MEM6810 Engineering Systems Modeling and Simulation 工程系统建模与仿真

Theory Analysis

Lecture 2: Elements of Probability and Statistics

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Contents

- Probability Space
- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
- 3 Expectations
- 4 Common Distributions
- 5 Useful Inequalities
- 6 Convergence
- 7 Properties of a Random Sample



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A probability space is a triplet $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$:

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 - \bullet $\mathbb{P}(A) \in [0,1]$ for any $A \in \mathcal{F}$;
 - $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1;$



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 - **3** Countably additive: If $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$, i = 1, 2, ..., is a **countable** sequence of **disjoint** sets, then $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$.



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 - $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{H\}, \{T\}, \Omega\};$
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- Example 2: Draw a ball out of 3 balls (red, green, blue).
 - $\Omega = \{R \text{ (red)}, G \text{ (green)}, B \text{ (blue)}\};$
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 - $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \ \mathbb{P}(\emptyset)=0, \ \mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{R}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{G}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{B}\})=1/3, \\ \mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{R},\mathsf{G}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{R},\mathsf{B}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{G},\mathsf{B}\})=2/3, \ \mathsf{and} \ \mathbb{P}(\Omega)=1; \end{array}$



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 - $\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\emptyset, [0, a), [a, 1], \Omega\}, \mathcal{F}_2 = \{\emptyset, (0, a), \{0\} \cup [a, 1], \Omega\}...$
 - A more practical and interesting \mathcal{F} is the one that contains all intervals (no matter open or closed) on [0,1].

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$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\,\mathbb{P}(B).$$



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• Events A and B are independent $\iff \mathbb{P}(A|B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$.



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- Clearly, mutual independence implies pairwise independence, but not vice versa!



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If $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \mathbb{P}(A_n)=\infty$ and $\{A_n\}$ are independent, † then $\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ i.o.})=1.$



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• Remark: For event A, if $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1$, then we say A happens almost surely (a.s.).

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[†]The assumption of independence can be weakened to pairwise independence, with more difficult proof. We Toke theresare

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Random Variables & Distributions

➤ Scalar

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- Formally, given the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, a RV X is a function $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$, such that for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$,

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- For a particular element $\omega \in \Omega$, $X(\omega)$ is called a *realization* of X.
 - Usually, we will simply denote $X(\omega)$ as x when ω is not explicitly shown.
 - A popular convention is to denote the RVs by upper-case letters (e.g., X and Y) and their realizations by lower-case letters (e.g., x and y).





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 - Under $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathbb{P})$, let $X(\omega) := \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \omega \in [0, a), \\ 1, & \text{if } \omega \in [a, 1]. \end{cases}$





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- F(x) is nondecreasing in x;
- F(x) is right-continuous, that is, for any $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\lim_{x \downarrow x_0} F(x) = F(x_0).$$





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- $p(x) \ge 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$;
- $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} p(x) = 1$.
- It is easy to see that $F(x) = \sum_{y \in (-\infty, x]} p(y)$.



 A RV X is said to be continuous if there exists a probability density function (pdf) f(x) such that

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- f(x) > 0 for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$;
- $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) dt = 1$.
- Observe that $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}F(x)=f(x)$.



• The **joint** CDF of RVs X and Y, denoted by $F: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to [0, 1]$, is defined by

$$F(x,y) := \mathbb{P}(X \le x, Y \le y)$$

= $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega : X(\omega) \le x\} \cap \{\omega : Y(\omega) \le y\}), \ \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$



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• Observe that $\frac{\partial^2 F(x,y)}{\partial x \partial y} = f(x,y)$.





- Given the random vector $(X, Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$, the distribution of X or Y is called the **marginal distribution**.
 - The marginal CDF of X is $F_X(x) = F(x, +\infty)$.





- Given the random vector (X, Y)^T, the distribution of X or Y is called the marginal distribution.
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$$p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} p(x, y).$$





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 For Y, its marginal CDF, and pmf or pdf, can be determined similarly.

Univariate Transformation - Continuous Case

Let X be a continuous RV, and Y=g(X), where g is a **monotone** function. Let

$$\mathcal{X} \coloneqq \{x: f_X(x) > 0\} \text{ and } \mathcal{Y} \coloneqq \{y: y = g(x) \text{ for some } x \in \mathcal{X}\}.$$

Suppose that $g^{-1}(y)$ has a continuous derivative on \mathcal{Y} . Then,

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} g^{-1}(y) \right|, & y \in \mathcal{Y}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



Bivariate Transformation - Continuous Case

Let $(X,Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$ be a continuous bivariate random vector, and $U=g_1(X,Y)$ and $V=g_2(X,Y)$. Let

$$\mathcal{A} := \{(x, Y) : f_{X,Y}(x, y) > 0\},\$$
 $\mathcal{B} := \{(u, v) : u = g_1(x, y), v = g_2(x, y) \text{ for some } (x, y) \in \mathcal{A}\}.$

Suppose that $u=g_1(x,y)$ and $v=g_2(x,y)$ define a **one-to-one** transformation of \mathcal{A} **onto** \mathcal{B} , and $x=h_1(u,v)$ and $y=h_2(u,v)$ have continuous partial derivatives on \mathcal{B} . Then,

$$f_{U,\,V}(u,v) = \begin{cases} f_{X,\,Y}(h_1(u,v),h_2(u,v)) \, |J| \,, & (u,v) \in \mathcal{B}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

given that J is not identically 0 on \mathcal{B} , where J is the Jacobian



Bivariate Transformation - Continuous Case (Cont'd)

of the transformation, i.e.,

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v},$$

and

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} &= \frac{\partial h_1(u,v)}{\partial u}, \ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} &= \frac{\partial h_1(u,v)}{\partial v}, \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} &= \frac{\partial h_2(u,v)}{\partial u}, \ \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} &= \frac{\partial h_2(u,v)}{\partial v}. \end{split}$$



• If $(X,Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$ is discrete, for any y such that $\mathbb{P}(Y=y)=p_Y(y)>0$, the **conditional** pmf of X given that Y=y is defined as

$$p(x|y) \coloneqq \mathbb{P}(X = x|Y = y) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p_Y(y)}.$$



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► Conditional Distribution

Intuitively, f(x|y) can be understood as follows (although it is not the most rigorous approach):



$$F(x|Y=y) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} F(x|Y \text{ between } y \text{ and } y + \Delta)$$



$$\begin{split} F(x|Y=y) &= \lim_{\Delta \to 0} F(x|Y \text{ between } y \text{ and } y + \Delta) \\ &= \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \text{ between } y \text{ and } y + \Delta)}{\mathbb{P}(Y \text{ between } y \text{ and } y + \Delta)} \end{split}$$

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2 Then,
$$f(x|y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} F(x|Y=y) = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_{-\infty}^x f(t,y) dt}{f_Y(y)} = \frac{f(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}$$



$$F(x,y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y),$$



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 - $p(x|y) \equiv p_X(x)$ or $f(x|y) \equiv f_X(x)$ regardless of the value y;



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 - $\mathbb{P}(X \in A, Y \in B) = \mathbb{P}(X \in A) \mathbb{P}(X \in B)$ for any $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}$.



Random Variables & Distributions

▶ Independence

• For more than two RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n , the joint CDF, joint pmf or pdf, and the marginal pmf or pdf, are defined analogically.



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- RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are (mutually) independent if

$$F(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \equiv F_{X_1}(x_1) \times \cdots \times F_{X_n}(x_n), \text{ or,}$$

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• RVs X_1, \ldots, X_n are pairwise independent if for any $i \neq j$, $X_i \perp X_j$.



- Probability Space
- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
- 3 Expectations
- **4** Common Distributions
- 5 Useful Inequalities
- 6 Convergence
- Properties of a Random Sample



$$\mathbb{E}[X] \coloneqq \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) \mathrm{d} \, \mathbb{P}(\omega),$$

provided that $\int_{\Omega} |X(\omega)| \mathrm{d}\, \mathbb{P}(\omega) < \infty$ or $X \geq 0$ a.s., where the integral is the Lebesgue integral, rather than the Riemann integral.



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• For function $h: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \int_{\Omega} h(X(\omega)) d\mathbb{P}(\omega)$.



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- If X is a discrete RV:
 - $\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} xp(x)$;
 - $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} h(x)p(x)$.



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- If X is a continuous RV:
 - $\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f(x) dx$;
 - $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(x) f(x) dx$.



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 - Covariance: $Cov(X, Y) := \mathbb{E}[(X \mathbb{E}[X])(Y \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y].$



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- In general, $X \perp Y \implies \rho(X,Y) = 0 \iff \operatorname{Cov}(X,Y) = 0.$



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- In general, $X \perp Y \iff \rho(X,Y) = 0 \iff \operatorname{Cov}(X,Y) = 0.$
- If $(X,Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$ follows a bivariate normal distribution,[†] then $X \perp Y \iff \rho(X,Y) = 0$.

 $[\]dagger$ CAUTION: It means MORE than that X and Y both follow a normal distribution! More details latter.

$$\mathbb{E}[X|y] \coloneqq \begin{cases} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x p(x|y), & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f(x|y) \mathrm{d}x, & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$



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• The conditional variance of X given Y = y is

$$\operatorname{Var}(X|y) := \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2|y] = \mathbb{E}[X^2|y] - (\mathbb{E}[X|y])^2.$$



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- If $X \not\perp Y$, then $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ and $\mathrm{Var}(X|Y)$ are also RVs, whose value depends on the value of Y.



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- If $X \not\perp Y$, then $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ and $\mathrm{Var}(X|Y)$ are also RVs, whose value depends on the value of Y.
- If $X \perp Y$, then $\mathbb{E}[X|y] = \mathbb{E}[X|Y] = \mathbb{E}[X]$, and $\mathrm{Var}(X|y) = \mathrm{Var}(X|Y) = \mathrm{Var}(X)$.

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



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- Probability Space
- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
- 3 Expectations
- 4 Common Distributions
- Useful Inequalities
- 6 Convergence
- Properties of a Random Sample





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TSee more detailed discussion in Lec 3.



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▶ Continuous

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- $B(\alpha, \beta) \coloneqq \int_0^1 t^{\alpha 1} (1 t)^{\beta 1} dt$ is known as the beta function.

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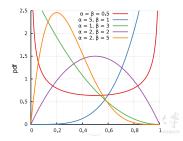
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- The $Beta(\alpha, \beta)$ pdf is quite flexible
 - $\alpha = 1$. $\beta = 1 \Longrightarrow \text{Unif}(0,1)$
 - $\alpha > 1$, $\beta = 1 \Longrightarrow$ strictly increasing
 - $\alpha = 1, \beta > 1 \Longrightarrow$ strictly decreasing
 - $\alpha < 1, \beta < 1 \Longrightarrow U$ -shaped
 - $\alpha > 1, \beta > 1 \Longrightarrow unimodal$



$$f(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{p+1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} \frac{1}{(1+x^2/p)^{(p+1)/2}}, \ x \in \mathbb{R}.$$



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- t₁ is also known as the standard Cauchy distribution, or Cauchy(0, 1), whose pdf is simply

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}, \ x \in \mathbb{R}.$$



► Normal Distribution

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- If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $Z := (X \mu)/\sigma \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.
 - ullet Z is also known as the **standard normal** RV.
 - We often use $\Phi(z)$ and $\phi(z)$ to denote the CDF and pdf of Z.
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► Normal Distribution

• If $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, then $Z^2 \sim \chi_1^2$.



Proof. Let
$$Y := Z^2$$
. For $y \in [0, \infty)$,

$$\mathbb{P}(Y \le y) = \mathbb{P}(Z^2 \le y) = \mathbb{P}(-\sqrt{y} \le Z \le \sqrt{y}) = \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} \phi(t) dt =: F(y).$$



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 $\underline{\textit{Proof.}} \quad \mathsf{Let} \; Y \coloneqq Z^2. \; \mathsf{For} \; y \in [0, \infty),$

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If $Y \sim \chi_1^2$, i.e., $Y \sim \operatorname{Gamma}(1/2,1/2)$, it means its pdf is

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If $Y \sim \chi_1^2$, i.e., $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(1/2, 1/2)$, it means its pdf is

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\Gamma(\frac{1}{\alpha})}y^{-\frac{1}{2}}e^{-\frac{y}{2}}.$$

The proof is completed by showing that $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})=\int_0^\infty t^{-\frac{1}{2}}e^{-t}\mathrm{d}t=\sqrt{\pi}$, which can be seen if we convert to polar coordinates.

► Normal Distribution

• If $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ and $V \sim \chi_p^2$ are independent, then $\frac{Z}{\sqrt{V/p}} \sim t_p$.



<u>Proof.</u> Since $V \sim \chi_p^2$, by definition, its pdf is

$$f_V(v) = \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} v^{\frac{p}{2} - 1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}v}, \quad v \in (0, \infty).$$



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Let $Y := \sqrt{V/p}$. For $y \in (0, \infty)$,

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} \, \mathbb{P}(Y \le y) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} \, \mathbb{P}(V \le py^2) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} \int_0^{py^2} f_V(v) \mathrm{d}v = 2py f_V(py^2).$$



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Let
$$T\coloneqq \frac{Z}{\sqrt{V/p}}=\frac{Z}{Y}.$$
 For $t\in\mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathbb{P}(T \le t) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{Z}{Y} \le t\right) = \mathbb{P}(Z \le tY) = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(Z \le ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y. \quad \text{(Why?)}$$



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Then,

$$f_T(t) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathbb{P}(T \le t) = \int_0^\infty \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathbb{P}(Z \le ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y.$$



► Normal Distribution

<u>Proof.</u> (Cont'd) Note that $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y \phi(ty)$.



Normal Distribution

Proof. (Cont'd) Note that
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y\phi(ty)$$
. So, $f_T(t) = \int_0^\infty y\phi(ty)f_Y(y)\mathrm{d}y = \int_0^\infty y\phi(ty)2pyf_V(py^2)\mathrm{d}y$



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$$= \int_0^\infty 2py^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2y^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{p}{2}\right)} (py^2)^{\frac{p}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}py^2} \mathrm{d}y$$



$$\begin{split} & \underline{Proof.} \; (\textit{Cont'd}) \quad \text{Note that } \tfrac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \, \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \tfrac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y \phi(ty). \; \text{So,} \\ & f_T(t) = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) 2py f_V(py^2) \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \int_0^\infty 2py^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2y^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{p}{2}\right)} (py^2)^{\frac{p}{2} - 1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}py^2} \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma\left(\frac{p}{2}\right)} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} 2^{\frac{1-p}{2}} p^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2 + p)y^2} \mathrm{d}y. \end{split}$$



$$\begin{split} & \underline{Proof.} \; \textit{(Cont'd)} \quad \text{Note that } \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \, \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y \phi(ty). \; \text{So,} \\ & f_T(t) = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) 2 py f_V(py^2) \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \int_0^\infty 2 py^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2 y^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} (py^2)^{\frac{p}{2} - 1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}py^2} \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} 2^{\frac{1-p}{2}} p^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2 + p)y^2} \mathrm{d}y. \end{split}$$

Let $x := y^2$. Then, integration by substitution shows that

$$\int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)y^2} \mathrm{d}y = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)x} \mathrm{d}x =: \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \mathrm{d}x,$$

where $\alpha \coloneqq \frac{p+1}{2}$ and $\lambda \coloneqq \frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)$.



$$\begin{split} & \underline{Proof.} \; \textit{(Cont'd)} \quad \text{Note that } \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \, \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y \phi(ty). \; \text{So,} \\ & f_T(t) = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) 2py f_V(py^2) \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \int_0^\infty 2py^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2y^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} (py^2)^{\frac{p}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}py^2} \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} 2^{\frac{1-p}{2}} p^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)y^2} \mathrm{d}y. \end{split}$$

Let $x := y^2$. Then, integration by substitution shows that

$$\int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)y^2} dy = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)x} dx =: \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx,$$

where $\alpha \coloneqq \frac{p+1}{2}$ and $\lambda \coloneqq \frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)$. Recalling the pdf of $\Gamma(\alpha,\lambda)$, it is easy to see that $\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1}e^{-\lambda x}\mathrm{d}x = \Gamma(\alpha)/\lambda^\alpha$.



$$\begin{split} & \underline{Proof.} \; (\textit{Cont'd}) \quad \text{Note that } \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \, \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y \phi(ty). \; \text{So,} \\ & f_T(t) = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y = \int_0^\infty y \phi(ty) 2py f_V(py^2) \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \int_0^\infty 2py^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2y^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{p}{2}\right)} (py^2)^{\frac{p}{2} - 1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}py^2} \mathrm{d}y \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(n\pi)^{1/2}} 2^{\frac{1-p}{2}} p^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2 + p)y^2} \mathrm{d}y. \end{split}$$

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where $\alpha \coloneqq \frac{p+1}{2}$ and $\lambda \coloneqq \frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)$. Recalling the pdf of $\Gamma(\alpha,\lambda)$, it is easy to see that $\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1}e^{-\lambda x}\mathrm{d}x = \Gamma(\alpha)/\lambda^\alpha$. Finally,

$$f_T(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} 2^{\frac{1-p}{2}} p^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{p+1}{2})}{(1/2)^{(p+1)/2} (t^2 + p)^{(p+1)/2}}$$
$$= \frac{\Gamma(\frac{p+1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} \frac{1}{(1+t^2/p)^{(p+1)/2}}.$$

► Normal Distribution

• $X := (X_1, \dots, X_k)^{\mathsf{T}}$ is said to follow a k-variate normal distribution, if **every** linear combination of X_1, \dots, X_k follows a (univariate) normal distribution.



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- $m{X}\sim$ a k-variate normal distribution, denoted as $\mathcal{N}(m{\mu},m{\Sigma})$, if its joint pdf is given by

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- Σ is a symmetric and positive definite matrix.
- $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2), i = 1, \dots, k$.



- If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ is k dimensional, then
 - $\pmb{Z} \coloneqq \pmb{A}^{-1}(\pmb{X} \pmb{\mu}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\pmb{0}, \pmb{I})$, where \pmb{A} satisfies $\pmb{\Sigma} = \pmb{A}\pmb{A}^\mathsf{T}$ (Cholesky decomposition), $\pmb{0} \in \mathbb{R}^k$, and $\pmb{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ denotes the identity matrix.



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 - $\mathbf{Z} = (Z_1, \dots, Z_k)^\mathsf{T}$, where $Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $i = 1, \dots, k$, iid.



Normal Distribution

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 - $Z = (Z_1, ..., Z_k)^T$, where $Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, i = 1, ..., k, iid.
 - $ullet \ a + BX \sim \mathcal{N}(a + B\mu, B\Sigma B^\intercal).^\dagger$

The multivariate normal distribution will be degenerate if B does not have full row rank (B不行満秩).

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- Suppose $m{X}$ is a k dimensional random vector. Then, $m{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(m{\mu}, m{\Sigma}) \Longleftrightarrow$ There exist $m{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $m{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{k imes \ell}$ such that $m{X} = m{\mu} + m{A} m{Z}$, where $m{Z} \sim \mathcal{N}(m{0}, m{I})$ with $m{0} \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$ and $m{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell imes \ell}$.

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• Bivariate normal distribution: $(X_1, X_2)^{\mathsf{T}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$, where $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \mu_2)^{\mathsf{T}}$, and

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and the joint pdf is

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \times e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\left(\frac{x_1-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 - 2\rho\left(\frac{x_1-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)\left(\frac{x_2-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right) + \left(\frac{x_2-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right)^2\right]}.$$



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• To see $\rho = 0 \Longrightarrow X_1 \perp X_2$, let $\rho = 0$, and note

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\sigma_1} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{x_2 - \mu_2}{\sigma_2} \right)^2 \right]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1} e^{-\frac{(x_1 - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_2} e^{-\frac{(x_2 - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}} = f_{X_1}(x_1) f_{X_2}(x_2).$$



Proof. Note that

$$\boldsymbol{Y} \coloneqq \left[egin{array}{c} X_1 + X_2 \ X_1 - X_2 \end{array}
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$$Cov(X_1 + X_2, X_1 - X_2) = Cov(X_1, X_1) - Cov(X_2, X_2)$$
$$= \sigma^2 - \sigma^2 = 0.$$



- There are many other relationships among various probability distributions.
 - See, for example, Song (2005);
 - Or, Leemis & McQueston (2008) and their online interactive graph http://www.math.wm.edu/~leemis/chart/UDR/UDR.html

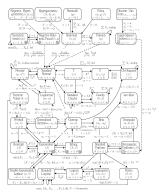


Figure: Relationships Among 35
Distributions (from Song (2005))

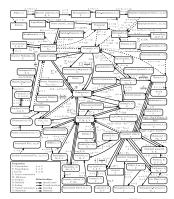


Figure: Relationships Among 76
Distributions (from Leemis & McQueston (2008))

- Probability Space
- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
- 3 Expectations
- 4 Common Distributions
- 5 Useful Inequalities
- 6 Convergence
- 7 Properties of a Random Sample



Markov's Inequality

Let X be a RV. If $\mathbb{P}(X \geq 0) = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(X = 0) < 1$, then, for any r > 0,

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge r) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{r},$$

with equality if and only if

$$X = \begin{cases} r, & \text{with probability } p, \\ 0, & \text{with probability } 1-p. \end{cases}$$



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 Markov's Inequality has many variations, which are usually called Chebyshev's Inequality.



Chebyshev's Inequality

Let X be a RV and $g(\boldsymbol{x})$ be a nonnegative function. Then, for any r>0,

$$\mathbb{P}(g(X) \ge r) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[g(X)]}{r}.$$



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Chebyshev's Inequality

Let X be a RV. Then, for any r, p > 0,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X| \ge r) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[|X|^p]}{r^p}$$
,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \ge r) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{r^2},$$

where $\mu := \mathbb{E}[X]$, and $\sigma^2 := \operatorname{Var}(X)$.



Useful Inequalities

ightharpoonup Tighter Bound for Z

• Chebyshev's Inequality is typically very conservative.



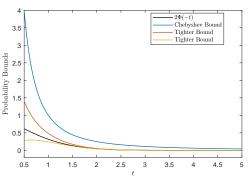
- Chebyshev's Inequality is typically very conservative.
- If $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, a tighter bound is available: For any t > 0,

$$2\Phi(-t) = \mathbb{P}(|Z| \ge t) \le \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{1}{t} e^{-t^2/2},$$
$$2\Phi(-t) = \mathbb{P}(|Z| \ge t) \ge \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{t}{1+t^2} e^{-t^2/2}.$$



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• A function g(x) is **convex** if

$$g(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \le \lambda g(x) + (1 - \lambda)g(y),$$

for all x and y, and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$.



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Jensen's Inequality

Let X be a RV. If g(x) is a convex function, then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] \ge g(\mathbb{E}[X]),$$

with equality if and only if g(x) is a linear function on some set A such that $\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = 1$.



Hölder's Inequality

Let X and Y be any two RVs, and let p and q be any two positive numbers (necessarily greater than 1) satisfying

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

Then,

$$|\mathbb{E}[XY]| \le \mathbb{E}[|XY|] \le {\mathbb{E}[|X|^p]}^{1/p} {\mathbb{E}[|Y|^q]}^{1/q}.$$



Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality (p = q = 2)

Let X and Y be any two RVs, then

$$|\operatorname{\mathbb{E}}[XY]| \leq \operatorname{\mathbb{E}}[|XY|] \leq \{\operatorname{\mathbb{E}}[|X|^2]\}^{1/2} \{\operatorname{\mathbb{E}}[|Y|^2]\}^{1/2}.$$



Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality (p = q = 2)

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Liapounov's Inequality $(Y \equiv 1)$

Let X be a RV, then for any s > r > 1,

$$\{\mathbb{E}[|X|^r]\}^{1/r} \le \{\mathbb{E}[|X|^s]\}^{1/s}.$$



Minkowski's Inequality

Let X and Y be any two RVs. Then, for $p \ge 1$,

$$\{\mathbb{E}[|X+Y|^p]\}^{1/p} \le \{\mathbb{E}[|X|^p]\}^{1/p} + \{\mathbb{E}[|Y|^p]\}^{1/p}.$$



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 Remark: The preceding Hölder's Inequality (including its special cases) and Minkowski's Inequality also apply to numerical sums where there is no explicit reference to an expectation.



- Probability Space
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Consider a sequence of RVs $\{X_n : n \geq 1\}$ and another RV X.



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- Convergence in Distribution, $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$, $X_n \Rightarrow X$, or $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} \text{distribution of } X$: $\lim_{n \to \infty} F_n(x) = F(x), \text{ for any continuous point } x \text{ of } F(x),$ where F_n and F are CDF of X_n and X, respectively.



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- Convergence in L^r Norm $(r \in [1, \infty))$, $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$: $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n X|^r) = 0,$ given $\mathbb{E}[|X_n|^r] < \infty$ for any $n \ge 1$ and $\mathbb{E}[|X|^r] < \infty$

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- $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \iff$ For every subsequence $X_n(m)$ there is a further subsequence $X_n(m_k)$ such that $X_n(m_k) \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$.

• Question: If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ or $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ or $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, does it imply $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X]$?



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Fatou's Lemma

Suppose $X_n \geq Y$ a.s. for all n where $\mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \infty$. Then $\mathbb{E}[\liminf_{n \to \infty} X_n] \leq \liminf_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[X_n]$. In particular, if $X_n \geq 0$ a.s. for all n, then the result holds.



Dominated Convergence Theorem (DCT)

Suppose $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, $|X_n| \leq Y$ a.s. for all n, and $\mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \infty$. Then $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X]$.



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- The DCT is still true if $\stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow}$ is replaced by $\stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow}$.
- An **even more general** result: Suppose $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$, $|X_n| \leq Y$ a.s. for all n, and $\mathbb{E}[|Y|^r] < \infty$ with $r \geq 1$. Then, $\mathbb{E}[|X_n|^r] < \infty$, $\mathbb{E}[|X|^r] < \infty$, and $X_n \stackrel{L^r}{\longrightarrow} X$.



- X = Y a.s., if any one of the following holds:
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- None of the above are true for convergence in distribution.
- If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{d}$ constant c, then $(X_n, Y_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \xrightarrow{d} (X, c)^{\mathsf{T}}$. $\Longrightarrow aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{d} aX + bc; X_nY_n \xrightarrow{d} cX$. (Due to CMT; also known as Slutsky's theorem)

Continuous Mapping Theorem (CMT)

Consider a sequence of RVs $\{X_n:n\geq 1\}$ and another RV X. Suppose g is a function that has the set of discontinuity points D such that $\mathbb{P}(X\in D)=0$. Then,

$$X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies g(X_n) \xrightarrow{a.s.} g(X);$$

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- CMT also holds for random vectors.
- Caution: For convergence in L^r norm, stronger assumption of g than continuity is required to ensure $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{L^r} g(X)$.



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Properties of a Random Sample

• Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be a **random sample** from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , i.e., X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid, and $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$ and $\mathrm{Var}(X_i) = \sigma^2$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$.



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- Denote \bar{X} as \bar{X}_n , to explicitly indicate the effect of sample size n.

Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)

Suppose X_1,\ldots,X_n are iid with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2<\infty$. Then, $\bar{X}_n\stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow}\mu$.



⁻ Widthar independent

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- For a general distribution, what can we say about the distribution of \bar{X} ?
- ${\rm Var}(\bar X)=\sigma^2/n$ intuitively means that the randomness of $\bar X$ vanishes and $\bar X$ concentrates around μ when n gets large.
- Denote \bar{X} as \bar{X}_n , to explicitly indicate the effect of sample size n.

Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)

Suppose X_1,\ldots,X_n are iid with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2<\infty$. Then, $\bar{X}_n\stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow}\mu$.

Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN)

Suppose X_1,\ldots,X_n are iid with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2<\infty$.† Then, $\bar{X}_n\xrightarrow{a.s.}\mu$.



- Note that for normal distribution, $\frac{\bar{X}_n \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, regardless of the value of n.
- For a general distribution, what can we say about the distribution of $\frac{\bar{X}_n \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$?



- Note that for normal distribution, $\frac{\bar{X}_n \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, regardless of the value of n.
- For a general distribution, what can we say about the distribution of $\frac{\bar{X}_n \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$?
- Note that $\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\bar{X}_n-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right]=0$ and $\mathrm{Var}\left(\frac{\bar{X}_n-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right)=1$, regardless of the distribution and the value of n.



- Note that for **normal** distribution, $\frac{\bar{X}_n \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, regardless of the value of n.
- For a general distribution, what can we say about the distribution of $\frac{X_n-\mu}{\sigma^{1/\sqrt{n}}}$?
- Note that $\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\bar{X}_n-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right]=0$ and $\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{\bar{X}_n-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right)=1$, regardless of the distribution and the value of n.

Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

Suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 \in$ $(0,\infty)$. Then,

$$\frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0,1).$$

