

Stats 135, Fall 2019

Lecture 4, Friday, 9/6/2019

Last time, we showed the highlighted part of the formula table. To wrap up, Chapter 7 was about the population mean, estimating μ, p, σ^2 and looking at the SE of them. Now in Chapter 8, we're going to generalize this. We have some data that fits a given distribution, and we need an estimator that should have some nice properties.

Further, we motivated why we estimate parameters of a probability model (as in the hospital Poisson example).

1 §8.4 Method of Moment (MOM) estimators

An estimator should converge to the true value (this is called **consistency**). There are different notions and definitions of convergence of a random variable (we will focus on the definition for Probability).

We'll first review the Gamma (Γ) distribution in the α -particle example. Suppose that $X \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \lambda)$, where X is the time to the r th arrival of a Poisson process. Here, r is the r th particle, and λ is the rate of arrival of α -particles in the Poisson process. This has a density that we should know:

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda^r}{\Gamma(r)} x^{r-1} e^{-\lambda x},$$

and recall:

$$\Gamma(r) = (r-1)!, \quad r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(x) &= \frac{r}{\lambda} \\ \text{Var}(x) &= \frac{r}{\lambda^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now for Method of Moment estimators (MOM), if we want to estimate l parameters $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_l)$ of a probability distribution $f(x \mid \theta_1, \dots, \theta_l)$ from iid sample x_1, \dots, x_n from this distributions, there are 3 steps:

1.1 (Step 1)

We compute the first l moments (where moments are the k th expectation):

$$\mu_k = \mathbb{E}(x^k), \quad k = 1, \dots, l.$$

Now the RHS is given by the integral:

$$\mu_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f(x \mid \theta_1, \dots, \theta_l) dx.$$

This does depend on what these θ_i are. For i in $1 : k$, we'll say these μ_i are functions g_i on the arguments θ_j . That is, we have the family of equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_1 &= g_1(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_l) \\ \mu_2 &= g_2(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_l) \\ &\vdots \\ \mu_l &= g_l(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_l). \end{aligned}$$

Example: Let $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$, with $l = 1$ and let X be the number of arrivals in 10 second intervals. The average rate of arrivals is just λ :

$$\mu_1 = \mathbb{E}(x) = \lambda.$$

Example: Suppose $X \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \lambda)$ now with $l = 2$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_1 &= \mathbb{E}(x) = \frac{r}{\lambda} \\ \mu_2 &= \mathbb{E}(x^2) = \underbrace{\text{Var}(x)}_{r/\lambda^2} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}(x)^2}_{(r/\lambda)^2} = \frac{r + r^2}{\lambda^2}.\end{aligned}$$

1.2 (Step 2)

Now we use algebra to invert the above system of equations (require h to be a continuous function of μ_1, \dots, μ_l):

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_1 &= h_1(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_l) \\ \theta_2 &= h_2(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_l) \\ &\vdots \\ \theta_l &= h_l(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_l)\end{aligned}$$

Example: In the Poisson case, then we simply have:

$$\mu_1 = \lambda \implies \lambda = \mu_1.$$

We wrote μ_1 in terms of the parameter, and in step 2 we wrote the parameter in terms of the moment. Done!

Example: In the Gamma case, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_1 &= \frac{r}{\lambda} \\ \mu_2 &= \frac{r}{\lambda^2} + \frac{r^2}{\lambda^2} = \frac{\mu_1}{\lambda} + \mu_1^2 \\ \implies \frac{\mu}{\lambda} &= \mu_2 - \mu_1^2,\end{aligned}$$

so this gives:

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda &= \frac{\mu_1}{\mu_2 - \mu_1^2} \\ r &= \lambda \mu_1 = \frac{\mu_1^2}{\mu_2 - \mu_1^2}\end{aligned}$$

1.3 (Step 3)

Now we insert into (*) the estimator for the moments μ_1, \dots, μ_l . We call these **sample moments**.

The first moment is the mean, so the first sample moment is the sample mean:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mu}_1 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \\ \hat{\mu}_2 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \\ \mathbb{E}(x^2) &\quad \vdots \\ \hat{\mu}_l &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^l.\end{aligned}$$

We will show in homework that these are unbiased estimators of μ_1, \dots, μ_l . Now we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta}_1 &= h_1(\hat{\mu}_1, \dots, \hat{\mu}_l) \\ \hat{\theta}_2 &= h_2(\hat{\mu}_1, \dots, \hat{\mu}_l) \\ &\quad \vdots \\ \hat{\theta}_l &= h_l(\hat{\mu}_1, \dots, \hat{\mu}_l),\end{aligned}$$

where we essentially just replace the non-hats with hats. We call these the **MOM estimators** for $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_l$. In practice, these are usually not the best estimators, but they are simple (just algebraic) so we talk about it now.

For example, we have:

Poisson:

$$\lambda = \mu_1 \implies \hat{\lambda} = \hat{\mu}_1 = \hat{x}$$

and for Gamma:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\lambda} &= \frac{\hat{\mu}_1}{\hat{\mu}_2 - \hat{\mu}_1^2} \\ \hat{r} &= \frac{\hat{\mu}_1}{\hat{\mu}_2 - \hat{\mu}_1^2}\end{aligned}$$

2 Showing MOM estimators are Consistent

This is the most fundamental property that we want, which is to say that

$$\hat{\theta}_{MOM} \xrightarrow{p} \theta,$$

where we write p to mean convergence in the probability sense.

We first take a short digression to prove the **Weak Law of Large Numbers**. Our book doesn't go into this, so Lucas wants us to have this little missing piece.

We want to have Markov's inequality:

Theorem 2.1. (Markov's Inequality) :

For $x \geq 0$, $c > 0$, then the tail probability has the bound:

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq c) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(X)}{c}.$$

We won't prove this in lecture (Adam diverts the proof to Pitman).

Example: Let x_1, \dots, x_n be iid with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then the sample mean is:

$$\bar{x}_{(n)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i,$$

and note that we know this is unbiased and we know the variance:

$$\mathbb{E}(\bar{x}_{(n)}) = \mu, \quad \text{Var}(\bar{x}_{(n)}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$. Use Markov's inequality to give an upper bound for

$$\mathbb{P}(\underbrace{|\bar{x}_{(n)} - \mu|}_{\text{nonrandom var}} \geq \underbrace{\epsilon}_{c>0})$$

So we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(|\bar{x}_{(n)} - \mu| \geq \epsilon) &= \mathbb{P}((\bar{x}_{(n)} - \mu)^2 \geq \epsilon^2) \\ &\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\bar{x}_{(n)} - \mu)^2]}{\epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{\text{Var}(\bar{x}_{(n)})}{\epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2}, \end{aligned}$$

where in the first line we square both sides because both are positive, and we notice we have n in the denominator, so taking a distribution of $\bar{x}_{(n)} - \mu$ is centered at 0 and the tail area gets smaller as $n \rightarrow \infty$. More precisely, the area is bound by:

$$\frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2} \rightarrow 0, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Definition: Convergence in Probability -

In friendly words, this is the idea that the probability of an unusual outcome gets smaller and smaller as n grows.

To say that one random variable converges in probability to another, as n grows larger, it will be very unlikely that their difference will be any greater, than say ϵ .

For example, take a sequence X_1, X_2, \dots of random variables. We say this sequence converges in probability to a random variable X if $\forall_{\epsilon>0}$, the probability:

$$\mathbb{P}(|x_n - x| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Example of Weak Law of Large Numbers: The Weak Law of Large Numbers says that for x_1, \dots, x_n iid with mean μ and variance σ^2 , we have:

$$\bar{x}_{(n)} \xrightarrow{p} \mu,$$

where μ is the constant random variable that takes the value μ with probability 1.

This follows directly from Markov's inequality.
We already derived:

$$\mathbb{P}(|\bar{x}_{(n)} - \mu| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2 \cdot n} \rightarrow 0, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

This proves the Weak Law of Large numbers. We can generalize this to higher moments. Take x_1, \dots, x_n iid with mean μ and variance σ^2 . This says:

$$\hat{\mu}_k \xrightarrow{p} \mu_k,$$

where

$$\hat{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^k, \text{ and } \mu_k = \mathbb{E}(x^k).$$

Now we want to show consistency.

Definition: Consistency -

An estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of a parameter θ is **consistent** if $\hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{p} \theta$.

We argue that MOM is consistent. Adam Lucas notes that there is a highly-believable theorem:

Theorem 2.2. Suppose random variables x_1, x_2, \dots converge in probability to a random variable x and h is a **continuous** function. Then $h(x_1), h(x_2), \dots$ converge in probability to $h(x)$.

Lucas states that to make our weekend complete, consider that if h is continuous (as in the Method of Moments case), then the estimator is **consistent**. In other words, our MOM estimator:

$$\hat{\theta}_{MOM} = h(\hat{\mu}_1, \dots, \hat{\mu}_l) \xrightarrow{p} \theta = h(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_l),$$

which is very clear to see.

Lecture ends here.