

## What Is Probability?

Probability is just a way to measure **how likely something is to happen**. It's like saying:

- "There's a 50% chance of rain" → Not certain, but possible.
- "I always get heads when I flip this coin" → That would be surprising, since most coins are fair.

We use probability to make smart guesses in games, weather, science, and even in daily life.

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## Counting: The First Step in Probability

Before we talk about chances, we need to **count possibilities**.

### **Example: Ice Cream Choices**

Imagine you're at an ice cream shop:

- 3 flavors: chocolate, vanilla, strawberry
- 2 toppings: sprinkles, nuts

**How many different combos can you make?**

**Multiply:** 3 flavors × 2 toppings = **6 total combinations**.

This is called the **Multiplication Rule**: if you make several choices one after another, multiply the number of options at each step.

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## When All Outcomes Are Equally Likely (Naive Probability)

Sometimes, every outcome has the **same chance** — like flipping a fair coin or rolling a fair die.

$$\text{Probability} = (\text{Number of ways you want}) / (\text{Total number of possible outcomes})$$

### **Example: Rolling a Die**

What's the chance of rolling an even number?

- Even numbers: 2, 4, 6 → 3 outcomes
- Total outcomes: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 → 6 outcomes

**Probability =  $3 \div 6 = 1/2$  or 50%**

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## Thinking Conditionally: "Given That..."

Sometimes, new information changes the odds.

> "What's the chance it rains **given that** the sky is cloudy?"

This is **conditional probability**.

### **Example:**

- What's the chance you pass the test **if** you studied?
- What's the chance you're late **if** there's traffic?

New info → new probability.

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### Independent vs. Dependent Events

- **Independent:** One event doesn't affect the other.
  - > Flipping a coin twice: getting heads on the first flip doesn't change the second.
- **Dependent:** One event affects the next.
  - > Drawing cards from a deck without putting them back: once you draw the Ace of Spades, you can't draw it again.

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### Combining Events: AND, OR, NOT

Let's say:

- A = it rains
- B = you bring an umbrella
  
- **A and B happen** → both rain and umbrella
- **A or B happens** → either rain, or umbrella, or both
- Not A → it does **not** rain

There's a trick (called **De Morgan's Law**) that helps with "not":

- > Not (A or B) = Not A **and** Not B
- > Not (A and B) = Not A **or** Not B

Like saying: "I didn't eat cake or ice cream" means "I didn't eat cake **and** I didn't eat ice cream."

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### Bayes' Rule: Updating Beliefs with New Info

Imagine you think a coin is fair. But then you flip it 10 times and get heads every time.

Should you still think it's fair? Probably not!

Bayes' Rule helps you **update your beliefs** when you see new evidence.

- > Start with a guess (prior) → see data → update your guess (posterior)

Used in medical tests, spam filters, and detective work!

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### Random Variables: Turning Outcomes into Numbers

A **random variable** is just a number that depends on chance.

#### **Examples:**

- Number of heads in 3 coin flips → could be 0, 1, 2, or 3
- Time until your next text message → could be 1 minute, 10 minutes, etc.

We give these variables names like **X** or **Y**, and study:

- What values they can take
- How likely each value is

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## Two Types of Random Variables

1. **Discrete** – counts things (whole numbers)
  - Example: Number of goals in a soccer game
2. **Continuous** – measures things (any number, including decimals)
  - Example: Height of a person, time to finish a race

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## The Two Main Tools: PMF and CDF

These are like instruction manuals for random variables.

### > **PMF (Probability Mass Function) – for discrete variables**

Tells you the chance of each specific outcome.

Like: “Chance of 2 heads = 37.5%”

### > **CDF (Cumulative Distribution Function) – for any variable**

Tells you the chance the result is **less than or equal to** a number.

Like: “Chance of scoring 5 or fewer points = 60%”

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## Expected Value: The Long-Term Average

Think of this as the **average result** if you repeated something many times.

### **Example:**

- You play a game where you win \$10 half the time and \$0 the other half.
- Expected value =  $(\frac{1}{2} \times \$10) + (\frac{1}{2} \times \$0) = \$5 \text{ per game}$

**You won't win \$5 every time, but over 100 games, you'd expect to win about \$500.**

> It's not a guarantee — it's a long-term average. <

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## Indicator Variables: Yes-or-No Questions

These are super useful tools: a variable that is:

- **1** if something happens
- **0** if it doesn't

### **Example:**

- $I = 1$  if it rains today, 0 if it doesn't
- Then the **average of I** is just the **probability it rains**

This is called the **Fundamental Bridge**:

> **Average of indicator = Probability of the event**

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## Variance: How Spread Out the Results Are

Expected value tells you the center. **Variance** tells you how much things vary.

- Low variance → results are close to average
- High variance → results jump around

**Example:**

- Two jobs pay \$50/day on average.
- Job A: always pays \$50 → low variance
- Job B: pays \$0 or \$100 randomly → high variance

You make the same on average, but Job B is riskier.

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**Continuous Random Variables (Like Time or Weight)**

These can take **any value** in a range — not just whole numbers.

**Examples:**

- Time until your phone battery dies
- Amount of sugar in a soda

Instead of listing probabilities for each value (impossible!), we use:

- **PDF (Probability Density Function)** – shows how likely different values are
- **Area under the curve = probability**

You don't ask, "What's  $P(\text{time} = 2.000000)$ ?"

You ask, "What's  $P(\text{time between 2 and 3})$ ?" → that's an area.

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**The Universality of the Uniform (UoU)**

This is a cool trick:

- If you take **any continuous random process** (like height, weight, time), plug it into its own CDF, you get a **Uniform(0,1)** number.

**And vice versa:**

- If you take a random number between 0 and 1 and plug it into the inverse CDF, you get a value from your original distribution.

This is how computers **simulate random data** from any distribution.

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**Moment Generating Functions (MGFs): The "DNA" of a Distribution**

Think of this as a **fingerprint** for a probability distribution.

- It can tell you the mean, variance, and more.
- If two distributions have the same MGF, they are the **same type**.
- It also makes it easier to find the distribution of sums of random variables.

\$ Don't worry about the math — just know it's a powerful tool experts use.

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**Joint, Marginal, and Conditional Distributions**

When you have **two things happening at once**, like:

- Height and weight
- Rain and traffic

You can ask:

- **Joint:** What's the chance both happen?
- **Marginal:** What's the chance of just one, ignoring the other?
- **Conditional:** What's the chance of one **given** the other?

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### **Covariance and Correlation: Do Two Things Move Together?**

> **Covariance** = how two variables change together

- Positive: both go up or down together (e.g., height and weight)
- Negative: one goes up, the other down (e.g., exercise and body fat)
- Zero: no pattern

> **Correlation** = a "standardized" version of covariance

- Always between -1 and 1
- 1 = perfect positive relationship
- 0 = no linear relationship
- -1 = perfect negative relationship

**Independent** → correlation is 0, but zero correlation doesn't mean independent!

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### **Transformations: Changing Variables**

Sometimes you want to know the distribution of a **function** of a random variable.

#### **Example:**

- $X$  = time until a phone dies (Exponential)
- $Y = 2X$  = twice that time → still Exponential, but scaled

There's a method (using the **Jacobian**) to find the new distribution when you change variables — useful in advanced stats.

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### **Convolutions: Adding Random Variables**

If you want to know the distribution of  $X + Y$ , like:

- Total time of two phone batteries
- Combined score of two quiz parts

You use a **convolution** — a special kind of integral or sum.

***"For independent normal variables, the sum is also normal!"***

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### **Poisson Process: Counting Rare Events Over Time**

Used for things that happen randomly over time:

- Emails arriving
- Customers entering a store
- Earthquakes

### Key ideas:

- Events happen at a steady average rate (e.g., 2 emails per hour).
- Time between events is **Exponential**.
- Number of events in a time period is **Poisson**.

And the process has **no memory**: just because you waited a long time doesn't mean the next event is "due."

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### Order Statistics: Ranking Random Values

If you take 5 random people and line them up by height:

- The shortest is the **1st order statistic**
- The tallest is the **5th**

Used in competitions, quality control, and data analysis.

Fun fact: If you take random numbers between 0 and 1 and pick the 3rd smallest, it follows a **Beta distribution**.

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### Conditional Expectation: Average Given Some Info

Instead of asking, "What's the average test score?"

You ask, "What's the average score **given** the student studied?"

This is **conditional expectation**.

And there's a powerful rule:

> **Average of (Average given X) = Overall Average**

Called **Adam's Law** (Law of Total Expectation).

There's also **Eve's Law** (Law of Total Variance):

> **Total variability = average of within-group variability + variability between group averages**

Super useful in data science and machine learning.

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### Law of Large Numbers (LLN)

If you flip a fair coin many times:

- The **proportion of heads** will get closer and closer to 50%

The more trials, the closer the average gets to the true expected value.

It's why casinos always win in the long run.

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### Central Limit Theorem (CLT): Why Averages Are Normal

Even if individual things are **not** normally distributed, the **average** of many of them is approximately normal.

### Example:

- One person's income might be skewed
- But the average income of 100 people is roughly normal

This is why the **bell curve** shows up everywhere — in test scores, heights, errors, etc.

CLT is one of the most important ideas in statistics.

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### Markov Chains: Random Walks with Memory Rules

Imagine a robot moving between rooms. At each step, it picks the next room based only on **where it is now**, not where it's been.

That's a **Markov chain**.

### Used in:

- Google's PageRank algorithm
- Predicting weather
- Game AI

### Key ideas:

- **Transition matrix:** chance of going from one state to another
- **Stationary distribution:** long-term probability of being in each state
- **Reversible:** going forward or backward looks the same

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### Common Probability Distributions (The Usual Suspects)

DISTRIBUTION	WHEN TO USE	EXAMPLE
<b>Bernoulli</b>	One yes/no trial	Coin flip
<b>Binomial</b>	Number of successes in fixed trials	10 coin flips, how many heads?
<b>Geometric</b>	Number of failures before first success	How many lottery tickets until you win?
<b>Poisson</b>	Rare events over time/space	Emails per hour
<b>Normal</b>	Many natural phenomena	Heights, test scores
<b>Exponential</b>	Time between events	Time until next bus
<b>Uniform</b>	All outcomes equally likely	Random number between 1 and 10
<b>Gamma</b>	Total time for several events	Time to see 5 shooting stars
<b>Beta</b>	Probabilities themselves (Bayesian)	Estimating fairness of a coin

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### Common Mistakes (Biohazards!)

1. **Assuming everything is equally likely** – Not all combinations are equally probable!
2. **Confusing conditional and joint probability** – “Given that” is not the same as “and”
3. **Assuming independence** – Just because two things seem unrelated doesn't mean they are
4. **Pulling functions out of averages** –  $E(X^2) \neq (E(X))^2$
5. **Forgetting to check if answers make sense** – Probabilities can't be over 1 or negative!

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### **Problem-Solving Tips**

1. Define your variables and events clearly
2. Draw/Plot a picture/graph or make up numbers to understand the setup
3. **Try small cases** (e.g., 2 people instead of 100)
4. **Use symmetry** – sometimes all outcomes are equally likely
5. **Break big problems into smaller ones** (use indicator variables!)
6. **Use known distributions** – does this story match Binomial? Poisson?
7. **Check your answer** – does it make sense? What if  $n=1$ ?  $n=\infty$ ?

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### **Take Aways**

- **Start simple** – use examples and stories
- **Think in terms of real-world situations**
- **Practice with small numbers**
- Trust your intuition, but verify with logic
- **Revisit the cheat-sheet for reference**, and textbook for exam preparation

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### **Summary: The Big Ideas**

1. Probability = long-term frequency of random events
2. Counting is the foundation
3. Expectation = average outcome
4. Variance = spread
5. Independence matters
6. Bayes' Rule updates beliefs
7. LLN and CLT explain why averages behave nicely
8. Distributions model real-world randomness
9. Conditional thinking is powerful
10. Always check your work!