

Rapid Review of Probability

Example: Coin toss : two outcomes, H+T

We say: "prob of H = prob of T = $\frac{1}{2}$ ".

Why? There is nothing "random" about a coin toss.

↳ If I can toss it in exactly the same way under the exact same conditions, the outcome will be the same.

↳ Describing a coin toss is very difficult.

→ Probability is a good "model" for situations that are difficult for us to say exactly what we don't know.

→ We need to formalize this intuition.

Definition "Sample Space" Ω : the space of all outcomes of a (well defined) experiment.

Examples:

↳ Experiment:

Coin toss: outcomes are H+T. (I)

↳ Experiment:

"Wait for tomorrow and observe the weather"
 $\Omega = \{ \text{all possible weather situations} \}$ (II)

↳ Experiment:

"Wait for tomorrow and measure temperature at 12" (III)
on top of ENR2"

$\Omega = \{ \text{All possible temperatures} \}$

Definition: An "event" is a subset of Ω .

Examples: * for Exp I: \rightarrow an event $B \subset T$
 \rightarrow another event $B \subset H$

* for Exp II: \rightarrow "a sunny day with $T < 102^{\circ}\text{F}$ "

* for Exp III: $\rightarrow T$ is less than 108°F
 $\rightarrow 92^{\circ}\text{F} \leq T \leq 108^{\circ}\text{F}$

Definition σ -algebra.

The set of all events we want to consider, \mathcal{B} , must be a σ -algebra.

That is, \mathcal{B} must satisfy:

(i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$

$\hat{\wedge}$ "the empty set"

(ii) If $A \in \mathcal{B}$, then $C_A \in \mathcal{B}$

$\hat{\wedge}$ "complement of A ", i.e.,
everyday that A not A .

(iii) If $A = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ is a collection
of sets, then the unions of all elements of
 A must also be in \mathcal{B} .

Examples

(a) Coin toss:

$$\Omega = \{H, T\}$$

$$\mathcal{P} = \{\emptyset, \{H, T\}\}$$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\quad}$ describes that "nothing happened" (\emptyset)
or "something happened" (either H or T).

$$\mathcal{P} = \{\emptyset, H, T\}$$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\quad}$ describes what the outcome of
the experiment "toss a coin".

(b) Dice

$$\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$\mathcal{P} = \{ \{1, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 6\}, \emptyset \}$$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\quad}$ outcome is odd or even

$$\mathcal{P} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \emptyset\}$$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\quad}$ a certain number is up after tossing
the dice.

Definition: A "probability measure" is a function

$$P : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

(to the real numbers)

that satisfies:

(i) $P(\Omega) = 1$

(ii) $0 \leq P \leq 1$

(iii) Let $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$ be a finite collection of events $A_i \in \mathcal{D}$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ $\textcircled{*}$ for $i \neq j$. Then $P(\bigcup A_i) = \sum P(A_i)$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$

Probability of
union of sets = sum of
probabilities

Definition: The triple (Ω, \mathcal{D}, P) is a probability space

$\Omega \sim$ all possible outcomes of an experiment

$\mathcal{D} \sim$ outcomes we are interested in

$P \sim$ probabilities that outcomes in \mathcal{D} occur

$P(A) = 0$ means A almost never occurs

$P(A) = 1$ means A almost always occurs

Example: Coin toss

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Omega = \{H, T\}, \\ \mathcal{D} = \{\emptyset, H, T\} \\ P(H) = \frac{1}{2} \\ P(T) = \frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right\} \text{This is a } \underline{\text{model}} \text{ that describes the experiment "toss a coin".}$$

$\textcircled{*}$ $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ means intersection of sets is empty.

Is this a good model?

→ The model says that in about half of your tries, you will see a H, you will get T in the other half

→ Does this agree with what we observe?

Find out in HW!

Toss a coin 10 times. How often do you see H?

Toss a coin 100 times. How often do you see H?

Toss a coin 500 times. How often do you see H?

use "parallel experiments" for the last questions, i.e., make 5 people toss a coin 100 times.

From now on, assume that $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ (all real numbers)

Definition: A "random variable" is a function

$x: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$A_\eta = \{\omega \in \Omega : x(\omega) \leq \eta\}$$

is an element of \mathcal{P} for all η .

This means that we can assign probabilities to all events $x(\omega) \leq \eta$, (the r.v. is less than some number)

• Loosely speaking, a r.v. is a variable whose value is not known, but it is possible to assign probabilities to the occurrence of various values.

A r.v. takes a probability space and maps it to observables we care about.

Definition The "probability distribution function" of a r.v. X is

$$F_X(y) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq y\}).$$

The probability distribution function (PDF) has the

following properties: (i) $F_X(-\infty) = 0$

(ii) $F_X(\infty) = 1$

(iii) $F_X(y_1) \geq F_X(y_2) \quad \text{if } y_1 \geq y_2$

(non-decreasing func)

Example: Dice: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

$D = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}\}$ (we care about what is up)

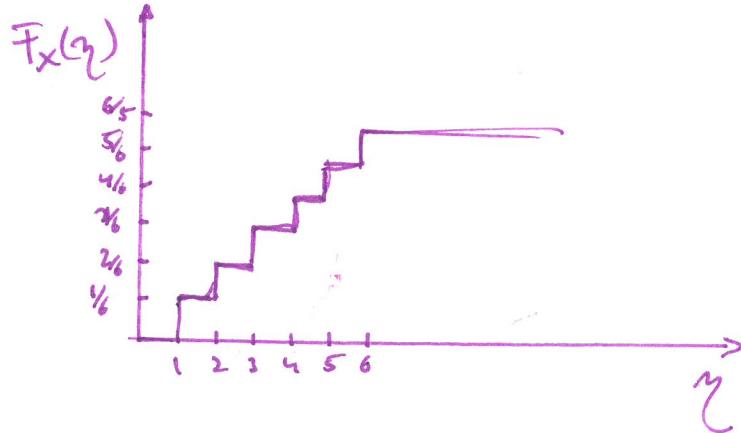
$$P(i) = \frac{1}{6} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, 6$$

$$\bar{F}_X(0) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq 0\}) = 0$$

$$\bar{F}_X(1-\varepsilon) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq 1-\varepsilon\}) = 0 \quad \text{for all } \varepsilon > 0$$

$$\bar{F}_X(1+\varepsilon) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq 1+\varepsilon\}) = \frac{1}{6} \quad \text{for } \varepsilon > 0$$

$$\varepsilon < 1$$



Definition: If $F'_x(y)$ exists, then $p(y) = F'_x(y)$ is the "probability density function" (p.d.f.) of r.v. x .

- For the rest of the class, we consider only r.v.'s for which $F'_x(y)$ exists.
- We call all the p.d.f.s of r.v. x also the (probab.) distribution of x .

Properties of the p.d.f.:

(1) Since $F_x(y)$ is non-decreasing, $p_x(y) \geq 0$.

$$(2) F(x_1 + dy) - F(x_1) = p(y) dy$$

$$P(\{\omega \in \Omega : x(\omega) \in (x_1, x_1 + dy)\}) \\ = \text{p.d.f.} \times \text{Volume}$$

$$(3) F_x(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y p(y) dy$$

$$(4) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y) dy = F_x(\infty) - F_x(-\infty) = 1$$

Multivariate r.v.

Probability space (Ω, \mathcal{B}, P)

$$X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

"Components of X are r.v."

$$x_1 : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$x_2 : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

⋮

$$A_{\gamma} = \{\omega \in \Omega : x_1(\omega) \leq \gamma_1, x_2(\omega) \leq \gamma_2, \dots\}$$

$\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n)$
is a element of \mathbb{R}^n for all γ
vector

Probability distribution fcn: $F_X(\gamma) = P(A_{\gamma})$

If $F_X(\gamma)$ is differentiable, $\frac{\partial^n}{\partial \gamma_1 \dots \partial \gamma_n} F_X(\gamma) = p(x)$

is the probability density of x .

Note: Probability space itself usually not really known & not important.

What is known are assumed probability measures and probability densities.

Examples of r.v.s

(1) Uniformly distributed r.v.

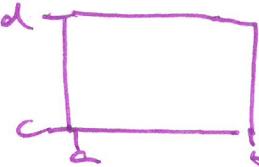
$X \sim U[a, b]$ means every value of x in $[a, b]$ has the same probability.

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } x \in [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(2) Multivariate uniform r.v.

$X \sim U$ means every value in a cube has the same probability.

$$p(x) \propto \text{Const.}$$

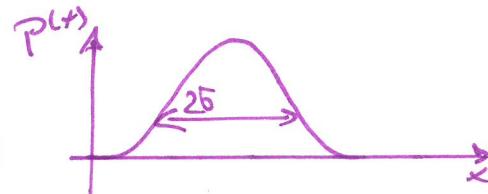


$$\text{In 2D: } p(x) \propto \frac{1}{(b-a)(d-c)}$$

(3) Gaussian r.v. ("normal distribution")

$$x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2), \quad \sigma > 0$$

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

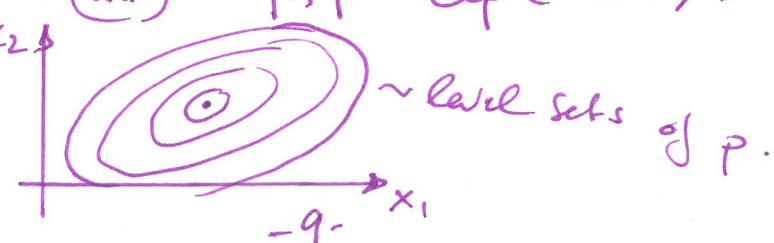


$\sim x$ is likely to be within $[\mu - 2\sigma, \mu + 2\sigma]$
(See later about why)

(4) Multivariate Gaussian

$$x \sim N(\mu, \Sigma) \quad \Sigma \geq 0, \quad \Sigma^\top = \Sigma$$

$$p(x) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{N}{2}} |\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (x-\mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)\right)$$



⑤ χ -distribution

$$y = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \mu_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2} \right)^{1/2}$$

$n > 0$ - degrees of freedom
Note that $y \geq 0$

$x_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$

$$P(y) \propto 2^{1-n/2} y^{n-1} e^{-y/2}$$

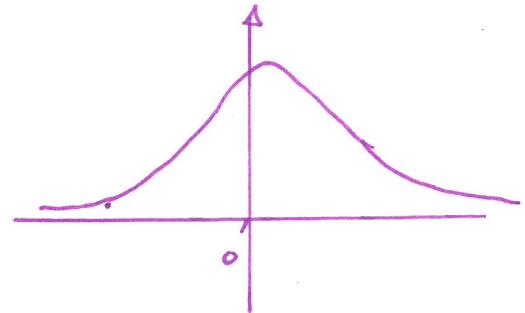
⑥ χ^2 -distribution

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \mu_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2}, \quad x_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$$

$$P(y) \propto y^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{y}{2}}, \quad y \geq 0$$

⑦ Student's t-distribution

$$P(x) \propto (1 + \frac{x^2}{n})^{-\frac{n+1}{2}}$$



"looks like Gaussian but has 'heavy tails'"

⑧ Multivariate t-distribution

$$P(y) \propto [1 + \chi_r(x - \mu) \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)]^{-\frac{n+r}{2}}$$

Constructed as: $x \sim N(0, \Sigma)$, $u \sim \chi_r^2$

$$y = \left(\frac{u}{r} \right) \cdot (x - \mu)$$

β (Student t) distributed

References:

Chow & Held, 2013, Chapter

Berth & Cotter, 2015, Chapter

Homework:

① Is $p(H) = p(T) = \frac{1}{2}$ a good model for a coin toss? How often do you observe H when you toss a coin 10, 50, 100, 500 times?

② For Gaussian distribution $p(x) = N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Why is $\sigma \geq 0$?

For Multivariate Gaussian $p(x) = N(\mu, \Sigma)$
Why is $\Sigma \geq 0$? Why is $\Sigma^T = \Sigma$?