

# Probability and Statistical Inference

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## 1 Randomness

### 1.1 Randomness: A Model of Empirical Observations

**Definition 1.1.1 (Latent Space  $\Omega$ ).**

We denote the latent space  $\Omega$  to be the set of all possible outcomes.

**Random:** A model of an empirically observed property of the world.

**Definition 1.1.2 (Random Variable).** The random variable  $X$  maps each  $\omega \in \Omega$  to  $\mathbb{R}^d$

#### Example 1.1.3 Coin toss

The random variable  $X : \{\text{Head}, \text{Tail}\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined to be:

$$X(\text{Head}) = 1, \quad X(\text{Tail}) = 0$$

If we repeat the same experiment under the same conditions, an event  $A \subseteq \Omega$  will occur in some experiments but not in others.

### 1.2 Sampling Frequency

If we conduct  $n$  experiments, event  $A$  occurs exactly  $n_A$  times. Then the sampling frequency of  $A$  is:

$$f_n(A) = \frac{n_A}{n}.$$

**Example 1.2.1 Coin toss**

{3 heads, 97 tails} implies in 100 random experiments with a fair coin:

$$f_{100}(3 \text{ heads}, 97 \text{ tails}) = \frac{3}{100}.$$

**1.3 Two Philosophies of Randomness**

What happens as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

**1.3.1 Frequentist Inference**

- Stability at large scale: volatility of fluctuations of  $f_n(A)$  tends to decrease, where  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Theorem 1.3.1 Frequentists' idea**

Existence of population probability  $P(A) \in [0, 1]$ , that is not random, where

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(A)$$

.

However, this limit cannot be deterministic. For example, bad events like:

$$B_n = \{|f_n(A) - P(A)| \geq \varepsilon\}$$

may still occur for large  $n$ , which paves the way for the laws of large numbers (LLN) to control  $B_n$ .

**Remark 1.1** For all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\Pr(B_n \text{ happens}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , where:

$$B_{n,\varepsilon} = \{|f_n(A) - P(A)| \geq \varepsilon\}.$$

**1.3.2 Probability Theory vs. Statistical Inference**

**Remark 1.2 Probability Theory:** For given  $P(A)$ , compute the probability that a future series of  $n$  events lies in an interval:

$$f_n(A) \in [P(A) - \varepsilon, P(A) + \varepsilon].$$

**Remark 1.3 Statistical Inference:** For given statistical evidence,

1. A point estimate for  $P(A)$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(A) = P(A)$$

2. A **confidence interval estimate** for  $P(A)$ :

$$CI_n = [f_n(A) - Z_n, f_n(A) + Z_n]$$

Such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Pr\{P(A) \subset CI_n\} \geq 1 - \alpha$  (commonly  $\alpha = 0.05$ )

So the two remarks are the inverse problems of each other.

**Definition 1.3.2 (Estimator).** An **estimator** is a computational rule with given data (a function, or later defined as a random variable of data).

Independent experiments help reduce fluctuations by leveraging concentration of measure results.

### 1.3.3 Bayesian Estimation

#### Theorem 1.3.3 Bayesian Idea

The unknown  $p = P(A)$  is itself random, and Statistical data reduces uncertainty of the parameter (information update).

- **Prior:** What we believe about  $P(A)$  before gathering data.
- **Posterior:** Updated beliefs after gathering data.

The Bernstein-von Mises Theorem might offer some insights reconciling the two schools of thoughts when  $n$  is sufficiently large.

#### Theorem 1.3.4 Bernstein-von Mises Theorem

The posterior distribution is independent of the prior distribution (under some conditions) once the amount of information supplied by a sample of data is large enough