## STAT24410 NOTES

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#### 1. Probability

- 1.1. **CDF.**
- 1.1.1. Properties of CDF.
  - Nondecreasing.
  - Right continuous.
  - $\lim_{x\to-\infty} F(x) = 0$ ,  $\lim_{x\to\infty} F(x) = 1$ .
- 1.1.2. Inverse of CDF.

$$F^-(x) := \inf\{u : x \le F(u)\}.$$

**Proposition 1.1.** Let F be the cdf of X. If F is continuous and strictly increasing, then  $Y := F(X) \sim \text{Uniform}[0, 1]$ .

**Proof.** For any  $y \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(F(X) \le y) = F(F^{-1}(y)) = y.$$

**Proposition 1.2.** Let  $U \sim \text{Uniform}[0,1]$  and X be the cdf of X. Then  $F^{-1}(U) \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} X$ .

**Proof.** For any  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(F^{-1}(U) \le x) = \mathbb{P}(U \le F(x)) = F(x).$$

*Remark* 1.3. This is useful for simulation.

1.2. **Transformations.** For Y := h(X), if h is one-to-one and differentiable, then

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(h^{-1}(y)) \cdot \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}h^{-1}(y)}{\mathrm{d}y} \right|.$$

1.3. **Expectation.** For an r.v. X. We define

$$X^{+} = \max\{X, 0\}, \quad X^{-} = \max\{-X, 0\}.$$

Note that  $X \equiv X^+ - X^-$ .

Since  $X^+$  is nonnegative,

$$\mathbb{E}(X^+) := \int_0^\infty x \, \mathrm{d}F(x)$$

in the Riemann–Stieltjes sense, and similarly  $X^-$ .

**Definition 1.4.** *X* has expected value if at least one of  $\mathbb{E}(X^+)$  and  $\mathbb{E}(X^-)$  is finite, and when it does

$$\mathbb{E}(X) := \mathbb{E}(X^+) - \mathbb{E}(X^-).$$

**Definition 1.5.** We say Y stochastically dominates  $X, Y \succeq X$ , if

$$\mathbb{P}(X > t) \leq \mathbb{P}(Y > t), \quad \forall t.$$

Proposition 1.6.

• Linearity.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} |x| f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x < \infty$$

then

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_{\mathbb{D}} x f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

- If X is stochastically dominated by Y then  $\mathbb{E}(X) \leq \mathbb{E}(Y)$ .
- If X and Y are independent, then  $\mathbb{E}(XY) = \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$ .

**Definition 1.7.** The variance of X is given by

$$Var(X) := \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}(X))^2]$$

**Proposition 1.8.** 

- $\operatorname{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X^2) (\mathbb{E}(X))^2$ .
- $Var(cX) = c^2 Var(X)$ .
- If X and Y are independent, then Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y).

**Proposition 1.9.** If  $X \ge 0$  and there exists an at most countable subset  $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$  of isolated points such that  $F_X$  is continuously differentiable on  $[0, \infty) \setminus S$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{x \in S} x \mathbb{P}(X = x) + \int_0^\infty x F_X'(x) \, dx.$$

## 1.4. Probability Inequalities.

**Theorem 1.10** (Markov's Inequality). *If*  $X \ge 0$  *and* c > 0, *then* 

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge c) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}(X)}{c}.$$

(Equality is attained when  $\mathbb{P}(X = 0 \text{ or } X = c) = 1.$ )

**Proof.** Construct

$$Y \coloneqq \begin{cases} c, & x \ge 0 \\ 0, & X < c. \end{cases}$$

Then  $Y \leq X$  and

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = c \cdot \mathbb{P}(X \ge c) \le \mathbb{E}(X).$$

**Theorem 1.11** (Chebychev's Inequality). If c > 0, then

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \ge c) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]}{c^2}$$

for any  $\mu$ .

**Proof.** Apply Markov's inequality to  $(X - \mu)^2$ .

**Theorem 1.12** (Chernoff's Inequality). *If*  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  *and* t > 0, *then* 

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge c) \le e^{-tc} \, \mathbb{E}(e^{tX})$$

and

$$\mathbb{P}(X \le c) \le e^{tc} \, \mathbb{E}(e^{-tX}).$$

**Proof.** Apply Markov's inequality to  $e^{tX}$  and  $e^{-tX}$ .

**Theorem 1.13** (Weak Law of Large Numbers). Let  $X_1, X_2, ...$  be i.i.d. with finite expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then as n goes to infinity,  $\overline{X}_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \mu$ . That is

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\left|\overline{X_n}-\mu\right|>\epsilon\right]\longrightarrow 0.$$

**Proof.** Note that  $\mathbb{E}(\overline{X_n}) = \mu$  and  $Var(\overline{X_n}) = \sigma^2/n$ . Chebyshev's gives

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\overline{X_n} - \mu\right| < \epsilon\right) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{n \cdot \epsilon^2} \longrightarrow 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ .

**Proposition 1.14** (Large Deviations). Let  $X_1, X_2, ...$  be i.i.d. with finite expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Let  $c > \mu$ . Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}\log\mathbb{P}(\overline{X_n}>c)=-\sup_t[tc-\kappa(t)],$$

where  $\kappa(t) = \log \mathbb{E}(e^{tX})$ .

We do not yet have the tools to prove that this is the limit, but we will use Chernoff's inequality to obtain a bound:

**Proof.** From Chernoff's inequality, for any t we have

$$\mathbb{P}(\overline{X_n} \geq c) = \mathbb{P}\left(\sum X_i \geq c \cdot n\right) \leq e^{-tnc} \mathbb{E}\left[e^{t(\sum X_i)}\right] = e^{-tnc + n\kappa(t)},$$

where  $\kappa(t) = \log \mathbb{E}(e^{tX})$ . Thus we have

$$\frac{1}{n}\log \mathbb{P}(\overline{X_n} \ge c) \le -\sup_{t} [tc - \kappa(t)].$$

Remark 1.15.

- $\mathbb{E}[e^{tX}]$  is the moment generating function.
- $\kappa(t)$  is the cumulant generating function.
- $\sup_{t} [tc \kappa(t)]$  is the **Legendre Transform**.

**Definition 1.16.**  $X_n$  converges in distribution to X,  $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} X$ , if

$$F_{X_n}(x) \longrightarrow F_X(x), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Definition 1.17.** The moment generating function of X is

$$M: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow [0, \infty]$$
  
 $t \longmapsto \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}].$ 

**Proposition 1.18.** *Properties of the moment generating function:* 

•  $\mathbb{E}[X^m] = M_X^{(n)}(0)$  when Fubini grants

$$\mathbb{E}\left[e^{tX}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(tX)^n}{n!}\right] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t^n \,\mathbb{E}(X^n)}{n!}.$$

- $\bullet \ M_{cX}(t) = M_X(ct).$
- If X and Y are independent, then

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t) + M_Y(t).$$

• If  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  are i.i.d., then

$$M_{\sum X_i} = \prod M_{X_i}$$
.

•  $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} X$  if and only if  $M_{X_n} \to M_X$  in a neighborhood of 0.

**Theorem 1.19** (Central Limit Theorem). *If*  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  *are i.i.d.,*  $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu$ , and  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$ , then

$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2).$$

The following proof works only when we have enough regularity; it is meant to provide a certain intuition (the general proof needs complex analysis):

**Proof.** We assume  $\mu = 0$  and consider the mgf.

$$M_{\sum X_i/\sqrt{n}}(t) = M_{\sum X_i}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = \left[M_{X_i}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right]^n.$$

We obtain an approximation though Taylor:

$$M_X(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) \approx M_X(0) + \frac{t}{\sqrt{n}} M_X'(0) + \frac{t^2}{n} M_X''(0)$$

Noting that  $M_X'(0) = \mathbb{E}[X] = 0$  and  $M_X''(0) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] = \sigma^2$ , we have

$$M_{\sum X_i/\sqrt{n}}(t) \approx \left[1 + \frac{t^2\sigma^2}{n}\right]^n \longrightarrow e^{t^2\sigma^2}.$$

The last term is precisely the mgf of  $N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

2. Joint Distribution

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# 2.1. Random Vectors and Joint Distributions.

# Proposition 2.1.

•

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{x_n} f(x) \, dx.$$

• If F is continuous and differentiable, then X has density

$$f(X) = \frac{\partial^n F(x)}{\partial x_1 \dots \partial x_n}.$$

• If  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  are independent, then

$$F_X(x) = F_{X_1}(x_1) \dots F_{X_n}(x_n).$$

• If F is differentiable, then

$$f_X(x) = f_{X_1}(x_1) \dots f_{X_n}(x_n),$$

and conversely!

• If  $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$  has density  $f_X$ , then  $X_I$  has density

$$f_I(x_I) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-|I|}} f\left(x_I, x_{S_n \setminus I}\right) \, \mathrm{d}x_{S_n \setminus I},$$

where  $S_n := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  are all the indices. Think "integrating out" the other variables.

#### 2.2. Transformations.

**Definition 2.2.** The **Jacobian** of  $g: G \to H \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , where G and H are open, is given by

$$J_g(y) \coloneqq \det \left[ \frac{\partial g_i}{\partial y_j} \right].$$

If  $X: \Omega \to H \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $h: H \to G \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , where H and F are open, are such that h is one-to-one and differentiable and  $h^{-1}: G \to H$  is differentiable. Then Y := h(X) has density

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} f_X(h^{-1}(y)) \cdot \big| Jh^{-1}(y) \big|, & y \in G \\ 0, & y \notin G. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 2.3.** The Gamma function is given by

$$\Gamma(\lambda) := \int_0^\infty e^{-x} x^{\lambda - 1} \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

**Proposition 2.4.** *Properties:* 

- $\Gamma(1) = 1$ .
- $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$ .
- $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$ .
- $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### 2.3. Conditional distribution. The continuous case:

**Definition 2.5.** We define the **conditional density** as

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) \coloneqq \frac{f_{X|Y}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)},$$

#### 2.4. Covariance and Correlation.

**Definition 2.6.** The **covariance** of random variables *X* and *Y* is

$$Cov(X, Y) = \mathbb{E} ((X - \mu_X) \cdot (Y - \mu_Y)).$$

Their correlation is given by

$$Corr(X, Y) = \frac{Cov(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}.$$

**Proposition 2.7.** *Properties:* 

- $Var(a + bX) = b^2 Var(X)$ .
- Cov(a + bX, c + dY) = bd Cov(X, Y).
- Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2 Cov(X, Y).
- If X and Y are independent, then Cov(X,Y) = 0. But the converse is not true. For example, if  $Z \sim N(0,1)$ , and S and T are random signs (1 or -1), then Cov(SZ,TZ) = 0.

### Theorem 2.8.

• If (X, Y) has density f, then X|Y has density

$$\frac{f(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

• If (X,Y) has a pmf, then X|Y is discrete with pmf

$$\frac{p(x,y)}{p_Y(y)}$$

Note that E(X|Y = y) is a number, and  $\mathbb{E}(X|Y)$  is a random variable.

#### **Proposition 2.9.**

(i) If X and Y are independent, then

$$\mathbb{E}(X|Y) = \mathbb{E}(X)$$
 with probability 1.

(ii) Law of total expectation / Tower law:

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]] = \mathbb{E}[X].$$

(iii)

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)h(Y)|Y] = h(Y)\mathbb{E}(g(X)|Y)$$
 with probability 1.

And

$$\mathbb{E}[X|T(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|T(Y)|Y]]$$
 with probability 1.

(iv) Law of total variations

$$Var(Y) = \mathbb{E}[Var(Y|X)] + Var[\mathbb{E}(Y|X)],$$

where

$$Var(Y|X) := \mathbb{E}(Y^2|X) - (\mathbb{E}(Y|X))^2.$$

2.5. **Rejection Sampling.** If for some constant c we have

$$h(x) \ge c \cdot f(x), \quad \forall x,$$

then we can obtain a sample from distribution with density f using samples from distribution with density h using **rejection sampling**:

- (1) Sample Y from g and U from Uniform(0, 1), with Y and U independent.
- (2) Set X := Y if

$$U \le \frac{c \cdot f(Y)}{h(Y)}$$

and return to (1) otherwise.

Remark 2.10.

- Think sampling on the area under f (as a subset of the area under g).
- Rejection sampling can also be used if

$$f(x) = \frac{g(x)}{N},$$

where N is an unknown constant (e.g., an integral with numerical approximations but no closed form solutions). We need only find h such that

$$h(x) \ge cN \cdot g(x)$$
.

Think

$$h(x) \gg g(x)$$
.

#### 3. STATISTICAL INFERENCE

*Example* 3.1. Modeling lifetime  $T: \Omega \to [0, \infty)$ .

#### **Definition 3.2.**

• The survival function is defined as

$$S: [0, \infty) \longrightarrow [0, 1]$$
$$x \longmapsto \mathbb{P}(T > x) = 1 - F_Y(x).$$

• The failure rate function is defined as

$$h(x) \coloneqq \frac{f(x)}{S(x)}.$$

Remark 3.3.

$$\mathbb{P}(T \leq x + \Delta x | T > x) = \frac{\mathbb{P}[x < T \leq x + \Delta x]}{\mathbb{P}[T > x]} = \frac{F(x + \Delta x) - F(x)}{S(x)} \approx \Delta x \cdot \frac{f(x)}{S(x)} = \Delta x \cdot h(x).$$

Think of an increasing failure rate as "aging."

Given h we can recover f:

$$h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{1 - F(x)} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \log(1 - F(x)).$$

So,

$$\log(1 - F(x)) = -\int_0^x h(t)\mathrm{d}t + C.$$

Since F(0) = 0 we know C = 0. We have

$$s(x) = \exp\left(-\int_0^x h\right)$$

and

$$f(x) = h(x) \exp\left(-\int_0^x h\right).$$

Example 3.4.

• If  $h(x) = \lambda$  is a constant function, we have  $T \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ :

$$f(x) = \lambda \exp\left(-\int_0^x \lambda dt\right) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda x), \quad \forall x > 0.$$

- If h(x) = α + βx with α, β > 0, then T follows the Gompertz distribution.
   If h(x) = λβx<sup>β-1</sup>, then T follows the Weibull distribution.
- 3.1. **Estimating parameters.** We next assume  $T_1, T_2, \dots \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$  and

Remark 3.5. Metrics to evaluate an estimator:

- Bias:  $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\lambda}) \lambda$ .
- Variance:  $Var[\hat{\lambda}]$ .
- Mean Squared Error:  $MSE[\hat{\lambda}] = \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\lambda} \lambda)^2] = Bias^2 + Variance.$

**Definition 3.6.** An estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n$  of  $\theta$  is said to be **consistent** if

$$\hat{\theta}_n \xrightarrow{p} \theta$$
.

That is, if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(\left|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta\right| > \epsilon) = 0.$$

3.1.1. Asymptotic Estimation.

**Definition 3.7** (Method of Moments). Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F$  with n parameters. To estimate the parameters, we equate n (usually the first n) theoretical moments to the *n* corresponding sample moments:

$$\mathbb{E}[X^k] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i^k, \quad 1 \le k \le n.$$

*Example* 3.8. Consider  $T_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ .

- Since  $\mathbb{E}(\overline{T}_n) = 1/\lambda$ , we may use  $\hat{\lambda} := 1/\overline{T}_n$  as an estimator for  $\lambda$ .

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum T_i^2/n\right] = \frac{2}{\lambda^2},$$

we may also use

$$\hat{\lambda}_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2n}{\sum T_i^2}}$$

as an estimator.

Example 3.9.

- Consider  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Uniform}[0, \theta]$ . We have  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \theta/2$ .  $\hat{\theta} := 2\hat{X}$
- Consider  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ . We have  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \alpha/\beta$  and  $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \alpha/\beta^2 + (\alpha/\beta)^2$ . Thus we solve

$$\frac{\hat{\alpha}}{\hat{\beta}} = \overline{X}, \quad \frac{\hat{\alpha}}{\hat{\beta}^2} + \frac{\hat{\alpha}^2}{\hat{\beta}^2} = \frac{\sum X_i^2}{n}.$$

The following theorems help us characterize these estimators.

Theorem 3.10 (Continuous mapping theorem).

- (i) if  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  and g is continuous, then  $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{p} g(X)$ . (ii) If  $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{D}} X$  and g is continuous, then  $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{D}} g(X)$ .

**Lemma 3.11** (Slutsky). If  $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ , where c is a constant, then

$$X_n + Y_n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} X + c$$
,  $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} cX$ .

**Theorem 3.12** (Delta Method). If  $X_n$  is such that

$$\sqrt{n}(X_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

and g is continuously differentiable, then

$$\sqrt{n}(g(X_n) - g(\theta)) \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2[g'(\theta)]^2).$$

Remark 3.13. Intuition: We can write

$$\sqrt{n}(g(X_n) - g(\theta)) = g'(\tilde{\theta}_n)\sqrt{n}(X_n - \theta), \quad \tilde{\theta}_n \in (x_n, \theta).$$

We know that  $g'(\tilde{\theta}_n) \xrightarrow{p} g'(\theta)$  and  $\sqrt{n}(X_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , so Slutsky's gives the desired result.

We can now characterize estimators obtained from the method of moments:

#### **Proposition 3.14.**

- Non-uniqueness: we can obtain multiple estimators.
- Consistency: Law of Large Numbers gives

$$\overline{X} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{E}[X],$$

and the continuous mapping theorem then gives consistency (under certain conditions).

- Asymptotic normality: the Delta Method gives normality (under certain conditions).
- 3.1.2. Estimators for Smaller n. We can obtain the exact distribution of  $\overline{T}_n$ . Since

$$T \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Exponential}(\lambda) = \text{Gamma}(1, \lambda),$$

we know by the properties of gamma distributions that

$$\sum T_i \sim \text{Gamma}(n, \lambda).$$

Again by properties of gamma distributions, we know that the estimator  $\hat{\lambda}_1 := 1/\overline{T}_n$  is biased for small n:

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\lambda}_1] = n \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{\sum T_i}\right] = \frac{n\lambda}{n-1}.$$

The estimator

$$\hat{\lambda}_3 \coloneqq \frac{n-1}{n} \hat{\lambda}_1,$$

then, is unbiased and has smaller variance.

*Remark* 3.15. This is a rare case. Oftentimes, we have instead a tread off between bias and variance.

- 3.2. **Maximum Likelihood Estimator.** The above may be summed up as the following steps:
  - Estimators
  - Evaluations
  - Distribution for estimators (which allows for the construction of probabilistic statements)

Maximum Likelihood estimator accomplishes all the above in a streamlined fashion.

**Definition 3.16.** Let  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} F_{\theta}$ , where  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^k$  is a parameter for the distribution. Let  $f(x, \theta)^1$  be the density or pmf of  $F_{\theta}$ . The **Likelihood** of  $\theta$  given observations  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  is

$$L(\theta) = L_n(\theta) := \prod_{i=1}^n f(X_i, \theta).$$

The **maximum likelihood estimator** is the value at which L obtains its maximum:

$$\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}_n \coloneqq \arg\max_{\theta} L(\theta).$$

Remark 3.17. It is often easier to work with the log likelihood:

$$\ell(\theta) = \ell_n(\theta) := \log L(\theta)$$
.

Remark 3.18.

- Might be non-unique. Consider  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Uniform}(\theta, \theta + 1)$ .
- Might not exist. Consider  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  iid with density

$$f(x, \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} + \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \right].$$

Think  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  with probability 1/2 and  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  with probability 1/2. The likelihood function is unbounded:

$$\max_{\mu,\sigma^2} L(\mu,\sigma^2) \ge \max_{\sigma} L(X_1,\sigma^2) \ge \frac{1}{2^n} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \right] \prod_{k=1}^n e^{-X_1^2/2}.$$

#### 3.3. Likelihood Theory.

**Definition 3.19 (Score Function).** 

$$\dot{\ell}_n(\theta) \coloneqq \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ell_n(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta}(x_i, \theta)}{f(x_i, \theta)} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f'(x_i, \theta)}{f(x_i, \theta)}.$$

Remark 3.20. We find the MLE by setting the score function to 0.

**Proposition 3.21.** *If*  $f(x, \theta)$  *has common support, that is, if*  $\{x : f(x, \theta) > 0\}$  *doe s not depend on*  $\theta$ *, then* 

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta_0} \left[ \frac{L_n(\theta)}{L_n(\theta_0)} \right] = 1.$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Some also write  $f_{\theta}(x)$  or  $f(x|\theta)$ .

Equivalently,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\exp\left(\ell_n(\theta) - \ell_n(\theta_0)\right)\right] = 1.$$

**Proposition 3.22.** If the density functions are smooth, then

(a) 
$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta}\left[\dot{\ell}_n(\theta)\right] = 0.$$

$$(b) - \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \left[ \dot{\ell}_n(\theta) \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \dot{\ell}_n(\theta)^2 \right].$$

**Definition 3.23 (Fisher Information).** 

$$I(\theta) := \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[\dot{\ell}(\theta)^2] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[-\ddot{\ell}(\theta)].$$

That is,

$$I(\theta) \coloneqq \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(X, \theta)\right)^{2}\right] = -\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \theta^{2}} \log f(X, \theta)\right],$$

where the expectation is taken with respect to  $X \sim f(x, \theta)$ .

Remark 3.24. Intuitively, the more variation there is in the density functions  $f(x, \theta)$  as we vary  $\theta$ , the more information we can get from data. Fisher information measures the variation in density functions by looking at its derivative.

**Theorem 3.25** (Cramér–Rao Inequality). Let  $T(X_n)$  be any unbiased estimator for  $g(\theta)$ . Then

$$\operatorname{Var}[T(X_n)] \ge \frac{[g'(\theta)]^2}{nI(\theta)}.$$

Remark 3.26. The Cramér–Rao lower bound is attained if and only if

$$Corr(\hat{\theta}(X), \dot{\ell}(X)) = 1.$$

By Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, this is equivalent to  $\hat{\theta}(X)$  and  $\dot{\ell}(X)$  being linearly related random variables. That is,

$$\dot{\ell}(\theta) = \alpha(\theta)\hat{\theta}(X) + \beta(\theta)$$

for functions  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  that do not depend on X.

**Proposition 3.27.** Under the regularity conditions in the Cramér–Rao inequality, there exists an unbiased estimator  $\hat{\theta}(X)$  of  $\theta$  whose variance attains the Cramér–Rao lower bound if and only if the score can be expressed in the form

$$\dot{\ell}(\theta) = I(\theta) \left\{ \hat{\theta}(X) - \theta \right\},\,$$

or, equivalently, if and only if the function

$$\frac{\dot{\ell}(\theta)}{I(\theta)} + \theta$$

does not depend on  $\theta$ .

**Theorem 3.28** (Fisher). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} f(x|\theta_0)$ , with f satisfying certain smoothness conditions. As  $n \to \infty$ , we have

$$\sqrt{nI(\theta_0)} \cdot (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) \xrightarrow{\mathscr{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

and

$$\sqrt{nI(\hat{\theta})} \cdot (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

Remark 3.29. One may also think

$$\hat{\theta} \approx \mathcal{N}\left(\theta_0, \frac{1}{nI(\theta_0)}\right).$$

**Proposition 3.30.** Assumptions:

- Common support:  $\{x: f(x,\theta) > 0\}$  does not depend on x.
- Smoothness of densities.
- Distinct densities: if  $\theta_1 \neq \theta_2$  then  $f(x, \theta_1) \neq f(x, \theta_2)$ .

Properties of maximal likelihood estimators under the above assumptions:

- consistency,
- asymptotic normality,
- has known and optimal asymptotic variance (efficiency). That is, it attains the Cramér–Rao bound.
- Invariance in the following sense:

**Theorem 3.31.** If  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is an MLE of  $\theta$ , then  $\hat{\tau}_n := g(\hat{\theta}_n)$  is an MLE of  $g(\theta)$ .

## 3.4. Jensen Inequality.

**Theorem 3.32.** If  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex and X is a random variable such that  $\mathbb{E}|X| < \infty$ , then

$$f(\mathbb{E} X) \leq \mathbb{E} f(X)$$
.

**Proof.** From the convexity of f we know  $f(x) \ge f(y) + f'(y)(x - y)$  for any x and y. Setting  $y = \mu =: \mathbb{E} X$  gives

$$f(X) \ge f(\mu) + f'(\mu)(X - \mu), \quad \forall x, y.$$

Taking expectation on both sides gives the desired result.

- 3.4.1. Applications of Jensen Inequality.
  - If f is concave, then  $f(\mathbb{E} X) \ge \mathbb{E} f(X)$ .
  - The convex function  $x \mapsto x^2$  and the concave function  $x \mapsto \log x$  give two special cases:

$$(\mathbb{E} X)^2 \le \mathbb{E} X^2$$
,  $\log \mathbb{E} X \ge \mathbb{E} \log X$ .

• If  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n > 0$  and  $p_i \ge 0$  such that  $\sum p_i = 1$ , then

$$\prod x_i^{p_i} \le \sum p_i x_i.$$

Remark 3.33. When  $p_i = 1/n$ , this result reduces to the geometric meanarithmetic mean equality.

**Proof.** Let X be a discrete variable such that  $\mathbb{P}(X = x_i) = p_i$ . Then

$$\sum p_i \log x_i = \mathbb{E} \log X \leq \log \mathbb{E} X \leq \sum p_i x_i.$$

Taking exp on both sides gives the desired result.

• Hölder's inequality: If  $X, Y \ge 0$  are random variables and p, q > 0 are such that 1/p + 1/q = 1, then

$$\mathbb{E}(XY) \leq (\mathbb{E}\,X^p)^{1/p} \cdot (\mathbb{E}\,X^q)^{1/q} \; .$$

**Proof.** If  $\mathbb{E} X^p = \mathbb{E} X^q = 1$ , then

$$XY = (X^p)^{1/p} (Y^q)^{1/q} \leq \frac{1}{p} X^p + \frac{1}{q} X^q,$$

where the last inequality follows from the previous result. Taking expectation on both sides then gives  $\mathbb{E}[XY] \leq \mathbb{E} X^p \mathbb{E} Y^q$ .

For the general case, normalize by setting

$$\tilde{X} \coloneqq \frac{X}{(\mathbb{E} X)^{1/p}}, \quad \tilde{Y} \coloneqq \frac{Y}{(\mathbb{E} Y)^{1/q}}.$$

• Cauchy Inequality: Taking p = q = 2 in Hölder gives

$$\mathbb{E}|XY| \le \sqrt{\mathbb{E}X^2}\sqrt{\mathbb{E}Y^2}.$$

• The consistency of likelihood.

#### 3.5. Multivariate Normal.

**Definition 3.34.** The random vector  $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_k)$  is said to follow a **multivariate normal distribution** if for each  $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $a^{\mathsf{T}}x$  is normal. We write

- $\mu = \mathbb{E} X \in \mathbb{R}^k$ .
- $\Sigma = \operatorname{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}\left[(X \mu)(X \mu)^{\mathsf{T}}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{2k}$ .

#### **Proposition 3.35.**

• If  $\Sigma$  is positive definite, then X has density

$$f(X) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2} \det(\Sigma)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(X - \mu)^{\mathsf{T}} \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu)\right).$$

- If  $(X_1, X_2)$  is bivariate normal and  $Cov(X_1, X_2) = 0$ , then  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent.
- If  $U \sim N_k(\mu, \Sigma)$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}^p$ , and B is a  $p \times k$  matrix, then

$$V = a + BU \sim N_p(a + B\mu, B\Sigma B^{\mathsf{T}}).$$

### APPENDIX A: COMMON DISTRIBUTIONS

Distribution	Support	PMF	Mean	Variance
Binomial $(n, p)$	$\{0, 1, 2, \ldots, n\}$	$\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$	np	np(1-p)
Geometric $(p)$	$\{1,2,3,\ldots\}$	$(1-p)^{x-1}p$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{1-p}{p^2}$
Poisson( $\lambda$ )	$\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$	$\frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$	λ	λ

Table 1. Key Properties of Discrete Distributions

Distribution	Support	PDF	Mean	Variance
Uniform $(a, b)$	[a,b]	$\frac{1}{b-a}$	$\frac{a+b}{2}$	$\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$
$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$	$(-\infty,\infty)$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$	$\mu$	$\sigma^2$
Exponential( $\lambda$ )	$[0,\infty)$	$\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$	$\frac{1}{\lambda}$	$\frac{1}{\lambda^2}$
$Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$	$(0,\infty)$	$\frac{\beta^{\alpha} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\beta x}}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$	$\frac{lpha}{eta}$	$\frac{lpha}{eta^2}$
Beta $(\alpha, \beta)$	(0, 1)	$\frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha,\beta)}$	$\frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$	$\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$

Table 2. Key Properties of Continuous Distributions

# **Proposition 3.36.** Properties of Exponential distribution:

(i) The "memoryless" property:

$$\mathbb{P}(T \le x + y | T > x) = \mathbb{P}(T \le y).$$

(ii) Exponential( $\lambda$ ) = Gamma(1,  $\lambda$ ).

# **Proposition 3.37.** Properties of Gamma distribution:

(i) If 
$$X_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(\alpha_i, \beta)$$
 for  $i = 1, 2, ..., N$ , then

$$\sum X_i \sim \text{Gamma}\left(\sum \alpha_i, \beta\right).$$

(ii) If  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $\alpha > 1$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}\left[1/X\right] = \frac{\beta}{\alpha - 1}.$$

Proof.

(i) Note that

$$\mathbb{E}\left[e^{tX_i}\right] = \left(1 - \frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{-\alpha_i}, \quad \forall t < \beta.$$

We then have

$$M_{\sum X_i}(t) = \prod M_{X_i}(t) = \left(1 - \frac{t}{\beta}\right)^{-\sum \alpha_i}.$$

(ii) We have

$$\mathbb{E}[1/X] = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\beta x} \, \mathrm{d}x,$$

which we can integrate by reducing to the  $\Gamma$  function.