

# *ECE 30200 - Probabilistic Methods in Electrical and Computer Engineering*

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## Background

The following formulas will be instrumental and may be familiar.

### Series

$$\sum_{k=0}^n r^k = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r} \quad (1)$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \quad (2)$$

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

### Combinatorics

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

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

$$\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} = \binom{n+1}{k} \quad (6)$$

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

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

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

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

### Approximations

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

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

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

$$= e^x \quad (12)$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

### Calculus

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x) \quad (19)$$

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a) \quad (20)$$

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

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du \quad (22)$$

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

### Linear Algebra

$$\vec{y} = \beta_1 \vec{x}_1 + \beta_2 \vec{x}_2 + \dots + \beta_N \vec{x}_N \quad (24)$$

$$\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle = \vec{a} \vec{b}^T \quad (25)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \quad (26)$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### Set Theory

Some important properties of set operations are:

- **Commutativity:**

$$A \cup B = B \cup A \quad (30)$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A \quad (31)$$

- **Associativity:**

$$(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C) \quad (32)$$

$$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C) \quad (33)$$

- **Distributivity:**

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) \quad (34)$$

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \quad (35)$$

- **Identity:**

$$A \cup \emptyset = A \quad (36)$$

$$A \cap \Omega = A \quad (37)$$

- **Complement:**

$$A \cup A^c = \Omega \quad (38)$$

$$A \cap A^c = \emptyset \quad (39)$$

### Probability Laws

A probability law must satisfy three axioms:

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

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

*Probability Properties*

$$P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B] - P[A \cap B] \quad (40)$$

$$P[A \cup B] \leq P[A] + P[B] \quad (41)$$

$$A \subseteq B \implies P[A] \leq P[B] \quad (42)$$

## 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  $P(\{\}) = 0$ ,  $P(\{H\}) = 0.5$ ,  $P(\{T\}) = 0.5$ , and  $P(\{\Omega\}) = 1$ . A probability law must satisfy three axioms:

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

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

### Probability Space

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

*Probability Properties*

$$P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B] - P[A \cap B] \quad (43)$$

$$P[A \cup B] \leq P[A] + P[B] \quad (44)$$

$$A \subseteq B \implies P[A] \leq P[B] \quad (45)$$

$$P[A|B] = \frac{P[A \cap B]}{P[B]} \quad (46)$$

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  $P[B] > 0$ ,

$$P[A|B] = \frac{P[B|A]P[A]}{P[B]} \quad (47)$$

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

$$P[B] = \sum_{i=1}^n P[B|A_i]P[A_i] \quad (48)$$

### Random Variables

A *random variable*  $X$  is a function  $X : \Omega \Rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  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.

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

$$E[X] = \sum_{x \in X(\Omega)} x p_X(x) \quad (49)$$

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  $h$ ,

$$E[g(X)] = \sum_x g(x) p_X(x) \quad (50)$$

$$E[g(X) + h(X)] = E[g(X)] + E[h(X)] \quad (51)$$

$$E[cX] = cE[X] \quad (52)$$

$$E[X + c] = E[X] + c \quad (53)$$

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

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2] \quad (54)$$

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

$$E[X^2] - E[X]^2 \quad (55)$$

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

$$p_X(a) = P[X = a] \quad (56)$$

PMFs are represented with histograms. A PMF should satisfy

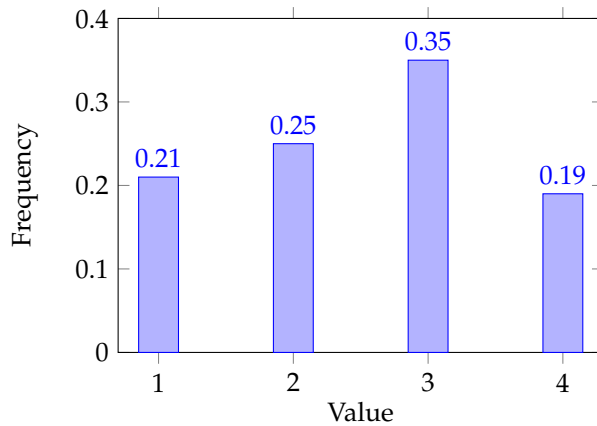


Figure 1: PMF



$$\sum_{x \in X(\Omega)} p_X(x) = 1 \quad (57)$$

The *cumulative distribution function* is given by

$$F_X(x) = P[X \leq x] \quad (58)$$

$$= \sum_{u \leq x} p_X(u) \quad (59)$$

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

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

$$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p) \quad (60)$$

or

$$X \sim B(p) \quad (61)$$

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

$$E[X] = p \quad (62)$$

$$E[X^2] = p \quad (63)$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = p(1 - p) \quad (64)$$

Say  $S \sim B(1 - p)$ . Let

$$P(R = 0 | S = 0) = 1 - \epsilon_0 \quad (65)$$

$$P(R = 1 | S = 0) = \epsilon_0 \quad (66)$$

then  $R | S = 0 \sim B(\epsilon_0)$ . Let

$$P(R = 0 | S = 1) = \epsilon_1 \quad (67)$$

$$P(R = 1 | S = 1) = 1 - \epsilon_1 \quad (68)$$

then  $R | S = 1 \sim B(1 - \epsilon_1)$ . Overall,

$$R | S \sim B(\epsilon_0^{1-S} (1 - \epsilon_1)^S) \quad (69)$$

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

$$p_X(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}, k = 0, 1, \dots, n \quad (70)$$

where  $0 < p < 1$  is the binomial parameter, and  $n$  is the total number of states. We write

$$X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p) \quad (71)$$

to say that  $X$  is drawn from a binomial distribution with a parameter  $p$  of size  $n$ . If  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$ , then

$$E[X] = np \quad (72)$$

$$E[X^2] = np(np + (1 - p)) \quad (73)$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = np(1 - p) \quad (74)$$

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

$$p_X(k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} p, k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (75)$$

We write

$$X \sim \text{Geometric}(p) \quad (76)$$

to say that  $X$  was drawn from a geometric distribution with a parameter  $p$ . If  $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$  then

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{p} \quad (77)$$

$$E[X^2] = \frac{2}{p^2} - \frac{1}{p} \quad (78)$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = \frac{1 - p}{p^2} \quad (79)$$

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

$$p_X(k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (80)$$

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

$$E[X] = \lambda \quad (81)$$

$$E[X^2] = \lambda + \lambda^2 \quad (82)$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = \lambda \quad (83)$$

For small  $p$  and large  $n$ ,

$$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k} \approx \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} \quad (84)$$

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

$$f_{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \equiv f_{\vec{X}}(\vec{x}) \quad (85)$$

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

$$p_{X,Y}(x, y) = P[X = x \text{ and } Y = y] \quad (86)$$

and represents the probability of both.

A *marginal PMF* is defined as

$$p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} p_{X,Y}(x, y) \quad (87)$$

or w.l.o.g.

$$p_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p_{X,Y}(x, y) \quad (88)$$

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

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

$$p_{X,Y} = p_X(x)p_Y(y) \quad (89)$$

$$f_{X,Y} = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \quad (90)$$

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

$$f_{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) = \prod_{n=1}^N f_{X_n}(x_n) \quad (91)$$

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

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = P[X \leq x \cap Y \leq y] \quad (92)$$

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

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = \sum_{y' \leq y} \sum_{x' \leq x} p_{X,Y}(x', y') \quad (93)$$

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

$$F_X(x) = F_{X,Y}(x, \infty) \quad (94)$$

$$F_Y(y) = F_{X,Y}(\infty, y) \quad (95)$$

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

$$E[XY] = \sum_{y \in \Omega_Y} \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} xy \times p_{X,Y}(x, y) \quad (96)$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are discrete, then joint expectation is also called *correlation*.

This can be written in matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_N) \\ p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_N) \end{bmatrix} \quad (97)$$

then the joint expectation is

$$E[XY] = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N x_i y_j \times p_{X,Y}(x_i, y_j) \quad (98)$$

Let the matrix in Equation 97 be  $\mathbf{P}$ . Let

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \quad (99)$$

$$\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \quad (100)$$

then

$$E[XY] = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_1, y_N) \\ p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_2, y_N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_1) & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_2) & \dots & p_{X,Y}(x_N, y_N) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \quad (101)$$

$$= \vec{x}^T \mathbf{P} \vec{y} \quad (102)$$

$E[XY]$  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  $|\vec{a}||\vec{b}|\cos(\theta)$  and that cosine is bounded, we have

$$-1 \leq \frac{E[XY]}{\sqrt{E[X^2]}\sqrt{E[Y^2]}} \leq 1 \quad (103)$$

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

## Reference

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

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

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

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

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

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