STAT 2630 Day 1: 1/7/20

1.1 Terminology

- A random experiment is a repeatable process that results in a random *outcome*.
- The collection of all possible outcomes is called the **sample space**, and is typically denoted *C*.

Example 1.1.2 Roll one red and one white die. This is a random experiment with sample space

 $\mathcal{C} = \{(1,1), (1,2), \dots, (1,6), (2,1), (2,2), \dots, (2,6), \dots, (6,1), (6,2), \dots, (6,6)\}$

or more conveniently



Example 1.1.3 Roll one red and one white die and let *B* denote the event that the two dice sum to 7. Then *B* is an **event**: $B = \{(1,6), (2,5), (3,4), (4,3), (5,2), (6,1)\}$. Note that any event *B* is a subset of *C*.



The relative frequency by which an event *B* occurs is called its probability.

Example 1.1.3b Roll one red and one white die and take the sum of the two dice. This is a random experiment with sample space

$$C = \{2, 3, 4, \dots, 11, 12\}$$

1.2.1 Review of Set Theory

Definitions:

- 1. The **complement** of an event A, denoted A^c , is the set of all elements in C which are not in A.
- 2. If each element in A is also in B then A is a subset of B. This is denoted $A \subset B$.
- 3. The **union** of A and B is the set of all elements that are in A or in B or in both. This is denoted $A \cup B$, and represents the event that "A or B occurs".
- 4. The intersection of A and B is the set of all elements that are in both A and B. This is denoted $A \cap B$, and represents the event that "A and B occur".
- 5. DeMorgan's Laws

$$(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$$
$$(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$$

Example 1.2.1 (p. 5)

1.3 Probability

Definition 1.3.1. A probability function *P* satisfies the following:

- 1. $P(A) \ge 0$ for all events $A \subset C$.
- 2. P(C) = 1
- 3. If A_n is a mutually exclusive sequence of events (i.e. $A_m \cap A_n = \phi$ for all $m \neq n$), then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)$$

Theorems (p.13)

- 1. $P(A) = 1 P(A^c)$
- 2. $P(\phi) = 0$
- 3. If $A \subset B$, then $P(A) \leq P(B)$
- 4. $0 \le P(A) \le 1$
- 5. $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$

Definition 1.3.2. Let $C = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m\}$ be a finite sample space. If x_1, \ldots, x_m are equally likely, then

1. $P(x_i) = 1/m$ for all i = 1, 2, ..., m and

2.
$$P(A) = \frac{\#(A)}{m}$$
 for all events A.

where #(A) denotes the number of elements in A.

1.3.1 Counting Rules

Three counting rules

1. Multiplication Rule

If there are m ways to choose the first element of an ordered pair and there are n ways to choose the second element, then there are mn possible ordered pairs.

(Extension: If there are m_1 ways to choose the first element, ..., and m_k ways to choose the kth element, then there are $(m_1)(m_2)\cdots(m_k)$ possible k-tuples.

Examples

- (a) How many license plates can we make consisting of one letter of the alphabet followed by a digit between 0 and 9?
 Ans: (26)(10)=260.
- (b) How many license plates can we make consisting of three letters of the alphabet followed by four digits between 0 and 9?
 Ans: (26)(26)(26)(10)(10)(10)=4,569,760,000
- 2. Permutations

Let A be a set with n elements. How many k-tuples can be made from elements of A? Ans: $n \cdot n \cdots n = n^k$. How many k-tuples can be made if each component is distinct(i.e. no repeats)? Ans: $n(n-1)\cdots(n-(k-1))$. We call such k-tuple a **permutation**. The number of distinct permutations of k objects from n is

$$P_k^n = n(n-1)\cdots(n-(k-1)) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$
(1.3.5)

Example 1.3.3 (Birthday Problem) There are 10 people in a room. Assuming that birthdays are equally likely to fall on any of the 365 days of the year, what is the probability that at least 2 people have the same birthday?

Ans: Represent each set of birthdays by a 10-tuple of integers between 1 and 365. There are a total of $(365)^{10}$ possible outcomes. Let A be the subset where no two integers match. There are $P_{10}^{365} = 365(364) \cdots (356)$ of these. Then

$$P[\text{Matching birthdays}] = 1 - P[\text{No match}] = 1 - \frac{P_{10}^{365}}{(365)^{10}}$$

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> # COMPUTING IN R
> bday=function(n){bday=1; nm1=n-1
+ for(j in 1:nm1){bday=bday*((365-j)/365)}
+ bday<-1-bday
+ return(bday)}
> bday(10)
[1] 0.1169482
> for(i in 10:25){a[i]<-bday(i)}
> a[10:25]
[1] 0.1169482 0.1411414 0.1670248 0.1944103 0.2231025
[6] 0.2529013 0.2836040 0.3150077 0.3469114 0.3791185
[11] 0.4114384 0.4436883 0.4756953 0.5072972 0.5383443
[16] 0.5686997
```

3. Combinations

A poker hand consists of 5 randomly drawn cards drawn without repetition from a regular deck of 52 playing cards. How many different poker hands are there? This is called a **combination** of 5 taken from 52. The difference between a permutation and combination is that permutations are ordered k-tuples, i.e. the order matters. Pretending for now that order matters, there are P_5^{52} 5-tuples of cards from 52. However, each unordered poker hand corresponds to 5! ordered 5-tuples. So

$$P_5^{52} = 5! C_5^{52}$$

where C_5^{52} is the number of unordered sets of 5 cards from 52. In general, if we draw k objects from n, the number of combinations is

$$C_k^n \equiv \binom{n}{k} = \frac{P_k^n}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$
 (1.3.6)

Example 1.3.4 (Poker hands)

1. Given a 5-card poker hand, what is the probability of a flush?

$$P[\text{flush}] = \frac{\binom{4}{1}\binom{13}{5}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

2. What is the probability of getting three-of-a-kind?

$$P[\text{three of a kind}] = \frac{\binom{13}{1}\binom{4}{3}\binom{12}{2}\binom{4}{1}^2}{\binom{52}{5}}$$