

# 1 Probability

## 1.1 Basic concepts and results

- Random experiment: set of all possible outcomes is known; impossible to predict the actual outcome of the experiment
- $\Omega$  — sample space, contains all possible outcomes of the experiment
- Event: subset of  $\Omega$ ; we say that  $A \subset \Omega$  has occurred iff the outcome of the experiment is an element of  $A$
- Formally, the family of events forms a  $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of  $\Omega$  that we denote by  $\mathcal{A}$

- Probability measure:  $P : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfying Kolmogorov's axioms
  - $P(A) \geq 0$
  - $P(\Omega) = 1$
  - if  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  is a collection of pairwise incompatible events, i.e., if  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $P(\cup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$
- It's easy to prove various properties:
  - $P(\emptyset) = 0$
  - $A \subset B \Rightarrow P(A) \leq P(B)$
  - $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
  - $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
  - $P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$
  - $P(A - B) = P(A \cap \bar{B}) = P(A) - P(A \cap B)$

- **Conditional probability:** if  $P(B) > 0$ ,

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

- Let  $\{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$  denote a partition of  $\Omega$ :  $\cup_i A_i = \Omega$ ;  
 $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ ,  $i \neq j$ . Then, if  $P(A_i) > 0$  for all  $i$

- **Total probability theorem**

$$P(B) = \sum_i P(B \mid A_i) P(A_i)$$

- **Bayes' theorem** (if  $P(B) > 0$ )

$$P(A_j \mid B) = \frac{P(B \mid A_j)P(A_j)}{\sum_i P(B \mid A_i)P(A_i)}$$

- Remark:  $P(\cdot \mid B)$  is a probability measure

- **Random variable:** function defined in  $\Omega$  and taking values in  $\mathbb{R}$

$$X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\omega \mapsto X(\omega) = x$$

- A random variable  $X$  induces a probability measure in  $\mathbb{R}$  that we denote by  $P_X$ : if  $B \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P_X(B) = P(A), \quad \text{where } A = X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in B\}$$

- Formally, there must be a  $\sigma$ -algebra of subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$ , and we have to verify that for every set  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  we have  $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{A}$
- Typically,  $\mathcal{B}$  is the so-called Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra, and it suffices to make sure that  $X$  satisfies

$$X^{-1}(]-\infty, x]) \in \mathcal{A} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

- **Distribution function of a r.v.  $X$ :** for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$F_X(x) = P_X([-\infty, x]) = P(X \leq x)$$

- It suffices to know  $F_X(\cdot)$  to be able to compute  $P_X(B)$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  (Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra)
- For all  $a > b$ ,

$$P(a < X \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a)$$

- $F_X(-\infty) = 0$ ;  $F_X(+\infty) = 1$
- $F_X$  is right-continuous and non-decreasing
- Any function  $F$  that is non-decreasing, right-continuous and satisfies  $F(+\infty) = 1$  and  $F(-\infty) = 0$  is a distribution function
- The set of points at which  $F_X$  is discontinuous

$$D_X = \{x : F_X(x) - \lim_{y \nearrow x} F_X(y) > 0\} ,$$

is either finite or countable.

- **Discrete r.v.:**  $X$  is discrete if  $D_X$  is such that  $P_X(D_X) = 1$
- The probability mass function of  $X$  is defined as

$$f_X(x) = F_X(x) - \lim_{y \nearrow x} F_X(y) = \begin{cases} P(X = x) & \text{if } x \in D_X \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Any  $f$  satisfying
  - $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$
  - $f(x) > 0$  iff  $x \in D$ , where  $D \subset \mathbb{R}$  is finite or countable
  - $\sum_{x \in D} f(x) = 1$is a probability mass function
- For any event  $B \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$P(X \in B) = \sum_{x \in B \cap D_X} f_X(x)$$

- $F_X(x) = \sum_{y \leq x} f_X(y)$

- Discrete distributions: Bernoulli, binomial, Poisson, [geometric, negative binomial, multinomial, hypergeometric, etc.]



- **Continuous r.v.:**  $X$  is continuous if  $P_X(D_X) = 0$  and if additionally there is  $f_X$  such that for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 
  - $f_X(x) \geq 0$
  - $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(u) du$
- $f_X$  is known as the probability density function of  $X$
- At the points where  $F_X$  is differentiable, we have  $F'_X(x) = f_X(x)$
- Any  $f$  satisfying
  - $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$
  - $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = 1$is a probability density function
- Continuous distributions: uniform, exponential, gamma, chi-squared, normal,  $t$ -Student',  $F$ -Snedcor, [beta, Pareto, Weibull, log-normal, etc.]

- **Funções of a r.v.:** Let  $X$  be a r.v. and  $Y = h(X)$  where  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- We know the distribution of  $X$ , how do we determine the distribution of  $Y$ ?
- Example: Suppose  $X \sim N(0, 1)$ ; determine the distribution of  $Y = X^2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} F_Y(y) &= P(Y \leq y) = P(X^2 \leq y) = P(-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y}) , \quad y > 0 \\ &= F_X(\sqrt{y}) - F_X(-\sqrt{y}) , \quad y > 0 \end{aligned}$$

hence, taking derivatives with respect to  $y$ ,

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{2} y^{-1/2} f_X(\sqrt{y}) - \frac{1}{2} (-y^{-1/2}) f_X(-\sqrt{y}) = y^{-1/2} f_X(\sqrt{y})$$

where we have used the fact  $f_X(x) = f_X(-x)$ . Recalling that

$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp(-x^2/2)$  and that  $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$ , it is easy to

conclude that

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{2^{1/2} \Gamma(1/2)} y^{1/2-1} e^{-y/2}, \quad y > 0$$

that is,  $Y \sim \chi^2(1)$ .

- In general, if  $X = g(Y)$  with  $g$  invertible and differentiable, and  $X$  continuous, we have

$$f_Y(y) = |g'(y)| f_X(g(y))$$

- **Expected value:** Let  $Y = h(X)$ . The expected value of  $Y$  is defined by

$$E[Y] = \begin{cases} \sum_x h(x) f_X(x) & \text{if } X \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(x) f_X(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

- (Formally, we must additionally verify that the integral or series are absolutely convergent)
- $E[Y]$  may not exist
- Two methods of computing  $E[Y]$  with  $Y = h(X)$ : use the definition above (method 1), or first of obtain the distribution of  $Y$  and compute (method 2)

$$E[Y] = \begin{cases} \sum_y y f_Y(y) & \text{if } Y \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} y f_Y(y) dy & \text{if } Y \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

The two methods are equivalent.

- Example: Let  $X$  be a r.v. with pdf  $f_X(x) = 3x^{-4}$ ,  $x > 1$ . Determine  $E[X^2]$  using both methods.

- **Raw moment of order  $k$**

$$\mu'_k = E[X^k]$$

- **Central moment of order  $k$**

$$\mu_k = E[(X - \mu)^k], \quad \mu = E[X]$$

- If  $\mu'_k$  exists, then  $\mu'_r$  exists for all  $r \leq k$ ; similarly for  $\mu_k$
- Important moments:  $\mu'_1 = E[X]$ , measure of location;  
 $\mu_2 = \text{Var}(X)$ , measure of dispersion

- **Moment generating function:**

$$M_X(s) = E[e^{sX}]$$

whenever the expectation exists for  $s$  in a neighborhood of the origin

- If  $M_X(s)$  exists, then  $X$  has moments of all orders and

$$M^{(k)}(0) = E[X^k]$$

- The moment generating function (when it exists) identifies the probability distribution

Properties:

- $E[h_1(X) + h_2(X)] = E[h_1(X)] + E[h_2(X)]$
- If  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $E[cX] = cE[X]$ ;  $E[c] = c$
- If  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\text{Var}(cX + b) = c^2 \text{Var}(X)$
- $\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$
- $\text{Var}(X) \geq 0$ ;  $\text{Var}(X) = 0 \Leftrightarrow P(X = c) = 1$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$



- **Bivariate random variables**

$$(X, Y) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\omega \mapsto (X(\omega), Y(\omega)) = (x, y)$$

- If  $(X, Y)$  discrete, we define the joint probability mass function

$$f(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

- If  $(X, Y)$  continuous, then there exists the joint probability density function,  $f(x, y)$ , such that for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

- $f(x, y) \geq 0$

- $F(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(u, v) \, dv \, du$

- Whenever the derivatives exist  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F(x, y) = f(x, y)$

- **Marginal distributions**

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \sum_y f(x, y) & \text{if } (X, Y) \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x, y) dy & \text{if } (X, Y) \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

- **Expectation of  $Z = h(X, Y)$ :**

$$E[Z] = \begin{cases} \sum_x \sum_y h(x, y) f(x, y) & \text{if } (X, Y) \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(x, y) f(x, y) dy dx & \text{if } (X, Y) \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

- **Conditional distributions:**

$$f_{X|Y=y}(x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}, \quad y \text{ fixed} : f_Y(y) > 0$$

- **Conditional expectations:  $Z = h(X, Y)$**

$$E[Z | Y = y] = \begin{cases} \sum_x h(x, y) f_{X|Y=y}(x) & \text{if } (X, Y) \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(x, y) f_{X|Y=y}(x) dx & \text{if } (X, Y) \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

- **Raw moment of order**  $(r, s)$

$$\mu'_{(r,s)} = E[X^r Y^s]$$

- **Central moment of order**  $(r, s)$

$$\mu_{(r,s)} = E[(X - \mu_X)^r (Y - \mu_Y)^s]$$

- **Covariance:**  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = \mu_{(1,1)}$

Properties:

- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$
- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, X)$
- $\text{Cov}(cX, Y) = c \text{Cov}(X, Y), c \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\text{Cov}(X + Y, Z) = \text{Cov}(X, Z) + \text{Cov}(Y, Z)$
- $\text{Var}(X \pm Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y) \pm 2\text{Cov}(X, Y)$

- **Law of the iterated expectation:** if  $Z = h(X, Y)$  then

$$E[Z] = E_X[E[Z \mid X]]$$

- For the marginal variance:

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \text{Var}_X(E[Y \mid X]) + E_X[\text{Var}(Y \mid X)]$$

- $E[h(X) Y \mid X = x] = h(x) E[Y \mid X = x]$
- $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \text{Cov}(X, E[Y \mid X])$

- **(Stochastic) independence**  $X$  and  $Y$  are (stochastically) independent iff

$$\forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \quad f(x, y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y)$$

- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then
  - $\text{Var}(X + Y) = \text{Var}(X) + \text{Var}(Y)$
  - $M_{X+Y}(s) = M_X(s) M_Y(s)$
  - $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$
  - $E[X^r Y^s] = E[X^r] E[Y^s]$
  - $E[Y \mid X = x] = E[Y]; E[X \mid Y = y] = E[X]$
  - $f_{X|Y=y}(x) = f_X(x); f_{Y|X=x}(y) = f_Y(y)$

## Other forms of independence

- **Mean independence:**  $Y$  is mean independent of  $X$  iff  $E[Y \mid X = x]$  does not depend on  $x$  (for all  $x$ )
- **Uncorrelatedness:**  $X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated iff  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$

## Results

- If  $X$  and  $Y$  are stochastically independent, then  $Y$  is mean-independent of  $X$  (and  $X$  is mean-independent of  $Y$ )
- If  $Y$  is mean-independent of  $X$ , then  $X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated
- The converses are not true

## More results

- If  $Y$  is uncorrelated with  $X$ , then  $E[XY] = E[X]E[Y]$
- If  $Y$  is mean-independent of  $X$ , then  $E[X^k Y] = E[X^k]E[Y]$  for all  $k$

- If  $Y$  and  $X$  are stochastically independent, then  
 $E[X^k Y^r] = E[X^k] E[Y^r]$  for all  $k, r$