

# Basics of Probability Theory

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The **probability space** or **sample space**  $\Omega$  is the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment. For example, the sample space of the coin tossing experiment is  $\Omega = \{\text{head}, \text{tail}\}$ .

Certain subsets of the sample space are called **events**, and the probability of these events is determined by a **probability measure**.

If we roll a dice, then one of its six face values is the outcome of the experiment, so the sample space is  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ .

An event is a subset of the sample space  $\Omega$ . The event  $\{1, 2\}$  occurs when the dice shows a face value less than three.

The probability measures describes the odds that a certain event occurs, for instance  $\Pr[\{1, 2\}] = 1/3$  means that the event  $\{1, 2\}$  will occur with probability  $1/3$ .

## Why $\sigma$ -Algebras?

A probability measure is not necessarily defined on all subsets of the sample space  $\Omega$ , but just on all subsets of  $\Omega$  that are considered events. Nevertheless, we want to have a uniform way to reason about the probability of events. This is accomplished by requiring that the collection of events form a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

A  **$\sigma$ -algebra**  $\mathcal{F}$  is a collection of subsets of the sample space  $\Omega$  such that the following requirements are satisfied:

**S1** The empty set is contained in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

**S2** If a set  $E$  is contained in  $\mathcal{F}$ , then its complement  $E^c$  is contained in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

**S3** The countable union of sets in  $\mathcal{F}$  is contained in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

The empty set  $\emptyset$  is often called the **impossible event**.

The sample space  $\Omega$  is the complement of the empty set, hence is contained in  $\mathcal{F}$ . The event  $\Omega$  is called the **certain event**.

If  $E$  is an event, then  $E^c = \Omega \setminus E = \Omega - E$  is called the **complementary event**.

Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

Exercise

*If  $A$  and  $B$  are events in  $\mathcal{F}$ , then  $A \cap B$  in  $\mathcal{F}$ .*

Exercise

*The countable intersection of events in  $\mathcal{F}$  is contained in  $\mathcal{F}$ .*

Exercise

*If  $A$  and  $B$  are events in  $\mathcal{F}$ , then  $A - B = A \setminus B$  is contained in  $\mathcal{F}$ .*

## Example

### Remark

*Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a subset of  $P(\Omega)$ . Then the intersection of all  $\sigma$ -algebras containing  $\mathcal{A}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, called the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{A}$ . We denote the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $\mathcal{A}$  by  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ .*

### Example

Let  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $\mathcal{A} = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}\}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma(\mathcal{A}) = & \{\emptyset, \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, \\ & \{1, 2\}, \{3, 4, 5, 6\}, \\ & \{2, 3\}, \{1, 4, 5, 6\}, \\ & \{2\}, \{1, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, \{1\}, \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2, 4, 5, 6\}, \\ & \{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5, 6\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 4, 5, 6\}\}\end{aligned}$$



## Exercise

Let  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  and  $\mathcal{A} = \{\{2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5\}\}$ .

Determine  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})$ .

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## Solution

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A} = \{ & \emptyset, \Omega, \{2\}, \{1, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, \\ & \{1, 2, 3\}, \{4, 5, 6\}, \{4, 5\}, \{1, 2, 3, 6\}, \\ & \{1, 3\}, \{2, 4, 5, 6\}, \{6\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, \\ & \{2, 6\}, \{1, 3, 4, 5\}, \{2, 4, 5\}, \{1, 3, 6\}\end{aligned}$$

Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra over the sample space  $\Omega$ . A **probability measure** on  $\mathcal{F}$  is a function  $\Pr: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  satisfying

**P1** The certain event satisfies  $\Pr[\Omega] = 1$ .

**P2** If the events  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  in  $\mathcal{F}$  are mutually disjoint, then

$$\Pr\left[\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k\right] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \Pr[E_k].$$

## Example

### Example

Probability Function Let  $\Omega$  be a sample space and let  $a \in \Omega$ . Suppose that  $\mathcal{F} = P(\Omega)$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra. Then  $\text{Pr}: \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$  given by

$$\text{Pr}[A] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \in A, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

is a probability measure.

We know that **P1** holds, since  $\text{Pr}[\Omega] = 1$ . **P2** holds as well. Indeed, if  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  are mutually disjoint events in  $P(\Omega)$ , then at most one of the events contains  $a$ .

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{Pr}[E_k] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if some set } E_k \text{ contains } a, \\ 0 & \text{if none of the sets } E_k \text{ contains } a. \end{cases} = \text{Pr}\left[\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} E_k\right]$$

These axioms have a number of familiar consequences. For example, it follows that the complementary event  $E^c$  has probability

$$\Pr[E^c] = 1 - \Pr[E].$$

In particular, the impossible event has probability zero,  $\Pr[\emptyset] = 0$ .

Another consequence is a simple form of the **inclusion-exclusion principle**:

$$\Pr[E \cup F] = \Pr[E] + \Pr[F] - \Pr[E \cap F],$$

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which is convenient when calculating probabilities. Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[E \cup F] &= \Pr[E \setminus (E \cap F)] + \Pr[E \cap F] + \Pr[F \setminus (E \cap F)] \\ &= \Pr[E] + \Pr[F \setminus (E \cap F)] + (\Pr[E \cap F] - \Pr[E \cap F]) \\ &= \Pr[E] + \Pr[F] - \Pr[E \cap F].\end{aligned}$$

## Exercise

*Let  $E$  and  $F$  be events such that  $E \subseteq F$ . Show that*

$$\Pr[E] \leq \Pr[F].$$

## Exercise

*Let  $E_1, \dots, E_n$  be events that are not necessarily disjoint. Show that*

$$\Pr[E_1 \cup \dots \cup E_n] \leq \Pr[E_1] + \dots + \Pr[E_n].$$



# Conditional Probabilities

Let  $E$  and  $F$  be events over a sample space  $\Omega$  such that  $\Pr[F] > 0$ . The **conditional probability**  $\Pr[E | F]$  of the event  $E$  given  $F$  is defined by

$$\Pr[E | F] = \frac{\Pr[E \cap F]}{\Pr[F]}.$$

The value  $\Pr[E | F]$  is interpreted as the probability that the event  $E$  occurs, assuming that the event  $F$  occurs.

By definition,  $\Pr[E \cap F] = \Pr[E | F] \Pr[F]$ , and this simple multiplication formula often turns out to be useful.

## Law of Total Probability (Simplest Version)

### Law of Total Probability

Let  $\Omega$  be a sample space and  $A$  and  $E$  events. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[A] &= \Pr[A \cap E] + \Pr[A \cap E^c] \\ &= \Pr[A | E] \Pr[E] + \Pr[A | E^c] \Pr[E^c].\end{aligned}$$

The events  $E$  and  $E^c$  are disjoint and satisfy  $\Omega = E \cup E^c$ . Therefore, we have

$$\Pr[A] = \Pr[A \cap E] + \Pr[A \cap E^c].$$

The second equality follows directly from the definition of conditional probability.

### Bayes' Theorem

$$\Pr[A | B] = \frac{\Pr[B | A] \Pr[A]}{\Pr[B]}.$$

We have

$$\Pr[A | B] \Pr[B] = \Pr[A \cap B] = \Pr[B \cap A] = \Pr[B | A] \Pr[A].$$

Dividing by  $\Pr[B]$  yields the claim.

### Bayes' Theorem (Version 2)

$$\Pr[A | B] = \frac{\Pr[B | A] \Pr[A]}{\Pr[B|A] \Pr[A] + \Pr[B|A^c] \Pr[A^c]}.$$

By the first version of Bayes' theorem, we have

$$\Pr[A | B] = \frac{\Pr[B | A] \Pr[A]}{\Pr[B]}.$$

Now apply the law of total probability with  $\Omega = A \cup A^c$  to the probability  $\Pr[B]$  denominator.

# Polynomial Identities

Suppose that we use a library that is supposedly implementing a polynomial factorization. We would like to check whether the polynomials such as

$$p(x) = (x + 1)(x - 2)(x + 3)(x - 4)(x + 5)(x - 6)$$

$$q(x) = x^6 - 7x^3 + 25$$

are the same.

We can multiply the terms both polynomials and simplify. This uses  $\Omega(d^2)$  multiplications for polynomials of degree  $d$ .

If the polynomials  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are the same, then we must have

$$p(x) - q(x) \equiv 0.$$

If the polynomials  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are not the same, then an integer  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$  such that

$$p(r) - q(r) \neq 0$$

would be a **witness** to the difference of  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$ .

We can check whether  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$  is a witness in  $O(d)$  multiplications.



We get the following randomized algorithm for checking whether  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are the same.

Input: Two polynomials  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  of degree  $d$ .

**for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $t$  **do**

$r = \text{random}(1..100d)$ ;

    return 'different' if  $p(r) - q(r) \neq 0$

**end** return 'same'

If  $p(x) \equiv q(x)$ , then every  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$  is a non-witness.

If  $p(x) \not\equiv q(x)$ , then an integer  $r$  in the range  $1 \leq r \leq 100d$  is a witness if and only if it is not a root of  $p(x) - q(x)$ . The polynomial  $p(x) - q(x)$  has at most  $d$  roots.

The probability that the algorithm will return 'same' when the polynomials are different is at most

$$\Pr[\text{'same'} | p(x) \not\equiv q(x)] \leq \left( \frac{d}{100d} \right)^t = \frac{1}{100^t}.$$

# Independent Events

### Definition

Two events  $E$  and  $F$  are called **independent** if and only if

$$\Pr[E \cap F] = \Pr[E] \Pr[F].$$

Two events that are not independent are called **dependent**.

## Example

Suppose that we flip a fair coin twice. Then the sample space is  $\{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$ . The probability of each elementary event is given by  $1/4$ . For instance,  $\Pr[\{HH\}] = 1/4$ .

The event  $E$  that the **first coin is heads** is given by  $\{HH, HT\}$ . We have  $\Pr[E] = 1/2$ . The event  $F$  that **the second coin is tails** is given by  $\{HT, TT\}$ . We have  $\Pr[F] = 1/2$ .

Then  $E \cap F$  models the event that **the first coin is heads and the second coin is tails**. The events  $E$  and  $F$  are independent, since

$$\Pr[E \cap F] = \frac{1}{4} = \Pr[E] \Pr[F].$$

If  $E$  and  $F$  are independent, then

$$\Pr[E | F] = \frac{\Pr[E \cap F]}{\Pr[F]} = \frac{\Pr[E] \Pr[F]}{\Pr[F]} = \Pr[E].$$

In this case, whether or not  $F$  happened has no bearing on the probability of  $E$ .

Suppose that  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  are events. The events are called **mutually independent** if and only if for all subsets  $S$  of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , we have

$$\Pr \left[ \bigcap_{i \in S} E_i \right] = \prod_{i \in S} \Pr[E_i].$$

Please note that it is not sufficient to show this condition for  $S = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , but we really need to show this for all subsets.

## Example

We toss a fair coin three times. Consider the events:

$E_1$  = the first two values are the same,

$E_2$  = the first and last value are the same,

$E_3$  = the last two values are the same.

The probabilities are  $\Pr[E_1] = \Pr[E_2] = \Pr[E_3] = 1/2$ . We have

$$\Pr[E_1 \cap E_2] = \Pr[E_2 \cap E_3] = \Pr[E_1 \cap E_3] = \Pr[\{HHH, TTT\}] = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Thus, all three pairs of events are independent. But

$$\Pr[E_1 \cap E_2 \cap E_3] = \frac{1}{4} \neq \Pr[E_1] \Pr[E_2] \Pr[E_3] = \frac{1}{8},$$

so they are not mutually independent.



## Example

A school offers as electives  $A =$  athletics,  $B =$  band, and  $C =$  Mandarin Chinese.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \Pr[A \cap B \cap C] = 0.04 & \Pr[\bar{A} \cap B \cap C] = 0.2 \\ \Pr[A \cap B \cap \bar{C}] = 0.06 & \Pr[\bar{A} \cap B \cap \bar{C}] = 0.1 \\ \Pr[A \cap \bar{B} \cap C] = 0.1 & \Pr[\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} \cap C] = 0.16 \\ \Pr[A \cap \bar{B} \cap \bar{C}] = 0 & \Pr[\bar{A} \cap \bar{B} \cap \bar{C}] = 0.34 \end{array}$$

Then  $\Pr[A \cap B \cap C] = 0.04 = \Pr[A] \Pr[B] \Pr[C] = 0.2 \cdot 0.4 \cdot 0.5$ .  
But no two of the three events are pair-wise independent:

$$\Pr[A \cap B] = 0.1 \neq \Pr[A] \Pr[B] = 0.2 \cdot 0.4 = 0.08$$

# Verifying Matrix Multiplication

## The Problem

Let  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  be  $n \times n$  matrices over  $\mathbf{F}_2 = \mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z}$ .

Is  $AB = C$ ?

If we use traditional matrix multiplication, then forming the product of  $A$  and  $B$  requires  $\Theta(n^3)$  scalar operations. Using the fastest known matrix multiplications takes about  $\Theta(n^{2.37})$  scalar operations. Can we do better using a randomized algorithm?

A **witness** for  $AB \neq C$  would be a vector  $v$  such that

$$ABv \neq Cv.$$

We can check whether a vector is a witness in  $O(n^2)$  time.

## Theorem

*If  $AB \neq C$ , and we choose a vector  $v$  uniformly at random from  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , then  $v$  is a witness for  $AB \neq C$  with probability  $\geq 1/2$ . In other words,*

$$\Pr_{v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n} [ABv = Cv \mid AB \neq C] \leq \frac{1}{2}.$$

### Lemma

*Choosing  $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  uniformly at random is equivalent to choosing each  $v_k$  independently and uniformly at random from  $\mathbf{F}_2$ .*

### Proof.

If we choose each component  $v_k$  independently and uniformly at random from  $\mathbf{F}_2$ , then each vector  $v$  in  $\mathbf{F}_2^n$  is created with probability  $1/2^n$ .

Conversely, if  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$  is chosen uniformly at random, then the components are independent and  $v_k = 1$  with probability  $1/2$ . □

## Proof of the Theorem

Let  $D = AB - C \neq 0$ . Then  $ABv = Cv$  if and only if  $Dv = 0$ .

Since  $D \neq 0$ , the matrix  $D$  must have a nonzero entry. Without loss of generality, suppose that  $d_{11} \neq 0$ .

If  $Dv = 0$ , then we must have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n d_{1k} v_k = 0.$$

Since  $d_{11} \neq 0$ , this is equivalent to

$$v_1 = -\frac{\sum_{k=2}^n d_{1k} v_k}{d_{11}}.$$

## Idea (Principle of Deferred Decisions)

Rather than arguing with the vector  $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$ , we can choose each component of  $v$  uniformly at random from  $\mathbf{F}_2$  in order from  $v_n$  down to  $v_1$ .



Suppose that the components  $v_n, v_{n-1}, \dots, v_2$  have been chosen. This determines the right-hand side of

$$v_1 = -\frac{\sum_{k=2}^n d_{1k} v_k}{d_{11}}.$$

Now there is just one choice of  $v_1$  that will make the equality true, so the probability that this equation is satisfied is at most  $1/2$ . In other words, the probability

$$\Pr[ABv = Cv \mid AB \neq C] \leq 1/2.$$