

Last lecture

- **Probability models** describe real, complex systems
- Probability models have the following components:
 - 1 Description of a phenomenon
 - 2 List of possible outcomes (“sample space”, denoted by S)
 - 3 Probability associated with each outcome
- An **event** is a subset of outcomes from the model

Last lecture

Example of a probability model:

- 1 We flip the same coin 3 times and count the number of heads
- 2 The possible outcomes: $S = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$
- 3 Probabilities of each event (in order above): 0.125, 0.375, 0.375, 0.125. (\rightarrow extremely close to real-life proportions)

Example events:

- 1 $A = \{0\} =$ “no heads”
- 2 $B = \{2, 3\} =$ “more than 1 head”
- 3 $C = \{0, 3\} =$ “some heads but not all heads”

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Event terminology:

- 1 Events A and B are *disjoint* if they do not share any outcomes
- 2 Events A and B are *complements* if event A contains every outcome in S that B does *not* contain

Basic rules of probability calculations:

- 1 For any event A , $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
- 2 Probability of the whole sample space is 1 ($P(S) = 1$)
- 3 If events A and B are *disjoint*, $P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$
- 4 If B is the *complement* of A , $P(A) = 1 - P(B)$.

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Example events (from 3-flips example):

- 1 $A = \{0\} =$ “no heads”
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Probability calculation examples:

- 1 $P(B) = P(2) + P(3) = 0.375 + 0.125 = 0.5$
- 2 $P(B \text{ or } C) = P(0, 2, \text{ or } 3) = P(0) + P(2) + P(3) = 0.5 + 0.125 = 0.625.$
- 3 Number 2 using complement rule:
 $P(B \text{ or } C) = P(0, 2, \text{ or } 3) = 1 - P(1) = 1 - 0.375 = 0.625.$

Independence:

- Events A and B are *independent* if knowing whether A occurs does not change the probability of B
- Formally: events A and B are independent **if and only if** the equation

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A)P(B)$$

is satisfied.

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Examples of independence:

- 1 Flip a coin twice. $A = \{\text{first flip is heads}\}$,
 $B = \{\text{second flip is heads}\}$. Second flip heads probability is $\frac{1}{2}$ regardless of first flip. Thus A and B are independent, and $P(\text{both flips are heads}) = P(A)P(B) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$.
- 2 See boat/plane/criminal example from last lecture. We checked that

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A)P(B)$$

and therefore A and B are independent. The point: whether we decide to (say) catch a boat first or catch any vehicle at random does not change our chances of catching a criminal.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

New concept: Random Variable

- A **random variable** is a variable whose value is a numerical outcome of a probability model.

Simple example:

- Random phenomenon: Flip a coin 3 times.
- **Number of heads observed** is a random variable.
- **Number of tails observed** is also a random variable.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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Simple example:

- Random phenomenon: Flip a coin 3 times.
- **Number of heads observed** is a random variable.
- **Number of tails observed** is also a random variable.

Random variables are written as capital letters. So, “let X = number of heads observed” is how to define a r.v. Could also be Y , Z , etc.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

More complex example: A fair 6-sided die is rolled, and then a card is drawn from a 52-card deck with the aces and face cards removed (so only numbers left).

What are some random variables associated with the situation?

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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What are some random variables associated with the situation?

- X = number on the die
- Y = number of the card
- Z = number of the card plus number on the die = $X + Y$
- $X_2 = X/3$, number on the die divided by 3.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

- Random variables have properties given by the probability distribution of the phenomenon.

For random variables taking discrete values (die roll, card draw):

- Every possible value a random variable can take has a probability of occurring. (could even be zero or 1)
- The probabilities associated with the possible values of a random variable is called a **probability distribution**.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

The **probability distribution** of a (discrete) random variable X is a list of the possible values of X and their probabilities.

★ If we know the probabilities for outcomes in a random process, we can *derive* the distribution of a random variable.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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★ If we know the probabilities for outcomes in a random process, we can *derive* the distribution of a random variable.

Example: Pick a person at random from this class. Let X be *number* associated with their year in school (i.e. Freshman = 1). Suppose we know the class has:

| Freshman | Sophomore | Junior | Senior |
|----------|-----------|--------|--------|
| 65% | 35% | 8% | 2% |

Then $P(X = 1) = 0.65$, $P(X = 2) = 0.35$, $P(X = 3) = 0.08$, and $P(X = 4) = 0.02$.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Note: A random variable taking a value (like $X = 2$) is an event.

Sometimes the probability distribution is not direct or obvious.

More complicated example: A bag has 2 marbles: 1 red, 1 green. Three separate times, we draw a marble and place it back in the bag. Let Y be the number of times we draw the red marble.

- ★ To get the probability distribution, we need to
 - List the possible values of Y
 - Find the probability of each value

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

A bag has 2 marbles: 1 red, 1 green. Three separate times, we draw a marble and place it back in the bag. Let Y be the number of times we draw the red marble.

- 1 What are the possible values of Y ?

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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1 What are the possible values of Y ? Answer: 0, 1, 2, 3

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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- 1 What are the possible values of Y ? Answer: 0, 1, 2, 3
- 2 What are the probabilities of each value?

Let's solve #2 in multiple ways.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

A bag has 2 marbles: 1 red, 1 green. Three separate times, we draw a marble and place it back in the bag. Let Y be the number of times we draw the red marble.

Option 1: Brute-force counting. The possible outcomes of this experiment are: green-green-green, green-green-red, green-red-green, red-green-green, red-red-green, red-green-red, green-red-red, red-red-red. Therefore,

$$P(Y = 0) = 1/8 = 0.125$$

$$P(Y = 1) = 3/8 = 0.375$$

$$P(Y = 2) = 3/8 = 0.375$$

$$P(Y = 3) = 1/8 = 0.125$$

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

A bag has 2 marbles: 1 red, 1 green. Three separate times, we draw a marble and place it back in the bag. Let Y be the number of times we draw the red marble.

Option 2: Probability rules. The draws are independent, since we place the marble back each time. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}P(Y = 0) &= P(\text{greengreengreen}) = P(\text{green})P(\text{green})P(\text{green}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{8} = 0.125, \text{ and}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}P(Y = 1) &= P(\text{redgreengreen or greenredgreen or greengreenred}) \\ &= P(\text{redgreengreen}) + P(\text{greenredgreen}) + P(\text{greengreenred}) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{8} = 0.375\end{aligned}$$

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

A bag has 2 marbles: 1 red, 1 green. Three separate times, we draw a marble and place it back in the bag. Let Y be the number of times we draw the red marble.

- For this example, brute force counting and using the rules seemed equal amounts of work.
- **But** for most examples, using probability rules is **much** easier.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Example 2: Lucy, Darla, Stefon, Henrique are freshman, Asha and Liz are sophomores, and Sally is a senior. For each of three separate (and independent) class questions, a professor calls on one student randomly. Let F = the number of total freshman called upon.

What are the possible values for F ?

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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What are the possible values for F ? 0, 1, 2, 3

★ Note: same as in marble example, but different probabilities!

Let's find the probability distribution for F .

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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Option 1: Brute-force counting. It would take very long to list all the possible outcomes and count them.

Instead, we will find F 's distribution using probability rules

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Example 2: Lucy, Darla, Stefon, Henrique are freshman, Asha and Liz are sophomores, and Sally is a senior. For each of three separate (and independent) class questions, a professor calls on one student randomly. Let F = the number of total freshman called upon.

Option 2: Probability rules. Let “ f ” denote the outcome of a freshman for a single draw, and “ u ” and upperclass-student (non-freshman). $P(f) = 4/7$ and by the complement rule, $P(u) = 1 - P(f) = 3/7$. Therefore

$$P(F = 0) = P(uuu) = P(u)P(u)P(u) = \frac{3}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} \approx 0.08$$

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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Option 2: Probability rules. Let “ f ” = freshman for a single draw, and “ u ” = non-freshman. Then $P(f) = 4/7$ and by the complement rule, $P(u) = 1 - P(f) = 3/7$.

$$\begin{aligned}P(F = 1) &= P(fuu \text{ or } ufu \text{ or } uuf) = P(fuu) + P(ufu) + P(uuf) \\&= P(f)P(u)P(u) + P(u)P(f)P(u) + P(u)P(u)P(f) \\&= \frac{4}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} + \frac{3}{7} \cdot \frac{4}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} + \frac{3}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} \cdot \frac{4}{7} \\&= 3 \cdot \frac{4}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} \cdot \frac{3}{7} \approx 0.31\end{aligned}$$

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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Option 2: Probability rules. Let “ f ” = freshman for a single draw, and “ u ” = non-freshman. Then $P(f) = 4/7$ and by the complement rule, $P(u) = 1 - P(f) = 3/7$. Full probability distribution for F :

| | | | | |
|-------------|------|------|------|------|
| Y | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Probability | 0.08 | 0.31 | 0.42 | 0.19 |

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Note: many different kinds of events with r.v.'s. For example:

- $P(F > 1) =$

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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- $P(F > 1) = P(F = 2 \text{ or } F = 3) = P(F = 2) + P(F = 3) = 0.42 + 0.19 = 0.61$
- $P(F < 3) =$

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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- $P(F > 1) = P(F = 2 \text{ or } F = 3) = P(F = 2) + P(F = 3) = 0.42 + 0.19 = 0.61$
- $P(F < 3) = 1 - P(F = 3) = 1 - 0.19 = 0.81$

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Recall: data can be **discrete** (taking countable number of values) or **continuous** (taking any real numbers in a *range* of values).

Discrete random variable: a random variable that can be a countable (list-able) number of values. Each value has probability in $[0, 1]$ and *at least one* value has positive probability.

Example: F = number of freshman in 3 independent draws.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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Example: F = number of freshman in 3 independent draws.

Continuous random variable: a random variable that can be any real number in a range of values. Each *range* of values has probability in $[0, 1]$ and *at least one* range has positive probability.

Example: H = height of a randomly drawn student from a large population.

Random Variables (Section 4.3)

★ For **discrete** random variables, can write out probs.

Example: F = number of freshman in 3 independent draws:

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★ For **continuous** random variables, **density** gives probabilities.

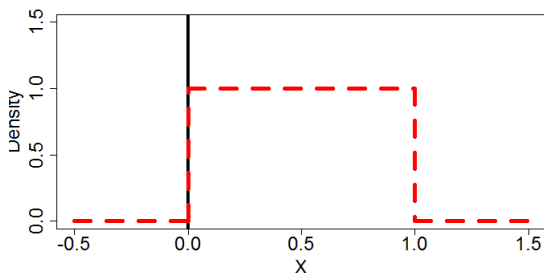
Example: If student heights are $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, then probabilities about H = height of a randomly drawn student follow Normal probabilities (more on this to follow).

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

- Let X be a **continuous** random variable
- Events about X are: “ X in a *range* $[a, b]$ ” = $\{a \leq X \leq b\}$
- Interested in $P(a \leq X \leq b)$
- $P(a \leq X \leq b) =$ area under X 's density between a and b

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Example 1: X has **uniform** distribution if its probabilities follow uniform density:

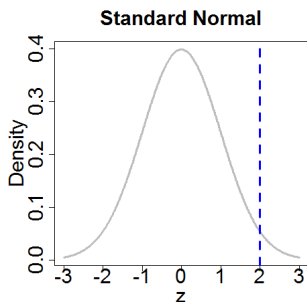


- $P(0.5 \leq X \leq 0.75) = 1 \times (0.75 - 0.5) = 0.25$

- $P(X \leq 0.2) = 1 \times (0.2 - 0) = 0.2$

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Example 2: Z has **Standard Normal** distribution if its probabilities follow Standard Normal density:



- $P(Z \leq 0.75) = \text{area under curve below } z = 0.75$
- $P(-0.2 \geq Z) = \text{area under curve above } z = -0.2$

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Technicality of continuous random variables:

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- ... and $\{a \leq X \leq b\}$ and $\{a < X < b\}$ are the same
- ... and $P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a < X < b)$

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Technicality of continuous random variables:

- Area under any *point* is 0.
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- ... and $\{a \leq X \leq b\}$ and $\{a < X < b\}$ are the same
- ... and $P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a < X < b)$
- Above not necessarily true if X is discrete

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Probabilities for general Normal random variables:

- Let X have distribution $\mathcal{N}(10, 2)$
- Consider the event $A = \{X < 8\}$. What is $P(A)$?

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

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- Let X have distribution $\mathcal{N}(10, 2)$
- Consider the event $A = \{X < 8\}$. What is $P(A)$?

Option 1: use 68 – 95 – 99.7 rule:

- 68% of area between $[10 - 2, 10 + 2] = [8, 12]$
- Density is symmetric, so $32\%/2 = 16\%$ to left of $[8, 12]$
- Thus $P(X < 8) = 0.16$

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

What is $P(X < 8)$? Option 2: transform the variable.

Fact: If X is $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma)$, the random variable $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}$ is $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

- The event $\{X < 8\}$ is the same as $\left\{\frac{X-10}{2} < \frac{8-10}{2}\right\}$
- Let $Z = \frac{X-10}{2}$. Then Z is $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
- So the event $\left\{\frac{X-10}{2} < \frac{8-10}{2}\right\}$ is the same as $\{Z < -1\}$
- Therefore $P(X < 8) = P(Z < -1) = 0.16$.

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Example: Combining densities and probability rules.

Trains on a certain railway are approximately $\mathcal{N}(3000\text{ft}, 600\text{ft})$. Assume trains that pass by are independent. What is the probability of observing two trains in a row that are over 4000ft long?

Continuous Random Variables (Section 4.3)

Example: Combining densities and probability rules.

Trains on a certain railway are approximately $\mathcal{N}(3000\text{ft}, 600\text{ft})$. Assume trains that pass by are independent. What is the probability of observing two trains in a row that are over 4000ft long?

- Let $A = \{\text{observe 1 train that is over 4000ft}\}$.
- $P(A) = ?$ Standardize (previous slide) and use Table A
- Then $P(2 \text{ independent trains over 4000ft}) = P(A)^2$