STA 250/MTH 342 – Intro to Mathematical Statistics

Lecture 12

- Central limit theorem allows us to directly approximate the sampling distribution of an estimator if it can be written as the sum of i.i.d. random variables.
- ► This scenario occurs very often. For example, if we are to estimate the mean μ of $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ using n i.i.d. observations, the MLE for μ is

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}$$
.

Similarly, if we are estimating the mean θ of an Exponential(1/ θ) distribution.

- ► However, as we have seen, sometimes the MLE is not the sum of random variables.
- ▶ For example if we are estimating λ of an Exponential(λ) distribution using n independent observations X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n from this distribution,

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\bar{X}}.$$

- ► Can we still find the approximate sampling distribution of $\hat{\lambda}$?
- ▶ It turns out that MLEs are quite generally (not always though!) approximately normally distributed, regardless of whether they are sums or not.

Fisher's approximation

- (1) If the data are i.i.d. observations $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ from some distribution $f(x|\theta)$, and
- (2) the MLE for $\hat{\theta}$ is *found by solving*

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}L(\theta) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{d}{d\theta}\log L(\theta) = 0$$

then for large n, $\hat{\theta}$ is approximately

$$N\left(\theta, \frac{\tau^2(\theta)}{n}\right)$$

where $\tau^2(\theta)$ is such that

$$\frac{1}{\tau^2(\theta)} := I(\theta) = E_{\theta} \left(\left(\frac{d}{d\theta} \log f(X_1 | \theta) \right)^2 \right).$$

provided that $0 < \tau^2(\theta) < \infty$.

Fisher's result shows that

- ▶ When *n* is large, the approximate sampling distribution of the MLE $\hat{\theta}$ has mean θ .
- ► The variance $\frac{\tau^2(\theta)}{n}$ decreases to zero as *n* increases to infinity.
- So when we have a lot of data, $\hat{\theta}$ "converges" to the actual unknown parameter θ .
- ▶ $I(\theta)$ is called *Fisher's information* (from/in a single observation).

One can show that

$$I(\theta) = E_{\theta} \left(\left(\frac{d}{d\theta} \log f(X_1 | \theta) \right)^2 \right) = -E_{\theta} \left(\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \log f(X_1 | \theta) \right),$$

where

$$E_{\theta}\left(\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\log f(X_1|\theta)\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\log f(x|\theta)\right) f(x|\theta) dx.$$

- ► This result can become very handy.
- ▶ Either way we can compute $I(\theta)$ but sometimes one is easier than the other to compute.

Fisher's information

- ▶ It quantifies the amount of "information" one can get from each individual observation for estimating θ .
- ▶ Mathematically, it is the *average* "curvature" of the likelihood function at θ , *average* means over repeated experiments with θ being the truth.
- (Draw a figure.)
- Intuitively, the steeper $\log L(\theta)$ is, the more certain we are about our "best" guess for θ . That is why the information $I(\theta)$ is in the *denominator* of the variance.
- ▶ In the extreme case, if $log L(\theta)$ is flat, $I(\theta) = 0$ —no information.

A corollary: Consistency of MLEs

- Fisher's approximation implies that as we get more and more observations, the MLE $\hat{\theta}$ "converges" to θ . (Recall the law of large number for \bar{X} .)
- ► The reason is as below. If

$$\hat{\theta} \sim_{approx} N\left(\theta, \frac{\tau^2(\theta)}{n}\right)$$

then

$$\begin{split} P(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| < \varepsilon) &\approx \Phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}\varepsilon}{\tau(\theta)}\right) - \Phi\left(-\frac{\sqrt{n}\varepsilon}{\tau(\theta)}\right) \\ &= \int_{-\frac{\sqrt{n}\varepsilon}{\tau(\theta)}}^{\frac{\sqrt{n}\varepsilon}{\tau(\theta)}} \phi(x) dx \\ &\approx 1 \quad \text{for large } n. \end{split}$$

Consistency of MLEs

- ► Therefore as *n* increases, $\hat{\theta}$ will be as close to θ as desired *with high probability*.
- We say that $\hat{\theta}$ converges to θ in probability, donoted as

$$\hat{\theta} \rightarrow_P \theta$$
.

► This property of the MLE is called *consistency*.

Efficiency of MLEs

► For large *n*, from Fisher's approximation we see that the MSE of an MLE

$$MSE_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \frac{\tau^2(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{n} = \frac{1}{nI(\boldsymbol{\theta})}.$$

- Under some further conditions, one can show that *no other* estimator can have an approximating (sampling) distribution with MSE smaller than $\tau^2(\theta)/n$ as n becomes very large.
- ► This property is sometimes called the (asymptotic) *efficiency* of the MLE.
- So for many (not all!) problems involving a large number of observations, the MLE will do as well as possible in terms of MSE.
- ► The quantity $\frac{1}{nI(\theta)}$ is sometimes referred to as the *Cramer-Rao lower-bound*.

Example I: Normal data with unknown mean and known variance

- ► Suppose our data are i.i.d. observations from $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where σ^2 is known and we wish to estimate μ .
- From our earlier classes we know that the MLE for μ is

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}$$

and in this case the sampling distribution of $\hat{\mu}$ is *exactly* $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$.

▶ What does Fisher's approximation say in this case?

$$\log f(X_1|\mu) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(X_1 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right)$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) - \log(\sigma) - \frac{(X_1 - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}.$$

To apply Fisher's approximation, we first find

$$\frac{d}{d\mu}\log f(X_1|\mu) = \frac{X_1 - \mu}{\sigma^2}.$$

Therefore

$$I(\mu) = E\left[\left(\frac{d}{d\mu}\log f(X_1|\mu)\right)^2\right]$$
$$= E\left[\left(\frac{X_1 - \mu}{\sigma^2}\right)^2\right] = \frac{E[(X_1 - \mu)^2]}{\sigma^4} = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^4} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}.$$

Alternatively,

Note that

$$\frac{d^2}{d\mu^2}\log f(X_1|\mu) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2}.$$

Hence

$$I(\mu) = -E\left(\frac{d^2}{d\mu^2}\log f(X_1|\mu)\right) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}.$$

The computation is quite a bit easier this way!

Either way, we can now apply Fisher's approximation,

$$\frac{\tau^2(\mu)}{n} = \frac{1}{n I(\mu)} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

So Fisher's approximation says that for large n,

$$\hat{\mu} \sim_{approx} N(\mu, \sigma^2/n).$$

We know the RHS is the exact sampling distribution of $\hat{\mu}$!

Another example

► The data are i.i.d. observations $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ from an Exponential(λ) distribution. So the p.d.f for each X_i is

$$f(x|\lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$$
 for $x > 0$
= 0 otherwise.

• We have found the MLE for λ to be

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\bar{X}}.$$

- ► This is not the sum of independent random variables so we can't apply CLT.
- But Fisher's approximation still applies.

To apply Fisher's approximation, first we have

$$\log f(X_1|\lambda) = \log(\lambda) - \lambda X_1.$$

So

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda}\log f(X_1|\lambda) = \frac{1}{\lambda} - X_1.$$

Therefore

$$I(\lambda) = E\left[\left(\frac{d}{d\lambda}\log f(X_1|\lambda)\right)^2\right] = E\left[\left(X_1 - \frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2\right] = \operatorname{Var}(X_1) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}.$$

Alternatively,

$$\frac{d^2}{d\lambda^2}\log f(X_1|\lambda) = -\frac{1}{\lambda^2}.$$

So

$$I(\lambda) = -E\left(\frac{d^2}{d\lambda^2}\log f(X_1|\lambda)\right) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}.$$

Therefore,

$$\tau^2(\lambda) = \frac{1}{I(\lambda)} = \lambda^2.$$

By Fisher's approximation,

$$\hat{\lambda} \sim_{approx} N\left(\lambda, \frac{\lambda^2}{n}\right).$$

► To see how good this approximation is, let us compare this approximate sampling distribution to the exact sampling distribution of $\hat{\lambda}$.

We can find the exact distribution of $\hat{\lambda}$ as follows.

- ► The X_i 's are independent Exponential(λ), or Gamma(1, λ) random variables.
- ▶ By the method we have learned for finding the distribution of sums of independent random variables, we can show that

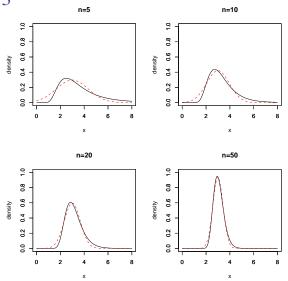
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \sim \operatorname{Gamma}(n, \lambda).$$

Accordingly, by a change of variable we get

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}{n} \sim \text{Gamma}(n, n\lambda)$$

- ▶ By another change of variable we can find the p.d.f of $\hat{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\bar{X}}$.
- ► Its sampling distribution is called the *inverse-Gamma* $(n, n\lambda)$ distribution.

Exact sampling distribution for $\hat{\lambda}$ vs Fisher's approximation when $\lambda = 3$



Black solid is the exact pdf. Red dashed is Fisher's approximation.

Condition for Fisher's approximation to apply

- ▶ The specific conditions are beyond the scope of this class.
- ▶ Roughly speaking the MLE must be a root for the equation

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\log L(\theta) = 0.$$

▶ Otherwise the approximation does not apply. Let's look at an example.

Example

Suppose the data are i.i.d. observations from a Uniform(0, θ) distribution. So for each X_i the p.d.f is

$$f(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}$$
 for $0 \le x \le \theta$
= 0 otherwise.

- What is the MLE?
- ► The likelihood is

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i | \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta^n} \quad \text{for } \theta \ge \max(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$
$$= 0 \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

(Draw a figure.)

 \triangleright So the value of θ that maximizes the likelihood is

$$\hat{\theta} = \max(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

► Thus the MLE is

$$\hat{\theta} = \max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n).$$

Note that we did not solve for this MLE using

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}L(\theta)$$
 or $\frac{d}{d\theta}\log L(\theta) = 0$.

► In fact,

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}L(\theta) = -\frac{n}{\theta^{n+1}} \neq 0$$
 and $\frac{d}{d\theta}\log L(\theta) = -\frac{n}{\theta} \neq 0$

for any θ .

- ▶ What is the sampling distribution of $\hat{\theta}$?
- Let us first find the c.d.f of $\hat{\theta}$.

$$F_{\hat{\theta}}(y) = P(\hat{\theta} \le y)$$

$$= P(\max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \le y)$$

$$= P(X_1 \le y, X_2 \le y, \dots, X_n \le y)$$

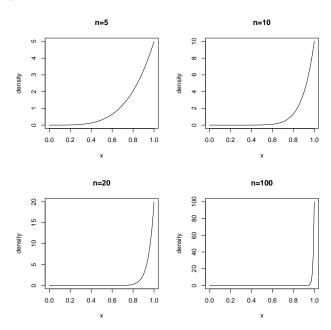
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i \le y)$$

$$= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y < 0 \\ \left(\frac{y}{\theta}\right)^n & \text{if } 0 \le y \le \theta \\ 1 & \text{if } y > \theta. \end{cases}$$

► So the p.d.f of $\hat{\theta}$ is

$$f_{\hat{\theta}}(y|\theta) = \frac{ny^{n-1}}{\theta^n}$$
 for $0 \le y \le \theta$
= 0 otherwise.

Sampling distribution of $\hat{\theta}$ when $\theta = 1$



Numerical methods for finding MLEs (optional material)

▶ In the examples we see in this class, the equation

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\log L(\theta)$$

is relatively easy to solve.

- In real life problems, the likelihood function can be quite complex and so it is often not easy to find the solution to the above equation.
- Numerical methods such as Newton-Raphson's method can be applied in such cases.

Newton-Raphson's method

► Suppose we want to find a solution $\hat{\theta}$ to an equation

$$g(\theta) = 0.$$

▶ In our current context, the function

$$g(\theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \log L(\theta)$$
 or $= \frac{d}{d\theta} L(\theta)$.

For any θ_0 , if θ is close to θ_0 , then by the mean value theorem (i.e. the first order Taylor expansion)

$$g(\theta) \approx g(\theta_0) + (\theta - \theta_0)g'(\theta_0).$$

Now consider $\hat{\theta}$, which is a root, i.e., $g(\hat{\theta}) = 0$, and thus

$$-g(\theta_0) \approx (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0)g'(\theta_0).$$

Therefore,

$$\hat{ heta} - heta_0 pprox -rac{g(heta_0)}{g'(heta_0)}$$

and so

$$\hat{ heta} pprox heta_0 - rac{g(heta_0)}{g'(heta_0)}.$$

(Draw a figure.)

- ► The RHS gives an approximation to the root $\hat{\theta}$ when θ_0 is close to the root.
- ▶ But how do we know a particular value of θ_0 is close to $\hat{\theta}$ to apply this approximation?
- ▶ We don't. But this suggests an iterative procedure.

Starting from an initial guess at the root, (we denote this initial guess by $\hat{\theta}_0$), for n = 1, 2, ..., we compute

$$\hat{\theta}_{n+1} = \hat{\theta}_n - \frac{g(\hat{\theta}_n)}{g'(\hat{\theta}_n)},$$

until the estimate changes little.

(Show movie at

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r3KXzyGS2zg)