# From Randomness to Probability

Chapter 12

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## Red Light, Green Light

Each day you drive through an intersection and check if the light is red, green, or yellow.

Day 1: red

· Day 2: green

· Day 3: red

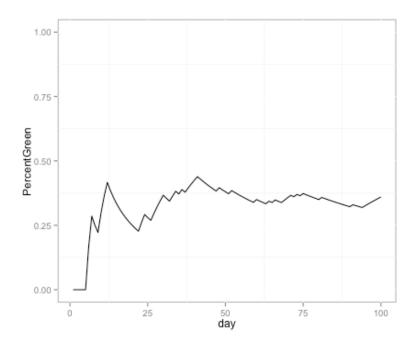
Before you begin, you know:

- · The possible outcomes
- · An outcome will occur.

After you finish, you know:

The outcomes that occurred

```
flips <- sample(c(0,1,0), 100, replace=TRUE)
df <- data.frame(day=1:100,
    PercentGreen=cumsum(flips) / 1:100)
ggplot(df, aes(x=day, y=PercentGreen)) +
    geom_path() + ylim(c(0,1))</pre>
```



## Random Phenomena Vocabulary

- · Trial: Each occasion which we observe a random phenomena
- Outcome: The value of the trial for the random phenomena
- Event: The combination of the trial's outcomes
- Sample Space: The collection of all possible outcomes

#### For example, flipping two coins:

- Trial: The flipping of the two coins
- Outcome: Heads or tails for each flip
- Event: HT, for example
- Sample Space: S = {HH, HT, TH, TT}

## The Law of Large Numbers

- If you flip a coin once, you will either get 100% heads or 0% heads.
- If you flip a coin 1000 times, you will probably get close to 50% heads.

The Law of Large Numbers states that for many trials, the proportion of times an event occurs settles down to one number.

This number is called the empirical probability.

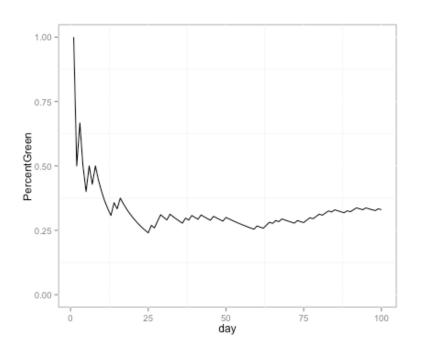
#### Requirements:

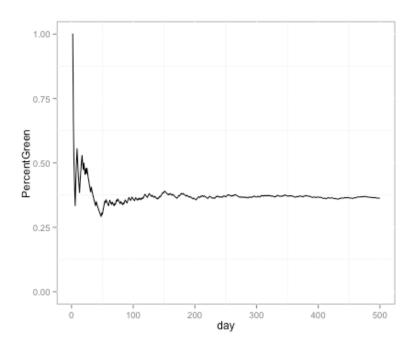
- · Identical Probabilities: The probabilities for each event must remain the same for each trial.
- · Independence: The outcome of a trial is not influenced by the outcomes of the previous trials.

Empirical probability: 
$$P(A) = \frac{num \quad times \quad A \quad occurs}{num \quad of \quad trials}$$
 (in the long run)

## Red Light, Green Light: The Law of Large Numbers

- · After many days, the proportion of green lights encountered is approximately 0.34.
- P(green) = 0.34.
- If we recorded more days, the probability would still be about 0.34.





### The Nonexistent Law of Averages

#### Wrong

- If you flip a coin 5 times and get five tails, then you are due for a head on the next flip.
- You put 10 quarters in the slot machine and lose each time. You are just a bad luck person, so you have a smaller chance of winning on the 11th try.
- There is no such thing as the Law of Averages for short runs.

## Theoretical Probability

#### American Roulette

- · 18 Red, 18 Black, 2 Green
- If you bet on Red, what is the probability of winning?

#### Theoretical Probability

$$P(A) = \frac{num \quad times \quad A \quad occurs}{num \quad of \quad trials}$$

$$P(red) = \frac{18}{38}$$

#### Heads or Tails

#### Flip 2 coins. Find P(HH)

- List the sample space:S = {HH, HT, TH, TT}
- $P(HH) = \frac{1}{4}$

Flip 100 coins. Find the probability of all heads. The sample space would involve 1,267,650,600,228,229,401,496,703,205,376 different outcomes. Later, we will see a better way.

## Equally Likely?

What's wrong with this logic?

- · Randomly pick two people.
- Find the probability that both are left-handed.
- Sample SpaceS = {LL, LR, RL, RR}
- $P(LL) = \frac{1}{4}$

Since left-handed and right-handed are not equally likely, this method does not work.

#### Personal Probability

What's your chance of getting an A in statistics?

- You cannot base this on your long-run experience.
- · There is no sample space of events with equal probabilities to list.
- You can only base your answer on personal experience and guesswork.
- Probabilities based on personal experience rather than long-run relative frequencies or equally likely events are called personal probabilities.

#### Rules 1 and 2

Rule 1: 
$$0 \le P(A) \le 1$$

- You can't have a -25% chance of winning.
- · A 120% chance also makes no sense.
- Note: Probabilities are (generally) written in decimals.
  - 45% chance → P(A) = 0.45

Rule 2: 
$$P(S) = 1$$

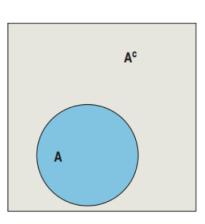
- The set of all possible outcomes has probability 1.
- There is a 100% chance that you will get a head or a tail.

## Rule 3: The Complement Rule

#### Complements

- Define  $A^C$  as the complement of A.
- $A^C$  is the event of A not happening.
- If A is the event of rolling a 5 on a six sided die, then AC is the event of not rolling a 5: {1, 2, 3, 4, 6}
- P(A) = 1/6;  $P(A^C) = ?$
- $P(A^C) = 5/6 = 1 1/6$

The Rule of Complements:  $P(A^C) = 1 - P(A)$ 



## Red Light Green Light and Complements

We know that P(green) = 0.34. Find P(not green):

- · Not green is the complement of green.
- Use the rule of complements:

```
P(notgreen) = P(green^C)

P(not green) = 1 - P(green)

P(not green) = 1 - 0.34

P(not green) = 0.66
```

The probability of the light not being green is 0.66.

#### Rule 4: The Addition Rule

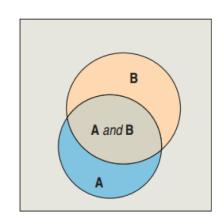
#### Suppose

P(sophomore) = 0.2 and P(junior) = 0.3

Find P(sophomore OR junior)

Solution: 0.2 + 0.3 = 0.5

This works because sophomore and junior are disjoint events. They have no outcomes in common.



#### The Addition Rule

· If A and B are disjoint events, then

$$P(A \quad OR \quad B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

## Red Light, Green Light, Yellow Light

Given that P(green) = 0.35 and P(yellow) = 0.04

· Find P(red).

Solution: Use the Rule of Complements and the Addition Rule.

$$P(red) = 1 - P(red^{C})$$

$$P(red) = 1 - P(greenORyellow)$$

$$P(red) = 1 - [P(green) + P(yellow)]$$

$$P(red) = 1 - [0.35 + 0.04]$$

$$P(red) = 1 - 0.39$$

$$P(red) = 0.61$$

#### The Sum of Probabilities

The sum of all the probabilities of every disjoint event must equal 1.

What's wrong with the following statement?

- Probabilities for freshmen, sophomore, junior, senior are: 0.25, 0.23, 0.22, 0.20.
   0.25 + 0.23 + 0.22 + 0.20 = 0.90
- · Since they do not add to 1, something is wrong.

How about the following?

- P(owning a smartphone) = 0.5 and
- P(owning a computer) = 0.9
- · This is fine, since they are not disjoint.

### Rule 5: The Multiplication Rule

The probability that an Atlanta to Houston flight is on time is 0.85.

• If you have to fly every Monday, find the probability that your first two Monday flights will be on time.

Multiplication Rule: For independent events A and B:

$$P(A \quad AND \quad B) = P(A) \times P(B)$$

 $P(1st on time AND 2nd on time) = P(1st on time) \times P(2nd on time)$ 

P(1st on time AND 2nd on time) =  $0.85 \times 0.85$ 

P(1st on time AND 2nd on time) = 0.7225

### Red Light AND Green Light AND Yellow Light

Find the probability that the light will be red on Monday, green on Tuesday, and yellow on Wednesday.

- The multiplication rule works for more than 2 events.
- P(red Mon. AND green Tues. AND yellow Wed.) =
   P(red Mon.) × P(green Tues.) × P(yellow Wed.) =
   0.61 × 0.35 × 0.04 =
   0.00854

## At Least One Red Light

Find the probability that the light will be red at least one time during the week.

Use the Complement Rule

```
P(at least 1 red) = 1 - P(\text{no reds})
= 1 - (0.39 \times 0.39 \times 0.39 \times 0.39 \times 0.39 \times 0.39 \times 0.39)
\approx 0.9986
```

## M&Ms: 38% Pink, 36% Teal, 16% Purple

- First notice that  $0.38 + 0.36 + 0.16 = 0.9 \neq 1$
- · There must be other colors.

Question: Find the probability that a Japanese survey respondent will want either pink or teal. P(pink OR teal)

- Pink and teal are disjoint.
- Apply the Addition Rule.

Question: P(1st purple AND 2nd purple)
Find the probability that two Japanese survey respondents will want purple.

- The choice made by the first respondent does not affect the choice of the other. The events are independent.
- · Use the Multiplication Rule.

### M&Ms: 38% Pink, 36% Teal, 16% Purple

Question: P(pink OR teal)

#### Mechanics:

P(pink OR teal) = P(pink) + P(teal)
 P(pink OR teal) = 0.38 + 0.36
 P(pink OR teal) = 0.74

Conclusion: The probability that the respondent chose pink or teal is 0.74.

Question: P(1st purple AND 2nd purple)

Mechanics:

P(1st purple AND 2nd purple) = P(1st purple)  $\times$  P(2nd purple)
P(1st purple AND 2nd purple) = 0.16  $\times$  0.16
P(1st purple AND 2nd purple) = 0.0256

Conclusion: The probability that both choose purple is 0.0256.