

MAS-1

Study Review

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8 octobre 2019

- 📖 Probability Review
- 📖 Stochastic Processes
- 📖 Life Contingencies
- 📖 Simulation
- 📖 Statistics
- 📖 Extended Linear Model
- 📖 Time Series

Lesson 1 : Probability Review

- > **Bernoulli Shortcut** : If a random variable can only assume two values a and b with probability q and $1 - q$, then its variance is $q(1 - q)(b - a)^2$

Lesson 2 : Parametric Distributions

- > **Transformations** :
 - Transformed : $\tau > 0$
 - Inverse : $\tau = -1$
 - Inverse-Transformed : $\tau < 0, \tau \neq 1$

Lesson 4 : Markov Chains

- > **Chapman-Kolmogorov** :

$$P_{ij}^{(n+m)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{ik}^{(n)} P_{kj}^{(m)}$$
- > **Gambler's ruin** : Let N the target and j the actual status.

$$p_j = \begin{cases} \frac{j}{N} & , r = 1 \\ \frac{r^j - 1}{r^N - 1} & , r \neq 1 \end{cases}$$
 où $r = \frac{q}{p}$, p : winning prob.
- > **Algorithmic efficiency** : with N_j = number of steps from j^{th} solution to best solution.

$$E[N_j] = \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$\text{Var}(N_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \left(\frac{1}{i} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{i} \right)$$
 As $j \rightarrow \infty$, $E[N_j] \rightarrow \ln j$, $\text{Var}(N_j) \rightarrow \ln j$

Lesson 5 : Markov Chain Classification

- > An **absorbing** state is one that cannot be exited.
- > State j is **accessible** ($i \rightarrow j$) from state i if $p_{ij}^n > 0$, $\forall n \geq 0$.
- > Two states **communicate** if $i \leftrightarrow j$.
- > A **class** of states is a maximal set of state that communicate with each other.
- > A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it has only one class.
- > A state (class) is **recurrent** if the probability of reentering the state is 1. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)} = \infty$
- > A state (class) is **transient** if it is not recurrent. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)} < \infty$
- > A finite Markov Chain must have at least one recurrent class. If it is irreducible, then it is recurrent.

Lesson 6 : Markov Chains Limiting Probability

- > A chain is **positive recurrent** if the expected number of transitions until the state occurs is finite, **null recurrent** otherwise. Null recurrent means that the long-term proportion of time in each state is 0.
- > A chain is **periodic** when states occur every n periods for $n > 1$.
- > A chain is **aperiodic** when the period is 1. In other words, $P_{ii}^{(1)} > 0, \forall i$
- > A chain is **ergodic** when the chain is aperiodic and positive irreducible recurrent.
- > **Stationary probability** :

$$\pi_j = \sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij} \pi_i \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \pi_i = 1$$
- > **Limiting probabilities** : if the chain is ergodic, then

$$P^{(\infty)} = \begin{pmatrix} \pi_1 & \pi_2 & \pi_3 \\ \pi_1 & \pi_2 & \pi_3 \\ \pi_1 & \pi_2 & \pi_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Lesson 7 : Time in Transient States

- > Tips : ??
- > $S = (I - P_{\text{transient}})^{-1}$, where s_{ij} is the time in state j given that the current state is i .
- > $f_{ij} = \frac{s_{ij} - \delta_{i,j}}{s_{jj}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_{ij}^{(n)}$, where f_{ij} is the probability that state i ever transitions to state j .

Lesson 8 : Branching Processes

- > A branching process is a special type of Markov chain representing the growth or extinction of a population.
- > $E[X_n] = E[Z]^n$, where $E[Z]$ is the expected number of people born in a generation.
- > $\text{Var}(X_n) = \text{Var}(Z) \cdot E[Z]^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^n E[Z]^{k-1}$
- > If $X_0 \neq 1$ mean and variance of X_n need to be multiplied by X_0 .

- > **Probability of extinction** :

$$\pi_0 = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j \pi_0^j$$

$$- \mu \leq 1 \Rightarrow \pi_0 \geq 1, \text{ if } X_0 = 1.$$

$$- \mu > 1 \Rightarrow \pi_0 < 1, \text{ if } X_0 = 1.$$

For cubic equation, it is guaranteed to factor ($\pi_0 - 1$). Tips : ??

Lesson 9 : Time Reversible

- > If Q is the reverse-time Markov chain for ergodic P , then

$$\pi_i Q_{ij} = \pi_j P_{ji}$$
 with $P_{ii} = Q_{ii}$ and if $p_{ij} = 0 \Leftrightarrow q_{ji} = 0$
- > If $Q = P$, then P is said to be **time-reversible**.

Lesson 10 : Exponential Distribution

- > **Lack of memory** :

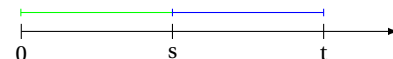
$$\Pr(X > k + x | X > k) = \Pr(X > x)$$
- > **Minimum** : if $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_i)$, then

$$\min(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \sim \text{Exp}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i\right)$$
- > The sum of 2 Exponential random variables is the sum of the maximum and the minimum, since one must be the min and the other the max.

$$X_1 + X_2 = \min(X_1, X_2) + \max(X_1, X_2)$$

Lesson 11 : Poisson Process

- > $X(t) \sim \text{Poisson}[m(t)]$, where $m(t)$ is **mean value function** representing the mean of the number of events before time t .
- > Poisson process can't decrease over time. $N(t) \geq N(s)$ for $t \geq s$
- > $N(0) = 0$
- > Increments are **independent** :



$$\Pr[N(t) - N(s) = n | N(s) = k] = \Pr[N(t) - N(s) = n]$$

- > **Non-homogeneous Poisson process** :

$$m(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(u) du$$

where $\lambda(t)$ is the **intensity function**

- > **Homogeneous Poisson process** : The Poisson process is said to be homogeneous when the intensity function is a constant.

$$m(t) = \int_0^t \lambda du = \lambda t$$

We then say that the process has **stationary increments**.

$$\Pr[N(s - t)] = \Pr[N(t) - N(s)]$$

Lesson 12 : Poisson Process Time To Next Events

- > T_n is the time between the n^{th} event and the $(n-1)^{th}$ event.
- > $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n T_i$, is the time for the n^{th} event.
- > $F_{T_1}(t) = 1 - e^{-\int_0^t \lambda(u) du}$
- > For homogeneous process :

$$T_n \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$$

$$S_n \sim \text{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$$

Lesson 13 : Poisson Process Counting Special Type

- > If event of type 1 occur with probability $\alpha_1(t)$, then the event follow a Poisson process with intensity $\lambda(t) \cdot \alpha_1(t)$.

$$m(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(u) \alpha_1(u) du$$

Lesson 14 : Poisson Process Other Characteristics

- > Only for homogeneous Poisson processes.
- > The probability of k event from process 1 is given by :

$$k \sim \text{Binomial}\left(k+l-1, \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}\right)$$

Then the probability that k event from process 1 occur before l from process 2 is :

$$\sum_{i=k}^{k+l-1} \binom{k+l-1}{i} \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}\right)^i \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2}\right)^{k+l-1-i}$$

- > Given that exactly $N(t) = k$ Poisson events occurred before time t , the joint distribution of event time is the joint distribution of k independent uniform random variables on $(0, t)$.

$$F_{S_1, \dots, S_n | n(t)}(s_1, \dots, s_n | k) = \frac{k!}{t^k}$$

- > For k independent uniform random variable on $(0, t)$, the expected value of the j^{th} order statistics is : $E[T^{(j)}] = \frac{j \cdot t}{(k+1)}$.
- > Tips : ??

Lesson 15 : Poisson Process Sums and Mixtures

- > A **Sums** of independent Poisson random variables is a Poisson random with intensify function $\lambda(t) = \sum \lambda_i(t)$. **Warning : Subtraction don't give a Poisson random variable.**
- > A **Mixture** of Poisson processes is not a Poisson processes.

- **Discrete** mixture :

$$F_{X(t)}(t) = \sum_i w_i F_{X_i(t)}(t)$$

where $w_i > 0, \sum w_i = 1$

- **Continuous** mixture :

$$F_{X(t)}(t) = \int F_{\{X_u(t)\}}(t) f(u) du$$

- If $N(t) | \lambda$ is a Poisson random variable and $\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \theta)$, then $N(t) \sim \text{NegBin}(r = \alpha, \beta = \theta t)$.

Lesson 16 : Compound Poisson Processes

- > A **compound** random variable S is define by $S = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$ where N is the **primary** distribution and X the **secondary** distribution.

- > If $N(t)$ is a Poisson process, then $S(t)$ is a compound Poisson process with :

$$\begin{aligned} - E[S(t)] &= \lambda t E[X] \\ - \text{Var}(S(t)) &= \lambda t E[X^2] \end{aligned}$$

- > If X_i is discrete, we can separate the process into a sum of subprocess view in ??.

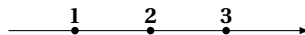
- > **Sums of compound** homogeneous Poisson process is also a Poisson process with :

$$\begin{aligned} - N(t) &\sim \text{Pois}(\sum \lambda_i) \\ - F_X(x) &= \sum_i w_i F_{X_i(t)}(t), \quad w_i = \frac{\lambda_i}{\sum \lambda_i} \end{aligned}$$

Lesson 17 : Reliability Structure Functions

- > $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ is the **structure** function for a system. It equal 1 if the system work, 0 otherwise.

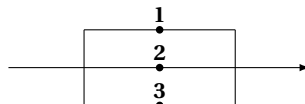
- > A **series** system is define as a **minimal path set**. The system is working if all components are working.



The serie structure function is define as

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n x_i$$

- > A **parallel** system is define as a **minimal cut set**. The system is working if at least 1 components is working.



The parallel structure function is define as

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - x_i)$$

- > Tips : Minimal path set is all way for the system to work, and the minimal cut set is all the way for the system to not work.

- > Tips : If set is $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\{1, 2\}$, the **minimal** mean we only take $\{1, 2\}$.

- > Tips : **Minimal cut** is a serie of parallel structure and **minimal path** is a parallel of serie structure.

Lesson 18 : Reliability Probabilities

- > $r(\mathbf{p})$ is the same polynomial as $\phi(\mathbf{x})$.

- > Inclusion/exclusion bounds using minimal path :

$$\begin{aligned} r(\mathbf{p}) &\leq \sum A_i \\ r(\mathbf{p}) &\geq \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j \end{aligned}$$

$$r(\mathbf{p}) \leq \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j + \sum A_i \cup A_j \cup A_k$$

where $A_i = \sum p_i$ is the probability of the i^{e} minimal path set work.

- > Inclusion/exclusion bounds using minimal cut :

$$1 - r(\mathbf{p}) \leq \sum A_i$$

$$1 - r(\mathbf{p}) \geq \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j$$

$$1 - r(\mathbf{p}) \leq \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j + \sum A_i \cup A_j \cup A_k$$

where $A_i = \sum (1 - p_i)$ is the probability of the i^{e} minimal cut set work.

- > Bounds using intersections :

$$\prod \phi(\mathbf{X})^{\text{min. cut}} \leq r(\mathbf{p}) \leq \prod \phi(\mathbf{X})^{\text{min. path}}$$

- > **Random graph** :

$$1 - P_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k-1} q^{k(n-k)} p_k$$

$$1 - P_n \leq (n+1) q^{n-1}$$

$$P_1 = 1$$

Lesson 19 : Reliability Time to Failure

- > Expected amount of time to failure :

$$E[\text{system life}] = \int_0^\infty r(\bar{F}(t)) dt$$

where,

- For serie system :

$$r(\bar{F}(t)) = \prod_{i=1}^n \bar{F}_i(t)$$

- For parallel system :

$$r(\bar{F}(t)) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n F_i(t)$$

- > **Shortcut** : k out of n system with exponentials(θ) : $E[T] = \theta \sum_{i=k}^n \frac{1}{i}$

- > **Hazard rate function** (failure rate function) :

$$h(t) = \frac{f(t)}{\bar{F}(t)}$$

and we say that the distribution

- is an increasing failure rate if $h(t)$ is non-decreasing function of t .

- is an decreasing failure rate if $h(t)$ is non-increasing function of t .

- > **Cumulative hazard function** :

$$H(t) = \int_0^t h(u) du = -\ln \bar{F}(t)$$

with $\frac{H(t)}{t}$ the average of the hazard rate.

Lesson 20 : Survival Models

$${}_t p_x = \frac{\ell_{x+t}}{\ell_x}, \quad {}_t q_x = \frac{\ell_x - \ell_{x+t}}{\ell_x}$$

$${}_t | u q_x = \frac{\ell_{x+t} - \ell_{x+t+u}}{\ell_x}$$

$${}_t + u p_x = {}_t p_x \cdot {}_t p_{x+u}$$

$${}_t | u q_x = {}_t + u q_x - {}_t q_x = {}_t p_x \cdot {}_t + u q_{x+t}$$

- > Let be N_x the number of life surviving to age x , then

$$(N_{x+t} | N_x = n) \sim \text{Bin}(n, {}_t p_x)$$

- > **Force of mortality** :

$$\mu_{x+t} = \frac{f_{T_x}(t)}{{}_t p_x} = -\frac{d}{dt} \ln {}_t p_x$$

➤ **Linear interpolation(D.U.D) :**

$$\ell_{x+t} = (1-t)\ell_x + t\ell_{x+1}$$

Shortcut : $\forall t \in (0, 1), \forall x \in \mathbb{N}, x < x+t < x+1 :$

$$\rightarrow tq_x = t \cdot q_x$$

$$\rightarrow \mu_{x+t} = \frac{q_x}{1-t \cdot q_x}$$

- **Expected life time :** Let $k_x = \lfloor T_x \rfloor$, the full years until death. Then e_x is the **curtate life expectancy** and \bar{e}_x the **complete life expectancy**. ω is the age where $\ell_\omega = 0$ and $\omega = \infty$ by convention is nothing is said.

$$e_x = E[K_x] = \sum_{k=1}^{\omega-x-1} k p_x$$

$$\bar{e}_x = E[T_x] = \int_0^{\omega-x} t p_x dt \stackrel{\text{D.U.D}}{=} e_x + 0.5$$

Lesson 21 : Contingent Payments

The contract here are define with K_x to pay at the end of death year. All same contract can be define with T_x to pay at the moment of death. Then we use integral instead of sum and use

$$\Pr(K = k) = k p_x q_{x+k} \Rightarrow f_{T_x}(t) = t p_x \mu_{x+t}$$

➤ **Life Insurance :**

- Whole Life insurance :

$$A_x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} v^{k+1} k p_x q_{x+k}$$

- Term Life insurance :

$$A_{x:\overline{n}|} = \sum_{k=0}^n v^{k+1} k p_x q_{x+k}$$

- Deferred insurance :

$${}_m|A_x = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} v^{k+1} k p_x q_{x+k}$$

- Endowment insurance :

$$A_{x:\overline{n}|} = A_{x:\overline{n}|}^1 + n E_x$$

- Pure Endowment :

$${}_n E_x = v^n n p_x$$

➤ **Life Annuities :**

- Whole Life annuity

$$\ddot{a}_x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} v^k k p_x$$

- Temporary Life annuity

$$\ddot{a}_{x:\overline{n}|} = \sum_{k=0}^n v^k k p_x$$

- Deferred annuity

$${}_m|\ddot{a}_x = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} v^k k p_x$$

- Certain and life annuity

$$\ddot{a}_{x:\overline{n}|} = \ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|} + {}_m|\ddot{a}_x$$

➤ **Illustrative Life Table :**

- $A_x = v q_x + v p_x A_{x+1}$
- $\ddot{a}_x = 1 + v p_x \ddot{a}_{x+1}$
- $A_{x:\overline{n}|} = A_x - n E_x A_{x+n}$
- $\ddot{a}_{x:\overline{n}|} = \ddot{a}_x - n E_x \ddot{a}_{x+n}$
- ${}_m|A_x = m E_x A_{x+m}$
- ${}_m|\ddot{a}_x = m E_x \ddot{a}_{x+m}$
- $\ddot{a}_x = 1 + a_x$
- $A_x = 1 - d \ddot{a}_x$

- **Joint life annuity(\ddot{a}_{xy})** make payments until the earliest death pf two lives.

- **Last survivor annuity($\ddot{a}_{\overline{xy}|}$)** make payments until the last death of two lives.

$$\ddot{a}_x + \ddot{a}_y = \ddot{a}_{xy} + \ddot{a}_{\overline{xy}|}$$

- **Premiums :**

$$M \cdot A_x = P \ddot{a}_x$$

$$P = \frac{M \cdot A_x}{\ddot{a}_x} = \frac{M}{\ddot{a}_x} - M \cdot d$$

Lesson 22 : Simulation Inverse Method

- **Linear congruential generators :**

$$x_k = (a x_{k-1} + c) \bmod m$$

$$x_k = b - \left\lfloor \frac{b}{m} \right\rfloor m$$

where $b = (a x_{i-k} + c)$ and $x_0 \equiv \text{seed}$

- **Inverse transformation method :**

$$\Pr(F^{-1}(u) \leq x) = \Pr(u \leq F(x)) = F(x)$$

then $x = F^{-1}(u)$ where $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$

- Normal Case : $x = \mu + \sigma z$

- Log-Normal Case : $x = e^{\mu + \sigma z}$

where $z = \Phi^{-1}(u)$, with linear interpolation.

- **Tips : ??**

- **Tips :** if $\uparrow U \equiv \downarrow X$ then $(1 - u_i) \Rightarrow u_i$

Lesson 23 : Simulation Application

- $\Pr(X \leq x) \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \mathbb{1}_{\{x^{(j)} \leq x\}}$

- $E[X^k] \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m [x^{(j)}]^k$

- $\text{VaR}_k(X) \approx X^{[j_0]}$

- $\text{TVaR}_k(X) \approx \frac{1}{m(1-k)} \sum_{j=j_0+1}^m X^{(j)} \mathbb{1}_{\{X^{(j)} > X^{[j_0]}\}}$
 $\approx \frac{1}{m-j_0} \sum_{j=j_0+1}^m X^{[j]}$

where

- $j_0 = \lfloor m \cdot k \rfloor$
- m is the number of simulations.
- $X^{(j)}$ is the j^{th} simulations.
- $X^{[j]}$ is the j^{th} simulations in order statistics.

Lesson 24 : Simulation Rejection Method

- **General method :** Let $f(x)$ be the density function of variable to simulate, and let $g(x)$ be the **base distribution**, a random density function that is easy-to-simulate with nonzero wherever $f(x) \neq 0$.

$$c = \max \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

Generate two uniform number u_1, u_2 . Let

$x_1 = G^{-1}(u_1)$. Accept x_1 only if

$$u_2 \leq \frac{f(x_1)}{c \cdot g(x_1)}$$

- **Simulating gamma distribution :** Use $\text{Exp}(\alpha \cdot \theta)$ as the base distribution and $x = \alpha \cdot \theta$ that maximize c .

- **Simulating standard normal distribution :** Generate 3 uniform u_1, u_2, u_3 . Let $y_1 = -\ln u_2$ and $y_2 = -\ln u_3$. Accept y_1 if

$$y_2 \geq \frac{(y_1 - 1)^2}{2}$$

and add $(-)$ if $u_3 \geq 0.5$

- The **Number of iteration** is a Ross-geometric distribution with mean c . Let be β the mean of a geometric distribution given in the exam appendix :

$$E[N] = 1 + \beta = c$$

$$\text{Var}(N) = \beta(1 + \beta)$$

Lesson 25 : Estimator Quality

- **Bias :** This quality measures if, on average, the estimator is on the expected value of the parameter.

$$E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta + \text{bias}_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta)$$

- If $\text{bias}_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta) = 0$, then $\hat{\theta}$ is **unbiased**.

- If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{bias}_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta) = 0$, then $\hat{\theta}$ is **asymptotically unbiased**.

- If $\text{bias}_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta) \neq 0$, then $\hat{\theta}$ is **biased**.

- **Consistency :** This quality measures if the probability that the estimator is different from the parameter by more than ε goes to 0 as n goes to infinity.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0, \forall \varepsilon > 0$$

In other word, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $E[\hat{\theta}] \rightarrow \theta$, $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}) \rightarrow 0$

- **Efficiency :** This quality measures the variance of the estimator. Lower the variance is, more efficient is the estimator.

$$\text{Efficiency of } \hat{\theta} = \frac{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})^{\text{rao}}}{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$$

$$\text{Relative efficiency of } \hat{\theta}_1 \text{ to } \hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_2)}{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_1)}$$

See the **rao-cramer lower bound**.

- **Mean Square Error :** This quality measures the expected value of the square difference between the estimator and the parameter.

$$\text{MSE}_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta) = E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2] = (\text{bias}_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta))^2 + \text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$$

- An estimator is called a **uniformly minimum variance unbiased estimator(UMVUE)** if it's unbiased and if there is no other unbiased estimator with a smaller variance for any true value θ .

- Some estimator :

- $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i$ is a unbiased estimator of the mean μ . $\text{Var}(\bar{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \text{Var}(x)$

- $s^2 = \sum \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$ is a unbiased estimator of the variance σ^2 .
- $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}$ is an asymptotically unbiased of the variance σ^2 .
- $\hat{\mu}'_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i^k$, where $\hat{\mu}'_1 = \bar{x}$ and $\hat{\mu}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^k$, where $\hat{\mu}_1 = 0$ and $\hat{\mu}_2 = \hat{\sigma}^2$.

Lesson 26 : Kernel Density Estimation

- > **Empirical distribution** : All data is assigning a probability of $\frac{1}{n}$. This is the same method used for simulation, see ??.

$$F_e(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \leq x\}}$$

$$f_e(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i = x\}} \\ = F_e(x) - F_e(x_{i-1})$$

- > **Kernel Density** is a empirical distribution smoothed with a base function. Let define the scaling factor b called **bandwidth**.

- The kernel-density estimate of the density function is : $\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum k\left(\frac{x-x_i}{b}\right) \Leftrightarrow \sum f_e(x) k\left(\frac{x-x_i}{b}\right)$
- The kernel-density estimate of the distribution is : $\hat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum K\left(\frac{x-x_i}{b}\right)$

- > **Rectangular(uniform, box) kernel** :

$$k(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2b}, & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$K(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < -1 \\ 0.5(x+1), & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{F_e(x+b) - F_e(x-b)}{2b}$$

- > **Triangular kernel** :

$$k(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1-|x|}{b}, & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$K(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < -1 \\ \frac{(1+x)^2}{2}, & -1 \leq x \leq 0 \\ 1 - \frac{(1-x)^2}{2}, & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

- > **Gaussian kernel** : The distribution become normal with $\mu = x_i$ and $\sigma = b$.

$$k(x) = \frac{e^{-x^2/2}}{b\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$K(x) = \Phi(x)$$

- > Other kernel : $k(x) = \beta(x)$ and $K(x) = B(x)$

- > **kernel moments** : Let X be the kernel density estimate and x_i the empirical estimate.

We then condition on x_i .

$$E[X] = E[E[X|x_i]] = E[x_i]$$

$$\text{Var}(X_R) = \text{Var}(x_i) + \frac{b^2}{3}$$

$$\text{Var}(X_T) = \text{Var}(x_i) + \frac{b^2}{6}$$

$$\text{Var}(X_G) = \text{Var}(x_i) + b^2$$

- > Tips : For rectangular kernel, $E[x|x_i]$ is a uniform($x_i - b, x_i + b$).

Lesson 27 : Method of Moments

- > **Types of data** :

- Complete data : Data is complete if we are given the exact value of each observation.
- Grouped data : Set of interval and we know how many observation are in each.
- Censored data : Value that are in a interval, but we don't know the exact value. Like limits ($\min(X, u)$).
- Truncated data : We have data only when it in certain range, otherwise we don't know. Like deductible ($X|X > d$).

- > **Method of Moments** : We match $\hat{\mu}'_k = E[X^k]$ and find the parameters. If data is Censored or Truncated, we need to match the censored or truncated moment : $\hat{\mu}'_k = E[\min(X, u)^k]$ or $\hat{\mu}'_k = E[X^k | X > d]$.

- > For pareto distribution, if $\hat{\mu}'_2 = \hat{\sigma}^2 + \bar{x}^2 \leq 2\bar{x}^2$, the method of moment is unstable and can't be used.

Lesson 28 : Percentile Matching

- > **Percentile Matching** : We match $F_e(\hat{\pi}_p) = p$ and find the parameters.

- For censored data, we need select percentiles within the range of the uncensored portion of the data.
- For truncated data, we need to match the percentiles of the conditional distribution :

$$F(x|X > d) = \frac{\Pr(d < X \leq x)}{\Pr(X > d)} = \frac{F(x) - F(d)}{1 - F(d)}$$

$$S(x|X > d) = \frac{S(x)}{S(d)}$$

- > **Smoothed empirical percentile** :

$$\hat{\pi}_p = (1-h)X^{[j]} + hX^{[j+1]}$$

where

- $j = \lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor$
- $h = (n+1)p - j$
- $X^{[j]}$ is the j^{th} order statistics.

Lesson 29 : Maximum Likelihood Estimators

- > **Maximum Likelihood Estimators** : We maximize the probability of observing the data.

$$L(\theta) = \prod g(x_i; \theta)$$

$$l(\theta) = \sum \ln g(x_i; \theta)$$

- Individual data : $g(x_i; \theta) = f(x_i)$
- Grouped data : $g(x_i; \theta) = F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1})$
- Censored data : $g(x_i; \theta) = S(x_i)$
- Truncated data : $g(x_i; \theta) = \frac{f(x)}{s(x)}$

Lesson 30 : MLE Special Techniques

- > Case MLE equals MME

- For Exponential, $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \bar{x}$
- For Gamma with fixed α , $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \hat{\theta}^{\text{MME}}$
- For Normal, $\hat{\mu}^{\text{MLE}} = \bar{x}$ and $(\hat{\sigma}^2)^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$
- For Binomial, $mq = \bar{x}$ then given m , $\hat{q}^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{\bar{x}}{m}$
- For Poisson, $\hat{\lambda}^{\text{MLE}} = \hat{\lambda}^{\text{MME}}$
- For Binomial Negative, given r or β , $(r\beta)^{\text{MLE}} = \bar{x}$

- > Parametrization and Shifting :

- Parametrization : MLE's are independent of parametrization $\lambda = \frac{1}{\theta} \Leftrightarrow \hat{\lambda}^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}}}$
- Shifting the distribution is equivalent of shifting the data.

- > Transformations : MLE's are invariant under one-to-one transformation. Then if we have a transformed variable, we can untransform the data and find the parameter of the untransform distribution.

Tips : ??

- > Weibull distribution : If the data is censored(u) or truncated(d), then

$$(\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}})^{\tau} = \frac{\sum x_i^{\tau} - \sum d_i^{\tau}}{\sum \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \leq u\}}}$$

if $\tau = 1$, then the distribution is Exponential.

- > Pareto distribution with fixed $\theta : \hat{\alpha} = -\frac{n}{K}$

$$K = \sum_{i=1}^{n+c} \ln(\theta + d_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{n+c} \ln(\theta + x_i)$$

where $n \equiv$ number of non-censored(c) data.

- > Single-parameter Pareto : $\hat{\alpha} = -\frac{n}{K}$

$$K = \sum_{i=1}^{n+c} \ln \max(\theta, d_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{n+c} \ln x_i$$

where $n \equiv$ number of non-censored(c) data.

- > Uniform(0, θ) : We take the smallest θ possible, $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \max(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

$$\text{Censored(u)} : \hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{nd}{\sum \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i < d\}}}$$

- Grouped : We take the highest interval (L, U). $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \min(U, \hat{\theta}_{\text{Censored}(L)}^{\text{MLE}})$
- > Bernoulli : Let have a random variable that can take 2 values, n and m . Then $\hat{p} = \frac{n}{n+m}$
- > Tips : If $L(\theta)$ look like a density distribution, $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} \equiv \text{mode of this distribution}$.
- > **Ground-up loss** is define as $(x|x>d)$.

Lesson 31 : Variance of MLE

- > **Fisher information matrix** :

$$I(\theta) = nE \left[\left(\frac{d \ln f(x; \theta)}{d\theta} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= -nE \left[\frac{d^2 \ln f(x; \theta)}{d\theta^2} \right]$$

using the loglikelihood function

$$I(\theta) = E \left[\left(\frac{d l(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta)}{d\theta} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= -E \left[\frac{d^2 l(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta)}{d\theta^2} \right]$$

- > **Rao-Cramer lower bound** is the lowest possible variance for a unbiased estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of θ . Then $\hat{\theta} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \text{Var}(\hat{\theta})^{\text{rao}})$
- $$\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})^{\text{rao}} \geq \frac{1}{I(\theta)}$$
- under certain regularity conditions
- The seconde derivative of the loglikelihood exist.
 - The support of the density function is not function of θ .

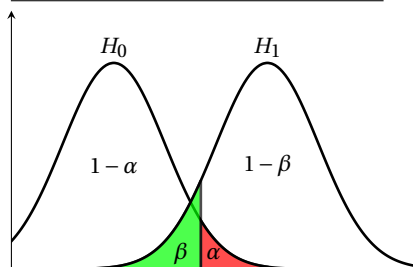
Lesson 32 : Sufficient Statistics

- > A **sufficient statistics** are statistics that capture all the information about the parameter we are estimating that the sample as to offer.
 - > A statistics is sufficient when the distribution of a sample given a statistics does not depend on the parameter. Y is a sufficient statistics for a parameter θ if and only if $L(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta | Y) = h(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- $$L(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta) = g(y)h(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$
- where $h(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a function that does not involve θ .
- > **Rao-Blackwell Theorem** : For any unbiased estimator $\hat{\theta}$ and sufficient statistic Y , the estimator $E[\hat{\theta}|Y]$ is unbiased and has variance less than or equal to $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$.
 - > The maximum likelihood estimator is a function of a sufficient statistic.

Lesson 33 : Hypothesis Testing

- > Let be H_0 the **null hypothesis** and H_1 the **alternative hypothesis**.

	Accept H_0	Reject H_0
H_0 True	$1 - \alpha$	α
H_1 True	β	$1 - \beta$



- > The α value is usually name :

- Probability of Type I error
- Size of critical region
- significance level

The β value is usually name :

- Probability of Type II error

The $(1 - \beta)$ value is usually name :

- The power of test.

- > We will reject H_0 in favor of H_1 if a certain condition occurred ($X > \gamma$), named the **critical region**. Then the probability of rejecting H_0 is giving by $\Pr(X > \gamma | H_0 \equiv \text{true}) = \alpha$
 - > Lowering the probability of type I error came at the cost of raising the probability of type II error. One way to lower both is to increase sample size.
 - > The **p-value** is the probability of being greater or equal to the observation if H_0 is true. H_0 is rejected if and only if the p-value is less than the significance level.
- $$P_{\text{value}} < \alpha$$

Lesson 34 : Confidence Interval and Sample Size

- > Let be c the **confidence coefficient**. Then we can say that we're 100c% confident that the parameter is between (a, b) , called the **confidence interval**. $\alpha = 1 - c$
- $$\theta \in \hat{\theta} \pm z_{1+\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$$
- > We can found the probability that the half-width of the interval is less than k .
- $$\Pr(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| \leq k) \geq \frac{1+c}{2}$$
- $$\Phi \left(\frac{k}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \right) \geq \frac{1+c}{2}$$

- > To find the sample size needed to have a certain (α) and $(1 - \beta)$, we resolve

$$\Pr(\bar{x} > k | H_0) = 1 - \Phi \left(\frac{k - \mu_0}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \right) = \alpha$$

$$\Pr(\bar{x} > k | H_1) = 1 - \Phi \left(\frac{k - \mu_1}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}} \right) = 1 - \beta$$

Lesson 35 : Confidence Intervals for Means

- > The **chi-square** is a one-parameter family distribution. In definition, it's a gamma with $\alpha = \frac{n}{2}$ and $\theta = 2$. The only parameter n is called **degree of freedom**.

- Let $X_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ be normal random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(X_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{(n)}^2$$

- Let $x_i, i = 1, \dots, n, n \geq 2$ be random sample from normal distribution with variance σ^2 .

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{(n-1)}^2$$

- Tips : $\chi_{(2)}^2 \sim \text{Exp}(\theta = 2)$

- > The **student** is a one-parameter family distribution. We define it as

$$T_{(n)} = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{W/n}}$$

where $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ and $W \sim \chi_{(n)}^2$.

Note that as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $T_{(n)} \rightarrow N(0, 1)$

- > When the variance is unknown, we need to estimate it with the unbiased estimator S^2 .

$$T_{(n-1)} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sqrt{S^2/n}}$$

- > Testing the difference of means from two population.

$$x_1, \dots, x_n \sim N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$$

$$y_1, \dots, y_m \sim N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$$

$$T_{(n+m-2)} = \frac{(\bar{x} - \bar{y}) - (\mu_x - \mu_y)}{S \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m}}}$$

$$\text{where } S^2 = \frac{(n-1)S_x^2 + (m-1)S_y^2}{m+n-2}$$

- > Testing for mean of Bernoulli population. Let p_0 the probability on H_0 .

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{n}}}$$

Lesson 36 : Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests

- > The **Kolmogorov-Smirnov test** is one method for determining how well a parametric model fits its data. This test is only appropriate for continuous distribution.

$$D = \max |F_e(x) - F^*(x; \hat{\theta})|$$

where $d \leq x \leq u$ and $F^*(x) = \frac{F(x) - F(u)}{S(d)}$.

x_i	$F^*(x_i)$	$F_e(x_i)$	$F_e(x_i)$	max
x_1	0.5	0.2	0.6	0.3
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots

Lesson 37 : Chi Square Test

- The **Chi Square** look for equality of means between k group. Let O_i be the observation and $E_i = np_i$ the expected on each group.

$$H_0 : \mu_1 = \dots = \mu_k$$

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} = \sum_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{O_i^2}{E_i} \right) - n \sim \chi_{(k-1-\theta')}^2$$

Note : This test can be use to test the fit of as parametric model. θ' is the number of parameter fitted with the same data as the test.

- Two-dimensional chi-square :**

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^c \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}} \sim \chi_{(k-1)(c-1)}^2$$

Lesson 38 : Confience Interval for Variances

- To find a confidence interval for the variance, we need the following statistic.

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

- Warning : W is on the denominator, so for upper one-sided interval, we take the lower percentile α and $1 - \alpha$ for lower one-sided interval.

- $\left(0, \frac{(n-1)S^2}{w_\alpha} \right)$
- $\left(\frac{(n-1)S^2}{w_{1-\alpha}}, \infty \right)$
- $\left(\frac{(n-1)S^2}{w_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}}, \frac{(n-1)S^2}{w_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}} \right)$

- The **Fisher** distribution is define as

$$F_{(r_1, r_2)} = \frac{W_1/r_1}{W_2/r_2}$$

where r_1 and r_2 are the degree of freedom.

- If $T \sim$ Student, then $T^2 \sim$ Fisher.

- To find a confidence interval for variance ratio, we need the following statistic.

$$F_{(n_x-1, n_y-1)} = \frac{S_x^2/\sigma_x^2}{S_y^2/\sigma_y^2}$$

Lesson 39 : Uniformly Most Powerful critical Regions

- The **Neyman-Pearson lemma** states that for tests of one *simple* hypothesis against another, the best critical region for any (α) is to select all that minimize the likelihood ratio.

$$h(x) = \frac{L(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta | H_0)}{L(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta | H_1)} < c$$

- If $h(x)$ is increasing, $F(k|H_0) < \alpha$.
- If $h(x)$ is decreasing, $S(k|H_0) < \alpha$.

- If the alternative hypothesis is *composite*, then we can find the **uniformly most powerful critical region** with the same likelihood ratio. This region only exist for one-sided test.

Lesson 40 : Likelihood Ratio Tests

- This test is usefull when there is no uniformly most powerful critical region.

$$h(x) = \frac{g(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta | H_0)}{g(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta | H_1)}$$

where $g(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta)$ is the maximum likelihood.

- For large sample, we can use the asymptotic distribution of the likelihood.

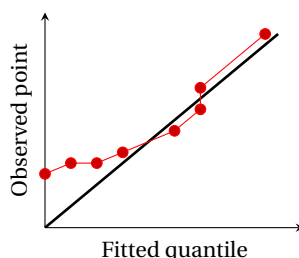
$$-2[l(\theta|H_0) - l(\theta|H_1)] \sim \chi_{(k-l)}^2$$

where k is the number of parameters specifies by H_0 and l is the combinaison of numbers of parameters specifies by H_0 and H_1 .

- The last test can also be use to decide if it worth to add parameter to a distribution fit.

Lesson 41 : q-q Plots

- This plot compare quantile of two distribution. It consiste of a plot of coordinate pairs : $(x_i, F^{-1}(p_i))$ where p_i is the **empirical percentile** of x_i . Then the fit is good if the point are close to a 45° line.



Lesson 42 : Introduction to Extended Linear Models

There are two purposes in building a extended linear model.

- Prediction :** We want to predic the valu of the *response* variable given specific values of the *explanatory* variables.
- Inference :** We want to understand which *explanatory* variables explain the *response* variable and how much their explain it.

To evaluate the accuracy of a model, we estimate it mean square error.

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Lesson 43 : How a Generalized Linear Model Works

- Linear Model :**

$$Y = \eta + \varepsilon = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_p x_p + \varepsilon$$

where

$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

$$Y \sim N(\eta, \sigma^2)$$

Hypothesis :

$$(H_1) \quad E[\varepsilon] = 0 \quad (\text{Linearity})$$

$$(H_2) \quad \text{Var}(\varepsilon) = \sigma^2 \quad (\text{Homoscedasticity})$$

$$(H_3) \quad \text{Cov}(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_j) = 0 \quad (\text{Independence})$$

- The **Box-Cox transformation** is a general set of transformation. When the variance of the error terms is not constant (H_2), we need to transforme Y .

$$Y^* = \begin{cases} \frac{Y^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} & \lambda \neq 0 \\ \ln Y & \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$

where λ is chosen to best stabilize the variance of the error terms.

- The *feature* must be linearly independent. That mean their can't be a function of another. Ex : $X_3 = 1 - X_2$.

- We need to encode categorials variables with k levels into $(k - 1)$ indicators variables (called *dummy* variables) to avoid *feature* to be dependent. For interaction with 2 categorials variables, $(k - 1)(l - 1)$ dummy variables are needed.

- GLM :**

$$g(E[Y]) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i x_i$$

where $g(\cdot)$ is the link function.

- Exponential Family :**

$$f(y; \theta) = \exp\{a(y)b(\theta) + c(\theta) + d(y)\}$$

with

$$E[a(y)] = -\frac{c'(\theta)}{b'(\theta)}$$

$$\text{Var}(a(y)) = \frac{b''(\theta)c'(\theta) - c''(\theta)b'(\theta)}{[b'(\theta)]^3}$$

- Tweedie** distribution :

$$\text{Var}(Y) = aE[Y]^p$$

- link function :** The GLM estimate is unbiased when the canonical link is used.

Distribution	Canonical link
Normal	$g(y) = y$
Binomial	$g(y) = \ln \frac{y}{1-y}$
Poisson	$g(y) = \ln y$
Gamma	$g(y) = \frac{1}{y}$

- Offset :** We add $\ln n_i$ for cell with n_i exposure.

- Rate ratio :**

$$RR = \frac{E[Y_i | x_j = 1]}{E[Y_i | x_j = 0]}$$

Lesson 44 : Categorical Response

Binomial Response

- Let $\pi_i \in (0, 1)$ be the response variable. We then need to have link that map η into $(0, 1)$.

- logit** : $\ln\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) = \eta$
- Probit** : $\Phi^{-1}(\pi) = \eta$
- Log-log** : $\ln(-\ln(1-\pi)) = \eta$

- Odds Ratio** : $o = \frac{\pi}{1-\pi}$

Nominal Response

- Suppose the response can be J values. Then we create a model of relative odds.

$$\ln \frac{\pi_j}{\pi_1} = \eta_j \Leftrightarrow \pi_j = \pi_1 e^{\eta_j}$$

- $\pi_i = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j=2}^J e^{\eta_j}}$
- $\pi_j = \frac{e^{\eta_j}}{1 + \sum_{j=2}^J e^{\eta_j}}$

- If x_i is a binary feature, then the odds ratio of this **variable** in the category j to the base categorie is $e^{\beta_{ij}}$.

Ordinal Response

Ordinal response variables have several categories in logical order.

- Cumulative logit and proportional odds models** :

$$\ln o_j = \ln \frac{\sum_{k=1}^j \pi_k}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^j \pi_k} = \eta_j$$

Tips : The model is cumulative, so to find π_2 , we need to find π_1 and $\pi_1 + \pi_2$.

This model is proportional so if we **fix** the categorie but consider two set of feature x_{i1} and x_{i2} , the relative odds are

$$\frac{(o_j | x_i = x_{i1})}{(o_j | x_i = x_{i2})} = e^{\sum \beta_i (x_{i1} - x_{i2})}$$

- Adjacent categorie logit model** :

$$\ln \frac{\pi_j}{\pi_{j+1}} = \eta_j$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^J \pi_j = 1$$

- Continuation ratio logit model** :

$$\ln \frac{\pi_j}{\sum_{k=j+1}^J \pi_k} = \ln \frac{\pi_j}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^j \pi_k} = \eta_j$$

Tips : Resolve for π_1 then for π_2 and so on ...

Lesson 45 : Estimating Parameters

- Let \mathbf{X} be the **design matrix**, the $p \times n$ features matrix.

- Linear Regression** :

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - n \bar{x} \bar{y}}{\sum x_i^2 - n \bar{x}^2}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{x}$$

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

- The **score** function is define as the derivative of the loglikelihood

$$\mathbf{U}(\beta) = \ell'(\beta)$$

- Newton-Raphson** algorithm :

$$\beta^{(k+1)} = \beta^{(k)} - \frac{\mathbf{U}(\beta^{(k)})}{\mathbf{U}'(\beta^{(k)})}$$

- Fisher Scoring** algorithm :

$$\beta^{(k+1)} = \beta^{(k)} - \frac{\mathbf{U}(\beta^{(k)})}{\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{U}'(\beta^{(k)})]}$$

- The score vector has components

$$U_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i - \mu_i}{\text{Var}(y_i)} x_{ij} \left(\frac{d g(\mu_i)}{d \mu_i} \right)$$

- The information matrix : $I(\theta) = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}$

- Let \mathbf{W} be the diagonal matrix with entries

$$w_{ii} = \left(\left(\frac{d g(\mu_i)}{d \mu_i} \right)^2 \text{Var}(y_i) \right)^{-1}$$

- Let \mathbf{G} be the diagonal matrix with entries

$$G_{ii} = \frac{g(\mu_i)}{\mu_i}$$

- The regression variable for one iteration

$$\mathbf{z}^{(k-1)} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{G}^{(k-1)} (\mathbf{y} - \mu^{(k-1)})$$

- The **Weighted Least Square** :

$$\mathbf{b}^{(k)} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}^{(k-1)} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}^{(k-1)} \mathbf{z}^{(k-1)}$$

Lesson 46 : Measures of Fit

- The **saturated** model is when we have as much feature as parameters ($p = n$). $g^{-1}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{y}$

- The **deviance** statistic test compare a model to the saturated model.

$$D = 2[\ell(\mathbf{b}_{max}) - \ell(\mathbf{b})] \approx n - p'$$

where $p' = p + 1$ and p the number of feature.

- Binomial :

$$D = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i \ln \frac{y_i}{\hat{y}_i} + (n_i - y_i) \ln \frac{n_i - y_i}{n_i - \hat{y}_i} \right)$$

- Normal (*scaled deviance*) :

$$\sigma^2 D = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

- Poisson :

$$D = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i \ln \frac{y_i}{\hat{y}_i} - (y_i - \hat{y}_i) \right)$$

- Gamma :

$$D = 2\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \left(-\ln \frac{y_i}{\hat{y}_i} + \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{\hat{y}_i} \right)$$

Significance of Feature

- Loglikelihood ratio test** : These tests compare a **unconstrained** modele with $p + q$ parameters versus another **constrained** model with p parameters.

$$2(\bar{\ell}_{p+q} - \bar{\ell}_p) \sim \chi_{(q)}^2$$

$$\hat{D} - \bar{D} \sim \chi_{(1)}^2$$

- Wald test** : To test wheter a single parameter $\beta_j = r$.

$$W = \frac{(\hat{\beta}_j - r)^2}{\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_j)} \sim \chi_{(1)}^2$$

$\sqrt{W} \sim N(0, 1)$, is usefull for confidence interval.

$$I(\theta)^{-1} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \text{ is the covariance matrix.}$$

- Score test** : $\mathbf{U}^T I(\theta)^{-1} \mathbf{U} \sim \chi_{(q)}^2$

If $q = 1$, $\frac{U}{\sqrt{I(\theta)}} \sim N(0, 1)$.

- We want the lowest AIC and BIC.

Lesson 47 : Standard Error, R^2 , and Student Statistic

$$SST = SSE + SSR$$

- Total sum of square** : $SST = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$

- Error sum of square** : $SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$

$$SSE = \varepsilon^T \varepsilon = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y}$$

- Regression sum of square** : $SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2$

ANOVA			
SS	df	MS	F
SSR	p	MSR = SSR/df	$\frac{MSR}{MSE}$
SSE	n-p'	MSE = SSE/df	
SST	n-1	MST = SST/df	

- The standort error of the regression is

$$s = \sqrt{MSE}$$

- The **coefficient of determination** is the proportion explain by the regression.

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SST} = 1 - \frac{SSE}{SST}$$

- Student test** : To test $\beta_i = \beta^*$

$$t_{n-p'} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i - \beta^*}{S_{\beta_i}}$$

Matrice variance-covariance : $\sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$

- Simple linear regression :

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_0) = \sigma^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{\bar{x}^2}{S_{xx}} \right)$$

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) = \frac{\sigma^2}{S_{xx}}$$

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) = -\frac{\bar{x} \sigma^2}{S_{xx}}$$

Lesson 48 : Fisher Statistic and VIF

- The **Fisher** statistic test the significance of the entire regression, in other word if all $\beta_i = 0$. For simple linear regression $F = T^2$. Tips : Divide numerator and denominator of F by SST to find R^2 .

- For simple linear regression, since $p = 1$, then $T(n) = \sqrt{F_{1,n}}$.

- **Partial Fisher test** : To test is q added variables have significance.

$$F_{\Delta df, n-p'} = \frac{SSE^{(0)} - SSE^{(1)} / \Delta df}{SSE^{(1)} / (n-p')}$$

- The **Variance Inflation Factor** test the collinearity of the features. To measure it, we take the x_j feature and take it as the response. Let $R_{(j)}^2$ be the R^2 of this regression.

$$VIF = \frac{1}{1 - R_{(j)}^2}$$

We want the lowest VIF.

- **Coefficient of correlation** :

$$r = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

- For two-feature model $R_{(y)}^2 = r^2$.

Lesson 49 : Validation

- The **Hat matrix** put a hat on y since $\hat{y} = H y$.
 $H = X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$

- It follow that $\text{Var}(\hat{e}) = (I - H) \sigma^2$

- For simple linear regression :

$$h_{ii} = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}}$$

- The **studentized residuals** are define as

$$r_i = \frac{\hat{e}_i}{\sqrt{S^2(1 - h_{ii})}}$$

where h_{ii} is the **leverage**. Average leverage should be at $\frac{p'}{n}$. $\sum h_{ii} = p'$

- A **influence point** is a observation that influence a lot y . A **outliers** is a observation that have $|r_i| > 3$.

- Two measure for influence point.

$$- \text{DFITS}_i = r_i \sqrt{\frac{h_{ii}}{1 - h_{ii}}}$$

$$- \text{Cook} : D_i = \frac{\sum (\hat{y}_j - \hat{y}_{j(i)})^2}{p' S^2} = r_i^2 \frac{h_{ii}}{p'(1 - h_{ii})}$$

$D_i > 1$ is too high.

Lesson 50 : Prediction

- A **confidence interval** for predicted values.

$$y^* \in \hat{y}^* \pm t_{(n-2)} \sqrt{S^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}} \right)}$$

- A **prediction interval** for predicted values.

$$y^* \in \hat{y}^* \pm t_{(n-2)} \sqrt{S^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{(x^* - \bar{x})^2}{S_{xx}} \right)}$$

Lesson 51 : ANOVA

One-factor ANOVA

$$SST = SSE + SSTR$$

Model	Sum of square	Deviance
$Y = \mu + \varepsilon_{ij}$	SST	D_M
$Y = \mu_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$	SSE	D_A

- **Within sum of square**

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_{i\cdot})^2$$

- **Between sum of square**

$$SSTR = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{y}_{i\cdot} - \bar{y}_{\cdot\cdot})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{y_{i\cdot}^2}{n_i} \right) - n \bar{y}_{\cdot\cdot}^2$$

- **Total sum of square**

$$SST = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (y_{ij} - \bar{y}_{\cdot\cdot})^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (y_{ij}^2) - n \bar{y}_{\cdot\cdot}^2$$

- **Fishier test**

$$F_{(k-1, n-k)} = \frac{SSTR / (k-1)}{SSE / (n-k)} = \frac{(D_M - D_A) / (k-1)}{D_A / (n-k)}$$

where D_M is the *scale deviance* of the minimal model.

Two-factor ANOVA without replication

$$SST = SSE + SSTR + SSB$$

Model	Sum of square (DF)
$Y = \mu + \varepsilon_{ij}$	$SST(bk - 1)$
$Y = \mu + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$	$SSTR(k - 1)$
$Y = \mu + \beta_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$	$SSB(b - 1)$
$Y = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$	$SSE(k - 1)(b - 1)$

- The formula are the same but n_i is k for SSTR and b for SSB.

Two-factor ANOVA with replication

- To test interaction :

$$F_{(I-1)(J-1), IJ(K-1)} = \frac{(D_I - D_S) / (I-1)(J-1)}{D_S / IJ(k-1)}$$

- To test factor A :

$$F_{(I-1), IJ(K-1)} = \frac{(D_B - D_I) / (I-1)}{D_S / IJ(k-1)}$$

- To test factor B :

$$F_{(J-1), IJ(K-1)} = \frac{(D_M - D_B) / (J-1)}{D_S / IJ(k-1)}$$

where D_S is the saturated model, I for additive model.

- ANCOVA

Lesson 52 : Measures of Fit II

For **contingencies table** with binomial or poisson distribution.

- Pearson : $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} \sim \chi^2_{(n-p')}$

- Likelihood ratio chi-square :

$$C = 2[\ell - \ell_{\min}] \sim \chi^2_{(p'-1)}$$

- **Pseudo R^2** : $\text{pseudo}R^2 = \frac{\ell_{\min} - \ell}{\ell_{\min}}$

Residus

- Pearson residual : $X_k = \frac{y_i - \hat{\mu}_i}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\mu}_i)}}$

- Deviance residual : $d_k = s_k \sqrt{\text{deviance}}$
where s_k is the sign of $y_k - \hat{y}_i$

- To standartize them, divide by $\sqrt{1 - h_{ii}}$

Lesson 53 : Resampling Methods

- **Cross-Validation** :

$$CV(K) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k MSE_i$$

As $k \rightarrow n$ bias \downarrow $\text{Var}(CV_k) \uparrow$

If $k = n$ then is the LOOCV statistic.

- LOOCV for least-square regression :

$$CV(K) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\varepsilon_i}{1 - h_{ii}} \right)^2$$

- **Bootstap** :

$$SE_B(\alpha) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{1-B} \sum_{i=1}^B (\hat{\alpha} - \bar{\alpha})^2}$$

Lesson 54 : Subset Selection

Using a lot of feature will result of lower standard error on training data, but poor prediction. We need to keep only the feature that truly impact the response.

- **Subset selection** For k possible feature, 2^k different model are possible.

- For 2 model with same number of feature, we take the one with lowest SSE.

- Otherwise, we compare with : Mallows's C_p , AIC, BIC and adjusted R^2 .

- **Forward stepwise selection** consist of starting with the null, then fit k models with one variable and select the best base on SSE, then fit $k - 1$ variables and so on. We obtain $k + 1$ model, the best for each number of predictor, and select the final one with cross-validation or the 4 statistics. For categorial variables, each categorie is added independently.

- **Total fitted model** :

$$- \text{Forward} : 1 + \sum_{i=0}^{\min(p, n)} (\min(p, n) - i)$$

$$- \text{Backward} : 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\min(p, n)} i$$

Choosing the best model

- **Cross-validation** is the more accurate.

- **Mallows's C_p** : $C_p = \frac{1}{n} (SSE + 2p\hat{\sigma}^2)$

IF $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is unbiased then C_p is unbiased.

- **Adjusted R^2** : $R_a^2 = 1 - \frac{MSE}{MST}$

- We want the lowest Mallows's C_p , AIC, BIC and the heighest R_a^2 .

Lesson 55 : Shrinkage and Dimension Reduction

> **Ridge Regression** : Minimize

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p'-1} \beta_j x_{ij} \right) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p'-1} \beta_j^2$$

> **Lasso Regression** : Minimize

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p'-1} \beta_j x_{ij} \right) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^{p'-1} |\beta_j|$$

> **Standard Predictors** $\tilde{x} = \frac{x_{ij}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum (x_{ij} - \bar{x})^2}}$

$$\lambda \rightarrow \infty \Leftrightarrow \beta_j \rightarrow 0$$

$$\lambda \rightarrow 0 \Leftrightarrow \beta_j \rightarrow \hat{\beta}_j^{\text{normal}}$$

PCA	Partial Least Square
unsupervised	supervised
variables are linear combination of the original	
Higher bias	Lower bias
Lower variance	Higher variance

Lesson 56 : Extension to the Linear Model

> **Extension** : These type can be treated as same as GLM. $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 b_1(x_i) + \beta_2 b_2(x_i) + \dots + \varepsilon_i$

For **polynomial regression**, $b_j(x) = x^j$.

For **piecewise constant regression**

$$b_j(x) = \mathbb{1}_{\{a \leq x < b\}}(x)$$

> **Generalized Additive Model** :

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p f_j(x_{ij}) + \varepsilon_i$$

- Allows nonlinear fits for each explanatory variable.
- Effect on each explanatory is separate, so easily identifiable.
- Does not allow for effect of interaction among variable.

Lesson 57 : Trend and Seasonality

> **Trend** measures the amount by which the series increase from period to period.

> **Seasonal** variation measure cycle within a year.

> **Decomposition models**

- Additive Model : $x_t = m_t + s_t + z_t$
- Multiplicative Seasonality : $x_t s_t + z_t$
- Multiplicative Model : $x_t = m_t s_t z_t$

> **Centered moving average** :

$$\hat{m}_t = \frac{0.5m_{t-k} + m_{t-k+1} + \dots + m_t + \dots + m_{t+k-1} + 0.5m_{t+k}}{2k}$$

> **Seasonal variation factor** :

- Additive Seasonality : $\hat{s}_t = x_t - \hat{m}_t$
Adjusted so that $\sum (s_t + c) = 0$.
- Multiplicative Seasonality $\hat{s}_t = \frac{x_t}{\hat{m}_t}$
Adjusted so that $\sum \frac{\hat{s}_t \cdot c}{n} = 1$.

Lesson 58 : correlation

> if $\mu(t)$ and $\sigma^2(t)$ does not vary with t then the time series is **second order stationary**

> **Variance** : $\sigma^2(t) = E[(x_t - \mu(t))^2]$

Stationary Time series

> **sample variance** $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_t - \bar{x})^2$

> **Covariance** at lag k :

$$\text{Cov}(x_t, x_{t+k}) = \gamma_k = E[(x_t - \mu)(x_{t+k} - \mu)] \quad (\text{acvf})$$

$$c_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-k} (x_t - \bar{x})(x_{t+k} - \bar{x}) \quad (\text{sample acvf})$$

> **Auto-correlation**

$$\rho_k = \frac{\text{Cov}(x_t, x_{t+k})}{\sigma^2} \quad (\text{acf})$$

$$r_k = \frac{c_k}{c_0} \quad (\text{sample acf})$$

Relationships of different time series

> A **leading variable** is one that impacts another.

> **Cross-covariance**

$$\gamma_k(x, y) = E[(x_{t+k} - \mu_x)(y_t - \mu_y)] \quad (\text{ccvf})$$

$$c_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-k} (x_{t+k} - \bar{x})(y_t - \bar{y}) \quad (\text{sample ccvf})$$

> **Cross-correlation**

$$\rho_k(x, y) = \frac{\gamma_k(x, y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} \quad (\text{ccf})$$

$$r_k = \frac{c_k(x, y)}{\sqrt{c_0(x, x) c_0(y, y)}} \quad (\text{sample ccf})$$

> Notice

$$\gamma_k(x, y) = \gamma_{-k}(y, x)$$

$$\rho_k(x, y) = \rho_{-k}(y, x)$$

$$c_0(x, x) = c_0$$

Lesson 59 : White Noise and Random Walks

> **White noise** each term are independent and variance σ^2 . The correlogram has autocorrelations all close to 0 except for r_0 .

$$w \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

> A **Random Walks** is a nonstationary time series which is the accumulation of white noise. The correlogram will decrease slowly from 1 to 0.

$$x_1 = w_1$$

$$x_t = x_{t-1} + w_t$$

with

$$\mu(t) = 0$$

$$\sigma^2(t) = t\sigma_w^2$$

$$\gamma_k(t) = t\sigma_w^2$$

$$\rho_k(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{k}{t}}}$$

> A **Walk with drift** drift the mean $\mu(t) = t\delta$ by don't affect variance and autocorrelations.

$$x_t = x_{t-1} + \delta + w_t$$

Lesson 60 : Autoregressive Models

> An **autoregressive** model of order (p), or AR(p) is a time series where term may be expressed in term of previous terms plus white noise.

$$x_t - \mu = \alpha_1(x_{t-1} - \mu) + \alpha_2(x_{t-2} - \mu) + \dots + \alpha_p(x_{t-p} - \mu) + w_t$$

> An AR(1) process is stationary if $|a| < 1$. correlogram is decreasing exponentially. For a stationary AR(1) process

$$\mu_k = 0$$

$$\gamma_k = \frac{\alpha^k \sigma_w^2}{1 - \alpha^2}$$

$$\rho = \alpha^k$$

> Notation : $\mathbf{B}^k x_t = x_{t-k}$

$$w_t = x_t - \alpha_1 x_{t-1} - \alpha_2 x_{t-2}$$

$$= (\alpha_2 \mathbf{B}^2 - \alpha_1 \mathbf{B} + 1)x_t$$

$$= \theta_p(\mathbf{B})x_t$$

where $\theta_p(\mathbf{B})$ is the **characteristic equation**.

> Testing stationarity : Root < 1

$$(\text{given}) \quad x_t = \alpha_1 x_{t-1} + \alpha_2 x_{t-2} + w_t$$

$$(\text{solve}) \quad \theta_p(\mathbf{B}) = 0$$

(answer) If $|\mathbf{B}| > 1$, the process is stationary.

> tips : For 2 param :

$$\alpha_2 - \alpha_1 < 1$$

$$\alpha_2 + \alpha_1 < 1$$

$$|\alpha_2| < 1$$

> Forecast $\hat{x}_{n+1|n}$ is the same equation omitting w_t .

Lesson 61 : Regression

> Variance of sample mean with correlation is given by

$$\text{Var}(\bar{x}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(1 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{k}{n} \right) \rho_k \right)$$

> **Harmonic Seasonal model**

$$x_t = m_t + \sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor S/2 \rfloor} s_i \sin(2\pi i t / s) + c_i \cos(2\pi i t / s) + z_t$$

> Forecast correction

$$- \text{Lognormal} : e^{\sigma^2/2}$$

$$- \text{Empirical} : \frac{\sum e^{z_t}}{n}$$

Lesson 62 : Moving Average Models

- > A **moving average** time series (MA(q)) is always stationary. It define as

$$x_t = \mu + w_t + \beta_1 w_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_q w_{t-q}$$

$$= \mu + \phi(\mathbf{B}) w_t$$

with

$$\mu(t) = 0$$

$$\gamma_k = \sigma_w^2 \sum_{i=0}^{q-k} \beta_i \beta_{i+k} \quad \beta_0 = 1$$

and $\gamma_k = 0$ for $k > q$ so MA(q) may be good fit is we observe $\gamma_q = 0$ in correlogram.

- > q beta + $\mu + \sigma_w^2 = q + 2$ parameters fits.
- > A MA(q) is **Inversible** if all the root of $\phi(\mathbf{B})$ are $|\mathbf{B}| > 1$
- > Express MA(q) in form of AR(∞). If $\phi(\mathbf{B})$ is reversible :

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + x^4 - \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots$$
- > ARIMA with $p = d = 0$ is a MA(q) model.
- > conditional sum of squared residuals : $\sum w_t^2$

Lesson 63 : ARMA Models

- > The ARMA(p,q) models :

$$x_t = \alpha_1 x_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_p x_{t-p} + \beta_1 w_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_q w_{t-q} + w_t$$

$$\theta_p(\mathbf{B})x_t = \phi_q(\mathbf{B})w_t$$
- > The process is stationary if all roots of $\theta(x) > 1$ and the process is invertible if all roots of $\phi(x) > 1$

$$\gamma_0 = \sigma_w^2 \left(\frac{1 + 2\alpha\beta + \beta^2}{1 - \alpha^2} \right)$$

$$\gamma_k = \sigma_w^2 (\alpha + \beta) \alpha^{k-1} \left(\frac{1 + \alpha\beta}{1 - \alpha^2} \right)$$

$$\rho_k = \alpha \rho_{k-1} \text{ for } k \geq 2.$$

- > If the process is stationary, $E[x_t] = E[x_{t-1}]$.

Lesson 64 : ARIMA and SARIMA models

- > $\nabla x_t + x_t - x_{t-1} = (1 - \mathbf{B})x_t$
- > An **ARIMA** model is a nonstationary process. If x_t is an ARIMA model, then $y_t = \nabla^d x_t$ is an ARMA(p,q). Then the ARIMA(p,d,q) is

$$\theta(\mathbf{B})(1 - \mathbf{B})^d x_t = \phi(\mathbf{B})w_t$$
 - With no MA(q), this is ARI(p,d)
 - With no AR(p), this is IMA(d,q)
- > An **SARIMA** model is a ARIMA with seasonal effect.
- > To forecast, we take the difference and then forecast ARMA(p,q) model.

Appendix

Inverting a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

Ajouter pour une matrice 3x3

Synthetic Division

Exemple : Factorize $x^3 - 12x^2 - 81$

$$\begin{array}{r|rrrr} & 1 & -12 & 0 & -81 \\ 3 & & 3 & -27 & -81 \\ \hline & 1 & -9 & -27 & 0 \end{array}$$

then, $x^3 - 12x^2 - 81 = (x - 3)(x^2 - 9x - 27)$

Deductible and Limite

$$X = \min(X; d) + \max(0; X - d)$$

$$E[X] = E[\min(X; d)] + E[\max(0; X - d)]$$

$$= E[(X \wedge d)] + E[(x - d)_+]$$

$$= E[(X \wedge d)] + e_x(d) \cdot S_x(d)$$

Statistic Order

$$Y_1 = \min(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

$$f_{Y_1}(y) = n f(y) [S(y)]^{n-1}$$

$$S_{Y_1}(y) = \prod_{i=1}^n \Pr(X_i > y)$$

$$Y_n = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

$$f_{Y_n}(y) = n f(y) [F(y)]^{n-1}$$

$$F_{Y_n}(y) = \prod_{i=1}^n \Pr(X_i \leq y)$$

$$Y_k \in (Y_1, \dots, Y_k, \dots, Y_n)$$

$$f_{Y_k}(y) = \frac{n! \cdot f(y) [F(y)]^{k-1} [S(y)]^{n-k}}{(k-1)!(n-k)!}$$

$$F_{Y_k}(y) = \Pr(\text{at least } k \text{ of } n X_i \text{ are } \leq y)$$

$$= \sum_{i=k}^n \binom{n}{i} [F(y)]^i [S(y)]^{n-i}$$

- > $x + y = \min(x, y) + \max(x, y)$, since one is for sure the max and the other the min.

Mode : Most likely probability

- > $g(x) = f(x)$ or some time $g(x) = \ln f(x)$
- > **Mode** is the x that respects : $g'(x) = 0$

Normal Approximation

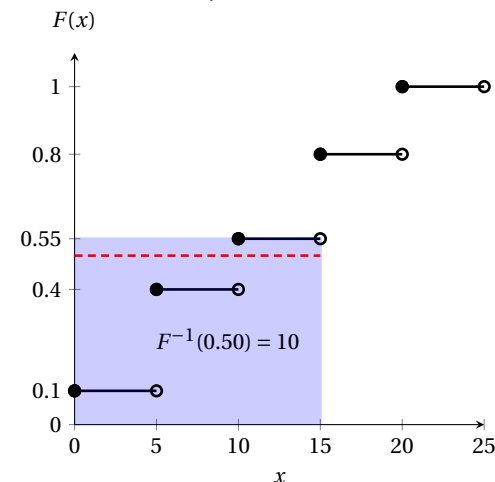
$$F_X(x) = \Phi\left(\frac{x - E[X]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}}\right)$$

- > **Continuity correction** is necessary when X is discrete. $F_X(x) = \Phi\left(\frac{(X \pm k) - E[X]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}}\right)$ where k is the mid-point of the discrete value.

Discrete Cumulative Function

$$\Pr(X = x) = \begin{cases} 0.10, & x = 0 \\ 0.30, & x = 5 \\ 0.15, & x = 10 \\ 0.25, & x = 15 \\ 0.20, & x = 20 \end{cases}$$

$$\Pr(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0.10, & 0 \leq x < 5 \\ 0.40, & 5 \leq x < 10 \\ 0.55, & 10 \leq x < 15 \\ 0.80, & 15 \leq x < 20 \\ 1, & x \geq 20 \end{cases}$$



Contract

- > **Deductible(d)**
- > **Maximum(u)**
- > **Inflation(r)**
- > **Coinurance(α)**

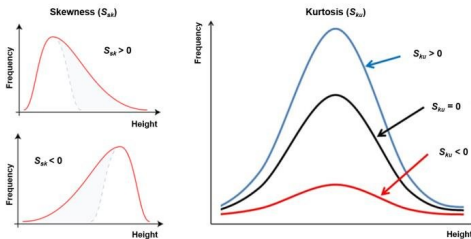
$$Y = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq \frac{d}{1+r} \\ \alpha[(1+r)x - d] & \frac{d}{1+r} < x < \frac{u}{1+r} \\ \alpha[u - d] & x \geq \frac{u}{1+r} \end{cases}$$

Warning : The maximal don't include the deductible.

Moments

- › k^e moment about the origin. $\mu'_k = E[X^k]$
- › k^e moment about the mean. $\mu_k = E[(X - \mu)^k]$
- › The **Skewness** moment give information about the asymmetry of the distribution. If $S_{sk} = 0$, the distribution is normal.

$$S_{sk} = E\left[\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma^2}\right)^3\right]$$



- › The **kurtosis** moment give information about the flattening of the distribution. If $S_{ku} = 0$, the distribution is normal.

$$S_{ku} = E\left[\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma^2}\right)^4\right]$$

- › The **coefficient of variation** give information about the dispersion of the distribution.

$$CV = \frac{\sigma}{E[X]}$$

Transformations of distribution

- › Lognormal : $Y = e^X$, where
 $Y \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu, \sigma)$
 $X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$
- › Inverse Exponential : $Y = \frac{1}{X}$, where
 $Y \sim \text{Inverse Exponential}(1/\theta)$
 $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\theta)$
- › Weibull : $Y = X^{1/\tau}$, where
 $Y \sim \text{Weibull}(\tau/\theta)$
 $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\theta)$

Parameter interpretation

- › **Scale parameter** (θ, β, σ) : Affect the spread of the distribution.
- › **Rate parameter** (λ) : Affect the rate of data at mean. (1/scale)
- › **Shape parameter** (α, τ, γ) : Affect the shape rather than simply shift the distribution.

Produit de convolution

The convolution of 2 random variable is define as the sum of the two.

$$f_{X_1+X_2}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_1}(x-s)f_{X_2}(s)ds$$

$$F_{X_1+X_2}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x F_{X_1}(x-s)f_{X_2}(s)ds$$

Shifting Exponential

$$f(x; \theta; d) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-(x-d)/\theta}$$

$$E[x] = \theta + d$$

$$\text{Var}(x) = \theta^2$$

Norme d'un vecteur

$$\ell_1 = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$$

$$\ell_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

Greedy algorithm

A group of n peoples is to be assigned to k job, one to each job. The cost of job j is c_{ij} if person i is assigned. Select the assignment to have the minimal cost. We fixe the job or the people such as the $\min(n, k)$ and take the **minimum** cost for this personne(job).

$$c_{ij} \sim \text{Exp}(\theta)$$

$$E[\text{Total cost}] = \sum_{i=1}^{\min(n,k)} \frac{\theta}{\max(n,k)}$$

Potential outliers

Let Q_1 and Q_2 be the 25^e and the 75⁷⁵ quantile. Then $h = 1.5(Q_3 - Q_1)$. Observation are potential outliers if their are not in
 $(Q_1 - h, Q_3 + h)$

Test III

Type III tests are tests on variable or set of variable that assume that all other variables are present in the model. The **Wald** test is type III.

Overdispersion

If the variance of the observation is **higher** than indicated by the binomial or poisson model. **High diviance** may indicate Overdispersion. We can solve it with **quasi-likelihood** : $\phi \text{Var}(y)$. This don't affect the fit but many statistic like Pearson. For Poisson, we can use a Binomial Negative model.

Tail Value at Risk

$$\begin{aligned} \text{TvaR}_k(x) &= \text{VaR}_k(x) + \frac{E[(x - \text{VaR}_k)_+]}{S_x(\text{VaR}_k)} \\ &= \text{VaR}_k(x) + \frac{E[x] - E[x \wedge \text{VaR}_k]}{S_x(\text{VaR}_k)} \end{aligned}$$