

# MEM6804 Modeling and Simulation for Logistics & Supply Chain

## 物流与供应链建模与仿真

Theory Analysis

## Lecture 2: Elements of Probability and Statistics

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- 1 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  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ :

- $\Omega$ , sample space: A set of *all* possible outcomes.
  - A set of *some* outcomes, as a subset of  $\Omega$ , is called an **event**.
- $\mathcal{F}$ ,  $\sigma$ -algebra (or  $\sigma$ -field): A set of events, i.e., a set of some subsets of  $\Omega$ , such that:
  - ①  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
  - ② Closed under complementation: If  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , then  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
  - ③ Closed under countable unions:<sup>†</sup> If  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , is a **countable** sequence of sets, then  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- $\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , probability function (or probability measure): A function that assigns probabilities to events, such that:
  - ①  $\mathbb{P}(A) \in [0, 1]$  for any  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ ;
  - ②  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ ;
  - ③ Countably additive: If  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , is a **countable** sequence of **disjoint** sets, then  $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$ .

<sup>†</sup> It implies that  $\mathcal{F}$  is also closed under countable intersections.



- Example 1: Flip a fair coin.
  - $\Omega = \{H \text{ (head)}, T \text{ (tail)}\};$
  - $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{H\}, \{T\}, \Omega\};$
  - $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0, \mathbb{P}(\{H\}) = 1/2, \mathbb{P}(\{T\}) = 1/2, \text{ and } \mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1.$
- Example 2: Draw a ball out of 3 balls (red, green, blue).
  - $\Omega = \{R \text{ (red)}, G \text{ (green)}, B \text{ (blue)}\};$
  - $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{R\}, \{G\}, \{B\}, \{R,G\}, \{R,B\}, \{G,B\}, \Omega\};$
  - $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0, \mathbb{P}(\{R\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{G\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{B\}) = 1/3,$   
 $\mathbb{P}(\{R,G\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{R,B\}) = \mathbb{P}(\{G,B\}) = 2/3, \text{ and } \mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1;$
  - $\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\emptyset, \{R\}, \{G,B\}, \Omega\}, \mathcal{F}_2 = \{\emptyset, \{G\}, \{R,B\}, \Omega\}...$
- Example 3: Randomly “draw” a number in  $[0, 1]$ 
  - $\Omega = [0, 1];$
  - $\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\emptyset, [0, a), [a, 1], \Omega\}, \mathcal{F}_2 = \{\emptyset, (0, a), \{0\} \cup [a, 1], \Omega\}...$
  - A more practical and interesting  $\mathcal{F}$  is the one that contains all intervals (no matter open or closed) on  $[0, 1]$ .



- **Independence** of Events: Two events  $A$  and  $B$  in  $\mathcal{F}$  are called statistically independent events when

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

- **Conditional Probability**: If  $A$  and  $B$  are events in  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ , then the conditional probability of  $A$  given  $B$ , denoted as  $\mathbb{P}(A|B)$ , is

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

- Bayes' Rule:

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

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



- For more than two events:
  - **Mutual independence** (or collective independence) intuitively means that each event is independent of any combination of other events;
  - **Pairwise independence** means any two events in the collection are independent of each other.
- Sets  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  are (mutually) independent if for any  $I \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$  we have  $\mathbb{P}(\cap_{i \in I} A_i) = \prod_{i \in I} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$ .
- **Warning:** Only having  $\mathbb{P}(\cap_{i=1}^n A_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i)$  is not sufficient!
- Sets  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  are pairwise independent if for any  $i \neq j$  we have  $\mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j) = \mathbb{P}(A_i) \mathbb{P}(A_j)$ .
- Clearly, mutual independence implies pairwise independence, but not vice versa!



Consider a sequence of sets  $\{A_n : n \geq 1\}$ .

### (The First) Borel-Cantelli Lemma

If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) < \infty$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(A_n \text{ i.o.}) = 0$ , where “i.o.” denotes “infinitely often”.

### The Secon Borel-Cantelli Lemma

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

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

<sup>†</sup>The assumption of independence can be weakened to pairwise independence, with more difficult proof.



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- A **random variable** (RV) is a function from a sample space  $\Omega$  into the set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- Formally, given the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , a RV  $X$  is a function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq a\} \in \mathcal{F}.$$

- 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  $\omega$  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  $y$ ).

- Example 1': Let  $X(H) = 0$ ,  $X(T) = 1$ .
- Example 2':
  - Under  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , let  $X(R) = 0$ ,  $X(G) = 1$ , and  $X(B) = 2$ .
  - Under  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathbb{P})$ , let  $X(R) = 0$ ,  $X(G) = 1$ , and  $X(B) = 1$ .
- Example 3':
  - Under  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathbb{P})$ , let  $X(\omega) := \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \omega \in [0, a), \\ 1, & \text{if } \omega \in [a, 1]. \end{cases}$
  - Under  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , let  $X(\omega) = \omega$  for  $\omega \in [0, 1]$ .



- The **cumulative distribution function** (CDF) of a RV  $X$ , denoted by  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , is defined by

$$F(x) := \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq x\}), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R},$$

and the following is satisfied:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F(x) = 1$ ;
- $F(x)$  is nondecreasing in  $x$ ;
- $F(x)$  is right-continuous, that is, for any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

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



- A RV  $X$  is said to be **discrete** if the set of its possible values is countable.
- The **probability mass function** (pmf) of a discrete RV  $X$  is given by

$$p(x) := \mathbb{P}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\}), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R},$$

and the following is satisfied:

- $p(x) \geq 0$  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

$$F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t)dt, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R},$$

and the following is satisfied:

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



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

$$\begin{aligned} F(x, y) &:= \mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(\{\omega : X(\omega) \leq x\} \cap \{\omega : Y(\omega) \leq y\}), \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$

- For discrete RVs  $X$  and  $Y$ , the **joint** pmf is given by

$$\begin{aligned} p(x, y) &:= \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(\{\omega : X(\omega) = x\} \cap \{\omega : Y(\omega) = y\}), \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$

- For continuous RVs  $X$  and  $Y$ , the **joint** pdf is  $f(x, y)$  such that

$$F(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f(t, u) dt du, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

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



- Given the random vector  $(X, Y)^T$ , the distribution of  $X$  or  $Y$  is called the **marginal distribution**.
- If  $(X, Y)^T$  is discrete:
  - The marginal CDF of  $X$  is  $F_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} F(x, y)$ ;
  - The marginal pmf of  $X$  is  $p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} p(x, y)$ ;
  - The marginal CDF and marginal pmf of  $Y$  are defined similarly.
- If  $(X, Y)^T$  is continuous:
  - The marginal CDF of  $X$  is  $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} F(x, y) dy$ ;
  - The marginal pdf of  $X$  is  $f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x, y) dy$ ;
  - The marginal CDF and marginal pdf of  $Y$  are defined similarly.



- If  $(X, Y)^T$  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

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

- If  $(X, Y)^T$  is continuous, for any  $y$  such that  $f_Y(y) > 0$ , the **conditional** pdf of  $X$  given that  $Y = y$  is defined as

$$f(x|y) := \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

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

① Note that

$$\begin{aligned} F(x|Y=y) &= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} F(x|Y \text{ between } y \text{ and } y+\Delta) \\ &= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \text{ between } y \text{ and } y+\Delta)}{\mathbb{P}(Y \text{ between } y \text{ and } y+\Delta)} \\ &= \frac{\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} [F(x, y+\Delta) - F(x, y)]/\Delta}{\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} [F_Y(y+\Delta) - F_Y(y)]/\Delta} \\ &= \frac{\frac{d}{dy} F(x, y)}{\frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y)} = \frac{\frac{d}{dy} \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f(t, u) dt du}{f_Y(y)} \\ &= \frac{\int_{-\infty}^x f(t, y) dt}{f_Y(y)}. \end{aligned}$$

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

- Two RVs  $X$  and  $Y$  are said to be statistically **independent**, which can be denoted as  $X \perp Y$ , when, for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$F(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y), \text{ or,}$$

$$p(x, y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y), \text{ or,}$$

$$f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y).$$

- $X$  and  $Y$  are independent  $\iff$ 
  - $p(x|y) \equiv p_X(x)$  or  $f(x|y) \equiv f_X(x)$  regardless of the value  $y$ ;
  - $\mathbb{P}(X \in A, Y \in B) = \mathbb{P}(X \in A)\mathbb{P}(Y \in B)$  for any  $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}$ .

- For more than two RVs  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , the joint CDF, joint pmf or pdf, and the marginal pmf or pdf, are defined analogically.
- RVs  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are (mutually) independent if

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

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = p_{X_1}(x_1) \times \cdots \times p_{X_n}(x_n), \text{ or,}$$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_{X_1}(x_1) \times \cdots \times f_{X_n}(x_n).$$

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

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- The **expectation**, or **expected value**, or **mean**, of a RV  $X$  is defined as

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

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

- For function  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \int_{\Omega} h(X(\omega)) d\mathbb{P}(\omega)$ .
- If  $X$  is a discrete RV:
  - $\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} xp(x)$ ;
  - $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} h(x)p(x)$ .
- If  $X$  is a continuous RV:
  - $\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} xf(x)$ ;
  - $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(x)f(x)$ .

- For integer  $n$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[X^n]$  is called the  $n$ th **moment** of  $X$ , and  $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^n]$  is called the  $n$ th **central moment** of  $X$ .
- Some special moments:
  - Mean (1st moment):  $\mu := \mathbb{E}[X]$ .
  - **Variance** (2nd central moment):  
 $\sigma^2 := \text{Var}(X) := \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$ .
- **Linear** association:
  - **Covariance**:  
 $\text{Cov}(X, Y) := \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y]$ .
  - **Correlation**:  $\rho(X, Y) := \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X) \text{Var}(Y)}}$ .
- In general,  $X \perp Y \xLeftrightarrow{\neq} \rho(X, Y) = 0 \iff \text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ .
- If  $(X, Y)^\top$  follows a bivariate normal distribution,<sup>†</sup> then  $X \perp Y \iff \rho(X, Y) = 0$ .

<sup>†</sup> **CAUTION:** It means MORE than that  $X$  and  $Y$  both follow a normal distribution! More details latter.

- The conditional expectation of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is

$$\mathbb{E}[X|y] := \begin{cases} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} xp(x|y), & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} xf(x|y), & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

- The conditional variance of  $X$  given  $Y = y$  is

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

- If  $X \not\perp Y$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[X|y]$  and  $\text{Var}(X|y)$  are functions of  $y$ .
- If  $X \not\perp Y$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$  and  $\text{Var}(X|Y)$  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  $\text{Var}(X|y) = \text{Var}(X|Y) = \text{Var}(X)$ .





- $\mathbb{E}[aX + bY] = a \mathbb{E}[X] + b \mathbb{E}[Y].$
- $\text{Var}(aX + bY) = a^2 \text{Var}(X) + 2ab \text{Cov}(X, Y) + b^2 \text{Var}(Y).$
- $\text{Cov}(aX + bY, cW + dV) = ac \text{Cov}(X, W) + ad \text{Cov}(X, V) + bc \text{Cov}(Y, W) + bd \text{Cov}(Y, V).$
- $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]] = \mathbb{E}[X].$
- $\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}(X|Y)] + \text{Var}(\mathbb{E}[X|Y]).$
- If  $X \perp Y$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y].$

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- $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  or  $\text{Ber}(p)$ , if

$$X = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{with probability } p, \\ 0, & \text{with probability } 1 - p, \end{cases} \quad p \in [0, 1].$$

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = p$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = p(1 - p)$ .
- The value  $X = 1$  is often termed a “success” and  $p$  is referred to as the success probability.
- $Y \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$  or  $\text{B}(n, p)$ : The number of successes among  $n$  (mutually) **independent and identically distributed** (iid)  $\text{Ber}(p)$  trials.
  - $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ , where  $X_i \sim \text{Ber}(p)$  are iid.
  - $p(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y = y) = \binom{n}{y} p^y (1 - p)^{n-y}$ ,  $y = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .
  - $\mathbb{E}[Y] = np$ ,  $\text{Var}(Y) = np(1 - p)$ .
- If  $Y_1 \sim \text{B}(n_1, p)$  and  $Y_2 \sim \text{B}(n_2, p)$  are independent, then  $Y_1 + Y_2 \sim \text{B}(n_1 + n_2, p)$ .



- $Y \sim \text{negative binomial}(r, p)$  or  $\text{NB}(r, p)$ : The number of iid  $\text{Ber}(p)$  trials to obtain  $r$  successes.
  - $p(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y = y) = \binom{y-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{y-r}, \quad y = r, r+1, \dots$
  - $\mathbb{E}[Y] = r + r(1-p)/p, \text{Var}(Y) = r(1-p)/p^2$ .
  - When  $r = 1$ , it becomes the geometric distribution.
- $Y \sim \text{geometric}(p)$  or  $\text{Geo}(p)$ : The number of iid  $\text{Ber}(p)$  trials to obtain the first success.
  - $p(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y = y) = p(1-p)^{y-1}, \quad y = 1, 2, \dots$
  - $\mathbb{E}[Y] = 1/p, \text{Var}(Y) = (1-p)/p^2$ .
  - **Memoryless Property**: For integers  $s > t$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(Y > s | Y > t) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y > s, Y > t)}{\mathbb{P}(Y > t)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y > s)}{\mathbb{P}(Y > t)} = \frac{(1-p)^s}{(1-p)^t} = (1-p)^{s-t} \\ &= \mathbb{P}(Y > s-t).\end{aligned}$$

- If  $Y_1 \sim \text{NB}(r_1, p)$  and  $Y_2 \sim \text{NB}(r_2, p)$  are independent, then  $Y_1 + Y_2 \sim \text{NB}(r_1 + r_2, p)$ .



- Poisson distribution is often used to model the number of occurrence in a given time interval.
- One of the basic assumptions is that, *for very small time intervals, the probability of an occurrence is proportional to the length of the time interval.*<sup>†</sup>
- $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  or  $\text{Pois}(\lambda)$ , with  $\lambda > 0$ , if

$$p(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}, \quad x = 0, 1, \dots$$

- It can be verified that  $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} p(x) = 1$ .
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = \lambda$ .
- If  $X_1 \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1)$  and  $X_2 \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_2)$  are independent,
  - $X_1 + X_2 \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$ ;
  - Given  $X_1 + X_2 = n$ ,  $X_1 \sim \text{B}(n, \lambda_1/(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2))$ .

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<sup>†</sup> See more detailed discussion in Lec 3.



- $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$  or  $\text{Unif}(a, b)$  with  $a < b$ , if its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & \text{if } x \in [a, b], \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{b+a}{2}$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$ .
- $X \sim \text{exponential}(\lambda)$  or  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$ , with  $\lambda > 0$ , if its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \in [0, \infty).$$

- $\lambda$  is called the rate parameter.
- $F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(X > x) = 1 - F(x) = e^{-\lambda x}$ .
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = 1/\lambda$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = 1/\lambda^2$ .
- **Memoryless Property:** For  $s > t \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X > s | X > t) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(X > s, X > t)}{\mathbb{P}(X > t)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X > s)}{\mathbb{P}(X > t)} = \frac{e^{-\lambda s}}{e^{-\lambda t}} = e^{-\lambda(s-t)} \\ &= \mathbb{P}(X > s - t). \end{aligned}$$

- If  $X_1 \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_1)$  and  $X_2 \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_2)$  are independent, then  $\min\{X_1, X_2\} \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ , then for  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $Y := X^{1/\alpha} \sim \text{Weibull}(\alpha, \beta)$  in shape & scale parametrization with  $\beta = (1/\lambda)^{1/\alpha}$ , whose pdf is

$$f(y) = \alpha \beta^{-\alpha} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-(y/\beta)^\alpha}, \quad y \in (0, \infty).$$

- Erlang( $k, \lambda$ ) or  $\text{Erl}(k, \lambda)$ , with  $k$  being a positive integer, is a generalized version of  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$ , whose pdf is

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} x^{k-1} e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \in [0, \infty).$$

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = k/\lambda$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = k/\lambda^2$ .
  - $k = 1 \implies \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ .
- If  $X_1 \sim \text{Erl}(k_1, \lambda)$  and  $X_2 \sim \text{Erl}(k_2, \lambda)$  are independent, then  $X_1 + X_2 \sim \text{Erl}(k_1 + k_2, \lambda)$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Erl}(k, \lambda)$ , then  $cX \sim \text{Erl}(k, \lambda/c)$  for  $c > 0$ .



- $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$  in shape & rate parametrization with  $\alpha, \lambda > 0$ , if its pdf is given by

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

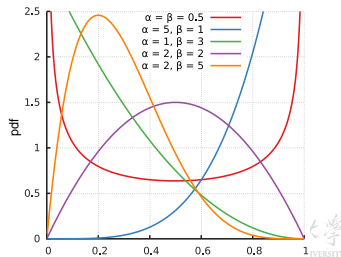
- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \alpha/\lambda$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = \alpha/\lambda^2$ .
- $\Gamma(\alpha) := \int_0^\infty t^{\alpha-1} e^{-t} dt$  is known as the gamma function.
  - $\Gamma(\alpha + 1) = \alpha\Gamma(\alpha)$ ;  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ , for integer  $n > 0$ .
- If  $X_1 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1, \lambda)$  and  $X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_2, \lambda)$  are independent, then  $X_1 + X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \lambda)$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ , then  $cX \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda/c)$  for  $c > 0$ .
- Important special cases of  $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ :
  - $\alpha$  is an integer  $\implies \text{Erl}(\alpha, \lambda)$ ;  $\alpha = 1 \implies \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ ;
  - $\alpha = p/2$ , where  $p$  is an integer, and  $\lambda = 1/2 \implies$  **chi-square distribution with  $p$  degrees of freedom**, denoted as  $\chi_p^2$ .



- Beta distribution is a very flexible distribution that in a finite interval.
- $X \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$  with  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ , if its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}, \quad x \in [0, 1].$$

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \alpha/(\alpha + \beta)$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$ .
- $B(\alpha, \beta) := \int_0^1 t^{\alpha-1}(1-t)^{\beta-1}dt$  is known as the beta function.
  - $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$ .
- The pdf is quite flexible
  - $\alpha = 1, \beta = 1 \implies \text{Unif}(0, 1)$
  - $\alpha > 1, \beta = 1 \implies$  strictly increasing
  - $\alpha = 1, \beta > 1 \implies$  strictly decreasing
  - $\alpha < 1, \beta < 1 \implies$  U-shaped
  - $\alpha > 1, \beta > 1 \implies$  unimodal



- $X \sim$  Student's  $t$  distribution with  $p$  degrees of freedom, denoted as  $t_p$ , where  $p$  is an integer, if its pdf is given by

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

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$  if  $p > 1$ ;
- $\text{Var}(X) = p/(p-2)$  if  $p > 2$ .
- $t_1$  is also known as the standard Cauchy distribution, or Cauchy(0, 1), whose pdf is simply

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



- The **normal distribution** (sometimes called the Gaussian distribution) plays a **central role** in a large body of statistics.
- $X \sim$  normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , denoted as  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , with  $\sigma > 0$ , if its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

- $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ ,  $\text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$ .
- If  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $Z := (X - \mu)/\sigma \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .
  - $Z$  is also known as the **standard normal** RV.
  - We often use  $\Phi(z)$  and  $\phi(z)$  to denote the CDF and pdf of  $Z$ .
  - $\mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \Phi((x - \mu)/\sigma)$ .
- If  $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $a + bX \sim \mathcal{N}(a + b\mu, b^2\sigma^2)$  for  $b > 0$ .
- If  $X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$  and  $X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$  are independent, then  $X_1 + X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$ .

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

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

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

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f(y) &= \frac{d}{dy} F(y) = \phi(\sqrt{y}) \frac{d}{dy} \sqrt{y} - \phi(-\sqrt{y}) \frac{d}{dy} (-\sqrt{y}) \\ &= 2\phi(\sqrt{y}) \frac{d}{dy} \sqrt{y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}} y^{-\frac{1}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) = \frac{d}{dy} \mathbb{P}(V \leq py^2) = \frac{d}{dy} \int_0^{py^2} f_V(v) dv = 2py f_V(py^2).$$

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

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

Then,

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



Proof. (Cont'd) Note that  $\frac{d}{dt} \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) dz = y\phi(ty)$ . So,

$$\begin{aligned} f_T(t) &= \int_0^\infty y\phi(ty)f_Y(y)dy = \int_0^\infty y\phi(ty)2pyf_V(py^2)dy \\ &= \int_0^\infty 2py^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2 y^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} (py^2)^{\frac{p}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}py^2} dy \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} 2^{\frac{1-p}{2}} p^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)y^2} dy. \end{aligned}$$

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

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



- $\mathbf{X} := (X_1, \dots, X_k)^\top$  is said to follow a  $k$ -variate normal distribution, if **every** linear combination of  $X_1, \dots, X_k$  follows a (univariate) normal distribution.
  - $\mathbf{X}$  is also called a ( $k$  dimensional) normal random vector.
  - If  $k = 2$ ,  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2)^\top$  is also said to follow a *bivariate* normal distribution.
- $\mathbf{X} \sim$  a  $k$ -variate normal distribution, denoted as  $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ , if its joint pdf is given by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k,$$

where  $|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|$  is the determinant of  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ .

- $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k)^\top = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}] = (\mathbb{E}[X_1], \dots, \mathbb{E}[X_k])^\top \in \mathbb{R}^k$ .
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\Sigma_{ij}) = \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}) = (\text{Cov}(Z_i, Z_j)) \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ .
- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  is a symmetric and positive definite matrix.
- $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .



- If  $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  is  $k$  dimensional, then
  - $\mathbf{Z} := \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ , where  $\mathbf{A}$  satisfies  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$  (Cholesky decomposition),  $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , and  $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$  denotes the identity matrix.
  - $\mathbf{Z} = (Z_1, \dots, Z_k)^\top$ , where  $Z_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , **iid**.
  - $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{B}^\top)$ .<sup>†</sup>
- Suppose  $\mathbf{X}$  is a  $k$  dimensional random vector. Then,  
 $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \iff$   
 There exist  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^k$  and  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times \ell}$  such that  $\mathbf{X} = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{Z}$ ,  
 where  $\mathbf{Z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$  with  $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$  and  $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell \times \ell}$ .
  - Such  $\mathbf{A}$  must satisfy  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\top$ .

<sup>†</sup>The multivariate normal distribution will be degenerate if  $\mathbf{B}$  does not have full row rank ( $\mathbf{B}$  不行满秩).



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

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Cov}(X_1, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) \\ \text{Cov}(X_2, X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_2, X_2) \end{bmatrix} =: \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ \rho\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix},$$

and the joint pdf is

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

- To see  $\rho = 0 \implies X_1 \perp X_2$ , let  $\rho = 0$ , and note

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, x_2) &= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{x_1-\mu_1}{\sigma_1} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{x_2-\mu_2}{\sigma_2} \right)^2 \right]} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1} e^{-\frac{(x_1-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_2} e^{-\frac{(x_2-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}} = f_{X_1}(x_1)f_{X_2}(x_2). \end{aligned}$$

- If  $(X_1, X_2)^\top \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  and  $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , then  $X_1 + X_2 \perp X_1 - X_2$ .

Proof. Note that

$$\mathbf{Y} := \begin{bmatrix} X_1 + X_2 \\ X_1 - X_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix} =: \mathbf{B} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since  $\mathbf{B}$  has full row rank,  $\mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{B}^\top)$ , which is non-degenerate. Hence, to prove  $X_1 + X_2 \perp X_1 - X_2$ , it suffices to show  $\text{Cov}(X_1 + X_2, X_1 - X_2) = 0$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(X_1 + X_2, X_1 - X_2) &= \text{Cov}(X_1, X_1) - \text{Cov}(X_2, X_2) \\ &= \sigma^2 - \sigma^2 = 0. \end{aligned}$$



- 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>

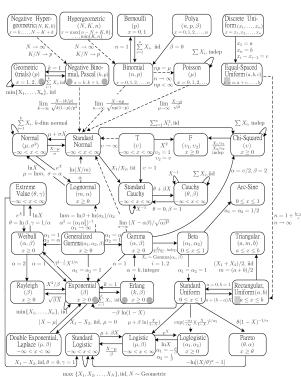


Figure: Relationships Among 35 Distributions (from [Song \(2005\)](#))

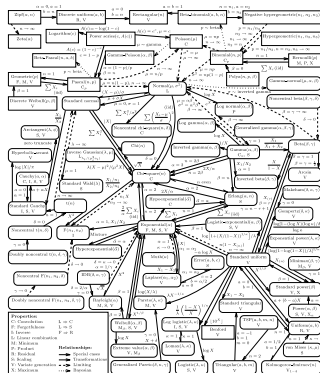


Figure: Relationships Among 76 Distributions (from [Leemis & McQueston \(2008\)](#))

- 1 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  $r > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq r) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{r},$$

with equality if and only if

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

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



## Chebyshev's Inequality

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

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

## Chebyshev's Inequality

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

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

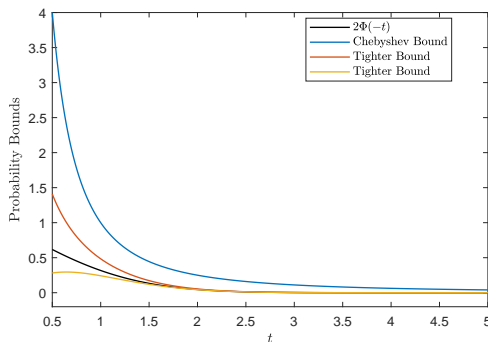
$$\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq r) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{r^2},$$

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

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

$$2\Phi(-t) = \mathbb{P}(|Z| \geq t) \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{1}{t} e^{-t^2/2},$$

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



- A function  $g(x)$  is **convex** if

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

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

- A function  $g(x)$  is concave if  $-g(x)$  is convex.

### Jensen's Inequality

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

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

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,

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



Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality ( $p = q = 2$ )

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be any two RVs, then

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

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

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

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



## Minkowski's Inequality

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

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

- **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.

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

- **Convergence Almost Surely** (a.s.),  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = X) = 1.$$

- **Convergence in Probability**,  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0, \text{ for any } \epsilon > 0.$$

- **Convergence in Distribution**,  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  or  $X_n \Rightarrow X$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x), \text{ for any continuous point } x \text{ of } F(x),$$

where  $F_n$  and  $F$  are CDF of  $X_n$  and  $X$ , respectively.

- **Convergence in  $L^r$  Norm** ( $r \in [1, \infty)$ ),  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|^r) = 0,$$

given  $\mathbb{E}[|X_n|^r] < \infty$  for any  $n \geq 1$  and  $\mathbb{E}[|X|^r] < \infty$ .



- Simple relationships:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X & \implies & X_n \xrightarrow{p} X & \implies & X_n \Rightarrow X \\
 & & \uparrow & & \\
 X_n \xrightarrow{L^s} X & \xRightarrow{s > r \geq 1} & X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X & \implies & \mathbb{E}[|X_n|^r] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[|X|^r]
 \end{array}$$

- $X_n \Rightarrow \text{a constant } c \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} c.$
- $X_n \xrightarrow{L^1} X \implies \mathbb{E}[X_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X].$
- $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \iff \sup_{j \geq n} |X_j - X| \xrightarrow{p} 0.$
- $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \iff \text{For every subsequence } X_n(m) \text{ there is a further subsequence } X_n(m_k) \text{ such that } X_n(m_k) \xrightarrow{a.s.} X.$

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

### Fatou's Lemma

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

### Monotone Convergence Theorem (MCT)

Suppose  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ , and  $0 \leq X_1 \leq X_2 \leq \dots$  a.s.. Then  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X]$ .



## 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  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[X]$ .

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





- If  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$ , then
  - ①  $X = Y$  a.s.;
  - ② Random vector  $(X_n, Y_n)^\top \xrightarrow{a.s.} (X, Y)^\top$ .  
 $\implies aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} aX + bY$ ;  $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} XY$ .
- If  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} Y$ , then
  - ①  $X = Y$  a.s.;
  - ② Random vector  $(X_n, Y_n)^\top \xrightarrow{p} (X, Y)^\top$ .  
 $\implies aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{p} aX + bY$ ;  $X_n Y_n \xrightarrow{p} XY$ .
- If  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{L^r} Y$ , then
  - ①  $X = Y$  a.s.;
  - ②  $aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{L^r} aX + bY$ .
- None of the above are true for convergence in distribution.
- If  $X_n \Rightarrow X$  and  $Y_n \Rightarrow$  a constant  $c$ , then
  - Random vector  $(X_n, Y_n)^\top \Rightarrow (X, c)^\top$ .  
 $\implies aX_n + bY_n \Rightarrow aX + bc$ ;  $X_n Y_n \Rightarrow cX$ . (Slutsky's theorem)

## Continuous Mapping Theorem

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,

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

$$X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies g(X_n) \xrightarrow{p} g(X);$$

$$X_n \Rightarrow X \implies g(X_n) \Rightarrow g(X).$$



- 1 Probability Space
- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
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# Properties of a Random Sample

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

- Define

$$\bar{X} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \text{ and } S^2 := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}.$$

- For a **general** distribution, the following is true:

- ①  $\bar{X}$  is an **unbiased** estimator of  $\mu$ , i.e.,  $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu$ ;
- ②  $S^2$  is an **unbiased** estimator of  $\sigma^2$ , i.e.,  $\mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2$ ;
- ③  $\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$ .

- If the distribution is  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , we further have:

- ①  $\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ , i.e.,  $\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ ;
- ②  $\bar{X} \perp S^2$ ;
- ③  $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$ ;
- ④  $\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$ .



- For a **general** distribution, *what can we say about the distribution of  $\bar{X}$ ?*
- $\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$  intuitively means that the randomness of  $\bar{X}$  vanishes and  $\bar{X}$  concentrates around  $\mu$  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  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are iid with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2 < \infty$ .<sup>†</sup> Then,  $\bar{X}_n \xrightarrow{p} \mu$ .

### Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN)

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

<sup>†</sup> Mutual independence can be weakened to pairwise independence;  $\sigma^2 < \infty$  can be weakened to  $\mathbb{E}[|X_i|] \leq \infty$ .

- 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  $\text{Var} \left( \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right) = 1$ , regardless of the distribution and the value of  $n$ .

### Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

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

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