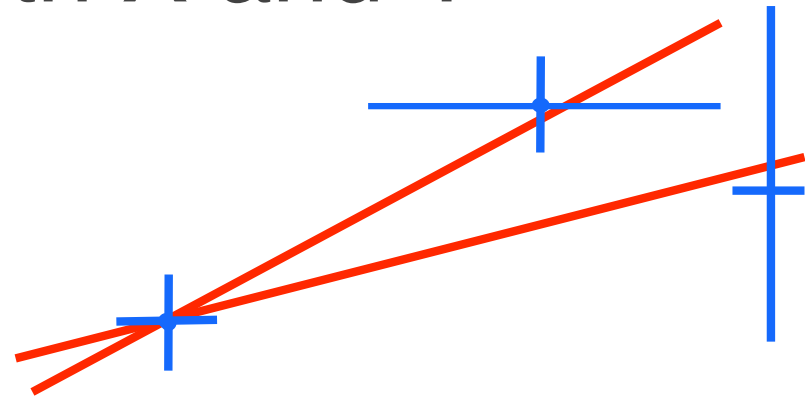


Error Bars in both X and Y

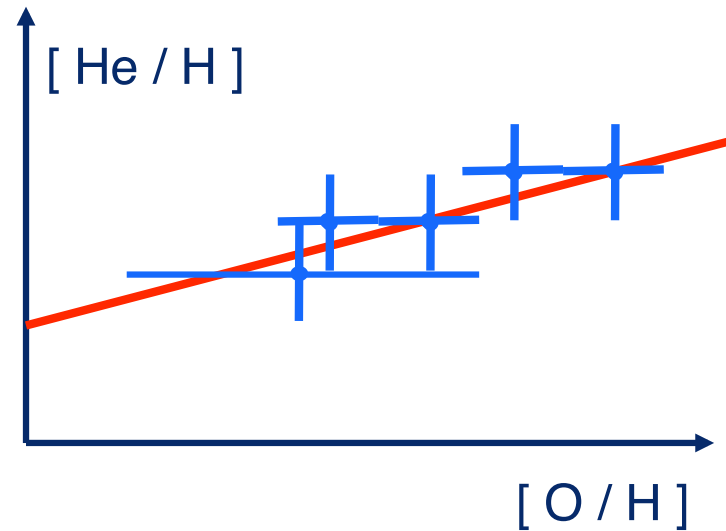
Wrong ways to fit a line :

1. $y(x) = a x + b$ ($\sigma_x = 0$)
2. $x(y) = c y + d$ ($\sigma_y = 0$)
3. split difference between 1 and 2.



Example: Primordial He abundance:

Extrapolate fit line to $[O/H] = 0$.



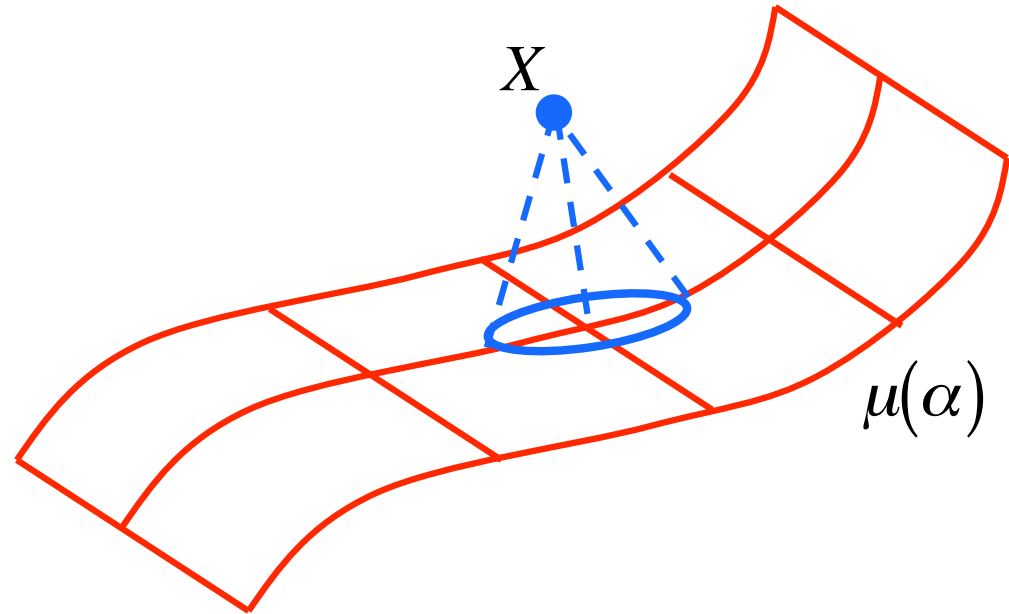
Vector Space Perspective

N data points, M parameters.

Model $\mu(\alpha)$ defines a parameterised M -dimensional surface in the N -dimensional data space.

$\chi^2(\alpha)$ = squared distance from the observed data to the model surface.

Best-fit model is the one closest to the data.



For linear models (scaling patterns), the model surface is a flat M -dimensional hyper-plane.

Review: Vector spaces

Dot product:

$$\underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}} = |\underline{\mathbf{a}}| |\underline{\mathbf{b}}| \cos \theta$$

θ = "angle" between vectors $\underline{\mathbf{a}}$, $\underline{\mathbf{b}}$.

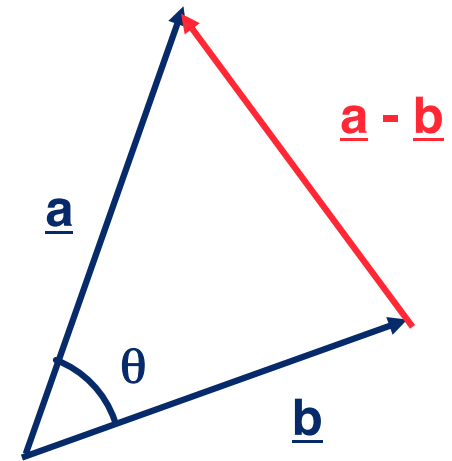
Length of a vector:

$$|\underline{\mathbf{a}}|^2 \equiv \underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{a}}$$

(distance of point $\underline{\mathbf{a}}$ from origin)

Distance between 2 vectors $\underline{\mathbf{a}}$, $\underline{\mathbf{b}}$

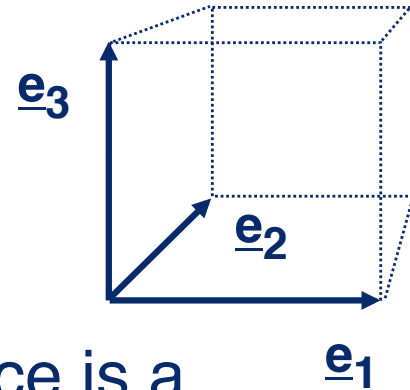
$$|\underline{\mathbf{a}} - \underline{\mathbf{b}}|$$



Ortho-normal Basis Vectors

Ortho-normal basis vectors \underline{e}_j :

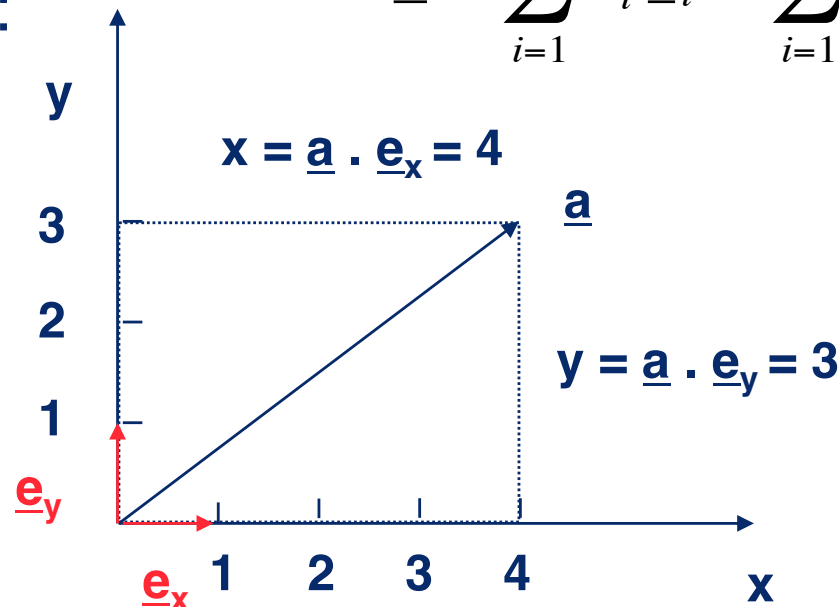
$$\underline{e}_i \cdot \underline{e}_j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$



Any vector \underline{a} in the N -dimensional vector space is a linear combination of the N basis vectors \underline{e}_j , with scale factors a_j

$$\underline{a} = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \underline{e}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N (\underline{a} \cdot \underline{e}_i) \underline{e}_i$$

Example:



Data Space is a Vector Space

N data points define a vector in N -dimensional “data space”:

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{\mathbf{x}} &= \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\} \\ &= x_1 \underline{\mathbf{e}}_1 + x_2 \underline{\mathbf{e}}_2 + \dots + x_N \underline{\mathbf{e}}_N\end{aligned}$$

N basis vectors:

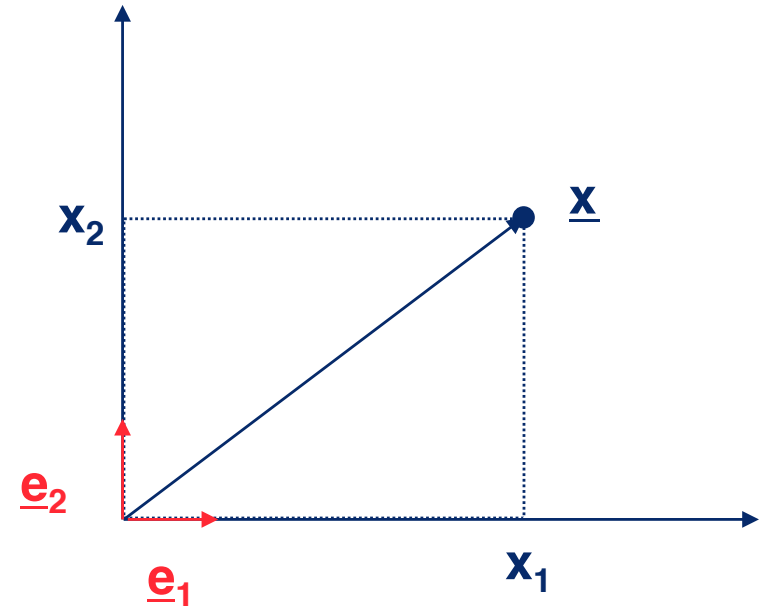
$$\underline{\mathbf{e}}_1 = \{1, 0, \dots, 0\}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{e}}_2 = \{0, 1, \dots, 0\}$$

...

$$\underline{\mathbf{e}}_N = \{0, 0, \dots, 1\}$$

- Basis is ortho-normal if: $\underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \bullet \underline{\mathbf{e}}_j = \delta_{ij}$
- Basis vector $\underline{\mathbf{e}}_i$ selects data point x_i : $\underline{\mathbf{x}} \bullet \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i = x_i$
- Data point x_i is the projection of data vector $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ along the basis vector $\underline{\mathbf{e}}_i$.



Non-orthogonal Basis Vectors

In the non-orthogonal case, $\underline{\mathbf{e}}_1 \bullet \underline{\mathbf{e}}_2 = \cos \theta \neq 0$

Two ways to measure coordinates:

- **contravariant** coordinates (index high):
 x^i project **parallel** to basis vectors:

$$\underline{\mathbf{x}} = x^1 \underline{\mathbf{e}}_1 + x^2 \underline{\mathbf{e}}_2 + \dots + x^N \underline{\mathbf{e}}_N$$

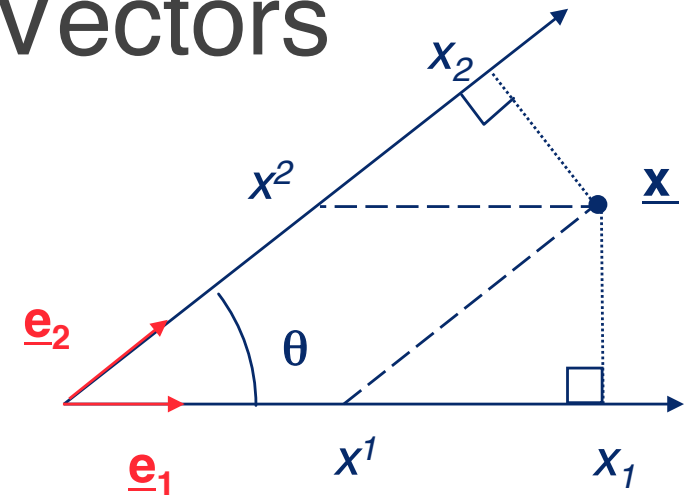
- **covariant** coordinates (index low):
 x_j project **perpendicular** to basis vectors.

$$x_i = \sum_j g_{ij} x^j$$

- **metric tensor:** $g_{ij} \equiv \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \bullet \underline{\mathbf{e}}_j$

Dot product:

$$\underline{\mathbf{x}} \bullet \underline{\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{i,j} x^i y^j \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \bullet \underline{\mathbf{e}}_j = \sum_{i,j} x^i y^j g_{ij} = \sum_i x^i y_i = \sum_j x_j y^j$$

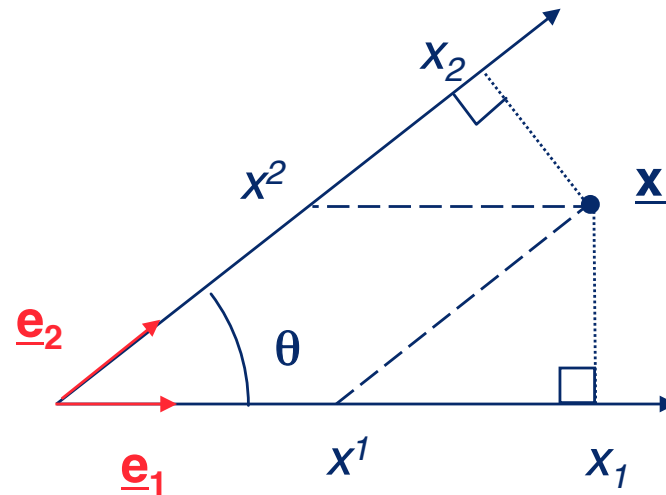


$$x_1 = x^1 + x^2 \cos \theta$$

$$x_2 = x^2 + x^1 \cos \theta$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cos \theta \\ \cos \theta & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^1 \\ x^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Metric for non-orthonormal Basis Vectors



$$g_{ij} \equiv \underline{e}_i \cdot \underline{e}_j = \begin{Bmatrix} |\underline{e}_1|^2 & |\underline{e}_1| |\underline{e}_2| \cos \theta \\ |\underline{e}_1| |\underline{e}_2| \cos \theta & |\underline{e}_2|^2 \end{Bmatrix}$$

Metric is symmetric: $g_{ij} = g_{ji}$.

Off-diagonal terms vanish if the basis vectors are orthogonal.

Diagonal terms define the lengths of the basis vectors.

Data sets and Functions as Vector Spaces

- A data set, $X_i, i = 1, \dots, N$, is also an N -component vector (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N) , one dimension for each data point.
 - The data vector represents a single point in the N -dimensional data space.
-

- A function, $f(t)$, is a vector in an infinite-dimensional vector space, one dimension for each value of t .
- The “dot product” between 2 functions depends on a **weighting function** $w(t)$:

$$\langle f, g \rangle \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) g(t) w(t) dt$$

Weighting
function



Each weighting function $w(t)$ gives a different dot product, a different distance measure, a different vector space.

Which $w(t)$ to use for data analysis?

χ^2 as (distance)² in function space

- The (absolute value)² of a function $f(t)$:

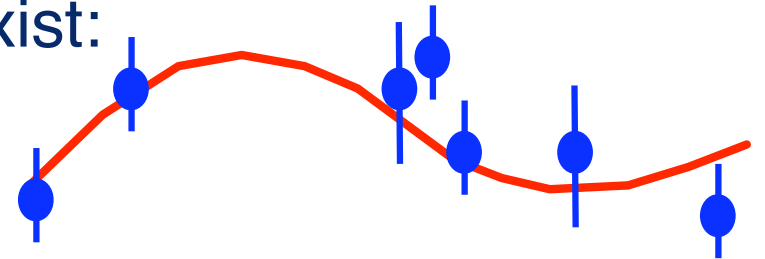
$$\|f\|^2 \equiv \langle f, f \rangle = \int f^2(t) w(t) dt$$

- The (distance)² between $f(t)$ and $g(t)$:

$$\|f - g\|^2 \equiv \langle f - g, f - g \rangle = \int (f(t) - g(t))^2 w(t) dt$$

- Define a weighting function $w(t)$ that includes only the values at $t = t_i$, where data X_i exist:

$$w(t) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\delta(t - t_i)}{\sigma_i^2}$$



- Then the (distance)² from data to model is χ^2 :

$$\|X - \mu\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{X_i - \mu(t_i)}{\sigma_i} \right)^2 = \chi^2.$$

Each dataset has its own weighting function.

χ^2 as (distance)² in data space

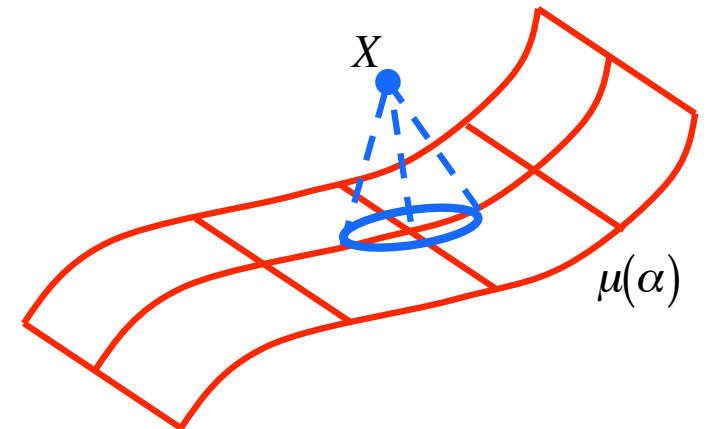
- In the data space, the dot product is defined with inverse-variance weights:

$$w_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2} \Rightarrow \underline{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}} = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i b_i w_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{a_i b_i}{\sigma_i^2}$$

$$|\underline{\mathbf{a}} - \underline{\mathbf{b}}|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{a_i - b_i}{\sigma_i} \right)^2.$$

- So the (distance)² between data $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$ and parameterised model $\underline{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\alpha)$ is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{X_i - \mu_i(\alpha)}{\sigma_i} \right)^2 = |\underline{\mathbf{x}} - \underline{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\alpha)|^2.$$



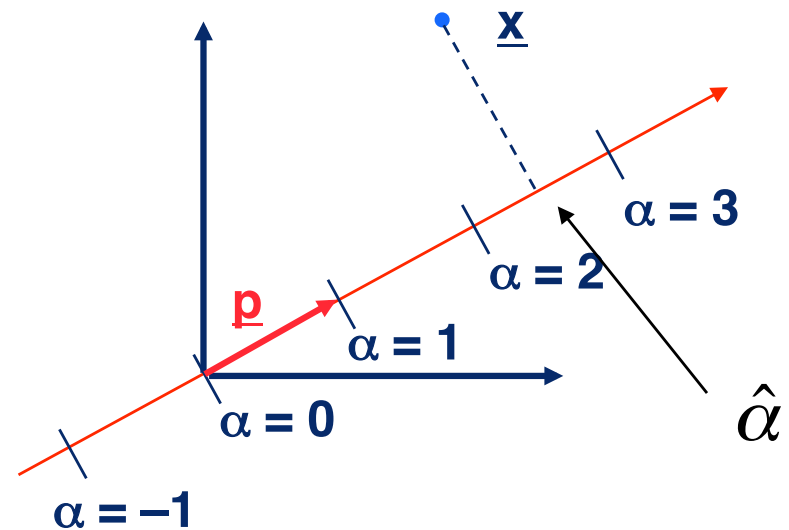
Scaling a Pattern to fit the Data

- Minimise $\chi^2 \rightarrow$ pick model closest to the data.
- Scaling a pattern: $\underline{\mu}(\alpha) = \alpha \underline{\mathbf{p}}$:
 $\langle x_i \rangle = \mu_i(\alpha) = \alpha p_i$
- The pattern $\underline{\mathbf{p}}$ is a **vector** in data space.
- The model is a **line** in data space, multiples of $\underline{\mathbf{p}}$.
- The best fit is the point along the line closest to the data $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum x_i P_i / \sigma_i^2}{\sum P_i^2 / \sigma_i^2} = \frac{\underline{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{p}}}{\underline{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{p}}}$$

$$\underline{\mu}(\hat{\alpha}) = \hat{\alpha} \underline{\mathbf{p}} = \left(\frac{\underline{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{p}}}{\underline{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{p}}} \right) \underline{\mathbf{p}} = (\underline{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{e}}_p) \underline{\mathbf{e}}_p$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{e}}_p \equiv \frac{\underline{\mathbf{p}}}{|\underline{\mathbf{p}}|}$$



Stretching the Basis Vectors

Using the vector notation,

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\underline{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{x}}}{\underline{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \underline{\mathbf{p}}} = \frac{\sum_i \sum_j x^i p^j g_{ij}}{\sum_i \sum_j p^i p^j g_{ij}} = \frac{\sum_i x^i p^i / \sigma_i^2}{\sum_i (p^i)^2 / \sigma_i^2}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{e}}_1 = \{1, 0, \dots, 0\}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{e}}_2 = \{0, 1, \dots, 0\}$$

...

$$\underline{\mathbf{e}}_N = \{0, 0, \dots, 1\}$$

So the $\underline{\mathbf{e}}_i$ basis vectors are **orthogonal but not unit length**, corresponding to the metric

$$g_{ij} = \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \cdot \underline{\mathbf{e}}_j = \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2} \delta_{ij}$$

i.e. σ_i is the **natural unit of distance** on the i_{th} axis of data space!

We can “stretch” axis i by factor σ_i to define a new set of **ortho-normal basis vectors $\underline{\mathbf{b}}_j$** :

$$\underline{\mathbf{b}}_i \equiv \sigma_i \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \quad \underline{\mathbf{b}}_i \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}}_j = \delta_{ij}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{b}}_1 = \{\sigma_1, 0, \dots, 0\}$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{b}}_2 = \{0, \sigma_2, \dots, 0\}$$

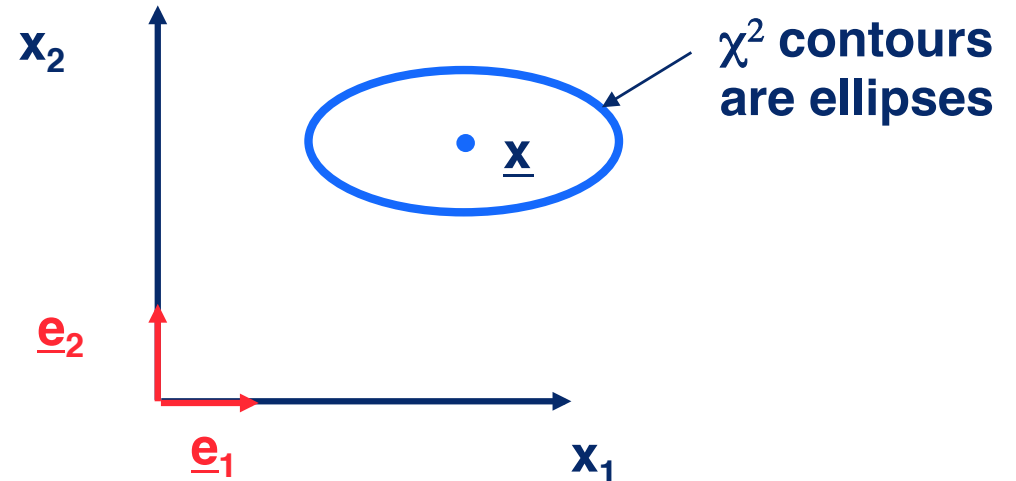
...

$$\underline{\mathbf{b}}_N = \{0, 0, \dots, \sigma_N\}$$

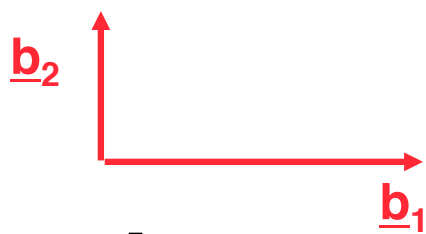
Stretch basis vectors to make χ^2 ellipses become circles

Old basis vectors:

$$\underline{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \quad g_{ij} = \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \cdot \underline{\mathbf{e}}_j = \frac{\delta_{ij}}{\sigma_i^2}$$

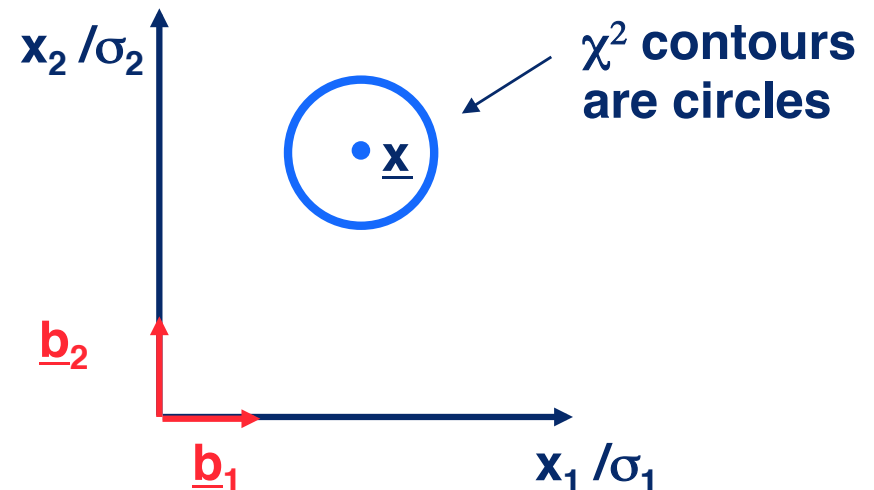


“Stretched” basis vectors are orthonormal:



$$\underline{\mathbf{b}}_i \equiv \sigma_i \underline{\mathbf{e}}_i \quad g_{ij} \equiv \underline{\mathbf{b}}_i \cdot \underline{\mathbf{b}}_j = \delta_{ij}$$

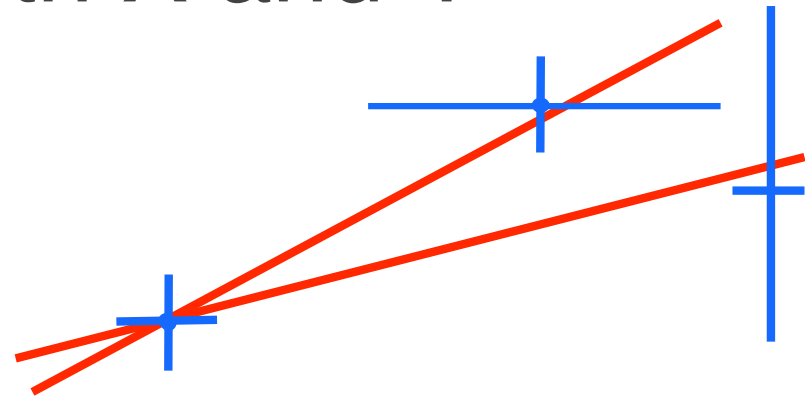
$$\underline{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i=1}^N \langle \underline{\mathbf{x}}, \underline{\mathbf{b}}_i \rangle \underline{\mathbf{b}}_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{x_i}{\sigma_i} \underline{\mathbf{b}}_i$$



Error Bars in both X and Y

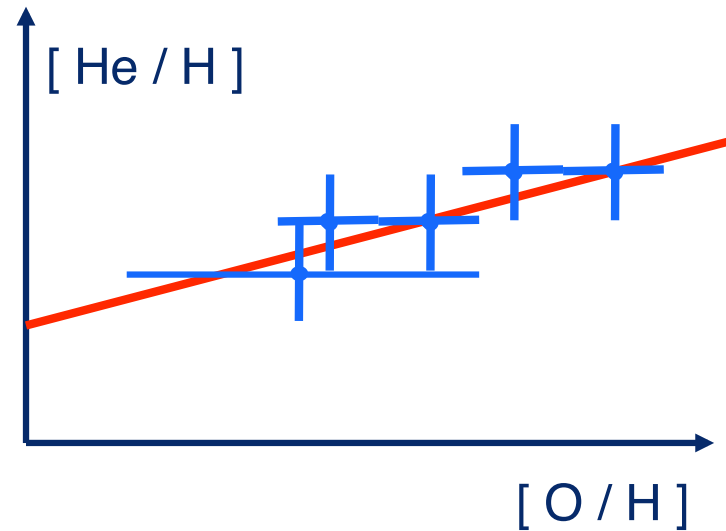
Wrong ways to fit a line :

1. $y(x) = a x + b$ ($\sigma_x = 0$)
2. $x(y) = c y + d$ ($\sigma_y = 0$)
3. split difference between 1 and 2.



Example: Primordial He abundance:

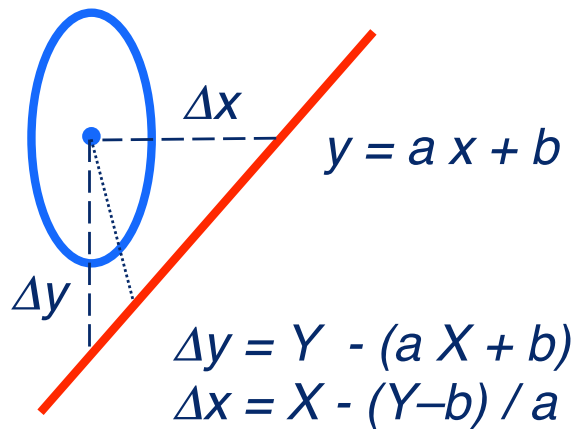
Extrapolate fit line to $[O/H] = 0$.



Line Fit with error bars in both X and Y

Data: $X \pm \sigma_X$ $Y \pm \sigma_Y$

Model: $y = ax + b$

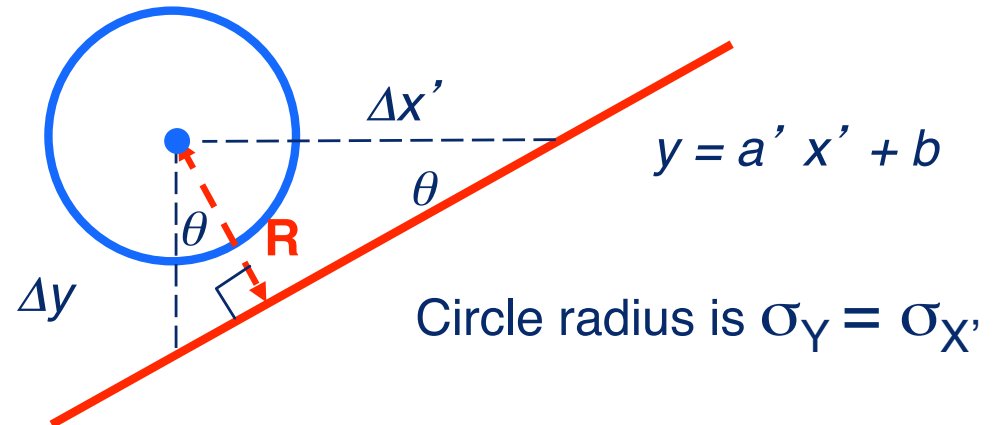


For $\sigma_X \neq \sigma_Y$, where is the point of closest approach ?

Not obvious.

Horizontal stretch by factor σ_Y / σ_X makes the probability cloud round.

Also changes the slope: $a \Rightarrow a'$



$$\Delta x' = \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X} \Delta x \quad a' = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x'} = \frac{\sigma_X}{\sigma_Y} a = \tan \theta$$

Closest approach at $R = \Delta y \cos \theta$

$$\left(\frac{R}{\Delta y} \right)^2 = \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 \theta} = \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_Y^2 + a^2 \sigma_X^2}$$

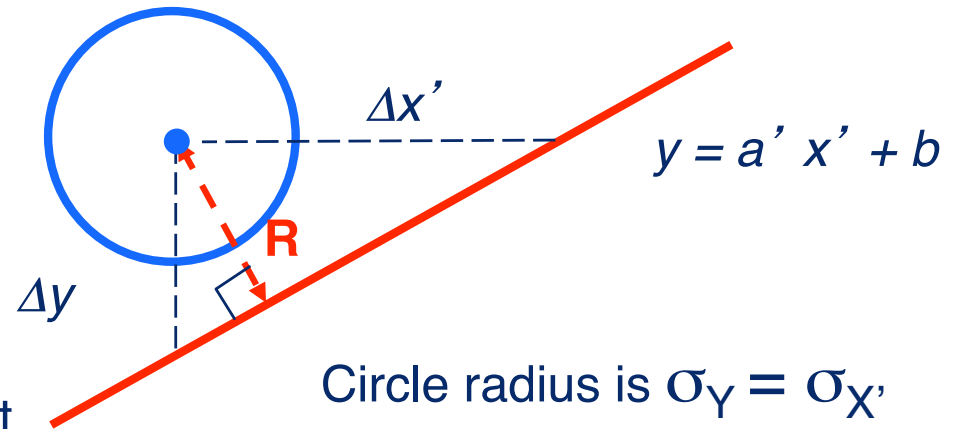
$$\left(\frac{R}{\sigma_Y} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\Delta y}{\sigma_Y} \frac{R}{\Delta y} \right)^2 = \frac{\Delta y^2}{\sigma_Y^2 + a^2 \sigma_X^2}$$

Defining χ^2 for errors in both X and Y

Horizontal stretch makes probability cloud round.

Distance R at closest approach is :

$$\left(\frac{R}{\sigma_Y}\right)^2 = \frac{\Delta y^2}{\sigma_Y^2 + a^2 \sigma_X^2}$$



Note: Need a different stretch for each data point.

Total (distance)² in the $2N$ -dimensional data space:

$$\begin{aligned} \chi^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\left(\frac{\varepsilon(Y_i)}{\sigma(Y_i)}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\varepsilon(X'_i)}{\sigma(X'_i)}\right)^2 \right] = \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{\varepsilon(Y_i)^2 + \varepsilon(X'_i)^2}{\sigma^2(Y_i)} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{R}{\sigma(Y_i)}\right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(Y_i - (a X_i + b))^2}{\sigma^2(Y_i) + a^2 \sigma^2(X_i)} \end{aligned}$$

