

1. ONE-DIMENSIONAL NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

DEF: One-dimensional Normal distribution with parameters $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma^2 > 0$ is the probability distribution with the density:

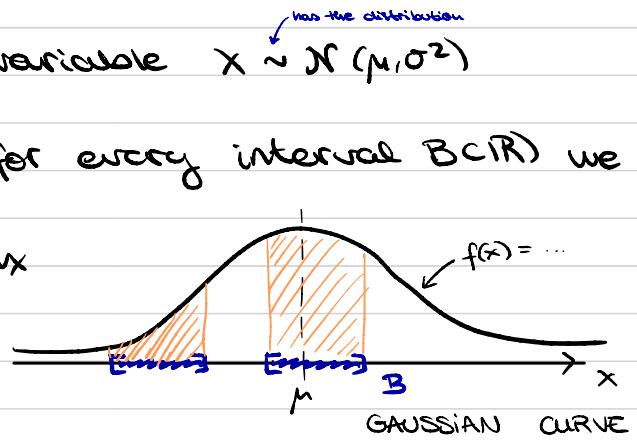
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Its symbol is $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, although sometimes $N(\mu, \sigma)$.

It means that the random variable $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

For every Borel set $B \subset \mathbb{R}$ (\equiv for every interval $B \subset \mathbb{R}$) we have:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \in B) &= \int_B \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx \\ &= \text{area of } \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$



SPECIAL CASE: Standard Normal Distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$

Where $\mu = 0$, $\sigma^2 = 1$. It is the distribution with the density:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

→ The process of standardization is the following one:

Let $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma^2 > 0$:

→ if $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$

→ If $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, then $\sigma Y + \mu \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

CDF
Cumulative Distribution Function of standard normal dist.

The CDF of a random variable X is the function $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ given by:

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

→ We can define it with the inequality " $<$ " (NOT EQUIVALENT)

→ Let $X \sim N(0,1)$. Then, the CDF:

$$\phi(x) := F(x) = P(X \leq x) = P(X \in]-\infty, x]) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

→ If $X \sim N(0,1)$, then $E(X) = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$

$$* \text{Var } X = E((X - EX)^2)$$

→ In particular, if $X \sim N(0,1)$, then $EX=0$ and $\text{Var}X=1$.

Why the normal distribution is important?

Because of the Central Limit Theorem

THM: Central Limit Theorem (CLT) (one of many possible forms)

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be independent random variables with the same probability distribution (i.i.d.) independently identically distributed such that $EX_1 (=EX_2 = \dots) = \mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\text{Var}X_1 (= \text{Var}X_2 = \dots) = \sigma^2 > 0$.

Then, the distribution of $\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n - n \cdot \mu}{\sqrt{n \cdot \sigma^2}} \rightarrow N(0,1)$.

DEF: Convergence of probability distributions (weak conv.)

Let $(\mu_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ be a sequence of probability distributions and let μ a probability distribution.

Let F_n be CDF of μ_n and F be CDF of μ .

We say that (μ_n) converges (weakly) to μ if and only if

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ where F is continuous at x , $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$

*↓

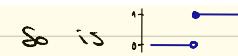
DEF: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$. Uniform Distribution, noted by $U(a,b)$, is the distribution with the density

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } x \in (a,b) \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin (a,b) \end{cases} \quad \text{CDF} \quad F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x < b \\ 1 & \text{if } b \leq x \end{cases}$$

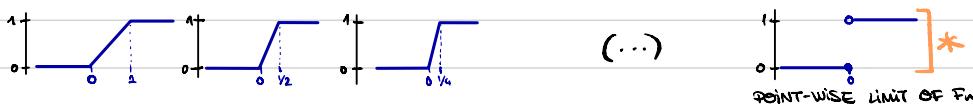
CDF of $U(a,b)$ is given by



EX: Let $\mu_n = \text{Unif}(0, 1/n)$. If $n \rightarrow \infty$, then $(0, 1/n)$ gets shorter.

We expect that (μ_n) converges (weakly) to $\mu = \delta_0$ (one-point probability distribution cumulated at 0; $X \sim \delta_0 \Leftrightarrow X = 0$ almost surely, as $P(X=0)=1$). CDF of δ_0 is 

Let us see the CDF of μ_n , $n=1, 2, \dots$



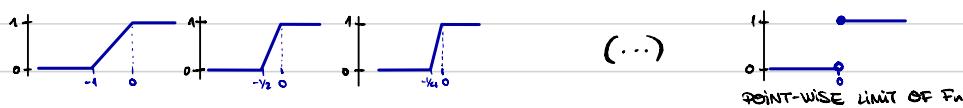
We can see the necessity of the condition *. This function is not CDF of δ_0 . It is not CDF of any probability distribution because it is not right-continuous.

It does not converge.

EX: Let $\mu_n = \text{Unif}(-1/n, 0)$. If $n \rightarrow \infty$, then $(-1/n, 0)$ gets shorter.

We expect that (μ_n) converges (weakly) to $\mu = \delta_0$.

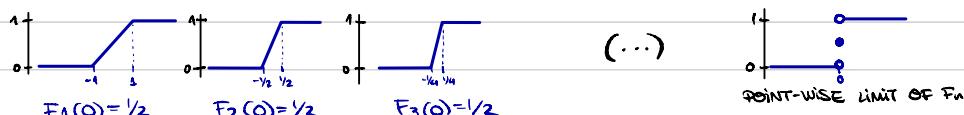
Let us see the CDF of μ_n , $n=1, 2, \dots$



Surprisingly, this time, $f(x) = F'(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

EX: Let $\mu_n = \text{Unif}(-1/n, 1/n)$. If $n \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow (-1/n, 1/n)$ gets shorter.

Let us see the CDF of μ_n , $n=1, 2, \dots$



Now, we have that $\forall x \neq 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$, but $F(0) = 1$ is different from $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(0) = 1/2$.

Ex: Let $\mu_n = \begin{cases} 2\text{unif}(0, 1/n) & \text{for } n \text{ odd} \\ 2\text{unif}(-1/n, 0) & \text{for } n \text{ even} \end{cases}$

We have $\forall x \neq 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$. Anyway, $\not\exists \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(0)$.

DEF: Two other (equivalent) definitions of weak convergence of p.d.:

Let (μ_n) be a sequence of p.d. and μ a p.d.. Let X, X_1, X_2, \dots be random variables such as $X_n \sim \mu_n$ and $X \sim \mu$.

The sequence μ_n converges (weakly) to μ if and only if:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \forall P(X \in \delta B) = 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in B) = P(X \in B)$$

boundary
 $\delta B = \bar{B} \setminus B$

" $\mu_n(B)$ " " " $\mu(B)$ "

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \forall f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ bounded continuous} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E f(X_n) = E f(X)$$

... coming back to CTL. Let X_1, X_2, \dots be i.i.d.

$$EX_1 (= EX_2 = \dots) = \mu \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Var } X_1 (= \text{Var } X_2 = \dots) = \sigma^2 > 0.$$

The sequence of distributions of $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu n}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}}$ is convergent to $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. What does this mean?

It means that

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{where } \phi \text{ is cont} \Rightarrow P\left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mu n}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}} \leq x\right) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

we do not need this condition because ϕ is cont, as it is the integral of a cont. function. Every point $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous point of ϕ .

This means that the above convergence is the point-wise convergence. It can be shown that we can have uniform convergence here.

Some comments about CTL:

→ From the Strong Law of Large Numbers, we know that:

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{almost surely}} \mu \Leftrightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{n} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{almost surely}} 0$$

in CTL we have different conv.
almost surely

in CTL we have $\sqrt{n}\sigma$

in CTL we have $\sqrt{n}\sigma^2$ here
(smaller number)

$$\rightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{weakly}} N(0, 1) \quad (\text{CTL}) \Leftrightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{weakly}} N(0, \sigma^2)$$

→ Why these formulas? Let's see:

let X random variable with expectation EX and variance $\text{Var } X \neq 0$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot E \frac{X-EX}{\sqrt{\text{Var } X}} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\text{Var } X}} E(X-EX) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\text{Var } X}} (EX - E(EX)) = 0 // \\ \cdot \text{Var } \frac{X-EX}{\sqrt{\text{Var } X}} &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\text{Var } X}}\right)^2 \text{Var}(X-EX) = \frac{1}{\text{Var } X} \text{Var } X = 1 // \end{aligned}$$

random constant \downarrow
 \downarrow

constant (we can omit it)
 \downarrow

EX

Now, let $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot EX &= E(\sum X_i) = \sum EX_i = \sum \mu = n\mu \\ \cdot \text{Var } X &= \text{Var}(\sum X_i) = \sum \text{Var } X_i = \sum \sigma^2 = n\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

identical
 \downarrow

independent

It follows that $\frac{X-EX}{\sqrt{\text{Var } X}} = \frac{\sum X_i - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}$

$E * = 0$
 $\text{Var } * = 1$
 $*$ is the expression of CTL.

According to the CTL, for large n : $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \approx N(0, 1)$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - n\mu \approx N(0, n\sigma^2)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \approx N(n\mu, n\sigma^2).$$

COR: We see that if a random variable is the sum of large number of "small" independent summands, then the distribution of this random variable is (approx.) normal.

2. MULTIDIMENSIONAL NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

DEF: We say that a random vector (X_1, \dots, X_n) has the n -dimensional normal distribution if, for every $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$, the r.v. $a_1 X_1 + \dots + a_n X_n$ has one-dimensional normal dist.

An equivalent definition could be:

$X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ has n -dimensional normal distribution if, for each linear functional $\varphi: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the r.v. $\varphi(X)$ has one-dimensional normal distribution.

Remark: In the above definitions, we assume that

$X(\mu, 0) := \underset{\uparrow}{\delta_\mu}$ has also a normal dist.

$$\leftarrow X \sim X(\mu, 0) = \delta_\mu \Leftrightarrow P(X = \mu) = 1 \text{ (one-point probability dist.)}$$

PROP: $N(\mu, 0)$ is the degenerated normal distribution.

Let's see a comparison table:

One dimension

$$X(\mu, \sigma^2) \quad \begin{matrix} \in \mathbb{R} & \in \mathbb{R}^+ \\ \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \text{expectation} & \text{variance} \end{matrix}$$

n -dimension

$$X(?, ?) \quad \begin{matrix} \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \text{"expectation"} & \text{"variance"} \end{matrix}$$

2.1. EXPECTATION AND VARIANCE IN MULTIPLE DIM.

Let $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)^T$.

DEF: The expected value $E X$ is defined as follows:

$$E X = \begin{pmatrix} E X_1 \\ E X_2 \\ \vdots \\ E X_n \end{pmatrix} \quad E X \text{ exists } \Leftrightarrow \exists E X_1, \dots, E X_n$$

What about $\text{Var } X$? Unfortunately, $(\text{Var } X_1, \dots, \text{Var } X_n)^T$ is not what we need.

DEF: $\text{Var } X$

$$\text{Var } X = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Cov}(X_1, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_n) \\ \text{Cov}(X_2, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_2, X_2) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(X_2, X_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}(X_n, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_n, X_2) & \cdots & \text{Cov}(X_n, X_n) \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$= (\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j))_{\substack{i=1, \dots, n \\ j=1, \dots, n}}$$

Remember that, for X and Y r.v.:

$$\text{Var } X = E((X - EX)^2) = E(X^2) - (EX)^2$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E((X - EX)(Y - EY)) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

PROP: Properties of the Covariance and the Cov matrix

$$1. \text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X) \Rightarrow \text{Var}(X) = \text{Var}(X)^T$$

$$2. \text{Cov}(X, X) = E((X - EX)(X - EX)) = \text{Var } X$$

→ The diagonal of $\text{Var } X$ consists of $\text{Var } X_1, \dots, \text{Var } X_n$.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, X, Y, Z be r.v. Then,

$$3. \text{Cov}(ax, Y) = \text{Cov}(X, aY) = a \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

$$4. \text{Cov}(X+Y, Z) = \text{Cov}(X, Z) + \text{Cov}(Y, Z)$$

$$5. \text{Cov}(X, Y+Z) = \text{Cov}(X, Y) + \text{Cov}(X, Z)$$

$$6. \text{Cov}(X, a) = \text{Cov}(a, X) = 0.$$

$$7. \text{Cov}(X+a, Y) = \text{Cov}(X, Y+a) = \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

$$8. \text{Var}(X \pm Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) \pm 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

generally:

$$\text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var } X_i + 2 \sum_{i < j} \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$$

Covariance is
2-linear

Some proofs:

$$3. \text{Cov}(ax, Y) = E((ax - Eax)(Y - EY)) = E(a(X - EX)(Y - EY)) = \\ = a E((X - EX)(Y - EY)) = a \text{Cov}(X, Y)$$

$$4. \text{Cov}(X+Y, Z) = E((X+Y - E(X+Y))(Z - EZ)) = \\ = E([(X - EX) + (Y - EY)](Z - EZ)) = E((X - EX)(Z - EZ) + (Y - EY)(Z - EZ)) = \\ = \text{Cov}(X, Z) + \text{Cov}(Y, Z).$$

$$6. \text{Cov}(X, a) = E((X - EX)(a - Ea)) = E((X - EX) \cdot 0) = E0 = 0$$

$$7. \text{cov}(X, Y+a) = \text{cov}(X, Y) + \text{cov}(X, a) \stackrel{4}{=} \text{cov}(X, Y) \stackrel{6}{=}$$

$$8. \text{var}(X+Y) = \text{cov}(X+Y, X+Y) = \text{cov}(X, X+Y) + \text{cov}(Y, X+Y) = \\ = [\text{cov}(X, X) + \text{cov}(X, Y)] + [\text{cov}(Y, X) + \text{cov}(Y, Y)] = \\ = \text{var}(X) + \text{var}(Y) + 2 \text{cov}(X, Y).$$

CDR: 1- $\text{var}(X+a) = \text{cov}(X+a, X+a) = \text{cov}(X, X) = \text{var}(X)$

2- $\text{var}(\alpha X) = \text{cov}(\alpha X, \alpha X) = \alpha^2 \text{cov}(X, X) = \alpha^2 \text{var}(X)$

More about the covariance matrix, $\text{Var } \mathbf{X}$:

Knowing that for X a r.v., $\text{var } X = E((X - EX)^2)$, then, we have:

$$\text{Var } \mathbf{X} = E((\mathbf{X} - E\mathbf{X})(\mathbf{X} - E\mathbf{X})^T) \quad \xrightarrow{\text{vector } \times \text{vector} = \text{matrix}}$$

Indeed:

$$\begin{aligned} E((\mathbf{X} - E\mathbf{X})(\mathbf{X} - E\mathbf{X})^T) &= E \left(\begin{pmatrix} X_1 - EX_1 \\ X_2 - EX_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_n - EX_n \end{pmatrix} (X_1 - EX_1, \dots, X_n - EX_n)^T \right) = \\ &= E \left(\begin{pmatrix} (X_1 - EX_1)(X_1 - EX_1), \dots, (X_1 - EX_1)(X_n - EX_n) \\ \vdots \\ (X_n - EX_n)(X_1 - EX_1), \dots, (X_n - EX_n)(X_n - EX_n) \end{pmatrix} \right) = \text{Var } \mathbf{X}. \end{aligned}$$

THM: If $\text{Var } \mathbf{X}$ is the covariance matrix of a r-vector \mathbf{X} , then $\text{Var } \mathbf{X}$ is positive semidefinite.

Proof: We need to show that for each $t = (t_1, \dots, t_n)^T$, we have $t^T \cdot \text{Var } \mathbf{X} \cdot t \geq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} t^T \cdot \text{Var } \mathbf{X} \cdot t &= (t_1, \dots, t_n) \cdot \text{Var } \mathbf{X} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} t_1 \\ \vdots \\ t_n \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n t_i \text{cov}(X_i, X_j) t_j = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{cov}(t_i X_i, \sum_{j=1}^n t_j X_j) = \text{cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n t_i X_i, \sum_{j=1}^n t_j X_j\right) = \text{var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n t_i X_i\right) \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

+

PROP: We see that, if $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)^T$ is a r-vector such that the covariance matrix $\text{Var } \mathbf{X}$ exists, then:

1. $\text{Var } \mathbf{X}$ is a matrix of dimensions $n \times n$
2. $\text{Var } \mathbf{X}$ is symmetric: $(\text{Var } \mathbf{X})^T = \text{Var } \mathbf{X}$
3. $\text{Var } \mathbf{X}$ is positive semidefinite.

It can be shown that for each matrix A with the above properties, there exists a r-vector \mathbf{X} satisfying $\text{Var } \mathbf{X} = A$.

PROP: Let X, Y be r.v. Assume that $\text{Var } X, \text{Var } Y$ exist. Then, if X and Y are independent $\Rightarrow \text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ (X, Y are not related)

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{Var}(X+Y) = \text{Var } X + \text{Var } Y$$

In general, $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0 \nRightarrow X, Y$ independent.

NOTE: A very important special case is when $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0 \Rightarrow X, Y$ independent.

Assume that (\mathbf{X}) has 2-dimensional normal distribution, then:

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow X, Y \text{ independent}$$

Remark: It is not enough to assume that X, Y have normal distribution separately. We need to assume that the joint (2-dim) distribution of $(X, Y)^T$ is normal.

THM: Assume that $(X_1, \dots, X_n)^T$ has normal distribution. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} X_1, \dots, X_n \text{ are independent} &\Leftrightarrow \forall i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = 0 \\ &\Leftrightarrow \text{Var}(X_1, \dots, X_n)^T \text{ is a diagonal matrix} \end{aligned}$$

THM: Assume that $(X_1, \dots, X_n, Y_1, \dots, Y_m)^T$ is a random vector with normal dist. Then,

$$X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)^T \text{ are independent} \Leftrightarrow \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\} \quad \forall j \in \{1, \dots, m\} \quad \text{cov}(X_i, Y_j) = 0.$$

$\Leftrightarrow \text{Var}(X_1, \dots, X_n, Y_1, \dots, Y_m)$ has true form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{Var } X & 0 \\ 0 & \text{Var } Y \end{pmatrix}$$

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Recall: EXPONENTIAL DISTRIBUTION $X \sim E(\beta) \quad \beta > 0$

$$EX = 1/\beta$$

$$\text{c.d.f. } F_X(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ 1 - e^{-\beta t} & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{density } f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ \beta e^{-\beta t} & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

THM: Let Z_1, \dots, Z_n independent. $Z_i \sim E(\beta_i) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

Then, $\min(Z_1, \dots, Z_n) \sim E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i\right)$

Proof: We will find c.d.f. of $\min(Z_1, \dots, Z_n)$.

- If $t < 0$, $F(t) = P(\min(Z_1, \dots, Z_n) \leq t) = 0$

- If $t \geq 0$, $F(t) = P(\min(Z_1, \dots, Z_n) \leq t) =$
 \uparrow we want to get rid of the min
 $\exists i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ s.t. $Z_i \leq t$ possible idea, but not useful.

$$\begin{aligned} &= 1 - P(\min(Z_1, \dots, Z_n) > t) = 1 - P(Z_1 > t, Z_2 > t, \dots, Z_n > t) = \\ &\stackrel{\text{independence}}{=} 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n P(Z_i > t) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - P(Z_i \leq t)) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n e^{-\beta_i t} = \\ &= 1 - e^{-\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i t} \end{aligned}$$

THM: FISHER THEOREM

Let $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ be independent. Then:

$$1. \bar{X} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$$

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

3. \bar{X} and $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ are independent

Before proving it, let's see some definitions to help us understand the theorem.

DEF: If $U_1, \dots, U_n \sim N(0, 1)$ are independent, then $U_1^2 + \dots + U_n^2 \sim \chi^2_n$
(the chi-square distribution with n degrees of freedom)

DEF: If $X \sim N(0, 1)$, $Y \sim \chi^2_n$ are independent, then $\frac{X}{\sqrt{Y/n}} \sim t_n$
(the t-student distribution with n degrees of freedom)

DEF: If $X \sim \chi^2_m$, $Y \sim \chi^2_n$ are independent, then $\frac{X/m}{Y/n} \sim F_{m,n}$
(the Fischer-Snedecor's distribution with m degrees of freedom of the numerator on n degrees of freedom of the denominator).

DEF: Chi-square distribution is a special case of the gamma distribution. Namely, $\chi^2_n = T(n/2, 1/2)$

Remark: $\alpha, \beta > 0$, $T(\alpha, \beta)$ is the distribution with the density

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta^\alpha \cdot x^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot e^{-\beta x} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

, being $\Gamma(\alpha)$ the gamma function, $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} \cdot e^{-x} dx$

Note that $T(1, \beta) = \text{Exp}(\beta)$

In particular, $\chi^2_2 = T(1, 1/2) = \text{Exp}(1/2)$

Proof:

1. If $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ are independent, then $\bar{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ has a normal distribution

$$\bar{X} \sim \left(\begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

It follows that

$$\bar{X} = \left(\frac{1}{n}, \dots, \frac{1}{n} \right) \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left(\left(\frac{1}{n}, \dots, \frac{1}{n} \right) \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu \end{pmatrix}, \left(\frac{1}{n}, \dots, \frac{1}{n} \right) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)^T \right) = N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

\bar{X} (linear transformation of X)

3. The random vector $(\bar{X}, X_1 - \bar{X}, \dots, X_n - \bar{X})^T$ has a normal distribution.

We will check that \bar{X} and Y_i are independent. It is enough to show that $\text{Cov}(\bar{X}, Y_i) = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(\bar{X}, Y_i) &= \text{Cov}(\bar{X}, \bar{X}_i) - \text{Cov}(\bar{X}, \bar{X}) = \text{Cov}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j, X_i\right) - \text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n \underbrace{\text{Cov}(X_j, X_i)}_{\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j \neq i \\ \sigma^2 & \text{if } j = i \end{cases}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sigma^2 - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = 0, \end{aligned}$$

Finally, we have that \bar{X} and $(X_1 - \bar{X}, \dots, X_n - \bar{X})$ are independent, so, taking $f(z_1, \dots, z_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^2$, we have that:

\bar{X} and $f(X_1 - \bar{X}, \dots, X_n - \bar{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ are independent.

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Estimation of parameters

Assume that we observe a random sample X with the (unknown) distribution P_θ , where $\theta \in \Theta$ is unknown.

(e.g. if $P_\theta = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$, $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma^2 > 0$). We want to know θ (and P_θ).

Estimation (point estimation)

A point estimation of the parameter θ on the parametric function $g(\theta)$ is any statistic (\equiv a function of the sample \mathbf{x}) which approximates θ (or $g(\theta)$).

Remark: About parametric function.

If e.g. $P_\theta = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$, then we can be interested in $g(\theta) = g(\mu, \sigma^2) = \mu$. Similarly for σ^2 or $\sqrt{\sigma^2} = \sigma$.

Usually, we denote: $\hat{\theta}$, $\hat{g}(\theta)$, $\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$, $\hat{g}(\theta)(\mathbf{x})$. We say that the estimator is unbiased if $\forall \theta \in \Theta$, $E_\theta(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) = \theta$ (or if $\forall \theta \in \Theta$, $E_\theta(\hat{g}(\theta)(\mathbf{x})) = g(\theta)$).

The bias of estimator $\hat{\theta} := E(\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{x})) - \theta$

The bias of estimator $\hat{g}(\theta) := E_\theta(\hat{g}(\theta)(\mathbf{x})) - g(\theta)$

MSE (Mean Square Error) of the estimator $E_\theta((\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2)$
or $E_\theta((\hat{g}(\theta) - g(\theta))^2)$

Interval estimation - CONFIDENCE INTERVALS

We assume that $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ (or $g(\theta) \in \mathbb{R}$). Confidence interval of the parameter θ (or $g(\theta)$) on the confidence level $1-\alpha \in (0, 1)$ * is an interval of the form $(\underline{\theta}(\mathbf{x}), \bar{\theta}(\mathbf{x}))$ or $(\underline{g}(\mathbf{x}), \bar{g}(\mathbf{x}))$, where $\underline{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \underline{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \theta$ and $\bar{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \theta$ are two statistics (\equiv functions of the sample \mathbf{x}), which satisfy another notation

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta, P_\theta(\theta \in (\underline{\theta}(\mathbf{x}), \bar{\theta}(\mathbf{x}))) > 1-\alpha$$

* usually $1-\alpha \approx 1$ (e.g. $1-\alpha = 0.95$ or 0.9 or 0.99)

→ We would like to have the interval $(\underline{\theta}, \bar{\theta})$ as short as possible (for the given $1-\alpha$).

• ONE-SIDED CONFIDENCE INTERVALS:

If $\underline{\theta} := -\infty$, then we obtain $(-\infty, \bar{\theta})$ right-sided conf. int.
 If $\bar{\theta} := +\infty$, then we obtain $(\underline{\theta}, +\infty)$ left-sided conf. int.

Let (X_1, \dots, X_n) be a simple sample of $\mathcal{X}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ i.e. $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \mathcal{X}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ are independent. We want to estimate the parameters μ and σ^2 .

Parameter μ

•) Point estimator: \bar{X} . Since $E[\bar{X}] = \mu$, we know that \bar{X} is an unbiased estimator of μ . $\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$
 $\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$.

•) Interval estimator: Fix $1-\alpha \in (0, 1)$. We have two subcases:

a) σ^2 is known

The idea is to consider the interval of the form $(\bar{X}-a, \bar{X}+b)$ for some $a, b > 0$. We want to find approximate a and b .

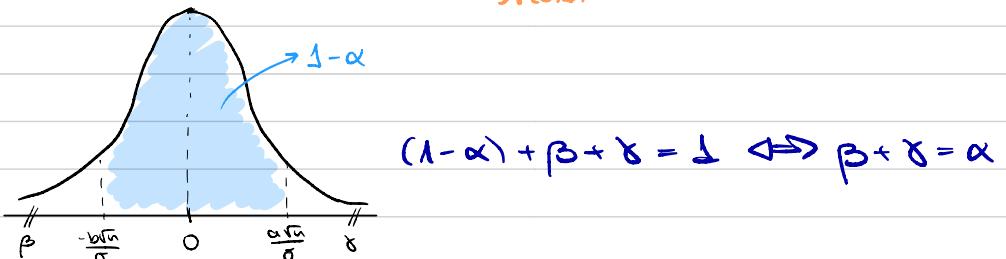
We want $P(\mu \in (\bar{X}-a, \bar{X}+b)) \geq 1-\alpha$ and the length as small as possible

$$P(\bar{X}-a < \mu < \bar{X}+b) = P(a - \bar{X} > -\mu > -b - \bar{X}) =$$

$$= P(a > \bar{X} - \mu > -b) = P\left(\frac{a\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} > \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > \frac{-b\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right)$$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\mathcal{N}(0,1)}$

So, we have:



We note $-\frac{b\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} = u_\beta$ and $\frac{a\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} = u_{1-\alpha}$.

u_β is the β -th quantile of $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$.

$\Phi(u_\beta) = \beta$ is the cumulative function of $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$.

$$\text{We obtain } a = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\alpha} \quad b = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_\beta$$

Finally, we obtain that for every $\beta, \gamma \geq 0$ satisfying $\beta + \gamma = \alpha$, the interval $(\bar{X} - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\gamma}, \bar{X} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\beta})$ is a confidence interval for μ on the confidence level $1-\alpha$.

Special cases:

a.1) If $\beta=0$ and $\gamma=\alpha$, then $u_{1-\beta}=u_1=+\infty$ and we obtain:

$$\text{left-sided c.i.} \rightarrow (\bar{X} - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\alpha}, +\infty)$$

a.2) If $\gamma=0$ and $\beta=\alpha$, then $u_{1-\gamma}=u_1=-\infty$ and we obtain:

$$\text{right-sided c.i.} \rightarrow (-\infty, \bar{X} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\alpha})$$

a.3) The shortest interval is obtained for $\beta=\gamma=\alpha/2$:

$$\text{symmetric with respect to } \bar{X} \rightarrow (\bar{X} - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\alpha/2}, \bar{X} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1+\alpha/2})$$

b) σ^2 is unknown.

We can't use the formula $(\bar{X} - \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\gamma}, \bar{X} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} u_{1-\beta})$ because we don't know σ . We will replace σ by

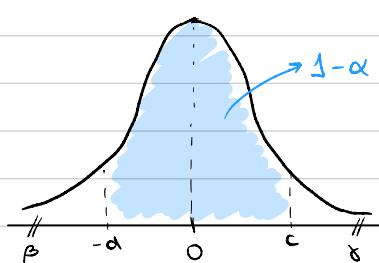
$$S = \sqrt{S^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \quad (n \geq 1)$$

We consider $(\bar{X} - \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} c, \bar{X} + \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} d)$.

We want $P(\mu \in (\bar{X} - \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} c, \bar{X} + \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} d)) = 1-\alpha$.

$$\begin{aligned} P(-d < \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} < c) &= P\left(-d < \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}/\sqrt{n-1}} \sim t_{n-1}\right) \\ &\sim \chi^2_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Independent because of Fisher's thm



← density of t_{n-1}

$$\cdot) -\alpha = t_{n-1}(\beta) \Rightarrow \alpha = t_{n-1}(1-\beta)$$

$\cdot) c = t_{n-1}(1-\delta)$ quantile of order $1-\delta$ from t_{n-1}

Finally, we obtain: For every $\beta, \delta \geq 0$ s.t. $\beta + \delta = \alpha$, the interval

$$(\bar{X} - \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} t_{n-1}(1-\delta), \bar{X} + \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} t_{n-1}(1-\beta))$$

is a confidence interval for μ with the confidence level $1-\alpha$

Special cases:

$$\text{a.1) Left sided c.i.} \rightarrow (\bar{X} - \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} t_{n-1}(1-\alpha), +\infty) \quad (\delta = \alpha, \beta = 0)$$

$$\text{a.2) Right sided c.i.} \rightarrow (-\infty, \bar{X} + \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} t_{n-1}(1-\alpha)) \quad (\delta = 0, \beta = \alpha)$$

a.3) The shortest interval, symmetrical with respect to \bar{X} :

$$(\bar{X} - \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} t_{n-1}(1-\alpha/2), \bar{X} + \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} t_{n-1}(1+\alpha/2))$$

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Parameter σ^2

$\cdot)$ Point estimator: We have two possible cases.

a) μ is known

Let us consider the statistic $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2$. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2\right) &= \sum_{i=1}^n E((X_i - \mu)^2) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\text{Var}(X_i - \mu) + (E(X_i - \mu))^2) = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\underbrace{\text{Var } X_i}_{\sigma^2} + \underbrace{(EX_i - \mu)}_0^M)^2 = n\sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that: $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2$ is an unbiased estimator of σ^2 . (We didn't use the assumption about the normality at X_1, \dots, X_n or about the independence).

b) μ is unknown

Then, from Fisher's theorem, we obtain that:

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \text{ is an unbiased estimator of } \sigma^2 \text{ and}$$

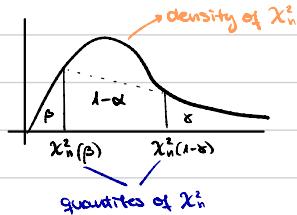
$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$$

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2 \quad (\text{Fisher's theorem})$$

•) Interval estimator: We have two possible cases.

a) μ is known

Note that $\frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\left(\frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2}_{\sim \chi_{(0,1)}^2} \sim \chi_n^2$



We want to build the confidence interval on the confidence level $1-\alpha \in (0,1)$

We choose two numbers $\gamma, \beta > 0$ s.t. $\gamma + \beta = \alpha$.

We have $P(\chi_n^2(\beta) < \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma^2} < \chi_n^2(1-\alpha)) \stackrel{(>)}{=} 1-\alpha$

$$P\left(\frac{1}{\chi_n^2(1-\alpha)} < \frac{\sigma^2}{n\hat{\sigma}^2} < \frac{1}{\chi_n^2(\beta)}\right) = P\left(\sigma^2 \in \left(\frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(1-\alpha)}, \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(\beta)}\right)\right) = 1-\alpha$$

We obtain that, $\forall \beta, \gamma > 0$ s.t. $\beta + \gamma = \alpha$, the interval:

$$\left(\frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(1-\alpha)}, \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(\beta)}\right) = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_n^2(1-\alpha)}, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_n^2(\beta)}\right)$$

is a confidence interval for σ^2 on the level $1-\alpha$.

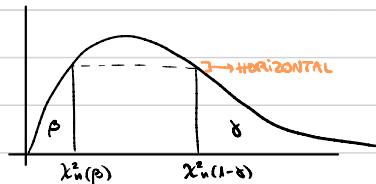
Special cases:

a.1) When $\beta=0$ and $\gamma=\alpha$, $\left(\frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha)}, +\infty \right) = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha)}, +\infty \right)$
 left-sided c.i. NOT $(-\infty, -)$!!! because $\sigma^2 > 0$.

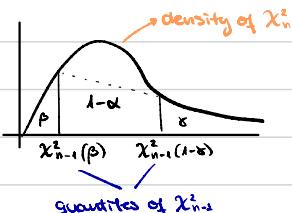
a.2) When $\beta=\alpha$ and $\gamma=0$, $\left[0, \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha)} \right] = \left[0, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha)} \right]$
 right-sided c.i.

a.3) When $\beta=\gamma=\alpha/2$, $\left(\frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha/2)}, \frac{n\hat{\sigma}^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha/2)} \right) = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha/2)}, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \mu)^2}{\chi_n^2(\alpha/2)} \right)$

a.4) If we want to obtain the **shortest** two-sided confidence interval, then we need to choose $\beta, \gamma > 0$ such that $\beta + \gamma = \alpha$ and:



b) μ is unknown



$$\text{We have that } P\left(\chi_{n-1}^2(\beta) < \frac{(n-1)\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} < \chi_{n-1}^2(1-\alpha)\right) \stackrel{(\geq)}{=} 1-\alpha$$

$$P\left(\frac{1}{\chi_{n-1}^2(1-\alpha)} < \frac{\sigma^2}{(n-1)\sigma^2} < \frac{1}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\beta)}\right) = 1-\alpha$$

||

$$P\left(\sigma^2 \in \left(\frac{(n-1)\sigma^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(1-\alpha)}, \frac{(n-1)\sigma^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\beta)}\right)\right) = 1-\alpha$$

We obtain that $\forall \beta, \gamma > 0$ s.t. $\beta + \gamma = \alpha$, the interval

$$\left(\frac{(n-1)\sigma^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(1-\gamma)}, \frac{(n-1)\sigma^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\beta)} \right) = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(1-\gamma)}, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\beta)} \right)$$

is a confidence interval for σ^2 on the level $1-\alpha$.

Special cases:

a.1) When $\beta=0$ and $\gamma=\alpha$, $\left(\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\lambda-\gamma)}, +\infty \right) = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\lambda-\gamma)}, +\infty \right)$
 left-sided c.i.

a.2) When $\beta=\alpha$ and $\gamma=0$, $\left[0, \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\beta)} \right] = \left[0, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\beta)} \right]$
 right-sided c.i.

a.3) When $\beta=\gamma=\alpha/2$, $\left(\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\lambda-\alpha/2)}, \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\alpha/2)} \right) = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\lambda-\alpha/2)}, \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2}{\chi_{n-1}^2(\alpha/2)} \right)$

a.4) If we want to obtain the shortest two-sided confidence interval, then we need to choose $\beta, \gamma > 0$ s.t. $\beta+\gamma=\alpha$ and:

