SAMPLE SPACES

DEFINITION :

The *sample space* is the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment.

EXAMPLE : When we *flip a coin* then sample space is $\mathcal{S} \ = \ \left\{ \ H \ , \ T \ \right\} \ ,$ where H denotes that the coin lands "Heads up" and

T denotes that the coin lands "Tails up".

For a "fair coin" we expect H and T to have the same "chance" of occurring, *i.e.*, if we flip the coin many times then about 50 $\%$ of the outcomes will be H.

We say that the *probability* of H to occur is 0.5 (or 50%).

The probability of T to occur is then also 0.5.

EXAMPLE :

When we *roll a fair die* then the sample space is

$$
\mathcal{S} \;=\; \left\{\;1\;,\;2\;,\;3\;,\;4\;,\;5\;,\;6\;\right\}\,.
$$

The probability the die lands with k up is $\frac{1}{6}$, $(k = 1, 2, \dots, 6)$.

When we roll it 1200 times we expect a 5 up about 200 times.

The probability the die lands with an even number up is

$$
\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2}.
$$

EXAMPLE :

When we toss a coin 3 times and record the results in the *sequence* that they occur, then the sample space is

 $S = \{ HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT \}.$

Elements of S are "vectors", "sequences", or "ordered outcomes".

We may expect each of the 8 outcomes to be equally likely.

Thus the probability of the sequence HTT is $\frac{1}{8}$.

The probability of ^a sequence to contain precisely two Heads is

$$
\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{8}.
$$

EXAMPLE : When we toss ^a coin 3 times and record the results without paying attention to the order in which they occur, e.g., if we only record the number of Heads, then the sample space is

$$
S = \left\{ \{H, H, H \}, \{H, H, T \}, \{H, T, T \}, \{T, T, T \} \right\}.
$$

The outcomes in S are now sets; *i.e.*, order is not important.

Recall that the ordered outcomes are

 $\Set{HHH \,,\; HHT \,,\; HTH \,,\; HTT \,,\; THH \,,\; THT \,,\; TTH \,,\; TTT \}} \,.$

Note that

Thus $\{H, H, H\}$ and $\{T, T, T\}$ each occur with probability $\frac{1}{8}$ \overline{s} , while $\{H, H, T\}$ and $\{H, T, T\}$ each occur with probability $\frac{3}{8}$ $\overline{8}$.

Events

In Probability Theory subsets of the sample space are called *events*.

EXAMPLE : The set of basic outcomes of rolling ^a die once is

 $\mathcal{S} \;=\; \left\{\;1\;,\;2\;,\;3\;,\;4\;,\;5\;,\;6\;\right\}\,,$

so the subset $E = \{2, 4, 6\}$ is an example of an event.

If a die is rolled *once* and it lands with a 2 *or* a 4 *or* a 6 up then we say that the event E has *occurred*.

We have already seen that the probability that E occurs is

$$
P(E) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2}.
$$

The Algebra of Events

Since events are *sets*, namely, subsets of the sample space S , we can do the usual set operations :

If E and F are events then we can form

 E^c the *complement* of E $E \cup F$ the union of E and F EF the *intersection* of E and F

We write $E \subset F$ if E is a *subset* of F.

REMARK : In Probability Theory we use

 E^c instead of E ,

 EF instead of $E \cap F$,

 $E \subset F$ instead of $E \subseteq F$.

If the sample space $\mathcal S$ is *finite* then we typically allow any subset of S to be an event.

EXAMPLE : If we randomly draw one character from ^a box containing the characters a, b , and c , then the sample space is

$$
S = \{a \;,\; b \;,\; c\} \;,
$$

and there are 8 possible events, namely, those in the set of events

$$
\mathcal{E} = \{ \{\}\ , \{a\} \ , \{b\} \ , \{c\} \ , \{a,b\} \ , \{a,c\} \ , \{b,c\} \ , \{a,b,c\} \} \ .
$$

If the outcomes a, b , and c , are equally likely to occur, then

$$
P(\{\}) = 0 \ , \ P(\{a\}) = \frac{1}{3} \ , \ P(\{b\}) = \frac{1}{3} \ , \ P(\{c\}) = \frac{1}{3} \ ,
$$

$$
P(\{a,b\}) = \frac{2}{3} \ , \ P(\{a,c\}) = \frac{2}{3} \ , \ P(\{b,c\}) = \frac{2}{3} \ , \ P(\{a,b,c\}) = 1 \ .
$$

For example, $P({a,b})$ is the probability the character is an a or a b.

We always assume that the set $\mathcal E$ of allowable events *includes the* complements, unions, and intersections of its events.

EXAMPLE : If the sample space is

$$
S = \{a \;,\; b \;,\; c \;,\; d\}\;,
$$

and we start with the events

$$
\mathcal{E}_0 = \{ \{a\}, \{c,d\} \},
$$

then this set of events needs to be extended to (at least)

$$
\mathcal{E} = \{ \{\}, \{a\}, \{c,d\}, \{b,c,d\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c,d\}, \{b\}, \{a,b,c,d\} \}
$$

.

EXERCISE: Verify \mathcal{E} includes complements, unions, intersections.

Axioms of Probability

A probability function P assigns a real number (the probability of E) to every event E in a sample space $\mathcal{S}.$

 $P(\cdot)$ must satisfy the following basic properties :

• $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$,

$$
\bullet \quad P(\mathcal{S}) = 1 \ ,
$$

• For any *disjoint events* E_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, we have $P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \cdots \cup E_n) = P(E_1) + P(E_2) + \cdots P(E_n)$. Further Properties

PROPERTY 1 :

$$
P(E \cup E^{c}) = P(E) + P(E^{c}) = 1.
$$
 (Why?)

Thus

$$
P(E^c) = 1 - P(E).
$$

EXAMPLE :

What is the probability of at least one "H" in *four tosses* of a coin?

SOLUTION : The sample space S will have 16 outcomes. (Which?)

$$
P(\text{at least one H}) = 1 - P(\text{no H}) = 1 - \frac{1}{16} = \frac{15}{16}.
$$

PROPERTY 2 :

$$
P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(EF).
$$

PROOF (using the third axiom) :

$$
P(E \cup F) = P(EF) + P(EF^c) + P(E^cF)
$$

= $[P(EF) + P(EF^c)] + [P(EF) + P(E^cF)] - P(EF)$
= $P(E) + P(F) - P(EF)$. (Why?)

NOTE :

- Draw a Venn diagram with E and F to see this !
- The formula is similar to the one for the number of elements :

$$
n(E \cup F) = n(E) + n(F) - n(EF) .
$$

So far our sample spaces S have been *finite*.

S can also be *countably infinite*, e.g., the set \mathbb{Z} of all integers.

S can also be *uncountable*, *e.g.*, the set $\mathbb R$ of all real numbers.

EXAMPLE : Record the low temperature in Montreal on January 8 in each of ^a large number of years.

We can take S to be the set of all real numbers, i.e., $S = \mathbb{R}$.

(Are there are other choices of S ?)

What probability would you expect for the following events to have?

(a)
$$
P(\{\pi\})
$$
 (b) $P(\{x : -\pi < x < \pi\})$

(How does this differ from finite sample spaces?)

We will encounter such infinite sample spaces many times \cdots

Counting Outcomes

We have seen examples where the outcomes in a *finite* sample space S are equally likely, i.e., they have the same probability.

Such sample spaces occur quite often.

Computing probabilities then requires counting all outcomes and counting certain types of outcomes .

The counting has to be done carefully!

We will discuss ^a number of representative examples in detail.

Concepts that arise include permutations and combinations.

Permutations

- Here we count of the number of "words" that can be formed from ^a collection of items (e.g., letters).
- (Also called *sequences*, *vectors*, *ordered sets*.)
- The *order* of the items in the word is important; e.g., the word acb is different from the word bac.
- The *word length* is the number of characters in the word.

NOTE :

For sets the order is not important. For example, the set $\{a,c,b\}$ is the same as the set ${b, a, c}$.

EXAMPLE : Suppose that four-letter words of lower case alphabetic characters are generated randomly with equally likely outcomes. (Assume that *letters may appear repeatedly*.)

- (a) How many four-letter words are there in the sample space S ? $\textbf{SOLUTION}: \quad 26^4 \; = \; 456,976 \;.$
- (b) How many four-letter words are there are there in $\mathcal S$ that start with the letter $"s"$? $\mathbf{SOLUTION:} \quad 26^3$.
- (c) What is the probability of generating ^a four-letter word that starts with an $"s"$?

SOLUTION :

$$
\frac{26^3}{26^4} = \frac{1}{26} \approx 0.038.
$$

Could this have been computed more easily?

EXAMPLE : How many re-orderings (permutations) are there of the string *abc* ? (Here *letters may appear only once*.)

SOLUTION : Six, namely, abc, acb, bac, bca, cab, cba.

If these permutations are generated randomly with equal probability then what is the probability the word starts with the letter $"a"$? SOLUTION :

$$
\frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}.
$$

EXAMPLE: In general, if the word length is n and all characters are distinct then there are n! permutations of the word. (Why?)

If these permutations are generated randomly with equal probability then what is the probability the word starts with ^a particular letter ?

SOLUTION :

$$
\frac{(n-1)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{n} . \qquad (\text{Why ?})
$$

EXAMPLE : How many

words of length k

can be formed from

```
a set of n (distinct) characters,
```
(where $k \leq n$),

when letters can be used *at most once*?

SOLUTION :

$$
n (n - 1) (n - 2) \cdots (n - (k - 1))
$$

= $n (n - 1) (n - 2) \cdots (n - k + 1)$
= $\frac{n!}{(n - k)!}$ (Why ?)

EXAMPLE : Three-letter words are generated randomly from the five characters a , b , c , d , e , where letters can be used at most once.

- (a) How many three-letter words are there in the sample space $\mathcal S$? SOLUTION : $5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 = 60$.
- (b) How many words containing a, b are there in S ? SOLUTION : First ^place the characters

 a , b

i.e., select the two indices of the locations to place them. This can be done in

 $3 \times 2 = 6$ ways. (Why?)

There remains one position to be filled with a c , d or an e . Therefore the number of words is $3 \times 6 = 18$.

(c) Suppose the ⁶⁰ solutions in the sample space are equally likely .

What is the *probability* of generating a three-letter word that contains the letters a and b?

SOLUTION :

$$
\frac{18}{60} = 0.3 \; .
$$

EXERCISE :

Suppose the sample space S consists of all $five-letter$ words having *distinct* alphabetic characters.

How many words are there in S ?

• How many "special" words are in S for which only the second and the fourth character are vowels, *i.e.*, one of $\{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$?

Assuming the outcomes in S to be equally likely, what is the probability of drawing such ^a special word?

Combinations

Let S be a set containing n (distinct) elements.

Then

a *combination* of k elements from S ,

is

any selection of k elements from S ,

where *order is not important*.

(Thus the selection is a set .)

NOTE : By definition ^a set always has distinct elements .

EXAMPLE :

There are three *combinations* of 2 elements chosen from the set

$$
S = \{a \;,\; b \;,\; c\} \;,
$$

namely, the subsets

$$
\{a,b\} \;\; , \;\; \{a,c\} \;\; , \;\; \{b,c\} \;\; , \;\;
$$

whereas there are six *words* of 2 elements from S , namely,

$$
ab \ ,\ ba \quad ,\quad ac \ ,\ ca \quad ,\quad bc \ ,\ cb \ .
$$

In general, given

a set S of n elements,

the number of possible subsets of k elements from S equals

$$
\binom{n}{k} \equiv \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} .
$$

REMARK: The notation
$$
\binom{n}{k}
$$
 is referred to as

 $"n \; choose \; k".$

NOTE:
$$
\binom{n}{n} = \frac{n!}{n! (n-n)!} = \frac{n!}{n! \ 0!} = 1,
$$

since $0! \equiv 1$ (by "convenient definition" !).

PROOF :

First recall that there are

$$
n (n - 1) (n - 2) \cdots (n - k + 1) = \frac{n!}{(n - k)!}
$$

possible *sequences* of k distinct elements from S .

However, every sequence of length k has $k!$ permutations of itself, and each of these defines the same subset of S.

Thus the total number of subsets is

$$
\frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} \equiv \binom{n}{k} .
$$

EXAMPLE :

In the previous example, with 2 elements chosen from the set

 ${a , b , c},$

we have $n = 3$ and $k = 2$, so that there are

$$
\frac{3!}{(3-2)!} = 6 \quad words ,
$$

namely

$$
ab\ ,\ ba\quad ,\quad ac\ ,\ ca\quad ,\quad bc\ ,\ cb\ \ ,
$$

while there are

$$
\binom{3}{2} = \frac{3!}{2! (3-2)!} = \frac{6}{2} = 3 \text{ subsets,}
$$

namely

$$
\{a,b\} , \{a,c\} , \{b,c\} .
$$

EXAMPLE: If we choose 3 elements from $\{a, b, c, d\}$, then

$$
n = 4
$$
 and $k = 3$,

so there are

$$
\frac{4!}{(4-3)!} = 24 \text{ words, namely :}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{abc}{ac}, \quad \frac{abd}{ad}, \quad \frac{acd}{ad}, \quad \frac{bcd}{bdc},
$$
\n
$$
\frac{bac}{bac}, \quad \frac{bad}{bad}, \quad \frac{cad}{cad}, \quad \frac{cbd}{cdb},
$$
\n
$$
\frac{bca}{cab}, \quad \frac{bda}{da}, \quad \frac{cda}{dac}, \quad \frac{dbc}{dbc},
$$
\n
$$
\frac{cba}{cba}, \quad \frac{dba}{da}, \quad \frac{dca}{dca}, \quad \frac{dcb}{dc},
$$

while there are

$$
\binom{4}{3}
$$
 = $\frac{4!}{3!(4-3)!}$ = $\frac{24}{6}$ = 4 subsets,

namely,

$$
\{a, b, c\} \; , \; \{a, b, d\} \; , \; \{a, c, d\} \; , \; \{b, c, d\} \; .
$$

EXAMPLE :

(a) How many ways are there to choose ^a committee of ⁴ persons from ^a group of 10 persons, if order is not important? SOLUTION :

$$
\binom{10}{4} = \frac{10!}{4! (10-4)!} = 210.
$$

(b) If each of these ²¹⁰ outcomes is equally likely then what is the probability that ^a particular person is on the committee? SOLUTION :

$$
\binom{9}{3} / \binom{10}{4} = \frac{84}{210} = \frac{4}{10}. \quad (\text{Why ?})
$$

Is this result surprising?

(c) What is the probability that ^a particular person is not on the committee?

SOLUTION :

$$
\binom{9}{4} / \binom{10}{4} = \frac{126}{210} = \frac{6}{10}. \quad (\text{Why ?})
$$

Is this result surprising?

(d) How many ways are there to choose ^a committee of ⁴ persons from ^a group of 10 persons, if one is to be the chairperson? SOLUTION :

$$
\binom{10}{1}
$$
 $\binom{9}{3}$ = 10 $\binom{9}{3}$ = 10 $\frac{9!}{3!(9-3)!}$ = 840.

QUESTION : Why is this four times the number in (a) ?

EXAMPLE : Two balls are selected at random from a bag with four white balls and three black balls, where order is not important.

What would be an appropriate sample space \mathcal{S} ?

SOLUTION : Denote the set of balls by

$$
B = \{w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, b_1, b_2, b_3\},\,
$$

where same color balls are made "distinct" by numbering them.

Then ^a good choice of the sample space is

 $S =$ the set of all subsets of two balls from B,

because the wording "selected at random" suggests that each such subset has the same chance to be selected.

The number of outcomes in $\mathcal S$ (which are sets of two balls) is then

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = 21.
$$

$EXAMPLE: (continued \cdots)$

(*Two balls* are selected at random from a bag with *four white* balls and three black balls.)

What is the probability that both balls are white? SOLUTION :
 $\binom{4}{2} / \binom{7}{2} = \frac{6}{21} = \frac{2}{7}.$

What is the probability that both balls are black? $SOLUTION:$ (2)

$$
\binom{3}{2}/\binom{7}{2} = \frac{3}{21} = \frac{1}{7}.
$$

What is the probability that one is white and one is black? SOLUTION : $\binom{4}{1} \binom{3}{1} / \binom{7}{2} = \frac{4 \cdot 3}{21} = \frac{4}{7}.$

(Could this have been computed differently?)

$\mathbf{EXAMPLE:} \ \ (\text{continued} \ \cdots)$

In detail, the sample space S is

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\left\{\n\begin{array}{rcl}\n\{w_1, w_2\}, & \{w_1, w_3\}, & \{w_1, w_4\}, \\
& \{w_2, w_3\}, & \{w_2, w_4\}, \\
& \{w_3, w_4\}, & \{w_3, b_1\}, & \{w_3, b_2\}, \\
& \{w_4, b_1\}, & \{w_4, b_2\}, \\
& \{w_4, b_3\}, \\
& \frac{\{w_4, b_1\},}{\{w_4, b_2\}}, & \{w_4, b_3\}, \\
& \frac{\{w_4, b_2\},}{\{b_1, b_2\}}, & \{b_1, b_3\},\n\end{array}\n\right\}\n\end{aligned}
$$

- ${\cal S}$ has 21 outcomes, each of which is a set. ${b_2, b_3}$
- We assumed each outcome of S has probability $\frac{1}{21}$.
- The event "both balls are white" contains 6 outcomes.
- The *event* "both balls are black" contains 3 outcomes.
- The *event* "one is white and one is black" contains 12 outcomes.
- What would be different had we worked with sequences?

EXERCISE :

Three balls are selected at random from ^a bag containing

2 *red*, 3 *green*, 4 *blue* balls.

What would be an appropriate sample space \mathcal{S} ?

What is the the number of outcomes in S ?

What is the probability that all three balls are red?

What is the probability that all three balls are *green*?

What is the probability that all three balls are *blue*?

What is the probability of *one red, one green,* and *one blue* ball?

EXAMPLE: A bag contains 4 black balls and 4 white balls. Suppose one draws two balls at the time, until the bag is empty. What is the probability that each drawn pair is of the same color? **SOLUTION**: An example of an outcome in the sample space S is $\{w_1, w_3\}$, $\{w_2, b_3\}$, $\{w_4, b_1\}$, $\{b_2, b_4\}$.

The number of such *doubly unordered* outcomes in S is

$$
\frac{1}{4!} \binom{8}{2} \binom{6}{2} \binom{4}{2} \binom{2}{2} = \frac{1}{4!} \frac{8!}{2! \ 6!} \frac{6!}{2! \ 4!} \frac{4!}{2! \ 2! \ 2!} \frac{2!}{2! \ 0!} = \frac{1}{4!} \frac{8!}{(2!)^4} = 105 \ (Why?)
$$

The number of such outcomes with *pairwise the same color* is

$$
\frac{1}{2!} \binom{4}{2} \binom{2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2!} \binom{4}{2} \binom{2}{2} = 3 \cdot 3 = 9. \quad (\text{Why ?})
$$

Thus the probability each pair is of the same color is $9/105 = 3/35$.

$\mathbf{EXAMPLE:} \ \ (\text{continued} \ \cdots)$

The 9 outcomes of *pairwise the same color* constitute the *event*

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{c}\n\left\{\n\left\{w_1, w_2\right\}, \left\{w_3, w_4\right\}, \left\{b_1, b_2\right\}, \left\{b_3, b_4\right\}\n\right\}, \\
\left\{\n\left\{w_1, w_3\right\}, \left\{w_2, w_4\right\}, \left\{b_1, b_2\right\}, \left\{b_3, b_4\right\}\n\right\}, \\
\left\{\n\left\{w_1, w_4\right\}, \left\{w_2, w_3\right\}, \left\{b_1, b_2\right\}, \left\{b_3, b_4\right\}\n\right\},\n\end{array}\n\right\}
$$

$$
\left\{\n\begin{array}{c}\n\{w_1, w_2\}, \{w_3, w_4\}, \{b_1, b_3\}, \{b_2, b_4\} \\
\{w_1, w_3\}, \{w_2, w_4\}, \{b_1, b_3\}, \{b_2, b_4\} \\
\{w_1, w_4\}, \{w_2, w_3\}, \{b_1, b_3\}, \{b_2, b_4\}\n\end{array}\n\right\},
$$

$$
\left\{\n\begin{array}{c}\n\{w_1, w_2\}, \{w_3, w_4\}, \{b_1, b_4\}, \{b_2, b_3\} \\
\{w_1, w_3\}, \{w_2, w_4\}, \{b_1, b_4\}, \{b_2, b_3\} \\
\end{array}\n\right\},\n\left\{\n\{w_1, w_4\}, \{w_2, w_3\}, \{b_1, b_4\}, \{b_2, b_3\}\n\right\}.
$$

EXERCISE :

- How many ways are there to choose ^a committee of 4 persons from ^a group of 6 persons, if order is not important?
- Write down the list of all these possible committees of 4 persons.
- If each of these outcomes is equally likely then what is the probability that two particular persons are on the committee?

EXERCISE :

Two balls are selected at random from ^a bag with three white balls and two black balls.

- Show all elements of ^a suitable sample space.
- What is the probability that both balls are white?

EXERCISE :

We are interested in *birthdays* in a class of 60 students.

• What is a good sample space S for this purpose?

• How many outcomes are there in \mathcal{S} ?

What is the probability of no common birthdays in this class?

• What is the probability of *common birthdays* in this class?

EXAMPLE :

How many nonnegative integer solutions are there to

 $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 17$?

SOLUTION :

Consider seventeen 1's separated by bars to indicate the possible values of x_1 , x_2 , and x_3 , e.g.,

¹¹¹|111111111|¹¹¹¹¹ .

The total number of positions in the "display" is $17 + 2 = 19$.

The total number of *nonnegative* solutions is now seen to be

$$
\binom{19}{2} = \frac{19!}{(19-2)! \ 2!} = \frac{19 \times 18}{2} = 171 \ .
$$

EXAMPLE :

How many nonnegative integer solutions are there to the inequality

 $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \leq 17$?

SOLUTION :

Introduce an *auxiliary variable* (or "*slack variable*")

$$
x_4 \equiv 17 - (x_1 + x_2 + x_3).
$$

Then

$$
x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 17.
$$

Use seventeen 1's separated by 3 bars to indicate the possible values of x_1 , x_2 , x_3 , and x_4 , $e.g.,$

¹¹¹|11111111|1111|¹¹ .

111|1111111|111|11.

The total number of positions is

$$
17 + 3 = 20.
$$

The total number of *nonnegative* solutions is therefore

$$
\binom{20}{3}
$$
 = $\frac{20!}{(20-3)!3!}$ = $\frac{20 \times 19 \times 18}{3 \times 2}$ = 1140.

EXAMPLE :

How many *positive* integer solutions are there to the equation

$$
x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 17 ?
$$

SOLUTION : Let

 $x_1 = \tilde{x}_1 + 1$, $x_2 = \tilde{x}_2 + 1$, $x_3 = \tilde{x}_3 + 1$.

Then the problem becomes :

How many nonnegative integer solutions are there to the equation

^x˜¹ + ˜x² + ˜x³ ⁼ 14 ? ¹¹¹|111111111|¹¹

The solution is

$$
\binom{16}{2} = \frac{16!}{(16-2)! \ 2!} = \frac{16 \times 15}{2} = 120.
$$

EXAMPLE :

What is the probability the sum is 9 in three rolls of a die?

SOLUTION : The number of such *sequences* of three rolls with sum 9 is the number of integer solutions of

$$
x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 9,
$$

with

$$
1 \leq x_1 \leq 6 \quad , \quad 1 \leq x_2 \leq 6 \quad , \quad 1 \leq x_3 \leq 6 \; .
$$

Let

$$
x_1 = \tilde{x}_1 + 1 \quad , \quad x_2 = \tilde{x}_2 + 1 \quad , \quad x_3 = \tilde{x}_3 + 1 \; .
$$

Then the problem becomes :

How many *nonnegative* integer solutions are there to the equation

with
$$
\tilde{x}_1 + \tilde{x}_2 + \tilde{x}_3 = 6
$$
,
\n $0 \le \tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \tilde{x}_3 \le 5$.

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$\textbf{EXAMPLE:} \ \ (\text{continued} \ \cdots)$

Now the equation

$$
\tilde{x}_1 + \tilde{x}_2 + \tilde{x}_3 = 6
$$
, $(0 \le \tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \tilde{x}_3 \le 5)$,
\n $1|111|11$
\nhas $\begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = 28$ solutions,

from which we must *subtract* the 3 *impossible* solutions
\n
$$
(\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \tilde{x}_3) = (6, 0, 0), (0, 6, 0), (0, 0, 6).
$$

\n11111||, |11111|, |11111|

Thus the probability that the sum of 3 rolls equals 9 is

$$
\frac{28 - 3}{6^3} = \frac{25}{216} \approx 0.116.
$$

$EXAMPLE: (continued \cdots)$

The 25 outcomes of the event "the sum of the rolls is 9" are

- $\{ 126, 135, 144, 153, 162,$
	- 216 , 225 , 234 , 243 , 252 , 261 ,
	- 315 324 , 333 , 342 , 351 ,
	- 414 , 423 , 432 , 441 ,
	- 513 , 522 , 531 ,
	- $612, 621$ }.

The "lexicographic" ordering of the outcomes (which are sequences) in this event is used for systematic counting.

EXERCISE :

• How many integer solutions are there to the inequality

$$
x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \leq 17 ,
$$

if we require that

$$
x_1 \geq 1 \quad , \quad x_2 \geq 2 \quad , \quad x_3 \geq 3 \quad ?
$$

EXERCISE :

What is the probability that the sum is less than or equal to 9 in three rolls of ^a die ?

CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY

Giving more information can change the probability of an event.

EXAMPLE :

If a coin is tossed two times then what is the probability of two Heads?

ANSWER : 1

$$
\frac{1}{4}
$$

.

EXAMPLE :

If ^a coin is tossed two times then what is the probability of two Heads, given that the first toss gave Heads ?

ANSWER : 1

 $\overline{2}$.

NOTE :

Several examples will be about *playing cards*.

A standard deck of playing cards consists of 52 cards :

• Four suits :

 Hearts , Diamonds (red) , and Spades, Clubs (black) .

• Each suit has 13 cards, whose *denomination* is

 $2, 3, \cdots, 10$, Jack, Queen, King, Ace.

The Jack, Queen, and King are called *face cards*.

EXERCISE :

Suppose we draw a card from a shuffled set of 52 playing cards.

- What is the probability of drawing ^a Queen ?
- What is the probability of drawing ^a Queen, given that the card drawn is of suit Hearts ?
- What is the probability of drawing a Queen, given that the card drawn is ^a Face card ?

What do the answers tell us?

(We'll soon learn the events "Queen" and "Hearts" are independent .)

The two preceding questions are examples of *conditional probability*.

Conditional probability is an *important* and *useful* concept.

If E and F are events, *i.e.*, subsets of a sample space S , then $P(E|F)$ is the conditional probability of E, given F,

defined as

$$
P(E|F) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(F)}.
$$

or, equivalently

$$
P(EF) = P(E|F) P(F),
$$

(assuming that $P(F)$ is not zero).

Suppose that the 6 outcomes in S are equally likely.

What is $P(E|F)$ in each of these two cases ?

Suppose that the 6 outcomes in S are equally likely.

What is $P(E|F)$ in each of these two cases ?

EXAMPLE : Suppose ^a coin is tossed two times.

The sample space is

$$
\mathcal{S} \;\;=\;\; \{HH\;,\;HT\;,\;TH\;,\;TT\} \,\,.
$$

Let E be the event "two Heads", i.e.,

$$
E = \{HH\}.
$$

Let F be the event "the first toss gives Heads", i.e.,

$$
F = \{HH, HT\}.
$$

Then

$$
EF = \{HH\} = E \qquad (\text{since } E \subset F).
$$

We have

$$
P(E|F) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(F)} = \frac{P(E)}{P(F)} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{\frac{2}{4}} = \frac{1}{2}
$$

.

EXAMPLE :

Suppose we draw a card from a shuffled set of 52 playing cards.

• What is the probability of drawing a Queen, given that the card drawn is of suit Hearts ?

ANSWER :

$$
P(Q|H) = \frac{P(QH)}{P(H)} = \frac{\frac{1}{52}}{\frac{13}{52}} = \frac{1}{13}.
$$

• What is the probability of drawing ^a Queen, given that the card drawn is ^a Face card ?

ANSWER :

$$
P(Q|F) = \frac{P(QF)}{P(F)} = \frac{P(Q)}{P(F)} = \frac{\frac{4}{52}}{\frac{12}{52}} = \frac{1}{3}.
$$

(Here $Q \subset F$, so that $QF = Q$.)

The probability of an event E is sometimes computed more easily

if we condition E on another event F ,

namely, from

 $P(E) = P(E(F \cup F^c))$ (Why?) $= P(EF \cup EF^c) = P(EF) + P(EF^c)$ (Why?) and

 $P(EF) = P(E|F) P(F)$, $P(EF^c) = P(E|F^c) P(F^c)$,

we obtain this *basic formula*

$$
P(E) = P(E|F) \cdot P(F) + P(E|F^c) \cdot P(F^c) .
$$

EXAMPLE :

An insurance company has these data :

The probability of an insurance claim in ^a period of one year is 4 percent for persons under age 30 2 percent for persons over age 30

and it is known that

30 percent of the targeted population is under age 30.

What is the probability of an insurance claim in ^a period of one year for ^a randomly chosen person from the targeted population?

SOLUTION :

Let the sample space S be all persons under consideration.

Let C be the event (subset of \mathcal{S}) of persons filing a claim. Let U be the event (subset of S) of persons under age 30.

Then U^c is the event (subset of S) of persons over age 30.

Thus

$$
P(C) = P(C|U) P(U) + P(C|U^c) P(U^c)
$$

= $\frac{4}{100} \frac{3}{10} + \frac{2}{100} \frac{7}{10}$
= $\frac{26}{1000} = 2.6\%$.

EXAMPLE :

Two balls are drawn from a bag with 2 white and 3 black balls. There are 20 outcomes (sequences) in S . (Why?) What is the probability that the second ball is white?

SOLUTION :

Let F be the event that the first ball is white. Let S be the event that the second second ball is white. Then

$$
P(S) = P(S|F) P(F) + P(S|F^c) P(F^c) = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{5} + \frac{2}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{5} = \frac{2}{5}.
$$

QUESTION: Is it surprising that $P(S) = P(F)$?

 $\textbf{EXAMPLE:} \ \ (\text{continued} \ \cdots)$

Is it surprising that $P(S) = P(F)$?

ANSWER : Not really, if one considers the sample space S :

$$
\left\{\n\begin{array}{cccccc}\n\mathbf{w}_1 \mathbf{w}_2, & \mathbf{w}_1 b_1, & \mathbf{w}_1 b_2, & \mathbf{w}_1 b_3, \\
\mathbf{w}_2 \mathbf{w}_1, & \mathbf{w}_2 b_1, & \mathbf{w}_2 b_2, & \mathbf{w}_2 b_3, \\
b_1 \mathbf{w}_1, & b_1 \mathbf{w}_2, & b_1 b_2, & b_1 b_3, \\
b_2 \mathbf{w}_1, & b_2 \mathbf{w}_2, & b_2 b_1, & b_2 b_3, \\
b_3 \mathbf{w}_1, & b_3 \mathbf{w}_2, & b_3 b_1, & b_3 b_2\n\end{array}\n\right\},
$$

where outcomes (sequences) are assumed equally likely.

EXAMPLE :

Suppose we draw *two cards* from a shuffled set of 52 playing cards. What is the probability that the second card is a Queen?

ANSWER :

 $P(2^{nd} \text{ card } Q) =$ $P(2^{nd} \text{ card } Q|1^{st} \text{ card } Q) \cdot P(1^{st} \text{ card } Q)$ + $P(2^{nd} \text{ card } Q|1^{st} \text{ card not } Q) \cdot P(1^{st} \text{ card not } Q)$ = 3 $\overline{51}$. 4 $\frac{1}{52}$ + 4 $\overline{51}$. 48 52 = 204 $51 \cdot 52$ = 4 52 =

QUESTION: Is it surprising that $P(2^{nd} \text{ card } Q) = P(1^{\text{st}} \text{ card } Q)$?

1

 $\overline{13}$.

A useful formula that "inverts conditioning " is derived as follows : Since we have both

$$
P(EF) = P(E|F) P(F),
$$

and

$$
P(EF) = P(F|E) P(E).
$$

If $P(E) \neq 0$ then it follows that

$$
P(F|E) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|F) \cdot P(F)}{P(E)},
$$

and, using the earlier useful formula, we get

$$
P(F|E) = \frac{P(E|F) \cdot P(F)}{P(E|F) \cdot P(F) + P(E|F^c) \cdot P(F^c)},
$$

which is known as $Bayes' formula$.

EXAMPLE : Suppose 1 in 1000 persons has ^a certain disease. A test detects the disease in 99 % of diseased persons. The test also "detects" the disease in 5 % of healthly persons. With what probability does a positive test diagnose the disease?

SOLUTION : Let

 $D \sim$ "diseased", $H \sim$ "healthy", $+ \sim$ "positive". We are given that

 $P(D) = 0.001,$ $P(+|D) = 0.99,$ $P(+|H) = 0.05$.

By Bayes' formula

$$
P(D|+) = \frac{P(+|D) \cdot P(D)}{P(+|D) \cdot P(D) + P(+|H) \cdot P(H)}
$$

=
$$
\frac{0.99 \cdot 0.001}{0.99 \cdot 0.001 + 0.05 \cdot 0.999} \approx 0.0194
$$
 (!)

EXERCISE :

Suppose 1 in 100 products has ^a certain defect.

A test detects the defect in 95 % of defective products.

The test also "detects" the defect in 10 % of non-defective products.

• With what probability does a positive test diagnose a defect?

EXERCISE :

Suppose 1 in 2000 persons has ^a certain disease.

A test detects the disease in 90 % of diseased persons.

The test also "detects" the disease in 5 % of healthly persons.

With what probability does a positive test diagnose the disease?

More generally, if the sample space S is the union of disjoint events

$$
S = F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \cdots \cup F_n ,
$$

then for any event E

 $P(F_i|E) =$ $P(E|F_i) \cdot P(F_i)$ $P(E|F_1) \cdot P(F_1) + P(E|F_2) \cdot P(F_2) + \cdots + P(E|F_n) \cdot P(F_n)$

EXERCISE :

Machines M_1, M_2, M_3 produce these proportions of a article $Production: \quad\,\, M_1\ :\ 10\ \% \,\,\ , \quad\quad\,\, M_2\ :\ 30\ \% \,\,\ , \quad\quad\,\, M_3\ :\ 60\ \% \,\, .$ The probability the machines produce *defective* articles is

 $\textit{Defects}: \quad\; M_1\;:\; 4\;\%\;\;,\qquad M_2\;:\; 3\;\%\;\;,\qquad M_3\;:\; 2\;\%\;.$

What is the probability a random article was made by machine M_1 , given that it is defective?

Independent Events

Two events E and F are *independent* if

 $P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$.

In this case

$$
P(E|F) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(F)} = \frac{P(E) P(F)}{P(F)} = P(E),
$$

(assuming $P(F)$ is not zero).

Thus

knowing F occurred doesn't change the probability of E .

EXAMPLE : Draw one card from ^a deck of 52 ^playing cards. Counting outcomes we find

 $P(\text{Face Card}) = \frac{12}{52} = \frac{3}{13},$ $P(\text{Hearts}) = \frac{13}{52} = \frac{1}{4}$, $P(\text{Face Card and Hearts}) = \frac{3}{52}$, $P(\text{Face Card}|\text{Hearts}) = \frac{3}{13}.$

We see that

 $P(\text{Face Card and Hearts}) = P(\text{Face Card}) \cdot P(\text{Hearts}) = \frac{3}{52}.$

Thus the events "Face Card" and "Hearts" are independent. Therefore we also have

 $P(\text{Face Card}|\text{Hearts}) = P(\text{Face Card}) \left(=\frac{3}{13}\right).$

Which of the following pairs of events are independent?

(1) drawing "Hearts" and drawing "Black" ,

(2) drawing "Black" and drawing "Ace" ,

(3) the event $\{2, 3, \dots, 9\}$ and drawing "Red".

EXERCISE : Two numbers are drawn at random from the set ${1, 2, 3, 4}.$

If order is not important then what is the sample space S ?

Define the following functions on S :

 $X(\ \{i,j\}) = i + j,$ $Y(\ \{i,j\}) = |i - j|.$

Which of the following pairs of events are independent?

(1) $X = 5$ and $Y = 2$, (2) $X = 5$ and $Y = 1$.

REMARK :

X and Y are examples of *random variables*. (More soon!)

EXAMPLE: If E and F are *independent* then so are E and F^c .

PROOF : $E = E(F \cup F^c) = EF \cup EF^c$, where EF and EF^c are disjoint. Thus

 $P(E) = P(EF) + P(EF^{c}),$

from which

$$
P(EFc) = P(E) - P(EF)
$$

= $P(E) - P(E) \cdot P(F)$ (since *E* and *F* independent)
= $P(E) \cdot (1 - P(F))$
= $P(E) \cdot P(Fc)$.

EXERCISE :

Prove that if E and F are independent then so are E^c and F^c .

NOTE : Independence and disjointness are different things !

Independent, but not disjoint. Disjoint, but not independent. (The six outcomes in S are assumed to have equal probability.)

If E and F are independent then $P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$. If E and F are disjoint then $P(EF) = P(\emptyset) = 0$.

If E and F are independent and disjoint then one has zero probability!

Three events E , F , and G are *independent* if

$$
P(EFG) = P(E) P(F) P(G).
$$

and

EXERCISE : Are the three events of drawing

- (1) ^a red card ,
- (2) ^a face card ,
- (3) ^a Heart or Spade ,

independent ?

EXERCISE :

A machine M consists of three *independent parts*, M_1 , M_2 , and M_3 . Suppose that

- M_1 functions properly with probability $\frac{9}{10}$,
- M_2 functions properly with probability $\frac{9}{10}$,

 M_3 functions properly with probability $\frac{8}{10}$, and that

the machine M functions if and only if its three parts function.

- What is the probability for the machine M to function?
- What is the probability for the machine M to malfunction?