Biostat 602 Winter 2016

Lecture Set 1

Review of the Past

Introduction

In scientific research, an investigator often uses one of two types of reasoning, namely the *deductive reasoning* and the *inductive reasoning*.

Deductive Reasoning

- works from the general to specific; typically based on some general laws or rules which are then applied to a specific case.
- We make an assumption about a population and want specifics of a sample
- Suppose the lifetime of a particular bt=rand of car battery has an exponential distribution with a median of 7 years. We want to determine what percentage of these batteries that will last at least 10 years.
- Subject of Biostat 601

Inductive Reasoning

- generalizes the conclusion of findings observed from a specific.
- Suppose a particular supplier is providing batteries to a hardware manufacturer and it is intended to estimate the lifetime distribution of this particular brand and substantiate the manufacturer's claim that 90% of the batteries last over 700 hours.
- Typically one would select a random sample of batteries from the batch provided by the supplier and run a life-test on them
- Based on the findings from the sample estimate the distribution of the lifetime and test out the claim
- Subject of statistical inference (Biostat 602)

Review of Biostat 601

Probability

Let S be the sample space related to a random experiment. Probability is a set function with range in [0, 1] defined on all subsets of S satisfying:

i. $P(E) \geq 0$, for any event $E \subset S$.

ii. P(S) = 1.

iii. If E_1, E_2, \ldots are mutually exclusive, (i.e. $E_i \cap E_j = \phi, i \neq j$), then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(E_i) \qquad (countable \ additivity)$$

Laws of Probability:

• Addition Law

For any finite set of events E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_n ,

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_{i}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(E_{i}) - \sum_{i < j} \sum_{i < j < k} P(E_{i}E_{j}) + \sum_{i < j < k} \sum_{i < j < k} P(E_{i}E_{j}E_{k}) + \cdots + (-1)^{n+1} P(E_{1}E_{2}\cdots E_{n}).$$

• Boole's Inequality

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_i\right) \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(E_i)$$

• Bonferroni's Inequality

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} E_i\right) \ge \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(E_i) - (n-1)$$

- Law of complementation
- Multiplication Law (Conditional Probability)
- Law of Independence
- Law of Total Probability

Suppose A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n are mutually exclusive and exhaustive events, i.e. $A_i \cap A_j = \phi$, $i \neq j$ and $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$. Let B be any event in S. Then

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i)P(B|A_i).$$

• Bayes Theorem

Suppose $F_1, F_2, ..., F_n$ are **mutually exclusive** and **exhaustive** events, i.e. one and only one of them must occur. Suppose for some j, j = 1, ..., n, we are interested in the conditional probability of F_j given another conditioning event E, i.e. $P(F_j \mid E)$. Bayes' Theorem states that it can be obtained using the *reverse* conditional probability as

$$P(F_j \mid E) = \frac{P(E \mid F_j)P(F_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(E \mid F_i)P(F_i)}.$$

Example 1

- The ELISA (Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay) test is used to detect antibodies in blood and can indicate the presence of the HIV virus.
- Approximately 5% of a population is HIV positive.
- Among those who have HIV virus, 96% test positive with ELISA (Sensitivity).
- Among those who do not have HIV virus, approximately 98% test negative with ELISA (Specificity).
- For a randomly chosen subject from this population if the test is positive, what is the probability that the subject has HIV virus?

Diagnostic Testing Nomenclature

	Test Results		
Disease	+	_	
+	TP	FN	
_	FP	TN	

In any diagnostic test, there are four quantities which people are interested in:

Sensitivity: Probability of True Positives, i.e. probability of the test result being positive for a diseased individual (TP/(TP+FN))

Specificity: Probability of True Negatives, i.e. probability of the test result showing negative finding for an individual w/o the disease (TN/(FP+TN))

Positive Predictive Value: probability of the individual truly having the disease when the test result is positive (TP/(TP+FP))

Negative Predictive Value: probability of the individual not having the disease when the test result is negative (TN/(TN + FN))

Remarks

- High values of all four quantities are desirable for a diagnostic test.
- In designing the test, care is taken to maintain a reasonably high level of sensitivity and specificity. These two, along with the prevalence of the disease determine the predictive values.
- In our example, sensitivity, specificity are provided. We want to find the positive predictive value.

Back to AIDS example

- Let H = subject has HIV virus, and Pos = test result is positive.
- It is given that

$$P(H) = 0.05, P(Pos \mid H) = 0.96, P(Pos \mid H^c) = 0.02.$$

- Want to find $P(H \mid Pos)$.
- By definition of conditional probability

$$P(H \mid Pos) = \frac{P(H \cap Pos)}{P(Pos)}$$

• Now

$$P(H \cap Pos) = P(Pos \mid H)P(H) = 0.96 \times 0.05 = 0.048,$$

and

$$P(Pos) = P(Pos \cap H) + P(Pos \cap H^c)$$

$$= P(Pos \mid H)P(H) + P(Pos \mid H^c)P(H^c)$$

$$= (0.96)(0.05) + (0.02)(0.95) = 0.067.$$

• The required probability equals 0.048/0.067 = 0.716.

Random Variables

A random variable Y is a real-valued function defined on a probability space.

- Discrete Random Variables: Probability mass function (pmf), Cumulative Distribution Function (cdf), Calculation of Expectation, Variance from a pmf
- Continuous Random Variables: Probability density function (pdf), Cumulative Distribution Function (cdf), Calculation of Expectation, Variance from a given pdf.
- Common Families of Discrete Distributions (Binomial, Poisson, Geometric, Negative Binomial)
- Common Families of Continuous Distributions (Normal, t, chi^2 , F, Exponential, Gamma)

Example 2: A point is chosen at random on a line segment of length L. Find the probability that the ratio of the shorter to the longer segment is less than 1/4.

Solution: The given information tantamount to saying that a point randomly picked on the line segment has a length X which is has a uniform distribution on (0, L). We are interested in

$$P\left(\frac{\min(x, L - x)}{\max(x, L - x)} \le 1/4\right).$$

Now note that for x < L/2, $\min(x, L - x) = x$ and,

$$\frac{\min(x, L - x)}{\max(x, L - x)} \le 1/4 \Rightarrow \frac{x}{L - x} \le 1/4 \Rightarrow x \le L/5.$$

For $x \ge L/2$, $\min(x, L - x) = L - x$ and,

$$\frac{\min(x, L - x)}{\max(x, L - x)} \le 1/4 \Rightarrow \frac{L - x}{x} \le 1/4 \Rightarrow x \ge 4L/5$$

So the required probability equals

$$P[X \le L/5] + P[X \ge 4L/5] = \int_0^{\frac{L}{5}} \frac{1}{L} dx + \int_{\frac{4L}{5}}^{L} \frac{1}{L} dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{5}$$
$$= \frac{2}{5}.$$

Example 3: Suppose that the travel time from Adam's home to his office is a normally distributed random variable with mean = 40 minutes and standard deviation = 7 minutes.

(a) What proportion of time Adam reaches office within 38 and 45 minutes of leaving home?

Solution: Let X denote Adam's travel time. We need to find P[38 < X < 45]. Note

$$P[38 < X < 45] = P\left[\frac{38 - 40}{7} < Z < \frac{45 - 40}{7}\right]$$

$$= P\left[Z < \frac{45 - 40}{7}\right] - P\left[Z < \frac{38 - 40}{7}\right]$$

$$= P[Z < 0.714] - P[Z < -0.286]$$

$$= \Phi(0.71) - \Phi(-0.29) = .7611 - .3859 = .3752.$$

(b) If Adam wants to be 95% certain that he will not be late for an office appointment at 1 PM, what is the latest time he should leave home?

Solution: This falls under a class of problems involving *inverse* transformation. In these problems, one is interested in finding for a normal random variable X the 100p - th percentile x_p . So x_p satisfies the equation $P[X < x_p] = p$; it is the point to the left of which lies 100p% of the distribution. One solves the problem in the following two steps.

Step 1: Calculate 100p - th percentile z_p of Z, that satisfies $P[Z < z_p] = p$.

Step 2: Find x_p using the formula $x_p = \mu + \sigma z_p$.

In our problem, we need to find the 95th percentile of the distribution of X. Using the *qnorm* function in R, $z_{0.95} = 1.645$, and

$$x_{0.95} = 40 + 7(1.645) = 51.515.$$

So, Adam needs to leave his home latest by 12:08 PM.

Multiple Random Variables

- Probability calculations from bivariate distributions
- Bivariate transformations, calculating jacobian, joint to marginal and conditional distribution
- Finding marginal distributions from a hierarchical structure
- Applying Conditional Expectation and Variance formula in Hierarchical Models

$$E(Y) = E[E(Y|X)], \quad Var(Y) = E[Var(Y|X)] + Var[E(Y|X)].$$

• Applying variance and covariance formula for linear combinations

$$Cov\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i X_i, \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j Y_j\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_i b_j Cov(X_i, Y_j),$$

$$Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}X_{i}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}Var(X_{i}) + 2\sum\sum_{i< j} a_{i}a_{j} \ Cov(X_{i}, X_{j}).$$

• Chebyshev's Inequality

If μ and σ are the mean and standard deviation of a random variable X, then for any positive constant k and $\sigma > 0$,

$$P(|X - \mu| < k\sigma) \ge 1 - \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

• Jensen's Inequality

For any random variable X, if g(x) is a convex function, then

$$E[g(X)] \ge g(E(X))$$
.

Example 4: Let X, Y have joint pdf

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} cxy & 0 \le x \le y < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (a) Find c.
- (b) Find $P(X + Y \le 1)$.
- (c) Find E(Y|X=x).

Example 5: Suppose X_1, X_2 have the joint pdf

$$f_{X_1,X_2}(x_1,x_2) = 16x_1^3x_2^3, \quad 0 \le x_1 \le 1, \ 0 \le x_2 \le 1.$$

Consider the transformation to $Y_1 = X_1 \sqrt{X_2}$ and $Y_2 = X_2 \sqrt{X_1}$. Find the joint density of Y_1 and Y_2 . Are they independent?

Example 6: Drugs and HIV

N = No. of drug injections during specified time period $X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if needle is contaminated with HIV} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

S= No. of contaminated needles used in time period $S|N=n\sim Binomial(n,\theta), \quad N\sim Poisson(\lambda).$

$$P(S = s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(S = s | N = n) P(N = n)$$

$$= \sum_{n=s}^{\infty} \binom{n}{s} \theta^{s} (1 - \theta)^{n-s} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^{n}}{n!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} (\lambda \theta)^{s} \sum_{n=s}^{\infty} \binom{n}{s} \frac{\{\lambda (1 - \theta)\}^{n-s}}{n!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \frac{(\lambda \theta)^{s}}{s!} \sum_{n=s}^{\infty} \frac{\{\lambda (1 - \theta)\}^{n-s}}{(n - s)!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \frac{(\lambda \theta)^{s}}{s!} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\{\lambda (1 - \theta)\}^{n}}{n!} \qquad \text{(change of index)}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda (1 - \theta)} \frac{(\lambda \theta)^{s}}{s!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda \theta} \frac{(\lambda \theta)^{s}}{s!}$$

 $S \sim Poisson(\lambda \theta)$.

Random Samples

- Basic objective in statistical inference is to estimate population parameters of interest, such as mean, median, sd, prevalence, odds.
- Inference on the population parameters is based on the corresponding measure derived from a sample. For example, the prevalence of a chronic condition in a certain population can be estimated on the basis of the proportion of individuals having this condition in a random sample drawn from the population.
- A random sample is a collection of random variables.
- A collection of random variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ is called a **random** sample of size n from a population with pdf/pmf f(x) if
 - 1. X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent;
 - 2. The marginal pdf or pmf of X_i is the same as f(x).
- Alternatively, we say X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are independent and identically distributed random variables, expressed as

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} f(x)$$

• The joint pdf or pmf of $X_1, X_2, ... X_n$ (also called the *likelihood function*) is

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1) \times f(x_2) \times \dots \times f(x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$$

Properties of sample mean and variance

Result: Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be a random sample from a population with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 < \infty$. Then

- (a) $E(\overline{X}) = \mu$.
- (b) $Var(\overline{X}) = \sigma^2/n$.
- (c) $E(S^2) = \sigma^2$.
- (d) $Var(S^2) = \left(\mu_4 \frac{n-3}{n-1}\sigma^4\right)/n$, where μ_4 is the fourth central moment of the population.

Properties of sample mean and variance from Normal population

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be a random sample from a $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ distribution, and let

$$\overline{X} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) / n \text{ and } S^2 = \left\{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X})^2\right\} / (n-1).$$

- Result 1: \overline{X} and S^2 are independent random variables.
- Result 2:

$$\overline{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n).$$

• Result 3:

$$(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2(n-1).$$

• Result 4:

$$\frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}.$$

• Result 5: Suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n is a random sample from a $N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$ population, and Y_1, \ldots, Y_m is a random sample from an independent $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$ population. Then

$$\frac{S_X^2/\sigma_X^2}{S_Y^2/\sigma_Y^2} \sim F_{n-1,m-1}.$$

• Result 6: Suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n is a random sample from an arbitrary distribution F. Define \overline{X} and S^2 as above. Then \overline{X} and S^2 are independently distributed if and only if F is normal.

Order Statistics

Consider a continuous population. Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be i.i.d with cdf and pdf $F_Y(y)$, $f_Y(y)$, respectively. The ordered observations

$$Y_{(1)} \le Y_{(2)} \le \cdots \le Y_{(n)}$$

are called order statistics. For example, the *minimum* is $Y_{(1)}$ and the *maximum* is $Y_{(n)}$. We are interested in finding the distribution of an arbitrary $Y_{(i)}$, as well as the joint distributions of sets of $Y_{(i)}$'s and $Y_{(j)}$'s.

I. Distribution of $Y_{(r)}$

Marginal pdf of the r-th order statistic is

$$f_{Y_{(r)}}(y) = \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} F(y)^{r-1} [1 - F(y)]^{n-r} f(y)$$

II. Joint distribution of $Y_{(r)}, Y_{(s)}, r < s$

Joint pdf of any pair of order statistics Y_r, Y_s is given by

$$f_{Y_{(r)},Y_{(s)}}(u,v) = \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(s-r-1)!(n-s)!} F_Y(u)^{r-1} \times \left[F_Y(v) - F_Y(u)\right]^{s-r-1} (1 - F_Y(v))^{n-s} f_Y(u) f_Y(v)$$

III. Joint distribution of first r order statistics, r < n

Joint pdf of $Y_{(1)}, \ldots, Y_{(r)}$ from a sample of size n is

$$f_{Y_{(1),\dots,Y_{(r)}}}(u_1,\dots,u_r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!} \prod_{i=1}^r f_Y(u_i) \left(1 - F(u_r)\right)^{n-r}, \quad u_1 < u_2 < \dots < u_r.$$

Large Sample Theory

Convergence of a sequence of random variables

A sequence of random variables $\{X_n\}$ is said to converge, as $n \longrightarrow \infty$,

(i) almost surely (or with probability 1) to a random variable X (Notation: $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$) if for any $\epsilon > 0$

$$P\left[\lim_{n\to\infty}|X_n - X| > \epsilon\right] = 0.$$

(ii) in probability to a random variable X (Notation: $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$) if for any $\epsilon > 0$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\bigg[|X_n - X| > \epsilon\bigg] = 0.$$

(iii) in distribution to a random variable X (Notation: $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$) if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(X_n \le x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$$

at all continuity points of $F_X(x)$.

(iv) <u>in p-th mean</u> to a random variable X (Notation: $X_n \xrightarrow{L_p} X$) if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} E\left[|X_n - X|^p\right] = 0.$$

Example 7: Suppose $X_1, X_2, ... X_n$ be a random sample from a *lomax* distribution with parameter σ having pdf

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \left(1 + \frac{x}{\sigma}\right)^2}, \quad x > 0, \sigma > 0.$$

- (a) Let $X_{(1)}$ be the minimum based on the random sample. Show that $nX_{(1)} \xrightarrow{d} Exp(\sigma)$ as $n \longrightarrow \infty$.
- (b) Show that $X_{(1)} \xrightarrow{P} 0$ as $n \longrightarrow \infty$.

Proof:

Example 8: Suppose $X_1, X_2, ... X_n$ be a random sample from a *lomax* distribution with parameter σ having pdf

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \left(1 + \frac{x}{\sigma}\right)^2}, \quad x > 0, \sigma > 0.$$

- (a) Let $X_{(1)}$ be the minimum based on the random sample. Show that $nX_{(1)} \xrightarrow{d} Exp(\sigma)$ as $n \longrightarrow \infty$.
- (b) Show that $X_{(1)} \xrightarrow{P} 0$ as $n \longrightarrow \infty$.

Proof:

Slutsky's theorem

If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} b$, and $Z_n \xrightarrow{P} a$, where a and b are constants, then

$$Z_n X_n + Y_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} aX + b.$$

Weak law of large numbers

Suppose Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n are i.i.d. with $E(Y_i) = m$ and $V(Y_i) = \sigma^2$. Then $\overline{Y}_n = (Y_1 + \cdots + Y_n)/n \stackrel{P}{\longrightarrow} m$

Strong law of large numbers

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with $E(Y_i) = m < \infty$. Then the <u>Strong Law of Large Numbers</u> states that $\overline{Y}_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} m$. In other words,

$$P\left\{\lim_{n\to\infty}\,\overline{Y}_n=m\right\}=1.$$

Example 9: Let $X_n \sim F(n, n)$, a F distribution with n and n degrees of freedom. Show that as $n \longrightarrow \infty$,

$$X \xrightarrow{P} 1$$
, $X \xrightarrow{a.s.} 1$.

Central Limit Theorem (Laplace)

Let Y_i for i = 1, 2, ..., n, be i.i.d. each with finite mean $\mu < \infty$ and finite variance $\sigma^2 < \infty$. Then, the *Central Limit Theorem* states that

$$Z_n = \frac{(\overline{Y}_n - \mu)}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).$$

This implies $\lim_{n\to\infty} P(Z_n \le z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^z \exp(-x^2/2) dx$.

Example 10: Let $X_n \sim gamma(n, \beta)$.

- (a) Show that $\frac{X_n}{n} \xrightarrow{P} \beta$.
- (b) What is the limiting distribution of suitably scaled and centered X_n/n ?

Delta Method

Let Y_n be a sequence of random variables that satisfies $\sqrt{n}(Y_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$. For a given function g and a specific value of θ , suppose $g^{(1)}(\cdot)$ exists, continuous, and $g^{(1)}(\theta) \neq 0$. Then

$$\sqrt{n}\left[g(Y_n) - g(\theta)\right] \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N\left\{0, \sigma^2\left[g^{(1)}\left(\theta\right)\right]^2\right\}$$

Example 11: Let $X_n \sim gamma(n, \beta)$. Define $Y_n = X_n/n$.

- (a) Obtain the limiting distribution of $\sqrt{n}(Y_n \beta)$.
- (b) Obtain the limiting distribution of $\sqrt{n}(\log(Y_n) \log(\beta))$.
- (c) What is the limiting distribution of (scaled and centered) Y_n^{-1} ?

Example 12: Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n be a random sample from Bernoulli(p). Consider the transformation function g(x) = x(1-x). Find the large-sample distribution of suitably scaled and centered random variable $g(\overline{X}_n)$.