## ORIE 5530: Modeling Under Uncertainty

## Lecture 3 (Basic Probability)

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So we said an event is a subset of the sample space. In essence, an event is a collection of possible outcomes. We say that an event happened if one of the outcomes in it happened. If  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , then  $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$  corresponds to the event that we got an even outcome – one of the numbers 2, 4, 6 was the outcome of the experiment.

So you could be slightly formal and define  $\Omega$  to be the collection of all subsets of the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ . For example if  $\mathcal{S} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ ,  $\Omega$  includes individual-outcome events like  $\{1\}$  (this is the event the outcome was 1 on the die), it includes events of the form  $\{3, 5\}$  (that we got 3 or 5), etc.; and all possible combinations up to and including the event  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , which is the whole space.

## 3.1 Probability on events

Now, once you listed the possible events you should be able to assign probabilities to them. There is a probability 1 that I get some number in the set  $[6] := \{1, \ldots, 6\}$  when I roll the dice, so  $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}) = 1$ . The event  $A = \{2, 4, 6\} =$  "even outcome" has probability 1/2 (if the die is fair, etc.).

It also is clear that a probability (likelihood) will always be a real number between 0 and 1.

Finally, it is intuitive to us (and correctly so) that the probability of  $\{2,4,6\}$  in the roll of a die is the sum of the probabilities of getting 2, 4 and 6. This is because these are exclusive events (if we get 2 on the roll of a dice, that's it. We did not get a 4 or a 6).

So we want to be able to say that if two events are exclusive (meaning they cannot happen together – A and B are exclusive means  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ) then the probability that one (or both) of them happens should be the sum of the probabilities.

In summary, a probability is a function from  $\Omega$  to [0,1] that has the properties:

- i.  $0 \leq \mathbb{P}(A) \leq 1$  for any event A;
- ii.  $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}) = 1$ ; and
- iii. For any collection of mutually exclusive events  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$  (i.e.,  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i, j$ ),

$$\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{n} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(A_i).$$

An event A and its complement  $A^c$  ("not A") are obviously exclusive and their union is S so that  $\mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1$  (hence,  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A^c)$ ).

If two events A and B are not exclusive then

$$\mathbb{P}(A\bigcup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A\bigcap B)$$

so that we always have the inequality

$$\mathbb{P}(A \bigcup B) \le \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B).$$

## 3.2 Conditional probability on events

The basic identity here is that (we use | for conditioning)

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

Notice that this makes sense only if  $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$ . (This make intuitive sense – If A is an event that has 0 probability, it will never happen so we will never care about what is the likelihood of B given A). Observe that  $\mathbb{P}(A|B) \neq \mathbb{P}(B|A)$  unless  $\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(B)$ .

Now, from here follows a characterization of what it means for two events to be independent. Conceptually, you want to say that B and A are independent if knowing that A happened does not change the likelihood I assign to B. That is,

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

If you plug this to the identity above (replace the left hand side  $\mathbb{P}(B|A)$  with  $\mathbb{P}(B)$ ) you get  $\mathbb{P}(B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B \cap A)}{\mathbb{P}(A)}$  or, as we mathematically think of independence, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(B \cap A) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A).$$
 (independence)

If we have multiple events, say,  $A_1, \ldots, A_m$ , we say that they are all independent of each other if any sub-collection satisfies the above. That is, we definitely need that  $\mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j) = \mathbb{P}(A_i)\mathbb{P}(A_j)$  for any  $i \neq j$ , but we also need  $\mathbb{P}(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_l) = \mathbb{P}(A_i)\mathbb{P}(A_j)\mathbb{P}(A_l)$  for any  $i \neq j \neq l$ , etc. In general, for any n and any sub-collection  $A_{i_1}, \ldots, A_{i_n}$  of size n with  $i_1 \neq i_2 \neq \ldots \neq i_n$ , we need that

$$\mathbb{P}(\bigcap_{k=1}^{n} A_{i_k}) = \mathbb{P}(A_{i_1})\mathbb{P}(A_{i_2})\dots\mathbb{P}(A_{i_{n-1}})\mathbb{P}(A_{i_n}).$$

**Useful fact:** If you take a partition of the world into B and  $B^c$  (not B), it is obvoius you can write a set A as the union of its intersection with B (what is in B and in A) and an intersection with  $B^c$  (what is in A but not in B). That is,

$$A = (A \cap B) \bigcup (A \cap B^c).$$

Because B and  $B^c$  are exclusive so are  $(A \cap B)$  and  $(A \cap B^c)$  and we have by the basic rule (iii) of probability that

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \bigcap B) + \mathbb{P}(A \bigcap B^c).$$

Using (\*) we can re-write this as

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^c)\mathbb{P}(B^c). \tag{**}$$

More generally if  $B_1, \ldots, B_m$  is some way to divide the world of outcomes (meaning it is a partition of S:  $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$  and  $\bigcup_{i=1}^m B_i = S$ ) then

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(A \bigcap B_i).$$

We used this fact in an example we had in class about the conditional likelihood of two boys.

Notice that because of the basic rule (\*) we can re-write this as

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(A|B_i)\mathbb{P}(B_i).$$

Replacing  $\mathbb{P}(B \cap A) = \mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B)$  and replacing  $\mathbb{P}(A)$  in the denominator using (\*\*) we get the simplest version of Bayes rule:

$$\mathbb{P}(B|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B)}{\mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^c)\mathbb{P}(B^c)}.$$

The beauty of Bayes rule is in how it reverses the conditioning. We are interested in B conditional on A and we evaluate this by conditioning A and B and  $B^c$ .

More generally, if  $B_1, \ldots, B_n$  are a partition of the set S, then for each  $j = 1, \ldots, n$  we have

$$\mathbb{P}(B_j|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_j)\mathbb{P}(B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A|B_i)\mathbb{P}(B_i)}.$$