Introduction to Probability

Lecture 8: Basic Inequalities and Law of Large Numbers

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Outline

Introduction

Markov's Inequality and Chebyshev's Inequality

Weak Law of Large Numbers

Example 1

Let X_1 and X_2 be two independent random variables, both uniformly distributed on [0,1]. How does the probability density of $X_1 + X_2$ look like? What happens for $X_1 + X_2 + X_3$ etc.?

Answer

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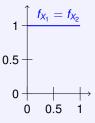
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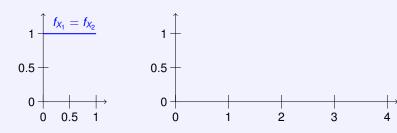
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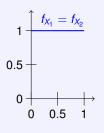
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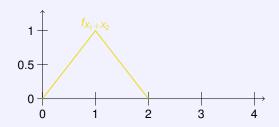


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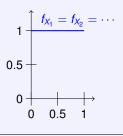


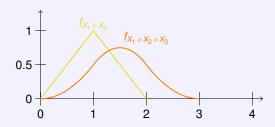


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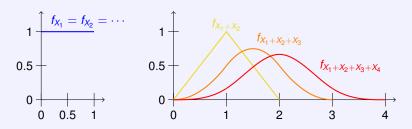




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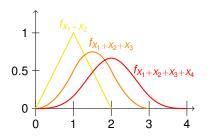
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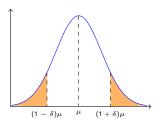


^aThis is also called "convolution". The detailed calculation for $f_{X_1+X_2}$ can be found at the end of these slides. The exact distribution is known for any number of random variables under the name Irwin-Hall distribution.

Motivation

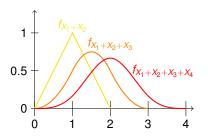
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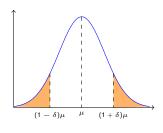




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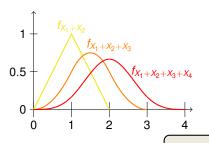


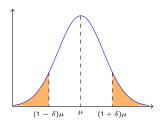


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- 2. Chebyshev's inequality
- 3. Law of Large Numbers
- 4. Central Limit Theorem

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- 2. Chebyshev's inequality
- 3. Law of Large Numbers
- 4. Central Limit Theorem

- Re-use concepts from previous lectures:
- 1. Independence (Random Var.) (Lec. 1, 7)
- 2. Expectation and Variance (Lec. 2, 3)
- 3. Normal Distribution (Lec. 5)
- 4. Sums of Random Variables (Lec. 6)

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$$\mathbf{P}[X \geq a] \leq \frac{\mathbf{E}[X]}{a}.$$



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- Advantage: Very basic inequality, we only need to know E[X]
- Downside: For many distributions, the tail bound might be quite loose
- Proof is similar to the proof of Chebyshev's inequality (Exercise!)

Example 2

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- 1. Derive an upper bound on $P[X \ge 30]$.
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Both bounds, especially the second, are quite loose!

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The " $\mu \pm$ a few σ " rule. Most of the probability mass is within a few standard deviations from μ .

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- Chebyshev's inequality is also known as Second Moment Method





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• Dividing both sides by a^2 yields the result.

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Much better! (Inversely) Linear in n

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J. Bernoulli (1655-1705)

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- "Power of Averaging": repeated samples allow us to estimate μ
- A similar statement holds even if the X_i's are not identically distributed
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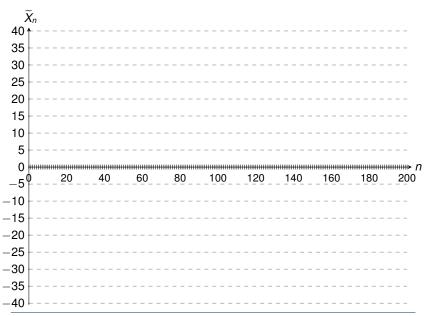
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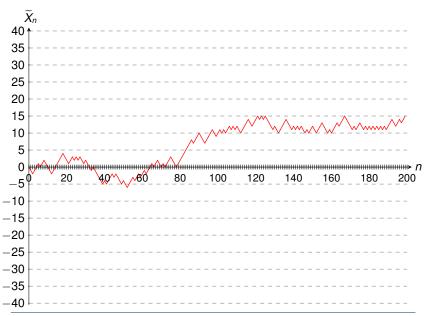
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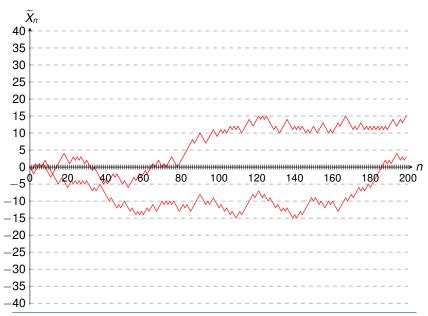
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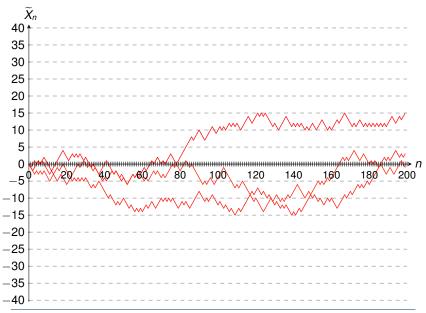
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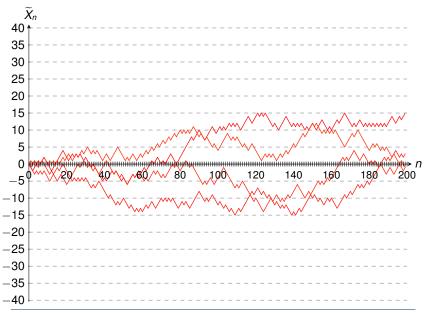
How does a "typical" realisation look like?

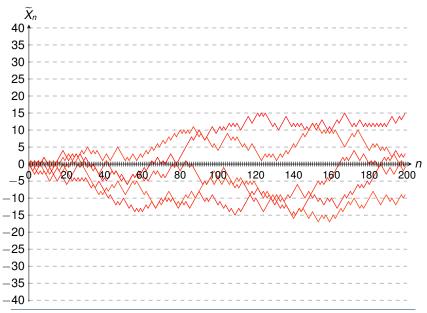


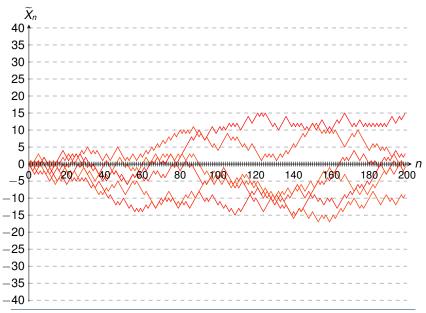


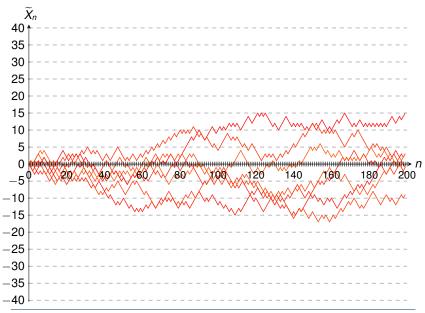


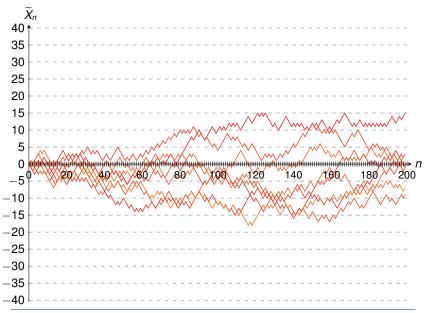


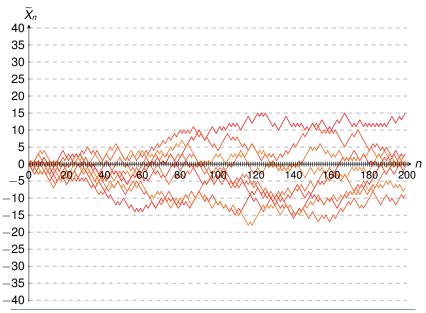


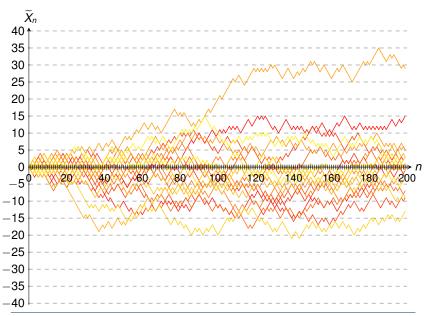


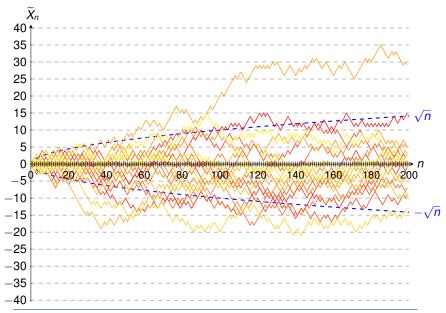


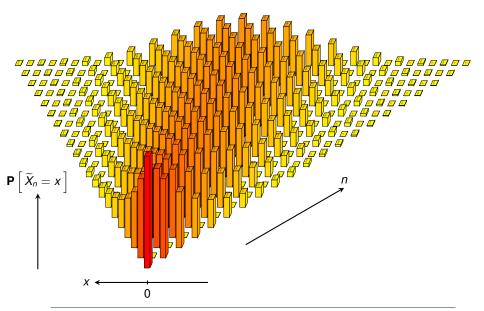


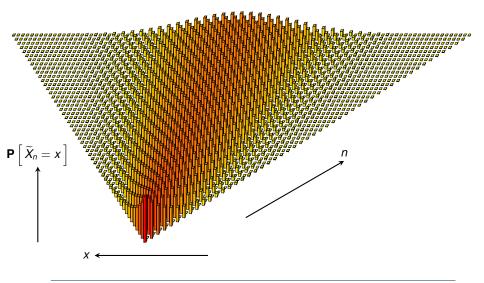


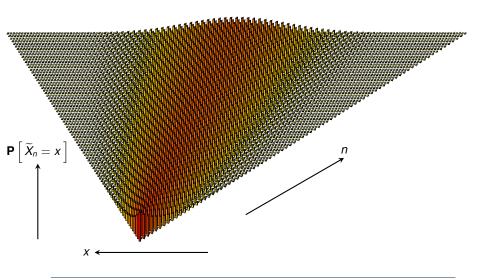


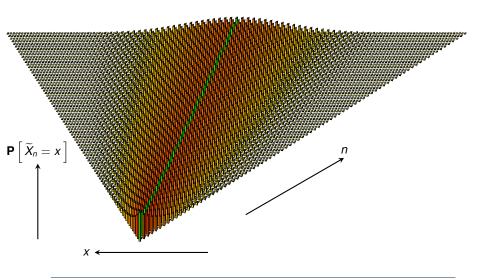




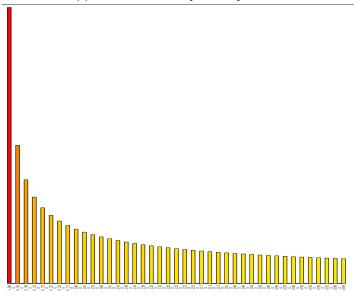








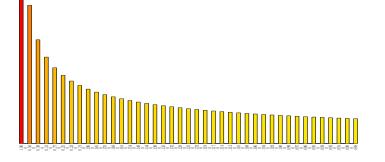
Interlude: Approximation of $P[\widetilde{X}_n = 0]$



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Exercise

Try to find an expression for $\mathbf{P}\left[\widetilde{X}_n=0\right]$. Using Stirling's approximation for n!, conclude that $\mathbf{P}\left[\widetilde{X}_n=0\right]=\Theta(1/\sqrt{n})$ for even integers n.



- Let X_i be independent random variables taking values $\in \{-1, +1\}$ with probability 1/2 each
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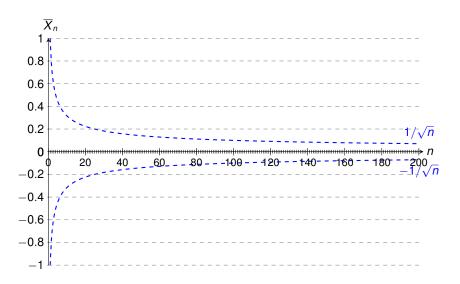
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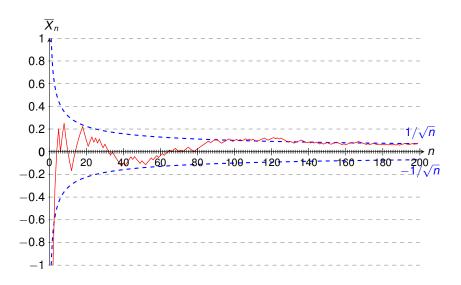
This does **not** converge!

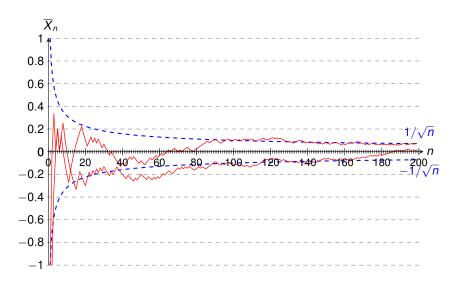
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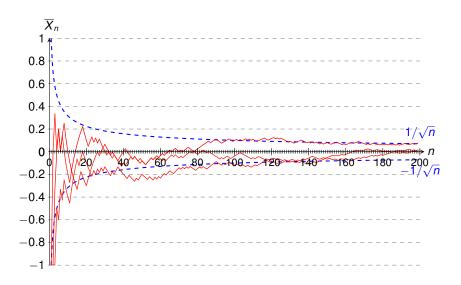
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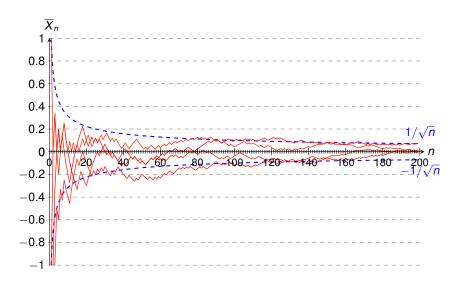
Consider now the average (sample mean): $\overline{X}_n := 1/n \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$.

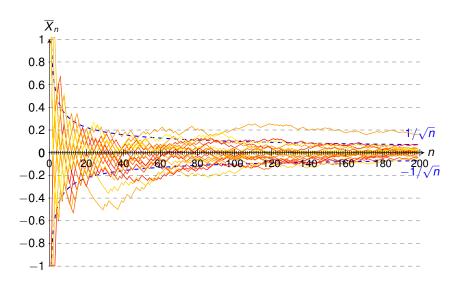












The Weak Law of Large Numbers -

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(Let $\epsilon > 0$, $\delta > 0$. Pick $N = \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2 \cdot \delta}$. Then for any $n \geq N$, the probability above is smaller than δ .)

Example 4 -

Suppose that, instead of the expectation μ , we want to estimate the probability of an event, e.g.,

$$p := \mathbf{P}[X \in (a, b]], \text{ where } a < b.$$

How can we use the Law of Large Numbers?

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- The random variables Y₁, Y₂,..., Y_n are i.i.d., so we can apply the Law of Large Numbers to Ȳ_n.

Appendix: Sum of Two Uniform R.V. (non-examinable)

Example -					
Let X and Y distributed on	be two inde [0, 1]. How do	pendent randes the probal	dom variab pility density	ples, both unity of $X + Y$ loo	niformly ok like?
			<i>p</i>	Answer —	

Appendix: Sum of Two Uniform R.V. (non-examinable)

Example

Let X and Y be two independent random variables, both uniformly distributed on [0,1]. How does the probability density of X+Y look like?

We have

$$f_{X+Y}(a) \stackrel{(\star)}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_X(a-y) f_Y(y) dy,$$

where for (\star) , see Chapter 6.3 in Ross (Chapter 11.2 in Dekking et al.). Since $f_Y(y)=1$ if $0 \le y \le 1$ and $f_Y(y)=0$ otherwise, we have

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \int_0^1 f_X(a-y) dy.$$

Further, for $0 \le a \le 1$ we have $f_X(a-y) = 1$ and $f_X(a-y) = 0$ otherwise, and thus

$$f_{X+Y}(a)=\int_0^a dy=a.$$

Similarly, for 1 < a < 2, $f_{X+Y}(a) = \int_a^2 dy = 2 - a$. Therefore,

$$f_{X+Y}(a) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } 0 \le a \le 1, \\ 2-a & \text{if } 1 \le a \le 2, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$