

# Statistical Inference for Estimation

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# 1 Introduction to Inference

A *Poll* is when a person goes out and randomly select people from a large population to form a sample, and study that sample to figure out what the larger population wants.

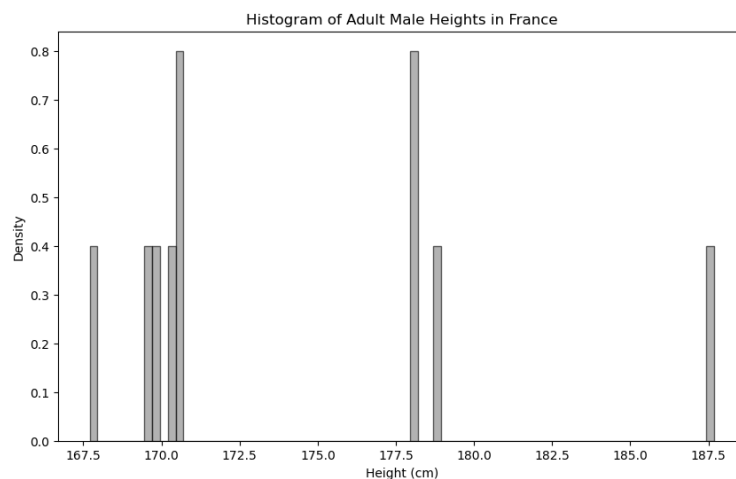
## Statistical Inference

Drawing conclusions about a larger population based on a relatively small sample.

**Point Estimation:** Estimating a quantity of interest in the larger population.

**What is the average height of all adult males in France?**

In order to estimate the average height of all adult males in France, we first took a sample of 10 adult males and measured their heights. Below is a histogram of the heights of 10 adult males in France. The x axis is the height in cm in bins and the y axis is the density. Density is a number such that the total area of each bar is going to represent the proportion of the people in our sample that we saw in the corresponding bin.

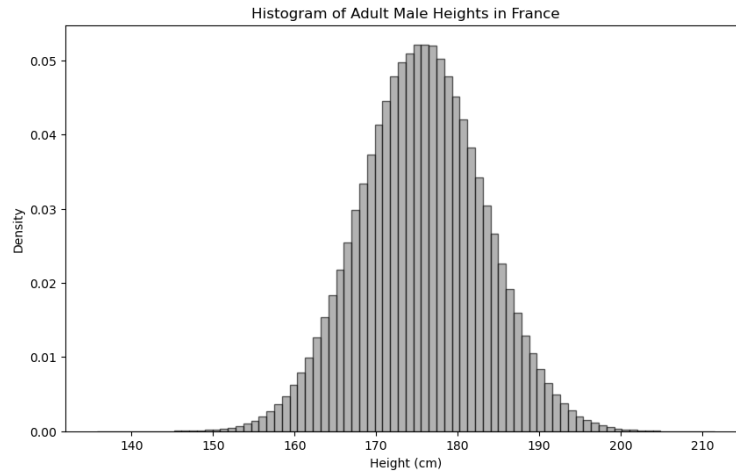


**Density:** It is a number such that the total area of each bar is going to represent the proportion of the people in our sample that we saw in the corresponding bin.

For 1 million samples, the Histogram is going to take the shape of a bell curve. **This represents perfect information** i.e. the sample is representative of the population or a model for the idealized population.

## 1.1 Population Mean $\mu$ and Sample Mean $\bar{X}$

$\mu$  is the average in an ideal population. It is no the sample average.



Because of the symmetry of the Bell curve, the true average height  $\mu$  is going to be the peak of the histogram.

If I take many samples of size 100 and compute the sample mean  $\bar{X}$ , they are going to pile up and make a **sampling distribution**. We use the sampling distribution to estimate the true mean  $\mu$ .

## 2 Review of Random Variables

### 2.1 Discrete Random Variables

Let  $X$  be a random variable. Before a coin is flipped, the value of  $X$  is unknown. It's waiting on the results of the experiment involving randomness.

#### Random Variables

A random variable is a mapping from the set of outcomes of an experiment involving probability to the set of real numbers.

It is convention to use capital letters when talking about random variables.

$$X = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if Heads} \\ 0, & \text{if Tails} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Since random variables talk about probability, we can say that:

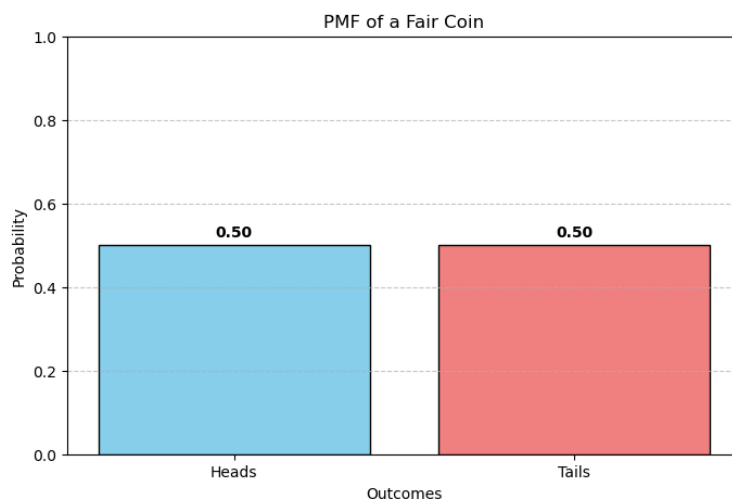
$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{with probability } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

And a better way to write this would be as a function:

$$f(x) = P(X = x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

This is known as a probability mass function (pmf) and is denoted by  $f(x)$ . When we have multiple random variables, we use subscripts to distinguish them for e.g.  $f_X(x)$ ,  $f_Y(y)$ .

The pmf tells us how the probabilities of different outcomes of a random variable are distributed. The below image shows the pmf of a fair coin. Since we are plotting density, the total area of each bar is the probability of that outcome.



### 2.1.1 Bernoulli Distribution

We can generalize that if the probability of getting heads is  $p$  and the probability of getting tails is  $q = 1 - p$ , the pmf becomes:

$$f(x) = P(X = x) = \begin{cases} 1 - p, & \text{if } x = 0 \\ p, & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

This model depends on the parameter  $p$ . This random variable is so common, it gets a name i.e. **Bernoulli Random Variable or Distribution with parameter  $p$** .

We can write any distribution in short hand as follows:

$$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p) \quad (5)$$

### 2.1.2 Indicator function

Let  $A$  be a set of real numbers. The Indicator function indicates if a number is in the set or not.

$$I_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

with this Indicator function, we can say that  $X$  is a random variable that takes on only two values, 0 and 1. With this Indicator function we can write the Bernoulli probability mass function (pmf) as:

$$P(X = x) = p^x(1 - p)^{1-x} \cdot I_{\{0,1\}}(x) \quad (7)$$

We re-wrote the pmf as equation 7 because it is more concise as compared to equation 4. If  $x$  is not in set  $\{0, 1\}$ , the pmf is 0. Indicator function are also helpful in proving proofs.

### 2.1.3 Geometric Distribution

The geometric distribution models the number of trials needed to get the first success in a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials with a success probability  $p$ . In other words, if  $X$  represents the number of trials until the first success, then  $X$  follows a geometric distribution with parameter  $p$ .

$$X \sim \text{Geometric}(p) \quad (8)$$

Conditions:

- Repeated independent Bernoulli trials

- Only 2 outcomes: 0 and 1

### Derivation of the Probability Mass Function (PMF)

Considering  $P(X = 4)$ . For this, we need our first success to be on the 4th trial. We need **F**, **F**, **F**, and then **S**.

$$P(X = 4) = (1 - p) \cdot (1 - p) \cdot (1 - p) \cdot p = (1 - p)^3 p$$

### General Formula of the Geometric Distribution

In general, we can say that the first success is on the  $X^{th}$  trial, meaning we will have  $X - 1$  failures. So we can write the general formula of the geometric distribution as:

$$P(X = x) = (1 - p)^{x-1} p \quad \text{for } x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$P(X = x) = 0 \quad \text{for other values of } x$$

We can use the Indicator function to write as a single general formula"

$$P(X = x) = (1 - p)^{x-1} p \cdot I_{\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}}(x) \quad (9)$$

### Plot of the Geometric Distribution

The minimum value of  $X$  is 1 and there is no maximum value. The mode is always 1. As we move towards the right, the probabilities decrease.

**Important:** incomplete: exponential, binomial etc. graphs

## 2.2 Continuous Random Variables

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