

# Introduction to Statistical Data Science

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## 1 Lecture 1

### 1.1 Normal Distribution

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-u)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$F(x) \equiv P(X \leq x)$$

#### Central Limit Theorem (for normal distribution)

The more random variables we average over, the closer the resulting distribution will be to the Normal distribution

**Parameter:**  $u$  The mean is the location parameter.

**Parameter:**  $\sigma^2$  The variance is the scale parameter

### 1.2 Uniform Distribution

$$X \sim U[0, 1] \tag{1}$$

$$0 \leq x \leq 1 \tag{2}$$

$$p(x) = 1 \tag{3}$$

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = x \tag{4}$$

$$\tag{5}$$

## Use uniform distribution to construct normal distribution

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X^{(1)} \\ X^{(2)} \\ \vdots \\ X^{(n)} \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$
$$X^{(i)} \sim U[0, 1]$$
$$Y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X^{(i)}$$

subsampling  $\mathbf{X}$  vector to construct  $Y$ . The distribution of  $Y_j \sim ?$ ,  $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, p$  would close to normal distribution.

### 1.3 Poisson distribution

$$P(X = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}$$
$$E(X) = V(X) = \lambda$$

### 1.4 empirical CDF

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(x^{(i)} \leq x)$$

quantile is simply the inverse of the CDF: -The 0.9 quantile is the value of  $x$  such that  $F(x) = 0.9$   
i.e.  $x = F^{-1}(0.9)$

## 2 Hypothesis

### null hypothesis

In inferential statistics, the null hypothesis is a general statement or default position that there is no relationship between two measured phenomena, or no association among groups.

### p-value

The probability of obtaining results as or more extreme than that observed, assuming  $H_0$  is true, is the p-value, under the assumption that the null hypothesis.

$$p \equiv P(X \leq 15; H_0)$$

$$p = \sum_{x=0}^{15} \binom{40}{x} 0.5^x (1 - 0.5)^{(40-x)}$$

The p-value is most certainly not the probability of  $H_0$  being true

When used in practice with a threshold of 0.05 this is an informal method of reasoning and can be easily criticized

## Statistical power

The power of a hypothesis test is the probability of avoiding a false negative

## P-value distribution (CDF)

$$P(F(X) \leq z) = P(F^{-1}(F(x)) \leq F^{-1}(z)) = P(X \leq F^{-1}(z)) = F(F^{-1}(z)) = z$$

## Level

The threshold probability of 0.05 was the level of the test.

The choice of a particular level may be guided by the need to trade off Type 1 and Type 2 errors.

## Type 1 errors

Type 1 error occurs when we reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$ , when it is true

## Type 2 errors

Type 2 error occurs when we fail to reject  $H_0$  when it is false.

## power of the test

The probability of avoiding a Type 2 error is the power of the test.

That is the probability that we reject  $H_0$  given that it is false.

The power of a test varies with sample size

The power of a test also varies with the level of the test.

The ways to increase the power of our test: collect more data, allow for a higher Type 1 error, use a better test statistic, make stronger assumption.

## Testing procedure

Specify a null and alternative hypothesis.

Specify the level of the test.

Specify a suitable test statistic.

## critical region

The set of all test statistic values which would cause us to reject  $H_0$ .

## t-test

For the small sample, and iid normal distribution:

$$T = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu_0)}{S_n} \sim \tau(n - 1)$$

This is called a t-distribution with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom

## Wald test

Sample  $X^{(i)}$  can be from any distribution.

Sample sizes must be assumed to be ‘big enough’ that CLT applies.

Hence, the distribution of test statistic is  $N(0, 1)$ . That is the case of t-distribution which  $n \rightarrow \infty$

## Goodness-of-fit tests (chi-square test)

still needs to be discussed.

## Paired tests

## Bonferroni correction

While testing  $n$  independent hypothesis in the same data set, the p value should be  $1/n$

## Confidence Intervals

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

$\bar{X}$  is the sample average. If  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$ , then

$$\bar{X} \sim N$$

$$Var(\bar{X}) = \frac{(\frac{\sum_i x_i}{n} - \mu)^2}{1} = (\frac{\sum_i (x_i - \mu)}{n})^2 = \sigma^2/n$$

Then

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

This a pivot, a function of parameter of interest which has a known distribution.

$$P\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \leq 1.5\right) = p(Z \leq 1.5) = p\left(\mu \geq \bar{X} - \frac{1.5\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 0.93$$

### Coverage

The interval  $[\bar{X} - 1.5\sigma/\sqrt{n}, \infty)$  will contain  $\mu$  93% of the time

### two side interval

It is hard to calculate the confidence interval, therefore a CLT could help to solve it with large sample.

### Bootstrap

A foundation of bootstrap is sampling with replacement

1. Randomly select a data point.
2. Add it to the 're-sample'
3. Put it back in the box.

### Using Bootstrap to calculate SE

1. Draw  $X^{(1)*}, \dots, X^{(n)*} \sim \hat{F}_n$
2. Compute  $\hat{X}_n^*$  by averaging  $X_1^*, \dots, X_n^*$
3. Repeat steps 1 and 2,  $B$  times, to get  $\bar{X}_{n,1}^*, \dots, \bar{X}_{n,B}^*$
4. Let

$$s.e._{boot} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B \left( \bar{X}_{n,b}^* - \frac{1}{B} \sum_{r=1}^B \bar{X}_{n,r}^* \right)^2}$$

## Bootstrap pivotal interval

Define  $H(r) = P(\hat{\theta} - \theta \leq r)$

Define quantiles such that we get coverage  $1 - \alpha$ :

$$\begin{aligned}P(a(\hat{\theta}_n) \leq \theta \leq b(\hat{\theta}_n)) &= 1 - \alpha \\a(\hat{\theta}_n) &= \hat{\theta} - H^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2) \\b(\hat{\theta}_n) &= \hat{\theta} - H^{-1}(\alpha/2)\end{aligned}$$

## Linear Regression

Data points satisfies:  $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + e_i (i = 1, \dots, n)$

Next, we are trying to find  $\bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x} = 0$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i (y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 x_i) = 0$  The sum of squared prediction errors:  $RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 x_i)^2$

Then take the derivative of parameter  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  as 0, and get the result.

After substituting the result, it could be concluded that

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_1 &= [\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})] / [\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2] \\ \hat{\beta}_1 &= \frac{C_{xy}}{C_{xx}} \\ \hat{\beta}_0 &= \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}C_{xx} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2) - n\bar{x}^2 \\ \text{and } C_{xy} &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y}) = (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i) - n\bar{x}\bar{y} \\ RSS &= C_{yy} - \frac{C_{xy}^2}{C_{xx}}\end{aligned}$$

## Error

If  $x_i = x_j$ , usually  $y_i \neq y_j$ . Therefore treat  $y_i$  as realized value of random variable  $Y_i$ , whose distribution depends on  $x_i$ .

The model would be:  $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$  where  $\epsilon_i$  are independent random variables with  $E(\epsilon) = 0, Var(\epsilon) = \sigma^2$

## lecture 4

### Dispersion

Dispersion is a broad concept relating to the variability in a distribution.

### Logistic Regression

#### Linear Regression

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|\eta_i] = \mu_i = \eta_i$$

$$Y_i|\eta_i \sim N(\eta_i, \sigma^2)$$

$$Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

#### Logistic Regression

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i|\eta_i] = \mu_i = \theta_i = g^{-1}(\eta_i)$$

$$Y_i|\eta_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(g^{-1}(\eta_i))$$

$$\eta_i \in \mathbb{R}, \theta_i \in [0, 1]$$

The link function  $g^{-1}(\eta_i)$  would be a logistic function

$$\mu_i = g^{-1}(\eta_i) = \text{logistic}(\eta_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\eta_i)}$$

$$\eta_i = g(\mu_i) = \text{logit}(\mu_i) = \log\left(\frac{\mu_i}{1 - \mu_i}\right) = \log\left(\frac{\mathbb{P}(Y_i = 1|\eta_i)}{\mathbb{P}(Y_i = 0|\eta_i)}\right)$$

Possible link function would be  $g(\mu_i) = \Phi^{-1}(\mu_i)$ , the inverse of the standard normal CDF, and the complimentary log-log function,  $g(\mu_i) = \log(-\log(1 - \mu_i))$ .

A similar concept for generalized linear models is called the deviance ( $R^2$  was a measure of model

fit for normal linear regression models)

$$D(M_1, M_0) = 2 \log\left(\frac{L(\hat{\beta}^{(1)}; x, y)}{L(\hat{\beta}^{(0)}; x, y)}\right) = 2(I(\hat{\beta}^{(1)}; x, y) - I(\hat{\beta}^{(0)}; x, y))$$

Asymptotically, for  $M_{p_2}$  with  $p_2$  predictors nested within model  $M_{p_1}$  with  $p_1 > p_2$  predictors:

$$D(M_{p_1}, M_{p_2}) \sim \chi^2_{p_1 - p_2}$$

## **Poisson regression**

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_i | \eta_i] = \mu_i = \eta_i$$

$$Y_i | \eta_i \sim \text{Poisson}(g^{-1}(\eta_i))$$

$$\eta_i \in \mathbb{R}, \theta_i \in [0, 1]$$