

Lecture 1

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Abstract

A course based on the book Probabilities and Random Processes by Geoffrey Grimmett and David Stirzaker. Chapter 1. Events and their probabilities. Chapter 2. Random variables and their distributions.

1 Probability space

A random experiment is modeled in terms of a *probability space* $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

- the *sample space* Ω is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment,
- the σ -field (or sigma-algebra) \mathcal{F} is a collection of measurable subsets $A \subset \Omega$ (which are called *random events*) satisfying
 1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$,
 2. if $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$, $0 = 1, 2, \dots$, then $\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$, countable unions,
 3. if $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then $A^c \in \mathcal{F}$, *complementary event*,
- the probability measure \mathbb{P} is a function on \mathcal{F} satisfying three probability axioms
 1. if $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$,
 2. $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$,
 3. if $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$, $0 = 1, 2, \dots$ are all disjoint, then $\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$.

De Morgan's laws

$$\left(\bigcap_i A_i\right)^c = \bigcup_i A_i^c, \quad \left(\bigcup_i A_i\right)^c = \bigcap_i A_i^c.$$

Properties derived from the axioms

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) &= 0, \\ \mathbb{P}(A^c) &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(A), \\ \mathbb{P}(A \cup B) &= \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B).\end{aligned}$$

Inclusion-exclusion rule

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n) &= \sum_i \mathbb{P}(A_i) - \sum_{i < j} \mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j) + \sum_{i < j < k} \mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) - \dots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{n+1} \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n).\end{aligned}$$

Continuity of the probability measure

- if $A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots$ and $A = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} A_i$, then $\mathbb{P}(A) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i)$,
- if $B_1 \supset B_2 \supset \dots$ and $B = \cap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} B_i$, then $\mathbb{P}(B) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(B_i)$.

2 Conditional probability and independence

If $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$, then the conditional probability of A given B is

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

The law of total probability and the Bayes formula. Let B_1, \dots, B_n be a partition of Ω , then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(A) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A|B_i)\mathbb{P}(B_i), \\ \mathbb{P}(B_j|A) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_j)\mathbb{P}(B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A|B_i)\mathbb{P}(B_i)}.\end{aligned}$$

Definition 1 Events A_1, \dots, A_n are independent, if for any subset of events $(A_{i_1}, \dots, A_{i_k})$

$$\mathbb{P}(A_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k}) = \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1}) \dots \mathbb{P}(A_{i_k}).$$

Example 2 Pairwise independence does not imply independence of three events. Toss two coins and consider three events

- $A = \{\text{heads on the first coin}\},$
- $B = \{\text{tails on the first coin}\},$
- $C = \{\text{one head and one tail}\}.$

Clearly, $\mathbb{P}(C|A) = \mathbb{P}(C)$ and $\mathbb{P}(C|B) = \mathbb{P}(C)$ but $\mathbb{P}(C|A \cap B) = 0$.

3 Random variables

A real random variable is a measurable function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ so that different outcomes $\omega \in \Omega$ can give different values $X(\omega)$. Measurability of $X(\omega)$:

$$\{\omega : X(\omega) \leq x\} \in \mathcal{F} \text{ for any real number } x.$$

Probability distribution $\mathbb{P}_X(B) = \mathbb{P}(X \in B)$ defines a new probability space $(R, \mathcal{B}, \mathbb{P}_X)$, where $\mathcal{B} = \sigma(\text{all open intervals})$ is the Borel sigma-algebra.

Definition 3 Distribution function (cumulative distribution function)

$$F(x) = F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}_X\{(-\infty, x]\} = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x).$$

In terms of the distribution function we get

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(a < X \leq b) &= F(b) - F(a), \\ \mathbb{P}(X < x) &= F(x-), \\ \mathbb{P}(X = x) &= F(x) - F(x-).\end{aligned}$$

Any monotone right-continuous function with

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$$

can be a distribution function.

Definition 4 The random variable X is called discrete, if for some countable set of possible values

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}) = 1.$$

Its distribution is described by the probability mass function $f(x) = \mathbb{P}(X = x)$.

The random variable X is called continuous, if its distribution has a probability density function $f(x)$:

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y)dy, \quad \text{for all } x,$$

so that $f(x) = F'(x)$ almost everywhere.

Example 5 The indicator of a random event $I_A = 1_{\{\omega \in A\}}$ with $p = \mathbb{P}(A)$ has a Bernoulli distribution $\text{Ber}(p)$

$$\mathbb{P}(I_A = 1) = p, \quad \mathbb{P}(I_A = 0) = 1 - p.$$

For several events $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n I_{A_i}$ counts the number of events that occurred. If independent events A_1, A_2, \dots have the same probability $p = \mathbb{P}(A_i)$, then S_n has a binomial distribution $\text{Bin}(n, p)$

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Example 6 (Cantor distribution) Consider $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ with $\Omega = [0, 1]$, $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}_{[0,1]}$, and

$$\mathbb{P}([0, 1]) = 1$$

$$\mathbb{P}([0, 1/3]) = \mathbb{P}([2/3, 1]) = 2^{-1}$$

$$\mathbb{P}([0, 1/9]) = \mathbb{P}([2/9, 1/3]) = \mathbb{P}([2/3, 7/9]) = \mathbb{P}([8/9, 1]) = 2^{-2}$$

and so on. Put $X(\omega) = \omega$, its distribution, called the Cantor distribution, is neither discrete nor continuous. Its distribution function, called the Cantor function, is continuous but not absolutely continuous.

4 Random vectors

Definition 7 The joint distribution of a random vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is the function

$$F_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \mathbb{P}(\{X_1 \leq x_1\} \cap \dots \cap \{X_n \leq x_n\}).$$

Marginal distributions

$$F_{X_1}(x) = F_{\mathbf{X}}(x, \infty, \dots, \infty),$$

$$F_{X_2}(x) = F_{\mathbf{X}}(\infty, x, \infty, \dots, \infty),$$

...

$$F_{X_n}(x) = F_{\mathbf{X}}(\infty, \dots, \infty, x).$$

The existence of the joint probability density function $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ means that the distribution function

$$F_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{x_n} f(y_1, \dots, y_n) dy_1 \dots dy_n, \quad \text{for all } (x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

is absolutely continuous, so that $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\partial^n F(x_1, \dots, x_n)}{\partial x_1 \dots \partial x_n}$ almost everywhere.

Example 8 In general, the joint distribution can not be recovered from the marginal distributions. If

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = xy 1_{\{(x,y) \in [0,1]^2\}},$$

then vectors (X, Y) and (X, X) have the same marginal distributions.

Exersize 2.7.14 b. Consider

$$F(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-x} - xe^{-y} & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq y, \\ 1 - e^{-y} - ye^{-x} & \text{if } 0 \leq y \leq x, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Show that $F(x, y)$ is the joint distribution function of some pair (X, Y) . Find the marginal distribution functions and densities.

Solution. Three properties should be satisfied for $F(x, y)$ to be the joint distribution function of some pair (X, Y) :

1. $F(x, y)$ is non-decreasing on both variables,
2. $F(x, y) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$ and $y \rightarrow -\infty$,

3. $F(x, y) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ and $y \rightarrow \infty$.

Observe that

$$f(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 F(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} = e^{-y} 1_{\{0 \leq x \leq y\}}$$

is always non-negative. Thus the first property follows from the integral representation:

$$F(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(u, v) du dv,$$

which, for $0 \leq x \leq y$, is verified as

$$\int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(u, v) du dv = \int_0^x \left(\int_u^y e^{-v} dv \right) du = 1 - e^{-x} - xe^{-y},$$

and for $0 \leq y \leq x$ as

$$\int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(u, v) du dv = \int_0^y \left(\int_u^x e^{-v} dv \right) du = 1 - e^{-y} - ye^{-x}.$$

The second and third properties are straightforward. We have shown also that $f(x, y)$ is the joint density.

For $x \geq 0$ and $y \geq 0$ we obtain the marginal distributions as limits

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x) &= \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = 1 - e^{-x}, & f_X(x) &= e^{-x}, \\ F_Y(y) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = 1 - e^{-y} - ye^{-y}, & f_Y(y) &= ye^{-y}. \end{aligned}$$

$X \sim \text{Exp}(1)$ and $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(2, 1)$.

5 Repeated coin tossing

Let S_n be the number of heads in n independent tossings of a fair coin. Figure 1 shows imbedded partitions $\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2 \subset \mathcal{F}_3 \subset \mathcal{F}_4 \subset \mathcal{F}_5$ of the sample space generated by S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, S_5 .

Definition 9 A sequence of sigma-fields $\{\mathcal{F}_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ such that

$$\mathcal{F}_1 \subset \mathcal{F}_2 \subset \dots \subset \mathcal{F}_n \subset \dots, \quad \mathcal{F}_n \subset \mathcal{F} \text{ for all } n$$

is called a *filtration*.

The events representing our knowledge of the first three tossings is given by \mathcal{F}_3 . From the perspective of \mathcal{F}_3 we can not say exactly the value of S_4 . Clearly, there is dependence between S_3 and S_4 . The joint distribution of S_3 and S_4 :

	$S_4 = 0$	$S_4 = 1$	$S_4 = 2$	$S_4 = 3$	$S_4 = 4$	Total
$S_3 = 0$	1/16	1/16	0	0	0	1/8
$S_3 = 1$	0	3/16	3/16	0	0	3/8
$S_3 = 2$	0	0	3/16	3/16	0	3/8
$S_3 = 3$	0	0	0	1/16	1/16	1/8
Total	1/16	1/4	3/8	1/4	1/16	1

The conditional expectation

$$\mathbb{E}(S_4 | S_3) = S_3 + 0.5$$

is a discrete random variable with values 0.5, 1.5, 2.5, 3.5 and probabilities 1/8, 3/8, 3/8, 1/8.

For finite n the picture is straightforward. For $n = \infty$ it is a non-trivial task to define an overall $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ with $\Omega = (0, 1]$. One can use the Lebesgue measure $\mathbb{P}(dx) = dx$ and the sigma-field \mathcal{F} of Lebesgue measurable subsets of $(0, 1]$. Not all subsets of $(0, 1]$ are Lebesgue measurable. Not all Lebesgue measurable sets are Borel sets.

More generally, if the coin has probability p of heads, we can use $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}_p)$ with the same (Ω, \mathcal{F}) and

$$\mathbb{P}_p(dx) = l(p)x^{l(p)-1}dx, \quad l(p) = -\log_2(p).$$

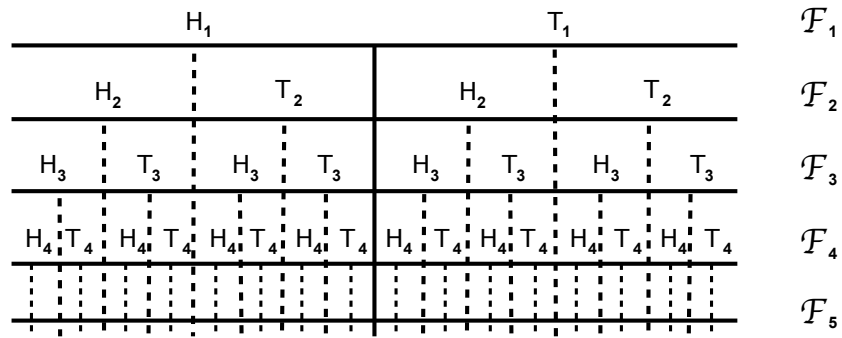


Figure 1: Sigma-fields for four consecutive coin tossings.