# Probability and Statistics\*

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## 1. Pre-requisites

## 1.1 Bootcamp: Set

Set is a collection of objects. Members of set are called elements.

#### Notation:

For sets,  $A, B, C, \dots$ 

For elements,  $a, b, c, \dots$ 

For membership,  $\in$  e.g.  $a \in A$ 

For non membership,  $\notin$ .

For universal set,  $\mathbb{U}$  i.e. everything.

For null set,  $\phi$ .

## Example:

 $B = \{x/0 \le x \le 1\}$  where / means such that.

$$C=\{x/x\in\mathbf{R},x^2=-1\}=\phi$$

Definition: If every element of A is an element of B then A is subset of B. i.e.  $A \subset B$ .

Definition: A = B iff (if and only if)  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .

## Properties:

- $\phi \subset A$ ;  $A \subset U$ ;  $A \subset A$
- $A \subset B, B \subset C \implies A \subset C$

**Remark:** The order in which the elements of set are listed is immaterial. E.g.  $\{a, b, c\} = \{b, c, a\}$ .

Definition: The complement of A with respect to U is  $A^{\mathbf{c}} = \{x \mid x \in U \text{ and } x \notin A\}.$ 

Definition: The intersection of A and B is  $A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in B \text{ and } x \in B\}$ .

Definition: The union of A and B is  $AUB = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}.$ 

If  $A \cap B = \phi$ , then A and B are disjoint or mutually exclusive.

#### Definition:

- Minus:  $A B = A \cap B^{\mathbf{c}}$
- Symmetric difference or XOR:  $A \triangle B = (A B) \cup (B A) = (A \cup B) (A \cap B)$

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• The **cardinality** of A, denoted by |A| is the number of elements in A. A is finite if  $|A| < \infty$ .  $B = \{1, 2, 3, ....\}$  is **countably infinite** i.e.  $|B| = \aleph_0$   $C = \{x | x \in [0, 1]\}$  is **uncountably infinite** i.e.  $|C| = \aleph_1$ 

## Laws of Operation:

- Complement Law:  $A \cup A^c = U$ ,  $A \cap A^c = \phi$ ,  $(A^c)^c = A$
- Commutative Law:  $A \cup B = B \cup A$ ,  $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- Associative Law:  $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ ,  $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$
- Distributive Law:  $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C), A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
- De-Morgan's Law:  $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$ ,  $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$

## 1.2 Bootcamp: Derivative

Definition: The function f(x) maps values of X from a certain domain X to a certain range Y which can be denoted  $f: x \to Y$ .

If  $f(x) = x^2$  then the function takes x-values from the real line  $\mathbb{R}$  to the non-negative portion of real line  $\mathbb{R}^+$ .

Definition: We say that f(x) is **continuous** function if for any  $x_0 \& x \in X$ , we have  $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x) = f(x_0)$  where f(x) is assumed to exist for all  $x \in X$ .

The function  $f(x) = 3x^2$  is continuous for all x. The function  $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$  i.e. round down to nearest integer e.g.  $\lfloor 3.4 \rfloor = 3$ . This function has discontinuity at any integer x.

Definition: The **inverse** of function  $f: X \to Y$  is reverse mapping of  $g: \to X$  such that f(x) = y iff g(y) = x for all appropriate x and y. The inverse is often written as  $f^{-1}$  and is especially useful if f(x) strictly increasing or decreasing function. Note that  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ .

Defintion: If f(x) is continuous, then it is **differentiable** if,

$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

exists and is well defined for given x. The derivative of f(x) is slope of the function.

$$[x^k]' = kx^{k-1}$$

$$[e^x]' = e^x$$

$$[sin(x)]' = cos(x)$$

$$[cos(x)]' = -sin(x)$$

$$[ln(x)]' = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$[arctan(x)]' = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

Theorem: Some properties of derivatives

$$[af(x) + b]' = af'(x)$$

$$[f(x) + g(x)]' = f'(x) + g'(x)$$

$$[f(x) + g(x)]' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$$

$$\left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right]' = \frac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g^2(x)}$$

$$[f(g(x))]' = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

**Remark:** The second derivative  $f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f'(x)$  and is the "slope of slope". If f(x) is position, then f'(x) can be regarded as "velocity" and f''(x) as "acceleration".

The minimum or maximum of f(x) can only occur when slope of f(x) is 0, i.e. only when f'(x) = 0, say at the critical point  $x = x_0$ . Exception: Check the endpoints of your intervals of interest as well.

If f''(x) < 0, you get maximum, if f''(x) > 0, you get a minimum. If f''(x) = 0, you get a **point** of inflection.

## 1.3 Bootcamp: Integration

Definition: The function F(x) having derivative f(x) is called the **anti-derivative** or **indefinite** integral. It is denoted by  $F(x) = \int f(x)dx$ .

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: If f(x) is continuous, then the area under the curve for  $x \in [a, b]$  is denoted and given by the **definite integral**.

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(x)|_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$$
 
$$\int x^k dx = \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} + c \qquad \text{for } k \neq 1 \text{ where c is arbitrary constant}$$
 
$$\int \frac{dx}{x} = \ln|x| + c$$
 
$$\int e^x dx = e^x + c$$
 
$$\int \cos(x) dx = \sin(x) + c$$
 
$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \arctan(x) + c$$

Theorem: Some well known properties of definite integrals

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = 0$$
 
$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = -\int_b^a f(x)dx$$
 
$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^c f(x)dx + \int_c^b f(x)dx$$

Theorem: Some other properties of general integrals:

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)]dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$$

$$\int f(x)g'(x)dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x)f'(x)dx \quad \text{integration by parts}$$

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x)dx = \int f(u)du$$
 Substitution rule with  $u = g(x)$ 

Definition: Derivative of arbitrary order K can be written as  $f^k(x)$  or  $\frac{d^k}{dx^k}f(x)$ . By convention  $f^0(x) = f(x)$ .

The **Taylor Series Expansion** of f(x) about a point a is given by

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^k(a)(x-a)^k}{k!}$$

The **Maclaurin Series** is simply Taylor expanded around a = 0.

Some famous Maclaurin Series;

$$sin(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$

$$cos(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^x x^{2k}}{(2k)!}$$

$$e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$$

Here are some miscellaneous sums:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} = \frac{1}{1-p} \ ( \text{ for } -1$$

Theorem: Occasionally, we run into trouble when taking indeterminate ratios of form  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ . In such cases, **L' Hospital Rule** is useful. If the limits  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x)$  both go to 0 or both go to  $\infty$ , then,

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

Example:

$$\lim_{x\to 0}\frac{sin(x)}{x}=\lim_{x\to 0}\frac{cos(x)}{1}=1$$

## Double Integration:

Whereas single integrals get us the area under a curve, double integrals represent the volume under a three dimensional function.

The volume under f(x,y) = 8xy over region 0 < x < y < 1 is given by

$$\int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{y} f(x,y) dx dy = \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{y} 8xy dx dy = \int_{0}^{1} 4y^{3} dy = 1$$

We can swap the order of integration to get same answer.

$$\int_0^1 \int_x^1 8xy dy dx = \int_0^1 4x (1 = x^2) dx = 1$$

## 2. Introduction to Probability

#### 2.1 Introduction

Mathematical models are either

- Deterministic (no uncertainty/randomness)
- Probabilistic (have some uncertainty)

Q. A couple has two kids and at least one is boy. What is the probability that both are boys?

Possibilities: GG, BG, GB, BB. Eliminate GG since we know that there's at least one boy. Then  $P(BB) = \frac{1}{3}$ .

**Probability** is methodology that describes the random variation in systems. **Statistics** uses data (sample) to draw conclusion about population.

Definition: A sample space associated with an experiment E is the set of all possible outcome of E. It's usually denoted by S or  $\Omega$ .

Coin Toss:  $S = \{H, T\}$ 

Toss a coin 2 times:  $S : \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$ 

Definition: An event is a set of possible outcomes. Thus, any subset of S is event.

Toss a dice,  $S = \{1, 2, ...\}$ 

If A is event "odd number occurs",  $A = \{1, 3, 54\}$ 

The **empty set**  $\phi$  is an event of S.

S is an event of S.

If A is an event, then  $A^c$  is the **complementary** event.

If A and B are events, then  $A \cup B$  and  $A \cap B$  are events.

Definition: The **Probability** of a generic event  $A \subset S$  is a function that adheres to following axioms:

- $0 \le P(A) \le 1$  (probabilities are always between 0 and 1)
- P(S) = 1 (probability of some outcome is 1)
- If A and B are disjoint events, i.e.  $A \cap B = \phi$  then,  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) + P(B)$ .
- Suppose  $A_1, A_2, ...$  is a sequence of disjoint events, i.e.  $A_i \cap A_J = \phi$  for  $i \neq j$ .

$$\begin{split} P(S) &= P(U_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \\ &= \Sigma_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i) \\ &= \Sigma_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} \end{split}$$

Theorem:  $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$ 

**Proof:** 

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= P(S) \\ &= P(A \cup A^c) \\ &= P(A) + P(A^c) \quad \therefore A \cap A^c = \phi \end{aligned}$$

Corollary:  $P(\phi) = 0$ 

**Proof:** By definition,  $\phi = S^c$ ; so the result follows the theorem and axiom 2. **Remark:** The converse is false: P(A) = 0 doesn't imply  $A = \phi$ .

Theorem: For any two events A and B,

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

**Proof:** Use Venn-diagram.

**Remark:** Axiom 3 is special case of this theorem with  $A \cap B = \phi$ .

Theorem: For any three events A, B and C,

$$P(A \cup B \cup C) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C) - P(A \cap B) - P(A \cap C) - P(B \cap C) + P(A \cap B \cap C)$$

Theorem: Here is the Principle of inclusion-exclusion:

$$\begin{split} P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup .... \cup A_n) &= \Sigma_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - \Sigma \Sigma_{i < j} P(A_i \cap A_j) + \Sigma \Sigma \Sigma_{i < j < k} P(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) \\ &+ ..... + (-1)^{n-1} P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap .... A_n) \end{split}$$

**Remark:** You "include" all of the "single" events, "exclude" the double events, include the triple events etc.

#### Finite Sample Space:

Suppose S is finite  $S = S_1, S_2, .... S_n$ . Finite sample space often allows us to calculate the probabilities of certain events more efficiently. To illustrate, let  $A \subset S$  be any event, then P(A) =

$$\Sigma_{S_i \in A} P(S_i).$$

You have 2 red cards, a blue and a yellow card. Pick a card at random then,

$$S = \{S_1, S_2, S_3\} = \{red, blue, yellow\}$$

$$P(S_1) = \frac{1}{2} \ P(S_2) = \frac{1}{4} \ P(S_3) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(\text{red or yellow}) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}$$

Definition: A simple sample space (SSS) is a finite sample space in which outcomes are equally likely.

**Remark:** In above example, S is not simple sample space since  $P(S_1) \neq P(S_2)$ .

Example: Toss 2 fair coins,

 $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$  is a SSS (all probabilities are  $\frac{1}{4}$ ).

Theorem: For any event A in SSS,

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|} = \frac{\text{no. of elements in A}}{\text{no. of elements in S}}$$

## 2.1.1 Counting Techniques

Muffin (blueberry or oatmeal) or a bagel (sesame, plain, salt, garlic) but not both. You have 2+4=6 choices in total.

 $n_{AB}=3$  ways to go from city A to B (walk, car, bus) and  $n_{BC}=4$  ways to go from B to C (car, bus, train, plane). Then you can go from A to C (via B) using  $n_{AB}.n_{BC}=3*4=12$  ways.

Roll two dice. How many outcomes?

$$(3,2) \neq (2,3)$$
 so, answer =  $6 * 6 = 36$  ways.

Toss n dice. Outcome =  $6^n$  possibilities.

Toss n coins. Outcome =  $2^n$  possibilities.

#### 2.1.2 Permutation

An arrangement of n symbols in a **definite order** is a **permutation** of n symbols.

Example: How many ways to arrange 1, 2, 3?

Answer: 6 ways: 123, 132, 213, 312, 321, 231

• \*\*Number of ways to arrange 1, 2, ..., n = n \* (n-1) \* (n-2) \* .... \* 2 \* 1 = n!

Definition: The number of **r-tuples** we can make from n different symbols (each used at most once) is called the **number of permutations of n things taken r at a time**.

$$P_{n,r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

Note:  $0! = 1 \& P_{n,n} = n!$ 

**Proof:** 

$$\begin{split} P_{n,r} &= (\text{choose first})(\text{choose secoond})....(\text{choose} r^{th}) \\ &= n(n-1)(n-2)....(n-r+1) \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)...(n-r+1)(n-r)...2*1}{(n-r)...2*1} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(n-r)!} \end{split}$$

Example: How many license plates of 6 digits can be formed from numbers  $\{1,2,...9\}$ ? + with no repetitions:  $P_{9,3} = 60480$  + with repetitions:  $9*...*9 = 9^6$  ways + containing repetitions:  $9^6 - 60480 = 470961$ 

#### 2.1.3 Combination

How may subsets of  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  contain exactly 2 elements? (order isn't important)

Answer: 3 subsets -  $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}$ 

Definition: The number of subsets with r elements of a set with n elements is called **number of** combinations of n things taken r at a time.

Notation:  $C_{n,r}$  or  $\binom{n}{r}$ . These are also called binomial coefficients.

$$C_{n,r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

The difference between permutation and combination:

- Combination: (a, b, c) = (b, a, c) i.e. order doesn't concern,
- Permutation:  $(a, b, c) \neq (b, a, c)$  i.e. concerned with order.

Choosing a permutation is same as first choosing a combination and putting the elements in order.

$$\frac{n!}{(n-r)!} = \binom{n}{r}r!$$

$$\frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!} = \binom{n}{r}$$

Following results should be intuitive:

$$\bullet \quad \binom{n}{r} = \binom{n}{n-r}$$

$$\bullet \quad \binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1$$

$$\bullet \quad \binom{n}{1} = \binom{n}{n-1} = n$$

## 2.1.4 Binomial Theorem

$$(x+y)^n = \Sigma_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}$$

This is where **Pascal's triangle** comes from.

Corollary: Surprising fact

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} = 2^n$$

**Proof:** By the binomial theorem:

$$2^{n} = (1+1)^{n}$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} 1^{i} 1^{n-i}$$

#### 2.1.5 Problems

Q. Select 2 cards from a dect without replacement and care about order? Possibilities = 52 \* 51 = 2652 ways.

Q. Box of 10 sox - 2 red and 8 black. Pick 2 without replacement.

• Let A be event that both are red.

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{ways to pick 2 reds}}{\text{ways to pick 2 sox}} = \frac{2*1}{10*9} = \frac{1}{45}$$

• Let B be event that both are black.

$$P(B) = \frac{8*9}{10*9} = \frac{28}{45}$$

• Let C be one of each color. Since, A and B are disjoint,

$$P(C) = 1 - P(C^c) = 1 - P(A \cup B) = 1 - \tfrac{1}{45} - \tfrac{28}{45} = \tfrac{16}{45}$$

Q. An NBA team has 12 players. How many ways can the coach choose the starting 5?

$$\binom{12}{5} = \frac{12!}{5!7!} = 792$$

Q. Smith is one of the players on the team. How many of 792 starting lineup include him?

$$\binom{11}{4} = \frac{11!}{4!7!} = 330$$

- Q. 4 red marbles, 2 whites. Put them in random order.
- a. P(2 end marbles are W)
- $S = \{ \text{Possible pairs of slots that W's occupy} \}$

$$|S| = {6 \choose 2} = \frac{6!}{2!(6-2)!} = 15$$

Since, W's must occupy end slots so,  $|A| = {2 \choose 2} = 1$ 

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|} = \frac{1}{15}$$

- b.  $P(2 \text{ end marbles aren't both W}) = 1 P(A) = \frac{14}{15}$
- c. P(2 W's are side by side)
- WWRRRR or RWWRRR or RRWWRR or RRRWW

$$|B| = 5$$

$$P(B) = \frac{5}{15}$$

## 2.2 Hypergeometric Distribution

Definition: You have a objects of type 1 and b objects of type 2. Select n objects without replacement from a + b objects. Then,

$$P(\text{k type 1's were picked}) = \frac{(\text{Number of ways to choose k type 1's out of a})(\text{Choose n-k type 2's out of b})}{(\text{Number of ways to choose n out of a+b})}$$

$$= \frac{\binom{a}{k}\binom{b}{n-k}}{\binom{a+b}{k}}$$

The number of type 1's chosen is said to have the **hypergeometric distribution**.

**Example:** 3 sox in box with a = 2 red, b = 1 blue. Pick n = 3 without replacement.

$$P(\text{Exactly k=2 reds are picked}) = \frac{\binom{a}{k}\binom{b}{n-k}}{\binom{a+b}{n}}$$
$$= \frac{\binom{2}{2}\binom{1}{1}}{\binom{3}{3}}$$
$$= 1$$

#### 2.3 Binomial Distribution

Definition: You again have a objects of type 1 and b objects of type 2. Now, select n objects with replacement from a + b objects.

P(k type 1's were picked) = (Number of ways to choose k 1's and n-k 2's)

P(Choose k 1's in a row then n-k 2's in a row)

$$P(\text{k type 1's were picked}) = \binom{n}{k} \binom{a}{a+b}^k \binom{b}{a+b}^{n-k}$$

#### 2.4 Multinomial Coefficients

**Example:**  $n_1$  blue sox,  $n_2$  reds. The number of assortments is  $\binom{n_1+n_2}{n_1}$ . Generalization for k types of objects:  $n = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$  The number of arrangements is

$$\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, .... n_k} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! .... n_k!}$$

This is known as multinomial coefficient.

**Example:** How many ways letters in "MISSISSIPPI" be arranged?

Number of permutations of 11 letters
(Number of M's)(Number of P's)(Number of I's)(Number of S's)

$$=\frac{11!}{1!2!4!4!}$$

## 2.5 Conditional Probability

The probability of A occurs given B occurs is

$$P(A/B) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|B|} = \frac{\frac{|A \cap B|}{|S|}}{\frac{|B|}{|S|}} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

Definition: If P(B) > 0, the conditional probability of A given B is

$$P(A/B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

**Remark:** If A and B are disjoint, then P(A/B) = 0. If B occurs, there is no chance that A can occur.

What happens if P(B) = 0? In that case, no need to consider P(A/B).

**Example:** Toss 2 dice and take the sum.

A: odd toss =  $\{3, 5, 7, 9, 11\}$ 

B:  $\{2,3\}$ 

$$P(A) = P(3) + \ldots + P(11) = \frac{2}{36} + \frac{4}{36} + \ldots + \frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{1}{36} + \frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$P(A/B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{\frac{2}{36}}{\frac{1}{12}} = \frac{2}{3}$$

**Example:** A couple has two kids and at least one is boy. What's the probability that both are boys?

$$S = \{GG, GB, BG, BB\}$$

 $C: Both are boys = \{BB\}$ 

 $D: At least 1 boy = \{GB, BG, BB\}$ 

$$P(C/D) = \frac{P(C \cap D)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(C)}{P(D)} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{1}{3}$$

**Example:** A couple has two kids and at least one is born on tuesday. What is the probability that both are boys?

$$B_x[G_x] = Boy[Girl]$$

born on day x; x = 1,2,....7

x = 3 is Tuesday.

$$S = \{(G_x, G_y), (G_x, B_y), (B_x.G_y), (B_x, B_y), x, y = 1, 2, ...7\}$$

So, 
$$|S| = 4 * 49 = 196$$

i.e. 4 combination of B and G and 49 combination of x and y.

C: Both are boys (with at least one born on tuesday)

$$=\{(B_x,B_3), x=1,2,...,7\} \cup \{(B_3,B_y), y=1,2,....7\}$$

Note:  $|C| = 13\{$ to avoid double counting $(B_3, B_3)\}$ 

D: There is at least one boy born on Tuesday.

$$=C\cup\{(G_x,B_3),(B_3,G_y),x,y=1,2,....7\}$$

$$|D| = 27$$

$$P(C/D) = \frac{P(C \cap D)}{P(D)} = \frac{P(C)}{P(D)} = \frac{\frac{13}{196}}{\frac{27}{197}} = \frac{13}{27}$$

Properties: Analogous to axioms of probability

- $0 \le P(A/B) \le 1$
- P(S/B) = 1
- $A_1 \cap A_2 = \phi \to P(A_1 \cap A_2/B) = P(A_1/B) + P(A_2/B)$
- If  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are all disjoint then

$$P(U_{i-1}^{\infty}A_i/B = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i/B)$$

## 2.6 Independence

Any unrelated events are independent.

## Example:

A: It rains on Mars tomorrow.

B: Coin lands on H.

Definition: A & B are independent iff  $P(A \cap B) = P(A).P(B)$ 

**Remark:** If P(A) = 0, then A is independent of any other event.

**Remark:** Events don't have to be physically unrelated to be independent.

Theorem: Suppose P(B) > 0. Then A and B are independent  $\leftrightarrow P(A/B) = P(A)$ .

**Proof:** A & B independent  $\leftrightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A).P(B) \leftrightarrow \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = P(A)$ 

**Remark:** So, if A and B are independent, the probability of A doesn't depend on whether or not B occurs.

Bayes Theorem: A and B are independent  $\leftrightarrow A'$  and B' are also independent.

**Proof:** Only need to prove in  $\rightarrow$  direction (then  $\leftarrow$  follows trivially).

$$P(A) = P(A \cap B') + P(A \cap B)$$

So,

$$P(A \cap B') = P(A) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$= P(A) - P(A) \cdot P(B) \quad \{A, B \text{ are independent}\}$$

$$= P(A)\{1 - P(B)\}$$

$$= P(A) \cdot P(B')$$

## Don't confuse independence with disjointness!

Theorem: If P(A) > 0 and P(B) > 0, A and B can't be independent and disjoint at the same time.

**Proof:** Suppose A and B are disjoint,  $A \cap B = \phi$ . Then,  $P(A \cap B) = 0 < P(A).P(B)$ . Thus, A and B aren't independent. Similarly, independent doesn't imply disjoint.

**Remark:** In fact, independence and disjointness are almost opposite. If A and B are disjoint and A occurs, then you have information that B cannot occur. So, A and B can't be independent.

Extension to more than two events:

Definition: A, B, C are independent iff

- $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A).P(B).P(C)$
- All pairs are independent:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A).P(B)$$

$$P(A \cap C) = P(A).P(C)$$

$$P(B \cap C) = P(B).P(C)$$

General Definition:  $A_1,.....,A_k$  are independent iff  $P(A_1\cap....\cap A_k)=P(A_k)$  and all subsets of  $\{A_1,....,A_k\}$  are independent.

Independent Trials: Perform n trials of an experiment such that the outcome of one trial is independent of outcomes of other trials. Eg. Flip 3 coins independently.

Remark: For independent trials, you just multiply the individual probabilities.

Eg. Flip a coin infinitely many times (each flip is independent of others).

$$\begin{split} P_n &= P(\text{First H on nth trial}) \\ &= P(\underbrace{TT...T}_{n-1}H) \\ &= \underbrace{P(T).P(T)...P(T)}_{n-1}.P(H) \\ &= (\frac{1}{2})^{n-1}.\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2^n} \\ &= \frac{1}{2^n} \quad \{\text{Each has probability 1/2}\} \\ P(H \ eventually) &= \Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n \\ &= \Sigma_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} \\ &= 1 \end{split}$$

## 2.7 Partitions and laws of probability

Partition of Sample Space split the sample space into disjoint, yet all encompassing subsets.

Definition: The events  $A_1,A_2,....,A_n$  form a partition of sample space S if

•  $A_1, A_2, ...., A_n$  are disjoint.

 $\bullet \ \ U_{i=1}^n A_i = S$ 

•  $P(A_i) > 0$  for all i.

**Remark:** When an experiment is performed, exactly one  $A_i$ 's occur.

**Example:** A and A' form partition.

Suppose  $A_1,A_2,...,A_n$  form partition of S and B is arbitrary event. Then,

$$B=U^n_{i=1}(A_i\cap B)$$

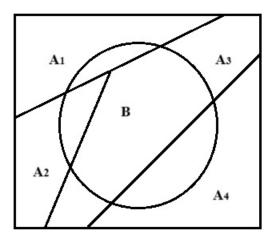


Figure 1: Partitions

$$\begin{split} P(B) &= P[U_{i=1}^n(A_i \cap B)] \\ &= \Sigma_{i=1}^n P(A_i \cap B) \quad (\mathrm{Since} A_1, A_2, ... A_n \text{ are disjoint}) \\ &= \Sigma_{i=1}^n P(A_i) P(B/A_i) \quad (\mathrm{Definition \ of \ conditional \ Probability}) \end{split}$$

This is law of probability.

**Example:** Suppose we have 10 Georgia Tech students and 20 University of Georgia students taking a test. GT students have 95% chance of passing but UGA have 50%. Determine probability that he/she passes.

$$P(passes) = P(GT)P(passes/GT) + P(UGA)P(passes/UGA)$$

## 2.8 Bayes Theorem

Immediate consequence of law of total probability.

Bayes Theorem: If  $A_1, A_2, ... A_n$  form partition of S and B is any event then,

$$\begin{split} P(A_j/B) &= \frac{P(A_j \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(A_j)P(B/A_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(B/A_i)} \end{split}$$

The  $P(A_i)$ 's are prior probabilities ("before B").

The  $P(A_i/B)$ 's are posterior probabilities ("after B").

The  $P(A_i/B)$ 's add up to 1.

## 2.9 Probability Problems

#### Birthday Problem

Q. There are n people in room. Find the probability that at least two have the same birthday. (Ignore Feb 29 and assume that all 365 days have equal probability.

The (simple) sample size is  $S=\{(x_1,....,x_n): x_i\in\{1,2,....365\},V_i\}$ 

 $(x_i \text{ is person } i\text{'s birthday}) \text{ and note that } |S| = (365)^n.$ 

Let A: All birthdays are different then,

$$\begin{split} P(A) &= \frac{(365)(364)....(365-n+1)}{365}^n \\ &= 1.\frac{364}{365}.\frac{363}{365}....\frac{365-n+1}{365} \end{split}$$

$$P(A^\prime) = 1 - P(A)$$

When, n = 366, P(A') = 1

For,  $P(A') > \frac{1}{2}$ , n must be  $\geq 23$ .

When, n = 50, P(A') = 0.97, P(A') is probability of at least one birthday match (not unique).

#### The Envelope Problem

Q. A group of n people receives n envelopes with their name on them but someone has completely mixed up the envelopes. Find the probability that at least one person will receive the proper envelope.

Let  $A_i$ : Person i receive correct envelope.

We want  $P(A_1 \cup A_2 .... \cup A_n)$ 

By principle of Inclusion-Exclusion,

$$\begin{split} P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup .... \cup A_n) &= \Sigma_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - \Sigma \Sigma_{i < j} P(A_i \cap A_j) + \Sigma \Sigma \Sigma_{i < j < k} P(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) \\ &+ ..... + (-1)^{n-1} P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap .... A_n) \end{split}$$

Since all  $P(A_i)$ 's are same, all of  $P(A_i \cap A_i)$ 's are the same.

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup .... \cup A_n) = nP(A_1) - \binom{n}{2}P(A_1 \cap A_2) + \binom{n}{3}P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) + ..... + (-1)^{n-1}P(A_1 \cap A_2 ... \cap A_n)$$

$$\begin{split} P(A_1) &= \frac{1}{n} \\ P(A_2) &= \frac{1}{n-1} \\ P(A_1 \cap A_2) &= \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \\ P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \ldots \cup A_n) &= \frac{n}{n} - \binom{n}{2} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n-1} + \binom{n}{3} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{n-2} + \ldots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n!} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \ldots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n!} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{e} \quad \{ \text{Very similar to Mclaurin Series} \} \\ &= 0.6321 \end{split}$$

If n = 4 envelopes:

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup A_4) = 1 - \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} - \frac{1}{4!}$$
$$= 0.625$$