

# 1 General definitions

## 1.1 Basic

- Sample variance

$$S_X^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \quad (1.1)$$

- Sample correlation coefficient

$$r_{X,Y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{(n-1)\sqrt{(S_X^2 S_Y^2)}} \quad (1.2)$$

- QQ-plot for cumulative distribution function  $F$  is the set of points  $(q_F(\frac{i}{n+1}), x_{(i)})$ , where  $q_F(\cdot)$  is the quantile function for the distribution.
- Mean Squared Error (MSE)

$$\text{MSE}(\theta; T(X), g(\theta)) = \mathbb{E}_\theta (T(X) - g(\theta))^2 \quad (1.3)$$

- Bias-variance decomposition

$$\text{MSE}(\theta; T(X)) = \text{var}_\theta T + (\mathbb{E}_\theta T(X) - g(\theta))^2 \quad (1.4)$$

- Empirical distribution function

$$\hat{F}_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x) \quad (1.5)$$

## 1.2 $k$ -th order statistic $X_{(k)}$

$X_{(k)}$  —  $k$ -th order statistic distribution for  $n$  i.i.d. variables from continuous distribution  $F$ .

$$f_{(k)}(x) = \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} F(x)^{k-1} (1-F(x))^{n-k} f(x) \quad (1.6)$$

$$F_{(k)}(x) = \sum_{j=k}^n \binom{n}{j} F(x)^j (1-F(x))^{n-j} \quad (1.7)$$

$$\mathbb{E}F(X_{(k)}) = \frac{k}{n+1} \quad (1.8)$$

### 1.3 Time Series

Time series below are assumed to be *weakly stationary* in the following sense:

- Stochastic time series  $X_t(\omega)$  are called *weakly stationary*, if  $\mathbb{E}X_t$  and  $\mathbf{cov}(X_t, X_s)$  are independent of time shifts; in particular, its first and second moments exist.
- For a weakly stationary time series  $X_t$ , the following functions are defined:

– *Autocovariance function*:

$$\gamma_X(h) = \mathbb{E}(X_{t+h}, X_t) \quad (1.9)$$

– *Autocorrelation function*

$$\rho_X(h) = \frac{\gamma_X(h)}{\gamma_X(0)} \quad (1.10)$$

– *Partial autocorrelation function*  $\varphi(h)$  is defined as the coefficient of the regression of  $X_{t+h}$  on  $X_t$  when controlled for constant and  $X_{t+1}, \dots, X_{t+h-1}$  (see Proposition 3.23). In particular,  $\varphi(0) = 1$  and  $\varphi(1) = \rho(1)$

## 2 Important distributions

- Student's  $t$ -distribution  $t_\nu$ ,  $\nu \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$

– pdf

$$\frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu+1}{2})}{\sqrt{\pi\nu} \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{\nu}\right)^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}} \quad (2.1)$$

– cdf

$$\frac{1}{2} + x \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right) \frac{{}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\nu+1}{2}; \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{x^2}{\nu}\right)}{\sqrt{\pi\nu} \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} \quad (2.2)$$

–  $t$ -distribution with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  degrees of freedom arises from the ratio of independent  $N(0, 1)$ - and  $\chi_n^2$ -distributions

- Poisson distribution  $\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ ,  $\lambda > 0$ 
  - $\lambda$  is the average number of events per interval
  - pdf

$$p_\lambda(k) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \quad (2.3)$$

- Geometric distribution  $G(\theta)$ ,  $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$ 
  - pdf

$$f_\theta(k) = (1 - \theta)^{1-k} \theta \quad (2.4)$$

- cdf

$$F_\theta(k) = 1 - (1 - \theta)^k \quad (2.5)$$

- Exponential distribution  $F(x; \lambda)$

- pdf

$$f_\lambda(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \quad (2.6)$$

- cdf

$$F_\lambda(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x} \quad (2.7)$$

- $\mathbb{E}_\lambda X = 1/\lambda$

- Beta distribution  $B(\alpha, \beta)$ ,  $\alpha, \beta > 0$

- pdf

$$f_{\alpha, \beta}(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}, \quad B(\alpha, \beta) \equiv \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)} \quad (2.8)$$

- Weibull distribution

- $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$  are the “shape” and “inverse scale” parameters.

- pdf

$$f_{\lambda, \alpha}(x) = \lambda^\alpha \alpha x^{\alpha-1} e^{-(\lambda x)^\alpha} \quad (2.9)$$

- cdf

$$F_{\lambda, \alpha}(x) = 1 - e^{-(\lambda x)^\alpha} \quad (2.10)$$

- Gamma distribution  $\Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$ ,  $\alpha > 0, \lambda > 0$

–  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$  are known as “shape” and “inverse scale” parameters.

– pdf

$$f_{\alpha,\lambda}(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1} \lambda^\alpha e^{-\lambda x}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \quad (2.11)$$

– cdf (where  $\gamma(s, x) = \int_0^x t^{s-1} e^{-t} dt$  — is the “incomplete gamma function”)

$$F_{\alpha,\lambda}(x) = \frac{\gamma(\alpha, x\lambda)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \quad (2.12)$$

**Definition 2.1.** A family of probability densities  $p_\theta$  that depends on a parameter  $\theta$  is called a  $k$ -dimensional exponential family if there exist functions  $c(\theta)$ ,  $h(x)$ ,  $Q_j(\theta)$ , and  $V_j(x)$  such that

$$p_\theta(x) = c(\theta)h(x)e^{\sum_{j=1}^k Q_j(\theta)V_j(x)}$$

## 3 Fundamental results

### 3.1 Basic statistics

**Theorem 3.1.** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be an i.i.d. random variables from the  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  distribution, then

1.  $\bar{X}$  is  $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$  distributed;
2.  $(n-1)S_X^2/\sigma^2$  is  $\chi_{n-1}^2$ -distributed (see 1.1);
3.  $\bar{X}$  and  $S_X^2$  are independent;
4.  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)/\sqrt{S_X^2}$  has the  $t_{n-1}$ -distribution.

*Proof.*  $\|X\|^2 - n\bar{X}^2 = (n-1)S_X^2$

**Definition 3.2.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  and  $A^\sim \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ . Consider a list of conditions:

1.  $AA^\sim A = A$
2.  $A^\sim AA^\sim = A^\sim$
3.  $(AA^\sim)^* = AA^\sim$

$$4. (A \sim A)^* = A \sim A$$

If  $A \sim$  satisfies the first condition, then it is a *generalized inverse* of  $A$ . If it satisfies the first two conditions, then it is a *reflexive generalized inverse* of  $A$ . If  $A$  satisfies all four conditions the it is called the *Moore-Penrose inverse*.

**Proposition 3.3.** *The space of generalized inverse matrices to a given matrix has dimension  $2 \operatorname{rk} A + \operatorname{corank} A$ . It is characterized by two properties:*

- *The restriction of  $A \sim$  on  $\operatorname{Im} A$  is an arbitrary lift of the inverse of induced isomorphism on the quotient by  $\operatorname{Ker} A$ .*
- *The image of  $A \sim$  equals  $A \sim \operatorname{Im} A$ .*

**Theorem 3.4.** *Let  $X \sim N(\mu_X, \mathbb{V}_X)$  be a  $k$ -dimensional random vector, where  $\mathbb{V}_X$  might be singular. Then for any linear condition of the form  $BX = b$  and any linear transformation  $AX$ , conditional distributions of  $X$  and  $AX$  are given by the following formulae:*

$$\begin{aligned} f(X|BX) &\sim N(\mu_X + \mathbb{V}_X B^T (B \mathbb{V}_X B^T)^{\sim} (BX - B\mu_X), \\ &\quad \mathbb{V}_X - \mathbb{V}_X B^T (B \mathbb{V}_X B^T)^{\sim} B \mathbb{V}_X) \\ f(AX|BX) &\sim N(A\mu_X + A \mathbb{V}_X B^T (B \mathbb{V}_X B^T)^{\sim} (BX - B\mu_X), \\ &\quad A \mathbb{V}_X A^T - A \mathbb{V}_X B^T (B \mathbb{V}_X B^T)^{\sim} B \mathbb{V}_X A^T) \end{aligned}$$

where  $A \sim$  denotes reflexive generalized inverse of matrix  $A$ .

*Proof.* Follows from the proposition below.

**Proposition 3.5.** *Let  $Y$  be a Gaussian random vector such that*

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} V_{11} & V_{12} \\ V_{21} & V_{22} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

*Then  $Y_1$  conditional on  $Y_2$  is Gaussian:*

$$f(Y_1|Y_2) \sim N(V_{12} V_{22}^{\sim} Y_2, V_{11} - V_{12} V_{22}^{\sim} V_{21})$$

**Example 3.6.** Let

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

Then

$$f(y|x) \sim N(\rho x, 1 - \rho^2)$$

*Proof of Proposition 3.5.* We only consider the case with  $\mathbb{V}(Y)$  nonsingular. It is generalized in a straightforward way, but does not admit straightforward matrix notation for Gaussian distributions.

By definition,

$$f(Y_1|Y_2 = y_2) = \frac{f(Y_1, y_2)}{\int_{Y_2=y_2} f(Y_1, y_2) dY_1} \quad (3.1)$$

It is enough to show that

$$Y^T \mathbb{V}(Y)^{-1} Y = (Y_1 - V_{12} V_{22}^{-1})^T (V_{11} - V_{12} V_{22}^{-1} V_{21})^{-1} (Y_1 - V_{12} V_{22}^{-1}) + C(Y_2) \quad (3.2)$$

where  $C(Y_2)$  is a term that does not depend on  $Y_1$ . Note that in (3.1) the part of the exponential in Gaussian density depending on  $C(Y_2)$  cancels out. After the cancellation, we are left with the required density up to a multiplicative constant. The latter has to have correct magnitude so that the whole expression corresponds to a density function; alternatively it can be computed directly.

The equation (3.2) is a direct consequence of the inversion formula for  $2 \times 2$  block matrix.

## 3.2 Reminder on different convergence types

**Definition 3.7.** Let  $X_n$  be a sequence of random variables defined on the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$ :

- $X_n$  is said to converge to  $X$  *almost surely* if  $\mathbb{P}(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X) = 1$
- convergence in probability
- weak convergence
- $L_p$ -convergence

**Theorem 3.8.** *If a sequence of random variables converges almost surely then it converges in probability.*

**Proposition 3.9.** *Assume  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{E}|X_n| < \infty$ , then  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} X_n$  is defined as an almost sure limit and:*

$$\mathbb{E} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} X_n = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{E} X_n$$

*Proof.* Established using Monotone and Dominated Convergence theorems applied to partial sums of random variables.

**Proposition 3.10.** *Let  $f(x)$  be a function of period  $T$  that is absolutely integrable on the interval  $[-T/2, T/2]$ . Define its Fourier coefficients as follows:*

$$a_k = \frac{2}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(x) \cos \frac{2\pi kx}{T} dx, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

$$b_k = \frac{2}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(x) \sin \frac{2\pi kx}{T} dx, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

*Then the partial sum  $S_n(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} a_0/2 + \sum_{k=1}^n (a_k \cos \frac{2\pi kx}{T} + b_k \sin \frac{2\pi kx}{T})$  of the Fourier series admits an integral presentation:*

$$S_n(x) = \frac{2}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(x+u) \frac{\sin(n + \frac{1}{2}) \frac{2\pi u}{T}}{\sin \frac{\pi u}{T}} du$$

*Remark:* Note that the coefficient  $a_0$  defined by the formulas above is twice the coefficient to of the constant function in Fourier series (as the norm of a sine wave is twice less).

**Theorem 3.11.** *Let  $f(x)$  be a function of period  $T$  that is absolutely integrable on the interval  $[-T/2, T/2]$ .*

1. *At a point of continuity where  $f(x)$  has a right and a left derivative, the Fourier series converge absolutely to the value  $f(x)$*
2. *If  $f(x)$  is continuous and its derivative  $f'(x)$  is square integrable, then the Fourier series converge to  $f(x)$  absolutely and uniformly*
3. *If  $f(x)$  is continuous, then the Fourier series are uniformly summable to  $f(x)$  by the method of Cesàro*

**Theorem 3.12.** *If series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (|a_k| + |b_k|)$  are absolutely summable then the associated trigonometric series*

$$\frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( a_k \cos \frac{2\pi kx}{T} + b_k \sin \frac{2\pi kx}{T} \right)$$

*converges absolutely and uniformly to a continuous periodic function of period  $T$  of which it is a Fourier series*

**Proposition 3.13.** Let  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$  be an element of  $l^1(\mathbb{Z})$ , and let  $(Z_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  be a sequence of random variables satisfying  $\mathbb{E}|Z_t| < C_1 \forall t$  for some constant  $C_1$ . Then the convolution

$$X_t = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n Z_{t-n}$$

is defined almost surely  $\forall t \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Moreover, if there exists a constant such that  $\mathbb{E}Z_t^2 < C_2 \forall t$ , then  $X_t$  is also a limit in  $L^2$ -norm and  $\mathbb{E}X_t^2 \leq |a_n|_1^2 C_2$ .

**Theorem 3.14.** Let  $(X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \in L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P}, \mathbb{C}^{d_X})$  and  $(Y_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \in L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P}, \mathbb{C}^{d_Y})$ . Let  $(a_m)_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} \in l^1(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{C}^{d'_X \times d_X})$  and  $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \in l^1(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{C}^{d'_Y \times d_Y})$ . Then

1. Convolutions  $(a * X)_t$  and  $(b * Y)_t$  are well-defined elements of  $L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P}, \mathbb{C}^{d'_X})$  and  $L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P}, \mathbb{C}^{d'_Y})$ .

2.

$$\gamma_{a * X, b * Y}(h) = \sum_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_m \gamma_{X, Y}(h + n - m) \bar{b}_n^T$$

**Corollary 3.15.** Let  $(a_m), (b_n) \in l^1(\mathbb{Z})$  and  $(e_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  be a sequence of uncorrelated  $(0, \sigma^2)$  random variables. Denote Let  $X_t = (a * e)_t$ ,  $Y_t = (b * X)_t$ . Then

1.

$$\gamma_X(h) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n a_{n-h} \sigma^2$$

2.

$$\gamma_Y(h) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} c_n c_{n-h} \sigma^2, \quad (3.3)$$

where  $c_n = (a * b)_n$ .

**Theorem 3.16.** Let  $(a_m) \in l^1(\mathbb{Z})$ ,  $(b_n) \in l^2(\mathbb{Z})$  and  $(e_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  be a sequence of uncorrelated  $(0, \sigma^2)$  random variables. Denote  $X_t = (a * e)_t$ , then

1. For each  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$  random variable  $Y_t$  defined as  $L_2$ -limit of the sequence  $\sum_{n=-N}^N b_n X_{t-n}$  is well defined.

2. Formula (3.3) holds for  $Y_t$ .

**Corollary 3.17.** For  $(b_n) \in l^2(\mathbb{Z})$  the sequence  $(b * e)_t$  is defined in  $L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P})$

**Theorem 3.18.** Conclusions of Theorem 3.16 hold for  $(a_m) \in l^2(\mathbb{Z})$ ,  $(b_n) \in l^1(\mathbb{Z})$



### 3.3 Time Series

**Proposition 3.19.** *Given the difference equation of order  $n$ :*

$$y_t + a_1 y_{t-1} + a_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + a_n y_{t-n} = r_t, \quad t = n, n+1, \dots \quad (3.4)$$

*The solution  $(y_n)_{n=0}^\infty$  can be expressed in the form:*

$$y_t = \sum_{i=0}^t w_i r_{t-i}, \quad t = 0, 1, \dots$$

*with  $w_i \equiv 0$  for  $i < 0$ , and satisfying the homogeneous difference equation of  $(y_t)$ :*

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a_i w_{t-i} = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots \quad (3.5)$$

*Proof.* Using recursive formula (3.4) for  $y_t$ , any element of the sequence can be written in the form:

$$y_t = \sum_{i=0}^t w_i^{(t)} r_{t-i}$$

for some  $w_i^{(t)}$  with  $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ ,  $0 \leq i \leq t$ . Using inductive argument, we show that

1.  $w_i^{(t)} \equiv w_i$  for some constant depending on  $i$  only
2. The sequence  $w_i$  satisfies equation (3.5)

Indeed, from the equation 3.4 it is immediate to see that  $w_0 = 1$  and  $w_1 = -a_1$ . Assuming that the pair of statements above is shown for  $s < t$ , write:

$$y_t = r_t - \sum_{k=0}^n a_k^{(t)} y_{t-k} = r_t - \sum_{k=1}^t a_k \sum_{j=0}^{t-k} w_j r_{t-k-j} \quad (3.6)$$

By definition, we set  $w_t$  to be the coefficient of  $r_0$ , that is,  $w_t = -\sum_{i=1}^n a_i w_{t-i}$ . Moreover, by rearranging terms in 3.6, we get:

$$y_t = - \sum_{j=0}^t r_j \sum_{k=1}^{t-j} a_k w_{t-j-k},$$

it follows that the coefficient  $w_{t-j}^{(t)}$  of  $r_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, t$ , is equal to  $w_{t-j}$  by induction assumption and it concludes the proof.

**Theorem 3.20.** 1. Let  $X_t$  be an  $AR(p)$  process given by

$$X_t + \sum_{j=0}^p a_j X_{t-j} = e_t,$$

where  $(e_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  is a sequence of uncorrelated  $(0, \sigma^2)$  random variables. Suppose that all roots of the polynomial

$$m^p + \sum_{j=0}^p a_j m^{p-j}$$

have magnitude less than 1. Then  $X_t$  admits an infinite MA-presentation  $X_t = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} w_j e_{t-j}$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} w_0 &= 1 \\ w_j + \sum_{i=1}^j a_i w_{j-i} &= 0, \quad j = 1, \dots, p-1 \\ w_j + \sum_{i=1}^p a_i w_{j-i} &= 0, \quad j = p, p+1, \dots \end{aligned}$$

2. Let  $X_t$  be an  $MA(q)$  process given by

$$X_t = e_t + \sum_{j=0}^q b_j e_{t-j}$$

where  $(e_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  is a sequence of uncorrelated  $(0, \sigma^2)$  random variables. Suppose that all roots of the polynomial

$$m^p + \sum_{j=0}^q b_j m^{q-j}$$

have magnitude less than 1. Then  $X_t$  admits an infinite AR-presentation

$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} c_j X_{t-j} = e_t$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= 1 \\ c_j + \sum_{i=1}^j b_i c_{j-i} &= 0, \quad j = 1, \dots, q-1 \\ c_j + \sum_{i=1}^p b_i c_{j-i} &= 0, \quad j = q, q+1, \dots \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 3.21.** *Let  $X_t$  be an  $AR(p)$  process satisfying conditions of Theorem 3.20. Then the partial autocorrelation function  $\varphi(h) = 0$  for  $h > p$*

*Proof.* By definition,  $\varphi(h)$  is the correlation between the  $X_{t-h}$  and the residual obtained from the regression of  $X_t$  on  $X_{t-1}, \dots, X_{t-h+1}$ . The latter is  $e_t$  and the result follows.

**Proposition 3.22.** *Let  $X_t$  be an  $AR(p)$  process satisfying conditions of Theorem 3.20. Then autocovariance function  $\gamma(h)$  satisfies:*

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(0) + a_1 \gamma(1) + \dots + a_p \gamma(p) &= \sigma^2 \\ \gamma(h) + a_1 \gamma(h-1) + \dots + a_p \gamma(h-p) &= 0, \quad h > 0 \end{aligned}$$

*Remark:* this result allows one to express  $\gamma(0), \dots, \gamma(p)$  through the coefficients  $a_1, \dots, a_p$  and vice versa.

**Proposition 3.23.** *Let  $X_t$  be weakly stationary time series:*

1. *The partial autocorrelation coefficient  $\varphi(h)$  equals  $\theta_{hh}$  in the linear regression:*

$$X_{t+h} = \theta_{0h} + \theta_{1h} X_{t+h-1} + \dots + \theta_{hh} X_t + a_{ht}$$

2. *Let  $\rho_{t+h,t,(t+1,\dots,t+h-1)}$  denote the partial correlation of  $X_{t+h}$  and  $X_t$  when controlled for  $X_{t+1}, \dots, X_{t+h-1}$ . The squared norm of the residual term in the regression above equals:*

$$\mathbb{E}(a_{ht}^2) = \gamma(0) \prod_{i=1}^h (1 - \rho_{t+h,t+i-1,(t+i,\dots,t+h-1)}^2)$$

*Proof.* These statements follow from basic Euclidian geometry. Denote by  $P$  the projection onto the subspace spanned by  $X_{t+1}, \dots, X_{t+h-1}$ . Now consider sequentially orthogonal decompositions  $X_{t+h} = P(X_{t+h}) + (1-P)(X_{t+h})$  and look at the component of the second summand along  $(1-P)(X_{t+i})$ .

**Proposition 3.24.** Let  $(Y_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  be a sequence of elements in  $L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P}, \mathbb{C})$ , denote  $\mathbf{Y}_n \equiv (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ . Let  $\hat{Y}_{n+s}(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \equiv \mathbf{Y}_n b_{n,s}$ ,  $b_{n,s} \in \mathbb{C}^n$  be a linear predictor minimizing mean squared error

$$\tau_{n,s}^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{MSE} \left( Y_{n+s}, \hat{Y}_{n+s}(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \right) \equiv \mathbb{E} \left\{ \|Y_{n+s} - \hat{Y}_{n+s}\|^2 \right\}$$

Then  $b_{n,s} = (\mathbb{V}_{n,n})^+ V_{n,s}$  is a solution, where

$$\begin{aligned} V_{n,s} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E} \left( \mathbf{Y}_n^T Y_{n+s} \right) \\ \mathbb{V}_{n,n} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E} \left( \mathbf{Y}_n^T \mathbf{Y}_n \right) \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, MSE is given by:

$$\tau_{n,s}^2 = \mathbb{V}(Y_{n+s}) - b_{n,s}^T V_{n,s} = \mathbb{V}(Y_{n+s}) - V_{n,s}^T \mathbb{V}_{n,n}^+ V_{n,s}$$

*Proof.* Follows from standard linear regression theory.

**Definition 3.25.** A time-series is *nonsingular* (regular, nondeterministic) if the sequence of mean squared errors of one-period prediction  $\tau_{n,1}^2$  is bounded away from zero. A time series is *singular* (deterministic) if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tau_{n,1} = 0$$

**Theorem 3.26.** Let  $Y_t, b_{n,s}$  and  $\tau_{n,s}$  be as defined in Proposition 3.24 and assume that  $Y_t$  is weakly stationary, nondeterministic. Denote the components of  $b_{n,s}$  by  $b_{n,s,i}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  so that

$$\hat{Y}_{n+s}(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n b_{n,s,i} Y_i$$

Then the following recursive relations take place:

1.

$$b_{n,s,1} = \tau_{n-1,1}^{-2} \left( \gamma(n+s-1) - \sum_{i=1}^n b_{n-1,s,i} \gamma(n+s-1-i) \right)$$

2.  $\tau_{n,s}^2 = \tau_{n-1,s}^2 - b_{n,s,1} \tau_{n-1,1}^2$

$$3. \begin{pmatrix} b_{n,s,2} \\ b_{n,s,3} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n,s,n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{n-1,s,2} \\ b_{n-1,s,3} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1,s,n} \end{pmatrix} - b_{n,s,1} \begin{pmatrix} b_{n-1,1,n-1} \\ b_{n-1,1,n-2} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n-1,1,1} \end{pmatrix}$$

*Remark.* Note that one-step prediction terms,  $\tau_{n-1,1}$  and  $b_{n-1,1}$ , appear in the recursion, and the components of the last vector are reversed.

**Theorem 3.27.** (Gram-Schmidt) *Let  $(Y_t)_{t \in \mathbb{Z}}$  from  $L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{P}, \mathbb{C})$  be a zero-mean, stationary, nondeterministic time series.*

*Then one can write  $Y_t = \sum_{i=1}^t c_{t,i} Z_i$  where*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} Z_{t,i} &= 0 \\ \mathbb{E}(Z_{t,i} Z_{t,j}) &= \delta_{ij} \kappa_i^2 \\ c_{t,1} &= \kappa_1^{-2} \gamma_Y(t-1) \\ c_{t,i} &= \kappa_i^{-2} \left( \gamma_Y(t-i) - \sum_{j < i} c_{t,j} c_{i,j} \kappa_i^2 \right) \\ \kappa_t^2 &= \gamma_Y(0) - \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} c_{t,i}^2 \kappa_i^2 \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* This is a result of direct application of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization algorithm to the sequence  $Y_1, \dots, Y_t$ . Note that the process can be generalized to vector-valued processes.

**Theorem 3.28.** *The real valued function  $\rho(h)$  is the correlation function of a real valued stationary time series  $X_t(\omega)$  with index set  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$  if and only if it is representable in the form*

$$\rho(h) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{ihx} dG(x),$$

where  $G(x)$  is a symmetric distribution function

**Theorem 3.29.** *Let the correlation function  $\rho(h)$  of a stationary time series be absolutely summable. Then there exists a continuous function  $f(\omega)$  such that.*

$$1. \rho(h) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\omega) \cos \omega h d\omega$$

2.  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\omega) d\omega = 1$
3.  $f(\omega) \geq 0$
4.  $f(\omega)$  is an even function

### 3.4 Estimator convergence via information matrix

**Definition 3.30.** Let  $X$  be a random variable defined on probability space  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P}_\theta)$ ,  $\theta \in \Theta$ . Suppose that the likelihood function  $\theta \mapsto \ell_\theta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \log p_\theta$  is differentiable for all  $x \in \Omega$ . The gradient

$$\dot{\ell}_\theta(x) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ell_\theta(x)$$

is called the *score function*. The *Fisher information* is defined as the matrix

$$i_\theta = \mathbb{V}_\theta \left( \dot{\ell}_\theta(X) \right)$$

**Theorem 3.31.** Suppose that  $\Theta$  is compact and convex and that  $\theta$  is identifiable, and let  $\hat{\theta}_n$  be the maximum likelihood estimator based on a sample of size  $n$  from the distribution with (marginal) probability density  $p_\theta$ . Suppose, furthermore, that the map  $\vartheta \mapsto \log p_\vartheta(x)$  is continuously differentiable for all  $x$ , with derivative  $\dot{\ell}_\vartheta(x)$ , such that  $\|\dot{\ell}_\vartheta(x)\| \leq L(x)$  for every  $\vartheta \in \Theta$ , where  $L(x)$  is a function with  $\mathbb{E}_\theta L^2(X) < \infty$ . If  $\theta$  is an interior point of  $\Theta$  and the function  $\theta \mapsto i_\theta$  is continuous and positive, then under  $\theta$ ,  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)$  converges in distribution to a normal distribution with expectation 0 and variance  $i_\theta^{-1}$ . Therefore, under  $\theta$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta) \rightarrow N(0, i_\theta^{-1})$$

**Theorem 3.32.** (Cramer-Rao) Suppose  $\theta \mapsto p_\theta(x)$  is differentiable for every  $x$ . Then under certain regularity conditions any unbiased estimator  $T$  for  $g(\theta)$  satisfies:

$$\mathbb{V}_\theta(T) \geq g'(\theta) I_\theta^{-1} g'(\theta)^T,$$

where  $I_\theta$  denotes the full information matrix.

### 3.5 Sufficient Statistics and UMVU estimators

**Definition 3.33.** For a statistical model  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P}_\theta)$ ,  $\theta \in \Theta$ , a statistic  $V(x)$  is called *sufficient* (for  $X$ ) if conditional distribution  $f(x|V = v)$  is independent of  $V$ .

**Theorem 3.34.** A statistic  $V(x)$  is sufficient if there exist functions  $h(x)$  and  $g(v, \theta)$  such that

$$p_\theta(x) = h(x)g(V(x), \theta)$$

**Theorem 3.35.** (Rao-Blackwell) Let  $V = V(X)$  be a sufficient statistic, and let  $T = T(X)$  be an arbitrary real-valued estimator for  $g(\theta)$ . Then there exists an estimator  $T^* = T^*(V)$  for  $g(\theta)$  that depends only on  $V$ , such that  $\mathbb{E}_\theta T^* = \mathbb{E}_\theta T$  and  $\mathbb{V}_\theta T^* \leq \mathbb{V}_\theta T$  for all  $\theta$ . In particular, we have  $MSE(\theta; T^*) \leq MSE(\theta; T)$ . This inequality is strict unless  $\mathbb{P}_\theta(T^* = T) = 1$ .

**Definition 3.36.** For a statistical model  $(\Omega, \mathbb{P}_\theta)$ ,  $\theta \in \Theta$ , a statistic  $V(x)$  is called complete if  $\mathbb{E}_\theta(f(V)) = 0$ ,  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$  implies  $f(V) = 0$  a.s.

**Theorem 3.37.** Let  $V(x)$  be sufficient and complete, and  $T(V)$  be an unbiased estimator for  $g(\theta)$ . Then  $T(V)$  is UMVU estimator (i.e. has smallest variance among all unbiased estimators  $\forall \theta \in \Theta$ ).

**Theorem 3.38.** Suppose that for a  $k$ -dimensional exponential family (2.1) the set below contains an interior point:

$$(Q_1(\theta), \dots, Q_k(\theta)), \theta \in \Theta$$

Then the random vector  $(V_1(x), \dots, V_n(x))$  is sufficient and complete.

## 4 Estimators

### 4.1 Maximum of $n$ uniformly distributed statistics

Set up:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  i.i.d. drawn from  $U[0, \theta]$ , where  $\theta$  is the parameter of interest.

- $\hat{\theta} = 2\bar{X}_n$ 
  - method of moments estimator
  - unbiased

- $\text{MSE}(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = \frac{\theta^2}{3n}$ , see (1.6)
- $X_{(n)}$  —  $n$ -th order statistic, i.e. maximum.
  - $\mathbb{E}_{\theta} X_{(n)} = \frac{n}{n+1}\theta$ , see (1.6)
  - $\text{MSE}(\theta, X_{(n)}) = \frac{2\theta^2}{(n+2)(n+1)}$
- $\frac{n+2}{n+1}X_{(n)}$ 
  - best estimator of the form  $cX_{(n)}$
  - $\text{MSE}(\theta, \frac{n+2}{n+1}X_{(n)}) = \frac{\theta^2}{(n+1)^2}$

## 4.2 Univariate normal distribution

- $(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma}^2) = \left( \bar{X}_n, \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 \right) = \left( \bar{X}_n, \frac{n-1}{n} S_X^2 \right)$ 
  - maximum likelihood estimator
  - method of moments estimator
  - $\hat{\mu}$  is *unbiased*
  - $\mathbb{E}_{(\mu, \sigma^2)} \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2$

## 4.3 Empirical distribution function

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be an i.i.d. sample drawn from the distribution  $F$ .

- The empirical distribution function (ecdf)  $\hat{F}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(X_i \leq x)$  (see 1.1)
  - *unbiased*
  - $\text{cov}_F(\hat{F}(u), \hat{F}(v)) = n^{-1}(F(\min(u, v)) - F(u)F(v))$  – positively correlated



## 4.4 Linear Regression

**Theorem 4.1.** (Ordinary Least Squares)

(i) In one-factor setting, maximum likelihood estimators for slope, intercept and variance are given by (see (1.1, 1.2)):

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{S_Y r_{X,Y}}{S_X}, \quad \hat{\alpha} = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta} \bar{X}, \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta} X_i - \hat{\alpha})^2$$

(ii) If the design matrix  $X$  in a multiple linear regression has full rank, then the maximum likelihood estimators are given by:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} (X^T Y), \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\|Y - X \hat{\beta}\|^2}{n}$$

**Theorem 4.2.** (Weighted Least Squares/Heteroscedacity)

(i) Assume that error terms  $\varepsilon_i$  have variance as  $\sigma_i^2 \equiv z_i \sigma^2$  for known constants  $z_i$ . Let  $w_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (z_i \sigma^2)^{-1}$ , then maximum likelihood estimators for slope, intercept and variance are given by (see (1.1, 1.2)):

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\beta} &= \frac{\sum w_i (x - \tilde{x})(y - \tilde{y})}{\sum w_i (x - \tilde{x})^2} = \frac{\sum w_i \sum w_i x_i y_i - \sum w_i x_i \sum w_i y_i}{\sum w_i \sum w_i x_i^2 - (\sum w_i x_i)^2} \\ \tilde{\alpha} &= \tilde{y} - \tilde{\beta} \tilde{x} \\ \hat{\sigma}^2 &= n^{-1} \sum \frac{1}{z_i} (y_i - \tilde{\beta} x_i - \tilde{\alpha})^2 \end{aligned}$$

(ii) For the multi-factor model, maximum likelihood estimators can be written in the form:

$$\tilde{\beta} = (X^T W X)^{-1} (X^T W Y)$$

**Theorem 4.3.** Let  $V \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{span}(X)$ , and  $V_0 \subset V$ . Denote the projection onto  $V$  by  $P_V$ .

1. The likelihood ratio statistic for  $H_0 : X \beta_0 \in V_0$  equals

$$2 \log \lambda_n(X, Y) = n \log \frac{\|(E - P_{V_0})Y\|^2}{\|(E - P_V)Y\|^2},$$

2. Under the null hypothesis, the following quantity has  $F_{n-p, p-p_0}$  distribution:

$$\frac{\|(P_V - P_{V_0})Y\|^2 / (p - p_0)}{\|(E - P_V)Y\|^2 / (n - p)}$$

## 5 Statistical tests

### 5.1 $t$ -tests

#### 5.1.1 One-sample $t$ -test

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be an i.i.d. sample from the  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ -distribution with  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  unknown. Given  $\mu_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  we test:

$$H_0 : \mu \leq \mu_0 \text{ against } H_1 : \mu > \mu_0 \quad (5.1)$$

Test statistic:

$$T = \sqrt{n} \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu_0}{S_X} \quad (5.2)$$

By Theorem 3.1, under  $\mu = \mu_0$  the statistic has Student's  $t_{n-1}$  distribution, consequently we can use.

$$\sup_{\mu \leq \mu_0} \mathbb{P}(T \geq t_{n-1, 1-\alpha}) \leq \alpha \quad (5.3)$$

#### 5.1.2 $t$ -Test for paired observations

Let  $(X_1, Y_1), (X_2, Y_2), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$  be the i.i.d. sample of paired observations. We assume that  $Z_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} X_i - Y_i$  is  $N(\Delta, \sigma^2)$  is normally distributed, and the ordinary One-sample  $t$ -test can be used to test the null hypotheses  $H_0 : \Delta \geq 0$ . Note that if  $X_i$  and  $Y_i$  are strongly correlated then variance of  $Z_i$  decreases and this improves the power of the  $t$ -test.

#### 5.1.3 Two-sample $t$ -test

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  and  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_m$  be two mutually independent i.i.d samples from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and  $N(\nu, \sigma^2)$ . The test checks

$$H_0 : \mu - \nu \leq 0 \text{ against } H_1 : \mu - \nu > 0 \quad (5.4)$$

Test statistic:

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{S_{X,Y} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m}}} \quad (5.5)$$

$$S_{X,Y}^2 = \frac{1}{m+n-2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^m (Y_j - \bar{Y}_m)^2 \right) \quad (5.6)$$

Theorem 3.1 implies that  $S_{X,Y}^2$  follows  $\sigma^2 \cdot \chi_{m+n-2}^2$  distribution.

## 5.2 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

Given an i.i.d. sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  from some unknown distribution  $F$ , we want to test:

$$H_0 : F = F_0 \text{ against } H_1 : F \neq F_0 \quad (5.7)$$

The test statistic is given by

$$T = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |\hat{F}_n(x) - F(x)|, \quad (5.8)$$

where  $\hat{F}_n(x)$  stands for the empirical distribution function (see 1.1). The distribution of  $T$  is the same for every continuous cdf  $F_0$ . The following limit establishes the test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}_{F_0} \left( T > \frac{z}{n} \right) = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{j+1} e^{-j^2 z^2} \quad (5.9)$$