Computational Statistic

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Combining Distributions

Height: bi-normal distribution (men and women)

$$Y \sim Gamma(n, eta) \ X \mid Y \sim Poisson(y)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X|Y} f_Y \, dy = f_X$$

taking a look at the joint distribution of X and Y and the marginal distribution of Y.

X, Y two continuous r.vs

$$egin{aligned} f_{X|Y=y}(x) &= rac{f_{X,Y}(X,Y)}{f_{Y}(y)} \ &= rac{f_{Y|X=x}(y) \cdot f_{X}(x)}{f_{Y}(y)} \ &= rac{f_{Y|X=x}(y) \cdot f_{X}(x)}{\int_{\mathbb{D}x} f_{X,Y}(u,y) \ dx} \end{aligned}$$

Expected value

$$E_{f(X)}(X) = \int_{\mathbb{D}x} x f_X(x) \, dx$$

Accept-Reject Algorithm

The algorithm is used to sample from a distribution that is **hard to sample** from. The idea is to sample from a distribution that is easy to sample from and then to accept or reject the sample based on a certain criterion.

using two functions:

- f(x): the target distribution
- g(y): the candidate distribution
- How to select the candidate

use a function that has tails bigger than the target distribution, otherwise it will explode

Constraints

- $f(x) \leq M \cdot g(x)$
- g(x) > 0 for all x when f(x) > 0

Steps

1. Sample $Y \sim g(y)$ 2. Sample u from $U \sim Uniform(0,1)$ 1. If $u \leq \frac{1}{M} \cdot \frac{f(Y)}{g(Y)}$ then accept Y as a sample from f(x)

2. Else, reject Y and go back to step 1

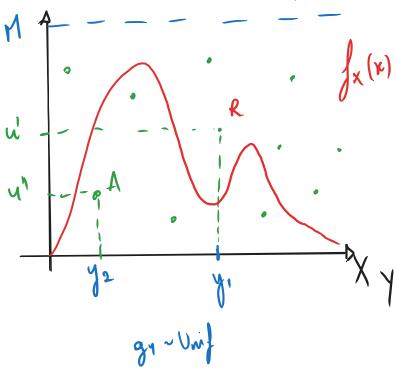
Code

```
u=runig(1)*M
y=randg(1)
while(u>f(y)/g(y)) {
          u=runif(1)*M
          y=randg(1)
}
```

Problems

- if M large, the acceptance rate is low
- ullet if M small, the acceptance rate is high but the algorithm is slow
- if the ratio is not bounded at some point it will explode ⇒ if you are accepting a lot of samples, you are not sampling from the right distribution (especially if the candidate is the target)
- the candidate CANNOT be the target
 - it's the best approximation
 - you already know how to sample from the target





Unif

what's the best value for M? the tanget in the point where the ratio is maximal.

* exam

function in R that calculate the maximum ⇒ write the **value**. We are not doing the derivative and etc...

we are giving horizontally the same probability to all values. Is this the best approach? No, we need to follow the density of the target!

(i) Un-normalized density

$$egin{aligned} orall x \in \mathbb{D}_x \, f(x) \geq 0 \ \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) \, dx = k
eq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Plot the normalized and the non-normalized density to show the difference.

r from a beta:

```
Nsim=10000
X=rbeta(Nsim, 2.7, 6.3)
hist(X, freq=F)
# let's calculate the density with A/R and then compare with the
normalized density
f=function(x) dbeta(x,2.7,6.3)
g=function(x) dunif(x,0,1)
# get the maximum
M=optimize(f,lower=0,upper=1)$objective
# generate the sample
Y=numeric(Nsim)
for(i in 1:Nsim){
  u=runif(1)*M
  y=runif(1)
  while(u>f(y)/g(y)){
    u=runif(1)*M
    y=runif(1)
  }
  Y[i]=y
# Istogramma dei campioni diretti
hist(X, freq = FALSE, col = rgb(0, 0, 1, 0.5), main = "Confronto")
tra rbeta e AR", xlab = "x")
# Istogramma dei campioni AR
hist(Y, freq = FALSE, col = rgb(1, 0, 0, 0.5), add = TRUE)
# Densità teorica
curve(f, 0, 1, add = TRUE, col = "black", lwd = 2)
legend("topright", legend = c("rbeta", "AR", "Densità teorica"),
       fill = c(rgb(0, 0, 1, 0.5), rgb(1, 0, 0, 0.5), NA),
       border = c("blue", "red", NA), lty = c(NA, NA, 1), lwd =
c(NA, NA, 2))
```

Laplace

basically a double exponential distribution. It has a peak in the middle and then it goes down.

The best candidate is the normal distribution.

es 2.18

$$f(x) \propto \exp\left(-rac{x^2}{2}
ight) \cdot \left\{\sin(6x)^2 + 4\cos(x)*2\sin(4x)^2 + 1
ight\}$$

note that the function is **not** normalized.

we want to sample using AR algorithm.

I. plot f(x) and show it can b bounded by $ilde{M}\cdot g(x)$, with $g(x)=rac{1}{2\pi} \mathrm{exp}\left(-rac{x^2}{2}
ight)$

II. generate 2500 balues from f(x) using AR

III. Decide from the acceptance rate an approximation of the normalized constant for $\tilde{f}(x)$; compare the histogram of the generated sequecace with f(x)

(i) Note

Check the histogram if match with the normalized function!!! and with the acf plot

es 2.19

$$f_X(x) = Norm(0,1) ~~ f_X(x) = rac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \exp\left(-rac{x^2}{2}
ight)$$

$$g(x|lpha) = rac{lpha}{2} \cdot \exp(-lpha \cdot \mid x \mid) ext{ laplace/double exponential}$$

I. Compute M and show that $\alpha=1$ is the value optimizing the acceptance rating

$$egin{aligned} r = rac{1}{M} & M = \sqrt{rac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \exp\left\{rac{lpha^2}{2}
ight\} \cdot rac{1}{lpha} \ & r = rac{1}{\sqrt{rac{2}{\pi}}} \cdot lpha \cdot \exp\left\{-rac{lpha^2}{2}
ight\} \ & r' = \exp\left\{-rac{lpha^2}{2}
ight\} + lpha(-lpha) \cdot \exp\left\{-rac{lpha^2}{2}
ight\} \ & = \exp\left\{-rac{lpha^2}{2}
ight\} \cdot (1-lpha^2) \ & ext{so the maximim is when } (1-lpha^2) = 0 \ & lpha = \pm 1 \wedge lpha > 0 \implies lpha = 1 \end{aligned}$$

for this exercise we calculated alpha analytically, but we can also found it by trials.

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Extracted from: PIT

Discrete Distributions

$$X\sim ext{random variable} \ D_X=\{1,2,3\} \qquad ext{prob. MASS function} \ P(X=x)=P_X(x) \ P_X(1)=0.5 \qquad P_X(2)=0.3 \qquad P_X(3)=0.2 \ F_X(x)=\sum_{y=1}^X P_X(y)$$

What if we flip the plot?

What we get on the X axes is a Unif that has segments corresponding to the domain of my initial D_X .

1. Understand the PIT Principle:

For a random variable (X) with cumulative distribution function (CDF) ($F_X(x)$), the PIT states that:

If (X \sim F_X), then (U = F_X(X)) is uniformly distributed on ([0, 1]) for continuous distributions.

For **discrete distributions**, however, the CDF ($F_X(x)$) is a step function, and the probability mass function (PMF) (P(X = x)) assigns probabilities to discrete points.

2. Adapting the PIT for Discrete Distributions:

In the discrete case, the transformation ($U = F_X(X)$) does not result in a truly uniform random variable because the CDF takes discrete jumps. Instead, you can define (U) as a random variable uniformly distributed over the interval corresponding to ($F_X(X - 1)$) and ($F_X(X)$):

$$U \sim \operatorname{Uniform}(F_X(X-1), F_X(X)),$$

where ($F_X(X-1)$) is the CDF value just before the jump at (X).

3. Steps to Apply the PIT to a Discrete Distribution:

1. Calculate the CDF: For a discrete random variable (X) with PMF (P(X = x)), compute the CDF:

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = \sum_{k \leq x} P(X = k).$$

- 2. Generate the Random Variable: For a given realization (x) of (X), identify the interval ($[F_X(x-1), F_X(x)]$).
- 3. Transform to Uniform: Sample (U) from (\text{Uniform}(F_X(x-1), F_X(x))).

4. Illustrative Example:

Consider a discrete random variable (X) with PMF:

```
P(X = 1) = 0.2, P(X = 2) = 0.5, P(X = 3) = 0.3.
```

Compute the CDF:

$$F_X(x) = egin{cases} 0, & x < 1, \ 0.2, & 1 \leq x < 2, \ 0.7, & 2 \leq x < 3, \ 1, & x \geq 3. \end{cases}$$

- For (X = 2), the interval is $([F_X(1), F_X(2)] = [0.2, 0.7])$.
- Sample (U\sim\text{Uniform}(0.2, 0.7)).

5. Key Observations:

- The transformed variable (U) is not exactly uniform over ([0, 1]) but matches the discrete CDF.
- This adaptation ensures the transformation respects the discrete nature of the distribution.

```
# Load the MASS package
library(MASS)
# Parameters
r \leftarrow 10
p_{values} \leftarrow c(0.01, 0.1, 0.5)
n ← 1000
# Custom negative binomial generator
generate_negbin \leftarrow function(r, p, n) {
  replicate(n, {
     v \leftarrow 0
     prod \leftarrow 1
     while (prod > runif(1)) {
       prod \leftarrow prod * (1 - p)
       y \leftarrow y + 1
    y - 1
  })
```

```
}
# Plotting
par(mfrow = c(3, 2)) # 3 rows, 2 columns for plots
for (p in p_values) {
  # Generate random variables
  my_{samples} \leftarrow generate_negbin(r, p, n)
  rnegbin_samples \leftarrow rnegbin(n, mu = r * (1 - p) / p, theta = r)
  # Histograms
  hist(my_samples, breaks = 20, prob = TRUE, main =
paste("Custom Generator, p =", p),
       xlab = "Value", col = "lightblue")
  hist(rnegbin_samples, breaks = 20, prob = TRUE, main =
paste("rnegbin, p =", p),
       xlab = "Value", col = "lightgreen")
  # Overlay theoretical probabilities
  x_{vals} \leftarrow 0:max(my_{samples})
  theoretical_probs \leftarrow dbinom(x_vals, size = r, prob = 1 - p)
  points(x_vals, theoretical_probs, col = "red", pch = 16)
}
```

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Extracted from: PIT

General Transformation Method

How can we calculate the density function after a transformation?

$$X\sim f_X(x)$$
 $x\in D_X ext{ continuos}$ $Z=g(x)$ such that $g^{-1}(z)=x$ $f_Z(z)=f_X(g^{-1}(z))\cdot \mid rac{\partial g^{-1}(z)}{\partial z}\mid$



Look at the example on the slides with the uniform distribution.

Box Muller algorithm

another direct method of calculating two "normals" from two uniforms.

using sin and cos because at a certain point we cannot no longer resolve an integral analytically, so we switch to polar coordinates.

rnorm → not using box Muller alg. instead uses a PIT, with an accurate representation of the normal cdf.

We also need to distinguish the difference between sampling error and numerical calculation error.

Multi variant Normals

- Cholesky decomposition $\Sigma = AA'$
- $Y \sim N_p(0,I) \implies AY \sim N_p(0,\Sigma)$

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Introduction

$$\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \int_X h(x) rac{f(x)}{g(x)} g(x) \, dx = \mathbb{E}_g \left[rac{h(X) f(X)}{g(x)}
ight]$$

you want a w_i not exploding that matches:

$$f(x_i) \cdot h(x_i)$$

Exercise

$$P(Z > 4.5)$$
 where $Z \sim N(0,1)$
 $pnrom(-4.5) = 3.39e - 06$

$$\int_{4.5}^{\infty} \mathbb{1} f_Z(z) \, dz$$

so in this case we use importance sampling:

$$supp(h \times f) \subseteq supp(g)$$

 $[4.5, \infty[\subseteq [4.5, \infty[$

g(z) trucated Exp = exponential shifted by 'a'

$$Z\sim Exp(1) \ Z\in [-,+\infty[\ (Z+a)=Exp+N(1,a)$$

3.4

$$h(x)\exp\left\{-rac{(x-3)^2}{2}
ight\}+\exp\left\{-rac{(x-6)^2}{2}
ight\}$$

 $f(x) \Rightarrow pdf of a Gaussian(\mu, \sigma^2)$

a. show that $E_f(h(X))$ has a closed from solution

$$X \cdot Y??$$

b. use classical mc integration with $f_X=N(0,1)$ with $n=10^3$ c. use the important sampling $g\sim Unif[-8,-1]$

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extracted-from:: Monte Carlo Integration

MASS library R

a cosa serve?

Quali funzioni vengono usate?

- area
- dlaplace

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$$\int_X h(x)f(x)\,dx.$$

f density

Probabilistic resoults:

- law of large numbers
- central limit theorem

$$ar{h} = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h(x_i)
ightarrow_{n
ightarrow \infty} E_f(h(x))$$

sample random from the density

$$var(ar{h}_n) = rac{\sigma^2}{n} ext{ extimator}$$

$$Var(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (X-E_f(x))f_X(x)\,dx = E((X-u)^2)$$

Definition



Monte Carlo integration is a numerical method that uses *random sampling* to **estimate the value of an integral**. It is particularly useful for solving integrals in high-dimensional spaces where traditional numerical methods (like trapezoidal or Simpson's rule) become computationally expensive or impractical.

Confident Interval

Confidence interval (CI) is a range of values used to **estimate an unknown** population parameter (e.g., mean, proportion) with a certain level of confidence. It provides an *interval* that, if the *process were repeated multiple times*, would contain the true parameter in a specified **percentage of cases**.

Formula

$$\int_X h(x)f(x)\,dx = E_f(h(x))$$

Notes

in statistic, integrals and samplings are often switched

integrals not in 0-1

if we are integrating something like:

$$\int_0^2 h(x) \, dx$$

$$unif(0,2) = \frac{1}{2}$$
 is the density

we can still use the integral, we need to adjust the density:

$$\int_0^2 h(x) \, dx = 2 \int_0^2 rac{1}{2} h(x) \, dx = 2 \cdot E_{unif}(h(x))$$

Exercise

3.1

solution to the normal-Cauchy estimator (Bayesian):

$$\delta(x) = rac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} heta \cdot rac{1}{1+ heta^2} \cdot \exp(-rac{(x- heta)^2}{2})\,d heta}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} rac{1}{1+ heta^2} \cdot \exp(-rac{(x- heta)^2}{2})\,d heta}$$

solve the question for $x = \{0, 2, 4\}$

 plot the *integrands* and use MC integration based on Cauchy sampling.

(i) Note

- if you have the kernel of a gaussian, we can switch the sign on the kernel and the integral will still be the same.
- we also don't have pi in the Cauchy distribution → it's a constant so we can add it!

```
# Point a.
num ← function(x,the){(the/(1+the^2))*exp(-(x-the)^2/2)}
# \int h(x)f(x) dx
den ← function(x,the){(1/(1+the^2))*exp(-(x-the)^2/2)}

num0 ← function(the) num(0,the)
num2 ← function(the) num(2,the)
num4 ← function(the) num(4,the)
den0 ← function(the) den(0,the)
den2 ← function(the) den(2,the)
den4 ← function(the) den(4,the)
```

```
par(mfrow=c(2,1))
curve(num0, -20, 20, ylim=c(-0.5, 0.5))
curve(num2, -20, 20, lty=2, add=T)
curve(num4, -20, 20, lty=4, add=T)
curve(den0,-20,20)
curve(den2, -20, 20, lty=2, add=T)
curve(den4, -20, 20, lty=4, add=T)
integrate(num4,-Inf,Inf)
# just h(x)
hnum \leftarrow function(the) the*exp(-(4-the)^2/2)
x1 \leftarrow hnum(rcauchy(10^4))
int_num \leftarrow mean(x1)*pi
err_num \leftarrow sqrt(sum((x1-int_num)^2))/(10^4)
c(int_num-2*err_num,int_num+2*err_num)
hden \leftarrow function(the) exp(-(4-the)^2/2)
x2 \leftarrow hden(rcauchy(10^4))
int_den \leftarrow mean(x2)*pi
err_den \leftarrow sqrt(sum((x2-int_den)^2))/(10^4)
c(int_den-2*err_den,int_den+2*err_den)
integrate(den4,-Inf,Inf)
```

empirical CDF: the length of the sequence is your sample.

$$\hat{\Phi}(t) = rac{1}{n} \sum_{1}^{n} 1_{x_i \leq t}
ightarrow$$

cost of having a long sequence, time and cost complexity.

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Note per l'esame

- copiare anche le costanti
- compreso di 3 domande, cap 2, 3, 5

done all in R

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Monte Carlo Methods

Esempio R

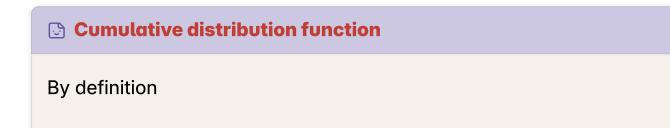
Generators

```
### Built-in Random generation
rgamma(3,2.5,4.5)
curve(dgamma(x,2.5,8), from=0, to=4)
```

rgamma(...)

- families
 - gamma
 - norm
 - Poisson
 - binomial
 - ...
- type:
 - q quantile
 - r
 - d take a probability mass function
 - p cumulative distribution function

Cumulative (Distribution Function): integral of the probability density function.



$$cor(x_1,x_2)=0 \Longrightarrow x_1\perp x_2$$

works only with the Gaussian.

Probability Inverse Transform

```
Nsim=10^4
U=runif(Nsim)
# X=-log(U)
X=-log(1-U)
Y=rexp(Nsim)
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
hist(X,freq=F,main="Exp from Uniform")
curve(dexp(x),col="red",add=TRUE)
hist(Y,freq=F,main="Exp from R")
curve(dexp(x),col="red",add=TRUE)
```

works for any random variable, continuous or discrete.

if X density has f density and cdf F.

we set F(X) = U e risolviamo per X.

$$X \sim Exp(1) \qquad F = 1 - e^{-x} \ u = 1 - e^{-x} \qquad x = -\log(1-u)$$

es 2.1:



$$P(U \le u) = F_U(u) = u$$

thanks to the Unif distribution.

$$F^{-1}(u)=inf\{x;F_X(x)\geq u\} \ F_X(x)=P(X\leq x)$$

 $F \rightarrow$

input: x, a value from the domain of X

output: a value in [0,1]

$$F^{-1} \rightarrow$$

the opposite

show that $U \sim Unif(0,1)$

 $Z = F_X^{-1}(U)$ distributed like X.

(i) Note

Applying a function to a random variable, you still get the randomness.

CDN is monotonic. When applying to a dis-equality, the sign is preserved.

In practice, what we need to know: we can transform any distribution into a random variable iff $\exists F_X(x)$, invertibile.

HOW TO:

- simulate from the uniform U.
- get the distribution of the sequence.

* Exam!!!

$$X = F_X^{-1}(U)$$

Distributions

Exponential

Example 1:

bus stop probability ightarrow Exp you can go further in time (non negative).

$$X \sim Exp(1)$$

$$F_X(X) = 1 - e^{-x}$$

$$U = F_X(X) = 1 - e^{-x} \ U - 1 = -e^{-x} \ - \ln(1 - U) = x$$

- now we generate $u_1, u_2, \dots u_n$
- compute $x_1, \ldots x_n$

at the end of the exercise we know that:

$$Exp = -\log(Unif(Nsim))$$

Logistic distribution

$$F(x;\mu,s)=rac{1}{1+e^{-rac{x-\mu}{s}}}$$

where:

- x is the variable,
- μ is the location parameter,
- ullet s is the scale parameter.

(i) Note

Pay attention to the **minus** otherwise the integral explode as it's an infinity large value.

$$X = \mu - \beta \log \left(\frac{1-U}{U} \right)$$

same sequence at the numerator and denominator.

- empirical CDF CDF
- density approximation history

☐ Empirical C.D.F.j

$$\hat{F}_{X,n}(x)=rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\mathbb{1}\{x_i\leq x\}$$

we count how many numbers are below where i'm currently counting.

Cauchy Distribution

$$F(x;x_0,\gamma) = rac{1}{\pi} \mathrm{arctan}\left(rac{x-x_0}{\gamma}
ight) + rac{1}{2}$$

where:

- x is the variable,
- x_0 is the location parameter (the median of the distribution),
- γ is the scale parameter (which determines the half-width at half-maximum).

$$X = \mu + \sigma \cdot an\left(\pi\left(U - rac{1}{2}
ight)
ight)$$

Chi square distribution

cannot use for odd degree(?) of transformation.

Altre

- Gamma
- Beta

Scale parameter

Most of the times at the denominator.

Gaussian / Chi-Square (df) → t student df - degree of freedom

 $X_1^2/X_2^2 \rightarrow \text{Fischer}$

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extracted-from::README

Poisson Distribution

 $X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$

$$E(X) = \lambda = Var(X)$$

- over dispersion: Var(X) > E(X)
- under dispersion: Var(X) > E(X)

if λ is large \Rightarrow *Gaussian* $X \approx N(\lambda; \lambda)$

Upper limit given. Trimming off the tails of the Normal distribution: the pros are worth it $\Rightarrow P(X < \lambda - 3\sqrt{\lambda}) + P(X > \lambda + 3\sqrt{\lambda}) \approx 0$

Introduced to measure the number of events in a fixed interval of time or space \rightarrow number of people being kicked by donkeys.

R implementation

```
# numero simulazioni, parametro distribuzione
Nsim=10^4; lamda = 100;

# calculate the spread
spread= 3 * sqrt(lamda)
```

```
# sequenza di valori all'interno del range
t=round(seq(max(0, lamda-spread), lamda+spread, 1))
# calcolo della cdf per ogni valore della sequenza t
prob = ppois(t, lamda)
X = rep(0, Nsim)
for(i in 1:Nsim){
        u = runif(1)
        X[i] = t[1] + sum(prob < u) - 1
}
```

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Computational Statistics

File (15)	tags	creation	Mentions
Monte Carlo Integration	computational- statisticintegration	02_12_2024- 10:25	MASS2025-01-152025-01-14_TOC_
Importance Sampling	 computational- statistic 	04_12_2024- 12:19	2025-01-15_TOC_
prima lezione	 computational- statistic 	11_11_2024- 09:38	• _TOC_
PIT	computational- statisticrandomvariables	12_11_2024- 09:35	 README GTM Discrete Distributions 2025-01-02 _TOC_
GTM	 computational- statistic 	14_11_2024- 12:10	README_TOC_

File (15)	tags	creation	Mentions
Discrete	 computational-	18_11_2024-	README_TOC_
Distributions	statistic	09:26	
AR Algorithm	computational- statisticaccept-reject	19_11_2024- 10:13	 newton-raphson README 2025-01-16 2025-01-14 2025-01-13 2025-01-10 _TOC_
stochastic-	 computational-	2024_12_10-	• _TOC_
search	statistic	10:17	
Poisson	 computational-	2024-12-06	README_TOC_
Ditribution	statistic	16:41	
mc-	• computational-	2024-12-09	 stochastic-search simulating-annealing newton-raphson 2025-01-16 _TOC_
optimization	statistic	09:41	
newton- raphson	 computational- statistic 	2024-12-10 10:19	 stochastic- search mc- optimization _TOC_
simulating-	computational-	2024-12-10	• _TOC_
annealing	statistic metallurgic iterative	10:48	
<u>r-notes</u>	 computational- statistic 	2025_01_02- 10:33	• _TOC_

File (15)	tags	creation	Mentions
acf	 computational- statistic 	2025_01_02- 11:54	README_TOC_
MASS	 computational- statistic 	2025_01_21- 22:28	• _TOC_

flow of study

- acf
- PIT & GTM (not requested for exam)
- Discrete Distributions Poisson Ditribution
- AR Algorithm (learn it)

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m (Auto)Corellogramma

Correlazione

indice-pearson

se una variabile cresce, allora cresce anche un altra.

$$-1 \le r \le 1 \quad r \ne 0$$

- ullet |r|=1 grande correlazione
- 0.8 ok
- 0.3 bassa
- 0 nessuna, random

Grafico

o serie storica.

insieme di valori che *dato un fenomeno* assume in successivi istanti di tempo.

- lag 1: correlazione misurata tra un dato e il suo subito precedente.
- lag 2: y_t and y_{t-2}
- cosi' via...

devo controllare che il grafico rimanga sotto la stima massima e minima che mi impongo.

altrimenti ottengo un trend.

$\forall \ t \ Y_t$	Y t - 1 Y _{t-1}	Y t - 2 Y _{t-2}	Y t - 3 Y _{t-3}	•••	Yt-K Y_{t-K}
Y 1 Y ₁					
Y 2 Y ₂	Y 1 Y ₁				
Y 3 Y ₃	Y 2 Y ₂	Y 1 Y ₁			
Y 4 Y ₄	Y 3 Y ₃	Y 2 Y ₂	Y 1 Y ₁		
::	::	::	::	::	::
Y T - 2 <i>Y</i> _{T-2}	Y T - 3 <i>Y</i> _{T-3}	Y T - 4 <i>Y</i> _{T-4}	Y T - 5 <i>Y</i> _{T-5}	::	$\begin{array}{c} Y T - K - 2 \\ Y_{T-K-2} \end{array}$
Y T - 1 <i>Y</i> _{T-1}	Y T - 2 <i>Y</i> _{T-2}	Y T - 3 <i>Y</i> _{T-3}	Y T - 4 <i>Y</i> _{T-4}	::	Y T - K - 1 <i>Y</i> _{T-K-1}
$Y \uparrow Y_T$	Y T - 1 <i>Y</i> _{T-1}	$YT-2$ Y_{T-2}	Y T - 3 <i>Y</i> _{T-3}	::	$YT - KY_{T-K}$

$$r_k = rac{\sum_{t=K+1}^T (Y_t - ar{Y})(Y_{t-k} - ar{Y})}{\sum_{t=K+1}^T (Y_t - ar{Y})^2}$$

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Monte Carlo Optimization

where \ how	numerical	stochastic
global	indipendent sampling	stochastic global search
local		

max vs arg max.

what's the value such that $... \Rightarrow$ maximum likelihood.

monotonic transformation are useful! They do not change the maximum of the give function.

$$\max(h(\theta)) \qquad \theta \in \mathbb{R}^p$$

Deterministic

depends on function properties:

- convexity
- boundedness
- smoothness

① computational problem

while dealing with really small number, we can have underflow problems, messing around the plot.

Stochastic

reproducible only by the seed.

if h is complex or the Θ (domain) is irregular

no underflow problem \rightarrow we are not using products but instead sums.

we also use some 'noise' $-\sin(y*100)^2$ because our data are not perfect \rightarrow so it works as a stabilizer.

R functions

- optim
- nlm

Optimizing walk

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Newton-Raphson method

$$m{ heta}_{i+1} = m{ heta}_i - \left[rac{\partial^2 h}{\partial m{ heta} \partial m{ heta}^T}(m{ heta}_i)
ight]^{-1} rac{\partial h}{\partial m{ heta}}(m{ heta}_i).$$

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YSl37OYMLFw

iterative approach.

following the derivative

when to use it:

- h is quadratic problems:
- deteriorate when h is highly nonlinear
- depends on the starting point

using the fist derivative to find the direction in witch you want to *move* and the matrix of the second derivative to find the *step*.

if the domain of the function is not easy to compute, we can approximate it with a stochastic approach.

example 5.2

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu_1, \mu_2, x) = rac{1}{4} \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, 1) + rac{3}{4} \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, 1)$$

```
#data: mixture of two normals
da ← sample(rbind(rnorm(10^2),2.5+rnorm(3*10^2)))
```

```
#minus the log-likelihood function
# mu is a VECTOR
like ← function(mu){
   sum(log((.25*dnorm(da-mu[1])+.75*dnorm(da-mu[2]))))
}
```

(i) Note

lable switching problem

***** cumulative maximum

vector containing the maximum till the index i.

Multivariate optimization

if we are working on larger spaces:

$$h(heta)$$
 $heta\in\Theta=R^p$ if $\int_{\Omega}h(x)\,dx$ is finite $h(heta)\geq0,orall heta in\Theta$

the function may be a **density**, so we start looking for the mode of the *density*!

now we can you a random sampling using <u>AR Algorithm</u> to find the mode of the density.

didn't we tried to find the mode of the density for not using a uniform distribution for the sampling?

It's a mater of shifting responsibility.

Acceptable solution

let's transform the function.

(i) Note

- ullet exp is a monotonic function not altering the maximum(s) of the function.
- T>0 is the temperature of the system aka make the plot smooth or rough.

$$H(\Theta) \propto \exp\left(\frac{h(\theta)}{T}\right)$$

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What to know

linear regression. Definition of probability. CDF. Mass function. Random Variable.

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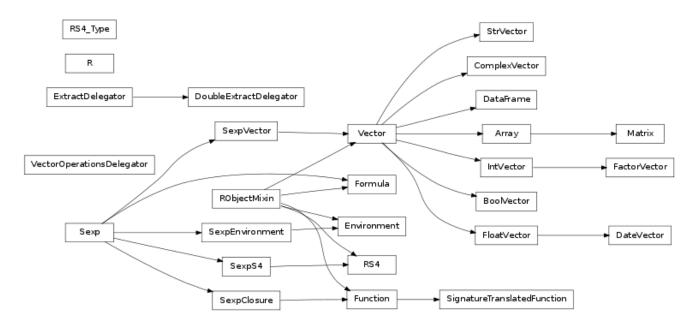
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demo(image/graphics)

Mode vs class

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/35445112/what-is-the-difference-between-mode-and-class-in-r



Graphs

```
hist(x)
plot(x1,x2)
acf(x)
```

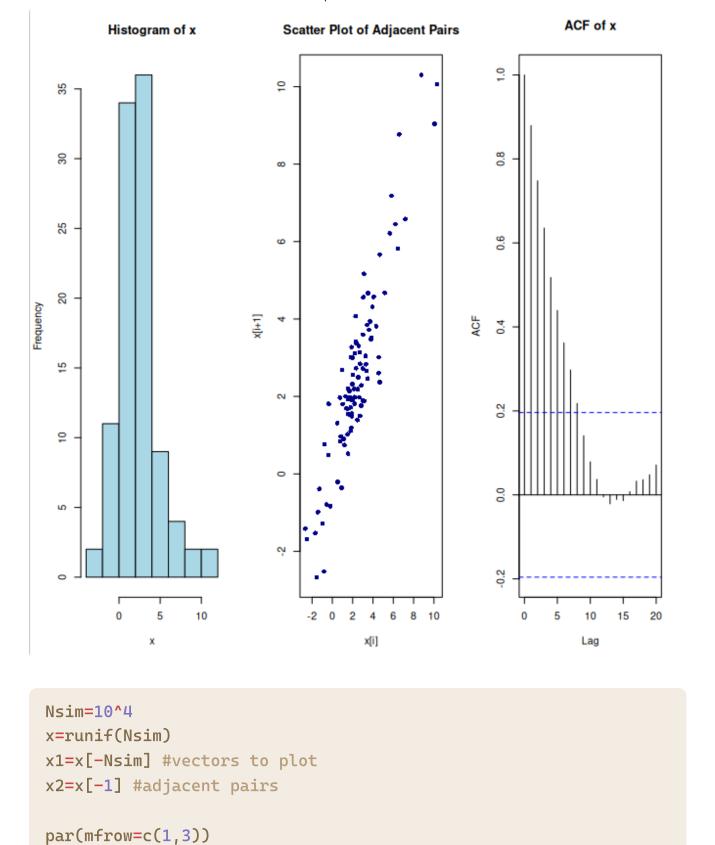
Graph	Focus	Insight
hist(x)	Distribution of values	Shape of the data (e.g., uniform, normal, skewed).
plot(x1, x2)	Relationship between neighbors	Patterns or clustering in adjacent values.
acf(x)	Correlation at different lags	Strength of relationships across time/sequential lags.

Correlated vs uncorrelated data

```
# Generate correlated data
set.seed(123) # For reproducibility
Nsim \( \infty 100
x \( \infty \text{cumsum(rnorm(Nsim, mean = 0, sd = 1))} # \text{Random walk}
(cumulative sum of random noise)

# Create adjacent pairs
x1 \( \infty \text{x[-Nsim]} \)
x2 \( \infty \text{x[-1]}

# Plot the graphs
par(mfrow = c(1, 3)) # Arrange plots in a row
hist(x, main = "Histogram of x", col = "lightblue")
plot(x1, x2, main = "Scatter Plot of Adjacent Pairs", xlab =
"x[i]", ylab = "x[i+1]", pch = 16, col = "darkblue")
acf(x, main = "ACF of x")
```



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hist(x)

acf(x)

plot(x1,x2)

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Simulating Annealing

we change at each iteration the temperature T of the distribution. example of hot metal \Rightarrow hot, spread out, as it cools off, getting smaller the final distribution should have the same maximum as the target function.

$$heta_{t+1} = egin{cases} heta_t + arsigma & ext{with probability }
ho \ heta_t & ext{with probability } 1 -
ho \end{cases} \quad ext{where} \quad
ho = \exp(
abla h/T) \wedge 1$$

i can decide not to move with some probability.

random injection:

sequence of distribution

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🔦 Stochastic search

still searching inside teta.

taking the same idea as newton-raphson of a walk, but by applying a random step.

$$heta_{j+1} = heta_j + \epsilon_j$$

more formally

$$heta_{j+1} = heta_j + lpha_j
abla(h_j), lpha_j > 0$$

calcolo is back discesa del gradiente

stochastic variation, remember the definition of derivative.

$$||\varsigma||=1$$

the perturbation can bring you into the non optimal direction.