

# Midterm 1 Study Guide

William Sun

## Probability

- $P(E)$ : Probability of an event, which is a *set* of sample points.
- $P$ : Subsets of sample space  $\rightarrow [0, 1]$ 
  - Axiom 1: For any event  $E$ ,  $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$
  - Axiom 2:  $P(\Omega) = 1$
  - Axiom 3: (Countable additivity) If  $E_1 \dots E_n$  disjoint,  $P(E_1 \cup \dots E_n) = P(E_1) + \dots P(E_n)$
- Consequences of the Axioms
  - Complementary Rule
    - \*  $E \cup E^C = \Omega \implies 1 = P(E \cup E^C) = P(E) + P(E^C)$
  - Simplest Probability Law
    - \* If all points in a sample space are equally likely to occur,  $P(w_i) \forall w_i \in \Omega = \frac{1}{|\Omega|}$
  - Monotonicity
    - \*  $E_1 \subseteq E_2 \implies P(E_1) \leq P(E_2)$
- Inclusion-Exclusion Theorem
  - $P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_2)$
  - Extends to a countable number of events
    - \*  $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) - P(A_1 \cap A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_3) - P(A_2 \cap A_3) + P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3)$
- DeMorgan's Law
  - $P((A_1 \cup A_2)^C) = P(A_1^C \cap A_2^C)$
  - $P((A_1 \cap A_2)^C) = P(A_1^C \cup A_2^C)$
  - Also extends to a countable number of events
- Set operations - All still apply if you flip the  $\cup$ s and  $\cap$ s
  - Commutative Laws

- \*  $E_1 \cup E_2 = E_2 \cup E_1$
- Associative Laws
- \*  $(E_1 \cup E_2) \cup E_3 = E_1 \cup (E_2 \cup E_3)$
- Distributive Laws
- \*  $(E_1 \cup E_2) \cap E_3 = (E_1 \cap E_3) \cup (E_2 \cap E_3)$

## Conditional Probability

•

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

- Law of Total Probability
  - If  $B_1 \dots B_n$  partition the sample space:
  - $P(A) = \sum P(A|B_i)P(B_i)$ 
    - \*  $P(A) = \sum P(A \cap B_i)$  as well, but the former is easier to calculate.
- Multiplicative Rules
  - $P(A_1 \cap A_2) = P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1)$
  - $P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1)P(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2)$
  - Extends to a countable number of events
- Bayes' Rule: When  $B_1 \dots B_m$  is a partition of  $\Omega$ , and  $P(A) > 0$ :

$$P(B_j|A) = \frac{P(A|B_j)P(B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^m P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}$$

## Independent Events

- $A, B \subseteq \Omega$  independent if  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ 
  - $P(A|B) = \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A)$
  - $(A, B)$  independent implies  $(A, B^C), (A^C, B), (A^C, B^C)$  independent

## Counting

- Taking  $n$  objects at a time,  $|\Omega| = n!$

- Matching
  - Let  $M_i$  be the event that there is a match at location  $i$
  - $P(M_i) = \frac{(n-1)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{n}$ 
    - \*  $P(M_{i_1} \cap M_{i_2}) = \frac{(n-2)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{n(n-1)}$  if  $i < j$
  - $\bigcup_{i=1}^n M_i$  is the event that there is at least one match.
    - \* Also the inverse of there being no matches.
    - \*  $P(\bigcap_{i=1}^n M_i^C) \approx \frac{1}{e}$
  - $P_n$  is the probability of no match at an index  $n$
  - How can we compute  $P(\text{exactly } r \text{ matches})$ ?
- The Binomial Theorem
  - Suppose  $n \geq 1$  is an integer and  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

- Partitions of Integers
  - Fix an  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and let  $r > 0$  be a fixed integer.
  - A list of  $r$  natural numbers  $(x_1 \dots x_r)$  is a partition of the integer  $n$  if  $x_1 + \dots x_r = n$
- Multinomial coefficient
  - If we have an  $n$ -element set and integers  $n_1 \dots n_r \geq 0$  that sum to  $n$ , the number of partitions of an  $n$ -element set into  $r$  disjoint subsets where the  $i$ th subset has  $n_i$  elements is

$$\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!}$$

- Counts the number of *ordered subsets* with the  $i$ th subset having  $n_i$  elements.
  - \* If the sets were in a different order, it would be a different partition.

## Random Variables

- $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  can be discrete or continuous
- If  $X$  is a discrete random variable, we will associate it with a *probability mass function (pmf)*  $P_X$ 
  - $P_X(x) > 0 \forall x \in \{\text{values of } X\}$
  - $\sum_x P_X(x) = 1$ , where the sum is over all the possible values of  $X$
  - Used to calculate some probabilities:  $P(X \in A) = \sum_{x \in A} P_X(x)$

# Important Discrete Random Variable Distributions

- Format:  $X \sim \text{distribution}$  if  $X$  has the pmf  $p(x)$

## 1) The Bernoulli( $p$ )

- $p(x) = \{p \text{ when } x = 1, 1 - p \text{ when } x = 0\}$
- Where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$
- For infinite populations with proportion  $p$  of successes and selecting one at random
- Interesting note:  $\mathbb{E}(X^n) = \mathbb{E}(X) = p$  for the Bernoulli
- Example: Experiment has  $P(A) = p$ . Then  $I_A(\omega) = \{1 \text{ if } \omega \in A, 0 \text{ if } \omega \notin A\}$  is a Bernoulli( $p$ ) random variable

## 2) The Binomial( $n, p$ )

- $p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$  for  $x = 0, 1, \dots, n$
- One explanation
  - $n > 0, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  represents either the number of trials or the sample size.
  - $p$  represents the probability of drawing a success
- Another: If an experiment consists of  $n$  *independent* Bernoulli trials and  $X$  counts the number of successes
  - If  $X_1 \dots X_n$  are independent Bernoulli( $p$ ) random variables,  $X := X_1 + \dots X_n$  has a binomial distribution.

## 3) The Geometric( $p$ )

- $P_X(x) = P(X = x) = (1 - p)^{x-1} p$  for  $x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- An experiment consists of an infinite sequence of Bernoulli( $p$ ) trials. Let  $X$  be the random variable that gives the trial of the first success.
  - Example: A geometric sequence for the 1st head to appear on trial  $x$  starts with  $x - 1$  tails.

## 4) The Poisson( $\lambda$ )

- $P_X(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}$  for  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 
  - $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$
- First arose as an approximation to the Binomial( $n, p$ ) when  $n$  is large and  $p$  is small
  - Suppose  $Y \sim \text{binomial}(n, p)$  where  $p = \frac{\lambda}{n}$  and  $n$  is large.  $\lambda = \text{rate} = \frac{\# \text{ of events}}{\text{time}}$
  - Then for  $y = 0, 1, \dots$  that are fixed
  - $P(Y = y) \rightarrow \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^y}{y!}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- In practice: Poisson( $\lambda$ ) random variable is a random variable that counts the number of rare events that happen in an interval of time

- Example: Probability that someone else in a room has my birthday.
- 5) Negative binomial( $r, p$ ) / Pascal( $r, p$ )
  - $P_X(x) = \binom{x-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{x-r}$ 
    - When  $r \geq 1$  is a fixed integer
  - Interpretation:  $X$  is the trial of the  $r$ th success.

6) Hypergeometric

- 

$$P_X(x) = \frac{\binom{K}{k} \binom{N-K}{n-k}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

- Describes the probability of  $k$  successes in  $n$  draws without replacement, out of  $K$  total successes and  $N$  total draws.
  - In contrast, the binomial is just  $k = K$  successes out of  $n = N$  draws with replacement.
- Example: 5 green and 45 red marbles in an urn. Draw 10 without replacement; what is the probability that exactly 4 of the 10 are green?
  - $k = 4, K = 5, n = 6, N = 39$

## Functions of Random variables

- With pmf of  $X$  and  $Y = g(X)$ :

$$P_Y(y) = \sum_{x:g(x)=y} P_X(x)$$

## Expected Value and Variance of a Discrete Random Variable

- $\mathbb{E}$ : also the mean, weighted average, or center of mass

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_x x P_X(x)$$

- The variance of an random variable:  $Var(x) = (x - \mu)^2$ , where  $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X)$ 
  - So  $\mathbb{E}(\{X - \mu\}^2) := Var(X)$
- A form of the  $Var(X)$  more amenable to calculations:  $\mathbf{Var}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X}^2) - \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X})^2$

## Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

- $F(X) = P(X \leq x)$ 
  - 1)  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$
  - 2) If  $x < y$ ,  $F(x) \leq F(y)$
- Notation: Left-limit notation  $F(c-) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c-} F(x)$
- If we know the CDF,
  - $P(a < x \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$
  - $P(a \leq x \leq b) = F(b) - F(a-)$
  - $P(a \leq x < b) = F(b-) - F(a-)$
  - $P(a < x < b) = F(b-) - F(a)$
  - General rule: If near “<”,  $a \rightarrow -F(a)$ ,  $b \rightarrow F(b-)$ 
    - \* “a < b” ... so if “<” is near  $a$ , the “-” is on the left; “-” is on the right for  $b$

## Law of the Unconscious Statistician

- If  $X$  is discrete and  $G : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then
  - $\mathbb{E}(g(\mathbf{X})) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} g(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$  when the expectation exists
- Used when we know  $G(X)$  and the distribution of  $X$  but not the distribution of  $G(X)$
- Some consequences:
  - Linearity of Expectation #1
    - \*  $\mathbb{E}(aX + b) = a\mathbb{E}(X) + b$
  - Linearity of Expectation #2
    - \*  $\mathbb{E}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = \mathbb{E}(X_1) + \mathbb{E}(X_2) + \dots + \mathbb{E}(X_n)$
    - \* Expectation of a sum is the sum of the individual expected values
    - \* For any random variables for which  $\mathbb{E}(X_i)$  exists for all  $i$
    - \* *To be proved later*

## Miscellaneous

- Sum of a geometric sequence

$$\frac{\text{1st term in the series}}{1 - \text{geometric ratio}}$$