Advanced Algorithms – COMS31900

Probability recap.

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Probability

The **sample space** S is the set of *outcomes* of an experiment.

EXAMPLE

Roll a die: $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

$$\Pr(1) = \Pr(2) = \Pr(3) = \Pr(4) = \Pr(5) = \Pr(6) = \frac{1}{6}.$$

For $x \in S$, the **probability** of x, written $\Pr(x)$,
is a real number between 0 and 1,
such that $\sum_{x \in S} \Pr(x) = 1.$

$\Pr$ is *'just'* a function which maps each $x \in S$ to $\Pr(x) \in [0, 1]$

Probability

The sample space is not necessarily *finite*.

EXAMPLE

Flip a coin until first tail shows up:

$$S = \{\text{T}, \text{HT}, \text{HHT}, \text{HHHT}, \text{HHHHT}, \text{HHHHHT}, \ldots\}.$$

$\Pr(\text{“It takes } n \text{ coin flips”}) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$, and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} \ldots = 1$$

Event

An **event** is a subset V of the sample space S.

The probability of event V happening, denoted $\Pr(V)$, is

$$\Pr(V) = \sum_{x \in V} \Pr(x).$$

EXAMPLE

Flip a coin 3 times: $S = \{\text{TTT}, \text{TTH}, \text{THT}, \text{HTT}, \text{HHT}, \text{HTH}, \text{THH}, \text{HHH}\}$

For each $x \in S$, $\Pr(x) = \frac{1}{8}$

Define V to be the event "the first and last coin flips are the same"

in other words, $V = \{\text{HHH}, \text{HTH}, \text{THT}, \text{TTT}\}$

What is $\Pr(V)$?

$$\Pr(V) = \Pr(\text{HHH}) + \Pr(\text{HTH}) + \Pr(\text{THT}) + \Pr(\text{TTT}) = 4 \times \frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Random variable

A **random variable** (r.v.) Y over sample space S is a function $S \to \mathbb{R}$

i.e. it maps each outcome $x \in S$ to some real number $Y(x)$.

The probability of Y taking value y is $\mathbb{P}$

$\{x \in S \text{ st. } Y(x) = y\}$

EXAMPLE

Two coin flips.

S	Y
H H	2
H T	1
T H	5
T T	2

$$\Pr(Y = 2) = \frac{1}{2}$$

The **expected value** (the mean) of a r.v. Y,

denoted $\mathbb{E}(Y)$, is

$\mathbb{E}$

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \left(2 \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(1 \cdot \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(5 \cdot \frac{1}{4}\right) = \frac{7}{2}$$

Linearity of expectation

Theorem (Linearity of expectation)

Let $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_k$ be k random variables. Then

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} Y_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}(Y_i)$$

Linearity of expectation **always** holds,

(regardless of whether the random variables are independent or not.)

Example

Roll two dice. Let the r.v. Y be the sum of the values. What is $\mathbb{E}(Y)$?

Approach 1: *(without the theorem)*

The sample space $S = \{(1,1),(1,2),(1,3)\ldots(6,6)\}$ (36 outcomes)

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \sum_{x \in S} Y(x) \cdot \Pr(x) = \frac{1}{36} \sum_{x \in S} Y(x) =$$

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

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Example

Roll two dice. Let the r.v. Y be the sum of the values. What is $\mathbb{E}(Y)$?

Approach 2: *(with the theorem)*

Let the r.v. Y_1 be the value of the first die and Y_2 the value of the second

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_1) = \mathbb{E}(Y_2) = 3.5$$

so $\mathbb{E}(Y) = \mathbb{E}(Y_1 + Y_2) = \mathbb{E}(Y_1) + \mathbb{E}(Y_2) = 7$

Indicator random variables

An **indicator random variable** is a r.v. that can only be 0 or 1.

(usually referred to by the letter I)

Fact: $\mathbb{E}(I) = \Pr(I = 1)$.

Often an indicator r.v. I is associated with an event such that

$I = 1$ if the event happens (and $I = 0$ otherwise).

Indicator random variables and linearity of expectation work great together!

Example

Roll a die n times.

What is the expected number rolls that show a value that is at least the value of the previous roll?

For $j \in \{2, \ldots, n\}$, let indicator r.v. $I_j = 1$ if the value of the jth roll is at least the value of the previous roll (and $I_j = 0$ otherwise)

$\Pr(I_j = 1) = \frac{21}{36} = \frac{7}{12}$. (by counting the outcomes)

$$E\left(\sum_{j=2}^{n} I_j\right) = \sum_{j=2}^{n} \mathbb{E}(I_j) = \sum_{j=2}^{n} \Pr(I_j = 1) = (n-1) \cdot \frac{7}{12}$$

Markov's inequality

Example

Suppose that the average (mean) speed on the motorway is 60 mph.

It then follows that at most

$\frac{2}{3}$ of all cars drive at least 90 mph,

...otherwise the mean must be higher than 60 mph. (a contradiction)

Theorem (Markov's inequality)

If X is a non-negative r.v., then for all $a > 0$,

$$\Pr(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(X)}{a}.$$

Example

From the example above:

- $\Pr($speed of a random car ≥ 120 mph$) \leq \frac{60}{120} = \frac{1}{2}$,
- $\Pr($speed of a random car ≥ 90mph$) \leq \frac{60}{90} = \frac{2}{3}$.

Markov's inequality

EXAMPLE

n people go to a party, leaving their hats at the door.

Each person leaves with a random hat.

How many people leave with their own hat?

For $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, let indicator r.v. $I_j = 1$ if the jth person gets their own hat, otherwise $I_j = 0$.

By linearity of expectation...

$$\mathbb{E}$$

By Markov's inequality (recall: $\Pr(X \geq a) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}(X)}{a}$),

$$\Pr(\text{5 or more people leaving with their own hats}) \leq \frac{1}{5},$$

$$\Pr(\text{at least 1 person leaving with their own hat}) \leq \frac{1}{1} = 1.$$

(sometimes Markov's inequality is not particularly informative)

In fact, here it can be shown that as $n \to \infty$, the probability that at least one person leaves with their own hat is $1 - \frac{1}{e} \approx 0.632$.

Markov's inequality

Corollary

If X is a non-negative r.v. that only takes integer values, then

$$\Pr(X > 0) = \Pr(X \geq 1) \leq \mathbb{E}(X).$$

For an indicator r.v. I, the bound is tight ($=$), as $\Pr(I > 0) = \mathbb{E}(I)$.

Union bound

THEOREM (union bound)

Let $V_1, \dots, V_k$ be k events. Then

$$\Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} V_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{k} \Pr(V_i).$$

This bound is tight $(=)$ when the events are all disjoint.

(V_i and V_j are disjoint iff $V_i \cap V_j$ is empty)

PROOF

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PROOF

Define indicator r.v. I_j to be 1 if event V_j happens, otherwise $I_j = 0$.

Let the r.v. $X = \sum_{j=1}^{k} I_j$ be the number of events that happen.

$\mathbb{E}(I) = \Pr(I = 1)$

$$\Pr\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{k} V_j\right) = \Pr(X > 0) \leq \mathbb{E}(X) = \mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{k} I_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}(I_j)$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{k} \Pr(V_j)$$

by previous Markov corollary

Linearity of expectation

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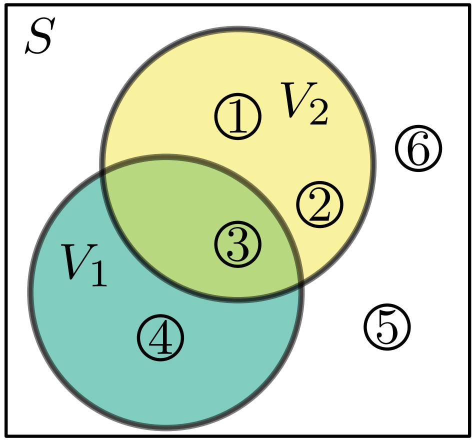
Example

$S = \{1, \ldots, 6\}$ is the set of outcomes of a die roll.

We define two events: $V_1 = \{3, 4\}$
$V_2 = \{1, 2, 3\}$



$$\Pr(V_1 \cup V_2) \leq \Pr(V_1) + \Pr(V_2) = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{6}$$

in fact, $\Pr(V_1 \cup V_2) = \frac{2}{3}$ (3 was ‘double counted’)

Typically the union bound is used when each $\Pr(V_i)$ is *much* smaller than k.

Summary

The **sample space** S is the set of *outcomes* of an experiment.

For $x \in S$, the **probability** of x, written $\Pr(x)$,is a real number between 0 and 1,

such that $\sum_{x \in S} \Pr(x) = 1.$

An **event** is a subset V of the sample space S, $\Pr(V) = \sum_{x \in V} \Pr(x)$

A **random variable** (r.v.) Y is a function which maps $x \in S$ to $S(x) \in \mathbb{R}$

The probability of Y taking value y is P

$\{x \in S \text{ st. } Y(x) = y\}$

The **expected value** (the mean) of Y is $\mathbb{E}$

An **indicator random variable** is a r.v. that can only be 0 or 1.

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F

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