W1211 Introduction to Statistics Lecture 18

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Distribution of a Linear Combination

- Sample mean is a particular case of linear combinations.
- ► The expectation and variance of a general linear combination

$$a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \ldots + a_nX_n$$

is given by the following result.

A key result ***

Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$, have mean values $\mu_1, \mu_2, ..., \mu_n$, respectively, and variances $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, ..., \sigma_n^2$, respectively.

Whether or not the Xi's are independent,

$$E(a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n) = a_1E(X_1) + a_2E(X_2) + \dots + a_nE(X_n)$$

= $a_1\mu_1 + a_2\mu_2 + \dots + a_n\mu_n$

• For any $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$,

$$\operatorname{Var}(a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + \dots + a_n X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i a_j \operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$$

If they are independent, then

$$Var(a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n)$$
= $a_1^2Var(X_1) + a_2^2Var(X_2) + \dots + a_n^2Var(X_n)$
= $a_1^2\sigma_1^2 + a_2^2\sigma_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2\sigma_n^2$

Special Cases

- $\bullet \quad \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{X} + \mathsf{Y}) = \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{X}) + \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{Y});$
- E(X-Y) = E(X) E(Y);
- Var(X+Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y)
- Var(X-Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) -2Cov(X, Y)
- If X and Y are independent, then Cov(X, Y) = 0, and Var(X+Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)
 Var(X - Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)

Example

▶ Show that if $X \sim Bin(n, p)$, then EX = np and Var(X) = np(1 - p)

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- Since X can be seen as the sum of n IID Bernoulli random variables, i.e.,

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$$
, in which $Y_i \sim Bern(p)$

- ▶ Recall that $E(Y_i) = p$ and $Var(Y_i) = p(1 p)$.
- ▶ Then

$$E(X) = E(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i) = nE(Y_1) = np,$$

and

$$Var(X) = Var(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i) = nVar(Y_i) = np(1-p)$$

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 - Point Estimation (Ch 6)
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 - Hypothesis Testing based on A Single Sample (Ch 8) and Two Samples (Ch 9)

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- Sampling Distributions of statistics enable us to infer characteristics of populations from samples.
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 - Point Estimation (Ch 6)
 - Confidence Interval (Ch 7)
 - ▶ Hypothesis Testing based on A Single Sample (Ch 8) and Two Samples (Ch 9)
- A point estimate of a parameter θ is a single number that can be regarded as a sensible value for θ . A **point estimate** is obtained by selecting a suitable statistic and computing its value from the given sample data. The selected statistic is called **the point estimator** of θ .

Estimating probability

Ex. A biased coin has probability *p* of having heads and *p* is unknown. Suppose we flipped the coin for 100 times and had 73 heads. What is your best guess for *p*?

Naturally, people would use estimator
$$\hat{p} = \frac{\text{number of heads}}{\text{number of flips}} = \frac{73}{100} = 0.73$$

In other words, we are using the sample proportion to estimate the population probability.

Is this a good estimator? Are there any other estimators?

Measure of a good Estimator

- Our estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is in fact a function of the sample x_i 's, therefore, it is also a random variable. For some samples, $\hat{\theta}$ may yield a value larger than θ , whereas for other samples $\hat{\theta}$ may underestimate θ .
- The quantity $\hat{\theta}$ θ characterize the error of estimation. A good estimator should result in small estimation errors.
- A commonly used measure of accuracy is the mean square error.

$$MSE = E(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$$

• However, since MSE will generally depend on the value of θ , finding an estimator with smallest MSE is typically NOT possible.

Unbiased Estimators

- One way to find good estimators, is to restrict our attention just to estimators that have some specified desirable properties and then find the best in this restricted group.
- One popular property is unbiasedness.
- A point estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is said to be an unbiased estimator of θ if $E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta$ for every possible value of θ . If $\hat{\theta}$ is not unbiased, the difference $E(\hat{\theta}) \theta$ is called the bias of $\hat{\theta}$.

Example

Ex. Recall the unbiased coin example. Is the sample proportion an unbiased estimator of the population probability?

estimator
$$\hat{p} = \frac{\text{number of heads}}{\text{number of flips}} = \frac{73}{100} = 0.73$$

What distribution does "number of heads" follow? What is its expectation?