

Probability and Random Processes

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Mathematical models of probability

Ω : sample space. Every subset of Ω is called an event.

Definition

To every event A we associate a probability denoted by $\mathbb{P}[A]$ such that

1. $\mathbb{P}[\Omega] = 1$. $1 \geq \mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ $A \cap B = \emptyset$

2. If A and B are events with $AB = \emptyset$ then

$$\mathbb{P}[A \cup B] = \mathbb{P}[A] + \mathbb{P}[B].$$

↓
 A or B

Comment

The equiprobable model of Pascal: examples

Example

~~A coin is flipped. The sample space is~~

Probability according to Pascal

$$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n\}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\{\omega_i\}) = p$$

$$1 = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega_1\} \cup \dots \cup \{\omega_n\}) \\ = \mathbb{P}(\Omega) =$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\{\omega_1\}) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(\{\omega_n\}) = np \Rightarrow p = 1/n$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\{\omega_1, \omega_2\}) = \frac{2}{n}$$

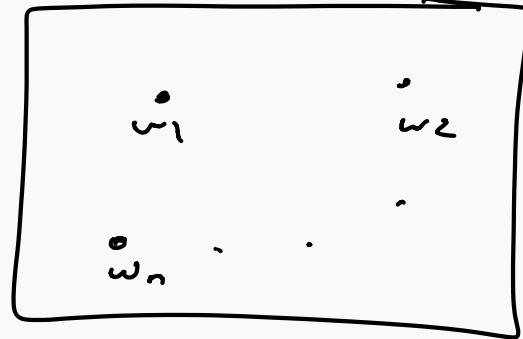
$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{k}{n}$$

$k = \# \text{ elements in } A$

ω omega

Ω

Ω



The equiprobable model of Pascal: examples

Example

A coin is flipped. The sample space is

$$\underline{\Omega = \{H, T\}.$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\{H\}) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\{T\}) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

The equiprobable model of Pascal: examples

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$$\mathbb{P}[\{H\}] = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Example

For two coins:

The equiprobable model of Pascal: examples

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$$\mathbb{P}[\{H\}] = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Example

For two coins:

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

Handwritten red notes below the sample space elements:
 $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{4}$

n coins

flip n coins

Outcome : sequence $X_1 X_2 \dots X_n$

X_i is either H, T

X_i is either 0, 1

00 - - - 0

11 - - - 1

10111 - - 1

Size of sample space 2^n

The equiprobable model of Pascal: examples

Example

A coin is flipped. The sample space is

$$\Omega = \{H, T\}.$$

$$\mathbb{P}[\{H\}] = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Example

For two coins:

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

$$\mathbb{P}[\{HH, HT, TH\}] = \frac{3}{4}.$$

One can generalize this to more than two coins:

If the experiment consists of throwing n coins, then we consider sequences of length n as the sample space.

Examples of events

Example

A die is rolled. What is the probability that the outcome is an even number.

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Examples of events

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A die is rolled. What is the probability that the outcome is an even number.

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The event A is defined by

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$$\mathbb{P}[A] = \frac{3}{6} = 0.5$$

Let B be the event that the outcome is at most 4. Then

Examples of events

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$$\mathbb{P}[B] = \frac{4}{6} = 0.67.$$

Example

A random card is dealt from a well-shuffled deck of cards. What is the probability that the card is (a) an ace (b) red (c) an ace or red.

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2♠	3♠	4♠	5♠	6♠	7♠	8♠	9♠	10♠	J♠	Q♠	K♠	A♠
2♥	3♥	4♥	5♥	6♥	7♥	8♥	9♥	10♥	J♥	Q♥	K♥	A♥
2♣	3♣	4♣	5♣	6♣	7♣	8♣	9♣	10♣	J♣	Q♣	K♣	A♣
2♦	3♦	4♦	5♦	6♦	7♦	8♦	9♦	10♦	J♦	Q♦	K♦	A♦

$$\mathbb{P}[A] = \frac{4}{52} = \frac{1}{13}.$$

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2♦	3♦	4♦	5♦	6♦	7♦	8♦	9♦	10♦	J♦	Q♦	K♦	A♦

$$\mathbb{P}[R] = \frac{26}{52} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

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2♥	3♥	4♥	5♥	6♥	7♥	8♥	9♥	10♥	J♥	Q♥	K♥	A♥
2♦	3♦	4♦	5♦	6♦	7♦	8♦	9♦	10♦	J♦	Q♦	K♦	A♦

$$\mathbb{P}[A \cup R] = \frac{4 + 26 - 2}{52} = \frac{28}{52}.$$

The union law

Theorem (The Union law)

Suppose A and B are two events. Then

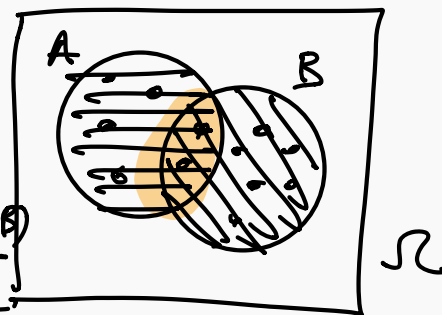
$$\mathbb{P}[A \cup B] = \mathbb{P}[A] + \mathbb{P}[B] - \mathbb{P}[A \cap B].$$

Proof.

Proof using Venn diagram:

Pascal's model

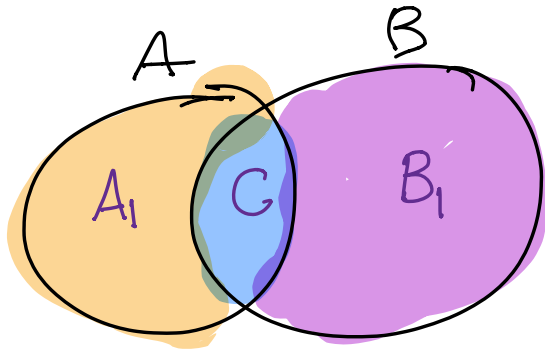
$$P(A) = \frac{\#A}{\#\Omega}, \quad P(B) = \frac{\#B}{\#\Omega}, \quad P(A \cup B) = \frac{\#(A \cup B)}{\#\Omega}$$



$$\#(A \cup B) = \#A + \#B - \#(A \cap B)$$

Idea of a proof

$$A = A_1 \cup C$$
$$A_1 \cap C = \emptyset$$



$$P(A) = P(A_1) + P(C)$$

$$P(B) = P(B_1) + P(C)$$

$$P(A) + P(B) = \underbrace{P(A_1) + P(B_1) + P(C)}_{P(A \cup B)} + \underbrace{P(C)}_{P(A \cap B)}$$

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B).$$

Many problems in probability boil down to finding out how many elements are in a set. This turns out to be an art, but there are also methods.

Example

A 3-digit number x is chosen randomly. What is the probability that x is at least 200.

$$\Omega = \{100, 101, \dots, 999\} \quad 900$$

$$A = \{200, 201, \dots, 999\} \quad 800$$

$$P(A) = \frac{800}{900} = \frac{8}{9}$$

$$\underline{a, a+1, \dots, b}$$

Many problems in probability boil down to finding out how many elements are in a set. This turns out to be an art, but there are also methods.

Example

A 3-digit number x is chosen randomly. What is the probability that x is at least 200.

If $a < b$ are integers, then the number of integers in the list

$$a, a + 1, \dots, b$$

is $b - a + 1$.

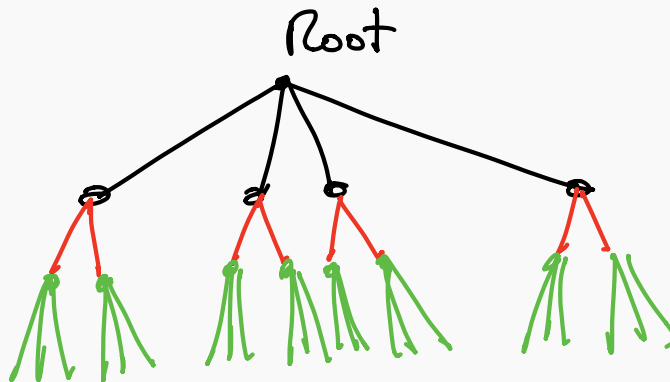
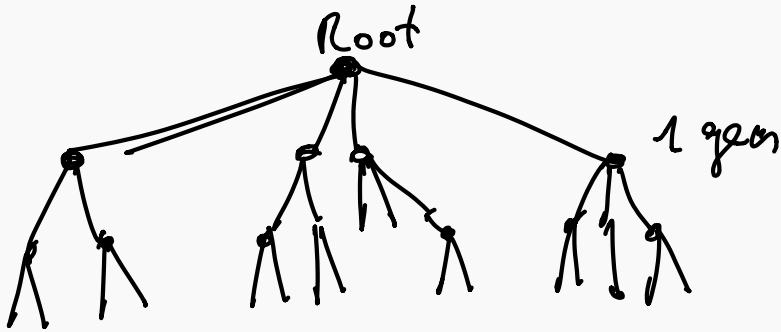
$$110, \dots, 255$$

$$\underline{a+0}, \underline{a+1}, \dots, \underline{a+(b-a)}$$

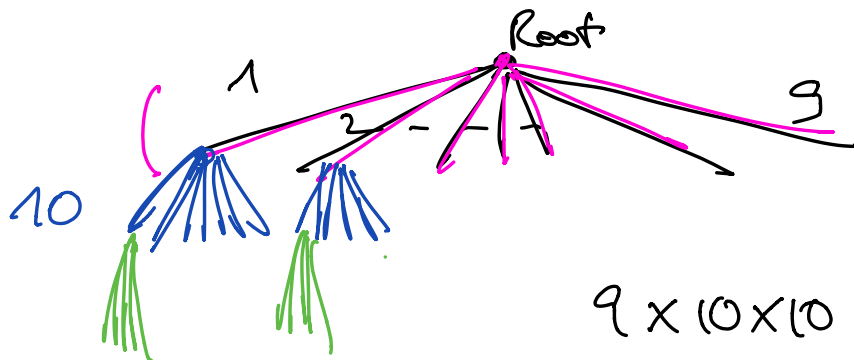
$$145 + 1 = \underline{\underline{146}}$$

$$b - a + 1$$

Counting using choice tree



Count # 3 digit number



$$9 \times 10 \times 10 = \underline{900}$$

Question how many sequences of ^{digits} length n using digits $1, 2, \dots, k$?



$1 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid$



sequences = $\boxed{k^n}$

Choice tree and unconstrained sequences

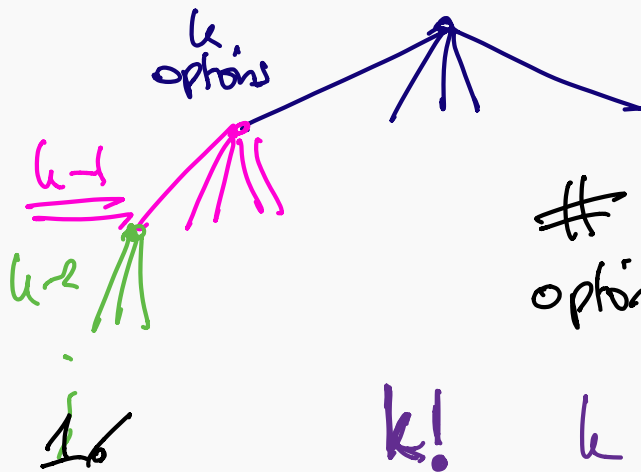
In how many ways can one form a sequence of length k using letters
 $1, 2, \dots, k$?

Choice tree and Factorials

In how many ways can one list $1, 2, \dots, k$ such that every number appears exactly once?

$$\frac{k=2}{u=3}$$

1 2 21
123 132 213 231 312 321



$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ options} &= k \times (k-1) \times (k-2) \times \dots \times 1 \\ &= 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \dots \times k. \end{aligned}$$

$k!$ k factorial

Properties of $n!$

$$k! = 1 \times 2 \times \dots \times k$$

$$1! = 1, \quad 5! = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 = 120$$

Convention $0! = 1$

how large is $n!$ as a function of n ?

logarithmic

$\log n$

Polynomial

growth

$$n^{10} \propto \text{fixed}$$

exponential

growth

$$10^n \propto \underline{\text{fixed}} \quad \underline{\gg 1}$$

double exponential 2^{2^n}

$n!$ ~~\neq~~

2^n

100^n

n	2^n	$n!$	10^n
1	2	1	10
2	4	2	100
3	8	6	1000
4	16	24	10000
5	32	120	
6	64	720	

$n!$

The sequence $n!$ grows very quickly. In fact it grows faster than any exponential function.

Properties of $n!$

The sequence $n!$ grows very quickly. In fact it grows faster than any exponential function.

Theorem (Stirling's formula)

For large values of n , one can use the following asymptotic formula to approximate $n!$:

$$n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n.$$

$$\begin{aligned} n &= n, n-1, \dots, 1 \\ n! &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

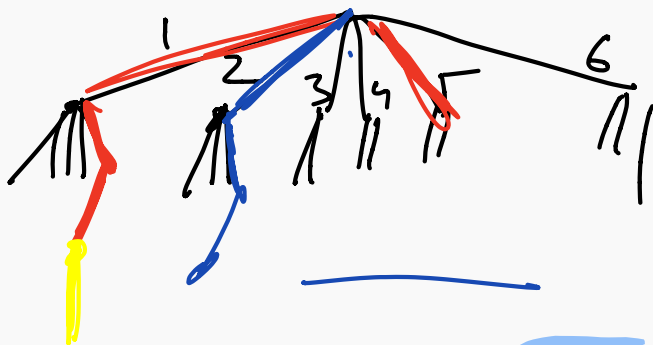
The complement trick

A fair die is thrown 4 times. What is the probability that the score 5 appears at least once.

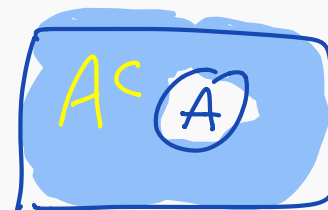
$\Omega =$ 4 throws of a fair die
 $A =$ at least one appearance of 5

$$\#\Omega = 6^4,$$

$$\#A = ?$$

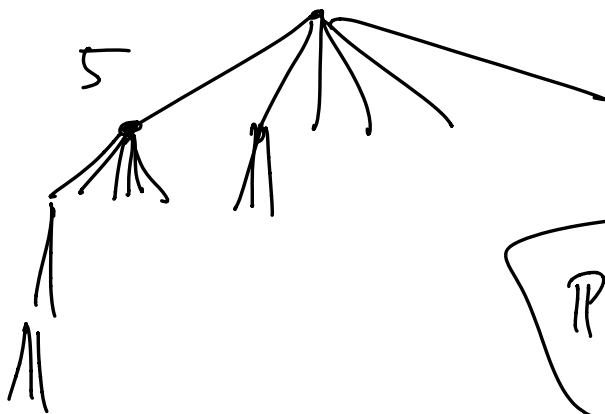


$A^c = \Omega$ with A removed



$$P(A) + P(A^c) = 1$$

$A^c = 5$ does not show up



favorable
outcome = 5^4

$$P(A^c) = \frac{5^4}{6^4}$$

$$P(A) = 1 - \frac{5^4}{6^4}$$

The complement trick

A fair die is thrown 4 times. What is the probability that the score 5 appears at least once.

The sample space is

$$\Omega = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) : 1 \leq x_i \leq 6\}.$$

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$$A = \Omega = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) : x_i = 6 \text{ for some } i.\}.$$

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The event A^c , indicating that A did not happen consists of those outcomes that consist only of 1, 2, 3, 4, 6. So,

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$$\mathbb{P}[A^c] = \frac{5^4}{6^4} = 0.48.$$

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The event A^c , indicating that A did not happen consists of those outcomes that consist only of 1, 2, 3, 4, 6. So,

$$\mathbb{P}[A^c] = \frac{5^4}{6^4} = 0.48.$$

Hence

$$\mathbb{P}[A] = 1 - 0.48 = 0.52.$$