

Understanding a distribution of measurements

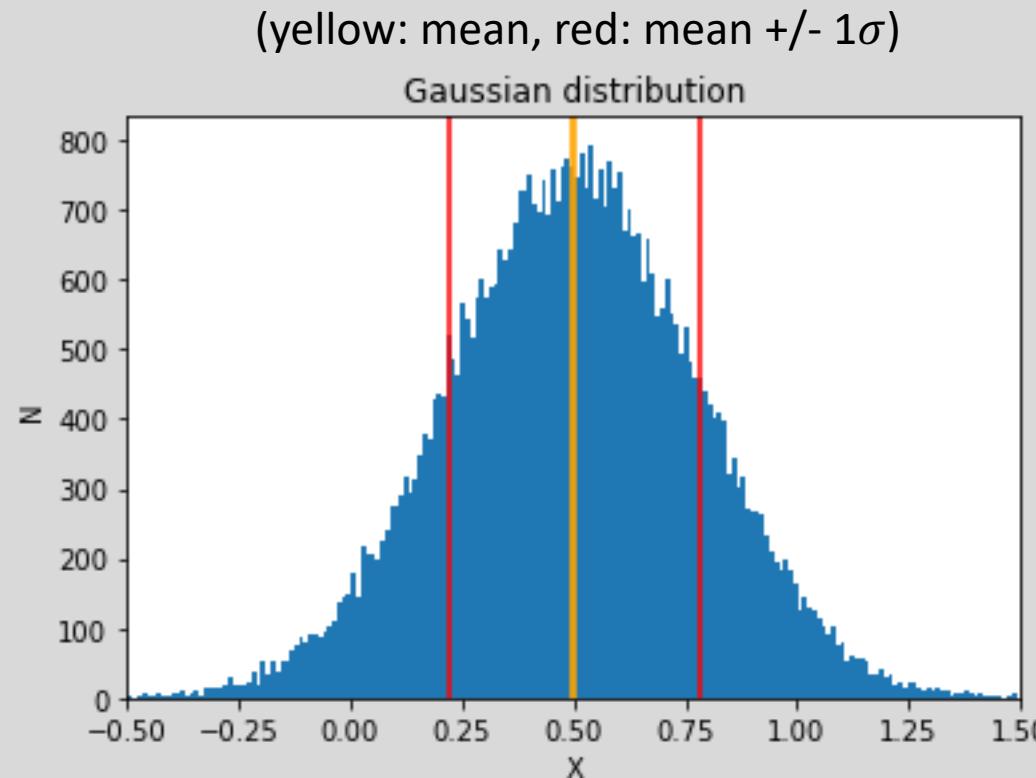
Let's say you have a repeated measurements of some value. How do we estimate the best value and uncertainty.

If your errors are independent and follow a Gaussian distribution:

- measure mean and standard deviation (\bar{x}, σ)
- “standard error in the mean” is given by σ/\sqrt{N}

```
mean      = np.average(data)
stdev     = np.std(data)
mean_err  = stdev/np.sqrt(len(data))
```

Is this a good assumption? Take a distribution of 50,000 measurements with $\bar{x}, \sigma = 0.5, 0.28$, look at distribution.



Understanding a distribution of measurements

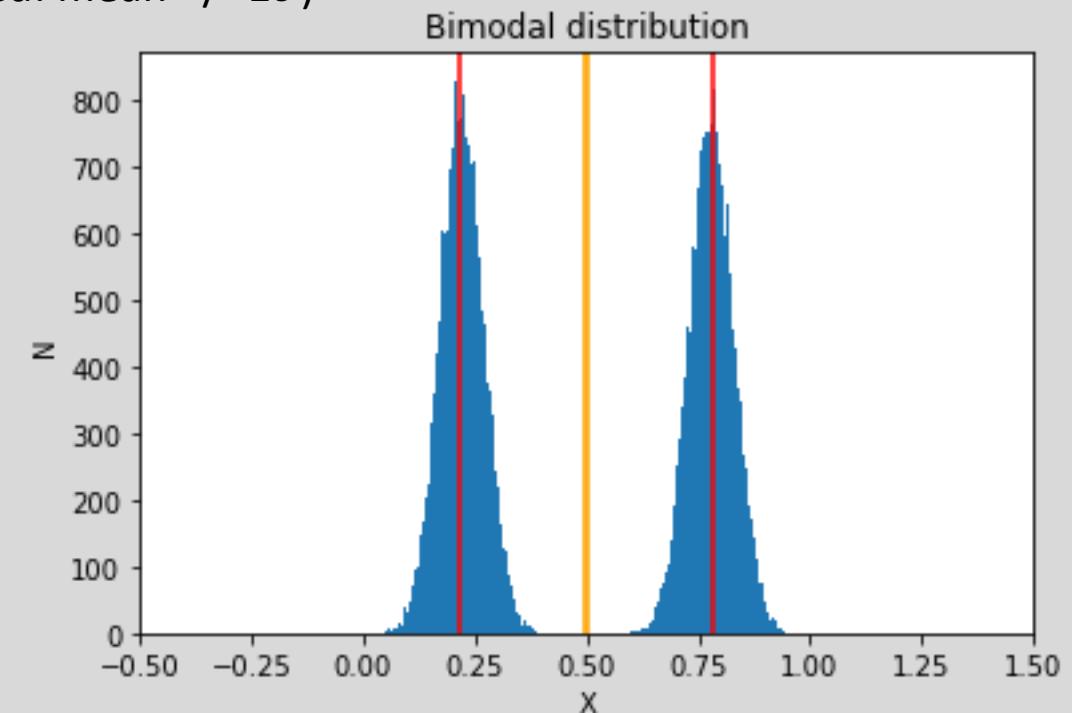
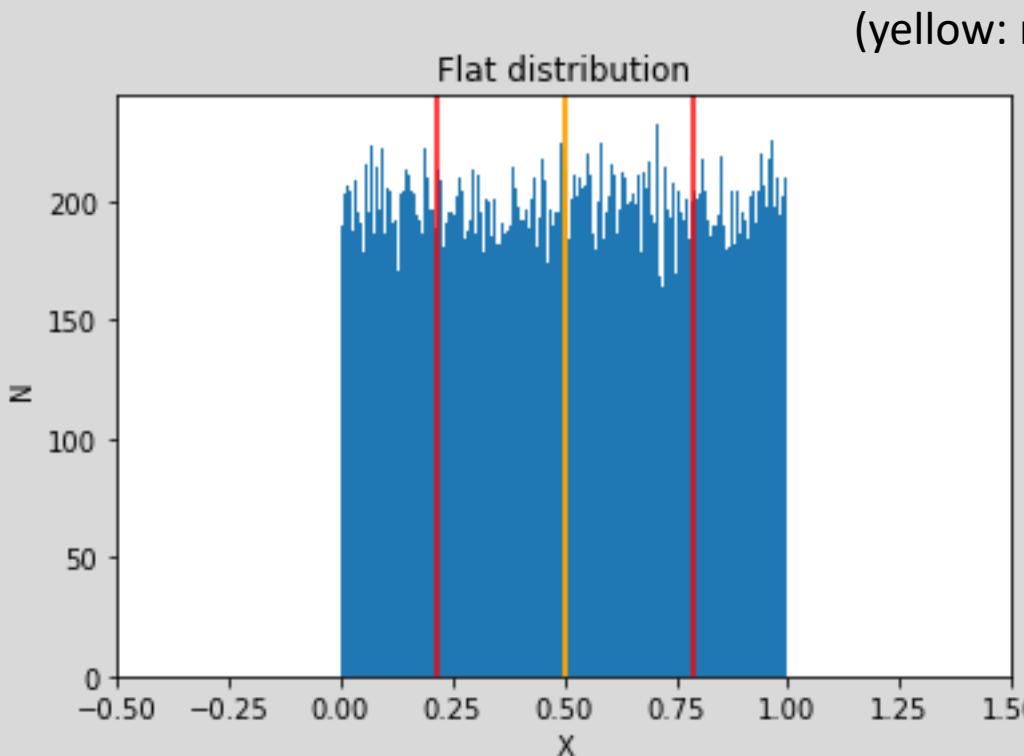
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But other distributions can mimic the same answer, and may or may not be meaningful!



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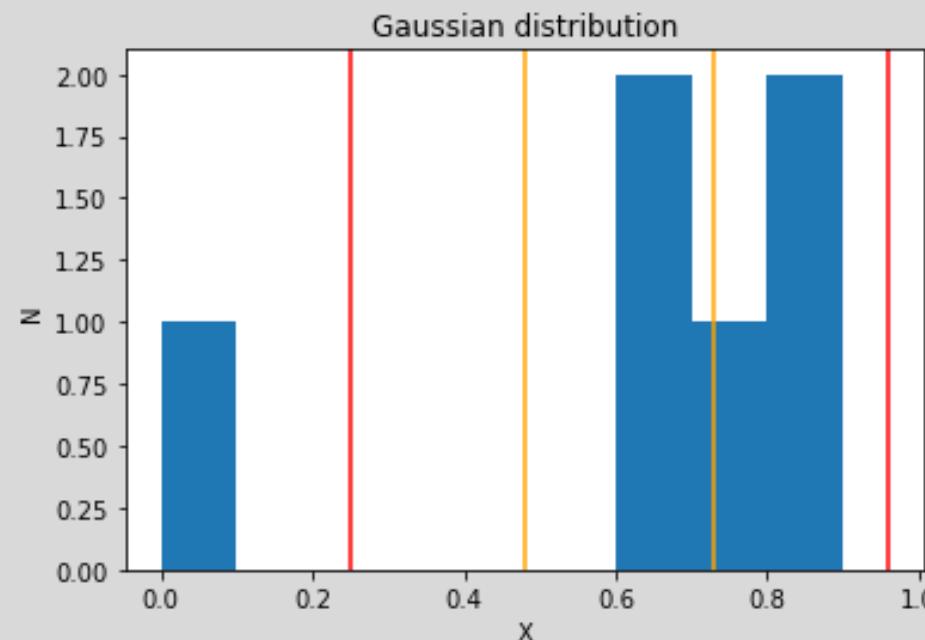
And when the amount of data is small, it can be hard to tell if these are good estimates!

(yellow: mean, red: mean $\pm 1\sigma$)

Moral of the story:

Gotta look at your data!

Do a `plt.hist(data)` to be
sure.



Characterizing a linear (or linearized) relationship:

- Dataset of N points: (x_i, y_i)
- Fit a line to data: $y = mx + b$
- Calculate **slope**, **intercept**, and their **uncertainties**: $m \pm \sigma_m, b \pm \sigma_b$
- Calculate root-mean-square (RMS) **scatter** around the fit: $\sigma_{RMS}^2 \equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum (y_i - y_{fit})^2$

The importance of scatter

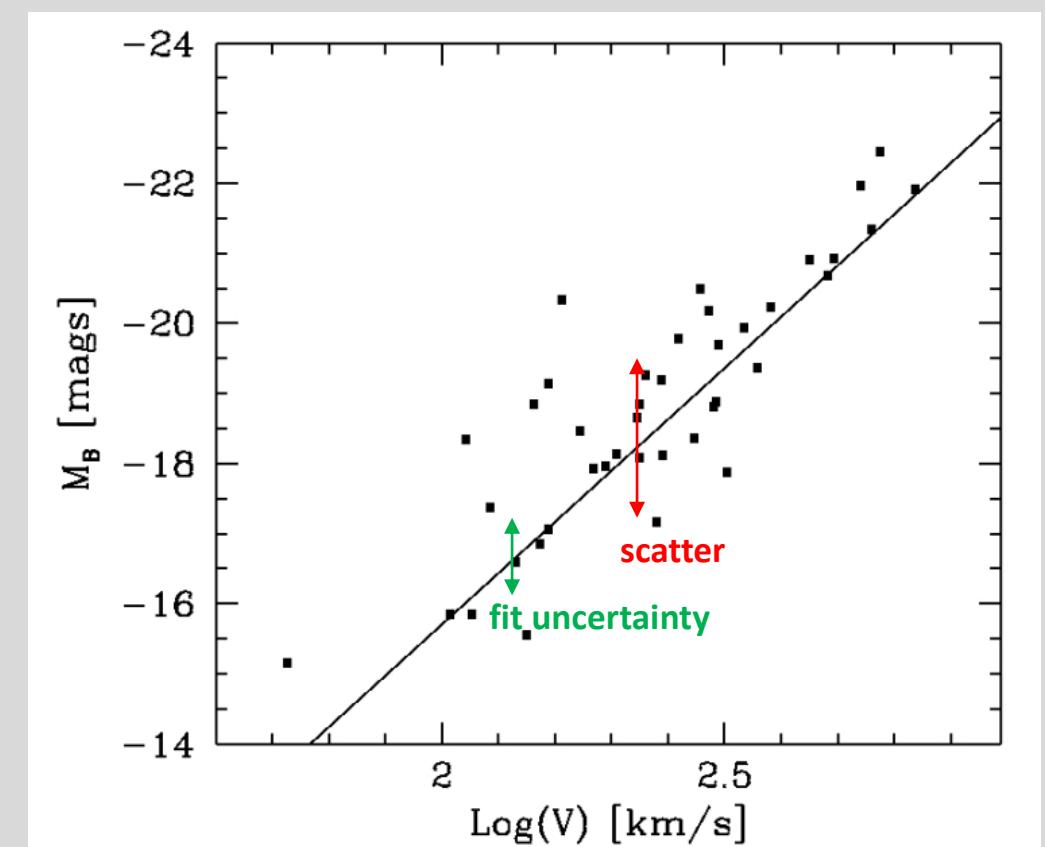
The uncertainties on the fit tell you how well-determined the fit parameters are.

The scatter of the fit tells you how well, on average, individual data points obey the relationship.

Example: Tully Fisher Relationship \Rightarrow

Lower fit uncertainties mean that the TF relationship is better-determined.

Large scatter means any one galaxy may not perfectly obey TF.



Characterizing a linear (or linearized) relationship (least squares fitting, assuming Gaussian statistics):

```
# make a linear fit, and calculate uncertainty and scatter  
  
good = <some criterion> # dont want to include bad data  
  
coeff, cov = np.polyfit(x[good],y[good],1,cov=True)  
  
coeff_err = np.sqrt(np.diag(cov))  
  
print(' slope = {:.3f} +/- {:.3f}'.format(coeff[0],coeff_err[0]))  
  
print('intercept = {:.3f} +/- {:.3f}'.format(coeff[1],coeff_err[1]))  
  
polynomial=np.poly1d(coeff)  
  
xfit=np.linspace(x.min(),x.max())  
  
plt.plot(xfit,polynomial(xfit),color='green',lw=3)  
  
print(' scatter = {:.3f}'.format(np.std(y[good]-polynomial(x[good]))))
```

Linearization

Sometimes you will need to fit a power law, or a sinusoid, or an exponential. These are non-linear models, but can be made linear.

Power Law: $y = x^\alpha$, fit for α

Linearize it: $\log(y) = \log(x^\alpha) = \alpha \log(x)$, so fit a straight line to $\log(y)$ versus $\log(x)$, then the slope is alpha

Sine function: $y = A \sin x + B$, fit for A and B .

Linearize it: it is already linear if you fit a straight line to y vs $\sin(x)$ rather than y vs x .

Exponential: $Y = e^{-x/h}$, fit for h

Linearize it: $\ln y = \ln(e^{-x/h}) = \frac{-1}{h}x$, so fit a straight line to $\ln(y)$ vs x and then h is -1/slope.

Simple Gaussian Propagation of Errors: Adding, Subtracting, Averaging

If you are adding or subtracting two things with uncertainties, the total uncertainty is the **quadrature sum** of the individual uncertainties:

$$z = x \pm y$$

$$\sigma_z^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2$$

If you are averaging many data values together ($x_i \pm \sigma_{x_i}$) to get a final “best estimate” of what’s being measured, the uncertainty on that estimate is given by the **standard error of the mean**:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

$$\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sigma_{x_i}$$

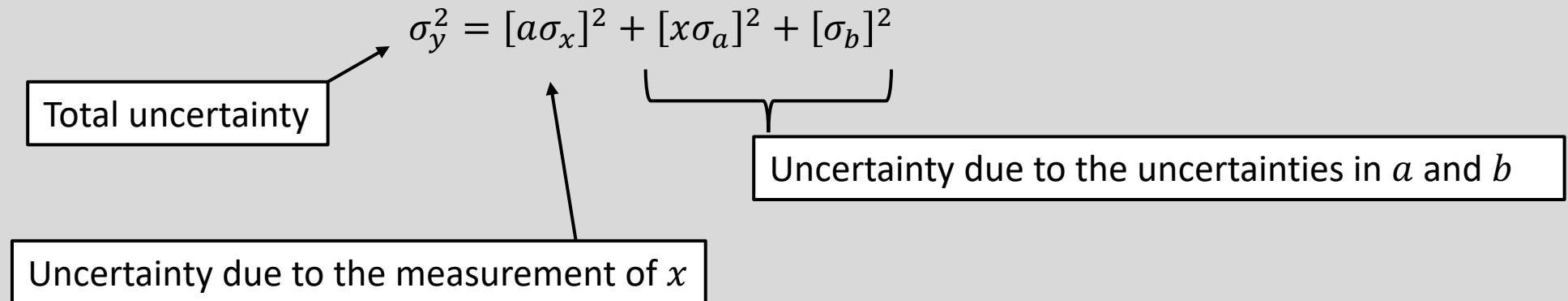
Simple Gaussian Propagation of Errors: Using a linear (or linearized) function

$$y = f(x) = ax + b$$

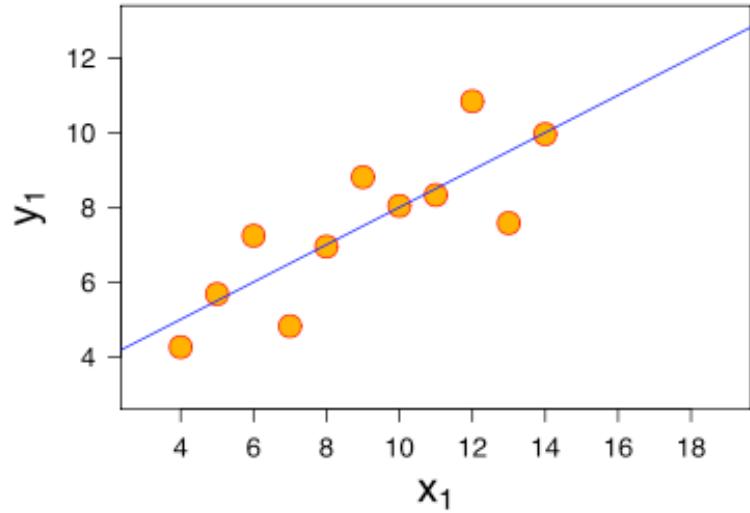
Propagate errors using the gradient method, adding in quadrature the error due to each of a , x , and b :

$$\sigma_y^2 = \left[\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) \sigma_x \right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial a} \right) \sigma_a \right]^2 + \left[\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial b} \right) \sigma_b \right]^2$$

so

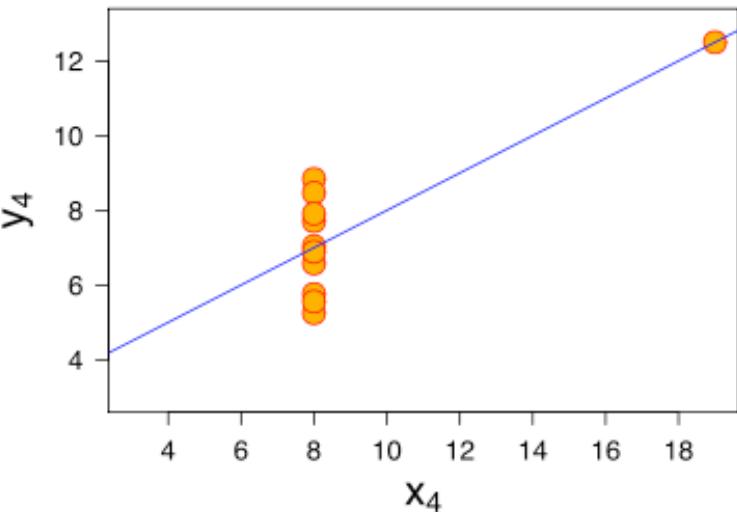
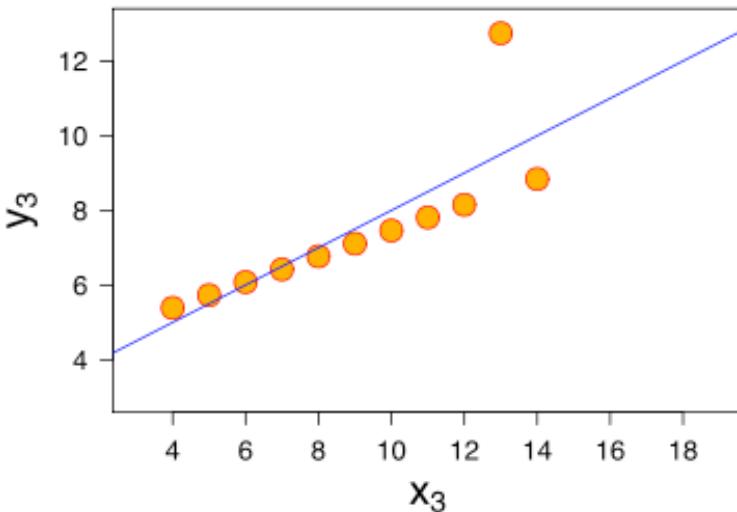
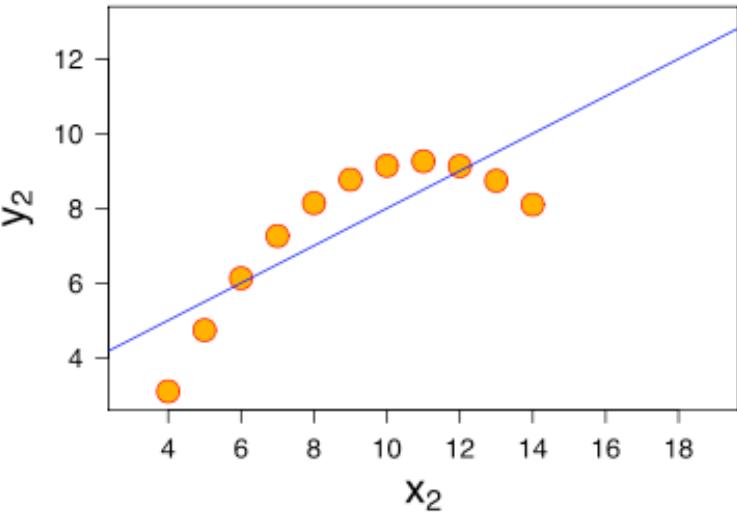
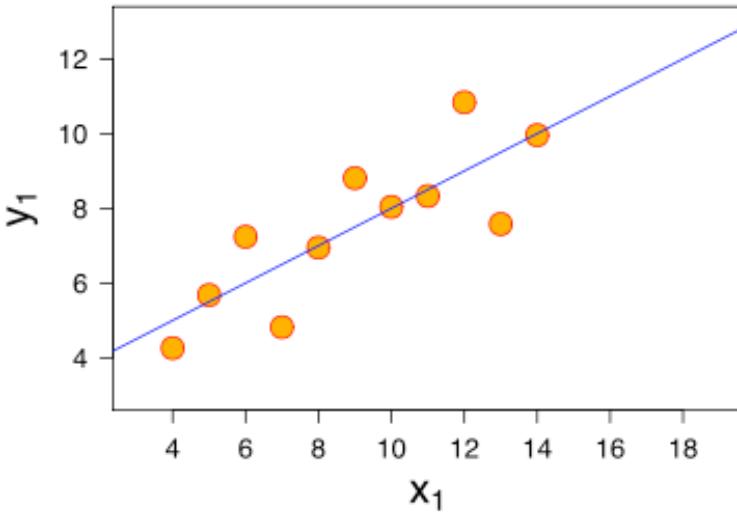


**But be careful
with fits...**



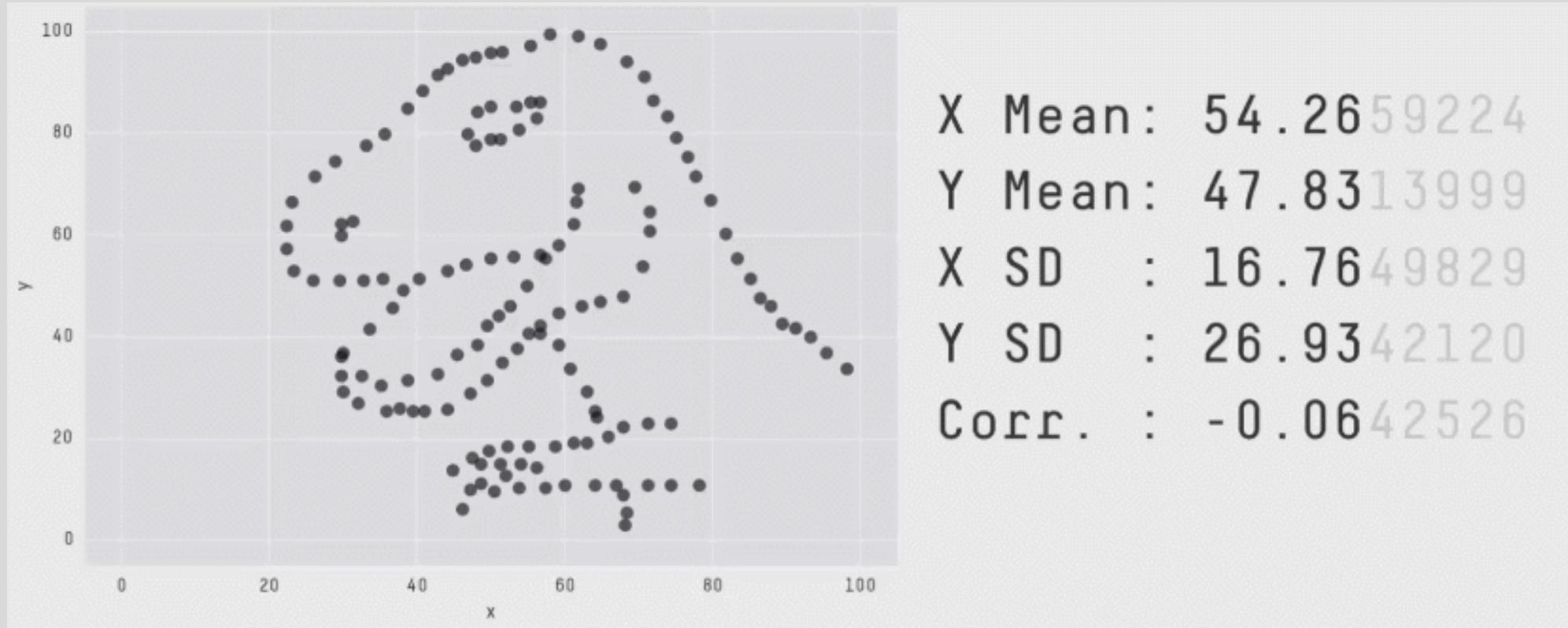
Anscombe's quartet: Fit $y=mx+b$ and get the same r (correlation coefficient), m , b , σ_m , σ_b , σ_{RMS}

But be careful
with fits...



Anscombe's quartet: Fit $y=mx+b$ and get the same r (correlation coefficient), m , b , σ_m , σ_b , σ_{RMS}

Beware the datasaurus!



Moral of the story: ALWAYS PLOT YOUR DATA AND ALWAYS OVERPLOT YOUR FITS!