

# Intro to Probability

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# 1 Random Variables

**Definition 1.1.** A probability model is a mathematical description of an uncertain situation. It is composed of

- a) a sample space  $\Omega$  which is the set of all possible outcomes. A subset of  $\Omega$  is called an event, and the set of all possible events is denoted by  $\mathcal{F}$ .
- b) a probability measure  $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfying
  - $P(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
  - $P(\Omega) = 1$  and  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ ; and
  - if  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  is a sequence of disjoint events, then  $P(\cup A_i) = \sum P(A_i)$ .

The triple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is called a **probability space**.

**Theorem 1.2.** For any events  $A, B$ ,

- $P(A^C) = 1 - P(A)$ .
- If  $A \subseteq B$ , then  $P(A) \leq P(B)$ .
- $P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$ .
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ .

**Definition 1.3.** A **random variable** is a function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We say  $X$  is a discrete random variable if the range of  $X$  is countable, otherwise,  $X$  is a continuous random variable. The **probability distribution** of a random variable  $X$  defines

$$P(X \in B) \text{ for all } B \subseteq \mathbb{R}.$$

In particular, if  $X$  is a discrete, then the p.m.f. of  $X$ , denoted  $p_X$ , is defined by  $p_X(k) = P(X = k)$  for all  $k \in \text{range}(X)$ .

**Proposition 1.4.** The probability distribution of a discrete random variable is completely determined by its p.m.f.

# 2 Conditional Probability

**Definition 2.1 (Conditional Probability).** Let  $A, B$  be events with  $P(B) \neq 0$ , then

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

**Proposition 2.2.** If  $\Omega$  has finitely many equally likely outcomes, then  $P(A|B) = \frac{\#(A \cap B)}{\#B}$ .

**Proposition 2.3.** For events  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  having nonzero probability,

$$P(\cap_{i=1}^n A_i) = P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1)P(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2) \dots P(A_n|\cap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i).$$

**Theorem 2.4 (Law of Total Probability).** Let  $B_1, B_2, \dots$  be a sequence of events that partitions  $\Omega$ . Then for any event  $A$ , we have  $A \cap B_1, A \cap B_2, \dots$  are disjoint,  $A = \cup_i (A \cap B_i)$ , and

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(A \cap B_i).$$

## 2.1 Bayes' Formula

**Theorem 2.5.** For events  $A, B$ ,

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

If  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ , is a sequence of events that partitions  $\Omega$ , then

$$P(A_k|B) = \frac{P(B|A_k)P(A_k)}{\sum_i P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}.$$

**Definition 2.6.** Events  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  are **independent** if

$$P\left(\bigcap_i A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in S} P(A_i),$$

for all  $S \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ . The infinite set of events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  is independent if any finite subset is independent.

**Theorem 2.7.** The following are equivalent:

- $A$  and  $B$  are independent;
- $A^C$  and  $B$  are independent;
- $A$  and  $B^C$  are independent;
- $A^C$  and  $B^C$  are independent.

**Definition 2.8.** The random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are **independent** if

$$P(X_1 \in B_1, \dots, X_n \in B_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \in B_i),$$

for all  $B_i \subset R$ .

- If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are discrete, then they are independent if

$$P(X_1 = c_1, \dots, X_n = c_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i = c_i),$$

for all  $c_i \in R$ .

- If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are continuous, then they are independent if

$$P(X_1 \leq c_1, \dots, X_n \leq c_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \leq c_i),$$

for all  $c_i \in R$ .

### 3 Independent Trials

**Definition 3.1 (Bernoulli Distribution).** Let  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ . A random variable  $X$  has the Bernoulli distribution with success parameter  $p$  if  $X$  is  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued and  $P(X = 1) = p$ . We write  $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ .

**Definition 3.2 (Binomial Distribution).** Let  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ . A random variable  $X$  has the binomial distribution with parameters  $(n, p)$  if  $P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$ . We write  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ .

Models the number of successes in a sample of size  $n$  drawn with replacement with success probability  $p$ .

**Definition 3.3 (Geometric Distribution).** Let  $0 < p < 1$ . A random variable  $X$  has the geometric distribution with success parameter  $p$  if  $P(X = k) = p(1-p)^{k-1}$ . We write  $X \sim \text{Geom}(n, p)$ .

Gives the probability distribution of the number  $X$  of Bernoulli trials needed to get one success.

**Definition 3.4 (Hypergeometric Distribution).** A random variable  $X$  has the hypergeometric distribution with parameters  $(N, K, n)$  if  $P(X = k) = \binom{K}{k} \binom{N-K}{n-k} / \binom{N}{n}$ . We write  $X \sim \text{Hypergeo}(n, p)$ .

Describes the probability of  $k$  successes in  $n$  draws, without replacement, from a finite population of size  $N$  that contains exactly  $K$  objects with a desired feature, wherein each draw is either a success or a failure.

**Definition 3.5 (Cumulative Distribution Function).** Let  $X$  be a random variable. The cdf of  $X$  is a function  $F_X$  defined by

$$F_X(t) = P(X \leq t).$$

**Theorem 3.6.**

- 1)  $F$  is non-decreasing
- 2)  $F$  is right-continuous
- 3)  $\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} F(t) = 0$  and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(t) = 1$ .

If  $X$  is a discrete random variable with pmf  $p_X$ , then

$$F_X(t) = \sum_{\substack{x \in X(\Omega) \\ x \leq t}} p_X(x),$$

and if  $X$  is continuous with pdf  $f_x$ , then

$$F_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t f_X(x) dx.$$

Given a finite interval  $[c, d]$ . Let  $X$  be a random variable with pdf  $f(x) = \frac{1}{d-c}$  if  $x \in [c, d]$ , and 0 otherwise. Then  $X \sim \text{Unif}[c, d]$ .

## 4 Expectation

For a discrete random variable  $X$  with pmf  $p$ , the **expectation** of  $X$  is

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum k p(k),$$

where  $k$  ranges over  $X(\Omega)$ . If  $X$  is a continuous random variable with pdf  $f$ , then the expectation of  $X$  is

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \int_R x f(x) dx.$$

### Examples.

- If  $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ , then  $\mathbb{E}(X) = p$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ , then  $\mathbb{E}(X) = np$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Unif}[a, b]$ , then  $\mathbb{E}(X) = \frac{1}{2}(a + b)$ .

**Law of the Unconscious Statistician.** Given a function  $g : R \rightarrow R$ ,  $\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \sum g(k)p(X = k)$ , if  $X$  is a discrete rv, or  $\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \int_R g(x)f(x)dx$ , if  $X$  is a continuous rv.

Let  $X$  be a random variable with expectation  $\mu = E(X)$ . Then the **variance** of  $X$  is

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

**Proposition 4.1.**  $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}(X^2) - \mathbb{E}(X)^2$ .

**Example.** If  $X \sim \text{Unif}[a, b]$ , then  $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{12}(b - a)^2$ .

**Proposition 4.2.** Let  $X, Y$  be random variables and let  $a, b \in R$ .

- 1)  $\mathbb{E}(aX + b) = a\mathbb{E}(X) + b$ .
- 2)  $\text{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$ .
- 3)  $\mathbb{E}(X + Y) = \mathbb{E}(X) + \mathbb{E}(Y)$ .
- 4)  $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2 \text{Cov}(X, Y)$ ,

where  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}((X - \mathbb{E}(X))(Y - \mathbb{E}(Y)))$ , the covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$ .

Distribution	Expectation	Variance	$M_X(t)$
$Ber(p)$	$p$	$p(1-p)$	$pe^t + 1 - p$
$Bin(n, p)$	$np$	$np(1-p)$	$(pe^t + 1 - p)^n$
$Geom(p)$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{1-p}{p^2}$	$\frac{pe^t}{1-(1-p)e^t}, t < -\ln(1-p)$
$Unif[a, b]$	$\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$	$\frac{1}{12}(b-a)^2$	$\frac{1}{t(b-a)}(e^{bt} - e^{at}), t \neq 0$
$Poisson(\lambda)$	$\lambda$	$\lambda$	$e^{\lambda(e^t-1)}$
$Exp(\lambda)$	$1/\lambda$	$1/\lambda^2$	$\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}, t < \lambda$

## 4.1 Gaussian Distribution

**Definition 4.3.** Let  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma^2 \geq 0$ . A random variable  $X$  with pdf

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

has the **Gaussian (normal) distribution** with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ . We write  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . If  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ , then we say that  $Z$  has the **standard normal distribution**. We denote its pdf and cdf by  $\phi$  and  $\Phi$ , respectively.

**Theorem 4.4.** Let  $X = \sigma Z + \mu$ . Then,  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  if and only if  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(Z \leq t) &= P(X \leq \sigma t + \mu) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\sigma t + \mu} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} dx \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^t \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-y^2/2} \sigma dy \quad (y = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^t \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2} dy.
 \end{aligned}$$

■

Let  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  and  $X = \sigma Z + \mu$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}Z = 0$ ,  $\text{Var}(Z) = 1$  and  $\mathbb{E}X = \mu$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$ .

## 4.2 Binomial Approximation

Let  $S_n \sim Bin(n, p)$ . Recall that  $\mathbb{E}S_n = np$  and  $\text{Var}(S_n) = np(1-p)$ . Thus,  $\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}\right) = 0$  and  $\text{Var}\left(\frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}\right) = 1$ . When  $np(1-p)$  is sufficiently large (at least  $> 10$ ), we have

$$P\left(\frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \leq t\right) \approx \Phi(t).$$

In particular, we have

$$\left| P\left(\frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \leq t\right) - \Phi(t) \right| \leq \frac{3}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}. \quad (4.1)$$

#### 4.2.1 Continuity Correction

**Example.** Let  $S_n \sim \text{Bin}(720, \frac{1}{6})$ . Suppose we want to estimate  $P(S_n = 113)$ . We use a continuity correction to allow us to approximate the probability by normalization.

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_n = 113) &= P(112.5 \leq S_n \leq 113.5) \\ &\approx P(-0.75 \leq Z \leq -0.65) \\ &= \Phi(0.75) - \Phi(0.65) = 0.312... \end{aligned}$$

### 4.3 Confidence Intervals

**Example.** Suppose we have a possibly biased coin with  $P(h) = p$ . Let  $S_n = \#$  of heads  $\sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ . We estimate  $p$  by  $\hat{p} = S_n/n$ .

**Fact.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then

$$P(|p - \hat{p}| < \varepsilon) \geq 2\Phi(2\sqrt{n}\varepsilon) - 1.$$

- 1) How many times should we flip the coin such that  $\hat{p}$  is within 0.05 of  $p$  with probability at least 0.99? Using the fact, we have  $P(|p - \hat{p}| < 0.05) \geq 0.99 \leftrightarrow \Phi(0.10\sqrt{n}) \geq 0.995 \leftrightarrow n \geq 665.64$ . So we should flip the coin 666 times.
- 2) Find the smallest interval around  $\hat{p}$  that contains  $p$  with probability 0.95. Again, applying the fact, we have  $P(|p - \hat{p}| < \varepsilon) \geq 0.95 \leftrightarrow \varepsilon \geq \frac{0.98}{\sqrt{n}}$ . So the smallest such interval is  $(\hat{p} - \varepsilon_0, \hat{p} + \varepsilon_0)$ , where  $\varepsilon_0 = \frac{0.98}{\sqrt{n}}$ . This interval is called a 95% confidence interval for  $p$ .

## 5 Poisson Distribution

**Example.** A computer server receives 3 request/sec on average. Estimate the probability the server receives 5 requests in any given second.

For example, we can divide the interval into 10 seconds and define  $S_{10} = \#$  of requests  $\sim \text{Bin}(10, 3/10)$ . Then  $P(S_{10} = 5) = 0.1029$ . In general, for  $S_n \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  where  $\mathbb{E}S_n = np = \lambda$  is a constant, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(S_n = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^k}{k!}.$$

*Proof.* Substitute  $p = \frac{\lambda}{n}$ . Factor out constants and use  $(1 + \frac{x}{n})^n \rightarrow e^x$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Show the rest reduces to 1. ■

**Definition 5.1 (Poisson Distribution).** Let  $\lambda > 0$ . The random variable  $Y$  has Poisson



distribution if

$$P(Y = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, \dots$$

Write  $Y \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ . We may approximate a binomial distribution with the Poisson distribution ( $\lambda = np$ ) when  $np^2 < 1$ . We have the following

$$|P(S_n = k) - P(Y = k)| \leq np^2.$$

## 5.1 Exponential Distribution

**Definition 5.2 (Exponential Distribution).** Let  $\lambda > 0$ . A random variable  $X$  with p.d.f.

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

has the exponential distribution. We write  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ .

The exponential distribution has c.d.f.

$$F(t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t} \text{ for } t \geq 0.$$

**Proposition 5.3.** If  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$  then for any  $s, t > 0$

$$P(X > s + t | X > t) = P(X > s).$$

*Remark.* If  $T_n$  is a random variable such that  $nT_n \sim \text{Geom}(\frac{\lambda}{n})$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(T_n < t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$ .

## 6 Moment Generating Function

**Definition 6.1.** The **moment generating function** of a random variable  $X$  is

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}(e^{Xt}).$$

**Examples.**

- $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ . Then  $M_X(t) = pe^t + 1 - p$ .
- $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ . Then  $M_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$ .
- $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ . Then  $M_X(t) = e^{t^2/2}$ .
- $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ . Then  $M_X(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} & t < \lambda \\ \infty & t \geq \lambda \end{cases}$ .

The  $n^{\text{th}}$  **moment** of a random variable  $X$  is  $\mathbb{E}X^n$ . Assuming the m.g.f.  $M_X(t)$  is well-behaved around the origin, we have

$$M_X^{(n)}(0) = \mathbb{E}X^n.$$

## 7 Joint Distributions

*Discrete Case.* The **joint pmf** of discrete random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  is

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

*Continuous Case.* If  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous random variables and  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function such that

$$P(a \leq X \leq b, c \leq Y \leq d) = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) \, dx dy$$

for all  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $X$  and  $Y$  are jointly continuous and  $f$  is the **joint pmf** of  $X$  and  $Y$ .

We can recover the **marginal pmf/pdfs** of  $X$  and  $Y$ . For example

$$p_x(x) = \sum_{y \in \text{range}(Y)} p_{X,Y}(x, y).$$

If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are random variables, then  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is called a **random vector**. The random vector  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  has the **multinomial distribution** with parameters  $n, r, p_1, \dots, p_r$  with  $p_1 + \dots + p_r = 1$  if the joint pmf is

$$P(X_1 = k_1, \dots, X_r = k_r) = \binom{n}{k_1, \dots, k_r} p_1^{k_1} \dots p_r^{k_r}$$

for non-negative integers  $k_1, \dots, k_r$  with  $k_1 + \dots + k_r = n$ . Write  $(X_1, \dots, X_n) \sim \text{Multi}(n, r, p_1, \dots, p_r)$ . The motivation for this distribution is an experiment with  $n$  trials and  $r$  possible outcomes per trial.

### 7.1 Independence

*Discrete Case.*  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent if and only if  $p_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(k_1, \dots, k_n) = p_{X_1}(k_1) \dots p_{X_n}(k_n)$ .

*Continuous Case.*  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent if and only if  $f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(k_1, \dots, k_n) = f_{X_1}(k_1) \dots f_{X_n}(k_n)$ .

**Expectation of a Function of Two RVs.**

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X, Y)) = \begin{cases} \sum_{k \in R(X)} \sum_{l \in R(Y)} g(k, l) p_{X,Y}(k, l) \\ \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} g(x, y) f_{X,Y}(x, y) \, dx dy. \end{cases} \quad (7.1)$$

**Indicator Random variables.** Given an event  $A$ , the indicator random variable of  $A$  is

$$I_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \omega \in A \\ 0, & \omega \notin A \end{cases}$$

Note  $\mathbb{E}[I_A] = P(A)$  and  $I_A \sim \text{Ber}(P(A))$ .

**Example.** Suppose we draw 5 cards from a standard deck. Let  $X$  be the number of aces. Label the aces  $i = 1, \dots, 4$ . Let  $A_i$  be the event that ace  $i$  is drawn. Then  $X = X_{A_1} + \dots + X_{A_4}$ . We can now easily compute  $\mathbb{E}[X] = 4P(A_i) = \frac{5}{13}$ .

*Note.* Know how to prove linearity of independence for continuous and discrete cases of 2 or 3 random variables.

## 7.2 Covariance

Recall that for random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ ,

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

and

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

We have the following:

- 1)  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}(XY) - \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$
- 2)  $\text{Cov}(aX + b, Y) = a \text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X, aY + b)$
- 3) For random variables  $X_i, Y_j$ ,  $\text{Cov}(\sum_i^m X_i, \sum_j^n Y_j) = \sum_{i,j} \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j)$
- 4)  $\text{Cov}(\sum_i^m (a_i X_i + c_i), \sum_j^n (b_j Y_j + d_j)) = \sum_{i,j} a_i b_j \text{Cov}(X_i, Y_j)$
- 5)  $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) + 2 \text{Cov}(X, Y)$ .

## 7.3 Correlation

We say  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are **uncorrelated** if  $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = 0$  whenever  $i \neq j$ . If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are uncorrelated, then  $\text{Var}(\sum_i X_i) = \sum_i (\text{Var}(X_i))$ .

**Definition 7.1 (Correlation).**

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

**Proposition 7.2.**

- 1)  $-1 \leq \text{Corr}(X, Y) \leq 1$
- 2)  $\text{Corr}(X, Y) = 1$  if and only if  $Y = aX + b$  for  $a > 0$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- 3)  $\text{Corr}(X, Y) = -1$  if and only if  $Y = aX + b$  for  $a < 0$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

## 7.4 Independence Revisited

**Proposition 7.3.** If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent, then  $\mathbb{E}(\prod X_i) = \prod \mathbb{E}(X_i)$ .

**Corollary.** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ . Note the converse statement does not necessarily hold.

**Proposition 7.4.** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t) \cdot M_Y(t)$ .

**Proposition 7.5.**  $X$  and  $Y$  are equal in distribution if and only if  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$  for all  $t$  in some open interval containing 0.

## 7.5 Convolution

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are discrete

$$p_{X+Y}(n) = \sum_{k \in R(X)} p_{X,Y}(k, n-k) = \sum_{l \in R(Y)} p_{X,Y}(n-l, l).$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous

$$f_{X+Y}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, t-x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(t-y, y) dy.$$

## 8 Poisson Process

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $0 < p < 1$ . A random variable  $X$  has the **negative binomial distribution** with parameters  $(k, p)$  and support  $\{k, k+1, \dots\}$  if

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

for all  $n \geq k$ . We write  $X \sim \text{Negbin}(k, p)$ . This distribution models the number of trials needed for  $k$  successes, where the probability of success in every trial is  $p$ .

A Poisson process models a sequence of events occurring randomly over a continuous time period starting a time  $t = 0$ . Let  $I$  denote the time interval, e.g.  $I = [a, b]$ , and  $|I|$  denote the length of the interval. Let  $N(I)$  be the number of occurrences in interval  $I$ .

In a **Poisson process** with intensity rate  $\lambda$

- $N(I) \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda|I|)$  for any bounded  $I \subset [0, \infty]$ ;
- if  $I_1, \dots, I_n$  are disjoint (except possibly at their endpoints), then  $N(I_1), \dots, N(I_n)$  are independent.

Note it follows that  $\mathbb{E}(N(I)) = \lambda|I|$ .

### 8.1 Waiting Times

Let  $T_k$  be the time of the  $k$ th occurrence. Define  $W_1 = T_1$  and  $W_k = T_k - T_{k-1}$  for  $k \geq 2$ , so that  $T_k = W_1 + \dots + W_k$ . Then  $W_i$  are i.i.d. exponential random variables with parameter  $\lambda$ . Note, by definition,

$$P(T_k > t) = P(N[0, t] < k).$$

**Definition 8.1 (Gamma Distribution).** Let  $\lambda > 0$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . We say  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\lambda, k)$  if its pdf is

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x < 0; \\ \frac{\lambda^k t^{k-1} e^{-\lambda t}}{(k-1)!} & \text{if } x \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

Note this distribution can be generalized such to any real number  $k > 0$ .

**Proposition 8.2.** If  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\lambda, k)$  then  $M_X(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}\right)^k$ , when  $t < k$ . In fact, if  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent and each  $X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(\lambda, k_i)$ , then  $X_1 + \dots + X_n \sim \text{Gamma}(\lambda, k)$  where  $k = k_1 + \dots + k_n$ .

Therefore, we see that since  $W_k \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda) \sim \text{Gamma}(\lambda, 1)$ , so  $T_k \sim \text{Gamma}(\lambda, k)$ .

## 9 Tail Inequalities

If  $X \geq 0$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \geq 0$  and if  $X \geq Y$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \geq \mathbb{E}[Y]$ .

**Theorem 9.1 (Markov).** If  $X$  is a nonnegative random variable and  $a > 0$ , then

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

*Proof.*

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \geq \int_t^\infty x f(x) dx \geq t \int_t^\infty f(x) dx = tP(X \geq t).$$

■

**Theorem 9.2 (Chebyshev).** Let  $X$  be a random variable with finite mean  $\mu$  and finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then for any  $t > 0$

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq t) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{t^2} \quad \text{and} \quad P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

*Proof.* By Markov's inequality,

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

the second part follows by setting  $t = k\sigma$ .

■

## Appendix A - Estimators

Let  $X$  be a random variable with probability distribution depending on parameter  $\theta$ . The **maximum likelihood function**  $\mathcal{L}(\theta; x)$  is the probability that  $X = x$  for parameter  $\theta$ . The **maximum likelihood estimate** (MLE) is

$$\hat{\theta} = \{\arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta; x)\}.$$

In practice we often take the logarithm of the likelihood function, called log-likelihood

$$l = \ln \mathcal{L}(\theta; x)$$

or the average log-likelihood

$$\hat{l} = \frac{1}{n} \ln \mathcal{L}(\theta; x).$$

**Example.** Consider  $\text{Unif}[a, b]$  with unknown parameters  $a < b$ . Suppose we want the relative error estimate  $\hat{c}$  of  $c := b - a$  to satisfy

$$P(|c - \hat{c}| < \varepsilon c) \geq 1 - \delta \text{ for some } \delta \in (0, 1). \quad (9.1)$$

Suppose we sample  $n$  times,  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Unif}[0, c]$ . Let  $x_{(1)}, \dots, x_{(n)}$  denote the order statistics. We have  $\mathcal{L}(\theta; x) = \frac{1}{\theta^n}$ , and  $\frac{d \ln \mathcal{L}(\theta; x)}{d\theta} = -\frac{n}{\theta}$ . So  $\mathcal{L}$  is decreasing for  $\theta \geq x_{(n)}$ , so  $\mathcal{L}$  is maximized at  $x_{(n)} = \max\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ . We have

$$P(|c - \hat{c}| < \varepsilon c) = 1 - (1 - \varepsilon)^n,$$

so we require

$$n \geq \frac{\ln \delta}{\ln(1 - \varepsilon)}.$$

Thus, given  $\delta$  and  $\varepsilon$  we should sample  $\lceil \frac{\ln \delta}{\ln(1 - \varepsilon)} \rceil$  times and return the maximum value.

## Appendix B - Law of Large Numbers

Assume  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d., with finite mean  $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$  and finite variance  $\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$ . Let  $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ . Then the sample mean  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} S_n$ . Note that  $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}_n] = \mu$  and  $\text{Var}(\bar{X}_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ .

**(Weak) Law of Large Numbers.** For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\bar{X}_n - \mu| < \varepsilon) = 1.$$

That is, the sample mean converges to the true mean with probability one.

**Central Limit Theorem.** If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d. with finite expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \left( \left| \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \right| \leq t \right) = \Phi(t).$$