#### STA286 Lecture 28

**Neil Montgomery** 

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One variable in the dataset with 0's and 1's; another variable splitting observations into two groups.

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Formula for 95% interval:

$$(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_1(1-\hat{p}_1)}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}_1(1-\hat{p}_1)}{n_2}}$$

#### two non-robust confidence intervals

Every procedure I have explained so far is *robust* as long as the sample size is large enough (except for the prediction interval formula.)

In principle we could apply the patented procedure to estimate  $\sigma^2$  with  $S^2$ , using a  $\chi^2$  distribution.

We could also apply the patented procedure to estimate the ratio  $\sigma_1^2/\sigma_2^2$  with  $S_1^2/S_2^2$  using an F distribution.

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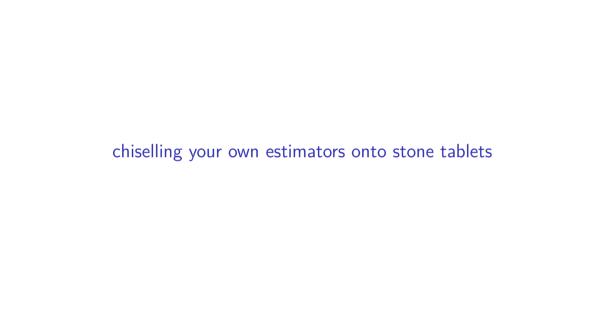
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But the results are well known to be non-robust, even with large sample sizes, so I cannot recommend them for use.

A modern computationally-intensive technique called *bootstrapping* is a good choice in these and other difficult situations.



#### fun fact from mathematics

Suppose a twice-differentiable function f(x) has a critical value at  $x_0$ , and g(x) is strictly increasing and twice-differentiable.

Then g(f(x)) also has a critical value at  $x_0$ , and the sign of its second derivative at  $x_0$  is the same as the sign of the second derivative of f at  $x_0$ .

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We'll use this because we need the fact that f(x) and log(f(x)) take on maximum values at the same point.

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```
## [1] 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0
```

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The probability of getting this sample exactly is:

$$(1-p)\cdot (1-p)\cdot p\cdot (1-p)\cdot p\cdot p\cdot p\cdot p\cdot (1-p)\cdot (1-p)\cdot (1-p)$$
  
=  $p^4(1-p)^6$ 

Let's call this function L(p).

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We could maximize L(p), but it's easier to maximize  $\ell(p) = \log L(p)$ 

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This is exactly the same as  $\hat{p}$  that was used as "obvious" from before.

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Also:  $\ell(p) = \log L(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f(x_i; p)$ 

# likelihood function in general

Given a sequence of observations  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$  ("the data") from a random variable X with pmf or pdf  $f(x; \theta)$ , a likelihood function  $L(\theta) = L(x_1, \ldots, x_n; \theta)$  for the parameter  $\theta$  is defined as (for any positive g):

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If X is discrete and f is a pmf, then  $L(\theta)$  is literally the probability of the data given  $\theta$ . If X is continuous and f is a pdf, then  $L(\theta)$  is not a probability, but it still provides a useful "index" for  $\theta$  values.

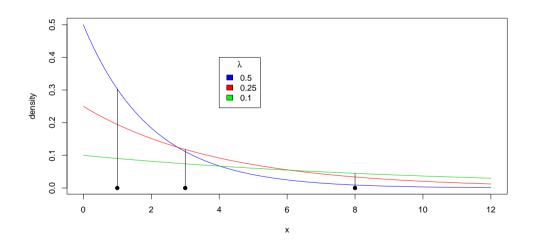
Suppose  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$  and the data are: 1,3,8. A likelihood for  $\lambda$  is:

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# a possibly useless and confusing picture



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To maximize:

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#### the maximum likelihood estimator

A final technicality. When you replace the data  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  with its "model", the sample:  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ , inside the maximum likelihood estimate, you end up with the maximum likelihood estimator, or MLE.

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For example, the maximum likelihood estimator for  $\mu$  using a sample from a  $N(\mu,1)$  population is:

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

Everything so far extends to vector parameters. For example (textbook example 9.21), the maximum likelihood estimates given data  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  from a  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  population, the MLE for  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$  are:

$$\hat{\mu} = \overline{X}$$
  $\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X})^2}{n}$ 

In most cases, the MLE  $\hat{\theta}$  has all the following (amazing!) properties:

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- 3. it is "invariant", which means  $\widehat{h(\theta)} = h(\widehat{\theta})$  when h is a 1-1 function.
- 4. it is asymptotically normal.
- 5. if  $c\hat{\theta}$  is unbiased for some constant c, then  $c\hat{\theta}$  is the unbiased estimator with the smallest variance (our "gold standard".)