
33-765 — Statistical Physics

Department of Physics, Carnegie Mellon University, Spring Term 2020, Deserno

Problem sheet #1

1. Simpson's paradox (6 points)

A college offers two majors (A and B), to which both male and female students apply. The fraction of male and female students interested in major A is μ_A and ϕ_A , respectively, and to keep things simple, we assume that nobody applies to two majors. Show that the following can happen: *in both majors* the acceptance probabilities f_A and f_B for women are *larger* than those for men (m_A and m_B), and yet the *overall* acceptance rate for women is *lower* than that for men. Give a *complete and precise characterization* of the circumstances under which this situation occurs!

2. Sick Bayes (5 points)

Consider a disease that exists with some small probability p in the general population. Assume that people can be checked for the disease with a test that correctly picks it up with a (large) probability α (which is often called the “sensitivity” of the test). Of course, any test also has a (hopefully small) false positive rate β . (Incidentally, $1 - \beta$ is often called the “specificity” of the test). If a random person gets tested positive, what is the probability of them having the disease? How does one have to design such a test so that test-takers are not unnecessarily scared? Give an illustrative numerical example!

3. Characteristic functions and the amazing Central Limit Theorem (9 points)

The Fourier transform $\tilde{p}(k)$ of a probability density (henceforth: “p-density”) $p(x)$ is also called the “characteristic function”:

$$\tilde{p}(k) = \langle e^{ikx} \rangle = \int dx p(x) e^{ikx} \quad \left[\text{and hence: } p(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int dk \tilde{p}(k) e^{-ikx} \right]. \quad (1)$$

1. Let X be a random variable whose p-density $p_X(x)$ has moments $\mu_n = \langle X^n \rangle$. If these moments μ_n exists, prove that

$$\mu_n = i^{-n} \left[\frac{\partial^n}{\partial k^n} \tilde{p}_X(k) \right]_{k=0}. \quad (2)$$

2. If $\tilde{p}_{aX}(k)$ is the characteristic function of the random variable aX (with some $a \in \mathbb{R}$), show that $\tilde{p}_{aX}(k) = \tilde{p}_X(ak)$.
3. Let X and Y be two *independent* random variables with p-densities $p_X(x)$ and $p_Y(y)$. Let $p_{X+Y}(z)$ be the p-density of $Z = X + Y$. Prove that $p_{X+Y}(z) = \int dx p_X(x) p_Y(z-x)$ and that $\tilde{p}_{X+Y}(k) = \tilde{p}_X(k) \tilde{p}_Y(k)$.
4. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be n *independent* random variables with *identical distribution* $p_X(x)$, which has mean μ_1 and *finite variance* $\sigma^2 = \mu_2 - \mu_1^2$. Consider the centered and normalized random variables $Y_i = (X_i - \mu_1)/\sigma$ (which obviously have zero mean and unit variance) and the new (and seemingly curiously normalized) sum random variable

$$Z_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n - n\mu_1}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}. \quad (3)$$

If $\tilde{p}_{Z_n}(k)$ is the characteristic function of (the p-density of) Z_n , show that in the limit of large n you get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{p}_{Z_n}(k) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}k^2} \quad \text{and hence} \quad p_{Z_n}(x) \longrightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} \equiv \mathcal{G}_{(0,1)}(x). \quad (4)$$

Hint: The proof follows swiftly from what you've worked out so far; you will also need a cute representation for the exponential function: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [1 + x/n + o(x/n)]^n = e^x$, where $o(z)$ is any term that satisfies $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} o(z)/z = 0$.

This is (a version of) the amazing **Central Limit Theorem**: The distribution of the \sqrt{n} -normalized sum of the centered X_i becomes a Gaussian with zero mean and unit variance, *independent of the actual distribution of the X_i* (as long as their variance is finite). It also implies that for increasing n the p-density of the arithmetic mean, $\bar{X}_i = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \dots + X_n) = \mu + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} Z_n$ converges against, $\mathcal{G}_{(\mu, \sigma/\sqrt{n})}(x)$, a Gaussian centered around μ with variance σ/\sqrt{n} . Hence, the *error of the mean* also becomes Gaussian and decreases like $1/\sqrt{n}$. The Central Limit Theorem explains why the Gaussian distribution is “normal”: It naturally emerges once you do averaging. This is also why it appears all over the place.