# Notes on Probability and Computing

### Xu Zhean

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## 1 Events and Probability

A probability space is a measure space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbf{P})$  consisting of:

- the sample space  $\Omega$  a set of outcomes called sample;
- the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{F}$  a family of subsets of  $\Omega$ , called **events**, such that  $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  is closed under complements (i.e.  $\forall A \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $\Omega \setminus A \in \mathcal{F}$ ) and countable unions (i.e.  $\forall A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ );
- the probability function  $\mathbf{P}: \mathcal{F} \to [0,1]$  such that  $\mathbf{P}(\Omega) = 1$  and  $\mathbf{P}$  is  $\sigma$ -additive (i.e.  $\mathbf{P}(\bigsqcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{P}(A_i)$ ).

The motivation behind this complicated definition is that some sets are non-measurable, thus mathematicians developed the theory of measure. For instance, Borel set on real line forms a  $\sigma$ -algebra which is generated by open intervals. Stieltjes measure is a Borel measure and builds the measure-theoretic foundation of continuous probability distribution.

**Lemma 1.1 (Inclusion-exclusion principle)** Let  $E_1, \dots, E_n$  be any n events. Then

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_{i}\right) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} (-1)^{\ell+1} \sum_{i_{1} < i_{2} < \dots < i_{\ell}} \mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{r=1}^{\ell} E_{i_{r}}\right).$$

Events  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  are **mutually independent** (simply called **independent** when k = 2) if and only if, for any subset  $I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ ,  $\mathbf{P}(\bigcap_{i \in I} E_i) = \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{P}(E_i)$ . Note that events  $X, Y, Z, \dots$  are unnecessarily mutually independent when they are pairwise independent.

The **conditional probability** that event E occurs given that event F occurs is  $\mathbf{P}(E \mid F) = \mathbf{P}(E \cap F) / \mathbf{P}(F)$ .

**Theorem 1.2 (Law of total probability)** Let events  $\bigsqcup_{i=1}^n E_i = \Omega$ . Then we have  $\mathbf{P}(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(B \mid E_i) \cdot \mathbf{P}(E_i)$ .

**Theorem 1.3 (Bayes's law)** Let events  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  satisfy  $\bigsqcup_{i=1}^n E_i = \Omega$ . Then we have

$$\mathbf{P}(E_k \mid B) = \frac{\mathbf{P}(E_k \cap B)}{\mathbf{P}(B)} = \frac{\mathbf{P}(B \mid E_k) \cdot \mathbf{P}(E_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(B \mid E_i) \cdot \mathbf{P}(E_i)}.$$

In the **Bayesian approach** one starts with a **prior** model, giving some initial value to the model parameters. This model is then modified, by incorporating new observations, to obtain a **posterior** model that captures the new information.

**Exercise 1.6** Using mathematical induction, we have  $p_{i,j} = \frac{i-1}{i+j-1} \cdot p_{i-1,j} + \frac{j-1}{i+j-1} \cdot p_{i,j-1} = \frac{i+j-2}{i+j-1} \cdot \frac{1}{i+i-2} = \frac{1}{i+i-1}$ .

**Exercise 1.7.b** Let  $F_{b_1b_2\cdots b_n}$  be the intersection of events  $E_i$  ( $b_i=1$ ) or  $\Omega \backslash E_i$  ( $b_i=0$ ), and  $P_k$  be the sum of  $\mathbf{P}(F_b)$  where b consists of k one and n-k zero. Then for every  $k \geq 1$ , we have  $\sum_{i=1}^{l} (-1)^{i+1} \binom{k}{i} = 1 + (-1)^{l+1} \binom{k-1}{l} \geq 1$ . Multiply both sides by  $P_k$  and sum them up. We eventually reach the desired inequality.

**Exercise 1.11.b**  $p_3 = p_1 \cdot (1 - p_2) + (1 - p_1) \cdot p_2 \Rightarrow q_3 = 1 - 2p_3 = (1 - 2p_1)(1 - 2p_2) = q_1q_2$ . Is there any underlying motivation?

**Exercise 1.24 (Karger's algorithm)** Let K be the minimum r-way cut-set. Considering all r-way cut-sets consisting of r-1 single vertex, the total size is  $m \cdot \binom{n-2}{r-1}$  with an upper bound  $(m-|K|) \cdot \binom{n}{r-1}$ . It follows that

$$m \cdot \binom{n-2}{r-1} \leq (m-|K|) \cdot \binom{n}{r-1} \quad \Rightarrow \quad 1 - \frac{|K|}{m} \geq \binom{n-2}{r-1} \binom{n}{r-1}^{-1} = \frac{(n-r+1)(n-r)}{n(n-1)}.$$

The probability that K survives all the n-r iterations is at least

$$\prod_{i=0}^{n-r-1} \frac{(n-i+1-r)(n-i-r)}{(n-i)(n-i-1)} = r \cdot \binom{n}{r-1}^{-1} \binom{n-1}{r-1}^{-1}$$

and its reciprocal is the maximum possible number of minimum cardinality of r-way cut-sets.

## 2 Discrete Random Variables and Expectation

A (real-valued) random variable X on a sample space  $\Omega$  is a measurable function  $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ , and a discrete random variable is one which may take on only a countable number of distinct values. "X = a" represents the set  $\{s \in \Omega \mid X(s) = a\}$ , and we denote the probability of that event by  $\mathbf{P}(X = a) = \sum_{s \in \Omega: X(s) = a} \mathbf{P}(s)$ .

Random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are **mutually independent** (simply called **independent** when k = 2) if and only

if, for any subset  $I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  and any values  $x_i (i \in I)$ ,  $\mathbf{P}(\bigcap_{i \in I} (X_i = x_i)) = \prod_{i \in I} \mathbf{P}(X_i = x_i)$ .

The **expectation** of a discrete random variable X, denoted by  $\mathbf{E}[X]$ , is given by  $\mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_i i \cdot \mathbf{P}(X = i)$ . Note that the infinite series needs to be **absolutely convergent** (i.e. rearrangements do not change the value of the sum).

**Theorem 2.1 (Linearity of expectation)** For discrete random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  with finite expectations and any contants  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$ , we have  $\mathbf{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n c_i X_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \mathbf{E}[X_i]$ .

*Proof.* Observe that we only need to prove the following two cases:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}[X+Y] &= \sum_{i} \sum_{j} (i+j) \cdot \mathbf{P}((X=i) \cap (Y=j)) \\ &= \sum_{i} i \sum_{j} \mathbf{P}((X=i) \cap (Y=j)) + \sum_{j} j \sum_{i} \mathbf{P}((X=i) \cap (Y=j)) = \mathbf{E}[X] + \mathbf{E}[Y], \\ \mathbf{E}[cX] &= \sum_{i} i \cdot \mathbf{P}(cX=j) = c \cdot \sum_{i} (j/c) \cdot \mathbf{P}(X=j/c) = c \cdot \sum_{k} k \cdot \mathbf{P}(X=k) = c \cdot \mathbf{E}[X]. \end{split}$$

When there are countably infinite variables, the situation becomes more subtle. We will discuss it later.

**Theorem 2.2 (Jensen's inequality)** If f is a convex function, then  $\mathbf{E}[f(X)] \geq f(\mathbf{E}[X])$ .

*Proof.* Assume that f has a Taylor expansion. Let  $\mu = \mathbf{E}[X]$ . By Taylor's theorem, there is a value c such that

$$f(x) = f(\mu) + f'(\mu)(x - \mu) + \frac{f''(c)(x - \mu)^2}{2} \ge f(\mu) + f'(\mu)(x - \mu)$$

Taking expectations of both sides

$$\mathbf{E}[f(X)] \ge \mathbf{E}[f(\mu) + f'(\mu)(X - \mu)] = \mathbf{E}[f(\mu)] + f'(\mu)(\mathbf{E}[X] - \mu) = f(\mu) = f(\mathbf{E}[X])$$

An alternative proof will be presented in Exercise 2.10.

Define **conditional expectation**  $\mathbf{E}[Y \mid Z = z] = \sum_{y} y \cdot \mathbf{P}(Y = y \mid Z = z)$  and  $\mathbf{E}[Y \mid Z]$  as a random variable f(Z) that takes on the value  $\mathbf{E}[Y \mid Z = z]$  when Z = z.

**Theorem 2.3 (Law of total expectation)** For any random variables X and Y,

$$\mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{y} \mathbf{P}(Y = y) \cdot \mathbf{E}[X \mid Y = y] = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{E}[X \mid Y]].$$

A **Bernoulli** random variable X takes 1 with probability p and 0 with probability 1-p. A **binomial** random variable X with parameters n and p, denoted by B(n,p), is defined by **probability distribution**  $\mathbf{P}(X=k)=\binom{n}{k}\cdot p^k(1-p)^{n-k},\ n=0,1,\cdots,n$ . Its expectation is np.

A **geometric** random variable X with parameter p is defined by probability distribution  $\mathbf{P}(X=n)=(1-p)^{n-1}p$ ,  $n=1,2,\cdots$ . Its expectation is 1/p. Geometric random variables are **memoryless**, that is, one ignores past failures as distribution does not change. Formally, we have the following statement.

**Lemma 2.4** (Memorylessness) Let X be a geometric random variable with parameter p. Then, for n > 0,

$$P(X = n + k | X > k) = P(X = n).$$

**Lemma 2.5** Let X be a discrete random variable that takes on only nonnegative integer values. Then,

$$\mathbf{E}[X] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot \mathbf{P}(X = k) = \sum_{1 \le i \le k} \mathbf{P}(X = k) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{P}(X \ge i)$$

**Exercise 2.7** (a) By the memoryless property, we can ignore the case of X > 1 and Y > 1, thus  $\mathbf{P}[X = Y] = \mathbf{P}[(X = 1) \cap (Y = 1)] / (1 - \mathbf{P}[(X > 1) \cap (Y > 1)])$ . (b) Consider the first **trial**, and we can get an equation of  $\mathbf{E}[\max(X, Y)]$ . (c) Construct a **bernoulli trial** that success when there is at least one of two trials success. Its distribution of the first successful time provides the answer. (d) is the same as (a).

**Exercise 2.14 (Negative binomial distribution)** the k-th successful time.  $\mathbf{P}(X=n) = \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, n \geq k$ .

**Exercise 2.16.b** Break the sequence of flips up into disjoint blocks of  $\lfloor \log_2 n - 2 \log_2 \log_2 n \rfloor$  consecutive flips. For sufficiently large n, the probability is less than

$$\left(1 - 2^{\log_2 n - 2\log_2\log_2 n}\right)^{\frac{n}{\log_2 n - 2\log_2\log_2 n}} < \left(1 - \frac{n}{\log_2^2 n}\right)^{\frac{n}{\log_2^2 n} \cdot \log_2 n} < e^{-\ln n} = \frac{1}{n}.$$

**Exercise 2.29** If  $\{X_n\}$  is a sequence of random variable satisfying  $X_n \to X$  almost surely (i.e. except possibly on an event of zero probability) then (monotone convergence) if  $0 \le X_n \le X_{n+1}$  for all n almost surely, then

 $\mathbf{E}[X_n] \to \mathbf{E}[X]$ ; (dominated convergence) if  $|X_n| \le Y$  for all n almost surely and  $\mathbf{E}[Y]$  is finite, then  $\mathbf{E}[X_n] \to \mathbf{E}[X]$ .

Let  $Z_n = \sum_{i=0}^n X_n$ . We have  $Z_n \to \sum_{i=0}^\infty X_n$  and  $|Z_n| \le \sum_{i=0}^\infty |X_n|$  whose expectation is finite  $(\mathbf{E}[\sum_{i=0}^\infty |X_n|] = \sum_{i=0}^\infty \mathbf{E}[|X_n|] < \infty$  is a consequence of monotone convergence). By dominated convergence, it follows that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} \mathbf{E}[X_j] = \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{j=0}^{n} X_j\right] = \mathbf{E}[Z_n] \to \mathbf{E}[Z] = \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} X_j\right], \qquad n \to \infty.$$

**Exercise 2.32** For i > m,  $\mathbf{P}(E_i) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{m}{i-1}$ . Putting this all together, we get  $\mathbf{P}(E) = \frac{m}{n} \sum_{j=m+1}^{n} \frac{1}{j-1}$ . Then,

$$\frac{m}{n} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{n}{m}\right) = \frac{m}{n} \cdot \int_{m+1}^{n+1} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{x-1} \le \mathbf{P}(E) \le \frac{m}{n} \cdot \int_{m}^{n} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{x-1} = \frac{m}{n} \cdot \ln\left(\frac{n-1}{m-1}\right)$$

Note that  $m(\ln n - \ln m)/n$  is maximized when m = n/e and  $\mathbf{P}(E) \ge 1/e$  for this choice of m.

#### 3 **Moments and Deviations**

**Theorem 3.1** (Markov's Inequity) Let X be a random variable with only nonnegative values. Then, for all a > 0,

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

*Proof.* For a > 0, let I = 1 (if  $X \ge a$ ) or 0 (otherwise), and note that  $I \le X/a$ . Taking expectaions on both sides, thus yields  $\mathbf{P}(X \ge a) = \mathbf{E}[I] = \le \mathbf{E}[X/a] = \mathbf{E}[X]/a$ .

The k-th moment of a random variable X is  $\mathbf{E}[X^k]$ . The variance of random variable X is defined as  $\mathbf{Var}[X] = \mathbf{E}[X^k]$  $\mathbf{E}[(X - \mathbf{E}[X])^2] = \mathbf{E}[X^2] - \mathbf{E}[X]^2$ , and the **standard deviation** of a random variable X is  $\sigma[X] = \sqrt{\mathbf{Var}[X]}$ . The **convariance** of two random variables X and Y is Cov(X, y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])], and we have

**Lemma 3.2** For any two random variables X and Y,  $Var[X + Y] = Var[X] + Var[Y] + 2 \cdot Cov(X, Y)$ .

**Lemma 3.3** For any two independent random variables X and Y,  $\mathbf{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbf{E}[X] \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y]$ . (the opposite does not hold)

**Corollary 3.4** If X and Y are independent random variables, then Cov(X,Y) = 0.

**Theorem 3.5 (Linearity of variance)** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be mutually independent random variables. Then

$$\mathbf{Var}\bigg[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\bigg] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{Var}[X_i]$$

For example, a Bernoulli trial with success probability p has variable p(1-p), therefore the variance of a binomial random variable X with parameters n and p is np(1-p).

**Theorem 3.6 (Chebyshev's inequality)** Let X be a random variable. Then, for any a > 0,

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

*Proof.* We can apply Markov's inequality to prove:

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

A useful variant of Chebyshev's inequality is to substitute a with  $t \cdot \sigma[X]$   $(t \ge 1)$ .

The **median** of random variable X is defined to be any value m such that  $P(X \le m) \ge 1/2$  and  $P(X \ge m) \ge 1/2$ .

**Theorem 3.7** For any random variable X with finite expectation  $\mathbf{E}[X]$  and finite median m,

- the expectaion  $\mathbf{E}[X]$  is the value of c that minimizes the expression  $\mathbf{E}[(X-c)^2]$ .
- the median m is the value of c that minimizes the expression  $\mathbf{E}[|X-c|]$ .

Corollary 3.8 
$$|\mu - m| = |\mathbf{E}[X] - m| = |\mathbf{E}[X - m]| \le \mathbf{E}[|X - m|] \le \mathbf{E}[|X - \mu|] \le \sqrt{\mathbf{E}[(X - \mu)^2]} = \sigma$$
.