# STAT 231: Statistics

Charles Shen

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Assume all  $\log$  are in base e unless specified.

I've tried to use ln for consistency, but there may be a few inconsistency.

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## 1 Numerical Summaries

## 1.1 Measure of Location

#### 1.1.1 Mean

The sample mean

## 2 Distribution Theory

If  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n$   $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and they're independent, then

$$\bar{Y} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$$

and

$$\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} = Z \sim N(0, 1)$$

For large n, then

$$\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \approx Z \sim N(0, 1)$$

# 3 Statistical Models and Maximum Likelihood Estimation

**Definition.** The relative likelihood function is defined as

$$R(\theta) = \frac{L(\theta)}{L(\hat{\theta})}$$
 for  $\theta \in \Omega$ 

Note that  $0 \le R(\theta) \le 1$  for all  $\theta \in \Omega$ .

**Definition.** The log likelihood function is defined as

$$l(\theta) = \ln L(\theta) \quad for \ \theta \in \Omega$$

## 3.1 Likelihood Function for Binomial Distribution

The maximum likelihood estimate of  $\theta$  is  $\bar{\theta} = y/n$ .

#### 3.2 Likelihood Function for Poisson Distribution

The value  $\theta = \bar{y}$  maximizes  $l(\theta)$  and so  $\hat{\theta} = \bar{y}$  is the maximum likelihood estimate of  $\theta$ .

### 3.3 Likelihood Function for Exponential Distribution

The value  $\theta = \bar{y}$  maximizes  $l(\theta)$  and so  $\hat{\theta} = \bar{y}$  is the maximum likelihood estimate of  $\theta$  for an Exponential Distribution  $\sim Exp(\theta)$ .

#### 3.4 Likelihood Function for Gaussian Distribution

The maximum likelihood estimate of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma})$ , where

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i = \bar{y} \text{ and } \hat{\sigma} = \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

Note that  $\hat{\sigma} \neq \sigma$  (sample variance).

## 3.5 Invariance Property of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

**Theorem.** If  $\hat{\theta}$  is the maximum likelihood estimate of  $\theta$ , then  $g(\hat{\theta})$  is the maximum likelihood estimate of  $g(\theta)$ .

## 4 Estimation

## 4.1 Confidence Intervals and Pivotal Quantities

In general, construct a pivot using the estimator, use that to construct coverage interval, estimate it and find the confidence interval.

**Definition.** A 100p%, where  $0 \le p \le 1$ , confidence interval tells 100p% of the intervals constructed from samples will contain the true unknown value of  $\mu$  (or  $\sigma$ ).

To determine the correct value to look for in the distribution tables, calculate (1+p)/2 where 100p% is the level of confidence.

For example, the 95% confidence interval needs to look at  $\frac{1+0.95}{2} = 0.975$ .

#### Theorem. Central Limit Theorem

If n is large, and if  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  are drawn from a distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then  $\bar{Y} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$ .

For a Binomial Distribution, the confidence interval is

$$\left[ \hat{\pi} \pm z^* \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}} \right]$$

where  $\hat{\pi} = \frac{y}{n}$ , y is the observed data.

To determine the sample size

$$n \ge \left(\frac{z^*}{MoE}\right)^2 \hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})$$

where MoE is the margin of error.

To be conservative, we usually pick  $\hat{\pi} = 0.5$  as it maximizes  $\hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})$ .

For a Poisson Distribution, the pivotal quantity is

$$\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\bar{Y}}{n}}} = Z \sim N(0, 1)$$

and the confidence interval is

$$\left[ \bar{y} \pm z^* \sqrt{\frac{\bar{y}}{n}} \right]$$

## 4.2 Chi-Squared Distribution $\sim X_k^2$

The Gamma function is

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha - 1} e^{-y} dy \text{ for } \alpha > 0$$

Properties of the Gamma Function:

- $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha 1)\Gamma(\alpha 1)$
- $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha 1)!$
- $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$

The  $X_k^2$  distribution is a continuous family of distributions on  $(0, \infty)$  with probability density function

$$f(x;k) = \frac{1}{2^{k/2}\Gamma(k/2)} x^{(k/2)-1} e^{-x/2}$$
 for  $x > 0$ 

where  $k \in \{1, 2, ...\}$  is a parameter of the distribution. k is referred to as the "degrees of freedom" (d.f.) parameter.

For  $X \sim X_k^2$ 

- E(X) = k and Var(X) = 2k
- If k = 1,  $X = Z^2$  and  $Z \sim G(0, 1)$
- If k = 2,  $X \sim Exp(2)$   $(\theta = 2)$
- If k is large,  $X \stackrel{Appr.}{\sim} N(k, 2k)$
- Let  $X_{k_1}, X_{k_1}$  be independent random variables with  $X_{k_i} \sim X_{k_i}^2$ . Then  $X_{k_1} + X_{k_2} = X_{k_1+k_2}^2$ .

**Theorem.** If  $Y_i \sim Exp(\mu)$ , then

$$\frac{2Y_i}{\mu} \sim Exp(2) \to X_2^2$$

#### 4.3 Student's t Distribution

Student's t distribution has probability density function

$$f(t;k) = c_k \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{k}\right)^{-(k+1)/2}$$
 for  $t \in \Re$  and  $k = 1, 2, ...$ 

where the constant  $c_k$  is given by

$$c_k = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k+1}{2})}{\sqrt{k\pi}\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})}$$
 k is the degrees of freedom

Properties of T:

- i) Range of T:  $(-\infty, \infty)$
- ii) T is symmetric around 0

iii) As 
$$k \uparrow$$
,  $T \to Z$ 

**Theorem.** Suppose  $Z \sim G(0,1)$  and  $U \sim X_k^2$  independently. Let

$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{U/k}}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{\bar{Y} - M}{s/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

Then T has Student's t distribution with k degrees of freedom.

#### 4.4 Likelihood-Based Confidence Intervals

**Theorem.** A 100p% likelihood interval is an approximate 100q% where  $q = 2P(Z \le \sqrt{-2 \ln p}) - 1$  and  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

**Example 4.1.** Show that a 1% likelihood interval is an approximate 99.8% confidence interval.

Note that p = 0.01

$$q = 2P(Z \le \sqrt{-2\ln(0.01)}) - 1$$

$$\approx 2P(Z \le 3.03) - 1$$

$$= 2(0.99878) - 1$$

$$= 0.998 = 99.8\%$$

**Theorem.** If a is a value such that

$$P = 2P(Z \le a) - 1$$
 where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ 

then the likelihood interval  $\{\theta: R(\theta) \geq e^{-a^2/2}\}$  is an approximate 100p% confidence interval.

#### Example 4.2. Since

$$0.95 = 2P(Z \le 1.96) - 1$$
 where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ 

and

$$e^{-(1.96)^2/2} = e^{-1.9208} \approx 0.1465 \approx 0.15$$

therefore a 15% likelihood interval for  $\theta$  is also an approximate 95% confidence interval for  $\theta$ .

# 4.5 Confidence Intervals for Parameters in the $G(\mu, \sigma)$ Model

If  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  are independent  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\bar{Y} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$  and

$$\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

(2) 
$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim X_{n-1}^2$$

General Rule:

The Confidence Interval for  $\mu$  if  $\sigma$  is unknown is

$$\left[ \bar{y} \pm t^* \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

When  $\sigma$  is unknown, we replace  $\sigma$  by its estimate s, and we use t-pivot. Confidence interval when  $\sigma$  is known is

$$\left[ \ \bar{y} \pm z^* \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \ \right]$$

When  $\sigma$  is known, we use z-pivot.

If n is really large, then the  $t^*$  value converges to the corresponding  $z^*$  value (by Central Limit Theorem).

#### Confidence Intervals for $\sigma^2$ and $\sigma$

**Theorem.** Suppose  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n$  is a random sample from the  $G(\mu, \sigma)$  distribution with sample variance  $S^2$ . Then the random variable

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

has a Chi-squared distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom.

Using the theorem, we can construct a 100p% confidence interval for the parameter  $\sigma^2$  or  $\sigma$ .

Recall this is the same as the equation (2) in this sub-section.

We can find constants a and b such that

$$P(a \le U \le b) = p$$

where  $U \sim X_{n-1}^2$ .

So a 100p% confidence interval for  $\sigma^2$  is

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} (n-1)s^2, \frac{(n-1)s^2}{a} \end{array}\right]$$

and a 100p% confidence interval for  $\sigma$  is

$$\left[\sqrt{\frac{(n-1)s^2}{b}}, \sqrt{\frac{(n-1)s^2}{a}}\right]$$

Unlike confidence interval for  $\mu$ , the confidence interval for  $\sigma^2$  is not symmetric about  $s^2$ . the estimator of  $\sigma^2$ . The  $X_{n-1}^2$  distribution is not a symmetric distribution.

#### Prediction Interval for a Future Observation

Suppose that  $Y \sim G(\mu, \sigma)$  with **independent** observations, then

$$Y - \widetilde{\mu} = Y - \overline{Y} \sim N\left(0, \sigma^2\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$

Also

$$\frac{Y - \bar{Y}}{S\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

is a pivotal quantity which can be used to obtain an interval of values for Y. Let  $t^*$  be a value such that  $P(-t^* \leq T \leq t^*) = p$  or  $P(T \leq t^*) = (1+p)/2$  which is obtained from tables. Thus

$$\left[ \bar{y} \pm t^* s \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} \right]$$

## 5 Tests of Hypothesis

**Definition.** A hypothesis in statistic is a claim made about the values of a certain parameter of the population.

There are **two** competing hypotheses:

• Null Hypothesis, denoted  $H_0$ ; current "status quo" assumption.

• Alternative Hypothesis, denoted  $H_1$ ; seeks to challenge  $H_0$ .

**Definition.** A test statistic or discrepancy measure D is a function of the data  $\mathbf{Y}$  that is constructed to measure the degree of "agreement" between the data  $\mathbf{Y}$  and the null hypothesis  $H_0$ .

For every testing decision, there is a possibility of making two kinds of errors:

**Type I**  $H_0$  is true;  $H_0$  is rejected.

**Type II**  $H_1$  is true;  $H_0$  is not rejected.

If Type I error goes down, then Type II error goes up; vice versa holds as well.

## 5.1 p-value

Suppose there's the test statistic  $D = D(\mathbf{Y})$  to test the hypothesis  $H_0$ . Also suppose that  $d = D(\mathbf{y})$  is the observed value of D.

**Definition.** A *p-value* or observed significance level of the test of hypothesis  $H_0$  using test statistic D is

$$p$$
-value =  $P(D \ge d; H_0)$ 

Caution: The *p-value* is **not** the probability that  $H_0$  is true.

Table 1: Interpretation of *p-values* 

$p ext{-}value$	Interpretation
p- $value > 0.1$	No evidence against $H_0$ based on the observed
	data.
$0.05 < p\text{-}value \le 0.10$	Weak evidence against $H_0$ based on the observed
	data.
$0.01 < p\text{-}value \le 0.05$	Evidence against $H_0$ based on the observed data.
$0.001 < p\text{-}value \le 0.01$	Strong evidence against $H_0$ based on the observed
	data.
$p$ -value $\leq 0.001$	Very strong evidence against $H_0$ based on the ob-
	served data.

If the *p-value* is not small, it cannot be concluded that  $H_0$  is true. It can only be said that there is no evidence against the null hypothesis in

#### light of the observed data.

#### Confidence Interval vs. Hypothesis Testing

Confidence interval is the range of "reasonable" values for  $\theta$ , given the level of confidence and sample data.

Hypothesis testing tests whether a particular value of  $\theta$  is "reasonable" given the p-value and sample data.

## 5.2 Tests of Hypotheses for Parameters in the $G(\mu, \sigma)$ Model

#### Hypothesis Tests for $\mu$

Using the test statistic

$$D = \frac{|\bar{Y} - \mu_0|}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

Then using the sample mean  $\bar{y}$  and standard deviation s, we get

$$d = \frac{|\bar{y} - \mu_0|}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

The *p-value* can be then obtained via

$$p\text{-}value = P(D \ge d)$$

$$= P(|T| \ge d)$$

$$= 1 - P(-d \le T \le d)$$

$$= 2[1 - P(T \le d)] \text{ where } T \sim t_{n-1}$$

#### One-sided hypothesis tests

Suppose that the null hypothesis is  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  and the alternative hypothesis is  $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$ .

To test  $\mu = \mu_0$ , use the same test statistic and observed value. Then *p-value* can be obtained via

$$\begin{aligned} p\text{-}value &= P(D \geq d) \\ &= P(T \geq d) \\ &= 1 - P(T \leq d) \quad \text{where } T \sim t_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Relationship Between Hypothesis Testing and Interval Estimation Suppose  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$  is an observed random sample from the  $G(\mu, \sigma)$  distribution.

Suppose  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  is tested, and we have

$$p\text{-}value \geq 0.05$$
 if and only if  $P\left(\frac{|\bar{Y} - \mu_0|}{S/\sqrt{n}} \geq \frac{|\bar{y} - \mu_0|}{s/\sqrt{n}}; H_0 : \mu = \mu_0 \text{is true}\right) \geq 0.05$  if and only if  $P\left(|T| \geq \frac{|\bar{y} - \mu_0|}{s/\sqrt{n}}\right) \geq 0.05$  where  $T \sim t_{n-1}$  if and only if  $P\left(|T| \leq \frac{|\bar{y} - \mu_0|}{s/\sqrt{n}}\right) \leq 0.95$  if and only if  $\frac{|\bar{y} - \mu_0|}{s/\sqrt{n}} \leq a$  where  $P(|T| \leq a) = 0.95$  if and only if  $\mu_0 \in \left[\bar{y} - a\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{y} + a\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right]$ 

which is a 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$ .

In general, suppose we have data  $\mathbf{y}$ , a model  $f(\mathbf{y}, \theta)$  and we use the same pivotal quantity to construct a confidence interval for  $\theta$  and a test of the hypothesis  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ .

Then the parameter value  $\theta = \theta_0$  is inside a 100q% confidence interval for  $\theta$  if and only if the *p-value* for testing  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  is greater than 1 - q.

The disadvantage is that we need to construct the appropriate test statistics D and that may be difficult if the original distribution is complicated.

#### Hypothesis tests for $\sigma$

For testing  $H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$ , use the test statistic

$$U = \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma_0^2}$$

Note that for large values of U and small values of U provide evidence against  $H_0$  due to the asymmetric shape of Chi-squared distributions. To approximate the p-value:

1. Let  $u = (n-1)s^2/\sigma_0^2$  denote the observed value of U from the data

2. If u is large (that is, if  $P(U \le u) > 0.5$ ) compute the p-value as  $p\text{-value} = 2P(U \ge u)$ 

where  $U \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$ 

3. If u is small (that is, if  $P(U \le u) < 0.5$ ) compute the p-value as

$$p$$
- $value = 2P(U \le u)$ 

where  $U \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$ 

# 5.3 Likelihood Ratio Tests of Hypotheses - One Parameter

When a pivotal quantity does not exist then a general method for finding a test statistic with good properties can be based on the likelihood function.

Theorem. Suppose

 $\theta = \text{unknown parameter}$ 

n =sample size

 $\hat{\theta} = MLE \text{ for } \theta$ 

 $\widetilde{\theta}$  = Maximum Likelihood Estimator

 $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ 

 $H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$ 

Then for large n, the Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic is

$$\Lambda(\theta_0) = -2 \ln \frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\widetilde{\theta})} \sim X_1^2$$

$$\Lambda(\theta_0) = 2[L(\widetilde{\theta}) - L(\theta_0)]$$

Using the observed value of  $\Lambda(\theta_0)$ , denoted by

$$\lambda(\theta_0) = -2 \ln \left[ \frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\hat{\theta})} \right] = -2 \ln R(\theta_0)$$

where  $R(\theta_0)$  is the relative likelihood function evaluated at  $\theta = \theta_0$ . The *p-value* can then be approximated via

$$\begin{aligned} p\text{-}value &\approx P[W \geq \lambda(\theta_0)] \quad \text{where } W \sim \chi_1^2 \\ &= P\left(|Z| \geq \sqrt{\lambda(\theta_0)}\right) \quad \text{where } Z \sim G(0,1) \\ &= 2\left[1 - P(Z \leq \sqrt{\lambda(\theta_0)}\right] \end{aligned}$$

#### 5.3.1 Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic for Binomial

$$\lambda(\theta_0) = -2 \ln \left[ \left( \frac{\theta_0}{\hat{\theta}} \right)^y \left( \frac{1 - \theta_0}{1 - \hat{\theta}} \right)^{n - y} \right]$$

where  $\hat{\theta} = y/n$ 

#### 5.3.2 Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic for Exponential

Suppose  $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n \sim \text{Exponential}(\theta)$ 

$$\lambda(\theta_0) = -2 \ln \left[ \left( \frac{\hat{\theta}}{\theta_0} \right)^n e^{n(1-\hat{\theta}/\theta_0)} \right]$$

### 5.3.3 Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic and $G(\mu, \sigma)$

Suppose  $Y \sim G(\mu, \sigma)$  with p.d.f.

$$f(y; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y - \mu)^2\right]$$

Then the likelihood ratio test statistic is

$$\Lambda(\theta_0) = \left(\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right)^2$$

Notice that  $\Lambda(\theta_0)$  is the square of the standard Normal Distribution random variable

$$\frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

Therefore, it has exactly a  $\chi_1^2$  distribution.