1 Introduction

Axiom 1. $P(A) \ge 0$ $P(\mathcal{E}) = 1$

Axiom 2. If A and B have no elements in common (they're mutually exclusive or disjoint), then

$$A \cap B = \varnothing \Rightarrow P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$
 (1)

Theorem 1.1. Let \overline{A} be the complementary of A, such that

$$A \cup \overline{A} = \mathcal{E}, A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset \Rightarrow P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

Theorem 1.2. 0 < P(A) < 1

Theorem 1.3. $P(\emptyset) = 0$

Theorem 1.4. Mutually exclusive (or disjoint) events

$$P(A + B + C + ...) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C) + ... = (2)$$

$$P(A \cup B \cup C \cup \dots) \tag{3}$$

Theorem 1.5. If $A \subset B \Rightarrow P(A) \leq P(B)$

Theorem 1.6. If A and B aren't disjoint, then

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

It can be easily seen using Venn's diagrams, the last term is due to forbidden double counting.

Definition 1.1. (Conditional probability). Let A and B be two events of the same event space \mathcal{E} , then the conditional probability of A knowing information B is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \tag{4}$$

Proposition 1.7. Let A and B be two events of the same event space \mathcal{E} , then

$$P(A|A) = 1$$

 $P(A|B) = 1 \Leftarrow B \subset A$
 $P(A|B) = 0 \Leftarrow A \cap B = \emptyset$

Definition 1.2 (Independent events). Let A and B be two events of the same event space \mathcal{E} , then we say these events are independent if

$$P(A|B) = P(A) \Rightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B),$$
 (5)

$$P(A), P(B) \neq 0 \tag{6}$$

Note it is easy to see that if A is independent from B, then B is independent from A.

Law 1. (Total probability law). Let $B_i = \{B_1, \ldots, B_n\}$ be a set of n disjoints events and let A be an event of the same event space \mathcal{E} which might have elements in common with B_i . Then the Law of total probability states that

$$P(A) = \sum_{i} P(A|B_i)P(B_i) \tag{7}$$

Theorem 1.8. (Bayes Theorem). Let $B_i = \{B_1, \ldots, B_n\}$ be a set of n disjoints events and let A be an event of the same event space \mathcal{E} and P(A) > 0. Then

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(B_i \cap A)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}{P(A)} =$$
(8)

$$P(A|B_i) \frac{P(B_i)}{\sum_j P(A|B_j)P(B_j)} \tag{9}$$

Definition 1.3. (Distribution Function). The distribution function of a random variable X is

$$F: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$x \longmapsto F(x) = P\{X \le x\}$$

Definition 1.4. (Discrete random variable). A random variable X is *discrete* if there exists a finite or numerable set $S \subset \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$P\{X \in S\} = 1 \tag{10}$$

The set S is called the *support* of the distribution of X if $P\{X = x\} > 0$ for all $x \in S$. The probability function is

$$p: S \longrightarrow [0, 1]$$

 $x \longmapsto p(x) = P\{X = x\}$

Theorem 1.9. The support and the probability density function of a discrete random variable automatically fixes the distribution.

Definition 1.5. (Bernoulli distribution). Let X be a random discrete variable, we say this variable follows a *Bernoulli distribution* if it takes the value 1 for the probability of success and 0 for the probability of failure (1 - p = q). In this case we say $X \sim B(p)$. His support is $S = \{0, 1\}$ and its probability function is

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} p & k = 1\\ q & k = 0 \end{cases} \tag{11}$$

Its expected value and variance are

$$\mu = \mathbf{E}[k] = p,\tag{12}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var}[k] = p(p-1) \tag{13}$$

Definition 1.6. (Binomial distribution). Let X be a discrete random variable, we say this variable follows a binomial distribution if it evaluates the number of successes in $n \in \mathbb{N}$ attempts with p as success probability (1 - p = q). In this case $X \sim B(n, p)$. Its support is $S = \{0, 1, \ldots n\}$ and its probability function is

$$p(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \qquad \forall k \in S$$
 (14)

Its expected value and variance are

$$\mu = E[k] = np$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[k] = npq$ (15)

Definition 1.7. (Discrete uniform distribution). Let X be a discrete random variable, we say it follows a discrete uniform distribution if its support is $S = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ with $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ different two to two and its probability function is

$$p(x_i) = \frac{1}{n} \qquad \forall x_i \in S \tag{16}$$

In this case we say $X \sim Unif(\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\})$. Its expected value, variance and bias are

$$\mu = E[X] = \frac{n+1}{2}$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[X] = \frac{n^2 - 1}{12}$
(17)

Definition 1.8. (Poisson distribution). Let X be a discrete random variable, we say it follows a *Poisson distribution* of parameter $\lambda > 0$ if its support is $S = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and its probability function is

$$p(k) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \qquad \forall k \in S$$
 (18)

In this case $X \sim Poiss(\lambda)$.

Its expected value, variance and bias are

$$\mu = E[k] = \lambda$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[k] = \lambda$ $\mu c_3 = \sqrt{\lambda}$ (19)

Definition 1.9. (Hypergeometric distribution). Let X be a discrete random variable. Let be a container with N balls where K are white. We say X follows an hypergeometric distribution if it computes the quantity of white balls taken in n throws without repetition. In this case we say $X \sim HGeom(N, K, n)$. Its support is $S = \{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid k \leq \min n, K, n - k \leq \min n, N - K\}$ and its probability function is

$$p(k) = P\{X = k\} = \frac{\binom{N}{k} \binom{N-K}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{k}} \qquad \forall k \in S \qquad (20)$$

Its expected value and variance are

$$\mu = \mathrm{E}[X] = n \frac{K}{N} \tag{21}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var}[X] = \frac{nK}{N} \left(1 - \frac{K}{N} \right) \left(\frac{N - n}{N - 1} \right) \tag{22}$$

Definition 1.10. (Absolutely continuous random variable). We say X is an absolutely continuous random variable if there exists a probability density function (PDF) f such that

$$F(x) = P\{X \le x\} = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(y) \, \mathrm{d}y \qquad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \quad (23)$$

Definition 1.11. (Probability density function). Analogous to distribution function, we say a function $f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a PDF if

$$f(x) \ge 0$$
 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ (24)

Definition 1.12. (Cumulative probability function). Analogous to probability function, we say a function $F: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a CDF if

$$F(x) = P\{X \le x\}$$
 and $f(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}F(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}$ (25)

Definition 1.13. (Normal or Gaussian distribution). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows a *normal distribution* if its PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
 (26)

where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma > 0$. In this case we say $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and if X follows a standard/normalized normal distribution if $X \sim N(0, 1)$.

Its expected value, variance and Γ_{FWHM} are

$$\mu = E[k]$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[k]$ $\Gamma_{FWHM} = 2\sigma\sqrt{2\ln 2}$ (27)

Definition 1.14. (Continuous uniform distribution.) Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows a *continuous uniform distribution* in an interval [a, b] if its PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} 1_{[a,b]}(x)$$
 (28)

In this case $X \sim Unif([a, b])$.

Its expected value and variance are

$$\mu = E[X] = \frac{b+a}{2}$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[X] = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$ (29)

Definition 1.15. (Exponential distribution). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows an *exponential distribution* of parameter $\lambda > 0$ if its PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda}e^{-x/\lambda} \qquad \forall x \in (0, \infty)$$
 (30)

In this case $X \sim \mathscr{E}xp(\lambda)$.

Its expected value and variance are

$$\mu = E[X] = \lambda$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[X] = \lambda^2$ (31)

Definition 1.16. (Gamma distribution). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows a *Gamma distribution* of parameters $\mu > 0$ and k > 0 if its PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{\mu^k}{\Gamma(k)} x^{k-1} e^{-\mu x} \tag{32}$$

In this case $X \sim Gamma(\mu, k)$.

Its expected value and variance are

$$\mu = E[X] = \frac{k}{\mu}$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[X] = \frac{k}{\mu^2}$ (33)

Definition 1.17. (Chi-squared distribution). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows a χ^2 distribution of parameter $n \in \mathbb{N}$ if its PDF is

$$f(x;n) = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})}x^{\frac{n}{2}-1}e^{-\frac{x}{2}} \qquad x > 0$$
 (34)

In this case $X \sim \chi^2(n)$.

Its expected value, variance and Γ_{FWHM} are

$$\mu = E[X] = n \qquad \sigma^2 = Var[X] = 2n \qquad (35)$$

Definition 1.18. (t-Student distribution). Let be n independent variables X_i which come from the same distribution, with mean μ and σ unknown. Then we say X follows a t-Student distribution with n-1=r degrees of freedom if its PDF is

$$f(t; n-1) \equiv f(t; r) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}(r+1)\right)}{\sqrt{r\pi}\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}r\right)} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{r}\right)^{-(r+1)/2}$$
(36)

In this case $X \sim \text{t-Student}(n)$.

Its expected value and variance are

$$\mu = E[X] = 0$$
 $\sigma^2 = Var[X] = \frac{r}{r - 2}$ (37)

Definition 1.19. (Cauchy [Lorentz] distribution). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows a *Cauchy distribution* if its PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\frac{1}{2}\Gamma}{(x-m)^2 + (\frac{1}{2}\Gamma)^2}$$
 (38)

where m is the mean of the distribution and Γ is the FWHM. The distribution is symmetric with respect to m and its CPF is

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2(x-m)}{\Gamma} \right)$$
 (39)

Its expected value and variance aren't defined as integral diverges.

Definition 1.20. (Standard Cauchy [Lorentz] distribution). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows a $standard\ Cauchy\ distribution$ if it follows a Cauchy distribution with m=0 and $\frac{1}{2}\Gamma=1$ so its PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x)^2} \tag{40}$$

In this case we write $X \sim \text{Cauchy}(0, 1)$.

Definition 1.21. (Landau distribution). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable, we say it follows a *Landau distribution* if its PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t(\ln t + xt)} \sin(\pi t) dt \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{1}{2}(x + e^{-x})}$$
(41)

In this case we write $X \sim \text{Landau}$.

Its expected value and variance aren't defined as integral diverges.

Theorem 1.10. (Transformation of random variables). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable with density $f_X(x)$ and $\mathcal{U}=(a,b)$ such that $-\infty \leq a < b \leq \infty$ in an interval so that $P\{X \in \mathcal{U}\}=1$. Let $h:\mathcal{U} \longrightarrow \mathcal{V}$ where $\mathcal{V}=(c,d)$ such that $-\infty \leq c < d \leq \infty$ and $h^-1 \in \mathcal{C}^1(\mathcal{V})$. Then, Y=h(X) is another absolutely continuous random variable such that

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(h^{-1}(y)) |(h^{-1})'(y)| 1_{\mathcal{V}}(y) =$$
 (42)

$$f_X(h^{-1}(y)) \left| J\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) \right| \tag{43}$$

Definition 1.18. (t-Student distribution). Let be n **Definition 1.22.** (Expected value). Let X be a disindependent variables X_i which come from the same crete random variable such that

$$\sum_{k \in S} |k| P\{X = k\} < \infty \tag{44}$$

then we define the expected value of X as

$$E[X] = \sum_{k \in S} kP\{X = k\}$$

$$\tag{45}$$

Let X be an absolutely random variable such that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| f(x) < \infty \tag{46}$$

then we define the expected value of X as

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x)$$
 (47)

Proposition 1.11. (Main properties of expected value). The expected value of a variable X is linear, namely

$$E[X+Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$
 $E[aX] = aE[X]$ (48)

for any random variable X and Y and any $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Moreover

$$E[a] = a \qquad \forall a \in \mathbb{R} \tag{49}$$

Proposition 1.12. (Expected value of a function z(x)). Let X be a random variable following a PDF f(x), then a function z(X) is also a random variable, with expected value

$$E[z(X)] = \sum_{k \in S} z(k)P(X = k), \tag{50}$$

$$E[z(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z(x)f(x) dx$$
 (51)

Proposition 1.13. (Transformation of random variables regarding expected value). Let f(x) be a density function of X, let z(x) be another function, then

$$E[z(x)] = E[z(x(y))] \tag{52}$$

Definition 1.23. (Median). Let X be a discrete random variable, then we define the median x_m of X as the value with probability

$$P\{X \ge x_m\} = P\{X \le x_m\} \ge \frac{1}{2}$$
 (53)

Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable and F(x) its CDF, then we define the median of X as the value x_m for which

$$F(x_m) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_m} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{2}$$
 (54)

Same number of values to the left and to the right of the median.

Definition 1.24. (Mode). Let X be a discrete random variable, then we define the mode x_M of X as the most repeated value.

Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable and f(x) as its PDF, then we define the mode x_M of X as the value

$$\left. \frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \right|_{X=x_M} \tag{55}$$

Sometimes a distribution can be bimodal if it has two modes or multimodal if it has more than two.

Definition 1.25. (Variance and standard deviation). Let X be a random variable such that $E[X^2] < \infty$, then we define the variance of X as

$$Var[X] = E[(X - E[X^2])] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$
 (56)

Moreover, we define the standard deviation of X as

$$Sd[X] = \sqrt{Var[X]} \tag{57}$$

Proposition 1.14. (Main properties of variance). Let X and Y be random variables and $a \in \mathbb{R}$, then is satis fied

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Var}[X] &\geq 0 \\ \operatorname{Var}[aX] &= a^2 \operatorname{Var}[X] \\ \operatorname{Var}[X \pm Y] &= \operatorname{Var}[X] + \operatorname{Var}[Y] \pm 2 \operatorname{CoV}[X, Y] \\ \operatorname{Var}[a] &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 1.15. (Property of variance). Let $X_i =$ $\{X_1,\ldots,X_n\}$ be N random variables, let a_i be a constant, then the variance of the sum of these random

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i^2 \operatorname{Var}[X_i] + \sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{CoV}[X_i, X_j]$$
(58)

Definition 1.26. (Reduced variable). Let X be a random variable, then the reduced (normal) variable of X is defined as

$$u = \frac{X - \mathbf{E}[X]}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}[X]}} \tag{59}$$

Given this reduced variable, the expected value and the variance now are

$$E[u] = 0 \qquad Var[u] = 1 \tag{60}$$

Definition 1.27. (Covariance). Let X and Y be two random variables such that E[|X|], E[|Y|], E[|XY|] < ∞ , then we define the covariance of X and Y as

$$CoV[X,Y] = E[(X-E[X])(Y-E[Y]) = E[XY]-E[X]E[Y]$$
 where $f(y|x)$ means x is fixed and $f(y|x)$ d y represents

Proposition 1.16. (Main properties of covariance). Let X and Y be random variables and $a \in \mathbb{R}$, then is satisfied

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{CoV}[X,Y] &= \operatorname{CoV}[Y,X] \\ \operatorname{CoV}[aX,aY] &= ab\operatorname{CoV}[X,Y] \\ \operatorname{CoV}[X+Y,Z] &= \operatorname{CoV}[X,Z] + \operatorname{CoV}[Y,Z] \\ \operatorname{CoV}[X,a] &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Definition 1.28. (Correlation coefficient). Let and Y be random variables such $E[|X|], E[|Y|], E[|XY|] < \infty$, then we define the correlation coefficient of X and Y as

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\text{CoV}[X, Y]}{\text{Sd}[X]\text{Sd}[Y]}$$
 (62)

which is a dimensionless quantity $\rho_{XY} \in [-1, 1]$.

Proposition 1.17. Let X and Y be independent random variables such that $E[|X|], E[|Y|], E[|XY|] < \infty$,

$$CoV[X, Y] = 0 (63)$$

and, consequently, they are non-correlated

Definition 1.29. (Probability density function). We say a function $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a PDF if

$$f(x,y) \ge 0$$
 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) \, dx \, dy = 1$ (64)

Definition 1.30. (Cumulative probability function). We say a function $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a CDF if

$$F(x,y) = P\{X \le x, Y \le y\} \qquad \text{and} \qquad f(x,y) = \frac{\mathrm{d}F(x)^2}{\mathrm{d}xy}$$
(65)

Definition 1.31. (Marginal distributions). Let X and Y be absolutely continuous random variables following the same PDF f(x,y), then the marginal distributions of X and Y are

$$g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \,dy$$
$$h(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \,dx$$

respectively. They are the PDF of each variable separately, each one is independent from the what's happens to the other.

Definition 1.32. (Conditional probability density). Let X and Y be absolutely continuous random variables of the same PDF f(x,y), then the conditional probability density of an event is given by

$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x,y)}{g(x)} \tag{66}$$

the probability of finding $y \in [y, y+dy]$ when x is fixed.

Definition 1.33. (Absolutely continuous independent variables). Let X and Y be absolutely continuous random variables of the same PDF f(x, y) with marginals distributions g(x) and h(y), then we say X and Y are independent between them if

$$f(x,y) = g(x)h(y) \iff f(y|x) = h(y)$$
 and $f(x|y) = g(x)$ (67)

Proposition 1.18. (Multivariable generalization). Let $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ absolutely continuous random variables following a distribution $f(\mathbf{x})$, then its marginal distributions and expected values are

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

$$g_i(x_i) \int f(\mathbf{x}) \prod_{j \neq i} dx_j$$

$$\mathbf{E}[X_i] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_i f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

The covariance can be represented with a matrix whose elements are

$$C_{ij} = \text{CoV}[X_i, X_j] = E[(X_i - E[X_i])(X_j - E[X_j])]$$
 (68)

or in vectorial notation, the **covariance matrix** or **error matrix** is

$$C = \mathrm{E}[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{E}[X])(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{E}[X])^{\mathrm{T}}]$$
$$C_{ii} = \mathrm{Var}[X_i]$$

The error propagation formula for a function $z(\mathbf{x})$ then is

$$\operatorname{Var}[z] = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \operatorname{C}_{ij} \left[\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_j} \right]_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{E}[X]}$$
(69)

A non-linear transformation of covariance matrix is

$$C_y = \mathcal{T}C_x\mathcal{T}^{\mathrm{T}} \qquad \mathcal{T} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{Y}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \bigg|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{E}[X]}$$
 (70)

Theorem 1.19. (Central limit theorem). Let $\{X_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ be a succession of independent random variables identically distributed such that $\mathrm{E}[X_i^2] < \infty$. Let $\mathrm{E}[X_i] = \mu, \mathrm{Var}[X_i] = \sigma^2$ and $\overline{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Then

$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X} - \mu) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} N(0, \sigma^2)$$
 (71)

Definition 1.34. Let $n \in N$, let X be a random variable following a probability distribution F, then we say a sample of n elements is the set of n independent random variables x_i identically distributed according to F. Denoting it

$$\underline{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \tag{72}$$

Definition 1.35. (Sample mean). Let $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a sample of an experiment X, then we define the mean of the sample as

$$\hat{\mu} = \overline{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \tag{73}$$

Definition 1.36. (Sample median). Let $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ be an even sample of an experiment X, then we define the median of the sample as

$$x_m = x_{(n+1)}/2 (74)$$

The Median of an odd sample is usually defined to be the mean of the two middle values

$$x_m = \frac{x_{n/2} + x_{(n/2)+1}}{2} \tag{75}$$

Definition 1.37. (Sample mode). Let $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ be a sample of an experiment X, then we define the mode of the sample to the most repeated value

$$x_M = \text{most repeated } x_i \text{ value}$$
 (76)

A sample can be bimodal if it has two modes or multimodal it has more than two.

Proposition 1.20. (Expected value and variance of the mean estimator). Let X an experiment with $E[X] = \mu$ and $Var[X] = \sigma^2$, and \overline{x} the mean of the sample $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ of X, then

$$E[\overline{x}] = \mu \qquad Var[\overline{x}] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$
 (77)

Definition 1.38. (Sample variance). Let $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ be a sample. Then we call

$$\widehat{\text{Var}}[x] = s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2,$$
 (78)

$$\widehat{\text{Var}}[x] = S^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2$$
 (79)

the sample variance and S the sample standard deviation of a sample with an unknown mean $\mu \Rightarrow \overline{x}$ and with a known mean μ (having to compute \overline{x}), respectively.

Proposition 1.21. (Expected value and variance of the variance estimator). Let X an experiment with $E[X] = \mu$ and $Var[X] = \sigma^2$, and S^2 the variance of the sample $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$ of X, then

$$E[S^2] = Var[X], Var[s^2] = \frac{1}{n} \left(\mu_4 - \frac{n-3}{n-1} \sigma^4 \right),$$
(80)

$$Var[S^2] = \frac{2\sigma^4}{n} \ (Gaussian) \tag{81}$$

when we don't know the mean μ and when we know it, respectively.

Definition 1.39. (Absolute and relative frequencies). Let the *absolute frequency* of an event i be the number of times n_i this event happens in an experiment.

If N is the number of total observations regarding the experiment, then the relative frequency of an event i is $f_i = n_i/N$.

2 Statistical inference

Definition 2.1. (Statistical inference). The statistical inference is a branch from statistics which focuses on deducing results from a population undergoing an study, from the analysis of several samples from the same population.

Definition 2.2. (Confidence intervals). Let X be an absolutely continuous random variable. Then we call a confidence interval of $1-\alpha$ to an interval (a,b) such that

$$P\{a < X \le b\} = 1 - \alpha \tag{82}$$

We will say the interval (a, b) is centred if its centred in the expected value of X.

Moreover, it can also be defined unilateral confidence intervals $(-\infty, b)$ and (a, ∞) so that

$$P\{X \le b\} = 1 - \alpha \qquad \text{and} \qquad P\{X \ge a\} = 1 - \alpha \tag{83}$$

respectively

Definition 2.3. (Statistic). We call an *statistic* a quantitative measure calculated from the data of a sample, which allows to estimate or contrast some characteristics of a population. It is common to denote an statistic of a sample $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ as

$$T = T(x_1, \dots x_n) \tag{84}$$

3 Parameters estimation

Definition 3.1. (Statistical model). A statistical model is a family of probability distributions.

Definition 3.2. (Parametric and regular model). Let $\{P_{\theta} \mid \theta \in \Theta\}$ be a statistical model then we say this model is *parametric* if θ is dimension-finite and therefore $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}$. In this case we denote θ as $(\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_d)$. We say an statistical model is *regular* if it can be differentiated under the integral sign with respect to θ three times.

Definition 3.3. (Estimator and estimate). An estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is an statistic (any quantity computed from values in a sample that is used for a statistical purpose) used to estimate an unknown parameter θ from the values of a sample.

We say $\hat{\theta}$ is an estimate if its value is enough close to θ .

Definition 3.4. (Inference problem). Given a sample $\underline{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and a model $\{f(x; \theta)\}$, an inference problem is an statistical problem consisting on finding an estimate and determining a confidence region for the parameter θ (for a fixed confidence).

Definition 3.5. (Moment of order r of a random variable). Given a random variable X such that $\mathrm{E}[|X|^r] < \infty$, we define the rth-order moment as

$$\mu_r = \mathrm{E}[X^r]$$

Definition 3.6. (Centred moment of order r of a random variable). Given a random variable X such that $\mathrm{E}[|X|^r] < \infty$, we define the centred moment of order r as

$$\mu c_r = \mathrm{E}[(X - \mathrm{E}[X])^r]$$

We call variance $\mu c_2 = \sigma^2$, bias to μc_3 , kurtosis to μc_4 , bias coefficient to $sk = \frac{\mu c_3}{\sigma^3}$, kurtosis coefficient to $ku = \frac{\mu c_4}{\sigma^4}$ and kurtosis excess to ke = ku - 3.

Definition 3.7. (Likelihood function). Given a sample $\underline{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ of a model $f(x; \theta)$ (discrete or continuous) with $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_d)$, we define the likelihood function as

$$L(\theta) = L(\theta; \underline{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i; \theta)$$

Definition 3.8. (Likelihood coefficient). Let $L(\theta_1; \underline{x})$ and $L(\theta_2; \underline{x})$ be likelihood functions of the same sample and model of different unknown parameters θ_1 and θ_2 , then the likelihood coefficient is

$$Q = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} L(\theta_1; \underline{x})}{\prod_{i=1}^{n} L(\theta_2; \underline{x})}$$

If Q > 1, then it is easy to think that θ_1 value is more probable than θ_2 .

Definition 3.9. (Maximum likelihood method). Given a sample $\underline{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and chosen a model $f(x; \theta)$, we call the maximum likelihood method to the inference problem which founds an approximate value for θ with

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta \in \Theta} \{L(\theta)\}$$

Definition 3.10. (Log-likelihood function). Let $L(\theta; \underline{x})$ be a likelihood function of a sample and a model, then we define the log-likelihood function as

$$l(\theta) = l(\theta; x) = \log(L(\theta; x))$$

as long as $L(\theta; x) \neq 0$ for all $\theta \in \Theta$.

Proposition 3.1. Let $L(\theta; \underline{x})$ and $l(\theta; \underline{x})$ be likelihood and log-likehood functions of a sample and a model, then the point where the functions reach the maximum are the same.

4 Comparison and evaluation of estimators

Definition 4.1. (Bias of an estimator). Let T be an estimator of θ , then the bias of T is

$$b_{\theta}(T) = E_{\theta}[T] - \theta \qquad \forall \theta \qquad (85)$$

Definition 4.2. (Non-biased estimator). Let T be an estimator of θ , then we will say it is a non-biased estimator if

$$b_{\theta}(T) = 0 \iff E_{\theta}[T] = \theta \qquad \forall \theta$$
 (86)

Definition 4.3. (Consistent estimator). Let $\{f(x;\theta)\}$ a model, $\underline{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots\}$ an infinite sample of density $f(x;\theta)$ and $\underline{x}_n = \{x_1, \dots, x_n, \}$ the set of first n observations of \underline{x} . Let $\{T_n(x) = T(\underline{x}_n)\}_{n\geq 1}$ the succession of estimators of parameter θ , then we say the estimator T_n is consistent if

$$T_n \xrightarrow{p} \theta \iff \lim_{n \to \infty} \operatorname{Var}[T_n] = 0$$
 (87)

Definition 4.4. (Asymptotically non-biased estimator). Let $\{f(x;\theta)\}$ a model, $\underline{x} = \{x_1,\ldots,x_n,\ldots\}$ an infinite sample of density $f(x;\theta)$ and $\underline{x}_n = \{x_1,\ldots,x_n,\}$ the set of first n observations of \underline{x} . Let $\{T_n(x) = T(\underline{x}_n)\}_{n\geq 1}$ the succession of estimators of parameter θ , then we say the estimator T_n is asymptomatically non-biased if

$$\mathbf{E}_{\theta}[T_n] \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \theta \tag{88}$$

Proposition 4.1. Under normal conditions, S^2 is a non-biased estimator of σ^2 while m_2 (remember $m_2 = S^2 \cdot (n-1)/n$ is an asymptotically non-biased estimator of σ^2 .

Definition 4.5. (Mean squared error). Let T be an estimator of θ parameter, then the mean squared error is

$$MSE(T) = E_{\theta}[(T - \theta)^{2}]$$
 (89)

Definition 4.6. (Effectiveness). Let T be an estimator of θ parameter, then the efficiency is

$$eff(T) = \frac{1}{MSE(T)}$$
 (90)

Definition 4.7. (Efficiency between estimators). Let T_1 and T_2 be two estimators of same parameter θ . We say T_1 is more efficient than T_2 if

$$MSE(T_1) < MSE(T_2) \tag{91}$$

Proposition 4.2. Let T be an estimator of θ , then

$$MSE(T) = b^{2}(T) + Var_{\theta}[T]$$
 (92)

Corollary 4.3. Let T be a non-biased estimator of θ . Then

$$MSE(T) = Var_{\theta}[T]$$
 (93)

Definition 4.8. (Observed and expected Fisher's Information). Let $J(\theta;\underline{x})$ be Fisher's information for a n-dimensional sample...

$$I(\theta) = \operatorname{Var}_{\theta}[S] = \operatorname{E}_{\theta}[J(\theta, \underline{x})] =$$
 (94)

$$E\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sum_{i} \ln\left(f(x_i; \theta)\right)\right)^2\right] = \mathrm{E}[l'^2] \qquad (95)$$

Theorem 4.4. (Cramér-Rao inequality). Let T be an estimator of θ from a sample \underline{x} of a regular model $\{f(x;\theta)\}$, then it is satisfied

$$\operatorname{Var}_{\theta}[T] \ge \frac{\left(E_{\theta}'[T]\right)^{2}}{I(\theta)} = \frac{\left(1 + \frac{\partial b}{\partial \theta}\right)^{2}}{I(\theta)} \tag{96}$$

Corollary 4.5. In case T is a non-biased estimator of θ , Cramér-Rao inequality is reduced to

$$\operatorname{Var}_{\theta}[T] \ge \frac{1}{I(\theta)}$$
 (97)

Definition 4.9. We will say an estimator T is efficient if it reaches Cramér-Rao bound.

Definition 4.10. (Efficiency). Let T be an estimator of θ parameter, then the efficiency is

$$\epsilon(T) = \frac{\operatorname{Var}_{CRF,\theta}[T]}{\operatorname{Var}_{\theta}[T]} \tag{98}$$

Proposition 4.6. Let T an efficient and non-biased estimator of θ . Then T is the θ parameter estimator with least mean squared error.