

variance:-

variance is approx. as. MIND THE "N-1"

$$\text{variance} = S^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_1^N (\bar{x} - x_i)^2$$

N-1: very technical reason.

computed for large N values.

$\sqrt{\text{variance}} = \sigma = S = \text{standard deviation.}$



spread & variance (or) S.D. deviation.

\*  $x_i \rightarrow ax_i + b$



Standard deviation  $\times a$

practical application:-

- 1) 100gm chips is told. make sure avg @ 100gm &  $\sigma$  is low.
- 2) definit<sup>n</sup> of medical diseases:-

"deficiency of RBC"

"osteoporosis" - low bone density

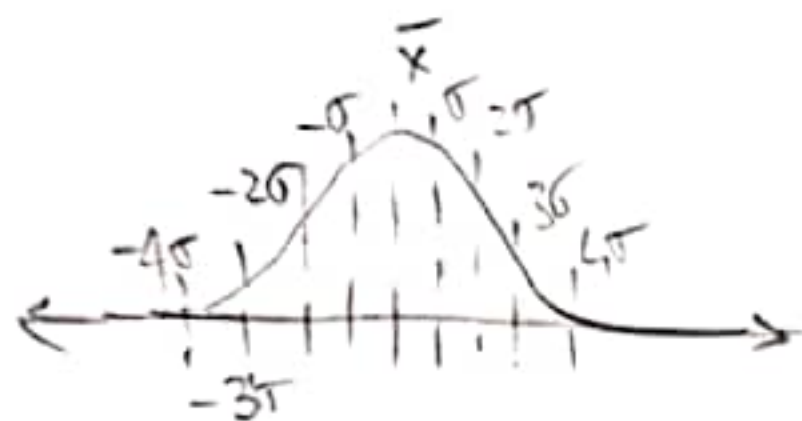
we have limits hal.

"Two sided -

→ Chebyshev's inequality:- suggests upper limit.

"The proportion of sample points; K or more than K ( $K > 0$ ) standard deviations away from the sample mean, is less than or equal to  $\frac{1}{K^2}$ "

\* Bcoz; if they are more than  $\frac{N}{K^2}$  (proportion) squared their sum contribution in  $\sigma^2$  eqn would overshoot  $\sigma^2$  itself.

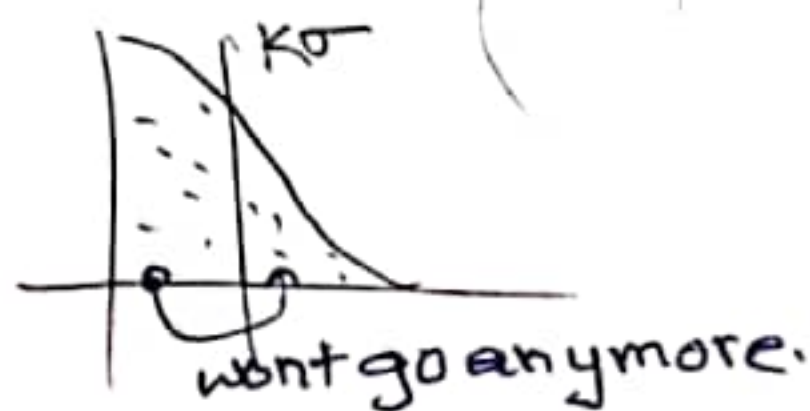


Bounds are LOOSE, but NOT wrong.

$$S_k = \{x_i : |x_i - \bar{x}| \geq k\sigma\}$$

then  $\frac{|S_k|}{N} \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$

\* Gives lower bound on elements within  $k\sigma$  & upper bound on those, out of  $k\sigma$ .



$$\frac{|S_k|}{N} \leq \frac{1}{k^2} \quad \text{lol.}$$

proof:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$(n-1)\sigma^2 = \underbrace{\sum_{x_i \in S_k} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}_{\text{near to mean}} + \underbrace{\sum_{x_i \notin S_k} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}_{\text{far to mean}}$$

$$\therefore (n-1)\sigma^2 > \sum_{x_i \in S_k} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \geq |S_k| \cdot (k\sigma)^2$$

$$\therefore (n-1)\sigma^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2 |S_k|$$

$$\leftarrow \frac{1}{k^2} \geq \frac{1}{n-1} \geq \frac{|S_k|}{N}$$

→ one sided chebysev's inequality: is stronger

chebyshev-cantelli inequality:-

"the proportion of sample points,  $K$  or more than  $K$  s.d.s away from sample mean, & greater than the sample mean,

is less than or equal to  $\frac{1}{1+K^2}$ "

$$S_K = \{x: x_i - \bar{x} \geq K\sigma\}$$

$$\frac{|S_K|}{N} \leq \frac{1}{1+K^2}$$

Not an absolute value.

Stronger than 2-sided chebysev.

but weaker, when we use

this, to compute:

$$S_K = \{x: |x_i - \bar{x}| \geq K\sigma\}$$

$$\frac{|S_K|}{N} \leq \frac{2}{1+K^2}$$

weaker than

$$\frac{1}{K^2}$$

Proof:-

$$\{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$$

$$\text{let } y_i = x_i - \bar{x}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i + b)^2 \geq \sum_{i: y_i \geq K\sigma} (y_i + b)^2 \quad \underline{b > 0}$$

$$\geq \sum_{i: y_i \geq K\sigma} (K\sigma + b)^2$$

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^N y_i^2 \right) + nb^2 \geq |S_K| \cdot (K\sigma + b)^2$$

$$(n-1)\sigma^2 + nb^2 \geq |S_K| \cdot (K\sigma + b)^2$$

$$\therefore |S_K| \leq \frac{(n-1)\sigma^2 + nb^2}{(K\sigma + b)^2}$$

$$\frac{|S_K|}{n} < \frac{\sigma^2 + b^2}{(K\sigma + b)^2} \quad \text{for } b > 0 \text{ any! ...}$$

choose  $b$ , such that RHS minimised...

diff....

$$(K\sigma + b)^2 (2b) - (K\sigma + b)(2)(\sigma^2 + b^2)$$

$$(K\sigma + b)(2) [K\sigma b + b^2 - \sigma^2 - b^2]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sigma^2}{K}$$

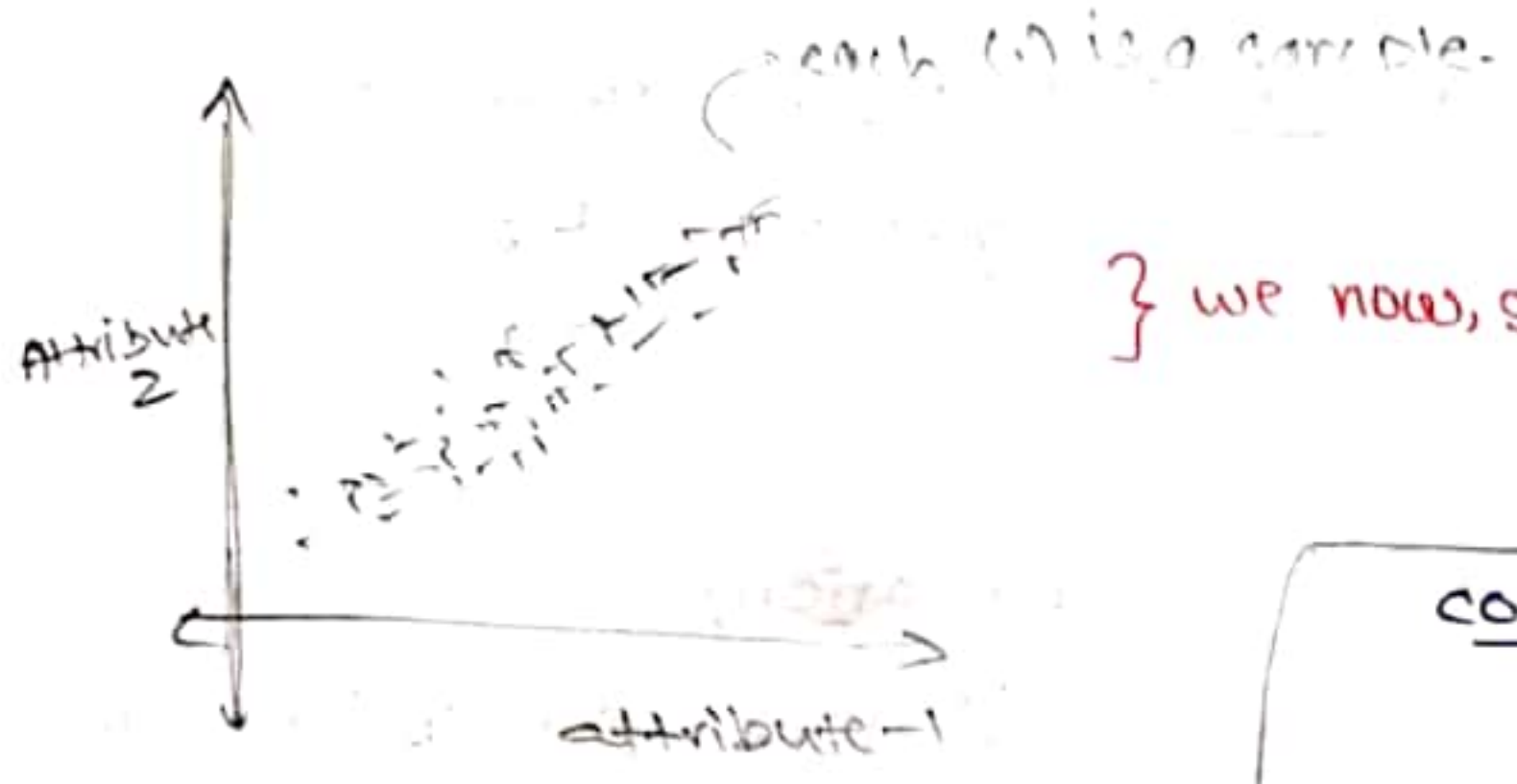
$$\therefore \text{RHS} = \frac{1}{1+K^2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{|S_K|}{n} < \frac{1}{1+K^2}$$

\* correlation b/w different attributes of same sample points:-

Eg: high fat intake → high heart disease.  
 high smokes → high cancer rates.

• use scatter plots:-



} we now, see a correlation na!  
 (able to suggest 'y' based on 'x' & vice versa).

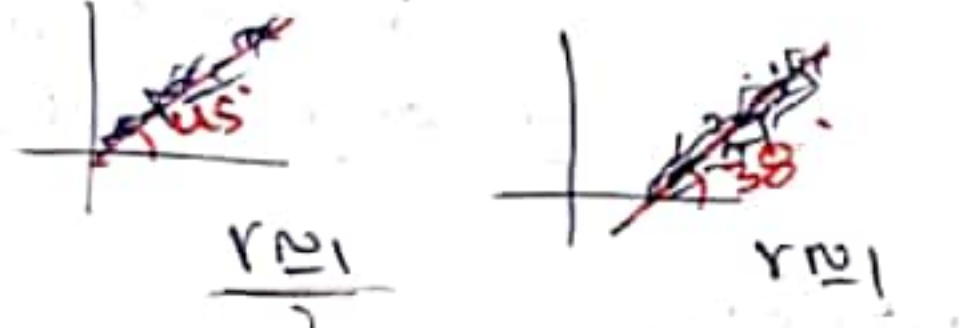
correlation coefficient:-

$(x_i, y_i)$  be sample points.  
 $\sigma_x, \sigma_y$  be standard deviations.  
 then.

$$r(x, y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{(\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2)(\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2)}}$$

$\in [-1, 1]$   
 Cauchy Schwartz inequality

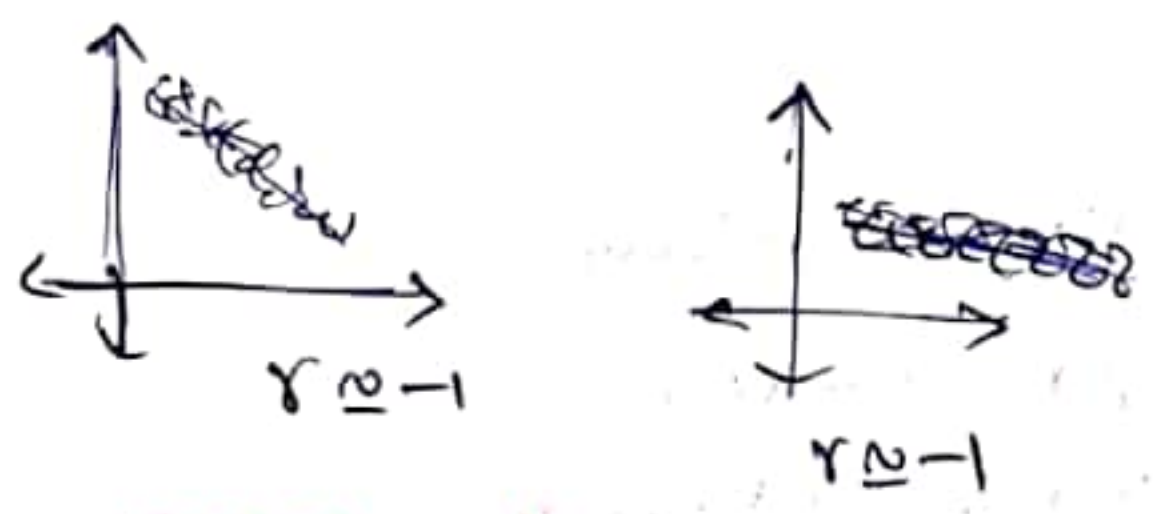
1)  $r > 0$ : positive correlation.



\* depends on "spread"  
not angle,  
not intercept.  
 $(\sum (x_i - \bar{x}) \cdot (\sum (y_i - \bar{y})))$

$$r(x, y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{n-1 \cdot \sigma_x \cdot \sigma_y}$$

2)  $r < 0$ : negative correlation



see spread; for magnitude.

NOT slope  
 NOT intercept.

since  $\left. \begin{matrix} x_i - \bar{x} \\ y_i - \bar{y} \end{matrix} \right\}$  intercept lost

$\therefore \left. \begin{matrix} x, ax+b \\ C.F = 1 \text{ if } a > 0 \\ C.F = -1 \text{ if } a < 0 \end{matrix} \right\}$

$\left. \begin{matrix} ( ) \\ ( ) \end{matrix} \right\}$  due to this division; slope lost.

\* take two vectors; in a n-dimension space.

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \hat{r}_1 + x_2 \hat{r}_2 + \dots + x_n \hat{r}_n$$

$$\vec{x} - (\bar{x}) \cdot \vec{u} = (x_1 - \bar{x}) \hat{r}_1 + \dots + (x_n - \bar{x}) \hat{r}_n$$

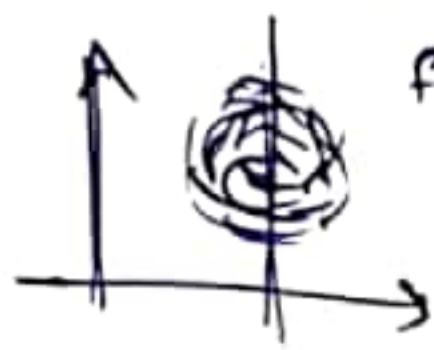
$$\vec{y} - (\bar{y}) \cdot \vec{u} = (y_1 - \bar{y}) \hat{r}_1 + \dots + (y_n - \bar{y}) \hat{r}_n$$

$\therefore$  correlation factor = {angle's cosine} b/w the two "data" vectors.

(PTO).

correlation:- How strongly; I can suggest a unique 'y' for a unique 'x'.

r is defined & 0:-



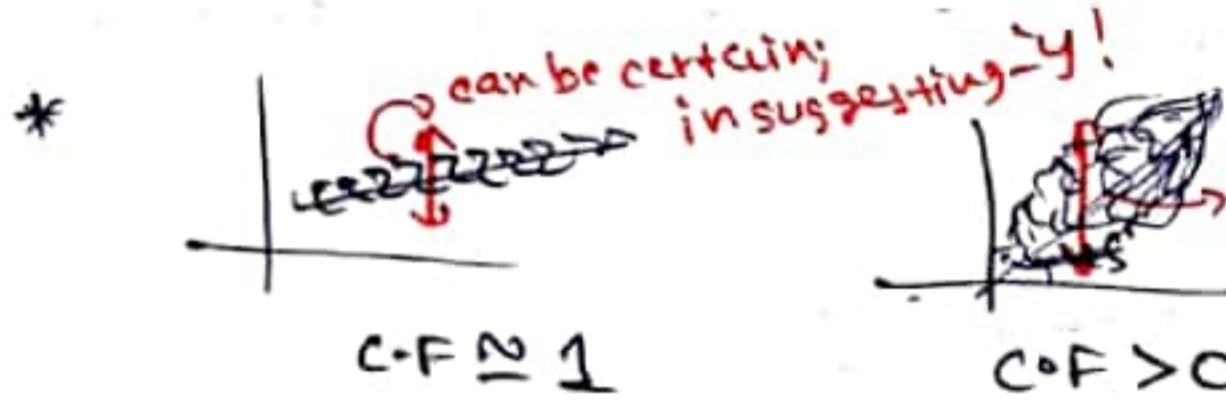
for an  $x$ ; can't at all suggest a  $y$ .

Numerator = 0  
deno.  $\neq 0$ .



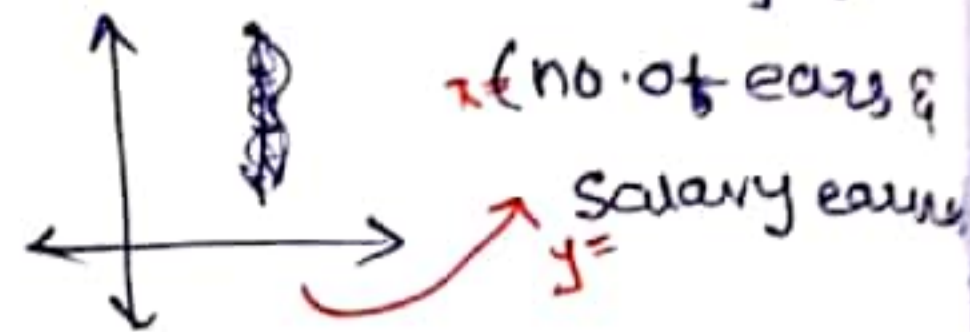
$\rightarrow$  We can say for sure,  
both are 0-correlated.

i.e. no relationship both.



as spread more.

r is undefined  $\rightarrow$  for  $x$ , i can say  $y$ ,  
but for  $y$ , i can't say  $x$ .



Numerator = 0  
denominator = 0

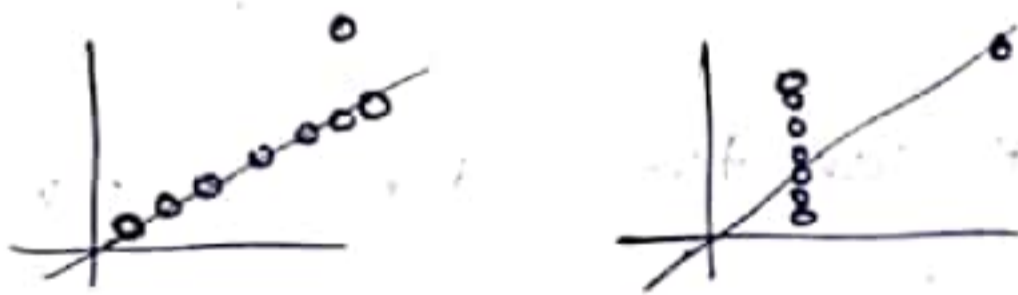
We can't say any correlation,  
not even 0!

correlation;  
if for some  $x$ , i am able to "suggest"  $y$ ; then I can say correlation.  
How strong I can say, that much correlation.  
So; doesn't depend on line's slope.

\* correlation coefficient - sensitive to outliers.  
(error; don't fit on graph).

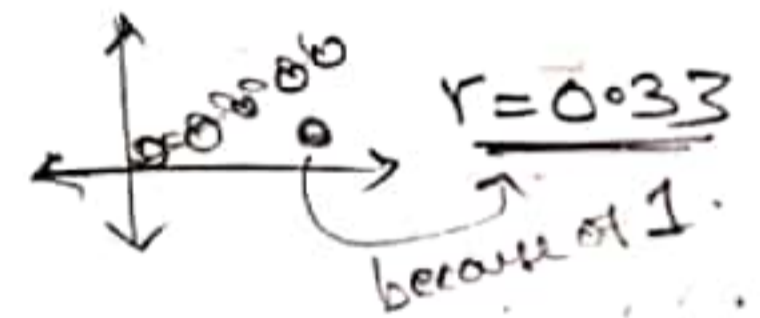
• Ascombe's quartet.

- graphically very different; but same CF.



have same correlation coefficient

very misleading!  
need to examine graph.



\*  $r_{uncentered}(x,y) = \frac{\sum x_i y_i}{\sqrt{(\sum x_i^2)(\sum y_i^2)}}$  - used SOMEWHERE...

\* correlation doesn't mean causation.

*[Faint, illegible handwritten text, likely bleed-through from the reverse side of the page.]*

# Discrete Probability: (11, 12<sup>th</sup> topic).

\* B is proper subset of A:

$$B \subset A$$

$$B \neq A \text{ \& } B \subseteq A$$

$\therefore$  B can be NULL.

\* Boole's inequality:

$$P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A \cap B)$$

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

\* \* Bonferroni's inequality:

$$P(A \cap B) \geq P(A) + P(B) - 1$$

(loose lower bound;  $\therefore$  no other info, except  $P(A), P(B)$ )

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) \geq 1 - n + \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$$

\* conditional probability:

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

*(A); given B happened*

*notation*

\* joint probability:

$$\text{joint } P() \text{ of } A, B = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A, B)} = P(A, B) \text{ (Nothing!)}$$

*implies they are dependent!*  
*mutually exclusive events are not independent!*

$$P(A \cap B) = 0 \text{ but neither } P(A) = 0 \text{ or } P(B) = 0 \therefore P(A \cap B) \neq P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

\* Independent events:

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

for n-events:

for any  $K; K \leq n$  events:

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_K) = \prod_{i=1}^K P(A_i), K \leq n \neq K$$

\* only n-way independence doesn't imply events are independent.

\* also  $A, B^c$   
 $A', B'$   
 $A', B$  } are independent

Bayes theorem:

$$P(B/A) = \frac{P(BA)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A|B) \cdot P(B)}{P(A|B) \cdot P(B) + P(A|B^c) \cdot P(B^c)}$$

B happens;  
given A happens.

A, B happens

AB happens

A, B<sup>c</sup> happens

Both

A happens

$$\therefore P(A) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B) + P(A|B^c) \cdot P(B^c)$$

in fact; in place of B, B<sup>c</sup>; you can have ANY number of

- pairwise mutually exclusive
- exhaustive

events.

\* Probability of B, given A

$$= \frac{\text{no. of A \& B events}}{\text{no. of A, B} + \text{no. of A, B}^c}$$

SIMPLE!

B<sup>c</sup> could be

Event C

Event D

So, more terms in denominator.

# Random variable:-

## overview:-

- discrete & continuous random variables
- probability mass function (normal wala, for discrete)  
probability density function (pdf)  
cumulative distribution function (cdf)
- joint & conditional pdf.
- expectation operator. (a linear operator)  
 $E[ax+b] = a \cdot E[x] + E(b)$
- variance & co-variance
- Markov's & Chebyshev's inequality.
- weak law of large numbers
- Moment generating functions.

## weighted mean:

- expectation value; not same as most probable value!  
(English misused)
- $E(x) \rightarrow$  might not exist!  
 $P_x(x) = 1/x^2 \cdot k$
- $E(x) \rightarrow$  might not be a valid sample point.  
(dice throw;  $E(x) = 3.5$ )

\*  $X, x \rightarrow$  R.V.'s value  
↳ R.V. name

$P(X=x)$  is a probability mass function.

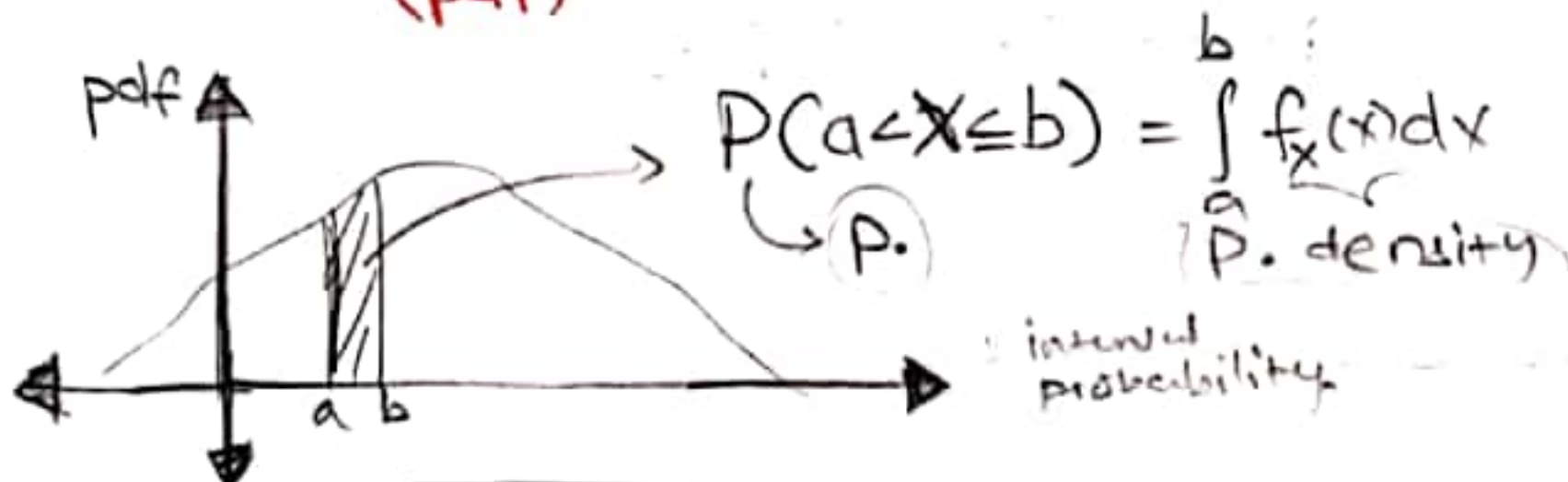
## - continuous random variables:-

- \*  $P(X=x) = 0$  for any  $x$ .  
(as, only many  $x$  are there).
- unlike discrete;  
 $P(X=x) = 0$  doesn't imply  $x=x$  doesn't occur. It may occur!

define  $P(X \leq x)$  exists!  
(cdf)

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

now;  $f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(F_X(x))$  how much probability in interval  $dx$ !  
probability density function. (pdf)



$$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$$

$$F_X(x) = 1 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

let  $X$  be a random variable

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_X(x) dx$$

let  $g(x)$  be another random variable  
inc. func.  $y$   
then

LOTUS:

law of the unconscious statistician.

$$E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f_X(x) dx$$

> should have been:

$$E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f_Y(y) dy$$

Proof:  $y = g(x)$   $F_C$   $\rightarrow$  cdf

$$F_Y(y) = F_X(g^{-1}(y))$$

common sense.

$\frac{d}{dx}$  on both sides.

$$f_Y(y) \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(g^{-1}(y))$$

$$\therefore f_Y(y) dy = f_X(x) dx$$



→ Expected value:

$E[\ ] \rightarrow$  expectation.

- also called mean value of random variable.

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X=\chi_i) \cdot \chi_i$$

for discrete.

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_x(x) dx$$

**NOTE:**  $E(X) \neq \text{mode}(X)$  } damn geezers  
 $E(X) = \text{mean}(X)$  } were weak with english.

-  $E(X)$  might not even be a valid value of  $X$ .  
 - might not even exist!

(as  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_x(x) dx \rightarrow \infty$ ).

\* say; i have a new random variable,  $y$   
 $y = g(x)$ .

(equal; if  $g(x)$  is linear in  $x$ ).

then;  $E(y)$  need not equal  $g(E(x))$

$$E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot f_x(x) \cdot dx$$

**LOTUS**

might seem obvious

but; obvious - only for discrete  $x$ ;

for continuous  $x$ ;

$$E(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \cdot f_y(y) \cdot dy$$

We can show both same;  
 (proof on before page.)

\*  $E(aX+b) = a \cdot E(X) + b$

equal to  $E(b)$

**Linearity**

an "OPERATOR"

\*  $E(g_1(x) + g_2(x) + \dots) = E(g_1(x)) + E(g_2(x)) + \dots$

→ Markov's inequality:

let  $\chi > 0$  be the possible values of  $X$ .

then

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E(X)}{a}$$

where  $a > 0$

very very loose

proof:

$$E(X) = \int_0^a x f_x(x) dx + \int_a^{\infty} x f_x(x) dx$$

$$E(X) \geq \int_a^{\infty} x f_x(x) dx$$

$$E(X) \geq \int_a^{\infty} a \cdot f_x(x) dx$$

$$P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{E(X)}{a}$$

weak; - usually  $PHS \gg LH$

\* mean  $\rightarrow$  minimizes the expectation of "squared error" to 0.  
 (expected value)  $\rightarrow$  minimizes  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-c)^2 f_x(x) dx$

median  $\rightarrow$  minimizes  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x-x_0| \cdot f_x(x) dx$

$F_x(\text{median}) = 0.5$   
 cdf.

$\hookrightarrow$  a parameter  
 later called as median  
 (do by differentiation) ...

variance:

$\sigma^2 = \text{var} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 \cdot f_x(x) dx$

$\rightarrow$  might not exist; as integral may go  $\infty$ .

$\sigma =$  positive sqrt(var)

\* also

$\text{var} = E((x-\mu)^2)$   
 $= E(x^2 - 2\mu x + \mu^2)$   
 $= E[x^2] - \mu^2$

\*  $\text{var.} = E[x^2] - (E[x])^2$

\*  $\text{var}[ax+b] = a^2 \cdot \text{var}[x]$

$f(x) = \frac{k}{x^2}$   
 suppresses mean ( $x^1$ )  
 but not variance ( $x^2$ )

cases:

- i) mean  $\times$  variance } possible
- ii) mean  $\sqrt{\text{variance}}$  } possible
- iii) mean  $\times$  variance  $\checkmark$  } ~~possible~~  
 $\therefore$  mean is part of variance

INEQUALITIES:

\* if  $x > 0$ . then;

$P(x \geq a) \leq \frac{E[x]}{a}$

$\rightarrow$  mean.  
 $\rightarrow$  MARKOV'S inequality - WEAK

often:  $\text{RHS} \gg \text{LHS}$

Proof:

$E(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_x(x) dx$   
 $= \int_0^a x \cdot f(x) dx + \int_a^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$   
 $> \int_0^a x f(x) dx \rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} a \cdot f(x) dx$

$\therefore \int_0^{\infty} f_x(x) dx \leq \frac{E(x)}{a}$

→ Chebyshev's inequality:-

$$P\{|X - \mu| \geq k\} \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{k^2}$$

proof: take  $Y = (X - \mu)^2$  ...  $Y \geq 0$   
markov's on  $Y$  with  $a = k^2$

& hence;

$$P\{|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma\} \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow P\{(X - \mu)^2 \geq k^2\} \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{k^2} \text{ [def'n of variance; } \sigma^2 = E((X - \mu)^2)\text{]}$$

→ Weak law of large numbers:-

Good proof, dammit!

case:

I roll a die  $n$  times. what is the average value of die output?

wikipedia graph:



So; why is average 3.5 as  $n$  increases?

Ans:

you know... 1 to 6 are equi-probable; so  $\dots = \frac{1}{6}(1+2+3+4+5+6) = 3.5$  da.

childish argument!

→ Marly arg:-

1) take  $n$  dice.

2)  $X_i$  = random variable showing output on  $i$ th die. → mean =  $\mu$  = same for all.  
So; associate each outcome with a random var.

3) So; now; we need:-

$$E\left(\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}\right) \text{ } \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{multiple random variables...} \\ \text{nope!} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{> we need } P\left(\left\{\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} = \mu\right\}\right) = 1$$

Strong law of large nos...

(not expected value; we need to show; that mean  $\in$  it's unique value)

4)

Weak law of large numbers:-

let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a seq. of independent & identical random variables; with mean  $\mu$  (same for all);  
then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ;

$$P\left\{\left|\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \epsilon\right\} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Proof:- by Chebyshev's

$$\left(\because E\left(\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}\right) = \mu\right)$$

$$P\left\{\left|\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n} - \mu\right| > \epsilon\right\} \leq \frac{\text{var}\left(\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}\right)}{\epsilon^2}$$

$$\text{var} \left( \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var} \left( \frac{x_i}{n} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n \text{covar} \left( \frac{x_i}{n}, \frac{x_j}{n} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n \cdot \sigma^2 + 0$$

$\therefore$  identical distribution.  $= 0$  for independent events.

$$\therefore P\left\{ \left| \bar{x} - \mu \right| \geq \epsilon \right\} \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n \epsilon^2}$$

$$\therefore \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty;$$

$$\underline{P\left\{ \left| \bar{x} - \mu \right| \geq \epsilon \right\} \rightarrow 0}$$

↓  
can have  $n^2$  term, if not!

comments on weak law:

- (i) assumption of identical  $\sigma$  is not necessary. but, should be finite.
- (ii) Independence is NOT needed; Just hav to be pair-wise uncorrelated.

- (i)  $\text{covar}(\cdot) = 0$
- or
- (ii) coeff. of correlation = 0.

5) Strong law of large numbers:-

$$P\left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n} = \mu \right) = 1$$

(weak law; tends to 1)

what shit kadha!

Note:

So; here; finally when we compute ll of 500 dice throws;

1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, ...

$$\mu = 1$$

1, 6, 2, 5, 3, 4, 1, 6, 2, 5, 3, 4, ...

$$\mu = 3.5$$

2, 2, 2, 2, ...

$$\mu = 2$$

probability =  $\left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^n$   
 $\approx 0$  for large 'n'.

Both are possible values for mean; even after 500 tries

**But!  $P(\mu = 3.5)$  is tending to 1.**

Hence; we write a new random variable; using  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  (i.e. their mean)

& find  $P(\text{new rand-var} = \mu)$ .

might not be high; for small 'n'.

but  $\rightarrow 1$ ; for  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

$\therefore$  weak law of large numbers..

- (Incorrect) law of averages. (Gambler's fallacy)

coin tossed 20 times  $\rightarrow$  20 heads.

States.  $\rightarrow$  so; next time; higher probability for tails. B.S.

next time also, same probability.

$\therefore$

20 heads + 1 Head

20 heads + 1 tail

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{21}$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{21}$$

$\checkmark$

Joint Pdfs:- Joint Cdfs:-

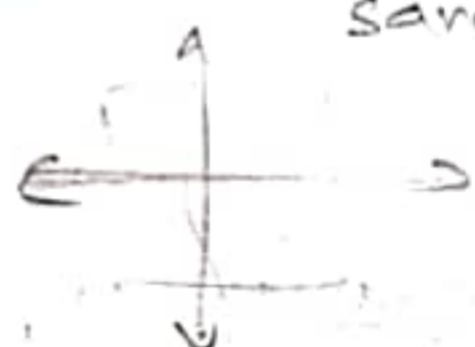
\* For continuous r.v.  $X, Y$ .

$\rightarrow$   $F_{xy}(x, y) = P\{X \leq x, Y \leq y\}$  - 2D plot of distribution of elements in sample space

also

$\rightarrow F_x(x) = P\{X \leq x, -\infty \leq Y \leq \infty\}$

same  $F_y(y)$



"↑" These definitions are extended; to approach more variables.

$\rightarrow$  joint pdf:-

for 1 variable; density over line;

for 2 variable; density over plane.

for probability in a region  $C$ :

$$P((x, y) \in C) = \iint_{(x, y) \in C} f_{xy}(x, y) dx dy. \checkmark$$

For discrete case:-

$$P(x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P(x_i, y_j)$$

now;

$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(x, y) dy$$

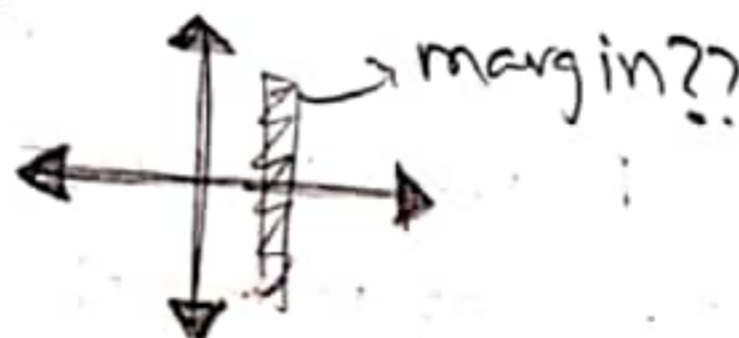
$$\therefore f_{xy}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F_{xy}(x, y)$$

cool!

$\rightarrow$  marginal pdf:-

$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(x, y) dy$$

$$f_y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{xy}(x, y) dx$$



> Independent Random Variables:-

$$f_{xy}(x,y) = f_x(x) \cdot f_y(y)$$

"Joint pdf = product of marginal pdfs"

& consequently,

$$F_{xy}(x,y) = F_x(x) \cdot F_y(y)$$

capital means cumulative.

COVARIANCE:-

product.....

$$\boxed{COV(X,Y) = E[(X-\mu_x)(Y-\mu_y)]}$$

don't write simply  $E(X \cdot Y)$ !

hence  $COV(X,X) = Var(X) = E[(X-\mu)^2]$

\*  $COV(X,Y) = E(XY - \mu_x Y - \mu_y X + \mu_x \mu_y)$

$$\boxed{COV(X,Y) = E(XY) - E(X) \cdot E(Y)}$$

properties:-

- 1)  $COV(X,Y) = COV(Y,X)$
- 2)  $COV(aX, bY) = a \cdot b \cdot COV(X,Y)$
- 3) coefficient of correlation:-

$$\boxed{r(X,Y) = \frac{COV(X,Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X) \cdot Var(Y)}}$$

connect with stuff; in discrete statistics...

4)  $COV(X+Z, Y) = COV(X, Y) + COV(Z, Y)$

prove from,

$$COV(X, Y) = E(XY) - E(X) \cdot E(Y)$$

5)  $COV(\sum_i X_i, \sum_j Y_j) = \sum_i \sum_j COV(X_i, Y_j)$  forall!

6)

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} Var(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n Var(X_i) \\ \text{COVAR} &= + \sum_{i \neq j} COVAR(X_i, X_j) \\ (X_1 + X_2 + \dots, X_1 + X_2 + \dots) & \end{aligned}}$$

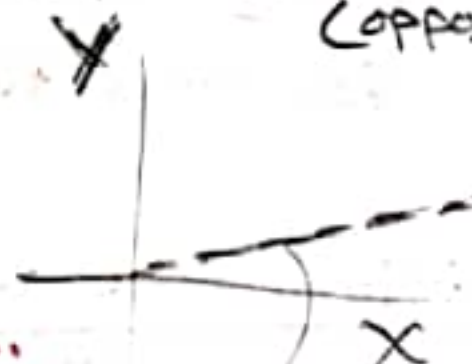
if n such random variables are independent then;

any K ( $K \leq n$ ) such r.v.s should be "independent"

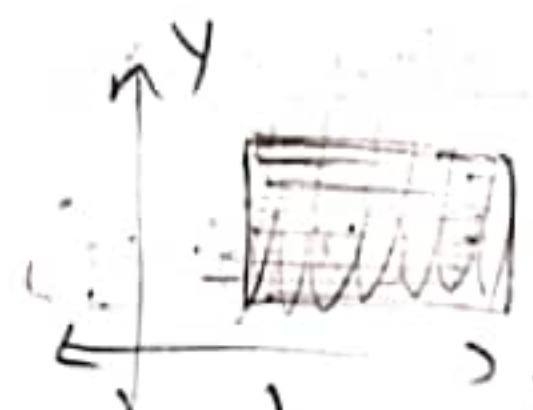
i.e. joint pdf = product of marginal pdfs.

pairwise independent is necessary; not sufficient.

co-variance  $\equiv$  co-relation.  
co-variance independent (opposite)



$r(X,Y) = 1$   
 $\therefore$  covariance is max.  
i.e. fully dependent (X,Y) are...



graph; if X,Y are independent correlation = 0.  
COV = 0

\* for independent events;

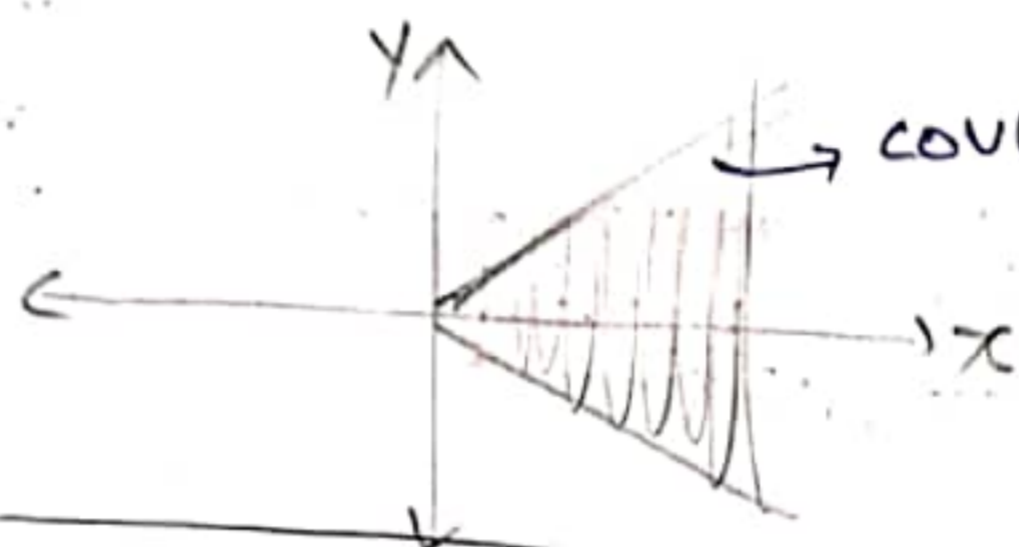
$$E(XY) = E(X) \cdot E(Y)$$

$$\text{COV}(X, Y) = 0, \text{ for independent events}$$

'CO' - variance (varying together) is 0.

but;

if  $\text{COV}(X, Y) = 0$  then independent **is wrong**.



$\text{COV}(X, Y) = 0$  ( $\because$  for every  $(x, y)$ ; we get  $+y, -y$ )

$\therefore X, Y$  are not independent

$\because y \in [-x, x]$

(if  $X, Y$  are independent, then graph gotta be sq.)

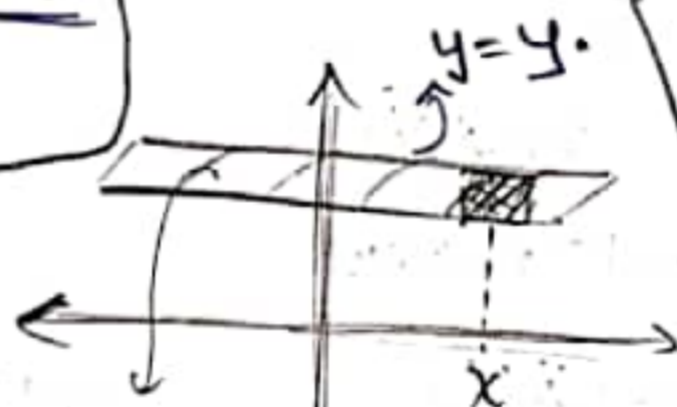
$\rightarrow$  conditional pdf, cdf:-

joint pdf is  $f_{XY}(x, y)$

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

a function in  $x$ .

$Y = y$  is fixed.  
for conditional.



this line density

is  $f_{X|Y}(x, y)$  **proof** **vaughly**

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

sample space is  $(-\infty, \infty)$

$(y, y + \delta y)$

needed is

$(x, x + \delta x) \cdot (y, y + \delta y)$

points in

$(x, x + \delta x)$

$(y, y + \delta y)$

points in  $(-\infty, \infty)$  &

$(y, y + \delta y)$

• conditional cdf:

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

$\checkmark \checkmark$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{f_{XY}(z, y) dz}{f_Y(y)}$$

• conditional mean & variance:-

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

$$\text{VAR}(X|Y=y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E(X|Y=y))^2 \cdot f_{X|Y}(x, y) dx$$

take care!

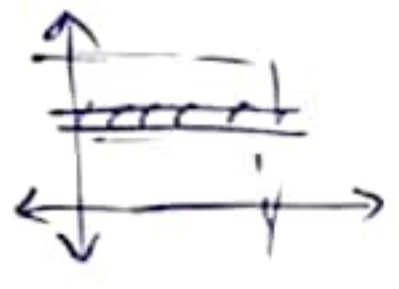
not regular  $\mu_x$ .

lol.....

Eg:  $f_{xy}(x,y) = 2.4x(2-x-y)$   $0 < x < 1$   
 $0 < y < 1$

find conditional density of  $X$  given  $Y=y$ .

Soln



$$f_{x|y}(x,y) = \frac{f_{xy}(x,y)}{f_y(y)} = \frac{f_{xy}(x,y)}{\int_0^1 f_{xy}(x,y) dx}$$

$y = \text{parameter constant}$

$$\therefore f_{x|y}(x,y) = \frac{6x(2-x-y)}{4-3y}$$

MOMENT GENERATING FUNCTIONS:-

\* Moment of random var.  $X$  of order  $n$ ; is  $E(X^n)$ .

$\therefore m_1 = E(X) = \text{mean}$

$m_2 = E(X^2)$

$\rightarrow$  2nd order moment

$m_i = E(X^i)$

$\rightarrow$   $i$ th order moment

$E(X)$   
 mass moment  
 moment of inertia  
 $(E(X^2))$   
 mass = probability mass

\* Moment generating function: (MGF)

function; to generate various order-moment of  $X$ .

$\phi_x(t) = E(e^{tx})$  ;  $t$  is a function parameter

$= E(1 + \frac{tx}{1} + \frac{(tx)^2}{2!} + \dots)$

$\phi_x'(t) = E(\frac{x}{1} + 2 \cdot t \cdot \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots)$

The MGF is a compact way of encapsulating all  $\infty$  moments of  $X$ .

$\phi_x'(0) = E(X) = 1^{\text{st}}$  order moment.

$\phi_x''(0) = E(X^2) = 2^{\text{nd}}$  order moment.

$\phi_x^{(k)}(0) = E(X^k) = k^{\text{th}}$  order moment

moment 'generating' function  $\phi_x(t)$ .



## Properties of MGF:-

1) if  $X, Y$  are independent;

$$\phi_{X+Y}(t) = \phi_X(t) \cdot \phi_Y(t)$$

$$\iint e^{t(x+y)} \cdot \text{pdf} \cdot \text{pdf} \\ = E[A \cdot B] = E[A] \cdot E[B]$$

2)

$$\phi_{aX+tb}(t) = e^{tb} \cdot \phi_X(at)$$

3) let  $Z$  be  $X$  with probability  $P$   
 &  $Y$  with " "  $(1-P)$

$$\phi_Z(t) = P \cdot \phi_X(t) + (1-P) \phi_Y(t)$$

→ Uniqueness:- (crazy!)  $\phi_X(t)$  generates 'm' moments, which uniquely determine

\* Pdf completely determines a random variable  $X$ .

claim:

→ A MGF can uniquely determine a Pmf/Pdf & thus

uniquely define a  $X$  random variable

ii) case of discrete:

$$\text{MGF} = E(e^{tX}) = \sum P(x_i) \cdot e^{tx_i}$$

$e^{kx}$  all are independent vectors kadhha.

say; PMF of two random variables  $X, Y$  exist

$$\& \text{ say } \phi_X(t) = \phi_Y(t)$$

compare coeff. of  $e^{t \cdot c}$  (this is bcoz; every  $e^{kx}$  is a base vector...)

$$P(X=c) = P(Y=c) \text{ for any } c$$

∴ since PMF<sub>X,Y</sub> are equal;

$$X \triangleq Y$$

like

$$\text{if } a \cdot e^{k_1 x} = b \cdot e^{k_2 x}$$

then

$$a=b,$$

$$k_1=k_2$$

(ii) This uniqueness between MGF & PDF can be shown for continuous X too!

(formidable proof)

Proof: Suppose

$$X \quad Y$$

$$f_X(x) \quad f_Y(y)$$

$$\phi_X(t) = \phi_Y(t)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f_X(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ty} f_Y(y) dy \dots$$

like, do

fourier transform

for  $MGF_X(t)$

do fourier

transform

for  $\phi_Y(t)$ .

$$\underline{\underline{\sin(t)}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx$$

find  $f(x)$  from this

fourier transform

# Families of Random variables.

discrete distribution

continuous distribution.

## Discrete distn:

1) Bernoulis -  $X$  is head; for a coin toss.

PMF:  $P(X=1) = p$  ;  $P(X=0) = 1-p$        $p$  is parameter.  
that is.      so Bernouli.

\*  $E(X) = p$

\*  $Var(X) = p(1-p)$

mode ✓  
median  $[0,1]$

$MGF = (1-p + pe^{t-1})$

## Binomial:

$n$ -coins; with 'p' for heads, for each coin.

PMF:  $P(X=i) \rightarrow i$  heads exact, among  $n$  coins.  
$$= {}^n C_i \cdot p^i (1-p)^{n-i}$$
       $[n, p]$  parameters.

$E(X)$ : let  
\*  $X_i$  = Bernouli value for  $i$ th coin.  
note that:

$$X = \sum X_i$$

$$E(X) = E(\sum X_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n p$$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
H	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
T	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

$X = 6$  ✓

$E(X) = np$

## Var:

$$var(X) = var(\sum X_i) = \sum var(X_i) = np(1-p)$$

∵ independence among  $X_i$ 's.

MGF:  $= (1-p + p \cdot e^t)^n$

(∵  $\phi_X(t) = \phi_{\sum X_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n \phi_{X_i} = (1-p + p e^t)^n$ )

! only if independent.

### 3) Multinomial:-

instead of  $n$ -coins; we have  $n$ -dices.

• Here random variable  $X$ : is vector.

$$P(X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]) = \frac{n!}{x_1! \dots x_n!} \cdot p_1^{x_1} \cdot p_2^{x_2} \dots p_n^{x_n}$$

$(\because \sum x_i = n)$ ;  $(\because \sum p_i = 1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= [E(x_1), E(x_2), \dots, E(x_n)] \\ &= [E(\sum x_{ij}), E(\sum x_{2j}), \dots] \\ &= [n \cdot p_1, n \cdot p_2, \dots, n \cdot p_k]. \end{aligned}$$

Variance:

$$\begin{aligned} V(x_i) &= \text{Var} \left( \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} \right) \\ &= \underline{n \cdot p_i (1 - p_i)} \end{aligned}$$

\* for  $X_j$  we write covariance matrix

$$= \begin{bmatrix} C(x_1, x_1) & C(x_1, x_2) & \dots \\ C(x_2, x_1) & \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

note that  $C(x_i, x_i) = \text{Var}(x_i) = n \cdot p_i (1 - p_i)$

$C(x_i, x_j) = -n p_i p_j$  ] proved in video.

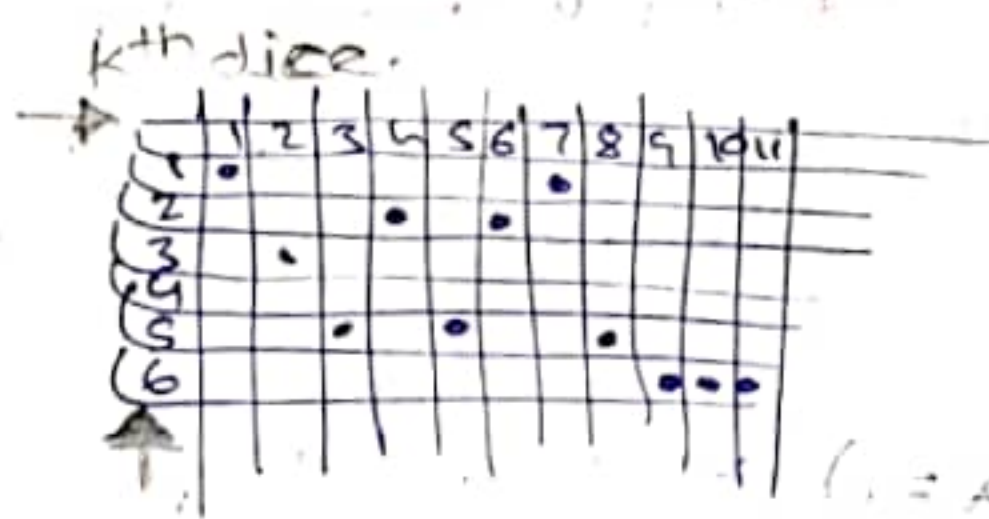
covar matrix:-

symmetric,  
diagonal positive, remaining negative.

MGF: = take only  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{k-1}$

$$= (p_1 \cdot e^{t_1} + p_2 \cdot e^{t_2} + \dots + p_{k-1} \cdot e^{t_{k-1}} + 1 - p_1 - p_2 - \dots - p_{k-1})^n$$

(we do with  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{k-1}$  to get the vector components)



$x_i \rightarrow$   $i$ th possible value of an outcome.

$x_{ij} \rightarrow$  the bernoullie variable, with  $P(x_i) = p_i$  in, the  $j$ th dice throw.

# 4) Hypergeometric distribution:

sampling without replacement.

Say  $N$  - good objects,  $M$  - bad objects; total pick  $n$  - objects.  
 i.e.  $x=1$   $x=0$ .

$$P(X=i) = \frac{{}^N C_i \times {}^M C_{n-i}}{{}^{N+M} C_n} ; \text{ } X \text{ is hypergeometric r.v.}$$

${}^a C_b = 0$ , if  $b > a$ , or  $b < 0$ .

\*  $P(X_i) = N / (N+M)$  ( $\because P(X_1) = \frac{N}{N+M}$ )

meaning:  
 good object came  
 in  $i$ -th pick.  
 - a Bernoulli R.V.

$P(X_2) = P(X_2=1 | X_1=1) \cdot P(X_1=1) + P(X_2=1 | X_1=0) \cdot P(X_1=0)$   
 can tell directly. we've no data.  
 $= \frac{N}{N+M}$  (on simplification)

\*  $E(X) = E(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)$   
 $= n \cdot \frac{N}{N+M}$

$\text{var}(X_i) = \frac{NM}{(N+M)^2}$  (equal to  $p_i \cdot (1-p_i)$ )

\*  $\text{var}(X) = \text{var}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)$

$= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var}(X_i) + \sum_i \sum_{j \neq i} \text{covar}(X_i, X_j)$

$X_i, X_j$  are not independent

$= np(1-p) \left[ 1 - \frac{n-1}{N+M-1} \right]$

covar( $X_i, X_j$ ):

$= E(X_i \cdot X_j) - E(X_i) \cdot E(X_j)$   
 $= P(X_i X_j = 1) \cdot 1 + P(X_i X_j = 0) \cdot 0 - E(X_i) \cdot E(X_j)$   
 $= P(X_i=1, X_j=1) - E(X_i) \cdot E(X_j)$   
 $= \frac{N-1}{N+M-1} \cdot \frac{N}{N+M} - \left( \frac{N}{N+M} \right)^2$   
 $= \frac{-NM}{(N+M-1)(N+M)^2}$

## Geometric distribution:-

\* probability that first heads occurs in the  $k^{\text{th}}$  trail

$$f_x(k) = (1-p)^{k-1} \cdot p; \text{ Here } P(X > k) = (1-p)^k$$

memory less

~~XXXXXX~~

$$P(X > s+t) = P(X > s) \cdot P(X > t)$$

$$\text{mean} = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$\text{variance} = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

## II Continuous r.v. distribution: 1) Gaussian:-

Parameters: mean =  $\mu$

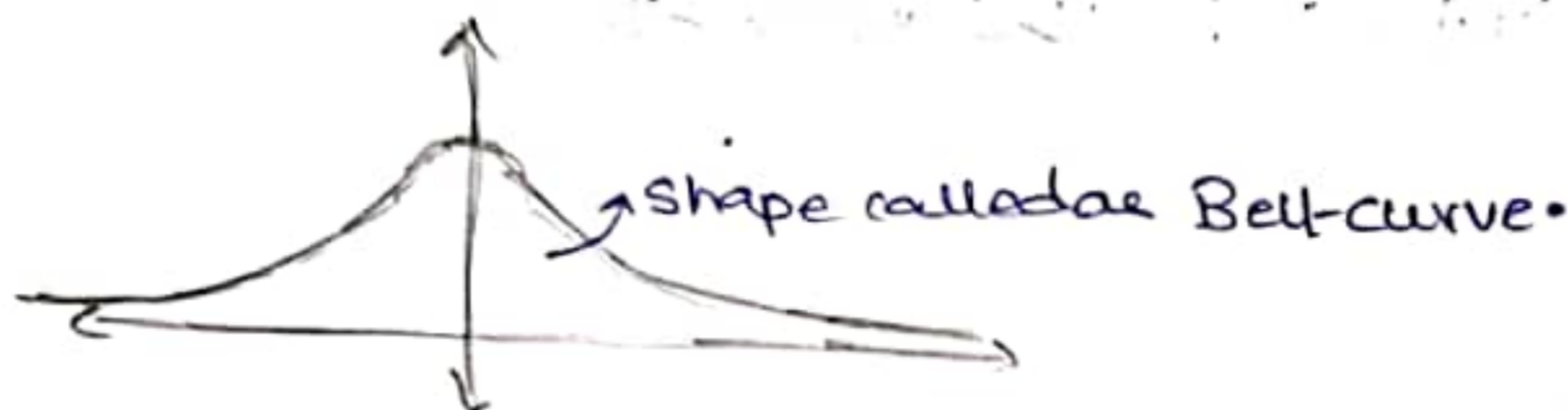
Std. dev. =  $\sigma$

Not  $N(\mu, \sigma)$

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \cdot \sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \rightarrow N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$$

\*  $N(0,1) \rightarrow$  standard normal distribution.



mean =  $\mu$ .

Variance =  $\sigma^2$

Notes-

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2);$$

$$aX+b \sim N(a\mu+b, a^2\sigma^2)$$

CDF:

$$\Phi(x) = F_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-z^2/2} dz \quad \text{for } N(0,1).$$

(we can't exactly integrate  $\int_0^x e^{-x^2} dx$ ).

\* error function

$$\text{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot \int_0^x e^{-x^2} dx$$

$$\text{erf}(x) \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty = 1.$$

$$* \Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \left( \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-z^2/2} dz + \int_0^x e^{-z^2/2} dz \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left( \sqrt{2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} + \sqrt{2} \cdot \int_0^{x/\sqrt{2}} e^{-z^2} dz \right)$$

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \text{erf}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \right)$$

$$\Phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \text{erf}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) \right) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{for mean} = \mu; \\ \text{variance} = \sigma^2. \end{array} \right\}$$

proof by taking  
 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy$   
 (polar)

\* probability for R.V. to be with  $\mu - n\sigma$  to  $\mu + n\sigma$ .

- $n=1$  68.2%
- $n=2$  95.4%
- $n=3$  99.7%
- $n=4$  99.9937%

MGF:

$\phi_X(t) = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}$

calculate  $E(X)$  ✓  
 $E(X^2)$  ✓

Proof:

$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \cdot e^{tx} \cdot \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$

$e^{t\mu} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$

$e^{t\mu/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$

$e^{t\mu/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{k^2}{2\sigma^2}} dk$

$\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} = k$

$x = \sigma k + \mu$   
 $\sigma \cdot dk$

$e^{t(\sigma k + \mu)}$

$e^{t\mu} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{t\sigma k} e^{-\frac{k^2}{2\sigma^2}} dk$

$e^{\frac{(\sigma t)^2}{2}}$

\* Central limit theorem:

carry;  $n$  rounds of an experiment's random variables be

$x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \ \dots \ x_n$

$x_1, x_2 \dots$  are

i.i.d.

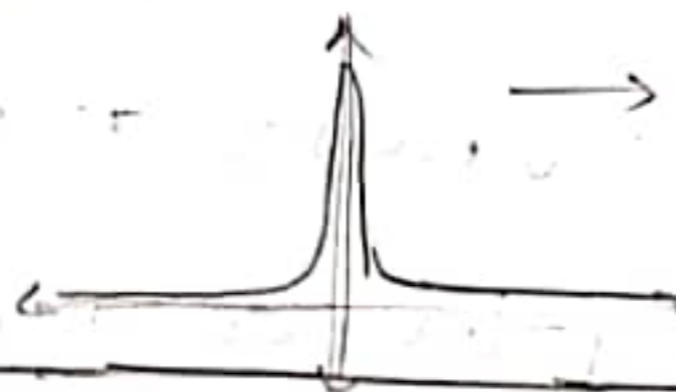
(identical, independent random vars.)

mean =  $\mu$ ;

(i) if  $y = \frac{\sum x_i}{n} - \mu$  :-

By weak law of large numbers;

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ;  $y \rightarrow 0$ .



→ Gauss:  $N(0, \sigma^2)$

(ii) say  $y = \sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\sum x_i}{n} - \mu \right)$  :-

$y$  itself will be a gaussian Random variable  $N(0, \sigma^2)$

irrespective of the original distribution of  $x_i$ .



i.e. > for a single round; take  $n$ -experiments. (i.i.d)

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$

& take their mean ( $= y$ )

$(\mu, \sigma^2)$   
each  $X_i$

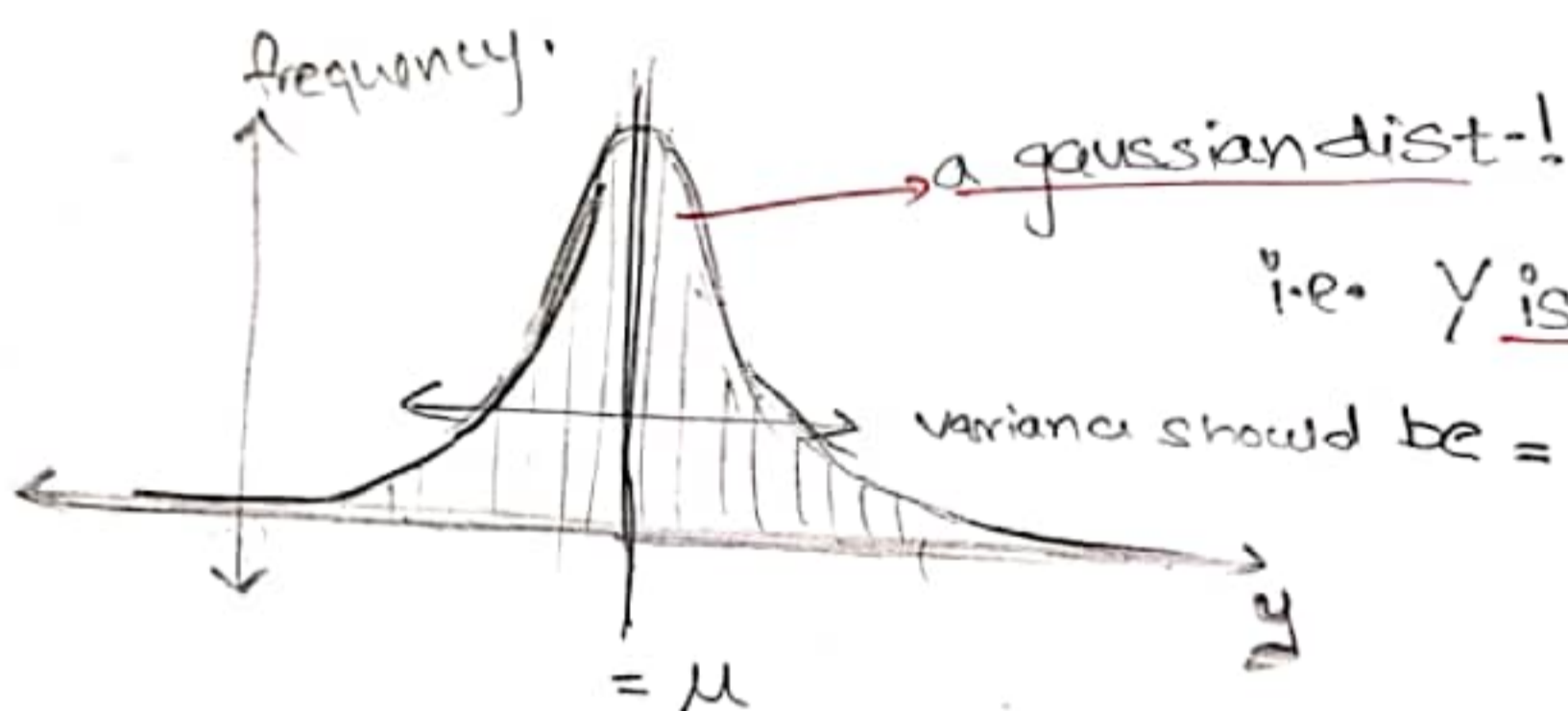
> do 't' such rounds

$$y_1 = \frac{(X_1)_1 + (X_2)_1 + \dots + (X_n)_1}{n}$$

$$y_2 = \dots$$

$$y_t = \dots$$

> now histogram of all such  $y$ :



i.e.  $y$  is a gaussian RV.

\* Statement:-

consider  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  to be a sequence of independent & identically distributed r.v.s with each, having

mean  $= \mu$  ( $\neq \infty$ )

variance  $= \sigma^2$  ( $\neq \infty$ ) (no where talked about actual PDF ( $X_i$ ))

then the distribution of

$$Y_n = \sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\sum X_i}{n} - \mu \right)$$

converges to  $N(0, \sigma^2)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

so; CLT is powerful.

Lindeberg-Levy central limit theorem.

\* one version of CLT; requires only independence of  $X_1, X_2, \dots$

then  $Y_n = \left( \frac{\sum (X_i - \mu_i)}{\sum \sigma_i^2} \right)$

with some condn  
( $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ )

is gaussian variant.

out of partition?

(i.e. can have different distributions too!)

\* this, more general version of CLT is Lindeberg's CLT.

- provides major motivation, of widespread use of gaussian disto.
- errors in experiments are thus modelled gaussian.

\* NO disparity b/w CLT & Law of large numbers...

gaussian  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$

\* proof:-

consider  $z = \left( \frac{\sum x_i - \mu n}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \right)$

$z$  is  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

• we do this by finding MGF( $z$ ) as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

$\phi_z(t) = \left( \phi_{x-\mu} \left( \frac{t}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \right) \right)^n$  — use facts  
i)  $\phi_{x+y}(t) = \phi_x(t) \cdot \phi_y(t)$  for independent.

we got to prove:

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \cdot \log \left( \phi_{\frac{z}{\sigma \sqrt{n}}} \left( \frac{t}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \right) \right) = \frac{t^2}{2}$   
ii)  $\phi_{ax+b}(t) = e^{bt} \cdot \phi_x(at)$

Because  
MGF( $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ ) =  $e^{t^2/2}$

$n = \frac{1}{\chi^2}$  (substn) for lim. calculation.

& L-hospital rule 2-times.  $\checkmark$

$\therefore \phi_z(t) = e^{t^2/2}$

Now; By uniqueness of MGF;

$\therefore \phi_{\mathcal{N}(0,1)}(t) = e^{t^2/2}$

$\therefore z \equiv \mathcal{N}(0,1)$

Hence proved CLT — simpler version.

• Gaussian Tail Bounds:

CDF<sub>x</sub> (X ≥ x) ke liye, upper bound.  
tail probability. not exact  $P_x(X ≥ x)$

$$P(X ≥ x) = \int_x^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt \leq \int_x^{\infty} \frac{t}{x\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

$N(0,1)$  for x > 0

we get:

$$P(X ≥ x) \leq \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}}{x\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

\* Binomial dist. to Gaussian dist.:

\* for large n; binomial dist. approaches to Gaussian dist.

say n.

then  $X_{\text{binomial}} = \underbrace{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}_{\text{Bernoulli...}}$

$$E(X_{\text{bino}}) = n \cdot p$$

$$\text{Var}(X_{\text{bino}}) = n(p \cdot (1-p))$$

$$Y = \frac{X_{\text{bino}} - n \cdot p}{\sqrt{n} \cdot \sqrt{p(1-p)}}$$

Y is  $N(0,1)$  for  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$X_{\text{bino}} \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$

$$\therefore X_{\text{bino}} \text{ is } N(np, n^2 p(1-p))$$

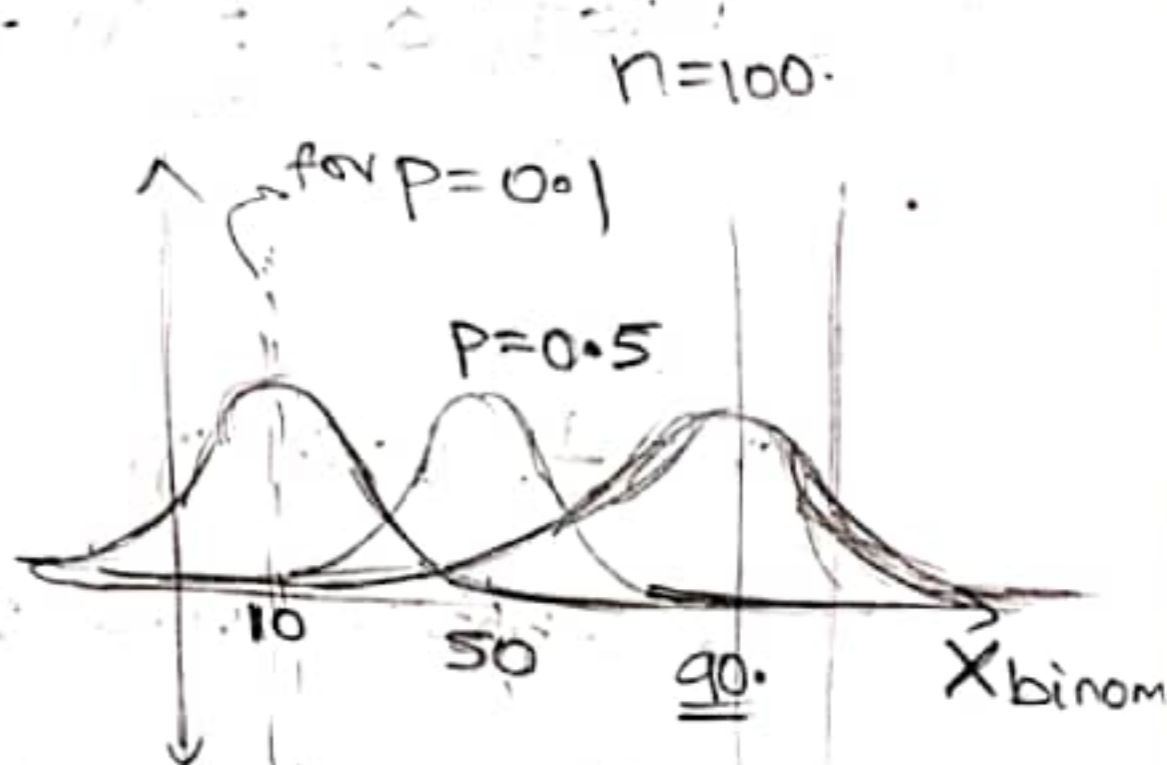
for sufficiently large n.

(50) ✓

Haha.

whatever see from bino point of view  
 @ Gaussian point of view

$$\left. \begin{matrix} \text{mean} = np \\ \text{var.} = np(1-p) \end{matrix} \right\} \text{won't change na}$$



1) sample mean:-

consider  $n$  i.i.d.  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  with  $\mu, \sigma^2$

then  $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X_i}{n}$  is a random variable, called the sample mean.

1) By law of large numbers:-

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$E(\bar{X}) = \mu$$

$$P(\bar{X} = \mu) \rightarrow 1.$$

$$\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{n^2} (n \cdot \sigma^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

2) By CLT:-

for sufficiently big  $n$ ;

$\bar{X}$  is a gaussian dist. (approximately)

$$\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

Note:-

HW-2  
problem.

if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  were independent normal random Gaussian variables

\* didn't say identical.

then  $\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X_i}{n}$  is also a normal random variable.

(No need of CLT or  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Proof: By MGF:

$$\phi_{\bar{X}}(t) = \phi_{\frac{X_1}{n} + \frac{X_2}{n} + \dots + \frac{X_n}{n}}(t)$$

$$= \phi_{X_1}\left(\frac{t}{n}\right) \cdot \phi_{X_2}\left(\frac{t}{n}\right) \dots$$

$$= e^{\frac{t\mu}{n} + \frac{t^2}{2} \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n^2}} \cdot e^{\frac{t\mu}{n} + \frac{t^2}{2} \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n^2}} \dots$$

$$= e^{t \left(\frac{\sum \mu_i}{n}\right) + \frac{t^2}{2} \left(\frac{\sum \sigma_i^2}{n^2}\right)}$$

$$= e^{t(\mu_{\text{net}}) + \frac{t^2}{2} \left(\frac{\sum \sigma_i^2}{n^2}\right)}$$

By uniqueness theorem (1 MGF  $\leftrightarrow$  1 pdf)

$$\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{\text{net}}, \sigma_{\text{net}}^2)$$

$$\bar{X} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{\sum \mu_i}{n}, \frac{\sum \sigma_i^2}{n^2}\right)$$

II) Sample variance:- ( $S^2$ ) experimental variance.

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d's.

then

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1} = \frac{\sum X_i^2 - n \cdot \bar{X}^2}{n-1}$$

now;

$E(S^2) = ?$  from a  $X_i$ ; we are having  $n$  instances

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot (\sum E(X_i^2) - n \cdot E(\bar{X}^2))$$

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} (\sum [\text{var}(X_i) + E(X_i)^2] - n[\text{var}(\bar{X}) + E(\bar{X})^2])$$

$$= \frac{1}{n-1} (n \cdot \sigma^2 + n \cdot \mu^2 - n \frac{\sigma^2}{n} - n \mu^2)$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2 \cdot (n-1)}{n-1}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{\sigma^2}}$$

$X_1$   
 $X_2$   
 $X_n$

their variance should be  $\sigma^2$  na...

variance of distribution.

"expectation" of

their variance should obviously be  $\sigma^2$ .

lets see.

Note:

Here, we used  $S^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}$ ; rather than  $S^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}$

something related with unbiased estimator.

would give

$$E(S^2) = \frac{\sigma^2(n-1)}{n}$$

expected value of sample variance of  $n$  trials outcomes  $\neq$  true variance of trials.

this is undesirable.

so; we multiply  $S^2$  with  $n/n-1$

(Bessel's correction)

\* What about 'distribution' of sample variance (i.e.  $S^2$ )?

• learn a new distribution.

Huff...

## 2) Chi-square distribution:-

- $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n$  are independent, standard normal random vars,

then

$N(0,1)$

$$X = z_1^2 + z_2^2 + \dots + z_{n-1}^2 + z_n^2 \quad (\text{as } n \rightarrow \infty; X \text{ should tend to gaussian.})$$

$X$  is a chi-square random variable.

with 'n' degrees of freedom.

-CLT)

woah.

$$X \sim \chi_n^2 \quad \text{chi...}$$

$$f_X(x) = \frac{x^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \cdot e^{-\frac{x}{2}}}{2^{n/2} \cdot \Gamma(n/2)}$$

gamma function.

$$\Gamma(t) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{t-1} \cdot e^{-x} dx$$

$$\Gamma(n/2) = \frac{n}{2} \cdot \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}-1\right)$$

$$\therefore \Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

$$\text{if } n=2k;$$

$$\Gamma(n/2) = k!$$

\* deriving for  $n=1$ .

$$X = z_1^2; \quad z_1 \sim N(0,1)$$

$$F_X(x) = P(z_1^2 \leq x)$$

$$= P(z_1 < \sqrt{x}) - P(z_1 < -\sqrt{x})$$

$$= F_{z_1}(\sqrt{x}) - F_{z_1}(-\sqrt{x})$$

$$\therefore f_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} (f_{z_1}(\sqrt{x}) + f_{z_1}(-\sqrt{x}))$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \cdot \frac{e^{-x/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \times 2$$

$$\therefore f_X(x) = \frac{x^{-1/2} \cdot e^{-x/2}}{2^{1/2} \cdot \Gamma(1/2)}$$

MGF; for  $\chi_n^2$  is:-

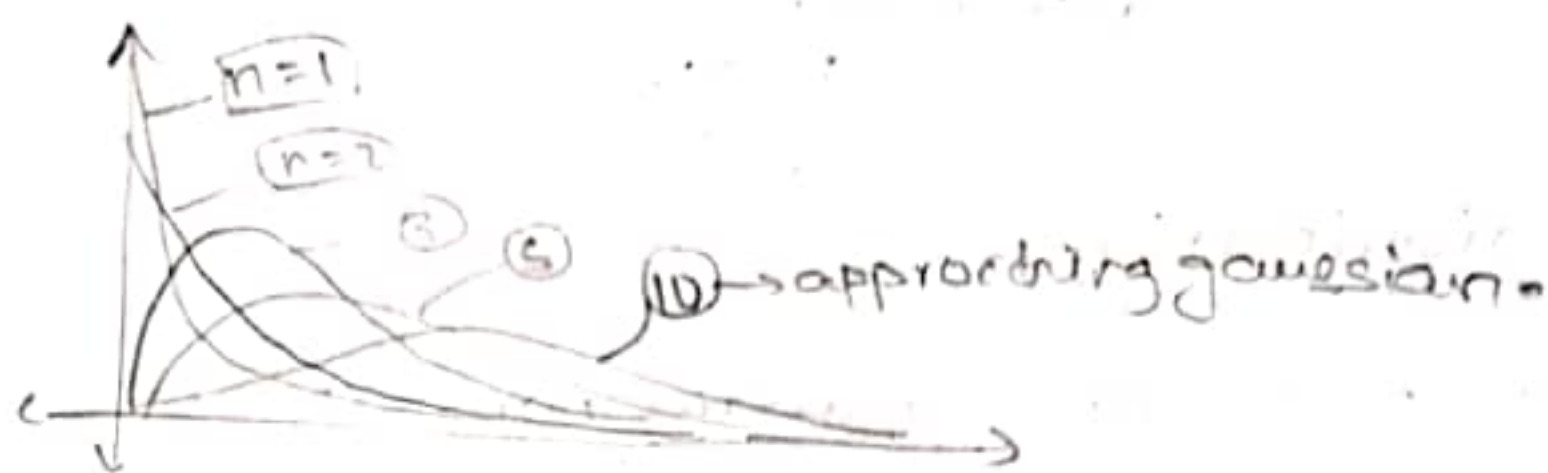
$$\phi_{\chi_n^2}(t) = (1-2t)^{-n/2}$$

(do for  $\phi_{\chi_1^2}(t)$  & multiply 'n' times)

Now; we can find, or "verify"

$$f_{\chi_n^2}(x) \checkmark$$

< plot of  $X$  for different  $n_i$  vs  $\tau$



• Additive property:-

$$X = U_1 + U_2$$

$\downarrow$   $\downarrow$   
 $n_1$   $n_2$

chi-sq. R.V. with  $n_i$  deg. of freedom

then  $X$  is chi-sq. R.V. with  $(n_1 + n_2)$  df.

\* now; 
$$S^2 = \frac{\sum X_i^2 - n(\bar{X})^2}{n-1} = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1} = \frac{\sum (X_i - \mu)^2 - n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2}{n-1}$$

$$\therefore \sum \left( \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 = \underbrace{\frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sigma^2}}_{\text{complete is a sum of } n \text{ standard normal R.V. (} X_i \text{ is normal R.V.)}} + \underbrace{\left( \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma} \right)^2}_{\text{via CLT; this is std. gaussian R.V. } \chi^2_1} \quad (X = X + b).$$

complete is a sum of  $n$  standard normal R.V. ( $X_i$  is normal R.V.)

via CLT; this is std. gaussian R.V.  $\chi^2_1$

$\chi^2_n$

Both are independent?

$\therefore$  is a  $\chi^2_{n-1}$  R.V.

Yes!

### 3) Uniform distribution:-

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}, a < x < b$$

$$0, \text{ otherwise.}$$



$$\star \mu(x) = \frac{b+a}{2}$$

$$\star \text{Var}(x) = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

$$\text{MGF} = \int_a^b e^{tx} \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} = \frac{e^{bt} - e^{at}}{t(b-a)} \text{ for } t \neq 0.$$

$$= 1 \text{ for } t = 0.$$

#### \* Application:-

i) if we somehow bring uniform dist. R.V.  $X$ ; then we can prepare samples for other distributions.

Like Gauss, poisson, ---

ii) say;

$$P(0) = 0.3 \quad P(1) = 0.3 \quad P(2) = 0.4.$$

now...

$$X \sim \text{uniform}[0, 1]$$

*the range of probability value.*

if  $(0 \leq X < 0.3)$ : sample value = 0.

if  $(0.3 \leq X < 0.6)$ : value = 1.

if  $(0.6 \leq X \leq 1)$ : value = 2.

iii) describe the working of randperm:-

- i.e. select a subset of length  $k$ ; from a set of length  $n$ .

like;

$$\text{bcuz; } P(I_j | I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{j-1} \text{ are known}) = \frac{k - \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} I_i}{n - (j-1)}$$

now pick  $x$  from uniform  $[0, 1]$

if  $x < P(I_j | \dots)$ ;  $I_j = 1$

else  $I_j = 0$



#### 4) Poisson distribution:-

this is discrete R.V. case.

\* A binomial dist. where  $E(X)$  is fixed; is discussed as Poisson dist. as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$P_{mf}(X=i) = \frac{n!}{(n-i)! \cdot i!} \cdot (p)^i \cdot (1-p)^{n-i}$$

$$\therefore n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\& E(X) = np = \lambda$$

$$\therefore p = \frac{\lambda}{n}$$

$$P(X=i) = \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} \cdot \frac{n!}{(n-i)! \cdot n^i} \cdot \frac{(n!)^{n-i}}{(1-\frac{\lambda}{n})^{n-i}} \text{ wait!}$$

$$\approx \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n$$

not 1.  
this is  $e^{-\lambda}$ .

$$P(X=i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

Poisson Pmf  
not Pdf

- sample size is large ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ )  
but  $E(X)$  is finite.  $= \lambda$ .

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} P(X=i) = 1.$$

\*  $E(X) = \lambda$  | think of binomial;

\*  $Var(X) = \lambda$  | with  $np = \lambda$

&  $p \rightarrow 0$

\* Mgf:  $\sum e^{-\lambda} \frac{(e^t \lambda)^i}{i!} = e^{-\lambda} (e^t \lambda)$

$$\phi_X(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$$

weirdest.

- for larger  $\lambda$ : Poisson( $\lambda$ )  $\sim$  N( $\lambda, \lambda$ )

\* Say  $z = X + Y$ .

where  $X$  is poisson ( $\lambda_1$ )

$Y$  is poisson ( $\lambda_2$ )

$X, Y$  both are independent.

then  $Z = \text{poission}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$  proof by considering:-

$$\phi_z(t) = \phi_x(t) \cdot \phi_y(t).$$

\*  $\frac{\text{PMF}(i+1)}{\text{PMF}(i)} = \frac{\lambda}{i+1}$

\* if  $X \sim \text{poission}(\lambda)$

$\& P(Y=1 | X=1) = \text{Binomial}(1, p)$

$\hookrightarrow n$  of Bino. dit.

$\hookrightarrow$  not Bino. dit

then

$Y \sim \text{poission}(\lambda p)$

thinning of poisson rand. var. by a binomial.

$$P_i = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} \cdot e^{-np} \frac{(np)^i}{i!} \cdot e^{-\lambda}$$

$$P_i \cdot X_i = 1 - p$$

practical use:-

Points in a scene being imaged, send out photons at rate of  $\lambda$  (poisson).

of these, only a small frac.  $p$ , managed to enter the camera (binomial)

$\therefore$  effective rate captured by camera is  $\lambda p$  (poission)

poisson eq:-

fixed no. of ~~acc.~~ accidents per day....

but police watches every 10min.

$$= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \times \frac{p^x (1-p)^{k-x}}{x! (k-x)!}$$

## 5) Exponential distribution:-

\* Say; a process has ' $\lambda$ ' chances to succeed in unit time.

$\therefore$  ' $\lambda \cdot u$ ' chances; in ' $u$ ' time.

poisson process

let  $T$  denote the time; when first success occurs  
- waiting time.

\* we have

$T$  = a random variable.

$$F_T(u) = 1 - P(T \geq u)$$

meaning;  
in time ' $u$ ';  
'0' successes.

$$= P_{\text{pmf}}^{\text{poiss}}(\lambda u) (k=0)$$

$$= e^{-\lambda u}$$

$$P(T > u) = e^{-\lambda u}$$

Imp. distinct  
feature

$\sigma^2$   
exp. rand. var.

>  $\therefore$   $F_T(u) = 1 - e^{-\lambda u}$  what the shit is going on here

>  $\therefore$   $f_T(u) = \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda u}$   $u \geq 0$ .

exponential random  
var.

$$* E(T) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \quad \left( = \int_0^{\infty} t \cdot \lambda \cdot e^{-\lambda t} dt = \lambda \cdot \left[ \frac{t \cdot e^{-\lambda t}}{-\lambda} + \int \frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{-\lambda^2} dt \right]_0^{\infty} \right)$$

$$* \text{Var}(T) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$

$$* \text{MGF}(T)(t) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}} \right\} \text{whatever.}$$

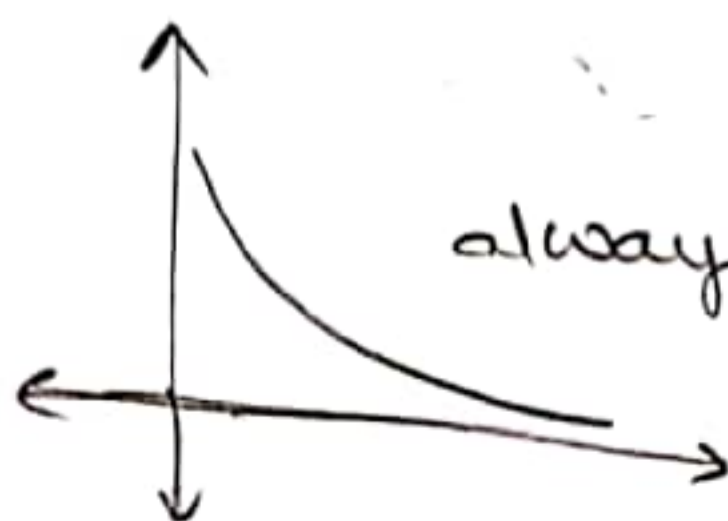
waw,

\* mode is  $u=0$

\* median:

$$\int_0^{x_0} f_T(u) \cdot du = 1/2$$

$$x_0 = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda}$$



\* This exp. R.v. is said to be memory less:-

$$\forall s, u \geq 0 \quad P(T > s+u | T > u) = \underline{\underline{P(T > s)}}$$

This is not independence - lol - ...

PROOF:

$$\begin{aligned} P(T > s+u | T > u) &= \frac{P(T > s+u, T > u)}{P(T > u)} \\ &= \frac{e^{-(s+u)\lambda}}{e^{-u\lambda}} \\ &= e^{-s\lambda} \\ &= P(T > s) \end{aligned}$$

(Exponential tail)

also  
We haven't got 2 variables here.  
RHS  $\neq$   $P(T > s+u)$

\* if  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are exp. rand. var;

$X = \min(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is also a exp. rand. var

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore P(X > x_0) &= P(x_1 > x_0 \cap x_2 > x_0 \cap \dots) \\ &= e^{-\lambda_1 x_0} \cdot e^{-\lambda_2 x_0} \cdot \dots \cdot e^{-\lambda_n x_0} \end{aligned}$$

$P(X > x_0) = e^{-(\lambda_{net})x_0}$

so,

$$F_X(x_0) = 1 - e^{-\lambda_{net} x_0}$$

$$\therefore \underline{\underline{f_X(x_0) = \lambda_{net} e^{-\lambda_{net} x_0}}}$$

# Self -

\* to find  $f_x(x)$  for some distribution; (methods)

like  $\min(X_1, X_2, \dots)$   
or just  $X_1 + X_2 + \dots$

(i) maybe multiply individual  $f_{X_1}(x_1), f_{X_2}(x_2), \dots$

(for independent variables & joint probability).

(ii) Find CDF first & get pdf from that.

≡  
counting manually  
in case of

continuous distributions

then

$$P(Y \leq y) = 1 - P(Y > y)$$

$$= 1 - P(X_1 > y) \cdot P(X_2 > y) \dots$$

MLE of uniform distribution.

$$\therefore \text{now; } \underline{\underline{\text{pdf} = \frac{d}{dy} P(Y \leq y)}}$$

discrete case.

(iii) Start counting manually. (we do this for basic distributions)

like  $f(X=x) = \binom{n}{x} \cdot p^x \cdot (1-p)^{n-x}$   
(binomial).

AND discrete r.v.

(iv) LOOK AT MGF:

If MGF is of any one of known forms; then by uniqueness theorem, we can prove  $f_x(x)$ .

(used in CLT proof)

also used in proving

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

& each  $X_i$  is gaussian

then  $X$  is gaussian).

THINK

## Self :-

\* to find  $E(X)$  &  $\text{Var}(X)$  for some random var.  $X$  :-

(i) do the summation directly :-

$$E(X) = \int x \cdot f_x(x) dx$$

$$\text{or } \sum x \cdot f_x(x)$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E((X-\mu)^2)$$

} used very less; in case of the standard distributions.

(ii) Try to write  $X$  as  $X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots$  :-

now;

$$E(X) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) + \dots + E(X_n) \quad \text{with or without independence.}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \text{Var}(X_1) + \text{Var}(X_2) + \dots + \text{Var}(X_n) \quad \text{with independence}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sum \text{Var}(X_i) + \sum \sum \text{Covar}(X_i, X_j) \quad \text{without independence.}$$

used in Binomial, multinomial, Geometric, Hypergeometric

where ever; we can have 1 trial consisting of 'n' events at a time.

(iii) from MGF :-

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

Ex: n people have hats, in a party; group all hats & take one each.

$Y$  = no. of people who got their own hat.

Find  $E(Y)$  &  $\text{Var}(Y)$ .

Sol)  $f_Y(y) = \frac{n C_y ((n-y)! - n \cdot y C_1 (n-y-1)! + n \cdot y C_2 (n-y-2)! \dots)}{n!}$

derangements....  
Soodhi formula.

↓ can't use this for  $E(Y)$ .

now;  $Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ ; here each  $(X_i, X_j)$  is not independent.  
where  $X_i$  is Bernoulli with  $p = 1/n$

$$\therefore E(Y) = \sum E(X_i) = 1$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \sum \text{Var}(X_i) + \sum \text{Covar}(X_i, X_j)$$

$$= n \cdot \frac{1}{n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + n(n-1) \left(\text{Covar}(X_1, X_2)\right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= E(X_1, X_2) - E(X_1) \cdot E(X_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{1}{n-1} - \frac{1}{n^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2(n-1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= 1$$

## PARAMETER ESTIMATION:-

- \* let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be a random sample from a distribution  $F_\theta$ ,  
where we don't know the parameters  $\theta$ .  
(But we do know the family of  $F_\theta$ )

Eg: poisson; with unknown parameter  $\lambda$ .

we need to estimate this;

with knowledge of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .

- normal dist;

with unknown mean  $\mu$  &  $\sigma^2$ .

- \* In probability theory; we take that the parameters are known;  
whereas in statistics theory; the opp. is true;  
we use observed data to Inference on parameters

→ Maximum Likelihood Estimator (of a parameter)

ML estimator.

- \* Also called 'point estimate'; since we give a single value for  $\theta$ ,  
instead of a range (confidence interval)  
more statistics like.

Note:

Any statistic; used to estimate the value of a parameter  
is called estimator. There are many kinds of estimators.

- observed value of estimator is estimate.

$\bar{\theta} = 2$ ; perspective  
of sample  
is an estimator

- \* Say; our sample is  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ . then;

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1) \cdot f(x_2) \cdot \dots \cdot f(x_n) \quad \begin{matrix} x_i, x_j \\ \text{all are independent} \end{matrix}$$

now; i) we know the distribution; but not the parameter  $\theta$ .

ii) we choose a  $\theta = \bar{\theta}$  such that the chances of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$   
is maximum!

iii) i.e. we find  $\theta = \bar{\theta}$  such that  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is maximum.

$\therefore x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  is "maximally likely"

Hence MLE of  $\theta$

→ lets calculate parameters for some distribution; by MLE:-

1) Bernoulli:-

say samples were  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$  ( $\forall i, x_i \in \{0, 1\}$ )

let  $p$  be the parameter of the Bernoulli dist.

then  $f(x_i) = p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}$  true for  $x_i = 0$  or  $x_i = 1$

$$\therefore f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = p^{x_1 + x_2 + \dots} \cdot (1-p)^{n - x_1 - x_2 - \dots}$$

maximize  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$   
∴ maximize  $\log(f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n))$  **important no.**

$$\therefore \log(f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)) = (x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n) \log p + (n - x_1 - x_2 - \dots) \log(1-p)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{p} (\sum x_i) - \frac{(n - \sum x_i)}{1-p} = 0$$

$$\therefore (1-p)(\sum x_i) = pn - p \sum x_i$$

$$\therefore \boxed{p = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}}$$

**this is MLE for  $p$ .**

2) Poisson:-

$$f(x_i) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!}$$

$$\therefore f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!}$$

$$\log(f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)) = n \cdot \log(e^{-\lambda}) + (\sum x_i) \cdot \log \lambda - \{\text{const.}\}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow 0 = n(-1) + \frac{\sum x_i}{\lambda}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\lambda = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}}$$

**MLE of  $\lambda$ .**



3) MLE for gaussian:-

$$\text{consider } N(\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$f(x_i) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\therefore f(x_1 \text{ to } x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\therefore \log(f(x_1 \text{ to } x_n)) = \sum_{i=1}^n -\frac{(x_i-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} - n \log(\sigma) + \{\text{const}\}$$

• now; we have to maximize wrt 2 variables.

$$1) \frac{\partial \log f}{\partial \mu} = 0$$

$$\sum (x_i - \mu) = 0$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\bar{\mu} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}}$$

MLE for  $\mu$ .

$$2) \frac{\partial \log f}{\partial \sigma} = 0$$

$$\sum -\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2} \cdot \frac{(-2)}{\sigma^3} - \frac{n}{\sigma} = 0$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\bar{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{n}}$$

MLE for  $\sigma^2$

we see that:-

$$\text{MLE}(\text{mean}) = \text{mean}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\text{MLE}(\text{var}) = \text{var}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

for other distributions too!

Bernoulli,  
Poisson.

→ ML for least square line fitting:-

→ actual solving doesn't involve seeing max. likely hood at all!

Linear regression:-

gaussian  $\epsilon_i$

\* values are pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$

our distribution is:

$$y_i = mx_i + c + \epsilon_i$$

from  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

• not a probability distribution.

- we know  $x_i$  - accurately.
- we have noisy  $y_i$ .

we need to determine  $m, c$

$$y_i \in \mathcal{N}(mx_i + c, \sigma^2)$$

$$\therefore P(y_i; x_i, m, c) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$\sigma$  is given?

$$\therefore \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i; x_i, m, c) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-\frac{(y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\therefore \log(L) = \sum_{i=1}^n -\frac{(y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2} + \{\text{constant}\} \text{ in } \sigma.$$

\* we need MLE for  $m, c$ :- (is  $\sigma$  given?)

$$\frac{d}{dm} = 0 \Rightarrow \sum x_i (y_i - mx_i - c) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow m(\sum x_i^2) + c(\sum x_i) = \sum x_i y_i$$

$$\frac{d}{dc} = 0 \Rightarrow \sum (y_i - mx_i - c) = 0$$

$$c = \left(\frac{\sum y_i}{n}\right) - m\left(\frac{\sum x_i}{n}\right)$$

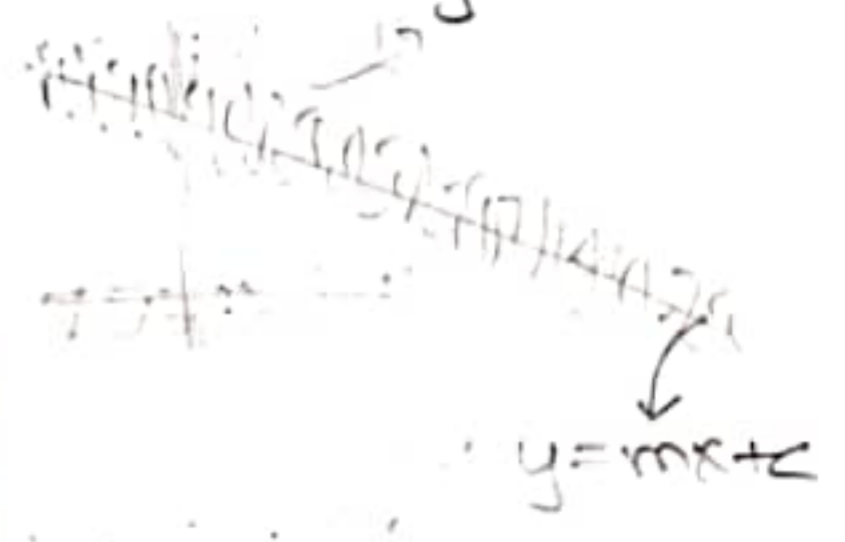
solve simultaneously

$$\therefore \bar{m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$\bar{c} = \bar{y} - \bar{m}\bar{x}$$

where  $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$

$\bar{y} = \frac{\sum y_i}{n}$



even though  $\epsilon_i$  are iid,  $y_i$  are only independent.

\* indicator function:-

$I(X_i \leq x_0)$  is a bernoullie rand. var; with  
parameter =  $CDF(x_0)$

$I(X_i \in B_i)$  is a bernoullie;

where

$$B_i \equiv [x_1, x_2]$$

with  $p = CDF(x_2) - CDF(x_1)$

$\&$   $\therefore$  if  $X = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots\}$

$$\& \cdot N_{x_0} = \sum_{i=1}^n I(X_i \leq x_0)$$

then  $N_{x_0}$  is a binomial r.v.

\* NOW; ML estimators are Random variables.

(any ML estimator)

why? Bcoz it is a

random variable.

"function" of

-  $\hat{\theta} = 2$  estimator (very poor choice).

samples

from an  
underlying  
dist.

- the ML estimator has its own pdf

mean

variance.

(When you calculate the value of MLE for a dataset  
this is a sample from pdf(MLE))

→ Bias; variance; mean square deviation of an estimator:-

NOT JUST MLE.

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are r.v. (iid) from a distribution with

parameter  $\theta$ .

- let  $\hat{\theta}$  be an estimator of  $\theta$ .

(How to decide, whether good or bad

estimator?)

evaluate  $(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$  (square deviation)

But it is R.V.

So; evaluate  $E((\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2)$

\*  $E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2]$  is called mean squared error of estimator.  
+ true value! (we desire low MSE estimators).

\* if  $E[\hat{\theta}] = \theta$ , unbiased

; else, biased.

$(E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta) \rightarrow$  Bias of the estimator.

Eg: unbiased:-

• MLE of mean for a gaussian sample.

• MLE of variance for a gaussian sample (when mean is known).

biased:-

• MLE of variance for a gaussian sample.

(when mean is unknown)

\* interval of uniform dist.

$$\hat{\theta} = \max(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots)$$

$$E(\hat{\theta}) = \int_0^{\theta} nx^{n-1}/\theta^n = n/n+1 \cdot \theta.$$

\* Variance of estimator =  $E[(\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta}))^2]$ .

need... not the true mean of sample!

\*

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = \underbrace{E[(\hat{\theta} - E(\hat{\theta}))^2]}_{\text{variance}} + \underbrace{(E(\hat{\theta}) - \theta)^2}_{\text{square bias}}$$

\* A biased estimator may have lower MSE; owing to its low variance.

(so; saying unbiased better than biased is B.S.)

- also; if the MSE is not going down as the 'n' increases; then estimator is undesirable.

Eg: let  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  be r.v. of dist. of true parameter  $\theta$ .

if  $\hat{\theta} = x_1$

now;  $E(\hat{\theta}) = \theta$

but  $[Var(\hat{\theta}) = \sigma^2 \text{ of dist.}]$

and! this doesn't go down! with n.

→ Estimator consistency:-

let  $\theta$  be the parameter of a dist.

&  $\hat{\theta}$  be a value of estimator of  $\theta$ .

• we say estimator is (asymptotically) consistent if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \overset{\text{probability}}{P(|\hat{\theta} - \theta| > \epsilon)} = 0 \quad \text{for any } \epsilon > 0.$$

MSE  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

probability is zero...

like;  $\theta = 50$

& for 1 sample  $\hat{\theta}$  turns out to be 5

then for  $10^8$  samples;  $\hat{\theta}$  turns out to be 50.

so; probability wise, fine.

Ex: For a distribution; with <sup>true</sup> mean  $\theta$ ;

Sample be  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$

take two estimators;  $\theta' = 1$  (irrespective of sample set)

$$\theta'' = X_1$$

then:

$\theta'$ :

biased

variance = 0

MSE is high

inconsistent estimator

$\theta''$ :

unbiased ( $E(\theta'') = \theta$ )

variance is high

MSE is high

inconsistent estimator.

an estimator can be unbiased & still be inconsistent.

→ Motivation for MLE:-

hard facts.

- MLE is a consistent estimator.

(as long as true values won't change with  $n$ ; sample count)

- no consistent estimator; can achieve a lower asymptotic MSE than MLE.

Weak law of large numbers won't apply here;

because  $\theta''$  is not

$$\frac{X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots}{n}$$

form.

## Bias & variance of various MLE estimators:-

1)  $\mu, \sigma^2$  estimators for Gaussian:

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\sum X_i}{n}$$

$$\bullet E(\hat{\mu}) = \frac{n \cdot \mu}{n} = \mu \quad \text{unbiased}$$

$$\bullet \text{var}(\hat{\mu}) = \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{1}{n^2}} \right\} \text{variance decreasing with } n$$

$$\bullet \text{MSE}(\hat{\mu}) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \quad (\because \text{bias} = 0)$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\sum (X_i - \hat{\mu})^2}{n}$$

$$E(\hat{\sigma}^2) \quad \text{if } \mu \text{ is known beforehand:-}$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum E((X_i - \mu)^2)$$
$$= E((X_i - \mu)^2)$$
$$= \sigma^2$$

if  $\mu$  not known:-

$$E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum E((X_i - \hat{\mu})^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left[ \sum E(X_i^2) + \sum E(\hat{\mu}^2) \right.$$

$$\left. - 2 \sum E(X_i \hat{\mu}) \right]$$

$$E(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \sigma^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

Biased.

But; bias  $\downarrow$  as  $n \uparrow$ .

2)  $\theta$  estimator for Uniform  $[0, \theta]$ :-

$$\hat{\theta} = \max(X_1, X_2, \dots)$$

What is the distribution of  $\hat{\theta}$ ?

$$P(\hat{\theta} \leq x) = P(\max(X_1, X_2, \dots) \leq x)$$

$$= P(X_1 \leq x) \cdot P(X_2 \leq x) \cdot \dots$$

$$= \frac{x}{\theta} \cdot \frac{x}{\theta} \dots$$

$$P(\hat{\theta} \leq x) = \frac{x^n}{\theta^n}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{f_{\hat{\theta}}(x) = \frac{nx^{n-1}}{\theta^n}} \rightarrow \boxed{E(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{n}{n+1} \theta}$$

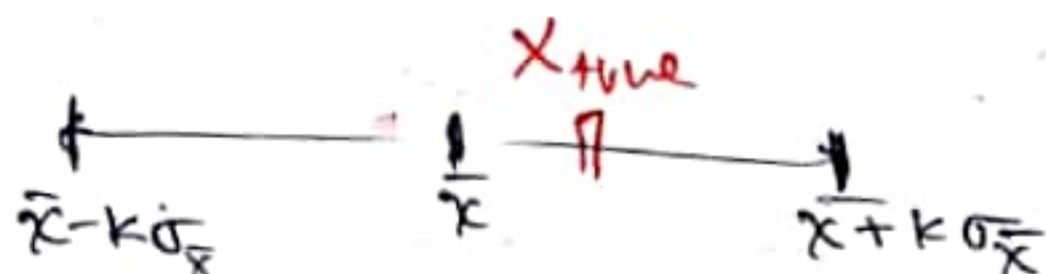
for  $x \in [0, \theta]$   
= 0 otherwise.

→ confidence intervals:-

→  $\theta_{true}$  might not be  $\hat{\theta}$  in most of the cases. (point estimation).

So; we say;

$\theta_{true} \in [\hat{\theta} - c), \hat{\theta} + c]$  with 99% probability,  
confidence intervals.



Ex: 1) MLE estimate of Gaussian mean:-

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are gaussian iids

$$\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

now;

$\sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \sim N(0,1)$  ] true enough; if  $X_i$  are not gaussian also. (CLT).

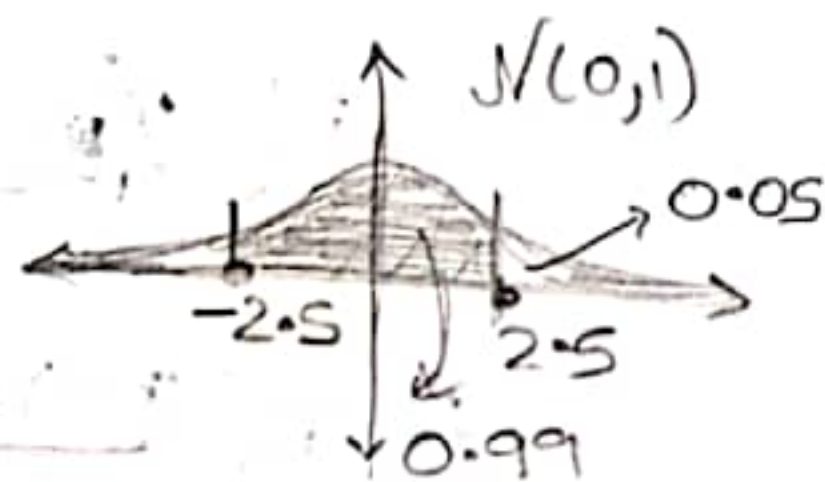
$P(-2.5 \leq \sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \leq 2.5) \approx 0.99$

If we don't know  $\sigma_{true}$ ;

approximate with  $\sigma_{dataset}$

$P\left(\bar{X} - 2.5 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu \leq \bar{X} + 2.5 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \approx 0.99$

$\mu$  (true value) lies in  $\left[\bar{X} - \frac{2.5\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + \frac{2.5\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]$  with 99% confidence.



also;

$P\left(\sqrt{n} \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \right) \leq 2.3\right) \approx 0.99$

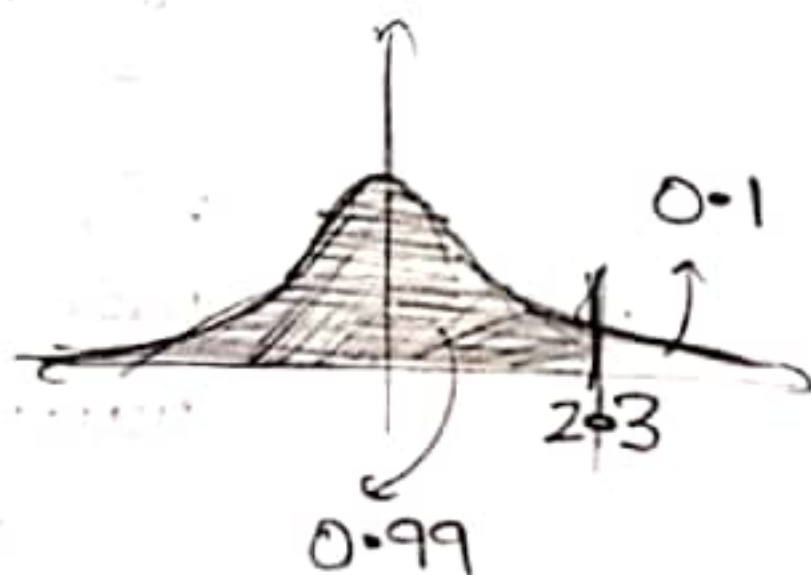
$P\left(\bar{X} - \frac{2.3\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu\right) \approx 0.99$

one sided confidence.....

$\mu$  lies right of ( ) with

99% confidence.  $\therefore Z_{0.05} = 2.5$

$Z_{0.1} = 2.3$  for  $N(0,1)$



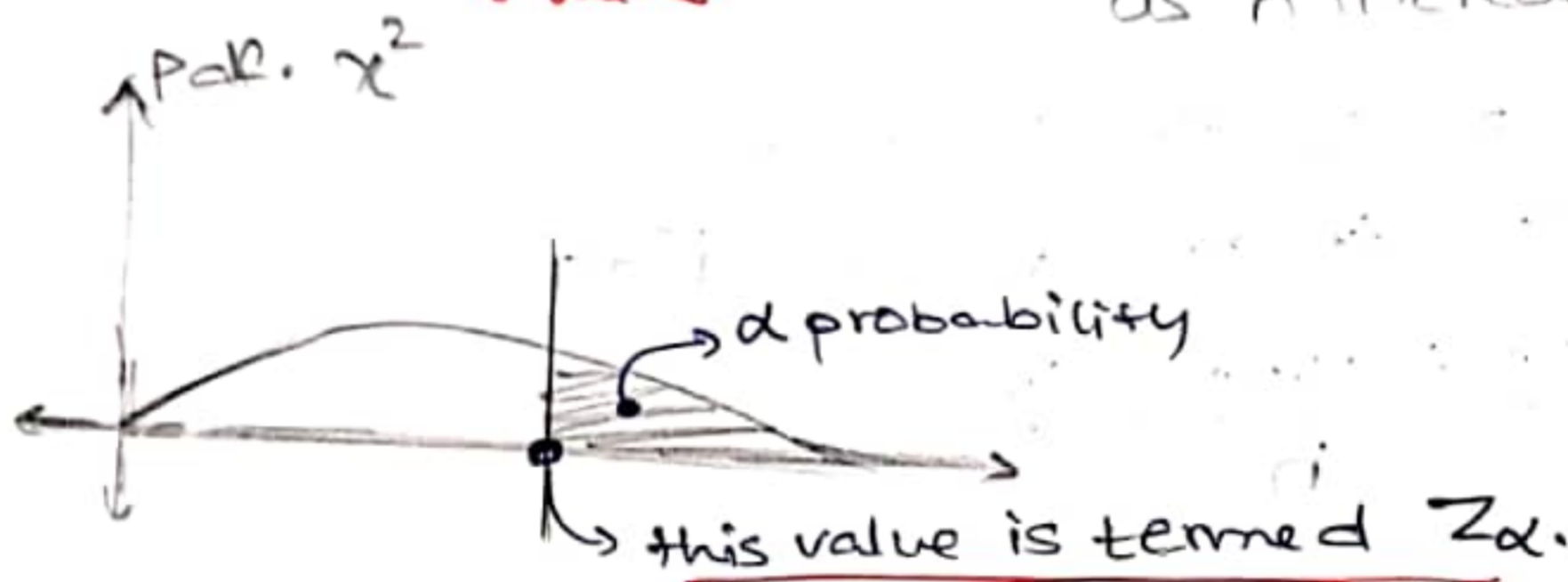


→ 2. for variance's MLE estimator:-

$$s^2 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$$

& as we've already seen;

$(n-1) \left( \frac{s^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \sim \chi^2_{n-1}$  *chi square disty.*  
*also gaussian as n increases.*  
true  $\sigma$  value.



or  $\chi^2_{\alpha, n-1}$

$P(X \geq Z_{\alpha}) = \alpha$

∴ now;

$$P\left(\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \geq \chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-1}\right) = \frac{\alpha}{2}$$

$$P\left(\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \geq \chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-1}\right) = 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}$$

$$\therefore P\left(\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-1} \leq \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2} \leq \chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-1}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\therefore P\left(\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{\alpha/2, n-1}} \leq \sigma^2 \leq \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{1-\alpha/2, n-1}}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

these values are

confidence interval.

usually available in tabular manner.