

# Probability (Introduction)

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In our discussions of study design, *randomness* came up in two contexts:

- ▶ **Random sampling**

- ▶ We used randomness to ensure every case in the population had an equal chance of being sampled
- ▶ This prevented *sampling bias*, but we still have to worry about *sampling variability*

# Randomness

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- ▶ **Random assignment**

- ▶ We used randomness to split our sample to into treatment and control groups
- ▶ This protected us against *confounding variables*, but it introduces variability (you can view group assignment as a type of sampling)

We'll spend the remainder of the course learning ways to quantify the variability resulting from randomness, a task that requires us to study *probability*

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  - ▶ For example, sampling 1 individual from a population, or determining if 1 individual is assigned to the treatment or control group
- ▶ Every trial results in an **outcome**
  - ▶ For example, “Ryan Miller” is selected from the population of Xavier faculty, or Subject #1 is assigned to the control group
- ▶ The collection of *all possible outcomes* of a trial is called the **sample space**
  - ▶ For example, the sample space of selecting a Xavier faculty member would be a list of hundreds of names, while the sample space for assigning Subject #1 is {Treatment, Control}

- ▶ Very often we are interested in **events**, which are *combinations of one or more observed outcomes*
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  - ▶ For example, we might be interested in the event that at least 3 math faculty are sampled
  - ▶ Or the event that the 5 oldest subjects are assigned to the control group
- ▶ Recognize that using this definition, a single outcome is itself an event (an event is one, *or more* outcomes)

- ▶ Because these events (and outcomes they are based upon) involve randomness, they are inherently linked to *probability*, but what is probability?
  - ▶ That is, everyone agrees the probability of a fair coin landing “heads” is  $1/2$ , but why?



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  - ▶ That is, everyone agrees the probability of a fair coin landing “heads” is  $1/2$ , but why?
- ▶ **Frequentist** statisticians define probability as the *long-run proportion of an event occurring*
  - ▶ Thus,  $P(\text{Heads}) = 0.5$  means that if we conducted many *trials* (different coin flips) we'd expect the *event* “Heads” to be observed in half of them

# Empirical Probability

- ▶ Because probabilities are *long-run proportions*, we sometimes estimate them using proportions finite samples
  - ▶ For example, Joey Votto's career batting average is 0.305, so we might estimate he has a 30.5% of getting a hit during any given at-bat, or  $P(\text{Hit}) = 0.305$
- ▶ This is called an *empirical probability*, it is different from a *theoretical probability* like  $P(\text{Heads}) = 0.5$

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- ▶ A **intersection** refers to two (or more) outcomes simultaneously occurring
  - ▶ Unions are expressed using the word “and” or the symbol  $\cap$
  - ▶ Consider rolling a six-sided die,  
 $P(\text{Five and Six}) = P(\text{Five} \cap \text{Six}) = 0$
  - ▶ Alternatively,  
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- ▶ An **union** refers to at least one outcome occurring
  - ▶ Intersections are expressed using the word “or” or the symbol  $\cup$
  - ▶ Consider rolling a six-sided die,  
 $P(\text{Five or Six}) = P(\text{Five} \cup \text{Six}) = 2/6 = 1/3$
  - ▶ Alternatively,  
 $P(\text{Five or Odd Number}) = P(\text{Five} \cup \text{Odd Number}) = 3/6 = 1/2$

# Conclusion

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- ▶ Probability provides a framework for understanding randomness, something is necessary when our data involve sampling or random assignment (or both)
- ▶ A *trial* described an instance of a random process that resulted in an *outcome*
  - ▶ The collection of all possible outcomes was the *sample space*
- ▶ An *event* was a combination of one or more outcomes
  - ▶ Events can be expressed as *unions* or *intersections* of different outcomes