

## A crash course in probability theory

Once developed all the theory concerning measure theory and the Lebesgue integral, we can go back to "redefine" the first principles in probability theory:

Def 1 A measure space  $(X, \mathcal{X}, \mu)$  where  $\mu(X) = 1$  is called probability space.

This last condition tells us that  $\mu(E) \leq 1$  for all  $E \in \mathcal{X}$ . In this context,  $X$  is called the set of event, and each  $E \in \mathcal{X}$  is called an event. The measure is called probability function, it is usually written with  $P$ , instead of  $\mu$ . We usually write  $\Omega$  instead of  $X$ , and  $\mathcal{A}$  instead of  $\mathcal{X}$ .

Ex 1 Take  $\Omega$  finite set,  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{P}(X)$ , and for each  $E \in \mathcal{X}$ , define  $P(E) = \frac{|E|}{|X|}$ . This defines a measure over  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$ , which is called the uniform probability.

Def 1 A random variable is a measurable function  $X: \Omega \rightarrow Y$ , where  $(Y, \mathcal{Y})$  is a measurable space.

In applications we will consider random variables with  $Y = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{B}$ , but as we did in measure theory, the previous definition works as well.

### Density functions

Given a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ , another measurable space  $(Y, \mathcal{Y})$  and a random variable  $X: \Omega \rightarrow Y$ , we can define a probability measure over  $(Y, \mathcal{Y})$  in the following way: for each  $E \in \mathcal{Y}$ , define

$$P_X(E) = P(\overset{\in \mathcal{A}}{X^{-1}(E)})$$

it is an easy exercise to see that  $P_X: \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfies all the properties of a probability function. Usually, we will take  $(Y, \mathcal{Y})$  to be  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ .

Def 1 The law of  $X$  is the probability measure  $P_X$ .

One interprets this in the following way: when  $(Y, \mathcal{Y})$  is  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  the law of  $X$  "models"  $X$  not in the abstract probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ , but in the prototype of  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ .

Particular cases:

Vary particular! {

① Discrete random variables:  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ , and  $X: \Omega \rightarrow Y$ ,  $Y$  is finite. Then the law of  $X$

$$P_X = \sum_{y \in Y} P_y \mu_y$$

where  $P_y = P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = y\}) = P(X=y)$ , and  $\mu_y$  is the measure  $\mu_y(E) = \begin{cases} 1, & y \in E \\ 0, & y \notin E \end{cases}$ .

② Continuous random variables: assume that now  $(Y, \mathcal{Y}) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$ , and consider the Lebesgue measure over  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  ( $\lambda$ ). Then, use Radon-Nikodym theorem to build a "density" for  $P_X$ :

i)  $\lambda$  is  $\sigma$ -finite:  $\mathbb{R}$  is the countable union of intervals  $[i, i+1)$ , and each has finite measure.

ii) Assuming that  $P_X$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\lambda$ , by Radon-Nikodym theorem there is a function  $f_X \in M^+(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B})$  such that

$$P_X(\cdot) = \int \cdot f_X d\lambda = \int \cdot f_X dx$$

Def / We say that  $f_x$  is the density probability function of (the law)  $P_x$  (also called mass function)

$$\text{In particular, } 1 = P_x(\mathbb{R}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_x d\lambda = 1.$$

Def / The distribution function of the law  $P_x$  is  $F_x(x) = P_x(\{\omega, x\}) = \int_{(-\infty, x]} f_x d\lambda$ .

Obs /  $F_x(x)$  is an increasing function that satisfies  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_x(x) = 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F_x(x) = 1$ . It is right continuous: for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x_n \uparrow a$ , sequence such that  $x_n \rightarrow a$ , we have that  $F(x_n) \downarrow F(a)$ .

### Expectation and related operators.

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  be a probability space, and let  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a (real-valued) random variable. Assume that  $X \in L_1(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ .

Def / The expected value of  $X$  is defined as

$$E[X] = \int_{\Omega} X dP < +\infty.$$

if  $P_x$  is absolutely continuous w.r.t  $\lambda$ , then this is in fact  $E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x \overbrace{f_x(x)}^{d\lambda} dx$ .

In particular, for every measurable function  $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $g(X): \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is another random variable, and

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

Def /  $E[X^r]$  is called the factorial moment of order  $r$  of  $X$ . (if  $X \in L_r(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  this has sense).

Def /  $E[(X - E[X])^2]$  is called the variance of  $X$ . It is written as  $V[X]$  ( $X \in L_2(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ !)

A wide variety of results can be deduced from previous facts about  $L_p$  spaces. For instance, we have the following observation:

$$E[|X|^p] < +\infty \text{ iff } \int_{\Omega} |X|^p dP < +\infty \text{ iff } X \in L_p(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$$

In particular, we have the following results:

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

Ⓐ Hölder: if  $X, Y$  are random variables over  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ ,  $X \in L_p(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ ,  $Y \in L_q(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ , then  $XY \in L_1(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  and

$$E[|XY|] \leq E[|X|^p]^{1/p} E[|Y|^q]^{1/q}$$

Ⓑ Minkowski: if  $X, Y \in L_p(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ , then  $X+Y \in L_p(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  and  $E[|X+Y|^p]^{1/p} \leq E[|X|^p]^{1/p} + E[|Y|^p]^{1/p}$

i) Monotone convergence:  $\{X_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  sequence of r.v.,  $X_n \geq 0$ ,  $X_n \rightarrow X$   $X_n$  mon. inc. (pointwise) then  $E[X_n] \rightarrow E[X]$

ii) Fatou lemma: given a sequence of random variables  $\{X_n\}_{n \geq 0}$ ,  $E[\liminf X_n] \leq \liminf E[X_n]$

iii) Dominated convergence:  $\{X_n\}_{n \geq 0}$  sequence of r.v., such that  $|X_n| \leq Z$  with  $E[Z] < +\infty$ . Then if  $X_n \rightarrow X$  pointwise,  $E[X_n] \rightarrow E[X]$ .

Two important inequalities are the following:

Prop 1 (Markov's inequality) let  $a > 0$  and  $X$  a random variable on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ . Assuming that  $X \geq 0$ , we have that

$$P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \geq a\}) = P(X \geq a) \leq \frac{1}{a} E[X]$$

Prop 1 (Chebyshev's inequality) let  $X \in L_2(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  and  $a > 0$ . Then

$$P(|X - E[X]| \geq a) \leq \frac{1}{a^2} V[X].$$

### Independence of random variables

The next notion is the first important fact which makes the theory of probabilities differ from the one developed in Measure Theory.

Def 1 let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  be a probability space. We say that a family of events  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  is independent if for any finite set  $J$ ,  $P(\bigcap_{i \in J} A_i) = \prod_{i \in J} P(A_i)$ . (A and B)

Def 1 let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  be a probability space,  $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $P(B) > 0$ . The conditional probability  $P(A|B)$  is

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

Next step is to extend this notion to random variables:

Def 1 let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$  be a probability space, and  $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$  a set of random variables. We say that these random variables are independent if for every finite set of indices  $J = \{i_1, \dots, i_n\}$  and Borel sets  $B_1, \dots, B_n$ ,

$$P(\{X_{i_1} \in B_1\} \cap \{X_{i_2} \in B_2\} \cap \dots \cap \{X_{i_n} \in B_n\}) = \prod_{j=1}^n P(X_{i_j} \in B_j)$$

This definition is related to the product of measure spaces in the following way

Theorem / The  $n$  random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent iff

$$\text{if } \sigma \text{ in } \mathcal{A}_1 \otimes \mathcal{A}_2 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathcal{A}_n \quad P_{(X_1, \dots, X_n)} = P_{X_1} \otimes \dots \otimes P_{X_n}$$

Proof / By definition,  $P_{(X_1, \dots, X_n)}(F_1 \times \dots \times F_n) = P(\{X_1 \in F_1\} \cap \{X_2 \in F_2\} \cap \dots \cap \{X_n \in F_n\}) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \in F_i)$   
 $= P_{X_1}(F_1) \otimes \dots \otimes P_{X_n}(F_n)$ . As they have the same values over  $\mathcal{A}_1 \times \dots \times \mathcal{A}_n$  by the construction of sigma they must be the same.

With this approach one can show that the expectation works fine with respect to product of independent random variables; assume  $f_i$  a measurable function (in the convenient  $L_+$  space):

$$\begin{aligned} E\left[\prod_{i=1}^n f_i(X_i)\right] &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \prod_{i=1}^n f_i \, dP_{(X_1, \dots, X_n)} \stackrel{(\text{ind})}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \prod_{i=1}^n f_i \, dP_{X_1} \otimes \dots \otimes dP_{X_n} \stackrel{(\text{Fubini})}{=} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_i \, dP_{X_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n E[f_i(X_i)] \end{aligned}$$

Obs / when  $f_1 = \dots = f_n = x$ , then  $E[X_1 \dots X_n] = \prod_{i=1}^n E[X_i]$ ; however, in general, the product of two r.v. in  $L_1$  are not in  $L_1$  and we need to be careful here.

We can now extend our definitions concerning the conditional expectation of random variables:

Def / let  $X \in L_1(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{A}, P)$  be a random variable,  $B \in \mathcal{A}$ . The conditioned expectation of  $X$  w.r.t.  $B$  is

$$E[X|B] = \frac{E[X \mathbb{I}_B]}{P(B)}$$

We can extend now this definition to two random variables, but we will deal with this when studying Markov chains.

### Some well-used random variables

Here we present a list of extended used random variables that would appear a lot

Name	Type	Distribution	Statistics
Bernoulli $Be(p)$	discrete	$P(X=0) = 1-p$ $P(X=1) = p$	$E[X] = p$ , $V[X] = p(1-p)$
Binomial $Bin(n, p)$	discrete	- sum of $n$ ind. Bernoulli r.v. $P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$	$E[X] = np$ $V[X] = np(1-p)$
Geometric $Geom(p)$	discrete	an Bernoulli is repeated ind. until there is success $P(X=n) = (1-p)^{n-1} p$	$E[X] = \frac{1}{p}$ $V[X] = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$
Poisson $Po(\lambda)$	discrete	$P(X=n) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{n!} \lambda^n$	$E[X] = \lambda$ $V[X] = \lambda$
Uniform $U([a, b])$	continuous	Picks a value uniformly at random in $[a, b]$ $f_x(x) = \frac{1}{b-a} \mathbb{I}_{[a, b]}$	$E[X] = \frac{b+a}{2}$ $V[X] = \frac{1}{12} (b-a)^2$
Normal $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$	continuous	$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$	$E[X] = \mu$ $V[X] = \sigma^2$