### **Probability Models**

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### **Probability Models**

A probability model describes an experiment or phenomenon where the outcome isn't known in advance, or can't be predicted with certainty, e.g.,

- flipping a coin;
- who will be the next president;
- whether two students in 2700 have the same birthday.

Probability models are defined by *three elements*:

- 1. sample space S: contains all the possible outcomes;
- 2. set of events  $\mathcal{E}$ : subsets of  $\mathcal{S}$ ;
- 3. probability function *P*: assigns probabilities (i.e., numbers between 0 and 1) to events.

# Probability Models: Example

### Probability model for flipping a fair coin:

- 1. sample space  $S = \{\text{heads}, \text{tails}\}$
- 2. set of events  $\mathcal{E} = \{\emptyset, \{\text{heads}\}, \{\text{tails}\}, \mathcal{S}\}$
- 3. probability function P:
  - $P(\emptyset) = 0$
  - ▶  $P(\{\text{heads}\}) = 0.5$
  - $P(\{\text{tails}\}) = 0.5$
  - P(S) = 1

#### **Events**

An **event** is a subset of possible outcomes that has a probability assigned to it.

#### **Examples of Events:**

- ▶ (throwing a die)  $\{1,3,5\}$  = set of all odd outcomes
- ▶ (value of the Dow Jones)  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 15,000\} = \text{set of all outcomes exceeding } 15,000$

Set manipulation can make computing probabilities easier.

# Set Manipulation

Let A and B be events (which are sets).

- ▶ A and B occur:  $A \cap B = \text{set of all outcomes that are in both } A \text{ and } B$
- ▶ A or B occurs:  $A \cup B = \text{set of all outcomes that are in } A \text{ or } B$
- ightharpoonup A doesn't occur:  $A^c$  = set of all outcomes that are not in A

For a sequence  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  of events,

- $ightharpoonup \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \text{set of all outcomes in } A_1 \text{ and } A_2 \text{ and } \dots$
- $igspace \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \text{set of all outcomes in } A_1 \text{ or } A_2 \text{ or } \dots$

# Set Manipulation

**De Morgan's Laws:** For any sequence  $A_1, A_2, \ldots$  of events,

$$\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c$$

$$\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i^c$$

# **Probability Functions**

A **probability function** is a function  $P(\cdot)$ , which assigns a number between 0 and 1 to every event, that satisfies the *axioms of probability*:

- 1.  $P(A) \ge 0$  for every event A.
- 2. If the events  $A_1, A_2, ...$  are mutually exclusive (i.e.,  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all i and j), then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty}A_i\right)=P(A_1)+P(A_2)+\cdots.$$

3. P(S) = 1.

# Properties of Probability Functions

$$P(\emptyset) = 0$$

For *finitely* many mutually exclusive events  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ ,

$$P(A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n) = P(A_1) + \cdots + P(A_n)$$

For any event A,

$$P(A) \leq 1$$
  $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$ 

# Properties of Probability Functions

For any two events A and B,

$$P(A) \leq P(B)$$
 if A is a subset of B

#### **Inclusion-Exclusion Formula:**

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

# Defining Probability Functions: Discrete ${\cal S}$

When the sample space S is discrete (i.e., finite or countably infinite), any assignment of numbers  $p_s$  for each outcome  $s \in S$  where

$$p_s \geq 0 \quad ext{for all } s, \quad ext{ and } \qquad \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} p_s = 1$$

defines a probability function P as follows:

$$P(A) = \sum_{s \in A} p_s$$
 for each event  $A$ .

# Example: Throwing a Fair Die

Sample Space:  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ 

Set of Events:  $\mathcal{E} = \text{collection of all subsets of } \mathcal{S}$ 

Probability Function: Let  $p_s = \frac{1}{6}$  for s = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

**Example:** The probability that the outcome is divisible by 3 is

$$P({3,6}) = p_3 + p_6 = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

# Defining Probability Functions: Continuous ${\mathcal S}$

When S is  $\mathbb{R}$  (the set of all real numbers), we consider a *density* functions f(x) where

$$f(x) \ge 0$$
 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ .

To define a probability function P, for

$$[a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x \le b\}$$

let

$$P([a,b]) = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

### **Example: Service Times**

In queueing theory, the following probability model is often used for the time that it takes a server (e.g., a bank teller) to serve a customer. Take some  $\lambda > 0$  and consider the density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{when } x \ge 0, \\ 0 & \text{when } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Question: What's the probability that the service time is at least 3 time units?

A. 
$$1 - \lambda e^{-3\lambda}$$

B. 
$$e^{-3\lambda}$$

C. 
$$\lambda e^{-3\lambda}$$

C. 
$$\lambda e^{-3\lambda}$$
D.  $1 - e^{-3\lambda}$ 

### Picking a Probability Function

Three common ways to decide what probability function to use (i.e. what  $p_s$ 's or what f(x) to use):

- 1. Symmetry
- 2. Estimate the probabilities from the data
- Theory

# Symmetry

When we want all outcomes to be equally likely.

#### **Examples:**

▶ Discrete S: Toss 2 fair dice.

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(i,j) : i,j \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}\}$$
 $p_{(i,j)} = 1/36$  for all  $(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}$ 

**Continuous** S: Pick a number at random from [0,1].

$$S = [0, 1] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 0 \le x \le 1\}.$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Estimate Probabilities from Data

**Example:** To estimate the probability that a Cornell student was born in New York state vs. other places, we take a poll! Caution: The folks in this room are a biased sample!

- A. Born in New York state.
- B. Born elsewhere in the U.S.
- C. Born outside of the U.S.

# Theory

**Example:** The *Poisson distribution* is appropriate for modeling the number of calls that a call center receives per hour when receiving one call doesn't affect the time that another call's received.

In this case,  $\mathcal{S}=\{0,1,2,\dots\}$  and the probability that s calls are received during a given hour is

$$p_s = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^s}{s!},$$

where the parameter  $\lambda$  needs to be estimated.

Some other random phenomena:

- Number of patients arriving in an emergency room between midnight and 1am.
- Number of decay events per second from a radioactive source.
- Number of search queries Google receives per second.

# Birthday Problem

Question: What's the probability that at least 2 students in this class have the same birthday?

#### **Assumptions:**

- 1. No leap year (i.e., every year has 365 days).
- 2. Births occur on every day with equal likelihood.

Sample Space: Let N be the number of students in this class, and

$$S = \{(b_1, \ldots, b_N) : b_n \in \{1, \ldots, 365\}, \ n = 1, \ldots N\}$$

# Birthday Problem

Let A be the event that at least 2 students have the same birthday.

It's easier to calculate the probability of  $A^c$ , the event that everyone has a different birthday, and use  $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$ :

# Birthday Problem

Note that  $P(A^c)$  decreases (so P(A) increases) as the number of students N increases.

Question: Based on your intuition, how many students do you think are needed to make  $P(A) \approx 0.5$ ?

- A. 2
- B. 25
- C. 250
- D. 2,500

# Summary

- A probability model consists of:
  - 1. sample space  $\mathcal{S}$
  - 2. set of events  $\mathcal{E}$
  - 3. probability function P satisfying the axioms of probability
- Many useful properties of probability functions can be derived from the axioms of probability.
- ▶ Three common ways to pick a probability function to use are:
  - 1. Symmetry
  - 2. Estimate the probabilities from the data
  - Theory

Events Probability Functions