

Announcements:

- Midterm exam keys on web.
- *No grade disputes now. See syllabus for information.*
- Grades are curved at end of quarter, not now.
- Material gets harder from here on! Practice problems with answers will be posted on website for Chapters 7 to 9 as we cover them.
- Friday discussion this week *is* for credit.
- Please complete survey by Friday. (You should have received email about it.)

Homework (due Monday, Feb 11)

Chapter 7: #12, 22, 30, 34

Chapter 7

Probability

Today: 7.1 to 7.3, start 7.4

Wed: 7.4, 7.5; Skip 7.6

Fri: 8.1 to 8.3

Next Mon: Section 7.7 and supplemental material on intuition and probability

Random Circumstance

A *random circumstance* is one in which the *outcome* is *unpredictable*.

Could be unpredictable because:

- It *isn't determined* yet
- or
- We have *incomplete knowledge*

Example of a random circumstance

- Sex of an unborn child is unpredictable, so it is a random circumstance.
- We can talk about the *probability* that a child will be a boy. What does that mean?

Depends on why it is unpredictable:

- Before conception:
 - It *isn't determined* yet
- After conception:
 - We have *incomplete knowledge*

Goals in this chapter

- Understand what is meant by “probability”
- Assign probabilities to possible outcomes of random circumstances.
- Learn how to use probability wisely

What does probability mean??

What does it mean to say:

- *The **probability** of rain tomorrow is .2.*
- *The **probability** that a coin toss will land heads up is $\frac{1}{2}$.*
- *The **probability** that humans will survive to the year 3000 is .8.*

Is the word “probability” interpreted the same way in all of these?

Two basic interpretations of probability (Summary box, p. 226)

Interpretation 1: **Relative frequency**

- Used for *repeatable* circumstances
- The *probability* of an outcome is the *proportion* of time that outcome does or will happen *in the long run*.

Interpretation 2: **Personal probability (subjective)**

- Most useful for *one-time events*
- The *probability* of an outcome is *the degree to which* an individual *believes* it will happen.

Two methods for determining relative frequency probability

1. **Make an assumption** about the physical world *or*
2. **Observe** the *relative frequency* of an outcome over many repetitions. “Repetitions” can be:
 - a. Over *time*, such as how often a flight is late
 - b. Over *individuals*, by measuring a representative sample from a larger population and observing the *relative frequency* of an outcome or category of interest, such as the probability that a randomly selected person is left-handed.

How relative frequency probabilities are determined, Method 1:

Make an assumption about the physical world.

Examples:

- Flip a coin, **probability** it lands heads = $\frac{1}{2}$.

We *assume* the coin is balanced in such a way that it is equally likely to land on either side.

- Draw a card from a shuffled, regular deck of cards, **probability** of getting a heart = $\frac{1}{4}$

We *assume* all cards are equally likely to be drawn

How relative frequency probabilities are determined, Method 2a (over time):

Observe the *relative frequency* of an outcome over many repetitions (*long run relative frequency*)

Probability that a flight will be on time:

- According to United Airline's website, the probability that Flight 1444 from SNA to Chicago will be *on time* (within 15 minutes of stated arrival time) is 0.71. Probability > 30 minutes late is 0.23.
- Based on *observing* this particular flight over many, many days; it was on time on 71% of those days. The *relative frequency* on time = 0.71

How relative frequency probabilities are determined, Method 2b (over individuals):

Measure a representative sample and observe the *relative frequency* of possible outcomes or categories for the sample

Probability that an adult female in the US believes in life after death is about .789. [It's .72 for males]

- Based on a national survey that asked 517 women if they believe in life after death
- 408 said yes
- Relative frequency is $408/517 = .789$

Note about methods 2a and 2b:

Usually these are just *estimates* of the true probability, based on n repetitions or n people in the sample. So, they have an associated *margin of error* with them.

Example:

Probability that an adult female in the US believes in life after death = .789, based on $n = 517$ women.

Margin of error is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{517}} = .044$.

Personal Probability: Especially useful for one-time only events

- The *personal probability* of an outcome is *the degree to which* an individual *believes* it will happen.
- Could be different for two different people.

Personal Probability Examples

- What is the probability that *you* will get a B in this class? We can't base the answer on relative frequency!
- LA Times, 10/8/09, scientists have determined that the probability of the asteroid Apophis hitting the earth in 2036 is 1 in 250,000. In 2004, they thought the probability was .027 that it would hit earth in 2029. "Expert opinion" has been updated.

Notes about personal probability

- Sometimes the individual is an expert, and combines subjective information with data and models, such as in assessing the probability of a magnitude 7 or higher earthquake in our area in the next 10 years.
- Sometime there is overlap in these methods, such as determining probability of rain tomorrow – uses similar pasts.

Summary of interpretations

- Interpretation 1: Relative frequency
 - Method 1: Physical assumption
 - Method 2a: Observe long run over time
 - Method 2b: Observe proportion of a sample
- Interpretation 2: Personal probability

Clicker questions *not* for credit!

The probability that the winning “Daily 3” lottery number tomorrow evening will be 777 is 1/1000.

Which interpretation is best?

- A. Rel. freq. based on physical assumption
- B. Rel. freq. based on long run over time
- C. Rel. freq. based on representative sample
- D. Personal probability

Clicker questions *not* for credit!

The probability that the San Francisco 49ers will win the Super Bowl next year is .15.

Which interpretation is best?

- A. Rel. freq. based on physical assumption
- B. Rel. freq. based on long run over time
- C. Rel. freq. based on representative sample
- D. Personal probability

Clicker questions *not* for credit!

Based on the past, the probability that a live single birth in the U.S. will be a boy is .512.

Which interpretation is best?

- A. Rel. freq. based on physical assumption
- B. Rel. freq. based on long run over time
- C. Rel. freq. based on representative sample
- D. Personal probability

Section 7.3: Probability definitions and relationships

We will use 2 examples to illustrate:

1. Daily 3 lottery winning number.

Outcome = 3 digit number, from 000 to 999

2. Choice of 3 parking lots on campus. You try Lot 1, if full then Lot 2, if full then Lot 3.

Lot 1 works 30% of the time, you aren't late

Lot 2 works 50% of the time, you are late

Lot 3 always works, so you park there 20% of the time, and when you do, you are very late!

Definitions of *Sample space and Simple event*

The **sample space S** for a random circumstance is the collection of unique, non-overlapping outcomes.

A **simple event** is *one outcome* in the sample space.

Ex 1: **S** = {000, 001, 002, ..., 999}

One simple event: 659

There are 1000 simple events.

Ex 2: **S** = {Lot 1, Lot 2, Lot 3}

One simple event: Lot 2

There are 3 simple events.

Definition And Notation For *Events*

- **Event:** *any subset* of the sample space.
- **Compound event:** More than one simple event.

Notation for events: *A, B, C*, etc.

Ex 1: *A = winning number begins with 00*

$$A = \{000, 001, 002, 003, \dots, 009\}$$

$$B = \textit{all same digits} = \{000, 111, \dots, 999\}$$

Ex 2: *A = late for class = {Lot 2, Lot 3}*

Probability of Events: Notation and Rules (for all interpretations and methods)

Notation: $P(A)$ = probability of the event A

Rules: Probabilities are always assigned to *simple events* such that these 2 rules must hold:

1. $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ for each simple event A
2. The *sum* of probabilities of *all* simple events in the sample space is 1.

The **probability of any event** is the sum of probabilities for the simple events that are part of it.

Special Case: Assigning Probabilities to *Equally Likely Simple Events*

Equally Likely Simple Events

If there are k simple events in the sample space and they are all equally likely, then the probability of the occurrence of each one is $1/k$.

Example:

Roll a fair die with numbers 1 to 6, so $k = 6$.
 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, each with probability $1/6$.

Example: California Daily 3 Lottery

Random Circumstance:

A three-digit winning lottery number is selected.

Sample Space:

{000, 001, 002, 003, . . . , 997, 998, 999}.

There are 1000 simple events.

Physical assumption: all three-digit numbers are equally likely.

Probabilities for Simple Event: Probability that any specific three-digit number is a winner is $1/1000$.

California Daily 3 Lottery, continued

Examples of Complex Events:

- **Event A** = last digit is a 9 = {009, 019, . . . , 999}.
- $P(A) = 100/1000 = 1/10$ (there are 100 simple events)
- **Event B** = three digits are all the same
{000, 111, 222, 333, 444, 555, 666, 777, 888, 999}.
- $P(B) = 10/1000 = 1/100$ (there are 10 simple events)

Example 2: Simple events are *not* equally likely

<i>Simple Event</i>	<i>Probability</i>
Park in Lot 1	.30
Park in Lot 2	.50
Park in Lot 3	.20

Note that
these
sum to 1

Event **A** = late for class = {Lot 2, Lot 3}

$$P(\mathbf{A}) = .50 + .20 = .70$$

Probability in daily language:

People express probabilities as percents, proportions, probabilities. These are all equivalent:

- United flight 1444 from SNA to Chicago arrives on time **71 percent** of the time.
- The **proportion** of time United flight 436 arrives on time is **.71**.
- The **probability** that United flight 436 will arrive on time is **.71**.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EVENTS

- Defined for events in the *same random circumstance only*:
 - **Complement** of an event
 - The event doesn't happen
 - **Mutually exclusive events = disjoint events**
 - Two events don't overlap
- Defined for events in the same *or* different random circumstances:
 - **Independent events**
 - **Conditional events**

Definition and Rule 1 (apply to events in the *same* random circumstance):

Definition: One event is the **complement** of another event if:

- They have no simple events in common, AND
- They cover all simple events

Notation: The **complement of A** is A^C

$$\text{RULE 1: } P(A^C) = 1 - P(A)$$

Ex 2: *Random circumstance* = parking on one day

A = late for class, A^C = on time

$$P(A) = .70, \text{ so } P(A^C) = 1 - .70 = .30$$

Complementary Events, Continued

$$\text{Rule 1: } P(A) + P(A^C) = 1$$

Example: *Daily 3 Lottery*

A = player buying single ticket wins

A^C = player does not win

$P(A) = 1/1000$ so $P(A^C) = 999/1000$

Example: *On-time flights*

A = flight you are taking will be on time

A^C = flight will be late

Suppose $P(A) = .81$, then $P(A^C) = 1 - .81 = .19$.

Mutually Exclusive Events

Two events are **mutually exclusive**, or equivalently **disjoint**, if they do not contain *any* of the same simple events (outcomes).
(Applies in *same random circumstance*.)

Example: Daily 3 Lottery

A = all three digits are the same (000, 111, etc.)

B = the number starts with 13 (130, 131, etc.)

The events A and B are **mutually exclusive** (disjoint), but they are **not complementary**.

(**No overlap**, but *don't* cover all possibilities.)

Independent and Dependent Events

- Two events are **independent** of each other if knowing that one will occur (or has occurred) *does not change* the probability that the other occurs.
- Two events are **dependent** if knowing that one will occur (or has occurred) *changes* the probability that the other occurs.

The definitions can apply *either ...*
to events *within the same random circumstance* or
to events *from two separate random circumstances*.

EXAMPLE OF INDEPENDENT EVENTS

- Events in the *same random circumstance*:

Daily 3 lottery on the *same* draw

A = *first* digit is 0

B = *last* digit is 9 $P(B) = 1/10$

Knowing first digit is 0, $P(B)$ is *still* $1/10$.

- Events in *different random circumstances*:

Daily 3 lottery on *different* draws

A = *today's* winning number is 191

B = *tomorrow's* winning number is 875

Knowing today's # was 191, $P(B)$ is *still* $1/1000$

Mutually exclusive or independent?

- If two events are mutually exclusive (disjoint), they *cannot* be independent:
 - If *disjoint*, then knowing A occurs means $P(B) = 0$
 - In *independent*, knowing A occurs gives no knowledge of $P(B)$

Example of mutually exclusive (disjoint):

A = *today's* winning number is 191,

B = *today's* winning number is 875

Example of independent:

A = *today's* winning number is 191

B = *tomorrow's* winning number is 875

Conditional Probabilities

The **conditional probability** of the event **B**, **given** that the event **A** has occurred or will occur, is the long-run relative frequency with which event B occurs when circumstances are such that A also occurs; written as $P(B|A)$.

$P(B)$ = *unconditional* probability event B occurs.

$P(B|A)$ = “probability of B given A”
= *conditional* probability event B occurs *given that we know A has occurred or will occur.*

EXAMPLE OF CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY

TABLE 2.3 ■ Nighttime Lighting in Infancy and Eyesight

Slept with:	No Myopia	Myopia	High Myopia	Total
Darkness	155 (90%)	15 (9%)	2 (1%)	172
Nightlight	153 (66%)	72 (31%)	7 (3%)	232
Full Light	34 (45%)	36 (48%)	5 (7%)	75
Total	342 (71%)	123 (26%)	14 (3%)	479

Random circumstance: Observe one randomly selected child

A = child slept in darkness as infant [Use “total” column.]

$$P(\mathbf{A}) = 172/479 = .36$$

B = child did not develop myopia [Use “total” row]

$$P(\mathbf{B}) = 342/479 = .71$$

$P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{A}) = P(\text{no myopia} \mid \text{slept in dark})$ [Use “darkness” row]

$$= 155/172 = .90 \neq P(\mathbf{B})$$

NOTES ABOUT CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY

1. $P(B|A)$ generally does *not* equal $P(B)$.
2. $P(B|A) = P(B)$ *only* when A and B are independent events
3. In Chapter 4, we were actually testing if two types of events were *independent*.
4. *Conditional* probabilities are similar to *row* and *column* proportions (percents) in contingency tables. Myopia example on previous page: $P(\text{no myopia} | \text{dark})$ is the *row* proportion for no myopia.

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