ECE 3100 - Functions, Formulas, and Definitions

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1 Pre - Prelim 1

1.1 Lecture 1 - What is Probability?

Probability is a way of mathematically modelling situations involving uncertainty with the goal of making predications decisions and models. Probability can be understood in many ways, such as:

1. Frequency of Occurence: Or percentage of successes in a moderately large number of similar situations.
2. Subjective belief: Or ceratinty based on other understood facts about a claim.

For our Probability Models, we define the set of all outcomes to be Ω, better known as the **sample space** of an experiment. All subsets of Ω are called **events**. These are both sets and can be understood using default set notation.

1.2 Lecture 2 - Probability Law

Given Ω chosen, a **probability law** on Ω is a mapping $\mathbb{P}$ that assings a number for every event such that:

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{ll} \mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0 & \text{for every event A} \\ \mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1 & \text{(normalization)} \end{array}} \tag{Kolmogorov's Axioms}$$

1.2.1 Additivity rules:

- If $A \cap B = \varnothing$, (A, B) events, then:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B)} \tag{1}$$

- If events $A_1, A_2, \ldots$ are all disjoint, then:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n)} \tag{2}$$

By these rules, we can surmise that $\boxed{\mathbb{P}(\varnothing) = 0}$.
For any events A, B:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)} \tag{Event Union}$$

When we have a probability law on a finite Ω with all outcomes equally likely (i.e. $\mathbb{P}(\{s\}) = 1/size(\Omega)$), we call this probability law $\mathbb{P}$ a **(discrete) uniform probability law**.

1.3 Lecture 3 - Conditional Prob & Product Rule

1.3.1 Conditional Probability

Conditional Probability is defined $\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) =$ "Probability of A given B". It is understood as the likelyhood that event A occurs, given that B also occurs.

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}} \tag{Conditional Probability Def}$$

If there is a finite number of different outcomes that are all equally likely, the conditional prbability can be written as follows:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \frac{\text{number of elements of } A \cup B}{\text{number of elements of } B}} \tag{3}$$

1.3.2 Product Rule

There are two main ways to write the product rule and they both have different setups.

- If we have events D_1 to D_n where $D_1 > D_2 > \cdots > D_n$ (D_1 largest, D_n smallest), then we can apply the first form of the product rule:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(D_n) = \mathbb{P}(D_1)\mathbb{P}(D_2 \mid D_1)\mathbb{P}(D_3 \mid D_2)\ldots\mathbb{P}(D_n \mid D_{n-1}} \tag{Product Rule 1}$$

- If we have events A_1 to A_n with non-empty intersection (i.e. $A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n$), let $D_k = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_k$, then $D_1 > D_2 > \cdots > D_n$. If we then write the product rule on the events D_n in terms of A_n, we get:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_2 \mid A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2)\ldots\mathbb{P}(A_n \mid A_1 \cap \ldots)} \tag{Product Rule 2}$$

1.4 Lecture 4 - Total Probability

Given an event B, say $C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n$ (events) is a **partition** of B when:

- $B = C_1 \cup C_2 \cup \cdots \cup C_n$
- C's are all disjoint

If $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ is a partition of Ω, then $C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n$ partitions B, where $C_k = B_k A_k$ for $a \leq k \leq n$.

From there we define the Total Probability Theorem:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(B) = \mathbb{P}(B \mid C_1)\mathbb{P}(C_1) + \mathbb{P}(B \mid C_2)\mathbb{P}(C_2) + \cdots + \mathbb{P}(B \mid C_n)\mathbb{P}(C_n)} \tag{Total Probability Theorem}$$

1.5 Lecture 5 - Bayes Law & Independence

1.5.1 Bayes Law

Bayes' Rule is defined by mixing the defintion of Condition Probability, and the Total Probability Theorem.

Given $\Omega, \mathbb{P}$, if $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ are events that partition Ω, and have nonzero $\mathbb{P}(A)$, then for any event B,

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}(A_k \mid B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B \mid A_k)P(A_k)}{\mathbb{P}(B \mid A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_1) + \cdots + \mathbb{P}(B \mid A_n)}} \tag{Bayes' Law}$$

1.5.2 Indpendence

Given $\Omega, \mathbb{P}$, any events A and B are **independent** when:

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{cc} \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B) & \text{or} \\ \mathbb{P}(A \mid B) = \mathbb{P}(A), \mathbb{P}(B) > 0 & \text{or} \\ \mathbb{P}(B \mid A) = \mathbb{P}(B), \mathbb{P}(A) > 0 & \end{array}} \tag{Independence Def}$$

1.6 Lecture 6 - Conditional Dependence & Counting

1.6.1 Conditional Dependence

Given Ω and $\mathbb{P}$: say that events A and B are **conditionally independent** given C when:

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{cc} \mathbb{P}(A \cap B \mid C) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid C)\mathbb{P}(B \mid C) & \text{or} \\ \mathbb{P}(A \mid B \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(A), \mathbb{P}(B) > 0 & \text{or} \\ \mathbb{P}(B \mid A) = \mathbb{P}(B), \mathbb{P}(A) > 0 & \end{array}} \tag{Conditional Independence Def}$$

1.6.2 Counting

Counting is the process of using the number of elements in the events to calculate probability. This technique mostly arises in situations where either:

- The sample space Ω has a finite number of equally likely outcomes. Then, for any event A,

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{\text{\# of elements of } A}{\text{\# of elements of } \Omega}$$

- An event A has a finite number of equally likely outcomes with probability p. Then for that event A:

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = p \cdot (\text{\# of elements of } A)$$

1.7 Lecture 7 - Counting

Counting Principle: in a process with a sequence of stages $1, 2 \ldots, r$ with n_1 choices at stage 1 over to n_r at stage r; # of coutcomes is $n_1 n_2 \ldots n_k$.

Can be used to rederive (# subsets of Ω) = $2^{\#(elem)}$.

1.7.1 k-permutations of n objects

We are given n distinct objects and a number $k \leq n$, and we want to find out the number of ways we could take k distinct objects from the group of n objects and arrange them in a sequence. By using the Counting Principle, we can find that the **number of k-permutations** of this set is:

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1) &= \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)(n-k)\dots 2\cdot 1}{(n-k)\dots 2\cdot 1} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \end{aligned}} \tag{K-permutations}$$

Special Case: If $k = n$, then the number of k-permutations of n objects is simply $n!$.

1.7.2 k-combinations of n objects

For finding the number of k-combinations, we can look back to our k-permutations and reason about them. Say we have the same setup as before but we are not arranging the items in a sequence. For each combination, we have $k!$ "duplicate" permutations. Thus, we can look at the number permutations and reason that the number of k-combinations should be that over $k!$, making the **number of k-combinations** of this set is:

$$\boxed{\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \binom{n}{k}} \tag{K-combinations}$$

1.8 Lecture 8 - Discreete Random Variables

1.8.1 Random Variables

Given Ω and $\mathbb{P}$, a **discrete random variable (r.v.)** is a real valued function with domain Ω that takes on only finite or countably infinite number of different values (i.e. $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$).

1.8.2 Probability Mass Functions

Given $\Omega, \mathbb{P}$, associated with any discrete rv $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is X's **probability mass function (pmf)** - notation p_X.

$$\boxed{\forall x \text{ of } X, p_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(A_X) \text{ where } A_X = \{s \in \Omega : X(s) = x\}} \tag{pmf Def}$$

Things to Note:

- $\mathbb{P}(A_X)$ can also be written as $\mathbb{P}(\{X = x\})$ or $\mathbb{P}(X = x)$.
- $p_X(x) \geq 0$ for all possible values of X.
- A pmf is essentially a probability law on the different values in the codomain of a random variable, so the same laws that apply to probability laws apply to pmfs:

$$\begin{aligned} p_X(x) \geq 0 &\quad \text{for every } x \in X \\ \sum_{x \in X} p_X(x) = 1 &\quad \text{(normalization)} \end{aligned}$$

- If V is any finite or countably inf. set of possible values of X, then if we set $B = \{$the event "$X \in V$" $\}$, (i.e. $B = \{s \in \Omega : X(s) \in V\}$), then $\mathbb{P}(B) = \sum_{x \in V} p_X(x)$.

Note: for a given pmf, there are multiple Ω's, $\mathbb{P}$'s, X's that lead to that PMF.

1.8.3 Common PMFs

- **Discrete uniform pmf of interval** $a \leq k \leq b$, $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$p_X(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a+1} & \text{when } a \leq k \leq b \\ 0 & \text{all over } k \end{cases}$$

- Let $p \in [0, 1]$; the **Bernoulli p pmf** be defined by:

$$p_X(k) = \begin{cases} p & \text{when } k = 1 \\ 1 - p & \text{when } k = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Given positive integer n, some $p \in [0, 1]$, the **Binomial(n,p) pmf** is defined as:

$$p_X(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad 0 \leq k \leq n$$

  This pmf tends to show up in situations involving sequences of independent trials, such as coin flips. Useful if you are trying to find the probability of k heads in n coin flips.

- Given $p \in (0, 1)$ the **geometric pmf** defined by:

$$p_X(k) = p(1-p)^{k-1} \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq k \leq \infty \text{positive integers}$$

  This pmf tends to show up in situations such as $\mathbb{P}$(it takes k flips to flip a heads).

- Poisson(X):

$$p_X(k) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \quad 0 \leq k \leq \infty (k \in \mathbb{N})$$

1.9 Lecture 9 - Expectation, Variance

1.9.1 Function of a Random Variable

Given a random variable X and any function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, can define another r.v. $Y = g(x)$:

$$\forall s \in \Omega, Y(s) = g(X(s))$$

The function of a discrete r.v. is another discrete r.v.. Generally, it is non-trivial to get the pmf of $Y = g(X)$, but it is sometimes easy. (See examples)

1.9.2 Expected Value

Given a discrete r.v. X with $p_X(x)$ pmf, we define the **expected value (expectation)**:

$$\boxed{\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{x \in X} x p_X(x)} \tag{Expected Value Definition}$$

Given $X, Y = g(X)$, what is $\mathbb{E}(Y)$? One way is to figure out $p_Y(g)$ for all possible values of $y \in Y$ and then find it through:

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \sum_{y \in Y} y p_Y(y)$$

and get P_y through p_x, though that is generally a non-trivial solution.

Another possible solution is to use the Expected Value Rule.

1.9.3 Expected Value Rule

Given $X, p_X, and Y = g(X)$,

$$\boxed{\mathbb{E}(Y) = \sum_{x \in X} g(X) p_X(x)} \tag{Expected Value Rule}$$

Special Case: $Y = \alpha X + \beta$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}(Y) &= \sum_{x \in X} g(x) p_X(x) \\
&= \sum_{x \in X} (\alpha x + \beta) p_X(x) \\
&= \alpha \sum_{x \in X} x p_X(x) + \beta \sum_{x \in X} p_X(x) \\
&= \alpha \mathbb{E}(X) + \beta
\end{aligned}$$