

12/8/25

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Law of large numbers (Theorem 6.1)

(informally:) If you flip a fair coin many many times, then the proportion of heads will be very very close to $\frac{1}{2}$

Let $X_1, \dots, X_n$ be i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed) random variables with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Consider the

sum:

$$S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n \quad (E[S_n] = \mu n)$$

(e.g. $X_i \sim \text{Ber}(\frac{1}{2})$, $S_n = \# \text{ heads after } n \text{ flips}$)

$$\text{For } \varepsilon > 0: \quad P\left(\underbrace{\left| \frac{S_n}{n} - \mu \right|}_{\text{error} > \varepsilon} > \varepsilon\right) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n \varepsilon^2}$$

e.g. Suppose we flip a coin 100 times and get 20 heads.

$$\frac{S_{100}}{100} = \frac{20}{100} = \frac{1}{5}, \text{ so } \left| \frac{S_n}{n} - \mu \right| = \left| \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{2} \right| = \frac{3}{10}$$

$$P(\text{error} > \frac{3}{10}) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{n \varepsilon^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1-\frac{1}{2})}{100 (\frac{3}{10})^2} = \frac{1}{36}$$

The actual probability is much lower than $\frac{1}{36}$ (just an upper bound)

Central Limit Theorem

Same setup. We want to know how S_n behaves.

$$E[S_n] = n\mu$$

$$\text{Var}(S_n) = \text{Var}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$$

since $X_1, \dots, X_n$ $\xrightarrow{\text{are independent.}}$ $= \text{Var}(X_1) + \dots + \text{Var}(X_n) = n\sigma^2$
(hence pairwise uncorrelated)

The Central Limit Theorem says that for very large n ,

$$S_n \stackrel{\text{(approx.)}}{\approx} N(n\mu, n\sigma^2) \leftarrow \text{Gaussian/Normal}$$

There are various precise versions of the CLT.

The classical CLT (Theorem 6.5) says that the sequence of

random variables $\left(\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges in-distribution

to $N(0, 1)$, i.e. the cdfs converge pointwise to

the cdf of $N(0, 1)$.

Ex: Suppose customers of a restaurant spend on average \$14 per visit with a standard deviation of \$9.

suppose there are 100 customers today. What is the probability that the total revenue today exceeds \$1300

By the CLT we can approximate total revenue by

$$\begin{aligned} N(n\mu, n\sigma^2) &= N(100 \cdot 14, 100 \cdot 9^2) \\ &= N(1400, 90^2) \end{aligned}$$

So we can approximate the probability exceeds \$1300

by $P(N(1400, 90^2) > 1300)$

$$= 1 - P(N(1400, 90^2) \leq 1300)$$

$$\approx 86.7 \% \quad (\text{calculated using R program})$$

Mean-squared error (MSE)

Suppose we have a model which uses X to predict Y .
(imagine we have two stocks), and our model is that
 $Y \approx f(X)$. The MSE of the approximation is

$$E[(Y - f(X))^2]$$

(this is also squared error in the sense of least squares)

Why use squared error? Two main reasons:

(i) It is nice linear-algebraically (it comes from the squared euclidian distance)

A diagram showing two points in a 2D plane. The first point is labeled (x, y) and the second point is labeled (x', y') . A line segment connects the two points, and it is labeled with the letter d above it. Below the line segment, the equation $d^2 = (x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2$ is written.

$$d^2 = (x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2$$

(ii) CLT.

↳ Suppose Y is exactly a linear function of X

plus some noise: $Y = \underbrace{\alpha + \beta X}_{\text{linear}} + \underbrace{Z}_{\text{noise}}$

$$Z \sim \underbrace{N(0, \sigma^2)}_{\text{why? CLT. (otherwise mean would just contribute to } \alpha)}$$

Now suppose we have n data points

$(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ sampled from (X, Y)

and we want to find the "best" model (best α, β)

→ one notion of best is the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE), which maximizes the probability (density) of observing the given data from our model. Let $p(x)$ be the pdf of $N(0, \sigma^2)$. The probability density of observing the given data is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i - (\alpha + \beta x_i)) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n c_1 \exp(-c_2 (y_i - (\alpha + \beta x_i))^2) \\ &= c_1^n \exp\left(-c_2 \underbrace{\left[\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - (\alpha + \beta x_i))^2 \right]}_{\text{want to minimize this (just the sample MSE!)}}\right) \end{aligned}$$