

Probability Theory

Sets

Definitions

Keyword	Definition
Sample space S	The set of all possible outcomes.
Event A	An event A is a subset of S .
$A \cap B$	A and B occurred.
$A \cup B$	A or B occurred.
\bar{A}	A did not occur.

Properties of set operations.

Commutative
$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

Associative
$$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$$

$$(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$$

Definition

A and B are **mutually exclusive** iff $A \cap B = \emptyset$

The following identities are true.

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap \bar{A} &= \emptyset \\ A \cup \bar{A} &= S \\ S - B &= \bar{B} \\ A - B &= A \cap \bar{B} \\ \overline{A \cup B} &= \bar{A} \cap \bar{B} \\ \overline{A \cap B} &= \bar{A} \cup \bar{B} \end{aligned}$$

Probability

The probability $P(A)$ of A happening is defined as

$$P(A) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_A}{N}$$

Where N_A is the number of events in N experiments.

Properties of probabilities.

- $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
- $P(A \cap \bar{A}) = 0$
- $P(A \cup \bar{A}) = 1$
- $P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$

The union of two events $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

- If A and B are **mutually exclusive**, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$
- Extending for three events:

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cup B \cup C) \\ = P(A) + P(B) + P(C) - P(A \cap B) - P(B \cap C) - P(A \cap C) + P(A \cap B \cap C) \end{aligned}$$

This can be proved using the rule for two events on $P(A \cup (B \cup C))$

Definition

Conditional probability: $P(B|A)$ is the probability of B occurring given A .

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

Because $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B|A)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(A)P(A|B)P(A|B \cap C) &= P(A \cap B)P(A|B \cap C) \\ &= P(A \cap B \cap C) \end{aligned}$$

Bayes Theorem

It is obvious that

$$\begin{aligned} P(A|B) &= \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(A)P(A|B)}{P(B)} \end{aligned}$$

Provided $P(B) \neq 0$

It is also true that

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A)P(B|A)}{P(A)P(B|A) + P(\bar{A})P(B|\bar{A})}$$

Combinatorics

Permutations and Combinations

- The number of permutations for choosing r elements from n elements is

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

- The number of combinations (order doesn't matter) is therefore

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

${}^n C_r$ is called the **binomial coefficients**.

$$(p+q)^n = \sum_{r=0}^n {}^n C_r q^r p^{n-r}$$

From **Pascal's triangle** we have ${}^n C_r = {}^{n-1} C_r + {}^{n-1} C_{r-1}$, which we can also prove

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(n-1)!}{r!(n-1-r)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} &= \frac{(n-r)(n-1)! + r(n-1)!}{r!(n-r)!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} \end{aligned}$$

Arrangements

Suppose there are r identical objects R , t of T , s of S , then the number of distinguishable arrangement is

$$\frac{n!}{r!s!t!}$$

Where $n = r + s + t$, and $r!$ is the number of (non-distinguishable) arrangements for R , etc.

Balls in Boxes

How to put p balls into q boxes.

We can write the situation out in $\square \square | \square | \square | \dots$, there are p balls and $q - 1$ walls.

- Number of permutations of all objects is $(p + q - 1)!$
- Number of distinguishable arrangement is

$$\frac{(p + q - 1)!}{p!(q - 1)!}$$

Discrete Probability Distributions

Definitions

Keyword	Definition
Random variable	A variable whose value is determined by the outcome of an experiment.
Discrete variable	The variable only takes discrete values.
Probability function	$f(x)$ is the probability that X takes the value x .

If there are only n values that $f(x)$ can take, is true that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(x_i) = 1$$

The **cumulative probability function** is

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= P(X \leq x) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} f(x_i) \\ P(a < x \leq b) &= F(b) - F(a) \end{aligned}$$

Mean and Variance

Definition

Mean is also called the expected value, denoted $E(X)$ or $\langle X \rangle$

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x_i f(x_i)$$

Properties of Mean

$$E(aX) = aE(X)$$

$E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$ where X and Y are independent

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} g(x_i)f(x_i)$$

Definition

Variance measures how the results spread around the mean.

$$\sigma^2 = E((X - E(x))^2) = \overline{(X - \bar{X})^2}$$

The **standard deviation** $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$

An alternative way to calculate the variance is

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= E((X - \mu)^2) \\ &= E(X^2 - 2X\mu + \mu^2) \\ &= E(X^2) - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2 \\ &= E(X^2) - \mu^2\end{aligned}$$

Discrete Probability Distributions

The Binomial Distribution

Note

The handout use a different way of calculating expected value and variance.

Expectation of value of X

$$\begin{aligned}E(X) &= \sum_{k=0}^m k \binom{m}{k} p^k (1-p)^{m-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^m q \times \binom{m}{k} \left(\frac{d}{dq} q^k\right) (1-p)^{m-k} \text{ where } p = q \\ &= q \times \frac{d}{dq} \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{m}{k} q^k (1-p)^{m-k} \\ &= q \times \frac{d}{dq} (q+1-p)^m \text{ by binomial theorem} \\ &= mq(q+1-p)^m \\ &= mp\end{aligned}$$

Variance of X

$$\begin{aligned}
E(X^2) &= \sum_{k=0}^m k^2 \binom{m}{k} q^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^m (k(k-1) + k) \binom{m}{k} q^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\
&= mp + \sum_{k=0}^m k(k-1) \binom{m}{k} q^k (1-p)^{n-k} \text{ by previous result} \\
&= mp + \sum_{k=0}^m k(k-1) \binom{m}{k} q^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\
&= mp + q^2 \times \frac{d^2}{dq^2} \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{m}{k} q^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\
&= mp + q^2 \times \frac{d^2}{dq^2} (q+1-p)^m \\
&= mp + p^2 \times m(m-1) \\
E(X^2) - E(X)^2 &= mp(1-p)
\end{aligned}$$

The Poisson Distribution

For binomial distribution where $p \ll 1$ and $np = \lambda$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have another well defined distribution

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu &= np = \lambda \\
\sigma^2 &= np(1-p) \\
&= \lambda
\end{aligned}$$

When n is large and p is small, the poisson distribution is a good approximation for the binomial distribution.

Note

Missing notes because the camera in the recording pointing towards the sheet of paper is off.

$$\begin{aligned}
P(X = r) &= \frac{\lambda^r e^{-\lambda}}{r!} \\
\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} P(X = r) &= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^r}{r!} \\
&= 1
\end{aligned}$$

The poisson distribution is useful for events that happens in time:

- Probability of something happening at a time is very small.
- **Over a unit time**, the probability is $\lambda^r e^{-\lambda} / r!$

Continuous Probability Distribution

The normal distribution is a **continuous probability distribution** given by the **probability density function**, which gives the *probability per unit length*.

$$P(x \leq X \leq x + dx) = f(x)dx$$

The probability for any individual $P(X = x)$ is zero. For a fixed range $\alpha \leq X \leq \beta$

$$P(\alpha \leq X \leq \beta) = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x)dx$$

$f(x)$ obeys properties:

- $0 \leq f(x) < \infty$ for all x
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$

Definition

The **cumulative probability function** is defined as

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

Which has property $F'(x) = f(x)$.

And also these equations are true.

$$\begin{aligned} P(\alpha \leq X \leq \beta) &= F(\beta) - F(\alpha) \\ \mu &= E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx \\ \sigma^2 &= E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x)dx - \mu^2 \end{aligned}$$

Uniform Probability Distribution

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta-\alpha} & \text{when } \alpha \leq x \leq \beta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ F(x) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{when } x < \alpha \\ \frac{x-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha} & \text{when } \alpha \leq x \leq \beta \\ 1 & \text{when } x > \beta \end{cases} \\ \mu &= \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \\ \sigma^2 &= \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{12} \end{aligned}$$

This makes sense because σ^2 should only depend on the difference between α and β , not their individual values.

The Normal Distribution

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right)^2\right) \\ F(x) &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \exp\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) \end{aligned}$$

You are required to know how to prove the result for $F(x)$ and the mean, variance of the normal distribution from definition, not included here.

Central Limit Theorem

If x are samples taken from a distribution, then the arithmetic mean over n samples is normally distributed as n becomes large.

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x_i$$