## 1 Probability and random variables

- **Probability**: S sample space (all possible states of the system),  $F \subset \mathcal{P}(S)$  a  $\sigma$ -algebra,  $P: F \to \mathbb{R}$  a measure, such that P(S) = 1.
- Random variable:  $X: S \to \mathbb{R}$ , such that preimages of open sets are in F (i.e. has a well defined probability).
- Cumulative distribution function of random variable:  $F_X(t) = P(X \le t)$ .
- Probability distribution of random variable: g such that  $F_X(t) = \sum_{x \le t, x \in C} g(x)$ .
- Probability density function: f such that  $F_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f(s) ds$ .
- Two random variables have the **same distribution** if they have the same cdf.

#### Example: uniform distribution:

- S a finite interval [a, b]
- F: Set of Borel sets on S (sets with a well defined "length")
- P: Borel measure ("length") divided by b-a
- X = id.

### 1.1 Expectation of random variables and their functions

- X is a random variable, the **expectation** of X is  $E[X] = \int_S X dP$ .
- The variance of X is  $E[(X E[X])^2]$ .
- The k-th moment of X is  $E[X^k]$ .
- The moment generating function of X is  $E[e^{Xt}]$  (two sided Laplace transform)
- The characteristic function of X is  $E[e^{itX}]$  (Fourier transform)

Since expectation is defined via integration, one can use the properties of integration to prove statements regarding expectation.

Example: Chebyshev's theorem: E[X] = 0,  $E[X^2] = 1$ , then  $P(|X| < k) \ge 1 - \frac{1}{k^2}$ . Proof:

$$1 = E[X^2] = \int_S X^2 dP \ge k^2 \int_{|X| > k} 1 dP = k^2 (1 - P(|X| < k))$$

Example: If X has p.d.f.  $f_X$ , then  $E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g f_x dt$ . We prove it when g(X) is bounded via Fubini's theorem:

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{S} g(X)dP$$

$$= \int_{g(X)\geq 0} \int_{0}^{g(X)} 1dydP - \int_{g(X)<0} \int_{g(X)}^{0} 1dydP$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{g^{-1}([y,\infty])} f_X(t)dtdy - \int_{-\infty}^{0} \int_{g^{-1}([-\infty,y])} f_X(t)dtdy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} gf_xdt$$

There is a multivariate version of this formula, and one can also write down E[g(X)] when only the c.d.f. of X is known (via Fubini's theorem or integration by parts).

Can you write down a random variable with neither probability distribution nor p.d.f.?

Can you write down a random variable with no expectation?

# 1.2 Independence and conditional probability for random events

- $A, B \in F$  are independent iff  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ .
- If  $P(B) \neq 0$ ,  $P(A \cap B) = P(B)P(A|B)$ . Here P(A|B) is the **conditional probability** of A when B is known to happen.

# 1.3 Joint distribution, marginal distribution, conditional distribution

#### 1.3.1 Joint distribution

- X and Y are two random variables. The **joint cumulative distribution** function is  $F(s,t) = P(X \le s, Y \le t)$ .
- If  $F(s,t) = \sum_{(x,y) \in C, x \le s, y \le t} g(s,t)$ , we call g the **joint probability distribution**.
- If  $F(s,t) = \int_{(-\infty,s]\times(-\infty,t]} f(x,y) dx dy$  we call f the joint probability density function.
- X and Y are called independent iff the joint c.d.f. is  $F(x,y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y)$ .
- The **covariance** between X and Y is E[(X E[X])(Y E[Y])]

Example: X and Y are two independent random variable with uniform distribution on [0,1]. What is the joint distribution function of X and Y? How about max(X,Y) and min(X,Y)? What are their covariances?

#### 1.3.2 Marginal distribution

Knowing the joint c.d.f. of X and Y, the c.d.f. of X or Y are called the marginal cumulative distribution function, their p.d. or p.d.f. the marginal p.d. or marginal p.d.f.

#### 1.3.3 Conditional distribution

- If A is a set such that  $P(Y \in A) > 0$ , then the conditional cumulative distribution function of X is  $F_{X|Y \in A}(t) = P(X \le t|Y \in A) = P(X \le t \cap Y \in A)/P(Y \in A)$ . The conditional p.d.f., conditional p.d. and conditional expectation are defined similarly.
- If  $P(Y \in A) = 0$  there isn't a definition of conditional distribution that works in all cases. For example, if X, Y has joint p.d.f.  $f_{X,Y}$ , and the marginal p.d.f. of Y, denoted as  $f_Y(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx$ , exists and is non zero at  $y_0$ , then the conditional p.d.f. at  $Y = y_0$  is defined as  $f_{X|Y=y_0} = f_{X,Y}(x,y_0)/f_Y(y_0)$ . The conditional c.d.f. is its integral.

Remark: The definition of conditional distribution for the case  $P(Y \in A) = 0$  depends on Y and not just  $Y^{-1}(A)$ . For example, if  $Z = Ye^X$ ,  $f_{X|Y=0} \neq f_{X|Z=0}$ .

Example: X is a random variable with uniform distribution on [0,1], P(Y=1|X=p)=p (i.e.  $P(Y=1|X\in A)=\int_A pdF_x(p)$ ), P(Y=0|X=p)=1-p. Find the conditional distribution of X when Y=1.

When there are N random variables,  $N \geq 3$ , the joint/marginal/conditional distributions can be defined analogously.

## 2 Special probability distributions, central limit theorem

#### 2.1 Special discrete distributions

- Bernoulli distribution:  $f(1) = \theta$ ,  $f(0) = 1 \theta$ .
- Binomial distribution (sum of iid Bernoulli):  $f(x) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1 \theta)^{n-x}, x = 0, 1, ..., n.$

- Negative Binomial distribution (waiting time for the k-th success of iid trials):  $f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} x-1 \\ k-1 \end{pmatrix} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{x-k}, \ x=k,k+1,\ldots$  When k=1 it is the **geometric distribution**.
- Hypergeometric distribution (randomly pick n elements at random from N elements, the number of elements picked from a fixed subset of M elements)  $f(x) = \binom{M}{x} \binom{N-M}{n-x} \binom{N}{n}^{-1}$ .
- Poisson distribution (limit of binomial as  $n \to \infty$ ,  $n\theta \to \lambda$ )  $f(x) = \lambda^x e^{-\lambda}/x!$ .
- Multinomial distribution  $f(x_1, ... x_k) = \binom{n}{x_1, ..., x_k} \theta_1^{x_1} ... \theta_k^{x_k},$  $\sum_i x_i = n, \theta_i \theta_i = 1.$
- Multivariate Hypergeometric distribution  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_k) = \prod_i \binom{M_i}{x_i}$ .  $\binom{N}{n}^{-1}$ .  $\sum_i x_i = n$ ,  $\sum_i M_i = N$ .

## 2.2 Special continuous distributions

- Uniform distribution:  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/(b-a) & x \in (a,b) \\ 0 & x \not\in (a,b) \end{cases}$ .
- Normal distribution:  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ .
- Multivariate Normal distribution:  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\Sigma$  positive definite  $d \times d$  symmetric matrix,  $f(x) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)}$ .
- $\chi^2$  distribution d: degrees of freedom. Squared sum of d normal distributions:  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^{d/2}\Gamma(d/2)}x^{\frac{d-2}{2}}e^{-x/2} & x>0\\ 0 & x\leq 0 \end{cases}$ .
- Exponential distribution  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta}e^{-x/\theta} & x > 0\\ 0 & x \le 0 \end{cases}$
- Gamma-distribution:  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha)}x^{\alpha-1}e^{-x/\beta} & x>0\\ 0 & x\leq 0 \end{cases}$
- Beta distribution: (conjugate prior of Bernoulli distribution)  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} & x \in (0,1) \\ 0 & x \notin (0,1) \end{cases}$ .

### 2.3 Law of Large Numbers and Central Limit Theorem

#### 2.3.1 Convergence

- Convergence in distribution: cdf pointwise convergence.
- Convergence almost surely:  $P(\lim_i X_i \neq X) = 0$ .

Example: X uniform on  $[0,1], Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}(X+n \in [\sum_{j=1}^i \frac{1}{j}, \sum_{j=1}^{i+1} \frac{1}{j}]) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ .

Then  $Y_i$  converges to 0 in distribution but not almost surely.

#### 2.3.2 CLT and weak LLN

**Levy's continuity theorem**: If  $\phi_{X_j} \to \phi_X$  pointwise, then  $X_j$  converges to X in distribution.

Weak Law of Large Numbers  $X_i$  i.i.d. with expectation  $\mu$ .  $S_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ . Then  $S_n$  converges to  $\mu$  in distribution.

(Levy's) Central Limit Theorem  $X_i$  i.i.d. with expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2 > 0$ .  $Y_n = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n\sigma^2}} \sum_i (X_i - \mu)$ , then  $Y_n$  converges in distribution to standard normal distribution (normal distribution with  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$ ).

Proof of both theorems (assume  $X_i$  bounded): Taylor expansion of the characteristic function.

One can also use the continuity of moment generating function, which is the argument in the textbook.

#### 2.3.3 Strong Law of Large Numbers

Borel-Cantelli Lemma  $A_i$  events,  $i = 1, 2, ..., \sum_i (A_i) < \infty$ , then  $P(\cap_i (\cup_{j>i} A_j)) = 0$ . (the probability of infinitely many  $A_i$  happening is 0)

Proof:  $P(\cap_i(\cup_{j>i}A_j)) \leq P(\cup_{j>i}A_j) \leq \sum_{j>i}P(A_j)$  which converges to 0 as  $i \to \infty$ .

Strong Law of Large Numbers  $X_i$ , i = 1, 2, ... i.i.d. (independent with identical distribution) and  $E(X_i) = \mu$ , then  $Y_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  converges a.s. to constant  $\mu$ .

Proof (assume  $X_i$  bounded by M): Suppose  $Var(X_i)=m$ .  $\sqrt{\frac{n}{m}}(Y_n-\mu)$  has expectation 0 and variance 1, so  $P(|Y_n-\mu|>C\sqrt{\frac{m}{n}})<1/C^2$  by Chebyshev's theorem. Now let  $n_k=k^4$ ,  $C_k=k$ , then  $Y_{n_k}=Y_{k^4}$  converges a.s. to  $\mu$  by Borel-Cantelli.

 $Y_n = (\lfloor n^{1/4} \rfloor^4 Y_{\lfloor n^{1/4} \rfloor^4} + X_{\lfloor n^{1/4} \rfloor^4 + 1} + \dots + X_n)/n = Y_{\lfloor n^{1/4} \rfloor^4} + (M + |\mu|) \frac{n - \lfloor n^{1/4} \rfloor^4}{n}.$  The first term converges to  $\mu$  as  $n \to \infty$ , and the second converges to 0.

## 3 Sample statistics

## 3.1 Some important distributions

- Standard Normal Distribution:  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$
- $\chi^2(k)$ : squared sum of k independent standard normal distribution.
- t distribution: Z standard normal,  $Y \sim \chi^2(k)$ , Z and Y independent, then  $T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{Y/k}}$  is said to have t-distribution with k degrees of freedom.
- F distribution: U and V independent,  $U \sim \chi^2(m)$ ,  $V \sim \chi^2(n)$ , then  $F = \frac{U/m}{V/n}$  is said to have F distribution with degrees of freedom m and n,

## 3.2 Sample statistics

 $X_1, \dots X_n$  i.i.d. (independent with identical distributions). Sample statistics: a random variable computed from n other random variables.

- Sample mean:  $\overline{X} = \frac{\sum_{i} X_{i}}{n}$ 
  - $-E[\overline{X}] = E[X_1], Var(\overline{X}) = \frac{1}{n}Var(X_1).$ Proof:

$$E[\overline{X}] = E[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} X_{i}] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} E[X_{i}] = E[X_{1}]$$

$$F[\overline{X}] = F[(\overline{X} - F[X_{1}])^{2}] = \frac{1}{n} F[\overline{X} (X_{1} - F[X_{1}])^{2}] = \frac{1}{n} V_{ax}$$

$$Var(\overline{X}) = E[(\overline{X} - E[X_1])^2] = \frac{1}{n^2} E[\sum_i (X_i - E[X_i)^2] = \frac{1}{n} Var(X_1)$$

- If  $X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\overline{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ . Proof: By calculation using MGF.
- If  $n \to \infty$ ,  $\sqrt{\frac{n}{Var(X_1)}}(\overline{X} E[X_1])$  converges to standard normal by distribution.

Proof: This is just central limit theorem.

• Sample variance:  $S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (X_i - \overline{X})^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} (\sum_i X_i^2 - n \overline{X}^2)$ .

$$- E[S^2] = Var(X_1).$$
Proof:

$$E[S^2] = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i E[(X_i - \overline{X})^2] = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i E[(\frac{n-1}{n} X_i - \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{1}{n} X_j)^2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i} \left( \frac{(n-1)^2}{n^2} E[X_i^2] + \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{1}{n^2} E[X_j^2] - \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{2n-2}{n^2} E[X_i] E[X_j] \right)$$

$$+ \sum_{j \neq i, k \neq i, j \neq k} \frac{2}{n^2} E[X_j] E[x_k]$$

$$= E[X_1^2] - E[X_1]^2 = Var(X_1)$$

- If  $X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then
  - \*  $\overline{X}$  and  $S^2$  are independent Proof: Calculate joint cdf, do a change of variables.

\* 
$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$$
  
Proof:  
$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} + n \frac{(\overline{X} - E[X_1])^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_i (X_i - E[X_1])^2 \sim \chi^2(n)$$

Now use moment generating function and the independence between  $S^2$  and  $\overline{X}$ .

- \*  $\frac{\overline{X}-\mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t(n-1).$  Proof: By definition of t-distribution.
- If  $S_1^2$  is the sample variance of  $n_1$  i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  random variables  $Y_i$ ,  $S_2^2$  the sample variance of  $n_2$  i.i.d.  $\mathcal{N}(\mu', \sigma'^2)$  random variables  $Z_j$  independent from  $Y_i$ , then  $\frac{S_1^2/\sigma_1^2}{S_2^2/\sigma_2^2} \sim F(n_1 1, n_2 1)$  Proof: By definition of F-distribution.
- Order statistics The k-th order statistics is the k-th smallest element in  $\{X_i\}$ , denoted as  $Y_k$ . Then, if  $X_1$  has pdf f, then

$$f_{Y_k}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} F_{Y_k}(t) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \frac{F_{Y_k}(t+\delta) - F_{Y_k}(t)}{\delta}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \to 0} \frac{1}{\delta} \binom{n}{k-1, 1, n-k} \left( \int_0^t f ds \right)^{k-1} \int_t^{t+\delta} f ds \left( \int_{t+\delta}^{\infty} f ds \right)^{n-k}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} \left( \int_0^t f ds \right)^{k-1} f(t) \left( \int_t^{\infty} f ds \right)^{n-k}$$

## 3.3 PDF of $\chi^2$ -, t- and F- distributions

#### 3.3.1 $\chi^2$

Let  $X_i$  be iid standard normal, their joint distribution is

$$f(x_1, \dots x_n) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} e^{-\sum_i x_i^2/2}$$

Hence the pdf of  $\chi^2$  is:

$$f_{\chi^2(n)}(r) = \frac{d}{dr} \int_{\sum_i x_i^2 \le r} (2\pi)^{-n/2} e^{-\sum_i x_i^2/2} dx_1 \dots dx_n$$

which is easy to see must be proportional to  $r^{\frac{n-2}{2}}e^{-r/2}$ .

#### **3.4** *t*

Let X and Y be independent with pdf:  $f_X(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}$  and  $f_Y(y)=\frac{1}{2^{d/2}\Gamma(d/2)}y^{\frac{d-2}{2}}e^{-y/2}$ . Then

$$f_{t(d)}(s) = \frac{d}{ds}P(X \le s\sqrt{Y/d}) = \frac{d}{ds} \int_0^\infty dy \int_{-\infty}^{s\sqrt{y/d}} dx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \frac{1}{2^{d/2}\Gamma(d/2)} y^{\frac{d-2}{2}} e^{-y/2}$$
$$= \int_0^\infty dy \sqrt{y/d} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-s^2y/2d} \frac{1}{2^{d/2}\Gamma(d/2)} y^{\frac{d-2}{2}} e^{-y/2}$$

Do change of variables  $z=(s^2/d+1)y$  we get that it is proportional to  $(s^2/d+1)^{-\frac{d+1}{2}}$ .

The calculation for the pdf of F is similar.

## 4 Point estimators and their properties

Basic setting:

- $\mathcal{F}$ : a family of possible distributions (represented by a family of cdf, pdf, or pd)
- $\theta: \mathcal{F} \to \mathbb{R}$  population parameter
- $X_1, \ldots X_n$  i.i.d. with distribution  $F \in \mathcal{F}$
- $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  a function of  $X_i$ , which is an estimate of  $\theta(F)$ , is called a point estimate.

Example:  $\mathcal{F}$ : all distributions with an expectation, then  $\overline{X}$  is a point estimate of the expectation.

 $\hat{\theta}$  is a point estimate of  $\theta$ .

- The bias is  $E[\hat{\theta}] \theta$ .  $\hat{\theta}$  is called unbiased if  $E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$ .
- The variance is  $Var(\hat{\theta})$ .
- $\hat{\theta}$  is called **minimum variance unbiased estimate** if it has the smallest variance among all unbiased estimates.
- $\hat{\theta}_1$  and  $\hat{\theta}_2$  are two unbiased estimates, the relative efficiency is the ratio of their variance. When they are biased, one can use the mean squared error  $E[(\hat{\theta}-\theta)^2]$  instead.
- $\hat{\theta}$  is called **asymptotically unbiased** if bias converges to 0 as  $n \to \infty$ .
- $\hat{\theta}$  is called **consistent** if  $\hat{\theta}$  converges to  $\theta$  in distribution.

Example: Estimate of the expectation and variance of binomial distribution

- Expectation can be estimated by sample mean, which is unbiased and consistent.
- Variance can be estimated by sample variance which is unbiased and consistent, or  $\overline{X}(1-\overline{X})$ , which is consistent but biased.

Example: Estimate t for uniform distribution on [0, t]. The following estimates are all unbiased and consistent:

- $2\overline{X}$
- $\frac{n+1}{n}Max(X_i)$
- $Max(X_i) + Min(X_i)$

Can you calculate their variance? Which is the best among the three?

Answer:

$$Var(2\overline{X}) = \frac{4}{n} \cdot Var(X_1) = \frac{t^2}{3n}$$

$$Var(\frac{n+1}{n}Max(X_i)) = \frac{(n+1)^2}{n^2} \cdot n! \cdot \int_0^t dx_n \int_0^{x_n} dx_{n-1} \cdots \int_0^{x_2} dx_1 \cdot \frac{(x_n-t)^2}{t^n}$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)^2}{n} \int_0^t \frac{(x_n - \frac{nt}{n+1})^2 x_n^{n-1}}{t^n} dx_n = \frac{t^2}{n(n+2)}$$

$$Var(Max(X_i) + Min(X_i)) = \frac{n!}{t^n} \cdot \int_0^t dx_n \int_0^{x_n} dx_1 \int_{x_1}^{x_n} dx_{n-1} \cdots dx_2 \cdot (x_n + x_1 - t)^2$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)}{t^n} \int_0^t dx_n \int_0^{x_n} dx_1 (x_n + x_1 - t)^2 (x_n - x_1)^{n-2} = \frac{2t^2}{(n+1)(n+2)}$$

If an asymptotically unbiased estimate has variance  $\to 0$  when  $n \to \infty$ , it must be consistent.

Cramer-Rao inequality:

$$Var(\hat{\theta}) \ge \frac{1}{nE[(\frac{d}{d\theta}\log f)^2]}$$

When equality is reached we get minimal variance unbiased estimate.

Example:  $X_i$  iid normal, then  $\overline{X}$  is MVUE.

$$Var(\overline{X}) = \sigma^2/n$$
 
$$\frac{1}{nE[(\frac{d}{d\theta}\log f)^2]} = \frac{1}{nE[(X-\mu)^2/\sigma^4]} = \sigma^2/n$$

## 5 Method of moments, Maximum likelihood

#### 5.1 MLE

Suppose  $X_i \sim F \in \mathcal{F}$ , i.i.d., where  $\mathcal{F}$  is the family of possible distributions of  $X_i$ , and F is unknown and belongs to  $\mathcal{F}$ . We want to find a point estimate for some function  $\theta : \mathcal{F} \to \mathbb{R}$ . The Method of Maximal Likelihood is:

$$\hat{\theta}(X_1, \dots X_k)_{MLE} = \theta(\arg \max_{F \in \mathcal{F}} L(X_1, \dots X_k, F))$$

- When F is a continuous distribution with p.d.f. f(x), let  $L(x_1, \ldots, x_k, F) = \prod_i f(x_i)$
- When F is a discrete distribution with p.d. g(x) = P(X = x), let  $L(x_1, \ldots, x_k, F) = \prod_i g(x_i)$

Example:  $X_i$  i.i.d. and has binomial distribution with n=5 and unknown p, find MLE for p.

Answer: If  $X_i$  satisfies the binomial distribution with n = 5 and let p be some unknown value, the likelihood function is:

$$L(X_1, \dots X_k) = \prod_i {5 \choose X_i} p^{X_i} (1-p)^{5-X_i}$$

The p that maximizes it is  $p=\frac{\sum_i X_i}{5k},$  hence  $\hat{p}_{MLE}=\frac{\sum_i X_i}{5k}$ 

Example:  $X_i$  i.i.d. and has uniform distribution on [a, a+t]. Find MLE for a and t.

Answer: If [a, a+t] fails to contain any of the  $X_i$  the likelihood must be 0, so  $a \leq \min\{X_i\}$ ,  $a+t \geq \max\{X_i\}$ . To maximize the likelihood in this case, one need to minimize t, hence  $\hat{a}_{MLE} = \min\{X_i\}$  and  $\hat{t}_{MLE} = \max\{X_i\} - \min\{X_i\}$ .

Example:  $X_i$  i.i.d. and has normal distribution with expectation  $\mu$  variance  $\sigma^2$ . Find MLE for  $\sigma^2$ .

Answer: Write down the likelihood function, take derivative for both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  and set both to be 0, we get that  $\hat{\sigma}^2_{MLE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (X_i - \overline{X})$ .

#### 5.2 MOM

MOM is a less popular approach but does have some advantages in some situations.

Empirical distribution: Given  $x_1, \ldots x_k \in \mathbb{R}$ , the empirical distribution X' is defined as  $P(X' = x_i) = \frac{m_i}{k}$  where  $m_i$  is the multiplicity of  $x_i$ .

Method of moments means estimating the parameters in such a way that the first few moments of  $X_i$  under these parameters match the first few moments of empirical distribution obtained from  $X_1, \ldots X_k$ .

Example:  $X_i$  i.i.d. uniform on [a, a + t], find MOM estimate for a and t.

Example:  $X_i$  i.i.d. normal, find MOM estimate for expectation and variance.

- 6 Maximum a posteriori
- 7 Hypothesis testing
- 8 Examples of hypothesis testing
- 9 Confidence interval
- 10 Linear Regression
- 11 ANOVA
- 12 Example of non parametric methods