

# STATISTICAL INFERENCE

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We know that statistical data is nothing but a random sample of observations drawn from a population described by a random variable whose probability distribution is unknown or partly unknown and we try to know about the properties of the population on the basis of knowledge of the properties of the sample. This inductive process of going from known sample to the unknown population is called 'Statistical Inference'

Formally, let  $x$  be a random variable describing the population under investigation. Suppose  $X$  has p.m.f  $f_o(x) = P(x = x)$  or p.d.f  $f_o(x)$  which depend on some unknown parameter  $\theta$  (single or vector valued) that may have any value in a set  $\Omega$  (called the parameters space). We assume that the functional form of  $f_o(x)$  is known but not the parameter  $\theta$  (except that  $\theta \in \Omega$ ). For example, the family of distributions  $\{f_\theta(x), \theta \in \Omega\}$  may be the family of Poisson distribution  $\{P(\lambda), \lambda \geq 0\}$  or normal distribution  $\{N(\mu, \sigma^2), -\infty < \mu < \infty, \sigma \geq 0\}$

Two problem of statistical inference are-

1. To estimate the value of  $\theta$  – problem of estimation
2. To test a hypothesis about  $\theta$  - problem of testing of the hypothesis

## POINT ESTIMATION

**Definition:** A random sample of size 'n' from the distribution of  $X$  is a set of independent and identically distributed random variables  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  each of which has the same distribution as that of  $X$ . The probability of the sample is given by

$$f_o(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_o(x_1)f_o(x_2) \dots f_o(x_n)$$

**Definition:** A statistic  $T = T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is any function of the sample values, which does not depend on the unknown parameter  $\theta$ . Evidently,  $T$  is a random variable which has its own probability distribution (called the 'Sampling distribution' of  $T$ )

For example,  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i$ ;  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$   $X_{(1)} = \min(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ ,  $X_{(n)} = \max(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  are some statistics.

If we use the statistic  $T$  to estimate the unknown parameter  $\theta$ , it is called the estimator (or point estimators) of  $\theta$  and the value of  $T$  obtained from a given sample is its 'estimate'

**Remark:** Obviously, for  $T$  to be a good estimator of  $\theta$ , the difference  $[T - \theta]$  should be as small as possible. However, since  $T$  is itself a random variable all that we can hope for is that it is close to  $\theta$  with high probability.

**Theorem** : Let  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  be a random sample of 'n' observations on X with mean  $E(X) = \mu$  and variance  $Var(x) = \sigma^2$  Let the sample mean and sample variance be  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i$  and  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$

Then,

$$(i) E(\bar{X}) = \mu$$

$$(ii) V(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$(iii) E(S^2) = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2$$

**Prof:** We have

$$E(\bar{X}) = E\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i\right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n E(x_i) = \mu$$

$$V(\bar{X}) = V\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i\right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_i^n V(x_i) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$E(ns^2) = E \sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$= E \sum_i^n [[(x_i - \mu) - (\bar{x} - \mu)]^2]$$

$$= E \left[ \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 - n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 \right]$$

$$= E(x_i - \mu)^2 - nE(\bar{x} - \mu)^2$$

$$= n\sigma^2 - n\sigma^2/n$$

$$= (n-1)\sigma^2$$

$$E(s^2) = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2$$

## **PROPERTIES OF ESTIMATORS**

### **UNBIASEDNESS:**

An estimator T of an unknown parameter  $\theta$  is called unbiased if

$$E(T) = \theta \text{ for all } \theta \in \Omega$$

*Example.* If  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is a random sample from any population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , the sample mean  $\bar{x}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu$  but the sample variance  $S^2$  is not an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$ .

However,  $\frac{ns^2}{n-1} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma^2$ .

*Ex.* if  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is a random sample from a normal distribution  $N(\mu, I)$  show that  $T = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i^2 - 1$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu^2$ ,

*Soln.*  $E(T) = E\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i^2 - 1\right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n E(x_i^2) - 1$

$E(x_i^2) = V(x_i) + E(x_i)^2 = (\mu^2 + 1)$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_1^n (\mu^2 + 1) - 1 = \mu^2$$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample of observation from a Bernoulli distribution  $f_\theta(x) = \theta^x(1-\theta)^{1-x}$  ( $x = 0, 1$ ) show that  $T = \frac{y(y-1)}{n(n-1)}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  where  $y = \sum_i^n x_i$

**Soln:** We know that  $E(x_i) = \theta$  and  $V(x_i) = \theta(1-\theta)$  so that  $E(Y) = n\theta$  and  $V(Y) = n\theta(1-\theta)$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y(Y-1)) &= E(Y^2) - E(Y) \\ &= V(Y) + [E(Y)]^2 - E(Y) \\ &= n\theta(1-\theta) + n^2\theta^2 - n\theta \\ &= n(n-1)\theta^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$E(T) = E\left[\frac{Y(Y-1)}{n(n-1)}\right] = \theta^2$$

Showing it to be an unbiased estimator of  $\theta^2$

**Example:** Show that the mean  $\bar{x}$  of a random sample of size  $n$  from the exponential distribution  $f_\theta(x) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-x/\theta}$  ( $x > 0$ ) is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  and has variance  $\theta^2/n$

**Soln:** We know that

$E(x_i) = \theta$  and  $V(x_i) = \theta^2$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ )

$E(\bar{X}) = \theta$  and  $V(\bar{X}) = \theta^2/n$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  to a random sample from a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance  $\theta$  ( $0 < \theta < \infty$ ) so that  $T = \sum x_i^2/n$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  and has variance  $2\theta^2/n$

Sohm we know that

$$E(x_i) = 0, E(x_i^2) = V(x_i) = \theta$$

$$E(T) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n E(x_i^2) = \theta$$

Also

$$E(x_i^4) = \mu_4 = 3\theta^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} V(T) &= V\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i^2\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_i^n V(x_i^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_i^n [E(x_i^4) - \{E(x_i^2)\}^2] \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_i^n [3\theta^2 - \theta^2] \\ &= \frac{2\theta^2}{n} \end{aligned}$$

**Example** Let  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from the rectangular distribution  $R(0, \theta)$  having

$$p, d, f \quad f_\theta(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta}, & 0 \leq x \leq \theta \ (\theta > 0) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Show that  $T_1 = 2\bar{x}$ ,  $T_2 = \frac{n+1}{n}Y_n$  and  $T_3 = (n+1)\gamma_i$  are all unbiased for  $\theta$ , where  $Y_1 = \min(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  and  $Y_n = \max(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

**Soln:** We know that

$$E(x) = \theta/2 \text{ and } V(x) = \theta^2/12$$

$$E(T_1) = E\left(2 \frac{\sum_i^n x_i}{n}\right) = \theta \text{ and } V(T_1) = \frac{\theta^2}{3n}$$

To obtain the expectation of  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  we need to obtain their distribution.

The *d.f.* of  $Y_n$  is-

$$\begin{aligned} F_y(y) &= P(Y_n \leq y) \\ &= P(\max(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \leq y) \\ &= P(x_i \leq y, x_n \leq y) \end{aligned}$$

$$= [P(x \leq y)]^n$$

$$= \left(\frac{y}{\theta}\right)^n = \frac{y^n}{\theta^n}$$

$p, d, f$  of  $Y_n$  is-

$$g_{Y_n}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{n y^{n-1}}{\theta^n}, & 0 \leq y \leq \theta \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Hence,

$$E(Y_n) = \int_0^\theta \frac{n y^n}{\theta^n} dy = \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right) \theta$$

Or

$$E\left(\frac{n+1}{n} Y_n\right) = \theta$$

So that  $T_2$  is unbiased for  $\theta$

[We can check that  $V(T_2) = \frac{\theta^2}{n(n+2)}$ ]

Again, the  $d. f.$  of  $Y_i$  is-

$$\begin{aligned} F_{Y_i}(y) &= P\{Y_i \leq y\} \\ &= P\{\min(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \leq y\} \\ &= 1 - P\{x_1 > y, x_2 > y, \dots, x_n > y\} \\ &= 1 - [1 - P(X < y)]^n \\ &= 1 - \left[1 - \frac{y}{\theta}\right]^n \end{aligned}$$

$p, d, f$  of  $Y_i$  is

$$g_{Y_i}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{n(\theta - y)^{n-1}}{\theta^n}, & 0 \leq y \leq \theta \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y_i) &= \int_0^\theta \frac{n y (\theta - y)^{n-1}}{\theta^n} dy \\ &= \frac{n}{\theta^n} \left\{ -y \frac{(\theta - y)^n}{n} \Big|_0^\theta + \frac{1}{n} \int_0^\theta (\theta - y)^n dy \right\} \\ &= \frac{n}{\theta^n} \left[ \frac{-1}{n} \frac{(\theta - y)^{n+1}}{n+1} \Big|_0^\theta \right] \\ &= \frac{\theta}{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

So that

$$E(T_3) = E[(n+1)Y_1] = \theta$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{we can check that } V(T_3) = \frac{n}{n+2} \theta^2 \\ \text{so that } V(T_2) < V(T_1) < V(T_3) \end{array} \right]$$

**Example:** Let  $((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))$  be a random variable from the Rectangular distribution  $R(\theta, 2\theta)$  having  $b, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta}, & \theta \leq x \leq 2\theta \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Show that

$$T_1 = \frac{n+1}{2n+1} x_{(n)}, T_2 = \frac{n+1}{n+2} x_{(1)}$$

And

$$T_3 = \frac{n+1}{5n+4} [2x_{(n)} + x_{(1)}] \text{ and } T_4 = \frac{2}{3} \bar{x} \text{ are all unbiased}$$

**Soln:** We can show that the distribution  $\{x_{(n)}\} dx_{(i)}$  have  $b, d, f$  given by

$$f_{x_{(n)}}(y) = \frac{n(y-\theta)^{n-1}}{\theta^n} = \theta \leq y \leq 2\theta$$

$$f_{x_{(1)}}(y) = \frac{n(2\theta-y)^{n-1}}{\theta^n} = \theta \leq y \leq 2\theta$$

**Example:** Let  $y_1, y_2, y_3$  be the order statistics of a random sample of size 3 from a uniform distribution having  $b, d, f$   $f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} (0 \leq x \leq \theta)$  show that  $4y_1, 2y_2, \frac{4}{3}y_3$  are all unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ . Also obtain their variance.

**Soln:** We can show that  $Y_1, Y_2, Y_3$  have  $b, d, f$

$$f_{y_1}(y) = \frac{3(\theta-y)}{\theta^3} = 0 \leq y \leq \theta$$

$$f_{y_2}(y) = \frac{6y(\theta-y)}{\theta^3} = 0 \leq y \leq \theta$$

$$f_{y_3}(y) = \frac{3y^2}{\theta^3} = 0 \leq y \leq \theta$$

$$E(y_1) = \theta/4, E(y_2) = \theta/2, E(y_3) = 3/4\theta$$

$$V(y_1) = 3\theta^2/80, V(y_2) = \theta^2/20, V(y_3) = 3\theta^3/80$$

\*If  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  are two unbiased estimator with variance  $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2$  and correlation coeff.  $P$  between than the linear combination which is unbiased and has minimum variance is.

$$Y = \frac{(\sigma_2^2 - P\sigma_1\sigma_2)Y_1 + (\sigma_1^2 - \varphi\sigma_1\sigma_2)Y_2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - 2\varphi\sigma_1\sigma_2}$$

\*If  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  are ind ept unbiased estimators of  $\theta$  with variance  $\sigma_i^2 (i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$ , the linear combination with minimum variance is

$$Y = k_1 y_1 + k_2 y_2 + \dots + k_n y_n$$

Where

$$k_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2} / \sum_i^n (1/\sigma_i^2)$$

$$i.e \quad y = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2}y_1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2}y_2 + \dots + \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2}y_n}{\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2}}$$

**Example** Let 'T' be an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ . Does it imply that  $T^2$  and  $\sqrt{T}$ , are unbiased for  $\theta^2$  and  $\sqrt{\theta}$  respectively?

**Soln :** 
$$V(T) = E(T^2) - [E(T)]^2$$

If  $E(T^2) = \theta^2$ , then  $V(T) = 0$  so that  $P(T = \theta) = 1$  which is impossible since T has to be of independent of  $\theta$ .

Also, 
$$V(\sqrt{T}) = E(T) - (E\sqrt{T})^2$$

If  $E(\sqrt{T}) = \sqrt{\theta}$ , then  $V(\sqrt{T}) = 0$  so that  $P(\sqrt{T} = \sqrt{\theta}) = 1 = P(T = \theta)$  which is impossible.

**Example** let  $y_1, y_2$ , be independent unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ , having finite variance ( $\sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2$ , say). Obtain a linear combination of  $y_1, y_2$  which is unbiased and has the smallest variance.

**Soln** Let  $Y = ky_1 + k'y_2$

Evidently,  $k + k' = 1$  or  $k' = 1 - k$

Then  $V(Y) = V[ky_1 + (1 - k)y_2]$

$$= k^2\sigma_1^2 + (1 - k)^2\sigma_2^2$$

Minimising  $V(Y)$  w. r. t.  $k$ , we get

Or 
$$2k\sigma_1^2 - 2(1 - k)\sigma_2^2 = 0$$

$$k = \sigma_2^2 / (\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$$

The linear combination with minimum variance is

$$Y = \left( \frac{\sigma_2^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2} \right) y_1 + \frac{\sigma_1^2}{(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)} y_2 = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} Y_1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} Y_2}{\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2}}$$

Note : if  $\sigma_1^2 = 2\sigma_2^2$  then  $k=1/3$

**Remarks:** (i) An unbiased estimator may not exist. Let x be a random variable with Bernoulli distribution.

$$f_\theta(x) = \theta^x(1 - \theta)^{1-x}, x = 0,1$$

It can be shown that no unbiased estimator exists for  $\theta^2$ .

(ii) Unbiased estimator may be assured.

Let  $X$  be a random variable having Poisson distribution  $P(x)$  and suppose we want estimator  $g(\lambda) = e^{-3\lambda}$ . Consider a sample of one observation and the estimator  $T = (-2)^X$ . Then  $E(T) = e^{-3\lambda}$  so that  $T$  is an unbiased estimator of  $e^{-3\lambda}$  but  $T(x) = (-2)^x$  for  $x$  even and  $T(x) < 0$  for  $x$  odd, which is absurd since  $e^{-3\lambda}$  is always positive.

(iii) Instead of the parameter  $\theta$  we may be interested in estimating a function  $g(\theta)$ .  $g(\theta)$  is said to be 'estimable' if there exists an estimator  $T$  such that  $E(T) = g(\theta)$ ,  $\theta \in \Omega$ .

**Minimum Variance Unbiased (MVU) estimators** : The class of unbiased estimators may, in general, be quite large and we would like to choose the best estimator from this class. Among two estimators of  $\theta$  which are both unbiased, we would choose the one with smaller variance. The reason for doing this rests on the interpretation of variance as a measure of concentration about the mean. Thus, if  $T$  is unbiased for  $\theta$ , then by Chebyshev's inequality-

$$P\{|T - \theta| \leq \varepsilon\} > 1 - \frac{\text{Var}(T)}{\varepsilon^2}$$

Therefore, the smaller  $\text{Var}(T)$  is, the larger the lower bound of the probability of concentration of  $T$  about  $\theta$  becomes. Consequently, within the restricted class of unbiased estimators we would choose the estimator with the smallest variance.

**Definition:** An estimator  $T = T(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is said to be a uniformly minimum variance unbiased

(UMVU) estimator of  $\theta$  (or an estimator for  $g(\theta)$  if it is unbiased and has the smallest variance within the class of unbiased estimators of  $\theta$  (or  $g(\theta)$ ),) of all  $\theta \in \Omega$ . That is if  $T$  is any other unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ , then-

$$\text{Var}(T) \leq \text{Var}(T') \text{ for all } \theta \in \Omega$$

Suppose we decide to restrict ourselves to the class of all unbiased estimators with finite variance. The problem arises as to how we find an UMVU estimator, if such an estimator exists. For this we would first determine a lower bound for the variances of all estimators (in the class of unbiased estimators under consideration) and then would try to determine an unbiased estimator whose variance is equal to this lower bound. The lower bound for the variances will be given by the Cramer-Rao inequality for which we assume the following regularity conditions:

Let  $X$  be a random variable with *p.d.f*  $f(x; \theta)$   $\theta \in \Omega$

(i)  $\Omega$  is an open interval (finite or not)

(ii)  $f(x; \theta)$  is positive on a set  $S$  independent of  $\theta$ .

(iii)  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x; \theta)$  exists for all  $\theta \in \Omega$



$$(iv) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, \theta) f(x_2, \theta) \dots f(x_n, \theta) dx_1, x_2, \dots, dx_n$$

May be differentiated under the integral sign.

$$(v) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) f(x_1; \theta) \dots f(x_n; \theta) dx_1, x_2, \dots, dx_n$$

May be differentiated under the integral sign where  $T(X_1, X_n)$  is any unbiased estimator of  $\theta$

**Cramer-Rao inequality:** Let  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  be a random sample of  $n$  observations on  $X$  with *b. d. f*  $f(x; \theta)$  and suppose the above regularity conditions hold. If  $T$  is any unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ , then-

$$\text{Var}(T) \leq \frac{1}{nE \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x; \theta) \right]^2}$$

**Proof:** We have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_i; \theta) dx_i = 1; i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Which gives, on differentiating *w. r. t*  $\theta$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x_i, \theta) dx_i = 0$$

Or 
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_i; \theta) \right] f(x_i; \theta) dx_i = 0 \dots \dots (A)$$

Or 
$$E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_i; \theta) \right] = 0 \dots \dots (1)$$

Also, since  $T$  is unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ , we have

$$E(T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} T(x_1, \dots, x_n) f(x_1, \theta) \dots f(x_n, \theta) dx_1 \dots dx_n = \theta$$

Which given on differentiation *w. r. t*  $\theta$

$$E(T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} T(x_1, \dots, x_n) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i, \theta) \right] dx_1 \dots dx_n = 1 \dots \dots (2)$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x_i; \theta) \prod_{i=i}^n f(x_i; \theta) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{1}{f(x_i; \theta)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x_i; \theta) \prod_{i=i}^n f(x_i; \theta) \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$= \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_i; \theta) \right] \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; \theta)$$

So that (2) becomes

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} T(x_1, \dots, x_n) \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_i; \theta) \right] f(x_1, \theta) \dots f(x_n, \theta) dx_1 \dots dx_n = 1$$

Or  $E(TZ) = 1$  ..... (3)

Where

$$Z = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_i; \theta)$$

From (1) we immediately get

$$E(Z) = \sum_{i=1}^n E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_i; \theta) \right] = 0 \dots \dots (4)$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(z) &= \sum_{i=1}^n E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_i; \theta) \right]^2 \\ &= n E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x_1; \theta) \right]^2 \dots (5) \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(TZ) &= E(TZ) - E(T)E(Z) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

(i) An unbiased estimator T whose variance equals the lower bound  $\frac{1}{nE \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2}$

If and only if T is if the form  $T = \theta + b_{\theta} z$  where  $z = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta)$

**Proof:**

$$V(T) = \frac{1}{nE \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2}$$

~~If~~

$$R(T, Z) = 1$$

i.e., ~~if~~ T is a linear ~~f~~ function of Z, say

$$T = a_{\theta} + b_{\theta} z$$

But  $E(T) = a_\theta = \theta$

*i. e*  $T = \theta + b_\theta Z$

Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from  $R(0, \theta)$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}, 0 \leq x \leq \theta$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}$$

$$E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2 = \frac{1}{\theta^2}$$

$$\text{CRB} = \frac{\theta^2}{n}$$

We know that  $T = \frac{n+1}{n} X_{(n)}$  is UMVUE whose variance is-

$$V(T) = \frac{\theta^2}{n(n+2)} < \frac{\theta^2}{n}$$

Therefore, we have  $P(T, Z) = \frac{\text{Cov}(T, Z)}{V(T)V(Z)} = \frac{1}{V(T)V(Z)}$

Since  $P(T, Z) \leq 1$  we get

$$V(T) \geq \frac{1}{nE \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2}$$

**Remark:** (i) the left page

(ii) If  $g(\theta)$  is an estimable function for which an unbiased estimator is  $T$  (*i. e.*  $E(T) = g(\theta)$ ) then C.R Inequality becomes-

$$V(T) \geq \frac{[g'(\theta)]^2}{nE \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2}$$

(iii) It can be show that

$$E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x; \theta) \right]^2 = -E \left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \log f(x; \theta) \right]$$

(iv) If an unbiased estimator exists which is such that its variance is equal to the lower bound  $\text{CRB} = \frac{1}{nE \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2}$  then it will be UMVUE.

(v) If there is no unbiased estimator whose variance equals the C R B it does not mean that UMVUE will not exist. Such estimators can be found (if these exists ) by other methods.

(vi) In case of distributions not satisfying the regularity conditions (e.g.: Rectangular distribution) UMVU estimators, if these exist can be found by other methods. For such cases UMVU estimator may have variance less than CRB.

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a Bernoulli distribution  $f(x; \theta) = \theta^x(1 - \theta)^{1-x}$  ( $x = 0, 1, 0 < \theta < 1$ )

Show that  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$  is a UMVU of  $\theta$

Soln :

$$\log f(x; \theta) = x \log \theta + (1 - x) \log(1 - \theta)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) &= \frac{x}{\theta} - \frac{1-x}{1-\theta} \\ &= \frac{x - \theta}{\theta(1-\theta)} \end{aligned}$$

So that

$$\begin{aligned} E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2 &= \frac{E(x - \theta)^2}{\theta^2(1-\theta)^2} \\ &= \frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{\theta^2(1-\theta)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)} \end{aligned}$$

By CR inequality we have C R B =  $\frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{n}$

Now,  $E(\bar{x}) = \theta$  and  $Var(\bar{x}) = \frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{n}$  that is equal to C R B. Hence  $\bar{x}$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$

**Example:** Let  $x$  be a random sample having Binomial distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \binom{m}{x} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{m-x}; \quad x = 0, 1, \dots, m (0 < \theta < 1)$$

Show that  $\bar{x}/m$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$ .

Soln:

$$\log f(x, \theta) = \log \binom{m}{x} + x \log \theta + (m - x) \log(1 - \theta)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) &= \frac{x}{\theta} + \frac{m-x}{1-\theta} \\ &= \frac{x - m\theta}{\theta(1-\theta)} \end{aligned}$$

So that

$$\begin{aligned} E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2 &= \frac{E(x - m\theta)^2}{\theta^2(1-\theta)^2} \\ &= \frac{m\theta(1-\theta)}{\theta^2(1-\theta)^2} \\ &= \frac{m}{\theta(1-\theta)} \end{aligned}$$

For sample of one observation  $X$  let  $T=T(X)$  be an unbiased estimator. The C.R.B is  $\frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{mn}$ . Now  $E\left(\frac{\bar{x}}{m}\right) = \theta$  and  $Var\left(\frac{x}{m}\right) = \frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{mn}$  so that  $\frac{\bar{x}}{m}$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$  (see left page)

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a Poisson distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{e^{-\theta} \theta^x}{x!}; \quad x = 0, 1, \dots \dots (\theta > 0)$$

Show that  $\bar{x}$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$ .

Soln:  $\log f(x, \theta) = -\theta + x \log \theta - \log x!$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) = -1 + \frac{x}{\theta}$$

$$= \frac{x - \theta}{\theta}$$

$$E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2 = \frac{E(x, \theta)^2}{\theta^2}$$

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

The C.R.B =  $\theta/n$

Now  $E(\bar{x}) = \theta$  and  $Var(\bar{x}) = \frac{\theta}{n}$  so that  $\bar{x}$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a normal distribution  $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$  where variance  $\sigma$  is known show that  $\bar{x}$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$ .

Soln:

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\log f(x, \theta) = \log \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \right) - \frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

Or

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) = \frac{(x-\theta)}{\sigma^2}$$

$$E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2 = \frac{E(x - \theta)^2}{\sigma^4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$

The C.R.B =  $\sigma^2/n$

Now  $E(\bar{x}) = \theta$  and  $V(\bar{x}) = \sigma^2/n$  so that  $\bar{x}$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$

**Example** Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from a normal distribution  $N(\mu, \theta)$  where  $\mu$  is known and  $\theta$  is that variance to be estimated. Show that  $s^2 = \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 / n$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$

Soln:  $f(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\theta}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\theta}}$

$$\log f(x; \theta) = \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\theta}} - \frac{1}{2} \log \theta - \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\theta}$$

Or

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) = -\frac{1}{2\theta} + \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\theta^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{(x - \mu)^2 - \theta}{2\theta^2} \\
E \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x, \theta) \right]^2 &= \frac{E[(x - \mu)^2 - \theta]^2}{4\theta^4} \\
&= \frac{E(x - \mu)^4 - 2\theta E(x - \mu)^2 + \theta^2}{4\theta^4} \\
&= \frac{3\theta^2 - 2\theta^2 + \theta^2}{4\theta^4} \\
&= \frac{1}{2\theta^2}
\end{aligned}$$

The C.R.B =  $2\theta^2/n$

Consider the estimator  $S^2 = \frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}$  for which  $E(S^2) = \theta$  and  $V(S^2) = \frac{2\theta^2}{n}$  so that  $S^2$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$

**Example** An UMVU estimator is unique, in the sense that if  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  are both UMVU estimator then  $T_0 = T_1$  almost surely (i.e.  $P(T_0 \neq T_1) = 0$ )

**Soln:** Since both  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  are unbiased

$$E(T_0) = E(T_1) = \theta \text{ for all } \theta \in \Omega$$

And since both are UMVUE,

$$V(T_0) = V(T_1) \text{ for all } \theta \in \Omega$$

Consider the new estimator

$$T = \frac{1}{2}(T_0 + T_1)$$

Which is also unbiased. Moreover,

$$V(T) = \frac{1}{4} [V(T_0) + V(T_1) + 2\rho\sqrt{V(T_0)V(T_1)}]$$

Where  $\rho$  is the corr. Coefficient between  $T_0$  and  $T_1$

$$V(T) = \frac{1 + \rho}{2} V(T_0)$$

By definition,  $V(T) \geq V(T_0)$ . It follows that  $\rho \geq 1$ . Therefore  $\rho = 1$  so that, for every  $\theta$ ,  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  are linearly related, i.e.

$$T_0 = a + bT_1$$

Where  $a, b$  are constants (may depend on  $\theta$ ) and  $b \geq 0$ . Taking expectation and variance we get

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \theta &= a + b\theta \\ V(T_0) &= b^2 V(T_1) \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Which imply that  $b=1$  and  $a = 0$ . Therefore

$$T_0 = T$$

## CONSISTENCY

**Definition:** A sequence of estimator  $\{T_n\}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  of a parameter  $\theta$  is said to be consistent if, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$T_n \rightarrow_p \theta$  for each fixed  $\theta \in \Omega$  that is, for any  $\epsilon (> 0)$

$T_n$  converges to  $\theta$  in probability

Or  $P\{|T_n - \theta| > \epsilon\} \rightarrow 0$

Or  $P\{|T_n - \theta| \leq \epsilon\} \rightarrow 1$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

### Remarks:

(i) For increase in sample size a consistent estimator will become more and more close to  $\theta$

(ii) Consistency is essentially a large sample property. We speak of the consistency of a sequence of estimators rather than that of one estimator.

(iii) If  $\{T_n\}$  is a sequence of estimator which is consistent for  $\theta$  and  $\{C_n\}, \{g_n\}$  are sequence of constants such that  $C_n \rightarrow 0$   $g_n \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  then  $\{T_n + C_n\}$  and  $\{g_n T_n\}$  are sequences of consistent estimators also.

(iv) We will show later that if  $\{T_n\}$  is a sequence of estimators such that  $E(T_n) \rightarrow \theta$  and  $V(T_n) \rightarrow 0$  and  $n \rightarrow \infty$  then  $\{T_n\}$  is consistent.

### Examples:

1. Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from any distribution with finite mean  $\theta$ . Then it follows from LLN that  $\bar{x}$  so that  $\bar{x} \rightarrow_p \theta$  is consistent for  $\theta$ . If the distribution has finite variance ( $\sigma^2$ , say)  $V(\bar{x}) = \sigma^2/n \rightarrow 0$  so that it follows from Remark (IV) that  $\bar{x}$  is consistent. It can be shown that the sample median is also consistent for  $\theta$

2. Suppose  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is a random sample from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

Let

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i/n$$

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{n}{n-1} s^2$$

4 The following is an example of an estimator which is unbiased but **not** consistent

Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from rectangular distribution.  $R(O, \theta)$  and let  $Y_i = \min(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  consider the estimator  $T = (n+1)Y_1$ . This is unbiased. Now for a any  $\epsilon (> 0)$ ,

$$P\left\{\left|Y_1 - \frac{\theta}{n+1}\right| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{n+1}\right\}$$

$$= \frac{n}{\theta^n}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\theta}{n+1} - \frac{\epsilon}{n+1} \\
&= \frac{1}{\theta^n} [-\theta - \psi]^n \frac{\frac{\theta}{n+1} + \frac{\epsilon}{n+1}}{\frac{\theta}{n+1} - \frac{\epsilon}{n+1}} \\
&= \frac{1}{\theta^n} \left[ \frac{(n\theta + \epsilon)^n - (n\theta - \epsilon)^n}{(n+1)^n} \right] \\
&= \frac{n^n}{(n+1)^n} \left[ \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon}{n\theta}\right)^n - \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon}{n\theta}\right)^n \right] \\
&\longrightarrow (e^{\frac{\epsilon}{\theta}} - e^{-\frac{\epsilon}{\theta}}) \\
& \quad n \rightarrow \infty
\end{aligned}$$

Which is some fixed number

$$P\{|T - \theta| \leq \epsilon\} + 1$$

Thus, T is not constant

We can show that

$$\begin{aligned}
E(s^2) &= \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2, \quad V(s^2) = \frac{2\sigma^4(n-1)}{n^2} \\
E(s'^2) &= \sigma^2, \quad V(s'^2) = \frac{2\sigma^4}{n-1}
\end{aligned}$$

By remark (iv) above  $s^2 + s'^2$  are both constant for  $\sigma^2$ ,  $s^2$  is biased and  $s'^2$  is unbiased.

3. Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be for a random sample for gamma distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta^b \Gamma(b)} e^{-x/\theta} x^{b-1} \quad (x \geq \theta, \theta > 0) \quad b \text{ known}$$

Show that  $\bar{X}/b$  is unbiased and consistent for  $\theta$

**Soln:**  $E(\bar{X}/b) = \theta, \quad V(\bar{X}/b) = \frac{\theta^2}{nb} \rightarrow 0$

$\bar{X}/b$  is unbiased and consistent

**Theorem:** If  $\{T_n\}$  is a sequence of estimators (of  $\theta$ ) such that

$$E(T_n) = \theta_n \rightarrow \theta$$

And

$$V(T_n) \rightarrow 0$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$  then  $\{T_n\}$  is consistent estimator of  $\theta$ .

**Proof:** By Chebyshev's inequality, for any  $\epsilon (> 0)$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}
P\{|T_n - \theta| > \epsilon\} &\leq \frac{E(T_n - \theta)^2}{\epsilon^2} \\
&= \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} E[(T_n - \theta_n) + (\theta_n - \theta)]^2 \\
&= \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} E[(T_n - \theta_n)^2 + (\theta_n - \theta)^2 + 2(\theta_n - \theta)(T_n - \theta)]
\end{aligned}$$



$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} [V(T_n) + (\theta_n - \theta)^2] \rightarrow 0$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$  by given condition of the theorem so that  $T_n$  is consistent for  $\theta$ .

**Theorem:** If  $\{T_n\}$  is a sequence of consistent estimators of  $\theta$  and  $g(\theta)$  is a continuous function of  $\theta$ , then  $\{g(T_n)\}$  is consistent for  $g(\theta)$

**Proof:** Since  $T_n$  is consistent for  $\theta$ , for any  $\epsilon_1 (> 0)$

$$P\{|T_n - \theta| \leq \epsilon_1\} \rightarrow 1$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Also, since  $g(\theta)$  is a continuous function, given  $\epsilon (> 0)$  we can choose  $\epsilon_1 (> 0)$  such that

$$|T_n - \theta| \leq \epsilon_1 \rightarrow |g(T_n) - g(\theta)| \leq \epsilon$$

Therefore,

$$P\{|T_n - \theta| \leq \epsilon_1\} \leq P\{|g(T_n) - g(\theta)| \leq \epsilon\}$$

But as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , L.H.S  $\rightarrow 1$  and, consequently, R.H.S  $\rightarrow 1$ , i.e.

$$P\{|g(T_n) - g(\theta)| \leq \epsilon\} \rightarrow 1$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence  $g(T_n)$  is consistent for  $g(\theta)$ .

We can prove the following results:

(i) If  $\{T_n\}$  is consistent for  $\theta$ , then  $T_n^2$  is consistent for  $\theta^2$ .

(ii) If  $\{T_n\}$  is consistent for  $\theta$  (R and non-negative) then  $\sqrt{T_n}$  is consistent for  $\sqrt{\theta}$ .

**Proof** For any  $\epsilon (> 0)$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} P\{|T_n - \theta| \geq \epsilon\} &= P\{|(\sqrt{T_n} - \sqrt{\theta})(\sqrt{T_n} + \sqrt{\theta})| \geq \epsilon\} \\ &= P\left\{|\sqrt{T_n} - \sqrt{\theta}| \geq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{T_n} + \sqrt{\theta}}\right\} \\ &\geq P\left\{|\sqrt{T_n} - \sqrt{\theta}| \geq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{\theta}}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

Since L. H. S  $\rightarrow 0$ , R. H.S  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

(iii) If  $\{T_n\}$  is consistent for  $\theta$  and  $\{T'_n\}$  is consistent for  $\theta'$ , then  $\{T_n \pm T'_n\}$  is consistent for  $\theta \pm \theta'$ .

**Proof:** for any  $\epsilon (> 0)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} P\{|(T_n + T'_n) - (\theta + \theta')| \geq \epsilon\} \\ \leq P\{|T_n - \theta| + |T'_n - \theta'| \geq \epsilon\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq P\left\{|T_n - \theta| \geq \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right\} U\{|T'_n - \theta'| \geq \epsilon\} \\ &\leq P\left\{|T_n - \theta| \geq \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right\} + P\{|T'_n - \theta'| \geq \frac{\epsilon}{2}\} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Therefore  $\{T_n + T'_n\}$  is consistent for  $(\theta + \theta')$

(iv) if  $T_n$  and  $T'_n$  are consistent for  $\theta$  and  $\theta'$  respectively,  $T_n T'_n$  is consistent for  $\theta\theta'$ .

**Proof:** we can write

$$\begin{aligned} T_n T'_n &= \frac{(T_n + T'_n)^2 - (T_n - T'_n)^2}{4} \\ &\xrightarrow{p} \frac{(\theta + \theta')^2 - (\theta - \theta')^2}{4} \end{aligned}$$

## **EFFICIENCY:**

If  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are two unbiased estimators of a parameter  $\theta$ , each having finite variance  $T_1$  is said to be more efficient than  $T_2$  if  $V(T_1) < V(T_2)$ . The (relative) efficiency of  $T_1$  relative to  $T_2$  is defined by

$$\text{Eff}(T_1/T_2) = \frac{V(T_2)}{V(T_1)}$$

It is used to judge the efficiency of an unbiased estimator by comparing its variance with the Cramer-Rao lower bound (C R B).

**Definition:** Assume that the regularity condition of CR inequality hold (we call it a regular situation) for family  $\{f(x, \theta), \theta \in \Omega\}$ . An unbiased estimator  $T^*$  of  $\theta$  is called **most efficient** if  $V(T^*)$  equals the CRB. In this situation, the 'efficiency' of any other unbiased estimator  $T$  of  $\theta$  is defined by

$$\text{Eff}(T) = \frac{V(T^*)}{V(T)}$$

Where  $T^*$  is the most efficient estimator defined above

### **Remarks:**

(i) The above definition not proper in—

(a) regular situation when there is no unbiased estimator whose variance equals the CRB but an UMVUE exists and maybe found by other methods.

(b) Non-regular situations when an UMVUE exists and may be found by other methods

(ii) The UMVUE is 'most efficient' estimator in the examples considered earlier all UMVUE, whose variances equalled CRB are most efficient

**Example** Consider  $a, r, s(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  from a normal distribution  $N(\mu, \theta)$  where mean  $\mu$  is known and variance  $\theta (0 < \theta < \infty)$  is to be estimated

We have seen that  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$  is UMVUE of  $\theta$  for which the variance is equal to CRB and consequently,  $s^2$  is most efficient. Let  $s'^2 = \frac{1}{(n-1)} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$

Then  $E(S'^2) = \theta$  and  $V(S'^2) = \frac{2\theta^2}{n-1}$  so that the efficiency of  $s'^2$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Eff}(s'^2) &= \frac{2\theta^2/n}{2\theta^2/(n-1)} \\ &= \frac{n-1}{n} \end{aligned}$$

**Asymptotic efficiency:** As different from the above definition of efficiency we may define efficiency in another way as follows, which may be called asymptotic efficiency.

Let us confine ourselves to consistent estimators which are asymptotically normally distributed. Among this class, the estimator with the minimum asymptotic variance is called the 'most efficient estimator'. It is also called best asymptotically normal (BAN) or consistent asymptotically normal efficient (CANE) estimator. We denote by  $\text{avar}(T^*)$  the asymptotic variance of a BAN estimator  $T^*$  then the efficiency of any other estimator  $T$  (within the class of asymptotically normal estimators) is defined by

$$\text{Eff}(T/T^*) = \frac{\text{avar}(T^*)}{\text{avar}(T)}$$

Where  $\text{avar}(T)$  is the asymptotic variance of  $T$ .

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma)$ , Consider the 'most efficient estimator'  $\bar{x}$  and another estimator  $\bar{x}_{me}$ . It can be shown that both are CAN estimators. We have

$$V(\bar{x}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

And 
$$V(\bar{x}_{me}) = \frac{\pi \sigma^2}{2n}$$

So that the efficiency of  $\bar{x}_{me}$  is given by

$$\text{Eff}(\bar{x}_{me}) = \frac{2}{\pi}$$

**Example:** Let  $T_1, T_2$  be two unbiased estimators of  $\theta$ , having the same variance. Show that the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  between  $T_1, T_2$  cannot be smaller than  $2e-1$ , where  $e$  is the efficiency of each estimator,

**Proof.** Let  $T_0$  be the most efficient estimator then

$$V(T_1) = V(T_2) = \frac{V(T_0)}{e}$$

Consider the unbiased estimator

$$T = \frac{T_1 + T_2}{2}$$

Its variance is  $V(T) = \frac{1}{4} [V(T_1) + V(T_2) + 2\rho\sqrt{V(T_1)V(T_2)}]$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left[ \frac{V(T_0)}{e} + \frac{V(T_0)}{e} + 2\rho \frac{V(T_0)}{e} \right] \\ &= \frac{1 + \rho}{2e} V(T_0) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $T_0$  is UMVUE,  $V(T) \geq V(T_0)$  which gives

$$\frac{1 + \rho}{2e} \geq 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \rho \geq 2e - 1$$

**Example:** let  $T_0$  be an UMVUE (or most efficient estimator) where  $T_1$  is unbiased with efficiency 'e'. If  $\rho$  is the correction coefficient between  $T_0$  and  $T_1$ , then show that  $\rho = \sqrt{e}$ .

**Soln:** we have

$$e = V(T_0)/V(T_1)$$

Or

$$V(T_1) = V(T_0)/e$$

Consider the estimator

$$T = \frac{(1 - \rho\sqrt{e})T_0 + \sqrt{e}(\sqrt{e} - \rho)T_1}{1 - 2\rho\sqrt{e} + e}$$

(Which is the linear combination of  $T_0, T_1$  with minimum variance) then  $T$  is also unbiased, having variance

$$\begin{aligned} V(T) &= \frac{[(1 + \rho^2 e - 2\rho\sqrt{e})V(T_0) + e(e + \rho^2 - 2\rho\sqrt{e})\frac{V(T_0)}{e} + 2\sqrt{e}(\sqrt{e} - \rho - \rho e - \rho^2\sqrt{e})\rho \left[ \frac{V(T_0)}{\sqrt{e}} \right]]}{[1 - 2\rho\sqrt{e} + e]^2} \\ &= \frac{(1 - 2\rho\sqrt{e} + e)(1 - \rho^2)}{(1 - 2\rho\sqrt{e} + e)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Or

$$V(T) = \frac{(1 - \rho^2)V(T_0)}{1 - 2\rho\sqrt{e} + e} = \frac{1 - \rho^2}{(1 - \rho^2) + (\sqrt{e} - \rho)^2} V(T_0)$$

Since  $(1 - \rho^2)$  and  $(\sqrt{e} - \rho)$  are both non-negative  $V(T) \leq V(T_0)$  but since  $T_0$  is UMVUE,  $V(T) = V(T_0)$ , therefore  $V(T) = V(T_0)$ , and  $\rho = \sqrt{e}$

## **SUFFICIENCY CRITERION:**

A preliminary choice among statistics for estimating  $\theta$ , before having for a UMVUE as BAN estimator, can be made on the basis of another criterion suggested by R.A. Fisher. This is called 'sufficiency' criterion.

**Definition:** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from the distribution of  $X$  having p.d.f  $f(x, \theta)$ ,  $\theta \in \Omega$ . A statistic  $T = T(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is defined to be **sufficient statistic** if and only if the conditional distribution of  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  given  $T=t$  does not depend on  $\theta$ , for any value  $t$ .

**[Note:** In such a case if we know the value of the sufficient statistic  $T$ , then the sample values are not needed to tell us anything more about  $\theta$ ].

Also the conditional distribution of any other statistic  $T$  (which is not for  $\Omega$  tray) given  $T$  is independent of  $\theta$ .

A necessary and sufficient condition for  $T$  to be sufficient for  $\theta$  is that the joint p. d.  $f$  of  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  should be of the form

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta) = g(T, \theta)h(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Where the first term on  $r, h, s.$ , depends on  $T$  and  $\theta$  and the second term is independent of  $\theta$ . This is known as Nyman's Factorisation Theorem which provides a simple method of judging whether a statistic  $T$  is sufficient

**Remark:** Any one to one function of a sufficient statistic is also a sufficient statistic

**Example:** Consider  $n$  Bernoulli trials with probability of success  $P$ . The associated Bernoulli random variables  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  have common distribution given by

$$f(x, p) = p^x(1-p)^{1-x}, x = 0, 1$$

The joint probability function of  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, \dots, x_n, p) &= p^{\sum_i^n x_i} (1-p)^{n-\sum_i^n x_i} \\ &= g\left(\sum_i^n x_i, p\right) h(x_1, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

Where

$$g\left(\sum_i^n x_i, p\right) = p^{\sum_i^n x_i} (1-p)^{n-\sum_i^n x_i}$$

And  $h(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 1$

Therefore  $\sum_i^n x_i$  is sufficient for  $p$ , and, so is  $\bar{x} = \sum_i^n x_i / n$ .

**Example**  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a poisson distribution  $P(\lambda)$  i. e

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

The joint probability function of  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \lambda) &= \frac{e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum_i^n x_i}}{\prod_i^n x_i!} \\ &= g\left(\sum_i^n x_i, \lambda\right) h(x_1, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

Where

$$g\left(\sum_i^n x_i, \lambda\right) = e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum_i^n x_i}$$

$$h(x_1, x_n) = \frac{1}{\prod_i^n x_i!}$$

Hence.

$$\sum_i^n x_i \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_i^n x_i / n$$

Are sufficient for  $\lambda$

**Example:** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a Normal population  $N(\mu, \sigma)$ .

**Case I:**  $\mu$  unknown,  $\sigma$  known ( $=\sigma_0$ )

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \mu) = \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^n e^{-\sum_i^n \{x_i - \mu\}^2 / 2\sigma_0^2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^{n-e} [\sum_i^n x_i^2 + n\bar{x}^2 - 2n\bar{x}\mu] / 2\sigma_0^2} \\
&= g(\bar{x}, \mu) h(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\
&= [2\mu^2 - 2n\bar{x}, \mu] / 2\sigma_0^2
\end{aligned}$$

Where

$$g(\bar{x}, \mu) = e - \sum_i^n x_i / 2\sigma_0^2$$

As

$$h(x_i, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^{ne}}$$

Which show that  $\bar{x}$  is sufficient for  $\mu$ .

**Case II:**  $\mu$  is know(=  $\mu_0$ ),  $\sigma$  unknown

$$\begin{aligned}
f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \sigma) &= \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^{ne}} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2 / 2\sigma_0^2} \\
&= g \left[ \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2, \sigma \right] h(x_i, x_n)
\end{aligned}$$

Where

$$g \left[ \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2, \sigma \right] = \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^{ne}} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2 / 2\sigma_0^2}$$

Which show that  $\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2$  is sufficient for  $\sigma$

**Case III:** Both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are unknown

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x_i, x_n, \mu, \sigma) &= \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^{ne}} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2 / 2\sigma_0^2} \\
&= \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^{ne}} e^{-[\sum_i^n x_i^2 - 2\mu \sum_i^n x_i + 2n\bar{x}\mu] / 2\sigma_0^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Which shows that  $[\sum_i^n x_i, \sum_i^n x_i^2]$  an jointly sufficient for  $[\mu, \sigma]$  Similarly,  $[\bar{x}, \sum(x_i, x)^2 / n-1]$  are also sufficient for  $[\mu, \sigma]$ ,

**Example** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a gamma distribution having  $\theta, b, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta, b) = \frac{1}{\theta^b \Gamma(b)} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}} x^{b-1}, x \geq \theta$$

We have

$$f(x_i, x_n, \theta, b) = \frac{1}{\theta^{nb} \Gamma(b)^n} e^{-\sum_i^n x_i / \theta} \left( \prod_i^n x_i \right)^{b-1}$$

**Case I**  $\theta$  unknown but  $b$  is known

We can write

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \theta) = \left[ \frac{1}{\theta^{nb} (\Gamma(b)) n^e} e^{-\sum x_i/\theta} \right] \left[ \prod_i^n x_i \right]^{-b-1}$$

So that  $\sum_i^n x_i$  (or  $\bar{x}$ ) is sufficient for  $\theta$ .

**Case II:**  $\theta$  Known but  $b$  unknown

We can write

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), b) = \left[ \frac{1}{\theta^{nb} (\Gamma(b)) n^e} \left( \prod_i^n x_i \right)^{b-1} \right] [e^{\sum x_i/\theta}]$$

So that is sufficient for  $b$

**Case III:** Both  $\theta$  and  $b$  are unknown it is seen that  $(\sum_i^n x_i, \prod_i^n x_i)$  are jointly sufficient for  $(\theta, b)$

**Example:** let  $(x_i, x_n)$  be a random sample from the exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-x/\theta}, x \geq \theta$$

It follows from above that  $\sum_i^n x_i$  (or  $\bar{x}$ ) is sufficient for  $\theta$ .

**Example** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from the distribution with  $b, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta x^{\theta-1}, \theta \leq x \leq 1$$

We have

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \theta) = \theta^n \left( \prod x_i \right)^{\theta-1} = [\theta^n \left( \prod x_i \right)^\theta] \left[ \frac{1}{\prod_i^n x_i} \right]$$

So that  $\prod_{i=1}^n x_i$  is sufficient for  $\theta$

**Example** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a a. r. s from the Laplace distribution having  $b, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\theta|}, \infty < x < \infty$$

We have

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \theta) = \frac{1}{2^n} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - \theta|}$$

For no single statistics  $T$  it is possible to express the above in the form  $g[T, \theta]h(x_i, x_n)$ . Hence there exists no statistic  $T$  which taken alone is sufficient for  $\theta$ . However the whole set  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  or the set of order statistics  $(x_{(1)}, \dots, x_{(n)})$  is jointly sufficient for  $\theta$

**Example** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from the Rectangular distribution  $R(0, \theta)$  having  $b, d, f$ .

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}, -\theta \leq x \leq \theta$$

We have

$$f(x_i, x_n, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta^n} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{[\theta, \theta]}(x_i)$$

Where  $I_{A(x)}$  is the indicator function for which

$$I_{A(x)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin A \end{cases}$$

But 
$$\prod_{i=1}^n I_{[\theta, \theta]}(x_i) = I_{[0, X_{(1)}]}(x_{(1)}) I_{[X_{(1)}, \theta]}(x_{(n)})$$

Where  $X_{(1)}$  and  $x_{(n)}$  are the minimum and maximum of sample values  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

Therefore, we can write

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \theta) = \mathcal{G}[x_{(n)}, \theta] \mathcal{H}(x_i, x_n)$$

Where 
$$\mathcal{G}[x_{(n)}, \theta] = \frac{1}{\theta^n} I_{[x_{(n)}, \theta]}(x_{(n)})$$

$$\mathcal{H}(x_i, x_n) = I_{[0, x_{(n)}]}(x_i)$$

Where shows that  $x_{(n)}$  is sufficient for  $\theta$

**Example :** If  $x$  has  $p, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}; -\theta \leq x \leq \theta$$

We can check that

$$f(x_i, x_n, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta^n} I_{[-\theta, x_{(n)}]}^{(n)} I_{[x_{(1)}, \theta]}(x_{(n)})$$

So that  $x_{(1)}$  is sufficient for  $\theta$

**Example** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from the rectangular distribution  $R(\theta_1, \theta_2)$  having  $p, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta_1, \theta_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta_2 - \theta_1} & \theta_1 \leq x_i \leq \theta_2 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

The  $p, d, f((x_1, \dots, x_n))$  is given by

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{(\theta_2 - \theta_1)^n} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{[\theta_1, \theta_2]}(x_i)$$

Where 
$$I_{[\theta_1, \theta_2]}(x_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \theta_1 \leq x_i \leq \theta_2 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

We can write

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i^n I_{[\theta_1, \theta_2]}(x_i) &= I_{[\theta_1, x_{(n)}]}(x_{(n)}) I_{[x_{(1)}, \theta_2]}(x_{(1)}) \\ &= \mathcal{G}[x_{(1)}, x_{(n)}, \theta_1, \theta_2] \mathcal{H}(x_i, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

Where

$$\mathcal{G}[x_{(1)}, x_{(n)}, \theta_1, \theta_2] = I_{[\theta_1, x_{(n)}]}(x_{(n)}) I_{[x_{(1)}, \theta_2]}(x_{(1)})$$

And 
$$\mathcal{H}((x_1, \dots, x_n)) = 1$$



Hence  $[x_{(1)}, \dots, x_{(n)}]$  are jointly sufficient for  $\theta_1, \theta_2$

**Corollary:** If  $\theta_1$  is known  $x_{(n)}$  is sufficient for  $\theta_2$

If  $\theta_1$  is known  $x_{(i)}$  is sufficient for  $\theta_1$

**Example:** let  $((x_1, \dots, x_n))$  be  $a, r, s$  from the rectangular distribution  $R(-\theta, \theta)$ .

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{2\theta}, -\theta \leq x \leq \theta$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \theta) &= \frac{1}{(2\theta)^n} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{[-\theta, \theta]}(x_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\theta)^n} I_{[-\theta, x_{(n)}}(x_{(i)}) I_{[x_{(n)}, \theta]}(x_{(n)}) \end{aligned}$$

So that  $[x_{(1)}, \dots, x_{(n)}]$  are jointly sufficient for  $\theta$

**Example:**  $[x_{(1)}, \dots, x_{(n)}]$  are jointly sufficient for  $\theta$  in  $R(\theta - \frac{1}{2}, \theta + \frac{1}{2})$  and  $R(\theta, \theta + 1)$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random from an exponential distribution

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda(x-\theta)}, \theta \leq x < \infty$$

**Case I:**  $\lambda$  Unknown  $\theta$  known ( $= \theta_0$ )

$$f((x_1, \dots, x_n), \lambda) = \lambda^n e^{-\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \theta)} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{[\theta, \infty)}(x_i)$$

Which show that  $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \theta_0)$  is sufficient for  $\lambda$  or  $\bar{x}$  is sufficient for  $\lambda$

**Case II:**  $\lambda$  known ( $= \lambda_0$ ),  $\theta$  Unknown

$$\begin{aligned} f((x_i, x_n), \theta) &= \lambda_0^n e^{-\lambda_0 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \theta)} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{[\theta, \infty)}(x_i) \\ &= \lambda_0^n e^{-\lambda_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \lambda n \theta} I_{[\theta, \infty)}(x_{(i)}) \\ &\quad \prod_{i=1}^n I_{x(i), \infty)}(x_{(i)}) \\ &= \left\{ e^{\lambda n \theta} I_{[\theta, \infty)}(x_{(i)}) \right\} \left\{ \lambda_0^n e^{-\lambda_0 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} I_{[x(i), \infty)}(x_{(i)}) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Which shows that  $x_{(i)}$  is sufficient for  $\theta$

**Case III:** Both  $\lambda, \theta$  unknown

It is easy to check that  $[\sum x, x(i)]$  are jointly sufficient for  $[\lambda, \theta]$

**METHODS OF ESTIMATION:**

For important methods of obtaining estimators are (I) methods of moments, (II) methods of maximum likelihood (III) method of minimum  $\chi^2$  and (IV) method of least squares.

### (I) Method of moments

Suppose the distribution of a random variable  $X$  has  $K$  parameters  $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k)$  which have to be estimated. Let  $\mu_r = E(x^r)$  denote the  $r^{\text{th}}$  moment of about  $O$ . In general  $\mu'_r$  is a known function of  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k$  so that  $\mu_r = \mu_r(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$ . Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from the distribution of  $X$  and let  $m_r = \sum_i^n x_i^r / n$  be the  $r^{\text{th}}$  sample moment from the equation

$$m'_r = \mu'_r(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k), r = 1, \dots, k$$

Whose solution is say  $\hat{\theta}_1 \dots \hat{\theta}_k$ , where  $\hat{\theta}_i$  is the estimate of  $\theta_i (i = 1, \dots, k)$ . These are the method of moments estimators of the parameters.

**Example** let

$$x = N(\mu, \sigma)$$

$$\mu'_1 = \mu$$

$$\mu'_2 = \sigma^2 + \mu^2$$

The equation

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

$$\frac{\sum x_i^2}{n} = \sigma^2 + \mu^2$$

Have the solution

Let

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

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

**Example** let  $x \sim P(\lambda)$  and let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be random sample from  $P(\lambda)$ .

$$\mu'_1 = \lambda$$

The equation

$$\bar{x} = \lambda$$

Provides the estimator

$$\lambda = \bar{x}$$

**Example** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from the exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta e^{-\theta x}, x \geq \theta$$

$$\mu'_1 = \frac{1}{\theta}$$

The moment equation

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

Provides the estimator

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{\bar{x}}$$

**Remark:** (I) the method of moments estimators are not uniquely defined. We may equate the central moments instead of the raw moments and obtain solutions.

(II) These estimator are not, in general, consistent and efficient but will be so only if the parent distributions is of particular form.

(III) When population moments do not exist (*e. g.* Cauchy population) this method of estimation is inapplicable.

### **METHOD OF MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD**

Consider  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n, \theta)$ , the joint p, d, f of sample  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of observations of a, r, s.  $X$  having the p, d, f  $f(x, \theta)$  whose parameters  $\theta$  is to be estimated. When the values  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  are given,  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n, \theta)$  may be looked upon as a function of  $\theta$  which is called the likelihood function of  $\theta$  and is denoted by  $L(\theta) = L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n)$  it gives the likelihood that the r, v.  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  assumes the value  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  when  $\theta$  is the parameter.

We want to know from which distribution (*i. e.* for what value of  $\theta$ ) is the likelihood largest for this set of observations. In other words we want to find the value of  $\theta$ , denoted by  $\hat{\theta}$  which maximizes  $L(x_1, \dots, x_n, \theta)$ . The value  $\hat{\theta}$  maximizes the likelihood function is in general, a function of  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  say

$$\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Such that

$$L(\hat{\theta}) = \max_{\theta \in \Omega} L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Then  $\hat{\theta}$  is called the maximum likelihood estimator or MLE.

In many cases it would be more convenient to deal with  $\log L(\theta)$ , rather than  $L(\theta)$ , since  $\log L(\theta)$  is maximized for the some value of  $\theta$  as  $L(\theta)$ . For obtaining *m. l. e* we find the value of  $\theta$  for which

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\theta) = 0 \dots \dots (1)$$

We must however, check that this provides the absolute maximum. If the derivative does not exist at  $\theta = \hat{\theta}$  or equation (1) is not solvable this method of solving (1) will fail.

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the Bernoulli distribution.

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x}, x = 0, 1$$

Then the likelihood  $L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \theta^{\sum_i^n x_i} (1 - \theta)^{n - \sum_i^n x_i}$

And  $\log L(\theta) = (\sum_i^n x_i) \log \theta + (n - \sum_i^n x_i) \log (1 - \theta)$

Differentiating and equating to zero, we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\theta) = 0$$

$$i, e \quad \frac{\sum_i^n x_i}{\theta} - \frac{n - \sum_i^n x_i}{1 - \theta} = 0$$

$$\text{Or} \quad \frac{\sum_i^n x_i - n\theta}{\theta(1 - \theta)} = 0$$

$$\text{Or} \quad e = \sum_i^n x_i / n = \bar{x}$$

*m. l. e* of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the Poisson's distribution

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

Then  $L(\lambda, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum_i^n x_i}}{\prod_i^n x_i!}$

And  $\log L(\lambda) = -n\lambda + (\sum_i^n x_i) \log \lambda - \sum_i^n \log x_i!$

$$\text{Or} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \log L(\lambda) = -n + \frac{\sum_i^n x_i}{\lambda}$$

Equating to zero we get  $\lambda = \bar{x}$

m. l. e of  $\lambda$  is  $\hat{\lambda} = \bar{x}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the truncated Binomial distribution having  $p, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \binom{2}{x} \frac{\theta^x (1-\theta)^{2-x}}{1 - [1-\theta]^2}, x = 0, 1, 2 (\theta < 1 - \theta < 1)$$

Then 
$$L(\theta, x_1, x_n) = \prod_i^n \binom{2}{x_i} \frac{\theta^{2x_i} (1-\theta)^{2n-2x_i}}{[1-(1-\theta)^2]^{2n}}$$

And 
$$\log L(\theta) = \sum_i^n \log \binom{2}{x_i} + (\sum x_i) \log \theta + (2n - 2x_i) \log(1 - \theta) - n \log[1 - (1 - \theta)^2]$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\theta) = \frac{\sum_i^n x_i}{\theta} + \frac{\sum_i^n x_i - 2n}{1 - \theta} + \frac{2n(1 - \theta)}{1 - (1 - \theta)^2}$$

Equating to zero we get

$$\sum x_i [(1 - \theta) \{1 - (1 - \theta)^2\}] + (\sum x_i - 2n) [\theta \{1 - (1 - \theta)^2\}]$$

$$-2n\theta(1 - \theta)^2 = \theta$$

Or 
$$\sum x_i [1 - (1 - \theta)^2] = 2n\theta$$

Or 
$$\sum x_i [\theta(2 - \theta)] = 2n\theta$$

Or 
$$2 - \theta = \frac{2}{\pi}$$

Or 
$$\theta = 2 - \frac{2}{\pi}$$

m. l. e is  $\theta = 2 - \frac{2}{\pi}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma)$

**Case I:**  $\mu$  unknown but  $\sigma = \sigma_0$  (known)

Then 
$$L(\mu, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2}$$

And 
$$\log L(\mu) = -n \log(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}) - \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma_0^2$$

Or 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\mu) = \frac{\sum_i^N (x_i - \mu)}{\sigma^2}$$

Equating to zero we get  $\mu = \bar{x}$

*m. l. e* Of  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$

**Case II:**  $\mu = \mu_0$  (known) but  $\sigma$  unknown

Then 
$$L(\sigma, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu\theta)^2 / 2\sigma^2}$$

And 
$$\log L(\sigma) = -n \log \sigma - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

Or 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \log L(\sigma) = -\frac{n}{\sigma} + \frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu\theta)^2}{\sigma^3}$$

Equating to zero we get 
$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu\theta)^2}{n}}$$

*m. l. e* Of  $\sigma$  is 
$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu\theta)^2}{n}}$$

**Case III:** Both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are unknown

Then 
$$L(\mu, \sigma, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu\theta)^2 / 2\sigma^2}$$

And 
$$\log L(\mu, \sigma) = -\frac{n}{2} \log \sigma - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

Differentiating partially w. r. t  $\mu, \sigma$  we get

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \log L(\mu, \sigma) = \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)}{2\sigma^2}$$

And 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \log L(\mu, \sigma) = \frac{n}{\sigma} + \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^3}$$

Equating to zero both the derivatives and solving the equations we get  $\mu = \bar{x}$  and  $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$

*m. l. e* are  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$  and  $\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}}, x \geq \theta$$

Then

$$L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{\theta^n} e^{-\sum_i^x x_i/\theta}$$

And

$$\log L(\theta) = -n \log \theta - \sum_i^x x_i/\theta$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\theta) = -\frac{n}{\theta} + \frac{\sum_i^n x_i}{\theta^2}$$

Quoting to zero, we get  $\theta = \bar{x}$  so that the *m. l. e* of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = e^{-(x-\theta)}, x \geq \theta$$

Then

$$L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = e^{-n(x-\theta)}$$

If we differentiate  $\log L(\theta)$  w.r.t  $\theta$  and equate to zero we get  $n = \theta$  which does not yield any result.

Now  $L(\theta)$  is maximized by choosing the maximum value of  $\theta$  subject to the condition

$$\theta \leq x_{(1)} \leq x_{(2)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)}$$

Which shows that  $\theta = x_{(1)}$  so that the *m. l. e* of  $\hat{x} = X_1$

**Example:**  $X$  has *p. d. f*

$$f(x, \lambda, \theta) = \lambda e^{-\lambda(x-\theta)}, x \geq \theta$$

*m. l. e*  $\hat{\theta} = x_{(1)}$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\bar{x} - x_{(1)}}$$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta x^{\theta-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 (\theta > 1)$$

Then

$$L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \theta^n (\prod_i^n x_i)^{\theta-1}$$

And  $\log L(\theta) = n \log \theta + (\theta - 1) \sum_i^n \log x_i$

Or  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\theta) = \frac{n}{\theta} + \sum_i^n \log x_i$

Equating to zero we get  $\theta = \frac{n}{-\sum \log x_i}$

*m. l. e* of  $\hat{\theta} = \frac{n}{\sum_i^n \log x_i}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  have rectangular distribution  $R(0, \theta)$  having  $p, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}, 0 \leq X \leq \theta$$

Then  $L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{\theta^n}, 0 \leq x_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta$

Which is maximized when  $\theta$  is maximum subject to the condition

$$0 \leq x_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta$$

The minimum value of  $\theta$  is  $x_{(n)}$  so that

*m. l. e* of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta} = x_{(n)}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  of the regular distribution  $R(-\theta, \theta)$  having  $p, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{2\theta}, 0 \leq X \leq \theta$$

Then  $L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{2^n \theta^n}, -\theta \leq x_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta$

When is maximized when  $\theta$  is minimum subject to the condition  $-\theta \leq x_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta$

So that since  $-\theta \leq x_{(1)}$  or  $\theta \geq -x_{(1)}$

*m. l. e* of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta} = -x_{(1)}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the regular distribution  $R(\theta_1, \theta_2)$  having  $p, d, f$



$$f(x, \theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{\theta_2 - \theta_1}, \theta_1 \leq x \leq \theta_2$$

Then

$$L(\theta_1, \theta_2, x_i, x_n) = \frac{1}{(\theta_2 - \theta_1)^n}, \theta_1 \leq x_{(i)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta_2$$

In maximized when  $(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$  is minimum  $i, e \theta_1$  is maximum and  $\theta_2$  is minimum subject to the condition

$$\theta_1 \leq x_{(i)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta_2$$

We have to take  $\theta_2 = x_{(n)}$  and  $\theta_1 = x_{(i)}$  so that *m. l. e* of  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  are  $\hat{\theta}_1 = x_{(i)}$  and  $\hat{\theta}_2 = x_{(n)}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the regular distribution  $R(\theta - c, \theta + c)$  having  $p, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{(2c)}, \theta - c \leq x \leq \theta + c$$

Then  $L(\theta, x_i, x_n) = \frac{1}{(2c)^n}, \theta - c \leq x_{(i)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta + c$  is maximized for any  $\theta$  such that

$$\theta - c \leq x_{(i)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta + c$$

*i. e*  $\theta - c \leq x_{(i)}$  or  $\theta \leq x_{(i)} + c$  and  $\theta + c \geq x_{(n)}$  or  $\theta \geq x_{(n)} - c$

And  $\theta + c \geq x_{(n)}$  is  $\theta \geq x_{(n)} - c$

This shows that any statistics which lies in between  $x_{(n)} - c$  and  $x_{(i)} + c$ , *e. g.*  $\frac{x_{(i)} + x_{(n)}}{2}$  is *a. m. l. e* the *m. l. e* is not unique in this case

**Example 12** If  $x$  has  $R(\theta, \theta + 1)$ , any statistics which lies between  $x_{(n)} - 1$  and  $x_{(i)}$  is a *m. l. e* if  $\theta$

**Example 13** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from the regular distribution  $R(\theta, 2\theta)$  having  $p, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}, \theta \leq x \leq 2\theta$$

Then

$$L(\theta, x_i, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{\theta^n}, \theta \leq x_{(i)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq 2\theta$$

Is maximized when  $\theta$  is minimum subject to the condition  $\theta \leq x_{(i)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq 2\theta$

*i. e*  $\theta \leq x_{(i)} \dots \dots (i)$

And  $\theta \geq x_{(n)} \dots \dots (ii)$

Since 
$$\frac{x_{(n)}}{x_{(i)}} \leq \frac{2\theta}{\theta} = 2$$

i.e 
$$\frac{x_{(n)}}{2} \leq x_{(i)}$$

The minimum value of  $\theta$  satisfying (i), (ii) is  $\frac{x_{(n)}}{2}$  so that the *m. l. e* of  $\theta$  is

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{x_{(n)}}{2}$$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be *a, r, s* from the regular distribution  $R(-\theta, \theta)$  having *p, d, f*

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{2\theta}, -\theta \leq x \leq \theta$$

Then

$$L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{(2\theta)^n}, \theta \leq x_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta$$

This is maximized when  $\theta$  is minimum subject to the condition

$$x_{(n)} \leq \theta \text{ or } \theta \geq x_{(n)}$$

And

$$-\theta \leq x_{(i)} \text{ or } \theta \geq -x_{(i)}$$

This happens when  $\theta = \max(-x_{(i)}, x_{(n)})$

*m, l, e* of  $\hat{\theta} = \max(-X_{(1)}, X_{(n)})$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be *a, r, s* from the Laplace distribution with *p, d, f*

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|x-\theta|}, -\infty < x < \infty$$

Then

$$L(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{2^n} e^{-\sum_i^n |x_i - \theta|}$$

And

$$\log L(\theta) = -n \log 2 - \sum_i^n |x_i - \theta|$$

Which is maximized when  $\theta$  is the sample median.

*m.l.e* of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta} = \hat{x}_{me}$

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $n$  independent  $r, v, s$  such that  $x_r$  has normal distribution  $N(r\theta, r^3\sigma^2)$

We have to estimate  $\theta$  and then

$$L(\theta, x_1, x_n) = \prod_{r=1}^n \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi r^3 \sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2r^3 \sigma^2} (x_r - r\theta)^2} \right]$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} \right)^n \frac{1}{(n_i) 2^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{(x_r - r\theta)^2}{r^3}}$$

And 
$$\log L(\theta) = n \log \left( \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} \right) - \frac{3}{2} \log n - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum \frac{(x_r - r\theta)^2}{r^3}$$

Or 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{(x_r - r\theta)}{r^2}$$

Equating to zero, we get

$$\sum_i^n \left[ \frac{(x_r - r\theta)}{r^2} \right] = 0$$

Or 
$$\theta = \frac{\sum_i^n x_r / r^2}{\sum_i^n 1/r^2}$$

*m.l.e* Of  $\theta$  is

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{\sum_i^n x_r / r^2}{\sum_i^n 1/r^2}$$

We have 
$$E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta, V(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_i^n (1/r^4)}$$

**Optimum properties of MLE:** (i) If  $\hat{\theta}$  is *m.l.e* of  $\theta$  and  $\Psi(\theta)$  is a simple valued function of  $\theta$  with unique inverse, then  $\Psi(\hat{\theta})$  is the *m.l.e* of  $\Psi(\theta)$ .

(ii) If a sufficient statistics exists for  $\theta$  *m.l.e*  $\hat{\theta}$  is a function of this sufficient statistics.

(iii) Suppose  $f(x, \theta)$  statistics certain regularity conditions and  $\hat{\theta}_n = \hat{\theta}_n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is the *m.l.e* of a random sample of size  $n$  from  $f(x, \theta)$

Then- (a)  $\{\hat{\theta}_n\}$  is consistent sequence of estimators of  $\theta$

(b)  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is asymptotically normally distributed with mean  $\theta$  variance

$$\frac{1}{nE\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\log f(x,\theta)\right]^2}$$

(c) The sequence of estimators  $\hat{\theta}_n$  has the smallest asymptotic variance among all consistent, asymptotically normally distributed estimate of  $\theta$ , i. e.  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is BAN or CANE or most efficient.

(iii) **METHOD OF MINIMUM  $\chi^2$** : Let  $X$  be a. r. v with p. d.  $f(x, \theta)$  where parameter to be estimated  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_r)$  Suppose  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k$  are  $k$  mutually exclusive classes which form a partition of the range of  $X$ . Let the probability that  $X$  falls in  $S_j$  be

$$p_j(\theta) = \int_{S_j} f(x, \theta) dx, j = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

Where

$$\sum_{j=1}^k p_j(\theta) = 1$$

Suppose, in practice, corresponding to a random sample of  $n$  observations from the distribution of  $X$  we are given the frequencies  $(N_1, \dots, N_k)$  where  $N_j$  = observed number of sample observations falling in the class  $S_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ) such that  $\sum_{i=1}^k N_j = n$  then the expected number of observation in  $S_j$  is  $np_j(\theta)$ , Define

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{[n_j - np_j(\theta)]^2}{np_j(\theta)}$$

Where  $n_j$  is the observed value of  $N_j$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ) Evidently  $\chi^2$  will be a function of  $\theta$  (or  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_r$ ) to obtain the estimator of  $\theta$  we minimise  $\chi^2$  w. r. t  $\theta$ . The minimise  $\chi^2$  estimator of  $\theta$  is that  $\hat{\theta}$  which minimise above  $\chi^2$ .

The equation (s) for determining the estimator(s) by this method are

$$\frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial \theta} = 0 \text{ or } \frac{\partial \chi^2}{\partial \theta} = 0 \text{ (i = 1, \dots, r)}$$

### **Remarks:**

(i) Often it is difficult to obtain  $\hat{\theta}$  which minimum  $\chi^2$ , hence  $\chi^2$  is changed to modified

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k [n_j - np_j(\theta)]^2 n_j$$

(If  $n_j = 0$ , unity is used). The modified minimum  $\chi^2$  estimator of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta}$  which minimises the modified  $\chi^2$

(ii) For large  $n$ , the minimum  $\chi^2$  and likelihood equations are identical and, consequently, provide identical minimum  $\chi^2$  maximum likelihood estimators.

(iii) The minimum  $\chi^2$  estimators are consistent asymptotically normal and efficient .

**Example:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from a Bernoulli distribution having p. d. f

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x}, x = 0, 1$$

Take  $N_j$  = the number of observations equal to  $j$  for  $j = 0, 1$  Here the range of  $X$  is partitioned into the two sets consisting of the minimises  $\theta$ , and  $i$  respectively then

$$\left. \begin{aligned} p_0(\theta) &= P(x = 0) = 1 - \theta \\ p_1(\theta) &= P(x = 1) = \theta \end{aligned} \right\}$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} \chi^2 &= \sum_{j=0}^i \frac{[n_j - np_j(\theta)]^2}{np_j(\theta)} \\ &= \frac{[n_0 - n(1 - \theta)]^2}{n(1 - \theta)} + \frac{[n_1 - n\theta]^2}{n\theta} \\ &= \frac{[n - n_1 - n(1 - \theta)]^2}{n(1 - \theta)} + \frac{[n_1 - n\theta]^2}{n\theta} \\ &= \frac{[n_1 - n\theta]^2}{n} \frac{1}{\theta(1 - \theta)} \end{aligned}$$

By inspection  $\chi^2 = \theta$  for  $\theta = n_1/n$  Therefore  $\hat{\theta} = n_1/n$ . This is a same as what would be obtained by the method of moments or method of maximum likelihood

**(IV) METHOD OF LEAST SQUARES** Suppose  $y$  is a random variable whose value depends on the value of a (non-random) variable  $x$ . For example the weight of a baby ( $Y$ ) depends on its age ( $x$ ), the temperature ( $Y$ ) of a place at a given time depends on its altitude ( $x$ ), or the salary ( $Y$ ) of an individual at a given age depends on the number of years ( $x$ ) of formal education which he has had the maintenance cost ( $y$ ) per year of an automobile depends on its age ( $x$ ) etc.

We assume that the distribution of the r. v  $Y$  is such that for a given  $x$ ,  $E(Y/x)$  is a linear function of  $x$  while the variance and higher moments of  $y$  are independent of  $x$ . It means that we assume the liner model

$$E(Y/x) = \alpha + \beta x$$

Where  $d$  and  $\beta$  and two parameters .We also write

$$Y = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$$

Where  $\epsilon$  is a, r, u such that  $E(\epsilon) = \theta, V(\theta) = \sigma^2$

The problem is to estimate the parameters  $d$  and  $\beta$  on the basic of a random sample of n observations  $(y_1, x_1), (y_2, x_2), \dots, (y_n, x_n)$

The method of least squares estimations of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  specifies that we should take as our estimates of  $d$  and  $\beta$  those values that minimise

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - \alpha - \beta x_i]^2$$

Where  $y_i$  is the observed value of  $y_i$  and  $x_i$  are the associated values of  $x$ . This we minimise the sum of squares of the residuals when applying the method of least squares.

The least squares estimators of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$

Are 
$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})(x_i - \bar{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

And 
$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{x}$$

### Remarks:

The least square estimator do not have any optimum properties ever asymptotically However in linear estimation this method provides good estimation in small simples. These estimators are minimum variance unbiased estimators among the class of linear function of  $Y$ 's.

## TESTING OF HYPOTHESIS

### (NEYMAN PEARSON THEORY)

Let  $x$  be  $a, r, u$  with p.d.f  $f(x, \theta)$  where  $\theta$  (may be a vector  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$ ) is an unknown parameter. A random sample of  $n$  observation denoted by  $E = (x_1 \dots x_n)$  which takes values in general, in the  $n$ -dimensional real space  $R_n$  the parameter space (all possible values of the parameter is denoted by  $\Omega$ , say). For any subset  $A \subset R_n$  we can calculate.

$$p_o(E \in A) = \int_A \left[ \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i, \theta) \right] dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

Which will depend on  $\theta$ .

**Definition:** A statistical hypothesis is a statement about the parameter  $\theta$  in the form  $H: \theta \in \omega$  ( $\omega \subset \Omega$ )

For example consider

$$H: \theta = \theta_0$$

$$\text{or } H: \theta \geq \theta_0 \text{ or } H: \theta \neq \theta_0 \text{ or } H: \theta_1 < \theta < \theta_2$$

**Definition** If a hypothesis specifies an exact value of the parameter  $\theta$ , it is called a simple hypothesis e.g.  $H: \theta = \theta_0$  in this case  $\omega$  in  $H: \theta \in \omega$  is a set of a single point

If a hypothesis does not fully specify the value of  $\theta$  (but gives a set of possible values only) it is called a composite hypothesis e.g.  $H: \theta \neq \theta_0$  or  $H: \theta \geq \theta_0$  etc. In this case  $\omega$  in  $H: \theta \in \omega$  is set of more than one point.

**Definition** the hypothesis which is being actually tested is called the null hypothesis and other hypothesis which is stated as the alternative to the null hypothesis is called alternative hypothesis. For example, null hypothesis may be  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  and the alternative may be  $H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$  or  $H_1: \theta > \theta_0$  or  $H_1: \theta \leq \theta_0$  etc.

Both null and alternative hypothesis may be simple or composite. For our study, we shall usually take null hypothesis to be simple.

Suppose we want to test a null hypothesis  $H_0$  against an alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  on the basis of a random sample  $E = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  in the sense that we have to decide when to reject or accept  $H_0$

**Definition** A Statistical test of a (null) hypothesis  $H_0$  against an alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  is a rule or procedure for deciding when to reject or accept  $H_0$  on the basis of the sample  $E = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . It specifies a position of the sample space  $R_n$  into two disjoint subsets  $W$  and  $\bar{W} = R_n - W$  such that we reject  $H_0$  when  $E \in W$  and accept  $H_0$  when  $E \in \bar{W}$  [We note that the rejection of  $H_0$  amounts to acceptance of  $H_1$  and vice-versa]

**Definition** The set  $W$ , corresponding to a test  $T$ , which is that we reject  $H_0$  when  $E \in W$  is called the critical region of the test while  $\bar{W}$  is called its acceptance region. For different test the critical regions are different.

Two types of errors: In a testing problem we are liable to commit two types of error. Suppose  $H_0$  is true and get  $E \in \bar{W}$  so that we reject  $H_0$  this is called the Type I error which occasion when we reject the null hypothesis when it is actually true. On the other hand, suppose  $H_0$  is false and  $H_1$  is true and yet  $x \in \bar{w}$  so that we accept  $H_0$  this is called the types II errors which occurs when we accept the null hypothesis when it is actually false. We denote by  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  the probability of type I error and type II error, respectively,  $i, e$

$$\alpha = P\{H_0/H_0 \text{ is true}\}$$

$$= P\{E \in W / \theta \in H_0\}$$

And

$$\beta = P\{\text{Accep}H_0/H_0 \text{ is false}\}$$

$$= P\{E \in \bar{W} / \theta \in H_0\}$$

**Definition** The probability of type I error for a test  $T$ , denoted by  $\alpha$  is called the "size" or level of significance of the test  $T$ .

**Remark** If  $H_0$  is simple (say  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ ) is clearly defined, when  $H_0$  is composite (say  $H_0: \theta \in W$ ) we take

$$\alpha = \sup P_T\{E \in W / \theta\} \theta \in H_0$$

**Definition** For a test  $T$  having the co region  $w_2$  the power function  $P_T()$  is defined by

$$P_T(\theta) = P\{\text{Reject}H_0 / \theta\}$$

$$= P_\theta\{E \in W\}$$



As a function of  $\theta$

Evidently,

$$P_T(\theta) = \alpha \text{ for } \theta \in H_0$$

$$P_T(\theta) = 1 - \beta \text{ for } \theta \in H_1$$

If we would find a test of the given hypothesis for which both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are minimum it would be the best. Unfortunately, it is not possible to minimise both error simultaneously for a fixed sample size test. Consists two tests  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  defined as follows

$T_1$  always rejects  $H_0$ , i.e. its critical region  $W_1 = R_n$ , while  $T_2$  always accepts  $H_0$ , i.e. its critical region  $W_2 = \emptyset$  then for  $T_1$ ,  $\alpha = 0$  and  $\beta = 1$  this shows that if the probability of type I error becomes minimum then the probability of type II error becomes maximum and vice-versa what is done is to fix  $\alpha$ , taking  $\alpha$  to be quite small (in practical  $\alpha = .05$  or  $.01$ ) so that all test of size  $\alpha$  are only considered. Among all test of a given size  $\alpha$  comparison made on the basis of their power function. If  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are two tests (for the same testing problem) of same size  $\alpha$ ,  $T_1$  is said to be better than  $T_2$  if its power is greater than the power of  $T_2$  for alternative hypothesis (equivalently the probability of type II error for  $T_1$  is less than the probability of type II for  $T_2$ .)

**Simple hypothesis against a simple alternative:** Consider the testing problem

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0$$

$$H_1: \theta = \theta_1 (\neq \theta_0)$$

**Definition** A test  $T^*$  is called a most powerful test (MP) of size  $\alpha$  ( $0 < \alpha < 1$ ) if only if the probability of type I error is equal to  $\alpha$  and its power  $P_{T^*}(\theta)$  is not less than the power  $P_T(\theta)$  of all other test  $T$  of size  $\alpha$ , i.e.

$$(i) P_{T^*}(\theta_0) = \alpha$$

$$(ii) P_{T^*}(\theta_i) = P_T(\theta_i)$$

For any other test  $T$  of size  $\alpha$

[This means that the probability of type II error for  $T^*$  is less than that of any other test]

**Simple hypothesis against a composite alternative:** Consider the testing problem

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0$$

$$H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0 \text{ (or } \theta > \theta_0 \text{ or } \theta < \theta_0)$$

**Definition:** A test T is called a uniformly most powerful test (VMP) of size  $\alpha$  ( $0 < \alpha < 1$ ) if its probability type I error is equal to  $\alpha$  and its power function is such that

$$P_{T_x}(\theta) \geq P_T(\theta) \text{ for all } \theta \in H_1 \text{ and all other test T of size } \alpha$$

**Example** Let  $x$  be  $a, r, u$  having exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta e^{-\theta x} (x \geq 0)$$

And we want to test

$$\text{Against } \begin{cases} H_0: \theta = 2 \\ H_1: \theta = 1 \end{cases}$$

Let the sample consist of only one observation  $X$  and consider two tests  $T$  and  $T'$  with associated regions  $W = \{X \geq 1\}$  and  $W' = \{X \leq 0.7\}$  respectively

The probabilities of two error for  $T$  are

$$\alpha = P\{X \geq 1/\theta = 2\} = 2 \int_1^{\infty} e^{-2x} dx = 0.135$$

$$\beta = P\{X \geq 1/\theta = 1\} = \int_0^1 e^{-x} dx = 0.635$$

The probabilities of two error for  $T'$  are

$$\alpha = P\{X \geq 0.7/\theta = 2\} = 2 \int_0^7 e^{-2x} dx = 0.135$$

$$\beta = P\{X \geq 0.7/\theta = 1\} = \int_7^{\infty} e^{-2x} dx = 0.932$$

Obviously  $T$  is better than  $T'$ .

**Example A** Two-faced coin is tossed six times for which the probability of getting head in a toss is  $\theta$  and the probability of getting a tail is  $(1-\theta)$ . It is required to test the hypothesis.

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0 = 1/2$$

Against

$$H_1: \theta = \theta_0 = 2/3$$

If the test consists in rejecting  $H_0$  when head appears  $n$  times and accepting  $H_0$  otherwise find  $d, \beta$  soln

$$\alpha = P\{= \theta_0\} = 7/2^6$$

$$\beta = 1 - P\{RejH_0/\theta = \theta_1\} = 1 - 2^8/3^6$$

**Example** Let  $x$  have an exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-x/\theta}, x \geq \theta$$

It is required to test

$$H_0: \theta = 1$$

$$H_1: \theta = 4$$

Find  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  for the test having region  $C = \{X > 3\}$  on the basis of a sample observation

Soln : We have

$$\alpha = P\{RejH_0/\theta = \theta_0\}$$

$$= P\{X > 3/\theta = 1\}$$

$$= \int_3^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = 3e^{-1}$$

$$\beta = P\{scc.H_0/\theta = \theta_0\}$$

$$= 1 - P\{X > 3/\theta = 4\}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{4} \int_3^{\infty} e^{-x/4} dx$$

$$= 1 - e^{-3/4}$$

Power

$$= 1 - \beta = e^{-3/4}$$

**Example** Let  $x$  have the rectangular distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}, 0 \leq x \leq \theta$$

It is required to test the hypothesis

$$H_0: \theta = 1$$

Against

$$H_1: \theta = 2$$

Suppose one observation is taken and the tests having the critical regions (a)  $C_1 = \{x \geq .7\}$  and (b)  $C_2 = \{.8 \leq x \leq 1.3\}$  obtain the probabilities of two types error  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$

Soln : (a)

$$C_1 = \{x \geq .7\}$$

$$\alpha = P\{\text{Rej } H_0 / \theta = \theta_0\}$$

$$P[X \geq .7 / \theta = 1]$$

$$= \int_{.7}^1 x \, dx = .3$$

$$\beta = P\{\text{acc } H_0 / \theta = \theta_1\}$$

$$= \int_0^{.7} \frac{1}{2} \, dx$$

$$= .35$$

(b)

$$C_2 = \{.8 \leq x \leq 1.3\}$$

$$\alpha = P\{.8 \leq x \leq 1.3 / \theta = 1\}$$

$$= \int_{.8}^1 1 \, dx = .2$$

$$1 - \beta = P\{.8 \leq x \leq 1.3 / \theta = 2\}$$

$$= \int_{.8}^{1.3} \frac{1}{2} \, dx = .25$$

Or

$$\beta = .75$$

**Example** Let  $x$  have a Binomial distribution  $B(10, p)$  for which

$$f(x, p) = \binom{10}{x} p^x (1-p)^{10-x}, x = 0, 1, \dots, 10$$

One observation  $x$  is taken for testing  $H_0: p = 1/2$  against  $H_1: p = 1/4$ . Find  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  for the test which rejects  $H_0$  when  $x \leq 3$ .

Soln

$$\alpha = P\{x \leq 3 | p = 1/2\}$$

$$= \sum_{x=0}^3 \binom{10}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^x \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{10-x}$$

$$= \frac{11}{64}$$

$$\beta = 1 - P\{x \leq 3 | p = 1/4\}$$

$$1 - \sum_{x=0}^3 \binom{10}{x} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^x \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{10-x}$$

$$= 1 - 31 \cdot \frac{3^8}{4^9}$$

**Example** Let  $x$  have a Poisson distribution  $P(\lambda)$  and it is required to test the hypothesis  $H_0: \lambda = 1$  vs  $H_1: \lambda = 2$ . One observation is taken and a test is considered which reject  $H_0$  when  $X \geq 3$ . Find  $\alpha, \beta$

Soln: we have

$$\alpha = P(X \geq 3 | \lambda = 1)$$

$$= 1 - \sum_{x=0}^2 \frac{e^{-1}}{x!}$$

$$= 1 - \left[ \frac{1}{e} + \frac{1}{e} + \frac{1}{2e} \right] = 1 - \frac{5}{2e}$$

$$\beta = P(X \geq 3 | \lambda = 2)$$

$$= \sum_{x=0}^2 \frac{e^{-2} 2^x}{x!}$$

$$= \frac{1}{e^2} [1 + 2 + 2]$$

$$= \frac{5}{e^2}$$

Now we are in a position to power a test over which helps us to obtain MP tests of a simple hypothesis against a simple alternative. In some special situations, this also gives a UMP test when the alternative is composite.

Let us suppose that we are testing a simple hypothesis against a simple alternative

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0$$

Us

$$H_1: \theta = \theta_1 (\neq \theta_0)$$

### Theorem (Neyman- Pearson Lemma)

let the like hood of the sample  $E=(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  under  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  be

$$L(\theta_j) = L(\theta_j, X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

$$= \prod_{L=1}^n f(X_i, \theta_j), j = 0,1$$

Let T be a test of size  $\alpha$ , for which the cr. region W is defined by

$$W = \left\{ E / \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_0)} \geq e \right\}$$

Where e is a constant determined by the size condition

$$P\{E \in W / \theta_0\} = \alpha$$

Then T is a MP of size  $\alpha$  for testing  $H_0$  against  $H_1$

**Prof** Let us write

$$L_0 = L(\theta_0) \text{ and } L_1 = L(\theta_1)$$

So that the size and power of any test T with Cr. Region W are follows:

$$\text{Size of } T = \int_W L_0 dx \text{ and power of } T = \int_W L_1 dx$$

Where

$$dx = d_{x_1} d_{x_2} \dots d_{x_n}$$

Consider the test T (having cr. Region w) and other test T (having is Region since both W are of size  $\alpha$  we have w)

$$\int_W L_0 dx = \alpha = \int_W L_0 dx - (1)$$

$$W \quad W_1 \quad W_2 \quad W_3$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} W_1 &= W - W \cap W \\ W_2 &= W \cap W \\ W_3 &= W - W \end{aligned}$$

We have using (i),

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{W_1} L_0 dx &= \int_W L_0 dx - \int_{W_2} L_0 dx \\ &= \int_W L_0 dx - \int_{W_2} L_0 dx = \int_{W_3} L_0 dx - (ii) \end{aligned}$$

Sine  $W_1 \subset W^*$  and  $W_3 \not\subset W^*$  we have, by definition of  $w^y$  and using (i)

$$\int_{W_1} L_i dx \geq c \int_{W_1} l_o dx - (ii)$$

And

$$\int_{W_3} L_i dx < c \int_{W_3} L_o dx = c \int_{W_1} L_o dx - (iii)$$

Therefore, from (ii) \$(iii) we get

$$\int_{W_1} L_i dx \geq \int_{W_3} l_i dx - (iv)$$

Adding  $\int_{W_2} L_i dx$  on both sides of (iv) we get

$$\int_{W_1 \cup W_2} L_i dx \geq \int_{W_3 \cup W_2} L_o dx$$

Or

$$\int_W L_i dx \geq \int_W L_o dx$$

Or  $P_r(\text{Rej}H_0/\theta=\theta_i)$

Or  $P_r(\theta_i) \geq P_r(\theta_i)$

Which shows that T is more powerful than any other test of size  $\alpha$ . Hence T is the MP test

**Remarks** (1) The constant C for the MP test is determined by using the size condition

$$\int_W L_o dx = \alpha$$

Usually, a unique value of C is obtained when the  $r.v$  has a continuous distribution.

(2) When  $X$  is a discrete  $r. v.$  the constant  $C$  may not be unique. What is more important is that we may not be able to find a MP critical region with exact size  $\alpha$ . To get rid of the difficulty the cr. Region is defined by the following

$$\begin{cases} \text{Rej } H_0 \text{ if } \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_2)} > c \\ \text{Rej } H_0 \text{ with probability } r \text{ if } \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_2)} = c \\ \text{Acc } H_0 \text{ if } \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_2)} < c \end{cases}$$

Then the size of test is  $P_0 \left\{ \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_0)} > c \right\} + r P_0 \left\{ \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_0)} = c \right\} = \alpha$

To any given  $\alpha, r$  can be determined. Such a test is called the a randomized test

**Example** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_5)$  be a random sample from  $H_0$  Bernoulli .distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x}, x = 0, 1 (0 < \theta < 1)$$

Let us test  $H_0: \theta = .6$  us  $H_1: \theta = \theta_1 (> .6)$ . The MP test has cr. Region  $\{\sum_1^5 x_i \geq c\}$

Now  $\sum_1^5 x_i$  has Bernoulli. distribution  $B(5, \theta)$

From the tables of Bernoulli Distribution we can to tabulate  $P_0\{\sum_1^5 x_i \geq c / \theta = .6\}$  us follows

C	$P(\sum_1^5 x_i \geq c)$	$P_0$
1	0.01024	1.00000
2	0.23040	0.98976
3	0.34560	0.68256
4	0.25420	0.33696
5	0.07776	0.07776

As such, no non-randomized MP test of exact size  $\alpha .05$  or  $01$  exists. However, the randomized MP test of size  $.35$  is given by



$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Raj} \quad H_0 \text{ if } \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i > 3 \\ \text{Raj} \quad H_0 \text{ with probability } \frac{.01304}{.34560} \text{ if } \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i = 3 \\ \text{Ace} \quad H_0 \text{ if } \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i = 3 \end{array} \right.$$

(3) Suppose we test the simple hypothesis  $H_0: \theta > \theta_0$  against a composite alternation  $H_i: \theta \neq \theta_0$  or  $H_i: \theta > \theta_0$  or  $H_i: \theta < \theta_0$  if the MP test for  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  a gains  $H_i: \theta = \theta_i$  given by the NP lemma dose not depend on  $\theta_i$ , the same test with be MP for all alternative values of  $\theta$  and, therefore it will be a UMP test.

**Example (1)** Let  $x$  have a Poisson distribution  $P(\lambda)$  having p. m .  $f$

$$f(x, \lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}, x = 0, 1, 2$$

We want to test

$$H_0: \lambda = \lambda_0$$

Against

$$H_1: \lambda = \lambda_1$$

We have

$$L(\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i, \lambda) = e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} / \prod_{i=1}^n x_i!$$

Therefore, the MP test has the cr region  $W$  given by

$$W = \left\{ \frac{L(\lambda_1)}{L(\lambda_0)} \geq C \right\}, \text{ i. e. inside } W \text{ we have}$$

$$\frac{L(\lambda_1)}{L(\lambda_0)} = e^{-n(\lambda_1 - \lambda_0)} \left( \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_0} \right)^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} \geq C$$

Or

$$-n(\lambda_1 - \lambda_0) + (\sum x_i) \log \left( \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_0} \right) \geq C$$

Or

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \geq k$$

Where

$$k = \frac{c + n(\lambda_1 - \lambda_0)}{\log(\lambda_1 / \lambda_0)}$$

$$w = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \geq k \right\}$$

We know that  $\sum_i^n x_i$  has Poisson distribution  $P(n\lambda)$  so that  $k$  can be determined by solving

$$P(\sum_i^n x_i \geq k / \lambda = \lambda_0) = \alpha$$

**Remarks:** (i) When  $\lambda_1 < \lambda_0$  the MP test will be given by  $\{\sum_i^n x_i \leq k\}$

(ii) Since the cr region does not depend on the value of  $\lambda_1$  there are UMP for the alternative  $H_1: \lambda > \lambda_0$  as  $H_1: \lambda < \lambda_0$ , respectively.

(iii) For getting a MP test for an exact size  $\alpha$  we may have to use randomized test

(2) Let  $X$  have an exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta e^{-\theta x} \quad (x \geq 0)$$

We want to test

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0$$

Us

$$H_1: \theta = \theta_1 (< \theta_0)$$

We have

$$L(\theta) = \prod_i^n f(x, \theta) = \theta^n e^{-\theta \sum_i^n x_i}$$

Therefore, the MP test has the critical region  $W$  defined by

$$W = \left\{ \frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_0)} \geq c \right\}$$

$i, e$  Inside  $W$

$$\frac{L(\theta_1)}{L(\theta_0)} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_1)^2}}{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2}} \geq c$$

Or

$$e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} [\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_1)^2 - \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2]} \geq c$$

Or

$$[\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2 - \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_1)^2] \geq 2\sigma^2 \log c$$

Or

$$2(\mu_1 - \mu_0) \sum_i^n x_i \geq 2\sigma^2 \log c + (\mu_1^2 - \mu_0^2)n$$

Or

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i \geq \frac{\sigma^2 \log c}{n(\mu_1 - \mu_0)} + \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_0}{2} \quad \left( \text{since } \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_0}{2} \right)$$

Or

$$\bar{x} \geq k$$

Whose  $k = r, h, s$

: MP test is given by  $W = \{\bar{x} \geq k\}$  Since  $\bar{x} \sim N(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$  we can determine

GRAPH HERE

$$P[Z \geq k_\alpha] = \alpha$$

$k_\alpha$  Is called the upper  $\alpha$  % point of N (0,1)

$k_\alpha$  Is called the lower  $\alpha$  % point of N (0,1)

$k$  by solving

$$P_{\mu_0}\{\bar{x} \geq k\} = \alpha$$

Or 
$$P_{\mu_0}\left\{\frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \geq \frac{k - \mu_0}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right\} = \alpha$$

Or 
$$T_{\mu_0}\left\{Z \geq \frac{k - \mu_0}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right\} = \alpha$$

Under  $H_0$ ,  $Z$  has N (0,1) and the tables of standard normal distribution provide the value of

$k_\alpha$  such that  $k_\alpha = \frac{k - \mu_0}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$  or  $k = \mu_0 + k_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

**Remark** (1) the power of the MP test given above is

$$P_{\mu_i}\{\bar{x} \geq k\}$$

$$P_{\mu_i}\left\{\frac{\bar{x} - \mu_i}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \geq \frac{k - \mu_i}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}\right\}$$

$$P_{\mu_i}\left\{Z \geq \frac{\sqrt{n}(\mu_0 - \mu_i)}{\sigma} + k_\alpha\right\}$$

Since  $(\mu_0 - \mu_i) < 0$ , it shows that the power is an increasing function of  $n$

(ii) If  $\mu_i < \mu_0$  the MP test can be shown to have the critical region  $\{\bar{x} \geq k\}$  where  $k = \mu_0 + k_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

such that  $P\{Z \leq k_\alpha\} = \alpha$  for a standard normal  $Z$ , (in fact  $k_\alpha = -k_\alpha$ )

(iii) We observe that the MP test of  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  vs  $H_1: \mu = \mu_i (> \mu_0)$  has a cr region which does not depend on  $\mu_i$  the same test will be UMP for testing  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  against  $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$ . Similarly the MP test  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  against  $H_1: \mu = \mu_i (> \mu_0)$  is UMP for testing  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  against  $H_1: \mu < \mu_0$

However it can be shown that there is no test which is UMP for  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  against  $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$

(4) Let  $X$  have a normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  where  $\mu$  is a known constant

We want to test

$$H_0 : \sigma = \sigma_0$$

Us

$$H_1 : \sigma = \sigma_1 (> \sigma_0)$$

We have

$$L(\sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sigma^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2}$$

Therefore the MP test has the cr region w depend by  $W = \left\{ \frac{L(\sigma_1)}{L(\sigma_0)} \geq c \right\}$

$i, e$  inside  $W$

$$\frac{L(\sigma_1)}{L(\sigma_0)} = \left( \frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma_1} \right)^n e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \left( \frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2} - \frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2} \right)} \geq c$$

Or 
$$\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \left( \frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2} - \frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2} \right) \geq \log c \left( \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_0} \right)^n$$

Or 
$$\sum (x_i - \mu)^2 \geq k (\text{since } \sigma_1 > \sigma_0)$$

Where 
$$k = \frac{2\{\log e + n \log \left( \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_0} \right)\}}{\left( \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} - \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} \right)}$$

MP test cr region is given by 
$$W = \{ \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \geq k \}$$

Since  $\sum_i^n \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_n^2$  we can determine  $k$  by solving

$$P_{\sigma_0} \left\{ \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \geq k \right\} = \alpha$$

Or 
$$P_{\sigma_0} \left\{ \sum_i^n \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \geq \frac{k}{\sigma_0^2} \right\} = \alpha$$

Or 
$$P_{\sigma_0} \left\{ Y \geq \frac{k}{\sigma_0^2} \right\} = \alpha$$

Where  $Y \sim \chi_n^2$

From the table of  $\chi_n^2$  we can find  $k_\alpha$  such that  $P\{Y \geq k_\alpha\} = \alpha$  so that  $k = \sigma_0^2 k_\alpha$

**Remark** (i) the power of the test is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
& P_{\sigma_0} \left\{ \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \geq k \right\} \\
&= P_{\sigma_1} \left\{ \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma_1^2} \geq \frac{k}{\sigma_1^2} \right\} \\
&= P_{\sigma_1} \left\{ Y \geq \frac{\sigma_0^2}{\sigma_1^2} k_\alpha \right\}
\end{aligned}$$

Where  $Y \sim \chi_n^2$

(ii) If  $\sigma_1 < \sigma_0$  the MP test can be shown to have the cr region  $\{\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 \leq k'\}$

(iii) Since the MP test of  $H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$  vs  $H_1: \sigma = \sigma_1 (> \sigma_0)$  does not depend on  $\sigma_i$  it is UMP for testing  $H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$  against  $H_1: \sigma > \sigma_0$ . Similarly the MP test for  $H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$  against  $H_1: \sigma > \sigma_1 (> \sigma_0)$  is UMP test for  $H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$  against  $H_1: \sigma < \sigma_0$ .

However, no UMP test exists for alternative  $H_1: \sigma \neq \sigma_0$

(5) Let  $X$  have the distribution with  $\theta, d, f$

$$f(x, \theta) = \theta x^{\theta-1} (0 \leq x \leq 1)$$

We want to test

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0$$

Against

$$H_1: \theta = \theta_1 (> \theta_0)$$

We have

$$l(\theta) = \theta^n [\prod x_i]^{\theta-1}$$

Therefore, the MP has the cr region  $W = \left\{ \frac{l(\theta_1)}{l(\theta_0)} \geq C \right\}$  i.e. inside  $W$

$$\left( \frac{\theta_1}{\theta_0} \right)^n \left[ \prod_{i=1}^n x_i \right]^{\theta_1 - \theta_0} \geq c$$

Or  $\prod_{i=1}^n x_i \geq k$  where  $k = \left[ c \left( \frac{\theta_0}{\theta_1} \right)^n \right]^{1/\theta_1 - \theta_0}$

The MP test has cr region

$$\left\{ \prod_{i=1}^n x_i \geq k \right\}$$

Or  $\{-\sum_{i=1}^n \log x_i \leq k_0\}$  where  $k_0 = -\log k$

If can be shown that  $\gamma = (20)(\sum_{i=1}^n \log x_i)$  has  $x_{2n}^2$  therefore the constant  $k_0$  (and have  $k$ ) can be determined by solving

$$P\{\gamma \leq (2\theta_0)k_0\} = \alpha$$

Where  $\gamma \sim x_{2n}^2$

**Remark** In the same manner for  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$  against  $H_1 : \theta = \theta_1 (< \theta_0)$  MP test can be found.

$$\left\{ x \frac{f_1(x)}{f_0(x)} \geq c \right\}$$

Or  $\sqrt{\frac{2}{x}} \frac{e^{x^2/2}}{1+x^2} \geq a$

Since L.H.S is non decreasing for  $|x|$  the cr region is  $\{|x| \geq k\}$

Where  $k$  is determined from the size condition

$$P_{H_0} \{|x| \geq k\} = \alpha$$

Since  $X \sim N(0,1)$  Under  $H_0$ ,  $k = Z_{\alpha/2}$

(7) Suppose  $X$  has the following distribution under  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  will here the critical region

$$\left\{ x : \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} e^{|x|+x^2/2} \geq C \right\}$$

Since  $\frac{f_1(x)}{f_0(x)}$  is a non-decreasing function of  $|x|$ , the critical region is  $\{|x| \geq k\}$  where  $k = z_{\alpha/2}$

(8) Suppose  $x$  has the following distribution

$$H_0 : f_0(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} ; -\infty < x < +\infty$$

$$H_1 : f_1(x) = \frac{2}{\Gamma^2} e^{-x^4} ; -\infty < x < +\infty$$

Let us take a single observation. The MP test of  $H_0$  Vs  $H_1$  has the critical region

$$\left\{ x : \frac{f_1(x)}{f_0(x)} \geq C \right\}$$

Or  $e^{-x^4+x^2/2} \geq C'$

Since L.H.S. is a non-increasing function of  $|x|$ , the critical region is  $\{|x| \leq k\}$  where  $k = z_{(1-\alpha)/2}$

(9) Suppose  $X$  has the following distribution

$$H_0 : f_0(x) = \begin{cases} 4x ; 0 < x < 1/2 \\ 4(1-x) ; 1/2 \leq x < 1 \end{cases}$$

$$H_1: f_1(x) = 1; 0 < x < 1$$

Let us take a single observation. The MP test of  $H_0$  VS  $H_1$  has the critical region given by

$$\frac{f_1(x)}{f_0(x)} \geq C$$

$$\text{Where } \frac{f_1(x)}{f_0(x)} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4x}; & 0 < x < 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4(1-x)}; & 1/2 \leq x < 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{We see that } \frac{f_1(x)}{f_0(x)} \geq C$$

If either  $x < k_1$  or  $x > k_2$

Hence MP or region is

$$\{ x < k_1 \} \cup \{ x > k_2 \}$$

The size of the test is  $P_{H_0} \{ x < k_1 \} \cup \{ x > k_2 \} + P_{H_0} \{ x > k_2 \} = \alpha$

For simplicity we can take  $k_2 = 1 - k_1$

(10) Let  $X$  have the rectangular distribution  $R(0, \theta)$  having p.d.f.

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}; 0 \leq x \leq \theta$$

We want to test

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0 \text{ Vs}$$

$$H_1: \theta = \theta_1 (> \theta_0)$$

We have

$$L(\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta^n} I_{[0, x(n)]}(X_{(1)}) I_{[0, \theta]}(x_{(n)})$$

Therefore the MP test has the critical region  $W = \left\{ \frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\theta_1)} \geq C \right\}$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\theta_1)} &= \left( \frac{\theta_0}{\theta_1} \right)^n \frac{I_{[0, \theta_1]}(x_{(n)})}{I_{[0, \theta_0]}(x_{(n)})} \\ &= \begin{cases} \left( \frac{\theta_0}{\theta_1} \right)^n & \text{for } 0 \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta_0 \\ \infty & \text{for } \theta_0 \leq x_{(n)} \leq \theta_1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $\frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\theta_1)}$  is an increasing function of  $x_{(n)}$  and, therefore

$$\frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\theta_1)} \geq C \quad x_{(n)} \geq k$$

Hence the MP test has the critical region

$$\{ x_{(n)} \geq k \}$$

The value of  $k$  is determined by the size condition

$$P \{ x_{(n)} \geq k / \theta_0 \} = \alpha$$

Since  $x_{(n)}$  has p.d.f.  $f_{x_{(n)}}(y) = \frac{ny^{n-1}}{\theta^n}; 0 \leq y \leq \theta$

$$\text{We have } \frac{n}{\theta^n} \int_k^{\theta_0} y^{n-1} dy = \alpha$$

Remark: the above test is UMP for  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  against  $H_1: \theta > \theta_0$

As we have remarked, UMP test may not always exist. Therefore we for their restrict the class of tests by considering unbiased tests (defined below) and then try to obtain UMP test in the class of unbiased tests. If such a test exists we call it uniformly not powerful unbiased test (UMPU test)

**Definition** Suppose we are testing a sample hypothesis  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  against a conqurite alternative

$H_i$  (may be  $\theta \neq \theta_0$  or  $\theta > \theta_0$  or  $\theta < \theta_0$ ) A test T is called unbiased if

$$P_o(T) \geq \alpha \text{ for all } \theta \in H_i$$

Where  $\alpha$  is the size of T i, e.  $P_o(T) = \alpha$

**Remark:** Suppose  $\theta = \theta_1$  is one of the alternative value of  $\theta$ . If the test is not unbiased it may happen that  $P_o(T) < \alpha = P_{\theta_1}(T)$  which means that the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when it is false is less then the probability if rejecting  $H_0$  when it is true if the test is unbiased it will not happen.

**Theorem** A MP test or UMP test is unbiased.

**Prof** Let T be a MP (or UMP) test of size  $\alpha$ . Consider another test T which rejects the null hypothesis  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  with probability  $\alpha$  irrespective of the sample outcome. We may just toss a coin for which the probability of is  $\alpha$  and decide to reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$  if we get  $\alpha$ , irrespective if the sample values obtained. Then

$$P_T\{\text{Reject } H_0 / H_0 \text{ is true}\} = \alpha$$

So that the size of the test  $T = \alpha$ . Also the power of test T is also  $\alpha$ , since

$$P_T\{\text{Reject } H_0 / H_0 \text{ is false}\} = \alpha$$

But T being MP (or UMP) is such that

$$P_T(\theta) \geq P_T(\theta) \text{ for } \theta \in H_i$$

Or

$$P_T(\theta) \geq \alpha \text{ for } \theta \neq \theta_0$$

**Remark:** It may be shown that the following tests are UMPU for two sided alternative  $H_i: \theta \neq \theta_0$  in example 1,2 and 3

For example 1, UMPU test is  $\{\bar{x} \geq k_1 \text{ or } \bar{x} \leq k_2\}$

For example 2, UMPU test is  $\{[x] \geq k\}$

For example 3, UMPU test is  $\{\sum(x_i - \mu)^2 \geq k_1 \text{ or } \sum(x_i - \mu)^2 \leq k_2\}$

The constant  $k, k_1, k_2$  are determined from size condition

Now we consider a produce for constructing tests that has some intuitive appeal and that. Frequently, though not always, leads to UMP or UMPU test. Also the produce leads to test that have decided large sample properties

Suppose we are given a sample  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  from a distribution with  $p, d, f f(x, \theta)$  (where  $\theta$  may be a vector) and we deice to test the null hypothesis  $H_0: \theta \in w(\subset \Omega)$  against the alternative hypothesis  $H_i: \theta \in w(\subset \Omega)$  where  $\Omega$  is the parameter space,

The likelihood function of the sample is given by

$$L(\theta) = l(\theta, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i, \theta)$$

Define the likelihood ratio



$$\lambda = \frac{\max_{\theta \in \omega} L(\theta)}{\frac{\max L(\theta)}{\theta \in \Omega}}$$

Where  $\max_{\theta \in \omega} L(\theta)$  denotes the maximum of the likelihood function when  $\theta$  is restricted to values in  $\omega$  and  $\max L(\theta)$  denotes the maximum of the likelihood for when  $\theta$  takes all possible values in  $\Omega$

Obviously,  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$  and  $\lambda$  is also to 1 of the sample shows that  $\theta$  lies actually in  $\omega$ .

**Definition** The likelihood ratio test of  $H_0$  against  $H_1$  has the critical region

$$w = \{\lambda \leq \lambda_0\}$$

When  $\lambda_0$  is determined by the size condition

$$\sup_{\theta \in H_0} P\{\lambda \leq \lambda_0 / \theta \in H_0\} = \alpha$$

**Remark (1)** For testing a simple hypothesis against a simple alternative likelihood ratio test is equivalent to the test given by the Neyman –Pearson lemma.

(ii) if a sufficient statistics exists the L.R test is a function of the sufficient statistics.

(iii) Under some regularity condition  $-2 \log_e \lambda$  is asymptotically distributed as a  $\chi^2$  r. v. with degrees of freedom equal to the difference between the number in  $\omega$ .

**Example: (1)** Let X be a r.v. having a normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  where  $\sigma (= \sigma_0)$  is known

We want to test  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$

Against  $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$

We have the likelihood function

$$L(\mu) = \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma_0^2}$$

Then

$$\max_{H_0} L(\mu) = \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2 / 2\sigma_0^2}$$

Since MLE of  $\mu$  is  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$ , therefore

$$\max_{\mu} L(\mu) = \frac{1}{(\sigma_0 \sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / 2\sigma_0^2}$$

The LR test critical region is given by  $\lambda \leq \lambda_0$

$$\frac{\max_{H_0} L(\mu)}{\max_{\mu} L(\mu)} \leq \lambda_0$$

$$\text{Or } \frac{e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2 / 2\sigma_0^2}}{e^{-\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / 2\sigma_0^2}} \leq \lambda_0$$

$$e^{\frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2} [\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 - \sum (x_i - \mu_0)^2]} \leq \lambda_0$$

$$\text{Or } \frac{-n(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma_0^2} \leq \log \lambda_0$$

$$\text{or } \frac{n(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2}{\sigma_0^2} \geq k$$

$$\text{or } \frac{|\bar{x} - \mu_0|}{\sigma_0 / \sqrt{n}} \geq k'$$

**Remark (i)** the above test is not UMP test since there exists other UMP tests for  $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$  and  $H_1: \mu < \mu_0$  (ii)  $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x}-\mu_0)}{\sigma} \sim N(0,1)$  under  $H_0$  so that  $k$  can be found easily by using size condition

(2) Let  $x \sim N(0,1)$  where both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are unknown we want to test

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$

Against

$$H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$$

We have the likelihood for

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

Under  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ , (given) so the MLE of  $\sigma$  is

$$\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2}{n}}$$

In general, the MLE of  $\mu$  is  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$  and MLE of  $\sigma$  is

$$\hat{\sigma} = s_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$$

Therefore, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mu, \sigma} L(\mu, \sigma) &= \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\frac{n}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mu, \sigma} L(\mu, \sigma) &= \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / 2\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-n/2} \end{aligned}$$

The L.R test critical region is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{\max_{H_1} L(\mu, \sigma)}{\max_{H_0} L(\mu, \sigma)} \leq \lambda_0$$

Or

$$\left(\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0}\right)^n$$

Or

$$\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_0^2} \leq \lambda_0'$$

Or

$$\frac{n\sigma_0^2}{s^2} \geq k$$

Since  $\sigma_0^2 = n(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2 + n\sigma^2$  the above cr region becomes

$$\frac{n(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2}{s^2} \geq k'$$

Or

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu_0)}{s} \geq k''$$

Where

$$s = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1} = \frac{ns^2}{n-1}$$

It is known that  $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x}-\mu_0)}{s}$  has t distribution on  $(n-1) d.f$  under  $H_0$ . Therefore the values of  $k$  can be found from the size condition

$$P\{|Y| \geq k\} = \alpha$$

Where  $Y \sim t_{n-1}$

(3) Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$  when both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are unknown we want to test

$$H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$$

Against

$$H_1: \sigma \neq \sigma_0$$

We have the likelihood function

$$L(\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2}$$

Under  $H_0$ , the  $m, l, e$  of  $\mu$  is  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$

In general,  $m, l, e$  of  $\mu$  is  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$  and  $m, l, e$  of  $\sigma$  is

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

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{H_0} L(\mu, \sigma) &= \frac{1}{(\sigma_0\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / 2\sigma_0^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\sigma_0\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\frac{ns^2}{2\sigma_0^2}} \end{aligned}$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{H_1} L(\mu, \sigma) &= \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / 2\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\frac{n}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

L.R test cr region is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{\max_{H_0} L(\mu, \sigma)}{\max_{\mu, \sigma} L(\mu, \sigma)} < \lambda_0$$

Or

$$\left(\frac{s^2}{\sigma_0^2}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \left(\frac{s^2}{\sigma_0^2} - 1\right) < \lambda_0$$

Or

$$y^{\frac{n}{2}} e^{-\frac{n}{2}(y-1)} < \lambda_0 \text{ where } y = \frac{s^2}{\sigma_0^2}$$

We note that  $y^{\frac{n}{2}} e^{-\frac{n}{2}(y-1)}$  has a maximum at  $y = 1$

Therefore  $\lambda < \lambda_0$  if and only if  $y \geq k_2$  or  $y \geq k_1$  that is the critical region is

$$\left\{ \frac{s^2}{\sigma_0^2} \leq k_2 \text{ or } \frac{s^2}{\sigma_0^2} \leq k_1 \right\}$$

$$\left\{ \frac{(n)s^2}{\sigma_0^2} \geq k_2 \text{ or } \frac{(n)s^2}{\sigma_0^2} \leq k_1 \right\}$$

But it is known that  $\frac{(n)s^2}{\sigma_0^2} = \frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sigma_0^2}$  has  $\chi^2$  distribution on  $(n-1) d.f$  using the  $\chi_{n-1}^2$  tables and size condition we can get the values of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$

(3a) suppose in example 3 the value of  $\mu (= \mu_0)$  is known. Then the L.R cr region because

$$\left\{ \frac{ns_0^2}{\sigma_0^2} \geq c_1 \text{ or } \frac{ns_0^2}{\sigma_0^2} \geq c_2 \right\}$$

Where

$$s_0^2 = \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2 / n$$

In than case  $\frac{ns_0^2}{\sigma_0^2} = \frac{\sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sigma^2}$  has  $\chi_n^2$

(4) Let  $x$  have an exponential distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}} (x \geq \theta)$$

We want to test

$$H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$$

Against

$$H_1 : \theta = \theta_0$$

We have the likelihood function

$$\begin{aligned} L(\theta) &= \frac{1}{\theta^n} e^{-\frac{1}{\theta} \sum x_i} \\ &= \frac{1}{\theta^n} e^{-\frac{n\bar{x}}{\theta}} \end{aligned}$$

Then we get

$$\max_{H_0} L(\theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(\theta_0)^n} e^{-\frac{n\bar{x}}{\theta_0}} \text{ for } \bar{x} > \theta_0 \\ \frac{i}{(\bar{x})^n} e^{-n} \text{ for } \bar{x} \leq \theta_0 \end{cases}$$

Also

$$\max L(\theta) = \frac{i}{(\bar{x})^n} e^{-n}$$

Because  $m, l, e$  of  $\theta$  is  $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x}$

The LR test cr region is given by

$$x \leq \lambda_0$$

Where

$$x = \begin{cases} \frac{i}{(\theta_0)^n} e^{-\frac{i}{\theta} \sum x_i \bar{x} > \theta_0} \\ \frac{i}{(\bar{x})^n} e^{-n} \text{ for } \bar{x} \leq \theta_0 \end{cases}$$

Since  $y^n e^{-n(y-i)}$  at lains maximum at  $y - i$  taking  $y = \frac{\bar{x}}{\theta_0}$  we see that  $\lambda = i$  if  $y = i$  and  $\lambda \leq \lambda_0$  for  $y \geq k$  ( $0 < k < i$ )

LR test critical region because

$$\left\{ \frac{\bar{x}}{\theta_0} \geq k \right\} \text{ or } \{ \bar{x} \geq k \}$$

Remark (i) if one take  $H_1 : \theta = \theta_0$  we shall get the L.R critical region as  $\{ \bar{x} \geq k \}$  in both case of one-sided alternation the L.R test are UMP test.

(2) Since  $\sum_i^n x_i$  has gamma distribution we can find the value of  $k$  by using size condition

(5) Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be  $a, r, s$  from  $N(\mu, \sigma_1)$  and  $(y_1, y_{n2})$  be  $a, r, s$  from another  $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$  where two samples (distribution) are independent.

We want to test

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \\ H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \end{array} \right\}$$

Where it is assumed that  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 (= \text{unknown})$  we that the like hood function

$$l(\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^{n_1+n_2} \sigma^{n_1+n_2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} [\sum_i^n (x_i - \mu_1)^2 + \sum_i^n (y_i - \mu_1)^2]}$$

In general the  $m, l, e$  of  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  and  $\sigma$  are

$$\hat{\mu}_1 = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_i^n x_i, \hat{\mu}_2 = \bar{y} = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_i^n y_i$$

And

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{n_1 s_1^2 + n_2 s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2} = s^2 (\text{say})$$

Also

$$s_1^2 = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \text{ and } s_2^2 = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_i^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

Therefore

$$\max_{\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma} L(\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n_1+n_2} (s^2)^{n_1+n_2}} e^{-\frac{(n_1+n_2)}{2}}$$

Against the  $m, l, e$  under  $H_0$  are

$$\hat{\mu}_1 = \hat{\mu}_2 = \frac{n_1 \bar{x} + n_2 \bar{y}}{n_1 + n_2} = m (\text{say})$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}^2 &= \frac{1}{n_1+n_2} [\sum_i^n (x_i - m)^2 + \sum_i^n (y_i - m)^2] \\ &= \frac{1}{n_1 + n_2} \left[ \sum_i^{n_1} \left\{ (x_i - \bar{x}) + (\bar{x} - m) \right\}^2 + \sum_i^{n_2} \left\{ (y_i - \bar{y}) + (\bar{y} - m) \right\}^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{n_1 + n_2} \left[ \sum_i^{n_1} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + n_1 (\bar{x} - m)^2 + \sum_i^{n_2} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 + n_2 (\bar{y} - m)^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{n_1 + n_2} \left[ \sum_i^{n_1} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + \sum_i^{n_2} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 + \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1 n_2} (\bar{x} - \bar{y})^2 \right] \\ &= s^2 + \frac{n_1 n_2}{(n_1 + n_2)} (\bar{x} - \bar{y})^2 = s_0^2 (\text{say}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\max_{H_0} L(\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^{n_1+n_2} (s_0^2)^{n_1+n_2}} e^{-\frac{(n_1+n_2)}{2}}$$

So that the LR cr region is given by

$$\lambda = \left( \frac{s_0^2}{s^2} \right)^{n_1+n_2} \leq \lambda_0$$

Or

$$\frac{s_0^2}{s^2} \leq k$$

Or

$$\frac{(\bar{x} - \bar{y})^2}{(n_1+n_2) s^2 \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}$$

Or

$$\frac{(\bar{x} - \bar{y})^2}{s^2 \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}$$

Where

$$s^2 = \frac{n_1 s_1^2 + n_2 s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} = \frac{n_1 + n_2}{(n_1 + n_2 - 2)} s^2$$

The cr region can be within as

$$\left\{ \frac{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|}{s \sqrt{\frac{i}{n_1} + \frac{i}{n_2}}} \geq k \right\}$$

Since under find  $k$  such that  $P\{\gamma \geq k\} = \alpha$

Where

$$\gamma \sim t_{n_1+n_2-2}$$

(6) Let  $(X_1, \dots, X_{n_1})$  be  $a, r, s$  from  $N(\mu, \sigma_1)$  and  $(Y_1, \dots, Y_{n_2})$  from  $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$  where two samples (and two distributions) are indecent

We want to test

$$\text{Against } \begin{cases} H_0: \sigma_1 = \sigma_2 \\ H_i: \sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2 \end{cases}$$

We have the likelihood function

$$l(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_2, \sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n_1+n_2} \sigma_1^{n_1} \sigma_2^{n_2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{\sum_i^{n_1} (x_i - \mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{\sum_i^{n_2} (y_i - \mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2} \right]}$$

In general, be  $m, l, e$  of  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are

$$\hat{\mu}_1 = \bar{x}, \hat{\mu}_2 = \bar{y}, \hat{\sigma}_1^2 = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_i^{n_1} (x_i - \bar{x})^2, \hat{\sigma}_2^2 = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_i^{n_2} (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

So that

$$= s_1^2(\text{say}) = s_2^2(\text{say})$$

$$\max L(\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n_1+n_2} (s_1^2)^{\frac{n_1}{2}} (s_2^2)^{\frac{n_2}{2}}} e^{-\frac{n_1+n_2}{2}}$$

Against, the  $m, l, e$  under  $H_0$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mu}_1 = \bar{x}, \hat{\mu}_2 = \bar{y}, \hat{\sigma}_1^2 = \hat{\sigma}_2^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2 &= \frac{1}{n_1 + n_2} \left[ \sum_i^{n_1} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + \sum_i^{n_2} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{n_1 s_1^2 + n_2 s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2} = s^2(\text{say}) \end{aligned}$$

So that

$$\max L(\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n_1+n_2} (s^2)^{\frac{n_1+n_2}{2}}} e^{-\frac{n_1+n_2}{2}}$$

Therefore, the LR cr region is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{(s_1^2)^{\frac{n_1}{2}} (s_2^2)^{\frac{n_2}{2}}}{(s^2)^{\frac{n_1+n_2}{2}}} \leq \lambda_0$$

Or

$$\frac{s_1^2 \frac{n_1}{2} (s_2^2)^{\frac{n_2}{2}}}{\left( \frac{n_1 s_1^2 + n_2 s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^{\frac{n_1+n_2}{2}}} \leq \lambda_0$$

Or

$$\frac{\left[ \frac{(n_1-1)f}{(n_2-1)} \right]^{\frac{n_1}{2}}}{\left[ 1 + \frac{(n_1-1)f}{(n_2-1)} \right]^{\frac{n_1+n_2}{2}}} \leq \lambda_0$$

Where

$$f = \frac{n_1 s_1^2}{(n_1-1)} / \frac{n_2 s_2^2}{(n_2-1)}$$

Setting  $g(f)$  for the L.H.S of (i) we have  $g(0)=0$  and  $g(f) \rightarrow \infty$ . Furthermore  $g(f)$  attains its maximum for  $f = \frac{n_1(n_2-1)}{n_2(n_1-1)}$ , it is impressing between 0 and f may and derision in (f may,  $\infty$ ).

Therefore  $g(f) \leq \lambda_0$  if and only if  $f < k_1$  or  $f >$  the LR cr region can be within as  $\{F < k_1 \text{ or } F > k_2\}$

Where

$$F = \frac{n_1 s_1^2 / (n_1 - 1)}{n_2 s_2^2 / (n_2 - 1)}$$

But under  $H_0, F \sim F_{n_1-1, n_2-1}$ ,

Hence  $k_1, k_2$  can be obtained from the size condition  $P\{f > k_1 \text{ or } F < k_2\} = \alpha$  where  $F \sim F_{n_1-1, n_2-1}$

### Some distribution: $X^2, t$ and $F$

**Definition:** A  $r, v, x$  is said to have a Gamma distribution  $G(\alpha, \beta)$  of its p. d. f. is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta x} \quad ; x \geq 0$$

$$= 0 \quad ; x < 0$$

$$(\alpha > 0, \beta > 0)$$

We have  $m, g, f M_x(t) = (1 - \frac{t}{\beta})^{-\alpha}, \quad t < \beta$

$$E(X) = \alpha / \beta$$

$$V(X) = \alpha / \beta^2$$

If  $\alpha = 1$  we get the exponential distribution

$$f(x) = \beta e^{-\beta x} \quad , x \geq 0 (\beta > 0)$$

$$E(X) = 1 / \beta$$

$$V(X) = 1 / \beta^2$$

If  $\alpha = n/2$  ( $n$  a positive integer)  $\beta = 1/2$  we get the  $x^2$  distribution on  $n, d, f$  where  $p, d, f$  is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2^{n/2} \Gamma(n/2)} x^{n-2} e^{-x/2}, x \geq 0$$

We have  $m, g, f M_x(t) = (1 - 2t)^{-n/2}$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} E(x) &= n \\ v(x) &= 2n \end{aligned} \right\}$$

**Definition:** A  $r, v, X$  is said to have a  $t$ -distribution on  $n, d, f$  if its p, d, f is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n+1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2}) \sqrt{nx}} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{-\frac{n+1}{2}}, -\infty < x < \infty$$

If  $X \sim n(o - i), \gamma \sim x^2(n)$  and  $x$  and  $\gamma$  are inept then  $T = X / \sqrt{\gamma/n}$  has  $t(n)$

Define: A  $r, v, X$  is said to have a  $F$ -distribution on  $(m, n), d, f$  if its p, d, f is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{m+n}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{m}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^{\frac{m}{2}} \frac{\frac{m}{2} - 1}{\left(1 + \frac{m}{n}x\right)^{\frac{m+n}{2}}}, x \geq 0$$

$$= 0 \quad , x < 0$$

Of  $x \sim \chi^2(m)$  and  $y \sim \chi^2(n)$  where  $x$  and  $y$  are independent  $z = \frac{x/m}{y/n}$  has  $F(m, n)$

**Percentage points** the upper  $\alpha$  – percent point of the  $\chi^2(n)$  distribution is  $\chi^2_{n, \alpha}$  where

$$P(\chi^2(n) > \chi^2_{n, \alpha}) = \alpha$$

The upper  $\alpha$  – percent point of the  $t_{(n)}$  distribution is  $t_{n, \alpha}$  where

$$P(t_{(n)} > t_{n, \alpha}) = \alpha$$

Since t-distribution is symmetrical

$$P([t_{(n)}] > t_{n, \alpha/2}) = \alpha$$

The upper  $\alpha$  – percent point of the  $F(m, n, \alpha)$  distribution is  $F_{m, n, \alpha}$  where

$$P(F(m, n) > F_{m, n, \alpha}) = \alpha$$

Note that

$$F_{m, n, 1-\alpha} = \frac{1}{F_{n, m, \alpha}}$$

### **Use of $\chi^2$ t and $\bar{t}$ distribution in testing problem**

**Use of  $\chi^2$  distribution** (i) **Testing the variance of a distribution:** Given a sample  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of size  $n$  from a normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  where  $\sigma$  is unknown, we would like to test  $H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$  against alternative  $\sigma > \sigma_0$  or  $\sigma < \sigma_0$  or  $\sigma \neq \sigma_0$  the tests are summarised as follows

#### **Case I** $\mu$ known

##### **Alternative**

##### **reject $H_0$ at level $\alpha$ if**

$$H_0: \sigma > \sigma_0 \quad \sum_i^n (x_i - \mu)^2 / \sigma_0^2 \geq \chi^2_{n, \alpha}$$

$$H_0: \sigma < \sigma_0 \quad " \quad \leq \chi^2_{n, \alpha}$$

$$H_0: \sigma \neq \sigma_0 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} " \quad \leq \chi^2_{n, \alpha} \chi^2_{n-i, -\alpha/2} \\ \text{or} \geq \chi^2_{n-i, -\alpha/2} \end{array} \right\}$$

#### **Case II** $\mu$ unknown

##### **Alternative**

##### **reject $H_0$ at level $\alpha$ if**

$$H_0: \sigma > \sigma_0 \quad (n-1)(s)^2 \geq \chi^2_{n-1, \alpha}$$

$$H_0: \sigma < \sigma_0 \quad " \quad \leq \chi^2_{n-1, \alpha}$$

$$H_0: \sigma \neq \sigma_0 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} " \quad \leq \chi^2_{n-1, \alpha} \chi^2_{n-i, -\alpha/2} \\ \text{or} \geq \chi^2_{n-i, -\alpha/2} \end{array} \right\}$$

Where  $(s)^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$

**(2) Testing proportions in  $k(>2)$  classes** Suppose  $a, r, v$  takes values in one of  $k(>2)$  mutually exclusive classes  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  with  $p = P(x \in A_1), 1, 2, \dots, k, \sum_1^k p_i = 1$  we want to test the hypotheses that

$$H_0: p_i = p_i^0 (i = 1, \dots, k)$$

Against

$$H_1: p_i \neq p_i^0 \text{ for all } i$$



For a random  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of  $n$  observations let the observed frequencies in the  $k$  classes be  $o_1, o_2, \dots, o_k$  ( $\sum_{i=1}^k o_i = n$ ) and the expected frequencies under the  $H_0$  be  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$  ( $\sum_{i=1}^k e_i = n$ ) where  $e_i = np_i$  calculate

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(o_i - e_i)^2}{e_i}$$

Then, for large sample,  $\chi^2$  has  $\chi^2(k-1)$  the test of  $H_0$  has the cr. region

$$\chi^2 \geq \chi_{k-1, \alpha}^2$$

**Note:** if we want to test  $H_0: p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_k$  we take  $p_i^0 = \frac{1}{k}$  to any

**(3) Testing goodness of fit:** given a sample  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  of observations on a r.v.  $X$  arranged in the form of a frequency distribution having  $k$  classes  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  we would like to test the hypothesis that distribution of  $X$  has a specified form with  $p, d, f$  (or  $p, m, f$ )  $f_0(x, \theta)$  the parameter  $\theta$  be a simple one or a vector  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_r)$

Let the observed frequencies in the  $k$  classes be  $o_1, o_2, \dots, o_k$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^k o_i = n$  and the expected frequencies under  $H_0$  be  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^k e_i = n$

Such that  $e_i = P_{H_0}(x \in A_i)$  Calculate

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(o_i - e_i)^2}{e_i} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{o_i^2}{e_i} - n$$

Then, for large sample,  $\chi^2$  has  $\chi^2(k-1)$  the test of  $H_0$  has the cr. Region

$$\chi^2 \geq \chi_{k-1, \alpha}^2$$

**Note** if  $r$  (of  $\ell$ ) parameters in  $\theta$  are estimated from the sample then  $\chi^2$  has  $\chi^2(k-r-1)$  if any expected frequency is less than 5 we pool this class with the adjoining class and denote by  $k$  the effective number of classes after pooling

#### **(4) Testing independence of two attributes in a $k \times \ell$ contingency table**

In a  $(k \times \ell)$  contingency table for two attributes, we want to test

$H_0$ : Two attributes are independent

Against  $H_0$ : Two attributes are not independent

Let  $O_{ij}$  = observed frequency in the  $(i, j)$  the cell

And  $e_{ij}$  = expected =  $(i\text{th row total} \times j\text{th column total}) / n$  " " " under  $H_0$

Calculate

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{o_{ij}^2}{e_{ij}} - n$$

Where  $n$ =total frequency. Then  $\chi^2$  has  $\chi^2$  on  $(k - i)x(\ell - i)d.f$  the test of  $H_0$  has the cr. Region

$$\chi^2 \geq \chi_{k-i, \ell-i, \alpha}^2$$

### **(5) Testing the homogeneity of $k(> 2)$ correlation coefficients.**

Suppose  $r_1, \dots, r_k$  are  $k$  sample correlation coefficients corresponding to  $k$  normal

Distribution with population correlation coefficients  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_k$  we want to test

$$H_0 : \rho_1, \dots, \rho_k = \dots = \rho_k$$

Us  $H_1$ : all correlation coefficients are not equal we use the friskers z-trans function of correlation

coefficients given by  $z = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{i+r}{i+r}, S = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{i+p}{i-p}$  so that

$$z \sim N\left(S, \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-3}}\right)$$

Where  $n$  is the sample size.

We calculate  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k$  corresponding to  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k$  having sample size  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  and define

$$\bar{z} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 3)z_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 3)}$$

And

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 3)(z_i - \bar{z})^2$$

Then  $\chi^2$  has  $\chi^2$  on  $(k - i)d.f$  and the test of  $H_0$  has cr. Region

$$\chi^2 \geq \chi_{(k-i), \alpha}^2$$

**Remark:** if  $H_0$  is accepted we may obtain an estimate of the common corresponding coefficients  $\rho^*$  (say) by solving

$$\bar{z} = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{1 + \rho^*}{1 - \rho^*}$$

### **Uses if t-distribution:**

(i) **Testing the mean of a single population:** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a sample of size  $n$  from a normal population  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and, as usual,  $\bar{x}$  and  $s^2$  are the sample mean and sample variance. We would like to let the null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  against alterative  $\mu > \mu_0$  or  $\mu < \mu_0$  or  $\mu \neq \mu_0$  the tests are summarised as follows:

(2) **Testing the equality of two population means:** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_{n_1})$  and  $(y_1, \dots, y_{n_2})$  be two samples from indept normal populations  $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$  and  $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$  respectively let  $\bar{x}, \bar{y}, s_1^2, s_2^2$  be as usual and let



Reject  $H_0$  if either  $\frac{(s_1)^2}{(s_2)^1} \geq F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha/2}$  If  $s_1 > s_2$

Or  $\frac{(s_1)^2}{(s_2)^1} \geq F_{n_2-1, n_1-1, \alpha/2}$  If  $s_2 > s_1$

(2) **Testing the multiple correlation coefficient:** Given a sample of size  $n$  or from a bivariate normal population  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$  with multiple correlation coefficient  $R_{1(23)}$  of  $x_1$  or  $(x_2, x_3)$  we would like to test the null hypotheses  $H_0 R_{1(23)} = 0$  let the sample multiple correlation coefficient be  $R_{1(23)}$ . The test is to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\frac{r_{(23)}^2}{1 - r_{1(23)}^2} \cdot \frac{n - 3}{2} \geq F_{2, n-3, \alpha}$$

(3) **Testing the equality of means of  $k$  normal distribution ( $k \geq 2$ ) [see left page]**

**Farceur's z-transformation of correlation coefficient:** Suppose a sample of size  $n$  is drawn from a bivariate population with correlation coefficient the variables Fisher intruded the transformation

$$z = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{1+r}{1-r}$$

Where  $r$  is a sample correlation coefficient Though the population correlation coefficient  $P$  may be widely different from zero, the new statistics  $z$  may be amounted to be normally distributed even when  $n$  is as small as 10 it has hen show that  $z$  has approximate mean

$$\xi = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{1+p}{1-p}$$

And approximate mean  $1/(n-3)$ , i. e

$$\sqrt{n-3}(z - \xi) \sim N(0, 1)$$

(I) For testing  $H_0 : P = P_0$  against  $H_i : P \neq P_0$  we reject  $H_0$  if

$$\sqrt{n-3}[z - \xi_0] \geq N_{\alpha/2}$$

Where  $\xi_0 = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{1+p_0}{1-p_0}$  and  $N_{\alpha}$  is the appear  $\alpha$  % point of normal distribution  $N(0, 1)$

(ii) For testing  $H_0 : p_1 = p_2$  against  $H_i : p_1 \neq p_2$  involving two populations, let  $r_1, r_2$  be the sample correlation coefficient for two independent sample of size  $n_1, n_2$  from the two populations and let  $z_1, z_2$  be there transformed values, i, e

$$z_i = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{1+r_i}{1-r_i} \quad (i = 1, 2)$$

The test is to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\frac{|z_1 - z_2|}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1-3} + \frac{1}{n_2-3}}} \geq N_{\alpha/2}$$

(iii) Let  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k$  be sample correlation coefficient for  $k$  sample of sizes  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  drawn from  $k$  independent vicariate normal population with correlation coefficients  $\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_k$ . Let  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k$  be the transformed values and let

$$\bar{z} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 3)z_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 3)}$$

The test is to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 3)(z_i - \bar{z})^2 \geq \chi_{k-1, \alpha}^2$$

If  $H_0$  is accepted an estimate of common correlation coefficient  $\rho$  is  $\bar{z}$  where  $\bar{z}$  is the transformed values of  $p^*(x)$  For large sample

$$p \sim N\left(p, \frac{p\sqrt{p(1-p)}}{n}\right)$$

**Large sample tests** so far we have considered tests of hypothesis which contain assumptions regarding the population are satisfied. Now we consider some approximate test which are valid only for sufficiently large samples, but they have wide applicability and hold for all populations satisfying certain general conditions rather than being valid for some particular populations only (e.g. normal)

**(i) Testing a proportion:** Suppose in a population is the proportion of members with a qualitative character A. Let  $p$  be the proportion of members with A in a random sample of size  $n$ . we would like to test the hypothesis  $H_0: P=P_0$ . The test is to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\frac{[p - P_0]}{\sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)/n}} \geq N_{\alpha/2}$$

**(ii) Testing the equality of two population proportions:** Let  $p_1, p_2$  be two population proportions and  $p_1, p_2$  be the two sample proportions drawn from these independent population the test of  $H_0: P_1, P_2$  is to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\frac{[p_1 - p_2]}{\sqrt{p(i-p)\left\{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right\}}} \geq N_{\alpha/2}$$

Where

$$p = \frac{n_1 p_1 + n_2 p_2}{n_1 + n_2}$$

**(iii) Testing for a st. deviation:** let  $s$  be the st. Deviation of a sample of observation of size  $n$  drawn from a population with st. Deviation  $\sigma(x)$  the test of  $H_0: \sigma = \sigma_0$  is to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\frac{[s - \sigma_0]}{\sigma_0/\sqrt{2n}} \geq N_{\alpha/2}$$

**(iv) Testing for equality of two population st. Deviation** Let  $s_1, s_2$  be the st. Deviation of two sample of sizes  $n_1, n_2$  from two independent population with st. Deviation  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  Let

$$s^2 = \frac{n_1 s_1^2 + n_2 s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2}$$

The test of  $H_0: \sigma_1, \sigma_2$  is to reject the at level  $\alpha$  if

$$\frac{[s_1 - s_2]}{s \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n_1} + \frac{1}{2n_2}}} \geq N_{\alpha/2}$$

**Definition:-** For a random sample  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  from the distribution of a r. v.  $x$  having  $\mu, d, f(x, \theta)$  Let  $L_1, L_2(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $L_2(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be two statistics such that  $L_1 \leq L_2$ . The interval  $[L_1, L_2]$  is a confidence interval for  $\theta$  with. Confidence coefficient  $1-\alpha$  ( $0 < \alpha < 1$ ) if  $P_\theta[L_1 \leq \theta \leq L_2] = 1-\alpha$  for all  $\theta \in \Omega$ .  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are called the lower and upper confidence limits, respectively at least one of them should not be a constant.

### Interval Estimation

Estimation of a parameter by a sample value is known as point estimation. An alternative procedure is to give an interval within which the parameter may be supposed to lie with high probability. This is called interval estimation and the interval is called the confidence for the parameter

Suppose  $a, r, v$   $x$  has Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  with unknown mean  $\mu$  and known st. Deviation  $\sigma$ . Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be the values of a random sample of size  $n$  from then distribution. We know that the sample mean  $\bar{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$  and, hence  $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$ . It follows that

$$P\left\{-1.96 \leq \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{\sigma} \leq 1.96\right\} = 0.95$$

Or, equivalently,

$$P\left\{\bar{x} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right\} = 0.95$$

This shows that, in respected sampling the probability is 0.95 that the interval

$$\left\{\bar{x} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}; \bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right\}$$

will include  $\mu$ , We say that above is a confidence interval for  $\mu$  with confidence coefficient, 95. The two end points are known as 95% confidence limits for  $\mu$ .

Let us now consider the general problem Let  $a, r, v$   $x$  has distribution depending on an unknown parameter  $\theta$  which is to be estimated. Suppose  $Z$  is a statistics (usually it is a function of a sufficient statistics if it exists) which is a function of  $\theta$  but whose distribution does not depend on  $\theta$ . Such a statistics  $z$  is called a pivotal function Let  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  be two numbers such that

$$P\{\lambda_1 \leq Z \leq \lambda_2\} = 1-\alpha \quad - (1)$$

For a specified  $\alpha$  ( $0 < \alpha < 1$ )

The above inequality can be solved such that it assumes the form

$$P\{\theta_1((x_1, \dots, x_n)) \leq \theta \leq \theta_2(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_2)\} = 1-\alpha$$

For all  $\theta$  where  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  are random variables which do not depend on  $\theta$ . Finally, if we substitute the sample value  $[\theta_1((x_1, \dots, x_n)), \theta_2((x_1, \dots, x_n))]$  becomes a confidence interval for  $\theta$  with desired confidence coefficient  $1-\alpha$ .

**Remark:** the numbers  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  may be chosen in several ways, giving rise to several confidence intervals. We usually choose confidence intervals of shortest length.

**Example (i)**  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$  where  $\sigma$  is Known and  $\mu$  is to be estimated

$$\text{Let } z = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{\sigma}$$

Which has  $N(0, 1)$  distribution For a specified  $\alpha$  let  $N_{\alpha/2}$  be the  $\frac{\alpha}{2}$  % critical value of  $N(0, 1)$  then

$$P \left\{ -N_{\alpha/2} \leq \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{\sigma} \leq N_{\alpha/2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Or 
$$P \left\{ \bar{x} - N_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{x} + N_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

So that 
$$P \left\{ \bar{x} - N_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{x} + N_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$

Is a confidence interval of  $\mu$  with confidence coefficient  $(1 - \alpha)$

(2)  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ ,  $\sigma$  unknown and  $\mu$  to be estimated

$$\text{Let } z = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{s} \text{ where } s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

Then  $z$  has  $t(n-1)$  distribution, so that for a specified  $\alpha$ ,

$$P \left\{ t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \leq \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{s} \leq t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Or 
$$P \left\{ \bar{x} - t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{x} + t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

So that 
$$\left\{ \bar{x} - t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$

Is a confidence interval of  $\mu$  with confidence coefficient  $(1 - \alpha)$

(3)  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ ,  $\mu$  known and  $\sigma$  is to be estimated

$$\text{Let } z = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

Then  $z$  has  $\chi^2(n)$  distribution, so that for a specified  $\alpha$

$$P \left\{ \chi_{n, 1-\alpha/2}^2 \leq \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi_{n, \alpha/2}^2 \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Or 
$$P \left\{ \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_{n, 1-\alpha/2}^2} \leq \sigma^2 \leq \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_{n, \alpha/2}^2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

There,  $1 - \alpha$  % confidence interval of  $\sigma^2$

$$\left\{ \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_{n, 1-\alpha/2}^2}, \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_{n, \alpha/2}^2} \right\}$$

(4)  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ ,  $\mu$  Unknown and  $\sigma$  is to be estimated

$$\text{Let } z = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \text{ Where } s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

Then  $z$  has  $\chi^2(n)$  distribution, such that

$$P \left\{ X_{n,i-\alpha/2}^2 \leq \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \leq X_{n,i-\alpha/2}^2 \right\} = 1-\alpha$$

Or 
$$P \left\{ \frac{(n-1)s^2}{X_{n,i-\alpha/2}^2} \leq \sigma^2 \leq \frac{(n-1)s^2}{X_{n,i-\alpha/2}^2} \right\} = 1-\alpha$$

Therefore, a  $(i-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval of  $\sigma^2$  is

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

(5) Let  $x$  have an exponential distribution with parameter  $\lambda$  which is to be estimated

$$\text{Let } z = 2\lambda n\bar{x}$$

Then  $Z$  has  $\chi^2(2n)$  distribution, so that for a specified  $\alpha$

$$P \left\{ X_{2n,1-\alpha/2}^2 \leq 2\lambda n\bar{x} \leq X_{2n,1-\alpha/2}^2 \right\} = 1-\alpha$$

Or 
$$P \left\{ \frac{X_{2n,1-\alpha/2}^2}{2n\bar{x}} \leq \lambda \leq \frac{X_{2n,\alpha/2}^2}{2n\bar{x}} \right\}$$

Therefore, a  $(i-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval of  $\lambda$  is

$$\left\{ \frac{X_{2n,1-\alpha/2}^2}{2n\bar{x}}, \frac{X_{2n,\alpha/2}^2}{2n\bar{x}} \right\}$$

(6) Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$  and  $Y \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$  where  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$  (unknown). We want a confidence for  $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$

$$\text{Let } z = \frac{(\bar{x} - \bar{y}) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}$$

Where  $\bar{x}, \bar{y}, s$  are usually defined  $(s^2 = \frac{(n_1-1)s_1^2 + (n_2-1)s_2^2}{n_1+n_2-2})$

Then  $Z$  has  $t(n_1 + n_2 - 2)$  distribution, such that

$$P \left\{ t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2} \leq \frac{(\bar{x} - \bar{y}) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}} \leq t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2} \right\} = 1-\alpha$$

Or 
$$P \left\{ (\bar{x} - \bar{y}) - t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2} s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}} \leq (\mu_1 - \mu_2) \leq (\bar{x} - \bar{y}) + t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2} s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}} \right\} = 1-\alpha$$

So that a confidence interval for  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  is

$$\left\{ (\bar{x} - \bar{y}) - t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2} s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}, (\bar{x} - \bar{y}) + t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2} s \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}} \right\}$$

With confidence coefficient  $1-\alpha$

(7) Let  $X \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$  and  $Y \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$  where  $\mu_1, \mu_2$  are unknown and it is requested to obtain a confidence interval of  $\frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2}$

Let  $Z = \frac{S_1^2/\sigma_1^2}{S_2^2/\sigma_2^2} (S_1^2 > S_2^2)$

So that  $Z$  has  $F$  distribution on  $(n_1 - 1, n_2 - 1)$  d, f



Then

$$P \left\{ F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2} \leq \frac{S_1^2/\sigma_1^2}{S_2^2/\sigma_2^2} \leq F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2} \right\} = i-\alpha$$

Or

$$P \left\{ \frac{S_1^2/S_2^2}{F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2}} \leq \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} \leq \frac{S_1^2/S_2^2}{F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2}} \right\} = i-\alpha$$

Or

$$P \left\{ \frac{S_1^2/S_2^2}{F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2}} \leq \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} \leq \frac{S_1^2/S_2^2}{F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2}} \right\} = i-\alpha$$

So that

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2}} \frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2}, F_{n_1-i, n_2-i, i-\alpha/2} \frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2} \right\}$$

Is a confidence interval of  $\frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2}$  with confidence coefficient  $i-\alpha$

(8) Simultaneous confidence region for  $(\mu, \sigma)$  for a normal distribution.

Let  $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ ,  $\mu, \sigma$  with unknown

One may choose a confidence region for  $(\mu, \sigma)$  using the two relations

$$P \left\{ \bar{x} - t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{x} + t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} = i-\alpha$$

Diagrammatically shown as the shaded region below

Where  $t_a = \bar{x} - t_{n-i, \alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$  etc

$$x_a = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{x_{n-1, \alpha/2}^2}$$

But it is difficult to find the probability of the sample to fall in the shaded region (confidence region)

Alternatively, using the independence of  $\bar{x}$  and  $s^2$  we choose the confidence region by the help of relation

$$P \left\{ -N_{\alpha_1/2} \leq \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq N_{\alpha_1/2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha_1$$

A, d

$$P \left\{ x_{n-i, \alpha/2}^2 \leq \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \leq x_{n-i, \alpha/2}^2 \right\} = 1 - \alpha_2$$

Since  $\bar{x}, s^2$  are independent

$$P \left\{ N_{\alpha_1/2} \leq \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq N_{\alpha_1/2}, x_{n-i, \alpha/2}^2 \leq \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \leq x_{n-i, \alpha/2}^2 \right\} = (1 - \alpha_1), (1 - \alpha_2)$$

Choosing  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$  such that  $(1 - \alpha_1), (1 - \alpha_2) = i - \alpha$  we can

Obtain the boundaries of the confidence region without difficulty this is shown by the shaded region below

Where

$$q = N_{\alpha_1/2}$$

$$q_1 = x_{n-i, \alpha/2}^2$$

### Approximate confidence intervals (for large samples)

Let  $x$  be Bernoulli  $r, v$  with

$P(X = 1) = P, P(x = 0) = 1 - p$  we want to find confidence interval for P.

For large sample size ,n, we have

$$\frac{p - \hat{p}}{\sqrt{P(i - P)/n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

Or

$$\frac{p - \hat{p}}{\sqrt{P(i - P)/n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

Where  $\hat{p}$  is the sample proportion

Then , approximately ,

$$P \left\{ -N_{\alpha/2} \leq \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})/n}} \leq N_{\alpha/2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Or

$$P \left\{ \hat{p} - N_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}} \leq p \leq \hat{p} + N_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

So that

$$\left\{ \hat{p} - N_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}}, \hat{p} + N_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}} \right\}$$

Is a  $(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for P

(II) For two sample we can similarly find a confidence interval for  $P_1, P_2$  as follows:

$$P \left\{ N_{\alpha/2} \leq \frac{(p_1, p_2) - (P_1, P_2)}{\sqrt{[p(I - p)] \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}} \leq N_{\alpha/2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Where

$$\hat{p} = \frac{n_1 p_1 + n_2 p_2}{n_1 + n_2}$$

So that  $\left\{ (p_1, p_2) - N_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{[p(I - p)] \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}, (p_1, p_2) - N_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{[p(I - p)] \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)} \right\}$

Is a  $(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $p_1 - p_2$

(iii) Let x be  $a, r, v$  having mean  $\mu$ , variance  $\sigma^2$  and we want a confidence interval for  $\sigma$

For that approximately .

$$P \left\{ -N_{\alpha/2} \leq \frac{s - \sigma}{s/\sqrt{2n}} \leq N_{\alpha/2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Or

$$P \left\{ s - N_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \sigma \leq s + N_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Then

$$P \left\{ s - N_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, s + N_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$

Is a  $(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence for  $\sigma$

(iv) For two sample we can similarly find a confidence interval for  $\sigma_1 - \sigma_2$  as follows:

$$P \left\{ -N_{\alpha/2} \leq \frac{(s_1 - s_2) - (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)}{s \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n_1} + \frac{1}{2n_2}}} \leq N_{\alpha/2} \right\} = 1 - \alpha$$

Where  $s^2 = \frac{n_1 s_1^2 + n_2 s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2}$

So that

$$\left\{ (s_1 - s_2) - N_{\alpha/2} s \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n_1} + \frac{1}{2n_2}}, (s_1 - s_2) + N_{\alpha/2} s \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n_1} + \frac{1}{2n_2}} \right\}$$

Is a  $(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)$

(v) Let  $(x, y)$  have a bivariate normal distribution with coefficient  $P$  and we want to find a confidence region for  $P$ .

By using Fisher's  $Z$  transformation

$$\xi = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{1+p}{1-p}$$

and

$$z = \frac{1}{2} \log_e \frac{1+r}{1-r}$$

whose  $r$  is the correlation coefficient in a sample of size  $n$

Then

$$\frac{z-3}{1\sqrt{n-3}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

So that

$$P \left\{ -N_{\alpha/2} \leq \sqrt{n-3}(z-3) \leq N_{\alpha/2} \right\} = 1-\alpha$$

Or

$$P \left\{ z - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-3}} N_{\alpha/2} < 3 \leq z + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-3}} N_{\alpha/2} \right\} = 1-\alpha$$

So that

$$\left\{ z - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-3}} N_{\alpha/2}, z + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-3}} N_{\alpha/2} \right\}$$

Gives a  $(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\xi$ . From this we can easily obtain the corresponding confidence interval for  $P$ .

### NON-PARAMETRIC INFERENCE

In all problems of statistics inference considered so far we assumed that the distribution of the random variable being sampled is known except for some parameters. In practice however the functional form in the distribution is seldom if ever, known if it is therefore desirable to devise some procedures that are free from this assumption concerning distribution such procedures are commonly referred to as distribution free or non-parametric methods. The term distribution free refers to the fact that no assumptions are made about the underlying distribution except that the distribution function being sampled is absolutely continuous or purely discrete. The term non-parametric refers to the factors that there are no parameters involved in the traditional sense of the parameter used so far.

We will consider only the inferential problem of testing of hypothesis and describe a few non-parametric tests

**Single- sample problems : (a) The problem of fit** : the problem of fit is to test the hypothesis that a sample of observations  $(x_1, x_n)$  is from some specified distribution against the alternative that it is from some other distribution. Thus we have to test

$$H_0: x \sim F_0(x) = F_0(x)$$

Against

$$H_1: x \sim F(X) \neq F_0(x) \text{ for some } x$$

**(i) Chi-square test:** Let there be  $k$  categories and let  $p_i$  be the probability of a random observation from  $F_0(x)$  to fall in the  $i$ th category ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ). For a sample of size  $n$ , let  $o_i$  be the observed frequency in the  $i$ th category and let  $e_i = np_i$  be the expected frequency in the  $i$ th category under  $H_0$ .

To test  $H_0$  we use the chi-square statistics

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(o_i - e_i)^2}{e_i}$$

The larger the value of  $\chi^2$  the more likely it is that the  $o_{i,s}$  did not come from  $F_0(x)$ . The  $\chi^2$  -statistic for large samples has a  $\chi^2$  distribution on  $(k - 1)$  d.f. Thus an approximate level  $\alpha$  test is provided by rejecting  $H_0$  if

$$\chi^2 > \chi_{k-1, \alpha}^2$$

**(ii) Kolmogoror – Smirnov one sample test** : For the sample  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  let the empirical distribution function  $F_n(x)$  be given by

$$F_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < x_{(1)} \\ k/n & \text{if } x_{(k)} \leq x < x_{(k+1)} \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq x_{(n)} \end{cases}$$

( $k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ ) where  $x_{(1)}, x_{(2)}, \dots, x_{(n)}$  are the order statistics. Evidently,

$$F_n^Y(x) = \frac{\text{number of } x_{(k)}, s (1 \leq k \leq n) \leq x}{n}$$

For testing  $H_0: F(x) = F_0(x)$  against the two-sided alternative  $H_1: F(x) \neq F_0(x)$  we use the Kolmogoror – Smirnov statistic

$$D_n = \sup_x [F_n^Y(x) - F_0(x)]$$

It can be shown that the K-S statistic  $D_n$  is completely distribution free for any continuous distribution  $F_0(x)$

At level  $\alpha$ , Kolmogoror – Smirnov test rejects  $H_0$  if

$$D_n > D_{n, \alpha}$$

Where

$$P(D_n > D_{n, \alpha}) \leq \alpha$$

Tables of  $D_{n, \alpha}$  for given  $\alpha$  and  $n$  are available

**Remark 1:** For testing  $H_0: F(x) = F_0(x)$  against one-sided alternatives  $H_1: F(x) > F_0(x)$  or  $H_2: F(x) < F_0(x)$  based on one-sided K.S statistics  $D_n^+$  and  $D_n^-$  are also available

**Remark 2:** For small sample  $\chi^2$  -test is not available but K.S test can be applied. For discrete distribution K.S test is not available but  $\chi^2$  -test can be applied. K.S test is more powerful than  $\chi^2$  -test.

(B) **The problem of Location:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random sample from a distribution  $F(x)$  with unknown median  $\xi$ , where  $F(x)$  is assumed to be continuous in the neighbourhood of  $\xi$ . By definition of median  $(P(x \geq \xi) = \frac{1}{2})$ . We would like to test the hypothesis

(x) If  $n > 25$ , normal approximation may be used

We take 
$$\frac{R - n/2}{\sqrt{n/4}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

$H_0: \xi = \xi_0$  against one-sided or two-sided alternatives

**Sign Test:** We form the  $n$  differences  $(x_i - \xi_0)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and find out the number,  $R$ , of positive differences (differences having positive signs)  $i, e$  when  $(x_i - \xi_0) > 0$ .

If  $H_0$  is true,  $P(X_i - \xi_0 \geq 0) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and  $R$  has a Binomial distribution with parameter  $\frac{1}{2}$ . We may use an exact test of  $H_0$  based on the Binomial Distribution. In the case of one-sided alternative

$$H_1: \xi > \xi_0$$

The sample will have an excess of positive signs and in the case of

$$H_1: \xi < \xi_0$$

The sample will have a small number of positive signs

The sign test based on  $R$ , for testing  $H_0$  can be summarised as follows :

The critical values  $R_{1-\alpha}, R_{2\alpha}, R_{\alpha/2}, R_{\alpha/2}$  are calculated from tables of Binomial distribution

**Paired-sample sign test:** Here we assume that we have a random sample of  $n$  pairs  $(x_n, y_n)$  giving the differences

$$D_i = x_i - y_i, i = 1, \dots, n$$

It is assumed that the distribution of  $D = X - Y$  is absolutely continuous with median  $\xi$

We have, now a single sample  $D_1, \dots, D_n$  and we can test  $H_0: \xi = \xi_0$  which can be taken to be obey the sign test described above.

**Remark** the above two sign tests are, respectively analogous to single sample  $t$ -test and paired  $t$ -test for testing location of a normal distribution,

**Two sample problems :** let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $(y_1, \dots, y_n)$  be independent random samples from two absolutely continuous distributions  $F_x(x)$  and  $F_y(y)$ , respectively

Suppose we want to test

$$H_0: F_x(x) = F_y(y) \text{ for all } x$$

Against

$$H_1: F_x(x) \neq F_y(y) \text{ for some } x$$

**Run test (Wald-Wolfowitz):** we arrange the  $m$   $x$ 's and  $n$   $y$ 's in increasing order of size  $XYXYXYXYXY$  and count the numbers of runs. If  $H_0$  is true the  $(m+n)$  values will be well mixed up and we expect that  $R$ , the total number of runs, will be relatively large. But  $R$  will be small if the samples come from different populations, i.e.  $H_0$  is false in the extreme case, if all the values of  $y$  are greater than all the values of  $x$ , or vice-versa, there will be only two runs

The run test of  $H_0$  against  $H_1$  at level  $\alpha$  is to reject  $H_0$  if

$$R \leq R_\alpha$$

Where  $R_\alpha$  is the largest interteger such that

$$P(R \leq R_\alpha / H_0) \leq \alpha$$

It can be show that distribution of R, under  $H_0$  is given by

$$P(R = 2 \alpha / H_0) = 2 \binom{m-i}{\alpha-i} \binom{n-i}{\alpha-i} / \binom{m+n}{m}$$

And 
$$P(R = 2 \alpha + i / H_0) = \binom{m-i}{\alpha} \binom{n-i}{\alpha-i} + \binom{m-i}{\alpha-i} \binom{n-i}{\alpha}$$

Tables of critical values of R based on above have been given by swed and Eisenhant

For large m,n(both greater then 10), Ris asymptohcally Normally distributed with

$$E(R) = \frac{2mn}{m+n} + 1$$

And 
$$V(R) = \frac{2mn(2mn-m-n)}{(m+n)^2(m+n-i)}$$

**Median it test:** We arrange the x's and y's in asscending order of size and find the median M of the contied sample let

$$V = \text{number of } x' \text{ swhich are } \leq \text{median } M$$

If V is large it is reasomable to conclude that the actual median of x is smaller than the median of Y i, e  $H_0: F_x(x) = F_Y(x)$  is respected

Hown of  $H_1: F_x(x) > F_Y(x)$  –

On the other hand , if V is too small it is reamable to condude that the actual median of X is greater than the median of y i. e  $H_0: F_x(x) = F_Y(x)$  is respected in fovoues of  $H_1: F_x(x) < F_Y(x)$

For the two sided alternative , we use the two sided test .

The median test can be summarised as follows:

It can be shown that the distribution of V, under  $H_0$  is given by

$$P(V = u / H_0) = \frac{\binom{m}{u} \binom{n}{p-u}}{\binom{m+n}{p}}, u = 0, 1 \dots \dots, n$$

Where  $m + n = 2p$ , p positive integer

And

$$P(V = u / H_0) = \frac{\binom{m}{u} \binom{n}{p-u}}{\binom{m+n}{p}}, u, 1 \dots \dots \min(m, p)$$

Where  $m + n = 2p + 1$ , p is a positive integer

**Wilcoxon- Mann –Whitney U test:** This is the most widely used two- sample non-parametric test and is a useful alternative to the t-test assumotons.

The test is like the run test based on the pattern of  $m, x's$  and  $n, y's$  arranged in ascending order of size . The Main- Whitney U statistic is defined as the number of times as X preades a Y In the combined sample of size  $m + n$ . We define

$$z_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & x_i < y_j \quad (i = 1, \dots \dots m) \\ 0, & x_i > y_j \quad (j = 1 \dots \dots n) \end{cases}$$

And write

$$U = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n z_{ij}$$

Note that  $\sum_{i=1}^m z_{ij}$  is the number of  $y_{jts}$  that are larger than  $x_i$  and hence U is the number of values of  $x_i, \dots, x_n$  that are smaller than each of  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ . For example, suppose the continued sample when ordered is as follows :

$$X_2 < X_1 < Y_3 < Y_2 < X_4 < Y_1 < X_3$$

Then  $U=7$ , because there are three values of  $X < Y_1$ , two values of  $X < Y_2$  and two values of  $X < Y_3$

It is observed that  $U=0$  if all the  $x_i$ 's are larger than all  $y_i$ 's and  $U=mn$  if all the  $x_i$ 's are smaller than all the  $y_i$ 's. Thus  $0 \leq U \leq mn$ . If U is large the values of y tend to be larger than X (Y is stochastically larger than X) and this supports the alternative  $F_x(x) > F_y(x)$ . Similarly, if U is small, the values of Y tend to be smaller than X and this supports the alternative  $F_x(x) > F_y(x)$ .

Therefore, U-test can be summarised as follows:

$H_0$	$H_1$	Reject $H_0$ if
$F_x(x) = F_y(x)$	$F_x(x) > F_y(x)$ .	$U \geq C_1$
$F_x(x) = F_y(x)$	$F_x(x) < F_y(x)$	$U \leq C_2$
$F_x(x) = F_y(x)$	$F_x(x) \neq F_y(x)$	$U \geq C_3 \text{ or } U \leq C_4$

It can be shown that Under  $H_0$

$$E(U) = \frac{mn}{2}$$

And

$$V(U) = \frac{mn(m+n+1)}{12}$$

The tables of distribution of U for small samples are given by table and Mann-Whitney. For large samples U has asymptotic normal distribution, i.e.

$$\frac{U - \frac{mn}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{mn(m+n+1)}{12}}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

## APPENDIX

### Distribution of function of random variables (transformations method)

**Therom:** suppose X is a continuous r, u with p, d, f  $f_x(x)$ . Set  $x = \{x, f_x(x) > 0\}$ . Let

(i)  $y = g(x)$  define a d.f transformation of x into y

(ii) the derivative of  $x = g^{-1}(y)$  w.r.t y is continuous and non-zero for  $y \in x$ , where  $g^{-1}(y)$  is the inverse for of  $y(x)$  i.e.  $g^{-1}(y)$  is that x for which  $g(x) = y$

Then  $y = g(x)$  is a cont. r, u with p, d, f.

$$f_y(y) = f_x(g^{-1}(y)) \left[ \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right]$$

**Theorem**: let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be jointly continuous r. u. s with  $p, d, f$   $f_{x_1, x_2}(x_1, x_2)$ . Set  $x = \{(x_1, x_2): f((x_1, x_2)) > 0\}$  Assume that

(i)  $y_1 = g_1(x_1, x_2)$  and  $y_2 = g_2(x_1, x_2)$  defines a transformation of  $x$  onto  $y$ .

(ii) The first partial derivatives of  $x_1 = g_1^{-1}(y_1, y_2)$  and  $x_2 = g_2^{-1}(y_1, y_2)$  are continuous over  $y$ .

(iii) The jacobian of transformation is non-zero for  $(y_1, y_2) \in y$ . Then the joint  $p, d, f$  of  $y_1 = g_1(x_1, x_2)$  and  $y_2 = g_2(x_1, x_2)$  is given by

$$f_{y_1, y_2}(y_1, y_2) = f_{x_1, x_2} \{g_1^{-1}(y_1, y_2), g_2^{-1}(y_1, y_2)\} |J|$$

Where

$$|J| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_2} \\ \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_2} \end{vmatrix}$$

### $\chi^2$ - distribution

**Definition**: A continuous r. u. s is said to have the  $\chi^2$ - distribution on  $n$  degrees of freedom if its  $p, d, f$  is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{n/2} \Gamma(n/2)} x^{n/2 - 1} e^{-x/2}, \quad x \geq 0$$

$$= 0 \quad x < 0$$

The  $m, g, f$  of  $x$  is given by

$$M_x(t) = E e^{tx}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^{n/2} \Gamma(n/2)} \int_0^{\infty} x^{n/2 - 1} e^{x(1-2t)/2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^{n/2} \Gamma(n/2)} \frac{\Gamma(n/2)}{(1-2t)^{n/2}}$$

$$= (1-2t)^{-n/2}$$

From this we can easily show that

$$E(X) = n \text{ and } v(x) = 2n$$

For  $n \leq 2$  the  $p, d, f$  of  $\chi^2(n)$  steadily decrease as  $x$  increases while for  $n > 2$  there is a unique maximum at  $x = n - 2$

**Theorem**: Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be  $n$  independent standard normal r.v.s i.e.  $x_i \sim N(0, 1), i = 1, \dots, n$  Then  $y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$  has a  $\chi^2$ - distribution on  $n, d, f$ .

**Proof**: Let  $X$  be  $N(0, 1)$  the  $m, g, f$  of  $x^2$  is given by

$$M_{x^2} = E(e^{tx^2})$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx^2} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{x^2(t-1/2)} dx$$



$$= \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\sqrt{1-2t}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$= (1-2t)^{-1/2}$$

Which show that  $x^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$  Then, the  $m, g, f$  of  $\gamma = \sum_i^n x_i^2$  is given by

$$M_{X^2}(t) = [M_{X^2}(t)]^n = (1-2t)^{-n/2}$$

Which shows that  $\gamma \sim \chi^2(n)$

**Therom :** Let  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n$  be indepent  $r, u, s$  with  $X^2$ - distribution on  $n_1, \dots, n_k$  degrees of freedom resp .

Then  $z = \sum_i^k \gamma_i \sim \chi^2(n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k)$

**Proof :** the  $m, g, f$  **Z**

$$M_Z(1) = E e^{tz}$$

$$= E e^{t \sum_i^k Y_i}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^k E(e^{t Y_i})$$

$$= (1-2t)^{-(n_1 + \dots + n_k)/2}$$

Which about that  $y \sim \chi^2(n_1 + \dots + n_k)$

**Crollanj :** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random simple from a Normal distribuion  $N(\mu, \sigma)$ . Then  $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}$  has  $\chi^2$  distribution on  $n, d, f$ .

**Therom:** Let  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a random simple from a Normal distribuion  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  Let  $\bar{x} = \sum_i^n x_i/n$

And  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-i} \sum_i^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$  be the sample mean and sample variance. Then  $\frac{(n-i)s^2}{\sigma^2}$  has  $\chi^2$  distribution on  $(n-i), d, f$ .

**Therom:** For large  $n$ ,  $\sqrt{2\chi^2}$  can be shown to be approximately normally distributed with mean  $\sqrt{2n-1}$  and st-dearation unity.

**Therom:** Assume that  $y$  has distribution function  $F_Y$  which satisfies some regularity conditions ad which has  $r$ -unknown parameters  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_r$  and that  $(y_1, \dots, y_n)$  is a random sample of  $y$ . Let  $\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_r$  be the  $m, \ell, e$  of  $\theta$ 's . Suppose the sample is distribution in  $k$  non-overlapping intervals  $\{I_j\}$

where  $I_j = \{y: a_{j-1} < y < a_j\}, j = 1, \dots, k (a_0 = -\infty, a_k = \infty)$  and . Let  $x_1, \dots, x_k$  be the number of sample values falling in these intervals, respectively if me define

$$\hat{p}_j = P\{Y \text{ falls in } I_j\}, j = 1, \dots, k$$

Where  $\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_k$  replace  $\theta_1, \theta_k$  in  $F_Y$ , then the distribution of the statistics  $z = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{(x_j - n\hat{p}_j)^2}{n\hat{p}_j}$  Lerges is approximately distributed as  $\chi^2$  on  $k - r - i, d, f$  as  $n$  gets

### Students t-distribution

**Definintion :** A Continous  $r, u, x$  is said to have the t-distribution on  $n, d, f$  if its  $\mu, d, f$  is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\sqrt{n\pi}} \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{\frac{n+1}{2}}}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

**Remark :** For  $n = i$  the  $\mu, d, f$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi i + x^2}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

Which shows that it is a cauchy distribution We will therefore, assume that  $n > i$

**Remark:** the  $\mu, d, f$  of t-distribution is symmetric about origin. For large  $n$  the t-distribution tends to Normal distribution. For small  $n$  however t-distribution deviates considerably from the normal in fact if  $T \sim t_{(n)}$  and  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$

$$P\{|T| \geq t_0\} \geq P\{|Z| > t_0\}$$

**Moments :** Since the distribution is symmetric about origin  $\mu_{2r+1} = 0$

For  $2r < n$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{2r} &= E(X^{2r}) \\ &= \frac{2\Gamma\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\sqrt{n\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{X^{2r}}{\left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{\frac{n+1}{2}}} dx \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem :** Let  $x \sim N(0, 1)$  and  $y \sim \chi^2(n)$  and Let  $x$  and  $y$  be independent. Then  $U = \frac{x}{\sqrt{y/n}}$