

Lecture 1: September 26

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1.1 Admin Details

This course aims to teach 3 broad things:

- Measure theoretic probability
- Basic theorems
 - Strong law of large numbers
 - Central limit theorem
 - Poisson convergence
 - Stein's method
- Probabilistic thinking

1.2 Basic Problem of Probability

Let X be a countable set $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$. Define a function p such that $p(x) \geq 0$ for each x , and $\sum_{x \in X} p(x) = 1$. Let A be some subset of X . Then the basic problem of probability can be stated as follows:

$$\text{Compute/Approximate } p(A) = \sum_{x \in A} p(x).$$

1.3 Example (Birthday Problem)

Question: How many people do you need in a group so that the chance of 2 (or more) people having the same birthday is $\frac{1}{2}$?

The birthday problem can be viewed as trying to fit people into 365 categories (i.e. days). A generalization of this would be trying to fit people into N categories for some positive integer N .

Let's try and set up X , p and A for this problem. Let there be k people present. Assuming that people are uniformly distributed across the categories, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X &= [N]^k, & \text{where } [N] &:= \{1, 2, \dots, N\} \\ p(x) &= \frac{1}{N^k}, & \forall x \in X \\ A &= \{\text{sequences where } x_i\text{'s are distinct}\}. \end{aligned}$$

(Note here that A actually represents the *complement* of the event whose probability we are trying to find.) We have

$$\begin{aligned} p(A) &= \sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{N^k} \\ &= \frac{|A|}{N^k} \\ &= \frac{N(N-1)\dots(N-k+1)}{N^k} \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{N}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{N}\right). \end{aligned}$$

This is a perfectly reasonable answer but it's not particularly insightful. Let's use some approximations to get a better feel for what's going on:

$$\begin{aligned} p(A) &= \exp \left[\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log \left(1 - \frac{i}{n} \right) \right] \\ &= \exp \left[- \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{i}{n} + O \left(\frac{i^2}{n^2} \right) \right) \right] \quad \text{using } \log(1-x) = -x + O(x^2) \\ &= \exp \left[- \binom{k}{2} / N + O \left(\frac{k^3}{N^2} \right) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

To pick k such that $p(A) = \frac{1}{2}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \exp \left[- \binom{k}{2} / N \right] &= \frac{1}{2}, \\ \frac{k(k-1)}{2} &= N \log 2, \\ k &\approx 1.2\sqrt{N}. \end{aligned}$$

This means that as N grows, the required k for $p(A) = \frac{1}{2}$ grows as \sqrt{N} . In particular, for $N = 365$, we have $k = 22.9 \approx 23$.

Extension (Hard): What is the probability of 3 (or more) people having the same birthday?

1.4 Example (Classical Model for Tossing a Fair Coin)

Let $\Omega = (0, 1]$. Define p on intervals $p((a, b]) := b - a$. For $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^k (a_i, b_i]$ disjoint, define $p(A) := \sum_{i=1}^k (b_i - a_i)$.

For each $\omega \in \Omega$, write

$$\omega = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{d_i(\omega)}{2^i},$$

where d_i represents the i^{th} digit of the binary expansion of ω . (If there is more than one way of writing the binary expansion, using the non-terminating one.)

1.4.1 Weak Law of Large Numbers

We have the following theorem:

Theorem 1.1 (Weak Law of Large Numbers) For all $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p \left\{ \omega : \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d_i(\omega) - \frac{1}{2} \right| > \varepsilon \right\} = 0.$$

Proof: For convenience, define $r_i = 2d_i - 1$. (r_i 's take on the values 1 and -1 instead of 1 and 0.) Then, we can rewrite

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} \sum d_i &= \frac{1}{n} \sum \left(\frac{r_i + 1}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2n} \left(\sum r_i \right) + \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, it suffices to prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum r_i \right| > \varepsilon \right\} = 0.$$

Note that $\int_0^1 r_i(\omega) d\omega = 0$, and

$$\int_0^1 r_i(\omega) r_j(\omega) d\omega = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j, \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j. \end{cases}$$

As a result, we have

$$\int_0^1 \left(\sum r_i(\omega) \right)^2 d\omega = n.$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} p \left\{ \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum r_i \right| > \varepsilon \right\} &= p \left\{ \left(\sum r_i \right)^2 > n^2 \varepsilon^2 \right\} \\ &\leq \frac{n}{n^2 \varepsilon^2} && \text{by Markov's Inequality} \\ &= \frac{1}{n \varepsilon^2} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. ■

For completeness, we will state and prove (a version of) Markov's inequality, which we used in the proof above:

Theorem 1.2 (Markov) For a function $f : (0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ and $a > 0$,

$$p \{ \omega : f(\omega) \geq a \} \leq \frac{\int_0^1 f(\omega) d\omega}{a}.$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 f(\omega) d\omega &= \int_{f(\omega) < a} f(\omega) d\omega + \int_{f(\omega) \geq a} f(\omega) d\omega \\ &\geq \int_{f(\omega) < a} f(\omega) d\omega + a \int_{f(\omega) \geq a} 1 d\omega \\ &\geq 0 + a p \{ f \geq a \}. \end{aligned}$$

■

Note: In the proof of the weak law of large numbers, we actually proved that the probability of the event in question was bounded above by $\frac{1}{n\varepsilon^2}$. This bound is actually pretty far off: for example, if $\varepsilon = 0.01$, we would need n to be something like 100,000 before we see good convergence. The upper bound on the probability is more like $\frac{e^{-n\varepsilon}}{\sqrt{n}}$.

1.4.2 Strong Law of Large Numbers

The weak law of large numbers says that for any *fixed* n , $\frac{1}{n} \sum d_i$ is close to $\frac{1}{2}$. In contrast, the strong law looks at a particular realization of ω and asks, is it true that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_n(\omega)}{n} = \frac{1}{2} ? \quad (1.1)$$

This relationship may not hold for all ω .

- Let $\omega^* = 0.01111 \dots$. Then $\lim \frac{S_n(\omega^*)}{n} = 1$.
- The limit may not even exist! For example, if $\omega^* = 0.01100001111111 \dots$, where each series of 2^k ones is followed by 2^{k+1} zeros.

With this in mind, the best we can hope for is for Equation 1.1 to hold for "most" ω . The following definition will help to make the idea of "most" precise:

Definition 1.3 A set $B \subseteq (0, 1]$ is negligible if for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist intervals $(a_i, b_i]$ such that

$$B \subset \bigcup (a_i, b_i] \quad \text{and} \quad \sum p(a_i, b_i] < \varepsilon.$$

Theorem 1.4 (Strong Law of Large Numbers) Let

$$A = \left\{ \omega : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_n}{n} = \frac{1}{2} \right\}.$$

Then A^c is negligible.

In fact, A can be written out explicitly:

$$A = \bigcap_{k=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{m=n}^{\infty} \left\{ \omega : \left| \frac{S_m}{m} - \frac{1}{2} \right| < \frac{1}{k} \right\}.$$