

PROBABILITY AND DISCRETE DISTRIBUTIONS

The set of all **outcomes** for an **experiment** is called the **sample space** (usually S , but some authors use Ω). An **event** is a set of outcomes. The assignment of probabilities to events must obey the following rules:

Axioms of Probability. *Axioms for probability:*

1. $P(E) \geq 0$ for any event E
2. $P(S) = 1$
3. If E_1, E_2, E_3, \dots are disjoint events, then $P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup E_3 \cup \dots) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(E_i)$

Theorem (Basic theorems of probability). *Let A and B be events.*

1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$
2. If $A \subseteq B$, then $P(A) \leq P(B)$
3. $P(A) = 1 - P(A^C)$
4. $P(A) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^C)$
5. $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

Note that part 5 can be rearranged: $P(A \cap B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cup B)$.

Theorem. *If an experiment has N equally likely outcomes, then $P(E) = \frac{\text{number of outcomes in } E}{N}$.*

Method. (Multiplication rule for counting) If a process occurs in two steps and there are m options for the first step and n options for the second, then there are mn total possibilities.

Method. The number of ways to select k elements from an n -element set is...

	Order matters	Order doesn't matter
With replacement	n^k	$\binom{n+k-1}{k}$
Without replacement	$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$	$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$

Definition. Let A and B be events with $P(A) \neq 0$. The **conditional probability of B given A** is

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

Definition. Events A and B are **independent** if and only if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.

Note that it follows that A and B are independent if $P(B|A) = P(B)$, that is, knowing that event A has occurred does not affect our calculation of $P(B)$.

Theorem (Multiplication rule for probabilities). *Let A and B be events with $P(B) \neq 0$. Then*

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

Theorem (The Law of Total Probability). *If event A has probability strictly between 0 and 1, then for any event B ,* $P(B) = P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|A^C)P(A^C)$.

Theorem (Bayes' Law). *If A and B are events with positive probability, then*

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

Note: often the law of total probability is used to calculate $P(B)$.

Theorem (Extended multiplication rule for probabilities). *Let E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n be events with $P(E_i) \neq 0$. Then*

$$P(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_n) = P(E_1) P(E_2|E_1) P(E_3|E_1 \cap E_2) \dots P(E_n|E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_{n-1})$$

Definition. Events E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n form a **partition** of S if

1. $E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_n = S$ and
2. $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$ (the events are pairwise disjoint).

Theorem (The Law of Total Probability Extended). *If events E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n each have probability strictly between 0 and 1 and form a partition of S , then for any event A ,*

$$P(A) = P(A|E_1)P(E_1) + P(A|E_2)P(E_2) + \dots + P(A|E_n)P(E_n)$$

Definition. A **random variable** X assigns a number to each outcome in the sample space S .

1. All random variables have a **cumulative distribution function (CDF)**: $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$.
2. A discrete random variable has a **probability mass function (PMF)**: $p(x) = P(X = x)$.

Theorem. *The PMF of any (discrete) random variable has the following properties:*

1. $0 \leq p(x) \leq 1$ for all x
2. $\sum_x p(x) = 1$ (where the sum is over all possible values of X)

Theorem. *The CDF of any random variable has the following properties:*

1. *it is non-decreasing: if $a \leq b$, then $F(a) \leq F(b)$*
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$
3. *If $a < b$, then $P(a < X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$*

Definition. The **expected value** (or **mean**) of a random variable is a weighted average and is denoted $E(X)$ or μ_X . If X is a discrete RV with PMF $p(x)$, then $E(X) = \sum_x xp(x)$ (where the sum is taken over all possible values for X).

Definition. A random variable X has a **Bernoulli distribution** with parameter p (with $0 < p < 1$) if X has possible values 0 and 1 with $P(X = 1) = p$ and $P(X = 0) = 1 - p$. The outcome 1 is often referred to as “success” while 0 is “failure” and the experiment is often called a Bernoulli trial.

Definition. The total number of successes in n independent, identically distributed (iid) Bernoulli trials with parameter p is a random variable with a **binomial distribution**. The PMF of a random variable X having a binomial distribution with parameters n and p is

$$b(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \text{ for } x = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

R Implementation. If $X \sim \text{binom}(n, p)$, then the PMF is `dbinom(x, n, p)` and the CDF is `pbinom(x, n, p)`.

Definition. Suppose n elements are to be selected without replacement from a population of size $N = M_1 + M_2$ where M_1 is the number of successes and M_2 is the number of failures. The number of successes selected is a **hypergeometric** random variable and its PMF is

$$h(x) = \frac{\binom{M_1}{x} \binom{N-M_1}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}} = \frac{\binom{M_1}{x} \binom{M_2}{n-x}}{\binom{M_1+M_2}{n}}$$

R Implementation. If $Y \sim \text{hyper}(M_1, M_2, n)$, then the PMF is `dhyper(x, M1, M2, n)` and the CDF is `phyper(x, M1, M2, n)`.

Note. A standard deck of cards has 52 cards in 4 suits: spades ♠, hearts ♥, clubs ♣, and diamonds ♦. Spades and clubs are black suits, while hearts and diamonds are red suits. Within each suit there are 13 ranks: 2, 3, 4, . . . , 10, Jack, Queen, King, and Ace. Together, a rank and a suit uniquely identify the card (cards are 2-dimensional).

1. Suppose 10 cards are dealt from a well-shuffled deck.

a) Find the probability that exactly 5 are hearts.

b) Find the probability that 5 or more are hearts.

2. Suppose now that you shuffle the deck and look at the top card 10 times.

a) Find the probability that exactly 5 of the cards you see are hearts.

b) Find the probability that 5 or more are hearts.

3. For this problem, suppose you have created a mega deck by shuffling together 10 regular decks (for a total of 520 cards).

a) Find the probability that exactly 5 are hearts if you deal 10 cards from the mega deck.

b) Find the probability that exactly 5 cards are hearts when you shuffle and look at the top card 10 times.

c) Repeat both parts a and b for a super-mega deck of 5200 cards.

d) Any observations?

4. Return to a regular deck of 52 cards. The goal this time is to find the PMF of a new distribution in which you count the number of cards you must look at to find a heart. For this problem, take the inefficient approach of shuffling and looking at just the top card. Return the card to the deck and repeat until you see a heart. Let X be the number of times you do this (including the time when you see the heart and stop).

a) What are the possible values for X ?

b) Find the PMF for X .

5. This is the more reasonable version of the previous problem: deal cards from a well-shuffled deck until you deal a heart. Let Y be the number of cards you deal (including the heart).

a) What are the possible values for Y ?

b) Find the PMF for Y .

6. Suppose you're studying abroad in Florence and, as you leave for school one morning, you find a coin in the pocket of your jacket. You don't look at the coin, but you can tell it's either a €1 or a €2 coin; you figure both are equally likely. On your way out, a friend pays you back for the coffee you bought the other day with a €1 coin that you drop in the same pocket. Then you stop for coffee and randomly select a coin from the pocket: it's a €1 coin. What is the probability that the remaining coin is €2?