What is probability?

Probability is simply how likely something is to happen.

Example If a coin is randomly flipped, how likely it lands on head or tail?

Why we should learn probability?

- Nowadays, randomness becomes prevalent in real life.
 - e.g., the revenue of apple store at APM next month is random
 - e.g., the length a patient with cancer can survive is random
- Probability is the fundamental **tool** for modelling, analyzing randomness
 - e.g., what is the most likely revenue of apple store at APM next month?
 - e.g., what is the most likely length a patient with cancer can survive?
- Probability is the fundamental tool for statistics, machine learning, etc.

Chapter 1. Probability by Combinatorial Analysis

Outline

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Principle of Counting

1.3 Permutations

1.4 Combinations

1.5 Multinomial Coefficients

1.6 Number of Integer Solutions

Simple intuitive examples to understand probability

Example If we randomly pick up a ball in the following box, what is the chance of selecting a red ball?



we can view this chance as probability.

Solution

We see there are 9 balls in the box and 4 of them are red. Intuitively, we know the chance of selecting a red ball is 4/9.

$$\frac{4}{9} =$$

Simple intuitive examples to understand probability

Example If we randomly pick up a ball in the following box, what is the chance of selecting a red ball?



4 5 6

7 8 9

we can view this chance as probability.

Solution

We see there are 9 balls in the box and 4 of them are red. Intuitively, we know the chance of selecting a red ball is 4/9.

$$\frac{4}{9} = \frac{4 \text{ outcomes are red balls } \{3,4,7,9\}}{9 \text{ possible outcomes } \{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}}$$

Class Discussion

If we randomly pick up 2 balls simultaneously in the following box, what is the chance that the 2 selected balls are both red?

- 1 2 3
- 4 5

Choose your answer?

Choice A

 $\frac{1}{4}$

Choice B

 $\frac{1}{5}$

Choice C

 $\frac{1}{10}$

Example A communication system is to consist of n identical antennas lined up in a linear order. The system can receive signals as long as no two consecutive antennas are defective. If it turns that exactly m of the n antennas are defective, what is the probability that the system can receive signals.

Signal is receivable















Signal is not receivable















Example A communication system is to consist of n identical antennas lined up in a linear order. The system can receive signals as long as no two consecutive antennas are defective. If it turns that exactly m of the n antennas are defective, what is the probability that the system can receive signals.

Solution

We will be able to solve this problem in more general (values of m and n) case after this Chapter.

Let us solve the problem in the special case where n = 4 and m = 2. In this case, there are 6 possible system configurations, namely,

 $0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0$

 $0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1$

 $1\quad 0\quad 1\quad 0$

0 0 1 1

 $1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1$

 $1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0$

where 1 means that the antenna is working and 0 that it is defective. Note that the system can receive signals in the first 3 arrangements and fails in the remaining 3, it seems reasonable to take $\frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$ as the desired probability.

Continue from last page...

For general n and m, we could regard the probability as

Probability that system works = $\frac{\text{number of configurations that the system works well}}{\text{total number of all possible configurations}}$

Why counting matters

From the above example, we see that it would be useful to have an effective method for counting the number of ways that things can occur. The mathematical theory of counting is formally known as *combinatorial analysis*

1.2 Principle of Counting Concepts

Experiment

We use the concept "experiment" to denote a process whose outcome is random

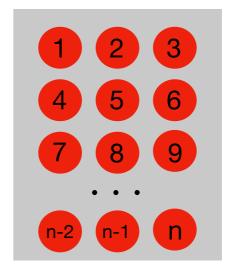
Example of experiment

- e.g. randomly pick a number from {10,100,1000,10000}
- e.g. randomly toss a coin
- e.g. randomly roll a die

Theorem (The basic principle of counting). Suppose that two experiments are to be performed. Then if experiment 1 can result in any one of m possible outcomes and if for each outcome of experiment 1 there are n possible outcomes of experiment 2, then together there are mn possible outcomes of the two experiments.

Experiment 1

Experiment 2



Theorem (The basic principle of counting). Suppose that two experiments are to be performed. Then if experiment 1 can result in any one of m possible outcomes and if for each outcome of experiment 1 there are n possible outcomes of experiment 2, then together there are mn possible outcomes of the two experiments.

Proof We prove it by enumerating all the possible outcomes of the two experiments as follows:

$$(1,1)$$
 $(1,2)$ \cdots $(1,n)$
 $(2,1)$ $(2,2)$ \cdots $(2,n)$
 \vdots \vdots \vdots
 $(m,1)$ $(m,2)$ \cdots (m,n)

where we say that the outcome is (i, j) if experiment 1 results in its *i*th possible outcome and experiment 2 then results in the *j*th of its possible outcomes. Hence, the set of possible outcomes consists of m rows, each row containing n elements, which proves the result.

Example A small community consists of 10 women, each of whom has 3 children. If one woman and one of her children are to be chosen as mother and child of the year, how many different choices are possible?

Solution

Example In a class of 40 students, we choose a president and a vice president. There are

$$40 \times 39 = 1560$$

possible choices.

Theorem (The generalized basic principle of counting). If r experiments that are to be performed are such that the first one may result in any of n_1 possible outcomes, and if for each of these n_1 possible outcomes there are n_2 possible outcomes of the second experiment, and if for each of the possible outcomes of the first two experiments there are n_3 possible outcomes of the third experiment, and if ... then there is a total of $n_1n_2 \cdots n_r$ possible outcomes of the r experiments.

Proof is simple and skipped.

Example How many different 7-place license plates are possible if the first 3 places for letters and the final 4 places by numbers?

Solution:



Example How many different 7-place license plates are possible if the first 3 places for letters and the final 4 places by numbers and repetition among letters or numbers were prohibited?

Definition

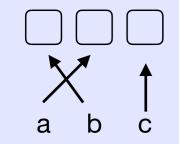
How many different *ordered arrangements* of the letters a, b, c are possible. By direct enumeration we see that there are 6:

abc acb bac bca cab cba

Each arrangement is known as a *permutation*.

For 3 objects, there are 6 possible permutations. This can be explained by the basic principle, since the first object in the permutation can be any of the 3, the second object in the permutation can then be chosen from any of the remaining 2, and the third object in the permutation is then chosen from the remaining one. Thus there are $3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 6$ permutations.

Whole experiment



put 3 distinct objects into 3 positions

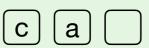
Experiment 1



a b

put 1 object into 1st position

Experiment 2



b put 1 object

into 2nd position

Experiment 3

c (a) (t

put 1 object into 3rd position

Theorem

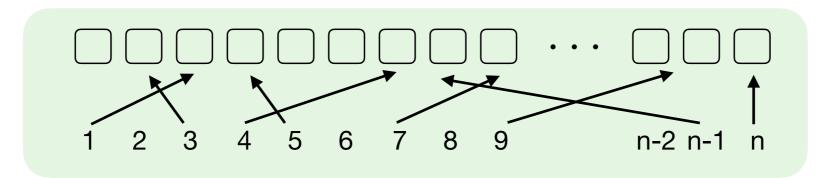
Suppose there are n (distinct) objects, then the total number of different arrangements is (Number of different permutations)

$$n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 3\cdot 2\cdot 1=n!$$

with the convention that

$$0! = 1.$$

Proof The experiment is equivalent to arranging n distinct objects into n positions.



To fill the 1st position, there are n choices.

To fill the 2nd position, there are n-1 choices.

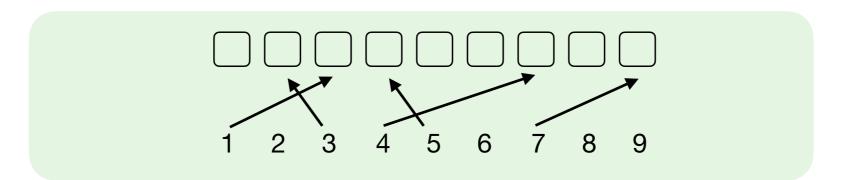
To fill the 3rd position, there are n-2 choices.

In total

 $n \times (n-1) \times (n-2) \times \cdots \times 1 = n!$

To fill the nth position, there are 1 choices.

Example Seating arrangement in a row: 9 people sitting in a row. There are 9! = 362,880 ways.



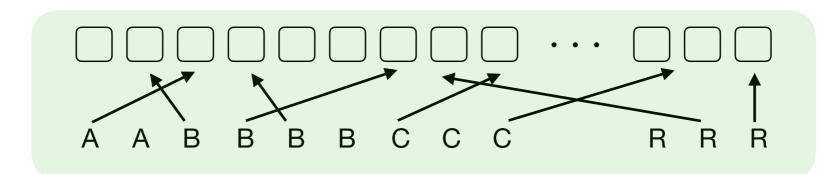
Theorem

For *n* objects of which n_1 are alike, n_2 are alike, . . . , n_r are alike, there are

$$\frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_r!}$$

different permutations of the n objects.

Proof



First, we view these n objects as all distinct objects and permute them, there are n! permutations However, there are many objects are alike, so some permutations are essentially the same but counted more than once.

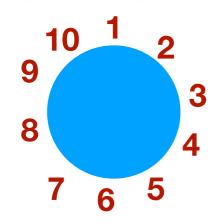
For instance, consider the permutation ABBABBCCC......RRR

When we permute all As, or all Bs, or all Cs, ... or all Rs, essentially they are the same permutation. In other words, each permutation is counted $n_1!n_2!\cdots n_r!$ times.

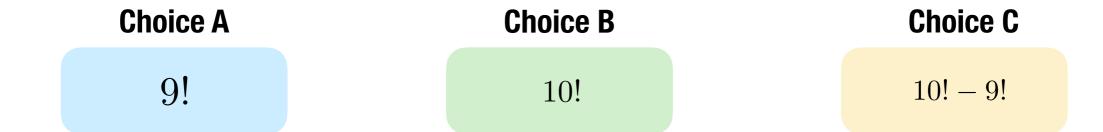
Example How many ways to rearrange Mississippi?

Seating in circle

Example (Seating in circle). 10 people sitting around a round dining table. It is the relative positions that really matters – who is on your left, on your right. No. of seating arrangements is

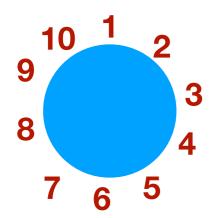


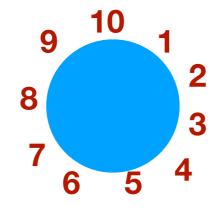
Choose your answer?

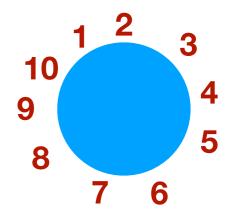


Seating in circle

Example (Seating in circle). 10 people sitting around a round dining table. It is the relative positions that really matters – who is on your left, on your right. No. of seating arrangements is







Rotating it clock wisely gives the same arrangements

$$\frac{10!}{10} = 9$$

Seating in circle

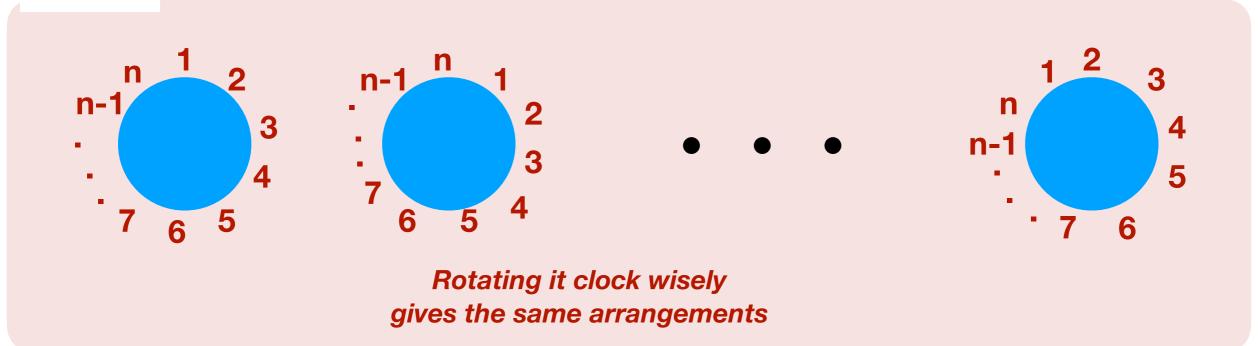
Theorem

Generally, for *n* people sitting in a circle, there are

$$\frac{n!}{n} = (n-1)!$$

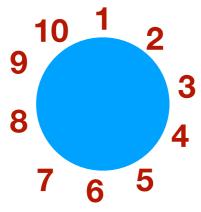
possible arrangements.

Proof



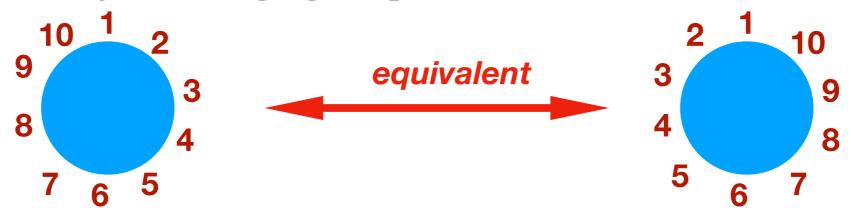
Seating in circle

Example (Making necklaces). *n* different pearls string in a necklace. Number of ways of stringing the pearls is



Seating in circle

(Making necklaces). *n* different pearls string in a necklace. Example Number of ways of stringing the pearls is



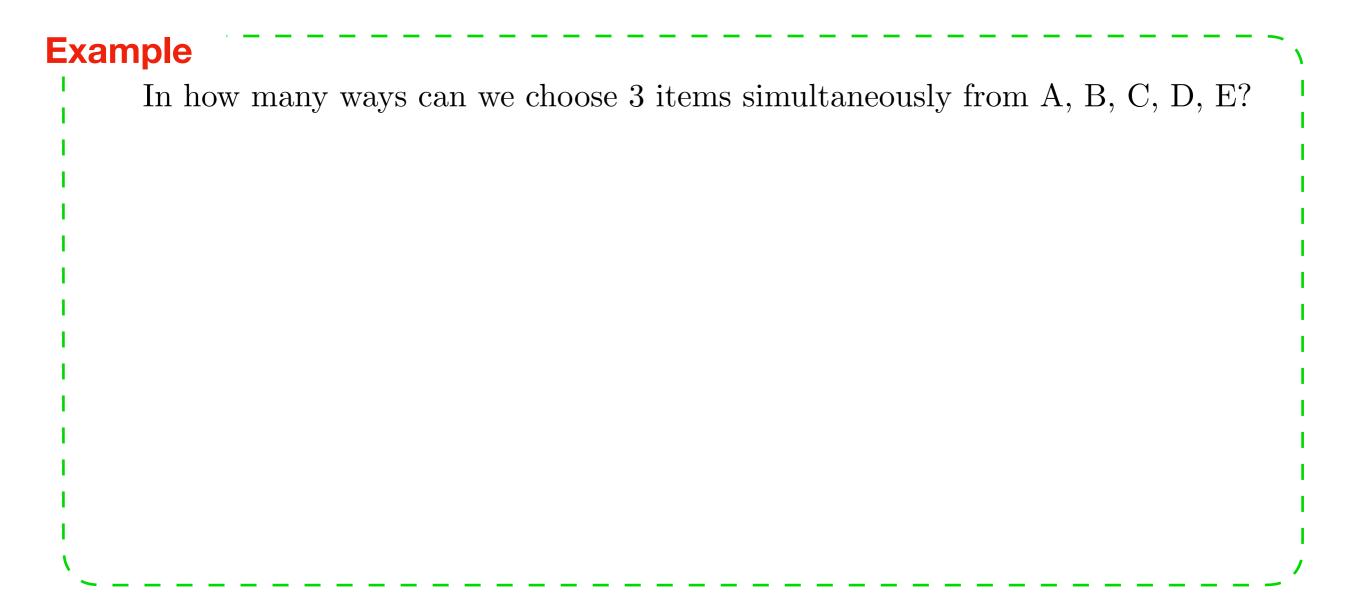
First, like arranging n objects in a round table, there are (n-1)! arrangements

In addition, for a necklace, we can flip it reversely, e.g., like a mirror. They are actually the same necklace

Mirroring the necklaces gives the same one

Therefore, the answer is $\frac{(n-1)!}{2}$

$$\frac{(n-1)!}{2}$$



Example

In how many ways can we choose 3 items simultaneously from A, B, C, D, E?

5 ways to choose first item,

4 ways to choose second item, and

3 ways to choose third item

So the number of ways (in this order) is $5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3$.

However,

ABC, ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB and CBA

will be considered as the same group.

So the number of different groups (order not important) is $\frac{3}{2}$

 $\frac{5\cdot 4\cdot 3}{3\cdot 2\cdot 1}$

Basically, in combinations, we do not care about the order the items are chosen or arranged.

Theorem

Generally, if there are n distinct objects, of which we choose a group of r items,

Number of possible groups

$$=\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-r+1)}{r!}$$

Theorem

Generally, if there are *n* distinct objects, of which we choose a group of *r* items,

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$$= \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-r+1)}{r!} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-r+1)}{r!} \times \frac{(n-r)(n-r-1)\cdots3\cdot2\cdot1}{(n-r)(n-r-1)\cdots3\cdot2\cdot1}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}.$$
 denoted by ${}_{n}C_{r}$ or ${n \choose r}$

$$_{n}C_{r}$$
 or $\binom{n}{r}$

called "n choose r"

Theorem

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$$= \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}.$$
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Properties

For
$$r = 0, 1, ..., n$$
,
$$\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n}{n-r}.$$

$$\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1.$$

Convention:

When n is a nonnegative integer, and r < 0 or r > n, take

$$\binom{n}{r} = 0.$$

Example A committee of 3 is to be formed from a group of 20 people.

1. How many possible committees can be formed?

2. Suppose further that, two guys: Peter and Paul refuse to serve in the same committee. How many possible committees can be formed with the restriction that these two guys don't serve together?

Example Consider a set of n antennas of which m are defective and n-m are functional and assume that all of the defectives and all of the functionals are considered indistinguishable. How many linear orderings are there in which no two defectives are consecutive?

Useful Combinatorial Identities

Theorem

For
$$1 \le r \le n$$
,

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

Algebraic Proof

Combinatorial Proof

Useful Combinatorial Identities

Binomial Theorem

Let *n* be a nonnegative integer, then

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}.$$

In view of the binomial theorem, $\binom{n}{k}$ is often referred to as the binomial coefficient.

Combinatorial Proof

$$(x+y)^{n} = (x+y)(x+y)(x+y)\cdots(x+y)$$

$$x^{2} + xy + yx + y^{2}$$

$$x^{3} + 3x^{2}y + 3xy^{2} + y^{3}$$

To get $x^k y^{n-k}$, it means there are k brackets contribute x, and n-k brackets contribute y

Useful Combinatorial Identities

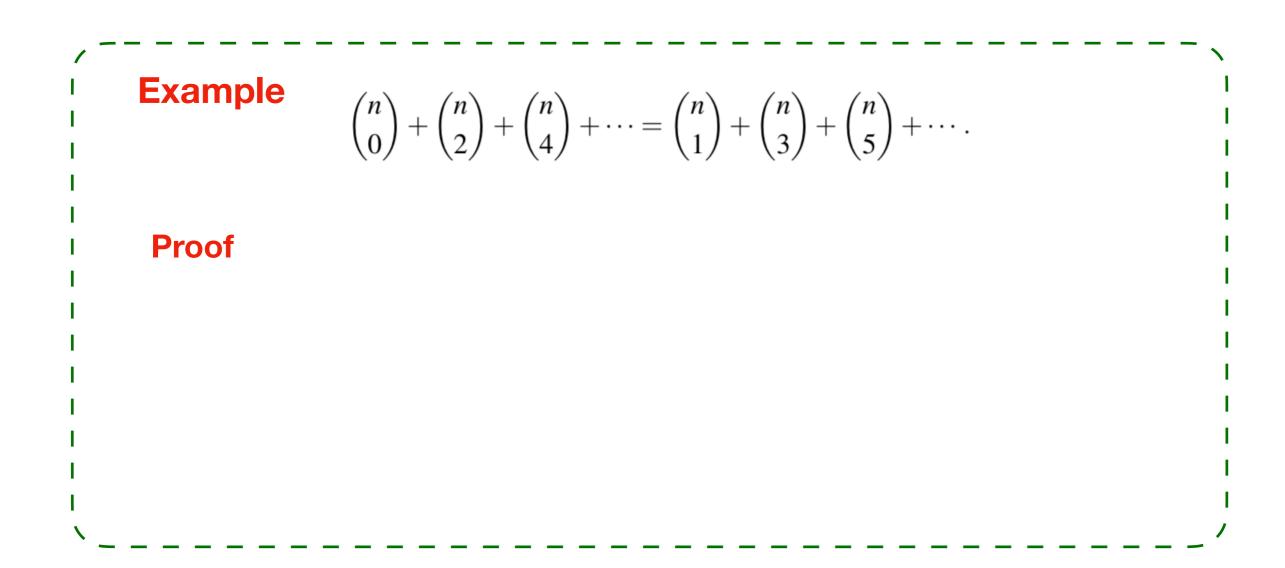
Example How many subsets are there of a set consisting of *n* elements?

Example

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} = 0.$$

Proof

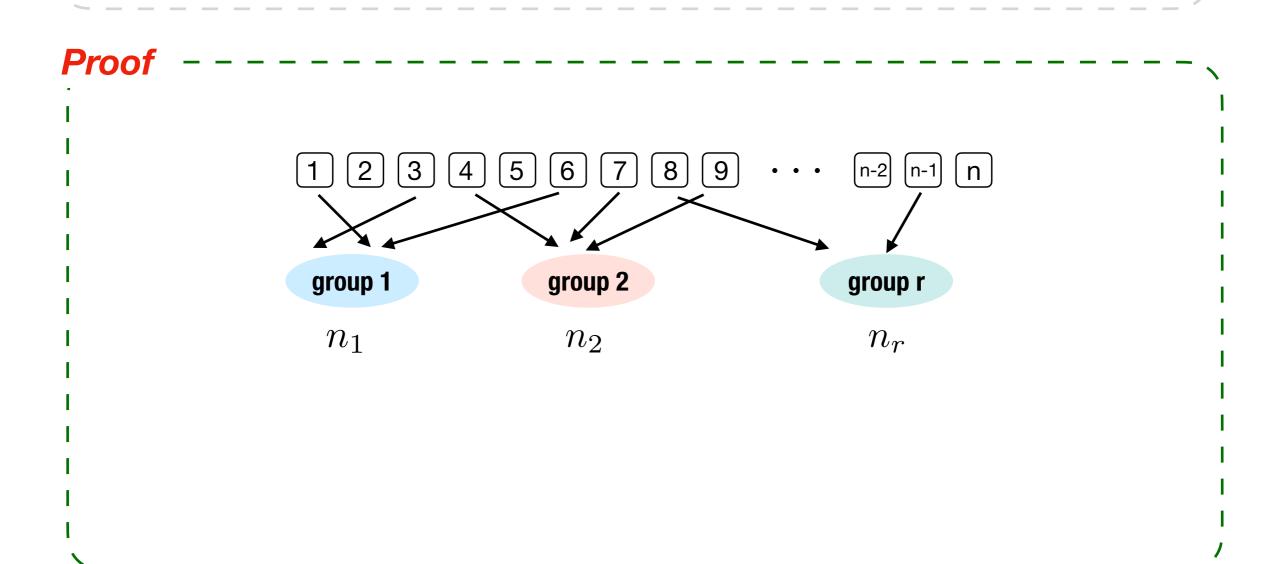
Useful Combinatorial Identities



1.5 Multinomial Coefficients

Example

A set of n distinct items is to be divided into r distinct groups of respective sizes n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_r , where $\sum_{i=1}^r n_i = n$. How many different divisions are possible?



Example

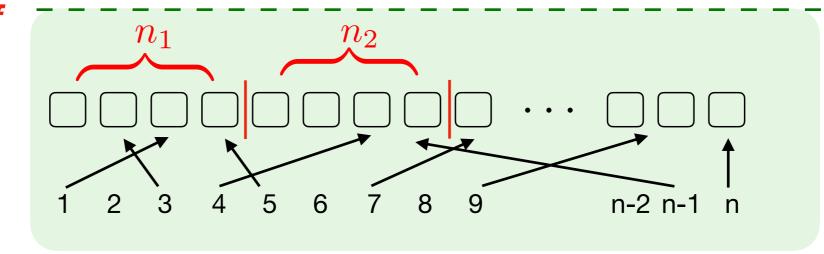
A set of n distinct items is to be divided into r distinct groups of respective sizes n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_r , where $\sum_{i=1}^r n_i = n$. How many different divisions are possible?

Proof

Example

A set of n distinct items is to be divided into r distinct groups of respective sizes n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_r , where $\sum_{i=1}^r n_i = n$. How many different divisions are possible?

Another Proof



The problem can be cast to arranging n objects in a line and then the first n_1 objects belong to 1st group; the second n_2 objects belong to the 2nd group;

There are n! different arrangements of n objects in a line.

However, for each arrangement, no matter how you permute the first n_1 objects, they are the same divisions; similarly, you can permute the second n_2 objects, they are also the same divisions;.... So we get $n!/(n_1!n_2!\cdots n_r!)$

Notations

If
$$n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_r = n$$
, we define $\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r}$ by
$$\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_r!}.$$

Example A police department in a small city consists of 10 officers. If the department policy is to have 5 of the officers patrolling the streets, 2 of the officers working full time at the station, and 3 of the officers on reserve at the station, how many different divisions of the 10 officers into the 3 groups are possible?

Example Ten children are to be divided into an *A* team and a *B* team of 5 each. The *A* team will play in one league and the *B* team in another. How many different divisions are possible?

Example In order to play a game of basketball, 10 children at a playground divide themselves into two teams of 5 each. How many different divisions are possible?

Multinomial Theorem

$$(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_r)^n = \sum_{(n_1, \dots, n_r): n_1 + \dots + n_r = n} {n \choose n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \cdots x_r^{n_r}$$

Note that the sum is over all nonnegative integer-valued vectors (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r) such that $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_r = n$.

$$(x_1 + \dots + x_r)^n$$

$$= (x_1 + \dots + x_r)(x_1 + \dots + x_r)(x_1 + \dots + x_r) \cdot \dots \cdot (x_1 + \dots + x_r)$$

Multinomial Theorem

$$(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_r)^n = \sum_{\substack{(n_1, \dots, n_r): n_1 + \dots + n_r = n}} \binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \cdots x_r^{n_r}$$

Note that the sum is over all nonnegative integer-valued vectors (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r) such that $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_r = n$.

$$(x_1+\cdots+x_r)^n\\ = (x_1+\cdots+x_r)(x_1+\cdots+x_r)(x_1+\cdots+x_r)\cdots(x_1+\cdots+x_r)\\ \downarrow\\ \mathbf{Say, choose} \qquad x_1 \qquad x_3 \qquad x_1 \qquad x_2\\ \downarrow\\ \mathbf{Then, multiply them together} \qquad x_1x_3x_1\cdots x_2\\ \downarrow$$

Theorem There are $\binom{n-1}{r-1}$ distinct positive integer-valued vectors (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r) that satisfies the equation

$$x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_r = n,$$

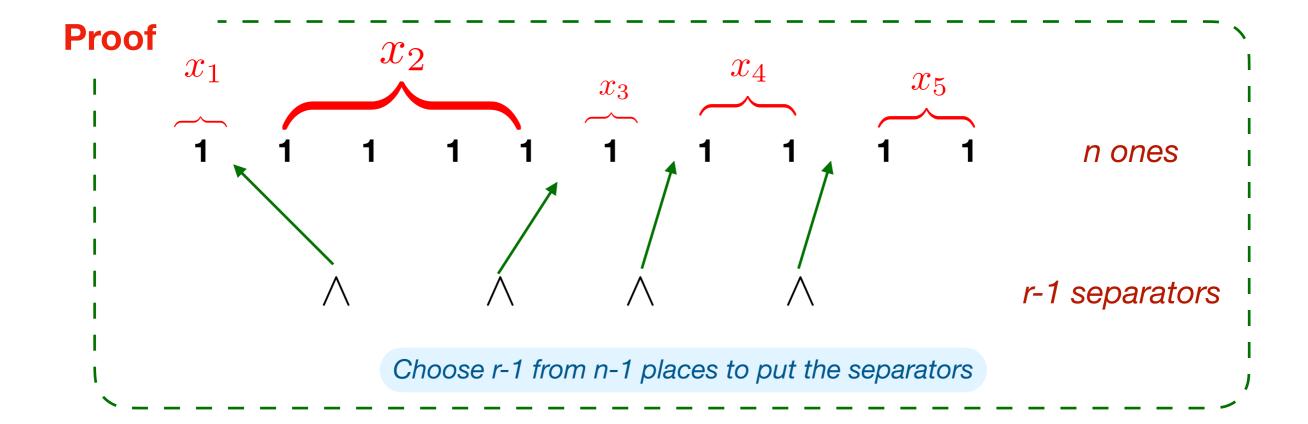
where $x_i > 0$ *for* i = 1, ..., r.



Theorem There are $\binom{n-1}{r-1}$ distinct positive integer-valued vectors (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r) that satisfies the equation

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where $x_i > 0$ *for* i = 1, ..., r.



Theorem There are $\binom{n+r-1}{r-1}$ distinct non-negative integer-valued vectors (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r) that satisfies the equation

$$x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_r = n,$$

where $x_i \geq 0$ for $i = 1, \ldots, r$.



Theorem There are $\binom{n+r-1}{r-1}$ distinct non-negative integer-valued vectors (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r) that satisfies the equation

$$x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_r = n,$$

where $x_i \geq 0$ for $i = 1, \ldots, r$.

Proof

Proof. Let $y_i = x_i + 1$, then $y_i > 0$ and the number of non-negative solutions of

$$x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_r = n$$

is the same as the number of positive solutions of

$$(y_1-1)+(y_2-1)+\cdots+(y_r-1)=n$$

i.e.,

$$y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_r = n + r,$$

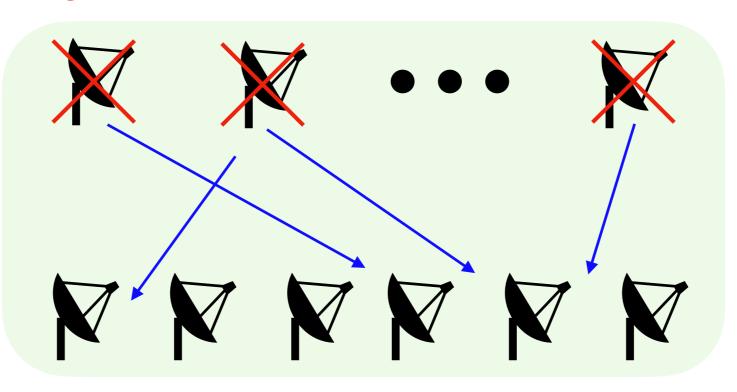
which is $\binom{n+r-1}{r-1}$.

Example An investor has 20 thousand dollars to invest among 4 possible investments. Each investment must be in units of a thousand dollars. If the total 20 thousand is to be invested, how many different investment strategies are possible? What if not all the money need be invested?

Example Consider a set of n antennas of which m are defective and n-m are functional and assume that all of the defectives and all of the functionals are considered indistinguishable. How many linear orderings are there in which no two defectives are consecutive?

How do we arrange them so that no two defectives are consecutive?

Fix the functional ones and insert defective ones into them



Example Consider a set of n antennas of which m are defective and n-m are functional and assume that all of the defectives and all of the functionals are considered indistinguishable. How many linear orderings are there in which no two defectives are consecutive?