

# ECE180J Advanced Renewable Energy Sources

## Lecture 9: Probability Theory Revisited

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- H. Stark and J. Woods, "Probability, Random Processes, and Estimation Theory for Engineers".
- A. Papoulis, "Probability, Random Variables, and Stochastic Processes".

# Probability Space

Probability space is a three-tuple  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ :

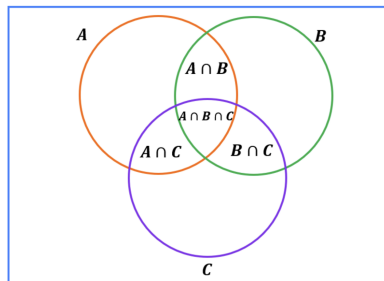
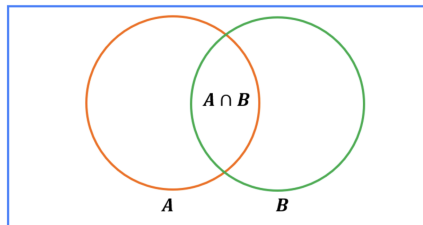
- **Sample space**  $\Omega$ : the set of all outcomes of a random experiment.
  - $\Omega$  may be finite ( $\{H, T\}$ ), countably infinite ( $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ), or uncountably infinite ( $[0, 1]$ ).
- **Event space**  $\mathcal{F}$ : a set whose elements  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  are subsets of  $\Omega$ .
- **Probability function**  $P$ : satisfies three axioms:
  - $P(A) \geq 0, \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$ .
  - $P(\Omega) = 1$ .
  - If  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are mutually exclusive events ( $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ , for  $i \neq j$ ), then  $P(\bigcup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$ .

## Properties of Probability

Consider events  $A, B, C \subseteq \Omega$ . Let  $P(AB)$  denote  $P(A \cap B)$ .

- $A \subseteq B \Rightarrow P(A) \leq P(B)$ .
- $P(AB) \leq \min\{P(A), P(B)\}$ .
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB)$ .
- $P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$ :  $\bar{A} = \Omega \setminus A$ .
- Complement rule (De Morgan's Law):  $\overline{AB} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$ ;  $\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A}\bar{B}$
- $P(AB) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$ .
- **Conditional probability:**  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$  (Bayes' theorem).
- If  $A$  and  $B$  are independent, then  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ .
- Distributive law:  $(A \cup B) \cap C = (AC) \cup (BC)$ .

# Venn Diagram



**Figure:** A Venn diagram is a diagram that shows the relationship between and among a finite collection of sets.

## Conditional vis-à-vis Unconditional Probability

Q:  $P(A|B) \stackrel{?}{\leq} P(A)$ ?

A: It can be any case in general.

Take a standard deck of cards (52 cards without Jokers). Remove all black queens and kings. When picking a card, define 3 events:

- $A$ : The card picked is a face card.
- $B_1$ : The card picked is a heart.
- $B_2$ : The card picked is a spade.

Question: Find the values of  $P(A)$ ,  $P(A|B_1)$ ,  $P(A|B_2)$ .

- $A$ : 48 cards left with 8 face cards:  $P(A) = \frac{1}{6}$ .
- $B_1$ : 13 cards of hearts left with 3 face cards:  $P(A|B_1) = \frac{3}{13}$ .
- $B_2$ : 11 card of spades left with only 1 face card (the Jack of Spades):  
 $P(A|B_2) = \frac{1}{11}$ .

We have  $P(A|B_2) < P(A) < P(A|B_1)$ .

# Random Variables

## Definition (Random Variable (RV))

Let  $\Omega$  be the sample space of an experiment, and  $\mathbb{R}$  denote the set of real numbers. Then, a *random variable*  $X : \Omega \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  associated with this experiment is a function that assigns each outcome in  $\Omega$  to a real number. The range of  $X$  is denoted as  $\text{val}(X)$ .

**Example.** Flip a coin 5 times. Let  $X$  denote the random variable for the number of times the coin came up heads. Then  $X(\omega_0) = 3$ , for the outcome  $\omega_0 = \{\text{HHTHT}\}$ . There are two different types of random variables that are often studied: *discrete* and *continuous*.

## Random Variables (Cont'd)

If  $X$  is a discrete random variable, we use the notation

$$\Pr(X = k) := \Pr(\{\omega : X(\omega) = k\})$$

for the probability of the event  $X = k$ .

If  $X$  is a continuous random variable, we use the notation

$$\Pr(a \leq X \leq b) := \Pr(\{\omega : a \leq X(\omega) \leq b\})$$

for the probability of the event  $a \leq X \leq b$ .

# Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)

## Definition

Let  $X$  be a random variable associated with an experiment. Then,

$$F_X(x) := \Pr(X \leq x)$$

is a *cumulative distribution function*.

Properties of CDFs:

- (a)  $0 \leq F_X(x) \leq 1$ .
- (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F_X(x) = 1$ .
- (c)  $F_X$  is nondecreasing, namely if  $x \leq y$  then  $F_X(x) \leq F_X(y)$ .
- (d)  $F_X$  is right-continuous, i.e.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} F_X(x) = F_X(a)$ .



# CDF for Discrete and Continuous RVs

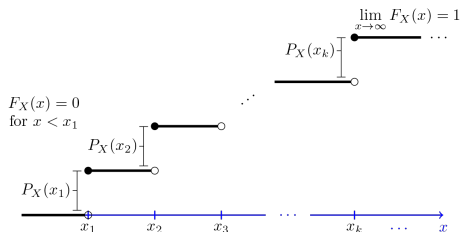


Figure: CDF of a discrete random variable.

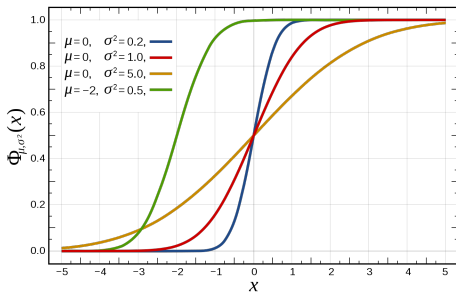


Figure: CDF of a continuous random variable.

## PMF and PDF

For discrete random variables, we have the *probability mass function* (PMF):

$$p_X(x) := \Pr(X = x),$$

where  $\sum_{x \in \text{val}(X)} p_X(x) = 1$ .

For continuous random variables, we instead consider *probability density function* (PDF),

$$f_X(x) := \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} = F'_X(x),$$

provided that  $F_X$  is differentiable at  $x$ .<sup>1</sup> Notice that  $f_X(x)$  and  $\Pr(X = x)$  are two different concepts, which can be related by

$$\Pr(x \leq X \leq x + \Delta x) \approx f_X(x)\Delta x$$

and

$$\Pr(X \in A) = \int_{x \in A} f_X(x) dx,$$

where  $A \subseteq \text{val}(X)$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Note that  $F_X$  may not be everywhere differentiable even for continuous random variable  $X$ .

# Common Distributions

Name of the probability distribution	Probability distribution function	Mean	Variance
Binomial distribution	$\Pr(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$	$np$	$np(1 - p)$
Geometric distribution	$\Pr(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} p$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{(1 - p)}{p^2}$
Normal distribution	$f(x   \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$	$\mu$	$\sigma^2$
Uniform distribution (continuous)	$f(x   a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } a \leq x \leq b, \\ 0 & \text{for } x < a \text{ or } x > b \end{cases}$	$\frac{a+b}{2}$	$\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$
Exponential distribution	$f(x   \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$	$\frac{1}{\lambda}$	$\frac{1}{\lambda^2}$

Figure: PDF or PMF of commonly used random variables (Wiki).

## Gaussian (Normal) Distribution

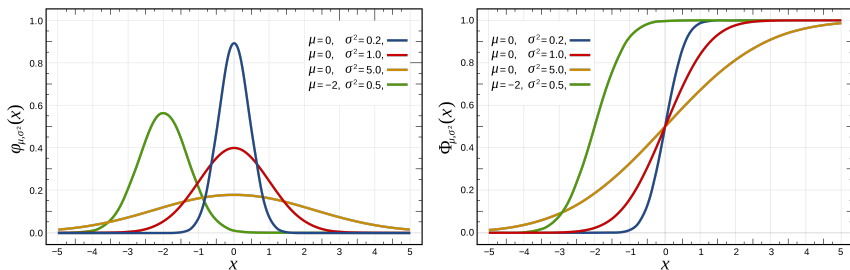


Figure: PDF and CDF of Gaussian distribution.

PDF of Gaussian distribution:

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

CDF of standard Gaussian distribution ( $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$ ):

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-t^2/2} dt$$

# Expectation

## Definition (Expectation)

Let  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function and  $X$  be a random variable, discrete or continuous, then the *expectation* of the random variable  $g(X)$  is

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] := \sum_{x \in \text{val}(X)} g(x)p_X(x) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbb{E}[g(X)] := \int_{x \in \text{val}(X)} g(x)f_X(x)dx,$$

respectively.

*Linearity* of the expectation operator:

- (a)  $\mathbb{E}[ag(X) + bh(X)] = a\mathbb{E}[g(X)] + b\mathbb{E}[h(X)]$  for any constants  $a, b$ , and arbitrary functions  $g(\cdot), h(\cdot)$ .
- (b)  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$ .

The *indicator function*:  $\mathbf{1}_A := \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } A \text{ is true} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \Rightarrow$

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}_A] = \Pr(A) \times 1 + \Pr(\bar{A}) \times 0 = \Pr(A), \quad F_X(x) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{1}_{\{X \leq x\}}].$$

# Variance

Given a distribution of a random variable, its variance to measure how concentrated that distribution is around the expectation (mean). Formally, we have

## Definition (Variance)

$\text{Var}[X] := E[(X - E[X])^2] = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2$ , where  $E[X^2]$  is the second moment of  $X$ .

The following can be derived immediately from the definition:

- (a)  $\text{Var}[cX] = c^2 \text{Var}[X]$ .
- (b)  $\text{Var}[c] = 0$  for any constant  $c$ .
- (c)  $\text{Var}[aX \pm bY] = a^2 \text{Var}[X] + b^2 \text{Var}[Y] \pm 2ab \times \text{Cov}[X, Y]$ .

## Examples

Let  $X \sim \exp(\lambda)$  whose density function is  $f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ . Find  $E[X]$  and  $\text{Var}[X]$ .

**Solution:** From the definition of expectation and integration by parts, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_0^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx \\ &= \lambda \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= -x e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= 0 + \frac{e^{-\lambda x}}{-\lambda} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{\lambda}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V(X) &= \int_0^{\infty} x^2 f_X(x) dx - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \\ &= \lambda \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-\lambda x} dx - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \\ &= -x^2 e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} + 2 \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-\lambda x} dx - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \\ &= -x^2 e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} - \frac{2x e^{-\lambda x}}{\lambda} \Big|_0^{\infty} - \frac{2}{\lambda^2} e^{-\lambda x} \Big|_0^{\infty} - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} = \frac{2}{\lambda^2} - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}. \end{aligned}$$

# Multivariate Random Variables

## Definition (Joint CDF)

Let  $X, Y$  be two random variables associated with an experiment. Then the *joint cumulative distribution function* of  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$F_{XY} := \Pr(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$$

and the *marginal cumulative distribution function* of  $X$  is

$$F_X(x) := \lim_{y \rightarrow +\infty} \Pr(X \leq x, Y \leq y).$$

Similarly, the *joint PMF*  $p_{XY}(x, y) := \Pr(X = x, Y = y)$

the *marginal PMF* of  $X$ ,  $p_X(x) := \sum_{y \in \text{val}(Y)} \Pr(X = x, Y = y)$ .

The *joint PDF* of continuous  $X$  and  $Y$  is  $f_{XY}(x, y) := \frac{\partial^2 F_{XY}(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y}$

the *marginal PDF* of  $X$ :  $f_X(x) := \int_{y \in \text{val}(Y)} f_{XY}(x, y) dy$ .



## Conditional Distribution

The above summation or integral operation is called *marginalization*. Note that

$$\iint_A f_{XY}(x, y) dx dy = \Pr((x, y) \in A).$$

### Definition (Conditional Distribution for Discrete RVs)

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be discrete random variables. The *conditional distribution* of  $Y$  given  $X = x$  is

$$p_{Y|X}(y | x) := \frac{p_{XY}(x, y)}{p_X(x)},$$

provided that  $p_X(x) \neq 0$ .

We say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are *independent* if  $p_{Y|X}(y | x) = p_Y(y)$ .

Note that  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \Leftrightarrow p_{XY}(x, y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y)$ .

**Q:** If  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ . For arbitrary functions  $g(\cdot)$  and  $h(\cdot)$ , are  $g(X) \perp\!\!\!\perp h(Y)$ ?

**A:** Yes.

## Covariance & Correlation

### Definition (Covariance and Correlation)

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two random variables. Their *covariance* is defined as

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] := E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y].$$

Their *correlation* is defined as

$$\text{Corr}[X, Y] := \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)}}.$$

1.  $\text{Corr}[X, Y] \in [-1, 1]$  is a measure of **linear association** between  $X$  and  $Y$ .
2.  $X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated if  $\text{Corr}[X, Y] = 0$ .
3.  $\text{Corr}[X, Y] = \pm 1 \Leftrightarrow Y = aX + b$  for some constants  $a$  and  $b$ .
4. If  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \implies$  they are uncorrelated.
5.  $X$  and  $Y$  can be uncorrelated yet dependent due to a nonlinear relationship.

**Example:**  $X \sim N(0, 1), Y = X^2 \implies \text{Corr}[X, Y] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = E[X^3] = 0$  (all odd-order moments of  $X$  are equal to zero). Hence,  $X$  and  $Y$  are uncorrelated. But they're clearly dependent since  $Y$  is a function of  $X$ .

## Example 1 of Covariance

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be discrete random variables, with joint probability function  $p_{X,Y}$  given by

$$p_{X,Y}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1/2 & x = 3, y = 4 \\ 1/3 & x = 3, y = 6 \\ 1/6 & x = 5, y = 6 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then  $E(X) = (3)(1/2) + (3)(1/3) + (5)(1/6) = 10/3$ , and  $E(Y) = (4)(1/2) + (6)(1/3) + (6)(1/6) = 5$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E((X - 10/3)(Y - 5)) \\ &= (3 - 10/3)(4 - 5)/2 + (3 - 10/3)(6 - 5)/3 + (5 - 10/3)(6 - 5)/6 \\ &= 1/3. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

## Example 2 of Covariance

Let  $X$  be any random variable with  $\text{Var}(X) > 0$ . Let  $Y = 3X$ , and let  $Z = -4X$ . Then  $\mu_Y = 3\mu_X$  and  $\mu_Z = -4\mu_X$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Y) &= E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)) = E((X - \mu_X)(3X - 3\mu_X)) \\ &= 3 E((X - \mu_X)^2) = 3 \text{Var}(X),\end{aligned}$$

while

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Z) &= E((X - \mu_X)(Z - \mu_Z)) = E((X - \mu_X)((-4)X - (-4)\mu_X)) \\ &= (-4)E((X - \mu_X)^2) = -4 \text{Var}(X).\end{aligned}$$

Note in particular that  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) > 0$ , while  $\text{Cov}(X, Z) < 0$ . Intuitively, this says that  $Y$  increases when  $X$  increases, whereas  $Z$  decreases when  $X$  increases. ■

## PDF of Sum of Two Random Variables

For independent random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , the distribution  $f_Z$  of  $Z = X + Y$  equals the **convolution** of  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$ :

$$f_Z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Y(z - x) f_X(x) dx$$

## LLN and CLT

### Theorem (Law of Large Numbers (LLN))

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables so that  $E[X_1] = E[X_2] = \dots = E[X_n] < \infty$ . Let

$$\bar{X}_n := \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

denote the sample mean of those  $n$  random variables. Then  $\bar{X}_n \rightarrow E[X_1]$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  almost surely (a.s., strong law) and in probability (i.p., weak law).

### Theorem (Central Limit Theorem (CLT))

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables, and assume that  $E[X_i] = \mu$  and  $\text{Var}[X_i] = \sigma^2$ , for all  $i$ . Let  $S_n := X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$ . Then,  $E[S_n] = n\mu$ ,  $\text{Var}[S_n] = n\sigma^2$  and we have the standardization of  $S_n$ ,

$$\frac{S_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{i.p.} N(0, 1) \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

where  $N(0, 1)$  denotes the standard normal random variable.

*Thank You!*

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