Mathematics/Statistics Bootcamp Part V: Inference

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What is statistical inference?

- A statistical experiment generates a collection of data X.
- ▶ The set of all possible data values is the **sample space** Ω.
- ▶ A **statistical model** is a family of possible distributions $\{P_{\theta}, \theta \in \Theta\}^1$ for **X**, where Θ denotes the parameter space.

E.g., consider an experiment of tossing a coin n times, and recording Head (H) or Tail (T) for each toss.

- ▶ The sample space is $\Omega = \{H, T\}^n$.
- Assume the tosses are independent with an equal head probability θ . Let $n_h = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(x_i = H)$ denote the total number of heads,

$$P_{\theta}(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n) = \theta^{n_h}(1 - \theta)^{n - n_h}.$$

 $^{^{1}}P_{ heta}$: frequentist notation which refers to the model with parameter value heta



What is Statistical Inference?

We are usually interested in:

- learning about θ , or some function $g(\theta)$ based on the data. Common types of inference problems are:
 - 1. Point estimation;
 - 2. Interval estimation;
 - 3. Hypothesis testing;
 - 4. Prediction.
- evaluating performance of the inference procedure for
 - 1. finite sample;
 - 2. asymptotics (i.e., as number of data n goes to ∞).

Overview

Point Estimation

Bias, Variance and MSE CAN estimator MLE

Confidence Interval

Hypothesis Testing

Duality of Confidence Interval and Hypothesis Tests

p-value

Point Estimation

Point Estimator

A **point estimator** of the parameter θ is a function from the sample space to the parameter space:

$$\hat{\theta}(\cdot): \mathcal{X} \to \Theta$$
.

- ► Estimator vs. Estimate: The former is a function, while the latter is the realized value of this function based on an observed sample:
 - **b**efore observing any data, the sample data is *random*, therefore $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})$ is random
 - ightharpoonup once we observe the data $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$, the estimate $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ is a number
- Examples of point estimators: the OLS estimator, the sample mean, etc.

Sample Mean

Let X_1,\ldots,X_n be a random sample drawn independently from a population. $\mathbb{E}[X_i]=\mu,\ \mathbb{V}[X_i]=\sigma^2$ are the population mean and variance. Assume σ^2 is known, μ is unknown and is the parameter of interest.

We consider the sample mean estimator $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$.

Is it a good estimator? What about ...

- ▶ median?
- $\bar{X} 1?$
- **>** 5?

Bias and Variance

▶ The **bias** of an estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of θ is defined to be

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta}[\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})] - \theta.$$

An unbiased estimator is one for which the bias is zero.

Is the sample mean \bar{X} unbiased?

▶ The variance of an estimator is $\mathbb{V}_{\theta}[\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X})]$.

What's the variance of \bar{X} ? What about the few alternatives we considered?

Mean Squared Error

The **mean squared error** (MSE) of an estimator $\hat{\theta}$ for the point estimation of θ is

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta}[(\hat{\theta}-\theta)^2].$$

Note:

- ► MSE is commonly used, but it is just one of many ways to evaluate estimators.
- ▶ $MSE(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{V}_{\theta}(\hat{\theta}) + Bias(\hat{\theta})^2$. MSE captures both the precision of the estimator (variance over different samples) as well as the accuracy (biasedness).
- ► An estimator that is biased (many Bayesian estimators) but more precise might be preferable to one that is unbiased but fluctuates wildly.

Mean Squared Error - Exercise

- 1. Same setup. Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be a random sample drawn independently from a population. $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$, $\mathbb{V}[X_i] = \sigma^2$ are the population mean and variance. Assume σ^2 is known, and μ is unknown.
 - (a) Derive the MSE for the sample mean estimator \bar{X}
 - (b) Consider an alternative estimator for μ , the linear shrinkage estimator $\hat{\mu}=\omega\bar{X}$, where $\omega\in[0,1]$. Find the Bias, Variance and MSE of $\hat{\mu}$, and compare its MSE vs the MSE for \bar{X} .
- 2. Show that $MSE(\hat{\theta}) = \mathbb{V}_{\theta}(\hat{\theta}) + Bias(\hat{\theta})^2$.

Asymptotic Behaviors of Sample Mean

If we increase the sample size, i.e., n goes to ∞ , will the sample mean estimator get better? In what sense?

Let \bar{X}_n denote the sample mean estimator for a sample of size n. Notice that $\mathbb{V}[\bar{X}_n] = \sigma^2/n$ goes to 0 as $n \to \infty$.

Is \bar{X}_n getting closer to μ ? For some $\epsilon > 0$, consider

$$\mathbb{P}(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon).$$

Example: Compute this probability for $X_1, \ldots, X_n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ in closed form, and then its limit when $n \to \infty$.

Probability Inequalities

Theorem

Markov's Inequality: Let X be an integrable non-negative random variable. Then for any t > 0,

$$\mathbb{P}(X > t) \leq \frac{E[X]}{t}.$$

Theorem

Chebyshev's Inequality: For any square integrable random variable X with $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ and $\mathbb{V}[X] = \sigma^2$,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \ge t) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{t^2}.$$

Convergence in Probability

Let $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ be a sequence of random variables, X be a random variable. We say X_n converges to X in probability, if for all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}(|X_n-X|>\epsilon)=0.$$

Usually denote as $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$.

The Law of Large Numbers (LLN)

Let $\{X_1,\ldots,X_n\}$ be a sequence of independently and identically distributed (i.i.d.) square integrable random variables with $E[X_i]=\mu$, let \bar{X}_n be the sample mean.

The Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN) states:

$$\bar{X}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \mu \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

That is, for any $\epsilon > 0$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}(|\bar{X}_n-\mu|>\epsilon)=0.$$

Exercise: use Chebyshev's inequality to prove WLLN.

There are many versions of LLN, see this link as a start if interested.



LLN Application - Monte Carlo Methods

An application of LLN is the use of Monte Carlo methods as numerical approximation for expectation of functions.

Consider a random variable $X \sim f$, for some distribution f. We are interested in $\mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ for some function $h(\cdot)$.

If we are able to sample from f, it's natural to consider the following estimator:

- 1. sample $x_1, \ldots, x_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} f$
- 2. $\hat{h}_n(X) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h(x_i)$.

By WLLN, if $\mathbb{E}[h(X)]$ exists, $\hat{h}_n(X) \stackrel{p}{\to} \mathbb{E}[h(X)]$.

Monte Carlo Methods - Probability

This generalizes into approximation for probability and integrals.

For any event A, let $\mathbb{1}_A(X)$ denote the indicator function where

$$\mathbb{1}_A(X) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Notice that

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_A(X)].$$

Therefore we can use Monte Carlo methods to approximate probabilities without a closed form.

Monte Carlo Methods - Probability Example

Let $X \sim N(1,3)$, use Monte Carlo simulations to estimate $\mathbb{P}[X \leq 2]$.

Notice that $\mathbb{P}[X \leq 2] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}(X \leq 2)]$. Therefore we can approximate it as follows:

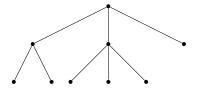
- 1. sample $x_1, \ldots, x_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(1,3)$
- 2. compute

$$\hat{\mathbb{P}}[X \le 2] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}(x_i \le 2).$$

See R demo.

Monte Carlo Methods - Advanced Example (Optional)

A Poisson(λ) branching process is a tree where each node has a random number of children drawn from a Poisson(λ) distribution.



Commonly used in ecology, genetics, particle physics, random graphs, etc. Want to know

P[Tree survives forever]

as a function of λ . Can approximate by simulating many trees. See R demo.

Monte Carlo Methods - Integration

Consider the integral

$$\int_0^2 x^2 dx.$$

There is a closed form solution from calculus, which is

$$\int_0^2 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} x^3 \Big|_0^2 = \frac{8}{3}.$$

Alternatively, use Monte Carlo simulation. Notice

$$\int_0^2 x^2 dx = 2 \int_0^2 \frac{1}{2} x^2 dx = 2 \mathbb{E}[X^2], \quad X \sim Unif(0, 2).$$

Monte Carlo Methods - Integration Example

Therefore we can approximate $\int_0^2 x^2 dx$ as follows:

- 1. sample $x_1, \ldots, x_n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} Unif(0,2)$
- 2. compute

$$2\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_i^2\right).$$

See R demo.

Monte Carlo Methods - Example

Think about how to use Monte Carlo simulations to approximate the following integral:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx.$$

Is this a good estimator?

Hint: the PDF for a standard Cauchy distribution is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}.$$

Recap

We considered the sample mean as a point estimator for the population mean, and evaluated its performance.

- ► For finite sample:
 - Bias, Variance and MSE
- ► Asymptotically, we have shown that for an integrable random variable *X*,

$$\bar{X}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \mathbb{E}[X],$$

i.e., the sample mean is a consistent estimator.

Consistency

A sequence of estimator $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$ is **consistent** for estimating θ if

$$\hat{\theta}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \theta$$
 as $n \to \infty$.

- The probability that a consistent estimator is more than ϵ away from the parameter is vanishingly small, for any $\epsilon > 0$.
- Consistent estimators get close to the parameter with high probability as sample size increases.

Anything else we can say about the sample mean?



The Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

Let $\{X_1, \ldots X_n\}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables with $E[X_i] = \mu$ and $Var[X_i] = \sigma^2 < \infty$.

Let \bar{X}_n denote the sample mean, then as $n \to \infty$, the sequence of random variables $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)$ converges in distribution to $N(0, \sigma^2)$:

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-\mu)\stackrel{d}{\to} N(0,\sigma^2).$$

Equivalently:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}\left(\sqrt{n}\frac{(\bar{X}_n-\mu)}{\sigma}\leq c\right)=\Phi(c).$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ denotes the CDF for a standard normal.

Convergence in Distribution

A sequence $\{X_1, X_2, \dots\}$ of random variables is said to **converge** in **distribution** to a random variable X if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}F_n(t)=F(t),$$

for every $t \in \mathbb{R}$ at which F is continuous, where F_n and F denote the CDFs for X_n and X.

Note that CLT applies regardless of the underlying distribution of the data as long as variance is finite and samples are i.i.d.

See R demo.

CAN Estimators

We have shown that for i.i.d. data with finite mean μ and variance σ^2 , the sequence of sample mean estimator $\{\bar{X}_n\}$ is Consistent for the population mean and Asymptotically Normal, i.e.,

$$\bar{X}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \mu, \quad \sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \stackrel{d}{\to} N(0, \sigma^2).$$

Hence it's a CAN estimator.

More formally, Let $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$ be a consistent sequence of estimators for θ and

$$\sqrt{n}\frac{(\hat{\theta}_n-\theta)}{\sigma}\stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N(0,1).$$

Then we say $\hat{\theta}_n$ is a **CAN estimator** for θ , with asymptotic variance σ^2 .



Likelihood and Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE)

Consider the statistical model $\mathcal{P} = \{P_{\theta} : \theta \in \Theta\}$. Let $f(x \mid \theta)$ be the PDF of P_{θ} . For $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} P_{\theta}$, the joint density is

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i \mid \theta).$$

The **likelihood function** is the joint density evaluated at realized value \mathbf{x} as a function of parameter θ :

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

The log-likelihood function is

$$\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \log L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f(x_i \mid \theta).$$

MLE - Example

A maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) of the parameter θ based on a random sample ${\bf X}$ is

$$\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{X}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in \Theta} L(\theta; \mathbf{X}).$$

It's the parameter value at which the likelihood function attains maximum, i.e., the *most probable* value.

Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known. Find the MLE of μ .

MLE - Exercise

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with both μ and σ^2 unknown. Find the MLEs for both μ and σ^2 . Are they unbiased?

We have seen that for finite samples, MLE is not necessarily unbiased. What about other properties?

- Is it efficient (small MSE) for finite sample, and asymptotically?
- ▶ Is it consistent?
- Is it asymptotically normal?

Under regularity conditions, the MLE is

- 1. consistent,
- 2. asymptotically normal,
- 3. efficient, or asymptotically optimal, and
- 4. equivariant to transformation of parameters.

We will only briefly go through the properties here. These materials will be properly covered later in the Statistical Inference class.

Let $\hat{\theta}_n$ be the MLE for parameter θ based on a sample of size n. Under regularity conditions,

- 1. $\hat{\theta}_n$ is consistent for θ , i.e., $\hat{\theta}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \theta$.
- 2. $\hat{\theta}_n$ is asymptotically normal,

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\to} N\left(0, \frac{1}{I(\theta)}\right),$$

where $I(\theta)$ is the **Fisher Information**,

$$I(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\theta; X)}{\partial \theta^2}\right] = \mathbb{V}\left[\frac{\partial \ell(\theta; X)}{\partial \theta}\right].$$

3. $\hat{\theta}_n$ is asymptotically optimal in the following sense. By the **Cramer-Rao lower bound**, for any other unbiased estimator $\tilde{\theta}$ of θ , and any $\theta \in \Theta$,

$$\mathbb{V}[\tilde{\theta}] > \frac{1}{nI(\theta)},$$

i.e., MLE achieves the smallest asymptotic variance among all unbiased estimators.

4. Let $\tau = g(\theta)$ be a function of θ , the MLE for τ is

$$\hat{\tau}_n = g(\hat{\theta}_n).$$

MLE - Optional Exercise

Let's use an exercise to gain a better understanding of the equivariance property of MLE.

Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} Bin(\theta)$. Find the MLE of θ .

Now rewrite the model in terms of

$$X_1,\ldots,X_n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} Bin\left(rac{\mathrm{e}^{\psi}}{1+\mathrm{e}^{\psi}}
ight).$$

Find the MLE of ψ and relate it to the MLE of θ .

Confidence Interval

Interval Estimator

Recall point estimation gives a single value estimate of the parameter of interest based on sample data. In contrast, interval estimation gives a range of plausible values.

- An interval estimator C_n of a parameter $\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}$ is a set-valued function: $\mathcal{X} \to 2^{\Theta}$, mapping from the sample space to subsets of the parameter space.
- ▶ Specifically $C_n = (L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X}))$, where $L(\cdot)$ and $U(\cdot)$ are functions: $\mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, $L(\mathbf{X}) \leq U(\mathbf{X})$.

Level $(1 - \alpha)$ Confidence Interval

We call C_n a level $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence interval(CI), or we say C_n has $(1-\alpha)$ coverage if

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C_n(\mathbf{X}) \mid \theta) \ge 1 - \alpha$$
, for all $\theta \in \Theta$.

Exercise: Suppose that **X** is a random sample from a distribution with parameter θ , and $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$ is a 95% CI of θ . If we observe **X** = **x**, which of the following statements is correct?

- A The probability that $\theta \in [L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})]$ is 0.95;
- B The probability that $\theta \in [L(\mathbf{x}), U(\mathbf{x})]$ is either 1 or 0.

Level $(1 - \alpha)$ Confidence Interval

Note the definition for a level $(1 - \alpha)$ CI:

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C_n(\mathbf{X}) \mid \theta) \ge 1 - \alpha$$
, for all $\theta \in \Theta$.

This is not a probability statement about θ . The parameter θ is fixed. It's the data vector **X** and the confidence interval $C_n(\mathbf{X})$ that are random.

- A common but **WRONG** interpretation: there's (1α) probability that the parameter θ is in the interval C_n .
- ▶ **CORRECT** interpretation: if we repeat the experiment many times, and construct intervals $C_n(\mathbf{X}_i)$ for each sample \mathbf{X}_i . $(1-\alpha)$ % of these intervals are expected to contain θ .

Confidence Interval - Example

Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known. We want to construct a level $(1 - \alpha)$ CI for μ .

Many possible ways! First consider using the Markov's inequality: for integrable non-negative random variable X, and any t>0,

$$\mathbb{P}(X > t) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{t}.$$

As $|\bar{X}_n - \mu|$ is non-negative, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > c) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[|\bar{X}_n - \mu|]}{c} \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\bar{X}_n - \mu)^2]^{1/2}}{c} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{nc}}.$$

For the second inequality, recall we showed $\|X\|_p \le \|X\|_q$ for all 0 .

Confidence Interval - Example

In order to construct a level $(1 - \alpha)$ CI, we want

$$\mathbb{P}(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > c) \leq \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}c} \leq \alpha \implies c \geq \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{\alpha}.$$

Set $c=\sigma/(\sqrt{n}\alpha)$ (we want narrow Cls!), a level (1- α) Cl for μ is

$$\left(\bar{X}_n - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{\alpha}, \bar{X}_n + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{\alpha}\right).$$

Notice that σ/\sqrt{n} is the standard deviation of \bar{X}_n . Taking $\alpha=0.05$, this CI is 40 times the standard deviation!! Can we do better?

Confidence Interval - Exercise

Still let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known.

Following a similar approach as in the example,

1. Construct a level $(1 - \alpha)$ CI for μ using the Chebyshev inequality: If $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ and $\mathbb{V}[X] = \sigma^2$,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X-\mu|\geq t)\leq \frac{\sigma^2}{t^2}.$$

- 2. Construct an exact level (1α) CI for μ based on the distribution of \bar{X}_n .
- 3. Compare the widths of these CIs using $\alpha = 0.05$.

Confidence Interval - Example Cont.

Same setup, but with σ^2 unknown. Let s^2 denote the sample variance estimator. Then

$$T_{n-1}=(\bar{X}_n-\mu)/(s/\sqrt{n})\sim t_{n-1}$$

is a pivotal quantity, i.e., its distribution is independent of μ . Therefore a $(1-\alpha)$ confidence interval of μ is given by

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

where $t_{df,p}$ is the $p \times 100\%$ th quantile of a student-t distribution with df degrees of freedom.

Confidence Interval - Optional Example

Consider the linear model $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$, $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim N_2(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$, with $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2}$, $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \beta_2)^T \in \mathbb{R}^2$, σ^2 unknown.

Let $\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_1, \hat{\beta}_2)^T$ be the OLS estimator, **P** be the orthogonal projection matrix onto the column space of **X**,

$$(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_{11} & \lambda_{12} \\ \lambda_{21} & \lambda_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Construct an exact level (1- α) CI for β_1 .

Hint: recall we have shown $\hat{\beta} \sim N_2(\beta, \sigma^2(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1})$. Check the *Distributions* slides, what would be an appropriate estimator for σ^2 for us to apply the approach in the last example?

Asymptotic Level $(1-\alpha)$ Confidence Interval

What about general situations when we do not have a pivotal quantity? One approach: make use of asymptotic normality of MLE.

Let $\hat{\theta}_n$ be the MLE of parameter θ . We know

$$\sqrt{nI(\theta)}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \stackrel{d}{\rightarrow} N(0,1).$$

▶ As $\hat{\theta}_n$ is consistent, by the *Continuous Mapping Theorem*,

$$\sqrt{nI(\hat{\theta}_n)}(\hat{\theta}_n-\theta)\overset{d}{\to}N(0,1).$$

▶ Therefore an asymptotic level $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence interval for θ is

$$\left(\hat{\theta}_n - Z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}[nI(\hat{\theta}_n)]^{-\frac{1}{2}}, \ \hat{\theta}_n + Z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}[nI(\hat{\theta}_n)]^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right).$$



Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis Testing

We use **Hypothesis Testing** to decide whether some hypothesis formulated is likely to be correct.

Consider the statistical model $\mathcal{P} = \{P_{\theta}, \theta \in \Theta\}$. Here's the most common setup.

- Let $\{\Theta_H, \Theta_K\}$ be a partition of the parameter space such that $\Theta_H \cap \Theta_K = \emptyset$, $\Theta_H \cup \Theta_K = \Theta$.
- We want to test the null hypothesis

$$H: \theta \in \Theta_H$$

against the alternative hypothesis

$$K: \theta \in \Theta_K$$
.



Test Errors and Power Function

► Type I Error and Type II Error:

		Decision	
		Accept <i>H</i>	Reject <i>H</i>
Truth	Н	Correct decision	Type I Error
	K	Type II Error	Correct decision

- Let *R* denote the **rejection region** for a test.
 - ▶ Probability of Type I Error: $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in R|H)$.
 - ▶ Probability of Type II Error: $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in R^c | K) = 1 \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in R | K)$.
- ▶ A **level**- α **test** is one such that $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in R|H) \leq \alpha$.

Hypothesis Testing Procedure

Testing procedure based on sample data \mathbf{x} :

- 1. Identify a test statistics $T(\mathbf{x})$ which distinguishes H and K (typically larger T indicates H is less likely to be true).
- 2. Find the null distribution of $T(\mathbf{X})$ and the critical value c for a proper level- α test
- 3. Accept H if $T(\mathbf{x}) < c$, reject otherwise.

Hypothesis Testing - Example

Let $X_1, \ldots, X_n \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with σ^2 known. We want to test:

$$H: \mu = 0 \text{ vs } K: \mu > 0.$$

- A natural test statistics is $T(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{x}$, the sample mean. The larger the sample mean, the less likely H is true.
- ▶ Distribution of \bar{X} under H (i.e., the null distribution) is

$$\bar{X} \sim N(0, \sigma^2/n).$$

lacktriangle Therefore to set up a level lpha test, we can reject when

$$\bar{X} > Z_{1-\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Duality of Confidence Interval and Hypothesis Tests

There is one-to-one correspondence between level (1- α) confidence intervals and level α hypothesis tests.

Confidence interval to test

- ▶ Let $C: \Omega \to 2^{\Theta}$ be a level (1- α) confidence interval for parameter $\theta \in \Theta$.
- ▶ A level α test procedure for $H: \theta = \theta_0$ is to accept H if $\theta_0 \in C(\mathbf{X})$.

Test to confidence interval

- Let $A(\theta_0)$ be the acceptance region of a level α test for $H: \theta = \theta_0$.
- ▶ A level (1- α) confidence interval is $C(\mathbf{x}) = \{\theta \in \Theta : \mathbf{x} \in A(\theta)\}$, i.e., all parameter values that won't be rejected after observing \mathbf{x} .

p-value

p-value

A **p-value** $p(\mathbf{X})$ is the probability of obtaining test results at least as extreme as the observed statistics, assuming the null hypothesis is correct. It measures evidence against the null hypothesis.

For $H: \theta = \theta_0$, it is typically set up as:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{P}(T(\mathbf{X}) \geq T(\mathbf{x})|H),$$

where:

- ► $T(\mathbf{X})$: A test statistic (such as $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} \mu)}{\sigma}$), i.e., a function of the random data \mathbf{X} . Typically larger values indicate deviation from H.
- $ightharpoonup T(\mathbf{x})$: $T(\cdot)$ evaluated at the observed data \mathbf{x} .

p-value - Example

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug, and recording their response time.

The neurologist knows that the response time for a rat not injected with the drug follows a normal distribution with a mean response time of 1.2 seconds.

The mean of the 100 injected rats' response times is 1.05 seconds with a sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds.

Do you suggest that the neurologist conclude that the drug has an effect on response time?

Reference Guide

- ► Statistical Inference Casella and Berger
- ► A First Course in Bayesian Statistical Methods Hoff
- All of Statistics Wasserman

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- ▶ 2021S STA732 course materials
- 2020S STA532 course materials