# Dices and other Stories Abstract Model of Randomness

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September 2023



HINTS

- **1** MOTIVATION: Randomizing and Modeling
- 2 FORMALIZATION: the formal language of probability
- GEOMETRY: random lines

4 HINTS AND DISCUSSION



# PROBABILITY AND COMPUTER SCIENCE

# Modeling

- ▶ Data modeling: text compression (entropy), algorithm analysis,...
- ▶ Performance evaluation : workload description, users profile,...

### Randomization

- ► Probabilistic method
- ► Random based algorithms (cryptography)
- ► Simulation of systems



# MR. AND MRS. SMITH

# Exercice 1a

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What are the difficulties to solve such problems?



# PASCAL AND CHEVALIER DE MÉRÉ DISCUSSION (SIMPLIFIED)

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- ▶ if the result is 11 or 12 you earn 11 (including your bet)
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(MOTIVATION) FORMALIZATION GEOMETRY HINTS

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# THE MONTY HALL PROBLEM

## A TV show problem

There are 3 closed doors beside one there is a magnificent car, beside the two others nothing.

- TV host: Please choose one door. As example you choose door 2.
- ► TV host: I want to help you. I open one of the remaining door with nothing. For example he opens door 1.
- ► TV host: in fact you could modify your first choice, do you change your initial decision of choosing door 2.
- ▶ As example you decide to change and you open door 3. You win if the car is beside.

#### Exercice 3a

What is a good strategy: change or not your initial decision?



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(MOTIVATION) FORMALIZATION GEOMETRY HINTS

# THE CONTROL OF DEMOGRAPHY

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Only one birth per family is allowed. Are there more male births than female on average?



MOTIVATION GEOMETRY HINTS

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Families are allowed to have a first child, if she is a girl they could have a second one. Are there more male births than female on average?



MOTIVATION FORMALIZATION GEOMETRY HINTS

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Families are allowed to have children, until they get a boy. Are there more male births than female on average?



MOTIVATION GEOMETRY HINTS

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4 HINTS AND DISCUSSION



## ABSTRACT REPRESENTATION

Consider now a set  $\Omega$ , a set  $\mathcal{A}$  of parts of  $\Omega$  is called a  $\sigma$ -field if it satisfies the following properties :

- **2** If  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  then  $\overline{A} \in \mathcal{A}$  (the complement of A in  $\Omega$  is in  $\mathcal{A}$ );
- **3** Let  $\{A_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  a denumerable set of element of  $\mathcal{A}$  then

$$\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}A_n\in\mathcal{A};$$

 $(\sigma$ -additivity property)

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For a **finite set**  $\Omega$  we generally use  $\mathcal{A}$  as the set of all subsets of  $\Omega$ , it assumes that we could observe any value in  $\Omega$ .

# Interpretation

The set  $\Omega$  models the real world, which is impossible to capture with all of its complexity. Consequently we observe the reality with measurement tools and get partial information on it. An *event* is a fact we could observe on the physical situation. It assumes the existence of an experience that produces the event which is observable.



## **PROBABILITY**

The idea of probability is to put some real value on events, then the probability function is defined on the set of events and associate to each event a real in [0, 1].

#### **Basic Axioms**

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \mathbb{P}: & \mathcal{A} & \longrightarrow & [0,1]; \\ & A & \longmapsto & \mathbb{P}(A). \end{array}$$

It verifies the following rules:

② If  $\{A_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is a sequence of disjoint events (for all (i,j),  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ ) then

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{n}A_{n}\right)=\sum_{n}\mathbb{P}(A_{n});$$

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For a **finite set**  $\Omega = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$  and A the set of all subsets of  $\Omega$ , the probability is entirely defined from the probability of the elements of  $\Omega$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(\{a_i\})$ .

For 
$$A \in \mathcal{A}$$
, we have  $\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{a \in A} \mathbb{P}(\{a\})$ .



# **Probability properties**



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- **6**  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0;$



# **Probability properties**

- **①** If  $A \subset B$ , then  $\mathbb{P}(A) \leqslant \mathbb{P}(B)$  ( $\mathbb{P}$  is a non-decreasing function).



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Let A and B events of  $\Omega$ :

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## Interpretation

The semantic of a probability measure is related to experimentation. Consequently it supposes that we can repeat infinitively experiments in the same conditions. Then the probability of an event (observable) *A* is the abstraction of the proportion that this event is realized in a large number of experiments. Consequently the probability is an ideal proportion, assuming that we could produce an infinite number of experiments and compute the asymptotic of frequencies.



# CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY

Consider *B* such that  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ . The conditional probability of an event *A* knowing *B*,

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

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## Interpretation

The meaning of conditional probability comes from the fact that we could observe reality through several measurement instruments. The conditional probability considers external information (event) which is given a-priori.



# **CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY (2)**

## The law of total probability (theorem)

Consider a partition of  $\Omega$  in a countable set of observable events  $\{B_n\}$  ( $\mathbb{P}(B_n) > 0$ ).

$$\Omega = B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \cdots \cup B_n \cup \cdots$$
 and for all  $i \neq j$ ,  $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$ 

The law of total probability states that for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{n} \mathbb{P}(A|B_n)\mathbb{P}(B_n).$$

The Bayes' theorem reverse this scheme by

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HINTS

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## Interpretation

The law of total probability explains that if we have a set of disjoint alternatives, we could compute the probability of an event by computing its probability knowing each alternative and then combine all of them with the weight (probability) of each alternative.



## INDEPENDENCE

Two events *A* and *B* are independents if and only if they satisfy

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A).\mathbb{P}(B).$$

This is rewritten, assuming  $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ 

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## Interpretation

Independence is related to the causality problem. If two events are not independent we could suspect a hidden relation between them, then an event could be the "cause" of the other. On the other side two events are independent if in the observed phenomenon there are no possible relations between the events.



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## RANDOM VARIABLES

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## Abstraction of the real world by a mapping (random variable)

$$\begin{array}{cccc} X:\Omega & \longrightarrow & E \\ & \omega & \longmapsto & X(\omega) \end{array}$$

such that event

$${X \in B} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} {\omega \in \Omega \text{ such that } X(\omega) \in B} \in \mathcal{A},$$

Standard description of the  $\sigma$ -field

- Generated by singletons for discrete values (all subsets are events)
- ► Generated by intervals (Borel  $\sigma$ -fields) for continuous sets (as  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ...)

Law (or probability distribution) of a random variable

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in B) = \mathbb{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega \text{ such that } X(\omega) \in B\})$$



## A MODELING EXAMPLE: RESULT OF A DICE THROW

#### Old fashion

- $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  (rough simplification of reality)
- the events are all the subsets of Ω
- the probability law is uniform on all singletons



## A MODELING EXAMPLE: RESULT OF A DICE THROW

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## Naming the randomness

- ightharpoonup  $\Omega$  experiment (highly complex)
- ightharpoonup A a  $\sigma$ -field on  $\Omega$  (highly complex)
- ightharpoonup a probability on  $\mathcal{A}$

#### Assumption

- model the random experiment by a random variable X
- ▶ values of *X* are {1, ..., 6}
- ▶ and probability law uniform that is  $\mathbb{P}(X = i) = \frac{1}{6}$



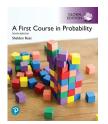
## **SYNTHESIS**

## Global picture

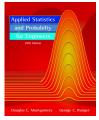
- ▶ Reality is hard to capture with common language
- ► Formal language of probability
- ▶ Algebraic rules
  - σ-algebra of events
  - independence and conditional probabilities
- Interpretation

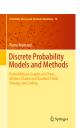


## REFERENCES







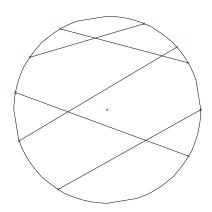




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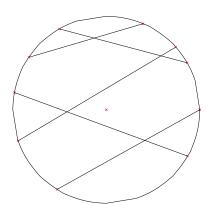
Joseph Bertrand: generate a random chord



Compute the probability that the length of the chord is greater than the length of the side of an equilateral triangle inscribed in the circle.



# Joseph Bertrand: generate a random chord



Compute the probability that the length of the chord is greater than the length of the side of an equilateral triangle inscribed in the circle.

#### Alternatives

$$p = \frac{1}{2}$$
  $p = \frac{1}{3}$   $p = \frac{1}{4}$ 



Joseph Bertrand: generate a random chord

## Circle



$$p=\frac{1}{3}.$$



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$$p=\frac{1}{3}.$$

## Rays



$$p=rac{1}{2}.$$



Joseph Bertrand: generate a random chord

Circle



$$p = \frac{1}{3}$$
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# Rays



$$p=\frac{1}{2}$$
.

## Disc



$$p = \frac{1}{4}$$
.



# **JOSEPH BERTRAND (1822-1900)**



Joseph Louis François Bertrand, habituellement appelé Joseph Bertrand, né le 11 mars 1822 à Paris, mort le 3 avril 1900 à Paris, était un mathématicien, historien des sciences et académicien français.

Enfant prodige, à onze ans il suit les cours de l'École Polytechnique en auditeur libre. Entre onze et dix-sept ans il obtient deux baccalauréats, une licence et le doctorat ès sciences avec une thèse sur la théorie mathématique de l'électricité, puis est admis premier au concours d'entrée 1839 de l'École Polytechnique. Il est ensuite reçu au concours de l'agrégation de mathématiques des facultés et premier au premier concours d'agrégation de mathématiques des lycées avec Charles Briot, ainsi qu'à l'Ecole des mines. Il fut professeur de mathématiques au lycée Saint-Louis, répétiteur, examinateur puis professeur d'analyse en 1852 à l'École polytechnique et titulaire de la chaire de physique et mathématiques au Collège de France en 1862 en remplacement de Jean-Baptiste Biot.

En 1845, en analysant une table de nombres premiers jusqu'â 6 000 000, il fait la conjecture qu'il y a toujours au moins un nombre premier entre net 2n-2 pour tout n plus grand que 3. Tchebychev a démontré cette conjecture, le postulat de Bertrand, en 1850.

Pour l'étude de la convergence des series numériques, il mit au point un critère de comparaison plus fin que le critère de Riemann.

$$\sum \frac{1}{n^{\alpha} \log n^{\beta}} \text{ converge ssi } (\alpha, \beta) \geqslant (1, 1).$$



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MOTIVATION FORMALIZATION GEOMETRY (HINTS)

## HINTS FOR SOLUTIONS EXERCISE1

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## Exercice 1b

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#### Exercice 1b

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## Exercice 1b

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Boy		
Girl	X	

#### Exercice 1c

What are the difficulties to solve such problems?



MOTIVATION FORMALIZATION GEOMETRY (HINTS)

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#### Intuition

2 <sup>nd</sup> 1 <sup>st</sup>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1		3	4	5	6	7
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
6	7	8	9	10	11	12

- Probability to win:  $\frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$
- Expected gain:  $11 \times \frac{1}{12} + 0 \times \frac{11}{12} 1 = -\frac{1}{12}$
- ► On average you loose  $\frac{1}{12}$  per game





## FORMAL PROOF

Step 1: The Model (and the question)

Denote by X (resp. Y) the random variable representing the result of the first (resp. second) dice.

**Statistical Hypothesis:** *X* and *Y* have the same probability law, with a uniform distribution on  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and are independent. Denote by S = X + Y. **Question:** Compute the probability that *S* is 11 or 12.



## (HINTS)

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## Step 2: Answer the question

We compute the law of *S*, using some algebra, for  $i \in \{2, \dots, 12\}$ 

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(S=i) & = & \mathbb{P}(X+Y=i) = \sum_k \mathbb{P}(X=k,Y=i-k) \text{(rule of sum of disjoint subsets)} \\ & = & \sum_k \mathbb{P}(X=k) \mathbb{P}(Y=i-k) \text{(independence of } X \text{ and } Y) \\ & = & \sum_k \mathbb{P}(X=k) \mathbb{P}(Y=i-k) \text{(independence of } X \text{ and } Y) \\ & = & \text{applying to } i = 11 \text{ and } i = 12 \\ \\ \mathbb{P}(S=11) & = & \mathbb{P}(X=5) \mathbb{P}(Y=6) + \mathbb{P}(X=6) \mathbb{P}(Y=5) = \frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{6} = \frac{2}{36} \\ \\ \mathbb{P}(S=12) & = & \mathbb{P}(X=6) \mathbb{P}(Y=6) = \frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{26} \end{split}$$

## Step 3: Interpretation

The average gain considering a large number of games is  $-\frac{1}{12}$ 



# **QUESTIONS**

## Uniformity problem

The modeling error was to suppose that the result of the sum is uniformly distributed as the two dices are. To help Chevalier de Méré, could you build two different biased dices (both faces are  $\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ ) so that the result of the sum is uniformly distributed.

Follow the 3 steps.





## **ELEMENTS OF PROOF**

## Step 1: Modeling

Model the result of the first dice (resp second) by a random variable X (resp Y) with value in  $\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ . The dices are biased so we define the probability law for each as  $p_i = \mathbb{P}(X=i)$  and  $q_i = \mathbb{P}(Y=i)$  for  $i \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ . Assumption: X and Y are independent



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Assumption: *X* and *Y* are independent

Step 2: Analysis of the formal model

Th probability of each cell should be computed

Y		1	2	3	4	5	6
		$p_1$	$p_2$	<i>p</i> <sub>3</sub>	$p_4$	$p_5$	<i>p</i> <sub>6</sub>
1	$q_1$	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	92		4	5	6	7	8
3	93	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	94	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	95	6	7	8	9	10	11
6	96	7	8	9	10	11	12

Convolution of the probability distributions



HINTS

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Convolution of the probability distributions

## Probabilities (using independence)

GEOMETRY

i	$\mathbb{P}(X+Y=i)$	
2	$p_1q_1$	
3	$p_1q_2 + p_2q_1$	
4	$p_1q_3 + p_2q_2 + p_3q_1$	
5	$p_1q_4 + p_2q_3 + p_3q_2 + p_4q_1$	
6	$p_1q_5 + p_2q_4 + p_3q_3 + p_4q_2$	
	$+p_5q_1$	
7	$p_1q_6 + p_2q_5 + p_3q_4 + p_4q_3$	
	$+p_5q_2+p_6q_1$	
8	$p_2q_6 + p_3q_5 + p_4q_4 + p_5q_3$	
	$+p_6q_2$	
9	$p_3q_6 + p_4q_5 + p_5q_4 + p_6q_3$	
10	$p_4q_6 + p_5q_5 + p_6q_4$	
11	$p_5q_6 + p_6q_5$	رما
12	p696	rsité xble Ali



## The question

We have to find the unknown  $p_1, \dots, p_6$  and  $q_1, \dots, q_6$  such that for all i

$$\mathbb{P}(X+Y=i)=\frac{1}{11}$$

with the constraints

$$0 \le p_i, q_i \le 1$$
 and  $p_1 + \cdots + p_6 = q_1 + \cdots + q_6 = 1$  (probability)



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Remark: 11 equations +2 (constraints) for 12 unknown, the system is over constrained and we could suspect that there are no solutions... (intuition)



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## Some algebra and analysis

Explain that  $p_1$ ,  $q_1$ ,  $p_6$ ,  $q_6$  are strictly positive

$$q_1 = \frac{1}{11p_1}$$
 and  $q_6 = \frac{1}{11p_6}$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(X+Y=7) = p_1q_6 + p_2q_5 + p_3q_4 + p_4q_3 + p_5q_2 + p_6q_1$$

$$\geqslant p_1q_6 + p_6q_1 = \frac{1}{11} \left( \frac{p_1}{p_6} + \frac{p_6}{p_1} \right)$$

$$> \frac{1}{11} \text{ because either } \frac{p_1}{p_6} \text{ or } \frac{p_6}{p_1} \text{ is strictly greater than 1}$$



## **Step 3: Interpretation**

Following the constraints we deduce that  $\mathbb{P}(X + Y = 7) > \frac{1}{11}$ , so it is impossible to biase the dice such that the sum follow a uniform distribution.



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- Is it possible to release the independence assumption? That is for example if the bias of the second dice depends on the result of the first dice?



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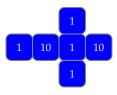
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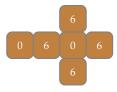
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- The proof looks like a trick, is it possible to find a general way to solve such problems?
- Is it possible to release the independence assumption? That is for example if the bias of the second dice depends on the result of the first dice?
- Is it possible to change the values on the faces of the dices so that the sum follow the same distribution as the sum of two regular dices?



## **ANOTHER GAME**







#### Rules

- Choose one of the dices
- ▶ I choose another one
  - Throw your dice as I do for my. dice, the best score wins the play
  - Repeat the play
  - until some end

analyse this game

