

# STATISTICAL INFERENCE

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## CONTENTS

1. Statistical inference and maximum likelihood	1
1.1. MLE, bias and consistency	1
1.2. Standard errors	2
2. Inference for a Normal distribution	2
3. Hypothesis testing	2

## 1. STATISTICAL INFERENCE AND MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD

Let's imagine we do in fact conduct a survey of  $n = 20$  students and find  $k = 17$  students respond YES to the question "do you identify as a male?" Can we make this a little more precise? Remember, any time we draw a conclusion we need a model. What is a model for the number of students who respond yes to the survey. Assuming that the samples are independent, we can treat  $y_i$  as a Bernoulli distribution. Then, the a number of people,  $k$ , who responded saying they are republicans follows a Binomial distribution,

(1) 
$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, q)$$

where  $n$  is the number of students in our survey and  $q$  is a parameter.

Recall that the probability distribution for the binomial distribution is

(2) 
$$p(Y|q) = \binom{n}{Y} q^Y (1 - q)^{n-Y}$$

In statistics, we sometimes call this the **likelihood**. More generally, the likelihood is defined as the probability we say a data set as a function of the parameters.

**1.1. MLE, bias and consistency.** Equation (2) tells us how likely it is to observe  $k$  YES among  $n$  people surveyed. Then, it seems reasonable that this number should not be very small, since that would mean our survey results are an anomaly. More generally, the larger  $\mathbb{P}(Y|q)$  is the more likelihood our results are. This suggests one a way to estimate determine  $q$ : We can take as our estimate  $\hat{q}$  the value which makes  $\mathbb{P}(Y|q)$  largest. In other words, we are finding the value of  $q$  which makes the data the most likely, and we will call this the **maximum likelihood estimate**.

You can do this using calculus (if you know how, I suggest you give it a try) to determine that the value of  $q$  which makes (2) largest is

(3) 
$$\hat{q}_{\text{MLE}} = \frac{Y}{n}$$

MLEs are very useful, but as we learn later on, they are only one of many ways to estimate a parameter in our model. Any number  $\hat{q}$  which we use to approximate the parameter  $q$  is an **estimator**.

There must be some properties we would like the estimator to have. At a minimum, it should be in some way informed by the data (we wouldn't want to set  $\hat{q} = 1/2$  based solely on our intuition). The more data we have (e.g. the larger  $n$ ) the closer we expect  $\hat{q}$  to be to the true value. To make this precise, we define an estimator  $\hat{q}$  to be **consistent** if  $\hat{q}$  converges to  $q$  as  $n$  grows. But what does converges mean when we are dealing with random variables? We can understand this through simulations:

**Example 1.** Plot  $\hat{q}_{\text{MLE}}$  as a function of  $n$  for  $n = 10, 20, 50, 100, 1000, 5000, 10000$ .

**Solution:**

```
> k_range = [5,10,20,50,100,1000,5000,10000]
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.binomial(k,0.3)/k + 1/k for k in k_range], "+")
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.binomial(k,0.3)/k + 1/k for k in k_range], "+")
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.binomial(k,0.3)/k + 1/k for k in k_range], "+")
```

To better understand the notation of consistence, let's consider two rather silly ways to estimate  $q$ . Let  $\hat{q}_1$  and  $\hat{q}_2$  be two other estimators of  $q$  defined by

$$(4) \quad \hat{q}_1 = \frac{k}{n} + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$(5) \quad \hat{q}_2 = y_i$$

**Exercise 1.** *Are these consistent or not? Generate simulations to support your result.*

**Solution:**

```
> k_range = [5,10,20,50,100,1000,5000,10000]
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.choice([0,1],p = [1-0.3,0.3]) for k in k_range], "+")
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.choice([0,1],p = [1-0.3,0.3]) for k in k_range], "+")
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.choice([0,1],p = [1-0.3,0.3]) for k in k_range], "+")
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.binomial(k,0.3)/k + 1/k for k in k_range], "o")
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.binomial(k,0.3)/k + 1/k for k in k_range], "o")
> plt.plot(k_range, [np.random.binomial(k,0.3)/k + 1/k for k in k_range], "o")
```

This exercise demonstrates that consistency is not the only property we look for in an estimator, since  $\hat{q}_1$  seems inferior to  $\hat{q}_{\text{MLE}}$ . To this end, we say that an estimator is biased if an estimator is, on average, equal to the value of  $q$  used to generate the data. In other words, if we run many simulations, or take many different samples from a population and compute the estimator, then we should get the true value of  $q$ .

**Exercise 2.** *Determine whether  $\hat{q}_1$  and  $\hat{q}_2$  are biased using simulations.*

**1.2. Standard errors.** At this point, you understand that  $\hat{q}_{\text{MLE}}$ , like all estimators, depends on the data we collect. If we had collected different data, e.g. surveyed a different class, we would get a different  $\hat{q}_{\text{MLE}}$ . How much will  $\hat{q}_{\text{MLE}}$  vary between samples? In classical statistics, we measure accuracy using the standard error, denoted  $\text{se}(\hat{q})$ . Roughly speaking, if we performed many experiments and measured  $\hat{q}$ , the measurements will typically differ by  $\text{se}(\hat{q})$ .

$$(6) \quad \text{se}(\hat{q}) = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{q}(1 - \hat{q})}{n}}$$

**Example 2.** *Run simulations to determine test this formula.*

## 2. INFERENCE FOR A NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

Suppose have  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  from a variable which follows a Normal distribution, that is

$$(7) \quad y_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$$

What is our best estimate of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ ?

from a Normal distribution with mean and variance  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ , the MLE estimators are

$$(8) \quad \hat{\mu}_{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum y_i$$

and

$$(9) \quad \hat{\sigma}_{\text{MLE}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum (y_i - \hat{\mu})^2}$$

**Exercise 3.** *Show with simulations that these are consistent and unbiased.*

# STATISTICAL INFERENCE

3

## 3. HYPOTHESIS TESTING

In statistics, we often infer parameters, such as  $q$ , not because we are interested in specific values, but rather because we would like to use them to make a decision. For example, whether a candidate drug is worth moving to the next step in clinical trials. Or perhaps whether there is gender bias in a given class or field. This problem is often framed in terms of **hypothesis testing**, in which we assign a probability to a particular hypothesis or its converse. In the context of a Bernoulli random variable, we might want to decide whether we can rule out  $q = q_0 < 1/2$  – that is, the samples being fair – given our data. One way to access this is with a  **$p$ -value**. There many ways to define a  $p$ -value, but lets focus on the case where we are interested in understanding whether a drug has an effect. We have a control group whose response is  $y_c$  who is not treated and a treatment group  $y_t$ . We then look at the difference  $Y = y_c - y_t$ . Now uppose that the drug has no effect, then the mean of this should be zero, so testing o see if a drug had an effect essentially amounts to testing if the mean of  $Y$  is not zero – this is our null hypothesis.

For this problem,  $p$ -value is the chance that the actual value

**Exercise 4.** *Estimate the  $p$ -value using Monte Carlo simulations.*

We can understand the  $p$ -value using the Normal approximation to

**Exercise 5.** *Plot the  $p$ -value as a function  $n$ .*