

# STAT 135, Concepts of Statistics

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Parameter estimation

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February 20, 2017

## Review: Hypergeometric distribution

A population contains  $G$  good and  $N - G$  bad elements.  
Randomly sample  $n \leq N$  elements without replacement.

$S_n$  := number of good elements in sample  
follows a hypergeometric distribution, i.e.

$$\mathbb{P}\{S_n = g\} = \frac{\binom{G}{g} \binom{N-G}{n-g}}{\binom{N}{n}}.$$

Recall:

$$\mathbb{E}S_n = np, \quad \text{Var}(S_n) = npq \frac{N-n}{N-1},$$

where  $p = G/N$ ,  $q = (N - G)/N$ .

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Capture-recapture)

Estimating population size  $N$ .



9-year old **Antonio Martinez** of San Lorenzo caught a 12 lb., 7 oz., 27" trout at Don Castro using power bait on 4/6/2008!!

# Parameter estimation.

## Example (Capture-recapture)

Catch  $r = 1000$  fish, mark them red, and release them.

Later, new catch of  $n = 1000$  fish is made, among which  $k = 100$  are found to have red marks. What can be said about the total (unknown) number  $N$  of fish in the lake?

Heuristics:

proportion of red fish in sample  $\approx$  proportion of red fish in lake,

i.e.

$$\frac{k}{n} \approx \frac{r}{N}.$$

Consequently, we expect

$$\hat{N} := \frac{n}{k}r = \frac{r}{\frac{k}{n}}$$

to be a good estimator for  $N$ .

# Parameter estimation.

## Example (Capture-recapture)

Clearly,  $N \geq r + (n - k)$ .

Before the second catch is made, the distribution

$R(n) :=$  the number of red fish in the sample

follows a hypergeometric law, i.e.

$$\mathbb{P}\{R(n) = k\} = \text{hypergeometric}(N, r, n)(k) = \frac{\binom{r}{k} \binom{N-r}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}}.$$

# Parameter estimation.

## Example (Capture-recapture)

We don't expect  $\hat{N} = r + n - k = 1900$  to be a good guess for  $N$ . In fact, if  $\hat{N}$  were the actual number of fish, the outcome of our experiment would be rather unlikely, namely it would have probability

$$\begin{aligned}\text{hypergeometric}(\hat{N}, r, n)(k) &= \binom{1000}{100} \binom{900}{900} / \binom{1900}{1000} \\ &= \frac{(1000!)^2}{100!1900!},\end{aligned}$$

which has order of magnitude  $10^{-430}$  according to Stirling's formula,  $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n}(n/e)^n$ .

Question: Which number  $\hat{N}$  should we pick as estimate for  $N$  in order to maximize likelihood of our observation?

(Notion of *maximum likelihood estimate* goes back to R. A. Fisher.)

## Parameter estimation.

### Example (Capture-recapture)

Let  $p_N(k) := \text{hypergeometric}(N, r, n)(k)$ . Consider the ratio

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{p_N(k)}{p_{N-1}(k)} &= \frac{\binom{r}{k} \binom{N-r}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}} \frac{\binom{N-1}{n}}{\binom{r}{k} \binom{N-1-r}{n-k}} \\ &= \frac{n!(N-n)!}{N!} \frac{(N-r)!}{(n-k)!(N-r-n+k)!} \\ &\quad \times \frac{(N-1)!}{n!(N-1-n)!} \frac{(n-k)!(N-1-r-n+k)!}{(N-1-r)!} \\ &= \frac{(N-r)(N-n)}{N(N-r-n+k)}.\end{aligned}$$

This yields  $p_N(k)/p_{N-1}(k) < 1$  if  $nr < Nk$ , and  $p_N(k)/p_{N-1}(k) > 1$  otherwise.

Thus likelihood is maximized for  $N$  the integer closest to  $nr/k$  ( $= 10000$ ).

Next: Confidence interval around  $\hat{N}$  via normal approximation

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Emission of alpha particles)

Radioactive material of certain mass is monitored with a Geiger counter.

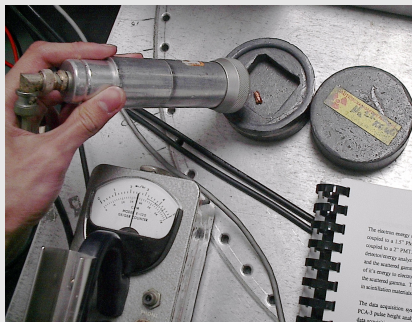


Figure: Geiger counter



# Parameter estimation.

## Example (Emission of alpha particles)

Assume

- ▶ rate of emission is constant over period of observation,
- ▶ particles come from large number of independent sources.

These assumptions justify model

$$N_t := \text{\#emissions during time } [0, t] \sim \text{Poisson}(\alpha t),$$

for some parameter  $\alpha > 0$ .

Recall that  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\alpha)$ , i.e.  $X$  follows a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\alpha$ , if

$$\mathbb{P}\{X = k\} = e^{-\alpha} \frac{\alpha^k}{k!}$$

for any non-negative integer  $k$ .

## Review: Poisson distribution

$X \sim \text{Poisson}(\alpha)$ , i.e.  $X$  follows a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\alpha$ , if

$$\mathbb{P}\{X = k\} = e^{-\alpha} \frac{\alpha^k}{k!}$$

for any non-negative integer  $k$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \alpha, \quad \text{Var}(X) = \alpha.$$

## Parameter estimation.

### Example (Emission of alpha particles)

Data from National Bureau of Standards.

Source of alpha particles: americium 241.

10,220 times between successive emissions were recorded. Total time was subdivided into 1207 intervals of 10sec. each.

$$\text{mean emission rate} = \frac{\text{\#emissions}}{\text{total time of observation}[s]} = \frac{10220}{12070s} \approx 0.839/s$$

Hence, on average 8.39 emissions are observed in an interval.

# Parameter estimation.

## Example (Emission of alpha particles)

Let

$$E_i := \text{\#emissions in } i\text{th interval} \sim \text{Poisson}(10\alpha),$$

in particular  $\mathbb{E}E_i = 10\alpha$ . Data suggests that

$$\hat{\alpha} \approx 0.839/s$$

should be a good estimator for  $\alpha$ .

# Parameter estimation.

## Example (Emission of alpha particles)

Next table shows summary of this data.

first column = number of counted emissions

second column = number of intervals with corresponding emission counts

## Parameter estimation.

### Example (Emission of alpha particles)

emission counts	number of intervals
0-2	18
3	28
4	56
5	105
6	126
7	146
8	164
9	161
10	123
11	101
12	74
13	53
14	23
15	15
16	9

# Parameter estimation.

## Example (Emission of alpha particles)

How could we compare the model with estimated parameter  $\hat{\alpha} \approx 0.839/s$  to data? Notice that probability to have  $k$  emissions in interval  $i$  is

$$p(k) := \mathbb{P}\{E_i = k\} = e^{-8.39} \frac{(8.39)^k}{k!}$$

for any  $i$ . Thus number of intervals during which  $k$  emissions were counted is ( $E_1, E_2, \dots$  are i.i.d.)

$$B_k := \sum_{i=1}^{1207} \mathbf{1}\{E_i = k\} \sim \text{binomial}(1207, p(k)),$$

expected number of intervals counting  $k$  emissions is

$$\mathbb{E}B_k = 1207p(k).$$

## Parameter estimation

### Example (Emission of alpha particles)

emission counts	number of intervals	expected no. of intervals
0-2	18	12.2
3	28	27.0
4	56	56.5
5	105	94.9
6	126	132.7
7	146	159.1
8	164	166.9
9	161	155.6
10	123	130.6
11	101	99.7
12	74	69.7
13	53	45.0
14	23	27.0
15	15	15.1
16	9	7.9



From examining above table, our model seems to agree quite well with the data.

Ideally we'd like to quantify precisely "how well" the model fits. There might be a slightly different model that fits better?!

We will see measures for the "goodness of fit" of a model later on.

## Parameter estimation. Setup

Let us think about previous examples from more abstract point of view. Have observations

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$$

(e.g. number of emissions in certain time interval, whether or not caught fish is red, political opinion of voter, etc.)

which we regard as observed values of some random variables

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n.$$

## Parameter estimation. Setup

In general,  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are not simple random draws from finite population. They could be

- ▶ i.i.d.  $\sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$ ,
- ▶ i.i.d.  $\sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ ,
- ▶ i.i.d.  $\sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ ,
- ▶ generated by simple random sampling from specific population of  $N$  individuals with characteristics  $x_1, \dots, x_N$ ,
- ▶ generated by sampling with replacement,
- ▶ etc.

We will focus on models where common distribution  $\mathbb{P}_\theta$  of  $X_i$  depends on some parameter, generically called  $\theta > 0$ .  
(These are so-called *parametric models*.)

## Parameter estimation. Setup

Having observed data  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , what can we infer about  $\theta$ ?  
Would like to make statements about which values of  $\theta$  are plausible, based on  $x$ .

Assume that

- ▶ distribution of  $X$  is known up to some parameter  $\theta$   
(e.g. distribution of  $X$  could be exponential with parameter  $\theta$ ).
- ▶ we have observed data  $x$  that we use to
  - ▶ construct a point estimate  $\hat{\theta}$  of the value of  $\theta$ ,
  - ▶ construct a confidence interval of (plausible) values for  $\theta$ ,
  - ▶ test a hypothesis about  $\theta$ .

Instead of “guessing” an estimator for  $\theta$  as in the previous examples, we would like to have a more principled approach.

### Remark

Notice that in general  $\theta$  may not be a single real number, but could be an element of a more abstract set  $\Theta$  (*=parameter space*).

E.g.  $\mathbb{P}_{\mu, \sigma^2} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , with  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$ .

## Parameter estimation. Method of moments

Random variable  $X$  has  $k$ -th moment (provided it exists)

$$\mu_k := \mathbb{E}[X^k].$$

Our goal will be to express  $\theta$  in terms of the moments of  $X_1$  of lowest possible order.

We will then use the  $k$ -th sample moment

$$\hat{\mu}_k := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^k$$

as an estimator for  $\mu_k$ , and thereby find an estimator for  $\theta$ .

Once we have an estimator for  $\theta$ , we will be interested in its accuracy (standard error), and, more generally, in studying its distribution, the so-called *sampling distribution*.

## Parameter estimation. Method of moments

### Example (Capture-recapture)

$$X_i := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{ith fish in sample has red mark} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$X_1, \dots, X_n$  is SRS from population of fishes

We are interested in parameter  $\theta = N$ . From

$$\mu_1 = \mathbb{E}[X_1] = \frac{r}{N},$$

we find  $N = r/\mu_1$ . Using  $\hat{\mu}_1 = \bar{X} = k/n$  as estimator for  $\mu$ , we find

$$\hat{N} = \frac{r}{\bar{X}} = r \frac{n}{k}$$

as estimator for  $N$ .

This is the so-called *method of moments estimator* for  $N$ .

# Parameter estimation. Method of moments

## Example

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

Interested in parameter  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2) = (\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

$$\mu_1 = \mu, \quad \mu_2 = \text{Var}(X_1) + \mathbb{E}[X_1]^2 = \sigma^2 + \mu^2,$$

thus

$$\theta_1 = \mu_1, \quad \theta_2 = \mu_2 - \mu^2$$

and substituting sample moments, we obtain the estimators

$$\hat{\theta}_1 = \hat{\mu}_1 = \bar{X}, \quad \hat{\theta}_2 = \hat{\mu}_2 - \hat{\mu}_1^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2.$$

We know:  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ .

We will now see that  $\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2$  are independent, and  $n\hat{\theta}_2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$ .

# Parameter estimation. Method of moments

## Example

In order to study sampling distribution of estimator

$$\hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

need some results on distributions derived from the normal.



## Review: Gamma distribution.

$G$  has  $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$  distribution, if its probability density is given by

$$f_G(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{(\lambda t)^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} & \text{if } t \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

and moments

$$\mathbb{E}[G^k] = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + k)}{\Gamma(\alpha) \lambda^k}.$$

For integer  $\alpha$  can interpret  $G$  as waiting time until we see first event in Poisson Process of intensity  $\lambda$ .

If  $G_1 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1, \lambda)$ ,  $G_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_2, \lambda)$  are independent, then

$$G_1 + G_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \lambda).$$

## Review: chi squared distribution

Recall:

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  i.i.d. standard normals.

$$X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_n^2 \sim \text{Gamma}\left(\frac{n}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \chi_n^2$$

*chi squared distribution with  $n$  degrees of freedom (df).*

Aside: distributions derived from normal

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

An important result states that

$\bar{X}$  and  $(X_1 - \bar{X}, X_2 - \bar{X}, \dots, X_n - \bar{X})$  are independent.<sup>1</sup>

This immediately implies that sample mean  $\bar{X}$  and sample variance

$$S^2 := \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

are independent.

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<sup>1</sup>We will not prove this result in STAT 135.

# Moment generating function

The *moment generating function (MGF)*  $M_X(t)$  of r.v.  $X$  is defined as

$$M_X(t) := \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}],$$

if this mean exists.

## Fact

*If the MGF of  $X$  exists in an open interval containing 0, it uniquely determines the probability distribution of  $X$ .*

## Example (MGF Gamma distribution)

$G \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} M_G(t) &= \mathbb{E}[e^{tG}] = \int_0^\infty e^{ts} f_G(s) ds = \frac{\lambda^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty e^{ts} s^{\alpha-1} \lambda e^{-\lambda s} ds \\ &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty s^{\alpha-1} e^{-(\lambda-t)s} ds = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{(\lambda-t)^\alpha} = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}\right)^\alpha. \end{aligned}$$

# Moment generating function

## Fact

*Suppose r.v.s  $X, Y$  are independent and their MGFs exist on open interval containing 0. Then*

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t)M_Y(t)$$

*on the common interval where both  $M_X$  and  $M_Y$  exist.*

The proof is straightforward.

## Aside: distributions derived from normal

We now have the tools to derive an important result about the distribution of the sample variance  $S^2$ .

### Theorem

For  $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,

$$(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2.$$

### Remark

From this theorem we get the previous claim for the distribution of the rescaled sample

$$n\hat{\theta}_2^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2,$$

where

$$n\hat{\theta}_2^2/\sigma^2 = n\hat{\sigma}^2/\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2.$$

## Aside: distributions derived from normal

Proof.

Let us replace  $\bar{X}$  in  $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$  by  $\mu$ .

$$\begin{aligned} L &:= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X} + \bar{X} - \mu)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2/\sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that RHS is sum of independent r.v.s



## Aside: distributions derived from normal

Proof.

$$L = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2 / \sigma^2.$$

Letting  $R := n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2 / \sigma^2 = (\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}})^2$ , we have

$$M_L(t) = M_{(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2} M_R(t),$$

hence

$$M_{(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2}(t) = \frac{M_L(t)}{M_R(t)} = \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} - t}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} / \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} - t}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} - t}\right)^{\frac{n-1}{2}},$$

hence  $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$ .

We used here  $M_X(t) = \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} - t}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}$  for  $X \sim \chi_n^2$ . □



# Parameter estimation

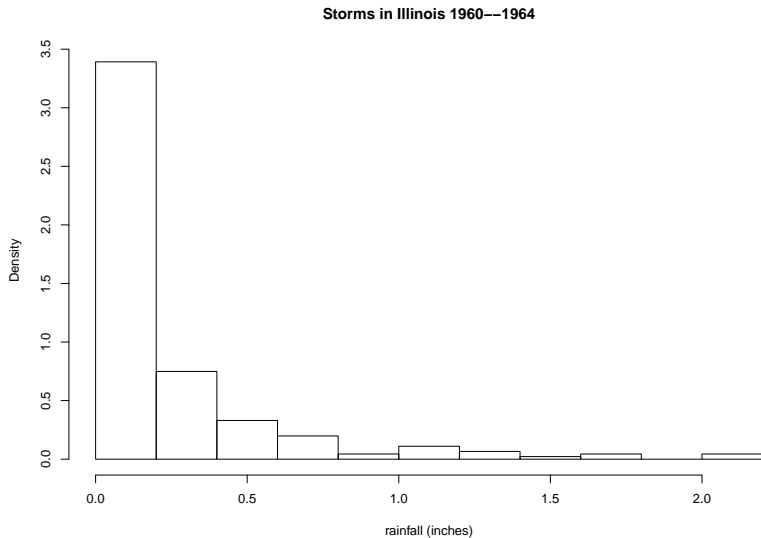


Figure: Precipitation in 227 Illinois storms.

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Illinois storms)

Would like to fit a probability distribution to the data. Since histogram is skewed, try to fit a gamma distribution.

Find parameters of gamma distribution via method of moments.

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Illinois storms)

Recall:  $G \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$  has moments

$$\mathbb{E}[G^k] = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + k)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\lambda^k},$$

hence (since  $\Gamma(x + 1) = x\Gamma(x)$ )

$$\mu_1 = \mathbb{E}[G] = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + 1)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\lambda} = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda},$$

$$\mu_2 = \mathbb{E}[G^2] = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + 2)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\lambda^2} = \frac{(\alpha + 1)\alpha}{\lambda^2} = \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\lambda^2},$$

and solving for  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$ , we have  $\mu_2 = \mu_1^2 + \mu_1/\lambda$ , hence

$$\lambda = \frac{\mu_1}{\mu_2 - \mu_1^2} = \frac{\mu_1}{\sigma^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = \lambda\mu_1 = \frac{\mu_1^2}{\sigma^2}.$$

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Illinois storms)

$$\lambda = \frac{\mu_1}{\mu_2 - \mu_1^2} = \frac{\mu_1}{\sigma^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = \lambda\mu_1 = \frac{\mu_1^2}{\sigma^2}$$

Substituting sample moments for population moments we obtain the method of moments estimators

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{\bar{X}}{\hat{\sigma}^2} \quad \hat{\alpha} = \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\hat{\sigma}^2}.$$

[show R script]

From data we find  $\bar{X} = 0.224$ ,  $\hat{\sigma} = 0.366$ , hence

$$\hat{\lambda} = 1.672 \quad \hat{\alpha} = 0.374.$$

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Illinois storms)

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{\bar{X}}{\hat{\sigma}^2} \quad \hat{\alpha} = \frac{\bar{X}^2}{\hat{\sigma}^2}$$

Studying sampling distributions of  $\hat{\lambda}$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  analytically (even working out standard errors) seems hopeless, as they are complicated functions of the observations.

Luckily, can still study sampling distribution with so-called (*parametric*) *bootstrap*, a versatile simulation method, thanks to computers.

# Bootstrap

## Example (Illinois storms)

Idea: Suppose we knew true values of  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$ , let's call them  $\alpha_0$  and  $\lambda_0$ .

Could then simulate many drawings of samples,  $i = 1, \dots, 1000$  say,

$$X_1^{(i)}, X_2^{(i)}, \dots, X_n^{(i)} \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_0, \lambda_0)$$

of size  $n = 227$  and compute estimator  $\hat{\alpha}_i^*$  for each of them.

Histogram of the  $\hat{\alpha}_i^*$  should then be a good approximation of the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\alpha}_{\text{MoM}}$ .

# Bootstrap

## Example (Illinois storms)

Consequently, standard error

$$s_{\hat{\alpha}} := \sqrt{\frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B (\alpha_{\text{MoM},i}^* - \bar{\alpha})^2}, \quad \left( \bar{\alpha} := \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \alpha_{\text{MoM},i}^* \right)$$

of (simulated) estimators  $\hat{\alpha}_1^*, \hat{\alpha}_2^*, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_B^*$  should be good approximation of standard error of  $\hat{\alpha}$ .

Problem: We don't know true values  $\alpha_0, \lambda_0$ .

# Bootstrap

## Example (Illinois storms)

However, since we don't know  $\alpha_0$  nor  $\lambda_0$ , we use their method of moments estimates instead.

[show histogram and standard deviation of  $\alpha_i^*$  in R]



## Maximum likelihood estimator

# Maximum likelihood estimators. Setup

Assume data to be observations of r.v.s

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n.$$

Additionally, assume joint distribution  $\mathbb{P}_\theta$  of  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  has probability density  $f$ .

Given observations  $X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n$  let

$$\text{lik}(\theta) := f(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta)$$

denote the *likelihood* of  $\theta$ .

Think of  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  as being fixed, and of  $\theta$  as varying.

We ask: what is the most likely value for  $\theta$ , given the observed data?

# Maximum likelihood estimators.

## Definition

The value  $\hat{\theta}$  that maximizes the likelihood function, i.e.

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \text{lik}(\theta)$$

is called the *maximum likelihood estimate (MLE)* for  $\theta$ .

# Maximum likelihood estimators.

## Example (Proportion of defectives)

We know that a proportion  $p$  of products from a certain manufacturer are defective, but we don't know the value of  $p$ .

We independently sample  $n = 100$  of the manufacturer's products and find  $S_n = 37$  of them to be defective.

What is your “best” guess for  $p$ ?

# Maximum likelihood estimators.

## Example (Proportion of defectives)

Now, let's find the MLE for  $p$ . Let

$$X_i := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i\text{th product is defective} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(p)$$

We find for the likelihood function

$$\text{lik}(p) = f(X_1, \dots, X_n | p) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{X_i} (1-p)^{1-X_i} = p^{S_n} (1-p)^{n-S_n},$$

where  $S_n := \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ .

# Maximum likelihood estimators.

## Example (Proportion of defectives)

likelihood function

$$\text{lik}(p) = p^{S_n} (1 - p)^{n - S_n}$$

The log likelihood function is

$$l(p) = \log \text{lik}(p) = S_n \log p + (n - S_n) \log(1 - p),$$

and its derivative

$$\frac{d}{dp} l(p) = \frac{S_n}{p} - \frac{n - S_n}{1 - p}$$

has root

$$\hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} S_n = \bar{X},$$

the MLE for  $p$ .

[Ex: Show that  $S_n/n$  is also the method of moments estimator for  $p$ .]

# Maximum likelihood estimators.

Suppose that  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is an estimator of  $\theta$  based on a sample of size  $n$ . The sequence  $(\hat{\theta}_n)$  of estimators is called *consistent*, if we have convergence

$$\theta_n \rightarrow \theta$$

(we are not specific about mode of convergence here: could be in probability, or distribution).

## Example (Proportion of defectives)

Law of Large numbers implies

$$\hat{p} = \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X_1] = p$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , thus  $\hat{p} = \hat{p}_n$  (really the sequence  $(\hat{p}_n)$ ) is a consistent estimator for  $p$ .

# Maximum likelihood estimators.

## Example (MLE of normal distribution)

$$X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)^2$$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n | \mu, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

To find the maximum of the likelihood function it is often convenient to maximize the *log likelihood function*

$$\begin{aligned} l(\mu, \sigma) &:= \log \text{lik}(\mu, \sigma) = n \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 \\ &= n \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} - n \log \sigma - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 \end{aligned}$$

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<sup>2</sup>Here we have  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$ .



# Maximum likelihood estimators.

## Example (MLE of normal distribution)

$$l(\mu, \sigma) = n \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} - n \log \sigma - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2$$

Solving for roots of partial derivatives we obtain

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} l(\mu, \sigma) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) \rightsquigarrow \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i = \bar{X}$$

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} l(\mu, \sigma) = -\frac{n}{\sigma} + \sigma^{-3} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 \rightsquigarrow \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

as MLEs for  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . Know sampling distribution of  $\bar{X}$  if  $\sigma^2$  is known.

## Bayesian estimators

# Conditional densities.

## Example (Bayesian inference)

Often in medical problems it is assumed that a drug is effective with some (unknown) probability  $\Pi$  in each treatment, independently across treatments.

One challenge is to estimate (“learn”) effectiveness  $\Pi$  of a drug from the results of  $n$  treatments.

If we have no prior knowledge about  $\Pi$ , seems reasonable to assume it is a random number distributed uniformly on  $[0, 1]$ . [In Bayesian jargon, this is called the *uninformative prior*.]

$$X := \# \text{ effective treatments}^3$$

Goal: “Update” distribution of  $\Pi$  given the observed number of effective treatments  $X$ .

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<sup>3</sup>What is your guess for the distribution of  $X$ ?

# Conditional densities.

## Example (Bayesian inference)

More formally, we want to find conditional distribution

$$f_{\Pi}(p|X = x)$$

of effectiveness given  $X = x$  effective treatments.

Maybe we can find joint density of  $(\Pi, X)$  first?

From the setup of the experiment

$$f_X(x|\Pi = p) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad (0 \leq x \leq n)$$

hence, joint density of  $(\Pi, X)$  is

$$f(p, x) = f_X(x|\Pi = p)f_{\Pi}(p) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}.$$

for  $0 \leq p \leq 1, 0 \leq x \leq n$ , since  $\Pi \sim U(0, 1)$ .

## Conditional densities.

### Example (Bayesian inference)

For  $a, b > 0$  the distribution on  $(0, 1)$  with density

$$\frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1}, \quad 0 < x < 1$$

is called the *beta(a, b) distribution*. Notice that this implies

$$\int_0^1 x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx = \frac{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \int_0^1 f(p, x) dp = \binom{n}{x} \int_0^1 p^x (1-p)^{n-x} dp \\ &= \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \frac{\Gamma(x+1)\Gamma(n-x+1)}{\Gamma(n+2)} = \frac{1}{n+1}, \end{aligned}$$

i.e. the number of effective treatments has uniform distribution.

## Conditional densities.

### Example (Bayesian inference)

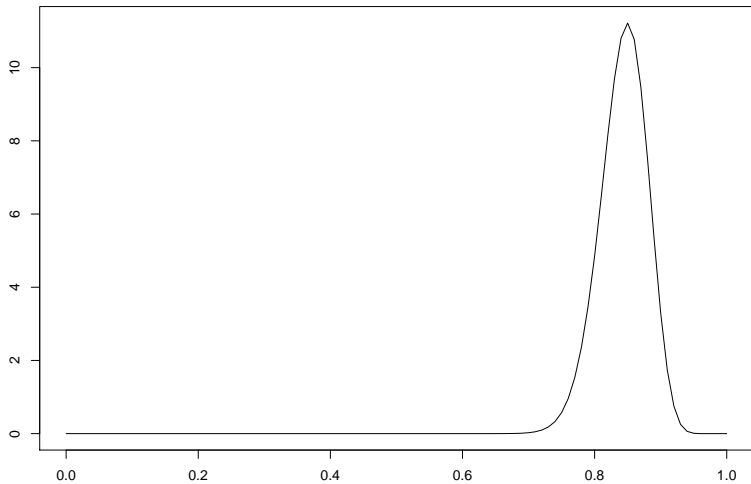
For the density of the “updated effectiveness” we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\Pi}(p|X = x) &= \frac{f(p, x)}{f_X(x)} = (n + 1) \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(n + 2)}{\Gamma(x + 1) \Gamma(n - x + 1)} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}, \end{aligned}$$

the density of a  $\text{beta}(x + 1, n - x + 1)$  distribution.

$X = 85$  out of  $n = 100$  treatments are found to be effective.  
Given this observation, we update our prior distribution to  
 $(\Pi|X = 85) \sim \text{beta}(86, 16)$ , the so-called *posterior distribution*.

**beta(86, 16) density**



# Conditional densities.

## Example (Bayesian inference)

Posterior distribution:

$$(\Pi|X = x) \sim \text{beta}(x + 1, n - x + 1)$$

A natural estimator for the effectiveness  $\Pi$  given that out of  $n$  treatments  $X = x$  where effective, is the mean of the posterior distribution<sup>4</sup>

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\Pi|X = x] &= \int_0^1 t \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(x+1)\Gamma(n-x+1)} t^x (1-t)^{n-x} dt \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(x+1)\Gamma(n-x+1)} \frac{\Gamma(x+2)\Gamma(n-x+1)}{\Gamma(n+3)} = \frac{x+1}{n+2}\end{aligned}$$

This is called the *posterior mean* for  $\Pi$ .

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<sup>4</sup>Or the mode.



**More examples**

# Parameter estimation

Following example appears in different disguises in science, medicine, engineering, etc. We consider settings where observations can be assigned to different categories (categorical data).

## Example (Emergency room)

Emergency room of large hospital assigns patients to one of three categories:

1. Stable. No immediate treatment required.
2. Serious. Immediate treatment not required, but patient needs to be monitored until physician available.
3. Critical. Patient's life endangered without immediate treatment.

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Emergency room)

Hospital records over past week show that

- ▶ 300 patients were classified as stable,
- ▶ 180 patients classified serious,
- ▶ 120 patients classified critical,

To ensure optimal organization, administration needs to estimate long-run frequency  $p_i$  of patients that are classified in category  $i$ .

Find estimators for  $p_1, p_2, p_3$ .

(Make a guess before we proceed formally!)

## Parameter estimation

**Review: multinomial distribution.** Think of  $n$  different marbles that we paint in  $c$  different colors. We paint marbles independently one after the other, with

$$\mathbb{P}\{\text{a particular marble is painted in color } i\} = p_i$$

( $\sum_i p_i = 1, p_i \geq 0$ ). Let

$$X_i := \# \text{ marbles of color } i.$$

Then<sup>5</sup>

$$\mathbb{P}\{X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_c = x_c\} = \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_n} \prod_{i=1}^c p_i^{x_i}$$

if  $\sum_i x_i = n$  and  $= 0$  otherwise. The vector  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  has a *multinomial distribution* with parameters  $(n, p_1, \dots, p_c)$  denoted

$$(X_1, \dots, X_c) \sim \text{multinomial}(n, p_1, \dots, p_c).$$

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<sup>5</sup> $\binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_c} = n!/(x_1!x_2! \cdots x_c!)$  is the multinomial coefficient.

## Parameter estimation

Let us work out the MLE for  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_c$ .

Notice that  $(X_1, \dots, X_c)$  are not i.i.d.

Want to maximize log likelihood

$$\begin{aligned}l(p_1, \dots, p_c) &= \log f(x_1, \dots, x_c | p_1, \dots, p_c) \\&= \log \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_c} \prod_{i=1}^c p_i^{x_i} \\&= \log n! - \sum_{i=1}^c \log x_i! + \sum_{i=1}^c x_i \log p_i\end{aligned}$$

subject to  $p_1 + p_2 + \dots + p_c = 1$ .

Maximize instead

$$L(p_1, \dots, p_c; \lambda) = \log n! - \sum_{i=1}^c \log x_i! + \sum_{i=1}^c x_i \log p_i + \lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^c p_i - 1 \right).$$

## Parameter estimation

Maximize instead

$$L(p_1, \dots, p_c; \lambda) = \log n! - \sum_{i=1}^c \log x_i! + \sum_{i=1}^c x_i \log p_i + \lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^c p_i - 1 \right).$$

For any  $j = 1, \dots, c$  the partial derivative

$$\frac{d}{dp_j} L = \frac{x_j}{p_j} + \lambda$$

has root

$$\hat{p}_j = -\frac{x_j}{\lambda},$$

and summing both sides w.r.t.  $j$  we obtain

$$1 = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{j=1}^c x_j = -\frac{n}{\lambda} \text{ hence } \lambda = -n.$$

where we used the constraint  $\sum_j \hat{p}_j = 1$ . MLE  $\hat{p}_j = \frac{x_j}{n}$ .

What can we say about the sampling distribution of  $\hat{p}_j$ ?

# Parameter estimation

## Example (Emergency room)

Recall hospital records:

- ▶ 300 patients were classified as stable,
- ▶ 180 patients classified serious,
- ▶ 120 patients classified critical.

Find MLEs

$$\hat{p}_1 = \frac{300}{600} = 50\% \quad \hat{p}_2 = \frac{180}{600} = 30\% \quad \hat{p}_3 = \frac{120}{600} = 20\%.$$

Ex: Work out the method of moments estimator for  $p_i$ .