STAT-4300 - Class Notes

June 20, 2024

# Chapter 1: Class 1

#### 1.0.1 Set theory review

**Definition**: A set is an unordered collection of unique items

An element x in set A is denoted

$$x \in A$$

The  $\mathbf{empty}\ \mathbf{set}$  is the set without any elements, denoted

Ø

A is a subset of B if every element of A is also an element of B, denoted

$$A\subseteq$$

Note that

$$\emptyset \subseteq A \text{ for any } A$$

**Definition**: Operation of sets

The union of two sets is denoted

$$A \cup B, x \in A \cup B \iff x \in A \text{ or } x \in B$$

The **intersection** of two sets is denoted

$$A \cap B, x \in A \cap B \iff x \in A \text{ and } x \in B$$

The **complement** of a set is denoted

$$A^C, x \in A^C \iff x \notin A$$

Operations of multiple sets

Unions:

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots$$

$$= \{x : x \in A_n \text{ for some positive integer } n\}$$

**Intersections**:

$$\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots$$

$$= \{x : x \in A_n \text{ for all positive integers } n\}$$

**Disjoint**: A and B are disjoint if

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

A, B, C are disjoint if

$$A\cap B\cap C=\emptyset$$

#### 1.0.2 De Morgan's Laws

#### De Morgan's Laws

De Morgan's Laws is the analogue of the distributive property in the contexts of sets.

$$(A \cup B)^C = A^C \cap B^C$$
$$(A \cap B)^C = A^C \cup B^C$$

#### 1.0.3 Sample spaces

#### **Definition**:

A sample space S is the set of all possible outcomes

An event A is a subset of S (it can include 1 or more possible outcomes)

#### 1.0.4 Naive definition of probability

#### Definition:

$$\mathbb{P}_{naive}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|} = \frac{\text{number of events in } A}{\text{number of events in } S}$$

Naive because this assumes

- each outcome is equally likely
- finite number of possibilities

# Chapter 2: Class 2

### 2.1 Counting

#### 2.1.1 Multiplication rule

Consider compound experiment, consisting of 2 sub-experiments. Experiment 1 has n outcomes, experiment 2 as n outcomes. Then the compound experiment has mn outcomes

#### 2.1.2 Sampling with / without replacement

Sampling k from n with replacement

 $n^k$ 

Sampling k from n without replacement

$$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

#### 2.1.3 Birthday Paradox

The probability of having a birthday match is

$$\begin{split} P(\text{birthday match}) &= \frac{\text{Number of outcomes that match}}{\text{Number of total outcomes}} \\ &= 1 - \frac{\text{Number of outcomes without match}}{\text{Number of total outcomes}} \\ &= 1 - \frac{365!}{(365-k)!365^k} \end{split}$$

#### 2.1.4 Binomial coefficients

The number of ways to choose k out of n can be counted by

1. multiplication rule

$$n \times n - 1 \times \ldots \times (n - k + 1) = \frac{n!}{(n - k)!}$$

2. adjust for overcounting (account for k! reorderings)

$$\frac{1}{k!} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

More generally,

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

#### 2.1.5 Example with Poker

Find the probability of a royal flush

$$P(\text{ Royal flush }) = \frac{4}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

Find the probability of a flush

$$P(\text{ Flush }) = \frac{4 \begin{pmatrix} 13 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}}{\begin{pmatrix} 52 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}} \approx 0.002$$

Find the probability of a full house

$$P(\text{ Full house }) = \begin{pmatrix} 13\\2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2\\1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4\\3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4\\2 \end{pmatrix} \div \begin{pmatrix} 52\\5 \end{pmatrix} \approx 0.001$$

# 2.2 A refined definition of probability

Previous definition:

$$\mathbb{P}_{\text{Naive}}$$
 is a function where  $\left\{ egin{array}{ll} \text{inputs} \\ \text{outputs} \end{array} \right.$ 

#### Definition

A probability space consists of

- ullet Sample space S
- $\bullet$  Probability function P
  - Input: any event  $A \in S$
  - Output: real number  $P(A) \in [0,1]$

Axiomatic definitions of probability function

- $P(\emptyset) = 0$
- P(S) = 1
- For  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  disjoint, then

$$P(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(A_k)$$

# Chapter 3: Class 3

### 3.1 Properties of probability

#### Complement rule:

$$P(A^C) = 1 - P(A)$$

Reasoning:

$$P(A) + P(A^C)$$
  
= $P(A \cup A^C)$  by axiom 2, sum of probability of disjoint events  
= $P(S)$  by definition of complement  
=1by axiom 1

Subset rule: If  $A \in B$ , then

$$P(A) \le P(B)$$

Reasoning:

$$B = (B \cap A^C) \cup A$$

$$P(B) = P((B \cap A^C) \cup A)$$

$$= P(B \cap A^C) + P(A) \text{ by axiom } 2$$

$$\geq P(A) \text{ since } P(B \cap A^C) \geq 0$$

Note that  $A \subseteq B$  means that  $A \implies B$ 

Inclusion-exclusion principle

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$P(A \cup B \cup C) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C)$$
$$-P(A \cap B) - P(B \cap C) - P(A \cap C)$$
$$+P(A \cap B \cap C)$$

# 3.2 Conditional probability

**Definition**: Conditional probability of A given B is

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

- A|B is not an event
- P(A|B) is the probability that A occurs given that B occurs
- $\bullet$  A|B and B|A both makes sense, regardless of chronology
- conditional probability concerns the information that one event provides for the other, not about causation

#### 3.2.1 Probability of intersections

**Theorem:** If A, B have positive probability, then

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

Note the following shorthand in notation

- $P(A|B,C) = P(A|B \cap C)$
- $P(A,B) = P(A \cap B)$
- $P(A, B, C) = P(A \cap B \cap C)$

For 3 events, if P(A, B) > 0

$$P(A, B, C) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A) \cdot P(C|A, B)$$

In general,

$$P(A_1, \dots A_n) = P(A_1) \times P(A_2|A_1) \times P(A_3|A_1, A_2) \dots P(A_n|A_1, \dots A_{n-1})$$

#### 3.2.2 Bayes' Law and the law of total probability

**Theorem:** Bayes Theorem states that if P(A), P(B) > 0, then

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

**Theorem:** Law of total probability states that for  $A_1, \ldots A_n$  that is a partition of sample space S

Where partition implies

- $A_i$  are disjoint, and their union is S
- $\bullet$   $A_i$  are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive

Then, if  $P(A_i) > 0$  for all i,

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

# Chapter 4: Class 4

### 4.1 Example 1 - Flipping Conditioning

1 fair and 1 biased coin (heads with probability 0.75). Pick one coin, flip 3 times, and observe HHH. What is the probability that the coin is fair?

#### Solution:

let F be the event that the fair coin was picked let A be the event that the result is HHH

$$P(F|A) = \frac{P(A|F)P(F)}{P(A)}$$

# 4.2 Example 2 - Base Rate fallacy

Whartonitis problem.

1% of Wharton has Whartonitis. Test has 5% false positive rate, 5% false negative rate. If a test returns positive, what is the probability that the student has Whartonitis?

Let W be the event of Whartonitis Let T be the event of testing positive.

$$P(W) = 0.01$$
 
$$P(T|W^C) = 0.05$$
 
$$P(T^C|W) = 0.05$$

Then

$$P(W|T) = \frac{P(T|W)P(W)}{P(T)}$$

$$= \frac{P(T|W)P(W)}{P(T|W)P(W) + P(T|W^C)P(W^C)}$$

$$= \frac{0.95 \times 0.01}{0.95 \times 0.01 + 0.05 \times 0.99}$$
= 0.16

### 4.3 Conditional probabilities are probabilities

Note that

- A|B is not an event
- $P(\cdot)$  is not the same probability function as  $P(\cdot|B)$
- In conditional probability, when P(B) > 0, we define a function  $P(\cdot|B)$  that takes A as an input, and outputs P(A|B)

• Conditional probabilities functions are valid probability functions because they satisfies the axioms

**Theorem:** If  $P(\cdot)$  satisfies the rules and P(B) > 0, then  $P(\cdot|B)$  is a valid probability function, and all the rules of probability applies.

Complement Rule:

$$P(A|B) = 1 - P(A^C|B)$$

Inclusion-exclusion:

$$P((A_1 \cup A_2)|B) = P(A_1|B) + P(A_2|B) - P(A_1 \cap A_2|B)$$

Bayes' Rule

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

Law of total probability: If  $A_1, \ldots A_n$  partition S, then

$$P(C|B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(C|A_i, B) \cdot P(A_i|B)$$

# Chapter 5: Class 5

### 5.1 Independence

**Definition**: Two events are independent if

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

**Equivalent definitions**: if P(A) > 0 and P(B) > 0, then the following are equivalent

 $\bullet$  A, B independent

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

• P(B|A) = P(B)

**Note**: In the degenerate case, P(A) = 0, A is independent to any other event.

Note: Independence is completely different from disjointedness.

• if A, B disjoint, knowing A occurs gives a lot of information about B

• the only exception is in the edge case, where P(A) = 0 or P(B) = 0

**Theorem**: The following are equivalent

ullet A and B are independent

- $A^C$  and B are independent
- ullet A and  $B^C$  are independent
- $A^C$  and  $B^C$  are independent

# 5.2 Independence of multiple events

Events A, B, C independent if

- $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$
- $P(B \cap C) = P(B) \cdot P(C)$
- $P(A \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(C)$
- $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(B) \cdot P(C)$

Example: Recall the fair-unfair dice example.

let A be the event that first flip is heads

let B be the event that second flip is heads

let C be the event that the first and second flips are the same

Note that A, B, C are **pairwise independent**, but knowing 2 gives complete information about the second.

# 5.3 Independence of multiple events

**Definition** A, B, C are independent if

- $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$
- $P(B \cap C) = P(B) \cdot P(C)$
- $P(C \cap A) = P(C) \cdot P(A)$
- $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(B) \cdot P(C)$

A collection of sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots A_n$  independent if

- $P(A_i \cap A_j) = P(A_i) \cdot P(A_j)$
- $P(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) = P(A_i) \cdot P(A_j) \cap P(A_k)$

Note: additional reading, look for "information theory"

# 5.4 Conditional independence

**Definition**: Events A, B are conditionally independent given E if

$$P(A \cap B|E) = P(A|E) \cdot P(B|E)$$

Note

- Two events can be conditionally independent given E but not when given  $E^C$ 
  - $-\,$  Recall good Wharton class example
- Conditional independence does not imply independence.
  - Recall the "FAIR / UNFAIR COIN" example, coin tosses only independent given fair or unfair coin
- Independence does not imply conditional independence.
  - Recall "FAIR / UNFAIR COIN" example, (A,B independent, but A,B are not conditionally independent when given  ${\cal C}$

# Chapter 6: Class 6

### 6.1 Problem solving strategies using conditioning

#### 6.1.1 Monty Hall

Main takeaway - Remaining door has gone through some selection process, hence it has a higher probability of having the car.

Let  $C_i$  be the event that the car is in door i, i = 1, 2, 3

$$= 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{3}$$

 $=2_{\bar{3}}$ 

 $P(\text{Switching strategy gets car}) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} P(\text{switching strategy gets car} - C_i \text{switching strategy gets car} - C_i \text{switching strategy gets car})$ 

#### 6.1.2 Amoeba Problem

There is a single amoeba which in 1 minute, either stays the same, splits in 2, or dies with equal probability. Each amoeba is independent of all other amoebas. What is the probability it eventually dies out?

Let P be the event that the amoeba population eventually dies out.

Let  $A_0$  be the event that a single amoeba dies in the next minute.

Let  $A_1$  be the event that a single amoeba stays the same.

Let  $A_2$  be the event that it splits in 2.

$$P(B) = P(B|A_0)P(A_0) + P(B|A_1)P(A_1) + P(B|A_2)P(A_2)$$

$$= 1 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + P(B)\frac{1}{3} + (P(B))^2 \frac{1}{3}$$

$$x = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{3}$$

$$x = 1$$

# Chapter 7: Class 7

#### 7.1 Random Variables

**Definition:** Given an experiment with sample space S, a random variable is a function that maps each possible outcome  $s \in S$  to a real number

#### 7.2 Distribution

**Definition**: A r.v. X is discrete if there is a finite list of values  $a_1, \ldots a_n$  or an infinite list of values such that  $a_1, a_2 \ldots$  such that  $P(X = a_j \text{ for some } j) = 1$ 

**Definition**: Support of X is the set of all values x such that P(X = x) > 0

**Definition**: The probability mass function of a discrete r.v. X specifies the probability of any particular value of X

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x)$$

For  $p_X$  to be a valid pmf,

- sum to 1 :  $\sum_{x} p_X(x) = 1$
- non-negative :  $p_X(x) \ge 0$  for any x

#### 7.3 Bernoulli & Binomial Distributions

**Definition** A random variable X has the bernoulli distribution with parameter p if

- P(X = 1) = p
- P(X = 0) = 1 p

X is distributed as Bernoulli with parameter p

$$X \sim Ber(p)$$

For any event A, we can define an indicator random variable  $I_A$  that equals 1 if A occurs, 0 otherwise

$$I_A \sim Ber(p), p = P(A)$$

Expectation

$$E[I_A] = p$$

Variance

$$Var(I_A) = p(1-p)$$

**Definition** Suppose n independent Bernoulli trials are performed, each with the same success probability p, let X be the number of successes. The distribution of X is called the Binomial distribution with parameters n and p

$$X \sim Bin(n, p)$$

**Theorem**: If  $X \sim Bin(n, p)$ , then the PMF of X is

$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, \dots n$$

Expectation

$$E[X] = np$$

Variance

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

This is a valid PMF because

• non-negative

$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \ge 0$$

• sums to 1

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} P(X=k) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} p^{k} (1-p)^{n-k}$$

$$= [p+(1-p)]^{n} \text{ By Binomial Theorem}$$

$$= 1^{n}$$

$$= 1$$

#### 7.4 Cumulative Distribution Functions

**Definition**: The CDF of a r.v. X is

$$F_X(u) = P(X \le u)$$

Any CDF satisfies the following properties

• increasing

$$u_1 \le u_2 \implies F(u_1) \le F(u_2)$$

- Right continuous
- Converges to 0 and 1 in the limits

$$\lim_{u \to -\infty} F(u) = 0$$

$$\lim_{u \to \infty} F(u) = 1$$

CDF can be calculated from the PMF

$$P(X \le 2.5) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2)$$

PMF can be calculated by taking the difference of the CDF;

# Chapter 8: Lesson 8

Placeholder

# Chapter 9: Chapter 9

### 9.1 Hypergeometric Distribution

Drawing from a bag of w white balls and b black balls yields a Hypergeometric distribution with parameters w, b, n for the total number of white balls

**Theorem:** The support of HGeom distribution is all integer k such that

$$0 \le k \le w$$
$$0 \le n - k \le b$$

**Theorem**: The PMF of  $X \sim HGeom(w, b, n)$  is

$$P(X = k) = \frac{\binom{w}{k} \binom{b}{n-k}}{\binom{w+b}{n}}$$

The expected value is

$$E[X] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E[X_i] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{w}{w+b} = \frac{nw}{w+b}$$

**Note**: let the support be K,

$$\sum_{k \in K} P(X = k) = 1$$

$$\sum_{k \in K} \frac{\binom{w}{k} \binom{b}{n-k}}{\binom{w+b}{n}} = 1$$

$$\sum_{k} \binom{w}{k} \binom{b}{n-k} = \binom{w+b}{n}$$

# Chapter 10: Lesson 10

#### 10.1 Functions of random variables

A function of a r.v. is a r.v. Given sample space S, random variable X and function  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , g(X) is a r.v. that takes the value g(X(s)) for  $s \in S$ 

# 10.2 Independence of r.v.s

**Definition**: X, Y independent if

$$P(X \le x, Y \le y) = P(X \le x) \cdot P(Y \le y)$$

 $X_1, \dots X_n$  independent if

$$P(X_1 \le x_1 \dots X_n \le x_n) = P(X_1 \le x_1) \cdot \dots P(X_n \le x_n)$$

**Theorem:** If X, Y independent then any function of X is independent of any function of Y

$$X \perp Y \implies f(X) \perp g(Y)$$
 for any  $f, g$ 

**Definition**:  $X_1, \ldots X_n$  are i.i.d. if

- $X_1 \dots X_n$  independent
- $X_1 \dots X_n$  have the same distribution

# Chapter 11: Class 12

### 11.1 Expectation

**Definition**: the expected value of a discrete r.v. X whose possible values are  $x_1, x_2, \ldots$  is

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i P(X = x_i)$$

#### 11.1.1 Linearity of expectation

**Theorem:** For any X, Y and constant c,

$$E\left[X+Y\right] = E\left[X\right] + E\left[Y\right]$$

$$E[cX] = cE[X]$$

#### 11.2 Geometric distribution

**Definition**: For a sequence of independent Bernoulli trials, each with the same success probability, let X denote the number of trials before the first success, X has the geometric distribution with parameter p

$$X \sim Geom(p)$$

$$X + 1 \sim FS(p)$$

The PMF is

$$P(X = k) = (1 - p)^k \cdot p$$

The expectation is

$$E[X] = \frac{1-p}{p}$$

# Chapter 12: Class 12

#### 12.1 Indicator R.V.s

**Definition**: The indicator r.v. for an event A,  $I_A$  takes value 1 if A occurs and 0 if A does not occur.

$$I_A \sim Ber(p), p = P(A)$$

Fundamental bridge between probability and expectation

$$E[I_A] = p = P(A)$$

Properties

- $\bullet \ I_{A^C} = 1 I_A$
- $I_{A \cap B} = I_A \cdot I_B$
- $\bullet \ I_{A \cup B} = I_A + I_B I_A I_B$

# 12.2 Expectation via Survival Function / Darth Vader rule

**Theorem**: Let X be a r.v. with support  $0, 1, 2 \dots$ 

$$E[X] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(X > n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(X \ge n)$$

Special case when X takes as its support [0, 1, ... N]

$$E[X] = \sum_{N=0}^{N-1} P(X > n) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} P(X \ge n)$$

# 12.3 Law of the Unconscious Statistician (LOTUS)

Theorem:

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x} g(x)P(X = x)$$

### 12.4 Variance

**Definition**: The Variance of a r.v. X is

$$Var(X) = E\left[\left(X - E\left[X\right]\right)^{2}\right] = E\left[X^{2}\right] - E\left[X\right]^{2}$$

The standard deviation of X is

$$sd(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)}$$

Properties

- $Var(X) \ge 0$
- Var(X+c) = Var(X)
- $Var(cX) = c^2 Var(X)$
- Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) if  $X \perp Y$

# Chapter 13: Poisson Distribution

#### 13.1 Poisson Distribution

Poisson Distribution is a common model for count data with support over all the non-negative integers. It is useful for modelling the number of successes in a sequence of Bernoulli trials where

- number of trials is large
- success probability is low

The Poisson distribution provides a simple and good enough approximation to a Binomial distribution when p is small and n is large.

**Definition**: A r.v. X has the Poisson distribution with parameter  $\lambda > 0$  if its PMF is

$$P(X = k) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \implies X \sim Pois(X)$$

Expectation

$$E[X] = \lambda$$

Approach 1: the mean of  $Y \sim Bin(n,p)$  is np, which stays constant for a Poisson distribution.

Approach 2:

$$E[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kP(X = k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \cdot \lambda \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k-1}}{(k-1)!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \cdot \lambda \cdot \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!}$$

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

This is a valid PMF because

1) PMF is non-negative for all values in the support 2) PMF sums to 1 over the entire support

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = e^{\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}$$
$$= e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda}$$
$$= 1$$

### 13.2 Continuous RVs

**Definition**: X is a continuous r.v. if it has a continuous distribution. The distribution is ontinuous if its CDF  $F(u) = P(X \le u)$  is

- $\bullet\,$  differentiable everywhere
- continuous everywhere, and differentiable at all but a finite number of points

**Definition**: The probability density function of X with CDF F is

$$f(u) = F'(u)$$

The support is the set of all u such that f(u) > 0

The CDF can be found via

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t)dt$$

# Chapter 14: Class 14

### 14.1 Continuous Distributions

From CDF to PDF:

$$f'(x) = F'(x)$$

From PDF to CDF

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t)dt$$

### 14.2 Rayleigh Distribution

**Definition**: The Rayleigh distribution has CDF

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \text{ for } x \ge 0\\ 0 \text{ for } x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

The PDF is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} xe^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \text{ for } x \ge 0\\ 0 \text{ for } x \le 0 \end{cases}$$

#### 14.3 Uniform distribution

**Definition** U has the uniform distribution on the interval (a,b)

$$U \sim Unif(a,b)$$

If its PDF is

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

and CDF is

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } x \le a\\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} \text{ if } a < x < b\\ 1 \text{ if } x \ge b \end{cases}$$

Expectation

$$E[U] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} x dx = \frac{b+a}{2}$$

Variance

$$E\left[U^{2}\right] = \int_{\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} f(x) dx = \frac{b^{2} + ab + a^{2}}{3}$$

**Key property**: subintervals within (a, b) have probability proportional to their length.

For  $U \sim Unif(0,1)$ 

$$P(u \in [0, \frac{1}{4}]) = \frac{1}{4}$$

#### 14.3.1 Location-scale transform of uniform r.v.s

Given uniform r.v. X with interval (a, b)

$$X \sim Unif(a, b)$$

The location transform of X has distribution

$$cX + d \sim Unif(ca + d, cb + d)$$

#### 14.3.2 Universality of uniform distribution

**Theorem:** let F be a continuous CDF taht is strictly increasing over the support of the distribution

- $X = F^{-1}(U)$  is a r.v. with CDF F
- F(X) has the Unif(0,1) distribution

# Chapter 15: Class 15

### 15.1 Gaussian distribution

#### 15.1.1 Standard Gaussian distribution

**Definition**: The Gaussian distribution with mean 0 and variance 1, denoted

 $Z \sim N(0,1)$ 

has PDF

$$\varphi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} \text{ for } \infty < z < \infty$$

and CDF:

$$\Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{z} \varphi(t)dt = \int_{-\infty}^{z} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

Expectation

$$E[Z] = 0$$

Variance

$$Var(Z) = 1$$

**Properties** 

• Symmetrical PDF

$$\varphi(z) = \varphi(-z)$$

• Symmetric tail probabilities

$$\Phi(z) = 1 - Phi(-z)$$

• Symmetric r.v.

$$Z \sim N(0,1) \implies -Z \sim N(0,1)$$

#### 15.1.2 General Gaussian distribution

**Definition**: if  $Z \sim N(0,1)$ , then  $X = \mu + \sigma Z$  has the Gaussian distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ ,

$$\mu + \sigma Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

**Standardization**: the standardized version, or Z score, of  $X = \mu + \sigma Z$  is

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$$

The PDF is

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

The CDF is

$$F(x) = \Phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

#### 15.1.3 Empirical rule

For  $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0,1)$ 

- $P(-1 < Z < 1) \approx 0.68$
- $P(-2 < Z < 2) \approx 0.95$
- $P(-3 < Z < 3) \approx 0.997$

## 15.2 Exponential Distribution

**Definition**: Exponential distribution with parameter  $\lambda$ 

$$X \sim Expo(\lambda)$$

has PDF

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$$
 for  $x > 0$ 

and CDF

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(t)dt$$

Scaling transform: if  $X \sim Expo(1)$  and  $Y = \frac{X}{\lambda}$  then

$$Y \sim Expo(\lambda)$$

Expectation and variance of standard exponential

$$E[X] = 1$$

$$Var(X) = 1$$

Expectation and variance of general exponential

$$E[Y] = E\left[\frac{X}{\lambda}\right] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$Var(Y) = Var\left(\frac{X}{\lambda}\right) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}Var(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

 ${\bf Memorylessness}$ 

$$P(X \ge s + t | X \ge s) = P(X \ge t)$$
 for all  $s, t \ge 0$ 

# Chapter 16: Class 16

Midterm 2 review

# Chapter 17: Class 17

### 17.1 Moments

**Definition**: For any r.v. X and  $n = 1, 2, 3 \dots$ 

n-th moment:

$$E[X^n]$$

n-th central moment:

$$E\left[(X-\mu)^n\right]$$

n-th standardized moment

$$E\left[\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^n\right]$$

# 17.2 Moment Generating Functions

**Definition**: The MGF of X is

$$M_X(t) = E\left[e^{tX}\right]$$

#### 17.2.1 MGF of Bernoulli

The MGF of  $X \sim Ber(p)$ , for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$M_X(t) = E\left[e^{tX}\right]$$

$$= \sum_x e^{tX} P(X = x)$$

$$= e^{t \cdot 1} p + e^{t \cdot 0} (1 - p)$$

$$= pe^t + (1 - p)$$

#### 17.2.2 MGF of Uniform

The MGF of  $U \sim Unif(a, b)$ , for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$M_U(t) = E \begin{bmatrix} t^U \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tU} f(u) du$$

$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b e^{tu} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \left( \frac{e^{tu}}{t} \right) \Big|_a^b$$

$$= \frac{e^{tb} - e^{ta}}{t(b-a)}$$

$$\begin{cases} e^{tb} - e^{ta} & \text{if } t \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$M_U(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{tb} - e^{ta}}{t(b-a)} & \text{if } t \neq 0\\ 1 & \text{if } t = 0 \end{cases}$$

#### 17.2.3 MGF of Exponential

For  $X \sim Expo(1)$  for t < 1

$$M_X(t) = E\left[e^{tX}\right]$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{tx} e^{-x} dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{(t-1)x} dx$$

$$= \frac{e^{(t-1)x}}{t-1} \Big|_{0}^{\infty}$$

$$= \int_{e^{(t-1)\infty} - 1}^{t-1}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \infty \text{ if } t \ge 1 \\ \frac{1}{1-t} \text{ if } t < 1 \end{cases}$$

#### 17.2.4 MGF of standard gaussian

For  $Z \sim N(0,1)$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$M_Z(t) = E\left[e^{tZ}\right] = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$$

For general Gaussian,  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2), X = \mu + \sigma Z$ 

$$\begin{split} M_X(t) &= M_{\mu+\sigma Z}(t) \\ &= e^{\mu t} M_Z(\sigma t) \\ &= e^{\mu t} e^{\frac{(\sigma t^2)}{2}} \\ &= e^{\mu t + \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2}} \end{split}$$

For  $X_1, X_2$  independent where

- $X_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$
- $X_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$

Their sum has MGF

$$\begin{split} M_{X_1+X_2}(t) &= M_{X_1}(t) \cdot M_{X_2}(t) \\ &= e^{(\mu_1+\mu_2)t + \frac{\left(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2\right)t^2}{2}} \end{split}$$

$$X_1 + X_2 \sim N(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$$

#### 17.2.5 Properties of MGF

Derivatives of MGF gives the moments

**Theorem**: IF the MGF exists

$$E\left[X^{n}\right] = M^{(n)}(0)$$

MGF determines the distribution.

**Theorem:** If X, Y have the same MGF then they have the same distribution.

MGF of sum of independent R.Vs

**Theorem:** If X, Y are independent and their MGF exist, then

$$M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t) \cdot M_Y(t)$$

#### Location-scale transform of MGFs

If X has MGF  $M_X(t)$ , then a + bX has MGF

$$M_{a+bX}(t) = E\left[e^{t(a+bX)}\right]$$

$$= E\left[e^{ta}e^{tbX}\right]$$

$$= e^{ta}E\left[e^{tbX}\right]$$

$$= e^{ta}M_X(tb)$$

# Chapter 18: Class 18

#### 18.1 Discrete Joint Distributions

**Definition**: The joint PMF of X, Y is the function  $P_{X,Y}$  given by

$$P_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

**Definition**: The marginal PMF of X is the function  $p_X$  given by

$$P_X(x) = P(X = x) = \sum_{y \in Val(Y)} P(X = x, Y = y)$$

Where val(Y) denotes the support of Y

**Definition**: The conditional PMF of Y given X = x is the function  $P_{Y|X}(y|x)$ 

$$P_{Y|X}(y|x) = P(Y = y|X = x) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(X = x)}$$

#### 18.2 Continuous Joint Distributions

**Definition**: The joint CDF of X, Y is the function  $F_{X,Y}$  given by

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X \le x, Y \le y)$$

**Definition**: The joint PDF of X, Y is the function  $f_{X,Y}$  given by

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F_{X,Y}(x,y)$$

**Definition**: The marginal PDF of X is the function  $f_X$  given by

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

**Definition**: The conditional PDF of Y given X = x is the function  $f_{Y|X=x}$  given by

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

# Chapter 19: Class 19

### 19.1 Independence of continuous R.Vs

**Definition**: X, Y independent if

$$P(X \le x, Y \le y) = P(X \le x) \cdot P(Y \le y)$$
 for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ 

OR

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

**Theorem:** Let X, Y be r.v.s with joint PDf  $f_{X,Y}$ , then the following are equivalent

- $\bullet$   $X \perp Y$
- $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y)$
- $\bullet \ f_{X|Y}(x|y) = f_X(x)$
- $\bullet \ f_{Y|x}(y|x) = f_Y(y)$

**Theorem**: If X, Y independent then

$$E[XY] = E[X]E[Y]$$

**Proof**: using LOTUS in 2D

$$\begin{split} E\left[XY\right] &= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} xy f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy \\ &= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} x f_X(x) \cdot y f_Y(y) dx dy \text{ by independence} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f_X(x) dx \cdot \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_Y(y) dy \text{ by factoring} \\ &= E\left[X\right] \cdot E\left[Y\right] \end{split}$$

# Chapter 20: Class 20

### 20.1 LOTUS in multivariate distributions

#### 20.1.1 Discrete case

$$E[g(X,Y)] = \sum_{x} \sum_{y} g(x,y) P_{X,Y}(x,y)$$

#### 20.1.2 Continuous case

$$E\left[g(X,Y_0] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x,y) f_{X,Y}(x,y) dx dy\right]$$

# Chapter 21: Class 21

#### 21.1 Covariance

**Definition**: For r.v. X, Y, the **covariance** is defined as

$$Cov(X,Y) = E[(X - E[X]) \cdot (Y - E[Y])]$$

Equivalently,

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

Note that

$$Var(X) = Cov(X, X)$$

#### Properties of covariance

• Independent r.v.s have zero covariance

$$X \perp Y \implies Cov(X,Y)$$

• Symmetry

$$Cov(X, Y) = Cov(Y, X)$$

• Covariance between r.v. and constant is zero

$$Cov(X, c) = 0$$
 for any constant  $c$ 

• Scaling by a constant

$$Cov(aX, Y) = aCov(X, Y)$$

• Sum of two random variables

$$Cov(X_1 + X_2, Y) = Cov(X_1, Y) + Cov(X_2, Y)$$

• Covariance of sum of r.v.s

$$Cov(X_1 + X_2, Y_1 + Y_2) = Cov(X_1, Y_1) + Cov(X_1, Y_2) + Cov(X_2, Y_1) + Cov(X_2, Y_2)$$

• More generally,

$$Cov\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} X_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} Y_{j}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Cov(X_{i}, Y_{j})$$

#### Proofs of properties

Proof of (1):

$$\begin{array}{ll} X \perp Y \implies E[XY] = E[X]E[Y] \\ \implies Cov(X,Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = E[XY] - E[XY] = 0 \end{array}$$

Proof of (2)

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$
$$= E[YX] - E[Y]E[X]$$
$$= Cov(Y, X)$$

Proof of (3)

$$Cov(X, c) = E[cX] - E[c]E[X]$$
$$= cE[X] - cE[X]$$
$$= 0$$

Proof of (4)

$$\begin{aligned} Cov(aX,Y) &= E[aXY] - E[aX]E[Y] \\ &= aE[XY] - aE[X]E[Y] \\ &= a\left(E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]\right) \\ &= aCov(X,Y) \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (5)

$$\begin{split} Cov(X_1 + X_2, Y) &= E[(X_1 + X_2)Y] - E[X_1 + X_2]E[Y] \\ &= E[X_1Y + X_2Y] - E[X_1 + X_2]E[Y] \\ &= E[X_1Y] + E[X_2Y] - E[X_1]E[Y] - E[X_2]E[Y] \\ &= E[X_1Y] - E[X_1]E[Y] + E[X_2Y] - E[X_2]E[Y] \\ &= Cov(X_1, Y) + Cov(X_2, Y) \end{split}$$

Proof of (6)

$$Cov(X_1 + X_2, Y_1 + Y_2)$$
  
= $Cov(X_1, Y_1 + Y_2) + Cov(X_2, Y_1 + Y_2)$  by Property 5  
= $Cov(X_1, Y_1) + Cov(X_1, Y_2) + Cov(X_2, Y_1) + Cov(X_2, Y_2)$ 

#### 21.2 General case for variance of a sum of r.v.s

**Theorem**: For any X, Y

$$Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X, Y)$$
$$Var(X - Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y) - 2Cov(X, Y)$$

Proof

$$\begin{split} Var(X+Y) &= Cov(X+Y,X+Y) \\ &= E\left[(X+Y)^2\right] - E[X+Y]^2 \\ &= E\left[X^2 + 2XY + Y^2\right] - (E[X+Y])^2 \\ &= E[X^2] + E[2XY] + E[Y^2] - E[X]^2 - 2E[X]E[Y] - E[Y]^2 \\ &= E[X^2] - E[X]^2 + E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2 + 2\left(E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]\right) \\ &= Var(X) + Var(Y) + 2Cov(X,Y) \end{split}$$

OR

$$\begin{aligned} &Cov(X+Y,X+Y)\\ =&Cov(X,Y)+Cov(X,Y)+Cov(Y,X)+Cov(Y,Y)\\ =&Var(X)+2Cov(X,Y)+Var(Y) \end{aligned}$$

#### **21.2.1** Example

Let  $X, Y \sim Unif(0, 1)$ , find Cov(X + Y, X - Y)

$$Cov(X + Y, X - Y) = Var(X) - Var(Y)$$
$$= 0$$

X + Y, X - Y not independent

$$X + Y = 2 \iff X = Y = 1 \iff X - Y = 0$$

#### 21.3 Correlation

\*not on Finals

**Definition**: Correlation between X, Y is

$$Corr(X,Y) = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X) \cdot Var(Y}} = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{sd(X) \cdot sd(Y)}$$

\*Correlation is the rescaled version of Cov(X,Y)

Properties

• Location-scale transforms have no effect on correlations

$$Corr(aX + b, cY + d) = Corr(X, Y)$$
 for any  $a > 0, c > 0$ 

- Correlation doesn't depend on units of measurement
- $\bullet$  Correlation takes values from -1 to 1

$$-1 \le Corr(X, Y) \le 1$$

• Perfect correlation implies perfect linear relationship

$$|Corr(X,Y)| = 1 \implies Y = aX + b$$

### 21.4 Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

\*not on Finals

**Definition**: a random vector is an ordered list of random variables

**Definition**: a random vector  $(X_1 ... X_k)$  has the Multivariate Gaussian distribution if every linear combination of the  $X_j$  s has a Gaussian distribution.

$$(X_1 \dots X_k) \sim MVG \text{ if } \forall \mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^k t_i X_i\right) \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
 for some  $\mu, \sigma$ 

# Chapter 22: Class 22 - Transformations

#### 22.1 Discrete random variables

**Discrete**: Given the distribution of X, to compute the distribution of Y = g(X)

$$P(Y=y) = P(g(X)=y) = \sum_{xs.t.g(x)=y} P(X=x)$$

If g invertible,

$$P(Y = y) = P(g(X) = y) = P(X = g^{-1}(y))$$

#### 22.2 Continuous random variables

#### 22.2.1 Via CDF

### Continuous:

Method 1

Step 1: Find the CDF of Y

For order-preserving, invertible g,

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \le y) = P(g(X) \le y) = P(X \le g^{-1}(y)) = F_X(g^{-1}(y))$$

Step 2: differentiate to get the PDF of Y

#### 22.2.2 Via change in variable

**Theorem:** Suppose X is a continuous r.v. with PDF  $f_X$ , let Y = g(X) where g is differentiable, and strictly increasing or decreasing on the support of X, then the PDF of y is

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(x) \cdot \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$$
 where  $x = g^{-1}(y)$ 

Note

•

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{dy/dx}$$

 $\bullet$  Support of Y is the range of g whose input is restricted to the support of X

$$support(Y) = \{y = g(x) \text{ for some } x \in support(X)\}$$

# In multivariable setting

Given 
$$\vec{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2 \dots Y_n), \ \vec{y} = (y_1, y_2 \dots y_n),$$

$$f_{\vec{Y}}(\vec{y}) = f_{\vec{X}}(\vec{x}) \cdot \left| \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial \vec{y}} \right|$$

# Chapter 23: Convolutions and Conditional expectation

#### 23.1 Convolutions

**Theorem** [Discrete] Let X, Y be independent r.v.s, the PMF of T = X + Y is

$$P(T = t) = \sum_{x} P(Y = t - x) \cdot P(X = x)$$

Justification: Law of Total Probability

LOTP: 
$$P(B) = \sum_{i} P(B|A_i)P(A_i)$$

In this case

$$\begin{split} P(T=t) &= P(X+Y=t) \text{ by definition} \\ &= \sum_x P(X+Y=t|X=x) \cdot P(X=x) \text{ LOTP} \\ &= \sum_x P(Y=t-x|X=x) \cdot P(X=x) \text{ by rearranging} \\ &= \sum_x P(Y=t-x) \cdot P(X=x) \text{ by independence of } X,Y \end{split}$$

**Theorem** [Continuous] Let X, Y be independent r.v.s, the PDF of T = X + Y is

$$f_T(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(t-x) dx$$

# Chapter 24: Conditional Expectation

# **24.1** Definition of E[Y|X=x]

**Definition** Conditional given event

 $\bullet$  discrete Y

$$E[Y|A] = \sum_y y P(Y=y|A)$$

 $\bullet$  continuous Y

$$E[Y|A] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_Y(y|A) dy$$

**Definition** Conditional given the value of a random variable X

• If X is discrete

$$E[Y|X=x] = E[Y|A]$$
 where A is the event that  $X=x$ 

• if X, Y continuous

$$E[Y|X=x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_{Y|X}(y|x) dy$$

ullet if X continuous, Y discrete

$$E[Y|X=x] = \sum_{y} yP(Y=y|X=x)$$

# **24.2** Definition of E[Y|X]

The **conditional expectation** of Y, given X is the r.v. g(X)

$$E[Y|X] = g(X)$$

such that for each x in the support of X, g(X) takes the value of

$$E[Y|X=x]$$

# 24.3 Properties of conditional expectation

Ignoring what's independent

$$X\perp Y\to E[Y|X]=E[Y]$$

Taking out what's known:

$$E[h(X)Y|X] = h(X) \cdot E[Y|X]$$

Linearity

$$E[Y_1 + Y_2|X] = E[Y_1|X] + E[Y_2|X]$$

Law of Iterated Expectation / Law of Total Expectations / Adam's Law / Tower Law

$$E[Y] = E\left[[Y|X]\right]$$

# Chapter 25: Lesson 25

### 25.1 Markov and Chebyshev Inequalities

#### 25.1.1 Markov's inequality

**Theorem** For any r.v. X and any constant a > 0

$$P(|X| \ge a) \le \frac{E[|X|]}{a}$$

Proof: Let Y = |X|, show that

$$aP(Y \ge a) \le E[Y]$$

Using Tower's Law

$$\begin{split} E[Y] &= E\left[Y|Y \geq a\right] P(Y \geq a) + E\left[Y|Y < a\right] P(Y < a) \\ E\left[Y|Y \geq a\right] \geq a \\ E\left[Y|Y < a\right] \geq 0 \\ P(Y \geq a) \geq 0 \\ P(Y < a) \geq 0 E[Y] \geq a P(Y \geq a) \end{split}$$

#### 25.1.2 Chebyshev's Inequality

**Theorem:** Let X have mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then for any a > 0

$$P(|X-\mu| \geq a) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{a^2}$$

Usage:

$$P(|X - \mu| \ge c\sigma) \le \frac{1}{c^2}$$

Proof

$$P(|X - \mu| \ge a) = P((X - \mu)^2 \ge a^2)$$

$$\le \frac{E\left[(X - \mu)^2\right]}{a^2}$$

$$= \frac{Var(X)}{a^2}$$

#### 25.2 Limit Theorem

#### 25.2.1 Weak law of large numbers

**Theorem:** for  $X_1, X_2 \dots$  i.i.d with finite expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , for each  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ , let  $\overline{X_n} = \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$ 

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \lim_{n \to \infty} P(|\overline{X_n} - \mu| \le 1) = 1]$$

**Proof**:

#### **VERY IMPORTANT**

Step 1:  $E[\overline{X_n}] = \mu$ 

$$E\left[\overline{X_n}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right] = \frac{1}{n}E\left[X_i\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \mu = \mu$$

Step 2:  $Var(\overline{X_n}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ 

$$Var\left(\overline{X_{n}}\right) = Var\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{n^{2}}Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Var(X_{i}) = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sigma^{2} = \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}$$

Step 3: Use the Chebyshev's inequality on  $\overline{X_n}$ 

$$P(|\overline{X_n} - \mu| \ge \epsilon) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2}$$

Hence

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P\left(\left|\overline{X_n} - \mu\right| \le \epsilon\right) = 1$$

**Theorem** Central Limit Theorem states that for  $X_1, X_2$  i.i.d from some distribution with finite mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma$ , for any  $n = 1, 2, 3 \dots$ ,

$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{X_1 \dots X_n}{n}$$

and

$$Z_n = \frac{\overline{X}_n - \mu}{\frac{sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} = \sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\overline{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \right)$$

# Chapter 26: Class 26 - Review

### 26.1 Q1

**Problem:** Suppose  $Y_1 ... Y_n$  are iid Ber(p), what is the approximate distribution of the sample mean  $\overline{Y}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{n=1}^{100} Y_i$  for n large.

Solution: By CLT, approximately

$$Y_i \approx N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) = N\left(p, \frac{p(1-p)}{n}\right)$$

This is useful because

$$\begin{split} &P \left( \text{ more than 60 heads in 100} \right) \\ =& P \left( N \left( p, \frac{p(1-p)}{n} \right) \geq 0.6 \right) \\ =& P \left( N \left( 0.5, \frac{1}{400} \right) \geq 0.6 \right) \\ =& P \left( N \left( 0, \frac{1}{400} \right) \geq 0.1 \right) \\ =& P \left( N \left( 0, 1 \right) \geq 2 \right) \\ =& 2.5\% \end{split}$$

### 26.2 Q2

**Problem**: Same as above, but now  $Y_i = aX_i + b$ 

**Solution**: By CLT, approximately

$$Y_i \approx N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right) = N\left(ap + b, \frac{a^2p(1-p)}{n}\right)$$

### 26.3 Q3

**Problem**:Same as above, but now  $Y_i = e^{-X_i}$  where  $X_i \sim Expo(1)$  Solution:

$$E[Y_i] = E[e^{-X_i}]$$

$$= \int_0^\infty e^{-x} e^{-x} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} E[Y_i^2] = \dots = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$Y_i \approx N\left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{12n}\right)$$

#### 26.4 Q4

Flip a coin until first heads. Let X denote number of tails seen.

$$E[X|X \le 2] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kP(X = k|X \le 2)$$

$$E[X|X \le 2] = \sum_{k=0}^{2} k \frac{P(X = k)}{7/8}$$

$$= \frac{8}{7} \sum_{k=0}^{2} k \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}$$

$$= \frac{81}{72}$$

$$= \frac{4}{7}$$

### 26.5 Q5

**Problem:** Given 2 coins, one with probability a of H, the other with b. Choosing one uniformly at random and flipping until first heads, what is the expected number of flips? Solution:

$$E[X] = E[X|A]P(A) + E[X|A^C]P(A^C) = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b})$$

#### 26.6 Q6

Given a coin with probability of head p, flip it once, and let X be the number of additional flip until it flips the original flip again. Compute E[X]

$$E[X] = E[X|A]P(A) + E[X|A^{C}]P(A^{C})$$

$$= \frac{1}{p}(p) + \frac{1}{1-p}(1-p)$$

$$= 2$$

# 26.7 Q7

Let  $A, B \sim Unif(0,1)$ , what is the probability that  $Ax^2 + Bx + 1$  has at least 1 real root?

$$P(B^2 - 4A \ge 0)$$

$$= P\left(A \le \frac{B^2}{4}\right)$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_0^{\frac{b^2}{4}} 1 da db$$

$$= \int_0^1 \frac{b^2}{4} db$$

$$= \frac{1}{12}$$