Sampling Distributions and Point Estimation

of Parameters

Cramer-Rao Inequality Fisher Information

#### CHAPTER OUTLINE

- 7-1 INTRODUCTION
- 7-2 SAMPLING DISTRIBUTIONS AND THE CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM
- 7-3 GENERAL CONCEPTS OF POINT ESTIMATION
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- The field of statistical inference consists of those methods used to make decisions or to draw conclusions about a **population**.
- These methods utilize the information contained in a **sample** from the population in drawing conclusions.
- Statistical inference may be divided into two major areas:
  - Parameter estimation
  - Hypothesis testing

Suppose that we want to obtain a point estimate of a population parameter. We know that before the data is collected, the observations are considered to be random variables, say  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ . Therefore, any function of the observation, or any **statistic**, is also a random variable. For example, the sample mean  $\overline{X}$  and the sample variance  $S^2$  are statistics and they are also random variables.

Since a statistic is a random variable, it has a probability distribution. We call the probability distribution of a statistic a **sampling distribution**. The notion of a sampling distribution is very important and will be discussed and illustrated later in the chapter.

#### Definition

A **point estimate** of some population parameter  $\theta$  is a single numerical value  $\hat{\theta}$  of a statistic  $\hat{\Theta}$ . The statistic  $\hat{\Theta}$  is called the **point estimator**.

Estimation problems occur frequently in engineering. We often need to estimate

- The mean μ of a single population
- The variance  $\sigma^2$  (or standard deviation  $\sigma$ ) of a single population
- The proportion p of items in a population that belong to a class of interest
- The difference in means of two populations, μ<sub>1</sub> − μ<sub>2</sub>
- The difference in two population proportions, p₁ − p₂

Reasonable point estimates of these parameters are as follows:

- For  $\mu$ , the estimate is  $\hat{\mu} = \overline{x}$ , the sample mean.
- For  $\sigma^2$ , the estimate is  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = s^2$ , the sample variance.
- For p, the estimate is p̂ = x/n, the sample proportion, where x is the number of items in a random sample of size n that belong to the class of interest.
- For μ<sub>1</sub> − μ<sub>2</sub>, the estimate is μ̂<sub>1</sub> − μ̂<sub>2</sub> = x̄<sub>1</sub> − x̄<sub>2</sub>, the difference between the sample means of two independent random samples.
- For p<sub>1</sub> − p<sub>2</sub>, the estimate is p̂<sub>1</sub> − p̂<sub>2</sub>, the difference between two sample proportions computed from two independent random samples.

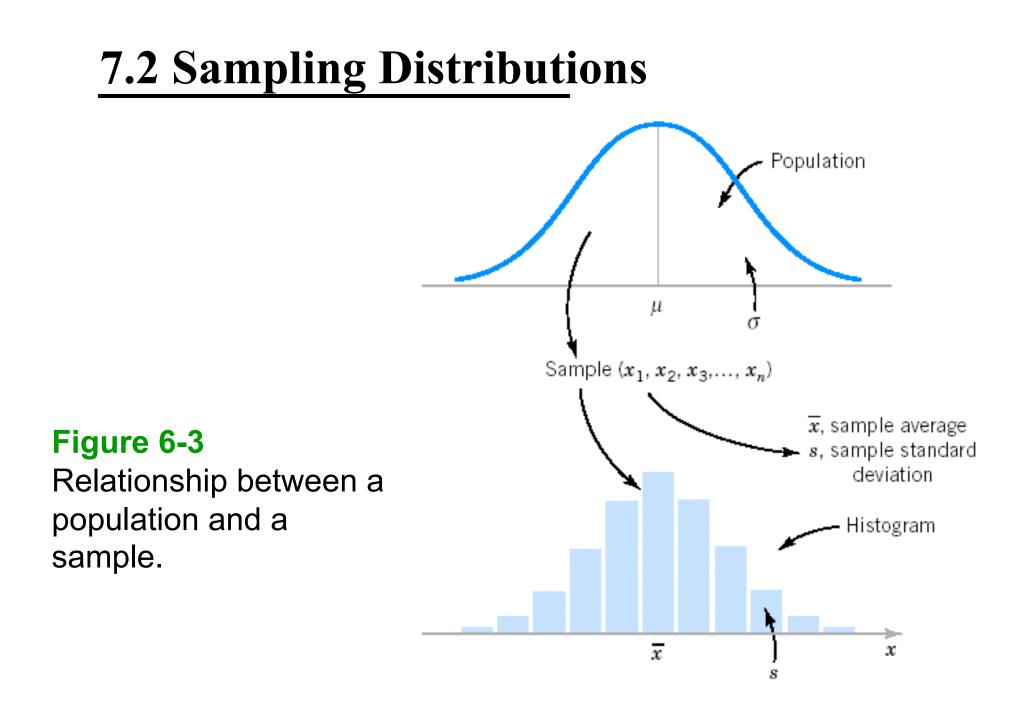
Statistical inference is concerned with making decisions about a population based on the information contained in a random sample from that population.

#### **Definitions:**

The random variables  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  are a **random sample** of size *n* if (a) the  $X_i$ 's are independent random variables, and (b) every  $X_i$  has the same probability distribution.

A statistic is any function of the observations in a random sample.

The probability distribution of a statistic is called a sampling distribution.



#### **7.2 Sampling Distributions**

- Suppose  $X_1, ..., X_n$  are a random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- (a) What are the mean and variance of the sample mean?
- (b) What is the sampling distribution of the sample mean if the population is normal.

If we are sampling from a population that has an unknown probability distribution, the sampling distribution of the sample mean will still be approximately normal with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2/n$ , if the sample size *n* is large. This is one of the most useful theorems in statistics, called the **central limit theorem**. The statement is as follows:

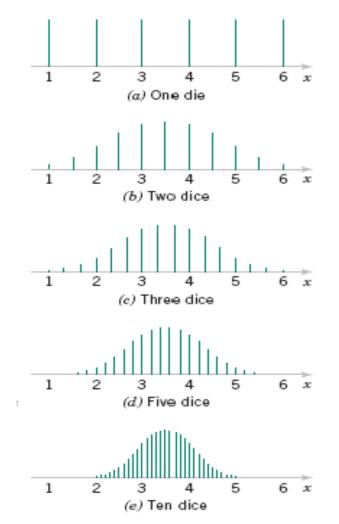
If  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  is a random sample of size *n* taken from a population (either finite or infinite) with mean  $\mu$  and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ , and if  $\overline{X}$  is the sample mean, the limiting form of the distribution of

$$Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$
(7-1)

as  $n \to \infty$ , is the standard normal distribution.

If the population is normal, the sampling distribution of Z is exactly standard normal.

**Figure 7-1** Distributions of average scores from throwing dice. [Adapted with permission from Box, Hunter, and Hunter (1978).]



#### **CLT Simulation**

#### Example 7-1

An electronics company manufactures resistors that have a mean resistance of 100 ohms and a standard deviation of 10 ohms. The distribution of resistance is normal. Find the probability that a random sample of n = 25 resistors will have an average resistance less than 95 ohms.

Note that the sampling distribution of  $\overline{X}$  is normal, with mean  $\mu_{\overline{X}} = 100$  ohms and a standard deviation of

$$\sigma_{\overline{X}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{10}{\sqrt{25}} = 2$$

Therefore, the desired probability corresponds to the shaded area in Fig. 7-1. Standardizing the point  $\overline{X} = 95$  in Fig. 7-2, we find that

$$z = \frac{95 - 100}{2} = -2.5$$

and therefore,

$$P(\overline{X} < 95) = P(Z < -2.5)$$
  
= 0.0062

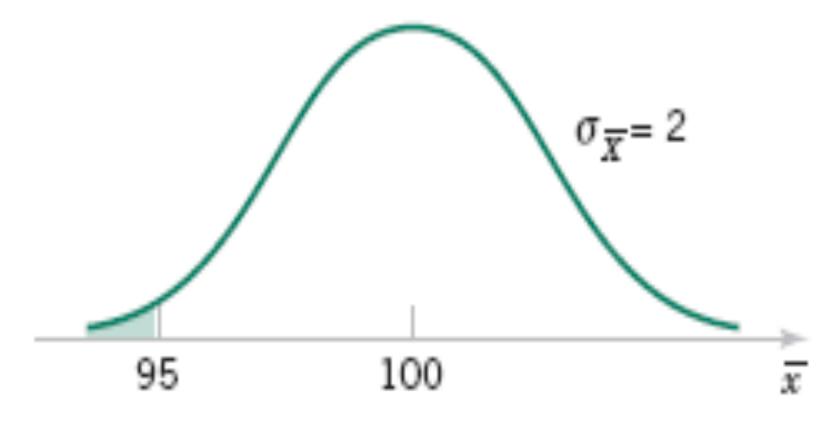


Figure 7-2 Probability for Example 7-1

## **Approximate Sampling Distribution of a Difference in Sample Means**

If we have two independent populations with means  $\mu_1$  and  $\mu_2$  and variances  $\sigma_1^2$  and  $\sigma_2^2$  and if  $\overline{X}_1$  and  $\overline{X}_2$  are the sample means of two independent random samples of sizes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  from these populations, then the sampling distribution of

$$Z = \frac{\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2 - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 / n_1 + \sigma_2^2 / n_2}}$$
(7-4)

is approximately standard normal, if the conditions of the central limit theorem apply. If the two populations are normal, the sampling distribution of Z is exactly standard normal.

## 7-3 General Concepts of Point Estimation

#### 7-3.1 Unbiased Estimators

#### Definition

The point estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  is an **unbiased estimator** for the parameter  $\theta$  if

$$E(\hat{\Theta}) = \theta$$
 (7-5)

If the estimator is not unbiased, then the difference

$$E(\hat{\Theta}) - \theta$$
 (7-6)

is called the **bias** of the estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$ .

## 7-3 General Concepts of Point Estimation

#### **Example 7-4**

Suppose that X is a random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  be a random sample of size *n* from the population represented by X. Show that the sample mean  $\overline{X}$  and sample variance  $S^2$  are unbiased estimators of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ , respectively.

First consider the sample mean. In Equation 5.40a in Chapter 5, we showed that  $E(\overline{X}) = \mu$ . Therefore, the sample mean  $\overline{X}$  is an unbiased estimator of the population mean  $\mu$ .

Now consider the sample variance. We have

$$E(S^{2}) = E\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})^{2}}{n-1}\right] = \frac{1}{n-1} E\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \overline{X})^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n-1} E\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i}^{2} + \overline{X}^{2} - 2\overline{X}X_{i}) = \frac{1}{n-1} E\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{2} - n\overline{X}^{2}\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} E(X_{i}^{2}) - nE(\overline{X}^{2})\right]$$

## 7-3 General Concepts of Point Estimation

#### **Example 7-4 (continued)**

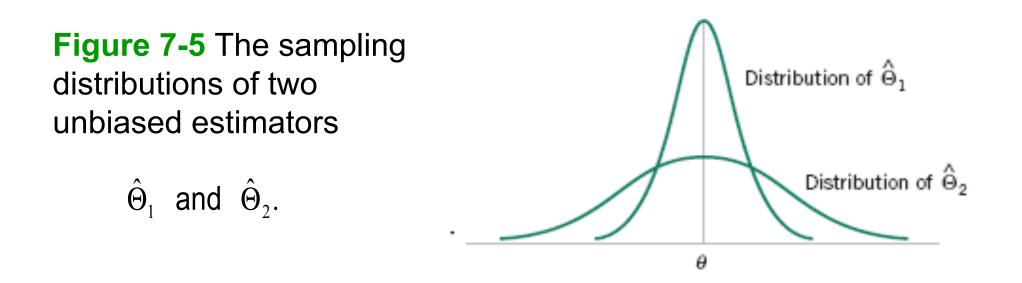
The last equality follows from Equation 5-37 in Chapter 5. However, since  $E(X_i^2) = \mu^2 + \sigma^2$ and  $E(\overline{X}^2) = \mu^2 + \sigma^2/n$ , we have

$$E(S^{2}) = \frac{1}{n-1} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mu^{2} + \sigma^{2}) - n(\mu^{2} + \sigma^{2}/n) \right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{n-1} (n\mu^{2} + n\sigma^{2} - n\mu^{2} - \sigma^{2})$$
$$= \sigma^{2}$$

Therefore, the sample variance  $S^2$  is an unbiased estimator of the population variance  $\sigma^2$ .

## 7-3.2 Variance of a Point Estimator

If we consider all unbiased estimators of  $\theta$ , the one with the smallest variance is called the minimum variance unbiased estimator (MVUE).



If  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  is a random sample of size *n* from a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , the sample mean  $\overline{X}$  is the MVUE for  $\mu$ .

#### 7-3.3 Standard Error: Reporting a Point Estimate

The standard error of an estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  is its standard deviation, given by  $\sigma_{\hat{\Theta}} = \sqrt{V(\hat{\Theta})}$ . If the standard error involves unknown parameters that can be estimated, substitution of those values into  $\sigma_{\hat{\Theta}}$  produces an estimated standard error, denoted by  $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\Theta}}$ .

Suppose we are sampling from a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Now the distribution of  $\overline{X}$  is normal with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2/n$ , so the standard error of  $\overline{X}$  is

$$\sigma_{\overline{X}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

If we did not know  $\sigma$  but substituted the sample standard deviation S into the above equation, the estimated standard error of  $\overline{X}$  would be

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\overline{X}} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$$

### 7-3.3 Standard Error: Reporting a Point Estimate

#### Example 7-5

An article in the *Journal of Heat Transfer* (Trans. ASME, Sec. C, 96, 1974, p. 59) described a new method of measuring the thermal conductivity of Armco iron. Using a temperature of 100°F and a power input of 550 watts, the following 10 measurements of thermal conductivity (in Btu/hr-ft-°F) were obtained:

41.60, 41.48, 42.34, 41.95, 41.86, 42.18, 41.72, 42.26, 41.81, 42.04

A point estimate of the mean thermal conductivity at 100°F and 550 watts is the sample mean or

 $\overline{x} = 41.924$  Btu/hr-ft-°F

#### 7-3.3 Standard Error: Reporting a Point Estimate

#### **Example 7-5 (continued)**

The standard error of the sample mean is  $\sigma_{\overline{X}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ , and since  $\sigma$  is unknown, we may replace it by the sample standard deviation s = 0.284 to obtain the estimated standard error of  $\overline{X}$  as

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\overline{X}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{0.284}{\sqrt{10}} = 0.0898$$

Notice that the standard error is about 0.2 percent of the sample mean, implying that we have obtained a relatively precise point estimate of thermal conductivity. If we can assume that thermal conductivity is normally distributed, 2 times the standard error is  $2\hat{\sigma}_{\overline{X}} = 2(0.0898) = 0.1796$ , and we are highly confident that the true mean thermal conductivity is with the interval 41.924  $\pm$  0.1756, or between 41.744 and 42.104.

#### 7-3.4 Mean Square Error of an Estimator

The mean squared error of an estimator  $\hat{\Theta}$  of the parameter  $\theta$  is defined as

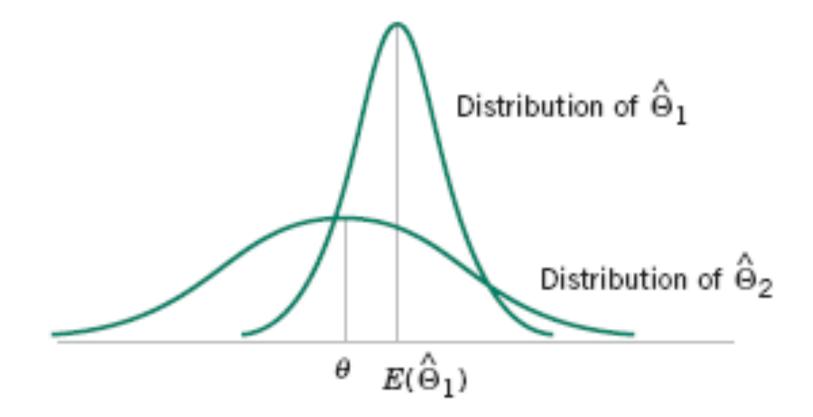
$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}) = E(\hat{\Theta} - \theta)^2$$
(7-7)

The mean squared error is an important criterion for comparing two estimators. Let  $\hat{\Theta}_1$ and  $\hat{\Theta}_2$  be two estimators of the parameter  $\theta$ , and let MSE ( $\hat{\Theta}_1$ ) and MSE ( $\hat{\Theta}_2$ ) be the mean squared errors of  $\hat{\Theta}_1$  and  $\hat{\Theta}_2$ . Then the relative efficiency of  $\hat{\Theta}_2$  to  $\hat{\Theta}_1$  is defined as

$$\frac{\text{MSE}(\hat{\Theta}_1)}{\text{MSE}(\hat{\Theta}_2)}$$
(7-8)

If this relative efficiency is less than 1, we would conclude that  $\hat{\Theta}_1$  is a more efficient estimator of  $\theta$  than  $\hat{\Theta}_2$ , in the sense that it has a smaller mean square error.

#### 7-3.4 Mean Square Error of an Estimator



**Figure 7-6** A biased estimator  $\hat{\Theta}_1$  that has smaller variance than the unbiased estimator  $\hat{\Theta}_2$ .

- Problem: To find p=P(heads) for a biased coin.
- Procedure: Flip the coin n times.
- Data (a random sample) :  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ 
  - where  $X_i=1$  or 0 if the ith outcome is heads or tails.
- Question: How to estimate p using the data?

#### Definition

Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  be a random sample from the probability distribution f(x), where f(x) can be a discrete probability mass function or a continuous probability density function. The kth population moment (or distribution moment) is  $E(X^k)$ , k = 1, 2, ... The corresponding kth sample moment is  $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i^k$ , k = 1, 2, ...

#### Definition

Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  be a random sample from either a probability mass function or probability density function with *m* unknown parameters  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_m$ . The **moment estimators**  $\hat{\Theta}_1, \hat{\Theta}_2, \ldots, \hat{\Theta}_m$  are found by equating the first *m* population moments to the first *m* sample moments and solving the resulting equations for the unknown parameters.

Example 7-7: Consider normal distribution  $N(\mu,\sigma^2)$ .

Find the moment estimators of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ .

## 7-4.2 Method of Maximum Likelihood Definition

Suppose that X is a random variable with probability distribution  $f(x; \theta)$ , where  $\theta$  is a single unknown parameter. Let  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  be the observed values in a random sample of size *n*. Then the **likelihood function** of the sample is

$$L(\theta) = f(x_1; \theta) \cdot f(x_2; \theta) \cdot \dots \cdot f(x_n; \theta)$$
(7-9)

Note that the likelihood function is now a function of only the unknown parameter  $\theta$ . The **maximum likelihood estimator (MLE)** of  $\theta$  is the value of  $\theta$  that maximizes the likelihood function  $L(\theta)$ .

#### Example 7-9

Let X be a Bernoulli random variable. The probability mass function is

$$f(x;p) = \begin{cases} p^x (1-p)^{1-x}, & x = 0, 1\\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where p is the parameter to be estimated. The likelihood function of a random sample of size n is

$$L(p) = p^{x_1}(1-p)^{1-x_1}p^{x_2}(1-p)^{1-x_2}\cdots p^{x_n}(1-p)^{1-x_n}$$
  
=  $\prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i}(1-p)^{1-x_i} = p^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}_{i=1}(1-p)^{n-\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}$ 

#### **Example 7-9 (continued)**

We observe that if  $\hat{p}$  maximizes L(p),  $\hat{p}$  also maximizes  $\ln L(p)$ . Therefore,

$$\ln L(p) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right) \ln p + \left(n - \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right) \ln(1-p)$$

Now

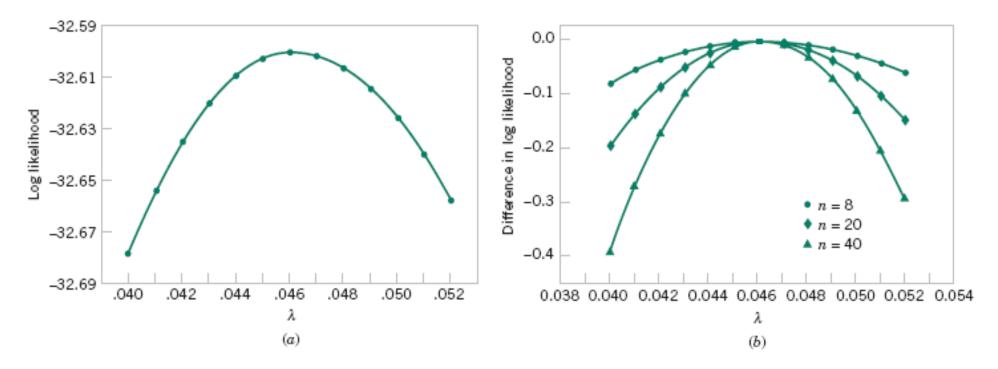
$$\frac{d\ln L(p)}{dp} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{p} - \frac{\left(n - \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)}{1 - p}$$

Equating this to zero and solving for p yields  $\hat{p} = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ . Therefore, the maximum likelihood estimator of p is

$$\hat{P} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$

#### Examples 7-6 and 7-11

- The time to failure of an electronic module used in an automobile engine controller is tested at an elevated temperature to accelerate the failure mechanism. The time to failure is **exponentially distributed**. Eight units are randomly selected and tested, resulting in the following failure time (in hours): 11.96, 5.03, 67.40, 16.07, 31.50, 7.73, 11.10, 22.38.
- Here X is exponentially distributed with parameter  $\lambda$ .
- (a)What is the moment estimate of  $\lambda$ ?
- (b) What is the MLE estimate of  $\lambda$ ?



**Figure 7-7** Log likelihood for the exponential distribution, using the failure time data. (a) Log likelihood with n = 8 (original data). (b) Difference in Log likelihood if n = 8, 20, and 40.

#### Example 7-12

Let X be normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , where both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are unknown. The likelihood function for a random sample of size *n* is

$$L(\mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x_i - \mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)} = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{n/2}} e^{-(1/2\sigma^2)\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}$$

and

$$\ln L(\mu, \sigma^2) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

#### **Example 7-12 (continued)**

Now

$$\frac{\partial \ln L(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}} = \frac{1}{\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial \ln L(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)}{\partial (\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)} = -\frac{n}{2\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2} + \frac{1}{2\boldsymbol{\sigma}^4} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^2 = 0$$

The solutions to the above equation yield the maximum likelihood estimators

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

Once again, the maximum likelihood estimators are equal to the moment estimators.

#### **Cramer-Rao Inequality (extra!)**

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample with pdf  $f(x, \theta)$ . If  $\hat{\Theta}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ , then

$$\operatorname{var}(\hat{\Theta}) \ge \frac{1}{nI(\theta)}$$

where

$$I(\theta) = E\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\ln f(X;\theta)\right]^2 = -E\left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\theta^2}\ln f(X;\theta)\right]$$

is the Fisher information.

#### Properties of the Maximum Likelihood Estimator

Under very general and not restrictive conditions, when the sample size *n* is large and if  $\hat{\Theta}$  is the maximum likelihood estimator of the parameter  $\theta$ ,

- (1)  $\hat{\Theta}$  is an approximately unbiased estimator for  $\theta [E(\hat{\Theta}) \simeq \theta]$ ,
- (2) the variance of Θ̂ is nearly as small as the variance that could be obtained with any other estimator, and
- (3)  $\hat{\Theta}$  has an approximate normal distribution.

#### The Invariance Property

Let  $\hat{\Theta}_1, \hat{\Theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\Theta}_k$  be the maximum likelihood estimators of the parameters  $\theta_1$ ,  $\theta_2, \dots, \theta_k$ . Then the maximum likelihood estimator of any function  $h(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k)$  of these parameters is the same function  $h(\hat{\Theta}_1, \hat{\Theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\Theta}_k)$  of the estimators  $\hat{\Theta}_1, \hat{\Theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\Theta}_k$ .

In the normal distribution case, the maximum likelihood estimators of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  were  $\hat{\mu} = \overline{X}$ and  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X})^2 / n$ . To obtain the maximum likelihood estimator of the function  $h(\mu, \sigma^2) = \sqrt{\sigma^2} = \sigma$ , substitute the estimators  $\hat{\mu}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  into the function h, which yields

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2} = \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X})^2\right]^{1/2}$$

Thus, the maximum likelihood estimator of the standard deviation  $\sigma$  is *not* the sample standard deviation S.

Complications in Using Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- It is not always easy to maximize the likelihood function because the equation(s) obtained from  $dL(\theta)/d\theta = 0$  may be difficult to solve.
- It may not always be possible to use calculus methods directly to determine the maximum of  $L(\theta)$ .
- See Example 7-14.