Statistical Inference Lecture Five

https://people.bath.ac.uk/masss/APTS/2022-23/LectureFive.pdf

Simon Shaw

University of Bath

APTS, 13-16 December 2022

Overview of Lecture Five

- Confidence procedure: A random set $C(X) \subset \Theta$ is a level- $(1-\alpha)$ confidence procedure exactly when $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X) | \theta) \geq 1-\alpha$.
- Family of confidence procedures: occurs when $C(X; \alpha)$ is a level- (1α) confidence procedure for every $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.
- C is a nesting family if $\alpha < \alpha'$ implies that $C(x; \alpha') \subset C(x; \alpha)$.
- The general approach to construct a confidence procedure is to invert a test statistic.
- Consider the likelihood ratio test (LRT) statistic

$$\lambda(x) = \frac{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} L_X(\theta; x)}{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} L_X(\theta; x)}.$$

• Duality of acceptance regions and confidence sets.



• For loss functions of the form $L(\theta, d) = |d| + \kappa (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\theta \in d})$ we'll show there is a simple necessary condition for a rule to be a Bayes rule.

Definition (Level set)

A set $d \subset \Theta$ is a level set of the posterior distribution exactly when $d = \{\theta : \pi(\theta \mid x) \geq k\}$ for some k.

Theorem (Level set property, LSP)

If δ^* is a Bayes rule for $L(\theta, d) = |d| + \kappa(1 - \mathbb{1}_{\theta \in d})$ then it is a level set of the posterior distribution.

Proof

Note that

$$\mathbb{E}\{L(\theta, d) \mid X\} = |d| + \kappa (1 - \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{1}_{\theta \in d} \mid X))$$
$$= |d| + \kappa \mathbb{P}(\theta \notin d \mid X).$$

Proof continued

- For fixed x, we show that if d is not a level set of the posterior distribution then there is a $d' \neq d$ which has a smaller expected loss so that $\delta^*(x) \neq d$.
- Suppose that d is not a level set of $\pi(\theta \mid x)$. Then there is a $\theta \in d$ and $\theta' \notin d$ for which $\pi(\theta' \mid x) > \pi(\theta \mid x)$.
- Let $d' = d \cup d\theta' \setminus d\theta$ where $d\theta$ is the tiny region of Θ around θ and $d\theta'$ is the tiny region of Θ around θ' for which $|d\theta| = |d\theta'|$.
- Then |d'| = |d| but

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \notin d' \mid X) < \mathbb{P}(\theta \notin d \mid X)$$

Thus, $\mathbb{E}\{L(\theta, d') \mid X\} < \mathbb{E}\{L(\theta, d) \mid X\}$ showing that $\delta^*(x) \neq d$.



- The Level Set Property Theorem states that δ having the level set property is necessary for δ to be a Bayes rule for loss functions of the form $L(\theta, d) = |d| + \kappa (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\theta \in d})$.
- The Complete Class Theorem states that being a Bayes rule is a necessary condition for δ to be admissible.
- Being a level set of a posterior distribution for some prior distribution $\pi(\theta)$ is a necessary condition for being admissible for loss functions of this form.
- Bayesian HPD regions satisfy the necessary condition for being a set estimator.
- Classical set estimators achieve a similar outcome if they are level sets of the likelihood function, because the posterior is proportional to the likelihood under a uniform prior distribution.¹

 $^{^{1}}$ In the case where Θ is unbounded, this prior distribution may have to be truncated to be proper.

Hypothesis tests

ullet For hypothesis tests, the decision space is a partition of Θ , denoted

$$\mathcal{H} := \{H_0, H_1, \dots, H_d\}.$$

- Each element of \mathcal{H} is termed a hypothesis.
- The loss function $L(\theta, H_i)$ represents the (negative) consequences of choosing element H_i , when the true value of the parameter is θ .
- It would be usual for the loss function to satisfy

$$\theta \in H_i \implies L(\theta, H_i) = \min_j L(\theta, H_j)$$

on the grounds that an incorrect choice of element should never incur a smaller loss than the correct choice.



• Consider the test of $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$ versus $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_1$ where $\Theta_1 = \Theta \setminus \Theta_0$. Let $\mathcal{D} = \{d_0, d_1\}$ where d_i corresponds to accepting H_i. A generic loss function is the 0-1 ('zero-one') loss function

$$L(\theta, d_i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \theta \in \Theta_i, \\ 1 & \text{if } \theta \notin \Theta_i. \end{cases}$$

• The classical risk is the probability of making a wrong decision,

$$R(\theta, \delta) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{P}(\delta(X) = d_1 \mid \theta) & \text{if } \theta \in \Theta_0, \\ \mathbb{P}(\delta(X) = d_0 \mid \theta) & \text{if } \theta \in \Theta_1, \end{cases}$$

which correspond to the familiar Type I and Type II errors.

- The Bayes rule is to choose H_0 if $\mathbb{P}_{\pi}(\theta \in \Theta_0) > \mathbb{P}_{\pi}(\theta \in \Theta_1)$ and H_1 otherwise, where $\mathbb{P}_{\pi}(\cdot)$ is the probability when $\theta \sim \pi(\theta)$.
- Hence, if $\pi(\theta) = f(\theta \mid x)$, the Bayes rule is to choose the hypothesis with the largest posterior probability.



 This approach can be naturally extended to multiple hypotheses $\mathcal{H} = \{H_0, H_1, \dots, H_d\}$ which partition Θ by taking

$$L(\theta, H_i) = 1 - \mathbb{1}_{\{\theta \in H_i\}}.$$

i.e., zero if $\theta \in H_i$, and one if it is not.

- For the posterior decision, the Bayes rule is to select the hypothesis with the largest posterior probability.
- However, this loss function is hard to defend as being realistic.
- If we choose H_i and it turns out that $\theta \notin H_i$ then the inference is wrong and the loss is the same irrespective of where θ lies.
- An alternative approach is to co-opt the theory of set estimators.
- The statistician can use her set estimator δ to make at least some distinctions between the members of \mathcal{H} :
 - ▶ Accept H_i exactly when $\delta(x) \subset H_i$,
 - ▶ Reject H_i exactly when $\delta(x) \cap H_i = \emptyset$,
 - Undecided about H_i otherwise.



Confidence procedures and confidence sets

- We consider interval estimation, or more generally set estimation.
- Under the model $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathcal{X}, \Theta, f_X(x \mid \theta)\}$, for given data X = x, we wish to construct a set $C = C(x) \subset \Theta$ and the inference is the statement that $\theta \in C$.
- If $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ then the set estimate is typically an interval.

Definition (Confidence procedure)

A random set C(X) is a level- $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence procedure exactly when

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X) | \theta) \geq 1 - \alpha$$

for all $\theta \in \Theta$. C is an exact level- $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence procedure if the probability equals $(1 - \alpha)$ for all θ .

<□▶ <圖▶ < 臺▶ < 臺▶ ● 臺 ◆ ◎ ♀

- The value $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X) | \theta)$ is termed the coverage of C at θ .
- Exact is a special case: typically $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X) | \theta)$ will depend upon θ .
- The procedure is thus conservative: for a given θ_0 the coverage may be much higher than (1α) .

Uniform example

- Let $X_1, ..., X_n$ be independent and identically distributed Unif $(0, \theta)$ random variables where $\theta > 0$. Let $Y = \max\{X_1, ..., X_n\}$.
- We consider two possible sets: (aY, bY) where $1 \le a < b$ and (Y + c, Y + d) where $0 \le c < d$.
 - **1** $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in (aY, bY) | \theta) = (\frac{1}{a})^n (\frac{1}{b})^n$. Thus, the coverage probability of the interval does not depend upon θ .
 - ② $\mathbb{P}(\theta \in (Y+c, Y+d) \mid \theta) = (1-\frac{c}{\theta})^n (1-\frac{d}{\theta})^n$. In this case, the coverage probability of the interval does depend upon θ .

• We distinguish between the confidence procedure C, which is a random interval and so a function for each possible x, and the result when C is evaluated at the observation x, which is a set in Θ .

Definition (Confidence set)

The observed C(x) is a level- $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence set exactly when the random C(X) is a level- $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence procedure.

- If $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}$ and C(x) is convex, i.e. an interval, then a confidence set (interval) is represented by a lower and upper value.
- The challenge with confidence procedures is to construct one with a specified level: to do this we start with the level and then construct a C guaranteed to have this level.

Definition (Family of confidence procedures)

- $C(X; \alpha)$ is a family of confidence procedures exactly when $C(X; \alpha)$ is a level- (1α) confidence procedure for every $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.
- C is a nesting family exactly when $\alpha < \alpha'$ implies that $C(x; \alpha') \subset C(x; \alpha)$.
- For X_1, \ldots, X_n iid Unif $(0, \theta)$, $Y = \max\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ then

$$C(Y; \alpha) = \left(\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)^{-1/n} Y, \left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)^{-1/n} Y\right)$$

is a nesting family of exact confidence procedures.

• For example, if n = 10 then

$$C(y; 0.10) = (1.0051y, 1.3493y); C(y; 0.05) = (1.0025y, 1.4461y).$$

 If we start with a family of confidence procedures for a specified model, then we can compute a confidence set for any level we choose.

Constructing confidence procedures: pivotal quantities

- In the Uniform example, the coverage of the procedure (aY, bY) does not depend upon θ because the coverage probability could be expressed in terms of $T = Y/\theta$ where the distribution of T did not depend upon θ .
- T is an example of a pivot and confidence procedures are straightforward to compute from a pivot.

Definition (Pivot)

A pivot for the model $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathcal{X}, \Theta, f_X(x \mid \theta)\}$ is a random variable $Q(X_1, \dots, X_n, \theta)$ for which the distribution of Q does not depend upon θ .

- For any set A, $\mathbb{P}(Q(X_{(1:n)}, \theta) \in A \mid \theta)$ does not depend on θ .
- Hence, $\{\theta: Q(x_{(1:n)}, \theta) \in A\}$ is an exact confidence procedure.

4□ > 4□ > 4□ > 4□ > 4□ > 4□ >

Example: location parameter

- for any pdf f(x), the family of pdfs $f(x \theta)$, indexed by θ , is a location family with standard pdf f(x). θ is a location parameter.
- If X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid from $f(x \theta)$ then the confidence set

$$C(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \{\theta: \overline{x}-a < \theta < \overline{x}+b\}$$

for constants $a, b \ge 0$ has a fixed coverage for all θ since

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X_1, ..., X_n) \mid \theta) = \mathbb{P}(\overline{X} - a < \theta < \overline{X} + b \mid \theta)$$
$$= \mathbb{P}\left(-b < \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i < a \mid \theta\right)$$

does not depend on θ as each $Z_i = X_i - \theta$ has pdf f(z) which does not depend on θ .

- For location (and scale) parameters, we can easily find pivots but this
 is more difficult in general.
- An alternate method is to exploit the property that every confidence procedure corresponds to a hypothesis test and vice versa.

Consider a hypothesis test where we have to decide either to accept that an hypothesis H_0 is true or to reject H_0 in favour of an alternative hypothesis H_1 based on a sample $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

- The set of x for which H_0 is rejected is called the rejection region.
- The complement, where H_0 is accepted, is the acceptance region.
- A hypothesis test can be constructed from any statistic T = T(X).

Definition (Likelihood Ratio Test, LRT)

The likelihood ratio test (LRT) statistic for testing $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$ versus $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_0^c$, where $\Theta_0 \cup \Theta_0^c = \Theta$, is

$$\lambda(x) = \frac{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} L_X(\theta; x)}{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} L_X(\theta; x)}.$$

A LRT at significance level α has a rejection region of the form $\{x: \lambda(x) \leq c\}$ where $0 \leq c \leq 1$ is chosen so that $\mathbb{P}(\text{Reject } H_0 \mid \theta) \leq \alpha$ for all $\theta \in \Theta_0$.

Example

- Let $X = (X_1, ..., X_n)$ and suppose that the X_i are independent and identically distributed $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$ random variables where σ^2 is known.
- Consider the likelihood ratio test for $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ versus $H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0$. Then, as the maximum likelihood estimate (mle) of θ is \overline{x} ,

$$\lambda(x) = \frac{L_X(\theta_0; x)}{L_X(\overline{x}; x)} = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left((x_i - \theta_0)^2 - (x_i - \overline{x})^2\right)\right\}$$
$$= \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} n(\overline{x} - \theta_0)^2\right\}.$$

Notice that, under H_0 , $\frac{\sqrt{n}(X-\theta_0)}{\sigma} \sim N(0,1)$ so that

$$-2\log\lambda(X) = \frac{n(\overline{X} - \theta_0)^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_1^2,$$

the chi-squared distribution with one degree of freedom.

Example continued

- The rejection region is $\{x : \lambda(x) \le c\} = \{x : -2 \log \lambda(x) \ge k\}.$
- Setting $k = \chi^2_{1,\alpha}$, where $\mathbb{P}(\chi^2_1 \ge \chi^2_{1,\alpha}) = \alpha$, gives a test at the exact significance level α .

The acceptance region of this test is $\{x: -2\log \lambda(x) < \chi^2_{1,\alpha}\}$ where

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left.\frac{n(\overline{X}-\theta_0)^2}{\sigma^2}<\chi_{1,\alpha}^2\,\right|\,\theta=\theta_0\right) = 1-\alpha.$$

This holds for all θ_0 and so, additionally rearranging,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\overline{X} - \sqrt{\chi_{1,\alpha}^2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \theta < \overline{X} + \sqrt{\chi_{1,\alpha}^2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \,\middle|\, \theta\right) = 1 - \alpha.$$

Thus, $C(X) = (\overline{X} - \sqrt{\chi_{1,\alpha}^2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \overline{X} + \sqrt{\chi_{1,\alpha}^2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$ is an exact level- $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence procedure with C(x) the corresponding confidence set.

401441411111111

- Note that we obtained the level- (1α) confidence procedure by inverting the acceptance region of the level α significance test.
- This correspondence, or duality, between acceptance regions of tests and confidence sets is a general property.

Theorem (Duality of Acceptance Regions and Confidence Sets)

- For each $\theta_0 \in \Theta$, let $A(\theta_0)$ be the acceptance region of a test of $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ at significance level α . For each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, define $C(x) = \{\theta_0: x \in A(\theta_0)\}$. Then C(X) is a level- (1α) confidence procedure.
- ② Let C(X) be a level- $(1-\alpha)$ confidence procedure and, for any $\theta_0 \in \Theta$, define $A(\theta_0) = \{x : \theta_0 \in C(x)\}$. Then $A(\theta_0)$ is the acceptance region of a test of $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$ at significance level α .

Proof

1 As we have a level α test for each $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ then $\mathbb{P}(X \in A(\theta_0) | \theta = \theta_0) \ge 1 - \alpha$. Since θ_0 is arbitrary we may write θ instead of θ_0 and so, for all $\theta \in \Theta$,

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \in C(X) | \theta) = \mathbb{P}(X \in A(\theta) | \theta) \ge 1 - \alpha.$$

Hence, C(X) is a level- $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence procedure.

② For a test of $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$, the probability of a Type I error (rejecting H_0 when it is true) is

$$\mathbb{P}(X \notin A(\theta_0) | \theta = \theta_0) = \mathbb{P}(\theta_0 \notin C(X) | \theta = \theta_0) \leq \alpha$$

since C(X) is a level- $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence procedure. Hence, we have a test at significance level α .

《□》《圖》《意》《意》 [注]

A possibly easier way to understand the relationship between significance tests and confidence sets is by defining the set $\{(x,\theta):(x,\theta)\in\tilde{C}\}$ in the space $\mathcal{X} \times \Theta$ where $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}$ is also a set in $\mathcal{X} \times \Theta$.

- For fixed x, define the confidence set as $C(x) = \{\theta : (x, \theta) \in \tilde{C}\}.$
- For fixed θ , define the acceptance region as $A(\theta) = \{x : (x, \theta) \in \tilde{C}\}.$

Example revisited

Letting $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, with $z_{\alpha/2}^2 = \chi_{1,\alpha}^2$, define the set

$$\{(x,\theta)\,:\, (x,\theta)\in \tilde{C}\} \ = \ \left\{(x,\theta)\,:\, -z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}<\overline{x}-\theta< z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n}\right\}.$$

The confidence set is then

$$C(x) = \left\{ \frac{\theta}{n} : \overline{x} - z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} < \frac{\theta}{n} < \overline{x} + z_{\alpha/2}\sigma/\sqrt{n} \right\}$$

and acceptance region

$$A(\theta) = \left\{ \mathbf{x} : \theta - z_{\alpha/2} \sigma / \sqrt{n} < \overline{\mathbf{x}} < \theta + z_{\alpha/2} \sigma / \sqrt{n} \right\}.$$

Good choices of confidence procedures

- In the previous chapter, we showed that, under the generic loss $L(\theta, d) = |d| + \kappa (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\theta \in d})$, a necessary condition for admissibility was that d was a level set of the posterior distribution.
- We now proceed by consider confidence procedures that satisfy a level set property for the likelihood $L_X(\theta; x) = f_X(x \mid \theta)$.

Definition (Level set property, LSP)

A confidence procedure C has the level set property exactly when

$$C(x) = \{\theta : f_X(x \mid \theta) > g(x)\}\$$

for some $g: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$.

We now show that we can construct a family of confidence procedures with the LSP. The result has pedagogic value, because it can be used to generate an uncountable number of families of confidence procedures, each with the level set property.

21 / 31

Theorem

Let h be any probability density function for X. Then

$$C_h(x; \alpha) := \{ \theta \in \Theta : f_X(x \mid \theta) > \alpha h(x) \}$$

is a family of confidence procedures, with the LSP.

Proof

First notice that if we let $\mathcal{X}(\theta) := \{x \in \mathcal{X} : f_X(x \mid \theta) > 0\}$ then

$$\mathbb{E}(h(X)/f_X(X|\theta)|\theta) = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}(\theta)} \frac{h(x)}{f_X(x|\theta)} f_X(x|\theta) dx$$
$$= \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}(\theta)} h(x) \leq 1$$

because h is a probability density function.

Proof continued

Now,

$$\mathbb{P}(f_{X}(X \mid \theta)/h(X) \leq u \mid \theta) = \mathbb{P}(h(X)/f_{X}(X \mid \theta) \geq 1/u \mid \theta) \qquad (1)$$

$$\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(h(X)/f_{X}(X \mid \theta) \mid \theta)}{1/u} \qquad (2)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{1/u} = u$$

where (2) follows from (1) by Markov's inequality.^a

^aIf X is a nonnegative random variable and a>0 then $\mathbb{P}(X\geq a)\leq \mathbb{E}(X)/a$.

- If we let $g(x; \theta) = f_X(x | \theta) / h(x)$, which may be infinite, then $\mathbb{P}(g(X; \theta) \le u | \theta) \le u$.
- We will see later that this implies that $g(x; \theta)$ is super-uniform.

- Among the interesting choices for h, one possibility is $h(x) = f_X(x | \theta_0)$, for some $\theta_0 \in \Theta$.
- As $f_X(x \mid \theta_0) > \alpha f_X(x \mid \theta_0)$ we can construct a level- (1α) confidence procedure whose confidence sets will always contain θ_0 .
- This suggests an issue with confidence procedures: two statisticians may come to two different conclusions about $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ depending on the intervals they construct.
- This illustrates why it is important to be able to account for the choices you make as a statistician.
- The theorem utilises Markov's Inequality which is a very slack result. It is likely that the coverage of the corresponding family of confidence procedures will be much larger than (1α) .
- A more desirable strategy would be to use an exact family of confidence procedures which satisfy the LSP, if one existed.

The linear model

- We'll briefly discuss the linear model and construct an exact family of confidence procedures which satisfy the LSP.
- Let $Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ be an *n*-vector of observables with $Y = X\theta + \epsilon$.
 - \triangleright X is an $(n \times p)$ matrix² of regressors,
 - \bullet is a p-vector of regression coefficients,
 - ightharpoonup is an *n*-vector of residuals.
- Assume that $\epsilon \sim N_n(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$, the *n*-dimensional multivariate normal distribution, where σ^2 is known and I_n is the $(n \times n)$ identity matrix.
- From properties of the multivariate normal distribution, it follows that $Y \sim N_n(X\theta, \sigma^2 I_n)$.

 $^{^2}$ We typically use X to denote a generic random variable and so it is not ideal to use it here for a specified matrix but this is the standard notation for linear models.

Now,

$$L_Y(\theta; y) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y - X\theta)^T(y - X\theta)\right\}.$$

Let
$$\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(y) = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$
 then

$$(y - X\theta)^{\mathsf{T}} (y - X\theta) = (y - X\hat{\theta} + X\hat{\theta} - X\theta)^{\mathsf{T}} (y - X\hat{\theta} + X\hat{\theta} - X\theta)$$

$$= (y - X\hat{\theta})^{\mathsf{T}} (y - X\hat{\theta}) + (X\hat{\theta} - X\theta)^{\mathsf{T}} (X\hat{\theta} - X\theta)$$

$$= (y - X\hat{\theta})^{\mathsf{T}} (y - X\hat{\theta}) + (\hat{\theta} - \theta)^{\mathsf{T}} X^{\mathsf{T}} X (\hat{\theta} - \theta).$$

Thus, $(y - X\theta)^T (y - X\theta)$ is minimised when $\theta = \hat{\theta}$ and so, $\hat{\theta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$ is the mle of θ . The likelihood ratio is

$$\lambda(y) = \frac{L_Y(\theta; y)}{L_Y(\hat{\theta}; y)}$$

$$= \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left[(y - X\theta)^T (y - X\theta) - (y - X\hat{\theta})^T (y - X\hat{\theta}) \right] \right\}$$

$$= \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\hat{\theta} - \theta)^T X^T X (\hat{\theta} - \theta) \right\}$$

- Thus, $-2 \log \lambda(y) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\hat{\theta} \theta)^T X^T X (\hat{\theta} \theta)$.
- As $\hat{\theta}(Y) = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$ then, as $Y \sim N_n(X\theta, \sigma^2 I_n)$,

$$\hat{\theta}(Y) \sim N_{p} \left(\theta, \sigma^{2} \left(X^{T} X\right)^{-1}\right)$$

• Consequently, $-2 \log \lambda(Y) \sim \chi_p^2$.

Hence, with $\mathbb{P}(\chi_p^2 \geq \chi_{p,\alpha}^2) = \alpha$,

$$C(y;\alpha) = \left\{ \theta \in \mathbb{R}^p : -2\log\lambda(y) = -2\log\frac{f_Y(y\,|\,\theta,\sigma^2)}{f_Y(y\,|\,\hat{\theta},\sigma^2)} < \chi_{p,\alpha}^2 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \theta \in \mathbb{R}^p : f_Y(y\,|\,\theta,\sigma^2) > \exp\left(-\frac{\chi_{p,\alpha}^2}{2}\right) f_Y(y\,|\,\hat{\theta},\sigma^2) \right\}$$

is a family of exact confidence procedures for θ which has the LSP.



Wilks confidence procedures

- This outcome, where we can find a family of exact confidence procedures with the LSP, is more-or-less unique to the regression parameters of the linear model.
- It is however found, approximately, in the large n behaviour of a much wider class of models.

Wilks' Theorem

Let $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ where each X_i is independent and identically distributed, $X_i \sim f(x_i \mid \theta)$, where f is a regular model and the parameter space Θ is an open convex subset of \mathbb{R}^p (and invariant to n). The distribution of the statistic $-2\log\lambda(X)$ converges to a chi-squared distribution with p degrees of freedom as $n \to \infty$.

• A working guideline to regular model is that f must be smooth and differentiable in θ ; in particular, the support must not depend on θ .

- The result dates back to Wilks (1938) and, as such, the resultant confidence procedures are often termed Wilks confidence procedures.
- Thus, if the conditions of Wilks' Theorem are met.

$$C(x; \alpha) = \left\{ \theta \in \mathbb{R}^p : f_X(x \mid \theta) > \exp\left(-\frac{\chi_{p,\alpha}^2}{2}\right) f_X(x \mid \hat{\theta}) \right\}$$

is a family of approximately exact confidence procedures which satisfy the LSP.

- For a given model, the pertinent question is whether or not the approximation is a good one.
- We are thus interested in the level error, the difference between the nominal level, typically $(1-\alpha)$ everywhere, and the actual level, the actual minimum coverage everywhere,

level error = nominal level - actual level.

 Methods, such as bootstrap calibration, described in DiCiccio and Efron (1996), exist which attempt to correct for the level error.

Significance procedures and duality

- A hypothesis test of $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$ versus $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_0^c$, where $\Theta_0 \cup \Theta_0^c = \Theta$, at significance level of 5% (or any other specified value) returns one bit of information, either we accept H_0 or reject H_0 .
- We do not know whether the decision was borderline or nearly conclusive; i.e. whether, for rejection, H_0 and C(x; 0.05) were close, or well-separated.
- Of more interest is to consider the smallest value of α for which $C(x; \alpha)$ does not intersect H_0 . This value is termed the *p*-value.

Definition (p-value)

A *p*-value p(X) is a statistic satisfying $p(x) \in [0,1]$ for every $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Small values of p(x) support the hypothesis that H_1 is true. A *p*-value is valid if, for every $\theta \in \Theta_0$ and every $\alpha \in [0,1]$,

$$\mathbb{P}(p(X) \leq \alpha \mid \theta) \leq \alpha.$$

- If p(X) is a valid p-value then a significance test that rejects H_0 if and only if $p(X) \le \alpha$ is a test with significance level α .
- In this part we introduce the idea of significance procedure at level α , deriving a duality between it and a level 1α confidence procedure.
- Let X and Y be two scalar random variables. Then X stochastically dominates Y exactly when $\mathbb{P}(X \leq v) \leq \mathbb{P}(Y \leq v)$ for all $v \in \mathbb{R}$.
- If $U \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$ then $\mathbb{P}(U \leq u) = u$ for $u \in [0,1]$. With this in mind, we make the following definition.

Definition (Super-uniform)

The random variable X is super-uniform exactly when it stochastically dominates a standard uniform random variable. That is

$$\mathbb{P}(X \leq u) \leq u$$

for all $u \in [0, 1]$.

• Thus, for $\theta \in \Theta_0$, the *p*-value p(X) is super-uniform.