

## LECTURE 05

# ESTIMATION - BIAS - MEAN SQUARE ERROR (MSE)

Outline of today's lecture:

I. Introduction .....	1
II. Bias and Mean Square Error of Point Estimators .....	2
III. Evaluating the Goodness of a Point Estimator .....	9

### I. Introduction

- Purpose of statistics is to permit the user to make an inference about a population based on information contained in a sample.
- An estimate may be given in two distinct forms:
  1. Point Estimate
  2. Interval Estimate
- **Definition 8.1** An estimator is a rule that tells how to calculate the value of an estimate based on the measurements contained in a sample.

## II. Bias and Mean Square Error of Point Estimators

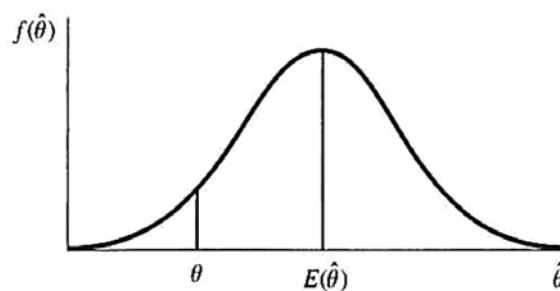
**Definition 8.2** Let  $\hat{\theta}$  be a point estimator for a parameter  $\theta$ . Then  $\hat{\theta}$  is an *unbiased* estimator if  $E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta$ . Otherwise  $\hat{\theta}$  is said to be *biased*.

- Note that  $E(\hat{\theta})$  equals to a constant, it is not a random variable.

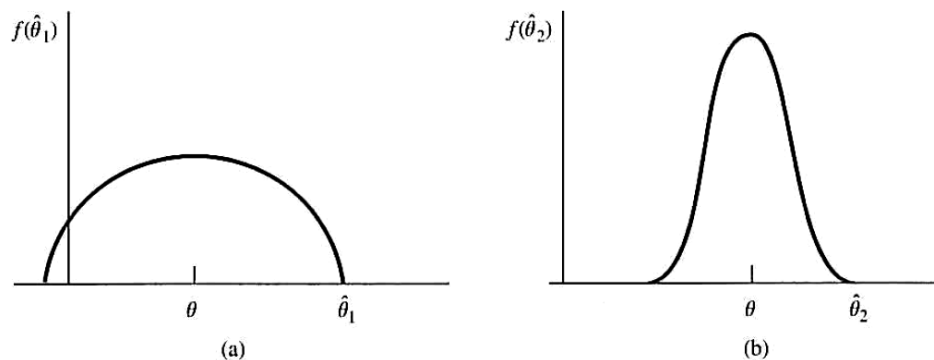
- We want a point estimator to be unbiased. In other words, we would like the mean or expected value of the distribution of estimates to equal the parameter estimated.

**Definition 8.3** The *bias* of a point estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  is given by  $B(\hat{\theta}) = E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta$

- Note that,  $B(\hat{\theta})$  is not a random variable since  $E(\hat{\theta})$  is not a random variable



**Figure 1** Sampling Distribution for a *positively biased* estimator



**Figure 1** Sampling Distributions for two *unbiased* estimators: (a) estimator with large variation; (b) estimator with small variation

- We would prefer that our estimator have the type of distribution indicated in Figure 8.3(b) because the smaller variance guarantees that, in repeated sampling, a higher fraction of values of  $\hat{\theta}_2$  will be "close" to  $\theta$ .
- Thus, in addition to preferring *unbiasedness*, we want the variance of the distribution of the estimator  $V(\hat{\theta})$  to be as small as possible.
  - Given two *unbiased* estimators of parameter  $\theta$ , and all other things being equal, we *would select* the estimator with the *smaller variance*.
  - To characterize the goodness of a point estimator, we might employ the expected value of  $(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$ , the average of the square of the distance between the estimator and its target parameter.

**Definition 8.4** The *mean square error* of a point estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  is the expected value of  $(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$ :

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

o Hence, the mean square error of an estimator  $\hat{\theta}$ ,  $MSE(\hat{\theta})$  is a function of both its *variance* and its *bias*.

The MSE is given by:  $MSE(\hat{\theta}) = E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$

We know that  $B(\hat{\theta}) = E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta$  which implies  $\theta = E(\hat{\theta}) - B(\hat{\theta})$ .

Thus:

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = E\left\{\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta}) + B(\hat{\theta})\right]^2\right\}$$

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = E\left\{\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})\right]^2 + \left[B(\hat{\theta})\right]^2 + 2B(\hat{\theta})\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})\right]\right\}$$

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = E\left\{\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})\right]^2\right\} + \left[B(\hat{\theta})\right]^2 + 2B(\hat{\theta}) \cdot E\left\{\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})\right]\right\}$$

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = E\left\{\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})\right]^2\right\} + \left[B(\hat{\theta})\right]^2 + 2B(\hat{\theta}) \cdot E\left\{\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})\right]\right\}$$

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = \underbrace{E\left\{\left[\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta})\right]^2\right\}}_{v(\hat{\theta})} + \left[B(\hat{\theta})\right]^2 + 2 \cdot B(\hat{\theta}) \cdot \left\{E(\hat{\theta}) - E(\hat{\theta})\right\}$$

which yields:

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = V(\hat{\theta}) + [B(\hat{\theta})]^2$$

- In particular, we often seek unbiased estimators with relatively small variances.
- Below, we will consider some common and useful unbiased point estimators.

○ Sample Mean,  $\bar{Y}$

$$E(\bar{Y}) = E\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i\right)$$

$$E(\bar{Y}) = \frac{1}{n} E(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n)$$

$$E(\bar{Y}) = \frac{1}{n} \left[ \underbrace{E(Y_1)}_{\mu} + \underbrace{E(Y_2)}_{\mu} + \dots + \underbrace{E(Y_n)}_{\mu} \right]$$

$$E(\bar{Y}) = \frac{1}{n} n\mu$$

$$E(\bar{Y}) = \mu$$

Hence  $\bar{Y}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu$ .

• Sample Variance,  $S^2$

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}{n-1}$$

$$E(S^2) = \frac{E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\right]}{E(n-1)} = \frac{1}{n-1} E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\right]$$

Hence we need to find  $E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\right]$ .

For this purpose let us rearrange  $\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$  as follows:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \mu - \bar{Y} + \mu]^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [(Y_i - \mu) - (\bar{Y} - \mu)]^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [(Y_i - \mu)^2 + (\bar{Y} - \mu)^2 - 2(Y_i - \mu)(\bar{Y} - \mu)]$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{Y} - \mu)^2 - 2(\bar{Y} - \mu) \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2 + n(\bar{Y} - \mu)^2 - 2(\bar{Y} - \mu) \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)}_{=n\bar{Y}-n\mu}$$

$=n(\bar{Y} - \mu)$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2 + n(\bar{Y} - \mu)^2 - 2n(\bar{Y} - \mu)^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2 - n(\bar{Y} - \mu)^2$$

Taking the expectation of both sides:

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2\right) = E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2\right) - \underbrace{nE((\bar{Y} - \mu)^2)}_{\text{Var}(\bar{Y})}$$

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2\right) = E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mu)^2\right) - n\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2\right) = \left[ \underbrace{E(Y_1 - \mu)^2}_{\sigma^2} + \underbrace{E(Y_2 - \mu)^2}_{\sigma^2} + \dots + \underbrace{E(Y_n - \mu)^2}_{\sigma^2} \right] - n\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2\right) = n\sigma^2 - \sigma^2$$

$$E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - \bar{Y}]^2\right) = (n-1)\sigma^2$$

Thus:

$$E(S^2) = \frac{E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\right]}{E(n-1)} = \frac{1}{n-1} E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\right]$$

$$E(S^2) = \frac{E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\right]}{E(n-1)} = \frac{1}{n-1}(n-1)\sigma^2$$

$$E(S^2) = \sigma^2$$

which implies that  $S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}{n-1}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$ .

Therefore, the estimator  $S^{*2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}{n}$  is not an unbiased

estimator of  $\sigma^2$ . That is why, we use  $S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}{n-1}$ .

○  $\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2$

If the random samples 1 and 2 are independent:

$$E(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2) = E(\bar{Y}_1) - E(\bar{Y}_2)$$

$$E(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2) = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

Hence  $(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2)$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ .

○ *What about the variance?*

$$\text{Var}(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2) = \text{Var}(\bar{Y}_1) + \text{Var}(\bar{Y}_2) - 2\text{Cov}(\bar{Y}_1, \bar{Y}_2)$$



If random samples 1 and 2 are independent,  $Cov(\bar{Y}_1, \bar{Y}_2) = 0$

$$Var(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2) = Var(\bar{Y}_1) + Var(\bar{Y}_2)$$

$$Var(\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2) = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}$$

### III. Evaluating the Goodness of a Point Estimator

**Tchebysheff's Theorem** If  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the mean and the standard deviation of a random variable  $Y$ , and  $\sigma \neq 0$ , then for any positive constant  $k$ :

$$P(|Y - \mu| < k\sigma) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{k^2}$$

In other words, the probability that  $Y$  will take on a value within  $k$  standard deviation of the mean is at least  $1 - \frac{1}{k^2}$

- Tchebysheff 's theorem applies to any data set, *not only normally distributed data sets.*
- What is important is the fact that this prediction of Tchebysheff's Theorem is the worst case scenario and often there is a greater probability.

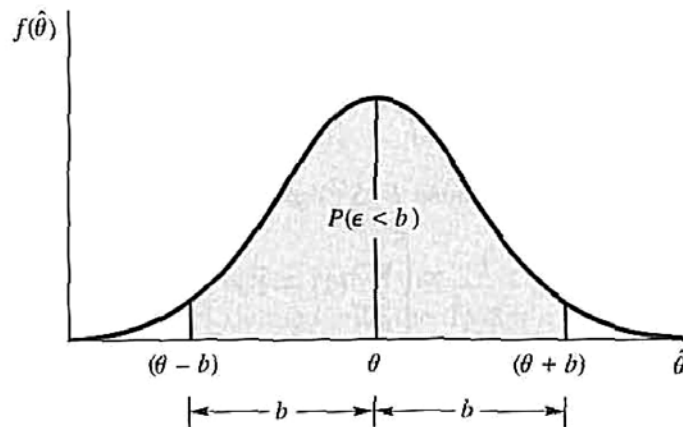
**Example 1** Assume  $k=2$ , then  $P(|Y - \mu| < 2\sigma) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2^2} = 0.75$ . At least 75% of the values of  $Y$  will fall within 2 standard deviations of the mean.

**Example 2** For  $k=3$ , we see that  $1 - \frac{1}{k^2} = 1 - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{8}{9} = 0.89$ , which implies that 89% of the values of  $Y$  will fall within  $k=3$  standard deviations of the mean.

- One way to measure the *goodness of any point estimation* procedure is in terms of the *distances* between the *estimates it generates* and the *target parameter*.
  - This quantity, which varies randomly in repeated sampling, is called the *error of estimation*.
  - Naturally we would like the error of estimation to be as small as possible.

**Definition 8.5** The error of estimation  $\varepsilon$  is the distance between an estimator and its target parameter. That is,  $\varepsilon = |\hat{\theta} - \theta|$ .

- Suppose that we want to find the value of  $b$  such that  $P(\varepsilon < b) = 0.90$ .



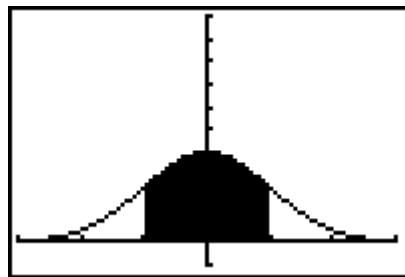
**Figure 2** Sampling Distribution of a Point Estimator  $\hat{\theta}$

- If we know the probability distribution of  $\hat{\theta}$ , we can easily seek a value  $b$  such that  $\int_{\theta-b}^{\theta+b} f(\hat{\theta})d\hat{\theta} = 0.90$
- Whether we know the probability distribution of  $\hat{\theta}$  or not, if  $\hat{\theta}$  is unbiased we can find an approximate bound on  $\varepsilon$  by Tchebysheff's Theorem.
  - For example, for  $k=2$ ,  $\varepsilon = |\hat{\theta} - \theta|$  will be less than  $2\sigma_{\hat{\theta}}$  with probability at least 0.75
  - When the data values seem to have a normal distribution, or approximately so, we can use a much easier theorem or *rule* than Tchebysheff's  $\rightarrow$

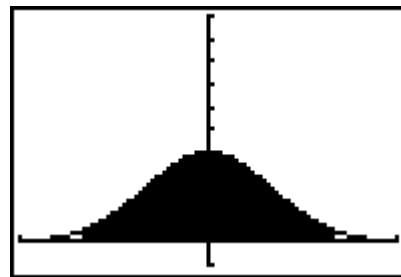
**Empirical Rule** The "empirical rule" states that in cases where the distribution is normal, the following statements are true:

- Approximately 68% of the data values will fall within 1 standard deviation of the mean.
- Approximately 95% of the data values will fall within 2 standard deviations of the mean.
- Approximately 99.7% of the data values will fall within 3 standard deviations of the mean.

Graphically, this corresponds to the area under the curve as shown below for 1 and 2 standard deviations. *The empirical rule is often stated simply as 68-95-99.7.* Note how this ties in with the range rule of thumb, by stating that 95% of the data usually falls within two standard deviations of the mean.



Data within  $1\sigma$  of their mean  
(68%)



Data within  $2\sigma$  of their mean  
(95%)

**Example** A comparison of the durability of two types of automobile tires was obtained by road-testing samples of  $n_1=n_2= 100$  tires of each type. The number of miles until wear-out was recorded, where wear-out was defined as the number of miles until the amount of remaining tread reached a pre-specified small value. The measurements for the two types of tires were obtained independently and the following means and variances were computed:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{y}_1 &= 26,400 & \bar{y}_2 &= 25,100 \\ s_1^2 &= 1,440,000 & s_2^2 &= 1,960,000\end{aligned}$$

Estimate the difference in mean miles to wear-out, and place a two-standard-error bound on the error of estimation.

Solution

The point estimate of  $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$  is

$\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2 = 26,400 - 25,100 = 1,300$  miles. The standard error of the

estimator is  $\sigma_{(\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2)} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$

We must know  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$ , or we must have good approximate values for them, in order to calculate  $\sigma_{(\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2)}$ . We can use the information coming from the current sample data by using the unbiased estimators:

$$\hat{\sigma}_i^2 = S_i^2 = \frac{1}{n_i - 1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i)^2, \quad i=1,2.$$

These estimates will be adequate if the sample sizes are reasonably large, say,  $n_i \geq 30$ , for  $i=1,2$ . The calculated values of  $S_i^2$ , based on the two wear tests, are  $s_1^2 = 1,440,000$  and  $s_2^2 = 1,960,000$ . Substituting these values for  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$  in the formula for  $\sigma_{(\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2)}$ , we have:

$$\sigma_{(\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2)} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1,440,000}{100} + \frac{1,960,000}{100}}$$

$$\sigma_{(\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2)} = \sqrt{34,000} = 184.4 \text{ miles.}$$

Consequently, we estimate the difference in mean wear to be 1300 miles, and we expect the error of estimation to be less than  $2\sigma_{(\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2)}$  or 368.8 miles, with a probability of approximately 0.95.