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



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

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  - $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1;$
  - **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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  - $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \ \mathbb{P}(\emptyset)=0, \ \mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{R}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{G}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{B}\})=1/3, \\ \mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{R},\mathsf{G}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{R},\mathsf{B}\})=\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{G},\mathsf{B}\})=2/3, \ \mathsf{and} \ \mathbb{P}(\Omega)=1; \end{array}$



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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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• 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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• 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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#### Random Variables & Distributions

➤ Scalar

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  - 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).



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  - Under  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , let  $X(\omega) = \omega$  for  $\omega \in [0, 1]$ .



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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  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
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- A RV X is said to be discrete if the set of its possible values is countable.
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- $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} p(x) = 1$ .
- 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

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



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

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





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- 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  $F_X(x) = F(x, +\infty)$ .





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$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x, y) \mathrm{d}y.$$

 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

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

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,

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

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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• If  $(X,Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$  is continuous, for any y such that  $f_Y(y)>0$ , the conditional pdf of X given that Y=y is defined as

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



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



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



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



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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
- 7 Properties of a Random Sample



## Expectations



 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  $\int_{\Omega} |X(\omega)| \mathrm{d}\, \mathbb{P}(\omega) < \infty$  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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  - $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} h(x)p(x)$ .
- If X is a continuous RV:
  - $\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f(x) dx$ ;
  - $\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(x) f(x) dx$ .



• For integer n,  $\mathbb{E}[X^n]$  is called the nth moment of X, and  $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^n]$  is called the nth central moment of X.



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  - Mean (1st moment):  $\mu \coloneqq \mathbb{E}[X]$ .



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  - Mean (1st moment):  $\mu \coloneqq \mathbb{E}[X]$ .
  - Variance (2nd central moment):  $\sigma^2 \coloneqq \operatorname{Var}(X) \coloneqq \mathbb{E}[(X \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] (\mathbb{E}[X])^2.$



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- Linear association:
  - 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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- Correlation:  $\rho(X,Y) := \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X)\operatorname{Var}(Y)}}$ .
- 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,<sup>†</sup> then  $X \perp Y \iff \rho(X,Y) = 0$ .

 $<sup>^{\</sup>dagger}$ CAUTION: It means MORE than that X and Y both follow a normal distribution! More details latter.

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



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- 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  $\mathrm{Var}(X|y) = \mathrm{Var}(X|Y) = \mathrm{Var}(X)$ .

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





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





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- If  $Y_1 \sim \mathrm{B}(n_1,p)$  and  $Y_2 \sim \mathrm{B}(n_2,p)$  are independent, then  $Y_1 + Y_2 \sim \mathrm{B}(n_1 + n_2,p)$ .



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TSee more detailed discussion in Lec 3.



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- If  $X_1 \sim \operatorname{Pois}(\lambda_1)$  and  $X_2 \sim \operatorname{Pois}(\lambda_2)$  are independent,
  - $X_1 + X_2 \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$ :
  - Given  $X_1 + X_2 = n$ ,  $X_1 \sim B(n, \lambda_1/(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2))$ .





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- $X \sim \text{exponential}(\lambda)$  or  $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$ , with  $\lambda > 0$ , if its pdf is given by  $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \in [0, \infty).$





•  $X \sim \mathrm{uniform}(a,b)$  or  $\mathrm{Unif}(a,b)$  with a < b, if its pdf is given by

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- Memoryless Property: For  $s > t \ge 0$ ,

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

• If  $X_1 \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda_1)$  and  $X_2 \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda_2)$  are independent, then  $\min\{X_1, X_2\} \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$ .





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- If  $X \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$ , then for  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $Y := X^{1/\alpha} \sim \operatorname{Weibull}(\alpha, \beta)$  in shape & scale parametrization with  $\beta = (1/\lambda)^{1/\alpha}$ , whose pdf is  $f(y) = \alpha \beta^{-\alpha} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-(y/\beta)^{\alpha}}, \quad y \in (0, \infty).$



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





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

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  - $\alpha = p/2$ , where p is an integer, and  $\lambda = 1/2 \Longrightarrow$  chi-square distribution with p degrees of freedom, denoted as  $\chi_p^2$ .

► Continuous

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

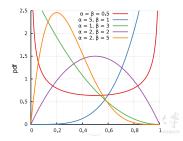
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  - $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$ .
- The  $Beta(\alpha, \beta)$  pdf is quite flexible
  - $\alpha = 1$ ,  $\beta = 1 \Longrightarrow \text{Unif}(0,1)$
  - $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\beta = 1 \Longrightarrow$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



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



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► Normal Distribution

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  - 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  $Z^2 \sim \chi_1^2$ .



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

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



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

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

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



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



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



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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  $\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1}e^{-\lambda x}\mathrm{d}x = \Gamma(\alpha)/\lambda^\alpha$ .



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

► 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

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



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- 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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Normal Distribution

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  - $ullet \ a + BX \sim \mathcal{N}(a + B\mu, B\Sigma B^\intercal).^\dagger$

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

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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  $m{Z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, m{I})$  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

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, X_1) & \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, X_2) \\ \operatorname{Cov}(X_2, X_1) & \operatorname{Cov}(X_2, X_2) \end{array} \right] =: \left[ \begin{array}{cc} \sigma_1^2 & \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \\ \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{array} \right],$$

and the joint pdf is

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



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

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

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

► Normal Distribution

• If  $(X_1, X_2)^{\mathsf{T}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  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

$$m{Y} \coloneqq \left[ egin{array}{c} X_1 + X_2 \ X_1 - X_2 \end{array} 
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Since B has full row rank,  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(B\mu, B\Sigma B^{\mathsf{T}})$ , which is non-degenerate.



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Since  ${\pmb B}$  has full row rank,  ${\pmb Y} \sim {\cal N}({\pmb B}{\pmb \mu}, {\pmb B}{\pmb \Sigma}{\pmb B}^{\sf T})$ , which is non-degenerate. Hence, to prove  $X_1 + X_2 \perp X_1 - X_2$ , it suffices to show  ${\rm Cov}(X_1 + X_2, X_1 - X_2) = 0$ .



Proof. Note that

$$\boldsymbol{Y} \coloneqq \left[ egin{array}{c} X_1 + X_2 \ X_1 - X_2 \end{array} 
ight] = \left[ egin{array}{c} 1 & 1 \ 1 & -1 \end{array} 
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$$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 <a href="http://www.math.wm.edu/~leemis/chart/UDR/UDR.html">http://www.math.wm.edu/~leemis/chart/UDR/UDR.html</a>

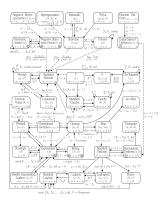


Figure: Relationships Among 35 Distributions (from Song (2005))

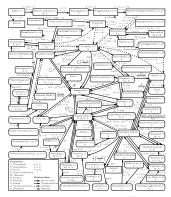


Figure: Relationships Among 76
Distributions (from Leemis & McQueston (2008))

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#### 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.



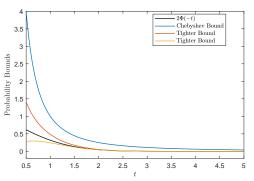
- Chebyshev's Inequality is typically very conservative.
- If  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ , a tighter bound is available: For any t > 0,

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



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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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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

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

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

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



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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.



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



• Convergence Almost Surely (a.s.),  $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left\{\omega \in \Omega : \lim_{n \to \infty} X_n(\omega) = X(\omega)\right\}\right) = 1.$$



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• Convergence in Probability,  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$ :

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



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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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- $X_n \xrightarrow{d}$  a constant  $c \implies X_n \xrightarrow{p} c$ .
- $X_n \xrightarrow{L^1} X \implies \mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X].$



• Simple relationships:

- $\bullet \ X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} \ \text{a constant} \ c \quad \Longrightarrow \quad X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} c.$
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- $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \iff \sup_{j \ge n} |X_j X| \xrightarrow{p} 0.$
- $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \iff$  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  $X_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} X$  or  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} X$  or  $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} X$ , does it imply  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X]$ ?



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### Monotone Convergence Theorem (MCT)

Suppose 
$$X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$$
, and  $0 \le X_1 \le X_2 \le \cdots$  a.s.. Then  $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X]$ .



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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:
  - $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.}_n X$  and  $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.}_n Y$ ;
  - $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  and  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} Y$ ;
  - $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$  and  $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} Y$ .



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- If  $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} Y$ , then  $(X_n, Y_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \xrightarrow{p} (X, Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$ .  $\Longrightarrow aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{p} aX + bY$ ;  $X_nY_n \xrightarrow{p} XY$ . (Due to CMT)



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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,

$$X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies g(X_n) \xrightarrow{a.s.} g(X);$$
  
 $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X \implies g(X_n) \xrightarrow{p} g(X);$   
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CMT also holds for random vectors.



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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  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , 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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► Law of Large Numbers

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#### Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)

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



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Mutual independence can be weakened to pairwise independence;  $\sigma^2 < \infty$  can be weakened to  $\mathbb{E}[|X_i|] < \infty$ . SHEN Haihui MEM6810 Modeling and Simulation, Lec 2

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#### Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN)

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





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



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- 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.



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#### Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

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

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

