

## Lecture 2

### Introduction to probability & stats I

- Basic notation:

- Probability density function:  $h(x)$
- Cumulative density function:  $H(x)$

- Probability of " $x$ " within an interval " $dx$ " is given by " $h(x) dx$ ".

- May drop the " $dx$ " when referring to "probability of measuring  $x$  is  $p(x)$ " and assume it is implicit.

### \* Kolmogorov Axioms :-

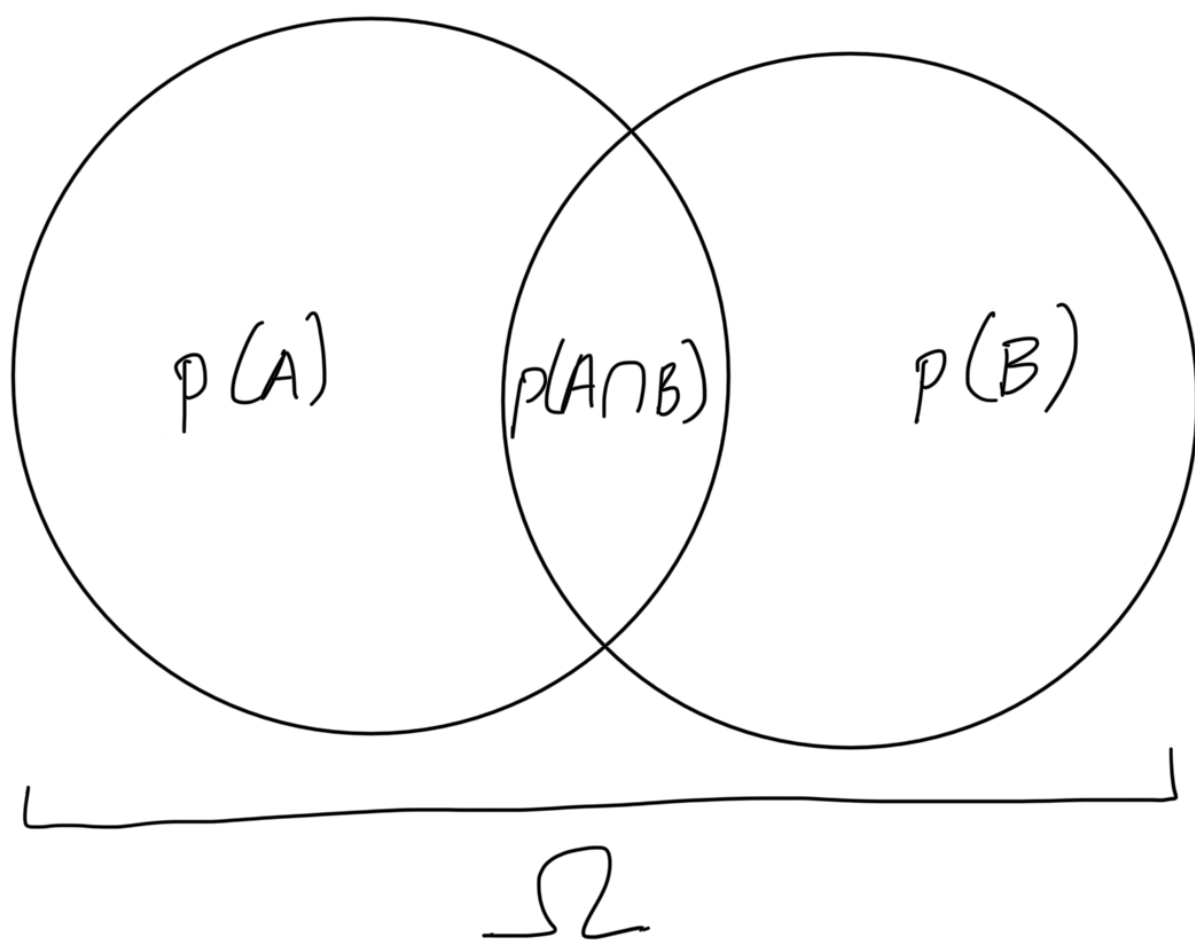
- Given an event  $A$ , we can assign a prob. to that event  $p(A)$ , called "probability of  $A$ ".

- This  $p(A)$  must satisfy three Kolmogorov axioms:

①  $p(A) \geq 0$  for each/all  $A$ .

②  $p(\Omega) = 1$ , where  $\Omega$  is a set of all possible outcomes.

(3) if  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are disjoint events,  
then,  
$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i),$$
  
where  $\bigcup$  stands for "union".



- Consequences of Kolmogorov axioms:

$$\bullet \quad P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

→ here  $\cap$  represents "intersection" of sets of A & B events.

• If the complement of A is  $\bar{A}$  (i.e. "not A"),  
then,

$$P(A) + P(\bar{A}) = 1$$

• The probability that both A & B happen

- The probability that both A & B happen,

$$p(A \cap B) = p(A|B) p(B) = p(B|A) p(A)$$

- A consequence of the last relation is that if  $B_i$ , with  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$  are disjoint events, and their union is the set of all possible outcomes, then,

$$\begin{aligned} p(A) &= \sum_i p(A \cap B_i) \\ &= \sum_i p(A|B_i) p(B_i) \end{aligned}$$

• This expression is called as the "law of total probability".

- Alternate interpretation:

$\cup \Leftrightarrow$  "OR"

$\cap \Leftrightarrow$  "AND"

## Random variables

- Defined as a variable whose value results from a measurement of a quantity subject to random variations.

• Rather than taking on a single value, RVs take on multiple values associated with a probability.

- Two types:

- 1) Discrete : take values from a countable set  
(e.g. rolls of a die/dice)
- 2) Continuous : map onto real numbers. (or complex, or matrices).

- Independent identically distributed (iid)  
variables are drawn from the same distribution  
and are independent.

- Two random variables are independent only if:

$$p(x, y) = p(x) p(y)$$

↑  
probability of obtaining  $x$  AND  $y$

for all values of  $x$  &  $y$ .

- The data are specific ("measured") values of  
RVs.

- Measured values  $\Leftrightarrow x_i$
- Set of all measurements  $\Leftrightarrow \{x_i\}$

## Bayes' Rule

- When two RVs are not independent,

$$p(x, y) = p(y|x) p(x) = p(x|y) p(y) - (1)$$

- The marginal probability is defined as,

$$p(x) = \int p(x, y) dy$$

- Combining these two equations, we get

$$p(x) = \int p(x|y) p(y) dy$$

- Re-arranging Eq. (1) & using the above eq<sup>n</sup>, we get the Bayes' rule

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x|y) p(y)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x|y) p(y)}{\int p(x|y) p(y) dy}$$

• For discrete RVs,

$$p(y_i|x) = \frac{p(x|y_i) p(y_i)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x|y_i) p(y_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^M p(x|y_j) p(y_j)}$$

- The Bayes' rule forms the foundation of Bayesian statistics.

Transformation of random variables

- For a given RV,  $x$ , with probability density,  $p(x)$ ,

- if  $y = \phi(x)$   
such that  $x = \phi^{-1}(y)$

$$\text{then } p(y) = p[\phi^{-1}(y)] \frac{d\phi^{-1}(y)}{dy}$$

- For example, if  $y = e^x$ , then

$$x = \phi^{-1}(y) = \ln(y)$$

if  $p(x)$  is uniform between  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ,

$$\text{then } p(y) = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{y} \text{ for } 1 \leq y \leq e$$

- Thus, a uniform distribution of  $x$  is transformed into a non-uniform distribution in  $y$ .