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# 1 Probability

## 1.1 Probability

1. Fill in the details of the proof of Theorem 1.8. Also, prove the monotone decreasing case.

- For the readers' convenience we restate the Continuity of Probabilities theorem. If  $A_n \rightarrow A$  then  $P(A_n) \rightarrow P(A)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Here  $A_n \rightarrow A$  means that either  $A_n$  is monotone increasing ( $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ ) and we define  $A = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ , or,  $A_n$  is monotone decreasing ( $A_n \supseteq A_{n+1}$ ) and we define  $A = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ .
- We fill in the details now. First of all we want to show that  $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ . Suppose without loss of generality that  $i < j$  and note that  $B_i \subseteq A_i$  then

$$B_j = A_j \setminus \bigcup_{k=1}^{j-1} A_k$$

and  $B_i \subseteq A_i \subseteq \bigcup_{k=1}^{j-1} A_k$  as such  $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$ .

- To see that  $A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i$  let  $x \in A_n$  then there exists a minimal  $k = k(x)$  such that  $x \in A_k$ , i.e., for all  $k' < k : x \notin A_{k'}$ . Then  $x \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} A_i$  and therefore  $x \in B_k$ . Because  $x$  are arbitrary it follows that  $A_n \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i$ . On the other hand

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n \underbrace{B_i}_{\subseteq A_i} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = A_n,$$

where we have used that  $A_n$  is monotone increasing. The property that

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$$

holds is identical to the finite case, an element is part of the (countably) infinite union if there exists some minimal  $i$  such that ...

- For the monotone decreasing case we instead want to define

$$B_n := A_n \setminus \bigcup_{i>n} A_i.$$

2. Prove the statements in equation (1.1).

- This can immediately be seen by noting that  $A \cup B = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \cap B) \cup (B \setminus A)$  is a disjoint union.

3. Let  $\Omega$  be a sample space and let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ , be events. Define  $B_n = \bigcup_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i$  and  $C_n = \bigcap_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i$

- (a) Show that  $(B_i)$  is monotone decreasing and that  $(C_i)$  is monotone increasing.
- (b) Show that  $\omega \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n$  if and only if  $\omega$  belongs to an infinite number of events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ .
- Let  $\omega \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n$  be such that  $\omega$  does not belong to an infinite number of events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ , i.e., there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $k > N$  it follows that  $\omega \notin A_k$ . But then  $\omega \notin B_k$  for all  $k > N$  and as such does not lie in the intersection over all the  $B_k$ , which is a contradiction.
  - Suppose  $\omega$  lies in infinitely many  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ . Then there exists a sequence  $(A_{n_i})_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  such that  $n_i < n_j$  for all  $i < j$  and such that  $\omega \in A_{n_i}$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . In that case

$$\omega \in B_{n_i}$$

for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , in particular  $\omega \in \bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} B_{n_i}$ . Because  $B_n$  is monotone decreasing the statement follows.

- (c) Show that  $\omega \in \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$  if and only if  $\omega$  belongs to all the events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  except possibly a finite number of those events.
- Let  $\omega \in \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$  then there exists  $n \geq 1$  such that  $\omega \in B_n$ . This means that  $\omega \in \bigcap_{i=n}^{\infty} A_i$ , i.e.,  $\omega$  belongs to all  $A_i$  where  $i \geq n$ .
  - Now suppose  $\omega$  belongs to all events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  except for a finite number of events. In that case there exist  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall k \geq N : \omega \in A_k$ . This means that

$$\omega \in \bigcap_{i \geq k} A_i,$$

i.e.,  $\omega \in C_k$ . In particular this shows

$$\omega \in C_k \subseteq \bigcup_{r \geq 1} C_r.$$

4. Let  $\{A_i : i \in I\}$  be a collection of events where  $I$  is an arbitrary index set. Show that

$$\left( \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \right)^c = \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i^c, \quad \left( \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right)^c = \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i^c$$

holds.

Hint: First prove this for  $I = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

- I guess they want us to show it using induction in the hint, I'll just

do it directly.

$$\begin{aligned}\bigcap_i A_i^c &= \{x : \forall i : x \notin A_i\} \\ &= \{x : \neg(\exists i : x \in A_i)\} \\ &= \{x : \exists i : x \in A_i\}^c = \left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i\right)^c\end{aligned}$$

The other equality can be proven analogously.

5. Suppose we toss a fair coin until we get exactly two heads. Describe the sample space  $S$ . What is the probability that exactly  $k$  tosses are required?
6. Let  $\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots\}$ . Prove that there does not exist a uniform distribution on  $\Omega$  (i.e., if  $P(A) = P(B)$  whenever  $|A| = |B|$ , then  $P$  cannot satisfy the axioms of probability.)
  - Note that  $P(\{0\}) \neq 0$  because otherwise  $P = 0$ , which would mean  $P$  is not a probability function. But then it follows for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}P(\{0, \dots, n\}) &= P\left(\bigcup_{k=0}^n \{k\}\right) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n P(\{k\}) \\ &= (n+1)P(\{0\}) \rightarrow \infty\end{aligned}$$

for  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , which is a contradiction to  $P(\Omega) = +1$ .

7. Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be events. Show that

$$\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n).$$

Hint: Define  $B_n = A_n \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i$ . Then show that the  $B_n$  are disjoint and that

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n.$$

- This was basically already shown in the first exercise, the only thing we mention here is that we only have to consider the case where the series on the right hand side converges, because the left hand side is always  $\leq 1$ .
8. Suppose that  $P(A_i) = 1$  for each  $i$ . Prove that

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = 1.$$

- Note that  $P(A_i^c) = 1 - P(A_i) = 0$  and that

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = 1 - P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c\right).$$

The latter can be calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c\right) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i^c) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

where we have used that probability measures are subadditive. As such  $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c) = 0$  and therefore

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = 1.$$

9. For fixed  $B$  such that  $P(B) > 0$ , show that  $P(\cdot|B)$  satisfies the axioms of probability.

Axiom 1: Let  $A$  be arbitrary then

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)} \geq P(A, B) \geq 0.$$

Axiom 2:

$$P(\Omega|B) = \frac{P(\Omega, B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B)}{P(B)} = 1.$$

Axiom 3:

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \middle| B\right) &= \frac{1}{P(B)} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i, B\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{P(B)} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i, B) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i|B). \end{aligned}$$

10. You have probably heard it before. Now you can solve it rigorously. It is called the "Monty Hall Problem." A prize is placed at random behind one of three doors. You pick a door. To be concrete, let's suppose you always pick door 1. Now Monty Hall chooses one of the other two doors, opens it and shows you that it is empty. He then gives you the opportunity to keep your door or switch to the other unopened door. Should you stay or switch? Intuition suggests it doesn't matter. The correct answer is that

you should switch. Prove it. It will help to specify the sample space and the relevant events carefully. Thus write  $\Omega = \{(\omega_1, \omega_2) : \omega_i \in \{1, 2, 3\}\}$  where  $\omega_1$  is where the prize is and  $\omega_2$  is the door Monty opens.

- Note that  $\{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$  are invalid because he'll never open the door with the prize. The staying strategy wins on  $\{(1, 2), (1, 3)\}$ , the switching strategy wins on  $\{(2, 3), (3, 2)\}$ . Note that this means, if  $\omega_1 \neq 1$ , then we are guaranteed to win. As such we win whenever  $\omega_1 \in \{2, 3\}$ , as such the winning probability is  $2/3$  for the switching strategy.
- This is a pretty subtle problem, the intuition is that him opening a door does not grant new information. If  $\omega_1 = 1$  then his reveal is arbitrary and we lose on switching. If  $\omega_1 = 2, 3$  then he's forced to reveal the nonempty door, as such either the remaining door is the prize or  $\omega_1 = 1$ . As such when we switch we are guaranteed to win whenever  $\omega_1 = 2, 3$ .

11. Suppose that  $A$  and  $B$  are independent events. Show that  $A^c$  and  $B^c$  are independent events.

•

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(A^c, B^c) &= P((A \cup B)^c) \\
 &= 1 - P(A \cup B) \\
 &= 1 - P(A) - P(B) + P(A, B) \\
 &= 1 - P(A) - P(B) + P(A)P(B) \\
 &= (1 - P(A))(1 - P(B)) \\
 &= P(A^c)P(B^c).
 \end{aligned}$$

12. There are three cards. The first is green on both sides, the second is red on both sides and the third is green on one side and red on the other. We choose a card at random and we see one side (also chosen at random). If the side we see is green, what is the probability that the other side is also green? Many people intuitively answer  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Show that the correct answer is  $\frac{2}{3}$ .

13. Suppose that a fair coin is tossed repeatedly until both a head and tail have appeared at least once.

(a) Describe the sample space  $\Omega$ .

(b) What is the probability that three tosses will be required?

14. Show that if  $P(A) = 0$  or  $P(A) = 1$  then  $A$  is independent of every other event. Show that if  $A$  is independent of itself then  $P(A)$  is either 0 or 1.

$$P(A) = P(A, A) = P(A)P(A) = P(A)^2 \iff P(A)(P(A) - 1).$$

15. The probability that a child has blue eyes is  $1/4$ . assume independence between children. Consider a family with 3 children.

- (a) If it is known that at least one child has blue eyes, what is the probability that at least two children have blue eyes?
- Assuming that having blue eyes is independent from the other children then the chance that none of the siblings have blue eyes is  $\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 = \frac{9}{16}$ . As such the probability is  $7/16$ .
- (b) If it is known that the youngest child has blue eyes, what is the probability that at least two children have blue eyes?
- While this doesn't seem intuitive this actually changes the probabilities. To see this note that in the first problem the arrangements of having at least 2 blue eyed children were  $BBB$ ,  $BBG$ ,  $BGB$ ,  $GBB$  where the children are ordered by age. But now we disregard the case  $GBB$  as such the probability becomes smaller.
  - The probability is then  $\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4}\frac{3}{4} + \frac{3}{4}\frac{1}{4}$

16. Prove Lemma 1.14.

- 
- 

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

$$\begin{aligned} P(AB) &= P(A, B) \frac{P(B)}{P(B)} \\ &= P(A|B)P(B) \\ &= P(B|A) \frac{P(A)}{P(B)} P(B) \\ &= P(B|A)P(A). \end{aligned}$$

17. Show that

$$P(A, B, C) = P(A|BC)P(B|C)P(C).$$

18. Suppose  $k$  events form a partition of the sample space  $\Omega$ , i.e., they are disjoint and

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i = \Omega.$$

Assume that  $P(B) > 0$ . Prove that if  $P(A_1|B) < P(A_1)$  then  $P(A_i|B) > P(A_i)$  for some  $i = 2, \dots, k$ .

- Suppose this statement is wrong, i.e.  $P(A_1|B) < P(A_1)$  and for all  $i = 2, \dots, k$  we have  $P(A_i|B) \leq P(A_i)$ . It then follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i|B) &= \underbrace{P(A_1|B)}_{< P(A_1)} + \sum_{i=2}^k \underbrace{P(A_i|B)}_{\leq P(A_i)} \\ &< P(A_1) + \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying  $\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i|B) < 1$  by  $P(B) > 0$  yields

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i|B)P(B) < P(B).$$

This is a contradiction because

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i|B)P(B) &= \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i, B) \\ &= P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i, B\right) \\ &= P(\Omega, B) = P(B). \end{aligned}$$

19. Suppose that 30% of computer owners use a Macintosh, 50% use Windows, and 20% use Linux. Suppose that 65% of the Mac users have succumbed to a computer virus, 82% of the Windows users get the virus, and 50% of the Linux users get the virus. We select a person at random and learn that her system was infected with the virus. What is the probability that she is a Windows user?

- Denote the operating systems by  $M, W, L$  and having the virus by  $V$ . Using this notation we obtain  $P(M) = 0.3$ ,  $P(W) = 0.5$  and  $P(L) = 0.2$ . Furthermore  $P(V|M) = 0.65$ ,  $P(V|W) = 0.82$  and  $P(V|L) = 0.5$ . We can use the law of total probability to calculate the probability of a random person having a virus as being

$$\begin{aligned} P(V) &= P(V, M) + P(V, W) + P(V, L) \\ &= P(V|M)P(M) + P(V|W)P(W) + P(V|L)P(L) \\ &= 0.65 \cdot 0.3 + 0.82 \cdot 0.5 + 0.5 \cdot 0.2 \\ &= 0.705 = 70.5\%. \end{aligned}$$

Now we can use Bayes' Theorem to calculate

$$P(W|V) = P(V|W) \frac{P(W)}{P(V)} = 0.82 \frac{0.5}{0.705} = 0.5816 = 58.16\%$$

20. A box contains 5 coins and each has a different probability of showing heads. Let  $P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5$  denote the probability of heads on each coin. Suppose that

$$p_1 = 0, \quad p_2 = 1/4, \quad p_3 = 1/2, \quad p_4 = 3/4, \quad p_5 = 1.$$

Let  $H$  denote "heads is obtained" and let  $C_i$  denote the event that coin  $i$  is selected.

- (a) Select a coin at random and toss it. Suppose a head is obtained. What is the posterior probability that coin  $i$  was selected ( $i = 1, \dots, 5$ )? In other words, find  $P(C_i|H)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, 5$ .



- Note that  $P(C_i) = \frac{1}{5}$  and  $P(H|C_i) = p_i$ . The total probability of gettings heads is

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(H) &= \sum_{i=1}^5 P(H|C_i)P(C_i) \\
 &= \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^5 P(H|C_i) \\
 &= \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^5 p_i \\
 &= \frac{1}{5} (0 + 1/4 + 1/2 + 3/4 + 1) \\
 &= 0.5 = 50\%.
 \end{aligned}$$

We can use Bayes' theorem to calculate

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(C_i|H) &= P(H|C_i) \frac{P(C_i)}{P(H)} \\
 &= P(H|C_i) \frac{\frac{1}{5}}{0.5} \\
 &= P(H|C_i) \frac{2}{5}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Using this we obtain

$i$	1	2	3	4	5
$P(C_i H)$	0	1/10	1/5	3/10	2/5

- (b) Toss the coin again. What is the probability of another head? In other words find  $P(H_2|H_1)$  where  $H_j$  = "heads on toss  $j$ ."

- Suppose we have chosen the  $i$ th coin then the probability of getting heads is  $P(H|C_i)$ . The probabilities of the individual coins have been calculated before and we just have to take the weighted sum over those.

```
import numpy as np
```

```
mC = np.array([0, 1/10, 1/5, 3/10, 2/5])
mP = np.array([0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1])
np.dot(mC, mP)
```

```
> 0.75
```

- (c) Find  $P(C_i|B_4)$  where  $B_4$  = "first head is obtained on toss 4."

- First note that  $P(C_i) = P(C_i, H_1) + P(C_i, H_1^c)$  as such

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(C_i, H_1^c) &= P(C_i) - P(C_i, H_1) \\
 &= P(C_i) - P(C_i|H_1)P(H_1) \\
 &= \frac{1}{5} - P(C_i|H_1)\frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

as such

$i$	1	2	3	4	5
$P(C_i H_i^c)$	0.2	0.15	0.1	0.05	0

$$P(H_1, H_2) = P(H_2|H_1)P(H_1) = \frac{3}{4}$$

21. (Computer Experiment.) Suppose a coin has probability  $p$  of falling heads up. If we flip the coin many times, we would expect the proportion of heads to be near  $p$ . We will make this formal later. Take  $p = 0.3$  and  $n = 1000$  and simulate  $n$  coin flips. Plot the proportion of heads as a function of  $n$ . Repeat for  $p = 0.03$ .

```

• import numpy as np
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
  import math

def Ex1_21(p = 0.3, n = 1000, draw = True, save = False):
    rand = np.random.random(size = 1000)
    _range = np.arange(1, n + 1)

    result = np.cumsum(rand < p) / _range

    fig, ax = plt.subplots()

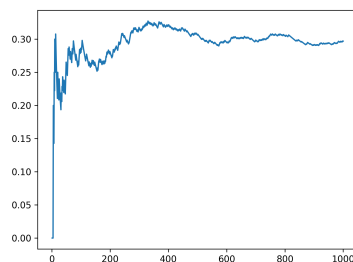
    ax.plot(_range, result)

    if draw:
        plt.show()

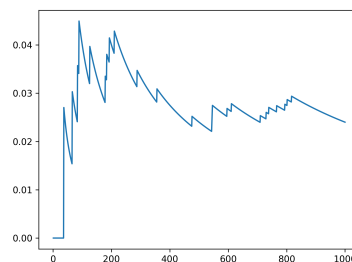
    if save:
        # p = 0.213, n = 1000 -> 21pct_1000
        str_form = f"{math.floor(p * 100)}pct_{n}"
        fig.savefig(f"Ex1_21-{str_form}.png")

Ex1_21(p = 0.3, draw = True, save = True)
Ex1_21(p = 0.03, draw = True, save = True)

```



(a) 30% Probability



(b) 3% Probability

22. (Computer Experiment.) Suppose we flip a coin  $n$  times and let  $P$  denote the probability of heads. Let  $X$  be the number of heads. We call  $X$  a binomial random variable, which is discussed in the next chapter. Intuition suggests that  $X$  will be close to  $np$ . To see if this is true, we can repeat this experiment many times and average the  $X$  values. Carry out a simulation and compare the average of the  $X$ 's to  $np$ . Try this for  $p = 0.3$  and  $n = 10$ ,  $n = 100$ , and  $n = 1000$ .

```
• import numpy as np

def Ex1_22(p = 0.3, n = 1000, num_iter = 100):
    sum = 0
    for i in range(num_iter):
        rand = np.random.random(size = n)
        sum += np.sum(rand < p)

    mean = sum / num_iter
    expected = n * p
    delta = abs(mean - expected) / (expected)
    print(f"mean = {mean}, delta = {delta * 100:.2f}%")

for n in [10, 100, 1000]:
    Ex1_22(n = n)

> mean = 2.93, delta = 2.33%
> mean = 30.2, delta = 0.67%
> mean = 297.83, delta = 0.72%
```

23. (Computer Experiment.) Here we will get some experience simulating conditional probabilities. Consider tossing a fair die. Let  $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$  and  $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ . Then,  $P(A) = 1/2$ ,  $P(B) = 2/3$  and  $P(AB) = 1/3$ . Since  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ , the events  $A$  and  $B$  are independent. Simulate draws from the sample space and verify that  $\hat{P}(AB) = \hat{P}(A)\hat{P}(B)$  where  $\hat{P}(A)$  is the proportion of times  $A$  occurred in the simulation and similarly for  $\hat{P}(AB)$  and  $\hat{P}(B)$ . Now find two events  $A$  and  $B$  that are not independent. Compute  $\hat{P}(A)$ ,  $\hat{P}(B)$  and  $\hat{P}(AB)$ . Compare the calculated values to their theoretical values. Report your results and interpret.

```
• import numpy as np

labels = ['P(A)', 'P(B)', 'P(A, B)', 'P(A)P(B)',
          'P(A, B) - P(A)P(B)']
pct_str = lambda x : f"{x * 100:.2f}%"

def Ex1_23_helper(probabilities):
    for label, prob in zip(labels, probabilities):
        print(f"\t{label}: {pct_str(prob)}")
```

```

def Ex1_23(A, B, n = 10000):
    cap = A.intersection(B)

    # rand does [] so I need to increment high to get 6
    rand = np.random.randint(low = 1, high = 6 + 1, size = n)
    prob_A = sum(np.isin(rand, list(A))) / n
    prob_B = sum(np.isin(rand, list(B))) / n
    prob_cap = sum(np.isin(rand, list(cap))) / n

    prob_prod = prob_A * prob_B

    probabilities = [prob_A, prob_B, prob_cap, prob_prod,
                    prob_cap - prob_prod]

    print("Experimental Values")
    Ex1_23_helper(probabilities)

A, B = {2, 4, 6}, {1, 2, 3, 4}
print(f"A = {A}, B = {B}, AB = {A.intersection(B)}")
print("Theoretical Values")
Ex1_23_helper([1/2, 2/3, 1/3, 1/3, 0])
Ex1_23(A, B)
print()

A, B = {1, 2, 3}, {3, 4, 5, 6}
print(f"A = {A}, B = {B}, AB = {A.intersection(B)}")
print("Theoretical Values")
Ex1_23_helper([1/2, 2/3, 1/6, 1/3, -1/6])
Ex1_23(A, B)

> A = {2, 4, 6}, B = {1, 2, 3, 4}, AB = {2, 4}
> Theoretical Values
>     P(A): 50.00%
>     P(B): 66.67%
>     P(A, B): 33.33%
>     P(A)P(B): 33.33%
>     P(A, B) - P(A)P(B): 0.00%
> Experimental Values
>     P(A): 50.18%
>     P(B): 67.42%
>     P(A, B): 33.70%
>     P(A)P(B): 33.83%
>     P(A, B) - P(A)P(B): -0.13%
>
> A = {1, 2, 3}, B = {3, 4, 5, 6}, AB = {3}

```

```

> Theoretical Values
>      P(A): 50.00%
>      P(B): 66.67%
>      P(A, B): 16.67%
>      P(A)P(B): 33.33%
>      P(A, B) - P(A)P(B): -16.67%
> Experimental Values
>      P(A): 50.20%
>      P(B): 66.30%
>      P(A, B): 16.50%
>      P(A)P(B): 33.28%
>      P(A, B) - P(A)P(B): -16.78%

```

## 1.2 Random Variables

1. Show that

$$P(X = x) = F(x^+) - F(x^-).$$

- Note that  $(\infty, x)$  and  $\{x\}$  are disjoint as such

$$P(X \leq x) = P(X < x) + P(X = x).$$

This allows us to calculate:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X = x) &= P(X \leq x) - P(X < x) \\
 &= F(x) - P(X < x) \\
 &= F(x) - \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} P(X \leq x - \varepsilon) \\
 &= F(x) - \lim_{y \searrow x} P(X \leq y) \\
 &= F(x) - \lim_{y \searrow x} F(y) \\
 &= F(x^+) - F(x^-),
 \end{aligned}$$

where we have used that  $F(x) = F^+(x)$  by definition of CDFs.

2. Let  $X$  be such that  $P(X = 2) = P(X = 3) = 1/10$  and  $P(X = 5) = 8/10$ . Plot the CDF  $F$ . Use  $F$  to find  $P(2 < X \leq 4.8)$  and  $P(2 \leq X \leq 4.8)$ .

```

• import numpy as np
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

def Ex2_2(draw = True, save = False):
    x = np.arange(start=0, stop = 6, step = 0.2)
    F = (x >= 2) * 0.1 + (x >= 3) * 0.1 + (x >= 5) * 0.8
    plt.step(x, F, where='post')

    if save:

```

```

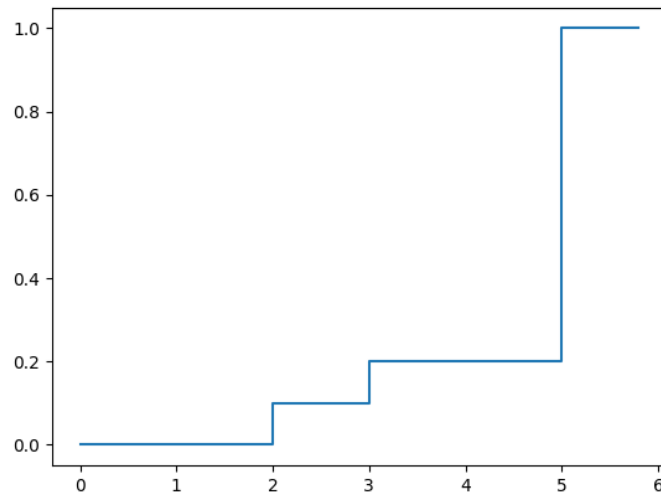
plt.savefig("Ex2_2.png")
if draw:
    plt.show()

right = np.where(abs(x - 4.8) < 0.1)[0]
left = np.where(abs(x - 2) < 0.1)[0]
print("P(2 < X <= 4.8) = ", (F[right] - F[left])[0])
print("P(2 <= X <= 4.8) = ", (F[right] - F[left - 1])[0])

Ex2_2(draw = False, save = False)

> P(2 < X <= 4.8) = 0.1
> P(2 <= X <= 4.8) = 0.2

```



3. Prove Lemma 2.15.
4. Let  $X$  have probability density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ \frac{3}{8} & \text{if } 3 < x < 5 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (a) Find the cumulative distribution function of  $X$ .

- We can obtain the CDF  $F$  of  $f$  by integration:

$$F(t) := \int_{-\infty}^t f(x) dx,$$

For  $t \leq 0$  we have  $F(t) = 0$ . Let  $t \in (0, 1)$  then

$$F(t) = \int_0^t \frac{1}{4} dx = \frac{t}{4}.$$

For  $t \in [1, 3]$  we have

$$F(t) = \int_0^1 f(x) dx = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Now let  $t \in (3, 5)$  then

$$\begin{aligned} F(t) &= \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_3^t f(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4} + (t-3)\frac{3}{8}. \end{aligned}$$

And for  $t \geq 5$  :  $F(t) = 1$ . In total this shows that

$$F(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } t \leq 0, \\ \frac{t}{4}, & \text{if } t \in (0, 1), \\ \frac{1}{4}, & \text{if } t \in [1, 3], \\ \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{8}(t-3), & \text{if } t \in (3, 5), \\ 1, & \text{if } t \geq 5. \end{cases}$$

(b) Let  $Y = 1/X$ . Find the probability density function  $f_Y(y)$  for  $Y$ .  
Hint. Consider three cases:  $\frac{1}{5} \leq y \leq \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $\frac{1}{3} \leq y \leq 1$ , and  $y \geq 1$ .

- First of all, note that  $0 < X < 5$ , as such  $\frac{1}{5} < Y$ . This means that

$$P(Y \leq y) = P\left(\frac{1}{5} < Y \leq y\right)$$

Now suppose  $y \in (\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{3})$ , then

$$P(Y \leq y) = P\left(\frac{1}{5} < Y \leq y\right)$$

By definition

$$\frac{1}{5} < Y \leq y \iff \frac{1}{y} \leq \frac{1}{Y} < 5 \iff \frac{1}{y} \leq X < 5.$$

Then

$$P(Y \leq y) = P\left(\frac{1}{y} \leq X < 5\right) = F(5) - F\left(\frac{1}{y}\right).$$

This can then be computed by noting that  $F(5) = 1$  and  $F(1/y) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{8}(\frac{1}{y} - 3)$ .

For  $\frac{1}{3} \leq y \leq 1$  we have

$$P(Y \leq y) = F(3) - F\left(\frac{1}{y}\right)$$

and this is equal to  $\frac{1}{4}$ . For  $y \geq 1$  we have  $\frac{1}{y} \leq 1$  and

$$\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4y}.$$

In total this means [TODO: Finish this].

5. Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be discrete random variables. Show that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if  $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$  for all  $x$  and  $y$ .
6. Let  $X$  have distribution  $F$  and density function  $f$  and let  $A$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Denote by  $I_A(x)$  the indicator function for  $A$ . Let  $Y = I_A(X)$ . Find an expression for the cumulative distribution of  $Y$ . Hint: first find the probability mass function for  $Y$ .
  - Denote the CDF of  $Y$  by  $G$ . Note that  $Y$  either takes 0 or 1 as its value. The PDF  $g$  of  $Y$  is  $g(t) = 1$  if  $X(t) \in A$  and 0 else. This means that the CDF for  $y < 0$  is just 0, for  $0 \leq y < 1$ ,  $G(y) = P(X \in A)$  and  $G(y) = 1$  for all  $y \geq 1$ . Note that

$$P(X \notin A) = 1 - P(X \in A) = 1 - \int_A f(x)dx.$$

7. Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent and suppose that each has a Uniform(0,1) distribution. Let  $Z = \min\{X,Y\}$ . Find the density  $f_Z(z)$  for  $Z$ . Hint: It might be easier to first find  $P(Z > z)$ .
  - By definition we have

$$P(Z > z) = P(\min X, Y > z) = P(X > z, Y > z),$$

because  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent it follows that this is equal to  $P(X > z)P(Y > z)$ , because both of those have the same distribution those two probabilities are the same:

$$P(X > z)P(Y > z) = P(X > z)^2 = (1 - P(X \leq z))^2 = (1 - z)^2.$$

As such

$$P(Z \leq z) = 1 - P(Z > z) = 1 - (1 - z)^2 = 2z - z^2.$$

Differentiating this yields the PDF

$$f_Z(z) = 2 - 2z.$$



8. Let  $X$  have CDF  $F$ . Find the CDF of  $X^+ = \max 0, X$ .

- Note that for  $y \leq 0$  we have  $P(X^+ \leq y) = F(0)$ . For  $x > 0$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} F(X^+ \leq x) &= F(X^+ \leq 0) + P(0 < X^+ \leq x) \\ &= F(0) + P(0 < X \leq x) \\ &= F(0) + F(x) - F(0) \\ &= F(x). \end{aligned}$$

9. Let  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\beta)$ . Find  $F(x)$  and  $F^{-1}(q)$ .

- The PDF of  $f$  is given by  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\beta}e^{-x/\beta}$  for  $x > 0$  and 0 for  $x \leq 0$ . We obtain the CDF of  $X$  by integrating. For  $t \leq 0$  we have  $F(t)$  and for  $t > 0$

$$F(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f(x)dx = \int_0^t \frac{1}{\beta}e^{-x/\beta}dx.$$

Recall that the antiderivative of  $e^{Ax}$  is  $\frac{1}{A}e^{Ax}$  as such

$$\begin{aligned} F(t) &= \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{1}{-\frac{1}{\beta}} e^{-x/\beta} \Bigg|_{x=0}^{x=t} \\ &= -e^{-t/\beta} + e^{-0/\beta}. \end{aligned}$$

As such

$$F(t) = 1 - e^{-t/\beta}.$$

Per definition  $F^{-1}(q) = \inf\{x : F(x) > q\}$  for  $q \in [0, 1]$ . For a continuous and monotone increasing function  $F$  (which is the case for the exponential distribution) this is simply

$$x = F^{-1}(q).$$

As such we want to solve  $F(x) = q$  for  $x$ , this is a straightforward computation:

$$\begin{aligned} q &= 1 - e^{-x/\beta} \\ \iff e^{-t/\beta} &= 1 - q \\ \iff -t/\beta &= \log(1 - q) \\ \iff t &= -\beta \log(1 - q). \end{aligned}$$

- Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent. Show that  $g(X)$  is independent of  $h(Y)$  where  $g$  and  $h$  are functions.
- Suppose we toss a coin once and let  $p$  be the probability of heads. Let  $X$  denote the number of heads and let  $Y$  denote the number of tails.
  - Prove that  $X$  and  $Y$  are dependent.

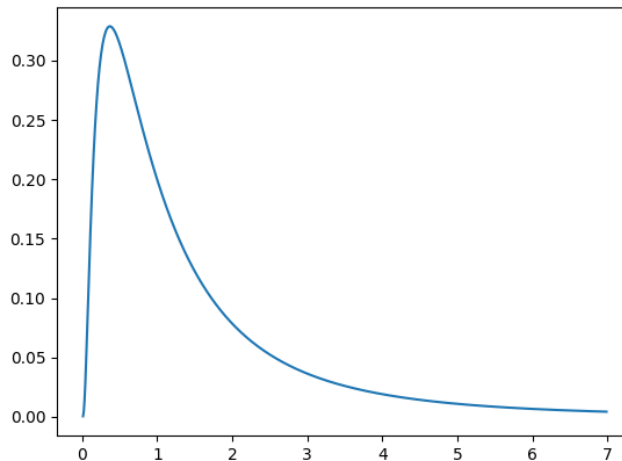
- Suppose  $p \in (0, 1)$  then  $P(X = 1) = p$  and  $P(Y = 1) = 1 - p$  but  $P(X = 1, Y = 1) = 0$ , as such  $X$  and  $Y$  can't be independent.
- (b) Let  $N \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  and suppose we toss a coin  $N$  times. Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be the number of heads and tails. Show that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.
12. Prove Theorem 2.33
13. Let  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  and let  $Y = e^X$ .
- (a) Find the PDF for  $Y$ . Plot it.
- Note that  $P(Y \leq t) = P(e^X \leq t) = P(X \leq \log(t))$ . We can obtain the PDF  $g$  of  $Y$  by differentiation:

$$\frac{d}{dt}F(\log(t)) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi t}} e^{-\frac{\log(t)^2}{2}}.$$

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

x = np.arange(start = 0.01, stop = 7, step = 0.01)
y = np.exp(- np.log(x)**2 * 0.5) * 0.5 / x
y = y / np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)
plt.plot(x, y)

plt.savefig('Ex2_13a.png')
```



- (b) (Computer Experiment) Generate a vector  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_{10000})$  consisting of 10000 random standard Normals. Let  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_{10000})$  where  $y_i = e^{x_i}$ . Draw a histogram of  $y$  and compare it to the PDF you found in part (a).

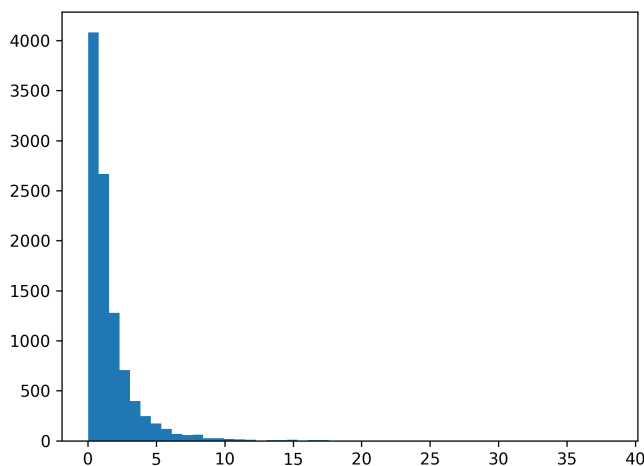
```

• import numpy as np
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

  x = np.random.randn(10000)
  y = np.exp(x)

  plt.hist(y, bins=50)
  plt.savefig('Ex2_13b.png', dpi=300)

```



14. Let  $(X, Y)$  be uniformly distributed on the unit disk  $\{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ . Let  $R = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}$ . Find the CDF and PDF of  $R$ .
15. Let  $X$  have a continuous, strictly increasing CDF  $F$ . Let  $Y = F(X)$ . Find the density of  $Y$ . This is called the probability integral transform. Now, let  $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$  and let  $X = F^{-1}(U)$ . Show that  $X \sim F$ . Now write a program that takes  $\text{Uniform}(0, 1)$  random variables and generates random variables from an Exponential  $(\lambda)$  distribution.
16. Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$  and assume that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent. Show that the distribution of  $X$  given that  $X + Y = n$  is  $\text{Binomial}(n, \pi)$  where  $\pi = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}$ . Hint 1: You may use the following fact: If  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  and  $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu)$ , and  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $X + Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda + \mu)$ . Hint 2: Note that  $\{X = x, X + Y = n\} = \{X = x, Y = n - x\}$ .

• Recall that

$$P(X = x | X + Y = n) = \frac{P(X = x, X + Y = n)}{P(X + Y = n)}.$$

By the first hint  $P(X + Y = n) = \frac{(\lambda + \mu)^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda - \mu}$ . Using the second hint we obtain

$$P(X = x, X + Y = n) = P(X = x, Y = n - x),$$

using the independence of  $X$  and  $Y$  this becomes

$$P(X = x)P(Y = n - x) = \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\mu^{n-x}}{(n-x)!} e^{-\mu}.$$

Combining everything then yields

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = x | X + Y = n) &= \frac{\frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\mu^{n-x}}{(n-x)!} e^{-\mu}}{\frac{(\lambda + \mu)^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda - \mu}} \\ &= \frac{\lambda^x \mu^{n-x}}{(\lambda + \mu)^n} \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} = \frac{\lambda^x \mu^{n-x}}{(\lambda + \mu)^n} \binom{n}{x}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that if  $Z \sim \text{Bin}\left(n, \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}\right)$  then

$$\begin{aligned} P(Z = k) &= \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}\right)^{n-k} \\ &= \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}\right)^k \left(\frac{\mu}{\lambda + \mu}\right)^{n-k} \\ &= \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}\right)^k \left(\frac{\mu}{\lambda + \mu}\right)^{n-k}. \end{aligned}$$

As such we have shown that  $X | X + Y = n \sim \text{Bin}\left(n, \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}\right)$ .

17.

18.

19. Prove formula (2.12)

20. Let  $X, Y \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$  be independent. Find the PDF for  $X - Y$  and  $X/Y$ .

21. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Exp}(\beta)$  be iid. Let  $Y = \max\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ . Find the PDF of  $Y$ . Hint:  $Y \leq y$  if and only if  $X_i \leq y$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

- To compute the PDF of  $Y$ , we first determine the CDF of  $Y$ :

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y \leq y) &= P(X_1 \leq y, \dots, X_n \leq y) \\ &\stackrel{1}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \leq y) \\ &\stackrel{2}{=} P(X_1 \leq y)^n \\ &= \left(1 - e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}\right)^n, \end{aligned}$$

where we have used (1) that the  $X_i$  are independent and (2) that they are identically distributed. Differentiating this with respect to  $y$  yields

$$\frac{d}{dy}P(Y \leq y) = n(1 - e^{-y/\beta})^{n-1} \frac{1}{\beta} e^{-y/\beta}.$$

### 1.3 Expectation

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
6. Prove Theorem 3.6 for discrete random variables
- 7.
8. Prove Theorem 3.17
9. (Computer Experiment) Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  random variables and let

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

Plot  $\bar{X}_n$  versus  $n$  for  $n = 1, \dots, 10000$ . Repeat for  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Cauchy}$ . Explain why there is such a difference.

```

• import numpy as np
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

n = 10000

samples = np.random.normal(size = n)
samples_cauchy = np.random.standard_cauchy(size = n)

x = (np.arange(n) + 1)

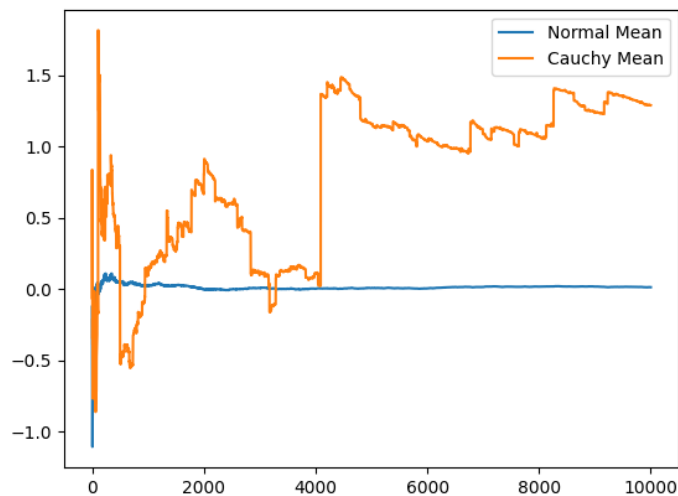
mean = np.cumsum(samples) / x
mean_cauchy = np.cumsum(samples_cauchy) / x

plt.plot(x, mean, label='Normal Mean')
plt.plot(x, mean_cauchy, label='Cauchy Mean')

plt.legend(loc='upper right')

plt.savefig("Ex3_9.png")

```



10.

11. (Computer Experiment: Simulating the Stock Market). Let  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots$  be independent random variables such that  $P(Y_i = 1) = P(Y_i = -1) = \frac{1}{2}$ . Let  $X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$ . Think of  $Y_i = 1$  as "the stock market increased by one dollar",  $Y_i = -1$  as "the stock market decreased by one dollar", and  $X_n$  as the value of the stock on day  $n$ .

(a) Find  $E(X_n)$  and  $Var(X_n)$ .

- By linearity  $E(X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n E(Y_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)\frac{1}{2} + (1)\frac{1}{2} = 0$ . Note that  $E(X_n)^2 = 0$ , as such  $Var(X_n) = E(X_n^2)$ . To calculate this note that

$$X_n^2 = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i < j} Y_i Y_j.$$

Because  $Y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$  it follows that  $E(Y_i^2) = 1$  and as such

$$E(X_n^2) = n + 2 \sum_{i < j} E(Y_i Y_j) = n + 2 \sum_{i < j} P(Y_i Y_j = +1) - P(Y_i Y_j = -1).$$

Note that  $Y_i Y_j = 1$  if and only if  $(Y_i, Y_j) \in \{(1, 1), (-1, -1)\}$  and  $Y_i Y_j = -1$  if and only if  $(Y_i, Y_j) \in \{(-1, 1), (1, -1)\}$ , as such both of those are equally liked. In total this means that

$$V(X_n) = E(X_n^2) = n.$$

- (b) Simulate  $X_n$  and plot  $X_n$  versus  $n$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 10000$ . Repeat the whole simulation several times. Notice two things. First, it's easy to "see" patterns in the sequence even though it is random. Second, you will find that the four runs look very different even though they were generated the same way. How do the calculations in (a) explain the second observation?

```

• import numpy as np
  import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

def Ex3_11(n = 10000, draw = True, save = False, i = 0):
    # 2*0 - 1 = -1, 2 * 1 -1 = 1
    rand = 2 * np.random.randint(low = 0, high = 2, size = n) - 1

    fig, ax = plt.subplots()
    ax.plot(range(0, n), np.cumsum(rand))

    if draw:
        plt.show()

    if save:
        fig.savefig(f"Ex3_11-{i}.png")

for i in range(4):
    Ex3_11(draw = True, save = True, i = i)

```

12.

## 1.4 Inequalities

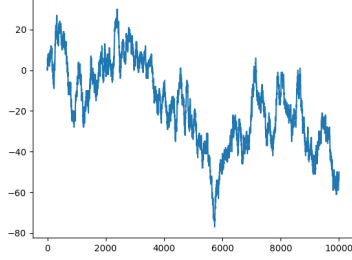
1. Let  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\beta)$ . Find  $P(|X - \mu_X| \geq k\sigma_X)$  for  $k > 1$ . Compare this to the bound you get from Chebyshev's inequality.
2. Let  $X \sim \text{Po}(\lambda)$ . Use Chebyshev's inequality to show that  $P(X \geq 2\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda}$ .
3. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  (note this is just  $\text{Bin}(1, p)$ ) and

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

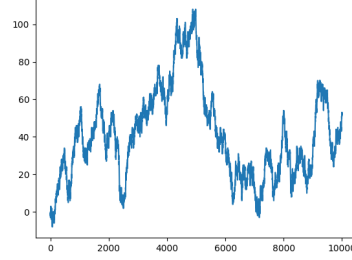
Bound  $P(|\bar{X}_n - p| > \varepsilon)$  using Chebyshev's inequality and using Hoeffding's inequality. Show that, when  $n$  is large, the bound from Hoeffding's inequality is smaller than the bound from Chebyshev's inequality.

4. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ .
  - (a) Let  $\alpha > 0$  be fixed and define

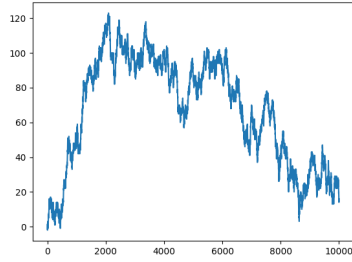
$$\varepsilon_n = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \left( \frac{2}{\alpha} \right)}.$$



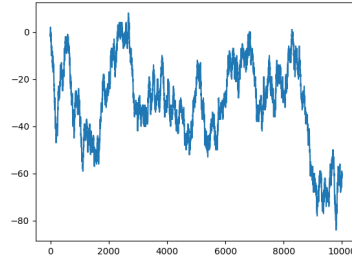
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Let  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Define  $C_n = (\bar{X}_n - \varepsilon, \bar{X}_n + \varepsilon)$ . Use Hoeffding's inequality to show that

$$P(C_n \text{ contains } p) \geq 1 - \alpha.$$

In practice, we truncate the interval so it does not go below 0 or above 1.

- Let

$$\varepsilon_n = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2n} \log \left( \frac{2}{\alpha} \right)},$$

then

$$\varepsilon_n^2 = \frac{1}{2n} \log \left( \frac{2}{\alpha} \right).$$

With that we can then calculate

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-2n\varepsilon^2} &= e^{-2n \frac{1}{2n} \log \left( \frac{2}{\alpha} \right)} \\ &= e^{-\log \left( \frac{2}{\alpha} \right)} \\ &= e^{\log \left( \frac{\alpha}{2} \right)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{2}. \end{aligned}$$



Recall that Hoeffding's inequality (the bernoulli case) states that

$$P(|\bar{X}_n - p| > \varepsilon_n) \leq 2e^{-2n\varepsilon_n^2}.$$

As such

$$P(|\bar{X} - p| > \varepsilon_n) \leq \alpha.$$

The left hand side is

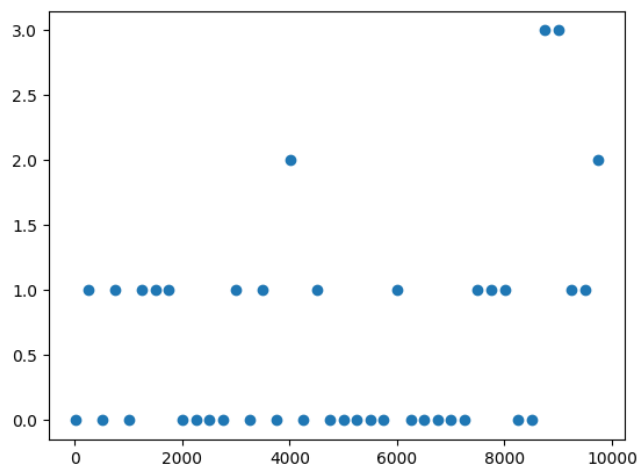
$$\begin{aligned} 1 - P(|\bar{X}_n - p| \leq \varepsilon_n) \\ &= 1 - P(\bar{X}_n - \varepsilon \leq p \leq \bar{X}_n + \varepsilon) \\ &= 1 - P(p \in C_n) = 1 - P(C_n \text{ contains } p). \end{aligned}$$

Putting everything together yields

$$1 - \alpha \leq P(C_n \text{ contains } p).$$

- (b) (Computer Experiment) Let's examine the properties of this confidence interval. Let  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $p = 0.4$ . Conduct a simulation study to see how often the interval contains  $p$  (called the coverage). Do this for various values of  $n$  between 1 and 10000. Plot the coverage versus  $n$ .

- For code see the next subproblem.



- (c) Plot the length of the interval versus  $n$ . Suppose we want the length of the interval to be no more than 0.05. How large should  $n$  be?

- `import numpy as np`  
`import matplotlib.pyplot as plt`

```

n_list = np.arange(start=1, step=250, stop=10000, dtype=int)
alpha = 0.05
p = 0.4

coverages, lengths = {}, {}
for n in n_list:
    eps = np.sqrt(np.log(2 / alpha) / (2 * n))

    coverage, length = 0, []
    for i in range(100):
        X = np.random.binomial(n = 1, p = p, size = n)
        mean = np.mean(X)

        if (p < (mean - eps)) or (p > (mean + eps)):
            coverage += 1

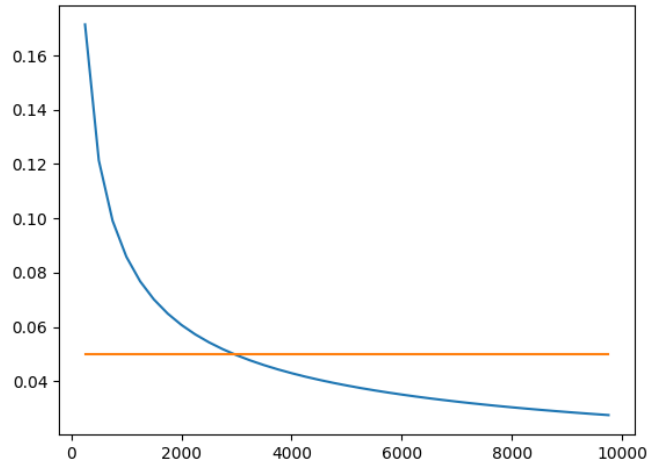
    length.append(2 * eps)

    coverages[n] = coverage
    lengths[n] = np.mean(length)

x = list(coverages.keys())
y_cov = list(coverages.values())
y_len = list(lengths.values())

plt.scatter(x, y)
plt.savefig("Ex4_4b.png")
plt.cla()
plt.plot(x[1:], y_len[1:]) # First length skews the plot heavily
plt.plot(x[1:], [0.05]*(len(x[1:]))) # Horizontal Line
plt.savefig("Ex4_4c.png")

```



5. Prove Mill's Inequality, Theorem 4.7. Hint. Note that  $P(|Z| > t) = 2P(Z > t)$ . Now write out what  $P(Z > t)$  means and note that  $x/t > 1$  whenever  $x > t$ .
6. Let  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . Find  $P(|Z| > t)$  and plot this as a function of  $t$ . From Markov's inequality, we have the bound

$$P(|Z| > t) \leq \frac{E(|Z|^k)}{t^k}$$

for any  $k > 0$ . Plot these bounds for  $k = 1, \dots, 5$  and compare them to the true value of  $P(|Z| > t)$ . Also, plot the bound from Mill's inequality.

7. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(0, 1)$ . Bound  $P(|\bar{X}_n| > t)$  using Mill's inequality, where

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

Compare to the Chebyshev bound.

## 1.5 Convergence of Random Variable

- 1.
2. Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of random variables. Show that  $X_n \xrightarrow{qm} b$  if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(X_n) = b, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} V(X_n) = 0.$$

3. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be IID and let  $\mu := E(X_1)$ . Suppose that the variance is finite. Show that  $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{qm} \mu$

4. Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of random variables such that

$$P\left(X_n = \frac{1}{n}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad P(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Does  $X_n$  converge in probability? Does  $X_n$  converge in quadratic mean?

5. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ . Prove that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \xrightarrow{P} p, \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \xrightarrow{qm} p.$$

6. Suppose that the height of men has mean 68 inches and standard deviation 2.6 inches. We draw 100 men at random. Find (approximately) the probability that the average height of men in our sample will be at least 68 inches.
7. Let  $\lambda_n = 1/n$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Let  $X_n \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_n)$ .

(a) Show that  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ .

(b) Let  $Y_n = nX_n$ . Show that  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$ .

8. Suppose we have a computer program consisting of  $n = 100$  pages of code. Let  $X_i$  be the number of errors on the  $i$ th page of code. Suppose that the  $X_i$  are Poisson with mean 1 and that they are independent. Let

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

be the total number of errors. Use the central limit theorem to approximate

$$P(Y < 90).$$

9.

10. Let  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . Let  $t > 0$ . Show that, for any  $k > 0$ ,

$$P(|Z| > t) \leq \frac{E|Z|^k}{t^k}.$$

Compare this to Mill's inequality in Chapter 4.

11. Suppose that  $X_n \sim N(0, 1/n)$  and let  $X$  be a random variable with distribution  $F(x) = 0$  if  $x < 0$  and  $F(x) = 1$  if  $x \geq 1$ . Does  $X_n$  converge to  $X$  in probability? (Prove or disprove). Does  $X_n$  converge to  $X$  in distribution? (Prove or disprove).

12. Let  $X, X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$  be random variables that are positive and integer valued. Show that  $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$  if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n = k) = P(X = k)$$

for every integer  $k$ .

13.

14. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ . Let  $Y_n = \overline{X}_n^2$ . Find the limiting distribution of  $Y_n$ .

15.

16. Construct an example where  $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$  and  $Y_n \rightsquigarrow Y$  but  $X_n + Y_n$  does not converge in distribution to  $X + Y$ .