

STA261 Lecture 8 — 2017-08-02

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interval estimation

communicating uncertainty

Some population of interest is modeled by a random variable X , up to some parameter θ , whose value is not known. So a sample $\mathbf{X} = X_1, \dots, X_n$ i.i.d. with the same distribution of X will be gathered. We have extensively studied the problem of estimating θ .

It would be nice to communicate an amount of uncertainty along with the estimate itself, which will depend on:

- ▶ the population variance itself
- ▶ the estimator being used
- ▶ the sample size

confidence interval

A $(1 - \alpha) \cdot 100$ % *confidence interval* for θ is a pair of statistics $L(\mathbf{X})$ and $U(\mathbf{X})$ with these properties:

1. $L(\mathbf{X}) < U(\mathbf{X})$
2. $P(\{L(\mathbf{X}) > \theta\} \cup \{U(\mathbf{X}) < \theta\}) = \alpha$

It's not clear where such a pair of statistics might come from. But they are often easy to find.

Note: We can allow one of L or U to be a constant, including $\pm\infty$, resulting in a so-called “one-sided” confidence interval.

Note: α is arbitrary and can technically be anything between 0 and 1, but it's usually small and almost always 0.05.

pivots

A *pivot*, or *pivotal quantity*, for θ is a function $g(\mathbf{X}, \theta)$ whose distribution is the same for all θ .

Less formally, a pivot contains θ in its formula, but not in its distribution.

Example 8.0: $N(\mu, 1)$.

Examples 8.1: $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ (with $\theta = \mu$, and then with $\theta = \sigma^2$)

Example 8.2: $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ (with $\theta = \lambda$)

Example 8.3: X_{11}, \dots, X_{1n} i.i.d $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and X_{21}, \dots, X_{2m} i.i.d $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ and $X_{1i} \perp X_{2j}$ (with $\theta = \sigma_1^2 / \sigma_2^2$)

Example 8.4: $\text{Uniform}(0, \theta)$

from pivot to confidence interval

Since a pivot has θ in the formula, but not in the distribution, confidence intervals can be produced in great abundance.

Example 8.5: $N(\mu, 1)$.

Definition: z_τ is the solution of $P(Z > z_\tau) = \tau$ and $t_{\nu, \tau}$ is the solution of $P(t_\nu > t_{\nu, \tau}) = \tau$.

Examples 8.6: $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ (with $\theta = \mu$, and then with $\theta = \sigma^2$)

Example 8.7: $\text{Uniform}(0, \theta)$

(observed) confidence intervals

Suppose you actually encounter some data, say from a $N(\mu, 1)$ distribution. Sample size $n = 9$.

4.03, 1.92, 2.06, 3.45, 3.69, 3.14, 2.79, 2.93, 1.81

The observed value of \bar{X} is what I'd call $\bar{x} = 2.87$.

To report your estimate for μ you might say “the 95% confidence interval is $[2.22, 3.52]$ ”.

That's not strictly speaking a confidence interval, but we call them that anyway.

Just don't go thinking “there is a 95 chance that μ is inside $[2.22, 3.52]$ ”