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All of Statistics

A Concise Course in Statistical Inference

Larry Wasserman

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All of Statistics

A Concise Course in Statistical Inference

With 95 Figures

Springer

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To Isa

Preface

Taken literally, the title "All of Statistics" is an exaggeration. But in spirit, the title is apt, as the book does cover a much broader range of topics than a typical introductory book on mathematical statistics.

This book is for people who want to learn probability and statistics quickly. It is suitable for graduate or advanced undergraduate students in computer science, mathematics, statistics, and related disciplines. The book includes modern topics like nonparametric curve estimation, bootstrapping, and classification, topics that are usually relegated to follow-up courses. The reader is presumed to know calculus and a little linear algebra. No previous knowledge of probability and statistics is required.

Statistics, data mining, and **machine learning** are all concerned with collecting and analyzing data. For some time, statistics research was conducted in statistics departments while data mining and machine learning research was conducted in computer science departments. Statisticians thought that computer scientists were reinventing the wheel. Computer scientists thought that statistical theory didn't apply to their problems.

Things are changing. Statisticians now recognize that computer scientists are making novel contributions while computer scientists now recognize the generality of statistical theory and methodology. Clever data mining algorithms are more scalable than statisticians ever thought possible. *Formal* statistical theory is more pervasive than computer scientists had realized.

Students who analyze data, or who aspire to develop new methods for analyzing data, should be well grounded in basic probability and mathematical statistics. Using fancy tools like neural nets, boosting, and support vector

machines without understanding basic statistics is like doing brain surgery before knowing how to use a band-aid.

But where can students learn basic probability and statistics quickly? Nowhere. At least, that was my conclusion when my computer science colleagues kept asking me: "Where can I send my students to get a good understanding of modern statistics quickly?" The typical mathematical statistics course spends too much time on tedious and uninspiring topics (counting methods, two dimensional integrals, etc.) at the expense of covering modern concepts (bootstrapping, curve estimation, graphical models, etc.). So I set out to redesign our undergraduate honors course on probability and mathematical statistics. This book arose from that course. Here is a summary of the main features of this book.

1. The book is suitable for graduate students in computer science and honors undergraduates in math, statistics, and computer science. It is also useful for students beginning graduate work in statistics who need to fill in their background on mathematical statistics.

2. I cover advanced topics that are traditionally not taught in a first course. For example, nonparametric regression, bootstrapping, density estimation, and graphical models.

3. I have omitted topics in probability that do not play a central role in statistical inference. For example, counting methods are virtually absent.

4. Whenever possible, I avoid tedious calculations in favor of emphasizing concepts.

5. I cover nonparametric inference before parametric inference.

6. I abandon the usual "First Term = Probability" and "Second Term = Statistics" approach. Some students only take the first half and it would be a crime if they did not see any statistical theory. Furthermore, probability is more engaging when students can see it put to work in the context of statistics. An exception is the topic of stochastic processes which is included in the later material.

7. The course moves very quickly and covers much material. My colleagues joke that I cover all of statistics in this course and hence the title. The course is demanding but I have worked hard to make the material as intuitive as possible so that the material is very understandable despite the fast pace.

8. Rigor and clarity are not synonymous. I have tried to strike a good balance. To avoid getting bogged down in uninteresting technical details, many results are stated without proof. The bibliographic references at the end of each chapter point the student to appropriate sources.

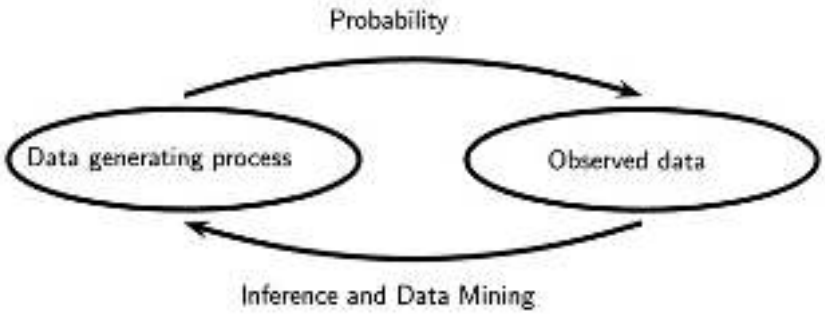

FIGURE 1. Probability and inference.

9. On my website are files with R code which students can use for doing all the computing. The website is:

   http://www.stat.cmu.edu/~larry/all-of-statistics

   However, the book is not tied to R and any computing language can be used.

Part I of the text is concerned with probability theory, the formal language of uncertainty which is the basis of statistical inference. The basic problem that we study in probability is:

> Given a data generating process, what are the properties of the outcomes?

Part II is about statistical inference and its close cousins, data mining and machine learning. The basic problem of statistical inference is the inverse of probability:

> Given the outcomes, what can we say about the process that generated the data?

These ideas are illustrated in Figure 1. Prediction, classification, clustering, and estimation are all special cases of statistical inference. Data analysis, machine learning and data mining are various names given to the practice of statistical inference, depending on the context.

Part III applies the ideas from Part II to specific problems such as regression, graphical models, causation, density estimation, smoothing, classification, and simulation. Part III contains one more chapter on probability that covers stochastic processes including Markov chains.

I have drawn on other books in many places. Most chapters contain a section called Bibliographic Remarks which serves both to acknowledge my debt to other authors and to point readers to other useful references. I would especially like to mention the books by DeGroot and Schervish (2002) and Grimmett and Stirzaker (1982) from which I adapted many examples and exercises.

As one develops a book over several years it is easy to lose track of where presentation ideas and, especially, homework problems originated. Some I made up. Some I remembered from my education. Some I borrowed from other books. I hope I do not offend anyone if I have used a problem from their book and failed to give proper credit. As my colleague Mark Schervish wrote in his book (Schervish (1995)),

> "... the problems at the ends of each chapter have come from many sources. ... These problems, in turn, came from various sources unknown to me ... If I have used a problem without giving proper credit, please take it as a compliment."

I am indebted to many people without whose help I could not have written this book. First and foremost, the many students who used earlier versions of this text and provided much feedback. In particular, Liz Prather and Jennifer Bakal read the book carefully. Rob Reeder valiantly read through the entire book in excruciating detail and gave me countless suggestions for improvements. Chris Genovese deserves special mention. He not only provided helpful ideas about intellectual content, but also spent many, many hours writing LaTeXcode for the book. The best aspects of the book's layout are due to his hard work; any stylistic deficiencies are due to my lack of expertise. David Hand, Sam Roweis, and David Scott read the book very carefully and made numerous suggestions that greatly improved the book. John Lafferty and Peter Spirtes also provided helpful feedback. John Kimmel has been supportive and helpful throughout the writing process. Finally, my wife Isabella Verdinelli has been an invaluable source of love, support, and inspiration.

Larry Wasserman
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
July 2003

Statistics/Data Mining Dictionary

Statisticians and computer scientists often use different language for the same thing. Here is a dictionary that the reader may want to return to throughout the course.

Statistics	Computer Science	Meaning
estimation	learning	using data to estimate an unknown quantity
classification	supervised learning	predicting a discrete Y from X
clustering	unsupervised learning	putting data in to groups
data	training sample	$(X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_n, Y_n)$
covariates	features	the X_i's
classifier	hypothesis	a map from covariates to outcomes
hypothesis	—	subset of a parameter space Θ
confidence interval	—	interval that contains an unknown quantity with given frequency
directed acyclic graph	Bayes net	multivariate distribution with given conditional independence relations
Bayesian inference	Bayesian inference	statistical methods for using data to update beliefs
frequentist inference	-	statistical methods with guaranteed frequency behavior
large deviation bounds	PAC learning	uniform bounds on probability of errors

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III Statistical Models and Methods

Part I

Probability

1
Probability

1.1 Introduction

Probability is a mathematical language for quantifying uncertainty. In this Chapter we introduce the basic concepts underlying probability theory. We begin with the sample space, which is the set of possible outcomes.

1.2 Sample Spaces and Events

The **sample space** Ω is the set of possible outcomes of an experiment. Points ω in Ω are called **sample outcomes**, **realizations**, or **elements**. Subsets of Ω are called **Events**.

1.1 Example. If we toss a coin twice then $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$. The event that the first toss is heads is $A = \{HH, HT\}$. ■

1.2 Example. Let ω be the outcome of a measurement of some physical quantity, for example, temperature. Then $\Omega = \mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$. One could argue that taking $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ is not accurate since temperature has a lower bound. But there is usually no harm in taking the sample space to be larger than needed. The event that the measurement is larger than 10 but less than or equal to 23 is $A = (10, 23]$. ■

1.3 Example. If we toss a coin forever, then the sample space is the infinite set

$$\Omega = \{\omega = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \ldots) : \omega_i \in \{H, T\}\}.$$

Let E be the event that the first head appears on the third toss. Then

$$E = \{(\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \ldots) : \omega_1 = T, \omega_2 = T, \omega_3 = H, \ \omega_i \in \{H, T\} \text{ for } i > 3\}. \ \blacksquare$$

Given an event A, let $A^c = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \notin A\}$ denote the complement of A. Informally, A^c can be read as "not A." The complement of Ω is the empty set $\emptyset$. The union of events A and B is defined

$$A \bigcup B = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ or } \omega \in B \text{ or } \omega \in \text{both}\}$$

which can be thought of as "A or B." If $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ is a sequence of sets then

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_i \text{ for at least one } i\}.$$

The intersection of A and B is

$$A \bigcap B = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A \text{ and } \omega \in B\}$$

read "A and B." Sometimes we write $A \bigcap B$ as AB or (A, B). If $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ is a sequence of sets then

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_i \text{ for all } i\}.$$

The set difference is defined by $A - B = \{\omega : \omega \in A, \omega \notin B\}$. If every element of A is also contained in B we write $A \subset B$ or, equivalently, $B \supset A$. If A is a finite set, let $|A|$ denote the number of elements in A. See the following table for a summary.

Summary of Terminology	
Ω	sample space
ω	outcome (point or element)
A	event (subset of Ω)
A^c	complement of A (not A)
$A \bigcup B$	union (A or B)
$A \bigcap B$ or AB	intersection (A and B)
$A - B$	set difference (ω in A but not in B)
$A \subset B$	set inclusion
$\emptyset$	null event (always false)
Ω	true event (always true)

We say that $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ are **disjoint** or are **mutually exclusive** if $A_i \bigcap A_j = \emptyset$ whenever $i \neq j$. For example, $A_1 = [0,1), A_2 = [1,2), A_3 = [2,3), \ldots$ are disjoint. A **partition** of Ω is a sequence of disjoint sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ such that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \Omega$. Given an event A, define the **indicator function of** A by

$$I_A(\omega) = I(\omega \in A) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin A. \end{cases}$$

A sequence of sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ is **monotone increasing** if $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \cdots$ and we define $\lim_{n\to\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$. A sequence of sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ is **monotone decreasing** if $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \cdots$ and then we define $\lim_{n\to\infty} A_n = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$. In either case, we will write $A_n \to A$.

1.4 Example. Let $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and let $A_i = [0, 1/i)$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots$. Then $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = [0,1)$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \{0\}$. If instead we define $A_i = (0, 1/i)$ then $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = (0,1)$ and $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \emptyset$. ■

1.3 Probability

We will assign a real number $\mathbb{P}(A)$ to every event A, called the **probability** of A. [1] We also call $\mathbb{P}$ a **probability distribution** or a **probability measure**. To qualify as a probability, $\mathbb{P}$ must satisfy three axioms:

1.5 Definition. *A function $\mathbb{P}$ that assigns a real number $\mathbb{P}(A)$ to each event A is a* **probability distribution** *or a* **probability measure** *if it satisfies the following three axioms:*
Axiom 1: $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ *for every* A
Axiom 2: $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$
Axiom 3: *If $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ are disjoint then*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i).$$

[1] It is not always possible to assign a probability to every event A if the sample space is large, such as the whole real line. Instead, we assign probabilities to a limited class of set called a σ-field. See the appendix for details.

There are many interpretations of $\mathbb{P}(A)$. The two common interpretations are frequencies and degrees of beliefs. In the frequency interpretation, $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is the long run proportion of times that A is true in repeated trials. For example, if we say that the probability of heads is $1/2$, we mean that if we flip the coin many times then the proportion of times we get heads tends to $1/2$ as the number of flips increases. An infinitely long, unpredictable sequence of tosses whose limiting proportion of heads is a constant is an ideal notion, much like the idea of a straight line in geometry. The degree-of-belief interpretation is that $\mathbb{P}(A)$ measures an observer's strength of belief that A is true. In both interpretations, we require that Axioms 1 to 3 hold. The difference in interpretation will not matter much until we deal with statistical inference. There, the differing interpretations lead to two schools of inference: the frequentist and the Bayesian schools. We defer discussion until Chapter 11.

One can derive many properties of $\mathbb{P}$ from the axioms, such as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(\emptyset) &= 0 \\ A \subset B &\Longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B) \\ 0 \leq \mathbb{P}(A) &\leq 1 \\ \mathbb{P}(A^c) &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(A) \\ A \bigcap B = \emptyset &\longrightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(A \bigcup B\right) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B). \end{aligned} \tag{1.1}$$

A less obvious property is given in the following Lemma.

1.6 Lemma. *For any events A and B,*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(A \bigcup B\right) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(AB).$$

PROOF. Write $A \bigcup B = (AB^c) \bigcup (AB) \bigcup (A^cB)$ and note that these events are disjoint. Hence, making repeated use of the fact that $\mathbb{P}$ is additive for disjoint events, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}\left(A \bigcup B\right) &= \mathbb{P}\left((AB^c) \bigcup (AB) \bigcup (A^cB)\right) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(AB^c) + \mathbb{P}(AB) + \mathbb{P}(A^cB) \quad + \mathbb{P}(AB) \quad - \mathbb{P}(AB) \\ &= \mathbb{P}\left((AB^c) \bigcup (AB)\right) + \mathbb{P}\left((A^cB) \bigcup (AB)\right) \quad - \mathbb{P}(AB) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) \quad - \mathbb{P}(AB). \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

1.7 Example. Two coin tosses. Let H_1 be the event that heads occurs on toss 1 and let H_2 be the event that heads occurs on toss 2. If all outcomes are

equally likely, then $\mathbb{P}(H_1 \bigcup H_2) = \mathbb{P}(H_1) + \mathbb{P}(H_2) - \mathbb{P}(H_1 H_2) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} = 3/4$.
■

1.8 Theorem (Continuity of Probabilities). *If $A_n \to A$ then*

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n) \to \mathbb{P}(A)$$

as $n \to \infty$.

PROOF. Suppose that A_n is monotone increasing so that $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \cdots$. Let $A = \lim_{n\to\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$. Define $B_1 = A_1$, $B_2 = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_2, \omega \notin A_1\}$, $B_3 = \{\omega \in \Omega : \omega \in A_3, \omega \notin A_2, \omega \notin A_1\}, \ldots$. It can be shown that $B_1, B_2, \ldots$ are disjoint, $A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_i$ for each n and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$. (See exercise 1.) From Axiom 3,

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(B_i)$$

and hence, using Axiom 3 again,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(B_i) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i\right) = \mathbb{P}(A). \quad ■$$

1.4 Probability on Finite Sample Spaces

Suppose that the sample space $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$ is finite. For example, if we toss a die twice, then Ω has 36 elements: $\Omega = \{(i,j) : i,j \in \{1,\ldots,6\}\}$. If each outcome is equally likely, then $\mathbb{P}(A) = |A|/36$ where $|A|$ denotes the number of elements in A. The probability that the sum of the dice is 11 is $2/36$ since there are two outcomes that correspond to this event.

If Ω is finite and if each outcome is equally likely, then

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}.$$

which is called the **uniform probability distribution**. To compute probabilities, we need to count the number of points in an event A. Methods for counting points are called combinatorial methods. We needn't delve into these in any great detail. We will, however, need a few facts from counting theory that will be useful later. Given n objects, the number of ways of ordering