Example 1. An urn contains 100 marbles: 60 blue marbles and 40 red marbles. A marble is drawn from the urn, what is the **probability** that the marble is blue?

Assumption: Each marble is just as likely to be drawn as any other.

Question: Why is this a fair assumption?

Answer: The probability of an event reflects what we know (and don't know) about event. With the information we have, the simplest assumption to make is that all the marbles are equally likely to be drawn... Because we have no reason to conclude otherwise. This is called the *principle of insufficient reason* (or the *principle of indifference*).

With more information or more experience with this urn of marbles, we may eventually choose to reconsider this assumption.

Conclusion: There are 60 blue marbles and 100 marbles total, all of which are equally likely to be drawn, the probability of drawing a blue marble is equal to the proportion of blue marbles in the urn, which is 60/100 = 60%.

Shorthand: I'll write P(E) to denote the probability of the event E. Since probability can be viewed as a proportion, we observe that (*) If an event E is certain to occur, then P(E) = 100%. (*) If E is certain to **not** occur, then P(E) = 0%. (*) In all other cases, 0% < P(E) < 100%.

> The closer P(E) is to 100% the more certain we are that E will occur.

 $\Rightarrow \qquad \begin{array}{l} \text{The closer } P(E) \text{ is to } 0\% \text{ the more} \\ \text{certain we are that } E \text{ will not occur.} \end{array}$

Observation: the event "E does not occur" is called the *complement* of E. Whenever we perform an experiment or procedure that might lead to the occurrence of E, then either E or not E must occur so their relative frequencies must add up to 100%. I.e.,

(*)
$$P(E) = 100\% - P(\text{not } E).$$

 \Rightarrow

Example 2. Suppose that the marbles in Example 1 are marked with the letter A or B. Specifically,

- 40 blue marbles are marked with an A and 20 blue marbles are marked with a B.
- 10 red marbles are marked with an A and 30 red marbles are marked with a B.

A marble is drawn at random from the urn. What is the probability that it is marked with an A?

 \Rightarrow There are 50 marbles marked with an A, so P(A) = 50/100 = 50%.

A marble is drawn from the urn, and it is observed to be blue. What is the probability that it is marked with an A?

We now have more information: the marble is known to be blue. We can ignore the red marbles and imagine that the marble was drawn from an urn of 60 blue marbles, 40 of which are marked with an A.

 \Rightarrow P(A given that the marble is blue) = 40/60 \approx 66.67%.

Definition. The probability of event E given that we know that event F has occurred is called the *conditional probability of* E given F. We use the shorthand P(E|F) for this conditional probability.

E.g., in Example 2, we found that $P(A| \text{ blue}) \approx 66.67\%$.

(*) The probability of E (without any additional information) is sometimes called the *unconditional probability* of E.

Example 3. A marble is drawn from the urn in Example 2 and you are told that it is marked with an A. What is the probability that the marble is blue?

⇒ There are 50 marbles marked with an A and 40 of these are blue, so P(blue|A) = 40/50 = 80%.

Example 4. What is the probability that a marble drawn from the (same) urn is red, if we know that it is marked with a B?

⇒ There are 50 marbles marked with a B of which 30 are red, so P(red|B) = 30/50 = 60%.

Example 5. What is the probability that a marble drawn at random from the (same) urn is red **and** marked with a B?

⇒ There are 100 marbles in the urn and 30 of them are both red and marked with a B, so P(red and B) = 30/100 = 30%.

Or...

⇒ 40% of the marbles in the urn are red, and of these red marbles, 75% are marked with a B, so

$$P(\text{red } and B) = (40\%) \times (75\%) = 30\%.$$

In other words

$$P(\text{red } and B) = P(\text{red}) \times P(B|\text{red}).$$

The Multiplication rule. Given two events E and F

$$P(E \text{ and } F) = P(E) \times P(F|E)$$

Also

$$P(E \text{ and } F) = P(F) \times P(E|F)$$

Example 6. Three cards are dealt from the top of a well-shuffled deck. What is the probability that the first card is a King and the third card is a 7?

 \Rightarrow The probability that the first card is a King is 4/52 and the probability that the third card is a 7 given that the first card is a King is 4/51, so

P(first card King and third card 7)

 $= P(\text{first card King}) \times P(\text{third card 7}|\text{first card King})$

$$=\frac{4}{52}\cdot\frac{4}{51}=\frac{16}{2652}\approx0.6\%$$

Observation: The second card is unknown and so for all intents and purposes it is just another card in the deck.

Example 7. A card is dealt from the top of a well-shuffled deck, then it is replaced, the deck is reshuffled and another card is dealt. What is the probability that the second card is a 7 given that the first card is a King?

 \Rightarrow Since the first card was replaced (and the deck was reshuffled) before the second card was dealt, the nature of the first card doesn't provide any new information about the nature of the second card, so

 $P(\text{second card 7}|\text{first card King}) = P(\text{second card 7}) = \frac{4}{52} \approx 7.7\%.$

Definition. If P(E|F) = P(E), then the events E and F are said to be (statistically) *independent*.

Comment: *Independence* is not the same as unrelated. Two events can be closely related, but statistically independent.

Example 8. A box contains 200 tickets...

- 120 of the tickets are marked with an X and 80 tickets are marked with a Y.
- Of the X-tickets, 30 are also marked with an A and the other 90 are marked with a U.
- Of the Y-tickets, 20 are also marked with an A and the other 60 are marked with a U.

One ticket is drawn at random from the box...

(*) There are 200 tickets overall and 50 = 30 + 20 of them are marked with an A, so P(A) = 25%.

(*) There are 120 X-tickets and 30 of them are marked with an A, so P(A|X) = 30/120 = 25%.

(*) The events "ticket is marked with an A" and "ticket is marked with an X" are independent (but not unrelated).

Observations.

(1) If we manipulate the multiplication rule(s)

$$P(E \text{ and } F) = P(E)P(F|E) = P(F)P(E|F)$$

we can derive formulas for conditional probabilities P(E|F) and P(F|E):

$$P(F|E) = rac{P(E ext{ and } F)}{P(E)}$$

and

$$P(E|F) = \frac{P(E \text{ and } F)}{P(F)}$$

(2) If the events E and F are independent, then P(E|F) = P(E) (and P(F|E) = P(F)). So, if E and F are independent events, then the multiplication rule reduces to

$$P(E \text{ and } F) = P(E)P(F).$$

In fact, this formula can be used as the definition of independence.

Box models.

Many questions in probability can be answered by considering an appropriate *box model*.

A box model is comprised of two components.

(i) A (hypothetical) box of tickets, each of which is labelled in various ways, and

(ii) A number of draws from the box.

We will imagine drawing tickets from the box in one of two ways.

(*) *With replacement* – after a ticket is drawn and observed, it is replaced in the box. In this case the composition of the box doesn't change from draw to draw, and the results of the different draws are *independent*.

(*) *Without replacement* – each ticket that is drawn from the box stays out of the box for the remaining draws. In this case, the composition of the box changes from draw to draw, and the results of the different draws are generally *not* independent.

Example 9. A box contains 50 tickets: 20 red tickets, 15 blue tickets, 10 green tickets and 5 orange tickets.

(*) If 3 tickets are drawn from the box at random *with* replacement, what is the probability that all three of the tickets are blue?

 \Rightarrow results of the draws are independent, so

P(1st blue and 2nd blue and 3rd blue) $= P(1\text{st blue}) \cdot P(2\text{nd blue}) \cdot P(3\text{rd blue})$ $= \frac{15}{50} \cdot \frac{15}{50} \cdot \frac{15}{50} = 2.7\%$

(*) If 3 tickets are drawn from the box at random *without* replacement, what is the probability that all three of the tickets are blue?

 \Rightarrow results of the draws are **not** independent, so

P(1st blue and 2nd blue and 3rd blue)

= P((1st blue and 2nd blue) and 3rd blue)

 $= P(1st and 2nd blue) \cdot P(3rd blue|1st and 2nd blue)$

P(1st and 2nd blue)

 $= \overbrace{P(1\text{st blue}) \cdot P(2\text{nd blue}|1\text{st blue})}^{\circ} \cdot P(3\text{rd blue}|1\text{st and 2nd blue})$ $= \frac{15}{50} \cdot \frac{14}{49} \cdot \frac{13}{48} = 2.32\%$

Example 10. A box contains 1 red ticket, 2 blue tickets and 2 yellow tickets. If one ticket is drawn randomly from the box, what is the probability that it is red *or* yellow?

Three of the five tickets in the box are either red or yellow so

P(red or yellow) = 3/5 = 1/5 + 2/5 = P(red) + P(yellow).

Example 12. Two tickets are drawn at random, with replacement from the box above. What is the probability that the first ticket is red *or* the second ticket is yellow?

It is tempting to add the probabilities, as we did above:

P((first red) or (second yellow)) = P(first red) + P(second yellow)

$$= 1/5 + 2/5$$

 $= 3/5 = 60\%.$

But this would be wrong, in this case...

The table below lists all the possible pairs of tickets that we can draw (with replacement) from our box of five tickets. In this table, y1 and y2 are the first and second yellow tickets in the box, and b1 and b2 are the first and second blue tickets.

(r,r)	(r,b1)	(r,b2)	(r,y1)	(r,y2)
(b1,r)	(b1, b1)	(b1, b2)	(b1,y1)	(b1,y2)
(b2,r)	(b2, b1)	(b2, b2)	(b2,y1)	(b2,y2)
(y1,r)	(y1,b1)	(y1,b2)	(y1,y1)	(y1, y2)
(y2,r)	(y2,b1)	(y2,b2)	(y2,y1)	(y2,y2)

(\star) The outcomes listed above are all equally likely (why?).

(\star) The first *row* of the table includes all pairs where the *first* ticket is red.

(\star) The last two *columns* include all pairs where the *second* ticket is yellow.

(\star) 13 of the 25 pairs of draws have the feature we want (first-ticket-red **or** second-ticket-yellow), so

P((first-ticket-red) or (second-ticket-yellow)) = 13/25 = 52%.

What is the difference between the two examples...?

The two events in the first example are *mutually exclusive*: if the (single) ticket we draw is red, then it cannot be yellow and vice versa.

The two events in the second example are *not mutually exclusive*. It is possible that the first ticket will be red *and* the second ticket will be yellow. In fact the chance that this happens is 2/25 = 8%.

Applying the rule we discovered in the first example to the second example results in an overestimate of the probability. The outcomes resulting in *first-ticket-red* **and** *second-ticket-yellow* are counted twice, and we need to subtract the chance of this result from the sum of the probabilities to get the right answer:

P((first-red) or (second-yellow)) = 1/5 + 2/5 - 2/25 = 13/25 = 52%.