Probability

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Contents

1 Probability Spaces

Definition. Suppose Ω is a set and F is a collection of subsets of Ω . We call $\mathcal F$ a σ -algebra if: (i) $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$ (ii) if $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then $A^C \in \mathcal{F}$

(iii) for any countable collection $(A_n)_{n\geq 1}$ with $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ $\forall n$, we must also have that $\bigcup A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ n

Definition. Suppose F is a σ -algebra on Ω . A function $\mathbb{P}: \mathcal{F} \to [0, 1]$ is called a **probability** measure if

(i) $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$

(ii) for any countable disjoint collection $(A_n)_{n>1}$ in F with $A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ $\forall n$, we have

$$
\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{n\geq 1} A_n) = \sum_{n\geq 1} \mathbb{P}(A_n)
$$

We call $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ a probability space. Ω is the sample space F a σ-algebra P the probability measure

Note. We say $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is the probability of A

Remark. When Ω countable, we take F to be all subsets of Ω

Definition. The elements of Ω are called **outcomes** and the elements of $\mathcal F$ are called events.

Remark. We talk about probability of events and not outcomes. Pick a uniform number from [0, 1]

Properties of $\mathbb P$ (immediate from the definition):

- $\mathbb{P}(A^C) = 1 \mathbb{P}(A)$
- $\mathbb{P}(\varnothing) = 0$
- if $A \subseteq B$, then $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$
- $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$

1.1 Examples of Probability Spaces

Example. Rolling a fair die $\Omega = \{1, 2, \ldots, 6\}, \mathcal{F} = \text{all subsets of } \Omega.$ $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) = \frac{1}{6} \forall w \in \Omega$ and if $A \subseteq \Omega$, then $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{6}$ (all outcomes equally likely)

Example. Equally likely outcomes Let Ω be a finite set, $\Omega = {\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n}, \mathcal{F}$ = all subsets. Define $\mathbb{P}: \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$ by $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$ In classical probability, this models picking a random element of $\Omega.$ $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega\})=\frac{1}{|\Omega|}$ $\forall\omega\in\Omega$

Example. Picking balls from a bag Suppose we have *n* balls with *n* labels from $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ indistinguishable by touch. Pick $k \leq n$ balls at random (all outcomes equally likely) without replacement. Take $\Omega = \{ A \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\} : |A| - k \} |\Omega| = {n \choose k}$ $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega\})=\frac{1}{|\Omega|}.$

Example. Deck of cards Take a well-shuffled (all possible permutations equally likely) deck of 52 cards. $\Omega = \{$ all permutations of 52 cards} $|\Omega| = 52!$ $\mathbb{P}(\text{top 2 cards are aces}) = \frac{4 \times 3 \times 50!}{52!} = \frac{1}{221}$

Example. Largest digit Consider a string of n random digits from $0, \ldots, 9$ (every digit can be any from $0, \ldots, 9$) $\Omega = \{0, 1, \ldots, 9\}^n | \Omega | = 10^n$ $A_k = \{$ no digit exceeds $k\}$ and $B_k = \{\text{largest digit is } k\}$ $\mathbb{P}(B_k) = \frac{|B_k|}{|\Omega|}$ Notice $B_k = A_k \backslash A_{k-1}$ $|A_k| = (k+1)^n \implies |B_k| = (k+1)^n - k^n$ So $\mathbb{P}(B_k) = \frac{(k+1)^n - k^n}{10^n}$ 10^n

Example. Birthday problem There are *n* people. What is the probability that at least 2 of these share the same birthday. Assume nobody is born on 29/02. Also assume each birthday is equally likely. So $\Omega = \{1, \ldots, 365\}^n$ $\mathcal{F} =$ all subsets.

Since all outcomes are equally likely, we take

$$
\mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) = \frac{1}{365^n}
$$

 $A = \{$ at least 2 people share same birthday $\}$ $A^C = \{$ all *n* birthdays are different $\}.$ Since $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A^C)$, it suffices to calculate $\mathbb{P}(A^C)$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A^C) = \frac{|A^C|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{365 \times 364 \times \dots \times (365 - n + 1)}{365^n}
$$

And hence:

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - \frac{365 \times 364 \times \dots \times (365 - n + 1)}{365^{n}}
$$

Note. $n = 22 \implies \mathbb{P}(A) \approx 0.476$ $n = 23 \implies \mathbb{P}(A) \approx 0.507$

1.2 Combinatorial Analysis

$$
\Omega \text{ finite set } \& \text{ suppose } |\Omega| = n.
$$
\nWant to partition Ω into k disjoint subsets $\Omega_1 \dots \Omega_k$ with $|\Omega_i| = n_i$ and $\sum_{i=1}^k n_i = n$.

\nHow many ways are there?

\n
$$
M = \binom{n}{n_1} \binom{n - n_1}{n_2} \dots \binom{n - (n_1 + \dots + n_{k-1})}{n_k} = \frac{n!}{n_1! \cdot n_2! \cdot \dots \cdot n_k!}
$$
\nWe write

\n
$$
\binom{n}{n_1, \dots, n_k} = \frac{n!}{n_1! \cdot n_2! \cdot \dots \cdot n_k!}
$$

Strictly increasing and increasing functions $f = \{1, \ldots, k\} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, n\}$ is strictly increasing if whenever $x < y$, then $f(x) < f(y)$.

f is called increasing if whenever $x < y$, then $f(x) \le f(y)$.

- How many strictly increasing functions $f = \{1, \ldots, k\} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, n\}$ exist? Any such function is uniquely determined by its range which is a subset of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ of size k. There are $\binom{n}{k}$ such subsets, and hence $\binom{n}{k}$ strictly increasing
- How many increasing functions $f = \{1, \ldots, k\} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, n\}$ exist? Define a bijection

 $\{f : \{1, \ldots, k\} \to \{1, \ldots, n\}$ increas.} to $\{g : \{1, \ldots, k\} \to \{1, \ldots, n+k-1\}$ strict. increas.}

 $\forall f$ increasing, define $g(i) = f(i) + i - 1$. Then g is strictly increasing and takes values in $\{1, \ldots, n+k-1\}$ So total number of increasing functions $f = \{1, \ldots, k\} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, n\}$ is $\binom{n+k-1}{k}$.

1.3 Stirling's Formula

Notation. Let (a_n) and (b_n) be 2 sequences. We write:

$$
a_n \sim b_n
$$
 if $\frac{a_n}{b_n} \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$

Theorem (Stirling).

$$
n! \sim n^n \sqrt{2\pi n} e^{-n} \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

Note. Weaker examinable statement proved below

Proof (non-examinable). $\forall f$: twice differentiable, $\forall a < b$:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2}(b - a) - \frac{1}{2} \int_{a}^{b} (x - a)(b - x) f''(x) dx
$$

(can prove by doing IBP twice) Take $f(x) = \log x$, $a = k$ and $b = k + 1$

$$
\int_{k}^{k+1} \log x \, dx = \frac{\log k + \log(k+1)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \int_{k}^{k+1} \frac{(x-k)(k+1-x)}{x^2} \, dx
$$

$$
= \frac{\log k + \log(k+1)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{(x)(1-x)}{(x+k)^2} \, dx
$$

Take the sum for $k = 1, ..., n - 1$ of the equality above to get:

$$
\int_{1}^{n} \log x \, dx = \frac{\log((n-1)!) + \log(n!)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{x(1-x)}{(x+k)^{2}} \, dx
$$

\n
$$
n \log n - n + 1 = \log(n!) - \frac{\log n}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_{k}, \text{ where we set } a_{k} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{x(1-x)}{(x+k)^{2}} \, dx
$$

\n
$$
\log n! = n \log n - n + \frac{\log n}{2} + 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_{k}
$$

\n
$$
n! = n^{n} e^{-n} \sqrt{n} \exp \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_{k} \right)
$$

\nNote that $a_{k} \leq \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{x(1-x)}{k^{2}} \, dx = \frac{1}{12k^{2}}$
\nSo $\sum a_{k} < \infty$. We set $A = \exp \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_{k} \right)$
\nThen:
\n
$$
n! = n^{n} \cdot e^{-n} \sqrt{A} \cdot \exp \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_{k} \right)
$$

\nSo we proved that
\n
$$
\frac{n!}{n^{n} e^{-n} \sqrt{n}} \to A \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

Which means $n! \sim n^n e^{-n} \sqrt{n} A$ as $n \to \infty$. To finish the proof, need to show $A = \sqrt{2\pi}$ Theorem (Continued).

Claim. $A =$ √ $\overline{2\pi}$ knowing that $n! \sim n^n w^{-n} \sqrt{n} \cdot A$ as $n \to \infty$

Proof.

$$
2^{-2n} \cdot {2n \choose n} = 2^{-2n} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{n! \cdot n!} \sim 2^{-2n} \frac{(2n)^2 n \cdot \sqrt{2n} \cdot A \cdot e^{-2n}}{n^n 2^{-n} \sqrt{n} \cdot A \cdot n^n \cdot e^{-n} \cdot \sqrt{n} \cdot A} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{A\sqrt{n}}
$$

Using a different method we will prove that

$$
2^{-2n} \binom{2n}{n} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}}
$$

Which will then force $A =$ √ 2π Consier $I_n = \int_0^{\frac{pi}{2}} (\cos \theta)^n d\theta, \ n \ge 0.$ So $I_0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$ and $I_1 = 1$. By integration by parts

$$
I_n = \frac{n-1}{n} I_{n-2}
$$

So

$$
I_{2n} = \frac{2n-1}{2n} I_{2n-2} = \frac{(2n-1) \cdot (2n-3) \dots 3 \cdot 1}{2n \cdot (2n-2) \dots 2} \underbrace{I_0}_{=\frac{\pi}{2}} = \frac{(2n)!}{2^2 n \cdot n! \cdot n!} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2}
$$

Achieved by mutiplying numerator and denominator by the even terms $2n(2n-2)...2$. So $I_{2n} = 2^{-2n} \cdot {2n \choose n} \frac{\pi}{2}$
In the same way we get

$$
I_{2n+1} = \frac{2n \dots 4 \cdot 2}{(2n+1) \dots 3 \cdot 1} = \frac{1}{2n+1} \left(2^{-2n} \cdot \binom{2n}{n} \right)^{-1}
$$

From $I_n = \frac{n-1}{n} I_{n-2}$ we get: $\frac{I_n}{I_{n-2}} \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$ Want $\frac{I_{2n}}{I_{2n+1}} \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$ Recall $I_n = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} (\cos \theta)^n d\theta$. We see that I_n is decreasing as a function of n. **Therefore**

$$
\frac{I_{2n}}{I_{2n+1}} \le \frac{I_{2n-1}}{I_{2n+1}} \to 1
$$

And also

$$
\frac{I_{2n}}{I_{2n+1}} \ge \frac{I_{2n}}{I_{2n-2}} \to 1
$$

So $\frac{I_{2n}}{I_{2n+1}} \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$, which means

$$
\frac{2^{-2n} \cdot \binom{2n}{n} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2}}{\left(2^{-2n} \cdot \binom{2n}{n}\right)^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{2n+1}} \to 1
$$
\n
$$
\implies \left(2^{-2n} \cdot \binom{2n}{n}\right)^2 \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot (2n+1) \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$
\nThis is saying $\left(2^{-2n} \cdot \binom{2n}{n}\right)^2 \sim \frac{2}{\pi(2n+1)} \sim \frac{1}{\pi n}$

Claim. Weaker statement of Stirling:

 $log(n!) \sim n log n$ as $n \to \infty$

Proof. Define $l_n = \log(n!) = \log 2 + \dots \log n$ For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, we write $\lfloor x \rfloor$: integer part of x.

$$
\log|x| \le \log x \le \log|x+1|
$$

Integrate from 1 to n

$$
\int_1^n \log\lfloor x\rfloor \, \mathrm{d}x \le \int_1^n \log x \, \mathrm{d}x \le \int_1^n \log\lfloor x + 1\rfloor \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \log k \le \int_1^n \log x \, dx \le \sum_{k=1}^n \log k
$$

$$
l_{n-1} \le n \log n - n + 1 \le l_n
$$

For all n we get

$$
n \log n - n + 1 \le l_n \le (n+1) \log(n+1) - (n+1) + 1
$$

Divide through by $n \log n$ to get:

$$
\frac{l_n}{n \log n} \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty \square
$$

$$
\implies A = \sqrt{2\pi} \square
$$

1.4 Properties of Probability Measures

Note. Have $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ probability space. $\mathbb{P}: \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$ is a probability measure if: (i) $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ (ii) $(A_n)_{n\geq 1}$ disjoint $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup \overline{A_n}) = \sum \mathbb{P}(A_n)$ countable additivity

1.4.1 Countable subadditivity

Claim. Let $(A_n)_{n\geq 1}$ be a sequence of events in $\mathcal{F}(A_n \in \mathcal{F} \forall n)$ Then

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n)
$$

Proof. Define $B_1 = A_1$ and $B_n = A_n \setminus (A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_{n-1}) \forall n \geq 2$. Then $(B_n)_{n\geq 1}$ is a disjoint sequence of events in $\mathcal F$ and $\bigcup_{n\geq 1} B_2 = \bigcup_{n\geq 1}$ $\bigcup_{n\geq 1}A_n.$ So $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\bigcup B_n)$ By countable additivity for (B_n) : P $\sqrt{ }$ \bigcup $n\geq 1$ B_n \setminus $\Big| = \sum$ $n\geq 1$ $\mathbb{P}(B_n)$ But $B_n \subseteq A_n$. So $\mathbb{P}(B_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(A_n)$ $\forall n$. Therefore: $\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup A_n\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup B_n\right) = \sum \mathbb{P}\left(B_n\right) \leq \sum$ $n\geq 1$ $\mathbb{P}\left(A_n\right)$

1.4.2 Continuity of Probability Measures

Let $(A_n)_{n\geq 1}$ be an increasing sequence on F, i.e. $\forall n \ A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ and $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \leq \mathbb{P}(A_{n+1})$. So $\mathbb{P}(A_n)$ converges as $n \to \infty$.

Claim. $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\bigcup$ n $\left\langle A_n \right\rangle$ **Proof.** Set $B_1 = A_1$ and $\forall n \geq 2$ $B_n = A_n \setminus (A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_{n-1})$ Then \bigcup^n $\bigcup_{k=1}^{n} B_k = A_n$ and $\bigcup_{k=1}^{n} B_k = \bigcup_{k=1}^{n}$ $\bigcup_{k=1} A_k$ So $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\bigcup^n A_n)$ $\bigcup_{k=1}^{n} B_k$ = $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(B_k) \underset{n \to \infty}{\to} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}$ $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(B_k)$ as B_k disjoint sequence of events. Remains to prove that: \sum^{∞} $k=1$ $\mathbb{P}(B_k) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup A_n\right)$ Since \bigcup^{∞} $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty}$ $\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k$, we get $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup A_n) = \mathbb{P}(\bigcup B_n) = \sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(B_n)$

Note. Similarly, if (A_n) is a decreasing sequence in F, i.e. $\forall n \ A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ and $A_{n+1} \subseteq A_n$, then

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_n) \to \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_n A_n\right) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

1.5 Inclusion-Exclusion Formula

Let $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$ Let $C \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B \cup C) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) + \mathbb{P}(C) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap C) - \mathbb{P}(B \cap C) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B \cap C)$

et
$$
A_1, ..., A_n \in \mathcal{F}
$$
. then
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i)
$$
\n
$$
- \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 \le n} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2})
$$
\n
$$
+ \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < i_3 \le n} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2} \cap A_{i_3})
$$
\n
$$
\vdots
$$
\n
$$
+ (-1)^{n+1} \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n)
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le n} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k})
$$

Proof. By induction. For $n = 2$ it holds.

Assume it holds for $n - 1$ events. We will prove it for n events.

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n) = \mathbb{P}((A_1 \cup \cdots A_{n-1}) \cup A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \cdots A_{n-1}) + \mathbb{P}(A_n) - \mathbb{P}((A_1 \cup \cdots A_{n-1}) \cap A_n) (*)
$$

Notice

Claim. L

$$
\mathbb{P}((A_1 \cup \ldots A_{n-1}) \cap A_n) = \mathbb{P}((A_1 \cap A_n) \cup \cdots \cup (A_{n-1} \cap A_n))
$$

Set $B_i = A_i \cap A_n$. By the inductive hypothesis,

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_{n-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le n-1} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k})
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}(B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_{n-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le n-1} \mathbb{P}(B_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap B_{i_k})
$$

Plugging these two into back into $(*)$ gives the claim. \square

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ with $|\Omega| < \infty$ and $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$. Let $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $|A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_{n-1}| =$ \sum^{n-1} $k=1$ $(-1)^{k+1}$ \sum $1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k \le n-1$ $|A_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_k}|$

1.5.1 Bonferroni Inequalities

Claim. Truncating sum in the inclusion-exclusion formula at the r - th term gives an overestimate if r is odd and an underestimate if r is even, i.e.

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\right) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{r} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \leq i_{1} < i_{2} < \cdots < i_{k} \leq n} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_{1}} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_{k}}) \text{ if } r \text{ is odd}
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\right) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{r} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \leq i_{1} < i_{2} < \cdots < i_{k} \leq n} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_{1}} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_{k}}) \text{ if } r \text{ is even}
$$

Proof. By induction. For $n = 2 \mathbb{P}(A \cup B) \leq \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B)$ Assume the claim holds for $n - 1$ events. Will prove for n. Suppose r is odd. Then

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_{n-1}) + \mathbb{P}(A_n) - \mathbb{P}(B_1 \cup \cdots \cup B_{n-1}),
$$
 where $B_i = A_i \cap A_n (*)$

Since r is odd, apply the inductive hypothesis to $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n)$ to get:

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i\right) \le \sum_{k=1}^r (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le n-1} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k})
$$

Since $r - 1$ is even, apply the inductive hypothesis to $\mathbb{P}(B_1 \cup \cdots \cup B_{n-1})$

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} B_i\right) \ge \sum_{k=1}^{r-1} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le n-1} \mathbb{P}(B_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap B_{i_k})
$$

Substitute both bounds in (∗) to get an overestimate. In exactly the same way we prove the result for r even. \Box

1.5.2 Counting using Inclusion-Exclusion

Example. Number of surjections $f: \{1, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \ldots, m\}$ Let $\Omega = \{f : \{1, \ldots, n\} \to \{1, \ldots, m\}\}\$ and $A = \{f \in \Omega : f$ is a surjection $\}$. $|A| = ? \forall i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ define $A_i = \{f \in \Omega : i \notin \{f(1), ..., ..., f(n)\}\}\$ Then $A = A_1^C \cap A_2^C \cap \cdots \cap A_m^C = (A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_m)^C$ $|A| = |\Omega| - |A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_m| = m^n - |A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_m|$ $|A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_m| = \sum^m$ $k=1$ $(-1)^{k+1}$ \sum $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k \leq m$ $|A_{i_1}\cup\cdots\cup A_{i_k}|$ $=(m-k)^n$ $=\sum_{n=1}^{m}$ $k=1$ $(-1)^{k+1} \binom{m}{k}$ k $\binom{m-k}{n}$ So

$$
|A| = m^{n} - \sum_{k=1}^{m} (-1)^{k+1} {m \choose k} (m-k)^{n}
$$

$$
= \sum_{k=0}^{m} (-1)^{k} {m \choose k} (m-k)^{n}
$$

1.5.3 Counting Derangements

Note. A derangement is a permutation with no fixed points

Example.

$$
A = {\text{derangements}} = \{f \in \Omega : f(i) \neq i \,\forall i - 1, \dots, n\}
$$

Pick a permutation at random. What is the probability it is in A? Define $A_i = \{f \in \Omega : f(i) = i\}$ Then $A = A_1^C \cap A_2^C \cap \cdots \cap A_n^C = \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i^C\right)$ $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\bigg)^C$ So $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i\right)$ $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right)$ By inclusion-exclusion $\mathbb{P}^{\binom{n}{n}}$ $i=1$ A_i \setminus $=\sum_{n=1}^{m}$ $k=1$ $(-1)^{k+1}$ \sum $1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_k \leq n$ $\mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_k})$ $=\frac{(n-k)!}{n!}$ $=\sum_{n=1}^{m}$ $k=1$ $(-1)^{k+1} \binom{n}{k}$ k $\binom{n-k}{k}$ n! $=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$ $k=1$ $(-1)^{k+1} \cdot \frac{1}{k}$ $k!$ So

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i\right) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} e^{-1} \approx 0.3678
$$

1.6 Independence

Definition. Let $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$. They are called **independent** $(A \perp \perp B)$ if

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

A countable collection of events (A_n) is said to be **independent** if \forall distinct i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_k we have

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k}) = \prod_{j=1}^k \mathbb{P}(A_{i_j})
$$

Remark. Pairwise independent does not imply independent see example below

Example. Toss a fair coin twice

$$
\Omega = \{(0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1)\} \, \mathbb{P}(\omega) = \frac{1}{4} \forall \omega \in \Omega
$$

Define $A = \{(0, 0), (0, 1)\}, B = \{(0, 0), (1, 0)\}$ and $C = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(B) = \mathbb{P}(C) = \frac{1}{2}
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(\{(0,0)\}) = \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} - \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B) \implies A \perp \!\!\! \perp B
$$

Similarly

$$
\mathbb{P}(B \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(C) \implies B \perp\!\!\!\perp C
$$

and

$$
\mathbb{P}(A \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(C) \implies A \perp \!\!\! \perp C
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A \cap B \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(\varnothing) = 0 \neq \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(C)
$$

So
$$
A, B
$$
 and C are note independent

Claim. If A is independent of B, then A s also independent of B^C

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{P}(A \cap B^C) = \mathbb{P}(A) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)
$$

= $\mathbb{P}(A) - \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B)$
= $\mathbb{P}(A) \cdot (1 - \mathbb{P}(B)) = \mathbb{P}(A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B^C) \square$

1.7 Conditional Probability

Definition. Let $B \in \mathcal{F}$ with $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ Let $A \in \mathcal{F}$. We define the **conditional probability** of A given B and write $P(A|B)$ to be

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

Note. If A and B are independent, then $\frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(a) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \mathbb{P}(A)$ So in this case $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$

Claim. Suppose (A_n) is a disjoint sequence in \mathcal{F} . Then $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup A_n|B) = \sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(A_n|B)$ (countable additivity for conditional probability)

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{P}(\bigcup A_n | B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}((\bigcup A_n) \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} \n= \frac{\mathbb{P} \bigcup_n (A_n \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} \n= \sum_n \frac{\mathbb{P}(A_n \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} \text{ countable additivity of } \mathbb{P} \n= \sum_n \mathbb{P}(A_n | B) \Box
$$

1.8 Law of Total Probability

Claim. Suppose $(B_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a disjoint collection in F and $\bigcup B_n = \Omega$ and $\forall n \mathbb{P}(B_n) > 0$. Let $A \in \mathcal{F}$. Then $\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(A|B_n) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_n)$

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap \Omega) = \mathbb{P}\left(A \cap \left(\bigcup_{n} B_{n}\right)\right)
$$

$$
= \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n} (A \cap B_{n})\right)
$$

$$
= \sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(A \cap B_{n}) \text{ countable additivity of } \mathbb{P}
$$

$$
= \sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(A|B_{n}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_{n}) \square
$$

1.9 Bayes' Formula

Claim. (B_n) disjoint events, $\bigcup B_n = \Omega$, $\mathbb{P}(B_n) > 0 \forall n$

$$
\mathbb{P}(B_n|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_n) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_n)}{\sum_k \mathbb{P}(A|B_k) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_k)}
$$

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{P}(B_n|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B_n \cap A)}{\mathbb{P}(A)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_n) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_n)}{\mathbb{P}(A)}
$$

and

$$
P(A) = \sum_{k} \mathbb{P}(A|B_k) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_k)
$$
 using law of total prob.

Note. This formula is the basis of Bayesian statistics. We know the probabilities of the events (B_k) and we have a model which gives us $\mathbb{P}(A|B_n)$. Bayes' formula tells us how to calculate the posterior probabilities of B_n given that the event A occurs.

Equation. Let (B_n) be a partition of Ω , i.e. (B_n) are disjoint and $\cup B_n = \Omega$

$$
\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \ \mathbb{P}(B_n|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_n) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B_n)}{\sum_k \mathbb{P}(A|B_k)\mathbb{P}(B_k)}
$$

Baye's formula

Example (False positives for a rare condition). Suppose that condition A affects 0.1% of the population. We have medical test which is posititve for 98% of the affected population and 1% of those unaffected by the disease. Pick an individual at random. What is the probability they suffer from A given they tested positive? Define

> $A = \{individual\ surface\ form\ } A\}$ $P = \{individual \ tested \ positive\}$

Want $\mathbb{P}(A|P)$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) = 0.001, \ \mathbb{P}(P|A) = 0.98, \ \mathbb{P}(P|A^C) = 0.01
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}(A|P) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(P|A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(P|A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(P|A^C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A^C)} = \frac{0.98 \times 0.001}{0.98 \times 0.001 + 0.01 \times 0.999} = 0.089 \cdots \simeq 0.09
$$

So $\mathbb{P}(A|P) \simeq 0.9$

The reason why this is low is because $\mathbb{P}(P|A^C) >> \mathbb{P}(A)$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A|P) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\mathbb{P}(P|A^C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A^C)}{\mathbb{P}(P|A) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A)}}
$$

But $\mathbb{P}(A^C) \simeq 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(P|A) \simeq 1$ so can approximate

$$
\mathbb{P}(A|P) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\mathbb{P}(P|A^C)}{\mathbb{P}(A)}}
$$

Suppose there is a population of 1000 people and about 1 suffers from the disease. In the 999 not suffering from the disease about 10 will test positive. So in total there will be about 11 people testing positive. Pick an individual at random among these 11 people, then the prob they have the disease will be $\frac{1}{11}$

Example (Extra knowledge gives surprising results). 3 Statements:

- (a) I have 2 children one of whom is a boy
- (b) I have 2 children and the eldest one is a boy
- (c) I have 2 children one of whom is a boy born on a Thursday

$$
\mathbb{P}(\text{I have 2 boys}|a) = ?
$$

 $\mathbb{P}(\text{I have } 2 \text{ boys}|b) = ?$

 $\mathbb{P}(\text{I have } 2 \text{ boys}|c) = ?$

Define

$$
BG = \{ \text{elder} = \text{boy}, \, \text{younger} = \text{girl} \}
$$

$$
GB = \{ \text{elder} = \text{girl}, \, \text{younger} = \text{boy} \}
$$

BB, GG defined similarly (a)

$$
\mathbb{P}(BB|BB \cup BG \cup GB) = \frac{1}{3}
$$

(b)

$$
\mathbb{P}(BB|BB \cup BG) = \frac{1}{2}
$$

(c)

$$
GT = {elder = girl, younger = boy born on a Thursday}
$$

(d)

 $TN = \{$ elder = boy born on a Thursday, younger = boy not born on a Thursday TT, TG, NT defined similarly

$$
\mathbb{P}(TT \cup TN \cup NT | GT \cup TG \cup TT \cup TN \cup NT) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(TT \cup TN \cup NT)}{\mathbb{P}(TT \cup TN \cup NT \cup GT \cup TG)}
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(TT \cup TN \cup NT) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{7} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{7} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{6}{7} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{6}{7} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{7} = \frac{13}{49 \times 4}
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(TT \cup TN \cup NT \cup GT \cup TG) = \frac{13}{49 \times 4} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{7} \cdot \frac{1}{2}
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(TT \cup TN \cup NT | GT \cup TG \cup TT \cup TN \cup NT) = \frac{13}{27}
$$

1.10 Simpson's Paradox

Remark. This phenomenon is called confounding in statistics. It arises when we aggregate data from disparate populations.

Let

$$
A = {\text{individual is admitted}}
$$

\n
$$
B = {\text{individual is a man}}
$$

\n
$$
B^c = {\text{individual is a woman}}
$$

\n
$$
C = {\text{individual comes from a state school}}
$$

\n
$$
C^C = {\text{individual comes from an independent school}}
$$

Here we see that

$$
\mathbb{P}(A|B \cap C) > \mathbb{P}(A|B \cap C^{C})
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A|B^{C} \cap C) > \mathbb{P}(A|B^{C} \cap C^{C})
$$

However we see that

 $\mathbb{P}(A|C^C) > \mathbb{P}(A|C)$

$$
\mathbb{P}(A|C) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap B|C) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B^{C}|C) =
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B \cap C)}{\mathbb{P}(C)} + \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B^{C} \cap C)}{\mathbb{P}(C)} =
$$
\n
$$
= \mathbb{P}(A|B \cap C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B|C) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^{C} \cap C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B^{C}|C)
$$
\n
$$
> \mathbb{P}(A|B \cap C^{C}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B|C) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^{C} \cap C^{C})\mathbb{P}(B^{C}|C)
$$

Assume further that $\mathbb{P}(B|C) = \mathbb{P}(B|C^C)$. Then,

$$
\mathbb{P}(A|C) > \mathbb{P}(A|B \cap C^C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B|C^C) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^C \cap C^C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B^C|C^C) = \mathbb{P}(A|C^C)
$$

So under this extra assumption $(\mathbb{P}(B|C) = \mathbb{P}(B|C^C))$ which is not valid here, we would get that indeed $\mathbb{P}(A|C) > \mathbb{P}(A|C^C)$

2 Discrete Random Variables

2.1 Definitions and Examples

Definition (Discrete Probability Distribution).

$$
(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})
$$
 Omegafinite or countable

$$
\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \}
$$

$$
\mathcal{F} = \{ \text{all subsets of } \Omega \}
$$

If we know $\mathbb{P}(\{\omega_i\})$ $\forall i$, then this determines \mathbb{P} . Indeed, let $A \subseteq \Omega$ then

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) - \mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{i:\omega_i \in A} \{\omega_i\}) = \sum_{i:\omega_i \in A} \mathbb{P}(\{\omega_i\})
$$

We write $p_i = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega_i\})$ and we call it a discrete probability distribution

Note. Properties: • $p_i \geq 0$ $\forall i$ $\bullet\ \sum_i p_i=1$

Example (Bernoulli Distribution). Model the outcome of the toss of a coin.

$$
\Omega = \{0, 1\} \ p_1 = \mathbb{P}(\{1\}) = p \text{ and } p_0 = \mathbb{P}(\{0\}) = 1 - p
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(\text{we see a } H) = p, \ \mathbb{P}(\text{we see a } T) = 1 - p
$$

Example (Binomial distribution).

$$
B(N, p), N \in \mathbb{Z}^+, p \in [0, 1]
$$

Toss a p -coin (prob of H is p) N times independently.

$$
\mathbb{P}(\text{we see } k \text{ heads}) = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}
$$

$$
\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, N\} \ p_k = \binom{N}{k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^k
$$

$$
\sum_{k=0}^N p_k = 1
$$

Example (Multinomial Distribution).

$$
M(N, p_1, \ldots, p_k), \ N \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \ p_1, \ldots, p_k \ge 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^k p_i = 1
$$
\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} \begin{matrix} \end{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}
$$

 k boxes and N balls

 $\mathbb{P}(\text{pick box } i) = p_i$

Throw the balls independently.

$$
\Omega = \{(n_1, \dots, n_k) \in N^k : \sum_{i=1}^k n_i = N\}
$$

The set of ordered partitions of N.

 $\mathbb{P}(n_1 \text{ balls fall in box } 1, \ldots, n_k \text{ fell in box } k) = \binom{N}{n}$ n_1, \ldots, n_k $\Bigg\} \cdot p_1^{n_1} \cdot p_2^{n_1} \dots p_k^{n_k} \sum n_i = N$

Example (Geometric Distribution). Toss a p -coin until the first H appears. $\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ $p_k = \mathbb{P}(\text{we tossed } k \text{ times until first } H) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$ \sum^{∞} $k=1$ $p_k = 1$ $\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots\}$ $\mathbb{P}(k \text{ tails before first } H = (1-p)^k \cdot p = p'_k\}$ \sum^{∞} $k=1$ $p'_k=1$

Example (Poisson Distribution). This is used to model the number of occurences of an event in a given interval of time. For instance, the number of customers that enter a shop in a day.

$$
\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots\} \lambda > 0
$$

$$
p_k = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}, \ \forall k \in \Omega
$$

We call this the Poisson distribution with parameter λ .

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = e^{-\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda} = 1
$$

So indeed it is a probability distribution.

Suppose customers arive into a shop during $[0, 1]$. Discretise $[0, 1]$, i.e. subdivide $[0, 1]$ into N intervals $\left[\frac{i-1}{N},\frac{i}{N}\right], i = 1,2,\ldots,N$

In each interval, a customer arrives with probability p (independently of other intervals and with probability (w.p.) $1 - p$ nobody arrives.

$$
\mathbb{P}(k \text{ customers arrived}) = {N \choose k} \cdot p^k (1-p)^{N-k}
$$

Take $p = \frac{\lambda}{N}, \lambda > 0$:

$$
\binom{N}{k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{N-k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{N}\right)^k \cdot \left(1-\frac{\lambda}{N}\right)^{N-k} = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \frac{N!}{N^k(N-k)!} \left(1-\frac{1}{N}\right)^{N-k}
$$

Keep k fixed and send $N \to \infty$ So:

$$
\mathbb{P}(k \text{ customers arrived}) \to e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \text{ as } N \to \infty
$$

This is exactly the Poisson distribution. So we showed that the $B(N, p)$ with $p = \frac{1}{N}$ converges to the Poisson with parameter λ .

Definition. $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. A random variable X is a function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

 $\{\omega : X(\omega) \leq x\} \in \mathcal{F} \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

Notation. We will use the shorthand notation: suppose $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

$$
\{X \in A\} = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in A\}
$$

Definition. Given $A \in \mathcal{F}$, define the **indicator** of A to be

$$
1(\omega \in A) = 1_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } \omega \in A \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

Because $A \in \mathcal{F}$, 1_A is a random variable.

Definition. Suppose X is a random variable. Define the **probability distribution function** of X to be

$$
F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x), \ \mathcal{F}_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]
$$

Definition. (X_1, \ldots, X_n) is called a random variable in \mathbb{R}^n if

$$
(X_1,\ldots,X_n):\Omega\to\mathbb{R}^n
$$

and $\forall x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$
\{X_1 \le x_1, \ldots, X_n \le x_n\} \in \mathcal{F}
$$

i.e.

$$
\{\omega: X_1(\omega) \le x_1, \dots, X_n(\omega) \le x\} n\}
$$

Note. This definition is equivalent to saying that X_1, \ldots, X_n are all random variables (in \mathbb{R}). Indeed:

$$
\{X_1 \le x_1, \dots, X_n \le x_n\} = \{X_1 \le x_n\} \cap \dots \cap \{X_n \le x_n\} \in \mathcal{F}
$$

Definition. A random variable X is called **discrete** if it takes values in a countable set. Suppose X takes values in the countable set S. For every $x \in D$ we write $p_x = \mathbb{P}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}(\{w :$ $X(\omega) = x$). We call $(p_x)_{x \in S}$ the probability mass function of X (pmf) or the distribution of X. If (p_x) is Bernoullim then we say that X is a Bernoulli r.v. or that X has the Bernoulli distribution. If (p_x) is Geometric, similarly say X is a geometric r.v. etc.

Definition. Suppose that X_1, \ldots, X_n are discrete r.v.s taking values in S_1, \ldots, S_n . We say X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent if

 $\mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, \ldots, X_n = x_n) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1) \ldots \mathbb{P}(X_n = x_n) \ x_n \in S_1, \ldots, x_n \in S_n$

Example. Toss a p -biased coin N times independent. Take

$$
\Omega = \{\underset{T}{0},\underset{H}{1}\}^{N}
$$

$$
\omega \in \Omega \; p_{\omega} = \prod_{k=1}^{N} p^{\omega_k} (1-p)^{1-\omega_k} \; \omega = (\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_N) \in \Omega
$$

Define

$$
X_k(\omega) = \omega_k \ \forall k = 1, \dots, N \ \omega \in \Omega
$$

Then the X_k gives the outcome of the k-th toss and is a discrete r.v.

 $X_k : \Omega \to \{0,1\}$

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_k = 1) = \mathbb{P}(w_k = 1) = p \text{ and } \mathbb{P}(X_k = 0) = \mathbb{P}(w_k = 0) = 1 - p
$$

So X_k has the Bernoulli distribution with parameter p

Claim. X_1, \ldots, X_N are independent r.v.s

Proof. Let $x_1, ..., x_N \in \{0, 1\}$. Then

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n) = \mathbb{P}(\omega = (x_1, ..., x_n))
$$

= $p_{(x_1, ..., x_n)}$
= $\prod_{k=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X - k = x_k) \square$

$$
\prod_{k=1}^n \mathbb{P}(X - k = x_k) \square
$$

Define

$$
S_N(\omega = X_1(\omega) + \cdots + X_N(\omega) = \#text{tctoff } H \text{ in } N \text{ tosses}
$$

 $S_N : \Omega \to \{0, \ldots, N\}$

And

$$
\mathbb{P}(S_n = k) = \binom{N}{k} = p^k \cdot (1 - p)^{N - k}
$$

So S_N has the Binomial distribution of parameters N and p

2.2 Expectation

 $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Assume Ω is finite or countable. Let $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ be a r.v. (discrete). We say X is non-negative if $X \geq 0$.

Definition (Expectation of $X \geq 0$).

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{\omega} X(\omega) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\})
$$

$$
\Omega_X = \{X(\omega) : \omega \in \Omega\}
$$

$$
\Omega = \bigcup_{x \in \Omega_X} \{X = x\}
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{\omega} X(\omega) \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \sum_{\omega \in \{X = x\}} X(\omega) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\})
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \sum_{\omega \in \{X = x\}} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)
$$

So

So the **expectation** of X (mean of X, average value) is an average of the values taken by X with
weights given by
$$
\mathbb{P}(X = x)
$$
.
So

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} x \cdot p_X
$$

Example. Suppose X has the Binomial distribution with N and p .

 $x \in \Omega_X \omega \in \{X = x\}$

$$
(X \sim \text{Bin}(N, p))
$$

$$
\forall k = 0, ..., N \mathbb{P}(X = k) = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{N - k}
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{N} k \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = k) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} k \cdot {N \choose k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{N-k}
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{N} k \cdot \frac{N!}{k! \cdot (N-k)!} \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{N-k}
$$

=
$$
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{(N-1)! \cdot NP}{(k-1)!(N-k)!} \cdot p^{k-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-k}
$$

=
$$
Np \sum_{k=1}^{N} {N-1 \choose k-1} \cdot p^{k-1} \cdot (1-p)^{(N-1)-(k-1)}
$$

=
$$
Np \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} {N-1 \choose k} p^k \cdot (1-p)^{N-1-k}
$$

=
$$
Np \cdot (p+1-p)^{N-1}
$$

=
$$
Np
$$

Example. Ket X be a Poisson r.v. of parameter $\lambda > 0$, i.e.

$$
\mathbb{P}(X = k) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}, \ k = 0, 1, \dots \ (X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda))
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{k-1} \lambda}{(k-1)!} = \lambda
$$

Definition. Let X be a general r.v. (discrete). We define $X_+ = \max(X, 0)$ and $X_- = \max(-X, 0)$. Then

 $X = X_{+} - X_{-}$ $|X| = X_{+} + X_{-}$

We can define $\mathbb{E}[X_+]$ and $E[X_i]$ since, they are both non-negative. If at least one of $\mathbb{E}[X_+]$ or $\mathbb{E}[X_-]$ is finite, then we define

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X_+] - \mathbb{E}[X_-]
$$

If both are ∞ ($\mathbb{E}[X_+] = \mathbb{E}[X_-] = \infty$), then we say the expectation of X is not defined. Whenever we write $E[x]$, it is assumed to be well-defined.

If $\mathbb{E}[|X|] < \infty$, we say X is integrable.

When $\mathbb{E}[X]$ is well defined, we have again that

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)
$$

2.2.1 Properties of Expectation

(i) If $X \geq 0$, then $\mathbb{E}[X] \geq 0$

(ii) If $X \geq 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$, then $\mathbb{P}(X = 0) = 1$

(iii) If $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\mathbb{E}[cX] = c\mathbb{E}[X]$ and $\mathbb{E}[c+X] = x + \mathbb{E}[X]$

(iv) If X and Y are 2 r.v.s, then $(X$ and Y are both integrable)

$$
\mathbb{E}[X+Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]
$$

(v) Let $x_1, \ldots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and X_1, \ldots, X_n r.v.s Then (all integrable)

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}X_{i}\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}\mathbb{E}[X_{i}]
$$

]

(vi) If $X = 1(A)$ with $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{P}(A)$

Claim. Suppose X_1, X_2, \ldots are non-negative radom variables. Then

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{n} X_{n}\right] = \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}\left[X_{n}\right]
$$

Proof. $(\Omega \text{ countable})$

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{n} X_{n}\right] = \sum_{w} \sum_{n} X_{n}(\omega) \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) = \sum_{n} \sum_{w} X_{n}(\omega) \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\}) = \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[X_{n}]
$$

Claim. If $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, then define $g(X)$ to be the random variable $g(X)(\omega) = g(X(\omega))$ Then $\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} g(x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)$

Proof. Set $Y = g(X)$. Then

$$
\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} y \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y)
$$

$$
\{Y = y\} = \{\omega : Y(\omega) = y\} = \{\omega : g(X(\omega)) = y\} = \{\omega : X(\omega) \in g^{-1}(\{y\})\} = \{X \in g^{-1}(\{y\})\}
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} y \cdot \mathbb{P}(X \in g^{-1}(\{y\}))
$$

=
$$
\sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} y \cdot \sum_{x \in g^{-1}(\{y\})} \mathbb{P}(X = x)
$$

=
$$
\sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} \sum_{x \in g^{-1}(\{y\})} g(x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)
$$

=
$$
\sum_{x \in \Omega_X} g(x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)
$$

Claim. If $X \geq 0$ and takes integer values, then

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X \ge k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X > k)
$$

Proof. We can write since X takes ≥ 0 integer values

$$
X = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1(X \ge k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 1(X > k)
$$
 (*)

Taking $\mathbb E$ in (*) and using that $\mathbb E[1(A)] = \mathbb P(A)$ and countable additivity for $(1(X \ge k))_k$ gives the statement. \Box

2.3 Another proof of the inclusion-exclusion formula

2.3.1 Properties of Indicator Random Variables

• $1(A^C) = 1 - 1(A)$ • $1(A \cap B) = 1(A) \cdot 1(B)$ • $1(A \cup B) = 1 - (1 - 1(A))(1 - 1(B))$

More generally

$$
1(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - 1(A_i)) = \sum_{i=1}^n 1(A_i) - \sum_{i_1 < i_2} 1(A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2}) + \cdots + (-1)^{n+1} 1(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n)
$$

Taking E of both sides we get

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i) - \sum_{i_1 < i_2} \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2}) + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n)
$$

2.4 Terminology

Definition. Let X be a r.v. and $r \in \mathbb{N}$. We call $\mathbb{E}[X^r]$ as long as it is well-defined) the **r-th moment** of X

Definition. The **variance** of X denoted $\text{Var}(X)$ is defined to be

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

The variance is a measure of how concentrated X is around its expectation. The smaller the variance, the more concentrated X is aroudn $\mathbb{E}[X]$. We call $\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$ the standard deviation of X

Properties:

• $Var(X) \geq 0$ and if $Var(X) = 0$, then

$$
\mathbb{P}(X = \mathbb{E}[X]) = 1
$$

- $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then $\text{Var}(cX) = c^2 \text{Var}(X)$ and $\text{Var}(X + c) = \text{Var}(X)$
- $Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$

Proof.

$$
Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2 - 2X\mathbb{E}[X] + (\mathbb{E}[X])^2]
$$

= $\mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2\mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X] + (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$

• $Var(X) = min_{c \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}[(X - c)^2]$ and this min is achieved for $c = \mathbb{E}[X]$

Proof. Call $f(c) = \mathbb{E}[(X-c)^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2c\mathbb{E}[X] + c^2$ Minimise f to get min $f(c) = f(\mathbb{E}[X]) = \text{Var}(X) \square$

Example.

(i) $\overrightarrow{X} \sim \text{Bin}(n, p), \ \mathbb{E}[X] = np$

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

$$
\mathbb{E}(X(X-1)) = \sum_{k=2}^n k \cdot (k-1) {n \choose k} \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{n-k}
$$

$$
= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k \cdot (k-1) \cdot n! \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{n-k}}{(k-2)! \cdot (k-1) \cdot k \cdot ((n-2) - (k-2))!}
$$

$$
= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot p^2 \sum_{k=2}^\infty {n-2 \choose k-2} p^{k-2} \cdot (1-p)^{n-k}
$$

$$
= n(n-1)p^2
$$

So

$$
\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X(X-1)] + \mathbb{E}[X] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2 = n(n-2)p^2 + np - (np)^2 = np(1-p)
$$
\n
$$
\text{(ii)} \ \ X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda), \ \lambda > 0, \ \mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda
$$
\n
$$
\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \lambda^2
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[X(X-1)] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \cdot (k-1) \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k-2}}{(k-2)!} \cdot \lambda^2 = \lambda^2
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X(X-1)] = \sum_{k=2} k \cdot (k-1) \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda}{k!} = e^{-\lambda} \sum_{k=2} \frac{\lambda}{(k-2)!} \cdot \lambda
$$

So $\text{Var}(X) = \lambda^2 + \mathbb{E}[X] - \lambda^2 = \lambda$

Definition. Let X and Y be 2 random variables. Their **covariance** is defined

 $\mathrm{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])]$

"It is a "measure" of how dependent X and Y are."

Claim. Let X and Y be 2 indep. r.v's and let

 $f, g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$

Then

$$
\mathbb{E}[f(X)g(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[f(X)] \cdot \mathbb{E}[g(Y)]
$$

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{E}[f(X)g(Y)] = \sum_{y} x, y)f(x)g(y)\mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{y} f(x)g(y)\mathbb{P}(X = x) \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y)
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{x} f(x)\mathbb{P}(X = x) \sum_{y} g(y)\mathbb{P}(Y = y)
$$
\n
$$
= \mathbb{E}[f(X)] \cdot \mathbb{E}[g(Y)]
$$

Equation. Suppose that X and Y are independent. Then

$$
Cov(X, Y) = 0, \text{ since } Cov(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y]) = 0]
$$

So if X and Y are independent, then

$$
\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)
$$

Warning.

$$
Cov(X, Y) = 0 \implies \text{independence}
$$

Example. Let X_1, X_2, X_3 be indep. Ber $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ Define

$$
Y_1 = 2X_1 - 1, \ Y_2 = 2X_2 - 2
$$

$$
Z_2 = X_3Y_1, \ Z_2 = X_3Y_2
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[Y_1] = \mathbb{E}[Y_2] = \mathbb{E}[Z_1] = \mathbb{E}[Z_2] = 0
$$

and

$$
Cov(Z_1, Z_2) = \mathbb{E}[Z_1, Z_2] = \mathbb{E}[X_3^2 Y_1 Y_2] \underset{\text{indep.}}{=} 0
$$

We will show that \mathbb{Z}_1 and \mathbb{Z}_2 are not indep. Indeed,

$$
\mathbb{P}(Z_1 = 0, Z_2 = 0) = \mathbb{P}(X_3 = 0) = \frac{1}{2}
$$

but

$$
\mathbb{P}(Z_1 = 0) \cdot \mathbb{P}(Z_2 = 0) = \mathbb{P}(X_3 = 0)^2 = \frac{1}{4}
$$

Hence as not equal, \mathbb{Z}_1 is not independent of \mathbb{Z}_2

2.5 Inequalities

2.5.1 Markov's Inequality

Claim (Markov's Inequality). Let $X \ge 0$ be a random variable. Then $\forall a > 0$, $\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{A}$ a Proof. Observe that $X \geq a \cdot 1(X \geq a)$ Taking expectations we get $\mathbb{E}[X] \geq \mathbb{E}[a \cdot 1(X \geq a)] = a \cdot \mathbb{P}(X \geq a)$ So $\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{A}$ a

2.5.2 Chebyshev's Inequality

2.5.3 Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

Claim (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality). Let X and Y be 2 r.v's. Then $\mathbb{E}[|XY|] \leq \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[X^2]\mathbb{E}[Y^2]}$ **Proof.** Suffices to prove it for X and Y with $\mathbb{E}[X^2] < \infty$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y^2] < \infty$ Also enough to prove it for $X, Y \geq 0$ $XY \leq \frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}(X^2 + Y^2) \implies \mathbb{E}[XY] \le \frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{E}[X^2] + \mathbb{E}[Y^2] < \infty$ Assume $\mathbb{E}[X^2] > 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[Y^2] > 0$, otherwise result is trivial. Let $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and consider $0 \le (X - tY)^2 = X^2 - 2tXY + t^2Y^2$ $\implies \mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2t \mathbb{E}[XY] + t^2 \mathbb{E}[Y^2]$ $f(t)$ ≥ 0 Minimising f gives that for $t_* = \frac{\mathbb{E}[XY]}{\mathbb{E}[Y^2]}$ $\frac{\mathbb{E}[XY]}{\mathbb{E}[Y^2]}, f$ achieves its minimum. $f(t_*) \geq 0 \implies \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \frac{2(\mathbb{E}[XY])^2}{\mathbb{E}[X^2]}$ $\frac{\mathbb{E}[XY])^2}{\mathbb{E}[Y^2]} + \frac{(\mathbb{E}[XY])^2}{\mathbb{E}[Y^2]}$ $\frac{\mathbb{E}[Y^2]}{\mathbb{E}[Y^2]} \geq 0$ \implies $(\mathbb{E}[XY])^2 \leq \mathbb{E}[X^2] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y^2]$

2.5.4 Cases of Equality

Note. Equality in C-S occurs when $\mathbb{E}[(X-tY)^2]=0$ for $t=\frac{\mathbb{E}[XY]}{\mathbb{E}[X^2]}$

$$
\mathbb{E}[(X - tY)^2] = 0 \implies \mathbb{P}(X = tY) = 1
$$

 $\overline{\mathbb{E}[Y^2]}$

2.5.5 Jensen's Inequality

Definition. A function
$$
f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}
$$
 is called **convex** if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and for all $t \in (0, 1)$

$$
f(tx + (1-t)y) \le tf(x) + (1-t)f(y)
$$

Claim (Jensen's Inequality). Let X be a r.v. and let f be a convex function. Then

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

Proof.

Claim. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a convex function then f is the supremum of all the lines lying below it. In other words

$$
\forall m \in \mathbb{R} \; \exists a, b \in \mathbb{R} \; \text{s.t.} \; f(m) = am + b \text{ and } f(x) \ge ax + b \; \forall x
$$

So there exists $a \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\left(a = \sup_{x < m} \frac{f(m) - f(x)}{m - x}\right)
$$

s.t.

$$
\frac{f(m) - f(x)}{m - x} \le a \le \frac{f(y) - f(m)}{y - m}
$$
 for all $x < m < y$

(take tangent)

Proof. Let $m \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $x < m < y$. Then $m = tx + (1-t)y$ for some $t \in [0,1]$. By convexity

$$
f(m) \le tf(x) + (1-t)f(y)
$$

$$
m = tf(m) + (1-t)f(m)
$$

So

$$
t(f(m) - f(x)) \le (1-t)(f(y) - f(m)) \implies \frac{f(m) - f(x)}{m - x} \le \frac{f(y) - f(m)}{y - m}
$$

So there exists $a \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
a = \sup_{x < m} \frac{f(m) - f(x)}{m - x}
$$

s.t.

$$
\frac{f(m) - f(x)}{m - x} \le a \le \frac{f(y) - f(m)}{y - m}
$$
 for all $x < m < y$

Rearranging this inequality we get

$$
f(x) \ge a(x - m) + f(m)
$$
 for all x

Set $m = \mathbb{E}[X]$. Then from the claim, we get $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t $f(\mathbb{E}[X]) = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b(*)$ and $\forall x$ we have $f(x) \ge ax + b$ Apply this last inequality to X to get

$$
f(x) \ge aX + b
$$

and taking E

$$
\mathbb{E}[f(X)] \ge a \mathbb{E}[X] + b = f(\mathbb{E}[X])
$$

Note. A rule to remember the direction:

$$
\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \ge 0
$$

implies

 $\mathbb{E}(X^2) \geq (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$

2.5.6 Cases of Equality

2.5.7 AM-GM Inequality

Claim (AM-GM Inequality). Let f be a convex function and let $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}f(x_k) \ge f\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n} s_k\right)
$$

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

Proof. Define X to be the r.v. taking values $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ all with equal prob

$$
\mathbb{P}(X = x_i) = \frac{1}{n} \forall i = 1, ..., n
$$

$$
f(\mathbb{E}[X]) = f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k \cdot \frac{1}{n}\right)
$$

By Jensen's inequality, we get

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}f(x_k) \ge f\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}x_k\right)
$$

Let $f(x) = -\log x$. This is a convex function and so

$$
-\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}\log x_k \ge -\log\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}x_k\right)
$$

$$
\implies \left(\prod_{k=1}^{n}x_k\right)^{1/n} \le \frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}x_k
$$

i.e. the geometric mean is \leq the arithmetic mean.

2.6 Conditional expectation

Note. Recall if $B \in \mathcal{F}$ with $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$, we defined

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

Definition. Let $B \in \mathcal{F}$ with $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ and let X be a r.v. We define

$$
\mathbb{E}[X|B] = \frac{\mathbb{E}[X \cdot 1(B)]}{\mathbb{P}(B)}
$$

2.6.1 Law of Total Expectation

Claim (Law of Total Expectation). Suppose $X > 0$ and let (Ω_n) be a partition of Ω into disjoint events, i.e.

$$
\Omega = \bigcup_n \Omega_n
$$

Then

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[X|\Omega_n] \cdot \mathbb{P}(\Omega_n)
$$

Proof. Write

$$
X = X \cdot 1(\Omega) = \sum_{n} X \cdot 1(\Omega_n)
$$

Taking expectations we get

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{n} \underbrace{X \cdot 1(\Omega_n)}_{X_n}\right] = \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[X \cdot 1(\Omega_n)]
$$

By countable additivity of ${\mathbb E}$

So

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[X_n \cdot \mathbb{1}(\Omega_n)] = \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[X|\Omega_n] \cdot \mathbb{P}(\Omega_n)
$$

2.6.2 Joint Distributions

Definition. Let
$$
X_1, ..., X_n
$$
 be r.v.'s (discrete). Their **joint distribution** is defined to be
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n) \,\forall x_1 \in \Omega_{X_1}, ..., x_n \in \Omega_{X_n}
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1) = \mathbb{P}(\{X_1 = x_1\} \cap \bigcup_{i=2}^n \bigcup_{X_i} \{X_i = x_i\}) = \sum_{X_1, ..., X_m} \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n)
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}(X_i = x_i) = \sum_{X_1, ..., X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, ..., X_n} \mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n)
$$

We call $(\mathbb{P}(C_i = x_i))_{x_i}$ the marginal distribution of X_i

Definition. Let X and Y be 2 r.v.'s The **conditional distribution** of X giben $Y = y$ $(y \in \Omega_y)$ is defined to be

$$
\mathbb{P}(X = x|Y = y), \ x \in \Omega_X
$$

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

Equation.

$$
\mathbb{P}(X=x) = \sum_{y} \mathbb{P}(X=x, Y=y) = \sum_{y} \mathbb{P}(X=x|Y=y) \mathbb{P}(Y=y)
$$

(law of total probability)

2.6.3 Distribution of the sum of independent r.v.'s

Definition. Let X and Y be 2 independent r.v.'s (discrete)

$$
\mathbb{P}(X + Y = z) = \sum_{y} \mathbb{P}(X + Y = z, Y = y)
$$

$$
= \sum_{y} \mathbb{P}(X = z - y, Y = y)
$$

$$
= \sum_{y} \mathbb{P}(X = z - y) \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y)
$$

This last sum is called the **convolution** of the distribution of X and Y Similarly,

$$
\mathbb{P}(X+Y=z) = \sum_{x} \mathbb{P}(X=x) \mathbb{P}(Y=z-x)
$$

Example. Let $X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$ and $Y \sim \text{Poi}(\mu)$ independent

$$
\mathbb{P}(X+Y=n) = \sum_{r=0}^{n} \mathbb{P}(X=r) \mathbb{P}(Y=n-r)
$$

$$
= \sum_{r=0}^{n} e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^r}{r!} \cdot e^{-\mu} \cdot \frac{\mu^{n-r}}{(n-r)!}
$$

$$
= \frac{e^{(\lambda+\mu)}}{n!} \sum_{r=0}^{n} \lambda^r \cdot \mu^{n-r} \cdot \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}
$$

$$
= \frac{(\lambda+\mu)^n}{n!} e^{-(\lambda+\mu)}
$$

So $X + Y \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda + \mu)$

Definition. Let X and Y be 2 discrete r.v.'s. The **conditional expectation** of X given $Y = y$ is

$$
\mathbb{E}[X|Y=y] = \frac{\mathbb{E}[X \cdot 1(Y=y)]}{\mathbb{P}(Y=y)}
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X|Y=y] = \frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(Y=y)} \mathbb{E}[X \cdot 1(Y=y)]
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{\mathbb{P}(Y=y)} \sum_{x} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X=x, Y=y)
$$

$$
= \sum_{x} x \mathbb{P}(X=x|Y=y)
$$

Note. We observe that for very $y \in \Omega_Y$, $\mathbb{E}[X|Y=y]$ is a function of y only. We set

 $g(y) = \mathbb{E}[X|Y=y]$

Definition. We define the **conditional expectation** fo X given Y and write it as $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ for the random variable $g(Y)$

We emphasise that $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ is a random variable and it depends only on Y, because it is a function only of Y

Equation.

$$
\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = g(Y) \cdot 1
$$

= $g(Y) \cdot \sum_{y} 1(Y = y)$
= $\sum_{y} g(Y) \cdot 1(Y = y)$
= $\sum_{y} g(y) \cdot 1(Y = y)$
= $\sum_{y} \mathbb{E}[X|Y = y] \cdot 1(Y = y)$

 $y)$

Example. Toss a p -biased coin n times independently. Write

$$
X_1 = 1(i - th \text{ toss is a } H)
$$
 for $i = 1, ..., n$

and

$$
Y_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n
$$

Want $\mathbb{E}[X_1|Y_n]=?$ Set $g(y) = \mathbb{E}[X_1|Y_n = y]$, then $\mathbb{E}[X_1|Y_n] = g(Y_n)$ Need to find g Let $y \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$. Then

$$
g(y) = \mathbb{E}[X_2 | Y_n = y] = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1 | Y_n = y)
$$

 $y=0$:

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1 | Y_n = 0) = 0
$$

 $y \neq 0$:

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1 | Y_n = y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1, Y_n = y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y_n = y)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1, X_2 + \dots + X_n = y - 1)}{\mathbb{P}(Y_n = y)}
$$

Since the (X_i) are iid, we get

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = x_1, X_2 + \dots + X_n = y - 1) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_2 + \dots + X_n = y - 1)
$$

$$
= p \cdot \binom{n-1}{y-1} \cdot p^{y-1} \cdot (1-p)^{n-y}
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(Y_n = y) = \binom{n}{y} \cdot p^y \cdot (1-p)^{n-y}
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1 | Y_n = y) = \frac{p \cdot {n-1 \choose y-1} \cdot p^{y-1} \cdot (1-p)^{n-y}}{{n \choose y} \cdot p^y \cdot (1-p)^{n-y}} = \frac{y}{n}
$$

So $g(y) = \frac{y}{n}$. Therefore

$$
\mathbb{E}[X_1|Y_n] = g(Y_n) = \frac{Y_n}{n}
$$

2.6.4 Properties of Conditional Expectation

Claim.

\n
$$
\forall c \in \mathbb{R} \mathbb{E}[cX|Y = x \cdot \mathbb{E}[X|Y] \text{ and } \mathbb{E}[c|Y] = c
$$
\n
$$
\bullet X_1, \dots, X_n \text{ r.v.'s, then}
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i|Y\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i|Y]
$$
\nProof. only prove third:

\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = \sum_{y} 1(Y = y)\mathbb{E}[X|Y = y]
$$
\nBy properties of expectation

\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]] = \sum_{y} \mathbb{E}[X|Y = y] \cdot \mathbb{E}[1(Y = y)]
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{y} \mathbb{E}[X|Y = y] \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y)
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{y} \mathbb{E}[X \cdot 1(Y = y)] \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y = y)
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{y} \mathbb{E}[X \cdot 1(Y = y)]
$$
\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[X \cdot \sum_{y} 1(Y = y)]
$$
\n
$$
= \mathbb{E}[X]
$$
\nProof (Another way).

$$
\sum_{y} \mathbb{E}[X|Y=y] \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y=y) = \sum_{x} \sum_{y} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X=x|Y=y) \cdot \mathbb{P}(Y=y) = \mathbb{E}[X] = 0
$$

Claim. • Let X and Y be 2 independent r.v.'s. Then

$$
\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = \mathbb{E}[X]
$$

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = \sum_{y} 1(Y = y) \cdot \mathbb{E}[X|Y = y]
$$

$$
= \sum_{y} 1(Y = y) \cdot \sum_{x} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x|Y = y)
$$

$$
= \sum_{y} 1(Y = y) \underbrace{\sum_{x} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x)}_{\mathbb{E}[X]} = \mathbb{E}[X] \square
$$

Claim. Suppose Y and X are independent r.v.'s. Then

 $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y] | Z] = \mathbb{E}[X]$

Proof. We have $\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = g(Y)$ i.e. $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ is a function only of Y. If Y and Z are indep., then $f(Y)$ is also independent of Z for any function f. (can show directly) So $g(Y)$ is independent of Z. By the a previous property, we get

$$
\mathbb{E}[g(Y)|Z] = \mathbb{E}[g(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]] = \mathbb{E}[X] \ \Box
$$

Claim. Suppose $h \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function. Then

 $\mathbb{E}[h(Y) \cdot X|Y] = h(Y) \cdot \mathbb{E}[X|Y]$

Proof.

$$
\mathbb{E}[h(Y) \cdot X | Y = y] = \mathbb{E}[h(y) \cdot X | Y = y]
$$

$$
= h(y) \cdot \mathbb{E}[X | Y = y]
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{E}[h(Y) \cdot X|Y] = h(Y) \cdot \mathbb{E}[X|Y] \ \Box
$$

Corollary.

and

 $\mathbb{E}\mathbb{E}[X|Y] |Y] = \mathbb{E}[X|Y]$

 $\mathbb{E}[X|X] = X$

Remark. Recall $X_i = (i$ -th toss is H) and $Y_n = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X_1|Y_n] = \frac{Y_n}{n}
$$

By symmetry, for all i

$$
\mathbb{E}[X_i|Y_n] = \mathbb{E}[X_1|Y_n]
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_n | Y_n] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}[X_i | Y_n] = n \cdot \mathbb{E}[X_1 | Y_n]
$$

$$
\therefore \mathbb{E}[X_1 | Y_n] = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y_n | Y_n] = \frac{Y_n}{n}
$$

2.7 Random Walks

Definition. A random/ stochastic process is a sequence of random variables $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$

Definition. A random walk is a random process that can be expressed in the following way

$$
X_n = x + Y_1 + \dots + Y_n
$$

where (Y_i) are independent and identically distributed (iid) r.v.'s and x is a deterministic number (fixed).

Notation. We write \mathbb{P}_x for the probability measure $\mathbb{P}(\cdot|X_0=x)$ i.e.

$$
\forall A \in \mathcal{F} \ \mathbb{P}_x(A) = \mathbb{P}(A|X_0 = n)
$$

Method. Define

$$
h(x) = \mathbb{P}_x((X_n)
$$
 hits a before hitting 0) =?

By the law of total probability, we have

$$
h(x) = \mathbb{P}_x((X_n) \text{ hits } a \text{ before hitting } 0|Y_1 = +1) \cdot \mathbb{P}_x(Y_1 = +1)
$$

$$
+ \mathbb{P}_x((X_n) \text{ hits } a \text{ before hitting } 0|Y_1 = -1) \cdot \mathbb{P}_x(Y_1 = -1)
$$

$$
h(x) = p \cdot h(x+1) + q \cdot h(x-1) \quad 0 < x < a
$$
\n
$$
h(0) = 0 \quad \text{while } h(a) = 1
$$

• Case $p = q = \frac{1}{2}$:

$$
h(x) - h(x+1) = h(x-1) - h(x)
$$

In this case,

$$
h(x) = \frac{x}{a}
$$

• $p \neq q$:

$$
h(x) = ph(x+1)qh(x-1)
$$

Try a solution of the form λ^x Substituting gives

$$
p\lambda^2 - \lambda + 1 = 0 \implies \lambda = 1 \text{ or } \frac{q}{p}
$$

So the general solution will be of the form

$$
h(x) = A + B \cdot \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x
$$

Using the boundary conditions, $h(a) = 1$ and $h(0) = 0$ yields

$$
h(x) = \frac{\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x - 1}{\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^a - 1}
$$

This is the Gambler's Ruin estimate.

2.7.1 Expected time to absorption

Define

$$
T = \min\{n \ge 0 : X_n \in \{0, a\}\}\
$$

i.e. T is the first time X hits either 0 or a . Want

 $\mathbb{E}_x[T] = \tau_u = ?$

Conditioning on the first step and using the law of total expectation

$$
\tau_x = p \cdot \mathbb{E}_x[T|Y_1 = +1] + q \cdot \mathbb{E}_x[T|Y_1 = -1] \quad 0 < x < a
$$
\n
$$
\implies \tau_x = p \cdot (1 + \mathbb{E}_{x+1}[T]) + q \cdot (1 + \mathbb{E}_{x-1}[T])
$$

So

$$
\tau_x = 1 + p \cdot \tau_{x+1} + q \cdot \tau_{x-1} \quad 0 < x < a
$$
\n
$$
\tau_0 = \tau_a = 0
$$

• Case $p = \frac{1}{2}$. Try a solution of the form Ax^2 .

$$
Ax^{2} = 1 + pA(x+1)^{2} + qA(x-1)^{2} \implies A = -1
$$

General solution will have the form

$$
\tau_x = Ax^2 + Bx + C = -x^2 + Bx + C
$$

$$
\tau_0 = \tau_a = 0 \implies \tau_x = x(a - x)
$$

• Case $p \neq \frac{1}{2}$. Try Cx as a solution. Substituting gives

$$
C = \frac{1}{q-p}
$$

So the general solution will be of the form

$$
\tau_x = \frac{1}{q-p} \cdot x + A + B\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x
$$

Using $\tau_0 = \tau_a = 0$,

$$
\tau_x = \frac{1}{q-p}x - \frac{q}{q-p}\frac{\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^x - 1}{\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^a - 1}
$$

2.8 Probability Generating Functions

Definition. Let X be a r.v. with values in N . Let

 $p_r = \mathbb{P}(X = r), r \in \mathbb{N}$

be its prob. mass function. The **pgf** of X is defined to be

$$
p(z) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} p_r \cdot z^r = \mathbb{E}[z^X] \text{ for } |z| \le 1
$$

When $|z| \leq 1$, the pgf converges absolutely. Indeed

$$
|\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} p_r z^r| \le \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} p_r \cdot |z|^r \le \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} p_r = 1
$$

So $p(z)$ is well-defined and has a radius of convergence at least 1

Theorem. The pgf uniquely determines the distribution of X

Proof. Suppose (p_r) and (q_r) are 2 prob. mass functions with

$$
\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} p_r z^r = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} q_r z^r \ \forall |z| \le 1
$$

We will show that $p_r = q_r \,\forall r$. Set $z = 0$. Then $p_0 = q_0$. Suppose $p_r = q_r \,\forall r \leq n$. RTP:

$$
p_{n+1} = q_{n+1}
$$

Then

$$
\sum_{r=n+1}^{\infty} p_r z^r = \sum_{r=n+1}^{\infty} q_r z^r
$$

Divide through by z^{n+1} and then take the limit as $z \to 0$ gives

 $p_{n+1} = q_{n+1}$

Theorem. we have

$$
\lim_{z \to 1} p'(z) = p'(1-) = \mathbb{E}[X]
$$

Proof. Assume first that $\mathbb{E}[X] < \infty$. Let $0 < z < 1$. We can differentiate $p(z)$ term by term and get

$$
p'(z) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} r p_r z^{r-1} \le \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} r p_r = \mathbb{E}[X]
$$

(because $z < 1$) Since $0 < z < 1$, we see that $p'(z)$ is an increasing function of z. This implies that

$$
\lim_{z \to 1} p'(z) \le \mathbb{E}[X]
$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and N be large enough s.t.

$$
\sum_{r=0}^{N} rp_r \ge \mathbb{E}[X] - \varepsilon
$$

Also

$$
p'(z) \ge \sum_{r=1}^{N} r p_r z^{r-1} \ (0 < z < 1)
$$

So

$$
\lim_{z \to 1} p'(Z) \ge \sum_{r=1}^{N} rp_r \ge \mathbb{E}[X] - \varepsilon
$$

This si true for any $\varepsilon > 0$. Therefore

$$
\lim_{z \to 1} p'(z) = p'(1-) = \mathbb{E}[X]
$$

Assume $\mathbb{E}[X] = \infty$. For any M, take N large enough s.t.

$$
\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} r p_r \geq M
$$

We know from above that

$$
\lim_{z \to 1} p'(z) \ge \sum_{r=1}^{N} r p_r \ge M
$$

This is true for all $M > 0$ and hence

$$
\lim_{z \to 1} p'(z) = p'(1-) = \mathbb{E}[X] = \infty \ \square
$$

Note. In exactly the same way one can prove the following:

Theorem.

$$
p''(1-) = \lim_{z \to 1} p''(z) = \mathbb{E}[X(X-1)]
$$

$$
\forall k > 0 \ p^{(k)}(1-) = \lim_{z \to 1} p^{(k)}(z) = \mathbb{E}[X(X-1)...(X-k+1)]
$$

In particular

$$
Var(X) = p''(1-) + p'(1-) - (p'(1-))^{2}
$$

Moreover

$$
\mathbb{P}(X=n) = \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z}\right)^n \bigg|_{z=0} p(z)
$$

Equation. Suppose that X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent r.v.'s with pgf's q_1, \ldots, q_n resp., i.e.

$$
q_i = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}]
$$

$$
p(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_n}] = ?
$$

So

$$
p(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1} \cdot z^{X_2} \dots z^{X_n} = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}] \dots \mathbb{E}[z^{X_n}] = q_1(z) \dots q_n(z)
$$

If X_i 's are iid, then

$$
p(z) = (q(z))^n
$$

Example.

(i)

$$
X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)
$$

$$
p(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^X]
$$

=
$$
\sum_{r=0}^n z^r \cdot {n \choose r} \cdot p^r \cdot (1 - p^{n-r})
$$

=
$$
\sum_{r=0}^n {n \choose r} (pz)^r (1-p)^{n-r}
$$

=
$$
(pz + 1 - p)^n
$$

(ii) Let
$$
X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)
$$
 and $Y \sim \text{Bin}(m, p)$ and $X \perp Y$
\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[z^{X+Y}] = \mathbb{E}[z^X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[z^Y] = (pz + 1 - p)^n \cdot (pz + 1 - p)^m = (pz + 1 - p)^{n+m}
$$

So

$$
X + Y \sim \text{Bin}(n + m, p)
$$

(iii) Let $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$

$$
\mathbb{E}[z^X] = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} (1-p)^r \cdot p \cdot z^r = \frac{p}{1 - z(1-p)}
$$

(iv) Let $X \sim \mathrm{Poi}(\lambda)$

$$
\mathbb{E}[z^X] = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} z^r \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^r}{r!} = e^{-\lambda} e^{-\lambda z} = e^{\lambda(z-1)}
$$

Let
$$
X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)
$$
, $Y \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$ and $X \perp Y$
\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[z^{X+Y}] = e^{\lambda(z-1)} \cdot e^{\mu(z-1)} = e^{(\lambda+\mu)(z-1)} \implies X + Y \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda+\mu)
$$

2.9 Sum of a Random Number of r.v.'s

Method. Let X_1, X_2, \ldots be iid and let N be an indep r.v. taking values in N. Define

 $S_n = X_1 + \cdots + X_n \ \forall n \geq 1$

Then

$$
S_N = X_1 + \cdots + X_N
$$

means $\forall \omega \in \Omega$,

$$
S_N(\omega) = X_1(\omega) + \dots + X_{N(\omega)}(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^{N(\omega)} X_i(\omega)
$$

Let q be the pgf of N and p the pgf of $X_1.$ Then

$$
r(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{S_N}]
$$

\n
$$
= \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_N}]
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_N} \cdot 1(N = n)]
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_n} \cdot 1(N = n)]
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{n} \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_N} \cdot \mathbb{P}(N = n)]
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{n} (\mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}])^n \cdot \mathbb{P}(N = n)
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{n} (p(z))^n \mathbb{P}(N = n) = q(p(z))
$$

2.9.1 Another Proof Using Conditional Expectation

Method.

$$
r(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_N}]
$$

\n
$$
= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_N} | N]]
$$

\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_N} | N = n] = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1 + \dots + X_n} | N = n]
$$

\n
$$
= (\mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}])^n
$$

\nSo
\n
$$
r(z) = \mathbb{E}[(p(z))^N] = q(p(z))
$$

\nSo
\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[S_N] = \lim_{z \to 1} r'(z) = r'(1-)
$$

\n
$$
r'(Z) = q'(p(z)) \cdot p'(z)
$$

\nSo
\n
$$
\mathbb{E}[S_N] = q'(p(1-)) \cdot \underbrace{p'(1-)}_{=1} - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[X_1]}_{= \mathbb{E}[X_1]}
$$

\n
$$
= \mathbb{E}[N] \cdot \mathbb{E}[X_1]
$$

\nSimilarly
\n
$$
Var(S_N) = \mathbb{E}[N] \cdot Var(X_1) + Var(N) \cdot (\mathbb{E}[X_1])^2
$$

2.10 Branching Processes

From Bienaguie/ Gralton-Watson, 1874.

Method. $(X_n : n > 0)$ a random process.

$$
X_n = \# \text{ of individuals in generation } n
$$

 $X_0 = 1$

The individual in generation 0 produces a random number o offspring with distribution

Every individual in gen. 1 produces an indep. number of offspring with the same distribution. Continue in the same way: every new indiv. produces and indep. number of offspring with the same number of offspring with the same distribution as X_1 . Let $Y_{k,n}$: $k \geq 1, n \geq 0$) be an iid sequence with distribution $(g_k)_k$ $Y_{k,n}$ is the number of offspring of k-th indiv. in gen. n

> $X_{n+1} =$ $\int Y_{1,n} + \cdots + Y_{X_n,n}$: when $X_n \geq 1$ 0 otherwise

Theorem. Set

and

 $G_n(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_n}]$

 $G(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}]$

Then

$$
G_{n+1}(z) = G(G_n(z))
$$

= $G(G(\dots(G(z))\dots))$
= $G_n(G(z))$

Proof.

$$
G_{n+1}(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_{n+1}}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[z^{X_{n+1}}|X_n]]
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[z^{X_{n+1}}|X_n = m]] = \mathbb{E}[z^{Y_{1,n} + \dots + Y_{m,n}}|X_n = m]
$$

$$
= (\mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}])^m
$$

$$
= (G(z))^m
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[z^{X_{n+1}}|X_n]] = \mathbb{E}[(G(z))^{X_n}] = G_n(G(z))
$$

2.10.1 Extinction Probability

Method.

 $\mathbb{P}(X_n = 0 \text{ for some } n \geq 1) = \text{ extinction prob. } = q$

 $q_n = \mathbb{P}(X_n = 0)$

$$
A_n = \{X_n = 0\} \subseteq \{X_{n+1} = 0\} = A_{n+1}
$$

Then (A_n) is an increasing sequence of events. So by continuity of prob meas.

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_n) \to \mathbb{P}(\bigcup_n A_n) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

But

$$
\bigcup_{n} A_n = \{X_n = 0 \text{ for some } n \ge 1\}
$$

Therefore we get $q_n\to q$ as $n\to\infty$

Claim.

 $q_{n+1} = G(q_n)$ $(G(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}])$ and also $q = G(q)$

Proof.

$$
q_{n+1} = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = 0) = G_{n+1}(0) = G(G_n(0)) = G(q_n)
$$

Since G is continuous, taking the limit as $n \to \infty$ and using $q_n \to q$, we get

 $G(q) = q \Box$

Claim (same as previous, different proof).

$$
q_{n+1} = G(q_n) (G(z) = \mathbb{E}[z^{X_1}])
$$
 and also $q = G(q)$

Proof (Alternative). Conditional on $X_1 = m$, we get m independent branching processes. So we can write

$$
X_{n+1} = X_n^{(1)} + \dots + X_n^{(m)}
$$

where $(X_i^{(j)})$ are iid branching processes all with the same offspring distribution.

So

$$
q_{n+1} = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = 0) = \sum_{m} \mathbb{P}(X_{n+1} = 0 | X_1 = m) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_1 = m)
$$

$$
= \sum_{m} \mathbb{P}(X_n^{(1)} = 0, \dots, X_n^{(m)} = 0) \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_1 = m)
$$

$$
= \sum_{m} \left(\mathbb{P}(\underbrace{X_n^{(1)} = 0}_{q_n}) \right)^m \cdot \mathbb{P}(X_1 = m)
$$

$$
= G(q_n)
$$

So we have proved

Theorem. Assume $\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1) < 1$. Then the extinction probability is the minimal non-negative solution to the equation

 $t = G(t)$

We also have

 $q < 1$ iff $\mathbb{E}[X_1] > 1$

Proof (of minimality). Let t be the smallest non-negative solution to $x = G(x)$. We will show that $q = t$.

We are going to prove by induction that

 $q_n \leq t \ \forall n$

Then taking the limit as $n \to \infty$ will give us $q \leq t$. Since we know that q is a solution, this will imply $q = t$.

$$
q_0 = \mathbb{P}(X_0 = 0) \le t
$$

Suppose $q_n \leq t$

$$
q_{n+1} = G(q_n)
$$

G is an increasing function on [0, 1], and since $q_n \leq t$, we get

$$
q_{n+1}=G(q_n)\leq G(t)=t\ \square
$$

Theorem.

Proof (2nd part). Consider the function $H(z) = G(z) - z$ Assume

 $g_0 + g_1 < 1$

so

 $\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq 1)$

since if not, then $\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq 1) = 1$ which would imply that

$$
\mathbb{E}[X_1] = \mathbb{P}(X_1 = 1) < 1
$$

In this case we would have

$$
G(z) = g_0 + g_1 z = 1 - \mathbb{E}[X_1] + \mathbb{E}[X_1]z
$$

Solving $g(z) = z$ we would get $z = 1$, since $\mathbb{E}[X_1] < 1$.

$$
H''(z) = \sum r(r-1)g_r z^{r-2} > 0 \,\,\forall z \in (0,1)
$$

This implies that $H'(z)$ is a strictly increasing function in $(0, 1)$.

This implies that H can have at most one root different from 1 in $(0, 1)$, which follows from Rolle's theorem.

(If it had more, say $z_1 < z_2 < 1$, then H' would be 0 in 2 points inside (z_1, z_2) and $(z_2, 1)$ by Rolle's theorem. Nut this contradicts that H' is strictly increasing)

1st case: *H* has no other root apart from 1.

 $H(1) = 0$ and $H(0) = g_0 \geq 0 \implies H(z) \geq 0 \,\forall z \in [0,1]$

$$
H'(1-) = \lim_{z \to 1} \frac{H(z) - H(1)}{z - 1} = \frac{H(z)}{z - 1} \le 0
$$

But $H'(1-) = G'(1-) - 1$ and $H'(1-) \le 0 \implies G'(1-) \le 1$ and $G'(1-) = \mathbb{E}[X_1]$ So we showed that when $q = 1$, then $\mathbb{E}[X_1] \leq 1$ $2nd$ case: *H* has exactly one other root $r < 1$

 $H(r) = 0$ and $H(1) = 0 \implies$ by Rolle's theorem $\exists z \in (r, 1)$ s.t. $H'(z) = 0$ but

$$
H'(x) = G'(x) - 1 \implies G'(z) = 1
$$

$$
G'(x) = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} r g_r x^{r-1} \text{ and } G''(x) = \sum_{r=2}^{\infty} r(r-1) g_r x^{r-2}
$$

under the assumption $g_0 + g_1 < 1$, we know

$$
G''(x) > 0 \ \forall x \in (0,1) \implies G'
$$
 is strictly increasing

Therefore

$$
G'(1-) > G'(z) = 1 \implies \mathbb{E}[X_1] > 1
$$

So we proved that if $q < 1$ then $\mathbb{E}[X_1] > 1$

3 Continuous Random Variables

3.1 Definitions and Properties

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

$$
X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } \forall x \in \mathbb{R}
$$

$$
\{X \le x\} = \{\omega : X(\omega) \le x\} \in \mathcal{F}
$$

Definition. The probability distribution function is defined to be

 $F: \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$ with $F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$

Properties of F (i) if $x < y$ then $F(x) \leq F(y)$ Proof. ${X \leq x} \subseteq {X \leq y}$ (ii) $\forall a < b, a, b \in \mathbb{R} \mathbb{P}(a < X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$ Proof. $\mathbb{P}(a < X \leq b) = \mathbb{P}(\{a < X\} \cap \{X \leq b\})$ $=\mathbb{P}(X \leq b) - \mathbb{P}(\{X \leq b\} \cap \{X \leq a\})$ $=\mathbb{P}(X \leq b) - \mathbb{P}(X \leq a)$ $= F(b) - F(a)$ (iii) F is a right continuous function and left limits exists always $F(x-) = \lim_{y \to x} F(y) \leq F(x)$ Proof. NTP $\lim_{n\to\infty} F\left(x+\frac{1}{n}\right)$ n $= F(x)$ Define $A_n = \{x < X \leq x + \frac{1}{n}\}$ $\frac{1}{n}$ Then (A_n) are decreasing events and $\bigcap_n A_n = \emptyset$ So $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ But $\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(x < X \leq x + \frac{1}{x})$ $\frac{1}{n}$) = F $\left(x+\frac{1}{n}\right)$ n $- F(x) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ Left limits exist by the increasing property of F (iv) $F(x-) = \mathbb{P}(X < x)$ Proof. $F(x-) = \lim_{n \to \infty} F\left(x - \frac{1}{n}\right)$ n \setminus $F\left(x-\frac{1}{x}\right)$ n $= \mathbb{P}\left(X \leq x - \frac{1}{x}\right)$ n \setminus Consider $B_n = \left\{ X \leq x - \frac{1}{n} \right\}$ n \mathcal{L} then (B_n) increasing and $\bigcup_n B_n = \{X < x\}$ $\mathbb{P}(B_n) \to \mathbb{P}(X < n) \implies F(x-) = \mathbb{P}(X < x)$

(v)

$$
\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = 1
$$

and

$$
\lim_{x \to -\infty} F(x) = 0
$$

For a discrete variable, $F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$

Definition. A r.v. X is called **continuous** if F is a continuous function, which means that

 $F(x) = F(x-) \forall x \implies \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \mathbb{P}(X < x) \forall x$

Note. In this course, we will further restrict to the case where F is not only continuous but also differentiable. (Absolutely continuous) Set

$$
F'(x) = f(x)
$$

We call f the probability density function of X .

3.2 Expectation

Definition. Let $X \geq 0$ with density f. We define its **expectation**

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty x f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

Suppose $g > 0$. Then

$$
\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

for any variable X Let X be a general r.v. Define

and

 $X_{+} = \max(X, 0)$

 $X_-=\max(-X,0)$

and if at least one of $\mathbb{E}[X_+]$ or $\mathbb{E}[X_-]$ is finite, then we set

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X_+] - \mathbb{E}[X_-] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

since

$$
\mathbb{E}[X_+] = \int_0^\infty x f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

and

$$
\mathbb{E}[X_{-}] = \int_{-\infty}^{0} (-x)f(x) \,\mathrm{d}x
$$

Easy to check that the expectation is again a linear function

Claim. Let $X \geq 0$. Then

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(X \ge x) \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

Proof (1^{st}) .

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty x f(x) dx
$$

=
$$
\int_0^\infty \left(\int_0^x 1 dy\right) f(x) dx
$$

=
$$
\int_0^\infty dy \int_y^\infty f(x) dx
$$

=
$$
\int_0^\infty dy (1 - F(y))
$$

=
$$
\int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(X \ge y) dy \square
$$

Proof (2^{nd}) .

$$
\forall \omega, \ X(\omega) = \int_0^\infty 1(X(\omega) \ge x) \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

Taking expectation, we get

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty \mathbb{P}(X \ge x) \, \mathrm{d}x \, \Box
$$

Equation.

$$
Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2
$$

Example. Uniform distribution

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

we write $X \sim U[a, b]$

$$
\mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(y) dy = \frac{x - a}{b - a}
$$

$$
F(x) = \frac{x - a}{b - a}
$$

for $x\in[a,b]$ and $F(x)=1$ for $x>b,$ $F(x)=0$ otherwise.

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{a}^{b} \frac{x}{b-a} \, \mathrm{d}x = \frac{a+b}{2}
$$

Example. Exponential distribution

$$
f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \ \lambda > 0, \ x > 0, \ X \sim \ \text{Exp}(\lambda)
$$

$$
F(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda y} \, dy = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty \lambda x e^{-\lambda x} \, dx = \frac{1}{\lambda}
$$

and

3.3 Exponential as a limit of geometrics

Equation. Let $T \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ and set $T_n = \lfloor nT \rfloor \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ $\mathbb{P}(T_n \geq k) = \mathbb{P}\left(T \geq \frac{k}{n}\right)$ n $= e^{-\lambda k/n} = \left(e^{-\lambda/n} \right)^k$

So T_n is a geometric of parameter

$$
p_n = 1 - e^{-\lambda/n} \sim \frac{\lambda}{n} \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

and

$$
\frac{T_n}{n} \to R \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

So the exponential is the limit of a rescaled geometric

Remark. Memoryless property:

$$
s, t > 0 \, \mathbb{P}(T > t + s | T > s) = e^{-\lambda t} = \mathbb{P}(T > t)
$$

 $T \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$

Prop. Let T be a positive r.v. not identically 0 or ∞ . Then T has the memoryless property iff T is exponential

Proof. \implies :

 $\forall s, t \ \mathbb{P}(T > t + s) = \mathbb{P}(T > s) \mathbb{P}(T > t)$

Set

 $g(t) = \mathbb{P}(T > t)$

NTS:

 $g(t) = e^{-\lambda t}$ for some $\lambda > 0$ $g(t + s) = g(t)g(s) \,\forall s, t > 0$ $t \geq 0, m \in \mathbb{N}$ $g(mt) = (g(t))^m$

 $t = 1$ gives:

$$
\forall m \in \mathbb{N} \ g(m) = g(1)^m
$$

$$
g\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^n = g(m) \implies g\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = g(1)^{m/n}, \ \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}
$$

$$
g(1) = \mathbb{P}(T > 1) \in (0, 1)
$$

Set

 $\lambda = -\log \mathbb{P}(T > 1) > 0$

So we have proved that

 $g(t) = \mathbb{P}(T > t) = e^{-\lambda t} \ \forall t \in \mathbb{Q}_+$

Let $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$. Then

$$
\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists r, s \in \mathbb{Q} : r \le t < s \text{ and } |r - s| < \varepsilon
$$
\n
$$
e^{-\lambda s} = \mathbb{P}(T > s) \le \mathbb{P}(T > t) \le \mathbb{P}(T > r)e^{-\lambda r}
$$

Letting $\varepsilon \to 0$ finishes the proof \square

Theorem. Let X be a continuous r.v. with density f. Let G be a continuous function which is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing and g^{-1} is differentiable. Then $g(X)$ is a continuous r.v. with density

$$
f(g^{-1}(x)) \cdot \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} g^{-1}(x) \right|
$$

Proof. g increasing:

$$
\mathbb{P}(g(X) \le x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le g^{-1}(x)) = F(g^{-1}(x))
$$

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\mathbb{P}(g(X) \le x) = F'(g^{-1}(x)) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}g^{-1}(x) = f(g^{-1}(x)) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}g^{-1}(x)
$$

g decreasing:

$$
\mathbb{P}(g(X) \le x) = \mathbb{P}(X \ge g^{-1}(x)) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(X < g^{-1}(x)) = 1 - F(g^{-1}(x))
$$

since

$$
\mathbb{P}(X = g^{-1}(x)) = 0
$$

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \mathbb{P}(g(x) \le x) = -f(g^{-1}(x)) \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} g^{-1}(x)
$$

$$
= f(g^{-1}(x)) \cdot \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} g^{-1}(x) \right|
$$

 g^{-1} decreasing and so

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}g^{-1}(x) < 0
$$

Example. Normal distribution:

 $-\infty < \mu < \infty$, $\sigma > 0$ are our 2 parameters.

$$
f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \ x \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Check if f is a density:

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx
$$

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{u^2}{2}\right) du = 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2} du = I
$$

$$
I^2 = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-(u^2+v^2)/2} du dv
$$

Polar coordinates $u = r \cos \theta$ and $v = r \sin \theta$

$$
I^{2} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} r e^{-(r^{2})/2} dr d\theta = 1 \implies I = 1
$$

as desired So f is a density Let X have density f

$$
\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx
$$

$$
= \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}}_{0} + \mu \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}}_{1}
$$

first integral is 0 by $u = (x - \mu)/\sigma$ So $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$

$$
Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} exp\left(-\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx
$$

=
$$
\sigma^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{u^2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2} du = \sigma^2
$$

So Var $(X) = \sigma^2$ When X has density f, we write $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ (X is normal with parameters μ and σ^2) When $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$, we call $N(0, 1)$ the standard normal. If $X \sim N(0, 1)$, we write

$$
\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2} du
$$

and

$$
\varphi(x) = \Phi'(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-x^2/2}
$$

Have

$$
\varphi(x) = \varphi(-x) \implies \Phi(x) + \Phi(-x) = 1 \implies \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(X \le -x)
$$

Method. Let $a \neq 0$, $b \in \mathbb{R}$. Set $g(x) = ax + b$ Define $Y = g(X)$. What is the density of Y?

$$
Y = aX + b
$$

$$
g^{-1}(x) = \frac{x - b}{a}
$$

and

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}g^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{a}
$$

$$
f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(x)) \cdot \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\left(\frac{y-b}{a} - \mu\right)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{|a|}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2\pi a^2 \sigma^2} \exp\left(\frac{(y - (a\mu + b))^2}{2a^2 \sigma^2}\right)
$$

So $Y \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$ σ is the 'standard deviation'. Suppose $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then

$$
\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0,1)
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(-2\sigma < X - \mu < 2\sigma) = \mathbb{P}\left(-2 < \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} < 2\right) = \mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right| < 2\right) = \Phi(2)
$$

and $\Phi(2) \geq 0.95$ (using tables for Φ)

With prob. $\geq 95\%$, the normal is within 2 standard deviations of the mean

3.4 Multivariate Density Functions

Equation. $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ r.v. We say that X has density f if $\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1, \ldots, X_n \leq x_n)$ $=$ \int^{X_1} $-\infty$ $\ldots \int^{X_m}$ $\int_{-\infty} f(y_1,\ldots,y_n) \,dy_1\ldots dy_n$

 $=f(X_1,...,X_n)$

Then

$$
f(X_1,\ldots,X_n)=\frac{\partial^n}{\partial x_1\ldots\partial x_n}F(x_1,\ldots,x_n)
$$

This generalises: " \forall " $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

$$
\mathbb{P}((X_n,\ldots,X_n)\in B)=\int_B f(y_1,\ldots,y_n)\,\mathrm{d}y_1\ldots\,\mathrm{d}y_n
$$

Definition. We say that X_1, \ldots, X_n are **independent** if $\forall x_1, \ldots, x_n$, $\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1, \ldots, X_n \leq x_n) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq x_1) \ldots \mathbb{P}(X_n \leq x_n)$ **Theorem.** Let $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ has density f

(i) Suppose X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent with densities f_1, \ldots, f_n . Then

 $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = f_1(x_1) \ldots f_n(x_n)$ (*)

(ii) Suppose that f factorises as in $(*)$ for some non-negative functions (f_i) . Then X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent and have densities proportional to the f_i 's

Proof.

(i)

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 \le x_1, \dots, X_n \le x_n) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le x_1) \dots \mathbb{P}(X_n \le x_n)
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{x_1} f_1(y) dy_1 \dots \int_{-\infty}^{x_n} f_n(y) dy_n
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{x_n} \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(y_i) dy_1 \dots dy_n
$$

So the density of (X_1, \ldots, X_n) is $f = \prod f_i$ Let $B_1, \ldots, B_n \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ then

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 \leq B_1, \dots, X_n \leq B_n) = \int_{B_1} \dots \int_{B_n} f_1(x_1) \dots f_n(x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n
$$

Take $B_j = \mathbb{R} \forall j \neq i$. Then

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_i \in B_i) = \mathbb{P}(X_i \in B_i, X_j \in B_j \,\,\forall j \neq i) = \int_{B_i} f_i(y_i) \, \mathrm{d}y_i \prod_{j \neq i} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_j(y) \, \mathrm{d}y
$$

Since f is a density

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \, dx_1 \ldots dx_n = 1
$$

But $f = \prod f_i$, so

$$
\prod_{j} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_j(y) \, dy = 1
$$

$$
\implies \prod_{j \neq i} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_j(y) \, dy = \frac{1}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_i(y) \, dy}
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_i \in B_i) = \frac{\int_{B_i} f_i(y) \, dy}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_i(y) \, dy}
$$

This shows that the density of x_i is

$$
\frac{f_i}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_i(y) \, \mathrm{d}y}
$$

The X_i 's are independent, since

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 \le x_1, ..., X_n \le x_n) = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{x_1} f_1(y_1) dy_1 \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{x_n} f_n(y_1) dy_n}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_1(y_1) dy_1 \cdots \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_n(y_1) dy_n} = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le x_1) ... \mathbb{P}(X_n \le x_n) \square
$$

Equation. Suppose (X_1, \ldots, X_n) has density f

$$
\mathbb{P}(X_1 \le x) = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le x, X_2 \in \mathbb{R}, \dots, X_n \in \mathbb{R})
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \dots dx_n
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^x \underbrace{\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_2 \dots dx_n\right)}_{\text{density of } X_1} dx_1
$$

density of X_1 = marginal density of X_1

$$
f_{X_1}(x_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) dx_2 \ldots dx_n
$$

3.5 Density of the Sum of Independent r.v.'s

Equation. Let X and Y be 2 independent r.v.'s with densities f_X and f_Y respectively. $\mathbb{P}(X+Y\leq z) = \int$ ${x+y \leq z}$ $f_{X,Y}(x,y)\,\mathrm{d}x\,\mathrm{d}y$ $=$ \int^{∞} −∞ \int_0^{z-x} $\int_{-\infty} f_X(x) f_Y(y) \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}y$ $=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left(\int_{-\infty}^{z}f_{Y}(y-x)f_{X}(x)\,\mathrm{d}y\right)\,\mathrm{d}x$ $=$ \int^z −∞ $dy\left(\int^{\infty}$ $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Y(y-x) f_X(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \bigg)$ So the density of $X + Y$ is \int^{∞} $\int_{-\infty} f_Y(y-x) f_X(x) dx$

We call this function the convolution of f_X and f_Y

Definition. $f, g: 2$ densities

$$
f * g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x - y)g(y) dy =
$$
 convolution of f and g
Moral. We can non-rigorously show this

$$
\mathbb{P}(X + Y \le z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X + Y \le z, Y \in dy)
$$

$$
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X \le z - y) \mathbb{P}(Y \in dy)
$$

$$
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_X(z - y) f_Y(y) dy
$$

$$
\frac{d}{dz} \mathbb{P}(X + Y \le z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dz} F_X(z - y) f_Y(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(z - y) F_Y(y) dy
$$

So the density of $X + Y$ is

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(z - y) F_Y(y) dy
$$

3.6 Conditional Density

Definition. Let X and Y be continuous variables with joint density $f_{X,Y}$ and marginal densities f_X and f_Y . Then the **conditional density** of X given $Y = y$ is defined

$$
f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}
$$

3.7 Law of Total Probability

Equation.

$$
f_X(x) = \int_{\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x, y) dy = \int_{\infty}^{\infty} f_{X|Y}(x|y) f_Y(y) dy
$$

Remark. Want to define $\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = g(Y)$ for some function g. Define

$$
g(y) = \int_{\infty}^{\infty} x f_{X|Y}(x|y) \,dx
$$

Set $\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = g(Y)$ = conditional expectation of X given Y.

3.8 Transformation of a multidimensional r.v.

Theorem. Let X be a r.v. with values in $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and with density f_X . Let g be a bijection from D to $g(D)$ which has a continuous derivative on D and

 $\det g'(x) \neq 0 \,\forall x \in D$

Then the r.v. $Y = g(X)$ has density

$$
f_Y(y) = f_X(x) \cdot |J|
$$

where $x = g^{-1}(y)$ and J is the determinant of the Jacobian

$$
J = \det \left(\left(\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial y_j} \right)_{i,j=1}^d \right)
$$

Proof. We do not prove it here.

3.9 Order Statistics for a Random Sample

Method. Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be iid with distr. function F and density f. Put them in increasing order

$$
X_{(1)} \leq X_{(2)} \leq \cdots \leq X_{(n)}
$$

and set

$$
Y_i=X_{(i)}
$$

Then (Y_i) are the order statistics.

$$
\mathbb{P}(Y_1 \le x) = \mathbb{P}(\min(X_1, ..., X_n) \le x) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(\min(X_1, ..., X_n) > x) = 1 - (1 - F(x))^n
$$

$$
f_{Y_1}(x) = \frac{d}{dx} (1 - (1 - F(x))^n) = n \cdot (1 - F(x))^{n-1} \cdot f(x)
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}(Y_n \le x) = (F(x))^n
$$

$$
f_{Y_n}(x) = n(F(x))^{n-1} \cdot f(x)
$$

Density of Y_1, \ldots, Y_n ?

$$
\mathbb{P}(Y_1 \le x_1, ..., Y_n \le x_n) = n! \mathbb{P}(X_1 \le x_1, ..., X_n \le x_n, X_1 < X_2 < \cdots < X_n)
$$
\n
$$
= n! \int_{-\infty}^{X_1} \int_{u_1}^{X_2} \cdots \int_{u_{n-1}}^{x_n} f(u_1) \cdots f(u_n) \, \mathrm{d}u_1 \, \dots \, \mathrm{d}u_n
$$

by differentiating we get

$$
f_{Y_1,\ldots,Y_n}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \begin{cases} n!f(x_1)\ldots f(x_n) & \text{when } X_1 < X_2 < \ldots X_n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

Example. Let $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ and $X \sim \text{Exp}(\mu)$, $X \perp Y$. Set $Z = min(X, Y)$

$$
\mathbb{P}(Z \ge z) = \mathbb{P}(X \ge z, Y \ge z) = e^{-\lambda z} \cdot e^{-\mu z} = e^{-(\lambda + \mu)z}
$$

So $Z \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda + \mu)$ Mroe generally, if X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent with $X_i \sin \text{Exp}(\lambda_i)$ then

$$
\min(X_1, \ldots, X_n) \sim \operatorname{Exp}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i\right)
$$

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be iid $Exp(\lambda)$ and let Y_i be their order statistics

$$
Z_1 = Y_1, \ Z_2 = Y_2 - Y_1, \dots, Z_n = Y_n - Y_{n-1}
$$

Density of $(Z_1, \ldots, Z_n) = ?$

$$
Z = \begin{bmatrix} Z_1 \\ \vdots \\ Z_n \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{bmatrix}
$$

where

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ & & & \vdots & & \end{bmatrix}
$$

have det $A = 1$ and let $Z = Ay$, then

$$
y_j = \sum_{i=1}^j z_i
$$

$$
f(z_1,...,z_n)(z_1,...,z_n) = f(y_1,...,y_n)(y_1,...,y_n) \cdot |J|
$$

= $n!f(y_1)...f(y)n$
= $n! \lambda e^{-\lambda y_1} ... \lambda e^{-\lambda y_n}$
= $n! \lambda^n e^{-\lambda(nz_1 + (n-1)z_2 + ... + z_n)}$
=
$$
\prod_{i=1}^n (n-i+1) \lambda e^{-\lambda(n-i+1)} z_i
$$

So Z_1, \ldots, Z_n are independent and $Z_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda(n-i+1))$

3.10 Moment Generating Functions (mgfs)

Definition. Let X be a r.v. with density f . The **mgf** of X is defined to be $m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{\theta X}\right] = \int^{\infty}$ −∞ $e^{\theta x} f(x) dx$

whenever this integral is finite

 $m(0) = 1$

Theorem. The mgf uniquely determines the distribution of a r.v. provided it is defined for an open interval of values of θ .

Theorem. Suppose the mgf is defined for an open interval of values of θ . Then

$$
m^{(r)}(0) = \frac{\mathrm{d}^r}{\mathrm{d}\theta^r} m(\theta)|_{\theta=0} = \mathbb{E}[X^r]
$$

Example. Gamma distribution:

$$
f(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda x \lambda^n x^{n-1}}}{(n-1)!}, \ \lambda > 0, \ n \in \mathbb{N}, \ x \ge 0
$$

We denote X with density f as $X \sim \Gamma(m, \lambda)$ Check f is a density:

$$
I_n = \int_0^\infty f(x) dx
$$

=
$$
\int_0^\infty \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{n-1} x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} dx
$$

=
$$
\int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-\lambda x} \lambda^{n-1} \cdot (n-1) x^{n-2}}{(n-1) \cdot (n-2)!} dx
$$

=
$$
I_{n-1} = \dots = I_1
$$

for $n = 1$ $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \implies Exp(\lambda)$. So $I_1 = 1$

$$
m(\theta) = \int_0^\infty e^{\theta x} \cdot e^{-\lambda x} \cdot \frac{\lambda^n x^{m-1}}{(n-1)!}
$$

$$
= \int_0^\infty e^{(\lambda - \theta)x} \frac{\lambda^n x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} dx
$$

$$
= \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - \theta}\right)^n \text{ for } \lambda > 0
$$

Claim. Suppose that X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent r.v's. Then

$$
m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{\theta(X_1 + \dots + X_n)}\right] = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta X_i}]
$$

Example. Let $X \sim \Gamma(n, \lambda)$ and $Y \sim \Gamma(m, \lambda)$ and $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y$. Then

$$
m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{\theta(X+Y)}\right]
$$

= $\mathbb{E}[e^{\theta X}] \cdot \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta Y}]$
= $\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - \theta}\right)^n \cdot \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - \theta}\right)^m$
= $\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - \theta}\right)^{n+m}$ for $\theta < \lambda$

So by the uniqueness theorem we get $X + Y \sim \Gamma(n + m, \lambda)$. In particular, this implies that if X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid $Exp(1)$ (= $\Gamma(1, \lambda)$) then

$$
X_1 + \dots + X_n \sim \Gamma(n, \lambda)
$$

Remark. One could also consider $\Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$ ($\alpha > 0$) by replacing $(n - 1)!$ with $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int^{\infty}$ $\overline{0}$ $e^{-x} \cdot x^{\alpha-1} \, \mathrm{d}x$

Example. Normal distribution. Let $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ $2\pi\sigma^2$ $\exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ $2\sigma^2$ $x \in \mathbb{R}$ $m(\theta) = \int_{0}^{\infty}$ −∞ $e^{\theta x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ $2\pi\sigma^2$ $\exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ $2\sigma^2$ $\Big)$ dx $\theta x - \left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2}\right)$ $2\sigma^2$ $= \theta \mu + \frac{\theta^2 \sigma^2}{2}$ $\frac{(x - (\mu + \theta \sigma^2))^2}{2}$ $2\sigma^2$ So $m(\theta) = \int_{0}^{\infty}$ −∞ $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}}$ $\frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2}e^{\theta\mu+\theta^2\sigma^2/2}\exp\left(-\frac{(x-(\mu+\theta\sigma^2))^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ $2\sigma^2$ $\int dx = e^{\theta \mu + \theta^2 \sigma^2/2}$ as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}}$ $2\pi\sigma^2$ $\exp\left(-\frac{(x-(\mu+\theta\sigma^2))^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ $2\sigma^2$ \setminus gives normal distribution If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $aX + b \sim N(a\mu + b, a^2\sigma^2)$ So $\mathbb{E}[e^{\theta(aX+b)}] = e^{\theta(a\mu+b)+\theta^2a^2\sigma^2/2}$ Suppose $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and $Y \sim N(\mu, \tau^2)$ and $X \perp Y$ Then $\mathbb{E}[e^{\theta(X+Y)}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta X}] \cdot \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta Y}]$ $= e^{\theta \mu + \theta^2 \sigma^2/2} \cdot e^{\theta \nu + \theta^2 \tau^2/2}$ $= e^{\theta(\mu+\nu)+\theta^2(\sigma^2+\tau^2)/2}$ So $X + Y \sim N(\mu + \nu, \sigma^2 + \tau^2)$

Example. Cauchy distribution

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

$$
m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta X}]
$$

=
$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{\theta x}}{\pi(1+x^2)} dx
$$

=
$$
\infty \ \forall \theta \neq 0, \ (m(0) = 1)
$$

Suppose $X \sim f$. Then $X, 2X, 3X, \ldots$ all have the same mgf. However they do not have the same distribution. So assumption on $m(\theta)$ being finite for an open interval of values of θ is essential

3.11 Multivariate Moment Generating Function

Definition. Let $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ be a r.v. with values in \mathbb{R}^n . Then the **mgf** of X is defined to be

$$
m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta^T X}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta_1 X_1 + \dots + \theta_n X_n}]
$$

where

 $\theta = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_n)^T$

Theorem. In this case, provided mgf is finite for a range for values of θ , it uniquely determines the distribution of X. also

$$
\left. \frac{\partial^r m}{\partial \theta_i^r} \right|_{\theta=0} = \mathbb{E}[X_i^r]
$$

$$
\left. \frac{\partial^{r+s} m}{\partial \theta_i^r \partial \theta_j^s} \right|_{\theta=0} = \mathbb{E}[X_i^r X_j^s]
$$

$$
m(\theta) = \prod^n \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta_i X_i}] \text{ iff } X_1, \dots, X_n \text{ are indep.}
$$

Definition. Let $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$ be a sequence of r.v.'s and let X be another r.v. We say that X_n converges to X in distribution and write $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$, if

 $i=1$

 $F_{X_n}(x) \to F_X(x)$ $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ that are continuity points of F_X

Theorem (Continuity Property for mgf's). Let X be a r.v. with $m(\theta) < \infty$ for some $\theta \neq 0$. suppose that

 $m_n(\theta) \to m(\theta)$ $\forall \theta \in \mathbb{R}$ where $m_n(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta X_m}]$ and $m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta X}]$

Then X_n converges to X in distribution

3.12 Limit Theorems for Sums of iid r.v.'s

Theorem (Weak Law of Large Numbers). Let $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{R})$ be a sequence of iid r.v.'s with $\mu =$ $\mathbb{E}[X_1] < \infty$. Set

$$
S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n
$$

Then $\forall \varepsilon > 0$

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \varepsilon\right) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

Proof (assuming $\sigma^2 < \infty$ where $(\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(X_1)).$

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \varepsilon\right) = \mathbb{P}(|S_n - n\mu > \varepsilon n)
$$

$$
\leq \frac{\text{Var}(S_n)}{\varepsilon^2 n^2} = \frac{n\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2 n^2} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

$$
S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n \implies \text{Var}(S_n) = n\sigma^2
$$

Definition. A sequence (X_n) converges to X in probability and we write

$$
X_n \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} X \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

if $\varepsilon > 0$:

$$
\mathbb{P}(|X_n - X > \varepsilon) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

Definition. We say (X_n) converges to X with probability 1 or 'almost surely (a.s.)' if

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{n\to\infty}X_n=X\right)=1
$$

Claim. Suppose $X_n \to 0$ a.s. as $n \to \infty$. Then $X_n \xrightarrow{\mathbb{P}} 0$ as $n \to \infty$ Proof. NTS: $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \mathbb{P}(|X_n| > \varepsilon) \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$ or equivalently $\mathbb{P}(|X_n| \leq \varepsilon) \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$ $\mathbb{P}(|X_n| \leq \varepsilon) \geq \mathbb{P}$ $\sqrt{ }$ $\bigcap_{m=1}^{\infty}$ $m = n$ $\{|X_m| \leq \varepsilon\}$ A_n \setminus $A_n \subseteq A_{n+1}$ L n $A_n = \{ |X_m| \le \varepsilon$ for all m sufficiently large} So $\mathbb{P}(A_n) \to \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup$ n A_n \setminus as $n \to \infty$ So $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(|X_n| \leq \varepsilon) \geq \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup A_n\right) > \mathbb{P}\left(\lim_{X_n=0}\right) = 1$ **Theorem** (Strong law of large numbers). Let $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be an iid sequence of r.v.'s with $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X_1]$ < ∞.

Then setting

$$
S_N = X_1 + \dots + X_n
$$

we have

$$
\frac{S_n}{n} \to \mu \text{ as } n \to \infty \text{ a.s.}
$$

$$
\left(\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{S_n}{n} \to \mu \text{ as } n \to \infty\right) = 1\right)
$$

Proof (non-examinable). Assume further that $\mathbb{E}[X_1^4] < \infty$ Set $Y_i = X_i - \mu$. Then $\mathbb{E}[Y_i] = 0$ and

$$
\mathbb{E}[Y_1^4] \le 2^4 (\mathbb{E}[X_1]^4 + \mu^4) < \infty
$$

It suffices to prove

$$
\frac{S_n}{n} \to 0 \text{ where } S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \text{ with } \mathbb{E}[X_i] = 0 \text{ and } \mathbb{E}[X_i^4] < \infty
$$
\n
$$
S_n^4 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^4 = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^4 + \binom{4}{2} \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} X_i^2 X_j^2 + R
$$

where R is a sum of terms of the form $X_i^2 X_j X_k$ or $X_i^3 X_j$ or $X_i X_j X_k X_l$ for i, jk, l distinct.

$$
\mathbb{E}[S_n^4] = n\mathbb{E}[X_1^4] + {4 \choose 2} \frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2} \mathbb{E}[X_1^2 X_2^2] + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[R]}_{=0}
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{E}[S_n^4] \le n \cdot \mathbb{E}[X_1^4] + 3n(n-1)\mathbb{E}[X_1^4]
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}[S_n^4] \le 3n^2 \mathbb{E}[X_1^4]
$$

So

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right)^4\right] \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \infty \frac{3}{n^2} \mathbb{E}[X_1^4] < \infty
$$

which implies that

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right)^4 < \infty \text{ w.p. 1}
$$

$$
\implies \frac{S_n}{n} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty \text{ w.p. 1} \square
$$

Equation. Suppose $\mathbb{E}[X_1] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X_1) = \sigma^2 < \infty$

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}
$$

$$
\frac{S_n - \mu}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu\right)}} = \frac{S_n - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} = \frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}
$$

3.13 Central limit theorem

Theorem. Let $(X_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be an iid sequence of rv.'s with $\mathbb{E}[X_1] = \mu$ and $\text{Var}(X_1) = \sigma^2$. Set

$$
S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n
$$

Then

$$
\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \ \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \le x\right) \to \Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{e^{-y^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \, \mathrm{d}y \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

In other words,

$$
\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} Z
$$

where $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ CLT says that for n large enoguh

$$
\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \approx Z \ Z \sim N(0, 1)
$$

$$
\implies S_n \approx n\mu + \sigma\sqrt{n}Z \sim N(n\mu, \sigma^2 n)
$$
 for *n* large

Proof. Consider $Y_1 = (X_i - \mu)/\sigma$. Then $\mathbb{E}[Y_1] = 0$ and $\text{Var}(Y_i) = 1$. It suffices to prove the CLT when

$$
S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n \text{ with } \mathbb{E}[X_i] = 0 \text{ and } \text{Var}(X_i) = 1
$$

Assume further that $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t.

$$
\mathbb{E}[e^{\delta X_1}] < \infty \text{ and } \mathbb{E}[e^{-\delta X_1}] < \infty
$$

NTS

$$
\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} \to N(0, 1) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

By the continuity property of mgf's, it suffices to show $\forall \theta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\theta S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right] \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta Z}] = e^{\theta^2/2}
$$

Set

$$
m(\theta = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta X_1}]
$$

Then

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\theta S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right] = \left(\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\theta X_1/\sqrt{n}}\right]\right)^n = \left(m\left(\frac{\theta}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^n
$$

NTS

$$
\left(m\left(\frac{\theta}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^n \to e^{\theta^2/2} \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

$$
|\theta| \le \frac{\delta}{2} m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{\theta X_1}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[1 + \theta X_1 + \frac{\theta^2 X_1^2}{2!} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\theta^k X_1^k}{k!}\right]
$$

Theorem (cont.).

Proof (cont.). So

$$
m(\theta) = 1 + \frac{\theta^2}{2} + \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k \ge 3} \frac{\theta^k X_1^k}{k!}\right]
$$

Claim. It suffices to prove that

$$
\left| \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{k \ge 3} \frac{\theta^k X_1^k}{k!} \right] \right| = o(|\theta|^2) \text{ as } \theta \to 0
$$

Once we prove this bound, then

$$
m\left(\frac{\theta}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 1 + \frac{\theta^2}{\sqrt{n}} = 1 + \frac{\theta^2}{2n} + o\left(\frac{|\theta|^2}{n}\right)
$$

and hence

$$
\left(m\left(\frac{\theta}{\sqrt{n}}\right)\right)^m \to e^{\theta^2/2} \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

Proof (of claim).

$$
\left| \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{k \ge 3} \frac{\theta^k X_1^k}{k!} \right] \right| \le \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{k \ge 3} \frac{|\theta|^k X_1^k}{k!} \right]
$$

$$
= \mathbb{E} \left[|\theta X_1|^3 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{|\theta X_1|^k}{(k+3)!} \right]
$$

$$
\le \mathbb{E} \left[|\theta X_1|^3 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{|\theta X_1|^k}{k!} \right]
$$

$$
\le \mathbb{E} \left[|\theta X_1|^3 \cdot e^{\frac{\delta}{2} |X_1|} \right]
$$

as $|\theta| \leq \frac{\delta}{2}$.

$$
|\theta X_1|^3 e^{\frac{\delta}{2}|X_1|} = |\theta|^3 \frac{\left(\frac{\delta}{2}|X_1|\right)^3}{3!} \cdot \frac{3!}{\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)^3} \cdot e^{\frac{\delta}{2}|X_1|}
$$

$$
\leq \frac{3! |\theta|^3}{\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)^3} e^{\delta |X_1|}
$$

$$
= 3! \cdot \left(\frac{2|\theta|}{\delta}\right)^3 e^{\delta |X_1|}
$$

$$
e^{\delta |X_1|} \leq e^{\delta X_1} + e^{-\delta X_1}
$$

so

$$
\left| \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k\geq 3} \frac{\theta^k X_1^k}{k!} \right] \right| \leq 3! \cdot \left(\frac{2|\theta|}{\delta}\right)^3 \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[e^{\delta|X_1|} + e^{-\delta|X_1|}]}_{\leq \infty} = o((|\theta|^2) \text{ as } \theta \to 0 \square
$$

3.14 Applications

Example. Normal approximation to the binomia distr. Let $S_n \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ $S_n = \sum_{n=1}^{n}$ $i=1$ X_i , (X_i) iid ~ Ber(p) $\mathbb{E}[S_n] = np$, $\text{Var}(S_n) = np(1-p)$ So by the CLT $S_n - np$ $\sqrt{np(1-p)}$ $\stackrel{d}{\to} N(0,1)$ as $n \to \infty$

So

$$
S_n \approx N(np, np(1-p))
$$
 for *n* large

$$
\text{Bin}\left(n, \frac{\lambda}{n}\right) \to \text{ Poi}(\lambda) \ \lambda > 0
$$

Example. Normal approx. to the Poisson distribution: Let $S_n \sim \text{Poi}(n)$.

$$
S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, (X_i) \text{ iid } \sim \text{ Poi}(1)
$$

$$
\frac{S_n - n}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

3.15 Sampling Error via the CLT

 $\bf{Example.}$ Pick N individuals at random. Let

$$
\hat{p}_N = \frac{S_N}{N}
$$

where \mathcal{S}_N is the number of yes voters. How large should N be so that

$$
|\hat{p}_N - p| \le \frac{4}{100}
$$
 w.p. ≥ 0.99 ?

By the CLT

$$
S_N \approx Np + \sqrt{Np(1-p)} \cdot Z
$$
, where $Z \sim N(0, 1)$

So

$$
\hat{p}_N = \frac{S_N}{N} \sim p + \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}} \cdot Z \implies |\hat{p}_N - p| \approx \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}} \cdot |Z|
$$

Find N s.t.

$$
\mathbb{P}(|\hat{p}_N - p| \le 0.04) \ge 0.99
$$

or equivalently

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}}\cdot|Z|\leq 0.04\right)\geq 0.99
$$

 $z = 2.58 \mathbb{P}(|Z| \ge 2.58) = 0.01$ So we need

$$
0.04\sqrt{\frac{N}{p(1-p)}} \ge 2.58 \implies N \ge 1040
$$

3.16 Buffon's Needle

Example (cont.). S_n = number of needles intersecting a line

 $S_n \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$

By the CLT, $S_n \sim np + \sqrt{np(1-p)} \cdot Z, Z \sim N(0, 1)$

$$
\hat{p}_n = \frac{S_n}{n} \approx p + \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} \cdot Z
$$

So

$$
\hat{p}_n - p \approx \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}.
$$

Define $f(x) = \frac{2l}{xL}$. Then $f(p) = \pi$ and $f'(p) = -\pi/p$ and $\hat{\pi}_n = f(\hat{p}_n)$. By Taylor expansion, $\hat{\pi}_n = f(\hat{p}_n) \approx f(p) + (\hat{p}_n - p)f'(p)$

$$
\implies \hat{\pi}_n \approx \pi - (\hat{p}_n - p) \cdot \frac{\pi}{p}
$$

$$
\implies \hat{\pi}_n - \pi \approx -\frac{\pi}{p} \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} = -\pi \sqrt{\frac{1-p}{pn}} \cdot Z
$$

We want

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\pi \sqrt{\frac{1-p}{pn}} \cdot |Z| \leq 0.001\right) \geq 0.99
$$

Have $\mathbb{P}(|Z| \geq 2.58) = 0.01$ and $\pi^2 \cdot \frac{1-p}{pn}$ decreasing in p. Minimise $\pi^2 \cdot \frac{1-p}{pn}$ by taking $l = L \implies p = \frac{2}{\pi}$ and 2

$$
\text{Var} = \frac{\pi^2}{n} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - 1 \right)
$$

Taking

$$
\sqrt{\frac{\pi^2}{n} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - 1 \right)} \cdot 2.58 = 0.001 \implies n = 3.75 \times 10^7
$$

3.17 Bertrand's Paradox

3.18 Multidimensional Gaussian r.v.'s

Definition. A r.v. X with values in $\mathbb R$ is called **Gaussian**/ normal if

$$
X = \mu + \sigma Z, \ \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \ \sigma \in [0, \infty] \text{ and } Z \sim N(0, 1)
$$

The density of X is

$$
f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \ x \in \mathbb{R}
$$

 $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Definition. Let $X = (X_1, ..., X_n)^T$ with values in \mathbb{R}^n . Then X is a Gaussian vector or is just $\textrm{called Gaussian if } \forall u=(u_1,\dots,u_n)^T\in\mathbb{R}^n$

$$
u^T X = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i X_i
$$
 is a Gaussian r.v. in R

Example. Suppose X is Gaussian in \mathbb{R}^n . Suppose A is an $m \times n$ matrix and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then $AX + b$ is also Guassian in \mathbb{R}^m .

Proof. Let $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then

$$
u^T (AX + b) = (u^T A) X + u^T b
$$

Set $v = A^T u$. Then

$$
u^{T}(AX + b) = v^{T}X + u^{T}b = v^{T}X + \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i}b_{i}
$$

Since X is Gaussian, we get $v^T X$ is Gaussian, and also $v^T X + u^T b$ is Gaussian.

Definition.

\n
$$
\mu = \mathbb{E}[X] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[X_1] \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}[X_n] \end{bmatrix} \mu_i = \mathbb{E}[X_i]
$$
\n
$$
V = \text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu) \cdot (X - \mu)^T] = \begin{bmatrix} \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \mathbb{E}[(X_i - \mu_i)(X_j - \mu_j)] \\ \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}
$$

Equation. V is a symmetric matrix

$$
\mathbb{E}[u^T X] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n u_i X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \mu_i = u^T \mu
$$

$$
\text{Var}(u^T X) = \text{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n u_i X_i\right) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n u_i \text{Cov}(X_i X_j) u_j = u^T V u
$$

So $u^T X \sim N(u^T \mu, u^T V u)$

Claim. *V* is a non-negative definite matrix/ $(\forall u \in \mathbb{R}^n, u^T V u \ge 0)$

Proof. Let $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

 $\text{Var}(u^T X) = u^T V u$

Since $\text{Var}(u^T X) \geq 0$, we have

 $u^T V u \geq 0$

Method. Finding mgf of X :

$$
m(\lambda) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda^T X}] \,\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n, \,\,\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)^T
$$

$$
m(\lambda) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda^T X}] = e^{\lambda^T \mu + \lambda^T V \lambda/2}
$$

We know

$$
\lambda^T X \sim N(\lambda^T \mu, \lambda^T V \lambda)
$$

So $m(\lambda)$ is characterised by μ and V. Since the mgf uniquely characterises the distribution, we see that a Gaussian vector is uniquely characterised by its mean μ and variance V . In this case we write $X \sim N(\mu, V)$

Claim. Let Z_q, \ldots, Z_n iid $N(0, 1)$ r.v.'s. Set $Z = (Z_1, \ldots, Z_n)^T$. Then Z is a Gaussian vector. **Proof.** $\forall u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $u^T Z$ is Gaussian. $u^T Z = \sum_{n=1}^{n}$ $i=1$ $u_i Z_i$ NTS $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$ $\sum_{i=1} u_i Z_i$ is normal. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. $\mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i Z_i}] = \mathbb{E}[\prod_{i=1}^{n}$ $i=1$ $e^{\lambda u_i Z_i}$ $=\prod^{n}$ $i=1$ $\mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda u_i Z_i}]$ $=\prod^{n}$ $i=1$ $e^{(\lambda u_i)^2/2}$ $= e^{\lambda^2 |u|^2/2}$ So $u^T Z \sim N(0, |u|^2)$ $\mathbb{E}[Z] = 0 \text{ Var}(Z) = I_n =$ \lceil \vert 1 . . . 1 1 \parallel So $Z \sim N(0, I_n)$

Method. Let $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and V a non-negative definite matrix. We want to construct a Gaussian vector with mean μ and variance V using Z. $n = 1: \mu, \sigma^2: \text{ If } Z \sim N(0, 1) \text{ then } \mu + \sigma Z \sim N(\mu + \sigma^2)$ Since V is non-negative, definite, $V = U^T D U$ with $U^{-1} = U^T$ and

$$
D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}
$$

and $\lambda_i \geq 0$ $\forall i$ We define the square root of V to be the matrix

$$
\sigma = U^T \sqrt{D} U
$$

where

$$
\sqrt{D} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sqrt{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix}
$$

Indeed

$$
\sigma \cdot \sigma = U^T \sqrt{D} U U^T \sqrt{D} U = U^T D U = V
$$

Let $Z = (Z_1, \ldots, Z_n)$ with (Z_i) iid $N(0, 1)$ r.v.'s Set $X = \mu + \sigma Z$

Claim. $X \sim N(\mu, V)$

Proof. X is Gaussian, since it is a linear transformation of the Gaussian vector Z.

 $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$

and

$$
Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)(X - \mu)^T]
$$

= $\mathbb{E}[(\sigma Z) \cdot (\sigma Z)^T]$
= $\mathbb{E}[\sigma Z \cdot Z^T \cdot \sigma^T]$
= $\sigma \cdot \mathbb{E}[Z \cdot Z^T] \sigma$
= $\sigma I_n \sigma$
= $\sigma \sigma$
= $V \square$

Method. Finding density of $X \sim N(\mu, V)$

$$
n = 1: X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2) f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)
$$

Case V is positive definite $(\lambda_i > 0 \ \forall i)$:

$$
X = \mu + \sigma Z, Z \sim N(0, I_n)
$$

$$
f_X(x) = f_Z(z) \cdot |J| \ x = \mu + \sigma z
$$

Since V is positive definite, σ is invertible So

$$
x = \mu + \sigma z \implies z = \sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)
$$

So

$$
f_X(x) = f_Z(z) \cdot |J| = \prod_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{e^{-z_i^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \right) \cdot |\det \sigma^{-1}|
$$

\n
$$
\implies f_X(c) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} e^{-|z|^2/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det V}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det V}} e^{z^T z/2}
$$

\n
$$
z^T \cdot z = (\sigma^{-1}(x - \mu))^T (\sigma^{-1}(x - \mu))
$$

\n
$$
= (x - \mu)^T (\sigma^{-1})^T \sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)
$$

\n
$$
= (x - \mu)^T \sigma^{-1} \sigma^{-1} \cdot (x - \mu)
$$

\n
$$
= (x - \mu)^T \cdot V^{-1} \cdot (x - \mu)
$$

Therefore

$$
f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det V}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{(X-\mu)^T \cdot V^{-1}(x-\mu)}{2}\right)
$$

Case V is non-negative definite, so some eigenvalues could be 0. By an orthogonal change of basis, we can assume that

$$
V = \begin{bmatrix} U & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 where U is an $m \times n$ ($m < n$) positive definite matrix

We can write $X = \begin{bmatrix} Y \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ ν where Y has density

$$
f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^m \det U}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y-\lambda)^T \cdot U^{-1}(y-\lambda)}{2}\right)
$$

Claim. If the X_i 's are independent, then V is a diagonal matrix

Proof. Since the X_i 's are independent, it follows that $Cov(X_i, X_j) = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$. So V is diagonal.

Lemma. Suppose that X is a Gaussian vector. Then if V is a diagonal matrix, then the X_i 's are independent

Proof (1st). If *V* is diagonal, then the density $f_X(x)$ factorises into a product. Indeed,

$$
(x - \mu)^T V^{-1} (x - \mu) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \mu_i^2)}{\lambda_i} V = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \lambda_i > 0
$$

so

$$
f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det V}} \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \mu_i)^2}{2\lambda_i}\right)
$$

Hence the X_i 's are indep.

Proof $(2nd)$.

$$
m(\theta) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\theta^T X}] = e^{\theta^T \mu + \theta^T V \theta/2} = e^{\sum \theta_i \mu_i} \cdot e^{\sum \theta_i \lambda_i/2}
$$

So $m(\theta)$ factorises into the mgf's of Gaussian r.v.'s in \mathbb{R} \Box

Moral. So for Gaussian vectors we have

$$
(X_1, \ldots, X_n)
$$
 are independent iff $Cov(X_i, X_j) = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$

3.19 Bivariate Gaussian

Definition. $n = 2$ Let $X = (X_1, X_2)$ be a Gaussian vector in \mathbb{R}^2 . Set $\mu_k = \mathbb{E}[X_k], k = 1, 2$. Set $\sigma_k^2 = \text{Var}(X_k)$

$$
\rho = \text{Corr}(X_1, X_2) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X_1, X_2)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_1)\text{Var}(X_2)}}
$$

Claim. $\rho \in [-1, 1]$

Proof. Immediate from the Cauchy-Schwartz ineq. \Box

$$
V = \text{Var}(X) = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \\ \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix}
$$

1

Claim. For all $\sigma_k > 0$ and $\rho \in [-1, 1]$

$$
V = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \\ \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 is non-negative definite

Proof. Let $u \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$
u^T V u = (1 - \rho)(\sigma_1^2 u_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \sigma_2^2) + \rho(\sigma_1 u_1 + \sigma_2 u_2)^2
$$

=
$$
\underbrace{(1 + \rho)(\sigma_1^2 u_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 u_2^2) - \rho(\sigma_1 u_1 - \sigma_2 u_2)^2}_{\geq 0 \ \forall \rho \in [-1,1]}
$$

Equation. When $\rho = 0$ and $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 > 0$, then

$$
f_{X_1,X_2}(x,x_2) = \prod_{k=1}^{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_k - \mu_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}\right)
$$

So X_1 and X_2 are independent in this case. More generally, suppose (X_1, X_2) is a Gaussian vector. want to find $\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_1].$ Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Consider $X_2 - aX_1$.

$$
Cov(X2 - aX1, X1) = Cov(X2, X1) - aCov(X1, X1)
$$

= Cov(C₁, X₂) - aVar(X₁)
= $\rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 - a \sigma_1^2$

Take $a = (\rho \sigma_2)/\sigma_1$. Then $Cov(X_2 - aX_1, X_1) = 0$. Set $Y=X_2-aX_1$

Claim. (X_1, Y) is a Gaussian vector

Proof.

 $\left\lceil X_1 \right\rceil$ Y $= \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$ $-a$ 1 $\bigcap X_1$ X_2 1 So X_1Y is of the form $A\begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ X_2 where $\begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$ X_2 is a Gaussian vector. **Equation.** From the criterion of independence, we get X_1 is independent of Y, since (X_1, Y) is Gaussian and $Cov(X_1, Y) = 0$. Have $Y = X_2 - aX_1$ so we can express

$$
X_2 = X_2 - aX_1 + aX_1 = Y + aX_1
$$

and

$$
\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_1] = \mathbb{E}[Y + aX_1|X_1] = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[Y|X_1]}_{=\mathbb{E}[Y]} + \underbrace{a\mathbb{E}[X_1|X_1]}_{=X_1]}
$$

using $Y \perp \!\!\! \perp X_1$. So

 $\mathbb{E}[X_2|X_1] = \mathbb{E}[Y] + aX_1$

 (X_1, X_2) Gaussian, $(X_2 - aX_1, X_1)$ is Gaussian and $X_2 - aX_1 \perp \perp X_1$.

$$
X_2 = X_2 - aX_1 + X_1
$$

So given X_1 ,

$$
X_2 \sim N(aX_1 + \mu_2 - a\mu_1, \text{Var}(X_2 - aX_1)
$$

where

 $Var(X_2 - aX_1) = Var(X_2) + a^2 Var(X_1) - 2aCov(X_1, X_2)$

3.20 Multivariate CLT (non-examinable)

Equation. Let X be a random vector in R^k with $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$ and covariance matrix σ . Let X_1, X_2, \ldots be iid with same distribution as X . Then

$$
S_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_1 - \mathbb{E}[X_i]) \xrightarrow{(d)} N(\mu, \sigma) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

Convergence distribution means that " \forall " $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$

$$
\mathbb{P}(S_n \in B) \underset{n \to \infty}{\to} \mathbb{P}(N(\mu, \Sigma) \in B)
$$

Example. Let $U \sim U[0, 1]$. Set $X = -\log U$

$$
\mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \mathbb{P}(-\log U \le x) = \mathbb{P}(U \ge e^{-x}) = 1 - e^{-x}
$$

So $X \sim \text{Exp}(1)$

Theorem. Let X be a continuous r.v. with distribution function F. Then if $U \sim U[0, 1]$ we have that $F^{-1}(U) \sim F$

Proof. Set $Y = F^{-1}(U)$

$$
\mathbb{P}(Y \le x) = \mathbb{P}(F^{-1}(U) \le x) = \mathbb{P}(U \le F(x)) = F(x) \square
$$

3.21 Rejection Sampling

Example. Suppose $A \subset [0,1]^d$. Define $f(x) = \frac{1(x \in A)}{|A|}, |A| = \text{ volume of } A$ Let X have density f . How can we simulate X ? Let $(U_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be an iid sequence of d-dimensional uniforms, i.e. $U_n = (U_{k,n} : k \in \{1, \ldots, d\}), (U_{k,n})_{(k,n)}$ iid ~ $U[0,1]$ Let $N = \min\{n \geq 1 : U_n \in A\}$ Claim. $U_N \sim f$ **Proof.** We want to show that $\forall B \subseteq [0,1]^d$ $\mathbb{P}(U_N \in B) = \int_B$ $f(X) dx$ $\mathbb{P}(U_N \in B) =$ \sum ^{[n]∞} $i=1$ $\mathbb{P}(U_N \in B, N = n)$ $=\sum^{\infty}$ $n=1$ $\mathbb{P}(U_n \in A \cap B, U_{n-1} \notin A, \ldots, U_1 \notin A)$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n}$ \sum^{∞} $n=1$ $\mathbb{P}(U_n \in A \cap B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(U_{n-1} \notin A) \dots \mathbb{P}(U_1 \notin A)$ $=\sum^{\infty}$ $n=1$ $|A \cap B|(1-|A|)^{n-1}$ $=\frac{|A\cap B|}{|A|}$ $|A|$ and we have: $|A \cap B|$ $\frac{|A|}{|A|} = \int$ A $1(x \in B)$ $\frac{x \in B}{|A|} dx = \int$ B $f(x) dx$

Example. Suppose f is a density on $[0, 1]^{d-1}$ which is bounded, i.e.

 $\exists \lambda > 0 \text{ s.t. } f(x) \leq \lambda \ \forall x \in [0, 1]^{d-1}$

Want to sample $X \sim f$. Consider

$$
A = \{(x_1, \ldots, x_d) \in [0, 1]^d : x_d \le f(x_1, \ldots, x_{d-1})/\lambda\}
$$

From the above we know how to generate a uniform random variable on A. Let $Y = (X_1, \ldots, X_d)$ be this r.v. Set $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_{d-1})$

Claim. $X \sim f$

Proof. We need to show that $\forall B \subseteq [0,1]^{d-1}$

$$
\mathbb{P}(X \in B) = \int_B f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x
$$

Have:

$$
\mathbb{P}(X \in B) = \mathbb{P}((X_1, \dots, X_{d-1}) \in B) = \mathbb{P}((X_1, \dots, X_d) \in (B \times [0, 1]) \cap A) = \frac{|(B \times [0, 1]) \cap A|}{|A|}
$$

as Y is uniform on A

$$
|(B \times [0,1]) \cap A| = \int \cdots \int 1((x_1,\ldots,x_d) \in B \times [0,1] \cap A) dx_1 \ldots dx_d
$$

\n
$$
= \int \cdots \int 1((x_1,\ldots,x_{d-1}) \in B) \left(x_d \le \frac{f(X_1,\ldots,x_{d-1})}{\lambda} \right) dx_1 \ldots dx_{d-1}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_B f(x) dx
$$

\n
$$
|A| = \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_{[0,1]^{d-1}} f(x) dx
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{\lambda}
$$

\nSo
\n
$$
\mathbb{P}(X \in B) = \int_B f(X) dx
$$