

Introduction to Probability

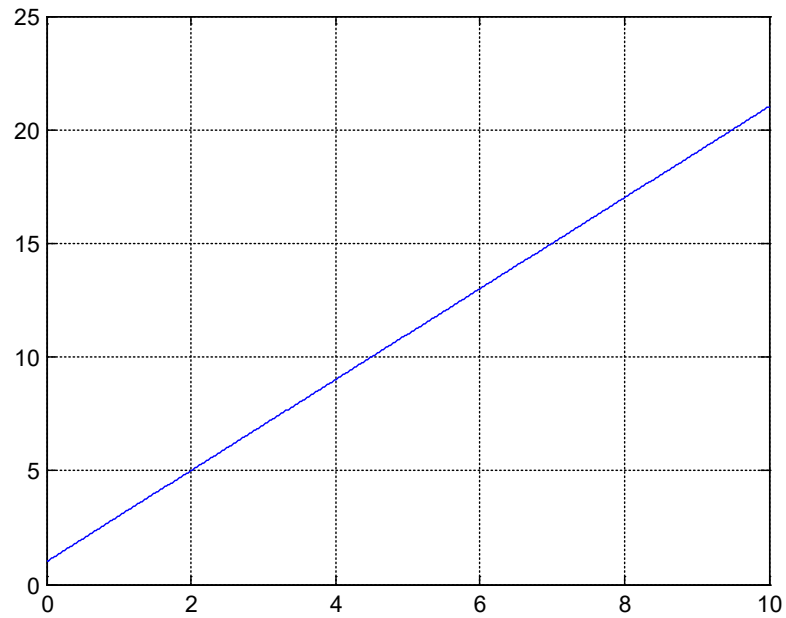
Why we should study the probability?



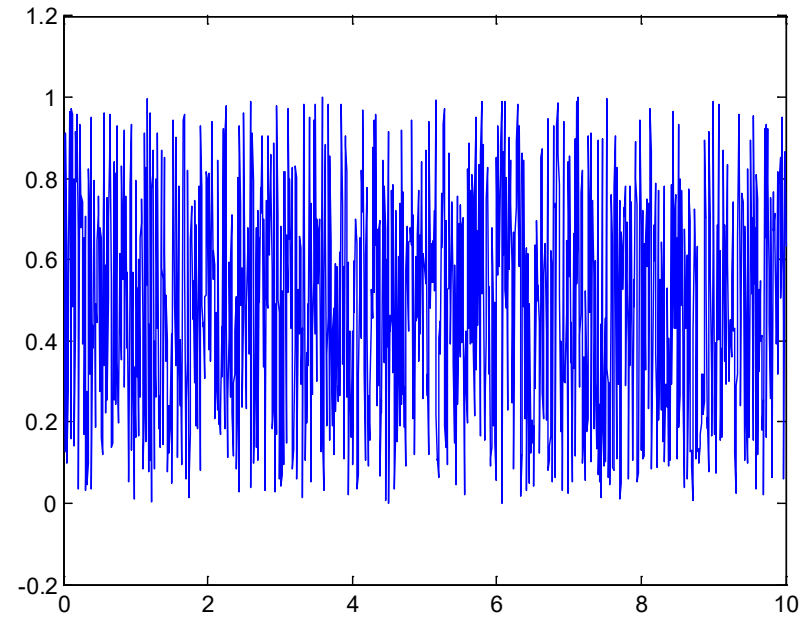
Our Interest and Goals

- Study tools to characterize uncertainty
 - Probability theory, random events, random variables
- Study related tools to characterize non-deterministic signals
 - Random processes, statistics
- Analyze systems with non-deterministic inputs and outputs.
 - Linear systems with random inputs
 - Communication channels with noise
 - Communication networks with uncertain delays

Random versus Deterministic



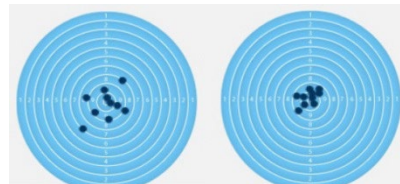
$Y=2X+1$



Random Noise

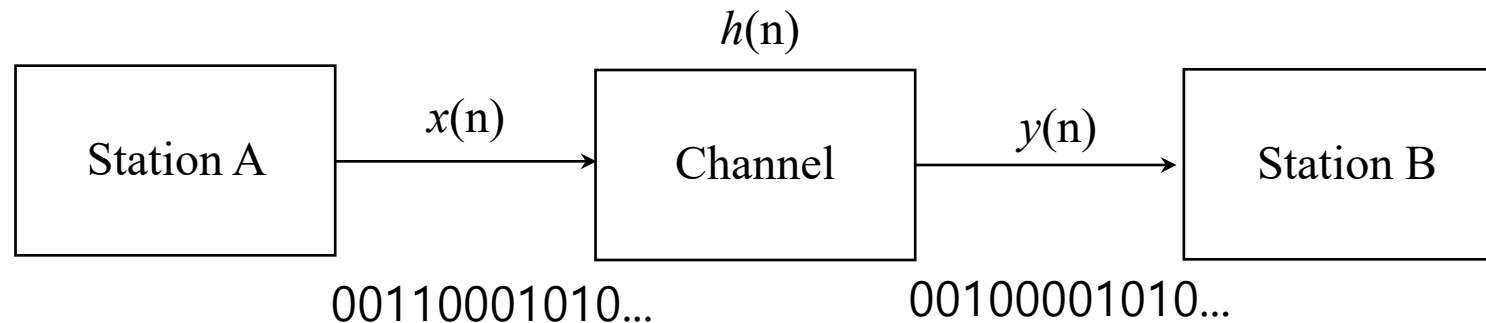
Randomness around us

- At bus stop
 - Waiting time for bus
 - The number of people to take a bus
- At a bank
 - Waiting time for service
 - Service time
 - The number of customers to wait for
- Bet/Game
 - Toss a coin: Head or Tail
 - Roll a dice: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
- Shooting game



Typical Electrical Engineering Problems (1/3)

- Annoying binary communication channel
 - The channel can be twisted pair, coaxial cable, fiber optic cable, or wireless medium.
 - The channel introduces noise and thereby bit errors.

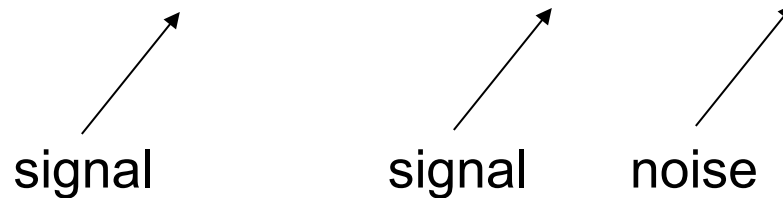


Typical Electrical Engineering Problems (2/3)

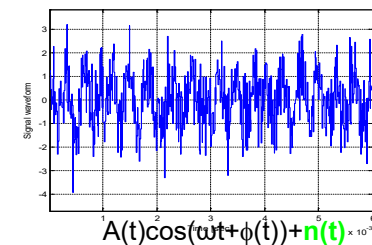
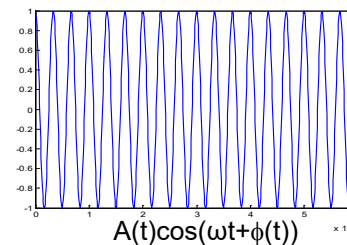
- Desired target signal is buried in noise.

$$x(t) = A(t) \cos(\omega t + \varphi(t)) + n(t)$$

signal signal noise



- Determine the presence or absence of the desired signal.
- Filter the signal out of noise.
- Demodulate the signal.

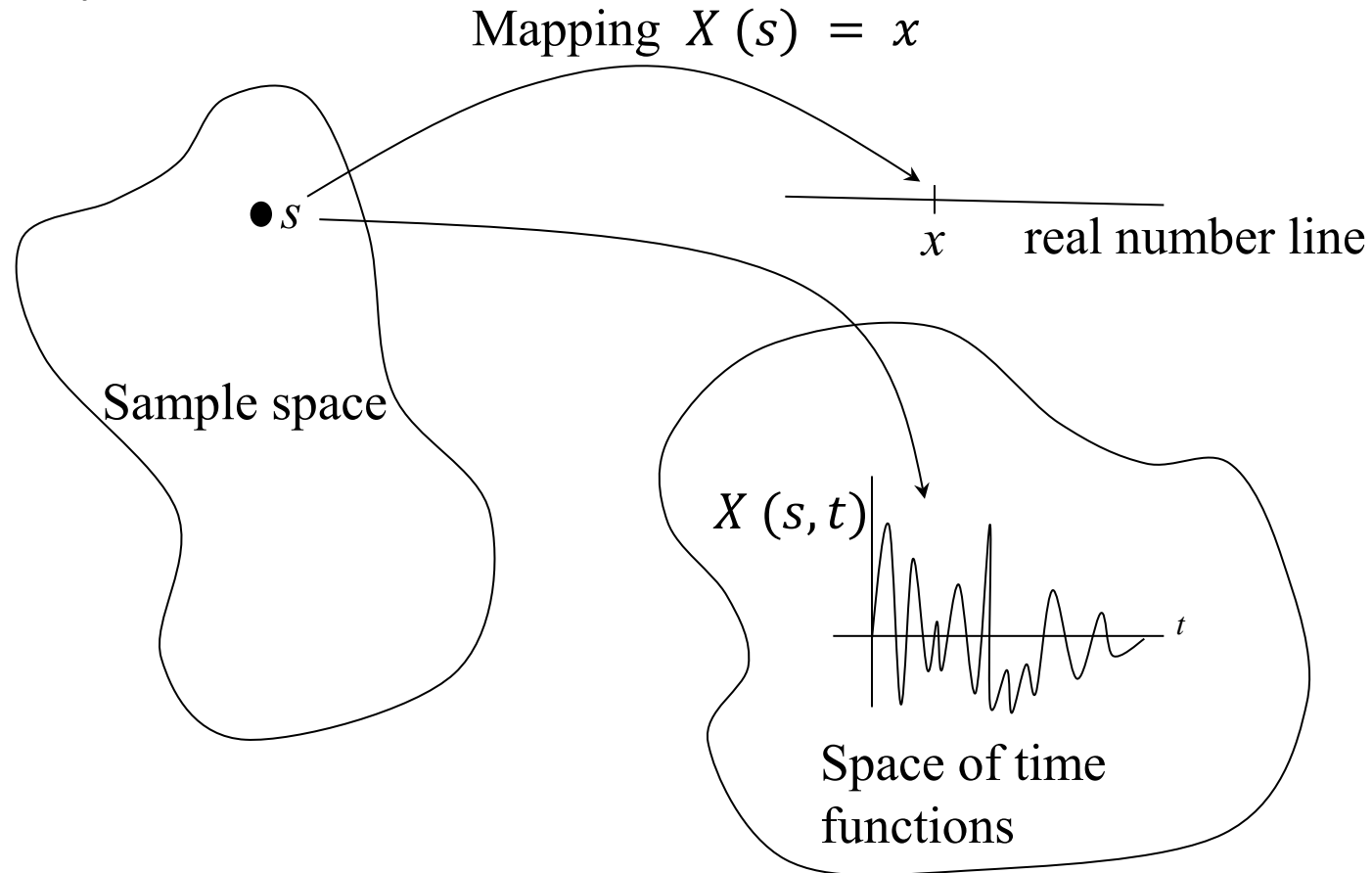


Typical Electrical Engineering Problems (3/3)

- In large computer networks, there are limited resources (e.g., bandwidth, routers, switches, printers and other devices) that need to be shared by the users.
 - User jobs/packets are queued and assigned service based on predefined criteria.
 - Demand is uncertain and service time is also uncertain.
 - Delay from the time the service is requested to the time it is completed is uncertain.
- Similar considerations exist for telephone networks, multiuser computer networks, and other communication networks.

Random Variables and Random Processes

- We will study their details later

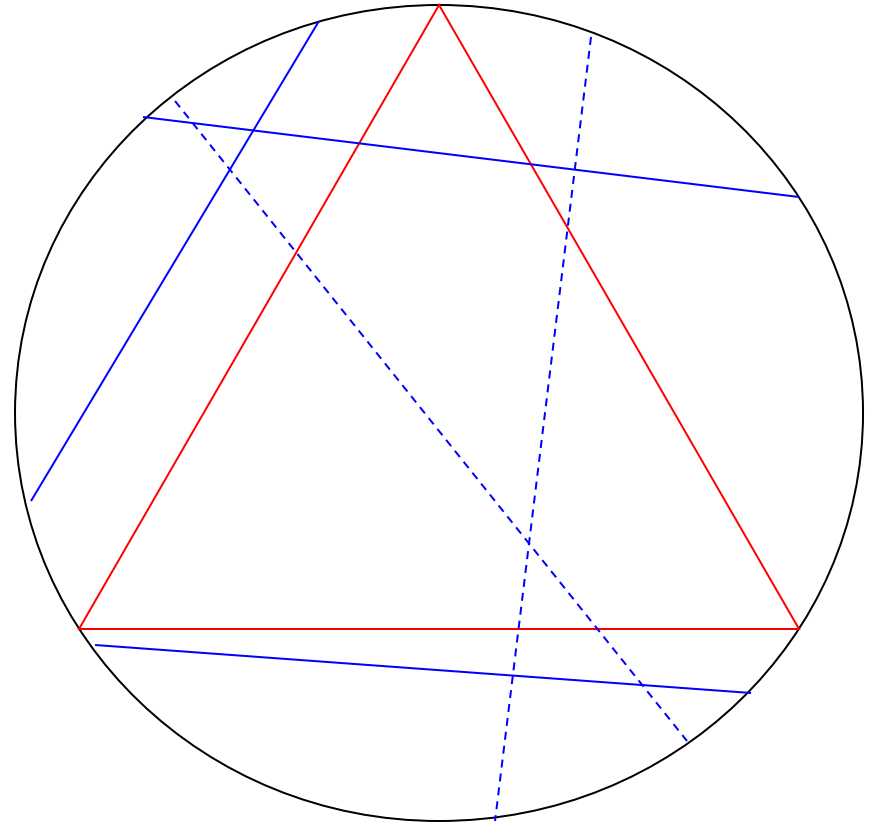


Why is the understanding of
randomness important?

Bertrand Paradox

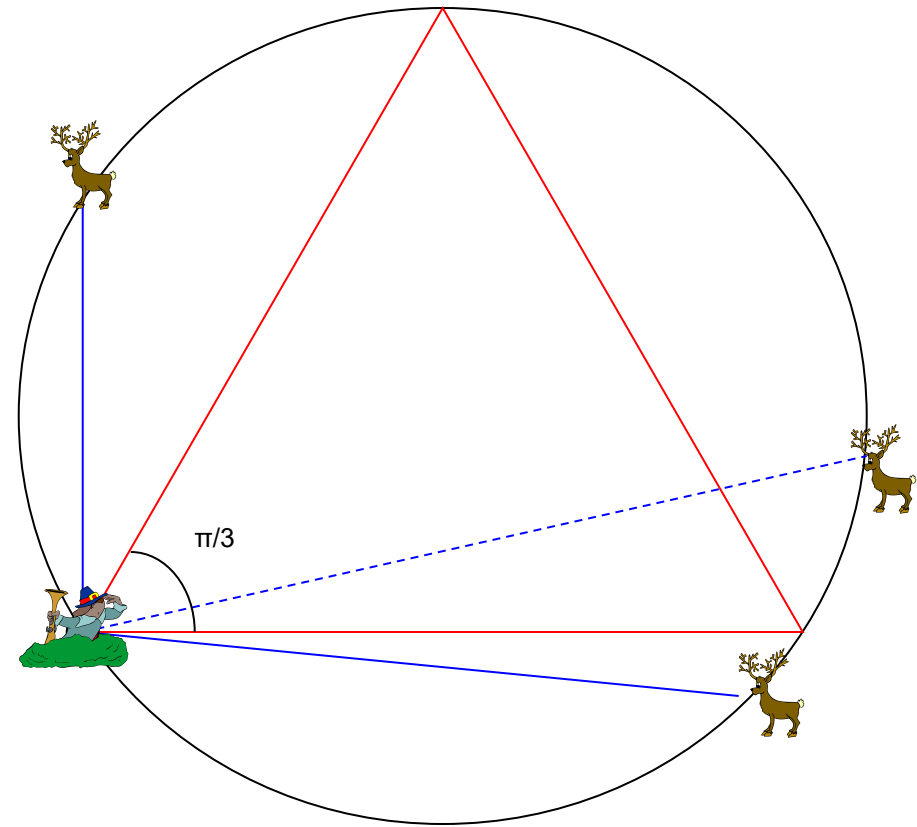
•Consider an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle. Suppose a chord of the circle is chosen at random. What is the probability that the chord is longer than a side of the triangle?

1. A third
2. A half
3. A quarter



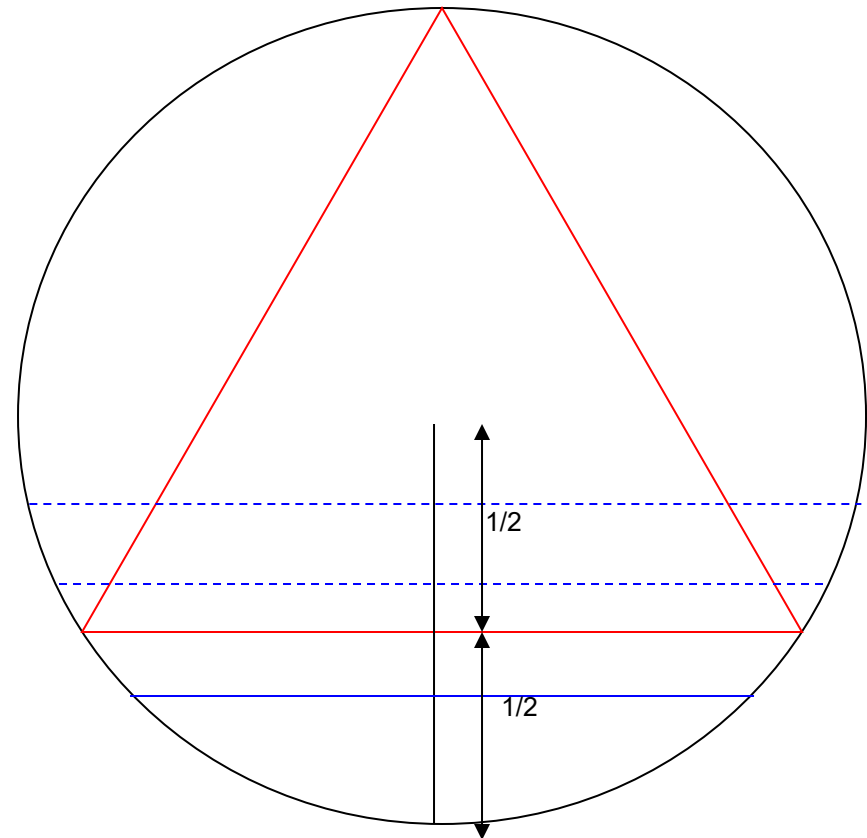
Solution 1: Bertrand Paradox

- Choose a point on the circumference and rotate the triangle so that the point is at one vertex.
- Choose another point on the circle and draw the chord joining it to the first point.
- For points on the arc between the endpoints of the side opposite the first point, the chord is longer than a side of the triangle.
- The length of the arc is one third of the circumference of the circle, therefore the probability a random chord is longer than a side of the inscribed triangle is **one third**.



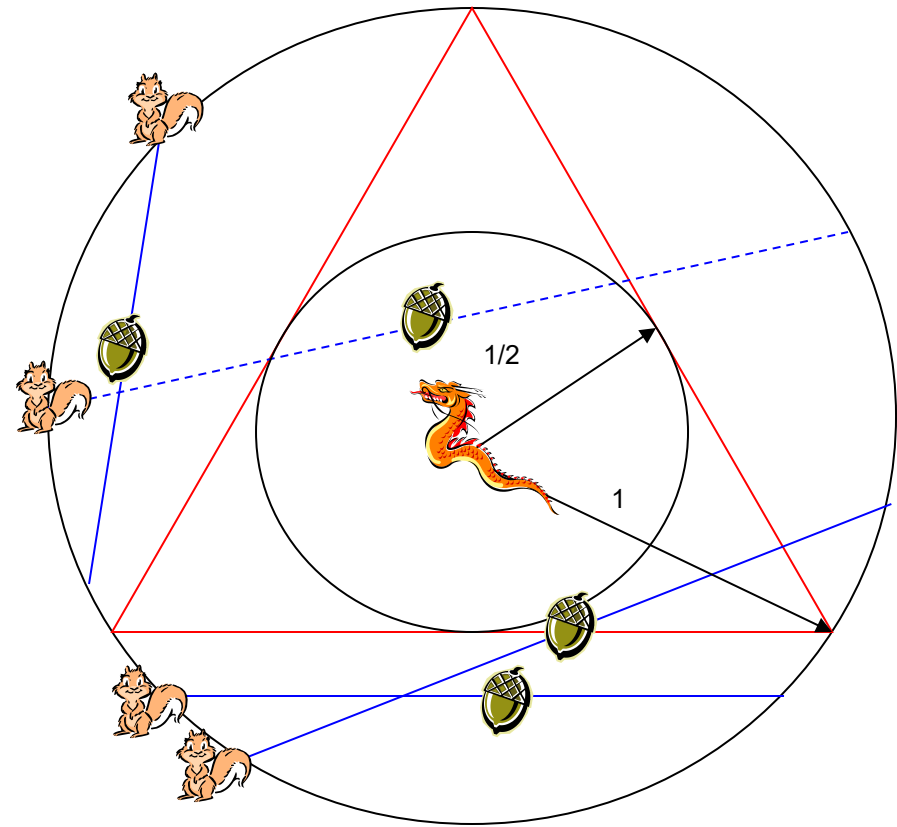
Solution 2: Bertrand Paradox

- Choose a radius of the circle and rotate the triangle so a side is perpendicular to the radius.
- Choose a point on the radius and construct the chord whose midpoint is the chosen point.
- The chord is longer than a side of the triangle if the chosen point is nearer the center of the circle than the point where the side of the triangle intersects the radius.
- Since the side of the triangle bisects the radius, it is equally probable that the chosen point is nearer or farther.
- Therefore the probability a random chord is longer than a side of the inscribed triangle is **one half**.



Solution 3: Bertrand Paradox

- Choose a point anywhere within the circle and construct a chord with the chosen point as its midpoint.
- The chord is longer than a side of the inscribed triangle if the chosen point falls within a concentric circle of radius $1/2$.
- The area of the smaller circle is one fourth the area of the larger circle, therefore the probability a random chord is longer than a side of the inscribed triangle is **one fourth**.



Probability Space

- A probability space $(S, F(S), P)$ is a triple made up of three elements
 1. S : Sample space
 2. $F(S)$: A collection of sets S , event space
 3. The probabilities of $P(E)$ for each $E \in F(S)$
 $P(.): F(S) \rightarrow [0, 1]$

Sample Space ($S, F(S), P$)

- Experimental **outcomes** are unpredictable
- The set of all possible outcomes is known
- The **sample space** S of an experiment is defined as the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment.
 - The flipping of a coin: $S = \{H, T\}$
 - The rolling of a die: $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
 - The flipping of two coins: $S = \{(H, H), (H, T), (T, H), (T, T)\}$
 - The lifetime of a car: $S = [0, \infty)$
- **An Event** is any subset E of the sample space S ($E \subset S$ or $E \in F(S)$)
 - $E = \{H\}, E = \{1\}, E = \{1, 3, 5\}, E = \{(H, H), (T, T)\}$

Basic Set Theory Definitions

- The set containing all possible elements of interest is called the universe, universal set or **space** S .
- The set containing no elements is called the **empty set** or **null set**.
- For any two events E and $F \subset S$, we define the event
 - $E \cup F$: the event $E \cup F$ will occur if either E or F (the union of E and F)
 - $E \cap F$ (or EF): the event EF consists of all outcomes which are both in E and in F
 - $E = \{1,3,5\}, F = \{1,2,3\}, E \cup F = ? \quad E \cap F = ?$
 - If $EF = \emptyset$, then E and F are said to be **mutually exclusive**.
 - For more than two events, we can define unions and intersections such as $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$ and $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$, where E_n s are events
- E^c : the **complement** of E , E^c will occur if and only if E does not occur
 - $S = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}, E = \{1,3,5\}, E^c = \{2,4,6\}, S^c = \emptyset$ or $\{\}$
- Two sets E and F are **equal** if they contain exactly the same elements.

Event Space $(S, F(S), P)$

- Intuitively, is a collection of events which we are interested in computing the probability of.
- Mathematically, is a family of subset of sample space S closed under certain set operations as below:
 1. If $E \in F(S)$, then $E^c \in F(S)$
 2. If $E_1, E_2 \in F(S)$, then $E_1 \cup E_2 \in F(S)$
 3. If $E_1, E_2, E_3 \dots \in F(S)$, then $\cup_{i=\{1,\dots,\infty\}} E_i \in F(S)$
 - A family of sets satisfying these three properties is called a σ -field

Probabilities Defined on Events $(S, \mathcal{F}(S), P)$

- For each event E of a sample space S , we assume that a number $P(E)$ is defined and satisfies the following three conditions:
 1. $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$
 2. $P(S) = 1$
 3. For any sequence of events E_1, E_2, \dots that are mutually exclusive, that is, events for which $E_n E_m = \emptyset$ when $n \neq m$, then
$$P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(E_n)$$
- We refer to $P(E)$ as the **probability** of the event E .
 - (e.g) the coin flipping $P(\{H\}) = P(\{T\}) = \frac{1}{2}$
 - The die rolling:
$$P(\{1\}) = P(\{2\}) = P(\{3\}) = P(\{4\}) = P(\{5\}) = P(\{6\}) = \frac{1}{6}$$
$$P(\{1,3,5\}) = P(\{1\}) + P(\{3\}) + P(\{5\}) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Properties of Probability

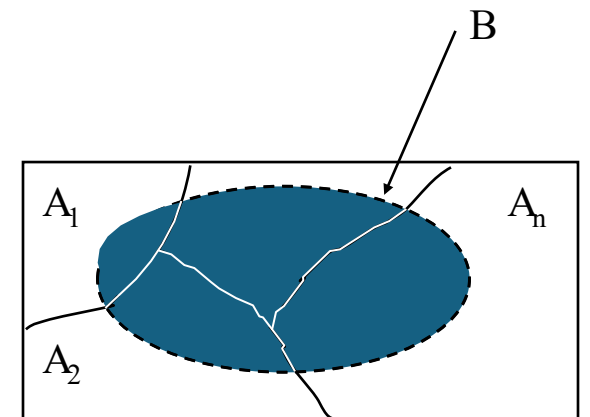
- $P(S) = 1$
 - $P(E) + P(E^c) = P(S)$
 - $P(E) = 1 - P(E^c)$
 - $P(\emptyset) = 0$
 - If $EF = \emptyset$, then $P(EF) = 0$
- $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) - P(EF)$
 - If $E \subset F$, then $P(E) \leq P(F)$
- $$\begin{aligned} P(E \cup F \cup G) &= P(E) + P(F) - P(EF) + P(G) - P(EG \cup FG) \\ &= P(E) + P(F) - P(EF) + P(G) - P(EG) - P(FG) + P(EFG) \\ &= P(E) + P(F) + P(G) - P(EF) - P(EG) - P(FG) + P(EFG) \end{aligned}$$
- $$P(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup E_3 \cup \dots \cup E_n) = \sum_i P(E_i) - \sum_{i < j} P(E_i E_j) + \sum_{i < j < k} P(E_i E_j E_k) + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} P(E_1 E_2 \dots E_n)$$

The Principle of Total Probability

- Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be a set of mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive events:

$$A_k A_j = 0 \quad k \neq j$$
$$\bigcup_{j=1}^n A_j = S \text{ then } \sum_{j=1}^n \Pr[A_j] = 1$$

- Now let B be any event in S . Then,
 $\Pr[B] = \Pr[BA_1] + \Pr[BA_2] + \dots + \Pr[BA_n]$



Conditional Probability

- If we let E and F denote the events, then the probability $P(E|F)$ is **the conditional probability** that E occurs given that F has occurred
 - Because we know that F has occurred, it follows that F becomes our new sample space and hence the event EF occurs will equal the probability of EF relative to the probability of F . That is
$$P(E|F) = P(EF)/P(F) \quad (1.5)$$
- Ex) A family has two children. What is the conditional probability that boys given that at least one of them is a boy? Assume that the sample space S is given by $S = \{(b, b), (b, g), (g, b), (g, g)\}$, and all outcomes are equally likely
 - $P(B|A) = P(BA)/P(A) = P(\{(b, b)\})/P(\{(b, b), (b, g), (g, b)\}) = \frac{\binom{1}{4}}{\binom{3}{4}} = \frac{1}{3}$

Independent Events

- Two events E and F are said to **independent** if $P(EF) = P(E)P(F)$
- By (1.5) this implies that E and F are independent if $P(E|F) = P(E)$
 - $P(E|F) = P(EF)/P(F) = P(E)P(F)/P(F) = P(E)$
- Two event E and F that are not independent are said to be **dependent**
- The definition of independence can be extended to more than two events. The events E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n are said to be independent if for every subset E_1, E_2, \dots, E_r $r \leq n$ of these events
$$P(E_1 E_2 \dots E_r) = P(E_1)P(E_2)P(E_r)$$
- Ex) Let $E = \{1,2\}, F = \{1,3\}, G = \{1,4\}, P(\{1\}) = P(\{2\}) = P(\{3\}) = P(\{4\})$
 - $P(EF) = P(E)P(F) = \frac{1}{4}$
 - $P(EG) = P(E)P(G) = \frac{1}{4}$
 - $P(FG) = P(F)P(G) = \frac{1}{4}$ (Mutually independent)
 - However, $\frac{1}{4} = P(EFG) \neq P(E)P(F)P(G) = \frac{1}{8}$. Hence, the events EFG are not jointly independent.

Bayes' Formula

- Suppose that F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n are mutually exclusive events such that $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i$, then

- $E = ES = E(\bigcup_{i=1}^n F_i) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n EF_i$
- $P(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(EF_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E|F_i) P(F_i)$ from (1.5) (1.8)

- $P(F_i|E) = \frac{P(E|F_i)}{P(E)}$ from (1.5)
- $= \frac{P(E|F_i)P(F_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(EF_i)P(F_i)}$ from (1.8) (1.9)

- Equation (1.9) is known as Bayes' Formula

- Ex) $F \cup F^c = S$

- $P(E) = P(ES) = P(E(F \cup F^c)) = P(EF \cup EF^c) = P(EF) + P(EF^c)$
 $= P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^c)P(F^c) = P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^c)(1 - P(F))$
- $P(F|E) = P(E|F)P(F)/P(E) = P(E|F)P(F)/(P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^c)P(F^c))$

Example of Bayes' Formula

- Ex. 1.13] In answering a question on a multiple-choice test a student either knows the answer or guesses. Let p be the probability that she knows the answer and $1 - p$ the probability that she guesses. Assume that a student who guesses at the answer will be correct with probability $\frac{1}{m}$, where m is the number of multiple-choice alternatives. What is the conditional probability that a student knew the answer to a question given that she answered it correctly?
 - Let C and K denote respectively the event that the student answers the question correctly and the event that she actually knows the answer. Now
 - $$\begin{aligned} P(K|C) &= P(KC)/P(C) \\ &= P(C|K)P(K)/(P(C|K)P(K) + P(C|K^c)P(K^c)) \\ &= p/(p + (1/m)(1 - p)) \\ &= mp/(1 + (m - 1)p) \end{aligned}$$
 - Thus, for example, if $m = 5$, $p = \frac{1}{2}$, then the probability that a student knew the answer to a question she correctly answered is $\frac{5}{6}$.

Example 1 of Probability

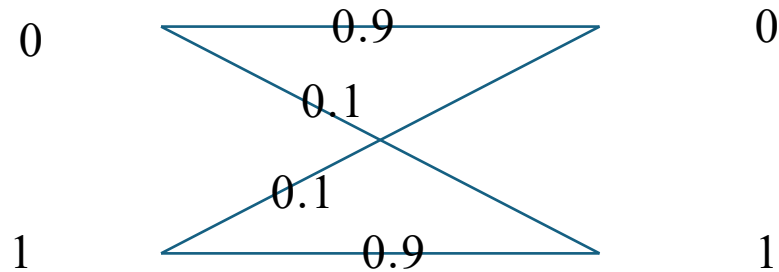
- Consider an experiment with a coin and a die. We define event A as an outcome with “head” of the coin and an even number of the die. Event B is defined as an outcome with a number greater than 3. Find the following answers
 - $P(A)$
 - $P(B)$
 - $P(AB)$
 - $P(A|B)$
 - $P(B|A)$

Answer: Example 1

- $P(A) = 3/12 = 1/4$
- $P(B) = 6/12 = 1/2$
- $AB = \{H4, H6\}, P(AB) = 2/12 = 1/6$
- $P(A|B) = P(AB)/P(B) = 1/3$
- $P(B|A) = P(AB)/P(A) = 2/3$

Example 2 of Probability

- Let A_1 (A_0) and B_1 (B_0) be the event that 1 (0) is sent and the event that 1(0) is received, respectively.
- Assumption
 - $P(A_0) = 0.8, P(A_1) = 1 - P(A_0) = 0.2$,
 - The probability of error, i.e., $p = P(B_1|A_0) = P(B_0|A_1)$, is 0.1



- Find
 - The error probability at the receiver
 - The probability that 1 is sent when the receiver decides 1.

Answer: Example 2

- Parameters
 - $P(A_0) = 0.8, P(A_1) = 1 - P(A_0) = 0.2, P(B_1|A_0) = P(B_0|A_1) = 0.1$
- The error probability at the receiver
 - $P(B_1|A_0)P(A_0) + P(B_0|A_1)P(A_1) = 0.1$
- The probability that 1 is sent when the receiver decides 1.
 - $P(A_m|B) = \frac{P(B|A_m)P(A_m)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A_m)P(A_m)}{\sum_{n=1}^N P(B|A_n)P(A_n)}$
 - $P(A_1|B_1) = \frac{P(B_1|A_1)P(A_1)}{P(B_1|A_1)P(A_1) + P(B_1|A_0)P(A_0)} = \frac{0.9 \times 0.2}{0.9 \times 0.2 + 0.1 \times 0.8} = 0.69$