

EE126: Probability and Random Processes

Lecture 4: Counting

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1 Logistics

2 Review

3 Counting

Logistics

- 1 Recitations: Arash on deck
- 2 Annotated Versions of LNs available

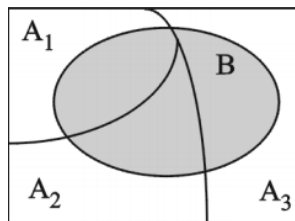
Review

Conditional Probability

If $P(B) \neq 0$ then

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

for any event A .



Multiplication Rule

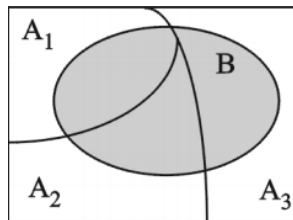
Assuming A_1, \dots, A_n have positive probability:

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1)\dots P(A_n|\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i)$$

Total Probability

A_1, \dots, A_N are mutually exclusive, non-empty events and that $\sum_{i=1}^N P(A_i) = 1$.

For any event B : Each of the base outcomes that comprise B must be in exactly one of A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N . Suppose we can calculate $P(B|A_i)$ for all i . Then we can find $P(B)$.



Total Probability Theorem

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= P(A_1 \cap B) + \dots + P(A_N \cap B) \\ &= P(A_1)P(B|A_1) + \dots + P(A_N)P(B|A_N) \end{aligned}$$

Bayes Rule

A_1, \dots, A_N partition Ω . We know the $P(A_i)$. Also, we know $P(B|A_i)$ for all i . Want $P(A_i|B)$

Example: An Xray has a shade (event B) which might be due to a malignant tumor (A_1), benign tumor (A_2), or other (A_3). We know $P(B|A_i)$, but what we care about is $P(A_i|B)$.

Bayes Rule

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_i|B) &= \frac{P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}{\sum_j^N P(A_j)P(B|A_j)} \end{aligned}$$

Independence

- Two events: $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$, $P(A|B) = P(A)$.
 - A, B independent $\Rightarrow B, A, A^c, B, A^c, B^c$ independent.
- Conditional independence: $A|C$ and $B|C$ independent, i.e. $P(A \cap B|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$.
 - Two conditionally independent events may be (unconditionally) dependent
 - Two conditionally dependent events may be (unconditionally) independent
- General Definition:
 - A collection of events A_1, \dots, A_n are independent if

$$P(\cap_{i \in S} A_i) = \prod_{i \in S} P(A_i)$$

for every subset S of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Discrete Uniform Law

Suppose all the base outcomes of an experiment are equally likely

Given any event A :

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{Number of base outcomes in } A}{\text{Total number of base outcomes}} = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}.$$

So just count.

Sometimes easy: Example: Toss two dice; Prob(both roll to an identical number)

But sometimes not so easy: Example: 13 people are randomly divided into 3 groups. Prob(two of the groups have the same number of people) = ☺

Need some counting machinery!

The Counting Principle

Suppose there are 2 experiments to be performed. Experiment 1 can result in m different outcomes, and experiment 2 can result in n different outcomes, then together there are mn outcomes.

| | | | |
|-------|-------|-----|-------|
| (1,1) | (1,2) | ... | (1,n) |
| (2,1) | (2,2) | ... | (2,n) |
| ... | | | |
| (m,1) | (m,2) | ... | (m,n) |

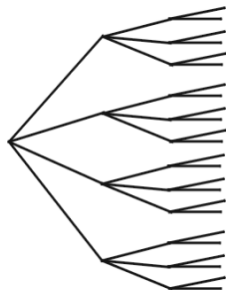
Counting Principle

There are r experiments; experiment i has n_i outcomes. The total number of outcomes is $n_1 n_2 \dots n_r$.

Counting Principle: Sequential Interpretation

Counting Principle

There are r experiments; experiment i has n_i outcomes. The total number of outcomes is $n_1 n_2 \dots n_r$.



How many subsets of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$? 2^n .

k-Permutations

How many different ways are there to list any k of n things?

- n ways to pick position 1 of the list
- $n - 1$ ways to pick position 2
- $n - k + 1$ to pick position k

From the counting principle: $n(n - 1)\dots(n - k + 1)$ ways.

k-Permutations

The number of k -Permutations ($k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$) of n objects is

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

If $k = n$ then this is called a permutation and there are $n!$ ways.
By convention, $0! = 1$.

Examples

42 students in a probability class: 32 men and 10 women.

- 1 How many ways to rank the first five? $\frac{42!}{37!}$
- 2 Prob(they are ranked in increasing alphabetical order) = $\frac{1}{42!}$.
- 3 Prob(men are ranked in increasing alphabetical order)? $\frac{1}{32!}$
- 4 Men and women are ranked separately: Prob(men and women are each ranked in increasing alphabetical order)? $\frac{1}{10!} \frac{1}{32!}$

Examples

- 1 Prob(six rolls of a die result in 6 different numbers) = $\frac{6!}{6^6}$
- 2 How many ways are there to seat n people around a round table? $(n - 1)!$.

Permutations with alike objects

Permutations of the word "SEEKS"

- ① List the $5! = 120$ ways assuming all the letters are distinguishable, i.e. $S_1 E_1 E_2 K_1 S_2$.
- ② Consider any instance, e.g. $S_2 E_2 E_1 S_1 K_1$:
 - Since the S 's are actually indistinguishable, $2!$ times the actual number. Same for the E 's.
 - Thus, there are $2!2! = 4$ times the correct number of instances of $S_2 E_2 E_1 S_2 K_1$.
- ③ Thus there $\frac{120}{4} = 30$ ways to list "SEEKS".

Permutations with Alike Objects

In general if there are n objects, n_1 of one kind are alike, n_2 of another kind are alike..., n_r are alike, then the number of permutations is

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

Combinations

We have n objects: $1, 2, \dots, n$.

Want to select $k \leq n$ of them.

We don't want to list them, just select k . How many different ways?

- 1 Assume that the order of the k selected matters:

$$(n)(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k+1)$$

- 2 There are $k!$ ways to list k objects, so each each listing generated above is repeated $k!$ times. Thus, there are

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

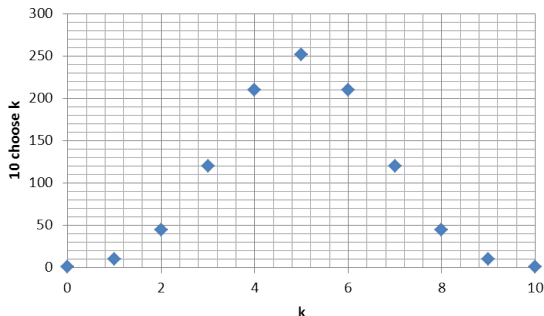
ways to select k objects from n objects.

Definition

Combinations

Let $\binom{n}{k}$ be the number of ways to choose $k \leq n$ objects from n .
Then

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



$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$$

Examples

- 1 Three students out of 10 are picked for a committee. How many ways? $\binom{10}{3}$
- 2 Ten students at the rec center divide themselves into 2 teams of 5 each. How many ways? $\binom{10}{5}$
- 3 Ten students need to be divided into an A-Team and a B-Team of 5 each. How many ways? $2 * \binom{10}{5}$

Binomial Distribution

In N coin tosses how many ways to get k Heads? Any k of the tosses could be heads so $\binom{N}{k}$.

Any given N -toss sequence with k heads has probability $p^k(1-p)^{N-k}$ where p is $P(\text{Heads})$.

Binomial Distribution

The probability of getting k heads in N tosses when $P(H)=p$ is

$$\binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k}.$$

Do the probabilities sum up to 1?

Binomial Theorem

- $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab$
- $(a + b)^3 = a^3 + b^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2$
- $(a + b)^4 = a^4 + b^4 + 4a^3b + 4ab^3 + 6a^2b^2$
- $(a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k b^{n-k}$

Back to the binomial distribution:

$$\sum_{k=0}^N \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} = (p + (1-p))^N = 1$$

Generalizing Combinations to k -partitions

How many ways can divide n objects into r groups with n_i objects in the i^{th} group?

Example: Ten students need to be divided into three teams of sizes 3,3,4. How many ways?

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{n}{n_1} \binom{n-n_1}{n_2} \cdots \binom{n_r}{n_r} &= \frac{n!}{(n-n_1)!n_1!} \frac{(n-n_1)!}{(n-n_1-n_2)!n_2!} \cdots \frac{n_r!}{n_r!1} \\ &= \frac{n!}{n_1!n_2! \dots n_r!} \end{aligned}$$

Partitioning n distinct objects into groups of n_1, \dots, n_r

In general if there are n objects, n_1 of one kind are alike, n_2 of another kind are alike..., n_r are alike, then the number of permutations is

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

Generalizing Combinations to k -partitions

The formula is identical to the one for permutations with like objects!

Recall Permutations of the word "SEEKS"

- The distinct letters tag the positions $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ with a group "name".
- Example: $EESK \Rightarrow 1, 2$ in group E , $3, 4$ in group S and 5 in group K .
- Number of distinct ways of writing $SEEKS =$ Number of ways of dividing 5 things into three groups of sizes 2, 2 and 1.
- Combinations are a special case: $\binom{n}{k}$ is the number of permutations of a n -word with k A's and $n - k$ B's.

Partitions

How many ways are there to divide n identical objects into k groups?

Example: $n = 4$ $k = 2$: $\{(4, 0), (3, 1), (2, 2), (1, 3), (0, 4)\} \Rightarrow 5$.

Code each way with n 1's and $k - 1$ 0's. For example, if $n = 5$, $k = 3$, then

$$(1, 2, 2) \Leftrightarrow (1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1)$$

There are $\binom{n+k-1}{n}$ ways of picking the boolean vector.

Partitioning n identical objects

There are $\binom{n+k-1}{n}$ distinct non negative integer-valued vectors (x_1, \dots, x_k) satisfying

$$x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_k = n.$$

Back to original question...

13 people are randomly divided into 3 groups.

Prob(two of the groups have the same number of people)=