# Estimation of Parameters and Statistical Sampling

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## 1 Introduction

Here we consider two types of statistical sampling problems, one is just for pedagogical purposes, the other is directly applicable to real problems. These two problems are:

**Problem 1 (pedagogical).** Suppose that X is a random variable for which we know the variance  $\sigma^2$ , but do not know the mean  $\mu$ . One way to estimate  $\mu$  would be to take samples of X, and then average. That is, suppose that  $X_1, \ldots, X_k$  are independent random variables with the same distribution as X; then, we let

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_k}{k}$$

be an estimator for  $\mu$ . Note that  $\hat{\mu}$  is a random variable, and for large values of k it will have approximately a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  (by the Central Limit Theorem).

The sort of thing we would like to compute is a 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$ , which is an interval  $(\hat{\mu} - \delta, \hat{\mu} + \delta)$  such that 95% of the time (remember,  $\hat{\mu}$  is a random variable),  $\mu$  lies in this interval.

The reason that this problem is only pedagogical is that in real world problems we are unlikely to encounter situations where we know  $\sigma$ , but not  $\mu$ .

**Problem 2 (real).** This is the exact same problem, except that here we know neither  $\mu$  nor  $\sigma$ ; *in addition*, we will assume that X is normal (a

standard assumption for many statistical sampling problems). This problem is vastly more difficult to analyze theoretically; however, we are in luck that it was worked out long ago. There is actually a nice little bit of history surrounding this that we will discuss below.

Basically, as before, we suppose that  $X_1, ..., X_k$  are independent and have the same distribution as  $X = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , and we consider

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_k}{k}$$

and

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^k (X_i - \overline{X})^2.$$

The problem here is to determine  $\delta$  such that  $(\hat{\mu} - \delta, \hat{\mu} + \delta)$  is a 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$ ; and, we would furthermore like a 95% confidence interval for  $\sigma^2$  (or just  $\sigma$ ).

As with Problem 1, for large values of k it will turn out that  $\hat{\mu}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  are approximately normal; however, we would like to be able to say something for when k is small. In a later section we will do this.

# 2 Problem 1

We know that  $\hat{\mu}$  is a maximum likelihood estimator for  $\mu$ , and that for large k we have that  $\hat{\mu}$  is approximately normal, by the central limit theorem. How and why is this the case? Well, from the central limit theorem, we know that for large k,

$$\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_k - k\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{k}} \sim N(0,1)$$

What does this mean? It means that for any given real number c, we have that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} P\left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_k - k\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{k}} < c\right) = P(N(0,1) < c) = \Phi(c).$$

Now, we have that

$$P(\hat{\mu} < c) = P\left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_k}{k} < c\right)$$

$$= P\left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_k - k\mu}{k} < c - \mu\right)$$
$$= P\left(\frac{X_1 + \dots + X_k - k\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{k}} < \sigma^{-1}(c - \mu)\sqrt{k}\right)$$
$$\sim P\left(N(0, 1) < \sigma^{-1}(c - \mu)\sqrt{k}\right)$$
$$= \Phi(\sigma^{-1}(c - \mu)\sqrt{k}).$$

Now, for a 95% confidence interval, we need to compute  $\delta$  so that

$$(\hat{\mu} - \delta, \hat{\mu} + \delta)$$
 contains  $\mu$ 

occurs with 95% probability. <sup>1</sup> That is, we seek  $\delta$  so that

$$\hat{\mu} \in (\mu - \delta, \mu + \delta)$$

with 95% probability. That is, we seek  $\delta$  to so that

$$0.95 = \Phi(\sigma^{-1}\delta\sqrt{k}) - \Phi(-\sigma^{-1}\delta\sqrt{k})$$
$$= 2\Phi(\sigma^{-1}\delta\sqrt{k}) - 1.$$

For this last step we have used the fact that for x > 0,

$$\Phi(-x) = 1 - \Phi(x).$$

So, we seek  $\delta$  so that

$$\Phi(\sigma^{-1}\delta\sqrt{k}) = \frac{0.95+1}{2} = 0.975.$$

This is easy to do via a table lookup.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The reason we don't say that  $\mu \in (\hat{\mu} - \delta, \hat{\mu} + \delta)$  is that it sounds like one is saying that  $\mu$  is a random variable, when in fact  $\mu$  is a constant;  $\hat{\mu}$  is the random variable.

# 3 Problem 2

Even if we assume that k is large, we cannot use the idea from the previous section to determine a confidence interval for  $\mu$  without knowing  $\sigma$ , because our confidence interval formula given above involves  $\sigma$ . Even the Central Limit Theorem is of no use in this case. However, we can try to estimate  $\sigma^2$ using the estimator  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ . But then, it is not immediately clear to what degree this affects the size of our confidence interval when k is small, say around 30. In this section we will address these problems.

The theorem we will use to obtain confidence intervals is:

#### Theorem 1 Let

$$t = \frac{(\overline{X} - \mu)\sqrt{k}}{\hat{\sigma}}$$

Then, t has a Student-t distribution with k-1 degrees of freedom. That is, t has the following pdf:

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(k/2)}{\Gamma((k-1)/2)\sqrt{\pi(k-1)}} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{k-1}\right)^{-k/2}$$

And, if we let

$$v = \frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2},$$

then  $v \sim \chi^2_{k-1}$ ; that is, v has a  $\chi^2$  distribution with k-1 degrees of freedom.

And now a little bit of history regarding the student-t distribution: It was worked out in the early 1900's by a statistician named William Sealy Gosset, who worked for the beer company *Guinness*. Basically, Gosset developed it as a way to handle the problem of "small sample sizes" that brewers had to work with. Because Gosset's result was a trade secret of the company, which meant he couldn't publish it under his true name, he used the pseudonym "Student t". See the following wikipedia page for more details:

#### http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/William\_Sealy\_Gosset

### **3.1** Student t is approximately N(0,1) for large k

Here, we will show that t approaches N(0, 1) in distribution as  $k \to \infty$ . Basically, we need to see how the ratio of these gamma factors behaves as k tends to infinity. To do this we will require Stirling's formula, which says that

$$\Gamma(t) \sim e^{-t} t^t \sqrt{2\pi/t}.$$

So, we have that

$$\frac{\Gamma(k/2)}{\Gamma((k-1)/2)} \sim \frac{e^{-k/2}(k/2)^{k/2}}{e^{-(k-1)/2}((k-1)/2)^{(k-1)/2}} \sim \sqrt{k/2}.$$

Here we have used the fact that

$$\left(1-\frac{1}{k}\right)^k \sim 1/e$$
, together with the fact that  $\left(1-\frac{1}{k}\right)^c \sim 1$ ,

for any fixed c (where  $k \to \infty$ ).

So, for large k, the pdf for the Student's t distribution is

$$f(x) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left( 1 + \frac{x^2}{k-1} \right)^{-k/2} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right)$$

Thus, as claimed, the Student's t distribution is approximately N(0, 1) as k tends to infinity.

### 3.2 Applying the Theorem to solve Problem 2

We seek  $\delta$  so that  $(\hat{\mu} - \delta_1, \hat{\mu} + \delta_1)$  contains  $\mu$  at least 95% of the time. As we know, it turns out that this is the same as saying  $\hat{\mu}$  lies in  $(\mu - \delta, \mu + \delta)$  at least 95% of the time.

Now, we know that

$$t = \frac{(\hat{\mu} - \mu)\sqrt{k}}{\hat{\sigma}}$$

has a Student t distribution with k - 1 degrees of freedom. Denote the cumulative distribution function for t by  $\Psi(t)$ .

To say that  $\hat{\mu} \in (\mu - \delta, \mu + \delta)$  is the same as saying that

$$t \in \left(\frac{-\delta\sqrt{k}}{\hat{\sigma}}, \frac{\delta\sqrt{k}}{\hat{\sigma}}\right).$$

So, we seek  $\delta$  so that

$$\Psi(\delta\sqrt{k}/\hat{\sigma}) - \Psi(-\delta\sqrt{k}/\hat{\sigma}) = 0.95.$$

As with  $\Phi(t)$ , the cdf for N(0, 1), we have that  $\Psi(-t) = 1 - \Psi(t)$ ; and so, we seek  $\delta$  so that

$$2\Psi(\delta\sqrt{k}/\hat{\sigma}) - 1 = 0.95.$$

That is,

$$\Psi(\delta\sqrt{k}/\hat{\sigma}) = 0.975.$$

This can easily be computed given tables of the Student t cumulative distribution values (recall, t is Student t with k - 1 degrees of freedom).

### 3.3 A confidence interval for the variance

We will also determine a confidence interval for the variance, but first we need a bit of notation: We let  $\chi^2_{\alpha,k}$  denote the  $\alpha$ th upper percentile of a chi-squared random variable with k degrees of freedom, which means that if  $f_k(x)$  is the pdf for  $\chi^2_k$ , then

$$\int_{\chi^2_{\alpha,k}}^{\infty} f_k(x) dx = \alpha.$$

These values of  $\chi^2_{\alpha,k}$  can be looked up in a table (or computed numerically using Maple, say).

Now, note that if  $0 \le a \le b \le 1$ , then

$$\mathbb{P}(\chi^2_{b,k-1} \leq \chi^2_{k-1} \leq \chi^2_{a,k-1}) = b - a.$$

To see this, we observe that this probability is

$$\mathbb{P}(\chi_{k-1}^2 \leq \chi_{a,k-1}^2) - \mathbb{P}(\chi_{k-1}^2 \leq \chi_{b,k-1}^2) \\
= (1 - \mathbb{P}(\chi_{k-1}^2 > \chi_{a,k-1}^2)) - (1 - \mathbb{P}(\chi_{k-1}^2 > \chi_{b,k-1}^2)) \\
= \mathbb{P}(\chi_{k-1}^2 > \chi_{b,k-1}^2) - \mathbb{P}(\chi_{k-1}^2 > \chi_{a,k-1}^2) \\
= b - a.$$

So, when we go to use this to produce a probability p confidence interval, we will want that b - a = p. A good choice for a and b, to keep things nice and symmetric, is to simply take

$$a = (1-p)/2, b = (1+p)/2$$

In the case p = 0.95 as we used earlier, this gives a = 0.025 and b = 0.975.

Now, as a consequence of the second part of Theorem 1, we have that

$$\mathbb{P}(\chi^2_{0.975,k-1} \leq \frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi^2_{0.025,k-1}) = 0.95.$$

We want to turn this into a 95% confidence interval for  $\sigma^2$ , which will require rearranging things a little: We have that

$$\mathbb{P}(\frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi^2_{0.025,k-1}) = \mathbb{P}(\sigma^2 \geq \frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{0.025,k-1}});$$

and

$$\mathbb{P}(\chi^2_{0.975,k-1} \leq \frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2}) = \mathbb{P}(\sigma^2 \leq \frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{0.975,k-1}}).$$

So, the event

$$\sigma^2 \in \left[\frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{0.025,k-1}}, \frac{(k-1)\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi^2_{0.975,k-1}}\right]$$

occurs with probability 0.95, and therefore this is a 95% confidence interval for  $\sigma^2.$