

STA 250/MTH 342 – Intro to Mathematical Statistics

Lecture 6

The sampling (or frequentist) view point

- ▶ Both Bayesians and frequentists agree on the need to build models for the distribution of the data given certain parameters— $f(x|\theta)$ or $p(x|\theta)$.
- ▶ Frequentists do not consider the parameter as a random quantity, but rather think of it as a *fixed unknown* quantity.
- ▶ From this perspective, the only random quantities are the data (or functions of data, i.e. statistics) *prior to the experiment*.
- ▶ Once the experiment is done and we have observed the data, then nothing is random.
- ▶ So we can no longer say things like “Given the data, the *chance* of ...”

Point estimation

- ▶ Let us come back to the point estimation problem—the “guessing” of the value of a parameter θ *based on observed data* $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$.
- ▶ Such guesses, which are *functions of the data*, are called *estimators* for the parameter. Common notations: $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})$, $\delta(\mathbf{X})$, etc. Estimators are essentially “rules” that map data to guesses.
- ▶ If the observed data is $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$, where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, the realized value of an estimator $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ is $\delta(\mathbf{x})$, which is called an *estimate*. Estimates are the actual guesses.
- ▶ What is a criterion for “good” estimators?
- ▶ A good estimator should be such that the estimate and the actual parameter θ are *“likely to be close”*.

What does “likely to be close” mean?

2. The sampling view:

- ▶ The parameter is a *fixed* unknown number. The only random quantities are the data.
- ▶ After data is observed, however, nothing is random. No matter what estimator $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ we are considering, we cannot judge how close the parameter θ is to a *single realization of* the estimate $\delta(\mathbf{x})$ after $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$ is observed.
- ▶ In this case, we want to choose an estimator $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ that will “with high probability” take values close to the underlying fixed θ .
- ▶ Such a probabilistic statement can only be made *before the experiment*, or under repeated experiment.

Note that this is a “before the experiment” view, in contrast to the “after the experiment” view taken by the Bayesian perspective.

What does “likely to be close” mean?

This depends on which view about inference you are taking ...

1. The Bayesian view:

- ▶ Both the parameter θ and data \mathbf{X} are random variables.
- ▶ *After* we have observed the data $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$, only θ is random, and its distribution is the posterior distribution $\xi(\theta|\mathbf{x})$.
- ▶ In this case, we want to pick an estimate $\delta(\mathbf{x})$ such that *a posteriori* the parameter θ , which is random, will likely take values close to the estimate $\delta(\mathbf{x})$.

Note that here the parameter is random while the estimate $\delta(\mathbf{x})$ is a fixed number given the observed data $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$.

The sampling distribution of an estimator

- ▶ Now we take the view of a *fixed* but *unknown* parameter θ .
- ▶ The data $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ are jointly distributed random variables with a joint distribution $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$, presumably different for each θ .
- ▶ Any estimator $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ is also a random variable, and will have a distribution $f_\delta(u|\theta)$ given θ .
- ▶ This is called the *sampling distribution* of the estimator $\delta(\mathbf{X})$.

Example: the political poll revisited

Let us consider a simple estimator,

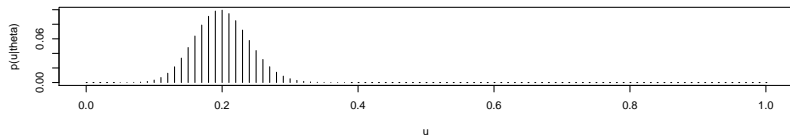
$$\delta(X) = \frac{X}{n}.$$

With $n = 100$, its p.m.f is

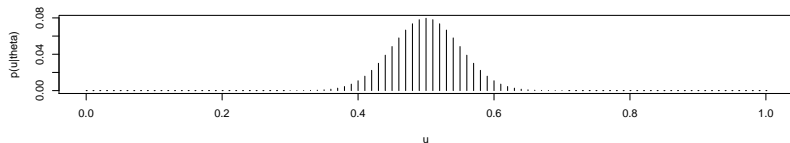
$$\begin{aligned} P(\delta(X) = u \mid \theta) &= \binom{100}{100u} \theta^{100u} (1 - \theta)^{100(1-u)} \quad \text{for } u = .01, .02, \dots, 1 \\ &= 0 \quad \text{otherwise.} \end{aligned}$$

Probability mass function of the estimator $\delta(X) = X/n$

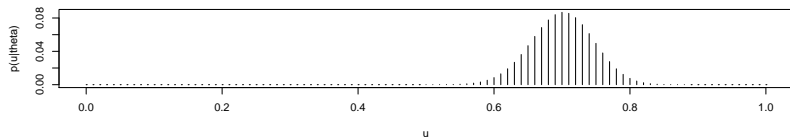
p.m.f of $\delta(X)$ given $\theta = 0.2$



p.m.f of $\delta(X)$ given $\theta = 0.5$



p.m.f of $\delta(X)$ given $\theta = 0.7$



Example: measuring air pollutant

If n independent readings X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are taken from the distribution $N(\theta, \tau^2)$ with known τ , then what is the sampling distribution of the *sample mean estimator* (given θ)?

$$\delta(\mathbf{X}) = \delta(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}.$$

Note that

$$E[\bar{X}|\theta] = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i|\theta)}{n} = \frac{n\theta}{n} = \theta$$

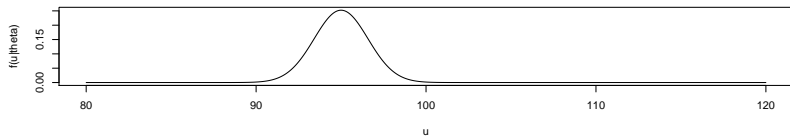
and

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}|\theta) = \text{Var}\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} \middle| \theta\right) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i|\theta)}{n^2} = \frac{n\tau^2}{n^2} = \frac{\tau^2}{n}.$$

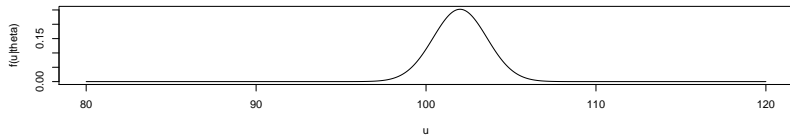
Since the sum of independent normal random variables are still normal random variables, its sampling distribution is $N(\theta, \tau^2/n)$.

Sampling distribution of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ for $n = 10$, $\tau = 5$

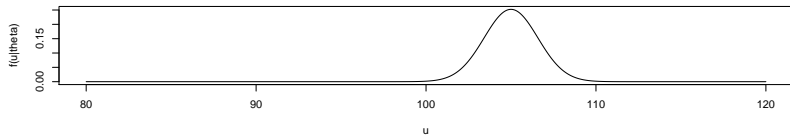
p.d.f of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ given $\theta = 95$



p.d.f of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ given $\theta = 102$

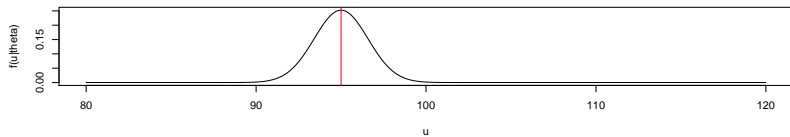


p.d.f of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ given $\theta = 105$

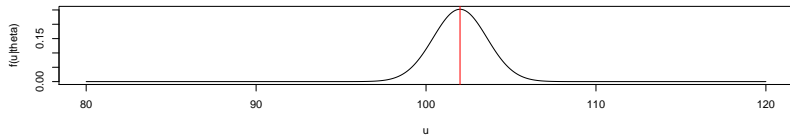


Sampling distribution of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ for $n = 10$, $\tau = 5$

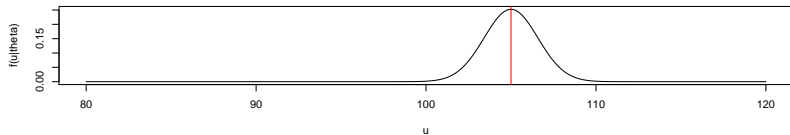
p.d.f of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ given $\theta = 95$



p.d.f of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ given $\theta = 102$



p.d.f of $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ given $\theta = 105$



Criteria for selecting “good” estimators

Two desirable properties of estimators under repeated experiments:

- ▶ “Overall accuracy”: $E(\delta(X)|\theta)$ is close to θ .
- ▶ “Precision”: $\text{Var}(\delta(X)|\theta)$ is small.

Bias of an estimator (Textbook Section 8.7)

An estimator for θ is said to be *unbiased* if its overall accurate for all possible values of θ . That is

$$E(\delta(X)|\theta) = E_{\theta}(\delta(X)) = E_{\theta}(\delta) = \theta \text{ for all } \theta.$$

The *bias* of $\delta(X)$ given θ is defined to be

$$B_{\delta}(\theta) = E_{\theta}(\delta) - \theta.$$

- ▶ $B_{\delta}(\theta) > 0$: $\delta(X)$ tends to overestimate θ .
- ▶ $B_{\delta}(\theta) < 0$: $\delta(X)$ tends to underestimate θ .

Back to the political poll example

- ▶ The estimator $\delta_1(X) = \frac{X}{n}$ is unbiased.

$$E_\theta(\delta_1) = \theta \quad \text{for all } \theta.$$

- ▶ The estimator $\delta_2(X) = \frac{X+12}{n+24}$ is not unbiased.

$$B_{\delta_2}(\theta) = E_\theta(\delta_2) - \theta = \frac{n\theta + 12}{n + 24} - \theta = \frac{12 - 24\theta}{n + 24}.$$

So for $\theta > 1/2$, $B_{\delta_2}(\theta) < 0$ and for $\theta < 1/2$, $B_{\delta_2}(\theta) > 0$.

Question: Is $\delta_1(X)$ always more desirable than $\delta_2(X)$?

Do we always want unbiased estimators?

- ▶ Unbiasedness is a nice property.
- ▶ But unbiased estimators are not necessarily “good” estimators. (Draw a figure.)
- ▶ We need some control over the *precision* of the estimator as well.
- ▶ So it is desirable to have estimators with small variance

$$\text{Var}(\delta(\mathbf{X})|\theta).$$

- ▶ Of course neither unbiasedness nor precision alone is enough. (Draw figure).
- ▶ More generally, the goal is to have estimators likely to take values close to the unknown *fixed* parameter.

More general criteria for selecting “good” estimators

Recall from last time the goal of constructing an estimator $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ so that $\delta(\mathbf{X})$ will *likely to be close to* θ .

- ▶ Again, we need a notion of distance between the estimate and the parameter.
- ▶ Can again use a loss function just like before such as
 1. The absolute error loss: $L(\theta, a) = |\theta - a|$.
 2. The squared error loss: $L(\theta, a) = (\theta - a)^2$.
 3. The step error loss: $L(\theta, a) = \mathbf{1}(|\theta - a| > \Delta)$.

So we can again try to choose an estimator that minimizes the *expected loss*.

But now the expectation is taken over the distribution of the estimator given θ :

$$\begin{aligned} E(L(\theta, \delta(\mathbf{X}))|\theta) &= E_{\theta}(L(\theta, \delta)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} L(\theta, u) f_{\delta}(u|\theta) du \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} L(\theta, \delta(x)) f(x|\theta) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

where $f_{\delta}(u|\theta)$ denotes the p.d.f of the estimator $\delta(\mathbf{X})$.

This expectation is also called the *(sampling) risk function* of estimator δ :

$$R_{\delta}(\theta) := E_{\theta}(L(\theta, \delta))$$