



# Probability and Random Process

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Nov. 3 2020

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# Sample Mean

Now, let us consider a different estimation problem. Earlier, we have looked at the problem of estimating a RV,  $Y$ , from a given RV,  $X$ . Here, we try to get an estimate for the mean of the RV,  $X$ , given the repeated independent trials, or outcomes of  $X$ ,  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . So the  $X_i$ 's are iid with the same PDF as  $X$ .

One way to estimate  $\mu = E(X)$  is by using the sample mean:

$$\overset{\text{Average}}{\overline{X}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

The difference between this and the previous estimators is that here we are estimating a non-random quantity.

Three desirable qualities of an estimator of a non-random quantity are:

1. Unbiased:  $E\{\hat{\mu}\} = \mu$

A biased estimator would have:  $E\{\hat{\mu}\} = \mu + b$

2. Low MSE  $E\{(\hat{\mu} - \mu)^2\}$

Notice that if  $\hat{\mu}$  is unbiased, this is the variance of  $\hat{\mu}$ .

3. Consistency:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[|\hat{\mu}_n - \mu| > \varepsilon] = 0$  (Convergent in Prob.)



# Bias of the Sample Mean

Determine the bias of  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}$

$$E\{\bar{X}\} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i E\{X_i\} = \mu$$

Therefore,  $\bar{X}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu$ .

# MSE of the Sample Mean

MS<sup>2</sup>

$$\begin{aligned} E\left\{\left(\bar{X} - \mu\right)^2\right\} &= E\left\{\left[\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) - \mu\right]^2\right\} \\ &= E\left\{\left[\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right) - \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu\right)\right]^2\right\} \\ &= E\left\{\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)\right]^2\right\} \end{aligned}$$

# MSE of the Sample Mean

Use “the variance of the sum is the sum of the variances”  
for independent RVs

$$E\left\{\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)\right]^2\right\} = \frac{1}{n^2} E\left\{\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)\right]^2\right\} = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{var}(S_n)$$

where  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

$$\therefore MSE = \frac{1}{n^2} n \sigma_X^2 = \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n} = \sigma_{\bar{X}}^2$$

MSE decreases as  $n$  increases.



We can apply Chebyshev's inequality to  $\bar{X}$  :

We will use  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}$  in place of  $X$ :

$$P\left\{\left|\bar{X}_n - \mu\right| \geq \varepsilon\right\} \leq \frac{\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2}{\varepsilon^2}$$

$\frac{\sigma_X^2}{n\varepsilon^2} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Negate both sides and add one:

$$1 - P\left\{\left|\bar{X}_n - \mu\right| \geq \varepsilon\right\} \geq 1 - \frac{\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2}{\varepsilon^2}$$

$$P\left\{\left|\bar{X}_n - \mu\right| < \varepsilon\right\} \geq 1 - \frac{\sigma_X^2}{n\varepsilon^2}$$

For any choice of  $\varepsilon$  and probability  $1-\delta$ , we can select  $n$  high enough so that the probability ~~1- $\delta$~~  is at least  $1-\delta$  that  $\bar{X}$  is within  $\varepsilon$  of the true value.

*increase  $n$ .*

**Ex:** Noisy measurements of a constant but unknown voltage,  $v$ , are taken.

$$X_i = V + N_i, \text{ where } N_i \text{'s are iid, Gaussian,}$$

$$E(N_i) = 0, \quad \sigma_{N_i} = 1\mu V$$

How many measurements are required so that  $\bar{X}$  is within  $\varepsilon=0.5\mu V$  of the true mean with probability at least 0.99?

$$P\{|\bar{X}_n - \mu| < 0.5\mu V\} \geq 1 - \frac{\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2}{n \times (0.5\mu V)^2} = 0.99.$$

$$1 - \frac{\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2}{n \times 0.25\mu V^2} = 0.99$$

$$\frac{1}{0.25n} = 0.01$$

$$n = \frac{1}{0.0025} = 400$$

- The sample mean is a way to estimate a non-random quantity
- It is an unbiased estimator
- Its variance decreases by  $1/n$ , where  $n$  is the number of samples  
$$\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma_x^2}{n}$$
- It is a consistent estimator
- The Chebyshev Inequality can be applied to get a sometimes loose lower bound on the  $n$  required to achieve a certain quality in the estimate



# Convergence of Random Sequences

# Convergence of Random Sequences

Consider a sequence of RVs, each defined on the same sample space  $\mathcal{S}$

$$X_1(s), X_2(s), \dots, X_n(s), \dots$$

Each outcome in  $\mathcal{S}$  corresponds to a particular sequence of real numbers

5 types of convergence:

- Sure

- Almost-sure

- In probability

- Mean square

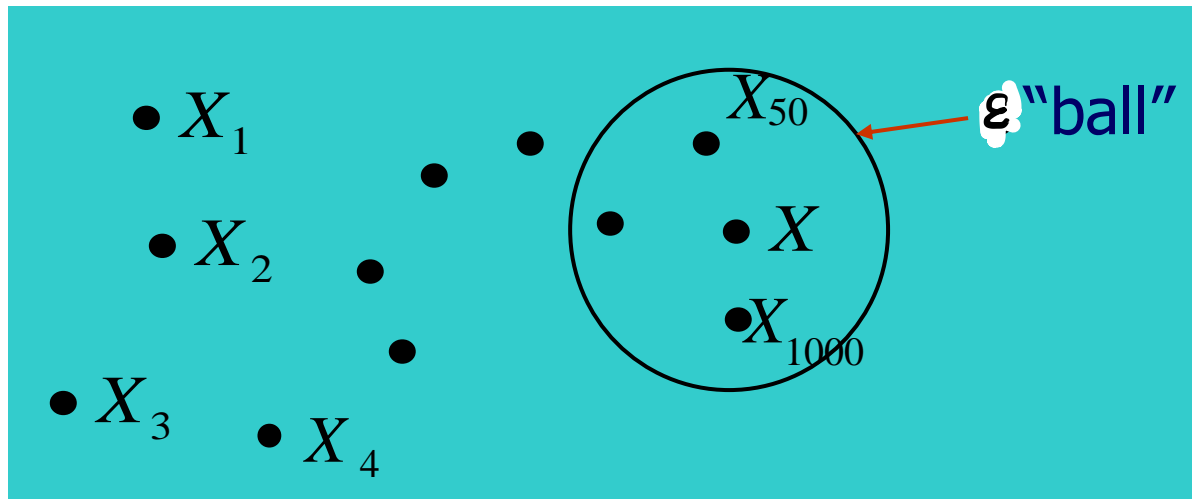
- In distribution

# Convergence of a Non-random Sequence

*"Sure" convergence*

$X_n \rightarrow X$  if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N(\varepsilon)$  such that

$$|X_n - X| < \varepsilon \text{ for } n > N(\varepsilon)$$



# Sure (s) Convergence

Also known as “Convergence Everywhere”

$$X(n, s) \rightarrow X(s) \text{ for all } s \in \mathbf{S}.$$

*Handwritten annotations:*  
- An arrow points from the text "element in sample space" to the variable  $s$  in  $X(n, s)$ .  
- An arrow points from the text "index" to the variable  $n$  in  $X(n, s)$ .

We may write  $X(n) \rightarrow X$  **surely**

Every outcome converges to its respective limit

# Almost Sure (a.s.) Convergence

Also known as

- “Convergence Almost Everywhere” (a.e.) or
- “with probability 1 (wp1)”:

$X(n, s) \rightarrow X(s)$  for all  $s \in \mathbf{A}$ , such that  $P(\mathbf{A}) = 1$

or

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

$$P(\{\omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\}) = 1$$

We may write  $X(n) \rightarrow X$  wp1, a.s. or a.e.

*except for several points, non-continuous*  
*not  $s$  but  $A$*   
 $A \subset \Omega, A \neq \Omega$

$$P(A) = 1$$



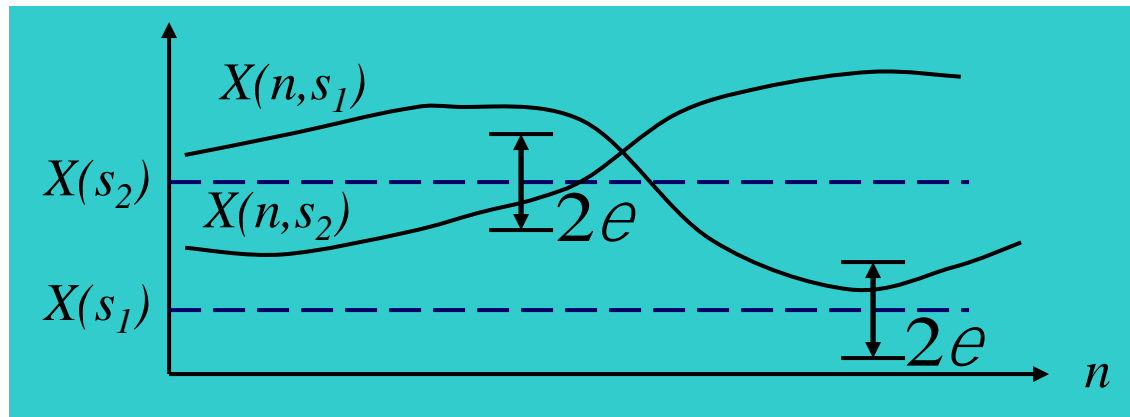
# Convergence in Probability (p)

For any  $\epsilon > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X(n) - X| > \epsilon) = 0$$

The limit is  
“on the  
outside”

This does not guarantee that any particular sample function converges.



# Example: p Does Not Imply a.s.

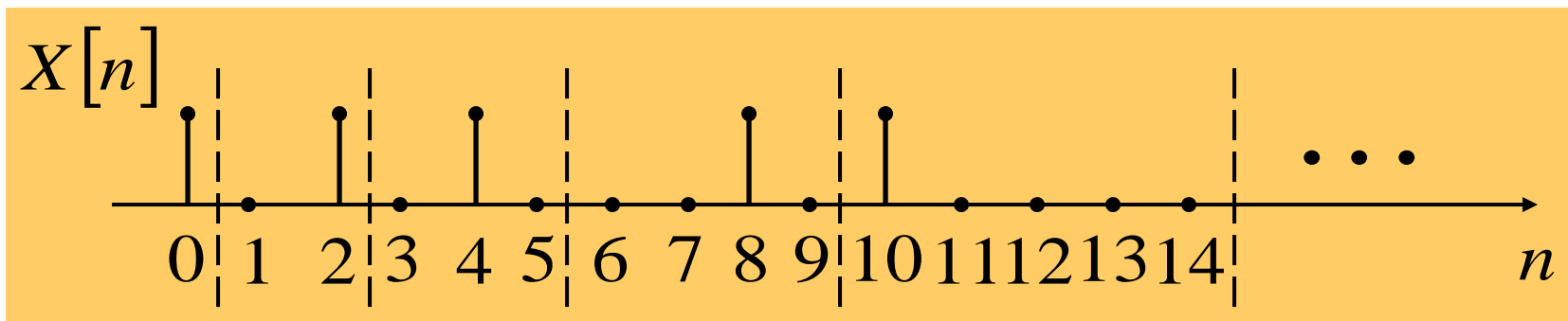
*almost sure*

Define a random binary pulse sequence  $X[n] \in \{0, 1\}$ , on  $n \geq 0$  as follows:

Set  $X[0] = 1$

Then for next two points, set exactly one of the  $X[n]$ 's to one, equally likely.

For the next three points, set exactly one to "one" and the others to "zero," and so forth.



## Example, Concluded

$$P(|X[n] - 0| > \varepsilon) = \frac{1}{m} \quad \text{for } \frac{(m-1)m}{2} \leq n < \frac{(m+1)m}{2}$$

For  $m=2$ , endpoints are 1 and 3.

For  $m=3$ , endpoints are 3 and 6.

$$P(|X[n] - 0| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

This sequence converges in probability  $\therefore X[n] \rightarrow 0$  (p)

Since no sequence outcome converges to zero,

$$\therefore X[n] \not\rightarrow 0 \text{ a.s.}$$

# Mean Square Convergence (MS)

$$E[(X(n, s) - X(s))^2] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Denoted: l.i.m.  $X_n = X$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$

“Average error power goes to zero”

# Relation Between MS and “In Probability”

Recall Markov's Inequality.  $X$  is a non-negative RV with mean  $m_X$ . For any  $a > 0$ ,

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

Now let  $Y$  be a RV and  $Y_n$  a sequence.

$$P(|Y_n - Y| > \varepsilon) = P([Y_n - Y]^2 > \varepsilon^2) < \frac{E\{[Y_n - Y]^2\}}{\varepsilon^2}$$

$$E\{[Y_n - Y]^2\} \rightarrow 0$$

MS

implies

$$P(|Y_n - Y| > \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$$

In probability

# Example

Let  $S=[0,1]$ , and let a point be selected at random.  
Consider the random sequence

$$Z(n, s) = e^{-n(ns-1)}$$

For  $s = 0$ , the sequence diverges *→ a single outcome diverge*

For  $s \neq 0$ , the sequence converges to zero

Therefore,  $Z(n) \rightarrow 0$  **wp1** *↓ with probability 1*

$$X(n, s) \rightarrow 0$$

$$A = [0, 1]$$

*→ almost sure*

# Example, Concluded

就算 converge surely  
也未\* converge in the mean square sense

$$\begin{aligned} E\left\{\left[e^{-n(ns-1)} - 0\right]^2\right\} &= \int_0^1 e^{-2n(ns-1)} ds = e^{2n} \int_0^1 e^{-2n^2 s} ds \\ &= e^{2n} \left. \frac{e^{-2n^2 s}}{-2n^2} \right|_0^1 \\ &= e^{2n} \left( \frac{e^{-2n^2} - 1}{-2n^2} \right) \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $Z(n,s)$  does not converge in the mean square sense

# Convergence In Distribution (d)

The CDFs of the RVs in the sequence converge to the CDF of the limiting RV

$$F_{X_n}(x) \rightarrow F_X(x) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

This is the weakest type of convergence



# Example: The CLT

*central limit theorem*

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of iid RVs with  $m < \infty, \sigma^2 < \infty$   
Consider

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad E\{S_n\} = n\mu \quad \text{var}\{S_n\} = n\sigma^2$$

Then  $Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}}$

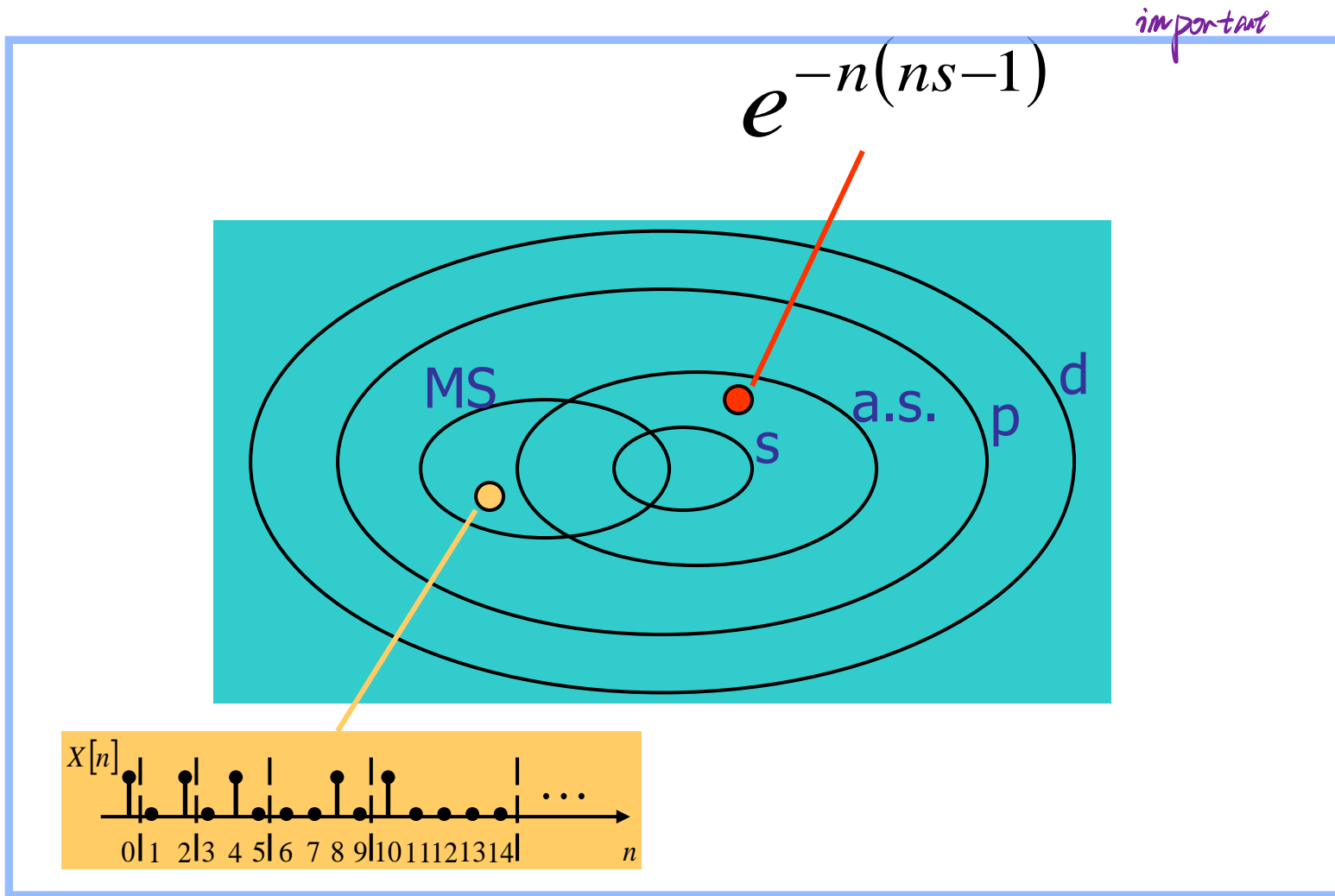
is a zero mean, unit variance version of  $S_n$ .

The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) says:

$$F_{Z_n}(z) \rightarrow F(z) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Recall  $F(z)$  is the standard normal CDF.

# Comparison



# Weak Law of Large Numbers

Let  $X_i, i=1,2,\dots,n$  be iid RVs with finite mean  $\mu$ . Then the sample mean

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \rightarrow \mu \quad \text{in probability, or}$$

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

This is the “Weak Law of Large Numbers”.

# Strong Law of Large Numbers

If  $X_i$ 's have finite variance in addition to finite mean, then we can strengthen the result:

$$P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \overline{X} = \mu\right) = 1 \quad \text{The limit is inside!}$$

This is the “Strong Law of Large Numbers”.

$X$  converges to  $\mu$  “with probability 1” or “almost surely.”

The strong and weak laws tell us that it pays to take a lot of measurements if you are trying to estimate the true mean.

Convergence of a random sequence is not as simple as convergence of a sequence of real numbers

There are a number of different senses of convergence, and they are not totally “nested” within one another

*M.S. is not nested.*

The Weak and Strong Laws of Large Numbers give us conditions for two different types of convergence of the sample mean to the true mean



# Central Limit Theorem

# Central Limit Theorem

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be a sequence of iid RVs with  $\mu < \infty, \sigma^2 < \infty$   
 Consider

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad E\{S_n\} = n\mu \quad \text{var}\{S_n\} = n\sigma^2$$

Then  $Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n\sigma^2}}$   $\frac{\frac{1}{n}S_n - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} = Z_n$

is a zero mean, unit variance version of  $S_n$ .

The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) says:

$$F_{Z_n}(z) \rightarrow \Phi(z) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Recall  $\Phi(z)$  is the standard normal CDF.

Can approximate sums of a large number of RVs as Gaussian RVs with appropriate  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$

## Example:

Raindrops have an expected weight of  $\mu_w$  and a weight std dev of  $\sigma_w$ . Approximate the probability that 1000 drops collected weight more than  $1,200 \mu_w$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(S_{1000} > 1200 \mu_w) &= P\left(Z_{1000} > \frac{200 \mu_w}{\sqrt{1000} \sigma_w}\right) \approx 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{200 \mu_w}{\sqrt{1000} \sigma_w}\right) \\
 &\quad \uparrow \text{CLT applied}
 \end{aligned}
 \qquad
 S_{1000} = \sum_{i=1}^{1000} W_i$$



# Sum of Bernoulli RVs

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

where the  $X_i$ 's are iid with:  $P(X_i = 1) = p$

$$P(X_i = 0) = 1 - p$$

Therefore,  $Y$  is a binomial RV with probability of success  $p$ .

If  $k \leq n$ , then

$$P(Y = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$$

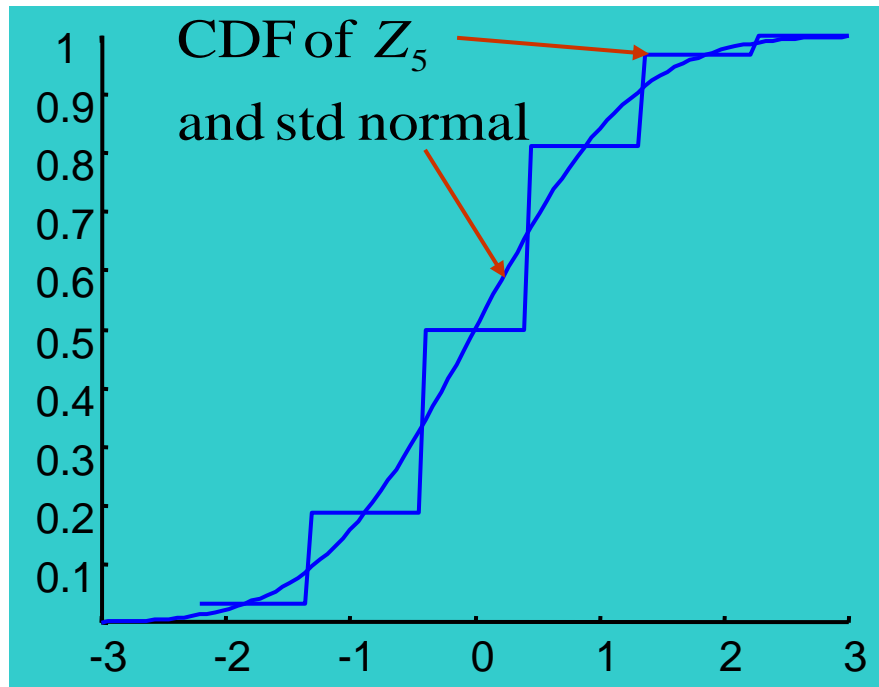
How to apply CLT?

$$= P(k \in Y \subset k+1)$$

# Graphical Illustration

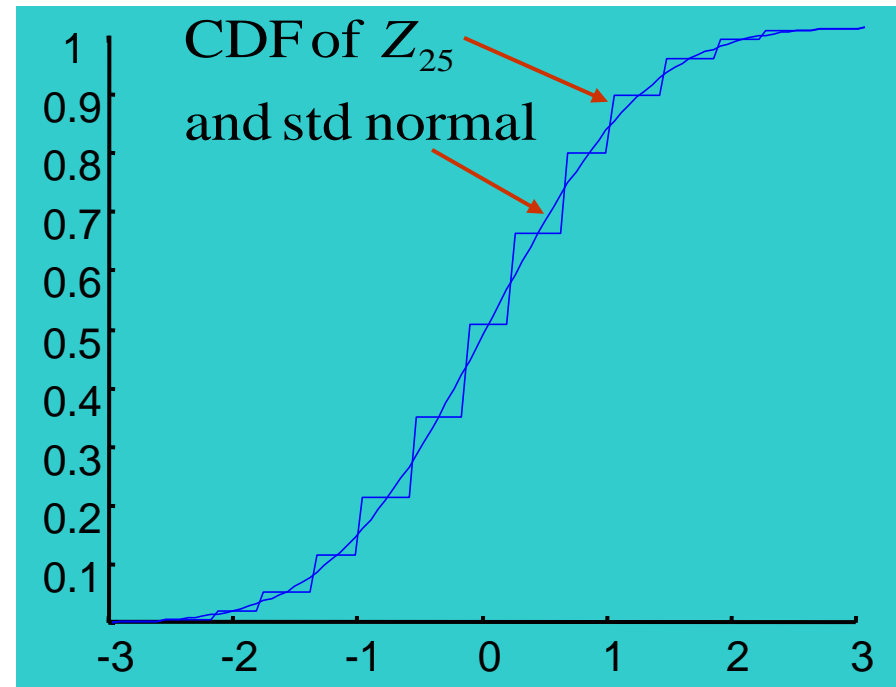
$$S_5 = \sum_{i=1}^5 X_i$$

$$Z_5 = \frac{S_5 - 5\mu}{\sqrt{5\sigma^2}}$$



$$S_{25} = \sum_{i=1}^{25} X_i$$

$$Z_{25} = \frac{S_{25} - 25\mu}{\sqrt{25\sigma^2}}$$





# Thank You!