Brief Theory of Probability: Notes from MATH 431 Compiled by Harry Luo

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1 Sample Spaces, collection of events, probability measure

- Sample space Ω : set of all possible outcomes of an experiment. Comes in ntuples where n represents number of repeated trials.
- Collection of events \mathcal{F} : subset of state space to which we assign a probability.
- Probability measure: function that assigns a probability to each event. $P: F \rightarrow$
 - Range is [0, 1].
 - $P(\Omega) = 1$ and $P(\emptyset) = 0$
 - For pairwise disjoint events $A_1, A_2, ...,$ $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ...) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + ...$

2 Sampling: Uniform, Replacement, Order

- · uniform sampling: each outcome is equally likely
- · Binomial coeff

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \tag{1}$$

2.1 Replacement

• ex: sample K distinct marked balls from N balls in a box, with Replacement

$$\Omega = \left\{1,2,3,...,N\right\}^K$$

$$\|\Omega\| = N^K$$

$$P(\text{none of the balls is marked 1}) = \frac{(N-1)^K}{N^K}$$
 (2)

• ex: sample K distinct marked balls from N balls in a box, without Replacement

$$\begin{split} \Omega &= \{(i_1,i_2,...,i_K) \mid i_1,...,i_K \in \{1,2,...,N\}, \text{distinct} \\ \|\Omega\| &= \binom{N-1}{K} \\ P(\text{none of the balls is marked 1}) &= \frac{\binom{N-1}{K}}{\binom{N}{K}} = \frac{N-K}{N} \end{split} \tag{3}$$

2.2 Order

▶ order matters: $A_n^k = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ ▶ order doesn't matter: $\binom{n}{k} = C_n^k = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$

3 Infinite Sample Spaces

3.1 discrete

$$\Omega = \{\infty, 1, 2, \dots\} \tag{4}$$

3.2 continuous

$$P([a',b']) = \frac{\text{length of } [a',b']}{\text{length of} [a,b]}$$
(5)

single point, or sets of points: $P(\lbrace x \rbrace) = P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \lbrace x_i \rbrace) = 0$

4 Conditional Probability, Law of Total Prob., Bayes' Theorem, Independence

4.1 Conditional prob.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|B|} \Rightarrow P(AB) = P(B)P(A|B) \tag{6}$$

(new sample space is B, total number of outcomes is $A \cap B$)

4.2 Law of total probability:

Given partitions B_1, B_2, \dots of Ω ,

$$P(A) = \sum_{i} P(A|B_i)P(B_i) \tag{7}$$

4.3 Bayes' Theorem:

Given events A, B, P(A) and P(B) > 0,

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}{P(A)} \tag{8}$$

Considering the law of total prob., the generalized form, when B_i are partitions, is given as:

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}{\sum_i P(A|B_j)P(B_j)} \tag{9}$$

4.4 Independence:

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B) \Leftrightarrow P(B|A) = P(B) \tag{10}$$

Note: By virtue of conventions, we write $A \cap B$ as AB in Probability. If A,B,C,D are independent, it follows that P(ABCD) = P(A)P(B)P(C)P(D); however, the inverse is not always true.

• Independence of Random Variables (messy as hell...)

Given 2 random variables

$$\begin{split} X_1 \in \{x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, ..., x_{1m}\} \\ X_2 \in \{x_{21}, x_{22}, x_{23}, ..., x_{2n}\} \\ \text{Random variables X_1 and X_2 are independent} \Leftrightarrow \end{split} \tag{11}$$

 $P(X_1 = x_{1i}, X_2 = x_{2i}) = P(X_1 = x_{1i})P(X_2 = x_{2i})$

Need to check n*m equations to verify independence.

4.5 Conditional Independence:

For events $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n, B$, any set of events in A: A_{i1}, A_{i2}, A_{i3} , they are conditionally independent given B if

$$P(A_{i1}A_{i2}A_{i3}|B) = P(A_{i1}|B) * P(A_{i2}|B) * P(A_{i3}|B) \tag{12} \label{eq:12}$$

5 Independent Trials, Distributions

5.1 Bernoulli dirtribution:

a single trial, with success probability p, and failure probability 1-p. Prameter being the success probability.

$$X \sim \text{Ber}(p) \Rightarrow P(X = x) = p^x * (1 - p)^{1 - x}, x \in \{0, 1\}$$
 (13)

5.2 Binomial Distribution:

multiple independent Bernoulli trials, with success probability p, and failure probability 1-p. Parameters being the number of trials n and the success probability p.

$$X \sim \mathrm{Bin}(n,p) \Rightarrow P(X=k) = {n \choose k} p^k * (1-p)^{n-k}, k \in \{0,1,...,n\} \quad (14)$$

5.3 Geometric distribution:

multiple independent Bernoulli trials with success probability p, while stoping the experiment at the first success.

$$X \sim \text{Geom}(p) = p * (1-p)^{k-1}, k \in \{1, 2, ...\}$$
 (15)

5.4 Hypergeometric distribution:

There are N objects of type A, and N_A-N objects of type B. Pick n objects without replacement. Denote number of A objects we picked as k. Parameters are N,N_A,n .

$$P(X=k) = \frac{\binom{N_A}{k} \binom{N-N_A}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}} \tag{16}$$

choose k from N_A, choose n-k from N-N_A, divide by total number of ways to choose n from N

6 Random Variables

6.1 Discrete random variable

Discrete random variables are random variables that can take on a countable number of values. It comes naturally from discrete, finite or infinitly countable sample spaces. (As briefly discussed in Section 3.1)

For $A=\{k_1,k_2,...,\}$ s.t. random variable $X\in A$, or $P(X\in A)=1$, X is a random variable, with possible values $k_1,k_2,...$ and $P(X=k_n)>0$

6.1.1 Probability Mass Function (pmf)

The PMF is a function that defines the probability distribution for a discrete random variable. It gives the probability of the random variable taking on each possible value. The PMF, denoted as

$$p_X(k) = P(X = k)$$
, where k are possible values of X (17)

It is a function of k, and

$$p_X: S \to [0, 1], \tag{18}$$

where:

S is the support set, i.e., the set of all possible values that the discrete random variable X can take. [0, 1] represents the range of the function, as probabilities are always between 0 and 1. For each value k in the support set S, the PMF assigns a probability $p_X(k)$, which represents the likelihood of the random variable X taking the value k.

The PMF satisfies the following properties:

Non-negativity: $p_{X(k)} \ge 0$ for all k in S.

Total probability: $\sum_{k} p_{X(k)} = 1$ where the sum is taken over all k in S.

Example: For a fair six-sided die, the PMF would be $P(X=x)=\frac{1}{6}$ for x=1,2,3,4,5,6. Or more elegantly,

$$p_X(k) = \frac{1}{6}$$
, for every $k \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ (19)

6.2 continuous Random Variables

Not rigorously defined in this class, but a continuous random variable is one that can take on any value in a range. The probability of a continuous random variable taking on a specific value is 0. It came natually from continuous sample spaces. The probability is assigned to intervals of values, and they are assigned by the **probability density function**.

6.2.1 Probability Density Function (pdf)

continuous r.v are defined in this class by having a probability density function. A random variable X is continuous if there exists a function f(x) such that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 1, f(x) > 0 \text{ everywhere}$$
and $P(X \le b) = \int_{-\infty}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \Leftrightarrow P(a \le X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$ (20)

6.2.2 Cumulative Distribution Function (cdf)

cdf of a r.v. is defined as

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) \tag{21}$$

and it follows that

$$P(a < X \le b) = P(X \le b) - P(X \le a) = F(b) - F(a)$$
 (22)

• Continuous r.v.

it looks suspiciously like an indefinite integral, and when we are dealing with continuous r.v., it is.

$$F(s) = P(X \le s) = \int_{-\infty}^{s} f(x) dx$$

Recall the fundamental theorm of calculus,

$$F'(x) = f(x), \tag{23}$$

so the pdf is the derivative of the cdf.

• Discrete r.v.

pmf and cdf is connected by

$$F(x) = P(X \le s) = \sum_{k \le x} p_{X(k)} \tag{24}$$

where the sum is taken over all k such that $k \leq x$.

In english, the cdf is the sum of the pmf up to the value x, or "compound probability thus far"

If the cdf graph is stepped (piecewise constant), it is a discrete r.v. If it is continuous except at several points, it is a continuous r.v.

6.3 continuous Distribution

Based on different pdf, we have different behaviors of random variables. We call them distributions.

6.3.1 Uniform Distribution

r.v. X has the uniform distribution on the interval [a,b] if its pdf is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } a \le x \le b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (25)

TODO(MORE TO COME, ORDER OF BOOK WEIRD)