

# Week 7 – Transformation of RVs, Law of large numbers

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# Last Class

- Random vector = multiple random variables defined on the same probability space.
- Discrete (have joint pmf) and continuous (have joint pdf) random vectors
- LOTUS to compute the expectation of a transformed random vector.
- Independence of random variables.
- Covariance and correlation.

# Distribution of a sum of discrete RVs

$(X, Y)$  a random vector. What is the distribution of  $Z = X + Y$ ?

- If  $(X, Y)$  is discrete then  $P_Z(z) = \sum_{\substack{x_i + y_i = z \\ (x_i, y_i) \in R_{X,Y}}} P_{X,Y}(x_i, y_i)$
- Example: Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be independent random variables with common pmf given by  $P_X(0) = \frac{1}{4}$ ,  $P_X(1) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $P_X(2) = \frac{1}{4}$ . Find the pmf of  $Z = X + Y$ .

# Distribution of a sum of continuous RVs

$(X, Y)$  a random vector and  $Z = X + Y$

- If  $(X, Y)$  is continuous then  $f_Z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, z - x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_{X,Y}(z - y, y) dy$
- Example:  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ ,  $Y \sim U[0, 1]$ ,  $X$  and  $Y$  independent. Find the cdf and the pdf of  $Z = X + Y$ .

# Bivariate normal distribution

Two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to have a bivariate normal distribution if their joint pdf is given by:

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_X\sigma_Y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \cdot \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left[ \left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)^2 - 2\rho\frac{(x-\mu_X)(y-\mu_Y)}{\sigma_X\sigma_Y} \right] \right\}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_X \\ \mu_Y \end{pmatrix} = E \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \end{pmatrix} \text{ and}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Var}(X) & \text{Cov}(X, Y) \\ \text{Cov}(X, Y) & \text{Var}(Y) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_X^2 & \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y \\ \rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y & \sigma_Y^2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is the variance covariance-matrix.}$$

where  $\rho \in (-1, 1)$ ,  $\sigma_X > 0$ ,  $\sigma_Y > 0$ .

$$(X, Y) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

# Sums of normals

- $X \sim N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$ ,  $Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$  are independent then  $X + Y \sim N(\mu_X + \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2)$
- $(X, Y) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ , then  $X + Y \sim N(\mu_X + \mu_Y, \sigma_X^2 + \sigma_Y^2 + 2\rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y)$
- If  $X \sim N(\mu_X, \sigma_X^2)$ ,  $Y \sim N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y^2)$  but not bivariate normal then  $X + Y$  are not necessarily normal.  
Example:  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $Y = -X$ ,  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  but  $X + Y = 0$ , a constant random variable

# Sum of independent exponentials

$X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Exp}(\lambda)$  then  $Z = X_1 + \dots + X_n \sim \text{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$

A continuous random variable has a gamma distribution with parameters  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\lambda > 0$  if its probability density function is given by:

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda(\lambda x)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} I_{[0,+\infty)}(x)$$

where  $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^{+\infty} t^{\alpha-1} e^{-t} dt$  for  $\alpha > 0$  is the gamma function.

The gamma function is a generalization of the factorial:  $\Gamma[\alpha + 1] = \alpha\Gamma[\alpha]$  and  $\Gamma[n + 1] = n!$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

# Maximum and minimum

$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim F(x)$  iid random variables and  $U = \min(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ ,  
 $V = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n)$

Then:

$$F_V(v) = F(v)^n$$

(if continuous with density  $f(x)$ , then  $f_V(v) = nf(v)F(v)^{n-1}$ )

$$F_U(u) = 1 - (1 - F(u))^n$$

(if continuous with density  $f(x)$ , then  $f_U(u) = nf(u)(1 - F(u))^{n-1}$ )



# Averaging reduces variability

$X_1, X_2 \sim F(x)$  independent

$$\text{Var}(X_1) = \text{Var}(X_2) = \sigma^2$$

$$\text{Var}\left(\frac{X_1 + X_2}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2^2} (\text{Var}(X_1) + \text{Var}(X_2)) = \frac{1}{2^2} (\sigma^2 + \sigma^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$$

# Averaging reduces variability

$X_1, X_2, \dots$  i.i.d with expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$

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

$$E[\overline{X}_n] = \frac{1}{n}(E[X_1] + \dots + E[X_n]) = \frac{1}{n}(\underbrace{\mu + \dots + \mu}_{n \text{ times}}) = \mu$$

$$Var[\overline{X}_n] = \frac{1}{n^2}(Var[X_1] + \dots + Var[X_n]) = \frac{1}{n^2}(\underbrace{\sigma^2 + \dots + \sigma^2}_{n \text{ times}}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

# Markov's inequality

If  $U \geq 0$  is a random variable with finite expectation, then, for every  $t > 0$ :

$$P(U \geq t) \leq \frac{E[U]}{t}$$

Intuition:

- Let  $U$  be the income of a random selected individual from a population. Taking  $t = 2E[U]$ , Markov's inequality says that  $P(U \geq 2E[U]) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ . It is impossible for more than half of the population to make at least twice the average income.
- This has to be true because if more than half of the population make more than twice the average income, the average income would have to be higher!
- Taking  $t = 3E[U]$ , we get  $P(U \geq 3E[U]) \leq \frac{1}{3}$ ; It is impossible for more than one third of the population to make at least 3 times the average income.

# Markov's inequality

## Proof

$U \geq 0$  a random variable with finite expectation,  $t > 0$ :

Define the new random variable  $U_t = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } U < t \\ t & \text{if } U \geq t \end{cases}$

- $U_t$  is discrete random variable taking only values 0 and  $t$ . So,  $E[U_t] = tP(U \geq t)$ .
- Clearly  $U \geq U_t$
- Expectations preserve inequalities, so,  $E[U] \geq E[U_t] = tP(U \geq t) \implies P(U \geq t) \leq \frac{E[U]}{t}$

# Chebyshev's inequality

If  $X$  is a random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then, for every  $t > 0$ :

$$\cdot P(|X - E[X]| \geq t) \leq \frac{\text{Var}[X]}{t^2}$$

or equivalently

$$\cdot P(|X - E[X]| < t) \geq 1 - \frac{\text{Var}[X]}{t^2}$$

or equivalently

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

# Chebyshev's inequality

## Proof

$X$  a random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ ,  $t > 0$

- Consider the non-negative random variable  $U = (X - \mu)^2$
- Apply Markov's inequality to  $U$ , with  $t^2$ :  $P(U \geq t^2) = P((X - \mu)^2 \geq t^2) \leq \frac{E[(X - \mu)^2]}{t^2} = \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{t^2}$
- Noticing that  $\{|X - \mu| > t\} = \{(X - \mu)^2 > t^2\}$ , we get Chebishev's inequality:

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq t) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{t^2}$$

# Chebyshev's inequality consequences

Any random variable with finite variance (continuous, discrete, mixed), regardless of its distribution, has most of its probability mass concentrated within a few standard deviations of its mean.

Taking  $t = k\sigma$ ,  $k = 2, 3, 4$  and applying Chebishev's inequality:

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

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

For  $k = 2, 3, 4$  the bound are  $3/4$ ,  $8/9$ , and  $15/16$  respectively

# Weak Law of large numbers (WLLN)

$X_1, X_2, \dots$  i.i.d with finite expectation  $\mu$  then:

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

This form of convergence of random variables is called convergence in probability and is denoted as  $\overline{X}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$

Equivalently:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\overline{X}_n - \mu| \leq \epsilon) = 1$$

The sample mean converges to the true mean



# (Weak) Law of large numbers

## Proof

$X_1, X_2, \dots$  i.i.d with finite expectation  $\mu$ .

- To make the proof easier, we will also assume that  $\sigma^2 < +\infty$
- But the for the WLLN to hold only the expectation needs to exist. The variance may be infinite.
- Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Apply Chebyshev's inequality to  $\overline{X}_n$ :

$$P \left( |\overline{X}_n - \mu| \geq \epsilon \right) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(\overline{X}_n)}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2}$$

This implies:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\overline{X}_n - \mu| \geq \epsilon) = 0$$

# Strong Law of large numbers (SLLN)

$X_1, X_2, \dots$  i.i.d with finite expectation  $\mu$ .

$$P(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \overline{X}_n = \mu) = 1$$

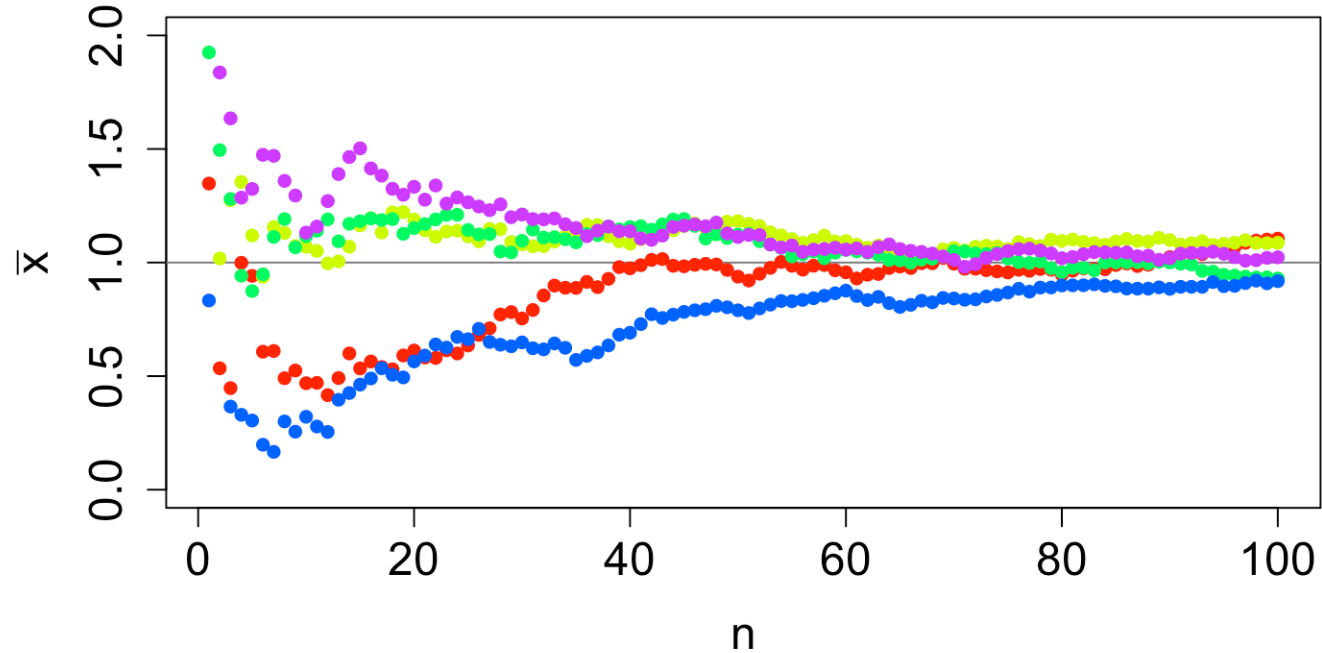
This form of convergence of random variables is called convergence with probability 1 and is denoted as  $\overline{X}_n \xrightarrow{\text{w.p. 1}} \mu$  (also called almost sure convergence)

The strong law is stronger than weak law because convergence with probability 1 is a stronger concept than convergence in probability: convergence with probability 1  $\implies$  convergence in probability (but not the other way around)

# Law of large numbers

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim N(1, 1)$$

Five realizations of  $\overline{X}_n$  as a function of  $n$



# Next two weeks

- Next week (Oct 21): take home midterm, no class
- For class Oct 30 read:
  - IPS 7.1.2
  - FSR 15.1-15.2