

# Probability (10A)

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# Conditional Probability

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

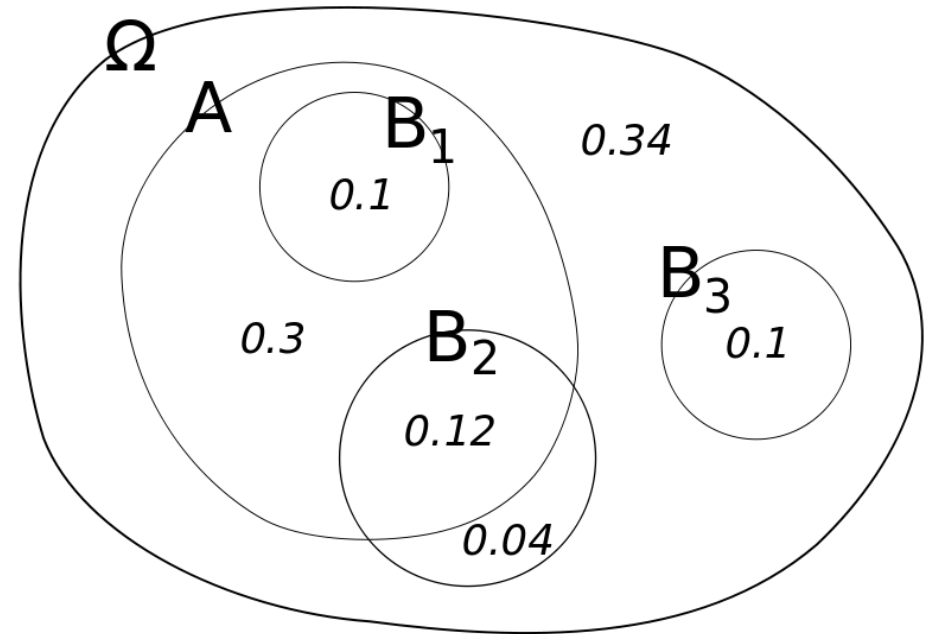
Given two events **A** and **B** with  $P(B) > 0$ , the conditional probability of **A given B** is defined as the quotient of the probability of the **joint of events A and B**, and the probability of **B**:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditional\\_probability](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditional_probability)

# Conditional Probability Examples (1)

The unconditional probability  
 $P(A) = 0.52$ .  
the conditional probability  
 $P(A|B_1) = 1$ ,  
 $P(A|B_2) = 0.75$ , and  
 $P(A|B_3) = 0$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll} P(A \cap B_1) = 0.1 & P(B_1) = 0.1 \\ P(A \cap B_2) = 0.12 & P(B_2) = 0.16 \\ P(A \cap B_3) = 0 & P(B_3) = 0.1 \end{array}$$



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditional\\_probability](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditional_probability)

# Conditional Probability Examples (2)

sample space

**E** : at least two consecutive zero's

**F** : starting with a zero

S	E	F	$E \cap F$
□ □ □ □	□ □ □ □	□ □ □ □	□ □ □ □
0, 0, 0, 0	0, 0, 0, 0	0, 0, 0, 0	0, 0, 0, 0
0, 0, 0, 1	0, 0, 0, 1	0, 0, 0, 1	0, 0, 0, 1
0, 0, 1, 0	0, 0, 1, 0	0, 0, 1, 0	0, 0, 1, 0
0, 0, 1, 1	0, 0, 1, 1	0, 0, 1, 1	0, 0, 1, 1
0, 1, 0, 0	0, 1, 0, 0	0, 1, 0, 0	0, 1, 0, 0
0, 1, 0, 1	<del>0, 1, 0, 1</del>	0, 1, 0, 1	<del>0, 1, 0, 1</del>
0, 1, 1, 0	<del>0, 1, 1, 0</del>	0, 1, 1, 0	<del>0, 1, 1, 0</del>
0, 1, 1, 1	<del>0, 1, 1, 1</del>	0, 1, 1, 1	<del>0, 1, 1, 1</del>
1, 0, 0, 0	1, 0, 0, 0		
1, 0, 0, 1	1, 0, 0, 1		
1, 0, 1, 0	<del>1, 0, 1, 0</del>		
1, 0, 1, 1	<del>1, 0, 1, 1</del>		
1, 1, 0, 0	1, 1, 0, 0		
1, 1, 0, 1	<del>1, 1, 0, 1</del>		
1, 1, 1, 0	<del>1, 1, 1, 0</del>		
1, 1, 1, 1	<del>1, 1, 1, 1</del>		

$$P(E) = \frac{8}{16}$$

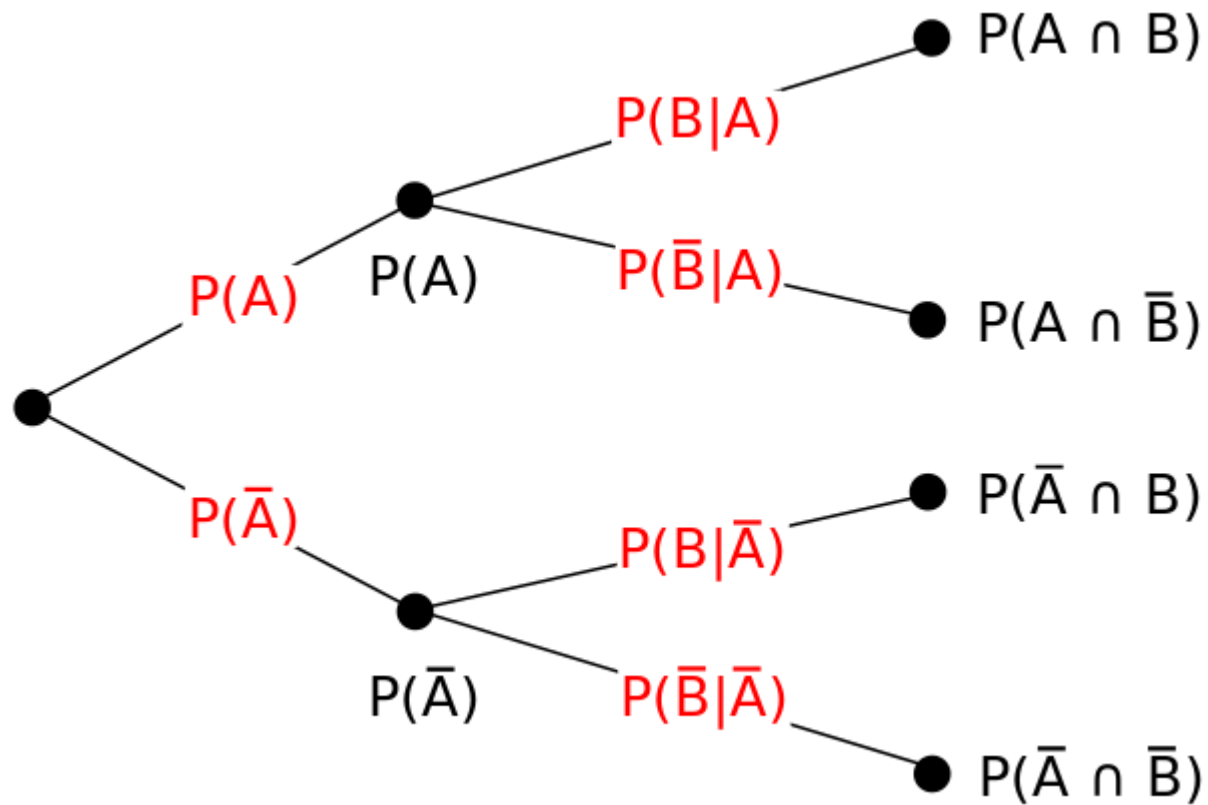
$$P(F) = \frac{8}{16}$$

$$P(E \cap F) = \frac{5}{16}$$

$$P(E|F) = \frac{5}{8}$$

$$\frac{P(E \cap F)}{P(F)} = \frac{5/16}{8/16}$$

# Intersection Probability



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditional\\_probability](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conditional_probability)

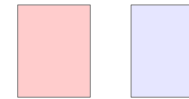
# Independence

two events are (statistically) **independent** if the occurrence of one does not affect the probability of occurrence of the other.


Similarly, two random variables are independent if the realization of one does not affect the probability distribution of the other.



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

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




$$1/2$$


$$1/2$$


$$1/4 = (1/2)(1/2)$$

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Independence\\_\(probability\\_theory\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Independence_(probability_theory))

# Independence

$$\begin{aligned}P(A|B) &= P(A) \\ P(B|A) &= P(B)\end{aligned}$$



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

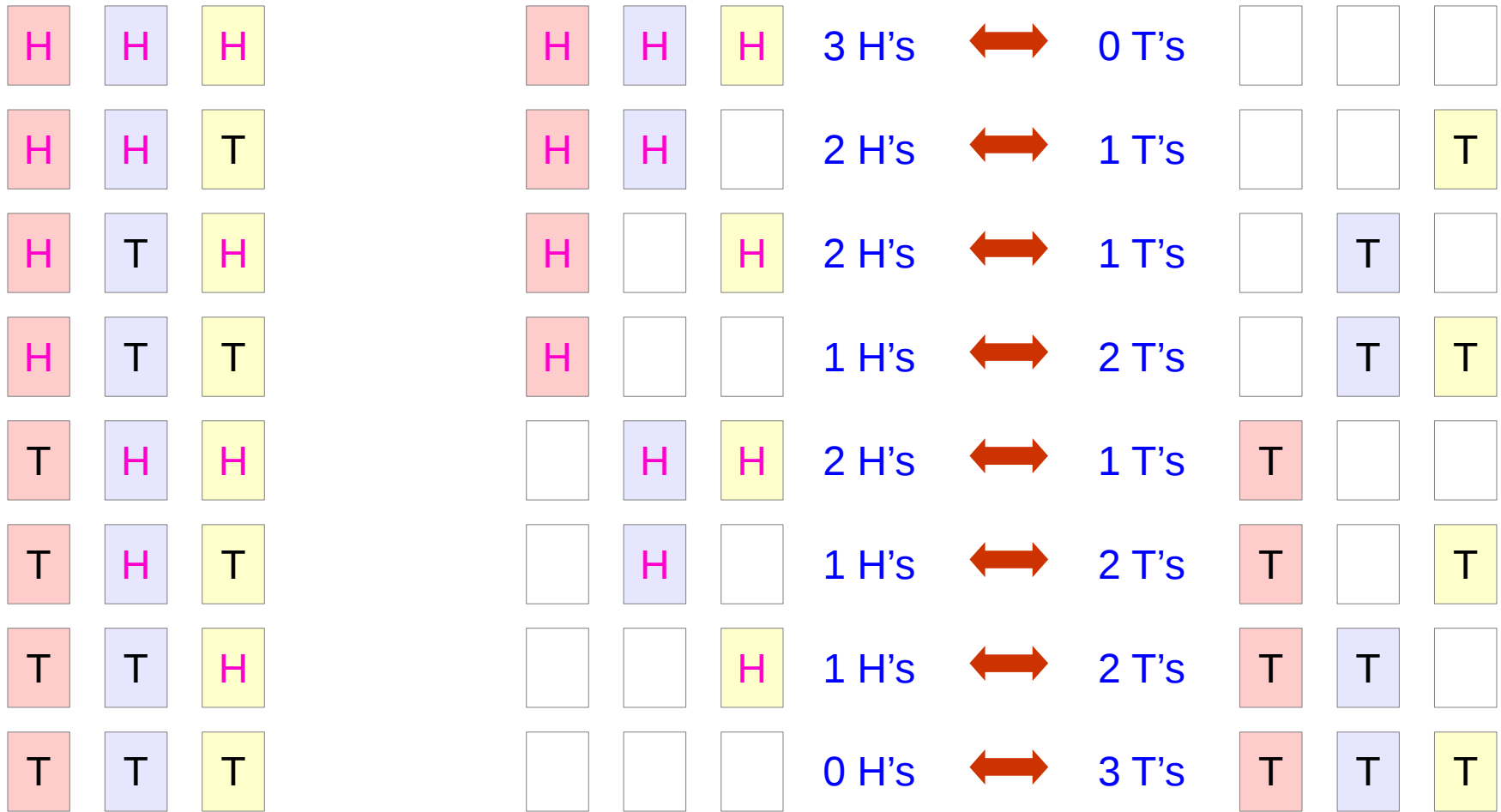
$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) \Leftrightarrow P(A) = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = P(A | B)$$

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

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Independence\\_\(probability\\_theory\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Independence_(probability_theory))



# Coin Tossing Experiment (1)



Counting heads only

Counting tails only

# Coin Tossing Experiment (2)

H	H	H
H	H	T
H	T	H
H	T	T
T	H	H
T	H	T
T	T	H
T	T	T

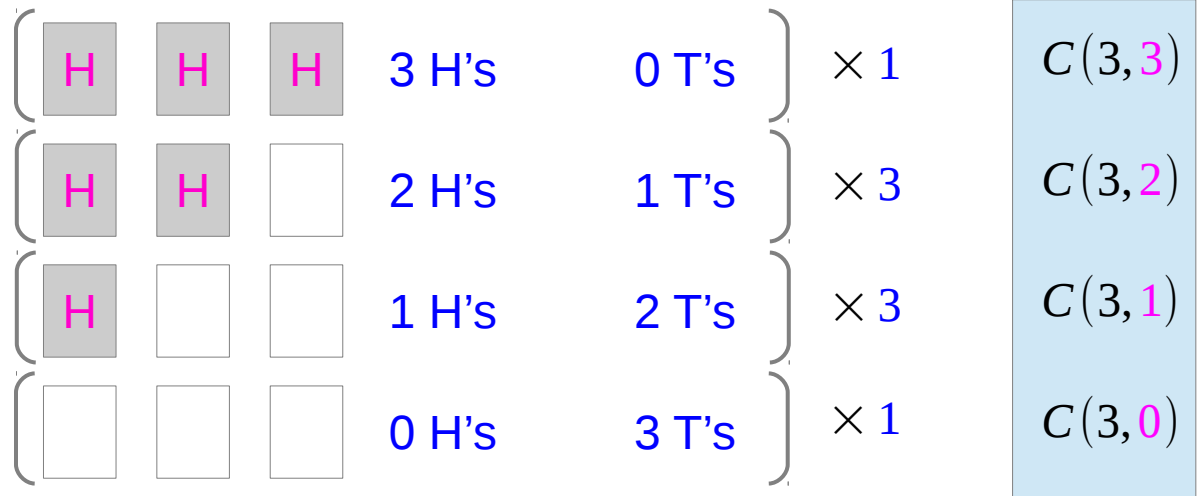
H	H	H	3 H's	0 T's
H	H		2 H's	1 T's
H	H		2 H's	1 T's
H			1 H's	2 T's
H	H		2 H's	1 T's
H			1 H's	2 T's
H			1 H's	2 T's
			0 H's	3 T's

Counting heads only



determines tails

# Coin Tossing Experiment (3)



Consider a combination  
Not a permutation

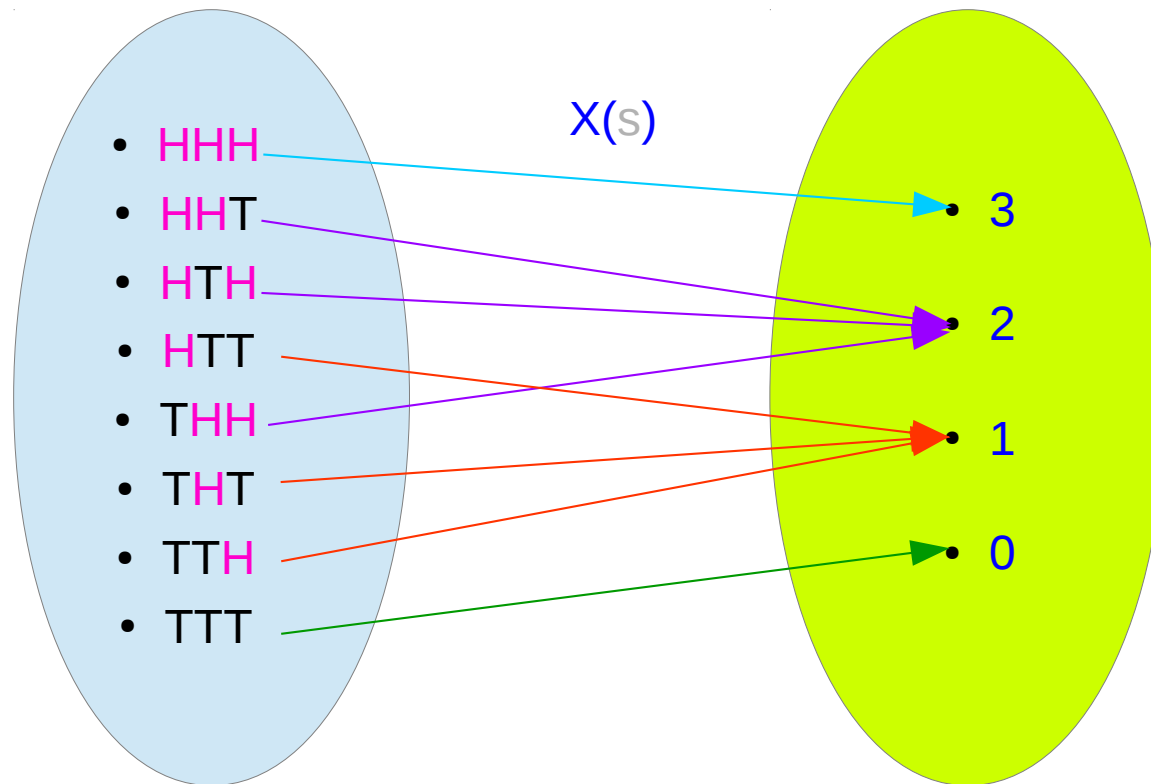
# Coin Tossing Experiment (4)

H	H	H	$p^3$	$\left( \begin{array}{ccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ p & p & p \end{array} \right)$	3 H's 0 T's	$\times 1 \Rightarrow$	$p^3 \cdot C(3,3)$
H	H	T	$p^2q$				
H	T	H	$p^2q$	$\left( \begin{array}{ccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \square \\ p & p & q \end{array} \right)$	2 H's 1 T's	$\times 3 \Rightarrow$	$p^2q \cdot C(3,2)$
H	T	T	$pq^2$				
T	H	H	$p^2q$	$\left( \begin{array}{ccc} \text{H} & \square & \square \\ p & q & q \end{array} \right)$	1 H's 2 T's	$\times 3 \Rightarrow$	$pq^2 \cdot C(3,1)$
T	H	T	$pq^2$				
T	T	H	$pq^2$				
T	T	T	$q^3$	$\left( \begin{array}{ccc} \square & \square & \square \\ q & q & q \end{array} \right)$	0 H's 3 T's	$\times 1 \Rightarrow$	$q^3 \cdot C(3,0)$

# Random Variable is a function

S: Sample Space

R: Real Number



$$X(\text{HHH}) = 3$$

$$X(\text{HHT}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{HTH}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{HTT}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{THH}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{THT}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{TTH}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{TTT}) = 0$$

# Random Variable is related to events

A random variable does not return a probability.

$$X(\text{HHH}) = 3$$

$$X(\text{HHT}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{HTH}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{HTT}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{THH}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{THT}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{TTH}) = 1$$

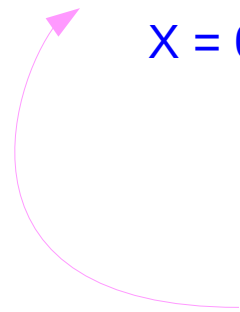
$$X(\text{TTT}) = 0$$

$$X = 3 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \text{Event } \{ \text{HHH} \}$$

$$X = 2 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \text{Event } \{ \text{HHT}, \text{HTH}, \text{THH} \}$$

$$X = 1 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \text{Event } \{ \text{HTT}, \text{THT}, \text{TTH} \}$$

$$X = 0 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \text{Event } \{ \text{TTT} \}$$

 looks like variables

# Distribution

A random variable does not return a probability.

$$X(\text{HHH}) = 3$$

$$X(\text{HHT}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{HTH}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{HTT}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{T HH}) = 2$$

$$X(\text{T HT}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{T TH}) = 1$$

$$X(\text{TTT}) = 0$$

$$p(X = 3) \iff p(\text{Event } \{ \text{HHH} \})$$

$$p(X = 2) \iff p(\text{Event } \{ \text{HHT}, \text{HTH}, \text{T HH} \})$$

$$p(X = 1) \iff p(\text{Event } \{ \text{HTT}, \text{T HT}, \text{T TH} \})$$

$$p(X = 0) \iff p(\text{Event } \{ \text{TTT} \})$$

$$P_3 = p^3 \cdot C(3, 3)$$

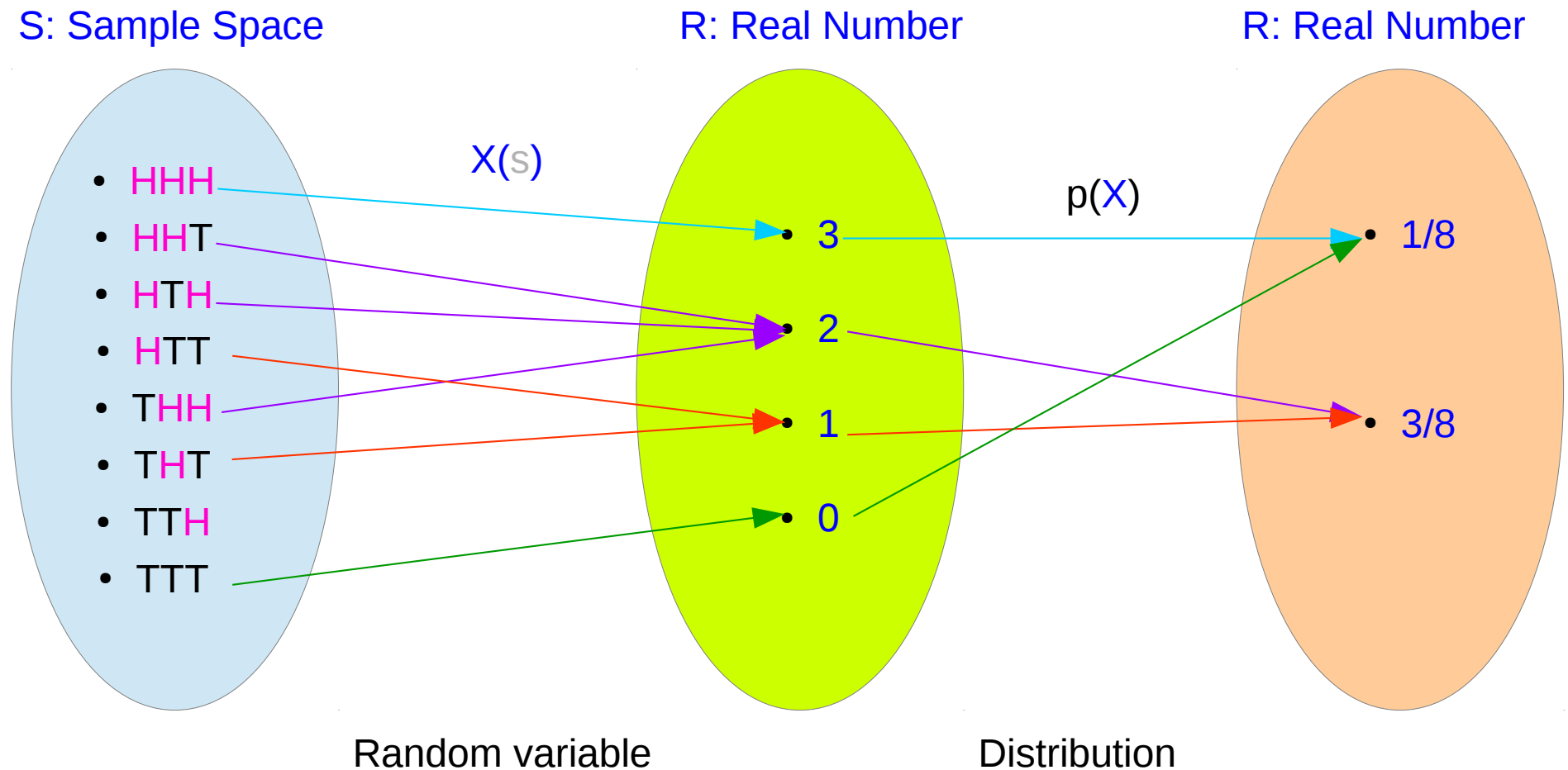
$$P_2 = p^2 q \cdot C(3, 2)$$

$$P_1 = p q^2 \cdot C(3, 1)$$

$$P_0 = q^3 \cdot C(3, 1)$$

$$\text{Distribution } \{ (0, P_0), (1, P_1), (2, P_2), (3, P_3) \}$$

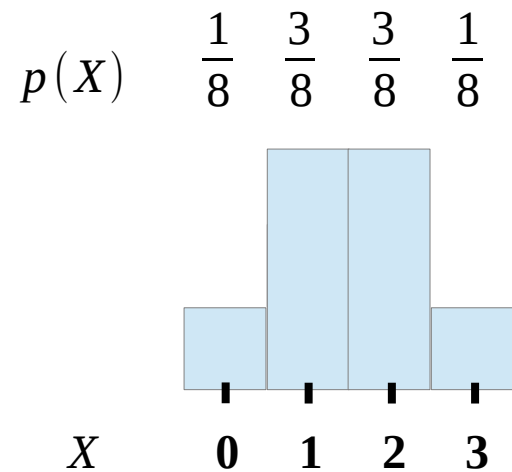
# A random variable and its distribution



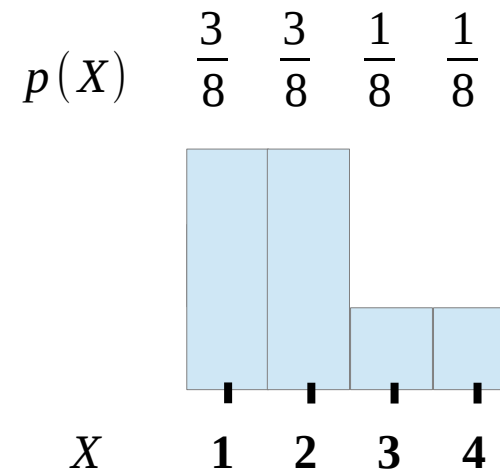


# Different Random Variable Assignments

H	H	H	3 H's	$X = 3$
H	H		2 H's	$X = 2$
H			1 H's	$X = 1$
			0 H's	$X = 0$

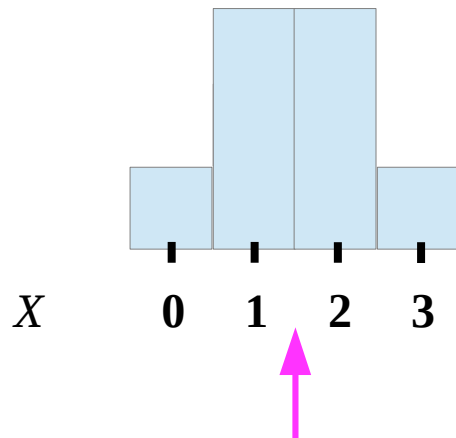


H	H	H	3 H's	$X = 4$
H	H		2 H's	$X = 1$
H			1 H's	$X = 2$
			0 H's	$X = 3$



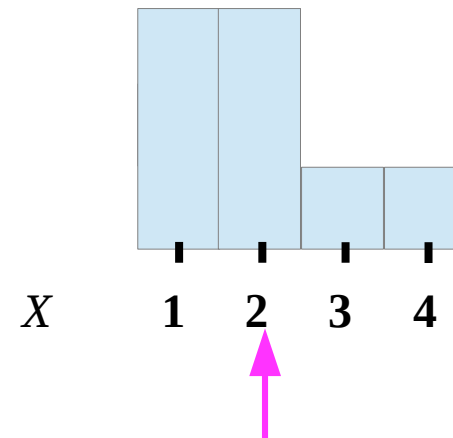
# Different Expectation Values

$$p(X) \quad \frac{1}{8} \quad \frac{3}{8} \quad \frac{3}{8} \quad \frac{1}{8}$$



$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= 0 \cdot \frac{1}{8} + 1 \cdot \frac{3}{8} + 2 \cdot \frac{3}{8} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{8} \\ &= 1.5 \end{aligned}$$

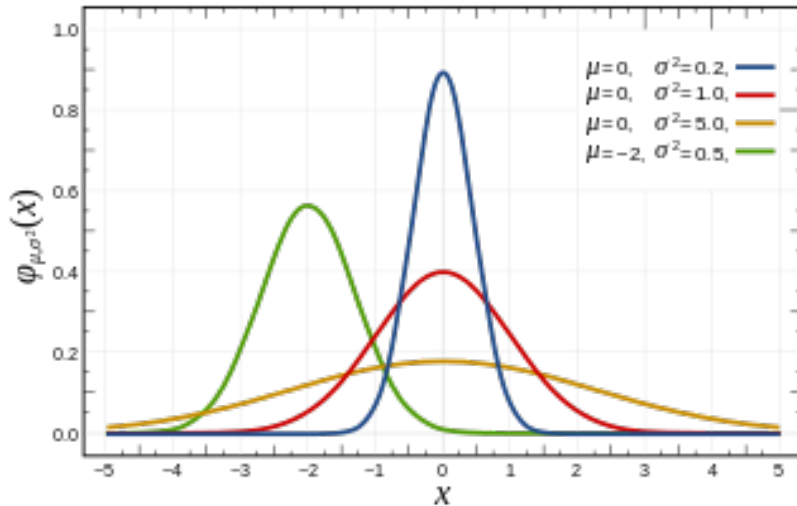
$$p(X) \quad \frac{3}{8} \quad \frac{3}{8} \quad \frac{1}{8} \quad \frac{1}{8}$$



$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= 1 \cdot \frac{3}{8} + 2 \cdot \frac{3}{8} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{8} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{8} \\ &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

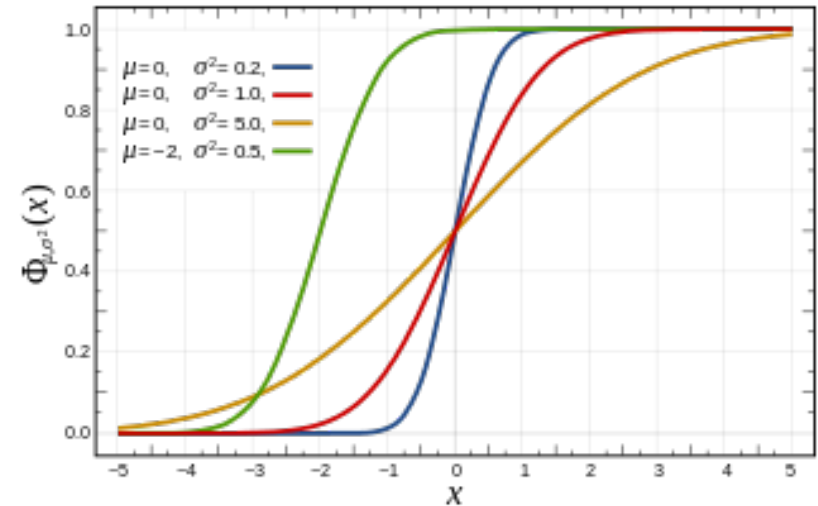
# Normal Distribution

Probability mass function



<b>Mean</b>	$\mu$
<b>Median</b>	$\mu$
<b>Mode</b>	$\mu$
<b>Variance</b>	$\sigma^2$

Cumulative distribution function

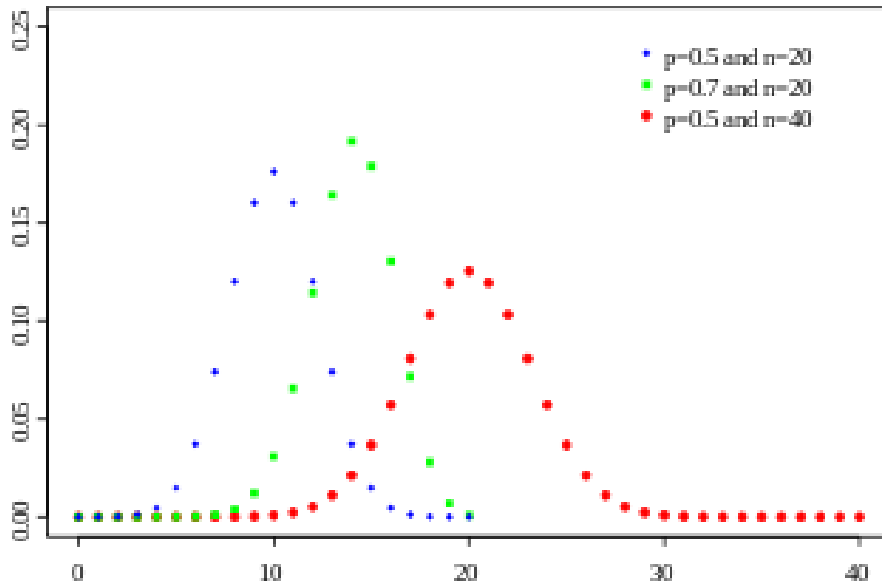


<b>Notation</b>	$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
<b>Parameters</b>	$\mu \in \mathbf{R}$ — mean ( <b>location</b> ) $\sigma^2 > 0$ — variance (squared <b>scale</b> )
<b>Support</b>	$x \in \mathbf{R}$
<b>PDF</b>	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$
<b>CDF</b>	$\frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}\right) \right]$

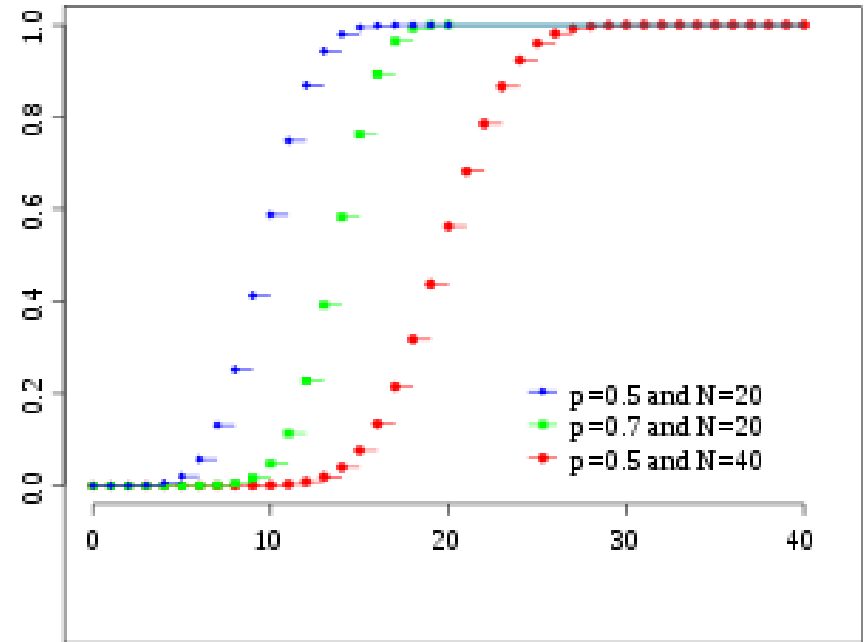
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Normal\\_distribution](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Normal_distribution)

# Binomial Distribution

Probability mass function



Cumulative distribution function



<b>Notation</b>	$B(n, p)$
<b>Parameters</b>	$n \in \mathbf{N}_0$ — number of trials $p \in [0,1]$ — success probability in each trial
<b>Support</b>	$k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ — number of successes
<b>pmf</b>	$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$
<b>CDF</b>	$I_{1-p}(n-k, 1+k)$

<b>Mean</b>	$np$
<b>Median</b>	$\lfloor np \rfloor$ or $\lceil np \rceil$
<b>Mode</b>	$\lfloor (n+1)p \rfloor$ or $\lceil (n+1)p \rceil - 1$
<b>Variance</b>	$np(1-p)$

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial\\_distribution](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial_distribution)

# Binomial Distribution

the **binomial distribution** with parameters  $n$  and  $p$

the **discrete** probability distribution of **the number of successes** in a sequence of  $n$  **independent experiments**, each asking a yes–no question, and each with its own boolean-valued outcome:

a random variable containing **single bit** of information:  
success / yes / true / one (with probability  $p$ )  
failure / no / false / zero (with probability  $q = 1 - p$ ).

A single success / failure experiment  
a **Bernoulli trial** or **Bernoulli experiment**

a single trial, i.e.,  $n = 1$ ,  
the binomial distribution is a **Bernoulli distribution**.

a sequence of outcomes  
a **Bernoulli process**

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli\\_trial](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli_trial)

# Binomial Distribution

The binomial distribution is

the basis for the **popular binomial test** of statistical significance.

frequently used to *model* the number of successes  
in a sample of size  $n$  drawn with replacement  
from a population of size  $N$ .

the sampling carried out without replacement  
the draws are **not independent**  
a **hypergeometric distribution**  
not a **binomial distribution**

for  $N$  much larger than  $n$ ,  
the **binomial distribution** remains  
a good approximation  
widely used.

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli\\_trial](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli_trial)

# Bernoulli Trial

a Bernoulli trial (or binomial trial) is a random experiment with exactly **two possible outcomes**, "success" and "failure", in which **the probability of success** is the same every time the experiment is conducted.

$$p = 1 - q$$

$$q = 1 - p$$

$$p + q = 1$$

$$P(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$$

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli\\_trial](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli_trial)

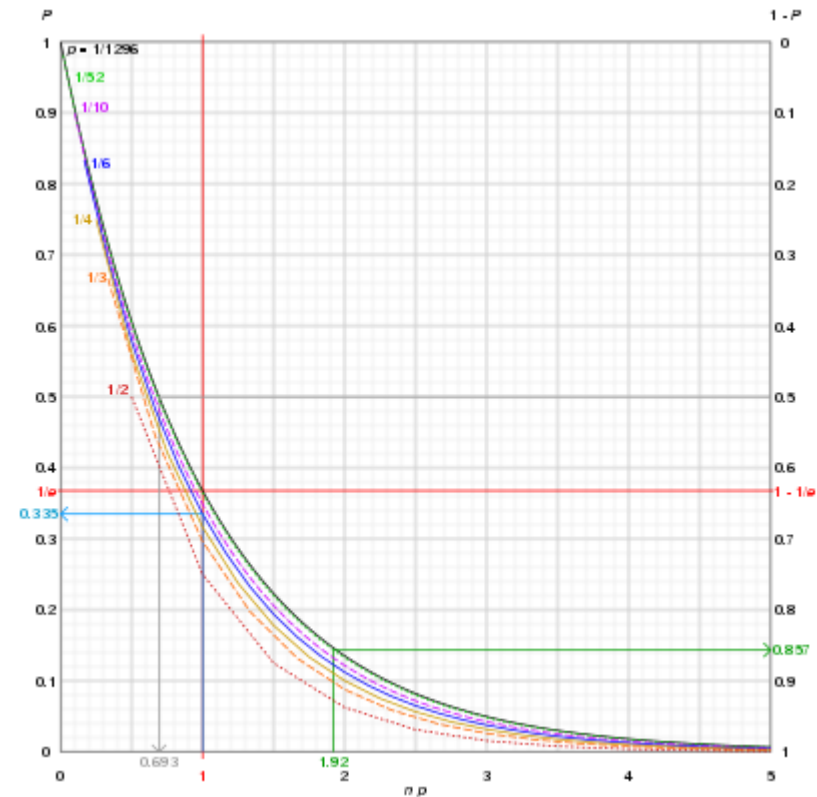
# Dependent Events

Graphs of probability  $P$  of **not** observing **independent events** each of probability  $p$  after  $n$  Bernoulli trials vs  $np$  for various  $p$ .

**Blue arrow:** Throwing a 6-sided dice 6 times gives 33.5% chance that 6 (or any other given number) never turns up; it can be observed that as  $n$  increases, the probability of a  $1/n$ -chance event never appearing after  $n$  tries rapidly converges to 0.

**Grey arrow:** To get 50-50 chance of throwing a Yahtzee (5 cubic dice all showing the same number) requires  $0.69 \times 1296 \sim 898$  throws.

**Green arrow:** Drawing a card from a deck of playing cards without jokers 100 ( $1.92 \times 52$ ) times with replacement gives 85.7% chance of drawing the ace of spades at least once.



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli\\_trial](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli_trial)



# Tossing Coins Probability

$$q = 1 - p = 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

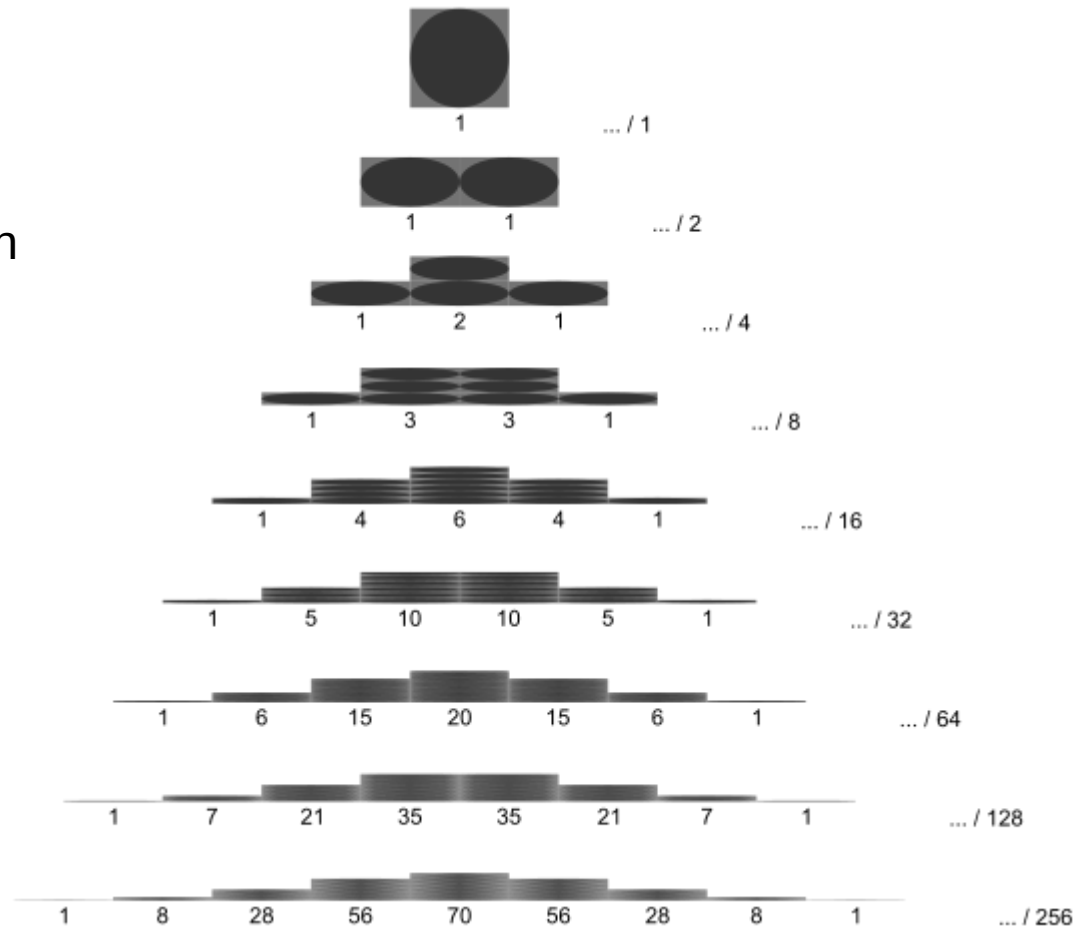
$$\begin{aligned} P(2) &= \binom{4}{2} p^2 q^2 \\ &= 6 \times \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \times \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{3}{8} \end{aligned}$$

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli\\_trial](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bernoulli_trial)

# Binomial Distribution Examples

Binomial distribution for  $p = 0.5$  with  $n$  and  $k$  as in Pascal's triangle

The probability that a ball in a Galton box with 8 layers ( $n = 8$ ) ends up in the central bin ( $k = 4$ ) is  $70 / 256$



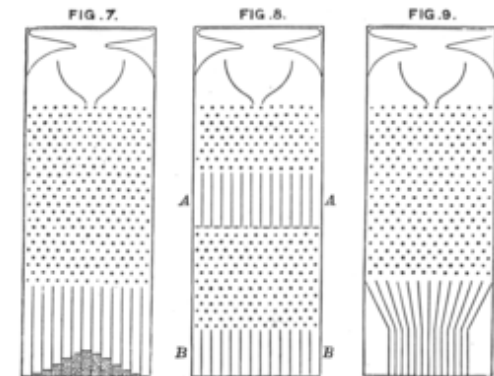
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial\\_distribution](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial_distribution)

# Bean Machine

If a ball bounces to the right  $k$  times on its way down (and to the left on the remaining pins) it ends up in the  $k$ th bin counting from the left. Denoting the number of rows of pins in a bean machine by  $n$ , the number of paths to the  $k$ th bin on the bottom is given by the **binomial coefficient**  $\binom{n}{k}$ . If the probability of bouncing right on a pin is  $p$  (which equals 0.5 on an unbiased machine) the probability that the ball ends up in the  $k$ th bin equals  $\binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$ .

This is the probability mass function of a **binomial distribution**.

According to the **central limit theorem** (more specifically, the **de Moivre-Laplace theorem**), the binomial distribution approximates the normal distribution provided that  $n$ , the number of rows of pins in the machine, is large.



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bean\\_machine](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bean_machine)

# Binomial Distribution – Mean

$$\begin{aligned}\mu &= \sum_{k=0}^n k \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\ &= np \sum_{k=0}^n k \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-k)!k!} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(k-1)} \\ &= np \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(n-1)!}{((n-1)-(k-1))!(k-1)!} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(k-1)} \\ &= np \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(k-1)} \\ &= np \sum_{\ell=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{\ell} p^{\ell} (1-p)^{(n-1)-\ell} && \text{with } \ell := k-1 \\ &= np \sum_{\ell=0}^m \binom{m}{\ell} p^{\ell} (1-p)^{m-\ell} && \text{with } m := n-1 \\ &= np(p + (1-p))^m \\ &= np\end{aligned}$$

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial\\_distribution](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial_distribution)

# Binomial Distribution – Variance

$$X = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$$

$$E[X_i] = p$$

$$E[X] = E[X_1 + \cdots + X_n] = E[X_1] + \cdots + E[X_n] = \underbrace{p + \cdots + p}_{n \text{ times}} = np$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = np(1 - p).$$

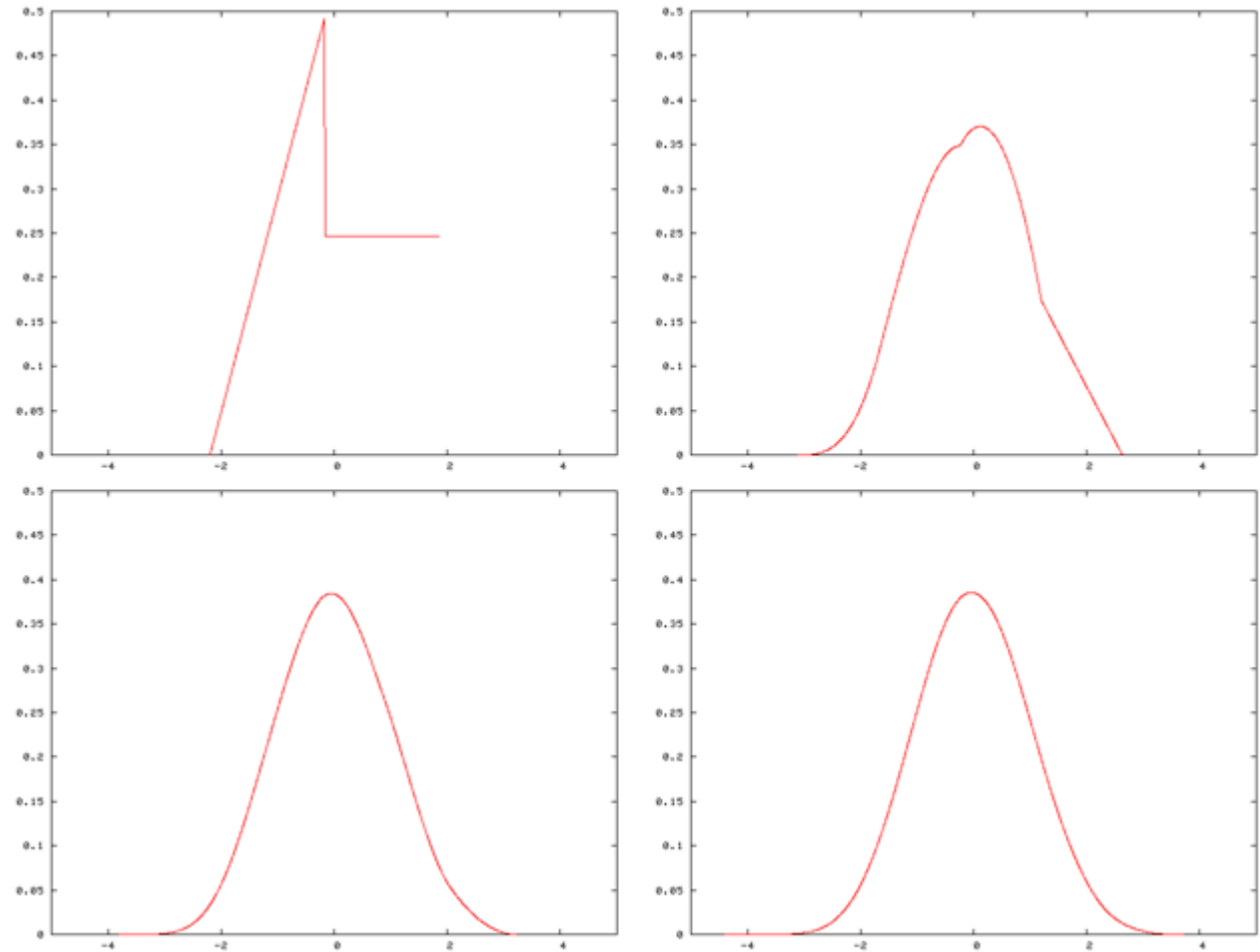
$$\text{Var}(X_i) = p(1 - p)$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \text{Var}(X_1 + \cdots + X_n) = \text{Var}(X_1) + \cdots + \text{Var}(X_n) = n \text{Var}(X_1) = np(1 - p).$$

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial\\_distribution/wiki/Algorithm](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Binomial_distribution/wiki/Algorithm)

# Central Limit Theorem

A distribution being "smoothed out" by summation, showing original density of distribution and three subsequent summations;



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Central\\_limit\\_theorem#/media/File:Central\\_limit\\_thm.png](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Central_limit_theorem#/media/File:Central_limit_thm.png)

# Central Limit Theorem

## Classical CLT [ edit ]

Let  $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$  be a **random sample** of size  $n$  — that is, a sequence of **independent and identically distributed** random variables drawn from distributions of **expected values** given by  $\mu$  and finite **variances** given by  $\sigma^2$ . Suppose we are interested in the **sample average**

$$S_n := \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

of these random variables. By the **law of large numbers**, the sample averages **converge in probability** and **almost surely** to the expected value  $\mu$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . The classical central limit theorem describes the size and the distributional form of the stochastic fluctuations around the deterministic number  $\mu$  during this convergence. More precisely, it states that as  $n$  gets larger, the distribution of the difference between the sample average  $S_n$  and its limit  $\mu$ , when multiplied by the factor  $\sqrt{n}$  (that is  $\sqrt{n}(S_n - \mu)$ ), approximates the **normal distribution** with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma^2$ . For large enough  $n$ , the distribution of  $S_n$  is close to the normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ . The usefulness of the theorem is that the distribution of  $\sqrt{n}(S_n - \mu)$  approaches normality regardless of the shape of the distribution of the individual  $X_i$ . Formally, the theorem can be stated as follows:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Central\\_limit\\_theorem](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Central_limit_theorem)

## References

- [1] <http://en.wikipedia.org/>
- [2]