Consider the estimation of an unknown parameter  $\theta$  in a set  $\Theta$ , based on data  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Each function  $h(x, \cdot)$  on  $\Theta$  defines a *Z*-estimator  $\widehat{\theta}_n = \widehat{\theta}_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  as a zero of a random *criterion function* 

$$H_n(\theta) := H_n(\theta, \mathbf{x}) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \le n} h(x_i, \theta).$$

That is,  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is defined by the equality  $H_n(\hat{\theta}_n) = 0$ . For different choices of *h* we get different estimators—different functions of the data. The choice of *h* can be suggested by a model or by various optimality criteria.

For simplicity I will consider only the case where  $\Theta$  is a subset of the real line. Vector-valued parameters can be handled by taking *h* as a vector-valued function.

<1> **Example.** Suppose the data  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are modelled as independent observations from a density belonging to a family  $\{f_{\theta}(x) : \theta \in \Theta\}$ .

The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) is defined as the value that maximizes the joint density  $p(x_1, ..., x_n, \theta) = \prod_{i \le n} f_{\theta}(x_i)$ . If  $f_{\theta}$  is a smooth function of  $\theta$ , and if the maximum occurs at the point where  $\partial p/\partial \theta$  is zero, the MLE corresponds to the Z-estimator defined by

$$h(x, \theta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta).$$

For example, for fitting a  $N(\theta, 1)$  model the function  $h(x, \theta) = x - \theta$ generates the MLE, which happens to coincide with the *method of moments estimator*. In general, if  $m(\theta) := \int x f_{\theta}(x) dx$ , the method of moments estimator for a one-dimensional parameter  $\theta$  is defined as the solution to  $m(\hat{\theta}_n) = \sum_{i < n} x_i/n$ , which corresponds to the function  $h(x, \theta) := x - m(\theta)$ .

For the purposes of numerical illustration I will work with the function

<2>

$$\bar{h}(x,\theta) = \begin{cases} x - \theta & \text{if } |x - \theta| \le 1 \\ +1 & \text{if } x > \theta + 1 \\ -1 & \text{if } x < \theta - 1 \end{cases}$$

I choose this particular function for two reasons: there is no simple closed-form expression for the corresponding Z-estimator  $\bar{\theta}_n$ ; and similar *h* functions have played an important role in the modern theory of "robust statistics". The first property shows why it is important to have some general theory for the behaviour of Z-estimators, to cover cases where we cannot analyze a closed-form representation. For this handout, whenever I write a bar over a function or estimator you will know that I am referring to this particular choice for *h*. Thus  $\overline{H}_n$  denotes the corresponding criterion function for a sample of size *n*, and  $\bar{\theta}_n$  is defined by  $\overline{H}_n(\bar{\theta}_n) = 0$ .

Suppose the data are generated as independent observations from some fixed density f. (The method also works for discrete distributions. I leave the substitution of sums for integrals to you.) It is seldom possible to calculate the exact distribution of the Z-estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n$ . But, as I will soon explain,

if the function h is smooth enough in  $\theta$  and the sample size n is large enough, then  $\hat{\theta}_n$  will typically have an approximately normal distribution, with variance of order 1/n.

To understand why  $\hat{\theta}_n$  behaves well for large samples from a fixed f, we first have to understand what the random criterion function  $H_n$  is doing. Different realizations of the data generate different  $H_n$  functions. For example, the following pictures were obtained by superimposing the  $\overline{H}_n$  functions (corresponding to the  $\overline{h}$  from <2>) for 10 independent samples of size n = 5:

from the N(0, 1) distribution on the left-hand side, and from the standard Cauchy distribution on the right-hand side.



Look at the 10 realizations of the estimator  $\bar{\theta}_n$  (the points at which the  $\bar{H}_n$  curves intersect the horizontal axis) in each picture. Notice the spread around the origin. The estimator  $\bar{\theta}_n$  has a distribution that depends on the joint distribution of the data.

## Consistency

Suppose the  $x_i$  are independent observations from some density f. For each fixed  $\theta$ , the random variable  $H_n(\theta)$  is an average of the n independent random variables  $h(x_i, \theta)$ , for i = 1, 2, ..., n. By the law of large numbers,  $H_n(\theta)$  should be close to its expected value,  $H(\theta, f) := \mathbb{E}_f h(x, \theta) = \int h(x, \theta) f(x) dx$ .

For example, if f equals  $\phi$ , the N(0, 1) density, with distribution function  $\Phi(x)$ , then the  $\overline{H}(\theta, \phi)$  corresponding to the  $\overline{h}$  from <2> is given by

$$\overline{H}(\theta,\phi) = \int_{\theta+1}^{\infty} \phi(x) \, dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\theta-1} \phi(x) \, dx + \int_{\theta-1}^{\theta+1} (x-\theta)\phi(x) \, dx$$
$$= 1 - \Phi(\theta+1) - \Phi(\theta-1)$$
$$- \theta(\Phi(\theta+1) - \Phi(\theta-1)) - (\phi(\theta+1) - \phi(\theta-1)).$$

With a little imagination you might convince yourself that each of the 10 superimposed plots for  $\overline{H}_5(\cdot)$  from the N(0, 1) density look like  $\overline{H}(\cdot, \phi)$ . Perhaps the effect is more obvious in a sequence for n = 5, 10, 20:



As *n* gets larger,  $\overline{H}_n$  converges to  $\overline{H}(\cdot, \phi)$ . With probability tending to one, the estimator  $\overline{\theta}_n$  concentrates around the solution  $\theta = 0$  for the equation  $\overline{H}(\theta, \phi) = 0$ . That is,  $\overline{\theta}_n$  converges in probability to 0 for independent samples from the N(0, 1) density.

For general *h* with data  $x_1, x_2, \ldots$  generated independently from a density *f*, the estimator  $\widehat{\theta}_n$  converges in probability (as  $n \to \infty$ ) to z = z(f, h), the root—which I assume is unique—of the equation H(z, f) = 0.

If the data  $x_1, x_2...$  are modelled as independent observations from a density belonging to some f from a family  $\{f_{\theta}(x) : \theta \in \Theta\}$ , it is traditional

to consider behaviour of  $\hat{\theta}_n$  under each  $f_{\theta}$ . If the equation  $H(z, f_{\theta}) = 0$  has its solution  $z(f_{\theta}, h)$  equal to  $\theta$ , for each  $\theta$ , then  $\hat{\theta}_n$  will converge in probability under the  $f_{\theta}$  model to  $\theta$ ; if the data actually are generated from an  $f_{\theta_0}$ , for an unknown "true" value  $\theta_0$ , then the Z-estimator will converge to that  $\theta_0$ . This consistent requirement places a constraint on h.

## Asymptotic normality

How closely will  $\hat{\theta}_n$  be distributed about its limiting value z = z(f, h), for data generated independently from a density f? A Taylor expansion about z gives the answer.

$$0 = H_n(\widehat{\theta}_n) \approx H_n(z) + (\theta - z) \sum_{i \le n} h'(x_i, z) / n,$$

where h' denotes the partial derivative of h with respect to  $\theta$ . Solve.

$$\sqrt{n}(\widehat{\theta}_n - z) = \frac{-\sqrt{n}H_n(z)}{\sum_{i \le n} h'(x_i, z)/n}$$

You'll see in a moment why I have multiplied through by a  $\sqrt{n}$ . By the law of large numbers, the average in the denominator has large probability of being close to

$$J(f,h) := \mathbb{E}_f h'(x,z) = \int h'(x,z) f(x) \, dx$$

where z is defined by the equality  $\int h(x, z) f(x) dx = 0$ .

A similar argument shows that  $H_n(z)$  should lie close to 0 = H(z, f), which merely reconfirms that  $\hat{\theta}_n - z$  should get close to zero. We can do better. As an average of independent random variables  $h(x_i, z)$  with zero expected values, the random variable  $H_n(z)$  will have an approximate  $N(0, \sigma^2(f, h)/n)$  distribution, where

$$\sigma^{2}(f,h) := \operatorname{var}_{f}h(x,z) = \int h(x,z)^{2}f(x) \, dx \qquad \text{because } H(z,f) = 0$$

The extra factor of  $\sqrt{n}$  magnifies the  $H_n(z)$  up to a quantity distributed roughly  $N(0, \sigma^2(f, h))$ , leaving  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - z)$  with an approximate normal distribution with zero mean and variance equal to  $\sigma^2(f, h)/J(f, h)^2$ .

A magnified version of the picture for ten realizations of the  $\overline{H}_{20}$  function, generated from samples of size 20 with f equal to the standard Cauchy, shows what is going on.



In the region near zero, where the Z-estimator lies with high probability, the  $\overline{H_n}$  function is roughly linear, with slope equal to J(f, h), with the intercept shifted around by the random variable  $H_n(z)$ , which has roughly a normal distribution with standard deviation of order  $1/\sqrt{n}$ . For the asymptotics at the  $1/\sqrt{n}$ -level, the Z-estimation problem reduces to a simple linear equation, through the workings of the law of large numbers and the central limit theorem.

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## Optimal choice of h

Once again consider the situation where the data  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are modelled as independent observations from a density belonging to a family  $\{f_{\theta}(x) : \theta \in \Theta\}$ . Let me write  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta}$  and  $\operatorname{var}_{\theta}$ , instead of  $\mathbb{E}_{f_{\theta}}$  and  $\operatorname{var}_{f_{\theta}}$ , to denote calculations carried out under the  $f_{\theta}$  model. Thus  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta}g(x)$  will be shorthand for  $\int g(x)f_{\theta}(x) dx$ ; the *x* is treated both as a generic  $x_i$  and as a dummy variable of integration.

In order that the Z-estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n$  should converge to  $\theta$  under the  $f_{\theta}$  model, for every  $\theta$ , we must have

<3>

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta}h(x,\theta) = \int h(x,\theta)f_{\theta}(x)\,dx = 0 \quad \text{for every } \theta.$$

The problem is to find the h function that minimizes

$$\frac{\sigma^2(f_\theta, h)}{J(f_\theta, h)^2} := \frac{\mathbb{E}_\theta h(x, \theta)^2}{\left(\mathbb{E}_\theta h'(x, \theta)\right)^2}$$

for each  $\theta$ , subject to the constraint <3>.

I will show that the minimum is achieved when  $h(x, \theta)$  equals

$$\ell_{\theta}(x) := \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f_{\theta}(x) = \frac{f'_{\theta}(x)}{f_{\theta}(x)}.$$

That is, the lower bound for asymptotic variance is achieved when *h* defines the MLE. Some authors call  $\ell$  the *score function* for the model. The corresponding  $J(f_{\theta}, \ell_{\theta})$  is given by

$$-J(f_{\theta}, \ell_{\theta}) = -\mathbb{E}_{\theta}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \log f_{\theta}(x)\right) =: \Im(\theta) = \operatorname{var}_{\theta}(\ell_{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta}\ell_{\theta}^2,$$

the (Fisher) information function for the model.

To establish the optimality property for  $\ell$ , we can argue as in the proof of the information inequality to derive first a lower bound for  $\sigma^2(f_{\theta}, h)/J(f_{\theta}, h)^2$ , and then show that  $\ell$  achieves that lower bound.

Differentiate  $\langle 3 \rangle$  with respect to  $\theta$ , assuming appropriate smoothness for the densities (and ignoring the question of whether we are allowed to take the derivative inside the integral sign):

<4>

$$\int h'(x,\theta) f_{\theta}(x) \, dx + \int h(x,\theta) f'_{\theta}(x) \, dx = 0.$$

Recognize the first integral as  $J(f_{\theta}, h)$ . Rewrite  $f'_{\theta}(x)$  as  $\ell_{\theta}(x)f_{\theta}(x)$  to recognize the second integral as  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta}h(x,\theta)\ell_{\theta}(x)$ , and thereby deduce that  $J(f_{\theta}, h) = -\mathbb{E}_{\theta}h(x,\theta)\ell_{\theta}(x)$  and

$$\sigma^{2}(f_{\theta},h)/J(f_{\theta},h)^{2} = \frac{\mathbb{E}_{\theta}h(x,\theta)^{2}}{\left(\mathbb{E}_{\theta}h(x,\theta)\ell_{\theta}(x)\right)^{2}}$$

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality asserts

$$\left(\mathbb{E}_{\theta}h(x,\theta)^{2}\right)\left(\mathbb{E}_{\theta}\ell_{\theta}(x)^{2}\right) \geq \left(\mathbb{E}_{\theta}h(x,\theta)\ell_{\theta}(x)\right)^{2},$$

with equality when  $h(x, \theta)$  equals  $\ell_{\theta}(x)$ . Thus

$$\sigma^2(f_{\theta}, h)/J(f_{\theta}, h)^2 \ge 1/\mathbb{E}_{\theta}\ell_{\theta}(x)^2 = 1/\mathfrak{I}(\theta),$$

with equality when  $h(x, \theta) = \ell_{\theta}(x)$ , in which case  $\sigma^2(f_{\theta}, \ell) = \mathfrak{I}(\theta) = -J(f_{\theta}, \ell)$  and  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)$  is approximately  $N(0, 1/\mathfrak{I}(\theta))$  distributed under the  $f_{\theta}$  model, for each  $\theta$ .

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**In summary:** If we require that the Z-estimator converge in probability to  $\theta$  under independent sampling from  $f_{\theta}$ , for every  $\theta$ , then the asymptotic variance cannot be smaller than  $1/\Im_{\theta}$ . The asymptotic normal distribution for the MLE has variance equal to the lower bound.

## Warnings

I have not been rigorous about the conditions required for the arguments leading to "asymptotic optimality" of the MLE amongst the class of consistent Z-estimators. For example, the argument surely fails when  $f_{\theta}$  denotes the Uniform $(0, \theta)$  density, which is not everywhere differentiable. A completely rigorous treatment is quite difficult. The development of the rigorous theory has been a major theme in modern theoretical statistics.