Probability Theory

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Previous Lecture

- Indep of Events (conditional indep)
- Conditioning as Problem-Solving Wishful Thinking/First Step Analysis
- Coherency of Bayes' Rule
- Pitfalls and Paradoxes

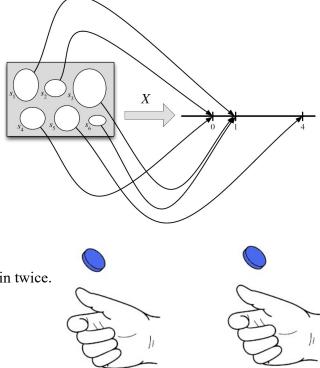


§3.1 - Random Variables

To simplify notation and many calculations, we introduce the idea of a random variable.

"Random variables" are not really random, but rather associated with a random process (or "experiment"). (random just expresses our inability to predict something). They're also not really variables, but rather functions.

Def (Random Var). Given an experiment with sample space S, a random var (rv) X is a function from S to \mathbb{R} .



Ex (Coin Tosses). Imagine an experiment where we toss a fair coin twice. The sample space is $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$.

- ♦ Let X be # of Heads. Then X is a rv w/values 0, 1, and 2. As a function, X assigns 2 to the outcome HH, 1 to HT and TH, and 0 to TT.
 That is, X(HH) = 2, X(HT) = X(TH) = 1, and X(TT) = 0.
- Let *Y* be # of Tails. In terms of *X*:

Y = 2 - X. In other words, Y(s) = 2 - X(s) for all $s \in S$.

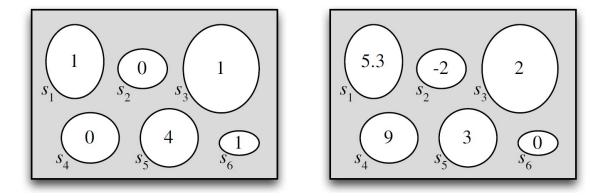
• Let *I* be 1 if first toss is Heads, and 0 otherwise.

Then I assigns 1 to HH and HT, and 0 to TH and TT.

This is an *indicator* rv since it indicates whether the first toss is Heads. 1 means "yes," 0 means "no."

We can also encode the sample space as $S_2 = \{(1,1), (1,0), (0,1), (0,0)\}$, where 1 is Heads & 0 is Tails. Then we can give explicit formulas for X, Y, I:

 $X(s_1,s_2) = s_1 + s_2,$ $Y(s_1,s_2) = 2 - s_1 - s_2,$ $I(s_1,s_2) = s_1,$ where $(s_1,s_2) \in S_2.$



 Rv assigns #s to outcomes in S

The sample space *S* can be multidimensional, and the outcomes $s \in S$ may be non-numeric (color, labels, etc.). So, rvs provide **numerical summaries** of an experiment.

Plinko Random Process

The path the coins take as they're dropped is too complicated: random.

Sample space is the 5 outcomes (slots) at the bottom $\{s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5\}$.

X(s) then assigns a number to each outcome 1,2,3,4,5.

If we send many coins down (repeat X many times), we can discover X's distr. It's the shape below the plinko board. It looks mound shaped (normal).



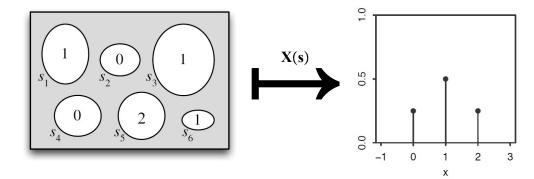
Harvard Video (2nd half): youtube.com/watch?v=PNrqCdslGi4&list=PL2SOU6wwxB0uwwH80KTQ6ht66KWxbzTIo&index=8

§3.2 - Distr's & Prob Mass Functions (PFs)

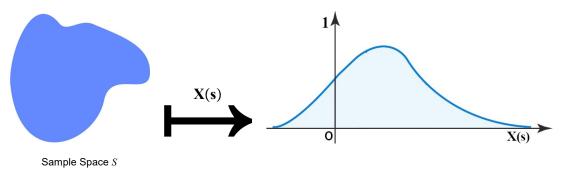
One can classify rvs as being discrete or continuous. In this section we'll focus on discrete rvs.

Def (**Discrete Rv**): X is **discrete** if there is a finite list of values $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ or an infin

If X is discrete, then the set of values x such that P(X = x) > 0 is called the **support of** X.

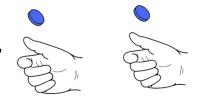


In chpt 5, we'll look at continuous rvs that can take on any value in \mathbb{R} .



Def (Prob Mass Function, PF): The PF of a discrete rv X is given by $p_X(x) = P(X = x)$. Note this is positive if x is in support of X, and 0 otherwise.

Ex (Coin Tosses Cont'd). We'll find PFs of all rvs in the "Coin Tosses" example in §3.1 above, (involving two fair coin tosses).



• X, the # of Heads.

Since X = 0 if TT occurs, X = 1 if HT or TH occurs, and X = 2 if HH occurs, the PF of X is:

 $p_X(0) = P(X = 0) = \frac{1}{4},$ $p_X(1) = P(X = 1) = \frac{1}{2},$ $p_X(2) = P(X = 2) = \frac{1}{4},$

and $p_X(x) = 0$ otherwise.

• Y = 2 - X, the # of Tails.

Reasoning as above or using the fact that $P(Y = y) = P(2 - X = y) = P(X = 2 - y) = p_X(2 - y)$, the PF of Y is:

$$p_{Y}(0) = P(Y = 0) = \frac{1}{4},$$

$$p_{Y}(1) = P(Y = 1) = \frac{1}{2},$$

$$p_{Y}(2) = P(Y = 2) = \frac{1}{4},$$

and $p_{Y}(y) = 0$ otherwise.

Note that X and Y have the same PF (p_X and p_Y are the same function) even though X and Y are not the same rv (X and Y are different functions from $\{HH, HT, TH, TT\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$).

Rvs concern themselves with what #s go w/different outcomes. PFs concern themselves w/the frequency with which those #s occur.

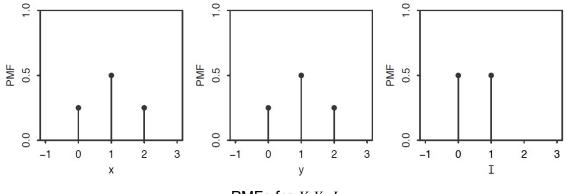
• *I*, the indicator of the first toss landing Heads.

Since I = 0 if *TH* or *TT* occurs, and 1 if *HH* or *HT* occurs, the PF of *I* is:

$$p_I(0) = P(I = 0) = \frac{1}{2},$$

 $p_I(1) = P(I = 1) = \frac{1}{2},$

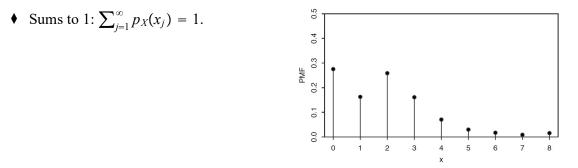
and $p_I(i) = 0$ otherwise.



PMFs for X, Y, I

Thm (Valid PFs). Let X be discrete w/support x_1, x_2, \dots The PF p_X must satisfy:

• Nonnegative: $p_X(x) > 0$ if $x = x_j$ for some x_j in the support, and $p_X(x) = 0$ otherwise,



Proof. First criterion is true since prob is always nonnegative.

Second is true since X must take on some value, and the events $\{X = x_j\}$ are disjoint, so:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P(X = x_j) = P(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \{X = x_j\}) = P(X = x_1 \text{ or } X = x_2 \text{ or...}) = 1.$$

Conversely, if distinct values $x_1, x_2, ...$ are specified and we have a function satisfying the two criteria above, then this function is the PF of *some* rv, we will show how to construct such a rv in Chapter 5.

The PF is one way of expressing the distribution of a discrete rv. In particular:

Prob X is in a Set: Given a discrete X and a set $B \in \mathbb{R}$, if we know the PF of X we can find $P(X \in B)$, by summing up the heights of the vertical bars in B in the plot of the PF. (You'll do this in HW 4!)

Ex (**PF of Two Dice**): Let *T* be the sum of two fair die rolls. Assume we've already calculated the PF of *T* as:



$$P(T = 2) = P(T = 12) = \frac{1}{36},$$

$$P(T = 3) = P(T = 11) = \frac{2}{36},$$

$$P(T = 4) = P(T = 10) = \frac{3}{36},$$

$$P(T = 5) = P(T = 9) = \frac{4}{36},$$

$$P(T = 6) = P(T = 8) = \frac{5}{36},$$

$$P(T = 7) = \frac{6}{36}.$$

\backslash	•	•	•	•••	•••	
•	2	3	4	5	6	7
•	3	4	5	6	7	8
•	4	5	6	7	8	9
	5	6	7	8	9	10
••	6	7	8	9	10	TT
	7	8	9	10	П	12

Sample Space

What's the prob that *T* is in the interval [1,4]?

So, *T* has support on $\{2,3,4\}$. We know the prob of these values from above, so:

$$P(1 \le T \le 4) = P(T = 2) + P(T = 3) + P(T = 4) = \frac{6}{36}.$$

Harvard Video: youtube.com/watch?v=k2BB0p8byGA&list=PL2SOU6wwxB0uwwH80KTQ6ht66KWxbzTIo&index=9

What did we learn?

- ♦ Random Vars
- ♦ Discrete Rvs
- ♦ Prob Mass Functions, PFs
- ♦ Valid PFs

