# Probability and Stochastic Modelling 1

Semester 1, 2022

 $Dr\ Alexander\ Browning$ 

TARANG JANAWALKAR





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# 1 Events and Probability

#### 1.1 Events

**Definition 1.1** (Event). An event is a set of outcomes in a random experiment commonly denoted by a capital letter. Events can be simple (a single event) or compound (two or more simple events).

**Definition 1.2** (Sample space). The set of all possible outcomes of an experiment is known as the sample space for that experiment and is denoted  $\Omega$ .

**Definition 1.3** (Intersection). An intersection between two events A and B describes the set of outcomes that occur in both A and B. The intersection can be represented using the set AND operator  $(\cap) - A \cap B$  (or AB).

**Definition 1.4** (Disjoint). Disjoint (mutually exclusive) events are two events that cannot occur simultaneously, or have no common outcomes.

**Theorem 1.1.1** (Intersection of disjoint events). The intersection of disjoint events results in the null set  $(\emptyset)$ .

**Lemma 1.1.1.1.** Disjoint events are **dependent** events as the occurrence of one means the other cannot occur.

**Definition 1.5** (Union). A union of two events A and B describes the set of outcomes in either A or B. The union is represented using the set  $\Omega R$  operator  $(\cup) - A \cup B$ .

**Definition 1.6** (Complement). The complement of an event E is the set of all other outcomes in  $\Omega$ . The complement of E is denoted  $\overline{E}$ .

**Theorem 1.1.2** (Intersection of complement set).

$$A\overline{A} = \emptyset$$

Theorem 1.1.3 (Union of complement set).

$$A \cup \overline{A} = \Omega$$

**Definition 1.7** (Subset). A is a (non-strict) subset of B if all elements in A are also in B. This can be denoted as  $A \subset B$ .

**Theorem 1.1.4.** All events E are subsets of  $\Omega$ .

**Theorem 1.1.5.** Given  $A \subset B$ 

$$AB = A$$
 and  $A \cup B = B$ 

Corollary 1.1.5.1. Given  $\emptyset \subset E$ 

$$\emptyset E = \emptyset$$
 and  $\emptyset \cup E = E$ 

Theorem 1.1.6 (Associative Identities).

$$A\left(BC\right) = \left(AB\right)C$$
 
$$A \cup \left(B \cup C\right) = \left(A \cup B\right) \cup C$$

Theorem 1.1.7 (Distributive Identities).

$$A(B \cup C) = AB \cup AC$$
$$A \cup BC = (A \cup B) (A \cup C)$$

### 1.2 Probability

**Definition 1.8** (Probability). Probability is a measure of the likeliness of an event occurring. The probability of an event E is denoted Pr(E) (sometimes P(E)).

$$0 \leq \Pr(E) \leq 1$$

where a probability of 0 never happens, and 1 always happens.

**Theorem 1.2.1** (Probability of  $\Omega$ ).

$$\Pr\left(\Omega\right) = 1$$

**Theorem 1.2.2** (Complement rule). The probability of the complement of E is given by

$$\Pr\left(\overline{E}\right) = 1 - \Pr\left(E\right)$$

**Theorem 1.2.3** (Multiplication rule for independent events). The probability of the intersection between two independent events A and B is given by

$$Pr(AB) = Pr(A) Pr(B)$$

**Theorem 1.2.4** (Addition rule for independent events). The probability of the union between two independent events A and B is given by

$$\Pr\left(A \cup B\right) = \Pr\left(A\right) + \Pr\left(B\right) - \Pr\left(AB\right).$$

If A and B are disjoint, then Pr(AB) = 0, so that  $Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B)$ .

Corollary 1.2.4.1 (Addition rule for 3 events). The addition rule for 3 events is as follows

$$\Pr\left(A \cup B \cup C\right) = \Pr\left(A\right) + \Pr\left(B\right) + \Pr\left(C\right) - \Pr\left(AB\right) - \Pr\left(AC\right) - \Pr\left(BC\right) + \Pr\left(ABC\right).$$

*Proof.* If we write  $D = A \cup B$  and apply the addition rule twice, we have

$$\begin{split} \Pr\left(A \cup B \cup C\right) &= \Pr\left(D \cup C\right) \\ &= \Pr\left(D\right) + \Pr\left(C\right) - \Pr\left(DC\right) \\ &= \Pr\left(A \cup B\right) + \Pr\left(C\right) - \Pr\left(\left(A \cup B\right)C\right) \\ &= \Pr\left(A\right) + \Pr\left(B\right) - \Pr\left(AB\right) + \Pr\left(C\right) - \Pr\left(AC \cup BC\right) \\ &= \Pr\left(A\right) + \Pr\left(B\right) - \Pr\left(AB\right) + \Pr\left(C\right) - \left(\Pr\left(AC\right) + \Pr\left(BC\right) - \Pr\left(ACBC\right)\right) \\ &= \Pr\left(A\right) + \Pr\left(B\right) + \Pr\left(C\right) - \Pr\left(AB\right) - \Pr\left(AC\right) - \Pr\left(BC\right) + \Pr\left(ABC\right) \end{split}$$

Theorem 1.2.5 (De Morgan's laws). Recall De Morgan's Laws:

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \ \overline{B}$$
$$\overline{AB} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}.$$

Taking the negation of both sides and applying the complement rule yields

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = 1 - \Pr(\overline{A} \ \overline{B})$$

$$\Pr(AB) = 1 - \Pr(\overline{A} \cup \overline{B})$$

#### 1.3 Circuits

A signal can pass through a circuit if there is a functional path from start to finish.

We can define a circuit where each component i functions with probability p, and is independent of other components.

Then  $W_i$  to be the event in which the associated component i functions, we can determine the event S in which the system functions, and probability Pr(S) that the system functions.

As the probability that any component functions is p, in other words

$$\Pr(W_i) = p,$$

 $\Pr(S)$  will be a function of p defined  $f:[0, 1] \to [0, 1]$ .

# 2 Independence

**Definition 2.1** (Conditional probability). When discussing multiple events, it is possible that the occurrence of one event changes the probability that another will occur. This can be denoted using a vertical bar, and is read as "the probability of event A given B":

$$\Pr(A \mid B) = \frac{\Pr(AB)}{\Pr(B)}.$$

**Definition 2.2** (Multiplication rule). For events A and B, the general multiplication rule states that

$$Pr(AB) = Pr(A | B) Pr(B)$$

**Theorem 2.0.1** (Independent events). If A and B are independent events then

$$Pr(A \mid B) = Pr(A)$$

$$Pr(B \mid A) = Pr(B)$$

$$\Pr\left(B \,|\, A\right) = \Pr\left(B\right)$$

**Theorem 2.0.2** (Complement of independent events). If A and B are independent, all complement pairs are also independent. Given

$$Pr(A | B) = Pr(A)$$

$$Pr(B|A) = Pr(B)$$

the following statements are also true

$$\Pr\left(A \,|\, \overline{B}\right) = \Pr\left(A\right) \qquad \qquad \Pr\left(B \,|\, \overline{A}\right) = \Pr\left(B\right)$$

$$\Pr(\overline{A} | B) = \Pr(\overline{A})$$
  $\Pr(\overline{B} | A) = \Pr(\overline{B})$ 

$$\Pr\left(\overline{A} \,|\, \overline{B}\right) = \Pr\left(\overline{A}\right) \qquad \qquad \Pr\left(\overline{B} \,|\, \overline{A}\right) = \Pr\left(\overline{B}\right)$$

## 2.1 Probability Rules with Conditional

ALl probability rules hold when conditioning on some event C.

Theorem 2.1.1 (Complement rule with condition).

$$\Pr\left(\overline{A}\,|\,C\right) = 1 - \Pr\left(A\,|\,C\right)$$

Theorem 2.1.2 (Addition rule with condition).

$$\Pr\left(A \cup B \,|\, C\right) = \Pr\left(A \,|\, C\right) + \Pr\left(B \,|\, C\right) - \Pr\left(AB \,|\, C\right)$$

Theorem 2.1.3 (Multiplication rule with condition).

$$Pr(AB | C) = Pr(A | BC) Pr(B | C)$$

In the above examples, all probabilities are conditional on the sample space, hence we are effectively changing the sample space.

## 2.2 Conditional Independence

**Definition 2.3** (Conditional independence). Suppose events A and B are not independent, i.e.,

$$Pr(A | B) \neq Pr(A)$$

but they become independent when conditioned with another event C, i.e.,

$$\Pr(A \,|\, BC) = \Pr(A \,|\, C)$$

Here we say that A and B are conditionally independent given C. Furthermore

$$Pr(AB \mid C) = Pr(A \mid C) Pr(B \mid C)$$

Conversely, events A and B may be conditionally dependent but unconditionally independent, i.e.,

$$Pr(A | B) = Pr(A)$$

$$Pr(A | BC) \neq Pr(A | C)$$

$$Pr(AB | C) = Pr(A | BC) Pr(B | C)$$

**Theorem 2.2.1.** Given events A, B, and C. Pairwise independence does not imply mutual independence. I.e.,

$$\begin{cases} \Pr\left(AB\right) = \Pr\left(A\right) \Pr\left(B\right) \\ \Pr\left(AC\right) = \Pr\left(A\right) \Pr\left(C\right) \\ \Pr\left(BC\right) = \Pr\left(B\right) \Pr\left(C\right) \end{cases}$$

does not imply

$$\Pr\left(ABC\right)=\Pr\left(A\right)\Pr\left(B\right)\Pr\left(C\right).$$

In summary, independence should not be assumed unless explicitly stated.

## 2.3 Disjoint Events

**Theorem 2.3.1** (Probability of disjoint events). The probability of disjoint events A and B is given by

$$Pr(AB) = 0$$
$$Pr(\emptyset) = 0.$$

Disjoint events are highly dependent events, since the occurrence of one means the other cannot occur. This implies

$$\Pr\left(A \mid B\right) = 0$$

#### 2.4 Subsets

**Theorem 2.4.1** (Probability of subsets). If  $A \subset B$  then  $\Pr(A) \leq \Pr(B)$ . We also know that  $\Pr(AB) = \Pr(A)$  and  $\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(B)$ . Here, if A happens, then B definitely happens.

$$Pr(B|A) = 1$$

 $Given \Pr(AB) = \Pr(A)$ 

$$\Pr(A \mid B) = \frac{\Pr(A)}{\Pr(B)}$$

These events are also highly dependent.

# 3 Total Probability

**Definition 3.1** (Marginal probability). Marginal probability is the probability of an event irrespective of the outcome of another variable.

**Theorem 3.0.1** (Total probability for complements). By writing the event A as  $AB \cup A\overline{B}$ , and noting that AB and  $A\overline{B}$  are disjoint, the marginal probability of A is given by

$$Pr(A) = Pr(AB) + Pr(A\overline{B}).$$

By applying the multiplication rule to each joint probability:

$$Pr(A) = Pr(A | B) Pr(B) + Pr(A | \overline{B}) Pr(\overline{B})$$

**Theorem 3.0.2** (Law of total probability). The previous theorem partitioned  $\Omega$  into disjoint events B and  $\overline{B}$ .

By partitioning  $\Omega$  into a collection of disjoint events  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$ , such that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i = \Omega$ , we have

$$\Pr\left(A\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Pr\left(A \,|\, B_{i}\right) \Pr\left(B_{i}\right)$$

**Theorem 3.0.3** (Bayes' Theorem). Given the probability for A given B, the probability of the reverse direction is given by

$$Pr(A | B) = \frac{Pr(B | A) Pr(A)}{Pr(B)}$$

# 4 Combinatorics

**Definition 4.1** (Number of outcomes). Let |A| denote the number of outcomes in an event A.

**Theorem 4.0.1** (Addition principle). Given a sample space S with k disjoint events  $\{S_1, \ldots, S_k\}$ , where the ith event has  $n_i$  possible outcomes, the number of possible samples from any event is given by

$$\left| \bigcup_{i=0}^k S_i \right| = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$$

**Theorem 4.0.2** (Multiplication principle). Given a sample space S with k events  $\{S_1, \ldots, S_k\}$ , where the ith event has  $n_i$  possible outcomes, the number of possible samples from every event is given by

$$\left| \bigcap_{i=0}^{k} S_i \right| = \prod_{i=1}^{k} n_i$$

**Theorem 4.0.3** (Counting probability). Given a sample space S with equally likely outcomes, the probability of an event  $S_i \subset S$  is given by

$$\Pr\left(S_i\right) = \frac{|S_i|}{|S|}$$

# 4.1 Ordered Sampling with Replacement

When ordering is important and repetition is allowed, the total number of ways to choose k objects from a set with n elements is

$$n^k$$

# 4.2 Ordered Sampling without Replacement

When ordering is important and repetition is not allowed, the total number of ways to arrange k objects from a set of n elements is known as a k-permutation of n-elements denoted  ${}^{n}P_{k}$ 

$$\begin{split} ^{n}\boldsymbol{P}_{k} &= n \times (n-1) \times \cdots \times (n-k+1) \\ &= \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \end{split}$$

for  $0 \le k \le n$ .

**Definition 4.2** (Permutation of n elements). An n-permutation of n elements is the permutation of those elements. In this case, k = n, so that

$$\label{eq:power_n} \begin{split} ^{n}P_{n} &= n \times (n-1) \times \cdots \times (n-n+1) \\ &= n! \end{split}$$

# 4.3 Unordered Sampling without Replacement

When ordering is not important and repetition is not allowed, the total number of ways to choose k objects from a set of n elements is known as a k-combination of n-elements denoted  ${}^nC_k$  or  $\binom{n}{k}$ 

$$\begin{split} ^{n}\boldsymbol{C}_{k} &= \frac{^{n}\boldsymbol{P}_{k}}{k!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{k!\,(n-k)!} \end{split}$$

for  $0 \le k \le n$ . We divide by k! because any k-element subset of n-elements can be ordered in k! ways.

# 4.4 Unordered Sampling with Replacement

When ordering is not important and repetition is allowed, the total number of ways to choose k objects from a set with n elements is

 $n^k$