

PROBABILITY THEORY

LECTURE 1

Per Siden

Division of Statistics and Machine Learning
Dept. of Computer and Information Science
Linköping University

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1 / 27

Notes

OVERVIEW LECTURE 1

- ▶ Course outline
- ▶ Introduction and a recap of some background
- ▶ Functions of random variables
- ▶ Multivariate random variables

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2 / 27

Notes

COURSE OUTLINE

- ▶ **Lectures:** theory interleaved with illustrative solved examples.
Responsible: Per.
- ▶ **Exercises/Seminars:** problem solving sessions + open discussions.
Responsible: Per and You.
- ▶ **Exam:** written exam with formula sheet, but no book or notes.
Responsible: You!
- ▶ **Course homepage:** <https://www.ida.liu.se/~732A40/> (select english)

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3 / 27

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COURSE LITERATURE

- ▶ Gut, A. *An intermediate course in probability*. 2nd ed.
Springer-Verlag, New York, 2009. ISBN 978-1-4419-0161-3
- ▶ Chapter 1: Multivariate random variables
- ▶ Chapter 2: Conditioning
- ▶ Chapter 3: Transforms
- ▶ Chapter 4: Order statistics
- ▶ Chapter 5: The multivariate normal distribution
- ▶ Chapter 6: Convergence

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4 / 27

Notes

RANDOM VARIABLES

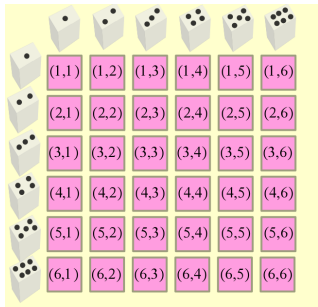
- ▶ The sample space $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$ of an experiment is the most basic representation of a problem's randomness (uncertainty).
- ▶ More convenient to work with real-valued measurements.
- ▶ A **random variable** X is a real-valued function from a sample space: $X = f(\omega)$, where $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- ▶ A **multivariate random vector**: $\mathbf{X} = f(\omega)$ such that $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.
- ▶ Examples:
 - ▶ Roll a die: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \omega = 1, 2 \text{ or } 3 \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega = 4, 5 \text{ or } 6 \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Roll two fair dice. $X(\omega)$ =sum of the two dice.

Notes

SAMPLE SPACE OF TWO DICE EXAMPLE



Notes

THE DISTRIBUTION OF A RANDOM VARIABLE

- ▶ The probabilities of events on the sample space Ω imply a **probability distribution** for a random variable $X(\omega)$ on Ω .
- ▶ The probability distribution of X is given by

$$\Pr(X \in C) = \Pr(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in C\}),$$

where $\{\omega : X(\omega) \in C\}$ is the event (in Ω) consisting of all outcomes ω that gives a value of X in C .

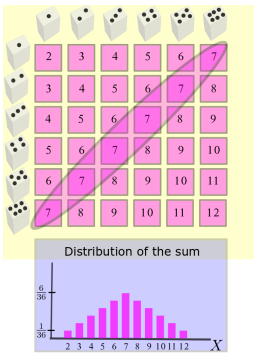
- ▶ A random variable is **discrete** if it can take only a finite or a countable number of different values x_1, x_2, \dots
- ▶ **Continuous** random variables can take every value in an interval.

Notes

DISCRETE RANDOM VARIABLE

- ▶ The **probability function** (p.f), is the function

$$p(x) = \Pr(X = x)$$



Notes

UNIFORM, BERNOULLI AND POISSON

- **Uniform discrete distribution.** $X \in \{a, a+1, \dots, b\}$.

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a+1} & \text{for } x = a, a+1, \dots, b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- **Bernoulli distribution.** $X \in \{0, 1\}$. $\Pr(X=0) = 1-p$ and $\Pr(X=1) = p$.

- **Poisson distribution:** $X \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

$$p(x) = \frac{\exp(-\lambda) \cdot \lambda^x}{x!} \quad \text{for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Notes

THE BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

- **Binomial distribution.** Sum of n independent Bernoulli variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n with the same success probability p .

$$X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$$

$$X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$$

- Probability function for a $\text{Bin}(n, p)$ variable:

$$P(X=x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, \quad \text{for } x = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

- The binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{x}$ is the number of binary sequences of length n that sum exactly to x .

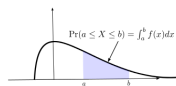
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PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTIONS

- Continuous random variables can assume **every** value in an interval.

- **Probability density function (pdf) $f(x)$**

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



- $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x

- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$

- A pdf is like a histogram with tiny bin widths. Integral replaces sums.

- Continuous distributions assign probability zero to individual values, but

$$\Pr\left(a - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq X \leq a + \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \approx \epsilon \cdot f(a).$$

Notes

DENSITIES - SOME EXAMPLES

- The **uniform** distribution

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

- The **triangle** or linear pdf

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{a^2}x & \text{for } 0 < x < a \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- The **normal**, or **Gaussian**, distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2\right)$$

Notes

- The **expected value** of X is

$$E(X) = \begin{cases} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x_k \cdot p(x_k) & , X \text{ discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) & , X \text{ continuous} \end{cases}$$

- Example: $E(X)$ when $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$
- The n th **moment** is defined as $E(X^n)$
- The **variance** of X is $\text{Var}(X) = E(X - EX)^2 = E(X^2) - (EX)^2$

THE CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION

- The (cumulative) **distribution function (cdf)** $F(\cdot)$ of a random variable X is the function

$$F(x) = \Pr(X \leq x) \text{ for } -\infty \leq x \leq \infty$$

- Same definition for discrete and continuous variables.
- The cdf is **non-decreasing**

$$\text{If } x_1 \leq x_2 \text{ then } F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$$

- Limits at $\pm\infty$: $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$.
- For continuous variables: **relation between pdf and cdf**

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$$

and conversely

$$\frac{dF(x)}{dx} = f(x)$$

FUNCTIONS OF RANDOM VARIABLES

- Quite common situation: You know the distribution of X , but need the distribution of $Y = g(X)$, where $g(\cdot)$ is some function.
- Example 1: $Y = a + b \cdot X$, where a and b are constants.
- Example 2: $Y = 1/X$
- Example 3: $Y = \ln(X)$.
- Example 4: $Y = \log \frac{X}{1-X}$
- $Y = g(X)$, where X is discrete.
- $p_X(x)$ is p.f. for X . $p_Y(y)$ is p.f. for Y :

$$p_Y(y) = \Pr(Y = y) = \Pr[g(X) = y] = \sum_{x: g(x)=y} p_X(x)$$

FUNCTION OF A CONTINUOUS RANDOM VARIABLE

- Suppose that X is continuous with support (a, b) . Then

$$F_Y(y) = \Pr(Y \leq y) = \Pr[g(X) \leq y] = \int_{x: g(x) \leq y} f_X(x) dx$$

- Let $g(X)$ be monotonically *increasing* with inverse $X = h(Y)$. Then $F_Y(y) = \Pr(Y \leq y) = \Pr(g(X) \leq y) = \Pr(X \leq h(y)) = F_X(h(y))$ and

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(h(y)) \cdot \frac{\partial h(y)}{\partial y}$$

- For general monotonic transformation $Y = g(X)$ we have

$$f_Y(y) = f_X[h(y)] \left| \frac{\partial h(y)}{\partial y} \right| \text{ for } \alpha < y < \beta$$

where (α, β) is the mapped interval from (a, b) .

EXAMPLES: FUNCTIONS OF A RANDOM VARIABLE

- ▶ Example 1. $Y = a \cdot X + b$.

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{|a|} f_X\left(\frac{y-b}{a}\right)$$

- ▶ Example 2: **log-normal**. $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. $Y = g(X) = \exp(X)$.
 $X = h(Y) = \ln Y$.

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\ln y - \mu)^2\right) \cdot \frac{1}{y} \text{ for } y > 0.$$

- ▶ Example 3. $X \sim \text{LogN}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. $Y = a \cdot X$, where $a > 0$.
 $X = h(Y) = Y/a$.

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(y) &= \frac{1}{y/a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\left(\ln \frac{y}{a} - \mu\right)^2\right) \frac{1}{a} \\ &= \frac{1}{y} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\ln y - \mu - \ln a)^2\right) \end{aligned}$$

which means that $Y \sim \text{LogN}(\mu + \ln a, \sigma^2)$.

Notes

EXAMPLES: FUNCTIONS OF A RANDOM VARIABLE

- ▶ Example 4. $X \sim \text{LogN}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. $Y = X^a$, where $a \neq 0$.
 $X = h(Y) = Y^{1/a}$.

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(y) &= \frac{1}{y^{1/a}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\left(\ln y^{1/a} - \mu\right)^2\right) \frac{1}{a} y^{1/a-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{y} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}a\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2a^2\sigma^2}(\ln y - a\mu)^2\right) \end{aligned}$$

which means that $Y \sim \text{LogN}(a\mu, a^2\sigma^2)$.

Notes

BIVARIATE DISTRIBUTIONS

- ▶ The **joint** (or **bivariate**) **distribution** of the two random variables X and Y is the collection of all probabilities of the form

$$\Pr[(X, Y) \in C]$$

- ▶ Example 1:

- ▶ $X = \#$ of visits to doctor.
- ▶ $Y = \#$ visits to emergency.
- ▶ C may be $\{(x, y) : x = 0 \text{ and } y \geq 1\}$.

- ▶ Example 2:

- ▶ $X =$ monthly percentual return to SP500 index
- ▶ $Y =$ monthly return to Stockholm index.
- ▶ C may be $\{(x, y) : x < -10 \text{ and } y < -10\}$.

- ▶ **Discrete random variables: joint probability function** (joint p.f.)

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) = \Pr(X = x, Y = y)$$

such that $\Pr[(X, Y) \in C] = \sum_{(x,y) \in C} f_{X,Y}(x, y)$ and $\sum_{\text{All } (x,y)} f_{X,Y}(x, y) = 1$.

Notes

CONTINUOUS JOINT DISTRIBUTIONS

- ▶ **Continuous joint distribution** (joint p.d.f.)

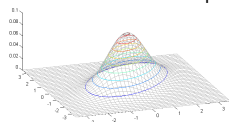
$$\Pr[(X, Y) \in C] = \iint_C f_{X,Y}(x, y) dx dy,$$

where $f_{X,Y}(x, y) \geq 0$ is the **joint density**.

- ▶ Univariate distributions: probability is area under density.



- ▶ Bivariate distributions: probability is volume under density.



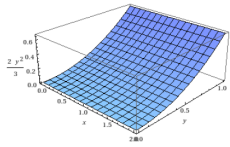
- ▶ Be careful about the regions of integration. Example:
 $C = \{(x, y) : x^2 \leq y \leq 1\}$

Notes

EXAMPLE

► Example

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{3}{2}y^2 \text{ for } 0 \leq x \leq 2 \text{ and } 0 \leq y \leq 1.$$



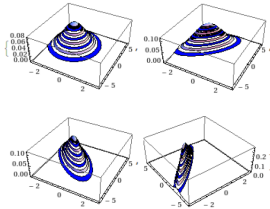
Notes

BIVARIATE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

- The most famous of them all: the **bivariate normal distribution**, with pdf

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi(1-\rho^2)^{1/2}\sigma_x\sigma_y} \times \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_x}{\sigma_x}\right)^2 - 2\rho\left(\frac{x-\mu_x}{\sigma_x}\right)\left(\frac{y-\mu_y}{\sigma_y}\right) + \left(\frac{y-\mu_y}{\sigma_y}\right)^2\right]\right)$$

- Five parameters: $\mu_x, \mu_y, \sigma_x, \sigma_y$ and ρ .



Notes

BIVARIATE C.D.F.

- Joint cumulative distribution function (joint c.d.f.):

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = \Pr(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$$

- Calculating probabilities of rectangles

$\Pr(a < X \leq b \text{ and } c < Y \leq d)$:

$$F_{X,Y}(b,d) - F_{X,Y}(a,d) - F_{X,Y}(b,c) + F_{X,Y}(a,c)$$

- Properties of the joint c.d.f.

- Marginal of X : $F_X(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F_{X,Y}(x,y)$
- $F_{X,Y}(x,y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f_{X,Y}(r,s) dr ds$
- $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2 F_{X,Y}(x,y)}{\partial x \partial y}$

Notes

MARGINAL DISTRIBUTIONS

- Marginal p.f. of a bivariate distribution is

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{\text{All } y} f_{X,Y}(x,y) \text{ [Discrete case]}$$

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x,y) dy \text{ [Continuous case]}$$

- A marginal distribution for X tells you about the probability of different values of X , averaged over all possible values of Y .

Notes

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

- Two random variables are **independent** if

$$\Pr(X \in A \text{ and } Y \in B) = \Pr(X \in A) \cdot \Pr(Y \in B)$$

for all sets of real numbers A and B (such that $\{X \in A\}$ and $\{Y \in B\}$ are events).

- Two variables are **independent** if and only if the joint density can be factorized as

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = h_1(x) \cdot h_2(y)$$

- Note: this factorization must hold for **all** values of x and y . Watch out for non-rectangular support!
- X and Y are independent if learning something about X (e.g. $X > 2$) has no effect on the probabilities for different values of Y .

Notes

MULTIVARIATE DISTRIBUTIONS

- Obvious extension to more than two random variables, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .
- Joint p.d.f.

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

- Marginal distribution of x_1

$$f_1(x_1) = \int_{x_2} \cdots \int_{x_n} f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) dx_2 \cdots dx_n$$

- Marginal distribution of x_1 and x_2

$$f_{12}(x_1, x_2) = \int_{x_3} \cdots \int_{x_n} f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) dx_3 \cdots dx_n$$

and so on.

Notes

FUNCTIONS OF RANDOM VECTORS

- Let \mathbf{X} be an n -dimensional continuous random variable
- Let \mathbf{X} have density $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$ on support $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.
- Let $Y = g(\mathbf{X})$, where $g : S \rightarrow T \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a bijection (1:1 and onto).
- Assume g and g^{-1} are continuously differentiable with Jacobian

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial y_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial x_n}{\partial y_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

THEOREM

(“The transformation theorem”) The density of Y is

$$f_Y(\mathbf{y}) = f_{\mathbf{X}}[h_1(\mathbf{y}), h_2(\mathbf{y}), \dots, h_n(\mathbf{y})] \cdot |\mathbf{J}|$$

where $h = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n)$ is the unique inverse of $g = (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n)$.

Notes

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