Probability Theory

It is a truth very certain that, when it is not in our power to determine what is true, we ought to follow what is most probable. - Rene Descartes

1. Probability Theory Refresher

Probability is defined as the triplet (Ω, \mathcal{E}, P) , where

- Ω is the sample space. It is the set of all possible mutually exclusive and all possible outcomes of a specified experiment. Each possible outcome ω of the set is called a sample point.
- \mathcal{E} is a family of events. $\mathcal{E} = \{A, B, C, \ldots\}$, where each event is a set of sample points $\{\omega\}$. An event is an outcome of interest.
- P is a real-valued mapping (function) defined on \mathcal{E} . P(A) is said to be the probability of the event A, provided the following axioms are satisfied.
- $[A_1]$ For any event $A, P(A) \geq 0$.
- $[A_2] P(\Omega) = 1.$
- [A₃] If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$.
- [A₄] If $A_j \cap A_k = \emptyset$, $j \neq k$, where $j, k \in \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$, then $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ...) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + ...$

Note that the axiom $[A_4]$ is superfluous if the sample space Ω is finite. Observe the following remarks.

Remarks Let A, and B be any events. Then

- 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$, where \emptyset is called the null event.
- 2. $P(A^c) = (1 P(A))$.
- 3. $P(A) \leq P(B)$, if $A \subset B$.

4.
$$P(A \cup B) = (P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B))$$
.

Definition The conditional probability of an event A, given event B has occurred, is given by:

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}, \qquad P(B) \neq 0$$

Definition Events A and B are said to be independent if and only if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$$

If the above relationship does not hold, then the events A and B are said to be dependent.

2. Random variables

Definition A random variable is a function X that maps an event $\omega \in \Omega$ into the real line. That is $X(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$.

The random variable is often denoted as X.

Definition The distribution function F_X (.) of the random variable X is defined for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ as $F_X(x) = P(X \le x)$.

It is sometimes referred to as the cumulative distribution function. This is a monotonically increasing function. That is, if $x \leq y$ then $F_X(x) \leq F_X(y)$. Also $F_X(x)$ tends to 0 as x tends to $-\infty$, and $F_X(x)$ tends to 1 as x tends to ∞ .

Definition A random variable X is discrete, if its set of possible values is countable. If the random variable X takes on values $x_j, j = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$, then the probabilities $P(X = x_j) = p_X(x_j), j = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$, are called the probability mass function of the random variable X. The probability mass function should satisfy

$$p_X(x_j) \geq 0, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\sum_{j \in \mathbb{P}} p_X(x_j) = 1$$

Also $F_X(x) = \sum_{x_j \le x} p_X(x_j)$.

Definition A random variable X is said to be continuous, if $X(\Omega)$ is a continuum of numbers. It is assumed that there exists a piecewise continuous function $f_X(\cdot)$ that maps real numbers into real numbers such that

$$P(a \le x \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f_X(x) dx$$

The function $f_X(x)$ is called the probability density function. It satisfies the following conditions:

$$f_{X}\left(x\right)\geq0$$
 and $\int_{\mathbb{R}}f_{X}\left(x\right)dx=1$

If X is a continuous random variable, then $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt$. It follows that

$$f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F_X(x)$$

3. Jointly Distributed Random Variables

Jointly distributed random variables are initially defined for two random variables. It can then be extended conveniently to N random variables.

Definitions. Let X and Y be jointly distributed random variables which take real values.

- 1. Joint distributions.
 - (a) The joint cumulative distribution function of two random variables X and Y is $F_{X,Y}(\cdot,\cdot)$, where

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X \le x, Y \le y)$$

(b) Let the two random variables X and Y be discrete. The joint probability mass function of the two random variables X and Y is $p_{X,Y}(\cdot, \cdot)$, where

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

(c) Let the two random variables X and Y be continuous. The random variables X and Y are jointly continuous if there exists a function $f_{X,Y}(\cdot,\cdot)$ such that

$$P\left(X \in \widetilde{A}, Y \in \widetilde{B}\right) = \int_{\widetilde{B}} \int_{\widetilde{A}} f_{X,Y}\left(x, y\right) dxdy$$

where \widetilde{A} and \widetilde{B} are any subsets of real numbers. The function $f_{X,Y}(\cdot,\cdot)$ is called the joint probability density function.

- 2. Marginal distributions.
 - (a) As y tends to ∞ , $F_{X,Y}(x,y)$ tends to $F_X(x)$. Similarly as x tends to ∞ , $F_{X,Y}(x,y)$ tends to $F_Y(y)$. $F_X(\cdot)$ and $F_Y(\cdot)$ are called marginal cumulative distribution functions of X and Y respectively.
 - (b) Let X and Y be both discrete random variables with joint probability mass function $p_{X,Y}(\cdot,\cdot)$. Then

$$p_{X}\left(x\right)=\sum_{y}p_{X,Y}\left(x,y\right), \ \ and \ \ p_{Y}\left(y\right)=\sum_{x}p_{X,Y}\left(x,y\right)$$

where $p_X(\cdot)$ and $p_Y(\cdot)$ are called the marginal mass functions of X and Y respectively.

(c) Let X and Y be both continuous random variables with joint probability density function $f_{X,Y}(\cdot,\cdot)$. Then

$$f_{X}\left(x\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}\left(x,y\right) dy, \quad and \quad f_{Y}\left(y\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}\left(x,y\right) dx$$

where $f_X\left(\cdot\right)$ and $f_Y\left(\cdot\right)$ are called marginal probability density functions of X and Y respectively.

- 3. Conditional distributions.
 - (a) Let X and Y be both discrete random variables with joint probability mass function $p_{X,Y}(\cdot,\cdot)$. Conditional probability mass function of X, given Y=y and $p_Y(y)>0$, is defined by

$$p_{X|Y}(x \mid y) = P(X = x \mid Y = y), \quad \forall x$$

(b) Let X and Y be both continuous random variables with joint probability density function $f_{X,Y}(\cdot,\cdot)$. Conditional probability density function of X, given Y=y and $f_Y(y)>0$ is defined by

$$f_{X|Y}(x \mid y) = \frac{f_{X,Y}(x,y)}{f_{Y}(y)}, \quad \forall x$$

4. Expectation

Definition The expectation or mean of a random variable X denoted by E(X) is:

$$E\left(X\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x dF_X\left(x\right)$$

Specifically:

1. If X is a discrete random variable.

$$E\left(X\right) = \sum_{x:p_{X}\left(x\right)>0} xp_{X}\left(x\right)$$

2. If X is a continuous random variable.

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

provided the integral exists.

5. Variance, Standard Deviation and Covariance

Definition The variance Var(X) of a random variable X, is:

$$Var(X) = E\left(\left(X - E(X)\right)^{2}\right)$$
$$= E\left(X^{2}\right) - \left(E(X)\right)^{2}$$

Definition The standard deviation σ_X of a of a random variable X is:

$$\sigma_X = \sqrt{Var(X)}$$

Definition The covariance Cov(X,Y) of a random variables X and Y is:

$$Cov(X,Y) = E((X - E(X))(Y - E(Y)))$$
$$= E(XY) - E(X)E(X)$$

Definition Let σ_X and σ_Y be the standard deviation of the random variables X and Y respectively. Let $\sigma_X \neq 0$ and $\sigma_Y \neq 0$. The correlation coefficient Cor(X,Y) of these random variables is:

$$Cor(X,Y) = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

6. Moment Generating Function

Definition. The moment generating function of random variable X is given by $\mathcal{M}_X(t) = E\left(e^{tX}\right)$.

- (a) If X is discrete random variable, then $\mathcal{M}_X(t) = \sum_x e^{tx} p_X(x)$.
- **(b)** If X is continuous random variable, then $\mathcal{M}_{X}\left(t\right)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}e^{tx}f_{X}\left(x\right)dx.$

7. Independent Random Variables

Definition Random variables X and Y are stochastically independent (or simply independent) random variables if

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = F_X(x) F_Y(y), \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Remarks Let X and Y be independent random variables. Then

- 1. E(XY) = E(X)E(Y). Note that the reverse is not true. That is, E(XY) = E(X)E(Y) does not imply independence of X and Y.
- 2. Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)

$$3. \ Cov(X,Y) = 0.$$

8. Examples of Some Distributions

Some examples of discrete and continuous time distributions are given.

8.1. Discrete Time Distributions.

Bernoulli Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a Bernoulli distribution, if the probability mass function of X is given by

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} (1-p), & \text{if } x = 0\\ p, & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

where $0 \le p \le 1$. Also E(X) = p, Var(X) = p(1 - p).

Binomial Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a binomial distribution, if the probability mass function of X is given by

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}, & \text{if } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $0 \le p \le 1, q = (1 - p)$, and $n \in \mathbb{P}$. Also E(X) = np, Var(X) = npq. Note that if n = 1, then we obtain a Bernoulli distribution.

Geometric Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a geometric distribution, if the probability mass function of X is given by

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} pq^x, & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{N} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $0 . Also <math>E(X) = q/p, Var(X) = q/p^2$.

If X is a geometrically distributed random variable, with parameter p, then

$$P(X \ge m + n \mid X \ge m) = P(X \ge n)$$
 for $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$

Poisson Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a Poisson distribution, if the probability mass function of X is given by

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}, & \text{if } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $0 < \lambda$. Also $E(X) = \lambda$, $Var(X) = \lambda$.

8.2. Continuous Time Distributions.

Uniform Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a uniform distribution, if the probability density function of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(b-a)}, & \text{if } x \in [a, b] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and a < b. Also E(X) = (a + b)/2, $Var(X) = (b - a)^2/12$. Also

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x < a \\ \frac{(x-a)}{(b-a)}, & \text{if } x \in [a,b] \\ 1, & \text{if } x > b \end{cases}$$

Exponential Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a exponential distribution, if the probability density function of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \in (-\infty, 0) \\ \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & \text{if } x \in [0, \infty) \end{cases}$$

where $\lambda > 0$. Also $E(X) = 1/\lambda$, $Var(X) = 1/\lambda^2$. And

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \in (-\infty, 0) \\ (1 - e^{-\lambda x}), & \text{if } x \in [0, \infty) \end{cases}$$

If X is an exponentially distributed random variable, with parameter λ , then

$$P(X > t + u \mid X > u) = P(X > t)$$
 for $t, u \in [0, \infty)$

This equation is said to represent the memoryless property of the exponential distribution. Exponential distribution is the only continuous time distribution, that possesses the memoryless property.

Normal Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a normal (or Gaussian) distribution, if the probability density function of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}, \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma > 0$. Also $E(X) = \mu$, $Var(X) = \sigma^2$.

If a normal random variable has $\mu=0$, and $\sigma=1$, then it is called a standard normal random variable. The probability density function $\phi(x)$, and its cumulative distribution function $\Phi(x)$ are given by

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}, \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} dy, \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

The function $\Phi(x)$ is generally evaluated numerically.

Cauchy Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a Cauchy distribution, if the probability density function of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\pi\beta \left[1 + \left(\frac{x-\alpha}{\beta}\right)^2\right]}, \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\beta \in (0, \infty)$. The mean and variance of this random variable do not exist. Its cumulative distribution function $F_X(x)$ is

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta} \right), \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Pareto Distribution

A random variable X is said to have a Pareto distribution, if the probability density function of X is given by

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \leq x_0 \\ \frac{\alpha}{x_0} \left(\frac{x_0}{x}\right)^{\alpha+1}, & \text{if } x > x_0 \end{cases}$$

where $x_0, \alpha \in (0, \infty)$. Note that x_0 is called the location parameter, and α is called the shape parameter. Also

$$E(X) = \frac{\alpha x_0}{(\alpha - 1)}, \text{ for } 1 < \alpha$$

$$Var(X) = \frac{\alpha x_0^2}{(\alpha - 2)} - \left(\frac{\alpha x_0}{\alpha - 1}\right)^2, \text{ for } 2 < \alpha$$

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \le x_0 \\ 1 - \left(\frac{x_0}{\alpha}\right)^\alpha, & \text{if } x > x_0 \end{cases}$$

Pareto distribution decays much more slowly than the exponential distribution. This distribution has recently found application in modeling internet traffic.