

# EECS 126 Notes

Japjot Singh

March 9, 2020

Course notes for EECS 126 taken in Spring 2020.

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Tuesday, January 21</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Fundamentals . . . . .	2
1.2	Axioms of Probability (Kolmogorov) . . . . .	3
1.3	Fundamental facts about probability . . . . .	3
1.4	Discrete Probability . . . . .	3
1.5	Conditional Probability . . . . .	3
1.6	Product (Multiplication) Rule . . . . .	4
1.7	Total Probability . . . . .	4
1.8	Bayes' Theorem . . . . .	4
<b>2</b>	<b>Thursday, January 23</b>	<b>5</b>
2.1	Announcement . . . . .	5
2.2	Birthday Paradox . . . . .	5
2.3	Bayes Rule False Positive Problem . . . . .	5
2.4	Independence . . . . .	5
2.4.1	Conditional Independence . . . . .	6
2.4.2	Independence of a collection of events . . . . .	6
<b>3</b>	<b>Markov Chains</b>	<b>7</b>
3.1	Recurrence and Transience . . . . .	7

## 1 Tuesday, January 21

Understand problem as an "experiment" and then solve it using tools in your skillset: combinatorics, calculus, common sense.

### 1.1 Fundamentals

**Definition 1.** Sample Space  $\Omega$  of an experiment is the set of all outcomes of the experiment.

#### Example 1.1

Your experiment is 2 fair coins  $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$  these outcomes (base outcomes) are **mutually exclusive (ME)** and **collectively exhaustive (CE)**

#### Example 1.2

Toss a coin till the first "Heads"  $\Omega = \{H, TH, TTH, \dots\}; |\Omega| = \infty$

#### Example 1.3

Waiting at the bus-stop for next bus  $\Omega = (0, T)$

Visual 1 - We have the experiment which produces outcomes, once you have the outcome space the next definition is the definition of events

**Definition 2** (Events). Allowable subsets of  $\Omega$  (collections of outcomes)

#### Example 1.4

Get at least 1 Head in experiment 1,  $\{HH, HT, TH\}$ ,  $p = \frac{3}{4}$

Defining events carefully is the key to tackling many tough problems.

#### Example 1.5

Ex 2.2: Get an even number of tosses

#### Example 1.6

Ex 2.3: Waiting time  $\leq 5$  min

**Definition 3** (Probability Space). A **probability space**  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$  is a mathematical construct to model "experiments" and has 3 components:

1.  $\Omega$  is the set of all possible outcomes
2.  $\mathcal{F}$  set of all events (composition of outcomes), where each event is a set containing 0 or more base outcomes,  $\emptyset$  is a **base outcome** where  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$ .  $\mathcal{F}$  is intuitively a powerset (i.e. for the experiment in example 1.1  $\mathcal{F} = \{\emptyset, \{H, H\}, \{H, T\}, \dots\}$ ).
3.  $\mathcal{P}$  is the probability measure which assigns a number in  $[0, 1]$  to each event in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

**Base outcomes must be ME and CE** that is when writing out  $\Omega$  as a collection of all the base outcomes, they should be the most simplified components.

## 1.2 Axioms of Probability (Kolmogorov)

What properties do we need the probability measure  $\mathcal{P}$  to satisfy?

1.  $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset) = 0$
2.  $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$ , really just a normalization
3.  $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \mathbb{P}(A_2) + \dots$  for disjoint (ME) events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$

for disjoint  $\mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i)$

## 1.3 Fundamental facts about probability

1.  $\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A)$
2.  $\mathbb{P}(A \cup B) = \mathbb{P}(A) + \mathbb{P}(B) - \mathbb{P}(A \cap B)$  **Vis2 Venn Diagram**
3. Union-bound  $\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A_i)$
4. Inclusion-Exclusion, a generalized version of number 2

### Theorem 4 (Inclusion-Exclusion)

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{1 \leq i_1} \sum_{\leq i_2} \dots \sum_{i_k \leq n} (-1)^{i+1}$$

*Proof.* here □

## 1.4 Discrete Probability

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{\omega \in A} \mathbb{P}(\omega)$$

In a uniform sample space, all the outcomes are equally likely so then

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$$

## 1.5 Conditional Probability

Similar to events, conditioning on the right event will bail you out of tricky problems.

**Definition 5.**  $\mathbb{P}(A|B) := \mathbb{P}(\text{Event } A \text{ given that Event } B \text{ has occurred})$

Thus for any event  $A$  if  $\mathbb{P}(B) \neq 0$ ,

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

### Example 1.7

Consider 2 six-sided dice. Let  $A$  be the event that the first dice rolls is a 6. Let  $B$  be the event the sum of the two dice is 7. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\{6, 1\})}{\mathbb{P}(\{6, 1\}, \{5, 2\}, \dots, \{1, 6\})}$$

Similarly  $\mathbb{P}(A|\text{sum is 11}) = \frac{1}{2}$

When conditioning on  $B$ ,  $B$  becomes to new  $\Omega$ .

**1.6 Product (Multiplication) Rule****1.7 Total Probability****1.8 Bayes' Theorem**

## 2 Thursday, January 23

### 2.1 Announcement

Readings B&T ch1 and 2, HW 1 due next wednesday one minute before midnight

### 2.2 Birthday Paradox

Assuming a group of  $n$  individuals whose birth dates are distributed uniformly at random. Given  $k = 365$  days in the year what is the probability that at least 2 people in the group share the same birthday. Our sample space is the consists of each possible set of assignments of birth dates to the  $n$  students in the class. Since there are 365 possible days for each of the  $n$  students in the group  $|\Omega| = k^n = 365^n$ . Now we can define our event of interest,  $A$ , that at least 2 people have the same birthday. Since this is a hard event to work with we can look at the complement  $A^c$  the event that no two people share a birth date. We can reach the solution with a counting argument

$$\mathbb{P}(A^c) = \frac{|A^c|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{365 * 364 * \dots * (365 - (n - 1))}{365^n}$$

or with a probabilistic argument using the chain rule

$$\mathbb{P}(A^c) = 1(1 - \frac{1}{k})(1 - \frac{2}{k}) \dots (1 - \frac{n-1}{k})$$

the latter expression can be approximated using Taylor Series which say  $e^x \approx 1 + x$  for  $|x| \ll 1$ .

$$\mathbb{P}(A^c) \approx 1 \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{k}} \cdot e^{-\frac{2}{k}} \dots e^{-\frac{n-1}{k}}$$

thus  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(A^c) \approx 1 - e^{-\frac{n^2}{2k}}$

### 2.3 Bayes Rule False Positive Problem

Supposes there is a new test for a rare disease.

- If a person has the disease, test positive with  $p = 0.95$
- If person does not have disease, test negative with  $p = 0.95$
- Random person has the diseases with  $p = 0.001$

Suppose a person tested positive, what is the probability that person has the disease. Let  $A$  be the event has disease and  $B$  be the event test positive then by applying Bayes Rule directly

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{(0.95)(0.001)}{(0.95)(0.001) + (0.999)(0.05)} = 0.1875$$

the factor heavily contributing to this number is the prior, how rare the disease is in the first place.

### 2.4 Independence

**Definition 6.** Two events are independent if the occurrence of one provides **no information** about the occurrence of the other (i.e.  $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$ ).

**insert vis1** Independence can also be written as

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

**Note:** Disjoint events are **not** Independent. Events  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint if and only if  $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = 0 \implies \mathbb{P}(A) = 0 \vee \mathbb{P}(B) = 0$ . Thus since Base outcomes of a random experiment are disjoint (ME) and have non-zero probabilities they **must be dependent**.

### 2.4.1 Conditional Independence

$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B|C) = \mathbb{P}(A|C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(B|C)$$

Note that

- Dependent events can be conditionally independent
- Independent events can be conditionally dependent

#### Example 2.1

Consider 2 indistinguishable coins: one is two-tailed and the other is two-headed. You pick one of the 2 coins at random and flip it twice.

Let  $H_i$  be the event that the  $i^{th}$  flip is a Head ( $i = 1, 2$ ). By itself  $\mathbb{P}(H_1) = \mathbb{P}(H_2) = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\mathbb{P}(H_2|H_1) = 1 \neq \mathbb{P}(H_2) = 1/2$ . Furthermore,  $\mathbb{P}(H_1 \cap H_2|A) = \mathbb{P}(H_1|A)\mathbb{P}(H_2|A \cap H_1) = \mathbb{P}(H_1|A)\mathbb{P}(H_2|A)$  which by definition tells us that  $H_1, H_2$  are conditionally independent given  $A$ .

### 2.4.2 Independence of a collection of events

For all possible subsets of your events  $A_{1:n}$ , each subset must be independent that is

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{i \in S} A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in S} (\mathbb{P}(A_i)), \forall S$$

where  $S$  is any subset of the collection of events. Pairwise independence **does not imply** Joint independence of 3 or more events.

### 3 Markov Chains

#### 3.1 Recurrence and Transience

For each  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , the random variable  $T_x$  represents the first time that the chain visits state  $x$ , that is  $T_x := \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} : X_n = x\}$ .  $T_x$  is called the hitting time of state  $x$ . We further define  $T_x^+$  which is the hitting time for state  $x$  except  $T_x^+$  cannot equal 0, to avoid the trivial condition in which the chain starts at  $x$ . Let  $\rho_{x,y} := \mathbb{P}_x(T_y^+ < \infty)$ , the probability that starting from state  $x$  we eventually reach state  $y$  and shorthand  $\rho_x = \rho_{x,x}$ .

**Definition 7.** A state  $x$  is **recurrent** if  $\rho_x = 1$  and **transient** if  $\rho_x < 1$ .

**Proposition 8.** Let  $N_x$  be the total number of visits to state  $x$ . If  $x$  is recurrent then  $N_x = \infty$  in probability almost surely. Thus  $\mathbb{E}_x[N_x] = \mathbb{E}[N_x | X_0 = x] = \infty$ . On the other hand, if  $x$  is transient then  $\mathbb{E}_x[N_x] < \infty$ , in fact,

$$\mathbb{E}_x[N_x] = \frac{\rho_x}{1 - \rho_x}$$