### 1.1 Review of Probability Theory

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Lecture notes follow: Allen, Linda JS. An introduction to stochastic processes with applications to biology. CRC Press, 2010.

#### Sample Space

Set S collection of elements

#### $\sigma$ -algebra

A collection of events (subsets in S) A is a  $\sigma$ -algebra if

- 1.  $S \in A$
- 2. If  $B \in A$ , then the complement of B is in A. i.e.  $B^c = \{s : s \in S, S \notin B\} \in A$
- 3. If sequence  $\{B_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathcal{A}$  then the union  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \in \mathcal{A}$

Here A is **measurable** and the ordered pair (S, A) is a **measurable space**.

#### **Probability Measure**

P, a real-valued function defined on  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ . The set function  $P: \mathcal{A} \to [0,1]$  is a probability measure if

1. 
$$P(B) \ge 0$$
 for all  $B \in \mathcal{A}$ 

2. 
$$P(S) = 1$$

3. If  $B_i \bigcap B_j = \emptyset$  for  $j, i = 1, 2, ..., i \neq j$  (pairwise disjoint) then  $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(B_i)$  where  $B_i \in \mathcal{A}$  for i = 1, 2, ...

#### **Probability Space**

#### ordered triple (S, A, P)

- S is the sample space
- A is the collection of events (subsets in S) and is a  $\sigma$ -algebra:

1. 
$$S \in A$$

2. If  $B \in \mathcal{A}$ , then the complement of B is in  $\mathcal{A}$ . i.e.

$$B^c = \{s: s \in S, S \notin B\} \in \mathcal{A}$$

3. If sequence  $\{B_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \in \mathcal{A}$  then the union  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \in \mathcal{A}$ 

#### P is a probability measure:

- 1.  $P(B) \ge 0$  for all  $B \in \mathcal{A}$
- 2. P(S) = 1
- 3. If  $B_i \bigcap B_j = \emptyset$  for  $j, i = 1, 2, ..., i \neq j$  (pairwise disjoint) then  $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(B_i)$  where  $B_i \in \mathcal{A}$  for i = 1, 2, ...

#### Conditional Probability

For events  $B_1$ ,  $B_2 \in A$ . The conditional probability of event  $B_1$  given event  $B_2$  is

$$P(B_1|B_2) = rac{P(B_1 \cap B_2)}{P(B_2)}$$

The conditional probability of event  $B_2$  given event  $B_1$  is

$$P(B_1|B_2) = rac{P(B_1 \cap B_2)}{P(B_1)}.$$

#### Independent Events

 $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are independent if and only if

$$P(B_1 \cap B_2) = P(B_1)P(B_2)$$

i.e.  $P(B_1|B_2) = P(B_1)$  and  $P(B_2|B_1) = P(B_2)$ .

#### Random Variable

 $(S, \mathcal{A})$  measurable space. A random variable X is a real function on S. X :  $S \to \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$X^{-1}(-\infty,a] = \{s,X(s) \le a\} \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Let A be the range of X.  $A = \{x, X(s) = x, s \in S\}$ . A is the state space of X.

- If A is finite or countable infinite then X is a discrete random variable
- If A is an interval (finite or infinite in length) then X is a continuous random variable

### Example

#### Two sequential fair coin tosses

- What is the sample space?
  - $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$
- X is the discrete random variable with state space  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ :
  - X(HH) = 1, X(HT) = 2, X(TH) = 3, X(TT) = 4
- Each event has probability 1/4:
  - ►  $P({HH}) = \frac{1}{4}, P({HT}) = \frac{1}{4}, P({TH}) = \frac{1}{4}, P({TT}) = \frac{1}{4}$
- ► Let B<sub>1</sub> be the event that 1<sup>st</sup> coin toss is head and B<sub>2</sub> the event that the 2<sup>nd</sup> coin toss is head:
  - $B_1 = \{HH, HT\} = \text{set } \{1, 2\}$
  - $B_2 = \{HH, TH\} = \text{set } \{1, 3\}$
- We can see  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are **independent** events:

$$P(B_2|B_1) = \frac{P(B_1 \cap B_2)}{P(B_1)} = \frac{P(\{HH\})}{P(B_1)} = \frac{1/4}{1/2} = \frac{1}{2} = P(B_2)$$

- Since random variable is defined as X : S → ℝ. Events can be related to subsets of ℝ.
  - Ex:  $B_1 = \{HH, HT\} = \text{set } \{1, 2\}$
- X = x is shorthand for the events  $\{s : X(s) = x, s \in S\}$
- $X \leq x$  is shorthand for the events  $\{s : X(s) \leq x, s \in S\}$
- The probability measure can be defined on  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$P_X:\mathbb{R}\to[0,1]$$

#### Cumulative Distribution Function

c.d.f. of the random variable X is the function  $F:\mathbb{R} \to [0,1]$  defined by

$$F(x) = P_X((-\infty, x]).$$

F is nondecreasing, right continuous, and satisfies

$$\lim_{x\to\infty}F(x)=F(-\infty)=0\qquad \&\qquad \lim_{x\to\infty}F(x)=1.$$

describes how the probabilities accumulate

Probability measure for discrete random variable

#### Probability Mass Function

For discrete random variable X, the function  $f(x) = P_X(X = x)$  is the p.m.f. of X.

Some properties of *f* :

$$\sum_{x\in A} f(x) = 1$$
 &  $P_X(X\in B) = \sum_{x\in B} f(x)$ 

for any  $B \subset A$ . The c.d.f. F of a discrete random variable satisfies

$$F(x) = \sum_{a_1 \leq x} f(a_i)$$

where  $a_i$  are the elements of A.

### Example

#### Discrete uniform distribution

A finite number of values are equally likely to be observed; every one of n values has equal probability  $1/{\rm n}.$ 

Let  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  and f(x) = 1/5 for  $x \in A$ .



Probability measure for continuous random variable

#### Probability Density Function

For continuous random variable X with c.d.f F. If there exists a nonnegative, integrable function  $f : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty)$ :

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(y) dy$$

then f is the p.d.f of X.

Some properties of *f*:

$$P_X(X \in A) = \int_A f(x) dx = 1$$
 &  $P_X(X \in B) = \int_B f(x) dx$ 

for any  $B \subset A$ , In particular:

$$P_X(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Note for a continuous random variable  $P_X(a < X < b) = P_X(a \le x \le b)$ .

### Example

#### Continuous uniform distribution

Each value is equally likely to be observed. For p.d.f.:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } a \le x \le b, \\ 0 & \text{for } x < a \text{ or } x > b \end{cases}$$



**Discrete Distributions** 

#### Discrete Uniform

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{for } x = 1, 2, ..., n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Geometric

$$f(x) = p(1-p)^x$$
 for  $x = 0, 1, ...$  and  $0$ 

Here, p is the portability of success and f(x) is the probability of one success in x + 1 trials

**Discrete Distributions** 

#### Binomial

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^{x} (1-p)^{n-x} & \text{for } x = 0, 1, 2, ..., n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where n is a positive integer, 0 is the probability of success, and

$$\binom{n}{x} = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!}.$$

It is denoted as b(n, p). Think of f(x) as the probability of x successes in n trials.

We will see this is the solution for a simple death process.

**Discrete Distributions** 

**Negative Binomial** 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{x+n-1}{n-1} p^n (1-p)^x & \text{for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where *n* is a positive integer and 0 is the probability of success.Think of <math>f(x) as the probability of *n* successes in n + x trials. For n = 1 it simplifies to the geometric distribution.

We will see this is the solution for a simple birth process.

**Discrete Distributions** 

#### Poisson

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^{x} e^{-\lambda}}{x!} & \text{ for } x = 0, 1, 2, ... \\ 0 & \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $\lambda$  is a positive constant.

This distribution is important in continuous-time Markov chain models.

**Continuous Distributions** 

#### Uniform

$$f(x) = egin{cases} rac{1}{b-a} & ext{for } a \leq x \leq b \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where a < b are constants. It is denoted as U(a, b).

The uniform distribution is the basis for random number generators, which are used for many stochastic models.

**Continuous Distributions** 

#### Gamma

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} & \text{ for } x \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{ for } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

where  $\alpha, \beta$  are positive constants, and  $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha}} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx$ . For a positive integer n,  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ .

Exponential

$$F(x) = egin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & ext{ for } x \geq 0 \ 0 & ext{ for } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

where  $\lambda$  is the positive constant.

Exponential d. is a special case of the Gamma d. with  $\alpha = 1, \beta = 1/\lambda$ . These distributions are associated with waiting time distributions.

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**Continuous Distributions** 

#### Normal

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

for  $-\infty < x < \infty$ , where  $\mu, \sigma$  are constants.

- A random variable X that is uniformly distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  is denoted as  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .
- The standard normal distribution is N(0, 1).
- The normal distribution is the underlying distribution for brownian motion (diffusion process).

### Expectation

#### Expectation of X

For continuous random variable X with p.d.f. f, the expectation is defined as

$$E(X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) dx.$$

For discrete random variable X with probability function f defined on space  $A = \{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ , the expectation is defined as

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i f(ai).$$

- helps characterize the p.d.f. of a random variable.
- ► E(X) is a weight average: the p.d.f. f is weighted by the values of the random variable X.

### Expectation

Properties

• Expectations of a function of a random variable:

$$E(u(X)) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} u(x)f(x)dx$$
$$E(u(X)) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} u(a_i)f(a_i)$$

• The expectation is a linear operator defined on set of functions u(X):

$$E(a_1u_1(X) + a_2u_2(X)) = a_1E(u_1(X)) + a_2E(u_2(X))$$

- E(b) = b for constant b
- ▶ We define the mean, variance, and moments of *X* in terms of the expectation.

# Mean, Variance, Moments

#### Mean

The mean of the random variable X is  $\mu_X = E(X)$ .

#### Variance and Standard Deviation

The variance of the random variable X is  $\sigma_X^2 = E([X - \mu_X]^2)$ . The standard deviation of X is  $\sigma$ . Notation:  $\sigma^2 = \sigma_X^2 = VAR(X)$ .

#### Moments

The n<sup>th</sup> moment of X about point a is  $E([X - a]^n)$ .

The mean is the  $1^{st}$  moment about the origin. The variance is the  $2^{nd}$  moment about the mean.

$$\sigma_X^2 = E([X - \mu_X]^2) = E(X^2) - 2\mu_X E(X) + \mu_X^2 = E(X^2) - \mu_X^2$$

### Example

#### Discrete uniform distribution

X is a random variable with a discrete uniform distribution.

1. What is the mean of X?

$$\mu_X = E(X) = \sum_{x=1}^n xf(x) = \sum_{x=1}^n x\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{x=1}^n x = \frac{1}{n}\left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right) = \frac{n+1}{2}$$

2. What is the variance of X?  $\sigma_X^2 = E(X^2) - \mu_X^2$ 

$$E(X^2) = \sum_{x=1}^n x^2 \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{x=1}^n x^2 = \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right) = \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$
$$\sigma_X^2 = E(X^2) - \mu_X^2 = \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} - \left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{n^2 - 1}{12}$$

### Example

#### Continuous uniform distribution

Y is a random variable with a discrete uniform distribution. Y is distributed as U(0, 1).

1. What is the mean of Y?

$$\mu_Y = E(Y) = \int_0^1 y f(y) dy = \int_0^1 y \frac{1}{1-0} dy = \int_0^1 y \, dy = \frac{1}{2}$$

2. What is the variance of Y?  $\sigma_Y^2 = E(Y^2) - \mu_Y^2$ 

$$E(Y^2) = \int_0^1 y^2 f(y) dy = \int_0^1 y^2 dy = \frac{1}{3}$$
$$\sigma_Y^2 = E(Y^2) - \mu_Y^2 = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{12}$$

### Multivariate Distributions

Several random variables  $(X_1, X_1, ..., X_n)$  can be associated with the same sample space. Then multivariate probability density/mass functions can be defined  $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ .

State Space for random vector  $(X_1, X_2)$ 

 $A=\{(X_1(s),X_2(s))|s\in S\}\subset \mathbb{R}^2$ 

#### Joint Probability Density Function

Continuous random variables  $X_1, X_2$  with probability measure  $P: S \to [0, 1]$ .  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to [0, \infty)$  is the joint p.d.f if

$$\iint_{A} f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 = 1 \quad \& \quad P_{(x_1, x_2)}(B) = \iint_{B} f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2$$

for  $B \subset A$ . The marginal p.d.f for  $X_1$  is  $f_1(x_1) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x_1, x_2) dx_2$ .

### Multivariate Distributions

#### Joint Probability Mass Function

Discrete random variables  $X_1, X_2$  with probability measure  $P : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ .  $f : A \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is the joint p.m.f if

$$\sum_{A} f(x_1, x_2) = 1 \quad \& \quad P_{(x_1, x_2)}(B) = \sum_{B} f(x_1, x_2)$$

for  $B \subset A$ . The marginal p.m.f for  $X_1$  is  $f_1(x_1) = \sum_{x_2} f(x_1, x_2)$ .

#### Covariance

The covariance of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , two jointly distributed random variables is

$$cov(X_1, X_2) = E(X_1, X_2) - E(X_1)E(X_2).$$

If  $cov(X_1, X_2) = 0$  the random variables are **uncorrelated**.

Discrete random variable

X discrete random variable on state space  $\{0, 1, 2, ...\}$  with p.m.f.  $f(j) = \text{Prob}\{X = j\} = p_j$  where  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} p_j = 1$ .

$$\mu_X = E(X) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} jp_j$$
 &  $\sigma_X^2 = E(X^2) - \mu_X^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} j^2 p_j - \mu_X^2.$ 

#### Probability Generating Function

The p.g.f of X is the function

$$\mathcal{P}_X(t) = E(t^X) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} p_j t^j$$

for some  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Since  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} p_j = 1$  the sum converges absolutely if  $|t| \leq 1$ .

Discrete random variable

Probability Generating Function

The p.g.f of X is the function

$$\mathcal{P}_X(t) = E(t^X) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} p_j t^j$$

for some  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

 $\mathcal{P}(t)$  generates the probabilities associated with the distribution

$$\mathcal{P}_X(0) = p_0, \quad \mathcal{P}'_X(0) = p_1, \quad \mathcal{P}''_X(0) = 2! p_2, \quad \dots, \quad \mathcal{P}^{(k)}_X(0) = k! p_k$$

Mean and variance calculated from the p.g.f.

$$\mathcal{P}'_X(1) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j p_j = E(X) = \mu_X$$
 &  $\sigma_X^2 = \mathcal{P}''_X(1) + \mathcal{P}'_X(1) - (\mathcal{P}'_X(1))^2$ 

Discrete random variable

Moment Generating Function

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tx}) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} p_j e^{-jt}$$

m.g.f. generates the moments  $E(X^k)$  of the distribution of X.  $M_X(0) = 1$ ,  $M'_X(0) = E(X)$ ,  $M''_X(0) = E(X^2)$ ,...,  $M^{(k)}_X(0) = E(X^k)$ 

Characteristic Function

$$\phi_X(t) = E(e^{itX}) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} p_j e^{ijt}$$

Cumulant Generating Function

$$K_X(t) = \ln[M_X(t)]$$

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Continuous random variable X with p.d.f f

Probability Generating Function

$$\mathcal{P}_X(t) = E(t^X) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) t^X dx$$

Moment Generating Function

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tx}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)e^{tx}dx$$

Characteristic Function

$$\phi_X(t) = E(e^{itX}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)e^{ixt} dx$$

Cumulant Generating Function

$$K_X(t) = \ln[M_X(t)]$$

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Continuous random variable X with p.d.f f

Mean and variance calculated from the p.g.f., m.g.f, and c.g.f.

$$\mu_X = \mathcal{P}'_X(1) = M'_X(0) = K'_X(0)$$
$$\sigma_X^2 = \begin{cases} \mathcal{P}''_X(1) + \mathcal{P}'_X(1) - [\mathcal{P}'_X(1)]^2\\ M''_X(0) - [M'_X(0)]^2\\ K''_X(0) \end{cases}$$

#### Central Limit Theorem

Let  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n, ...$ , be a sequence of independent and identically distributed variables (*i.i.d*: n independent variables with the same distribution) with finite mean  $|\mu| < \infty$  and standard deviation  $0 < \sigma < \infty$ .

$$W_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i / n - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

has a standard normal distribution for  $n 
ightarrow \infty$  .

- Relates the sum of independent random variables to the normal dist.
- Even if the original variables themselves are not normally distributed
  - ▶ For any distribution of the X<sub>n</sub> (as long as mean/variance finite), these amplified differences will be ~ normally distributed for n large.
  - If the distribution is skewed and discrete the sample size may need to be large for a good approximation
- This observation presumably explains why so many quantities are approximately normally distributed
  - The microscopic details are lost to the limit when we consider a macroscopic system in which the components act additively.