# Topic 5 Basics of Probability

Equally Likely Outcomes and the Axioms of Probability

#### Outline

**Equally Likely Outcomes** 

Axioms of Probability

Consequences of the Axioms

#### Introduction

A probability model has two essential pieces of its description.

- $\Omega$ , the sample space, the set of possible outcomes.
  - An event is a collection of outcomes. We can define an event by explicitly giving its outcomes,

$$A = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_n\}$$

or with a description

$$A = \{\omega; \omega \text{ has property } \mathcal{P}\}.$$

In either case, A is subset of the sample space,  $A \subset \Omega$ .

- *P*, the probability assigns a number to each event. Thus, a probability is a function.
  - The domain is the collection of all events.
  - The range is a number.

We will see soon which numbers we will accept as probabilities of events.

# **Equally Likely Outcomes**

If  $\Omega$  is a finite sample space, then if each outcome is equally likely, we define the probability of A as the fraction of outcomes that are in A. This leads to the formula

$$P(A) = \frac{\#(A)}{\#(\Omega)}.$$

Exercise. Find the probabilities under equal likely outcomes.

(a) Toss a coin.

$$P\{\text{heads}\} = \frac{\#(A)}{\#(\Omega)} = ---$$
.

(b) Toss a coin three times.

$$P\{\text{toss at least two heads in a row}\} = \frac{\#(A)}{\#(\Omega)} = ---$$

(c) Roll two dice.

$$P\{\text{sum is } 9\} = \frac{\#(A)}{\#(\Omega)} = ---$$

# **Equally Likely Outcomes**

Because we always have  $0 \le \#(A) \le \#(\Omega)$ , we always have

$$P(A) \ge 0, \qquad P(\Omega) = 1 \tag{1\&2}$$

This gives us 2 of the three axioms.

Toss a coin 4 times. 
$$\#(\Omega) = 16$$
 
$$A = \{\text{exactly 3 heads}\} = \{\text{HHHT, HHTH, HTHH, THHH}\}$$
 
$$\#(A) = 4$$

$$P(A) = 4/16 = 1/4$$
 
$$B = \{\text{exactly 4 heads}\} = \{\text{HHHH}\} \qquad \#(B) = 1$$

$$P(B) = 1/16$$

Now let's define the set  $C = \{\text{at least three heads}\}$ . If you are asked the supply the probability of C, your intuition is likely to give you an immediate answer.

$$P(C) = 5/16.$$

# Axioms of Probability

The events A and B have *no* outcomes in common. We say that the two events are disjoint or mutually exclusive and write  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ . In this situation, we have an addition principle

$$\#(A \cup B) = \#(A) + \#(B).$$

Divide by  $\#(\Omega)$ , then we obtain the following identity: If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then

$$\frac{\#(A\cup B)}{\#(\Omega)}=\frac{\#(A)}{\#(\Omega)}+\frac{\#(B)}{\#(\Omega)}.$$

or 
$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$
. (3)

Using this property, we see that

$$P\{\text{at least 3 heads}\} = P\{\text{exactly 3 heads}\} + P\{\text{exactly 4 heads}\} = \frac{4}{16} + \frac{1}{16} = \frac{5}{16}.$$

Any function P that accepts events as its domain, returns numbers as its range and satisfies Axioms 1, 2, and 3 as defined in (1), (2), and (3) can be called a probability.

### Axioms of Probability

By iterating the procedure in Axiom 3, we can also state that if the events,  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ , are mutually exclusive, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots + P(A_n). \tag{3'}$$

This is a sufficient definition for a probability if the sample space  $\Omega$  is finite.

Consider a rare event - a lightning strike at a given location, winning the lottery, finding a planet with life - and look for this event repeatedly, we can write

$$A_i = \{$$
the first occurrence appears on the  $j$ -th observation $\}$ .

Then, each of the  $A_j$  are mutually exclusive and {event occurs eventually}

$$=A_1\cup A_2\cup\cdots\cup A_n\cup\cdots=\bigcup_{j=1}^\infty A_j=\{\omega;\omega\in A_j \text{ for some } j\}.$$

#### Axioms of Probability

We would like to say that

$$P\{\text{event occurs eventually}\} = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots + P(A_n) + \dots$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A_i).$$

This would call for an extension of Axiom 3 to an infinite number of mutually exclusive events. This is the general version of Axiom 3 we use when we want to use *calculus*:

For mutually exclusive events,  $\{A_i; j \geq 1\}$ , then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P(A_j) \tag{3"}$$

Thus, statements (1), (2), and (3") give us the complete axioms of probability.

• Complement Rule. Because A and its complement  $A^c = \{\omega; \omega \notin A\}$  are mutually exclusive,

$$P(A) + P(A^c) = P(A \cup A^c) = P(\Omega) = 1$$

or

$$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A).$$

For example, if we toss a *biased* coin. We may want to say that  $P\{\text{heads}\} = p$  where p is not necessarily equal to 1/2. By necessity,

$$P\{\text{tails}\} = 1 - p$$
.

Toss a fair coin 4 times.

$$P\{\text{fewer than 3 heads}\} = 1 - P\{\text{at least 3 heads}\} = 1 - \frac{5}{16} = \frac{11}{16}.$$

Difference Rule. Let B \ A denote the outcomes in B but not in A.
 If A ⊂ B, then

$$P(B \setminus A) = P(B) - P(A).$$

• Monotonicity Rule. If  $A \subset B$ , then  $P(B \setminus A) \ge 0$  and

$$P(A) \leq P(B)$$
.

We already know that for any event A,  $P(A) \ge 0$ .

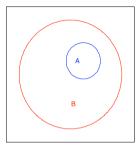


Figure: Monotonicity Rule

By the monotonicity rule,

$$P(A) \leq P(\Omega) = 1.$$

The range of a probability is a subset of [0, 1].

 Inclusion-Exclusion Rule. For any two events A and B,

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B).$$

• Bonferroni Inequality. For any two events *A* and *B*,

$$P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$
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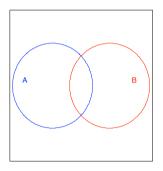


Figure: Inclusion-Exclusion Rule

• Continuity Property. If events satisfy

$$B_1 \subset B_2 \subset \cdots$$
 and  $B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$ 

Then,  $P(B_i)$  is increasing. In addition,

$$P(B) = \lim_{i \to \infty} P(B_i).$$

Similarly, use the symbol ⊃ to denote contains. If events satisfy

$$C_1\supset C_2\supset\cdots$$
 and  $C=\bigcap_{i=1}^\infty C_i$ 

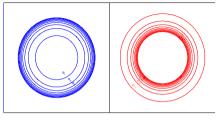


Figure: Continuity Property. (left)  $B_i$  increasing to an event B. (right)  $C_i$  decreasing to an event C.

Then  $P(C_i)$  is decreasing and

$$P(C) = \lim_{i \to \infty} P(C_i).$$

Exercise. The statement of a: b odds for an event A indicates that

$$\frac{P(A)}{P(A^c)} = \frac{a}{b}.$$

Show that

$$P(A) = \frac{a}{a+b}.$$

So, for example, 1 : 2 odds means P(A) = 1/3 and 5 : 3 odds means P(A) = 5/8.