# **Probability Overview**

Gene Quinn

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A subset of the sample space is called an **event**.

#### **Events include:**

- an individual outcome
- the entire sample space
- the empty set Ø

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A **probability function** is a real-valued function that maps *events* into real numbers in the closed interval [0,1] in a manner that is consistent with the Kolmogorov axioms.

The domain of a probability function is a collection of sets, usually the power set of a sample space.

A probability function always takes values in [0, 1].

(You should convince yourself that choosing any values outside this in-

terval would inevitably cause the Kolmogorov axioms to be violated)

### Discrete Random Variables

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The range of a random variable (i.e., the set of values it can assume) often has far fewer elements than the underlying sample space, because many outcomes often map to one real number.

# **Probability Overview**

Keep in mind the following similarities and differences between a probability function and a random variable:

Probability Function	Random Variable
maps sets into real numbers	maps sets into real numbers
domain is the power set	domain is a sample space
of a sample space	
only takes values in $[0,1]$	can take any real value,
	positive or negative
must be consistent with	assignment of real numbers
Kolmogorov axioms	is arbitrary

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In other words, the probability density function for a discrete random variable maps each value the random variable can assume into the probability that it assumes that value.

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The value of the pdf is defined to be zero for any value of k that is not in the range of X.

Two fair dice are rolled. The sample space (the set of possible outcomes) is a set of ordered pairs:

$$S = \{(x,y) \mid x,y \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}\}\$$

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The 36 elements of the sample space S are:

There are  $2^{36} = 68,719,476,736$  possible events.

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For event E (E being an arbitrary subset of S) that contains more than one outcome, simply assign

$$P(E) = \frac{n(E)}{36}$$

where n(E) is the cardinality of E.

You should convince yourself that this probability function satisfies the first three Kolmogorov axioms.

We may proceed to define a random variable X on S, the set of outcomes, by the formula

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 for  $(u, v) \in S = \{(u, v) | u, v \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}\}$ 

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The range of the random variable X contains 11 elements:

$$X \in \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$$

which is a considerably simpler set than either the sample space or its power set.

A probability density function  $p_X(k)$  can be defined for X, with

$$p_X(k) = P(X = k), \quad k \in \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$$

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By counting the number of outcomes that produce each value of k for X, we can assign specific values to  $p_X(k)$ :

$$p_X(k) = P(X = k) = \begin{cases} 1/36 & \text{if} & k = 2 \text{ or } k = 12\\ 2/36 & \text{if} & k = 3 \text{ or } k = 11\\ 3/36 & \text{if} & k = 4 \text{ or } k = 10\\ 4/36 & \text{if} & k = 5 \text{ or } k = 9\\ 5/36 & \text{if} & k = 6 \text{ or } k = 8\\ 6/36 & \text{if} & k = 7 \end{cases}$$

Suppose an experiment consists of tossing a fair coin three times. The sample space contains 8 possible outcomes:

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As in the previous example, it is usual to define the probability function P on S so that the outcomes are equally likely.

Then P(s) = 1/8 for any element s of the sample space S, and for an arbitrary subset E of the power set of S (that is, an arbitrary event E), define P(E) to be the cardinality of E divided by 8:

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Once again, you can verify that P satisfies the first 3 Kolmogorov axioms.

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The range of X is then  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . By counting the outcomes with 0, 1, 2, and 3 heads and using P as defined above, we can construct a probability density function  $p_X(k)$  for X:

$$p_X(k) = P(X = k) = \begin{cases} 1/8 & \text{if } X = 0 \\ 3/8 & \text{if } X = 1 \\ 3/8 & \text{if } X = 2 \\ 1/8 & \text{if } X = 3 \end{cases}$$

We will show that in general if an experiment consists of n independent Bernoulli trials with probability of success p and X is the number of successes, the probability density of X can be written as:

$$p_X(k) = P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{1-k}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

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It is easy to verify that these probabilities add to 1 because

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} p_X(k) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{1-k}$$

is just the expansion of  $(p + (1 - p))^n$ , and (p + (1 - p)) = 1 so this is  $1^n$ .