## Discrete Mathematical Models

Lecture 18

Kane Townsend Semester 2, 2024

Suppose you run n experiments with sample spaces  $S_1, S_2, ..., S_n$ . For each  $1 \le i \le n$  let  $E_i \subseteq S_i$  be an event. If the events  $E_1, ..., E_n$  are 'independent' of each other; then the probability of composite event ' $E_1$  and  $E_2$  and ... and  $E_n$ ' is

$$\mathbb{P}_{S_1\times S_2\times \ldots \times S_n}(E_1\times E_2\times \ldots \times E_n) = \mathbb{P}_{S_1}(E_1)\times \mathbb{P}_{S_2}(E_2)\times \ldots \times \mathbb{P}_{S_n}(E_n).$$

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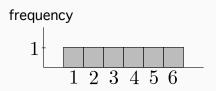
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# **Density Functions**

#### Frequency Histograms

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

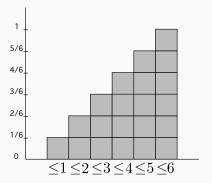
- The Probability Density Function (or just Density) is obtained from a Frequency Histogram by normalizing. We divide the vertical axis by the total number of outcomes.
- Continuing the die-tossing example, we have



What is the area under the curve? Why?

#### **Cumulative Probability Distribution Functions**

- The Cumulative Probability Distribution Function (or Distribution) is obtained from the Density Function by graphing cumulative totals.
- Continuing the die-tossing example, we have



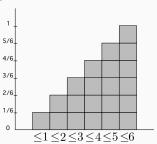
 We will only use of cumulative distributions when looking up probability values in tables or online.

#### **Uniform Distribution**

- When every event has the same probability the resulting densities and distributions are called 'uniform'. Examples:
- Uniform density:



Uniform distribution:



# Tossing two coins:

- Some more interesting densities and distributions are obtained by considering events which combine several outcomes.
- For example, tossing two coins. A neat way to list all possible outcomes is to expand

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

• What is the sample space?

$$\{TT, TH, HT, HH\}$$

#### Tossing two coins:

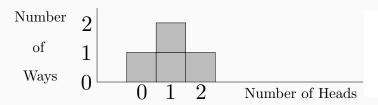
- Now consider events:
  - E<sub>0</sub>: 'No heads'
  - E1: 'exactly 1 Head'
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$$E_0 = \{TT\}, \qquad E_1 = \{TH, HT\}, \qquad E_2 = \{HH\}$$

#### Frequency Histogram:

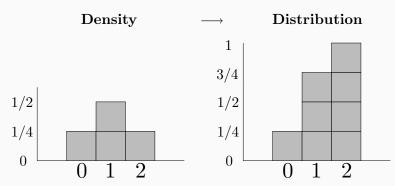


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Assuming a fair coin (equally likely outcomes), divide out by the size
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Assuming a fair coin (equally likely outcomes), divide out by the size
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cumulative sum of the density to get the distribution:



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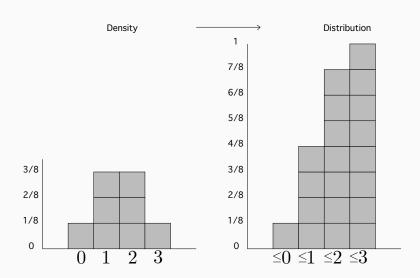
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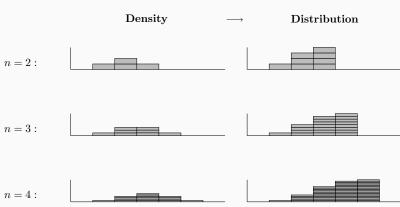
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$$\mathbb{P}(E_0) = \frac{1}{8}$$
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#### Three Fair Coins: Density and Distribution Functions



#### **Binomial Probability Distributions**

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



#### Bell-like curves for large *n*

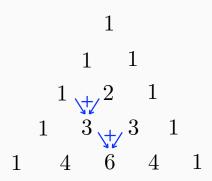
As *n* gets larger and larger these **binomial probability density functions** get closer and closer to the famous Bell Curve:



which is the so-called 'Normal' Probability Density Function. This convergence to the normal probability function is a result of the Central Limit Theorem.

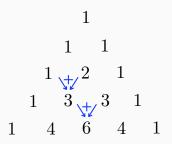
# Binomial Theorem

# Pascal's Triangle



## Pascal's Triangle

• Frequencies in Coin-Tossing are numbers in Pascal's Triangle



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

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

## Pascal's Triangle

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

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### The Binomial Theorem

The Binomial Theorem states that

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

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

#### Idea of Proof of Binomial Theorem:

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What is the total size of the sample space?

• I.e. what is

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

- The binomial theorem gives a neat way to find the sum.
- Set x = y = 1 in  $(x + y)^n$ . Then  $\binom{n}{0} 1^n 1^0 + \binom{n}{1} 1^{n-1} 1^1 + \dots + \binom{n}{n} 1^0 1^n = (1+1)^n$  so that  $\boxed{\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \dots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n}.$

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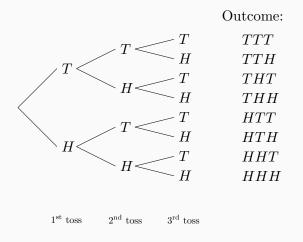
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Examples will be found in worksheet questions.

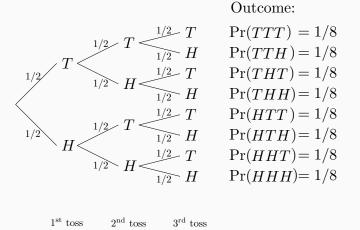
# Binomial Distribution

# 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



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



Collecting possibilities from the tree and using the sum rule gives

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

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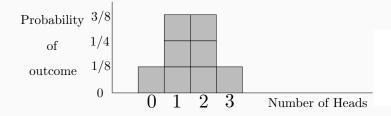
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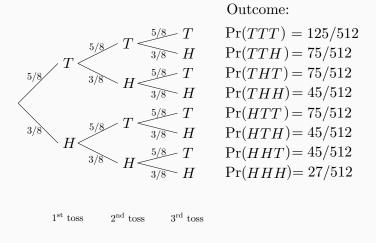
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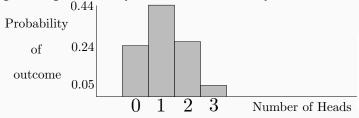
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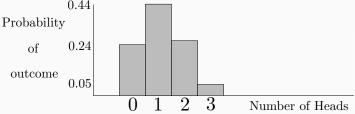
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The general binomial density function for n trials (e.g. tosses) with probability p of a success (e.g. head) on each trial is given by

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

"Fun" Problems

In a group of 10 students, 5 are studying computer science, 2 are studying art history, and 3 are studying mathematics. We pick a student from this group and ask what her/his major is.

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The associated event probabilities are

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\emptyset) &= 0 \ , \quad \mathbb{P}(\{M\}) = \frac{3}{10}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\{A\}) = \frac{2}{10}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\{C\}) = \frac{5}{10}, \\ \mathbb{P}(\{M,A\}) &= \frac{5}{10}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\{A,C\}) = \frac{7}{10}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\{M,C\}) = \frac{8}{10}, \quad \mathbb{P}(S) = 1 \ . \end{split}$$

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The contestant chooses one door.

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So the contestant should change doors.

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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.