

Probability and Statistics

Random Experiments and Sample Spaces -

↓
Experiments involving
Randomness
Coin toss, dice roll, etc.

→ Ω → Set of all possible outcomes
of a random experiment. It could be
finite or infinite.

$$\Omega_c = \{\text{Head, Tail}\}, \Omega_d = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$2\text{-coins} \rightarrow \Omega_{2c} = \Omega_c \times \Omega_c = \{H, T\} \times \{H, T\}$$

Outcomes and Events

↓
(omega) $\omega \in \Omega$ is called a sample point
or a possible outcome

A subset $A \subseteq \Omega$ is called an event.

Events in the coin toss experiment $C_1 = \{T\} \quad [\subset \Omega_c]$

Events in the die roll $D_1 = \{6\}, D_2 = \{1, 3, 5\} \quad [\subset \Omega_d]$

Events are any subset of Ω , even null sets, but $P(\emptyset) = 0$

Probability of an event $A = P(A)$.

It may or may not be possible to measure / assign P for every
subset A .

~~$P_c(T) = 0.5$~~

Probability measure P is a set function. It acts on sets and measures
the probability of such sets

Set Theory (01):-

A^c = complement of A

\emptyset = denotes empty set [belongs to every set]

$A \cup B$ = A union B

$A \cap B$ = A intersection B

~~A \ B~~

$A \setminus B$ = A minus B = $A \cap B^c$

Symmetric

$A \Delta B$ = $(A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A)$

M.E = Mutually Exclusive

~~H.W~~ → Identity (complement),

$|A|$ = no. of elements in A = cardinality of A.

Inclusion - Exclusion Principle = $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$

Countable Sets & Uncountable Sets

Monotone Seq → $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_3 \subseteq \dots$ [Increasing seq]
 $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq A_3 \supseteq \dots$ [Decreasing]

$$I_n = [0, 1 - \frac{1}{n}]$$

$$D_n = [0, \frac{1}{n}]$$

Cartesian product :- $A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$

Powerset $[\mathcal{P}(A)]$:- Set of all possible subsets of A.

$$\text{Ans} \quad |\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^{|A|} \quad [\text{Only for discrete elements}]$$

$$\mathcal{P}([0, 1]) = \{(a, b) : a \leq b, a, b \in [0, 1]\}$$

↳ range, not just 2 elements

Functions:-

Fns are maps from elements in the domain D to the range R

$$f: D \rightarrow R$$

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow f(x) = x$$

Set fns are those fns ~~who~~ who act on sets; Dis a collect

of sets.

IP is a set for.

Axioms of probability:-

$$1) \text{ } P(\emptyset) = 0, P(\Omega) = 1$$

$$2) \text{ For a set } A \subseteq \Omega, P(A) \in [0, 1]$$

3) For a disjoint collection of events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_j where $A_i \subseteq \Omega$, then:

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^j P(A_i) \quad [j \text{ can be } \infty] \rightarrow \Omega \text{ must be countable}$$

$$\text{where } A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, i \neq j$$

In general, the domain of IP is $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$.

~~P. probability of impossible event = 0.~~

But

Counter example for $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ being satisfactory

1) Pick a number randomly (uniformly) of t from the real line.

2) $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$, hence $P(\mathbb{R}) = 1$,

3) Domain = $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$

4) $P: \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow [0, 1]$

5) IP has the property that sets of equal length have equal probability

6) We know that $\mathbb{R} = \bigcup_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} [n, n+1]$ where $[n, n+1] \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$

[Countable union since n is an integer]

7) $P(\mathbb{R}) = 1 = \sum P([n, n+1]) = 0 / \infty$ depending

8) This is a contradiction! [Happens when picking segments of unit length]

Powerset is thus a bad choice

Not all set for can be calibrated to measure all possible subset of the sample space.

Our choice of domain must have certain features.

Let domain = Ω

then $\emptyset, \Omega \in \mathcal{F}$; if $B \in \mathcal{F} \rightarrow B^c \in \mathcal{F}$ etc; ~~etc~~

\mathcal{F}

Bags that meet these criteria are called sigma-algebrae

Sigma algebra / Event space $[\mathcal{F}]$ associated with a set Ω is a collection of subsets of Ω that satisfy

$\rightarrow \emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$

$\rightarrow A \in \mathcal{F} \rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$

$\rightarrow A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in \mathcal{F}$

\rightarrow The σ -algebra is closed under formation of complements and countable unions and countable intersections (by De Morgan's)

\rightarrow When Ω is countable and finite, then $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ is a σ -algebra

If Ω is countably & finite, we will consider $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ as the domain.

Probability Space = $\{\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P\}$

Probability measure:- A probability measure P on the measurable space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is a set function $P: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ s.t.

1) $P(\emptyset) = 0, P(\Omega) = 1$

2) For disjoint collection of events A_1, A_2, \dots from \mathcal{F} , we have

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$$

P Space for $U[0, 1]$

$$\Omega = [0, 1]$$

If we generate a σ -algebra, but we get a borel-sigma algebra $\mathcal{B}[0, 1]$

Borel σ -algebra $[\mathcal{B}[0,1]]$

Defined when $\Omega = [0,1]$, as the σ -algebra generated by closed sets of the form $[a,b]$ where $a \leq b$ & $a,b \in [0,1]$

$$(a,b] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[a + \frac{1}{n}, b - \frac{1}{n} \right] \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{c} a+\frac{1}{n} \\ b-\frac{1}{n} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$(a,b] = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (a, b + \frac{1}{n})$$

$[\mathcal{B}[0,1]]$

Borel σ -algebra \uparrow : is the σ -algebra generated by sets of the form $[a,b]$ or (a,b) or $(a,b]$ or even $[a,b)$ where $a \leq b$ & $a,b \in [0,1]$

If $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$, the $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ is the σ -algebra generated by open sets of the form (a,b) where $a < b$ and $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$.

How to define $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^2)$

(Consequences of the Probability Axioms:-

i) $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$

$$P(A \cup A^c) = P(A) + P(A^c) = 1$$

ii) $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

~~P(AUB)~~ \Rightarrow Prove it

iii) If $A \subseteq B$, prove that $P(A) \leq P(B)$ [$A \subseteq B$ can be interpreted as $A \rightarrow B$]

If $A \subseteq B \rightarrow B = A + \lambda$.

iv) $P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(B_i)$ [Boole's ineq.]

Diff b/w Impossible event vs Zero probability event

\emptyset

finite sized set

$$\text{In } U[0,1], P(\omega = 0.5) = 0$$

Every experiment outcome ω of this experiment is a zero probability event.
This implies that zero outcome events could occur.

\emptyset on the other hand, can never occur, and are hence impossible events.

$$P(\omega \in [0, 0.25] \cap [0.75, 1]) = 0$$

Limits and Continuity:-

Limits:-

Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be a sequence with limit L.

Then $\forall \epsilon, \exists N_\epsilon$ s.t. $\forall n > N_\epsilon, |a_n - L| \leq \epsilon$

For a fn. $f(x)$; $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$

The limit exists only if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x)$.

All points x close to c are ϵ close to $f(c)$.

Continuity:-

$LHL = RHL = f(x)$. If the fn. is cont at all pts. it is said to be continuous. As $x \rightarrow c$, $f(x) \rightarrow f(c)$

But what about IP?

For a continuous set fn. S as $A_n \rightarrow A$, we have $S(A_n) \rightarrow S(A)$

Sequence of sets :-

Given (Ω, \mathcal{F}) , if $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots$ is an increasing sequence of events defined on \mathcal{F} and $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = A \in \mathcal{F}$, then we say that the given seq of sets A_n are increasing to A ($A_n \uparrow A$)

Similarly when $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \dots$ is a decreasing seq of events and $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = A$, then we have $A_n \downarrow A$

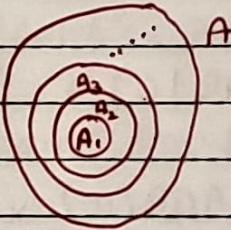
Alt notation:- increasing seq of sets $A_n \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$ for $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$

decreasing seq of sets $A_n \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$

Lemma:- For a sequence of events of the type $A_n \uparrow A$ or $A_n \downarrow A$, we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) = P(A)$

Proof:-

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$$



i) Consider an increasing seq.

define $F_n = A_n - A_{n-1}$

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(F_i)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} F_i\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n)$$

Hence Proved.

ii) Decreasing seq. [H.W.]

Conditional Probability :-

Ex:- Given the die outcome is odd, what is $P(1)$? [$\frac{1}{3}$]
Given $\bar{\omega} \in [0, 0.5]$, what is $P(\bar{\omega} \in [0, 0.25])$

Defn:- The conditional probability of event A is defined as
 $P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$ when $P(A) > 0$

Theorem:- $P(A|B) \cdot P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$

$$\text{or } \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \times P(B) = \frac{P(B \cap A)}{P(A)} \times P(A)$$

Bayes Rule :- $P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B) \times P(B)}{P(A)}$

i) What is $P(A|B \cap C)$

ii) $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B) \times P(B)$

iii) $P(A \cap B|C) = P(A|B \cap C) \times P(B|C)$

$$\frac{P(A \cap B \cap C)}{P(C)} \times \frac{P(C)}{P(B \cap C)} \times \frac{P(B \cap C)}{P(C)}$$

$$P(A|B \cap C) \times P(B|C)$$

iv) $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A) \times P(B|A) \times P(C|A \cap B)$

$$\frac{P(A \cap B \cap C)}{P(A \cap B)} \times \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} \times \frac{P(A)}{P(A)}$$

v) $P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) \times \dots \times P(A_n | A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1})$

Q) Draw 4 cards without replacement. What is the $P(\text{9c, 8d, Ks, Kc})$

$$P(9c) \times P(8d | 9c) \times P(Ks | 9c \cap 8d) \times P(Kc | 9c \cap 8d \cap Ks)$$

$$= \frac{1}{52} \times \frac{1}{51} \times \frac{1}{50} \times \frac{1}{49} = \frac{48!}{52!}$$

When every outcome is equally likely in a finite sample space Ω
 $\Rightarrow P(B|A) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A|}$

Law of Total Probability:-

$$A = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap B^c), \therefore P(A) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^c)$$

$$\text{Same as } P(A) = P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|B^c)P(B^c)$$

Let B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n be the partition of the sample space Ω
 Then for any event A we have

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A \cap B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A|B_i)P(B_i)$$

Q) 3 bags with M marbles total. Bag i has R_i red and B_i blue
 for $i \in [1, 3]$. Find $P(\text{marble} = \text{red from rand bag})$

$$\frac{1}{3} \times \sum_{i=R_i+B_i}^3 R_i = \frac{1}{3} \times \sum_{i=1}^3 P(\text{Red} | B_i) \times P(B_i)$$

Independence:-

An event A is independent (w.r.t on event B) if
 $P(A|B) = P(A)$

Ex:- Simultaneously Tossing a coin and rolling a die

$$\Omega_1 = \{\text{H, T}\} \quad \Omega_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$$

$$F = \text{Powerset } (\Omega)$$

$$P(\{\text{H, 6}\}) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$P(\{\text{T, odd}\}) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B) \Leftrightarrow \text{Independence}$$

If A and B are independent

$$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A) ; P(B^c) = 1 - P(B)$$

$$P(A^c) \times P(B^c) = 1 - P(A) - P(B) + P(A \cap B) = 1 - P(A \cup B) = (P(A \cup B))^c = P(A^c \cap B^c)$$

A^c & B^c are independent

$$\text{Prove } P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - P(A_i))$$

Mutual and Pairwise independence

A collection of events $\{A_i, i \in I\}$ are said to be **mutually independent** if the $P(\bigcap_{j \in J} A_j) = \prod_{j \in J} P(A_j)$ for any subset $J \subseteq I$

A collection of events $\{A_i, i \in I\}$ are said to be **pairwise independent** if any pair of events from the collection are independent \Downarrow all pairs.

Ex:- Pick a random number from $\{1, \dots, 10\}$

$$P(A) = \{w \mid w < 7; w \in \{1, \dots, 10\}\} = \frac{3}{5}$$

$$P(B) = \{w \mid w < 8; w \in \{1, \dots, 10\}\} = \frac{7}{10}$$

$$P(C) = \{w \mid w \% 2 = 0; w \in \{1, \dots, 10\}\} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \rightarrow \text{not independent}$$

$$P(A \cap C) = P(A) \times P(C) \rightarrow \text{independent}$$

$$P(B \cap C) = \frac{3}{10} \neq P(B) \times P(C) \rightarrow \text{not independent}$$

Correlation b/w events :-

Two events A & B are +vely correlated iff $P(A|B) > P(A)$

Two events A & B are -vely corrrelated iff $P(A|B) < P(A)$

A & B have same correlation as A^c & B^c (Prove)

A & B have opp correlation as A^c & B^c (Prove)

Mutual Exclusivity :-

Two events are mutually exclusive if $P(A \cap B) = 0$

The occurrence of one implies the other cannot occur.

Two events with non zero probabilities cannot be both mutually exclusive and independent.
 $P(A \cap B) = 0 = P(A)P(B) \rightarrow \text{contradiction.}$

If A & B are ME

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

When $A \subset B$, A & B are not ME nor I

Zero Probability Events are always independent

Let $P(E) = 0$

Then for any set F, we want to show that $P(E \cap F) = 0$

But $E \cap F$ has two choices

- (a) $E \cap F = \emptyset$
- (b) $E \cap F \subset E$

In either case $P(E \cap F) = 0$ or $P(E \cap F) \leq P(E) = 0$
 $P(E \cap F) = 0 \quad \leftarrow$

Conditional Independence:-

Two events A & B are conditionally independent of C with
 $P(C) > 0$ if $P((A \cap B)|C) = P(A|C) \cdot P(B|C)$

It thus follows that $P(A|B \cap C) = P(A|C)$

Ex:- Given a fair coin and a fake coin (2 heads). Pick a random coin and toss twice.

A:- First toss $\rightarrow H = 3/4$

B:- Second toss $\rightarrow H = \text{still } 3/4$

~~Event C~~ :- First coin is chosen = $\frac{1}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap B) &= P(A \cap B | C) + P(A \cap B | C^c) \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}}_{\text{Fair coin}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{\text{Unfair coin}} \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \neq \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} \rightarrow \text{Not independent} \\ &\quad (C \text{ coin is chosen and it is tossed twice; not one coin being chosen and tossing twice.}) \end{aligned}$$

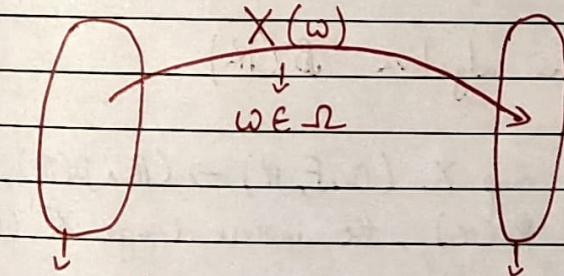
A & B are conditionally independent on C, not C^c

Random Variables

Given a random experiment with associated (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , it is sometimes difficult to deal directly with $\omega \in \Omega$. ω is not a number, it is a sequence (vector) of nos.

Random variables are devices that help us make a mapping from (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) to $(\Omega', \mathcal{F}', P_X)$, as this would help analyze functions of sample pts rather than any sample pt.

Assume you want to count no. of 6s in 10 rolls



Ω = set of all ω vectors

$\Omega' = \{1, \dots, 10\} : \mathcal{F}'$; the Powerset (Ω')

$P \oplus P_X$

A random variable X is a fn $X: \Omega \rightarrow \Omega'$ that transforms the probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) to $(\Omega', \mathcal{F}', P_X)$ and is $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}')$ -measurable.

The map $X: \Omega \rightarrow \Omega'$ implies $X(\omega) \in \Omega' \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega$

For the event $B \in \mathcal{F}'$, the preimage $X^{-1}(B)$ is defined as $X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in B\}$

for every $B \in \mathcal{F}'$, we have $X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$

X^{-1} is a one to many mapping from $\mathcal{F}' \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$

$P_X(B) =$ Probability that X results in $\{B\}$ while being acted upon by $\omega \in \Omega$

= Probability of $P(\omega)$ where $\omega \in \Omega ; X(\omega) \in B$

\mathcal{F} could have elements that have no ~~B~~ images in \mathcal{F}' . But $\forall f \in \mathcal{F}'$, f has a pre image in \mathcal{F}

P_X is called induced probability measure

Conventions:-

i) $\Omega' = \mathbb{R}$

ii) $\mathcal{F}' = \text{Borel sigma algebra } \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$

A rand var X is a map $X: (\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), P_X)$ such that for each $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, the inverse image $X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in B\}$ satisfies

$$X^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$P_X(B) = P(\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in B) = P(X^{-1}(B))$$

If Ω' is countable, then the random variable is called a discrete random variable. Only here is \mathcal{F}' used as the Powerset.

Capital letters X, Y, Z etc. for rand var., and x, y, z etc. are the realizations of said rand var.

Discrete Random Variables :-

Ex:- Roll two dice and calculate the sum

$$\begin{aligned}\Omega &= \text{set of all tuples } (x, y) \text{ where } x, y \in [1, 6] \\ \Omega' &= \text{integers } [2, 12]\end{aligned}$$

\mathcal{F} & \mathcal{F}' are Powersets

$$\{x = 3\} \in \mathcal{F}' \rightarrow P_x(3) = P(\{1, 2\}, \{2, 1\})$$

In general for $x \in \Omega'$ $P_x(x) = P(\{(a, b) | a, b \in \Omega, a+b=x\})$

$$P_x(x) = P_x(\{x\})$$

\hookrightarrow fn [not a probability measure] \rightarrow makes x a set and passes
as arg to P_x .
 \hookrightarrow Probability mass fn.

$$P_x(x) = \begin{cases} x-1/36 & \forall x \in \text{int}[2, 7] \\ (13-x)/36 & \forall x \in \text{int}[8, 12] \end{cases}$$

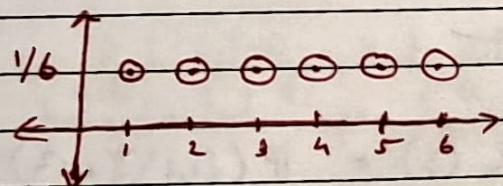
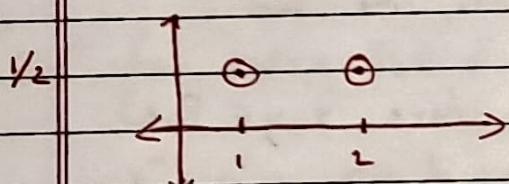
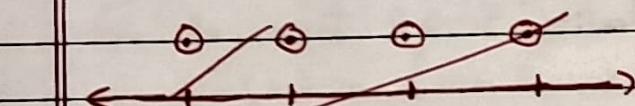
Multiple X_i 's can have the same Probability Mass fn.

For example, for the exp of rolling a die four times, then divide and conquer using $P_x(x)$ mentioned above

Only if X_i 's are independent

The fn $p(x) := P_x(\{x\})$ for $x \in \Omega'$ is called as a probability Mass Function (PMF) of a random variable X .

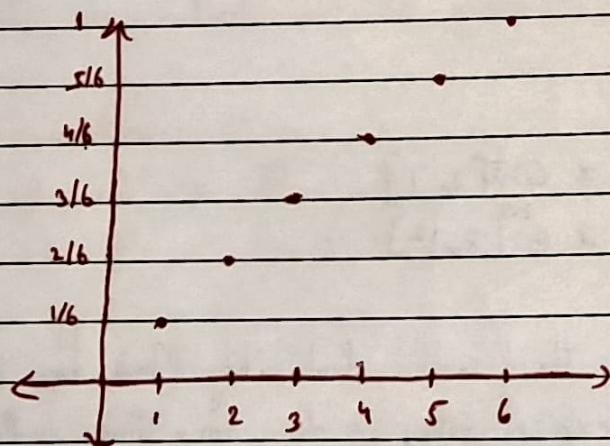
Q) Plot PMFs for X corresponding to coin tosses or dice rolls.



The Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) is defined as

$$F_X(x_i) = \sum_{x \leq x_i} p_x(x) = P\{\{ \omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \leq x_i \}\}$$

F_X (Rolling die)



Ω'

The X-axis is only X not Ω . Hence the mapping X is identical to Ω .

Expectation and Moments:-

The mean or expectation of a random variable X is denoted by $E(X)$ and is given by $E(X) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} x p_x(x)$

The expected value need not be part of Ω

Depends on how X is defined.

First moment of a rand var.

The n^{th} moment of a random variable X is denoted by $E(X^n)$ and is given by $E(X^n) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} x^n p_x(x)$

For a fn $g(\cdot)$ of a rand var X , $E(g(X)) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} g(x) p_x(x)$

fns of random variables are random variables with their own probability mass fns.

Consistency of PMF:-

PMF: $p_x(x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\})$ for $x \in \Omega'$

To prove $\sum_{x \in \Omega'} p_x(x) = 1$

$$\sum_{x \in \Omega'} p_x(x) = \sum_{x \in \Omega'} P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\})$$

$$= P\left(\bigcup_{x \in \Omega'} \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\}\right)$$

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

Expectance is Linear :-

$$\text{Let } Y = aX + b$$

$$\text{Then } E(Y) = E(aX + b)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \Omega} (ax + b) p_x(x)$$

$$= a \left(\sum_{x \in \Omega} x p_x(x) \right) + b$$

$$= a E(X) + b$$

The fn is OTO, then you could still apply this]
 $y_i = ax_i + b$ ↴

$$P(y_i) = P(x_i) \rightarrow \text{PMF}(y_i) = \text{PMF}(x_i)$$

$$E[Y] = \sum_{y \in \Omega} y p_y(y) \sum_{y \in \Omega} y_i p_y(y)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \Omega} (ax_i + b) p_y(ax_i + b)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \Omega} (ax_i + b) p_y(x) = \sum_{x \in \Omega} (ax_i + b) p_x(x)$$

$$= a E[X] + b$$

What $y = g(x)$ is MTO?

$$\text{Ex:- } Y = |X|$$

Function of Random Variables :-

Consider $Y = |X|$, $X = (\text{int})[-4, 4]$

$$p_x = \frac{1}{9} \quad \forall x \in X = \{(\text{int})[-4, 4]\}$$

$$p_y(2) = \sum_{x: |x|=2} p_x(x) = p_x(-2) + p_x(2) = \frac{2}{9}$$

Prove:- If $y = g(x)$ and PMF of x = $p_x(x)$, then

$$p_y(y) = \sum_{\{x: g(x)=y\}} p_x(x)$$

Theorem:- Suppose $y = g(x)$ and x is discrete with PMF $p_x(x)$. Then $E[y] = \sum_x g(x) p_x(x)$

$$\text{Proof:- } E[y] = \sum_y y p_y(y)$$

$$= \sum_y \sum_{x: g(x)=y} g(x) p_x(x)$$

↓ This is nothing but the summation over all x in domain

$$= \sum_x g(x) p_x(x)$$

Variance:-

$$\text{Consider } g(x) = (x - E[x])^2$$

$g(x)$ quantifies the deviation of x from the mean.

This is called the variance.

$\sqrt{E[g(x)]}$ quantifies the deviation

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

↓

$$E[x^2] + E[x^2 - 2x E[x] + E[x]^2] = E[x^2] + E[-2x E[x]] + E[E[x]]^2$$

$$= E[x^2] - 2 E[x]^2 + E[x]^2 = E[x^2] - E[x]^2$$

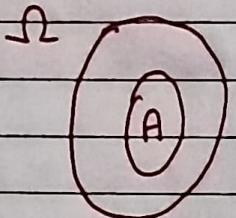
$\sigma_x = \sqrt{\text{Var}(x)}$ is called the Standard Deviation of x

When $y = ax + b$, $\text{Var}(y) = a^2[\text{Var}(x)]$

a cause variance squares
substitute and verify.

Example of DRV

i) Indicator Random Variables

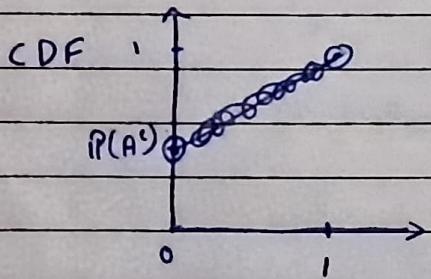


We want to know if A has occurred.

$$I_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \omega \in A \subseteq \Omega \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$P_{I_A}(1) = P(A)$$

$$P_{I_A}(0) = P(A^c)$$



$$\text{Mean} = P(A)(?)$$



Bernoulli Random Variable

$$X = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{with } P = p \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Used Benoulli Bandits

$$\text{Mean} = p, \quad E[X] = p$$

(iii) Binomial Random Variables $B(n, p)$

Treat as n Bernoulli Random Variable

Consider a biased coin ($P(\text{head}) = p$) and toss it n times.

Denote head = 1, tail = 0

Let N denote no of heads in n tosses

$$P_N(k) = {}^n C_k \cdot p^k \cdot (1-p)^{n-k}$$

no of ways to choose k coins \downarrow remaining $n-k$ tails

$$\text{Mean} = \sum_k k p_k \quad E[N], E[N^2], \text{Var}(X)$$

(iv) Geometric Random Variable

Consider a biased coin ($P(H) = p$) and keep tossing till you achieve the first head.

Random Variable $N = \text{no. of tosses reqd for 1st head}$

$$P_N(k) = (1-p)^{k-1} \times p$$

$$\bar{F}_N(k) = 1 - F_N(k) = P(N > k)$$

$$P(N > k) = k \text{ tails} = (1-p)^k$$

If head doesn't occur in k tosses, the probability that we need m more tosses of one is independent of k . This is the memoryless property of Geometric Random Variables.

Continuous Random Variables

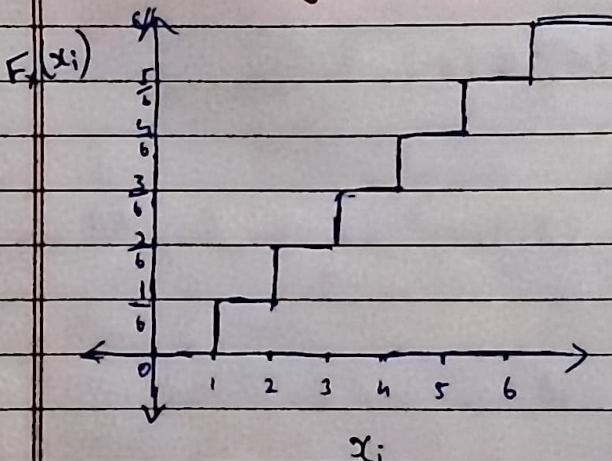
Consider a random variable X that maps $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ to $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}), P_X)$ where $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ = Borel σ -algebra of \mathbb{R}

We then define the CDF by

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

$$\text{Take the set } (-\infty, x_1]. P_X((-\infty, x_1]) = F_X(x_1)$$

This holds for discrete random variables as well, but the probability of range is the $\sum P(x) + x \in \text{range}$.



CDF for die roll assuming the above Random Variable

If the CDF graph has discontinuous, the random variable is discrete and vice versa.

CDFs must be monotonically increasing (or staying const) and it must hit 1 at some point.

Mixed Random Variables have cont. & disc. parts in the CDF graph

All CDFs ~~are~~ for continuous r.v.s (we consider) are differentiable.

Derivative of the CDF = Density fn (How much is conc. over a bin)

Ex of CRV \rightarrow Pick a no. from $[a, b]$

\hookrightarrow Level of water in a dam

\hookrightarrow Server work load

Probability Density fn:- (unit \rightarrow probability per unit len.)

$$\text{PDF} \Rightarrow f_x(x) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{P_x(x < x \leq x + \Delta)}{\Delta} \rightarrow \text{PP}(A \cap B^c)$$

Any value works,
we just normalize $= \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{F_x(x + \Delta) - F_x(x)}{\Delta}$

$$= \frac{d F_x(x)}{dx} \quad (\text{if derivative exists})$$

Equivalently $F_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_x(u) du$

Properties :-

$$\text{i) } P_x(R) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_x(u) du = 1$$

$$\text{ii) } P_x([a, b]) = F_x(b) - F_x(a) = \int_a^b f_x(u) du$$

$$\text{iii) In general, for any } B \subseteq \mathbb{R}, P_x(B) = \int_{u \in B} f_x(u) du$$

$$\text{iv) } P_x(\{a\}) = 0 \quad (\text{no mass at any point})$$

↳ Contradiction proof

$$\text{↳ or } \int_a^a f_x(u) du = 0 \quad \text{by defn}$$

$$\text{v) } P_x([a, b]) = P_x([c, d]) = P_x([e, f]) = P_x([g, h])$$

Mean, Variance & Moments :-

$$E[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u f_x(u) du$$

$$E[x^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^2 f_x(u) du$$

$$E[g(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(u) f_x(u) du$$

$$\text{Var}[x] = E[g(x)] \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = (x - E[x])^2$$

For $y = ax + b$

$$\text{i) } E[y] = a E[x] + b$$

$$\text{ii) } F_y(y) = F_x\left(\frac{y-b}{a}\right) \quad (\text{only } a > 0)$$

$a < 0 \rightarrow 1 - F_x\left(\frac{y-b}{a}\right)$

Example:-

i) Picking uniformly from $[a, b]$

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$$

$$\text{CDF} = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{b-a} du = \left[\frac{u}{b-a} \right]_{-\infty}^x = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$$

$$\text{CDF} \Rightarrow F_x(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & ; x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & ; x \in [a, b] \\ 1 & ; \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$E[x] = \frac{a+b}{2} \quad \text{Var} = \frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$$

ii) Exponential Random Variable ~~(Exp)~~ ($\text{Exp}(\lambda)$)

$$f_x(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \quad \text{for } x \geq 0$$

$$\text{CDF} = F_x(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x} \quad \forall x \geq 0$$

$$E[x] = \frac{1}{\lambda} \quad \text{Var} = \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \quad E[x^n] = \cancel{\frac{n!}{\lambda^n}}$$

Building block of Markov Chain.
Are Memoryless.

$$P(X > a+h | X > a) = \frac{e^{-\lambda(a+h)}}{e^{-\lambda a}} = e^{-\lambda h} = P(X > h)$$