

A trip to Asymptopia

Statistical Inference

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Asymptotics

- Asymptotics is the term for the behavior of statistics as the sample size (or some other relevant quantity) limits to infinity (or some other relevant number)
- · (Asymptopia is my name for the land of asymptotics, where everything works out well and there's no messes. The land of infinite data is nice that way.)
- · Asymptotics are incredibly useful for simple statistical inference and approximations
- · (Not covered in this class) Asymptotics often lead to nice understanding of procedures
- · Asymptotics generally give no assurances about finite sample performance
 - The kinds of asymptotics that do are orders of magnitude more difficult to work with

Numerical limits

- · Imagine a sequence
 - $a_1 = .9,$
 - $-a_2 = .99$,
 - $-a_3 = .999, ...$
- Clearly this sequence converges to 1
- Definition of a limit: For any fixed distance we can find a point in the sequence so that the sequence is closer to the limit than that distance from that point on

Limits of random variables

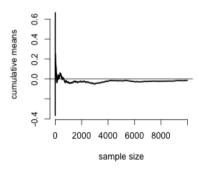
- The problem is harder for random variables
- · Consider \bar X_n the sample average of the first n of a collection of iid observations
 - Example \bar X_n could be the average of the result of n coin flips (i.e. the sample proportion of heads)
- · We say that \bar X_n converges in probability to a limit if for any fixed distance the probability of \bar X_n being closer (further away) than that distance from the limit converges to one (zero)

The Law of Large Numbers

- · Establishing that a random sequence converges to a limit is hard
- · Fortunately, we have a theorem that does all the work for us, called the **Law of Large Numbers**
- The law of large numbers states that if X_1,\ldots X_n are iid from a population with mean \mu and variance \sigma^2 then \bar X_n converges in probability to \mu
- · (There are many variations on the LLN; we are using a particularly lazy version, my favorite kind of version)

Law of large numbers in action

```
n <- 10000
means <- cumsum(rnorm(n))/(1:n)
plot(1:n, means, type = "1", lwd = 2, frame = FALSE, ylab = "cumulative means", xlab = "sample size")
abline(h = 0)</pre>
```



Discussion

- · An estimator is **consistent** if it converges to what you want to estimate
 - Consistency is neither necessary nor sufficient for one estimator to be better than another
 - Typically, good estimators are consistent; it's not too much to ask that if we go to the trouble of collecting an infinite amount of data that we get the right answer
- The LLN basically states that the sample mean is consistent
- The sample variance and the sample standard deviation are consistent as well
- Recall also that the sample mean and the sample variance are unbiased as well
- · (The sample standard deviation is biased, by the way)

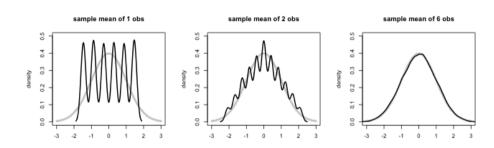
The Central Limit Theorem

- The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) is one of the most important theorems in statistics
- For our purposes, the CLT states that the distribution of averages of iid variables, properly normalized, becomes that of a standard normal as the sample size increases
- The CLT applies in an endless variety of settings
- Let X_1,\ldots,X_n be a collection of iid random variables with mean \mu and variance \sigma^2
- Let \bar X_n be their sample average
- Then \frac{\bar X_n \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} has a distribution like that of a standard normal for large n.
- Remember the form \frac{\bar X_n \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{\mbox{Estimate} \mbox{Mean of estimate}}.
- · Usually, replacing the standard error by its estimated value doesn't change the CLT

Example

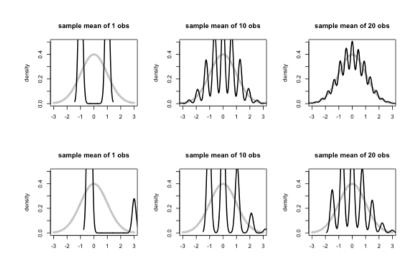
- · Simulate a standard normal random variable by rolling n (six sided)
- · Let X_i be the outcome for die i
- Then note that $mu = E[X_i] = 3.5$
- · $Var(X_i) = 2.92$
- SE $\sqrt{2.92 / n} = 1.71 / \sqrt{n}$
- Standardized mean \frac{\bar X_n 3.5}{1.71\\sqrt{n}}

Simulation of mean of n dice



Coin CLT

- Let X_i be the 0 or 1 result of the i^{th} flip of a possibly unfair coin
 - The sample proportion, say \hat p, is the average of the coin flips
 - $E[X_i] = p$ and $Var(X_i) = p(1-p)$
 - Standard error of the mean is \sqrt{p(1-p)/n}
 - Then \frac{\hat p p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/n}} will be approximately normally distributed



CLT in practice

- In practice the CLT is mostly useful as an approximation P\left(\frac{\bar X_n \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \leq z \right) \approx \Phi(z).
- Recall 1.96 is a good approximation to the .975\{th} quantile of the standard normal
- Consider \begin{eqnarray*} .95 & \approx & P\left(-1.96 \leq \frac{\bar X_n \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \leq 1.96 \right)\\ \\ & = & P\left(\bar X_n +1.96 \sigma/\sqrt{n} \geq \mu \geq \bar X_n 1.96\sigma/\sqrt{n} \right),\\ \end{eqnarray*}

Confidence intervals

- Therefore, according to the CLT, the probability that the random interval \bar X_n \pm z_{1-\alpha/2}\sigma / \sqrt{n} contains \mu is approximately 100(1-\alpha)%, where z_{1-\alpha/2} is the 1-\alpha/2 quantile of the standard normal distribution
- This is called a 100(1 \alpha)% confidence interval for \mu
- · We can replace the unknown \sigma with s

Give a confidence interval for the average height of sons

in Galton's data

```
library(UsingR)
data(father.son)
x <- father.son$sheight
(mean(x) + c(-1, 1) * qnorm(0.975) * sd(x)/sqrt(length(x)))/12</pre>
```

```
## [1] 5.710 5.738
```

Sample proportions

- In the event that each X_i is 0 or 1 with common success probability p then $\sigma^2 = p(1 p)$
- The interval takes the form $\phi \ z_{1 \alpha/2} \ sqrt{\frac{p(1 p)}{n}}$
- · Replacing p by \hat p in the standard error results in what is called a Wald confidence interval for p
- Also note that p(1-p) \leq 1/4 for 0 \leq p \leq 1
- Let \alpha = .05 so that $z_{1 \alpha/2} = 1.96 \approx 2$ then 2 \sqrt{\frac{p(1 p)}{n}} \leq 2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{4n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}
- Therefore \hat p \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} is a quick CI estimate for p

Example

- Your campaign advisor told you that in a random sample of 100 likely voters, 56 intent to vote for you.
 - Can you relax? Do you have this race in the bag?
 - Without access to a computer or calculator, how precise is this estimate?
- 1/sqrt(100)=.1 so a back of the envelope calculation gives an approximate 95% interval of (0.46, 0.66)
 - Not enough for you to relax, better go do more campaigning!
- Rough guidelines, 100 for 1 decimal place, 10,000 for 2, 1,000,000 for 3.

```
round(1/sqrt(10^(1:6)), 3)
```

```
## [1] 0.316 0.100 0.032 0.010 0.003 0.001
```

Poisson interval

- · A nuclear pump failed 5 times out of 94.32 days, give a 95% confidence interval for the failure rate per day?
- X \sim Poisson(\lambda t).
- Estimate \hat \lambda = X/t
- $\begin{tabular}{l} Var(\hat \a) = \lambda / t \frac{1}{2} \lambda / t \lambda (0.1) \\ \begin{tabular}{l} Var(\hat \a) = \lambda / t \lambda (0.1) \\ \begin$
- · This isn't the best interval.
 - There are better asymptotic intervals.
 - You can get an exact CI in this case.

R code

```
x <- 5
t <- 94.32
lambda <- x/t
round(lambda + c(-1, 1) * qnorm(0.975) * sqrt(lambda/t), 3)
```

```
## [1] 0.007 0.099
```

```
poisson.test(x, T = 94.32)$conf
```

```
## [1] 0.01721 0.12371
## attr(,"conf.level")
## [1] 0.95
```

In the regression class

```
\exp(\operatorname{confint}(\operatorname{glm}(\mathbf{x} \sim 1 + \operatorname{offset}(\log(\mathbf{t})), \operatorname{family} = \operatorname{poisson}(\operatorname{link} = \log))))
```

```
## Waiting for profiling to be done...
```

```
## 2.5 % 97.5 %
## 0.01901 0.11393
```