



Introduction to Probability

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On the Agenda

- 1 Experiments
- 2 Counting Rules
- 3 Assigning Probabilities
- 4 Some Basic Relationships of Probability
- 5 Conditional Probability

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- ▶ Managers often base their decisions on an analysis of uncertainties:
 - What are the chances that sales will decrease if we increase prices?
 - What is the likelihood a new assembly method will increase productivity?
 - What are the odds that a new investment will be profitable?

Probability

- ▶ Probability: is a numerical measure of the likelihood that an event will occur.
- ▶ Probability values are always assigned on a scale from 0 to 1
 - A probability near zero indicates an event is quite unlikely to occur
 - A probability near one indicates an event is almost certain to occur

Statistical Experiments

- ▶ Statistical Experiments: a.k.a. random experiments, are process that generate well-defined outcomes
- ▶ Sample Space: Is the set of all experimental outcomes
- ▶ Sample Point: Is an experimental outcome

Examples: Statistical Experiments and Sample Space

Experiment

Toss a coin

Inspection a part

Conduct a sales call

Roll a die

Play a football game

Experiment Outcomes

Head, tail

Defective, non-defective

Purchase, no purchase

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

Win, lose, tie

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Multiple-Step Experiments

- ▶ If an experiment consists of a sequence of k steps in which:
 - there are n_1 possible results for the first step
 - there are n_2 possible results for the second step
 - and so on

- ▶ The total number of experimental outcomes is given by:

$$n_1 \times n_2 \cdots n_k$$

- ▶ Example: The order of students sitting on the first row of the classroom

Counting Rule for Combinations

- ▶ A combination is a selection of items from a collection, such that the order of selection does not matter.
- ▶ For example: given three letters A, B, C, how many combinations of two can be drawn from this set?
 - A, B
 - A, C
 - B, C
- ▶ More formally, a k -combination of a set S is a subset of k distinct elements of S
- ▶ the number of k -combinations is equal to the binomial coefficient

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k(k-1)\cdots 1} = {}_n C_k$$

Size of Sample Space

- ▶ The total number of experimental outcomes of a multiple-step experiment and the combinations can be written using factorials
- ▶ In mathematics, the factorial of a positive integer n , denoted by $n!$, is the product of all positive integers less than or equal to n :

$$n! = n \times (n - 1) \times (n - 2) \times (n - 3) \times \cdots \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$$

- ▶ For example,

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 120$$

- ▶ The value of $0!$ is 1, by convention

Size of Sample Space

- ▶ The total number of experimental outcomes of a multiple-step experiment and the combinations can be written using factorials
- ▶ Multiple-Step Experiment:

$$P(n, k) = \underbrace{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots (n-k+1)}_{k \text{ factors}} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

- ▶ Combinations:

$$\binom{n}{k} = {}_n C_k = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

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Assigning Probabilities

► Basic Requirements for Assigning Probabilities:

1. The probability assigned to each experimental outcome must be between 0 and 1, inclusively

$$0 \leq P(E_i) \leq 1 \quad \forall i$$

where: E_i is the i^{th} experimental outcome and $P(E_i)$ is its probability

Assigning Probabilities

► Basic Requirements for Assigning Probabilities:

2. The sum of the probabilities for all experimental outcomes must equal 1

$$P(E_1) + P(E_1) + \cdots + P(E_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i) = 1$$

where: n is the number of experimental outcomes, E_i is the i^{th} experimental outcome, and $P(E_i)$ is its probability

Assigning Probabilities

- ▶ Classical Method:

- Assigning probabilities based on the assumption of equally likely outcomes

- ▶ Relative Frequency Method:

- Assigning probabilities based on experimentation or historical data

- ▶ Subjective Method:

- Assigning probabilities based on judgment

Example: Classical Method

► Rolling a Die:

- If an experiment has n possible outcomes, the classical method would assign a probability of $1/n$ to each outcome
- Experiment: Rolling a die
- Sample Space: $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- Probabilities: Each sample point has a $1/6$ chance of occurring

Example: Relative Frequency Method

- ▶ Waiting time in the X-ray department for a local hospital
 - Consider a study of waiting times in the X-ray department for a local hospital
 - A clerk recorded the number of patients waiting for service at 9:00 A.M on 20 successive days and obtained the following results

Example: Relative Frequency Method

- ▶ Waiting time in the X-ray department for a local hospital
 - Consider a study of waiting times in the X-ray department for a local hospital
 - A clerk recorded the number of patients waiting for service at 9:00 A.M on 20 successive days and obtained the following results

| Number waiting | Number of days outcome occurred |
|----------------|---------------------------------|
| 0 | 2 |
| 1 | 5 |
| 2 | 6 |
| 3 | 4 |
| 4 | 3 |
| Total | 20 |

Example: Relative Frequency Method

- ▶ Waiting time in the X-ray department for a local hospital
 - Each probability assignment is given by dividing the frequency (number of days) by the total frequency (total number of days)

| Number waiting | Number of days outcome occurred | Probability |
|----------------|---------------------------------|--------------|
| 0 | 2 | $2/20 = 0.1$ |
| 1 | 5 | 0.25 |
| 2 | 6 | 0.30 |
| 3 | 4 | 0.20 |
| 4 | 3 | 0.15 |
| Total | 20 | 1.00 |

Example: Subjective Method

- ▶ When economic conditions or a company's circumstances change rapidly it might be inappropriate to assign probabilities based solely on historical data
- ▶ We can use any data available as well as our experience and intuition, but ultimately a probability value should express our degree of belief that the experimental outcome will occur
- ▶ The best probability estimates often are obtained by combining the estimates from the classical or relative frequency approach with the subjective estimate

Example: Subjective Method

- ▶ Tom and Judy make an offer to purchase a house
- ▶ Possible outcomes: E_1 =offer accepted, E_2 =offer rejected

Judy's Probability Estimates

$$P(E_1) = 0.8$$

$$P(E_2) = 0.2$$

Tom's Probability Estimates

$$P(E_1) = 0.6$$

$$P(E_2) = 0.4$$

Events and Their Probabilities

- ▶ Event: is a collection of sample points
- ▶ Probability of any event: Is equal to the sum of the probabilities of the sample points in the event
- ▶ If we can identify all the sample points of an experiment and assign a probability to each, we can compute the probability of an event
- ▶ Example: Rolling a die and getting an even number

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Some Basic Relationships of Probability



Some Basic Relationships of Probability

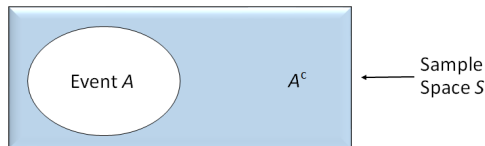
- ▶ There are some basic probability relationships that can be used to compute the probability of an event without knowledge of all the sample point probabilities
 - ▶ Complement of an Event
 - ▶ Intersection of Two Events
 - ▶ Union of Two Events
 - ▶ Mutually Exclusive Events

Complement of an Event

- ▶ The complement of event A is defined to be the event consisting of all sample points that are not in A
- ▶ The complement of A is denoted by A^c and

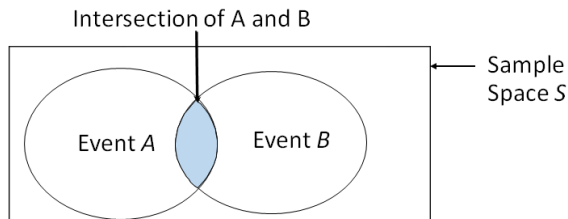
$$P(A) + P(A^c) = 1$$

(Why?)



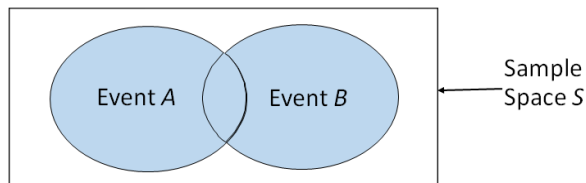
Intersection of Two Events

- ▶ The intersection of events A and B is the set of all sample points that are in both A and B
- ▶ The intersection of events A and B is denoted by $A \cap B$



Union of Two Events

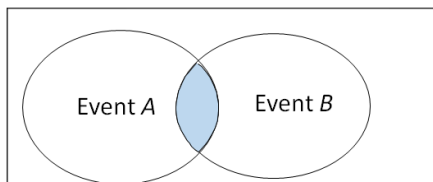
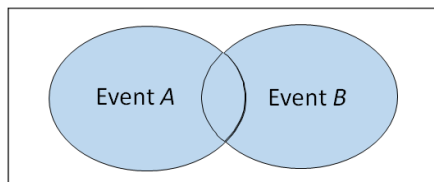
- ▶ The union of events A and B is the event containing all sample points that are in A or B or both
- ▶ The intersection of events A and B is denoted by $A \cap B$



Addition Law

- ▶ The addition law provides a way to compute the probability of event A , or B , or both A and B occurring
- ▶ The law is written as

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



Example: Addition Law

- ▶ A small assembly plant with 50 employees is carrying out performance evaluation
- ▶ Each worker is expected to complete work assignments on time and in such a way that the assembled product will pass a final inspection
- ▶ The results were as follows:

| Result | Number of Employees | Relative Frequency |
|--|---------------------|--------------------|
| Late completion of work | 5 | $5/50 = 0.1$ |
| Assembled a defective work | 6 | 0.12 |
| Completed work late and assembled defective work | 2 | 0.04 |

Example: Addition Law

- ▶ Event L = the work is completed late
- ▶ Event D = the assembled product is defective
- ▶ The production manager decided to assign poor performance rating to any employee whose work is either late or defective
- ▶ What is the probability that the production manager assigns a poor performance rating for a given employee?

Example: Addition Law

- ▶ Event $L \cup D$ = the production manager assigned an employee a poor performance rating
- ▶ Using the addition law:

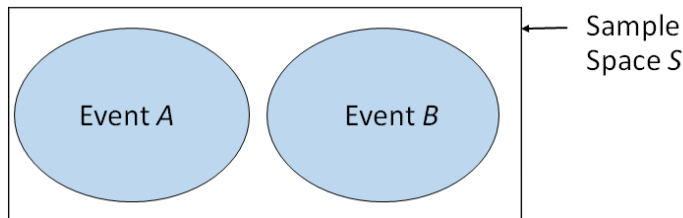
$$P(L \cup D) = P(L) + P(D) - P(L \cap D)$$

- ▶ Using the probabilities from the relative frequency

$$P(L \cup D) = 0.1 + 0.12 - 0.04 = 0.18$$

Mutually Exclusive Events

- ▶ Two events are said to be mutually exclusive if the events have no sample points in common
- ▶ Two events are mutually exclusive if, when one event occurs, the other cannot occur
- ▶ Examples?



Mutually Exclusive Events

- ▶ If events A and B are mutually exclusive, $P(A \cap B) = 0$
- ▶ The addition law for mutually exclusive events is:

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

There is no need to include “ $-P(A \cap B)$ ”

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Conditional Probability

- ▶ A conditional probability of an event is the probability of an event given that another event has occurred
- ▶ The conditional probability of A given B is denoted by $P(A|B)$
- ▶ Example: Probability of promotion status given gender
- ▶ A conditional probability is computed as follows

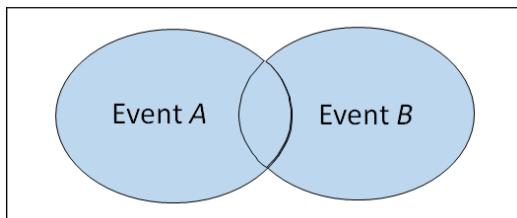
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

Conditional Probability

- ▶ A conditional probability is computed as follows

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

- ▶ Example: Probability of promotion status given gender



Exmple: Conditional Probability

- ▶ Promotion status of police officers over the past two years

| | Men (M) | Women (W) | Total |
|------------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------|
| Promoted (A) | $288/1200 = 0.24$ | 0.03 | 0.27 |
| Not Promoted (A^c) | 0.56 | 0.17 | 0.73 |
| Total | 0.80 | 0.20 | 1.00 |

Exmple: Conditional Probability

- ▶ Promotion status of police officers over the past two years
 - Event A = An officer is promoted
 - Event M = The promoted officer is a man
 - $P(A|M)$ = An officer is promoted given that the officer is a man

$$P(A|M) = \frac{P(A \cap M)}{P(M)}$$

- ▶ From the table:
 - $P(A \cap M) = 0.24$
 - $P(M) = 0.8$
 - $P(A|M) = 0.28/0.8 = 0.3$

Multiplication Law

- ▶ The multiplication law provides a way to compute the probability of the intersection of two events
- ▶ It comes from solving for $P(A \cap B)$ in the conditional probability equation
- ▶ The law is written as:

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

Example: Multiplication Law

- ▶ Newspaper circulation department
- ▶ Event D = A household subscribes to the daily edition
- ▶ Event S = The household already holds subscription to the Sunday edition
- ▶ Given: $P(D) = 0.84$ and $P(S|D) = 0.75$

Example: Multiplication Law

- ▶ Newspaper circulation department
- ▶ What is the probability that the household subscribes to both the Sunday and daily editions of the newspaper?

$$\begin{aligned}P(S \cap D) &= P(S|D) \times P(D) \\ &= 0.75 \times 0.84 \\ &= 0.63\end{aligned}$$

Joint Probability

- ▶ Joint probabilities appear in the center of the table
- ▶ Marginal probabilities appear in the margins of the table

| | Men (M) | Women (W) | Total |
|------------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------|
| Promoted (A) | $288/1200 = 0.24$ | 0.03 | 0.27 |
| Not Promoted (A^c) | 0.56 | 0.17 | 0.73 |
| Total | 0.80 | 0.20 | 1.00 |

Independent Events

- ▶ If the probability of event A is not changed by the existence of event B , we would say that events A and B are independent
- ▶ Two events A and B are independent if:

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

or

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

Multiplication Law for Independent Events

- ▶ The multiplication law also can be used as a test to see if two events are not independent

- ▶ The law is written as:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B)$$

Example: Multiplication Law for Independent Events

- ▶ Use of credit card for purchase of gasoline
- ▶ From past experience it is known 80% of customers use credit card for the purchase of gasoline
- ▶ The service station manager wants to determine the probability that the next two customers purchasing gasoline will each use a credit card

Example: Multiplication Law for Independent Events

- ▶ Use of credit card for purchase of gasoline
- ▶ Event A = First customer uses a credit card
- ▶ Event B = Second customer uses a credit card
- ▶ Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}P(A \cap B) &= P(A) \times P(B) \\ &= 0.8 \times 0.8 \\ &= 0.64\end{aligned}$$

Mutual Exclusiveness and Independence

- ▶ Do not confuse the notion of mutually exclusive events with that of independent events
- ▶ Two events with nonzero probabilities cannot be both mutually exclusive and independent
- ▶ If one mutually exclusive event is known to occur, the other cannot occur
- ▶ Hence, the probability of the other event occurring is reduced to zero (and they are therefore dependent)
- ▶ Two events that are not mutually exclusive, might or might not be independent