

UPPSALA UNIVERSITET

FÖRELÄSNINGSANTECKNINGAR

# Inferensteori

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## 1. TODO

- Experiment in r (QQ-plot of exp vs  $n(0,1)$  data)
- Understand .dat files
- Add proof from book of theorem 4.9
- Problems 7.2.2 in the book
- Stora talens lag
- MLE better than methods of moments
- Derivatan av binomial
- Statistical significant change
- Pivotal storhet

## 2. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 2.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Definition/Sats 2.1: Mean/Medelvärde**

Given  $n$  samples  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , the mean:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

**Definition/Sats 2.2: Median**

Given  $n$  samples  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , the median is *the middle value* of the sorted sample

If the middle value contains 2 values (if  $n$  is even), the median is the mean of the two middle values

**Definition/Sats 2.3: Mode/Typvärde**

The most common number in the data set

**Definition/Sats 2.4: Sample variance**

Denoted by  $s^2 = \sigma^2$

$$\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

**Definition/Sats 2.5: Sample standard deviation/Standardavvikelse**

Given by  $\sqrt{s^2}$ :

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

**Definition/Sats 2.6: Range/Variationsbredd**

The difference between the largest number and the smallest number in the data set

**Definition/Sats 2.7: Quartile/Kvartil**

The median in the upper resp. lower half of the sorted data

**Definition/Sats 2.8: Inter quartile range/Kvartilavstånd**

The difference between the upper and lower quartile

**Definition/Sats 2.9: Sample covariance/Kovarians**

Let the data set be 2-dimensional tuples  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ :

$$c_{xy} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$$

**Anmärkning:**

$$S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})$$

**Definition/Sats 2.10: Sample correlation coefficient**

Let the data set be 2-dimensional tuples  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$

$$r_{xy} = \frac{c_{xy}}{s_x \cdot s_y}$$

**Anmärkning:**

$$-1 \leq c_{xy} \leq 1$$

**2.2. Problems and Solutions.****2.2.1. 601.**

Given  $x_1, \dots, x_5$  and  $y_1, \dots, y_9$  we have:

$$\bar{x} = 12.2 \quad s_x = 2.1$$

$$\bar{y} = 15.8 \quad s_y = 2.9$$

We want to combine this data into one variable  $z = x_1, \dots, x_5, y_1, \dots, y_9$

*Calculate the mean and standard deviation for  $z$*

**Solution:**

The mean  $\frac{1}{5+9} \sum z_i = \frac{1}{5+9} (\sum x_i + \sum y_i)$

Notice we are given the mean for each variable, through algebraic manipulation we get:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i \Leftrightarrow 5\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i = 61$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{9} \sum_{i=1}^9 y_i \Leftrightarrow 9\bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^9 y_i = 142.2$$

Therefore:

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{14} (61 + 142.2) = 14.514$$

The standard deviation is a little trickier, but still follows from algebraic manipulation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 s_x = 2.1 &\Rightarrow s_x^2 = 4.41 = \frac{1}{5-1} \sum_{i=1}^5 (x_i - 12.2)^2 \\
 4.41 \cdot 4 &= \sum_{i=1}^5 (x_i - 12.2)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^5 (x_i^2 - 2 \cdot 12.2 \cdot x_i + 12.2^2) \\
 &\Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i^2 - 2 \cdot 12.2 \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i + \sum_{i=1}^5 12.2^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i^2 - 2 \cdot 12.2 \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^5 x_i}_{5\bar{x}} + 5 \cdot 12.2^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i^2 - 12.2^2 = 4 \cdot 4.41 = 17.64 \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i^2 = 17.64 + 5 \cdot 12.2^2 = 761.84
 \end{aligned}$$

Same done for  $y$  gives:

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^9 y_i^2 = 67.28 + 9 \cdot 15.6^2 = 2314.04$$

The variance for  $z$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 s_z &= \frac{1}{14-1} \sum_{i=1}^{14} (z_i - \bar{z})^2 = \frac{1}{13} \sum_{i=1}^{14} z_i^2 - 2 \cdot 14\bar{z}^2 + 14\bar{z}^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{13} \sum_{i=1}^{14} z_i^2 - 14\bar{z}^2 = 3.14176
 \end{aligned}$$

### 2.2.2. 602.

We essentially proceed the same way as the did for the previous problem, but take into account that we need to *remove* 19 and *add* 91.

We are given  $n = 100$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{x} = 91.28 &= \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{100} x_i \\
 s &= 7.5
 \end{aligned}$$

*Find the correct mean and standard deviation*

To find the mean, we proceed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{1}{100} \sum x_i &= 91.28 \Leftrightarrow 91.28 \cdot 100 = \sum x_i \\
 \sum x_i - 19 + 91 &= 9200 \Leftrightarrow \bar{x} = \frac{1}{100} 9200 = 92
 \end{aligned}$$

Using the same trick for the standard deviation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 s^2 &= 56.25 = \frac{1}{100-1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \\
 &\Rightarrow 5568.75 = \sum (x_i^2 - 2\bar{x}x_i + \bar{x}^2) \\
 \sum x_i^2 - 100\bar{x}^2 &= 5568.75 \Leftrightarrow \sum x_i^2 = 5568.75 + 100\bar{x}^2 \\
 &= 5568.75 + 100 \cdot (91.28)^2 = 838772.59 = \sum x_i^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Here, we correct with the squares of 19 and 91 respectively, since the summands are squared

$$8838772.59 - 19^2 + 91^2 = 846692.59 = \sum x_i^2$$

Now we can start using the real values:

$$\sum x_i^2 - 100 \cdot 92^2 = 292.59$$

$$s_x = \sqrt{\frac{1}{100} 292.59} = 1.71791455$$

### 2.2.3. 605.

Here things get a little trickier. It is greatly encouraged to look at example 6.10 in the book.

We begin by splitting the data into intervals 0-4, 4-8, ... and finding the middle point of those intervals (class middle):

2	6	10	14	18	22	26	30
---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----

Looking at our data, we convert it into *how many* components are breaking in an interval, and not how many we have left (frequency):

3	7	6	4	2	1	1	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Now we can use the estimate that  $\sum x_i \approx$  the sum of the frequency ( $f_i$ )·class middle ( $k_i$ ):

$$\sum_{i=1}^8 f_i k_i = 278 \approx \sum_{i=1}^{25} x_i$$

$$\bar{x} \approx \frac{278}{25} = 11.12$$

In order to calculate the standard deviation, we need to find the variance and in order to find the variance, we need to find  $\sum x_i^2$ , so let us do that

That sum is the same as squaring the class middle, we therefore have:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{25} x_i^2 \approx \sum_{i=1}^8 k_i^2 f_i = 2^6 \cdot 3 + \dots 30^2 \cdot 1 = 4356$$

$$s_x = \sqrt{\frac{1}{25-1} \sum_{i=1}^{25} x_i^2 - 25\bar{x}^2} \approx 7.259$$

## 3. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 3.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Definition/Sats 3.1: Sample/Stickprov**

A sample  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is of size  $n$  and is an observation from the random variable  $X = X_1, \dots, X_n$  with distribution  $F$

**Definition/Sats 3.2: Random Sample**

If the random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent, then the sample is a *random sample*

**Definition/Sats 3.3: Estimate/Skattning**

Given a sample from random variables with known distribution function but unknown "distribution function input", an *estimate*  $\theta^*(x)$  is a function of the sample attempting to decode the unknown input (parameter)

**Anmärkning:**

The correct value one attempts to find is denoted by  $\theta$

**Definition/Sats 3.4: Estimator**

The estimation observed in the previous theorem, is an observation from the *estimator*; an observation of observed values of a random variable. The estimator is what the estimate observes, denoted by  $\theta^*(X)$

**Definition/Sats 3.5: Bias**

$$E(\theta^*(X)) - \theta$$

**Definition/Sats 3.6: Random error**

$$\theta^* - E(\theta^*(X))$$

**Definition/Sats 3.7: Total error**

$$\theta^* - \theta = E(\theta^*(X)) - \theta + \theta^* - E(\theta^*(X))$$

**Definition/Sats 3.8: Unbiased/Väntevärdesriktig**

$$E(\theta^*(X)) - \theta = 0$$



**Definition/Sats 3.9: Efficiency**

Suppose  $\theta_1^*$  and  $\theta_2^*$  are unbiased estimates of  $\theta$  and

$$V(\theta_1^*(X)) \leq V(\theta_2^*(X))$$

Then  $\theta_1^*$  is *more efficient* than  $\theta_2^*$

**Definition/Sats 3.10: Standard error/Medelfel**

Estimate of the standard deviation, which is  $\sqrt{Var}$ :

$$D(\theta^*(X)) = d(\theta^*)$$

**Definition/Sats 3.11: Mean squared error**

$$M(\theta^*) = E((\theta^*(X) - \theta)^2)$$

**Anmärkning:**

Recall that  $V(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 \Leftrightarrow E(X^2) = V(X) + (E(X))^2$

Therefore, MSE can be written as  $E((\theta^*(X) - \theta)^2) = V(\theta^*(X) - \theta) + \underbrace{(E(\theta^*(X) - \theta))^2}_{\text{bias}^2}$

**Definition/Sats 3.12: Asymptotically unbiased/Asymptotiskt Väntevärdesriktig**

If the bias  $B(\theta_n^*)$  goes to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then it is *asymptotically unbiased*

(for all  $\theta$  in the parameter-space)

**Definition/Sats 3.13: Convergence/Konvergens**

The estimator  $\theta_n^*(X)$  *converges* to  $\theta$ :

- **In probability:**
  - If for every  $\varepsilon > 0$   $P(|\theta_n^*(X) - \theta| > \varepsilon) = 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
  - Notice the comparison sign, we are saying "the probability that our estimate is off from the true value by a lot goes to zero"
- **In square means:**
  - If the mean squared error  $M(\theta_n^*) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

**Anmärkning:**

If the estimator converges in square means, then it converges in probability

**Definition/Sats 3.14: Consistent**

The estimate  $\theta_n^*$  is said to be *consistent* if the estimator  $\theta_n^*(X)$  converges in probability for all  $\theta$

**Definition/Sats 3.15**

If the estimate  $\theta_n^*$  is asymptotically unbiased and  $V(\theta_n^*(X)) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for all  $\theta$ , then our estimate is consistent

**Bevis 3.1**

The mean square error goes to zero, by an earlier remark it therefore converges in probability and can be written in the following way:

$$M(\theta_n^*) = V(\theta_n^*) + B^2(\theta_n^*)$$

Since the estimate is unbiased, the bias = 0, and per the theorem, the variance goes to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Then, by theorem 6.13 it converges in square means and by the remark, it also converges in probability.  $\square$

**3.2. Problems and Solutions.****3.2.1. 7.2.1.**

We are observing events which have the same probability of happening. This is therefore a binomially distributed observation.

Since they have the same probability, one can estimate the probability as  $\frac{\text{successfull attempts}}{\text{total attempts}} = \frac{4}{10} = 0.4$

In order to determine the expected value of our estimator, we look at the expected value for *any* binomially distributed chain of events:

$$E(X) = \mu = np$$

Since we are estimating  $p^* = \frac{X}{n}$ , we get the following for our expected value of our estimator:

$$E(p^*) = \frac{E(X)}{n} = p$$

## 4. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 4.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Definition/Sats 4.1: Method of moments/Momentmetoden**

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  random sample from  $X$  with  $E(X) = m(\theta)$ , where  $m$  is some known function of the unknown parameter  $\theta$

If  $\theta$  is one dimensional, the moment estimate  $\theta = \theta^*$  solves equation  $m(\theta) = \bar{x}$

**Definition/Sats 4.2**

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  random sample from  $X$  with  $E(X) = \theta$

The estimate  $\theta^* = \bar{x}$  is unbiased and if  $\sigma^2 = V(X) < \infty$  then it is consistent as well

**Bevis 4.1**

$$E(\bar{X}) = E\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i) = \frac{n}{n} E(X_i) = \theta$$

$$V(\bar{X}) = V\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n V(X_i) = n \frac{\sigma^2}{n^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

By theorem 6.15, the estimate is unbiased (per def. in this case) and the variance goes to 0 as  $n$  increases, therefore it is consistent.  $\square$

**Definition/Sats 4.3: Multivariate method of moments**

$\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$ , moment estimates solve the system:

$$E(X) = m_1(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \bar{x}$$

$$E(X^2) = V(X) + (E(X))^2 = m_2(\theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

**Anmärkning:**

If the expected value  $\mu$  is known and  $\sigma^2$  is the only parameter we want to estimate, then

$$(\sigma^2)^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

Is a more efficient estimate of  $\sigma^2$  rather than  $s^2$ . It is therefore unbiased and (since it is more efficient) has less variance than  $s^2$

**Definition/Sats 4.4: Sample variance is unbiased**

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  random sample from a random variable  $X$  with variance  $\sigma^2$

The sample variance  $s^2$  is an unbiased estimation of  $\sigma^2$

### Bevis 4.2: Sample variance is unbiased

Let  $\mu = E(X)$ . Through some algebraic manipulation, we obtain the following:

$$\begin{aligned}(x_i - \bar{x})^2 &= (x_i - \mu + \mu - \bar{x})^2 = ((x_i - \mu) - (\bar{x} - \mu))^2 \\ &\Rightarrow (x_i - \mu)^2 - 2(x_i - \mu)(\bar{x} - \mu) + (\bar{x} - \mu)^2\end{aligned}$$

Then we have  $S_{xx}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 - 2(x_i - \mu)(\bar{x} - \mu) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 - 2(\bar{x} - \mu) \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)\end{aligned}$$

We use (and abuse) the fact that  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i \Leftrightarrow n\bar{x} = \sum x_i$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 - 2(\bar{x} - \mu)(n\bar{x} - n\mu) \\ = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 - 2n(\bar{x} - \mu)(\bar{x} - \mu) \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 - n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2\end{aligned}$$

We will now look at the definition of the variance:

$$Var(X) = E((X - \mu)^2)$$

Where  $\mu = E(X)$ , as previous. Per assumption,  $Var(X) = \sigma^2$ . We have:

$$\begin{aligned}E((X_i - \mu)^2) &= V(X_i) = \sigma^2 \\ E((\bar{X} - \mu)^2) &= Var(\bar{X}) = Var\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i) = \frac{n\sigma^2}{n^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\end{aligned}$$

We want to show that the sample variance  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} S_{xx}$  is an unbiased estimation of  $\sigma^2$ , this equates to showing:

$$E(s^2(X)) = \sigma^2$$

Which we can show through the following:

$$\begin{aligned}E(s^2(X)) &= E\left(\frac{1}{n-1} S_{xx}\right) = \frac{1}{n-1} E(S_{xx}) \\ E(S_{xx}) &= E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 - n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2\right) \\ &= E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2\right) - nE((\bar{X} - \mu)^2) = n\sigma^2 - n\frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \sigma^2(n-1) \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n-1} E(S_{xx}) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sigma^2(n-1) = \sigma^2\end{aligned}$$

Since  $E(s^2(X)) = \sigma^2$ , the estimate is unbiased.

□

### Anmärkning:

If  $E(X^4) < \infty$  then  $s^2$  is a consistent estimate of  $\sigma^2$

## 4.2. Problems and Solutions.

### 4.2.1. 7.2.3.

Using the method of moments to estimate  $p^*$ , we have that  $E(X) = m(p) = np$

Since our parameter  $p$  is one-dimensional, we have that:

$$m(p) = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} x_i = \frac{1}{10}(1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 0 + 0 \cdots + 0) = 0.4$$

### 4.2.2. 7.2.4.

Proceeding as with the previous problem, since we have a one-dimensional parameter, we simply look at the mean:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{20}(1 + 0 \cdots + 0) = \frac{1}{20} = 0.05$$

### 4.2.3. 7.2.5.

This is a multivariate method of moments, i.e we would like to find  $m(n, p)$ . What is a little tricky about this question is *not* using Theorem 8.3, but constructing a little "diy" system of equations.

We know the random variable is binomially distributed, therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} m_1(n, p) &= n \cdot p = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{2}(3 + 5) = 4 \\ m_2(n, p) &= n \cdot p \cdot q = s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 = \frac{1}{2-1}((3-4)^2 + (5-4)^2) = 2 \\ \begin{cases} n \cdot p = 4 \\ n \cdot p \cdot q = n \cdot p \cdot (1-p) = 2 \end{cases} &\Rightarrow \begin{cases} n = 8 \\ p = 0.5 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

### 4.2.4. 7.2.6.

We have that  $Var(s) = E(s^2) - (E(s))^2$ . Notice that  $s^2$  is an unbiased estimate for  $\sigma^2$ , this means that  $E(s^2) = \sigma^2$ .

We therefore have the following:

$$\begin{aligned} Var(s) &= \sigma^2 - (E(s))^2 \\ \Leftrightarrow (E(s))^2 &= \sigma^2 - Var(s) \Rightarrow (E(s))^2 \leq \sigma^2 \\ &\Rightarrow E(s) \leq \sigma \end{aligned}$$

In order to obtain equality, we need  $Var(s) = 0$ , this happens when  $\exists a P(s = a) = 1$

## 5. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 5.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Definition/Sats 5.1: Likelihood-function**

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from the random variable  $X$  with distribution  $F(x; \theta)$ .  
*Likelihood function* is defined as follows:

$$L(\theta) = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i; \theta) & \text{discrete} \\ \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta) & \text{continuous} \end{cases}$$

**Definition/Sats 5.2: Loglikelihood**

Defined as follows:

$$l(\theta) = \ln L(\theta)$$

**Definition/Sats 5.3: MLE**

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from the random variable  $X$  with distribution  $F(x; \theta)$ .

The *maximum-likelihood estimate* of  $\theta$  is the  $\theta$  which maximizes the likelihood function ( $\Leftrightarrow$  Loglikelihood function)

**Anmärkning:**

Likelihood function depends on both  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and  $\theta$ , but for MLE we fix  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and only study how  $\theta$  affects the function.

**Anmärkning:**

An MLE is generally consistent

**Anmärkning:**

An MLE is not always unbiased, but can be corrected.

## 5.2. Problems and Solutions.

## 5.2.1. 7.2.7.

In order to start our estimation, we need to remember that our observations come from a random variable, which has some sort of distribution which we need to figure out.

Notice how Kalle plays *until* something happens, this hints that our distribution is *ffg*, which is a discrete distribution with the following distribution function:

$$p(k) = p(1-p)^{k-1}$$

In our case, we are estimating  $p$ , our product becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{i=1}^7 p_i(x_i; \theta) &= \prod_{i=1}^7 p(1-p)^{x_i-1} \\ \Rightarrow p^7(1-p)^{(\sum x_i)-7} &= p^7(1-p)^{(3+7+10+\dots+4)-7} = p^7(1-p)^{42} = L(p) \end{aligned}$$

In order to find which  $p$  maximizes this function, we differentiate:

$$\begin{aligned} L'(p) &= -42 \cdot 7p^7(1-p)^{41} \\ L'(p) &\Rightarrow p \in \{0, 1\} \end{aligned}$$

These are the trivial roots, let us therefore examine the loglikelihood function:

$$\begin{aligned} l(p) &= \ln(L(p)) = \ln(p^7) + \ln(1-p)^{42} \\ &= 7 \ln(p) + 42 \ln(1-p) \\ l'(p) &= \frac{7}{p} - \frac{42}{1-p} \end{aligned}$$

We maximize the loglikelihood:

$$\begin{aligned} l'(p) = 0 &\Leftrightarrow \frac{7}{p} = \frac{42}{1-p} \Rightarrow 6p = 1-p \\ p &= \frac{1}{7} \end{aligned}$$

### 5.2.2. 7.2.8.

We are given values in the range  $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$ , and we therefore really only need to look at that specific case in our cumulative distribution function.

Since the distribution function in that interval is continuous, it is safe to assume our random variable is continuous as well.

For a likelihood function for a continuous variable, we need the probability density function, which we can obtain through taking  $F'_X$ :

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x) &= x^\alpha \\ F'_X &= \alpha x^{\alpha-1} \end{aligned}$$

This gives the following likelihood function:

$$\begin{aligned} L(\alpha) &= \prod_{i=1}^{10} f_x(x_i; \alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^{10} \alpha x_i^{\alpha-1} = \alpha^{10} \prod_{i=1}^{10} x_i^{\alpha-1} \\ &= \alpha^{10} \left( \prod_{i=1}^{10} x_i \right)^{\alpha-1} \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating with respect to  $\alpha$  yields:

$$\begin{aligned} L'(\alpha) &= 10\alpha^9 (\prod x_i)^{\alpha-1} + \alpha^{10} (\prod x_i)^{\alpha-1} \ln(\prod x_i) \\ L'(\alpha) = 0 &\Leftrightarrow 10\alpha^9 (\prod x_i)^{\alpha-1} = -\alpha^{10} (\prod x_i)^{\alpha-1} \ln(\prod x_i) \\ 10 &= -\alpha \ln(\prod x_i) \end{aligned}$$

We calculate  $\prod x_i = 0.57 \cdot 0.81 \cdots 0.99 \approx 0.006189$  and solve for  $\alpha$ :

$$\alpha = \frac{-10}{\ln(0.006189)} \Rightarrow \alpha \approx 1.966$$

### 5.2.3. 7.2.9.

Since we are given the density function, all we need to do is determine the likelihood function. We are given 9 observations:

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{i=1}^9 f_X(x_i; \theta) &= \prod_{i=1}^9 \frac{x_i}{\theta^2} e^{-x_i/\theta} \\ \Rightarrow \left( \frac{1}{\theta^2} \right)^9 \prod_{i=1}^9 x_i e^{-x_i/\theta} &= \frac{1}{\theta^{18}} \prod_{i=1}^9 x_i \prod_{i=1}^9 e^{-x_i/\theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{\theta^{18}} (\prod x_i) e^{-(\sum x_i)/\theta} = L(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

Differentiate and fix maximum:

$$\begin{aligned}
 L'(\theta) &= -18\theta^{-19} (\Pi x_i) e^{-(\sum x_i)/\theta} + \theta^{-18} (\Pi x_i) e^{-(\sum x_i)/\theta} \left( \frac{\sum x_i}{\theta^2} \right) \\
 &= -18\theta^{-19} (\Pi x_i) e^{-(\sum x_i)/\theta} + \theta^{-20} (\Pi x_i) e^{-(\sum x_i)/\theta} \left( \sum x_i \right) \\
 L'(\theta) = 0 &\Leftrightarrow \theta^{-20} (\Pi x_i) e^{-(\sum x_i)/\theta} \left( \sum x_i \right) = 18\theta^{-19} (\Pi x_i) e^{-(\sum x_i)/\theta} \\
 &\Rightarrow \theta^{-20} \left( \sum x_i \right) = 18\theta^{-19} \\
 &\Rightarrow \theta^{-20} \left( \sum x_i \right) = 18\theta^{-19} \\
 &\Rightarrow \theta = \frac{\sum x_i}{18}
 \end{aligned}$$

We calculate  $\sum x_i = 23.7$  and insert:

$$\theta = \frac{23.7}{18} \approx 1.31666$$



## 6. LESSON 1

## 6.1. 727.

Kalle lägger patiens, en gång per kväll, tills den går ut för första gången.  
Under en vecka får han observationerna

3 7 10 5 12 8 4

Bestäm ML-skattningen av  $p = P(\text{patiensen går ut})$

**Lösning:**

Här är slumpvariabeln ffg fördelad.

Låt  $X$  vara antalet gånger tills patiensen går ut, då är fördelningsfunktionen:

$$p_X(k) = (1-p)^{k-1}$$

Vi räknar med ML-skattning, vilket är:

$$\begin{aligned} L(p) &= \prod_{i=1}^n p_X(x_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n (1-p)^{x_i-1} p \\ &= (1-p)^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n} p^n \end{aligned}$$

Vi logariterar:

$$\begin{aligned} l(p) &= \ln \{L(p)\} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n \right) \ln(1-p) + n \ln(p) \\ l'(p) &= - \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n \right) \frac{1}{1-p} + \frac{n}{p} \\ l''(p) &= - \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - n \right) \left( \frac{1}{1-p} \right)^2 - \frac{n}{p^2} < 0 \Rightarrow \max \\ 0 = l'(p) &\Rightarrow p = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} = \frac{1}{\bar{x}} = \frac{1}{7} \end{aligned}$$

ML-skattningen är  $p^* = \frac{1}{7}$  vilket är samma som momentskattningen (så blir det ofta men inte alltid)

## 6.2. 7.210.

En enarmad bandit (spel) med vinstchans  $p$   
Albert has spelat 10 ggr och fått 2 vinster  
Beata spelade tills första vinst, gång 7  
ML-skatta  $p$

**Lösning:**

Låt  $X_1$  = antal vinster under 10 spel. Denna slumpvariabel är Binomialfördelad med  $10, p$

Låt  $X_2$  = antalet spel till första vinst. Denna slumpvariabel är ffg fördelad med parameter  $p$

$$\begin{aligned}
L(p) &= p_{X_1}(x_1; p) p_{X_2}(x_2; p) \quad x_1 = 2 \quad x_2 = 7 \\
&= \binom{10}{x_1} p^{x_1} (1-p)^{10-x_1} \cdot (1-p)^{x_2-1} p \\
&= \binom{10}{x_1} p^{x_1+1} (1-p)^{9-x_1+x_2} \\
l(p) &= \ln \{L(p)\} = \ln \binom{10}{x_1} + (x_1+1) \ln(p) + (9-x_1+x_2) \ln(1-p) \\
l'(p) &= (x_1+1) \frac{1}{p} - (9-x_1+x_2) \frac{1}{1-p} \\
l''(p) &= -(x_1+1) \frac{1}{p^2} - (9-x_1+x_2) \frac{1}{(1-p)^2} < 0 \quad \text{om } 9-x_1+x_2 > 0 \quad \text{vilket vi har eftersom } 9-2+7 > 0 \\
0 = l'(p) &\Rightarrow p = \frac{x_1+1}{x_2+10} = \frac{2+1}{7+10} = \frac{3}{17} \approx 0.176
\end{aligned}$$

ML-skattningen är då  $p^* = \frac{3}{17}$

### 6.3. 7.2.12.

Taxi problemet. 7 taxibilar observeras. De är numrerade  $1, \dots, N$   
 Obs, numren 070, 234, 166, 7, 65, 17, 4

ML-skatta  $N$

$X$  = numret på en taxibil, diskret likformigt fördelad på  $(1, 2, \dots, N)$

Sannolikhetsfunktionen är då:

$$p_X(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N}, & 1 \leq k \leq N \\ 0, & \text{annars} \end{cases}$$

$N$  kan vara hur stort som helst,  $N \in \mathbb{N}^+ =$  rummet av alla positiva heltal

ML-skatta  $N$  (observationer  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ ):

$$L(N) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_X(x_i) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{1}{N}\right)^n & \text{om } \forall x_i \leq N \\ 0 & \text{annars} \end{cases}$$

(Logaritmera/derivera funkar ej här, man måste tyvärr tänka)

ML-skattningen  $N^*$  inträffar i  $\max x_i = 234$

Momentskattning:  $m(n) = E(X) = \frac{N+1}{2}$

Lös  $\bar{x} = \frac{N+1}{2} \Rightarrow N = 2\bar{x} - 1$

Vi har  $\bar{x} = 84.3$ , momentskattningen blir 167.6, vilket blir en orimlig skattning eftersom vi har en observation som är större.

## 6.4. 7.2.14.

$x_1, x_2$  mätningar av en storhet med värdet  $\mu$

$x_3$  mätning av en storhet med värdet  $2\mu$

Mätningar saknar systematiska fel, men har en slumpfel standardavvikelse  $\sigma$

Bestäm MK-skattningen av  $\mu$  och visa att den är väntevärdesriktigt

Minimera  $Q(\mu) = (x_1 - \mu)^2 + (x_2 - \mu)^2 + (x_3 - 2\mu)^2$ , detta kan vi lösa med derivering:

$$\begin{aligned} Q'(\mu) &= -2(x_1 - \mu) - 2(x_2 - \mu) - 4(x_3 - 2\mu) \\ &= -2x_1 - 2x_2 - 4x_3 + 12\mu \\ Q''(\mu) &= 12 > 0 \quad \text{ger min} \\ 0 = Q'(\mu) &\Leftrightarrow \mu = \frac{1}{12}(2x_1 + 2x_2 + 4x_3) = \frac{1}{6}x_1 + \frac{1}{6}x_2 + \frac{1}{3}x_3 \end{aligned}$$

MK-skattningen  $\mu^*$

$$\text{Estimatorn } \mu^*(X_1 + X_2 + X_3) = \frac{1}{6}X_1 + \frac{1}{6}X_2 + \frac{1}{3}X_3$$

Då blir:

$$\begin{aligned} E\{\mu^*(X_1; X_2; X_3)\} &= \frac{1}{6}E(X_1) + \frac{1}{6}E(X_2) + \frac{1}{3}E(X_3) \\ &= \frac{1}{6}\mu + \frac{1}{6}\mu + \frac{1}{3}2\mu = \mu \end{aligned}$$

Då är  $\mu^*$  väntevärdesriktigt

En annan skattning är:

$$\mu' = \frac{2x_1 + 2x_2 + x_3}{6}$$

Är den väntevärdesriktigt? Vi tittar på motsvarande estimator:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'(X_1, X_2, X_3) &= \frac{1}{3}X_1 + \frac{1}{3}X_2 + \frac{1}{6}X_3 \\ E\{\mu'(X_1, X_2, X_3)\} &= \frac{1}{3}E(X_1) + \frac{1}{3}E(X_2) + \frac{1}{6}E(X_3) \\ &= \frac{1}{3}\mu + \frac{1}{3}\mu + \frac{1}{6}2\mu = \mu \end{aligned}$$

Ok!

Vilken skattning är effektivast?

Då jämför vi varianserna:

$$\begin{aligned} V(\mu) &= \frac{6}{36}\sigma^2 \\ V(\mu') &= \frac{9}{36}\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

## 6.5. 702.

Observationer: 4.0, 1.1, 0.2, 1.2, 2.5, 2.0, 0.7, 1.0 är ett stickprov från en Raylerghfördelning med täthetsfunktion:

$$F_X(x) = axe^{-\frac{ax^2}{2}} \quad x \leq 0$$

ML-skatta  $a$ :

$$\begin{aligned} L(a) &= \prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n ax_i e^{-\frac{ax_i^2}{2}} \\ &= a^n \left( \prod_{i=1}^n x_i \right) e^{-\frac{a}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$l(a) = \ln \{L(a)\} = n \ln(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n \ln x_i - \frac{a}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

$$l'(a) = \frac{n}{a} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

$$l''(a) = -\frac{n}{a^2} < 0 \Rightarrow \max$$

$$0 = l'(a) \Rightarrow a = \frac{2n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$\text{ML skattning } a^* = \frac{2n}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \frac{2 \cdot 8}{30.43} \approx 0.526$$

## 7. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 7.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Definition/Sats 7.1: Least Squares Estimate (LSE) / Minsta-kvadrat skattning**

Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from  $X$  with  $E(X) = m(\theta)$ , where  $m$  is some known function. Let:

$$Q(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - m(\theta))^2$$

The  $\theta$  that minimizes  $Q$  is the *LSE* of  $\theta$

**Anmärkning:**

Suppose  $\theta$  is one-dimensional and  $\exists m'(\theta)$  such that  $m'(\theta) \neq 0$ , then:

$$Q'(\theta) = -2m'(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - m(\theta))$$

Finding minimum becomes (since  $m'(\theta) \neq 0$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - m(\theta)) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right) - nm(\theta) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n x_i &= nm(\theta) \\ \Rightarrow \bar{x} &= m(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

LSE is given by  $m(\theta) = \bar{x}$ , just as in the case of method of moments.

**Definition/Sats 7.2: Weighted LSE**

If our random sample comes from different random variables with expected values  $m_i(\theta)$  and have *different* standard deviation, then:

$$Q(\theta) = \lambda \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{x_i - m_i(\theta)}{\sigma_i} \right)^2 \quad \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

This is called the *Weighted Least Squares Estimate*.  
 $\lambda$  is some constant.

**Anmärkning:**

If our random sample comes from different random variables with expected value  $m_i(\theta)$  but all have the *same* standard deviation, then:

$$Q(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - m_i(\theta))^2$$

## 7.2. Problems and Solutions.

## 7.2.1. 7.2.13.

We use the variance trick, namely:

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$$

Since  $Y = X^2$ , we are essentially looking for:

$$E(X^2) = \text{Var}(X) + (E(X))^2 = \sigma^2 + \mu_X = 1 + \mu^2$$

Our LSE function becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\mu) &= \sum_{i=1}^{10} (y_i - (\mu^2 + 1))^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{10} (y_i^2 - 2(\mu^2 + 1)y_i + (\mu^2 + 1)^2) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{10} y_i^2 \right) - 2(\mu^2 + 1) \left( \sum_{i=1}^{10} y_i \right) + 10(\mu^2 + 1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

We differentiate and find minimum of  $Q$ :

$$\begin{aligned} Q'(\mu) &= 20(\mu^2 + 1)(2\mu) - 2 \left( \sum y_i \right) (2\mu) = 0 \\ \Rightarrow 40(\mu^2 + 1)\mu &= 4 \left( \sum y_i \right) \mu \\ \Leftrightarrow 10(\mu^2 + 1) &= \sum y_i \Rightarrow \mu = \sqrt{\frac{\sum y_i}{10} - 1} \end{aligned}$$

We calculate  $\sum y_i = 0.17 + 0.06 + \dots + 2.1 = 22.35$  and insert:

$$\mu = \sqrt{2.235 - 1} \approx 1.1113$$

## 7.2.2. 7.2.14.

See lesson 1

## 7.2.3. 7.2.15.

Find the averages of the observed data:

- $m_1 + m_2 = 44.65$
- $m_1 + m_3 = 50.01$
- $m_2 + m_3 = 54.87$

Then, use Gauss-elimination to solve the following system of equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 44.65 \\ 50.01 \\ 54.87 \end{bmatrix}$$

## 8. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 8.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Anmärkning 8.1**

For normally distributed data, we have the following estimate for variance:

$$(\sigma^2)^* = \frac{S_{xx}}{n-1} = s^2$$

This is however assuming that  $\mu$  is unknown and therefore estimated using  $\mu = \bar{x}$ .

If we are given  $\mu$ , then the following estimate is unbiased and consistent:

$$(\sigma^2)^* = \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}$$

**Anmärkning 8.2**

For normally distributed data from  $X \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma^2)$  and  $Y \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma^2)$ , we can estimate  $\sigma^2$  through (and using  $\mu_1^* = \bar{x}$  and  $\mu_2^* = \bar{y}$ ):

$$(\sigma^2)^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

This is an unbiased estimate

**Anmärkning:**

Anmärkning 8.2 raises the question of knowing *when* the variance would be equal.

If we are looking at 2 different observations, then the variation in those observations depend on the method of analysis chosen, and we have used the same method of analysis with unknown  $\sigma$  for both samples.

**Anmärkning 8.3**

For a sample from a hypergeometric distribution, it is very difficult to maximize the likelihood function.

Through numerical observations, we may use the following estimate:

$$p^* \approx \frac{x}{n}$$

**Anmärkning 8.4**

Suppose you have 2 samples from  $X$  and  $Y$  who both have the same distribution function, and same variance

We can then find the likelihood-function as a product of the likelihood-function for the two different samples:

$$L(\theta) = L_X(\theta) \cdot L_Y(\theta)$$

$$l(\theta) = l_X(\theta) + l_Y(\theta)$$

## 8.2. Problems and solutions.

## 8.2.1. 7.2.17.

Using the unbiased formula for two normally distributed samples with the same variance, we have:

$$(\sigma^2)^* = \frac{\overbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}^{S_{XX}} + \overbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{n_2} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}^{S_{YY}}}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

Recall that  $S_{XX} = (n - 1) \cdot s_x^2$ , this gives:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} S_{XX} = (5 - 1) \cdot 2.85 = 11.4 \\ S_{YY} = (9 - 1) \cdot 3.525 = 28.2 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \frac{11.4 + 28.2}{9 + 5 - 2} = 3.3$$

## 8.2.2. 7.2.18.

The samples are from a binomial distribution (and same probability for each outcome). We can therefore let  $z = x + y$  and  $n = n_1 + n_2$ . The estimate then becomes:

$$\frac{z}{n} = \frac{x + y}{n_1 + n_2} = \frac{15 + 25}{100 + 200} \approx 0.13$$

In order to find the standard error, we wish to find  $\sqrt{s^2/n^2}$  where  $(\sigma^2)^* = s^2$

$$(\sigma^2)^* = 300 \cdot 0.13 \cdot (1 - 0.13) \Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{34.66}{300^2}} \approx .0196$$

## 8.2.3. 7.2.19.

Here we combine the number of cars (20+40=60) and the number of minutes (60+90=150) and use this:

$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ of cars} &= \lambda \cdot t \Leftrightarrow 60 = 150 \cdot \lambda \\ &\Rightarrow \lambda = 0.4 \end{aligned}$$

The standard error is given by  $\sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{n}}$ :

$$= \sqrt{\frac{0.4}{150}} \approx 0.0516$$

## 8.2.4. 703.

## 8.2.5. 705.

## 8.2.6. 723.



## 9. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 9.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Definition/Sats 9.1: Confidence interval**

The interval  $I_\theta = (\underline{\theta}(x), \bar{\theta}(x))$  is called the *confidence interval* for  $\theta$  with degree  $1 - \alpha$  if:

$$P(\underline{\theta}(X) < \theta < \bar{\theta}(X)) = 1 - \alpha$$

This is a two-sided interval

**Anmärkning:**

$\alpha$  is sometimes referred to as the error-risk (felrisk)

**Anmärkning:**

Think of  $\alpha$  like the risk of having an interval *not* containing  $\theta$ .

**Anmärkning:**

The error-risk in a two-sided interval is distributed evenly as follows:

$$P(\underline{\theta}(X) < \theta) = P(\theta < \bar{\theta}(X)) = \frac{\alpha}{2}$$

**Anmärkning:**

We need to respect the values that the estimator attains in our intervals.

Therefore, it is sometimes more reasonable to have a one-sided interval (if for example the estimator is always positive)

**Definition/Sats 9.2: Reference variable/Pivot variable/Referensvariabel**

Usually denoted by  $R_\theta$  is a variable such that:

- Only depends on  $\theta$
- Has completely known (known values) distribution

**Anmärkning:**

Normally when using CLT, our reference variable looks like:

$$R_\mu = \frac{\mu^* - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

**Definition/Sats 9.3: Construction of confidence interval**

- Estimate  $\theta$  using  $\theta^*$
- Find a reference variable  $R_\theta$  based on the estimate  $\theta^*(X)$
- Enclose  $R_\theta$  using quantiles  $r$ :  $P(r_{1-\alpha/2} < R_\theta < r_{\alpha/2}) = 1 - \alpha$
- Rewrite the inequality such that  $\theta$  is isolated:  $P(\underline{\theta}(X) < \theta < \bar{\theta}(X))$
- $I_\theta = (\underline{\theta}(X), \bar{\theta}(X))$

**Definition/Sats 9.4: Confidence interval for function  $\theta = g(\mu)$** 

Assume  $I_\mu = (\underline{\mu}, \bar{\mu})$  with degree  $1 - \alpha$  and  $\theta = g(\mu)$ :

- If  $g$  is a monotonely increasing function, then  $I_\theta = (g(\underline{\mu}), g(\bar{\mu}))$  is a confidence interval for  $\theta$  with degree  $1 - \alpha$
- If  $g$  is a monotonely decreasing function, then  $I_\theta = (g(\bar{\mu}), g(\underline{\mu}))$  is a confidence interval for  $\theta$  with degree  $1 - \alpha$

## 9.2. Problems and Solutions.

9.2.1. *7.3.1.*

9.2.2. *7.3.2.*

9.2.3. *7.3.3.*

## 10. IMPORTANT NOTES FROM THE BOOK

## 10.1. Definitions/Theorems.

**Definition/Sats 10.1: Null-hypothesis**

The *null-hypothesis*, denoted by  $H_0$  is a hypothesis we make of the parameter  $\theta$ , often  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$

The *alternative hypothesis*, usually denoted by  $H_1$  is the alternative hypothesis we are testing for. The alternative hypothesis can be *simple* ( $H_1 : \theta = \theta_0$ ), or *composite* (eg.  $H_1 : \theta > \theta_0$ ).

A hypothesis on the form  $\theta > \theta_0$  or  $\theta < \theta_0$  is called *one-sided*, while  $\theta \neq \theta_0$  is a *two-sided hypothesis*

**Definition/Sats 10.2: Significance level**

The **significance level**  $\alpha$  is defined as the probability to reject the null-hypothesis:

$$\alpha = P_{H_0}(\text{reject } H_0)$$

Normally  $\alpha = 0.05$  or  $\alpha = 0.01$  or  $\alpha = 0.001$

**Definition/Sats 10.3: Power of test/Styrkefunktion**

The *power* of a hypothesis test is given by the power-function:

$$h(\theta) = P_{\theta}(\text{reject } H_0)$$

**Anmärkning:**

Observe that  $h(\theta_0) = \alpha$  and that  $h(\theta)$  is large when  $\theta \in H_1$

**Definition/Sats 10.4: Test variable method**

Find a *testvariable*  $T(x)$  based on the sample and find the critical area  $C$  for that testvariable. The test becomes:

- If  $T \in C$ , we reject  $H_0$  and say "we have a significant result"
- If  $T \notin C$ , we cannot reject  $H_0$  and say "the result is not significant"

We pick the critical area such that the significance level  $\alpha$  is the one we want

**Anmärkning:**

Just because we do not reject  $H_0$ , does **not** mean we reject  $H_1$ . There just is not enough empirical data.

**Definition/Sats 10.5: Direct method**

The *direct method* is also based on a testvariable, but the critical area is not explicitly defined. Instead, we find values of the testvariable that give the empirical evidence that  $H_1$  is true

We then calculate the  $P$  value of the test:

$$P = P_{H_0}(\text{at least equally extreme case as the observed})$$

$H_0$  is rejected if  $P \leq \alpha$

**Anmärkning:**

The direct method is equivalent to the test variable method with the advantage that it also lets us know at what significance level the null-hypothesis is rejected

**Definition/Sats 10.6: Confidence method**

The *confidence method* can be describe as the following:

- Find the confidence interval  $I_\theta$  for the parameter with the same significance level that we want from the test (degree  $1 - \alpha$ )
- Reject  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$  if  $\theta_0 \notin I_\theta$

**Anmärkning 10.1: How to choose method**

- If you already have the confidence interval (either given or calculated), then use the confidence method
- Direct method is more appropriate when the observations come from a discrete variable (but can absolutely be used in other cases since the  $P$  value gives a mesure on the magnitude of the significance)

**Anmärkning 10.2: How to choose significance level**

- If rejecting  $H_0$  poses a great risk, then it is research ethic to choose a low significance level
- If a trial is resource heavy, then a low significance level is not sustainable and or desirable (even though it is the best option)
- If not sure, let  $\alpha 0.05$

**Anmärkning 10.3: How to choose testvariable**

- Find a reference variable  $R_\theta$  with the following properties:
  - Completely known distribution
  - Only depends on  $\theta$
- Choose the testvariable  $T = R_\theta$ . Now  $T$  can be computed from a completely known distribution
- Choose a cirital area  $C$  adapted after the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  using the known quantiles for the distribution ( $C = \{T \geq r_\alpha\}$ )

**Anmärkning 10.4: How to choose cirital area**

This completely depends on how you choose your alternative hypothesis  $H_1$

The "rule of thumb" is that the have values of the testvariable that indicate that  $H_1$  is true should be in the critical area

**Anmärkning:**

You need to chose your hypothesis *before* collecting your data

**Anmärkning:**

It may be confusing with hypothesis-testing and confidence intervals. These are in fact very similar, and we will therefore treat them as such.

**Definition/Sats 10.7: Likelihood quotient test**

Let  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$  and  $H_1 : \theta = \theta_1$

Let  $L(\theta)$  be the likelihood function, and let  $T$  be the testvariable where

$$T = \frac{L_1}{L_0} = \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_0)}$$

Reject  $H_0$  if  $T \geq K$  where  $K \in \mathbb{R}$  such that we achieve our chosen  $\alpha$

**Anmärkning 10.5**

Normally we define:

$$L_1 = \sup_{\theta \in H_1} \{L(\theta)\} \quad L_0 = \sup_{\theta \in H_0} \{L(\theta)\}$$

**Anmärkning:**

Previously, we had a fixed  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  from a random variable  $X$  and studied how  $\theta$  affects our function. With the likelihood quotient test we fix  $\theta$ , and study how our sample  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  affects our function

**Anmärkning:**

If you are having trouble finding a suitable test-variable (maybe you are having difficulties finding a reference variable), then we can use the likelihood quotient test

**10.2. Problems and Solutions.**

10.2.1. 7.4.1.

10.2.2. 7.4.2.

10.2.3. 7.4.4.