

Question. In the above example, what is the MGF $M_{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}(t)$ when $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_n$?

$$\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}\right)^n, \quad t < \lambda.$$

Exercise. Show that if $X_1 \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and $X_2 \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ are independent,

$$aX_1 + bX_2 \sim \text{Normal}(a\mu_1 + b\mu_2, a^2\sigma_1^2 + b^2\sigma_2^2).$$

X_1 and X_2 have MGFs

$$M_{X_1}(t) = e^{\mu_1 t + \frac{\sigma_1^2 t^2}{2}} \text{ and } M_{X_2}(t) = e^{\mu_2 t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_2^2 t^2}$$

respectively. The MGF of $Y = aX_1 + bX_2$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} M_Y(t) &= \mathbb{E}[e^{t(aX_1 + bX_2)}] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[e^{taX_1}] \cdot \mathbb{E}[e^{tbX_2}] \quad \text{as } X_1 \text{ and } X_2 \text{ are independent.} \\ &= M_{X_1}(ta) \cdot M_{X_2}(tb) \\ &= \exp(\mu_1 ta + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_1^2 t^2 a^2) \cdot \exp(\mu_2 tb + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_2^2 t^2 b^2) \\ &= \exp(\underbrace{(\mu_1 a + \mu_2 b)}_{\text{mean}} t + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{(\sigma_1^2 a^2 + \sigma_2^2 b^2)}_{\text{variance}} t^2) \end{aligned}$$

showing $Y \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$.

Whenever $M_X(t)$ is defined, it can be determined from the distribution of X . Is the converse true? Given a moment generating function $M_X(t)$, can the distribution of X be determined? Fortunately, the answer is YES (moment-generating functions have the **uniqueness property**) but proving it requires some complex analysis, so we won't do so in this class.

As a simple example, let's consider an easier task. Suppose that you know $M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}e^{tX}$ explicitly. Can you find the mean $\mathbb{E}X$ from this?

Assume we can interchange differentiation + integration.

$$\frac{d}{dt} M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{d}{dt} e^{tX}\right] = \mathbb{E}[X e^{tX}] \Rightarrow M_X'(0) = \mathbb{E}[X]$$

More generally, given an MGF, we can find the n th moment $\mathbb{E}X^n$ by differentiating $M_X(t)$ n times and then setting $t = 0$. This is where the name *moment-generating function* comes from.

The series expansion $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ (plus the linearity property of expectation) may be used to rewrite the MGF as:

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}e^{tX} = \mathbb{E} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n X^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n \mathbb{E}X^n}{n!}.$$

Note that a necessary (but it turns out, not sufficient) condition for the MGF to exist is that $\mathbb{E}X^n < \infty$ for all $n = 1, 2, \dots$.

Exercise: Write $\mathbb{E} X$ and $\mathbb{E} [X^2]$ in terms of M_X .

$$M_X(t) =$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} M_X(t) =$$

$$\Rightarrow M'_X(0) =$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} M_X(t) =$$

$$\Rightarrow M''_X(0) =$$

Exercise: Suppose X has moment generating function $M_X(t) = (\lambda/(\lambda - t))^n$, where n is a positive integer. Find the mean and variance of X .

$t < \lambda, \lambda > 0$

$$M(t) = (1 - t/\lambda)^{-n}$$

$$M_X(t) = (1 - t/\lambda)^{-n}$$

$$M'_X(t) = -n(1 - t/\lambda)^{-(n+1)} \cdot (-1/\lambda) = \frac{n}{\lambda} (1 - t/\lambda)^{-(n+1)}$$

$$M''_X(t) = -\frac{n}{\lambda} (n+1) (1 - t/\lambda)^{-(n+2)} \cdot (-1/\lambda) = \frac{n(n+1)}{\lambda^2} (1 - t/\lambda)^{-(n+2)}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = M'_X(0) = n/\lambda$$

$$= \frac{n(n+1)}{\lambda^2} (1 - t/\lambda)^{-(n+2)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}X)^2 \\ &= M''_X(0) - (M'_X(0))^2 \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)}{\lambda^2} - (n/\lambda)^2 = \frac{n}{\lambda^2} \end{aligned}$$

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Estimation

By the end of this chapter you should:

- Know what a simple random sample is.
- Know the Law of Large Numbers and Central Limit Theorem.
- Be able to compute a confidence interval for a mean and for the difference of two means. *parameter of normal distribution*
- Be able to compute a confidence interval for a proportion and for the difference of two proportions. *Parameter of Binomial distribution.*

Collections of independent random variables play such an important role in statistics that we give them a special name.

Definition. The random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n form **simple random sample** of size n if

- (a) the X_i 's are independent random variables, and
- (b) every X_i has the same distribution.

We will often write \mathbf{X} for the simple random sample X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .

A realisation of a simple random sample forms the *sample data*. We typically denote sample data as $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$.

Example: Let X_i be the face value of the i th roll of a fair, six-sided die. Assume that the rolls of the die are independent. The random vector (X_1, X_2, X_3) is a simple random sample of size 3 while an example of the sample data $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ might be $\mathbf{x} = (5, 1, 5)$.

We have seen a number of families of distributions. Each distribution in the family is determined by a set of parameters. For example, the normal distribution is parameterised by its *mean (μ)* and *variance (σ^2)*. We will denote the parameter of a generic distribution by θ . Typically, θ will be unknown and we will need to determine a

suitable single number, based on sample data, that represents an appropriate value for θ .

Definition. A point estimate for θ is a single number $T(\mathbf{x})$ constructed from sample data \mathbf{x} that can be thought of as a sensible value for θ . The random variable $T(\mathbf{X})$, where \mathbf{X} is a random sample, is a point estimator of θ .

It is important to understand how well a given estimator performs. Some basic criteria for judging an estimator are *unbiasedness* and *consistency*.

Definition. We say $T(\mathbf{X})$ is an unbiased estimator of θ if $\mathbb{E}[T(\mathbf{X})] = \theta$.

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Example. The estimator \bar{X} corresponding to the sample mean is an unbiased estimator of $\mu := \mathbb{E}[X_i]$ as

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(X_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu = \mu.$$

Example. The estimator S^2 corresponding to the sample variance

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

Try to show this.

is an unbiased estimator of $\sigma^2 := \text{Var}(X_i)$. ~~We saw this in Quiz 7.~~

Example. Let $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$. The estimator $\hat{P} := X/n$ is an unbiased estimator of p .

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{P}] = \mathbb{E}[X/n] = \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot np = p.$$

Definition. The estimator $T(\mathbf{X})$ from a sample of size n is said to be consistent if, for any $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|T(\mathbf{X}) - \theta| > \varepsilon) = 0.$$

In order to establish consistency of our estimators, it will be useful to learn about the inequalities of Markov and Chebyshev (or is it Tchebycheff, or Tschebyschef, or ...)

Inequalities of Markov and Chebyshev

Consider the function $g_c : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ defined by

$$g_c(y) := y - c \mathbb{I}(y \geq c) \geq 0$$

$$g_c(y) = \begin{cases} y - c, & y \geq c \\ y, & 0 \leq y < c \end{cases}$$

Let Y be any non-negative random variables. Then computing the expectation of $g_c(Y)$ shows

$$0 \leq \mathbb{E}[g_c(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[Y] - c \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{I}(Y \geq c)].$$

So

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{I}(Y \geq c)] = \mathbb{P}(Y \geq c) \leq \mathbb{E}[Y]/c$$

Suppose

$$Z = \mathbb{I}(Y \geq c)$$

$$Z \sim \text{Bernoulli}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Z] = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{I}(Y \geq c))$$

$$= \int \mathbb{I}(y \geq c) f_Y(y) dy$$

$$= \int_c^\infty f_Y(y) dy = \mathbb{P}(Y \geq c)$$

s.r.s
 $X_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$
 $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$
 $\sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$

Indicator
 function

$$\mathbb{I}(y \geq c) = \begin{cases} 1, & y \geq c \\ 0, & y < c \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) = \frac{n \text{Var}(X_1)}{n^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

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This is called Markov's inequality. Now consider a random variable X with finite mean μ and variance σ^2 . Setting $Y = (X - \mu)^2$ and $c = \varepsilon^2$ in Markov's inequality yields

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq \varepsilon) = \mathbb{P}((X - \mu)^2 \geq \varepsilon^2) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}((X - \mu)^2)}{\varepsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2}$$

This is called Chebyshev's inequality. We can use Chebyshev's inequality to show consistency of estimators. For example, let \bar{X} be the estimator corresponding to the sample mean from a simple random sample of size n . Then

$$\mathbb{P}(|\bar{X} - \mu| \geq \varepsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(\bar{X})}{\varepsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n \varepsilon^2}$$

From this inequality we can see that \bar{X} is a **consistent** estimator of μ . In other words, the average of a large number of independent and identically distributed random variables tends to the expected value as the sample size goes to infinity. This result is known as the **Law of Large Numbers**.

Central limit theorem

If X_1, \dots, X_n is a simple random sample from a $\text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ distribution, then

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \sim$$

Suppose now we have a simple random sample X_1, \dots, X_n of size n , where $\mathbb{E}X_i = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$, but the distribution of the X_i is not necessarily normal. It is one of the remarkable results of probability and statistics that \bar{X} has approximately a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2/n . More precisely, for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \leq x\right) = \Phi(x),$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution. This result is called the **Central Limit Theorem**.

As a sketch of the ideas involved, suppose that X_1, \dots, X_n form a simple random sample with $\mathbb{E}X_i = 0$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) = 1$. The general result follows by considering random variables $Y_i := \mu + \sigma X_i$. If we can show that the moment generating function $M_{Z_n}(t)$ of $Z_n := n^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ converges to $\exp(t^2/2)$ (the MGF of the standard normal distribution) for all t in some neighbourhood of 0, then it follows (from Lévy's continuity theorem — a result we will not study) that the distribution of Z_n converges to a standard normal distribution.

Let $M_X(t)$ denote the moment generating function of the X_i . The moment generating function of Z_n is