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Example: let's consider our experiment of flipping three coins.

Assuming these coins are fair, we have 8 equally-likely outcomes with probabilities  $\frac{1}{8}$ .

Thus, for  $E_1$  the event that exactly two heads come up, i.e.

$E_1 = \{HHT, HTH, THH\}$ ,  
we have that

$$\begin{aligned} p(E_1) &= p(HHT) + p(HTH) + p(THH) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{8}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for  $E_2$  the event that tails comes up first on the second flip, we have

$$E_2 = \{HTH, HTT\},$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{whereby } p(E_2) &= p(HTH) + p(HTT) \\ &= \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, as  $E_1 \cap E_2 = \{HTH\}$   
and  $E_1 \cup E_2 = \{HHT, HTH, THH, HTT\}$ ,

we have that  $p(E_1 \cap E_2) = \frac{1}{8}$

$$\text{and } p(E_1 \cup E_2) = \frac{4}{8} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

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Note: For  $E$  any **one** of the low events above,

$$\text{we have } p(E) = \frac{|E|}{|\Omega|}.$$

This is always the case when  $\Omega$  (our sample space of all possible outcomes) is made up of equally-likely outcomes.

Why? If  $p(w_i) = p$  for all  $w_i$ ,  
we have  $1 = p(\Omega) = p(w_1) + p(w_2) + \dots + p(w_n)$   
 $= \underbrace{p + p + \dots + p}_{|\Omega| \text{ times}},$

whereby  $p = \frac{1}{|\Omega|}$  and thus

$$p(E) = \underbrace{p + p + \dots + p}_{|E| \text{ times}} = |E| \cdot p,$$

$$\text{whereby } p(E) = \frac{|E|}{|\Omega|}.$$

Thus, determining  $p(E)$  is just a counting problem in the case where all outcomes are equally likely.

• For an example where outcomes are not equally likely, consider the experiment of rolling and



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summing two (fair) dice.

As the dice are fair, we have equally-likely dice-roll outcomes.

There are 36 such outcomes by the Product Principle:

They can be represented using ordered pairs:

$(1,1)$ ,  $(1,2)$ , ...,  $(1,6)$

$(2,1)$ ,  $(2,2)$ , ...,  $(2,6)$

$\vdots$

$(6,1)$ ,  $(6,2)$ , ...,  $(6,6)$ .

Thus the probability of one of these outcomes is  $\frac{1}{36}$ .

Now, our experiment consists of rolling & summing the dice.

Here  $\Omega = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$

Here, the outcome 2 has probability  $\frac{1}{36}$  as it corresponds to the dice-roll outcome  $(1,1)$ ,

whereas the outcome 3 has probability  $\frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{18}$  as it corresponds to the dice-roll outcomes  $(1,2)$  and  $(2,1)$ .

See Tutorial Sheet 4 for more details.

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Given that the probability of an event is the sum of the probabilities of the outcomes that make up that event,

$$\text{i.e. } p(E) = p(\omega_1) + \dots + p(\omega_k)$$

for  $E = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_k\}$ ,  
we can use our knowledge of sets to establish the following:

Addition Rule: For A and B events,  
we have that

$$p(A \cup B) = p(A) + p(B) - p(A \cap B)$$

In particular, if A and B are mutually exclusive (i.e.  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ),

$$\text{then } p(A \cup B) = p(A) + p(B).$$

Complement Rule: For A an event,  
we have that  $p(\bar{A}) = 1 - p(A)$ .

This follows from our Addition Rule,  
as

$$\Omega = A \cup \bar{A} \text{ with } A \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$$

$$\text{whereby } 1 = p(\Omega) = p(A) + p(\bar{A}).$$



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The Complement Rule is useful for calculating  $p(A)$  when  $\bar{A}$  is a simpler event than  $A$ .

Eg. Suppose we flip 3 fair coins &  $A$  is the event that at least one head comes up.

Here  $\bar{A} = \{TTT\}$ ,  
whereby  $p(\bar{A}) = \frac{1}{8}$  & thus

$$p(A) = 1 - p(\bar{A}) = 1 - \frac{1}{8} = \frac{7}{8}.$$

Eg. Suppose we roll & sum two fair dice. let  $A$  be the event that the sum is at least 4.

Thus  $p(A) = p(4) + p(5) + p(6) + \dots + p(12)$

However,  $\bar{A} = \{2, 3\}$  and

$$p(\bar{A}) = p(2) + p(3) = \frac{1}{36} + \frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{12}.$$

$$\text{Thus } p(A) = 1 - p(\bar{A}) = 1 - \frac{1}{12} = \frac{11}{12}.$$

### Conditional Probability

Here, we seek to measure the likelihood of an event  $A$  occurring given the knowledge that another event  $B$  occurs.

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For example, selecting a card at random from a standard deck of 52 cards, our event  $A$  might be that the card is a heart, while  $B$  might be that the card is red.

We know  $p(A) = \frac{13}{52} = \frac{1}{4}$ , as we have four equally-likely suits.

Given the knowledge that  $B$  happens, the probability of  $A$  occurring becomes  $\frac{1}{2}$ , as there are two equally-likely red suits.

We write  $p(A|B) = \frac{1}{2}$  to denote this.

Here,  $p(B|A) = 1$

as  $A$  implies  $B$  in this case.

Def<sup>n</sup>: For  $B$  an event with  $p(B) > 0$ , we define the conditional probability of  $A$  given  $B$  to be

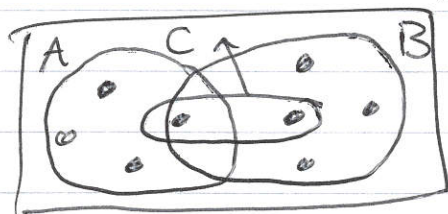
$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(A \cap B)}{p(B)}$$

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This definition makes sense as  $B$  plays the role of our sample space in this scenario: all possible outcomes must be in  $B$ , given that  $B$  occurs.

Thus,  $A \cap B$  represents the possible outcomes in  $A$ .

Suppose we have the following sample space of equally-likely outcomes:



What is  $p(A)$ ?  $p(A) = \frac{4}{8} = \frac{1}{2}$

$$p(C) = \frac{2}{8} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$p(C|B) = \frac{2}{5}, \text{ etc.}$$