

# BASICS IN PROBABILITY

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## 1. EVENTS, ALGEBRAS & $\sigma$ -ALGEBRAS

Consider an abstract set  $\Omega$  (which we call the SPACE OF ELEMENTARY EVENTS), and a collection  $\mathcal{F}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  (which we call EVENTS) satisfying the following properties:

- 1)  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$
- 2)  $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}$
- 3)  $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in \mathcal{F}$ .

Clearly 1) and 2) imply that also  $\Omega$  and  $\emptyset$  are in  $\mathcal{F}$ . By De Morgan's laws it follows also:

$$3') A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}.$$

EXAMPLE.  $\Omega = \{ \text{face di un dado} \}$

$= \{ \{1\}, \{2\}, \dots, \{6\} \}$ . Two examples of possible  $\mathcal{F}$  are

$$\mathcal{F}_1 = \{ \emptyset, \{1\}, \dots, \{6\}, \{1,2\}, \dots, \{1,6\}, \dots, \{1,2,3, \dots, 6\} \}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_2 = \{ \emptyset, \{1,3,5\}, \{2,4,6\}, \{1,2,3, \dots, 6\} \}$$

We call  $\mathcal{F}$  the ALGEBRA OF EVENTS.

By finite induction from 3) it follows

$$\begin{aligned} 3'' ) \quad & \mathcal{A}_i \in \mathcal{F}, \quad i=1, \dots, N \\ & \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^N \mathcal{A}_i \in \mathcal{F}, \quad N \in \mathbb{N}. \end{aligned}$$

When  $N = +\infty$ ,  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -ALGEBRA of EVENTS. Clearly, in this case, from 3'' we also have

$$\begin{aligned} 3''' ) \quad & \mathcal{A}_i \in \mathcal{F}, \quad i=1, \dots, N \\ & \Rightarrow \bigcap_{i=1}^N \mathcal{A}_i \in \mathcal{F}, \quad N \in \mathbb{N}. \end{aligned}$$

The pair  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is the (MEASURABLE) SPACE OF EVENTS.

DEFINITION . Given  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$ ,  $\mathcal{F}_1$  is less rich than  $\mathcal{F}_2$  (we write  $\mathcal{F}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{F}_2$ ) if

$$\forall A \in \mathcal{F}_1 \Rightarrow A \in \mathcal{F}_2$$

DEFINITION An ATOM of a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  is an event which cannot be obtained as union of other events

In conclusion, a  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $\Omega$  satisfies:

- 1)  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$
- 2)  $A^c \in \mathcal{F}, \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$
- 3)  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}, i=1, 2, \dots \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ .

In order to have a "measure" of the events (i.e. the elements of  $\mathcal{F}$ ) we introduce a PROBABILITY MEASURE  $P$  on  $\mathcal{F}$  which is a function

$P: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  satisfying:

- 1)  $P(\Omega) = 1$
- 2)  $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1 \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$
- 3)  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}, i=1, 2, \dots, A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$   
 $\forall i, j \Rightarrow$   

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$$
(COUNTABLE ADDITIVITY)

Since  $\forall A \in \mathcal{F}: A \cup A^c = \Omega$   
and  $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$  and  $\Omega, \emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ :

$$1 = P(A \cup A^c) = P(A) + P(A^c)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)}$$

$\Omega$  is called the SURE EVENT, while  $\emptyset$  is called the IMPOSSIBLE EVENT.

REMARK.  $P(\emptyset) = 0$  since  $P(\Omega) = 1$   
but  $P(A) = 0 \not\Rightarrow A = \emptyset!$ . For instance,  
if  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  and  $P(\{i\}) = P(\{j\})$   
then  $P(\{i\}) = 0$  since  $P(\Omega) = 1$ .

Two simple examples of  $\sigma$ -algebras on  $\Omega$  are

$$\mathcal{F}_M = \{\text{set of all subset of } \Omega\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{F}_m = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$$

Clearly

$$\boxed{\mathcal{F}_m \subseteq \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_M}$$

for any  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $\Omega$ .

Dato un insieme  $\mathcal{C}$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  we want to characterize a  $\sigma$ -algebra which contains  $\mathcal{C}$ . Clearly,  $\mathcal{F}_\Omega$  is one such  $\sigma$ -algebra. Let  $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$  be two  $\sigma$ -algebras containing  $\mathcal{C}$ .  $\mathcal{F}_1 \cap \mathcal{F}_2$  is itself a  $\sigma$ -algebra and contains  $\mathcal{C}$ :

indeed,

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}_1 \cap \mathcal{F}_2$  (since  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$ )
- $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}_1 \cap \mathcal{F}_2$  (since  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$ )
- $A_i \in \mathcal{F}_1 \cap \mathcal{F}_2, i=1,2,\dots \Rightarrow A_i \in \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2 \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2 \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}_1 \cap \mathcal{F}_2$
- $A \in \mathcal{F}_1 \cap \mathcal{F}_2 \Rightarrow A \in \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2 \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2 \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{F}_1 \cap \mathcal{F}_2$

Therefore, if  $\{\mathcal{F}_\alpha\}$  is the family of  $\sigma$ -algebras containing  $\mathcal{C}$

$$\mathcal{F} = \bigcap_a \mathcal{F}_\alpha$$

is a  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{C}$  and it is the smallest with this property. We call  $\mathcal{F}$  the  $\sigma$ -algebra GENERATED BY  $\mathcal{C}$  and we denote it by  $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ .

EXAMPLE. Let  $\Omega = [0, 1]$

and  $\mathcal{C} = \{ [0, \frac{1}{3}], [\frac{2}{3}, 1] \}$

then

$$\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \{ [0, \frac{1}{3}], [\frac{2}{3}, 1], \emptyset, (\frac{1}{3}, 1], [0, \frac{2}{3}), [0, 1], [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, 1], (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}) \} \blacktriangleleft$$

Let  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ , it is common practice to consider on  $\Omega$  the BOREL  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$  which is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{C} = \{ \text{the set of open intervals of } \mathbb{R} \} = \{ (a, b) : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}$ . It can be shown that  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$  can be generated by different sets  $\mathcal{C}$ :

$$\mathcal{C}_1 = \{ (a, +\infty), a \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_2 = \{ (-\infty, a), a \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_3 = \{ [a, b], a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_4 = \{ [a, b), a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

Similarly, we can generate the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  (with  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$ ).

## 2. RANDOM VARIABLES

DEFINITION.

A RANDOM VARIABLE on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is a function  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$X^{-1}(B) \triangleq \{\omega \in \Omega: X(\omega) \in B\} \in \mathcal{F} \\ \forall B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$$

REMARK. We say that  $X$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable.

In  $\mathcal{F}_M$  the random variables  $X$  are constant, while in  $\mathcal{F}_M$  any function  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a random variable (since  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_M$  for any  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  on  $\Omega$ ).

If  $X$  is a random variable in  $\mathcal{F}$  it is a random variable in any other  $\mathcal{F}' \supseteq \mathcal{F}$  ◀

DEFINITION. The smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}^X$  for which a random variable  $X$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is  $\mathcal{F}^X$ -measurable is the  $\sigma$ -algebra GENERATED BY  $X$ . ◀

We have

$$\mathcal{F}^X \triangleq \{X^{-1}(B), B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)\}$$

$\mathcal{F}^X$  is indeed a  $\sigma$ -algebra:

- 1)  $B = \emptyset \Rightarrow X^{-1}(B) = \emptyset \Rightarrow \emptyset \in \mathcal{F}^X$
- 2)  $A \in \mathcal{F}^X \Rightarrow \exists B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) : A = X^{-1}(B)$   
 $\Rightarrow B^c \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) \Rightarrow X^{-1}(B^c) = A^c \in \mathcal{F}^X$
- 3)  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}^X, i=1, 2, \dots \Rightarrow \exists B_i \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n), i=1, 2, \dots$   
 $A_i = X^{-1}(B_i) \Rightarrow \bigcup_i B_i \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$   
 $\Rightarrow X^{-1}(\bigcup_i B_i) \in \mathcal{F}^X \Rightarrow \bigcup_i A_i = \bigcup_i X^{-1}(B_i)$   
 $= X^{-1}(\bigcup_i B_i) \in \mathcal{F}^X.$

EXAMPLE Given  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , the function

$$X_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega \in A \\ 0 & \omega \notin A \end{cases}$$

where  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , is a random variable on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ .  $X_A$  is called CHARACTERISTIC FUNCTION OF  $A$ .



REMARK. To check out if  $X$  is a random variable it is sufficient to check the definition with  $\mathcal{B}$  any element of the set of generators for  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ . For example,

$$\mathcal{B} = \{(-\infty, a] \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Therefore,

$$X_A^{-1}((-\infty, a]) = \emptyset \in \mathcal{F} \quad \text{if } a < 0$$

$$X_A^{-1}((-\infty, a]) = A^c \in \mathcal{F} \quad \text{if } 0 \leq a < 1$$

$$X_A^{-1}((-\infty, a]) = A \cup A^c = \Omega \in \mathcal{F} \quad \text{if } a \geq 1$$

Moreover,

$$\mathcal{F}^{X_A} = \{\emptyset, A, A^c, \Omega\}$$

with  $\mathcal{F}^{X_A} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ .

PROPERTIES OF  $X_A(\omega)$ .

- 1)  $c \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow cX_A$  is a random variable.
- 2)  $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{F}, c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow c_1X_{A_1} + c_2X_{A_2}$  is a random variable.
- 3)  $A_i \in \mathcal{F}, c_i \in \mathbb{R}, i=1, 2, \dots, N \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N c_i X_{A_i}$  is a random variable.

### 3. EXPECTATION OF RANDOM VARIABLES

DEFINITION A function  $\psi$  is said to be SIMPLE if

$$\psi(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \chi_{A_i}(\omega)$$

with  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\bigcup_{i=1}^N A_i = \Omega$  ▲

The sets  $A_i$  are not disjoint, but we can always assume that  $A_i$  are disjoint by re-writing  $\psi$ . Moreover,  $\psi$  is a random variable.

We define the integral of a simple nonnegative random variable  $\psi$  as follows:

$$\int_{\Omega} \psi(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega) \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

Next step is to consider any nonnegative random variable  $X(\omega)$  and approximate it as a sequence of simple nonnegative functions  $\psi^n(\omega)$ .

Let

$$A_i \triangleq X^{-1} \left( \left[ \frac{i}{2^n}, \frac{i+1}{2^n} \right) \right)$$

$$= \left\{ \omega : \frac{i}{2^n} \leq X(\omega) < \frac{i+1}{2^n} \right\}$$

$$C_n \triangleq \left\{ \omega : X(\omega) \geq n \right\}$$

Def

$$\psi^n(\omega) \triangleq \sum_{i=0}^{n2^n-1} \frac{i}{2^n} \chi_{A_i}(\omega) + n \chi_{C_n}(\omega)$$

then  $\forall \omega \in \Omega$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \psi^n(\omega) = X(\omega)$$

(notice  $\psi^n(\omega) \leq \psi^{n+1}(\omega) \leq X(\omega)$   
 $\forall n$  and for each  $\omega \in \Omega$ ).

Since  $\psi^n$  is nonnegative and simple:

$$I^n \triangleq \int_{\Omega} \psi^n(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n2^n-1} \frac{i}{2^n} P(A_i) + n P(C_n)$$

(notice that  $I^n \leq I^{n+1} \forall n$ )

On account of the previous fact we can define the integral of a nonnegative random variable  $X$  on  $\Omega$  as:

$$\int_{\Omega} X(\omega) dP(\omega) \triangleq \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \int \psi^n(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} I^n}$

whenever the limit on the right exists.

In this case, we say that  $X$  is INTEGRABLE. It is easy to extend the above definition to any random variable  $X(\omega)$ . Write

$$X(\omega) = X^+(\omega) - X^-(\omega)$$

where  $X^+(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } X(\omega) \leq 0 \\ X(\omega) & \text{if } X(\omega) > 0 \end{cases}$

$$X^-(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } X(\omega) \geq 0 \\ -X(\omega) & \text{if } X(\omega) < 0 \end{cases}$$

and define

$$\int_{\Omega} X(\omega) dP(\omega) = \int_{\Omega} X^+(\omega) dP(\omega) - \int_{\Omega} X^-(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

EXAMPLE. In a small town there are 20 coffee-shops, divided into 3 groups according to the prices

1.4 € in group A (4 coffee shops)

1.2 € in group B (10 coffee shops)

1.0 € in group C (6 coffee shops)

What is the expected price in this town?

•  $\Omega = \{ \text{insieme dei coffee shops} \}$

•  $\mathcal{F}_m$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\Omega$

•  $\mathbb{P}$  acts on the elements of  $\mathcal{F}_m$

by giving the ratio between the cardinality of the element of  $\mathcal{F}_m$  and the cardinality of  $\Omega$

The function PRICE is :

$$\psi(\omega) = 1.4 \chi_A(\omega) + 1.2 \chi_B(\omega) + 1.0 \chi_C(\omega)$$

We can calculate

$$\int_{\Omega} \psi(\omega) d\mathbb{P}(\omega) = 1.4 \mathbb{P}(A) + 1.2 \mathbb{P}(B) + 1.0 \mathbb{P}(C)$$

but

$$P(A) = \frac{4}{20}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{10}{20}$$

$$P(C) = \frac{6}{20} \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\int_{\Omega} \psi(\omega) dP(\omega) = 1,18 \in$$

we call

$$\int_{\Omega} X(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

the EXPECTATION of  $X(\omega)$ .

The expectation of  $X$  is well-defined if the expectation of either  $X^+$  or  $X^-$  is well-defined.  $\forall E\{X^{\pm}\} < +\infty$  then  $X$  is INTEGRABLE.

DEFINITION The VARIANCE of a random variable  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (or centered second-order moment) is

$$\sigma_X^2 \triangleq E \{ (X - E\{X\})^2 \}$$

$\sigma_X$  is the STANDARD DEVIATION.

EXAMPLE (continued)

The variance of the prices in the coffee-shops of the town is

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_\Psi^2 &= \frac{4 \cdot (0.22)^2}{20} + \frac{10 \cdot (0.02)^2}{20} + \frac{6 \cdot (0.18)^2}{20} \\ &= 0.0196 \text{ €}^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma_\Psi \approx 0.140 \text{ €}$$

Noted that if the prices would be different as:

1.1 € in group A  
 1.5 € in group B  
 0.7 € in group C

then

$$E\{\psi(\omega)\} = 1,18 \text{ €}$$

(the same expected price as before!)

but

$$\sigma_{\psi}^2 = 0,1216 \text{ €}^2$$

$$\sigma_{\psi} = 0,3487 \text{ €}$$

4. DISTRIBUTION AND DENSITY OF RANDOM VARIABLES

DEFINITION. Given  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , the distribution function  $F_X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  of a random variable  $X$  is defined as  $F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in (-\infty, x)\}$ .

Main properties of  $F_X(x)$  :

1)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F_X(x) = 1$

2)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$



3)  $F_X(x)$  is monotonically non decreasing:

$$F_X(x_1) \geq F_X(x_2) \text{ for } x_1 \geq x_2$$

4)  $F_X(x)$  is continuous from the left:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} F_X(x) = F_X(x_0), \forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$$

REMARK.

$$\begin{aligned} P(\{\omega \in \Omega : x_1 \leq X(\omega) < x_2\}) &= F_X(x_2) - F_X(x_1) \\ P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \geq x\}) &= 1 - F_X(x) \end{aligned}$$

The distribution function  $F_X(x)$  can be used to calculate the expectation of  $X$ .

With reference to pg. 11, for a nonnegative  $X$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \psi^n(\omega) = X(\omega)$$

where

$$\psi^n(\omega) \triangleq \sum_{i=0}^{n2^n-1} \frac{i}{2^n} \chi_{A_i}(\omega) + n \chi_{C_n}(\omega)$$

and

$$A_i \triangleq X^{-1} \left( \left[ \frac{i}{2^n}, \frac{i+1}{2^n} \right) \right)$$

$$= \left\{ \omega : \frac{i}{2^n} \leq X(\omega) < \frac{i+1}{2^n} \right\}$$

$$C_n = \left\{ \omega : X(\omega) \geq n \right\}.$$

using  $F_X$  we have

$$A_i = F_X \left( \frac{i+1}{2^n} \right) - F_X \left( \frac{i}{2^n} \right)$$

$$C_n = 1 - F_X(n)$$

then

$$E[\psi^n(\omega)] = \sum_{i=0}^{n2^n-1} \frac{i}{2^n} \left[ F_X \left( \frac{i+1}{2^n} \right) - F_X \left( \frac{i}{2^n} \right) \right]$$

$$+ n \left[ 1 - F_X(n) \right]$$

and

$$E[X(\omega)] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{n2^n-1} \frac{i}{2^n} \left[ F_X \left( \frac{i+1}{2^n} \right) - F_X \left( \frac{i}{2^n} \right) \right] + n \left[ 1 - F_X(n) \right] \right\}$$

$$\triangleq \int x dF_X(x)$$

$n \left[ 1 - F_X(n) \right] \rightarrow 0$   
 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

(whenever the limit exists)

which is a Stieltjes integral.

If  $F_x$  is absolutely continuous  
(in particular, almost everywhere differentiable):

$$E[X(\omega)] = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{n2^n-1} \frac{i}{2^n} \left[ F_x\left(\frac{i+1}{2^n}\right) - F_x\left(\frac{i}{2^n}\right) \right] + n[1 - F_x(n)] \right\}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sum_{i=0}^{n2^n-1} \frac{i}{2^n} \frac{F_x\left(\frac{i+1}{2^n}\right) - F_x\left(\frac{i}{2^n}\right)}{\frac{1}{2^n}} \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$\triangleq \int_0^{\infty} x \frac{dF_x(x)}{dx} dx$$

which is a Lebesgue integral.

DEFINITION. The probability density function  $p_x$  of a random variable  $X$  is defined as

$$p_x(x) = \frac{dF_x(x)}{dx}$$

whenever  $F_x$  is absolutely continuous.

Therefore, for a random variable  $X$

$$E\{X(\omega)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_X(x) dx$$

Notice that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dF_X(x) = F_X(+\infty) - F_X(-\infty) = 1$$

and if  $F_X$  is differentiable:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_X(x) dx = 1$$

By summing up, the expectation  $E\{X(\omega)\}$  of a random variable  $X$  can be calculated in three ways:

$$1) E\{X(\omega)\} = \int X(\omega) dP(\omega)$$

using the  $\int_{\Omega}$  probability measure  $P$ ,

$$2) E\{X(\omega)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x dF_X(x)$$

using the distribution function  $F_X$ ,

$$3) E\{X(\omega)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$

using the density  $f_X$ .

EXAMPLE.  $X(\omega) = c \quad \forall \omega$ ,

with  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ;  $X$  is a random variable and it is simple:

$$X(\omega) = c = c \chi_{\Omega}(\omega)$$

Therefore

$$E\{X(\omega)\} = P(\Omega) \cdot c = c$$

But

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq c \\ 1 & \text{if } x > c \end{cases}$$

and

$$E\{X(\omega)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c \, dF_X(x) = c$$

The derivative of  $F_X$  is defined everywhere but in  $x=c$ . Moreover, it is not continuous at  $x=c$ . For all  $x \neq c$ :

$$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} = 0$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} dx = 0 \neq E\{X(\omega)\}!$$



## 5. INDEPENDENT RANDOM VARIABLES

DEFINITION. Given  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$

a group of events  $A_1, \dots, A_N \in \mathcal{F}$  are said INDEPENDENT if

$$\mathcal{P}\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^N A_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mathcal{P}(A_i)$$

EXAMPLE.  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_4\}$  and the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}_M$  on  $\Omega$ . Moreover,  $\mathcal{P}$  is defined in such a way that  $\mathcal{P}(\{\omega_i\}) = \frac{1}{4}$ ,  $i=1, \dots, 4$ . Consider

$$A_1 = \{\omega_1, \omega_2\}$$

$$A_2 = \{\omega_2, \omega_4\}$$

$$A_3 = \{\omega_1, \omega_4\}$$

Clearly,  $\mathcal{P}(A_i) = \frac{1}{2}$  and

$$\mathcal{P}(A_i \cap A_j) = \frac{1}{4} = \mathcal{P}(A_i) \mathcal{P}(A_j)$$

for  $i \neq j$

which means that the pairs of events  $(A_i, A_j)$ ,  $i \neq j$ , are independent. But

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) &= \frac{1}{4} \neq \frac{1}{8} \\ &= P(A_1)P(A_2)P(A_3) \quad \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE. Consider  $n$  tosses of a coin with  $P(\text{head}) = P(\text{cross}) = \frac{1}{2}$ . In the overall, we have  $2^n$  possible sequences. The possible sequences with  $k$  crosses are  $\binom{n}{k}$  and the probability of having  $k$  crosses is  $\binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{2^n}$ . If

$A = \{ \text{sequences of tosses with at least one head and cross} \}$

$B = \{ \text{sequences of tosses with at most one cross} \}$



then

$$P(A) = 1 - \frac{1}{2^n} \cdot \boxed{2} = \frac{2^{n-1} - 1}{2^{n-1}}$$

sequences with either all crosses or heads

$$P(B) = \frac{\boxed{n+1}}{2^n}$$

sequences with at most one cross

and

$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{\boxed{n}}{2^n}$$

sequences with exactly one cross

so that

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

$$\text{if } n=3$$

but

$$P(A \cap B) \neq P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

$$\text{if } n=2$$

Independence is a mathematical notion!

(not physical)

DEFINITION. Two  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$  on  $\Omega$  are said INDEPENDENT ( $\mathcal{F}_1 \perp \mathcal{F}_2$ ) if  $\forall A_1 \in \mathcal{F}_1, \forall A_2 \in \mathcal{F}_2, \mathbb{1}_{A_1}$  and  $\mathbb{1}_{A_2}$  are independent.

A  $\sigma$ -algebra is said to be ATOMIC if it is generated by a countable set of disjoint sets (ATOMS). If  $\{A_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  is this family, we will write  $\sigma\{A_i\}$  for the atomic  $\sigma$ -algebra.

For two atomic  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\sigma\{A_i\}$  and  $\sigma\{B_j\}$  independency can be checked out on the atoms:

$$P(A_i \cap B_j) = P(A_i)P(B_j) \\ \forall i, j \in \mathbb{N}$$

As a matter of fact, for an atomic  $\sigma$ -algebra any event  $A$  can be written as the union of atoms  $A_i$ : if  $A = A_i \cup A_h$  and since  $A_i$  and  $A_h$  are disjoint

$$P(A \cap B_j) = P((A_i \cup A_h) \cap B_j) \quad \boxed{27}$$

$$= P((A_i \cap B_j) \cup (A_h \cap B_j))$$

$$= P(A_i \cap B_j) + P(A_h \cap B_j)$$

$$= (P(A_i) + P(A_h))P(B_j) = P(A)P(B_j)$$

↑  
if the atoms  
of  $\sigma\{A_i\}$  and  $\sigma\{B_j\}$   
are independent!

↓  
independence of  
 $A$  and  $B_j$ !

DEFINITION. Two random variables

$X_1(\omega)$  and  $X_2(\omega)$  on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  are said

INDEPENDENT if the  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{F}^{X_1}$   
and  $\mathcal{F}^{X_2}$  are independent. We will write

$$X_1 \perp X_2$$

For two simple independent random  
variables  $\psi_1, \psi_2$ :

$$E\{\psi_1 \psi_2\} = E\{\psi_1\} E\{\psi_2\}$$

As a matter of fact,

if  $A \in \mathcal{F}^{\Psi_1}$  and  $B \in \mathcal{F}^{\Psi_2}$

$$E\{X_A X_B\} = \int_{\Omega} X_A X_B dP$$

$$= \int_{A \cap B} dP = P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

$$= \int_A dP \int_B dP = \int_{\Omega} X_A dP \int_{\Omega} X_B dP$$

$$= E\{X_A\} E\{X_B\}$$

Since  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$  are simple:

$$\Psi_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i X_{A_i}, \quad \Psi_2 = \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j X_{B_j}$$

we can write

$$\Psi_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i X_{A_i \cap B_j}, \quad \Psi_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j X_{A_i \cap B_j}$$

therefore

$$\Psi_1 \Psi_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_j X_{A_i \cap B_j}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 E\{\psi_1\psi_2\} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_j P(A_i \cap B_j) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i P(A_i) \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j P(B_j) \\
 &= E\{\psi_1\} E\{\psi_2\}
 \end{aligned}$$

By straight forward extension to independent random variables  $X_1, X_2$ :

$$E\{X_1 X_2\} = E\{X_1\} E\{X_2\}$$

and, more generally,

$$E\{f(X_1)g(X_2)\} = E\{f(X_1)\} E\{g(X_2)\}$$

for any measurable functions  $f(\cdot), g(\cdot)$  (as a matter of fact  $f(X_1)$  and  $g(X_2)$  are  $\mathcal{F}^{X_1}$  and, respectively,  $\mathcal{F}^{X_2}$  measurable)

DEFINITION. For two random variables  $X, Y$ , the covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$ , denoted by  $\sigma_{XY}$ , is:

$$\sigma_{XY} \triangleq E\{(X - E\{X\})(Y - E\{Y\})\}$$

We have

$$\sigma_{XY} = E\{XY\} - E\{X\}E\{Y\}$$

this is known as CORRELATION between  $X$  and  $Y$

FACT. If  $X_1 \perp X_2$  are random variables with  $\sigma_{X_1}^2$  and, respectively,  $\sigma_{X_2}^2$ :

$$\sigma_{X_1 + X_2}^2 = \sigma_{X_1}^2 + \sigma_{X_2}^2$$

Indeed, since  $X_1 \perp X_2$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{X_1 X_2} &= E\{(X_1 - E\{X_1\})(X_2 - E\{X_2\})\} \\ &= E\{X_1 - E\{X_1\}\} E\{X_2 - E\{X_2\}\} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{X_1+X_2}^2 &= E\{(X_1+X_2 - E\{X_1+X_2\})^2\} \\ &= E\{(X_1 - E\{X_1\} + X_2 - E\{X_2\})^2\} \\ &= E\left\{\sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 (X_i - E\{X_i\})(X_j - E\{X_j\})\right\} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 E\{(X_i - E\{X_i\})(X_j - E\{X_j\})\} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^2 E\{(X_i - E\{X_i\})^2\} = \sigma_{X_1}^2 + \sigma_{X_2}^2 \end{aligned}$$

DEFINITION For two random variables  $X, Y$ :

(PEARSON) CORRELATION COEFFICIENT of  $X$  and  $Y$

$$\rho_{X,Y} \triangleq \frac{\sigma_{X,Y}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \triangleq \rho_{X_1 X_2}$$

Notice  $\rho_{X_1 X_2} \in [-1, 1]$  since

$$E\{X^2\}E\{Y^2\} - E\{XY\}^2 \geq 0$$

(from  $E\{(XE\{Y^2\} - YE\{XY\})^2\} \geq 0$ )

Two random variables  $X_1, X_2$   
are said UNCORRELATED if

$$E X_1 X_2 = 0$$

For uncorrelated  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  we have  
also:

$$\begin{cases} E\{X_1 X_2\} = E\{X_1\} E\{X_2\} \\ \sigma_{X_1+X_2}^2 = \sigma_{X_1}^2 + \sigma_{X_2}^2 \end{cases}$$

However,

INDEPENDENCE  $\Rightarrow$  UNCORRELATION  
UNCORRELATION  $\not\Rightarrow$  INDEPENDENCE

EXAMPLE.  $\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_4\}$ ,  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_M$

and

$$P(\omega_1) = \frac{1}{9}, P(\omega_2) = \frac{2}{9}, P(\omega_3) = \frac{2}{9}, P(\omega_4) = \frac{4}{9}$$

The random variables

$$X_1(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega \in \{\omega_1, \omega_2\} \\ 3 & \omega \in \{\omega_3, \omega_4\} \end{cases} \quad X_2(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega \in \{\omega_1, \omega_3\} \\ 2 & \omega \in \{\omega_2, \omega_4\} \end{cases}$$

are independent.



Indeed

$$\mathcal{F}^{X_1} = \{\emptyset, A, A^c, \Omega\}$$

$$A \triangleq \{\omega_1, \omega_2\}$$

$$A^c = \{\omega_3, \omega_4\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{F}^{X_2} = \{\emptyset, B, B^c, \Omega\}$$

$$B \triangleq \{\omega_1, \omega_3\}, \quad B^c = \{\omega_2, \omega_4\}$$

with

$$P(A) = \frac{1}{3}, \quad P(A^c) = \frac{2}{3}, \quad P(B) = \frac{1}{3}, \quad P(B^c) = \frac{2}{3}$$

so that

$$P(A \cap B) = P(\omega_1) = \frac{1}{9}, \quad P(A^c \cap B) = P(\omega_3) = \frac{2}{9}$$

$$P(A \cap B^c) = P(\omega_2) = \frac{2}{9}, \quad P(A^c \cap B^c) = P(\omega_4) = \frac{4}{9}$$

EXAMPLE.  $(X, Y)$  be random variables

assuming  $(-1, 1)$ ,  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$  with probability  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ , respectively.

$$E\{Y\} = E\{X\} = -1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 0$$

$$E\{XY\} = -1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow X, Y$  are uncorrelated! But

$$P\{X = -1, Y = 1\} = \frac{1}{4} \neq \frac{1}{16} = P\{X = -1\}P\{Y = 1\}$$

$\Rightarrow X, Y$  are NOT independent!

## 6. SOME DISTRIBUTIONS

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### 6.1 BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

Consider  $N$  random variables on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$

$X_i, i=1, \dots, N$ , independent and such that

$$\mathbb{P}\{\omega : X_i(\omega) = 1\} = p$$

$$\mathbb{P}\{\omega : X_i(\omega) = 0\} = 1 - p$$

Let determine the distribution of

$$X(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i(\omega)$$

The number of possible sequences of  $N$  zeros and ones with sum equal to  $n$  is  $\binom{N}{n}$ . Each sequence has probability

$p^n (1-p)^{N-n}$ , therefore

$$\mathbb{P}\{X(\omega) = n\} = \binom{N}{n} p^n (1-p)^{N-n}$$

The distribution function  $F_X(n)$  is

$$F_X(n) = \mathbb{P}\{X(\omega) \leq n\} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k}$$

Notice that

$$1 = (p + 1 - p)^N = \sum_{k=0}^N \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} = F_X(N)$$

Finally, using the distribution function,

$$E\{X(\omega)\} = \sum_{n=0}^N n \binom{N}{n} p^n (1-p)^{N-n} = Np$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = \sum_{n=0}^N (n - Np)^2 \binom{N}{n} p^n (1-p)^{N-n} = Npq$$

## 6.2 POISSON DISTRIBUTION

If  $N \rightarrow \infty$  and  $p \rightarrow 0$  in such a way that

$$Np = a$$

with given  $a$ , we obtain the POISSON distribution. With  $n \ll N$

$$\frac{N!}{(N-n)!} = N(N-1)\dots(N-n+1) \approx N^n$$

and from the binomial distribution

$$P\{X(\omega) = n\} = \binom{N}{n} p^n (1-p)^{N-n} \quad \text{[36]}$$

$$\approx \frac{(Np)^n}{n!} (1-p)^{N-n}$$

$$\approx \frac{a^n}{n!} (1-p)^{\frac{a}{p}} \quad (\text{since } n \ll N)$$

and for  $p \rightarrow 0$  :

$$P\{X(\omega) = n\} \approx \frac{a^n}{n!} e^{-a}$$

with

$$F_X(n) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{a^k e^{-a}}{k!}$$

Notice  $F_X(\infty) = 1$ . Moreover,

$$E\{X(\omega)\} = a$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = a$$

# 6.3 GAUSSIAN DISTRIBUTION

We use the following integrals:

$$I \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}. \text{ This follows from:}$$

$$I^2 \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy =$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-e^2} e^{i\theta} r dr d\theta = \pi$$

Also define

$$g(x, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

DEFINITION. A gaussian random variable  $X(\omega)$  is such that

$$p_X(x) = g(x - m, \sigma), \quad m \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \sigma > 0.$$

$$E\{X(\omega)\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_X(x) dx = m$$

$$\sigma_X^2 = E\{(X(\omega) - E\{X(\omega)\})^2\} = \sigma^2$$

If  $N$  independent random variables  $X_i$  are considered and

$$Y_N(\omega) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i(\omega)$$

whatever is the distribution of  $X_i$  with finite variance then

$$F_{Y_N}(y) \rightarrow F_Y(y), \quad Y \text{ gaussian,} \\ \text{as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

(this is known as the CENTRAL LIMIT theorem). Therefore, the gaussian distribution is important in modeling a process which results from several independent causes, each contributing an error or influence in a different way.