

# Statistics for Business

## Elements of Probability Theory

Panagiotis Th. Konstantinou

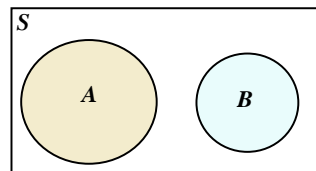
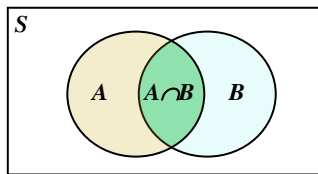
MSc in International Shipping, Finance and Management,  
Athens University of Economics and Business

**First Draft:** July 15, 2015. **This Draft:** August 28, 2023.

# Important Terms in Probability – I

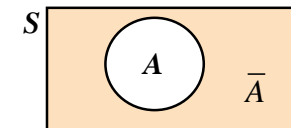
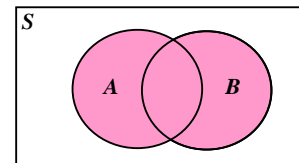
- **Random Experiment** – it is a process leading to an uncertain outcome
- **Basic Outcome** ( $S_i$ ) – a possible outcome (the most basic one) of a random experiment
- **Sample Space** ( $S$ ) – the collection of all possible (basic) outcomes of a random experiment
- **Event**  $A$  – is any subset 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



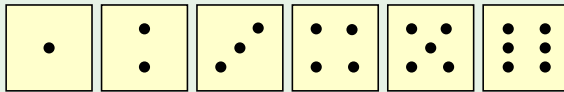
- **Union of Events** – If  $A$  and  $B$  are two events in a sample space  $S$ , then their union,  $A \cup B$ , is the set of all outcomes in  $S$  that belong to either  $A$  or  $B$
- The **Complement** of an event  $A$  is the set of all basic outcomes in the sample space that do not belong to  $A$ . The complement is denoted  $\bar{A}$  or  $A^c$ .

## Important Terms in Probability – IV

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

### Examples

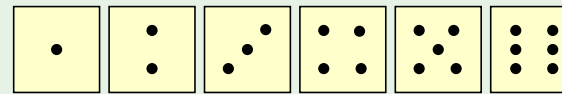
Let the **Sample Space** be the collection of all possible outcomes of rolling one die  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ .



- 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.

## Important Terms in Probability – V

### Examples (Continued)



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

- 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.

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

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

## Assessing Probability – II

### 1 Classical Definition of Probability:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Probability of an event } A &= \frac{N_A}{N} \\ &= \frac{\text{number of outcomes that satisfy the event } A}{\text{total number of outcomes in the sample space } S} \end{aligned}$$

- 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  $\Pr(B) = 0.75$ .

## Assessing Probability – III

### 2 *Probability as Relative Frequency:*

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

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

- ▶ The limit of the proportion of times that an event  $A$  occurs in a large number of trials,  $n$ .

## Assessing Probability – IV

- 3 *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  $(n_1)(n_2)\dots(n_k)$  – 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  $n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(2)(1)$  and  $0! = 1$ .

## Measuring Outcomes – III

### Classical Definition of Probability

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

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

- ▶ **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-dozen we can put together?

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



## Measuring Outcomes – IV

### Classical Definition of Probability

- ▶ **Example:** How many possible half-a-dozen 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  $A, B, \Gamma$ . In how many ways can we combine them in making triads?

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

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



# Measuring Outcomes – VII

## Classical Definition of Probability

► **Example:** Let the characters  $A, B, \Gamma, \Delta, E$ . 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

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

# Probability Axioms

• The following **Axioms** hold

1 If  $A$  is any event in the sample space  $S$ , then

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

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  $\Pr(S) = 1.$

# Probability Rules – I

• The **Complement Rule:**

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

• 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:

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

# 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.

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

$$= 26/52 + 4/52 - 2/52 = 28/52$$

Type	Color		Total
	Red	Black	
Ace	2	2	4
Non-Ace	24	24	48
<b>Total</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>52</b>

Don't count the two red aces twice!

# Conditional Probability – I

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

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

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

# 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

$$\Pr(CD|AC) = \frac{\Pr(CD \cap AC)}{\Pr(AC)} = \frac{.2}{.7} = .2857$$

# 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)

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(\text{Red} \cap \text{Ace}) &= \Pr(\text{Red} | \text{Ace}) \Pr(\text{Ace}) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{4}\right) \left(\frac{4}{52}\right) = \frac{2}{52} \\ &= \frac{\text{number of cards that are red and ace}}{\text{total number of cards}} = \frac{2}{52} \end{aligned}$$

Type	Color		Total
	Red	Black	
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

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

$$\Pr(B|A) = \Pr(B), \text{ if } \Pr(A) > 0.$$

## 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

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

$$\left. \begin{aligned} P(AC) &= 0.7 \\ P(CD) &= 0.4 \end{aligned} \right\} P(AC)P(CD) = (0.7)(0.4) = 0.28$$

$P(AC \cap CD) = 0.2 \neq P(AC)P(CD) = 0.28$   
So the two events are **not** statistically independent

## Statistical Independence – III

### Remark (Exclusive 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

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(\text{exactly one high risk}) &= \Pr(HNN) + \Pr(NHN) + \Pr(NNH) = \\ &= \Pr(H) \Pr(N) \Pr(N) + \Pr(N) \Pr(H) \Pr(N) + \Pr(N) \Pr(N) \Pr(H) \\ &= (.1)(.9)(.9) + (.9)(.1)(.9) + (.9)(.9)(.1) = 3(.1)(.9)^2 = .243 \end{aligned}$$

## 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:

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