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

Theory

Lecture 2: Elements of Probability and Statistics

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





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3 Expectations

4 Common Distributions

Useful Inequalities

6 Convergence

Properties of a Random Sample





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 - Closed under countable unions:[†] If A_i ∈ F, i = 1, 2, ..., is a countable sequence of sets, then ∪_{i=1}[∞] A_i ∈ F.



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$$\mathbb{P}(A) \in [0, 1]$$
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 - **1** $\mathbb{P}(A) \in [0, 1]$ for any $A \in \mathcal{F}$;
 - $(\Omega) = 1;$
 - 3 Countably additive: If A_i ∈ F, i = 1, 2, ..., is a countable sequence of disjoint sets, then P(∪_{i=1}[∞]A_i) = ∑_{i=1}[∞] P(A_i).

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- Example 1: Flip a fair coin.
 - $\Omega = \{H \text{ (head)}, T \text{ (tail)}\};$

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$$\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{H\}, \{T\}, \Omega\};$$

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, $\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{H}\}) = 1/2$, $\mathbb{P}(\{\mathsf{T}\}) = 1/2$, and $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$.



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- Example 2: Draw a ball out of 3 balls (red, green, blue).
 - $\Omega = \{\mathsf{R} (\mathsf{red}), \mathsf{G} (\mathsf{green}), \mathsf{B} (\mathsf{blue})\};$
 - $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{R\}, \{G\}, \{B\}, \{R,G\}, \{R,B\}, \{G,B\}, \Omega\};$
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- 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].

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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 P(A) = 1, then we say A happens almost surely (a.s.).

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



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 - 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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► Scalar

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• It is easy to see that $F(x) = \sum_{y \in (-\infty, x]} p(y)$.



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

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• $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) dt = 1.$

• Observe that $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}F(x) = f(x)$.



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 The joint CDF of RVs X and Y, denoted by F : ℝ×ℝ → [0, 1], is defined by

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



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



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

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Univariate Transformation - Continuous Case

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

$$\mathcal{X} \coloneqq \{x : f_X(x) > 0\}$$
 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 **oneto-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



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

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial h_1(u, v)}{\partial u}, \quad \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial h_1(u, v)}{\partial v},$$
$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial h_2(u, v)}{\partial u}, \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial h_2(u, v)}{\partial v}.$$



• 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

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



If (X, Y)^T is discrete, for any y such that P(Y = y) = p_Y(y)
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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

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



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



1 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 $X \ge 0$ a.s., where the integral is the Lebesgue integral, rather than the Riemann integral.



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- If X is a discrete RV:
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Definition

• 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.



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



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



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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 $X \perp Y \iff \rho(X, Y) = 0.$

[†]**CAUTION:** It means MORE than that X and Y both follow a normal distribution! More details latter.¹ Toron University of the second secon

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



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



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

• The conditional variance of X given Y = y is

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

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

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• If $M_X(t)$ is finite for t in some neighborhood of 0 (i.e., there is an h > 0 such that for all $t \in (-h, h)$, $M_X(t) < \infty$), then,

$$\mathbb{E}[X^n] = \frac{\mathrm{d}^n}{\mathrm{d}t^n} M_X(t) \Big|_{t=0}, \ n \in \mathbb{N}.$$



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





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 𝔼[X] = λ, Var(X) = λ.
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$$f(y) = \alpha \beta^{-\alpha} y^{\alpha - 1} e^{-(y/\beta)^{\alpha}}, \quad y \in (0, \infty).$$

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- If $X \sim \operatorname{Erl}(k, \lambda)$, then $cX \sim \operatorname{Erl}(k, \lambda/c)$ for c > 0. (a) $\mathcal{FFI}(k, \lambda/c)$

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 - α is an integer \Longrightarrow $\operatorname{Erl}(\alpha, \lambda)$; $\alpha = 1 \Longrightarrow \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$;
 - $\alpha = p/2$, where p is an integer, and $\lambda = 1/2 \Longrightarrow$ chi-square distribution with p degrees of freedom, denoted as χ^2_p . If $\lambda \not = \lambda \not = \lambda$

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Continuous

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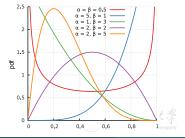
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- The $Beta(\alpha, \beta)$ pdf is quite flexible
 - $\alpha = 1, \beta = 1 \Longrightarrow \text{Unif}(0, 1)$
 - $\alpha > 1, \beta = 1 \Longrightarrow$ strictly increasing
 - $\alpha = 1, \beta > 1 \Longrightarrow$ strictly decreasing
 - $\alpha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



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

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



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$$\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$$
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• t₁ is also known as the standard Cauchy distribution, or Cauchy(0, 1), whose pdf is simply

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

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• The normal distribution (sometimes called the Gaussian distribution) plays a **central role** in a large body of statistics.



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- If $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $Z \coloneqq (X \mu) / \sigma \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.
 - 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.

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

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

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



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Let
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Let $T \coloneqq \frac{Z}{\sqrt{V/p}} = \frac{Z}{Y}$. For $t \in \mathbb{R}$,
 $\mathbb{P}(T \le t) = \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{Z}{Y} \le t\right) = \mathbb{P}(Z \le tY) = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(Z \le ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y$. (Why?)



• If
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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 $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathbb{P}(Z \leq ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y \phi(ty).$



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



Proof. (Cont'd) Note that
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathbb{P}(Z \le ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y\phi(ty)$$
. So,
 $f_T(t) = \int_0^\infty y\phi(ty) f_Y(y) \mathrm{d}y = \int_0^\infty y\phi(ty) 2py f_V(py^2) \mathrm{d}y$
 $= \int_0^\infty 2py^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2y^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{p}{2}\right)} (py^2)^{\frac{p}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}py^2} \mathrm{d}y$



$$\underline{Proof.} (Cont'd) \quad \text{Note that } \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \mathbb{P}(Z \le ty) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{ty} \phi(z) \mathrm{d}z = y\phi(ty). \text{ So,} \\
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Let $x \coloneqq y^2$. Then, integration by substitution shows that $\int_0^\infty y^p e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)y^2} \mathrm{d}y = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty x^{\frac{p-1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)x} \mathrm{d}x \eqqcolon \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \mathrm{d}x,$ where $\alpha \coloneqq \frac{p+1}{2}$ and $\lambda \coloneqq \frac{1}{2}(t^2+p)$.



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see that $\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx = \Gamma(\alpha)/\lambda^{\alpha}$.



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$$f_T(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{p}{2})} \frac{1}{(p\pi)^{1/2}} 2^{\frac{1-p}{2}} p^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{p+1}{2})}{(1/2)^{(p+1)/2} (t^2+p)^{(p+1)/2}}$$
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 - $Z := A^{-1}(X \mu) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$, where A satisfies $\Sigma = AA^{\mathsf{T}}$ (Cholesky decomposition), $0 \in \mathbb{R}^k$, and $I \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ denotes the identity matrix.



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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

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

and the joint pdf is

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



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

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

• 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 $X_1 + X_2 \perp X_1 - X_2$.



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Proof. Note that

$$\boldsymbol{Y} \coloneqq \left[\begin{array}{c} X_1 + X_2 \\ X_1 - X_2 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{array} \right] \eqqcolon \boldsymbol{B} \left[\begin{array}{c} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{array} \right]$$



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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

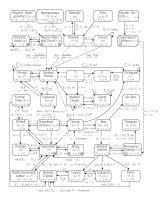


Figure: Relationships Among 35 Distributions (from Song (2005))

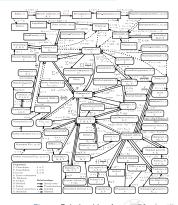


Figure: Relationships Among 76 Distributions (from Leemis & McQueston (2008))

Relationships

1 Probability Space

- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
- 3 Expectations
- 4 Common Distributions
- **5** Useful Inequalities
- 6 Convergence
- 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

Let X be a RV. If $\mathbb{P}(X \ge 0) = 1$ 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 $X = \begin{cases} r, & \text{with probability } p, \\ 0, & \text{with probability } 1 - p. \end{cases}$

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

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

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• 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,

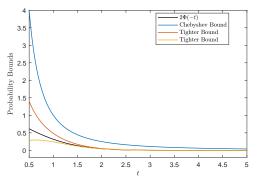
$$2\Phi(-t) = \mathbb{P}(|Z| \ge t) \le \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{1}{t} e^{-t^2/2},$$

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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

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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 $\mathbb{P}(X \in A) = 1$.

► Jensen's Inequality

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

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

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

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



Minkowski's Inequality

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

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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.



1 Probability Space

- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
- 3 Expectations
- 4 Common Distributions
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Properties of a Random Sample









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





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• Convergence in Distribution, $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$, $X_n \Rightarrow X$, or $X_n \xrightarrow{d}$ distribution of X:

 $\lim_{n\to\infty}F_n(x)=F(x)\text{, for any continuous point }x\text{ of }F(x)\text{,}$ where F_n and F are CDF of X_n and X, respectively.



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

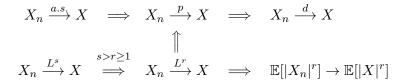
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(|X_n - X|^r) = 0,$$

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



Relationships

• Simple relationships:







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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 $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ 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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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 $X_n \ge Y$ a.s. for all n where $\mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \infty$. Then $\mathbb{E}[\liminf_{n \to \infty} X_n] \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[X_n]$. In particular, if $X_n \ge 0$ 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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 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Suppose } X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \text{, } |X_n| \leq Y \text{ a.s. for all } n \text{, and } \mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \\ \infty. \text{ Then } \mathbb{E}[X_n] \to \mathbb{E}[X]. \end{array}$

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- 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, $\mathbb{E}[|X_n|^r] < \infty$, $\mathbb{E}[|X|^r] < \infty$, and $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$.



• X = Y a.s., if *any one* of the following holds:

•
$$X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$$
 and $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$;
• $X \xrightarrow{p} X$ and $X \xrightarrow{p} Y$;

•
$$X_n \xrightarrow{i} X$$
 and $X_n \xrightarrow{i} Y$;

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



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 X_n a.s. X and X_n a.s. Y;
 X_n p X and X_n P Y;
 X_n L^r X and X_n L^r Y.
 If X_n a.s. X and Y_n a.s. Y, then (X_n, Y_n)^T a.s. (X, Y)^T. ⇒ aX_n + bY_n a.s. aX + bY; X_nY_n a.s. XY. (Due to CMT)
 If X_n P X and Y_n P X, then (X_n, Y_n)^T P (X, Y)^T. ⇒ aX_n + bY_n P aX + bY; X_nY_n A.S. XY. (Due to CMT)
- If $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{L^r} Y$, then $(X_n, Y_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \xrightarrow{L^r} (X, Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$. $\implies aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{L^r} aX + bY$.



- X = Y a.s., if any one of the following holds:
 X_n a.s./x A and X_n d.s./y;
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- If $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} Y$, then $(X_n, Y_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \xrightarrow{a.s.} (X, Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$. $\implies aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} aX + bY$; $X_nY_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} XY$. (Due to CMT)
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- None of the above are true for convergence in distribution.



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 If X_n ^{a.s.}→ X and Y_n ^{a.s.}→ Y, then (X_n, Y_n)^T ^{a.s.}→ (X, Y)^T.
 ⇒ aX_n + bY_n ^{a.s.}→ aX + bY; X_nY_n ^{a.s.}→ XY. (Due to CMT)
- If $X_n \xrightarrow{p} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{p} Y$, then $(X_n, Y_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \xrightarrow{p} (X, Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$. $\implies aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{p} aX + bY; X_nY_n \xrightarrow{p} XY$. (Due to CMT)
- If $X_n \xrightarrow{L^r} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{L^r} Y$, then $(X_n, Y_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \xrightarrow{L^r} (X, Y)^{\mathsf{T}}$. $\implies aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{L^r} aX + bY$.
- None of the above are true for convergence in distribution.
- If $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ and $Y_n \xrightarrow{d}$ constant c, then $(X_n, Y_n)^{\mathsf{T}} \xrightarrow{d} (X, c)^{\mathsf{T}}$. $\implies aX_n + bY_n \xrightarrow{d} aX + bc; X_nY_n \xrightarrow{d} cX$. (Due to CMT; also known as Slutsky's theorem)

Continuous Mapping Theorem (CMT)

Consider a sequence of RVs $\{X_n : n \ge 1\}$ 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 $g(X_n) \xrightarrow{L^r} g(X)$.

1 Probability Space

- 2 Random Variables & Distributions
- 3 Expectations
- 4 Common Distributions
- Useful Inequalities
- 6 Convergence

Properties of a Random Sample



Properties of a Random Sample

 Let X₁,..., X_n be a random sample from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ², i.e., X₁,..., X_n are iid, and E[X_i] = μ and Var(X_i) = σ², i = 1,..., n.



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• Define

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



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For a general distribution, the following is true:
 ① X̄ is an unbiased estimator of μ, i.e., E[X̄] = μ;



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- For a general distribution, the following is true:
 - **1** \bar{X} is an **unbiased** estimator of μ , i.e., $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu$;
 - 2 S^2 is an **unbiased** estimator of σ^2 , i.e, $\mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2$;



 Let X₁,..., X_n be a random sample from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ², i.e., X₁,..., X_n are iid, and E[X_i] = μ and Var(X_i) = σ², i = 1,..., n.

Define

$$\bar{X} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$
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For a general distribution, the following is true:
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2 S² is an unbiased estimator of σ², i.e, E[S²] = σ²;
3 Var(X̄) = σ²/n.



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 Var(*X̄*) = σ²/n.
- If the distribution is $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we further have:



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 ③ Var(X̄) = σ²/n.
- If the distribution is $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we further have: **4** $\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$, i.e., $\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$;



- Let X₁,..., X_n be a random sample from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ², i.e., X₁,..., X_n are iid, and E[X_i] = μ and Var(X_i) = σ², i = 1,..., n.
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- For a general distribution, the following is true:
 1 X
 is an unbiased estimator of μ, i.e., E[X̄] = μ;
 - 2 S^2 is an **unbiased** estimator of σ^2 , i.e., $\mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2$; 3 $Var(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$.
- If the distribution is N(μ, σ²), we further have:
 4 X̄ ~ N(μ, σ²/n), i.e., X̄-μ/σ/√n ~ N(0, 1);
 5 X̄ ⊥ S²;



- Let X₁,..., X_n be a random sample from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ², i.e., X₁,..., X_n are iid, and E[X_i] = μ and Var(X_i) = σ², i = 1,..., n.
- Define

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

- For a general distribution, the following is true:
 - **1** \bar{X} is an **unbiased** estimator of μ , i.e., $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu$;
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 3 Var(X̄) = σ²/n.
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$$\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$$
, i.e., $\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$;
5 $\bar{X} \perp S^2$;
6 $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2 \sim \chi^2_{n-1}$;
7 $\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$.

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Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)

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

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Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN)

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

^TMutual 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, $\frac{X_n \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, 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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Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

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

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