

Topic 3: Estimation

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Outline

1. Transition to Statistics
2. Estimation
3. Assessing the Performance of Estimators

Transition to Statistics



Leadup

- It is finally time for us to begin our transition from **probability** to **statistics!**

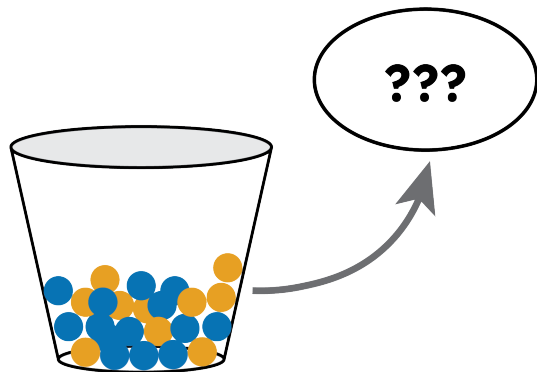


Leadup

- It is finally time for us to begin our transition from **probability** to **statistics**!
- Let's start off with an analogy I posed on the first day of the quarter.

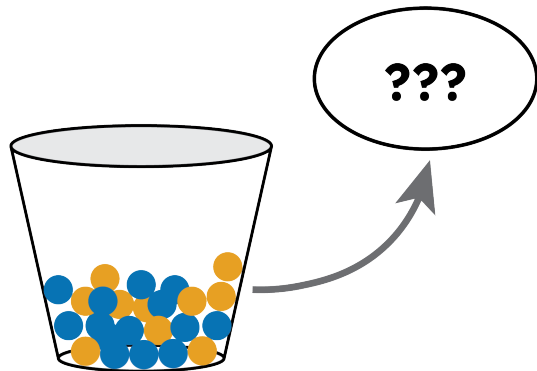


Scenario 1





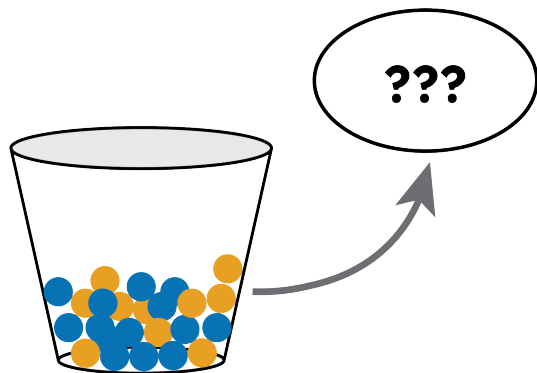
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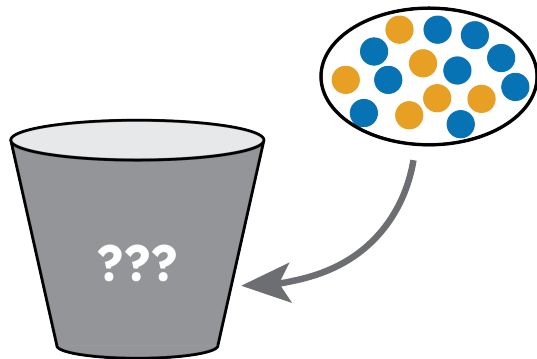
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- We know that a bucket contains some (known) number of blue and gold marbles. From this bucket we take a sample.
- Given our knowledge of what's in the bucket, we want to inform what's in our hand (e.g. number of gold marbles, probability of having more than 3 blue marbles, etc.)

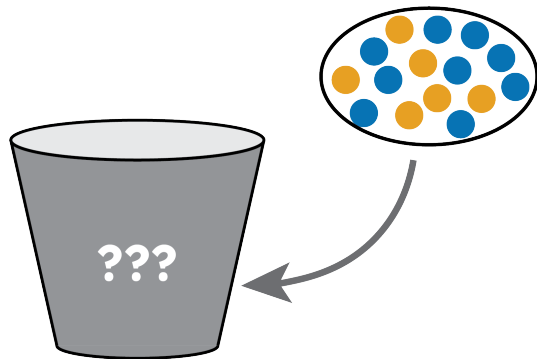


Scenario 2





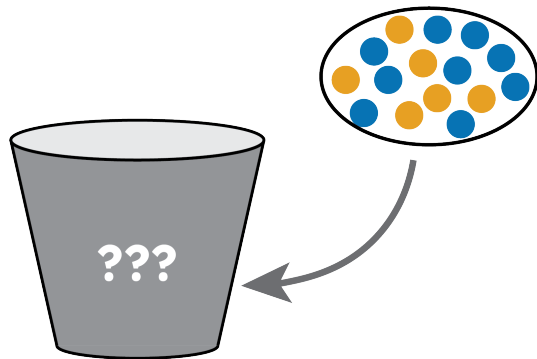
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- We have a sample of blue and gold marbles (and we know how many of each are in our sample), that we know came from a bucket.



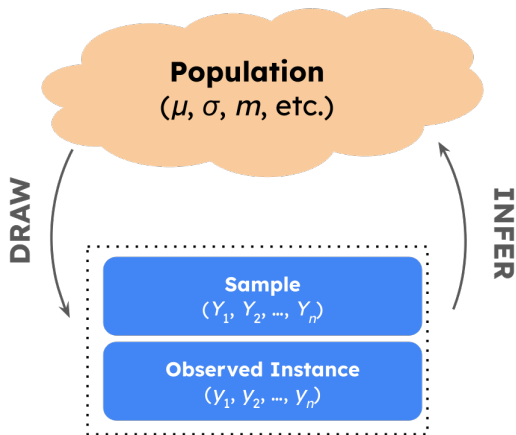
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Cycle





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Determine the true average (mean) commute time (in minutes) of college students.



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- First, note that it is next-to-impossible to compute this quantity exactly. Doing so would require us to survey every single college student in the US, ensure they are reporting accurate commute times, etc.
- A much better strategy would be to take a **random sample** of college students and try to use this sample to make inferences about the true average commute times of college students.



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- Well yes... and no. The commute time *of a randomly-selected person* will clearly be random - it varies from person-to-person!
- But, you're right in that, say, Angela's (or any specific *individual's*) commute time is fixed. (Admittedly, it may vary from day to day, but let's ignore that subtlety for now.)



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- But, once we collect a *specific* sample, we obtain a list of n numbers (commute times), which we can denote as $\vec{y} = \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$. [Note that we are using *lowercase* letters here.]
- I often refer to \vec{y} as an “observed instance” or “realization” of the random vector \vec{Y} .



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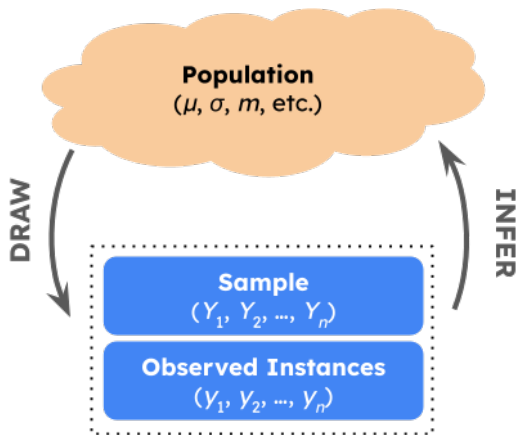
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- **Observed Instance:** $\vec{y} := \{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$, the weights of Kitty, Shiro, Bean, etc.



Back to the Cycle





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- We'll even go a step further and impose a *distributional* assumption on our population, after which we can interpret population parameters as, well, the parameters of the population distribution! (More on that later.)



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- Both of these are examples (or subcases) of **inferential statistics**, where we seek to take a sample and make *inferences* about the population.



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 - To do so, we might collect a random sample of DSH cats, compute their observed sample mean weight, and use this to try and say something about the true value of μ .



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 - To do so, we might collect a random sample of DSH cats, compute their observed sample mean weight, and use this to try and say something about the true value of μ .
 - This is an estimation problem, as our goal is to *estimate* the value of μ .



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 - Here, we don't really care what the *exact* value of μ is; we're just trying to ascertain whether or not it is equal to 6.2.
 - This is an example of hypothesis testing, as we are using our data to try and determine the validity of a given claim about μ (in this case, the claim that $\mu = 6.2$).



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- After that, we'll tackle Hypothesis Testing.

Estimation



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- Note that it is customary to use the letter θ to denote an *arbitrary* population parameter.



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- Again, we use θ to denote an arbitrary parameter.



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- This is a pretty lofty goal as it stands!
- So, to make our lives easier, we are going to make some additional assumptions.
- Specifically, we are going to assume that our random draws from the population follow a predetermined distribution.



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- Or, “suppose the commute time of a randomly-selected person follows an Exponential distribution with mean θ ”
- We also often impose an independence constraint; that is, we’ll assume our sample $\vec{Y} := \{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is a collection of *independent* random variables.
 - In fact, more often than not, we’ll even assume that our sample is i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed)



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Given a population, from which random variables are assumed to follow a distribution \mathcal{F} with parameter θ , we seek to take random samples $\vec{Y} := (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ from this population and use them to estimate the true value of θ .



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- Here, I use \mathcal{F} to denote an arbitrary distribution, with CDF $F()$ and PDF $f()$.



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- Alright, let's establish some intuition.
- In fact, to ground things even more, let's go back to our cat example.
- We assume we have a sample \vec{Y} of randomly-selected cat weights following some distribution \mathcal{F} with some true mean μ , and we seek to estimate μ .
- Since we want to estimate the value of a *population* mean, doesn't it make sense to consider using the *sample* mean as a proxy?



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- If I ask you, based on just this sample along, to give me your best guess for the average weight of all cats in the world, wouldn't you just say 8.42 (i.e. the sample mean weight)?
- So, it seems like however we estimate μ with \vec{Y} , we should somehow use $\bar{Y}_n := n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$, right?



Statistics

Definition (Statistic)

Given a random sample $\vec{Y} = \{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$, a **statistic** T is simply a function of \vec{Y} :

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- Example: sample maximum $Y_{(n)}$



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- Example: we can use the sample mean as an estimator of the population mean: $\hat{\mu}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$
- Example: we can use the sample variance as an estimator of the population variance: $\hat{\sigma}_n^2 := \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y}_n)^2$



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- To find sampling distributions of specific statistics, we will (perhaps unsurprisingly) rely on our techniques from Topic 02 of this course (i.e. our unit on Transformations).



Example

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Suppose the weight (in lbs) of a randomly-selected DSH cat follows a normal distribution with unknown mean μ and known standard deviation $\sigma = 1.8$ lbs. Let $\vec{Y} := \{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ denote an i.i.d. random sample of DSH cats, and consider using the sample mean as an estimator for μ :

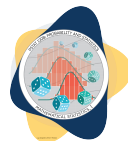
$$\hat{\mu}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

What is the sampling distribution of $\hat{\mu}_n$?



Solution

- We know that, by assumption, $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1.8^2)$



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- We know that, by assumption, $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1.8^2)$
- Hence, by (Linear Combinations of Independent Normals), we have

$$\hat{\mu}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{1.8^2}{n}\right) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{3.24}{n}\right)$$



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- This is essentially the same definition I proposed above - it's a *rule*, meaning it's not really a number *per se*.
- Rather, estimators are **random variables**! (Otherwise, why would we talk about sampling distributions of estimators?)
- Of course, once we obtain an observed instance of a sample, we will be able to compute an actual *numerical* estimate for θ . This is what we call a **estimate** - an estimate is just an observed instance of an estimator.



Estimators vs. Estimates

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Estimators vs. Estimates

- Again, maybe it helps to think in terms of our cat example.
- Say I take one random sample of cat weights \vec{Y} . This represents the act of taking an *arbitrary* sample of cat weights - it's random, because different samples of cats will have different weights!



Estimators vs. Estimates

- Again, maybe it helps to think in terms of our cat example.
- Say I take one random sample of cat weights \vec{Y} . This represents the act of taking an *arbitrary* sample of cat weights - it's random, because different samples of cats will have different weights!
 - This random sample is what we use to construct an *estimator*, like $\hat{\mu}_n := \bar{Y}_n$. “I take a random sample of cats and compute the mean weight -” different samples will have different observed values of the mean!



Estimators vs. Estimates

- But, once I pin down a *specific* sample of cats (e.g. Kitty, Shiro, Bean), I can compute the mean of this *deterministic* collection of weights, which will in turn give me a *deterministic* number.



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 - This is what we use to construct our *estimate*.
- So, the big moral is: estimators $\hat{\theta}_n$ of a parameter θ are random, whereas estimates are deterministic (specifically, observed instances of $\hat{\theta}_n$).



Non-Uniqueness of Estimators

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Assessing the Performance of Estimators



Intuition/Analogy

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- The target is like the parameter - we want to “hit it” (i.e. estimate it) as closely as we can.
- Any particular shot can be thought of as an estimate, and our marksperson can be thought of as our estimator (we don’t know exactly where any arbitrary shot is going to land until after it is made!)



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- I think most of us would agree “no-” we need more data! Specifically, the marksperson could have gotten incredibly lucky and happened to hit the target by pure chance.
- As such, this is why **sampling distributions** of estimators are so important - they are our attempt at modeling our beliefs about how well an estimator would perform after having taken many samples (a.k.a. assessing how good of a shot our marksperson is after having observed them taking *multiple* shots).



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Definition (Bias)

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- Note that the bias of an estimator is just the signed distance between the center of its sampling distribution and the parameter being estimated.



Unbiasedness

Definition (Unbiased Estimator)

An estimator $\hat{\theta}_n$ is said to be an **unbiased estimator** of a parameter θ if $\text{Bias}(\hat{\theta}_n, \theta) = 0$, which is equivalent to $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}_n] = \theta$.



Unbiasedness

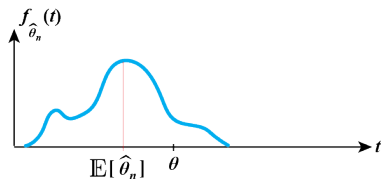
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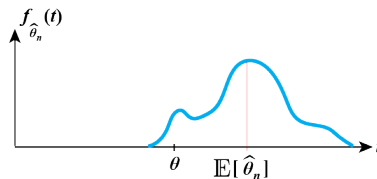
- As such, an unbiased estimator is one whose sampling distribution is centered at the true value of the parameter.



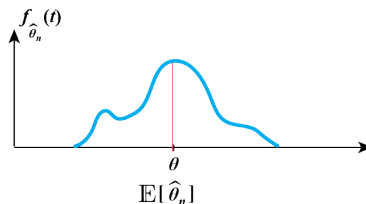
Bias



NEGATIVELY BIASED



POSITIVELY BIASED



UNBIASED



Example

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Suppose $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, 1)$, and consider the following three estimators of μ :

$$\hat{\mu}_{n,1} := Y_1; \quad \hat{\mu}_{n,2} := \frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2}; \quad \hat{\mu}_{n,3} := \frac{Y_1 - Y_2}{2}; \quad \hat{\mu}_{n,4} := \bar{Y}_n$$

Which (if any) are unbiased estimators for μ ? For those which are biased, compute the bias.



Solution

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- For $\hat{\mu}_{n,3}$:

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- Finally, for $\hat{\mu}_{n,4}$, we can use our familiar result that the expectation of the sample mean is the population mean to conclude

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so $\text{Bias}(\hat{\mu}_{n,4}, \mu) = 0$ and $\hat{\mu}_{n,4}$ is an unbiased estimator for μ



Asymptotically Unbiased

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- Note that all unbiased estimators are also asymptotically unbiased. The converse does not hold, though.
- All asymptotic unbiasedness is saying is: as my sample size grows larger and larger, any discrepancies between $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}_n]$ and θ get washed out.



Chalkboard Example

Example

Let $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Exp}(\theta)$ for some unknown parameter $\theta > 0$. Consider the following two estimators for θ :

$$\hat{\theta}_{n,1} = \bar{Y}_n; \quad \hat{\theta}_{n,2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2$$

Determine which (if either) is an unbiased estimator for θ . Is either of the two estimators biased but asymptotically unbiased?