What is Statistics?

American Heritage Dictionary® defines statistics as: "The mathematics of the collection, organization, and interpretation of numerical data, especially the analysis of population characteristics by inference from sampling."

The Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary® definition is: "A branch of mathematics dealing with the collection, analysis, interpretation, and presentation of masses of numerical data." I like to think of statistics as the science of learning from data It presents exciting opportunities for those who work as professional statisticians. Statistics is essential for the proper running of government, central to decision making in industry, and a core component of modern educational curricula at all levels." by Jon Kettenring, ASA President, 1997

Statistics is neither really a science nor a branch of mathematics. It is perhaps best considered as a meta-science (or meta-language) for dealing with data collection, analysis, and interpretation. As such its scope is enormous and it provides much guiding insight in many branches of science, business, etc. Critical statistical reasoning can be extremely useful for making sense of the ever increasing amount of information becoming available (e.g. via the web). The purpose of statistics is to develop and apply methodology for extracting useful knowledge from both experiments and data. In addition to its fundamental role in data analysis, statistical reasoning is also extremely useful in data collection (design of experiments and surveys) and also in guiding proper scientific inference (Fisher, 1990).

Why Statistics?

To understand this, we must first address the nature of science and experimentation.

A characteristic method used by Sciencetist is to study a relatively small collection of objects, say 2500 people, and a characteristic, say longevity, and through experimentation of observation, draw a conclusion appropriate for the entire class of objects (i.e. people in general). Inductive Reasoning: From sample to population
Deductive Reasoning: From the general to the particular
Statistics then becomes a bridge between the inductive uncertainty of science and the deductive certainty of mathematics. In his classic book,

The Design of Experiments," by Sir Ronald A. Fisher expresses this idea beautifully: We may at once admit that any inference from the particular to the general must be attended with some degree of uncertainty, but this is not the same as to admit that such inference cannot be absolutely rigorous, for the nature and degree of the uncertainty may itself be capable of rigorous expression.

Statistics, therefore, is the mathematical method by which the uncertainty inherent in the scientific method is rigorously quantified.

Why Probability?

Probability is an important concept for making forecasts and risk assessments.

What is Probability?" by Saunder, Simon (2004), in Quantum Mechanics, A. Elitzur, S. Dolev, and N. Kolenda, eds., Springer-Verlag. Chapter 4:

Parametric Methods

Parametric Estimation

 $\mathbf{O} \ \mathcal{X} = \{ \ x^t \}_t$ where $x^t \sim p(x)$

Ø Parametric estimation:

Assume a form for $p(x \mid \theta)$ and estimate θ , its sufficient statistics, using X

e.g., $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where $\theta = \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$

Why Parametric?

Simplification (in both operation and interpretation)

How to check parametric assumptions?

No model is the true model! All models are approximations to the true model. Some models may be better than others under some criterions.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

So Likelihood of θ given the sample X $l(\theta|X) = p(X|\theta) = \prod_{t} p(x^{t}|\theta)$

Log likelihood

 $\mathcal{L}(\theta|\mathcal{X}) = \log l(\theta|\mathcal{X}) = \Sigma_t \log p(x^t|\theta)$

Maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)

 $\theta^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta|\mathcal{X})$

Ex.: Bernoulli Multinomial Bernoulli: Two states, failure/success, x in $\{0,1\}$ $P(x) = p_o^x (1 - p_o)^{(1 - x)}$ $\mathcal{L}(p_{o}|X) = \log \prod_{t} p_{o}^{x^{t}} (1 - p_{o})^{(1 - x^{t})}$ MLE: $p_o = \Sigma_t x^t / N$ Multinomial: K>2 states, x_i in $\{0,1\}$ $P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_K) = \Pi_i p_i^{x_i}$ $\mathcal{L}(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K | X) = \log \Pi_t \Pi_i p_i^{\chi_i^{t}}$ MLE: $p_i = \Sigma_t x_i^t / N$ 14

Gaussian (Normal) Distribution



 $p(x) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

 $p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$

• MLE for μ and σ^2 : $m = \frac{\sum_t x^t}{N}$ $s^2 = \frac{\sum_t (x^t - m)^2}{N}$

Bias and Variance

Unknown parameter θ Estimator $d_i = d(X_i)$ on sample X_i

Bias: $b_{\theta}(d) = E[d] - \theta$ Variance: $E[(d-E[d])^2]$

Mean square error: $r(d,\theta) = E[(d-\theta)^2]$ $= (E[d] - \theta)^2 + E[(d-E[d])^2]$ $= \text{Bias}^2 + \text{Variance}$



Bayes' Estimator

Treat θ as a random var with prior p(θ)Bayes' rule: $p(\theta|X) = p(X|\theta) p(\theta) / p(X)$ So Full: p(x|X) = ∫ p(x|θ) p(θ|X) dθ[©] Maximum a Posteriori (MAP): $θ_{MAP} = argmax_{θ} p(θ|X)$ \odot Maximum Likelihood (ML): $\theta_{MI} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} p(X|\theta)$ \odot Bayes': $\theta_{\text{Bayes'}} = E[\theta|X] = \int \theta p(\theta|X) d\theta$

Bayes' Estimator: Example

 $x^t \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma_o^2)$ and $\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$\odot \theta_{MAP} = \theta_{Bayes'} =$$

$$E[\theta|X] = \frac{N/\sigma_0^2}{N/\sigma_0^2 + 1/\sigma^2} m + \frac{1/\sigma^2}{N/\sigma_0^2 + 1/\sigma^2} \mu$$

Parametric Classification $p_i(x) = p(x|C_i)P(C_i)$ or, equivalently $g_i(x) = \log(p_i(x)) = \log p(x|C_i) + \log P(C_i)$ Ex: $p(x|C_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right]$ $g_i(x) = -\frac{1}{2}\log 2\pi - \log \sigma_i - \frac{(x - \mu_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2} + \log P(C_i)$

Given the sample $X = \{x^t, r^t\}_{t=1}^N$ $r_i^t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x^t \in C_i \\ 0 & \text{if } x^t \in C_j, \ j \neq i \end{cases}$ $X \in R$ ML estimates are $\hat{P}(C_i) = \frac{\sum_t r_i^t}{N} \qquad m_i = \frac{\sum_t x^t r_i^t}{\sum_t r_i^t}$ $S_i^2 = \frac{\sum_t (x^t - m_i)^2 r_i^t}{\sum_t r_i^t}$

Ø Discriminant becomes

$$g_i(x) = -\frac{1}{2}\log 2\pi - \log s_i - \frac{(x - m_i)^2}{2s_i^2} + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$



Regression

 $r = f(x) + \epsilon$ f(x) is the true model estimator: $g(x|\theta)$ $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ $p(r|x) \sim N(q(x|\theta), \sigma^2)$ $L(\theta|X) = \log \prod p(x^t, r^t)$ t=1n

 $= \log \prod_{t=1}^{n} p(r^{t} | x^{t}) + \log \prod_{t=1}^{N} p(x^{t})$

Regression: From LogL to Error Maximizing $L(\theta|X) = \log \prod_{t=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp \left[-\frac{[r^t - g(x^t|\theta)]^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$ $= -N\log\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{t=1}^{N} [r^t - g(x^t|\theta)]^2$

equivalent to $E(\theta|X) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{N} [r^t - g(x^t|\theta)]^2$

Linear Regression $g(x^{t} | w_{1}, w_{0}) = w_{1}x^{t} + w_{0}$ $\sum_{t} r^{t} = N W_0 + W_1 \sum_{t} x^{t}$ $\sum_{t} r^{t} x^{t} = W_{0} \sum_{t} x^{t} + W_{1} \sum_{t} \left(x^{t} \right)^{t}$ $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} N & \sum_{t} x^{t} \\ \sum_{t} x^{t} & \sum_{t} (x^{t})^{t} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} W_{0} \\ W_{1} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{t} r^{t} \\ \sum_{t} r^{t} x^{t} \end{bmatrix}$ $\boldsymbol{W} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \boldsymbol{Y}$

Skip Polynomial Regression $g(x^t | w_k, ..., w_2, w_1, w_0) = w_k(x^t)^k + ... + w_2(x^t)^k + w_1x^t + w_0$

 $\boldsymbol{w} = \left(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{D}}^T\boldsymbol{\mathsf{D}}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\mathsf{D}}^T\boldsymbol{r}$

• Square Error: $E(\theta|X) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{N} [r^t - g(x^t|\theta)]^2$

Relative Square Error: $E(\theta|X) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N} [r^t - g(x^t|\theta)]^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} [r^t - \bar{r}]^2}$

Absolute Error: $E(\theta|X) = \sum_{t} |r^{t} - g(x^{t}|\theta)|$

 \odot E-sensitive Error: (Robust) 1: indicator function

 $\overline{E(\theta|\mathcal{X})} = \sum_{t} 1(|r^{t} - g(x^{t}|\theta)| > \epsilon) (|r^{t} - g(x^{t}|\theta)| - \epsilon)$

Bias and Variance

$E[(r - g(x))^{2}|x] = E[(r - E[r|x])^{2}|x]] + (E[r|x] - g(x))^{2}$ noise square error

 $E_x[(E[r|x] - g(x))^2|x] = (E[r|x] - E_x[g(x)])^2 \text{ Bias} + E_x[(g(x) - E_x[g(x)])^2] \text{Variance}$

Estimating Bias and Variance

 \odot M samples $X_i = \{x_i^t, r_i^t\}, i=1,...,M$

are used to fit $g_i(x)$, i = 1, ..., M

$$Bias^{2}(g) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t} \left[\bar{g}(x^{t}) - f(x^{t}) \right]^{2}$$

Variance $(g) = \frac{1}{NM} \sum_{t} \sum_{i} \left[g_{i}(x^{t}) - \bar{g}(x^{t})^{2} \right]$
where $\bar{g}(x) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{t} g_{i}(x)$

Bias/Variance Dilemma

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g_i(x)= ∑_t r^t_i/N has lower bias with variance
As we increase complexity,
bias decreases (a better fit to data) and
variance increases (fit varies more with data)
Bias/Variance dilemma: (Geman et al., 1992)

Polynomial Regression

(a) Data and fitted polynomials

33

Model Selection

Cross-validation: Measure generalization accuracy by testing on data unused during training

Regularization: Penalize complex models

E'=error on data + λ model complexity

Akaike's information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC)

Minimum description length (MDL): Kolmogorov complexity, shortest description of data

Structural risk minimization (SRM)

Bayesian Model Selection

Prior on models, p(model) $p(model|data) = \frac{p(data|model)p(model)}{p(data)}$

Regularization, when prior favors simpler models

 \odot Bayes, MAP of the posterior, p(model|data)

Average over a number of models with high posterior (voting, ensembles: Chapter 15)