

①

# CS130 - Probability Summary

Concerned with random experiments, which result in elementary outcomes, which make up the Sample Space.

$$\Omega = \{a, b, c\}$$

↓                    ↓                    ↓  
 Sample Space      Elementary outcome

Events are sets of elementary outcomes:

$$E \subseteq \Omega$$

↓  
 Event

Permutations of a set are sequences whose length is the size of the set, and whose elements are drawn from the set without repetition.

Arrangements of a set are sequences of a fixed length, whose elements are drawn from the set without repetition.

The number of arrangements of length  $n$  of a set of size  $r$  is

$$\frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

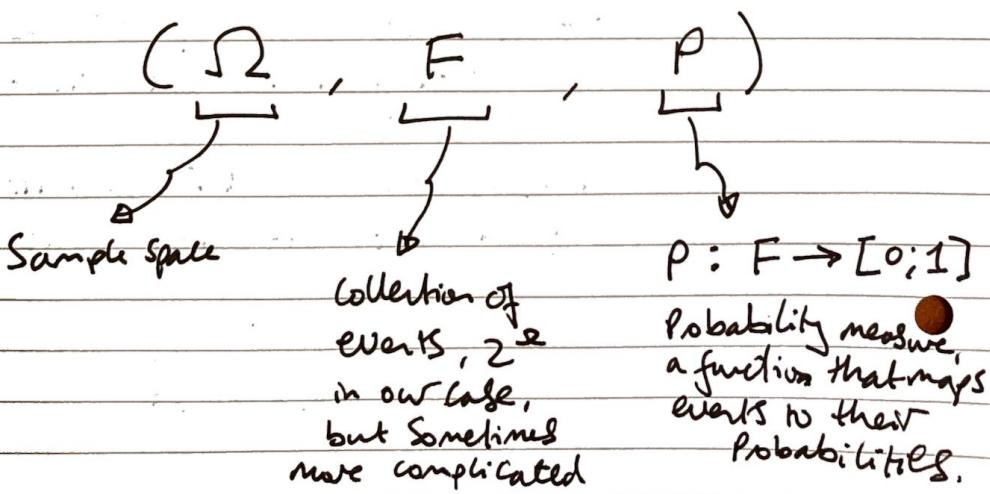
Combinations are Subsets of a fixed length . the number of combinations of length  $r$  from a set of size  $n$  is

$$\frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

The probability of an event  $E$  occurring is denoted as  $P(E)$ . It can be conceptualised in a number of ways :

- 1) the frequency of an event over a number of trials
- 2) The certainty with which an event will occur, e.g. 1 meaning the event is certain to occur.

We formally model this with "probability spaces":



(2)

## Probability axioms

$$1) P(E) \in [0; 1]$$

$$2) P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(E_i)$$

$\hookrightarrow$  If all events are disjoint

$$3) P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

## Corollaries of the axioms

$$1) P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

$\hookrightarrow$  If A and B are disjoint,  
i.e. independent

$$1.2) P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(\bar{A} \cap B)$$

$\hookrightarrow$  Since for (1) to hold A and B are disjoint

$$1.3) P(B) = P(\bar{A} \cap B) + P(A \cap B)$$

$\hookrightarrow$  Since  $B = \Omega \cap B$   
 $= (A \cup (\Omega \setminus A)) \cap B$   
 $= (A \cap B) \cup (\bar{A} \cap B)$

$$2) P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

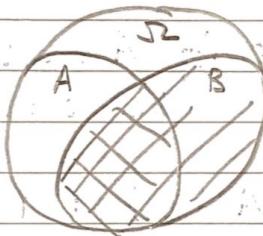
$\hookrightarrow$  Irrespective of whether A and B are disjoint

Conditional probability concerns finding the probability of an event if another is known to have occurred.

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

### Example

Consider a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and two events  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $P(B) \neq 0$ .



We are essentially "Shrinking" the sample space from  $\Omega$  to  $B$ , as we know it occurs, then looking for  $P(A)$  within the new sample space.

### Law of total probability:

Consider the events  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$  forming a partition of  $\Omega$

$$\Rightarrow P(B_i \cap B_j) = 0 \quad \forall i, j, i \neq j$$

~~$$\Rightarrow P(\bigcup_{x=1}^k B_x) = 1$$~~

And let  $P(B_i) > 0 \quad \forall i$ .

$$\forall A \in 2^{\Omega},$$

$$P(A) = \sum_{x=1}^k P(A | B_x) \cdot P(B_x)$$

### Explanation

Each event  $B_i$  represents a hypothesis which could precede the event  $A$ . So the partition of  $\Omega$  contains all possible events that could precede  $A$ . So the weighted average comes back to  $P(A)$ .

### Bayes theorem

↳ "use when you have a hypothesis, and want to update it given you've observed some new evidence"

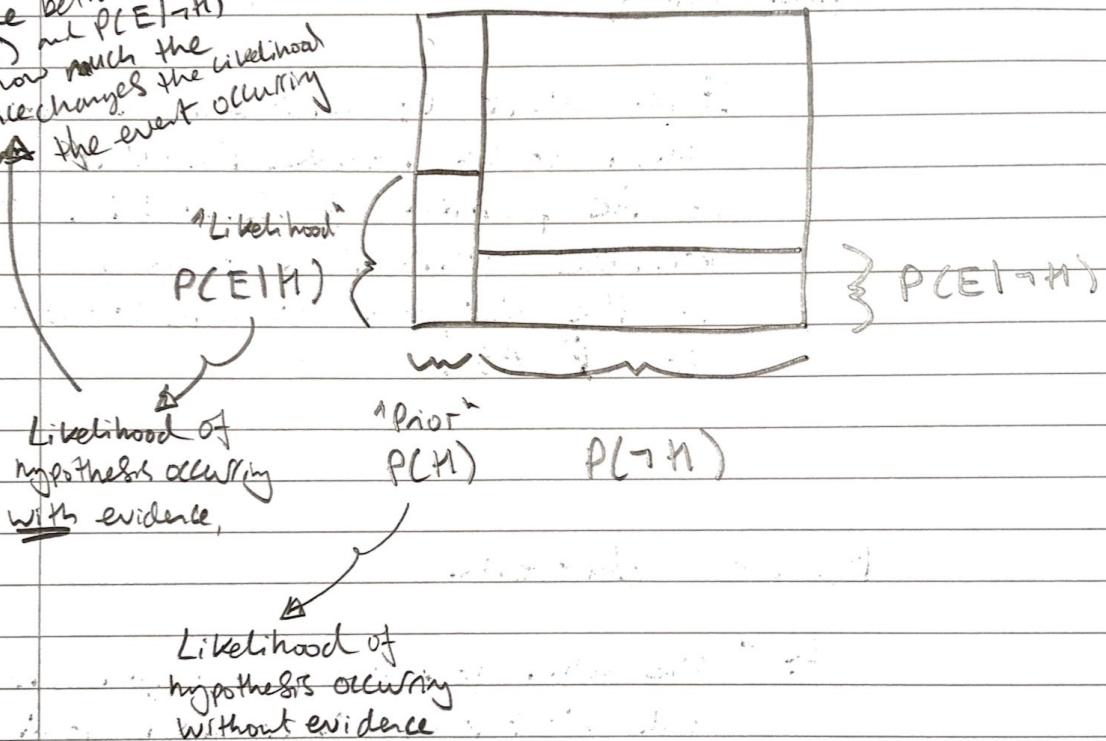
Suppose, as before, we have events  $B_k$  which partition  $\Omega$ , and there is an event  $A \in 2^{\Omega}$  which we know occurred

$$P(B_i | A) = \frac{P(A | B_i) \cdot P(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k P(A | B_j) \cdot P(B_j)}$$

Normally, we only consider one event,  $B$ , not a partition  $B_1, \dots, B_K$

Explanation Finding:  $P(H|E)$  "Posterior"

Difference between  $P(E|H)$  and  $P(E|\neg H)$   
mean how much the evidence changes the likelihood of the event occurring



$$\begin{aligned}
 P(H|E) &= \frac{P(H) \cdot P(E|H)}{P(H) \cdot P(E|H) + P(\neg H) \cdot P(E|\neg H)} \\
 &= \frac{P(H) \cdot P(E|H)}{P(E)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Independent events are when the probability of one event occurring ~~does~~ is not affected by whether another event occurs. This can be formalised as:

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

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

$$P(B) \neq 0$$

Bernoulli trials are random experiments with two outcomes (generalised to binomial distribution,  $n=2$ ).

$$\Omega = \{h, t\}$$

$$P(\{h\}) = p, \quad p \in [0; 1]$$

$$P(\{t\}) = 1-p$$

We can then write an "indicator function"  $X$ , which we say has a Bernoulli distribution with parameter  $p$ .

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega = h \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Averages can be defined in various ways, including mean, median and mode.

We can find the "expectation value" of a random variable as a weighted mean.

$$E(X) = \sum_i i \cdot P(X=i).$$

Value

Probability that the value occurs

The expectation values of the following standard distributions are:

- $X \sim \text{Uniform}(n)$ ,  $E(X) = \frac{n+1}{2}$

↳ In this case, equal to median

- $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ ,  $E[X] = np$

↳ Bernoulli is special case  $n=1$

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

$$E(a \cdot X) = a \cdot E(X)$$

$$E(X) \cdot E(Y) \neq E(X \cdot Y)$$

(5)

the variance of a random variable  
 $X$  measures the "spread" of its events  
 across the range of probabilities

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

The square root of this is called the standard deviation, and is often used to remove the "squares" introduced.

$E(X^k)$  is called the  $k^{\text{th}}$  moment of  $X$ .

Markov's inequality is a theorem that states that

$$P[X \geq a] \leq \frac{E[X]}{a}$$

where  $X$  is a random variable, and  $a$  is a number.