



Statistics

Chapter 4: Probability

[Where We've Been]

- Graphical and Numerical Descriptive Measures for Qualitative and Quantitative Data

[Where We're Going]

- Probability as a Measure of Uncertainty
- Basic Rules for Finding Probabilities
- Develop the notion of a random variables
- Discrete and continuous random variables and their probability distributions

4.1: Events, Sample Spaces and Probability

- An **experiment** is an act or process of observation that leads to a single outcome that cannot be predicted with certainty.
- A **sample point** is the most basic outcome of an experiment.

4.1: Events, Sample Spaces and Probability

- A **sample space** of an experiment is the collection of all sample points.

- Roll a single die:

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

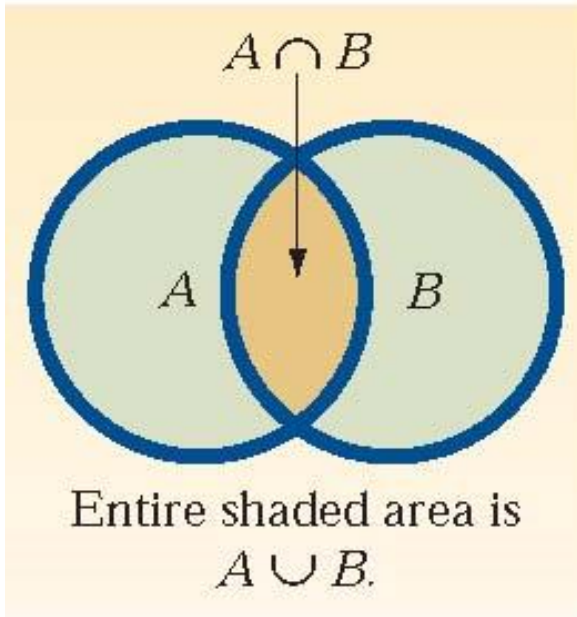
- An **event** is a specific collection of sample points:

- Event A : Observe an even number.

4.1: Events, Sample Spaces and Probability

- Calculating Probabilities for Events
 - Define the experiment.
 - List the sample points.
 - Assign probabilities to sample points.
 - Collect all sample points in the event of interest.
 - The sum of the sample point probabilities is the event probability.

4.2: Unions, Intersections, Complements



- The **complement** of any event A is the event that A does not occur, A^C .

$$P(\Omega)=1, P(\Phi)=0$$

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

4.2: Unions, Intersections, Complements

For mutually exclusive events, the probability of the intersection is zero. So

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

In particular, when $B = A^c$ we have

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

4.3: Conditional Probability and Independent Events

- Additional information or other events occurring may have an impact on the probability of an event.

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

4.3: Conditional Probability and Independent Events

- The conditional probability formula can be rearranged into the **Multiplicative Rule of Probability** to find joint probability.

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

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

or

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

4.3: Conditional Probability and Independent Events

- Two events A and B are independent if any of the following equivalent conditions is true.

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

$$P(A|B) = P(A|B^c) = P(A)$$

$$P(B|A) = P(B|A^c) = P(B)$$

[4.4: Random Sampling]

- If n elements are selected from a population in such a way that every set of n elements in the population has an equal probability of being selected, the n elements are said to be a (simple) **random sample**.

[4.4: Random Sampling]

- How many five-card poker hands can be dealt from a standard 52-card deck?
- Use the combination rule:

$$\binom{N}{n} = \binom{52}{5} = \frac{52!}{5!(52-5)!} = 2,598,960$$

[4.4: Random Sampling]

- Random samples can be generated by
 - Mixing up the elements and drawing by hand, say, out of a hat (for small populations)
 - Random number generators
 - Random number tables
 - Random sample/number commands on software

4.5: Two Types of Random Variables

- A **random variable** is a variable that assumes numerical values associated with the random outcome of an experiment, where one (and only one) numerical value is assigned to each sample point.
- Function from Ω to \mathbb{R}

4.5: Two Types of Random Variables

- A **discrete random variable** can assume a countable number of values.
 - Number of steps to the top of the Eiffel Tower*
- A **continuous random variable** can assume any value along a given interval of a number line.
 - The time a tourist stays at the top once s/he gets there



*Believe it or not, the answer ranges from 1,652 to 1,789. See [Great Buildings](#)

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

- The **probability distribution** of a discrete random variable is a graph, table or formula that specifies the probability associated with each possible outcome the random variable can assume.
 - $p(x) \geq 0$ for all values of x
 - $\sum p(x) = 1$

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

- Say a random variable x follows this pattern:
 $p(x) = (.3)(.7)^{x-1}$
for $x > 0$.
 - This table gives the probabilities (rounded to two digits) for x between 1 and 10.

x	$P(x)$
1	.30
2	.21
3	.15
4	.11
5	.07
6	.05
7	.04
8	.02
9	.02
10	.01

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

- The **mean**, or **expected value**, of a **discrete random variable** is

$$\mu = E(x) = \sum xp(x).$$

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

- The **variance** of a **discrete random variable** x is

$$\sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2] = \sum (x - \mu)^2 p(x).$$

- The **standard deviation** of a **discrete random variable** x is

$$\sqrt{\sigma^2} = \sqrt{E[(x - \mu)^2]} = \sqrt{\sum (x - \mu)^2 p(x)}.$$

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

- In a roulette wheel in a U.S. casino, a \$1 bet on “even” wins \$1 if the ball falls on an even number (same for “odd,” or “red,” or “black”).
- The odds of winning this bet are 47.37%

$$P(\text{win } \$1) = .4737$$

$$P(\text{lose } \$1) = .5263$$

$$\mu = +\$1 \cdot .4737 - \$1 \cdot .5263 = -.0526$$

$$\sigma = .9986$$

On average, bettors lose about a nickel for each dollar they put down on a bet like this.

(These are the *best* bets for patrons.)

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Binomial

- The experiment consists of **n identical trials**.
- Each trial results in **one of two outcomes**, success (S) or failure (F).
- The probability of success on a single trial is p and **remains constant** from trial to trial. The probability of failure is $q = 1 - p$.
- The trials are **independent**.
- We are interested in **x , the number of successes in n trials**.

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Binomial

$$P(x = k) = C_k^n p^k q^{n-k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} p^k q^{n-k} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

$$C_k^n = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

with $n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(2)1$ and $0! \equiv 1$.

Mean : $\mu = np$

Variance : $\sigma^2 = npq$

Standard deviation: $\sigma = \sqrt{npq}$

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Geometric

- Each trial results in **one of two outcomes**, success (S) or failure (F).
- The probability of success on a single trial is p and **remains constant** from trial to trial. The probability of failure is $q = 1 - p$.
- The trials are **independent**.
- We are interested in **x , the number of trials required to get the first success.**

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Geometric

$$P(X = k) = pq^{\{k-1\}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Mean} &= 1/p \\ \text{Variance} &= q/p^2\end{aligned}$$

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Poisson

The number of events that occur in a period of time or space during which an average of μ such events can be expected to occur.

$$P(x = k) = \frac{\mu^k e^{-\mu}}{k!}$$

For values of $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ The mean and standard deviation of the Poisson random variable are

Mean: μ

Standard deviation: μ

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Hypergeometric

- The experiment consists of **n identical trials**.
- Each trial results in **one of two outcomes**, success (S) or failure (F).
- The trials are random draws without replacement from a population of size M of which N are marked.
- Success is defined as drawing a marked element.
- The random variable **X** is the number of successes.

4.6: Probability Distributions for Discrete Random Variables

Hypergeometric

The probability of exactly k successes in n trials is

$$P(x = k) = \frac{C_k^M C_{n-k}^{M-N}}{C_n^N}$$

$$\text{Mean : } \mu = n \left(\frac{M}{N} \right)$$

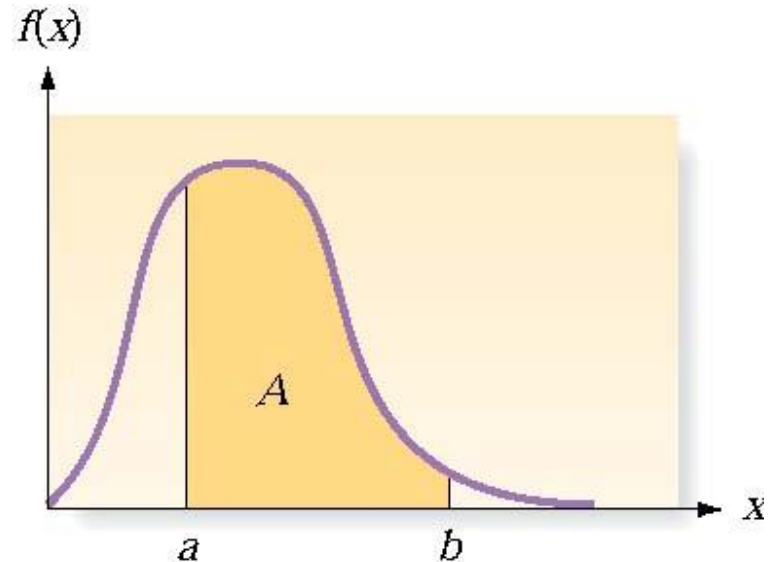
$$\text{Variance : } \sigma^2 = n \left(\frac{M}{N} \right) \left(\frac{N-M}{N} \right) \left(\frac{N-n}{N-1} \right)$$

4.7: Continuous Probability Distributions

- A **continuous random variable** can assume any numerical value within some interval or intervals.
- The graph of the probability distribution is a smooth curve called a
 - *probability density function,*
 - *frequency function* or
 - *probability distribution.*

4.7: Continuous Probability Distributions

- There are an infinite number of possible outcomes
 - $p(x) = 0$
 - Instead, find $p(a < x < b)$
 - ☺ Table
 - ☺ **Software**
 - ☹ Integral calculus)



4.7: Continuous Probability Distributions

- Uniform (special case of beta)
- Exponential (special case of gamma)
- Gamma (support on half real line)
- Beta (bounded support)
- Normal (support on \mathbb{R})

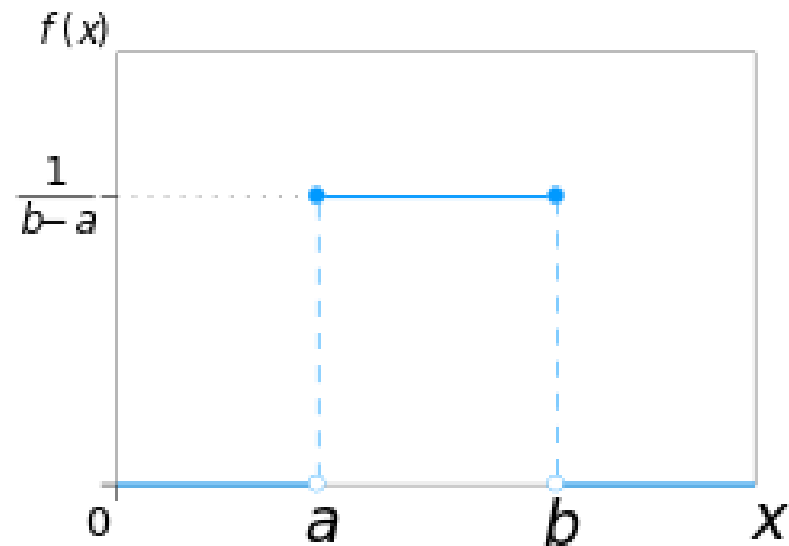
4.7: Continuous Probability Distributions

■ Uniform

Pdf: $f(x) = 1/(b-a)$, $a < x < b$

Mean $(a+b)/2$

Var $(b-a)^2/12$



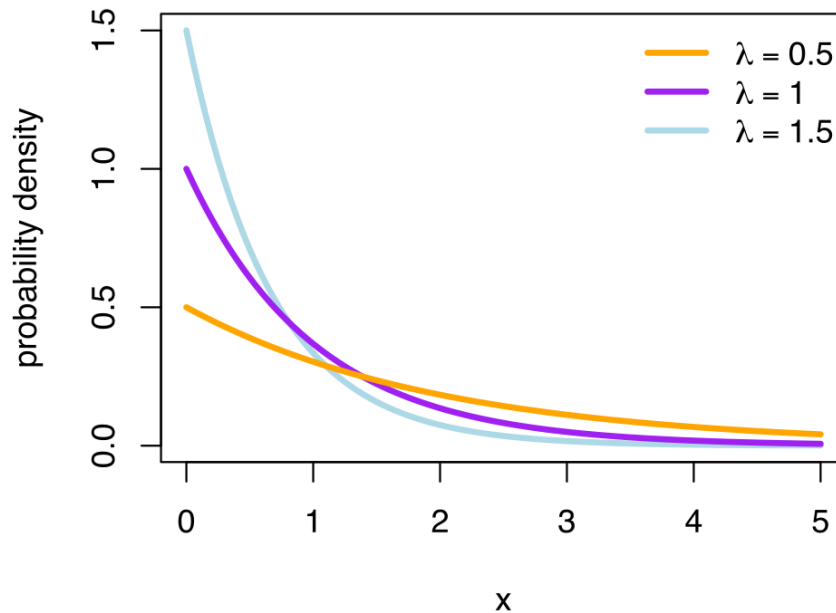
4.7: Continuous Probability Distributions

■ Exponential

Pdf: $f(x) = \lambda \exp(-\lambda x)$, $x > 0$

Mean $1/\lambda$

Var $1/\lambda^2$



4.7: Continuous Probability Distributions

■ Gamma

$$\text{Pdf : } \frac{\beta^\alpha x^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\beta x)}{\Gamma(\alpha)}, x > 0$$

$$\text{Mean } \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$$

4.7: Continuous Probability Distributions

■ Beta

$$\text{Pdf } \frac{x^{\{\alpha-1\}}(1-x)^{\{\beta-1\}}}{B(\alpha,\beta)}, 0 < x < 1$$

$$\text{Mean } \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}$$

[4.8: The Normal Distribution]

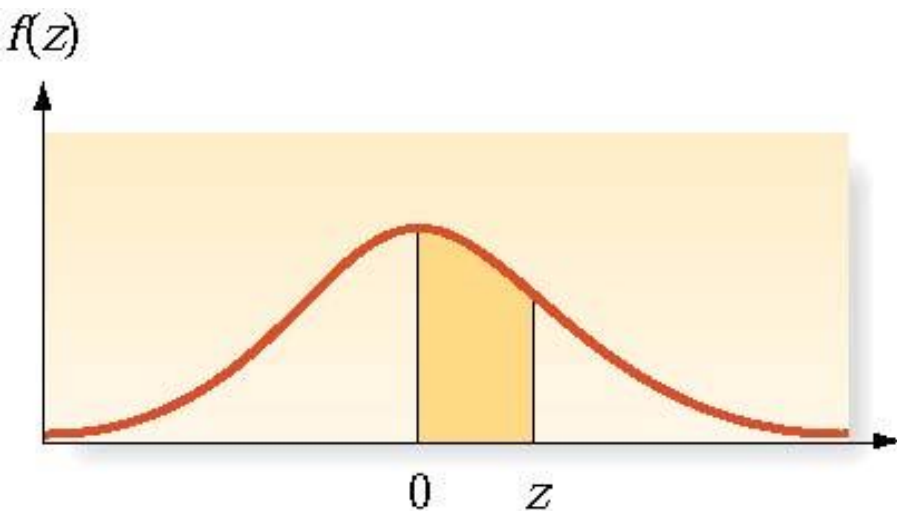
- Closely approximates many situations
 - Perfectly symmetrical around its mean
- The probability density function $f(x)$:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{[(x-\mu)/\sigma]^2}{2}}$$

μ = the mean of x

σ = the standard deviation of x

[4.8: The Normal Distribution]



$$P(0 < z < 1.00) = .3413$$

$$P(-1.00 < z < 0) = .3413$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(-1 < z < 1) &= .3413 + .3413 \\ &= .6826 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(1 < z < 1.25) &= \\ P(0 < z < 1.25) - P(0 < z < 1.00) \\ &= .3944 - .3413 = .0531 \end{aligned}$$

[4.8: The Normal Distribution]

For a normally distributed random variable x , if we know μ and σ , z follows normal with mean 0 and variance 1

$$z_i = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}$$

So *any* normally distributed variable can be analyzed with this single distribution