

## Module 4: Statistical inference (I)

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# Outline

This module we will review

- Basics of probability
- Fundamental concepts in inference

# Probability distributions

- In statistics, we try to draw conclusions about a larger population from a sample of observations.
- We use mathematical models to capture probabilistic behavior of a population.
- This behavior is modeled using probability distributions.

# Density/Distribution functions

## Definition (Cumulative Distribution Function)

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

## Density/Distribution functions (cont'd)

### Definition (Probability Mass Function)

For a discrete  $RV$ , the probability mass function (PMF) is:

$$f_X(x) = P(X = x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

### Definition (Probability Density Function)

For a continuous  $RV$ , the probability density function (PDF) is:

$$f_X(x) = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F(t) \right|_{t=x}$$

So  $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Note that  $f_X \geq 0$  for  $\forall x$ , and thus  $F_X$  is an increasing function.

# Expectation and Variance

## Definition (Expectation)

A measure of central tendency (a weighted average of the values of  $X$ )

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in S} xP(X = x) \text{ for discrete RV taking values from } S$$

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf_X(x)dx \text{ for continuous RV}$$

## Definition (Variance)

A measure of the spread of a distribution

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sum_{x \in S} (x - E[X])^2 P(X = x) \text{ for discrete RV}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])^2 f_X(x)dx \text{ for continuous RV}$$

# Discrete random variable

A discrete random variable has a countable number of possible values.

# Bernoulli and Binomial random variable

- Consider the event of flipping a (possibly unfair) coin.
- $Y \in \{0, 1\}$  represents success and failure.
- Suppose we only flip the coin once,
  - We can express  $P(Y = 1) = p$  and  $P(Y = 0) = 1 - p$
- Bernoulli distribution

$$P(Y = y) = p^y(1 - p)^{1-y} \quad \text{for } y = 0, 1$$

- If we flip the coin  $n$  times,
- Binomial distribution

$$P(Y = y) = \binom{n}{y} p^y(1 - p)^{n-y} \quad \text{for } y = 0, 1, \dots, n$$



# Binomial distributions with different values of $n$ and $p$

If  $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ , then  $E(Y) = np$  and  $SD(Y) = \sqrt{np(1-p)}$ .

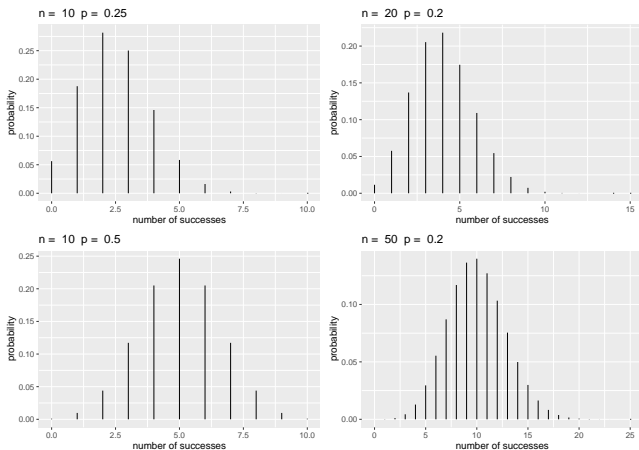


Figure 1: Binomial distributions with different values of  $n$  and  $p$ .

# How to generate in R?

All common distributions have four functions in R:

- Density  
`dbinom(x, size, prob)`
- Distribution function  
`pbinom(q, size, prob)`
- Quantile function  
`qbinom(p, size, prob)`
- Random generation  
`rbinom(n, size, prob)`

Not sure? Using `?` with any of the four functions, e.g. `?qbinom`

## Example of binomial distribution computing

**Question:** While taking a multiple choice test, a student encountered 10 problems where she ended up completely guessing, randomly selecting one of the four options. What is the chance that she got exactly 2 of the 10 correct?

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**Answer:** Knowing that the student randomly selected her answers, we assume she has a 25% chance of a correct response.

$$P(Y = 2) = \binom{10}{2} (.25)^2 (.75)^8 = 0.282$$

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**R computing:**

```
dbinom(2, size = 10, prob = .25)
```

```
## [1] 0.2815676
```

# Geometric random variables

- Suppose we are to perform independent, identical Bernoulli trials until the first success.
- If we wish to model  $Y$ , the number of failures before the first success
- Geometric distribution

$$P(Y = y) = (1 - p)^y p \quad \text{for } y = 0, 1, \dots, \infty$$

## Geometric distributions with $p = 0.3, 0.5$ and $0.7$

If  $Y \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$ , then  $E(Y) = \frac{1-p}{p}$  and  $SD(Y) = \sqrt{\frac{1-p}{p^2}}$ .

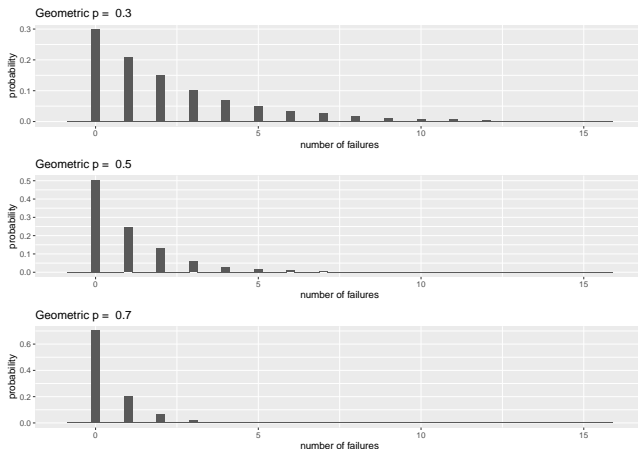


Figure 2: Geometric distributions with  $p = 0.3, 0.5$  and  $0.7$ .

# Negative binomial random variable

- If we were to carry out multiple independent and identical Bernoulli trials until the  $r^{\text{th}}$  success occurs.
- $Y$ , the number of failures before the  $r^{\text{th}}$  success
- Negative binomial distributions

$$P(Y = y) = \binom{y + r - 1}{r - 1} (1 - p)^y (p)^r \quad \text{for } y = 0, 1, \dots, \infty$$

- When  $r = 1$ , the geometric distribution is a special case of negative binomial distribution.



## Negative binomial distributions with different $p$ and $r$

If  $Y \sim \text{NB}(r, p)$  then  $E(Y) = \frac{r(1-p)}{p}$  and  $SD(Y) = \sqrt{\frac{r(1-p)}{p^2}}$ .

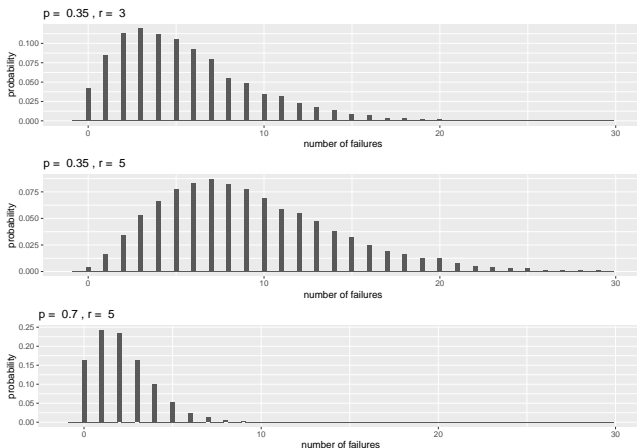


Figure 3: Negative binomial distributions with different values of  $p$  and  $r$ .

# Hypergeometric random variable

- Bernoulli process assumes the probability of a success remained constant across all trials.
- What if this probability is dynamic?

# Hypergeometric random variable

- Bernoulli process assumes the probability of a success remained constant across all trials.
- What if this probability is dynamic?
- Suppose we wanted to select  $n$  items **without replacement** from a collection of  $N$  objects,  $m$  of which are considered successes?
- The probability of selecting a “success” depends on the previous selections.
- $Y$ , the number of successes after  $n$  selections
- Hypergeometric random variable

$$P(Y = y) = \frac{\binom{m}{y} \binom{N-m}{n-y}}{\binom{N}{n}} \quad \text{for } y = 0, 1, \dots, \min(m, n).$$

## Hypergeometric distributions with $m$ , $N$ , and $n$

$Y$  follows a hypergeometric distribution and we define  $p = m/N$ , then

$$E(Y) = np \text{ and } SD(Y) = \sqrt{np(1-p) \frac{N-n}{N-1}}.$$

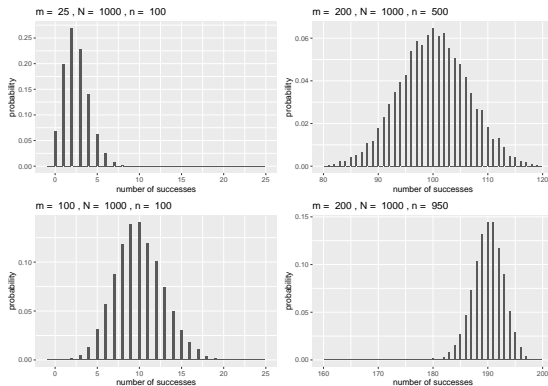


Figure 4: Hypergeometric distributions with different values of  $m$ ,  $N$ , and  $n$

# Poisson random variable

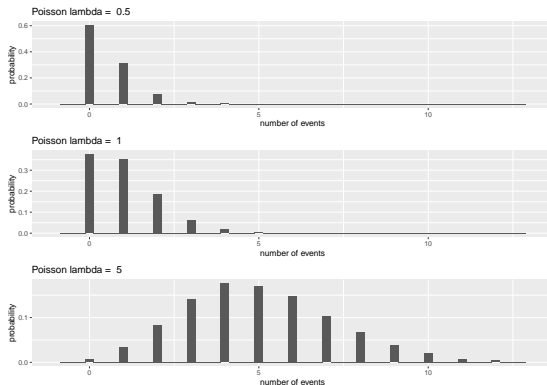
- In a Poisson process, we are counting the number of events per unit of time or space and the number of events depends only on the length or size of the interval.
- $Y$ , the number of events
- Poisson distribution

$$P(Y = y) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!} \quad \text{for } y = 0, 1, \dots, \infty,$$

where  $\lambda$  is the mean or expected count in the unit of time or space of interest.

# Poisson distributions with $\lambda = 0.5, 1$ , and 5

$$E(Y) = \lambda \text{ and } SD(Y) = \sqrt{\lambda}$$



# Continuous random variable

A continuous random variable can take on an uncountably infinite number of values. Given a pdf  $f(y)$ ,

$$P(a \leq Y \leq b) = \int_a^b f(y)dy$$

Properties:

- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y)dy = 1$ .
- For any value  $y$ ,  $P(Y = y) = \int_y^y f(y)dy = 0$ .  
 $P(y < Y) = P(y \leq Y)$ .

# Exponential random variable

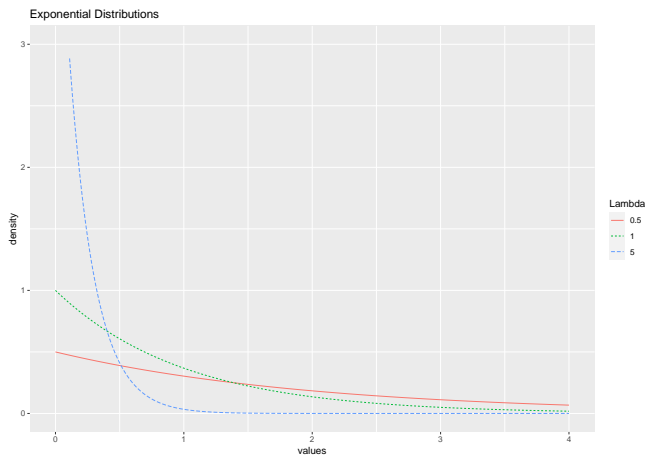
- Suppose we have a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$
- To model the wait time  $Y$  until the first event
- Exponential distribution

$$f(y) = \lambda e^{-\lambda y} \quad \text{for } y > 0,$$



# Exponential distributions with $\lambda = 0.5, 1$ , and 5

$$E(Y) = 1/\lambda \text{ and } SD(Y) = 1/\lambda$$



# Gamma random variable

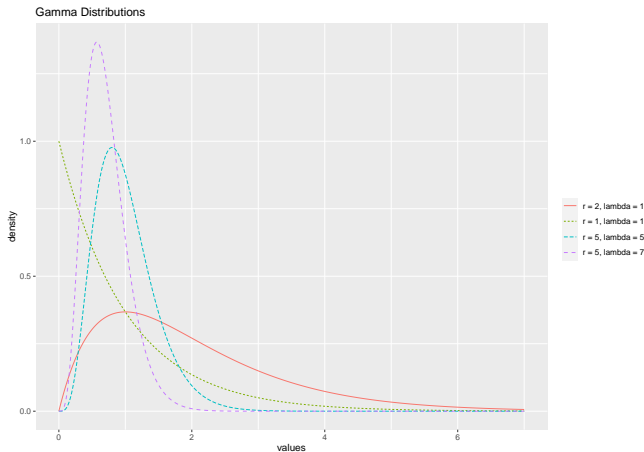
- Consider a Poisson process.
- $Y$ , waiting time before 1 event occurred, follows an exponential distribution.
- $Y$ , waiting time before  $r$  events occurred, follows a gamma distribution.

$$f(y) = \frac{\lambda^r}{\Gamma(r)} y^{r-1} e^{-\lambda y} \quad \text{for } y > 0$$

- When  $r = 1$ , the exponential distribution is a special case of gamma distribution.

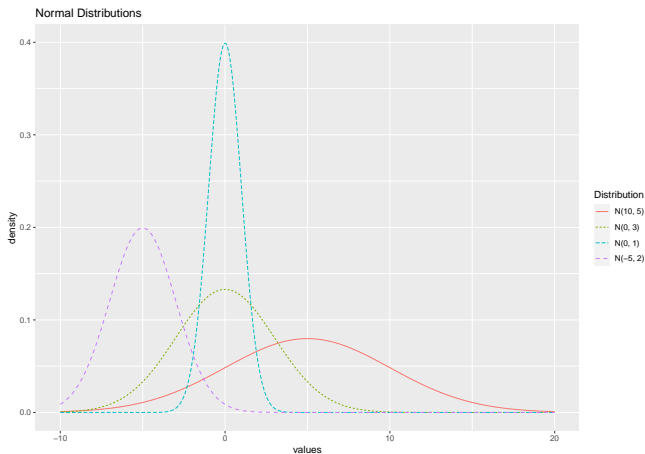
# Gamma distributions with different values of $r$ and $\lambda$

If  $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \lambda)$  then  $E(Y) = r/\lambda$  and  $SD(Y) = \sqrt{r/\lambda^2}$ .



# Normal random variable

$Y \in N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $E(Y) = \mu$  and  $SD(Y) = \sigma$ .



# Beta random variable

We often use beta random variables to model distributions of probabilities bounded below by 0 and above by 1.

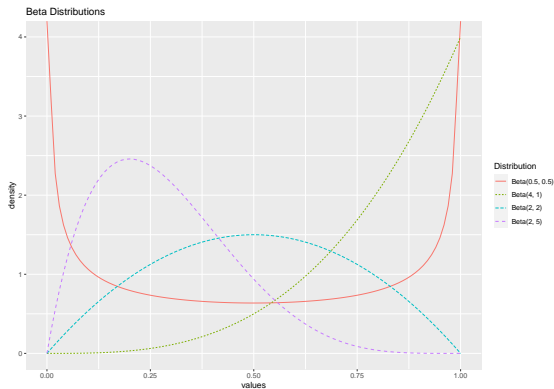
$$f(y) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} y^{\alpha-1} (1-y)^{\beta-1} \quad \text{for } 0 < y < 1$$

- If  $\alpha = \beta = 1$ , it follows a uniform distribution,

$$\begin{aligned} f(y) &= \frac{\Gamma(1)}{\Gamma(1)\Gamma(1)} y^0 (1-y)^0 \\ &= 1 \quad \text{for } 0 < y < 1. \end{aligned}$$

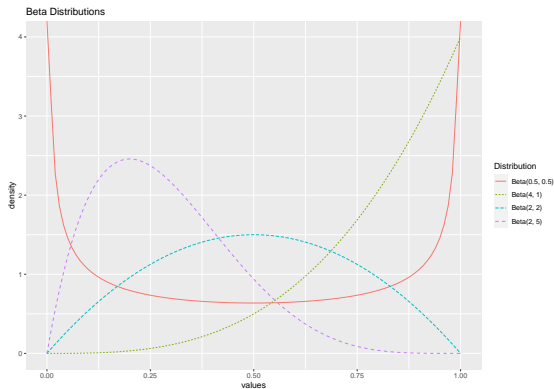
# Beta distributions with different values of $\alpha$ and $\beta$

$Y \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ , then  $E(Y) = \alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$  and  $SD(Y) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}}$ .



## Beta distributions with different values of $\alpha$ and $\beta$

$Y \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ , then  $E(Y) = \alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$  and  $SD(Y) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}}$ .



Note that when  $\alpha = \beta$ , distributions are symmetric. The distribution is left-skewed when  $\alpha > \beta$  and right-skewed when  $\beta > \alpha$ .

# Distributions used in testing

- $\chi^2$  distribution
- $t$  distribution
- $F$  distribution



# Some probability distributions in R

## Continuous

- Normal (`?rnorm`)
- Uniform (`?runif`)
- Beta (`?rbeta`)
- Chi-sq (`?rchisq`)
- Exponential (`?rexp`)
- t (`?rt`)
- F (`?rf`)
- Logistic (`?rlogis`)
- Lognormal (`?rlnorm`)

## Discrete

- Poisson (`?rpois`)
- Binomial (`?rbinom`)
- Geometric (`?rgeom`)
- Negative Binomial (`?rnbinom`)
- Multinomial (`?rmultinom`)

# Empirical vs. Theoretical CDF

In statistics, an empirical distribution function is the distribution function associated with the empirical measure of a sample.

- Theoretical CDF

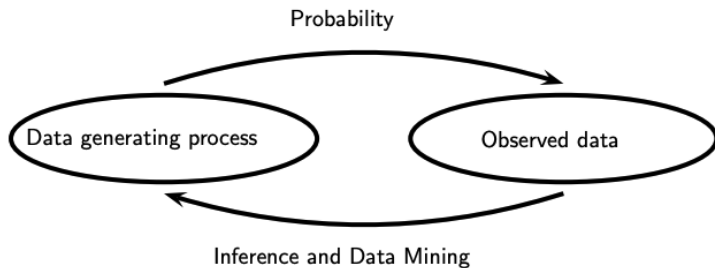
$$F_X(k) = \Pr(X \leq k)$$

- Empirical CDF

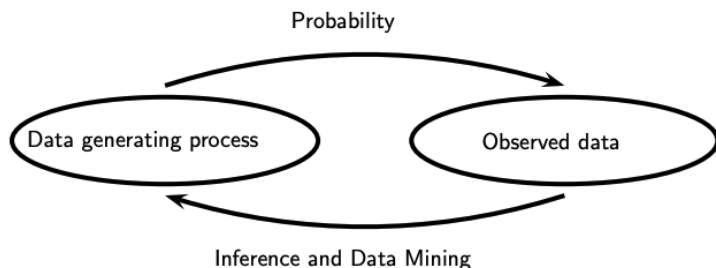
$$\hat{F}_n(k) = \frac{\text{number of elements in the sample} \leq k}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I_{X_i \leq k}$$

where  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  make up some random sample from the underlying distribution.

# Probability and inference



# Probability and inference



- Probability: Given a data generating process, what are the properties of the outcomes?
- Statistical inference: Given the outcomes, what can we say about the process that generated the data?

# Parametric vs. Nonparametric models

- Statistical model  $\mathfrak{F}$ : a set of distributions (or densities or regression functions)

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- Statistical model  $\mathfrak{F}$ : a set of distributions (or densities or regression functions)
- Parametric model: a set  $\mathfrak{F}$  that can be parameterized by a finite number of parameters

$$\mathfrak{F} = \{f(x; \theta) : \theta \in \Theta\}$$

where  $\theta$  is an unknown parameter (or vector of parameters) that can take values in the parameter space  $\Theta$ .

- e.g. Normal distribution, a 2-parameter model with density as  $f(x; \mu, \sigma)$

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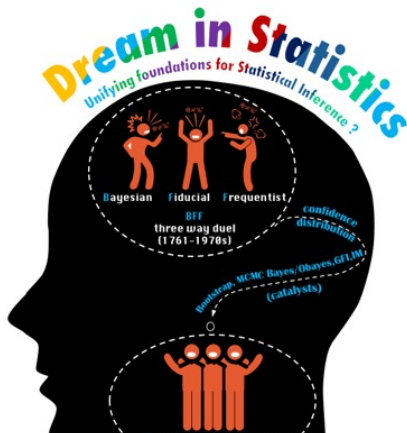
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- e.g. Normal distribution, a 2-parameter model with density as  $f(x; \mu, \sigma)$
- Nonparametric model: a set  $\mathfrak{F}$  that cannot be parameterized by a finite number of parameters
  - e.g.  $\mathfrak{F}_{\text{ALL}} = \{\text{all CDF's}\}$  is nonparametric.

# Frequentist, Bayesian, Fiducial inference (BFF)

- Frequentist: statistical methods with guaranteed frequency behavior
- Bayesian: statistical methods for using data to update beliefs
- Fiducial: statistical methods based on inverse probability without calling on prior probability distributions



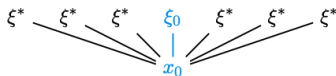


# Difference: math details, interpretation, replication

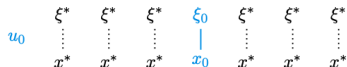
- Frequentist: modeling collection of distributions  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_\xi\}_{\xi \in \Xi}$ 
  - parameter  $\xi_0$  fixed, data  $x$  replicated



- Bayesian: modeling one joint distribution  $f(x | \xi) \cdot \pi(\xi)$ 
  - data  $x_0$  fixed, parameter  $\xi$  replicated



- Fiducial: modeling data generating algorithm  $\mathbf{x} = G(\mathbf{u}, \xi)$ 
  - data  $x$  & parameter  $\xi$  linked through DGA, auxiliary variable  $u$  replicated



# Fundamental concepts in inference

- Point estimation
- Hypothesis testing
- Confidence sets

# Point estimation

- Providing a single “best guess” of some quantity of interest
- Notations
  - Parameter  $\theta$ : fixed, unknown quantity
  - Point estimator  $\hat{\theta}$ : depends on data, random variable

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- Providing a single “best guess” of some quantity of interest
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## Definition (Point estimator)

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be  $n$  IID data points from some distribution  $F$ . A point estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n$  of a parameter  $\theta$  is some function of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ :

$$\hat{\theta}_n = g(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

- Properties
  - Unbiasedness
  - Consistency
  - Efficiency

## Point estimation (cont'd)

- Bias

$$\text{bias}(\hat{\theta}_n) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta}(\hat{\theta}_n) - \theta$$

- Consistency

$$\hat{\theta}_n \xrightarrow{P} \theta$$

- Standard error

$$\text{se} = \text{se}(\hat{\theta}_n) = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}(\hat{\theta}_n)}$$

- Mean square error

$$\text{MSE} = \mathbb{E}_{\theta}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)^2$$

# Confidence sets

## Definition (Confidence set)

A  $1 - \alpha$  confidence interval for a parameter  $\theta$  is an interval  $C_n = (a, b)$  where  $a = a(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  and  $b = b(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  are functions of the data such that

$$\mathbb{P}_\theta(\theta \in C_n) \geq 1 - \alpha \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$

- If  $\theta$  is a vector, we use **Confidence sets** instead of **Confidence intervals**.
- In Frequentist,  $\theta$  is fixed while  $C_n$  is random.
  - Confidence interval is not a probability statement about  $\theta$ .
- In Bayesian,  $\theta$  is random.
  - Bayesian interval refers to degree-of-belief probabilities.

# Hypothesis testing

## Definition (Hypothesis testing)

Suppose that we partition the parameter space  $\Theta$  into two disjoint sets  $\Theta_0$  and  $\Theta_1$  and that we wish to test

$$H_0 : \theta \in \Theta_0 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : \theta \in \Theta_1$$

We call  $H_0$  the null hypothesis and  $H_1$  the alternative hypothesis.

## Hypothesis testing (cont'd)

Let  $X$  be a random variable,  $\mathcal{X}$  be the range of  $X$ . We test a hypothesis by finding the rejection region  $R \subset \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$X \in R \implies \text{reject } H_0$$

$$X \notin R \implies \text{retain (do not reject) } H_0$$

Common form of  $R$ ,

$$R = \{x : T(x) > c\}$$

where  $T$  is a test statistic and  $c$  is a critical value.



## Hypothesis testing (cont'd)

- Type I error: Rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true
- Type II error: Retaining  $H_0$  when  $H_1$  is true

### Definition (Power function)

The power function of a test with rejection region  $R$  is defined by

$$\beta(\theta) = \mathbb{P}_\theta(X \in R).$$

The size of a test is defined to be

$$\alpha = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta(\theta).$$

A test is said to have level  $\alpha$  if its size is less than or equal to  $\alpha$ .

# Resources

This tutorial is based on

- Havard Biostatistics Summer Pre Course [link]
- “Beyond Multiple Linear Regression” by Paul Roback and Julie Legler [link]
- “Short course on Generalized Fiducial Inference” by Jan Hannig [link]

More resources: - BFF, Bayesian, Fiducial & Frequentist:

<http://bff-stat.org/about/>