STAT20060 - Statistics and Probability Handout 3 - Probability

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Running example

A fair die is rolled once. The possible outcomes are:

$$\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$$

Preliminary definitions

Experiment

An experiment is an act or process of observation that leads to a single outcome that cannot be predicted with certainty.

• Example: The experiment is rolling the die.

Sample point

A sample point is the most basic outcome of an experiment

• Example: There are 6 sample points in this experiment:

Preliminary definitions

Sample Space

The sample space of an experiment is the set of ALL its sample points.

• Example: The sample space of this experiment is:

$$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

Probability Axioms

Let p_i denote the probability of sample point i and let S be the sample space:

- $0 < p_i < 1$.
- $\mathbb{P}(S) = 1$.
- The probabilities of all sample points within a sample space must sum to 1.

$$\sum_{i} p_i = 1$$

Events

Event

An event is a collection of sample points. It is a subset of the sample space S.

ullet An event ${\mathcal A}$ occurs if any one of the sample points in ${\mathcal A}$ occur.

Probability of an event.

The probability of an event $\mathcal A$ is calculated by summing the probabilities of the sample points in $\mathcal A$.

Example: Loaded Die

- A die has been *loaded* so that the probability of side *i* coming up is proportional to *i*.
- If A is the event that either a 2 or a 3 comes up.
- What is $\mathbb{P}(A)$?

Set notation

An event that can be viewed as the composition as 2 or more events is called a compound event.

Union

The union of two events $\mathcal A$ and $\mathcal B$ is the event that occurs if either $\mathcal A$ or $\mathcal B$ (or both) occur. Denoted $\mathcal A\cup\mathcal B$.

Intersection

The intersection of two events \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} is the event that occurs if both \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} occur. Denoted $\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}$.

Picture:

Additive law

The probability of the union of events may be calculated without knowing the individual sample point probabilities.

Additive law

ullet The probability of the union of two events ${\cal A}$ and ${\cal B}$ is:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}\cup\mathcal{B})=\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A})+\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B})-\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}\cap\mathcal{B})$$

- ullet Two events ${\mathcal A}$ and ${\mathcal B}$ are mutually exclusive if they cannot occur at the same time.
- We can write $A \cap B = \emptyset$ when the events are mutually exclusive.
- If \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are mutually exclusive events, $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) = 0$ and so

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B})$$

Complementary events

Complement

The complement of an event $\mathcal A$ is the event that $\mathcal A$ does not occur. Denoted $\mathcal A^c$

Note: All the sample points in S are either in A or A^c , no sample point can be in both. Thus,

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}^c) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}^c)$$

This is a useful formula for computation.

Example: Dice

Two fair dice are rolled. Event A is that we observe a 5. Event B is that the dice sum to 7. Calculate:

- $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$ and $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B)$.
- $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}^c)$.

S:

Example: Roulette



• 38 slots, 18 red, 18 black, 2 green, 18 even, 18 odd.

Example: Roulette

- A outcome is an odd number (0 and 00 are neither odd nor even).
- B outcome is a red number.
- C outcome is in the first dozen (1-12).
- **①** Define the events $A \cap B$ and $A \cup B$ as a specific sets of sample points.
- **②** Find $\mathbb{P}(A)$, $\mathbb{P}(B)$, $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$, $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B)$ and $\mathbb{P}(C)$ by summing the probabilities of the appropriate sample points.
- **③** Find $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B)$ using the additive rule. Are events A and B mutually exclusive?
- Find $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B \cap C)$.

Conditional Probability

- Sometimes we are aware of extra information which might affect the outcome of an experiment. This extra information may then alter the probability of a particular event of interest.
- ullet Suppose we are interested in evaluating the probability that event ${\mathcal B}$ happens given that we know that event ${\mathcal A}$ has happened.
- We write $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A})$ for this.
- ullet It is called the *conditional probability of* ${\mathcal B}$ *given* ${\mathcal A}$.

Multiplication Rule and Bayes Theorem

The multiplication rule of probabilities states that

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A})\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}) \\
= \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B})$$

Bayes Theorem states that

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}) = rac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}\cap\mathcal{A})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A})}$$

This is just the multiplication rule written in a different way.

Example: Illegal Trading

A trading manager knows that 3 out of 10 traders under her supervision are making illegal trades. If she selects 2 workers at random what is the probability that they have both been trading illegally?

Very Useful Identity

• Let's consider the probability of event A.

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathbb{P}\{(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) \cup (\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}^c)\}
= \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}^c)
= \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}^c)\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}^c)$$

Hence, a very useful form of Bayes Theorem can be written as

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}^c)\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B}^c)}.$$

 This is particularly useful when turning around probabilities that are the wrong way around.

Example: Diagnostic Test

Suppose there is a rare disease which affects 1 person in every 1000 of the population. Fortunately a diagnostic medical test exists for the disease. It is a good test in that, if you have the disease, the test will be positive 95% of the time and if you do not have the disease it will be negative 99% of the time. If a patient tests positive for the disease, what is the probability that they actually have the disease?

Independence

Independence

Two events \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are said to be independent if the occurrence of \mathcal{B} does not alter the probability that \mathcal{A} has occurred. i.e. \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are independent if:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A})$$

Events which are not independent are said to be dependent.

• Combining the definition above with the multiplicative rule, it can be seen that if A and B are independent then:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A})\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{B})$$

The converse is also true, i.e. if $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$ then the events A and B are independent.

• Suppose \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are mutually exclusive events. If \mathcal{B} occurs then \mathcal{A} cannot occur simultaneously so $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})=0$.

⇒ Mutually exclusive events are dependent events.

Example: Tyres

Three types of concrete (Types A, B and C) are independently tested for suitability for use in buildings in earthquake risk areas. The probabilities that each passes the test are 0.7, 0.6, and 0.5 respectively.

- What is the probability that they all fail the test?
- What is the probability that at least one passes?
- Granted that at least one passed, what is the probability that type B
 was the only one to do so?

Example: Corrosion

The independence of corrosion and the functional status of a machine component are to be investigated. Are they independent?

	Functioning	Malfunctioning
Corroded	0.2	0.4
Not corroded	0.3	0.1

Counting Rules

Multiplicative counting rule

Suppose we have k sets with n_1 elements in the first set, n_2 elements in the second, ..., n_k elements in the k^{th} set. If we wish to take a sample of size k consisting of 1 element from each set, the number of ways this sample can be formed is:

$$n_1.n_2....n_k$$

e.g. A password consists of 1 letter followed by 3 digits. How many possible passwords are there?

passwords =
$$26.10.10.10$$

= $26,000$

Combinations Rule

Given a set of N elements, an unordered subset of these elements is called a combination.

Combinations rule

The number of combinations of size r which can be formed from a set of size N is:

$$\binom{N}{r} = \frac{N!}{r!(N-r)!}$$

e.g. The number of soccer teams which can be formed from a panel of size 22 is:

$$\binom{22}{11} = \frac{22!}{11!(22-11)!} = 705,432 \text{ teams}.$$

Permutations Rule

The arrangement of elements of a set in a distinct order is called a permutation.

Permutations rule

The number of different permutations of size r which can be formed from a set of size N is:

$$P_r^N = \frac{N!}{(N-r)!}$$

e.g. 50 engineers are available to do 3 jobs. How many ways can the engineers be allocated to the jobs?

$$P_3^{50} = \frac{50!}{(50-3)!} = 117,600$$

Example: Poker

- How many 5 card hands may be dealt from a deck of 52 cards?
- What is the probability of being dealt 3 of a kind in poker?
- What is the probability of being dealt a full house in poker? (2 of one denomination and 3 of another)