

Broad Course Objectives

- develop the art of describing uncertainty in terms of probabilistic models
 - develop the skill of probabilistic reasoning
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Specific Learning Objectives

- describe the generic structure of probabilistic models and their basic properties

Additional Resources

The Bayesian New Statistics: Hypothesis testing, estimation, meta-analysis, and power analysis from a Bayesian perspective [paper](#)

Combinatorial principles [wiki](#)

Notes on [Reading](#)

1.1 Sets

Amusing anecdote on tension of general use of the word probability

define probability in terms of frequency of occurrence, as a percentage of successes in a moderately large number of similar situations

- this may be appropriate in some situations with uncertainty, but many where it's not
 - e.g. a scholar who says the Iliad and Odyssey were composed by the same person with a probability of 90%, this doesn't convey information based on frequencies, because the subject is a one-time event (*difference*), rather this probability is an expression of the scholar's subjective belief
 - many argue subjective beliefs aren't interesting for math and science POVs
 - however people are often making decisions in the presence of uncertainty, and a systematic way of making use of their beliefs is a prerequisite for successful, or at least consistent decision making
 - the choices and actions of rational people can reveal a lot about the inner held subjective probabilities (*I see another layer of why I want to do this, we're walking into a realm of new possibilities, and don't want to resort to status quo tactics, but also don't want to be wrong/unviable/nonexistent/unreal*)

probabilistic models (in the scope of this material) assign probabilities to collections (sets) of possible outcomes

- that is why set notation & operations are foundational to probability theory and models

sets

- a collection of objects which are the elements of the set,
- If S is a set and x is an element of S ,
 - we write $x \in S$

- If x is not an element of S , we write
 - $x \notin S$
- A set can have no elements, the empty set, \emptyset
- if S contains a finite number of elements, we write it in braces
 - $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$.
 - eg set of possible outcomes of a die role is $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, the set of possible outcomes of a coin toss is $\{H, T\}$ where H is 'heads' and T is 'tails'
- if S contains infinitely many elements which can be enumerated in a list (ie there are as many elements as there are positive integers), we write
 - $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$
 - and we say S is countably infinite
 - e.g. the set of even integers can be written as $\{0, 2, -2, 4, -4, \dots\}$ and is countably infinite
- we can consider the set of all x that have a certain property P , and denote it by
 - $\{x | x \text{ satisfies } P\}$
 - symbol " $|$ " is to be read "such that"
 - eg the set of even integers can be written as $\{k | k/2 \text{ is integer}\}$
 - e.g. the set of all scalars x in the interval $[0, 1]$ can be written as $\{x | 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$.
 - elements x take a continuous range of values, and cannot be written down in a list (theres a proof for this)
 - such as set is said to be **uncountable**
- if every element of a set S is also an element of a set T , we say that S is a subset of T , and we write $S \subset T$ or $T \supset S$
 - if $S \subset T$ & $T \subset S$, the two sets are equal $S = T$
- the universal set, denoted by Ω , which contains all objects that could conceivably be of interest in a particular context
 - when context is specified in terms of set Ω , we only consider sets S that are subsets of Ω , $S \subset \Omega$

Set Operations

- The **complement** of a set S with respect to the universe Ω is the set $\{x \in \Omega | x \notin S\}$
 - of all elements of Ω that do not belong to S and is denoted by S^c
 - note: $\Omega^c = \emptyset$.
- The **union** of two sets S and T is the set of all elements that belong to S or T (or both), and is denoted by $S \cup T$
 - $S \cup T = \{x | x \in S \text{ or } x \in T\}$
- The **intersection** of two sets S and T is the set of all elements that belong to both S and T , and is denoted by $S \cap T$
 - $S \cap T = \{x | x \in S \text{ and } x \in T\}$
- When considering the union of several, even infinitiely many sets
 - e.g. if for every positive integer n , we are given a set S_n
 - $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots = \{x | x \in S_n \text{ for some } n\}$ and,
 - $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n = S_1 \cap S_2 \cap \dots = \{x | x \in S_n \text{ for all } n\}$

- Two sets are said to be **disjoint** if their intersection is empty, or more generally, several sets are said to be disjoint if no two of them have a common element
 - a collection of sets is said to be a *partition* of a set S if the sets in the collection are disjoint and their union is S
- if x and y are two objects, we use (x, y) to denote the **ordered pair** of x and y ,
- the set of scalars (real numbers) is denoted as \mathfrak{R} , the set of pairs (two dimensional plane) is denoted as \mathfrak{R}^2 or triplets (three dimensional plane) is denoted as \mathfrak{R}^3
- Sets and operations visualized:

The algebra of Sets

Some examples:

$S \cup T = T \cup S$	$S \cup (T \cup U) = (S \cup T) \cup U$
$S \cap (T \cup U) = (S \cap T) \cup (S \cap U)$	$S \cup (T \cap U) = (S \cup T) \cap (S \cup U)$
$(S^c)^c = S$	$S \cap S^c = \emptyset$
$S \cup \Omega = \Omega$	$S \cap \Omega = S$

Two particularly useful properties are given by **de Morgan's laws**:

The first law	The second law
$(S \cup T)^c = S^c \cap T^c$	$(S \cap T)^c = S^c \cup T^c$
Alternative notation: $\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$	Alternative notation: $\overline{A \cap B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$
"The complement of the union is equal to the intersection of the complements"	"The complement of the intersection is equal to the union of the complements"
Set notation (for n number of sets): $\left(\bigcup_n S_n \right)^c = \bigcap_n S_n^c$	Set notation: $\left(\bigcap_n S_n \right)^c = \bigcup_n S_n^c$
The Set notation proof:	The converse proof:
Suppose: $x \in (\cup_n S_n)^c$	$x \in (\cap_n S_n)^c$
Then, $x \notin \cup_n S_n$	$\implies x \notin \cap_n S_n$
which implies for every n, we have $x \notin S_n$	\implies for every n, $x \notin S_n$
thus, x belongs to the complement of every S_n	$\implies x$ belongs to the complement of every S_n
and, $x_n \in \cap_n S_n^c$	$\implies x_n \in \cup_n S_n^c$
$\therefore (\cup_n S_n)^c \subset \cap_n S_n^c$	$\therefore (\cap_n S_n)^c \subset \cup_n S_n^c$

Note: this proof is for n Sets, it's helpful to think of just 2 sets as a baseline, though the proof is the same, the proof of 2 sets explained [here](#)

These laws can be stated in terms of logical convention as

First Law	Second Law
$\neg(p \wedge q) = \neg p \vee \neg q$	$\neg(p \vee q) = \neg p \wedge \neg q$
"Neither p nor q is equal to not p and not q "	"Not (p and q) is equal to Not p or Not q "

where \neg means not, \wedge means and, \vee means or

Note: it's helpful to recreate de Morgan's laws visually, with venn diagrams

1.2 Probabilistic Models

A **probabilistic model** is a mathematical description of an uncertain situation (in accordance to a fundamental framework, explained in this section)

The two main elements of a probabilistic model:

- the **sample space** Ω (Omega), which is the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment
- the **probability law**, which assigns to a set of A possible outcomes (also called an **event**) a nonnegative number $P(A)$ (Called the *probability of A *) that encodes our *knowledge or belief about the collective 'likelihood'* of the elements of A .
- **The probability law** must satisfy certain properties, as we'll see

Sample Spaces and Events

- Every probabilistic model involves an underlying process, called the **experiment**, that produces exactly ONE out of several possible **outcomes**
 - no restrictions on what constitutes an experiment
 - a single coin toss, three tosses, an infinite sequence of tosses
 - however in this formulation of a probabilistic model, there's only a single experiment, rather than 3 experiments
- The set of all possible outcomes is called the **sample space** of the experiment, and is denoted by Ω
 - sample space of an experiment may consist of a finite or infinite number of possible outcomes
 - finite spaces are conceptually and mathematically simpler
 - sample spaces with an infinite number of elements are quite common
 - e.g. throwing a dart on a square target and viewing the point of impact as the outcome
- A subset of the sample space, that is, a collection of possible outcomes, is called an **event**
 - in practice, any collection of possible outcomes, including the entire sample space Ω and its complement, the empty set \emptyset , may qualify as an event
 - there are theoretical examples in uncountably infinite sample spaces, where this is not the case, but this theoretical point can be ignored in practice
- choosing an appropriate sample space

- regardless of their number, different elements of the sample space should be distinct and **mutually exclusive**
 - the experiment must have a unique outcome
 - e.g. the sample space of a die cannot contain "1 or 3" as a possible outcome and "1 or 4" as another outcome, when the roll is a 1 the outcome of the experiment would not be unique
- a given physical situation can be modeled in several different ways, depending on the kind of questions we're interested in
- generally, the sample space must be **collectively exhaustive**
 - i.e. no matter what happens in the experiment, we always obtain an outcome that has been included in the sample space
 - the sample space should have enough detail to distinguish between all outcomes of interest to the modeler, while avoiding irrelevant details
- example: a game where you receive \$1 each time a head comes up for 10 tosses
 - only the total number of heads in a ten toss sequence matters
 - the sample space consists of ten possible outcomes 1,...,10
- example 2: a game where you receive \$1 for *every* coin toss, up to and including the first time a head comes up, then the amount you get doubles each time a head comes up after
 - in this game the order of heads and tails is also important
 - a more detailed sample space is necessary, consisting of every possible ten-long sequence of heads and tails

Sequential Models

many experiments are sequential in character

- e.g. tossing a coin 3 times, observing stock prices for 5 subsequent days, receiving a code with 8 digits
- useful to use a **tree-based sequential description**

Probability Laws

to complete the probabilistic model, we must introduce

- this specifies the 'likelihood' of any outcome, or any set of possible outcomes (an event)
- the probability law assigns to every event A a number $P(A)$, called the probability of A , satisfying the following axioms:

Probability Axioms

Name	Description
Nonnegativity	$P(A) \geq 0$ for every event A
Additivity:	<p>If A and B are two disjoint events, then the probability of their union satisfies</p> $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B).$ <p>Furthermore, if the sample space has an infinite number of elements and A_1, A_2, \dots is a sequence of disjoint events, then the probability of their union satisfies</p> $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots$
Normalization	<p>The probability of the entire sample space Ω is equal to 1, that is</p> $P(\Omega) = 1$