

## 12 Lecture 12: Feb 15

### Last time

- R practice with questions

### Today

- Probability review
- HW2 posted
- HW1 review on Wednesday

### Reference:

- Statistical Inference, 2nd Edition, by George Casella & Roger L. Berger
- [Review of Probability Theory](#) by Arian Maleki and Tom Do

### Probability theory review

A few basic elements to define a probability on a set:

- **Sample space**  $S$  is the set that contains all possible outcomes of a particular experiment.
- An **event** is any collection of possible outcomes of an experiment, that is, any subset of  $S$  (including  $S$  itself).
- Event operations
  1. Union: The union of  $A$  and  $B$ , written  $A \cup B$ , is the set of elements that belong to either  $A$  or  $B$  or both:

$$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

2. Intersection: The intersection of  $A$  and  $B$ , written  $A \cap B$ , is the set of elements that belong to both  $A$  and  $B$ :

$$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$

3. Complementation: The complement of  $A$ , written as  $A^c$ , is the set of all elements that are not in  $A$ :

$$A^c = \{x : x \notin A\}.$$

- **Sigma algebra (or Borel field)**: A collection of subsets of  $S$  is called a sigma algebra (or Borel field), denoted by  $\mathcal{B}$ , if it satisfies the following three properties:
  1.  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{B}$  (the empty set is an element of  $\mathcal{B}$ )

2. If  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ , then  $A^c \in \mathcal{B}$  ( $\mathcal{B}$  is closed under complementation).
  3. If  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{B}$ , then  $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{B}$  ( $\mathcal{B}$  is closed under countable unions).
- **Axioms of probability:** Given a sample space  $S$  and an associated sigma algebra  $\mathcal{B}$ , a *probability function* is a function  $\Pr()$  with domain  $\mathcal{B}$  that satisfies
    1.  $\Pr(A) \geq 0$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{B}$
    2.  $\Pr(S) = 1$ .
    3. If  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{B}$  are pairwise disjoint, then  $\Pr(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr(A_i)$ .

Properties:

If  $\Pr()$  is a *probability function* and  $A$  and  $B$  are any sets in  $\mathcal{B}$ , then

- $\Pr(\emptyset) = 0$ , where  $\emptyset$  is the empty set  
*Proof:*
- $\Pr(A) \leq 1$   
*Proof:*
- $\Pr(A^c) = 1 - \Pr(A)$   
*Proof:*
- $\Pr(B \cap A^c) = \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$   
*Proof:*
- $\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$   
*Proof:*
- $\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B \cap A^c) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$
- If  $A \subset B$ , then  $\Pr(A) \leq \Pr(B)$ .  
*Proof:*

### Conditional probability

*Definition:* If  $A$  and  $B$  are events in  $S$ , and  $\Pr(B) > 0$ , then the conditional probability of  $A$  given  $B$ , written  $\Pr(A|B)$ , is

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

Note that what happens in the conditional probability calculation is that  $B$  becomes the sample space:  $\Pr(B|B) = 1$ , in other words,  $\Pr(A|B)$  is the probability measure of the event  $A$  after observing the occurrence of event  $B$ .

*Definition:* Two events  $A$  and  $B$  are statistically independent if  $\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B)$ . When  $A$  and  $B$  are independent events, then  $\Pr(A|B) = \Pr(A)$  and the following pairs are also independent

- $A$  and  $B^c$   
proof:
- $A^c$  and  $B$
- $A^c$  and  $B^c$

## Random variables

*Definition:* A random variable is a function from a sample space  $S$  into the real numbers.

Experiment	Random variable
Toss two dice	$X = \text{sum of the numbers}$
Toss a coin 25 times	$X = \text{number of heads in 25 tosses}$
Apply different amounts of fertilizer to corn plants	$X = \text{yield/acre}$

Suppose we have a sample space

$$S = \{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$$

with a probability function  $\Pr$  and we define a random variable  $X$  with range  $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ . We can define a probability function  $\Pr_X$  on  $\mathcal{X}$  in the following way. We will observe  $X = x_i$  if and only if the outcome of the random experiment is an  $s_j \in S$  such that  $X(s_j) = x_i$ . Thus,

$$\Pr_X(X = x_i) = \Pr(\{s_j \in S : X(s_j) = x_i\}).$$

We will simply write  $\Pr(X = x_i)$  rather than  $\Pr_X(X = x_i)$ .

*A note on notation:* Random variables are often denoted with uppercase letters and the realized values of the variables (or its range) are denoted by corresponding lowercase letters.

## Distribution functions

*Definition:* The cumulative distribution function or cdf of a random variable (r.v.)  $X$ , denoted by  $F_X(x)$  is defined by

$$F_X(x) = \Pr(X \leq x), \text{ for all } x.$$

The function  $F(x)$  is a cdf if and only if the following three conditions hold:

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$ .
2.  $F(x)$  is a nondecreasing function of  $x$ .
3.  $F(x)$  is right-continuous; that is, for every number  $x_0$ ,  $\lim_{x \downarrow x_0} F(x) = F(x_0)$ .

*Definition:* A random variable  $X$  is continuous if  $F(x)$  is a continuous function of  $x$ . A random variable  $X$  is discrete if  $F(x)$  is a step function of  $x$ .

The following two statements are equivalent:

1. The random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are identically distributed.

2.  $F_X(x) = F_Y(x)$  for every  $x$ .

## Density and mass functions

*Definition:* The probability mass function (pmf) of a discrete random variable  $X$  is given by

$$f_X(x) = \Pr(X = x) \text{ for all } x.$$

*Example (Geometric probabilities)* For the geometric distribution, we have the pmf

$$f_X(x) = \Pr(X = x) = \begin{cases} p(1-p)^{x-1} & \text{for } x = 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

*Definition:* The probability density function or pdf,  $f_X(x)$ , of a continuous random variable  $X$  is the function that satisfies

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt \quad \text{for all } x.$$

*A note on notation:* The expression “ $X$  has a distribution given by  $F_X(x)$ ” is abbreviated symbolically by “ $X \sim F_X(x)$ ”, where we read the symbol “ $\sim$ ” as “is distributed as”.

*Example (Logistic distribution)* For the logistic distribution, we have

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

and, hence,

$$f_X(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F_X(x) = \frac{e^{-x}}{(1 + e^{-x})^2}.$$

A function  $f_X(x)$  is a pdf (or pmf) of a random variable  $X$  if and only if

1.  $f_X(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$
2.  $\sum_x f_X(x) = 1$  (pmf) or  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$  (pdf).

## Expectations

The expected value, or expectation, of a random variable is merely its average value, where we speak of “average” value as one that is weighted according to the probability distribution.

*Definition:* The expected value or mean of a random variable  $g(X)$ , denoted by  $\mathbf{E}(g(X))$ , is

$$\mathbf{E}(g(X)) = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous} \\ \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) f_X(x) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) \Pr(X = x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete,} \end{cases}$$

### Exponential mean

Suppose  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$  distribution, that is, it has pdf given by

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-x/\lambda}, \quad 0 \leq x < \infty, \quad \lambda > 0$$

Then  $\mathbf{E}(X)$  is:

### Binomial mean

If  $X$  has binomial distribution, i.e.  $X \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$ , its pmf is given by

$$\Pr(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, \quad x = 0, 1, \dots, n,$$

where  $n$  is a positive integer,  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ , and for every fixed pair  $n$  and  $p$  the pmf sums to 1. The expected value of a binomial random variable is then given by

$$\mathbf{E}(X) = \sum_{x=0}^n x \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

Now, use the identity  $x \binom{n}{x} = n \binom{n-1}{x-1}$  to derive the Expected value.

properties:

Let  $X$  be a random variable and let  $a, b$  and  $c$  be constants. Then for any functions  $g_1(x)$  and  $g_2(x)$  whose expectations exist,

1.  $\mathbf{E}(a \cdot g_1(X) + b \cdot g_2(X) + c) = a\mathbf{E}(g_1(X)) + b\mathbf{E}(g_2(X)) + c.$
2. If  $g_1(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ , then  $\mathbf{E}(g_1(X)) \geq 0.$
3. If  $g_1(x) \geq g_2(x)$  for all  $x$ , then  $\mathbf{E}(g_1(X)) \geq \mathbf{E}(g_2(X)).$
4. If  $a \leq g_1(x) \leq b$  for all  $x$ , then  $a \leq \mathbf{E}(g_1(X)) \leq b.$

### Moments

The various moments of a distribution are an important class of expectations.

*Definition:* For each integer  $n$ , the  $n^{\text{th}}$  moment of  $X$  (or  $F_X(x)$ ),  $\mu'_n$ , is

$$\mu'_n = \mathbf{E}(X^n).$$

The  $n^{\text{th}}$  central moment of  $X$ ,  $\mu_n$ , is

$$\mu_n = \mathbf{E}((X - \mu)^n),$$

where  $\mu = \mu'_1 = \mathbf{E}(X).$

## Variance

*Definition:* The variance of a random variable  $X$  is its second central moment,  $\mathbf{Var}(X) = \mathbf{E}((X - EX)^2)$ . The positive square root of  $\mathbf{Var}(X)$  is the standard deviation of  $X$ .

## Exponential variance

Let  $X$  have the exponential( $\lambda$ ) distribution,  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ . Then the variance of  $X$  is

properties

1.  $\mathbf{Var}(aX + b) = a^2 \mathbf{Var}(X)$ .

*proof:*

2.  $\mathbf{Var}(X) = \mathbf{E}(X^2) - (\mathbf{E}(X))^2$ .

*proof:*

## Moment generating function

*Definition:* Let  $X$  be a random variable with cdf  $F_X$ . The moment generating function or mgf of  $X$  (or  $F_X$ ), denoted by  $M_X(t)$ , is

$$M_X(t) = \mathbf{E}(e^{tX}),$$

provided that the expectation exists for  $t$  in some neighborhood of 0. That is, there exists an  $h > 0$  such that for all  $t$  in  $-h < t < h$ ,  $\mathbf{E}(e^{tX})$  exists. If the expectation does not exist in a neighborhood of 0, we say that the moment generating function does not exist.

*Property:* If  $X$  has mgf  $M_X(t)$ , then

$$\mathbf{E}(X^n) = M_X^{(n)}(0),$$

where we define

$$M_X^{(n)}(0) = \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0}.$$

## Some common random variables

### Discrete random variables

- $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  (where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):

$$\Pr(x) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 1 - p & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

- $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$  (where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):

$$\Pr(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

- $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$  (where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):

$$\Pr(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1}$$

- $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  (where  $\lambda > 0$ ):

$$\Pr(x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

### Continuous random variables

- $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$  (where  $a < b$ ):

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$  (where  $\lambda > 0$ ):

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ :

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

The following table provides a summary of some of the properties of these distributions.

Distribution	PDF or PMF	Mean	Variance
$\text{Bernoulli}(p)$	$\begin{cases} p & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 1-p & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$	$p$	$p(1-p)$
$\text{Binomial}(n, p)$	$\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$ , for $0 \leq k \leq n$	$np$	$np(1-p)$
$\text{Geometric}(p)$	$p(1-p)^{x-1}$ , for $k = 1, 2, \dots$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{1-p}{p^2}$
$\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$	$e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$ , for $k = 1, 2, \dots$	$\lambda$	$\lambda$
$\text{Uniform}(a, b)$	$\frac{1}{b-a} I(a \leq x \leq b)$	$\frac{a+b}{2}$	$\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$
$\text{Gaussian}(\mu, \sigma^2)$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$	$\mu$	$\sigma^2$
$\text{Exponential}(\lambda)$	$\lambda e^{-\lambda x} I(x \geq 0)$	$\frac{1}{\lambda}$	$\frac{1}{\lambda^2}$