

NMAI059 Probability and statistics 1

Class 1

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Overview

Organization

Probability – An introduction

Conditional probability

Bonus

Organization of the class

- ▶ Lectures in Zoom as long as needed (probably the whole semester). The lecture has its page in Moodle (link in SIS). Everything will be there. (Czech and English classes have different Moodle pages!)
- ▶ If there are no technical complications, the video recording of each lecture will be available (after logging in to SIS).
- ▶ If you mind being recorded, you can turn off your camera or ask questions in the chat instead of by audio.
- ▶ But I'll be happy if you turn on the camera to see how slowly/fast I'm talking, what surprised you, etc.
- ▶ Also use the Zoom functions: raise hand, slower/faster.
- ▶ We will use short polls during the lecture.
- ▶ Pdf version of the “board” will also be available – before the lecture, and after with my hand-written comments.
- ▶ The exam will ideally be a normal written exam with the possibility of an oral examination.
- ▶ There is also place in Moodle to discuss any issues.
Alternatively, contact me by email.

Organization of the tutorials

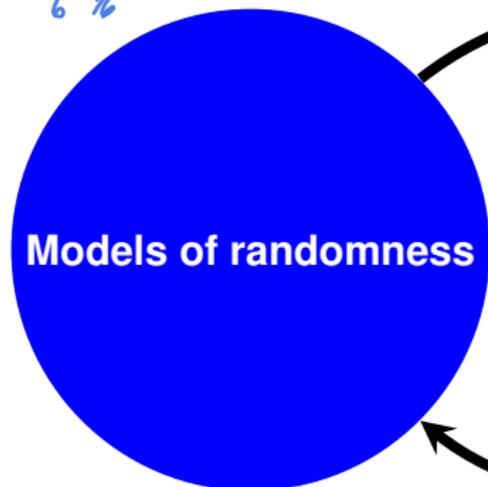
- ▶ Details provided by your TA

Lecture overview

dice

1	$\frac{1}{6}$
2	$\frac{1}{6}$
3	$\frac{1}{6}$
⋮	
6	$\frac{1}{6}$

prob. of 1, 1, 1, ..., 1
prob. of 20 6's out of 100
average



Probability



Statistics

1, 1, 2, 6, 5, 3, ...

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A warm-up application

Algo⁺: choose $x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \{1, \dots, 100d\}$.
 IF $f(x_i) = g(x_i) \forall i$, we claim $f = g$.

Don't know!

Example

Given two degree d polynomials, $f(x), g(x)$, We want to find out, whether they are equal, as fast as possible.

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i x^i$$

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^d b_i x^i$$

$f = g \Leftrightarrow \forall i, a_i = b_i$
 $O(d)$ time

$O(d)$ time

$$g(x) = \underbrace{g_1(x)}_{\text{deg. } \frac{d}{2}} \cdot \underbrace{g_2(x)}_{\text{deg. } \frac{d}{2}}$$

$$(g_1(x) \cdot g_2(x) \dots)$$

IF $f = g$ THEN WE ARE KEVIN'S RIGHT.

IF $f \neq g$ THEN WE MAKE AN ERROR w/ PRB. ≤ 0.01

↓
 Algo: Choose $x_1 \in \{1, 2, \dots, 100d\}$ unif. at random

? $f(x_1) = g(x_1)$?

No. We are sure $f \neq g$.

Yes. x_1 is a root of poly. $f - g$

$$(f(x_1) - g(x_1) = 0)$$

$$P(x_1 \text{ is root of } f-g \mid f \neq g) = \frac{\# \text{ of roots of } f-g \text{ among } \{1, \dots, 100d\}}{100d} \leq \frac{d}{100d} \leq \frac{1}{100}$$

$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3 \text{ are roots of } f-g \mid f \neq g) \leq \frac{1}{100} \cdot \frac{1}{100} \cdot \frac{1}{100} = 10^{-6}$$

Probability – intuition, definition

Some events we can't/don't want to describe causally:

- ▶ a die roll
 - ▶ three die rolls, infinitely many die rolls
 - ▶ throwing a dart on a dartboard
 - ▶ number of emails received in a day
 - ▶ running time of an algorithm (in a real computer)
-

Reasons:

- ▶ physical properties of nature
 - ▶ complicated process (weather, medicine, gas molecules)
 - ▶ unknown influences (other people, programs, weather conditions, ...)
 - ▶ randomized algorithms (polynomial identity testing, primality test, quicksort)
 - ▶ random graphs (estimates of Ramsey numbers)
-

▶ For description by probability theory we first choose a *sample space* Ω . (An $\omega \in \Omega$ is usually called an elementary event.)

Event space

Next we choose an *event space* $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ – set of events for which we want to measure probability.

Often $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$, this is possible when Ω is countable. But for instance for $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ we must choose fewer sets to an event space. $\Omega = (0, 1)$

Definition

$\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ is a sample space (also called σ -algebra), if

- ▶ $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$, A^c
- ▶ $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \Omega \setminus A \in \mathcal{F}$, and
- ▶ $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$.

$$A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{F}$$
$$A_3 = A_5 = A_7 = \dots = \emptyset$$

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$A_1 \setminus A_2 \in \mathcal{F}$$

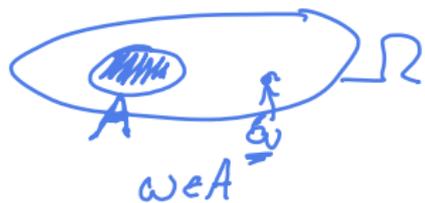
Axioms of probability $P(A) = \text{prob. that } A \text{ happens}$

Definition

$P: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is called a probability, if

▶ $P(\emptyset) = 0, P(\Omega) = 1$ and

▶ $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$, for any sequence of pairwise disjoint sets $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F}$.



As part, if $A_3 = A_4 = \dots = \emptyset$
then $P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2)$
($A_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$)

Definition

Probability space is a triple (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) such that

- ▶ $\Omega \neq \emptyset$ is a set,
- ▶ $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ is a sample space,
- ▶ P is a probability.

} set-up for the whole case

Terminology

- ▶ Odds of an event A is $O(A) = \frac{P(A)}{P(A^c)}$. E.g., having odds to win a race 1 to 2 means that the probability of win is 1/3; odds for a six on a die is 1 to 5.
- ▶ We say A occurs almost surely (a.s.) if $P(A) = 1$.

$$\frac{P(A) = 1}{\implies} \underline{A = \Omega}$$

$\Omega =$ unit disk



$$A = \Omega \setminus \{\text{centre}\}$$



Basic properties

Theorem

Given a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) and $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ we have

- $P(A) + P(A^c) = 1$ ($A^c = \Omega \setminus A$) 
- $A \subseteq B \Rightarrow P(A) \leq P(B)$ 
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
- $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) \leq \sum_i P(A_i)$ (subadditivity, Boole inequality)

Proof (1) $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$
 $\Omega = A \cup A^c$, A, A^c are disj.
 $1 = P(\Omega) = P(A) + P(A^c)$ ✓

(2) $B = A \cup (B \setminus A)$, $A, B \setminus A$ are disj.
 $P(B) = P(A) + P(B \setminus A) \geq P(A)$ ✓

(3) similar, exercise

(4) trick of disjointification

$$B_1 = A_1, B_2 = A_2 \setminus A_1$$

$$B_i = A_i \setminus \bigcup_{j < i} A_j \rightarrow B_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ if } j < i$$



B_i 's are disj. $\rightarrow \bigcup B_i = \bigcup A_i$ ✓

$$P(\bigcup A_i) = P(\bigcup B_i) = \sum P(B_i) \leq \sum P(A_i)$$

so given $x \in \bigcup A_i$ we want $x \in B_i$.
 find minimal i s.t. $x \in A_i \Rightarrow x \in B_i$
 ($x \notin A_j \forall j < i$)

$$B_i \cap B_j = A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ if } i \neq j$$

Examples of a probability space 1

► Finite with a uniform probability

Ω is any finite set, $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$, $P(A) = |A|/|\Omega|$. *naive example*
 $= \frac{\# \text{ good outcomes}}{\# \text{ total outcomes}}$

► Discrete

$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots\}$ is any countable set. We are given

$p_1, p_2, \dots \in [0, 1]$ that sum to 1.

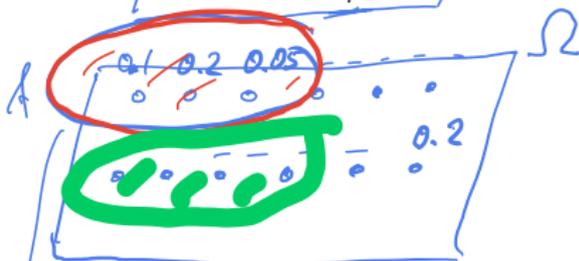
$$P(A) = \sum_{i: \omega_i \in A} p_i$$

$$P(\{\omega_i\}) = p_i$$

$$P(\{\omega_1, \omega_2\}) = P(\{\omega_1\}) + P(\{\omega_2\}) \\ = p_1 + p_2$$

finite
or size
 $= |\Omega|$

$$P(\cup A_i) = \sum P(A_i)$$



$$P(A) = 0.1 + 0.2 + 0.05$$

$$P(\emptyset) = \text{sum of zero terms} = 0$$

$$P(\Omega) = \sum p_i = 1$$

Examples of a probability space 2

► Continuous

$\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ for some d (e.g. Ω open or closed)
 appropriate \mathcal{F} (e.g. having all open and closed sets)

$f: \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a function such that $\int_{\Omega} f(x) dx = 1$.

$$P(A) = \int_A f(x) dx$$

$$\dots \sum_{\omega_i \in A} p_i$$

Special case $f(x) = 1/V_d(\Omega)$

$$P(A) = V_d(A)/V_d(\Omega),$$

where $V_d(A) = \int_A 1$ is the d -dimensional volume of A .

► Bernoulli cube – infinite repetition

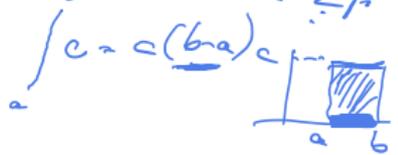
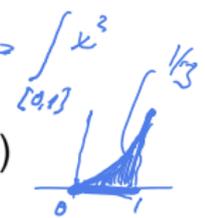
$\Omega = S^{\mathbb{N}}$, here S is discrete with probability Q ,
 appropriate \mathcal{F} (contains all sets of form

$$A = A_1 \times \dots \times A_k \times \underline{S \times S \times \dots}$$

$$P(A) = \underline{Q(A_1)} \dots \underline{Q(A_k)}$$

Example: $\{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{N}}$ infinite sequence of coin-tossing

$$\int_0^1 x^2 = \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3}$$



$P(A) = \frac{\text{area of } A}{\text{area of disk}}$
 $P(\text{first 3 tosses are HHT}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$

Non-examples

- ▶ **A random integer** can be chosen by several ways. In this class we will meet geometric and Poisson distribution. But we cannot require, that all integers are equally likely.
(Why?) “A random integer is even with probability 1/2.”
???
- ▶ **A random real number** Again, there is no preferred way, how to define probability for $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$.
For usual definitions, each real number has probability 0!
Moreover, it is not possible to define the probability so, that it is translation-invariant, i.e., $P([0, 1]) = P([1, 2]) = \dots$
- ▶ **Random chord of a circle – Bertrand paradox**
We choose a random chord of a given circle. What is the probability that it is longer than the side of an inscribed triangle?

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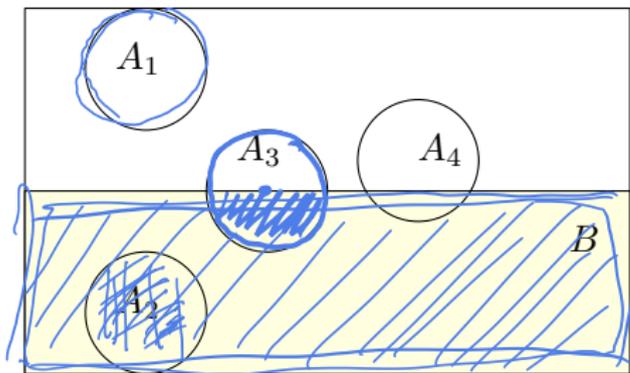
Bonus

Conditional probability $P(A, B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B)}{P(B)} = 1$

Definition

Given $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ with $P(B) > 0$, we define probability of A given B as

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



$$\Omega \quad P(A_2 | B) = \frac{P(A_2 \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A_2)}{P(B)} = 0.1$$

$$P(B | A_2) = 1$$

$$P(A_3 | B) = 0.05$$

$$P(B | A_3) = \frac{1}{2}$$

- $Q(A) := P(A | B)$. Then (Ω, \mathcal{F}, Q) is a probability space.
and (B, \mathcal{F}', Q) - " - "

Chain rule

$$\blacktriangleright \underline{P(A \cap B)} = \underline{P(B)} \underline{P(A | B)}$$

Theorem

If $A_1, \dots, A_n \in \mathcal{F}$ and $P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n) > 0$, then

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) =$$

$$P(A_1)P(A_2 | A_1)P(A_3 | A_1 \cap A_2) \dots P(A_n | \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i)$$

Law of total probability

Definition

Countable family of sets $B_1, B_2, \dots \in \mathcal{F}$ is a partition of Ω , if

- ▶ $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$ and
- ▶ $\bigcup_i B_i = \Omega$.

Theorem

If B_1, B_2, \dots is a partition of Ω and $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then

$$P(A) = \sum_i P(A \mid B_i)P(B_i)$$

(terms with $P(B_i) = 0$ are counted as 0).

Law of total probability

Bayes' rule

Theorem

Let B_1, B_2, \dots be a partition of Ω , $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $P(A), P(B_j) > 0$.

Then

$$P(B_j | A) = \frac{P(A | B_j)P(B_j)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A | B_j)P(B_j)}{\sum_i P(A | B_i)P(B_i)}$$

(terms with $P(B_i) = 0$ are counted as 0).

Bayes' rule

Independent events

Definition

Events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ are independent if $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$.

- ▶ Then we also have $P(A | B) = P(A)$, provided $P(B) > 0$.

Mutually independent events

Definition

Events $\{A_i : i \in I\}$ are (mutually) independent if for every finite set $J \subseteq I$

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i \in J} A_i\right) = \prod_{i \in J} P(A_i).$$

If the condition is true only for sets J with $|J| = 2$, we call the collection $\{A_i\}$ pairwise independent.

Continuity of probability

Theorem

Suppose that events in \mathcal{F} satisfy

$$A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_3 \subseteq \dots$$

and $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$. Then we have

$$P(A) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} P(A_i).$$

- ▶ $A_n \subset \{H, T\}^{\mathbb{N}}$, $A_n =$ in the first n tosses there was at least one tail.

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Borel-Cantelli lemma

Theorem

Suppose events A_1, A_2, \dots satisfy $P(A_i) = p_i > 0$ for each i . Let $None$ be the event “none of events $\{A_i\}$ occurred” and Inf the event “infinitely many among $\{A_i\}$ occurred”.

1. If $\sum_i p_i < \infty$, then $P(Inf) = 0$.
2. If events A_1, A_2, \dots are mutually independent and $\sum_i p_i = \infty$, then $P(None) = 0$, $P(Inf) = 1$.