

Inferential Statistics

L6 - Confidence Sets

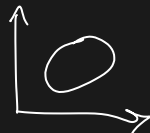
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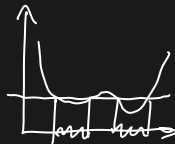
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SET vs. INTERVAL



\emptyset vettoriali \Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow insieme, non intervallo



più intervalli \Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow insieme

Recall this problem statement?

Suppose that the average energy consumption of our population of WMs, mounting a standard motor, is μ_0 .

It's claimed that NG1 family motors would lead to more efficient WMs, i.e. would lead to average consumption μ , s.t. $\mu < \mu_0$.

There are two possibilities:

- the claim is false, so $\mu_0 \leq \mu$; this is called Null Hypothesis (“null” because it adds nothing to the current state of art)
- the claim is true, so $\mu < \mu_0$; it's called Alternative Hypothesis.

Problem statement

In L5 we equipped 10 WM's with the NG1 motor and measured their E consumption getting 19.1, 20.6, 17.3, 21.1, 19.5, 19.5, 21.4, 19.1, 20.5, 19.5.

$\bar{x} = 19.76$ is a good point estimate (L4) for the population E consumption μ . However, it's very unlikely that this estimates equals μ . Indeed,

$$P_{\mu}(\bar{X} = \mu) = 0.$$

Sometimes, however, it is desired to produce a set or an interval estimate, that includes μ with a pre-specified probability.

This set typically has infinite values, i.e. infinite estimates of μ , so it's less informative than the point estimate; however, the reward is that we have some guarantee that our assertion is correct.

Definition

An interval estimate of a scalar parameter θ is any pair of functions $L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})$ of a sample $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ s.t. $L(\mathbf{x}) \leq U(\mathbf{x})$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$.

At the observed sample it is inferred that $L(\mathbf{x}) \leq \theta \leq U(\mathbf{x})$.

The random interval $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$ based on the random sample $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is called an interval estimator.

Interval estimators could also be lower or upper intervals, e.g.
 $(-\infty, U(\mathbf{X}))$ or $(L(\mathbf{X}), \infty)$, respectively.

Example 1

For an iid random sample X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 from a $N(\mu, 1)$, we know that $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, 1/4)$. Thus $[\bar{X} - 1, \bar{X} + 1]$ is an interval estimator for μ .

In L4 we saw that \bar{X} was a good estimator for μ . Why on earth would we want the less precise estimator $\bar{X} \pm 1$?

The answer is that now we have a positive probability ($\approx .95$) that the interval contains the (unknown) parameter μ .

Definitions

intervallo può essere aperto o chiuso

For an interval estimator $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$ of a parameter θ , we define the coverage probability by

$$P_{\theta}(\theta \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]),$$

i.e. the probability that the random interval $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$ traps θ .

The smallest coverage probability among all θ , i.e.

$$\inf_{\theta \in \Theta} P_{\theta}(\theta \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]),$$

is called the confidence level.

An interval estimator $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$ with confidence level $1 - \alpha$, (with $\alpha \in (0, 1)$) is called confidence interval of level $1 - \alpha$.

Method of inverting a test statistic

For a two tailed confidence interval, e.g. $[L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})]$, the method for constructing a $1 - \alpha$ -level confidence set consists in the following three steps:

- (1) get R , the rejection region for $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$ vs $H_1 : \theta \neq \theta_0$;
- (2) get the acceptance region xR^c
- (3) invert the acceptance region

Upper or lower confidence intervals can be built similarly; the shape of the rejection region determines the shape of the confidence interval.

Method of inverting a test statistic

Example 2 (See Example 9, L5)

Consider X_1, \dots, X_n an iid random sample with $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, σ^2 is known and $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ against $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$. The rejection region is

$$R = \{\mathbf{x} : |\bar{x} - \mu_0| > z_{1-\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}\},$$

so H_0 is accepted if $\mathbf{x} \in R^c$, or equivalently if

$$\bar{x} - z_{1-\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \leq \mu_0 \leq \bar{x} + z_{1-\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}.$$

But,


$$\begin{aligned} P_{\mu_0}(\mathbf{X} \in R^c) &= P_{\mu_0}(\mu_0 \in [\bar{X} \pm z_{1-\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}]) \\ &= 1 - \alpha, \quad \forall \mu_0, \end{aligned}$$

so $[\bar{X} \pm z_{1-\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}]$ is a $1 - \alpha$ confidence interval for μ .

Example 2 (cont'd)

Suppose the observed sample is (as in L5)

19.1, 20.6, 17.3, 21.1, 19.5, 19.5, 21.4, 19.1, 20.5, 19.5

θ_0 

*noi non sappiamo θ_0 ⇒
⇒ prob. che NOI abbiamo intervallo con μ*

and let $\sigma^2 = 5$. Then $\bar{x} = 19.76$ and the 0.95 confidence interval for μ is

$$\left[19.76 - 1.96 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{5}{10}}, 19.76 + 1.96 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{5}{10}} \right] = [18.37, 21.14]$$

Caution!

[18.37, 21.14] is an observed interval and it's not correct to say "this interval contains the true mean μ_0 with probability 0.95". Indeed, μ_0 either is or is not inside this interval. We can only say that we are 0.95 confident that the interval contains μ_0 .

→ $(0,1)$ probabilità ⇒ intervallo non è quantità random

Two sides of the same coin

Confidence sets of level $1 - \alpha$ are thus derived by inverting a given test of size (or level) α :

- (i) Wald-type confidence sets are derived by inverting Wald tests
- (ii) likelihood-based confidence sets are obtained inverting an LRT.

Inverting a Wald test

Let $R = \{\mathbf{X} : |\hat{\theta} - \theta_0|/\hat{se}\} > z_{1-\alpha/2}\}$ be the rejection region of a Wald test of (approx.) size α for

$$H_0 : \theta = \theta_0 \text{ against } H_1 : \theta \neq \theta_0.$$

Then, the corresponding Wald-type confidence interval of (approx.)

confidence level $1 - \alpha$ is

$$[\hat{\theta} - z_{1-\alpha/2}\hat{se}, \hat{\theta} + z_{1-\alpha/2}\hat{se}].$$

This immediately generalizes when θ is a vector and we are interested in a single component, say θ_i .

Inverting a LRT

For a scalar parameter θ , let again

$$H_0 : \theta = \theta_0 \text{ against } H_1 : \theta \neq \theta_0,$$

and for a fixed θ_0 , consider the rejection region of size α of the LRT

$$R_\alpha(\theta_0) = \left\{ \mathbf{X} : -2 \log \frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\hat{\theta})} > \chi_{1,1-\alpha} \right\}.$$

The likelihood-based confidence set of level $1 - \alpha$ is given by

$$\{\theta : \theta \in R_\alpha(\theta)\},$$

holding the data \mathbf{X} fixed.

complement

Here is an example.

Example 3

Let X_1, \dots, X_n be an iid random sample with $X_i \sim \text{Poi}(\theta)$, with θ unknown. Furthermore, let

$$x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 = 0, \quad x_3 = 3, \quad x_4 = 5, \quad x_5 = 7,$$

be an observed sample. The MLE is $\hat{\theta} = 3$ and $-2 \log$ of LRT statistic is

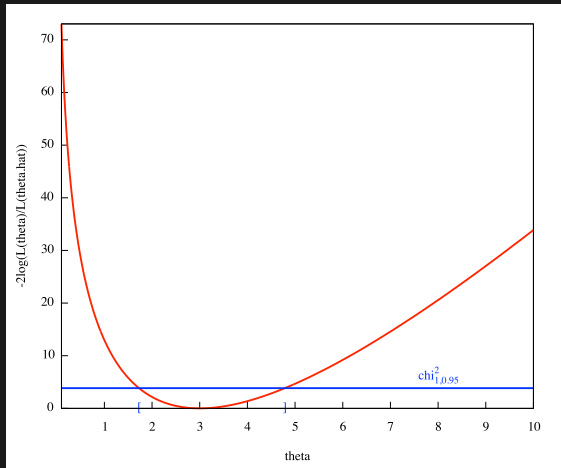
$$-2 \log(L(\theta)/L(\hat{\theta})) = -10(3 - \theta) - 30 \log(\theta/3).$$

The likelihood-based confidence set of level $1 - \alpha$ is thus the set

$$\{\theta : -10(3 - \theta) - 30 \log(\theta/3) < \chi_{1,1-\alpha}^2\}.$$

Example 3 (cont'd): A déjà vu ?

The confidence interval in question is the set of values for θ that lie between the points of intersection of the two curves, here $[1.72, 4.78]$



Comments

A confidence set computed at an observed sample is a set of numbers and, in this case, the true parameter value either is or isn't inside the set.

For instance, in Example 3, if the true parameter happened to be $\theta = 1$, the probability that this 0.95 confidence set includes θ is 0; if $\theta = 2$, $\text{prob}=1$.

In practice, we'll never know θ , so we can only be 95% confident that the confidence set includes θ .

By "95% confident" we mean:

If we could collect a large number of samples, all of size n , and for each of them compute a 0.95 confidence set, then we expect that exactly 95% of these sets will include the true parameter value.

Choosing between confidence sets

By definition, a confidence region must cover the true parameter value with probability of at least $1 - \alpha$.

In practice, however, the test used to compute it is asymptotically of size α . Thus, for finite n the coverage may not be as desired.

Furthermore, the larger the confidence set the less informative it is.

We prefer confidence set that have:

- (i) coverage probability as close as possible to $1 - \alpha$
- (ii) length (or volume) as small as possible; applies only to bounded confidence set.

Example 4

t confidence interval Let X_1, \dots, X_n be an iid random sample from $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, with both parameters unknown.

A confidence interval for μ of level $1 - \alpha$ can be obtained by inverting the LRT test (see Example 12, L5). Indeed, given

$$R_\alpha(\mu_0) = \left\{ \mathbf{X} : \left| \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu_0)}{S} \right| > t_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2} \right\},$$

the confidence set for fixed \mathbf{X} is

$$\left\{ \mu : \bar{X} - t_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2} \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + t_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2} \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}.$$

Example 5

Confidence interval for the variance Let X_1, \dots, X_n be an iid random sample from $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, with both parameters unknown.

A confidence interval for σ^2 of level $1 - \alpha$ can be obtained by inverting the LRT test (see Example 13, L5). Indeed, given

$$R_\alpha(\sigma_0^2) = \left\{ \mathbf{X} : \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma_0^2} < \chi_{n-1, \alpha/2}^2 \text{ or } \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma_0^2} > \chi_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2}^2 \right\}$$

the confidence set for fixed \mathbf{X} is

$$\left\{ \sigma^2 : \chi_{n-1, \alpha/2}^2 < \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} < \chi_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2}^2 \right\} = \left\{ \sigma^2 : \left(\frac{\chi_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2}^2}{n\hat{\sigma}^2} \right)^{-1} < \sigma^2 < \left(\frac{\chi_{n-1, \alpha/2}^2}{n\hat{\sigma}^2} \right)^{-1} \right\}.$$

Example 6

t confidence interval for the difference of means Let X_1, \dots, X_m and Y_1, \dots, Y_n are two iid random samples with $X_i \sim N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$, $Y_j \sim N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$ and X_i is independent from Y_j , all parameters unknown.

Assuming, $\sigma_x^2 = \sigma_y^2$ a confidence interval for $\mu_x - \mu_y$ is obtained by inverting the LRT (Example 14, L5). The confidence interval is

$$\mu_x - \mu_y \in \left[\bar{X} - \bar{Y} \pm t_{n+m-2, 1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{S_p^2 \left(\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n} \right)} \right].$$

If $\sigma_x^2 \neq \sigma_y^2$, the $1 - \alpha$ confidence interval becomes

$$\mu_x - \mu_y \in \left[\bar{X} - \bar{Y} \pm t_{\nu, 1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{S_x^2/m + S_y^2/n} \right].$$