

STATISTICAL INFERENCE

ETHAN LEVIEN

CONTENTS

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 (??) 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 (??) 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}_{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}_{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}_{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}_{MLE} . How much will \hat{q}_{MLE} vary between samples? In classical statistics, we measure accuracy using the standard error, denoted $se(\hat{q})$. Roughly speaking, if we performed many experiments and measured \hat{q} , the measurements will typically differ by $se(\hat{q})$.

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

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 μ and σ ?

from a Normal distribution with mean and variance μ and σ , the MLE estimators are

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

and

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

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

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

STATISTICAL INFERENCE

3

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 suppose that the drug has no effect, then the mean of this should be zero, so testing to 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 .*