALSE., SPL, 1-- FILE, LOG?, SPLINE
1  'C', (X(2)-X(1))/12,    !-- DATA CIRCLES, RADIUS OF DATA CIR
2  -10., 2., 110., 4.,     !-- X1,Y1, X2,Y2
3  6, 6,                  !-- X,Y GRID MARKS
4  'TEMPERATURE (DEGREES CELSIUS)', 'VOLTAGE (MV)'
  ELSE IF ((PAE .EQ. 'A') .OR. (PAE .EQ. 'E')) THEN
    CALL PLOTIT('MULTREGR.SCR', .FALSE., TRUE.,
1  'C', (X(2)-X(1))/10, 0., 0., 180., 1500., 6, 6,
2  'THETA(DEGREES)', 'NUMBER OF COUNTS')
  ENDIF
  CALL CLOSEGRAPHICS
END
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-7\FITFUNC7.FOR'
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-7\MAKEAB7.FOR'
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITUTIL.FOR'
INCLUDE 'APPEND-B\MATRIX.FOR'

C PROGRAM 7.2: \CHAPT-7\FITFUNC7.FOR
C FITTING FUNCTIONS FOR CHAPTER 7 EXAMPLES.

```

```

REAL FUNCTION POWERFUNC(K, XX)
INTEGER K
REAL XX
REAL YY
INTEGER I
YY = 1
IF (K .GT. 1 ) THEN
  DO 100 I = 2, K
    YY = XX * YY
100 CONTINUE
ENDIF
POWERFUNC = YY
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION LEGFUNC(K, XX)
C DEFINE SEPARATE TERMS IN A SERIES, Y = A0*LO(X) + A1*L1(X) + ..
C NOTE K = 1 CORRESPONDS TO ZERO TH ORDER.
C VAR PAE : CHAR 'P'-POWER SERIES,
C 'A'-ALL LEGENDRE TERMS TO ORDER M,
C 'E'-EVEN LEGENDRE TERMS)
C
COMMON /FITVARS7/PAE
CHARACTER *1 PAE
INTEGER K
REAL XX
INTEGER KK, I
REAL C, PI/3.14159, LEGPOLY(I) !-- I.E., 0TH THRU 10TH ORDER
IF (PAE .EQ. 'E') KK = 2*K - 1
IF (PAE .EQ.'A') KK = K
C = COS(PI*XX/180)
LEGPOLY(I) = 1 !-- FOR BETTER EFFICIENCY, COULD CALC ONCE AND SAVE
IF (KK .GT. 1 ) THEN
  LEGPOLY(2) = C
  IF (KK .GT. 2 ) THEN
    DO 100 I = 3, KK
      LEGPOLY(I)=(2*I-1)*C*LEGPOLY(I-1)-(I-1)*LEGPOLY(I-2)/I
100 CONTINUE
ENDIF           !-- KK > 2
ENDIF           !-- KK > 1
LEGFUNC = LEGPOLY(KK)
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION FUNCT(K, XX)
INTEGER K
REAL XX
REAL LEGFUNC, POWERFUNC
COMMON /FITVARS7/PAE
CHARACTER *1 PAE

```

```

IF ((PAE.EQ.'A') .OR. (PAE.EQ.'E')) FUNCT = LEGFUNC(K,XX)
IF (PAE.EQ.'P') FUNCT = POWERFUNC(K,XX)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE CALCULATEY
INTEGER I, K
REAL YY, FUNCT
INCLUDE 'C:\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 I=1, NPTS
  YY = 0
  DO 200 K = 1, M
    YY = YY + A(K) * FUNCT(K,X(I))
  200 CONTINUE
  YCALC(I) = YY
100 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION CALCCHISQ() !-- ASSUMES ARRAY YCALC HAS BEEN FILLED
INTEGER I
REAL CHI2
INCLUDE 'C:\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CHI2=0.
DO 100 I = 1, NPTS
  CHI2 = CHI2 + (Y(I)-YCALC(I)) / SIGY(I)**2
100 CONTINUE
CALCCHISQ = CHI2
RETURN
END

C PROGRAM 8.0: \CHAPT-8\NONLINFIT.FOR
C MAIN CALLING ROUTINE FOR NON-LINEAR FITTING METHODS
C USES GRIDSEAR, GRADSEAR, EXPNDFIT, MARQFIT, FITFUNC8, MAKEAB8,
C NUMBERIV, MATRIX, FITUTIL
PROGRAM NONLINFT
INTEGER TRIAL, J, METHOD
REAL STEPDOWN, LAMBDA, CHISQR, CALCCHISQ
CHARACTER*40 TITLE
REAL STEPSIZE(4)0.49999, 0.99999, 0.001, 0.001/
INCLUDE 'C:\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
PRINT *, '(1)GRID SEARCH, (2)GRADIENT SEARCH'
PRINT *, '(3)CHISQ EXPANSION, (4)FUNCTION EXPANSION'
PRINT *, 'TYPE 1, 2, 3, OR 4 ...'
READ *, METHOD
CHICUT = 0.01
STEPDOWN = 0.1 !-- STEP DOWN THE GRADIENT IN GRADS
LAMBDA = 0.001 !-- FOR MARQUARDT METHOD ONLY
STEPSIZE = STEPSIZE(METHOD) !-- SCALES DELTAA(J)
CALL FETCHDATA('C:\CHAPT-8\RADIOOK.HST',TITLE)
CALL FETCHEPARAMETERS !-- USES NPTS, MUST FOLLOW FETCHDATA
TRIAL = 0
CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
CHIOLD = CHISQR + CHICUT + 1
DO WHILE (ABS(CHIOLD - CHISQR) .GE. CHICUT)
  CHIOLD = CHISQR
  PRINT 1000, TRIAL, CHISQR
1000 FORMAT(' TRIAL #', I4, ' CHISQ =', F10.1)
  PRINT 1100, (A(J), J = 1,M)
1100 FORMAT(6F12.4)
  PRINT *
  GOTO (110, 120, 130, 140), METHOD
110  CALL GRIDLS(CHISQR)
  GOTO 150
120  CALL GRADLS(CHISQR, STEPDOWN)
  GOTO 150
130  CALL CHIFIT(CHISQR)
  GOTO 150

```

```

INCLUDE 'C:\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 J=1, M
  DO 200 K=1, M
    ALPHA(J,K)=0
    DO 300 I=1, NPTS
      ALPHA(J,K) = ALPHA(J,K)+FUNCT(J, X(I))*FUNCT(K, X(I))/SIGY(I)**2
    300 CONTINUE
  200 CONTINUE
100 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

```

#### E.4 Routines from Chapter 8

```

C PROGRAM 8.0: \CHAPT-8\NONLINFIT.FOR
C MAIN CALLING ROUTINE FOR NON-LINEAR FITTING METHODS
C USES GRIDSEAR, GRADSEAR, EXPNDFIT, MARQFIT, FITFUNC8, MAKEAB8,
C NUMBERIV, MATRIX, FITUTIL
PROGRAM NONLINFT
INTEGER TRIAL, J, METHOD
REAL STEPDOWN, LAMBDA, CHISQR, CALCCHISQ
CHARACTER*40 TITLE
REAL STEPSIZE(4)0.49999, 0.99999, 0.001, 0.001/
INCLUDE 'C:\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
PRINT *, '(1)GRID SEARCH, (2)GRADIENT SEARCH'
PRINT *, '(3)CHISQ EXPANSION, (4)FUNCTION EXPANSION'
PRINT *, 'TYPE 1, 2, 3, OR 4 ...'
READ *, METHOD
CHICUT = 0.01
STEPDOWN = 0.1 !-- STEP DOWN THE GRADIENT IN GRADS
LAMBDA = 0.001 !-- FOR MARQUARDT METHOD ONLY
STEPSIZE = STEPSIZE(METHOD) !-- SCALES DELTAA(J)
CALL FETCHDATA('C:\CHAPT-8\RADIOOK.HST',TITLE)
CALL FETCHEPARAMETERS !-- USES NPTS, MUST FOLLOW FETCHDATA
TRIAL = 0
CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
CHIOLD = CHISQR + CHICUT + 1
DO WHILE (ABS(CHIOLD - CHISQR) .GE. CHICUT)
  CHIOLD = CHISQR
  PRINT 1000, TRIAL, CHISQR
1000 FORMAT(' TRIAL #', I4, ' CHISQ =', F10.1)
  PRINT 1100, (A(J), J = 1,M)
1100 FORMAT(6F12.4)
  PRINT *
  GOTO (110, 120, 130, 140), METHOD
110  CALL GRIDLS(CHISQR)
  GOTO 150
120  CALL GRADLS(CHISQR, STEPDOWN)
  GOTO 150
130  CALL CHIFIT(CHISQR)
  GOTO 150

```

```

IF ((PAE .EQ. 'A') .OR. (PAE.EQ.'E')) FUNCT = LEGFUNC(K,XX)
IF (PAE .EQ. 'P') FUNCT = POWERFUNC(K,XX)
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE CALCULATEY
INTEGER I, K
REAL YY, FUNCT
INCLUDE 'C\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 I=1, NPTS
    YY = 0
    DO 200 K = 1, M
        YY = YY + A(K) * FUNCT(K,X(I))
200    CONTINUE
    YCALC(I) = YY
100 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION CALCCHISQ() !--- ASSUMES ARRAY YCALC HAS BEEN FILLED
INTEGER I
REAL CHI2
INCLUDE 'C\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CHI2=0.
DO 100 I = 1, NPTS
    CHI2 = CHI2 + (Y(I)-YCALC(I)) / SIGY(I)**2
100 CONTINUE
CALCCHISQ = CHI2
RETURN
END

C PROGRAM 7.3: \CHAPT-7\MAKEAB7.FOR
C ROUTINES TO SET UP THE BETA AND ALPHA MATRICES FOR LINEAR REGRESSION
C USES MATRIX, FITFUNC7
C

SUBROUTINE MAKEBETA          !--- MAKE THE BETA MATRICES
INTEGER I, K
REAL FUNCT
INCLUDE 'C\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 K=1, M
    BETA(K)=0
    DO 200 I=1, NPTS
        BETA(K)=BETA(K) + Y(I)*FUNCT(K, X(I))/SIGY(I)**2
200    CONTINUE
100 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE MAKEALPHA          !--- MAKE THE ALPHA MATRICES
INTEGER I,J,K
REAL FUNCT

```

```

INCLUDE 'C:\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 J=1, M
    DO 200 K=1, M
        ALPHA(J,K)=0
        DO 300 I=1, NPTS
            ALPHA(J,K) = ALPHA(J,K)+FUNCT(J, X(I))*FUNCT(K, X(I))/SIGY(I)**2
300    CONTINUE
200    CONTINUE
100    CONTINUE
RETURN
END

E.4 Routines from Chapter 8
C PROGRAM 8.0: \CHAPT-8\NONLINFT.FOR
C MAIN CALLING ROUTINE FOR NON-LINEAR FITTING METHODS
C USES GRIDSEAR, GRADSEAR, EXPNDFIT, MARQFIT, FITFUNC8, MAKEAB8,
C NUMBERIV, MATRIX, FITUTIL
PROGRAM NONLINFT
INTEGER TRIAL, J, METHOD
REAL STEPDOWN, LAMBDA, CHISQR, CALCCHISQ
CHARACTER*40 TITLE
REAL STEPSIZE(4)/0.49999, 0.99999, 0.001, 0.001/
INCLUDE 'C\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
PRINT *, '(1)GRID SEARCH, (2)GRADIENT SEARCH'
PRINT *, '(3)CHISQ EXPANSION, (4)FUNCTION EXPANSION'
PRINT *, 'TYPE 1, 2, 3, OR 4 ---'
READ *, METHOD
CHICUT = 0.01
STEPDOWN = 0.1      !-- STEP DOWN THE GRADIENT IN GRADS
LAMBDA = 0.001      !-- FOR MARQUARDT METHOD ONLY
STEPSIZE = STEPSIZE(METHOD) !-- SCALES DELTAA(J)
CALL FETCHDATA('C\CHAPT-8\RADIODK.HST',TITLE)
CALL FETCHPARAMETERS !-- USES NPTS, MUST FOLLOW FETCHDATA
TRIAL = 0
CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
CHIOLD = CHISQR + CHICUT + 1
DO WHILE (ABS(CHIOLD - CHISQR) .GE. CHICUT)
    CHIOLD = CHISQR
    PRINT 1000, TRIAL, CHISQR
1000 FORMAT(' TRIAL #', I4, ' CHISQ =', F10.1)
    PRINT 1100, (A(J), J = 1,M)
1100 FORMAT(6F12.4)
    PRINT *
    GOTO (110, 120, 130, 140), METHOD
110  CALL GRIDLS(CHISQR)
    GOTO 150
120  CALL GRADLS(CHISQR, STEPDOWN)
    GOTO 150
130  CALL CHIFIT(CHISQR)
    GOTO 150
150

```

```

140 CALL MARQUARDT(CHISQR, CHICUT, LAMBDA)
150 TRIAL = TRIAL + 1
ENDDO
151 CALL CALCULATEY
IF ((METHOD .EQ. 1) .OR. (METHOD .EQ. 2)) THEN
  DO 200 J = 1, M
    SIGA(J) = SIGPARAB(J)           !--- DCHI2 = 1
200 CONTINUE
  CALL OUTPUT(FALSE, 'CON', CHISQR, TITLE) !--- NO ERROR MATRIX
ELSEIF ((METHOD .EQ. 3) .OR. (METHOD .EQ. 4)) THEN
  IF (METHOD .EQ. 4) THEN
    CALL MARQUARDT(CHISQR, CHICUT, 0) !--- GET ERROR MATRIX
  ENDIF
  DO 300 J = 1, M
    SIGA(J) = SIGMATRX(J)           !--- ERROR MATRIX
300 CONTINUE
  CALL OUTPUT(TRUE, 'CON', CHISQR, TITLE) !--- WITH ERROR MATRIX
ENDIF
CALL PLOTIT('NONLIN.SCR', .TRUE., .TRUE., !--- SCRPT FILE, LOG1, SPLINE?
1 'C', (X(2)-X(1))/5, !--- DATA CIRCLES, RADIUS OF CIRCLES
2 0., 1., 800., 1000., !--- RANGES-X1,Y1,X2,Y2
3 6, 6, !--- NUM X-AXIS DIV, NUM Y-AXIS DIV
4 'TIME (SEC)', 'NUMBER OF COUNTS') !--- AXIS LABELS
CALL CLOSEGRAPHICS
END

C SAMPLE FITTING FUNCTION FOR NON-LINEAR FITS
C EXAMPLE IS SUM OF 2 EXPONENTIALS ON A CONSTANT BACKGROUND
REAL FUNCTION EXPF(A,X)
REAL A,X
REAL YY, ARG
ARG = ABS(X/A)
IF (ARG .GT. 60) THEN
  YY = 0
ELSE
  YY = EXP(-ARG)
ENDIF
EXPF = YY
RETURN
END

FUNCTION YFUNCTION(XX) !--- REAL
REAL YFUNCTION, XX, EXPF
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
YFUNCTION = A(1) + A(2)*EXPF(A(4),XX) + A(3)*EXPF(A(5),XX)
RETURN
END

INCLUDE 'CHAPT-8\GRIDSEAR.FOR' !--- 1-GRID SEARCH METHOD
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-8\GRADSEAR.FOR' !--- 2-GRADIENT SEARCH METHOD
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-8\EXPNDFIT.FOR' !--- 3-FUNCTION EXPANSION METHOD

```

```

INCLUDE 'CHAPT-8\MARQFIT.FOR' !--- 4-MARQUARDT METHOD
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITUTIL.FOR'
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-8\FITFUNC8.FOR' !--- USED BY ALL METHODS
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-8\MAKEAB8.FOR' !--- USED BY METHODS 4 AND 5
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-8\BNUnderiv.FOR' !--- USED BY METHODS 4 AND 5
INCLUDE 'APPEND-B\MATRIX.FOR' !--- USED BY METHODS 4 AND 5

C PROGRAM 8.1: \CHAPT-8\GRIDSEAR.FOR
C NON-LINEAR FIT BY THE GRID-SEARCH METHOD
C USES FITFUNC8, FITUTIL
SUBROUTINE GRIDLS(CHISQR)
REAL CHISQR
REAL CALCCCHISQ
REAL SAVE, DELTA, DELTA1, DEL1, DEL2, AA, BB, CC, DISC, ALPH, X1, X2
INTEGER J
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CHISQ2 = CALCCCHISQ()
C -FIND LOCAL MINIMUM FOR EACH PARAMETER-
DO 100 J = 1, M
  DELTA = DELTAA(J)
  A(J) = A(J) + DELTA
  CHISQ3 = CALCCCHISQ()
  IF (CHISQ3 .GT. CHISQ2) THEN
    DELTA = -DELTA           !--- STARTED IN WRONG DIRECTION
    A(J) = A(J) + DELTA
    SAVE = CHISQ2            !--- INTERCHANGE 2 AND 3 SO 3 IS LOWER
    CHISQ2 = CHISQ3
    CHISQ3 = SAVE
  ENDIF                      !--- IF (CHISQ3 ...
C -INCREMENT OR DECREMENT A(J) UNTIL CHI SQUARED INCREASES-
110 CONTINUE
  CHISQ1 = CHISQ2            !--- MOVE BACK TO PREPARE FOR QUAD FIT
  CHISQ2 = CHISQ3
  A(J) = A(J) + DELTA
  CHISQ3 = CALCCCHISQ()
  IF (CHISQ3 .LE. CHISQ2) GOTO 110
C -FIND MINIMUM OF PARABOLA DEFINED BY LAST THREE POINTS-
  DEL1 = CHISQ2 - CHISQ1
  DEL2 = CHISQ3 - 2*CHISQ2 + CHISQ1
  DELTA1 = DELTA * (DEL1/DEL2 + 1.5)
  A(J) = A(J) - DELTA1
  CHISQ2 = CALCCCHISQ()      !--- AT NEW LOCAL MINIMUM
C -ADJUST DELTA FOR CHANGE OF 2 FROM CHISQ AT MINIMUM-
  AA = DEL2/2                !--- CHISQ = AA*A(J)**2 + BB*A(J) + CC
  BB = DEL1 - DEL2/2
  CC = CHISQ1 - CHISQ2
  DISC = BB**2 - 4*AA*(CC-2)   !--- CHISQR DIFFERENCE = 2
  IF (DISC .GT. 0) THEN      !--- IF NOT, THEN PROBABLY NOT PARABOLIC YET
    DISC = SQRT(DISC)
    ALPH = (-BB - DISC)/(2*AA)
  ENDIF

```

```

X1 = ALPH*DELTA + A(1) - 2*DELTA  I-- A(J) AT CHISQ MINIMUM+2
DISC = BB**2 - 4*AA*CC
IF (DISC.GT.0) THEN
  DISC = SQRT(DISC)
ELSE
  DISC = 0
ENDIF
--- ELIM ROUNDING ERR
ALPH = (-BB - DISC)/(2*AA)
X2 = ALPH*DELTA + A(1) - 2*DELTA I-- A(J) AT CHISQ MINIMUM
DELTA = X1 - X2
DELTAA(J) = DELTA
ENDIF
I00 CONTINUE
CHISQR = CHISQ2
RETURN
END

C PROGRAM 8.2: \CHAPT-8\GRADSEAR.FOR
C NON-LINEAR LEAST-SQUARES FIT BY GRADIENT SEARCH METHOD
C USES FITFUNC8, FITUTIL
SUBROUTINE CALCGRAD
INTEGER J
REAL SUM, DELTA, FRACT/0.001/, CALCCHISQ
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
SUM = 0
DO 100 J = 1, M
  CHISQ2 = CALCCHISQ()
  DELTA = FRACT * DELTAA(J)  I-- DIFFERENTIAL ELEMENT FOR GRADENT
  A(J) = A(J) + DELTA
  CHISQ1 = CALCCHISQ()
  A(J) = A(J) - DELTA
  GRAD(J) = CHISQ2 - CHISQ1      I-- 2*DELTA*GRAD
  SUM = SUM + GRAD(J)**2
100 CONTINUE
DO 200 J = 1, M
  GRAD(J) = DELTAA(J)*GRAD(J)/SQRT(SUM)  I-- STEP * GRAD
200 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE GRADLS(CHISQR, STEPDOWN)
REAL CHISQR, STEPDOWN
REAL STEPSUM, STEP1, CALCCHISQ
INTEGER J
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CALL CALCGRAD      I-- CALCULATE THE GRADIENT
C -EVALUATE CHISQR AT NEW POINT AND MAKE SURE CHISQR DECREASES-
  CHISQ3 = CHISQ2 + 1
  DO WHILE (CHISQ3 .GT. CHISQ2)
    DO J = 1, M
      A(J) = A(J) + STEPDOWN * GRAD(J) I SLIDE DOWN
    ENDDO
    CHISQ3 = CALCCHISQ()
    IF (CHISQ3 .GE. CHISQ2 ) THEN
      DO J = 1, M   I MUST HAVE OVERSHOT MINIMUM
        A(J) = A(J) - STEPDOWN * GRAD(J) I RESTORE
      ENDDO
      STEPDOWN = STEPDOWN/2      I DECREASE STEPSIZE
    ENDOF
  ENDDO
  STEPSUM = 0
C -INCREMENT PARAMETERS UNTIL CHISQR STARTS TO INCREASE-
  DO WHILE (CHISQ3 .LT. CHISQ2)
    STEPSUM = STEPSUM + STEPDOWN  I COUNTS TOTAL INCREMENT
    CHISQ2 = CHISQ3
    CHISQ3 = CHISQ2
    DO J = 1, M
      A(J) = A(J) + STEPDOWN * GRAD(J)
    ENDDO
    CHISQ3 = CALCCHISQ()
  ENDDO
  IDOWHILE
C -FIND MINIMUM OF PARABOLA DEFINED BY LAST THREE POINTS-
  STEP1=STEPDOWN*((CHISQ3-CHISQ2)/(CHISQ1-2*CHISQ2+CHISQ3)+0.5)
  DO J = 1, M
    A(J) = A(J) - STEP1 * GRAD(J)  I MOVE TO MINIMUM
  ENDDO
  CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
  STEPDOWN = STEPSUM           I START WITH THIS NEXT TIME
  RETURN
END

C PROGRAM 8.3: \CHAPT-8\EXPNDFIT.FOR
C NON-LINEAR LEAST-SQUARES FIT BY EXPANSION OF THE FITTING FUNCTION
C USES FITFUNC8, MAKEABB, MATRIX
SUBROUTINE CHIFIT(CHISQR)
INTEGER J
REAL DET, CALCCHISQ
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CALL MAKEBETA
CALL MAKEALPHA
CALL MATINV(M, ALPHA, DET)  I-- INVERT MATRIX
CALL LINEARBYSQUARE(M, BETA, ALPHA, DA) I-- EVALUATE PARAM
INCREMENTS
  DO 100 J = 1, M
    A(J) = A(J) + DA(J)          I-- INCREMENT TO NEXT SOLUTION.
100 CONTINUE
  PRINT *, 'A', (A(J), J=1,M)
  CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
  RETURN
END

```

```

C PROGRAM 8.4: \CHAPT-8\MARQFIT.FOR
C NON-LINEAR FIT BY THE GRADIENT-EXPANSION (MARQUARDT) METHOD
C USES FITFUNC9, MAKEABB, MATRIX
SUBROUTINE MARQUARDT(CHISQR, XCUT, LAMBDA)
INTEGER J
REAL CHISQR, XCUT, LAMBDA
REAL DET, CALCCHISQ
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO
    CALL MAKEBETA
    CALL MAKEALPHA
    DO 100 J = 1, M
        ALPHA(J,J) = (1 + LAMBDA) * ALPHA(J,J)
100   CONTINUE
    CALL MATINV(M, ALPHA, DET)      --- INVERT MATRIX
    IF (LAMBDA .LE. 0) RETURN --- FINAL CALL TO GET THE ERROR MATRIX.
    CALL LINEARBY SQUARE(M,BETA,ALPHA,DA)--- EVAL PARAM INCREMENTS
    CHISQ1 = CHISQR
    DO 200 J = 1, M
        A(J) = A(J) + DA(J)      --- INCR TO NEXT SOLUTION
200   CONTINUE
    CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
    IF (CHISQR .LE. CHISQ1 + XCUT) RETURN
    DO 300 J = 1, M
        A(J) = A(J)-DA(J)      --- RETURN TO PREV SOLUTION
300   CONTINUE
    CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
    LAMBDA = 10*LAMBDA      --- AND REPEAT THE CALC, WITH LARGER LAMBDA
END DO
END

C PROGRAM 8.5: \CHAPT-8\FITFUNC8.FOR
C USES FITVARS
C -THE FOLLOWING ROUTINES ARE GENERAL FOR FITTING ANY FUNCTION-
SUBROUTINE CALCULATEY
REAL YFUNCTION
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 I = 1, NPTS
    YCALC(I) = YFUNCTION(X(I))
100 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION CALCCHISQ()
REAL CHI2, YFUNCTION
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CHI2=0.
DO 100 I = 1, NPTS
    CHI2 = CHI2 + ((Y(I)-YFUNCTION(X(I)))/SIGY(I))**2
100 CONTINUE
CALCCHISQ = CHI2

```

```

RETURN
END

C -STANDARD DEVIATION CALC'D FROM CHISQ CHANGE OF 1 (PARABOLA FIT)
REAL FUNCTION SIGPARAB(J)
INTEGER J
REAL CALCCHISQ
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CHISQ2 = CALCCHISQ()
A(J) = A(J) + DELTAA(J)
CHISQ3 = CALCCHISQ()
A(J) = A(J) - 2*DELTAA(J)
CHISQ1 = CALCCHISQ()
A(J) = A(J) + DELTAA(J)
SIGPARAB = DELTAA(J)*SQRT(2*(CHISQ1-2*CHISQ2+CHISQ3))
RETURN
END

C -STANDARD DEVIATION CALC'D FROM DIAGONAL TERMS IN ERROR MATRIX
REAL FUNCTION SIGMATRIX(J)
INTEGER J
REAL SIG
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
SIG = SQRT(ABS(ALPHA(J,J)))
IF (ALPHA(J,J) .LT. 0) SIG = -SIG --- NOTE- AN ERROR
SIGMATRIX = SIG
RETURN
END

C PROGRAM 8.6: \CHAPT-8\MAKEABB.FOR
C MATRIX SET-UP FOR NON-LINEAR FITS
C USES FITFUNC8, NUMBERIV
C
SUBROUTINE MAKEBETA  ---MAKE BETA MATRICES FOR NON-LINEAR FITTING
INTEGER J
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 J = 1, M
    BETA(J) = -0.5*D2XISQ_DA(J)
100 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE MAKEALPHA  --- ALPHA MATRICES FOR NON-LINEAR FITTING
INTEGER J, K
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
DO 100 J = 1, M
    ALPHA(J,J) = 0.5 * D2XISQ_DA2(J)
    IF (ALPHA(J,J) .EQ. 0) THEN
        PRINT *, 'DIAGONAL ELEMENT IS ZERO, J =',J
        STOP
    ENDIF

```

```

      IF (J .GT. I ) THEN
        DO 200 K = 1, J-1
          ALPHA(J,K) = 0.5*D2XISQ_DAJK(J,K)
          ALPHA(K,J) = ALPHA(J,K)
200      CONTINUE      I--- DO K
      ENDIF           I--- IF J
100      CONTINUE      I--- DO J
      DO 300 J = 1, M
        IF (ALPHA(J,J) .LT. 0 ) THEN
          ALPHA(J,J) = -ALPHA(J,J)
        IF (J .GT. 1 ) THEN
          DO 400 K = 1, J-1
            ALPHA(J,K) = 0
            ALPHA(K,J) = 0
400      CONTINUE      I--- DO K
      ENDIF           I--- IF J
      ENDIF           I--- IF ALPHA
300      CONTINUE      I--- FOR J
      RETURN
      END

```

**E.5 Routines from Chapter 9**

```

C PROGRAM 9.1: \CHAPT-9\LORENFIT.FOR
C MAIN CALLING ROUTINE FOR FIT TO LORENTZIAN + POLYNOMIAL
C USES FITFUNC9, MARQFIT, MATRIX, NUMBERIV, MAKEABB, FITUTIL

PROGRAM LORENFIT
CHARACTER*40 TITLE
INTEGER TRIAL, J
REAL XSHIFT, CHISQR, LAMBDA, YFUNCTION
REAL STEPSIZE(4)/ 0.49999, 0.99999, 0.001, 0.001/
INCLUDE 'C\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
CHICUT 0.01
LAMBDA = 0.001      I FOR MARQUARDT METHOD ONLY
STEPSIZE = STEPSIZE(4)      I SCALES DELTAA[J]
CALL FETCHDATA('F\CHAPT-9\SINGLE.HST',TITLE)
XSHIFT = (X(2)-X(1))/2
DO J = 1, NPTS
  X(J) = X(J) + XSHIFT      I MOVE TO BIN CENTER
ENDDO
CALL FETCHEPARAMETERS      I USES NPTS, MUST FOLLOW FETCHDATA
TRIAL = 0
CHISQR = CALCCHISQ()
CHIOLD = CHISQR + CHICUT +1
DO WHILE (ABS(CHIOLD - CHISQR) .GT. CHICUT)
  CHIOLD = CHISQR
  PRINT *, 'TRIAL #',TRIAL,' CHISQR = ',CHISQR
  PRINT *, '(A(J), J = 1, M)'
  CALL MARQUARDT(CHISQR, CHICUT, LAMBDA)
  TRIAL = 1 + TRIAL

```

```

      ENDDO
      CALL CALCULATEY
      CALL MARQUARDT(CHISQR,CHICUT,0)      I GET ERROR MATRIX
      DO J = 1, M
        SIGA(J) = SIGMATRIX(J)           I ERROR MATRIX
      ENDDO
      CALL OUTPUT(.TRUE., 'CON', CHISQR,TITLE) I WITH ERROR MATRIX
      DO J = 1, NPTS
        X(J) = X(J) - XSHIFT           I RESTORE TO LEFT EDGE
      ENDDO
      CALL PLOTIT('LORENFIT.SCR',.FALSE.,.TRUE.,I SCRIPT FILE, LOG?, SPLINE?
1 'H', 0.0,           I HIST, O(NOT USED)
2 0.0, 0.0, 3.0, 220.0,      I X1, Y1, X2, Y2 FOR PLOT
3 6, 6,               I NUM GRID MARKS X,Y
4 'E (GEV)', 'NUMBER OF COUNTS')   I LABELS
C -PLOT THE BACKGROUND-
A(4) = 0.0
A(7) = 0.0
DO J = 1, NPTS
  YCALC(J) = YFUNCTION(X(J))
ENDDO
CALL SPLINEMAKE(NPTS,0,0,X,YCALC)
CALL SCURVE(I, 40, 5, 0.025, X)  I SPLINE CURVE
CALL CLOSEGRAPHICS
END

C LORENTZIAN PEAK ON A QUADRATIC BACKGROUND
REAL FUNCTION YFUNCTION(XX) I LORENTZIAN ON POLYNOMIAL
REAL XX
REAL YY, PI/3.1415927/
INCLUDE 'F\CHAPT-6\FITVARS.FOR'
YY = A(1) + A(2)*XX + A(3)*XX**2 + A(4)*A(6)/(2*PI)
I /((XX-A(5))**2 + A(6)**2/4)
YFUNCTION = YY
RETURN
END
INCLUDE 'F\CHAPT-6\FITUTIL.FOR'
INCLUDE 'F\CHAPT-9\FITFUNC9.FOR'
INCLUDE 'F\CHAPT-8\MARQFIT.FOR'      I MARQUARDT METHOD
INCLUDE 'F\CHAPT-8\MAKEABB.FOR'      I USED BY MARQFIT
INCLUDE 'F\CHAPT-8\NUMBERIV.FOR'    I USED BY MARQFIT
INCLUDE 'F\APPEND-B\MATRIX.FOR'    I USED BY MARQFIT


```

**E.6 Routines from Chapter 10**

```

C PROGRAM 10.1: \CHAPT-10\MAXLIKE.FOR
C DIRECT MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD EXAMPLE
C USES FITUTIL, QUIKSCR
PROGRAM MAXLIKE
REAL SIGTAU, TAUMAX, MAXM I-- M IS LOG OF LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-10\MAXLINCL.FOR'

```

```

CALL GETDATA('CHAPT-10TEST.DAT')    I--- WAS DA50
CALL SEARCH(TAUATMAX, MAXM)
CALL WRITEOUTPUT(SIGTAU, TAUATMAX, MAXM)
CALL PLOTLIKECURVE(TAUATMAX, SIGTAU, MAXM)
CALL CLOSEGRAPHICS
END

SUBROUTINE GETDATA(INFILE)
INTEGER IEVNUM
CHARACTER(*) INFILE
CHARACTER TITLE(80)
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-10\MAXLINCL.FOR'
C = 3.00
LOSEARCH = 0.50
HISEARCH = 1.5          I--- SEARCH RANGE
TAUSTEP = 0.01
XLO   = 0.50           I--- PLOT RANGE
XHI   = 1.2
YLO   = 0.0
YHI   = 1.2
NTRIALS = (HISEARCH - LOSEARCH)/TAUSTEP
OPEN(S, INFILE)         I--- INPUT DATA FILE
READ(S, *) TITLE
PRINT *, 'TITLE'
READ(S, *) NEVENTS, MASS, D1, D2
IEVNUM = 1
NEVENTS = 0
DO WHILE (IEVNUM .GT. 0)
  READ(S, *) IEVNUM, XPRODUCTION, PLAB, XDECAY
  IF (IEVNUM .GT. 0) THEN
    IF ((XDECAY .GE. D1) .AND. (XDECAY .LT. D2)) THEN
      NEVENTS = I + NEVENTS
      LTOTSCALE = MASS/(C*PLAB) I--- = 1/(C*BETA*GAMMA)
      TIMES(NEVENTS)=(XDECAY - XPRODUCTION)*LTOTSCALE I---PROPER T
      C CONVERT D1 AND D2 TO TIME LIMITS, LOTLIM AND HITLIM,
      C I.E., INTEGRATION LIMITS IN PROPER TIME FROM THE PRODUCTION VERTEX.
      LOTLIM(NEVENTS) = (D1 - XPRODUCTION)*LTOTSCALE
      HITLIM(NEVENTS) = (D2 - XPRODUCTION)*LTOTSCALE
    ENDIF
  ENDIF
ENDDO
PRINT *, 'END OF FILE - ', IEVNUM, ' EVENTS READ'
PAUSE
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION LOGPROB(K, TAU)
INTEGER K
REAL TAU
REAL A, B
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-10\MAXLINCL.FOR'
C
C D1 AND D2 ARE BEGINNING AND END OF THE FIDUCIAL REGION.
C MUST CVT TO LOTLIM AND HITLIM WHICH ARE INTEGRATION LIMITS IN PROPER
C TIME,
C MEASURED FROM PRODUCTION VERTEX.
C NOW, CALC PROBABILITY-
B = EXP(-HITLIM(K)/TAU)
A = EXP(-LOTLIM(K)/TAU)
PROB = EXP(-TIMES(K)/TAU)/(TAU*(A - B))
LOGPROB = ALOG(PROB)
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION LOGLIKE(T)
REAL T, LOGPROB
INTEGER I
REAL M, PROB
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-10\MAXLINCL.FOR'
M = 0.0
DO 100 I = 1, NEVENTS
  PROB = LOGPROB(I,T)
  M = PROB + M
100 CONTINUE
LOGLIKE = M
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE SEARCH(TAUATMAX, MAXM)
REAL TAUATMAX, MAXM
INTEGER TRIAL
REAL M1, M2, M3, DEL1, DEL2, DELTAI, TAU, MLIKELI, LOGLIKE
INCLUDE 'CHAPT-10\MAXLINCL.FOR'
M2 = -1000
MAXM = -1.0E20
TAU = LOSEARCH
DO 100 TRIAL = 0, NTRIALS
  MLIKELI = LOGLIKE(TAU)
  PRINT *, 'TRIAL=TRIAL, TAU=TAU, LOG LIKELIHOOD=MLIKELI'
  M3 = MLIKELI
  IF (M3 .GT. M2) THEN I--- REMEMBER, THESE ARE NEGATIVE
    M1 = M2
    M2 = M3
  ELSE
    I--- LEAVING MAXIMUM
  ENDIF
C FIND MAXIMUM OF PARABOLA DEFINED BY LAST THREE POINTS-
  DEL1 = M2 - M1
  DEL2 = M3 - 2*M2 + M1
  DELTAI = TAUSTEP * (DEL1/DEL2 + 1.5)
  TAU = TAU + DELTAI
  TAUATMAX = TAU
  MAXM = LOGLIKE(TAU) I--- AT MAXIMUM OF PARABOLA
  RETURN
ENDIF

```

```

      TAU = TAU + TAUSTEP
100 CONTINUE
      RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION ERROR(T, DT)  --- 1/SQRT(-2ND DERIVATIVE OF LOG(L))
REAL T, DT
REAL T1, T2, D2YDT2, ERR, LOGLIKE
T1 = T - DT
T2 = T + DT
D2YDT2 = (LOGLIKE(T2) - 2*LOGLIKE(T) + LOGLIKE(T1))/DT**2
ERR = 1/SQRT(-D2YDT2)
ERROR = ERR
RETURN
END

C PROGRAM 10.2 \CHAPT-10\MAXLINC.FOR (WEBSITE)
C INCLUDE FILE FOR MAXLIKE

E.7 Routines from Chapter 11
C PROGRAM 11.1:\CHAPT-1\CHI2PROB.FOR
C CALCULATE CHI^2 PROB. DENS. & THE CHI^2 PROB. INTEGRAL
C USES CHIPROBDENS AND CHIPROB
      PROGRAM CHI2PROB
      REAL CHI2, CHIPROB
      INTEGER NFREE
      PRINT *, 'CALCULATE CHI2 PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTION & INTEGRAL',
      'PROBABILITY'
      PRINT *, 'TYPE NUM DEG OF FREEDOM AND CHI2. (EXIT ON ^C)'
      READ *, NFREE, CHI2
      PRINT 1000, CHIPROBDENS(CHI2, NFREE), CHIPROB(NFREE, CHI2)
1000 FORMAT(' CHI^2 PROB. DENS. = ',F7.3, ', CHI^2 PROBABILITY= ',F7.3)
      PRINT *, '***** NOTE THAT TABLE C.4 REFERS TO CHI^2/NFREE*****'
      END

C THE FOLLOWING THREE ROUTINES ARE INCLUDED
C IN THE PROGRAM UNIT C:\CHAPT-6\FITUTIL.FOR (WEBSITE)
      REAL FUNCTION CHIPROB(NFREE, CHI2)  --- MAX NFREE = 56
      EXTERNAL CHIX
      COMMON/UTIL/GLSIMPS
      REAL CHIX, SIMPSON, GLSIMPS
      INTEGER NFREE
      REAL PI, CHI2, CLIM, INTFROMLIM
      DATA CLIM /2/,           --- EXPANSION LIMIT FOR NFREE = 1
1     INTFROMLIM /0.157/,    --- INTEGRAL FROM CLIM TO INFINITY
2     DXO /0.2/,            --- DETERMINES ACCURACY OF INTEGRATION
3     PI/3.14159/
      INTEGER NINT
      IF (CHI2 .GE. 1) THEN
          NINT = (CHI2+0.0001)/DXO
      ELSE

```

```

      NINT = 5
      ENDIF
      IF (CHI2 .GT. 15*SQRT(NFREE) ) THEN --- QUICK CUTOUT
          CHIPROB = 0
      ELSE
          GLSIMPS = FLDAT(NFREE)/2           --- GLSIMPS IS GLOBAL FOR CHIX
          IF (NFREE .EQ. 1) THEN
              IF (CHI2 .LT. CLIM ) THEN
                  CHIPROB = 1-SQRT(CHI2/2/PI)*
1                (2 - CHI2*(1/3 - CHI2*(1/20 - CHI2*(1/168 - CHI2*(1/728))))
              ELSE
                  CHIPROB = INTFROMLIM - SIMPSON(CHIX,NINT,CLIM,CHI2) /
/GAMMA(NFREE/2.0)/2.0**((NFREE/2.0)
              ENDIF                                         --- IF (CHI2 ...)
          ELSE IF (NFREE .EQ. 2 ) THEN
              CHIPROB = EXP(-CHI2/2)           --- INTEGRABLE
          ELSE
              CHIPROB = 1 - SIMPSON(CHIX, NINT, 0, CHI2) /
/GAMMA(NFREE/2.0)/2.0**((NFREE/2.0)
          ENDIF                                         --- IF (NFREE ...)
      ENDIF
      RETURN                                         --- IF (NFREE ...)
END

REAL FUNCTION CHIPROBDENS(X,NFREE)
REAL NUM, DEN, H, X
INTEGER NFREE
H = NFREE/2.0
NUM = X***(H-1) * EXP(-X/2)
DEN = 2**H * GAMMA(H)
CHIPROBDENS = NUM/DEN
RETURN
END

C USED BY CHIPROB (FOR SIMPSON WHICH Allows ONLY 1 ARGUMENT.)
REAL FUNCTION CHIX(X)
COMMON/UTIL/GLSIMPS
REAL GLSIMPS
REAL X
IF (X.EQ.0) THEN
    CHIX = 0.0
ELSE
    CHIX = X***(GLSIMPS-1)*EXP(-X/2)  --- GLSIMPS = H = NFREE/2
ENDIF
RETURN
END

C THIS FOLLOWING ROUTINE IS INCLUDED
C IN THE PROGRAM UNIT \CHAPT-6\FITUTIL.FOR (WEBSITE)
C APPROXIMATE GAMMA FUNCTION WITH H = NFREE/2
REAL FUNCTION GAMMA(H)

```

```

REAL H, PI/3.1415927/
GAMMA = SQRT(2.0*PI) * EXP(-H)*(H**2*(H-0.5)) * (1.0 + 0.0833/H)
RETURN
END

C PROGRAM 11.2: \CHAPT-1\LCORPROB.FOR
C CALCULATE LINEAR CORRELATION PROBABILITY INTEGRAL
C USES LCORLATE
PROGRAM LCORPROB
INTEGER NOBSERV
REAL LINCORPROB, RCORR
PRINT *, 'TEST INTEGRAL OF LINEAR CORRELATION FUNCTION'
PRINT *, 'TYPE-N OBSERVATIONS, LINEAR CORRELATION COEFFICIENT:'
READ *, NOBSERV, RCORR
PRINT *, 'INTEGRAL CORRELATION FUNCTION=',
1 LINCORPROB(NOBSERV-2, RCORR)
END
INCLUDE '\CHAPT-1\LCORLATE.FOR'

C LINEAR-CORRELATION PROBABILITY FUNCTION AND INTEGRAL
C USES FITUTIL
REAL FUNCTION LINCORPROB(NFREE, HILIM)
EXTERNAL LINCORREL --- FOR USE IN FUNCTION SIMPSON
INTEGER NFREE
REAL HILIM
REAL DX /0.01/, LOLIM/0.0/, LINCORREL, SIMPSON
INTEGER NINT
COMMON/UTIL/GLSIMPS
GLSIMPS = NFREE --- GLOBAL FOR FUNCTION LINCORREL (FOR SIMPSON)
NINT = INT(HILIM - LOLIM)/DX
LINCORPROB = 1-2*SIMPSON(LINCORREL, NINT, LOLIM, HILIM)
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION LINCORREL(R)
REAL R
COMMON/UTIL/GLSIMPS --- GLSIMPS = NFREE MUST BE GLOBAL FOR
DATA SQRTPI/1.7724539/ ! FUNCT "SIMPSONS" WHICH ALLOWS ONLY 1 ARG
LINCORREL = GAMMA(GLSIMPS+1)/2/GAMMA(GLSIMPS/2)
1 *EXP(-(GLSIMPS-2)/2 * ALOG(1 - R**2))/SQRTPI
RETURN
END

```

#### E.8 Routines from Appendix A

```

PROGRAM A.1 SIMPSON
C THE FOLLOWING ROUTINE IS INCLUDED
C IN THE PROGRAM UNIT \CHAPT-6\FITUTIL (WEBSITE)
C -SIMPSON'S RULE FOR "FUNCT(X:REAL):REAL"
C IF FUNCTX HAS OTHER PARAMETERS, THEY MUST BE GLOBAL, E.G., GLSIMPS

```

```

REAL FUNCTION SIMPSON(FUNCTX, NINTS, LOLIM, HILIM) !--- 2 CALCS/INTERVAL
EXTERNAL FUNCTX --- THIS STATEMENT REQ'D IN CALLING PGM ALSO
REAL FUNCTX, SUM, X, DX, LOLIM, HILIM
INTEGER NINTS, I
X = LOLIM
DX = (HILIM - LOLIM)/(2*NINTS)
SUM=FUNCTX(X)
SUM= SUM - FUNCTX(HILIM)
DO 100 I = 1, NINTS
X=X+2*DX
SUM=SUM + 4*FUNCTX(X-DX) + 2*FUNCTX(X)
100 CONTINUE
SUM = SUM
SIMPSON = SUM*DX/3.0
RETURN
END

PROGRAM A.2 SPLINE INTERPOLATION
C PROGRAM A.1: \APPEND-A\SPLINTST.FOR
C TEST CUBIC SPLINE INTERPOLATION
PROGRAM SPLINTST
CHARACTER TITLE(80)
REAL D2A, D2B, XS, X(100), Y(100), SPLINEINT
INTEGER N, I
OPEN(5,\APPEND-A\SPLINE.DAT) --- TEST DATA FILE
READ(5,1000) TITLE
PRINT 1000, 'TITLE
1000 FORMAT(80A1)
READ(5,*) N, D2A, D2B !--- NO. OF POINTS, 2ND DERIVATIVES AT BOUNDARY
PRINT *, 'DATA TABLE: N=', N
PRINT *, ' X Y'
DO 100 I = 1, N
READ(5,*) X(I), Y(I)
PRINT *, X(I), Y(I)
100 CONTINUE
CALL SPLINEMAKE(N, D2A, D2B, X, Y)
CLOSE(5)
200 PRINT *, 'TYPE A VALUE OF X (EXIT WITH "A")'
READ *, XS
PRINT *, 'INTERPOLATED Y = ', SPLINEINT(XS)
GOTO 200
END

C ROUTINES FOR CUBIC SPLINE INTERPOLATION.
C CONSTANT INTERVALS IN THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLE ARE ASSUMED.
SUBROUTINE SPLINEMAKE(NN, D2YDX2A, D2YDX2B, XIN, YIN)
INTEGER NN
REAL D2YDX2A, D2YDX2B, XIN(100), YIN(100)
C -COMMON VARIABLES SET IN SPLINEMAKE, USED IN SPLINEINT-
COMMON/SPLINES/N, H, XX(100), YY(100), D2YDX2(100)
INTEGER N

```

```

REAL H, XX, YY, D2YDX2
INTEGER I
REAL A(100), DELT1(100), DELT2(100), B(100)
N = NN      --- USED BY SPLININT, THROUGH COMMON/SPLINES/
H = (X(N)-X(1))/(N-1)
DO 100 I = 1, N
    XX(I) = X(I)
    YY(I) = Y(I)
100 CONTINUE
D2YDX2(1) = D2YDX2A --- END VALUES OF 2ND DERIVATIVES FROM INPUT
D2YDX2(N) = D2YDX2B
A(2) = 4
DO 200 I = 3, N-1
    A(I) = 4-1/A(I-1)           --- COEFFICIENTS
200 CONTINUE
DO 300 I = 2, N
    DELT1(I) = Y(I) - Y(I-1)   --- 1ST DIFFERENCES
300 CONTINUE
DO 400 I = 2, N-1           --- 2ND DIFFERENCES X 6
    DELT2(I) = 6*(DELT1(I+1) - DELT1(I))/(H*H)
400 CONTINUE
B(2) = DELT2(2) - D2YDX2(1)   --- B COEFFICIENTS
DO 500 I = 3, N-1
    B(I) = DELT2(I) - B(I-1)/A(I-1)
500 CONTINUE
B(N-1) = B(N-1) - D2YDX2(N)
D2YDX2(N-1) = B(N-1)/A(N-1)
DO 600 I = N-2, 2, -1
    D2YDX2(I) = (B(I) - D2YDX2(I+1))/A(I) --- 2ND DERIVATIVES
600 CONTINUE
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION DYDX(I) --- FIRST DERIVATIVE (WEBSITE)
INTEGER I
COMMON/SPLINES/N, H, XX(100), YY(100), D2YDX2(100)
INTEGER N
REAL H, XX, YY, D2YDX2
DYDX = (YY(I+1)-YY(I))/H - H*(D2YDX2(I)/3+D2YDX2(I+1)/6)
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION D3YDX3(I) --- THIRD DERIVATIVE (WEBSITE)
INTEGER I
COMMON/SPLINES/N, H, XX(100), YY(100), D2YDX2(100)
INTEGER N
REAL H, XX, YY, D2YDX2
D3YDX3 = (D2YDX2(I+1) - D2YDX2(I))/H
RETURN
END

```

```

REAL FUNCTION SPLINE(NT,X) --- INTERPOLATE IN TABLE (FROM SPLINEMAKE)
REAL X
COMMON/SPLINES/N, H, XX(100), YY(100), D2YDX2(100)
INTEGER N
REAL H, XX, YY, D2YDX2, DYDX, D3YDX3, DX
INTEGER I
I = INT((X-XX(1))/H)+1
IF (I.LT. 1) I = 1
IF (I.GT. N-1) I = N-1
DX = X-XX(I)
C -INTERPOLATE
IF (I.EQ. N) THEN
    SPLINEINT = YY(I)
ELSE
    SPLINEINT = YY(I) + (DYDX(I) + (D2YDX2(I)/2 + D3YDX3(I)/6*DX)*DX)*DX
ENDIF
RETURN
END

E.9 Routines from Appendix B
C PROGRAM B.1: \APPEND-B\MATRIX.FOR
C INVERT A SQUARE MATRIX
C USES FITVARS
SUBROUTINE MATINV(M, MARRAY, DET)
INTEGER M
REAL MARRAY(10,10), DET
INTEGER IK(10), JK(10)
INTEGER I, J, K, L
REAL AMAX, SAVE
DET=0
C -FIND LARGEST ELEMENT
DO 100 K = 1, M
    AMAX=0
100   DO 200 I = K, M
        DO 300 J = K, M
            IF ( ABS(MARRAY(I,J)) .GT. ABS(AMAX) ) THEN
                AMAX = MARRAY(I,J)
                IK(K) = I
                JK(K) = J
            ENDIF
300   CONTINUE      --- DO J
200   CONTINUE      --- DO I
IF (AMAX.EQ. 0) RETURN !--- WITH 0 DETERMINANT AS SIGNAL
DET = 1
C -INTERCHANGE ROWS AND COLUMNS TO PUT AMAX IN MARRAY(K,K)
I = IK(K)
IF (I.LT. K) THEN
    GOTO 1500
ELSEIF (I.GT. K) THEN
    DO 400 J = I, M

```

```

        SAVE = MARRAY(K,J)
        MARRAY(K,J) = MARRAY(I,J)
        MARRAY(I,J) = -SAVE
400    CONTINUE      I--- DO J
        ENDIF           I--- IF I
        J = JK(K)
        IF (J .LT. K ) THEN
          GOTO 100
        ELSEIF (J .GT. K ) THEN
          DO 500 I = 1, M
            SAVE = MARRAY(I,K)
            MARRAY(I,K) = MARRAY(I,J)
            MARRAY(I,J) = -SAVE
500    CONTINUE      I--- DO I
        ENDIF I--- IF J
C -ACCUMULATE ELEMENTS OF INVERSE MATRIX
        DO 600 I = 1, M
          IF (I .NE. K )
            MARRAY(I,K) = -MARRAY(I,K)/AMAX
600    CONTINUE I--- DO I
        DO 700 I = 1, M
          DO 800 J = 1, M
            IF ((I .NE. K ) .AND. (J .NE. K ))
              MARRAY(I,J) = MARRAY(I,J) + MARRAY(I,K)*MARRAY(K,J)
800    CONTINUE      I--- DO J
700    CONTINUE      I--- DO I
        DO 900 K = 1, M
          IF (K .NE. J )
            MARRAY(K,J) = MARRAY(K,J)/AMAX
900    CONTINUE      I--- DO J
        MARRAY(K,K) = 1/AMAX
        DET = DET * AMAX
        100 CONTINUE      I--- DO K
C -RESTORE ORDERING OF MATRIX
        DO 1000 L = 1, M
          K = M + 1 - L
          J = IK(K)
          IF (J .GT. K ) THEN
            DO 1100 I = 1, M
              SAVE = MARRAY(I,K)
              MARRAY(I,K) = -MARRAY(I,J)
              MARRAY(I,J) = SAVE
1100    CONTINUE      I--- DO I
          ENDIF           I--- IF J
          I = JK(K)
          IF (I .GT. K ) THEN
            DO 1200 J = 1, M
              SAVE = MARRAY(K,J)
              MARRAY(K,J) = -MARRAY(I,J)
              MARRAY(I,J) = SAVE
1200    CONTINUE I--- DO J

```

```

        ENDIF           I--- IF I
1000  CONTINUE
        RETURN
        END

SUBROUTINE LINEARBY SQUARE(M, A, B, C) I--- MATRIX PRODUCT
INTEGER M
REAL A(10), B(10,10), C(10)
INTEGER I,J
DO 100 I = 1, M
  C(I)=0
  DO 200 J = 1, M
    C(I)=C(I) + A(J)*B(I,J)
200  CONTINUE
100   CONTINUE
        RETURN
        END

E.10 Routines from Appendix C
C PROGRAM C.1: \APPEND-C\STUDENTS_T.FOR
C CALCULATES BOTH THE GAUSSIAN PROBABILITY
C AND THE STUDENT'S T PROBABILITY FOR EXCEEDING A GIVEN VALUE
C OF (MU-X)/SIGMA, WHERE MU IS THE MEAN VALUE OF X AND SIGMA IS
C THE UNCERTAINTY IN THE MEAN.
C FOR SPEED, AND TO REDUCE POSSIBILITY OF OVERFLOW, WE
C CALCULATE THE RATIO OF THE GAMMA FUNCTIONS DIRECTLY
C IN FUNCTION GAMMACONST.
C TO IMPROVE SPEED AND ACCURACY BY USING SIMPSON'S FOR INTEGRATION
C

PROGRAM STUDENTS_T
REAL GP,TP, T
INTEGER NU
PRINT *, 'TYPE NDOF AND T = |MU - X|/SIGMA '
READ *, NU, T
CALL GTPROB(GP, TP, NU, T)
PRINT 1100, 100*TP, 100*(1-TP)
PRINT 1200, 100*GP, 100*(1-GP)
1100 FORMAT(' PROB (STUDENT'S T) = ',F5.2,'%', 1-PROB = ',F5.2, '%')
1200 FORMAT(' PROB (GAUSSIAN) = ',F5.2, '%', 1-PROB = ',F5.2, '%')
END

REAL FUNCTION STUDENTST(NU, T, G) 1STUDENT'S T DISTRIBUTION
INTEGER NU
REAL T, G, X
C X = (1/SQRT(NU*PI)) * (GAMMA((NU+1)/2)/GAMMA(NU/2))*(1+T^2/NU)^(-(NU+1)/2)
X = G*EXP( -(NU+1)/2 * ALOG(1+T^2/NU))
STUDENTST = X
END

REAL FUNCTION GAUSS(X)
```

```

REAL PI/3.14159/X
GAUSS = EXP(-X*X/2)/SQRT(2*PI)
RETURN
END

C GAUSSIAN AND STUDENT'S T PROBABILITIES
SUBROUTINE GTPROB(GPROB, TPROB, N, T) !INTEGRAL FROM -T TO +
REAL GPROB, TPROB,T
INTEGER N
REAL GAM, T1, SUMT, SUMG, DT
GAM = GAMMACONST(N)      !RATIO OF GAMMAS - FOR SPEED
DT   = 0.0001             !INTEGRATION STEP
T1   = 0
SUMT = 0
SUMG = 0
DOWHILE ((T1 .LT. T) .AND. (SUMT*DT .LT. 0.5)) !SIMPLE INTEGRATION.
C REPLACE BY SIMPSON'S RULE FOR BETTER SPEED AND ACCURACY
    SUMT = SUMT + STUDENTST(N,T1,GAM)
    SUMG = SUMG + GAUSS(T1)
    T1 = T1 + DT
ENDDO
TPROB = 2*SUMT*DT
GPROB = 2*SUMG*DT
RETURN
END

REAL FUNCTION GAMMACONST(N)
C G = GAMMA((H+1)/2)/GAMMA(H/2)/SQRT(H*PI)
C PRE-CALCULATE RATIO FOR SPEED AND TO AVOID OVERFLOW
    INTEGER N
    REAL PI/3.14159/
    REAL H, Y1,Y2, G
    H = N
    Y1 = -0.5*(H+1) + 0.5*(H) * ALOG(0.5*(H+1))
    Y2 = -0.5*H + 0.5*(H-1)*ALOG(0.5*H)
    G = EXP(Y1-Y2)*(1+0.0833/(0.5*(H+1)))/((1+0.0833/(0.5*H))
    1 *SQRT(H*PI))
    GAMMACONST = G
    RETURN
END
END

```

### E.11 Routines from Appendix D

```

C PROGRAM D.1: \APPEND-D\QUIKSCR.PRG
C CREATE A SCRIPT FILE TO DISPLAY SIMPLE GRAPHS AND HISTOGRAMS
C THE FILE IS READ AND INTERPRETED BY \APPEND-D\QDISPLAY.EXE

C PROGRAM D.2: \APPEND-D\QUIKHIST.PRG
C ASSIGNS DATA TO HISTOGRAM BINS AND PLOTS HISTOGRAM EITHER
C AS SCREEN CHARACTERS OR IN SCREEN GRAPHICS THROUGH QUIKSCR

```

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