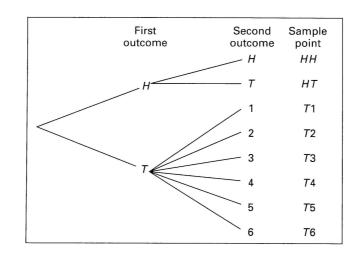
# 1 Probability

## 1.1 Sample Space

- **Definition**: (Probability theory) The mathematical study of <u>randomness</u> or mechanism of <u>chance</u>.
- In the study of statistics, we are concerned with the presentation and interpretation of **chance outcomes**.
- The outcome will depend on chance and, thus, <u>cannot be predicted with</u> certainty.
- Any recording of information, whether it be <u>numerical</u> or <u>categorical</u>, is *referred to* **observation**.
  - the number of accidents in one month: 2, 0, 1, 2.
  - the category that an inspected item belongs to: D, N, D, N, N.
- Experiment: any process that generates (or observe) a set of data.
  - E.g., tossing of a coin, two possible outcomes, <u>heads</u> and <u>tails</u>
  - In a statistical experiment, the data are subject to uncertainty.
- **Definition 2.1**: The set of possible outcomes of a statistical experiment is called the **sample space**, represented by *S*.
- Each outcome in a sample space is called
  - an element,
  - a  ${\bf member}$  of the sample space, or
  - a sample point.
- If the sample space has a <u>finite</u> number of elements, we may list the members.
- If the sample space has a <u>large</u> or <u>infinite</u> number of elements, we describe it by a **statement** or **rule**.
- Example 2.1.
  - Tossing a coin: S = H, T
  - Tossing a die:

\* 
$$S_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  
\*  $S_2 = \{even, odd\}$ 

- A **tree diagram** can be used to list the elements of the sample space systematically.
- Example 2.2. Flip a coin first. If a head occurs, flip it again; otherwise, toss a die.



 $-S = \{HH, HT, T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6\}$ 

Figure 1: Tree diagram for Example 2.2.

• Example 2.3. Three items are selected at random from a process.

 $-S = \{DDD, DDN, DND, DNN, NDD, NDN, NND, NNN\}$ 

- The rule method. The rule method has practical advantages, particularly for the many experiments where a listing becomes a tedious chore.
  - $-S = \{x \mid x \text{ is a city with population over 1 million}\}.$
  - $-S = \{(x,y) | x^2 + y^2 \le 4\}$ , the set of all points (x,y) on the boundary or the interior of a circle of radius 2 with center at the origin.

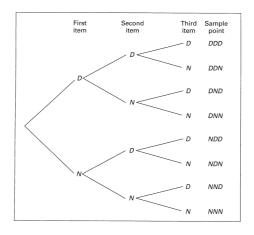


Figure 2: Tree diagram for Example 2.3.

## 1.2 Events

- Definition 2.2: An event is a subset of a sample space..
  - Null set, denoted  $\emptyset$ , contains no elements at all.
  - **Example 2.4**: Given the sample space  $S = \{t | t \ge 0\}$ , where t is the life in years of a certain electronic component.
  - The event A that the component fails before the end of the fifth year is the subset  $A = \{t | 0 \le t < 5\}$ .
- **Definition 2.3**: The **complement** of an event A with respect to S is the subset of all elements of S that are not in A. We denote the complement of A by the symbolA'.
  - **Example 2.5**: Let R be the event that a red card is selected from an ordinary deck of 52 playing cards.
  - -S be the entire deck.
  - R' is the event that the card selected from the deck is <u>not a red but</u> <u>a black card</u>.
- **Definition 2.4**: The **intersection** of two events A and B, denoted by the symbol  $A \cap B$ , is the event containing all elements that are <u>common</u> to A and B.
- Example 2.7: Let P be the event that a person selected at random while dining at a popular cafeteria is a taxpayer.

- -Q is the event that the person is over 65 years of age.
- The event  $P \cap Q$  is the set of all taxpayers in the cafeteria who are over 65 years of age.
- Definition 2.5: Two events A and B are mutually exclusive, or disjoint if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , i.e., if A and B have no elements in common. Two events can not occur simultaneously.
- Example 2.9:
  - Let A be the event that the program belongs to the NBC network.
  - Let *B* be the event that the program belongs to the CBS network.
  - -A and B are mutually exclusive.
- Definition 2.6: The union of the two events A and B, denoted by the symbol  $A \cup B$ , is the event containing all the elements that belong to A or B or both.
- Example 2.12:
  - If  $M = \{x | 3 < x < 9\}$  and  $N = \{y | 5 < y < 12\}$ , then
  - $M \cup N = \{x | 3 < x < 12\}$
- The relationship between <u>events</u> and the corresponding <u>sample space</u> can be illustrated graphically by **Venn diagram**.
- In a Venn diagram, let the sample space be a rectangle and represent events by circles. In Fig. 3

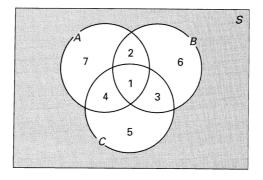


Figure 3: Events represented by various regions.

- $A \cap B$  : regions 1 and 2
- $A \cup C$ : regions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7
- $B' \cap A$ : regions 4 and 7

## **1.3** Counting Sample Points

- *Combinatorics* counting rules in set theory. This provides the idea of the principles of enumeration, counting sample points in the sample space.
- When an experiment is performed, the statistician want to evaluate the <u>chance associated with</u> the occurrence of certain events.
- In many cases we can evaluate the probability by counting the <u>number of</u> points in the sample space.
- Theorem 2.1 (multiplication rule):

If an operation can be performed in  $n_1$  ways, and if for each of these a second operation can be performed in  $n_2$  ways, then the two operations can be performed together in  $n_1n_2$  ways.

- The multiplication rule is the fundamental principle of counting sample points.
- Example 2.14: Home buyers are offered
  - four exterior styling
  - three floor plans
- Since  $n_1 = 4, n_2 = 3$  and , a buyer must choose from

 $n_1 n_2 = 12$ 

possible homes

• Theorem 2.2 (generalized multiplication rule):

If an operation can be performed in  $n_1$  ways, and if for each of these a second operation can be performed in  $n_2$  ways, and for each of the first two a third operation can be performed in  $n_3$  ways, and so forth, then the sequence of k operations can be performed in  $n_1n_2...n_k$  ways.

• The multiplication rule can be extended to cover any number of operations.

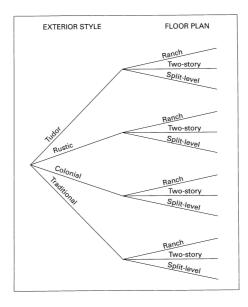


Figure 4: Tree diagram for Example 2.14.

- Example 2.16: How many even four-digit numbers can be formed from the digits 0, 1, 2, 5, 6, and 9 if each digit can be used only once?
- We consider the unit position by two parts, 0 or not 0.
  - If the units position is 0  $(n_1 = 1)$ :
    - \*  $n_2 = 5$  choices for the thousands positions,
    - \*  $n_3 = 4$  choices for the hundreds positions,
    - \*  $n_4 = 3$  choices for the tens positions.
    - \* a total of  $n_1 n_2 n_3 n_4 = 60$  choices.
  - If the units position is not 0  $(n_1 = 2)$ :
    - \*  $n_2 = 4$  choices for the thousands positions,
    - \*  $n_3 = 4$  choices for the hundreds positions,
    - \*  $n_4 = 3$  choices for the tens positions.
    - \* a total of  $n_1n_2n_3n_4 = 96$  choices.
  - The total number of even four-digit numbers is 60 + 96 = 156

#### • Permutation: Definition 2.7

A permutation is an arrangement of all or part of a set of objects.

• An ordered arrangement of distinct objects. Consider the number of ways of filling r boxes with n objects.

• <u>Theorem 2.3</u>:

The number of permutation of n objects is n!.

• <u>Theorem 2.4</u>:

The number of permutation (ways to arrange) of n distinct objects taken r at a time is

$$_{n}P_{r} = n(n-1)\dots(n-r+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

- Example 2.17: In one year, three awards (research, teaching, and service) will be given for a class of 25 graduate students in a statistics department.
  - If each student can receive at most one award, how many possible selections are there?
  - Since the awards are distinguishable, it is a permutation problem.
  - The number of sample points is  ${}_{25}P_3 = \frac{25!}{22!}$
- Example 2.18: A president and a treasurer are to be chosen from a student club consisting of 50 people. How many different choices of officers are possible if
  - there are no restrictions;  ${}_{50}P_2 = \frac{50!}{48!} = 2450$
  - -A will serve only if he is president;
    - 1. A is selected as the president, which yields 49 possible outcomes; or
    - 2. Officers are selected from the remaining 49 people which has the number of choices  ${}_{49}P_2$

Therefore, the total number of choices is  $49 +_{49} P_2 = 2401$ .

- -B and C will serve together or not at all;
  - 1. The number of selections when B and C serve together is 2.
  - 2. The number of selections when both B and C are not chosen is  ${}_{48}P_2$

Therefore, the total number of choices in this situation is 2 + 2256 = 2258.

- D and E will not serve together;  $2 * 48 + 2 * 48 +_{48} P_2$ 

- 1. The number of selections when D serves as officer but not E,
- 2. The number of selections when E serves as officer but not D

3. The number of selections when both D and E are not chosen Therefore, the total number of choices is 2448. This problem also has another short solution:  ${}_{50}P_2 - 2$  (since D and E can only serve together in 2 ways).

- Permutations are used when we are sampling **without replacement** and **order matters**.
- Theorem 2.5: The number of permutation of n objects arranged in a circle is (n-1)!
- Permutations that occur by arranging objects in a circular are called **circular permutations**.
- Two circular permutations are not considered different unless corresponding objects in the two arrangements are preceded or followed by a different objects as we proceed in a clockwise direction.
- <u>Theorem 2.6:</u>

The number of distinct permutations of n things of which  $n_1$  are of one kind,  $n_2$  of a second kind, ...,  $n_k$  of a  $k^{th}$  kind is

$$\frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!\dots n_k!}$$

- Example 2.19: In a college football training session, the defensive coordinator needs to have 10 players standing in a row.
  - Among these 10 players, there are 1 freshman, 2 sophomores, 4 juniors, and 3 seniors, respectively.
  - How many different ways can they be arranged in a row if only their class level will be distinguished?

$$\frac{10!}{1!2!3!4!} = 12600$$

#### • <u>Theorem 2.7:</u>

The number of ways of partitioning a set of n objects into r cells with  $n_1$  elements in the first cell,  $n_2$  elements in the second, and so forth, is

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}n\\n_1,n_2,\ldots,n_r\end{array}\right) = \frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!\ldots n_r}$$

- The order of the elements within each cell is of no importance.
- The intersection of any two cells is the empty set and the union of all cells gives the original set.
- Example 2.22: How many different letter arrangements can be made from the letters in the word of STATISTICS?
- We have total 10 letters, while letters S and T appear 3 times each, letter I appears twice, and letters A and C appear once each.

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}10\\3,3,2,1,1\end{array}\right) = \frac{10!}{3!3!2!1!1!} = 50400$$

#### • <u>Theorem 2.8:</u>

The number of combinations (ways of choosing, regardless of order) of n distinct objects taken r at a time is

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}n\\r\end{array}\right) = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

- We might want to select r objects from n without regard to order.
- These selections are called **combinations**. Combinations are used when we are sampling **without replacement** and **order does NOT matter**.
- A combination is a partition with two cells,
  - the one containing r objects selected
  - the one containing the (n-r) objects that are left
- The number of such combinations,

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}n\\r,n-r\end{array}\right)\Longrightarrow\left(\begin{array}{c}n\\r\end{array}\right)$$

- The number of permutations of n distinct objects is n!.
- The number of permutations of n distinct objects taken r at a time is

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

• The number of permutations of n distinct objects arranged in a circle is

$$\frac{n!}{n} = (n-1)!$$

• The number of permutations of n things of which  $n_1$  are of one kind,  $n_2$  of a second kind, ..., and  $n_k$  of a  $k^{th}$  kind is

$$\frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!\dots n_k!}$$

• The number of arrangements of partitioning a set of n objects into r cells with  $n_1$  elements in the first cell,  $n_2$  elements in the second, and so forth, is

$$\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!}, (where \ n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_r = n)$$

• The number of combinations of n distinct objects taken r at a time is

$$C(n,r) = \begin{pmatrix} n \\ r \end{pmatrix} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

# 1.4 Probability of Event

- Perhaps it was man's unquenchable thirst for gambling that led to the early development of probability theory.
- What do we mean when we make the statements
  - John will probably win the tennis match.
  - I have a fifty-fifty chance of getting an even number when a die is tossed.
  - I am not likely to win at bingo tonight.
  - Most of our graduating class will likely be married within 3 years.
- In each case, we are expressing an outcome of which we are <u>not certain</u>, but owing to <u>past information</u> or from an understanding of the <u>structure</u> of the experiment, we have some <u>degree of confidence</u> in the <u>validity of</u> <u>the statement</u>.
- The likelihood of the occurrence of an event resulting from a statistical experiment is evaluated by means of a set of real numbers called **weights** or **probabilities** range from <u>0 to 1</u>.
- The probability is <u>a numerical measure</u> of the likelihood of occurrence of an event, denoted by *P*.

- To every point in the sample space we assign a probability such that the sum of all probabilities is 1.
- In many experiments, such as tossing a coin or a die, all the sample points have the <u>same</u> chance of occurring and are assigned <u>equal</u> probabilities.
- For points outside the sample space, i.e., for simple events that cannot possibly occur, we assign a probability of zero.
- Definition 2.8:

The probability of an event A is the sum of the weights of all sample points in A.

$$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1, \ P(\varnothing) = 0, \ and \ P(S) = 1$$

If  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \ldots$  is a sequence of mutually exclusive events, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \ldots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) + \ldots$$

- In fact, P is a *probability set function* of the outcomes of the random experiment, which tells us how the probability is <u>distributed</u> over various subsets A of a sample space S.
- Example 2.23: A coin is tossed twice.
  - What is the probability that at least one head occur?
  - We assign a probability w to each sample point. Then 4w = 1.

 $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}, A = \{HH, HT, TH\}, and$ 

$$P(A) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$$

- Example 2.4: A die is loaded in such a way that an even number is twice as likely to occur as an odd number.
- If E is the event that a number less than 4 occurs on a single toss of the die, find P(E).
  - $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
  - We assign a probability of w to each odd number and a probability 2w to each even number.

- Since P(S) = 1,  $w + 2w + w + 2w + w + 2w = 9w = 1 \Longrightarrow w = 1/9$ -  $P(A) = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{4}{9}$
- <u>Theorem 2.9</u>:

If an experiment can result in any one of N different equally likely outcomes, and if exactly n of these outcomes correspond to event A, then the probability of event A is

$$P(A) = \frac{n}{N}$$

• Example 2.27: In a poker hand consisting of 5 cards, find the probability of holding 2 aces and 3 jacks.

$$P(C) = \frac{C(4,2) * C(4,3)}{C(52,5)} = \frac{\frac{4!}{2!2!} * \frac{4!}{3!1!}}{\frac{52!}{5!47!}} = \frac{24}{2598960} = 0.9x10^{-5}$$

- If the outcomes of an experiment are not equally likely to occur, the probabilities must be assigned based on prior knowledge or experimental evidence.
- According to the <u>relative frequency definition</u> of probability, the true probabilities would be the fractions of events that occur in the long run.
- The use of intuition, personal beliefs, and other indirect information in arriving at probabilities is referred to as the <u>subjective definition</u> of probability.