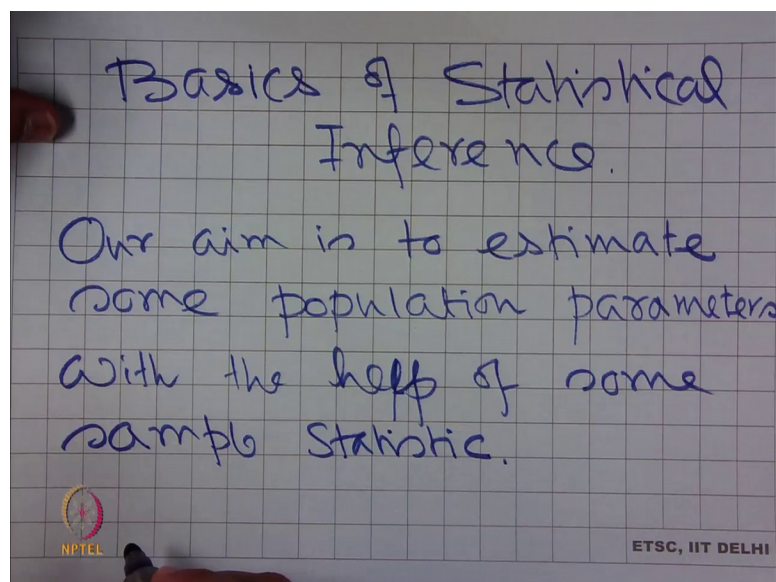


Statistical Inference
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Lecture – 07
Statistical Inference

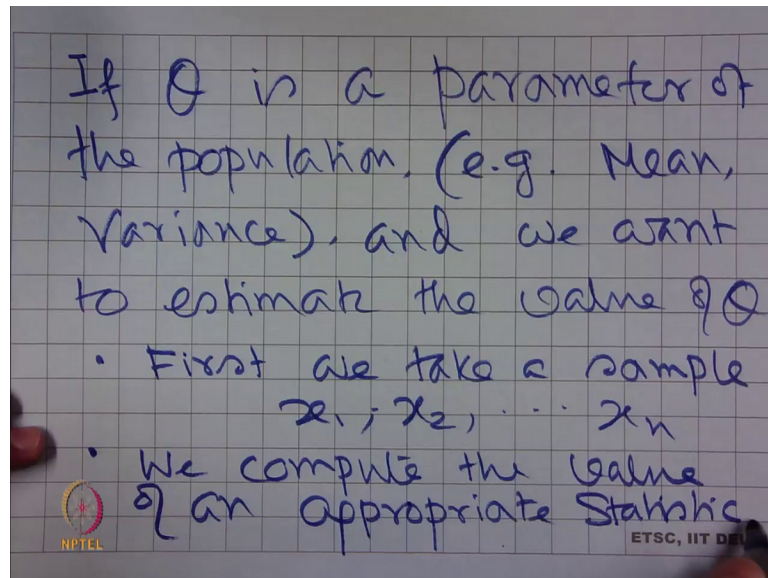
Welcome students to the 7th lecture of the MOOC's series on Statistical Inference. In the last 6 lectures, I have covered some very basics of statistical inference including simple random sampling, with replacement and without replacement, and also some probability distributions namely chi square t and f which are very important from the inference point of view as we will see later.

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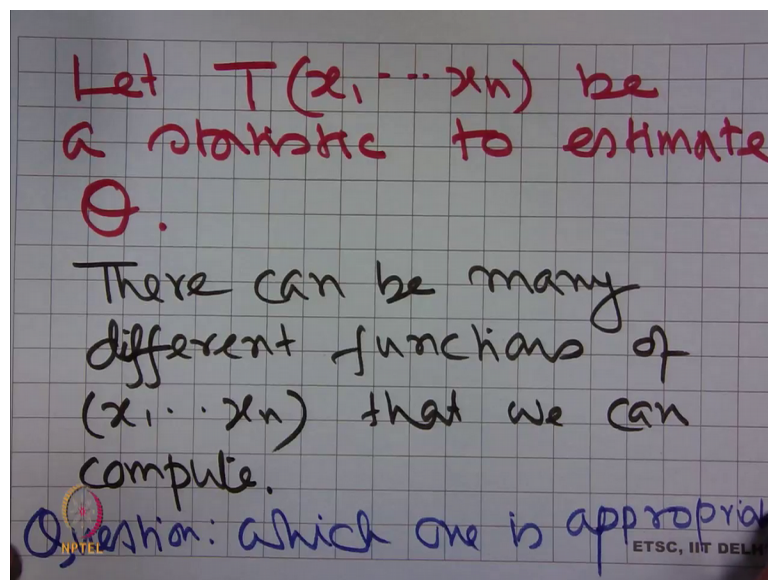
Now, let us look at some basics of statistical inference. You know that our aim is to estimate some population parameters with the help of some sample statistic.

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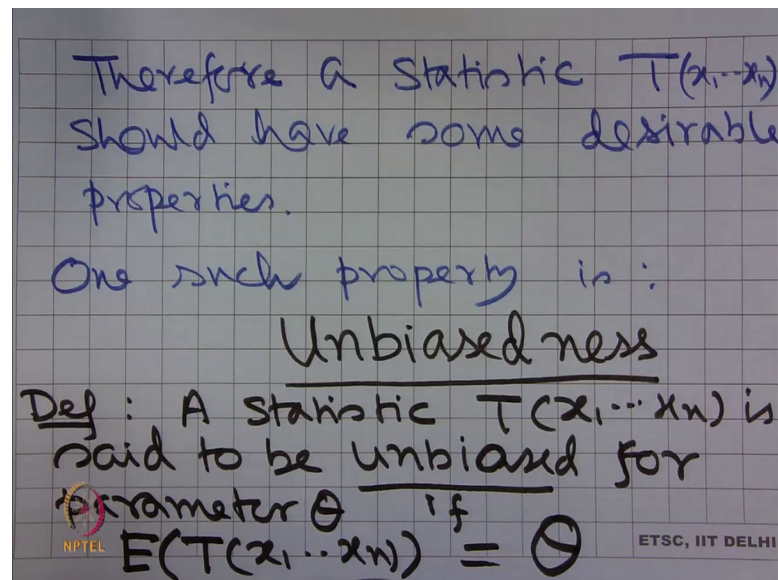
So, if θ is the parameter of the population such as mean variance. And we want to estimate the value of θ , then what we do? First we take a sample x_1, x_2 up to x_n .

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Then we compute the value of an appropriate statistic. Let $T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be a statistic to estimate θ . Now there can be many different functions of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n that we can compute. Therefore, question is how do you choose an appropriate statistic.

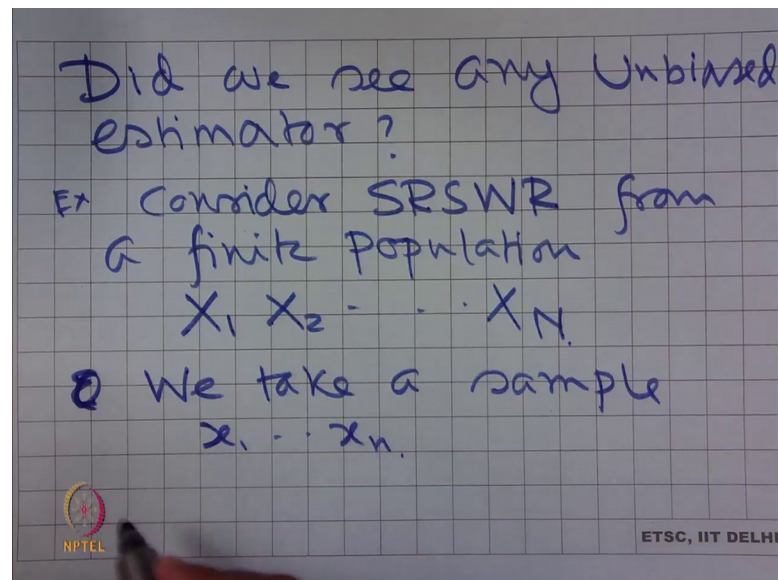
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Therefore a statistic T of course, of x_1 to x_n should have some desirable properties. I talk about the simplest of the property and easiest of the property to understand.

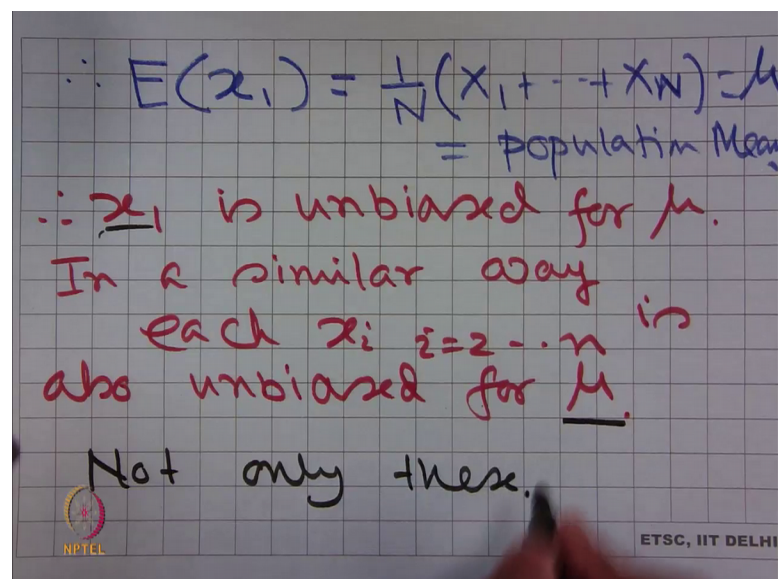
And many of you might have rightly guessed, the property that I am talking about is unbiasedness. What does it mean? A statistic T of x_1 to x_n is said to be unbiased for parameter θ if expected value of T of x_1 to x_n is equal to θ ; that is, our aim is to estimate the parameter θ , we have taken a sample x_1, x_2 up to x_n , we compute the value of T , the expected value of that statistic is unbiased for θ , then we call that particular statistic to be unbiased for θ , and that value that we compute out of the sample taken may be considered an appropriate value for θ or an estimate for θ .

(Refer Slide Time: 07:52)



Have we seen such unbiased estimator? What do you think? Yes, we did. For example, consider simple random sampling with replacement from a finite population X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N . What we know that we take a sample x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .

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Therefore, expected value of x_1 is equal to μ . $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$ is equal to $n\mu$ is equal to population mean. Therefore, x_1 is unbiased for μ . In a similar way, each $x_i, i=2$ to n is also unbiased for μ . Because expected value of each x_i is going to be population mean.

And this is true not for simple random sampling with replacement, even if we do without replacement, we have seen earlier that each one of them will actually be an unbiased estimator for μ . Because each x_i irrespective of whether it is with replacement or without replacement. We will take the values x_1, x_2 and x_N each with probability $1/N$. Not only this, can you find some other unbiased estimator for μ ? So, I give you a few consider $x_1 + 2x_2$ by 3.

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a) $E\left(\frac{x_1 + 2x_2}{3}\right) = \mu$

b) $E\left(\frac{x_1 + x_3 + 2x_5 + 6x_{10}}{10}\right) = \mu$

c) If we consider $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$

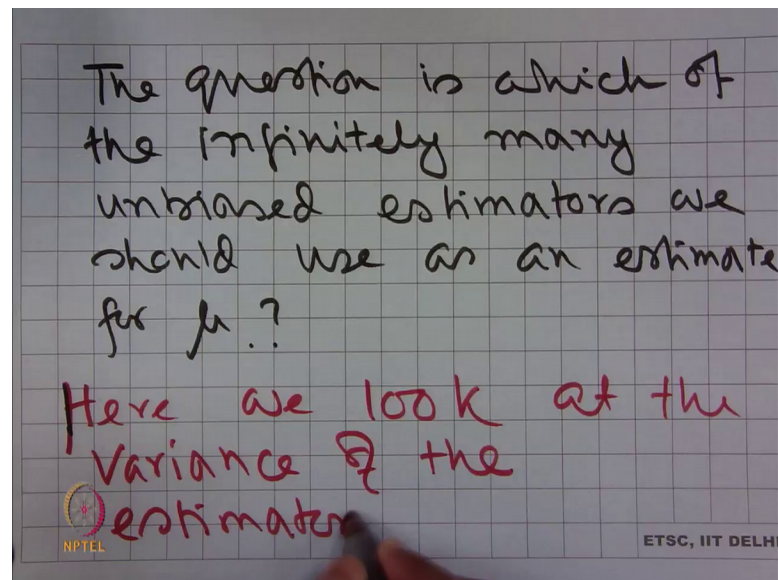
Then $E\left(\sum w_i x_i\right) = \mu$

Each such combination gives an unbiased estimator for μ

What is going to be its expectation? Its expectation is going to be for this x_1 we will get μ from this x_2 we will get 2μ . So, the sum is 3μ divided by 3 is equal to μ . In a similar way, let us consider x_1 plus x_3 plus $2x_5$ plus $6x_{10}$ divided by 10. What will be its expectation? So, expectation of x_1 will be μ , this will give another μ , this will give 2μ , and this will give some 6μ . So, the sum is going to be 10μ , that divided by 10 is equal to μ .

In fact, if we consider $\sum w_i x_i$ is equal to $1/n$; such that $\sum w_i$ is equal to 1, then expected value of $\sum w_i x_i$ is equal to μ , that is very clear. Therefore, each such combination gives an unbiased estimator for μ .

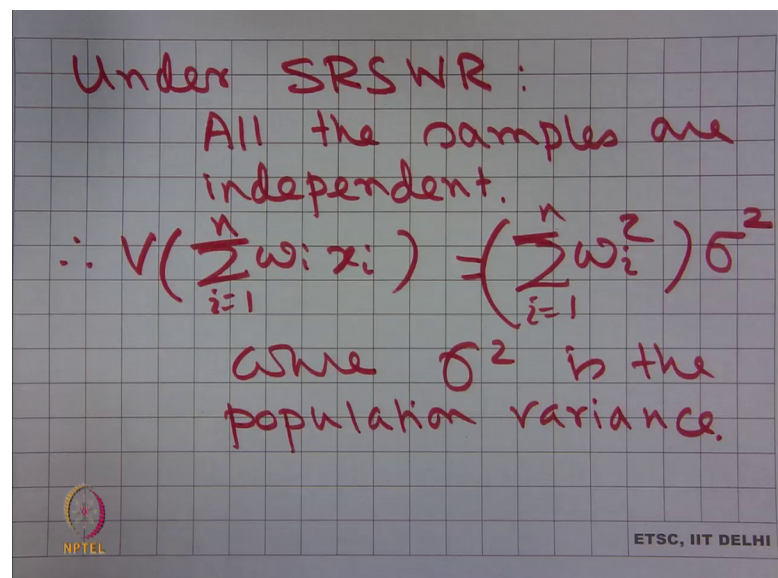
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Thus we can see, we can find many different unbiased estimator. Therefore, the question is which of the infinitely many unbiased estimators we should use as an estimate for μ .

The most important concept here is the variance of the estimator.

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Under SRSWR all the samples are independent, therefore, variance of $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i$ is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2 \sigma^2$ where σ^2 is the population variance. So, the question is how do we choose the

weights of the different samples. So, that the linear combination $w_i x_i$ is an unbiased estimator for μ , and variance of $\sigma w_i x_i$ is the minimum.

(Refer Slide Time: 16:34)

Consider $n = 2$
∴ We want to choose w_1 & w_2 s.t.
 $w_1 + w_2 = 1$
 $\sum w_1^2 + w_2^2$ is minimum
 $w_1^2 + w_2^2 = w_1^2 + (1 - w_1)^2$
By differentiating wrt w_1
 $2w_1 + 2(1 - w_1)(-1) = 0$

Consider n is equal to 2.

Therefore we want to choose w_1 and w_2 such that $w_1 + w_2$ is equal to 1. And $w_1^2 + w_2^2$ is minimum. Do we know the answer? We know, but let me still work it out. So, we are minimizing $w_1^2 + w_2^2$. By putting w_2 is equal to $1 - w_1$ from here is equal to $w_1^2 + (1 - w_1)^2$.

In order to minimize this, let us differentiate it with respect to w_1 , what we get? $2w_1 + 2(1 - w_1)(-1)$ because of this minus sign is equal to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 18:24)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Or } 2w_1 + 2w_1 - 2 &= 0 \\ \text{or } 4w_1 &= 2 \text{ or } w_1 = \frac{1}{2} \\ \therefore w_2 &= \frac{1}{2} \text{ as well.} \\ \therefore \text{ If we take two samples} \\ &\text{then the weights should be} \\ &\frac{1}{2} \text{ \& \& } \frac{1}{2} \\ \text{i.e. } \frac{w_1 + w_2}{2} &\text{ has minimum variance} \end{aligned}$$

Or 2 times w_1 plus 2 times w_1 minus 2 is equal to 0. Or 4 times w_1 is equal to 2 or w_1 is equal to half. Therefore, w_2 is equal to half as well.

What does it tell you? It tells us that if we take 2 samples, then the weights should be 1 by 2 and 1 by 2; that is, w_1 plus w_2 by 2 has minimum variance. And what is going to be that variance, we know that that variance is going to be sigma square by 2. Or in other words if I take 2 sample, then arithmetic mean of the sample values is going to be the minimum variance unbiased estimator for μ .

(Refer Slide Time: 20:15)

Similarly we can show
that if we take n samples
 $x_1 \dots x_n$, then the linear
Combination that gives the
Minimum Variance is

$$\frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n} = \bar{x}$$

i.e Sample Mean.

Similarly, we can show that if we take a n samples x_1, x_2 up to x_n , then the linear combination that gives the minimum variance is x_1 plus x_2 plus x_n by n ; that is, \bar{x} that is the sample mean. Therefore, sample mean is not only unbiased estimator for μ ; it is also having minimum variance among all linear combinations of the sample values x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .

(Refer Slide Time: 21:55)

If we consider SRSWOR
 we have seen $V(\bar{x})$

$$: \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{N-1}\right)$$

 \therefore As n increases
 the variance of \bar{x} is
 getting reduced
 In particular: if $n = N$,
 $\bar{x} = \bar{X} = \mu$, $\text{Var}(\bar{x}) = 0$

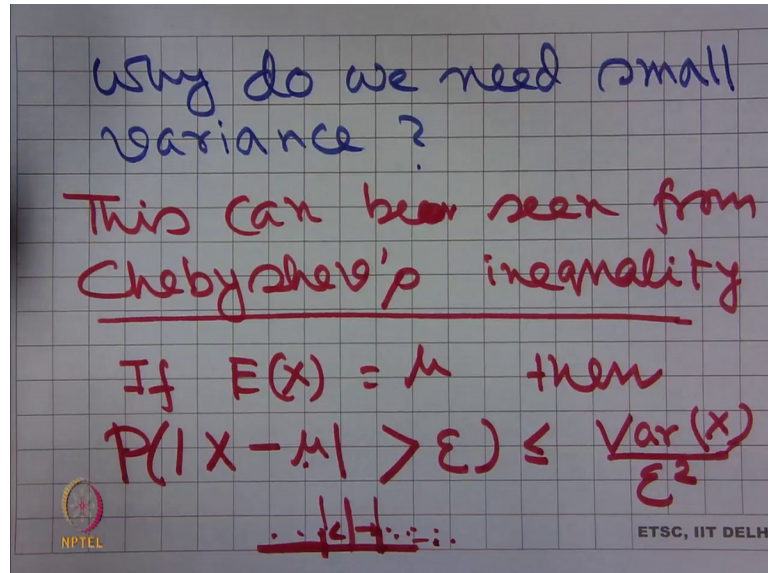
If we consider SRSWOR we have found what is the variance of \bar{x} ? Do you remember? It is $\sigma^2/n \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{N-1}\right)$. What does it mean? It means that as n increases the variance of \bar{x} is getting reduced. Because as n increases this value decreases, and not only these value decreases as $n-1$ increases, $1 - \frac{n-1}{N-1}$ upon capital $N-1$ also decreases. Therefore, the overall variance keeps on reducing as we keep on taking more and more samples.

In particular, if n is equal to capital N ; that means, my population size is capital N , I am taking small n many samples, but basically here I am seeking, here I am saying that I am taking capital N many samples, and since it is SRSWOR. What does it mean? It means I have taken the entire population as my sample. And therefore, the sample mean is same as the population mean, which is μ and the variances is; this is $n-1$. So, this part becomes 0 therefore, variance becomes 0, which is understandable.

Because if I consider the entire population, and take it is mean then it has to be same as the population mean, therefore, there is no deviation from the population mean and

therefore, variance is going to be 0; that is, therefore, there is no dispersion and we get the sample mean equal to population mean and therefore, variance of sample mean is 0.

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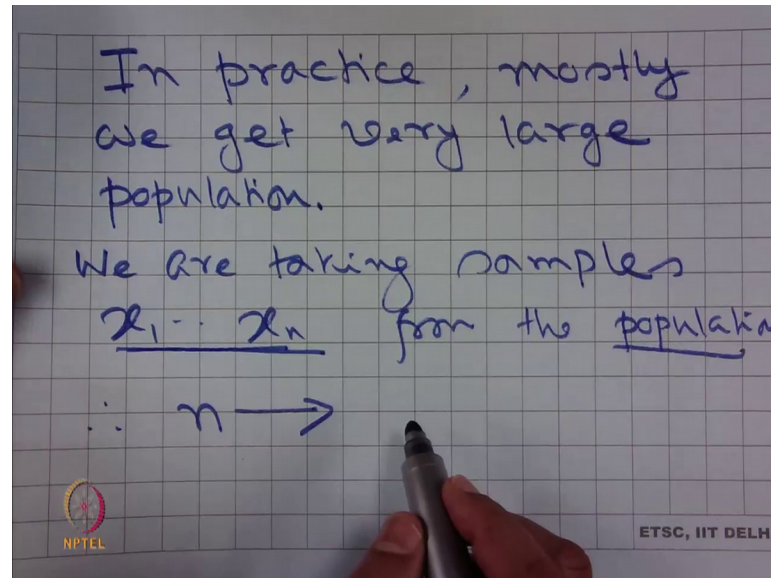
Now, you may ask me why do we need small variance because variance is a measure of dispersion.

So, smaller is the variance; that means, my estimate is very close to the parameter that it is estimating. This can be seen from chebyshevs inequality, are you familiar with chebyshevs inequality? I hope all of you have done in the first course that you might have done on probability the concept of chebyshevs inequality. If you do not know I am keeping it as a practice problem in the tutorial sheet one, you should try and prove chebyshevs inequality. This is not to be graded by us it is for your own knowledge that you try to prove chebyshevs inequality by studying some material.

If we cannot, we will upload the solution. But the chebyshevs inequality says that if expectation of x is equal to μ , then probability modulus of X minus μ greater than ϵ is less than equal to variance of X upon ϵ square; that means, μ is the expectation that probability X minus μ greater than ϵ so, if we take this ϵ ; that means, that the probability that x will lie outside this, outside this limit, that is going to be less than equal to variance of x upon ϵ square.

Therefore, as variance of x gets smaller, the probability that it is going beyond that gets smaller, or in other words it says that x will remain within epsilon distance of the mean that probability increases if the variance of x gets smaller.

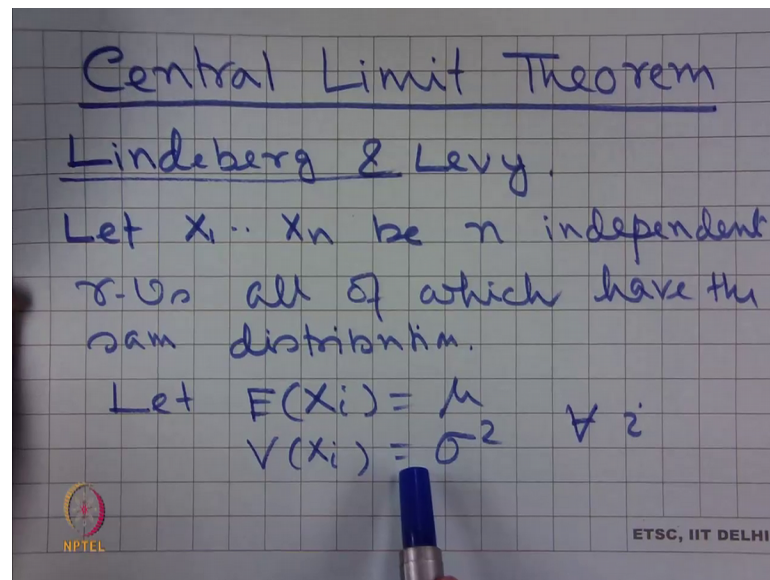
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Now, in practice, mostly we get very large population we are sampling x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n from the population. Obviously, if the population is large we cannot take a very small sample. We have to take larger sample otherwise; we cannot get meaningful estimate of the population parameter.

For example, if you want to compute the average income of the people of Delhi, we cannot just take few samples and based on the average of the sample we can say that is going to be the average income of Delhi population; no, that will not work we have to take meaningful size sample. So, that it represents the population. Therefore, what will happen the sample size is going to increase, n increases, right? And if n increases we have something called central limit theorem.

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Again I expect all of you have some basic idea of central limit theorem, I am stating one simple version of this theorem there is not a single central limit theorem there are different versions. But the simple version that we will be using is by Lindeberg and Levy. And it says that let X_1, \dots, X_n be n independent random variables, all of which have the same distribution. Let expected value of X_i is equal to μ and variance of X_i is equal to σ^2 for all i .

What does it mean? It means that each of the X_i has the same expectation each of the X_i has the same variance.

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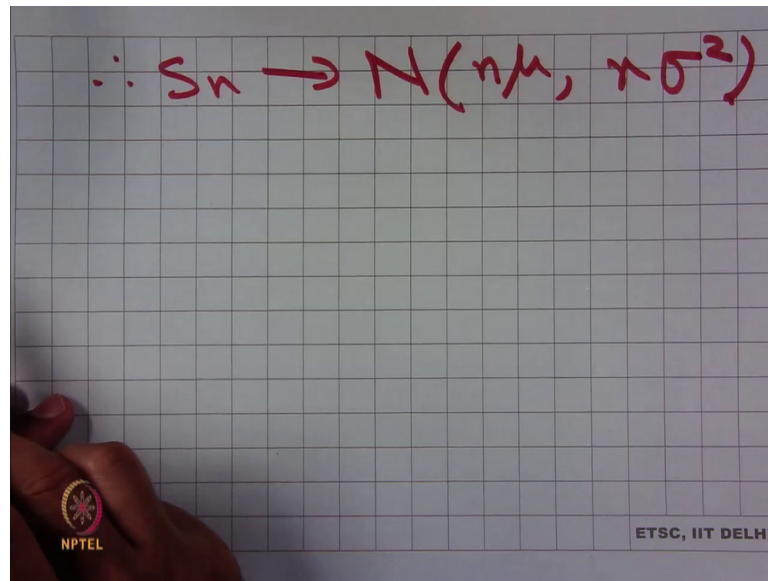
Then consider $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$
 \therefore As n increases..
 $T_n = \frac{(S_n - n\mu)}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \rightarrow N(0,1)$
in distribution.
i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(T_n < x)$
 $= \int_{-\infty}^x f(x) dx$
where f is pdf of $N(0,1)$.

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Then consider s is equal to σ x_i i is equal to 1 to n . Therefore, as let me call it S_n what is S_n ? S_n is the sum of n samples. Now if n increases, central limit theorem suggests that S_n minus $n\mu$ upon root over n σ converges to normal $0, 1$ in distribution.

That is, if we call these to be T_n probability limit n going to infinity probability T_n less than x is equal to minus infinity to x $f(x) dx$, where f is pdf of normal $0, 1$. So, what does it mean? That if I take sample of size n , then as n increases S_n minus $n\mu$ upon root n σ converges to normal $0, 1$.

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$$\therefore S_n \rightarrow N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$$

Or in other words, S_n therefore converges to normal with mean $n\mu$, and variance $n\sigma^2$ that is the advantage.

Therefore if we take more and more samples we can approximate the distribution of the sum of the random variable using normal distribution. This has a lot of convenience for us, because then we can approximate many of the statistic using normal, and that is very important because in the last few classes, we have studied normal distribution in depth, and we have also obtained a family of distributions like chi square χ^2 , T_n , $F_{m,n}$ which all depend upon normal distribution. That is why in large sample theory the normal distribution is of prime importance.

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Some more properties
of Normal Distribution.

i) If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
then $a + bX \sim N(a + b\mu, b^2\sigma^2)$.

ii) If X_1 & X_2 are
 $N(0, 1)$ & independent
what is the distribution of
 $X_1 + X_2$?

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So, let us examine some more properties of normal distribution. What we have seen? We have seen that if x is normal with μ sigma square, then $a + bx$ is normal with $a + b\mu$ comma b^2 sigma square. This is something that we have already proved. Now let us consider a different problem if X_1 and X_2 are normal $0, 1$ and independent what is the, distribution of X_1 plus X_2 ? This is very simple.

(Refer Slide Time: 37:09)

$$MGF_{X_1+X_2}(t) = MGF_{X_1}(t) * MGF_{X_2}(t)$$
$$= e^{\frac{t^2}{2}} * e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$$
$$= e^{\frac{2t^2}{2}} = e^{\frac{1}{2}(2t^2)}$$

$e^{\frac{1}{2}(2t^2)}$ is MGF of
 $N(0, 2)$

MGF of $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
 $e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}$

$X_1 + X_2 \sim N(0, 2)$

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Because, we know that moment generating function of X_1 plus X_2 is equal to moment generating function of X_1 multiplied by moment generating function of X_2 .

And we know that moment generating function of x_1 is e to the power t square by 2. Similarly, MGF of x_2 is e to the power t square by 2. Therefore, this is equal to e to the power $2 t$ square upon 2, is equal to e to the power half into 2 t square. Now this is the MGF of a normal population, normal with mean 0, variance is equal to 2, right? Because we know that MGF of normal μ σ square is equal to e to the power μt plus half σ square t square.

Here μ is equal to 0 so, you are looking at only e to the power half σ square t square and that σ square is coming out to be 2. Therefore, X_1 plus X_2 distributed as with mean 0 and variance 2. We can even elaborate it more further.

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Suppose we consider
 $X_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$
 $X_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$
 Then what is the distribution of $X_1 + X_2$.
 $MGF_{X_1+X_2}(t) = e^{\mu_1 t + \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1^2 t^2)} \times e^{\mu_2 t + \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_2^2 t^2)}$
 $= e^{(\mu_1 + \mu_2)t + \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)t^2}$

Suppose we consider X_1 to be normal with μ_1 σ_1 square X_2 is normal with μ_2 σ_2 square, then what is the distribution of X_1 plus X_2 .

As before MGF of X_1 plus X_2 at t is equal to e to the power $\mu_1 t$ plus half σ_1 square t square multiplied by e to the power $\mu_2 t$ plus half σ_2 square t square. Therefore, this is equal to e to the power μ_1 plus $\mu_2 t$ plus half σ_1 square plus σ_2 square into t square.

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\therefore If $X_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$
 $X_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ independent
Then
 $X_1 + X_2 \sim N(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$
 \hookrightarrow We can prove inductively
that if X_1, \dots, X_n are
independent, \rightarrow

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Therefore, it says that if x_1 is normal with some arbitrary mean and arbitrary variance, and x_2 is normal with some other arbitrary mean and arbitrary variance, then if x_1 and x_2 are independent, then x_1 plus x_2 is distributed as normal with μ_1 plus μ_2 and variance with σ_1^2 plus σ_2^2 .

I have proved it for 2, we can use induction that if X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent such that X_i is normal with μ_i and σ_i^2 , then x_1 plus x_2 up to x_n is distributed as normal with μ_i and variance is equal to σ_i^2 1 to n .

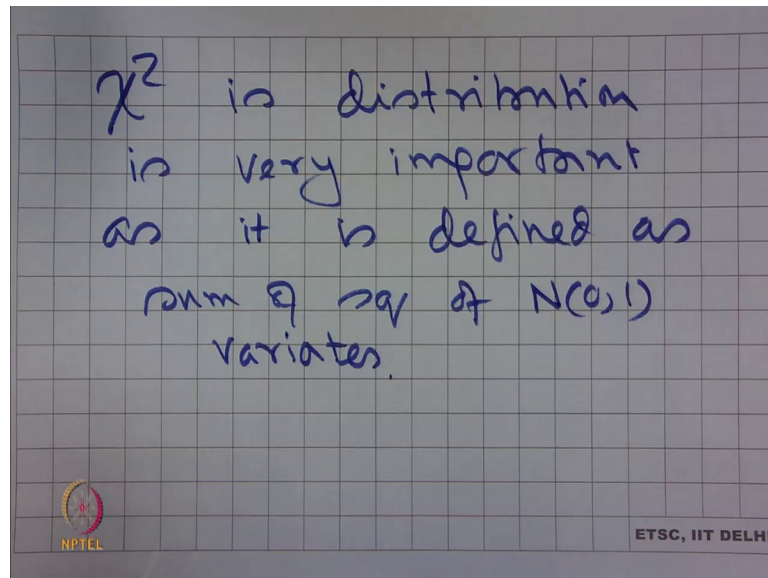
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$X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$
Then $X_1 + \dots + X_n$
 $\sim N(\sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i^2)$

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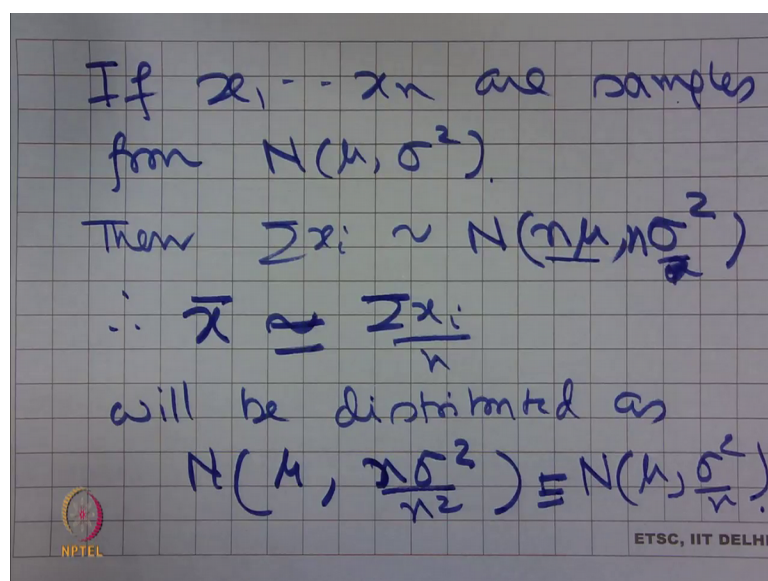
So, this is a very strong result, and that helps us a lot, because when we are taking samples from a population, we know that if the sample size is large we can sort of approximate it with normal, and not only that we can find the distribution of the sum of the samples, and therefore, from here we can calculate the sample mean and we can see that sample mean will be distributed as normal as well.

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Ok students now, we can understand the utility of normal distribution. And we have already seen that chi squared T F are all derived from normal distribution. In particular, the chi squared distribution is very important as it is defined as sum of square of normal 0 1 variants. In the next lecture, I will be talking about estimation of sigma square, which is the population variance. And we will be seen that we can use chi square distribution there for estimating the population variance.

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If x_1, \dots, x_n are samples from $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.
Then $\sum x_i \sim N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$
 $\therefore \bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$
will be distributed as
 $N(\mu, \frac{n\sigma^2}{n^2}) = N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$

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So, so far what we have studied that if x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are samples from normal distribution, then $\sum x_i$ is normal with mean is equal to $n\mu$ and variance is equal to $n\sigma^2$. Therefore, \bar{x} which is $\sum x_i$ by n will be distributed as normal with since I am dividing it by n , I can divide it by n here. That is going to be μ , and since I am dividing by n the variance is going to be divided by n square.

Therefore, sample mean or expectation of sample mean is going to be μ . Or sample mean is going to be an unbiased estimator for population mean, and as n increases the variance will be decreasing. So, so far we got an estimator for population mean. Our next target is population variance that is σ^2 . And therefore, we need to find estimate for σ^2 . So, I stop here now, in the next lecture I shall talk about how to find unbiased estimator for σ^2 which is the population variance.

Thank you.