STAT 339: Statistical Theory

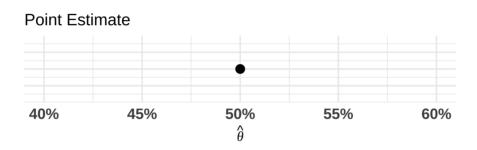
Frequentist Interval Estimation

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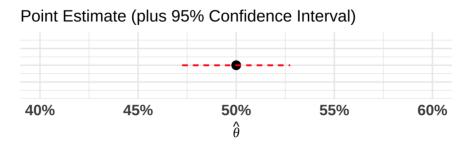


Pivotal Quantities

What's better than a point estimate?







Confidence Interval

Ideally, an interval estimate (or, confidence interval) will...

- 1. contain the target parameter, heta
- 2. be relatively narrow

A (1-lpha) imes 100% confidence interval is an interval $[\hat{ heta}_L,\hat{ heta}_U]$ such that

$$P(\hat{\theta}_L \le \theta \le \hat{\theta}_U) = 1 - \alpha,$$

where $1-\alpha$ is the confidence coefficient.

- If $1-\alpha$ is high, we can be highly confident that the confidence interval (based on a single sample) will contain θ .
- **Solution** Note: $\hat{ heta}_L$ and $\hat{ heta}_U$ are random variables and functions of the data Y_1,\ldots,Y_n .

Pivotal Quantities

To find $\hat{\theta}_L$ and $\hat{\theta}_U$, it is useful to first find a **pivotal quantity**, V, for θ :

- 1. V is a function of the sample measurements Y_1, \ldots, Y_n and the unknown parameter θ , where θ is the *only* unknown quantity.
- 2. Its probability distribution does not depend on θ .

We will primarily work with location-scale pivotal quantities. For example,

$$V = rac{g(\mathbf{Y})}{ heta}$$

is a scale pivotal quantity, and

$$P(a \leq V \leq b) = P\left(a \leq rac{g(\mathbf{Y})}{ heta} \leq b
ight) = P\left(rac{g(\mathbf{Y})}{b} \leq heta \leq rac{g(\mathbf{Y})}{a}
ight) = 1 - lpha$$

Gamma Pivot

Suppose $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \sim iid\ Exponential(\theta)$.

Facts from STAT 338:

- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i = Y_1 + \cdots + Y_n \sim Gamma(n, \theta)$
- $ullet V = 2(Y_1 + \cdots + Y_n)/ heta \sim \chi^2(df = 2n)$

We can use V as a pivotal quantity, because...

- 1. V is a function of the DATA, Y_1,\ldots,Y_n and the unknown parameter heta.
- 2. The probability distribution of V, $\chi^2(2n)$, does not depend on θ .

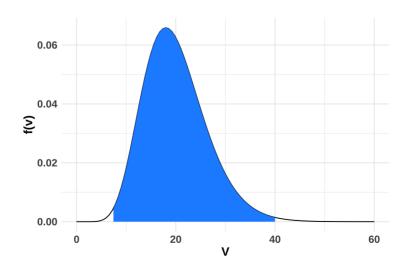
Using the Gamma Pivot

We will use $V=2(Y_1+\cdots+Y_n)/\theta\sim \chi^2(df=2n)$ as a pivotal quantity in forming a confidence interval for θ .

- ullet But now, suppose that n=10. In other words, $V\sim \chi^2(20)$.
 - Let's find a 99% confidence interval for θ .

Want:
$$P(a \le V \le b) = 0.99$$

ullet Use quantiles for the middle 99%: $\chi^2_{0.005}(20)=7.434$; $\chi^2_{0.995}(20)=39.997$



Using the Gamma Pivot to Form a CI!

Want: $P(a \leq V \leq b) = 0.99$

ullet Now we have $P(7.434 \leq V \leq 39.997) = 0.99!$

This means we can write out

$$P\left(7.434 \leq rac{2\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}}{ heta} \leq 39.997
ight) = 0.99,$$

and then rearrange so that heta is alone in the middle.

• This gives us a 99% confidence interval estimate for θ .

Large Sample Confidence Intervals

Common Unbiased Point Estimators

(From WMS, page 397)

Target Parameter θ	Sample Size(s)	Point Estimator $\hat{\theta}$	$E(\hat{ heta})$	Standard Error $\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}$
μ	n	\overline{Y}	μ	$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$
p	n	$\hat{p} = \frac{Y}{n}$	p	$\sqrt{\frac{pq}{n}}$
$\mu_1 - \mu_2$	n_1 and n_2	$\overline{Y}_1 - \overline{Y}_2$	$\mu_1 - \mu_2$	$\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}^{*\dagger}$
$p_1 - p_2$	n_1 and n_2	$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$	$p_1 - p_2$	$\sqrt{\frac{p_1q_1}{n_1} + \frac{p_2q_2}{n_2}}^{\dagger}$

Note: The standard deviation of the sampling distribution for $\hat{\theta}$ is usually called the standard error of $\hat{\theta}$, $SE(\hat{\theta}) = \sigma_{\hat{\theta}}$.

Revisiting the CLT

The **Central Limit Theorem** can be used to show that each of these four point estimators have approximately Normal distributions for large samples.

• In other words, for each of these four point estimators,

$$\hat{ heta} \sim N(heta, \sigma_{\hat{ heta}}^2) \quad ext{or} \quad rac{\hat{ heta} - heta}{\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

Because $Z=rac{\hat{ heta}- heta}{\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}}$ has these characteristics:

- 1. It is a function of the sample measurements Y_1, \ldots, Y_n and the unknown parameter θ , and...
- 2. Its probability distribution, N(0,1), does not depend on heta,

it follows that $Z=rac{\hat{ heta}- heta}{\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}}$ is a **pivotal quantity** and we can use it to build **confidence intervals** for heta.

• (when the sample is *large*)

Building a Large Sample Cl

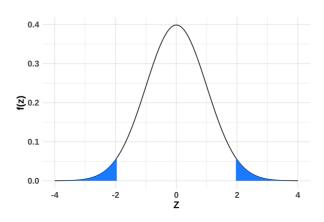
Want:
$$P(\hat{ heta}_L \leq heta \leq \hat{ heta}_U) = 1 - lpha$$

ullet Because $Z=rac{ ilde{ heta}- heta}{\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}}\sim N(0,1)$, and the Normal distribution is **symmetric**, we can use the following:

$$P\left(-z_{lpha/2} \leq rac{\hat{ heta}- heta}{\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}} \leq z_{lpha/2}
ight) = 1-lpha,$$

where $z_{lpha/2}$ is a Normal distribution quantile.

Example: If 1-lpha=0.95, lpha=0.05 and $z_{lpha/2}=1.96$.



A Large Sample Cl

The endpoints for a $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval for θ are given by:

- $\hat{ heta}_L = \hat{ heta} z_{lpha/2} \sigma_{\hat{ heta}}$
- $ullet \; \hat{ heta}_U = \hat{ heta} z_{lpha/2} \sigma_{\hat{ heta}}$

9How can we find $z_{lpha/2}$? Use table in back of textbook $extbf{R}$!

• Specifically, qnorm(...)

Example: 90% CI $\implies 1-\alpha = 0.90 \implies lpha/2 = 0.05$

qnorm(0.05, lower.tail = FALSE)

[1] 1.644854

Back to Piéchart Emporium (yet again)

Piéchart Emperium

Goal 🖣 🖣 🖣

Construct a 90% confidence interval for μ , the true average shopping time (in mins) per customer.

The Data 📊

- n=144 randomly selected customers
 - $\circ~ar{y}=30~\mathrm{mins}$
 - \circ s=12 mins

A Large-Sample CI for μ

The endpoints for the $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval for θ can be obtained by:

$$\hat{ heta}\pm z_{lpha/2}\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}$$

In this example...

•
$$\hat{\theta} = \bar{y} = 30$$

•
$$1 - \alpha = 0.90 \implies \alpha/2 = 0.05$$

•
$$\sigma_{\hat{ heta}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n} = \sigma/\sqrt{144} = 9$$

The sample standard deviation, S, is consistent for σ . So in large samples,

$$ar{y}\pm z_{lpha/2}\left(rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}
ight)pprox ar{y}\pm z_{lpha/2}\left(rac{s}{\sqrt{n}}
ight).$$

One-sided Cls

Using similar derivations, we can also determine $100(1-\alpha)\%$ one-sided confidence limits:

- 100(1-lpha)% lower bound for heta is $\hat{ heta}_L=\hat{ heta}-z_lpha\sigma_{\hat{ heta}}$
- 100(1-lpha)% upper bound for heta is $\hat{ heta}_U=\hat{ heta}+z_lpha\sigma\hat{ heta}$

These limits satisfy the following:

- $P(\hat{ heta}_L \leq heta) = 1 lpha$, with CI $[\hat{ heta}_L, \infty)$
- $P(heta \leq \hat{ heta}_U) = 1 lpha$, with CI $(-\infty, \hat{ heta}_U]$

Let's construct a 90% lower confidence bound for μ , the true average shopping time (in mins) per customer

A Large-Sample CI for p

In a poll of 1001 adults, 51% claim to be baseball fans.

Find a 99% confidence interval for p, the true propotion of baseball fans.

Think of the 1001 adults as the random sample $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{1001} \sim iid\ Bernoulli(p)$.

•
$$\hat{\theta} = \hat{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{1001} Y_i = 0.51$$

•
$$Var(Y) = p(1-p) \implies Var(\hat{p}) = \frac{p(1-p)}{n} = 9$$

Putting this together, a large-sample 100(1-lpha)% confidence interval for p is

$$\hat{p}\pm z_{lpha/2}\sqrt{rac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}}$$

Interpreting Frequentist Interval Estimates

Be very careful when interpreting confidence intervals! There are some tempting interpretations that are wrong:

Wrong

- There is a probability of 0.90 that the true average shopping time μ per customer is between 28.36 mins and 31.65 mins.
- μ is either in this interval, or it isn't!
- In order to calculate the **probability** that μ lies in **this interval** (28.36, 31.65), we need to first assign a prior distribution to μ , and then use the resulting posterior distribution.

Correct

- We are 90% confident that thr true average shopping time μ per customer is between 28.36 mins and 31.65 mins.
- In this context, we are using the phrase "90% confident", rather than "90% probability".

Interpreting Frequentist Interval Estimates

We can attribute probabilistic interpretations to the unobserved endpoints,

$$(\hat{ heta}-z_{lpha/2}\sigma_{\hat{ heta}},\hat{ heta}+z_{lpha/2}\sigma_{\hat{ heta}})$$

• Before these are observed, they are random variables and functions of Y_1, \ldots, Y_n .

If the same procedure were used many times on different random samples Y_1,\ldots,Y_n , then approximately $100(1-\alpha)\%$ of the resulting intervals will contain θ .

Simulation Check

```
p = 0.5
n = 1000
# Construct 95% CI
# and check whether it contains p = 0.5
coverage = replicate(10000, {
  # Collect sample
  sample_data = sample(0:1, size = n, replace = TRUE)
  p_hat = mean(sample_data)
  # Calculate CI
  theta_L = p_hat - 1.96*sqrt(p_hat*(1-p_hat)/n)
  theta_U = p_hat + 1.96 \times \text{sgrt}(p_hat \times (1-p_hat)/n)
  # Check coverage
  (theta_L <= 0.5) & (theta_U >= 0.5)
})
mean(coverage)
```

[1] 0.9467

Small-Sample Confidence Intervals

(for means)

Introduction

In the large-sample CIs that we constructed previously, we assumed the following:

The sample was sufficiently large!

ullet And we had *no restrictions* on the distribution of the sample data, Y_1,\ldots,Y_n .

The confidence intervals (for μ) that we will discuss now require that the sample has been randomly selected from a **normal** population.

- In other words, we'll assume that $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \sim iid \ N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.
 - \circ While we cannot truly know the true distribution of the Y_i , the following procedures will work well, as long as departures from normality are not extreme.

Setting

- ullet $Y_1,\ldots,Y_n\sim N(\mu,\sigma^2)$
- ullet $ar{Y}$ is the sample mean, and S^2 is the sample variance.

The t-distribution

Suppose we are performing inference for μ under the following scenario:

- $Var(Y_i) = \sigma^2$ is unknown.
- The sample size is **small**, so we can't use the *large-sample* techniques discussed previously.

Recall: If $Y_1,\ldots,Y_n\sim N(\mu,\sigma^2)$, then

$$T=rac{ar{Y}-\mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}\sim t(n-1).$$

Notice that:

- T is a function of only the sample measurements and the unknown parameter, μ .
- The distribution of T does not depend on μ .

Therefore, we can use T as a **pivotal quantity** in constructing a confidence interval for μ .

A Small-Sample CI for μ

Using T as a pivotal quantity, a (small-sample) 100(1-lpha)% CI for μ is

$$ar{Y}\pm t_{lpha/2}\left(rac{S}{\sqrt{n}}
ight)$$

• Note that $t_{lpha/2}$ also depends on the degrees of freedom, n-1.

This CI is also valid for large samples.

But what happens to the t-distribution for large n?

$$P(-t_{lpha/2} \leq T \leq t_{lpha/2}) pprox P(-z_{lpha/2} \leq Z \leq z_{lpha/2}) = 1 - lpha$$

```
qnorm(0.975)
```

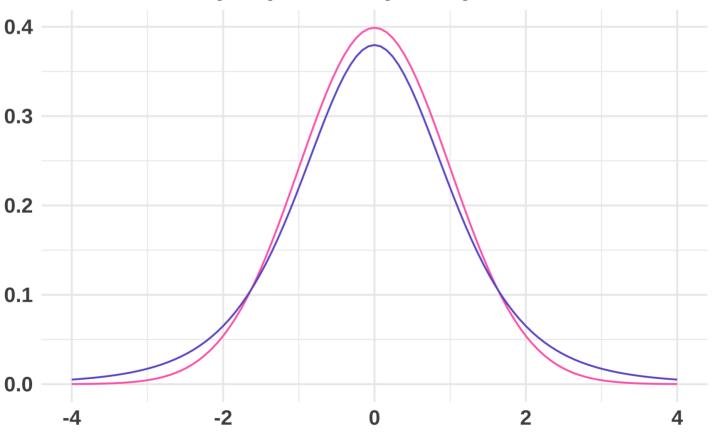
[1] 1.959964

```
qt(0.975, df = c(5, 50, 500))
```

[1] 2.570582 2.008559 1.964720

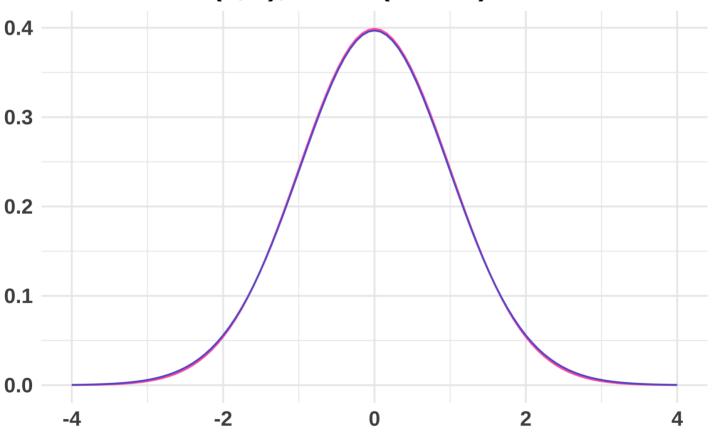
Student's t vs. Normal

Pink: Normal(0, 1); Blue: t(df = 5)



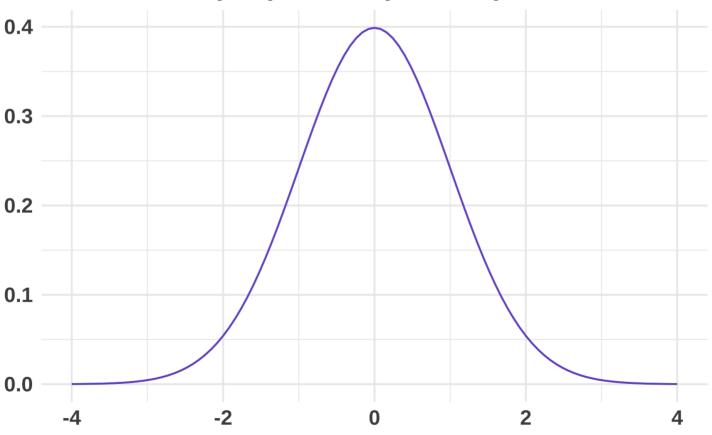
Student's t vs. Normal

Pink: Normal(0, 1); Blue: t(df = 50)



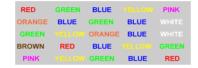
Student's t vs. Normal

Pink: Normal(0, 1); Blue: t(df = 500)



The Stroop Test

The **Stroop Effect** describes the psychological phenomenon that occurs when the processing of one particular stimulus feature interferes with the simultaneous processing of a second stimulus feature.



• Take the Stroop Test here!

A random sample of n=8 study participants yielded the following reaction times (in seconds per hundred reactions):

• 95, 99, 106, 107, 107, 114, 120, 127

Based on prior studies, it is reasonable to assume that reaction times are normally distributed.

Construct a 95% CI for $\mu\text{,}$ the population mean reaction time for the Stroop Test.

The Stroop Test

First, we need to calculate some stats:

```
stroop = c(95, 99, 106, 107, 107, 114, 120, 127)
mean(stroop) # Y_bar

## [1] 109.375

sd(stroop) # S

## [1] 10.56865
```

- How does this interval change if we use large-sample methods?
 - We're really just changing $t_{lpha/2}$ to $z_{lpha/2}$:

```
c(qt(0.975, df = 7), qnorm(0.975))
## [1] 2.364624 1.959964
```

A CI for μ_1 - μ_2

Suppose that we are interested in *comparing* the means of **two** normal populations:

- Population 1: Mean μ_1 and variance σ_1^2
- ullet Population 2: Mean μ_2 and variance σ_2^2

We can construct a CI for $\mu_1-\mu_2$ based on the *t*-distribution by making two additional assumptions:

- The two samples are independent from one another.
- The two populations have a common but unknown variance, $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = \sigma^2$.

A CI for μ_1 - μ_2

If $Y_{11},\ldots,Y_{1n_1}\sim N(\mu_1,\sigma^2)$ and $Y_{21},\ldots,Y_{2n_2}\sim N(\mu_2,\sigma^2)$,

$$ullet \ Var(ar{Y}_1 - ar{Y}_2) = rac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + rac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2} = \sigma^2 \left(rac{1}{n_1} + rac{1}{n_2}
ight)$$

$$ullet \ Z = rac{(ar{Y}_1 - ar{Y}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sigma \sqrt{rac{1}{n_1} + rac{1}{n_2}}} \sim N(0,1)$$

 \raiseta But σ^2 is unknown! What do we do?

Use the pooled variance estimator, S_p^2 :

$$S_p^2 = rac{(n_1-1)S_1^2 + (n_2-1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

The Pooled Variance Estimator

$$S_p^2 = rac{(n_1-1)S_1^2 + (n_2-1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

We can think of the pooled variance estimator, S_p^2 as the weighted average of S_1^2 and S_2^2 .

- If $n_1=n_2$, then S_p^2 is simply the average of S_1^2 and S_2^2 .
- If $n_1
 eq n_2$, then S_p^2 gives larger weight to the sample variance associated with the larger sample size.

Further,

$$W=rac{(n_1+n_2-2)S_p^2}{\sigma^2}\sim \chi^2(df=n_1+n_2-2),$$

SO

$$T=rac{Z}{\sqrt{W/df}}\sim t(df=n_1+_2-2)$$

A CI for μ_1 - μ_2

Because

$$T = rac{Z}{\sqrt{W/df}} = rac{(ar{Y}_1 - ar{Y}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{S_p \sqrt{rac{1}{n_1} + rac{1}{n_2}}}$$

is a **pivotal quantity**, we can use it to derive a confidence interval for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$.

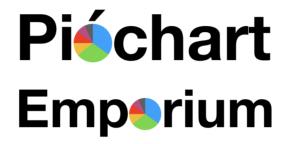
A $(1-\alpha) imes 100\%$ confidence interval for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ is

$$(ar{Y}_1 - ar{Y}_2) \pm t_{lpha/2} S_p \sqrt{rac{1}{n_1} + rac{1}{n_2}},$$

where $t_{lpha/2}$ is determined from the t-distribution with $df=n_1+n_2-2$.

Piéchart Emporium's Rival

Piéchart Emporium's rival on the other side of town is Bärchart Marketplace.







Construct a 95% confidence interval for $\mu_1-\mu_2$, the difference in average daily revenue (in USD) between Piéchart Emporium and Bärchart Marketplace.

Piéchart Emporium's Rival

Goal 🖣 🖣 🖣

Construct a 95% confidence interval for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$, the difference in average daily revenue (in USD) between Piéchart Emporium and Bärchart Marketplace.

Piéchart Emporium

 $egin{aligned} \bullet & n_p = 10 ext{ days} \ & \circ & ar{y}_p = 875 ext{ dollars} \ & \circ & s_p = 80 ext{ dollars} \end{aligned}$

Bärchart Marketplace

 $egin{aligned} \bullet & n_b = 10 ext{ days} \ & \circ & ar{y}_b = 960 ext{ dollars} \ & \circ & s_p = 90 ext{ dollars} \end{aligned}$

Confidence Intervals for the Variance

Introduction

The population variance, σ^2 quantifies the amount of variability in the population.

• While σ^2 is often unknown, we've shown that

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

is an unbiased estimator for σ^2 .

We've used S^2 in the construction of confidence intervals for μ and $\mu_1 - \mu_2$, but now let's use it in the construction of confidence intervals for σ^2 .

Want:
$$P(\chi_L^2 \leq \sigma^2 \leq \chi_U^2) = 1 - lpha$$

Need: A pivotal quantity!

Sample Variance Sampling Distribution

Setting: $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, where both μ and σ^2 are unknown.

ullet Earlier in the semester, we discussed that, when scaled appropriately, S^2 follows a $\chi^2(n-1)$ distribution. That is,

$$rac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = rac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - ar{Y})^2 \sim \chi^2(n-1).$$

• This is a pivotal quantity! It's a function of the data and σ^2 , and its distribution does not depend on σ^2 .

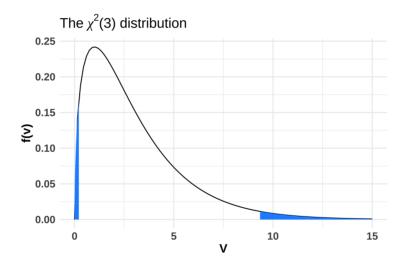
Therefore, we can derive a (1-lpha) imes 100% confidence interval for σ^2 via:

$$P\left(\chi_L^2 \leq rac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi_U^2
ight) = 1-lpha$$

A CI for ²

For χ^2_L and χ^2_U , we choose points that cut off equal tail areas.

ullet That is, $\chi^2_L=\chi^2_{lpha/2}$ and $\chi^2_U=\chi^2_{1-(lpha/2)}.$



A (1-lpha) imes 100% confidence interval for σ^2 is given by

$$\left(rac{(n-1)S^2}{\chi^2_{lpha/2}},rac{(n-1)S^2}{\chi^2_{1-(lpha/2)}}
ight)$$

Truck Noise

(WMS 8.95)

The EPA has set a maximum noise level for heavy trucks at 83 decibels (dB). The manner in which this limit is applied will greatly affect the trucking industry and the public. One way to apply the limit is to require all trucks to conform to the noise limit.

A second but less satisfactory method is to require the truck fleet's mean noise level to be less than the limit. If the latter rule is adopted, variation in the noise level from truck to truck becomes important because a large value of σ^2 would imply that many trucks exceed the limit, even if the mean fleet level were 83 dB. A random sample of six heavy trucks produced the following noise levels (in decibels):

85.4 86.8 86.1 85.3 84.8 86.0

Use these data to construct a 90% confidence interval for σ^2 , the variance of the truck noise emission readings. Interpret your results.