

P8109-STATISTICAL INFERENCE

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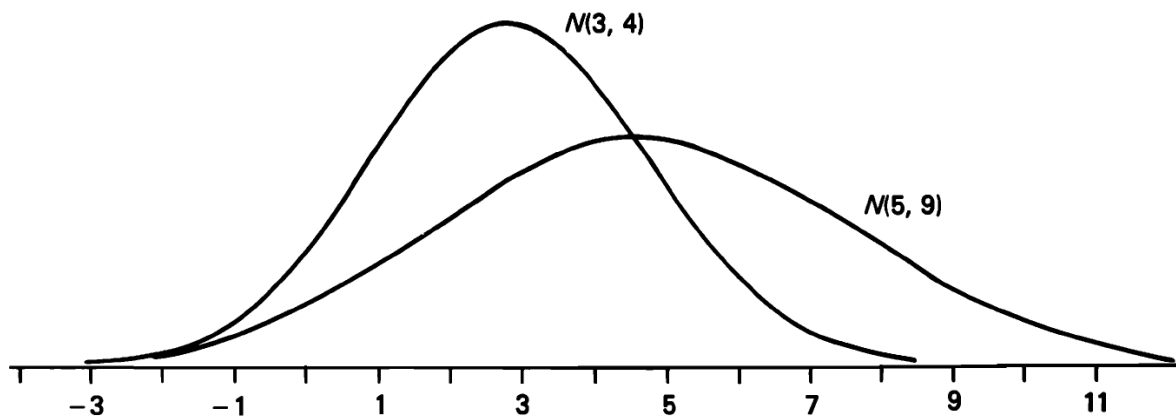
1 NORMAL AND ASSOCIATED DISTRIBUTIONS

1.1 THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

If a random variable (r.v.) X has probability density function (p.d.f.)

$$f_X(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, -\infty < \mu < \infty, 0 < \sigma \quad (1-1)$$

then X is said to have a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , i.e. $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. μ is called a location parameter while σ is called a scale parameter.



By integration, it can be shown that if $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then the moment-generating function (m.g.f.) of X is

$$M_X(t) = Ee^{tX} = \exp\left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right) \quad (1-2)$$

Furthermore, if we define $Z = (X - \mu) / \sigma$, then $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ is the *standard normal* distribution:

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right) \quad -\infty < z < \infty$$

Example 1.1A

Show that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Z(z) dz = 1$.

Solution

Let $I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-z^2/2} dz = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2/2} dy$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
I^2 &= \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx \right) \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2/2} dy \right) \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2} dx dy \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2} r dr d\theta \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{by changing to polar coordinates, i.e.} \\ x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta \end{array} \right] \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\int_0^{\infty} r e^{-r^2/2} dr \right) d\theta \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} du \right) d\theta \quad \left[\text{by substituting } u = r^2 / 2 \right] \\
&= \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \\
&= 2\pi
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Z(z) dz = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} I = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = 1.$$

An important result concerns the linear combination of r.v.'s:

Theorem 1.1A: If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $aX + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$.

Proof. Using the result for the m.g.f. of X in Eq. (1-2), the m.g.f. of $aX + b$ is

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E} e^{t(aX+b)} &= e^{bt} \mathbb{E} e^{atX} \\
&= e^{bt} e^{\mu(at) + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(at)^2} \\
&= e^{(\mu a + b)t + \frac{1}{2}(a\sigma)^2 t^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, $aX + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$ ■

More generally:

Theorem 1.1B If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent r.v.s with each $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ and $W = \sum_i a_i X_i + b$, then W is normal with

$$EW = \sum_i a_i \mu_i + b \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var } W = \sum_i a_i^2 \sigma_i^2$$

Proof. As in Theorem 1.1A ■

Remark: The converse of the above is not true: if a linear combinations of independent r.v.'s is normally distributed, then it does not follow that each r.v. is normally distributed. However, Bernstein proved in 1941 that if X and Y are independent and identical distributed (i.i.d.) r.v.'s such that $X + Y$ and $X - Y$ are independent, then X and Y are each normally distributed.

1.2 THE χ^2 -, t -, AND F -DISTRIBUTIONS

(a) Let Z_1, \dots, Z_k be independent $N(0, 1)$ random variables. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^k Z_i^2 \sim \chi_k^2, \quad (1-3)$$

where χ_k^2 is the chi-squared distribution with k degrees of freedom (d.f.). Recall that, in general, the χ_k^2 -distribution is a special case of the gamma(α, β) family. If $U \sim \text{gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} f_U(u; \alpha, \beta) &= \frac{u^{\alpha-1} e^{-u/\beta}}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)}, \quad u > 0, \alpha > 0, \beta > 0 \\ &= \frac{u^{\alpha-1} e^{-u/\beta}}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} I(u > 0), \quad \alpha > 0, \beta > 0 \end{aligned},$$

where $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx$ ($\alpha > 0$) is the gamma function, and $I(E) = 1$ if the event E is true and

$I(E) = 0$ otherwise. It can be shown that $EU = \alpha\beta$ and $\text{var } U = \alpha\beta^2$. Note also that

$\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)\Gamma(\alpha - 1)$ for all real α and $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)!$ for $\alpha = 1, 2, \dots$

If $U \sim \text{gamma}(k/2, 2)$, then $U \sim \chi_k^2$. The mean and variance of U are k and $2k$, respectively. The

m.g.f. of U is $(1-2t)^{-k/2}$.

If $U \sim \text{gamma}(1, \beta)$, then U has an exponential distribution with parameter $\beta > 0$. The mean is β , the variance is β^2 , and the m.g.f. is $(1-\beta t)^{-1}$ for $t < 1/\beta$.

(b) If $Z \sim N(0, 1)$, $V \sim \chi_k^2$, and Z and V are independent then

$$\frac{Z}{\sqrt{V/k}} \sim t_k \quad (1-4)$$

where t_k is the t -distribution with k d.f. Recall that if $T \sim t_k$ then

$$f_T(t; k) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{k+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)\sqrt{k\pi}} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{k}\right)^{-(k+1)/2}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty.$$

Moreover, $ET = 0$ if $k > 1$ and $\text{var} T = k/(k-2)$ for $k > 2$. For large d.f. the t -distribution converges to the standard normal, i.e. $T \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$. The m.g.f. of a t -distribution does not exist.

(c) If $U \sim \chi_m^2$, $V \sim \chi_n^2$, and U and V are independent then

$$\frac{U/m}{V/n} \sim F_{m,n}, \quad (1-5)$$

where $F_{m,n}$ is the F -distribution with m numerator d.f. and n denominator d.f. Recall that if $X \sim F_{m,n}$ then

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x; m, n) &= \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{m+n}{2}\right)(m/n)^{m/2}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)} \frac{x^{(m/2)-1}}{\left(1 + \frac{mx}{n}\right)^{(m+n)/2}}, \quad x > 0 \\ &= \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{m+n}{2}\right)(m/n)^{m/2}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)} \frac{x^{(m/2)-1}}{\left(1 + \frac{mx}{n}\right)^{(m+n)/2}} I(x > 0) \end{aligned}$$

Some results associated with the F -distribution are:

- (i) If $T \sim t_k$, then $T^2 \sim F_{1,k}$;
- (ii) If $X \sim F_{m,n}$, then $1/X \sim F_{n,m}$;
- (iii) If $X \sim F_{m,n}$, $EX = n/(n-2)$ for $n > 2$.

1.3 THE CENTRAL-LIMIT THEOREM

There are several versions of the Central Limit Theorem (CLT), each with different degrees of generality. Here we shall state and prove a less general (and more common) version known as the Lindeberg-Lévy CLT.

Theorem 1.3A (Lindeberg-Lévy CLT) If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are i.i.d. r.v.'s with $EX_i = \mu$ and $\text{var } X_i = \sigma^2$.

Then the sum $S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ is asymptotically normal with mean $n\mu$ and variance $n\sigma^2$, i.e.

$$S_n \sim N(n\mu, n\sigma^2) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1) \quad (1-6)$$

The above result can also be written in terms of the sample mean $\bar{X}_n = S_n/n$:

$$\bar{X}_n \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1) \quad (1-7)$$

■

Example 1.3A

Apply the Lindeberg-Lévy CLT to $\sum_{i=1}^k Z_i^2$ in Eq. (1-3) and deduce its asymptotic distribution.

Solution

Since $Z_i \sim N(0, 1)$, $EZ_i = 0$ and $\text{var } Z_i = 1$. To apply the CLT, we need the mean and variance of each

Z_i^2 . We have $EZ_i^2 = E\chi_1^2 = 1$, and $\text{var } Z_i^2 = \text{var } \chi_1^2 = 2$. Therefore, by the Lindeberg-Lévy CLT,

$\sum_{i=1}^k Z_i^2 \sim N(k, 2k)$, i.e. for large d.f. the χ_k^2 -distribution approaches the $N(k, 2k)$ distribution.

Proof Theorem 1.3A (Lindeberg-Lévy CLT) Let $Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$. Then the m.g.f. of Z_n is

$$\begin{aligned}
M_{Z_n}(t) &= E e^{tZ_n} \\
&= E \exp \left\{ t \left(\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \right) \right\} \\
&= E \exp \left(t \frac{X_1 - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} + \dots + t \frac{X_n - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \right) \\
&= \left[E \exp \left(t \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \right) \right]^n \\
&= \left[E \left\{ 1 + t \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} + \frac{t^2}{2} \left(\frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \right)^2 + O(t^3) \right\} \right]^n \quad [\text{since } e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots] \\
&= \left[\left\{ 1 + t(0) + \frac{t^2}{2\sigma^2 n} \text{var } X_i + O(t^3) \right\} \right]^n \\
&= \left\{ 1 + \frac{t^2}{2n} + O(t^3) \right\}^n \\
&\rightarrow e^{t^2/2} \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty
\end{aligned}$$

But this is the m.g.f. of a $N(0, 1)$ r.v. Hence the Lindeberg-Lévy CLT theorem is proved. ■

1.4 SAMPLING FROM A NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

Theorem 1.4A. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be i.i.d. $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ r.v.'s. Define the sample mean and sample variance respectively as follows:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_i X_i}{n}, \quad S^2 = \frac{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}$$

Then:

$$(a) \bar{X} \text{ and } S^2 \text{ are independent;} \quad (1-8)$$

$$(b) \bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2 / n); \quad (1-9)$$

$$(c) (n-1)S^2 / \sigma^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2. \quad (1-10)$$

Proof (a) We use the *Helmert* transformation:

$$\begin{aligned} U_1 &= (X_1 - X_2) / \sqrt{2}, \\ U_2 &= (X_1 + X_2 - 2X_3) / \sqrt{6}, \\ U_3 &= (X_1 + X_2 + X_3 - 3X_4) / \sqrt{12}, \\ &\dots \\ U_{n-1} &= \{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{n-1} - (n-1)X_n\} / \sqrt{n(n-1)}, \\ U_n &= (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) / \sqrt{n} \end{aligned}$$

If we write $U_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} X_j$ ($i = 1, \dots, n$), then it is seen that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} a_{ik} = \begin{cases} 0, & j \neq k \\ 1, & j = k \end{cases}$$

This implies that the transformation of the X_j 's to the U_i 's are orthogonal. Using the theorem that an orthogonal transformation of independent r.v.s each normally distributed with variance σ^2 produces new r.v.s which are also independent and each normally distributed with variance σ^2 , we see that the U_i 's are independent and each normally distributed with variance σ^2 . Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n U_i^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ij} a_{ik} X_j X_k \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n X_j X_k \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} a_{ik} \right) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n X_j^2, \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned}
U_1^2 + U_2^2 + \dots + U_{n-1}^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - U_n^2 \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - n\bar{X}^2 \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2
\end{aligned}$$

Since U_n is independent of $U_1^2 + U_2^2 + \dots + U_{n-1}^2$, we obtain that $\bar{X} = U_n / \sqrt{n}$ is independent of

$U_1^2 + U_2^2 + \dots + U_{n-1}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ and hence of S^2 .

(b) We write $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$ and apply the result in Theorem 1.1B. Therefore, \bar{X} is normal with

$$E\bar{X} = \sum_i \frac{1}{n}(\mu) = \mu,$$

$$\text{var } \bar{X} = \sum_i \frac{1}{n^2} \sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

(c) Define $A = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 / \sigma^2$ and $C = (\bar{X} - \mu)^2 / (\sigma^2 / n)$. From the result in (1-3), $A \sim \chi_n^2$ and $C \sim \chi_1^2$.

Now,

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2}{\underbrace{\sigma^2}_A} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X} + \bar{X} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\underbrace{\sigma^2}_B} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{X} - \mu)^2}{\underbrace{\sigma^2}_C}$$

since $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(\bar{X} - \mu) = 0$. By (a) above, B and C are independent, so that

$$M_A(t) = M_B(t) M_C(t) \quad \Rightarrow \quad M_B(t) = \frac{(1-2t)^{-n/2}}{(1-2t)^{-1/2}} = (1-2t)^{-(n-1)/2}$$

which is the m.g.f. of the χ_{n-1}^2 -distribution. Hence

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2. \blacksquare$$

Remarks: (i) The independence in (a) above does not hold when sampling from a non-normal distribution. It characterizes the normal distribution.

(ii) The result in (b) is not a consequence of the CLT.

Two important corollaries to Theorem 1.4A above are that:

$$(1) \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1} \quad (1-11)$$

$$(2) \quad E S^2 = \sigma^2, \text{var } S^2 = \frac{2\sigma^4}{(n-1)} \quad (1-12)$$

Proof (1) From the result in (1-4) and the result (c) in Theorem 1.4A ,

$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{(n-1)S^2 / \sigma^2}{n-1}}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

$$\therefore \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{S} = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$$

(2) From the result (c) in Theorem 1.4A,

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

and

$$\text{var} \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = 2n-2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{var } S^2 = \frac{\sigma^4}{(n-1)^2} (2n-2) = \frac{2\sigma^4}{(n-1)}. \blacksquare$$

Remarks: (i) $E S^2 = \sigma^2$ means that $S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ is an unbiased estimator of σ^2 .

(ii) If σ^2 is estimated by $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2$, then

$$E \hat{\sigma}^2 = E \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2.$$

Thus $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is biased for σ^2 (it underestimates it) and is the reason it is not preferred to S^2 .

(iii) $\text{var } S = ES^2 - E^2S = \sigma^2 - E^2S > 0 \Rightarrow ES < \sigma$. Thus although S^2 is unbiased for σ^2 , S is actually biased for σ .

1.5 THE EXPONENTIAL FAMILY

Many of the usual parametric families belong to the exponential family (or class). If a one-parameter family of densities $f(x; \theta)$ can be expressed as

$$f(x; \theta) = a(\theta)b(x)\exp\{c(\theta)d(x)\} \quad (1-13)$$

for $-\infty < x < \infty$, for all $\theta \in \Theta$ and suitable functions a , b , c , and d , then $f(x; \theta)$ is said to belong to the exponential family (or class).

Example 1.5A

Let $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. Verify if this distribution belongs to the exponential family.

Solution

The p.m.f. of X is

$$\begin{aligned} p_X(x; \lambda) &= \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \quad \text{for } x = 0, 1, \dots \\ &= \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} I(x \in \{0, 1, \dots\}) \\ &= e^{-\lambda} \left(\frac{I(x \in \{0, 1, \dots\})}{x!} \right) \exp \ln \lambda^x \\ &= e^{-\lambda} \left(\frac{I(x \in \{0, 1, \dots\})}{x!} \right) \exp(x \ln \lambda) \end{aligned}$$

Comparing the above with Eq. (1-13), we have $a(\lambda) = e^{-\lambda}$, $b(x) = I(x \in \{0, 1, \dots\})/x!$, $c(\lambda) = \ln \lambda$ and $d(x) = x$.

Example 1.5B

Let $X \sim \text{uniform}(0, \theta)$ where $\theta > 0$. Verify if this distribution belongs to the exponential family.

Solution

We have

$$\begin{aligned} f_x(x; \theta) &= \frac{1}{\theta} \text{ for } 0 < x < \theta \\ &= \frac{1}{\theta} I(0 < x < \theta) \end{aligned}$$

From the above, we see that $I(0 < x < \theta)$ cannot be factored into functions of x and θ alone, and $f(x; \theta)$ cannot be written in the exponential form (1-13). Hence, the $\text{uniform}(0, \theta)$ distribution does not belong to the exponential family.

An extension of (1-13) can be made to cover the k -parameter exponential family: if a k -parameter family of densities $f(x; \theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$ can be expressed as

$$f(x; \theta_1, \dots, \theta_k) = a(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k) b(x) \exp \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^k c_j(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k) d_j(x) \right\} \quad (1-14)$$

for $-\infty < x < \infty$, for all $\theta \in \Theta$ lying in a generalized rectangle and suitable functions a, b, c_j , and d_j , then $f(x; \theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$ is said to belong to the k -parameter exponential family (or class).

Example 1.5C

Let $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Verify if this distribution belongs to the 2-parameter exponential family.

Solution

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
f_X(x; \mu, \sigma) &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 - 2\mu x + \mu^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}x^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}x\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Comparing to Eq. (1-14), we have $a(\mu, \sigma) = 1/(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})e^{-\mu^2/(2\sigma^2)}$, $b(x) = 1$, $c_1(\mu, \sigma) = -1/(2\sigma^2)$, $d_1(x) = x^2$, $c_2(\mu, \sigma) = \mu/\sigma^2$, and $d_2(x) = x$. Hence, the $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ distribution belongs to the 2-parameter exponential family.

1.6 THREE IMPORTANT THEOREMS

(a) Lévy's Continuity theorem: Let X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of r.v.'s with X_n having m.g.f. $M_{X_n}(t)$ and let X be a r.v. with m.g.f. $M_X(t)$. Then:

- (i) If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{X_n}(t) = M_X(t)$ for all $t \in (-a, a)$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$
- (ii) Conversely, if $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{X_n}(t) = M_X(t)$.

(b) Slutsky's theorem: If $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$, $A_n \xrightarrow{P} A$, $B_n \xrightarrow{P} B$, where A and B are constants. Then

$$A_n X_n + B_n \xrightarrow{D} AX + B.$$

Example 1.6A

Consider the Lindeberg-Lévy CLT which states that, under certain conditions,

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1).$$

Suppose σ is unknown and is replaced by S is Eq. (1-7). What is the asymptotic distribution of $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) / S$?

Solution We have

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{S}$$

Now $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) / \sigma \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$ and $S / \sigma \xrightarrow{P} 1$. Using Slutsky's theorem, $\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{S / \sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$.

(c) Cramér's delta theorem: Suppose if $\hat{\theta}_n$ is asymptotically $N(\theta, \sigma^2 / n)$, i.e.

$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{D} N(0, \sigma^2)$. Then $f(\hat{\theta}_n)$ can be written as a Taylor series expansion about θ as

$$\begin{aligned} f(\hat{\theta}_n) &= f(\theta) + (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)f'(\theta) + \frac{(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)^2}{2!}f''(\theta) + \dots \\ &= f(\theta) + (\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)f'(\theta) + o(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \end{aligned} \quad (1-15)$$

where $o(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)$ is such that $\frac{o(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)}{\hat{\theta}_n - \theta} \rightarrow 0$ as $\hat{\theta}_n \rightarrow \theta$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} E f(\hat{\theta}_n) &= E f(\theta) + f'(\theta)E(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) + \dots \approx f(\theta) \\ \text{var } f(\hat{\theta}_n) &= 0 + \{f'(\theta)\}^2 \text{var}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) + \dots \approx \{f'(\theta)\}^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{n}, \end{aligned}$$

assuming $f'(\theta) \neq 0$. Applying Slutsky's theorem to Eq. (1-15) also shows that $f(\hat{\theta}_n)$ is asymptotically normal. Hence, we obtain Cramér's delta theorem:

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{D} N(0, \sigma^2) \Rightarrow \sqrt{n}\{f(\hat{\theta}_n) - f(\theta)\} \xrightarrow{D} N\left[0, \{f'(\theta)\}^2 \sigma^2\right] \quad (1-16)$$

That is,

$$\hat{\theta}_n \sim N\left(\theta, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) \Rightarrow f(\hat{\theta}_n) \sim N\left(f(\theta), \{f'(\theta)\}^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

In the above, we have assumed that $f'(\theta) \neq 0$ for any particular θ .

Example 1.6B

Given that \bar{X}_n is asymptotically $N(\mu, \sigma^2 / n)$, find the asymptotic distribution of $1 / \bar{X}_n$.

Solution

We have $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ and $f(\bar{X}_n) = 1 / \bar{X}_n$. Therefore,

$$f(\bar{X}_n) = f(\mu) + (\bar{X}_n - \mu)f'(\mu) + o(\bar{X}_n - \mu)$$

and

$$E \frac{1}{\bar{X}_n} \approx f(\mu) = \frac{1}{\mu},$$

$$\text{var} \frac{1}{\bar{X}_n} \approx \{f'(\mu)\}^2 \text{var} \bar{X}_n = \left(-\frac{1}{\mu^2}\right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\mu^4}$$

Therefore, $1 / \bar{X}_n$ is asymptotically $N[1 / \mu, \sigma^2 / (n\mu^4)]$, i.e.

$$\sqrt{n}\left(\frac{1}{\bar{X}_n} - \frac{1}{\mu}\right) \xrightarrow{D} N\left(0, \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu^4}\right)$$

A more general version of Cramér's delta theorem can be proved similarly: if $X_n = a_n(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{D} X$,

where a_n is a sequence of constants such that $a_n \rightarrow \infty$, then

$$a_n \left\{ f(\hat{\theta}_n) - f(\theta) \right\} \xrightarrow{D} f'(\theta) X$$

2 ESTIMATION

2.1 STATISTICAL MODELS

Statistical inference starts by specifying the underlying statistical model, which consists of:

- A random vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n) \in \mathcal{X}$ which is observed;
- An unknown parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k) \in \Theta$;
- A function $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ (or $p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$) which represents the p.d.f. (or p.m.f.) of \mathbf{X} for each $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

\mathcal{X} is called the support (or sample space) and Θ is called the parameter space. Note that \mathbf{X} is a sample measure and as such is a r.v. whereas $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is a population measure and as such is a constant.

Any function $T = T(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is called a statistic (note that T is also a r.v.). Note that T must not involve any unknown parameter. When used in the context of providing a numerical value for a parameter, a statistic is called an estimator.

One of the major aims of statistical inference is to use the observed values of suitable T to make conclusions about the unknown $\boldsymbol{\theta}$.

Example 2.1A

Consider the following statistical model: suppose an observation is made on each of X_1, \dots, X_{10} , where each $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, μ and σ being unknown parameters. Then $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_{10})$, $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\mu, \sigma)$, and