

Probability - Lecture notes - Unit One

Unit One notes

Events and outcomes

01 Theory

📖 Events and outcomes – informally

- An **event** is a *description* of something that can happen.
- An **outcome** is a *complete description* of something that can happen.

All outcomes are events. An event is usually a *partial* description. Outcomes are events given with a *complete* description.

Here ‘complete’ and ‘partial’ are within the context of the **probability model**.

- ⚠️ It can be misleading to say that an ‘outcome’ is an ‘observation’.
 - ‘Observations’ occur in the *real world*, while ‘outcomes’ occur in the *model*.
 - To the extent the model is a good one, and the observation conveys *complete* information, we can say ‘outcome’ for the observation.

Notice:

- 📄 Because outcomes are *complete*, no two distinct outcomes could *actually happen* in a run of the experiment being modeled.

When an event happens, the *fact* that it has happened constitutes **information**.

📖 Events and outcomes – mathematically

- The **sample space** is the *set of possible outcomes*, so it is the set of the complete descriptions of everything that can happen.
- An **event** is a *subset* of the sample space, so it is a *collection of outcomes*.

- 🧠 For mathematicians: some “wild” subsets are not *valid* events. Problems with infinity and the continuum...

📖 Notation

- Write S for the set of possible outcomes, $s \in S$ for a single outcome in S .
- Write $A, B, C, \dots \subset S$ or $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots \subset S$ for some events, subsets of S .
- Write \mathcal{F} for the collection of all events. This is frequently a *huge* set!

- Write $|A|$ for the **cardinality** or *size* of a set A , i.e. the *number of elements it contains*.

Using this notation, we can consider an *outcome itself as an event* by considering the “singleton” subset $\{\omega\} \subset S$ which contains that outcome alone.

02 Illustration

≡ Example - Coin flipping

Flip a fair coin two times and record both results.

- *Outcomes*: sequences, like HH or TH .
- *Sample space*: all possible sequences, i.e. the set $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$.
- *Events*: for example:
 - $A = \{HH, HT\}$ = “first was heads”
 - $B = \{HT, TH\}$ = “exactly one heads”
 - $C = \{HT, TH, HH\}$ = “at least one heads”

With this setup, we may combine events in various ways to generate other events:

- *Complex events*: for example:
 - $A \cap B = \{HT\}$, or in words:

“first was heads” AND “exactly one heads” = “heads-then-tails”

Notice that the last one is a *complete description*, namely the *outcome* HT .

- $A \cup B = \{HH, HT, TH\}$, or in words:

“first was heads” OR “exactly one heads”
= “starts with heads, else it’s tails-then-heads”

✂ Exercise - Coin flipping: counting subsets

Flip a fair coin five times and record the results.

How many elements are in the sample space? (How big is S ?)

How many events are there? (How big is \mathcal{F} ?)

≡ Solution >

There are $2^5 = 32$ possible sequences, so $|S| = 32$.

To count the number of possible subsets, consider that we have 32 distinct items, and a subset is uniquely determined by the binary information – for each item – of whether it is in or out. Thus there are 2^{32} possibilities. So $|\mathcal{F}| = 2^{32}$.

03 Theory

New events from old

Given two events A and B , we can form new events using set operations:


$$A \cup B \longleftrightarrow \text{“event } A \text{ OR event } B\text{”}$$

$$A \cap B \longleftrightarrow \text{“event } A \text{ AND event } B\text{”}$$

$$A^c \longleftrightarrow \text{not event } A$$

We also use these terms for events A and B :

- They are **mutually exclusive** when $A \cap B = \emptyset$, that is, they have *no elements in common*.
- They are **collectively exhaustive** $A \cup B = S$, that is, when they jointly *cover all possible outcomes*.

-  In probability texts, sometimes $A \cap B$ is written “ $A \cdot B$ ” or even (frequently!) “ AB ”.

Rules for sets

Algebraic rules

- Associativity: $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$. Analogous to $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$.
- Distributivity: $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. Analogous to $A(B + C) = AB + AC$.

De Morgan's Laws

- $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$
- $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$

In other words: you can distribute “ c ” but must simultaneously do a switch $\cap \leftrightarrow \cup$.

Probability models

04 Theory

Axioms of probability

A **probability measure** is a function $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying:


Kolmogorov Axioms:

- **Axiom 1:** $P[A] \geq 0$ for every event A
(probabilities are not negative!)
- **Axiom 2:** $P[S] = 1$
(probability of “anything” happening is 1)

- **Axiom 3:** additivity for any *countable collection* of *mutually exclusive* events:

$$P[A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots] = P[A_1] + P[A_2] + P[A_3] + \dots$$

when: $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for all $i \neq j$

-  Notation: we write $P[A]$ instead of $P(A)$, even though P is a function, to emphasize the fact that A is a set.

Probability model

A **probability model** or **probability space** consists of a triple (S, \mathcal{F}, P) :

- S the sample space
- \mathcal{F} the set of valid events, where every $A \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfies $A \subset S$
- $P : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a probability measure satisfying the Kolmogorov Axioms

Finitely many exclusive events

It is a consequence of the Kolmogorov Axioms that additivity also works for finite collections of events:

$$P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B]$$

$$P[A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n] = P[A_1] + \dots + P[A_n]$$

Inferences from Kolmogorov

A probability measure satisfies these rules.

They can be deduced from the Kolmogorov Axioms.

- **Negation:** Can you find $P[A^c]$ but not $P[A]$? Use negation:

$$P[A] = 1 - P[A^c]$$

- **Monotonicity:** Probabilities grow when outcomes are added:

$$A \subset B \gg \gg P[A] \leq P[B]$$

- **Inclusion-Exclusion:** A trick for resolving unions:

$$P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B] - P[A \cap B]$$

(even when A and B are *not exclusive*!)

Inclusion-Exclusion

The principle of inclusion-exclusion generalizes to three events:

$$P[A \cup B \cup C] = P[A] + P[B] + P[C] - P[A \cap B] - P[A \cap C] - P[B \cap C] + P[A \cap B \cap C]$$

The same pattern works for any number of events!

The pattern goes: “include singles” then “exclude doubles” then “include triples” then ...

Include, exclude, include, exclude, include, ...

05 Illustration

≡ Example - Lucia is Host or Player

Problem: The professor chooses three students at random for a game in a class of 40, one to be Host, one to be Player, one to be Judge. What is the probability that Lucia is either Host or Player?

Solution:

1. ≡ Set up the probability model.

- Label the students 1 to 40. Write L for Lucia’s number.
- **Outcomes:** assignments such as $(H, P, J) = (2, 5, 8)$
These are ordered triples with *distinct* entries in $1, 2, \dots, 40$.
- **Sample space:** S is the collection of all such distinct triples
- **Events:** any subset of S
- **Probability measure:** assume all outcomes are equally likely, so $P[(i, j, k)] = P[(r, l, p)]$ for all i, j, k, r, l, p
- In total there are $40 \cdot 39 \cdot 38$ triples of distinct numbers.
- Therefore $P[(i, j, k)] = \frac{1}{40 \cdot 39 \cdot 38}$ for any *specific* outcome (i, j, k) .
- Therefore $P[A] = \frac{|A|}{40 \cdot 39 \cdot 38}$ for any event A . (Recall $|A|$ is the *number* of outcomes in A .)

2. ≡ Define the desired event.

- Want to find $P[\text{“Lucia is Host or Player”}]$
- Define $A = \text{“Lucia is Host”}$ and $B = \text{“Lucia is Player”}$. Thus:

$$A = \{(L, j, k) \mid \text{any } j, k\}, \quad B = \{(i, L, k) \mid \text{any } i, k\}$$

- So we seek $P[A \cup B]$.

3. ≡ Compute the desired probability.

- Importantly, $A \cap B = \emptyset$ (mutually exclusive).
There are no outcomes in S in which Lucia is *both* Host and Player.
- By *additivity*, we infer $P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B]$.
- Now compute $P[A]$.
 - There are $39 \cdot 38$ ways to choose j and k from the students besides Lucia.
 - Therefore $|A| = 39 \cdot 38$.

- Therefore:

$$P[A] \gg \gg \frac{|A|}{40 \cdot 39 \cdot 38} \gg \gg \frac{39 \cdot 38}{40 \cdot 39 \cdot 38} \gg \gg \frac{1}{40}$$

- Now compute $P[B]$. It is similar: $P[B] = \frac{1}{40}$.
- Finally compute that $P[A] + P[B] = \frac{1}{20}$, so the answer is:

$$P[A \cup B] \gg \gg P[A] + P[B] \gg \gg \frac{1}{20}$$

≡ Example - iPhones and iPads

Problem:

At Mr. Jefferson's University, 25% of students have an iPhone, 30% have an iPad, and 60% have neither.

What is the probability that a randomly chosen student has either iProduct? (Q1)

What about both? (Q2)

Solution:

1. ≡ Set up the probability model.

- A student is chosen at random: an *outcome* is the chosen student.
- *Sample space* S is the set of all students.
- Write O = "has iPhone" and A = "has iPad" concerning the chosen student.
- All students are equally likely to be chosen: therefore $P[E] = \frac{|E|}{|S|}$ for any event E .
- Therefore $P[O] = 0.25$ and $P[A] = 0.30$.
- Furthermore, $P[O^c A^c] = 0.60$. This means 60% have "not iPhone AND not iPad".

2. ≡ Define the desired event.

- Q1: desired event = $O \cup A$
- Q2: desired event = OA

3. ≡ Compute the probabilities.

- We do not believe O and A are exclusive.
- Try: apply inclusion-exclusion:

$$P[O \cup A] = P[O] + P[A] - P[OA]$$

- We know $P[O] = 0.25$ and $P[A] = 0.30$. So this formula, with given data, RELATES Q1 and Q2.
- Notice the complements in $O^c A^c$ and try *Negation*.
- *Negation*:

$$P[(OA)^c] = 1 - P[OA]$$

DOESN'T HELP.

- Try again: Negation:*

$$P[(O^c A^c)^c] = 1 - P[O^c A^c]$$

- And De Morgan (or a Venn diagram!):

$$(O^c A^c)^c \gg \gg O \cup A$$

- Therefore:

$$P[O \cup A] \gg \gg P[(O^c A^c)^c]$$

$$\gg \gg 1 - P[O^c A^c] \gg \gg 1 - 0.6 = 0.4$$

- We have found Q1: $P[O \cup A] = 0.40$.
- Applying the RELATION from inclusion-exclusion, we get Q2:

$$P[O \cup A] = P[O] + P[A] - P[OA]$$

$$\gg \gg 0.40 = 0.25 + 0.30 - P[OA]$$

$$\gg \gg P[OA] = 0.15$$