

Computer Simulation

Module 2: Calculus, Probability, and Statistics Primers

Dave Goldsman, Ph.D.

Professor

Stewart School of Industrial and Systems Engineering

Great Expectations

Lesson Overview

Last Time: We took a brief detour to show how to simulate some easy random variables.

This Time: Back to the formal Probability Review. This module is all about expected values.

Pay particular attention to the LOTUS blossom that you'll soon see!



Definition: The *expected value* (or *mean*) of a RV X is

$$E[X] \equiv \begin{cases} \sum_x x f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \end{cases} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x dF(x).$$

Example: Suppose that $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. Then

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with prob. } p \\ 0 & \text{with prob. } 1 - p (= q) \end{cases}$$

and we have $E[X] = \sum_x x f(x) = p$. □

Example: Suppose that $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$. Then

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a < x < b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and we have $E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) dx = (a + b)/2$. \square

Example: Suppose that $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$. Then

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and we have (after integration by parts and L'Hôpital's Rule)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} x \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \frac{1}{\lambda}. \quad \square$$

Def/Thm (the “Law of the Unconscious Statistician” or “LOTUS”): Suppose that $h(X)$ is some function of the RV X . Then

$$E[h(X)] = \begin{cases} \sum_x h(x)f(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is disc} \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)f(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is cts} \end{cases} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) dF(x).$$

The function $h(X)$ can be anything “nice”, e.g., $h(X) = X^2$ or $1/X$ or $\sin(X)$ or $\ln(X)$.

Example: Suppose X is the following discrete RV:

x	2	3	4
$f(x)$	0.3	0.6	0.1

Then $E[X^3] = \sum_x x^3 f(x) = 8(0.3) + 27(0.6) + 64(0.1) = 25$. \square

Example: Suppose $X \sim \text{Unif}(0, 2)$. Then

$$E[X^n] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^n f(x) dx = 2^n / (n+1). \quad \square$$

Definitions: $E[X^n]$ is the *n*th *moment* of X .

$E[(X - E[X])^n]$ is the *n*th *central moment* of X .

$\text{Var}(X) \equiv E[(X - E[X])^2]$ is the *variance* of X .

The *standard deviation* of X is $\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$.

Theorem: $\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$ (sometimes easier to calculate this way).

Example: Suppose $X \sim \text{Bern}(p)$. Recall that $E[X] = p$. Then

$$E[X^2] = \sum_x x^2 f(x) = p \quad \text{and}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 = p(1-p). \quad \square$$

Example: Suppose $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$. By LOTUS,

$$E[X^n] = \int_0^\infty x^n \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = n!/\lambda^n.$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 = \frac{2}{\lambda^2} - \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 = 1/\lambda^2. \quad \square$$

Theorem: $E[aX + b] = aE[X] + b$ and $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2\text{Var}(X)$.

Example: If $X \sim \text{Exp}(3)$, then

$$E[-2X + 7] = -2E[X] + 7 = -\frac{2}{3} + 7.$$

$$\text{Var}(-2X + 7) = (-2)^2\text{Var}(X) = \frac{4}{9}. \quad \square$$

Just a Moment!

We've gotten through most of the good stuff with respect to expectations.

I'll do one more topic – [moment generating functions](#), which are useful for a variety of reasons.

This stuff is a little more challenging, so that's why I've taken a little break.



Definition: $M_X(t) \equiv E[e^{tX}]$ is the *moment generating function* (mgf) of the RV X . ($M_X(t)$ is a function of t , *not* of X !)

Example: $X \sim \text{Bern}(p)$. Then

$$M_X(t) = E[e^{tX}] = \sum_x e^{tx} f(x) = e^{t \cdot 1} p + e^{t \cdot 0} q = pe^t + q.$$

Example: $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$. Then

$$M_X(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{tx} f(x) dx = \lambda \int_0^{\infty} e^{(t-\lambda)x} dx = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \quad \text{if } \lambda > t.$$

Theorem: Under certain technical conditions,

$$\mathbb{E}[X^k] = \left. \frac{d^k}{dt^k} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Thus, you can *generate* the moments of X from the mgf.

Moment generating functions have many other important uses, some of which we'll talk about in this course.

Example: $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$. Then $M_X(t) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}$ for $\lambda > t$. So

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \left. \frac{d}{dt} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0} = \left. \frac{\lambda}{(\lambda-t)^2} \right|_{t=0} = 1/\lambda.$$

Further,

$$\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \left. \frac{d^2}{dt^2} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0} = \left. \frac{2\lambda}{(\lambda-t)^3} \right|_{t=0} = 2/\lambda^2.$$

Thus,

$$\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 = \frac{2}{\lambda^2} - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} = 1/\lambda^2. \quad \square$$

Summary

Those expectations were certainly great, eh? Especially LOTUS!

Next Time: Suppose you know everything about a random variable. But what can you say if you square it? Or take the log? We'll look at arbitrary functions of RVs. These play important roles in simulation.



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Dave Goldsman, Ph.D.

Professor

Stewart School of Industrial and Systems Engineering

Functions of a Random
Variable



Lesson Overview

Last Time: The lesson certainly had its moments! And mgf's!

This Time: If you know everything about a RV, what can you say about *functions* of the RV?

This has huge implications throughout the course, e.g., in RV generation.



Problem: Suppose we have a RV X with pmf/pdf $f(x)$. Let $Y = h(X)$. Find $g(y)$, the pmf/pdf of Y .

Examples (take my word for it for now):

If $X \sim \text{Nor}(0, 1)$, then $Y = X^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$.

If $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$, then $Y = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln(U) \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$.

Discrete Example: Let X denote the number of H 's from two coin tosses. We want the pmf for $Y = X^3 - X$.

x	0	1	2
$f(x)$	1/4	1/2	1/4
$y = x^3 - x$	0	0	6

This implies that $g(0) = P(Y = 0) = P(X = 0 \text{ or } 1) = 3/4$ and $g(6) = P(Y = 6) = 1/4$. In other words,

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 3/4 & \text{if } y = 0 \\ 1/4 & \text{if } y = 6 \end{cases} . \quad \square$$

Continuous Example: Suppose X has pdf $f(x) = |x|$, $-1 \leq x \leq 1$. Find the pdf of $Y = X^2$.

First of all, the cdf of Y is

$$\begin{aligned} G(y) &= P(Y \leq y) \\ &= P(X^2 \leq y) \\ &= P(-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y}) \\ &= \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} |x| dx = y, \quad 0 < y < 1. \end{aligned}$$

The pdf of Y is $g(y) = G'(y) = 1$, so that $Y \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$. \square

Inverse Transform Theorem: Suppose X is a continuous random variable having cdf $F(x)$. Then, amazingly, $F(X) \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$.

Proof: Let $Y = F(X)$. Then the cdf of Y is

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y \leq y) &= P(F(X) \leq y) \\ &= P(X \leq F^{-1}(y)) \\ &= F(F^{-1}(y)) = y, \end{aligned}$$

which is the cdf of the $\text{Unif}(0, 1)$. \square

This result is of great importance when it comes to generating RV's during a simulation.

Example (how to generate exponential RV's): Suppose $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$, with cdf $F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$.

So the Inverse Transform Theorem implies that

$$F(X) = 1 - e^{-\lambda X} \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1).$$

Let $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ and set $F(X) = U$. Then we have

$$X = \frac{-1}{\lambda} \ln(1 - U) \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda).$$

For instance, if $\lambda = 2$ and $U = 0.27$, then $X = 0.157$ is an $\text{Exp}(2)$ realization. \square

Exercise: Suppose that X has the Weibull distribution with cdf

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-(\lambda x)^\beta}, x > 0.$$

If you set $F(X) = U$ and solve for X , show that you get

$$X = \frac{1}{\lambda} [-\ln(1 - U)]^{1/\beta}.$$

Now pick your favorite λ and β , and use this result to generate values of X . In fact, make a histogram of your X values. Are there any interesting values of λ and β you could've chosen?

Bonus Time!

This has been a tough lesson so far.

But if you're stout of heart, you can take a look at one more **bonus result...**

...or just skip ahead to the Summary. No harm, no foul!



Bonus Theorem: Here's another way to get the pdf of $Y = h(X)$ for some nice continuous function $h(\cdot)$. The cdf of Y is

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(h(X) \leq y) = P(X \leq h^{-1}(y)).$$

By the chain rule (and since a pdf must be ≥ 0), the pdf of Y is

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = f_X(h^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} h^{-1}(y) \right|.$$

And now, here's how to prove LOTUS!

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_Y(y) dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_X(h^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} h^{-1}(y) \right| dy$$

“=” $\int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_X(h^{-1}(y)) dh^{-1}(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) f_X(x) dx.$ □

Summary

We looked at the distributions of functions of RVs. Along the way, we used the Inverse Transform Theorem to turn $\text{Unif}(0,1)$'s into arbitrary continuous distributions – very useful in simulation!

Next Time: If you liked one RV, you'll simply *love* two! Joint RVs around the corner...



Computer Simulation

Module 2: Calculus, Probability, and Statistics Primers

Dave Goldsman, Ph.D.

Professor

Stewart School of Industrial and Systems Engineering

Jointly Distributed Random
Variables



Lesson Overview

Last Time: Looked at functions of RVs and the Inverse Transform Method for generating RVs from $\text{Unif}(0,1)$'s.

This Time: We'll review two-dimensional RVs that may be correlated with each other.
Think height and weight!

In simulation, think consecutive correlated waiting times.



Idea: Consider two random variables interacting together — think height and weight.

Definition: The *joint cdf* of X and Y is

$$F(x, y) \equiv P(X \leq x, Y \leq y), \quad \text{for all } x, y.$$

Remark: The *marginal cdf* of X is $F_X(x) = F(x, \infty)$. (We use the X subscript to remind us that it's just the cdf of X all by itself.) Similarly, the *marginal cdf* of Y is $F_Y(y) = F(\infty, y)$.

Definition: If X and Y are discrete, then the *joint pmf* of X and Y is $f(x, y) \equiv P(X = x, Y = y)$. Note that $\sum_x \sum_y f(x, y) = 1$.

Remark: The *marginal pmf* of X is

$$f_X(x) = P(X = x) = \sum_y f(x, y).$$

The *marginal pmf* of Y is

$$f_Y(y) = P(Y = y) = \sum_x f(x, y).$$

Example: The following table gives the joint pmf $f(x, y)$, along with the accompanying marginals.

$f(x, y)$	$X = 2$	$X = 3$	$X = 4$	$f_Y(y)$
$f_{Y X}(y x)$	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.6
$f_{X Y}(x y)$	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4
$f_X(x)$	0.4	0.4	0.2	1

Definition: If X and Y are continuous, then the *joint pdf* of X and Y is $f(x, y) \equiv \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F(x, y)$. Note that $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x, y) dx dy = 1$.

Remark: The *marginal pdf's* of X and Y are

$$f_X(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x, y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad f_Y(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x, y) dx.$$

Example: Suppose the joint pdf is

$$f(x, y) = \frac{21}{4}x^2y, \quad x^2 \leq y \leq 1.$$

Then the marginal pdf's are:

$$f_X(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x, y) dy = \int_{x^2}^1 \frac{21}{4}x^2y dy = \frac{21}{8}x^2(1 - x^4), \quad -1 \leq x \leq 1$$

and

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x, y) dx = \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} \frac{21}{4}x^2y dx = \frac{7}{2}y^{5/2}, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1.$$

Definition: X and Y are *independent* RV's if

$$f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \quad \text{for all } x, y.$$

Theorem: X and Y are indep if you can write their joint pdf as $f(x, y) = a(x)b(y)$ for some functions $a(x)$ and $b(y)$, and x and y don't have funny limits (their domains do not depend on each other).

Examples: If $f(x, y) = cxy$ for $0 \leq x \leq 2$, $0 \leq y \leq 3$, then X and Y are independent.

If $f(x, y) = \frac{21}{4}x^2y$ for $x^2 \leq y \leq 1$, then X and Y are *not* independent.

If $f(x, y) = c/(x + y)$ for $1 \leq x \leq 2$, $1 \leq y \leq 3$, then X and Y are *not* independent. \square

Definition: The *conditional pdf* (or *pmf*) of Y given $X = x$ is $f(y|x) \equiv f(x,y)/f_X(x)$ (assuming $f_X(x) > 0$).

This is a legit pmf/pdf. For example, in the continuous case, $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y|x) dy = 1$, for any x .

Example: Suppose $f(x,y) = \frac{21}{4}x^2y$ for $x^2 \leq y \leq 1$. Then

$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x,y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{\frac{21}{4}x^2y}{\frac{21}{8}x^2(1-x^4)} = \frac{2y}{1-x^4}, \quad x^2 \leq y \leq 1. \quad \square$$

Theorem: If X and Y are indep, then $f(y|x) = f_Y(y)$ for all x, y .

Proof: By definition of conditional and independence,

$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x,y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{f_X(x)f_Y(y)}{f_X(x)}. \quad \square$$

Definition: The *conditional expectation* of Y given $X = x$ is

$$E[Y|X = x] \equiv \begin{cases} \sum_y y f(y|x) & \text{discrete} \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y|x) dy & \text{continuous} \end{cases}$$

Example: The expected weight of a 7' tall guy ($E[Y|X = 7]$) is $>$ the expected weight of a totally random guy ($E[Y]$).

Old Cts Example: $f(x, y) = \frac{21}{4}x^2y$, if $x^2 \leq y \leq 1$. Then

$$E[Y|x] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y|x) dy = \int_{x^2}^1 \frac{2y^2}{1-x^4} dy = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1-x^6}{1-x^4}. \quad \square$$

Summary

Did a lot of stuff: Joint pmf's and pdf's, independent, conditional distributions, and then conditional expectation. Whew!

Next Time: More fun with conditional expectation, including “double trouble”! (Probably the toughest lesson of Bootcamp.)



Computer Simulation

Module 2: Calculus, Probability, and Statistics Primers

Dave Goldsman, Ph.D.

Professor

Stewart School of Industrial and Systems Engineering

Conditional Expectation

Lesson Overview

Last Time: Joint pmf's and pdf's, independence, conditional distributions, and a touch of cond'l expectation.

This Time: Continue conditional expectation + several cool applications.

Tough lesson... let's try to get through it together!



Definition: The *conditional expectation* of Y given $X = x$ is

$$E[Y|X = x] \equiv \begin{cases} \sum_y y f(y|x) & \text{discrete} \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y|x) dy & \text{continuous} \end{cases}$$

Example: Suppose $f(x, y) = \frac{21}{4}x^2y$ for $x^2 \leq y \leq 1$. Then

$$f(y|x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{\frac{21}{4}x^2y}{\frac{21}{8}x^2(1 - x^4)} = \frac{2y}{1 - x^4}, \quad x^2 \leq y \leq 1.$$

$$E[Y|x] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y|x) dy = \int_{x^2}^1 \frac{2y^2}{1 - x^4} dy = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1 - x^6}{1 - x^4}. \quad \square$$

Double Trouble!

We'll now look at the most-difficult concept of the Probability Bootcamp – *double expectation*.

Idea: the average expected value of all of the conditional expected values is the overall population average.

It's sometimes a very useful tool when calculating such overall averages. Don't Panic!



Theorem (double expectations): $E[E(Y|X)] = E[Y]$.

Proof (cts case): By the Unconscious Statistician,

$$\begin{aligned} E[E(Y|X)] &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} E(Y|x) f_X(x) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y|x) dy \right) f_X(x) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f(y|x) f_X(x) dx dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} y \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x,y) dx dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_Y(y) dy = E[Y]. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Old Example: Suppose $f(x, y) = \frac{21}{4}x^2y$, if $x^2 \leq y \leq 1$. By previous examples, we know $f_X(x)$, $f_Y(y)$, and $E[Y|X]$. Let's find $E[Y]$.

Solution #1 (old, boring way):

$$E[Y] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_Y(y) dy = \int_0^1 \frac{7}{2} y^{7/2} dy = \frac{7}{9}.$$

Solution #2 (new, exciting way):

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y] &= E[E(Y|X)] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} E(Y|x) f_X(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \left(\frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1-x^6}{1-x^4} \right) \left(\frac{21}{8} x^2 (1-x^4) \right) dx = \frac{7}{9}. \end{aligned}$$

Example: A cutesy way to calculate the mean of the Geometric distribution.

Let $Y \sim \text{Geom}(p)$, e.g., Y could be the number of coin flips before H appears, where $P(H) = p$. From Baby Probability class, we know that the pmf of Y is $f_Y(y) = P(Y = y) = q^{y-1}p$, for $y = 1, 2, \dots$

Then the old-fashioned way to calculate the mean is:

$$E[Y] = \sum_y y f_Y(y) = \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} y q^{y-1} p = 1/p,$$

where the last step follows because I tell you so. \square

... Let's use double expectation to do what's called a "standard one-step conditioning argument". Define $X = 1$ if the first flip is H; and $X = 0$ otherwise.

Based on the result X of the first step, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y] &= E[E(Y|X)] = \sum_x E(Y|x)f_X(x) \\ &= E(Y|X = 0)P(X = 0) + E(Y|X = 1)P(X = 1) \\ &= (1 + E[Y])(1 - p) + 1(p). \quad (\text{why?}) \end{aligned}$$

Solving, we get $E[Y] = 1/p$ again! \square

Computing Probabilities by Conditioning

Let A be some event, and define the RV $Y = 1$ if A occurs; and $Y = 0$ otherwise. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_y y f_Y(y) = P(Y = 1) = P(A).$$

Similarly, for any RV X , we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X = x] = \sum_y y f_Y(y|x) = P(Y = 1|X = x) = P(A|X = x).$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= \mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}(Y|X)] \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}[Y|X=x] dF_X(x) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} P(A|X=x) dF_X(x). \end{aligned}$$

Example/Theorem: If X and Y are independent cts RV's, then

$$P(Y < X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} P(Y < x) f_X(x) dx.$$

Proof: Follows from above result if we let the event $A = \{Y < X\}$.

□

Example: If $X \sim \text{Exp}(\mu)$ and $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ are indep RV's, then

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y < X) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} P(Y < x) f_X(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} (1 - e^{-\lambda x}) \mu e^{-\mu x} dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Theorem (variance decomposition):

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \text{E}[\text{Var}(Y|X)] + \text{Var}[\text{E}(Y|X)]$$

Proof (from Ross): By definition of variance and double expectation,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{E}[\text{Var}(Y|X)] &= \text{E}[\text{E}(Y^2|X) - \{\text{E}(Y|X)\}^2] \\ &= \text{E}(Y^2) - \text{E}[\{\text{E}(Y|X)\}^2].\end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[\text{E}(Y|X)] &= \text{E}[\{\text{E}(Y|X)\}^2] - \{\text{E}[\text{E}(Y|X)]\}^2 \\ &= \text{E}[\{\text{E}(Y|X)\}^2] - \{\text{E}(Y)\}^2.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, putting the last two results together,

$$\text{E}[\text{Var}(Y|X)] + \text{Var}[\text{E}(Y|X)] = \text{E}(Y^2) - \{\text{E}(Y)\}^2 = \text{Var}(Y). \quad \square$$

Summary

Studied conditional expectation along with a bunch of its applications, notably, double expectation and the standard conditioning technique.

Next Time: Covariance and correlation.

Congrats! All done with the hardest lesson!



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Dave Goldsman, Ph.D.

Professor

Stewart School of Industrial and Systems Engineering

Covariance and Correlation



Lesson Overview

Last Time: We kicked butt on conditional expectation and its applications.

This Time: We'll talk about independence, covariance, correlation, and related results.

Correlation shows up all over the place in simulation.



Summary Placeholder

- Talked about blah blah blah...
- This completes Module 2,
which went over blah blah blah
- Coming up: Module 3 will blah
blah blah