# MATH4240 Tutorial 1 Notes

This is a review note on the basics of probability. See also the Summary Note of Chapter 0.

## **1** Basic Concepts

Probability is a measurement of uncertainty.

A probability space consists of

- a sample space  $\Omega$  which consists of all possible outcomes
- an event space  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\Omega 1}$  which encodes the information available as a  $\sigma$ -algebra<sup>2</sup>
- a probability measure  $P: \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$  which measures the uncertainty of a given event

*Example* 1. Suppose I have a coin, which when tossed gives either **H** (head) or **T** (tail). I now toss the coin 2 times. Let us denoted the ultimate outcome as  $\omega$ . Then

- the sample space is  $\Omega = \{ \mathbf{HH}, \mathbf{HT}, \mathbf{TH}, \mathbf{TT} \}$
- before any coin toss, a natural event space is  $\mathcal{F}_0 = \{ \emptyset, \Omega \}$
- after the first coin toss, a natural event space is  $\mathcal{F}_1 = \{ \emptyset, \Omega, \{ \mathbf{HH}, \mathbf{HT} \}, \{ \mathbf{TH}, \mathbf{TT} \} \}$
- after both coin tosses, a natural event space is  $\mathcal{F}_2 = 2^{\Omega}$

The basic properties of a probability measure are

- $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$ , with  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ ,  $P(\Omega) = 1$
- if  $E_1, E_2, \ldots$  are disjoint, then  $P(\bigcup E_n) = \sum P(E_n)$
- if  $E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq \ldots$ , then  $P(E_n) \to P(\bigcup E_n)$
- if  $E_1 \supseteq E_2 \supseteq \ldots$ , then  $P(E_n) \to P(\bigcap E_n)$

A random variable is a (measurable) function  $X : \Omega \to A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  that quantifies the outcome. Commonly probability is measured according to the value of X via events of the form  $\{ \omega \mid X(\omega) \in E \}^3$ , with shorthand notation  $P(X \in E) = P(\{ \omega \mid X(\omega) \in E \})$ .

## 2 Conditional, Independence

On two events A, B, assuming  $P(B) \neq 0$ , then the *conditional probability* of A given B is  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$ .

Two events A, B are *independent* if  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$ . If  $P(B) \neq 0$ , this is equivalent to P(A|B) = P(A).

Two random variables X, Y are *independent*  $(X \perp Y)$  if for all (Borel) sets  $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\{X \in A\}$  and  $\{Y \in B\}$  are independent.

**Theorem 2.1** (total probability). If  $E_1, \ldots$  are disjoint, then  $P(A) = \sum P(A \cap E_n)$ . In particular, if  $P(E_n) \neq 0$  for each n, then  $P(A) = \sum P(A|E_n)P(E_n)$ 

**Theorem 2.2** (Bayes).  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$ . Usually P(B) can be computed with total probability.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Here  $2^{\Omega}$  is the power set of  $\Omega$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>A collection of sets  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq 2^{\Omega}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra if  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $E \in \mathcal{F}$  implies  $\Omega \setminus E \in \mathcal{F}$ , and  $E_1, E_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{F}$  implies  $\bigcup E_n \in \mathcal{F}$ . Precisely speaking, it is a collections of sets that we can "assign" a probability to.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>That is, we measure the probability on X by measuring the probability on the corresponding  $\omega$ .

## 3 Distribution

For a random variable X, the cumulative distribution function (cdf) is  $F_X(t) = P(X \le t)$ , and

- If the range of X is countable, then we call it a *discrete* random variable. For simplicity, we will assume that its range is  $\mathbb{N}$  (or  $\mathbb{Z}$ ). Its probability mass function (pmf) is  $p_X(n) = P(X = n)$ .
- If there exists a function  $f_X : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $P(X \in A) = \int_A f_X$ , then we call X a continuous random variable, and  $f_X$  its probability density function (pdf). Note that pdf may not be unique (e.g. differ at a single point).
- If X is neither discrete nor continuous, we call it *mixed*.

We will call both pmf and pdf *density*.

We can also consider the *joint distribution* of two random variables X, Y:

- if X, Y are discrete, the joint pmf is  $p_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$
- if X, Y are continuous, the joint pdf  $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$  is a function that satisfies  $P(X \in A, y \in B) = \int_{A \times B} f_{X,Y}$  for all A, B

The basic properties are

- $0 \leq F_X \leq 1$  is non-decreasing right-continuous with left limit everywhere
- for pmf,  $0 \le p_X \le 1$ ,  $F_X(n) = \sum_{i \le n} p_X(i)$ , and  $\sum p_X(i) = 1$
- for pdf,  $f_X \ge 0$ , with  $a \le b$ ,  $P(a \le X \le b) = F_X(b) F_X(a) = \int_a^b f_X$ , and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X = 1$
- if X, Y are independent, then  $p_{X,Y} = p_X p_Y$  if discrete and  $f_{X,Y} = f_X f_Y$  if continuous

We can also consider the conditional distribution: assuming X is continuous with pdf  $f_X$ ,

- on event A with nonzero probability,  $F_{X|A}(t) = P(X \leq t \mid A)$
- on continuous random variable Y,  $f_{X|Y}(x \mid y) = f_{X,Y}(x,y)/f_Y(y)$  assuming  $f_Y(y) > 0$

Example 2. The common examples of probability distributions are:

distribution	notation*	density
distribution	notation	defibility
discrete uniform	$\operatorname{Unif}\{a, b\}$	$p_X(i) = \frac{1}{b-a+1} \text{ for } i \in \{a, \dots, b\}$
continuous uniform	$\operatorname{Unif}(a, b)$	$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}\chi_{[a,b]}$
Bernoulli	$\operatorname{Bern}(p)$	$p_X(1) = p,  p_X(0) = 1 - p$
binomial	$\operatorname{Bin}(n,p)$	$p_X(r) = \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} \text{ for } r \in \{0, \dots, n\}$
geometric	$\operatorname{Geom}(p)$	$p_X(n) = (1-p)^{n-1}p \text{ for } n \ge 1$
Poisson	$\operatorname{Poi}(\lambda)$	$p_X(n) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!}$ for $n \ge 0$
exponential	$\operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$	$f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \chi_{x \ge 0}$
normal	$N(\mu,\sigma^2)$	$f_X(x) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-1/2} \exp(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2})$

\* Notation seems to vary per reference.

with  $\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$  being the indicator function of set A, and (as a shorthand notation)  $\chi_{x\geq 0} = \chi_{[0,\infty)}$ .

### 4 Moment

The expectation / expected value / mean of a random variable X is  $E(X) = \sum np_X(n)$  if discrete,  $E(X) = \int x f_X(x)$  if continuous (if exists).

The variance of a random variable X with a finite mean  $\mu = E(X)$  is  $\operatorname{Var}(X) = E((X - \mu)^2)$  (if exists).

Conditional expectation and variance are defined similarly, only that e.g. the conditional expectation with respect to a random variable  $E(X|Y) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is now a random variable (E(X|Y))(y) = E(X|Y = y):

- if Y is discrete,  $E(X|Y = y) = \sum x p_{X|Y}(x \mid y)$
- if Y is continuous,  $E(X|Y=y) = \int x f_{X|Y}(x \mid y)$

The basic properties are

- E is linear: E(aX) = aE(X) and E(X+Y) = E(X) + E(Y), whether X, Y are independent or not
- Var  $(X) = E(X^2) E(X)^2$  and Var  $(cX) = c^2 \operatorname{Var}(X)$
- if X, Y are independent, then E(XY) = E(X)E(Y) and (thus)  $\operatorname{Var}(X+Y) = \operatorname{Var}(X) + \operatorname{Var}(Y)$ . In general, we have  $\operatorname{Var}(X+Y) = \operatorname{Var}(X) + \operatorname{Var}(Y) + 2(E(XY) - E(X)E(Y))$ .
- (total expectation) if  $A_1, \ldots$  are disjoint, then  $E(X) = \sum E(X|A_n) P(A_n)$ . In particular, (tower property) E(X) = E(E(X|Y)) and  $P(X \in A) = E(P(X \in A \mid Y))$
- (total variance)  $\operatorname{Var}(X) = E(\operatorname{Var}(X|Y)) + \operatorname{Var}(E(X|Y))$

As an exercise, you should compute the mean and the variance of the distributions listed in the table above. Example 3.

- if  $X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$ , then  $E(X) = \lambda$  and  $\text{Var}(X) = \lambda$
- if  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ , then  $E(X) = 1/\lambda$  and  $\text{Var}(X) = 1/\lambda^2$

*Example* 4. For a randomly shuffled deck of 52 poker cards, where 4 of them are aces, the expected number of cards placed before the first ace can be computed as follows: number the non-ace cards as  $1, \ldots, 48$ , and for each

*i* let  $X_i$  be the random variable  $X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if card } i \text{ is placed before the first ace} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ . Then the expected number of cards placed before the first ace is  $E(\sum X_i) = \sum E(X_i) = 48/5$  as you can easily argue that  $E(X_i) = 1/5$  for each card.

## 5 Computations

#### 5.1 Sum of Random Variables

If X, Y are independent continuous random variables, then the cdf of their sum X + Y can be computed as

$$F_{X+Y}(z) = P (X + Y \le z)$$
  
=  $\int P (X + Y \le z | X = x) f_X(x)$   
=  $\int P (Y \le z - x) f_X(x)$   
=  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{z-x} f_Y(y) f_X(x) dy dx$   
=  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{z} f_Y(y - x) f_X(x) dy dx$ 

and so

$$f_{X+Y}(z) = \frac{d}{dz} F_{X+Y}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Y(z-x) f_X(x) \, dx = (f_X * f_Y)(z)$$

which means that the pdf  $f_{X+Y}$  of X+Y is the *convolution* of  $f_X$  and  $f_Y$ . A similar conclusion holds for discrete random variables.

*Example* 5. If  $X \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_X)$ ,  $Y \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_Y)$  are independent, then  $X + Y \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda_X + \lambda_Y)$ 

### 5.2 Order Statistics

If  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent random variables, then the cdf of their maximum  $Y = \max(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  can be computed as

$$F_Y(y) = P(\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) \le y) = \prod P(X_i \le y) = \prod F_{X_i}(y)$$

Same approach can also give the cdf of the k-largest value.

Example 6. If  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent random variables and  $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda_i)$ , then for  $Y = \min(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ ,

$$F_Y(y) = 1 - P(Y > y) = 1 - \prod P(X_i > y) = 1 - \prod (1 - F_{X_i}(y)) = 1 - \prod e^{-\lambda_i y} \chi_{y \ge 0} = 1 - e^{-(\sum \lambda_i) y} \chi_{y \ge 0}$$

This implies  $\min(X_1, \ldots, X_n) = Y \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\sum \lambda_i).$ 

Furthermore, on  $Z = \min(X_2, \ldots, X_n) \sim \operatorname{Exp}(\lambda)$  with  $\lambda = \sum_{i \ge 2} \lambda_i$ ,

$$P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) = X_1) = P(X_1 \le Z) = \int P(X_1 \le Z) f_Z(Z) = \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-\lambda_1 Z}) \lambda e^{-\lambda_Z} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + \lambda} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\sum \lambda_i}$$