Statistical Theory; Why is the Gaussian Distribution so popular?

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MRC LMB Statistics Course 2014

Contents

- Continuous Random Variables
- Expectation and Variance
- Moments
- The Law of Large Numbers (LLN)
- The Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

A *Random Variable* is an object whose value is determined by chance, i.e. random events

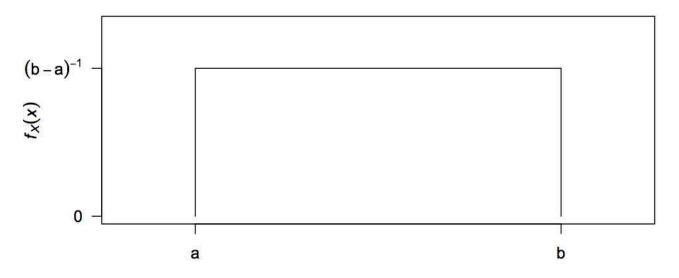
Probability that the random variable *X* adopts a particular value *x*:

$$P(X = x) = \begin{cases} p \in [0,1] & X: \text{ discrete} \\ 0 & X: \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

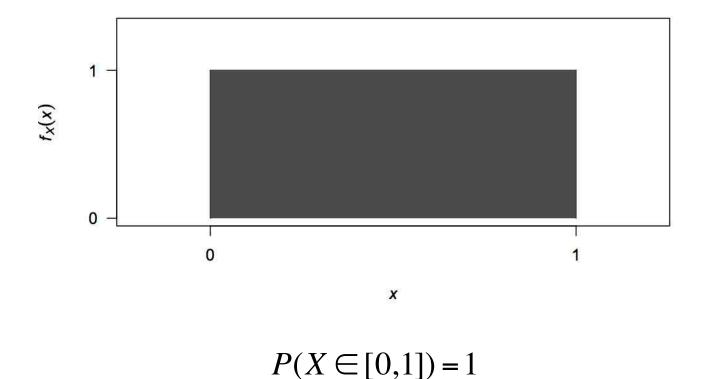
Continuous **Uniform** Distribution: $X \sim U(a,b)$

Probability Density Function: f

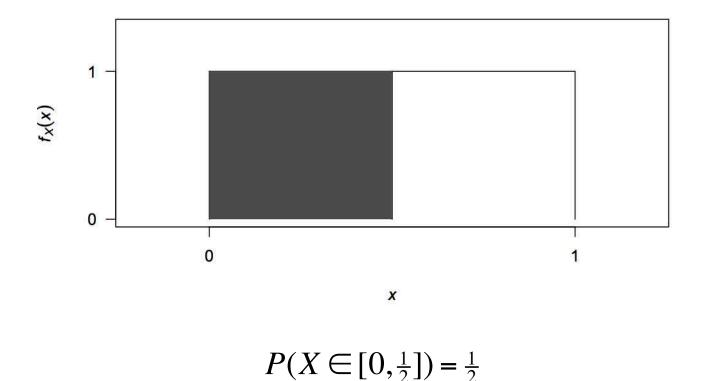
$$: f_X(x) = \begin{cases} (b-a)^{-1} & x \in [a,b] \\ 0 & x \notin [a,b] \end{cases}$$



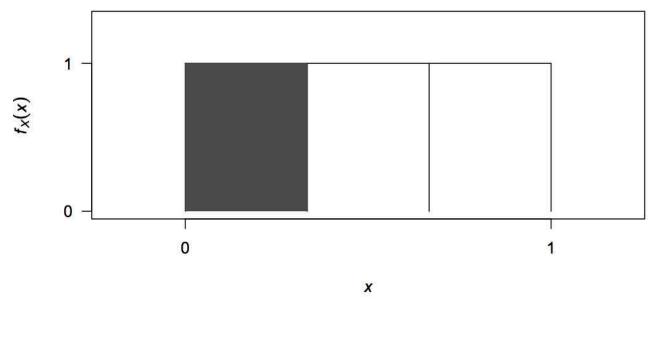
Example: $X \sim U(0,1)$



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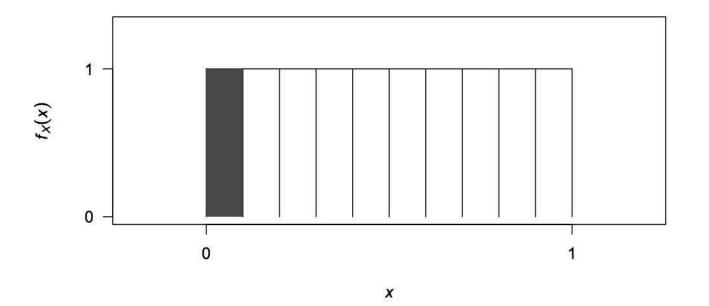


Example: $X \sim U(0,1)$



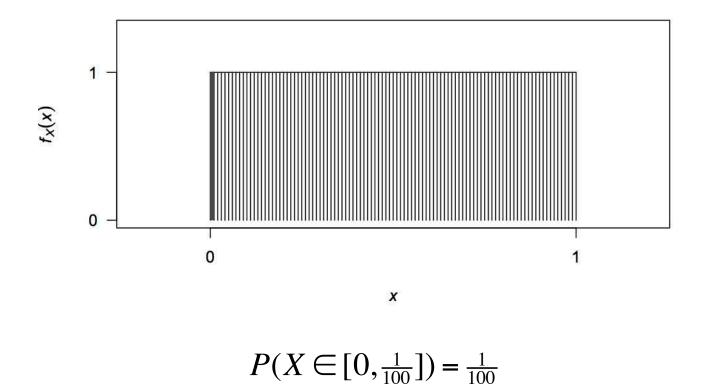
 $P(X \in [0, \frac{1}{3}]) = \frac{1}{3}$

Example: $X \sim U(0,1)$



 $P(X \in [0, \frac{1}{10}]) = \frac{1}{10}$

Example: $X \sim U(0,1)$



Example: $X \sim U(0,1)$

 $P(X \in [0, \frac{1}{n}]) = \frac{1}{n}$ $\lim_{n \to \infty} P(X \in [0, \frac{1}{n}]) = 0$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P(0 \le X \le \frac{1}{n}) = 0$$

In general, for any continuous random variable *X*:

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} P(0 \le X \le \varepsilon) = 0$$
$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} P(\alpha \le X \le \alpha + \varepsilon) = 0$$

$$P(X = x) = \begin{cases} p_X(x) & X : \text{discrete} \\ 0 & X : \text{continuous} \end{cases}$$

"Why do I observe a value if there's no probability of observing it?!"

Answers:

- Data are discrete
- You don't actually observe the value precision error
- Some value must occur... even though the probability of observing any particular value is infinitely small

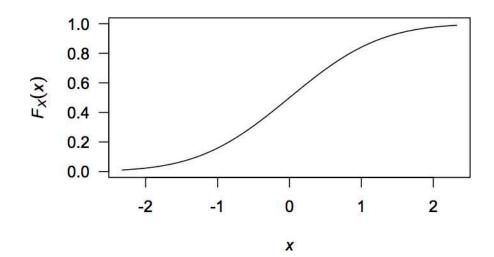
For a random variable: $X : \Omega \rightarrow A$

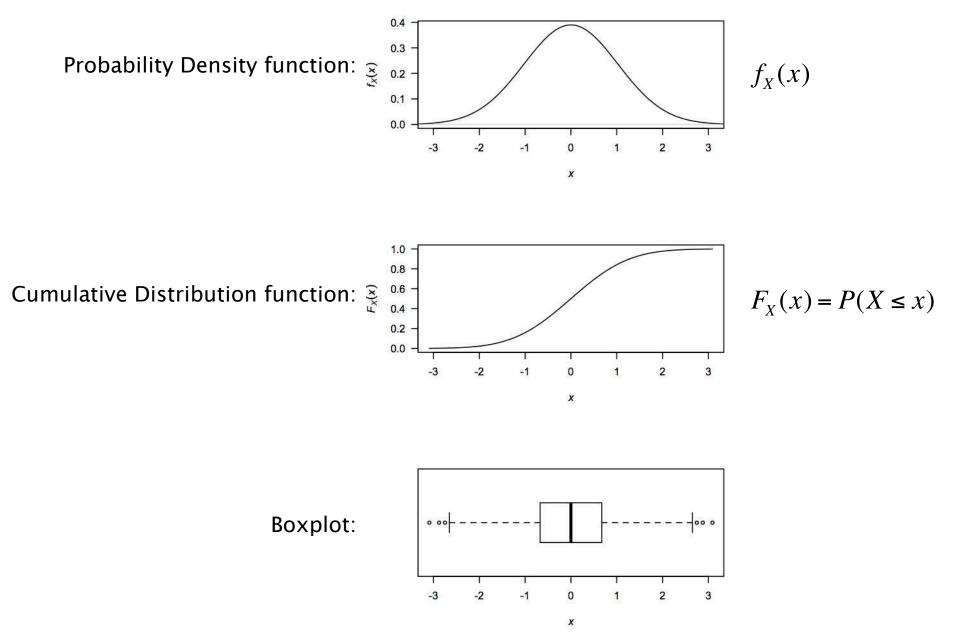
The *Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)* is defined as:

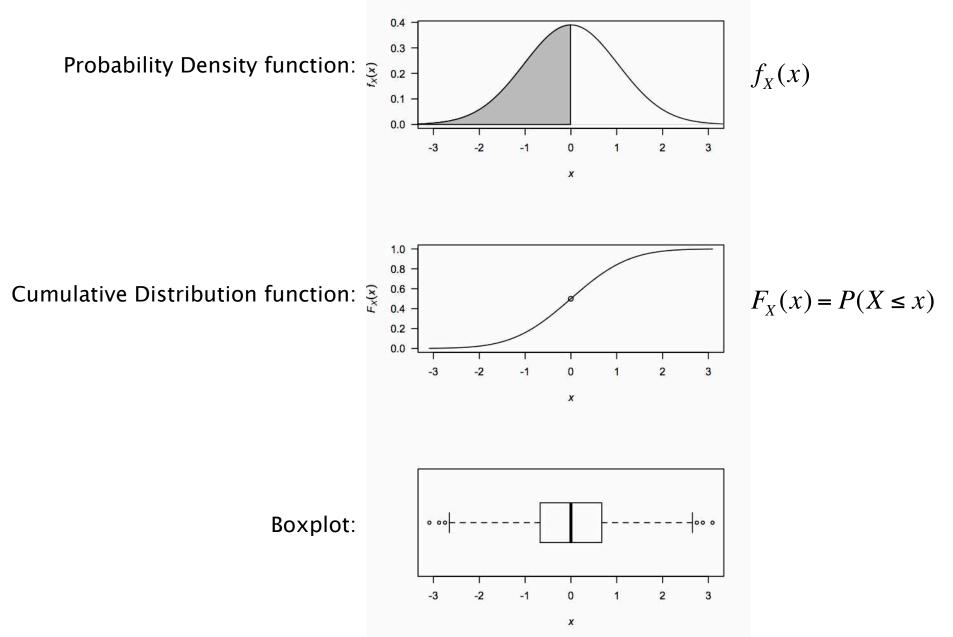
 $F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$ (discrete/continuous)

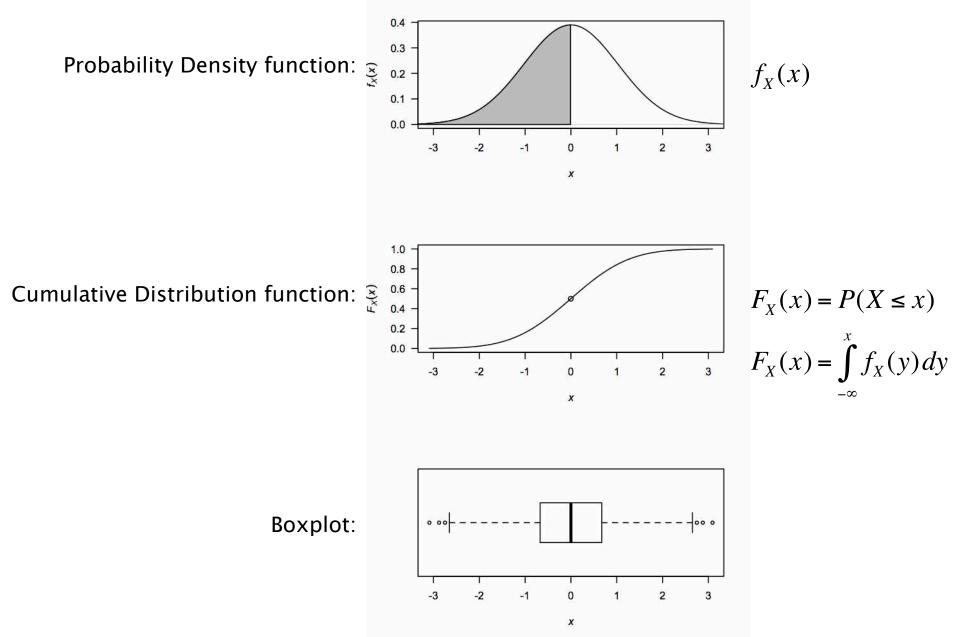
Properties:

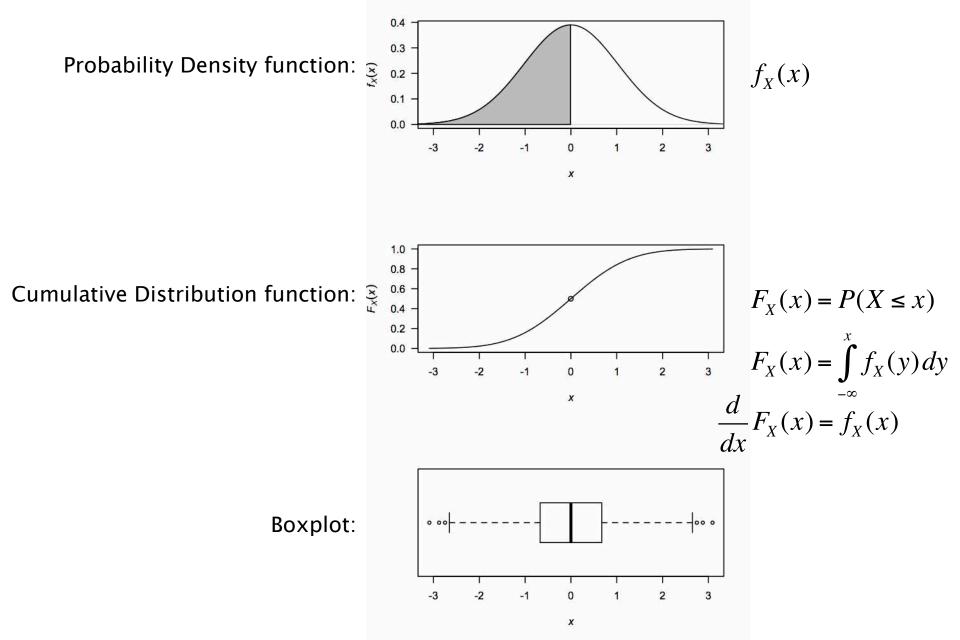
- Non-decreasing
- $\lim_{x \to -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$
- $\lim_{x \to +\infty} F_X(x) = 1$

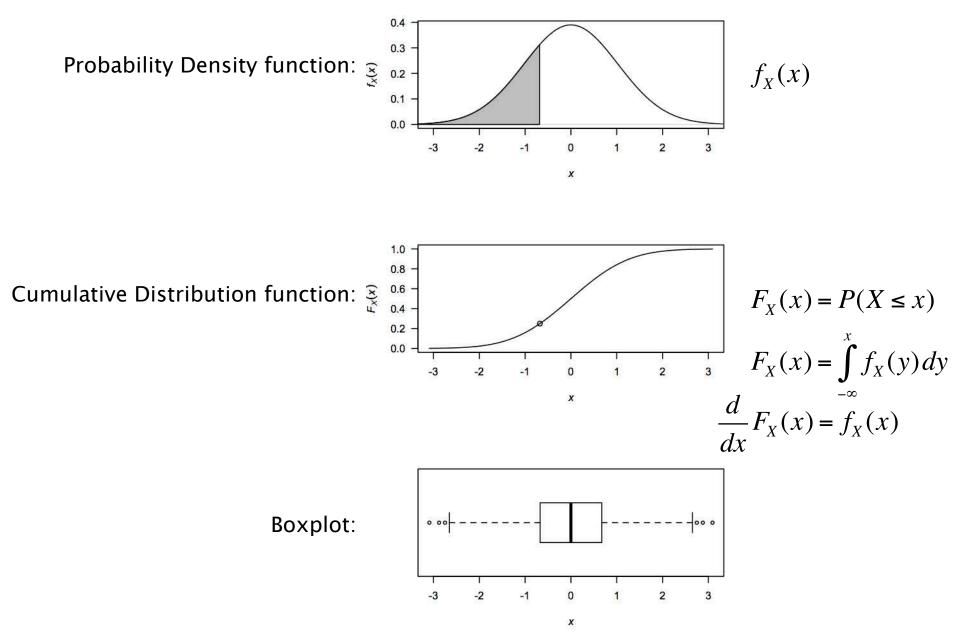


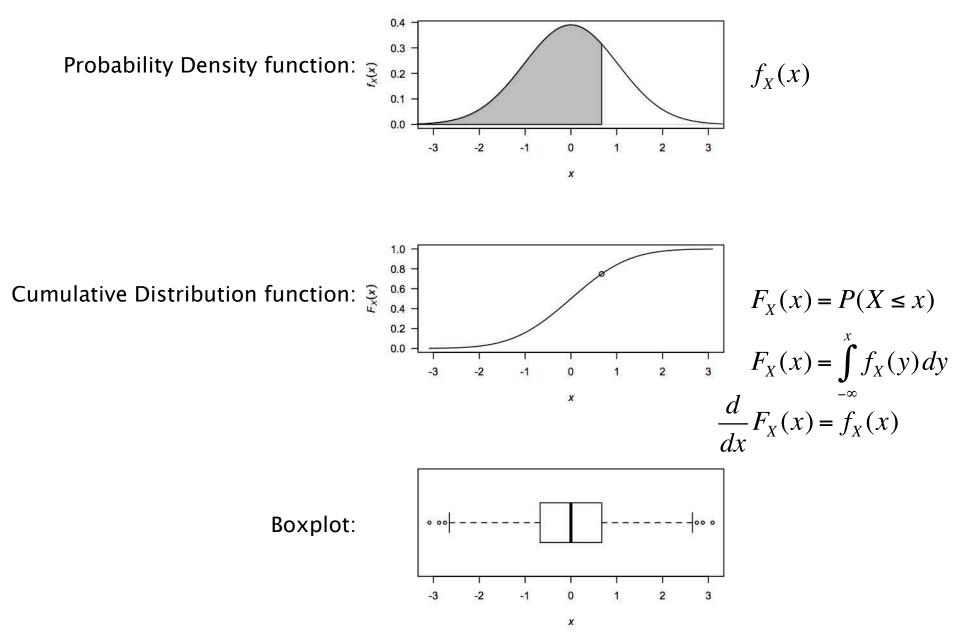


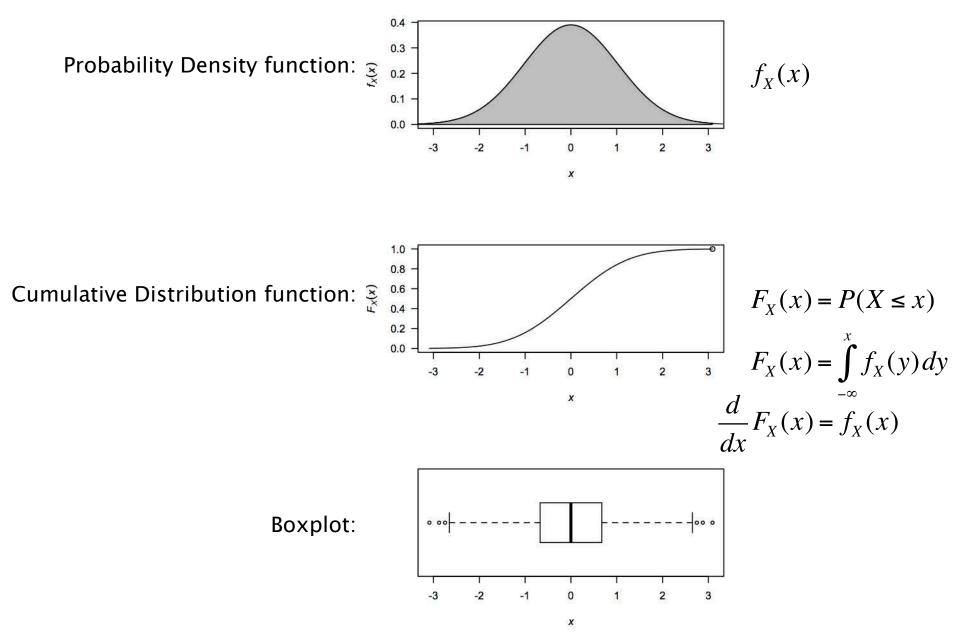


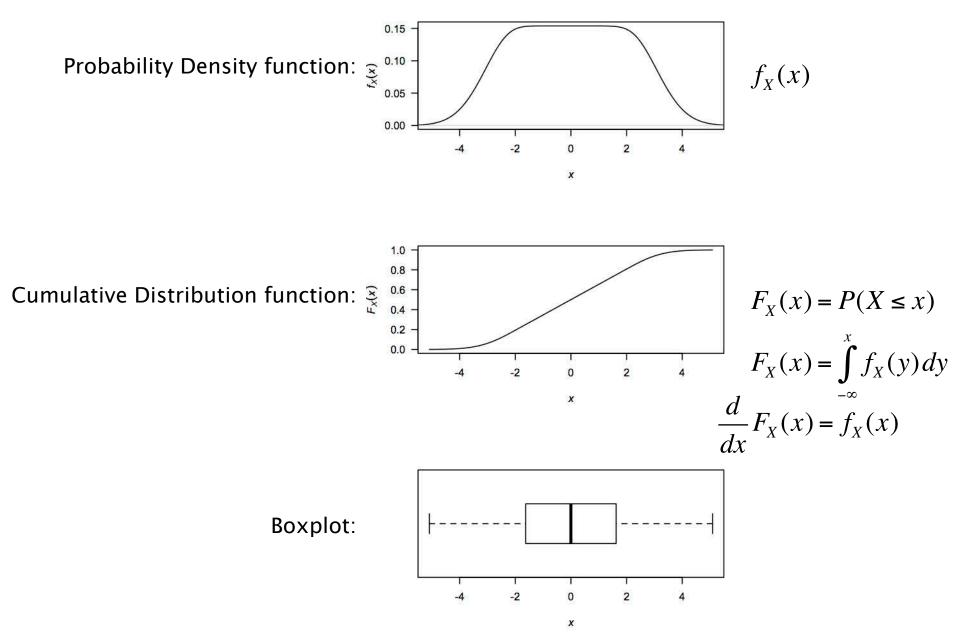


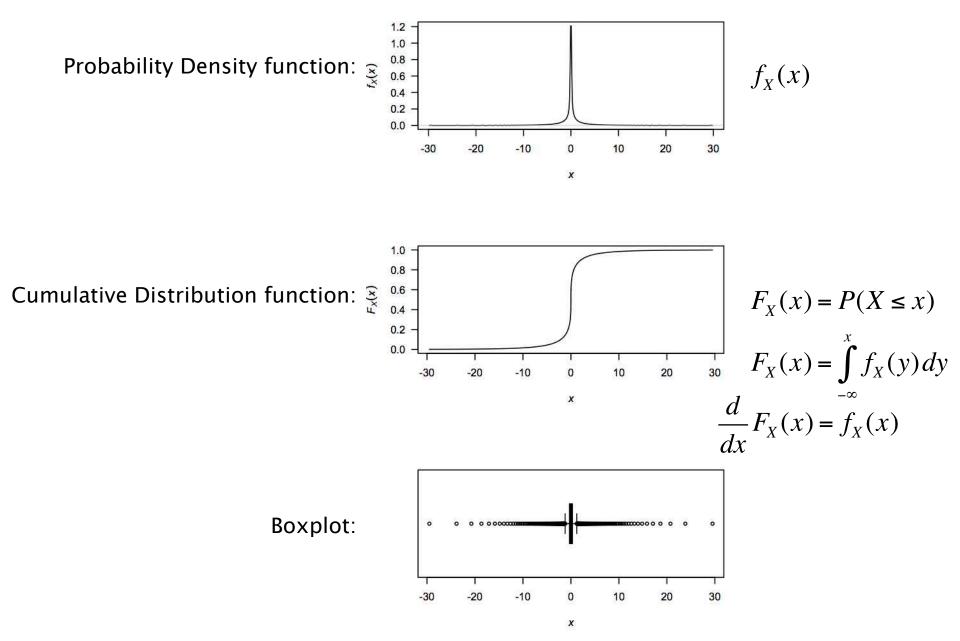


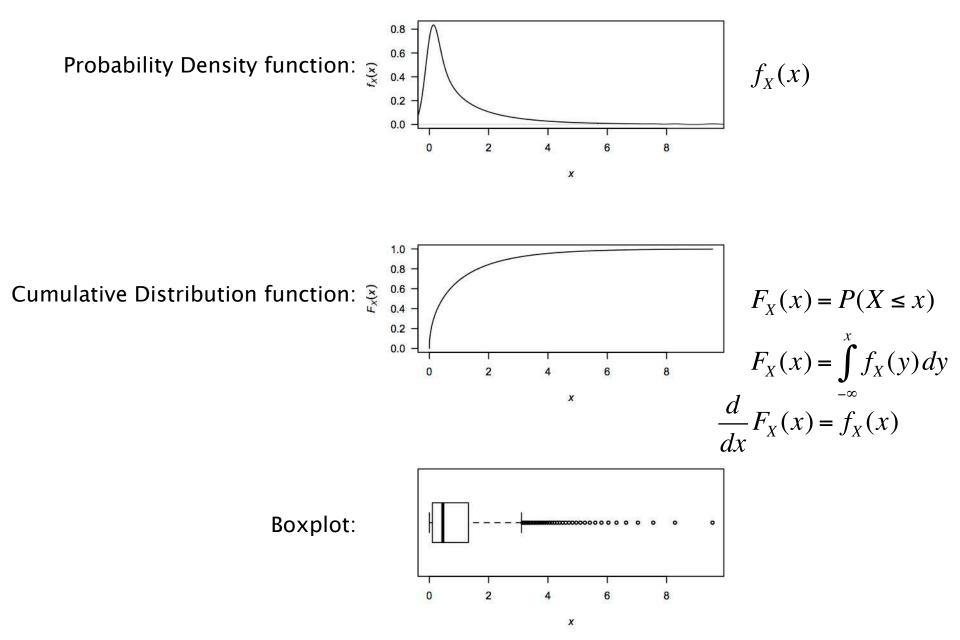


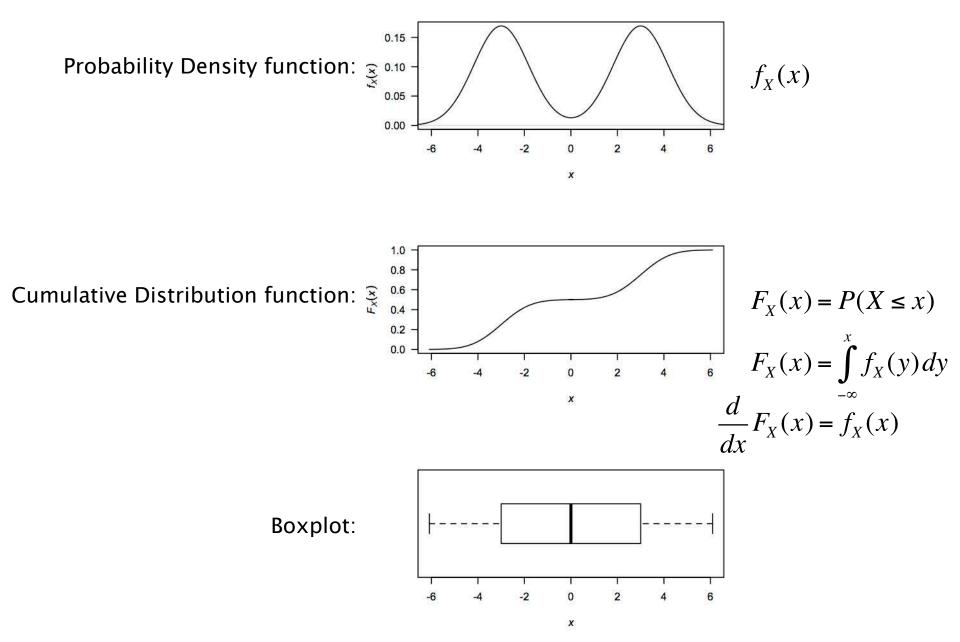












Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF):

Discrete:
$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{y=-\infty}^{x} p_X(y)$$

Continuous:
$$F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f_X(y) dy$$

Probability Density Function (PDF):

Discrete:
$$p_X(x) = P(X = x)$$

 $\sum_{x=-\infty} p_X(x) = 1$
Continuous: $f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F_X(x)$
 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$

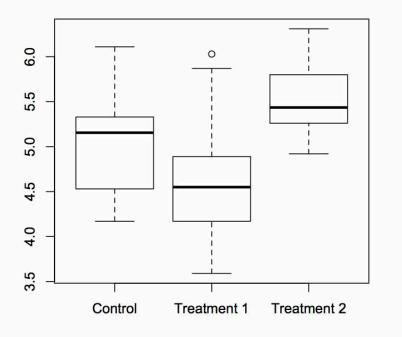
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Motivational Example:

Experiment on Plant Growth (inbuilt R dataset)

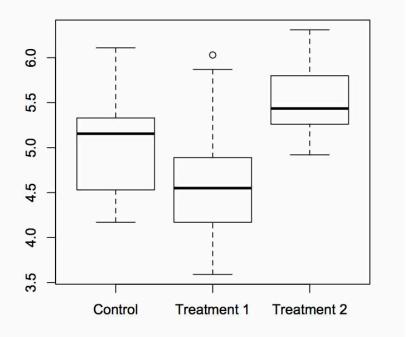
- compares yields obtained under different conditions



Motivational Example:

Experiment on Plant Growth (inbuilt R dataset)

- compares yields obtained under different conditions

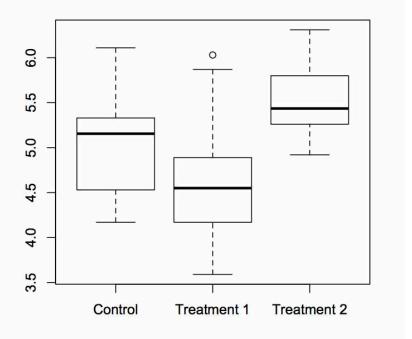


- Compare means to test for differences
- Consider variance (and shape) of the distributions – help choose appropriate prior/protocol
- Assess uncertainty of parameter estimates – allow hypothesis testing

Motivational Example:

Experiment on Plant Growth (inbuilt R dataset)

- compares yields obtained under different conditions



- Compare means to test for differences
- Consider variance (and shape) of the distributions – help choose appropriate prior/protocol
- Assess uncertainty of parameter estimates – allow hypothesis testing

In order to do any of this, we need to know how to describe distributions

i.e. we need to know how to work with descriptive statistics

$$E(X) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_X(x)$$

Discrete RV:

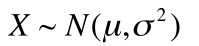
$$E(X) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

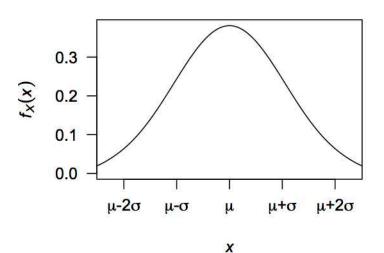
(explicit weighting not required)

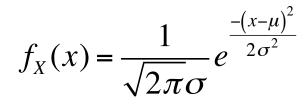
Continuous RV:

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

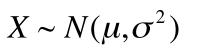


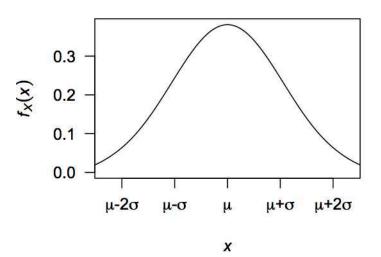


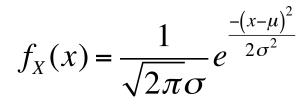




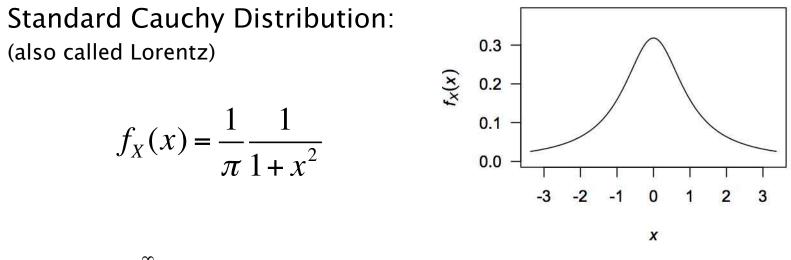








$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx = \mu$$



$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx = undefined$$

Expectation of a function of random variables:

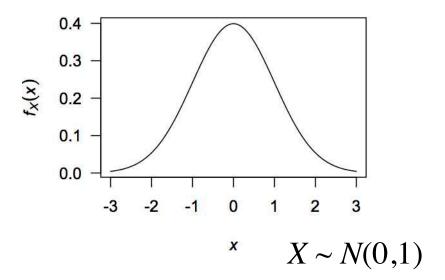
$$E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx$$

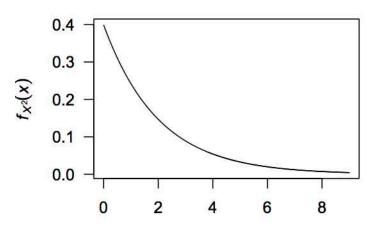
Linearity:

$$E(\alpha X + \beta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\alpha x + \beta) f_X(x) dx$$
$$= \alpha \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx + \beta \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx$$
$$= \alpha E(X) + \beta$$

Variance:

$$Var(X) = E((X - \mu)^2)$$
$$= E((X - E(X))^2)$$
$$= E(X^2) - E(X)^2$$

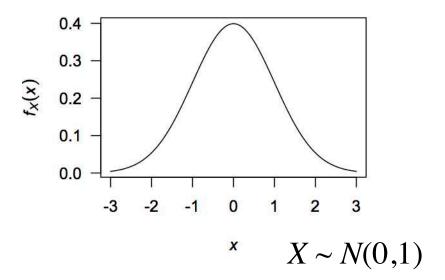


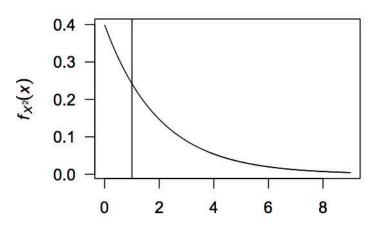


X

Variance:

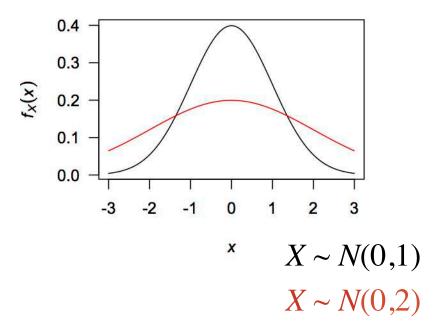
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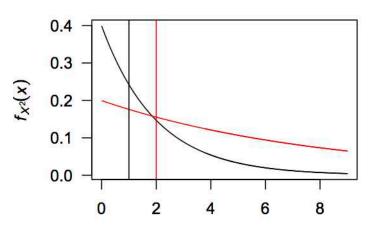




Variance:

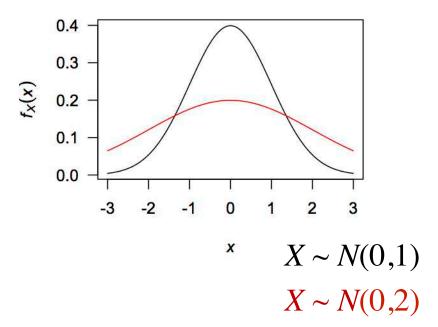
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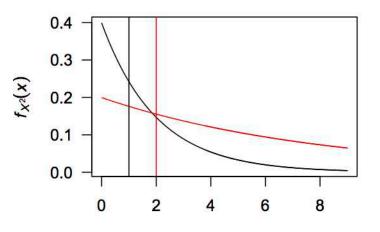


Population Variance:

$$\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2}$$

Unbiased Sample Variance:

$$s^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2}$$



Variance:

 $Var(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$

Standard deviation (s.d.): $\sqrt{Var(X)}$

$$Var(\alpha X + \beta) = E((\alpha X + \beta)^{2}) - E(\alpha X + \beta)^{2}$$

Variance:

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Standard deviation (s.d.): $\sqrt{Var(X)}$

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$$= E(\alpha^{2} X^{2} + 2\alpha\beta X + \beta^{2}) - (\alpha E(X) + \beta)^{2}$$

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Variance:

 $Var(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$ Standard deviation (s.d.): $\sqrt{Var(X)}$

$$\begin{aligned} Var(\alpha X + \beta) &= E((\alpha X + \beta)^2) - E(\alpha X + \beta)^2 \\ &= E(\alpha^2 X^2 + 2\alpha\beta X + \beta^2) - (\alpha E(X) + \beta)^2 \\ &= (\alpha^2 E(X^2) + 2\alpha\beta E(X) + \beta^2) - (\alpha^2 E(X)^2 + 2\alpha\beta E(X) + \beta^2) \\ &= \alpha^2 (E(X^2) - E(X)^2) \\ &= \alpha^2 Var(X) \end{aligned}$$

Often data are standardised/normalised

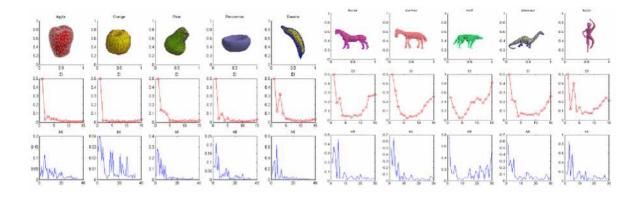
Z-score/value:

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Example:

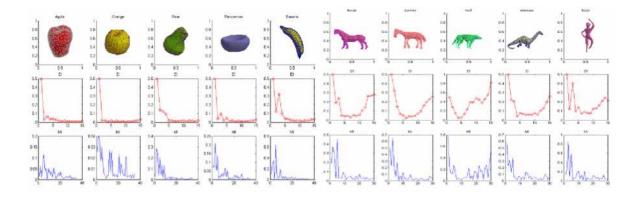
$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^{2}) \qquad f_{X}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}}$$
$$Z \sim N(0,1) \qquad f_{Z}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^{2}/2}$$

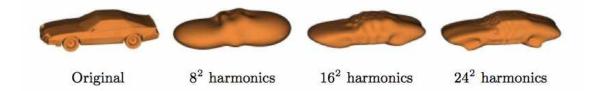
Shape descriptors



Li and Hartley (2006) Computer Vision Saupe and Vranic (2001) Springer

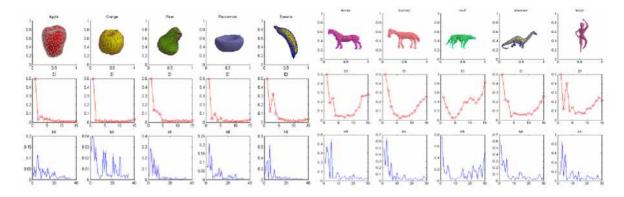
Shape descriptors

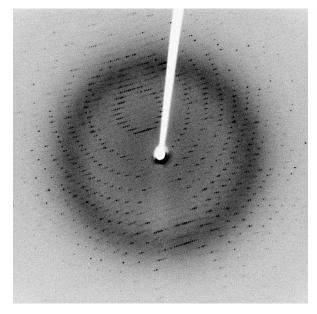




Li and Hartley (2006) Computer Vision Saupe and Vranic (2001) Springer

Shape descriptors













Original

 8^2 harmonics

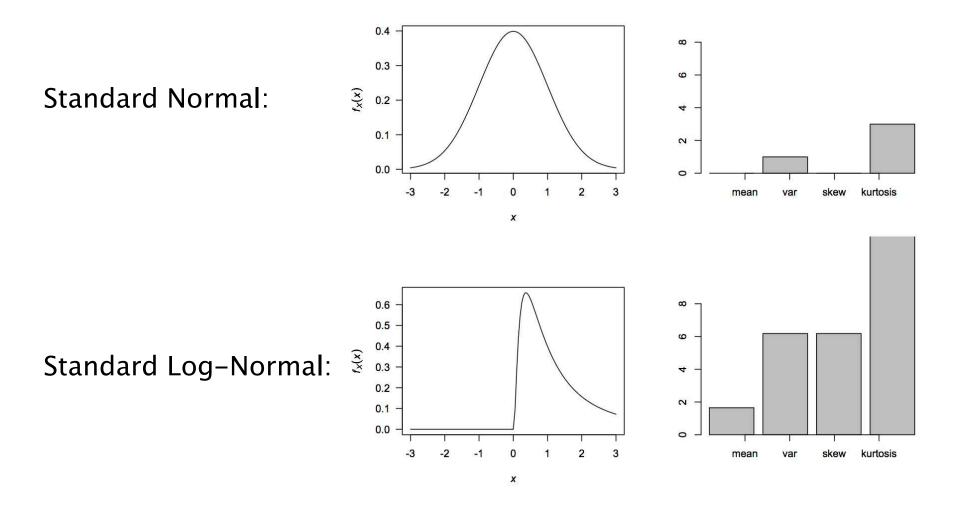
 16^2 harmonics

 24^2 harmonics

Li and Hartley (2006) Computer Vision Saupe and Vranic (2001) Springer

Moments provide a description of the shape of a distribution

Central moments Standardised moments Raw moments $\mu_1 = E(X) = \mu$: mean 0 0 $E((X-\mu)^2) = \sigma^2$: variance 1 ... $E\left(\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^3\right)$: skewness $E\left(\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^4\right)$: kurtosis $E\left(\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^n\right)$ $E\big((X-\mu)^n\big)$ $\mu_n = E(X^n)$



Moment generating function (MGF):

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{Xt}) = 1 + tE(X) + \frac{t^2}{2!}E(X^2) + \dots + \frac{t^n}{n!}E(X^n) + \dots$$

Alternative representation of a probability distribution.

$$\mu_n = E(X^n) = \frac{d^n}{dt^n} M_X(0)$$

Moment generating function (MGF):

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{Xt}) = 1 + tE(X) + \frac{t^2}{2!}E(X^2) + \dots + \frac{t^n}{n!}E(X^n) + \dots$$

Alternative representation of a probability distribution.

$$\mu_n = E(X^n) = \frac{d^n}{dt^n} M_X(0)$$

Example:

$$\begin{split} X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2) & \implies \qquad M_X(t) = e^{t\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2} \\ X \sim N(0, 1) & \implies \qquad M_X(t) = e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2} \end{split}$$

However, MGF only exists if $E(X^n)$ exists

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{Xt})$$

Characteristic function always exists:

$$\varphi_X(t) = M_{iX}(t) = M_X(it) = E(e^{itX}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} f_X(x) dx$$

Related to the probability density function via Fourier transform

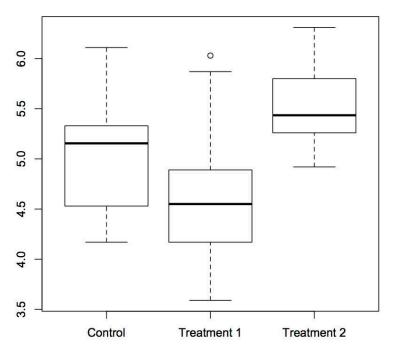
Example: $X \sim N(0,1)$ $\varphi_X(t) = e^{-t^2/2}$

The Law of Large Numbers (LLN)

Motivational Example:

Experiment on Plant Growth (inbuilt R dataset)

- compare yields obtained under different conditions



- Want to estimate the population mean using the sample mean.
- How can we be sure that the sample mean reliably estimates the population mean?

The Law of Large Numbers (LLN)

Does the sample mean reliably estimate the population mean?

The Law of Large Numbers:

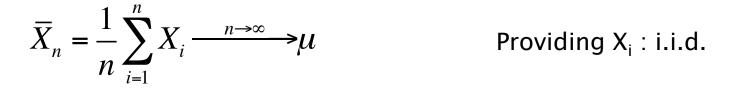
$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \mu$$

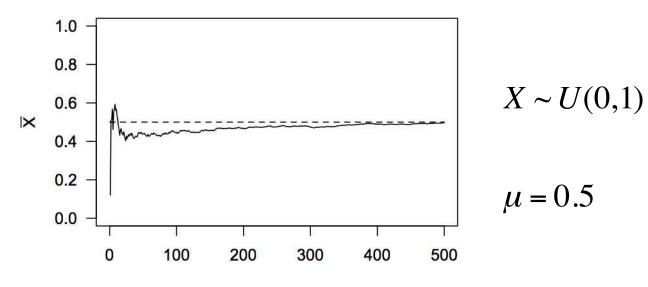
Providing X_i : i.i.d.

The Law of Large Numbers (LLN)

Does the sample mean reliably estimate the population mean?

The Law of Large Numbers:





n

Question – given a particular sample, thus known sample mean, how reliable is the sample mean as an estimator of the population mean?

Furthermore, how much will getting more data improve the estimate of the population mean?

Related question – given that we want the estimate of the mean to have a certain degree of reliability (i.e. sufficiently low S.E.), how many observations do we need to collect?

The Central Limit Theorem helps answer these questions by looking at the distribution of stochastic fluctuations about the mean as $n \rightarrow \infty$

The Central Limit Theorem states:

For large *n*: $\sqrt{n} \left(\overline{X}_n - \mu \right) \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

Or equivalently:

$$\overline{X}_n \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

More formally:

$$\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i - \mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

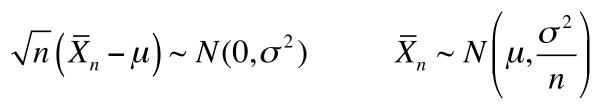
Conditions:

$$E(X_i) = \mu$$

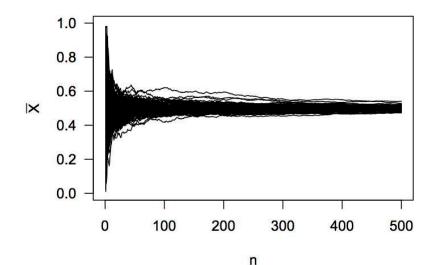
 $Var(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$
 X_i : i.i.d. RVs (any distribution)

The Central Limit Theorem states:

For large *n*:



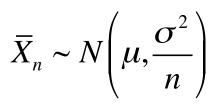
$$X \sim U(0,1)$$
 $\mu = 0.5$ $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}$



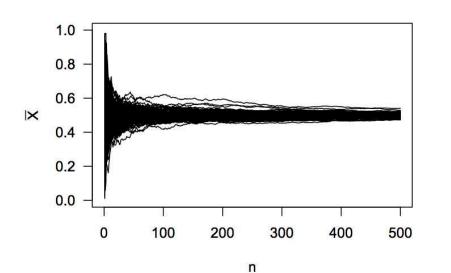
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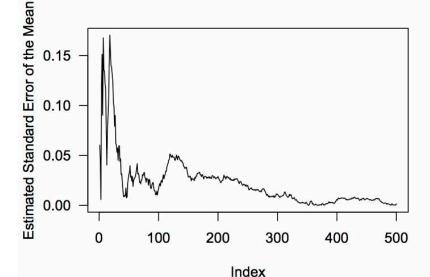
For large *n*:

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\overline{X}_n-\mu\right)\sim N(0,\sigma^2)$$



$$X \sim U(0,1)$$
 $\mu = 0.5$ $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}$

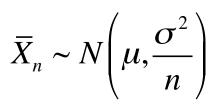




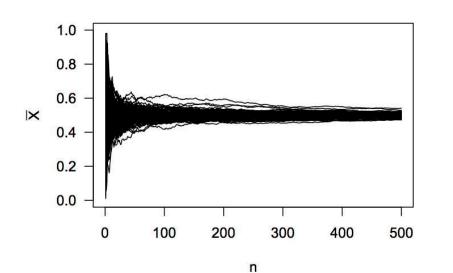
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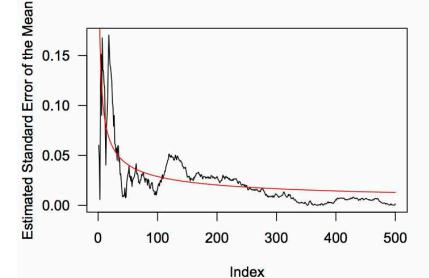
For large *n*:

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\overline{X}_n-\mu\right) \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$$



$$X \sim U(0,1)$$
 $\mu = 0.5$ $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12}$





$$\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i - \mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - \mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^{2})$$
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - n\mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^{2})$$

$$\begin{split} &\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - \mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^{2}) \\ & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - n\mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^{2}) \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - n\mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} &\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - \mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^{2}) \\ & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - n\mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^{2}) \\ & \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - n\mu \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) \\ & \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{X_{i} - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) \end{split}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_i}{\sqrt{n}} \longrightarrow N(0,1)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1)$$
$$\varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}}}(t) = \varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

$$E(e^{i\left(\frac{Z}{\sqrt{n}}\right)t}) = E(e^{iZ\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)})$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1)$$
$$\varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}}}(t) = \varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

$$E(e^{i\left(\frac{Z}{\sqrt{n}}\right)t}) = E(e^{iZ\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)})$$

$$E(e^{it(Z_1+Z_2)}) = E(e^{itZ_1})E(e^{itZ_2})$$

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$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$
$$= \left(\varphi_{Z}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^{n}$$

$$E(e^{i\left(\frac{Z}{\sqrt{n}}\right)t}) = E(e^{iZ\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)})$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}} \longrightarrow N(0,1) \qquad E(e^{i\left(\frac{Z}{\sqrt{n}}\right)t}) = E(e^{iZ\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)})$$

$$\varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}}}(t) = \varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \qquad E(e^{it(Z_{1}+Z_{2})}) = E(e^{itZ_{1}})E(e^{itZ_{2}})$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

$$= \left(\varphi_{Z}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^{n} = \left(1 - \frac{t^{2}}{2n} + o\left(\frac{t^{2}}{n}\right)\right)^{n}$$

Proof of the Central Limit Theorem:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}} \longrightarrow N(0,1) \qquad E(e^{i\left(\frac{Z}{\sqrt{n}}\right)t}) = E(e^{iZ_{1}})$$

$$\varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Z_{i}}{\sqrt{n}}}(t) = \varphi_{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \qquad E(e^{it(Z_{1}+Z_{2})}) = E(e^{itZ_{1}})E(e^{itZ_{2}})$$

$$e^{x} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{n}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \varphi_{Z_{i}}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \qquad = \left(1 - \frac{t^{2}}{2n} + o\left(\frac{t^{2}}{n}\right)\right)^{n} \longrightarrow e^{-t^{2}/2}$$

= characteristic function of a N(0,1)

Summary

Considered how:

- Probability Density Functions (PDFs) and Cumulative Distribution Functions (CDFs) are related, and how they differ in the discrete and continuous cases
- Expectation is at the core of Statistical theory, and Moments can be used to describe distributions
- The Central Limit Theorem identifies how/why the Normal distribution is fundamental

The Normal distribution is also popular for other reasons:

- Maximum entropy distribution (given mean and variance)
- Intrinsically related to other distributions (*t*, *F*, χ^2 , Cauchy, ...)
- Also, it is easy to work with

References

Countless books + online resources!

Probability and Statistical theory:

 Grimmett and Stirzker (2001) Probability and Random Processes. Oxford University Press.

General comprehensive introduction to (almost) everything mathematics:

• Garrity (2002) All the mathematics you missed: but need to know for graduate school. Cambridge University Press.