# **Emory University**

# **MATH 362 Mathematical Statistics II**

# **Learning Notes**

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## 1 Estimation

#### 1.1 Introduction

**Definition 1.1.1 (Model).** A *model* is a distribution with certain parameters.

**Example 1.1.2** The normal distribution:  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

**Definition 1.1.3 (Population).** The *population* is all the objects in the experiment.

**Definition 1.1.4 (Data, Sample, and Random Sample).** *Data* refers to observed value from sample. The *sample* is a subset of the population. A *random sample* is a sequence of independent, identical (i.i.d.) random variables.

**Definition 1.1.5 (Statistics).** *Statistics* refers to a function of the random sample.

**Example 1.1.6** The sample mean is a function of the sample:

$$\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n}(Y_1 + \dots + Y_n).$$

## **Example 1.1.7** Central Limit Theorem

We randomly toss n=200 fair coins on the table. Calculate, using the central limit theorem, the probability that at least 110 coins have turned on the same side.

$$\overline{X} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_{200}}{200} \quad \stackrel{\text{CLT}}{\sim} \quad N(\mu, \sigma^2),$$

where

$$\mu = \mathbf{E}(\overline{X}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{200} \mathbf{E}(X_i)}{200},$$

$$\sigma^2 = \mathbf{Var}(\overline{X}) = \mathbf{Var}\left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_{200}}{200}\right) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{200} \mathbf{Var}(X_i)}{200^2}.$$

**Definition 1.1.8 (Statistical Inference).** The process of *statistical inference* is defined to be the process of using data from a sample to gain information about the population.

### Example 1.1.9 Goals in statistical inference

- 1. **Definition 1.1.10 (Estimation).** To obtain values of the parameters from the data.
- 2. **Definition 1.1.11 (Hypothesis Testing).** To test a conjecture about the parameters.
- 3. **Definition 1.1.12 (Goodness of Fit).** How well does the data fit a given distribution.
- 4. Linear Regression

## 1.2 The Method of Maximum Likelihood and the Method of Moments

**Example 1.2.1** Given an unfair coin, or p-coin, such that

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{head with probability } p, \\ 0 & \text{tail with probability } 1 - p. \end{cases}$$

How can we determine the value p?

#### Solution 1.

- 1. Try to flip the coin several times, say, three times. Suppose we get HHT.
- 2. Draw a conclusion from the experiment.

Key idea: The choice of the parameter p should be the value that maximizes the probability of the sample.

$$\mathbf{P}(X_1 = 1, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 0) = \mathbf{P}(X_1 = 1)\mathbf{P}(X_2 = 1)\mathbf{P}(X_3 = 0) = p^2(1 - p) := f(p).$$

Solving the optimization problem  $\max_{p>0} f(p)$ , we find it is most likely that  $p=\frac{2}{3}$ . This method is called the *likelihood maximization method*.

**Definition 1.2.2 (Likelihood Function).** For a random sample of size n from the discrete (or continuous) pdf  $p_X(k;\theta)$  (or  $f_Y(y;\theta)$ ), the *likelihood function*,  $L(\theta)$ , is the product of the pdf evaluated at  $X_i = k_i$  (or  $Y_i = y_i$ ). That is,

$$L(\theta) \coloneqq \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_X(k_i; \theta) \quad \text{or} \quad L(\theta) \coloneqq \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_Y(y_i; \theta).$$

**Definition 1.2.3 (Maximum Likelihood Estimate).** Let  $L(\theta)$  be as defined in Definition 1.2.2. If  $\theta_e$  is a value of the parameter such that  $L(\theta_e) \geq L(\theta)$  for all possible values of  $\theta$ , then we call  $\theta_e$  the *maximum likelihood estimate* for  $\theta$ .

#### Theorem 1.2.4 The Method of Maximum Likelihood

Given random samples  $X_1, \ldots, X_N$  and a density function  $p_X(x)$  (or  $f_X(x)$ ), then we have the likelihood function defined as

$$L(\theta) = p_X(X; \theta) = \mathbf{P}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N)$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(X_1)\mathbf{P}(X_2) \cdots \mathbf{P}(X_N) \qquad [independent]$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_X(X_i; \theta) \qquad [identical]$$

Then, the maximum likelihood estimate for  $\theta$  is given by

$$\theta^* = \arg\max_{\theta} L(\theta),$$

where

$$L\left(\arg\max_{\theta} L(\theta)\right) = L^*(\theta) = \max_{\theta} L(\theta).$$

**Example 1.2.5** Consider the Poisson distribution  $X=0,1,\ldots$ , with  $\lambda>0$ . Then, the pdf is given by

$$p_X(k,\lambda) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

Given data  $k_1, \ldots, k_n$ , we have the likelihood function

$$L(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_X(X = k; \lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} e^{-\lambda} = \frac{\lambda^{k_i}}{k_i!} = e^{-n\lambda} \frac{\lambda^{\sum k_i}}{k_1! \cdots k_n!}$$

Then, to find the maximum likelihood estimate of  $\lambda$ , we need to  $\max_{\lambda} L(\lambda)$ . That is to solve  $\partial L(\lambda)$ 

$$\frac{\partial L(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda} = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial^2 L(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda^2} < 0.$$

## **Example 1.2.6** Waiting Time.

Consider the exponential distribution  $f_Y(y) = \lambda e^{-\lambda y}$  for  $y \ge 0$ . Find the MLE  $\lambda_e$  of  $\lambda$ . *Solution 2.* 

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The likelihood function of the exponential distribution is given by

$$L(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda e^{-\lambda y_i} = \lambda^n \exp\left(-\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i\right).$$

Now, define

$$\ell(\lambda) = \ln L(\lambda) = n \ln \lambda - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i.$$

To optimize  $\ell(\lambda)$ , we compute

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\lambda}\ell(\lambda) = \frac{n}{\lambda} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \stackrel{set}{=} 0$$

So,

$$\frac{n}{\lambda} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \implies \lambda_e = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i} =: \frac{1}{\overline{y}},$$

where  $\overline{y}$  is the sample mean.

**Example 1.2.7** Given the exponential distribution  $f_Y(y) = \lambda e^{-\lambda y}$  for  $y \ge 0$ . Find the MLE of  $\lambda^2$ .

Solution 3.

Define  $\tau = \lambda^2$ . Then,  $\lambda = \sqrt{\tau}$ , and so

$$f_Y(y) = \sqrt{\tau}e^{-\sqrt{\tau}y}, \quad y \ge 0.$$

Then, the likelihood function becomes

$$L(\tau) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_Y(y) = \tau^{\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left(-\sqrt{\tau} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i\right).$$

Similarly, after maximization, we find

$$\tau_e = \frac{1}{(\overline{y})^2}.$$

### Theorem 1.2.8 Invariant Property for MLE

Suppose  $\lambda_e$  is the MLE of  $\lambda$ . Define  $\tau := h(\lambda)$ . Then,  $\tau_e = h(\lambda_e)$ .

**Proof 4.** In this proof, we will prove the case when h is a one-to-one function. The case of h being a many-to-one function is beyond the scope of this course.

Suppose  $h(\cdot)$  is a one-to-one function. Then,  $\lambda=h^{-1}(\tau)$  is well-defined. Then,

$$\max_{\lambda} L(\lambda; y_1, \dots, y_n) = \max_{\tau} L(h^{-1}(\tau); y_1, \dots, y_n) = \max_{\tau} L(\tau; y_1, \dots, y_n).$$

### **Example 1.2.9** Waiting Time with an unknown Threshold.

Let  $\lambda=1$  in exponential but there is an unknown threshold  $\theta$ , that, is  $f_Y(y)=e^{-(y-\theta)}$  for  $y\geq \theta,\ \theta>0$ .

#### Solution 5.

Note that the likelihood function is given by

$$L(\theta; y_1, \dots, y_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_Y(y_1) = \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta)\right), \quad y_i \ge \theta, \ \theta > 0$$
$$= \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta)\right) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{[y_i \ge 0, \ \theta > 0]},$$

where

$$\mathbb{1}_{x \in A} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin A. \end{cases}$$

Using order statistics,

$$L(\theta) = \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta)\right) \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\left[y_{(n)} \ge y_{(n-1)} \ge \dots \ge y_{(1)} \ge \theta, \ \theta > 0\right]}$$
$$= \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i + n\theta\right) \mathbb{1}_{\left[y_{(n)} \ge \dots \ge y_{(1)} \ge \theta, \ \theta > 0\right]}.$$

So, we know  $\theta \leq y_{(1)} = y_{\min}$ .

To maximize the likelihood function, we want to maximize  $-\sum y_i + n\theta$ . That is, to maximize  $\theta$ , as  $\theta \leq y_{\min}$ , it must be that  $\theta_{\max} = y_{\min}$ . Therefore, the MLE is  $\theta^* = y_{\min}$ .

**Example 1.2.10** Suppose  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \sim \text{Uniform}[0, a]$ . That is,  $f_Y(y; a) = \frac{1}{a}$  for  $y \in [0, a]$ . Find MLE  $a_e$  of a.

#### Solution 6.

Note that

$$f_Y(y; a) = \frac{1}{a} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{y \in [0, a]\}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{a} \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\{0 \le y_{(1)} \le \dots \le y_{(n)} \le a\}}$$
 where  $y_{(1)} = \min y_i$  and  $y_{(n)} = \max y_i$ 

Then,

$$L(a) = \frac{1}{a^n} \mathbb{1}_{\{0 \le y_{(1)} \le \dots \le y_{(n)} \le a\}}$$

To maximize L(a), we want to minimize  $a^n$ . Since  $a \ge y_{(n)}$ , it must be that  $a_e = y_{(n)}$ . Here, we call  $a_e = y_{(n)}$  an *estimate*, and  $\widehat{a_{\text{MLE}}} = Y_{(n)}$  an *estimator*.

### **Example 1.2.11 MLE that Does Not Esist**

Suppose  $f_Y(y; a) = \frac{1}{a}$ ,  $y \in [0, a)$ . Find the MLE.

Solution 7.

The likelihood function is the same:

$$L(a) = \frac{1}{a^n} \mathbb{1}_{\{0 \le y_{(1)} \le \dots \le y_{(n)} < a\}}.$$

However, since [0,a) is not a closed set, the optimization problem  $\max_{a \in [0,a)} L(a)$  does not have a solution. Hence, the estimate does not exist.

## Remark 1.1 MLE may not be unique all the time.

## **Example 1.2.12 Multiple MLE Values**

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim \text{Uniform}\left[a - \frac{1}{2}, a + \frac{1}{2}\right]$ , where  $f_X(x; a) = 1, \ x \in \left[a - \frac{1}{2}, a + \frac{1}{2}\right]$ . Find the MLE.

Solution 8.

In the indicator function notation, we can rewrite the pdf to be

$$f_X(x;a) = \mathbb{1}_{\left\{a - \frac{1}{2} \le x \le a + \frac{1}{2}\right\}} = \mathbb{1}_{\left\{a - \frac{1}{2} \le x_{(1)} \le \dots \le x_{(n)} \le a + \frac{1}{2}\right\}}.$$

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So, the likelihood function will be

$$L(a) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_x(x_i; a) = \begin{cases} 1, & a \in \left[ x_{(n)} - \frac{1}{2}, x_{(1)} + \frac{1}{2} \right] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

So, the L(a) will be maximized whenever  $a \in \left[x_{(n)} - \frac{1}{2}, x_{(1)} + \frac{1}{2}\right]$ . Therefore, MLE can be any value in the range  $\left| x_{(n)} - \frac{1}{2}, x_{(1)} + \frac{1}{2} \right|$ . Say,

$$a_e = x_{(n)} - \frac{1}{2}$$
 or  $a_e = x_{(1)} - \frac{1}{2}$  or  $a_e = \frac{x_{(n)} - \frac{1}{2} + x_{(1)} + \frac{1}{2}}{2} = \frac{x_{(n)} + x_{(1)}}{2}$ .

## **Theorem 1.2.13 MLE for Multiple Parameters**

In general, we have the likelihood function  $L(\theta)$ , where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)$ . To find the MLE, we need

$$\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta_i} = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, p,$$

and the Hessian matrix

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 L(\theta)}{\partial \theta_i \partial \theta_j}\right)_{i,j=1,\dots,p} := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 L(\theta)}{\partial \theta_1^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 L(\theta)}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_p} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 L(\theta)}{\partial \theta_p \partial \theta_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 L(\theta)}{\partial \theta_p^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

should be negative dfinite.

## **Example 1.2.14 MLE for Multiple Parameters: Normal Distribution**

Suppose  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ . Then,

$$f_{Y_i}(u;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(y_i-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}.$$

Find the MLE for  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .

Solution 9.

The likelihood function will be

$$L(\mu, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(y_i - \mu)^2 / (2\sigma^2)}.$$

Then, we define

$$\ell(\mu, \sigma) = \ln L(\mu, \sigma) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln 2\pi - \frac{n}{2} \ln \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2} (\sigma^2)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \mu)^2.$$

Set

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \ell(\mu, \sigma)}{\partial \mu} = 0 & \text{①} \\ \frac{\partial \ell(\mu, \sigma)}{\partial \sigma} = 0 & \text{②} \end{cases}$$

From ①, we have

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_1 - \mu) = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i = n\mu \implies \left[ \mu_e = \frac{\sum y_i}{n} = \overline{y} \right]$$

From ②, by the invariant property of MLE, we instead set

$$\frac{\partial \ell(\mu, \sigma)}{\partial \sigma^2} = 0$$

$$-\frac{n}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(-n + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2\right) = 0$$

$$-n\sigma^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 = 0 \qquad (\mu_e = \overline{y})$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = n\sigma^2$$

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \overline{y})^2 \implies \sigma_e = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \overline{y})^2}$$

## 1.3 The Method of Moment

**Definition 1.3.1 (Moment Generating Function).** The *Moment Generating Function (MGF)* is defined as

$$\mathbf{M}_X(t) = \mathbf{E}\big[e^{tX}\big],$$

and it uniquely determines a probability distribution.

**Definition 1.3.2 (Moment).** The k-th order moment of X is  $\mathbb{E}[X^k]$ .

### Example 1.3.3 Meaning of Different Moments

- E[X]: location of a distribution
- $\mathbf{E}[X^2] = \mathbf{Var}(X) \mathbf{E}[X]^2$ : width of a distribution
- $\mathbf{E}[X^3]$ : skewness positively skewed / negatively skewed
- $\mathbf{E}[X^4]$ : kurtosis / tailedness speed decaying to 0.

**Example 1.3.4 Moment Estimate: Moments of Population and Sample** 

Population	Sample, $X_1, \ldots, X_n$
$\mathbf{E}[X] = \mu$	$\widehat{\mu} = \overline{X} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$
$\mathbf{E}[X^2] = \mu^2 + \sigma^2$	$\widehat{\mu}^2 + \widehat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{X_1^2 + \dots + X_n^2}{n}$
<b>:</b>	:
$\mathbf{E}\big[X^k\big]$	$\frac{X_1^k + \dots + X_n^k}{n}$

**Rationale**: The population moments should be close to the sample moments.

## **Example 1.3.5**

- Consider  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\sigma$  is given. Estimate  $\mu$ . By the method of moment estimate, we have  $\mu_e = \overline{X}$ .
- Consider  $N(\mu,\sigma^2)$ . Estimate  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . We have  $\mu_e=\overline{X}$  and  $\mu_e^2+\sigma_e^2=\frac{X_1^2+\cdots+X_n^2}{n}$ .

• Consider  $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$ . Given  $E(X^4) = 3\sigma^4$ , estimate  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . We have  $\mu_e = \overline{X}$ ,  $\mu_e^2 + \sigma_e^2 = \frac{X_1^2 + \cdots + X_n^2}{n}$ , and  $3\sigma^4 = \frac{X_1^4 + \cdots + X_n^4}{n}$ . We have three equations but only two unknowns, then a solution is not guaranteed. So, we need some restrictions on this method (see Remark 1.2).

#### Theorem 1.3.6 Method of Moments Estimates

For a random sample of size n from the discrete (or continuous) population/pdf  $p_X(k;\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_s)$  (or  $f_Y(y;\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_s)$ ), solutions to the system

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{E}(Y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{E}(Y^s) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^s \end{cases}$$

which are denoted by  $\theta_{1e}, \dots, \theta_{se}$ , are called the **method of moments estimates** of  $\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_s$ .

**Remark 1.2** To estimate k parameters with the method of moments estimates, we will only match the first k orders of moments.

## **Example 1.3.7** Consider the Gamma distribution:

$$f_Y(y; r, \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^r}{\Gamma(r)} y^{r-1} e^{-\lambda y} \quad \text{for } y \ge 0.$$

Given  $\mathbf{E}(Y) = \frac{r}{\lambda}$  and  $\mathbf{E}(Y^2) = \frac{r}{\lambda^2} + \frac{r^2}{\lambda^2}$ . Estimate r and  $\lambda$ . Solution 1.

$$\mathbf{E}(Y) = \frac{r}{\lambda} \implies \frac{r_e}{\lambda_e} = \frac{y_1 + \dots + y_n}{n} = \overline{y} \quad \mathbb{O}$$

$$\mathbf{E}(Y^2) = \frac{r}{\lambda^2} + \frac{r^2}{\lambda^2} \implies \frac{r_e}{\lambda_e^2} + \frac{r_e^2}{\lambda_e^2} = \frac{y_1^2 + \dots + y_n^2}{n} \quad \mathbb{O}$$

Substitute 1 into 2, we have

$$\frac{\overline{y}}{\lambda_e} + (\overline{y})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \implies \left[ \lambda_e = \frac{\overline{y}}{\frac{1}{n} \sum y_i^2 - \overline{y}^2} \right]$$
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Substitute 3 into 1, we have

$$r_e = \overline{y}\lambda_e = \boxed{rac{\overline{y}^2}{rac{1}{n}\sum y_i^2 - \overline{y}^2}}.$$

**Remark 1.3** The sample variance is defined as

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i^2 - 2y_i \overline{y} + \overline{y}^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - 2\overline{y} \cdot \frac{\sum y_i}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \cdot n\overline{y}^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - 2\overline{y}^2 + \overline{y}^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - \overline{y}^2.$$

$$\overline{y} = \frac{\sum y_i}{n}$$

So, in Example 1.3.7, if we define  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  to be the sample variance, we can further simply our estimate as follows:

$$\lambda_e = \frac{\overline{y}}{\widehat{\sigma}^2}, \qquad r_e = \frac{\overline{y}^2}{\widehat{\sigma}^2}.$$

### 1.4 Interval Estimation

**Example 1.4.1** Estimate  $\mu$ , where  $X \sim N(\mu, 1)$ .

We take some samples and compute their sample means:

$$\overline{X}^1 = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n}, \overline{X}^2 = \frac{\widetilde{x}_1 + \dots + \widetilde{x}_n}{n}, \dots$$

Finding the distribution of  $\overline{X}$ , we can find an interval  $\left[\widehat{\theta}_L,\widehat{\theta}_U\right]$  such that

$$\mathbf{P}\Big(\widehat{\theta}_L \le \overline{X} \le \widehat{\theta}_U\Big) = 1 - \alpha.$$

**Remark 1.4** By using the variance of the estimator, one can construct an interval such that with a high probability that the interval contains the unknown parameter.

**Definition 1.4.2 (Confidence Interval).** The interval,  $\left[\widehat{\theta}_L, \widehat{\theta}_U\right]$  is called the *confidence interval*, and the high probability is  $1 - \alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  is given.

**Remark 1.5** Take  $\alpha = 5\%$ , then  $\left[\widehat{\theta}_L, \widehat{\theta}_U\right]$  is the 95% confidence interval of  $\mu$ . It does not mean that  $\mu$  has 95% chance to be in  $\left[\widehat{\theta}_L, \widehat{\theta}_U\right]$ . However, if we construct 1000 such intervals, 950 of them will contain  $\mu$ .

**Example 1.4.3** A random sample of size 4,  $(Y_1 = 6.5, Y_2 = 9.2, Y_3 = 9.9, Y_4 = 12.4)$ , from a normal population:

$$f_Y(y;\mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}0.8}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y-\mu}{0.8}\right)^2} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2 = 0.64).$$

Both MLE and MME give  $\mu_e = \overline{y} = 9.5$ . The estimator  $\widehat{\mu} = \overline{Y}$  follows normal distribution. Construct 95%-confidence interval for  $\mu$ .

#### Solution 1.

 $\mathbf{E}(\overline{Y}) = \mu \text{ and } \mathbf{Var}(\overline{Y}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{0.64}{4}. \text{ By the Central Limit Theorem, } \overline{Y} \text{ approximately follow } N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right). \text{ So, } \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}} \sim N(0, 1). \text{ Then,}$ 

$$\mathbf{P}\left(z_1 \le \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}} \le z_2\right) = 0.95 \implies \mathbf{P}\left(\overline{Y} - z_2\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}} \le \mu \le \overline{Y} - z_1\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}\right) = 0.95$$

There are infinite many ways to construct a confidence interval by selecting different  $z_1$  and  $z_2$ . However, since we don't have any prior knowledge on  $\mu$ , it is good for us to choose  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  symmetrically. Moreover, symmetric  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  will yield a smaller interval. We know the symmetric  $z_1$ ,  $z_2$  pair will be  $z_1 = -1.96$  and  $z_2 = 1.96$ . Therefore,

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\overline{Y} - 1.96\sqrt{\frac{0.64}{4}} \le \mu \le \overline{Y} + 1.96\sqrt{\frac{0.64}{4}}\right) = 0.95.$$

Then, 95% confidence interval is  $[9.5 - 1.96 \times 0.4, 9.5 + 1.96 \times 0.4]$ .

#### Theorem 1.4.4 Confidence Interval

In general, for a normal population with  $\sigma$  known, the  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  two-sided confidence interval for  $\mu$  is

$$\left(\overline{y}-z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}},\ \overline{y}+z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

#### Theorem 1.4.5 Variation of Confidence Interval

• One-sided interval:

$$\left(\overline{y}-z_{\alpha}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}},\ \overline{y}\right)$$
 or  $\left(\overline{y},\ \overline{y}+z_{\alpha}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ 

- $\sigma$  is unknown and sample size is small: z-score  $\rightarrow t$ -score.
- $\sigma$  is unknown and sample size is large: z-score by CLT.
- Non Gaussian population but sample size is large: z-score by CLT.

#### Theorem 1.4.6

Let k be the number of successes in n independent trials, where n is large and  $p = \mathbf{P}(\text{success})$  is unknown. An approximate  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for p is the set of numbers

$$\left(\frac{k}{n} - z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{(k/n)(1-k/n)}{n}}, \frac{k}{n} + z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{(k/n)(1-k/n)}{n}}\right).$$

**Definition 1.4.7 (Margin of Error).** The *margin of error*, denoted by d, is the quantity

$$d = z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{(k/n)(1 - k/n)}{n}}.$$

**Remark 1.6** *Stating the sample mean and the margin of error is equivalent to stating the confidence interval. Note that*  $C.I. = \hat{p} \pm d$ .

## Theorem 1.4.8 Estimate Margin of Error

When p is close to  $\frac{1}{2}$ , then  $d \approx d_m = \frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{2\sqrt{n}}$ , which is equivalent to  $\sigma_n \approx \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}}$ . However, if p is away from  $\frac{1}{2}$ , d and  $d_m$  are very different.

**Remark 1.7** Theorem 1.4.8 gives aconservative estimation of the margin of error, which is  $d_m$ .

**Proposition 1.9:** Given *d*, we can estimate the sample size.

Proof 2.

$$d = z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\widehat{p}(1-\widehat{p})}{n}} \implies n \approx \widehat{p}(1-\widehat{p}) / \left(\frac{d}{z_{\alpha/2}}\right)^2.$$

However, since n is unknown,  $\hat{p}$  is also unknown. We, therefore, need information on the actual p to conclude an estimation of the sample size.

• If p is known,

$$n = \frac{p(1-p)}{\left(\frac{d}{z_{\alpha/2}}\right)^2}.$$

• If p is unknown. Let f(p) = p(1-p). f will be maximized when p = 0.5. So,  $f(p) = p(1-p) \le 0.25$ . Then,

$$n \le \frac{0.25}{\left(\frac{d}{z_{\alpha/2}}\right)^2}.$$

Since we are conservative, take  $n=\frac{\frac{1}{4}z_{\alpha/2}^2}{d^2}=\frac{z_{\alpha/2}^2}{4d^2}$ . This estimation is a conservative estimation of the sample size.

## 1.5 Properties of Estimation

The main question is that estimators are not unique in general. How do we choose a good estimator?

**Definition 1.5.1 (Unbiasedness).** Given a random sample of size n when whose population distribution depends on an unknown parameter  $\theta$ . Let  $\widehat{\theta}$  be an estimator of  $\theta$ . Then,

- $\widehat{\theta}$  is called *unbiased* if  $\mathbf{E}(\widehat{\theta}) = \theta$ .
- $\widehat{\theta}$  is called *asymptotically unbiased* if  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbf{E}(\widehat{\theta}) = \theta$ .
- If  $\theta$  is biased, then the *bias* is given by the quantity  $\mathbf{E}(\widehat{\theta}) \theta$ .

**Example 1.5.2** Consider the exponential distribution:  $f_Y(y;\lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda y}$  for  $y \geq 0$ . Determine if the estimator  $\hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\overline{V}}$  is biased or not.

Hint: 
$$n\overline{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i \sim Gamma(n, \lambda)$$
.

## Solution 1.

Recall that  $\mathbf{E}[g(x)] = \int_x g(x) f_X(x) \, dx$ . Define  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \sim \mathrm{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$ . Also, recall the following facts:

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)! = (n-1)\Gamma(n-1)$$

and the integration over any probability density function will yield a result of 1 by definition.

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Then,

$$\mathbf{E}(\widehat{\lambda}) = \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{1}{\overline{Y}}\right) = \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{n}{\sum Y_i}\right) = n\mathbf{E}\left(\frac{1}{\overline{X}}\right)$$

$$= n\mathbf{E}\left(\frac{1}{\overline{X}}\right)$$

$$= n\int_x \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{\lambda^n}{\Gamma(n)} x^{n-1} e^{-\lambda x} \, \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= n\int_x \frac{\lambda^n}{(n-1)!} x^{n-2} e^{-\lambda x} \, \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \frac{n\lambda}{(n-1)} \underbrace{\int_x \frac{\lambda^{n-1}}{\Gamma(n-1)} x^{n-2} e^{-\lambda x} \, \mathrm{d}x}_{=1}$$

$$= \frac{n}{n-1} \lambda.$$

Therefore,  $\mathbf{E}(\widehat{\lambda}) \neq \lambda$ , and so  $\widehat{\lambda}$  is biased. However, note that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbf{E}(\widehat{\lambda}) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n}{n-1} \lambda = \lambda.$$

By definition, then  $\widehat{\lambda}$  is asymptotically unbiased.

**Example 1.5.3** Consider the exponential distribution  $f(y;\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}e^{-y/\theta}$  for  $y \ge 0$ . Then,  $\widehat{\theta} = \overline{Y}$  is unbiased.