Statistical Modeling Monday, Course Week 3

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Exam

30 hours take home exam in Week 3

- Start: Wednesday 15 January 2019 at 09:00
- Deadline: 16 January 2019 at 15:00
- You can submit just a pdf (it can be generated with Rmarkdown)



Statistical inference

- Statistical inference or learning is the process of using data to discover the distribution that generated the data
- Suppose we have a sample $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim F$ how de we infer the distribution F?
- Suppose we have a sample $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim X$ how we infer the $\mathbb{E}(X)$? Here we already saw the empirical mean



Statistical models

What is a statistical model?

A statistical model \mathcal{M} is a set of distributions (or densities or regression functions).

A discrete case

The set of all the symmetric PMF f(x) over the values $A = \{-2, -1, 1, +2\}$.

$$\mathcal{M} = \left\{ f(x) \ge 0 \text{ s.t. } f(x) = f(-x) \forall x \in A, \sum_{x \in A} f(x) = 1 \right\}$$

Continuous case

$$\mathcal{M} = \{f \text{ continuous densities in } [0,1]\}$$



Parametric and non-parametric models

Parametric model

A parametric model is a statistical model that can be **parametrized** by a **finite** number of parameters.

- The Gaussian distributions $\{N(\mu, \sigma^2), \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma > 0\}$
- The Bernoulli distributions $\{f(x|p) = p^x(1-p)^{1-x}, p \in [0,1]\}$

Non-parametric model

A model is **non**-parametric if can not be parametrized by a finite number of parameters.

- $\mathcal{M} = \{ All \ CDF \}$
- {f continuous densities in [0,1]}



We already saw some examples of parametric models and selection of the parameters, that is **learning**.

- The ISI data, we tried to fit visually and with the Q-Q plot the exponential and gamma distribution
- In the Brain cell data set we saw the log-normal family and the Gaussian family



Point estimation

Point estimation refers to providing a single "best guess" of some quantity of interest.

- A parameter of the model
- $\mathbb{E}(X)$ or $\mathbb{V}(X)$
- A regression function, density or CDF

In general a point estimator is some function of the random observations X_1, \ldots, X_n

$$g(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$$

- The empirical mean $ar{X}$ is a point estimator of the true mean value $\mathbb{E}(X)$
- The empirical CDF \hat{F} is a point estimator of the true CDF F_X



!!!

A point estimator is a function of random variables X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n (usually i.i.d.), hence it is a **random variable**

- Let $\hat{\theta}$ the point estimator of the parameter θ in a parametric model
- Since $\hat{\theta}$ is a random variable, we can define $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta})$ and more importantly $\mathbb{V}(\hat{\theta})$
- The standard deviation of $\hat{\theta}$ is called the **standard error** of $\hat{\theta}$ and is a measure of the error of the estimator
- Since in general the real distribution is unknown we can only estimate $\hat{se} \approx se = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}(\hat{\theta})}$



Empirical mean and sem

The empirical mean

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

is a **point estimator** of the true mean value $\mathbb{E}(X)$. We already saw that the standard error of the mean

$$sem pprox se(ar{X}) = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}(ar{X})}$$

is a measure of the error that we perform using \bar{X} to estimate $\mathbb{E}(X)$



Bernoulli distributions

Suppose we observe $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim Bernoulli(p)$. We already saw how we can estimate the only parameter p.



Bernoulli distributions

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- $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = p$
- So we can use $\hat{p} = \bar{X}$ as a point estimator of p
- And we can obtain an estimation of the error

$$se = \sqrt{p(1-p)/n}$$
 $\hat{se} = \sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})/n}$



Methods of moments

The Bernoulli estimation we have seen before can be interpreted as an example of **method of moments**

Method of moments

The method of moments estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is obtained from the equations,

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x|\theta) dx = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X^2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^2 f(x|\theta) dx = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2$$

$$\dot{\cdot} = \dot{\cdot}$$

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$$(X_{02/12}^k)_{2019} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^k f(x|\theta) dx = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^k$$



The method of moments can be easy to implement, and under appropriate condition the corresponding estimator converge to the true value of the parameter

Moreover the method of moments estimator is asymptotically normal

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \to N(0, \Sigma)$$

If we have only one parameter we just need one equation

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \bar{X}$$

 This method is also used as a first estimation to initialize other algorithms



The likelihood of the data

Likelihood

Given a random sample $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim X$, where $X \sim f(x|\theta)$ the likelihood function is defined as,

$$\mathcal{L}_n(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(X_i|\theta)$$

where $f(x|\theta)$ is a probability density function or a probability mass function

- The log-likelihood function is $\ell_n(\theta) = \ln (\mathcal{L}_n(\theta))$
- Intuitively the likelihood is the probability of observing the data under the given parameter θ
- We can think of selecting the θ that maximise such probability Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE)



Example: exponential distribution

Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim exp(\lambda)$

$$f(x|\lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$$
 (pdf)

Thus the likelihood is,

$$\mathcal{L}_n(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(X_i|\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda e^{-\lambda X_i}$$

$$\ell_n(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\ln(\lambda) + (-\lambda X_i)) = n \ln(\lambda) - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$



Example: Bernoulli distribution

Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim Bernoulli(p)$

$$f(x|p) = p^{x}(1-p)^{1-x}$$
 (pmf)

Hence the likelihood is,

$$\mathcal{L}_n(p) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(X_i|p) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{X_i} (1-p)^{1-X_i}$$
 $\ell_n(p) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln\left(p^{X_i}\right) + \ln\left((1-p)^{1-X_i}\right) = \ln(p) \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \ln(1-p) \sum_{i=1}^n (1-X_i)$



The maximum likelihood estimator

The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE), is $\hat{\theta}$ the value of the parameter θ that maximizes $\mathcal{L}_n(\theta)$

- The maximum of $\mathcal{L}_n(\theta)$ occurs at the same place as the maximum of $\ell_n(\theta)$ (the log-likelihood). Often it is easier to work with the log-likelihood.
- If we multiply $\mathcal{L}_n(\theta)$ by any positive constant c (not depending on θ) then this will not change the MLE. Hence we can drop multiplicative constants in $\mathcal{L}_n(\theta)$ or equivalently additive constants in $\ell_n(\theta)$

