Lecture 2: Probability

STATS 101: Foundations of Statistics

Linh Tran

ThetaHat.AI@gmail.com

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Announcements

- 30 students submitted homework
- ▶ New course textbook: *DeGroot & Schervish*
- ▶ Next assignment will be posted tonight (due 12/4 @ 11:59pm)
- ▶ Re: prizes for top 3 students
 - Amazon gift cards
 - Extra points are awarded for:
 - 1. Class participation (e.g. asking/answering questions, etc)
 - 2. Catching & correcting errata/typos
 - 3. Answering questions / participating in discussions on Piazza
 - Blinded top 3 scores will be posted to course website
- ▶ No class next week (Happy Thanksgiving!)

Outline

All things linear algebra

- ► Sample space
- Probability function
- ► Probability space
- Random variables

Pre-requisites

Warning: I am assuming

- ► Fluency with algebra, calculus
- ► Familiarity with linear algebra
- ► Comfort with mathematical notation

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Warning: This lecture pace is fast.

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More notation:

- ▶ \emptyset is the *empty set*. Can be denoted as $\emptyset = \{\}$.
- ▶ $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$ is the union of sets B_i . Formally,
- ▶ $B \subseteq S$ means B is a *subset* of the sample space.
- Heads, without curly braces, is an element of set B.
- ▶ $B^C = S \setminus B$ is the complement of set B

Probability function

A *probability function* is a function $P: \mathcal{B} \to [0,1]$, where

- ▶ P(S) = 1
- ▶ $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(B_i)$ when B_1, B_2, \ldots are disjoint

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n.b. We can define the domain \mathcal{B} many ways, e.g. $\mathcal{B}=2^S$ **Example:** For flipping a coin, we have

$$\mathcal{B} = 2^{S} = \{\emptyset, \{Heads\}, \{Tails\}, \{Heads, Tails\}\}$$
 (2)

This implies that

$$P(B) = \begin{cases} 1 & B = \{ \text{Heads}, \text{Tails} \} \\ \frac{1}{2} & B = \{ \text{Heads} \} \\ \frac{1}{2} & B = \{ \text{Tails} \} \\ 0 & B = \emptyset \end{cases}$$
 (3)

n.b. The power set is a 'set of sets'

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- $\triangleright \emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$
- ▶ $B \in \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow B^{C} \in \mathcal{B}$
- $\blacktriangleright B_1, B_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i \in \mathcal{B}$

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Example:

- ► The discrete σ -algebra: $\mathcal{B} = 2^S = \{\emptyset, \{Heads\}, \{Tails\}, \{Heads, Tails\}\}$
- ▶ The *trivial* σ -algebra: $\mathcal{B} = \emptyset \cup S = \{\emptyset, \{Heads, Tails\}\}$
- n.b. For uncountable sets, we use the *Borel* σ -algebra.

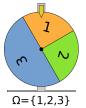
Probability space

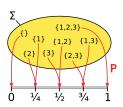
Def:

A probability space is a triple (S, \mathcal{B}, P) .

- ► *S* is the set of possible singleton events
- \triangleright \mathcal{B} is the set of questions to ask P
- P maps sets into probabilities

n.b. They represent the ingredients needed to talk about probabilities





Probability functions

Some properties of $P(\cdot)$

- ▶ $P(B) = 1 P(B^C)$
- ▶ $P(\emptyset) = 0$, since $P(\emptyset) = 1 P(S)$
- ▶ $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$, implying that
 - $P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$
 - ▶ $P(A \cap B) \ge P(A) + P(B) 1$

Conditional probability

For events A and B where P(B) > 0, the *conditional probability* of A given B (denoted P(A|B)) is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \tag{4}$$

Example: In an agricultural region with 1000 farms, we want to know if the farm has vineyards or cork trees.

		Cork Trees	
		Yes	No
Vineyard	Yes	200	50
	No	150	600

Table: Frequency counts

Conditional probability

Example: In an agricultural region with 1000 farms, we want to know if the farm has vineyards or cork trees.

		Cork Trees	
		Yes	No
Vineyard	Yes	20%	5%
	No	15%	60%

Table: Joint probabilities

Questions:

- ► What is the probability of seeing cork trees in a farm with vineyards?
- ► Among farms with cork trees or vineyards, what is the probability of having both?

Conditional probability

Let's assume the following joint probabilties

		Cork Trees	
		Yes	No
Vineyard	Yes	25%	25%
	No	25%	25%

We have that $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$, meaning that they are *independent*

Law of total probability

Let $B_1, B_2, \dots B_k \in \mathcal{B}$ and $P(B_i) > 0 : i = 1, \dots, k$. The *law of total probability* states that

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} P(B_i) P(A|B_i)$$
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The conditional law of total probability states that

$$P(A|C) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} P(B_i|C)P(A|B_i, C)$$
 (6)

Let $B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_k \in \mathcal{B}$, $P(B_i) > 0$: $i = 1, \ldots, k$, and P(A) > 0. Then Bayes' Theorem states that for $i = 1, \ldots, k$

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(B_i)P(A|B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} P(B_j)P(A|B_j)}$$
(7)

n.b. Can be proven using the def of conditional probability

Example: You test positive for disease X, which has 90% sensitivity and a FPR of 10%. Past genetic screening has indicated that you have a 1 in 10,000 chance of having the disease. What is the probability of having disease X?

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$$P(B_1|A) = \frac{P(A|B_1)P(B_1)}{P(A|B_1)P(B_1) + P(A|B_2)P(B_2)}$$
(8)
=
$$\frac{(0.9)(0.0001)}{(0.9)(0.0001) + (0.1)(0.9999)} = 0.0009$$
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Notes:

- \triangleright $P(B_1)$ is often referred to as the *prior* probability
- $ightharpoonup P(B_1|A)$ is often referred to as the *posterior* probability

Random variables

A random variable is a (Borel measureable) function

 $X:S \to \mathbb{R}$

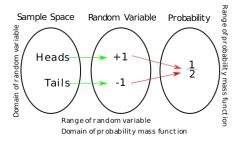
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Example: For coin tossing, we have $X : \{Heads, Tails\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where

$$X(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s = Heads \\ 0 & \text{if } s = Tails \end{cases}$$
 (10)



The *cumulative distribution function* (cdf) of a random variable X is the function $F_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$.

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 (11)

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0\\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } 0 \le x < 1\\ 1 & \text{if } x \ge 1 \end{cases}$$
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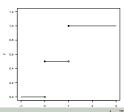
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- n.b. We have two ways of thinking about probabilities:
 - 1. Probability functions
 - 2. Cumulative distribution functions

Question: Which one should we use?

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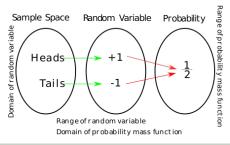
Question: Which one should we use?

The Correspondence Theorem: Let $P_X(\cdot)$ and $P_Y(\cdot)$ be probability functions and $F_X(\cdot)$ and $F_Y(\cdot)$ be their associated cdfs. Then

$$P_X(\cdot) = P_Y(\cdot) \iff F_X(\cdot) = F_Y(\cdot)$$
 (13)

Some properties for cdfs:

- $\lim_{x \to -\infty} F(x) = 0$
- $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = 1$
- $ightharpoonup F(\cdot)$ is non-decreasing
- $ightharpoonup F(\cdot)$ is right-continuous



Quantile function

Let X be a continuous rv and one-to-one over the possible values of X. Then

$$F^{-1}(p) = \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} : p \le F(x)\}$$
 (14)

Is the quantile function of X.

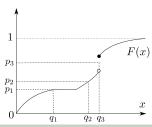
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Is the quantile function of X. Let X be a *discrete* rv and one-to-one over the possible values of X. Then $F^{-1}(p)$ states that we take the smallest value of x.

Example:



Nature of random variables

A random variable X is

- ▶ Discrete if $\exists f_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0,1] \ni F_X(x) = \sum_{t \le x} f_X(t), x \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $ightharpoonup f_X$ is referred to as the probability mass function (pmf)
- ▶ Continuous if $\exists f_X : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_+ \ni F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt, x \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $ightharpoonup f_X$ is referred to as the probability density function (pdf).
 - n.b. We can have multiple pdf's consistent with the same cdf.
 - ▶ n.b. For any specific value of a continuous random variable, its probability is 0, i.e. $P(\lbrace x \rbrace) = 0 \, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

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- n.b. pmf's and pdf's sum to 1, i.e.
 - ▶ $f: \mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$ is the pmf of a discrete RV iff $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f(x) = 1$
 - $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_+$ is the pdf of a continuous RV iff $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$

Nature of random variables

Example #1: Coin tossing

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0\\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } 0 \le x < 1\\ 1 & \text{if } x \ge 1 \end{cases}$$
 (15)

Here, F_X is a step function with pmf

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & x \in \{0, 1\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (16)

Nature of random variables

Example #2: Uniform distribution on (0,1)

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } 0 \le x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \ge 1 \end{cases}$$
 (17)

Here, F_X is a continuous function. Two consistent pdfs include

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0,1] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (18)
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 (19)

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Since the function is applied to a rv, Y is also a random variable with probability function

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Example:

Let X be a uniform random variable on $\{-n, -n+1, ..., n-1, n\}$. Then Y = |X| has mass function

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2n+1} & \text{if } x = 0\\ \frac{2}{2n+1} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \end{cases}$$
 (21)

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$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \le y) = P(g(X) \le y) = \int x : g(x) \le y f_X(x) dx$$
(22)

We can get the probability function by taking the derivative

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Example:

Let X be a uniform rv on [-1,1]. Then $Y = X^2$ has cdf

$$F_Y(y) = P_Y(Y \le y) = P_X(X^2 \le y) = P_X(-y^{1/2}X \le y^{1/2})$$

$$= \int_{-y^{1/2}}^{y^{1/2}} f(x)dx = y^{1/2}$$
(24)

and
$$f_Y(y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} F_Y(y) = \frac{1}{2y^{1/2}}$$

Affine transformations

Suppose
$$Y = g(X) = aX + b, a > 0, b \in \mathbb{R}$$
. Then

$$P(Y \le y) = P(aX + b \le y) = P\left(X \le \frac{y - b}{a}\right) = F_X\left(\frac{y - b}{a}\right) \tag{25}$$

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(25)

If a < 0, then

$$P(Y \le y) = P(aX + b \le y) = P\left(X \ge \frac{y - b}{a}\right) = 1 - F_X\left(\frac{y - b}{a}\right) \tag{26}$$

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In general, as long as the transformation Y = g(X) is monotonic, then

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g^{-1}(y) \right|$$
 (27)

References

- ► Grinstead & Snell Chapters 1,2,4
- ▶ DeGroot & Schervish Chapters 1,2,3