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Note Title

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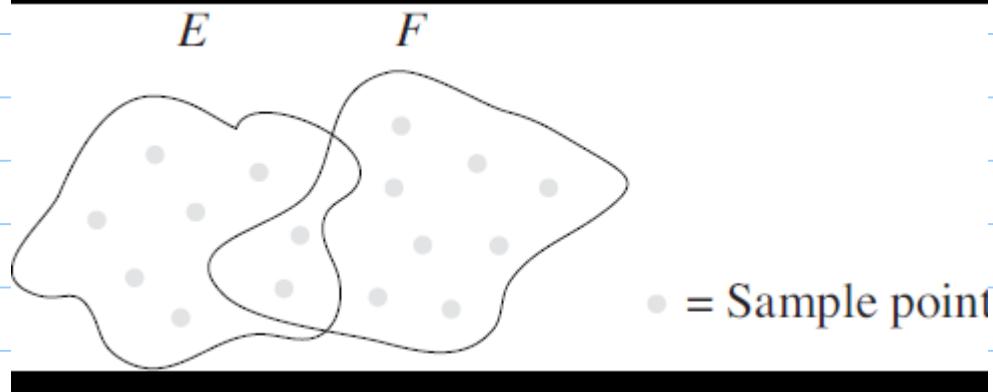
HW1: Exercises 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5 [H] Due on  
Tuesday, February 2, 2016.

	E <sub>1</sub>			E <sub>2</sub>			
$\Omega = \{$	(1,1)	(1,2)	(1,3)	(1,4)	(1,5)	(1,6)	$P(E_1) = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$
	(2,1)	(2,2)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(2,5)	(2,6)	$P(E_2) = \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$
	(3,1)	(3,2)	(3,3)	(3,4)	(3,5)	(3,6)	$E_1 = \{(1,2), (2,2), (3,2), (4,2), (5,2), (6,2)\}$
	(4,1)	(4,2)	(4,3)	(4,4)	(4,5)	(4,6)	$E_2 = \{(1,4), (1,5), (1,6)\}$
	(5,1)	(5,2)	(5,3)	(5,4)	(5,5)	(5,6)	
	(6,1)	(6,2)	(6,3)	(6,4)	(6,5)	(6,6)	$E_1 \cap E_2 = \{\}$

Defn 3.2: If  $E_1 \cap E_2 = \{\}$ , then  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are mutually exclusive.

Defn 3.3. If  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  are events such that  $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$ ,  
 $i \neq j$ ,  $i, j \in 1..n$  and such that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i = \Omega$ , then we say  
 that  $E_1, \dots, E_n$  partition  $\Omega$  (and  $\mathcal{S} = \{E_1, \dots, E_n\}$ ).

We also say that  $E_1, \dots, E_n$  are mutually exclusive  
 and exhaustive.

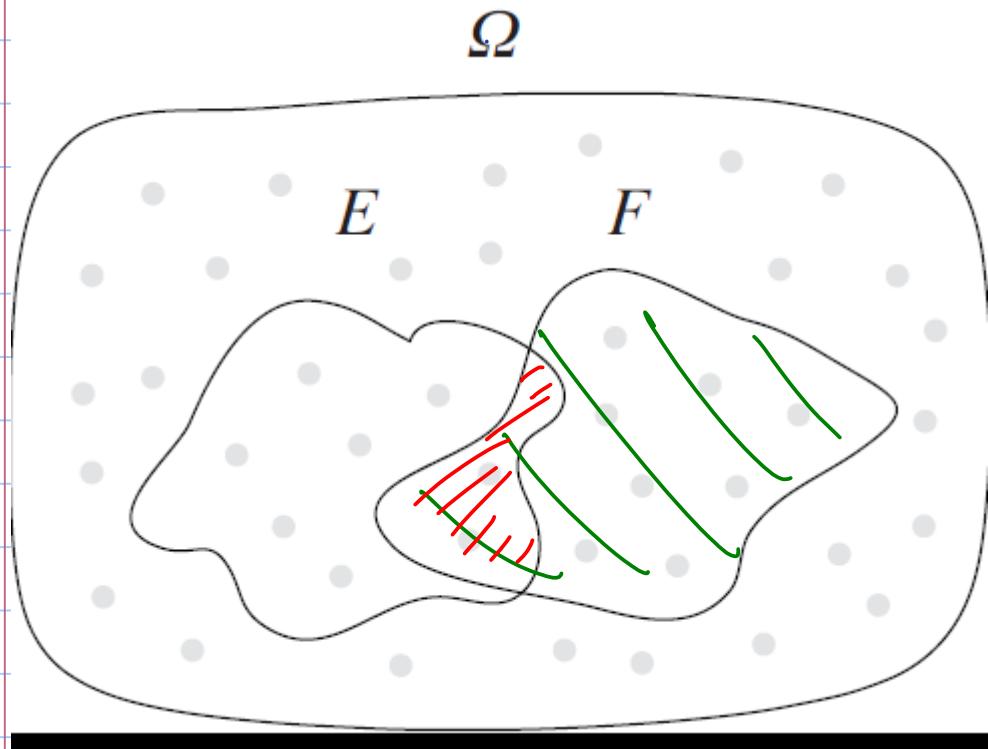


$$P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(E \cap F)$$

$$P\{E \cup F\} = P\{E\} + P\{F\} - P\{E \cap F\}.$$

Theorem 3.5  $P\{E \cup F\} \leq P(E) + P(F)$

Equality holds when  $E$  and  $F$  are mutually exclusive.



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

= number of points in  $E \cap F$   
number of points in  $F$

Table 3.1 My sandwich choices

	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri	Sat	Sun
Jelly							
Cheese							
Turkey							
Cheese							
Turkey							
Cheese							
None							

What is  $P[\text{Cheese} | \text{Second Half of the Week}]$ ?

$$= \frac{\# \text{ Cheese Sandwiches}}{\text{Total } \# \text{ Sandwiches in 2nd half of the week}} = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{P[\text{Cheese Sandwich} \Delta \text{2nd half of the week}]}{P(\text{2nd half of the week})} = \frac{\frac{2}{7}}{\frac{4}{7}} = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Defn 3.7 Events E and F are independent if

$$P\{E \cap F\} = P(E) \cdot P(F)$$

Thm If E and F are independent events, then

$$P(E|F) = P(E).$$

Proof  $P(E|F) = \frac{P(E \cap F)}{P(F)} = (\text{indep}) = \frac{P(E) \cdot P(F)}{P(F)} = P(E)$

[One can show the converse.]

Can two mutually exclusive (and non-null) events ever be independent?

Let E and F be. Then

$$P(E|F) = \frac{P(E \cap F)}{P(F)} = \frac{0}{P(F)} = 0 \neq P(E). \quad \underline{\text{No}}$$

	<del>E<sub>1</sub></del>		<del>E<sub>2</sub></del>	
$\Omega = \{$	(1,1)	(1,2)	(1,3)	(1,4)
	(2,1)	(2,2)	(2,3)	(2,4)
	(3,1)	(3,2)	(3,3)	(3,4)
	(4,1)	(4,2)	(4,3)	(4,4)
	(5,1)	(5,2)	(5,3)	(5,4)
	(6,1)	(6,2)	(6,3)	(6,4)
$\}$	(1,5)	(1,6)	(2,5)	(2,6)
	(3,5)	(3,6)	(4,5)	(4,6)
	(5,5)	(5,6)	(6,5)	(6,6)

Is  $E_1 = \text{"First roll is 6"}$  independent from  $E_2 = \text{"Second roll is 6"}$ ?

$$P\{E_1\} = P\{61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66\} = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P\{E_2\} = P\{16, 26, 36, 46, 56, 66\} = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P\{E_1 \cap E_2\} = P\{66\} = \frac{1}{36} \stackrel{?}{=} P(E_1) P(E_2) = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6} \quad \checkmark \quad \underline{\text{Yes}}$$

Is  $E_1 = \text{"Sum of the rolls is 7"}$  independent of  $E_2 = \text{"Second roll is 6"}$

$$P\{E_1\} = P\{16, 25, 34, 43, 52, 61\} = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P\{E_2\} = P\{14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64\} = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P\{E_1 \cap E_2\} = P\{34\} = \frac{1}{36} = P(E_1) P(E_2) \quad \checkmark \quad \underline{\text{Yes!}}$$

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$E_1 = \text{"Sum of the rolls is 8"}$ ,  $E_2 = \text{"Second roll is 4"}$

Are  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  independent?

$$E_1 = \{26, 35, 44, 53, 62\} \quad E_2 = \{14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64\}$$

$$P(E_1) = \frac{5}{36} \quad P(E_2) = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$E_1 \cap E_2 = \{44\} \quad P(E_1 \cap E_2) = \frac{1}{36} \neq \frac{5}{36} \cdot \frac{1}{6} = P(E_1) \cdot P(E_2)$$

$N_0$ ,  $E_1$  &  $E_2$  are not independent.

Also check that  $P(E_1 | E_2) \neq P(E_1)$

$$P(E_1 | E_2) = \frac{P(E_1 \cap E_2)}{P(E_2)} = \frac{\frac{1}{36}}{\frac{1}{6}} = \frac{1}{6} \neq P(E_1) = \frac{5}{36}$$

Independence is symmetric ( $b/c. P(E_1). P(E_2) = P(E_2). P(E_1)$ )

and, in fact,

$$P(E_2 | E_1) = \frac{P(E_2 \cap E_1)}{P(E_1)} = \frac{P(E_1 \cap E_2)}{P(E_1)} = \frac{\frac{1}{36}}{\frac{5}{36}} = \frac{1}{5} \neq P(E_2) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$P(E_1 | E_2)$  = the probability of  $E_1$ , when the outcome space ( $\Omega$ )

is replaced by  $E_2$  =  $\frac{\text{the number of outcomes in } E_1 \text{ that are also in } E_2}{\text{the number of outcomes in the outcome space } (E_2)}$

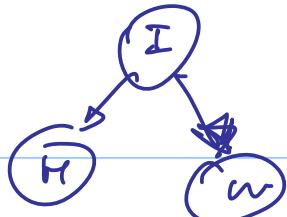
$$= \frac{1}{6} \left[ \begin{matrix} 44 \text{ is the only such outcome} \end{matrix} \right] = \frac{1}{6} \neq \frac{5}{36} = P(E_1)$$

$$\text{Also, } P(E_2 | E_1) = \frac{1}{5} \left[ \begin{matrix} 44 \\ \text{all outcomes in } E_1 \end{matrix} \right] = \frac{1}{5} \neq \frac{1}{6} = P(E_2)$$

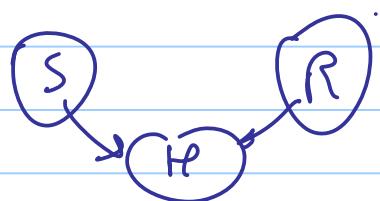
Defn. 3.8 Two events  $E$  &  $F$  are said to be conditionally independent given event  $G$  if, where  $P(G) > 0$ ,  $P\{E \cap F | G\} = P\{E | G\} \cdot P\{F | G\}$

Thm (w/out proof)  $E$  &  $F$  are independent if and only if  $P\{E \cap F | G\} = P\{E | G\} \cdot P\{F | G\}$

Thm (w/ proof)  $E$  &  $F$  are independent if  $P\{E \cap F | G\} = P\{E | G\} \cdot P\{F | G\}$



Two events may be  
(unconditionally) dependent  
and conditionally independent



(Side issues)

Or, two events may be  
unconditionally independent  
and conditionally dependent

### 3.5 Law of Total Probability

Let  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n$  partition the state space  $\Omega$ . Thus,

$$P\{E\} = \sum_{i=1}^n P\{E \cap F_i\} = \sum_{i=1}^n P\{E|F_i\} P\{F_i\}$$

### 3.6 Bayes' Law

[Bayes' rule]

Theorem 3.10 (Bayes' law)

[The inversion formulae]

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

Disease / Symptom

Proof  $P(F|E) = \frac{P(E \cap F)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|F) P(F)}{P(E)}$

Or;  $P(E \cap F) = P(E|F) P(F)$   
                        .       $P(F|E) P(E)$

Theorem 3.11 Extended Bayes' Law. (This combines  
Bayes' law & the law of Total probability)

$P(F|E) = \frac{P(E|F)P(F)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|F_i)P(F_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(E|F_i)P(F_i)}$ , where  
 $F_1, \dots, F_n$  partition the outcome (state) space.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & P\{\text{Disease} | \text{Test positive}\} = \\
 & = \frac{P\{\text{Test Positive} | \text{Disease}\} P\{\text{Disease}\}}{P\{\text{Test positive}\}} = \frac{1}{10,000} \\
 & \approx \frac{P\{\text{Test positive} | \text{Disease}\} P\{\text{Disease}\} + P\{\text{Test positive} | \neg \text{Disease}\} P\{\neg \text{Disease}\}}{P\{\text{Test positive}\}} = \\
 & = \frac{0.95 \times \frac{1}{10,000}}{0.95 \times \frac{1}{10,000} + 0.05 \times \frac{9999}{10,000}} \approx 0.0019 \approx \frac{1}{500}
 \end{aligned}$$

### 3.7 Discrete vs. Continuous Random Variable

[Trivedi] — quote:

A random variable is a rule that assigns a numerical value to each possible outcome of an experiment.

The term "random variable" is actually a misnomer, since a r.v.  $X$  is really a function whose domain is the sample space  $S(\Omega)$  and whose range is the set of all real numbers,  $\mathbb{R}$ . The image of the function is therefore a subset of the real numbers.

↳ A random variable is neither!

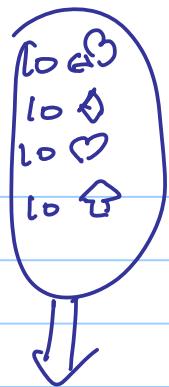
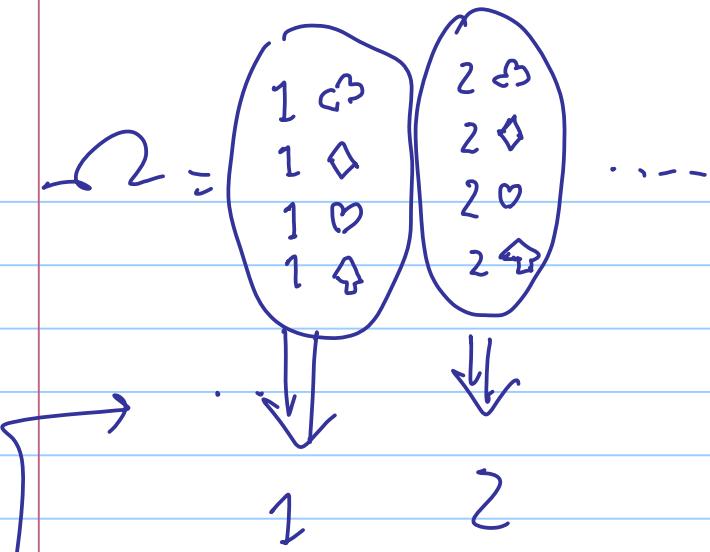
## Example

Let  $\Omega$  be the set of all cards that are on top of a well shuffled deck of 40 cards (no face cards).

The numerical value of a card is a random variable.

This random variable assigns to each outcome (a fact) the number on the card.

The r.v. partitions  $\Omega$  into 10 events, consisting of all cards of a given value.



The r.v. "number value" maps like this:

10 ; a subset of the real numbers

This function is a "random variable"

$\curvearrowleft$	1
$\diamond$	2
$\heartsuit$	3
$\clubsuit$	4

In general, a r.v.  $X$  partitions  $\Omega$ , b/c

it is a (well-defined) function, and  
therefore it cannot assign different numbers to  
the same outcome.

↳ (ansblk A 2/2)

For a r.v.  $X$  and a real number  $x$ , we define the  
event  $A_x$  to be the subset of all sample points in  $\Omega$   
to which the r.v.  $X$  assigns the value  $x$ . So,

$$A_x = \{ s \in \Omega \mid X(s) = x \}$$

$$A_x \cap A_y = \{\} \text{ if } x \neq y$$

$$\bigcup_{x \in R} A_x = \Omega$$

Therefore the collection of events  $A_x$  for all  $x$  define an event space (as required by the Kolmogorov axioms).

This is why we often work with variables as if we were working with events.