

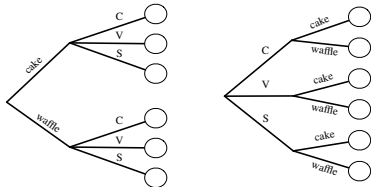
Probability Cheatsheet v2.0

Compiled by William Chen (<http://wzchen.com>) and Joe Blitzstein, with contributions from Sebastian Chiu, Yuan Jiang, Yuqi Hou, and Jessy Hwang. Material based on Joe Blitzstein's (@stat110) lectures (<http://stat110.net>) and Blitzstein/Hwang's Introduction to Probability textbook (<http://bit.ly/introprobability>). Licensed under CC BY-NC-SA 4.0. Please share comments, suggestions, and errors at http://github.com/wzchen/probability_cheatsheet.

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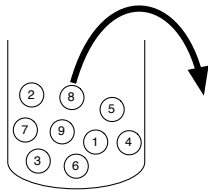
Counting

Multiplication Rule



Let's say we have a compound experiment (an experiment with multiple components). If the 1st component has n_1 possible outcomes, the 2nd component has n_2 possible outcomes, ..., and the r th component has n_r possible outcomes, then overall there are $n_1 n_2 \dots n_r$ possibilities for the whole experiment.

Sampling Table



The sampling table gives the number of possible samples of size k out of a population of size n , under various assumptions about how the sample is collected.

	Order Matters	Not Matter
With Replacement	n^k	$\binom{n+k-1}{k}$
Without Replacement	$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$	$\binom{n}{k}$

Naive Definition of Probability

If all outcomes are equally likely, the probability of an event A happening is:

$$P_{\text{naive}}(A) = \frac{\text{number of outcomes favorable to } A}{\text{number of outcomes}}$$

Thinking Conditionally

Independence

Independent Events A and B are independent if knowing whether A occurred gives no information about whether B occurred. More formally, A and B (which have nonzero probability) are independent if and only if one of the following equivalent statements holds:

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

Conditional Independence A and B are conditionally independent given C if $P(A \cap B|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$. Conditional independence does not imply independence, and independence does not imply conditional independence.

Unions, Intersections, and Complements

De Morgan's Laws A useful identity that can make calculating probabilities of unions easier by relating them to intersections, and vice versa. Analogous results hold with more than two sets.

$$\begin{aligned}(A \cup B)^c &= A^c \cap B^c \\(A \cap B)^c &= A^c \cup B^c\end{aligned}$$

Joint, Marginal, and Conditional

Joint Probability $P(A \cap B)$ or $P(A, B)$ – Probability of A and B .

Marginal (Unconditional) Probability $P(A)$ – Probability of A .

Conditional Probability $P(A|B) = P(A, B)/P(B)$ – Probability of A , given that B occurred.

Conditional Probability is Probability $P(A|B)$ is a probability function for any fixed B . Any theorem that holds for probability also holds for conditional probability.

Probability of an Intersection or Union

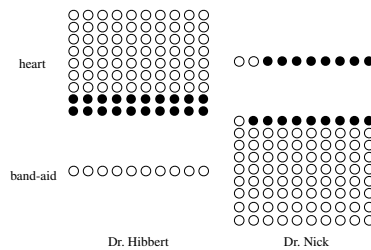
Intersections via Conditioning

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

Unions via Inclusion-Exclusion

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

Simpson's Paradox



It is possible to have

$$\begin{aligned}P(A | B, C) &< P(A | B^c, C) \text{ and } P(A | B, C^c) < P(A | B^c, C^c) \\&\text{yet also } P(A | B) > P(A | B^c).\end{aligned}$$

Law of Total Probability (LOTP)

Let $B_1, B_2, B_3, \dots, B_n$ be a *partition* of the sample space (i.e., they are disjoint and their union is the entire sample space).

$$\begin{aligned}P(A) &= P(A|B_1)P(B_1) + P(A|B_2)P(B_2) + \dots + P(A|B_n)P(B_n) \\P(A) &= P(A \cap B_1) + P(A \cap B_2) + \dots + P(A \cap B_n)\end{aligned}$$

For **LOTP with extra conditioning**, just add in another event C !

$$\begin{aligned}P(A|C) &= P(A|B_1, C)P(B_1|C) + \dots + P(A|B_n, C)P(B_n|C) \\P(A|C) &= P(A \cap B_1|C) + P(A \cap B_2|C) + \dots + P(A \cap B_n|C)\end{aligned}$$

Special case of LOTP with B and B^c as partition:

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

Bayes' Rule

Bayes' Rule, and with extra conditioning (just add in C !)

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

We can also write

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

Odds Form of Bayes' Rule

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

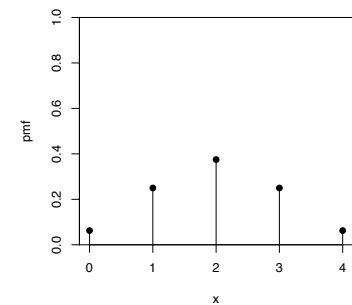
The *posterior odds* of A are the *likelihood ratio* times the *prior odds*.

Random Variables and their Distributions

PMF, CDF, and Independence

Probability Mass Function (PMF) Gives the probability that a *discrete* random variable takes on the value x .

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x)$$

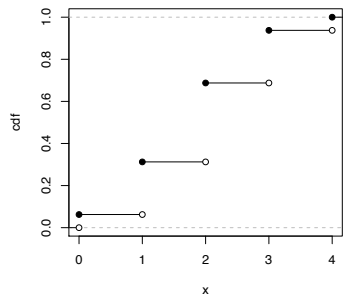


The PMF satisfies

$$p_X(x) \geq 0 \text{ and } \sum_x p_X(x) = 1$$

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) Gives the probability that a random variable is less than or equal to x .

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$$



The CDF is an increasing, right-continuous function with $F_X(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$ and $F_X(x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$

Independence Intuitively, two random variables are independent if knowing the value of one gives no information about the other. Discrete r.v.s X and Y are independent if for *all* values of x and y

$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)$$

Expected Value and Indicators

Expected Value and Linearity

Expected Value (a.k.a. *mean*, *expectation*, or *average*) is a weighted average of the possible outcomes of our random variable. Mathematically, if x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots are all of the distinct possible values that X can take, the expected value of X is

$$E(X) = \sum_i x_i P(X = x_i)$$

X	Y	$X + Y$
3	4	7
2	2	4
6	8	14
10	23	33
1	-3	-2
1	0	1
5	9	14
4	1	5
...

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i)$$

$$E(X) + E(Y) = E(X + Y)$$

Linearity For any r.v.s X and Y , and constants a, b, c ,

$$E(aX + bY + c) = aE(X) + bE(Y) + c$$

Same distribution implies same mean If X and Y have the same distribution, then $E(X) = E(Y)$ and, more generally,

$$E(g(X)) = E(g(Y))$$

Conditional Expected Value is defined like expectation, only conditioned on any event A .

$$E(X|A) = \sum_x xP(X = x|A)$$

Indicator Random Variables

Indicator Random Variable is a random variable that takes on the value 1 or 0. It is always an indicator of some event: if the event occurs, the indicator is 1; otherwise it is 0. They are useful for many problems about counting how many events of some kind occur. Write

$$I_A = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } A \text{ occurs,} \\ 0 & \text{if } A \text{ does not occur.} \end{cases}$$

Note that $I_A^2 = I_A$, $I_A I_B = I_{A \cap B}$, and $I_{A \cup B} = I_A + I_B - I_A I_B$.

Distribution $I_A \sim \text{Bern}(p)$ where $p = P(A)$.

Fundamental Bridge The expectation of the indicator for event A is the probability of event A : $E(I_A) = P(A)$.

Variance and Standard Deviation

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X - E(X))^2 = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$$

$$\text{SD}(X) = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$$

Continuous RVs, LOTUS, UoU

Continuous Random Variables (CRVs)

What's the probability that a CRV is in an interval? Take the difference in CDF values (or use the PDF as described later).

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(X \leq b) - P(X \leq a) = F_X(b) - F_X(a)$$

For $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, this becomes

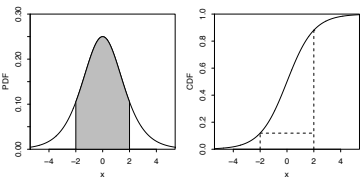
$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \Phi\left(\frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

What is the Probability Density Function (PDF)? The PDF f is the derivative of the CDF F .

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$

A PDF is nonnegative and integrates to 1. By the fundamental theorem of calculus, to get from PDF back to CDF we can integrate:

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



To find the probability that a CRV takes on a value in an interval, integrate the PDF over that interval.

$$F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

How do I find the expected value of a CRV? Analogous to the discrete case, where you sum x times the PMF, for CRVs you integrate x times the PDF.

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$$

LOTUS

Expected value of a function of an r.v. The expected value of X is defined this way:

$$E(X) = \sum_x xP(X = x) \text{ (for discrete } X\text{)}$$

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx \text{ (for continuous } X\text{)}$$

The **Law of the Unconscious Statistician (LOTUS)** states that you can find the expected value of a *function of a random variable*, $g(X)$, in a similar way, by replacing the x in front of the PMF/PDF by $g(x)$ but still working with the PMF/PDF of X :

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x)P(X = x) \text{ (for discrete } X\text{)}$$

$$E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx \text{ (for continuous } X\text{)}$$

What's a function of a random variable? A function of a random variable is also a random variable. For example, if X is the number of bikes you see in an hour, then $g(X) = 2X$ is the number of bike wheels you see in that hour and $h(X) = \binom{X}{2} = \frac{X(X-1)}{2}$ is the number of *pairs* of bikes such that you see both of those bikes in that hour.

What's the point? You don't need to know the PMF/PDF of $g(X)$ to find its expected value. All you need is the PMF/PDF of X .

Universality of Uniform (UoU)

When you plug any CRV into its own CDF, you get a Uniform(0,1) random variable. When you plug a Uniform(0,1) r.v. into an inverse CDF, you get an r.v. with that CDF. For example, let's say that a random variable X has CDF

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-x}, \text{ for } x > 0$$

By UoU, if we plug X into this function then we get a uniformly distributed random variable.

$$F(X) = 1 - e^{-X} \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$$

Similarly, if $U \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ then $F^{-1}(U)$ has CDF F . The key point is that for any continuous random variable X , we can transform it into a Uniform random variable and back by using its CDF.