

- ¹ Admin: - Mock mid-term exam in workshops (1hr)
- Collaboratively assessing solutions (1hr)

Recap: Counting, cardinality, different ops, permutations,
combinations,
stars + bars,
pigeon-hole principle

C2. Probability

Notes originally prepared by Judy-anne Osborn and Pierre Portal.
Editing, expansion and additions by Malcolm Brooks.

Text Reference (Epp) 3ed: Sections 6.7-9
 4ed: Sections 9.7-9
 5ed: Sections 9.7-9

(Only the last part of §9 on 'independence' is relevant for this course)

A thought experiment:



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- We say it is

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Heads}) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Why?

Methods of assigning probabilities

Method 1: Use relative frequencies

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} same answer
Lol N

- Eg. assume **equally likely outcomes**

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- Slightly fewer than half the coin-tosses resulted in 'H' (for 'Heads').
- A 'longer run' may give different (better?) results.
- There is much more to be said on 'relative frequencies', but for this course we will focus on making 'models'.

Law of Large Numbers

A model for coin tossing

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for

Heads or Tails.

$$p + p = 1$$

A model for coin tossing: equal likelihood

The two possibilities are just as likely as each other.

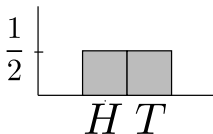
$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Heads}) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \mathbb{P}(\text{Tails}) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \mathbb{P}(\text{win}) = 0$$

A model for coin tossing: equal likelihood

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We can represent this situation graphically as



prob. density

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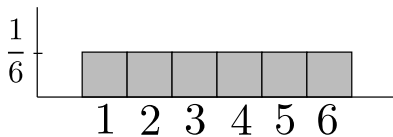
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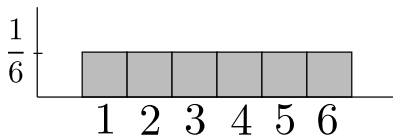
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An equal likelihood model for die-tossing



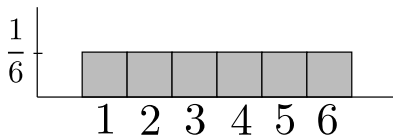
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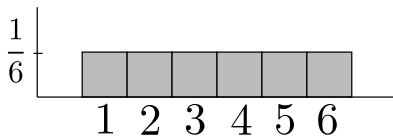
What's an event? Any subset of the sample space.

Eg. an event is

$\{3, 6\}$

"The roll is divisible by 3"

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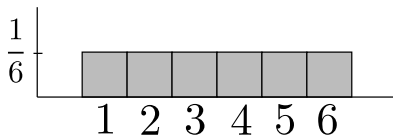
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$$\mathbb{P}(\{3, 6\}) = \frac{|\{3, 6\}|}{|\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}|} = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

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uniform distribution
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where $|E|$ is the number of outcomes in E , and
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single events

$$\text{i.e. } \sum_{s \in S} \mathbb{P}(\{s\}) = 1$$

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⇒ • ' $\mathbb{P}(E) = 0$ ' implies E is impossible.*

*For infinite sets, this isn't necessarily true. 'Measure theory' explains why.

MATH3029 "probability" Harry

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$$\mathbb{P}(\text{number not divisible by 3}) = 1 - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3} = \frac{|E^c|}{5}$$

The sum of the probabilities of all outcomes is

$$\mathbb{P}(\{1\}) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(\{6\}) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = 1$$

The Sum and Product Rules for Probability

The Sum Rule

Sum Rule: If events E_1, \dots, E_n are mutually disjoint, i.e. $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$ for all $i \neq j$, then

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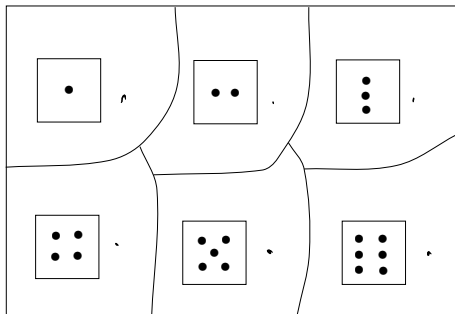
$$\mathbb{P}(E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_n) = \mathbb{P}(E_1) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

Disjoint events exclude one another in the sense that they cannot happen at the same time.

Sum Rule for probability: another die-tossing example

What is the probability that the outcome from a single toss of a die is an odd number?

The six possible outcomes are all disjoint (cannot occur simultaneously).



Thus the sum rule applies.

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$\{ \cdot, \vdots, \ddots \}$

- The probability that the die lands with an odd number up is

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr\left(\boxed{\cdot}\right) + \Pr\left(\boxed{\vdots}\right) + \Pr\left(\boxed{\ddots}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

by the sum rule.

Sum Rule for probability. Example: Non-zero numbers

Let $R_n = \{-n, \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

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We assume that we are equally likely to choose any element of R_n .

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$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P}(\text{the number is negative}) + \mathbb{P}(\text{the number is positive}) \\ &= \frac{n}{2n+1} + \frac{n}{2n+1} = \frac{2n}{2n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

The Product Rule

- **Product Rule:** If events E_1, \dots, E_n are 'independent' of each other; then the probability of composite event ' E_1 and E_2 and ... and E_n ' is

$$\mathbb{P}(E_1 \text{ and } E_2 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } E_n) = \mathbb{P}(E_1) \times \mathbb{P}(E_2) \times \dots \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

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*almost
(defn of
independent)*

causal

- ↘ → • To see what we mean by 'independent', consider a procedure that can be broken down into successive tasks, each of which could be done in a number of ways. If the choice of the way to do any one task had no influence on the choice of ways to do any other of the tasks, then the tasks would be independent.

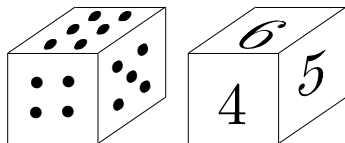
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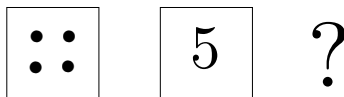
$$\mathbb{P}(E_1 \times E_2 \times \dots \times E_n) = \mathbb{P}(E_1) \times \mathbb{P}(E_2) \times \dots \mathbb{P}(E_n).$$

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- A formal definition of independence will be given later.

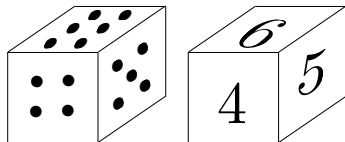
Product Rule probability example: Tossing two dice



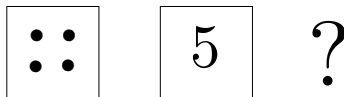
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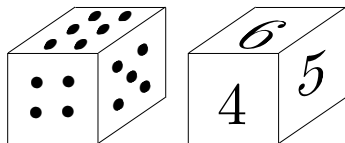


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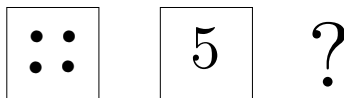


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- We assume that the outcomes for each die are **independent**, i.e that they don't influence one another at all.
- Hence the product rule applies.

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr\left(\boxed{\begin{smallmatrix} \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{smallmatrix}} \quad \boxed{5}\right) \\ &= \Pr\left(\boxed{\begin{smallmatrix} \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{smallmatrix}}\right) \times \Pr\left(\boxed{5}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} \\ &= \frac{1}{36} \end{aligned}$$

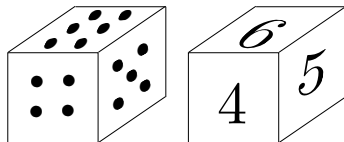
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An example of the Sum and Product Rules used together

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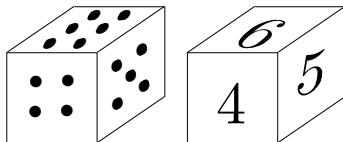
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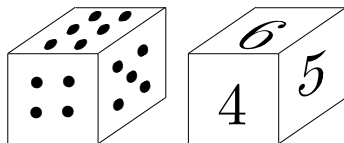
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- To obtain an odd total, either
 - the first die must give odd and the second die even; or
 - the first die must give even and the second die odd.
- These two possibilities are **disjoint**, so the sum rule applies:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{odd total}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{1st odd, 2nd even}) + \mathbb{P}(\text{1st even, 2nd odd})$$

- But now consider $\mathbb{P}(1\text{st odd}, 2\text{nd even})$. The events
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$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(1\text{st odd}, 2\text{nd even}) &= \mathbb{P}(1\text{st odd}) \times \mathbb{P}(2\text{nd even}) \\ &= \frac{3}{6} \times \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}\end{aligned}$$

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- Similarly, $\mathbb{P}(\text{1st even, 2nd odd}) = \frac{1}{4}$

- But now consider $\mathbb{P}(\text{1st odd, 2nd even})$. The events “1st odd” and “2nd even” are **independent** of each other; they don't affect each other.
- Hence the **product rule** applies to this part of the problem:

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- Similarly, $\mathbb{P}(\text{1st even, 2nd odd}) = \frac{1}{4}$
- Putting it all together,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(\text{odd total}) &= \mathbb{P}(\text{1st odd, 2nd even}) + \overset{\text{Sum}}{\mathbb{P}(\text{1st even, 2nd odd})} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

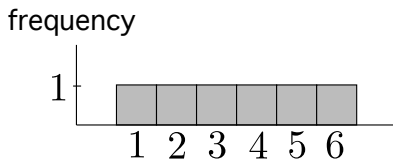
Density and Distribution

Frequency Histograms

- One way to visualize all possible outcomes of an experiment together is to draw a **frequency histogram**.

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- We have already seen some simple examples, like tossing a die with equally likely possible outcomes: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6:

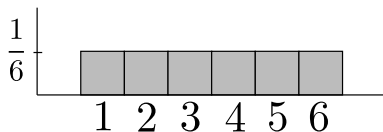


Probability Density Functions

- The **Probability Density Function** (or just **Density**) is obtained from a Frequency Histogram by **normalizing**. We divide the vertical axis by the total number of outcomes.

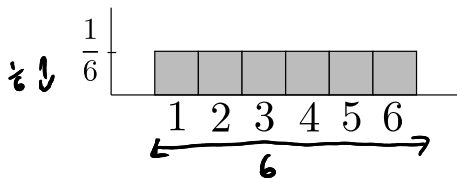
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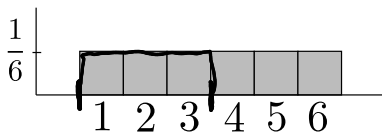
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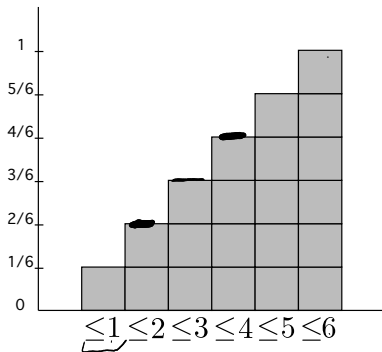
What is the area under the curve? **Why?** *Because area = probability*

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$$P(\text{between } 3 \text{ and } 4)$$

$$P(\leq 4) - P(\leq 2)$$

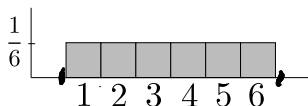
- We will only use of cumulative distributions when looking up probability values in tables or online.

Uniform Distribution

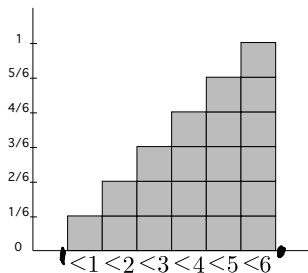
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- Uniform density:



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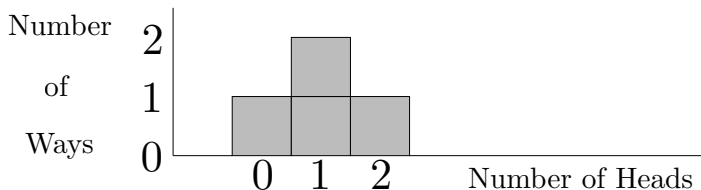
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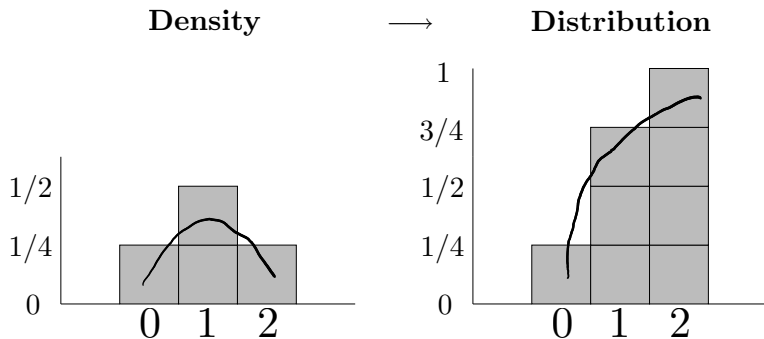


Two fair coins: Density and Distribution Functions

- Assuming a fair coin (equally likely outcomes), divide out by the size of the sample space to get density function.

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Binomial Probability Distributions

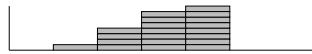
The family of functions that come from coin-tossing are all examples of **binomial** densities/distributions:

$n =$ ~~Density~~ \rightarrow ~~Distribution~~

$n = 2 :$



$n = 3 :$

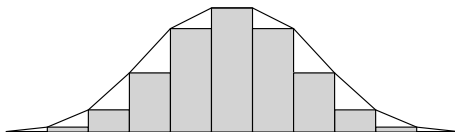


$n = 4 :$



Bell-like curves for large n

As n gets larger and larger these **binomial probability density functions** get closer and closer to the famous Bell Curve:

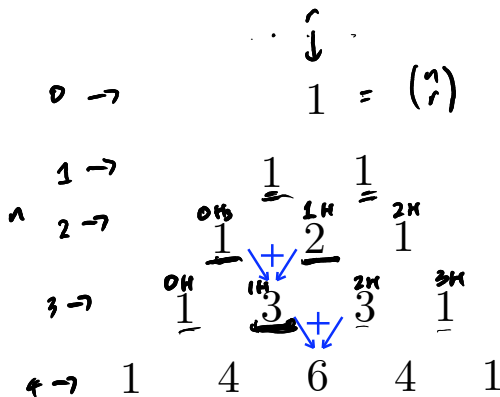


which is the so-called **'Normal' Probability Density Function**.

Central limit theorem

Pascal's Triangle and Coin Tossing

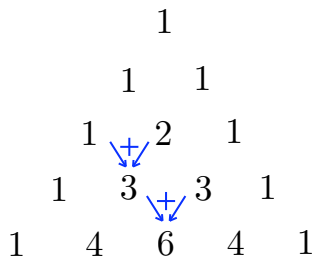
Pascal's Triangle



$$\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r} + \binom{n-1}{r-1}$$

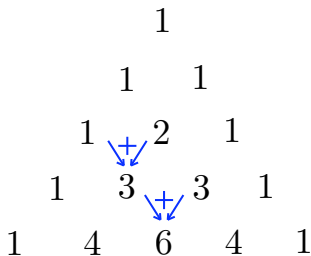
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- Each row is generated by expanding a binomial, eg:

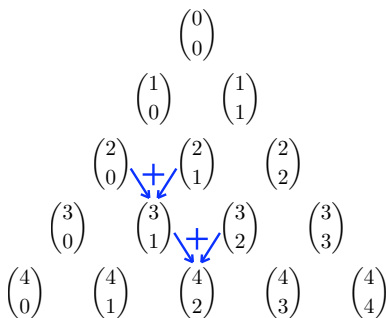
$$(y+x)^4 = y^4 + 4y^3x + 6y^2x^2 + 4yx^3 + x^4$$

$$(H+T)^2 = HH + HT + TH + TT$$

$$= \checkmark HH + 3 HT + \checkmark TT$$

Pascal's Triangle

- We've seen these numbers before in 'combinations': $\binom{n}{k}$:



The Binomial Theorem

- The Binomial Theorem states that

$$(y + x)^n = \binom{n}{0} y^n x^0 + \binom{n}{1} y^{n-1} x^1 + \cdots + \binom{n}{n} y^0 x^n$$

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and gives the rows of Pascal's Triangle in its coefficients.

Idea of Proof of Binomial Theorem:

$$(y + x)(y + x)(y + x)$$

$$= yyy + yyx + yxy + yxx + xyy + xyx + xxy + xxx$$

$$= \underbrace{yyy}_{\binom{3}{0} \text{ } x\text{'s}} + \underbrace{yyx + yxy + xyy}_{\binom{3}{1} \text{ } x\text{'s}} + \underbrace{yxx + xyx + xxy}_{\binom{3}{2} \text{ } x\text{'s}} + \underbrace{xxx}_{\binom{3}{3} \text{ } x\text{'s}}$$



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- I.e. what is

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n}?$$

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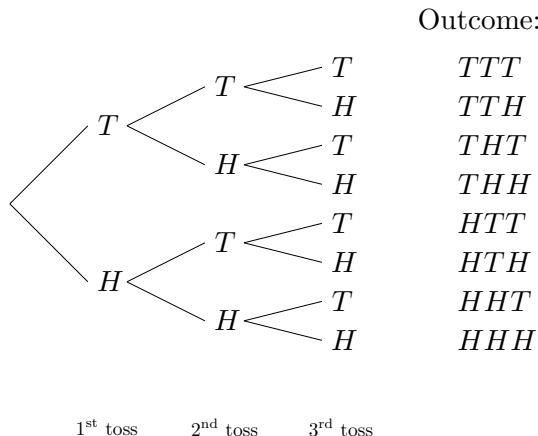
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- Probabilities like these can be looked up in tables rather than calculated. Examples will be found in worksheet and assignment questions.

Tree Diagrams, Fair and Unfair Coins, and the General Binomial Distribution

A tree representation of Coin-tossing

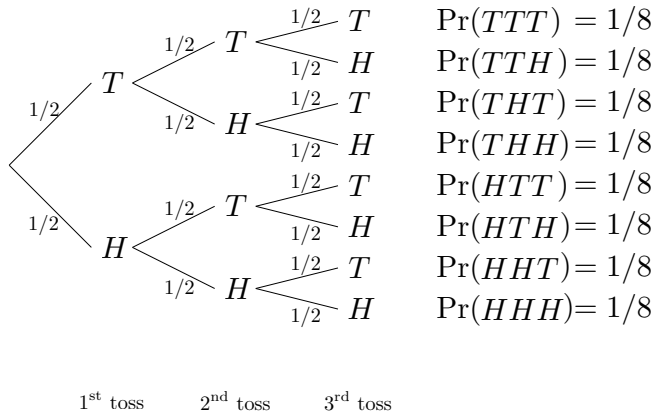
- Another way to list all the outcomes of an event is to draw a **Tree Diagram of the Possibilities**



Three tosses of a fair coin

- This allows us to deal with fair coins, as before:

Outcome:



Three tosses of a fair coin

Collecting possibilities from the tree and using the sum rule gives

$$\mathbb{P}(0\text{heads}) = \frac{1}{8}, \quad \mathbb{P}(1\text{head}) = \frac{3}{8}, \quad \mathbb{P}(2\text{heads}) = \frac{3}{8}, \quad \mathbb{P}(3\text{heads}) = \frac{1}{8}$$

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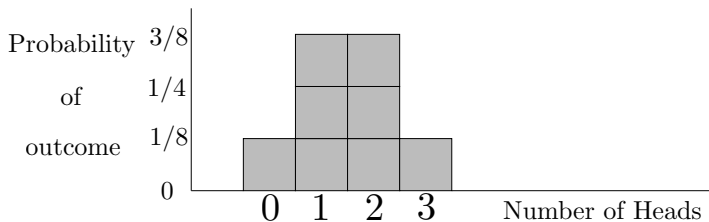
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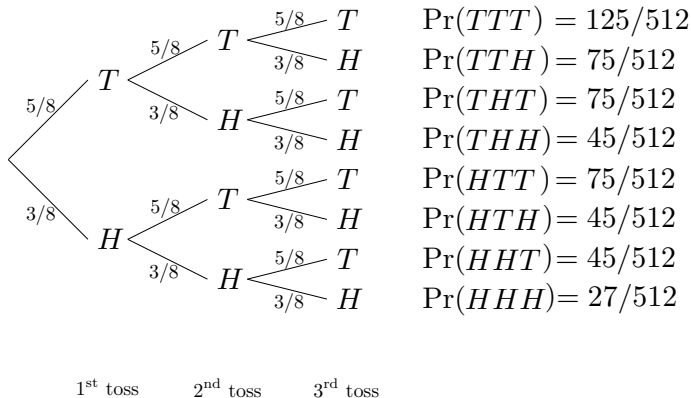
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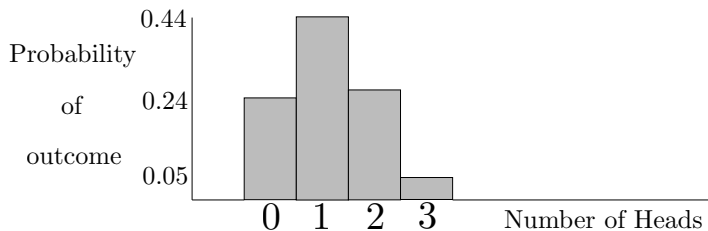
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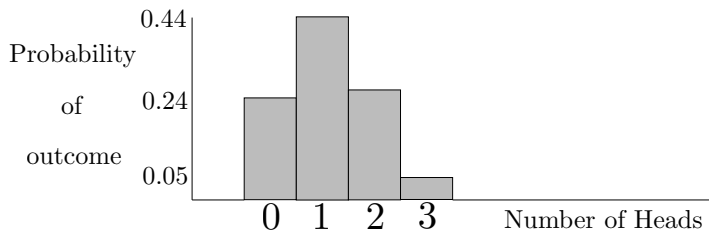


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The general binomial density function for n trials (e.g. tosses) with probability p of a success (e.g. head) on each trial is given by

$$\mathbb{P}(k \text{ successes}) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}.$$

Review of Probability Density Functions with More Challenging Examples

Probability for equally likely outcomes (Review)

For a finite non-empty set S and $E \subseteq S$, the **probability of E for equally likely outcomes** is the number

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Thus

$$\mathbb{P}(E) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(E^c) \sim 0.97.$$

There is a 97% chance that two people will have the same birthday.

Random Variables, Expected Values and Independence

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Example:

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$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)0 + \left(\frac{3}{8}\right)1 + \left(\frac{3}{8}\right)2 + \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)3 = \frac{12}{8} = 1.5.$$

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Thus the expected value of X is just the mean (average) number of heads obtained when three coins are tossed.

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$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{j=1}^6 \frac{1}{6} \times X(j) = 5 \left(\frac{1}{6} \times -2 \right) + \left(\frac{1}{6} \times 8 \right) = \frac{-2}{6} = -\frac{1}{3}.$$

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If you play this game 30 times, you should expect to *lose* $30(\frac{1}{3}) = 10$ dollars.

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 G, K are **not** independent (again as we would expect) since

$$\mathbb{P}(G \cap K) = \mathbb{P}(\{HT, TH\}) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2} \neq \frac{9}{16} = \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4} = \mathbb{P}(G) \times \mathbb{P}(K).$$

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and hence the events $\{X=a\}, \{Y=b\}$ are independent because

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Thus, by the above definition, X, Y are independent.

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Using Table 2 it now follows that, for any $a \in \{0, 1\}$ $b \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ the events $\{X=a\}, \{Y=b\}$ are independent because

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 Let $X, Y : S \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ be random variables as follows:

Table 1: Definition of X and Y

s	1	2	3	4	5	6
$s \bmod 2 = X(s)$	1	0	1	0	1	0
$s \bmod 3 = Y(s)$	1	2	0	1	2	0

Table 2: Probabilities

a	0	1	2
$\mathbb{P}(\{X=a\})$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
$\mathbb{P}(\{Y=a\})$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$

The columns in Table 1 are all different and cover all possible combinations of values of X, Y . This ensures that each pair of values $(X, Y) = (a, b)$ relates to a unique s (Table 3), and hence has probability $\mathbb{P}(s)$ ($= \frac{1}{6}$).

Table 3: s

$b =$	0	1	2
$a=0$	6	4	2
$a=1$	3	1	5

Using Table 2 it now follows that, for any $a \in \{0, 1\}$ $b \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ the events $\{X=a\}, \{Y=b\}$ are independent because

$$\mathbb{P}(\{X=a\} \cap \{Y=b\}) = \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3} = \mathbb{P}(\{X=a\}) \times \mathbb{P}(\{Y=b\}).$$

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Thus, by definition, the random variables X, Y are independent.

Non-independent random variables — Example

Let's modify the previous example just a little:

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Let $Y, Z : S \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ be random variables as follows:

Table 1: Definition of Y and Z

s	1	2	3	4	5	6
$s \bmod 3 = Y(s)$	1	2	0	1	2	0

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$\mathbb{P}(\{Y=a\})$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0

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Notice that, in the Table 1, many potential columns are not present.

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s	1	2	3	4	5	6	a	0	1	2	3
$s \bmod 3 = Y(s)$	1	2	0	1	2	0	$\mathbb{P}(\{Y=a\})$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0
$s \bmod 4 = Z(s)$	1	2	3	0	1	2	$\mathbb{P}(\{Z=a\})$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$

Notice that, in the Table 1, many potential columns are not present. For example there is no value of s for which $Y(s)=0$ and $Z(s)=0$. Using this, and also Table 2, we now have

$$\mathbb{P}(\{Y=0\} \cap \{Z=0\}) = 0 \neq \frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{6} = \mathbb{P}(\{Y=0\}) \times \mathbb{P}(\{Z=0\}),$$

and so the events $\{Y=0\}$, $\{Z=0\}$ are not independent.

It follows that the random variables Y, Z are not independent.

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$s \bmod 4 = Z(s)$	1	2	3	0	1	2	$\mathbb{P}(\{Z=a\})$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$

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Challenge: Are the random variables X, Z independent?

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$s \bmod 4 = Z(s)$	1	2	3	0	1	2	$\mathbb{P}(\{Z=a\})$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$

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and so the events $\{Y=0\}$, $\{Z=0\}$ are not independent.

It follows that the random variables Y, Z are not independent.

Challenge: Are the random variables X, Z independent?

END OF SECTION C2