

Statistics

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Distributions

0.1 Bernoulli

$$\begin{aligned}P(X = 1) &= p \\P(X = 0) &= 1 - p = q \\E(X) &= p \\E[X^2] &= P(X = 1) \cdot 1^2 + P(X = 0) \cdot 0^2 = p \cdot 1 + q \cdot 0 = p = E[X] \\D[X] &= E[X^2] - E[X]^2 = p - p^2 = p(1 - p) = pq\end{aligned}$$

0.2 Binomial

$$\begin{aligned}P(X = k) &= C_n^k p^k q^{n-k}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \quad p \in [0, 1], \quad q = 1 - p \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \\E[X] &= np \\D[X] &= np(1 - p)\end{aligned}$$

0.3 Poisson

$$\begin{aligned}P(X = k) &= \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \\ \lambda &= E[X] = D[X]\end{aligned}$$

0.4 Hypergeometric

$$\begin{aligned}P(X = k) &= \frac{C_D^k \cdot C_{N-D}^{n-k}}{C_N^n} \\E[X] &= \frac{nD}{N} \\D[X] &= \frac{n(D/N)(1 - D/N)(N - n)}{N - 1}\end{aligned}$$

0.5 Continuos Uniform

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in [a, b] \\ 0 & x \notin [a, b] \end{cases}$$
$$P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & a \leq x \leq b \\ 1 & x \geq b \end{cases}$$
$$E[X] = \frac{a+b}{2}$$
$$\mathcal{D}[X] = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

0.6 Normal

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$
$$E[X] = \mu$$
$$\mathcal{D}[X] = \sigma^2$$

0.7 Exponential

$$f(x, \lambda) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$
$$F(x, \lambda) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$
$$E[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$
$$\mathcal{D}[X] = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

0.8 Cauchy

$$F(x, x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan \left(\frac{x - x_0}{\gamma} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

Definition 1 (Convergence in distribution). *A sequence of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n converges in distribution, or **converge weakly**, or **converge in law** $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$ ($X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$) to a random variable X if:*

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R} : F \in C[x] \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x).$$

Definition 2 (Convergence in probability). *A sequence of random variables $\{X_n\}$ converges in probability $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ towards the random variable X if:*

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \varepsilon) = 0.$$

Definition 3 (Almost surely convergence). *A sequence of random variables $\{X_n\}$ converges almost surely, or **almost everywhere**, or **with probability 1**, or **strongly** $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ towards X means that:*

$$P \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X \right) = 1.$$

1 Sample and sample characteristics

1.1 Sample

Definition 4. Vector $\vec{X} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, where $x_i \in P(\xi)$ are independent equally distributed random values (i.e.d. - independent equally distributed) is called a sample of volume n with distribution $P(\xi)$ (from general totality (з генеральної сукупності) $P(\xi)$).

Remark. $F_{\vec{X}}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = P(x_1 \leq y_1, \dots, x_n \leq y_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i \leq y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n F_{\xi}(y_i)$, where $F_{\xi}(x) = P(\xi \leq x)$ distribution function ξ .

$\mathcal{F} = \{F_{\xi}\}$ we define a class of allowable ditribution functions for random value ξ .

$\mathcal{F}\{F(x, \theta), \theta \in \Theta\}$, Θ - a set of all allowable values for θ .

Example. $P(\xi)$ normal distribution with known dispersion σ^2 but unknown expectation θ . Then our parametric model is:

$\mathcal{F} = \{F(x, \theta), \theta \in \Theta = (-\infty, \infty)\}$, where $F(x, \theta)$ has density of distribution

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Example. $P(\xi)$ has Puasson distribution with unknown parameter θ . Then the parametric model is:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{F(x, \theta), \theta \in \Theta = (0, \infty)\}.$$

$$F(x, \theta) = P(\xi = x) = \frac{\theta^x}{x!} e^{-\theta}, x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Definition 5. Measurable function from sampling (and only from sample) is called statistics.

$T_n(\vec{X})$ - statistics .

Example.

x_1, \dots, x_n - i.e.d. random values .

$$T(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_1.$$

$$T(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i.$$

$$T(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \min(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Example.

$x_i \sim \text{Poiiss}(\theta), \theta$ - unknown parameter .

$T(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{x_1}{\theta}$ - is not a statistics function as long as it depends on unknown parameter.

1.2 Variation series of the sample

Suppose $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ a sample, $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ a realization of the sample.

Let

$$x_{(1)} = \min(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$x_{(2)}$ - second by range

...

$$x_{(n)} = \max(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

In probability and statistics, a realization, observation, or observed value, of a random variable is the value that is actually observed (what actually happened).

Let $X_{(k)}$ to be a random value that for every realization \vec{x} of sample \vec{X} is $x_{(k)}$. Then the series

$$R = (X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \dots, X_{(n)}) .$$

is a variation series of the sample.

$X_{(k)}$ - is k th ordinal statistics.

Remark. Ordinal statistics $X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}$ are neither independent nor equally distributed.

Let's find $F_{X_{(1)}}, F_{X_{(k)}}, F_{X_{(n)}}$:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X_{(1)}}(y) &= P(X_{(1)} \leq y) = P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq y) = \\ &= 1 - P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) > y) = 1 - P(X_1 > y, \dots, X_n > y) = \\ &= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i > y) = 1 - (1 - F(y))^n; \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X_{(n)}}(y) &= P(\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq y) = \\ &= P(X_1 \leq y, \dots, X_n \leq y) = [F(y)]^n. \end{aligned}$$

$$F_{X_{(k)}}(y) = P(X_{(k)} \leq y) =$$

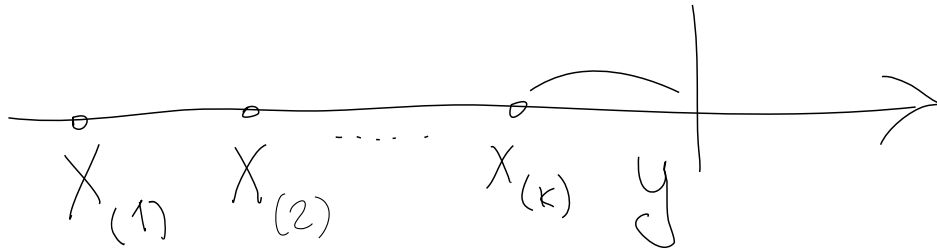


Figure 1: Distribution of k-th ordinal statistics

$$\begin{aligned} &= P(\text{at least } k \text{ elements do not exceed } y) = \\ &= \sum_{m=k}^n C_n^m [F(y)]^m (1 - F(y))^{n-m}. \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 1.1 (joint distribution of variation series). *Let $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ - a sample and X_i has density $f(x)$. Then:*

$$f_{(X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)})}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = n! f(y_1) \dots f(y_n) \times \mathbb{1}(y_1 \leq y_2 \leq \dots \leq y_n).$$

Proof. Consider distribution function of variation series:

$$F_{(X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)})}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) = P(X_{(1)} \leq y_1, \dots, X_{(n)} \leq y_n).$$

Consider that $y_1 > y_2$. Then $X_{(2)} \leq y_2 \Rightarrow X_{(1)} \leq y_1$. ($X_{(1)} \leq X_{(2)} \leq y_2 < y_1$).

$$\{X_{(2)} \leq y_2\} \cap \{X_{(1)} \leq y_1\} = \{X_{(2)} \leq y_2\}.$$

That's why:

$$F_{(X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)})}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = P(X_{(2)} \leq y_2, \dots, X_{(n)} \leq y_n).$$

Because right side does not depend from y_1 then

$$f_R(y_1, \dots, y_n) = 0$$

in case of non-fulfillment of the condition of orderliness: $y_1 \leq y_2 \leq \dots \leq y_n$.

Let $\Gamma = \{(y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n : y_1 \leq \dots, y_n\}$.

$$\forall A \subset \Gamma : P((X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}) \in A) = \int_A f_R(y_1, \dots, y_n) dy_1 \dots dy_n.$$

On the other side:

$$\begin{aligned} P((X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}) \in A) &= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} P((X_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, X_{\sigma(n)}) \in A) = \\ &= n! \cdot P((X_1, \dots, X_n) \in A) = n! \cdot \int_A f_{\vec{X}}(y_1, \dots, y_n) dy_1 \dots dy_n \end{aligned}$$

Hence:

$$f_r(y_1, \dots, y_n) = n! f_{\vec{X}}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = n! f(y_1) \cdot \dots \cdot f(y_n).$$

At last:

$$f_R(y_1, \dots, y_n) = n! \prod_{i=1}^n f(y_i) \cdot \mathbb{1}(y_1 \leq \dots \leq y_n).$$

□

1.3 Empirical distribution function

Let $\vec{X} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ - a sample.

Consider:

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(X_i \leq x).$$

$F_n(x)$ is called **empirical distribution function**.

$F_n(x)$ - random function: for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ takes values $0, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, 1$.

Herewith:

$$P\left(F_n(x) = \frac{k}{n}\right) = C_n^k [F(x)]^k (1 - F(x))^{n-k}, \quad k = \overline{0, n}.$$

$$n \cdot F_n(x) \sim \text{Bin}(n, F(x)).$$

Hence:

1.

$$\begin{aligned} M[n \cdot F_n(x)] &= n \cdot F(x) \\ &\Downarrow \\ MF_n(x) &= F(x). \end{aligned}$$

2.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}(n \cdot F_n(x)) &= n \cdot F(x)(1 - F(x)) \\ &\Downarrow \\ \mathcal{D}F_n(x) &= \frac{1}{n} F(x)(1 - F(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Using law of large numbers:

$$F_n(x) = \frac{\mathbb{1}(X_1 \leq x) + \dots + \mathbb{1}(X_n \leq x)}{n} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{P} M\mathbb{1}(X_1 \leq x) = P(X_1 \leq x) = F(x).$$

Using central limit theorem (ЦГТ):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n \cdot F_n(x) - nF(x)}{\sqrt{nF(x)(1 - F(x))}} &\xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \\ \sqrt{n} \cdot \frac{F_n(x) - F(x)}{\sqrt{F(x)(1 - F(x))}} &\xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

1.4 Hystogram and frequency range

Suppose that X_1, \dots, X_n = a sample;

$X_i \sim \xi$; ξ has continuous density $f(x)$ (unknown).

Let $\mathcal{I}_1, \dots, \mathcal{I}_m$ - some division of the area \mathcal{I} of possible values of ξ :

Let $\nu_r = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}(X_j \in \mathcal{I}_r)$ - number of elements of the sample that are in \mathcal{I}_r .

Then by the Law of Large Numbers:

$$\frac{\nu_r}{n} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}(X_j \in \mathcal{I}_r)}{n} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{P} M \mathbb{1}(X_1 \in \mathcal{I}_r) = P(X_1 \in \mathcal{I}_r) = \int_{\mathcal{I}_r} f(x) dx.$$

Because f is continuos then by the theorem about mean (теорема про середне):

$$\int_{\mathcal{I}_r} f(x) dx = |\mathcal{I}_r| \cdot f(x_r)$$

where x_r - is inner point of the interval \mathcal{I}_r , $|\mathcal{I}_r|$ - length of the interval.

We can consider, that (n is big and $|\mathcal{I}_r|$ is small)

$$\frac{\nu_r}{n \cdot |\mathcal{I}_r|} \approx f(x_r)$$

where x_r - middle of \mathcal{I}_r .

Definition 6. *Piecewise constant function*

$$f_n(x) = \frac{\nu_r}{n \cdot |\mathcal{I}_r|} \mathbb{1}(x \in \mathcal{I}_r), \quad r = \overline{1, m}$$

is called a hystogram.

Within large n and small enough division the hystogram $f_n(x)$ is an approximation of true density $f(x)$.

Example. *Height of $n = 500$ students was measured; The results are shown in view of interval statistical series:*

145-150	150-155	155-160	160-165	165-170	170-175	175-180	180-185
1	2	28	90	169	132	55	23

$$|\mathcal{I}_r| = 5; \quad n = 500; \quad f_n(x) = \frac{\nu_r}{2500} \mathbb{1}(x \in \mathcal{I}_r).$$

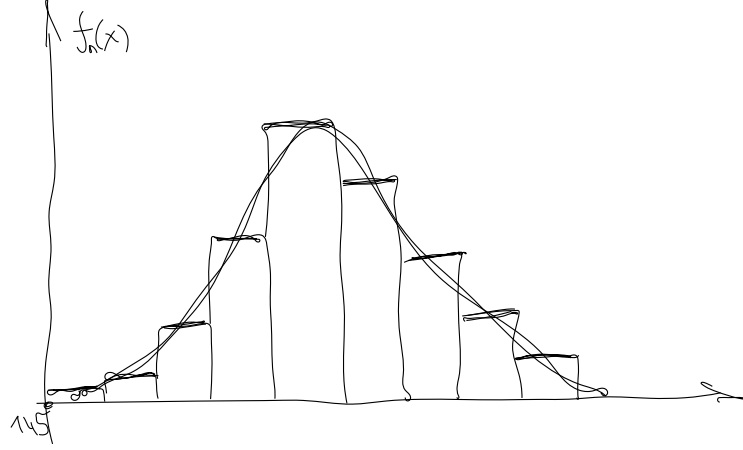


Figure 2: Students height hystogram

Definition 7. The frequency polygon is a polyline that connects the midpoints of the segments in the histogram.

1.5 Sample mean

Definition 8. Statistics $\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$ is called sample mean (вибіркове середнє) or selective first moment (вибірковий перший момент).

Properties:

1. $M\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n MX_i = MX_1 = m$
2. $\mathcal{D}\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{D}X_i = \frac{1}{n} \mathcal{D}X_1 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$
3. Using Law of Large Numbers:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{P} MX_1 = m.$$

4. Using central limit theorem (центральна гранична теорема):

$$\frac{n \cdot \bar{X} - n \cdot M\bar{X}}{\sqrt{\mathcal{D}[n\bar{X}]}} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \quad n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\frac{n(\bar{X} - m)}{n\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

$$\sqrt{n \cdot \frac{\bar{X} - m}{\sigma}} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \quad n \rightarrow \infty.$$

1.6 Sample variance

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

where $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$.

$$S^2 = \overline{X^2} - (\bar{X})^2$$

where $\overline{X^2} = \frac{X_1^2 + \dots + X_n^2}{n}$ is second sample moment.

Using Law of Large Numbers:

$$S^2 = \overline{X^2} - (\bar{X})^2 \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{P} MX_1^2 - (MX_1)^2 = \mathcal{D}X_1.$$

$$S_o^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2.$$

S_o^2 - is **unbiased sample dispersion**.

Then

$$MS_o^2 = \sigma^2 \tag{1}$$

Indeed :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - m)^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n ((X_i - \bar{X}) + (\bar{X} - m))^2 = \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + 2(\bar{X} - m) \cdot \overbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})}^0 + n \cdot (\bar{X} - m)^2 = \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + n(\bar{X} - m)^2 = \\
 &= (n-1) S_o^2 + n \cdot (\bar{X} - m)^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

Let's take *expectation* on the left and right side:

$$M \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - m)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n M (X_i - m)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{D}X_i = n \cdot \sigma^2$$

$$M (\bar{X} - m)^2 = M (\bar{X} - M(\bar{X}))^2 = \mathcal{D}\bar{X} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

$$n \cdot \sigma^2 = (n-1) \cdot MS_o^2 + n \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

\Downarrow

$$MS_o^2 = \sigma^2.$$

2 Lesson 2. Point estimates and their properties

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is a sample from parametric family $\mathcal{F} = \{F(x, \theta), \theta \in \Theta\}$ where θ is unknown parameter.

Problem: find statistics $T_n = T(\vec{X})$, values of which, by defined realization of a sample, are taken as approximated value of θ (значення якої

при заданій реалізації \vec{x} вибірки \vec{X} приймається за наближене значення θ). Then T_n is called a point estimate of evaluation (точкова оцінка) θ .

Definition 9. Statistics

$$T_n = T(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n).$$

is called meaningful evaluation (змістовна оцінка) of θ if

$$T_n \xrightarrow{p} \theta, \quad n \rightarrow \infty.$$

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad P_\theta (|T_n - \theta| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0, \quad n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Remark. $P_\theta, M_\theta, D_\theta$ means that respective values are evaluated with an assumption that $X_i \sim F(x, \theta)$.

Definition 10. Statistics T_n is called unbiased evaluation of θ if

$$M_\theta T_n = \theta \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta.$$

Definition 11. Statistics T_n is called asymptotically unbiased evaluations if

$$M_\theta T_n \rightarrow \theta, \quad n \rightarrow \infty \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta.$$

Example. $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ - meaningful unbiased statistics for $\theta = MX_1$.

Example.

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \overline{X^2} - (\bar{X})^2$$

Using Law of Large Numbers:

$$S^2 \xrightarrow{p} MX_1^2 - (MX_1)^2 = \mathcal{D}X_1$$

$$MS^2 = M \left(\frac{n-1}{n} MS_0^2 \right) \quad S_0^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

That's why

$$MS^2 = \frac{n-1}{n} MS_0^2 = \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \mathcal{D}X_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{D}X_1$$

S^2 - meaningful asymptotic unbiased for $\theta = \mathcal{D}X_1$

Corollary 2.1 (About meaningfulness and unbiased of sampling moments).
Let g - borel function that $Mg(X_1) < \infty$. Then the evaluation

$$\overline{g(X)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(X_i).$$

is meaningful unbiased evaluation for $\Theta = Mg(X_1)$.

Example (Unbiased evaluation does not exist).

$$X_1 \sim \text{Pois}(\theta), \quad g(\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta}.$$

Assume that $\exists T(X)$ unbiased estimate for $\frac{1}{\theta}$:

$$M_\theta T(X) = \frac{1}{\theta} \quad \forall \theta > 0.$$

this means

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} T(k) \cdot \frac{\theta^k}{k!} e^{-\theta} = \frac{1}{\theta} \quad \forall \theta > 0.$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} T(k) \cdot \frac{\theta^{k+1}}{k!} = e^\theta \quad \forall \theta > 0.$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} T(k) \cdot \frac{\theta^{k+1}}{k!} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\theta^m}{m!} \quad \forall \theta > 0.$$

The last equality is impossible: theres no such function T that does not depend on θ in such way that the last equality is true.

Remark. *If T_1 and T_2 are unbiased evaluations for θ then*

$$T = C_1 T_1 + C_2 T_2, \quad C_1 + C_2 = 1$$

is unbiased too.

Example.

$x_1, \dots, x_{2n} \sim B(p)$, p is unknown .

$$\hat{p}_1 = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{2n} x_i.$$

is unbiased and meaningful evaluations for p .

$$\hat{p}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{2i}.$$

is unbiased and meaningful too.

Which one is better?

2.1 Root mean square approach to comparing estimates

Definition 12 (RMS). Value

$$M_\theta(T(\vec{X}) - \theta)^2$$

is called a root **mean square evaluation** of T .

Definition 13. The evaluation T_1 is better in root mean square than evaluation T_2 if

$$\forall \theta \in \Theta : M_\theta(T_1 - \theta)^2 \leq M_\theta(T_2 - \theta)^2 .$$

and at least for one θ :

$$M_\theta(T_1 - \theta)^2 < M_\theta(T_2 - \theta)^2 .$$

Example (continuation).

$$\hat{p}_1 = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{2n} X_i \quad \hat{p}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{2i}.$$

$$M_\theta(\hat{p}_1 - p)^2 = M_\theta(\hat{p}_1 - M\hat{p}_1)^2 = \mathcal{D}\hat{p}_1 = \frac{1}{2n} \mathcal{D}X_1.$$

$$M_\theta(\hat{p}_2 - p)^2 = \mathcal{D}\hat{p}_2 = \frac{1}{n} \mathcal{D}X_1.$$

$$\frac{1}{2n} < \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow \hat{p}_1 \text{ is better in rms .}$$

Example.

$$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim U(0, \theta), \quad \theta \text{ unknown}.$$

$$T_1 = 2 \cdot \bar{X}; \quad T_2 = X_{(n)}.$$

for T_1 :

$$MT_1 = 2 \cdot \frac{\theta}{2} = \theta$$

is unbiased.

$$M_\theta(T_1 - \theta)^2 = \mathcal{D}T_1 = 4 \cdot \mathcal{D}(\bar{X}) = \frac{4}{n} \cdot \mathcal{D}X_1 = \frac{4}{n} \cdot \frac{\theta^2}{12} = \frac{\theta^2}{3n}.$$

For T_2 :

$$F_{X_{(n)}}(y) = [F_{X_i}(y)]^n = \begin{cases} 1 & y \geq \theta \\ \left(\frac{y}{\theta}\right)^n & y \in [0, \theta] \\ 0 & y < 0 \end{cases}.$$

$$f_{X_{(n)}}(y) = n \cdot \frac{y^{n-1}}{\theta^n} \cdot \mathbf{1}(y \in [0, \theta]).$$

Herewith

$$MX_{(n)} = \frac{n}{\theta^n} \int_0^\theta y^n dy = \frac{n}{n+1} \cdot \theta \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \theta.$$

$X_{(n)}$ is asymptotically unbiased

$$MX_{(n)}^2 = \frac{n}{\theta^n} \int_0^\theta y^{n+1} dy = \frac{n}{n+2} \theta^2.$$

Then

$$M_\theta (X_{(n)} - \theta)^2 = \frac{n}{n+2} \theta^2 - \frac{2n}{n+1} \theta^2 + \theta^2 = \frac{2}{(n+1)(n+2)} \theta^2.$$

Within $n = 1, n = 2$ then RMS are equal. It follows that no is better. Within $n \geq 3$:

$$\frac{2}{(n+1)(n+2)} < \frac{1}{3n}$$

and $X_{(n)}$ is better RMS.

Definition 14. Value $b(\theta) = M_\theta T(\vec{X}) - \theta$ is called biased evaluation $T(\vec{X})$.

Suppose K_b is a class of biased evaluations $b = b(\theta)$. K_0 is a class of unbiased evaluations.

Remark. If $\forall T \in K_b$:

$$M_\theta (T(X) - \theta)^2 = \mathcal{D}T(X) + (b(\theta))^2.$$

Definition 15. Evaluation $T^* \in K_b$ is called an optimal in this class if it is better than any other evaluation from this class.

$$\forall T \in K_b, \forall \theta \in \Theta \quad \mathcal{D}_\theta T^* \leq \mathcal{D}_\theta T.$$

Theorem 2.2. Let T_1 and T_2 are two optimal evaluations. Then

$$T_1 = T_2 \text{ almost certainly.}$$

Proof.

$$M_\theta T_1 = \theta, \quad M_\theta T_2 = \theta$$

$$\mathcal{D}_\theta T_1 = \mathcal{D}_\theta T_2 = \sigma^2$$

$$\text{Consider } T = \frac{1}{2} (T_1 + T_2)$$

$$T \in K_0 : M_\theta T = \theta \text{ besides}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_\theta T \geq \sigma^2$$

$$\mathcal{D}_\theta T = \mathcal{D}_\theta \left(\frac{1}{2} T_1 + \frac{1}{2} T_2 \right) = \frac{1}{4} \mathcal{D}T_1 + \frac{1}{4} \mathcal{D}T_2 + \frac{1}{2} \text{cov}(T_1, T_2) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2} \text{cov}(T_1, T_2)$$

$$\text{Causy-Bunyakovski: } |\text{cov}(T_1, T_2)| = |\text{cov}(T_1 - \theta, T_2 - \theta)| \leq$$

$$\leq \sqrt{\mathcal{D}_\theta T_1 \cdot \mathcal{D}_\theta T_2} = \sigma^2 \mathcal{D}_\theta T \leq \sigma^2$$

This means that in Causy-Bnyakovskiy inequality turn into equality, and this means that

$$T_1 = kT_2 + a.$$

Using conditions:

$$a = 0, k = 1.$$

So

$$T_1 \underset{\text{a.c.}}{=} T_2.$$

□

3 Fisher

Definition 16.

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{x}, \theta) = f(x_1, \theta) \cdot \dots \cdot f(x_n, \theta)$$

that is considered as function θ within fixed \vec{x} , is called function plausibility.

Consider that

$$\mathcal{L}(x, \vec{\theta}) > 0 \quad \forall \vec{x} \in X \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta.$$

$\mathcal{L}(\vec{x}, \theta)$ differentiable by θ .

The model is regular: the order of differential by θ and integration by \vec{X} may be swapped.

Example (not regular model).

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim U(0, \theta).$$

$$f(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} \mathbb{1}(x \in (0, \theta)).$$

$$\int_0^\theta f(x, \theta) dx = 1.$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \int_0^\theta \frac{1}{\theta} dx = 0.$$

But

$$\int_0^\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\frac{1}{\theta} \right) dx = \int_0^\theta -\frac{1}{\theta^2} dx = -\frac{1}{\theta} \neq 0.$$

Definition 17. *Random value*

$$U(\vec{X}, \theta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ln \mathcal{L}(\vec{X}, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ln f(X_i, \theta).$$

is called sample contribution. And addition

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ln f(X_i, \theta).$$

is called a contribution of i -th observation.

Corollary 3.1. *For regular model*

$$M_{\theta} U(\vec{X}, \theta) = 0 \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta.$$

Proof.

$$L(\vec{X}, \theta) = f(x_1, \theta) \dots f(x_n, \theta).$$

L is compatible (сумісна) density \vec{X} .

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} L(\vec{X}, \theta) dx = 1.$$

Differentiate by θ

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} L(\vec{X}, \theta) d\vec{x} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\vec{X}, \theta) d\vec{x} = \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ln L(\vec{X}, \theta) \right] \cdot L(\vec{X}, \theta) d\vec{x} = M_{\theta} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ln L(\vec{X}, \theta) \right] = M_{\theta} U(\vec{X}, \theta). \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 18. *Value*

$$I_n(\theta) = M_{\theta} U^2(\vec{X}, \theta) = \mathcal{D}_{\theta} U(\vec{X}, \theta)$$

is called a number of Fisher information in sample \vec{X} . Value

$$i(\theta) = M_{\theta} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \ln f(X_1, \theta) \right)^2.$$

is a number of information in one observation.

As long as X_1, \dots, X_n are independent equally distributed values:

$$I_n(\theta) = n \cdot i(\theta).$$