

# Week 9 – Unbiased estimation - Efficiency, MSE

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# Last Class-CLT

$X_1, \dots, X_n$  i.i.d.  $E[X_i] = \mu$ ,  $Var[X_i] = \sigma^2$  then:

Sum form:  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$

$$Z_n = \frac{S_n - E[S_n]}{\sqrt{Var[S_n]}} = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} N(0, 1)$$

Sample mean form:  $\overline{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$

$$Z_n = \frac{\overline{X}_n - E[\overline{X}_n]}{\sqrt{Var[\overline{X}_n]}} = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} N(0, 1)$$

The symbol  $\xrightarrow{D}$  denotes convergence in distribution. It means that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  the cumulative distribution function of  $Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma}$  gets closer and closer to the cdf of a standard normal.

Formally, if  $F_n(x) = F_{Z_n}(x)$  denotes the cdf of  $Z_n$ , then  $F_n(x) \rightarrow \Phi(x)$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , where  $\Phi(x)$  is the cdf of a  $N(0, 1)$  RV.

# Last Class-Basic statistical model

- Want to learn characteristics of a population:
  - Income of Los Angeles residents
  - Blood pressure of patients from LA county hospital
  - Vaping among teenagers in California
  - Genotypes at a gene among individuals with Hispanic ancestry
- We model the distribution of the characteristic as a random variable  $X$  (e.g. height, blood pressure, vaping (yes vs. no), Genotypes (0,1,2))
- To learn about  $X$  we collect a random sample:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  from  $F_X(x)$ , the distribution of  $X$
- $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  have the same probability distribution and are mutually independent.
- The distribution  $F_X(x)$  of  $X_i$  is unknown or only partially known.
- E.g.  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  with known  $\sigma^2$  but unknown  $\mu$

# Estimation

- We want to learn about a distribution in a population
- e.g. proportion of democrat voters in CA, average blood pressure among covid survivors aged 70+, vaping frequency among young adults in the US, rate of patient ER night admissions in LA county hospitals
- We take a sample of size  $n$  from the population and conceptualize it as a random sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  from a distribution  $F_X(x)$  that is **totally or partially unknown to us**.
- We want to estimate specific characteristics or **parameters** of the underlying distribution:
- true mean  $E[X_i] = \mu$  (e.g. blood pressure)
- the true variance,  $Var[X_i] = \sigma^2$  ( $X_i$  e.g. blood pressure)
- or a probability like  $P(X_i = 1)$  (e.g.  $X_i = 1$  = if democrat voter; 0= if not democrat voter)
- or a rate (e.g. expected number of ER patients per hour) ( $X_i$  = number of patients within a period of 1-hour)

# Estimation

Example 1: To estimate the unknown mean of a population  $\mu$  (e.g. blood pressure)

- Natural to use the sample mean  $\overline{X}_n$  to estimate  $\mu$  because we know that for large  $n$  the sample mean will be close to the true mean.

Example 2. We can model the number of arrivals per hour at an ER unit as a *Poisson*( $\lambda$ ). Suppose we count the arrivals during each on  $n$  (non-overlapping) 1-hour intervals to get the random sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . Here  $\lambda$  is unknown and we want to estimate it.

- A natural estimate is also the sample mean  $\overline{X}_n$  because  $E[X_i] = \lambda$ .
- But using the sample variance  $S_n^2$  is also reasonable because  $Var[X_i] = \lambda$
- Today we'll learn how to choose among different options for estimating a parameter of interest

# Estimator vs. estimate

- Estimate: value  $t$  that only depends on the dataset  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , i.e.,  $t$  is some function of the dataset  $t = h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ . Example:  $t = \overline{x_n} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n}$
- *An estimate is a number (or a vector of numbers in more complex problems)*
- Estimator: Let  $t = h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  be an estimate based on the dataset  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . Then  $t$  is a realization of the random variable  $T = h(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ . The random variable  $T$  is called an estimator.
- *An estimator is a random variable*
- *An estimate is a realization of random variable*

# Sampling distribution

Example: estimating the proportion  $p$  of LA teenagers that vape from a sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ ,  $X_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ .

- $X_i$  records whether the teenager vapes (yes=1 vs. no=0)
- The sample proportion  $\hat{p}_n = \frac{S_n}{n}$  of vapers is a natural estimator of  $p$  ( $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$  is the total number of vapers in the sample), because by the LLN  $\hat{p} \rightarrow p$
- The sampling distribution is just the standard distribution (pdf, pmf, cdf) of the random variable we call the estimator.
- For example of vapers, the sampling distribution of  $\hat{p}$  is the distribution of the random variable  $\hat{p}_n = \frac{S_n}{n}$

# Sampling distribution of the sample proportion

Simulating one study:  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$

```
set.seed(2023)
n = 200 # sample size
p = 0.35 # True population frequency (eg. vaping among teenagers)
X = rbinom(n, size = 1, prob=p)
mean(X)
```

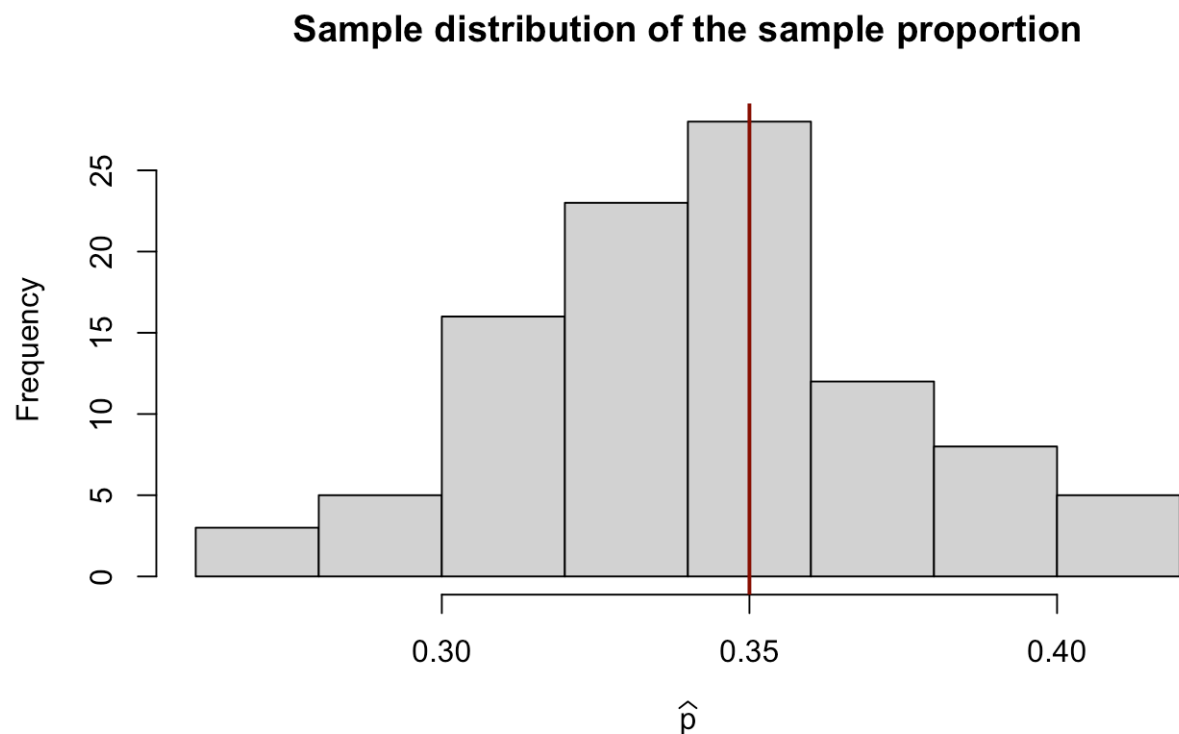
```
## [1] 0.37
```



# Sampling distribution of the sample proportion

Simulating MULTIPLE studies

```
for (i in 1:nsims){  
  X = rbinom(n, size = 1, prob=p)  
  p_hat[i] = mean(X)  
}
```



# Sampling distribution of the sample mean

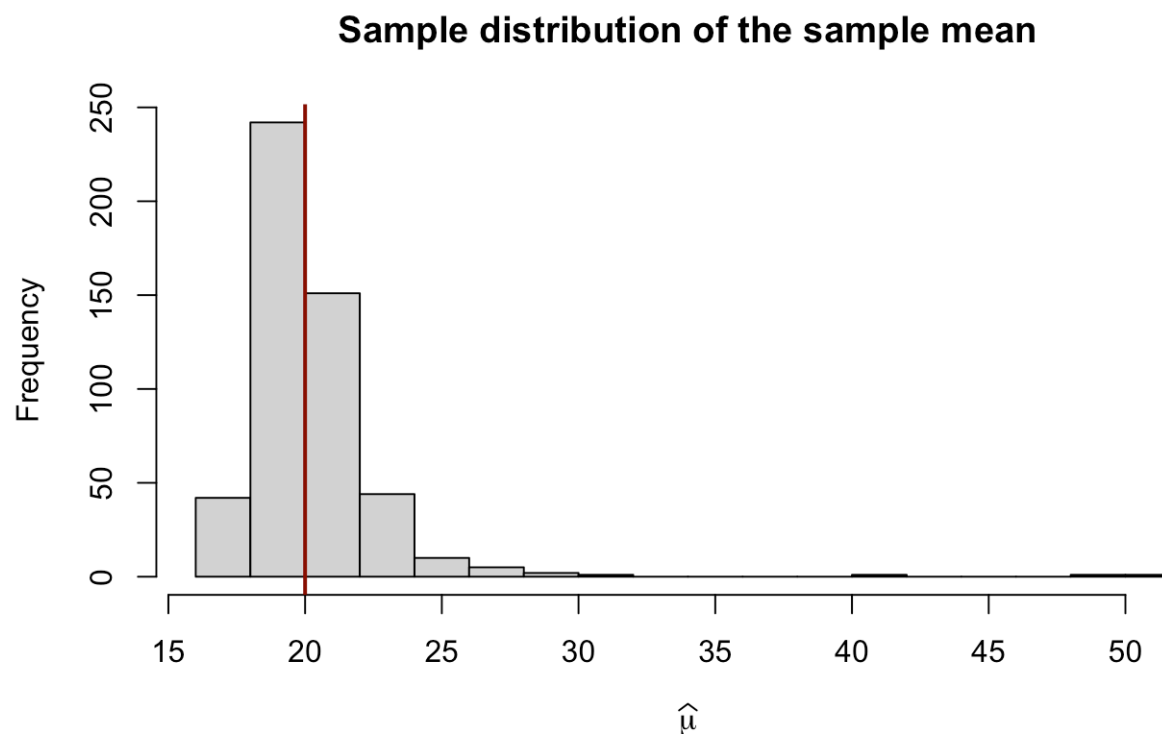
Simulating one study:  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Pareto}(x_m, \alpha)$

```
library(EnvStats)
set.seed(2023)
n = 200 # sample size
loc = 10; alpha = 2 #E[X_i=20] e.g. income distribution in $1000
X = rpareto(n, location = loc, shape=alpha)
mean(X)
```

```
## [1] 21.14341
```

# Sampling distribution of the sample mean

```
for (i in 1:nsims){  
  X = rpareto(n, location = loc, shape=alpha)  
  mu_hat[i] = mean(X)  
}
```



# Unbiased Estimators

$X_1, \dots, X_n$  a random sample from distribution  $F(x|\theta)$ , and  $\theta$  a parameter of interest about  $F$  (e.g. mean)

- An estimator  $T$  of a parameter  $\theta$  is unbiased if  $E[T] = \theta$
- An unbiased estimator has no systematic tendency to produce estimates that are larger than or smaller than the target parameter  $\theta$
- The difference  $E[T] - \theta$  is called the bias of the estimator  $T$
- If  $\text{bias} \neq 0$  the estimator is called biased

# Sample Mean and sample variance

- $X_1, \dots, X_n$  a random sample with mean  $E[X_i] = \mu$  and  $Var[X_i] = \sigma^2$
- The sample variance  $\overline{X_n}$  is an unbiased estimator of the population mean  $\mu$ .

$$E[\overline{X_n}] = \mu$$

- The sample mean  $S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2$  is an unbiased estimator of the population variance  $\sigma^2$

$$E[S_n^2] = \sigma^2$$

# Unbiasedness is not preserved under general transformations

- In general, if  $T$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ ,  $g(T)$  is not an unbiased estimate of  $g(\theta)$
- Example:

$\bar{X}_n$  is unbiased for  $E[X_i] = \mu$

But  $\bar{X}_n^2$  is not unbiased for  $E[X_i]^2 = \mu^2$ , Because by Jensen's inequality  $E[\bar{X}_n^2] > E[\bar{X}_n]^2 = \mu^2$

- Jensen's inequality: if  $g(t)$  is a convex function, then  $E[g(T)] \geq g(E[T])$ . Equality holds only if  $g(x) = at + b$
- If  $g$  linear  $g(t) = at + b$ ,  $E[g(T)] = E[aT + b] = aE[T] + b = g(E[T])$  so  $g(T)$  is unbiased for  $g(\theta)$ .

# Choosing among unbiased estimators. Example

$$X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} U[0, \theta]$$

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\theta} I_{[0, \theta]}(x)$$

$$E[X_i] = \frac{\theta}{2}, \text{ so } E[\overline{X}_n] = \frac{\theta}{2}$$

Then  $\hat{\theta} = 2\overline{X}_n$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$

Intuitively a natural estimate for theta could also be based on  $T = \max\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$

$$f_T(t) = n \frac{t^{n-1}}{\theta^n} I_{[0, \theta]}(t)$$

$$E[T] = \frac{n}{n+1} \theta \text{ so } \tilde{\theta} = \frac{n+1}{n} T \text{ is an unbiased estimator of } \theta$$

So, both  $\hat{\theta}$  and  $\tilde{\theta}$  are unbiased estimators of  $\theta$ , which one is better?

# Choosing among unbiased estimators-Example.

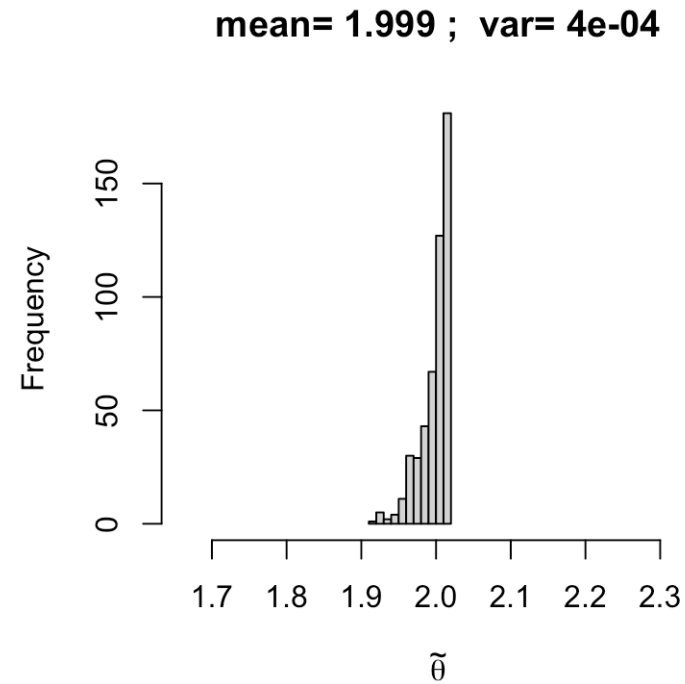
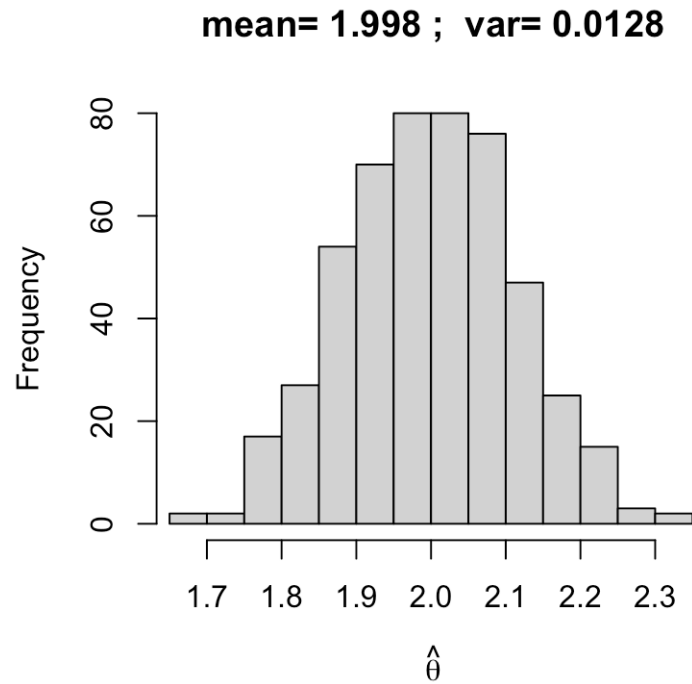
Let's perform a simulation to see how the two estimators behave:

```
set.seed(101)
theta = 2
n = 50
nsims=500
theta_hat = theta_tilde = numeric(nsims)

for (i in 1:nsims){
  x = runif(n=n, max=2)
  theta_hat[i] = 2 * mean(x)
  theta_tilde[i] = ((n+1)/n) * max(x)
}
```



# Choosing among unbiased estimators-Example



# Choosing among unbiased estimators-Example.

- We see empirically that  $\tilde{\theta}$  is much less variable than  $\hat{\theta}$
- But also theoretically,  $Var[\tilde{\theta}] = \frac{\theta^2}{n(n+2)}$  and  $Var[\hat{\theta}] = \frac{\theta^2}{3n}$
- So,  $Var[\tilde{\theta}] < Var[\hat{\theta}]$ , for  $n \geq 2$  and goes much faster to zero!
- Additionally,  $\hat{\theta}$  can take values way over the true  $\theta$
- So,  $\tilde{\theta}$  is a much better estimate of  $\theta$  than  $\hat{\theta}$

# Mean square error

- Although unbiasedness is a desirable property, unbiased estimators do not always exist
- Even when they exist, requiring unbiasedness maybe too stringent (i.e. there can be other good estimators that are biased)
- A general performance of an estimator can be judged by the way it spreads around the parameter to be estimated:

If  $T$  is an estimator for a parameter  $\theta$ , the mean squared error of  $T$  is the number:

$$MSE(T) = E[(T - \theta)^2].$$

- It's easy to show that  $MSE(T) = Var(T) + Bias(T)^2$ , where  $Bias(T) = E[T] - \theta$
- A biased estimator with a small bias could be more useful than an unbiased estimator with a large variance.
- Better to use  $MSE(T)$  to choose between estimators
- When  $Bias(T) = 0$ ,  $MSE(T) = Var(T)$

# Mean square error - example

$$X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\mu)$$

- Two candidate estimators for  $p_0 = P(X_i = 0) = e^{-\mu}$ :

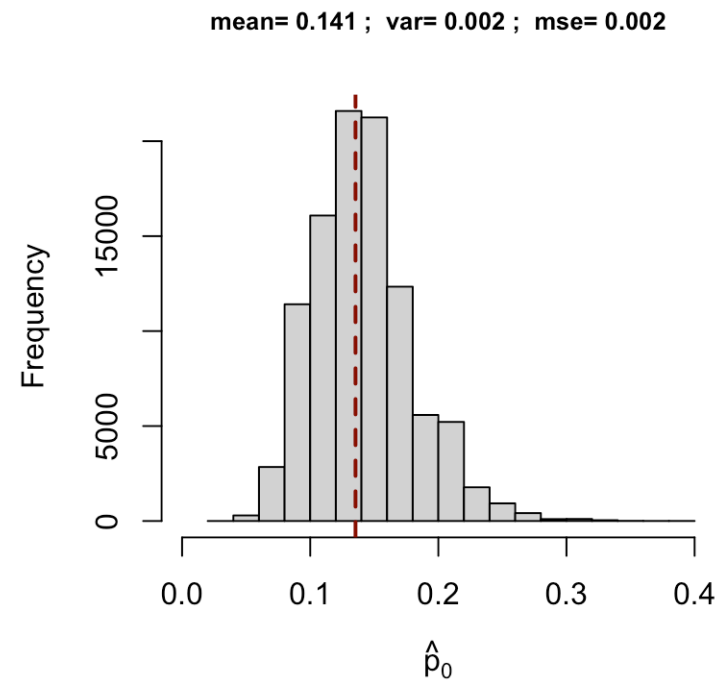
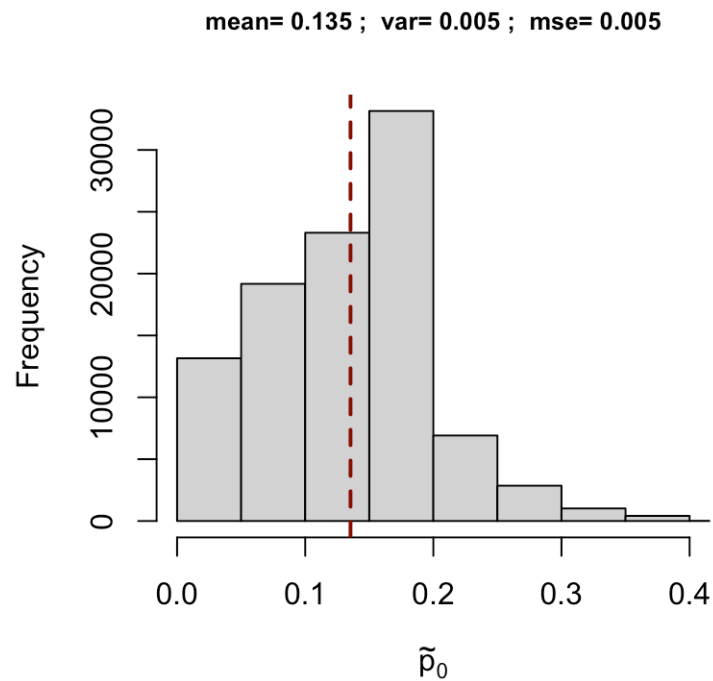
- $\tilde{p}_0 = \frac{\text{number of } X_i=0}{n}$

- $\hat{p}_0 = e^{-\overline{X}_n}$

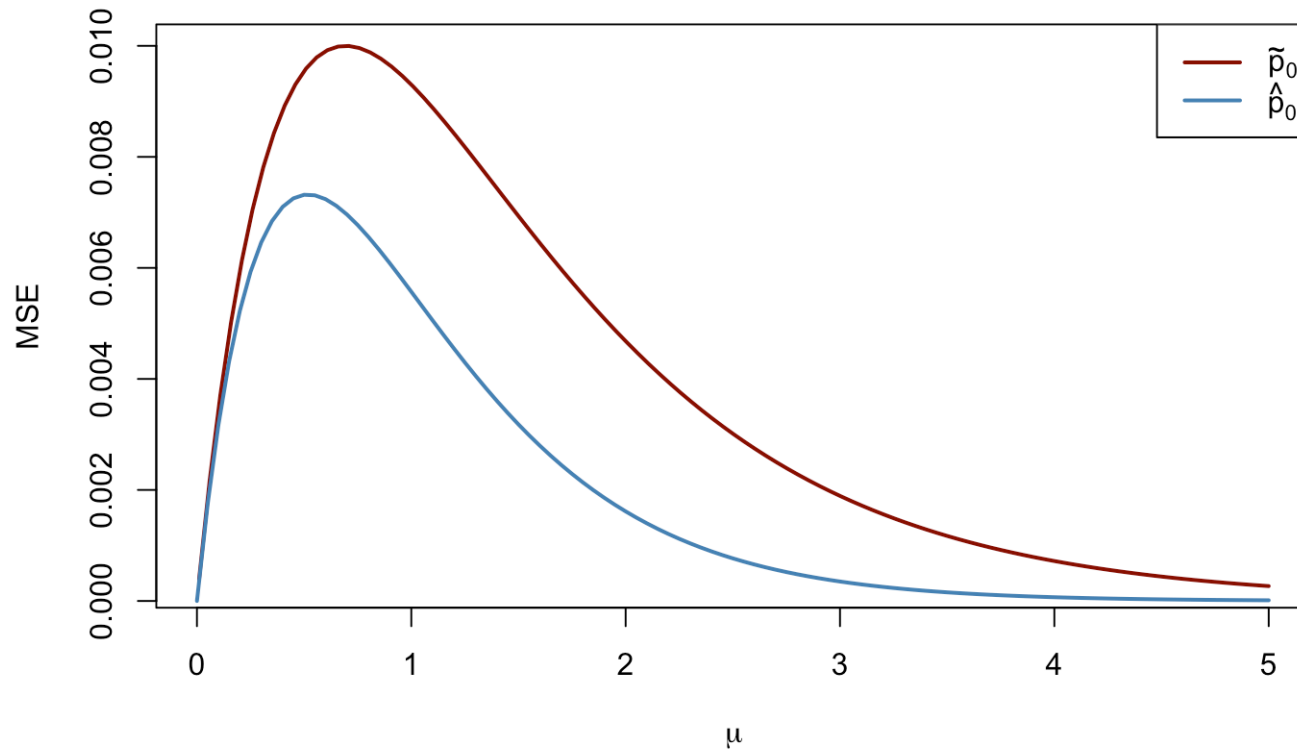
- $\tilde{p}_0$  is unbiased but  $\hat{p}_0$  is not? Which one is better?

# Mean square error - example

- Simulation to see how the two estimators behave
- True  $p_0 = e^{-2} = 0.135$



# Mean square error - example



# Next week

- Read *MIPS Ch 21*