## REVIEW OF STAT 265

A simple event is an event that cannot be decomposed. The sample space associated with an experiment is the set consisting of all possible sample points, denoted by $\mathcal{S}$. That is $\mathcal{S}=\left\{E_{0}, E_{1}, \ldots\right\}$

A discrete sample space is the one that contains either a finite or a countable number of distinct sample points.

An event in a discrete sample space is a collection of sample points ( any subset of $\mathcal{S}$ ).

Probability: Suppose $\mathcal{S}$ is a sample space associated with an experiment. To every event $A$ in $\mathcal{S}$ we assign a number (measure), $P(A)$, called the probability of $A$ such that the following axioms hold:
i). $P(A) \geq 0$
ii). $P(\mathcal{S})=1$
iii) If $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots$ form a sequence of pair-wise mutually exclusive events in $\mathcal{S}$ ( that is, $A_{i} \cap A_{j}=\phi$ if $i \neq j=1,2, . ., \infty$.), then

$$
P\left(A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3} \cup \ldots\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P\left(A_{i}\right)
$$

## Results on permutation and combination:

An ordered arrangement of $r$ distinct objects is called a permutation. The number of ways of ordering $n$ distinct objects taken $r$ at a time is given by

$$
P_{r}^{n}={ }_{n} P_{r}=\frac{n!}{(n-r)!},
$$

where, $n!=n(n-1)(n-2), \ldots 3.2 .1$ (multiplication of $n$ consecutive integers from 1 to $n$ ).

The number of ways of choosing $r$ distinct objects from $n$ distinct objects ( $r \leq n$ ) is given by

$$
C_{r}^{n}=\binom{n}{r}={ }_{n} C_{r}=\frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} .
$$

The number of ways of partitioning $n$ distinct objects into $k$ distinct groups containing $n_{1} . n_{2}, \ldots . n_{k}$ distinct objects, respectively, where each object appears in exactly one group and $\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}=n$, is given by

$$
M=\frac{n!}{n_{1}!n_{2}!\ldots . n_{k}!}
$$

## Conditional Probability and the Independence of events:

Consider two events $A$ and $B$.

The conditional probability of an event $A$, given that an event $B$ has occurred is equal to

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

provided $P(B)>0$. The notation $P(A \mid B)$ is read 'probability of $A$ given $B^{\prime}$. Similarly, the probability of $B$ given $A$ is given by $P(B \mid A)=\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$ provided $P(A)>0$.

Two events $A$ and $B$ are said to independent if any one of the following holds: i). $P(A \mid B)=P(A) \mathrm{ii}) . P(B \mid A)=P(B)$
iii) $P(A \cap B)=P(A) P(B)$
otherwise, the events are said to be dependent.

## Two laws of Probability

1. Multiplicative Law:

The probability of the intersection of two events $A$ and $B$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(A \cap B) & =P(A) P(B \mid A) \\
& =P(B) P(A \mid B)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $A$ and $B$ are independent events, then $P(A \cap B)=P(A) P(B)$.
2. Additive Law:

The probability of the union of two events $A$ and $B$ is given by

$$
P(A \cup B)=P(A)+P(B)-P(A \cap B)
$$

Note that if $A$ and $B$ are independent events, then $P(A \cup B)=$ $P(A)+P(B)$. Further, one can verify $P(A)=1-P(\bar{A})$, where $\bar{A}$ is the compliment of event $A$. This result is useful when $P(\bar{A})$ is easier to calculate compared to $P(A)$.

## Bayes' Rule

Suppose $\left\{B_{1}, B_{2}, . . B_{k}\right\}$ is a partition of $\mathcal{S}$ (that is $\mathcal{S}=B_{1} \cup$ $B_{2} \cup, \ldots, \cup B_{k}$ and $B_{i} \cap B_{k}=\phi$ for $\left.i \neq j=1,2, . ., k\right)$, such that $P\left(B_{i}\right)>0$, for $i=1,2, \ldots, k$. Then, for any event $A$

$$
P\left(B_{j} \mid A\right)=\frac{P\left(A \mid B_{j}\right) P\left(B_{j}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} P\left(A \mid B_{i}\right) P\left(B_{i}\right)}
$$

## RandomVariables:

A random variable is a real-valued function for which the domain is a sample space.

## Discrete Random Variable:

A random variable $Y$ is said to be discrete if it can assume only a finite or countable infinite number of distinct values.

The probability that $Y$ takes on the value $y, P(Y=y$ ), (for notation simplicity this is denoted by $p(y)$ ) is defined as the sum of the probabilities of all sample points in $\mathcal{S}$ that are assigned the value $y$. Probability Distribution for a Discrete random variable. The probability distribution for a discrete random variable $Y$ can be represented by a formula, a table, or a graph, which provides $p(y)=P(Y=y)$ for all $y$.

## Expected Value of $Y$ or $g(Y)$

Let $Y$ be a discrete random variable with the probability function $p(y)$. Then the expected value of $Y, E(Y)$ is defined to be (provided it exists; see page 88 of your text)

$$
E(Y)=\sum_{y} y p(y)
$$

where the sum is taken over all $y$. Sometimes, $E(Y)$ is denoted by $\mu$, the distribution(population) mean.

Let $Y$ be a random variable with probability function $p(y)$ and $g(y)$ be a real-valued function of $Y$. Then the expected value of $g(Y)$ is given by

$$
E[g(y)]=\sum_{y} g(y) p(y) .
$$

## Variance of a random variable.

The variance of a random variable $Y$, denoted by $V(Y)$ is defined to be the expected value of $[Y-E(Y)]^{2}$. That is,

$$
V(Y)=E\left[\{Y-E(Y)\}^{2}\right]=E(Y-\mu)^{2}=\sum_{y}(y-\mu)^{2} p(y)
$$

The standard deviation of $Y$ is the positive square root of $V(Y)$. Often, $V(Y)$ is abbreviated by $\sigma^{2}$.

## Some Results on Expectation:

1. Let $Y$ be a discrete random variable with probability function $p(y)$ and $c$ be a constant. Then $E(c)=c$.
2. Let $Y$ be a discrete random variable with probability function $p(y), g(Y)$ be a function of $Y$, and let $c$ be a constant. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
a) . \quad E[c g(Y)] & =c E[g(Y)] \\
b) . \quad E[c+g(Y)] & =c+E[g(Y)] .
\end{aligned}
$$

3. Let $Y$ be a discrete random variable with probability function $p(y)$ and $g_{1}(Y), g_{2}(Y), \ldots, g_{k}(Y)$ be $k$ functions of $Y$. Then $E\left[g_{1}(Y)+g_{2}(Y)+\ldots+g_{k}(Y)\right]=E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{k} g_{i}(Y)\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{k} E\left[g_{i}(Y)\right]=E\left[g_{1}(Y)\right]+$
4. Let $Y$ be a discrete random variable with probability function $p(y)$, then

$$
V(Y)=\sigma^{2}=E\left[(Y-\mu)^{2}\right]=E\left(Y^{2}\right)-\mu^{2}, \text { where } \mu=E(Y) .
$$

## Tchebysheff's Theorem:

Let $Y$ be a random variable with mean $\mu$ and finite variance $\sigma^{2}$. Then, for any constant $k>0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(|Y-\mu|<k \sigma) \geq 1-\frac{1}{k^{2}} \text { or } \\
& P(|Y-\mu| \geq k \sigma)<\frac{1}{k^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## THE BINOMIAL PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION

A binomial experiment possesses the following properties:

1. The experiment consists of a fixed number, $n$, of identical trials.
2. Each trial results in one of two outcomes. We will call one outcome success, $S$, and the other failure, $F$.
3. The probability of success on a single trial is equal to some value $p$ and remains the same from trial to trial. The probability of a failure is equal to $q=1-p$.
4. The trials are independent.
5. The random variable of interest is $Y$, the number of successes observed during the $n$ trials.

A random variable $Y$ is said to have a binomial distribution based on $n$ trials with success probability $p$ if and only if

$$
p(y)=\binom{n}{y} p^{y}(1-p)^{n-y} ; y=0,1,2,3, \ldots, n \text { and } 0 \leq p \leq 1
$$

We write $Y \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n, p)$ to indicate that the random variable $Y$ is distributed as a binomial with $n$ trials and $p$ as success probability $p$ in a single trial.

## SOME RESULTS ON BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E(Y)=n p \\
& V(Y)=n p(1-p)
\end{aligned}
$$

Moment generating function: $M_{Y}(t)=E\left(e^{t Y}\right)=\left[p e^{t}+(1-p)\right]^{n}$

