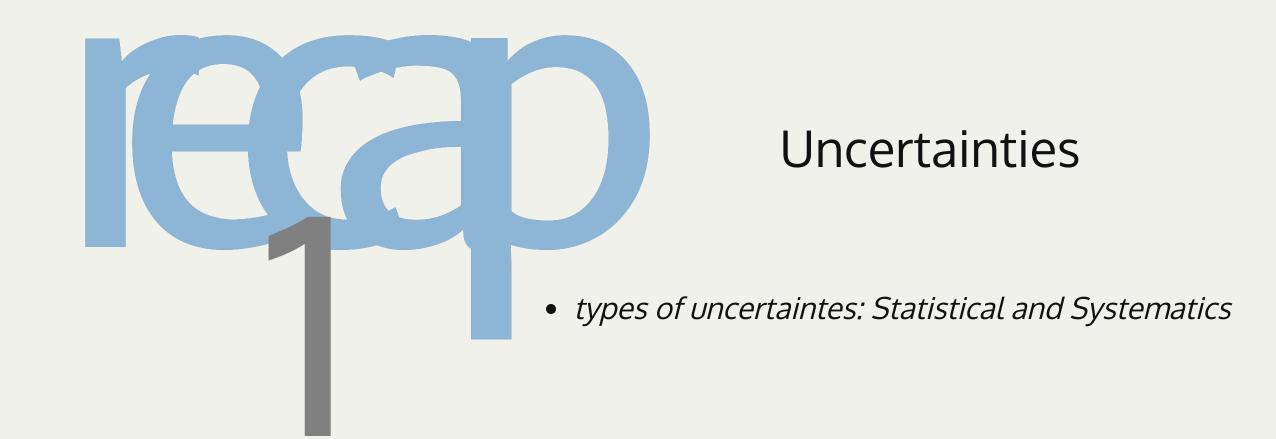
### data science for (physical) scientists V

the ABC of regression



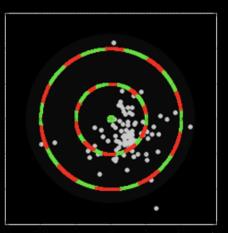


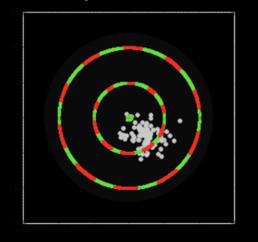
### Stochastic vs Systematics

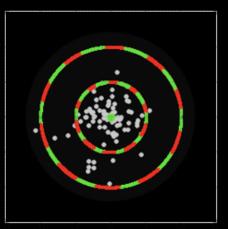
Systematic	Statistical
Biases the measurement in one	No preferred direction
direction	
Affects the sample regardless of	Shrinks with the sample size
the size	(typically as N)
Any distribution (usually we use	Typically Gaussian or Poisson
Gaussian though)	

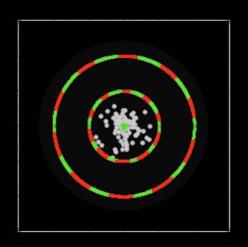
## Precision vs Accuracy Precision

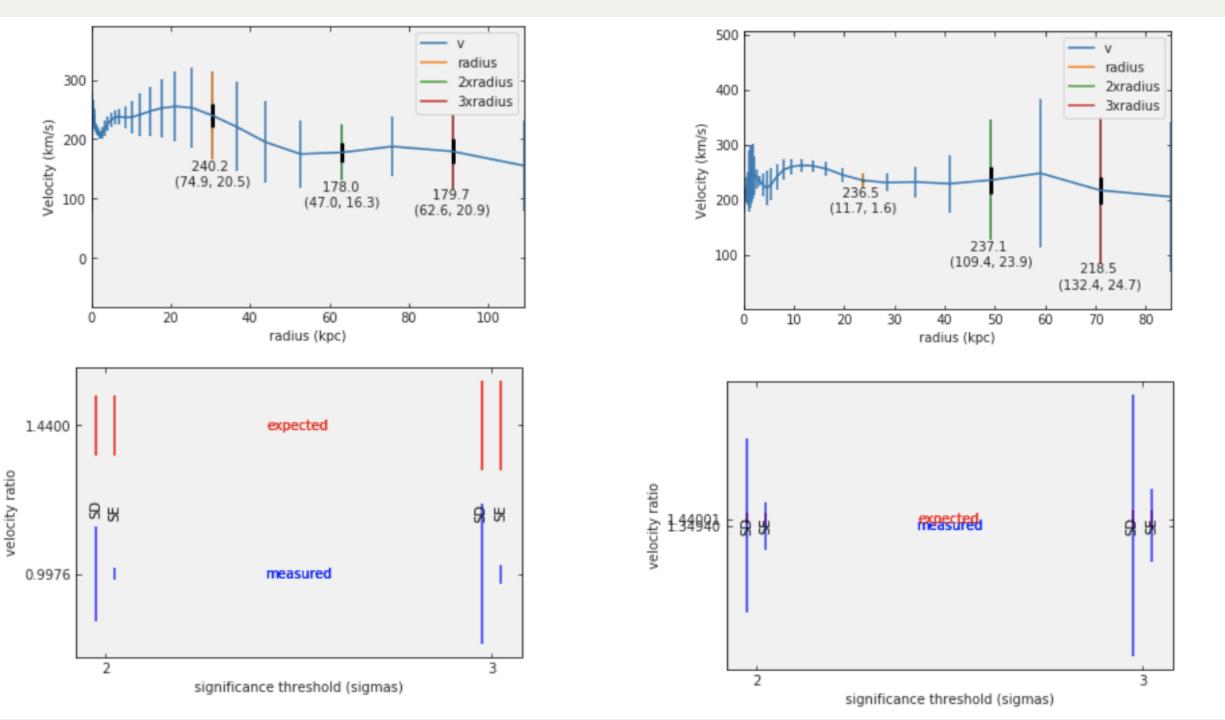












$$z = x \pm y \sim 1 \sim dz = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2} \tag{1}$$

$$z = x * y \sim 1 \sim dz = |xy| \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{y}\right)^2}$$
 (2)

$$z = x / y \sim 1 \qquad dz = \left| \frac{x}{y} \right| \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{y}\right)^2}$$

$$z = x^n \sim 1 \qquad dz = |n| \sim x^{n-1} dx$$
(3)

$$z = x^n \sim -dz = |n| \sim x^{n-1} dx \tag{4}$$

$$z = cx \sim | -dz = |c| \sim dx \tag{5}$$

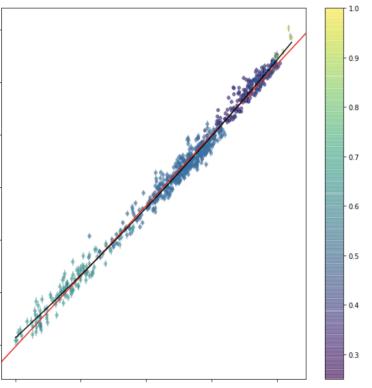
$$z = cx \sim | \sim dz = |c| \sim dx$$

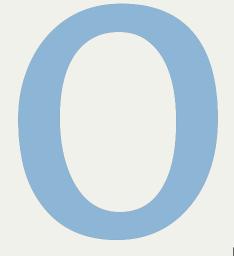
$$z = f(x, y) \sim | \sim dz = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 dx^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2 dy^2}$$
(5)

- 1 what is a model 2 the principle of parsimony 3 fitting a model to data epistemology

line fit standard linear fit higher order equation uncertainties in the fit parameters generative models

4 cross-validation



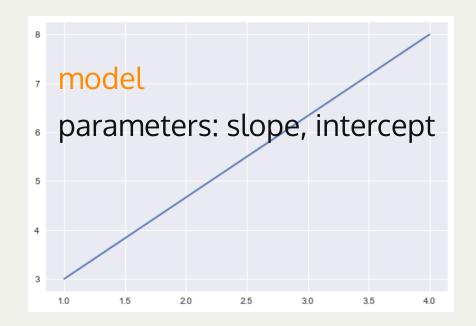


[Machine Learning is the] field of study that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed.

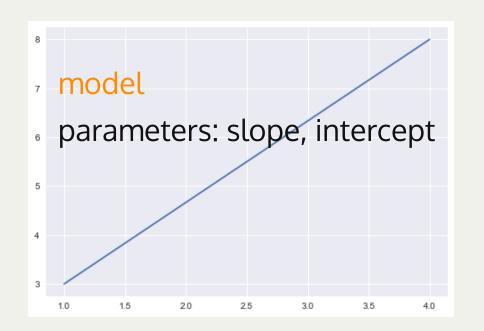
Arthur Samuel, 1959

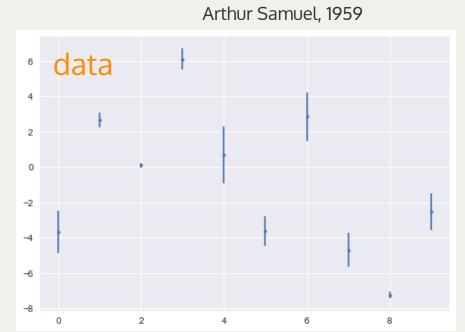
[Machine Learning is the] field of study that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed.

Arthur Samuel, 1959

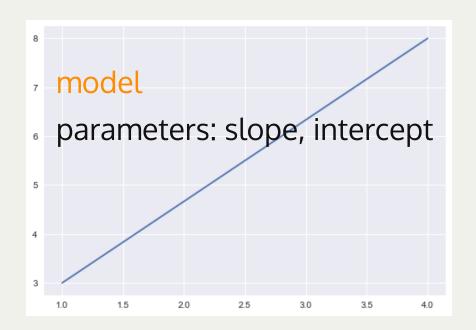


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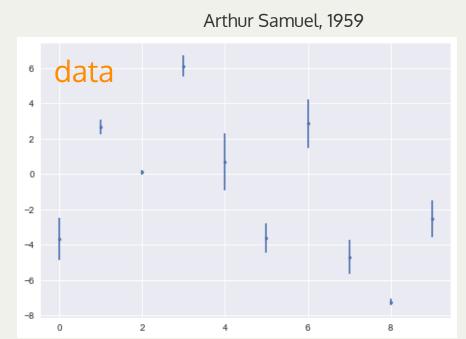


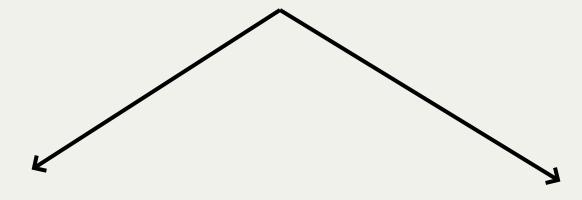


[Machine Learning is the] field of study that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed.



ML: any model with parameters learnt from the data





#### supervised learning

extract features and create models that allow prediction where the correct answer is known for a subset of the data

#### unsupervised learning

identify features and create models that allow to understand structure in the data

- k-Nearest Neighbors
- Regression
- Support Vector Machines
- Neural networks
- Classification/Regression Trees

#### supervised learning

extract features and create models that allow prediction where the correct answer is known for a subset of the data

- clustering
- Principle Component Analsysis
- Apriori (association rule)

#### unsupervised learning

identify features and create models that allow to understand structure in the data

- k-Nearest Neighbors
- Regression
- Support Vector Machines
- Neural networks
- Classification/Regression Trees supervised learning

classification
prediction
feature selection

- clustering
- Principle Component Analsysis
- Apriori (association rule)

unsupervised learning
understanding structure
organizing + compressing data
anomaly detection
dimensionality reduction

## what is a model? it's always a simplification

## a *mathematical* representastion of reality

In applying mathematics to subjects such as physics or statistics we make tentative assumptions about the real world which we know are false but which we believe may be useful nonetheless.

George Box, 1976

- no model is right
- some models are useful

## what is a model? what is a model? why do we model?

1

https://www.youtube.com/embed/Tk2v1UaTgmk? enablejsapi=1

1. to undestand

## why do we model?

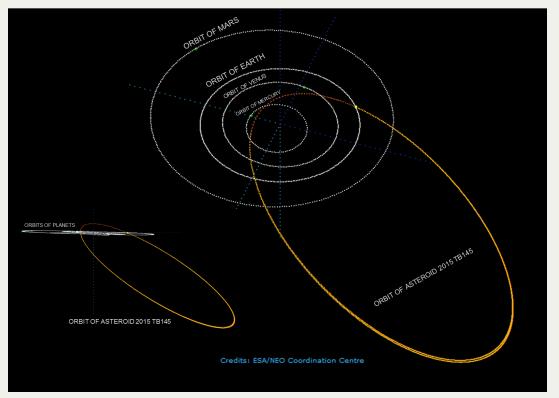
1

https://www.youtube.com/embed/Tk2v1UaTgmk? enablejsapi=1

#### 1. to undestand

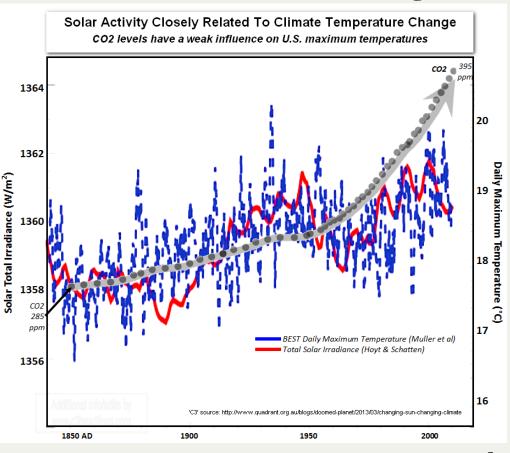
$$h(t+t_0) = v_0 t - \frac{1}{2}gt^2$$

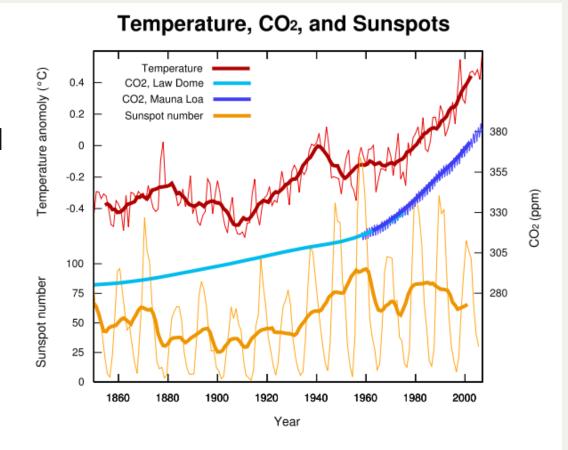
## why do we model?



2. to predict 
$$r(
u) = rac{a(1-e^2)}{1+e\cos(
u)}$$

why do we model?





to understand + predict

## the best way to think about it in the ML context:

a model is a low dimensional representation of a higher dimensionality datase

#### Pluralitas non est ponenda sine neccesitate

William of Ockham (logician and Franciscan friar) 1300ca but probably to be attributed to John Duns Scotus (1265–1308)

"Complexity needs not to be postulated without a need for it"

Schema huius præmissæ diuisionis Sphærarum.

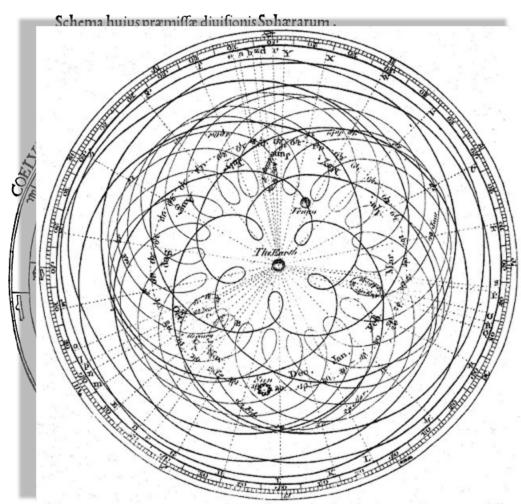


the earth is round, and it orbits around the sun

Geocentric models are intuitive: from our perspective we see the Sun moving, while we stay still

Peter Apian, Cosmographia, Antwerp, 1524 from Edward Grant,

"Celestial Orbs in the Latin Middle Ages", Isis, Vol. 78, No. 2. (Jun., 1987).

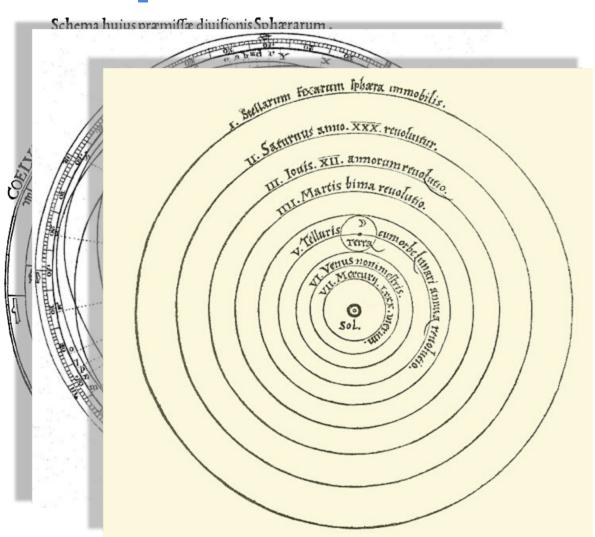


Encyclopaedia Brittanica 1st Edition

Dr Long's copy of Cassini, 1777

the earth is round, and it orbits around the sun

As observations improve this model can no longer fit the data! not easily anyways...



the earth is round, and it orbits around the sun

A new model that is much simpler fit the data just as well (perhaps though only until better data comes...)

Heliocentric model from Nicolaus Copernicus' De revolutionibus orbium coelestium.

#### Pluralitas non est ponenda sine neccesitate

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"Complexity needs not to be postulated without a need for it"

"Between 2 theories that perform similarly choose the *simpler one*"

#### Pluralitas non est ponenda sine neccesitate

William of Ockham (logician and Franciscan friar) 1300ca but probably to be attributed to John Duns Scotus (1265–1308)

"Complexity needs not to be postulated without a need for it"

"Between 2 theories that perform similarly choose the *one with fewer parameters*"

Science and Statistics George E. P. Box (1976)
Journal of the American Statistical Association, Vol. 71, No. 356, pp. 791-799.

Since all models are wrong the scientist cannot obtain a "correct" one by excessive elaboration. On the contrary following William of Occam he should seek an economical description of natural phenomena

Since all models are wrong the scientist must be alert to what is importantly wrong.

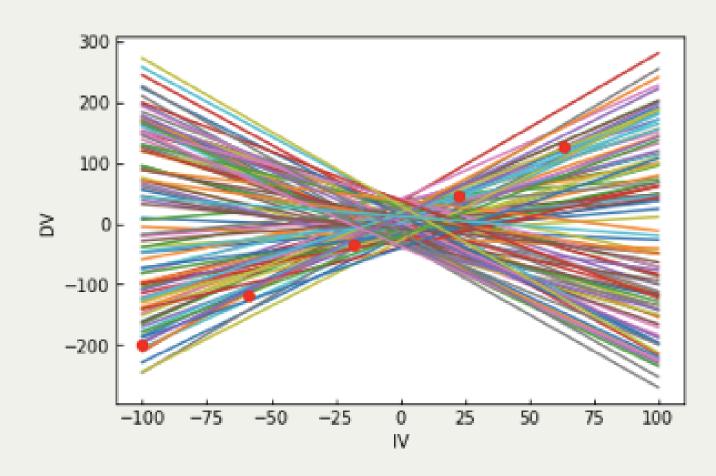
## fitting a simple model to data

## Many packages do it in python!

- numpy (e.g. np.polyfit)
- scipy (e.g. sp.optimize.curve\_fit)
- skitlearn.linear\_model.LinearRegression()

but what are they doing??

#### line model: ax+b

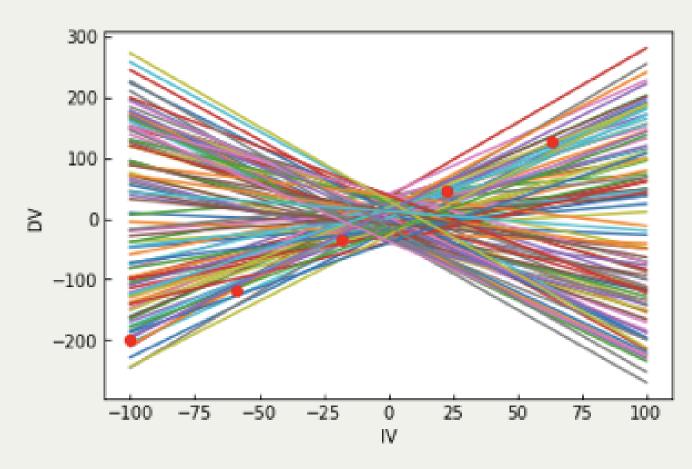


1

#### choose your model:

choose a mathematical formula to represent the behavior you see/expect in the data

#### line model: ax+b



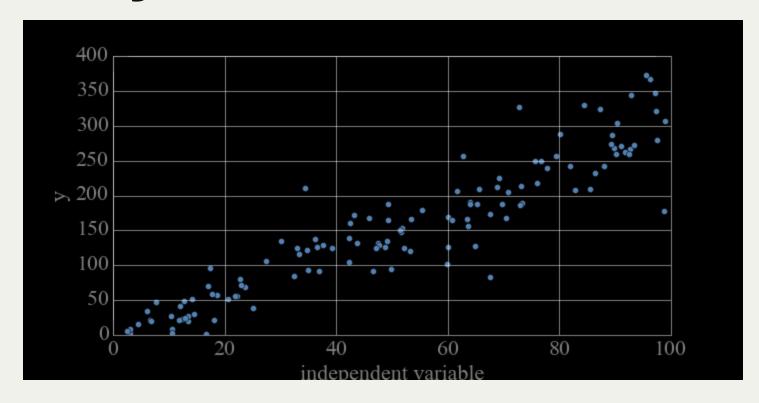
2

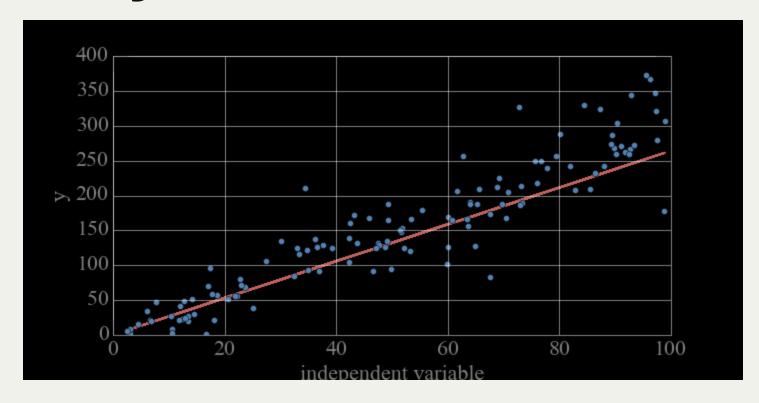
#### choose an objective function:

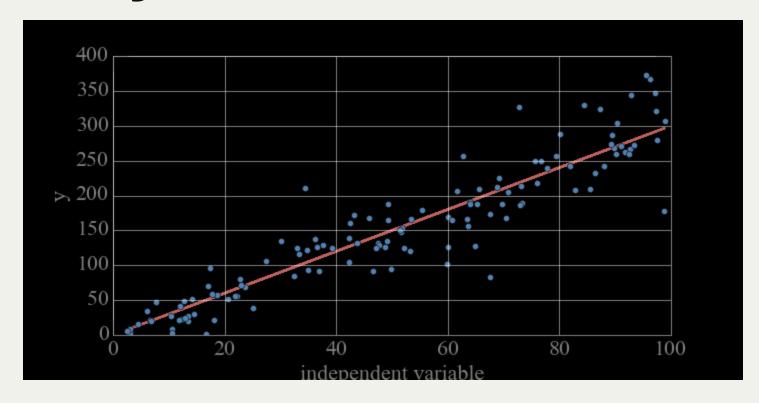
you need a plan to choose the parameters of the model: to "optimize" the model. You need to choose something to be MINIMIZED or MAXIMIZED

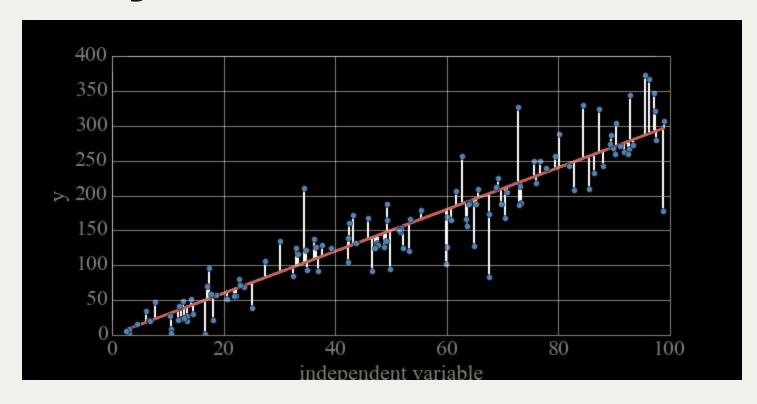
what you want to optimize for

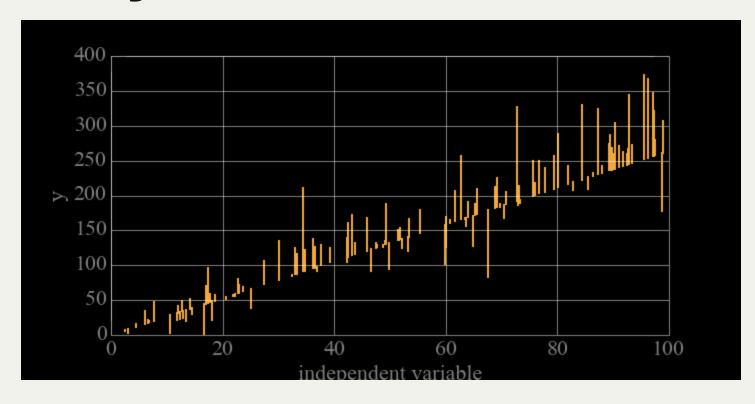
In principle, there are many choices for objective function. But the only procedure that is truly justified—in the sense that it leads to interpretable probabilistic inference, is to make a generative model for the data.

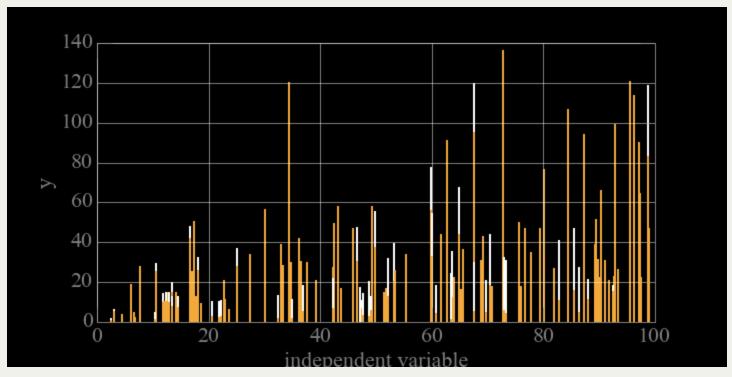










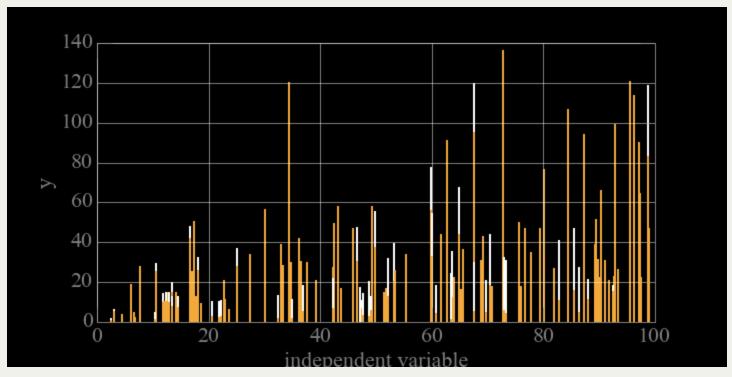


$$R^2 = 1 - rac{\sum_i (y_i - f_i)^2}{\sum_i (y_i - ar{y})^2}$$

yi: i-th observation

xi: i-th measurement "location"

si: i-th uncertainty



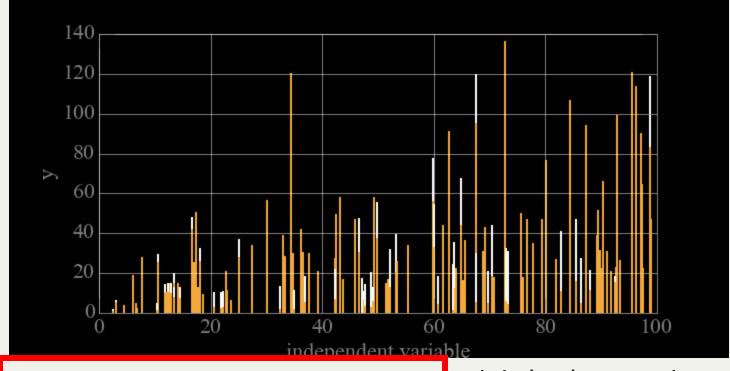
$$R^2 = 1 - rac{\sum_i (y_i - f_i)^2}{\sum_i (y_i - ar{y})^2}$$

yi: i-th observation

fi: i-th prediction

si: i-th uncertainty

if you have uncertainties (almost always in observational and experimental phsyics)



$$\chi^2 = \sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}$$

yi: i-th observation

xi: i-th measurement "location"

sigmai: i-th uncertainty

what you want to optimize for

### homeoscedastic:

the uncertainty is the same for all data points

#### heteroscedastic:

the uncertainty different for each datapoint

(almost always the case in physics!)

$$\chi^2 = \sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}$$
  $\stackrel{ ext{yi: i-th observation}}{ ext{xi: i-th measurement "location"}}$ 

yi: i-th observation

sigmai: i-th uncertainty

what you want to optimize for

homeoscedastic:

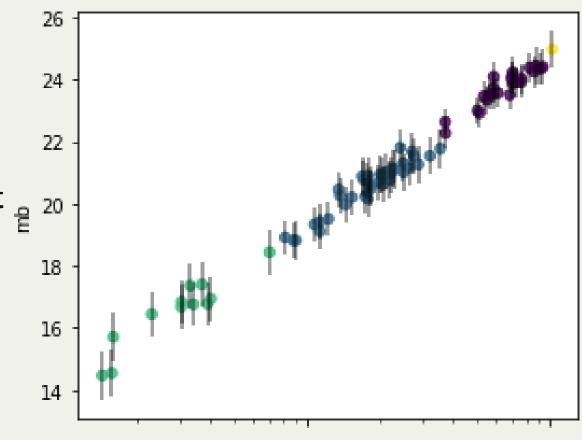
the uncertainty is the same for all data points

heteroscedastic:

the uncertainty different for each datapoint

(almost always the case in physics!)

datapoints have different uncertainty (almost always in pysyics)



what you want to optimize for

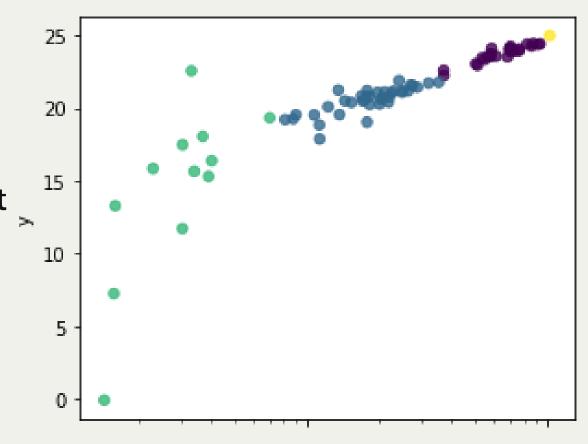
homeoscedastic:

the uncertainty is the same for all data points

heteroscedastic:

the uncertainty different for each datapoint (almost always the case in physics!)

scatter dependent on exogenous variable (very difficult problem not well studied in statistics - very common in physics!)



#### a line with set parameters is a models a line is a family of models 300 200 150 200 100 100 50 $\geq$ 0 -50-100-100-150-20075 100 -75-50 -25 25 100 50 -10050 75

line model: ax+b

### choose an objective function:

you need a plan to choose the parameters of the model: to "optimize" the model. You need to choose something to be MINIMIZED or MAXIMIZED

$$\sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \sim \chi^2(dof = DOF)$$

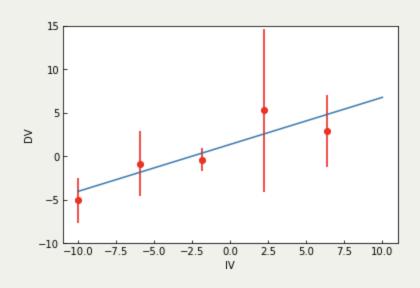
i.e. the X^2 (the quantity above)

follows a X^2 distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of degrees of freedom in the problem (generally Ndatapoints - Nparameters)

3

evaluate the quality of your model

again: many options!



$$\sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \sim \chi^2(dof = DOF)$$

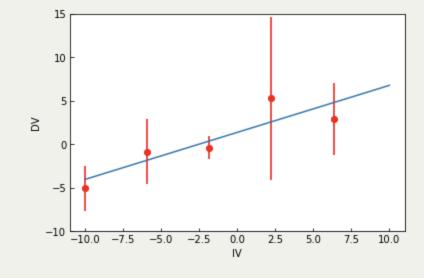
$$rac{\sumrac{(y_i-(mx_i+b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}{DOF}\sim \chi^2(dof=1)$$

i.e. the "reduced X^2" (X^2/DOF) follows a X^2 distribution with 1 degree of freedom

The expectation value (mean) of such a distribution is 1

evaluate the quality of your model

again: many options!



If my model is good I should find

$$\chi^2_{reduced} = rac{\sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}{DOF} \sim 1$$

$$\sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2} \sim \chi^2(dof = DOF)$$

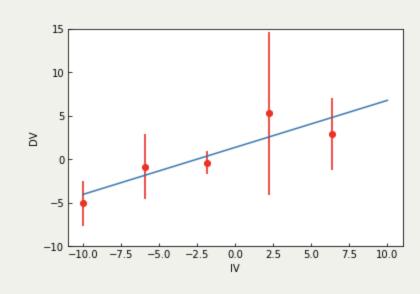
$$rac{\sumrac{(y_i-(mx_i+b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}{DOF}\sim \chi^2(dof=1)$$

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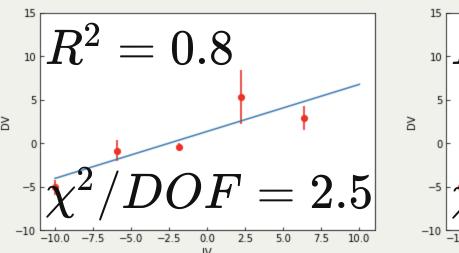
evaluate the quality of your model

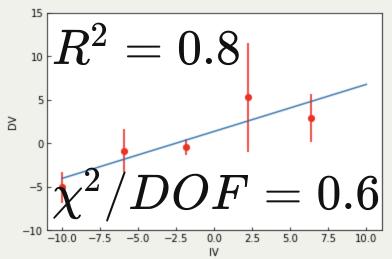
again: many options!

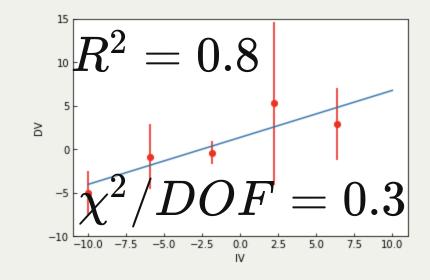


If my model is good I should find

$$\chi^2_{reduced} = rac{\sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}{DOF} \sim 1$$







3

evaluate the quality of your model again: many options!

the chi^2 tells you how well your model fits the data given how confident you are in the data (how much you believe they are correct)

The R^2 just tells you about how well the model fits the data

#### Data analysis recipes: Fitting a model to data\*

David W. Hogg

Center for Cosmology and Particle Physics, Department of Physics, New York University Max-Planck-Institut für Astronomie, Heidelberg

Jo Bovy

Center for Cosmology and Particle Physics, Department of Physics, New York University

**Dustin Lang** 

Department of Computer Science, University of Toronto

Princeton University Observatory

In the

case of the straight line fit in the presence of known, Gaussian uncertainties in one dimension, one can create this generative model as follows: Imagine that the data really do come from a line of the form y = f(x) = mx + b, and that the only reason that any data point deviates from this perfect, narrow, straight line is that to each of the true y values a small y-direction offset has been added, where that offset was drawn from a Gaussian distribution of zero mean and known variance  $\sigma_y^2$ . In this model, given an independent position  $x_i$ , an uncertainty  $\sigma_{yi}$ , a slope m, and an intercept b, the frequency distribution  $p(y_i|x_i,\sigma_{yi},m,b)$  for  $y_i$  is

$$p(y_i|x_i, \sigma_{yi}, m, b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\,\sigma_{yi}^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{[y_i - m\,x_i - b]^2}{2\,\sigma_{yi}^2}\right) \quad , \tag{9}$$

where this gives the expected frequency (in a hypothetical set of repeated experiments<sup>13</sup>) of getting a value in the infinitesimal range  $[y_i, y_i + dy]$  per unit dy.

The generative model provides us with a natural, justified, scalar objective: We seek the line (parameters m and b) that maximize the probability of the observed data given the model or (in standard parlance) the *likelihood* of the parameters.<sup>14</sup> In our generative model the data points are independently drawn (implicitly), so the likelihood  $\mathcal{L}$  is the product of conditional probabilities

$$\mathscr{L} = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y_i|x_i, \sigma_{yi}, m, b) \quad . \tag{10}$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,m,b)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,\sigma_i,m,b)$$

$$p(y_i) = rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp{-rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}} \qquad \log a \cdot b = \log a + \log b$$

$$\ln L(m,b|ec{y}) = \ln \prod_i^N rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp{-rac{y_i - (mx_i + b)}{2\sigma_i^2}}$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,m,b)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,\sigma_i,m,b)$$

$$p(y_i) = rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp{-rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}$$

$$\ln L(m,b|ec{y}) = \ln \prod rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} + \ln \left(\prod_i^N e^{-rac{y_i - (mx_i + b)}{2\sigma_i^2}}
ight)$$

$$x^a \cdot x^b = x^{(a+b)}$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,m,b)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,\sigma_i,m,b)$$

$$p(y_i) = rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp{-rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}$$

$$\ln L(m,b|ec{y}) = \ln \prod rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} + \ln \left(e^{-\sum_i^N rac{y_i - (mx_i + b)}{2\sigma_i^2}}
ight)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,m,b)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,\sigma_i,m,b)$$

$$p(y_i) = rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp{-rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}$$

 $\sigma_i$  not part of the model

$$\ln L(m,b|ec{y}) 
eq \ln \prod rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} 
onumber \left( \ln \left( e^{-\sum_i^N rac{y_i - (mx_i + b)}{2\sigma_i^2}} 
ight) e^{-\sum_i^N rac{y_i - (mx_i + b)}{2\sigma_i^2}} 
ight)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,m,b)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,\sigma_i,m,b)$$

$$p(y_i) = rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp{-rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}$$

$$\ln L(m,b|ec{y}) = K - \sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,m,b)$$

$$L(m,b|ec{y}) = \prod_i^N p_i(y_i|x_i,\sigma_i,m,b)$$

$$p(y_i) = rac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp{-rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2}}$$

$$\ln L(m,b|ec{y}) = K - \sum rac{(y_i - (mx_i + b))^2}{2\sigma_i^2} = K - rac{1}{2}\chi^2$$

## its long, Science and Statistics but you have 2 weeks!

GEORGE E. P. BOX\*

Aspects of scientific method are discussed: In particular, its representation as a motivated iteration in which, in succession, practice confronts theory, and theory, practice. Rapid progress requires sufficient flexibility to profit from such confrontations, and the ability to devise parsimonious but effective models, to worry selectively about model inadequacies and to employ mathematics skillfully but appropriately. The development of statistical methods at Rothamsted Experimental Station by Sir Ronald Fisher is used to illustrate these themes.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

In 1952, when presenting R.A. Fisher for the Honorary degree of Doctor of Science at the University of Chicago, W. Allen Wallis described him in these words.

He has made contributions to many areas of science; among them are agronomy, anthropology, astronomy, bacteriology, botany, economics, forestry, meteorology, psychology, public health, and—above all—genetics, in which he is recognized as one of the leaders. Out of this varied scientific research and his skill in mathematics, he has evolved systematic principles for

on the one hand, nor by the undirected accumulation of practical facts on the other, but rather by a motivated *iteration* between theory and practice such as is illustrated in Figure A(1).

A. The Advancement of Learning

A(1) An Iteration Between Theory and Practice

A(2) A Feedback Loop

