PhD Bootcamp Day 3: Distributions and Inference

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August 13, 2021



Hello!

Welcome to the department! Today's bootcamp session is structured as follows:

- Basic distribution theory review.
- A review of concepts that you should be comfortable with before starting classes.
- A list of review exercises that *you should do* to warm-up your stats knowledge before the school year begins.

Cumulative Distribution Functions

- The distribution of a real-valued random-variable X is defined by its **cumulative distribution function**, $F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$. The CDF is right continuous, non-decreasing, and has limits 0 and 1 as x tends to or $+\infty$.
- The CDF is usually represented as an integral over another function, so that

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x dF_X(t).$$

Probability Density and Mass Functions

• While the dF_X notation may be unfamilar, it is defined as

$$\int_{-\infty}^{x} dF_X(t) = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{x} f_X(t)dt : & \text{continuous rv} \\ \sum_{t=-\infty}^{x} f_X(t) : & \text{discrete rv} \end{cases}.$$

• $f_X(x)$ is the **probability mass** (discrete) or **density** (continuous) function. It is often convenient to write

$$f_X(x) = \frac{h(x)}{c}$$

for kernel h and normalizing constant $c < \infty$. We assume $h(x) \ge 0$ and

$$c = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x)dx : & \text{continuous rv} \\ \sum_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) : & \text{discrete rv} \end{cases}.$$

Multivariate Random Variables

Random variables X can be defined on \mathbb{R}^m . The multivariate CDF is

$$F_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = P(X_1 \le x_1, X_2 \le x_2, \dots, X_m \le x_m)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{x_m} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{t}) dt_1 \dots dt_m : & \text{continuous rvs} \\ \sum_{t_1 = -\infty}^{x_1} \dots \sum_{t_m = -\infty}^{x_m} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{t}) : & \text{discrete rvs} \end{cases}$$

■ This can be generalized to random vectors consisting of discrete and continuous rvs. To recover the PDF/PMF of, say, X_1 , we merely integrate out all other variables:

$$f_{X_1}(x_1) = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(x_1, t_2, \dots, t_m) dt_2 \cdots dt_m : & \text{cont.} \\ \sum_{t_2 = -\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{t_m = -\infty}^{\infty} f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(x_1, t_2, \dots, t_m) : & \text{disc.} \end{cases}$$

Independence and Covariance

■ Two random variables are **independent** if their joint density/mass function factorizes into the product of their marginal distributions, i.e.

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \ \forall \ x,y.$$

■ The **covariance** of two random variables is

$$Cov(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y].$$

■ Covariance says something about the relationship between *X* and *Y* (note that the outer expectation is with respect to their *joint* distribution).

Does covariance tell us anything about independence?

• We can roughly describe how two random variables affect each other with **correlation**:

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X)\operatorname{Var}(Y)}} \in [-1, 1].$$

- $\rho_{XY} > 0$ implies X and Y are positively correlated, ie. an increase in X tends to result in an increase in Y (and X and Y are dependent).
- $ho_{XY} < 0$ implies X and Y are negatively correlated, ie. an increase in X tends to result in an decrease in Y (and X and Y are dependent).
- What about $\rho_{XY} = 0$?

Zero Correlation

- The problem with correlation: it describes (approximately) linear relationships.
- In a sense, ρ_{XY} may be interepreted as the sign of a in a linear equation $Y = aX + \epsilon$.
- But what if the relationship between X and Y is not linear (eg. quadratic, cubic, sinusoidal, step functions, etc.).
- As it turns out,

$$\rho_{XY} = 0 \Rightarrow X$$
 and Y are independent.

So, correlation can only tell us about the dependence structure if it is non-zero.

Conditional Distributions

■ The conditional PDF/PMF of $X \mid Y = y$ is

$$f_{X|Y}(x \mid y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{\int f_{X,Y}(x,y)dx}.$$

Bayes theorem gives us a way to do "backward conditioning"

$$f_{Y|X}(y \mid x) = \frac{f_{X|Y}(x \mid y)f_{Y}(y)}{f_{X}(x)} = \frac{f_{X|Y}(x \mid y)f_{Y}(y)}{\int f_{X|Y}(x \mid y)f_{Y}(y)dy}.$$

Note that the denominator does not depend on y.

Conditional Expectations

■ The conditional expectation of $X \mid Y = y$ is

$$\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y = y] = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x \mid y) dx \\ \sum_{x = -\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x \mid y) \end{cases}$$

and will be a function of y.

- As such, we can define the random variable $\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y]$.
- Law of Total Expectation:

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y]] = \mathbb{E}[X].$$

■ Law of Total Variance:

$$\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{Var}(X \mid Y)] + \operatorname{Var}(\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y]) = \operatorname{Var}(X).$$

Example: Bivariate Normal Distribution

$$\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & \sigma_{XY} \\ \sigma_{XY} & \sigma_Y^2 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

- Describes a two-dimensional vector that takes values in \mathbb{R}^2 .
- $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$ and $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$.
- $\blacksquare X \mid Y \text{ and } Y \mid X \text{ are also normal.}$
- For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$aX + bY \sim \mathcal{N}(a\mu_X + b\mu_Y, a^2\sigma_X^2 + b^2\sigma_Y^2 + 2ab\sigma_{XY}).$$

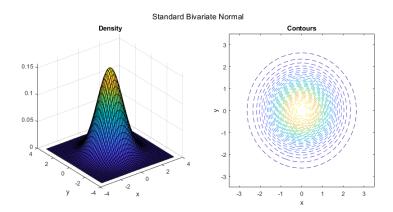


Figure 1: Density and contours of the standard bivariate normal distribution.

Example: Gamma Distribution

A positive random variable $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ with PDF:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-x\beta};$$

$$E[X] = \frac{\alpha}{\beta};$$

$$V[X] = \frac{\alpha}{\beta^2};$$

where $x \in (0, \infty), \ \alpha, \beta > 0$.

Note: this is referred to as the shape-rate parameterization. You may also see the shape-scale parameterization with scale

 $\theta = 1/\beta$

Gamma Distribution - Important Properties

Here are some properties that will come in handy throughout the first year:

- If $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ with $\alpha = 1, X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda = \beta)$
- If $X \sim \text{Gamma}(v/2, 1/2)$, then $X \sim \chi_v^2$
- If $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1, \beta)$ and $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_2, \beta)$, then $X + Y \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \beta)$
- If $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ (shape-rate parameterization), then $1/X \sim \text{Inverse Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ with expectation $\frac{\beta}{\alpha-1}$
- If $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \theta)$ (shape-scale parameterization), then $1/X \sim \text{Inverse Gamma}(\alpha, 1/\theta)$ with expectation $\frac{\beta}{\alpha-1}$
- If $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$, then $X/n \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, n\beta)$

Miscellaneous Useful Facts about Distributions

- If X_1, \dots, X_n are iid with CDF F(x), then $X_{(1)}$ has CDF $1 (1 F(x))^n$
- If X_1, \dots, X_n are iid with CDF F(x), then $X_{(n)}$ has CDF $F(x)^n$
- If $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$, then $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \text{Poisson}(n\lambda)$
- f $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Exponential}(\lambda) \leftrightarrow \text{Gamma}(1, \lambda)$, then $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$
- If $\beta | \phi \sim N(m, \Sigma/\phi)$ and $\phi \sim \text{Gamma}(v/2, v\sigma^2/2)$ then the marginal distribution of β is $t_v(m, \sigma^2\Sigma)$
- Mins, maxes, and CDF counts of random variables are binomial random variables



Change of Variables

Motivation: Let X be a real-valued random variable with pdf $f_X(x)$ and let Y = g(X) for some one-to-one differentiable function g(x). Then Y will also have a continuous distribution what is it?

One Dimension: let Y = g(X), g monotone with $X = g^{-1}(Y) = h(Y)$, then

$$X \sim f_X(x) \implies f_Y(y) = f_X(h(y))|dh/dy|$$

Change of Variables: d-Dimensions

Let $X = (X_1, \dots, X_{d1})$ be a collection of random variables with support $\mathbb{X}^{(d_1)}$ and joint pdf $f_{X_1,\dots,X_{d_1}}$, and let

$$Y = g(X) \leftrightarrow (Y_1, \cdots, Y_{d_2}) = (g_1(X), \cdots, g_{d_2}(X)),$$

where $g: \mathbb{X}^{d_1} \to \mathbb{R}^{d_2}$ and $h = g^{-1}: \mathbb{R}^{d_1} \to \mathbb{X}^{d_2}$

Then Y has joint pdf:

$$f_{\boldsymbol{Y}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(h_1(\boldsymbol{Y}), \cdots, h_{d1}(\boldsymbol{Y})) \times |J(\boldsymbol{Y})|$$

Change of Variables: Step-by-Step

Note the set of transformation functions $g = (g_1, \dots, g_{d_2})$:

$$Y_1 = g_1(X_1, \dots, X_{d_1})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Y_{d_2} = g_{d_2}(X_1, \dots, X_{d_1})$$

2 Find the set of inverse functions, $h = g^{-1}(\mathbf{X})$:

$$X_1 = h_1(Y_1, \dots, Y_{d_2})$$

 \vdots
 $X_{d_1} = h_{d_1}(Y_1, \dots, Y_{d_2})$

3 Identify the joint support of the new variables, \mathbb{Y}^{d_2}

In Compute the Jacobian of the inverse transformation h(Y) in Step 2: form the matrix of partial derivatives and take its determinant.

$$D_{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x_{i}}{\partial y_{j}} \end{bmatrix}_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x_{1}}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial x_{1}}{\partial y_{2}} & \dots & \frac{\partial x_{1}}{\partial y_{d_{2}}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial x_{d_{1}}}{\partial y_{1}} & \frac{\partial x_{d_{1}}}{\partial y_{2}} & \dots & \frac{\partial x_{d_{1}}}{\partial y_{d_{2}}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Set $J(y_1, \dots, y_{d_2}) = \det D_y$. Alternately, note $J(Y) = \frac{1}{J(X)}$

5 The joint pdf of (Y_1, \dots, Y_{d_1}) is

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}) = f_{\mathbf{X}}(h_1(\mathbf{Y}), \cdots, h_{d1}(\mathbf{Y})) \times |J(\mathbf{Y})|$$

What if g is not one-one?

Make it one-to-one! For example:

- Let $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ and suppose we know the distribution of (X_1, X_2) (and at least one of the marginal distributions).
- 2 Set up a one-to-one transformation:

$$Y_1 = g(X_1, X_2)$$
 and $Y_2 = X_1$ (or X_2)

and find the distribution of (Y_1, Y_2) .

3 Then use marginalization:

$$f_{Y_1}(y_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Y_1, X_1}(y_1, x_1) dx_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Y_1, X_2}(y_1, x_2) dx_2.$$

Moment Generating Functions

For a random variable X, the **moment generating function** (MGF) is the real-valued function

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}]$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. If the MGF is finite for an open interval around 0,

$$\mathbb{E}[X^n] = \frac{dM_X(t)}{dt^n} \bigg|_{t=0}.$$

1 Uniqueness property: If $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, then $F_X(x) = F_Y(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ (i.e., $X \stackrel{d}{=} Y$).

2 Linear transformations: For all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$M_{aX+b} = e^{bt} M_X(at).$$

3 Linear combinations: Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be independent, $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$, and $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$. Then

$$M_{S_n}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n M_{X_i}(a_i t).$$

Characteristic Functions

Similarly, the **characteristic function** (CF) is the complex function

$$\varphi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{itX}] = \mathbb{E}[\cos(tX) + i\sin(tX)]$$

for $t \in \mathbb{R}$. For all t such that $M_X(t)$ is finite,

$$\varphi_X(-it) = M_X(t).$$

The CF has many of the same properties as the MGF. However, the CF always exists for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and, in some cases, is easier to calculate than the MGF.

The Likelihood Function

■ If X_1, \dots, X_n are and i.i.d. sample from a population with pdf/pmf $f(x \mid \theta)$ the **likelihood function** is

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}|x_1\cdots,x_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i\mid\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

■ Density function versus likelihood: the density function $f(x \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is a non-negative function of the data x that integrates to 1. The likelihood function is a function of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and typically will not integrate to 1

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Maximum likelihood estimation finds values of the parameters that maximize the likelihood function: $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} L(\theta | x)$
- If the likelihood function is differentiable, then candidates for the MLE satisfy $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} L(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{X}) = 0, i = 1, \dots, k$.
- Since log(t) is a monotonically increasing function of t, for any positive valued function f, $arg \max_{\theta} f(x) = arg \max_{\theta} \log f(x)$.
- Verify that the identified root is a local max by checking that the Hessian matrix is negative semi-definite at $\hat{\theta}$.
- Invariance property: if $\hat{\theta}$ is the MLE for θ , then $g(\hat{\theta})$ is the MLE for $g(\theta)$



Convergence in Probability and Distribution

- Suppose we have an infinite sequence of random variables X_1, X_2, \ldots What happens as $n \to \infty$? Can it "converge" like a sequence of real numbers? It turns out it can... in several ways!
- The sequence X_n converges in probability to an rv X (denoted $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$) if for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

■ The sequence X_n with corresponding sequence of CDFs F_n converges in distribution to an rv X (denoted $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$) with cdf F if

 $F_n(x) \to F(x)$ for all continuity points x of F.

Large Sample Theory: Key Theorems

Under some conditions, the sample mean $\bar{X} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ has some interesting properties as the sample size gets arbitrarily large.

The Central Limit Theorem: Let $X_1, X_2, ...$ be an infinite sequence of *iid* rvs, with $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$ and $\operatorname{Var}[X_i] = \sigma^2 < \infty$. Then

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu) \stackrel{d}{\to} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$
 as $n \to \infty$.

2 Weak Law of Large Numbers: Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be an infinite sequence of iid rvs, with $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu < \infty$. Then

$$\bar{X} \stackrel{p}{\to} \mu \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$



Large Sample Theory: Useful Tools

- **I Slutsky's Theorem**: Let X_n , Y_n be sequences of rvs with $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ and $Y_n \stackrel{p}{\to} c$, a constant. Then:
 - $X_n + Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X + c;$
 - $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{d} Xc;$
 - $X_n/Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X/c \text{ if } c \neq 0.$
- **2 Continuous Mapping Theorem:** Let $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$ and h be any continuous function on \mathbb{R} . Then

$$h(X_n) \stackrel{p}{\to} h(X).$$

 $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{d} X \text{ and } X_n \xrightarrow{p} c \iff X_n \xrightarrow{d} c.$