Near-consistent robust estimations of moments for unimodal distributions

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Descriptive statistics for parametric models currently heavily rely on the accuracy of distributional assumptions. Here, leveraging the invariant structures of unimodal distributions, a series of sophisticated, yet efficient estimators, robust to both gross errors and departures from parametric assumptions, are proposed for estimating mean and central moments with insignificant asymptotic biases for common unimodal distributions. This article also illuminates the understanding of the common nature of probability distributions and the measures of them.

orderliness | invariant | unimodal | adaptive estimation | U-statistics

The asymptotic inconsistencies between sample mean ($\bar{x}$) and nonparametric robust location estimators in asymmetric distributions on the real line have been noticed for more than two centuries (1), yet remain unsolved. Strictly speaking, it is unsolvable as by trimming, some information about the original distribution is removed, making it impossible to estimate the values of the removed parts without distributional assumptions. Newcomb (1886, 1912) provided the first modern approach to robust parametric estimation by developing a class of estimators that gives "less weight to the more discordant observations" (2, 3). In 1964, Huber (4) used the minimax procedure to obtain M-estimator for the contaminated normal distribution, which has played a pre-eminent role in the later development of robust statistics. However, as previously demonstrated, under growing asymmetric departures from normality, the bias of the Huber M-estimator increases rapidly. This is a common issue in parameter estimations. For example, He and Fung (1999) constructed (5) a robust M-estimator for the two-parameter Weibull distribution, from which all moments can be calculated. Nonetheless, it is inadequate for the gamma, Perato, lognormal, and the generalized Gaussian distributions (SI Dataset S1). Another interesting approach is based on L-statistics, such as percentile estimators. Examples of percentile estimators for the Weibull distribution, the reader is referred to Menon (1963) (6), Dubey (1967) (7), Hassanein (1971) (8), Marks (2005) (9), and Boudt, Caliskan, and Croux (2011) (10)'s works. At the outset of the study of percentile estimators, it was known that they arithmetically utilize the invariant structures of probability distributions (6, 11, 12). Maybe such estimators can be named as I-statistics. Formally, an estimator is classified as an I-statistic if it asymptotically satisfies $\mathrm{I}\left(\mathrm{LE}_1, \cdots, \mathrm{LE}_l\right) = \left(\theta_1, \cdots, \theta_q\right)$ for the distribution it is consistent, where LEs are calculated with the use of L-statistics, I is defined using arithmetic operations and constants but may also incorporate transcendental functions and quantile functions, and θs are the population parameters it estimates. A subclass of I-statistics, arithmetic I-statistics, is defined as LEs are L-statistics, I is solely defined using arithmetic operations and constants. Since some percentile estimators use the logarithmic function to transform all random variables before computing the L-statistics, a percentile estimator might not always be an arithmetic I-statistic (7). In this article, two subclasses of I-statistics are introduced, arithmetic I-statistics and quantile I-statistics. Examples of quantile I-statistics will be discussed later. Based on L-statistics, I-statistics are naturally robust. Compared to probability density functions (pdfs) and cumulative distribution functions (cdfs), the quantile functions of many parametric distributions are more elegant. Since the expectation of a simple L-statistic can be expressed as an integral of the quantile function, I-statistics are often analytically obtainable. However, the performance of the aforementioned examples is often worse than that of the robust M-statistics when the distributional assumption is violated (SI Dataset S1). Even when distributions such as the Weibull and gamma belong to the same larger family, the generalized gamma distribution, a misassumption can still result in substantial biases for central moments, rendering the approach ill-suited.

The majority of robust location estimators commonly used are symmetric, i.e., they are consistent for any symmetric distributions with finite second moments, owing to the prevalence of symmetric distributions. An asymmetric weighted L-statistic can achieve consistency for a semiparametric class of skewed distributions; but the lack of symmetry makes it suitable only for certain applications. From semiparametrics to parametrics, consider an estimator with a non-zero asymptotic breakdown point that is simultanously consistent for both a semiparametric class of distributions and a distinct parametric distribution with finite moments, such a robust location estimator is called an invariant mean. Based on the mean-weighted L-statistic-γ-median inequality, the recombined mean is defined as

$$rm_{d,\epsilon,\gamma,n} \coloneqq \lim_{c \to \infty} \left(\frac{\left(\mathrm{WL}_{\epsilon,\gamma,n} + c\right)^{d+1}}{\left(\gamma m_n + c\right)^{d}} - c \right),$$

where d is the key factor for bias correction, γm_n is the sample γ-median, $\mathrm{WL}_{\epsilon,\gamma,n}$ is the weighted L-statistic. If γ is

Significance Statement

Bias, variance, and contamination are the three main errors in statistics. Consistent robust estimation is unattainable without parametric assumptions. Here, invariant moments are proposed as a means of achieving near-consistent and robust estimations of moments, even in scenarios where moderate violations of distributional assumptions occur, while the variances are sometimes smaller than those of the sample moments.

T.L. designed research, performed research, analyzed data, and wrote the paper.

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omitted, $\gamma = 1$ is assumed. The subsequent theorem shows the significance of this arithmetic I-statistic.

Theorem .1. *If the second moments are finite, let $BM_{\epsilon,n}$ be the WL, $rm_{d\approx 0.103,\epsilon=\frac{1}{24}}$ is a consistent mean estimator for the exponential and any symmetric distributions and the Pareto distribution with quantile function $Q\left(p\right) = x_m(1-p)^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}}$, $x_m > 0$, when $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$.*

Proof. Finding d and ϵ that make $rm_{d,\epsilon}$ a consistent mean estimator is equivalent to finding the solution of $E\left[rm_{d,\epsilon,n}\right] = E\left[X\right]$. Rearranging the definition, $rm_{d,\epsilon} = \lim_{c\rightarrow\infty}\left(\frac{(\mathrm{BM}_\epsilon+c)^{d+1}}{(m+c)^d} - c\right) = (d+1)\,\mathrm{BM}_\epsilon - dm = \mu$. So, $d = \frac{\mu-\mathrm{BM}_\epsilon}{\mathrm{BM}_\epsilon-m}$. The quantile function of the exponential distribution is $Q(p) = \ln\left(\frac{1}{1-p}\right)\lambda$. $E\left[X\right] = \lambda$. $E\left[m_n\right] = Q\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \ln 2\lambda$. For the exponential distribution, $E\left[\mathrm{BM}_{\epsilon=\frac{1}{24},n}\right] = \lambda\left(1+\ln\left(\frac{26068394603446272\sqrt[6]{\frac{7}{247}}\sqrt[3]{11}}{391^{5/6}101898752449325\sqrt{5}}\right)\right)$, the detailed formula is given in the SI Text. Obviously, the scale parameter λ can be canceled out. $d = -\frac{\ln\left(\frac{26068394603446272\sqrt[6]{\frac{7}{247}}\sqrt[3]{11}}{391^{5/6}101898752449325\sqrt{5}}\right)}{1-\ln(2)+\ln\left(\frac{26068394603446272\sqrt[6]{\frac{7}{247}}\sqrt[3]{11}}{391^{5/6}101898752449325\sqrt{5}}\right)} \approx 0.103$. The proof of the second assertion follows directly from the coincidence property. For any symmetric distribution with a finite second moment, $E\left[\mathrm{BM}_{\epsilon,n}\right] = E\left[m_n\right] = E\left[X\right]$. Then $E\left[rm_{d,\epsilon,n}\right] = \lim_{c\rightarrow\infty}\left(\frac{(E[X]+c)^{d+1}}{(E[X]+c)^d} - c\right) = E\left[X\right]$. The proof for the Pareto distribution is more general. The mean of the Pareto distribution is given by $\frac{\alpha x_m}{\alpha-1}$. The d value with two unknown percentiles p_1 and p_2 for the Pareto distribution is $d_{Perato} = \frac{\frac{\alpha x_m}{\alpha-1} - x_m(1-p_1)^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}}}{x_m(1-p_1)^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}} - x_m(1-p_2)^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}}}$. Since any weighted L-statistic can be expressed as an integral of the quantile function as shown in Theorem **??**, $\lim_{\alpha\rightarrow\infty}\frac{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha-1}-(1-p_1)^{-1/\alpha}}{(1-p_1)^{-1/\alpha}-(1-p_2)^{-1/\alpha}} = -\frac{\ln(1-p_1)+1}{\ln(1-p_1)-\ln(1-p_2)}$, the d value for the Pareto distribution approaches that of the exponential distribution as $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$, regardless of the type of weighted L-statistic used. This completes the demonstration. ☐

Data Availability. Data for Table **??** are given in SI Dataset S1. All codes have been deposited in GitHub.

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