MVE051/MSG810 2017 Lecture 8

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► Assume X_1, \ldots, X_n is a random sample from a distribution with expectation μ and variance σ^2 . Then, when $n \to \infty$, we get that

 $\overline{X} \sim \operatorname{Normal}(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$

- ▶ For finite *n* the normal distribution can be used as an approximation. How large *n* needs to be for the approximation to be OK depends on what accuracy is needed, and on the properties of the distribution the X_i come from.
- Some distributions have no variance, then the CLT does not apply!

The normal distribution as an approximation

- ► It is the *mean value* X that becomes approximately normally distributed when the number of observations n increases. The sample itself does *not* become normally distributed just because n increases!
- However some random variables can be interpreted as a sum (or mean) of many (independent) random variables. Then, in some cases, they are well approximated by a normally distributed variable.
- Examples are:
 - ▶ The Binomial distribution with *n* large and *p* not too close to 0 or 1.
 - The Poisson distribution with a large intensity λ .
 - The Gamma distribution with a large α parameters.
 - The χ^2 distribution with many degrees of freedom.
- In such cases, the table for the Normal distribution can be used to compute approximate quantiles.

Confidence intervals

A 100(1 − α)% confidence interval for a parameter θ is a formula which from a random sample X₁,..., X_n computes random variables L₁ and L₂ so that, for all θ,

$$\Pr\left[\theta \in [L_1, L_2]\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

- Correct interpretation of a confidence interval: If you generate N new random samples from the same distribution and from these compute N new confidence intervals according to the formula, then $100(1-\alpha)\%$ of these will contain θ as $N \to \infty$.
- WRONG interpretation of a confidence interval: Given a particular sample x₁,..., x_n, you know with 95% probaility that θ is in the confidence interval.
- However, if one interprets θ as a random variable and make certain assumptions, the second interpretation can become correct. These assumptions are often reasonable. This underlies the popularity of the confidence interval in applications.

Example 1: Confidence interval for μ in a Normal (μ, σ) distribution

If X₁,..., X_n ~ Normal(μ, σ) is a random sample, if z_{α/2} is so that [-z_{α/2}, z_{α/2}] contains 100(1 − α)% of the probability in a standard normal distribution, and if we define

$$L_1 = \overline{X} - z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}$$
$$L_2 = \overline{X} + z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}$$

then $[L_1, L_2]$ is a 100 $(1 - \alpha)$ % confidence interval for μ .

- Note how we find z_{α/2} in the table for the standard normal distribution. Traditionally we use α = 0.05, giving z_{0.05/2} = 1.96.
- Note: The formulas for L₁ and L₂ contain σ, so this interval can only be used if σ², the variance of the distribution, is known. (It is not enough to compute the sample variance of the data).
- The proof is based on using that $\overline{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$.

The distribution for the variance estimator $S^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2$

- The confidence interval for μ was constructed based on knowing the distribution for the estimator X for μ. In the same way we base a confidence interval for σ² on the estimator ô².
- $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$ and we define the estimator

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

the the distribution of this estimator satisfies

$$(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2(n-1),$$

i.e., $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2$ has a χ^2 distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom.

- ► A proof can be constructed by (see Milton appendix C)
 - ▶ first showing that S² och X är independent random variables (e.g., use moment generating functions).
 - then using this to compute the moment-generating function for $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2$ and showing that it corresponds to that of the $\chi^2(n-1)$ distribution.

Example 2: Confidence interval for σ^2

▶ If $X_1, ..., X_n \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$ is a random sample, if $\chi^2_{n-1,\alpha/2}$ and $\chi^2_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}$ are so that $[\chi^2_{n-1,\alpha/2}, \chi^2_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}]$ contains $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ of the probability in a $\chi^2(n-1)$ distribution, and if we define

$$L_1 = (n-1)S^2/\chi^2_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}$$

$$L_2 = (n-1)S^2/\chi^2_{n-1,\alpha/2}$$

then $[L_1, L_2]$ is a 100 $(1 - \alpha)$ % confidence interval for σ^2 .

- ▶ Note how we find $\chi^2_{n-1,1-\alpha/2}$ and $\chi^2_{n-1,\alpha/2}$ in the table for the $\chi^2(k)$ distribution.
- Note: The formulas for L₁ och L₂ do not contain μ so this interval can be used even when μ is unknown.
- The proof is based on using that $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2(n-1)$.

The (Student) t distribution

The random variable X has a (Student) t distribution with γ degrees of freedom, we write X ~ T(γ), if the density is

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

- When $\gamma \to \infty$ the t distribution will approach a standard normal distribution. When γ is smaller, the density is more pointy at the center, and has "heavier tails", than the standard normal.
- We have E [X] = 0 (if γ ≤ 1 the expectation does not exist) and Var [X] = γ/(γ − 2) (if γ ≤ 2 the variance does not exist).
- An important property: If Z ~ Normal(0,1) and X ~ χ²(γ) are independent, then

$$\frac{Z}{\sqrt{X/\gamma}} \sim T(\gamma).$$

> Tables for the Student t distribution for various γ values are available in Milton.

The distribution for $(\overline{X} - \mu)/(S/\sqrt{n})$

- Our earlier confidence interval for μ depended on σ. We now construct a confidence interval for μ that depends on S² instead. We do this by studying a function of X och S².
- If $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$ is a random sample then

$$(\overline{X} - \mu)/(S/\sqrt{n}) \sim T(n-1)$$

In other words, the statistic has a t distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom.

- A proof can be based on
 - $\overline{X} \sim \operatorname{Normal}(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$.
 - $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2(n-1)$
 - \overline{X} and S^2 are independent.
 - The property of the t distribution mentioned on the previous overhead.

If X₁,..., X_n ~ Normal(μ, σ) is a random sample, if t_{α/2} is so that [-t_{α/2}, t_{α/2}] contains 100(1 − α)% of the probability in a t distribution with n − 1 degrees of freedom, and if we define

$$L_1 = \overline{X} - t_{\alpha/2}S/\sqrt{n}$$
$$L_2 = \overline{X} + t_{\alpha/2}S/\sqrt{n}$$

then $[L_1, L_2]$ is a 100 $(1 - \alpha)$ % confidence interval for μ .

- Note how we find $t_{\alpha/2}$ in the table for the t distribution.
- The formulas for L₁ and L₂ do not contain σ, so this interval can be used if the distribution variance σ² is unknown.
- The proof is based on using that $(\overline{X} \mu)/(S/\sqrt{n}) \sim T(n-1)$.

Example 4: Approximate confidence interval for μ based on CLT and known σ

If X₁,..., X_n is a random sample from a distribution with expectation μ and variance σ², if z_{α/2} is so that [-z_{α/2}, z_{α/2}] contains 100(1 − α)% of the probability in a standard normal distribution, and if we define

$$L_1 = \overline{X} - z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}$$
$$L_2 = \overline{X} + z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}$$

then $[L_1, L_2]$ is an *approximate* $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval for μ if *n* is large.

- Note: To use this, the variance σ^2 must exist.
- The proof uses that, for large *n* we have, approximately, $\overline{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$.

Example 5: Approximate confidence interval for μ based on CLT

If X₁,..., X_n is a random sample from a distribution with expectation μ and variance σ², if z_{α/2} is so that [-z_{α/2}, z_{α/2}] contains 100(1 − α)% of the probability in a standard normal distribution, and if we define

$$L_1 = \overline{X} - z_{\alpha/2}S/\sqrt{n}$$
$$L_2 = \overline{X} + z_{\alpha/2}S/\sqrt{n}$$

where S is the sample standard deviation, then $[L_1, L_2]$ is an *approximate* $100(1 - \alpha)$ % confidence interval for μ if n is large.

- Motivation: For large *n* we have, approximately, $\overline{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$ and also $S \approx \sigma$.
- One may use $t_{\alpha/2}$ instead of $z_{\alpha/2}$, but the difference is small as *n* is large.
- Note: For this to hold, the variance σ² must exist. One can always compute S from a sample, that S exists does not imply that σ exists!