# ECE 30200 - Probabilistic Methods in Electrical and Computer Engineering

Zeke Ulrich June 26, 2025

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## Background

The following formulas will be instrumental and may be familar.

Series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^k = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \tag{1}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \tag{2}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kr^{k-1} = \frac{1}{(1-r)^2} \tag{3}$$

Combinatorics

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \tag{4}$$

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$
 (5)

$$\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} = \binom{n+1}{k} \tag{6}$$

$$P(n,k) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \tag{7}$$

where P(n,k) is the number of ways to arrange k objects out of n(permutations).

$$C(n,k) = \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \tag{8}$$

where C(n, k) is the number of ways to choose k objects out of n(combinations).

**Approximations** 

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \dots$$
 (9)

$$=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$
 (10)

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$$
 (11)

$$=e^{x} \tag{12}$$

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$
 (13)

$$=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \tag{14}$$

$$\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$
 (15)

$$=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \tag{16}$$

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$
 (17)

$$=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n} \tag{18}$$

Calculus

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt = f(x) \tag{19}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f'(x) \, dx = f(b) - f(a) \tag{20}$$

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du$$
 (21)

$$\int u \, dv = uv - \int v \, du \tag{22}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{(x-a)(x-b)} dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \ln \left| \frac{x-a}{x-b} \right| + C \tag{23}$$

Linear Algebra

$$\vec{y} = \beta_1 \vec{x_1} + \beta_2 \vec{x_2} + \dots + \beta_N \vec{x_N} \tag{24}$$

$$\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle = \vec{a} \vec{b}^T \tag{25}$$

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}a_{i}b_{i} \tag{26}$$

where  $\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle$  denotes the inner product of vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ .

$$\|\vec{x}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p} \tag{27}$$

where  $\|\vec{x}\|_p$  is the *p*-norm (or  $\ell_p$ -norm) of vector  $\vec{x}$ .

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle}{\|\vec{a}\|_2 \|\vec{b}\|_2} \tag{28}$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$ .

$$\hat{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \vec{y} \tag{29}$$

where  $\hat{\beta}$  is the vector of least squares coefficients, **X** is the data matrix, and  $\vec{y}$  is the target vector

### Probability Laws

A probability law must satisfy three axioms:

- 1. Non-negativity:  $P(A) \ge 0 \forall A \in F$
- 2. Normalization:  $P(\Omega) = 1$
- 3. Additivity: For any disjoint subsets  $\{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ , it holds that

$$P\left[\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P\left[A_n\right]$$

Probability Properties

$$P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B] - P[A \cap B]$$
 (30)

$$P[A \cup B] \le P[A] + P[B] \tag{31}$$

$$A \subseteq B \implies P[A] \le P[B] \tag{32}$$

## Formal Definitions

#### **Outcomes**

An *outcome* is the result of some *experiment*. If that experiment is flipping a coin, the outcome is either heads or tails. We could express the outcome of heads as *H*, and the outcome of tails as *T*. The set of all possible outcomes for an experiment is known as a sample space and is denoted by  $\Omega$ . In this case  $\Omega = \{H, T\}$ .

#### **Events**

An *event F* is a subset of the sample space  $\Omega$ . The formal definitions of probability are expressed with set notation. So the event where we have neither heads nor tails is written as {}. The event of heads could be expressed as  $\{H\}$ , and the event of tails could be expressed as  $\{T\}$ . The event of either heads or tails is  $\{H, T\}$ .

## Probability Laws

A *probability law* is a function *P* that maps an event *A* to a real number in [0,1]. For the coin example, the probability law might be  $P(\{\}) = 0$ ,  $P(\{H\}) = 0.5, P(\{T\}) = 0.5, \text{ and } P(\{\Omega\}) = 1.$  A probability law must satisfy three axioms:

1. Non-negativity:  $P(A) \ge 0 \forall A \in F$ 

2. Normalization:  $P(\Omega) = 1$ 

3. Additivity: For any disjoint subsets  $\{A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ , it holds that

$$P\left[\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P\left[A_n\right]$$

#### Probability Space

A probability space is a triplet  $\Omega$ , F, P.

Probability Properties

$$P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B] - P[A \cap B]$$
 (33)

$$P[A \cup B] \le P[A] + P[B] \tag{34}$$

$$A \subseteq B \implies P[A] \le P[B] \tag{35}$$

$$P[A|B] = \frac{P[A \cap B]}{P[B]} \tag{36}$$

Outcomes are statistically *independent* if P(A|B) = P(A) (assuming P(B) > 0, or equivalently  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ .

*Bayes Theorem* states that for any two events *A* and *B* such that P[A] > 0 and P[B] > 0,

$$P[A|B] = \frac{P[B|A]P[A]}{P[B]} \tag{37}$$

The Law of Total Probability states that if  $\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_n\}$  is a partition of  $\Omega$ , then for any  $B \subseteq \Omega$ ,

$$P[B] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P[B|A_i]P[A_i]$$
 (38)

#### Random Variables

A random variable X is a function  $X : \Omega \implies \Re$  that maps an outcome  $\epsilon \in \Omega$  to a number  $X(\epsilon)$  on the real line. We call it a variable because it has multiple states.

A Bernoulli random variable has a state of either o or 1. The probability of getting 1 is p and the probability of getting 0 is 1 - p. We write

$$X Bernoulli(p)$$
 (39)

to say that X is drawn from a Bernoulli distribution with a parameter p. For a Bernoulli distribution,

$$E[X] = p \tag{40}$$

$$E[X^2] = p \tag{41}$$

$$Var[X] = p(1-p) \tag{42}$$

A Rademacher random variable has two states, -1 and 1. The probability of getting each is 0.5.

A binomial random variable has a PMF of

$$p_X(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, k = 0, 1, \dots n$$
 (43)

where 0 is the binomial parameter, and <math>n is the total number of states. We write

$$X \ Binomial(n, p)$$
 (44)

to say that *X* is drawn from a binomial distribution with a parameter p of size n. If X Binomial(n, p), then

$$E[X] = np (45)$$

$$E[X^2] = np(np + (1-p)) \tag{46}$$

$$Var[X] = np(1-p) \tag{47}$$

Let *X* be a *geometric random variable*. Then the PMF of *X* is

$$p_X(k) = (1-p)^{k-1}p, k = 1, 2, \dots$$
 (48)

We write

$$X Geometric(p)$$
 (49)

to say that X was drawn from a geometric distribution with a parameter p. If X Geometric(p) then

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{p} \tag{50}$$

$$E[X^2] = \frac{2}{p^2} - \frac{1}{p} \tag{51}$$

$$Var[X] = \frac{1-p}{p^2} \tag{52}$$

Let *X* be a *Poisson random variable*. Then the PMF of *X* is

$$p_X(k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
 (53)

where  $\lambda > 0$  is the Poisson rate. We write  $X \ Poisson(\lambda)$  to say that X was drawn from a Poisson distribution with a parameter  $\lambda$ . If *X Poisson*( $\lambda$ ) then

$$E[X] = \lambda \tag{54}$$

$$E[X^2] = \lambda + \lambda^2 \tag{55}$$

$$Var[X] = \lambda \tag{56}$$

For small p and large n,

$$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \approx \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$$
 (57)

The *expectation* of a random variable *X* is

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in X(\Omega)} x p_X(x) \tag{58}$$

The difference between E[X] and the mean is that E[X] is computed from the ideal histogram, while mean is computed from the empirical histogram. In general for any functions g and h,

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_{x} g(x)p_X(x)$$
 (59)

$$E[g(X) + h(X)] = E[g(X)] + E[h(X)]$$
(60)

$$E[cX] = cE[X] \tag{61}$$

$$E[X+c] = E[X] + c \tag{62}$$

The *variance* of a random variable *X* is

$$Var[X] = E\left[ (X - \mu)^2 \right] \tag{63}$$

or alternatively, the second moment minus the first moment squared.

$$E[X^2] - E[X]^2 (64)$$

The probability mass function (PMF)  $p_X(a)$  of a random variable Xspecifies the probability of obtaining a number  $X(\epsilon) = a$ . We denote a PMF as

$$p_X(a) = P[X = a] \tag{65}$$

PMFs are represented with histograms. A PMF should satisfy

$$\sum_{x \in X(\Omega)} p_X(x) = 1 \tag{66}$$

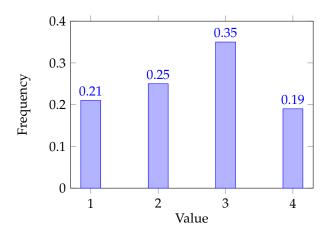


Figure 1: PMF

The cumulative distribution function is given by

$$F_X(x) = P[X \le x]$$

$$= \sum_{u \le x} p_X(u)$$
(67)
(68)

and represents the sum of every impulse of the PMF up to x.

Joint Distributions are higher-dimensional PDFs, PMFs, or CDFs. We write

$$f_{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \equiv f_{\vec{X}}(\vec{x})$$
 (69)

The *joint PMF* of two random variables *X* and *Y* is notated by

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = P[X = xandY = y] \tag{70}$$

and represents the probability of both.

A marginal PMF is defined as

$$p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p_X(x, y) \tag{71}$$

or w.l.o.g.

$$p_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p_X(x, y) \tag{72}$$

That is, it is the joint PMF summed over one of the variables.

If two random variables *X* and *Y* are independent, then

$$p_{X,Y} = p_X(x)p_Y(y) \tag{73}$$

$$f_{X,Y} = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \tag{74}$$

If a sequence of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N$  are independent, then their joint PDF (or joint PMF) can be factorized as

$$f_{X_1,X_2,...,X_N}(x_1,x_2,...,x_N) = \prod_{n=1}^N f_{X_n}(x_n)$$
 (75)

The *joint CDF* of two random variables *X* and *Y* is the function  $F_{X,Y}(x,y)$  such that

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = P\left[X \le x \cap Y \le y\right] \tag{76}$$

If *X* and *Y* are discrete, then

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = \sum_{y' \le y} \sum_{x' \le x} p_{X,Y}(x',y')$$
 (77)

For two random variables *X* and *Y*, the *marginal CDF* is

$$F_X(x) = F_{XY}(x, \infty) \tag{78}$$

$$F_Y(y) = F_{X,Y}(\infty, y) \tag{79}$$

Let *X* and *Y* be two random variables. The *joint expectation* is

$$E[XY] = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} xy \times p_{X,Y}(x,y)$$
 (80)

If *X* and *Y* are discrete, then joint expectation is also called *correlation*. This can be written in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_N) \\ p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_N) \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_N) \end{bmatrix}$$
(81)

then the joint expectation is

$$E[XY] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_i y_j \times p_{X,Y}(x_i, y_j)$$
 (82)

Let the matrix in Equation 81 be **P**. Let

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \tag{83}$$

$$\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$
 (84)

then

$$E[XY] = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_N) \\ p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_N) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \vec{x}^T \mathbf{P} \vec{y}$$
(85)

E[XY] is a weighted inner product between the states.  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$  are the states of the random variables *X* and *Y*. Recalling that the magnitude of the inner product of  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  is  $|a||b|\cos(\theta)$  and that cosine is bounded, we have

$$-1 \le \frac{E[XY]}{\sqrt{E[X^2]}\sqrt{E[Y^2]}} \le 1 \tag{87}$$

Notice that the correlation of *X*, *Y* is proportional to the covariance.

Reference

Series

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**Approximations** 

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