

Statistics for Data Science

Lecture 8

Hierarchical Models and Mixture Distributions

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Class Test

- 1.15pm Thursday 2nd Nov
- 1W 2.104
- 60 minutes
- Multiple choice (10 question)

Class Test

- Test will start promptly at 1.15pm.
- Desks will not be numbered.
 - You may sit where you wish.
- Collect question paper and script on arrival.
 - Don't open question paper until instructed to do so.
- Calculators will be provided.
 - Collect on arrival.

Class Test

- You should hand in your answer script and calculator before leaving.
 - Don't leave in the first 20 minutes.
 - Don't leave in the last 10 minutes.
- No admittance after the first 20 minutes.

Content

- Hierarchical Models
- Mixture Distributions
- Multivariate Distributions

Hierarchical Models

- So far,
 - The random variables we've seen have a single distribution.
 - With parameters.
- In general,
 - A random variable has only one distribution.
 - However, it is often easier to model a situation as a hierarchy.

A Classic Example

- An insect lays a *large number* of eggs, each surviving with probability p .
 - On average how many eggs survive?
- The large number is a random variable.
 - Let's use a Poisson distribution (λ).
- And if the survival of eggs is independent,
 - The we have Bernoulli Trials.

A Classic Example

- Two random variables
 - X = number of survivors
 - Y = number of eggs laid
 - $X|Y \sim \text{binomial}(Y, p)$.
 - $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$

Complex model from simple models

- The hierarchy allows us to build a complex model
 - From a series of simple models.
- The hierarchy is built using
 - Conditional and marginal distributions.
 - And we know how to deal with those.

Example, continued.

- We're interested in X = number of survivors.

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = x) &= \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} P(X = x, Y = y) \\ &= \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} P(X = x | Y = y) P(Y = y) \\ &= \sum_{y=x}^{\infty} \left[\binom{y}{x} p^x (1-p)^{y-x} \right] \left[\frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!} \right] \end{aligned}$$

- Given, $x | Y = y$ is binomial(y, p) and Y is Poisson(λ).

Example, simplify.

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = x) &= \sum_{y=x}^{\infty} \left[\binom{y}{x} p^x (1-p)^{y-x} \right] \left[\frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!} \right] \\ &= \frac{(\lambda p)^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!} \sum_{y=x}^{\infty} \frac{((1-p)\lambda)^{y-x}}{(y-x)!} \\ &= \frac{(\lambda p)^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \frac{((1-p)\lambda)^t}{t!} \\ &= \frac{(\lambda p)^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!} e^{(1-p)\lambda} \\ &= \frac{(\lambda p)^x}{x!} e^{-p\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

Simplify, and multiply by λ^x / λ^x .

Note, $t = y - x$

So $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda p)$

Example

- Y no longer plays a part.
 - Introducing it was to make the model easier to follow.
- The parameter of X is now the product of two parameters.
 - Easier to understand both.
- Final answer:

$$EX = \lambda p$$

Theorem

- If X and Y are any two random variables, then

$$EX = E(E(X|Y))$$

- Provided expectations exist.

Proof

- Let $f(x,y)$ denote the joint pdf of X and Y.
- By definition,

$$EX = \iint xf(x,y)dxdy = \int \left[\int xf(x|y) \right] f_Y(y) dy$$

- Where $f(x|y)$ is the conditional pdf of X given $Y=y$
- And $f_Y(y)$ is the marginal pdf of Y

Proof

- Note, the inner integral is the conditional expectation $E(X|y)$, so

$$EX = \int E(X | y) f_{Y(y)} dy = E(E(X | y))$$

- You can replace the integrals with sums to prove this for the discrete case as well.

Example, revisited

- So we can use this to find the answer for our previous example.

$$\begin{aligned} EX &= E(E(X | Y)) \\ &= E(pY) \\ &= p\lambda \end{aligned}$$

- Given $X|Y \sim \text{binomial}(Y, p)$
- And $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$

Theorem

- For any two random variables X and Y :

$$\text{Var } X = E(\text{Var}(X|Y) + \text{Var}(E(X|Y)))$$

- Provided the expectations exist.

Proof

- By definition,
- $\text{Var } X = E([X - EX]^2) = E([X - E(X|Y) + E(X|Y) - EX]^2)$
- $\text{Var } X = E([X - E(X|Y)]^2) + E([E(X|Y) - EX]^2) + 2E([X - E(X|Y)][E(X|Y) - EX])$
 - Last term is zero.

Proof

- Thus

$$E([X - E(X|Y)]^2) = E(E\{[X - E(X|Y)]^2 | Y\}) = E(\text{Var}(X|Y))$$

- And,

$$E([E(X|Y) - EX]^2) = \text{Var}(E(X|Y))$$

- Establishing,

$$\text{Var } X = E(\text{Var}(X|Y) + \text{Var}(E(X|Y)))$$

Mixture distribution

- A random variable X is said to have a

mixture distribution

- if the distribution of X depends on a quantity that also has a distribution.
- Hierarchies lead to mixture distributions.
- (This is the popular definition. There is no standardised one.)

Multi-stage Hierarchies

- Hierarchies are not limited to two distributions.
 - We can treat multi-stage hierarchies as a series of two-stage.
- Or,
 - In some cases we may keep them as explicit stages.
 - Sometimes that's easier.

Multivariate Distributions

- We've been focused on bivariate distributions.
- But, as mentioned at the start of the previous lecture, all the ideas we've covered apply when there's more than two random variables.
- We can generalise this as a vector of random variables:

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

Sample Space

- The random vector \mathbf{X} has a sample space that is a subset of \mathbb{R}^n .
- If it's a discrete random vector, the sample space is countable.
- If $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ is a discrete random vector
 - Then the joint pmf of (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) is
 - The function defined by $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = P(X_1=x_1, X_2=x_2, \dots, X_n=x_n)$
 - For each $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- Discrete

$$P(\mathbf{X} \in A) = \sum_{x \in A} f(x)$$

- Continuous

$$P(\mathbf{X} \in A) = \int \dots \int_A f(x) dx = \int \dots \int_A f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

- (For any $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$)

Definition

- Let n and m be positive integers
- And let p_1, \dots, p_n be numbers satisfying $0 \leq p_i \leq 1, i = 1, \dots, n$
- And $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$.

Definition

- Then the random vector (X_1, \dots, X_n) has a multinomial distribution with m trials and cell probabilities p_1, \dots, p_n .
- If the joint pmf of (X_1, \dots, X_n) is

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{m!}{x_1! \dots x_n!} p_1^{x_1} \dots p_n^{x_n} = m! \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{p_i^{x_i}}{x_i!}$$

Multinomial Theorem

- Let m and n be positive integers.
- Let A be the set of vectors $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$
 - Such that each x_i is a nonnegative integer
 - And $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = m$
- Then for any real numbers p_1, \dots, p_n :

$$(p_1 + \dots + p_n)^m = \sum_{x \in A} \frac{m!}{x_1! \dots x_n!} p_1^{x_1} \dots p_n^{x_n}$$

Definition

- Let $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$ be random vectors with joint pdf or pmf $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.
- Let $f_{X_i}(x_i)$ denote the marginal pdf or pmf of \mathbf{X}_i .
- Then $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$ are called mutually independent random vectors
 - If for every $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_{X_1}(x_1) \dots f_{X_n}(x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{X_i}(x_i)$$

- If the X_i s are all one dimensional then X_1, \dots, X_n are called mutually independent random variables.

Theorem

- Let X_1, \dots, X_n be mutually independent random variables.
- Let g_1, \dots, g_n be real valued functions
 - Such that $g_i(x_i)$ is a function only if $x_i, i=1, \dots, n$.
- Then,

$$E(g_1(X_1) \dots g_n(X_n)) = E(g_1(X_1)) \dots E(g_n(X_n))$$

Theorem

- Let X_1, \dots, X_n be mutually independent random variables
 - With mgfs $M_{X_1}(t), \dots, M_{X_n}(t)$.

- Let $Z = X_1 + \dots + X_n$.

- Then the mgf of Z is

$$M_Z(t) = M_{X_1}(t) \dots M_{X_n}(t).$$

- In particular, if X_1, \dots, X_n all have the same distribution with mgf $M_X(t)$

- Then

$$M_Z(t) = (M_X(t))^n$$

Theorem

- Let $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$ be random vectors.
- Then $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$ are mutually independent random vectors
 - If and only if there exists functions $g_i(x_i)$, $i=1, \dots, n$
 - Such that the joint pdf or pmf of $(\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n)$ can be written as:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g_1(x_1) \dots g_n(x_n)$$

Theorem

- Let $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$ be independently random vectors.
- Let $g_i(x_i)$ be a function only of x_i , $i=1, \dots, n$.
- Then the random variables $U_i = g_i(\mathbf{X}_i)$, $i=1, \dots, n$,
are mutually independent.