

## Variance:-

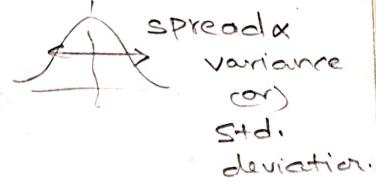
Variance is approx. as

MIND THE "N-1".

$$\text{Variance} = S^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (\bar{x} - x_i)^2 \quad | \quad N-1: \text{Very technical reason.}$$

computed for large N values.

Variance =  $\sigma^2$  = S = Standard deviation.



\*  $x_i \rightarrow ax_i + b$

scaling by a factor



(Standard division  $\times a$ )

## Practical applications:-

1) 100gms chips is sold.

make sure avg  $\approx$  100gm

&  $\sigma$  is low.

2) definition of medical diseases:-

"deficiency of RBC"

"osteoporosis": low bone density

we have limits not.

"Two sided -

→ ChebyShev's inequality: suggests upper limit.

"The proportion of sample points;

K or more than K ( $K > 0$ ) standard

deviations away from the sample mean,

is less than or equal to  $\frac{1}{K^2}$ "

\* Bcoz, if they are more than  $\frac{N}{K^2}$ ; (proportion)

squared their sum contribution in

$\sigma^2$  eqn would overshoot  $\sigma^2$  itself.

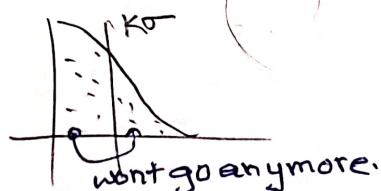


Bounds are  
LOOSE, but  
NOT wrong.

$$S_k = \{x_i : |x_i - \bar{x}| \geq k\sigma\}$$

$$\text{Then, } \frac{|S_k|}{N} \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

\* Gives lower bound on elements within  $k\sigma$   
& upper bound on those, out of  $k\sigma$ .



$$\frac{|S_k|}{N} \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

Proof:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$(N-1)\sigma^2 = \sum_{x_i \in S_k} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + \sum_{x_i \notin S_k} (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

near to mean far to mean.

$$\therefore (N-1)\sigma^2 > \sum_{x_i \in S_k} (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\therefore (N-1)\sigma^2 \geq k^2 \cdot \sigma^2 \cdot |S_k|$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{k^2} \geq \frac{1}{N-1} \geq \frac{|S_k|}{N}$$

→ One sided chebysev's inequality: is stronger

chebyshov - cantelli inequality:-

"the proportion of sample points, K are more than K s.d.s away from sample mean, & greater than the sample mean, is less than or equal to  $\frac{1}{1+K^2}$ "

$$S_K = \{x_i : x_i - \bar{x} \geq K\sigma\}$$

$$\frac{|S_K|}{N} \leq \frac{1}{1+K^2}$$

NOT an absolute value.

Stronger than 2-side chebysev.

but weaker, when we use this, to compute:

$$S_K = \{x_i : |x_i - \bar{x}| \geq K\sigma\}$$

$$\frac{|S_K|}{N} \leq \frac{2}{1+K^2}$$

weaker than  
 $\frac{1}{K^2}$

Proof:-

$$\{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$$

$$\text{let } y_i = x_i - \bar{x}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i + b)^2 \geq \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ y_i \geq K\sigma}} (y_i + b)^2 \quad b > 0$$

$$\geq \sum_{y_i \geq K\sigma} (K\sigma + b)^2$$

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2\right) + nb^2 \geq |S_K| \cdot (K\sigma + b)^2$$

$$(n-1)\sigma^2 + nb^2 \geq |S_K| \cdot (K\sigma + b)^2$$

$$\therefore |S_K| \leq \frac{(n-1)\sigma^2 + nb^2}{(K\sigma + b)^2}$$

$$\left(\frac{|S_K|}{n}\right) < \frac{\sigma^2 + b^2}{(K\sigma + b)^2} \quad \text{for } b > 0, \text{ any!...}$$

choose b, such that RHS minimised...

diff...

$$(K\sigma + b)^2 (2b) - (K\sigma + b) (2)(\sigma^2 + b^2)$$

$$(K\sigma + b)(2)[K\sigma b + b^2 - \sigma^2 - b^2]$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\frac{\partial}{\partial b} \frac{1}{K\sigma + b}}$$

$$\therefore \text{RHS} = \frac{1}{1+K^2}$$

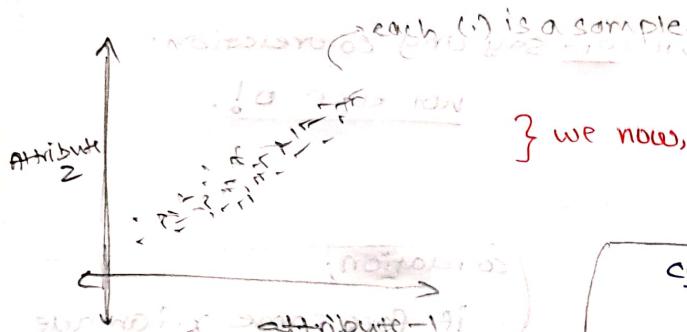
$$\therefore \boxed{\frac{|S_K|}{n} < \frac{1}{1+K^2}}$$

\* correlation b/w different attributes of same sample points:

Eg: high fat intake  $\rightarrow$  high heart disease.

high smokes  $\rightarrow$  high cancer rates.

use scatter plots:-



} we now see a correlation mat (able to suggest 'y' based on 'x' & vice versa).

correlation coefficient:

$(x_i, y_i)$  be sample points.

$\sigma_x, \sigma_y$  be standard deviations.

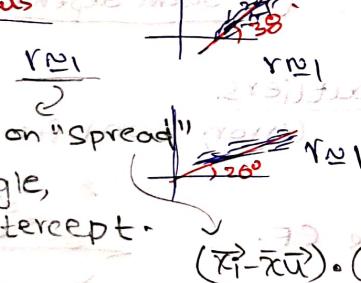
then:

$$r_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

$\in [-1, 1]$   
Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

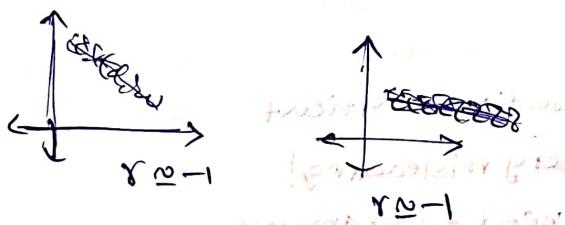
$$r_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{n-1} \sqrt{\sigma_x \sigma_y}}$$

1)  $r > 0$ : positive correlation.



\* depends on "Spread" (not angle, not intercept).

2)  $r < 0$ : negative correlation



see spread; for magnitude.

NOT slope  
NOT intercept.

$y, ax+b$   
 $C.F = 1$  if  $a > 0$   
 $C.F = -1$  if  $a < 0$

(PTO).

correlation: How strongly; I can suggest a unique 'y' for a unique 'x'.

\* take two vectors; in a n-dimension space.

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \hat{r}_1 + x_2 \hat{r}_2 + \dots + x_n \hat{r}_n$$

$$\vec{x} - (\bar{x}) \cdot \vec{u} = (x_1 - \bar{x}) \hat{r}_1 + \dots + (x_n - \bar{x}) \hat{r}_n$$

$$\vec{y} - (\bar{y}) \cdot \vec{u} = (y_1 - \bar{y}) \hat{r}_1 + \dots + (y_n - \bar{y}) \hat{r}_n$$

∴ correlation factor = {angle's cosine} b/w the two "data" vectors.

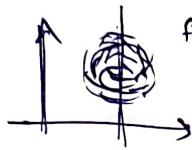
since

$x_i - \bar{x}$   
 $y_i - \bar{y}$

$\left\{ \frac{?}{?} \right\}$  due to this division;

Slope lost.

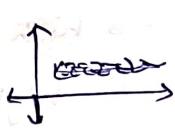
$r$  is defined & 0 :-



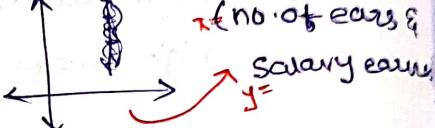
Numerator = 0  
denom.  $\neq 0$ .

for an  $x$ ; can't suggest any  $y$ .

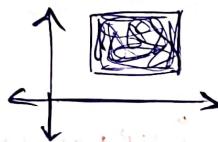
$\rightarrow$  for  $x$ , I can say  $y$ ,  
 $r$  is undefined but for  $y$ , I can't  
say  $x$ .



numerator = 0  
denominator = 0.



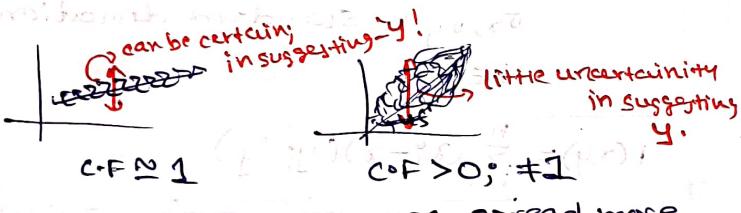
we can't say any corelation.  
not even 0!.



$\rightarrow$  we can say for sure;

both are 0-correlated.

i.e. no relationship both.



corelation;

if for some  $x$ , I am able

to "suggest"  $y$ ; then I  
can say corelation.

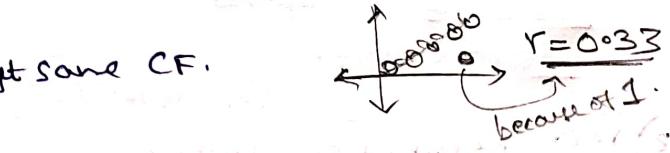
How strong I can say, that  
much corelation.  
So, doesn't depend on line's slope.

\* correlation coefficient - sensitive to outliers.

(error, don't fit on graph).

• Ascombe's quartet:

- graphically very different; but same CF.



have same corelation coefficient  
very misleading!

need to examine  
graph.

\*  $r_{\text{uncentered}}(x, y) = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sqrt{(\sum x_i^2)(\sum y_i^2)}}$

Used SOMEwhere..

\* corelation doesn't mean causation.

## PROBLEMS

## SOLVED PROBLEMS

QUESTION 1

QUESTION 2

QUESTION 3

QUESTION 4

QUESTION 5

QUESTION 6

QUESTION 7

QUESTION 8

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QUESTION 133

(A)  $\text{SO}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  (B)  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  (C)  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  (D)  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$

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QUESTION 227

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QUESTION 229

QUESTION 220

## Discrete Probability :- (11, 12<sup>th</sup> topic).

- \* B is proper subset of A:

BCA

$B \neq A \& B \subseteq A$

$\therefore B$  can be NULL.

- \* Boole's inequality:-

$$P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A \cap B)$$

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

- \* Bonferroni's inequality:-

$$P(A \cap B) \geq P(A) + P(B) - 1$$

(choose lower bound;  
no other info, except  
 $P(A), P(B)$ )

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) \geq 1 - n + \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

- \* conditional probability:-

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

$P(A)$ ; given  $B$  happened

$$= \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A|B)}{P(B)}$$

notation

- \* joint probability:-

$$\begin{aligned} \text{joint } P(\cdot) &= P(AB) = P(A \cap B) && (\text{Nothing!}) \\ &\text{if } A, B \\ &= P(A, B) \end{aligned}$$

implies they are dependent!  
mutually exclusive events  
are not independent!

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap B) &= 0 \\ \text{but neither } P(A) &= 0 \text{ or } P(B) = 0 \\ &= P(AB) \neq P(A) \cdot P(B) \end{aligned}$$

- \* Independent events:-

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

↓

$$P(AB) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

↓

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

for  $n$ -events:-

for any  $K$ ;  $K \leq n$  events;

$$P(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_K) = \prod_{i=1}^K P(A_i), K \leq n$$

\* only  $n$ -way independence doesn't imply events are independent.

- \* also  $A, B'$

$A', B'$

$A', B$

} are independent

Bayes theorem:

$$P(B/A) = \frac{P(BA)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A|B) \cdot P(B)}{P(A|B) \cdot P(B) + P(A|B^c) \cdot P(B^c)}$$

B happens;      given A happens;

A, B happens      Both      AB happens      AB<sup>c</sup> happens      A happens.

$$\therefore P(A) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B) + P(A|B^c) \cdot P(B^c)$$

infact; in place of  $B, B^c$ ; you can have ANY number of

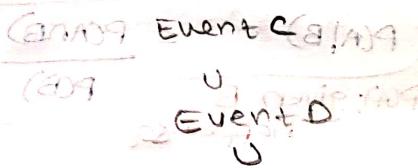
- pairwise mutually exclusive
- exhaustive

\* Probability of  $B$ , given  $A$  (forward slash set)  $\rightarrow$  (add) events. (any)

$$\text{* Probability of } B, \text{ given } A = \frac{\text{no. of } A \& B \text{ events}}{\text{no. of } A, B + \text{no. of } A, B^c}$$

Simple!

If the events  $B$  could be



(any)  $\rightarrow$  so, more terms in denominator.

## Random Variable:-

### Overview:-

- discrete & continuous random variables
- probability mass function (normal word, probability density function for discrete)
- cumulative distribution function (cdf)
- joint & conditional pdf.
- expectation operator. (a linear operator)
- variance & covariance  $E[ax+b] = a \cdot E[x] + E(b)$
- Markov's & Chebyshev's inequality.
- weak law of large numbers
- moment generating functions.

\*  $X, x \rightarrow R.V.'s$  value  
 ↳ R.V. name

$P(X=x)$  is a probability mass function.

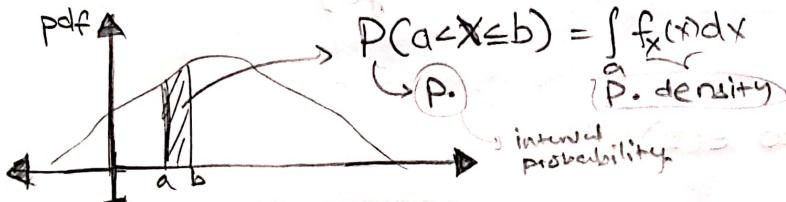
### continuous random variables:-

\*  $P(X=x) = 0$  for any  $x$ .  
 (as, only many  $x$  are there).  
 unlike discrete;  
 $P(X=x)=0$  doesn't imply  $x=x$  doesn't occur.  
 It may occur!

define  $P(X \leq x)$  exists!  
 (cdf)

$$F_x(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

now;  $f_x(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(F_x(x))$  holds much probability in interval probability density function.  
 (pdf)



$$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(x) dx = 1$$

$$F_x(x) = 1 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

### weighted mean:

expectation value; not

same as most probable value!

### (English misused):

•  $E(x) \rightarrow$  might not exist;

$$\text{e.g. } P(x=x) = 1/x^2 \cdot K$$

•  $E(x) \rightarrow$  might not be a valid sample point.

(e.g. dice throw;  $E(x) = 3 \cdot S$ )

let  $X$  be our random variable

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_x(x) dx$$

if  $y = g(x)$  be another random variable

then  $E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f_x(x) dx$

okay; if discrete, but cont....

$$\text{LOTUS: } E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f_x(x) dx$$

law of the unconscious statistician. > Should have been:

$$E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f_y(y) dy$$

Proof:  $y = g(x)$  cdf

$$F_y(y) = F_x(g^{-1}(y))$$

common sense.

$\frac{d}{dx}$  on both sides.

$$f_y(y) \cdot dy = (f_x(g^{-1}(y))) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(g^{-1}(y)) dy$$

$$\therefore f_y(y) dy = f_x(x) dx$$

$$= (-K)P(X=x)$$

→ Expected value:

$E[\cdot]$  → expectation.

- also called mean value of random variable.

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X=x_i) \cdot x_i$$

for discrete.

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_X(x) dx$$

NOTE:  $E(X) \neq \text{mode}(X)$

$E(X) = \text{mean}(X)$

damn geezers

were weak with  
english.

-  $E(X)$  might not even be a valid value of  $X$ .

- might not even exist!

$$(as \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_X(x) dx \rightarrow \infty).$$

\* say; i have a new random variable,  $y$

$$y = g(x).$$

(equal; if  $g(x)$  is linear in  $x$ ).

then;  $E(y)$  need not equal  $g(E(X))$

$$E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot f_X(x) dx$$

LOTUS

might seem like it's not obvious

but; obvious - only for discrete  $X$ ;

for continuous  $|X|$ ,

$$E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f_Y(y) dy$$

→ we can show both same;  
(proof on before page.)

\*  $E(aX+b) = a \cdot E(X) + b$

equivalent to  $E(b)$

an "OPERATOR"

\*  $E(g_1(x) + g_2(x) + \dots) = E(g_1(x))$

$$+ E(g_2(x))$$

+ !

Markov's inequality:-

let  $x > 0$  be the possible values of  $X$ .

then

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E(X)}{a}$$

where  $a > 0$

very  
very loose

proof:

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx + \int_a^{\infty} xf(x) dx$$

$$\therefore E(X) \geq \int_a^{\infty} xf(x) dx$$

$$\therefore E(X) \geq \int_a^{\infty} a \cdot f(x) dx$$

$$\therefore P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E(X)}{a}$$

weakly  $\Leftrightarrow$  usually RHS  $\gg$  LHS

\* mean  
(exp)

med

$F_x(x)$

• variance

\* also

var :

\* var.

var

INGR

\* if

INGR

\* mean  $\rightarrow$  minimizes the expectation of "Squared error" to 0.  
 (expected value)  $\min_{\mu} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 f(x) dx$

median  $\rightarrow$  minimizes  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x - x_0| \cdot f(x) dx$

$$F_X(\text{median}) = 0.5$$

cdf.

a parameter

later called as median

(do by differentiation) ...

• variance:

$$\sigma^2 = \text{var} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 \cdot f(x) dx \rightarrow \text{might not exist; as integral may go } \pm \infty$$

$\sigma = \text{positive sqrt(var)}$

\* also

$$\text{var} = E((x-\mu)^2)$$

$$= E(x^2 - 2\mu x + \mu^2)$$

$$= E[x^2] - \mu^2$$

$$\text{var.} = E[x^2] - (E[x])^2$$

$$f(x) = \frac{K}{x^2}$$

suppresses  
mean( $x^2$ )  
but not  
variance( $x^2$ )

cases:

i) mean  $\checkmark$   
variance  $\checkmark$  } possible

ii) mean  $\checkmark$   
variance  $\times$  } possible

iii) mean  $\times$   
variance  $\checkmark$  } X

mean is  
part of  
Variance

$$\text{Var}[ax+b] = a^2 \cdot \text{Var}[x]$$

### INEQUALITIES:

\* if  $x > 0$ : then; mean.

$$P(x \geq a) \leq \frac{E[x]}{a} \rightarrow \text{MARKOV'S inequality - WEAK}$$

often: RHS  $\ggg$  LHS

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} E(x) &= \int x f(x) dx \\ &= \int_a^\infty x \cdot f(x) dx + \int_{-\infty}^a x \cdot f(x) dx \\ &> \int_a^\infty x f(x) dx \rightarrow \int_a^\infty a \cdot f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \int_a^\infty f(x) dx \leq \frac{E(x)}{a}$$

→ chebyshev's inequality:-

$$P\{|X-\mu| \geq k\} \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{k^2}$$

proof: take  $Y = (X-\mu)^2 \geq 0$ . then  
markov's on  $Y$  with  $\sigma^2$

& hence;

$$P\{|X-\mu| \geq k\} \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow P\{(X-\mu)^2 \geq k^2\} \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{k^2} \text{ [def' of variance]} \\ \sigma^2 = E((X-\mu)^2)$$

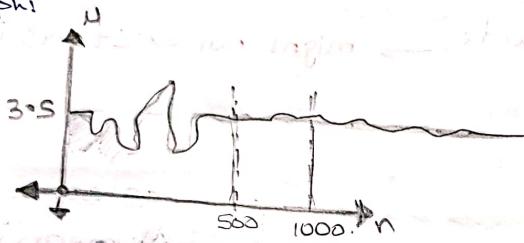
→ weak law of large numbers!

Good proof, dammit!

case:

I roll a die  $n$  times. What is the average value of die output?

wikipedia paragraph



So: Why is average  $\rightarrow 3.5$  as  $n$  increases?

Ans:

You know... 1 to 6 are equally probable, so  $\mu = \frac{1}{6}(1+2+3+4+5+6) = 3.5$  da.

→ Mainly avg:-

childish argument!

1) take  $n$  dice.

2)  $X_i$  = random variable showing output on  $i$ th die. → mean =  $\mu$  = same for all.  
so; associate each outcome with a random var.

3) So; now; we need:-

$$E\left(\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n}\right). \quad \{ \text{multiple random variables...} \}$$

nope!

$$> \text{We need } P\left(\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n} = \mu\right) = 1$$

(not expected value;)

Strong law  
of large  
nos...  
nos...  
nos...

we need to show; that

mean  $\infty$  it is unique value).

4)

weak law of large numbers!-

let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a seq. of independent & identical random variables; with mean  $\mu$  (same for all);

then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ :

$$P\left\{ \left| \frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n} - \mu \right| > \epsilon \right\} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof:-

by chebyshev's

$$\left( \because E\left(\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n}\right) = \mu \right)$$

$$P\left\{ \left| \frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n} - \mu \right| > \epsilon \right\} \leq \frac{\text{var}\left(\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n}\right)}{\epsilon^2}$$

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(x_i) + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n \text{covar}\left(\frac{x_i}{n}, \frac{x_j}{n}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n \cdot \sigma^2$$

$$\therefore P\{\left|\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n} - \mu\right| \geq \epsilon\} \leq \frac{C^2}{n^2}$$

:: identical distribution.

for independent events.

∴ as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the variance of  $\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n}$  can have  $n^2$

$$P\{\left|\frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n} - \mu\right| \geq \epsilon\} \rightarrow 0$$

term, if not!

Comments on weak law:

(i) assumption of identical  $\sigma$  is not necessary, but, should be finite.

(ii) Independence is NOT needed;

Just have to be pair-wise uncorrelated.

$$(i) \text{covar}(l) = 0$$

or  
(ii) coeff. of correlation = 0.

5) Strong law of large numbers:

$$P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_1+x_2+\dots+x_n}{n} = \mu\right) = 1$$

What shit kadh!

(weak law; tends to 1)

Note:

So, here; finally when we compute  $u$  of 500 dice throws;

1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, --

1, 6, 2, 5, 3, 4, 1, 6, 2, 5, 3, 4, --

$$\mu = 1$$

2, 2, 2, 2, --

$$\mu = 2$$

probability

$$= \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^n$$

$\approx 0$  for large  $n$ !

Both are

possible values

for mean; even after 500 tries

But!  $P(u = 3.5)$  is tending to 1.

Hence; we write a new random variable; using  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$   
(i.e. their mean)

& find  $P(\text{new rand. var} = \mu)$ .

might not be high; for small  $n$ .

but  $\rightarrow 1$ ; for  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

∴ weak law of large numbers.

- (Incorrect) law of averages. (Gambler's fallacy)

coin tossed 20 times  $\rightarrow$  20 heads.

States.  $\rightarrow$  so; next time; higher probability for tails. B.S.

next time also, same probability.

$$\therefore \begin{matrix} 20 \text{ heads} + 1 \text{ head} \\ (\frac{1}{2})^{21} \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} 20 \text{ heads} + 1 \text{ tail} \\ (\frac{1}{2})^{21} \end{matrix}$$

$\checkmark$

Joint Pdfs:- Joint Cdfs:-

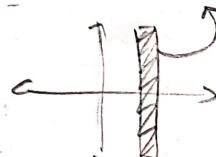
\* For continuous r.v.  $X, Y$ .

>  $F_{XY}(x,y) = P\{X \leq x, Y \leq y\}$  - 2D plot of distribution of elements in sample space

also

>  $F_X(x) = P\{X \leq x, -\infty \leq Y \leq \infty\}$

same  $F_Y(y)$



$$= F_{XY}(x, \infty)$$



"These" definitions are extended; to approach more variables.

Joint Pdf:-

for 1 variable; density over line;

for 2 variables; density over plane.

for probability in a region  $C$ :

$$P(C(X,Y) \in C) = \iint_{(X,Y) \in C} f_{XY}(x,y) dx dy.$$

For discrete case:-

$$P(X_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P(X_i, Y_j)$$

now;

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y)$$

$$\therefore f'_{XY}(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F_{XY}(x,y)$$

cool!

Marginal pdf:-

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y) dy$$



margin??

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x,y) dx$$



## Independent Random Variables:-

$$f_{XY}(x,y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y)$$

"Joint pdf = Product of margin pdfs"

& consequently, joint cdf is

$$F_{XY}(x,y) = F_X(x) \cdot F_Y(y)$$

capital means cumulative.

### COVARIANCE:-

$$\text{Cov}(X,Y) = E((X-\mu_X)(Y-\mu_Y)) \quad \text{don't write simply } E(XY)!$$

$$\text{then, } \text{Cov}(X,X) = \text{Var}(X) = E((X-\mu)^2)$$

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

$$\text{Cov}(X,Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

### Properties:-

$$1) \text{Cov}(X,Y) = \text{Cov}(Y,X)$$

$$2) \text{Cov}(ax,by) = ab \cdot \text{Cov}(X,Y)$$

3) coefficient of co-relation:-

$$r(X,Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X) \cdot \text{Var}(Y)}}$$

connect with  
stuff in  
discrete  
statistics..

$$4) \text{Cov}(X+Z,Y) = \text{Cov}(X,Y) + \text{Cov}(Z,Y)$$

prove from,

$$\text{Cov}(X,Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$5) \text{Cov}(\sum_i X_i, \sum_j Y_j) = \sum_i \sum_j \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j) \text{ very!}$$

6)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(X_i) \\ \text{Covar} \quad &= + \sum_{i \neq j} \text{Covar}(X_i, X_j) \end{aligned}$$

if  $n$  such random variables are indepnd then;

any K ( $K \leq n$ ) such r.v.s should be "independent"

i.e. joint pdf = product of margin pdf.

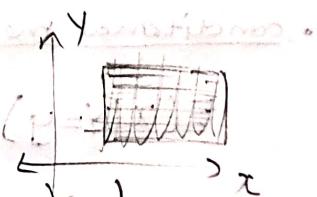
\* pairwise independent is necessary;  
not sufficient.

$$= (B, A) \cdot X \cdot Y$$

co-variance  $\equiv$  co-relat<sup>y</sup>.  
co-variance  $\neq$  independent  
(opposite)

$\therefore$  covariance is max.

i.e. fully dependent  
(X,Y) are....



graph if X,Y  
are independent,  
correlation = 0.  
Cov = 0

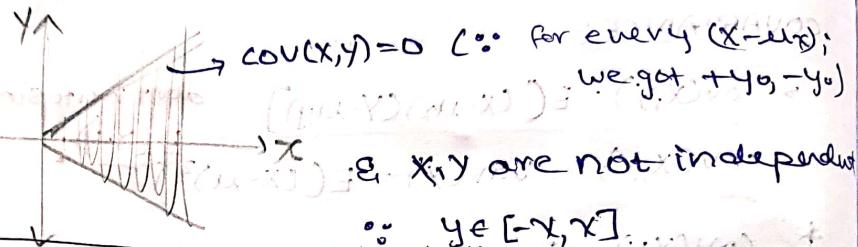
\* for independent events;

$$E(XY) = E(X) \cdot E(Y)$$

$\Rightarrow \text{cov}(X, Y) = 0$ , for independent events

co-variance (varying together) is 0.

but, if  $\text{cov}(X, Y) = 0$  then independent is wrong.



→ conditional pdf, cdf:

joint pdf is  $f_{XY}(x,y)$

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}$$

a function in  $x$ .

$y = y$  is fixed.  
for conditional.

conditional cdf:

$$F_{X|Y}(x|y) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_{X|Y}(z|y) dz$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{f_{XY}(z,y)}{f_Y(y)} dz$$

this is  $f_{X|Y}(x|y)$ . proof Vaughn  
 $\therefore f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx = f_{XY}(x,y) \cdot dx \cdot dy$   
 sample space  $f_Y(y) dy$ .  
 points in  $(x, x+dx) \times (y, y+dy)$   
 is  $(-\infty, \infty) \times (-\infty, \infty)$ . points in  $(-\infty, \infty) \times (-\infty, \infty)$   
 needed is  $(x, x+dx) \times (y, y+dy)$

conditional mean & variance:

$$E(X|Y=y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx$$

$$\text{Var}(X|Y=y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E(X|Y=y))^2 \cdot f_{X|Y}(x|y) dx$$

take care!

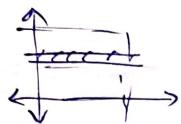
not regular  $\mu_X$ .  
 101....

$$\text{Eg: } f_{XY}(x,y) = 2 \cdot 4 x(2-x-y) \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 \leq y \leq 1$$

Find conditional

density of  $X$  given  $Y=y$ .

so?



$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = f_{XY}(x,y) / f_Y(y)$$

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{\int_0^1 f_{XY}(x,y) dx} = \frac{2 \cdot 4 x(2-x-y)}{(2 \cdot 4)(1 - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{y}{2})}$$

$y = \text{parametric constant}$

$$\therefore f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{6x(2-x-y)}{4-3y}$$

## MOMENT GENERATING FUNCTIONS:-

\* Moment of random vari.  $X$  of order  $n$ ; is  $E(X^n)$ .

-  $m_1 = E(X) = \text{mean}$ .

$m_2 = E(X^2)$

$m_i = E(X^i)$

→ 2nd order moment.

→  $i^{\text{th}}$  order moment.

$\rightarrow E(X)$

mass moment.

moment of inertia.

$\rightarrow (E(X^2))$

mass probability mass.

\* Moment generating function: (MGF)

function to generate various order moment of  $X$ .

$$\phi_x(t) = E(e^{tX}) ; t \text{ is a function parameter}$$

$$= E\left(1 + \frac{tx}{1!} + \frac{(tx)^2}{2!} + \dots\right)$$

$$\phi_x'(t) = E\left(\frac{x}{1!} + 2 \cdot t \cdot \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots\right)$$

The MGF is a compact way

of encapsulating

$$\phi_x'(0) = E(X) = 1^{\text{st}} \text{ order moment.}$$

all  $\infty$  moments of  $X$ .

$$\phi_x''(0) = E(X^2) = 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ order moment.}$$

$$\phi_x^k(0) = E(X^k) = k^{\text{th}} \text{ order moment.}$$

moment 'generating' functn  $\phi_x(t)$ .

# Topic -

Properties of MGF:-

i) if  $X, Y$  are independent;

$$\phi_{X+Y}(t) = \phi_X(t) \cdot \phi_Y(t)$$

ii)

$$\phi_{ax+by}(t) = e^{tb} \cdot \phi_X(at)$$

iii) let  $Z$  be  $X$  with probability  $P$   
 &  $Y$  with  $(1-P)$

$$\phi_Z(t) = P \cdot \phi_X(t) + (1-P)\phi_Y(t)$$

→ Uniqueness:- (crazy!)  $\phi_X(t)$  generates ' $\infty$ ' moments, which uniquely determine  $X$ .

\* Pdf completely determines a random variable  $X$ .  $\Rightarrow$

claim:

> A MGF can uniquely determine a Pmf/Pdf & thus  $\phi(t)$  uniquely defines a  $X$ .

ii) case of discrete:

$$\text{MGF} = E(e^{tX}) = \sum P(x_i) e^{tx_i}$$

$e^{tX}$  all are independent vectors kadhao.

say; PMF of two random variables  $X, Y$  exist

$$\& \text{say } \phi_X(t) = \phi_Y(t)$$

Compare coeff. of  $t^k$  (this is bcoz every  $t^k$  is

$$P(X=c) = P(Y=c) \text{ for any } c \quad (\text{a base vector...})$$

∴ since PMF $X, Y$  are equal,

$$X \triangleq Y$$

if  $a \cdot e^{tk_1} = b \cdot e^{tk_2}$   
 then  $a=b, k_1=k_2$

$$a=b, k_1=k_2$$

(ii) This uniqueness between MGF & PDF can be shown for continuous X too!

(Formidable proof)

Proof:

$$X \quad Y$$

$$f_X(x)$$

$$\phi_X(t) = \phi_Y(t).$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ty} f_Y(y) dy \dots$$

like, do

fourier transform

for MGF  $\phi_X(t)$

do fourier

transform

for

$\phi_Y(t)$ .

$$\text{since } t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx$$

find  $f_X(x)$  from this

fourier transform.

# To

## Families of Random Variables.

that  $X$  is discrete distribution

continuous distribution.

### Discrete distn:

1) Bernoulli: -  $x$  is head; for a coin toss.

PMF:  $P(X=1) = p$ ;  $P(X=0) = 1-p$   $p$  is parameter.  
that's it. so - family.

$$*E(X) = p$$

$$*Var(X) = p(1-p)$$

mode/  
median [0,1]

$$MGF = (1-p + pe^{t+1})$$

### binomial:

$n$ -coins; with 'p' for heads, for each coin.

PMF:  $P(X=i) \rightarrow i$  heads exact, among  $n$  coins.  
 $= {}^n C_i \cdot p^i \cdot (1-p)^{n-i}$   $(n, p)$  parameters.

E(X):

let  $X_i$  = bernoulli value for  $i$ th coin.

note that:

$$\mathbb{E} X = \sum x_i$$

$$E(X) = E(\sum x_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n p$$

$$E(X) = np$$

X	→	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
H	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
T	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

$$X = 6$$

Var:

$$\text{var}(X) = \text{var}(\sum x_i) = \sum \text{var}(x_i) = np(1-p)$$

∴ independence among  $x_i$ 's.

$$\text{MGF: } = (1-p + pe^t)^n$$

$$(\because \phi_X(t) = \phi_{\sum x_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n \phi_{x_i} t = (1-p + pe^t)^n)$$

! only if independent.

MGF

### 2) Multinomial:

instead of  $n$ -coins; we have  $n$ -dices.

- Here random variable  $X$ : is vector.

$$P(X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]) = \frac{n!}{x_1! \dots x_n!} \cdot p_1^{x_1} \cdot p_2^{x_2} \cdots p_n^{x_n}$$

$$(\therefore \sum x_i = n); (\therefore \sum p_i = 1).$$

$$\underline{E(X)}: = [E(x_1), E(x_2), \dots, E(x_n)]$$

$$= [E(\sum x_{ij}), E(\sum x_{2j}), \dots]$$

$$= [n \cdot p_1, n \cdot p_2, \dots, n \cdot p_k].$$

Variance:

$$\underline{V(x_i)} = \text{Var}(\sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij})$$

$$= n \cdot p_i(1-p_i)$$

\* for  $X_i$ ; we write covariance matrix

$$= \begin{bmatrix} C(x_1, x_1) & C(x_1, x_2) & \dots \\ C(x_2, x_1) & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

note that  $C(x_i, x_i) = \text{Var}(x_i) = n \cdot p_i(1-p_i)$

$$C(x_i, x_j) = -n \cdot p_i p_j] \text{ proved in video}$$

∴ cov matrix:

symmetric

diagonal positive, remaining negative.

MGF: = take only  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{k-1}$

$$= (p_1 e^{t_1} + p_2 e^{t_2} + \dots + p_{k-1} e^{t_{k-1}} + 1 - p_1 - p_2 - \dots - p_{k-1})^n$$

(we do with  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{k-1}$  to get the vector components).

		kth dice.									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
X <sub>i</sub> values	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
	2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

$x_i \rightarrow$   $i$ th possible value  
of a outcome.

$x_{ij} \rightarrow$  the Bernoulli variable,  
with  $P(x_{ij}) = p_i$   
in, the  $j$ th  
dice throw.

#### 4) Hypergeometric distribution:

sampling without replacement.

Say  $N$ -good objects,  $M$ -bad objects; total pick  
i.e.  $x=1$        $x=0$ .  
 $n$ -objects.

$$P(x=i) = \frac{N \cdot C_i \times M \cdot C_{n-i}}{N+M \cdot C_n} ; x \text{ is hypergeometric R.V.}$$

$${}^a C_b = 0, \text{ if } b > a, \text{ or } b < 0.]$$

$$* P(x_i) = \frac{N}{N+M} \quad (\because P(x_i) = \frac{N}{N+M})$$

meaning: good object came

in  $i$ th pick.

- a bernoulli R.V.

$$P(x_2) = P(x_2=1 | P(x_1=1) \cdot P(x_1=1) +$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{can tell directly. we've no data. } P(x_2=1 | P(x_1=0)) \\ & = \frac{N}{N+M} \quad (\text{on simplification}) \end{aligned}$$

\*  $E(x)$ :

$$= E(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n)$$

$$= \frac{n \cdot N}{N+M}$$

$$\text{var}(x_i) =$$

$$= \frac{NM}{(N+M)^2} \quad (\text{equal to } P_i = 1 - P_i)$$

$$* \text{Var}(x) = \text{Var}(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(x_i) + \sum_{i \neq j} \text{covar}(x_i, x_j)$$

$$= np(1-p) \left[ 1 - \frac{n-1}{N+M-1} \right]$$

$x_i, x_j$  are not independent

$$\text{covar}(x_i, x_j) =$$

$$= E(x_i \cdot x_j) - E(x_i) \cdot E(x_j)$$

$$= P(x_i x_j = 1) \cdot 1 + P(x_i x_j = 0) \cdot 0 - E(x_i) \cdot E(x_j)$$

$$= P(x_i=1, x_j=1) - E(x_i) \cdot E(x_j)$$

$$= \frac{N-1}{N+M-1} \cdot \frac{N}{N+M} - \left( \frac{N}{N+M} \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{-NM}{(N+M-1)(N+M)^2}$$

### Geometric distribution:-

\* Probability that first heads occurs in the  $k^{\text{th}}$  trial

$$f_X(k) = (1-p)^{k-1} \cdot p; \text{ Here } P(X>k) = (1-p)^k$$

memory less

$$P(X>s+t) = P(X>s) \cdot P(X>t)$$

$$\text{mean} = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$\text{Variance} = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

$$= 5^{1/2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi/2}} = 0.707$$

$$= 5^{1/2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi/2}} = 0.707$$

$$= 0.707$$

$$= (e^{-0.707} + e^{-0.707}) \cdot 1 = 0.2$$

$$= (e^{-0.707} \cdot 0.6 + 0.6 \cdot e^{-0.707}) \cdot \frac{1}{0.2} = 0.8$$

$$= ((\frac{6}{10})^{0.707} + 1) \frac{1}{0.2} = 0.8$$

$$= (0.399 + 1) \cdot \left( \left( \frac{6}{10} \right)^{0.707} \right) \frac{1}{0.2} = 0.8$$

## If continuous r.v. distribution :- i) Gaussian:-

Parameters: mean =  $\mu$

std.dev. =  $\sigma$

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \rightarrow N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

not  $N(\mu, \sigma)$

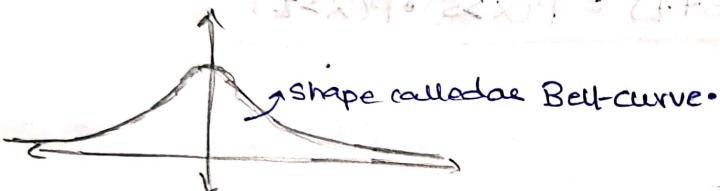
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$$

proof by taking,

$$\int e^{-x^2} dx \cdot \int e^{-y^2} dy$$

(polar)

\*  $N(0,1) \rightarrow$  standard normal distribution.



mean =  $\mu$ .

Variance =  $\sigma^2$

CDF:

$$\Phi(x) = F_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-z^2/2} dz \quad \text{for } N(0,1).$$

(we can't exactly integrate  $\int_0^x e^{-z^2} dz$ ).

Notes-

$$x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2);$$

$$ax+b \sim N(ax+b, a^2\sigma^2)$$

\* error function

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \int_0^x e^{-z^2} dz$$

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty = 1.$$

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \left( \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-z^2/2} dz + \int_0^x e^{-z^2/2} dz \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left( \sqrt{2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} + \sqrt{2} \cdot \int_0^{x/\sqrt{2}} e^{-z^2} dz \right)$$

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \right)$$

$$\Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} \right) \right) \quad ] \text{ for mean}=\mu; \\ \text{variance}=\sigma^2.$$

\* prob

n

n

n =

MGF:

$\phi_x$

\* Centri

j) if

ii) say

\* probability for R.V. to be with  $\mu - n\sigma$  to  $\mu + n\sigma$ .

$n=1$	68.2%
$n=2$	95.4%
$n=3$	99.7%
$n=4$	99.9937%

MGF:

$$\phi_X(t) = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 t^2}$$

calculate  $E(X)$

$$E(X^t)$$

PROOF:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} dx$$

$$e^{t\mu} \cdot e^{-\frac{t^2\sigma^2}{2}}$$

$$e^{t\mu} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$$

$$e^{t\mu} \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} = K$$

$$e^{t\mu} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{K^2}{2}} dK$$

$$e^{t(\mu + \frac{\sigma^2}{2})}$$

$$e^{t\mu} \cdot e^{t\sigma^2} \cdot e^{-\frac{t^2\sigma^2}{2}}$$

$$e^{t\mu + \frac{t^2\sigma^2}{2}}$$

\* Central limit theorem:-

If carrying  $n$  rounds of an experiments random variables be  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are independent & identically distributed then  $\bar{x}_n = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$  is i.i.d.

having average  $\mu$  & standard deviation  $\sigma$  ( $\text{identical, independent random variables}$ )

ii) if  $y = \frac{\sum x_i}{n} - \mu$  :-

By weak law of large numbers;

$$\text{as } n \rightarrow \infty; y \rightarrow 0 \text{ in } (\bar{x}_n - \mu) \xrightarrow{D} \text{Gauss: } N(0, \sigma^2)$$

iii) say  $y = \sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\sum x_i}{n} - \mu \right)$  :-

$y$  itself will be a gaussian Random variable  $N(0, \sigma^2)$

irrespective of the original distribution of  $x_i$ .

i.e. > for a single round; take  $n$ -experiments (i.i.r)

& take their mean ( $= y$ )

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$$

$\downarrow (\mu, \sigma^2)$   
each  
 $X_i$

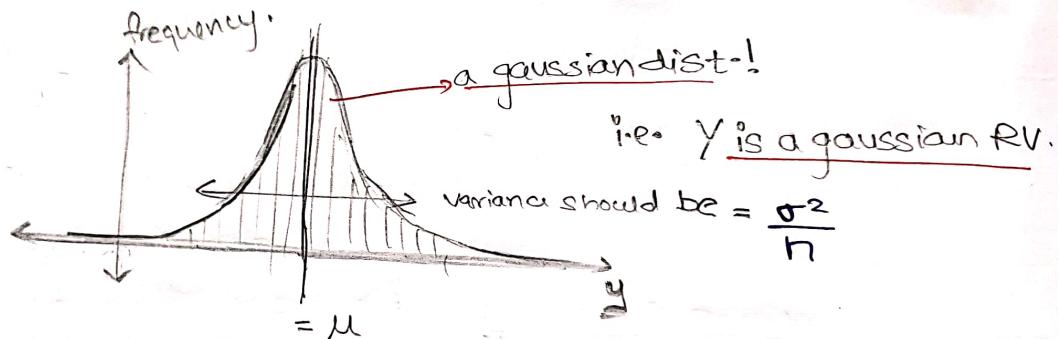
> do 't' such rounds

$$y_1 = \frac{(X_1) + (X_2) + \dots + (X_n)}{n}$$

$$y_2 = \dots$$

$$y_3 = \dots$$

> now histogram of all such  $y$ :



i.e.  $Y$  is a gaussian r.v.

\* statement:

Consider  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  to be a sequence of independent & identically distributed r.v.s with each having mean,  $\equiv \mu$  ( $\neq \infty$ )

Variance  $= \sigma^2$  ( $\neq \infty$ )

then the distribution of

$$Y_n = \sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\sum X_i}{n} - \mu \right)$$

converges to  $N(0, \sigma^2)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Lindeberg-Levy central limit theorem.

\* one version of CLT; requires only independence of  $X_1, X_2, \dots$

then  $Y_n = \left( \frac{\sum (X_i - \mu_i)}{\sqrt{\sum \sigma_i^2}} \right)$

with some condns  
 $(\rightarrow 0)$

is gaussian variant.

out of portion,

(i.e. can have different distributions too!)

\* this, more general version of CLT is Lindeberg's CLT.

- provides major motivation of widespread use of gaussian dist.
- errors in experiments are thus modelled gaussian.

\* ND disparity b/w CLT & Law of large numbers.

gaussian  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

\* proof:-

consider  $Z = \left( \frac{\sum X_i - \mu n}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \right)$

$Z$  is  $N(0, 1)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

• we do this by finding MGF( $Z$ ) as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$\phi_Z(t) = \left( \phi_{X-\mu} \left( \frac{t}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \right) \right)^n \quad \begin{matrix} \text{use facts} \\ \text{1) } \phi_{x+y}(t) = \phi_x(t) \cdot \phi_y(t) \\ \text{for independent} \end{matrix}$$

we got to prove:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \log \left( \phi_X \left( \frac{t}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \right) \right) = \frac{t^2}{2} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{2) } \phi_{ax+b}(t) = e^{bt} \cdot \phi_a(at) \\ \text{BC02} \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{MGF } N(0, 1) = e^{t^2/2}$$

$$n = \frac{1}{t^2} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{Substn} \\ \text{for lim. calculation.} \end{matrix}$$

• L-hopital rule 2-times.

$$\therefore \phi_Z(t) = e^{t^2/2}$$

Now; By uniqueness of MGF;

$$\therefore \phi_{N(0, 1)}(t) = e^{t^2/2}$$

$$\therefore Z \sim N(0, 1)$$

Hence proved CLT - simpler version.

## Gaussian Tail Bounds:

CDF<sub>X</sub>(X ≥ x) ke liye, upper bound.

tail probability. not exact  $P_X(X \geq x)$

$$P(X \geq x) = \int_x^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt \leq \int_x^{\infty} \frac{t}{x\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

$\sim N(0,1)$  for  $x > 0$

we get:

$$P(X \geq x) \leq \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}}{x\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

\* Binomial dist. to Gaussian dist.

\* For large n, binomial dist. approaches to Gaussian dist.

say n.

then  $X_{\text{binomial}} = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  Bernoulli...

$$E(X_{\text{bind}}) = n \cdot p$$

$$\text{Var}(X_{\text{bind}}) = n(p \cdot (1-p))$$

$$Y = \frac{X_{\text{bind}} - n \cdot p}{\sqrt{n \cdot p(1-p)}}$$

Y is  $N(0,1)$  for  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$X_{\text{bind}} \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$

$\therefore X_{\text{bind}}$  is  $N(np, np(1-p))$

for sufficiently Large n.

Haha.

whether see from bpho point of view

(or) Gauss point of view

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mean} &= np \\ \text{Var.} &= np(1-p) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{won't change} \\ \text{na} \end{array} \right\}$$

101\*

I) sample mean: for large sample size (ii) estimated value

consider 'n' i.i.d  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  with  $E(X_i) = \mu$  and  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$

then  $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X_i}{n}$  is a random variable. called the sample mean.

i) By Law of Large numbers: experimental results

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$   $E(\bar{X}) = \mu$

$$P(\bar{X} = \mu) \rightarrow 1.$$

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{n^2} (n \cdot \sigma^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

ii) By CLT:

for sufficiently big  $n$ :

$\bar{X}$  is a gaussian dist. (approximately)

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

e) Note:

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  were independent normal random variables (Gaussian)

then  $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X_i}{n}$  is also a normal random variable.

(No need of CLT or  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Proof: By MGF:

$$\phi_{\bar{X}}(t) = \phi_{\frac{X_1+X_2+\dots+X_n}{n}}(t)$$

$$= \phi_{X_1}\left(\frac{t}{n}\right) \cdot \phi_{X_2}\left(\frac{t}{n}\right) \cdots$$

$$= e^{t\frac{\mu_1}{n} + \frac{t^2}{2} \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n^2}} \cdot e^{t\frac{\mu_2}{n} + \frac{t^2}{2} \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n^2}} \cdots$$

$$= e^{t\left(\frac{\sum \mu_i}{n}\right) + \frac{t^2}{2} \left(\frac{\sum \sigma_i^2}{n^2}\right)}$$

$$= e^{t(\mu_{\text{net}}) + \frac{t^2}{2} \left(\frac{\sum \sigma_i^2}{n^2}\right)}$$

By uniqueness theorem ( $1 \text{ MGF} \leftrightarrow 1 \text{ pdf}$ )

$$\bar{X} \sim N(\mu_{\text{net}}, \sigma_{\text{net}}^2)$$

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\frac{\sum \mu_i}{n}, \frac{\sum \sigma_i^2}{n^2}\right)$$

II) Sample variance: - ( $S^2$ ) experimental variance.  
 $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d. random variables with mean  $\mu$ .

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

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

now;

$E(S^2) = ?$  from all  $X_i$ ; we are having  $n$  instances

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot (\sum E(X_i^2) - n \cdot E(\bar{X}^2))$$

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \left( \sum [var(X_i) + E(X_i)^2] - n [var(\bar{X}) + E(\bar{X})^2] \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \left( n\sigma^2 + n\mu^2 - n\frac{\sigma^2}{n} - n\mu^2 \right)$$

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

$$= \sigma^2$$

their variance should  
be  $\sigma^2$  na...  
variance of  
distribution.

lets see.

### Note:

Here, we used  $S^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}$ ; rather than  $S^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}$

something related with  
unbiased estimator.

$$E(S^2) = \frac{\sigma^2(n-1)}{n}$$

would give

expected value of  
sample variance  $\neq$  true variance

of  $n$  trials  
outcomes of trials.

so; this is undesirable.

we multiply  $S^2$  with  $\frac{n}{n-1}$

(Bessel's correction)

\* What about 'distribution' of sample variance (i.e.  $S^2$ )?  
 learn a new distribution.  
 Huff...

## 2) Chi-square distribution:-

- $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n$  are independent, standard normal random vars, then

$$X = Z_1^2 + Z_2^2 + \dots + Z_{n-1}^2 + Z_n^2 \sim N(0, 1)$$

(as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ;  $X$  should tend to gaussian.)

$X$  is a chi-square random variable.

with ' $n$ ' degrees of freedom.

-CLT

$$X \sim \chi_n^2$$

chi... square

$$f_X(x) = \frac{x^{n/2-1} e^{-x/2}}{2^{n/2} \Gamma(n/2)}$$

gamma function,

$$(t+x = X) \quad f_X(t) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{t-1} e^{-x} dx \quad \Gamma(n/2) = \frac{n}{2} \cdot \Gamma(n/2 - 1)$$

$$\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

\* deriving for  $n=1$ .

$$X = Z_1^2; Z_1 \sim N(0, 1)$$

$$F_X(x) = P(Z_1^2 \leq x)$$

$$= P(Z_1 \leq \sqrt{x}) - P(Z_1 \leq -\sqrt{x})$$

$$= F_{Z_1}(\sqrt{x}) - F_{Z_1}(-\sqrt{x})$$

$$\therefore f_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} (f_{Z_1}(\sqrt{x}) + f_{Z_1}(-\sqrt{x}))$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \cdot \frac{e^{-x/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \times 2$$

$$\therefore f_X(x) = \frac{x^{1/2} e^{-x/2}}{2^{1/2} \cdot \Gamma(1/2)}$$

MGF; for  $\chi_n^2$  is:-

$$\phi_{\chi_n^2}(t) = (1-2t)^{-n/2}$$

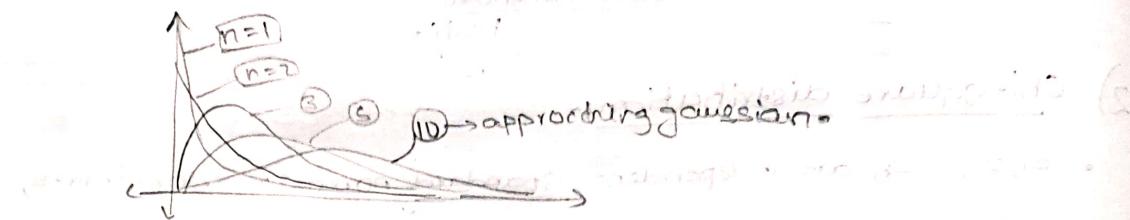
(do for  $\phi_{\chi_1^2}(t)$  & multiply 'n' times)

NOW; we can find, or "verify"

$$f_{\chi_n^2}(x)$$

3) Unif

<plot of  $X$  for different  $n_i$  vs  $x$ ) for uniform distribution



- Additive property:-

$$X = U_1 + U_2$$

↓  
standard normal r.v. with  $n_2$  d.f.

chi-sq. R.V. with  $n_1$  d.f. of freedom

then  $X$  is chi-sq. R.V. with  $(n_1+n_2)$  d.f.

\* now;  $S^2 = \frac{\sum x_i^2 - n(\bar{X})^2}{n-1} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{n-1}$  (Variance of  $X = X+b$ ).

$\therefore \sum (\frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma})^2 = \underbrace{\sum (x_i - \bar{X})^2}_{\sigma^2} + \underbrace{(\frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{X})}{\sigma})^2}_{\text{via CLT; this is std. gaussian R.V.}}$

complete  
is a  
sum of  $n_1$   
standard  
Normal R.V.

( $x_i$  is normal  
R.V.)

$\chi_n^2$

$\chi_1^2$  (std. r.v.)

Both are

independent?

Yes!

(iii)

### 3) Uniform distribution:-

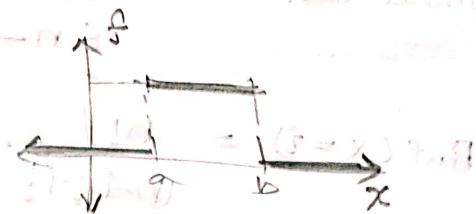
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}, a \leq x \leq b$$

0, otherwise.

$$E(X) = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

$$\text{MGF} = \int_a^b e^{tx} \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} dt = \frac{e^{bt} - e^{at}}{t(b-a)} \text{ for } t \neq 0.$$



#### \* Application:-

i) if we somehow bring uniform dist. R.V. X; then we can prepare samples for other distributions.

ii) say;

$$P(0) = 0.3 \quad P(1) = 0.3 \quad P(2) = 0.4.$$

now...

$$X \sim \text{uniform}[0, 1]$$

the range of probability value.

if  $(0 \leq x < 0.3)$ : sample value = 0.

if  $(0.3 \leq x \leq 0.6)$ : value = 1.

if  $(0.6 \leq x \leq 1)$ : value = 2.

iii) describe the working of randperm:-

- i.e. Select a subset of length k; from a set of length n.

like;

bcoz:

$$P(I_j | I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{j-1} \text{ are known}) = \frac{k - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} I_i}{n - (j-1)}$$

now pick x from uniform[0, 1]

if  $x \leq P(I_j | \dots); I_j = 1$

else  $I_j = 0$

#### 4) Poisson distribution:-

this is discrete R.V. case.

- \* A binomial dist. where  $E(X)$  is fixed, is discussed as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$  Poisson dist.

$$Pmf(x=i) = \frac{n!}{(n-i)! \cdot i!} \cdot (p)^i \cdot (1-p)^{n-i}$$

$n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(X) = np = \lambda \quad \text{and} \quad p = \frac{\lambda}{n}$$

$$P(X=i) = \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} \cdot \frac{n!}{(n-i)! \cdot n!} \cdot (1-\lambda/n)^{n-i}$$

$$\approx \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n$$

not 1.  
this is  $e^{-\lambda}$ .

$$P(X=i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

- sample size is large ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ )

Poisson Pmf  
not  
Pdf

but  $E(X)$  is finite. =  $\lambda$ .

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P(X=i) = 1$$

$$* E(X) = \lambda \quad | \text{ think of binomial;}$$

$$* \text{Var}(X) = \lambda \quad | \text{ with } np = \lambda \quad ; \quad (1-p)n = \lambda$$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p \rightarrow 0$

$$* Mgf: \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{t\lambda} \frac{(e^t - 1)^i}{i!} = e^{-\lambda} (e^{t\lambda})$$

$$\phi_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$$

( $t-1 = 0$ ) weirdest.

- for larger  $\lambda$ : Poisson( $\lambda$ )  $\sim N(\lambda, \lambda)$

\* Say  $z = x + y$ .

where  $x$  is poission( $\lambda_1$ )

$y$  is poission( $\lambda_2$ )

& both are independent.

then  $z = \text{poission}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$  proof by considering:-

$$\frac{\text{PMF}(i+t)}{\text{PMF}(i)} = \frac{1}{i+1}$$

$$\text{defn. } \phi_z(t) = \phi_x(t) \cdot \phi_y(t).$$

\* if  $x \sim \text{poission } (\lambda)$

$$\& P(Y=1 | X=1) = \text{Binomial}(1, p)$$

then

$$Y \sim \text{poission}(\lambda p)$$

thinking of poission rand. var. by a binomial.

practical use:-

Points in a scene being imaged, send out photons

at rate of  $\lambda$  (poission).

of these, only a small frac.  $p$ , managed to enter the camera (binomial)

: effective rate captured by camera is  $\lambda p$  (poission)

poisson eq:-

fixed no. of ~~occ.~~ per day ---  
accidents...

but police watches every 10 min.

$$= \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^l}{l!} \cdot p^x (1-p)^{l-x}$$

## 5) Exponential distribution:-

\* Say; a process has ' $\lambda$ ' chances to succeed in unit time.

↳ ' $\lambda \cdot u$ ' chances; in ' $u$ ' time.

Poisson process

Let  $T$  denote the time; when first success occurs

- waiting time.

\* We have

$T = \text{a random variable.}$

$$F_T(u) = 1 - P(T \geq u)$$

meaning;  
in time ' $u$ ';  
 $\lambda$  successes.

$$P(T > u) = e^{-\lambda u}$$

Imp. distinct  
feature

$$= \text{Pr}_{\text{pois}(\lambda u)}(=0)$$

( $\lambda u$  is a discrete exp. rand. var.)

$$= e^{-\lambda u}$$

∴  $F_T(u) = 1 - e^{-\lambda u}$  what the shift is going on here?

∴  $f_T(u) = \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda u}$   $u \geq 0$ .

exponential random

$$* E(T) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \quad (= \int_0^\infty t \cdot \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda t} dt = \lambda \cdot \left[ -t \cdot \frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{\lambda} \right]_0^\infty + \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{\lambda} \right]_0^\infty)$$

$$* \text{Var}(T) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

$$* \text{MF}(T)(t) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}$$

whatever.

now,

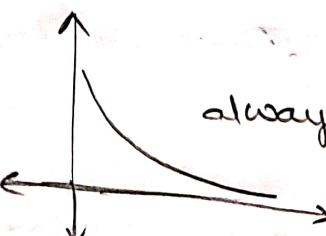
\* mode is  $u=0$

\* median:

$$\int_0^{x_0} f_T(u) \cdot du = 1/2$$

$$x_0 = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda}$$

always exponential decay.



\* This exp. R.V. is said to be memory less:-

$$\forall s, u \geq 0 \quad P(T > s+u | T > u) = P(T > s)$$

This is not independence - 101---

Proof:  $P(T > s+u | T > u) = \frac{P(T > s+u, T > u)}{P(T > u)}$  We haven't got 2 variables here.

$$= \frac{P(T > s+u, T > u)}{P(T > u)}$$

$$= \frac{P(T > u)^2}{P(T > u)} \quad \text{RHS} \neq P(T > s+u)$$

$$= e^{-(s+u)\lambda} = e^{-(s+u)\lambda} e^{-(u)\lambda}$$

$$= e^{-su} e^{-(u)\lambda} = e^{-su}$$

$$= e^{-su} e^{-(u)\lambda} = P(T > s)$$

Exponentially decaying

\* if  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are exp. rand. var., then  $\min(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is also a exp. rand. var.

$X = \min(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is also a exp. rand. var. with

(lambda) =  $\lambda_{\text{net}} = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n$

$$P(X > x_0) = P(X_1 > x_0 \cap X_2 > x_0 \cap \dots)$$

$$= e^{-\lambda_1 x_0} e^{-\lambda_2 x_0} \dots e^{-\lambda_n x_0}$$

Ex. If  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are iid  $\lambda$  then  $\min(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is

$$P(X > x_0) = e^{-(\lambda_{\text{net}}) x_0}$$

so,

$$F_X(x_0) = 1 - e^{-\lambda_{\text{net}} x_0}$$

$$f_X(x_0) = \lambda_{\text{net}} e^{-\lambda_{\text{net}} x_0}$$

$$= (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n) e^{-\lambda_{\text{net}} x_0}$$

## Self -

\* to find  $f_x(x)$  for some distribution; (methods)

like  $\min(X_1, X_2, \dots)$

or just  $X_1 + X_2 + \dots$

(i) maybe multiply individual  $f_{X_1}(x_1), f_{X_2}(x_2), \dots$

(for independent variables &  
joint probability).

(ii) Find CDF first & get pdf from that.

≡  
counting  
manually  
in case of  
continuous  
distributions

then

$$Y = \min(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots) \text{ or } Y = \max(X_1, X_2, \dots)$$

$$P(Y \leq y) = 1 - P(Y > y)$$

$$= 1 - P(X_1 > y) \cdot P(X_2 > y) \dots$$

MLE of  
uniform  
distribut.

$$\therefore \text{now; pdf} = \frac{d}{dy} P(Y \leq y)$$

discrete case.

(iii) Start counting manually; (we do this for basic distributions)

like  $f(x=x) = {}^n C_x \cdot P^x \cdot (1-P)^{n-x}$  (for  $x=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ )  
(binomial).

(iv) look at MGF:

If MGF is of any one of known forms,  
the by uniqueness theorem, we can

prove  $f_x(x)$ .

(used in CLT proof)

also used in proving

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

& each  $X_i$  is gaussian

then  $X$  is gaussian).

## Self :-

\* to find  $E(X) \& \text{Var}(X)$  for some random var.  $X$  :-

(i) do the summation directly :-

$$\text{one more of } E(X) = \int x \cdot f_X(x) dx \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{used very less; in case of} \\ \text{the standard distributions.} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{or } \sum x_i \cdot f_X(x_i)$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E((X-\mu)^2)$$

(ii) Try to write  $X$  as  $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots$  :-

now;  $E(X) = E(x_1) + E(x_2) + \dots + E(x_n)$  with or without independence.

used in Binomial, multinomial, Geometric Hypergeometric where ever we can have 1 trial consisting of  $n$  events at a time.

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sum \text{Var}(x_i) + \sum \sum \text{Covar}(x_i, x_j) \text{ without independence.}$$

(iii) from MGF :-

$$E(X) \text{ (variance associated)} \rightarrow \text{order 2 of MGF}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$$

Ex:  $n$  people have hats, in a party; group all hats & take one each.

$Y$  = no. of people who got their own hat.

Find  $E(Y) \& \text{Var}(Y)$ .

So1)  $f_Y(y) = \frac{n!}{y!(n-y)!} \cdot \frac{(n-y-1)!}{(n-y-1)!} \cdot \frac{(n-y-2)!}{(n-y-2)!} \cdots$

clearly  $\dots$

Sodhi formula.

$y!$

$1$

$\dots$

$1$

can't use this for  $E(Y)$ .

now;  $Y = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$ ; here each  $(x_i, x_j)$  is not independent.

where  $x_i$  is bernoulli with  $p = \frac{1}{n}$

$$\text{Ansatz: } E(Y) = \sum E(x_i) = 1 \quad \text{as } p = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \sum \text{Var}(x_i) + \text{Covar}(x_i, x_j) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} = E(x_1, x_2) - E(x_1) \cdot E(x_2) \\ = \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{1}{n-1} - \frac{1}{n^2} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{Ansatz: } \sum \text{Var}(x_i) = n \cdot \frac{1}{n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + n(n-1) \left(\text{Covar}(x_1, x_2)\right) = \frac{1}{n^2(n-1)}$$

$$= 1$$

## PARAMETER ESTIMATION:

\* let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from a distribution  $F_\theta$ ,  
where we don't know the parameters  $\theta$ .  
(But we do know the family of  $F_\theta$ )

Eg: "poisson; with unknown parameter  $\lambda$ ."

we need to estimate this;

with knowledge of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .

- normal dist.; with unknown mean  $\mu, \sigma^2$ .

\* In probability theory; we take that the parameters are known;  
whereas in statistics theory; the opp. is true;

we use observed data to Inference on parameters.

→ Maximum Likelihood Estimator (of a parameter)

ML estimator.

\* Also called 'point estimate'; since we give a single value for,  
instead of a range (confidence interval).

### Note:

Any statistic; used to estimate the value of a parameter  
is called estimator. There are many kinds of estimators.

- observed value of estimator is estimate.  $X$  of sample  
 $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1) \cdot f(x_2) \cdots f(x_n)$  all are independent.

\* Say; our sample is  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ . Then;

now; i) we know the distribution; but not the parameter  $\theta$ .

ii) we choose a  $\theta = \bar{\theta}$  such that the chances of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$   
is maximum.

iii) i.e. we find  $\theta = \bar{\theta}$  such that  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is maximum.

$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is "maximum likely"

Hence (MLE of  $\theta$ )

→ lets calculate parameters for some distribution; by MLE:-

1) Bernoulli:-

say samples were  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$  ( $\forall i, x_i \in \{0, 1\}$ )

let  $p$  be the parameter of the bernoulli dist.

then  $f(x_i) = p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}$  true for  $x_i = 0$  or  $x_i = 1$

$$\{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)\} = p^{x_1+x_2+\dots+n-x_1-x_2-\dots} \cdot (1-p)$$

maximize  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

maximize  $\log(f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))$

$$\therefore \log(f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)) = (x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n) \log p + (n - x_1 - x_2 - \dots) \log(1-p)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{p} (\sum x_i) - \frac{(n - \sum x_i)}{1-p} = 0$$

$$\therefore (1-p)(\sum x_i) = pn - p \sum x_i$$

$$\therefore p = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

this is MLE for  $p$ .

2) Poisson:-

$$f(x_i) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \cdot \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!}$$

$$\therefore f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-\lambda} \cdot \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!}$$

$$\log(f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)) = n \cdot \log(e^{-\lambda}) + (\sum x_i) \cdot \log \lambda - \{\text{const.}\}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = n(-1) + \frac{\sum x_i}{\lambda}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\lambda = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}}$$

mle of  $\lambda$ .

→ ML

3) MLE for gaussian:

consider  $N(\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$

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

$$\therefore f(x_1 \text{ to } x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\therefore \log(f(x_1 \text{ to } x_n)) = \sum_{i=1}^n -\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} - n \log(\sigma) + \{\text{const}\}$$

now, we have to maximize wrt 2 variables.

$$\frac{\partial \log f}{\partial \mu} = 0$$

$$\sum (x_i - \mu) = 0$$

$$\therefore \bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

MLE for  $\mu$ :  $\rightarrow \bar{x}$

$$\frac{\partial \log f}{\partial \sigma} = 0$$

$$\sum -\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2} \frac{(-2)}{\sigma^3} - \frac{n}{\sigma} = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{-\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}$$

MLE for  $\sigma^2$

we see that:-

MLE(mean) = mean( $x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ )

MLE(var) = var( $x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ )

for other distributions  
to!

Bernoulli,  
poisson.

→ actual solving doesn't involve seeing max. likelihood at all!

→ ML for least square Line fitting:-

Linear regression:-

gaussian  $\epsilon_i$

\* values are pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$

$(x_i, y_i) = \text{observed}$   
our distribution is:

• not a probability distribution  $y_i = mx_i + c + \epsilon_i$   
from  $N(0, \sigma^2)$

• we know  $x_i$  - accurately.

• we have noisy  $y_i$ .

we need to determine  $m, c$

$$y_i \in N(mx_i + c, \sigma^2)$$

$$\therefore P(y_i; x_i, m, c) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$\sigma$  is given?

$$\therefore \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i; x_i, m, c) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\therefore \log f = \sum_{i=1}^n -\frac{(y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2} + \{\text{constant}\}$$

\* we need MLE for  $m, c$ : (is  $\sigma$  given?)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial m} = 0 \Rightarrow \sum k_i(y_i - mx_i - c) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m(\sum x_i^2) + c(\sum x_i) = \sum x_i y_i$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial c} = 0 \Rightarrow \sum (y_i - mx_i - c) = 0$$

$$c = \left( \frac{\sum y_i}{n} \right) - m \left( \frac{\sum x_i}{n} \right)$$

solve simultaneously

$$\therefore \bar{m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\bar{c} = \bar{y} - \bar{m} \bar{x}$$

$$\text{where } \bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y_i}{n}$$

\* Indicator function:-

$I(X_i \leq x_0)$  is a bernoulli rand. var; with parameter =  $CDF(x_0)$

$I(x_i \in B_i)$  is a bernoulli; with  $p = CDF(X_2) - CDF(X_1)$

where

$$B_i = [x_1, x_2]$$

$\therefore$  if  $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$

$$\text{Ex. } N_{x_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n I(x_i \leq x_0)$$

then  $N_{X_0}$  is a binomial r.v.

( $\omega_0^2 + i\gamma\omega$ )  $\rightarrow \infty$

\* Now; MLE estimators are Random variables.  
 why? Bcoz it is a "function" of samples from an underlying dist.

- $\hat{\theta} = \bar{x}$  estimator (very poor choice).  
 $f_{\theta-\text{dist}}(\theta-\bar{x}) = f_{\text{dist}}(\bar{x})$
- the MLE estimator has its own pdf

What is prior?  $\hat{\theta} \sim \text{pdf}(\theta)$   
When you calculate the value of MLE for a dataset,  
this is a sample from  $\text{pdf}(\text{MLE})$ .  
(e.g.  $\hat{\theta}$ )

→ Bias; Variance; mean square deviation of an estimator - not just MLE.

- $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are r.v. (iid) from a distribution with parameter  $\theta$ .
- Let  $\hat{\theta}$  be an estimator of  $\theta$ .  
 How to decide whether good or bad estimator?

evaluate  $E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$  (square deviation)  
 But it is R.V.  
 So; evaluate  $E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$

\*  $E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$  is called mean squared error of estimator.  
 truevalue! (we desire low MSE estimators).

\* if  $E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$ , unbiased

else biased.

$(E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta) \rightarrow$  Bias of the estimator.

Eg: unbiased:

• MLE of mean for a gaussian sample.

• MLE of variance for a gaussian sample (when mean is known).

biased:

• MLE of variance for a gaussian sample.

(when mean is unknown)

★ interval of uniform dist.

$$\hat{\theta} = \max(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots)$$

$$E(\hat{\theta}) = nx^{n-1}/n! = n/n! \cdot \theta$$

\* variance of estimator =  $E[(\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta}))^2]$ .  
 standard form  
 to "estimate"  
 need...not  
 the true mean of  
 sample!

\*  $\text{MSE}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{E[(\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta}))^2]}{\text{variance}}$  +  $(E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta)^2$   
 square bias.

\* A biased estimator may have lower MSE; owing to its low variance.

(so; saying unbiased better than biased is B.S.)

- also; if the MSE is not going down as the 'n' increases;  
 then estimator is undesirable.

\* Estimators  
 Eg: let  $x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots$  be r.v. of dist. of true parameter  $\theta$ .

bad if  $\hat{\theta} = x_1$ ; point of view

(standard deviation)

now:  $E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta$

but  $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}) = \sigma^2$  (of dist.)

and! this doesn't go down! with n.

→ Estimator consistency:  
 let  $\theta$  be the parameter of a dist.

&  $\hat{\theta}$  be a value of estimator of  $\theta$ .

• we say estimator is (asymptotically) consistent if

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| > \epsilon) = 0$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .  
 probability  $\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$   $\Rightarrow \text{MSE} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Probability is zero...  
 estimator is not biased & consistent for  $\theta$ .

like;  $\theta = 50$   $\Rightarrow$   $\hat{\theta} = 50$   $\Rightarrow$   $P(|\hat{\theta} - 50| > \epsilon) = 0$ .

& for 1 sample,  $\hat{\theta}$  turns out to be 5  
 (biased); so; probability wise, fine.  
 then for  $10^8$  samples;  $\hat{\theta}$  turns out to be 50.

Eg:

For a distribution, with true mean  $\theta$ ;

Sample be  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$

take two estimators;  $\hat{\theta} = 1$  (irrespective of sample set)

$$\hat{\theta}' = x_1$$

then:

$$\hat{\theta}':$$

biased

variance = 0

MSE is high

inconsistent estimator

$$\hat{\theta}'':$$

unbiased ( $E(\hat{\theta}'') = \theta$ )

( $(\bar{x}_1 + \bar{x}_2)$ ) variance is high

MSE is high

inconsistent estimator.

an estimator can be unbiased & still be inconsistent.

→ Motivation for MLE:-

hard facts.

- MLE is a consistent estimator.

(as long as true values won't change with  $n$ ; sample count)

- no consistent estimator can achieve

a lower asymptotic MSE than MLE.

weak law of large nos.  
won't apply here;  
bcuz  $\hat{\theta}''$  is not  $\frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots}{n}$  form.

$$(\text{asymptotic}) \hat{\theta} = (\bar{x})^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$(\text{asymptotic}) \hat{\theta} = (\bar{x})^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (\sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (\bar{x})^{\frac{1}{2}} =$$

$$(\text{asymptotic}) \hat{\theta} = (\bar{x})^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\bar{x}} =$$

$$(\text{asymptotic}) \hat{\theta} = (\bar{x})^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\bar{x}} =$$

$$(\text{asymptotic}) \hat{\theta} = (\bar{x})^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\bar{x}} =$$

asymptotic

Bias & variance of various MLE estimators:-

1)  $\mu, \sigma^2$  estimators for Gaussian:

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

- $E(\hat{\mu}) = \frac{n\mu}{n} = \mu$  unbiased

- $\text{var}(\hat{\mu}) = \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$  } variance decreasing with  $n$ .

- $\text{MSE}(\hat{\mu}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$  ( $\because \text{bias} = 0$ ).

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2}{N}$$

if  $\mu$  is known beforehand:-

$$E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum E((x_i - \mu)^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= E((x_i - \mu)^2) \\ &= \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

if  $\mu$  not known:-

$$E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum E((x_i - \hat{\mu})^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left[ \sum E(x_i^2) + \sum E(\hat{\mu}^2) \right]$$

$$- 2 \sum E(x_i \hat{\mu}) ]$$

$$E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \sigma^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

Biased.

But, bias  $\downarrow$  as  $n \uparrow$ .

(increasing no. of observations)

2)  $\theta$  estimator for Uniform  $[0, \theta]$ :

$$\hat{\theta} = \max(x_1, x_2, \dots)$$

what is the distribution of  $\hat{\theta}$ ?

$$P(\hat{\theta} \leq x) = P(\max(x_1, x_2, \dots) \leq x)$$

$$= P(x_1 \leq x) \cdot P(x_2 \leq x) \cdot \dots$$

$$= \frac{x}{\theta} \cdot \frac{x}{\theta} \cdot \dots$$

$$P(\hat{\theta} \leq x) = \frac{x^n}{\theta^n}$$

$$\therefore f_{\hat{\theta}}(x) = \frac{nx^{n-1}}{\theta^n} \rightarrow E(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{n}{n+1} \theta.$$

for  $x \in [0, \theta]$   
= 0 otherwise.

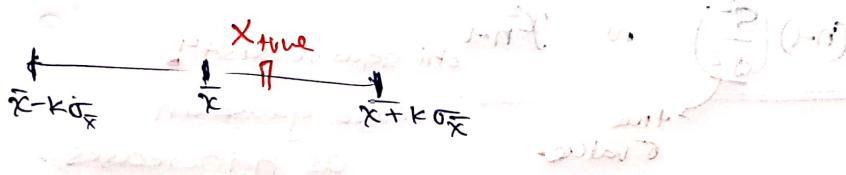
→ confidence intervals:

→  $\theta_{\text{true}}$  might not be  $\hat{\theta}$  in most of the cases. (point estimation).

So; we say;

$\theta_{\text{true}} \in [\hat{\theta} - c, \hat{\theta} + c]$  with 99% probability.

99% confidence intervals.



Ex: i) MLE estimate of Gaussian mean:

$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are gaussian r.i.d.s

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

now; so  $\bar{x}$  is also gaussian

$$\sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \sim N(0, 1) \quad \boxed{\text{true enough; if } x_i \text{ are not gaussian also.}}$$

$$P(-2.5 \leq \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma} \leq 2.5) \approx 0.99$$

if we don't know  $\sigma$ ;  $\therefore \bar{x} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

approximate  $\therefore P\left(\frac{\bar{x} - 2.5\sigma}{\sigma} \leq \mu \leq \frac{\bar{x} + 2.5\sigma}{\sigma}\right) \approx 0.99$

with dataset

$\therefore \mu$  lies in  $\left[ \frac{\bar{x} - 2.5\sigma}{\sigma}, \frac{\bar{x} + 2.5\sigma}{\sigma} \right]$  with 99% confidence.

also;

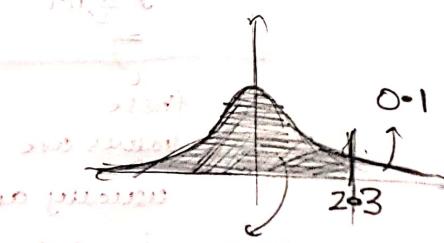
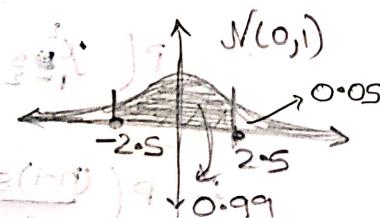
$$P\left(\sqrt{n}\left(\frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma}\right) \leq 2.3\right) \approx 0.99$$

$$\therefore P\left(\frac{\bar{x} - 2.3\sigma}{\sigma} \leq \mu\right) \approx 0.99$$

one-sided confidence...  
 $\mu$  lies right of  $( )$  with

99% confidence  $\therefore Z_{0.01} = 2.3$

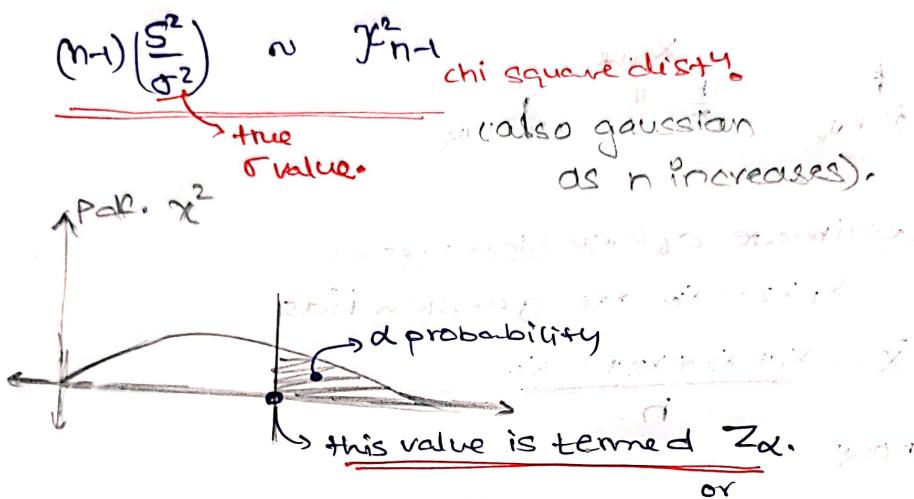
$$Z_{0.1} = 2.3 \quad \text{for } N(0,1)$$



→ 2. for Variance's MLE estimator -

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$$

as we've already seen,



now;

$$P\left(\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \geq \chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-1}\right) \approx \frac{\alpha}{2} \Rightarrow P(X \geq \chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-1}) \approx \alpha$$

$$\therefore P\left(\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-1}\right) \approx 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \approx 1 - \alpha$$

$$\therefore P\left(\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-1}} \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-1}}\right) \approx 1 - \alpha$$

these values are confidence interval.  
usually available in tabular manner.