

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.** $\omega = P(E_1 E_2)$
 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 -

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

$$(ii) \quad P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i) - \sum_{j < i} P(E_i E_j)$$

$$(iii) \quad P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i) - \sum_{j < i} P(E_i E_j) + \sum_{k < j < i} P(E_i E_j E_k)$$

(iv) 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 -> infinity} E_n = union_{i=1}^infinity E_i

decreasing sequence of events {E_n, n ≥ 1} -> E_1 supset E_2 supset ... supset E_n supset E_{n+1} supset ...

lim_{n -> infinity} E_n = intersection_{i=1}^infinity E_i

03. CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY AND INDEPENDENCE

tricky - E6, urns (p.37)

Conditional Probability

- N1 - if P(F) > 0. then P(E|F) = (P(E intersection F) / P(F))
- N2 - multiplication rule - P(E_1 E_2 ... E_n) = P(E_1) P(E_2 | E_1) P(E_3 | E_1 E_2) ... P(E_n | E_1 E_2 ... E_{n-1})
- N3 - axioms of probability apply to conditional probability
 - 0 ≤ P(E|F) ≤ 1
 - P(S|F) = 1 where S is the sample space
 - If E_i (i ∈ Z_{≥1}) are mutually exclusive events, then

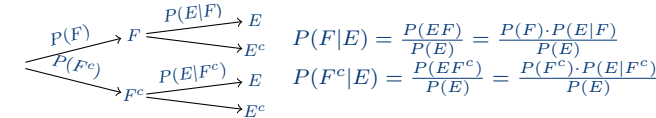
P(intersection_{i=1}^infinity E_i | F) = intersection_{i=1}^infinity P(E_i | F)

- 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 union E_2) = Q(E_1) + Q(E_2) - Q(E_1 E_2)
- P(E_1 union 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 -



Total Probability

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

Bayes Theorem

P(F_j | E) = (P(E F_j) / P(E)) = (P(F_j) P(E | F_j) / sum_{i=1}^n P(F_i) P(E | F_i))

application of bayes' theorem

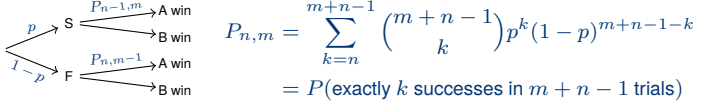
P(B_1 | A) = (P(A | B_1) · P(B_1) / (P(A | B_1) · P(B_1) + P(A | B_2) · P(B_2)))

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 A) | false negatives: P(A-bar B_1) |
| false positives: P(A B_2) | true negatives: P(A-bar B_2) |

Independent Events

- N1 - E and F are independent <=> P(EF) = P(E) · P(F)
- N2 - E and F are independent <=> 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 union G)
- N5 - if E, F, G are independent, then P(EEFG) = 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 ≥ 1,



recursive approach to solving probabilities: see page 85 alternative approach

04. RANDOM VARIABLES

- random variable -> a real-valued function defined on the sample space

Types of Random Variables

- X is a Bernoulli r.v. with parameter p if ->
$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p, & x = 1, \text{ ('success')} \\ 1 - p, & x = 0 \text{ ('failure')} \end{cases}$$
- Y is a Binomial r.v. with parameters n and p -> Y = X_1 + X_2 + ... + X_n where X_1, X_2, ..., X_n are independent Bernoulli r.v.'s with parameter p.
 - P(X = k) = (n choose k) p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}
 - P(k successes from n independent trials each with probability p of success)
 - e.g. number of red balls out of n balls drawn with replacement
- Negative Binomial -> X = number of trials until k successes are obtained
 - e.g. number of balls drawn (with replacement) until k red balls are obtained
- Geometric -> X = number of trials until a success is obtained
 - P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} · p where k is the number of trials needed
 - e.g. number of balls drawn (with replacement) until 1 red ball is obtained
- Hypergeometric -> 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 |

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 ≥ n) = P(T = n) + P(T > n)
=> P(T = n) = P(T > n - 1) - P(T > n) Let
A_j = {no type j coupon is contained among the first n}
P(T > n) = P(union_{j=1}^N A_j)
Using the inclusion-exclusion identity,
P(T > n) = sum_j P(A_j) - coupon j is not among the first n collected
- sum_{j_1 j_2} P(A_{j_1} A_{j_2}) - coupon j_1 and j_2 are not the first n
+ ... + (-1)^{k+1} sum_{j_1} sum_{j_2} ... sum_{j_k} P(A_{j_1} A_{j_2} ... A_{j_n}) + ...
+ (-1)^{N+1} P(A_1 A_2 ... A_N)

P(A_{j_1} A_{j_2} ... A_{j_n}) = ((N-k)/N)^n

Hence P(T > n) = sum_{i=1}^{N-1} (N choose i) ((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 ≤ a
 - if X assumes one of the values x_1, x_2, ..., then sum_{i=1}^infinity p(x_i) = 1
 - the pmf p(a) is positive for at most a countable number of values of a

e.g. p(a) | 1/2, 1/4, 1/4

- discrete variable -> 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 ≤ x), -infinity < x < infinity, is called the cumulative distribution function (cdf) of X.
 - aka distribution function
 - F(x) is defined on the entire real line

e.g. F(a) = { 0, a < 1; 1/2, 1 ≤ a < 2; 3/4, 2 ≤ a < 4; 1, a ≤ 4

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 · 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 · p(x)

I is an indicator variable for event A if I = { 1, if A occurs; 0, if A^c occurs } . then E(I) = P(A).

Proof of N1. E(aX + b) = sum_x (aX + b)p(x) = a · sum_x xp(x) + b · sum_x p(x) = a · E(X) + b

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 μ = E[X], then the variance of X is defined by
- $$\begin{aligned} Var(X) &= E[(X - \mu)^2] \\ &= \sum x_i (x_i - \mu)^2 \cdot p(x_i) \quad (\text{deviation} \cdot \text{weight}) \\ &= E(x^2) - [E(x)]^2 \end{aligned}$$
- Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(x)

| | | |
|---------------------|---|---|
| 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 | $(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i^c$ | $(\bigcap_{i=1}^n E_i)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i^c$ |