

Quantitative Genomics and Genetics - Spring 2016

BTRY 4830/6830; PBSB 5201.01

Homework 3 (version 2 - posted February 25) - Key

Assigned February 19; Due 11:59PM February 26

Problem 1 (Easy)

Consider a coin (system), a ‘one flip’ experiment, a random variable $X = \text{‘number of Heads’}$, a bernoulli probability model $X \sim \text{bern}(p)$ (where the true parameter value p is unknown), an iid sample $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_{10}]$ produced by $n = 10$ flips of the coin, and an estimator $T(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{p}$:

- a. Consider $\hat{p} = 0.5$, is this a legitimate estimator of the parameter p (explain your answer)?

Among the acceptable answers: Any statistic in theory could be an estimator, so this is a legitimate estimate. It is however not a very good estimator in the sense that, for many possible cases, it will be both wrong and not close to the correct answer.

- b. In what case will $\hat{p} = 0.5$ produce the correct result?

This estimator will produce the correct result only in the case where the true parameter value happened to be 0.5. For any of the other possible values of the true parameter value, this estimator will produce the wrong result.

- c. Given that it is possible for $\hat{p} = 0.5$ to be correct, why might you prefer a different estimator like $\hat{p} = \text{mean}(\mathbf{x})$ (explain your answer)?

Among the acceptable answers: This estimator could produce a correct answer for a larger set of possible true values for the parameter p . What’s more, even when this estimator produces the wrong answer, the estimator value will tend to be close to the true parameter value for most possible samples that could be produced for a distribution given a parameter p .

- d. Assume that you are told that the coin is either a ‘fair coin’ OR a coin that produces only ‘Heads’ OR a coin that produces only ‘Tails’, i.e., no other cases are possible (you are provided no additional information!). Describe a \hat{p} that you would use in this case (justify your choice!).

The ‘best’ answer (others possible if well justified): An estimator \hat{p} that takes the value $\hat{p} = 0.5$ if there is at least one ‘Heads’ and one ‘Tails’ in any of the 10 flips in the sample \mathbf{x} (i.e., the guess is the coin is fair such that the estimated parameter value is $p = 0.5$), takes the value $\hat{p} = 0$ if all of the 10 flips are ‘Tails’ (i.e., the guess is the coin produces only ‘Tails’ such that the estimated parameter value $p = 0$), and takes the value $\hat{p} = 1$ if all of the 10 flips are ‘Heads’ (i.e., the guess is the coin produces only ‘Heads’ such that the estimated parameter value $p = 1$). Note that this estimator will not always be correct (!) although it will be correct for almost all samples.

Problem 2 (Medium)

Many of the following questions a-i will require R code (!) provide a separate text file with your R code used to generate your answers!

For the questions a-e below, consider a coin (system), a ‘one flip’ experiment, a random variable $X =$ ‘number of Heads’, a bernoulli probability model $X \sim \text{bern}(p)$, and assume that you know that the TRUE parameter value is $p = 0.3$.

Note that written answers are provided below and coding answers are in the accompanying Key files provided by Jin.

- a. For an iid sample of size n , write the equation for the sampling distribution for cases of k ‘Heads’ and $n - k$ ‘Tails’, i.e. an equation that calculates $Pr([X_1, \dots, X_n | k \text{ ‘H’}, n-k \text{ ‘T’}])$.

$$Pr([X_1, \dots, X_n | k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k} \quad (1)$$

or just:

$$Pr([X_1, \dots, X_n | k) = p^k * (1 - p)^{n-k} \quad (2)$$

- b. Code a function to simulate M different iid samples of size n (i.e., M vectors of length n where the elements of each vector are 1’s and 0’s) assuming a parameter value p (hint: make use of ‘`rbinom()`’ in your function), where your function also calculates the method of moments estimator $T(\mathbf{x}) = \text{mean}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \hat{p}$ for each sample (i.e., your function should calculate the mean of each sample) and plots a histogram of the M values of the estimator produced. The inputs to your function should include the number of samples to simulate M , as well as sample size n and parameter p , where your function should output a vector that contains the estimator value for each of the samples. Use the output of your function to produce two histograms of the values taken by the estimator: one with $M = 1000, n = 10, p = 0.3$ and another with $M = 1000, n = 1000, p = 0.3$. Describe the difference between the two histograms and which of the two produced the right answer $p = 0.3$ more frequently.

Among the acceptable answers: For the histogram with $n = 1000$, many values of the estimator closer to the true value of the parameter $p = 0.3$ than for the histogram with $n = 10$. The histogram of $n = 1000$ also displays many more values of the estimator that are correct than for $n = 10$.

Not necessary for the answer: in this problem, you simulated the probability distribution of your estimator by simulating samples directly and calculating the statistic for each sample.

- c. The sampling (probability) distribution of the estimator \hat{p} in part ‘b’ is the binomial distribution, i.e. $Pr(\hat{p}) \sim binom(n, p)$. Make use of `rbinom()` to directly simulate $M = 1000$ samples each of size of size $n = 10$ assuming $p = 0.3$ and for each sample calculate the estimator $\hat{p} = \text{mean}(\mathbf{x})$ (note that you will have to divide the outcomes of `rbinom` by n), then plot a histogram of your estimator values. Repeat this for $M = 1000$ samples each of size $n = 1000$ with $p = 0.3$ (i.e., you will produce two histograms total). Note that these histograms should look quite close to the histograms you produced in part ‘b’ (i.e., you have used two different approaches (!!)) to simulate values of the estimator \hat{p} obtained from $M = 1000$ samples of size $n = 10$ or $n = 1000$).

Not necessary for the answer: in this problem, you were able to simulate values of the estimator directly (without simulating each sample) because you knew the sampling (probability) distribution of the estimator (which is something that you will not always know!).

- d. Say you obtained the following (single!) sample: $\mathbf{x} = [1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1]$. Given the likelihood function $L(p|x_1, \dots, x_{10}) = \prod_{i=1}^{10} p^{x_i}(1-p)^{1-x_i}$, plot the likelihood of $p \in [0, 1]$ given this sample (you may construct this plot using 100 evenly spaced values of p between 0 and 1 or by plotting the continuous function). What is the likelihood that $p = 0.3$? Is this the value of p with the highest likelihood? If not, what value of p has the highest likelihood (justify your answer)?

Among the acceptable answers: The true value of the parameter $p = 0.3$ had a likelihood of ~ 0.001 (see accompanying files) and did not have the highest likelihood. This is expected because the value of the parameter with the highest likelihood depends on the observed sample, which may not be exactly the true value of the parameter (unless $n \rightarrow \infty$) but will usually be close to the correct value (and closer the higher the sample size). The parameter value with the highest likelihood was $MLE(\hat{p}) = \text{mean}(\mathbf{x}) = 0.4$.

- e. Plot the log-likelihood for the sample in part ‘d’. Do the graphs in parts ‘d’ and ‘e’ look different (how so)? What value of p has the highest log-likelihood (justify your answer)?

Among the acceptable answers: The graphs of the likelihood and log-likelihood look different where the log-likelihood is more ‘rounded’ (and has a longer ‘tail’) but the value of p with this highest log-likelihood is the value with the highest likelihood i.e., $MLE(\hat{p}) = \text{mean}(\mathbf{x}) = 0.4$. This is the case because taking the log of the likelihood transforms the ‘shape’ but not where the maximum occurs (i.e., it is a monotonic transformation).

For the questions f-j below, consider heights (system), a ‘measure a person’ experiment, a random variable X to model measured heights of individual people (in meters), a normal probability model $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, and assume that you know that the TRUE parameter values are $\mu = 1.6, \sigma^2 = 1$.

- f. For an iid sample of size n , write down the equation for the sampling distribution for $Pr([X_1, \dots, X_n])$.

$$Pr([X_1, \dots, X_n]) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (3)$$

- g. Code a function to simulate M different iid samples of size n (i.e., M vectors of length n where the elements of each vector are measured heights) assuming parameter values μ and σ^2 (hint: make use of `rnorm()` in your function), where your function also calculates the method of moments estimators $T(\mathbf{x}) = \text{mean}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \hat{\mu}$ and $T(\mathbf{x}) = \text{var}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \text{mean}(\mathbf{x}))^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2$ for each sample (i.e., your function should calculate the mean and variance of each sample). The inputs to your function should include the number of samples to simulate M , the sample size n , as well as the parameters μ and σ^2 , where your function should output 2 vectors (or an **M by 2 matrix**) that contains the values of the $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ estimators for each of the samples. Use the output of your function to produce four histograms for the values taken by each of the two estimators for each of the following two sample sizes: one with $M = 1000, n = 10, \mu = 1.6, \sigma^2 = 1$ and another with $M = 1000, n = 1000, \mu = 1.6, \sigma^2 = 1$. Describe the difference between the $\hat{\mu}$ histograms and the $\hat{\sigma}^2$ histograms for the two different sample sizes, including a comment on which tended to produce estimator values closer to the true values of the parameters.

Among the acceptable answers: The histogram with $n = 1000$ had a lower ‘spread’ and therefor many values of the estimator closer to the true value of the parameter $\mu = 1.6$ than for the histogram with $n = 10$.

Note: Not necessary for the answer: in this problem, you simulated the probability distribution of your estimator by simulating samples directly and calculating the statistic for each sample.

- h. The sampling (probability) distribution of the estimator $\hat{\mu}$ in part ‘g’ is the normal distribution, i.e. $Pr(\hat{\mu}) \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$. Make use of `rnorm()` to directly simulate $M = 1000$ samples each of size of size $n = 10$ assuming $\mu = 1.6, \sigma^2 = 1$, and for each sample calculate $\hat{\mu} = \text{mean}(\mathbf{x})$, then plot a histogram of your estimator values. Repeat this for $M = 1000$ samples each of size $n = 1000$ and $\mu = 1.6, \sigma^2 = 1$ (i.e., you will produce two histograms of the estimator $\hat{\mu}$). Note that these should look quite close to the histograms for $\hat{\mu}$ you produced in part ‘g’ (i.e., you have used two different approaches (!!)) to simulate values of the estimator $\hat{\mu}$ obtained from $M = 1000$ samples of size $n = 10$ or $n = 1000$).

Note: Not necessary for the answer: again, in this problem, you were able to simulate the probability distribution of your estimator directly (without simulating each sample) because you knew the probability of the distribution of the estimator (something that you will not always know!).

- i. Say you obtained the following (single!) sample: $\mathbf{x} = [2.22, 0.98, 2.63, 3.33, 1.86, 3.25, 2.25, 2.92, 1.78, 1.01]$.

Use the likelihood function $L(p|x_1, \dots, x_{10}) = \prod_{i=1}^{10} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$, to plot the likelihood of $\mu \in [0, 3.2]$ given this sample after setting $\sigma^2 = 1$ and do the same for the likelihood of

$\sigma^2 \in [0, 3]$ given this sample after setting $\mu = 1.6$ (you may construct these plots using 100 evenly spaced values for the range of μ and similarly for σ^2 or by plotting the continuous function). What is the exact likelihood that $\mu = 1.6$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$? Are these the value of the parameters that produce the highest likelihood? If not, what values of μ and σ^2 will produce the highest likelihood (justify your answer)?

Among the acceptable answers: The true value of the parameter $\mu = 1.6$ had a likelihood $L(\mu = 1.6|x) = 6.35766e - 07$, which was not the highest likelihood (although is was relatively close to the highest likelihood). This is expected because the value of the parameter with the highest likelihood depends on the observed sample and may (is usually) not be exactly the true value of the parameter (unless $n \rightarrow \infty$) but will usually be close to the correct value (and closer the higher the sample size!).

- j. Plot the log-likelihoods for μ (setting $\sigma^2 = 1$) and for σ^2 (setting $\mu = 1.6$) for the sample in part ‘i’. Do the μ graphs in parts ‘i’ and ‘j’ look different (how so)? Do the σ^2 graphs in parts ‘i’ and ‘j’ look different (how so)? What value of μ has the highest log-likelihood (justify your answer)? What value of σ^2 has the highest log-likelihood (justify your answer)?

Among the acceptable answers: The graphs of the likelihood and log-likelihood look different where the log-likelihood has a longer ‘tail’ but the value of μ with this highest log-likelihood is the value of μ with the highest likelihood. This occurs because taking the log of the likelihood transforms the ‘shape’ but not where the maximum occurs (i.e., it is a monotonic transformation).

Problem 3 (Difficult)

- a. For a ‘one flip’ experiment, a random variable $X =$ ‘number of Heads’, a bernoulli probability model $X \sim \text{bern}(p)$, and an iid sample produced by n experimental trials, show that $EX = p$ (i.e., that the expected value of the random variable is equal to the value of the parameter p) and use this fact to demonstrate that the estimator $\hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ is unbiased.

Begin by calculating the expected value of a Bernoulli random variable:

$$EX = 1 * p + 0 * (1 - p) = p \tag{4}$$

and recall that an unbiased estimator in this case will be one where:

$$E\hat{p} = p \tag{5}$$

where in this case, the expected value of the estimator \hat{p} can be written as follows:

$$E\hat{p} = E\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) \tag{6}$$

and where using the relationship $E(cX) = cEX$ and that the sample is iid, we have

$$E\hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n EX_i \tag{7}$$

and finally, using the expected value of a Bernoulli random variable:

$$E\hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n p = \frac{1}{n} * n * p = p \quad (8)$$

- b. For a ‘one flip’ experiment, a random variable $X = \text{‘number of Heads’}$, a bernoulli probability model $X \sim \text{bern}(p)$, consider two iid samples of size n_1 and n_2 where $n_1 < n_2$. For the estimator $\hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$, denote \hat{p}_1 to be this estimator for the sample of size n_1 and \hat{p}_2 to be this estimator for the sample of size n_2 . Show that $E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] > E[(\hat{p}_2 - p)^2]$ (i.e., show the expected squared difference between the estimator and the true parameter value gets smaller with increasing sample size or, stated another way, the expected difference between the estimator and the true parameter value gets smaller the bigger the sample size n).

HINT: There are several ways to show this, one relatively simple approach makes use of one of the formulas for variance of a random variable and the formulas for the algebras of expectations and variances (where this same approach would also work when considering $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ for iid samples when assuming a normally distributed random variable!).

To begin, use the formula for variance $\text{Var}(Z) = E(Z^2) - (EZ)^2$ and note that we can set $Z = \hat{p}_1 - p$ (note that \hat{p} has a probability distribution) such that we can write:

$$E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] = \text{Var}(\hat{p}_1 - p) - (E(\hat{p}_1 - p))^2 \quad (9)$$

Next, from the algebra of expectations we have $E(\hat{p}_1 - p) = E\hat{p} - Ep = E\hat{p} - p$ (for the last equality, remember the expectation of a constant is just a constant) and note the result in part ‘a’ that shows $\hat{p}_1 = p$ (such that $E\hat{p}_1 - p = 0$), such that we can write:

$$E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] = \text{Var}(\hat{p}_1 - p) \quad (10)$$

Next remember the formula that $\text{Var}(Z_1 + Z_2) = \text{Var}(Z_1) + \text{Var}(Z_2) + 2\text{Cov}(Z_1, Z_2)$ and that the variance of a constant is zero, as is the covariance of a random variable and a constant (i.e. make Z_2 a constant), such that we can write:

$$E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] = \text{Var}(\hat{p}_1) \quad (11)$$

We can now write:

$$E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] = \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} X_i\right) \quad (12)$$

and using the relation $\text{Var}(cZ) = c^2\text{Var}Z$

$$E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] = \frac{1}{n_1^2} \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} X_i\right) \quad (13)$$

and recall that the covariance of independent random variables is zero and since the X_i are each independent:

$$E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] = \frac{1}{n_1^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \text{Var}(X_i) \quad (14)$$

and since each X_i is identically distributed (use X for any one of the X_i):

$$E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] = \frac{1}{n_1^2} * n_1 * \text{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{n_1} \text{Var}(X) \quad (15)$$

Now, if we used this same approach for $E[(\hat{p}_2 - p)^2]$ we have:

$$\frac{1}{n_1} \text{Var}(X) > \frac{1}{n_2} \text{Var}(X) \quad (16)$$

and since $\text{Var}(X)$ is positive:

$$\frac{1}{n_1} > \frac{1}{n_2} \quad (17)$$

where if we multiple both sides by $n_1 n_2$ (again a positive number) we have:

$$n_2 > n_1 \quad (18)$$

which shows that $E[(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2] > E[(\hat{p}_2 - p)^2]$ if $n_2 > n_1$, which is what we have assumed.

More generally, what this shows is the expected difference between this estimator and the true value of the parameter gets smaller with increasing sample size (a good property for an estimator!).