

STATISTICAL INFERENCE

Note Title

23-05-2021

LECTURE 6

Recap }

- Normal distro $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- pdf: $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$

- If $x_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ are independent, } proof:

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2\right)$$
 } Use MGF tech.

- If they are i.i.d, then $\mu_i = \mu_j, \sigma_i = \sigma_j \forall i, j$
 $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2) \forall i \in I_n$
 indep & same/identical distro
- If they are not independent, Covariance will come into play

eg: Bivariate Normal distro.

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_X\sigma_Y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right)^2 - 2\rho \left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right) \left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right) + \left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)^2 \right]}$$

$$X \sim N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2), \text{Cov}(x, y) = \rho$$

$$Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$$

- If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then $Z := \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}$$

Standardization Standard
Normal distro

++ CDF is tabulated for Z

$$X = \mu + \sigma Z$$

- Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be a sequence of iid $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
 then $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$ } still an rv.

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

Approx
statements}

- Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)
If X_1, X_2, \dots are iid such that $E(X_i) = \mu$,
As # samples increases, the sample mean tends to the population mean. in probability.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bar{X} \xrightarrow{\text{in prob.}} E(X) \text{ or } \mu.$$

weak convergence.

- Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

} note : last line of previous page.
 $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)/\sigma \sim N(0, 1)$ for $\underline{X_i \text{ iid } N(\mu, \sigma^2)}$

CLT generalizes this.

If X_1, X_2, \dots are iid such that $E(X_i) = \mu$,
The normalized sample mean for ANY "nice" distro.
converges to std. normal distro. in distribution.
as # samples increases.
Nice := finite variance ($\sigma^2 < \infty$) stronger claim.

* Many other forms & formal statements are online.
in terms of $\sum X_i$ for instance.

- Probability \rightsquigarrow theoretical base.
 \rightsquigarrow assumes many things like i.i.d., $N(\mu, \sigma^2), \dots$
- In practice this is rare. All you have are samples X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n (finite, may / not be iid, distro unknown, even if distro is known, parameters unknown ...)
- Closed form of CDF/pdf of continuous rvs are not specified / known. We have access to an Empirical (=experiment based) frequency distro.

Statistical
inference }

Toolkit to estimate things about population
from things about sample \rightsquigarrow "parameters"
 \rightsquigarrow "statistic"

Inference → Non parametric (difficult, but flexible, less assumptions)
 estimation & hypothesis testing → Parametric → point estimation.
 we know that the population is characterized by a distro, with some parameters
 like this.

LECTURE 7

POINT ESTIMATION

Given: $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim}$ Some parametric distro.

e.g.: Say we are given outcomes of tossing a coin.

(A) ↓ fit a suitable model.

Bernoulli(p).

$$0 < p < 1$$

unknown.

no info about the

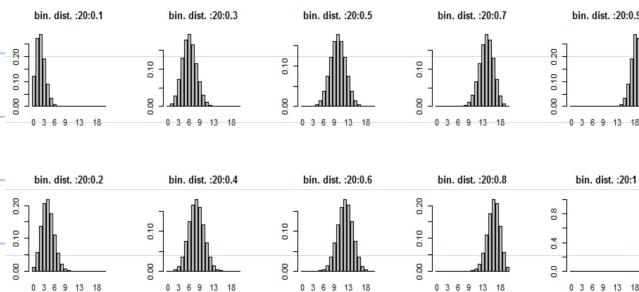
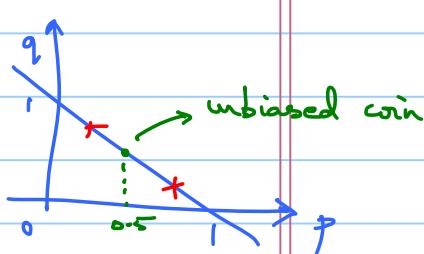
coin being biased/unbiased.



(B) ↓ find a likely value of p from sample & make conclusions about the cause (coin in our case)

Harvey Dent's Biased Two headed coin - Batman wiki

- Say the coin gives output $\{0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, \dots\}$
intuition: a biased coin, gives mostly heads.
- Say the coin gives output $\{0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, \dots\}$
intuition: may be an unbiased coin



Given the data,
what value of p is
most likely to have
caused that data?

If $P(\text{head}) = p$ & $P(\text{tail}) = q$, from data,
all we know is that $p+q=1$.

What is the most optimal solution?

(C) ↓ One method MLE

MLE : Maximum Likelihood Estimation.

given $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f_{\theta}(x)$,

$$\theta_* = \underset{\Theta \in \Theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n; \theta)$$

possible values of θ
parameter space.

joint pdf of X_i 's under the assumption
pdf is function of θ .

Choose the θ that maximizes the jpdf of X_i 's. = the chance of observing the sequence. (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)

Due to the i.i.d assumption, $f_{\theta}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = f_{\theta}(x_1) \cdot f_{\theta}(x_2) \cdots f_{\theta}(x_n)$

$$\theta_* = \underset{\Theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^n f_{\theta}(x_i) \right) \rightarrow \text{called the Likelihood function}$$

$$\theta_* = \underset{\Theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \log(L(\theta | x)) \quad L(\theta | x)$$

$$\theta_* = \underset{\Theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \log f_{\theta}(x_i) \right) \quad \text{Log likelihood function.}$$

e.g:

For the coin toss example,

$$\theta = p, \quad \Theta = [0, 1]$$

$$f_{\theta}(x_i) = p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}$$

$$\bullet \quad L(\theta | x) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}$$

$$\bullet \quad \mathcal{L} = \log L(\theta | x) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \log p + (1-x_i) \log (1-p)$$

$$\bullet \quad p_* = \underset{p \in [0, 1]}{\operatorname{argmax}} \left((\log p) \sum x_i + (n - \sum x_i) \log (1-p) \right)$$

@ p_* ,

$$\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dp} = 0 \quad (\text{maxima})$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dp} \right|_{p_*} = \left(\sum x_i \right) \frac{1}{p_*} + (n - \sum x_i) \left(\frac{-1}{1-p_*} \right)$$

$$p_* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$

$\rightarrow p_{MLE} = \text{proportion of heads in the empirical data.}$

$$p_* = \frac{\bar{x}}{X}$$

Examples from problem set 5.

1.

a) $\{X_i\}_{i \in I_n} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$.

$$f(x_i) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!}, \quad x_i = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$L = \prod_i f(x_i | \lambda) = \prod_i \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_i}}{(x_i!)!} = \frac{e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum x_i}}{\prod_i (x_i)!}$$

$$\mathcal{L} := \log L = -n\lambda + \sum_i x_i \log \lambda - \sum \ln(x_i!)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} \right|_{\hat{\lambda}} = 0 \Rightarrow -n + \left(\sum_i x_i \right) \frac{1}{\hat{\lambda}} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\hat{\lambda} = \overrightarrow{\sum_i x_i / n}}$$

b) $\{X_i\}_{i \in I_n} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Geo}(p) \quad // \# \text{ of failures b4 1 success}$

$$f(x_i = x_i) = (1-p)^{x_i-1} p, \quad x_i = 1, 2, \dots$$

I success in x_i^{th} trial.

$$L = \prod_i f(x_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n (1-p)^{x_i-1} p$$

$$\mathcal{L} = \ln L = \ln \left[(1-p)^{\sum x_i - n} p^n \right] = n \ln p + (\sum x_i - n) \ln(1-p)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p} \right|_{p=0} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{n}{p} + (\sum x_i - n) \frac{1}{1-p} (1) = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{p} - 1 = \frac{\sum x_i - n}{n} = \bar{x} - 1$$

$$\boxed{\hat{p} = \frac{1}{\bar{x}}}$$

// Observe: MLE is not always \bar{x} .

$$5. \quad \{X_i\}_{i=1}^n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

to find:

a) MLE (σ^2)

b) Sample variance of σ^2 .

$$\rightsquigarrow a) \text{ likelihood, } L = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left[-\sum_i \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$$

$$\log \text{ likelihood, } \mathcal{L} = \left(-\frac{n}{2}\right) \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \sum_i \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \sigma^2} = \left(-\frac{n}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right) - \sum_i \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2} \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma^4}\right)$$

$$\textcircled{a} \quad \text{MLE } \hat{\sigma}^2, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \sigma^2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-n}{2\sigma^2} = -\sum_i \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^4}$$

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

- if μ is known, $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sigma^2$

- if μ is not known, use MLE of μ .

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum_i \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}$$

$$\cdot \quad \left(\frac{n-1}{n} \right) \sum_i \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{(n-1)} \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{sample} \\ \text{variance.} \end{array}$$

$$\boxed{\hat{\sigma}^2 = \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right) s^2}$$

// Find MLE of $n \& p$, Binomial(n, p), \rightarrow in video.
 MLE of μ for $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

- MLE is one method of estimating the parameters.

- Other functions of samples can also be used.

$$\hat{\theta}^* = g(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

\downarrow called the estimator

Called the estimate. • the function.

• the value.

Uniform distribution } . $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} U(0, \theta)$

estimators : $\hat{\theta} = \max \{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$

$$\hat{\theta} = 2\bar{x} ; \hat{\theta} = 12\sqrt{s_x^2}$$

s_x^2 : sample variance.

\Rightarrow Method of Maximizing Moments (MME, often used).



Other methods:

Method of a) Least Squares

b) Minimum variance

c) Minimum Chi-square

d) Inverse probabilities

// Not in this course

* Properties of estimators.

• Given two estimators, which one is better?

a) Bias: $|E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta|$ = How far $\hat{\theta}$ is from expected value of $\hat{\theta}$
 If we repeat the experiment many times, does $\hat{\theta} \rightarrow \theta$?
 on an average?

b) Variance: $E[(\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta}))^2]$

Mean Squared Error } $MSE = E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$
 $= \text{bias}^2 + \text{Variance.}$

Others Characteristics }

• Consistency

• Sufficiency. // Not in this course

- $\{x_i\}_{i \in I_n} \sim U(0, \theta)$

a) $\hat{\theta}_2 = 2\bar{x}$ $E(\hat{\theta}) = 2E(\bar{x}) = 2 \cdot \frac{\theta}{2} = \theta$

Unbiased

$$\begin{aligned} MSE(\hat{\theta}_2) &= \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_2) = 4V(\bar{x}) \\ &= 4 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{n} \cdot nV(x) \right) = \frac{\theta^2}{3n} \end{aligned}$$

- $\hat{\theta}_1 = \max \{x_i\}$ $f_{\hat{\theta}_1}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{\theta} x^{n-1} & \text{if } x < \theta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

biased

& underestimates θ .

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}_1) = \frac{2\theta^2}{(n+1)(n+2)}$$

~~~~~ Biased, but  $MSE(\hat{\theta}_1) < MSE(\hat{\theta}_2)$

**⚠ Example 7.7 in Sheldon Ross.**

### LECTURE 8

Some properties of MLE:

- ++ Usually gives unbiased & low MSE estimates.
- If sample is small, bias maybe large.
- + Well understood method.
- Strong assumptions about the observations.
- ++ MLE of iid samples is consistent estimator.
- Computationally intensive.
- Likelihood function & optimization problems.
  - Very complex in some cases.
  - existence of solution via calculus.
  - multiple solutions.
  - minimization w.r.t one param may increase cost w.r.t others.

## INTERVAL ESTIMATION.

→ A range in which we have a high confidence that the parameter might lie is more useful & mathematically treatable compared to a point estimate.

eg:

- It's not very sensible to call a coin unbiased if  $p = 0.48$  or  $p = 0.54$ . (Sampling errors maybe)
- For given # samples, & confidence level, we'd like an interval  $(L, U)$  such that  $P[\theta \in (L, U)]$  is upto the specified confidence.

We usually calculate this interval from the point estimate  $\hat{\theta}$  &/or its properties.

- Read more here : [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Confidence\\_interval](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Confidence_interval)
  - [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Type\\_I\\_and\\_type\\_II\\_errors](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Type_I_and_type_II_errors)
  - The confidence is specified by  $\alpha$ . ( $0.05, 0.01, 0.1, 0.005$ )  
Common  
Consider Covid-19 testing.  
 $5\%, 1\%, 10\%, 0.5\%$

Contingency }  
table. }

|      |                 | Truth                             |                              |
|------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|
|      |                 | Has disease                       | No disease.                  |
| Test | Detects disease | Good test<br>(True positive)      | Bad test<br>(False positive) |
|      | Doesn't detect  | Very Bad test<br>(False negative) | Good test<br>(True negative) |
|      |                 | Type II errors                    |                              |

Type I error }  $\alpha$       Type II error }  $\beta$   
 probability                                    probability  
 Reducing one  
 increase other.

- This is the confidence that's usually given.
- More serious than in consequence.  
 (In some situations)

- \* Confidence of  $(1-\alpha)$  or  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  means that if we repeat the test sufficiently large # times, we can expect  $\theta$  to lie in the interval  $(L, U)$   $100(1-\alpha)\%$  # times.
  - \* A tight interval (small  $U-L$ ) is sensible & desired.  
(eg.  $3\sigma$  limits around  $\mu$  has almost all samples - it's not useful).

- $\hat{\theta} \rightarrow$  the point estimate  
 $\hat{\theta} - \varepsilon, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon$
- Need not be symmetric interval (eg in skewed distros, eg.  $\bar{X}$ , one sided intervals, etc).
- \* Mainly  $P[\theta \in (\hat{\theta} - \varepsilon, \hat{\theta} + \varepsilon)] \geq 1 - \alpha$   
 $= P[|\theta - \hat{\theta}| < \varepsilon] = 1 - \alpha$

\* Say  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

a) Estimating Confidence Interval for  $\mu$ .

a.1)  $\sigma^2$  = pop. variance is known.

A good candidate for  $\mu$  is  $\bar{X}$ .

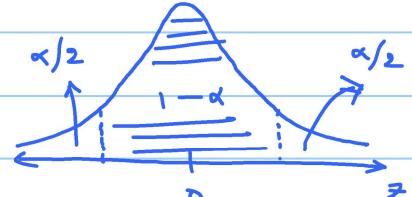
We want to  
find  $\varepsilon$  s.t.

$$P[|\bar{X} - \mu| < \varepsilon] = 1 - \alpha$$

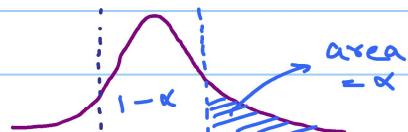
$$\Rightarrow P\left[\left|\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right| < \frac{\varepsilon/\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow P\left[-\frac{\varepsilon/\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} < Z < \frac{\varepsilon/\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

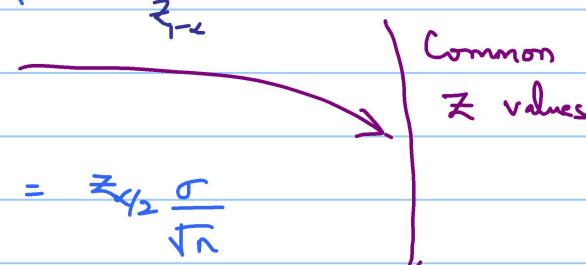
$$\equiv F\left(\frac{\varepsilon/\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right) - F\left(-\frac{\varepsilon/\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$



Def:  $Z_\alpha := Z$  such that  $P[Z > Z_\alpha] = \alpha$



• By symmetry,  $P[Z > Z_{1-\alpha}] = 1 - \alpha$   
 $\Leftrightarrow P[Z < Z_{1-\alpha}] = \alpha$



$$\Rightarrow Z_{\alpha/2} = \frac{\varepsilon/\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \varepsilon = Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$\Rightarrow$  The  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  Confidence interval for  $\mu$  is

$$\left(\bar{X} - \frac{Z_{\alpha/2} \sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + \frac{Z_{\alpha/2} \sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

$\rightarrow$  These  $Z_{\alpha/2}$  or  $Z_\alpha$  ( $t_\alpha, \chi^2_\alpha, \dots$ ) are tabulated, called critical values @ some  $\alpha$  or table values.

| Confidence level | z critical value |
|------------------|------------------|
| 80%              | 1.28             |
| 90%              | 1.645            |
| 95%              | 1.96             |
| 98%              | 2.33             |
| 99%              | 2.58             |
| 99.8%            | 3.09             |
| 99.9%            | 3.29             |

## LECTURE 9

a.2)  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  CI for  $\mu$  of  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\sigma^2$  is unknown.

→ good candidate for  $\sigma^2$ , its estimate sample variance.  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = S^2$

Recap: •  $X_n^2 := \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i^2$  Chi-squared = sum of squares of  $n$  indep. (df:  $n^1$ ) std. normal variates

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{(n-1)}^2 \text{ if } \{X_i\}_{i=1}^n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\cdot \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Not normal / std normal} \\ \text{std normal variate} \end{array} \right.$$

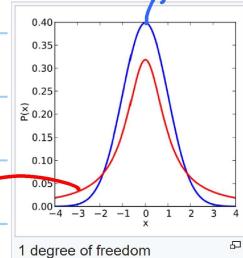
$$= \left( \frac{(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right) / \left( \sqrt{\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{n-1}} \right)$$

$$= \text{std normal variate} \quad \left[ \begin{array}{l} \chi_{n-1}^2 \text{ variate} \\ \text{deg of freedom} \end{array} \right] \quad \xrightarrow{n-1} z$$

Student's-t random variable.

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Student%27s\\_t-distribution](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Student%27s_t-distribution)

\*  $t_n = \frac{\bar{Z}^2}{\sqrt{X_n^2}}$  • t is heavy tailed  
 $\cdot$  but  $t \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} z$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$



$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{for small samples, use t distn.} \\ \text{std normal variate} \end{array} \right.$$

these are tabulated for different  $n$ .

$$\Rightarrow P\left[-t_{(n-1), \alpha/2} < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} < t_{(n-1), \alpha/2}\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow 100(1-\alpha)\% \text{ CI for } \mu \text{ when } \sigma^2 \text{ is unknown is}$$

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

Mnemonic Replace everything in a.1) formula by  $z \rightarrow t_{n-1}$  &  $\sigma \rightarrow s$

Last row of t table is z critical values. Not n

b)  $100(1-\alpha)\%$ . CI for  $\sigma^2$  in  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Start:

$$\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{n-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow P \left[ \chi^2_{(n-1), 1-\alpha/2} < \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} < \chi^2_{(n-1), \alpha/2} \right] = 1-\alpha$$

$$\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2}$$

$$\chi^2_{\alpha/2}$$

$\Delta$  (n-1) deg of freedom, not n in table.

$$\Rightarrow P \left[ \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{(n-1), \alpha/2}} < \sigma^2 < \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{(n-1), 1-\alpha/2}} \right] = 1-\alpha$$

$\Rightarrow 100(1-\alpha)\%$ . CI for  $\sigma^2$  of  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  is

$$\left( \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{(n-1), \alpha/2}}, \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{(n-1), 1-\alpha/2}} \right)$$

## LECTURE 10

### HYPOTHESIS TESTING.

Aim • To test if the sample supports/rejects a claim/hypothesis.  
data ~ claim or not.

Structure: • Null Hypothesis }  $H_0 : f(x, \theta) = g_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$   
(in gen) • Alternate Hypothesis }  $H_a : f(x, \theta) = g_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$   
eg:  $H_0 : \mu = 50 \text{ g}$   
eg:  $H_1 : \mu = 60 \text{ g}$   
 $H_1 : \mu > 50 \text{ g} \text{ or } \mu \neq 50 \text{ g} \dots$

• Test statistic - a function of the samples  
 $T$  eg:  $\sum x_i$  or  $\bar{x}$  or  $S_x \dots$

↳ This reduces the samples to a single numerical value

• Level of Significance }  $\alpha = \text{Maximum permissible Type I error}$   
eg: 5% or 1%

$$\alpha = P \left[ \text{reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is true} \right]$$

$$\beta = P \left[ \text{do not reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is not true} \right]$$

Miss detection

False alarm

- \* We talk of rejecting (or not)  $H_0$ . We don't say "accepting"  $H_0$ .
- Critical/rejection } the possible values of  $T$  for which we  
region reject  $H_0$ .  
↳ Its complement is called acceptance region.

Eg 1: Test for normal mean  $\mu$

given:  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\sigma^2$  known.

- a) fix  $H_0$ :  $\mu = \mu_0$
- Hypotheses:  $H_a$ :  $\mu \neq \mu_0$
- b) fix test statistic:  $T: \bar{X} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$  } We know its distribution ++  
It is MLE ++, WLLN, CLT, ...
- c) fix  $\alpha$ : LDS:  $\alpha$  — fix this before checking the sample or  
finding the value of  $T$  to avoid biasing yourself.
- Rejection region }  $D_c: \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : |T - \mu_0| > \varepsilon\}$   
If sample  $\in D_c$  reject  $H_0$ .  
 $\varepsilon$  depends on  $\alpha, n, \dots$

$$\text{test} \implies P[|\bar{X} - \mu| > \varepsilon \mid \mu = \mu_0] = \alpha$$

(rejecting  $H_0$ )      ( $H_0$  is true)

$$\implies P[|\bar{X} - \mu_0| > \varepsilon] = \alpha \quad \bar{X} - \mu_0 \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$\implies P\left[\left|\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right| > \frac{\varepsilon}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right] = \alpha$$

$$\downarrow Z_{\alpha/2} = \frac{\varepsilon}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \implies \varepsilon = Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

d) find the  $\leadsto$  e) Conclusion

value of  $T$

$$\text{If } |\bar{X} - \mu_0| > \varepsilon = Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \quad \text{reject } H_0 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{① given level} \\ \text{of significance.} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{If } |\bar{X} - \mu_0| \leq \varepsilon \quad \text{don't reject } H_0.$$

Another strategy }

- fix test statistic

$$T \text{ as } Z := \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \quad \leadsto \text{If } Z_{\text{calc}} > Z_{\alpha/2} \text{ reject } H_0.$$

- \* Critical region depends on
    - a) Level of significance. ( $\alpha = 1\%$  is stricter than  $\alpha = 5\%$ )
    - b) Type of test / hypotheses.
- } if  $H_a: \mu > \mu_0$ , one-sided test  
 $H_a: \mu < \mu_0$ , use  $Z_{\alpha}$

Eg 2: Test for  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma^2$  unknown.

Use t-test instead of  $Z$ ,  $s$  instead of  $\sigma$

$$T: \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} = t_{\text{calc}} \text{ (say).}$$

If  $t_{\text{calc}} < t_{(n-1), \alpha/2}$  or  $t_{(n-1), \alpha}$  don't reject  $H_0$ .  
 depends on  $H_0$ .  
 called the "table value"  $t_{\text{tab}}$ .

Eg 3: Test for variance of  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$H_0: \sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2$$

$$H_1: \sigma^2 \neq \sigma_0^2$$

Rejection region } reject  $H_0$  if  $\sigma_0 \notin \left( \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-1}}, \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-1}} \right)$

Eg 4: Test for equality of means.

= Do both samples come from the same population / inherent distribution. (keeping sampling errors apart)

Given:  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$ , variance  $\sigma_x^2$  &  $\sigma_y^2$  known.

$\{y_i\}_{i=1}^m \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$ ,  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$  (independent)

$$H_0: \mu_x = \mu_y$$

$$H_1: \mu_x \neq \mu_y$$

Test statistic }  $T_1: \bar{x} - \bar{y} \sim N\left(\mu_x - \mu_y, \frac{\sigma_x^2}{n} + \frac{\sigma_y^2}{m}\right)$

$$P\left[\left|\bar{x} - \bar{y} - (\mu_x - \mu_y)\right| \leq Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_x^2}{n} + \frac{\sigma_y^2}{m}} \mid \mu_x = \mu_y\right] = 1 - \alpha$$

Reject  $H_0$  if:  $|\bar{x} - \bar{y}| > Z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_x^2}{n} + \frac{\sigma_y^2}{m}}$

Given:  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$ , variance  $\sigma_x^2$  &  $\sigma_y^2$  unknown.  
 $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^m \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$ ,  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$  (independent)

$$H_0: \mu_x = \mu_y$$

$$H_a: \mu_x \neq \mu_y$$

$$\cdot \frac{(n-1)S_x^2}{\sigma_x^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2 ; \quad \frac{(m-1)S_y^2}{\sigma_y^2} \sim \chi_{m-1}^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{(n-1)S_x^2}{\sigma_x^2} + \frac{(m-1)S_y^2}{\sigma_y^2} \sim \chi_{n+m-2}^2$$

Another important assumption for simplification  $\sigma_x^2 = \sigma_y^2 = \sigma^2$  (same population)  
 $\Rightarrow \sim \chi_{n+m-2}^2$

$$\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{std} \\ \text{normal} \end{array} \right\} \frac{(\bar{x} - \bar{y}) - (\mu_x - \mu_y)}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} \right)}} \sim t_{n+m-2}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{c} \sqrt{\frac{\chi^2_{n+m-2}}{n+m-2}} \end{array} \right\} \frac{\sqrt{(n-1)S_x^2 + (m-1)S_y^2 \left( \frac{1}{n+m-2} \right)}}{\sqrt{\sigma^2}}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{Test} \\ \text{Statistic} \end{array} \right\} T: \frac{(\bar{x} - \bar{y}) - (\mu_x - \mu_y)}{\left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} \right) \sqrt{\frac{(n-1)S_x^2 + (m-1)S_y^2}{n+m-2}}} \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{the pooled estimator} \\ S_p^2 \text{ of variance } \sigma^2 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$P \left[ \left| \bar{x} - \bar{y} - (\mu_x - \mu_y) \right| \leq t_{\alpha/2, n+m-2} \sqrt{S_p^2 \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} \right)} \mid \mu_x = \mu_y \right] = 1 - \alpha$$

Reject  $H_0$  if:

$$t_{\text{calc}} := \frac{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|}{\sqrt{S_p^2 \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} \right)}} > t_{(n+m-2), \alpha/2} (= t_{\text{tab}})$$

- The other case when  $\sigma_x^2 \neq \sigma_y^2$  is complicated.

$\hookrightarrow$  If  $n, m$  are large,  $\frac{\bar{x} - \bar{y}}{\sqrt{\frac{S_x^2 + S_y^2}{n+m}}}$  is approximately normal,  
use  $z$  test.