

Summary of preceding lecture:

Efficiency and Cramer-Rao lower bound tell us how much variability we can expect from an unbiased estimator.

Properties of estimators ; after efficiency and a lower bound on an estimator's variance ($\frac{1}{nI(\theta)}$), I will introduce the notion of sufficiency of an estimator, if an estimator is sufficient for a parameter θ we can compute just that estimate and throw away all the other data.

Definition:

A statistic is that it is sufficient iff the conditional distribution (density or frequency) of the vector \underline{X} given $T = t$, does not depend on θ for any value of $T = t$.

Neither in the function, nor in the domain.

For iid samples, as is usually the case, this says:

$$\frac{f(x_1|t)f(x_2|t) \dots f(x_n|t)}{f_T(t)}$$

does not involve θ .

The binomial is the typical example:

X_1, \dots, X_n a sequence of iid Bernoulli rv's, with $P(X = 1) = \theta$. Then $T = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ is sufficient for θ .

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n | T = t) = \frac{P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n, T = t)}{P(T = t)}$$

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n, T = t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \neq t \\ \prod_{i=1}^n \theta^{x_i} (1 - \theta)^{1-x_i} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\theta^t (1 - \theta)^{n-t}}{P(T = t)} &= \frac{\theta^t (1 - \theta)^{n-t}}{\binom{n}{k} \theta^t (1 - \theta)^{n-t}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{k}} = \frac{t!(n-t)!}{n!} \end{aligned}$$

This does not depend on θ . Here is a necessary and sufficient condition for sufficiency:

Theorem 8.1 A necessary and sufficient condition for $T(\underline{X}) \equiv T(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ to be sufficient for a parameter is that the joint distribution (density or frequency) factors into two parts, one that depends on $\hat{\theta}$ and on \underline{x} only through $T(\underline{x})$ the other that does not depend on θ :

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \theta) = g[T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), \theta] h(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

or

$$f(\underline{x} | \theta) = g(T(\underline{x}), \theta) h(\underline{x})$$

Proof: the condition is sufficient, i.e. if we have the condition we will have sufficiency.

First partition

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{t}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{T}(\underline{\mathbf{x}})=\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{P}(\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbf{x}}) \\
 &= \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \sum_{\mathbf{T}(\underline{\mathbf{x}})=\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{h}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbf{H}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) \\
 \mathbf{P}(\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbf{x}} | \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{t}) &= \frac{\mathbf{P}(\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{t})}{\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{t})} \\
 &= \frac{\mathbf{h}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\mathbf{H}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}
 \end{aligned}$$

Cancellation giving the result.

The other direction, i.e. sufficiency implies the condition: \mathbf{T} is sufficient for $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ means we can write: $\mathbf{P}(\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbf{x}} | \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{t})$ as a function of $\underline{\mathbf{x}}$, call it \mathbf{h} : $\mathbf{P}(\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbf{x}} | \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{h}(\underline{\mathbf{x}})$, we then have:

$$\mathbf{P}(\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbf{x}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{P}(\underline{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbf{x}} | \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{t}) \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{h}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

8.7.1 Exponential Families

Probability distributions with sufficient statistics the same dimension as the parameter space, regardless of sample size. One parameter families:

$$f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp[\mathbf{c}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{d}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})]$$

Joint density of an iid sample from this distribution will be :

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(\underline{\mathbf{x}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \prod \exp[\mathbf{c}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_i) + \mathbf{d}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}_i)] \\
 &= \exp[\mathbf{c}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \sum \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_i) + n\mathbf{d}(\boldsymbol{\theta})] \exp[\sum \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}_i)]
 \end{aligned}$$

So that $\mathbf{T}(\underline{\mathbf{x}}) = \sum \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is a sufficient statistic.

8.7.2 Bernoulli Example

$\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x} = \exp[x \log(\frac{\theta}{1-\theta}) + \log(1 - \theta)] \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{T} = \sum \mathbf{X}_i$ is the sufficient statistic.

The form of the density of an m-parameter exponential family:

$$f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp[\sum_{i=1}^m c_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbf{K}_i(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{d}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})], \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{A}$$

\mathbf{A} must not depend on $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ either.

8.7.3 Normal Example

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \sigma) &= \prod \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu)^2\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma^n 2\pi^{\frac{n}{2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - 2\mu\sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n\mu^2)\right] \end{aligned}$$

This is only a function of $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$, thus they are sufficient statistics. Dimension of sufficient statistic = 2 = dimension of parameter space : exponential family.

Corollary of the factorization theorem:

If \mathbf{T} is sufficient for θ the mle is a function of \mathbf{T} .

Proof:

The mle is built by maximising $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$ which can be factored as: $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{T}, \theta) \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})$ the dependence on θ is only through \mathbf{T} . To maximise this we only need to look at $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{T}, \theta)$.

The following quantifies how much better it can be to use a sufficient statistic as a basis for an estimator, it always provides a method for improving an estimator.

Theorem 8.2 (Rao Blackwell) *Let $\hat{\theta}$ be any finite-varianced estimator of θ . Suppose that we have a sufficient statistic for θ we call \mathbf{T} . Now taking as a new estimate $\tilde{\theta} = E(\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{T})$ we will have a better estimator because it has smaller MSE:*

$$E(\tilde{\theta} - \theta)^2 \leq E(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$$

The equality is strict unless $\hat{\theta} = \tilde{\theta}$.

Proof:

Uses the conditional expectation and variance formulas:

$$\begin{aligned} E(E(Y|X)) &= E(Y) \\ \text{Var}(Y) &= \text{Var}(E(Y|X)) + E(\text{Var}(Y|X)) \\ E(\tilde{\theta}) &= E(\hat{\theta}) \\ \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}) &= \text{Var}(E(\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{T})) + E(\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{T})) \\ \text{Var}(\tilde{\theta}) &= \text{Var}(E(\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{T})) + E(\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}|\mathbf{T})) \end{aligned}$$

Example of Rao-Blackwellisation:

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta, \sigma^2)$ we want to estimate θ , using the silly estimate : $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{X}) = X_1$, and we know a sufficient statistic: $X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$. Then the Rao-Blackwellisation would give us :

$$E[X_1|X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

Because $E(X|X+Y) + E(Y|X+Y) = 2E(X|X+Y) = E(X+Y|X+Y) = X+Y$. So just the one step of conditioning on a sufficient statistic took us a long way.

Extension to other loss functions than the MSE, any convex $W(\tilde{\theta}, \theta)$ is such that Rao-Blackwellisation makes things better.

Example:

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

. and we want to estimate θ . Estimator: first observation: X_1 , why is this silly?

$$\hat{g}(X) = X_1.$$

But we have a sufficient statistic: $X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$.

$$E[X_1 | X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots + X_n] = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

In one step of conditioning we can make things much better.

Extension to other loss functions: **Jensens Inequality**

$$E(f(x)) \geq f(E(x))$$

Suppose we have a convex loss function $W(\tilde{\theta}, \theta)$.

$$E[W(\hat{\theta}, \theta) | T] \geq W(E(\hat{\theta} | T), \theta) = W(\tilde{\theta}, \theta)$$

$$E[W(\hat{\theta}, \theta)] \geq E[W(\tilde{\theta}, \theta)]$$

15 Decision Theory

Choose an action a from a set A , based on the observation of a random variable X which has a distribution depending on a parameter (state of nature) θ .

The decision d maps the sample space onto the action space, $a = d(X)$.

A loss $l(\theta, d(X))$ depends on θ and $d(X)$. Comparing different decisions is based on the risk, or expected loss.

$$R(\theta, d) = E[l(\theta, d(X))]$$

We have just seen, a very detailed account of estimation as a decision, and mostly we used as our loss function the quadratic function, thus the risk is the MSE.

Finding the best d is not trivial, there might be two different states of nature, (parameter values) that give different orderings for the risks.

Two ways to address this:

- Minimax:

The worst the risk could be is

$$\max_{\hat{\theta} \in \Theta} [R(\theta, d)]$$

Choose the decision function d^* that minimizes that worst case.

$$\min_d \left\{ \max_{\hat{\theta} \in \Theta} [R(\theta, d)] \right\}$$

- Bayes.