

Review

Conditional Probability

$$\mathbb{P}[A|B] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\mathbb{P}[A \cap B]}{\mathbb{P}[B]}$$

Example: You go to the doctor for a routine checkup, in which she also administers a test for the condition C . The test is not 100% accurate; instead, the test shows positive (event TP) only with probability .95 if you actually do have the condition, and with probability .05 even if you don't:

$$\mathbb{P}[TP|C] = 0.95 \text{ and } \mathbb{P}[TP|\bar{C}] = 0.05 .$$

In addition, the CDC estimates that 2%

of the people going for a routine checkup
have the condition:

$$\mathbb{P}[C] = 0.02 .$$

Panic: The test shows positive!

What to do?

of the people going for a routine checkup have the condition:

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Panic: The test shows positive!

What to do?

You compute the probability that you actually have the condition:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[C|TP] &= \frac{\mathbb{P}[TP|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C]}{\mathbb{P}[TP|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C] + \mathbb{P}[TP|\bar{C}] \cdot \mathbb{P}[\bar{C}]} \\ &= \frac{.95 \times .02}{.95 \times .02 + .05 \times .98} \approx 28\% . \end{aligned}$$

You feel a little relief but still want to know. You can go for a more accurate (and presumably more expensive) test, or take the same one over. The difference the second time around is that you now belong to a population having $\mathbb{P}[C] = .28$.

Let $T2P$ denote the event that the Second Test is Positive and compute:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[C|T2P] &= \frac{\mathbb{P}[T2P|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C]}{\mathbb{P}[T2P|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C] + \mathbb{P}[T2P|\overline{C}] \cdot \mathbb{P}[\overline{C}]} \\ &= \frac{.95 \times .28}{.95 \times .28 + .05 \times .72} \approx 88\% .\end{aligned}$$

Now you are really worried. You may want to take the test a third time:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[C|T3P] &= \frac{\mathbb{P}[T3P|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C]}{\mathbb{P}[T3P|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C] + \mathbb{P}[T3P|\overline{C}] \cdot \mathbb{P}[\overline{C}]} \\ &= \frac{.95 \times .88}{.95 \times .88 + .05 \times .12} \approx 99\% .\end{aligned}$$

Suppose however, the second test is negative. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[C|\overline{T2P}] &= \frac{\mathbb{P}[\overline{T2P}|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C]}{\mathbb{P}[\overline{T2P}|C] \cdot \mathbb{P}[C] + \mathbb{P}[\overline{T2P}|\overline{C}] \cdot \mathbb{P}[\overline{C}]} \\ &= \frac{.05 \times .28}{.05 \times .28 + .95 \times .72} \approx 2\% .\end{aligned}$$

You should be just as [un–]concerned about having C as you were before the first visit.

Independence

Definition: Two events $A, B \subseteq S$ are **independent**, written $A \perp B$, if

$$\mathbb{P}[A \cap B] = \mathbb{P}[A] \cdot \mathbb{P}[B] .$$

If $\mathbb{P}[B] \neq 0$ we divide by it and find that A, B are independent if

$$\mathbb{P}[A] = \mathbb{P}[A|B] \quad \left(\text{or } \mathbb{P}[B] = \mathbb{P}[B|A] \right) :$$

i.e., if knowledge that B has occurred does not alter the probability that A will occur and vice versa.

Example: Roll two distinguishable dice. The events $[\text{die}_1 = 2]$ and $[\text{die}_2 = 5]$ are

independent. So are the events $[\text{die}_1 = 2]$ and $[\text{sum of faces} = 7]$.

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccccc} (1, 1), & (1, 2), & (1, 3), & (1, 4), & (1, 5), & (1, 6), \\ (2, 1), & (2, 2), & (2, 3), & (2, 4), & (2, 5), & (2, 6), \\ (3, 1), & (3, 2), & (3, 3), & (3, 4), & (3, 5), & (3, 6), \\ (4, 1), & (4, 2), & (4, 3), & (4, 4), & (4, 5), & (4, 6), \\ (5, 1), & (5, 2), & (5, 3), & (5, 4), & (5, 5), & (5, 6), \\ (6, 1), & (6, 2), & (6, 3), & (6, 4), & (6, 5), & (6, 6) \end{array} \right)$$

Two disjoint events of strictly positive probability are **NOT** independent.

Lemma: If $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ then

$$A \perp\!\!\!\perp \bar{B} \text{ and } \bar{A} \perp\!\!\!\perp B \text{ and } \bar{A} \perp\!\!\!\perp \bar{B} .$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[A \cap \overline{B}] &= \mathbb{P}[A] - \mathbb{P}[A \cap B] = \mathbb{P}[A] - \mathbb{P}[A] \cdot \mathbb{P}[B] \\ &= \mathbb{P}[A](1 - \mathbb{P}[B]) = \mathbb{P}[A] \cdot \mathbb{P}[\overline{B}] .\end{aligned}$$

Use with $A \longrightarrow B$ and $A \longrightarrow \overline{A}$. **QED**

Definition: The family $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{P}[S]$ is **independent** if for every subfamily $\{A_{n_1}, \dots, A_{n_k}\}$

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\bigcap_{i=1}^k A_{n_i}\right] = \prod_{i=1}^k \mathbb{P}[A_{n_i}] .$$

This means that knowledge that any number of the A_i have occurred does not help reassessing the probability of any event A_j not in that number.

In our example of two dice the three events

$[\text{die}_1 = 2]$, $[\text{die}_2 = 5]$, $[\text{sum} = 7]$ are not independent, yet any pair among them is.

Example, Independent Trials: Suppose you have an experiment with finite space S and probability function

$$p(s) = \mathbb{P}[\{s\}] \quad s \in S$$

— the “primitive” experiment — and you repeat it independently N times – independently means that the outcomes of any repetition are not influenced by the outcomes of any or all earlier or later repetitions. Then a reasonable state space for the new experiment that consists of the N repetitions of the “primitive” experiment is the N -fold **cartesian Product**

$$S^N \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N) : s_i \in S\}$$

and the probability function on it is given

by

$$p((s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N)) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p(s_1) \cdot p(s_2) \cdots p(s_N) .$$

Example, Independent Bernoulli Trials: A **Bernoulli trial** is an experiment with only two outcomes H and T such that $\mathbb{P}[\{H\}] = p$ and $\mathbb{P}[\{T\}] = 1 - p$. Repeat it N times. A typical outcome is

$$\underbrace{HHT \cdots TTH}_{N \text{ letters}} .$$

What is the probability of $[\# \text{ of } H = k]$?

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k H s and $N - k$ T s

has probability $p^k(1-p)^{N-k}$. There are $\binom{N}{k}$

of them:

$$\mathbb{P}[\# \text{ of } H = k] = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{N-k} .$$

This is the **Binomial Distribution**.

Keep repeating the Bernoulli experiment infinitely often. What is the probability of the event E that the outcome H appears first on the k^{th} repetition?

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An outcome like

$\underbrace{HHT \dots TTT}_{k \text{ Hs and } n - k \text{ Ts}}H$.

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Random Variables

Definition: Suppose as always that the state space S is finite or countable. A function $X : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a **Random Variable**. The **Expectation** of X is the number

$$\mathbb{E}[X] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{s \in S} X(s) \cdot p(s) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x \cdot \mathbb{P}[X = x] .$$

Frequently we write μ_X for $\mathbb{E}[X]$.

Proof of the equality:

$$S = \bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \{s \in S : X(s) = x\} = \bigcup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} [X = x] .$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X] &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{\{s: X(s)=x\}} X(s)p(s) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{\{s: X(s)=x\}} xp(s) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x \sum_{\{s: X(s)=x\}} p(s) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} x \cdot \mathbb{P}[X = x] .\end{aligned}$$

Theorem: The expectation is linear and positive: if X, Y are random variables and a, b constants then

$$\mathbb{E}[aX + bY] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

and
$$X \geq 0 \implies \mathbb{E}[X] \geq 0 .$$

Example: The **Indicator Function** of a set $A \subseteq S$ is defined by

$$\begin{cases} I_A(s) = 1 & \text{if } s \in A , \\ I_A(s) = 0 & \text{if } s \notin A . \end{cases}$$

Clearly

$$\mathbb{P}[A] = \mathbb{E}[I_A] .$$

Example: Recall the Bernoulli trial with outcomes H and T . The **Bernoulli random variable** X takes value 1 at H and value 0 at T . Clearly $\mathbb{E}[X] = p$.

The **Binomial variable** Y counts the number of H in n independent Bernoulli trials. Clearly

$$Y = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n ,$$

X_i denoting the Bernoulli random variable of the i^{th} repetition. Therefore the expected number of H in n independent Bernoulli trials with $\mathbb{P}[\{H\}] = p$ is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n p = np .$$

Theorem: Let $X : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a random variable and $\Phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a function. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[\Phi \circ X] = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \Phi(x) \cdot \mathbb{P}[X = x] .$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}[\Phi \circ X] \\ &= \sum_{s \in S} \Phi(X(s)) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{\{s: X(s)=x\}} \Phi(X(s)) p(s) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{\{s: X(s)=x\}} \Phi(x) p(s) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \Phi(x) \sum_{\{s: X(s)=x\}} p(s) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \Phi(x) \mathbb{P}[X = x] \end{aligned}$$

Example: Let X be a random variable. The square of its deviation from its mean is called its **Variance**:

$$\mathbf{var}(X) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu_X^2 .$$

The variance of the Bernoulli Variable X above is therefore

$$0^2\mathbb{P}[X = 0] + 1^2\mathbb{P}[X = 1] - p^2 = p(1 - p) .$$

Definition: Two random variables X, Y are **independent** if for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbb{P}[X = x \wedge Y = y] = \mathbb{P}[X = x] \cdot \mathbb{P}[Y = y] .$$

Theorem: If X, Y are independent and $\Phi, \Psi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ then $\Phi(X), \Psi(Y)$ are independent.

Theorem: If X, Y are independent then

$$\mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] \cdot \mathbb{E}[Y] .$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}[X \cdot Y] \\ &= \sum_{z \in \mathbb{R}} z \cdot \mathbb{P}[XY = z] \\ &= \sum_{z \in \mathbb{R}_*} z \cdot \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}_*} \mathbb{P}[XY = z, Y = y] \\ &= \sum_{z \in \mathbb{R}_*} z \cdot \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}_*} \mathbb{P}[X = z/y, Y = y] \\ &= \sum_{z \in \mathbb{R}_*} z \cdot \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}_*} \mathbb{P}[X = z/y] \mathbb{P}[Y = y] \\ &= \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}_*} \mathbb{P}[Y = y] \cdot \sum_{z \in \mathbb{R}_*} z \mathbb{P}[X = z/y] \\ & \text{with } z/y = x, z = xy: \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}_*} \cdot \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}_*} xy \mathbb{P}[X = x] \mathbb{P}[Y = y] \\ &= y \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}_*} \mathbb{P}[Y = y] \cdot x \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}_*} \mathbb{P}[X = x] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[Y] \cdot \mathbb{E}[X]. \end{aligned}$$

Example: Recall that the **Binomial variable** Y counts the number of H in n Bernoulli trials in n Bernoulli trials and equals $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ where X_i denotes the Bernoulli random

variable of the i^{th} repetition. The latter has expectation p .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(Y) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - np \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - p) \right)^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i,j=1}^n (X_i - p)(X_j - p) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - p)(X_i - p) \right] \\ &\quad + \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i \neq j} (X_i - p)(X_j - p) \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[(X_i - p)(X_i - p)] \\ &\quad + \sum_{i \neq j} \mathbb{E}[(X_i - p)(X_j - p)] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[(X_i - p)^2] = np(1 - p) .\end{aligned}$$

Theorem: If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent random variables then

$$\text{var} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{var}(X_i) .$$

Theorem – Chebysheff’s Inequality: For any random variable X and constant $\lambda > 0$

$$\mathbb{P}[|X| \geq \lambda] \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X^2]}{\lambda^2} .$$

Proof: Consider the random variable Y that equals λ on the set $[X \geq \lambda] \subseteq S$ and zero elsewhere: $Y = \lambda I_{[|X| \geq \lambda]}$. Clearly

$$Y^2 \leq X^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[Y^2] = \lambda^2 \cdot \mathbb{P}[X \geq \lambda] .$$

Hence $\lambda^2 \mathbb{P}[X \geq \lambda] = \mathbb{E}[Y^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[X^2]$

and the claim follows.

QED

Theorem – The weak law of large numbers: Let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent repetitions of the same random variable, and let μ denote the common value of their expectations and v the common value of their variances. Then for all $\epsilon > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P} \left[\left| \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} - \mu \right| > \epsilon \right] \rightarrow 0 .$$

Proof: The random variable

$$Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)$$

has expectation zero and variance $\text{var}(Y) = \mathbb{E}[Y^2] = nv$. By Chebysheff's inequality,

$$\mathbb{P}[|Y/n| \geq \epsilon] = \mathbb{P}[Y \geq n\epsilon] \leq \frac{nv}{n^2\epsilon^2} = \frac{v}{n\epsilon^2} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 .$$