# Statistics 2 - Notes

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November 28, 2019

## Contents

### 1 Estimation

### 1.1 Introduction

**Definition 1.1** - Probabiltiy Space,  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ 

A mathematical construct for modelling the real world. A Probabilty Space has three elements

- i)  $\Omega$  Sample space.
- ii)  $\mathcal{F}$  Set of events.
- iii)  $\mathbb{P}$  Probability measure.

and most fulfil the following conditions

- i)  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
- ii)  $\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \implies A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ ;

iii) 
$$\forall A_0, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{F} \implies \left(\bigcup_i A_i\right) \in \mathcal{F};$$

iv)  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ ; and,

v) 
$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$
 for disjoint  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  (Countable Additivity).

**Definition 1.2 -** Random Variable

A function which maps an event in the sample space to a value e.g.  $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ .

Remark 1.1 - Probability Density Function for iid Random Variable Vector

For  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta)$  where each component of  $\mathbf{X}$  is independent and identically distribution the probability density function of  $\mathbf{X}$  is

$$f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta)$$

**Definition 1.3** - Expectation

The mean value for a random variable. For rv X

$$\mathbb{E}(X) := \sum_{x \in \chi} x f_X(x) \quad \& \quad \mathbb{E}(X) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f_X(x) dx$$

**Theorem 1.1** - Expection of a Function

For a function  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and rv X with pmf  $f_X$ 

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) := \sum_{g(x) \in \mathcal{X}} x f_X(x) \quad \& \quad \mathbb{E}(g(X)) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) f_X(x) dx$$

**Theorem 1.2** - Expectation of a Linear Operator

For rv X with pmf  $f_X \& a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\mathbb{E}(aX + b) = a\mathbb{E}(X) + b$$

**Definition 1.4 -** Variance

For rv X

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) := \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}(X))^2] = \mathbb{E}(X^2) - \mathbb{E}(X)^2$$

**Theorem 1.3 -** Variance of a Linear Operator

For rv X and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$$

**Definition 1.5 -** Moment of a Random Variable

For rv X the  $n^{th}$  moment of X is defined as  $\mathbb{E}(X^n)$ .

 $N.B. - \mathbb{E}(X^n) \neq \mathbb{E}(X)^n.$ 

**Definition 1.6 -** Covariance

For rv X & Y

$$Cov(X,Y) := \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}(X))(Y - \mathbb{E}(Y))] = \mathbb{E}(XY) - \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$$

**Theorem 1.4 -** Properties of Covaraince

Let X & Y be independent random variables

- i) Cov(X, X) = Var(X);
- ii) Cov(X, Y) = 0

Theorem 1.5 - Variance of two Random Variables with linear operators

$$Var(aX + bY) = a^{2}Var(X) + b^{2}Var(Y) + 2abCov(X, Y)$$

Theorem 1.6 - Independent Random Variables

Random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent iff

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \le a_1, \dots, X_n \le a_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X_i \le a_i) \ \forall \ a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$$

### 1.2 The Likelihood Function

**Definition 2.1** - Likelihood Function

Define  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta^*)$  for some unknown  $\theta^* \in \Theta$  and let  $\mathbf{x}$  be an observation of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

A Likelihood Function is any function,  $L(\cdot; \mathbf{x}) : \Theta \to [0, \infty)$ , which is proportional to the PMF/PDF of the observed realisation  $\mathbf{x}$ .

$$L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) := C f_b(\mathbf{x}; \theta) \ \forall \ C > 0$$

N.B. Sometimes this is called the Observed Likelihood Function since it is dependent on observed data.

**Definition 2.2 -** Log-Likelihood Function

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta^*)$  for some unknown  $\theta^* \in \Theta$  and  $\mathbf{x}$  be an observation of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

The Log-Likelihood Function is the natural log of a Likelihood Function

$$\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) := \ln f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) + C, \ C \in \mathbb{R}$$

**Theorem 2.1 -** Multidiensional Transforms

Let **X** be a continuous random vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with PDF  $f_{\mathbf{X}}$ ;  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a continuous differentiable bijection; and,  $h:=g^{-1}$ .

Then  $\mathbf{Y} = g(\mathbf{X})$  is a continuous random vector and its PDF is

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}) = f_{\mathbf{X}}(h(\mathbf{y})H_h(\mathbf{Y}))$$

where

$$J_h := \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial h}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \right) \right|$$

**Proposition 2.1 -** Invaraince of Likelihood Function by bijective transformation of the observations independent of  $\theta$ 

Let  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bijetive transformation which is independent of  $\theta$ ; and  $\mathbf{Y} := g(\mathbf{X})$ .

Then  $\mathbf{Y}$  is a random variable with PDF/PMG

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y};\theta) \propto f_{\mathbf{X}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y});\theta)$$

Hence, if  $\mathbf{y} = g(\mathbf{x})$  then  $L_{\mathbf{Y}}(\theta; \mathbf{y}) \propto L_{\mathbf{X}}(\theta; \mathbf{x})$ 

#### **Proof 2.1** - Proposition 2.1

Let  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bijective transformation which is independent of  $\theta$ ;  $h:=g^{-1}$ ;  $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}$  be a rvs st  $\mathbf{Y}:=g(\mathbf{X})$ .

i) Discrete Case - Consider the case when X is a discrete rv. Then

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(y;\theta) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}; \theta)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{Y}) = g^{-1}(\mathbf{y}); \theta)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(h(\mathbf{Y}) = h(\mathbf{y}); \theta)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = h(\mathbf{y}); \theta)$$

$$= f_{\mathbf{X}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y}); \theta)$$

ii) Continuous Case - Consider the case when  ${\bf X}$  is a continuous rv. Then, by **Theorem 2.1** 

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}; \theta) = f_{\mathbf{X}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y}); \theta) J_{g^{-1}}(\mathbf{y})$$

Since  $J_{q^{-1}}$  does not depend on  $\theta$  this case is solved.

Thus in botoh cases  $L_{\mathbf{Y}}(\theta; y) = f_{\mathbf{Y}}(y; \theta) \propto f_{\mathbf{X}}(g^{-1}(\mathbf{y}); \theta) = L_{\mathbf{X}}(\theta; \mathbf{x}).$ 

### 1.3 Maximum Likelihood Estimates

**Definition 3.1 -** Maximum Likelihood Estimate

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta)$ ; and  $\mathbf{x}$  be a realisation of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

The Maximum Likelihood Estimate is the value  $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$  st

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta \ f_n(\mathbf{x}; \hat{\theta}) \ge f_n(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$$

Equivalently

$$\forall \ \theta \in \Theta \ L(\hat{\theta}; \mathbf{x}) \ge L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \quad \text{or} \quad \ell(\hat{\theta}; \mathbf{x}) \ge \ell(\theta; \mathbf{x})$$

i.e.  $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) := \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta}(L(\theta; \mathbf{x}))$ .

Remark 3.1 - The Maximum Likelihood Estimate may <u>not</u> be unique

Example 3.1 - MLE for Uniform Distribution

Consider  $\mathbf{X}^{\text{iid}} \mathcal{U}[0, \theta]$  for  $\theta > 0$ .

Then

$$L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \propto f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\theta} \mathbb{1} \{ x_i \in [0, \theta] \}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta^n} \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1} \{ x_i \in [0, \theta] \}$$

$$\implies \hat{\theta} = \max \{ x_i : x_i \in \mathbf{x} \}$$

### Remark 3.2 - MLE of Reparameterisation

Define  $\tau(\theta): \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$\hat{\tau} = \tau(\hat{\theta})$$

N.B. We often write  $\tilde{f}$  to represent the pmf when  $\tau$  is taken as a parameter rate than  $\theta$ . i.e.  $f(x;\theta) = \tilde{f}(x;\tau(\theta))$ .

### **Theorem 3.1 -** Invariance of MLE under bijective Reparameterisation

Let  $g:\Theta\to G$  be a bijective transformation of the statisitcal parameter  $\theta.$ 

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta) = \tilde{f}(\cdot; g(\theta))$  for some  $\theta$ , and let  $\mathbf{x}$  be a realisation of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

If  $\hat{\theta}$  s an MLE of  $\theta$  then  $\hat{\tau} = g(\hat{\theta})$  is an MLE of  $\tau$ .

#### **Proof 3.1** - *Theorem 3.1*

This is a proof by contradiction.

Suppose  $\exists \tau^* \in Gst\tilde{f}(x;\tau^*) > \tilde{f}(x;\tau^*)$  We know that  $\forall \theta \in \Theta, f(x;\theta) = \tilde{f}(x;g(\theta))$  and  $\forall \tau \in G, f(x;g^{-1}(\tau)) = \tilde{f}(x;\tau)$ .

We deduce that

$$\begin{array}{lcl} f(x;g^{-1}(\tau^*)) & = & \tilde{f}(x;\tau^*) \\ & > & \tilde{f}(x;\hat{\tau}) \text{ by assumption} \\ & = & f(x;g^{-1}(\hat{\tau})) \\ & = & f(x;\hat{\theta}) \end{array}$$

This contradicts the assumption that  $\hat{\theta}$  is an maximum likelihood estimate of  $\theta$ .

### Remark 3.3 - Not all Reparameterisations are Bijective

When reparameterisations  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is not bijective it is helpful to consider the *induced likelihood* 

$$L^*(\tau; \mathbf{x}) := \max_{\theta \in G_{\tau}} L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \text{ where } G_{\tau} := \{\theta : g(\theta) = \tau\}$$

Since this reduces the domain to only where g is bijective.

### 1.4 Determinig MLEs - The Tractable Case

### Proposition 4.1 - Differentiable Likelihood in the continuous case - Multivariate

When  $L(\theta; \mathbf{x})$  is differentiable one can find MLEs by considering its extrema. This is done equating & solving the cases when the gradient is zero, *i.e.*  $\nabla L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = 0$ , and then checking whether this is a maximum or minimum point.

A point is a local minimum if the Hessian at the point is Negative Definite i.e.  $x^T A x < 0 \ \forall \ x \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

### Example 4.1 - MLE of Normal Distribution

Let  $\mathbf{X}^{\text{iid}} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

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

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \ell(\mu, \sigma^2; \mathbf{x}) = C - \frac{n}{2} \ln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \nabla \ell(\mu, \sigma^2; \mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu), -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$
Setting
$$\frac{-1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \qquad \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \bar{x}$$
Setting
$$-\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \hat{\mu})^2$$

We now want to check whether  $(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma^2})$  is a minimum.

$$\nabla^{2}\ell(\mu, \sigma^{2}; \mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2}\ell(\mu, \sigma^{2}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \mu^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2}\ell(\mu, \sigma^{2}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \mu \partial \sigma^{2}} \\ \frac{\partial^{2}\ell(\mu, \sigma^{2}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \mu \sigma^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2}\ell(\mu, \sigma^{2}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial (\sigma^{2})^{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{n}{\hat{\sigma}^{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{n}{2\hat{\sigma}^{4}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Since  $(z_1 z_2) \begin{pmatrix} -a & 0 \\ 0 & -b \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix} = -az_1^2 - bz_2^2 < 0 \ \forall \ a,b > 0$ and we have  $\frac{n}{\hat{\sigma}^2}$ ,  $\frac{n}{2\hat{\sigma}^4} > 0$  then we can conclude that  $\nabla^2 \ell$  is negative definite.

Thus  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} \& \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \hat{\mu})^2$  is an MLE for the normal distribution.

#### Example 4.2 - MLE for Capture-Recapture Model

Suppose you are wanting to calculate the unknown size of a population, n. The Capture-Recapture Model is one technique that can be used. You tag  $t \leq n$  members of the population; wait for a while; then recapture  $c \leq n$  members of which  $x \leq \min\{t, c\} \leq n$  are tagged. With t, c, x known produce a MLE for n.

We first work out the associated probability distribution for X, the population size. We have

- i)  $\binom{t}{x}$  ways of choosing x members among the tagged ones;
- ii)  $\binom{n-t}{c-x}$  ways of choosing the remaining members among the non-tagged ones;
- iii)  $\binom{n}{c}$  ways of choosing c members in a population of n individuals.

Thus

$$f_X(x;n) = \frac{\binom{t}{x}\binom{n-t}{c-x}}{\binom{n}{c}}$$

This means that  $X \sim \text{Hypergeometric}(t, n, c)$  with t & c known.

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Now we calculate the MLE for X

$$L(n;x) = f_X(x;n) = \frac{\binom{t}{x}\binom{n-t}{c-x}}{\binom{n}{c}} = \frac{t!}{\frac{x!(t-x)!}{(c-x)!(n-t-c+x)!}} \frac{(n-t)!}{\frac{n!}{c!(n-c)!}}$$

Now we consider L(n;x) = 0 when  $x > \min\{t,c\}$ . We want to indetify values of n for which  $L(n;x) \ge L(n-1;x)$ .

Consider  $n-1 \ge \min\{t,c\} \implies L(n-1;x) > 0$ 

$$\operatorname{Let} r(n) := \frac{L(n;x)}{L(n-1;x)}$$

$$= \frac{n-t}{n-t-c+x} \frac{n-c}{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad 1 \leq r(n)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad 1 \leq \frac{n-t}{n-t-c+x} \frac{n-c}{n}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad n(n-t-c+x) \leq (n-t)(n-c)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad n^2 - nt - cn + xn \leq n^2 - nt - cn + ct$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad xn \leq ct$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad x \leq \frac{ct}{n}$$

So L(n;x) is increasing for  $n \leq \lfloor \frac{ct}{x} \rfloor$  & decreasing for  $n > \lfloor \frac{ct}{x} \rfloor$ . Consequently  $\hat{n}_{\text{MLE}}(x) = \lfloor \frac{tc}{x} \rfloor$ 

### 1.5 Statistics and Estimators

### **Definition 5.1** - Statistic

Given some data  $\mathbf{x}$  a statistic is a function of the data  $T(\mathbf{x})$ .

N.B. A statistic cannot depend on an unknown statistical parameter.

### **Definition 5.2 -** Estimate

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta^*)$  with  $\theta^* \in \Theta$  and  $\mathbf{x}$  be a realisation of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

An Estimate  $\theta^*$  is a statistic  $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = T(\mathbf{x})$  which is intended to approximate the real value of  $\theta^*$ . N.B. An Estimate is a real value & thus is hard to evaluate.

### **Definition 5.3** - Estimator

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta^*)$  with  $\theta^* \in \Theta$  and  $\mathbf{x}$  be a realisation of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

An Estimator of  $\theta^*$  is  $\theta$  where  $\theta(\mathbf{x})$  is an estimate.

N.B. We call  $T(\mathbf{X})$  an estimator. This is a random variable.

### **Definition 5.4 -** Distribution of an Estimator

Let  $\mathbf{X}|sim f_n(\cdot; \theta^*)$  with  $\theta^* \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

If  $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})$  is a real-valued random variable, we can write its CDF as

$$F_{\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})}(t; \theta^*) = \mathbb{P}(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) \le t; \theta^*)$$
$$= \int_{\chi^n} \mathbb{1}\{\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \le t\} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta^*) d\mathbf{x}$$

### Remark 5.1 - Estimator dependends upon true value

The distribution of  $theta(\mathbf{X})$  depends on the distribution of  $\mathbf{X}$  which in turn depends upon the

distribution of  $\theta^*$ .

Thus the distribution of an estimator depends on the true parameter of the variable it is estimating.

### Remark 5.2 - Estimator Distribution & Sample Size

As sample size increases the distribution of an estimator may converge to a more standard distribution (e.g. Normal, Poisson).

#### **Definition 5.5 -** Bias

Bias is a measure of how much an estimator deviates from the true value, on average.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathrm{Bias}(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*) & := & \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \theta^*; \theta^*) \\ & = & \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*) - \mathbb{E}(\theta^*; \theta^*) \\ & = & \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*) - \theta^* \end{array}$$

#### **Definition 5.6** - Unbiased Estimator

An Estimator,  $\hat{\theta}$ , is said to be Unbiased if  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$ , Bias $(\hat{\theta}; \theta) = 0$ . Equivalently  $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}; \theta) = \theta$ .

### **Definition 5.7 -** Mean Square Error

The Mean Square Error of an estimator is the mean of the squared error associated with rv  $\hat{\theta}$ .

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*) := \mathbb{E}\left[(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \theta^*)^2; \theta^2\right]$$

### **Proposition 5.1 -** Simplification of MSE Formula

The MSE is a combination of variance & bias.

$$\begin{split} MSE(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*) &= \mathbb{E}\left[(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) - \theta^*)^2; \theta^2\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left\{\hat{\theta} - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*)\right\}^2; \theta^*\right] + \left(\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta} - \theta^*; \theta^*)^2\right] \\ &= \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*) + \operatorname{Bias}(\hat{\theta}; \theta^*)^2 \end{split}$$

### Example 5.1 - Sample mean as an Estimator

Let  $\mathbf{X}^{\text{iid}} \text{Poisson}(\lambda^*)$ .

Suppose we are using the sample mean,  $\hat{\lambda}(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ , as an estimate of  $\lambda^*$ . We first want to show this estimator is *Unbiased* 

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\lambda}; \lambda) = \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i; \lambda\right)$$

$$= d\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(X_i; \lambda)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} n \lambda$$

$$= \lambda$$

Thus  $\hat{\lambda}$  is unbiased.

Now we consider the MSE of  $\hat{\lambda}$ 

$$MSE(\hat{\lambda}; \lambda) = Var(\hat{\lambda}; \lambda)$$

$$= Var\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i; \lambda\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Var(X_i; \lambda)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^2} n\lambda$$

$$= \frac{\lambda}{n}$$

This shows that as the sample size increases the MSE of  $\hat{\lambda}$  converges to 0.

### 1.6 Probabilistic Convergence

#### Remark 6.1 - Motivation

Here we consider the properties of a maximum likelihood estimators as the sample size increases.

### **Theorem 6.1** - Markov's Inequality

For a non-negative random variable X and a constant a > 0

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge a) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}(X)}{a}$$

### **Proof 6.1** - Markov's Inequality

Consider continuous X. We have

$$a\mathbb{P}(X \ge a) = a \int_{\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx$$

$$\le \int_{a}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

$$\le \int_{0}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(X)$$

$$\Rightarrow a\mathbb{P}(X \ge a) = \mathbb{E}(X)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(X \ge a) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}(X)}{a}$$

Theorem 6.2 - Chebyshev's Inequality

Let  $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X)$  and  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X)$ . Then

$$\forall a > 0, \ \mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \ge a) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{a^2}$$

### **Proof 6.2** - Chebyshev's Inequality

We have

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \ge a) = \mathbb{P}(|X - \mu|^2 \ge a^2)$$

$$\le \frac{\mathbb{E}\left((X - \mu)^2\right)}{a^2} \text{ By Markov's Inequality}$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{a^2}$$

### **Definition 6.1 -** Convergence in Probability

We say the sequence of random variables  $\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges in probability to the random variable Z if

$$\forall \ \varepsilon > 0, \ \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(|Z_n - Z| > \varepsilon) = 0$$

*N.B.* This is denoted  $Z_n \to_{\mathbb{P}} Z$ .

N.B. The random variables  $\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  & Z must be in the same probability space.

### **Theorem 6.3 -** Weak Law of Large Numbers

If  $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  are idependent & identically distributed and  $\mathbb{E}(X_1)=\mu<\infty$  then

$$Z_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \to_{\mathbb{P}} \mu$$

N.B. This is an example of Convergence in Probability.

### **Definition 6.2 -** Convergence in Distribution

We say the sequence of random variables  $\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges in distribution to random variable Z if

$$\forall z \in \mathbf{Z} \text{ where } \mathbb{P}(Z \leq z) \text{ is continuous, } \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(Z_n \leq z) = \mathbb{P}(Z \leq z)$$

N.B. This is denoted  $Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} Z$ .

N.B. The random variables  $\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  & Z need not be in the same probability space.

### Remark 6.2 - Equivalent Statements to Convergence in Distribution

Saying that  $Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} Z$  is equivalent to saying that

$$\forall z \in \mathbb{Z}$$
 where  $F_Z(z)$  is continuous,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{Z_n}(z) = F_Z(z)$ 

### Theorem 6.4 - Central Limit Theorem

If  $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  are idependent & identically distributed,  $\mathbb{E}(X_1) = \mu < \infty$  and  $\mathrm{Var}(X_1) = \sigma^2 < \infty$  then

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}(Z_n - \mu) \to_{\mathcal{D}} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

### **Theorem 6.5** - Convergence in Probability & Distribution

Convergence in probability  $\implies$  Convergence in distribution, **but** the opposite is not necessarily true.

### **Theorem 6.6 -** Convergence in Probability & Distribution to a Constant

Convergence in distribution to a constant and convergence in probability to a constant are equivalent.

### Example 6.1 -

Let  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$  and  $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of random variables where  $X_i := (1-X) + \frac{1}{n}$ . We have

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & , x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & , x \in [0, 1) \\ 1 & , x \ge 1 \end{cases} \quad F_{X_n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & , x < \frac{1}{n} \\ \frac{1}{2} & , x \in \left[\frac{1}{n}, 1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \\ 1 & , x \ge 1 + \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

Clearly  $F_{X_n}(x) \to F_X(x)$  at all points at which  $F_X$  is continuous (i.e.  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ ). Thus  $X_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} X$ .

### **Theorem 6.7** - Continuous Mapping Theorem

Let  $q: Z \to G$  be a continuous function. Then

- i) If  $Z_n \to_{\mathbb{P}} Z$ , then  $g(Z_n) \to_{\mathbb{P}} g(Z)$ ;
- ii) If  $Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} Z$ , then  $g(Z_n) \to_{\mathcal{D}} g(Z)$

#### Theorem 6.8 - Slutsky's Theorem

Let  $\{Y_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  &  $\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be sequences of random variables, Y be a random variable &  $c\in\mathbb{R}\setminus 0$  be a constant.

If  $Y_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} Y$  and  $Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} c$ , then

- i)  $Y_n + Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} Y + c$ ;
- ii)  $Y_n Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} Y c$ ; and,
- iii)  $\frac{Y_n}{Z_n} \to_{\mathcal{D}} \frac{Y}{c}$ .

### **Definition 6.3 -** Convergence in Quadratic Mean

Let  $\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of random variables & Z be a random variable. We say that  $\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  Converges in Quadratic Mean to the random variable Z if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}\left[ (Z_n - Z)^2 \right] = 0$$

N.B. This is denoted  $Z_n \to_{qm} Z$ .

**Theorem 6.9** - If  $Z_n \rightarrow_{qm} Z$  then  $Z_n \rightarrow_{\mathbb{P}} Z$ 

### **Proof 6.3 -** *Theorem 5.9*

Fix any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We have

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mathbb{P}(|Z_n-Z|>\varepsilon) & = & \mathbb{P}(|Z_n-Z|^2>\varepsilon^2) \\ & \leq & \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2}\mathbb{E}\left[(Z_n-Z)^2\right] \text{ by Markov's Inequality} \\ & \to & 0 \text{ since } Z_n \to_{qm} Z. \end{array}$$

Hence  $Z_n \to_{\mathbb{P}} Z$ .

### 1.7 Probabilistic Convergence & Estimators

**Definition 7.1 -** Consistency of a Sequence of Estimators A sequence of estimators,  $\{\hat{\theta}_n(\cdots): \chi^n \to \Theta\}$ , are said to be Consistent if

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta \text{ with } \mathbf{X}_n \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta), \ \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot; \theta)} \theta$$

### Remark 7.1 - Consistency of a Sequence of Estimators

- i) In numerous situations one will talk about the consistency of *the* estimator, *e.g.* for the MLE, but also for the mean, etc. This implicitly refers to the corresponding sequence of MLEs, sequence of means, etc.
- ii) Note the  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta)$  in the limit above, and in particular the dependence on  $\theta$ . This is often omitted in practice, you should however not forget what the symbols actually mean.
- iii) Quadratic mean / Mean Square convergence  $\implies$  consistency. That is, if the MSE of the estimator converges to 0, the estimator is consistent.

### Example 7.1 - Consistency of Flipping Coins

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(\theta^*)$  for some  $\theta^* \in [0, 1]$ .

The maximum likelihood estimate and method of moments for  $\hat{\theta}_n$  are the sample mean.

$$\hat{\theta}_n(X_1,\dots,X_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

By the Weak Law of Large Numbers we have that consistency of  $\{\hat{\theta}n\}$ , since  $\mathbb{E}(X_1) = \theta^*$ .

Example 7.2 - Crude Confidence Interval when Flipping Coins

Let  $\mathbf{X}^{\text{iid}}$ Bernoulli $(\theta^*)$  for some  $\theta^* \in [0,1]$  and define  $\hat{\theta}_n := \hat{\theta}_n(X_1,\ldots,X_n)$ . We shall produce a *confidence interval* for  $\theta^*$ .

$$\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_n; \theta^*) = \theta^* \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n; \theta^*) = \frac{\theta^*(1 - \theta^*)}{n}$$

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$$\mathbb{P}\left(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*| \geq \varepsilon; \theta^*\right) \leq \frac{\theta^*(1-\theta^*)}{n\varepsilon^2} \text{ by Chebyshev's Inequality}$$
 We don't know  $\theta^*$ , but can deduce that  $\theta^*(1-\theta^*) \leq \frac{1}{4}$ 

$$\implies \mathbb{P}\left(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*| \geq \varepsilon; \theta^*\right) \leq \frac{1}{4n\varepsilon^2}$$
Define  $\alpha := \frac{1}{4n\varepsilon^2}$ 

$$\implies \mathbb{P}\left(|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*| \geq \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n\alpha}}; \theta^*\right) \leq \alpha$$

$$\implies \mathbb{P}\left(\hat{\theta}_n - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n\alpha}} < \theta^* < \hat{\theta}_n + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n\alpha}}; \theta^*\right) \geq 1 - \alpha$$

This means the random interval  $(\hat{\theta}_n - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n\alpha}}, \hat{\theta}_n + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n\alpha}}; \theta^*)$  contains  $\theta^*$  with probability  $1 - \alpha$ . We can note that the interval decreases as n increases, and increases as  $\alpha$  decreases. N.B.  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is a random variable, while  $\theta^*$  is not.

**Example 7.3 -** Assymptotically Exact Confidence Interval when Flipping Coins This is an improvement on the bound produced in **Example 5.3**.

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(\theta^*)$  for some  $\theta^* \in [0, 1]$ ,  $W \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$  and define  $\hat{\theta}_n := \hat{\theta}_n(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . We shall show that

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*)}{\sqrt{\hat{\theta}_n(1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}} \to_{\mathcal{D}} W$$

We know that  $Var(X_1) = \theta^*(1 - \theta^*)$ .

By the Weak Law of Large Numbers  $\hat{\theta}_n \to_{\mathbb{P}} \theta^*$ .

By the Central Limit Theorem

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*)}{\sqrt{\hat{\theta}_n(1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}} \to_{\mathcal{D}} W$$

Define 
$$Y_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*)}{\sqrt{\theta^*(1 - \theta^*)}}$$
 and  $Z_n = \frac{\sqrt{\theta^*(1 - \theta^*)}}{\sqrt{\hat{\theta}_n(1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}}$ .

By the Continuous Mapping Theorem tells us that  $Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} 1$  and  $Z_n \to_{\mathbb{P}} 1$ . Hence, by Slutsky's Theorem

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*)}{\sqrt{\hat{\theta}_n(1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}} = Y_n Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} W$$

This gives us random interval

$$\left(\hat{\theta}_n - z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\theta}_n (1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}{n}}, \hat{\theta}_n + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\theta}_n (1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}{n}}\right)$$

This interval captures  $\theta^*$  asymptotically (in n) with probability  $1 - \alpha$ .  $N.B. \ z_{\alpha} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha)$  where  $\Phi$  is the cumulative denisty function of a Normal(0, 1).

### 1.8 The Fisher Information

### Remark 8.1 - Motivation

In the next part of the content we shall show that given  $\mathbf{X}_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta^*)$  then for sufficiently regular models

- i) There exists a lower bound on the achievable performance of any estimate of  $\theta^*$ .
- ii) A scaled & centered sequence of maximum likelihood estimators  $\{\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n)\}\$  become asymptotically normal as  $n \to \infty$ .

### Remark 8.2 - Measuring Performance of Estimator

We measure the performance of an estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  in terms of variance, since its mean should be  $\theta^*$ . Lower variance indicates better performance.

### **Definition 8.1 -** The Score Function

Let  $\ell(\theta; x) := \ln f(x; \theta)$ .

The Score Function is a measure of the sensitivity of the likelihood function wrt  $\theta$ 

$$\ell'(\theta;x) := \frac{d}{d\theta}\ell(\theta,x) = \frac{\frac{d}{d\theta}\ln f(x;\theta)}{\ln f(x;\theta)} = \frac{\ln L'(\theta;x)}{\ln L(\theta;x)}$$

## **Remark 8.3** - $\theta^*$ is a turning point of $\ell(\theta; x)$

Note that under the Fisher Information Regularity Conitions we have that  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$ 

$$\mathbb{E}(\ell'(\theta;X);\theta) = \int_{S} \frac{\frac{d}{d\theta}f(x;\theta)}{f(x;\theta)}f(x;\theta)dx$$

$$= \int_{S} \frac{d}{d\theta}f(x;\theta)dx$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{S} f(x;\theta)dx$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\theta}(1)$$

$$= 0$$

This shows that we expect the derivative to equal 0 at  $\theta^*$ . Further, this means  $\theta^*$  is a turning point of the log-likelihood function (hopefully a maximum).

### Example 8.1 - Application of Remark 6.3

Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta)$ . Then  $f_X(x;\theta) = \frac{\theta^x}{x!} e^{-\theta} \mathbb{1}\{x \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \ell(\theta; x) = -\theta + x \ln \theta - \ln x!$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \ell'(\theta; x) = -1 + \frac{x}{\theta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \qquad \mathbb{E}(\ell'(\theta; X); \theta) = -1 + \frac{\theta}{\theta}$$

$$= 0$$

### **Definition 8.2 -** Fisher Information Regularity Conditions

Let  $\Theta$  be an open interval in  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $f(x;\theta)$  be a pmf/pdf.

Below are conditions which a model is required to meet in order to be considered sufficiently regular such that *Fisher Information* can be drawn from it.

- i) Both  $L'(\theta;x) = \frac{d}{d\theta}f(x;\theta)$  and  $L''(\theta;x) = \frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}f(x;\theta)$  exist for any  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ .
- ii)  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$  the set  $S := \{x \in \mathcal{X} : f(x; \theta) > 0\}$  does not depend on  $\theta \in \Theta$ .
- iii) The idenity below exists

$$\int_{S} \frac{d}{d\theta} f(x;\theta) dx = \frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{S} f(x;\theta) dx = 0$$

### **Definition 8.3 -** Fisher Information

Fisher Information is a technique for measuring the amount of information that an observable random variable X carries about an unknown parameter  $\theta$  upon which the probability of X depends.

Let  $X \sim f(\dots; \theta)$ . Then the Fisher Information for any  $\theta \in \Theta$  is

$$I(\theta) := \mathbb{E}(\ell'(\theta; X)^2; \theta) \ge 0$$

N.B. This is the Expectation of the score, squared  $\equiv$  Second moment of the score.

### Remark 8.4 - Fisher Information

- i) Fisher Information is a function of the parameter,  $\theta$ , not the data, X.
- ii)  $I(\theta)$  can be thought of as being the average *information* brought by a single observation X about  $\theta$ , assuming  $X \sim f(\cdot; \theta)$ .
- iii) Since  $\forall \theta \in \Theta, \mathbb{E}(\ell'(\theta; X); \theta) = 0$  then

$$I(\theta) = \text{Var}(\ell'(\theta; X); \theta)$$

The variance of the score.

Example 8.2 - Fisher Information of Poisson

Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta)$ .

From **Example 6.1** we kown that  $\ell'(\theta; x) = -1 + \frac{x}{\theta}$ . Then

$$I(\theta) = \operatorname{Var}(\ell'(\theta; X); \theta)$$

$$= \operatorname{Var}\left(-1 + \frac{X}{\theta}; \theta\right)$$

$$= \operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{X}{\theta}; \theta\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta^2} \operatorname{Var}(X; \theta)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta^2}.\theta \text{ since } X \sim \operatorname{Poisson}(\theta)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta}$$

**Theorem 8.1 -** Alternative Expression of Fisher Information

Let  $f(x;\theta)$  be a pmf/pdf which statisfies the conditions of **Definition 6.2**. If

$$\forall \ \theta \in \Theta \quad \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} f(x;\theta) dx = \frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{d}{d\theta} f(x;\theta) dx$$

Then

$$I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\ell(\theta;X);\theta\right)$$

N.B.  $\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{d}{d\theta} f(x;\theta) dx = 0$  by the regularity conditions.

Proof 8.1 - Theorem 6.1

By the Quotient Rule

$$\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\ell(\theta;x) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \frac{\frac{d}{d\theta}f(x;\theta)}{f(x;\theta)} 
= \frac{\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}f(x;\theta)}{f(x;\theta)} - \left(\frac{\frac{d}{d\theta}f(x;\theta)}{f(x;\theta)}\right)^2$$

Consequently

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\ell(\theta;X);\theta\right) = \int_S \frac{\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}f(x;\theta)}{f(x;\theta)}f(x;\theta)dx - \int_S \left(\frac{\frac{d}{d\theta}f(x;\theta)}{f(x;\theta)}\right)^2 f(x;\theta)dx$$

$$= \int_S \frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}f(x;\theta)dx - \int_S \ell'(\theta;x)^2 f(x;\theta)dx$$

$$= 0 - \mathbb{E}(\ell'(\theta;X)^2;\theta)$$

$$= -I(\theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\ell(\theta;X);\theta\right)$$

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### 1.9 Efficiency and The Cramer-Rao Bound

**Definition 9.1 -** *IID Score Function* 

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta)$  for some  $\theta \in \Theta$ . Then the Score Function is

$$\ell'_n(\theta; \mathbf{x}) := \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell_n(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \text{ where } \ell_n(\theta; \mathbf{x}) := \ln f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(\theta; x_i)$$

N.B.  $\frac{d}{d\theta}l_n(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \sum \ell(\theta; x_i) = \sum \ell'(\theta; x_i)$ .

**Definition 9.2 -** *IID Fisher Information* 

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta)$  for some  $\theta \in \Theta$ . Then the Fisher Information is

$$I_n(\theta) := \mathbb{E}(l'_n(\theta; \mathbf{X})^2; \theta) = \operatorname{Var}(l'_n(\theta; \mathbf{X}); \theta)$$

**Theorem 9.1** - Relationship between IID Fisher Information & Fisher Information Consider the situation where  $\forall \theta \in \Theta, f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta)$ . Then

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta, I_n(\theta) = nI(\theta)$$

Proof 9.1 - Theorem 7.1

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta)$ . Then

$$I_{n}(\theta) = \operatorname{Var}(\ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{X}); \theta)$$

$$= \operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell'(\theta; X_{i}); \theta\right)$$

$$= n\operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell'(\theta; X_{1}); \theta\right)$$

$$\implies I_{n}(\theta) = nI(\theta)$$

Theorem 9.2 - Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality for Expectation

Let X & Y be real-valued random variables in the same probability space. Then

$$\mathbb{E}(XY)^2 \le \mathbb{E}(X^2)\mathbb{E}(Y^2)$$

**Proof 9.2** - *Theorem 7.2* 

If  $\mathbb{E}(Y^2) = 0$  then  $\mathbb{P}(Y = 0) = 1$  so  $\mathbb{E}(XY) = 0$  and the statement holds.

Thus, assume  $\mathbb{E}(Y^2) > 0$  and define  $\lambda := \frac{\mathbb{E}(XY)}{\mathbb{E}(Y^2)}$ . Then

$$0 \leq \mathbb{E}(X - \lambda Y)^{2})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(X^{2}) - 2\lambda \mathbb{E}(XY) + \lambda^{2} \mathbb{E}(Y^{2})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(X^{2}) - 2\frac{\mathbb{E}(XY)^{2}}{\mathbb{E}(Y^{2})} + \frac{\mathbb{E}(XY)^{2}}{\mathbb{E}(Y^{2})}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(X^{2}) - \frac{\mathbb{E}(XY)^{2}}{\mathbb{E}(Y^{2})}$$

$$\implies \mathbb{E}(XY)^{2} \leq \mathbb{E}(X^{2})\mathbb{E}(Y^{2})$$

**Theorem 9.3** - Covaraince Inequality

Let X and Y be real-valued random variables in the same probability space. Then

$$Cov(X, Y)^2 \le Var(X)Var(Y)$$

Proof 9.3 - Theorem 7.3

Let  $W = X - \mathbb{E}(X)$  and  $Z = Y - \mathbb{E}(Y)$  giving  $\mathbb{E}(WZ) = \text{Cov}(X,Y)$ ,  $\mathbb{E}(W^2) = \text{Var}(X)$  and  $\mathbb{E}(Z^2) = \text{Var}(Y)$ .

By applying the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality we get

$$\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)^2 = \mathbb{E}(WZ)^2 \le \mathbb{E}(W^2)\mathbb{E}(Z^2) = \operatorname{Var}(X)\operatorname{Var}(Y) \iff \operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)^2 \le \operatorname{Var}(X)\operatorname{Var}(Y)$$

### Remark 9.1 - Correlation value

The result in **Theorem 7.3** is the reason why correlation is valued in [-1, 1].

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$

Theorem 9.4 - Cramer-Rao Inequality - Scalar Parameter

Let  $\mathbf{X}_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta)$  and assume the Fisher Information Regularity Conditions hold. Let  $\hat{\theta}_n(\cdot)$  be an estimator of  $\theta$  with expectation  $m(\theta) := \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n); \theta)$  which statisfies

$$\forall \ \theta \in \Theta, \ \underbrace{\frac{d}{d\theta} \int \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{x}) f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) d\mathbf{x}}_{\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_n)} = \int \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{x}) \frac{d}{d\theta} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) d\mathbf{x}$$

Then

$$\forall \ \theta \in \Theta, \quad \operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}); \theta) \ge \frac{m'(\theta)^2}{nI(\theta)}$$

#### Proof 9.4 - Theorem 7.4

We notice that

$$m'(\theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n); \theta)$$
  
= 
$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{S^n} \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{x}_n) f_n(\mathbf{x}_n; \theta) d\mathbf{x}_n$$

The clever part of this proof is to observe that

$$Var(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n); \theta) nI(\theta) = Var(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n); \theta) Var(\ell_n(\theta; \mathbf{X}_n); \theta)$$

$$\geq Cov(\hat{\theta}_n(X_n), \ell'_n(\theta; \mathbf{X}_n); \theta)^2 \text{ by Covariance Inequality}$$

Thus

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\hat{\theta}_{n}(X_{n}), \ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{X}_{n}); \theta)^{2} = \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_{n}(X_{n})\ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{X}_{n}); \theta) - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_{n}(\mathbf{X}_{n}); \theta)\mathbb{E}(\ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{X}_{n}); \theta)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_{n}(X_{n})\ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{X}_{n}); \theta) - \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_{n}(\mathbf{X}_{n}); \theta) \times 0$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}_{n}(X_{n})\ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{X}_{n}); \theta)$$

$$= \int_{S^{n}} \hat{\theta}_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n})\ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{x}_{n})f_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \theta)d\mathbf{x}_{n}$$

$$= \int_{S^{n}} \hat{\theta}_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n})\frac{\frac{d}{d\theta}f_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \theta)}{f_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \theta)}f_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \theta)d\mathbf{x}_{n}$$

$$= \int_{S^{n}} \hat{\theta}_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n})\frac{d}{d\theta}f_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \theta)$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\theta}\int_{S^{n}} \hat{\theta}_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n})f_{n}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \theta)d\mathbf{x}_{n} \text{ by regularity assumption}$$

$$= m'(\theta)$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_{n}(X_{n}); \theta)nI(\theta) > m'(\theta)^{2}$$

**Proposition 9.1 -** Useful result from Cramer-Rao Inequality If  $\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n)$  is an unbiased estimator (i.e.  $m(\theta) = \theta$ ) then

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n); \theta) = MSE(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n); \theta) \ge \frac{1}{nI(\theta)}$$

This shows there is a lower bound on the possible performance of an estimator.

### **Definition 9.3 -** Efficient Estimator

An Estimator is said to be Efficient when its variance is equal to the Cramer-Rao lower bound  $\forall \theta^*$ .

### Example 9.1 - Efficient Coin Flipping

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$  with  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ , this corresponds to flipping a coin n times and considering each flip the random variable  $X:\{H,T\}\to\{0,1\}$  such that X(H)=1 and X(T)=0 with probability distribution such that  $\mathbb{P}(X=1;\theta)=\theta$  and  $\mathbb{P}(X=0;\theta)=1-\theta$ . We consider the intuitive estimator of  $\theta$ 

$$\hat{\theta}_n := \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

The estimator is unbiased  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  and its variance is

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n; \theta) = \frac{\operatorname{Var}(X_1; \theta)}{n} = \frac{\mathbb{E}(X_1^2; \theta) - \mathbb{E}(X_1; \theta)^2}{n} = \frac{\theta - \theta}{n} = \frac{\theta(1 - \theta)}{n}$$

Now we consider the Cramer-Rao bound

We find 
$$L(\theta; x) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x}$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \ell(\theta; x) = x \ln \theta + (1 - x) \ln(1 - \theta)$   
 $\Rightarrow \ell'(\theta; x) = \frac{x}{\theta} - \frac{1-x}{1-\theta}$   
 $\Rightarrow \ell''(\theta; x) = -\frac{x}{\theta^2} - \frac{1-x}{(1-\theta)^2}$ 

Thus we can use  $I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}(\ell''(\theta; X); \theta)$ 

$$\Rightarrow I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}\left(-\frac{X}{\theta^2} - \frac{1-X}{(1-\theta)^2}; \theta\right)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{X}{\theta^2} + \frac{1-X}{(1-\theta)^2}; \theta\right)$$

$$= \frac{\theta}{\theta^2} + \frac{1-\theta}{(1-\theta)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta} + \frac{1}{1-\theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)}$$

$$I_n(\theta) = nI(\theta) \text{ Since } X_1, X_2, \dots \text{ are iid}$$

The Cramer-Rao bound for the variance is

$$\frac{1}{nI(\theta)} = \frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{n}$$

Thus our estimator is efficient.

#### 1.10 Asymptotic Distribution of the Maximum Likelihood Estimator

Theorem 10.1 - Suppose that  $\mathbf{X}_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta^*)$  for some  $\theta^* \in \Theta$  and assume that

- i) The sequence of maximum likelihood estiamtors  $\{\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n)\}\$  is consistent;
- ii) The Fisher Information Regularity Conditions (**Definition 6.2**) hold and  $I(\theta^*) = -\mathbb{E}[\ell''(\theta; X); \theta] > 0$
- iii)  $\exists C(\cdot): \mathcal{X} \to [0,\infty)$  such that  $\mathbb{E}(C(X_1);\theta^*) < \infty, \ \Xi \subset \Theta$  an open set containing  $\theta^*$  and  $\Delta(\cdot):\Xi\to[0,\infty)$  continuous at 0 st  $\Delta(0)==0$ , st  $\forall \theta,\theta',x\in\Xi^2\times\mathcal{X}$ .

$$|\ell''(\theta;x) - \ell(\theta';x)| < C(x)\Delta(\theta - \theta')$$

Then  $\forall \theta^* \in \Theta$ 

$$\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}(\hat{\theta}n(\mathbf{X}_n) - \theta^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(:\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

#### Theorem 10.2 -

Under the conditions of **Theorem 8.1**, with  $\hat{\theta}_n := \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X})$  the maximum likelihood etimator

$$\ell'_n(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{X}) = \ell'_n(\theta^*; \mathbf{X}) + (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^8) \{ \ell''_n(\theta^*; \mathbf{X}) + R_n \}$$

where  $\frac{1}{n}R_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} 0$ .

### **Proof 10.1 -** *Theorem 8.1*

By **Theorem 8.2**  $\ell'_n(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{X}) = \ell'_n(\theta^*; \mathbf{X}) + (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^8) \{ \ell''_n(\theta^*; \mathbf{X}) + R_n \}$  where  $\frac{1}{n} R_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot; \theta^*)} 0$ .

Since  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is the maximum likelihood estimator & the Fisher Information Regularity Conditions hold, the score at  $\ell'(\hat{\theta}_n; X) = 0$ .

Hence,  $0 = \ell''(\hat{\theta}_n; X) = \ell'_n(\theta; X) + (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \{ \ell''(\theta; X) + R_n \}.$ 

Rearranging & rescalling by  $\sqrt{n}$  gives

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\ell'(\theta^*; X)}{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\{\ell''(\theta^*; X) + R_n} =: \frac{U_n}{V_n - \frac{R_n}{n}}$$

Recall that  $\ell'_n(\theta^*; X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ell'(\theta; X_i)$  and  $\ell''_n(\theta^*; X) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ell''(\theta^*; X_i)$ .

Since  $\mathbb{E}(\ell'(\theta^*; X_i); \theta^*) = 0$  and  $Var(\ell'(\theta^*; X_i); \theta^*) = I(\theta^*)$ 

 $\implies U_n \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} U \sim \text{Normal}(0, I(\theta^*))$  by the Central Limit Theorem.

We observed that  $V_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} I(\theta^*)$  by the Weak Law of Large Numbers since  $\mathbb{E}(-\ell''(\theta^*;X_i);\theta^*) = I(\theta^*)$ . It follows that  $V_n - \frac{1}{n}R_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} I(\theta^*)$  by Slutsky's Theorem.

Using Slutsky's Theorem again

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) = \frac{U_n}{V_n - \frac{1}{n}R_n} \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} \frac{\sqrt{I(\theta^*)}}{I(\theta^*)} Z \text{ where } Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

We can rewrite this as

$$\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

#### **Proof 10.2** - Theorem 8.2

This is an non-examinable, sketch proof of **Theorem 8.2**.

By the regularity conditions and the mean alue theorem

$$\frac{\ell'_n(\theta; \mathbf{x}) - \ell'_n(\theta^*; \mathbf{x})}{\theta - \theta^*} = \ell''_n(\tilde{\theta}; \mathbf{x})$$

for some  $\tilde{\theta} \in (\theta, \theta^*)$ . Hence, we deduce that

$$\ell'_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{x}) - \ell'_{n}(\theta^{*}; \mathbf{x}) = (\theta - \theta^{*})\ell''_{n}(\tilde{\theta}; \mathbf{x})$$

$$= (\theta - \theta^{*})\{\ell''_{n}(\theta^{*}; \mathbf{x}) + [\ell''_{n}(\tilde{\theta}; \mathbf{x}) - \ell_{n}(\theta^{*}; \mathbf{x})]\}$$

$$= (\theta - \theta^{*})\{\ell''_{n}(\theta; \mathbf{x}) + R_{n}(\theta, \theta^{*}, \mathbf{x})\}$$

Now we replace  $\theta$  with the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n := \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X})$ . We find

$$\ell'(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{X}) = \ell'_n(\theta^*; \mathbf{X}) + (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \{ \ell''_n(\theta^*; \mathbf{X}) + R_n(\hat{\theta}_n, \theta^*, \mathbf{x}) \}$$

and we need to analyse  $R_n$ .

Since  $\hat{\theta}_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} \theta^*$  we can take n large enough that  $\mathbb{P}(\hat{\theta}_n \in \Xi;\theta^*)$  with arbitrarily high probability.

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On the event  $\{\hat{\theta} \in \Xi\}$  and we have  $\{\tilde{\theta}_n \in \Xi\}$  since  $\tilde{\theta}_n \in (\hat{\theta}_n, \theta^*)$  and

$$|\frac{1}{n}R_n| = \frac{1}{n}|\ell_n''(\tilde{\theta}_n; \mathbf{X}) - \ell_n''(\theta^*; \mathbf{X})|$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\left|\sum_{i=1}^n \ell''(\tilde{\theta}_n; X_i) - \ell''(\theta^*; X_i)\right|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \left|\ell''(\tilde{\theta}_n; X_i) - \ell''(\theta^*; X_i)\right|$$

$$\leq \Delta(\tilde{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \left\{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n C(X_i)\right\}$$

from the smoothness condition on  $\ell''$ .

From the Weak Law of Large Numbers

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}C(X_{i})\to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^{*})}\mathbb{E}(C(X_{1});\theta^{*})<\infty$$

and from the consistency of  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$  and  $\{\tilde{\theta}_n\}$  and continuity of  $\Delta(\cdot)$  we have by the *Continuous Mapping Theorem* 

$$\Delta(\tilde{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} 0$$

Hence,  $\frac{1}{n}R_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} 0$ 

### **Definition 10.1 -** Asyptically Efficient

A sequence of estimators  $\{\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X})\}\$  is Asymptotically Efficient if either its mean-squared error converges to the Cramer-Rao Lower Bound

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta, \ n \text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}_n); \theta) \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} \frac{1}{I(\theta)}$$

or  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is Asumptotically Normally Distributed in the sense of **Theorem 8.1** 

$$\forall \ \theta \in \Theta, \ \sqrt{nI(\theta)}(\hat{\theta} - \theta) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta)} Z$$

N.B. The variance of  $\frac{Z}{\sqrt{(nI(theta^*)})}$  is exactly  $\frac{1}{nI(\theta)}$ .

#### Theorem 10.3 -

Under the conditions of **Theorem 8.1** the maximum likelihood estimator is asymptotically efficient.

### **Definition 10.2 -** Regular Statistical Model

Any Statistical Model which satisfies the condition of **Theorem 8.1** is a Regular Statistical Model.

#### Remark 10.1 - Why use MLE over others

Due to the Asymptotic Efficieny of maximum likelihood estimators it is beter to use them in Regular Statistical Models.

### 1.11 Confidence Sets Around the Maximum Likelihood Estimator

**Definition 11.1 -** Coverage of an Interval

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta)$ ,  $\theta \in \Theta = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $L(\cdot) : \mathcal{X}^n \to \Theta$  and  $U(\cdot) : \mathcal{X}^n \to \Theta$  where  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$ ,  $L(\mathbf{x}) < U(\mathbf{x})$ . Then,  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$  the coverage  $C_{\mathcal{I}}(\theta)$  of the random interval  $\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{X}) := [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  at  $\theta$  is

$$C_{\mathcal{I}}(\theta) := \mathbb{P}(\theta \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]; \theta) = \mathbb{P}(L(\mathbf{X}) \leq \theta \leq U(\mathbf{X}); \theta)$$

### Remark 11.1 - Coverage of an Interval in Words

 $C_{\mathcal{I}}(\theta)$  is the probability that the deterministic quantity  $\theta$  falls into the random interval  $\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{X})$  under the probability distribution  $\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta)$  wher  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot;\theta)$ .

### Remark 11.2 - Multi-Dimensional Coverage

We can extend *Coverage of an Interval* to the multi-dimensional case by considering confidence sets and then considering the probability  $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in \mathcal{I}(\mathbf{X}); \theta)$ .

### **Definition 11.2 -** Confidence Interval

 $\forall \ \alpha \in [0,1]$  we say that an inerval  $\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{X}) := [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  is a  $1-\alpha$  confidence interval if  $\forall \ \theta \in \Theta$  its coverage is at least  $1-\alpha$  or more formally  $\inf_{\theta \in \Theta} C_{\mathcal{I}}(\theta) \ge 1-\alpha$ .

### Remark 11.3 - Exact Confidence Interval

If  $C_{\mathcal{I}}(\theta) = 1 - \alpha \ \forall \ \theta \in \Theta$  then  $\mathcal{I}$  is an exact  $1 - \alpha$  confidence interval.

### **Definition 11.3 -** Observed Confidence Interval

For an interval  $\mathcal{I}(\cdot) = [L(\cdot), U(\cdot)]$  with  $L: \mathcal{X}^n \to \Theta$  and  $U: \mathcal{X}^n \to \Theta$ , and a realisation  $\mathbf{x}$ , the corresponding Observed Confidence Interval is  $\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{x})$ .

N.B. Nothing interesting can be said about the probability that  $\theta \in \mathcal{I}(\mathbf{x})$  since  $\theta$  and  $\mathcal{I}(\mathbf{x})$  are deterministic.

### Notation 11.1 - Quantile of Normal(0,1)

For any  $\beta \in (0,1)$  let  $z_{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that for  $Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$ ,  $1 - \Phi(z_{\beta}) = \mathbb{P}(Z > z_{\beta}) = \beta$ .

## Example 11.1 - Confidence interval for the mean of a Normal Distribution

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  for  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$  and wher  $\sigma^2$  is known.

Consider the estimator  $\hat{\mu}_n = \hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  of  $\mu$ . Then we know that the following non-asymptotic result holds.

We have  $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$ . Thus

$$\frac{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i} - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^{2}/n}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$

Then

$$\forall \alpha \in (0,1) \quad , \quad \mathbb{P}\left(z_{1-\alpha/2} \le \frac{\hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \le z_{\alpha/2}; \mu\right)$$

$$= \quad \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{\hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \le z_{\alpha/2}\right) - \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{\hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \le z_{1-\alpha/2}\right)$$

$$= \quad \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right) - \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)\right)$$

$$= \quad 1 - \alpha$$

By symmetry we notice that  $z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}} = -z_{\alpha}2$ .

By rearranging we have the equivalence of events

$$\left\{ -z_{\alpha/2} \le \frac{\hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \le z_{\alpha/2} \right\} = \left\{ \hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu \le \hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$

To rearrange we separate into two events & treat then separately

$$\left\{ \frac{\hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \le z_{\alpha/2} \right\} = \left\{ \frac{\hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X})}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} - z_{\alpha/2} \le \frac{\mu}{\sigma/sqrtn} \right\} \\
= \left\{ \mu \ge \hat{\mu}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} z_{\alpha/2} \right\}$$

Similarly

$$\left\{ -z_{\alpha/2} \le \frac{\hat{\mu}_n(X) - \mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \right\} = \left\{ \frac{\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \le \frac{\hat{\mu}_n(X)}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} + z_{\alpha/2} \right\} \\
= \left\{ \mu \le \hat{\mu}_n(X) + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$

So the interval  $\mathcal{I}(X) = [L(X), U(X)]$  where  $L(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  and  $U(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  is an  $1 - \alpha$  exact confidence interval.

**Remark 11.4** - Confidence Intervals with unknown  $\sigma^2$ 

When  $\sigma^2$  is unknown we can defined  $\{\hat{\sigma}_n^2\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  to be a consistent sequence of estimators of  $\sigma^2$  (e.g. the sample variance)

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

### 1.12 Asymptotic Approximation of Confidence Intervals

### Theorem 12.1 -

Assume  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta^*)$ . Let  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a consistent sequence of estimators of  $\theta^*$  and assume that  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$  is asymptotically normal in the sense that

$$\exists \sigma^2 > 0 \text{ st } \frac{\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \theta^*}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

Then  $\forall \alpha \in (0,1), \ \mathcal{I}_n(\mathbf{X}) - [L_n(\mathbf{X}), U_n(\mathbf{X})]$  is an asymptotically exact  $1 - \alpha$  condifence interval, where  $L_n(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{x}) - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  and  $U_n(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ .

**Proof 12.1** - Theorem 10.1

Let  $\{W_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be defined by  $W_n := \frac{\hat{\theta}_n(X) - \theta^*}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}}$ .

Since  $W_n \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$  we have

$$\mathbb{P}(-z_{\alpha/2} \le W_n \le z_{\alpha/2}) = F_{W_n}(z_{\alpha/2}) - F_{W_n}(-z_{\alpha/2})$$

$$\underset{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \Phi(z_{\alpha/2}) - \Phi(-z_{\alpha/2})$$

$$= 1 - \alpha$$

Similary to before we have the equivalence of events

$$\{-z_{\alpha/2} \le W_n \le z_{\alpha/2}\} = \left\{\hat{\theta}_n - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \theta^* \le \hat{\theta}_n + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right\}$$

So 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\hat{\theta}_n(X) - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \theta^* \le \hat{\theta}_n(X) + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}; \theta^*\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

### **Remark 12.1 -** Theorem 10.1

The confidence interval is only asymptotically exact. For finite n, the overage of the confidence interval will be different from  $1-\alpha$  but the difference will converge to 0 as n increases. In practice  $\sigma^2$  may be unknown, in these cases substitute for a consistent sequence of estimators of  $\sigma^2$ .

### Theorem 12.2 -

Assum  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta^*)$  let  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a consistent sequence of estimators of  $\theta^*$  and assume that  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$  is asymptotically normal in the sense that

$$\exists \sigma^2 > 0 \text{ st } \frac{\hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{X}) - \theta^*}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \to_{mathcalD(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

Assume also that  $\{\hat{\sigma}_n^2\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a consistent sequence of estimators of  $\sigma^2$ . Then  $\forall \alpha \in (0,1), \mathcal{I}_n(\mathbf{X}) =$  $[L_n(\mathbf{X}), U_n(\mathbf{X})]$  is an asymptotically exact  $1 - \alpha$  confidence interval, where  $L_n(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{x})$  $z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\mathbf{x})/n}$  and  $U_n(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}_n(\mathbf{x}) + z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\mathbf{x})/n}$ .

Proof 12.2 - Theorem 10.2 Define  $W_n := \frac{\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}_n^2(X)/n}} = \frac{\hat{\theta}_n(X) - \theta^*}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} - \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{\hat{\sigma}_n^2(X)}}$ .

By consistency of  $\{\hat{\sigma}_n^2\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and the Continuous Mapping Theorem

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{\hat{\sigma}_n^2(X)}} \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} 1$$

By Slutsky's Theorem

$$W_n \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot:\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

The rest of the proof is the same as for **Theorem 10.1**.

### **Remark 12.2 -** Theorem 10.2

For a given n the quality of the normal approximation will be affected by this additional approximation. One may find that for less accurate estimators of  $\sigma^2$ , the n required for the confidence interval to have almost the right coverage will be higher.

#### 1.13 Estimating the Information for Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Remark 13.1 - Applying Theorem 10.2 to sequences of MLEs for regular statistical models When dealing with Maximum Likeihood Estimators for regular statistical models we have that  $\sigma^2 = 1/I(\theta^*)$  thus

$$\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

However the Fisher Information is unknown so we consider two cases

- i) When the expectation,  $I(\theta^*) = -\mathbb{E}(\ell''(\theta^*; X_1); \theta^*)$ , can be calculated. In this case we replace  $\theta^*$  with  $\hat{\theta}_n$  in the equation.
- ii) When the expectation cannot be calcualted we invoke the Weak Law of Large Numbers and onsider the sequence of estimators,  $J_n(\theta_n) := -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell''(\theta_n; X_i)$ .

### **Theorem 13.1** - *Case i)*

Assume  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$  is a sequence of Maximum Likelihood Estimators at  $\hat{\theta}_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} \theta^*$  and I is a continuous function of  $\theta$ . Then  $I(\hat{\theta}_n) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} I(\theta^*)$ .

N.B. The proof of this follows directly from the Continuous Mapping Function.

#### **Remark 13.2 -** *Theorem 11.1*

It is only necessary for I to be continuous in the neighbourhood of  $\theta^*$ . This is due to an extension of the Continuous Mapping Theorem that states

If 
$$X_n \to_{\mathbb{P}} X$$
 and  $g$  is a function with discontinuity set  $D$  then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in D) = 0 \implies (X_n) \to_{\mathbb{P}} g(X)$ .

### **Theorem 13.2** - *Case ii)*

Assume that  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$  is a sequence of Maximum Likelihood Estimators st

i) 
$$\hat{\theta}_n \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} \theta^*;$$

ii) 
$$I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}(\ell''(\theta; X); \theta) \ \forall \ \theta \in \Theta$$

iii)  $\exists C : \mathcal{X} \to [0, \infty)$  st  $\mathbb{E}(C(X_1); \theta^*) < \infty$ ,  $\Xi \subset \Theta$  is an open set containing  $\theta^*$  and  $\Delta(\cdot) : \Xi \to [0, \infty)$  is continuous at 0 st  $\Delta(0) = 0$ , and st  $\forall \theta, \theta^*, x \in \Xi^2 \times \mathcal{X} \mid \ell''(\theta; x) - \ell''(\theta'; x) \mid \leq C(x)\Delta(\theta - \theta')$ 

Then

$$J_n(\hat{\theta}_n) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} I(\theta^*)$$

**Proof 13.1 -** *Theorem 11.2* 

Consider the following decomposition

$$J_{n}(\hat{\theta}) - I(\theta^{*}) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell''(\hat{\theta}_{n}; X_{i}) - I(\theta^{*})$$

$$= T_{1} + T_{2}$$
Where  $T_{1} = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell''(\hat{\theta}_{n}; X_{i}) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell''(\theta^{*}; X_{i})$ 
and  $T_{2} = -\left\{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell''(\theta^{*}; X_{i})\right\} - I(\theta^{*})$ 

Now the first term can be upper bounded as follows (for sufficiently large n, with arbitrary large probability the second inequality holds)

$$|T_1| = \left| -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell''(\hat{\theta}); X_i) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell''(\theta^*; X_i) \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \ell''(\hat{\theta}_n; X_i) - \ell''(\theta^*; X_i) \right|$$

$$\leq \Delta(\theta \theta_n - \theta^*) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n C(X_i)$$

By the Weak Law of Large Numbers

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} C(X_i) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} \mathbb{E}(C(X_1);\theta^*)$$

by the assumed consistency of  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and continuity of  $\Delta$  we have that

$$\Delta(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} 0$$

Consequently  $T_1 \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow}_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot; \theta^*)} 0$ .

By the Weak Law of Large Numbers we have

$$-\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\ell''(\theta^*; X_i) \longrightarrow_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot; \theta^*)} I(\theta^*)$$

$$\implies T_2 = -\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\ell''(\theta^*; X_i) - I(\theta^*) \longrightarrow_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot; \theta^*)} 0$$

Since  $T_1 \xrightarrow{n \to \infty}_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} 0$  and  $T_2 \xrightarrow{n \to \infty}_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} 0$  we deduce from the earlier decomposition that

$$J_n(\hat{\theta}_n) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} I(\theta^*)$$

Remark 13.3 - Summary

Whenever **Theorem 8.1** holds for a sequence of Maximum Likelihood Estimators

i.e. 
$$\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

we can replace  $I(\theta^*)$  with one of two options

- i)  $I(\hat{\theta}_n)$  whenever
  - (a)  $I(\theta)$  is continuous in a neighbourhood of  $\theta^*$ ; and,
  - (b) The interval  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  with  $L(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}_n z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{nI(\hat{\theta})n}$  and  $U(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}_n + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{nI(\hat{\theta})n}$  is an asymptotically exact  $1 \alpha$  confidence interval for  $\theta *$ .
- ii)  $J_n(\hat{\theta}_n) := -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell''(\hat{\theta}_n; X_i)$  whenever
  - (a) The assumptions of **Theorem 11.2** hold; and,
  - (b) The interval  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  with  $L(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}_n z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{nJ_n(\hat{\theta}_n)}$  and  $U(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\theta}_n + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{nJ_n(\hat{\theta}_n)}$  is an asymptotically exact  $1 \alpha$  confidence interval for  $\theta^*$

### Example 13.1 - Coin Flipping

Here the new results for this chapter are applied in order to simplfy methods used in previous examples when finding confidence intervals & upper bounds on  $\theta^*$ .

The sequence of estimators  $\hat{\theta}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  is consistent by the Weak Law of Large Numbers and the conditions for asymptotic normality hold  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$ . Hence

$$\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

We can compute the Fisher Information  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$ . We have

$$\ell'(\theta(x)) = \frac{x}{\theta} - \frac{1-x}{1-\theta}$$
and
$$\ell''(\theta; x) = -\frac{x}{\theta^2} - \frac{1-x}{(1-\theta)^2}$$

$$\Longrightarrow I(\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} + \frac{1}{1-\theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)}$$

In practice  $\theta^*$  is unknown so we replace  $I(\theta^*)$  with  $I(\hat{\theta}_n)$  to give the asymptotically exact confidence interval,  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  where

$$L(\mathbf{X}) = \hat{\theta}_n - z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\theta}_n (1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}{n}} \text{ and } U(\mathbf{X}) = \hat{\theta}_n + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\theta}_n (1 - \hat{\theta}_n)}{n}}$$

If we did not know how to computer  $I(\theta)$  we could instead compute

$$J_{n}(\hat{\theta}_{n}) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell''(\hat{\theta}_{n}; X_{i})$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ -\frac{X_{i}}{\hat{\theta}_{n}^{2}} - \frac{1 - X_{i}}{(1 - \hat{\theta}_{n})^{2}} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\hat{\theta}_{n}^{2}} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \right) + \frac{1}{(1 - \hat{\theta}_{n})^{2}} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\hat{\theta}_{n}}{\hat{\theta}_{n}^{2}} + \frac{1 - \hat{\theta}_{n}}{(1 - \hat{\theta}_{n})^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\hat{\theta}_{n}(1 - \hat{\theta}_{n})}$$

In this case  $J_n(\hat{\theta}_n) = I(\hat{\theta}_n)$ , this is not always true.

**Definition 13.1 -** Observed Fisher Information

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta^*)$  be a vector of n random variables.

The Observed FIsher Information at  $\theta$  is

$$nJ_n(\theta) = -\ell''(\theta; \mathbf{X}) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \ell''(\theta; X_i)$$

N.B.  $\mathbb{E}(J_n(\theta^*); \theta^*) = I(\theta^*)$  and that it differs from the Fisher Information (under the Fisher Information Regularity Conditions by not being an expectation.

#### 1.14 Transformations and Confidence Intervals

### **Definition 14.1 -** Wald Approach

The confidence intevals seen so far fit the Wald Approach.

If  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta^*)$  where  $\theta^* \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}$  then one can define a confidence interval for  $\theta^*$  using the asymptotic distribution of the *Maximum Likelihood Estimator* 

$$L(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\theta}_n - z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}$$
 and  $U(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\theta}_n + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}$ 

which ensures that as  $n \to \infty$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(\theta^* \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})] \to 1 - \alpha$ .

### Proposition 14.1 - Transformed Confidence Interval - Increasing

Let  $\tau := g(\theta)$  be a bijective, continously differentiable & increasing function.

This gives a direct transformation of  $[L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})]$  to  $[g(L(\mathbf{x})), g(U(\mathbf{x}))]$ .

i.e. 
$$\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n : L(\mathbf{x}) \le \theta^* \le U(\mathbf{x})\} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n : g(L(\mathbf{x})) \le \tau^* \le g(U(\mathbf{x}))\}$$

Consequently

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta^* \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]; \theta^*) = \mathbb{P}(\tau^* \in [g(L(\mathbf{X})), g(U(\mathbf{X}))] \\ \to 1 - \alpha \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

i.e.  $[g(L(\mathbf{X})), g(U(\mathbf{X}))]$  is an asymptotically exact  $1 - \alpha$  for  $\tau^*$ .

### Proposition 14.2 - Trasformed Confidence Interval - Decreasing

Let  $\tau := g(\theta)$  be a bijective, continously differentiable & decreasing function.

This gives a direct transformation of  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  to  $[g(U(\mathbf{X})), g(L(\mathbf{X}))]$  which is an asymptotically exact  $1 - \alpha$  confidence interval for  $\tau^*$ .

### Remark 14.1 - Deriving Reparametised Confidence Intervals

We can obtain a reparametised Confidence Interval by working with the reparameterised likelihood,  $\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x};\tau) := f(\mathbf{x};g^{-1}(\tau))$ . Now we can find  $\tilde{L}(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\tilde{U}(\mathbf{x})$  directly.

#### Theorem 14.1 -

Assume  $X \in f(\cdot; \theta)$  for  $\theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  and let  $\tau := g(\theta)$  where g is bijective & continuously differentiable.

The Fisher Infromatoin for the parameterisation  $\tilde{f}(x;\tau) := f(x;g^{-1}(\tau))$  is

$$\tilde{I}(\tau) = \frac{I(\theta)}{g'(\theta)^2}$$

#### **Proof 14.1 -** Theorem 12.1

Since  $\tilde{f}(x;\tau) = f(x;q^{-1}(\tau))$  the log-likelihood for tau is

$$\tilde{\ell}(\tau; x) = \ln \tilde{f}(x; \tau) = \ln f(x; g^{-1}(\tau))$$

The score is therefore

$$\tilde{\ell}'(\tau;x) = \frac{d}{d\tau} \ln f(x;g^{-1}(\tau))$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln f(x;g^{-1}(\tau)) \times \frac{d}{d\tau} g^{-1}(\tau)$$

$$= \ell'(g^{-1}(\tau);x) \times \frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(\tau))}$$

$$= \frac{\ell'(\theta;x)}{g'(\theta)}$$

No we use the definition of Fisher Information

$$\begin{split} \tilde{I}(\tau) &= & \mathbb{E}(\tilde{\ell}'(\tau;X)^2;\tau) \\ &= & \mathbb{E}\left(\frac{\ell'(\theta;X)^2}{g'(\theta)^2};\theta\right) \\ &= & \frac{1}{g'(\theta)^2}\mathbb{E}\left(\ell'(\theta;X)^2;\theta\right) \\ &= & \frac{I(\theta)}{g'(\theta)^2} \end{split}$$

### Remark 14.2 -

As a consequence, for regular statistical models

$$\sqrt{n\tilde{I}(\tau^*)}(\hat{\tau}_n - \tau^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\tau^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

is equivalent to

$$\sqrt{\frac{nI(\theta^*)}{g'(\theta^*)^2}}(\hat{\tau}_n - \tau^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

which leads to

$$\tilde{L}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\tau}_n - z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{g'(\theta^*)^2}{nI(\theta^*)}}$$

$$\tilde{U}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\tau}_n + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{g'(\theta^*)^2}{nI(\theta^*)}}$$

N.B. This is not necessarily the same Confidence Interval as obtained by transforming  $[L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})]$  directly.

### **Example 14.1** -

Consider  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, 1)$ .

We know that the Maximum Likelihood Estiamtor of  $\mu$  is  $\bar{X} \sim \text{Normal } (\mu, \frac{1}{n})$ .

A  $1 - \alpha$  Confidence Interval for  $\mu$  is

$$\left[\bar{X} - \frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + \frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{\sqrt{n}}\right]$$

Consider the parameterisation  $\tau = \frac{1}{\mu}$ . This corresponds to  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  which is bijective & continuously differentiable except at 0, and is decreasing.

Hence, a  $1 - \alpha$  exact Confidence Interval for  $\tau$  is

$$\left[\frac{1}{\bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2}/\sqrt{n}}, \frac{1}{\bar{X} - z_{\alpha/2}/\sqrt{n}}\right]$$

Consider the two ways to find an asymptotically  $1 - \alpha$  Exact Confidence Interval for  $\tau$ . After direct calculations we find that

$$\tilde{\ell}''(\tau;x) = -\frac{3}{\tau^4} + \frac{2x}{\tau^3}$$

So

$$\tilde{I}(\tau) := i\mathbb{E}(\tilde{\ell}''(\tau; X); \tau) = \frac{3}{\tau^3} - \frac{2}{\tau^4} = \frac{1}{\tau^4}$$

Noting that the Maximum Likelihood Estimator for  $\tau$  is  $1/\bar{X}$  we find that

$$\sqrt{\frac{n}{\tau^4}} \left( \frac{1}{\bar{X}} - \tau \right) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\tau)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

so an asymptotically exact  $1 - \alpha$  Confidence Interval is

$$\left[\frac{1}{\bar{X}} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\tau^2}{\sqrt{n}}, \frac{1}{\bar{X}} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\tau^2}{\sqrt{n}}\right]$$

Alternatively, instead of working out  $\tilde{I}(\tau)$  as above, we could use **Theorem 12.1** to find that

$$\tilde{I}(\tau) = \frac{I(\theta)}{g'(\theta)^2}, \quad \theta = g^{-1}(\tau) = \frac{1}{\tau}$$

Since  $I(\theta) = 1$  and  $g(\theta) = 1/\theta \implies g'(\theta) = -1/\theta^2 = -\tau^2$ , we have

$$\tilde{I}(\tau) = \frac{1}{(-1/\theta^2)^2} = \frac{1}{(-\tau^2)^2} = \frac{1}{\tau^4}$$

### Remark 14.3 - Example 12.1

- i) The transformed Confidence Interval is exact, which the second Confidence Interval is not since  $\sqrt{n/\tau^4} \left(\frac{1}{X} \tau\right)$  is not exactly normally distributed, but only asymptotically so.
- ii) The transformed Confidence Interval is not generally centred at  $\hat{\tau}$ .
- iii) This serves as an example that convergence in distribution says nothing about convergence of moments. In particular, you can derive that  $\frac{1}{\bar{X}}$  does not have a mean for any  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ .

### 1.15 Likelihood Ratio Confidence Sets - Wilk's Approach

### Remark 15.1 - Motivation

Consider a Wald Confidence Interval  $\mathcal{I}(\theta^*)$ .

It is possible for some  $\theta \notin \mathcal{I}(\theta^*)$  to have a greater likelihood interval than some  $\theta' \in \mathcal{I}(\theta^*)$ . It is possible  $\exists \theta \in \mathcal{I}(\theta^*)$  st  $L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = 0$ .

Wald Confidence Intervals are not invariant under reparameterisation.

These features of Wald Confidence Intervals motivate why we may wish to consider a different type of Confidence Interval.

### **Definition 15.1** - Likelihood Ratio

Define  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta^*)$  for some  $\theta^* \in \Theta$ , let  $\{\hat{\theta}_i\}$  be a sequence of consitent Maximum Likelihood Estimators of  $\theta^* \in \Theta$ .

Define  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$  the *Likelihood Ratio* 

$$\Lambda_n(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{L(\theta^*; \mathbf{x})}{L(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x})} \in [0, 1]$$

### Theorem 15.1 -

Define  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta^*)$  for some  $\theta^* \in \Theta$ , let  $\{\hat{\theta}_i\}$  be a sequence of consitent *Maximum Likelihood Estimators* of  $\theta^* \in \Theta$  and assume that the conditions of **Theorem 8.1** hold (implying asymptotic normality). Then

$$-2\ln\Lambda_n(\mathbf{X}_n) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z^2 \sim \chi_1^2$$

#### Remark 15.2 -

We observe that

$$-2\ln \Lambda_n(\mathbf{x}) = -2\left(\ell(\theta^*; \mathbf{x}) - \ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x})\right) = 2\left(\ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x}) - \ell(\theta^*; \mathbf{x})\right)$$

*i.e.* This is twie the difference of the log-likelihoods for  $\hat{\theta}_n$  and  $\theta^*$ .

### **Definition 15.2 -** Confidence Sets

Define  $\mathcal{X}_{1,\alpha}^2$  to be the number st  $\mathbb{P}(W \leq \chi_{1,\alpha}^2) = 1 - \alpha$  for  $W \sim \chi_1^2$ . The Confidence Sets

$$C(\mathbf{X}_n) := \left\{ \theta \in \Theta : 2 \left[ \ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{X}_n) - \ell(\theta; \mathbf{X}_n) \right] \le \chi_{1,\alpha}^2 \right\} \subseteq \Theta$$

are asymptotically exact  $1 - \alpha$  Confidence Sets for  $\theta^*$  since

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta^* \in C(\mathbf{X}_n; \theta^*)) = \mathbb{P}(-2 \ln \Lambda_n(\mathbf{X}_n) \le \chi_{1,\alpha}^2; \theta^*) \underset{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 1 - \alpha$$

### Remark 15.3 - Interpretting Confidence Sets

 $C(\mathbf{x}_n)$  contains the values  $\theta$  st  $\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}_n)$  is not too muuch less than  $\ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x}_n)$ . Hence, these confidence intervals contain those values of  $\theta$  with the greatest likelihood values.

### Remark 15.4 -

The cobserved confidence set  $C(\mathbf{x})$  is defined implicitly, and finding an explicit representation of such sets might not be easy This difficulty explains why Wald's Approach has been historically populat, despite its shortcomings. However, with the help of a computer, it is often easy to determine  $C(\mathbf{x})$  numerically.

### **Proof 15.1 -** *Theorem 13.1*

Consider the second order Taylor Expansion of  $\ell_n(\theta;x) = \ln f_n(x;\theta)$ 

$$\ell_n(\theta;x) = \ell_n(\theta_0;x) + (\theta - \theta_0)\ell'_n(\theta_0;x) + \frac{(\theta - \theta_0)^2}{2}\ell''_n(\bar{\theta};x) \text{ for some } \bar{\theta} \in [\theta,\theta_0]$$

Rearranging we find

$$\ell_n(\theta; x) - \ell_n(\theta_0; x) = (\theta - \theta_0)\ell'_n(\theta_0; x) + \frac{(\theta - \theta_0)^2}{2}\ell''_n(\bar{\theta}; x)$$

Take  $\theta = \theta^*$  and  $\theta_0 = \hat{\theta}_n$ . Since  $\ell'_n(\hat{\theta}_n; x) - \ell_n(\hat{\theta}_n; x)$  then

$$\ln \Lambda_n(x) = \ell_n(\theta^*; x) - \ell_n(\hat{\theta}_n; x)$$

$$= \frac{(\theta^* - \hat{\theta}_n)^2}{2} \ell_n''(\bar{\theta}_n; x) \text{ for some } \bar{\theta}_n \in [\theta^*, \hat{\theta}_n]$$

$$\implies -2 \ln \Lambda(x) = -(\theta^* \hat{\theta}_n)^2 \ell_n''(\bar{\theta}_n; x)$$

$$= -\left[\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}\right]^2 (\theta^* - \hat{\theta}_n)^2 \frac{1}{nI(\theta^*)} \ell_n''(\bar{\theta}_n; x)$$

Consider the random variable  $-2 \ln \Lambda(X)$ . Then we have

$$\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}(\hat{\theta}_n(X) - \theta^*) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z \sim \text{Normal}(0,1)$$

By the Continuous Mapping Theorem

$$\left[\sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}\right]^2(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*)^2 \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z^2$$

Since  $\bar{\theta}_n \in [\theta^*, \hat{\theta}_n]$ 

$$-\frac{1}{n}\ell_n''(\bar{\theta}_n;X) \to_{\mathbb{P}(\cdot;\theta^*)} I(\theta^*)$$

By Slutsky's Theorem

$$-2\ln\Lambda_n(X) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta^*)} Z^2 \sim \chi_1^2$$

### Remark 15.5 - A Rule of Thumb

Under the assumptions of **Theorem 13.1**, the set

$$\left\{\theta \in \Theta : \ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \ge \ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x}) - 2\right\}$$

is an asymptotically approximate 95% confidence set for  $\theta^*$ .

### **Proof 15.2 -** *Remark 13.1*

We have  $\chi^2_{0.05} = 3.84$ .

The result follows from the approximation  $1.92 \approx 2$ 

#### 1.16 Transformation Invariant Confidence Sets

### Remark 16.1 - Motivation

Here we investigate whether the likelihood ratio approach to determining confidence sets is invariant to transformations, in contrast to Wald's Approach.

Consider the reparameterisation of the likelihood in terms of  $\tau := g(\theta)$  where  $g: \Theta \to G$  is bijective. We have

$$\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x};\tau) := f(\mathbf{x};g^{-1}(\tau)) = f(\mathbf{x};\theta)$$

We can now define

$$C(\mathbf{x}) := \left\{ \theta \in \Theta : -2 \left[ \ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) - \ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x}) \right] \le \chi_{1, \alpha}^2 \right\} \text{ and } \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x}) := \left\{ \theta \in \Theta : -2 \left[ \tilde{\ell}(\theta; \mathbf{x}) - \tilde{\ell}(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x}) \right] \le \chi_{1, \alpha}^2 \right\}$$

We want to know whether  $\theta \in C(\mathbf{x}) \iff g(\theta \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x}) \ \forall \ \mathbf{x} \in \chi^n$ . i.e.  $C(\mathbf{x}) \& \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x})$  define the same sets up to reparameterisation.

### Theorem 16.1 -

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta^*)$ , C and  $\tilde{C}$  defined as in **Remark 14.1**.

Assume that  $g: \Theta \to G$  is bijective Then

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \chi^n \text{ and } \theta^* \in \Theta, \ \theta \in C(\mathbf{x}) \iff g(\theta \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x}))$$

Thus

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta^* \in C(\mathbf{X}); \theta^*) = \mathbb{P}(g(\theta^*) \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{X}); \tau = g(\theta^*))$$

### **Proof 16.1** - Theorem 14.1

Let  $\mathbf{x} \in \chi^n$  be arbitrary.

Everything rests on the observation that

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta, \ \ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \ln f(\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \ln f(\mathbf{x}; g(\theta)) = \tilde{\ell}(g(\theta; \mathbf{x}))$$

and similary

$$\forall \ \tau \in G, \ \tilde{\ell}(\tau; \mathbf{x}) = \ln \tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}; \tau) = \ln f(\mathbf{x}; g^{-1}(\tau)) = \ell(g^{-1}(\tau); \mathbf{x})$$

Note that  $g(\hat{\theta}_n)$  is the Maximum Likelihood Estimate of  $\tau$ .

Assume  $\theta \in C(\mathbf{x})$ . Then

$$-2\left[\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) - \ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x})\right] \le \chi_{1,\alpha}^2$$

Thus

$$-2\left[\tilde{\ell}(g(\theta); \mathbf{x}) - \tilde{\ell}(g(\hat{\theta}_n); \mathbf{x})\right] \le \chi_{1,\alpha}^2$$

Thus  $g(\theta \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x})$ .

So 
$$\theta \in C(\mathbf{x}) \implies g(\theta) \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x})$$
.

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Similarly, assume that  $g(\theta) \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x})$ . Thus

$$-2\left[\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) - \ell(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x})\right] \le \chi_{1,\alpha}^2$$

Thus  $\theta \in C(\mathbf{x})$ .

So 
$$\theta \in C(\mathbf{x}) \iff g(\theta) \in \tilde{X}(\mathbf{x})$$
.

For the last part, this correspondence implies that

$$\{\mathbf{x} \in \chi^n; \theta^* \in C(\mathbf{x})\} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \chi^2 : g(\theta^*) \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{x})\}$$

Thus, we can conclude from the equivalnce of the events

$$\{\theta^* \in C(\mathbf{X}) = \{g(\theta^*) \in \tilde{C}(\mathbf{X})\}\$$

### 2 Testing

### 2.1 Introduction to Hypothesis Tests

#### Remark 1.1 - Motivation

Hypothesis testing allows us to make decisions about a parameter, rather than just estimating a rangle of values.

### **Definition 1.1 -** Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis Testing is a process for deciding which of two competing hypotheses,  $H_0$  or  $H_1$ , is more consistent with an observation  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n) \sim f(\cdot; \theta)$ .

### Remark 1.2 - Difference to Statistics 1

In Statistics 1 we always had the null hypothesis be  $H_0 = \mu$ . Now we consider a more general case where

- i)  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta)$  where  $\theta \in \Theta$  is unknown.
- ii) We have an observation  $\mathbf{x}$  of  $\mathbf{X}$ ;
- iii) We have forumulate a null hypothesis concerning possible values of  $\theta$  (e.g.  $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$ )
- iv) We have an alternative hypothesis,  $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_1 = \Theta \backslash \Theta_0$ .

### **Definition 1.2** - Simple Hypothesis

A Simple Hypothesis is a hypothesis  $H_i$  of the form  $H_i: \theta = \theta_i$  where  $\theta_i$  is a specified value, equivalently  $H_i: \theta \in \Theta_i = \{\theta_i\}$ .

### **Definition 1.3 -** Composite Hypothesis

A Composite Hypothesis is a hypothesis  $H_i$  of the form  $H_i: \theta \in \Theta_i$  where  $\Theta_i$  is not a singleton. (i.e.  $|\Theta_i| > 1$ ).

### **Definition 1.4 -** One-Sided Test

Let  $\theta$  be a scalar &  $\theta_0 \in \Theta$  be a specified value.

A One-Sided Test is a hypothesis test of the form

$$H_0: \theta \leq \theta_0 \text{ and } H_1: \theta > \theta_0$$

or

$$H_0: \theta \geq \theta_0$$
 and  $H_1: \theta < \theta_0$ 

#### **Definition 1.5 -** Two-Sided Test

Let  $\theta$  be a scalar &  $\theta_0 \in \Theta$  be a specified value.

A Two-Sided Test is a hypothesis test of the form

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0 \text{ and } H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$$

#### **Definition 1.6** - Test Statistic

A *Test Statistic* is an operation on an observation which we use to determine the outcome of a hypothesis test. Using the distribution of specified *Test Statistic* we can determine the likelihood of see a certain observation under the null-hypothesis & thus the likelihood of the null-hypothesis being true.

*N.B.* A test statistic has the signature  $T: \chi^n \to \mathbb{R}$ .

### **Definition 1.7** - Critical Value

The Critical Value,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , is an explicit value which if the value of a test statistic T exceeds it  $(i.e.\ T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c)$  we reject the null-hypothesis.

### **Definition 1.8** - Critical Region

The Critical Region is the sets of observations which cause us to reject the null hypothesis.

$$R := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \chi^n : T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c \}$$

where T is a Test Statistic & c is a Critical Value. N.B.  $\chi^n = R \cup R^c$ .

### 2.2 Hypothesis Testing - Significance and Power

### **Definition 2.1** - Type I & Type II Error

Type I Error occurs when  $H_0$  is rejected, when in fact it is true.

Type II Error occurs where  $H_0$  is accepted, when in fact it is false.

Consider the table below

	Retain $H_0$	Reject $H_0$
$H_0$ is True	Correct	Type I Error
$H_1$ is True	Type II Error	Correct

#### **Definition 2.2 -** Significance Level

Significance Level is the rate at which we allow Type I Errors to occur

$$\alpha = \mathbb{P}(\text{Type I Error}) \in [0, 1]$$

Typically this is the level of inprobability at which we reject the null hypothesis. N.B. Common Significance Levels are  $\alpha = 0.05, 0.01$ .

### Example 2.1 - Testing the mean of a normal sample

Suppose that  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and we want ot test

$$H_0: \mu \leq 0 \text{ and } H_1: \mu > 0$$

We consider the test statistic  $T(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \bar{x}$  with critical region

$$R := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \chi^n : \bar{x} \ge c \} \text{ for } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

We want to find  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  st  $\mathbb{P}(X \in R; \mu \in \Theta_0) \leq \alpha \implies \mathbb{P}(\bar{x} \geq c; \mu \in \Theta_0) \leq \alpha)$ . We know that  $\bar{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, sigma^2/n)$ .

Hence 
$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$$
.

We have

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \geq c; \mu) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma} \geq \frac{(c - \mu)\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}; \mu\right) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}(c - \mu)}{\sigma}\right)$$

We want to ensure that

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \geq c; \mu \in \Theta_0) \leq \alpha$$

$$\iff 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}(c - \mu)}{\sigma}\right) \leq \alpha$$

$$\iff \frac{\sqrt{n}(c - \mu)}{\sigma} \geq \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha)$$

$$\iff c \geq \mu + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha)$$

Now observe that, for a fixed c; and considering  $\mu \leq 0$  and  $\mu \in \Theta_0$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge c; \mu \in \Theta_0) \le \mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge c; \mu = 0)$$

Thus we can esure that

$$\sup_{\mu \in \theta_0} \mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge c; \mu) = \alpha$$

by taking  $c = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \Phi^{-1} (1 - \alpha)$ .

### Remark 2.1 - Change in Critical Value

Critical Value, c, decreases as number of sample, n, increases.

Critical Value, c, increases as variance,  $\sigma$ , increases.

#### Remark 2.2 -

Significance Level,  $\alpha$ , is directly related to the phrase "statistical significance". Statistical Significance relates only to the Type I Error rate.

#### 2.2.1 Power

### **Definition 2.3 -** Power Function

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta^*)$ ,  $T(\cdot)$  be a test statistic & c be the critical value of T.

The power function,  $\pi(\cdot; T, c) : \Theta \to [0, 1]$ , is the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when the true value of the parameter is  $\theta \in \Theta$ .

$$\pi(\theta; T, c) := \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in R; \theta) = \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) > c; \theta)$$

#### Remark 2.3 -

For a given  $\theta \in \Theta_1$ , the probability of a Type II Error occurring is  $1 - \pi(\theta; T, c)$ .

#### Remark 2.4 -

- i) The power is non-increasing in c, regardless of whether  $\theta \in \Theta_0$  or  $\theta \in \Theta_1$ .
- ii) To make the probabiltiy of Type I Error tend to 0 we should make c very large so we rarely reject  $H_0$ .
- iii) If c is really large, we will rarely reject  $H_0$  even if  $\theta \in \Theta_1$ . Thus the *Power* is low and the probability of *Type II Error* is high.

#### Notation 2.1 -

When it is clear from context what test,  $T(\cdot)$ , and critical value, c, we are referring to then we may write  $\pi(\theta)$  in place of  $\pi(\theta; T, c)$ .

Example 2.2 - Testing the Mean of a Normal Sample - Continued

Suppose that  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and we want to test

$$H_0: \mu \leq 0 \text{ and } H_1: \mu > 0$$

We consider the test statistic  $T(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x}$  with critical region  $R = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n : \bar{x} \geq c\}$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

The Power Function of this test is

$$\pi(\mu; T, c) = \mathbb{P}(\bar{X} > c; \mu)$$

We have already derived that  $\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$ . Hence

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \geq c; \mu) &= \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \geq \frac{c - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) \\ &= \mathbb{P}\left(Z \geq \frac{c - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}; \mu\right) \\ &= 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{c - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) \\ &= \Phi\left(\frac{\mu - c}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) \end{split}$$

### **Definition 2.4** - Size of a Test

The size of a test is the greatest possible probability of making a Type I Error

$$\alpha = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \pi(\theta; T, c)$$

N.B. It is the maximium power under the null-hypothesis.

#### Remark 2.5 -

Generally we choose a critical value c so that the test has size  $\alpha$ .

#### **Definition 2.5 -** Significance Level of a Test

A test has level  $\alpha$  if its size is less than or equal to  $\alpha$ . The corresponding test is called a *Level*  $\alpha$  *Test*.

#### Definition 2.6 -

When  $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_0\}$  (i.e. simple) then  $\alpha = \pi(\theta_0; T, c)$  is the significan level.

### Definition 2.7 -

When  $\Theta_1 = \{\theta_1\}$  (i.e. simple) then  $10\pi(\theta_1; T, c)$  is the probability of Type II Error.

Example 2.3 - Testing the mean of a normal sample - Continued

Suppose that  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and that we want to test

$$H_0; \mu \leq 0 \text{ and } H_1: \mu > 0$$

We consider the test statistic  $T(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x}$  with critical region R.

A test of size  $\alpha$  is obtained by choosing

$$c = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}z_{\alpha}$$

So we consider the fact that  $c = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} z_{\alpha}$  and we obtain

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bar{X} \ge \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} z_{\alpha}; \mu\right) = 1 - \Phi\left(z_{\alpha} - \frac{\mu\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right)$$

This gives the power  $\forall \mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and we are interested in particular in it for  $\mu > 0$ .

### 2.3 Designing Tests - Neyman-Peason Approach

**Remark 3.1** - Plan for Testing at Significance Level,  $\alpha$ 

- i) Define a model  $f(\cdot; \theta)$  for  $\theta \in \Theta$
- ii) Define a null hypothesis  $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$  and an alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_1 = \Theta \setminus \Theta_1$
- iii) Define a test statistic  $T(\mathbf{x})$ .
- iv) Choose a critical value, c, st  $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \geq c; \theta) \leq \alpha$ .

N.B. The value of c is determined the value of  $\alpha$  (which we set).

Theorem 3.1 - Neyman-Pearson Lemma

Suppose we test  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  against  $H_1: \theta = \theta_1$  and use the Likelihodd Ratio Test Statistic

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_1)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0)} = \frac{L(\theta_1; \mathbf{x})}{L(\theta_0; \mathbf{x})}$$

Let hte Critical Value,  $c_{NP} \geq 0$ , be st the test has size  $\alpha$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(T_{NP} \ge c_{NP}; \theta_0) = \alpha$$

Then, this test is the most poweful level  $\alpha$  test.

i.e. Among all tests with level  $\alpha$ , this test maximises the power function.

### **Proof 3.1** - *Theorem 2.1*

Cibsuder for an arbitrary level  $\alpha$  test (T, c), the linear combination of Type I Errors and Type II Errors.

$$\phi(T,c) := c_{NP}\alpha(T,c) + \beta(T,c)$$

where  $\alpha(T,c) = \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \geq c;\theta_0) = \mathbb{P}(\text{Type I Error and } \beta(T,c) = \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) < c;\theta_1) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \geq c;\theta_1) = \mathbb{P}(\text{Type II Error.}$ Then

$$\phi(T,c) = c_{NP}\alpha(T,c) + \beta(T,c)$$

$$= c_{NP}\mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \ge c; \theta_0) + [1 - \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X}) \ge c; \theta_1)]$$

$$= \left[c_{NP} \int \mathbb{1}\{T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0) d\mathbf{x}\right] + \left[1 - \int \mathbb{1}\{T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) d\mathbf{x}\right]$$

$$= 1 + \int \mathbb{1}\{T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} \left[c_{NP} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0) - f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_1)\right] d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= 1 + \int \mathbb{1}\{T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} \left[c_{NP} - \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_1)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0)}\right] f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= 1 + \int \mathbb{1}\{T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} (c_{NP} - T_{NP}(\mathbf{x})) f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0) d\mathbf{x}$$

Now consider the difference

$$\phi(T, c) - \phi(T_{NP}, c_{NP}) = \int (\mathbb{1}\{T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} - \mathbb{1}\{T_{NP}(\mathbf{x})\} \ge c_{NP}\})(c_{NP} - T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}))f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0)d\mathbf{x}$$

We observe that

$$\mathbb{1}\{T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) \ge c_{NP}\} = 1 \iff c_{NP} - T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) \le 0$$

and

$$\mathbb{1}\{T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) \ge c_{NP}\} = 0 \iff c_{NP} - T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) > 0$$

Thus

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$$
,  $[\mathbb{1}\{T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} - \mathbb{1}\{T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) \ge c_{NP}\}](c_{NP} - T_{NP}(\mathbf{x})) \ge 0$ 

and hence as the integral of a non-negative function

$$\phi(T,c) - \phi(T_{NP},c_{NP}) \ge 0$$

We have established

$$0 \leq \phi(T,c) - \phi(T_{NP}, c_{NP}) = c_{NP}\alpha(T,c) + \beta(T,c) - c_{NP}\alpha(T_{NP}, c_{NP}) - \beta(T_{NP}, c_{NP}) = \underbrace{c_{NP}}_{>0}[\alpha(T,c) - \alpha(T_{NP}, c_{NP})] + \underbrace{\beta(T,c) - \beta(T_{NP}, c_{NP})}_{>0}$$

Since (T, c) specifides an  $\alpha$  level test, we know  $\alpha(T, c) \geq c$  while  $(T_{NP}, c_{NP})$  specifies a size  $\alpha$  test so  $\alpha(T_{NP}, c_{NP}) = \alpha$ .

It follows that

$$\alpha(T,c) - \alpha(T_{NP},c_{NP})$$

so we have

$$\beta(T,c) - \beta(T_{NP},c_{NP}) \ge 0$$

which means  $(T_{NP}, c_{NP})$ 's Type II Error rate is no higher than (T, c).

Since (T, c) is an arbitrary  $\alpha$  level test, we conclude that  $(T_{NP}, c_{NP})$  is the most powerful test with level  $\alpha$ .

#### Remark 3.2 - Neyman-Pearson with Non-Continuous Random Variable

If  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is not a continuous random variable, then it is possible that no such  $c_{NP}$  exists. In this situation we perform an appropriate randomised test, and this will also be the most powerful size  $\alpha$  test.

N.B. The detials of this are not covered in this course.

### **Definition 3.1 -** Neyman-Peason Procedure

For **Theorem 2.1** we can deduce the *Neyman-Peason Procedure* for testing two simple hypotheses

i) Choose the Likelihood Ratio as the Test Statistic

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_1)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0)} = \frac{L(\theta_1; \mathbf{x})}{L(\theta_0; \mathbf{x})}$$

ii) Choose a critical value c in order to target a particular significance level,  $\alpha$ , st

$$\alpha = \pi(\theta_0) = \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \ge c; \theta_0)$$

iii) Compute the *Power* 

$$\pi(\theta_1, T, c) = \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \ge c; \theta_1)$$

iv) Compute  $T(\mathbf{x})$  and report whether  $T(\mathbf{x}) \geq c$  as well as the power  $\pi(\theta_1, T, c)$  or the Type II Error rate  $1 - \pi(\theta_1, T, c)$ 

### Remark 3.3 - Limitations of Neyman-Pearson Approach

- i) Often just rejecting  $H_0$  or retaining  $H_0$  is not satisfactory, we may want more information.
- ii) It is not obvious how to calibrate a likelihood ration test (*i.e.* TO find the critical value or compute the power function).

# 2.4 Testing - p-Values, Equivalent Test Statistics and Computing the Power Function

#### Remark 4.1 - Motivation for p-Value

Many studies prefer not to select in advance just one significance level  $\alpha$ , or they may wish to reposrt something more informative than a binary decision. IN suc cases, they can report the p-value associated with the observed test statistic.

### **Definition 4.1 -** *p-Value*

Let  $\mathbf{X} \sim f_n(\cdot; \theta^*)$  for some  $\theta^* \in \Theta$ .

The *p-Value* for a test with test statistic  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is the probability of seeing a test statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  at least as extreme as  $T(\mathbf{x})$ .

$$p(\mathbf{x}) := \sup_{\theta_0 \in \Theta_0} \mathbb{P}(\underbrace{T(\mathbf{X})}_{\text{RV}} \ge \underbrace{T(\mathbf{x})}_{\text{Observed}}; \theta_0)$$

Equivalently,  $p(\mathbf{x})$  is the smallest significance level at which we would reject  $H_0$ .

### Remark 4.2 - p-Value Intuition

Intuitively, *p-value* is a measure of the eveidence against  $H_0$ . The smaller it is, the less likely it is that  $\mathbf{x}$  is a realisation of  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta_0)$ , resulting in strong evidence against  $H_0$ .

N.B. A large p-value is not evidence in favour of  $H_0$ , nor is it necessarily evidence in favour of  $H_1$  as  $H_1$  is not involved at all when comuting the p-value.

### Remark 4.3 - Standard Caution

 $p(\mathbf{x})$  is not the probability that  $H_0$  is true. It is the probability to observe the data we observed if  $\theta_0$  is true.

### Remark 4.4 - Distribution of p-Value

When using a simple null hypothesis  $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_0\}$  and assuming  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a continuous random variable when  $\mathbf{X} \sim f(\cdot; \theta_0)$ , the distribution of  $p(\mathbf{X})$  is in fact uniform under the null hypothesis.

### Example 4.1 - Normal

THe model is  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, 1)$  and we want to test  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0 < 0$  against  $H_1: \mu = \mu_1 > 0$ . The *p*-value for  $T(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i$  is

$$p(\mathbf{x}) := \sup_{\mu \in \Theta_0} \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \ge T(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x}; \mu\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \ge T(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x}; \mu\right)$$

A very large postive value of the empirical mean leads to a small p-value and is an indication of how unlikely it is to have observed  $\mathbf{x}$  if it was a realisation of  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu_0, 1)$ .

A large p-value is not an argument in favour of  $H_0$ , in fact it could suggest that  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is an unlikely realisation under  $H_0$ .

We have already calculate this kind of expression under the null hypothesis  $\bar{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_0, \frac{1}{n})$  so

$$\mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge c; \mu) = \mathbb{P}(\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu_0) \ge \sqrt{n}(c - \mu_0); \mu_0) 
= \mathbb{P}(Z \ge \sqrt{n}(c - \mu_0)) 
= 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{n}(c - \mu_0))$$

It follows that

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu_0))$$

### **Definition 4.2 -** Equivalent Statistics

A statistic  $T'(\mathbf{x})$  is equivalent to  $T(\mathbf{x})$  if  $\forall$  critical values  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  of  $T(\cdot)$  we can find  $c' \in \mathbb{R}$  we can find  $c' \in \mathbb{R}$  st  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n$ 

$$T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c \Longleftrightarrow T'(\mathbf{x}) \ge c'$$

Equivalently,  $\forall c \in \mathbb{R}$  there exist  $c' \in \mathbb{R}$  such that the corresponding critical regions of  $T(\cdot)$  and  $T'(\cdot)$  respectively conincide

$$\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n : T(\mathbf{x}) \ge c\} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}^n : T'(\mathbf{x}) \ge c'\}$$

### **Proposition 4.1 -** Proving Equivalence

To verify that  $T'(\mathbf{x})$  is an Equivalent Statistic to  $T(\mathbf{x})$  it is sufficient to factorise  $T(\mathbf{x})$  as

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = Mf(T'(\mathbf{x}))$$

where M is independent of  $\mathbf{x}$  and f is increasing & bijective.

### **Proof 4.1** - Proposition 4.1

$$T(\mathbf{x}) \le c \Leftrightarrow Mf(T'(\mathbf{x})) \ge c$$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(T'(\mathbf{x})) \ge \frac{c}{M}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow T'(\mathbf{x}) \le \underbrace{f^{-1}(c/M)}_{c'}$$

### Example 4.2 - Geometric Example

Let that  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Geometric}(p)$  so that  $f(x;p) = (1-p)^{x-1} p \mathbb{1}\{x \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$ . Suppose that we want to test  $H_0: p = p_0$  against  $H_1: p = p_1$  with  $p_0 > p_1$ .

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; p_1)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; p_0)} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; p_1)}{\prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; p_0)} = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_i; p_1)}{f(\mathbf{x}_i; p_0)}$$

So for  $x \in X$ 

$$\frac{f(x; p_1)}{f(x; p_0)} = \frac{(1-p_1)^{x-1}p_1}{(1-p_0)^{x-1}p_0} = \left(\frac{1-p_1}{1-p_0}\right)^x \left(\frac{1-p_1}{1-p_0}\right)^{-1} \left(\frac{p_1}{p_0}\right)$$

So

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0}\right)^{\sum x_i} \left(\frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0}\right)^{-n} \left(\frac{p_1}{p_0}\right)^n = \left(\frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0}\right)^{n\bar{x}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0}\right)^{-n} \left(\frac{p_1}{p_0}\right)^n}_{M}$$

Note that

$$p_0 > p_1 \implies 1 - p_0 < 1 - p_1 \implies \frac{1 - p_1}{1 - p_0} > 1$$

So  $\left(\frac{1-p_1}{1-p_0}\right)^{n\bar{x}}$  is increasing with  $\bar{x}$ .

It follows that  $T'(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x}$  is an equivalent test statistic to  $T_{NP}$ .

If  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Geometric}(p)$  then  $n\bar{x} \sim \text{Negative-Binomical}(n, p)$ .

Hence we can compute  $c_{NP}$  or compute the power function.

### Example 4.3 - Normal Example

The model is  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, 1)$  and we want to test  $H_0: \mu = 0$  against  $H_1: \mu = 1$ . The Neyman-Pearson Test Statistic is

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \mu = 1)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \mu = 0)}$$

$$= \frac{\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^n e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum(x_i - 1)^2}}{\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^n e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum(x_i - 0)^2}}$$

$$= e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\sum x_i^2 - 2\sum x_i + n - \sum x_i^2)}$$

$$= e^{-\frac{1}{2}(-2n\bar{x} + n)}$$

$$= e^{-\frac{n}{2}}$$

$$= e^{n\bar{x}}$$

Since  $T_{NP}$  is increasing in terms of  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\bar{x}$  is an equivalet test statistic to  $T_{NP}$ . To relate  $T_{NP} \ge c_{NP}$  with  $T(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x} \ge c$ .

We have

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) \geq c_{NP} \iff e^{n\bar{x}-\frac{n}{2}} \geq c_{NP}$$

$$\iff n\bar{x}-\frac{n}{2} \geq \ln c_{NP}$$

$$\iff \bar{x}-\frac{1}{2} \geq \frac{1}{n}\ln c_{NP}$$

$$\iff \bar{x} \geq \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{n}\ln c_{NP}}$$

So  $c_{NP} = e^{n(c - \frac{1}{n})}$ .

Now we can compute the power function.

We know that  $\bar{X} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \frac{1}{n})$  for  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ .

We find c by solving

$$\pi(\mu_0; T, c) = \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(\bar{X} \ge c; \mu_0) = \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}\left(Z \ge \frac{c-0}{1/\sqrt{n}}\right) = \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \Phi(c\sqrt{n}) = \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow \Phi(c\sqrt{n}) = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow c\sqrt{n} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha)$$

$$\Rightarrow c = \frac{\Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha)}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$= \frac{z_{\alpha}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Hence  $c_{NP} = e^{n\left(\frac{z_{\alpha}}{\sqrt{n}} - \frac{1}{2}\right)}$  We can also compute *Type II Error* probability

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 1 - \pi(1) & = & \mathbb{P}(\bar{X} < c; \mu = 1) \\ & = & \mathbb{P}\left(Z < \frac{c - 1}{1/\sqrt{n}}\right) \\ & = & \Phi(\sqrt{n}c - \sqrt{n}) \\ & = & \Phi(z_{\alpha} - \sqrt{n}) \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0 \end{array}$$

### 2.5 Uniformly Most Powerful Tests

**Definition 5.1 -** Uniformly Most Powerful Test

Consider a test involving composite hypothese  $H_0: \theta \leq \theta_0$  against  $H_1: \theta > \theta_0$ .

A Uniformly Most Powerful Test is a test (T,c) which has the largest power  $\pi(\theta;T,c)$  among all possible tests, uniformly in  $\theta \in \Theta_1$ . That is a (T,c) st  $\forall \theta \in \Theta_1$  and any test statistic (T',c')

$$\pi(\theta; T, c) \ge \pi(\theta; T', c')$$

#### Remark 5.1 -

The Type II Error Rate depends on a specific value of  $\theta \in \Theta_1$ . Typically, the Type II Error Rate is close to  $1 - \alpha$  for values of  $\theta \in \Theta_1$  "very close to being in "  $\Theta_0$ . i.e.  $\pi(\theta; T, c) \approx \alpha$  for  $\theta = \theta_0 + \varepsilon$  for  $\varepsilon$  very small.

#### Theorem 5.1 -

Let  $\Theta_1 = \{\theta : \theta > \theta_0\}$  for some  $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ .

Assume that for the simple hypothese

$$H'_0: \theta = \theta_1$$
 against  $H'_1: \theta = \theta_2$ 

The Neyman-Pearson Test Statistic

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_2)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_1)}$$

is equivalent to the same test statistic  $T(\mathbf{x})$  for any  $\theta_1 < \theta_2$  and  $T(\mathbf{x})$  does not depend on  $\theta_1$  or  $\theta_2$ .

Then  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is the uniformly most powerful test statistic for

$$H_0: \theta \leq \theta_0$$
 against  $H_1: \theta > \theta_0$ 

and the associated p-value is

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \ge T(\mathbf{x}); \theta_0)$$

### Example 5.1 - Poisson

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  for some  $\lambda > 0$  and we want to test  $H_0 : \lambda \leq \lambda_0$  against  $H_1 : \lambda > \lambda_0$ . Compute the *p*-value associated with this test.

Consider  $H_0: \lambda = \lambda_0 \& H_1: \lambda = \lambda_1$  where  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_0$ .

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{e^{-\lambda_1} \lambda_1^{x_i}(x_i!)^{-1}}{e^{-\lambda_0} \lambda_0^{x_i}(x_i!)^{-1}} \right) = e^{-n(\lambda_1 - \lambda_0)} \left( \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_0} \right)^{\sum x_i}$$

Since  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_0$  we have  $T_{NP}(\mathbf{x})$  is an increasing function in terms of  $\sum x_i$ .

So  $S_n := \sum x_i$  is an equivalent test statistic and does not depend on  $\lambda_0$  or  $\lambda_1$ .

Hence,  $S_n$  is a Uniformly Most Powerful Test. To find the p-value

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}(S_n(\mathbf{X}) \geq S_n(\mathbf{x}); \lambda_0)$$

We use  $\lambda_0$  in this scenario since it is the value which is most likely to produce extreme values, in general, for  $T(\mathbf{X})$ .

We know that  $S_n(\mathbf{X}) = \sum X_i \sim \text{Poisson}(n\lambda)$ . So

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k \ge S_n(\mathbf{x})} e^{-\lambda_0 n} (n\lambda_0)^k \frac{1}{k!}$$

Alternatively

If n is alreg  $S_n(\mathbf{X}) \simeq \text{Normal}(n\lambda, n\lambda)$ .

So

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \simeq \mathbb{P}\left(Z \ge \frac{S_n(\mathbf{x}) - n\lambda_0}{\sqrt{n\lambda_0}}\right) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{S_n(\mathbf{x}) - n\lambda_0}{\sqrt{n\lambda_0}}\right)$$

where  $Z \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$ .

### Example 5.2 - Geometric

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Geometric}(p)$  we have already shown that for two simple hypotheses  $\bar{X}$  is equivalent

to the likelihood ratio test statistic when  $p_0 > p_1$ .

It follows that  $T(\mathbf{x}) = S_n(\mathbf{x})$  is equivalent.

We have noticed that  $S_n(\mathbf{X}) \sim \text{NegBinomial}(n, p)$ .

We shall compute the p-value assocaited to hypotheses  $H_0: p \leq p_0$  against  $H_1: p > p_0$ .

From **Example 2.4.2** we have that for  $H'_0: p = p_0$  against  $H'_1: p = p_1$ 

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{p_1}{p_0}\right)^n \left(\frac{1-p_1}{1-p_0}\right)^{-n} \left(\frac{1-p_1}{1-p_0}\right)^{n\bar{x}}$$

For  $P_1 > p_0$  we see that  $T_{NP}$  is a decreasing function (since the last two terms are < 0) in terms of  $\sum X_i =: S_n$ .

Hence it is increasing in terms of  $T(\mathbf{x}) := -S_n(\mathbf{x})$ .

Since  $S_n$  is independent of  $p_0 \& p_1$  we have that  $-S_n$  is a *Unifromly Most Powerful Test*.

$$p$$
-value :=  $p(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{P}(-S_n(\mathbf{X}) \ge -S_n(\mathbf{x}); p_0) = \mathbb{P}(S_n(\mathbf{X}) \le S_n(\mathbf{x}); p_0)$ 

where  $S_n(\mathbf{X}) \sim \text{NegativeBinomial}(n, p_0)$ .

Remark 5.2 - Uniformly Most Powerful Tests need not exist

In general, Uniformly Most Powerful Tests need not exist.

It might be the case that  $(T_1, c_1)$  is best for, say,  $\theta_{1,1} \in \Theta_1$ .

i.e.  $\forall (T', c')$ 

$$\pi(\theta_{1,1}; T_1, c_1) \ge \pi(\theta_{1,1}; T', c')$$

but  $\exists (T_2, c_2)$  st

$$\pi(\theta_{1,2}; T_2, c_2) > \pi(\theta_{1,2}; T_1, c_1) \quad \theta_{1,2} \in \Theta_1$$

i.e.  $(T_2, c_2)$  is better than  $(T_1, c_1)$ .

#### 2.6 Generalised Likelihood Ratio Test

### Remark 6.1 - Generalised Tests

In the most general case we would like to test  $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$  against  $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_1$ .

There is no guarantee of the existence of an optimal test statistic.

#### **Proposition 6.1 -** Generalised Likelihood Ratio Test

We can generalie the likelihood ratio test for simple hypotheses from

$$T_{NP}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_1)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta_0)}$$

to

$$T_{\text{suggested}}(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_1} (f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta))}{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} (f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta))}$$

N.B. The generalised simple hypothese are  $\Theta_i = \{\theta_i\}$  for  $\theta_i \in \Theta$ .

### **Definition 6.1 -** Likelihood Ratio

We define a Likelihood Ratio

$$\Lambda_{n}(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_{0}} f_{n}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)}{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} f_{n}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)} \\
= \frac{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_{0}} f_{n}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)}{f_{n}(\mathbf{x}; \frac{\hat{\theta}_{n}}{\theta})} \\
= \min \left\{ \underbrace{1}_{\hat{\theta}_{n} \in \Theta_{0}}, \underbrace{\underbrace{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_{0}} f_{n}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)}_{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_{1}} f_{n}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)}}_{\hat{\theta}_{n} \notin \Theta_{0}} \right\}$$

#### Remark 6.2 - Likelihood Ratio

- i) The denominator corresponds to plugging in the *Maximum Likelihood Estimate* in the likelihood (assuming it exists and is unique).
- ii) The last equality follows from the fact that  $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) \ge \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ . if the inequality is strict then

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_1} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta) > \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$$

and if it is an equality then  $\Lambda_n(\mathbf{x}) = 1$ .

### **Definition 6.2 -** Nested Parameter Space

Let  $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  and define  $\phi = (\phi_1, \phi_2) : \Theta \to \Phi_1 \times \Phi_2$  to a continuously differentiable bijection with  $\Phi_1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^r$  and  $\Phi_2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d-r}$ .

 $\Theta_0$  is said to be *Nested* within  $\Theta$  if for some  $c \in \Phi_1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^r$ 

$$\Theta_0 = \{ \theta \in \Theta : \phi_1(\theta) = c \}$$

N.B.  $\dim(\Theta_0) = d - r$ .

### Example 6.1 - Nested Parameter Space

Suppose  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  then  $\mathbf{\Theta} = \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$ .

Suppose  $\phi_1(\mu, \sigma^2) = \mu \& \phi_2(\mu, \sigma^2) = \sigma^2$  then  $\Phi_1 = \mathbb{R} \& \Phi_2 = \mathbb{R}^+ \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

Then  $\Theta_0 := \{(\mu, \sigma^2) : \phi_1(\mu, \sigma^2) = 0\}$  is Nested in  $\Theta$ .

### Theorem 6.1 - Distribution of Test Statistics in Nested Parameter Spaces

Let  $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(\cdot; \theta)$  for  $\theta \in \Theta_0$  (i.e.  $H_0$  is true) where  $\Theta_0$  is nested in  $\Theta$ . Then

$$T_n(\mathbf{X}) = -2 \ln \Lambda_n(\mathbf{X}) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot;\theta)} W \sim \chi_r^2$$

with  $r = \dim(\Theta) - \dim(\Theta_0)$ .

N.B. The proof is not covered in this course but relies on the taulor expansion of the likelihood.

**Remark 6.3** - If value of the null hypothesis is fixed,  $H_0: \theta = 0$ , then  $dim(\Theta_0) = 0$ 

### Example 6.2 -

Let  $\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\lambda^*)$  for some  $\lambda^* > 0$ .

Consider the test

$$H_0: \lambda = \lambda_0$$
 against  $H_1: \lambda \neq \lambda_0$ 

Then

$$T_n(\mathbf{x}) = -2 \ln \left( \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \lambda_0)}{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \hat{\lambda}_n)} \right)$$
 where  $\hat{\lambda}_n$  is MLE of  $\lambda$   
=  $-2 \ln[\ell_n(\lambda; \mathbf{x}) - \ell_n(\hat{\lambda}_n; \mathbf{x})]$ 

We know

$$f_n(\mathbf{x}; \lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!} \text{ by independence}$$

$$\propto e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{n\bar{x}}$$

$$\implies \ell_n(\lambda; \mathbf{x}) = c - n\lambda + n\bar{x} \ln \lambda$$
Taking  $\ell'_n(\lambda; \mathbf{x}) = 0$ 

$$\implies -n + \frac{\bar{x}n}{\lambda} = 0$$

$$\implies \hat{\lambda} = \bar{x}$$

We confirm  $\hat{\lambda}$  is a Maximum Likelihood Estimate by showing  $\ell''_n(\bar{x};x) < 0$ . So

$$T_n(\mathbf{x}) = -2 \left[ -n(\lambda_0 - \hat{\lambda}_n) + n\bar{x} \ln \frac{\lambda_0}{\hat{\lambda}_n} \right]$$
$$= -2 \left[ -n(\lambda_0 - \bar{x}) + n\bar{x} \ln \frac{\lambda_0}{\bar{x}} \right]$$

We know that

$$T_n(\mathbf{X}) \sim \chi_{1-0}^2 = \chi_1^2 \text{ under } H_0$$

since  $\dim(\Theta) = 1$  and  $\dim(\Theta_0) = 0$ .

#### **Definition 6.3 -** Two Sided Test

A Two Sided Hypothesis Test is a hypothesis test where the alternative hypothese covers two separate regions of the parameter space. The general form is

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0$$
 against  $H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$ 

### Remark 6.4 - Connection to Confidence Intervals

Recall that a test of size approximately  $\alpha$  is obtained by retain  $H_0$  if

$$T_n(\mathbf{x}) = -2 \left[ \ell_n(\theta_0; \mathbf{x}) - \ell_n(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x}) \right] < \chi_{r,\alpha}^2$$

The values of  $\theta_0$  which lead to the retention of  $H_0$  are

$$C(\mathbf{x}) = \left\{ \theta : -2[\ell_n(\theta; \mathbf{x}) - \ell_n(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x})] < \chi_{r,\alpha}^2 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \theta : \ell_n(\theta; \mathbf{x}) > \ell_n(\hat{\theta}_n; \mathbf{x}) - \frac{1}{2}\chi_{r,\alpha}^2 \right\}$$

This is an asymptotically exact  $1 - \alpha$  confidence set for  $\theta$ .

#### Categorical Distributions and Pearson's $\chi^2$ Test 2.7

#### **Definition 7.1** - Categorical Distribution

Let Y be a random variable which takes one value from a finite set  $\{1,\ldots,m\}$  where each value represents a unique category.

Let  $p := (p_1, \ldots, p_m)$  be a vector where  $p_i = \mathbb{P}(Y = i)$  then

$$Y \sim \text{Categorical}(\mathbf{p})$$

N.B.  $\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i = 1$ ,  $p_i \in [0,1] \ \forall i \in [1,m]$  and p is a vector of m-1 free parameters.

**Remark 7.1** - Bernoulli(p)  $\sim Categorical(1-p,p)$ 

**Definition 7.2** - Counts Let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Categorical}(\mathbf{p})$ .

We define the random variable  $N_k$  to model the number of times k occurs in a realisation of  $Y_1,\ldots,Y_n$ .

$$N_k := \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{Y_i = k : i \in [1, n]\}$$

This definition gives rise to the random vector

$$\mathbf{X} := (N_1, \dots, N_m) \sim \text{Multinomial}(n, \mathbf{p})$$

with

$$\mathbb{P}(N_1 = n_1, \dots, N_m = n_m; \mathbf{p}) = \mathbb{1}\left\{\sum_{i=1}^m n_i = n\right\} \left\{\frac{n!}{\prod_{i=1}^m n_i}\right\} \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{n_i}$$

$$N.B. \mathbb{E}(N_i) = np_i \text{ and } Var(N_i) = np_i(1-p_i).$$

#### Generalised Likelihood Ratio Test Statistic

**Definition 7.3** - Simplex

TODO Expand this

 $S_m$  is a simplex of probability vectors of length m if

$$S_m := \left\{ (1, \dots, p_m) \in [0, 1]^m : \sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1 \right\}$$

**Proposition 7.1 -** Generalised Likelihood Ratio

$$\Lambda_n(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{p}_0)}{\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in S_m} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{p})}$$

**Theorem 7.1 -** Maximum Likelihood Estimate for Multinomial **p** 

Let  $\mathbf{X} = (N_1, \dots, N_m) \sim \text{Multinomial}(n, \mathbf{p}^*)$  for some  $\mathbf{p}^* \in \mathcal{S}_m$  and  $\mathbf{x} = (n_1, \dots, n_m)$  be a realisation of X.

The maximum likelihood estimate of  $\mathbf{p}^*$  is

$$\hat{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{x}) = (\hat{p}_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \hat{p}_m(\mathbf{x})) = \left(\frac{n_1}{n_1}, \dots, \frac{n_m}{n_m}\right)$$

**Proof 7.1 -** *Theorem 8.1* 

Note that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i = 1 \implies p_m = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} p_i$$

Hence there are only m-1 independent variables and

$$L(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}) = L(p_1, \dots, p_{m-1}; \mathbf{x})$$

$$\propto \prod_{j=1}^{m} p_j^{n_j}$$

$$= \left(\prod_{j=1}^{m-1} p_j^{n_j}\right) \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} p_i\right)^{n_m}$$

So

$$\ell(p_1, \dots, p_{m-1}; \mathbf{x}) = C + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} n_i \ln p_i\right) + n_m \ln \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} p_i\right)$$

Now for k = 1, ..., m - 1.

Setting 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p_k} \ell(p_1, \dots, p_{m-1}; \mathbf{x}) = \frac{n_k}{p_k} - \frac{n_m}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} p_i} = 0$$

$$\implies \frac{n_k}{p_k} = 0 \quad m_m \quad \forall \quad k \in [1, m]$$

$$= \frac{n_m}{n_m} = c \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1.$$

So  $\frac{n_1}{p_1} = \dots = \frac{n_m}{p_m} = c$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1$ .

$$\implies \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{n_i}{c} = 1 \implies \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i = c \implies n = c$$

Hence  $\frac{n_k}{p_k} = n \implies \hat{p}_j = \frac{n_k}{n} \ \forall \ k \in [1, m].$  In order to confirm that this is a maximum we will show that  $\ell(\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{x})$  is concave.

i.e. for  $\lambda \in [0,1]$   $\ell(\lambda \mathbf{p} + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{p}'; \mathbf{x}) \geq \lambda \ell(\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{x}) + (1-\lambda)\ell(\mathbf{p}'; \mathbf{x})$ .

$$\ell(\lambda \mathbf{p} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{p}'; \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i \ln(\lambda p_i + (1 - \lambda)p_i')$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i \left[\lambda_i \ln p_i + (1 - \lambda) \ln p_i'\right] \text{ since } \ln x \text{ is concave}$$

$$= \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{m} n_i \ln p_i + n_i (1 - \lambda) \ln p_i'$$

$$= \lambda \ell(\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{x}) + (1 - \lambda)\ell(\mathbf{p}'; \mathbf{x})$$

Thus concave.

It follows that

$$\Lambda_n(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_n(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{p}_0)}{\sup_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{S}_m} f_n(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{p})} = \prod_{i=1}^m \frac{p_{0,i}^{n_i}}{\hat{p}_i^{n_i}} = \prod_{i=1}^m \frac{p_{0,i}^{n_i}}{(n_i/n)^{n_i}}$$

so that

$$T_n(\mathbf{x}) = -2 \ln \Lambda_n(\mathbf{x}) = -2 \sum_{i=1}^m n_i \{ \ln p_{0,i} - \ln(n_i/n) \}$$

is the Generalised Likelihood Ratio test statistic. From the general theorem

$$T_n(\mathbf{x}) \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot; \mathbf{p}_0)} \chi_{m-1}^2$$

since  $\dim(\mathcal{S}_m) = m - 1$ .

Many people rewrite this statistic as

$$T_n(\mathbf{x}) = 2\sum_{j=1}^m o_j \ln\left(\frac{0_j}{e_j}\right)$$
$$= 2\sum_{j=1}^m n_j \ln\left(\frac{n_j/n}{p_{0,j}}\right)$$
$$= -2\sum_{j=1}^m n_j \ln\left(\frac{n_j}{np_{0,j}}\right)$$

where  $o_j = n_j$  is the observered number in category j and  $e_j = np_{0,j}$  is the expected number in category j.

### 2.7.2 Pearson's $\chi^2$ Test Statistic

**Definition 7.4** - Pearson's  $\chi^2$  Test Statistic

Let  $\mathbf{x} \sim \text{Categoritcal}(\mathbf{p})$  where  $\mathbf{p} := (p_0, \dots, p_m)$  and  $\mathbf{x}$  is a relisation of  $\mathbf{X}$ . We define *Pearson's*  $\chi^2$  *Test Statistic* as

$$T_{\text{Pearson}}(\mathbf{x}) := \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{(n_j - np_{0,j}^2)}{np_{0,j}} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{(o_j - e_j)^2}{e_j} \to_{\mathcal{D}(\cdot; \mathbf{p}_0)} \chi_{m-1}^2$$

where  $o_j$  is the number of observations of category j and  $e_j$  is the expected number of observations of category j.

## 0 Appendix

**Definition 0.1 -** Gradient

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x}) := \left( \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_n} \right)$$

**Definition 0.2** - Hessian

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x}) := \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_n \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_1 \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_n \theta_2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_n} & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_2 \theta_n} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_n^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

#### 0.1 Notation

Notation	Denotes
$Z_n \to_{\mathbb{P}} Z$	$\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges in <i>Probability</i> to random variable Z.
$Z_n \to_{\mathcal{D}} Z$	$\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges in <i>Distribution</i> to random variable Z.
$Z_n \to_{qm} Z$	$\{Z_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges in Quadratic Mean to random variable Z.
$\theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d_{\theta}}$	Scalar or vector parameter characterising a probability distribution
$\mid \hat{ heta} \mid$	Estimation for the value of the parameter $\theta$
$\theta^*$	True value of the paramter $\theta$
$  \mathbb{P}  $	Probability measure $\mathbb{P}: \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$
Ω	Sample space
X	Scalar random variable
$\mathcal{F}$	Sigma field (Set of events)
$\chi$	Support of rv XX. A set set X is definitely in it i.e. $\mathbb{P}(X \in \chi; \theta) = 1$
$\mathbf{X}$	Vector consiting of scalar random variables

### 0.2 R

Command	Result
hist(a)	Plots a histogram of the values in array a
mean(a)	Returns the mean value of array $a$
rbinom(s,n,p)	Samples $n$ of $Bi(n, p)$ random variables
rep(v,n)	Produces an array of size $n$ where each entry has value $v$
$x \leftarrow v$	Maps value $v$ to variable $x$

### 0.3 Probability Distributions

### **Definition 3.1 -** Binomial Distribution

Let X be a discrete random variable modelled by a *Binomial Distribution* with n events and rate of success p.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} p_X(k) & = & \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\ \mathbb{E}(X) np = & \& & Var(X) = np(1-p) \end{array}$$

### **Definition 3.2** - Gamma Distribution

Let T be a continuous randmo variable modelled by a Gamma Distribution with shape parameter

 $\alpha$  & scale parameter  $\lambda$ . Then

$$f_T(x) = \frac{\lambda^{\alpha} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\lambda x}}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$$
 for  $x > 0$   
 $\mathbb{E}(T) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda}$  &  $Var(T) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2}$ 

N.B.  $\alpha, \lambda > 0$ .

### **Definition 3.3 -** Exponential Distribution

Let T be a continuous random variable modelled by a *Exponential Distribution* with parameter  $\lambda$ . Then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} f_T(t) &=& \mathbb{1}\{t \geq 0\}.\lambda e^{-\lambda t} \\ F_T(t) &=& \mathbb{1}\{t \geq 0\}.\left(1 - e^{-\lambda t}\right) \\ \mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda} & \& & Var(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \end{array}$$

N.B. Exponential Distribution is used to model the wait time between decays of a radioactive source.

### **Definition 3.4 -** Normal Distribution

Let X be a continuous random variable modelled by a Normal Distribution with mean  $\mu$  & variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Then

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dy$$

$$M_X(\theta) = e^{\mu\theta + \sigma^2\theta^2(1/2)}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \mu \quad \& \quad Var(X) = \sigma^2$$

### **Definition 3.5 -** Poisson Distribution

Let X be a discrete random variable modelled by a Poisson Distribution with parameter  $\lambda$ . Then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} p_X(k) & = & \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^k}{k!} & \text{For } k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \\ \mathbb{E}(X) = \lambda & \& & Var(X) = \lambda \end{array}$$

N.B. Poisson Distribution is used to model the number of radioactive decays in a time period.