

Class No. 1,2,3,4

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MA 2302: Introduction to Probability and Statistics

PROBABILITY

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## Probability: Basic concepts

- An experiment which results whose outcome can not be predicted before it is performed, but the possible outcomes are known in advance, is known as a *random experiment*, which is commonly known as a *trial*.
- The set of all possible outcomes of a random experiment is known as a *sample space*.
- The elements of a sample space are known as *elementary outcomes*. A subset of the sample space (whose probability is computable) is known as an event.
- The probability of an event is the *degree of certainty* of occurrence of occurrence of the event.

## Probability: Basic concepts

- If all the elementary outcomes are equally likely to occur, then  $P(A) = \frac{\#(A)}{\#(S)}$ , where  $\#$  is the counting measure.
- Sometimes, the sample space contains infinite or uncountable number of points. In such a case, the above definition of probability fails.
- Thus,  $P(A) = \frac{m(A)}{m(S)}$ , where  $m$  may be the counting measure or it measures length in 1D, area in 2D and volume in 3D.
- The empirical definition of probability is as follows: If a random experiment is repeated  $n$  times and if  $m$  is the number of times  $A$  occurs, then  $P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{m}{n}$ .  
Using this definition only, one can find that the probability of choosing an even number (event  $A$ ) from the set of natural numbers (sample space  $S$ ) is  $1/2$ .

## Probability: Basic concepts

- The sample space  $S$  acts as an universal set and the events are subsets of  $S$ . The occurrence of the event  $A$  means in performing the random experiment (leading to the sample space  $S$ ), a point  $e$  is obtained which belongs to  $A$ .
- $A \cup B$  occurs means  $e \in A \cup B$ , i.e. either  $A$  or  $B$  occurs.  $A \cap B$  occurs means both  $A$  and  $B$  occur. Similarly,  $A \cup B \cup C \cup D \cup \dots$  occurs means at least one of  $A, B, C, D, \dots$  occurs.  $A - B = A \cap B^c$  occurs means,  $A$  occurs but (means and)  $B$  does not occur.  $A \Delta B$  occurs means, either  $A$  occurs or  $B$  occurs but both  $A$  and  $B$  do not occur.
- Two events  $A$  and  $B$  are equally likely (to occur) if  $P(A) = P(B)$ .  $A$  and  $B$  are mutually exclusive if they are set theoretically disjoint leading to  $P(A \cap B) = 0$ . However,  $P(A \cap B) = 0$  need not imply that  $A$  and  $B$  are mutually exclusive.
- If  $E = \{1, 3, 5, \dots\}$ ,  $F = \{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$ ,  $G = \{1^2, 2^2, 3^2, \dots\}$  and  $A = E \cup G$ ,  $B = F \cup G$ , then  $P(E) = P(F) = 1/2$ ,  $P(G) = 0$ . Hence  $P(A) = P(B) = 1/2$ ,  $P(A \cap B) = 0$ , but  $A \cap B \neq \phi$ .

## Addition rules

- If  $A$  and  $B$  are mutually exclusive then  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ .
- In general  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ .

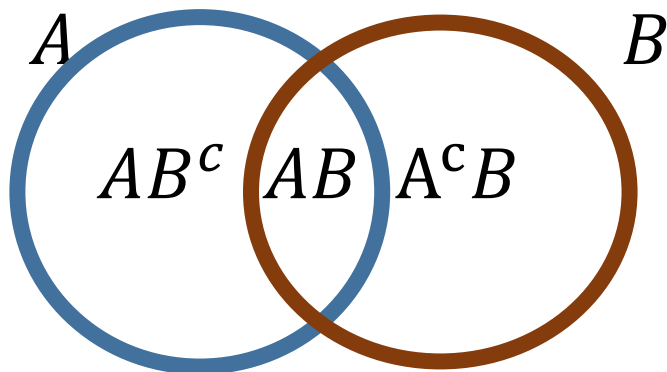
Proof:  $A \cup B = A \cup (A^c \cap B)$ ,  $A$  and  $A^c \cap B$  are mutually exclusive. Hence

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(A^c \cap B). \dots \dots (1)$$

Furthermore,  $B = (A \cap B) \cup (A^c \cap B)$ ,  $A \cap B$  and  $A^c \cap B$  are mutually exclusive. Hence

$$P(B) = P(A \cap B) + P(A^c \cap B). \dots \dots (2)$$

From (2),  $P(A^c \cap B) = P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  and substituting in (1) we get the result.



## Addition rules

- If  $A, B$  and  $C$  are three events, then

$$\begin{aligned}P(A \cup B \cup C) &= P((A \cup B) \cup C) = P(A \cup B) + P(C) - P((A \cup B) \cap C) \\&= P(A \cup B) + P(C) - P(AC \cup BC) \\&= P(A) + P(B) - P(AB) + P(C) - P(AC) - P(BC) + P(ABC) \\&= P(A) + P(B) + P(C) - P(AB) - P(AC) - P(BC) + P(ABC).\end{aligned}$$

Assignment 1: Derive the formula for  $P(A \cup B \cup C \cup D)$ .

Assignment 2: Guess the formula for  $P(A \cup B \cup C \cup D \cup E)$ .

Assignment 3: Observe that

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} P(A_i A_j) + \sum_{1 \leq i < j < k \leq n} P(A_i A_j A_k) - \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} P(A_1 A_2 \cdots A_n).$$

Note: If  $p = P(A_i)$  for each  $i$  and  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are independent i.e.  $P(A_1 A_2 \dots) = P(A_1)P(A_2) \dots$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) &= np - \binom{n}{2} p^2 + \binom{n}{3} p^3 - \binom{n}{4} p^4 + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} p^n \\&= 1 - (1 - p)^n.\end{aligned}$$

## Conditional Probability

If we perform any experiment, then the sample space always occurs. But a event  $A$  may or may not occur. Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two events and it is known that  $B$  has occurred. Then depending on  $B$ , the probability of  $A$  prior and posterior to the occurrence of  $B$  will certainly be affected.

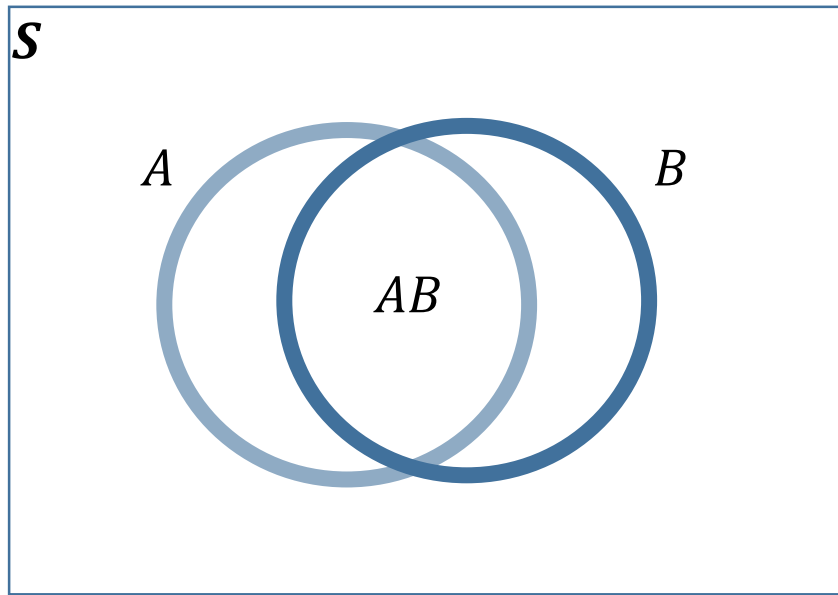
Example: Consider a box consisting of 50 resistors of 47 ohms each and 40 resistors of 56 ohms each. Suppose that 2 resistors are drawn at random without replacement and we have to calculate the probability that both are of 56 ohms. Let  $A$  be the event that the first one drawn is of 56 ohms and  $B$  the event that the second one is of 56 ohms. Thus, we have to find  $P(AB)$ . Observe that the probability of second one being 56 ohms depends on what has been drawn in the first draw. And we calculate

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B : A \text{ has occurred}) = \frac{40}{90} \times \frac{39}{89}.$$

The probability  $P(B : A \text{ has occurred})$  is written as  $P(B|A)$  and is called a conditional probability.

## Conditional Probability

After the occurrence of  $B$ , if  $P(B) > 0$ , it acts as the sample space and the portion of the sample space outside  $B$  has zero probability. Thus,  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)}$ , and consequently,  $P(AB) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(A)P(B|A)$ , which is known as the multiplication rule of probability.



If  $P(B) = 0$ , then  $P(A|B) = P(A)$  since the nothing has occurred. However, if  $P(B) = 1$ , then also  $P(A|B) = P(A)$  since occurrence of  $B$  is equivalent to the occurrence of the sample space which always occur. In particular  $P(A|\phi) = P(A|S) = P(A)$ .



## Independent events

Observe that, in the previous example if the resistors are chosen at random with replacement, then

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B|A) = \frac{40}{90} \times \frac{40}{90} = P(A)P(B).$$

**Definition:** Two events  $A$  and  $B$  in a sample space  $S$  are said to be independent if  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ .

If there are more than two events, say  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ , then they are said to be independent if

$P(A_{i_1}A_{i_2} \dots A_{i_r}) = P(A_{i_1})P(A_{i_2}) \cdots P(A_{i_r})$  for each nonempty subset  $\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_r\}$  of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . If  $P(A_iA_j) = P(A_i)P(A_j)$  for all  $i \neq j$ , then  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are said to be pairwise independent.

Three events  $A, B$  and  $C$  are mutually independent if following are fulfilled:

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$$

$$P(AC) = P(A)P(C)$$

$$P(BC) = P(B)P(C)$$

$$P(ABC) = P(A)P(B)P(C)$$

## Independent events

Q. If  $A$  and  $B$  are independent, show that  $A^c$  and  $B$  are also independent.

Proof: Given  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ . To prove  $P(A^cB) = P(A^c)P(B)$ .

$A^cB \cup AB = B$ .  $A^cB$  and  $AB$  are mutually exclusive. Hence

$$P(B) = P(A^cB) + P(AB) = P(A^cB) + P(A)P(B)$$

Thus,

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

Q. If  $A$  and  $B$  are independent, show that  $A^c$  and  $B^c$  are also independent.

Proof: Given  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ . To prove  $P(A^cB^c) = P(A^c)P(B^c)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} P(A^cB^c) &= P((A \cup B)^c) = 1 - P(A \cup B) = 1 - P(A) - P(B) + P(AB) \\ &= 1 - P(A) - P(B) + P(A)P(B) = (1 - P(A))(1 - P(B)) = P(A^c)P(B^c) \end{aligned}$$

## Independent events

Q. If  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are pairwise independent and  $A$  is independent of  $B \cup C$  then prove that  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are mutually independent.

Ans. Given that  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ ,  $P(AC) = P(A)P(C)$  and  $P(BC) = P(B)P(C)$  and  $P(A \cap (B \cup C)) = P(A)P(B \cup C)$ . To show that  $P(ABC) = P(A)P(B)P(C)$ .

$P(A \cap (B \cup C)) = P(A)P(B \cup C)$  implies that  $P(AB \cup AC) = P(A)[P(B) + P(C) - P(BC)]$  and hence,

$$P(AB) + P(AC) - P(ABC) = P(A)P(B) + P(A)P(C) - P(A)P(BC).$$

Now using pairwise independence, one can get the desired results.

Q. The probability of hitting a target in a single shot is  $p$ . What is the probability that out of ten shot fired, at least one shot will hit the target?

Ans. Let  $A_i$  be the event that the  $i$ -th shot hits the target. Then  $P(A_i) = p$  for each  $i$ . We are interested in

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_{10}) = P[(A_1^c A_2^c \cdots A_{10}^c)^c] = 1 - P(A_1^c A_2^c \cdots A_{10}^c) = 1 - (1 - p)^{10}.$$

## Independent events

*Example 1:  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are pairwise independent but not mutually independent*

*Q. A box contains three chips bearing numbers 112, 121, 211 and 222. A chip is chosen at random. Let  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  be the events that the first, second and third digit of the chip number is 1 respectively. Prove that  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are pairwise independent but not mutually independent.*

*Solun: Observe that*

$$S = \{112, 121, 211, 222\} \quad A = \{112, 121\}, \quad B = \{112, 211\}, \quad C = \{121, 211\},$$

$$AB = \{112\}, \quad AC = \{121\}, \quad BC = \{211\}, \quad ABC = \phi.$$

$$\text{Hence, } P(A) = P(B) = P(C) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad P(AB) = P(AC) = P(BC) = \frac{1}{4}, \quad P(ABC) = 0$$

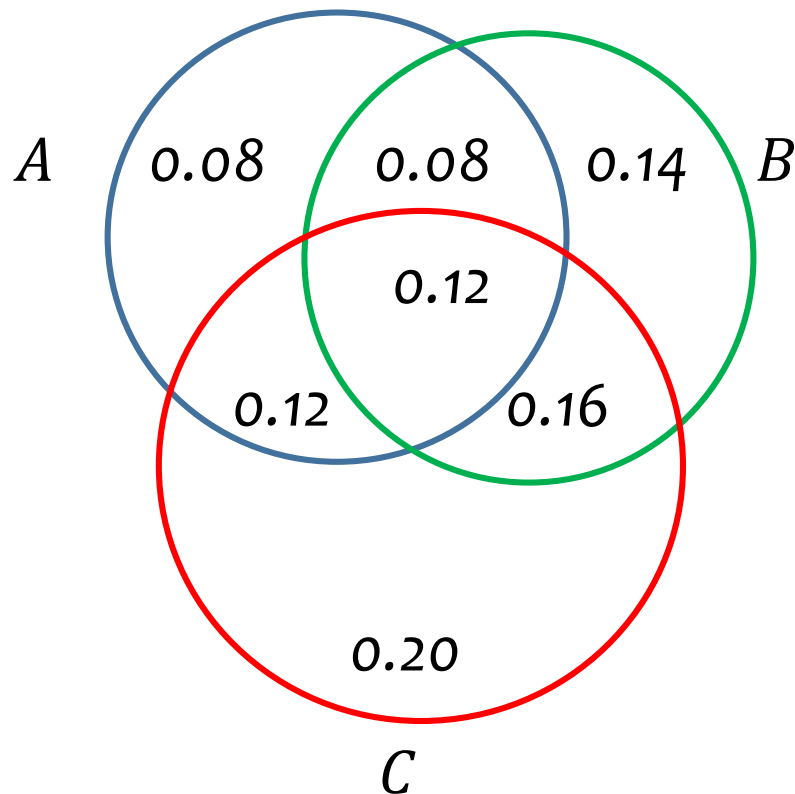
Hence  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ ,  $P(AC) = P(A)P(C)$  and  $P(BC) = P(B)P(C)$  but

$P(ABC) = 0 \neq \frac{1}{8} = P(A)P(B)P(C)$ . Hence  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are pairwise independent but not mutually independent.

# Independent events

Example 2:  $P(ABC) = P(A)P(B)P(C)$ , but  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are not pairwise independent and hence not mutually independent.

Q. Consider the following figure:



Observe that  $P(A) = 0.4$ ,  $P(B) = 0.5$ ,  $P(C) = 0.6$ ,  $P(AB) = 0.2$ ,  $P(AC) = 0.24$ ,  $P(BC) = 0.28$ ,  $P(ABC) = 0.12$ . Hence  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$ ,  $P(AC) = P(A)P(C)$ ,  $P(ABC) = P(A)P(B)P(C)$  but  $P(BC) \neq P(B)P(C)$ . Hence,  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are not pairwise independent, though  $P(ABC) = P(A)P(B)P(C)$ . Hence they cannot be mutually independent because of failure of one condition  $P(BC) = P(B)P(C)$ . We can simply say that  $A$  and  $B$  are independent and  $A$  and  $C$  are independent.

## Independent events

We know that if  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are independent events, then  $P(ABC) = P(A)P(B)P(C)$ . In the absence of independence, the following holds:

$$P(ABC) = P(A)P(B|A)P(C|AB).$$

Proof:  $P(ABC) = P(AB)P(C|AB) = P(A)P(B|A)P(C|AB)$ .

This can be further generalized.

Remark: Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two events with positive probabilities. Observe that if  $A$  and  $B$  are mutually exclusive, they cannot be independent. Moreover, if they are independent, then they cannot be mutually exclusive.

WHY???

## Bayes theorem

Assume that in a sample space  $S$ , there are  $n$  events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  which are pairwise mutually exclusive. Let  $B$  be another event such that  $B \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ .

Then  $B = B \cap (\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i B$ . Observe that the  $n$  events  $A_1 B, A_2 B, \dots, A_n B$  are also pairwise mutually exclusive. Hence, by addition rule of probability,  $P(B) = P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i B)$

Hence,

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)P(B|A_i)$$

This is known as the law of total probabilities. Now,

$$P(A_k|B) = \frac{P(A_k B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A_k)P(B|A_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}$$

which is known as the Bayes theorem.

## Examples

1. A man is equally likely to choose one of the three Routs A, B and C from his house to the railway station. On a rainy day, the probability of missing the train is 0.2 if he starts before one hour of train time through Rout A. The same probabilities for Routs B and C are 0.1 and 0.15 respectively. (a) On a rainy day, what is the probability of his missing the train? (b) If on a rainy day, if he missed the train, what is the probability that his choice of rout was B?

Ans. Let  $A_1, A_2$  and  $A_3$  be the event od choosing Routs A,B and C respectively and  $D$ , the event of missing the train. Then certainly  $P(A_1) = P(A_2) = P(A_3) = 1/3$ ,  $P(D|A_1) = 0.2$ ,  $P(D|A_2) = 0.1$  and  $P(D|A_3) = 0.15$ . Hence,

Probability Of missing the train is (Law of total probabilities)

$$P(D) = \sum_{i=1}^3 P(A_i)P(D|A_i) = \frac{1}{3} \times 0.2 + \frac{1}{3} \times 0.1 + \frac{1}{3} \times 0.15 = 0.15$$

Given that he missed the train, the probability that the Rout chosen by him was B is (by Bayes theorem)

$$P(A_2|D) = \frac{P(A_2)P(D|A_2)}{\sum_{i=1}^3 P(A_i)P(D|A_i)} = \frac{\frac{1}{3} \times 0.1}{\frac{1}{3} \times 0.2 + \frac{1}{3} \times 0.1 + \frac{1}{3} \times 0.15} = \frac{2}{9}.$$