

Thm Markov Inequality - relate deviation to mean. (start here: ⑤)
 If X is any non-negative r.v., then
 $P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E[X]}{a}$

No pgs (0-8.) 17
Thur. Apr 18/25

Proof:

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p(x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} x p(x) dx \quad \because X \geq 0$$

$$\geq \int_a^{\infty} x p(x) dx. \quad \text{for any } a \geq 0$$

$$\geq \int_a^{\infty} a p(x) dx$$

$$= a \cdot P(X \geq a).$$

$$\therefore P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E[X]}{a} \quad \text{for } a > 0.$$

See
 \Rightarrow SS
 for pos'ly
 discussit

Thm Chebyshew Inequality - relates deviation to variance.

If X is any rv \bar{c} finite variance (and so mean),
 then for any $k > 0$,

$$P(|X - E[X]| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

Proof:

- define $Y = (X - E[X])^2$.
- Y is non-negative (≥ 0 .)
- apply Markov

$$P(Y \geq b^2) \leq \frac{E[Y]}{b^2}$$

$$\text{but } E[Y] = \sigma^2$$

$$\rightarrow P(|X - E[X]| \geq b) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{b^2}$$

let $b = k\sigma$.

$$P(|X - E[X]| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$



- In Markov inequality why does the r.v. have to be strictly positive?
- Look at the chain of inequalities for general $X \in \mathbb{R}$, which could be negative.

$$\Rightarrow E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xp(x)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^0 xp(x) + \int_0^a xp(x) + \int_a^{\infty} xp(x).$$

(I) (II) (III)

→ replacing $x \rightarrow a$ in the integrand of (III) still gives the inequality:

$$E[X] \geq \int_{-\infty}^0 xp(a) + \int_0^a xp(x) + a \cdot \int_a^{\infty} p(x)$$

(I) (II) (III)

$$E[X] \geq \int_{-\infty}^0 xc \cdot p(x) + a \int_0^{\infty} p(x).$$

(I) (II)

remove (II)
for next inequality

→ this is the step that gets us into trouble if $p(x) > 0$ for $x < 0$.

⇒ We want $E[X] \geq a \cdot \int_a^{\infty} p(x)$ * for the inequality.

- but if X can be < 0 then (I) is negative and we can no longer claim (*).

e.g. If $e \geq a+b$ we can only claim $e \geq b$ if $a=0$.

or in numbers: $5 \geq 4+0.9$ & so $5 \geq 4$ & $5 \geq 0.9$

But $5 \geq -20+17$ but $5 \not\geq 17 \Rightarrow$ a negative term ruins it

- note Markov used mean of dist^a (1st order moment) $\leq \frac{a}{b}$
 Chebyshev "variance" (2nd order). $\geq \frac{\sigma^2}{b^2}$

→ can we use higher orders?

Yes → Chernoff Bound (tightest). → uses moment generating fn.

e.g. $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$.

$$\text{For } p = \frac{1}{4} : P(X \geq \frac{3n}{4}) \leq \frac{2}{3} \quad \text{Markov.}$$

⇒ Goto
6.5

$$P(X \geq \frac{3n}{4}) \leq \frac{1}{3n} \quad \text{Chebyshev.}$$

~~$$P(X \geq \frac{3n}{4}) \leq \left(\frac{16}{27}\right)^{\frac{n}{4}} 3^{-n/2} \quad \text{Chernoff.}$$~~

from 6.5

Law of Large Numbers & weak version.

Defn: For iid r.v.'s X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , the sample mean is

$$\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}.$$

• note, \bar{X} is itself a rv. ∞ a mean & variance,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mean: } E[\bar{X}] &= \frac{E[X_1] + E[X_2] + \dots + E[X_n]}{n} \\ &= \frac{n \cdot E[X]}{n} \\ &= E[X]. \end{aligned}$$

Variance: recall for iid $\text{var}(X+Y) = \text{var}X + \text{var}Y$
 $\text{var}(ax) = a^2 \text{var}X$

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{\text{Var}(X_1) + \dots + \text{Var}(X_n)}{n^2} = \text{var}\left(\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}\right)$$

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

$$= \frac{\text{var}(X)}{n}.$$

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Chernoff Bound

- another (tighter!) bound on tail prob's of a dist².

→ we used first & second moments (mean & var.) to get tail prob's. → this uses all of them.

Def^a: the n'th moment of a r.v. X is:

$$\mathbb{E}[X^n]$$

The n'th central moment is:

$$\mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}X)^n]$$

Def^a: the moment generating function of a r.v. X is a function $M_X(s)$:

$$M_X(s) = \mathbb{E}[e^{sX}]$$

Why would you do this → let's read off the moments of X from the coeffs of the Taylor Exp
→ just take derivatives.

$$\text{recall } e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$$

∴ X is real:

$$e^{sX} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(sX)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s^k}{k!} X^k$$

k'th-moment!

$$M_X(s) = \mathbb{E}[e^{sX}] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s^k}{k!} \mathbb{E}[X^k]$$

So given the function $M_X(s)$, we can read off the k'th moment:

$$\mathbb{E}[X^k] = \left. \frac{d}{ds^k} M_X(s) \right|_{s=0}$$

Example:

(6.6)

Useful fact: MGF of sums of r.v.

Say $Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ where X_i are indep. but can have different dist's.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } M_Y(s) &= \mathbb{E}[e^{sY}] \\ &= \mathbb{E} e^{s(X_1 + \dots + X_n)} \\ &= \mathbb{E} e^{sX_1} \cdot e^{sX_2} \cdots e^{sX_n} \\ &= \mathbb{E} e^{sX_1} \cdot \mathbb{E} e^{sX_2} \cdots \mathbb{E} e^{sX_n} \quad (\because \text{independent}). \end{aligned}$$

$$M_Y(s) = M_{X_1}(s) \cdot M_{X_2}(s) \cdots M_{X_n}(s)$$

• iff the X_i are iid:

$$M_Y(s) = M_X(s)^n$$

Example: Binomial(n, p) - n coin flips \bar{c} with weight p $(0,1)$ outcomes.

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots + X_n$$

Where each $X_i \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$: 1 \bar{c} prob. p .

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow M_{X_i}(s) &= p \cdot e^{s \cdot 1} + q \cdot e^{s \cdot 0} \\ &= pe^s + q \end{aligned}$$

$$M_X(s) = (pe^s + q)^n$$

$$\text{check } \left. \frac{d}{ds} M_X(s) \right|_{s=0} = \left. pe^s \right|_{s=0} \cdot p = \text{the mean, as expected.}$$

Back to Chernoff Bound

- we use the MGF to capture the moments & apply Markov's inequality to the expectation.

- if X is a r.v., then for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$ we have,

$$P(X \geq a) = P(e^{sX} \geq e^a), \text{ for } s > 0$$

$$P(X \leq a) = P(e^{sX} \geq e^a) \text{ for } s < 0.$$

- note e^{sX} is a positive r.v. for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$.

- Markov's inequality $\rightarrow P(X \geq a) = P(e^{sX} \geq e^a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E} e^{sX}}{e^a}, s > 0$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{P(X \geq a) \leq e^{-sa} M_X(s), s > 0}$$

$$P(X \leq a) \leq e^{-sa} M_X(s), s < 0$$

- note: this holds for all s values \rightarrow we can choose an optimal one freely.

$$\boxed{P(X \geq a) \leq \min_{s > 0} e^{-sa} M_X(s)}$$

Example: Bernoulli(n, p) - n coin flips, $1 \in \text{prob } p$

$$M_X(s) = (pe^s + q)^n \quad 0 \in " \quad q = 1 - p.$$

$$P(X \geq a) \leq e^{-sa} (pe^s + q)^n$$

\rightarrow take deriv. of rhs & solve for optimal s :

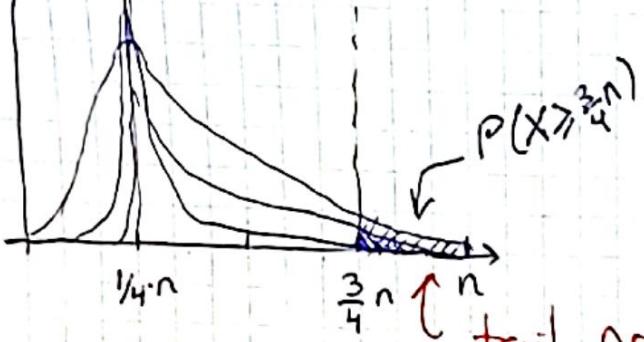
$$e^{S_0} = \frac{aq}{p(n-a)}$$

$$\cdot \text{ for } a = \frac{3}{4}n, p = 1/4 \therefore$$

$$\boxed{P(X \geq \frac{3}{4}n) \leq 3^{-n/2.}}$$

- decays exponentially with n .

Bernoulli:
 $(n, 1/4)$
 p''



$P(X > \frac{3}{4}n)$
tail prob. \downarrow with n .

Markov. $P(X \geq \frac{3}{4}n) \leq \frac{1}{3}$ - constant

Chebyshev: $P(X \geq \frac{3}{4}n) \leq \frac{1}{3n} = (3n)^{-1}$ - negative power

Chernoff: $P(X > \frac{3}{4}n) \leq 3^{-\frac{n}{2}}$ - negative exponential

- this is just the ^{empirical} average of n flips
tightening about the pop[^] mean as
we do more & more measurements.



The WLLN: - says the tail prob'g of the empirical mean' $\xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$ (7)

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be iid r.v.'s with finite mean $\mathbb{E} X_i = \mu$.

Then $\forall \epsilon > 0$,

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

Proof: Apply Chebychev's inequality:

$$\text{CE: } P(|\bar{X} - \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}]| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2}.$$

$$\text{So, } P(|\bar{X} - \mu| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{\text{var}(\bar{X})}{\epsilon^2}$$

$$P(|\bar{X} - \mu| > \epsilon) = \frac{\text{var}(\bar{X})}{n \epsilon^2}$$

$\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for any $\epsilon > 0$.

Why "weak"?

Jensen's Inequality

Ex., Recall the variance of a r.v. is positive.

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \text{Var}(X) &= \mathbb{E}(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X^2 - 2X\mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[X]^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}X^2 - (\mathbb{E}X)^2 \\ &> 0\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \mathbb{E}[X^2] > (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$$

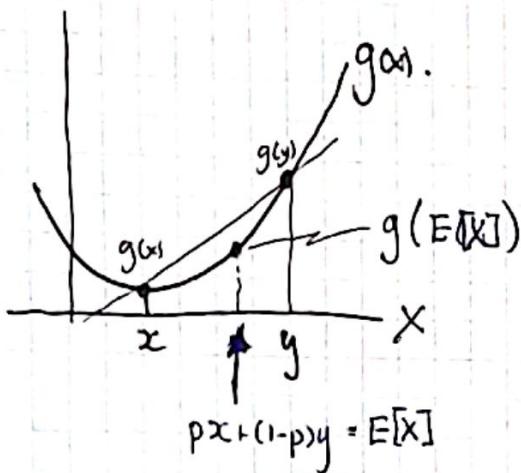
• defining $g(x) = x^2$ we have:

$$\mathbb{E}[g(x)] \geq g(\mathbb{E}[x])$$

\rightarrow this turns out to hold for general convex g .

Defⁿ: A fn in one variable is convex if the line segment connecting any two pts. on the graph lie completely above the graph. (8)

Convex Function:



- not a proof but makes it easy to remember.

- say we have a pmf on the two values $x \sim x$ & y .

$$x \sim \text{prob. } p$$

$$y \sim \text{prob. } q = 1-p$$

$$\rightarrow E[X] = px + qy$$

- lies btwn x & y

$$px + qy = \text{convex combi of } x \text{ & } y. = E[g(X)]$$

- now look at $g(x)$ & $g(y)$.

- their convex sum $= p g(x) + q g(y)$ lies on the line connecting $(x, g(x))$ & $(y, g(y))$ in the graph.

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow (x, g(x)) \rightarrow (px, pg(x)) \\ (y, g(y)) \rightarrow (qy, qg(y)) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{convex combi} \\ \hline E[X] \end{array} \right\} \quad \begin{aligned} (px + qy, pg(x) + qg(y)) \\ \hline E[g(X)] \end{aligned}$$

Note $(px,$

- by the defⁿ of a convex fn the line connecting the two pts lies above the fn.

$$\therefore g(E[X]) \leq E[g(X)] \quad \text{for convex } g(x).$$

\rightarrow generalizes to multiple variables, discrete or conts in the obvious way.

\rightarrow called Jensen's Inequality.

ASYMPTOTIC EQUIPARTITION THEORY

Converse result: "impossibly", you cannot do better
Achievability: non-constructive, show a code exists.

- follows from Law of Large Numbers:

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- Let X_1, X_2, \dots be an iid sequence with a finite mean $\mathbb{E}_x[X] = \mu < \infty$

- Let $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ be the running ^{sample} mean for $n=1, 2, \dots$

- The $\{\bar{X}_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ form a sequence of r.v.'s themselves.

- The sequence $\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2, \dots$ converges to the distribution mean, μ , in the sense: For all $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon) = 0 \quad \text{or } \bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{\text{prob}} \mu \text{ in probability}$$

- the probability the sample mean diverges from

- the pop^a goes to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. - the sample mean is

- this is precisely why "taking the average" ^{unlikely to be far off from the true mean, μ .} is a good estimate of the true pop^a mean.

Example: Polling Problem

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- you have a referendum & a fraction p of the pop^c is going to vote 'Yes'

Problem: conduct a poll & estimate $p \rightarrow$ how many to poll?

- we could do the whole pop^c but that's just conducting the referendum.

- randomly sample the pop^c uniformly

- i^{th} person returns $X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{'Yes'} \\ 0 & \text{'No'} \end{cases}$

- note $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = p$ (unknown).

- $\bar{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} = \text{fraction of 'Yes' in the sample.}$

- Your boss wants you to predict p but there will always be some error if $n < N_{\text{pop}}$.

- so he asks for an estimate \bar{c} a small error. Say,

$$|\bar{X}_n - p| < 0.01 \quad (1\%)$$

→ he wants this guaranteed!

- let's say you sample $n = 10,000$

- but you can't really meet the guarantee!

- say you accidentally polled every who say 'No'

→ there is a $(1-p)^n$ chance of this happening

→ you can't give a guarantee in absolute terms of an error. that it will be small

- instead you can offer this:

I cannot guarantee \bar{c} certainty the error will be small, but,
I can guarantee that the error will be small \bar{c} high probability.

OP

$$P(|\bar{X}_{1000} - p| > 0.01) \leq \text{something "small"}$$

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- to get a handle on the rhs recall Chebyshev's Inequality

$$P(|Y - \mathbb{E}[Y]| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\epsilon^2}.$$

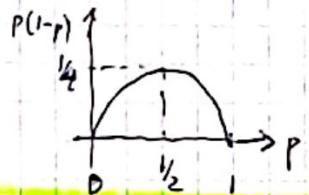
Here $Y = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} = \bar{X}_n$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = p$$

$$\sigma_Y^2 = \text{Var}(Y) = \frac{\sigma_{x_i}^2}{n}$$

So, $P(|\bar{X}_{1000} - p| > 0.01) \leq \frac{\sigma_{x_i}^2}{n\epsilon^2} \leftarrow \text{recall } \sigma_{x_i}^2 = p(1-p).$

$$P(|\bar{X}_{1000} - p| > 0.01) \leq \frac{p(1-p)}{10 \cdot 10^{-4}} = .p(1-p) \leq \frac{1}{4}.$$



- * So, we can say if we sample 10,000 people the error being more than 1% occurs with less than 25% prob.

→ if we want the prob. of an error greater than 0.01 to be less than 5% → take $n = 50,000$.

→ so the prob. of a large error (> 0.01) less than 5% requires $n = 50,000$ sample size.

→ you get a trade off in parameters:

$$P(|\bar{X}_n - p| > \epsilon) \leq \frac{1}{4n\epsilon^2}$$

or: $P(|\bar{X}_n - p| > \epsilon) \leq S \text{ where } S = \frac{1}{4n\epsilon^2}$

Shop signs:

- good
- cheap
- fast

⇒ Pick Two

Convergence of Random Variables

- we all get concepts of convergence in high school & first year calculus.
 \Rightarrow how to apply these to sequences of r.v.'s?

Recall WLLN's:

For any $\epsilon > 0$, $P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| > \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

- we'd like to say the " \bar{X}_n converges to μ "
- need to define the word converges.
 \rightarrow use the WLLN's! to motivate the defn.

Defn: Convergence in Probability.

A sequence Y_n converges in probability to a scalar a if:

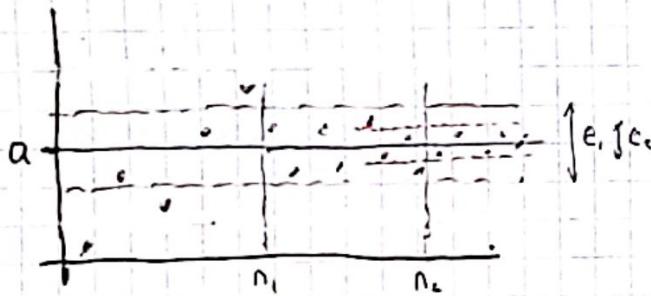
$$\boxed{\text{For any } \epsilon > 0, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|Y_n - a| > \epsilon) = 0.}$$

- write $Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{ip}} a$.
- so the WLLN's states: $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{ip}} \mu$

A Picture: Compare to ordinary idea of convergence of a sequence of numbers.

- recall we say a sequence: $a_n \rightarrow a$
when a_n gets arbitrarily close and stays close to a eventually.

- Ordinary Sequence: $a_n \rightarrow a$ (a number):
“ a_n gets arbitrarily close to a and stays close to a ”.



- for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists N_0 such that for every $n \geq N_0$, we have $|a_n - a| \leq \epsilon$.

- Convergence in Probability 15

Sequence: $Y_n \rightarrow a$

“the prob. Y_n falls outside a ϵ -band around a falls to 0.”

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, P(|Y_n - a| \geq \epsilon) \rightarrow 0$$



- almost all the prob. of Y_n eventually gets concentrated arbitrarily close to a .

Some Properties of cip.

- parallel properties of convergence in sequences.

Suppose $X_n \xrightarrow{ip} a$, $Y_n \xrightarrow{ip} b$ in probability: (no assumption of indep. within the X_n 's & Y_n sequences or with each other).

① If $g(\cdot)$ is continuous, then $\underset{\text{new r.v.'s}}{\overset{\uparrow}{g(X_n)}} \rightarrow g(a)$

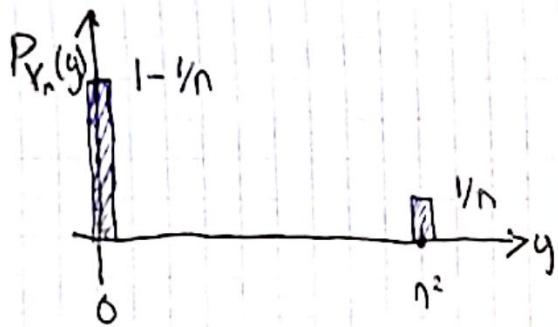
② $X_n + Y_n \rightarrow a + b$

- Note: Even if $X_n \xrightarrow{ip} a$, it does not mean

$$E[X_n] \rightarrow a$$

“convergence ip of rv's does not imply convergence of expectations”
(will see in example)

Example 1. - discrete r.v.



$$P(Y_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

$$P(Y_n = n^2) = \frac{1}{n}$$

→ most prob. concentrated at 0
but still a small prob. at large value.

- intuitively you'd think $Y_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{ip.}} 0$.
- check the def[△]:

- choose $\epsilon > 0$ & find $P(|Y_n - 0| \geq \epsilon)$.

- see if it $\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\rightarrow \text{clearly } P(|Y_n - 0| \geq \epsilon) = P(Y_n \geq \epsilon)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{for } n \text{ large enough}$$

$$\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\text{So, } Y_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{ip.}} 0$$

- So, what is $E[Y_n]$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$?

$$E[Y_n] = 0 \cdot P(Y_n = 0) + n^2 \cdot P(Y_n = n^2)$$

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

$$= n$$

$$\rightarrow \infty \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

convergence i.p. $\not\rightarrow$ convergence in expectation
"fat tails"

- i.p. has to do w/ the bulk of the prob. \rightarrow only cares if the tail $\rightarrow 0$
- expectation is sensitive to outliers
 \rightarrow the tail prob. may be small but it's assigned to large values.

Example 2

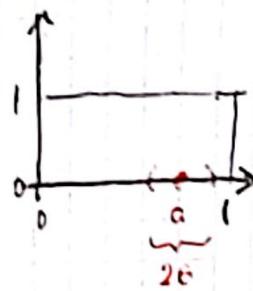
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i) Choose $X_i \sim \text{iid uniform on } [0, 1]$

- are the X_i convergent to a value?

No. Choose any $a \in [0, 1]$

No matter what ϵ interval you place around it there is always a finite prob. of $1-2\epsilon$ that sequence values will fall outside it.



ii) Choose a related r.v.:

$Y_n = \min\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ the minimum of the first n values of the sequence.

• notice Y_n can only decrease

$$Y_{n+1} \leq Y_n$$

• since it is bounded below by 0 - it seems reasonable to think it converges to 0.

Check:

① guess $a = 0$

② pick some $\epsilon > 0$.

③ evaluate $P(|Y_n - a| > \epsilon)$.

$$\rightarrow P(|Y_n - 0| > \epsilon) = P(Y_n > \epsilon) \quad \leftarrow \text{need to show } \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Two cases: if $\epsilon > 1 \therefore P(Y_n \geq 1^+) = 0$ ✓

$0 < \epsilon \leq 1$ if $P(Y_n \geq \epsilon) = P(X_1 \geq \epsilon) P(X_2 \geq \epsilon) \cdots P(X_n \geq \epsilon)$. (\because iid)

$$= (1-\epsilon)^n \quad \leftarrow 1-\epsilon < 1$$

$\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$\therefore Y_n = \min\{X_1, \dots, X_n\} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$