Stat 201: Statistics I Week 2





Week 2 Introduction to Probability

Section 2.1 Basic Concepts of Probability

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An **event** is an outcome of interest from a trial.

A simple event is an event that cannot be broken down into simpler parts.

A **sample space** is the set of all possible simple events for a trial.

Example

Example

Consider flipping a coin...

• Trial:

Example

Consider flipping a coin...

• Trial: One flip of a coin

Example

- Trial: One flip of a coin
- Event:

Example

- Trial: One flip of a coin
- Event: Getting heads (H)

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Sample space:

Example

- Trial: One flip of a coin
- Event: Getting heads (H)
- Simple event: This event cannot be broken down, it is a simple event
- Sample space: Two possible events: { H, T }

Example

Consider flipping a coin three times...

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Example

Consider flipping a coin three times...

Trial:

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Example

Consider flipping a coin three times...

• Trial: Three flips of a coin

12/9/2018

Example

- Trial: Three flips of a coin
- Event:

Example

- Trial: Three flips of a coin
- Event: Getting two heads and a tail

Example

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- Trial: Three flips of a coin
- Event: Getting two heads and a tail
- Simple event: There are several ways this event can occur. It can be broken down into { HHT, HTH, THH }. Getting heads on the first two flips and tails on the third (HHT) is a simple event.

Example

- Trial: Three flips of a coin
- Event: Getting two heads and a tail
- **Simple event:** There are several ways this event can occur. It can be broken down into { HHT, HTH, THH }. Getting heads on the first two flips and tails on the third (HHT) is a simple event.
- Sample space:

Example

- Trial: Three flips of a coin
- Event: Getting two heads and a tail
- **Simple event:** There are several ways this event can occur. It can be broken down into { HHT, HTH, THH }. Getting heads on the first two flips and tails on the third (HHT) is a simple event.
- **Sample space:** Eight possible simple events: { HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT }

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 Probability is the proportion an event will occur over a large number of trials. The law of large numbers says this proportion will approach the "true" probability as the number of trials increases.

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Can interpret probability in two ways:

- Probability is the proportion an event will occur over a large number of trials. The law of large numbers says this proportion will approach the "true" probability as the number of trials increases.
- Some trials can't be repeated (i.e. the weather tomorrow). Then, probability is the level of confidence that an event will occur in a trial (30% chance of rain tomorrow).

Events are designated with capital letters:

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- \bullet A = Get two heads and a tail in three coin flips
- \bullet B = Rain tomorrow
- \bullet C = A randomly selected person is taller than 78 inches

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Probabilities are designated with P().

• P(A) is the probability of event A.

M. Shyne (Metro State)

Determining probabilities

Classical Approach: If all simple events are equally likely, then

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{number of simple events satisfying } A}{\text{total number of simple events in sample space}}$$

Determining probabilities

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Relative Frequency Approximation: Given a sample of trials,

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{number of times } A \text{ occured}}{\text{number of trials}}$$

Example

Consider flipping a coin three times. Assuming a fair coin, all simple events are equally likely. Recall the sample space,

{ HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT }

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• $B = \text{Get } at \text{ least two heads, } \{ \text{ HHH, HHT, HTH, THH } \}$

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$$P(B) = \frac{4}{8} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Relative frequency, example

Example

The Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) for 2015 reports that 9421 out of 15624 teenagers surveyed had driven a car at least once in the previous month. Of the 9421 teen drivers, 3806 had texted or emailed while driving.

What is the probability that a randomly selected teen driver had texted or emailed while driving?

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What is the probability that a randomly selected teen driver had texted or emailed while driving?

 \bullet A =Teen driver has texted or emailed while driving

$$P(A) = \frac{3806}{9421} = 0.404$$

The **complement** of event A, denoted as \bar{A} , consists of all outcomes in the sample space which are not included in A.

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 - $ar{A} = \operatorname{Get}$ a tail on one coin flip
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 - $ar{B} = \mathsf{Get}$ zero, one or three heads on three coin flips

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• Two heads in three coin flips: $B = \{$ HHT, HTH, THH $\}$, $\bar{B} = \{$ TTT, HTT, THT, TTH, HHH $\}$

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• Two heads in three coin flips: $B = \{ \text{ HHT, HTH, THH } \}$, $\bar{B} = \{ \text{ TTT, HTT, THT, TTH, HHH } \}$

$$P(B) + P(\bar{B}) = \frac{3}{8} + \frac{5}{8} = 1$$

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- Probability of A:

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• Probability of \bar{A} :

$$P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A) = 1 - 0.404 = 0.596$$

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ullet Let A be the event of exactly 523 heads.

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Example

Consider flipping a fair coin 1000 times. Expect heads half of the time, for a total of 500.

- ullet Let A be the event of exactly 523 heads.
 - A is unlikely (P(A) = 0.00876), but not unusual.

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- ullet Let A be the event of exactly 523 heads.
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- ullet Let A be the event of exactly 523 heads.
 - A is unlikely (P(A) = 0.00876), but not unusual.
- ullet Let B be the event of exactly 46 heads.
 - B is very unlikely $(P(B) = 5.929 \times 10^{-222})$ and unusual.

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When examining outcomes from two random process, results are often displayed in tables, known as **contingency tables**.

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	Process B				
Process A	-	B_2			
$\overline{A_1}$	$n_{1,1}$	$n_{1,2} \\ n_{2,2}$	$n_{1,3}$		$n_{1,\cdot}$
A_2	$n_{2,1}$	$n_{2,2}$	$n_{2,3}$		$n_{2,\cdot}$
:	:	:	:		:
	$n_{\cdot,1}$	$n_{\cdot,2}$	$n_{\cdot,3}$		\overline{N}

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Process A	B_1	B_2	B_3		
A_1	$n_{1,1}$	$n_{1,2}$	$n_{1,3}$		$n_{1,\cdot}$
A_2	$n_{2,1}$	$n_{1,2} \\ n_{2,2}$	$n_{2,3}$		$n_{2,\cdot}$
:	:	÷	÷	٠	:
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• Marginal probabilities are probabilities for outcomes of one process, represented as the total of a row or column: e.g. $P(B_2) = n_{\cdot,2}/N$.

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Process A	B_1	B_2	B_3		
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A_2	$n_{2,1}$	$n_{2,2}$	$n_{2,3}$		$n_{2,\cdot}$
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- Marginal probabilities are probabilities for outcomes of one process, represented as the total of a row or column: e.g. $P(B_2) = n_{\cdot,2}/N$.
- **Joint probabilities** are Probabilities for outcomes of both processes, represented as individual cells: e.g. $P(A_1, B_3) = n_{1,3}/N$.

Practice: Cancer screening

Suppose a company is testing a new, cheaper screening test for cancer. They gather a random sample of 1000 people, giving every subject the new test and a doctor visit for definitive diagnosis. These are the results.

	Test Result				
Diagnosis	Positive	Negative			
Cancer	74	13	87		
No cancer	26	887	913		
	100	900	1000		

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- The number 26 represents **false positives**, positive test results for those with no cancer.
- The number 13 represents **false negatives**, negative test results for those with cancer.

Practice: Cancer screening, cont.

Test Result				
Diagnosis	Positive	Negative		
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• What is the probability of a randomly selected person having cancer?

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 The marginal probability of diagnosis = cancer:

Test Result			
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Cancer	74	13	87
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What is the probability of a randomly selected person having cancer?
 The marginal probability of diagnosis = cancer:

$$P(\mathsf{cancer}) = \frac{74 + 13}{74 + 13 + 26 + 887} = \frac{87}{1000} = 0.087$$

	Test Result		
Diagnosis	Positive	Negative	
Cancer	74	13	87
No cancer	26	887	913
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• What is the probability of a false negative (person has cancer, but test result is negative)?

	Test Result		
Diagnosis	Positive	Negative	
Cancer	74	13	87
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• What is the probability of a false negative (person has cancer, but test result is negative)?

The joint probability of diagnosis = cancer and test result = negative:

Test Result			
Diagnosis	Positive	Negative	
Cancer	74	13	87
No cancer	26	887	913
	100	900	1000

What is the probability of a false negative (person has cancer, but test result is negative)?

The joint probability of diagnosis = cancer and test result = negative:

$$P(\text{false negative}) = \frac{13}{1000} = 0.013$$

Group work

- For questions 1 through 3, complete part (a).
- Probabilities can be expressed as fractions.

Section 2.2 Addition Rule

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- A = Get exactly two heads in three flips
 - $A = \mathsf{HHT}$ or HTH or THH
- \bullet A =Student gets an A on midterm
 - $B = \mathsf{Student}\ \mathsf{gets}\ \mathsf{a}\ \mathsf{B}\ \mathsf{on}\ \mathsf{midterm}$
 - C = A or B = Student gets an A or a B on midterm

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 - B =Student gets a B on midterm
 - C = A or B = Student gets an A or a B on midterm
- \bullet A =Student gets an A on midterm
 - $B = \mathsf{Student}$ is female
 - C = A or B = Student gets an A on midterm or is female

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Example

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 $B=\operatorname{Get}$ exactly zero, one or three heads in three flips

Disjoint events are two (or more) events that cannot occur simultaneously. Also called **mutually exclusive** events.

• Complements are always disjoint.

- \bullet A = Get exactly two heads in three flips
 - B = Get exactly zero, one or three heads in three flips
 - ullet A and B are complements, thus they are disjoint.

Example

• A =Student gets an A on midterm B =Student gets a B on midterm

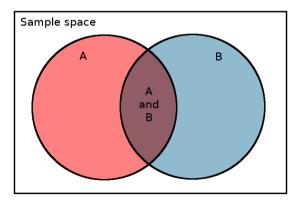
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- \bullet A =Student gets an A on midterm
 - $B = \mathsf{Student}$ is female
 - A and B are not disjoint, possible to get an A and be female

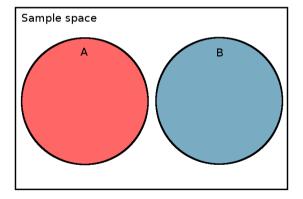
Venn diagrams

Venn diagrams are a good way to visualize events in a sample space.



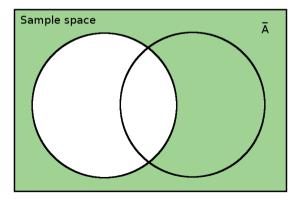
Venn diagrams, disjoint events

Disjoint events are represented non-overlapping circles.



Venn diagrams, complements

Complements are the whole sample space except the event area.



Addition rule

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The formal rule is

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

Note: P(A and B) is the joint probability of A and B.

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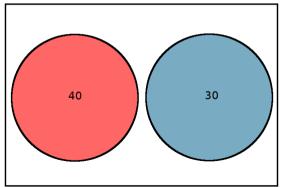
• For disjoint events, P(A and B) = 0, so the rule becomes,

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

Addition rule, example

Suppose a statistics class has 100 students. On the midterm, 40 students got an A (event A) and 30 students got a B (event B).





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What is the probability that a randomly selected student got an A or a B?

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ullet By the general rule, 40 outcomes for event A and 30 outcomes for event B, and none are counted twice. So,

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = \frac{40 + 30}{100} = 0.7$$

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• By the formal rule, P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A and B),

$$P(A) = 0.4$$
 $P(B) = 0.3$ $P(A \text{ and } B) = 0$

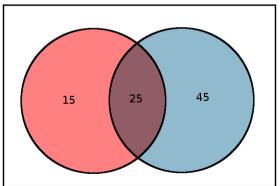
$$P(A \text{ or } B) = 0.4 + 0.3 - 0 = 0.7$$

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Addition rule, example 2

Suppose a statistics class has 100 students. On the midterm, 40 students got an A (event A), 70 students are female (event B) and 25 of the female students got an A.

Total: 100



Suppose a statistics class has 100 students. On the midterm, 40 students got an A (event A), 70 students are female (event B) and 25 of the female students got an A.

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• By the general rule, if outcomes were counted as in the previous example,

$$P(A \text{ or } B) \neq \frac{40+70}{100} = 1.1$$

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Suppose a statistics class has 100 students. On the midterm, 40 students got an A (event A), 70 students are female (event B) and 25 of the female students got an A.

What is the probability that a randomly selected student got an A or is female?

• By the general rule, if outcomes were counted as in the previous example,

$$P(A \text{ or } B) \neq \frac{40+70}{100} = 1.1$$

 The females who got A's were counted twice. Instead, count distinct outcomes in the circles of the Venn diagram.

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = \frac{15 + 25 + 45}{100} = 0.85$$

Suppose a statistics class has 100 students. On the midterm, 40 students got an A (event A), 70 students are female (event B) and 25 of the female students got an A.

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ullet By the formal rule, P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A and B),

$$P(A) = 0.4$$
 $P(B) = 0.7$ $P(A \text{ and } B) = 0.25$

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = 0.4 + 0.7 - 0.25 = 0.85$$

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Female	25		70
Male			
Total	40		100

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Complements, revisited

 Recall, an event and its complement comprise the whole sample space. Whatever the result of a trial, it satisfies either the event or its complement.

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Also, complements are disjoint, so the addition rule is

$$P(A \text{ or } \bar{A}) = P(A) + P(\bar{A})$$

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Then,

$$P(A) + P(\bar{A}) = 1$$

$$P(A) = 1 - P(\bar{A})$$

$$P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

Practice: Cancer screening

Test Result					
Diagnosis	Positive	Negative	Total		
Cancer	74	13	87		
No cancer	26	887	913		
Total	100	900	1000		

What is the probability of a randomly selected person having cancer (A) or not having cancer (B)?

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Diagnosis	Positive	Negative	Total		
Cancer	74	13	87		
No cancer	26	887	913		
Total	100	900	1000		

What is the probability of a randomly selected person having cancer (A) or not having cancer (B)?

• Having cancer and not having cancer are complements,

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = 1$$

Test Result				
Diagnosis	Positive	Negative	Total	
Cancer	74 (0.074)	13 (0.013)	87 (0.087)	
No cancer	26 (0.026)	887 (0.887)	913 (0.913)	
Total	100 (0.1)	900 (0.9)	1000 (1)	

What is the probability of a randomly selected person having cancer (A) or getting a positive test result (B)?

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$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

$$= 0.087 + 0.1 - 0.074 = 0.113$$

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= $0.026 + 0.013 = 0.039$

Group work

- For questions 1 through 3, complete part (b).
- Probabilities can be expressed as fractions.

Section 2.3 Multiplication Rule

Independent events

Two events are said to be **independent** if the probability of one is unaffected by the occurrence of the other.

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Example

• Let A= get a head on the first flip and B= get a tail on the second flip. $P(B)=\frac{1}{2}$ regardless of what happens on the first flip.

Dependent events

If two events are not independent, then they are **dependent**. That is, the probability of one changes depending on the outcome of the other.

Example

Consider an urn with 2 red balls and 3 blue balls. A trial consists of randomly selecting a ball from the urn and not replacing it.

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Let $A=\gcd$ a red ball the first trial and $B=\gcd$ a blue ball the second trial.

• If A occurs, then P(B) = 3/4

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- If A occurs, then P(B) = 3/4
- If A does not occur, then P(B) = 2/4

Example

The probability of a randomly selected student getting an A on the final is probably different depending on whether they got an A on the midterm.

Dependent events as independent

When dealing with large populations and small sample sizes, events that are technically dependent can be treated as independent. The rule of thumb we will use is sample sizes less than 5% of population can be treated as independent.

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Example

Suppose the urn has 2000 red balls and 3000 blue balls. The probability of selecting a blue ball is very close to 3/5, regardless of whether a red ball was previously selected or not.

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Let $A=\mbox{get}$ a red ball the first trial and $B=\mbox{get}$ a blue ball the second trial.

- P(B|A) = 3/4
- $P(B|\bar{A}) = 2/4$

Multiplication rule

To find the probability of all events in a series of trials, multiply the probability of the first by the probability of the second given the first occurred, etc.

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What is the probability of selecting a red ball and then selecting a blue ball?

• Let A = get a red ball the first trial and B = get a blue ball the second trial.

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•
$$P(A) = 2/5$$
 $P(B|A) = 3/4$

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{6}{20} = \frac{3}{10} = 0.3$$

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Consider flipping a coin three times.

What is the probability of get heads on the first two flips and a tail on the third (HHT)?

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- Let A= get a head the first flip, B= get a head on the second flip, and C= get a tail on the third flip.
- ullet A, B and C are independent events.

$$P(A \text{ and } B \text{ and } C) = P(A) \times P(B) \times P(C)$$

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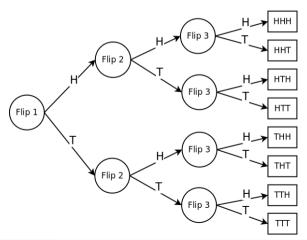
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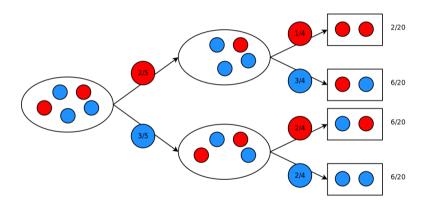
$$P(A \text{ and } B \text{ and } C) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{8}$$

Tree diagrams

Tree diagrams are a good way to visualize events in a series of trials.



Tree diagram, urn example



	Test Result			
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- Sample size of 2 is less than 5% of population of 1000, so can treat events as independent.
- $P(\text{one is positive}) = \frac{100}{1000} = 0.1$
- $P(\text{both positive}) = 0.1 \times 0.1 = 0.01$

Practice: Statistics club

The Metro State Statistics Club has 10 members, 6 men and 4 women. They need to select a president, a vice-president and a treasurer. They decide to choose members randomly for the officers positions, in order.

What is the probability that women are selected for president and vice-president, and a man for treasurer?

 \bullet A = Woman selected president

B = Woman selected vice-president

 $C = \mathsf{Man}$ selected treasurer

- \bullet A = Woman selected president
 - $B = \mathsf{Woman}$ selected vice-president
 - $C = \mathsf{Man}$ selected treasurer
- $\bullet \ P(A \text{ and } B \text{ and } C) = P(A) \times P(B|A) \times P(C|A \text{ and } B)$

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- $P(A \text{ and } B \text{ and } C) = 0.4 \times 0.33 \times 0.75 = 0.099$

Recap of probability rules

• To calculate the probability of at least one of two events occurring (A or B), use the addition rule. Be aware of whether the events are disjoint or not.

Recap of probability rules

- To calculate the probability of at least one of two events occurring (A or B), use the addition rule. Be aware of whether the events are disjoint or not.
- To calculate the probability of all of a sequence of two, or more, events occurring (A and B), use the multiplication rule. Be aware of whether the events are independent or dependent.

Testing for independence

It is sometimes difficult to tell if events are independent. The rule for independent events, that P(B|A) = P(B), can be used to test for independence.

Example

Consider rolling two fair six-sided dice. Let $A={\rm total}$ of the dice is 5 and $B={\rm at}$ least one of the dice is a 3.

Are A and B independent events?

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Consider rolling two fair six-sided dice. Let A= total of the dice is 5 and B= at least one of the dice is a 3.

Are A and B independent events?

• P(B)=P(first die is 3 or second die is 3) P(B)=P(first die is 3)+P(second die is 3)-P(both are 3) $P(B)=\frac{1}{6}+\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{36}=\frac{11}{36}$

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- If A occurred, then the possible dice values are

$$\{(1,4),(2,3),(3,2),(4,1)\}$$

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• $P(B|A) = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$

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- If A occurred, then the possible dice values are

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- $P(B|A) = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$
- $P(B) \neq P(B \mid A) \dots A$ and B are not independent.

Group work

- For questions 1 through 3, complete part (c).
- Probabilities can be expressed as fractions.