

Lecture 2

- **Read:** Chapter 1.6-1.9
- Independence and Disjointness
- Pairwise Independence and Mutual Independence
- Counting
- Independent Trials
- Reliability Problems
- Multiple Outcomes

Randomness and Probability

- **Recall:** We call a phenomenon **random** if individual outcomes are uncertain but there is a regular distribution of outcomes in a large number of repetitions
- The **probability** of any outcome of a random phenomenon is the proportion of times the outcome would occur in a very long series of repetitions

Probabilities in a Finite Sample Space

- If the sample space is finite, each distinct event is assigned a probability
- The probability of an event is the sum of the probabilities of the distinct outcomes making up the event
- If a random phenomenon has k **equally likely outcomes**, each individual outcome has probability $1/k$
- For any event A ,

$$P[A] = \frac{\text{number of outcomes in } A}{\text{number of outcomes in } S}$$

Example

- Roll a fair die and look at the face value
- Sample space: $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- This is a finite sample space, and each outcome is equally likely
- That is,

$$P[X = j] = 1/6, \forall j \in S$$

where X is the face value of the die after rolling

- $P[X \geq 5] = P[X = 5] + P[X = 6] = 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/3$
- $P[X \leq 2] = ?$

Independent Events

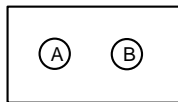
- Events A and B are **independent** if and only if

$$P[AB] = P[A]P[B]$$

- Always check this condition if you are asked about independence!

Are Disjoint Events Independent?

Example: Suppose $A \cap B = \emptyset$



- Then, $P[A \cap B] = P[\emptyset] = 0$
- For the independence condition ($P[A \cap B] = P[A] \cdot P[B]$) to hold, one of the events has to have probability 0

Definition: Two Independent Events

Definition 1.6: Events A and B are **independent** if and only if

$$P[AB] = P[A]P[B]$$

.....
Equivalent definitions:

$$P[A|B] = P[A]$$

$$P[B|A] = P[B]$$

Definition: Three Independent Events

Definition 1.7: A_1 , A_2 , and A_3 are **independent** if and only if

1. A_1 and A_2 are independent
2. A_2 and A_3 are independent
3. A_1 and A_3 are independent
4. $P[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3] = P[A_1]P[A_2]P[A_3]$

Independence and Disjointness

- Two events A and B are **independent** if knowing that one occurs does not change the probability that the other occurs. If A and B are independent, then $P[A \cap B] = P[A]P[B]$
- Events A and B are **disjoint** if they have no outcomes in common ($A \cap B = \emptyset$). If A and B are disjoint, then $P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B]$
- If A and B are disjoint, then the fact A occurs tells us that B cannot occur. So, disjoint events are not independent
- Independence cannot be shown in a Venn diagram because it involves the probabilities of the events rather than just the outcomes that make up the events
- If A and B are independent, so are A and B^c (Clearly, if B does not provide any information about A occurring, then neither does B^c)

Pairwise Independent Events

Definition: Two events A and B are **independent** if

$$P[A \cap B] = P[A] \cdot P[B]$$

- **Recall:** When $P[A] \neq 0$ and $P[B] \neq 0$,

$$P[A \cap B] = P[A|B] \cdot P[B] = P[B|A] \cdot P[A]$$

- So, equivalently, independence means:

$$P[A|B] = P[A] \text{ and } P[B|A] = P[B]$$

\implies conditioning on an independent event does not change probability of the other

Remarks:

- $A \cap B = \emptyset$ does **not** mean A and B are independent (e.g., consider A and A^c)
- Independence is a property of events **and** of P

Pairwise Independent Events: Example

Example: Consider an experiment involving two rolls of a four-sided die, each outcome is equally likely with probability $1/16$

1. $A_i = \{1\text{st roll is } i\}$, $B_j = \{2\text{nd roll is } j\}$ independent? (Looks right. Yes!)
2. $A = \{1\text{st roll is } 1\}$, $B = \{\text{sum is } 5\}$ independent? (Does not look obvious, but calculate. Yes!)
3. $A = \{\text{max. of two rolls is } 2\}$, $B = \{\text{min. of two rolls is } 2\}$ independent? (Looks unlikely. No!)

Independence of a Collection of Events

- A collection A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n of events are **mutually independent** if for any **finite** subset S of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$,

$$P[\cap_{i \in S} A_i] = \prod_{i \in S} P[A_i]$$

- Write out these conditions for three events:** Three events are mutually independent if all these conditions hold:

$$P[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3] = P[A_1]P[A_2]P[A_3]$$

$$P[A_1 \cap A_2] = P[A_1]P[A_2]$$

$$P[A_2 \cap A_3] = P[A_2]P[A_3]$$

$$P[A_1 \cap A_3] = P[A_1]P[A_3]$$

- Warning:** Pairwise independence \nRightarrow mutual independence

Independence of a Collection of Events: Example

Example: Two independent fair coin tosses

- $A = \{HT, HH\}$: First toss is H
- $B = \{TH, HH\}$: Second toss is H
- $C = \{TT, HH\}$: First toss = second toss
- Verify they are pairwise independent, e.g., $P[C|A] = P[C]$
- Verify they are not mutually independent,
 $P[A \cap B \cap C] \neq P[A] \cdot P[B] \cdot P[C]$

Pairwise Independence and Mutual Independence

- Are there sets of random events which are pairwise independent but not mutually independent?

Suppose a box contains 4 tickets labeled by: 112 121 211 222
Choose one ticket at random and consider random events:

$A_1 = \{1 \text{ occurs at the first place}\}$

$A_2 = \{1 \text{ occurs at the second place}\}$

$A_3 = \{1 \text{ occurs at the third place}\}$

$P[A_1] = 1/2, P[A_2] = 1/2, P[A_3] = 1/2$

$A_1A_2 = \{112\}, A_1A_3 = \{121\}, A_2A_3 = \{211\}$

$P[A_1A_2] = P[A_1A_3] = P[A_2A_3] = 1/4$

So, we conclude that the three events A_1, A_2, A_3 are pairwise independent

However, $A_1A_2A_3 = \emptyset$

$P[A_1A_2A_3] = 0 \neq P[A_1]P[A_2]P[A_3] = (1/2)^3$

\therefore Pairwise independence of a given set of random events does not imply that these events are mutually independent.

Pairwise Independence and Mutual Independence (cont.)

- So, we have seen that pairwise independence $\not\Rightarrow$ mutual independence
- What about \Leftarrow (i.e., does mutual independence imply pairwise independence?)
 - Yes! The definition of mutual independence implies it!

Pairwise Independence and Mutual Independence (cont.)

- Suppose A, B, C are random events satisfying just the relation $P[ABC] = P[A]P[B]P[C]$. Does it follow that A, B, C are pairwise independent?

Toss two different standard dice: white and black.

The sample space S of the outcomes consists of all ordered pairs (i, j) , $i, j = 1, \dots, 6$, $S = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), \dots, (6, 6)\}$

Each point in S has probability $1/36$

$A_1 = \{\text{first die} = 1, 2, \text{ or } 3\}$, $A_2 = \{\text{first die} = 3, 4, \text{ or } 5\}$,

$A_3 = \{\text{sum of faces is } 9\}$

$A_1 A_2 = \{31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36\}$, $A_1 A_3 = \{36\}$,

$A_2 A_3 = \{36, 45, 54\}$, $A_1 A_2 A_3 = \{36\}$


$P[A_1] = 1/2$, $P[A_2] = 1/2$, $P[A_3] = 1/9$

$P[A_1 A_2 A_3] = 1/36 = (1/2)(1/2)(1/9) = P[A_1]P[A_2]P[A_3]$

$P[A_1 A_2] = 1/6 \neq 1/4 = P[A_1]P[A_2]$

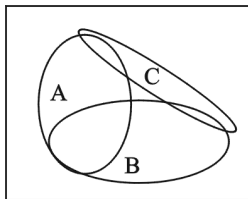
$P[A_1 A_3] = 1/36 \neq 1/18 = P[A_1]P[A_3]$

$P[A_2 A_3] = 1/12 \neq 1/18 = P[A_2]P[A_3]$

\therefore Just $P[ABC] = P[A]P[B]P[C]$ does not mean mutual independence. So, cannot imply pairwise independence, either. 

Conditioning May Affect Independence

- Assume A and B are independent:

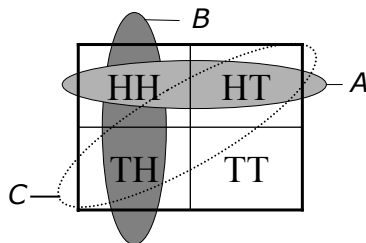


- If we are told that C occurred, are A and B independent?

Conditioning May Affect Independence

Example 1:

- Two independent fair ($p = 1/2$) coin tosses
- Event A : First toss is H
- Event B : Second toss is H
- $P[A] = P[B] = 1/2$

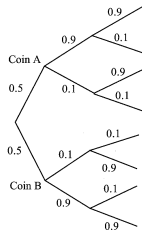


- Event C : The two outcomes are different.
- Conditioned on C , are A and B independent?

Conditioning May Affect Independence

Example 2: Choose at random among two unfair coins A and B

- $P[H|\text{coin } A] = 0.9$ and $P[H|\text{coin } B] = 0.1$
- Keep tossing the chosen coin



- Given coin A was selected, are future tosses independent?
(Yes!)
- If we do not know which coin it is, are future tosses independent?
 - Compare $P[\text{toss } 11 = H]$ and $P[\text{toss } 11 = H \mid \text{first } 10 \text{ tosses are } H] (\neq!)$

Conditionally Independent Events

Definition: Two events A and B are **conditionally independent** given an event C with probability $P[C] \geq 0$ if

$$P[A \cap B|C] = P[A|C] \cdot P[B|C]$$

- We can show this is equivalent to $P[A|B \cap C] = P[A|C]$, i.e., if C is known, the additional information that B has occurred does not change the probability of A
- **Remark:** Independence does not imply conditional independence and vice versa!

The King's Sibling

- The king comes from a family of two children
- What is the probability that his sibling is female?

Using Independence in Modeling

Reliability: Complex systems are often simply modeled by assuming that they consists of several **independent** components

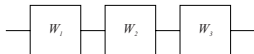
- Consider a network with n links
- For link i , event W_i = link i is operational, and is independent of other components
- Probability that a link i is working well: $P[W_i] = p_i$

Using Independence in Modeling (cont.)

- What is probability that the network is reliable for communications?

- **Series connection:** $P[\cap_i W_i] = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$

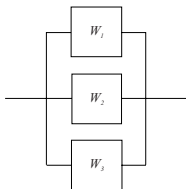
Overall reliability is worse than any of the components



- **Parallel connection:**

$$P[\text{system is up}] = 1 - P[\cap_i W_i^c] = 1 - (1 - p_1)(1 - p_2) \cdots (1 - p_n)$$

Reliability is better than any of the components, for small p_i , roughly sum



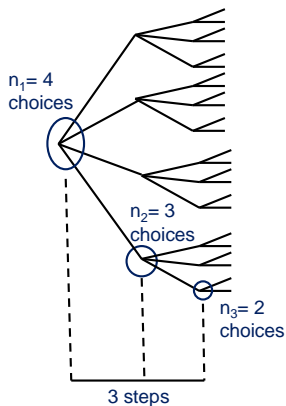
- **Mixture:** Same story, can decompose the problem and reduce the series and parallel combinations

Counting

Motivation: Discrete Uniform Law: Recall that for such a law, all sample points are equally likely, and computing probabilities reduces to just counting, i.e.,

$$P[A] = \frac{\text{number of elements of } A}{\text{total number of sample points}}$$

Fundamental Principle of Counting



- r steps with n_i choices at each step i
- total number of choices $= n_1 \times n_2 \times \dots \times n_r$

Fundamental Principle of Counting: Examples

- number of license plates with 3 letters followed by 4 digits =
 $26 \cdot 26 \cdot 26 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10$
 - if repetition is prohibited: $26 \cdot 25 \cdot 24 \cdot 10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7$
- number of subsets of a set with n elements = 2^n

Permutations

- **k-permutation**: an ordered sequence of k distinguishable objects
- $(n)_k$ = no. of possible k -permutations of n distinguishable objects:

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

This follows from the fundamental counting principle

- **Example**: number of words with 4 distinct letters =

$$\frac{26!}{22!} = 26 \times 25 \times 24 \times 23$$

Combinations

- **k-combination:**
 - Pick a subset of k out of n objects
 - Order of selection does not matter
 - Each subset is a **k-combination**
- **Remark:** In a combination, there is no ordering involved, e.g., 2-permutations of $\{A, B, C\}$ are AB, AC, BA, CA, BC, CB , while the combinations of 2 out of the 3 letters would be AB, AC, BC

How Many Combinations?

- $\binom{n}{k}$ = “ n choose k ” = no. of possible k -element **subsets** (i.e., order is not important) that can be obtained out of a set of n distinguishable objects
- To find $\binom{n}{k}$, we perform the following two subexperiments to assemble a k -permutation of n distinguishable objects:
 1. Choose a k -combination out of n objects.
 2. Choose a k -permutation of the k objects in the k -combination.

$$\binom{n}{k}_k = \binom{n}{k} k! \qquad \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Example: Independent Trials and Binomial Probabilities

- n independent coin tosses, $P[H] = p$
- What is the probability of obtaining an n -sequence with k heads?
- $P[HTTHHH] = p^4(1 - p)^2$
- $P[\text{sequence}] = p^{\#heads} \cdot (1 - p)^{\#tails}$

$$\begin{aligned} P[k \text{ heads}] &= \sum_{k\text{-head seq.}} P[\text{seq.}] \\ &= p^k \cdot (1 - p)^{n-k} \cdot (\# \text{ of } k\text{-head seqs.}) \\ &= \binom{n}{k} p^k \cdot (1 - p)^{n-k} \end{aligned}$$

Partitions

How many ways are there to divide a set of n distinct elements into r disjoint sets of n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r elements each, with $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r \leq n$?

- A combination of k elements out of n breaks up into two disjoint sets of elements of size k and $n - k$
- Note: $\binom{n}{k} = \#$ of ways of breaking n elements into subsets of size k and $n - k$ each
- Using the counting principle, we can answer the above question as

$$\begin{aligned} & \binom{n}{n_1} \binom{n - n_1}{n_2} \binom{n - n_1 - n_2}{n_3} \dots \binom{n - n_1 - n_2 - \dots - n_{r-1}}{n_r} \\ &= \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!} = \binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} \end{aligned}$$

This is called the **multinomial coefficient**

Partitions: Example

- Anagrams: How many letter sequences can be obtained by rearranging the word TATTOO?
- Think of an anagram for this word as including 6 slots, which need to be filled with the letters T, A, or O
- Each solution corresponds to selecting 3 slots for T, 2 slots for O, and 1 slot for A
- How many ways are there to divide the 6 slots into such a partition?
- **Answer:** $\frac{6!}{1!2!3!} = 60$
- Note: The letters are not distinct, but the slots are!

Problem 1.8.6

- A basketball team has
 - 3 pure centers, 4 pure forwards, 4 pure guards
 - one swingman who can play either guard or forward
- A pure player can play only the designated position
- How many lineups are there (1 center, 2 forwards, 2 guards)?

Problem 1.8.6 Solution

Three possibilities:

1. swingman plays guard: N_1 lineups
2. swingman plays forward: N_2 lineups
3. swingman does not play: N_3 lineups

$$N = N_1 + N_2 + N_3$$

Problem 1.8.6 Solution (cont.)

$$N_1 = \binom{3}{1} \binom{4}{2} \binom{4}{1} = 72$$

$$N_2 = \binom{3}{1} \binom{4}{1} \binom{4}{2} = 72$$

$$N_3 = \binom{3}{1} \binom{4}{2} \binom{4}{2} = 108$$

Multiple Outcomes

- n independent trials
- r possible trial outcomes (s_1, \dots, s_r)
- $P[\{s_k\}] = p_k$

Multiple Outcomes (2)

- Outcome is a sequence:
 - Example: $s_3 s_4 s_3 s_1$

$$\begin{aligned} P[s_3 s_4 s_3 s_1] &= p_3 p_4 p_3 p_1 = p_1 p_3^2 p_4 \\ &= p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} p_3^{n_3} p_4^{n_4} \end{aligned}$$

- Probability depends on how many times each outcome occurred

Multiple Outcomes (3)

N_i = no. of times s_i occurs

$$P[N_1 = n_1, \dots, N_r = n_r] = M p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} p_3^{n_3} p_4^{n_4}$$

M = Multinomial Coefficient

$$= \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_r!}$$

Service Facility Design

- c : service capacity of a facility
- n : # of customers it is assigned
- p : probability customer requires service
- N = number of customers requiring service
- Given n and p , choose c
- Criterion?
 - We establish a probability p such that $P[N > c] < p$
 - We choose the smallest c such that $P[N > c]$ is still $< p$

Card Play

- 52-card deck, dealt to 4 players, i.e., 13 cards each
 - Find $P[\text{each gets an ace}]$
-

- Count size of the sample space: Partition the 52 card deck into 4 sets of 13 cards each

$$\binom{52}{13, 13, 13, 13} = \frac{52!}{13!13!13!13!}$$

- Count number of ways of distributing the four aces (One ace in each player's hand)

$$4 \times 3 \times 2$$

- Count number of ways of dealing the remaining 48 cards (Each hand has an additional 12 cards)

$$\binom{48}{12, 12, 12, 12} = \frac{48!}{12!12!12!12!}$$

- So, $P[\text{each gets an ace}] = \frac{\text{\# hands with one ace each}}{\text{\# hands in sample space}} = \frac{4 \times 3 \times 2 \cdot \frac{48!}{12!12!12!12!}}{\frac{52!}{13!13!13!13!}}$

N People

- N people in the class
- Each person can pick heads or tails
- A person will win if only 1 person selects heads
→ Ethernet network → what is the optimal strategy?

Three Doors

- Three doors, one has a prize behind it
- You pick one, what is the chance you win?
- After you pick your door, I open one of the others and show you there is no prize behind it
- Should you change your choice? (Yes, you should change!)
- If so, how? What is the probability you win?