PROBABILITY

QSNAKE EDITION

1. Review.

Definition.

- Two events A and B are called mutually exclusive if $A \cap B = \emptyset$
- Events A_1, A_2, A_3, \cdots are said to be mutually exclusive if they are pairwise mutually exclusive. That is, if $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ whenever $i \neq j$.

Theorem.

- P(A) = 1 P(A')
- $P(A) \leq 1$, for any event A
- For any two event A and B, $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$
- If $A \subset B$, then $P(A) \leq P(B)$
- $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$ If A_1, \dots is a sequence of events
- If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k are events, then $P(\bigcap_{i=1}^k A_i) \ge 1 \sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i')$

Proof. By axiom of probability.

<u>Definition.</u> The conditional probability of an event A, given the event B, is defined by

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

if $P(B) \neq 0$

Theorem. For any events A and B,

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

Theorem (Not talk in class). If B_1, \dots, B_k is a collection of mutually exclusive and exhaustive events, then for any event A

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} P(B_i) P(A \mid B_i)$$

Note. exhaustive events: A collection of event which union is sample space.

Theorem (Not talk in class). If B_1, \dots, B_k is mutually exclusive and exhaustive events, then for any event A and each $j = 1, \dots, k$

$$P(B_j \mid A) = \frac{P(B_j)P(A \mid B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^k P(B_i)P(A \mid B_i)} \left(= \frac{P(A \cap B_j)}{P(A)} \right)$$

<u>Definition.</u> Two events A and B are called independent events if

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

Otherwise, A and B are called dependent event

Theorem. If A and B are events such that P(A) > 0 and P(B) > 0, and A and B are independent, we get

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) \Leftrightarrow P(A \mid B) = P(A) \Leftrightarrow P(B \mid A) = P(B)$$

Theorem (Not talk in class).

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

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

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

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

Definition. The k events A_1, \dots, A_k are said to b independent or mutually independent if for every $j = 2, 3, \dots, k$ and every subset of distinct indices i_1, i_2, \dots, i_j

$$P(A_{i1} \cap A_{i2} \cap \cdots \cap A_{ij}) = P(A_{i1})P(A_{i2}) \cdots P(A_{ij})$$

2. Discrete Random Variable Review.

<u>Definition</u>. The cumulative distribution function (CDF) of a random variable X is defined for any real x by

$$F(x) = P[X \le x]$$

Theorem. Let X be a discrete random variable with $pdf\ f(x)$ and $CDF\ F(x)$. If the possible values of X are indexed in increasing order, $x_1 < x_2 < x_3 < \cdots$, then:

- $(i) \ f(x_1) = F(x_i)$
- (ii) for any i > 1, $f(x_i) = F(x_i) F(x_{i-1})$
- (iii) if $x < x_1$ then F(x) = 0
- (iv) $F(x) = \sum_{x_i < x} f(x_i)$

Theorem. A function F(x) is a CDF for some random variable X if and only if it satisfies:

- (i) $\lim_{x\to-\infty} F(x) = 0$
- (ii) $\lim_{x\to\infty} F(x) = 1$
- (iii) $\lim_{h\to 0^+} F(x+h) = F(x)$
- (iv) a < b implies $F(a) \le F(b)$

Example.

Suppose that the distribution function of X is given by

$$F(b) = \begin{cases} 0 & b < 0 \\ \frac{b}{4} & 0 \le b < 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{b-1}{4} & 1 \le b < 2 \\ \frac{11}{12} & 2 \le b < 3 \\ 1 & 3 \le b \end{cases}$$

- (1) Find $P\{X = i\}, i = 1, 2, 3$
- (2) Find $P\{\frac{1}{2} < X < \frac{3}{2}\}$

3. Continuous Random Variables.

<u>Definition</u>. Let X be such a random variable. We say that X is a continuous random variable if there **exists a nonnegative function** f, **define for all real** $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$, having the property that for any set B of real numbers,

$$P\{X \in B\} = \int_{B} f(x)dx$$

the function f is called the probability density function of the random variable X

Note. X will be in B may be obtained by integrating the probability density function over the set B. Since X must assume some value, f must satisfy

$$1 = P\{X \in (-\infty, \infty)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx$$

All probability statements about X can be answered in terms of f, and letting B = [a, b], we obtain

$$P\{a \le X \le b\} = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

and we let a = b we get

$$P\{X=a\} = \int_a^a f(x)dx = 0$$

this equation states that the probability that a continuous random variable will assume any fixed value is zero. Hence, for a continuous random variable,

$$P\{X < a\} = P\{X \le a\} = F(a) = \int_{\infty}^{a} f(x)dx$$

<u>Definition</u>. If X is a continuous random variable having probability density function f(x), then expected value of X is

$$E[X] = \int_{\frac{\pi}{4}}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

Proposition. If X is a continuous random variable with probability density function f(x), then for any real-valued function g,

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx$$

To proof part of this proposition $(g(x) \ge 0)$, we will need the following lemma. (The general proof, which follows the argument in the case we present, is indicated in Theoretical Exercises 2 and 3.)

Lemma. For a nonnegative random variable Y.

$$E[Y] = \int_0^\infty P\{Y > y\} dy$$

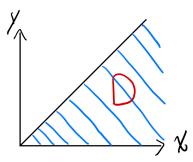
Proof. We present a proof when Y is a continuous random variable with probability density function f_Y . We have

$$\int_0^\infty P\{Y > y\} dy = \int_0^\infty \int_y^\infty f_Y(x) dx dy$$

where we have used the fact that $P\{Y > y\} = \int_y^\infty f_Y(x) dx$, and let us change it to region D first.

$$\int_0^\infty \int_y^\infty f_Y(x) dx dy = \iint_D \sin(y^2) dA$$

where $D = \{(x, y) \mid y < x < \infty, \ 0 < y < \infty\}$ the picture is



we can consider D as

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \le x \le \infty, \ 0 \le y \le x\}$$

and interchanging the order of integration in the preceding equation yields

$$\int_0^\infty P\{Y > y\} dy = \iint_D F_Y(x) dA$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \left(\int_0^x dy \right) f_Y(x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty x f_Y(x) dx$$

$$= E[Y]$$

Proof of Prop 2.1

From Lemma 2.1, for any function g for which $g(x) \ge 0$

$$E[g(X)] = \int_0^\infty P\{g(X) > y\} dy$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \int_{x:g(x) > y} f(x) dx dy$$

$$= \int_{x:g(x) > 0} \int_0^{g(x)} dy f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{x:g(x) > 0} g(x) f(x) dx$$

which completes the proof

Corollary. If a and b are constants, then

$$E[aX + b] = aE[X] + b$$

3. Uniform Random Variable.

<u>Definition.</u> A random variable is said to be uniformly distributed over the interval (0,1) if its probability density function is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

and in general, we say that X is a uniform random variable on the interval (α, β) if the probability density function of X is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} & \text{if } \alpha < x < \beta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We usy $X \sim Uniform(\alpha, \beta)$

Exercise. Let X be uniformly distributed over (α, β) . Find E[X] and Var(X)

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$
$$= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{x}{\beta - \alpha} dx$$
$$= \frac{\beta^2 - \alpha^2}{2(\beta - \alpha)}$$
$$= \frac{\beta + \alpha}{2}$$

the variance be the homework, try it yourself.

4. Normal Random Variables.

<u>Definition.</u> We say that X is a normal random variable, or simply that X is normally distributed, with parameters μ and σ^2 if the density of X is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} \qquad -\infty < x < \infty$$

and we will usually write $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Proof f(x) is indeed a probability density function

Proof. To prove that f(x) is indeed a probability density function, we need to show that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} dx = 1$$

Making the substitution $y = (x - \mu)/\sigma$, we see that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2/2} dy$$

Hence, we must show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2/2} dy = \sqrt{2\pi}$$

Toward this end, let $I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2/2} dy$. Then

$$I^{2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^{2}/2} dy \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}/2} dx$$
$$= 2\pi \int_{0}^{\infty} r e^{-r^{2}/2} dr$$
$$= -2\pi e^{-r^{2}/2} |_{0}^{\infty}$$
$$= 2\pi$$

Hence, $I = \sqrt{2\pi}$, and the result is proved.

Note.

If X is normally distributed with parameters μ and σ^2 , then Y = aX + b is normally distributed with parameters $a\mu + b$ and $a^2\sigma^2$

Proof. Suppose a > 0. Let F_Y denote the cumulative distribution function of Y. Then

$$F_Y(x) = P\{Y \le x\}$$

$$= P\{aX + b \le x\}$$

$$= P\left\{X \le \frac{x - b}{a}\right\}$$

$$= F_X\left(\frac{x - b}{a}\right)$$

and by differentiation, the density function of Y is then

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

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

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

which shows that Y is normal with parameters $a\mu + b$ and $a^2\sigma^2$

Exercise. Find E[X] and Var(X) when X is a normal random variable with parameters μ and σ^2

Note. If X is normally distributed with parameters μ and σ^2 , then $Z = (X - \mu)/\sigma$ is normally distributed with parameters 0 and 1. Such a random variable is said to be a standard, or a unit normal random variable.

Proof. Start by finding the mean and variance of the standard normal random variable $Z = (X - \mu)/\sigma/$ We have

$$E[Z] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_Z(x) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty}$$

$$= 0$$
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Thus,

$$Var(Z) = E[Z^2]$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

Integration by parts (with u = x and $dv = xe^{-x^2/2}$) now gives

$$Var(Z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(-e^{-x^2/2} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$
$$= 1$$

Because $X = \mu + \sigma Z$, the preceding yields the results

$$E[X] = \mu + \sigma E[Z] = \mu$$
 and $Var(X) = \sigma^2 Var(Z) = \sigma^2$

<u>Definition</u>. If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then $X = \sigma Z + \mu$ where $Z \sim N(0, 1)$. We call Z a standard normal random variable.

<u>Definition.</u> It is customary to denote the cumulative distribution function of a standard normal random variable by $\Phi(x)$. That is,

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{-y^2/2} dy$$

5. Exponential Random Variables.

<u>Definition</u>. A continuous random variable whose probability density function is given, for some $\lambda > 0$, by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

is said to be an exponential random variable with parameter λ . The cumulative distribution function F(a) of an exponential random variable is given by

$$F(a) = P\{X \le a\}$$

$$= \int_0^a \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$$

$$= -e^{-\lambda x} |_0^a$$

$$= 1 - e^{\lambda a} \qquad a > 0$$

Exercise. Let X be an exponential random variable with parameter λ . Calculate E[X] an Var(X).

Hazard Rate Functions

<u>Definition.</u> Consider a positive continuous random variable X that we interpret as being the life time of some item. Let X have distribution function F and density f. The hazard rate (sometimes called the failure rate) function $\lambda(t)$ of F is defined by

$$\lambda(t) = \frac{f(t)}{\overline{F}(t)}, \quad where \overline{F} = 1 - F$$

Suppose now that the lifetime distribution is exponential. Then, by the memory-less property, it follows that the distribution of remaining life for a t-year-old item is the same as that for a new item.

$$\lambda(t) = \frac{f(t)}{\overline{F}(t)} = \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda t}}{e^{-\lambda t}} = \lambda$$

6.* The Gamma Distribution. A random variable is said to have a gamma distribution with parameters $(\alpha, \lambda), \lambda > 0, \alpha > 0$, if its density function is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda x} (\lambda x)^{\alpha - 1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} & x \ge 0\\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

where $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty e^{-y} y^{\alpha-1} dy$ is called **gamma function**.

Note. Some times, the λ in the equation above will be changed to β , and normally $\beta = \frac{1}{\lambda}$

Now, let's check the property of $\Gamma(\alpha)$, integration of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ by parts yields

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = -e^{-y}y^{\alpha-1}|_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y}(\alpha - 1)y^{\alpha-2}dy$$
$$= (\alpha - 1)\int_0^{\infty} e^{-y}y^{\alpha-2}dy$$
$$= (\alpha - 1)\gamma(\alpha - 1)$$

For integral values of α , say, $\alpha = n$, we obtain, by applying Equation above,

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)\gamma(n-1)$$

$$= (n-1)(n-2)\Gamma(n-2)$$

$$= \cdots$$

$$= (n-1)(n-2)\cdots 3\cdot 2\Gamma(1)$$

Since $\Gamma(1) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = 1$, it follows that, for integral values of n

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$$

Note.

- (1) When $\alpha = 1$, this distribution reduces to the exponential distribution.
- (2) When $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$ and $\alpha = n/2$, n a positive integer, is called the χ_n^2 (chi-squared) distribution with n degrees of freedom.

7. The Distribution of a Function of a Random Variable. Some times, we know the distribution of X and want to find the distribution of g(X). To do so, it is necessary to express the event that $g(X) \leq y$ in terms of X being in some set.

Example. Let X be uniformly distributed over (0,1). We obtain the distribution of the random variable Y, defined by $Y = X^n$, as follows: For $0 \le y \le 1$,

$$F_Y(y) = P\{Y \le y\}$$

$$= P\{X^n \le y\}$$

$$= P\{X \le y^{1/n}\}$$

$$= F_X(y^{1/n})$$

$$= y^{1/n}$$

For instance, the density function of Y is given by

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} y^{1/n-1} & 0 \le y \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example. If X is a continuous random variable with probability density f_X , then the distribution of $Y = X^2$ is obtained as follows. For $y \ge 0$,

$$F_Y(y) = P\{Y \le y\}$$

$$= P\{X^2 \le y\}$$

$$= P\{-\sqrt{y} \le X \le \sqrt{y}\}$$

$$= F_X(\sqrt{y}) - F_X(-\sqrt{y})$$

Differentiation yields

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} [f_X(\sqrt{y}) + f_X(-\sqrt{y})]$$

Theorem. Let X be a continuous random variable having probability density function f_X . Suppose that g(x) is a strictly monotonic (increasing or decreasing), differentiable (and thus continuous) function of x.

Then the random variable Y defined by Y = g(X) has a probability density function given by

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} f_X[g^{-1}(y)] \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right| & \text{if } y = g(x) \text{ for some } x \\ 0 & \text{if } y \neq g(x) \text{ for all } x \end{cases}$$

where $g^{-1}(y)$ is defined to equal that value of x such that g(x) = y.

Proof. Suppose that y = g(x) for some x. Then, with Y = g(X),

$$F_Y(y) = P\{g(X) \le y\}$$

= $P\{X \le g^{-1}(y)\}$
= $F_X(g^{-1}(y))$

Differentiation gives

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y)$$

Homework. The Lognormal Distribution (p.225)

If X is a normal random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then the random variable

$$Y = e^X$$

is said to be a lognormal random variable with parameters μ and σ^2 . Try to find the density function f_Y