Section 2: Probability

STA 35C - Statistical Data Science III

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Section 1: Overview

Based on Chapter 1 of textbook: https://www.probabilitycourse.com/

■ Section 1.1: Introduction

Section 1: Basics in probability theory

Section 1.1: Introduction

Probability measure: introduction

Probability is a way to quantify randomness and/or uncertainty.

- e.g., coin flips, dice rolls, stocks, weather.
- Rules of probability should be intuitive and self-consistent.
- Self-consistent: the rules shouldn't lead to contradictions.
- Thus these rules must be constructed in a certain way.
- Suppose we want to assign a probability to each event in a set of possible events.
- We would like, at the very least:
 - 1. each probability to be a value between 0 and 1 (inclusive)
 - 2. the probability assigned to the full set of events to be 1
 - close to $1 \Rightarrow$ very likely that A occurs.
 - 3. the probability assigned to the empty set to be o
 - close to o ⇒ very unlikely that A occurs.
- We need more restrictions to ensure self-consistency.
- The following definition will lead to intuitive and self-consistent rules of probability.
 - We assign a *probability* measure P(A) to an event A.

Probability measure: definition

Definition 1: Probabilty measure $P(\cdot)$

For a nonempty sample space Ω , the set function $P: \Omega \to [0,1]$ is a *probability measure*, if

- \blacksquare $P(\Omega) = 1, \angle$
- for any pairwise disjoint events $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots \subset \Omega$ (i.e. $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for all i, j with $i \neq j$), holds:

$$P(\underline{A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \cdots}) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) + \cdots$$
 (1)

This definition fulfills the three desirable properties:

- \blacksquare $P(\Omega) = 1$: the probability of the biggest possible set is equal to 1.
 - Property (1) called the countable additivity property allows us to add probabilities of disjoint sets.

Finding probabilities

Given a random experiment with a sample space Ω , how do we find the probability of an event of interest? Use:

- the specific information that we have about the random experiment.
- the probability rules induced by Definition 1.

Finding probabilities: example

Example: Roll a fair four-sided die. What is the probability of $E = \{1, 3\}$?

- Information about experiment (fair die): $P(\{1\}) = P(\{2\}) = P(\{3\}) = P(\{4\})$.
- Probability rules:

$$\Omega = \{13 \cup \{13 \cup \{33 \cup \{4\}\}\}\} = P(\{1\} \cup \{2\} \cup \{3\} \cup \{4\}\})$$

$$= P(\{1\} \cup \{2\} \cup \{3\} \cup \{4\}\}) = P(\{4\}) + P(\{3\}) + P(\{4\})$$

$$= 4P(\{1\}).$$
Thus $P(\{1\}) = P(\{2\}) = P(\{3\}) = P(\{4\}) = \frac{1}{4}$. Finally,

$$P(E) = P(\{1,3\}) = P(\{1\}) + P(\{3\}) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}.$$
contable additivity

Finding probabilities: notation

Annoying to write e.g., $P(\{2\})$

- Simplify to P(2)
- But always keep in mind that *P* is a function on sets, not on individual outcomes.

Finding probabilities: more tools

Definition 1 implies the following additional properties:

Properties of $P(\cdot)$

Given a sample space Ω and arbitrary events $A, B \subset \Omega$, Definition 1 implies

1.
$$P(\emptyset) = 0$$
 $\Omega = \Omega \cup \emptyset$ $\Rightarrow P(\Omega) = P(\Omega \cup \emptyset) = P(\Omega) + P(\emptyset)$
2. $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$

2.
$$P(\underline{A}^c) = 1 - P(A)$$

3.
$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

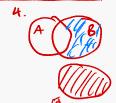
4.
$$P(B \setminus A) = P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

5.
$$P(A) \leq P(B)$$
 if $A \subset B$.

(Pictures for intuition; for formal proofs, see "Example 1.10" in §1.3.3 of textbook)









Finding probabilities: example

Suppose we have the following information:

- 1. There is a 60 percent chance that it will rain today. A = event of rain today
- 2. There is a 50 percent chance that it will rain tomorrow. B= event of rain tomorrow 3. There is a 30 percent chance that it does not rain either day. (A B)

Find the following probabilities:

- a. The probability that it will rain today or tomorrow.
- b. The probability that it will rain today and tomorrow.
- c. The probability that it will rain today but not tomorrow.

d. The probability that it either will rain today or tomorrow, but not both.

a.
$$P(A \cup B) = 1 - P(\underbrace{A \cup B}_{e : A \cup A}) = 1 - 0.3 = 0.7$$

End of 9/26 lecture

Probability models: discrete vs continuous

Distinguish between two different types of sample spaces: discrete and continuous.

- Will discuss in more detail in Section 3 of the course.
- Discrete: can compute the probability of an event by adding all outcomes in the event.
- Continuous: need to use integration instead of summation.

Probability models: discrete

If a sample space Ω is a countable set, this refers to a discrete probability model.

- Can list all elements: $\Omega = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$.
- For an event $A \subset \Omega$, by countable additivity (1) we can write

$$P(A) = P\left(\bigcup_{s \in A} \{s\}\right) = \sum_{s \in A} P(s)$$

Thus, to find probability of an event, just need to sum the probability of individual elements in that event.

Probability models: discrete (example)

Consider a gambling game: win k-2 dollars with probability $\frac{1}{2^k}$ for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

- What is the probability of winning at least \$1 and less than \$4?
- What is the probability of winning more than \$1?

Probability models: discrete (equally likely outcomes)

Important special case: finite sample space Ω where each outcome is equally likely.

■ Thus for any outcome $s \in \Omega$, we must have

$$P(s) = \frac{1}{|\Omega|}.$$

■ In such a case, for any event A, we can write

$$P(A) = \sum_{s \in A} P(s) = \sum_{s \in A} \frac{1}{|\Omega|} = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}.$$

Probability models: continuous

Consider a sample space that is an uncountable set.

- E.g., a 50-minute exam (so $\Omega = [0, 50]$), and let T_{Ant} be the time it takes Ant to finish the exam.
- What is the probability of $T_{Ant} \in [40, 45)$?