

# List of formulas for STK4011/9011 – Statistical Inference Theory (2022)

## Chapter 2: Transformations and Expectations

**Theorem 2.1.3** Let  $X$  have cdf  $F_X(x)$ , let  $Y = g(X)$ , and let  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  be defined as in (2.1.7).

- a. If  $g$  is an increasing function on  $\mathcal{X}$ ,  $F_Y(y) = F_X(g^{-1}(y))$  for  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ .
- b. If  $g$  is a decreasing function on  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $X$  is a continuous random variable,  $F_Y(y) = 1 - F_X(g^{-1}(y))$  for  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ .

$$(2.1.7) \quad \mathcal{X} = \{x: f_X(x) > 0\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{Y} = \{y: y = g(x) \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X}\}.$$

**Theorem 2.1.5** Let  $X$  have pdf  $f_X(x)$  and let  $Y = g(X)$ , where  $g$  is a monotone function. Let  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  be defined by (2.1.7). Suppose that  $f_X(x)$  is continuous on  $\mathcal{X}$  and that  $g^{-1}(y)$  has a continuous derivative on  $\mathcal{Y}$ . Then the pdf of  $Y$  is given by

$$(2.1.10) \quad f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right| & y \in \mathcal{Y} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 2.2.1** The expected value or mean of a random variable  $g(X)$ , denoted by  $Eg(X)$ , is

$$Eg(X) = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \\ \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) f_X(x) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) P(X = x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 2.2.5** Let  $X$  be a random variable and let  $a, b$ , and  $c$  be constants. Then for any functions  $g_1(x)$  and  $g_2(x)$  whose expectations exist,

- a.  $E(ag_1(X) + bg_2(X) + c) = aEg_1(X) + bEg_2(X) + c$ .
- b. If  $g_1(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ , then  $Eg_1(X) \geq 0$ .
- c. If  $g_1(x) \geq g_2(x)$  for all  $x$ , then  $Eg_1(X) \geq Eg_2(X)$ .
- d. If  $a \leq g_1(x) \leq b$  for all  $x$ , then  $a \leq Eg_1(X) \leq b$ .

**Definition 2.3.1** For each integer  $n$ , the  $n$ th moment of  $X$  (or  $F_X(x)$ ),  $\mu'_n$ , is

$$\mu'_n = EX^n.$$

The  $n$ th central moment of  $X$ ,  $\mu_n$ , is

$$\mu_n = E(X - \mu)^n,$$

where  $\mu = \mu'_1 = EX$ .

**Definition 2.3.2** The variance of a random variable  $X$  is its second central moment,  $\text{Var } X = E(X - EX)^2$ . The positive square root of  $\text{Var } X$  is the standard deviation of  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.3.4** If  $X$  is a random variable with finite variance, then for any constants  $a$  and  $b$ ,

$$\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var } X.$$

**Definition 2.3.6** Let  $X$  be a random variable with cdf  $F_X$ . The moment generating function (mgf) of  $X$  (or  $F_X$ ), denoted by  $M_X(t)$ , is

$$M_X(t) = Ee^{tX},$$

**Theorem 2.3.11** Let  $F_X(x)$  and  $F_Y(y)$  be two cdfs all of whose moments exist.

- a. If  $X$  and  $Y$  have bounded support, then  $F_X(u) = F_Y(u)$  for all  $u$  if and only if  $EX^r = EY^r$  for all integers  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .
- b. If the moment generating functions exist and  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$  for all  $t$  in some neighborhood of 0, then  $F_X(u) = F_Y(u)$  for all  $u$ .

## Chapter 4: Multiple Random Variables

**Theorem 2.3.12 (Convergence of mgfs)** Suppose  $\{X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots\}$  is a sequence of random variables, each with mgf  $M_{X_i}(t)$ . Furthermore, suppose that

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} M_{X_i}(t) = M_X(t), \quad \text{for all } t \text{ in a neighborhood of } 0,$$

and  $M_X(t)$  is an mgf. Then there is a unique cdf  $F_X$  whose moments are determined by  $M_X(t)$  and, for all  $x$  where  $F_X(x)$  is continuous, we have

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_i}(x) = F_X(x).$$

That is, convergence, for  $|t| < h$ , of mgfs to an mgf implies convergence of cdfs.

**Theorem 2.3.15** For any constants  $a$  and  $b$ , the mgf of the random variable  $aX + b$  is given by

$$M_{aX+b}(t) = e^{bt} M_X(at).$$

## Chapter 3: Common Families of Distributions

A family of pdfs or pmfs is called an *exponential family* if it can be expressed as

$$(3.4.1) \quad f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^k w_i(\theta)t_i(x)\right).$$

Here  $h(x) \geq 0$  and  $t_1(x), \dots, t_k(x)$  are real-valued functions of the observation  $x$  (they cannot depend on  $\theta$ ), and  $c(\theta) \geq 0$  and  $w_1(\theta), \dots, w_k(\theta)$  are real-valued functions of the possibly vector-valued parameter  $\theta$  (they cannot depend on  $x$ ).

**Definition 3.5.5** Let  $f(x)$  be any pdf. Then for any  $\mu$ ,  $-\infty < \mu < \infty$ , and any  $\sigma > 0$ , the family of pdfs  $(1/\sigma)f((x - \mu)/\sigma)$ , indexed by the parameter  $(\mu, \sigma)$ , is called the *location-scale family with standard pdf*  $f(x)$ ;  $\mu$  is called the *location parameter* and  $\sigma$  is called the *scale parameter*.

**Theorem 3.5.6** Let  $f(\cdot)$  be any pdf. Let  $\mu$  be any real number, and let  $\sigma$  be any positive real number. Then  $X$  is a random variable with pdf  $(1/\sigma)f((x - \mu)/\sigma)$  if and only if there exists a random variable  $Z$  with pdf  $f(z)$  and  $X = \sigma Z + \mu$ .

**Theorem 3.6.1 (Chebychev's Inequality)** Let  $X$  be a random variable and let  $g(x)$  be a nonnegative function. Then, for any  $r > 0$ ,

$$P(g(X) \geq r) \leq \frac{\text{E}g(X)}{r}.$$

If  $(\bar{X}, \bar{Y})$  is a discrete bivariate random vector, then there is only a countable set of values for which the joint pmf of  $(X, Y)$  is positive. Call this set  $\mathcal{A}$ . Define the set  $\mathcal{B} = \{(u, v) : u = g_1(x, y) \text{ and } v = g_2(x, y) \text{ for some } (x, y) \in \mathcal{A}\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is the countable set of possible values for the discrete random vector  $(U, V)$ . And if, for any  $(u, v) \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $A_{uv}$  is defined to be  $\{(x, y) \in \mathcal{A} : g_1(x, y) = u \text{ and } g_2(x, y) = v\}$ , then the joint pmf of  $(U, V)$ ,  $f_{U,V}(u, v)$ , can be computed from the joint pmf of  $(X, Y)$  by

$$(4.3.1) \quad f_{U,V}(u, v) = P(U = u, V = v) = P((X, Y) \in A_{uv}) = \sum_{(x,y) \in A_{uv}} f_{X,Y}(x, y).$$

If  $(X, Y)$  is a continuous random vector with joint pdf  $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ , then the joint pdf of  $(U, V)$  can be expressed in terms of  $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$  in a manner analogous to (2.1.8). As before,  $\mathcal{A} = \{(x, y) : f_{X,Y}(x, y) > 0\}$  and  $\mathcal{B} = \{(u, v) : u = g_1(x, y) \text{ and } v = g_2(x, y) \text{ for some } (x, y) \in \mathcal{A}\}$ . The joint pdf  $f_{U,V}(u, v)$  will be positive on the set  $\mathcal{B}$ . For the simplest version of this result we assume that the transformation  $u = g_1(x, y)$  and  $v = g_2(x, y)$  defines a one-to-one transformation of  $\mathcal{A}$  onto  $\mathcal{B}$ . The transformation is onto because of the definition of  $\mathcal{B}$ . We are assuming that for each  $(u, v) \in \mathcal{B}$  there is only one  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $(u, v) = (g_1(x, y), g_2(x, y))$ . For such a one-to-one, onto transformation, we can solve the equations  $u = g_1(x, y)$  and  $v = g_2(x, y)$  for  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ . We will denote this inverse transformation by  $x = h_1(u, v)$  and  $y = h_2(u, v)$ . The role played by a derivative in the univariate case is now played by a quantity called the *Jacobian of the transformation*. This function of  $(u, v)$ , denoted by  $J$ , is the *determinant of a matrix* of partial derivatives. It is defined by

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v},$$

where

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial h_1(u, v)}{\partial u}, \quad \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial h_1(u, v)}{\partial v}, \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial h_2(u, v)}{\partial u}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial h_2(u, v)}{\partial v}.$$

We assume that  $J$  is not identically 0 on  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then the joint pdf of  $(U, V)$  is 0 outside the set  $\mathcal{B}$  and on the set  $\mathcal{B}$  is given by

$$(4.3.2) \quad f_{U,V}(u, v) = f_{X,Y}(h_1(u, v), h_2(u, v))|J|,$$

**Lemma 4.2.7** Let  $(X, Y)$  be a bivariate random vector with joint pdf or pmf  $f(x, y)$ . Then  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables if and only if there exist functions  $g(x)$  and  $h(y)$  such that, for every  $x \in \mathfrak{R}$  and  $y \in \mathfrak{R}$ ,

$$f(x, y) = g(x)h(y).$$

**Theorem 4.2.12** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent random variables with moment generating functions  $M_X(t)$  and  $M_Y(t)$ . Then the moment generating function of the random variable  $Z = X + Y$  is given by

$$M_Z(t) = M_X(t)M_Y(t).$$

**Theorem 4.3.5** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent random variables. Let  $g(x)$  be a function only of  $x$  and  $h(y)$  be a function only of  $y$ . Then the random variables  $U = g(X)$  and  $V = h(Y)$  are independent.

**Theorem 4.4.3** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are any two random variables, then

$$(4.4.1) \quad EX = E(E(X|Y)),$$

provided that the expectations exist.

**Theorem 4.4.7 (Conditional variance identity)** For any two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ ,

$$(4.4.4) \quad \text{Var } X = E(\text{Var}(X|Y)) + \text{Var}(E(X|Y)),$$

provided that the expectations exist.

**Definition 4.5.1** The covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$  is the number defined by

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)).$$

**Theorem 4.5.5** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, then  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$  and  $\rho_{XY} = 0$ .

**Theorem 4.5.6** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are any two random variables and  $a$  and  $b$  are any two constants, then

$$\text{Var}(aX + bY) = a^2\text{Var } X + b^2\text{Var } Y + 2ab\text{Cov}(X, Y).$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, then

$$\text{Var}(aX + bY) = a^2\text{Var } X + b^2\text{Var } Y.$$

**Theorem 4.7.7 (Jensen's Inequality)** For any random variable  $X$ , if  $g(x)$  is a convex function, then

$$Eg(X) \geq g(EX).$$

Equality holds if and only if, for every line  $a + bx$  that is tangent to  $g(x)$  at  $x = EX$ ,  $P(g(X) = a + bX) = 1$ .

## Chapter 5: Multiple Random Variables

**Theorem 5.2.6** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample from a population with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2 < \infty$ . Then

- $E\bar{X} = \mu$ ,
- $\text{Var } \bar{X} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ ,
- $ES^2 = \sigma^2$ .

**Theorem 5.2.7** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample from a population with mgf  $M_X(t)$ . Then the mgf of the sample mean is

$$M_{\bar{X}}(t) = [M_X(t/n)]^n.$$

**Theorem 5.2.9** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent continuous random variables with pdfs  $f_X(x)$  and  $f_Y(y)$ , then the pdf of  $Z = X + Y$  is

$$(5.2.3) \quad f_Z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(w)f_Y(z-w)dw.$$

**Theorem 5.4.4** Let  $X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}$  denote the order statistics of a random sample,  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , from a continuous population with cdf  $F_X(x)$  and pdf  $f_X(x)$ . Then the pdf of  $X_{(j)}$  is

$$(5.4.4) \quad f_{X_{(j)}}(x) = \frac{n!}{(j-1)!(n-j)!} f_X(x) [F_X(x)]^{j-1} [1 - F_X(x)]^{n-j}.$$

**Theorem 5.4.6** Let  $X_{(1)}, \dots, X_{(n)}$  denote the order statistics of a random sample,  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , from a continuous population with cdf  $F_X(x)$  and pdf  $f_X(x)$ . Then the joint pdf of  $X_{(i)}$  and  $X_{(j)}$ ,  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ , is

$$(5.4.7) \quad f_{X_{(i)}, X_{(j)}}(u, v) = \frac{n!}{(i-1)!(j-1-i)!(n-j)!} f_X(u) f_X(v) [F_X(u)]^{i-1} \\ \times [F_X(v) - F_X(u)]^{j-1-i} [1 - F_X(v)]^{n-j}$$

for  $-\infty < u < v < \infty$ .

**Definition 5.5.1** A sequence of random variables,  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , converges in probability to a random variable  $X$  if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| \geq \epsilon) = 0 \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| < \epsilon) = 1.$$

**Theorem 5.5.2 (Weak Law of Large Numbers)** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be iid random variables with  $EX_i = \mu$  and  $\text{Var } X_i = \sigma^2 < \infty$ . Define  $\bar{X}_n = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then,

for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| < \epsilon) = 1;$$

that is,  $\bar{X}_n$  converges in probability to  $\mu$ .

**Theorem 5.5.4** Suppose that  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  converges in probability to a random variable  $X$  and that  $h$  is a continuous function. Then  $h(X_1), h(X_2), \dots$  converges in probability to  $h(X)$ .

**Definition 5.5.6** A sequence of random variables,  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , converges almost surely to a random variable  $X$  if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

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

**Theorem 5.5.9 (Strong Law of Large Numbers)** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be iid random variables with  $EX_i = \mu$  and  $\text{Var } X_i = \sigma^2 < \infty$ , and define  $\bar{X}_n = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Then, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\bar{X}_n - \mu| < \epsilon\right) = 1;$$

that is,  $\bar{X}_n$  converges almost surely to  $\mu$ .

**Definition 5.5.10** A sequence of random variables,  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , converges in distribution to a random variable  $X$  if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x)$$

at all points  $x$  where  $F_X(x)$  is continuous.

**Theorem 5.5.12** If the sequence of random variables,  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , converges in probability to a random variable  $X$ , the sequence also converges in distribution to  $X$ .

**Theorem 5.5.13** The sequence of random variables,  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , converges in probability to a constant  $\mu$  if and only if the sequence also converges in distribution to  $\mu$ . That is, the statement

$$P(|X_n - \mu| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0 \text{ for every } \epsilon > 0$$

is equivalent to

$$P(X_n \leq x) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < \mu \\ 1 & \text{if } x > \mu. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 5.5.15 (Stronger form of the Central Limit Theorem)** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of iid random variables with  $EX_i = \mu$  and  $0 < \text{Var } X_i = \sigma^2 < \infty$ . Define  $\bar{X}_n = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Let  $G_n(x)$  denote the cdf of  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma$ . Then, for any  $x$ ,  $-\infty < x < \infty$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} G_n(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2} dy;$$

that is,  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma$  has a limiting standard normal distribution.

**Theorem 5.5.17 (Slutsky's Theorem)** If  $X_n \rightarrow X$  in distribution and  $Y_n \rightarrow a$ , a constant, in probability, then

a.  $Y_n X_n \rightarrow aX$  in distribution.

b.  $X_n + Y_n \rightarrow X + a$  in distribution.

**Theorem 5.5.24 (Delta Method)** Let  $Y_n$  be a sequence of random variables that satisfies  $\sqrt{n}(Y_n - \theta) \rightarrow \mathfrak{n}(0, \sigma^2)$  in distribution. For a given function  $g$  and a specific value of  $\theta$ , suppose that  $g'(\theta)$  exists and is not 0. Then

$$(5.5.10) \quad \sqrt{n}[g(Y_n) - g(\theta)] \rightarrow \mathfrak{n}(0, \sigma^2[g'(\theta)]^2) \text{ in distribution.}$$

**Theorem 5.5.26 (Second-order Delta Method)** Let  $Y_n$  be a sequence of random variables that satisfies  $\sqrt{n}(Y_n - \theta) \rightarrow \mathfrak{n}(0, \sigma^2)$  in distribution. For a given function  $g$  and a specific value of  $\theta$ , suppose that  $g'(\theta) = 0$  and  $g''(\theta)$  exists and is not 0. Then

$$(5.5.13) \quad n[g(Y_n) - g(\theta)] \rightarrow \sigma^2 \frac{g''(\theta)}{2} \chi_1^2 \text{ in distribution.}$$

## Chapter 6: Principles of Data Reduction

**Definition 6.2.1** A statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a *sufficient statistic* for  $\theta$  if the conditional distribution of the sample  $\mathbf{X}$  given the value of  $T(\mathbf{X})$  does not depend on  $\theta$ .

**Theorem 6.2.2** If  $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  is the joint pdf or pmf of  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $q(t|\theta)$  is the pdf or pmf of  $T(\mathbf{X})$ , then  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a *sufficient statistic* for  $\theta$  if, for every  $\mathbf{x}$  in the sample space, the ratio  $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)/q(T(\mathbf{x})|\theta)$  is constant as a function of  $\theta$ .

**Theorem 6.2.6 (Factorization Theorem)** Let  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  denote the joint pdf or pmf of a sample  $\mathbf{X}$ . A statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a *sufficient statistic* for  $\theta$  if and only if there exist functions  $g(t|\theta)$  and  $h(\mathbf{x})$  such that, for all sample points  $\mathbf{x}$  and all parameter points  $\theta$ ,

$$(6.2.3) \quad f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = g(T(\mathbf{x})|\theta)h(\mathbf{x}).$$

**Theorem 6.2.10** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be iid observations from a pdf or pmf  $f(x|\theta)$  that belongs to an exponential family given by

$$f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^k w_i(\theta)t_i(x)\right),$$

where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_d)$ ,  $d \leq k$ . Then

$$T(\mathbf{X}) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n t_1(X_j), \dots, \sum_{j=1}^n t_k(X_j)\right)$$

is a *sufficient statistic* for  $\theta$ .

**Definition 6.2.11** A sufficient statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is called a *minimal sufficient statistic* if, for any other sufficient statistic  $T'(\mathbf{X})$ ,  $T(\mathbf{x})$  is a function of  $T'(\mathbf{x})$ .

**Theorem 6.2.13** Let  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  be the pmf or pdf of a sample  $\mathbf{X}$ . Suppose there exists a function  $T(\mathbf{x})$  such that, for every two sample points  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , the ratio  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)/f(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$  is constant as a function of  $\theta$  if and only if  $T(\mathbf{x}) = T(\mathbf{y})$ . Then  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a *minimal sufficient statistic* for  $\theta$ .

**Definition 6.2.21** Let  $f(t|\theta)$  be a family of pdfs or pmfs for a statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$ . The family of probability distributions is called *complete* if  $E_\theta g(T) = 0$  for all  $\theta$  implies  $P_\theta(g(T) = 0) = 1$  for all  $\theta$ . Equivalently,  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is called a *complete statistic*.

**Theorem 6.2.25 (Complete statistics in the exponential family)** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be iid observations from an exponential family with pdf or pmf of the form

$$(6.2.7) \quad f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^k w(\theta_j)t_j(x)\right),$$

where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k)$ . Then the statistic

$$T(\mathbf{X}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n t_1(X_i), \sum_{i=1}^n t_2(X_i), \dots, \sum_{i=1}^n t_k(X_i)\right)$$

is complete as long as the parameter space  $\Theta$  contains an open set in  $\mathfrak{R}^k$ .

## Chapter 7: Point Estimation

**Theorem 7.2.10 (Invariance property of MLEs)** If  $\hat{\theta}$  is the MLE of  $\theta$ , then for any function  $\tau(\theta)$ , the MLE of  $\tau(\theta)$  is  $\tau(\hat{\theta})$ .

**Definition 7.3.7** An estimator  $W^*$  is a *best unbiased estimator* of  $\tau(\theta)$  if it satisfies  $E_\theta W^* = \tau(\theta)$  for all  $\theta$  and, for any other estimator  $W$  with  $E_\theta W = \tau(\theta)$ , we have  $\text{Var}_\theta W^* \leq \text{Var}_\theta W$  for all  $\theta$ .  $W^*$  is also called a *uniform minimum variance unbiased estimator* (UMVUE) of  $\tau(\theta)$ .

**Theorem 7.3.9 (Cramér–Rao Inequality)** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sample with pdf  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$ , and let  $W(\mathbf{X}) = W(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  be any estimator satisfying

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} E_{\theta} W(\mathbf{X}) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} [W(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)] d\mathbf{x}$$

(7.3.4) and

$$\text{Var}_{\theta} W(\mathbf{X}) < \infty.$$

Then

$$(7.3.5) \quad \text{Var}_{\theta} (W(\mathbf{X})) \geq \frac{\left(\frac{d}{d\theta} E_{\theta} W(\mathbf{X})\right)^2}{E_{\theta} \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(\mathbf{X}|\theta)\right)^2\right)}.$$

**Corollary 7.3.10 (Cramér–Rao Inequality, iid case)** If the assumptions of Theorem 7.3.9 are satisfied and, additionally, if  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are iid with pdf  $f(x|\theta)$ , then

$$\text{Var}_{\theta} W(\mathbf{X}) \geq \frac{\left(\frac{d}{d\theta} E_{\theta} W(\mathbf{X})\right)^2}{n E_{\theta} \left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(X|\theta)\right)^2\right)}.$$

**Lemma 7.3.11** If  $f(x|\theta)$  satisfies

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} E_{\theta} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(X|\theta)\right) = \int \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left[ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(x|\theta)\right) f(x|\theta) \right] dx$$

(true for an exponential family), then

$$E_{\theta} \left( \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(X|\theta)\right)^2 \right) = -E_{\theta} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \log f(X|\theta) \right).$$

**Corollary 7.3.15 (Attainment)** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be iid  $f(x|\theta)$ , where  $f(x|\theta)$  satisfies the conditions of the Cramér–Rao Theorem. Let  $L(\theta|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i|\theta)$  denote the likelihood function. If  $W(\mathbf{X}) = W(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is any unbiased estimator of  $\tau(\theta)$ , then  $W(\mathbf{X})$  attains the Cramér–Rao Lower Bound if and only if

$$(7.3.12) \quad a(\theta)[W(\mathbf{x}) - \tau(\theta)] = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log L(\theta|\mathbf{x})$$

for some function  $a(\theta)$ .

**Theorem 7.3.17 (Rao–Blackwell)** Let  $W$  be any unbiased estimator of  $\tau(\theta)$ , and let  $T$  be a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ . Define  $\phi(T) = E(W|T)$ . Then  $E_{\theta} \phi(T) = \tau(\theta)$  and  $\text{Var}_{\theta} \phi(T) \leq \text{Var}_{\theta} W$  for all  $\theta$ ; that is,  $\phi(T)$  is a uniformly better unbiased estimator of  $\tau(\theta)$ .

**Theorem 7.3.19** If  $W$  is a best unbiased estimator of  $\tau(\theta)$ , then  $W$  is unique.

**Theorem 7.3.20** If  $E_{\theta} W = \tau(\theta)$ ,  $W$  is the best unbiased estimator of  $\tau(\theta)$  if and only if  $W$  is uncorrelated with all unbiased estimators of 0.

**Theorem 7.3.23** Let  $T$  be a complete sufficient statistic for a parameter  $\theta$ , and let  $\phi(T)$  be any estimator based only on  $T$ . Then  $\phi(T)$  is the unique best unbiased estimator of its expected value.

## Chapter 8: Hypothesis Testing

**Definition 8.2.1** The likelihood ratio test statistic for testing  $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$  versus  $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_0^c$  is

$$\lambda(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sup_{\Theta_0} L(\theta|\mathbf{x})}{\sup_{\Theta} L(\theta|\mathbf{x})}.$$

A likelihood ratio test (LRT) is any test that has a rejection region of the form  $\{\mathbf{x}: \lambda(\mathbf{x}) \leq c\}$ , where  $c$  is any number satisfying  $0 \leq c \leq 1$ .

**Theorem 8.2.4** If  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$  and  $\lambda^*(t)$  and  $\lambda(\mathbf{x})$  are the LRT statistics based on  $T$  and  $\mathbf{X}$ , respectively, then  $\lambda^*(T(\mathbf{x})) = \lambda(\mathbf{x})$  for every  $\mathbf{x}$  in the sample space.

**Definition 8.3.1** The power function of a hypothesis test with rejection region  $R$  is the function of  $\theta$  defined by  $\beta(\theta) = P_{\theta}(\mathbf{X} \in R)$ .

**Definition 8.3.5** For  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ , a test with power function  $\beta(\theta)$  is a size  $\alpha$  test if  $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta(\theta) = \alpha$ .

**Definition 8.3.6** For  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ , a test with power function  $\beta(\theta)$  is a level  $\alpha$  test if  $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta(\theta) \leq \alpha$ .

**Definition 8.3.9** A test with power function  $\beta(\theta)$  is *unbiased* if  $\beta(\theta') \geq \beta(\theta'')$  for every  $\theta' \in \Theta_0^c$  and  $\theta'' \in \Theta_0$ .

**Definition 8.3.11** Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a class of tests for testing  $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$  versus  $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_0^c$ . A test in class  $\mathcal{C}$ , with power function  $\beta(\theta)$ , is a *uniformly most powerful (UMP) class  $\mathcal{C}$  test* if  $\beta(\theta) \geq \beta'(\theta)$  for every  $\theta \in \Theta_0^c$  and every  $\beta'(\theta)$  that is a power function of a test in class  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Theorem 8.3.12 (Neyman–Pearson Lemma)** Consider testing  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$  versus  $H_1: \theta = \theta_1$ , where the pdf or pmf corresponding to  $\theta_i$  is  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i)$ ,  $i = 0, 1$ , using a test with rejection region  $R$  that satisfies

$$(8.3.1) \quad \begin{aligned} & \mathbf{x} \in R \text{ if } f(\mathbf{x}|\theta_1) > kf(\mathbf{x}|\theta_0) \\ & \text{and} \\ & \mathbf{x} \in R^c \text{ if } f(\mathbf{x}|\theta_1) < kf(\mathbf{x}|\theta_0), \end{aligned}$$

for some  $k \geq 0$ , and

$$(8.3.2) \quad \alpha = P_{\theta_0}(\mathbf{X} \in R).$$

Then

- a. (Sufficiency) Any test that satisfies (8.3.1) and (8.3.2) is a UMP level  $\alpha$  test.
- b. (Necessity) If there exists a test satisfying (8.3.1) and (8.3.2) with  $k > 0$ , then every UMP level  $\alpha$  test is a size  $\alpha$  test (satisfies (8.3.2)) and every UMP level  $\alpha$  test satisfies (8.3.1) except perhaps on a set  $A$  satisfying  $P_{\theta_0}(\mathbf{X} \in A) = P_{\theta_1}(\mathbf{X} \in A) = 0$ .

**Corollary 8.3.13** Consider the hypothesis problem posed in Theorem 8.3.12. Suppose  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$  and  $g(t|\theta_i)$  is the pdf or pmf of  $T$  corresponding to  $\theta_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1$ . Then any test based on  $T$  with rejection region  $S$  (a subset of the sample space of  $T$ ) is a UMP level  $\alpha$  test if it satisfies

$$(8.3.4) \quad \begin{aligned} & t \in S \text{ if } g(t|\theta_1) > kg(t|\theta_0) \\ & \text{and} \\ & t \in S^c \text{ if } g(t|\theta_1) < kg(t|\theta_0), \end{aligned}$$

for some  $k \geq 0$ , where

$$(8.3.5) \quad \alpha = P_{\theta_0}(T \in S).$$

**Definition 8.3.16** A family of pdfs or pmfs  $\{g(t|\theta): \theta \in \Theta\}$  for a univariate random variable  $T$  with real-valued parameter  $\theta$  has a *monotone likelihood ratio (MLR)* if, for every  $\theta_2 > \theta_1$ ,  $g(t|\theta_2)/g(t|\theta_1)$  is a monotone (nonincreasing or nondecreasing) function of  $t$  on  $\{t: g(t|\theta_1) > 0 \text{ or } g(t|\theta_2) > 0\}$ . Note that  $c/0$  is defined as  $\infty$  if  $0 < c$ .

**Theorem 8.3.17 (Karlin–Rubin)** Consider testing  $H_0: \theta \leq \theta_0$  versus  $H_1: \theta > \theta_0$ . Suppose that  $T$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$  and the family of pdfs or pmfs  $\{g(t|\theta): \theta \in \Theta\}$  of  $T$  has an MLR\*. Then for any  $t_0$ , the test that rejects  $H_0$  if and only if  $T > t_0$  is a UMP level  $\alpha$  test, where  $\alpha = P_{\theta_0}(T > t_0)$ . \*Assumes nondecreasing LR.

## Chapter 9: Interval Estimation

**Definition 9.1.1** An *interval estimate* of a real-valued parameter  $\theta$  is any pair of functions,  $L(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $U(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , of a sample that satisfy  $L(\mathbf{x}) \leq U(\mathbf{x})$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ . If  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$  is observed, the inference  $L(\mathbf{x}) \leq \theta \leq U(\mathbf{x})$  is made. The random interval  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  is called an *interval estimator*.

**Definition 9.1.4** For an interval estimator  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  of a parameter  $\theta$ , the *coverage probability* of  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  is the probability that the random interval  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  covers the true parameter,  $\theta$ . In symbols, it is denoted by either  $P_\theta(\theta \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})])$  or  $P(\theta \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]|\theta)$ .

**Definition 9.1.5** For an interval estimator  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  of a parameter  $\theta$ , the *confidence coefficient* of  $[L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})]$  is the infimum of the coverage probabilities,  $\inf_\theta P_\theta(\theta \in [L(\mathbf{X}), U(\mathbf{X})])$ .

**Theorem 9.2.2** For each  $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ , let  $A(\theta_0)$  be the acceptance region of a level  $\alpha$  test of  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ . For each  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ , define a set  $C(\mathbf{x})$  in the parameter space by

$$(9.2.1) \quad C(\mathbf{x}) = \{\theta_0: \mathbf{x} \in A(\theta_0)\}.$$

Then the random set  $C(\mathbf{X})$  is a  $1 - \alpha$  confidence set. Conversely, let  $C(\mathbf{X})$  be a  $1 - \alpha$  confidence set. For any  $\theta_0 \in \Theta$ , define

$$A(\theta_0) = \{\mathbf{x}: \theta_0 \in C(\mathbf{x})\}.$$

Then  $A(\theta_0)$  is the acceptance region of a level  $\alpha$  test of  $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ .

## Chapter 10: Asymptotic Evaluations

**Definition 10.1.1** A sequence of estimators  $W_n = W_n(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is a *consistent sequence of estimators* of the parameter  $\theta$  if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$  and every  $\theta \in \Theta$ ,

$$(10.1.1) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_\theta(|W_n - \theta| < \epsilon) = 1.$$

**Theorem 10.1.3** If  $W_n$  is a sequence of estimators of a parameter  $\theta$  satisfying

- i.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Var}_\theta W_n = 0$ ,
- ii.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Bias}_\theta W_n = 0$ ,

for every  $\theta \in \Theta$ , then  $W_n$  is a consistent sequence of estimators of  $\theta$ .

**Definition 10.1.9** For an estimator  $T_n$ , suppose that  $k_n(T_n - \tau(\theta)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{n}(0, \sigma^2)$  in distribution. The parameter  $\sigma^2$  is called the *asymptotic variance* or *variance of the limit distribution* of  $T_n$ .

**Definition 10.1.11** A sequence of estimators  $W_n$  is *asymptotically efficient* for a parameter  $\tau(\theta)$  if  $\sqrt{n}[W_n - \tau(\theta)] \rightarrow \mathfrak{n}[0, v(\theta)]$  in distribution and

$$v(\theta) = \frac{[\tau'(\theta)]^2}{\text{E}_\theta \left( \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(X|\theta) \right)^2 \right)};$$

that is, the asymptotic variance of  $W_n$  achieves the Cramér–Rao Lower Bound.

**Theorem 10.1.12 (Asymptotic efficiency of MLEs)** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$ , be iid  $f(x|\theta)$ , let  $\hat{\theta}$  denote the MLE of  $\theta$ , and let  $\tau(\theta)$  be a continuous function of  $\theta$ . Under the regularity conditions in Miscellanea 10.6.2 on  $f(x|\theta)$  and, hence,  $L(\theta|\mathbf{x})$ ,

$$\sqrt{n}[\tau(\hat{\theta}) - \tau(\theta)] \rightarrow \mathfrak{n}[0, v(\theta)],$$

where  $v(\theta)$  is the Cramér–Rao Lower Bound. That is,  $\tau(\hat{\theta})$  is a consistent and asymptotically efficient estimator of  $\tau(\theta)$ .

**Definition 10.1.16** If two estimators  $W_n$  and  $V_n$  satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{n}[W_n - \tau(\theta)] &\rightarrow \mathfrak{n}[0, \sigma_W^2] \\ \sqrt{n}[V_n - \tau(\theta)] &\rightarrow \mathfrak{n}[0, \sigma_V^2] \end{aligned}$$

in distribution, the *asymptotic relative efficiency* (ARE) of  $V_n$  with respect to  $W_n$  is

$$\text{ARE}(V_n, W_n) = \frac{\sigma_W^2}{\sigma_V^2}.$$

**Theorem 10.3.1 (Asymptotic distribution of the LRT—simple  $H_0$ )** For testing  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$  versus  $H_1 : \theta \neq \theta_0$ , suppose  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are iid  $f(x|\theta)$ ,  $\hat{\theta}$  is the MLE of  $\theta$ , and  $f(x|\theta)$  satisfies the regularity conditions in Miscellanea 10.6.2. Then under  $H_0$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$-2 \log \lambda(\mathbf{X}) \rightarrow \chi_1^2 \text{ in distribution,}$$

where  $\chi_1^2$  is a  $\chi^2$  random variable with 1 degree of freedom.

**Theorem 10.3.3** Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample from a pdf or pmf  $f(x|\theta)$ . Under the regularity conditions in Miscellanea 10.6.2, if  $\theta \in \Theta_0$ , then the distribution of the statistic  $-2 \log \lambda(\mathbf{X})$  converges to a chi squared distribution as the sample size  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . The degrees of freedom of the limiting distribution is the difference between the number of free parameters specified by  $\theta \in \Theta_0$  and the number of free parameters specified by  $\theta \in \Theta$ .