

## **BU7142 Foundations of Business Analytics**

Lecture 2

**Set and Probability Theory** 

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## **Contents**

- Set Theory
- Probability Theory



## **Set Theory**

Definition. A set is a collection of objects, called elements or members.

### Examples:

- R is the set of all real numbers between -∞ and ∞.
- {1,2,4,7} is the set including the numbers 1,2,4,7.
- Intervals are also sets, e.g. all numbers between 3 and 4
- Set of daily prices of the stock of HP during the last year.



## **Set Theory**

Definition. A subset is any collection of elements in a set. An empty set is a set which contains no elements (Φ).

### Examples

- (3,4) is a subset of R.
- The price of HP's stock on the first day of each month is a subset of the set of its daily prices during a year.
- The empty set is a subset of any set.



## **Set Theory: Union**

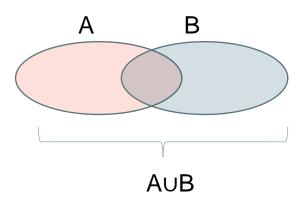
 Union. Let A,B, be two sets. Their union is the set which includes all elements which are in A or in B. It is denoted by AUB.



A: the set of daily prices of HP's stock between January and April 2014.

B: the set of HP's daily prices between March and May 2014.

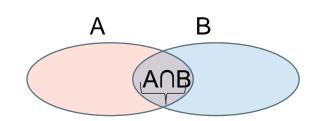
A∪B: the set of HP's daily prices between January and May 2014.





## **Set Theory: Intersection**

 Intersection. Let A,B, be two sets. Their intersection is the set which includes all elements which are in A and in B. It is denoted by A∩B.



### Example:

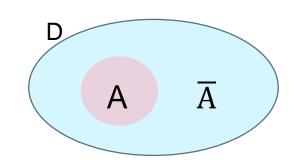
A: the set of daily prices of HP's stock between January and April 2014.

B: the set of HP's daily prices between March and May 2014.

A∩B: the set of HP's prices between March and April.

# **Set Theory: Compliment**

Compliment. Let A be a subset of a set D.
 Its complement, A, consists of all of the elements in D apart from those in A.



#### Example.

D is the set of a survey results.

A is the set of men's answers.

 $\overline{A}$  is the set of the women's answers.

 An important set is the set of all possible subsets of a given set, A.

### Example.

If A={1,2,3}, the set of all subsets consists of:

 $\{ \Phi, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,3\}, \{1,2,3\} \}.$ 

## **Probability Theory: Definitions**

- An experiment is any process or procedure for which more than one outcome is possible.
- Examples:
  - Tossing a coin: Possible outcome: head
  - Rolling a die: Possible outcome: 6
  - The price of IBM's stock tomorrow: Possible outcome: \$187.81
- Sample Space is the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment.
- Examples:
  - Tossing a coin: {head, tail}
  - Rolling a die: {1,2,3,4,5,6}
  - The price of IBM's stock tomorrow: [0, ∞)
- An event is a subset of a sample space.
- Examples:
  - The price of IBM's stock tomorrow is between \$180 and \$190.

## **Probability Theory: Definitions**

- Probability is a numerical measure of the chance that an event will occur.
- Probability Measure is a function P from the set of all of the events of a sample space  $\Omega$  to [0,1], which satisfies for all disjoint events

$$A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$$
:

- P(A) ≥ 0
- $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_n) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + ... + P(A_n)$ .
- $-P(\Omega)=1$
- A probability measure is a function which assigns a probability to each outcome in the sample space.
- Note. for any event A, 0≤P(A) ≤1:
  - P(A)=0, if A never happens.
  - P(A)=1, if A always happens.

## **Types of Probability**

- Subjective Probability
- A-priori Classical Probability
- Empirical Classical Probability

## **Subjective Probability**

Subjective Probability: Probability values are assigned subjectively by people.

#### Example:

- I have a feeling that the probability that IBM's stock price tomorrow will be higher than \$190 is 80%.
- Someone less optimistic might estimate this probability by 50%.
- Advantage: Does not involve calculations
- Disadvantage: Subjective
  - Bilgin (2012) showed that people judge losses to have higher probabilities than gains
  - "It is very likely that this will happen" → Estimate the probability

## **A-priori Classical Probability**

- A-priori classical probability: the probability is determined according to a certain theory.
- Example: Random walk model predicts that the probability that IBM's stock price will increase tomorrow is 50%, because according to the random walk model, the probability of an increase in the price equals to the probability of decrease.
- Advantages:
  - May be used to develop theories
  - Helps calculations
- Disadvantages:
  - One needs a trustworthy theory

## **Empirical Classical Probability**

- Empirical classical probability:
  - Probability is based on observed data.

$$P(event) = \frac{Number of cases in which the event occured}{The total number of cases}$$

- Example: One monitors a very large number of trading days, e.g. 1000.
   and observes, 481 times that the price increased, then Prob.=481/1000=0.481.
- Advantages:
  - Does not require a theory
  - Based on real data
- Disadvantages:
  - Requires collection of data (time, money,...)
  - Based on the assumption that probability distributions do not change.
     (Is this assumption true?)

### **Exercise**

In a marketing survey, 1000 consumers were asked whether they intend to buy a new product or not, and in a follow-up survey, the same group of consumers were asked whether they have bought this product. The data is shown below:

	Actually Purchased		
Planned to Purchase	Yes	No	Total
Yes	200	100	300
No	250	450	700
Total	450	550	1000

- 1. What is the probability that a person plans to purchase this product?
- 2. What approach did we use here?

### **Solution**

	Actually Purchased		
Planned to Purchase	Yes	No	Total
Yes	200	100	300
No	250	450	700
Total	450	550	1000

1. The probability that a person plans to purchase this product within a year is:

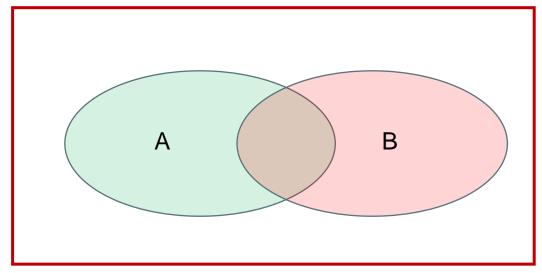
P(planned to purchase) = 
$$\frac{\text{number of people who planned to purchase}}{\text{number of people in the sample}}$$
$$= \frac{200 + 100}{1000} = 0.3$$

2. We used the empirical classical probability approach.

## **Probability Rules**

- $P(A)+P(\overline{A})=1$
- $P(A \cap B)+P(A \cap \overline{B})=P(A)$   $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$

Can you prove the above rules graphically?



probar que estas tres son iguales

## **Conditional Probability**

- Definition: The probability of certain events depends on the probability of other events.
- Example:
  - Fruit and veges depend on the sun. (http://www.nzherald.co.nz/lifestyle/news/article.cfm?c\_id=6&objectid=11723008)
- We denote the probability of A given B by P(A|B).
- If P(B) $\neq$ 0, then P(A | B) =  $\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$



### **Exercise**

In a marketing survey, 1000 consumers were asked whether they intend to buy a new product or not, and in a follow-up survey, the same group of people were asked whether they have bought this product. The data is shown below:

	Actually Purchased		
Planned to Purchase	Yes	No	Total
Yes	200	100	300
No	250	450	700
Total	450	550	1000

- What is the probability that a consumer purchased this product given that he or she planned to purchase?
- What is the probability that a consumer did not purchase this product given that he or she planned to purchase?

### **Solution**

	Actually Purchased		
Planned to Purchase	Yes	No	Total
Yes	200	100	300
No	250	450	700
Total	450	550	1000

$$P(Purchased \mid Planned) = \frac{P(Purchased and planned)}{P(Planned)} = \frac{200/1000}{300/1000} = \frac{200}{300} = 0.6667$$

$$P(Did not purchase \mid Planned) = \frac{P(Did not purchase and planned)}{P(Planned)} = \frac{100/1000}{300/1000} = \frac{100}{300} = 0.3333$$

## **Bayes Theorem**

- Bayes' Theorem:  $P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \mid B)P(B)}{P(A \mid B)P(B) + P(A \mid \overline{B})P(\overline{B})}$
- Purpose: If we know  $P(A|B), P(B), P(A|\overline{B})$  and  $P(\overline{B})$ , then we can calculate P(B|A).
- Example: A factory manager uses quality test to identify defective products. The probability that a product is defective is 0.03. When the product is defective, the probability that this quality test will give a positive result is 0.90. When the product is not defective, the probability of a positive test result is 0.02. Suppose that the quality test has given a positive result. What is the probability that the product is actually defective?
- Solution: D: the product is defective,  $\overline{D}$ : the product is not defective T: test is positive,  $\overline{T}$ : test is negative  $P(D)=0.03,\ P(\overline{D})=1-0.03=0.97,\ P(T|D)=0.90,\ P(T|\overline{D})=0.02$   $P(D|T)=\frac{P(T|D)P(D)}{P(T|D)P(D)+P(T|\overline{D})P(\overline{D})}=\frac{0.9*0.03}{0.9*0.03+0.02*0.97}=0.582$
- Exercise: Can you prove Bayes Theorem using conditional probability?

## **Bayes Theorem in Court**

http://www.theguardian.com/law/2011/oct/02/formula-justice-bayestheorem-miscarriage

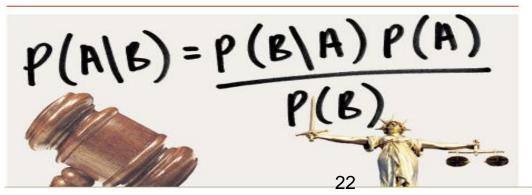


#### A formula for justice

Bayes' theorem is a mathematical equation used in court cases to analyse statistical evidence. But a judge has ruled it can no longer be used. Will it result in more miscarriages of justice?



#### Angela Saini The Guardian, Sunday 2 October 2011 21.30 BST Jump to comments (...)



## **Independent Events**

- Definition: Two events, A and B are called independent if P(A|B)=P(A).
   Namely, the outcome of B does not affect the probability of occurrence of A.
- Example: Two coin tosses are independent if the coins are fair.
- Note: The following necessary and sufficient conditions for independent events are equivalent:

$$P(B | A) = P(B)$$
  $P(A | B) = P(A)$   $P(A \cap B) = P(A) * P(B)$ 

Exercise: Can you prove the above note?



### **Exercise**

In a marketing survey, 1000 consumers were asked whether they intend to buy a new product or not, and in a follow-up survey, the same group of consumers were asked whether they have bought this product. The data is shown below:

	Actually Purchased		
Planned to Purchase	Yes	No	Total
Yes	200	100	300
No	250	450	700
Total	450	550	1000

- Given that a consumer planned to purchase, what is the probability that he/she finally purchased the product?
- Given that a consumer planned not to purchase, what is the probability that he/she finally purchased the product?
- Are consumers' willingness to purchase and their actual purchase decisions independent or not? Why?



### **Solution**

	Actually Purchased		
Planned to Purchase	Yes	No	Total
Yes	200	100	300
No	250	450	700
Total	450	550	1000

#### Solution.

$$P(Purchased \mid Planned) = \frac{P(Purchased and planned)}{P(Planned)} = \frac{200/1000}{300/1000} = \frac{200}{300} = 0.6667$$

$$P(Purchase \mid Planned \mid Not) = \frac{P(Purchase \mid and \mid Planned \mid Not)}{P(Planned \mid Not)} = \frac{250/1000}{700/1000} = \frac{250}{700} = 0.3571$$

$$P(Purchased | Planned) = 0.6667$$
  $P(Purchased) = 0.45$ 

So the two events are not independent.

## **The Birthday Problem**

To start, P(two people share birthday) = 1 - P(no people share birthday).

The probability of two people sharing birthday is difficult to get, but we can get the probability of no people sharing birthday:

- One person
   This person can have any birthday. P(no)=(365/365)=1
- Two persons
   P(no)=(365/365) \* (364/365)=99.73%
- Three persons
   P(no)=((365/365) \* (364/365) \* (363/365)=99.18%

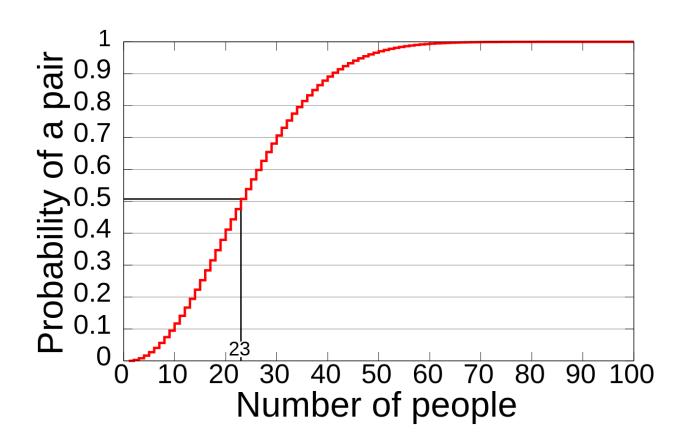
. . . . . .

n persons

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P(no)=((365/365) * ((365-1)/365) * ((365-2)/365)*...*((365-n+1)/365)
=365! / ((365-n)! * 365^n)=[365*364*...*(365-n+1)]/ 365^n
```

P(two people share birthday)=1- P(no people share birthday) =1-[365\*364\*...\*(365-n+1)]/ 365^n

# **The Birthday Problem**





## Seminar 2



# **Example**

 If you flip a coin 3 times, what is the probability that you will get Heads on at least one of the 3 flips?

## Exercise (Aczel, 2.11)

 According to an article in Fortune, institutional investors recently changed the proportions of their portfolios toward public sector funds. The article implies that 8% of investors studied invest in public sector funds and 6% in corporate funds. Assume that 2% invest in both kinds. If an investor is chosen at random, what is the probability that this investor has either public or corporate funds?

### **Exercise**

200 people were interviewed regarding their intention to buy your product and whether or not they are financially able to do so. The following results were obtained:

	Intention to buy		
Can afford doing so	Yes	No	Total
Yes	40	20	60
No	80	60	140
Total	120	80	200

#### What is the probability that:

- 1. a customer is financially able and has a desire to buy?
- 2. a customer has a desire to buy?
- 3. a customer has an intention to buy given that she has the financial ability to pay?
- 4. Are customers intentions about buying the product independent of their ability to afford it?



### **Exercise**

An economics consulting firm has created a model to predict recessions.
The model predicts a recession with probability 80% when a recession is
indeed coming and with probability 10% when no recession is coming.
The unconditional probability of falling into a recession is 20%. If the
model predicts a recession, what is the probability that a recession will
indeed come?



# **Thank You!**

Any Questions?