# A quick review of probability theory

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### Outline

- Events and probability
- Bayes' rule
- Discrete random variables and expectation
- Moments and derivations

### Definition of Probability

- Experiment: toss a coin twice
- Sample space: possible outcomes of an experiment
  - $-\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$
- Event: a subset of possible outcomes.
  - $A = \{HH\}, B = \{HT, TH\}$
- Probability of an event: an number assigned to an event Pr(A)
  - Axiom 1:  $Pr(A) \ge 0$
  - Axiom 2:  $Pr(\Omega) = 1$
  - Axiom 3: For every sequence of disjoint events  $Pr(\bigcup_i A_i) = \sum_i Pr(A_i)$

### Set notations

- $E_1 \cap E_2$  is the event that both  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  happen.
- $E_1 \cup E_2$  for the event that at least one of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  happen.
- $E_1 E_2$  for the occurrence of an event that is in  $E_1$  but not in  $E_2$ .
- $\overline{E}$  stands for  $\Omega E$ .

**Lemma:** for any two events  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ :

$$Pr(E_1 \cup E_2) = Pr(E_1) + Pr(E_2) - Pr(E_1 \cap E_2)$$

**Proof.** (Inclusion-exclusion principle)

### **Union Bound**

**Lemma:** For any finite or countably infinite sequence of events  $E_1, E_2, ...$ 

$$Pr\left(\bigcup_{i\geq 1} E_i\right) \leq \sum_{i\geq 1} \Pr(E_i).$$

Proof.

### Independence

Two events A and B are independent in case

$$Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A) \cdot Pr(B)$$

• A set of events  $\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_k\}$  are mutually independent iff for any subset

$$I \subseteq [1, k]$$

$$\Pr\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in I} \Pr(A_i)$$

### Independence

Consider the experiment of tossing a coin twice

- Example I.
  - $-A = \{HT, HH\}, B = \{HT\}$
  - Will event A independent from event B?
- Example II.
- - If A is independent from B, B is independent from C, will A be independent from C?

### Application 1: Identify polynomials

$$(x+1)(x-2)(x+3)(x-4)(x+5)(x-6)$$
?=  $x^6 - 7x^3 + 25$ 

• Generally F(x)? = G(x)



### Probabilistic algorithm

- Assume Max(Deg(G(x)), Deg(F(x))) = d
- Algorithm
  - Choose an integer r uniformly at random in the range  $\{1, \dots, 100d\}$
  - Compute F(r) and G(r)
  - If F(r) = G(r) output Yes; otherwise, output No.

### Analysis

- E: The event that the algorithm fails.
- The algorithm may fail iff
  - $-F(x) \neq G(x)$  and F(r) = G(r)
  - r is the solution of H(x) = F(x) G(x) = 0.
  - -H(x) has at most **d** solutions.
- $\Pr(E) \le \frac{d}{100d} = \frac{1}{100}$
- Idea: If it keeps returning (Yes), we repeat the algorithm for k times.
  - The updated algorithm will fail iff every  $E_i$  fails for  $1 \le i \le k$ .

#### For i = 1 to k do

- Choose an integer r uniformly at random in the range  $\{1, \dots, 100d\}$
- Compute F(r) and G(r)
- If F(r) = G(r) return Yes; otherwise stop and output No.

• 
$$\Pr(E) = \Pr(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_k)$$
  
=  $\Pr(E_1) \cdot \Pr(E_2) \cdot \dots \cdot \Pr(E_k)$   
 $\leq \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^k$ 

### Conditioning

• If E and F are events with Pr(F) > 0, the conditional probability of E given F is

$$\Pr(E|F) = \frac{\Pr(E \cap F)}{\Pr(F)}$$

If E and F are independent

$$\Pr(E|F) = \frac{\Pr(E \cap F)}{\Pr(F)} = \frac{\Pr(E)\Pr(F)}{\Pr(F)} = \Pr(E)$$

### **Application**

#### Example: Drug test

	Women	Men
Success	200	1800
Failure	1800	200

$$Pr(A|B) = ?$$

### Application 2: Monty Hall problem

 Suppose you're on a game show, and you're given the choice of three doors: Behind one door is a car; behind the others, goats. You pick a door, say No. 1, and the host, who knows what's behind the doors, opens another door, say No. 3, which has a goat. He then says to you, "Do you want to pick door No. 2?" Is it to your advantage to switch your choice?



Behind door 1	Behind door 2	Behind door 3	Result if staying at door #1	Result if switching to the door offered
Car	Goat	Goat	Wins car	Wins goat
Goat	Car	Goat	Wins goat	Wins car
Goat	Goat	Car	Wins goat	Wins car

### Tuesday boy problem

 "I have two children. One is a boy born on a Tuesday. What is the probability I have two boys?"

```
<BTU, girl> 7
<girl, BTU> 7
<BTU, boy> 7
<boy, BTU> 7-1= 6
(7+6)/(7+7+7+6)=13/27
```

### **Drug Evaluation**

	Women		Men	
	Drug I	Drug II	Drug I	Drug II
Success	200	10	19	1000
Failure	1800	190	1	1000

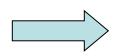
### Simpson's Paradox: View I

	Women		Men	
	Drug I	Drug II	Drug I	Drug II
Success	200	10	19	1000
Failure	1800	190	1_	1000



#### **Drug II is better than Drug I**

Drug I Drug II
Success 219 1010
Failure 1801 1190



	· · · · ·	•
$\mathbf{A} = \{$	Using I	)rno l'
<b>1 1</b>	Come i	rusing

$$B = \{Using Drug II\}$$

$$Pr(C|A) = 219/2020 \sim 10\%$$

$$Pr(C|B)=1010/2200 \sim 50\%$$

### Simpson's Paradox: View II

	Women		М	en
	Drug I	Drug II	Drug I	Drug II
Success	200	10	19	1000
Failure	1800	190	1	1000

#### **Drug I is better than Drug II**

#### **Female Patient**

#### $A = \{Using Drug I\}$

 $B = \{Using Drug II\}$ 

C = {Drug succeeds}

 $Pr(C|A) \sim 10\%$ 

 $Pr(C|B) \sim 5\%$ 

#### **Male Patient**

$$A = \{Using Drug I\}$$

$$B = \{Using Drug II\}$$

$$C = \{Drug succeeds\}$$

$$Pr(C|A) \sim 100\%$$

$$Pr(C|B) \sim 50\%$$

#### Another version: Berkeley gender bias case (1973)

	Applicants	Admitted
Men	8442	44%
Women	4321	35%

Donartmont	Men		Women	
Department	Applicants	Admitted	Applicants	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
В	560	63%	25	68%
С	325	37%	593	34%
D	417	33%	375	35%
E	191	28%	393	24%
F	272	6%	341	7%

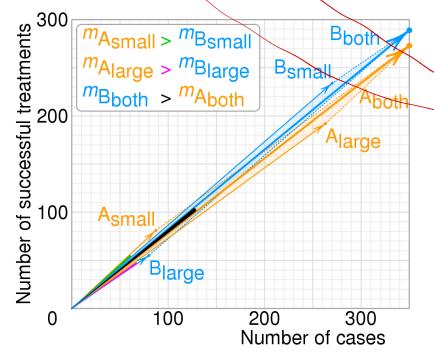
Simpson's paradox - Wikipedia

## Vector interpretation of Simpson's paradox

12数据量大部学生生去了

### A real-life example from a medical study comparing the success rates of two treatments for kidney stones.

	Treatment A	Treatment B
Small Stones	Group 1 93% (81/87)	Group 2 87% (234/270)
Large Stones	Group 3 73% (192/263)	Group 4 69% (55/80)
Both	78% (273/350)	<b>83%</b> (289/350)



到底用啥?

国季的选择了一定台建

Vector representation in which each vector's slope denotes its success rate.

Simpson's paradox - Wikipedia

### Law of total probability

• Let  $E_1, E_2, ..., E_n$  be mutually disjoint events in the sample space  $\Omega$ , and let  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i = \Omega$ , then

$$Pr(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Pr(B \cap E_i)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} Pr(B|E_i) Pr(E_i)$$

### Conditional Independence

 Event A and B are conditionally independent given C in case

$$Pr(A \cap B|C) = Pr(A|C) \cdot Pr(B|C)$$

Or equivalently,

$$Pr(A|B \cap C) = Pr(A|C)$$

$$\frac{P(Abc)}{P(Bc)} = \frac{P(Ac)}{P(c)}$$

Example: There are three events: A, B, C

$$-\Pr(A) = \Pr(B) = \Pr(C) = \frac{1}{5}$$

$$-\Pr(A \cap C) = \Pr(B \cap C) = \frac{1}{25}, \Pr(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{10}$$

$$-\Pr(A \cap B \cap C) = \frac{1}{125}$$

- Whether A, B are conditionally independent given C?
- Whether A, B are independent?

Example: There are three events: A, B, C

$$-\Pr(A) = \Pr(B) = \Pr(C) = \frac{1}{5}$$

$$-\Pr(A \cap C) = \Pr(B \cap C) = \frac{1}{25}, \Pr(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{10}$$

$$-\Pr(A \cap B \cap C) = \frac{1}{125}$$

- -Whether A, B are conditionally independent given C? Yes
- Whether A, B are independent? No
- A and B are independent
  - $\neq$  A and B are conditionally independent

### Outline

- Events and probability
- Bayes' rule
- Discrete random variables and expectation
- Moments and derivations

### Bayes' Rule

Given two events A and B and suppose that Pr(A) > 0.
 Then

$$Pr(B \mid A) = \frac{Pr(AB)}{Pr(A)} = \frac{Pr(A \mid B) Pr(B)}{Pr(A)}$$

#### Example:

Pr(W R)	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
$\neg W$	0.3	0.6

$$Pr(R) = 0.8$$

R: It is a rainy day

W: The grass is wet

Pr(R|W) = ?

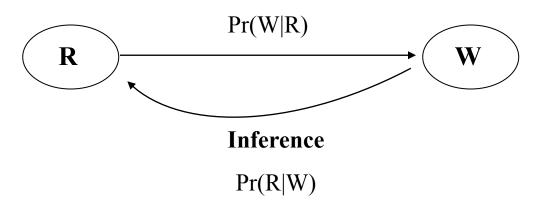
### Bayes' Rule

	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
$\neg W$	0.3	0.6

R: It rains

W: The grass is wet

#### **Information**

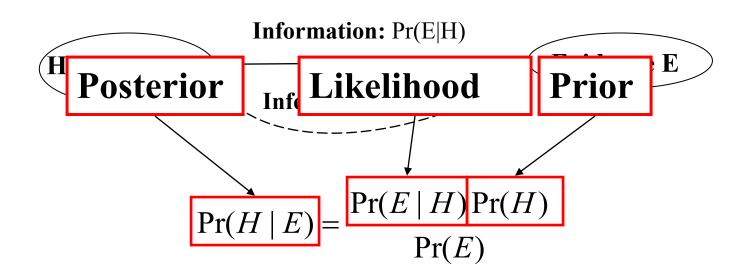


### Bayes' Rule

	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
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R: It rains

W: The grass is wet



### Bayes' Rule: More Complicated

Suppose that  $B_1, B_2, \dots B_k$  form a partition of S:

$$B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset; \bigcup_i B_i = S$$

Suppose that Pr(Bi) > 0 and Pr(A) > 0. Then

$$Pr(B_i \mid A) = \frac{Pr(A \mid B_i) Pr(B_i)}{Pr(A)}$$

### Bayes' Rule: More Complicated

Suppose that  $B_1, B_2, \dots B_k$  form a partition of S:

$$B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset; \bigcup_i B_i = S$$

Suppose that Pr(Bi) > 0 and Pr(A) > 0. Then

$$Pr(B_i | A) = \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{Pr(A)}$$
$$= \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} Pr(AB_j)}$$

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$$= \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} Pr(AB_j)}$$

$$= \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} Pr(B_j) Pr(B_i)}$$

### In all

Assume that  $E_1, E_2, ..., E_n$  are mutually disjoint sets such that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i = E$ , then

$$\Pr(E_j|B) = \frac{\Pr(E_j \cap B)}{\Pr(B)}$$

$$= \frac{\Pr(B|E_j)\Pr(E_j)}{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \Pr(B|E_i)\Pr(E_i)}$$

### Example

 $E_i$ : the  $i^{th}$  coin is the biased one.

B: HHT

$$\Pr(B|E_1) = \Pr(B|E_2)$$

$$= \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{6}$$

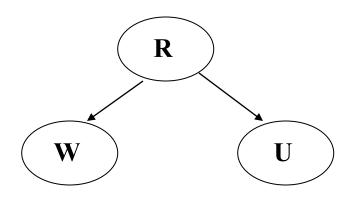
$$\Pr(B|E_3) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{1}{12}$$

$$\Pr(E_i) = \frac{1}{3}$$



- We have three coins
  - Two of them: fair
  - The other one: Pr(H) = 2/3
- Flip them we get: HHT
- Problem: What is the probability that the first coin is the biased one?

### A More Complicated Example

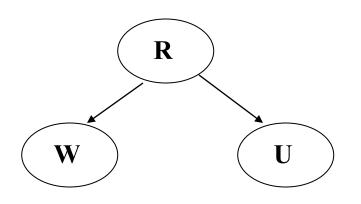


**R** It rains

W The grass is wet

U People bring umbrella

## A More Complicated Example



**R** It rains

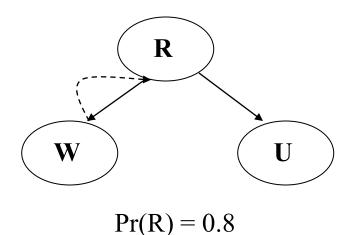
W The grass is wet

U People bring umbrella

Pr(UW|R)=Pr(U|R)Pr(W|R)

 $Pr(UW| \neg R) = Pr(U| \neg R)Pr(W| \neg R)$ 

## A More Complicated Example



**R** It rains

W The grass is wet

U People bring umbrella

Pr(UW|R)=Pr(U|R)Pr(W|R)

 $Pr(UW| \neg R) = Pr(U| \neg R)Pr(W| \neg R)$ 

Pr(W R)	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
$\neg W$	0.3	0.6

Pr(U R)	R	$\neg R$
U	0.9	0.2
$\neg U$	0.1	0.8

#### Outline

- Events and probability
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- The probabilistic method

#### Random Variable and Distribution

 A random variable X is a numerical outcomes of a random experiment

$$X:\Omega\to R$$

- The distribution of a random variable is the collection of possible outcomes along with their probabilities:
  - Discrete case:

$$\Pr(X = a) = \sum_{s \in \Omega, X(s) = a} \Pr(s)$$

## Random Variable: Example

- Let S be the set of all sequences of two rolls of a die. Let X be the sum of the number of dots on the two rolls.
- The event X = 4 corresponds to the set of basic *events*  $\{(1,3), (2,2), (3,1)\}$ . Hence

$$\Pr(X=4) = \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$$

## Independent random variable

 Two random variables X and Y are independent if and only if

$$\Pr((X = x) \cap (Y = y)) = \Pr(X = x) \cdot \Pr(Y = y)$$

## Expectation

- A basic characteristic of a random variable is expectation.
- The expectation of a random variable is a weighted average of the values it assumes, where each value is weighted by the probability that the variable assumes that value.

## Expectation he to Fth



• A random variable  $X \sim \Pr(X = x)$ . Then, its expectation is

$$E[X] = \sum_{x} x \Pr(X = x)$$

In an empirical sample,  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$ ,

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

## Examples

☐ The expectation of the random variable X representing the sum of two dice is

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{36} \cdot 2 + \frac{2}{36} \cdot 3 + \frac{3}{36} \cdot 4 + \dots + \frac{1}{36} \cdot 12 = 7$$

## Examples

☐ The expectation of the random variable X representing the sum of two dice is

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{36} \cdot 2 + \frac{2}{36} \cdot 3 + \frac{3}{36} \cdot 4 + \dots + \frac{1}{36} \cdot 12 = 7$$

□ A random variable X that takes on the value  $2^{i}$  with probability  $1/2^{i}$  for i=1,2,...

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} 2^i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty$$

## Linearity of expectations

• Expectation of sum of random variables E(X) + E(Y) = E(X + Y)

Proof.

Generally: For any finite collection of discrete random variables  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  with finite expectations.

$$E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E[X_i]$$

### Example



□ Recall: The expected sum of two dice.

#### Solution:

Let 
$$X = X_1 + X_2$$

where  $X_i$  represents the outcome of dice i for i = 1,2. Then

$$E(X_i) = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{j=1}^{6} j = \frac{7}{2}$$
  
$$E(X) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) = 7$$

#### Lemma

For any constant c and discrete random variable X

$$E[cX] = c \cdot E[X]$$

Proof.

$$E[cX] = \sum_{j} j \cdot \Pr(cX = j)$$

$$= c\sum_{j} (j/c) \cdot \Pr(X = j/c)$$

$$= c\sum_{k} k \cdot \Pr(X = k)$$

$$= c \cdot E[X]$$

#### Variance

• The variance of a random variable X is the expectation of  $(X - E[X])^2$ :

$$Var(X) = E((X - E[X])^{2})$$

$$= E(X^{2} + E[X]^{2} - 2XE[X])$$

$$= E(X^{2} - E[X]^{2})$$

$$= E[X^{2}] - E[X]^{2}$$

#### Bernoulli Distribution

- The outcome of an experiment can either be success (i.e., 1) and failure (i.e., 0).
- Pr(X = 1) = p, Pr(X = 0) = 1 p
- E[X] = p, Var(X) = p(1-p)

#### **Binomial Distribution**

- Consider a sequence of n independent coin flips.
   What is the distribution of the number of heads in the entire sequence?
- n draws of a Bernoulli distribution. X stands for the number of successes in these experiments.
- Random variable X stands for the number of times that experiments are successful.

$$Pr(X = x) = p_{\theta}(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^{x} (1-p)^{n-x} & x = 1, 2, ..., n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• E[X] = np (by linearity), Var(X) = np(1-p)

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#### Geometric Distribution

- Suppose that we flip a coin until it lands on heads. What is the distribution of the number of flips?
- A geometric random variable X with parameter p is given by the following probability distribution on n=1,2,....:

$$\Pr(X=n) = (1-p)^{n-1}p$$

# 天记七年 下次成功的概率 Memoryless

- Geometric random variables are said to be memoryless: the probability that you will reach your first success n trials from now is independent of the number of failures you have experienced.
- Formally,  $Pr(X = n + k \mid X > k) = Pr(X = n)$

#### Proof.

$$\Pr(X = n + k \mid X > k) = \frac{\Pr((X = n + k) \cap (X > k))}{\Pr(X > k)}$$

$$= \frac{\Pr(X = n + k)}{\Pr(X > k)}$$

$$= \frac{(1 - p)^{n + k - 1} p}{\sum_{i = k}^{\infty} (1 - p)^{i} p}$$

$$= \frac{(1 - p)^{n + k - 1} p}{(1 - p)^{k}}$$

$$= (1 - p)^{n - 1} p$$

$$= \Pr(X = n).$$

## Expectation

- Method 1: make use of the definitions.
- Method 2:

$$E[X] = p \cdot 1 + (1 - p) \cdot (E[X] + 1)$$
  
 $p \cdot E[X] = 1$   
 $E[X] = 1/p$ 

#### Application: Coupon Collector's Problem

- Each box of cereal contain one of n different coupons.
- Once you obtain one of every type of coupon, you can send in for a prize.
- Coupons are distributed independently and uniformly at random from the n possibilities.
- Question: How many boxes of cereal must you buy before you obtain at least one of every type of coupon?





#### Solution

- Let X be the number of boxes bought until at least one of every type of coupon is obtained.
- X<sub>i</sub> is the number of boxes bought while you had exactly i-1 different coupons.
- Clearly,  $X = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} X_i$
- X<sub>i</sub> is a geometric random variable:
  - When exactly i-1 coupons have been found, the probability of obtaining a new coupon is  $p_i = 1 \frac{i-1}{n}$

$$- E[X_i] = \frac{1}{p_i} = \frac{n}{n-i+1}$$

By the linearity of expectations, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{E}[\mathsf{X}] &= \mathsf{E}[\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathsf{X}_i] = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathsf{E}[\mathsf{X}_i] = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \frac{n}{n - i + 1} = \mathsf{n} \cdot \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \left(\frac{1}{i}\right) \\ &= n \cdot \ln n + \Theta(n) \\ &(\mathsf{Where} \ \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \left(\frac{1}{i}\right) = \mathsf{H}(\mathsf{n}) \ \textit{harmonic number}) \end{aligned}$$

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## Markov's Inequality

• Let X be a random variable that assumes only nonnegative values. Then for all a>0

$$\Pr(X \ge a) \le \frac{E[X]}{a}$$

• Proof.

## Example

- Bound the probability of obtaining more than  $\frac{3n}{4}$  heads in a sequence of n fair coin flips. Let  $X_i = 1$  if the  $i^{th}$  coin flip is head, otherwise,  $X_i = 0$ .
  - Let  $X = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} X_i$ . It follows that  $E[X] = \frac{n}{2}$

$$-\Pr\left(X \ge \frac{3n}{4}\right) \le \frac{E[X]}{\frac{3n}{4}} = 2/3$$

## Chebyshev's Inequality

• For any a > 0,

$$\Pr(|X - E(X)| \ge a) \le \frac{Var[X]}{a^2}$$

• Proof.

# Example: Coupon Collector's Problem

Recall:  $E[X] = n \cdot Hn$ 

By Markov's inequality:

$$\Pr(X \ge 2n \cdot Hn) \le 1/2$$

By Chebyshev's inequality, this can be improved to

$$\Pr(X \ge 2n \cdot Hn) \le O\left(\frac{1}{(\ln n)^2}\right)$$