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AMS 206: Quiz 3 [45 points] (required for graduate students, extra credit for undergraduates)

Name:

In this problem, and all subsequent assignments involving computer-based calculations and plots, please put Your code (in whatever statistical computing environment You use) in an Appendix at the end of Your solutions; this will enable the grader to give You more accurate partial credit if Your solution is not fully correct.

(Neyman-style frequentist inference for the variance and standard deviation in the Gaussian model with known mean) People in Las Vegas who are experts on the National Football League (NFL) provide a prediction in the form of a *point spread* for every football game before it occurs, as a measure of the difference in ability between the two teams (and taking account of where the game will be played and other variables, such as injuries to key players). For example, if Denver is a 3.5-point favorite to defeat San Francisco, the implication is that betting on whether Denver's final score minus 3.5 points exceeds or falls short of San Francisco's final score is an even-money (50/50) proposition. The data set actual-minus-predicted.txt on the course web page (based on data from Gelman et al. (2014)) records the differences y = (actual outcome - point spread)for a collection of n = 672 professional football games in 1981, 1982 and 1984. Thinking of this data set as like a random sample from a population \mathcal{P} of similar NFL games in other years, the Gelman et al. authors propose the sampling distribution $(Y_i \mid \sigma \mathcal{GB}) \stackrel{\text{\tiny IID}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ $(i = 1, \dots, n)$ for the observed differences y_i , in which \mathcal{G} stands for the Gaussian sampling distribution assumption (which Gelman et al. made after looking at the data, and which is therefore not part of \mathcal{B}). (Note: if this distribution didn't have a mean that's close to 0, the experts would be *uncalibrated* and you could make money by betting against them.)

For the rest of the problem, however You answered part (1), let's assume the Gaussian sampling distribution $(Y_i | \sigma \mathcal{GB}) \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ (i = 1, ..., n) for the observed y_i in the NFL data set.

(2) The usual frequentist estimate of the Gaussian variance σ^2 when the mean is known to be 0 is $s_*^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n y_i^2$. It can be shown (You're not asked to show this) that the repeated-sampling distribution of s_*^2 in the IID $N(0, \sigma^2)$ sampling model is implied by the relationship

$$\frac{n \, s_*^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_n^2 \,, \tag{1}$$

in which χ^2_n is the *chi-squared* distribution with n degrees of freedom, having density function

$$\theta \sim \chi_n^2 \quad \text{iff} \quad p(\theta) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} \frac{1}{2^{\frac{n}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)} \theta^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{\theta}{2}} & \text{if} \quad \theta > 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right\}.$$
(2)

The R built-in function qchisq computes inverse cumulative distribution function (CDF) values (quantiles) for this distribution. For example, for a given $0 < \alpha < 1$, calling this function with the R command A <- qchisq(alpha / 2, n) computes

the place on the horizontal axis where the χ^2 distribution with *n* degrees of freedom has $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ of its probability to the left of that place

and assigns that value to the numeric object A; this is equivalent to saying that $A = F_{\chi_n^2}^{-1}\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$, in which $F_{\chi_n^2}(\theta)$ is the CDF of the χ_n^2 density. In a similar manner B <- qchisq(1 - alpha / 2, n) computes $B = F_{\chi_n^2}^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$, the $\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$ quantile of the χ_n^2 distribution, so that

if
$$\theta \sim \chi_n^2$$
 then $P_F(A < \theta < B) = 1 - \alpha$, (3)

in which $P_F(\cdot)$ is the frequentist (repeated-sampling) version of probability. But now, in view of equation (1) above, this implies that, under the IID $N(0, \sigma^2)$ sampling model,

$$P_F\left(A < \frac{n \, s_*^2}{\sigma^2} < B\right) = 1 - \alpha \,. \tag{4}$$

(a) Rearrange the inequality inside $P_F(\cdot)$ in (4) to have σ^2 in the middle, thereby showing that equation (4) implies that

$$P_F\left(\frac{n\,s_*^2}{B} < \sigma^2 < \frac{n\,s_*^2}{A}\right) = 1 - \alpha\,. \tag{5}$$

You have just performed Mr. Neyman's confidence trick, demonstrating that $\left(\frac{n s_*^2}{B}, \frac{n s_*^2}{A}\right)$ is a 100 $(1 - \alpha)$ % confidence interval (CI) for σ^2 in the IID $N(0, \sigma^2)$ sampling model. Use this result to show that $\left(s_*\sqrt{\frac{n}{B}}, s_*\sqrt{\frac{n}{A}}\right)$ is a 100 $(1 - \alpha)$ % CI for σ in this model. [10 points]

(b) Use the results You derived above to compute 95% CIs for σ^2 and σ with the NFL data. If someone said to You, "NFL football games are hard to predict: the people who post the point spreads are usually wrong by about two touchdowns (14 points)," would You say that the data set examined here supports this claim? In other words, is the difference between s_* (the best frequentist estimate of σ in the $N(0, \sigma^2)$ sampling model) and this person's stated value of $\sigma_{claim} = 14$ statistically significant? Is that difference practically significant? Explain briefly. [15 points]