Class 5: Error Estimates

In this class we will review methods to determine statistical errors by re-sampling data, Monte Carlo simulations or error propagation

Class 5: Error Estimates

At the end of this class you should be able to ...

- ... understand the definition of an error range
- ... generate errors through re-sampling data using bootstrap or jack-knife procedures
- ... propagate errors in different quantities in linear or nonlinear combinations
- ... use Fisher matrices to forecast parameter errors
- ... model errors using Monte Carlo simulations

What is an error?

- In science we all need to determine the errors in our measurements
- What does a statement such as " $H_0 = 70 \pm 5 \text{ km s}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ " mean?
- It almost never means, " H_0 has a value between 65 and 75"
- It almost always means, "there is 68% probability that H_0 lies in the **confidence region** $65 < H_0 < 75$ "
- It often means, "the probability distribution for H_0 is a Gaussian with mean $\mu = 70$ and std dev $\sigma = 5$



Statistical versus systematic errors



- Statistical (or random) errors are due to noise fluctuations in our data, which are reduced by collecting more data
- Systematic errors are consistent offsets due to incorrect calibration of our measurements, which are not reduced by collecting more data
- We focus here on **estimating statistical errors** in data

Error estimation

- Often we have no analytic model for the statistics we estimate from our data. However, we can still determine errors in these statistics using approximate sampling procedures
- The basic idea is to build up many "statistical realizations" of the data by random re-sampling, and use the scatter across these realizations to estimate the error
- We will consider here the jack-knife procedure, bootstrap procedure and Monte Carlo simulations

- The **jack-knife procedure** allows us to estimate the error in a statistic by re-sampling the data (without replacement)
- Given a dataset with N entries (x₁, x₂, x₃, ..., x_N), we create N separate datasets, deleting 1 entry in turn

Dataset 1 – delete $x_1 – D_1 = (x_2, x_3, ..., x_N)$ Dataset 2 – delete $x_2 – D_2 = (x_1, x_3, ..., x_N)$

- We measure the statistic for each of these datasets (D₁, D₂, ..., D_N), creating N measurements (S₁, S₂, ..., S_N)
- The error is given by: $|JK error = \sqrt{N-1} \times std dev of S_i|$
- [Small print: The factor $\sqrt{N-1}$ is required since the S_i are correlated with each other, given that the datasets D_i all significantly overlap.]

• Let's apply this procedure to the problem of fitting the straight line from Class 3. Here are the 10 jack-knife samples:



• Here are the best fits of (a, b) to each of those samples, compared to the original χ^2 contours:



• In some situations, the jack-knife samples could be created by deleting **regions** or **groups of points**, not individual points



• [Small print: this could be because each portion of the dataset, deleted in turn, should be statistically independent for a reliable jack-knife error.]

- The **bootstrap procedure** is another method for estimating errors by re-sampling the data
- If we have N data points, the procedure is to **repeatedly** draw samples of N points at random, with replacement
- Hence, the same point can appear multiple times in each bootstrap sample!

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- The **bootstrap procedure** is another method for estimating errors by re-sampling the data
- If we have N data points, the procedure is to **repeatedly** draw samples of N points at random, with replacement
- Hence, the same point can appear multiple times in each bootstrap sample!
- As with the jack-knife error, we measure the statistic for **each** of these bootstrap datasets (which can number $N_{\text{samp}} \gg N$ this time), creating measurements S_i
- The bootstrap error = the standard deviation of S_i (no extra scaling factors this time)

• Let's apply this approach to the straight-line fit. Here are the first 12 of 1000 bootstrap re-samples:



(I slightly offset the points, so you can see some are appearing more than once in each sample.)

• Here are the best fits of (a, b) for each of the 1000 bootstrap re-samples, compared to the original χ^2 contours:



- In this Activity we will return to our previous analyses of Hubble and Lemaitre's distance-velocity datasets and determine **bootstrap errors** on our measurements
- Find the bootstrap Lemaitre (1927) Hubble (1929) • 2000 2000 error in the **correlation** 1500 1500 coefficient /elocity [km/s] /elocity [km/s] 1000 1000 Find the bootstrap error in the slope H_0 500 500 0 0 • How do these compare to your previous -500 -500 -2 0 2 0 measurements? Distance [Mpc] Distance [Mpc]

• Bootstrap determination of the correlation coefficient errors:



• Bootstrap determination of the errors in the slope:



Combining and propagating errors

- A common situation in statistical analysis: we have measurements and errors of some variables. What is the error in a function of those variables?
- First example: a **linear function of independent variables** (*x*, *y*) with coefficients (*a*, *b*):

z = a x + b y

• The variances combine as:

 $Var(z) = a^2 Var(x) + b^2 Var(y)$

• [Why? Consider $\operatorname{Var}(z) = \langle z^2 \rangle - \langle z \rangle^2 = \langle (ax + by)^2 \rangle - (a\langle x \rangle + b\langle y \rangle)^2 = a^2 \langle x^2 \rangle + 2ab \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle + b^2 \langle y^2 \rangle - a^2 \langle x \rangle^2 - 2ab \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle - b^2 \langle y \rangle^2 = a^2 \operatorname{Var}(x) + b^2 \operatorname{Var}(y)$]

Combining and propagating errors

• Now: a **non-linear function of a single variable** *x*:

z = f(x)

• An approximation of the propagated error at $x = x_0$ is:

$$\sigma_z = \left| \frac{df}{dx} (x = x_0) \right| \, \sigma_x$$

- [Small print: this approximation uses the chain rule and assumes the derivative df/dx is approximately constant across σ_x]
- A non-linear function of 2 independent variables, z = f(x, y):

$$\operatorname{Var}(z) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 \operatorname{Var}(x) + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2 \operatorname{Var}(y)$$

Combining and propagating errors

• A galaxy of absolute magnitude M = -20 is observed to have an apparent magnitude $m = 20.0 \pm 0.2$. What is the luminosity distance D_L in Mpc, and its error? [Assume $m - M = 5 \log_{10} D_L + 25$]

• The total mass of a binary star system (in M_{\odot}) is given by Kepler's law $M = a^3/P^2$, where a is the mean separation (in A.U.) and P is the period (in years). The α Centauri system has a period of $P = 79.9 \pm 1.0$ years and mean separation $a = 23.7 \pm 1.0$ A.U. What is the total mass and error?

Fisher matrix

• The **Fisher matrix** is a mathematical technique to propagate the statistical errors in a dataset, to the errors in the model parameters describing the dataset. The matrix is given by:



[Small print: assumes Gaussian errors and uncorrelated data points.]

Fisher matrix

$$F_{ij} = \sum_{k} \frac{\partial m_k}{\partial p_i} \frac{1}{\sigma_k^2} \frac{\partial m_k}{\partial p_j}$$

- Let's evaluate this for the example of **fitting a straight line**, y = ax + b at N positions x_k
- There are 2 parameters, $p_i = (a, b)$
- The model is $m_k = ax_k + b$, so $\frac{\partial m_k}{\partial p_1} = x_k$ and $\frac{\partial m_k}{\partial p_2} = 1$
- The Fisher matrix is hence:

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{11} & F_{12} \\ F_{21} & F_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k} \frac{\pi}{\sigma_{k}^{2}} \\ \sum_{k} \frac{x_{k}}{\sigma_{k}^{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k} \frac{x_{k}^{2}}{\sigma_{k}^{2}} & \sum_{k} \frac{x_{k}}{\sigma_{k}^{2}} \\ \sum_{k} \frac{x_{k}}{\sigma_{k}^{2}} & \sum_{k} \frac{1}{\sigma_{k}^{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Fisher matrix

- We have $x_k = (0.5, 1.5, \dots, 9.5)$ and $\sigma_k = 0.5$, so we can evaluate the above matrix to $F = \begin{pmatrix} 1330 & 200 \\ 200 & 40 \end{pmatrix}$
- The covariance matrix of the parameters is then given by the inverse of the Fisher matrix:

$$C = F^{-1}$$
Error in $p_1 = \sqrt{C_{11}}$
Error in $p_2 = \sqrt{C_{22}}$

- For our example, $C = \begin{pmatrix} 0.003 & -0.015 \\ -0.015 & 0.101 \end{pmatrix}$ hence the forecast errors are $\sigma_a = \sqrt{C_{11}} = 0.05$ and $\sigma_b = \sqrt{C_{22}} = 0.32$
- We have propagated the errors theoretically, without needing to perform any re-sampling

Monte Carlo simulations

- A Monte Carlo simulation is a computer model of an experiment in which many random realizations of the results are created and analysed like the real data
- This allows us to determine the errors in our measurements, as the *standard deviation of the fitted parameters over the realizations*



"many realizations of an experiment"

 Run a Monte Carlo simulation of Hubble's distance-redshift investigation, and hence determine the error in H₀



Summary

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