

PROBABILITY THEORY

1^o LECTURE - 26/11/2018

Aim of Probability theory: Provide mathematical descriptions of a random experiment, whose outcome is unknown a priori:

- Probability models: sample space and probability
- Observable of the experiment: random variables and distributions

Probability space

1. Sample space $\Omega = \{ \text{outcomes of experiment} \}$

Ex: * choice of 1 card from a deck: $\Omega = \{ \text{set of distinct cards} \}$

* # client arrivals in a service: $\Omega = \mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

* waiting time on a queue: $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^+$

2. σ -algebra of events \mathcal{F} :

events are subsets $A \subset \Omega$ to which we will assign a probability

Denote by $\mathcal{P}(\Omega) = \{ A \subset \Omega \}$ power set of Ω

* When Ω is uncountable (e.g. \mathbb{R} , or $[a,b] \subset \mathbb{R}$)

the set $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ is too big for concrete applications

and is better to consider a "suitable" family of

events $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$. To develop a concrete theory,

we ask \mathcal{F} to be a σ -algebra:

1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$

2. if $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$ (closed w.r.t. complement)

3. if $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ (closed w.r.t. countable union)

When $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ (or $[a, b]$), as it will be in all the L
 situation we will consider, we choose the σ -algebra
 of Borel: $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ (or $\mathcal{B}([a, b])$).

This is the σ -algebra that includes all open sets
 (and then closed sets!) and can be identified as
 the σ -algebra containing all the half lines
 $\{S = (-\infty, t], t \in \mathbb{R}\} = \mathcal{F}$ (useful when we will speak
 about distributions)

The couple (Ω, \mathcal{F}) is called measurable space.

3. Given (Ω, \mathcal{F}) (when Ω is discrete, $\mathcal{F} \equiv \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$),
 a function $P: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a probability if
 $A \rightarrow P(A)$

i. $P(\Omega) = 1$

ii. $\{A_m\}_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a family of disjoint subsets \mathcal{F} ,

$$P\left(\bigsqcup_{m \in \mathbb{N}} A_m\right) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{N}} P(A_m) \quad (\sigma\text{-additivity})$$

Remark: From i. and ii. we get (prove as exercise)

• $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$

• $\text{If } A \subset B \Rightarrow P(A) \leq P(B)$ (monotonicity)

• $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$

• $P\left(\bigcup_{k=1}^m A_k\right) = \sum_{k=1}^m (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{i_1 < \dots < i_k} P(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k})$ (inclusion-exclusion formula)

↑ prove by induction

Then (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) is a probability space.

Example 1: Uniform DISCRETE space (sampling from a finite population)

Let Ω finite, $|\Omega| = \#$ of outcomes $< \infty$. $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$

Assume that all outcomes are equally likely:

$w \in \Omega : P(w) = c \quad c = \text{constant}$

$\bullet \Rightarrow 1 = P(\bigcup_{w \in \Omega} \{w\}) = \sum_{w \in \Omega} P(w) = c |\Omega| \Leftrightarrow c = \frac{1}{|\Omega|}$

$\bullet \Rightarrow A \subset \Omega : P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$
 $A = c |\{w\}|$

Example 2: Uniform CONTINUOUS space (on interval)

Let $\Omega = [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$

All outcomes are equally likely, meaning that any infinitesimal interval dx has same probability -

Notice: In that case $P(w) = 0 \quad \forall w \in \Omega$. Otherwise we will have the contradiction $1 = P(\Omega) \geq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P(w_n) = \infty \neq 1$
 $\hookrightarrow (w_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a sequence in $[a, b]$

If $I \subset [a, b]$ is an interval, we set

$\bullet P(I) = \frac{\int_I dx}{l([a, b])} = \frac{l(I)}{l([a, b])}$, $l(I) = \text{length of } I = \text{Lebesgue measure of } I$

and in general, for $A = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} I_n$

$\bullet P(A) = \int_A \frac{dx}{l([a, b])}$ (by σ -additivity)

This measure can be assigned to every $E \in \mathcal{B}([a, b])$.

Probability Properties

1. Continuity of the probability

Let $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ events in \mathcal{F} . We say that

• $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is increasing if $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots \subset A_n \dots$



• $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing if $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset \dots \supset A_n \dots$



Prop: If $(A_n) \in \mathcal{F}$ st. is decreasing or increasing, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) = P(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n)$$

↳ Notice that if $(A_n) \uparrow \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$

if $(A_n) \downarrow \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ *

2. Limsup and Liminf of events

Def: Let $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ sequence of events in \mathcal{F} . Define

1. $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bigcup_{k \geq n} A_k \stackrel{\textcircled{1}}{=} \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k \geq n} A_k$

2. $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bigcap_{k \geq n} A_k \stackrel{\textcircled{2}}{=} \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k \geq n} A_k$

Notice: If $B_m := \bigcup_{k \geq m} A_k \forall m \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow (B_m)_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \downarrow$
and identity $\textcircled{1}$ follows from *.

If $B_m = \bigcap_{k \geq m} A_k \forall m \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow (B_m)_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \uparrow$
and identity $\textcircled{2}$ follows from *.

Interpretation:

1. $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \forall n, \exists k > n$ s.t. A_k happens^u
 $= \{A_n \text{ infinitely often}\} = \{A_n \text{ i.o.}\}$

2. $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \exists m$ s.t. $\forall k > m$ A_k happens^u
 $= \{A_n \text{ eventually}\} = \{A_n \text{ ev}\}$

Properties:

• $(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n)^c = \left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k>n} A_k \right)^c = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{k>n} A_k^c = \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c$

and similarly: $(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n)^c = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c$

• $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n \subseteq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$ (verify as an exercise)

Lemma de Borel-Cantelli

1. If $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) < +\infty$
 $\Rightarrow P(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n) = 0$

2. If $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{F}$ s.t. A_n are ... and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) = +\infty$
 $\Rightarrow P(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n) = 1$

Example: Infinite toss coin, with Head = 1, Tail = 0

Then $\Omega = \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}} \ni \omega = (\omega_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ with $P(\omega_j = 1) = P$

Set $A_n = \{\omega : \omega_n = 1\}$ so that $P(A_n) = P$

→

Then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) = \infty$ and also $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n^c) = \infty$ 16

Since the events $A_n, n \in \mathbb{N}$ are independent, by the lemma of BC

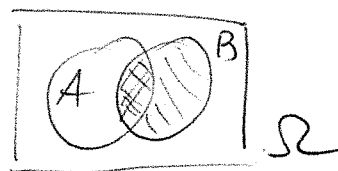
$$P(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n) = 1 \text{ and } P(\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n) = 1 - P(\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n^c) = 0 \quad \#$$

3. Conditional probability

For $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ st $P(B) \neq 0$, define

$$(*) \quad P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \quad \text{conditional probability (probability of } A \text{ given } B)$$

From $(*)$ we derive useful rules:



• Bayes formula

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

$$P(A) = P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|B^c)P(B^c)$$

$$\text{If } \Omega = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^n B_i : P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A|B_i)P(B_i)$$

$$\uparrow \text{ since } \Omega = B \cup B^c$$

4. Independence of events

$$A, B \subset \Omega \text{ are independent if } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} P(A|B) = P(A) \\ P(B|A) = P(B) \end{array} \right. \Leftrightarrow P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

Note: If A, B independent, then A^c, B indep, A, B^c indep, and A^c, B^c indep. (prove as exercise!)

$$\text{e.g. } P(A) = P(B \cap A) + P(B^c \cap A) = P(B)P(A) + P(B^c \cap A)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(B^c \cap A) = P(A)(1 - P(B)) = P(A)P(B^c) \quad \#$$

Bernoulli trials (Example of probability space constructed) [7]
(free independence)

$\Omega_n = \{ \underline{\omega} = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n), \omega_j \in \{0, 1\}, \forall j=1, \dots, n \}$
= sequence of 0, 1, corresponding (respect.) to fail or success of some experiment repeated n times

Assume that $P(\omega_j) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } \omega_j = 1 \\ 1-p & \text{if } \omega_j = 0 \end{cases}$, independently $\forall j=1, \dots, n$

or in short $P(\omega_j) = p^{\omega_j} (1-p)^{1-\omega_j}$

then $P(\underline{\omega}) = \prod_{j=1}^n P(\omega_j) = \prod_{j=1}^n p^{\omega_j} (1-p)^{1-\omega_j} = p^{\sum_{j=1}^n \omega_j} (1-p)^{n - \sum_{j=1}^n \omega_j}$

Random variables: quantities (usually numerical) depending on the experiment

$X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$
 $\omega \rightarrow X(\omega)$ (\mathcal{X} is the sample space of X , usually is $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^d, [a, b], \dots$)

$\mathcal{X} = \{ x \text{ st. } X(\omega) = x, \omega \in \Omega \}$

Ex: Indicator functions

For $A \in \mathcal{F}$, let $\mathbb{1}_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin A \end{cases}$

Note: Any r.v. X st. $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$ can be written as an indicator fct:

set $A = \{ \omega : X(\omega) = 1 \} \implies X(\omega) = \mathbb{1}_A(\omega)$

thus r.v.'s are called Bernoulli.

Consider the measurable space $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{E})$, where \mathcal{E} is σ -algebra on \mathcal{X} (e.g. $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{X})$ or $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$):

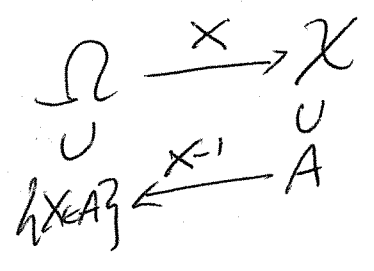
* For $A \in \mathcal{E}$, let

$$X^{-1}(A) \equiv \{X \in A\} := \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A\} \subset \Omega$$

e.g. $\{X = a\} = \{X \in \{a\}\} = \{\omega : X(\omega) = a\}$

$$\{X > a\} = \{X \in (a, +\infty)\} = \{\omega : X(\omega) > a\}$$

These are the events generated by X:



* Law (or distribution) of X on (X, E)

Define $P_X : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow [0, 1]$
 $A \rightarrow P_X(A) := P(X \in A)$

P_X is the law of X (and is a probability on (X, \mathcal{E}))
 $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow (X, \mathcal{E}, P_X)$

Discrete R.V.:

If X is a r.v. on X discrete (finite or countable)

we let $(P_X(a), a \in X)$ be the density of X.

The density identifies the law of X through

$$P_X(A) = \sum_{a \in A} P_X(a) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{as } A = \bigcup_{a \in A} \{a\} \\ \text{and } P_X \text{ is a prob.} \end{array} \right)$$

Examples $\rightarrow \sum_{a \in \Omega} P_X(a) = 1$

1. $X \sim \text{Be}(p)$, $p \in [0, 1]$ Bernoulli's law

if $X = \{0, 1\}$, $P_X(1) = P(X=1) = p$, $P_X(0) = P(X=0) = 1-p$

2. Binomial (n, p) , $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $p \in [0, 1]$

$X \sim \text{Bi}(n, p)$ if $X = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ and

$$P_x(k) = P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad \text{if } k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$$

3. Geometric p , $p \in [0, 1]$

$X \sim \text{Geo}(p)$ if $X = \mathbb{N}$ and

$$P_x(k) = (1-p)^{k-1} \cdot p$$

4. Uniform (discrete) on X

$X \sim U(X)$ if $P_x(k) = \frac{1}{|X|}$ if $k \in X$

5. Poisson λ , $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+$

$X \sim P_0(\lambda)$ if $X = \mathbb{N}_0$

$$P_x(k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$$

(Verify as an exercise that $\sum_{a \in \Omega} P_x(a) = 1$) \uparrow

2. CONTINUOUS R.V.

If X is a continuous space (say \mathbb{R}), to assign a law P_x is equivalent to provide the distribution function of X .

Def: Let X w. on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) or value on X .

The distribution function

$$F_x: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow [0, 1], \quad x \in \mathbb{R} \\ x \longmapsto P(X \leq x)$$

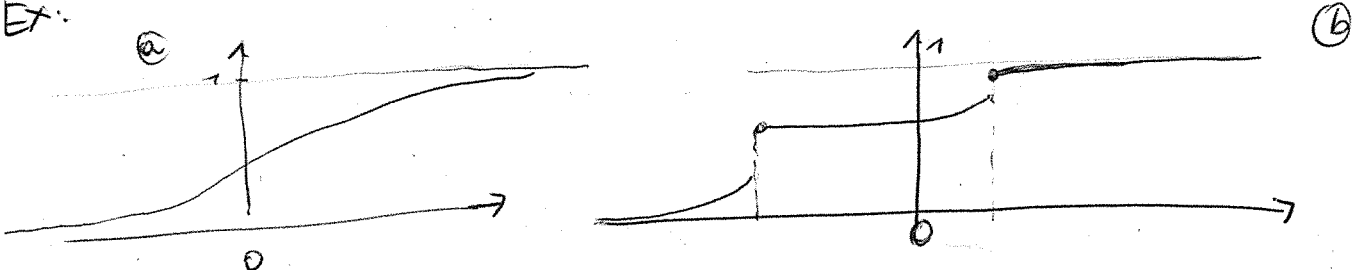
Properties of F :

1) F_X is monotone increasing

2) $F_X(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow +\infty} 1$, $F_X(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow -\infty} 0$

3) F_X is right continuous: $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} F_X(x) = F_X(x_0)$

Ex:



Notice that it may be

$$F_X(x_0^-) := \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F_X(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} F_X(x) = F_X(x_0) \quad (\text{as in (b)})$$

So that case
$$\mathbb{P}(X=x_0) = F_X(x_0^-) - F_X(x_0) \quad (*)$$

Through the distr. function we can compute the probability of all events of interest. \Rightarrow

Ex: Let X r.v. with
$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(1+\frac{x}{2}) & x \in [-1, 1] \\ 1 & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

Compute:

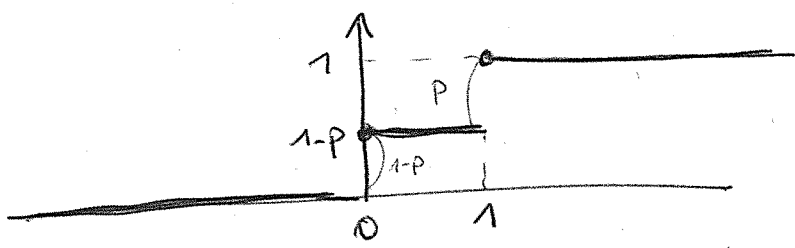
- a. $\mathbb{P}(X \leq 0)$
- b. $\mathbb{P}(X > \frac{1}{2})$
- c. $\mathbb{P}(0 < X < \frac{1}{2})$
- d. $\mathbb{P}(X=1)$

Discrete RV: If X is a discrete r.v., then

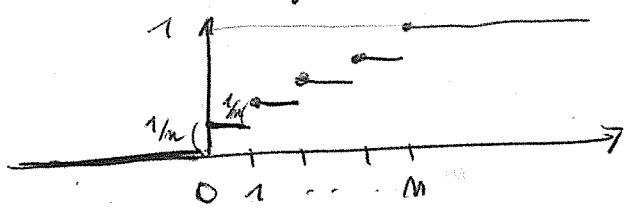
$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = \sum_{\substack{\text{KEY} \\ k \leq x}} \mathbb{P}(X=k)$$

$\Rightarrow F_X$ is a constant step function with jumps given by (*).

Ex 1 $X \sim \text{Be}(p)$ $P(X=0)=1-p, P(X=1)=p$



Ex 2 $X \sim U\{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$ $P(X=k) = \frac{1}{m} \quad \forall k \in \{0, \dots, m-1\}$



Notice that $F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = P(X \in (-\infty, x])$,
 thus, assigning F_X is equivalent to assign a probability
 to all the half-lines $\mathcal{J} = \{S = (-\infty, x], x \in \mathbb{R}\}$,
 and thus to all the element of $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, that is
 the σ -algebra containing \mathcal{J} .

Continuous R.V.

If X is an uncountable space (X a cont. r.v.)
 is not anymore true that $P(X \in A) = \sum_{a \in A} P(X=a)$

Indeed, $A = \bigcup_{a \in A} \{a\}$ may be uncountable and then

$P(A) \neq \sum_{a \in A} P_x(a)$ (true only for countable union)

More particular, it holds that $P(X=a) = 0 \quad \forall a \in X$
 but a finite or countable set

The most studied case is when F_X is a continuous
 function obtained as integral of a density fct.

Def: X is an absolutely continuous r.v. if $\exists f_x: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ \square

$$\text{s.t. } \bar{F}_x(t) = \int_0^t f_x(s) ds$$

f_x is called density of X and satisfies the following:

1. $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f_x(x) dx = 1$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f_x(x) = 0$
3. $f_x(x) = F'_x(x)$
 $\forall x$ s.t. f_x is continuous

Then we have: $\forall A \in \mathcal{F}, P_x(A) = \int_A f_x(x) dx$

Average (or mean)

• Discrete case:

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x \cdot P(X=x)$$

Moreover if $g: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then $g \circ X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and we have

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} g(x) P(X=x)$$

• Continuous case (with density)

$$E(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x \cdot f_x(x) dx$$

Moreover, if $g: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ then $g \circ X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and we have

$$E(g(X)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) f_x(x) dx$$

Properties:

1. Monotonicity: if $X \leq Y \Rightarrow E(X) \leq E(Y)$
2. Linearity: $E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b$

Example

• If $\mu = E(X)$ and $g(x) = (x - \mu)^2$, then

$$E((X - \mu)^2) = \text{Var}(X)$$

" "

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} (x - \mu)^2 f_X(x) dx \quad \left(\text{or } \sum_{x \in X} (x - \mu)^2 P(X=x) \text{ in discrete case} \right)$$

and it turns out from monotonicity that $\text{Var}(X) \geq 0$

Mixed distribution: If X is continuous but not absolutely continuous, that is F_X has some jumps, then proceed as follows:

• Set $H_X(x) = \sum_{y \leq x} F_X(y) - F_X(y^-) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

• Set $G_X(x) = F_X(x) - H_X(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

and by construction notice that G_X is continuous

• Define $g_X(x) = G_X'(x)$ (see points over \mathbb{R} where this is well defined)

Then $E(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x \cdot g_X(x) dx + \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x \cdot P(X=x)$

and $E[h(X)] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) g_X(x) dx + \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} h(x) \cdot P(X=x)$