Chapter 1: Probability Theory

1.1 Counting

Experiment, Model and Event

Rule 1: If an experiment consists of n trials where each trial may result in one of k possible outcomes, there are k^n possible outcomes of the entire experiment.

Example 1, page 7.

Rule 2: There are n! (n factorial) ways of arranging *n* distinguishable objects into a row.

For example, *n*!=*n*(*n*-1)(*n*-2)....3.2.1, and 5!=5.4.3.2.1=120

Example 2, page 8.

Rule 3: If a group of n objects is composed on n_1 identical objects of type 1, n_2 identical objects of type 2,..., n_r identical objects of type r, the number

of distinguishable arrangements into a row, denoted by $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ n_i \end{bmatrix}$ is

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ n_i \end{bmatrix} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!}$$

If a group of n objects is composed of k identical objects of one kind and the remaining (n-k) objects of a second kind, the number of distinguishable

arrangement of the n objects into a row, denoted by $\binom{n}{k}$, is given by

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

Note $\binom{n}{0} = 1, \binom{n}{n} = 1 \text{ and } \binom{n}{k} = 0 \text{ if } k > n.$

Binomial Coefficient:

The term, $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$ is known as the binomial coefficient .

Example 4, page 9.

Binomial series

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

Problem 2, page 13.

1.2 Probability

Sample Space:

Definition 1: The *sample space* is the collection of all possible different outcomes of an experiment.

Definition 2: A *point in the sample space* is a possible outcome of an experiment.

Event:

Definition 3: An event is any set of points in the sample space.

Example 1, page 13.

Probability:

Definition 4: If an experiment is repeated a large number of times and the event A is observed n_A times, the probability of A is approximately

$$P(A) \approx \frac{n_A}{n}$$

As *n* becomes infinitely large, the fraction $\frac{n_A}{n}$ approaches P(A). This is

$$P(A) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n_A}{n}$$

This is called statistical or empirical probability.

Definition: If a trial results in *n* exhaustive mutually exclusive and equally likely cases and n_A of them are favorable to the happening of an event *A* then the probability ``P'' of happening A is given by

 $P(A) = \frac{\text{Favourable # of Cases}}{\text{Exhasutive # of Cases}} = \frac{n_A}{n}$

This is called mathematical or classical probability.

Probability Function:

Definition 5: A probability function is a function that assigns probabilities to the various events in the sample space.

Conditional Probability

Definition 6: If A and B are two events in a sample space S, then the joint event A and B is denoted by $P(A \cap B)$ or P(AB).

Definition 7: If A and B are two events in a sample space S. The conditional probability of A given B is the probability that A occurs given that B occurred and defined as follows

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)}, \quad P(B) > 0$$

Exercise 11, page 21.

Independent Events

Definition 8: Two events A and B are said to be independent if

P(A | B) = P(A) or P(B | A) = P(B) or P(AB) = P(A)P(B)

Example 6, page 18.

Independent Experiments:

Definition 9: Two experiments are independent if for very event A associated with one experiment and very event B associated with the second experiment,

$$P(AB)=P(A)P(B)$$

Definition 10: *n* experiments are mutually independent if for every set of *n* events, formed by considering one event from each of the *n* experiments, the following equation is true,

 $P(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n) = P(A_1)P(A_2), \dots, P(A_n)$

where A_i represents an outcome of the *ith* experiment, for i=1,2,...,n

1.3 Random Variables

Random Variables

Definition 1: A random variable is a function that assigns real numbers to the points in a sample space.

Extra Example 1: Toss a coin twice and observe the number of heads.

Definition 2: The conditional probability of X given Y, written as P(X = x | Y = y) is the probability that the random variable X assumes the value x, given that the random variable Y has assumed the value y,

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}, \quad P(Y = y) > 0$$

Example 4, page 24

Probability Function

Definition 3: The probability function of the random variable X usually denoted by f(x), is the function that gives the probability of X taking the value x, for any real number x. In symbol,

f(x)=P(X=x), f(x) lies between 0 and 1.

Distribution Function

Definition 4: The distribution function of a random variable X, usually denoted by F(x) and is defined as follows:

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{t \le x} f(t)$$

See figure (for discrete random variable) on page 27. From the figure

$$F(2) = P(X \le 2) = 0.7$$

Binomial Distribution

Definition 5: Let X be a random variable which follows a binomial distribution with parameters *n* and *p*. The the probability function can be written as

$$p(x) = P(X = x) = {n \choose x} p^{x} q^{n-x}, 0 \le p \le 1 \text{ and } q = 1 - p$$

The mean and variance of Binomial distribution are respectively

$$E(X) = \mu = np$$
 and $V(X) = \sigma^2 = npq$

The distribution function is

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{i \le x}^{x} {n \choose i} p^{i} q^{n-i}$$

where the summation extends overall possible values of I less than or equal to x. The binomial table (Table A3, page 511) will give cumulative probabilities and will be used a lot.

Exercise 1, page 32.

Discrete Uniform Distribution

Definition 6: Let X be a random variable. The probability distribution function of x is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{N}$$
 x = 1,2,...,N

Example 6, page 28.

Joint Distribution

Definition 7: The joint probability function $f(x_1, x_2,...,x_n)$ of the random variables $X_1, X_2,...,X_n$, is the probability of the joint occurrence of $X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x,...,X_n = x_n$, which is defined as follows

$$f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, ..., X_n = x_n)$$

Definition 8: The joint distribution function $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ of the random variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$, is the probability of the joint occurrence of $X_1 \le x_1, X_2 \le x, ..., X_n \le x_n$, which is defined as follows

$$F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = P(X_1 \le x_1, X_2 \le x_2, ..., X_n \le x_n)$$

Example 7, page 29.

Definition 9: The conditional probability function of X given Y, f(X | Y) is

$$f(x \mid y) = P(X = x \mid Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x \cap Y = y)}{P(Y = y)} = \frac{f(x, y)}{f(y)}, \quad f(y) > 0$$

where f(x,y) is the joint probability function of X and Y and f(y) is the probability function of Y.

Example 8, page 30.

Definition 11: Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be random variables with the respective probability functions $f_1(x_1), f_2(x_2), ..., f_n(x_n)$ and with the joint probability function $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$. Then $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are mutually independent if

 $f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = f_1(x_1), f_2(x_2), ..., f_n(x_n)$ for all combinations values of $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$.

Example 9, page 31.

1.4 Some Properties of Random Variables

Quantiles

Definition 1: The number x_p , for a given value of p between 0 and 1, is called the *pth* quantile of the random variable X, if $P(X < x_p) \le p$ and $P(X > x_p) \le 1 - p$.

Example 1, page 34.

Expected Value

Definition 2: Let X be a random variable with the probability function f(x) and let u(X) be a real valued function of X. The expected value of u(X), written as E[u(X)], is

$$E(u(X)] = \sum_{x} u(x) f(x).$$

We are mainly interested for the following two expected values

Definition 3: Let X be a random variable with the probability function f(x). The expected value of X, usually denoted by μ , is

$$\mu = E(X) = \sum_{x} xf(x).$$

Variance

Definition 4: Let X be a random variable with the probability function f(x). The variance of X, usually denoted by σ^2 is

$$\sigma^{2} = E[(X - \mu)^{2}] = \sum_{x} (x - \mu)^{2} f(x) = E(X^{2}) - \mu^{2}$$

Example 4, page 38.

Definition 5: Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be random variables with the joint probability function $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$, and let $u(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$ be a real valued function of $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$. Then the expected value of $u(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$ is

$$E(u(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)] = \sum_{x} u(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n).$$

where the summation extends over all possible combinations of values of $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$

Theorem 1: Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be random variables and let $Y = X_1 + X_2 + ... + X_n$ then $E(Y) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) + ... + E(X_n)$

Example 6, page 40

Lemma 1

$$\sum_{i=a}^{N} i = \frac{(N+a)(N-a+1)}{2} \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{N} i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$$

Example 7, page 41.

Covariance

Definition 6: Let X_1 and X_2 be two random variables with means μ_1 and μ_2 , probability functions $f(x_1)$ and $f(x_2)$, respectively, and joint probability function $f(x_1, x_2)$. The covariance of X_1 and X_2 is

$$Cov(X_1, X_2) = E[(X_1 - E(X_1))(X_2 - E(X_2))]$$

= $E[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)]$
= $E(X_1 X_2) - \mu_1 \mu_2$

Correlation Coefficient

Definition 7: The correlation coefficient between two random variables is

$$\rho = \frac{Cov(X_1, X_2)}{\sqrt{Var(X_1)Var(X_2)}} \quad -1 \le \rho \le 1$$

Lemma 2:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} i^2 = \frac{N(N+1)(2N+1)}{6}$$

Theorem 5: Let *X* be the sum of n integers selected at random, without replacement, from the first *N* intergers *1* to *N*. Then the mean and variance of X are respectively

$$E(X) = \frac{n(N+1)}{2}$$
$$V(X) = \frac{n(N+1)(N-n)}{12}$$

Example 13, page 49. (Application of Theorem 5)

1.5 Continuous Random Variables

Discrete Random Variable

Definition 1: A random variable X is discrete if there exists a one-to-one correspondence between the possible values of X and some or all of the positive integers.

Continuous Random Variable

Definition 2: A continuous random variable (RV) is one that can assume the infinitely many values corresponding to the points on a line interval. A random variable X is continuous if $P(X \le x) = P(X < x)$, which also implies P(X = x) = 0.

Normal Distribution

Definition 3: The normal distribution is the most useful distribution in both theory and application of statistics. If X is a normal random variable, then the probability distribution function of X is defined as follows.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} - \infty \le \mu \le \infty \text{ and } \sigma > 0$$

where μ is the mean and σ is the standard deviation of X. The pdf of a normal distribution with mean, μ =10 is given below



Standard Normal: If X is distributed as normal with mean μ and standard deviation, σ . That is $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$. Then

$$Z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$$

is called a standard normal variable. That is, E(z)=0 and V(z)=1.



The standard normal (or z) table is given in Table A1 (page 506)

Theorem 1: For a given value of p, let x_p be the *pth* quantile of a normal random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Let z_p be the *pth* quantile of a standard normal random variable. The quantile x_p may be obtained from z_p by using the following relationship

$$z_p = \frac{x_p - \mu}{\sigma} \Longrightarrow x_p = \mu + \sigma \times z_p$$

where the value of $z_p = -1.645$ when p=0.05 and 1.645 for p=0.95 .

<mark>Using R</mark>

> qnorm(0.05) [1] -1.644854 > qnorm(0.95) [1] 1.644854 **Extra Example 2:** A traffic study conducted at one point on an interstate highway shows that vehicle speeds are normally distributed with a mean of 63.5 miles per hour and a standard deviation of 4.8 mph.

- a. If a vehicle is randomly selected, what is the probability that its speed is between 55 and 65 mph?
- b. 60% of the speeds in the distribution exceed what value?.

Central Limit Theorem:

Theorem 2: If random sample of *n* observations are drawn from any population (non-normal, skewed, unknown etc) with finite mean μ and standard deviation σ , then when *n* is large ($n \ge 30$), the sampling distribution of the sample mean \bar{x} is approximately normally distrubuted, with mean and standard deviation (SD) are respectively

$$E(\bar{x}) = \mu_{\bar{x}} = \mu$$
 and $\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$.

That is, for large *n*,

$$\bar{x} \approx N\!\!\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

The approximation will become more and more accurate as *n* becomes larger and larger. The symbol " \approx " stands for *approximately distributed*.

Example 7, page 58

Comments: When the population distribution of *x* (measurements) is symmetrical about the mean μ , the CLT will apply very well to small sample size, *n*=10. However, if the population is skewed, the larger the sample sizes are required to yield an effective approximation to the distribution of \bar{x} by the normal probability distribution. As a rule of thumb, large sample size implies, *n* ≥ 30.



Chi-squared (χ^2) Distribution

Definition 4: A random variable X has the chi-squared distribution with k degrees of freedom if the pdf of X is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{e^{-\frac{x}{2}}x^{\frac{k}{2}-1}}{2^{\frac{k}{2}}\Gamma\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)}$$

The mean and variance of chi-squared distribution are respectively.

$$E(X) = k$$
 and $V(X) = 2k$

Theorem 3: Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be k independent and identically distributed standard random variables. Let Y be the sum of the squares of the X_i .

$$Y = X_1^2 + X_2^3 + \dots + X_k^2$$

Then Y has the chi-squared distribution with k degrees of freedom.

Exercise 7, page 63.

Exercise 8, page 63.