

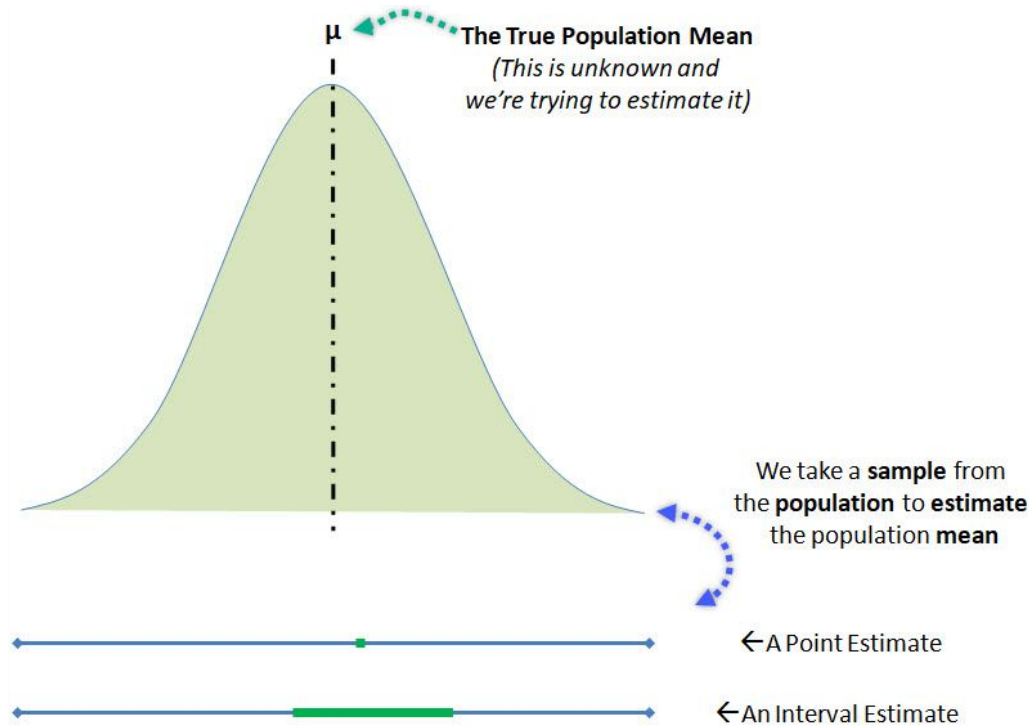
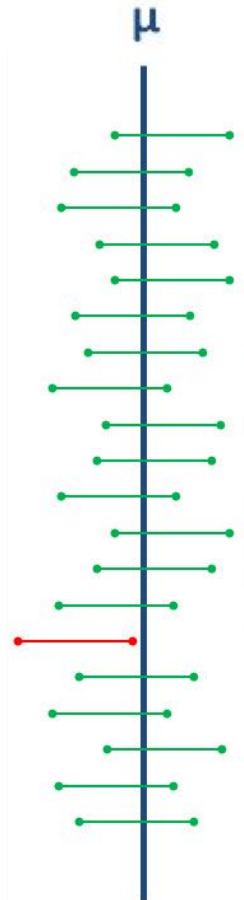
CSC380: Principles of Data Science

Statistics 5

Xinchen Yu

Review: Interval estimate

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Review: Gaussian (Corrected)

Suppose $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with unknown μ & known σ^2 .

(Fact 1) $\hat{\mu} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$ $\sqrt{n} \frac{\hat{\mu} - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0,1)$ → T-dist

(Fact 2) If $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, → $\hat{\sigma}$

$$P(Z \in [-z, z]) = 1 - 2(1 - \Phi(z))$$

where $\Phi(z) := P(Z \leq z)$ is the CDF of Z .

$z = 1.96$: RHS $\approx .95$, 95% confident

$z = 2.58$: RHS $\approx .99$,

Let: $Z \longrightarrow \sqrt{n} \frac{\hat{\mu} - \mu}{\sigma}$

$$P\left(\hat{\mu} \in \left[\mu - \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \mu + \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]\right) \geq 0.95$$

$$P\left(\hat{\mu} \in \left[\mu - \frac{2.58\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \mu + \frac{2.58\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]\right) \geq 0.99$$

\Rightarrow Compute $\left[\hat{\mu} - \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \hat{\mu} + \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]$. Done!

Q: what if X from an arbitrary distribution?

Q: what if σ^2 is unknown and sample size is small (< 30)?

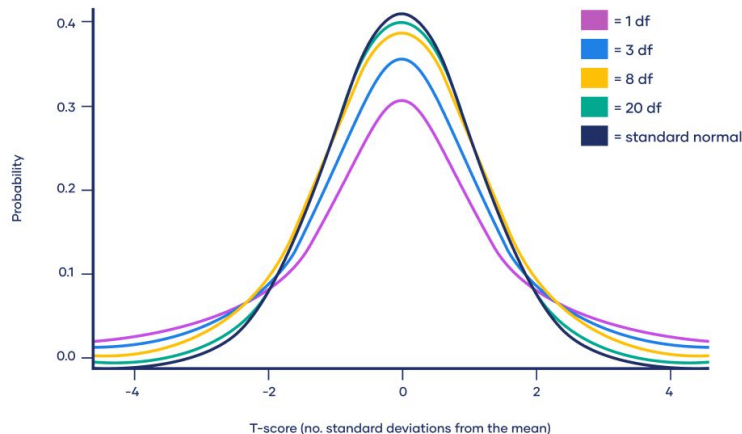
Review: Gaussian (Corrected)

Recall: Gaussian confidence interval with $\sqrt{n} \frac{\hat{\mu}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$.

What if we use $\hat{\sigma}$ instead of σ ?

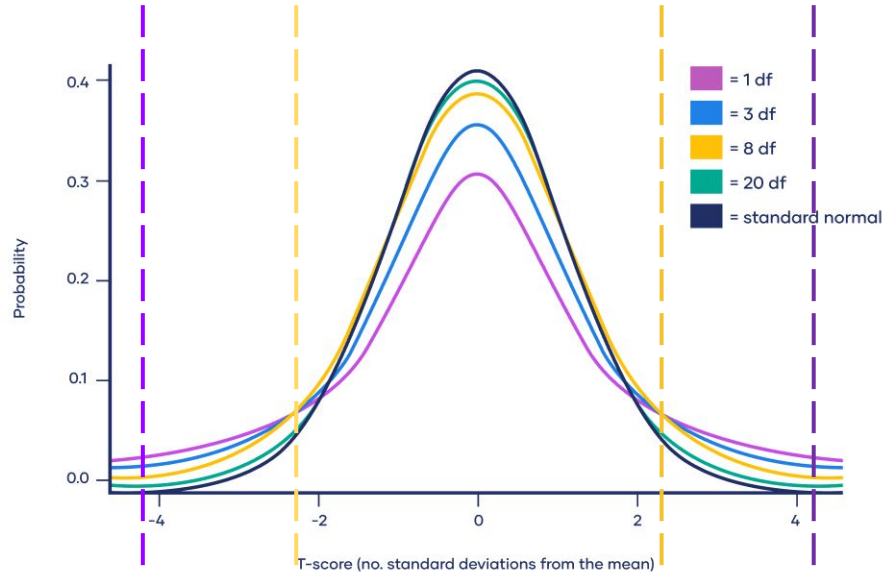
(Theorem) X_1, \dots, X_n with unknown μ, σ^2 .

Let $\widehat{UVar}_n := \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \hat{\mu}_n)^2$ (unbiased version of sample variance). Then,
 $\sqrt{n} \frac{\hat{\mu}_n - \mu}{\sqrt{\widehat{UVar}_n}} \sim \text{student-t}(\text{mean } 0, \text{ scale } 1, \text{ degrees of freedom } = n - 1)$



As df approaches infinity, T distribution becomes gaussian

Review: T scores for different df



(recall: 1.96 for gaussian)

much larger number
compensates for the
inaccuracy of $\hat{\sigma}^2$

```
import scipy.stats as st
alpha = 0.05
st.t.ppf(1-alpha/2,df=2)
=> 4.302652729911275
```

```
st.t.ppf(1-alpha/2,df=5)
=> 2.5705818366147395
```

```
st.t.ppf(1-alpha/2,df=10)
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```

```
st.t.ppf(1-alpha/2,df=30)
=> 2.0422724563012373
```

```
st.t.ppf(1-alpha/2,df=100)
=> 1.9839715184496334
```

With a similar derivation we have done before,

With at least 95% confidence:

$$\left[\hat{\mu} - t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}, \hat{\mu} + t_{\alpha/2, n-1} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

Where $t_{\alpha/2, n-1}$ can be computed numerically.

Key take away: more conservative!
=> more likely to be correct.

Common practice: Apply this method even if we do not know whether true distribution is Gaussian.

(recall: 1.96 for gaussian)

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Method 2: Bootstrap

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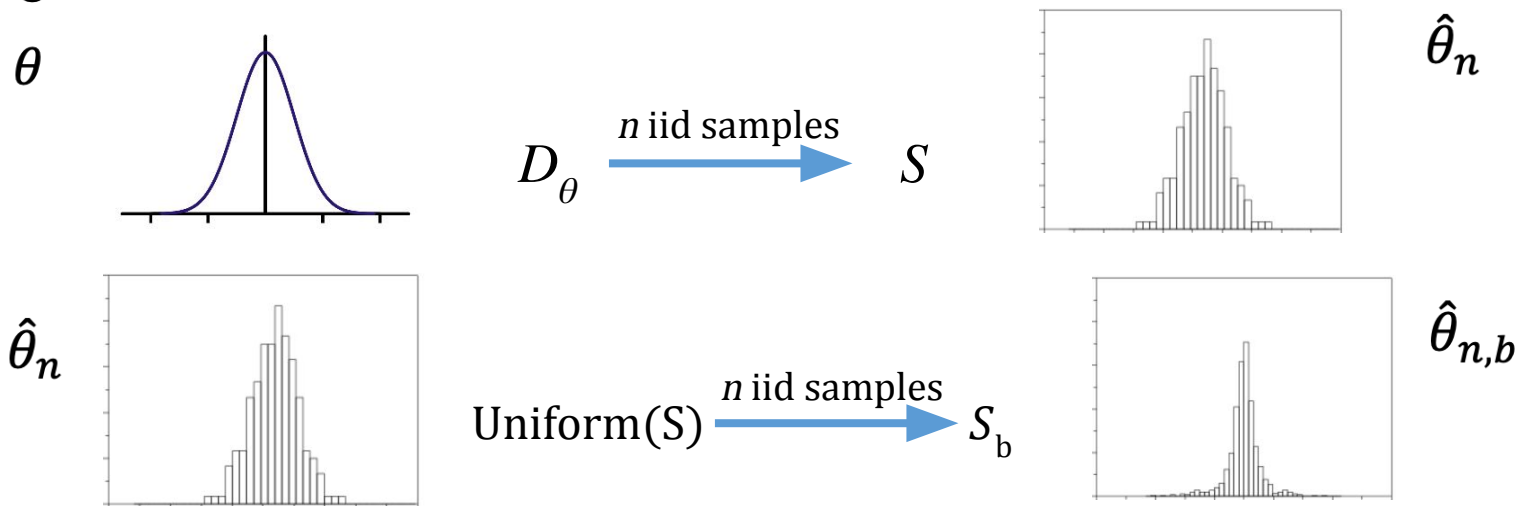
$$P\left(\hat{\mu} \in \left[\mu - \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \mu + \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]\right) \geq 0.95$$

$$P\left(\hat{\mu} \in \left[\mu - \frac{2.58\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \mu + \frac{2.58\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]\right) \geq 0.99$$

\Rightarrow Compute $\left[\hat{\mu} - \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \hat{\mu} + \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]$. Done!

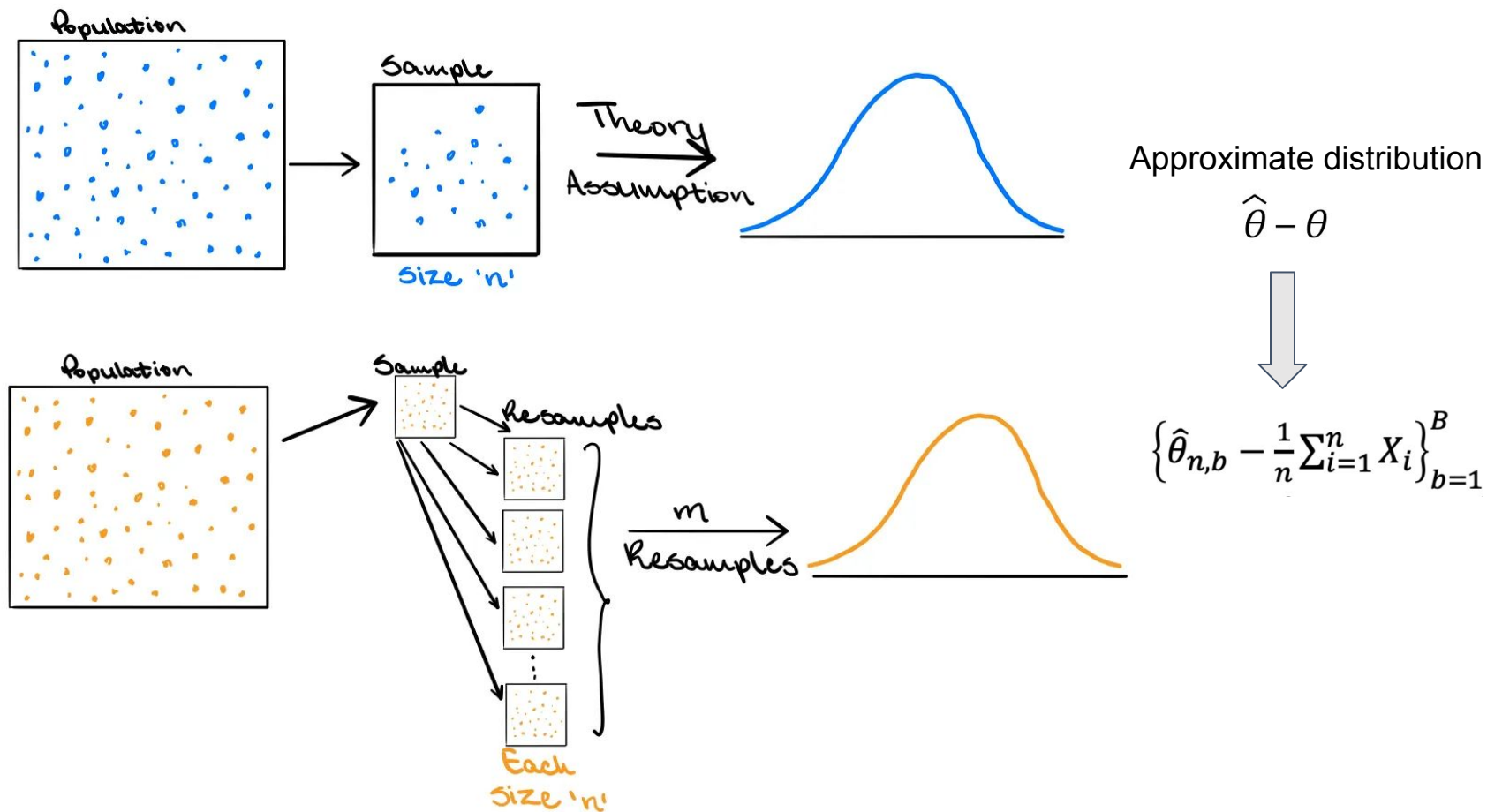
Directly approximate distributions of $\hat{\mu} - \mu$

- Key idea: approximate ν , the distribution of $\hat{\theta}_n - \theta$
- Insight:



- Use empirical distribution of $\hat{\theta}_{n,b} - \hat{\theta}_n$'s to approximate ν , obtaining approximations of $v_{\alpha/2}$ and $v_{1-\alpha/2}$
- This empirical distribution can be obtained by drawing multiple S_b 's (bootstrap subsample)

Method 2: Bootstrap



Method 2: Bootstrap example

Sample data: 30, 37, 36, 43, 42, 43, 43, 46, 41, 42

Sample mean: $\bar{x} = 40.3$

We want to know the distribution of: $\delta = \bar{x} - \mu$

Can approximate the distribution: $\delta^* = \bar{x}^* - \bar{x}$

Let's resample data with same size and generate 20 bootstrap samples:

43	36	46	30	43	43	43	37	42	42	43	37	36	42	43	43	42	43	42	43
43	41	37	37	43	43	46	36	41	43	43	42	41	43	46	36	43	43	43	42
42	43	37	43	46	37	36	41	36	43	41	36	37	30	46	46	42	36	36	43
37	42	43	41	41	42	36	42	42	43	42	43	41	43	36	43	43	41	42	46
42	36	43	43	42	37	42	42	42	46	30	43	36	43	43	42	37	36	42	30
36	36	42	42	36	36	43	41	30	42	37	43	41	41	43	43	42	46	43	37
43	37	41	43	41	42	43	46	46	36	43	42	43	30	41	46	43	46	30	43
41	42	30	42	37	43	43	42	43	43	46	43	30	42	30	42	30	43	43	42
46	42	42	43	41	42	30	37	30	42	43	42	43	37	37	37	42	43	43	46
42	43	43	41	42	36	43	30	37	43	42	43	41	36	37	41	43	42	43	43

Method 2: Bootstrap example

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43	41	37	37	43	43	46	36	41	43	43	42	41	43	46	36	43	43	43	42
42	43	37	43	46	37	36	41	36	43	41	36	37	30	46	46	42	36	36	43
37	42	43	41	41	42	36	42	42	43	42	43	41	43	36	43	43	41	42	46
42	36	43	43	42	37	42	42	42	46	30	43	36	43	43	42	37	36	42	30
36	36	42	42	36	36	43	41	30	42	37	43	41	41	43	43	42	46	43	37
43	37	41	43	41	42	43	46	46	36	43	42	43	30	41	46	43	46	30	43
41	42	30	42	37	43	43	42	43	43	46	43	30	42	30	42	30	43	43	42
46	42	42	43	41	42	30	37	30	42	43	42	43	37	37	37	42	43	43	46
42	43	43	41	42	36	43	30	37	43	42	43	41	36	37	41	43	42	43	43

Calculate sample mean for each column (bootstrap sample), compute: $\delta^* = \bar{x}^* - \bar{x}$

Sort the 20 differences:

-1.6, -1.4, -1.4, -0.9, -0.5, -0.2, -0.1, 0.1, 0.2, 0.2, 0.4, 0.4, 0.7, 0.9, 1.1, 1.2, 1.2, 1.6, 1.6, 2.0

If confidence level is 80%, find out top 10% and bottom 10%:

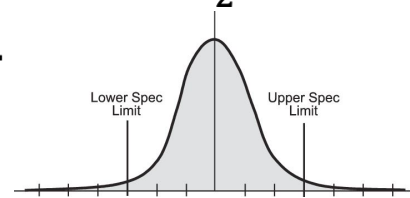
-1.6, -1.4, -1.4, -0.9, -0.5, -0.2, -0.1, 0.1, 0.2, 0.2, 0.4, 0.4, 0.7, 0.9, 1.1, 1.2, 1.2, 1.6, 1.6, 2.0

The bootstrap confidence interval is:

$$[\bar{x} - \delta_{.1}^*, \bar{x} - \delta_{.9}^*] = [40.3 - 1.6, 40.3 + 1.4] = [38.7, 41.7]$$

Suppose we observe data $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim P(X; \theta)$:

1. Sample new “dataset” X_1^*, \dots, X_n^* uniformly from X_1, \dots, X_n **with replacement**
2. Compute estimate $\hat{\theta}_n(X_1^*, \dots, X_n^*)$
3. Repeat B times to get the estimators $\hat{\theta}_{n,1}, \dots, \hat{\theta}_{n,B}$
4. Consider the **empirical distribution** of $\left\{ \hat{\theta}_{n,b} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right\}_{b=1}^B$ and find its top $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ quantile and bottom $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ quantile (denoted by Q_U and Q_L respectively).
5. $(1-\alpha)$ Confidence Interval: $\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - |Q_U|, \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + |Q_L| \right]$



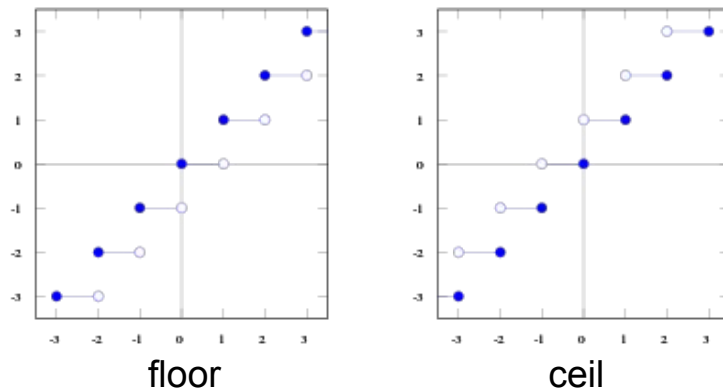
counterintuitively, upper quantile for lower width, lower quantile for upper width. Why?

$$P\left(v_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \leq \hat{\theta}_n - \theta \leq v_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}\right) \geq 1 - \alpha$$

Pseudocode

Input: $X_1, \dots, X_n, B, \alpha$

- Compute \bar{X}_n
- Bootstrapping B times to obtain $\{\hat{\theta}_{n,b} - \bar{X}_n\}_{b=1}^B$; call this array S
- Sorted S in increasing order.
- $Q_U :=$ the top $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ quantile; i.e., $S[\text{int}(\text{np.ceil}((1-\alpha/2)*(B-1)))]$
- $Q_L :=$ the bottom $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ quantile; i.e., $S[\text{int}(\text{np.floor}(\alpha/2*(B-1)))]$
- Return $[\bar{X}_n - |Q_U|, \bar{X}_n + |Q_L|]$



Confidence Intervals Comparison

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good = correct
bad = incorrect

	Gaussian (corrected)	Bootstrap
small n	Bad	Bad
moderate n	Okay / Bad	Okay
large n	Good	Very Good
Computational complexity	Low	High, depends on B

Q: When could it be bad?

When the distribution is far from Gaussian

bad if the estimator takes a long time to compute

- **Statistical Estimation** infers unknown parameters θ of a distribution $p(X; \theta)$ from observed data X_1, \dots, X_n
- An estimator is a function of the data $\hat{\theta}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$, it is a **random variable**, so it has a distribution
- **Confidence Intervals** measure uncertainty of an estimator, e.g.

$$P(\theta \in (a(X), b(X))) \geq 0.95$$

- **Bootstrap** A simple method for estimating confidence intervals

↑ Q: when is this good?

Caution

- Confidence intervals are often misinterpreted!
- Confidence intervals in practice may not be true for small n

- **Estimator bias** describes systematic error of an estimator
- **Mean squared error (MSE)** measures estimator quality / efficiency,

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbf{E} \left[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2 \right] = \text{bias}^2(\hat{\theta}) + \mathbf{Var}(\hat{\theta})$$

- **Law of Large Numbers (LLN)** guarantees that sample mean approaches (piles up near) true mean in the limit of infinite data
- **Central Limit Theorem (CLT)** says sample mean approaches a Normal distribution with enough data. Also means $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ convergence.
- **LLN** and **CLT** are *asymptotic statements* and do not hold for small/medium data in general



- Probability
- Statistics

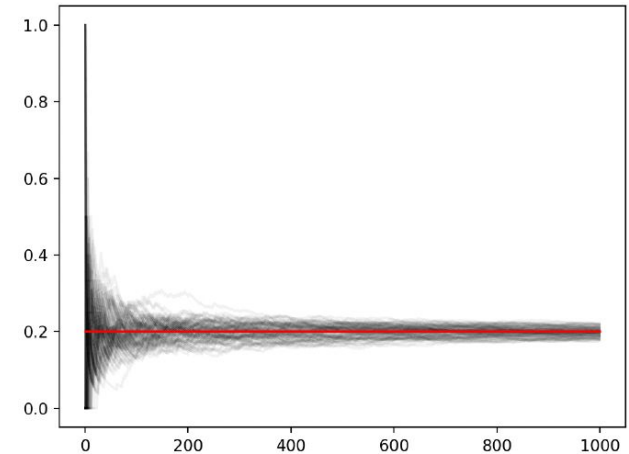
- Data Visualization

- Predictive modeling
- Linear models
- Nonlinear models
- Clustering

HW3: Problem 1 a)

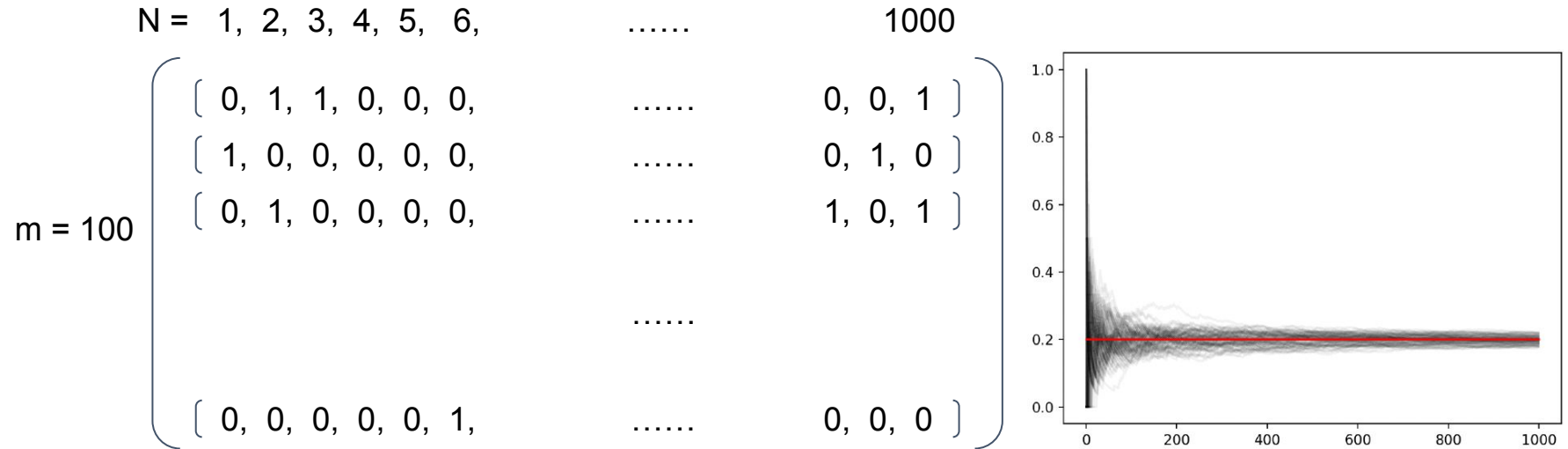
a) Let us numerically verify the law of large numbers. We will simulate $m = 100$ sample mean trajectories of $X_1, \dots, X_N \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\mu = 0.2)$ and plot them altogether in one plot. Here, a sample mean trajectory means a sequence of $\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2, \dots, \bar{X}_N$ where \bar{X}_i is the sample mean using samples X_1, \dots, X_i . We will plot \bar{X}_n as a function of n , but do this multiple times. Take n from 1 to $N = 1000$. An ideal plot would look like the following:

N = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 1000



HW3: Problem 1 a)

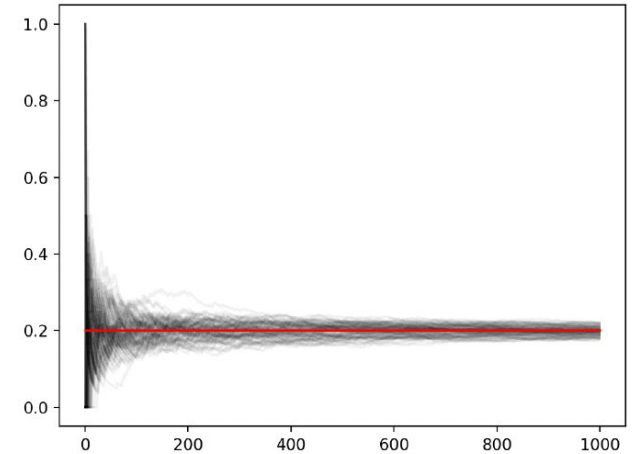
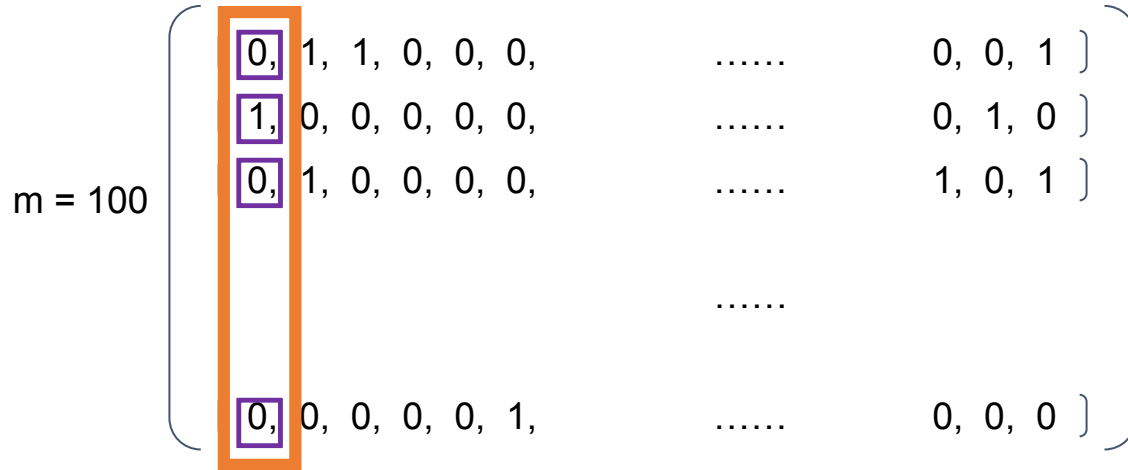
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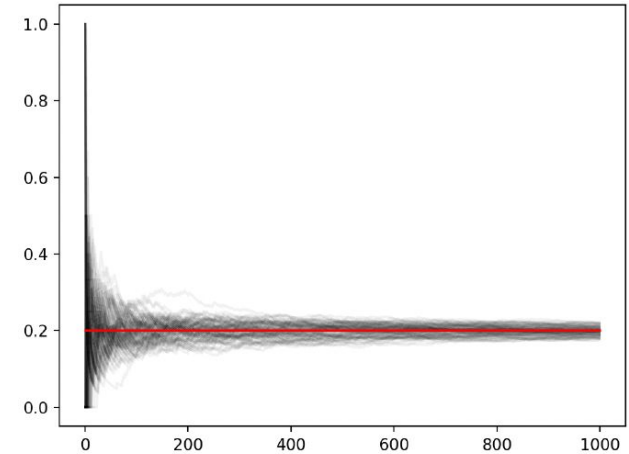
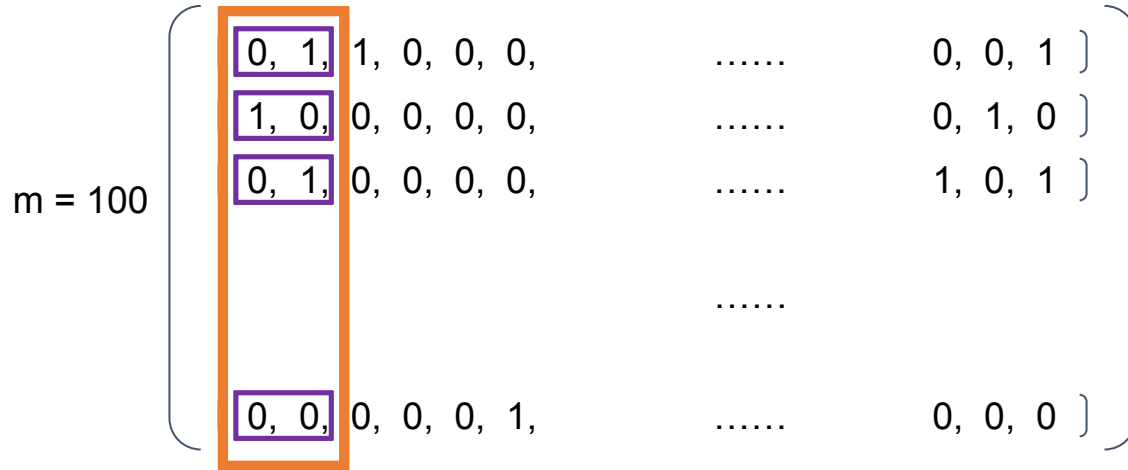
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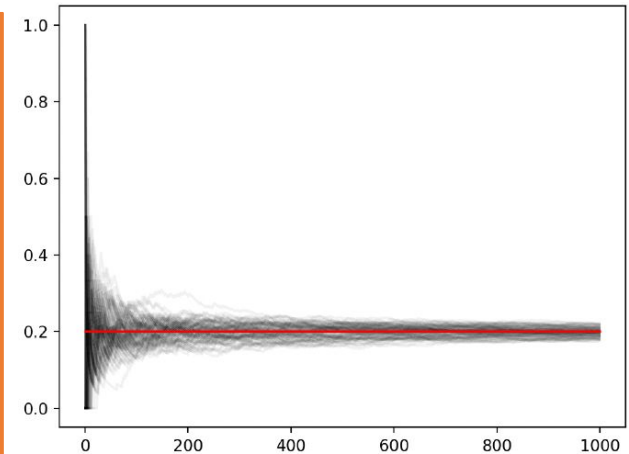
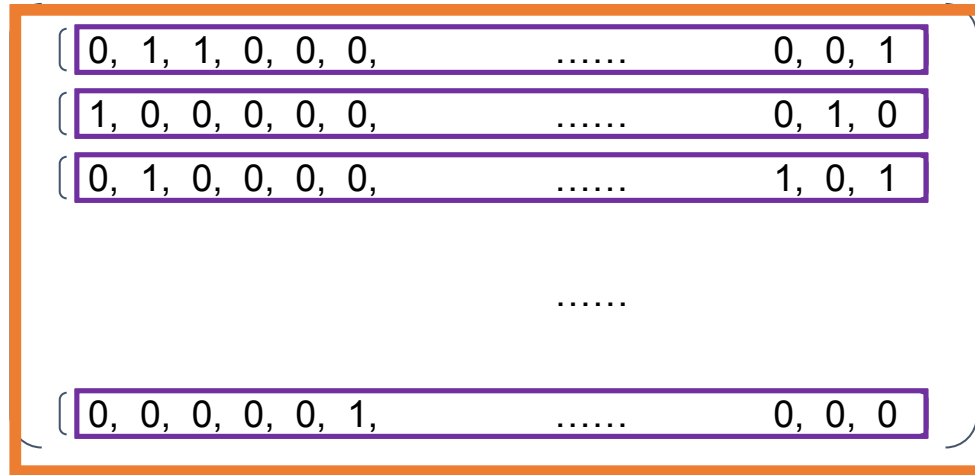


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N = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 1000

m = 100



HW3: Problem 2

I would like to build a simple model to predict how many students are likely to come to my office hours this semester. Because this is an arrival process, I will model the number of arrivals during office hours as Poisson distributed. Recall that the Poisson is a discrete distribution over the number of arrivals (or events) in a fixed time-frame. The Poisson distribution has a probability mass function (PMF) of the form,

$$\text{Poisson}(x; \lambda) = \frac{1}{x!} \lambda^x e^{-\lambda}.$$

Likelihood function:
$$L_n(\lambda) = p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n; \lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i; \lambda)$$

Take the log:
$$f(\lambda) = \log L_n(\lambda) = \log \left(\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \right)$$

HW3: Problem 2

Take the log: $f(\lambda) = \log L_n(\lambda) = \log \left(\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \right)$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{1}{x_i!} \lambda^{x_i} e^{-\lambda} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\log(1) - \log(x_i!) + x_i \log \lambda + (-\lambda) \right)$$

$$= - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(x_i!) + \log(\lambda) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n\lambda$$

HW3: Problem 2

Take the log: $f(\lambda) = \log L_n(\lambda) = \log \left(\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \right)$

$$= - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(x_i!) + \log(\lambda) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n\lambda$$

Take the derivative:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{df}{d\lambda} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\lambda} - n = 0 \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\lambda} &= n \\ \Rightarrow \lambda^{MLE} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \end{aligned}$$

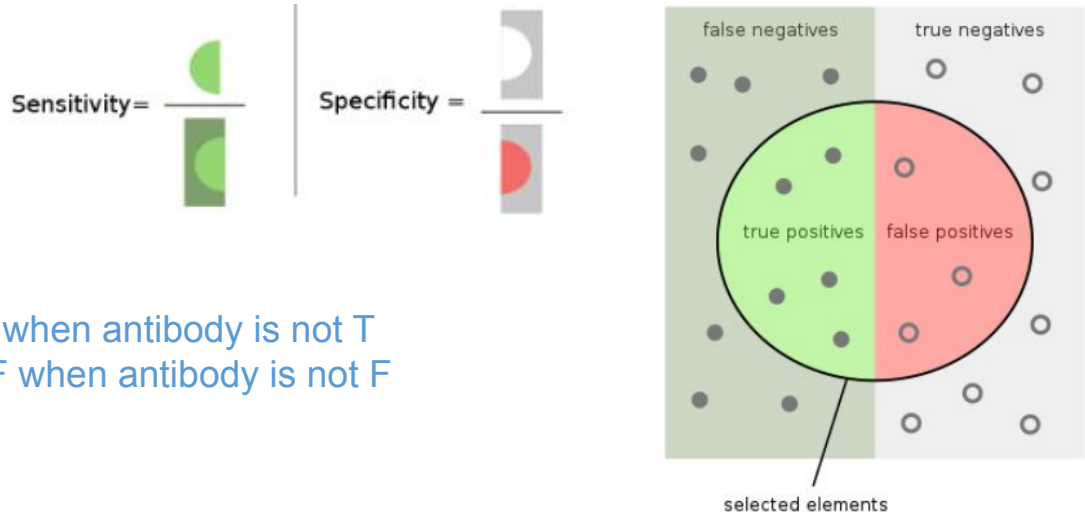
HW2 Problem 4 d)

I have decided to get myself tested for COVID-19 antibodies. However, being comfortable with statistics, I am curious about what the test means for my actual status. Let's investigate these questions, showing all your work.

- a) The antibody test I take has a *sensitivity* (a.k.a. true positive rate) of 97.5% and a *specificity* (a.k.a. true negative rate) of 99.1%. If you are not familiar with sensitivity vs specificity, please see Wikipedia. Assume that 4% of the population actually have COVID-19 antibodies. Write down the joint probability distribution $P(S, R)$ with events for antibody state $S \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$ and test result $R \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$.

$$P(R=\text{True} \mid S=\text{True}) = 0.975$$

$$P(R=\text{False} \mid S=\text{False}) = 0.991$$



False positive: test says antibody T when antibody is not T

False negative: test says antibody F when antibody is not F

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Law of total probability + Conditional probability: ~~$P(A) = \sum_i P(A \cap B_i) = \sum_i P(B_i)P(A|B_i) = \sum_i P(A)P(B_i|A)$~~

$$P(R=\text{True} \mid S=\text{True}) = 0.975$$

$$P(R=\text{False} \mid S=\text{False}) = 0.991$$

$P(R S)$	$S = \text{True}$	$S = \text{False}$
$R = \text{True}$	0.975	0.009
$R = \text{False}$	0.025	0.991

$$P(S = \text{true}) = 0.04$$

$$P(S = \text{false}) = 0.96$$

$P(R \text{ and } S)$	$S = \text{True}$	$S = \text{False}$
$R = \text{True}$	0.039	0.00864
$R = \text{False}$	0.001	0.95136

HW2 Problem 4 d)

- d) Assume I take the test twice, and receive a positive result in the first test and a negative result in the second test. Assume that the two test results are conditionally independent given the existence of the antibody. What is the probability that I have COVID-19 antibodies according to Bayes' rule?

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(S = T | R_1 = T, R_2 = F) = \frac{P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F | S = T)P(S = T)}{P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F)}$$

Law of total probability

$$\begin{aligned} &P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F) \\ &= P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F, S = T) + P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F, S = F) \\ &= P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F | S = T)P(S = T) + P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F | S = F)P(S = F) \\ &= P(R_1 = T | S = T)P(R_2 = F | S = T)P(S = T) + P(R_1 = T | S = F)P(R_2 = F | S = F)P(S = F) \end{aligned}$$

HW2 Problem 4 d)

- d) Assume I take the test twice, and receive a positive result in the first test and a negative result in the second test. Assume that the two test results are conditionally independent given the existence of the antibody. What is the probability that I have COVID-19 antibodies according to Bayes' rule?

Let T =true and F =false.

$$\begin{aligned} & P(S = T \mid R_1 = T, R_2 = F) \\ &= \frac{P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F \mid S = T)P(S = T)}{P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F \mid S = T)P(S = T) + P(R_1 = T, R_2 = F \mid S = F)P(S = F)} \\ &= \frac{P(R_1 = T \mid S = T)P(R_2 = F \mid S = T)P(S = T)}{P(R_1 = T \mid S = T)P(R_2 = F \mid S = T)P(S = T) + P(R_1 = T \mid S = F)P(R_2 = F \mid S = F)P(S = F)} \\ &= \frac{0.975 \cdot 0.025 \cdot 0.04}{0.975 \cdot 0.025 \cdot 0.04 + 0.009 \cdot 0.991 \cdot 0.96} \\ &\approx 0.1022 \end{aligned}$$

Midterm

- Cheat sheet: US Letter size (1 page, 2-sided)
- Practice questions will release next Tuesday Oct 3rd
 - Solutions will release on Oct 8th
- Midterm review next Thursday
- How to prepare?
 - Slides
 - Examples
 - Homework questions