

Queens' College Cambridge

Introduction to Probability



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July 7, 2021

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1 Introduction

1.1 Combinatorics

1.1.1 Principle of Counting

Theorem 1.1.1. (Addition Principle of Counting) Suppose that we have two disjoint tasks T_1 and T_2 with n_1 ways of performing T_1 and n_2 ways of performing T_2 .

The number of ways of performing T_1 **or** T_2 is $n_1 + n_2$.

Corollary 1.1.1.1. (Generalised Addition Principle of Counting) Suppose we have the disjoint tasks T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n with n_1 ways of performing T_1 , and so on...

Then the number of ways of performing T_1 or T_2 or ... or T_n is $\sum_{i=1}^n n_i$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on n with the statement

$$P(n) = \forall \text{ disjoint tasks } T_1, \dots, T_n.$$

$$\# \text{ of ways of performing } T_1 \text{ or } \dots T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n n_i$$

and a basis of $n = 2$.

Base Case. $P(2)$ holds by Theorem ??.

Inductive Step. We wish to show that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}. P(n) \implies P(n+1)$. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$ be an arbitrary natural number. Let us assume that $P(n)$ holds, that is to say suppose T_1, \dots, T_n are some arbitrary disjoint tasks, then

$$\# \text{ of ways of performing } T_1 \text{ or } \dots T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n n_i.$$

We wish to show that $P(n+1)$ holds. Let us consider the disjoint tasks T_1, \dots, T_{n+1} . Let T denote the task of performing T_1 or ... or T_n . By our

inductive hypothesis, it follows that the number of ways of performing T is $\sum_{i=1}^n n_i$. Instantiating theorem ?? it follows that the number of ways of performing T or T_{n+1} is

$$\# \text{ of ways of performing } T \text{ or } T_{n+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n n_i + n_{n+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} n_i.$$

So we have $P(n+1)$.

By the Principle of Mathematical Induction, we conclude that $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$. \square

Theorem 1.1.2. (Product Principle of Counting) Suppose we have two tasks T_1 and T_2 with n_1 ways of performing T_1 and n_2 ways of performing T_2 .

The number of ways of performing T_1, T_2 in sequence is $n_1 \cdot n_2$.

Corollary 1.1.2.1. (Generalised Product Principle of Counting) Suppose we have the tasks T_1, \dots, T_n are to be performed in sequence, with n_1 ways of performing T_1 , and so on \dots . The number of ways of performing the sequence $T_1 T_2 \cdots T_n$ is $\prod_{i=1}^n n_i$.

Proof. Induction on n with a basis of $n = 2$. \square

Theorem 1.1.3. (The Pigeonhole Principle) Suppose n pigeons are assigned to m pigeonholes and $m < n$, then at least one pigeonhole contains two or more pigeons.

Proof. We proceed by contradiction. Let us assume that each pigeonhole contains at most 1 pigeon. Since n pigeons are assigned to m pigeonholes and $m < n$, then not all the pigeons have been assigned. A contradiction! \square

Theorem 1.1.4. (The Extended Pigeonhole Principle) Suppose there are m objects placed into n pigeonholes, then at least one pigeonhole has at least $\lceil \frac{m}{n} \rceil$ objects.

1.1.2 Permutations

Definition 1.1.1. (Permutation) A permutation of a set S is a ordered sequence $\pi = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \subseteq S$

Theorem 1.1.5. Suppose $0 \leq k \leq n$, let ${}_nP_k$ denote the number of k element permutations of a set of n elements. Then

$${}_nP_k = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots (n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}.$$

Proof. Suppose we have a set S of n elements. Let $0 \leq k \leq n$ be an arbitrary integer. We have k tasks in sequence:

- T_1 : Choose an element x_1 from S .
- T_2 : Choose an element x_2 from $S \setminus \{x_1\}$.
- \vdots
- T_k : Choose an element x_k from $S \setminus \{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$

Note that there are $|R|$ ways of choosing an element from a set T , so by the generalised product principle of counting, we have

$${}_nP_k = n \cdot (n-1) \cdots (n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}.$$

□

Theorem 1.1.6. (Permutations of Indistinct Objects) The number of distinguishable permutations formed from a multi-set of n element where n_1 objects are indistinct from each other, \dots , n_r objects are indistinct from each other is

$$\frac{n!}{n_1! \cdots n_r!} \text{ where } n_1 + \cdots + n_r = n.$$

1.1.3 Combinations

Definition 1.1.2. (Combination) A combination of a set S is an unordered sequence (a set) $\gamma \subseteq S$.

Theorem 1.1.7. Suppose $0 \leq k \leq n$, the number of k element combinations of a set of n elements is

$$\binom{n}{k} = {}_nC_k = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

Proof. Let ${}_nC_k$ denote the number of k element combinations of a set of n elements.

Note that to produce a permutation, we perform the two tasks in sequence:

- T_1 : Select a combination $\gamma \subseteq S$ containing k elements.
- T_2 : Choose a particular permutation π of γ .

Note that there are $k!$ permutations of γ , so by the product principle, we have

$$\begin{aligned} {}_nC_k \cdot k! &= {}_n P_k = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \\ \iff {}_nC_k &= \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.1.8. Suppose we have $k \geq 2$ blocks each with n_1, \dots, n_k elements such that $n_1 + \dots + n_k = n$, the number of such blocks on a set of n elements is

$$\binom{n}{n_1, \dots, n_k} = \frac{n!}{n_1! \dots n_k!}.$$

Proof. Suppose we have a set of n elements and $k \geq 2$ blocks each with n_1, \dots, n_k elements such that $n_1 + \dots + n_k = n$.

We have k tasks in sequence:

- T_1 : choose a combination of n_1 elements from n elements for the 1st block,
- T_2 : choose a combination of n_2 elements from $n - n_1$ elements for the 2nd block,
- \vdots
- T_k : choose a combination of n_k elements from $n - n_1 - \dots - n_{k-1}$ for the k th block.

So by the product principle of counting

$$\begin{aligned}
 \binom{n}{n_1, \dots, n_k} &= \binom{n}{n_1} \cdot \binom{n-n_1}{n_2} \cdots \binom{n-n_1-\cdots-n_{k-1}}{n_k} \\
 &= \frac{n!}{n_1!(n-n_1)!} \frac{(n-n_1)!}{n_2!(n-n_1-n_2)!} \cdots \frac{(n-n_1-\cdots-n_{k-1}-n_k)!}{n_k!(n-n_1-\cdots-n_{k-1}-n_k)!} \\
 &= \frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

1.2 Axioms of Probability

- A random experiment has *outcomes*, *events* and *probability*.
- The probability of some event ω occurring is denoted by $P(\omega)$.

Definition 1.2.1. (Probability Space) A probability space is a triple (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , where Ω is the set of possible outcomes, referred to as the *sample space*. $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ is the set of possible events. P is a probability measure of some event ω .

- Suppose ω_1 and ω_2 are events in the space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , then
 - **Union:** $\omega_1 \cup \omega_2$ is the event containing all outcomes of ω_1 **or** ω_2 .
 - **Intersection:** $\omega_1 \cap \omega_2$ is the event containing all outcomes of ω_1 **and** ω_2 .
 - **Complement:** $\bar{\omega}$ is the event containing all outcomes in Ω **not** in ω .
- Standard set theoretic laws holds (see discrete mathematics notes).

Definition 1.2.2. (Frequentist Definition of Probability) The probability measure P of some event ω is

$$P(\omega) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(\omega)}{n},$$

where $n(E)$ is the number of trials where ω occurs and n is the number of trials.

1.2.1 Kolmogorov's Axioms

1. For all events $\omega \in \mathcal{F}$, the probability of ω occurs is in the range of 0 to 1, that is

$$\forall \omega \in \mathcal{F}. P(\omega) \in [0, 1].$$

2. The probability of sample space Ω is $P(\Omega) = 1$.
3. For any collection of mutually exclusive (pairwise disjoint) outcomes $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n$ occurring satisfies:

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n \omega_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(\omega_i).$$

1.2.2 Theorems

Theorem 1.2.1. (Probability of the Empty Set)

$$P(\emptyset) = 0.$$

Proof. Let $\omega_1 = A$ and $\omega_2 = B \setminus A$ where $A \subseteq B$ and $\omega_3 = \emptyset$. Note that we have $B = \omega_1 \cup \omega_2 \cup \omega_3$ and $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_3$ are mutually exclusive. So by Kolmogorov's third axiom,

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= \sum_{i=1}^3 P(\omega_i) \\ &= P(A) + P(B \setminus A) + P(\emptyset) \\ &= P(B) + P(\emptyset) \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$P(\emptyset) = 0.$$

□

Corollary 1.2.1.1. For all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$, if $A \subseteq B$ then $P(A) \leq P(B)$.

Theorem 1.2.2. (Addition Law) For all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$, the probability of A or B occurring is

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

Proof. Let $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ be arbitrary events. Let us note that $A \setminus B$, $A \cap B$ and $B \setminus A$ are mutually exclusive, hence by Kolmogorov's 3rd axiom,

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= P(A \setminus B) + P(A \cap B) \\ P(B) &= P(B \setminus A) + P(A \cap B) \\ P(A \cup B) &= P(A \setminus B) + P(B \setminus A) + P(A \cap B) \end{aligned}$$

Hence

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

□

Corollary 1.2.2.1. (Inclusion-Exclusion Principle) For all events $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n \in \mathcal{F}$, we have

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n \omega_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} \sum_{1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_i \leq n} P(\omega_{j_1} \cap \dots \cap \omega_{j_i}).$$

Proof. Induction on n with a basis of $n = 2$. □

Corollary 1.2.2.2. (Boole's Inequality) For all events $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n$, we have

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

Theorem 1.2.3. (Complement Law) For all events $A \in \mathcal{F}$, the probability of \bar{A} occurring is

$$P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A).$$

Proof. By Kolmogorov's 1st axiom, we have $P(\Omega) = 1$. We note that for all events $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $\Omega = A \cup (\Omega \setminus A) = A \cup \bar{A}$. Hence

$$P(A \cup \bar{A}) = 1.$$

Note that A and \bar{A} are mutually exclusive events, so by Kolmogorov's 3rd axiom,

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) + P(\bar{A}) &= 1 \\ \iff P(\bar{A}) &= 1 - P(A) \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.2.4. (Subset Law) For all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$, if $A \subseteq B$ the $P(A) \leq P(B)$.

Proof. Let $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ be arbitrary events. Let us assume that $A \subseteq B$. Since A and $B \setminus A$ are mutually exclusive events, then by Kolmogorov's 3rd axiom, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= P(A) + P(B \setminus A) \\ &\geq P(A) \end{aligned} \quad \text{1st axiom. } P(B \setminus A) \geq 0$$

□

1.3 Conditional Probability

Definition 1.3.1. (Conditional Probability) Consider a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The conditional probability of event A given B has occurred (denoted $P(A | B)$) where $P(B) > 0$ is

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

- Conditional probability is equivalent to considering a probability space $(B, \mathcal{F}, P(\cdot | B))$ and considering the event $A \cap B$.

Theorem 1.3.1. (Generalised Chain Rule) For all events $A_1, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{F}$

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = P(A_1)P(A_2 | A_1) \cdots P(A_n | A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{n-1}).$$

1.3.1 Bayes' Theorem

Theorem 1.3.2. (Bayes' Theorem) For all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ where $P(A), P(B) > 0$,

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

- A and B are referred as hypothesis and evidence respectively.
- $P(A)$ is the prior probability of the hypothesis.

- $P(B | A)$ is the likelihood.
- $P(B)$ is the “normalization” constant (ensures Kolmogorov’s 1st axiom holds).
- $P(A | B)$ is the posterior probability of the hypothesis

Theorem 1.3.3. (Partition Theorem) For disjoint events B_1, \dots, B_n such that $\bigcup B_i = \Omega$ (a partition of Ω), for all events $A \in \mathcal{F}$ we have

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A | B_i)P(B_i).$$

Corollary 1.3.3.1. (Bayes’ Second Theorem) For a partition C_1, \dots, C_n on Ω , for all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ where $P(A), P(B) > 0$,

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(B | A)P(A)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B | A)P(A)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(B | C_i)P(C_i)}.$$

1.3.2 Independence

Definition 1.3.2. (Independence) For all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$, A and B are said to be independent if and only if

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

In general, the set of events $\mathcal{T} = \{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ are said to be independent if and only if

$$\forall \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{T}. P\left(\bigcap_{A_i \in \mathcal{S}} A_i\right) = \prod_{A_i \in \mathcal{S}} P(A_i).$$

Theorem 1.3.4. For all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$, A and B are independent if and only if

$$P(A | B) = P(A).$$

Proof. Let events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ be arbitrary. By definition, A and B are independent if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap B) &= P(A) \cdot P(B) \\ \iff P(A | B) &= \frac{P(A) \cdot P(B)}{P(B)} \\ &= P(A) \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 1.3.5. (Independence Of Complements) For all events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$, if A and B are independent, then A and \overline{B} are independent.

Proof. Let events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ be arbitrary. Let us assume that A and B are independent, that is to say

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

Consider $P(A \cap \overline{B})$. So we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap \overline{B}) &= P(A \setminus B) \\ &= P(A) - P(A \cap B) && \text{(see theorem ??)} \\ &= P(A) - P(A) \cdot P(B) \\ &= P(A) \cdot (1 - P(B)) \\ &= P(A) \cdot P(\overline{B}) && \text{(complement law)} \end{aligned}$$

Hence A and \overline{B} are independent. □

Definition 1.3.3. (Conditional Independence) For all events $A, B, C \in \mathcal{F}$, A and B are said to be conditionally independent given C if and only if

$$P(A \cap B \mid C) = P(A \mid C) \cdot P(B \mid C).$$

Theorem 1.3.6. For all events $A, B, C \in \mathcal{F}$, A and B are said to be conditionally independent given C if and only if

$$P(A \mid B \cap C) = P(A \mid C).$$

2 Random Variables

- **Motivation:** desire to work with a real-valued function on probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) instead of outcomes $\omega \in \Omega$.
- This defines the notation of a *random variable*.

Definition 2.0.1. (Random Variable) A random variable on the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is a total function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}. \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq x\} \in \mathcal{F}.$$

Definition 2.0.2. (Cumulative Distribution Function) For a random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the cumulative distribution function (c.d.f) of X is defined as

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq x\}) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

Theorem 2.0.1. (Properties of c.d.f) For random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the c.d.f F_X satisfies

1. The direct image $\overrightarrow{F_X}(\mathbb{R}) = [0, 1]$.
2. If $x < y$ then $F_X(x) < F_X(y)$.
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_X(x) = 1$.
4. If $a < b$, then

$$P(a < X \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a).$$

2.1 Discrete Random Variables

Definition 2.1.1. (Discrete Random Variable) A random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is discrete if if

1. The direct image $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \{X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R} : \omega \in \Omega\}$ is a countable set.

Definition 2.1.2. (Probability Mass Function) For a discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the probability mass function (p.m.f) of X , denoted $p_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is defined as

$$P(X = x) = p_X(x) = \begin{cases} P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\}) & \text{if } x \in \vec{X}(\Omega) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

- By Kolmogorov's axioms, the p.m.f p_X satisfies
 1. For all $x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)$, $p_X(x) \geq 0$.
 2. For any interval \mathcal{I} , $P(X \in \mathcal{I}) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{I}} p_X(x)$
 3. $\sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} p_X(x) = 1$.
- The p.m.f p_X describes a **distribution** of probabilities over the outcomes of X .

Definition 2.1.3. (Cumulative Distribution Function) For a discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the cumulative distribution of X is

$$F_X(y) = \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega) : x \leq y} P(X = x).$$

2.1.1 Expectation and Variance

Definition 2.1.4. (Expectation) For a discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the expectation of X is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} xP(X = x).$$

provided the sum is absolutely convergent, that is

$$\sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} |xP(X = x)| < \infty.$$

- $\mathbb{E}[X]$ is often referred to as the expected value, mean or the first moment.

- $\mathbb{E}[X^n]$ is the n th moment.

Theorem 2.1.1. For a discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is some transformation, then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} g(x)P(X = x),$$

provided the sum is absolutely convergent.

Proof. Let X be a discrete random variable on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let Y be a discrete random variable s.t $Y(\omega) = g(X)(\omega) = g(X(\omega))$. Consider the expectation of Y , so

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[g(X)] &= \mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{y \in \vec{g}(\vec{X}(\Omega))} yP(Y = y) \\ &= \sum_{y \in \vec{g}(\vec{X}(\Omega))} y \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega): g(x)=y} P(X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} g(x)P(X = x) \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 2.1.1.1. (Linearity of Expectation) For all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbb{E}[aX + b] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b.$$

Proof. Let X be a discrete random variable on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. Let $g(x) = ax + b : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[aX + b] &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} (ax + b)P(X = x) \\ &= a \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} xP(X = x) + b \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} P(X = x) \\ &= a\mathbb{E}[X] + b \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 2.1.5. (Variance) For the random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the variance of X is

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E} [(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2].$$

- Expectation defines the “central location” $\mathbb{E}[X]$.
- Variance is the expected deviation (dispersion) of X about it's expected value
- Deviation is $|X - \mathbb{E}[X]|$, but, $|\cdot|$ is difficult \implies use $(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2$
- The expected deviation in correct units is the **standard deviation**

$$\sigma(X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}[X]} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E} [(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2]}.$$

Theorem 2.1.2. For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the variance of X is

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2.$$

Proof. Let X be a discrete random variable on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . Let $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}[X] &= \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] \\ &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} (x - \mu)^2 P(X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} (x^2 - 2x\mu + \mu^2) P(X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x^2 P(X = x) - 2\mu \left(\sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x P(X = x) \right) + \mu^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2\mu^2 + \mu^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 2.1.3. (Non-linearity of Variance) For a discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . For all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{Var}[aX + b] = a^2 \text{Var}[X].$$

Proof. Let X be a discrete random variable on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[aX + b] &= \mathbb{E}[(aX + b - \mathbb{E}[aX + b])^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(aX + b - a\mathbb{E}[X] - b)^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[a^2(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \\ &= a^2 \text{Var}[X]\end{aligned}$$

□

2.1.2 Discrete Distributions

Bernoulli Distribution

Definition 2.1.6. (Bernoulli Distribution) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has the Bernoulli distribution with parameter $0 \leq p \leq 1$ iff

1. $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \{0, 1\}$
- 2.

$$P(X = x) = p_X(x) = \begin{cases} p & x = 1 \\ 1 - p & x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim \text{Bern}(p)$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = p$.
- $\text{Var}[X] = p(1 - p)$.
- **Description:** A single experiment with probability p of success.

Discrete Uniform Distribution

Definition 2.1.7. (Discrete Uniform Distribution) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has discrete uniform distribution with parameter n iff

1. $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \{1, \dots, n\}$

2.

$$P(X = x) = p_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } x \in \{1, \dots, n\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim U(n)$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = (n + 1)/2$.
- $\text{Var}[X] = (n^2 - 1)/12$.
- **Description:** A single experiment with all outcomes equally likely.

Binomial Distribution

Definition 2.1.8. (Binomial Distribution) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has the Binomial distribution with parameters $n \geq 1$ and $p \in [0, 1]$ iff

1. $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$.

2.

$$P(X = x) = p_X(x) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}.$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim B(n, p)$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = np$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = np(1 - p)$.
- **Description:** n independent trials with probability p of success.

Negative Binomial Distribution

Definition 2.1.9. (Negative Binomial Distribution) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has the Negative Binomial distribution with parameters $r > 0$ and $p \in [0, 1]$ iff

1. $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \{r, r + 1, \dots, \}$

2.

$$P(X = x) = p_X(x) = \binom{x-1}{r-1} p^r (1 - p)^{x-r}.$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim \text{NB}(r, p)$
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = r/p$.
- $\text{Var}[X] = r(1 - p)/p^2$
- **Description:** X models the number of independent trials until r successes.

Poisson Distribution

Definition 2.1.10. (Poisson Distribution) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has the Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda > 0$ iff

- $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \mathbb{N}$.

-

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

- **Notation:** $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda$
- $\text{Var}[X] = \lambda$
- **Description:** X models number of successes over experiment duration, where λ is the rate of success.

Theorem 2.1.4. (Binomial Approximated by Poisson Distribution)

Let X be a discrete random variable on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with the binomial distribution with parameters n and p . Suppose n is “large” and p is “small”, then X can be approximated by a Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda = np$.

Proof. Let X be as described. Let $np = \lambda$. So

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X = x) &= \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \\
 &= \frac{n!}{(n-x)!x!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x} \\
 &= \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-x+1)}{x!} \frac{\lambda^x}{n^x} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{-x} \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-x+1)}{n^x} \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x}
 \end{aligned}$$

Taking the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X = x) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-x+1)}{n^x} \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x} \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda}
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence the result. \square

Geometric Distribution

Definition 2.1.11. (Geometric Distribution) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has the Geometric distribution with parameter $p \in [0, 1]$ iff

1. $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \mathbb{Z}^+$
- 2.

$$P(X = x) = p_X(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1}.$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = 1/p$.
- $\text{Var}[X] = (1-p)/p^2$.
- **Description:** X models the number of independent trials until first success with probability p .
- $\text{Geo}(p) \equiv \text{NB}(1, p)$

Hypergeometric Distribution

Definition 2.1.12. (Hypergeometric Distribution) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has a Hypergeometric distribution with parameters $N \geq 0, 0 \leq m \leq N, 0 \leq n \leq N$ iff

$$1. \quad \vec{X}(\Omega) = \{\max(0, n - (N - m)), \dots, \min(m, n)\}$$

2.

$$P(X = x) = p_X(x) = \frac{\binom{m}{x} \binom{N-m}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}.$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim \text{Hyp}(N, n, m)$.

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = n \frac{m}{N}$.

-

$$\text{Var}[X] = n \frac{m}{N} \left(1 - \frac{m}{N}\right) \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{N-1}\right).$$

- **Description:** X models number of successes of sampling member with a feature without replacement in a sample size of n from a population of size N with m items with the feature

2.2 Continuous Random Variables

Definition 2.2.1. (Continuous Random Variable) A random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is continuous iff there exists a function f_X s.t. for all intervals \mathcal{I}

$$P(X \in \mathcal{I}) = \int_{\mathcal{I}} f_X(x) dx,$$

where f_X is the **probability density function** (p.d.f) of X .

- By Kolmogorov's Axioms, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$.

- and,

$$P(X = x) = 0$$

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

$$P(x \leq X \leq x + dx) = f_X(x) dx$$

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}. f_X(x) \geq 0$$

Definition 2.2.2. (Cumulative Distribution Function) For a continuous random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the cumulative distribution of X is

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(u) \, du.$$

- By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{d}{dx} F_X(x) & \text{if the derivative exists at } x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

2.2.1 Expectation and Variance

Definition 2.2.3. (Expectation) For a continuous random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the expectation of X is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x f_X(x) \, dx.$$

provided the integral is absolutely convergent, that is

$$\int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} |x f_X(x)| \, dx < \infty.$$

Theorem 2.2.1. For a continuous variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is some transformation, then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} g(x) f_X(x) \, dx,$$

provided the integral is absolutely convergent.

Proof. Let X and g be as described. Let Y be a continuous random variable s.t $Y(\omega) = g(X)(\omega) = g(X(\omega))$. By inverse rule,

$$\frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) = \frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(y))}.$$

Since $x = g^{-1}(y)$, it follows that

$$dx = \frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(y))} dy.$$

Similarly, note that

$$\begin{aligned} F_Y(y) &= P(g(X) \leq y) \\ &= P(X \leq g^{-1}(y)) \\ &= F_X(g^{-1}(y)) \end{aligned}$$

Hence by the chain rule,

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(y))}.$$

Consider the expectation of Y . So

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[g(X)] &= \mathbb{E}[Y] = \int_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} y f_Y(y) dy \\ &= \int_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} y f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(y))} dy \\ &= \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} g(x) f_X(x) \frac{1}{g'(x)} [g'(x) dx] \quad y = g(x) \text{ sub} \\ &= \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} g(x) f_X(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 2.2.4. (Variance) For the random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the variance of X is

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 f_X(x) dx.$$

Theorem 2.2.2. For continuous random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the variance of X is

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2.$$

Proof. Let X be a continuous random variable on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . Let $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$.

So

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var}[X] &= \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] \\
 &= \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} (x - \mu)^2 f_X(x) \, dx \\
 &= \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} (x^2 - 2\mu x + \mu^2) f_X(x) \, dx \\
 &= \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x^2 f_X(x) \, dx - 2\mu \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x f_X(x) \, dx + \mu^2 \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2\mu^2 + \mu^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2
 \end{aligned}$$

□

2.2.2 Continuous Distributions

Continuous Uniform Distribution

Definition 2.2.5. (Continuous Uniform Distribution) For continuous random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has continuous uniform distribution with parameters $\alpha < \beta$ iff

1. $\vec{X}(\Omega) = [a, b]$

- 2.

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} & \alpha \leq x \leq \beta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim U[\alpha, \beta]$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = (\alpha + \beta)/2$.
- $\text{Var}[X] = (\beta - \alpha)^2/12$.
- **Description:** A single experiment with all outcomes equally likely.

Exponential Distribution

Definition 2.2.6. (Exponential Distribution) For continuous random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has the Exponential distribution with parameter λ iff

1. $\vec{X}(\Omega) = \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$.

2.

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

- **Notation:** $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = 1/\lambda$.
- $\text{Var}[X] = 1/\lambda^2$.
- **Description:** X models the time until an event (first success) occurs with rate λ .

Normal Distribution

Definition 2.2.7. (Normal Distribution) For continuous random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X has the Normal (Gaussian) distribution with parameters $\mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma^2 > 0$ iff

1.

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[-\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right].$$

- **Notation:** $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$.
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$.
- $\text{Var}[X] = \sigma^2$.

Definition 2.2.8. (Standard Normal Distribution) The standard Gaussian distribution is $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

- Transformation from $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ using

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma},$$

so $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ by linearity of expectation and non-linearity of variance.
So

$$f_Z(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2}.$$

- The c.d.f of Z , $F_Z(z)$ is denoted by $\Phi(z)$, with $\Phi(-z) = 1 - \Phi(z)$.

2.3 Independence, Joint and Conditional Distributions

2.3.1 Joint Distributions

Definition 2.3.1. (Joint Cumulative Distribution) For two random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the joint cumulative distribution F_{XY} is

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq x\} \cap \{\omega \in \Omega : Y(\omega) \leq y\}).$$

Discrete Case

Definition 2.3.2. (Joint Probability Mass Function) For two discrete random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the joint probability mass function is

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = x, Y = y) &= p_{X,Y}(x, y) \\ &= \begin{cases} P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x \wedge Y(\omega) = y\}) & \text{if } x \in \vec{X}(\Omega), y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

- By Kolmogorov's axioms, must satisfy

$$\sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega), y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} p_{X,Y}(x, y) = 1.$$

- So for all domains \mathcal{D}

$$P((X, Y) \in \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathcal{D}} p_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

Definition 2.3.3. (Marginal Probability Mass Functions) For two discrete random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . Let $p_{X,Y}$ be the joint p.m.f of X and Y . Then p_X and p_Y are marginal probability mass functions of X and Y , where

$$\begin{aligned} p_X(x) &= \sum_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} p_{X,Y}(x, y) \\ p_Y(y) &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} p_{X,Y}(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

Definition 2.3.4. (Joint Expectation) For two discrete random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with joint p.m.f $p_{X,Y}$ and function $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)] = \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega), y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} g(x, y) p_{X,Y}(x, y).$$

Theorem 2.3.1. (Linearity and Monotone)

1. For two discrete random variables $X \leq Y$ on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq \mathbb{E}[Y]$
2. For arbitrary discrete random variables X_1, \dots, X_n on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i].$$

Continuous Case

Definition 2.3.5. (Jointly Continuous) For two continuous random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , X, Y are said to be jointly continuous if there exists a joint density function $f_{X,Y}$ s.t for all domains \mathcal{D}

$$P((X, Y) \in \mathcal{D}) = \iint_{\mathcal{D}} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy.$$

- By Kolmogorov's axioms, must satisfy

$$\iint_{\vec{X}(\Omega) \times \vec{Y}(\Omega)} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy = 1.$$

- The joint c.d.f is given by

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

Definition 2.3.6. (Marginal Probability Density Functions) For two jointly continuous random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with joint density function $f_{X,Y}(x, y)$. The p.d.fs f_X and f_Y are the marginal probability density functions of X and Y where

$$f_X(x) = \int_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy$$

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx$$

Definition 2.3.7. (Joint Expectation) For two discrete random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with joint p.d.f $f_{X,Y}$ and function $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X, Y)] = \iint_{\vec{X}(\Omega) \times \vec{Y}(\Omega)} g(x, y) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, dx \, dy.$$

Theorem 2.3.2. (Linearity and Monotone)

1. For two continuous random variables $X \leq Y$ on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , $\mathbb{E}[X] \leq \mathbb{E}[Y]$
2. For arbitrary continuous random variables X_1, \dots, X_n on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i].$$

Mixed Case

Definition 2.3.8. (Mixed Joint Density Function) For a continuous random variable X and a discrete random variable Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The mixed joint density is defined as

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

2.3.2 Conditional Distributions

Definition 2.3.9. (Conditional Probability Mass Function) For two discrete random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the conditional probability mass function of X given $Y = y$ is defined as

$$P(X = x \mid Y = y) = p_X(x \mid Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}.$$

Definition 2.3.10. (Conditional Probability Density Function) For two continuous random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the conditional probability density function of X given $Y = y$ is defined as

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

where $f_Y(y) > 0$.

- Conditional p.d.f not v. intuitive, consider

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X = x + dx \mid Y = y + dy) &= \frac{P(X = x + dx \mid Y = y + dy)}{P(Y = y + dy)} \\
 &= \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy}{f_Y(y) dy} \\
 &= \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)} dx = f_X(x \mid Y = y) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

Definition 2.3.11. (Conditional Expectation) For two random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the conditional expectation of X given $Y = y$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[X \mid Y = y] &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x P(X = x \mid Y = y) && \text{(discrete case)} \\
 &= \int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x f_X(x \mid Y = y) dx && \text{(continuous case)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2.3.3. (Law of Iterated Expectation) For two random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y]].$$

Proof. For the discrete case, let X, Y be two discrete random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . So

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[[X \mid Y]] &= \sum_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} \mathbb{E}[X \mid Y = y] P(Y = y) \\
 &= \sum_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} \left(\sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x P(X = x \mid Y = y) \right) P(Y = y) \\
 &= \sum_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)} P(Y = y) \\
 &= \sum_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x P(X = x, Y = y) \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[X]
 \end{aligned}$$

For the continuous case, let X, Y be two continuous random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . So

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[X | Y] &= \int_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} \mathbb{E}[X | Y = y] f_Y(y) \, dy \\
 &= \int_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} \left(\int_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} x f_X(x | Y = y) \, dx \right) f_Y(y) \, dy \\
 &= \iint_{(x,y) \in \vec{X}(\Omega) \times \vec{Y}(\Omega)} x \frac{f_{X,Y}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)} f_Y(y) \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \iint_{(x,y) \in \vec{X}(\Omega) \times \vec{Y}(\Omega)} x f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[X]
 \end{aligned}$$

□

2.3.3 Independence

Definition 2.3.12. (Independent Discrete Random Variables) For two discrete random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . X and Y are independent iff

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

Definition 2.3.13. (Independent Continuous Random Variables) For two continuous random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . X and Y are independent iff

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y).$$

Theorem 2.3.4. (Expectation of Independent Random Variables) For two independent random variables X and Y and function $g, h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X) \cdot h(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[g(X)] \cdot \mathbb{E}[h(Y)].$$

Proof. For the discrete case, let X, Y be two independent discrete random

variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . So

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[g(X) \cdot h(Y)] &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega), y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} g(x)h(y)P(X = x, Y = y) \\
 &= \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega), y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} g(x)h(y)P(X = x)P(Y = y) \\
 &= \left(\sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega)} g(x)P(X = x) \right) \left(\sum_{y \in \vec{Y}(\Omega)} h(y)P(Y = y) \right) \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[g(X)] \cdot \mathbb{E}[h(Y)]
 \end{aligned}$$

For the continuous case, let X, Y be two independent continuous random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . So

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[g(X) \cdot h(Y)] &= \iint_{\vec{X}(\Omega) \times \vec{Y}(\Omega)} g(x)h(y)f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \iint_{\vec{X}(\Omega) \times \vec{Y}(\Omega)} g(x)h(y)f_X(x)f_Y(y) \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \int_{\vec{X}(\Omega)} g(x)f_X(x) \, dx \cdot \int_{\vec{Y}(\Omega)} h(y)f_Y(y) \, dy \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[g(X)] \cdot \mathbb{E}[h(X)]
 \end{aligned}$$

□

2.4 Covariance and Correlation

2.4.1 Covariance

Definition 2.4.1. (Covariance) For two random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The **covariance** of X and Y is

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X]) \cdot (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])].$$

Theorem 2.4.1. For two random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The **covariance** of X and Y is

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y].$$

Proof. Let X, Y be two arbitrary random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . So we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Cov}[X, Y] &= \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X]) \cdot (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[XY - X \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y] - Y \cdot \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Y] \cdot X] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X] \cdot Y] + \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[Y] \cdot \mathbb{E}[X] - \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y] + \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]
 \end{aligned}$$

□

- $\text{Cov}[X, X] = \text{Var}[X]$.
- If X, Y are independent, $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = 0$.

Theorem 2.4.2. (Variance-Covariance formula) For arbitrary random variables X_1, \dots, X_n on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right)^2 \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i^2] + \sum_{i \neq j} \mathbb{E}[X_i \cdot X_j] \quad (\text{i})$$

$$\text{Var} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i] + \sum_{i \neq j} \text{Cov}[X_i, X_j] \quad (\text{ii})$$

Proof. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be arbitrary random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . We note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right)^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n X_i X_j \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 + \sum_{i \neq j} X_i X_j
 \end{aligned}$$

Applying the linearity of expectation yields (i). (ii) follows from (i),

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] \right)^2 \right] \\
 &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i]) \right)^2 \right] \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i] + \sum_{i \neq j} \mathbb{E} [(X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i]) (X_j - \mathbb{E}[X_j])] \quad (\text{by (i)})
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 2.4.3. (Linearity of Variance for Independence Random Variables) For independent random variables X_1, \dots, X_n on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

$$\text{Var} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i].$$

2.4.2 Correlation

- Let $X = I_A$ and $Y = I_B$, for two events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $\mathbb{E}[X] = P(A)$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y] = P(B)$, and $\mathbb{E}[XY] = P(A \cap B)$ then

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = P(A \cap B) - P(A)P(B) = P(A) [P(B | A) - P(B)].$$

- If $\text{Cov}[X, Y] > 0 \implies P(B | A) > P(B)$. Then A and B are positively correlated (vice versa).
- If $P(B | A) = P(B)$ then X and Y are uncorrelated.

Definition 2.4.2. (Correlation Coefficient) Let X and Y be two random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The correlation coefficient of X and Y is defined by

$$\rho(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[X] \cdot \text{Var}[Y]}}.$$

If $\text{Var}[X], \text{Var}[Y] = 0$, then $\rho(X, Y) = 0$.

Theorem 2.4.4. For two random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) ,

- (i) The correlation coefficient is scaling invariant, for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $\rho(X, Y) = \rho(aX, bY)$.
- (ii) $\rho(X, Y) \in [-1, 1]$.

Proof. Let X, Y be as described. For (i), let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. We note that by the linearity of expectation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}[aX, bY] &= \mathbb{E}[aXbY] - \mathbb{E}[aX] \cdot \mathbb{E}[bY] \\ &= ab(\mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y]) = ab \text{Cov}[X, Y] \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by the non-linearity of variance

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(aX, bY) &= \frac{\text{Cov}[aX, bY]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[aX] \cdot \text{Var}[bY]}} \\ &= \frac{ab \text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sqrt{a^2 \text{Var}[X] \cdot b^2 \text{Var}[Y]}} \\ &= \rho(X, Y) \end{aligned}$$

For (ii), $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. Let $V = X - \mathbb{E}[X]$ and $W = Y - \mathbb{E}[Y]$. We note that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[(V + \lambda W)^2] &\geq 0 \\ \iff \mathbb{E}[V^2 + 2\lambda VW + \lambda^2 W^2] &\geq 0 \\ \iff \mathbb{E}[W^2]\lambda^2 + 2\mathbb{E}[VW]\lambda + \mathbb{E}[V^2] &\geq 0 \\ \iff \text{Var}[Y]\lambda^2 + 2 \text{Cov}[X, Y]\lambda + \text{Var}[X] &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\text{Var}[Y] \geq 0$, hence convex quadratic function of λ . Hence the function ≥ 0 iff the discriminant $\Delta \leq 0$. So we have

$$\begin{aligned} 4 \text{Cov}^2[X, Y] - 4 \text{Var}[X] \cdot \text{Var}[Y] &\leq 0 \\ \iff \rho^2(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}^2[X, Y]}{\text{Var}[X] \cdot \text{Var}[Y]} &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\rho(X, Y) \in [-1, 1]$ □

3 Moment and Limit Theorems

3.1 Markov, Chebyshev and Jensen Inequalities

Theorem 3.1.1. (Markov Inequality) For random variable $X \geq 0$ on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , for $a > 0$, we have

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{1}{a} \mathbb{E}[X].$$

Proof. Let X and a be as described. The crucial observation

$$I_{\{X \geq a\}} \leq \frac{1}{a} X.$$

By theorem ??,

$$P(X \geq a) = \mathbb{E}[I_{\{X \geq a\}}] \leq \frac{1}{a} \mathbb{E}[X].$$

□

Theorem 3.1.2. (Chebyshev Inequality) For random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . If $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}[X] = \sigma^2$ are both finite, then for all $k > 0$,

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

Proof. Let X, μ, σ^2 and k be as described. We note that

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq k) = P((X - \mu)^2 \geq k^2).$$

By the Markov Inequality, we have

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

□

Theorem 3.1.3. (Jensen's Inequality) For random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . If g is convex, then

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

Proof. Let X and g be as described. Define the line y

$$y(x) - g(x_0) = g'(x_0)(x - x_0).$$

for $x_0 = \mathbb{E}[X]$. Note that y is tangent to g at x_0 . Since g is convex, it follows that

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}. y(x) \leq g(x).$$

Hence $y(X) \leq g(X)$. By theorem ?? we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[g(X)] &\geq \mathbb{E}[y(X)] = \mathbb{E}[g'(x_0)(X - x_0) + g(x_0)] \\ &= g'(x_0)\mathbb{E}[X - x_0] + g(x_0) \\ &= g'(x_0)(\mathbb{E}[X] - \mathbb{E}[X]) + g(\mathbb{E}[X]) = g(\mathbb{E}[X]) \end{aligned}$$

□

3.2 Weak Law of Large Numbers

- Weak law of large numbers formalizes the idea “if event A occurs w/ probability p , then repeating the trial a large number of times n , $n(A)/n \rightarrow p$ ”

Theorem 3.2.1. (Weak Law of Large Numbers) Let X, X_1, \dots, X_n be independent and identically distributed random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) w/ finite expectation and variance, then \overline{X}_n converges to $\mathbb{E}[X]$, that is for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\left|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \mathbb{E}[X]\right| \geq \epsilon\right) = 0.$$

Proof. Let X, X_1, \dots, X_n be as described. Let us define

$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i,$$

then

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

Since X, X_1, \dots, X_n are identically distributed, then

$$\forall 1 \leq i \leq n. \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mathbb{E}[X].$$

Hence

$$\mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n}] = \frac{n\mathbb{E}[X]}{n} = \mathbb{E}[X].$$

Similarly, since X, X_1, \dots, X_n are independent, then by theorem ??

$$\text{Var}[\overline{X_n}] = \frac{\text{Var}[X]}{n}.$$

Instantiating Chebyshev's inequality with $X = \overline{X_n}, k = \epsilon$ gives us

$$P(|\overline{X_n} - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}[X]}{n\epsilon^2}.$$

By Kolmogorov's axioms,

$$P(|\overline{X_n} - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq \epsilon) \geq 0.$$

So

$$0 \leq P(|\overline{X_n} - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\text{Var}[X]}{n\epsilon^2}.$$

We have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{Var}[X]}{n\epsilon^2} = 0.$$

So by the Squeeze Theorem,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\overline{X_n} - \mathbb{E}[X]| \geq \epsilon) = 0.$$

□

3.3 Moment Generating Functions

Definition 3.3.1. For a random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , the moment generating function of X , ϕ_X is defined as

$$\phi_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}],$$

for all t such that the expectation consists.

Theorem 3.3.1. (Moment of Moment Generating Function) For random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with moment generating function ϕ_X , the n th moment is

$$\mathbb{E}[X^n] = \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \right|_{t=0} \phi_X(t).$$

Proof. Let X, ϕ_X be as described. Consider n th derivative of ϕ_X . So we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \phi_X(t) &= \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] \\ &= \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(tX)^m}{m!} \right] \\ &= \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{E} \left[\frac{t^m X^m}{m!} \right] \\ &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{d^n}{dt^n} \left(\frac{t^m}{m!} \right) \mathbb{E}[X^m] \\ &= \sum_{m=n}^{\infty} \frac{m \cdots (m - (n + 1)) t^{m-n}}{m!} \mathbb{E}[X^m] \\ &= \sum_{m=n}^{\infty} \frac{m! t^{m-n}}{m! (m - n)!} \mathbb{E}[X^m] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X^n] + \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{m! t^{m-n}}{m! (m - n)!} \mathbb{E}[X^m] \end{aligned}$$

Setting $t = 0$ gives us the result. \square

Theorem 3.3.2. (Moment Generating Function of Independent Random Variables) Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

with moment generating functions $\phi_{X_i}(t)$. For all $k_1, \dots, k_n \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\phi_X(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n \phi_{X_i}(k_i t),$$

for all t where

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^n k_i X_i.$$

Proof. Let X_1, \dots, X_n and ϕ_{X_i} be as described. Let $k_1, \dots, k_n \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary. Define

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^n k_i X_i.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_X(t) &= \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\exp\left(t \sum_{i=1}^n k_i X_i\right)\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\prod_{i=1}^n e^{tk_i X_i}\right] \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[e^{tk_i X_i}] && \text{(theorem ??)} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \phi_{X_i}(k_i t) \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 3.3.3. (Linear Transformation of Moment Generating Function) For random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with moment generating function ϕ_X . For all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\phi_Z(t) = e^{\beta t} \phi_X(\alpha t),$$

where $Z = \alpha X + \beta$.

Proof. Let X, ϕ_X, α, β and Z be as described. So

$$\begin{aligned}
 \phi_Z(t) &= \mathbb{E}[e^{tZ}] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[\exp(t(\alpha X + \beta))] \\
 &= \mathbb{E}[e^{t\alpha X} e^{\beta t}] \\
 &= e^{\beta t} \mathbb{E}[e^{(\alpha t)X}] \\
 &= e^{\beta t} \phi_X(\alpha t)
 \end{aligned}$$

□

3.4 Central Limit Theorem

Theorem 3.4.1. Let X, X_1, \dots, X_n be independent and identically distributed random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) w/ finite expectation μ and variance σ^2 .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\frac{S_n - \mu n}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \leq x\right) = \Phi(x),$$

where

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

Proof. Let X, X_1, \dots, X_n be as described. Let us define

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \qquad Z_n = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}$$

So we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z_n &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}
 \end{aligned}$$

Let us define

$$Y_i = \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

Hence

$$Z_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i.$$

Let us assume that for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, the moment generating function of X_i , ϕ_{X_i} exists and is finite. Hence by theorem ??, the moment generating function of Y_i is given by

$$\phi_{Y_i}(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\right) \phi_{X_i}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}t\right)$$

Let us now consider the moment generating function of Z_n . Since Y_1, \dots, Y_n are independent identically distributed random variables, then by theorem ??

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{Z_n}(t) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \phi_{Y_i}\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \\ &= \left(\phi_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^n \end{aligned}$$

Now let us define $\mathcal{L}(t) = \ln \phi_Y(t)$. Now consider $\mathcal{L}(0)$, $\mathcal{L}'(0)$ and $\mathcal{L}''(0)$. By theorem ?? we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(0) &= \ln \phi_Y(0) = \ln 1 = 0 \\ \mathcal{L}'(0) &= \frac{\phi_Y'(0)}{\phi_Y(0)} = \phi_Y'(0) = \mathbb{E}[Y] = 0 \\ \mathcal{L}''(0) &= \frac{\phi_Y(0)\phi_Y''(0) - [\phi_Y'(0)]^2}{[\phi_Y(0)]^2} = \frac{1 \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y^2] - 0^2}{1^2} = \mathbb{E}[Y^2] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

We wish to show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_{Z_n}(t) = e^{t^2/2}$ (the m.g.f of $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$). So

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_{Z_n}(t) &= \left(\phi_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^n = e^{t^2/2} \\ \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \ln \left(\phi_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right) &= t^2/2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence we compute

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathcal{L}(t/\sqrt{n})}{n^{-1}} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\mathcal{L}'(t/\sqrt{n})n^{-3/2}t}{-2n^{-2}} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathcal{L}'(t/\sqrt{n})t}{2n^{-1/2}} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\mathcal{L}''(t/\sqrt{n})n^{-3/2}t^2}{-2n^{-3/2}} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}''\left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \frac{t^2}{2} \\
 &= \mathcal{L}''(0) \frac{t^2}{2} = \frac{t^2}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

4 Applications and Statistics

4.1 Statistics and Estimators

4.1.1 Random Samples

Definition 4.1.1. (Random Sample) Let X_1, \dots, X_n be random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) with c.d.fs F_1, \dots, F_n . $\langle X_i \rangle$ from a **random sample** of size n if X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and $F_1 = \dots = F_n$.

- X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d).

Definition 4.1.2. (Data Set) A dataset of the sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n is the set of realizations of the variables $x_1 = X_1(\omega), \dots, x_n = X_n(\omega)$, denoted $\langle X_i(\omega) \rangle$.

Definition 4.1.3. (Statistic) A statistic of a sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ is a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Definition 4.1.4. (Empirical Distribution) For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n with c.d.f F , the empirical distribution is

$$F_n(x) = \frac{n(X_i \leq x)}{n},$$

where $n(X_i \leq x)$ is number of realizations of $x_i \leq x$.

- By weak law of large numbers,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x).$$

4.1.2 Estimators

- **Motivation:** Parameters of distribution F unknown, desire to estimate them based on random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$
- This defines notation of *estimator*.

Definition 4.1.5. (Estimator) For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n with distribution F indexed by population parameter θ . The random variable

$$\hat{\theta} = \delta(X_1, \dots, X_n),$$

where $\delta : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an **estimator** of θ . A particular realization of $\hat{\theta}$ is an **estimate** of θ .

Definition 4.1.6. (Bias of Estimator) For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n with population parameter θ with estimator $\hat{\theta}$. The bias of $\hat{\theta}$ is

$$\text{Bias}[\hat{\theta}] = \mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta} - \theta].$$

Definition 4.1.7. (Unbiased Estimator) For estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of population parameter θ . $\hat{\theta}$ is said to be **unbiased** iff

$$\text{Bias}[\hat{\theta}] = 0.$$

Theorem 4.1.1. (Unbiased Estimator for Expectation) For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n with distribution F with finite expectation μ . Then

$$\overline{X_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i,$$

the **sample mean**, is an unbiased estimator for μ .

Proof. Let $\langle X_i \rangle$ and $\overline{X_n}$ be as described. We wish to show that $\text{Bias}[\overline{X_n}] = 0$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n} - \mu] &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] - \mu \\ &= \frac{n\mu}{n} - \mu = 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4.1.2. (Variance of Sample Mean) For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n . The variance of the sample mean \overline{X}_n is

$$\text{Var}[\overline{X}_n] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

Proof. Let $\langle X_i \rangle$ and \overline{X}_n be as defined. Since X_1, \dots, X_n are independently and identically distributed with finite variance σ^2 , by theorem ?? we have

$$\text{Var} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i] = n\sigma^2$$

and by the non-linearity of variance, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}[\overline{X}_n] &= \text{Var} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{X_i}{n} \right] = \frac{1}{n^2} \text{Var} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right] \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 4.1.3. (Unbiased Estimator for Variance) For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n with distribution F with finite variances σ^2 . Then

$$S_n = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X}_n)^2.$$

is an unbiased estimator for σ^2 .

Proof. Let $\langle X_i \rangle$ and S_n be as described. We wish to show that $\text{Bias}[S_n] = 0$. So we have

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

We note that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu) = \overline{X_n} - \mu$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[S_n] &= \frac{1}{n-1} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 - 2n(\overline{X_n} - \mu)^2 + n(\overline{X_n} - \mu)^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} \left(\mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 \right] - n \mathbb{E} [(\overline{X_n} - \mu)^2] \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[(X_i - \mu)^2] - n \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} (n\sigma^2 - \sigma^2) = \sigma^2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\mathbb{E}[S_n - \sigma^2] = 0$. □

Definition 4.1.8. (Mean Squared Error of Estimator) For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n with population parameter θ . The **mean squared error** of the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is

$$\text{MSE} [\hat{\theta}] = \mathbb{E} [(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2] .$$

- MSE quantifies random error of an estimator, considering $\mathbb{E} [|\hat{\theta} - \theta|]$ (but $|\cdot|$ is difficult $\implies (\cdot)^2$)
- MSE can compare estimators: $\hat{\theta}_1$ and $\hat{\theta}_2$ are estimators for population parameter θ , if $\text{MSE} [\hat{\theta}_1] < \text{MSE} [\hat{\theta}_2]$ then $\hat{\theta}_1$ is better than $\hat{\theta}_2$.

Theorem 4.1.4. For random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size n with population parameter θ . The **mean squared error** of the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is

$$\text{MSE} [\hat{\theta}] = \text{Bias}^2 [\hat{\theta}] + \text{Var} [\hat{\theta}] .$$

Proof. Let $\langle X_i \rangle$ and $\hat{\theta}$ be as described. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Bias}^2 [\hat{\theta}] + \text{Var} [\hat{\theta}] &= \left(\mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta} - \theta] \right)^2 + \mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}^2] - \left(\mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}] \right)^2 \\
 &= \left(\mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}] \right)^2 - 2\theta \mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}] + \theta^2 + \mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}^2] - \left(\mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}] \right)^2 \\
 &= \mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}^2 - 2\theta \cdot \hat{\theta} + \theta^2] \\
 &= \text{MSE} [\hat{\theta}]
 \end{aligned}$$

□

4.2 Testing Probability Distributions

- **Motivation:** Desire to estimate properties of distributions very quickly w/ large domains e.g. \mathbb{Z} .
- e.g. testing lottery number distribution, birthday problem, etc.

Definition 4.2.1. (Formal Model) For discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) w/ p.m.f $p_X = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ where n is finite, test whether

1. p_X is approximate to distribution w/ p.m.f p_Y ?
2. What is $\max p_X$?
3. Are two distributions w/ p.m.fs p_X and p_Y independent?

4.2.1 Testing Distributions

Definition 4.2.2. (Distance Between Distributions) For discrete random variables X, Y on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) w/ p.m.fs p_X and p_Y . Then the

1. L_1 -distance between p_X and p_Y is

$$\|p_X - p_Y\|_1 = \sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega) \cap \vec{Y}(\Omega)} |p_X(x) - p_Y(x)| \in [0, 2].$$

2. L_2 -distance between p_X and p_Y is

$$\|p_X - p_Y\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega) \cap \vec{Y}(\Omega)} (p_X(x) - p_Y(x))^2} \in [0, \sqrt{2}].$$

3. L_∞ -distance between p_X and p_Y is

$$\|p_X - p_Y\|_\infty = \max_{x \in \vec{X}(\Omega) \cap \vec{Y}(\Omega)} |p_X(x) - p_Y(x)| \in [0, 1].$$

Example 4.2.1. (Testing Uniformity) We wish to find an **efficient** (sub-linear) tester s.t. for any discrete random variable X on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) w/ *p.m.f* $p_X = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ where n is finite, and accuracy $0 < \epsilon < 1$,

- If $X \sim U(n)$, then $P(\mathbf{Accept}) \geq 2/3$
- If X is ϵ -far from $Y \sim U(n)$, that is $\|p_X - p_Y\|_1 \geq \epsilon$. then $P(\mathbf{Reject}) \geq 2/3$.

Let X, Y , p_X, p_Y and ϵ be as described. In the case $X \sim U(n)$, then L_1 -distance $\|p_X - p_Y\| = 0$. So consider L_1 -distance, recall that

$$\|p_X - p_Y\| = \sum_{x=1}^n \left| p_X(x) - \frac{1}{n} \right|,$$

so requires $\Omega(n)$ queries of p_X (**not suitable**). So consider L_2 -distance instead. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \|p_X - p_Y\|_2^2 &= \sum_{x=1}^n \left(p_X(x) - \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 \\ &= \sum_{x=1}^n p_X(x)^2 - \frac{2}{n} \sum_{x=1}^n p_X(x) + \frac{n}{n^2} \\ &= \|p_X\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Note that $p_X(x)^2$ is the probability of a collision (See Birthday Paradox).

- If X is (close to) uniform, then expected number of samples until first collision is \sqrt{n} .

- If X is far from uniform, minimum number of samples until first collision is 2.

So potential **sub-linear** method to estimate $\|p_X\|_2^2$. Method description:

1. Define random sample $\langle X_i \rangle$ of size r from X . Obtain data set.
2. Define $I_{i,j} = I_{\{X_i=X_j\}}$ (indicator for collision)
3. Define estimator $\hat{\theta}$ of $\|p_X\|_2^2$ s.t

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j}.$$

Apply to data set, return estimate.

```

1: function ESTIMATE- $\|p_X\|_2^2(r)$ 
2:    $\langle X_i(\omega) \rangle \leftarrow$  data set of sample  $\langle X_i \rangle$ 
3:    $A \leftarrow$  array of size  $n$ 
4:   for  $x_i \in \langle X_i(\omega) \rangle$  do
5:      $A[x_i]++$ 
6:   end for
7:    $\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j} \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{A[k]}{2}$ 
8:   return  $\frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j}$ 
9: end function
```

- **Complexity:** Directly computing $\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j}$ takes $\Theta\left(\binom{r}{2}\right) = \Theta(r^2)$. Using above method w/ array A takes $O(r)$ time w/ identity

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j} &= \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} \sum_{k=1}^n I_{\{X_i=X_j=k\}} \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{\{X_i=X_j=k\}} \\
 &= \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{A[k]}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

We shall now analyze our estimator $\hat{\theta}$ for $\|p_k\|_2^2$.

Theorem 4.2.1. (Analysis of $\hat{\theta}$) For all $r \geq 36\sqrt{n}/\epsilon^2$, ESTIMATE- $\|p_X\|_2^2$ returns $\hat{\theta}$ s.t

$$P\left(\left|\hat{\theta} - \|p_X\|_2^2\right| \geq \epsilon \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2\right) \leq \frac{1}{3}.$$

Proof. Let us consider $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}]$. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}] &= \frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} \mathbb{E}[I_{i,j}] \\ &= \frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} \sum_{x=1}^n P(X_i = x) \cdot P(X_j = x) \\ &= \frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} \sum_{x=1}^n p_X(x)^2 \\ &= \|p_X\|_2^2\end{aligned}$$

Let us now consider $\text{Var}[\hat{\theta}]$. Recall that

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}[\hat{\theta}] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{\theta} - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}]\right)^2\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j} - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j}\right]\right)^2\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}} \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} I_{i,j} - \mathbb{E}[I_{i,j}]\right)^2\right]\end{aligned}$$

Let us define $Y_{i,j} = I_{i,j} - \mathbb{E}[I_{i,j}]$ and $Y_i = \sum_{j=i+1}^r Y_{i,j}$. We note that $\mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j}] = 0$. So by theorem ??, we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} Y_{i,j}\right)^2\right] = \underbrace{\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j}^2]}_A + \underbrace{\sum_{i \neq j \neq k \neq \ell} \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j} Y_{k,\ell}]}_B + 3! \cdot \underbrace{\sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq r} \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j} Y_{i,k}]}_C$$

We note that

$$\begin{aligned}
A &= \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j}^2] \leq \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} \mathbb{E}[I_{i,j}^2] = \binom{r}{2} \|p_X\|_2^2 \\
B &= \sum_{i \neq j \neq k \neq \ell} \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j} Y_{k,\ell}] = \sum_{i \neq j \neq k \neq \ell} \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j}] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y_{k,\ell}] = 0 \\
C &= \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq r} \mathbb{E}[Y_{i,j} Y_{i,k}] \leq \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq r} \mathbb{E}[I_{i,j} I_{i,k}] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq r} \sum_{x=1}^n p_X(x)^3 \\
&= \binom{r}{3} \sum_{x=1}^n p_X(x)^3 \leq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left(\binom{r}{2} \|p_X\|_2^2 \right)^{3/2}
\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq r} Y_{i,j} \right)^2 \right] &= A + B + 6C \\
&\leq \binom{r}{2} \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2 + 0 + 6 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left(\binom{r}{2} \|p_X\|_2^2 \right)^{3/2} \\
&\leq 6 \left(\binom{r}{2} \|p_X\|_2^2 \right)^{3/2}
\end{aligned}$$

Applying Chebyshev's inequality to $\hat{\theta}$ yields

$$\begin{aligned}
P \left(\left| \hat{\theta} - \|p_X\|_2^2 \right| \geq \epsilon \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2 \right) &\leq \frac{\text{Var}[\hat{\theta}]}{\epsilon^2 \cdot \|p_X\|_2^4} \\
&\leq \frac{\frac{1}{\binom{r}{2}^2} 6 \left(\binom{r}{2} \|p_X\|_2^2 \right)^{3/2}}{\epsilon^2 \cdot \|p_X\|_2^4} = \frac{6 \|p_X\|_2^3}{\binom{r}{2}^{1/2} \epsilon^2 \cdot \|p_X\|_2^4} \\
&\leq \frac{6}{(r/2) \|p_X\|_2 \epsilon^2} \qquad \binom{r}{2}^{1/2} \leq \frac{r}{2} \\
&= \frac{12}{r \|p_X\|_2 \epsilon^2} \leq \frac{12}{r(1/\sqrt{n}) \epsilon^2} \qquad \|p_X\|_2^2 \geq \frac{1}{n}
\end{aligned}$$

For

$$\begin{aligned}
 P\left(\left|\hat{\theta} - \|p_X\|_2^2\right| \geq \epsilon \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2\right) &\leq \frac{1}{3} \\
 \iff \frac{12}{r(1/\sqrt{n})\epsilon^2} &\leq \frac{1}{3} \\
 \iff \frac{36\sqrt{n}}{\epsilon^2} &\leq r
 \end{aligned}$$

□

UNIFORM-TEST(p_X, n) method description:

1. Run ESTIMATE- $\|p_X\|_2^2$ with $r \geq 36\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\epsilon^2}$ to get estimate $\hat{\theta}$ s.t

$$P\left(\left|\hat{\theta} - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}]\right| \geq \epsilon \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2\right) \leq \frac{1}{3}.$$

2. If $\hat{\theta} \geq \frac{1+\alpha}{n}$, then **Reject**.
3. Otherwise, **Accept**.

Theorem 4.2.2. (Correctness of UNIFORM-TEST(p_X, n))

1. If $X \sim U(n)$, then UNIFORM-TEST(p_X, n) returns **Accept** w/ $P(\mathbf{Accept}) \geq 2/3$.
2. If X is ϵ -far from $Y \sim U(n)$, then UNIFORM-TEST(p_X, n) returns **Reject** w/ $P(\mathbf{Reject}) \geq 2/3$.

Proof. We have two cases:

1. **Case** $X \sim U(n)$. Assume that $X \sim U(n)$, then it follows that

$$\|p_X\|_2^2 = \sum_{x=1}^n p_X(x)^2 = \frac{1}{n}.$$

By theorem ??, we have two cases:

- **Case** $\hat{\theta} \geq \|p_X\|_2^2$. So

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\left|\hat{\theta} - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\theta}]\right| \geq \epsilon \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2\right) &\leq \frac{1}{3} \\ \iff P\left(\hat{\theta} \geq (\epsilon + 1) \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2\right) &\leq \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

By the Complement law

$$P\left(\hat{\theta} < (\epsilon + 1) \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2\right) \geq \frac{2}{3}.$$

Since $\|p_X\|_2^2 = 1/n$, it follows that $P(\mathbf{Accept}) \geq 2/3$.

- **Case** $\hat{\theta} < \|p_X\|_2^2$. Note that

$$\hat{\theta} < \|p_X\|_2^2 = \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1 + \alpha}{n}.$$

Hence $P(\mathbf{Accept}) = 1 \geq 2/3$.

2. **Case** X is ϵ -far from $Y \sim U(n)$. We proceed by proving the Contrapositive, that is $P(\mathbf{Reject}) \leq 2/3 \implies X$ is ϵ -close (not ϵ -far) from $Y \sim U(n)$. Let us assume that $P(\mathbf{Reject}) \leq 2/3$, that is

$$P\left(\hat{\theta} > \frac{1 + \alpha}{n}\right) < \frac{2}{3}. \quad (*)$$

By theorem ?? and the Complement law we note that (*only if* $\hat{\theta} < \|p_X\|_2^2$)

$$P\left(\hat{\theta} > (1 - \epsilon) \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2\right) \geq 2/3.$$

Since (*) is strictly decreasing (opposite to c.d.f), it follows that

$$(1 - \epsilon) \cdot \|p_X\|_2^2 < \frac{1 + \alpha}{n} \iff \|p_X\|_2^2 < \frac{1 + \alpha}{n(1 - \epsilon)}.$$

Recall that

$$\|p_X - p_Y\|_2^2 = \|p_X\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{n}.$$

Fuck this shit...

□

4.3 Online Algorithms

4.3.1 The Secretary Problem

Definition 4.3.1. (Problem) Suppose we have n candidates whose positions X_i on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . The positions form a uniform random permutation of $[n]$.

Select a candidate w/ the constraint that decision is made as soon as the candidate is seen and cannot be reverted.

Preliminary Approaches

- **Take First.** Select the first candidate.

Let the discrete random variable X_1, \dots, X_n on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be position of best candidate.

$$P(\text{Selected best candidate}) = P(X_1 = 1) = \frac{1}{n}.$$

- **Explore-Exploit.** Explore the first $n/2$ candidates, then select the first person that is better than first $n/2$ (or if all best in first half, then select last person).

Let the discrete random variables X_1, \dots, X_n on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be positions of candidates.

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Selected best candidate}) &= P(X_2 \leq n/2, X_1 > n/2) \\ &\quad + P(X_3 \leq n/2, X_1 > n/2, X_2 > X_1) + \dots \\ &\geq P(X_2 \leq n/2, X_1 > n/2) \\ &= P(X_2 \leq n/2)P(X_1 > n/2 \mid X_2 \leq n/2) > \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Optimal Strategy

- Explore the first $x - 1$ candidates, then select the first candidate $i \geq x$ which is better than first $i - 1$ candidates.

Let the discrete random variables X_1, \dots, X_n on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be positions of candidates.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\text{Selected best candidate}) &= \sum_{i=x}^n P(\text{Select } i \cap X_1 = i) \\
 &= \sum_{i=x}^n P(\text{Select } i \mid X_1 = i) \cdot P(X_1 = i) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=x}^n P(\text{Select } i \mid X_1 = i)
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that we only select candidate i iff second best of the $i - 1$ is in the $x - 1$ candidates. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\text{Selected best candidate}) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=x}^n P(\text{2nd best of first } i - 1 \leq x - 1 \mid X_1 = i) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=x}^n \frac{x - 1}{i - 1} \\
 &= \frac{x - 1}{n} \sum_{i=x-1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{x-1}^n \frac{dt}{t} &\leq \sum_{i=x-1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i} \leq \int_{x-2}^{n-1} \frac{dt}{t} \\
 \iff \frac{x-1}{n} \ln \frac{n}{x-1} &\leq P(\text{Selected best candidate}) \leq \frac{x-1}{n} \ln \frac{n-1}{x-2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating wrt $u = x - 1$ the lower bound yields

$$\frac{d}{du} \frac{u}{n} \ln \frac{n}{u} = \frac{1}{n} (\ln n - \ln u - 1)$$

Setting the derivative to zero, yields a maxima for the lower bound, when $\ln u = \ln n - 1 = \ln n/e$. Hence optimal when $x - 1 = n/e$.

4.3.2 The Secretary Problem With Payoff

- In this variant, every candidate has a value $X_i \sim U[0, 1]$.

- **Goal:** Maximize the expectation of the selected candidate.
- **Strategy:** Explore first $x-1$ candidates, then select the first candidate $i \geq x$ which is better than first $i-1$ candidates.

Let the continuous random variables $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim U[0, 1]$ model the “values” of the candidates (in order of sampling). The value of the best candidate Y_t out of the first t candidates is

$$Y_t = \max \{X_1, \dots, X_t\}.$$

We note that

$$\begin{aligned} F_{Y_t}(x) &= P(Y_t \leq x) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^t P(X_i \leq x) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^t \int_0^x du \\ &= x^t \end{aligned}$$

Hence by the fundamental theorem of calculus, we have

$$f_{Y_t}(x) = tx^{t-1}.$$

So by the definition of expectation, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_t] = \int_0^1 tx^t dx = \left[\frac{t}{t+1} x^{t+1} \right]_0^1 = \frac{t}{t+1}$$

The expected value of the person chosen is

$$V_x(n) = \sum_{t=x}^{n-1} P(\text{Select candidate } t) \mathbb{E}[\text{Candidate } t] + P(\text{Select candidate } n) \mathbb{E}[\text{Candidate } n]$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\text{Select candidate } t) &= P(\text{Select } t)P(\text{Don't select } x \text{ to } t-1) \\
 &= \frac{1}{t} \cdot \prod_{s=x}^{t-1} \left(\frac{s-1}{s} \right) = \frac{1}{t} \frac{x-1}{t-1} \\
 P(\text{Select candidate } n) &= P(\text{Don't select } x \text{ to } n-1) = \prod_{s=x}^{n-1} \left(\frac{s-1}{s} \right) = \frac{x-1}{n-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[Y_t] &= \frac{t}{t+1} \\
 \mathbb{E}[\text{Candidate } n] &= \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_x(n) &= (x-1) \sum_{t=x}^{n-1} \frac{1}{(t-1)(t+1)} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{x-1}{n-1} \\
 &= \frac{x-1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{n-1} + \sum_{t=x}^{n-1} \frac{1}{t-1} - \frac{1}{t+1} \right] \\
 &= \frac{x-1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{1}{x-1} + \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{n-1} - \frac{1}{n} \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(2 - \frac{1}{x} - \frac{x-1}{n} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Taking the derivative of $V_x(n)$ wrt x yields

$$\frac{d}{dx} V_x(n) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

Setting the derivative to zero, yields a maxima when $x = \sqrt{n}$, since $x \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \implies x \in \{\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor, \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil\}$

4.3.3 The Odds Algorithms

- Let I_1, \dots, I_n be a sequence of independent random indicator variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) .

- Let r_1, \dots, r_n be the **odds** s.t for all $1 \leq i \leq n$

$$r_i = \frac{P(I_i = 1)}{P(I_i \neq 1)} = \frac{p_i}{1 - p_i}.$$

- What is the probability that after trial x , there is exactly one success?

$$P\left(\sum_{i=x}^n I_i = 1\right) = \sum_{i=x}^n P(I_i = 1) \prod_{i \neq j} P(I_j \neq 1) = \sum_{i=x}^n r_i \prod_{i=x}^n (1 - p_i)$$

- If $\sum_{i=x}^n r_i < 1$ then probability of success decreases. Hence find largest x s.t. $\sum_{i=x}^n r_i \geq 1$.
- **Optimal Strategy:** Ignore everything before x th trial, then **stop** at first success.

Example 4.3.1. (Classical Secretary Problem) Let us define for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ random indicator variable I_i on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) s.t

$$I_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{If candidate } i \text{ is best candidate in first } i-1 \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

We first wish to show that I_1, \dots, I_n are independent, that is for all $\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{P}\{I_1, \dots, I_n\}$, \mathcal{I} is an independent set. Let $\mathcal{I} = \{I_{i_1}, \dots, I_{i_k}\} \in \mathcal{P}(\{I_1, \dots, I_n\})$ be arbitrary. We wish to show that for all $j_1, \dots, j_k \in \{0, 1\}$

$$P(I_{i_1} = j_1, \dots, I_{i_k} = j_k) = \prod_{\ell=1}^k P(I_{i_\ell} = j_\ell).$$

Let $j_1, \dots, j_k \in \{0, 1\}$ be arbitrary. Since each permutation of the first i_ℓ candidates is equally likely, independent of whether candidate i_ℓ is better than candidate $i_{\ell'}$. So we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(I_{i_1} = j_1, \dots, I_{i_k} = j_k) &= P(I_{i_1} = j_1 \mid I_{i_2} = j_2, \dots, I_{i_k} = j_k) \cdot P(I_{i_2} = j_2, \dots, I_{i_k} = j_k) \\ &= P(I_{i_1} = j_1) \cdot P(I_{i_2} = j_2, \dots, I_{i_k} = j_k) \\ &\vdots \\ &= \prod_{\ell=1}^k P(I_{i_\ell} = j_\ell) \end{aligned}$$

Hence I_1, \dots, I_n are independent. Hence $r_i = 1/(i-1)$. Now let us consider largest x s.t. $\sum_{i=x}^n \frac{1}{i-1} \geq 1$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{t=x}^n \frac{1}{t-1} &\geq \int_x^{n+1} \frac{dt}{t-1} \\ &\geq [\ln t - 1]_x^{n+1} \\ &\geq \ln \frac{n}{x-1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $x-1 = n/e$.