Statistics for Business Elements of Probability Theory

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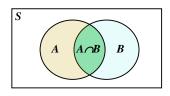
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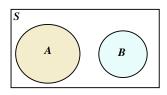
Important Terms in Probability – I

- *Random Experiment* it is a process leading to an uncertain outcome
- **Basic Outcome** (S_i) a possible outcome (the most basic one) of a random experiment
- *Sample Space* (*S*) the collection of all possible (basic) outcomes of a random experiment
- *Event* A is any subset of basic outcomes from the sample space $(A \subseteq S)$. This is our object of interest here among other things.

Important Terms in Probability – II

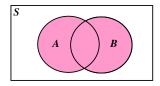


• Intersection of Events – If A and B are two events in a sample space S, then their intersection, $A \cap B$, is the set of all outcomes in S that belong to both A and B

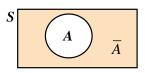


• We say that A and B are *Mutually Exclusive Events* if they have no basic outcomes in common i.e., the set $A \cap B$ is empty (\emptyset)

Important Terms in Probability – III



• Union of Events – If A and B are two events in a sample space S, then their union, $A \cup B$, is the set of all outcomes in S that belong to either A or B



• The *Complement* of an event A is the set of all basic outcomes in the sample space that do not belong to A. The complement is denoted \bar{A} or A^c

Important Terms in Probability – IV

• Events $E_1, E_2, ..., E_k$ are **Collectively Exhaustive** events if $E_1 \cup E_2 \cup ... \cup E_k = S$, i.e., the events completely cover the sample space.

Examples

Let the *Sample Space* be the collection of all possible outcomes of rolling one die $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.











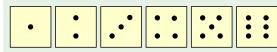
- Let A be the event "Number rolled is even": $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$
- Let **B** be the event "Number rolled is at least 4": $B = \{4, 5, 6\}$
- Mutually exclusive: A and B are **not** mutually exclusive. The outcomes 4 and 6 are common to both.

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Important Terms in Probability – V

Examples (Continued)



$$A = \{2, 4, 6\}$$
 $B = \{4, 5, 6\}$

- *Collectively exhaustive*: A and B are **not** collectively exhaustive. $A \cup B$ does not contain 1 or 3.
- *Complements*: $\bar{A} = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\bar{B} = \{1, 2, 3\}$
- *Intersections*: $A \cap B = \{4, 6\}; \bar{A} \cap B = \{5\}; A \cap \bar{B} = \{2\}; \bar{A} \cap \bar{B} = \{1, 3\}.$
- *Unions*: $A \cup B = \{2, 4, 5, 6\}; A \cup \bar{A} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} = S$.



Assessing Probability – I

• *Probability* – the chance that an uncertain event *A* will occur is always between 0 and 1.

$$\underbrace{0}_{\text{Impossible}} \le \Pr(A) \le \underbrace{1}_{\text{Certain}}$$

• There are three approaches to assessing the probability of an uncertain event:

Assessing Probability – II

Classical Definition of Probability:

Probability of an event
$$A = \frac{N_A}{N}$$

$$= \frac{\text{number of outcomes that satisfy the event } A}{\text{total number of outcomes in the sample space } S}$$

- Assumes all outcomes in the sample space are equally likely to occur.
- **Example**: Consider the experiment of tossing 2 coins. The sample space is $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$.
- Event $A = \{ \text{one } T \} = \{ TH, HT \}$. Hence $\Pr(A) = 0.5$ assuming that all basic outcomes are equally likely.
- Event $B = \{ \text{at least one } T \} = \{ TH, HT, TT \}$. So Pr(B) = 0.75.

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Assessing Probability – III

Probability as Relative Frequency:

Probability of an event
$$A = \frac{n_A}{n}$$

$$= \frac{\text{number of events in the population that satisfy event } A}{\text{total number of events in the population}}$$

► The limit of the proportion of times that an event *A* occurs in a large number of trials, *n*.



Assessing Probability – IV

- Subjective Probability: an individual has opinion or belief about the probability of occurrence of A.
 - 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.

Measuring Outcomes – I

Classical Definition of Probability

• Basic Rule of Counting: If an experiment consists of a sequence of k steps in which there are n_1 possible results for the first step, n_2 possible results for the second step, and so on, then the total number of experimental outcomes is given by $(n_1)(n_2)...(n_k)$ – tree diagram...

Measuring Outcomes – II

Classical Definition of Probability

• Counting Rule for Combinations (Number of Combinations of *n* Objects taken *k* at a time): A second useful counting rule enables us to count the number of experimental outcomes when *k* objects are to be selected from a set of *n* objects (the ordering does not matter)

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

where n! = n(n-1)(n-2)...(2)(1) and 0! = 1.

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Measuring Outcomes – III

Classical Definition of Probability

Example: Suppose we flip three coins. How many are the possible combinations with (exactly) 1 *T*?

$$C_1^3 = {3 \choose 1} = \frac{3!}{1!(3-1)!} = 3.$$

- **Example**: Suppose we flip three coins. How many are the possible combinations with *at least* 1*T*?
- **Example**: Suppose that there are two groups of questions. Group A with 6 questions and group B with 4 questions. How many are the possible half-a-dozens we can put together?

$$n = 6 + 4 = 10; \ C_6^{10} = {10 \choose 6} = \frac{10!}{6!(10 - 6)!} = 210.$$

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Measuring Outcomes – IV

Classical Definition of Probability

Example: How many possible half-a-dozens we can put together, preserving the ratio 4 : 2?

$$\binom{6}{4} \times \binom{4}{2} = 15 \times 6 = 90.$$

▶ **Probability**: What is the probability of selecting a particular half-a-dozen (with ratio 4 : 2), when we choose at random? Using the classical definition of probability

$$\frac{90}{210} = 0.4286$$



Measuring Outcomes – V

Classical Definition of Probability

• Counting Rule for Permutations (Number of Permutations of n Objects taken k at a time): A third useful counting rule enables us to count the number of experimental outcomes when k objects are to be selected from a set of n objects, where the order of selection is important

$$P_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}.$$

Measuring Outcomes – VI

Classical Definition of Probability

 Example: How many 3-digit lock combinations can we make from the numbers 1, 2, 3, and 4?
 The order of the choice is important! So

$$P_3^4 = \frac{4!}{1!} = 4! = 4(3)(2)(1) = 24.$$

Example: Let the characters A, B, Γ . In how many ways can we combine them in making triads?

$$P_3^3 = \frac{3!}{0!} = 3! = 3(2)(1) = 6.$$

These are: $AB\Gamma$, $A\Gamma B$, $BA\Gamma$, $B\Gamma A$, ΓAB , and ΓBA .

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Measuring Outcomes – VII

Classical Definition of Probability

- **Example**: Let the characters A, B, Γ, Δ, E . In how many ways is it possible to combine them into pairs?
- * If the order matters, we may have

$$P_2^5 = \frac{5!}{3!} = (5)(4) = 20.$$

* If the order does not matters, we may choose pairs

$$C_2^5 = {5 \choose 2} = \frac{5!}{2!(5-2)!} = \frac{5!}{2!3!} = 10$$



Probability Axioms

- The following *Axioms* hold
- If *A* is any event in the sample space *S*, then

$$0 \le \Pr(A) \le 1$$
.

② Let A be an event in S, and let S_i denote the basic outcomes. Then

$$\Pr(A) = \sum_{\text{all } S_i \text{ in } A} \Pr(S_i).$$

3 Pr(S) = 1.

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Probability Rules – I

• The *Complement Rule*:

$$\Pr(\bar{A}) = 1 - \Pr(A)$$
 [i.e., $\Pr(A) + \Pr(\bar{A}) = 1$].

• The *Addition Rule*: The probability of the union of two events is

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

• Probabilities and joint probabilities for two events *A* and *B* are summarized in the following table:

	В	\bar{B}	
A	$\Pr(A \cap B)$	$\Pr(A \cap \bar{B})$	$\Pr(A)$
\bar{A}	$\Pr(\bar{A} \cap B)$	$\Pr(\bar{A} \cap \bar{B})$	$\Pr(ar{A})$
	$\Pr(B)$	$\Pr(ar{\pmb{B}})$	$\Pr(S) = 1$



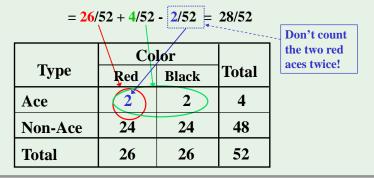
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Probability Rules – II

Example (Addition Rule)

Consider a standard deck of 52 cards, with four suits $\heartsuit \clubsuit \diamondsuit \spadesuit$. Let event A = card is an Ace and event B = card is from a red suit.

$$Pr(Red \cup Ace) = Pr(Red) + Pr(Ace) - Pr(Red \cap Ace)$$



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Conditional Probability – I

• A *conditional probability* is the probability of one event, given that another event has occurred:

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(B)} \text{ (if } \Pr(B) > 0);$$

$$\Pr(B|A) = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(A)} \text{ (if } \Pr(A) > 0)$$

Conditional Probability – II

Example (Conditional Probability)

Of the cars on a used car lot, 70% have air conditioning (AC) and 40% have a CD player (CD). 20% of the cars have both. What is the probability that a car has a CD player, given that it has AC? [Pr(CD|AC) = ?]

	CD	No CD	Total					
AC	(.2)	.5	(.7)					
No AC	.2	.1	.3					
Total	.4	.6	1.0					
$Pr(CD AC) = \frac{Pr(CD \cap AC)}{2} = \frac{.2}{.2857}$								
II(CD AC)	Pr((AC)	.7	057				

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Multiplication Rule

• The *Multiplication Rule* for two events *A* and *B*:

$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A|B) \Pr(B) = \Pr(B|A) \Pr(A)$$

Example (Multiplication Rule)

$$Pr(Red \cap Ace) = Pr(Red \mid Ace)Pr(Ace)$$

$$=\left(\frac{2}{4}\right)\left(\frac{4}{52}\right)=\frac{2}{52}$$

$$= \frac{\text{number of cards that are red and ace}}{\text{total number of cards}} = \frac{2}{52}$$

_	Color		
Type	Red	Black	Total
Ace	(2)	2	4
Non-Ace	24	24	48
Total	26	26	52

Statistical Independence – I

• Two events are *statistically independent* if and only if:

$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B).$$

- Events A and B are independent when the probability of one event is not affected by the other event.
- ► If A and B are independent, then

$$Pr(A|B) = Pr(A)$$
, if $Pr(B) > 0$;
 $Pr(B|A) = Pr(B)$, if $Pr(A) > 0$.

Statistical Independence – II

Example (Statistical Independence)

Of the cars on a used car lot, 70% have air conditioning (AC) and 40% have a CD player (CD). 20% of the cars have both. Are the events AC and CD statistically independent?

	CD	No CD	Total
AC	.2	.5	.7
No AC	.2	.1	.3
Total	.4	.6	1.0

$$P(AC \cap CD) = 0.2$$

$$P(AC) = 0.7$$

 $P(CD) = 0.4$ $P(AC)P(CD) = (0.7)(0.4) = 0.28$

$$P(AC \cap CD) = 0.2 \neq P(AC)P(CD) = 0.28$$

So the two events are not statistically independent

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Statistical Independence – III

Remark (Exclussive Events and Statistical Independence)

Let two events A and B with Pr(A) > 0 and Pr(B) > 0 which are mutually exclusive. Are A and B independent? **NO**!

To see this use a Venn diagram and the formula of conditional probability (or the multiplication rule).

• If one mutually exclusive event is known to occur, the other cannot occur; thus, the probability of the other event occurring is reduced to zero (and they are therefore dependent).

Examples – I

- Example 1. In a certain population, 10% of the people can be classified as being high risk for a heart attack. Three people are randomly selected from this population. What is the probability that exactly one of the three are high risk?
- ▶ Define *H*: high risk, and *N*: not high risk. Then

Pr(exactly one high risk) = Pr(
$$HNN$$
) + Pr(NHN) + Pr(NNH) =
= Pr(H) Pr(N) Pr(N) + Pr(N) Pr(H) Pr(N) + Pr(N) Pr(N) Pr(H)
= (.1)(.9)(.9) + (.9)(.1)(.9) + (.9)(.9)(.1) = 3(.1)(.9)^2 = .243

Examples – II

- Example 2. Suppose we have additional information in the previous example. We know that only 49% of the population are female. Also, of the female patients, 8% are high risk. A single person is selected at random. What is the probability that it is a high risk female?
- ▶ Define H: high risk, and F: female. From the example, Pr(F) = .49 and Pr(H|F) = .08. Using the Multiplication Rule:

$$\Pr(\text{high risk female}) = \Pr(H \cap F)$$
$$= \Pr(F) \Pr(H|F) = .49(.08) = .0392$$