# MAS-1 Study Review

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

# Lesson 1 : Probability Review

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

#### Lesson 2 : Parametric Distri**butions**

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

#### Lesson 4: Markov Chains

> Chapman-Kolmogorov:

$$P_{ij}^{(n+m)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{ik}^{(n)} P_{kj}^{(m)}$$

$$p_{j} = \begin{cases} \frac{j}{N}, & r = 1\\ \frac{r^{j} - 1}{r^{N} - 1}, & r \neq 1 \end{cases}$$
où  $r = \frac{q}{n}$ , p: winning prob.

> **Algorithmic efficency:** with  $N_i$  = number of steps from  $j^{th}$  solution to best solution.

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{E}[N_j] &= \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \frac{1}{i} \\ \mathrm{Var}(N_j) &= \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \left(\frac{1}{i}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{i}\right) \\ \mathrm{As} \ j \to \infty, \, \mathrm{E}[N_j] \to \ln j, \, \mathrm{Var}(N_j) \to \ln j \end{split}$$

### Lesson 5 : Markov Chain Classification

- > An **absorbing** state is one that cannot be exi-
- > State j is **accessible** $(i \rightarrow j)$  from state i if  $p_{ij}^n$  > 0,  $\forall n \geq 0$ .
- > Two states **communicate** if  $i \leftrightarrow j$ .
- communicate with each other.
- > A Markov chain is **irreductible** if it has only one class.
- $\rightarrow$  A state (class) is **recurrent** if the probability of  $\rightarrow$  **Probability of extinction :** reentering the state is 1.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)} = \infty$
- > A state (class) si **transcient** if it is not recur-

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_{ii}^{(n)} < \infty$$

> A finite Markov Chain must have at least one recurrent class. If it is irreductible, then it is recurrent.

### Lesson 6: Markov Chains Li- Lesson 9: Time Reversible miting Probability

- > A chain is **positive recurrent** is the expected number of transitions until the state occur is finite, null recurrent otherwise. Null recurrent mean 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 world,  $P_{ii}^{(1)} > 0$ ,  $\forall i$
- > A chain is **ergodic** when the chain is aperiodic and positive irreductible 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

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

#### **Lesson 7: Time in Transient States**

- > Tips: Inverting a matrix
- >  $\mathbf{S} = (\mathbf{I} \mathbf{P}_{\text{transcient}})^{-1}$ , where  $s_{ij}$  is the time in state j given that the current state is i.
- $\Rightarrow f_{ij} = \frac{s_{ij} \delta_{i,j}}{s_{jj}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_{ij}^{(n)}$ , 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.
- > A **class** of states is a maximal set of state that  $\operatorname{Var}(X_n) = \operatorname{Var}(Z) \cdot \operatorname{E}[Z]^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^n \operatorname{E}[Z]^{k-1}$ 
  - > If  $X_0$  ≠ 1 mean and variance of  $X_n$  need to be multiplicated by  $X_0$ .

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

- $\mu \le 1 \Rightarrow \pi_0 \ge 1$ , if  $X_0 = 1$ .
- $-\mu > 1 \Rightarrow \pi_0 < 1$ , if  $X_0 = 1$ .

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

ightarrow If  ${f Q}$  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

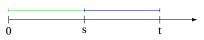
$$\min(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n) \sim \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i\right)$$

> The sum of 2 Exponentials randoms variables is the sum of the maximum and the minimum, since one must be the min and the other the

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

#### Lesson 11: Poisson Process

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



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

> Non-homogeneous Poisson process:

$$m(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(u) \, \mathrm{d}u$$

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.

$$m(t) = \int_0^t \lambda \, \mathrm{d}u = \lambda t$$

We then say that the process have stationary increments.

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

#### **Lesson 12: Poisson Process Time To Next Events**

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

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

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

# **Lesson 13: Poisson Process** > If N(t) is a Poisson process, then S(t) is a com- > Inclusion/exclusion bounds using minimal **Counting Special Type**

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

$$m(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(u) \alpha_1(u) \, \mathrm{d}u$$

#### Lesson 14: Poisson Process Other Characteristics

- > Only for homogeneous Poisson processes.
- $\rightarrow$  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 :

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

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

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

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

#### 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: Substraction don't give a Poisson random variable.
- > A Mixture of Poisson processes is not a Poisson processes.
  - Discrete mixture :

$$F_{X(t)}(t) = \sum_i w_i F_{X_i(t)}(t) \label{eq:fitting}$$
 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  $N(t) \sim$ NegBin( $r = \alpha, \beta = \theta t$ ).

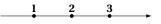
#### **Lesson 16: Compound Pois**son Processes

> 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.

- pound Poisson process with:
  - $E[S(t)] = \lambda t E[X]$
  - $Var(S(t)) = \lambda t E[X^2]$
- $\rightarrow$  If  $X_i$  is discrete, we can separate the process into a sum of subprocess view in Lesson 13: Poisson Process Counting Special Type.
- > Sums of compound homogeneous Poisson process is also a Poisson process with:
  - $N(t) \sim \text{Pois}(\sum \lambda_i)$
  - $-F_X(x) = \sum_i w_i F_{X_i(t)}(t), \quad w_i = \frac{\lambda_i}{\sum_i \lambda_i}$

#### **Lesson 17: Reliability Struc**ture Functions

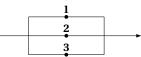
- $\rightarrow \phi(\mathbf{x})$  is the **structure** function for a systeme. It equal 1 if the systeme function, 0 otherwise.
- series system is define as a minimal path set. The system is working if all components are working.



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 systeme 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.
- $\rightarrow$  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:

$$r(\mathbf{p}) \le \sum A_i$$
  
 $r(\mathbf{p}) \ge \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j$ 

 $r(\mathbf{p}) \le \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j + \sum A_i \cup A_j \cup A_k$  Force of mortality: where  $A_i = \sum p_i$  is the probability of the i<sup>e</sup> minimal path set work.

cut:

$$\begin{split} 1-r(\mathbf{p}) &\leq \sum A_i \\ 1-r(\mathbf{p}) &\geq \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j \\ 1-r(\mathbf{p}) &\leq \sum A_i - \sum A_i \cup A_j + \sum A_i \cup A_j \cup A_k \\ \text{where } A_i &= \sum (1-p_i) \text{ is the probability of the } i^c \\ \text{minimal cut set work.} \end{split}$$

> Bounds using intersections :

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

$$1 - P_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose k-1} q^{k(n-k)} P_k$$

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

$$P_1 = 1$$

#### **Lesson 19: Reliability Time** to Failure

> Expected amound of time to failure :

$$E[\mathbf{system\ life}] = \int_0^\infty r(\mathbf{\tilde{F}}(\mathbf{t})) \, dt$$
 where,

- For serie system:

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

$$r(\bar{\mathbf{F}}(\mathbf{t})) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \bar{F}_{i}(t)$$
 - For parallel system : 
$$r(\bar{\mathbf{F}}(\mathbf{t})) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n} F_{i}(t)$$

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

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

and we say that the distribution

- is an increasing failure rate if h(t) is nondeacreasing function of t.
- is an deacreasing failure rate if h(t) is non-increasing function of t.
- > Cumulatice hazard function :

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

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

#### Lesson 20: Survival Models

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

- $> t|u q_x = \frac{\ell_{x+t} \ell_{x+t+u}}{\ell_x}$
- $\rightarrow t+up_x = up_x \cdot tp_{x+u}$
- $\Rightarrow t \mid u q_x = t + u q_x t q_x = t p_x \cdot u q_{x+t}$
- > Let be  $N_x$  the number of life surviving to age x, then

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

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

#### > Linear interpolation(D.U.D):

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

$$tq_x = t \cdot q_x$$

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

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

$$e_x = \mathbb{E}[K_x] = \sum_{k=1}^{\omega - x - 1} {}_k p_x$$
$$\mathring{e}_x = \mathbb{E}[T_x] = \int_0^{\omega - x} {}_t p_x \, \mathrm{d}t \stackrel{\mathrm{D.U.D}}{=} e_x + 0.5$$

## **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:
$$A_{x:\overline{n}|}^{1} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} v^{k+1}{}_{k} p_{x} q_{x+k}$$

- 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
$$m_{l}\ddot{a}_{x} = \sum_{k=m}^{\infty} v^{k}_{k} p_{x}$$

- Certain and life annuity  $\ddot{a}_{\overline{x:\overline{n}|}} = \ddot{a}_{\overline{n}|} + {}_{m|}\ddot{a}_x$ 

 $- A_x = v^n q_x + p_x A_{x+1}$ 

$$-\ddot{a}_{r} = 1 + v p_{r} \ddot{a}_{r+1}$$

- 
$$\ddot{a}_x = 1 + v p_x \ddot{a}_{x+1}$$
  
-  $A_{x:\overline{n}|}^1 = A_x - {}_n E_x A_{x+n}$ 

$$- \ddot{a}_{x:\overline{n}|} = \ddot{a}_x - {}_n E_x \ddot{a}_{x+n}$$

$$- m|A_x = mE_x A_{x+m}$$

$$- m \ddot{a}_x = m E_x \ddot{a}_{x+m}$$

$$- \ddot{a}_X = 1 + a_X$$

$$- A_x = 1 - d \ddot{a}_x$$

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

Shortcut:  $\forall t \in (0,1), \forall x \in \mathbb{N}, x < x + t < x + 1: \Rightarrow$  Last survivor annuity( $\ddot{a}_{\overline{xy}}$ ) make payments until the last death of two lives.

$$\ddot{a}_X + \ddot{a}_V = \ddot{a}_{XV} + \ddot{a}_{\overline{XV}}$$

> 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:

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

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

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

> Inverse transformation method:

 $\Pr(F^{-1}(u) \le x) = \Pr(u \le F(x)) = F(x)$ 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: Discrete Cumulative Function
- > Tips: if  $\uparrow U \equiv \downarrow X$  then  $(1 u_i) \Rightarrow u_i$

## **Lesson 23: Simulation Application**

$$ightarrow \Pr(X \le x) \simeq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \mathbb{1}_{\left\{x^{(j)} \le x\right\}}$$

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

 $\rightarrow \operatorname{VaR}_k(X) \simeq X^{[j]}$ 

> TVaR<sub>k</sub>(X) 
$$\simeq \frac{1}{m(1-k)} \sum_{j=j_0+1}^{m} X^{(j)} \mathbb{1}_{\left\{X^{(j)} > X^{[j_0]}\right\}}$$
  
 $\simeq \frac{1}{m-j_0} \sum_{j=j_0+1}^{m} X^{[j]}$ 

where

- $-i_0 = \lfloor m \cdot k \rfloor$
- *m* is the number of simulations.
- $X^{(j)}$  is the j<sup>th</sup> simulations.
- $X^{[j]}$  is the j<sup>th</sup> simulations in order statis-

# **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 > Some estimator: wherever  $f(x) \neq 0$ .

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

Generate two uniform number  $u_1, u_2$ . Let  $x = G^{-1}(u_i)$ . Accept  $x_1$  only if

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

> 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  $y_2 = -\ln u_2$ . Accept  $y_1$  if

and 
$$y_2 = -\ln u_2$$
. Accept y
$$y_2 \ge \frac{(y_1 - 1)^2}{2}$$
and add (-) if  $u_3 \ge 0.5$ 

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

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

$$Var(N) = \beta(1+\beta)$$

#### **Lesson 25: Estimator Quality**

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

$$E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta + bias_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta)$$

- If bias<sub> $\hat{\theta}$ </sub>( $\theta$ ) = 0, then  $\hat{\theta}$  is **unbiased**.
- If  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \text{bias}_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta) = 0$ , then  $\hat{\theta}$  is **asympto**tically unbiased.
- If  $bias_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta) \neq 0$ , then  $\hat{\theta}$  is **biased**.
- > Consistency: This quality measures if the probability that the estimator is different from the parameter by more than  $\varepsilon$  goes to 0 as n goes to infinity.

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

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

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

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

Relative efficiency of  $\hat{\theta}_1$  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.

$$MSE_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta) = E\left[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2\right] = \left(bias_{\hat{\theta}}(\theta)\right)^2 + Var(\hat{\theta})$$

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

- $s^2 = \sum \frac{(x_i \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$  is a unbiased estimator of the variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum \frac{(x_i \bar{x})^2}{n}$  is an asymptotically unbiased of the variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- $\hat{\mu}'_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i^k$ , 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 Lesson 23: Simulation Application.

$$F_{e}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{\{x_{i} \le x\}}$$

$$f_{e}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}_{\{x_{i} = x\}}$$

$$= F_{e}(x) - F_{e}(x_{i-1})$$

- > Kernel Density is a empirical distribution smoothed with a base fonction. Let define the scaling factor b called bandwith.
  - The kernel-density estimate of the density function is :  $\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum k \left( \frac{x - x_i}{h} \right)$  $\Leftrightarrow \sum f_e(x) k\left(\frac{x-x_i}{h}\right)$
  - The kernel-density estimate of the distribution is :  $\hat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right)$
- $\rightarrow$  Rectangular(uniform, box) kermel:

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

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

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

> Triangular kernel:

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

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

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

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

- $K(x) = \Phi(x)$
- $\rightarrow$  Other kernel:  $k(x) = \beta(x)$  and k(x) = B(x)
- $\rightarrow$  **kernel moments :** Let X be the kernel density estimate and  $x_i$  the empirical estimate.

We then condition on  $x_i$ .

Efficient of 
$$X_i$$
.  

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

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

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

$$Var(X_G) = Var(x_i) + b^2$$

 $\rightarrow$  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 obser-
  - 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 :  $\hat{\mu}'_k = \mathbb{E}\left[\min(X, u)^k\right]$  or  $\hat{\mu}'_k = \mathbf{E} \left| X^k | X > d \right|.$
- > For pareto distribution, if  $\hat{\mu}'_2 = \hat{\sigma}^2 + \bar{x}^2 \le 2\bar{x}^2$ , 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:

bution:  

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

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

> Smoothed empirical percentile:

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

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

#### Lesson 29: Maximum Likehood Estimators

> Maximum Likehood Estimators : We maximize the probability of observing the data.

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} g(x_i; \theta)$$
$$l(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln_i g(x_i; \theta)$$

- 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 :  $g(x_i; \theta) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$

### **Lesson 30: MLE Special Techniques**

- > Case MLE equals MME
  - For Exponential,  $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \bar{x}$
  - For Gamma with fixed  $\alpha$ ,  $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \hat{\theta}^{\text{MME}}$
  - For Normal,  $\hat{\mu}^{\text{MLE}} = \bar{x}$  and  $(\hat{\sigma}^2)^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum (x_i \hat{\mu})^2$
  - 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  $\beta$ ,  $(r\beta)^{\text{MLE}} = \bar{x}$
- > Parametrization and Shifting:
  - Parametrization : MLE's are independent of parametrization  $\lambda = \frac{1}{A} \Leftrightarrow \hat{\lambda}^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{\hat{\alpha}_{\text{MLE}}}$
  - 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: Transformations of distribution

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

$$\left(\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}}\right)^{\mathsf{T}} = \frac{\sum (x_i - d_i)^{\mathsf{T}}}{\sum \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \leq u\}}}$$
 if  $\tau = 1$ , then the distribution is Exponential.

Pareto distribution with fixed  $\theta$ :  $\hat{\alpha} = \frac{n}{V}$ 

$$K = \sum_{i=1}^{n+c} \ln(\theta + d_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{n+c} \ln(\theta + x_i)$$
 where  $n \equiv$  number of non-censored(c) data.

> Single-parameter Pareto :  $\hat{\alpha} = \frac{1}{K}$ 

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

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

- $\rightarrow$  Uniform(0,  $\theta$ ): We take the smalest  $\theta$  possible,  $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \max(x_1,...,x_n)$ 
  - Censored(u):  $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \frac{nd}{\sum \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i < d\}}}$

- Grouped : We take the heighest interval(L, U).  $\hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}} = \min(U, \hat{\theta}^{\text{MLE}}_{\text{Censored(L)}})$
- > Bernouilli : 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.

#### Lesson 31: Variance of MLE

> Fisher information matrix :

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

using the loglikehood function

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

> Rao-Cramer lower bound is the lowest possible variance for a unbiased estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  of  $\theta$ . Then  $\hat{\theta} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \text{Var}(\hat{\theta})^{\text{rao}})$ 

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta})^{\operatorname{rao}} \ge \frac{1}{I(\theta)}$$

under certains regularity conditions

- The seconde derivative of the loglikehood exist.
- The support of the density function is not function of  $\theta$ .

#### 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  $\theta$  if and only if

$$L(x_1,...,x_n;\theta|Y) = h(x_1,...,x_n)$$

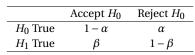
$$L(x_1,...,x_n;\theta)=g(y)h(x_1,...,x_n)$$

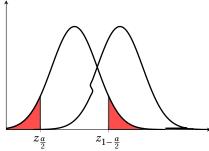
where  $h(x_1,...,x_n)$  is a function that does not involve  $\theta$ .

- 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  $Var(\hat{\theta})$ .
- > The maximum likehood estimator is a function of a sufficient statistic.

# Lesson 33: Hypothesis **Testing**

 $\rightarrow$  Let be  $H_0$  the **null hypothesis** and  $H_1$  the alternative hypothesis.





- > The  $\alpha$  value is usuly name :
  - Probability of Type I error
  - Size of critical region
  - signifiance level

The  $\beta$  value is usuly name:

- Probability of Type II error

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

- The power of test.
- > We will reject  $H_0$  in favor of  $H_1$  if a certain condition occured  $(X > \gamma)$ , 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 the observation if  $H_0$  is true.  $H_0$  is rejected if and only if the p-value is less then the signifiance level.

$$P_{\text{value}} < \alpha$$

## Lesson 34 : Confidence **Interval and Sample Size**

> Let be *c* the **confidence coefficient**. Then we can say the we're 100c% confident that the parameter is between (a, b), called the **confi**-

dence interval. 
$$\alpha = 1 - c$$
 
$$\theta \in \hat{\theta} \pm z_{\frac{1+c}{2}} \sqrt{\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})}$$

> We can found the probability that the halfwidth of the interval is less then k.

$$\Pr(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| \le k) \ge \frac{1+c}{2}$$

$$\Phi\left(\frac{k}{\sqrt{\sigma^2/n}}\right) \ge \frac{1+c}{2}$$

> To find the sample size needed to have a certain  $(\alpha)$  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-sqare is a one-parameter family distribution. In definition, it a gamma with  $\alpha = \frac{n}{2}$ and  $\theta = 2$ . The only parameter *n* is called **de**gree of freedom.
  - Let  $X_i$ , i = i, ..., n be normal random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .

th mean 
$$\mu$$
 and variany
$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(X_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2_{(n)}$$

- Let  $x_i$ , i = i, ..., n,  $n \ge 2$  be random sample from normal distribution with variance  $\sigma^2$ .

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

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

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

where  $Z \sim \mathrm{N}(0,1)$  and  $W \sim \chi^2_{(n)}$ . Note that as  $n \to \infty$ ,  $T \to N(0,1)$ 

When the variance is unknow, we need to estimate it with the unbiased estimator  $S^2$ .  $T_{(n-1)} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sqrt{S^2/n}}$ 

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

- Testing the difference of means from two population.
  - Two independent normal distributions:

$$x_{1},...,x_{n} \sim N(\mu_{x},\sigma_{x}^{2})$$

$$y_{1},...,y_{m} \sim N(\mu_{y},\sigma_{y}^{2})$$

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

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

- Two dependent distributions:

 $(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_n, y_n) \sim \text{bivariate Normal dis}$ 

# **Appendix**

#### **Inverting a matrix**

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

#### **Synthetic Division**

#### Deductible and Limite

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

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

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

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

#### **Statistic Order**

> 
$$Y_1 = \min(X_1, ..., X_n)$$
  
 $f_{Y_1}(y) = nf(y)[S(y)]^{n-1}$   
 $S_{Y_1}(y) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Pr(X_i > x)$ 

> 
$$Y_n = \max(X_1, ..., X_n)$$
  
 $f_{Y_n}(y) = n f(y) [F(y)]^{n-1}$ 

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

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

$$F_{Y_n}(y) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Pr(X_i \le x)$$
>  $Y_k \in (Y_1, ..., Y_k, ..., Y_n)$ 

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

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

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

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

## **Mode: Most likely** probability

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

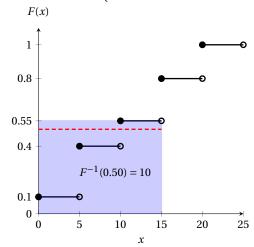
#### **Normal Approximation**

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

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

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



#### Contract

- > Deductible(d)
- > Maximum(u)
- > Inflation(r)
- > Coinsurance(α)

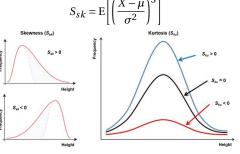
$$Y = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} 0 & x \leq \frac{d}{1+r} \\ \alpha[(1+r)x-d] & \frac{d}{1+r} < x < \frac{u}{1+r} \\ \alpha[u-d] & x \geq \frac{u}{1+r} \end{array} \right.$$

Warning: The maximal don't include the deductible.

#### **Moments**

- $\rightarrow$  ke 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 infomation about the asymmetry of the distribution. If  $S_{sk} = 0$ , the distribution is normal.



> The kurtosis moment give infomation about the flattening of the distribution. If  $S_{ku} = 0$ , the distribution is normal.  $S_{ku} = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma^2}\right)^4\right]$ 

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

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

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

#### Transformations of distribution

 $\rightarrow$  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

 $Y \sim \text{Weibull}(\sqrt[\tau]{\theta})$ 

 $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\theta)$ 

#### Parameter interpretation

- > **Scale parameter** ( $\theta$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\sigma$ ): Affect the spread of the distribution.
- > Rate parameter ( $\lambda$ ): Affect the rate of data at mean. (1/scale)
- **Shape parameter**  $(\alpha, \tau, \gamma)$ : Affect the shape rather then simply shift the distribution.

#### Produit de convolution

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

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