# Probability—the Science of Uncertainty and Data

**PROBABILITY** 

### Probability models and axioms

Definition (Sample space) A sample space  $\Omega$  is the set of all possible outcomes. The set's elements must be mutually exclusive, collectively exhaustive and at the right granularity.

Definition (Event) An event is a subset of the sample space. Probability is assigned to events.

Definition (Probability axioms) A probability law  $\mathbb{P}$  assigns probabilities to events and satisfies the following axioms:

**Nonnegativity**  $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$  for all events A.

**Normalization**  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ .

(Countable) additivity For every sequence of events  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  such that  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ :  $\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_i A_i\right) = \sum_i \mathbb{P}(A_i)$ .

Corollaries (Consequences of the axioms)

- $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$ .
- For any finite collection of disjoint events  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ ,  $\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i).$
- $\mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1$ .
- $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq 1$ .
- If  $A \subset B$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(A) \leq \mathbb{P}(B)$ .
- $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$ .
- $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) \leq \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B)$ .

Example (Discrete uniform law) Assume  $\Omega$  is finite and consists of n equally likely elements. Also, assume that  $A \subset \Omega$  with k elements. Then  $\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{k}{n}$ .

## Conditioning and Bayes' rule

Definition (Conditional probability) Given that event B has occurred and that P(B) > 0, the probability that A occurs is

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}.$$

Remark (Conditional probabilities properties) They are the same as ordinary probabilities. Assuming  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ :

- $\mathbb{P}(A|B) \geq 0$ .
- $\mathbb{P}(\Omega|B) = 1$
- $\mathbb{P}(B|B) = 1$ .
- If  $A \cap C = \emptyset$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(A \cup C|B) = \mathbb{P}(A|B) + \mathbb{P}(C|B)$ .

Proposition (Multiplication rule)

 $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_2 | A_1) \cdots \mathbb{P}(A_n | A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_{n-1}).$ 

Theorem (Total probability theorem) Given a partition  $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots\}$  of the sample space, meaning that  $\bigcup_i A_i = \Omega$  and the events are disjoint, and for every event B, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \sum_{i} \mathbb{P}(A_i) \mathbb{P}(B|A_i)$$

Theorem (Bayes' rule) Given a partition  $\{A_1,A_2,\ldots\}$  of the sample space, meaning that  $\bigcup A_i=\Omega$  and the events are disjoint,

and if  $\mathbb{P}(A_i) > 0$  for all i, then for every event B, the conditional probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(A_i|B)$  can be obtained from the conditional probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(B|A_i)$  and the initial probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(A_i)$  as follows:

$$\mathbb{P}(A_i|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A_i)\mathbb{P}(B|A_i)}{\sum_i \mathbb{P}(A_i)\mathbb{P}(B|A_i)}.$$

#### Independence

Definition (Independence of events) Two events are independent if occurrence of one provides no information about the other. We say that A and B are independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B).$$

Equivalently, as long as  $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(B|A) = \mathbb{P}(B)$$
  $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$ .

#### Remarks

- The definition of independence is symmetric with respect to A and B.
- The product definition applies even if  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 0$  or  $\mathbb{P}(B) = 0$ .

Corollary If A and B are independent, then A and  $B^c$  are independent. Similarly for  $A^c$  and B, or for  $A^c$  and  $B^c$ .

Definition (Conditional independence) We say that A and B are independent conditioned on C, where  $\mathbb{P}(C) > 0$ , if

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B|C) = \mathbb{P}(A|C)\mathbb{P}(B|C).$$

Definition (Independence of a collection of events) We say that events  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$  are independent if for every collection of distinct indices  $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_k$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \ldots \cap A_{i_k}) = \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_{i_2}) \cdots \mathbb{P}(A_{i_k}).$$

#### Counting

This section deals with finite sets with uniform probability law. In this case, to calculate  $\mathbb{P}(A)$ , we need to count the number of elements in A and in  $\Omega$ .

Remark (Basic counting principle) For a selection that can be done in r stages, with  $n_i$  choices at each stage i, the number of possible selections is  $n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdots n_r$ .

Definition (Permutations) The number of permutations (orderings) of n different elements is

$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots n$$
.

Definition (Combinations) Given a set of n elements, the number of subsets with exactly k elements is

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

Definition (Partitions) We are given an n-element set and nonnegative integers  $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_r$ , whose sum is equal to n. The number of partitions of the set into r disjoint subsets, with the i<sup>th</sup> subset containing exactly  $n_i$  elements, is equal to

$$\binom{n}{n_1,\ldots,n_r} = \frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_r!}.$$

Remark This is the same as counting how to assign n distinct elements to r people, giving each person i exactly  $n_i$  elements.

#### Discrete random variables

Probability mass function and expectation

Definition (Random variable) A random variable X is a function of the sample space  $\Omega$  into the real numbers (or  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). Its range can be discrete or continuous.

Definition (Probability mass funtion (PMF)) The probability law of a discrete random variable X is called its PMF. It is defined as

$$p_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x) = \mathbb{P}\left(\left\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\right\}\right).$$

Properties

 $p_X(x) \ge 0, \ \forall \ x.$ 

$$\sum_{x} p_X(x) = 1.$$

Example (Bernoulli random variable) A Bernoulli random variable X with parameter  $0 \le p \le 1$  ( $X \sim \text{Ber}(p)$ ) takes the following values:

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w.p. } p, \\ 0 & \text{w.p. } 1 - p. \end{cases}$$

An indicator random variable of an event ( $I_A$  = 1 if A occurs) is an example of a Bernoulli random variable.

Example (Discrete uniform random variable) A Discrete uniform random variable X between a and b with  $a \le b$  ( $X \sim \mathrm{Uni}[a,b]$ ) takes any of the values in  $\{a,a+1,\ldots,b\}$  with probability  $\frac{1}{b-a+1}$ .

Example (Binomial random variable) A Binomial random variable X with parameters n (natural number) and  $0 \le p \le 1$   $(X \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n,p))$  takes values in the set  $\{0,1,\ldots,n\}$  with probabilities  $p_X(i) = \binom{n}{i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}$ .

It represents the number of successes in n independent trials where each trial has a probability of success p. Therefore, it can also be seen as the sum of n independent Bernoulli random variables, each with parameter p.

Example (Geometric random variable) A Geometric random variable X with parameter  $0 \le p \le 1$  ( $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$ ) takes values in the set  $\{1,2,\ldots\}$  with probabilities  $p_X(i) = (1-p)^{i-1}p$ . It represents the number of independent trials until (and including)

the first success, when the probability of success in each trial is p.

Definition (Expectation/mean of a random variable) The expectation of a discrete random variable is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \sum_{x} x p_X(x).$$

assuming  $\sum_{x} |x| p_X(x) < \infty$ .

Properties (Properties of expectation)

- If  $X \ge 0$  then  $\mathbb{E}[X] \ge 0$ .
- If  $a \le X \le b$  then  $a \le \mathbb{E}[X] \le b$ .
- If X = c then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = c$ .

Example Expected value of know r.v.

- If  $X \sim \operatorname{Ber}(p)$  then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = p$ .
- If  $X = I_A$  then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{P}(A)$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Uni}[a, b]$  then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{a+b}{2}$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$  then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = np$ .
- If  $X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$  then  $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{p}$ .