Lecture 8: Estimation and Confidence Intervals

STAT 324

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Estimation



The art of coming up with our "best guess" for the truth. This is called *an estimate*.

An *estimator* is a function that takes values from a sample and provides an estimate ("best guess").

Estimation



In order to come up with a good estimator, it is important to know how the sample was gathered. Three important definitions:

- a sample is called a **simple random sample** (SRS) if every possible element is equally likely to be sampled
 - unless otherwise stated, all samples in this class are SRS
- a sample is drawn **with replacement** if an element is replaced to the population before the next element is drawn. Otherwise, we say it is drawn **without replacement**.
 - without replacement = each element can only be sampled once.
- a collection of RVs X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are said to be **independent and identically distributed** (iid) if
 - 1. they are all independent of each other
 - 2. they all follow the same distribution.

Technically, SRS **ONLY** if done with replacement. However, if population is "big enough", sample without repleacement is approximately the same as with replacement. (Recall last weeks discussion.)

Estimation: Population Mean



- A car manufacturer uses an automatic device to apply paint to engine blocks.
- engine blocks get very hot, so the paint must be heat-resistant,
- important that the amount applied is of a minimum thickness
- warehouse contains thousands of blocks painted by the automatic device
- he manufacturer wants to know the average amount of paint applied by the device

16 blocks will be selected at random, and the paint thickness measured in mm. Let X_1, \ldots, X_{16} be RVs indicating the thickness of the 16 blocks.

Let's assume these RVs are iid -- i.e. independent and identically distributed. There exists some true expected value of these: $E(X_i) = \mu$. There also exists some true variance, $Var(X_i) = \sigma^2$.

Estimation: Population Mean



Now we actually observe 16 realizations of these RVs:

Using these data, what would be your "best guess" for the true mean μ ?

I would use the sample average:

```
paint_thickness %>%
  summarize(Mean = mean(thickness))
## Mean
```

1 1.348125

This **estimATE** comes from the **estimatOR**: $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$.

Notice: the **estimator** is a **RV** while the **estimate** is a **realization** of that RV.

Estimation: Population Mean



Since $ar{X}$ is an RV, we can talk about the expected value and variance of it:

$$egin{aligned} E(ar{X}) &= E\left(rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i
ight) \ &= rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i) \ &= \mu, \end{aligned}$$

$$egin{aligned} \operatorname{Var}(ar{X}) &= \operatorname{Var}\left(rac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i
ight) \ &= rac{1}{n^2}\sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{Var}(X_i) \ &= rac{\sigma^2}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathrm{SD}(ar{X}) = \sqrt{\mathrm{Var}(ar{X})} = rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

 $\mathrm{SD}(ar{X})$ is often called SE (Standard Error)

Estimation: Good estimators



What makes an estimator a good estimator? We will consider two properties of estimators:

- Unbiasedness:
 - \circ an estimator is said to be **unbiased** if $E(\hat{ heta}) = heta$.
 - $\circ~$ I.e. the estimator gives us the correct value on average
 - \circ the **bias** of an estimator is $\mathrm{Bias}(\hat{ heta}) = E(\hat{ heta}) heta$
- Shrinking/small variance.
 - unbiased estimator with huge variance is not very reliable
 - if choosing between multiple unbiased estimators, choose smallest variance!

Estimation: Good estimators



Example of good estimator: $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}$.

- Unibased.
- Can be shown to have smallest variance of ALL unbiased estimators...

Other examples of good estimators:

•
$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = S^2 = rac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$
.

- Actually unbiased
 - if divided by *n*, would not be!

•
$$\hat{\sigma}=S=\sqrt{rac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^n(X_i-ar{X})^2}.$$

- Biased!
 - if divided by n, would be more biased!
 - hard to find a better candidate, though, so we still use this.

Remember, we have

- sample variance: $s^2 = rac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i ar{x})^2$
- population variance: $\sum_{i=1}^n P(X=x_i)(x_i-E(X))^2$

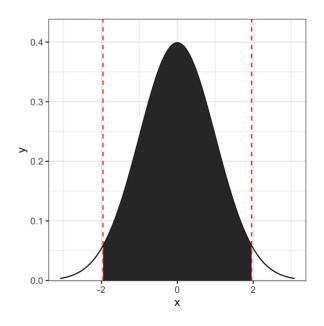


If X_i 's are iid $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, what is the distribution of \bar{X} ?

$$ar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n).$$
 So what is $rac{ar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$?

$$rac{ar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}=rac{ar{X}-E(ar{X})}{\mathrm{SD}(ar{X})}=Z\sim N(0,1).$$

Now, we can find values x_1, x_2 such that $P(x_1 \leq Z \leq x_2) = 1 - \alpha$. Let's for simplicity use $\alpha = 0.05$. I.e. we want to find x_1, x_2 such that this area is 0.95.





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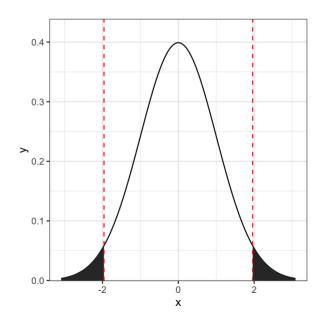
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Now, we can find values x_1, x_2 such that $P(Z \le x_1) + P(Z \ge x_2) = \alpha$. Let's for simplicity use $\alpha = 0.05$. I.e. we want to find x_1, x_2 such that this area is 0.05.

If we decide the two areas in the tails are the same, $x_1 = -x_2$.

 x_2 is by definition the lpha/2 (0.025 in this case) critical value, $z_{lpha/2}$ - it cuts off lpha/2 (0.025) to the right!





So,

$$egin{aligned} 1-lpha &= P(-z_{lpha/2} \leq Z \leq z_{lpha/2}) \ &= P\left(-z_{lpha/2} \leq rac{ar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq z_{lpha/2}
ight) \ &= P\left(-z_{lpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \leq ar{X}-\mu \leq z_{lpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}
ight) \ &= P\left(-ar{X}-z_{lpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \leq -\mu \leq -ar{X}+z_{lpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}
ight) \ &= P\left(ar{X}+z_{lpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \geq \mu \geq ar{X}-z_{lpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}
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ight) \ \end{aligned}$$



The interval $[\bar{X}-z_{lpha/2}rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}},\bar{X}+z_{lpha/2}rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}]$ is called a $(1-lpha)\cdot 100\%$ Confidence Interval:

We are $(1-\alpha)\cdot 100\%$ confident that an interval constructed this way will contain the true value $\mu!$



Example

Through years, and years of experience, the car manufacturer has learned that the true standard deviation of the paint thickness is 0.34. We can now construct a 95% confidence interval for the true mean.

First, we find $z_{\alpha/2}$. When looking for a 95% CI, $\alpha=0.05$. $z_{0.025}$ cuts off 0.025 on the right hand side. I.e. it cuts off 1-0.025=0.975 to the left. So $P(X\leq z_{0.025})=0.975$, which makes $z_{0.025}$ the 0.975 quantile:

```
Z <- Normal()
z_crit <- quantile(Z, 0.975)
z_crit</pre>
```

[1] 1.959964



We can find the confidence interval as

```
paint_thickness %>%
   summarize(mean = mean(thickness),
             LL = mean - z_{crit*0.34/sqrt(n())},
             UL = mean + z_{crit}*0.34/sqrt(n())
##
                     1.1
         mean
## 1 1.348125 1.181528 1.514722
or
xbar <- mean(paint_thickness$thickness)</pre>
n <- nrow(paint_thickness)</pre>
xbar - z_crit*0.34/sqrt(n)
                                                  xbar + z_crit*0.34/sqrt(n)
## [1] 1.181528
                                                 ## [1] 1.514722
```



We are 95% confident that the true mean thickness is between 1.18 and 1.51.

What is $P(1.18 \le \mu \le 1.51)$? 0 or 1. We do not know which, but those are the only possible values.

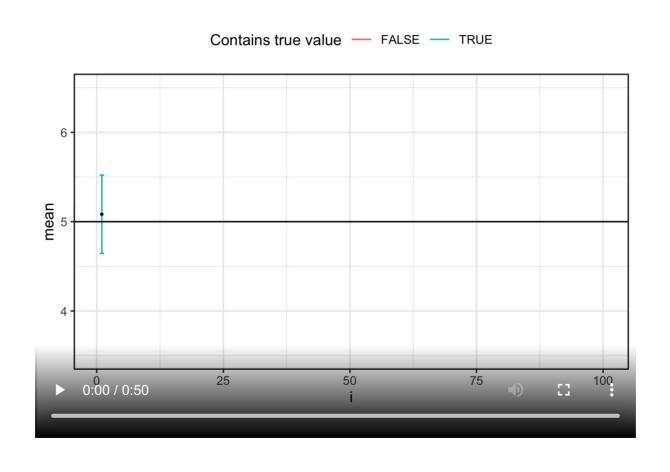
We can think of LL and UL as random variables: new sample -> new CI. So makes sense to say $P(LL \le \mu \le UL) = 1 - \alpha$.

But as soon as we get a sample, observe values, and find the realization of the RVs, no more randomness. Hence, not meaningful to talk about probabilities anymore.

What does it mean that we are "95% confident the true value is in the interval?"



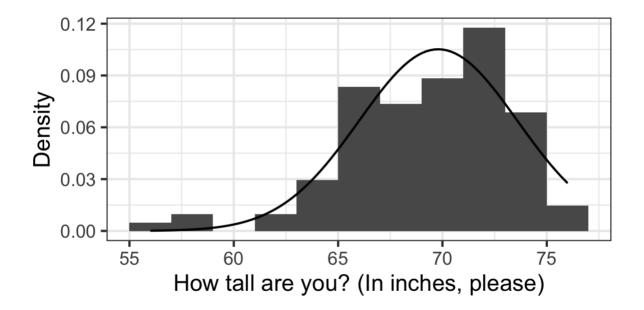
If we repeat the process, the interval we get will contain the true value 95% of the time.





Example: student heights

The true population:





Example: student heights

Take a sample of 15 students, calculate 95% CI, repeat 100 times.





Example: Framingham Heart Study

Total cholesterol in adults.

```
fram <- read_csv(here::here("csv_data/framingham.csv")) %>%
  filter(!is.na(totChol))
```

Remember, so far we need the data to be normal.

Histogram:

```
ggplot(fram,
          aes(x = totChol)) +
geom_histogram(bins = 35)
```

QQ-plot:

```
ggplot(fram, aes(sample = totChol)) +
  geom_qq() +
  geom_abline(aes(slope = sd(totChol), i
```

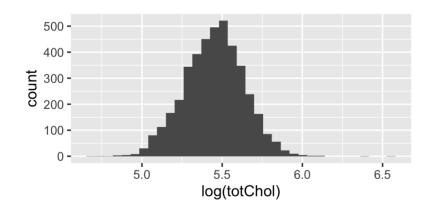


Example: Framingham Heart Study

Not convincing, but if we log transform:

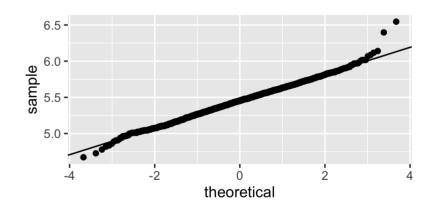
Histogram:

```
ggplot(fram,
          aes(x = log(totChol))) +
    geom_histogram(bins = 35)
```



QQ-plot:

```
ggplot(fram, aes(sample = log(totChol)))
  geom_qq() +
  geom_abline(aes(slope = sd(log(totChol
```





Example: Framingham Heart Study

So we can construct a 95% confidence interval for the log(totChol)... only we do not know the true value of σ ?! Let's assume for know that we do know it, and it is 0.19.

mean(log(fram\$totChol))

[1] 5.449583

Lower limit:

$$\bar{x} - 1.96 \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = 5.45 - 1.96 \frac{0.19}{\sqrt{4190}}$$

$$= 5.444$$

Upper limit:

$$egin{aligned} ar{x} + 1.96 \cdot rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} &= 5.45 + 1.96 rac{0.19}{\sqrt{4190}} \ &= 5.456 \end{aligned}$$

We are 95% confident that the true *population* mean of the log total cholesterol is in this interval.



All of this build on some key assumptions:

- 1. $ar{X}$ normally distributed
- 2. Know the true standard deviation.

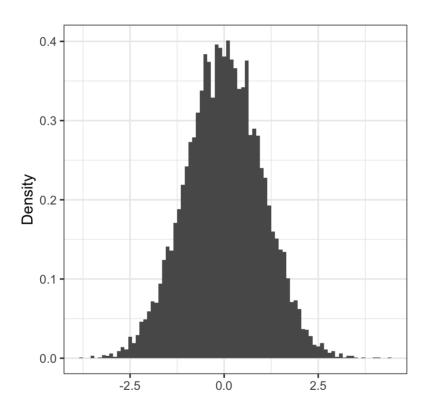
When both satisfied, $rac{ar{X}-E(ar{X})}{\mathrm{SD}(ar{X})}\sim N(0,1).$

We said "if X_1,\ldots,X_n are normal, then ar X normal". Let's check. Actually, let's check that if X_1,\ldots,X_n are normal, then $rac{ar X-\mu}{\mathrm{SD}(ar X)}\sim N(0,1)$.

How would we go about that? Get many, many samples, calculate the mean for each, and plot a histogram. We'll use $\mu=5, \sigma=10$, and n=5.

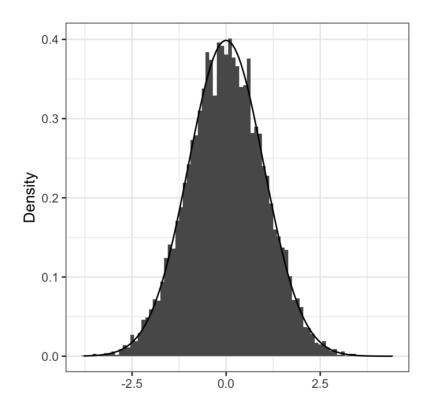


Histogram of $\frac{\bar{x}-5}{10/\sqrt{5}}$ for 10000 samples:





Histogram of $\frac{\bar{x}-5}{10/\sqrt{5}}$ for 10000 samples:

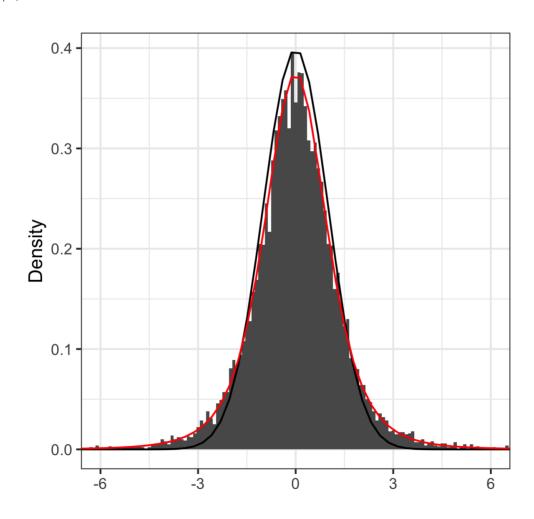




What if we do not know the true value of σ ? We would use $\hat{\sigma}=S$... but the distribution of $\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}}$ is NOT N(0,1):



The distribution of $rac{ar{X}-\mu}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}}$ is a so-called t-distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom:

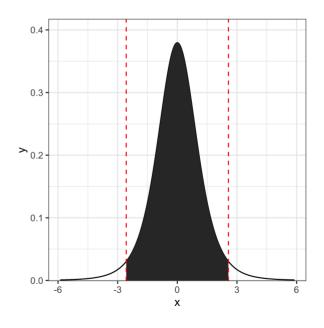




Does this mean all is lost? No, of course not! We just need to adjust a bit. We now have

$$egin{aligned} rac{ar{X} - \mu}{\hat{\sigma} / \sqrt{n}} &= rac{ar{X} - E(ar{X})}{\widehat{ ext{SD}}(ar{X})} \ &= T_{n-1} \sim \ t_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Now, we can find values x_1, x_2 such that $P\left(x_1 \leq T_{n-1} \leq x_2\right) = 1 - \alpha$. Let's for simplicity use $\alpha = 0.05$. I.e. we want to find x_1, x_2 such that this area is 0.95.





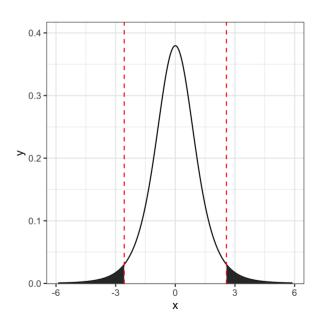
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If we decide the two areas in the tails are the same, $x_1 = -x_2$.

 x_2 is by definition the $\alpha/2$ (0.025 in this case) critical value in the t-distribution. We call it $t_{n-1,\alpha/2}$ - it cuts off $\alpha/2$ (0.025) to the right!





So,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \alpha &= P(-t_{n-1,\alpha/2} \le T_{n-1} \le t_{n-1,\alpha/2}) \\ &= P\left(-t_{n-1,\alpha/2} \le \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \le t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\right) \\ &= P\left(-t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \le \bar{X} - \mu \le t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}\right) \\ &= P\left(-\bar{X} - t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \le -\mu \le -\bar{X} + t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}\right) \\ &= P\left(\bar{X} + t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \ge \mu \ge \bar{X} - t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}\right) \\ &= P\left(\bar{X} - t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \le \mu \le \bar{X} + t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}\right) \end{aligned}$$



When \bar{X} is normal, but the true value of σ is unknown, the interval $[\bar{X}-t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}},\bar{X}+t_{n-1,\alpha/2}\frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}]$ is called a $(1-\alpha)\cdot 100\%$ Confidence Interval:

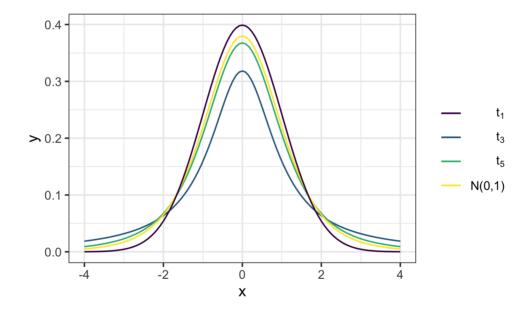
We are $(1-\alpha)\cdot 100\%$ confident that an interval constructed this way will contain the true value $\mu!$

New Distribution: t-distribution



The t-distribution is very similar to the standard normal.

It is defined by a single parameter called the degrees of freedom (denoted df). We will use T_{df} as notation for a random variable that follows the t-distribution with df degrees of freedom, i.e. $T_{df} \sim t_{df}$.

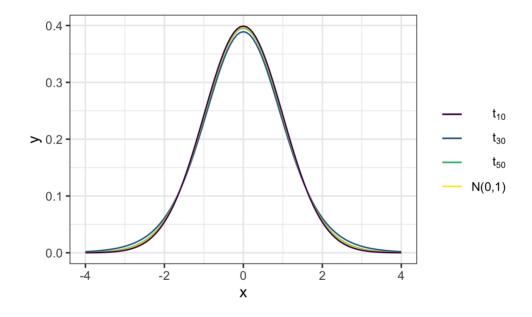


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Actually, if " $\mathrm{df} = \infty$ ", the t-distribution is *exactly* the standard normal.