#### **Probabilities**

In maths, we assign a number to an event to describe how likely it is to occur.

All p	robabilities li e between and
lf an	event has a probability of 0, it is
If an	event has a probability of 1, it is
	ose a number that you think resembles the probability of the following ts of occurring in your life.
•	You will sit for the HSC
•	There will be another world war
•	You will get married
•	You will be captain of the Australian cricket team
•	A human being will be cloned
•	You will turn into a dinosaur
•	You will live in another country for a while
٠.	John Howard will resign
•	You will get a job sometime before you are 30
A tead	cher is selecting a student from the class to go on an errand. For this
ituati	on, describe an event that has a probability of:
a)	zero
ь) —	one

#### Sample Space

n most situations there is more than one possible outcome.	We call the set
of possible outcome the	4

A simple example is tossing a coin where there are clearly 2 outcomes, either a head or a tail.

If H = getting a head and T= getting a tail then the sample space for tossing a coin is {H, T}.

The curly brackets (called braces) are used when we are talking about a set of things.

The size of the sample space (n) is the total number of possible outcomes.

This is the same as the number of elements in the sample space. For tossing a coin, this is 2.

Read the situations described below. For each one, list all the possible outcomes and hence find the size of the sample space.

1) A die is rolled.



2) An ape is given a simplified typewriter to type on. This typewriter only has the letters A, B and C on it. The ape types 3 letters.

3) Grace, Luke, Shani and George play a game of Monopoly. They decide that after 2 hours, they will stop and count their money and based on how much money they each have see who comes first second, third and fourth.

#### Relative Frequency

We can use data collected from an experiment to work out the of each of the possible outcomes. If we rolled a die 20 times and recorded how many times each number was rolled, we could calculate the relative frequencies of each number. For example, if the number 3 was rolled 4 times, then the relative frequency of getting a 3 is  $\frac{4}{20} = \frac{1}{5}$ .

#### Language spot:

- · each repeat of the experiment (eg. each time the die is rolled) is called a trial.
- In probability we use the word event to mean outcome. So rolling a 6 on a die is an event in probability.
- · Relative frequency is sometimes called experimental probability

Relative frequency of event X = number of trials favourable to Xtotal number trials

# Theoretical Probability

The theoretical probability of an event is the probability calculated without conducting an experiment. It is based on the number of ways a particular outcome could happen and the total number of outcomes possible.

Probability of event  $X = \underline{\text{number of outcomes favourable to } X}$ total number of possible outcomes

eg. If a die is to be rolled, the sample space is:

The theoretical probability of rolling an odd number is:

We write the probability of an event as P(E), eg. The probability of getting an odd number is P(odd).

# Relative Frequency vs Theoretical Probability

Relative frequencies can be used to give a good indication of what the theoretical probability of an event is.

What is the theoretical probability of getting a head when a coin is tossed?

If I tossed a coin 2 times, in theory how many heads should I get?

Will I necessarily get this many heads?

Is the relative frequency always the same as the theoretical probability?

What should be done to ensure that the relative frequency is close to the theoretical probability?

# Coin Tossing

Use the coin pr		
	ovided for this experiment. Ye	ou are going to toss the coin 20
times.		
1. What is the t	heoretical probability of getting	g a tail?
•		
2. How many ta	ils would you expect to get fro	om this experiment?
Toss the coin 20	0 times and use the table belo	w to keep a tally of how many
heads and tails	you get,	
	Heads	Tails
Tally		
Total	, , ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
<del>-</del> ·		·
<ol> <li>From your exr</li> </ol>	agrimant what in the relative f	
	p have the same answer for th	requency of getting a tail? his question? Why or why not?
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Does every grou  What does this to  probabilities?	p have the same answer for the	his question? Why or why not? ies as opposed to theoretical of the two outcomes are

Would you con	clude that the coin is unfair based on your results? Why or why
not?	
	6. Why would tossing the coin 2 times not be enough to determine if the outcomes are equally likely?
7. Why would	d tossing the coin 100 times be an even better test of whether the equally likely than the experiment you have done?

## Spin The Spinner

Look	k at the spinner		this ex	•			
a) P	(1)?						
b) P(	(2)?						
c) P(	3)?						
d) P(	4)?						
2. Ad	d up your answ	ers to parts	(a) to (d	) from (	Q1. What	do yc	ou notice?
3. W	ny must the total	of probabili	ties for	all outo	omoe carr		
	y made the total	or probabili	1192 101	an Ouic	omes equa	ar 17	
	<del></del>						
			·-	<u>.</u>		· <u>-</u>	
In you below.	r group, spin the	spinner 40	times.	Record	your resu	lts in	the table
	1	2	<del>-</del> <u>-</u> -		3		4
Tally							
Total							
requer	or your results in ncies of each of lly for the whole	the colours	first from	ooard a	nd calcula own exper	te the	e relative at and
		1		2	3		4
delative rom ov	e frequency vn experiment						
elative om cla	frequency ass results	<u> </u>	1.				-
		1	_L		1	1	

How do the results compare with the theoretical probabilities from Q1?
to algebra to the theoretical
Do the class results give relative frequencies closer to the theoretical
robabilities? Why might this be the case?

## ାPlaying Cards

You are provided with an ordinary pack of playing cards for this experiment.

- 1. How many cards are in a pack?
- 2. How many red cards are there?



- 3. How many cards of each suit (clubs, hearts, diamonds, spades) are there?
- 4. If a card is drawn at random from the pack, what is the probability that it will be:
- a) the 3 of spades?
- b) a black card?
- c) a club?
- d) a picture card (Jack, Queen or King)?
- e) a 7?
- f) a red Ace?
- 5. Shuffle the pack and have someone choose a card at random. Design a table to record whether the chosen card is a number card (including the Ace) or a picture card. Take turns at repeating this experiment and continue until 40 trials have been done.

6. From your experiment, what is the experimental probability of choosing a
picture card at random?
Is your answer close to the theoretical probability calculated in Q4?
What might account for the difference between your experimental probability
the theoretical probability?
and the theoretical pro-
7. Comment on this statement: "When choosing a card from a pack, since you either get a number or a picture card, the probability of getting a number card to 50-50."
15 00 00.
8. Two friends each have a pack of 52 cards. They each draw a card at random from the pack. What is the probability that they have drawn:
a) the same sult?
b) the same number?
c) the same card?

## **Dropping Toothpicks**

For this activity you will need to use the sheet marked with parallel lines. The
distance between the lines is exactly the length of the toothpick. Drop the
cothpick onto the sheet from a height of at least 1 metre. Record in a
requency distribution table the number of times the toothpick landed touching
t line and the number of times it landed not touching a line.

•	i i		
2. What is 2+π?			
Compare this with your ans	wer to O1 What	do you suppost?	

## · PIN Numbers

Peter has forgotten the PIN code for his mobile phone, but he remembers that it contains the digits 8, 7, 5, 2 in some order.

You have been provided with a bag containing 4 cards, each with one of the digits 8, 7, 5, 2 on it. You are to pull the digits out one at a time without looking to form a 4-digit PIN number.

1. List all the possible 4-digit PIN numbers that could be formed in this way (this is the sample space).

2. How many possible PIN numbers could be made using each of these digits
once?
3. How many of these are even?
o. How many or mose are event.
the District on his
4. If Peter guesses his PIN, what is the probability of him getting it right on his
first guess?
Mobile phones give you 3 chances to put in the correct PIN before the SIM
•
card locks. What are Peter's chances of guessing correctly without his SIM
•

5. What is the probability that	t the number:
a) begins with 5?	
- :	:



b) is less than 4000?

c) is greater than 4000?

d) is at least 9000?

e) is divisible by 4? (A number is divisible by 4 if the last 2 digits are divisible by 4).

6. What do you notice about the sum of answers (b) and (c) from Q5? Why is
this the case?

7. Complete 20 trials of the experiment and record your results in the table below.

TRIAL	RESULT	TRIAL	RESULT
i		- 11	
2		12	
3		13	
4		14	
5		15	
6		16	
7		17	
8		18	
9		19	
10		20	

8. What is your experimental probability of getting a number divisible by 4?

#### Even or Odd

Children often use the game "scissors, paper, rock" to make a decision such as who goes first in a game. In "scissors, paper, rock", however, it is possible to draw (eg. You both do rock, nobody wins so you have to do it again). To avoid this problem, a simpler game can be played, "even or odd". This game works in a very similar way to scissors paper rock, except for a few differences:



- Instead of doing scossors, paper or rock, each person does either a closed fist or has their index finger out
- To decide who wins, the total number of fingers are counted. A closed fist counts as 0, while the index finger counts as 1.
- Before starting, it is agreed who will be even (ie. if the result is even you win) and who will be odd (ie. if the result is odd you win). [NOTE: a total of zero is considered even].

Try the game out to see how it works.

1. List the possible outcomes for Per	rson 1 and Person 2 playing the game
"even or odd".	•

3. Play 10 tric	als of the game	and keep a r	ecord of who v	vìns each time.
				•

#### Octahedral Die

You are provided with an octahedral die for this experiment. What is the probability of rolling any particular number?

Roll the die 40 times and record your results in a table. Think what your column headings should be.

r		T	
1			)
		1	
ſ		1	
1		1	
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1 '	1	1	
1			
1		1	
1	1	1	
1	1	F	
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1			
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1	1	1	
I	i	ł	
I .	1 .	ſ	
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1 i	1		
1 1	1		
ı I			
ı I			

Collect the results from another group and record their results and the combined results in this table:

Score	Other Group	Total For Both Groups	Relative Frequency
1			
2			<del></del>
3	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
4	<u> </u>		
5			
6			
7			
8			•

Are your relative frequencies closer to the theoretical probabilities after	
combining results with another group? Why or why not?	

#### Balls in a Bag

A bag contains 20 balls. When a ball is drawn at random we know that:

P(green) =  $\frac{2}{5}$  P(white) =  $\frac{1}{20}$  P(black) =  $\frac{1}{20}$ 

Design a bag that fits this description, and write how many of each colour are in the bag.

Green

White

Black

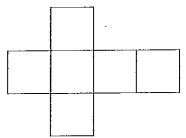
#### Cube

You are provided with a net of a cube and some coloured pencils. Colour the faces of the cube so that when thrown, it has:

P(purple) =  $\frac{1}{2}$  P(yellow) =  $\frac{1}{3}$ 

P(orange) =  $\frac{1}{6}$ 

Cut out and assemble the cube, and copy your colouring scheme onto the miniature net below.



# Design a Spinner

Using the circle below, design a spinner with coloured sectors with the following probabilities:

$$P(blue) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$P(red) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(yellow) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(green) = \frac{1}{6}$$

