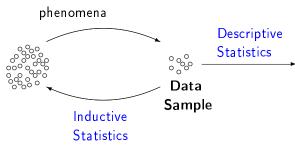
## Statistics and Sensor Data Fusion

4. Inductive Statistics

# Interplay Between Descriptive Statistics, Probability Calculus and Inductive Statistics

#### Probability Calculus

**Goal:** Mathematical treatment of random



Goal: To infer properties of an underlying population

**Goal:** Suitable graphical and numerical representation of the data





#### Inductive Statistics

Goal: To infer properties of an underlying population

- 4.1 Basic Concepts of Inductive Statistics
- 4.2 Central Limit Theorem
- 4.3 Parameter Estimation
- 4.4 Interval Estimation
- 4.5 Multivariate Parameter Estimation

4.1 Basic Concepts of Inductive Statistics

## Basic Concepts of Inductive Statistics

#### Background:

- Inductive statistics or statistical inference is the process of using data analysis to infer properties of an underlying probability distribution which describes a whole population.
- It is therefore applied if parameters or properties of a population are unknown and cannot be computed or determined directly.
- Information required to describe the properties of a population are for example
  - **b** the **type** of the distribution, e.g. normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
  - $\blacktriangleright$  the **localization**, e.g. the value of the *mean*  $\mu$
  - the **dispersion**, e.g. the value of the variance  $\sigma^2$

## Basic Concepts of Inductive Statistics

#### Approach:

- The approach of inductive statistics is to draw conclusions about the population of interest based on spot checks (i.e. small subsets of the population).
- Conclusions based on the data sample provided by the spot check can be erroneous, because the sample at hand represents only a fraction of the population.
- Inferential statistics makes use of probability theory to assess the quality of the drawn conclusions based on the spot check or data sample.
- ► The two main techniques in inferential statistics are
  - ► Estimation
  - Testing (not covered in this course)

## Basic Concepts of Inductive Statistics

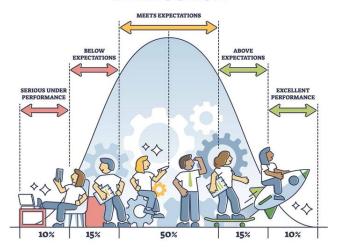
The technique of estimation can be subdivided into two branches:

#### Parameter Estimation vs. Interval Estimation:

Based on a random sample of the underlying probability distribution

- ...an unknown parameter shall be estimated
  - → parameter estimation (Section 4.3)
- ...an interval shall be computed such that an unknown parameter lies within this interval with high probability
  - → interval estimation (Section 4.4)

#### **BELL CURVE**



#### Central Limit Theorem – In a Nutshell:

# BELL CURVE

#### Assumptions:

- 1. The (discrete or continuous) random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are statistically independent with mean  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_n$  and variance  $\sigma_1^2, \ldots, \sigma_n^2$ , respectively.
- 2. The random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are either identically or "nearly identically" distributed (more specifically, certain constraints according to Ljapunow or Lindeberg hold).

#### Then it holds for large n:

The random variable X given by the sum

$$X = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$$

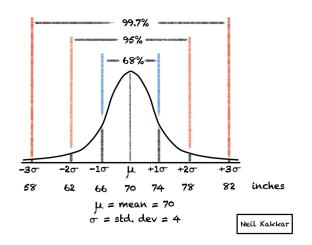
is approximately normally distributed, i.e.  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , where

$$\mu = \mu_1 + \ldots + \mu_n$$
 and  $\sigma^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \ldots + \sigma_n^2$ 

#### Central Limit Theorem – Some Examples:

- ► The daily turnovers of 30 logistic hubs of comparable size are distributed according to some unknown probability distribution. The total turnover is then approximately normally distributed.
- ➤ The water consumption of a provincial town per year is the sum of many individual consumptions that are usually not dominated by only a few households. Therefore the total water consumption is approximately normally distributed.
- ► The monthly payoff of a big insurance company is usually the sum of many individual payoffs and therefore approximately normally distributed.
- Many biological phenomena are influenced by a large sum of different factors and are therefore normally distributed.

## Distribution of Male Heights





#### Central Limit Theorem - Example:

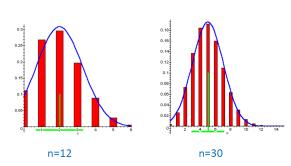
- ► We consider the random experiment of tossing a die and performing *n* independent repetitions.
- ► The random variable X should count the total number of occurrences of the number "6" during these n repetitions.
- ightharpoonup In consequence, we obtain  $X \sim \mathsf{Bin}ig(n,rac{1}{6}ig)$  with

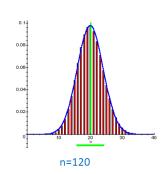
$$\mu = n \cdot p = \frac{n}{6}$$
 and  $\sigma^2 = n \cdot p \cdot (1 - p) = \frac{5n}{36}$ 

▶ Because of the **central limit theorem**, for large *n* the random variable *X* is approximately normally distributed according to

$$X \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{n}{6}, \frac{5n}{36}\right)$$

#### Central Limit Theorem - Example:





Approximation of the binomial distribution  $Bin(n, \frac{1}{6})$  by the normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\frac{n}{6}, \frac{5n}{36})$  for increasing values of n.

#### Parameter Estimation:

In parameter estimation, one distinguishes between the estimate of an **unknown parameter** of a probability distribution based on a data sample, and the corresponding estimator or estimator function:

A reasonable estimate for the mean or expectation value is

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

The corresponding estimator is

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

Since the estimator  $\bar{X}$  is built on the **random sample**  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  consisting of n i.i.d. random variables, it is itself a random variable.

#### Two Important Estimators:

Parameter	Applied Estimator	Formula
Mean $\mu$	Sample Mean	$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$
Variance $\sigma^2$	Sample Variance	$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2}$

The bias of an estimator is the difference between the estimator's expected value and the true value of the parameter being estimated:

- An estimator with zero bias is called unbiased.
- ightharpoonup Sample mean  $\bar{X}$  and sample variance  $S^2$  are **unbiased** since

$$E(\bar{X}) = \mu$$
 and  $E(S^2) = \sigma^2$ 

#### Exercise:

For civil speed control in a provincial town, there was a spot check of the velocity of cars driving through the city during lunch time.

From all the cars driving through town, five measurements were made leading to the five values (in km/h):

Calculate an estimate for the mean and the variance of the underlying probability distribution of car speeds.

#### Parameter Estimation vs. Interval Estimation:

- Parameter or point estimation provides an estimate for an unknown parameter of an underlying probability distribution (e.g. expectation value  $\mu$  or variance  $\sigma^2$ ). However, point estimators do not provide an assessment of their accuracy.
- In turn, in interval estimation a confidence interval is computed which contains the true value of a population parameter with a specified probability.
- For the consistent construction of the confidence interval, the distribution of the estimator has to be known (at least approximately).
- ► We expect that there will be a **tradeoff** between the required probability and the size of the confidence interval.

#### Central Limit Theorem Applied to the Sample Mean:

For i.i.d. random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ , the sample mean

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

is an **estimator** for the unknown mean  $\mu = E(X_1)$ . It has the expectation value

$$E(\bar{X}) = E\left(\frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \ldots + X_n)\right) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot n \cdot E(X_1) = \mu$$

and the variance

$$V(\bar{X}) = V\left(\frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \ldots + X_n)\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n \cdot V(X_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

Due to the **central limit theorem**, for large n the sample mean  $\bar{X}$  is approximately normally distributed according to

$$\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

#### Concept of a Confidence Interval:

For an **unknown parameter**  $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}$  of an underlying probability distribution and a given level of significance  $\alpha$ , we construct

- ▶ the lower confidence level  $L = L(X_1, ..., X_n)$
- ▶ the upper confidence level  $U = U(X_1, ..., X_n)$

with respect to a random sample  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ , such that it holds

$$P(L \le \Theta \le U) = 1 - \alpha$$

With the introduced random variables L and U, the obtained random interval [L,U] is called the confidence interval of the parameter  $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}$  at the specified confidence level of  $1-\alpha$ .

That means that the unknown parameter  $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}$  should be covered by the confidence interval [L, U] with the probability of  $1 - \alpha$ .

#### **Confidence Interval – Interpretation:**

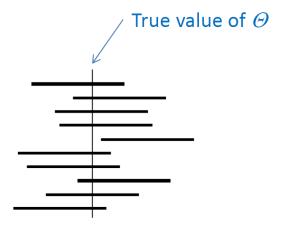
A realization  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  of the random sample  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  generates a specific confidence interval

$$[L(x_1,\ldots,x_n),U(x_1,\ldots,x_n)]\subset\mathbb{R}$$

where  $L(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and  $U(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  are **realizations** of the random variables L and U.

- In turn, different realizations of the random sample will usually generate different specific confidence intervals.
- A level of significance  $\alpha=0.1$  means that on average 90% of all generated specific confidence intervals will **contain** the unknown parameter  $\Theta\in\mathbb{R}$ .

Confidence Interval – Graphical Illustration:



How to construct a confidence interval for a given confidence level?

For the construction of confidence intervals, we have to introduce the quantiles of a probability distribution:

#### Quantiles of a Probability Distribution:

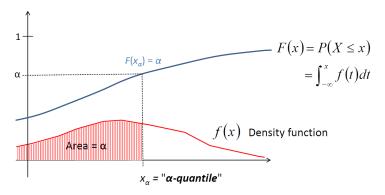
For a (discrete or continuous) probability distribution characterized by the **cumulative distribution function** F(x) and a specified level  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ , the value  $x_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$  which fulfills the equation

$$F(x_{\alpha}) = P(X \le x_{\alpha}) = \alpha$$

is called  $\alpha$ -quantile.

For the determination of  $\alpha$ -quantiles, the type of the cumulative distribution function F(x) must be known (at least approximately).

#### Quantiles of a Probability Distribution:



- ightharpoonup A fraction of  $lpha\cdot 100\%$  of the probability "lies left" of  $x_{lpha}$
- lacktriangle Vice versa,  $(1-lpha)\cdot 100\%$  of the probability "lies right" of  $x_lpha$
- ▶ In particular,  $x_{0.5}$  is the median of the probability distribution

#### Quantiles of the Standard Normal Distribution:

- As a consequence of the **central limit theorem**, frequently a normal distribution can be assumed.
- ightharpoonup Quantiles of the standard normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$  can easily be retrieved **from tables**.
- In order to indicate explicitly that we work with the standard normal distribution, we will use the symbol  $u_{\alpha}$  instead of the general  $x_{\alpha}$  for the  $\alpha$ -quantile of  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ .
- For the  $\alpha$ -quantiles  $u_{\alpha}$  of the standard normal distribution, it holds that

$$F_0(u_\alpha) = P(X \le u_\alpha) = \int_{-\infty}^{u_\alpha} f_0(s) \, ds = \int_{-\infty}^{u_\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{s^2}{2}} \, ds = \alpha$$

First we construct symmetric confidence intervals for the mean:

#### Symmetric Confidence Intervals for the Mean (I):

We assume a normally distributed random variable

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

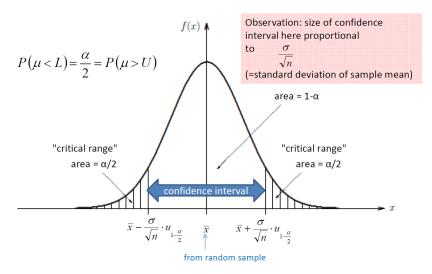
with unknown mean  $\mu$  and known variance  $\sigma^2$ .

In this case, it holds for the **true value**  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  that

$$P\left(\underbrace{\bar{X} - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot u_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}}_{L} \le \mu \le \underbrace{\bar{X} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot u_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}}_{U}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

where  $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \ldots + X_n)$  is the **sample mean** and  $u_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$  is the  $(1-\frac{\alpha}{2})$ -quantile of the standard normal distribution.

#### Symmetric Confidence Intervals for the Mean (I):



#### Exercise:

The service times for n = 12 production orders in minutes were measured as follows:

The service time is assumed to be normally distributed with a standard deviation of 9 minutes.

- (a) Construct a symmetric confidence interval for the unknown mean  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  at a level of significance  $\alpha = 0.05$ .
- (b) How to choose the total number of measurements n if the confidence interval shall be reduced to a length of at most 8?

Now we want to construct symmetric confidence intervals for the mean in the case that also the variance is **unknown**:

#### Symmetric Confidence Intervals for the Mean (II):

In the case that also the variance  $\sigma^2$  is unknown, it has to be replaced by its **estimate**  $s^2$  obtained by the sample variance

$$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2}$$

The resulting probability distribution is the t-distribution of Student (i.e. William Gosset), where quantiles of the t-distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom are used. These quantiles can be found in tables, the  $\alpha$ -quantile with n degrees of freedom is called  $t_{(\alpha,n)}$ .

By means of switching to the t-distribution, the decreasing accuracy caused by using the estimate  $s^2$  instead of  $\sigma^2$  is considered.

#### Some Background on the t-Distribution:

For large n, the sample mean

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

is approximately normally distributed according to

$$\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

The transformed random variable

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

is distributed according to the standard normal distribution

$$Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

with the  $\alpha$ -quantiles  $u_{\alpha}$ .

#### Some Background on the t-Distribution:

In the case that the variance  $\sigma^2$  is  ${\rm unknown},$  we have to apply the sample variance

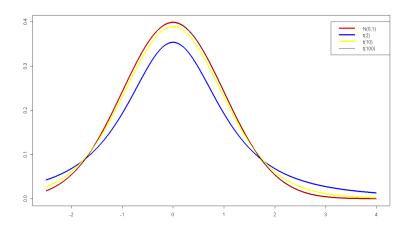
$$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2}$$

This results in the **new random variable** 

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

which is distributed according to the t-distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom with the  $\alpha$ -quantiles  $t_{(\alpha,n-1)}$ .

#### Standard Normal Distribution vs. t-Distribution:



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#### Exercise:

The service times for n=12 production orders in minutes were measured as follows (as in the previous exercise):

514, 497, 508, 520, 497, 509, 520, 509, 503, 510, 497, 512

The service time is assumed to be normally distributed with unknown variance.

Construct a symmetric confidence interval for the unknown mean  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  at a level of significance  $\alpha = 0.05$  and compare it to the confidence interval when the standard deviation is known ( $\sigma = 9$ ).

A confidence interval has not to be centered symmetrically around the sample mean:

#### Non-Symmetric Confidence Intervals:

By using the confidence limits

$$L=-\infty$$
 or  $U=+\infty$ 

we obtain the one-sided confidence intervals

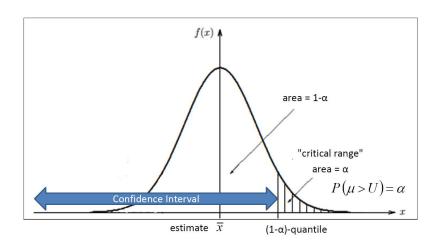
$$(-\infty, U]$$
 or  $[L, +\infty)$ 

Because now the critical range is not divided by two anymore, the quantile for  $1-\alpha$  has to be chosen instead the one for  $1-\frac{\alpha}{2}$ .

In the case of a normal distribution with known variance  $\sigma^2$ , the lower confidence interval for the mean  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  is defined by

$$P\left(\mu \leq \bar{X} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot u_{1-\alpha}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

#### Lower Confidence Interval for the Mean:



We sum up all possible cases for one-sided confidence intervals for the mean both in the case of known and unknown variance:

#### One-Sided Confidence Intervals:

	Lower Confidence Interval	Upper Confidence Interval
$\sigma$ known	$U = \bar{x} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot u_{1-\alpha}$	$L = \bar{x} - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot u_{1-\alpha}$
$\sigma$ unknown	$U = \bar{x} + \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot t_{(1-\alpha,n-1)}$	$L = \bar{x} - \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \cdot t_{(1-\alpha, n-1)}$

- ▶ Here, the expressions  $\bar{x}$  and s denote the observed **realizations** of the sample mean  $\bar{X}$  and the sample standard deviation S.
- The quantiles  $u_{1-\alpha}$  of the standard normal distribution and  $t_{(1-\alpha,n-1)}$  of the t-distribution can be found in tables.

#### Exercise:

Using the data of the previous exercise, construct a lower and an upper confidence interval for the mean  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  in the case that the variance is unknown at a level of significance  $\alpha=0.05$ .

In the case of **multivariate distributions**, we have to consider multivariate parameter estimation:

# Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimation for the Multivariate Normal Distribution:

We consider random vectors  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  according to

$$X_i \sim \mathcal{N}_D(\mu, \Sigma), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

Both the mean vector  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  and the covariance matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$  of  $\mathcal{N}_D(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  are assumed to be unknown.

Based on observed realizations  $x_1,\ldots,x_n$  of the random vectors  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$ , the unknown parameters  $\boldsymbol{\Theta}=(\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  should be estimated by maximizing the so-called likelihood function  $\mathcal{L}$ :

$$\mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{\Theta}) = \mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{\mu}, oldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{oldsymbol{\Theta}}(x_i) 
ightarrow \max_{oldsymbol{\Theta}} !$$

## Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimation for the Multivariate Normal Distribution:

The maximum likelihood estimators for the mean vector  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  and the covariance matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$  in the case of normally distributed random vectors  $\boldsymbol{X}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{X}_n \sim \mathcal{N}_D(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  i.i.d. are

$$\hat{\mu}_{ML}(X_1,\ldots,X_n)=\bar{X}=\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

and

$$\hat{oldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{ML}(oldsymbol{X}_1,\ldots,oldsymbol{X}_n) = rac{1}{n} S = rac{1}{n} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (oldsymbol{X}_i - ar{oldsymbol{X}})(oldsymbol{X}_i - ar{oldsymbol{X}})^T}_{ ext{scatter matrix } oldsymbol{S}}$$

Based on the realizations  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ , the maximum likelihood estimates are given by  $\hat{\mu}_{ML}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  and  $\hat{\Sigma}_{ML}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ .

# Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimation for the Multivariate Normal Distribution – Practical Aspects:

The estimation of the covariance matrix  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$  might lead to a singular matrix  $\hat{\Sigma}_{ML}$  with

$$\det(\hat{oldsymbol{arEpsilon}}_{ML})=0$$

The estimated matrix  $\hat{\Sigma}_{ML}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$  is built from n vectors  $x_i-\bar{x}$ , from which due to

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

at most n-1 are linearly independent. Therefore, the estimated matrix  $\hat{\Sigma}_{ML}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$  is definitely singular if  $n \leq D$ .

#### **Unbiased Estimators:**

The maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\mu}_{ML}(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$  for the mean vector  $\mu$  is unbiased, i.e.

$$m{ ilde{E}(\hat{m{\mu}}_{m{ ilde{ML}}}(m{X}_1,\ldots,m{X}_n))=m{\mu}}$$

In contrast, the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\Sigma}_{ML}(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$  for the covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  is not unbiased.

An unbiased estimator for the covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  is given by

$$\hat{\Sigma}(X_1,\ldots,X_n) = \frac{1}{n-1}S = \frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(X_i - \bar{X})^T$$

With this definition, it holds that

$$E(\hat{\Sigma}(X_1,\ldots,X_n))=\Sigma$$

#### Exercise:

Consider the observed realizations

$$m{x}_1 = \left( egin{array}{c} 7 \\ 6 \end{array} 
ight), \quad m{x}_2 = \left( egin{array}{c} 4 \\ 4 \end{array} 
ight), \quad m{x}_3 = \left( egin{array}{c} 4 \\ 2 \end{array} 
ight)$$

of a bivariate random vector  $\boldsymbol{X}=(X_1,X_2)^T$  and determine the unbiased estimates of the mean vector  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  and the covariance matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  of the underlying probability distribution.