

01. COMBINATORIAL ANALYSIS

tricky - E18, E20-22, E23, E26

The Basic Principle of Counting

- combinatorial analysis** → the mathematical theory of counting
- basic principle of counting** → Suppose that two experiments are performed. If exp1 can result in any one of m possible outcomes and if, for each outcome of exp1, there are n possible outcomes of exp2, then together there are mn possible outcomes of the two experiments.
- generalized basic principle of counting** → If r experiments are performed such that the first one may result in any of n_1 possible outcomes and if for each of these n_1 possible outcomes, and if ..., then there is a total of $n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdot \dots \cdot n_r$ possible outcomes of r experiments.

Permutations

factorials - $1! = 0! = 1$

N1 - if we know how to count the number of different ways that an event can occur, we will know the probability of the event.

N2 - there are $n!$ different arrangements for n objects.

N3 - there are $\frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!}$ different arrangements of n objects, of which n_1 are alike, n_2 are alike, ..., n_r are alike.

Combinations

N4 - $\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)! r!}$ represents the number of different groups of size r that could be selected from a set of n objects when the order of selection is not considered relevant.

N4b - $\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r-1} + \binom{n-1}{r}$, $1 \leq r \leq n$

Proof. If object 1 is chosen $\Rightarrow \binom{n-1}{r-1}$ ways of choosing the remaining objects.

If object 1 is not chosen $\Rightarrow \binom{n-1}{r}$ ways of choosing the remaining objects.

N5 - The Binomial Theorem - $(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$

Proof. by mathematical induction: $n = 1$ is true; expand; sub dummy variable; combine using N4b; combine back to final term

Multinomial Coefficients

N6 - $\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!}$ represents the number of possible divisions of n distinct objects into r distinct groups of respective sizes n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r , where $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_r = n$

Proof. using basic counting principle,

$$\begin{aligned} &= \binom{n}{n_1} \binom{n-n_1}{n_2} \binom{n-n_1-n_2}{n_3} \dots \binom{n-n_1-n_2-\dots-n_{r-1}}{n_r} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(n-n_1)! n_1!} \times \frac{(n-n_1)!}{(n-n_1-n_2)! n_2!} \times \dots \times \frac{(n-n_1-n_2-\dots-n_{r-1})!}{0! n_r!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!} \end{aligned}$$

N7 - The Multinomial Theorem: $(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_r)^n = \sum_{(n_1, \dots, n_r): n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_r = n} \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!} x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_r^{n_r}$

Number of Integer Solutions of Equations

N8 - there are $\binom{n-1}{r-1}$ distinct *positive* integer-valued vectors (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r) satisfying $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_r = n$, $x_i > 0$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$

! cannot be directly applied to N8 as 0 value is not included

N9 - there are $\binom{n+r-1}{r-1}$ distinct *non-negative* integer-valued vectors

(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r) satisfying $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_r = n$

Proof. let $y_k = x_k + 1 \Rightarrow y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_r = n + r$

02. AXIOMS OF PROBABILITY

Sample Space and Events

- sample space** → The *set* of all outcomes of an experiment (where outcomes are not predictable with certainty)
- event** → Any *subset* of the sample space
- union** of events E and $F \rightarrow E \cup F$ is the event that contains all outcomes that are either in E or F (or both).
- intersection** of events E and $F \rightarrow E \cap F$ or EF is the event that contains all outcomes that are both in E and in F .
- complement** of $E \rightarrow E^c$ is the event that contains all outcomes that are *not* in E .
- subset** → $E \subset F$ if all of the outcomes in E that are also in F .
 - $E \subset F \wedge F \subset E \Rightarrow E = F$

DeMorgan's Laws

$$\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i \right)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i^c$$

Proof. to show $LHS \subset RHS$: let $x \in \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i \right)^c$
 $\Rightarrow x \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i \Rightarrow x \notin E_1$ and $x \notin E_2 \dots$ and $x \notin E_n$
 $\Rightarrow x \in E_1^c$ and $x \in E_2^c \dots$ and $x \in E_n^c$
 $\Rightarrow x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i^c$
 to show $RHS \subset LHS$: let $x \in \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i^c$

$$\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i \right)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i^c$$

Proof. using the first law of DeMorgan, negate LHS to get RHS

Axioms of Probability

definition 1: relative frequency

$$P(E) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(E)}{n}$$

problems with this definition:

- $\frac{n(E)}{n}$ may not converge when $n \rightarrow \infty$
- $\frac{n(E)}{n}$ may not converge to the same value if the experiment is repeated

definition 2: Axioms

Consider an experiment with sample space S . For each event E of the sample space S , we assume that a number $P(E)$ is defined and satisfies the following 3 axioms:

- $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$
- $P(S) = 1$
- For any sequence of mutually exclusive events E_1, E_2, \dots (i.e., events for which $E_i E_j = \emptyset$ when $i \neq j$),

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(E_i)$$

$P(E)$ is the probability of event E .

Simple Propositions

N1 - $P(\emptyset) = 0$

N2 - $P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i)$ (aka axiom 3 for a finite n)

N3 - strong law of large numbers - if an experiment is repeated over and over again, then with probability 1, the proportion of time during which any specific event E occurs will be equal to $P(E)$.

N6 - the definitions of probability are mathematical definitions. They tell us which set functions can be called **probability functions**. They do not tell us what value a probability function $P(\cdot)$ assigns to a given event E .

probability function \iff it satisfies the 3 axioms.

N7 - $P(E^c) = 1 - P(E)$

N8 - if $E \subset F$, then $P(E) \leq P(F)$

N9 - $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(E \cap F)$

N10 - Inclusion-Exclusion identity where $n = 3$

$$\begin{aligned} P(E \cup F \cup G) &= P(E) + P(F) + P(G) \\ &\quad - P(EF) - P(EG) - P(FG) \\ &\quad + P(EFG) \end{aligned}$$

N11 - Inclusion-Exclusion identity -

$$\begin{aligned} P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i) - \sum_{i_1 < i_2} P(E_{i_1} E_{i_2}) + \dots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{r+1} \sum_{i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_r} P(E_{i_1} E_{i_2} \dots E_{i_r}) + \dots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{n+1} P(E_1 E_2 \dots E_n) \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Suppose an outcome with probability ω is in exactly m of the events E_i , where $m > 0$. Then

LHS: the outcome is in $E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_n$ and ω will be counted once in $P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_n)$

RHS:

- the outcome is in exactly m of the events E_i and ω will be counted exactly $\binom{m}{1}$ times in $\sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i)$

- the outcome is contained in $\binom{m}{2}$ subsets of the type $E_{i_1} E_{i_2}$ and ω will be counted $\binom{m}{2}$ times in $\sum_{i_1 < i_2} P(E_{i_1} E_{i_2})$

- ... and so on

hence $RHS = \binom{m}{1} \omega - \binom{m}{2} \omega + \binom{m}{3} \omega - \dots \pm \binom{m}{m} \omega$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \omega \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} (-1)^i = \text{binomial theorem where } x = -1, y = 1 \\ &= 0 = LHS \end{aligned}$$

e.g. For an outcome with probability ω and $n = 3$

- Case 1.** $w = P(E_1 E_2)$
 LHS = ω
 RHS = $(\omega + \omega + 0) - (\omega + 0 + 0) + 0 = \omega$
- Case 2.** $\omega = P(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap E_3)$
 LHS = ω
 RHS = $(\omega + \omega + \omega) - (\omega + \omega + \omega) + \omega = \omega$

N12 -

- $P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i)$
- $P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i) - \sum_{j < i} P(E_i E_j)$
- $P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i) - \sum_{j < i} P(E_i E_j) + \sum_{k < j < i} P(E_i E_j E_k)$
- and so on.

Proof. $\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i = E_1 \cup E_1^c E_2 \cup E_1^c E_2^c E_3 \cup \dots \cup E_1^c E_2^c \dots E_{n-1}^c E_n$

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) = P(E_1) + P(E_1^c E_2) + P(E_1^c E_2^c E_3) + \dots + P(E_1^c E_2^c \dots E_{n-1}^c E_n)$$

Sample Space having Equally Likely Outcomes

tricky - 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20

Consider an experiment with sample space $S = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$. Then $P(\{e_1\}) = P(\{e_2\}) = \dots = P(\{e_n\}) = \frac{1}{n}$ or $P(\{e_i\}) = \frac{1}{n}$.

N1 - for any event E , $P(E) = \frac{\# \text{ of outcomes in } E}{\# \text{ of outcomes in } S} = \frac{\# \text{ of outcomes in } E}{n}$

increasing sequence of events $\{E_n, n \geq 1\} \rightarrow$

$E_1 \subset E_2 \subset \dots \subset E_n \subset E_{n+1} \subset \dots$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i$$

decreasing sequence of events $\{E_n, n \geq 1\} \rightarrow E_1 \supset E_2 \supset \cdots \supset E_n \supset E_{n+1} \supset \cdots$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i$$

03. CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY AND INDEPENDENCE

tricky - E6, urns (p.37)

Conditional Probability

N1 - if $P(F) > 0$. then $P(E|F) = \frac{P(E \cap F)}{P(F)}$

N2 - **multiplication rule** - $P(E_1 E_2 \dots E_n) = P(E_1)P(E_2|E_1)P(E_3|E_1 E_2) \dots P(E_n|E_1 E_2 \dots E_{n-1})$

N3 - **axioms of probability** apply to conditional probability

- $0 \leq P(E|F) \leq 1$
- $P(S|F) = 1$ where S is the sample space
- If E_i ($i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$) are mutually exclusive events, then

$$P(\bigcup_1^{\infty} E_i | F) = \sum_1^{\infty} P(E_i | F)$$

N4 - If we define $Q(E) = P(E|F)$, then $Q(E)$ can be regarded as a probability function on the events of S , hence all results previously proved for probabilities apply.

- $Q(E_1 \cup E_2) = Q(E_1) + Q(E_2) - Q(E_1 E_2)$
- $P(E_1 \cup E_2 | F) = P(E_1 | F) + P(E_2 | F) - P(E_1 E_2 | F)$

- theorem of total probability**:
 - $Q(E_1) = Q(E_1 | E_2)Q(E_2) + Q(E_1 | E_2^c)Q(E_2^c)$

- $P(H|F_n) = \sum_{i=0}^k P(H|F_n c_i)P(c_i|F_n)$

Total Probability & Bayes’ Theorem

conditioning formula - $P(E) = P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^c)P(F^c)$

tree diagram -

$$\begin{array}{c} \swarrow \begin{array}{l} P(F) \\ P(F^c) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} F \\ F^c \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{P(E|F)} E \\ \xrightarrow{P(E^c|F)} E^c \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{P(E|F^c)} E \\ \xrightarrow{P(E^c|F^c)} E^c \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} P(F|E) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(F) \cdot P(E|F)}{P(E)} \\ P(F^c|E) = \frac{P(EF^c)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(F^c) \cdot P(E|F^c)}{P(E)} \end{array}$$

Total Probability

theorem of total probability - Suppose F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n are mutually exclusive events such that $\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i = S$, then $P(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(EF_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(F_i)P(E|F_i)$

Bayes Theorem

$$P(F_j|E) = \frac{P(EF_j)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(F_j)P(E|F_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(F_i)P(E|F_i)}$$

application of bayes’ theorem

$$P(B_1 \mid A) = \frac{P(A|B_1) \cdot P(B_1)}{P(A|B_1) \cdot P(B_1) + P(A|B_2) \cdot P(B_2)}$$

Let A be the event that the person test positive for a disease.

B_1 : the person has the disease. B_2 : the person does not have the disease.

true positives: $P(B_1 \mid A)$	false negatives: $P(\bar{A} \mid B_1)$
false positives: $P(A \mid B_2)$	true negatives: $P(\bar{A} \mid B_2)$

Independent Events

N1 - E and F are independent $\iff P(EF) = P(E) \cdot P(F)$

N2 - E and F are independent $\iff P(E|F) = P(E)$

N3 - if E and F are independent, then E and F^c are independent.

N4 - if E, F, G are independent, then E will be independent of any event formed from F and G . (e.g. $F \cup G$)

N5 - if E, F, G are independent, then $P(EFG) = P(E)P(F)P(G)$

N6 - if E and F are independent and E and G are independent,
 $\nRightarrow E$ and FG are independent

N7 - For independent trials with probability p of success, probability of m successes before n failures, for $m, n \geq 1$,

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{method 1} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \swarrow \begin{array}{l} p \\ 1-p \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} S \\ F \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{P_{n-1,m}} \text{A win} \\ \xrightarrow{\hspace{1.5cm}} \text{B win} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{P_{n,m-1}} \text{A win} \\ \xrightarrow{\hspace{1.5cm}} \text{B win} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \quad \text{method 2} \quad \begin{array}{c} P_{n,m} = \sum_{k=n}^{m+n-1} \binom{m+n-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{m+n-1-k} \\ = P(\text{exactly } k \text{ successes in } m+n-1 \text{ trials}) \end{array}$$

recursive approach to solving probabilities: see page 85 alternative approach

04. RANDOM VARIABLES

- random variable** \rightarrow a real-valued function defined on the sample space

Types of Random Variables

- X is a **Bernoulli r.v.** with parameter p if \rightarrow

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p, & x = 1, \text{ ('success')} \\ 1-p, & x = 0 \quad \text{ ('failure')} \end{cases}$$

- Y is a **Binomial r.v.** with parameters n and $p \rightarrow Y = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$ where X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent Bernoulli r.v.’s with parameter p .
 - $P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$
 - $P(k \text{ successes from } n \text{ independent trials each with probability } p \text{ of success})$
 - e.g. number of red balls out of n balls drawn with replacement
- Negative Binomial** $\rightarrow X$ = number of trials until k successes are obtained
 - e.g. number of balls drawn (with replacement) until k red balls are obtained
- Geometric** $\rightarrow X$ = number of trials until a success is obtained
 - $P(X = k) = (1-p)^{k-1} \cdot p$ where k is the number of trials needed
 - e.g. number of balls drawn (with replacement) until 1 red ball is obtained
- Hypergeometric** $\rightarrow X$ = number of trials until success, *without replacement*
 - e.g. number of red balls out of n balls drawn without replacement

Summary

binomial	X = number of successes in n trials with replacement
negative binomial	X = number of trials until k successes
geometric	X = number of trials until a success
hypergeometric	X = number of successes in n trials without replacement

Properties

N1 - if $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$, and $Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n-1, p)$, then $E(X^k) = np \cdot E[(Y+1)^{k-1}]$

N2 - if $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$, then for $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$,
 $P(X = k) = \frac{(n-k+1)p}{k(1-p)} \cdot P(X = k-1)$

Coupon Collector Problem

Q . Suppose there are N distinct types of coupons. If T denotes the number of coupons needed to be collected for a complete set, what is $P(T = n)$?

A . $P(T > n-1) = P(T \geq n) = P(T = n) + P(T > n)$
 $\Rightarrow P(T = n) = P(T > n-1) - P(T > n)$ Let
 $A_j = \{\text{no type } j \text{ coupon is contained among the first } n\}$
 $P(T > n) = P(\bigcup_{j=1}^N A_j)$

Using the inclusion-exclusion identity,

$$\begin{aligned} P(T > n) &= \sum_j P(A_j) \quad \text{- coupon } j \text{ is not among the first } n \text{ collected} \\ &\quad - \sum_{j_1 \ j_2} \sum P(A_{j_1} A_{j_2}) \quad \text{- coupon } j_1 \text{ and } j_2 \text{ are not the first } n \\ &\quad + \cdots + (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{j_1 \ j_2} \sum \cdots \sum_{j_k} P(A_{j_1} A_{j_2} \cdots A_{j_n}) + \cdots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{N+1} P(A_1 A_2 \cdots A_N) \end{aligned}$$

$$P(A_{j_1} A_{j_2} \cdots A_{j_n}) = (\frac{N-k}{N})^n$$

$$\text{Hence } P(T > n) = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \binom{N}{i} \binom{N-1}{N}^n (-1)^{i+1}$$

Probability Mass Function

- for a *discrete* r.v., we define the **probability mass function** (pmf) of X by $p(a) = P(X = a)$
 - cdf, $F(a) = \sum p(x)$ for all $x \leq a$
- if X assumes one of the values x_1, x_2, \dots , then $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(x_i) = 1$
 - the pmf $p(a)$ is positive for at most a countable number of values of a

$$\text{e.g. } \frac{a}{p(a)} \Bigg| \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{array}$$

- discrete** variable \rightarrow a random variable that can take on at most a countable number of possible values

Cumulative Distribution Function

- for a r.v. X , the function F defined by $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$, $-\infty < x < \infty$, is called the **cumulative distribution function** (cdf) of X .
 - aka *distribution function*
 - $F(x)$ is defined on the entire real line

$$\text{e.g. } F(a) = \begin{cases} 0, & a < 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}, & 1 \leq a < 2 \\ \frac{3}{4}, & 2 \leq a < 4 \\ 1, & a \leq 4 \end{cases}$$

Expected Value

- aka population mean/sample mean, μ
- if X is a discrete random variable having pmf $p(x)$, the **expectation** or the **expected value** of X is defined as $E(X) = \sum_x x \cdot p(x)$

N1 - if a and b are constants, then $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$

N2 - the n^{th} moment of of X is given as $E(X^n) = \sum_x x^n \cdot p(x)$

- I is an indicator variable for event A if $I = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } A \text{ occurs} \\ 0, & \text{if } A^c \text{ occurs} \end{cases}$. then $E(I) = P(A)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof of N1. } E(aX + b) &= \sum_x (aX + b)p(x) \\ &= a \cdot \sum_x xp(x) + b \cdot \sum_x p(x) = a \cdot E(X) + b \end{aligned}$$

finding expectation of f(x)

- method 1, using pmf of Y : let $Y = f(X)$. Find corresponding X for each Y .
- method 2, using pmf of X : $E[g(x)] = \sum_i g(x_i)p(x_i)$
 - where X is a discrete r.v. that takes on one of the values of x_i with the respective probabilities of $p(x_i)$, and g is any real-valued function g

Variance

If X is a r.v. with mean $\mu = E[X]$, then the variance of X is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} Var(X) &= E[(X - \mu)^2] \\ &= \sum x_i (x_i - \mu)^2 \cdot p(x_i) \quad \text{(deviation \(\cdot\) weight)} \\ &= E(x^2) - [E(x)]^2 \end{aligned}$$

- $Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(x)$

Poisson Random Variable

a r.v. X is said to be a **Poisson r.v.** with parameter λ if for some $\lambda > 0$,

$$P(X = i) = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \frac{\lambda^i}{i!}$$

- notation: $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$
- $\sum_{i=0}^\infty P(X = i) = 1$
- Poisson Approximation of Binomial** - if $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$, n is large and p is small, then $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ where $\lambda = np$.
 - For n independent trials with probability p of success, the number of successes is approximately a *Poisson r.v.* with parameter $\lambda = np$ if n is large & p is small.
 - Poisson approximation remains even when the trials are not independent, provided that their *dependence is weak*.
- 2 ways** to look at the Poisson distribution
 - an approximation to the binomial distribution with large n and small p
 - counting the number of events that occur at *random* at certain points in time

Mean and Variance

if $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$, then $E(X) = \lambda, \text{Var}(X) = \lambda$

Poisson distribution as random events

Let $N(t)$ be the number of events that occur in time interval $[0, t]$.

N1 - If the 3 assumptions are true, then $N(t) \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda t)$.

N2 - If λ is the rate of occurrences of events per unit time, then the number of occurrences in an interval of length t has a Poisson distribution with mean λt .

$$P(N(t) = k) = \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^k}{k!}, \text{ for } k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$$

o(h) notation

$o(h)$ stands for any function $f(h)$ such that $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h)}{h} = 0$

- $o(h) + o(h) = o(h)$
- $\frac{\lambda t}{n} + o(\frac{t}{n}) \doteq \frac{\lambda t}{n}$ for large n

Expected Value of sum of r.v.

For a r.v. X , let $X(s)$ denote the value of X when $s \in S$

N1 - $E(x) = \sum_i x_i P(X = x_i) = \sum_{s \in S} X(s) p(s)$ where $S_i = \{s : X(s) = x_i\}$

N2 - $E(\sum_{i=1}^n) = \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i)$ for r.v. X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n

examples

Selecting hats problem

Let n be the number of men who select their own hats. Let I_E be an indicator r.v. for E . E_i is the event that the i -th man selects his own hat. Let X be the number of men that select their own hats.

- $X = I_{E_1} + I_{E_2} + \dots + I_{E_n}$
- $P(E_i) = \frac{1}{n}$
- $P(E_i | E_j) = \frac{1}{n-1} \neq P(E_j)$ for $j < i$ (hence E_i and E_j are not independent)
 - but dependence is weak for large n
- X satisfies the other conditions for binomial r.v., besides independence (n trials with equal probability of success)
- Poisson approximation of $X : X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$
 - $\lambda = n \cdot P(E_i) = n \cdot \frac{1}{n} = 1$
 - $P(X = i) = \frac{e^{-1} 1^i}{i!} = \frac{e^{-1}}{i!}$
 - $P(X = 0) = e^{-1} \approx 0.37$

No 2 people have the same birthday

For $\binom{n}{2}$ pairs of individuals i and j , $i \neq j$, let E_{ij} be the event where they have the same birthday. Let X be the number of pairs with the same birthday.

- $X = I_{E_1} + I_{E_2} + \dots + I_{E_n}$
- Each E_{ij} is only *pairwise independent*. $P(E_{ij}) = \frac{1}{365}$
 - i.e. E_{ij} and E_{mn} are independent

- but E_{12} and $(E_{13} \cap E_{23})$ are not independent $\Rightarrow P(E_{12} | E_{13} \cap E_{23}) = 1$
- $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda), \lambda = \frac{\binom{n}{2}}{365} = \frac{n(n-1)}{730} \Rightarrow P(X = 0) = e^{-\frac{n(n-1)}{730}}$
 - for $P(X = 0) \leq \frac{1}{2}, n \geq 23$

distribution of time to next event

Q. suppose an accident happens at a rate of 5 per day. Find the distribution of time, starting from now, until the next accident.

A. Let X = time (in days) until the next accident.

Let V = be the number of accidents during time period $[0, t]$.

$$V \sim \text{Poisson}(5t) \Rightarrow P(V = k) = \frac{e^{-5t} \cdot (5t)^k}{k!}$$

$$P(X > t) = P(\text{no accidents happen during } [0, t]) = P(V = 0) = e^{-5t}$$

$$P(X \leq t) = 1 - e^{-5t}$$

05. CONTINUOUS RANDOM VARIABLES

X is a **continuous r.v.** \rightarrow if there exists a nonnegative function f defined for all real $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$, such that $P(X \in B) = \int_B f(x) dx$

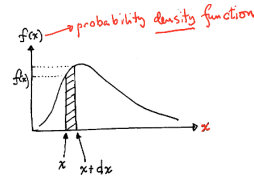
N1 - $P(X \in (-\infty, \infty)) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty f(x) dx = 1$

N2 - $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

N3 - $P(X = a) = \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$

N4 - $P(X < a) = P(X \leq a) = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$

N5 - interpretation of **probability density function**



$$P(x < X < x + dx) = \int_x^{x+dx} f(y) dy$$

$$\approx f(x) \cdot dx$$

pdf at $x, f(x) \approx \frac{P(x < X < x + dx)}{dx}$

N6 - if X is a continuous r.v. with pdf $f(x)$ and cdf $F(x)$, then $f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x)$. (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

N7 - median of X , x occurs where $F(x) = \frac{1}{2}$

Generating a Uniform r.v.

if X is a continuous r.v. with cdf $F(x)$, then

N8 - $F(X) = U \sim \text{uniform}(0, 1)$.

Proof. let $Y = F(X)$. then cdf of $Y, F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(F(X) \leq y) = P(X \leq F^{-1}(y)) = F(F^{-1}(y)) = y$. hence Y is a uniform r.v.

- N9** - $X = F^{-1}(U) \sim \text{cdf } F(x)$.
 - generating a r.v. from a uniform(0, 1) r.v. and a r.v. with cdf $F(x)$.

Expectation & Variance

expectation

N1 - **expectation of X** , $E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty x \cdot f(x) dx$

N2 - for a non-negative r.v. $Y, E(Y) = \int_0^\infty P(Y > y) dy$

N3 - if X is a continuous r.v. with pdf $f(x)$, then for any real-valued function $g, E[g(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^\infty g(x) f(x) dx$

• e.g. $E[aX + b] = \int_{-\infty}^\infty (aX + b) \cdot f(x) dx = a \cdot E(X) + b$

variance

N1 - variance of $X, \text{Var}(X) = E[(X - \mu)^2] = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$

example

Q - Find the pdf of $(b - a)X + a$ where a, b are constants, $b > a$. The pdf of X is

given by $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq X \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

A. Let $Y = (b - a)X + a$.

cdf, $F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P((b - a)X + a \leq y) = P(X \leq \frac{y-a}{b-a})$

$$F_Y(y) = \int_0^{\frac{y-a}{b-a}} 1 dx = \frac{y-a}{b-a}, \quad a < y < b$$

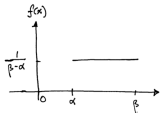
$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & a < y < b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Uniform Random Variable

X is a **uniform r.v.** on the interval $(\alpha, \beta), X \sim \text{Uniform}(\alpha, \beta)$

if its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta-\alpha}, & \alpha < x < \beta \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$E(X) = \frac{\alpha+\beta}{2}, \quad \text{Var}(X) = \frac{(\beta-\alpha)^2}{12}$$



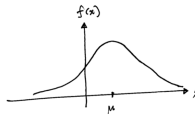
if $X \sim \text{Uniform}(\alpha, \beta)$, then $\frac{x-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha} \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$

Normal Random Variable

X is a **normal r.v.** with parameters μ and $\sigma^2, X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

if the pdf of X is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})^2}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$
$$E(x) = \mu, \quad \text{Var}(X) = \sigma^2$$



if $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$

if $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and a is a constant, $F_y(a) = \Phi(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma})$

standard normal distribution $\rightarrow X \sim N(0, 1)$

• $F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-\frac{1}{2}y^2} dy = \Phi(x)$

Normal Approximation to the Binomial Distribution

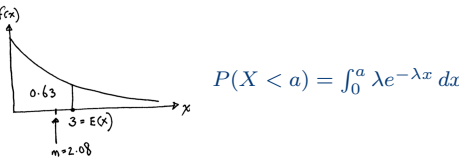
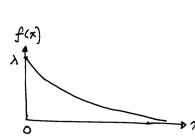
if $S_n \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$, then $\frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \sim N(0, 1)$ for large n .
 $\mu = np, \quad \sigma^2 = np(1 - p)$

Exponential Random Variable

a *continuous* r.v. X is a **exponential r.v.**, $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$ or $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$

if for some $\lambda > 0$, its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
$$E(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda}, \quad \text{Var}(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$



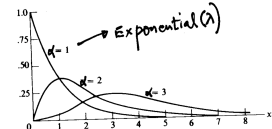
- an exponential r.v. is *memoryless*.
 - a non-negative r.v. is **memoryless** \rightarrow if $P(X > s + t | X > t) = P(X > s)$ for all $s, t > 0$.

Gamma Distribution

a r.v. X has a **gamma distribution**, $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ with parameters (α, γ) , $\lambda > 0$ and $\alpha > 0$ if its pdf is given by

f(x) = { lambda e^{-lambda x} (lambda x)^{alpha-1} / Gamma(alpha), x >= 0; 0, x < 0; E(X) = alpha/lambda, Var(X) = alpha/lambda^2

where the gamma function Gamma(alpha) is defined as Gamma(alpha) = integral from 0 to infinity of e^{-y} y^{alpha-1} dy.

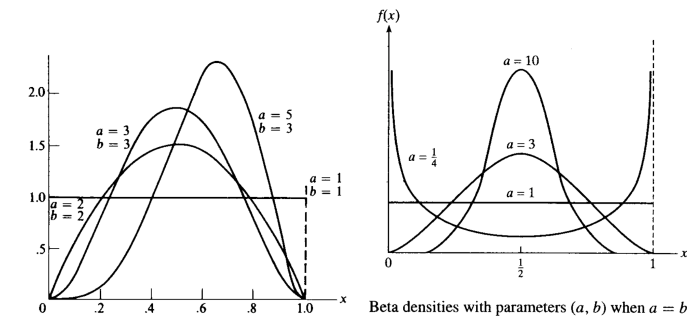


- N1 - Gamma(alpha) = (alpha - 1)Gamma(alpha - 1)
- Proof. using integration by parts of LHS to RHS
- N2 - if alpha is an integer n, then Gamma(n) = (n - 1)!
- N3 - if X ~ Gamma(alpha, lambda) and alpha = 1, then X ~ Exp(lambda).
- N4 - for events occurring randomly in time following the 3 assumptions of poisson distribution, the amount of time elapsed until a total of n events has occurred is a gamma r.v. with parameters (n, lambda).
- time at which event n occurs, T_n ~ Gamma(n, lambda)
- number of events in time period [0, t], N(t) ~ Poisson(lambda t)
- N5 - Gamma(alpha = n/2, lambda = 1/2) = chi_n^2 (chi-square distribution to n degrees of freedom)

Beta Distribution

a r.v. X is said to have a **beta distribution**, $X \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$ if its density is given by

f(x) = { 1/Beta(a,b) x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1}, 0 < x < 1; 0, otherwise; E(X) = a/(a+b), Var(X) = ab/((a+b)^2(a+b+1))



- N1 - beta(a, b) = integral from 0 to 1 of x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx
- N2 - beta(a = 1, b = 1) = Uniform(0, 1)
- N3 - beta(a, b) = Gamma(a)Gamma(b) / Gamma(a+b)

Cauchy Distribution

a r.v. X has a **cauchy distribution**, $X \sim \text{Cauchy}(\theta)$ with parameter θ , $-\infty < \theta < \infty$ if its density is given by $f(x) = 1/\pi \cdot 1/(1+(x-\theta)^2)$, $-\infty < x < \infty$

Proof. E(X^n) does not exist for n in Z+; E(X) = integral from -infinity to infinity of x \cdot f(x) dx = -infinity - infinity (undefined)

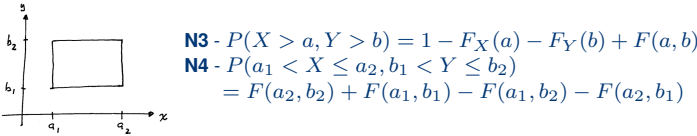
06. JOINTLY DISTRIBUTED RANDOM VARIABLES

Joint Distribution Function

the **joint cumulative distribution function** of the pair of r.v. X and Y is -> F(x, y) = P(X <= x, Y <= y), -infinity < x < infinity, -infinity < y < infinity

N1 - marginal cdf of X, F_X(x) = lim_{y -> infinity} F(x, y).

N2 - marginal cdf of Y, F_Y(y) = lim_{x -> infinity} F(x, y).



Joint Probability Mass Function

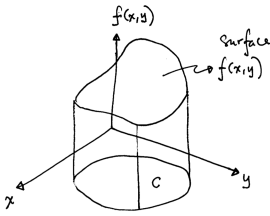
if X and Y are both discrete r.v., then their **joint pmf** is defined by $p(i, j) = P(X = i, Y = j)$

- N1 - marginal pmf of X, P(X = i) = sum_j P(X = i, Y = j)
- N2 - marginal pmf of Y, P(Y = i) = sum_i P(X = i, Y = j)

Joint Probability Density Function

the r.v. X and Y are said to be **jointly continuous** if there is a function $f(x, y)$ called the **joint pdf**, such that for any two-dimensional set C ,

P[(X, Y) in C] = double integral over C of f(x, y) dx dy = volume under the surface over the region C.



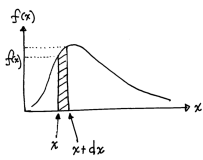
- N1 - if C = {(x, y) : x in A, y in B}, then P(X in A, Y in B) = double integral over B of integral over A of f(x, y) dx dy

N2 - F(a, b) = P(X in (-infinity, a], Y in (-infinity, b]) = integral from -infinity to b of integral from -infinity to a of f(x, y) dx dy

for double integral: when integrating dx, take y as a constant

N3 - f(a, b) = partial^2 / partial a partial b F(a, b)

interpretation of pdf



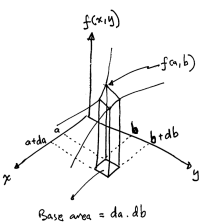
P(x < X < x + dx) = integral from x to x+dx of f(y) dy approx f(x) dx

pdf at x, f(x) approx P(x < X < x+dx) / dx

N4 - pdf of X, f_X(x) = integral from 0 to infinity of f(x, y) dy

N5 - pdf of Y, f_Y(y) = integral from 0 to infinity of f(x, y) dx

interpretation of joint pdf

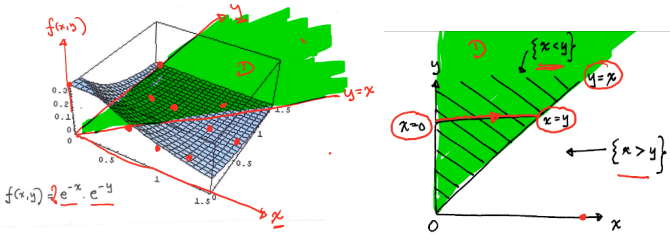


P(a < X < a + da, b < Y < b + db) = integral from b to b+db of integral from a to a+da of f(x, y) dx dy approx f(a, b) da db (density of probability); marginal pdf of X, f_X(x) = integral from -infinity to infinity of f(x, y) dy; marginal pdf of Y, f_Y(y) = integral from -infinity to infinity of f(x, y) dx

how to do a double integral

e.g. find P(X < Y) where the joint pdf of X and Y are given by

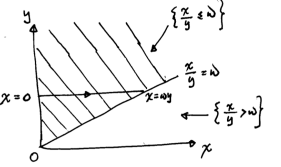
f(x, y) = { 2e^{-x}e^{-y}, 0 < x < infinity, 0 < y < infinity; 0, otherwise



- 1. to get the bounds for dx and dy, plot X < Y
 - 1.1. draw horizontal lines to determine the bounds for x, from x = a to x = b
 - 1.2. draw vertical lines to determine the bounds for y, from y = c to y = d
- 2. integrate integral from c to d of integral from a to b of f(x) dx dy

example - given the joint pdf of X and Y, find the pdf of r.v. X/Y.

ans. set dummy variable W = X/Y, then F_W(w) = P(W <= w) = P(X/Y <= w); P(X/Y <= w) = integral from 0 to infinity of integral from 0 to wy of e^{-x-y} dx dy



Independent Random Variables

N1 - X and Y are **independent** -> P(X in A, Y in B) = P(X in A) \cdot P(Y in B)

N2 - X and Y are **independent** -> for all a, b, P(X <= a, Y <= b) = P(X <= a) \cdot P(Y <= b) or F(a, b) = F_X(a) \cdot F_Y(b)

N3 - when X and Y are **discrete r.v.**, the condition of independence is equivalent to P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x) \cdot P(Y = y) for all x, y.

N4 - in the **jointly continuous** case, the condition of independence is equivalent to f(x, y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y) for all x, y.

commutative	$E \cup F = F \cup E$	$E \cap F = F \cap E$
associative	$(E \cup F) \cup G = E \cup (F \cup G)$	$(E \cap F) \cap G = E \cap (F \cap G)$
distributive	$(E \cup F) \cap G = (E \cap G) \cup (F \cap G)$	$(E \cap F) \cup G = (E \cup G) \cap (F \cup G)$
DeMorgan's	$(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i^c$	$(\bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i^c$