

Stat 2911 Lecture Notes

Class 34, 2017

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Confidence Intervals: motivation,
definition and derivation (Rice 7.3
is relevant)

Norbert Quirk Mathematical Essay
Competition

34.1

Confidence Intervals

Estimation: given a sample $x_1, \dots, x_n \sim F_\theta$ find θ .

For example, $X_i \sim N(\theta, 1) \Rightarrow \hat{\theta} = \bar{X}$ (MLE, moments)

How close are we to θ ?

$$\sum_1^n X_i \sim N(,) \quad (\text{why?})$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\theta} = \bar{X} \sim N(,) ,$$

and in particular,

$$P_\theta(\hat{\theta} = \theta) = .$$

One way to measure how well the estimator is doing is the $MSE(\hat{\theta}) = E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$.

However, as we saw the MSE often depends on θ , and regardless, it's not clear how to interpret it beyond comparing estimators.

We cannot expect to know how well the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is doing on any given sample (as this would imply we know θ).

It would however be useful to give a bound on the probability that $\hat{\theta}$ deviates significantly from θ for a randomly drawn sample.

Example.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{\theta}(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| > \varepsilon) &= P_{\theta}(|\hat{\theta} - \theta|^2 > \varepsilon^2) \\
 &\stackrel{?}{\leq} \frac{E_{\theta}(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2}{\varepsilon^2} \\
 &= \frac{MSE_{\theta}(\hat{\theta})}{\varepsilon^2}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Notice the tradeoff:

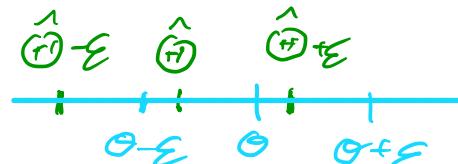
proximity to θ (ε) \leftrightarrow confidence (upper bound on the prob. of deviation)

If our sample is again from the $N(\theta, 1)$ dist. then

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{\theta}(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| > \varepsilon) &\leq \frac{V_{\theta}(\hat{\theta})}{\varepsilon^2} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n\varepsilon^2}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Equivalently,

$$P_{\theta}(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| < \varepsilon) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{n\varepsilon^2}.$$



$$\Rightarrow P_{\theta}(\theta \in (\hat{\theta} - \varepsilon, \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon)) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{n\varepsilon^2}.$$

That is, the random interval $(\bar{x} - \varepsilon, \bar{x} + \varepsilon)$ contains the unknown θ with prob. $\geq 1 - \frac{1}{n\varepsilon^2}$.

We say that $(\bar{x} - \varepsilon, \bar{x} + \varepsilon)$ is a $100 \times (1 - \frac{1}{n\varepsilon^2})\%$ confidence interval for θ .

Warning. For any specific sample x_1, \dots, x_n , $\theta \in (\bar{x} - \varepsilon, \bar{x} + \varepsilon)$ is **not** an event. Rather, it is a deterministic statement that's either true or false.

So $P(\theta \in (\bar{x} - \varepsilon, \bar{x} + \varepsilon)) = \dots$ is meaningless. Instead, we say $(\bar{x} - \varepsilon, \bar{x} + \varepsilon)$ is a confidence interval (CI) for θ .

How can we improve the CI in our example?

We can evaluate $P(\theta \in (\hat{\theta} - \varepsilon, \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon))$ more accurately; Markov's Inequality is rather crude.

$$\hat{\theta} = \bar{x} \sim N(\theta, 1/n) \Rightarrow \sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta) = \frac{\bar{x} - \theta}{\sqrt{1/n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} P(\theta \in (\bar{x} - \varepsilon, \bar{x} + \varepsilon)) &= P(-\varepsilon < \bar{x} - \theta < \varepsilon) \\ &= P(-\sqrt{n}\varepsilon < \sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta) < \sqrt{n}\varepsilon) \\ ("=" \text{ not } " \geq ") &\stackrel{?}{=} \Phi(\sqrt{n}\varepsilon) - \Phi(-\sqrt{n}\varepsilon), \end{aligned}$$

where Φ is the $N(0, 1)$ CDF.

For example, with $\varepsilon = 3$ we have

n	$\Phi(\sqrt{n} \cdot 3) - \Phi(-\sqrt{n} \cdot 3)$	$1 - 1/n$
1	0.997	0.889
3	0.99978	0.944
10	$1 - 2 \times 10^{-4}$	0.989

Our level of confidence increases with n since our CI is of a fixed length ($2\epsilon=6$).

Better: trade some of that ridiculously high conf. for a tighter interval, or keep the conf. level fixed and adjust the interval's length.

Def. An interval valued function

$$I_\alpha^{(n)} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \{(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : a < b\}$$

e.g. $I_\alpha^{(n)}(\underline{x}) = (\bar{x} - \alpha, \bar{x} + \alpha)$, where $\underline{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$

defines a $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval for θ if for $\forall \theta$ and X_1, \dots, X_n ind. F_θ -distributed RVs

$$P_\theta(\theta \in I_\alpha^{(n)}(X_1, \dots, X_n)) \geq 1-\alpha.$$

In this case, given a sample x_1, \dots, x_n , $I_\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a $100(1-\alpha)\%$ CI for θ .

It is typically not difficult to verify a given interval function defines a CI, but how do you find one to begin with?

Let $\hat{\theta}$ be an estimator of θ and let $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(\underline{x})$ be the estimate on a particular sample $\underline{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. For that estimate $\hat{\theta}$ define the function

$$h(\theta; \hat{\theta}) = P_{\theta}(\hat{\theta} \geq \hat{\theta}). \quad (\hat{\theta} \text{ is fixed})$$

For example, for the $N(\theta, 1)$ problem

$$h(\theta; \hat{\theta} = \bar{x}) = P_{\theta}(\bar{x} \geq \bar{x}).$$

Suppose that for any value of $\hat{\theta}$, h is cont. and strictly \uparrow in θ (so h^{-1} wrt θ exists for any $\hat{\theta}$).

In our example, $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x} \sim N(\theta, 1/n)$ so

$$\begin{aligned} h(\theta; \bar{x}) &= P_{\theta}(\bar{x} \geq \bar{x}) \\ &= P(\underbrace{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)}_{\text{dist. of } \bar{x} \text{ is invariant of } \theta} \geq \sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)) \\ &= 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)). \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\theta} h(\theta; \bar{x}) = \varphi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)) \cdot \sqrt{n} > 0 \quad (\varphi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}) \Rightarrow h \uparrow$$

Define $\theta_L = \theta_L(\underline{x}) = h^{-1}(\alpha/2; \hat{\theta}(\underline{x}))$, i.e.,

$$h(\theta_L; \hat{\theta}(\underline{x})) = P_{\theta_L}(\hat{\theta} \geq \hat{\theta}(\underline{x})) = \alpha/2.$$

Ex. $\theta_L = \min \{v : P_v(\hat{\theta} \geq \hat{\theta}(\underline{x})) \geq \alpha/2\}$

In our example with $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x} \sim N(\theta, 1/n)$

$$h(\theta; \bar{x}) = 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta))$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha/2 = h(\theta_L; \bar{x}) = 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta_L))$$

$$\Rightarrow \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta_L)) = 1 - \alpha/2$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta_L) = \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha/2) =: z_{1-\alpha/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_L = \bar{x} - \frac{z_{1-\alpha/2}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Similarly, define

$$g(\theta; \hat{\theta}) = P_{\theta}(\hat{\theta} \leq \hat{\theta}). \quad (\hat{\theta} \text{ is fixed})$$

For example, for the $N(\theta, 1)$ problem

$$g(\theta; \hat{\theta} = \bar{x}) = P_{\theta}(\bar{x} \leq \bar{x})$$

Suppose that for any value of $\hat{\theta}$, g is cont. and strictly ↓ in θ (so g' wrt θ exists for any $\hat{\theta}$).

In our example, $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x} \sim N(\theta, 1/n)$ so

$$\begin{aligned} g(\theta; \bar{x}) &= P(\underbrace{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)}_{\text{dist. of } \bar{x} \text{ is invariant of } \theta!} \leq \sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)) \\ &= \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)), \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\theta} g(\theta; \bar{x}) = -\Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta)) \cdot \sqrt{n} < 0 \Rightarrow g \downarrow$$

Define $\theta_R = \theta_R(\underline{x}) = g^{-1}(\alpha/2; \hat{\theta}(\underline{x}))$, i.e,

$$g(\theta_R; \hat{\theta}(\underline{x})) = P_{\theta_R}(\hat{\theta} \leq \hat{\theta}(\underline{x})) = \alpha/2.$$

Ex. $\theta_R = \max \{ \nu : P_\nu(\hat{\theta} \leq \hat{\theta}(\underline{x})) \geq \alpha/2 \}.$

In our example with $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x} \sim N(\theta, 1/n)$

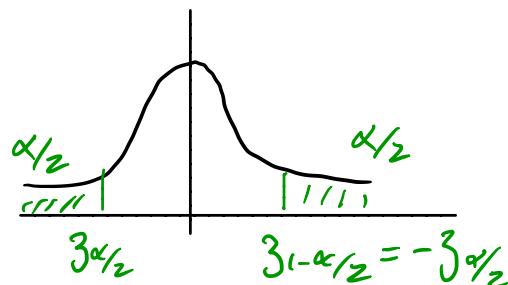
$$g(\theta; \bar{x}) = \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta))$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha/2 = g(\theta_R; \bar{x}) = \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta_R))$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \theta_R) = \Phi^{-1}(\alpha/2) =: 3\alpha/2$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_R = \bar{x} - \frac{3\alpha/2}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\text{Sym} = \bar{x} + \frac{3(1-\alpha/2)}{\sqrt{n}}$$



Claim. (θ_L, θ_R) is a $100(1-\alpha)\%$ CI for θ .

\Rightarrow Given a sample x_1, \dots, x_n from the $N(\theta, 1)$ dist.
 $(\bar{x} - \frac{3(1-\alpha/2)}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + \frac{3(1-\alpha/2)}{\sqrt{n}})$ is a $100(1-\alpha)\%$ CI for θ .

For a fixed α , the length of this CI is $2 \cdot \frac{Z_{1-\alpha/2}}{\sqrt{n}}$, which shrinks like you:

n	1	10	100	1000	$(\alpha = 0.05)$
$Z_{1-\alpha/2}$	1.96	0.62	0.196	0.062	

Conversely, for a fixed n , as we increase $1-\alpha \uparrow 1$ ($\text{so } \alpha \downarrow 0$), $Z_{1-\alpha/2} = \phi^{-1}(1-\alpha/2) \uparrow \infty$.

Again: conf. vs. precision tradeoff.