# **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/

1 Introduction

- 2 Conditional probability
  - Independence

# 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.

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■ 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  $\Omega$ , the set function  $P: \Omega \to [0,1]$  is a *probability measure*, if

- $\blacksquare P(\Omega) = 1,$
- for any pairwise disjoints 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:

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \cdots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) + \cdots$$
 (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  $\Omega$ , 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:

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

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

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

# 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  $\Omega$  and arbitrary events  $A, B \subset \Omega$ , Definition 1 implies

- 1.  $P(\emptyset) = 0$
- 2.  $P(A^c) = 1 P(A)$
- 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.
- 2. There is a 50 percent chance that it will rain tomorrow.
- 3. There is a 30 percent chance that it does not rain either day.

### 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.

# 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  $\Omega$  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  $\Omega$  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  $\Omega$  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  $T_{Ant} \in [42.5, 45)$ ?

# **Conditional probability**

### Introduction

As you obtain additional information, how should you update probabilities of events?

- For example, suppose I roll a fair die.
- Let  $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ . What is the probability that the outcome is in A? We will write this as P(A).

■ Let  $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . What is the probability of A if I know that the outcome is in B? We will write this as P(A|B).

### **Notation**

In the previous example, we call...

- $\blacksquare$  ... P(A) the prior probability of A;
- $\blacksquare$  ... P(A|B) the conditional probability of A given that B has occurred.
  - Usually shortened to the conditional probability of A given B.

The way we obtained P(A|B) in this example can be generalized by the following definition.

### Definition

### Definition 2: Conditional probability

If A and B are two events in a sample space  $\Omega$ , then the conditional probability of A *given B* is defined as

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}, \text{ when } P(B) > 0.$$
 (2)

If we know that B has occurred, then we can discard every outcome outside of B.

In other words, our sample space is reduced to the set B. (Picture)

- We divide  $P(A \cap B)$  by P(B) so that the conditional probability of the new sample space *B* becomes 1.
  - P(A|B) is undefined when P(B) = o (meaning B never occurs).

### Conditional probability rules

Conditional probability itself is a probability measure.

■ So all probability rules learned so far can be extended to conditional probability. For example, Definition 1 (slide 3) and other properties (slide 7)

### Important special cases

Plug into Definition 2

■ When A and B are disjoint:

■ When B is a subset of A:

■ When A is a subset of B:

### Example

I roll a fair die twice. Let

- $\blacksquare$   $X_1$  be the result of the first roll;
- $\blacksquare$   $X_2$  be the result of the second roll;

Given that I know  $X_1 + X_2 = 7$ , what is the probability that  $X_1 = 4$  or  $X_2 = 4$ ?

### Chain rule

We can rearrange the formula in Definition 2 as

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B|A) = P(B)P(A|B).$$

We can generalize this to 3 events:

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

We can generalize this to  $n \ge 2$  events (chain rule for conditional probability):

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) P(A_2 | A_1) P(A_3 | A_2, A_1) \cdots P(A_n | A_{n-1}, A_{n-2} \cdots A_1)$$

### Example

Of 100 units of a certain product, 5 are defective. If we pick three of the 100 units at random, what is the probability that none of them are defective?

# **Conditional probability**

Independence

### Introduction

Let A be the event that it rains tomorrow. Let B be the event that the coin I toss (indoors) tomorrow lands heads up.

- Guess that the result of the coin toss has nothing to do with tomorrow's weather.
- The probability of A should not depend on whether or not B happens.
- Two events are independent if one does not convey any info about the other.

### **Definition**

### Definition 1: Independent events

Two events A and B are independent if and only if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B). \tag{3}$$

If two events A and B are independent and  $P(B) \neq 0$ , then

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A) P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A).$$

- "Independence means that conditional probability of one event given another is the same as the original (prior) probability."
- Sometimes it is obvious if two given events are independent or not.
- Other times, we need need to check if they satisfy the independence condition (3).

### Example

I pick a random number from  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$ , and call it N.

- Suppose that all outcomes are equally likely.
- Let A be the event that N < 7, and let B be the event that N is even.

Are A and B independent?

### Achtung

Independence does not mean disjoint! Disjoint does not mean independence!

Independence ≠ disjoint

- Two *independent* events convey no information about the other.
- Two *disjoint* events cannot occur at the same time.