

Statistical Inference
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Lecture – 20
Lower Bounds For Variance – VI

Let me explain through an example here.

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Example. $P_\theta(X=x) = \theta(1-\theta)^x$, $x=0,1,2,\dots$, $0 < \theta < 1$.

An unbiased estimator for θ is T given by
 $T(0) = 1$ & $T(k) = 0$, $k=1,2,\dots$
 (unique unbiased estimator for θ).

$\text{Var}(T) = \theta(1-\theta)$, $\text{FRCLB} = \theta^2(1-\theta)$

$f(x,\theta) = \theta(1-\theta)^x$
 $\frac{\partial f(x,\theta)}{\partial \theta} = (1-\theta)^x - x\theta(1-\theta)^{x-1}$

$S_1 = \frac{\frac{\partial f(x,\theta)}{\partial \theta}}{f(x,\theta)} = \frac{1}{\theta} - \frac{x}{1-\theta}$
 $\frac{\partial S_1}{\partial \theta} = -x(1-\theta)^{-2} - x(1-\theta)^{-2} + x(x-1)\theta(1-\theta)^{-3}$
 $S_2 = \frac{\partial S_1}{\partial \theta} / f(x,\theta) = -\frac{2x}{\theta(1-\theta)} + \frac{x(x-1)}{(1-\theta)^2}$

$E(X) = \frac{1-\theta}{\theta}$
 $E(X^2) = \frac{(1-\theta) + (1-\theta)^2}{\theta^2}$
 $E(X^3) = \frac{(1-\theta) + 4(1-\theta)^2 + (1-\theta)^3}{\theta^3}$
 $E(X^4) = \frac{[(1-\theta) + 11(1-\theta)^2 + 11(1-\theta)^3 + (1-\theta)^4]}{\theta^4}$

We consider our example of the geometric distribution that is $P_\theta(X=x)$ is equal to $\theta(1-\theta)^x$ for $x=0, 1, 2$ and so on. In fact, for this problem we have already shown that an unbiased estimator for θ is T given by that $T(0) = 1$ and $T(k) = 0$ for $k=1, 2$ and so on. In fact, this is the only unbiased estimator a unique unbiased estimator.

And we have already seen that variance of T is $\theta(1-\theta)$ and the FRCLB was equal to $\theta^2(1-\theta)$. Now let us apply Bhattacharyya's bound here. So, let us calculate here $f(x,\theta)$ is equal to $\theta(1-\theta)^x$. So, $\frac{\partial f(x,\theta)}{\partial \theta}$, that is equal to $(1-\theta)^x - x\theta(1-\theta)^{x-1}$ with a minus sign.

So, S_1 is $\frac{\partial f(x,\theta)}{\partial \theta} / f(x,\theta)$ that will be equal to $\frac{1}{\theta} - \frac{x}{1-\theta}$. So, we will get it

as theta into 1 minus theta to the power x. So, I am sorry this is theta here. So, I will get here x by 1 minus theta. Similarly, if we consider say second derivative here del 2 f by del theta 2, we get here x into 1 minus theta to the power x minus 1 minus x into 1 minus theta to the power x minus 1 minus plus x into x minus 1 theta into 1 minus theta to the power x minus 2.

These 2 terms can be combined. So, S 2 that is del 2 f by del theta 2 by f x theta, that becomes minus 2 x by theta into 1 minus theta plus x into x minus 1 1 minus theta square. Now for this geometric distribution, if I want to calculate variance covariance matrix of S 1 then I need various expectations. So, let us see in fact, I will need expectation of x expectation of x square and if here I need expectation x expectation x square and expectation x cube and expectation x to the power 4 also.

So, let us see for this geometric distribution, you will have expectation X is equal to 1 minus theta by theta expectation of X square that is equal to 1 minus theta plus 1 minus theta square divided by theta square. Expectation of X cube is equal to 1 minus theta plus 4 into 1 minus theta square plus 1 minus theta cube divided by theta cube. Expectation of X to the power 4 that is equal to 1 minus theta plus 11 1 minus theta square plus 11 1 minus theta cube plus 1 minus theta to the power 4 divided by theta to the power 4. (Refer Slide Time: 05:19)

Then $E(S_1) = \text{Var}(S_1) = \frac{1}{\theta^2(1-\theta)}$, $E(S_2) = V(S_2) = \frac{4(2-\theta)}{\theta^4(1-\theta)^2}$

$E(S_1 S_2) = \text{Cov}(S_1, S_2) = -\frac{2}{\theta^3(1-\theta)}$

Therefore the variance-covariance matrix of $\underline{S} = (S_1, S_2)$ is

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\theta^2(1-\theta)} & -\frac{2}{\theta^3(1-\theta)} \\ -\frac{2}{\theta^3(1-\theta)} & \frac{4(2-\theta)}{\theta^4(1-\theta)^2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad |\Lambda| = \frac{4}{\theta^6(1-\theta)^3}$$

$$\Lambda^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} (2-\theta)\theta^2(1-\theta) & \theta^3(1-\theta)^2/2 \\ \theta^3(1-\theta)^2/2 & \theta^4(1-\theta)^2/4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\eta_1 = \frac{d\theta}{d\theta} = 1$
 $\eta_2 = \frac{d(1-\theta)}{d\theta} = 0$
 $\eta = (1, 0)$

Bhattacharyya's bound for estimating θ unbiasedly is
 $\text{BhLB} = \eta' \Lambda^{-1} \eta = \theta^2(1-\theta)(2-\theta)$
 $\text{FRLB} = \theta^2(1-\theta) = E\left(\frac{1}{S_1}\right)$, $\text{Var}(T) = \theta(1-\theta) > \text{BhLB} > \text{FRLB}$
 $0 < \theta < 1$

So, if we use these expectations we can easily write down expectation of S square that is variance of S 1 as 1 by theta S square into 1 minus theta. Expectation of S 2 square that

is variance of S_2 that is equal to $4 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ divided by $\theta^4 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$.

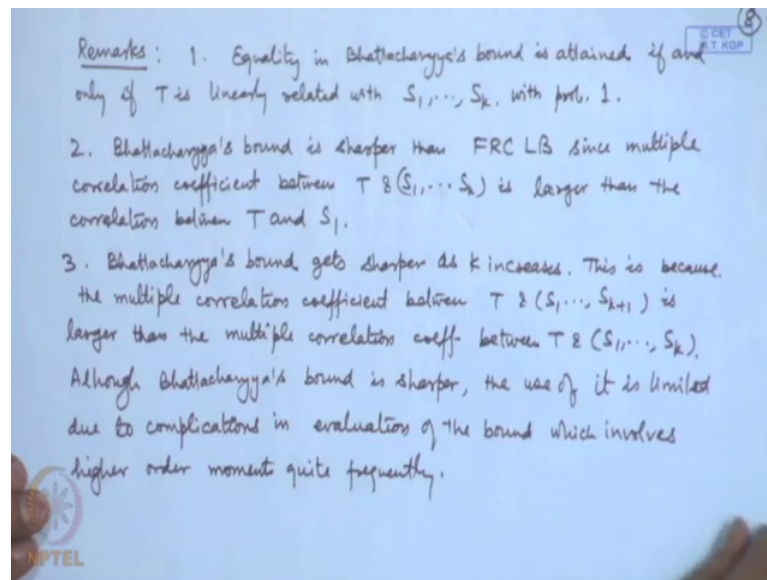
We also need the covariance between S_1 and S_2 that is expectation of $S_1 S_2$, because expectation S_1 and expectation S_2 are 0, this is equal to $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ divided by $\theta^3 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$. Therefore, the variance covariance matrix of S is equal to S^{-1} . So, here we are going only up to second stage, that is λ^{-1} by $\theta^2 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ into $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ and $4 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ divided by $\theta^4 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$.

Now, the inverse of this can be written easily, if you look at the determinant of this, it is $4 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ divided by $\theta^6 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$. And, the inverse is then simply obtained as $2 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ into $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ by $2 \theta^3 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ into $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ by $2 \theta^4 \int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ into $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ by 4. We also look at what is η ? η_1 is $d \ln g$ by $d\theta$ that is 1, η_2 will become $d^2 g$ by $d\theta^2$ that is equal to 0.

So, your η vector is $(1, 0)$. So, Bhattacharyya's bound for estimating θ unbiasedly is I will call it BLB Bhattacharyya lower bound or say Bh LB that is equal to $\eta' \lambda^{-1} \eta$. Since, η is $(1, 0)$ so, you will get actually the first term that is $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ into $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$. What was FRC lower bound here? That was $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$ that is expectation of 1 by S_1 square layer. And what is variance of t ?

Variance of the unbiased estimator t that was $\int_0^1 (1-\theta)^2 d\theta$; so, it is greater than Bhattacharyya lower bound and that is greater than FRC lower bound, for θ lying between 0 and 1. Now, what you observe here is that although, this unique unbiased estimator t . So therefore, it is based unbiased estimator, it does not achieve the Bhattacharyya lower bound, but Bhattacharyya lower bound is sharper than the FRC lower bound. So, in that sense this is an improvement over the FRC lower bound although, we are making an assumption about the differentiation of the density function a higher number of times.

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So, let me give a few comments here about Bhattacharyya's bound equality in Bhattacharyya's bound is attained, if and only if T is linearly related with S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k . Now why is this? Because actually, we are using that the multiple correlation coefficient is less than or equal to 1. So, multiple correlation coefficient is equal to 1 provided the dependent variable and the independent variables are completely linearly related.

So, that is the condition here because, we are considering the multiple correlation between T and S here. So, they must be linearly related with probability 1, then we have observed that Bhattacharyya's bound is sharper than the Rao Cramer lower bound, why? Because the Bhattacharyya bound is using multiple correlation coefficient between t and S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k and Fresher Rao Cramer lower bound has only the correlation between t and S_1 . So, certainly this multiple correlation coefficient will be higher than that.

So, we can say in general that Bhattacharyya's bound is sharper than FRC lower bound, since multiple correlation coefficient between T and S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k is larger than the correlation between T and S_1 another thing that you observe here, I have to consider derivative up to order k suppose, I consider up to order $k+1$ in that case, the inequality will be dependent upon the multiple correlation between T and S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{k+1} .

Now, if you increase the number of variables, the multiple correlation coefficient increases; that means, the Bhattacharyya bounds gets sharper and sharper as k increases.

So, we can say that Bhattacharyya's bound gets sharper than sharper as k increases, this is because the multiple correlation coefficient between T and S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{k+1} is larger than the multiple correlation coefficient between T and S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k .

Now, you can see the historical development the Fisher Rao-Cramer lower bound was obtained in 1943, 44, 45 and it was dependent upon one derivative or first order derivative; however, this Bhattacharyya bound, which was developed immediately after that it is sharper it uses higher order derivatives. Now theoretically speaking, this should be used more often; however, it is not very popular or you can say not frequently used.

The main reason is that the calculations become very very complicated, if we use higher order derivatives, I have shown the example of second order here. So, if we are using the second order we are actually making use of the expectation x to the power 4 that is the fourth order moment. Now, if you consider distributions like normal distribution etcetera where, already x^2 comes. So, if you consider the second order derivative you will get power 4, now if you take the variance of that you will get expectation of x to the power 8 kind of term. And therefore, if I go to third order or fourth order the number of terms will be formidable.

And therefore, even though you get sharpness and the method of Bhattacharyya bound has not been used much for finding out the lower bounds for the variance of unbiased estimators. I will just consider one example here, let us take say normal distribution and I will show that how the calculations become complicated. Although, Bhattacharyya's bound is sharper the use of it is limited due to complications in evaluation of the bound, which involves higher order moments quite frequently, let me give an example of this.

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$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
 $f(x, \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma > 0.$
 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^4} - \frac{1}{2(\sigma^2)^{3/2} \sqrt{2\pi}} \right) e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$
 $S_1 = \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^4} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^3 \sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right)$
 $E(S_1^2) = \frac{1}{4\sigma^4} E(W-1)^2 = \frac{2}{4\sigma^4} = \frac{1}{2\sigma^4}$
 $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \sigma^2} = \left[\frac{1}{2\sigma^4} - \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^6} \right] f(x, \mu, \sigma) + \left[\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left\{ \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right\} \right]^2 f(x, \mu, \sigma)$
 $S_2 = \frac{1}{4\sigma^4} (W^2 - (W+3)) \quad E(S_2) = \frac{1}{16\sigma^4} E(W^2 - 6W + 3) = \frac{33}{32\sigma^4}$

$\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0,1)$
 $W = \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 \sim \chi^2_1$
 $E(W) = 1, E(W^2) = 3$
 $E(W^3) = 15, E(W^4) = 105$

Say x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n follow normal μ, σ^2 . So, here the density function is $\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$, we are considering σ here. So, the derivative of this with respect to σ is $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma}$. So, that will involve derivative of $e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ that will be $e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ times $-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^3}$ and of course, $\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}}$ and derivative of that term that is $-\frac{1}{\sigma^2 \sqrt{2\pi}}$. Now we consider derivative of this, now this term we will consider as $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right)$ to the power half. So, the derivative of that will become $-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right)$ times $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}$ and then you have $\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$.

Now, you can see this is S_1 term itself will be equal to $\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2\sigma}$. Now this term of course, will cancel out. So, you will get $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right)^2$ here that is $\frac{1}{4\sigma^4} \left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} - 1 \right)^2$. Now, if I want to calculate expectation of S_1^2 that will involve fourth order moment here of course, you may take help of the calculation that $\frac{(x-\mu)}{\sigma}$ follows normal $0, 1$. So, $\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}$ let me call it W , that follows chi square on 1 degree of freedom.

So, expectation of S_1^2 can be written as $\frac{1}{4\sigma^4} E\left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} - 1\right)^2$. So, if W is chi square 1 expectation of W is 1. So, this is

variance term. So, that becomes $2 \times 4 \sigma$ to the power 4 that is $1 \times 2 \sigma$ to the power 4. Now, if we calculate $S^2 S^2$ will involve the second derivative here. So, if we consider the second derivative of this then, this density multiplied by this term, you are differentiate and then the differentiate the density also. So, you will get the terms like this, $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \sigma^2}$ that is equal to $1 \times 2 \sigma$ to the power 4 minus μ^2 by σ to the power 6 into the density plus $1 \times 2 \sigma^2$ minus μ by σ whole square minus 1 whole square into the density.

So, your S^2 then turns out to be we can write using this W term as follows $1 \times 4 \sigma$ to the power 4 W^2 minus $6 W$ plus 3. Naturally, you can see that expectation of S^2 square even will involve expectation of W to the power 4 and these terms, you can see here expectation of W is 1, expectation of w^2 is 3, expectation of W^3 that turns out to be 45×4 , expectation of W to the power 4 turns out to be 105×2 . So, you can calculate expectation of S^2 square as $1 \times 16 \sigma$ to the power 8, expectation of W^2 square minus $6 W$ plus 3 whole square, which is $33 \times 32 \sigma$ to the power 8.

So, you can see here the terms become complicated increasingly as we increase the order of derivatives in the Bhattacharyya's bound here, we have considered only second order, if we take third order and so on, it will be very very combustion calculations. So, therefore, the use of Bhattacharya bounds is restricted. Now I mentioned about two other things, one is the case of multi parameter situation, what happens to the lower bounds in that case. And, another is that what if the lower bounds are not there, sorry if the regularity conditions are not satisfied then what happens to the lower bounds.

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We consider the case when the regularity conditions may not be satisfied.

Chapman⁽¹⁹⁵¹⁾ - Robbins⁽¹⁹⁵¹⁾ - Kiefer⁽¹⁹⁵⁷⁾ Inequality (LB for Variance of an unbiased estimator)

Let X have the pdf (pmf) $f(x, \theta)$, $\theta \in \Omega$. Let T be an unbiased estimator of $g(\theta)$. Define

$$A(\phi, \theta) = \text{Var}_{\phi} \left[\frac{f(X, \phi)}{f(X, \theta)} \right], \quad \phi \neq \theta \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{x: f(x, \phi) > 0\} \\ \subset \{x: f(x, \theta) > 0\} \end{array} \right. \quad (*)$$

Then CRK inequality states that

$$\text{Var}_{\theta}(T) \geq \sup_{\phi \in \Omega} \frac{\{g(\phi) - g(\theta)\}^2}{A(\phi, \theta)}, \quad \text{where the supremum is taken over all } \phi \text{ for which the condition } (*) \text{ holds.}$$


So, we consider the case when the regularity conditions may not be satisfied. So, we have the so called Chapman Robbins and Kiefer inequality are lower bound for variance of an unbiased estimator. So, this is developed by D G Chapman Robbins and Kiefer. So, let X have the probability density function or probability mass function f_x , I am already writing for sample here, where θ is belonging to Ω , let T be an unbiased estimator of $g(\theta)$ and define a term like $A(\phi, \theta)$. This is defined to be variance under the true distribution $f_x(\theta)$ of $f_x(\phi) / f_x(\theta)$; that means, I am considering the joint distribution at the parameter point ϕ .

And the joint distribution at the point θ , let us consider the ratio and the variance of this is considered when the true distribution is $f_x(\theta)$. Obviously, when we write this ratio, we should have certain conditions for example, I should not have the case, when $f_x(\theta)$ is 0 and $f_x(\phi)$ is nonzero, because then this will give me an infinite term; that means, the set of values for which the density function $f_x(\phi)$ is positive, should be a subset of the set of points for which $f_x(\theta)$ is positive. So, we should say here $\phi \neq \theta$ and the set x such that $f_x(\phi)$ is positive is a subset of the set such that $f_x(\theta)$ is positive.

Now, then CRK that is Chapman Robbins Kiefer inequality, it states that variance of T is greater than or equal to Supremum of $g(\phi) - g(\theta)$ whole square divided by $A(\phi, \theta)$. Now the Supremum is considered over all ϕ belonging to Ω , let me call this

condition as star, where the Supremum is taken over all ϕ for which the condition a star holds. So, this Chapman Robins Kiefer inequality this gives the lower bound for the variance of an unbiased estimator of a parametric function $g(\theta)$. But, we have not placed any condition on the density function like in the case of Rao Cramer or Bhattacharyya's bound, we have placed conditions on the existence of the derivatives existence of the derivatives of the integrals etcetera.

Here, there is no such condition, the proof of this we will be considering in the following lecture. And, you will again see that the proof is dependent upon the variance covariance inequality or you can say Cauchy Schwarz inequality that is the correlation coefficient is less than or equal to 1. So, in the next lecture we will be proving this CRK inequality.