

Chapter 3

Inferential Statistics

Inferential Statistics

- **Informal aim:** draw inferences about the **population** on the basis of the **sample** information.
- The conclusions/inferences can be incorrect. To minimize the probability of incorrect decisions we use the methods of probability theory.
- **Formal aim:** statements about the characteristics of the attribute X (random variable or random vector)
- All relevant information about X can be recovered from the distribution function F of X , i.e. $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$, since all necessary probabilities can be computed using $F(x)$.

Example:

- Delivery of 1000 pieces of a particular product; M pieces are defective
- M is unknown
- Random selection of $n = 30$ pieces („sample“)

The sample contains 2 defective

Possible aims:

- Estimate M (e.g. $\frac{2}{30} \cdot 1000 = 66.67$)
- Estimate an interval for M (e.g. $M \in [58; 84]$ with prob. of 95%)
- Test hypothesis that $M > 50$.

Step 1: fixing the family of distributions

Problem: The distribution function F of the variable of interest X is unknown in general.

- We have some preliminary information about F and use it to choose the family of potential distributions.
- The family of distributions \mathcal{F} is indexed by the **parameter** ϑ , i.e. $X \sim F_{\vartheta}$, $\vartheta \in \Theta$, where Θ is the **set of parameter values**.
- Thus $\mathcal{F} = \{F_{\vartheta} : \vartheta \in \Theta\}$.

Examples:

- Let X be the quality of produced bulbs (1 functioning, 0 defective).
 - Then $X \sim B(1, p)$ with $p = P(X = 1)$.
 - It holds $\vartheta = p$, $\Theta = (0, 1)$ and $\mathcal{F} = \{B(1, p) : p \in (0, 1)\}$.
- Let X be the body height. Many studies have shown that the body height is approximately normally distributed.
 - It holds $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$.
 - Thus $\vartheta = (\mu, \sigma)$ and $\Theta = \mathbb{R} \times (0, \infty)$.

If $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^k$, then we speak about a **parametric family of distributions**.

Note:

- If X is a discrete RV, then the true distribution function is usually contained in the family (for example, the Bernoulli distribution)
- If X is a continuous random variable, then the true distribution function is, in general, not contained in the family.
 - The family is used as an approximation.
 - The choice of the family follows from the analysis of the histogram.
 - The choice should be statistically justified. Exact procedures: *goodness-of-fit tests* (later).

Example: The asset returns are frequently assumed to follow the normal distribution, i.e. $\mathcal{F} = \{N(\mu, \sigma^2)\}$. But if the returns are in fact t -distributed, then the family does not contain the correct distribution.

Step 2: draw a sample

- To make statements about the parameter ϑ or the distribution function F , we run random experiments.
- We draw from the population samples of size n . This leads to the **sample** x_1, \dots, x_n .
- **Method:** x_1, \dots, x_n are seen as realizations of random variables X_1, \dots, X_n which are called **sample variables**.
- It is usually assumed that X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and follow the same distribution as X (**identically distributed**).

Example:

- Pick up a sample of delivered products and control the quality. The sample is, e.g. 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0,
- Pick up a sample students and measure the height. The sample is, e.g. 1.65, 1.86, 1.73, 1.91,

Step 3: Disciplines of the inferential statistics

a) Parameter estimation (point estimation)

Aim: Using the sample data we determine an estimator (value) for the unknown parameter ϑ

Example:

- estimate the fraction of the voters, who voted for a particular party, using an exit-poll
- expected lifetime of a particular product by running a selective quality control

b) Confidence intervals (interval estimation)

We determine the interval, where the true (but unknown) parameter lies with high probability.

Example: an interval, which contains the true fraction of voters who voted for a particular party and where this true fraction lies with probability of 95%.

c) Testing hypotheses

Would the party A reach (at least, at most) 20 % of votes, i. e. does it hold that $p \geq 0.20$ or $p \leq 0.20$?

Parameter estimation

Assumptions: Let $X \sim F_{\vartheta}$, x_1, \dots, x_n is a sample and X_1, \dots, X_n are sample variables.

- By **test statistics** we denote a (measurable) function, which depends only on the sample variables X_1, \dots, X_n .
- A test statistics $g(X_1, \dots, X_n)$, which is used to estimate the parameter ϑ , is called the **estimation function** or shortly the **estimator** of ϑ .
- $g(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the **estimate** of ϑ .

Notation: we denote the estimator/estimate of ϑ by $\hat{\vartheta}$.

Examples:

- Expectation $E(X)$
 - $E(X) = \sum_i x_i P(X = x_i)$ or $E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$
- Since a-priori each value has the same probability, we obtain the estimator by replacing $P(X = i)$ with $1/n$.

Estimator for $E(X)$

Estimator: $\hat{\vartheta} = \bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

Estimate: sample mean $\hat{\vartheta} = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$

- Variance
 - $Var(X) = \sum_i (x_i - E(X))^2 P(X = x_i)$ or
$$Var(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E(X))^2 f(x) dx$$

Estimator for $Var(X)$

Estimator: $\hat{\vartheta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$

Estimate: empirical variance $\hat{\vartheta} = \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$

Examples:

- Distribution function F : the **empirical distribution function** is an estimate/or for F .
- Density or probability function f : the **histogram** is an estimate/or of f .

We have a link between the characteristics of a data set (compare descriptive statistics) and the characteristics of a distribution function. The characteristics of a data set are estimators of the corresponding characteristics of the distribution function!!!

Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation

Given:

- A random sample (x_1, \dots, x_n)
- **Likelihood function** $L_{\vartheta}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$: the joint density function $f(x_1, \dots, x_n | \vartheta)$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n | \vartheta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{\vartheta}(x_i) = L_{\vartheta}(\underline{x})$$

If X is a discrete RV, then $L_{\vartheta}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the probability that we observe the particular sample assuming that the underlying parameter equals ϑ .

Typical ML-estimation

- ① Write down the likelihood function : $L_{\vartheta}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- ② Take logs (optional): $\ln L_{\vartheta}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- ③ Take derivatives: $\frac{\partial}{\partial \vartheta} [\ln] L_{\vartheta}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \stackrel{!}{=} 0$
- ④ (usually there are many parameters!)

Example: Bernoulli distribution

Success of a therapy: $X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if successful} \\ 0 & \text{if not} \end{cases} \sim B(1, p), p \in (0, 1)$

The sample variables X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and $X_i \sim B(1, p)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Since $P_p(X_i = x_i) = f_i(x_i) = p^{x_i}(1-p)^{1-x_i}$ für $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$ it holds that

$$\begin{aligned} L_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i} \\ &= p^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} (1-p)^{\sum_{i=1}^n (1-x_i)} = p^{n\bar{x}} (1-p)^{n-n\bar{x}} \end{aligned}$$

Taking logarithm yields

$$\ln L_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = n\bar{x} \ln p + (n - n\bar{x}) \ln(1-p)$$

Maximum:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \ln L_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{n \bar{x}}{p} - \frac{n(1 - \bar{x})}{(1 - p)} \stackrel{!}{=} 0.$$

We obtain $\hat{p} = \bar{x}$.

Since

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial p^2} \ln L_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = -\frac{n \bar{x}}{p^2} - \frac{n(1 - \bar{x})}{(1 - p)^2} < 0$$

the ML estimator for p is $\hat{\Theta} = \bar{X}$.

Example: Exponential distribution

Let $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then

$$L_\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda \exp(-\lambda x_i) = \lambda^n \exp(-\lambda n \bar{x}),$$

$$\ln L_\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) = n \ln \lambda - n \lambda \bar{x}.$$

The solution is

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda} (\ln L_\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n)) = n/\lambda - n \bar{x} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

leading to $\hat{\lambda} = 1/\bar{x}$.

ML-estimators

Distribution	ϑ	ML-estimates
$B(1; p)$	$p (= \mu)$	X
$\text{Exp}(\lambda)$	λ	$\frac{1}{\bar{X}}$
$P(\lambda)$	$\lambda (= \mu = \sigma^2)$	\bar{X}
$N(\mu; \sigma^2)$	μ	\bar{X}
$N(\mu; \sigma^2)$	σ^2	$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$
$N_k(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$	$\boldsymbol{\mu}$	$\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{1}$
$N_k(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$	$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$	$\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{I} - \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}') \mathbf{X}'$

Bayes estimation

Idea: the true parameters are unknown and thus can be treated as realisations of some random variables.

- Given:
 - A random sample (x_1, \dots, x_n)
 - Joint density (Likelihood function) $f(x_1, \dots, x_n|\vartheta)$
 - Prior information about ϑ (assessment of the analyst) in form of a **priori density** $\varphi(\vartheta)$
- a **posteriori density** $\psi(\vartheta|x_1, \dots, x_n)$

Recall the Bayes formula

$$P(A_j|B) = \frac{P(B|A_j) \cdot P(A_j)}{\sum_i P(B|A_i) \cdot P(A_i)}$$

with

$$\begin{array}{lll} P(A_j|B) & \text{replaced by} & \psi(\vartheta|x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ P(B|A_j) & \text{replaced by} & f(x_1, \dots, x_n|\vartheta) \\ P(A_j) & \text{replaced by} & \varphi(\vartheta) \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(\vartheta|x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_n|\vartheta_i) \cdot \varphi(\vartheta_i)}{\sum_j f(x_1, \dots, x_n|\vartheta_j) \cdot \varphi(\vartheta_j)} & \text{discrete case} \\ \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_n|\vartheta) \cdot \varphi(\vartheta)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, \dots, x_n|\vartheta) \cdot \varphi(\vartheta) \, d\vartheta} & \text{continuous case} \end{cases}$$

Bayes-estimation

- ① fix the a priori density: $\varphi(\vartheta)$
- ② Build the joint density : $f(x_1, \dots, x_n | \vartheta)$
- ③ determine the posteriori density : $\psi(\vartheta | x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- ④ For example, determine the location parameters of the posterior density
 - median,
 - mean, etc.

What is a “good” estimator?

Idea 1: the estimator should be close (?) to the true value.

- **Bias:** should be small (if zero \rightsquigarrow unbiased)

$$Bias(\hat{\vartheta}) = E(\hat{\vartheta}) - \vartheta$$

- **Variance:** should be small \rightsquigarrow efficiency

$$Var(\hat{\vartheta}) = E[\hat{\vartheta} - E(\hat{\vartheta})]^2$$

- **MSE - mean-squared error:** trade-off between bias and variance

$$MSE(\hat{\vartheta}) = [Bias(\hat{\vartheta})]^2 + Var(\hat{\vartheta})$$

Example:

Are

$$\hat{\Theta} = \bar{X}_n, \quad \hat{\Theta}' = \frac{X_1 + X_n}{2}, \quad \hat{\Theta}'' = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

unbiased for $E(X_i) = \mu$?

- $E(\hat{\Theta}) = E(\bar{X}_n) = \mu$
 \Rightarrow unbiased
- $E(\hat{\Theta}') = E\left(\frac{X_1 + X_n}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}[E(X_1) + E(X_n)] = \frac{1}{2}(\mu + \mu) = \mu$
 \Rightarrow unbiased
- $E(\hat{\Theta}'') = E\left(\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu =$
 $\frac{n}{n-1} \cdot \mu \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu$
 \Rightarrow asymptotically unbiased.

Which estimator better?

Efficiency

- Let $\hat{\Theta}$ be $\hat{\Theta}'$ two unbiased estimators of θ . Then $\hat{\Theta}$ is **more efficient** than $\hat{\Theta}'$, if independently of the numeric value of θ it holds:

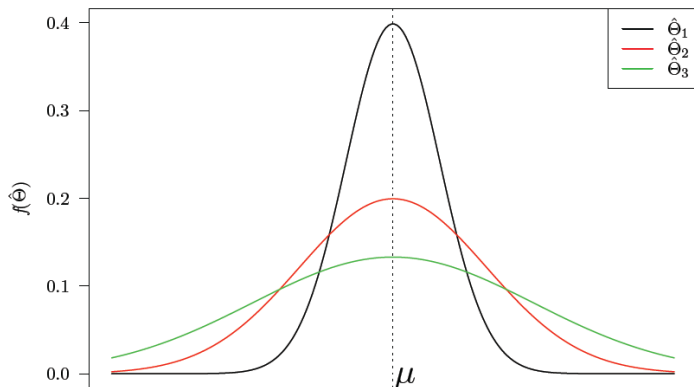
$$Var(\hat{\Theta}) < Var(\hat{\Theta}')$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} Var(\hat{\Theta}) = Var(\bar{X}) &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} < \\ < Var(\hat{\Theta}') &= Var\left(\frac{X_1 + X_n}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{4}(\sigma^2 + \sigma^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \end{aligned}$$

(if $n > 2$) $\hat{\Theta}$ is more efficient than $\hat{\Theta}'$.

An unbiased estimator with the smallest possible variance (within a particular model) is called **the most efficient estimator**.



Idea 2: what happens to the estimator if the sample size increases?

A sequence of estimators $\hat{\vartheta}_n$

$$\hat{\Theta}_1 = g_1(X_1)$$

$$\hat{\Theta}_2 = g_2(X_1, X_2)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\hat{\Theta}_n = g_n(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

is **consistent** for θ , if for all $c > 0$ it holds:

$$P(|\hat{\Theta}_n - \theta| \geq c) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

Convergence in probability

A sequence of RV's z_n converges **in probability** to a constant c if for all $\varepsilon > 0$

$$P(|z_n - c| > \varepsilon) \longrightarrow 0, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

We write $z_n \xrightarrow{p} z$ and say that c is the probability limit of z_n , i.e. $p \lim z_n = c$.

Thus an estimator is **consistent** if

$$p \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\vartheta} = \vartheta$$

The weak law of large numbers

- ① Tschebyscheff inequality

$$P(|X - E(X)| \geq c) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{c^2}$$

- ② applying to $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ results in

$$P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \geq c) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n \cdot c^2}$$

- ③ as $n \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$ **low of large numbers (LLN)**:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \geq c) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| \leq c) = 1$$

Checking the limit in the definition of consistency is not trivial. But from Tschebysheff inequality we have the following sufficient conditions for consistency:

$$\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}\right) E(\hat{\Theta}_n) = \theta \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Var}(\hat{\Theta}_n) = 0.$$

Example: Is \bar{X}_n consistent for μ ?

Es gilt:

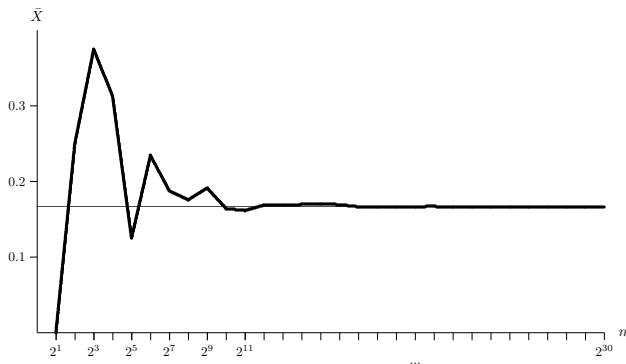
- $E(\bar{X}_n) = \mu$, i.e. \bar{X}_n is unbiased for μ .
- $\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$, i.e. the variance converges to zero.

Thus \bar{X}_n is consistent for μ .

Example: toss a die

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if you toss a 6} \\ 0 & \text{if you toss other number} \end{cases}$$

Since $X_i \sim B(1, 1/6)$ then $E(\bar{X}) = 1/6$ and $Var(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot Var(X_i) = \frac{5}{36n}$.



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Thus: any estimator should be:

- **Unbiased:** $E(\hat{\vartheta}) = \vartheta$
- **Efficient:** $Var(\hat{\vartheta})$ is the smallest among all other unbiased estimators of ϑ
- or **asymptotically efficient:** $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Var(\hat{\vartheta}) = [I(\vartheta)]^{-1}$ converges to the smallest possible variance given by the Cramer-Rao lower bound

$$I(\vartheta) = -E \left[\frac{\partial^2 \ell(x_1, \dots, x_n | \vartheta)}{\partial \vartheta \partial \vartheta'} \right] = E \left[\frac{\partial \ell(x_1, \dots, x_n | \vartheta)}{\partial \vartheta} \frac{\partial \ell(x_1, \dots, x_n | \vartheta)}{\partial \vartheta'} \right]$$

- **Consistent:**

$$p \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\vartheta} = \vartheta$$

- **Robust:** $\hat{\vartheta}$ is still a good estimator even if the distributional assumptions are not satisfied.

Note: frequently is important to know the distribution of $\hat{\vartheta}$ or at least its asymptotic distribution

Example: Let $\vartheta = \mu$ and $\hat{\vartheta} = \bar{x}$.

- If the sample is drawn from a normal distribution then

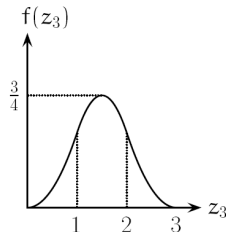
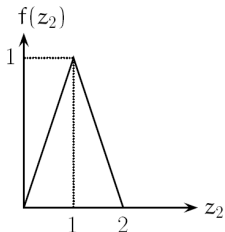
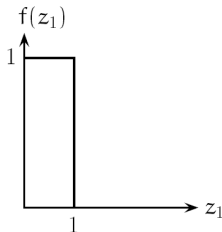
$$\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n).$$

- What happens if the sample is not normal? \rightsquigarrow CLT

Central limit theorem (CLT)

The CLT gives a statement about the asymptotic behavior of the mean (or any simple function of the sample)

Example: X_1, X_2, X_3 in $[0; 1]$ uniformly distributed;
 $Z_1 = X_1, Z_2 = X_1 + X_2, Z_3 = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$



① Standardisation:

$$Y_n = \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}} = \sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma}$$

②

Central Limit Theorem

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_n \leq x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \leq x\right) = \Phi(x)$$

③ We write

$$\sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

Example: wear parts of a machine

(a) A machine contains 100 wear parts. Each part should be replaced during the next year with the prob. of $\frac{1}{6}$. What is the prob. that we have to replace more than 10 but less than 21 parts?

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(10 < \sum_{i=1}^{100} X_i \leq 20\right) &= F_{B(100, \frac{1}{6})}(20) - F_{B(100, \frac{1}{6})}(10) \\ &= \sum_{i=11}^{20} \binom{100}{i} \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^i \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{100-i} \end{aligned}$$

Problem: $F_{B(100, \frac{1}{6})}(x)$ for $1 < x < 100!$

(b) Approximation with CLT ($n = 100, E(X_i) = \frac{1}{6}, Var(X_i) = \frac{5}{36}$)

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(10 < \sum_{i=1}^{100} X_i \leq 20\right) &= P\left(0.1 < \bar{X} \leq 0.2\right) \\ &= P\left(\underbrace{\sqrt{100} \frac{0.1 - \frac{1}{6}}{\sqrt{\frac{5}{36}}}}_{=-1.7888} < \sqrt{100} \frac{\bar{X} - \frac{1}{6}}{\sqrt{\frac{5}{36}}} \leq \underbrace{\sqrt{100} \frac{0.2 - \frac{1}{6}}{\sqrt{\frac{5}{36}}}}_{=0.8944}\right) \\ &\approx \Phi(0.8944) - \Phi(-1.7888) \\ &= \Phi(0.8944) - 1 + \Phi(1.7888) \\ &= 0.8143 - 1 + 0.9631 \\ &= 0.7774 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Multivariate Central Limit Theorem)

If $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$ are a random sample from an arbitrary multivariate distribution with finite mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and positive definite covariance matrix $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, then $\sqrt{n}(\bar{\mathbf{X}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$.

Theorem (Multivariate Central Limit Theorem with unequal moments (Lindberg-Feller))

If $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n$ are a set of RVs with finite means $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i$ and finite positive definite covariance matrices $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$. Let $\bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \boldsymbol{\mu}_i$ and $\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i$. If no single term dominates the average variance, i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_n)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i = \mathbf{0}$, and if the average variance converges to a finite constant $\bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_n$, then

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{\mathbf{X}}_n - \bar{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_n) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \bar{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}).$$

Theorem (Limiting normal distribution of a function (Delta-method))

If $\sqrt{n}(z_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{d} M(0, \sigma^2)$ and if $g(\cdot)$ is a continuous function not involving n , then

$$\sqrt{n}(g(z_n) - g(\mu)) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, [g'(\mu)]^2 \sigma^2).$$

Theorem (Limiting normal distribution of a multivariate function (Delta-method))

If \mathbf{z}_n is a sequence of $k \times 1$ -dimensional vector-valued RVs such that $\sqrt{n}(\mathbf{z}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ and if $\mathbf{c}(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^J$ is a continuous function not involving n , then

$$\sqrt{n}(\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{z}_n) - \mathbf{c}(\boldsymbol{\mu})) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}_J(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\mu})\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\mu})')$$

where $\mathbf{C}(\boldsymbol{\mu})$ is the $J \times k$ matrix of first partial derivatives $\partial \mathbf{c}(\boldsymbol{\mu}) / \partial \boldsymbol{\mu}'$.

Confidence intervals

Assumption: it holds $X_i \sim F_{\vartheta}$, $\vartheta \in \Theta$, where X_1, \dots, X_n are the sample variables

Aim: provide an area (e.g. interval), where the unknown parameter ϑ will belong to with a high probability

Let $T_1(\mathbf{X})$, $T_2(\mathbf{X})$ be functions of the sample with $T_1 \leq T_2$ and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$.

The interval $[T_1(\mathbf{X}), T_2(\mathbf{X})]$ with

$$P_{\vartheta}(T_1 \leq \vartheta \leq T_2) = 1 - \alpha \quad \forall \vartheta \in \Theta \quad (*)$$

is an exact (two-sided) confidence interval (CI) for ϑ with the confidence level $1 - \alpha$.

Note: In practice we select α often equal to 0.1, 0.05 or 0.01.

Interpretation: If $[T_1, T_2]$ is a 90%-CI, then the unknown parameter ϑ belongs to this interval with the probability of 90%.

$[T_1(\mathbf{X}), \infty)$ is a one-sided lower confidence interval

at the confidence level $1 - \alpha$, if

$$P_{\vartheta}(T_1 \leq \vartheta) = 1 - \alpha \quad \forall \vartheta \in \Theta$$

and $(-\infty, T_2(\mathbf{X})]$ is a one-sided upper confidence interval

at the confidence level $1 - \alpha$, if

$$P_{\vartheta}(\vartheta \leq T_2) = 1 - \alpha \quad \forall \vartheta \in \Theta$$

Example:

- Assume that the parameter measures the riskiness of an asset. Then we are interested in the upper confidence interval, since ϑ should be bounded from above.
- If ϑ denotes the tear strength of a rope, then we consider the lower confidence interval, since the lower bound cannot be undershot.

Construction of confidence intervals

Confidence interval for normally distributed random variables

Assumption: The sample variables X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and normally distributed with $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

i) Confidence interval for μ (σ is known)

Starting point: estimate μ with \bar{X}

Since $Var(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$, we postulate the following structure of the confidence interval

$$[\bar{X} + c_1 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + c_2 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}]$$

with suitable constants $c_1 < 0 < c_2$. c_1 and c_2 will depend on α , i.e. of (*).

Since $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$, i.e. the distribution is symmetric around μ , we select $c_2 = c = -c_1$.

Thus

$$\mu \in \left[\bar{X} - c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right] \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{n} \frac{|\bar{X} - \mu|}{\sigma} \leq c$$

Since $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)/\sigma \sim \Phi$, we determine c in such way, that

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\mu} \left(\sqrt{n} \frac{|\bar{X} - \mu|}{\sigma} \leq c \right) \\ &= P_{\mu} \left(\sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \leq c \right) - P_{\mu} \left(\sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} < -c \right) \\ &= \Phi(c) - \Phi(-c) = 2\Phi(c) - 1 \stackrel{!}{=} 1 - \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

This implies $c = z_{1-\alpha/2}$

The exact CI for μ at the level $1 - \alpha$

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

Example: demand for a particular product

A manufacturer had on average $\bar{X} = 100$ orders per day for a particular product during the last $n = 100$ days. From experience they know that the standard deviation σ is 100. To satisfy the demand, the company is interested in the confidence interval for the expected demand.

Assuming normally distributed random variables and taking $\alpha = 0.05$ we obtain $z_{0.975} = 1.96$ and

$$\bar{X} \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = 100 \pm 1.96 \frac{100}{\sqrt{100}} = 100 \pm 19.6$$

The 95%-CI for μ is given by $[80.4, 119.6]$.

ii) Confidence interval for μ (σ is unknown)

To derive the CI we use the same procedure as above. We estimate the σ^2 by

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

The derivation is more complicated, since we have to determine the distribution of

$$\sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S} \sim t_{n-1}.$$

Exact confidence interval for μ (σ is unknown) at the level $1 - \alpha$

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

Example: length of bolts in *cm*

The average length of $n = 125$ bolts is $\bar{x} = 10.25$. Moreover, $s = 0.3$. For $\alpha = 0.1$ we obtain $t_{124;0.95} = 1.6576$, and

$$\begin{aligned} & \left[10.25 - 1.6576 \cdot \frac{0.3}{\sqrt{125}}, 10.25 + 1.6576 \cdot \frac{0.3}{\sqrt{125}} \right] \\ & \approx [10.206, 10.294] \end{aligned}$$

iii) Confidence intervals for σ^2

Estimator for σ^2 :
$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

It can be shown that

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

χ_{n-1}^2 denotes the (central) χ^2 -distribution with $n-1$ degrees of freedom.

Since the χ^2 -distribution is not symmetric, the CI for σ^2 is also not symmetric. We take

$$P_{\sigma} \left(c_1 \leq \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \leq c_2 \right) = \chi_{n-1}^2(c_2) - \chi_{n-1}^2(c_1) \stackrel{!}{=} 1 - \alpha$$

Since the equation contains two independent quantities, it cannot be solved uniquely. For this reason we assume

$$\chi_{n-1}^2(c_2) = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, \quad \chi_{n-1}^2(c_1) = \frac{\alpha}{2}.$$

We use the notation $c_2 = \chi_{n-1;1-\alpha/2}^2$ and $c_1 = \chi_{n-1;\alpha/2}^2$.

Since

$$c_1 \leq \frac{(n-1) S^2}{\sigma^2} \leq c_2 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{(n-1) S^2}{c_2} \leq \sigma^2 \leq \frac{(n-1) S^2}{c_1},$$

the exact confidence interval for σ^2 at the level $1 - \alpha$ is given by

$$\left[\frac{(n-1) S^2}{\chi_{n-1;1-\alpha/2}^2}, \frac{(n-1) S^2}{\chi_{n-1;\alpha/2}^2} \right]$$

Example: the length of bolts in *cm*

Let $\alpha = 0.1$, $n = 100$, $s^2 = 0.1$.

Since $\chi_{99;0.05}^2 = 77.93$ and $\chi_{99;0.95}^2 = 124.3$, the CI is given by

$$\left[\frac{99 \cdot 0.1}{124.3}, \frac{99 \cdot 0.1}{77.93} \right]$$

$$\approx [0.08, 0.13]$$

now: Asymptotic confidence intervals

Using the the CLT we can derive the asymptotic CI. It holds

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{\vartheta}(T_1(\mathbf{X}) \leq \vartheta \leq T_2(\mathbf{X})) = 1 - \alpha \quad \forall \vartheta \in \Theta.$$

Example: Let X_1, \dots, X_n be iid with $E(X_i) = \mu$ for all $i \geq 1$. The objective is a CI for μ .

i) $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X_i)$ is known

The CI has the same structure as in the case of normal distribution

$$\left[\bar{X} - c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

Problem: The exact distribution of $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)/\sigma$ is unknown.

For this reason one applies the CLT.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{\mu} \left(\mu \in \left[\bar{X} - c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right] \right) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{\mu} \left(\sqrt{n} \frac{|\bar{X} - \mu|}{\sigma} \leq c \right) \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{\mu} \left(\sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \leq c \right) - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{\mu} \left(\sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} < -c \right) \\
 &= \Phi(c) - \Phi(-c) = 2\Phi(c) - 1 \stackrel{!}{=} 1 - \alpha.
 \end{aligned}$$

Consequently $c = z_{1-\alpha/2}$ and an asymptotic CI for μ is given by

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

Rule of thumb: $n \geq 30$

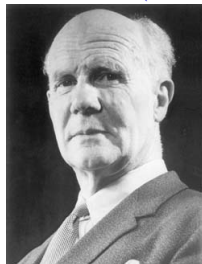
Statistical Tests

Basics: Jerzy Neyman (1894–1981) and Egon S. Pearson (1895–1980)

Example: is the filling capacity of bottles exactly 500ml as argued?

- It is a **decision problem** between two hypotheses.
- We speak of a **test problem**.
- These hypotheses can be expressed using the parameter of interest (here μ).

Jerzy Neyman (1894–1981) Egon S. Pearson (1895–1980)



Let $X \sim F_{\vartheta}$, $\vartheta \in \Theta$. Θ_0 and Θ_1 are disjunct and $\Theta_0 \cup \Theta_1 = \Theta$.

The question regarding ϑ is expressed in terms two hypotheses H_0 (**null hypothesis**) and H_1 **alternative hypothesis**:

$$H_0 : \vartheta \in \Theta_0 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : \vartheta \in \Theta_1 .$$

Action: On the basis of the sample x_1, \dots, x_n we should make a decision whether if $\mu = 500 \text{ ml}$ is fulfilled or not.

Such a decision rule is called a **statistical test**.

Here we shortly sketch how does a test look like:

Example: filling capacity of bottles

$$H_0 : \mu = 500ml \quad \text{vs} \quad H_1 : \mu \neq 500ml.$$

Starting point: Estimator for μ , here $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$

Consideration

Reject H_0 , when $|\bar{x} - 500|$ is large enough , e. g. when $|\bar{x} - 500| > c$ for some constant $c > 0 \rightsquigarrow$ i.e. reject H_0 if we have sufficient evidence against H_0 .

Decision rule

$$|\bar{x} - 500| > c \rightsquigarrow \text{reject } H_0 \text{ (accept } H_1),$$

$$|\bar{x} - 500| \leq c \rightsquigarrow \text{do not reject } H_0 \text{ (} H_0 \text{ CANNOT be accpeted).}$$

Note: If the hypothesis is an inequality, then it must be chosen as H_1 .
A hypothesis with equality is always in H_0 .

One sample Z-test

- We assume
 - $G \sim N(\mu; \sigma)$ with known σ
 - random sample X_1, \dots, X_n
- Different pairs of hypotheses

two-sided

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0 \qquad H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$$

one-sided test

$$\text{right-sided test} \qquad H_0 : \mu \leq \mu_0 \qquad H_1 : \mu > \mu_0$$

$$\text{left-sided test} \qquad H_0 : \mu \geq \mu_0 \qquad H_1 : \mu < \mu_0$$

- X_1, \dots, X_{25} with $X_i = \text{capacity of the } i\text{-th bottle} \sim N(\mu; 1.5^2)$
null hypotheses $H_0 : \mu = 500$, i.e. $\mu_0 = 500$

Possible errors: rejection of H_0 , if H_0 is correct and non-rejection of H_0 , if H_0 is wrong:

Decision	Reality	
	rain	no rain
take umbrella	correct decision	error
do not take umbrella	error	correct decision

$\{H_1\}$: decide to reject H_0

$\{H_0\}$: decide not to reject H_0

decision	Reality	
	H_0 is correct	H_0 is not correct (H_1 is correct)
H_0 is not rejected: $\{H_0\}$	correct decision $\{H_0\} H_0$ $P(\{H_0\} H_0) = 1 - \alpha$	error of the 2nd type $\{H_0\} H_1$ $P(\{H_0\} H_1) = \beta$
H_0 is rejected: $\{H_1\}$	error of the 1st type $\{H_1\} H_0$ $P(\{H_1\} H_0) = \alpha$	correct decision $\{H_1\} H_1$ $P(\{H_1\} H_1) = 1 - \beta$

Level of significance α :

the highest allowed probability of the type 1 error.

Test statistic (test function)

- for testing purposes we aggregate the information in the sample to a test statistic

$$V = V(X_1, \dots, X_n).$$

- The functional form of V depends on the test/hypotheses, ect.
- The distribution of V under H_0 should be known (at least asymptotically), i.e. if H_0 is correct

$$F(v|\mu_0)$$

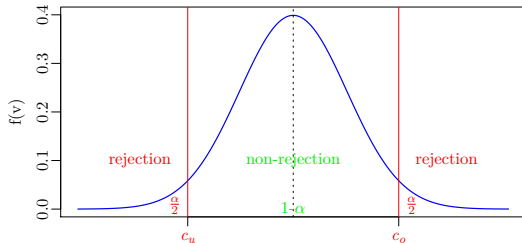
- Using this distribution split the set of possible values of the test statistics into
 - **rejection area** - if v takes a value here then H_0 is rejected
 - **non-rejection area** - if v takes a value here then H_0 is NOT rejected

Critical values

The rejection area (or critical values) is determined in such way, that the probability of getting a test statistic in this area (assuming that H_0 is correct) is not higher than the given α

$$P(V \in \text{rejection area of } H_0 \mid \mu_0) \leq \alpha$$

$$P(V \in \text{non-rejection area of } H_0 \mid \mu_0) \geq 1 - \alpha$$



- two-sided test

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0 \quad H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$$

- non-rejection area $[c_u; c_o]$

$$P(c_u \leq V \leq c_o \mid \mu_0) = 1 - \alpha$$

- rejection area $B = (-\infty; c_u) \cup (c_o; \infty)$

$$P(V \leq c_u \mid \mu_0) + P(V \geq c_o \mid \mu_0) = \alpha/2 + \alpha/2 = \alpha$$

- test statistic

$$V = \sqrt{n} \frac{|\bar{x} - \mu_0|}{\sigma}$$

- Relying on the symmetry of the normal distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}P(|V| > c) &= P(V > c \text{ or } -V > c) = P(V > c \text{ or } V < -c) \\&= P(V > c) + P(V < -c) = 2 \cdot P(V > c) \\&= 2 \cdot [1 - P(V \leq c)] = 2 \cdot [1 - \Phi(c)] \stackrel{!}{=} \alpha \iff \\&\Phi(c) = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \iff c = z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}\end{aligned}$$

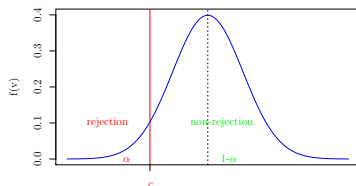
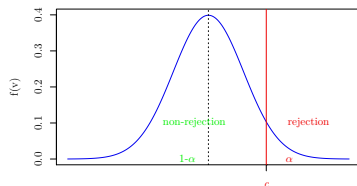
H_0 is rejected if $|v| > z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$.

- $B = (-\infty; -z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}) \cup (z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}; \infty)$ is the rejection area.

Similarly for one sided tests

H_0 is rejected if $v \in B$ with

$$\left. \begin{aligned} B &= (-\infty; -z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}) \cup (z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}; \infty) && \text{case a)} \\ B &= (-\infty; -z_{1-\alpha}) && \text{case b)} \\ B &= (z_{1-\alpha}; \infty) && \text{case c)} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (1)$$



Example

X_1, \dots, X_{25} with $X_i \sim N(\mu; 1.5^2)$ and $\bar{x} = 499.28$

Test $H_0 : \mu = 500, H_1 : \mu \neq 500$ with $\alpha = 0.01$

① $\alpha = 0.01$

② $v = \frac{499.28 - 500}{1.5} \cdot \sqrt{25} = -2.4$

③ $N(0; 1) : z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}} = z_{1-0.005} = z_{0.995} = 2.576$
 $\Rightarrow B = (-\infty; -2.576) \cup (2.576; \infty)$

④ $v \notin B \Rightarrow H_0$ not rejected

\rightsquigarrow With significance level of 1% we cannot prove that the capacity deviates from the stated capacity.

p -value

- If you change α you have to run the test again \rightsquigarrow stat software do not ask for α , but compute the p -value which allows you to run the test for any α
- p -value is the largest level of significance for which H_0 is still not rejected
- The smaller the p -value is, the more evidence the sample contains against H_0
- decision rule

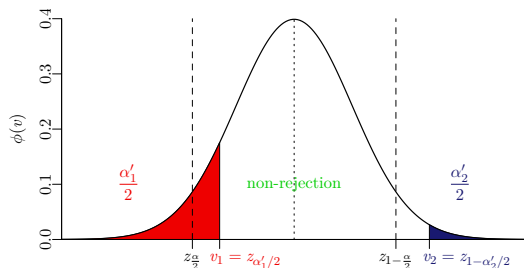
$$\begin{array}{l} \alpha > \alpha' \Rightarrow H_0 \text{ rejected} \\ \alpha \leq \alpha' \Rightarrow H_0 \text{ not rejected} \end{array}$$

Case a: two-sided Z-test

The smallest value of α , for which H_0 is still not rejected, satisfies

$$\begin{cases} -z_{1-\frac{\alpha'}{2}} = z_{\frac{\alpha'}{2}} = v, & \text{if } v < 0 \\ z_{1-\frac{\alpha'}{2}} = -z_{\frac{\alpha'}{2}} = v, & \text{if } v > 0 \end{cases}$$

We are looking for such a value of α' , that $\Phi(v) = \frac{\alpha'}{2}$ (if $v < 0$) or $\Phi(v) = 1 - \frac{\alpha'}{2}$ (if $v > 0$).



Example

Using the quantiles of $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ we obtain

$$\Phi(-2.4) = 1 - \Phi(2.4) = 1 - 0.9918 = 0.0082 = \frac{\alpha'}{2}.$$

Thus $\alpha' = 0.0164$

Let $\alpha = 0.01$. Since $\alpha' > \alpha$, we cannot reject H_0 at $\alpha = 0.01$.

Let $\alpha = 0.05$. Since $\alpha' < \alpha$, we reject H_0 at $\alpha = 0.05$.

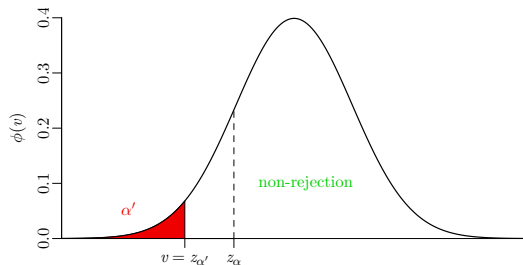
\rightsquigarrow For all $\alpha' < \alpha$ we can reject H_0 .

Case b: left-sided Z-test

The smaller value of α , for which H_0 is still not rejected, satisfies

$$-z_{1-\alpha'} = z_{\alpha'} = v$$

We are looking for such value of α' , that $\Phi(v) = \alpha'$.



Note:

In Case a) we can also run the test using the confidence intervals: We compute for given α the symmetric CI $[v_u; v_o]$ centered at \bar{x} and reject $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ vs. $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$ if $\mu_0 \notin [v_u; v_o]$.

Here: CI for μ :

$$① \quad 1 - \alpha = 1 - 0.01 = 0.99$$

$$② \quad N(0; 1) : c = z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}} = z_{1-\frac{0.01}{2}} = z_{0.995} = 2.576$$

$$③ \quad \bar{x} = 499.28$$

$$④ \quad \frac{\sigma c}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1.5 \cdot 2.576}{\sqrt{25}} = 0.77$$

$$⑤ \quad [499.28 - 0.77; 499.28 + 0.77] = [498.51; 500.05]$$

$\mu_0 = 500 \in [498.51; 500.05] \Rightarrow H_0$ cannot be rejected

Other tests

- Test of $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ with $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, but σ^2 is unknown
 - Estimate σ^2 by s^2
 - $V = \sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s} \sim t_{n-1}$
 - The rejection area for a two-sided test is

$$B = (-\infty; -t_{n-1; 1-\alpha/2}) \cup (t_{n-1; 1-\alpha/2}; +\infty)$$

- Test of $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ if the distribution is unknown (**asymptotic Z-test**)
 - Rely on the CLT
 - $V = \sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s} \stackrel{approx}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
 - The rejection areas as for the simple Z-test

Other tests

- Test of $H_0 : p = p_0$, with $X_i \sim B(n, p)$
 - Check if $5 \leq \sum x_i \leq n - 5$
 - Estimate $\hat{p} = \bar{x}$
 - Compute the test statistic $v = \sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{x} - p_0}{\sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)}} \stackrel{asympt}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
 - Follow the idea of the asymptotic Z -test
- Test of $H_0 : \sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2$, with $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
 - Estimate σ^2 by s^2
 - $V = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma_0^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$
 - The rejection area for a two-sided test is

$$B = (0; \chi_{n-1; \alpha/2}^2) \cup (\chi_{n-1; 1-\alpha/2}^2; +\infty)$$

Example

$X_1, \dots, X_{2000} \sim B(1; p)$ mit

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{falls } i\text{th person voted for the party A} \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2000} x_i = 108$$

Test $H_0 : p \leq 0.05$ vs. $H_1 : p > 0.05$ with $\alpha = 2\%$

Asymptotic Z-test, Case (c); $5 \leq \sum x_i \leq n - 5$: $5 \leq 108 \leq 2000 - 5$

① $\alpha = 0.02$

② $v = \frac{\frac{108}{2000} - 0.05}{\sqrt{0.05 \cdot (1 - 0.05)}} \sqrt{2000} = 0.82$

③ $N(0; 1) : z_{1-\alpha} = z_{0.98} = 2.05 \Rightarrow B = (2.05; \infty)$

④ $v \notin B \Rightarrow H_0$ not rejected

Two-sample tests

- Given
 - two independent samples X_1, \dots, X_{n_1} and Y_1, \dots, Y_{n_2} with
 - sample sizes n_1 and n_2
 - expectations $E(X_i) = \mu_1$ and $E(Y_i) = \mu_2$
 - variances $Var(X_i) = \sigma_1^2$ and $Var(Y_i) = \sigma_2^2$
 - means \bar{X} and \bar{Y}
 - sample variances S_1^2 and S_2^2
- Object of interest:
 - Comparison of means/expectations $\mu_1 \begin{smallmatrix} \leq \\ \neq \\ \geq \end{smallmatrix} \mu_2$
 - Comparison of variances $\sigma_1^2 \begin{smallmatrix} \leq \\ \neq \\ \geq \end{smallmatrix} \sigma_2^2$

Comparison of means

Hypotheses

a)	$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$	$H_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$
b)	$H_0 : \mu_1 \geq \mu_2$	$H_1 : \mu_1 < \mu_2$
c)	$H_0 : \mu_1 \leq \mu_2$	$H_1 : \mu_1 > \mu_2$

(2)

Estimator for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$: $\bar{X} - \bar{Y}$

Two-sample Z-test

If the variance σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 are **known**, then

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}.$$

Thus the test statistics is

$$V = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}.$$

Under H_0 ($\mu_1 = \mu_2$) and for Gaussian samples it holds

$$V \sim N(0, 1).$$

Two-sample t -test

If the variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 are **unknown**, but $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = \sigma^2$, then estimate σ^2 with

$$\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

with (under H_0)

$$\frac{(n_1 + n_2 - 2)\tilde{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n_1 + n_2 - 2).$$

The test statistic is

$$V = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\tilde{\sigma}^2 \frac{n_1 + n_2}{n_1 n_2}}}.$$

Under H_0 ($\mu_1 = \mu_2$) it holds

$$V \sim t_{n_1 + n_2 - 2}.$$

Asymptotic two-sample Z-test

If the variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 are **unknown and arbitrary**, then the test statistic is

$$V = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{n_2}}}.$$

Under H_0 ($\mu_1 = \mu_2$) and from the CLT it holds

$$V \stackrel{\text{approx.}}{\sim} N(0, 1).$$

The rejection area is given in all three situation by

$$B = (-\infty; -x_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}) \cup (x_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}; \infty) \quad \text{in case a)}$$

$$B = (-\infty; -x_{1-\alpha}) \quad \text{in case b)}$$

$$B = (x_{1-\alpha}; \infty) \quad \text{in case c)}$$

with the corresponding quantiles defined by the above distributions of the test statistics.

	Assumption	test statistics V	Distr. of V under H_0
1.	$X_i \sim N(\mu_1; \sigma_1^2)$ $Y_i \sim N(\mu_2; \sigma_2^2)$ σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 known	$\frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}$	$V \sim N(0; 1)$
2.	$X_i \sim N(\mu_1; \sigma_1^2)$ $Y_i \sim N(\mu_2; \sigma_2^2)$ σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 unknown but $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$	$\frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1-1)S_1^2 + (n_2-1)S_2^2}{n_1+n_2-2} \cdot \frac{n_1+n_2}{n_1 n_2}}}$	$V \sim t_{n_1+n_2-2}$
3.	$X_i \sim N(\mu_1; \sigma_1^2)$ $Y_i \sim N(\mu_2; \sigma_2^2)$ σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 unknown, but $\sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$, $n_1 = n_2 = n$	$\frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n_1-1)S_1^2 + (n_2-1)S_2^2}{n_1+n_2-2} \cdot \frac{n_1+n_2}{n_1 n_2}}}$	$V \stackrel{\text{approx.}}{\sim} t_{(n-1)} \left[1 + \frac{2}{s_1^2/s_2^2 + s_2^2/s_1^2} \right]$
4.	$X_i \sim B(1; p_1)$ $Y_i \sim B(1; p_2)$ $5 \leq \sum x_i \leq n_1 - 5$ $5 \leq \sum y_i \leq n_2 - 5$	$\frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{(\sum X_i + \sum Y_i)(n_1+n_2 - \sum X_i - \sum Y_i)}{(n_1+n_2)n_1 n_2}}}$	$V \stackrel{\text{approx.}}{\sim} N(0; 1)$
5.	X_i, Y_i arbitr. distr. $n_1 > 30$; $n_2 > 30$ σ_1^2, σ_2^2 unknown	$\frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{n_2}}}$	$V \stackrel{\text{approx.}}{\sim} N(0; 1)$
6.	X_i, Y_i arbitr. distr. $n_1 > 30$; $n_2 > 30$ σ_1^2, σ_2^2 unknown	$\frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}$	$V \stackrel{\text{approx.}}{\sim} N(0; 1)$

1. two-sample Z-test; 2./3. two-sample t-test;

4./5./6. approx. Z-test

Example: has the expected return of an asset increased after the announcement of the acquisition?

Let X_1 be the return before the announcement and X_2 the return after. Assume $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i)$ and X_1 and X_2 are independent. D

$$H_0 : \mu_1 \geq \mu_2 \quad vs \quad H_1 : \mu_1 < \mu_2$$

$n_1 = 115$, $\bar{x}_1 = 6.5$, $s_1 = 0.4$, $n_2 = 110$, $\bar{x}_2 = 8.14$ and $s_2 = 0.78$. Thus

$$v = \frac{6.5 - 8.14}{\sqrt{\frac{0.4^2}{115} + \frac{0.78^2}{110}}} = -19.71.$$

We obtain $z_{0.99} = 2.3263$ and $B = (-\infty; -2.3263)$. Since $v < -2.3263$ we reject H_0 and conclude that the expected return is significantly larger after the announcement.

Example:

$$X_1, \dots, X_{80} \sim \text{B}(1; p_1)$$

with

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the } i\text{th product is defective} \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{80} x_i = 20$$

$$Y_1, \dots, Y_{100} \sim \text{B}(1; p_2)$$

with

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the } i\text{th product is defective} \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{100} y_i = 50$$

Can we argue that the probability of being defective is higher for Type 1 products than for Type 2 products?

1. $\alpha = 0.1$
2. $\bar{x} = \frac{20}{80} = 0.25; \quad \bar{y} = \frac{50}{100} = 0.5; \quad v = \frac{0.25 - 0.5}{\sqrt{\frac{(20+50)(80+100-20-50)}{(80+100) \cdot 80 \cdot 100}}} = -3.42$
3. $N(0; 1) : \quad z_{1-\alpha} = z_{0.9} = 1.282 \Rightarrow B = (-\infty; -1.282)$
4. $v \in B \Rightarrow H_0$ rejected, i.e. $p_1 < p_2$ is confirmed

Test for correlation/dependence

Assumption: let (X, Y) follow a 2-dim. normal distribution

$$E(X) = \mu_x, \text{Var}(X) = \sigma_x^2,$$

$$E(Y) = \mu_y, \text{Var}(Y) = \sigma_y^2.$$

Let

$$\rho = \text{Corr}(X, Y) := \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \frac{E((X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y))}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}.$$

Note: if the samples are normal, then zero correlation implies independence.

The estimator for ρ is

$$r_{XY} = \hat{\rho} = \frac{s_{XY}}{s_X s_Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

Note: similar tests can be derived the contingency tables and for the rank correlation of Spearman.

$$r_{SP} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (R(x_i) - \bar{R})(R(y_i) - \bar{R})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (R(x_i) - \bar{R})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (R(y_i) - \bar{R})^2}}$$

with $\bar{R} = \frac{n+1}{2}$

Test problem

- $H_0 : \rho = 0$ (i.e. X and Y are uncorrelated / independent assuming normality) vs
- $H_1 : \rho \neq 0$ (i.e. X and Y are dependent)
- Test statistics: $v = \sqrt{n-2} \frac{\hat{\rho}}{\sqrt{1-\hat{\rho}^2}}$.
- Under H_0 it holds $V \stackrel{approx}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ (or t_{n-2} for small samples)
- Rejection area

$$B = (-\infty; -t_{n-2; 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}) \cup (t_{n-2; 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}; \infty)$$

Note: Similarly with r_{SP} with “no monotone dependence”

Example: test with $\alpha = 0.05$ if there is a significant correlation between the body height of fathers (Y) and sons at the age of 5 (X)?

x_i	109	114	116	105	114	116	114	108	108	122	117	115
115	112	122	113	108	109	115	108	118	110	113	111	116
y_i	167	176	186	175	175	182	180	172	185	186	183	178
175	175	180	181	172	179	170	172	172	172	176	180	182

It holds $n = 25$, $\bar{x} = 113.12$, $s_X = 4.352$, $\bar{y} = 177.24$, $s_Y = 5.206$ and $s_{XY} = 10.05333$. Thus $\hat{\rho} = 0.44365$ and

$$v = \sqrt{23} \frac{0.44365}{\sqrt{1 - 0.44365^2}} = 2.374.$$

For $\alpha = 0.05$ it holds $t_{23;0.975} = 2.069$ and

$$B = (-\infty; -2.069) \cup (2.069; +\infty).$$

Since $v \in B$, we conclude that $H_0 : \rho = 0$ can be rejected.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness-of-Fit Test

Requirement: an independent random sample X_1, \dots, X_n with $X_i \sim F$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$

Testing problem:

$$H_0 : F = F_0 \quad \text{against} \quad H_1 : F \neq F_0,$$

where F_0 is a given and known distribution, e.g. $N(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$.

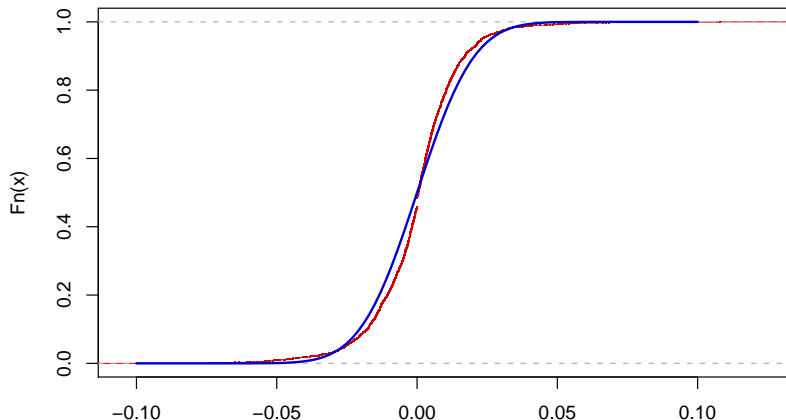
Idea of the test: Comparison of the empirical distribution function with F_0 .

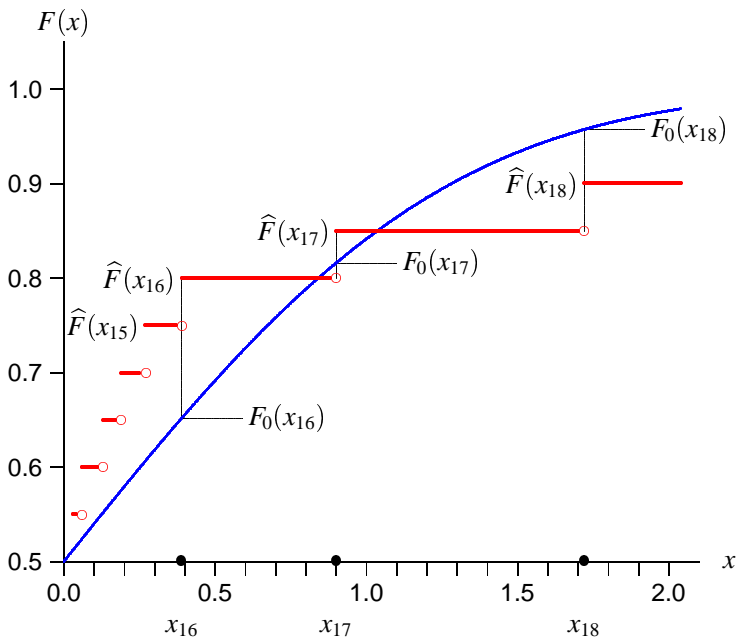
Distribution function:

$$F_0(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y)dy$$

- $0 \leq F_0(x) \leq 1$;
- $F_0(x)$ is a non-decreasing function;
- $F_0(x)$ is right-continuous.

Example: Distribution function of the normal distribution (blue) and the empirical distribution function (red) for DAX returns





Test statistic: $D = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |\hat{F}(x) - F_0(x)|$

The distribution of D under H_0 is a non-standard distribution and is independent from F_0 if F_0 is continuous!

Decision: using the *p-value*-approach.

In practice: Let F_0 be continuous and $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_T$.

$$\rightsquigarrow D = \max_{1 \leq t \leq T} \{ \hat{F}(x_t) - F_0(x_t), F_0(x_t) - \hat{F}(x_{t-1}) \},$$

where $\hat{F}(x_0) := 0$.

Now: F_0 is a non-predetermined distribution, but a class of distributions, e.g. $N(\cdot, \cdot)$.

Testing problem:

$$H_0 : F \in \mathcal{F}_0 := \left\{ F_0 \left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \right) : \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma > 0 \right\}$$

$$H_1 : F \in \mathcal{D} - \mathcal{F}_0,$$

where F_0 is known (e. g. $F_0 = \Phi$).

Modified Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Test statistic: $D^* = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \hat{F}(x) - \Phi((x - \hat{\mu})/\hat{\sigma}) \right|$

If $D^* > c^*$, then H_0 is rejected.

Example:

For the DAX-Index with $F_0 = \mathcal{N}(5.7854 \cdot 10^{-6}; 2.5551 \cdot 10^{-4})$ we get

```
> ks.test(rdax, "pnorm", mean=mean(rdax), sd= sd(rdax))
```

One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

```
data:  rdax  
D = 0.0736, p-value = 1.067e-12  
alternative hypothesis: two-sided
```

⇒ The returns are not normally distributed.

Power of a test

- Parametric test:

$$H_0 : \vartheta \in \Theta_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad H_1 : \vartheta \in \Theta_1$$

with $\Theta_0 \cup \Theta_1 = \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

- Performance measures of a test:
 - Ⓐ Prob. of type I error should not exceed α .
 - Ⓑ Prob. of type II error should be as small as possible.

Prob. of rejection H_0 depending on the true value of the parameter

$$G(\mu) = P(V \in \text{rejection area} | \mu) = P(\{H_1\} | \mu)$$

- Is $\vartheta \in \Theta_0$ so we made a wrong decision ($\{H_1\} | H_0$).
- The power function is in this case the prob. of type I error:

$$G(\mu) = P(\{H_1\} | \mu) \leq \alpha \text{ for all } \mu \in \Theta_0$$

- Is $\vartheta \in \Theta_1$ so we made the correct decision ($\{H_1\} | H_1$).
- The prob. of type II error :

$$G(\mu) = P(\{H_1\} | \mu) \leq 1 - \beta \text{ for all } \mu \in \Theta_1$$

Power function of the test for the mean

Assumption: α and n are fixed, normal distribution and σ^2 is known.

$$\begin{aligned} G(\mu) &= P(V \in \text{rejection area } H_0 | \mu) \\ &= P(\{H_1\} | \mu) \\ &= 1 - P(V \in \text{non-rejection area } H_0 | \mu) \\ &= 1 - P(\{H_0\} | \mu) \end{aligned}$$

two-sided test

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0 \text{ vs. } H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$$

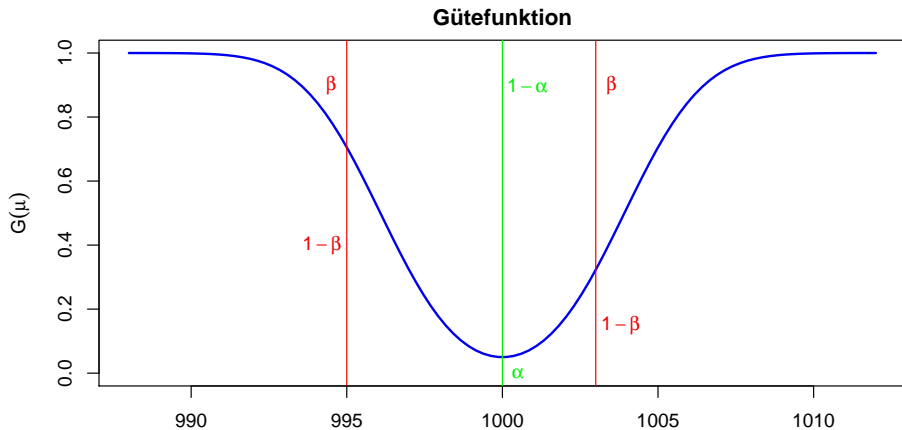
H_0 is correct only if $\mu = \mu_0$.

$$\begin{aligned} G(\mu) &= 1 - P(-z_{1-\alpha/2} \leq V \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} \mid \mu) \\ &= 1 - P\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} \leq \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma} \sqrt{n} \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} \mid \mu\right) \\ &= 1 - P\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq (\bar{X} - \mu_0) \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \mid \mu\right) \\ &= 1 - P\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} + \mu_0 - \mu \leq (\bar{X} - \mu) \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} + \mu_0 - \mu \mid \mu\right) \\ &= 1 - P\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} + \frac{\mu_0 - \mu}{\sigma} \sqrt{n} \leq \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \sqrt{n} \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} + \frac{\mu_0 - \mu}{\sigma} \sqrt{n} \mid \mu\right) \end{aligned}$$

Since μ is the true mean, it holds $\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{n} \sim N(0, 1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} G(\mu) &= 1 - \left[P\left(\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{n} \leq z_{1-\alpha/2} + \frac{\mu_0-\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{n}\right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - P\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} + \frac{\mu_0-\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{n} \leq \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{n}\right) \right] \\ &= 1 - \left[\Phi\left(z_{1-\alpha/2} + \frac{\mu_0-\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{n}\right) - \Phi\left(-z_{1-\alpha/2} + \frac{\mu_0-\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{n}\right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$G(\mu) = \begin{cases} \alpha = P(\{H_1\}|\mu), & \text{for } \mu = \mu_0 \\ 1 - \beta(\mu) = P(\{H_1\}|\mu), & \text{for } \mu \neq \mu_0 \end{cases}$$



Example: target filling capacity $\mu_0 = 1000$. Let $\sigma = 10$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $n = 25$. What is the prob. of type II error, if the true filling capacity is $\mu = 1002$?

$$G(1002) = 1 - \left[\Phi\left(1.96 + \frac{1000 - 1002}{10}\sqrt{25}\right) - \Phi\left(-1.96 + \frac{1000 - 1002}{10}\sqrt{25}\right) \right] = 0.170066 = 1 - \beta$$

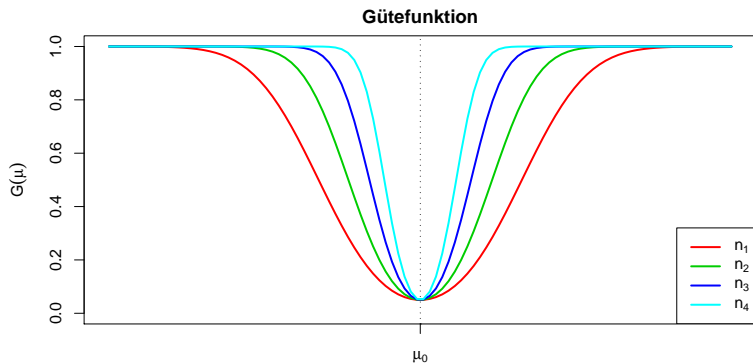
$$P(\{H_0\}|\mu = 1002) = \beta = 1 - G(1002) = 0.83$$

We will not detect the deviation of 2ml from the target capacity of 1000ml in 83% of the cases!!!

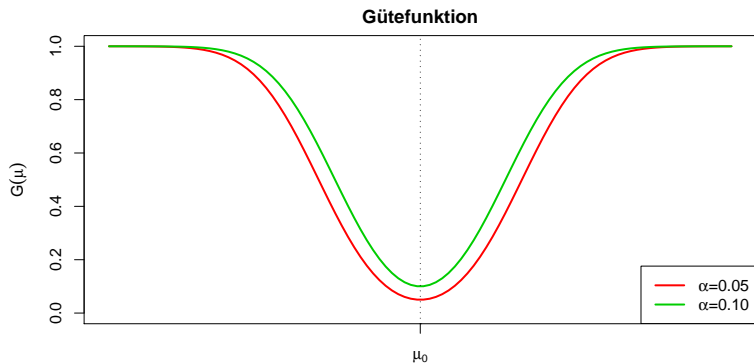
Let $\mu = 989$. Then $G(989) = 0.9998$ and $\beta = 0.0002$.

If the true capacity is $\mu = 989$, then we will NOT detect it only in 0.02% of all samples of size $n = 25$

Power function for different sample sizes $n_1 < n_2 < n_3 < n_4$



↪ increasing the sample size reduces the prob. of type II error (ceteris paribus) .

Power function as a function of α 

↪ increasing the prob. of type I error reduces the prob. of type II error (ceteris paribus)

↪ both probabilities cannot be reduced simultaneously!!!