

# Foundations of Data Science

## Probability Space

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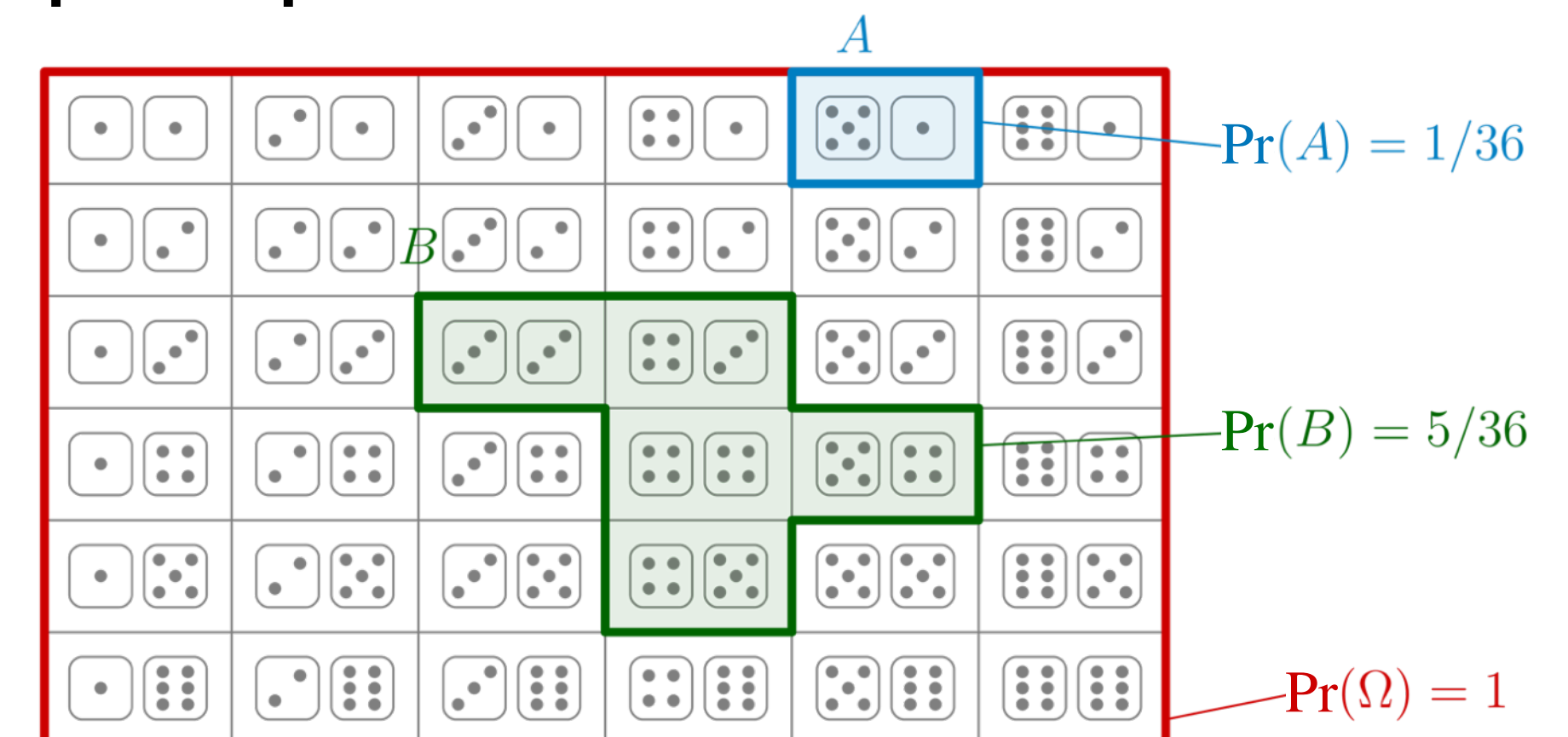
# Probability Space



# Sample Space (样本空间)



- Sample space  $\Omega$ : set of all possible outcomes of an experiment (samples).
  - Example: all sides of a dice; all outcomes of a sequence of coin tosses; ...
- Each  $\omega \in \Omega$  is called a sample (样本) or elementary event (基本事件).
- An event (事件) is a subset  $A \subseteq \Omega$  of the sample space.



# Discrete Probability Space

$(\Omega, \text{Pr})$



- Sample space  $\Omega$ : set of all possible outcomes of an experiment (samples).
  - **Example**: all sides of a dice; all outcomes of a sequence of coin tosses; ...
- Each  $\omega \in \Omega$  is called a sample (样本) or elementary event (基本事件).
- For discrete probability space (where  $\Omega$  is *finite* or *countably infinite*):

- probability mass function (*pmf*)  $p : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$  satisfies  $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega) = 1$

- the probability of event  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is given by  $\text{Pr}(A) = \sum_{\omega \in A} p(\omega)$

# Sample Space and Events



- Sample space  $\Omega$ : set of all possible outcomes of an experiment (samples).
  - **Example**: all sides of a dice; all outcomes of a sequence of coin tosses; ...
- A family  $\Sigma \subseteq 2^\Omega$  of subsets of  $\Omega$ , called events (事件), satisfies:
  - $\emptyset$  and  $\Omega$  are events (the impossible event and certain event);  
“不可能事件” “必然事件”
  - if  $A$  is an event, then so is its complement  $A^c = \Omega \setminus A$ ;
  - if (countably many)  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are events, then so is  $\bigcup_i A_i$  (and  $\bigcap_i A_i$ )

# $\sigma$ -Algebra ( $\sigma$ -代数)

- A family  $\Sigma \subseteq 2^\Omega$  of subsets of  $\Omega$  is called a  $\sigma$ -algebra or  $\sigma$ -field, if:
  - $\emptyset \in \Sigma$
  - $A \in \Sigma \implies A^c \in \Sigma$  (where  $A^c = \Omega \setminus A$  denotes  $A$ 's complement in  $\Omega$ )
  - $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \Sigma \implies \bigcup_i A_i \in \Sigma$  (for countably many  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \Sigma$ )
- **Examples:**
  - $\Sigma = 2^\Omega$
  - $\Sigma = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$
  - $\Sigma = \{\emptyset, A, A^c, \Omega\}$  for any  $A \subseteq \Omega$

# Sets as Events

Notation	Set interpretation	Event interpretation
$\omega \in \Omega$	Member of $\Omega$	Elementary event
$A \subseteq \Omega$	Subset of $\Omega$	Event A occurs
$A^c$	Complement of A	Event A does not occur
$A \cap B$	Intersection	Both A and B
$A \cup B$	Union	Either A or B or both
$A \setminus B$	Difference	A, but not B
$A \oplus B$	Symmetric difference	Either A or B, but not both
$\emptyset$	Empty set	Impossible event
$\Omega$	Whole space	Certain event
$A \subseteq B$	Inclusion	A implies B
$A \cap B = \emptyset$	Set disjointness	A and B cannot both occur

# Probability Space (概率空间)

$(\Omega, \Sigma, \text{Pr})$

- Let  $\Sigma \subseteq 2^\Omega$  be a  $\sigma$ -algebra.
- A probability measure (概率测度), also called probability law (概率律), is a function  $\text{Pr} : \Sigma \rightarrow [0,1]$  satisfying:
  - (*unitary/normalized*)  $\text{Pr}(\Omega) = 1$ ;
  - ( *$\sigma$ -additive*) for **disjoint (不相容)**  $A_1, A_2, \dots \in \Sigma$ :  $\text{Pr} \left( \bigcup_i A_i \right) = \sum_i \text{Pr}(A_i)$ .
- The triple  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \text{Pr})$  is called a probability space.



Andrey Kolmogorov  
Андрей Колмогоров  
(1903-1987)



# Classical Examples of Probability Space

- 古典概型 (classic probability): *discrete uniform probability law*

Finite sample space  $\Omega$ , each outcome  $\omega \in \Omega$  has equal probability.

$$\text{For every event } A \subseteq \Omega: \Pr(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$$

- 几何概型 (geometric probability): continuous probability space such that

$$\text{For every event } A \in \Sigma: \Pr(A) = \frac{\text{Vol}(A)}{\text{Vol}(\Omega)}$$

- Bertrand's paradox
- Buffon's needle problem



$\Pr \propto \angle$

# Buffon's Needle Problem (蒲丰投针问题)

(Georges-Louis Leclerc de Buffon in 1733, and in 1777)

- Suppose that you drop a short needle of length  $\ell$  on ruled paper, with distance  $d$  between parallel lines.
- What is the probability that the needle comes to lie in a position where it crosses one of the lines?
- For  $\ell < d$ , this probability is calculated as:

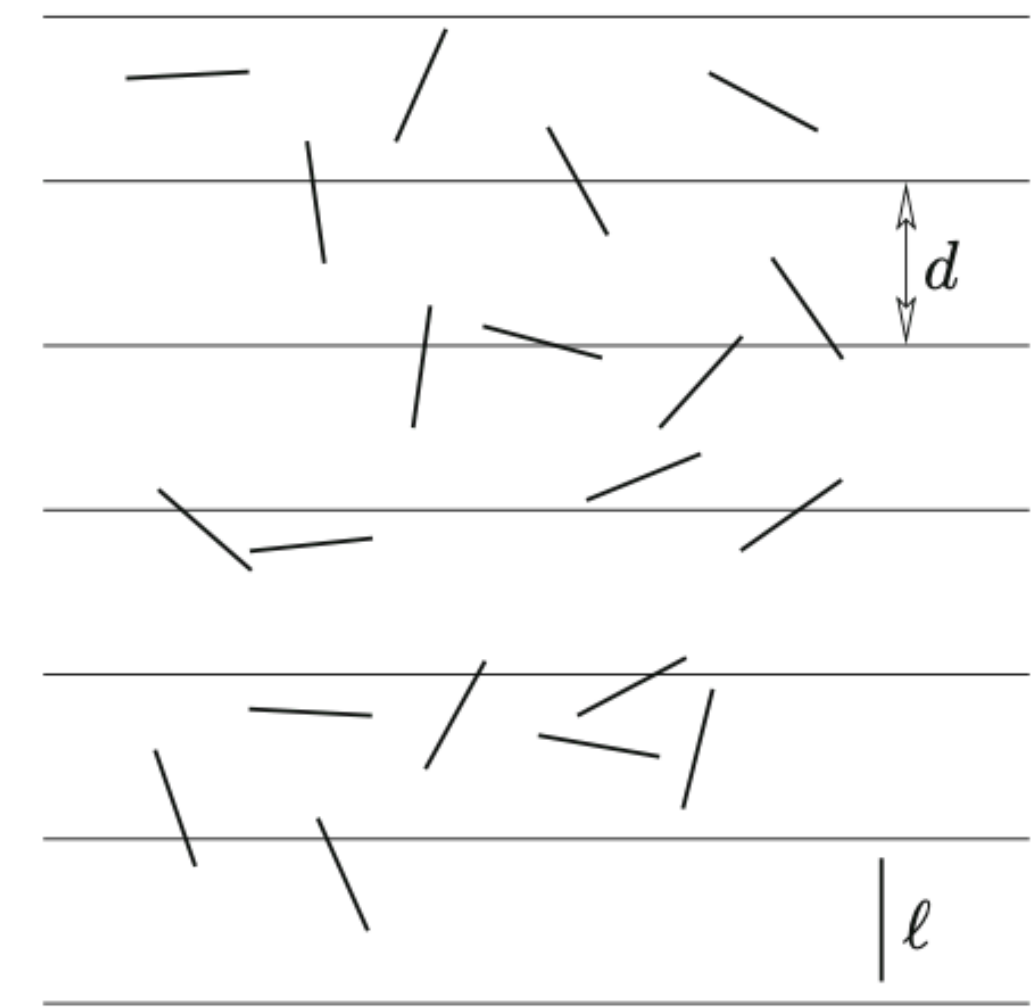
$$\Pr(A) = \frac{\text{Vol}(A)}{\text{Vol}(\Omega)} = \frac{2}{d\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{\ell}{2} \sin(x) dx = \frac{2\ell}{d\pi}$$

$x \in [0, \pi]$ : angle between the needle and the parallel line below it

$y \in [0, d/2]$ : distance from the center of the needle to the closest parallel line

- A **Monte Carlo method** for computing  $\pi$

$$\text{Event } A = \left\{ (x, y) \in [0, \pi] \times \left[0, \frac{d}{2}\right] \mid y \leq \frac{\ell}{2} \sin(x) \right\}$$



# Probability Space (概率空间)

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# Basic Properties of Probability

All followings can be deduced from the **axioms** of probability space:

- $\Pr(A^c) = 1 - \Pr(A)$
- $\Pr(\emptyset) = 0$        $\Pr(A) > 0 \implies A \neq \emptyset$  (the probabilistic method)
- $\Pr(A \setminus B) = \Pr(A) - \Pr(A \cap B)$
- $A \subseteq B \implies \Pr(A) \leq \Pr(B)$
- $\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$
- **Not even wrong:** “自然数是偶数的概率为1/2”  
(然而 “[0,1]中均匀实数是有理数的概率为0” 却是正确的)

# Union Bound

- **Union bound** (Boole's inequality): for events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma$

$$\Pr \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A_i)$$

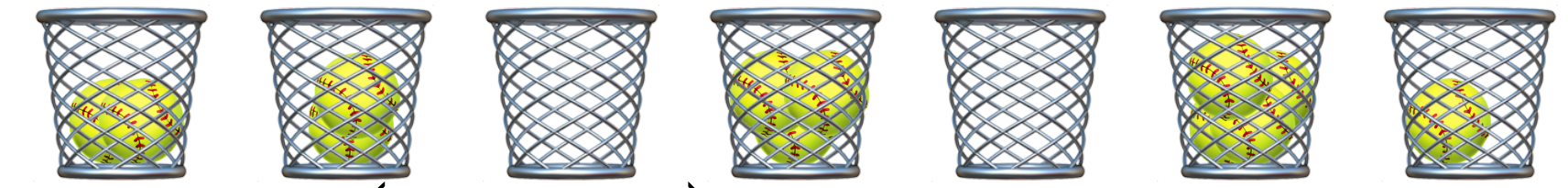
- **Example:** A system has  $n$  types of errors, each occurring with probability at most  $p$

Let  $A_i$  be the event that type- $i$  error occurs.

$$\Pr[\text{no error occurs}] = \Pr \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c \right) = 1 - \Pr \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right) \geq 1 - np$$

Holds unconditionally.  
(tight if all bad events are disjoint)

# Balls into Bins



- Throwing  $n$  balls into  $n$  bins, every bin receives at most  $O\left(\frac{\ln n}{\ln \ln n}\right)$  balls  
w.h.p. (*with high probability*, with probability  $1 - O(1/n)$ )

- **Proof:** Define event  $A$  : some bin receives  $\geq k$  balls ( $k$  to be fixed)  
 and events  $A_i$  : bin- $i$  receives  $\geq k$  balls

Then by union bound:  $\Pr(A) = \Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A_i) \leq \frac{1}{n} \implies \Pr(A^c) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{n}$

For each  $S \in \binom{[n]}{k}$ , define event  $A_{i,S}$  : bin- $i$  receives the balls in  $S$

By union bound:  $\Pr(A_i) = \Pr\left(\bigcup_{S \in \binom{[n]}{k}} A_{i,S}\right) \leq \sum_{S \in \binom{[n]}{k}} \Pr(A_{i,S}) = \binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{n^k} \leq \left(\frac{en}{k}\right)^k \frac{1}{n^k} \leq \left(\frac{e}{k}\right)^k \leq \frac{1}{n^2}$

Choose  $k = 3 \ln n / \ln \ln n$

# Principles of Inclusion-Exclusion

- **Principle of inclusion-exclusion:** for events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A_i) - \sum_{i<j} \Pr(A_i \cap A_j) + \sum_{i<j<k} \Pr(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) - \dots \\ &= \sum_{\substack{S \subseteq \{1,2,\dots,n\} \\ S \neq \emptyset}} (-1)^{|S|-1} \Pr\left(\bigcap_{i \in S} A_i\right) \end{aligned}$$

- **Boole-Bonferroni Inequality:** for events  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma$ , for any  $k \geq 0$

$$\sum_{\substack{S \subseteq \{1,2,\dots,n\} \\ 1 \leq |S| \leq 2k}} (-1)^{|S|-1} \Pr\left(\bigcap_{i \in S} A_i\right) \leq \Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) \leq \sum_{\substack{S \subseteq \{1,2,\dots,n\} \\ 1 \leq |S| \leq 2k+1}} (-1)^{|S|-1} \Pr\left(\bigcap_{i \in S} A_i\right)$$

# Derangement (错排)

(le problème des rencontres, 1708)

- The probability that a random permutation  $\pi : [n] \xrightarrow[\text{onto}]{1-1} [n]$  has no fixed point (i.e. there is no  $i \in [n]$  such that  $\pi(i) = i$ ).

- Let  $A_i$  be the event that  $\pi(i) = i$ .  $\Pr\left(\bigcap_{i \in S} A_i\right) = \frac{(n - |S|)!}{n!}$

$$\Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{S \in \binom{\{1,2,\dots,n\}}{k}} (-1)^{k-1} \Pr\left(\bigcap_{i \in S} A_i\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{(n-k)!}{n!} = - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}$$

$$\Pr[\pi \text{ has no fixed point}] = \Pr\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c\right) = 1 - \Pr\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} \rightarrow \frac{1}{e} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$



# Continuity of Probability Measures\*

- Let  $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_3 \subseteq \dots$  be an increasing sequence of events, and write  $A$  for their limit

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} A_i .$$

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

- Proof:** Express  $A$  as a disjoint union  $A = A_1 \uplus (A_2 \setminus A_1) \uplus (A_3 \setminus A_2) \uplus \dots$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(A) &= \Pr(A_1) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr(A_{i+1} \setminus A_i) \\ &= \Pr(A_1) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} [\Pr(A_{i+1}) - \Pr(A_i)] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(A_n) \end{aligned}$$

# Continuity of Probability Measures\*

- Let  $A_1 \subseteq A_2 \subseteq A_3 \subseteq \dots$  be an increasing sequence of events, and write  $A$  for their limit

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} A_i .$$

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

- Let  $B_1 \supseteq B_2 \supseteq B_3 \supseteq \dots$  be an decreasing sequence of events, and write  $B$  for their limit

$$B = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} B_i .$$

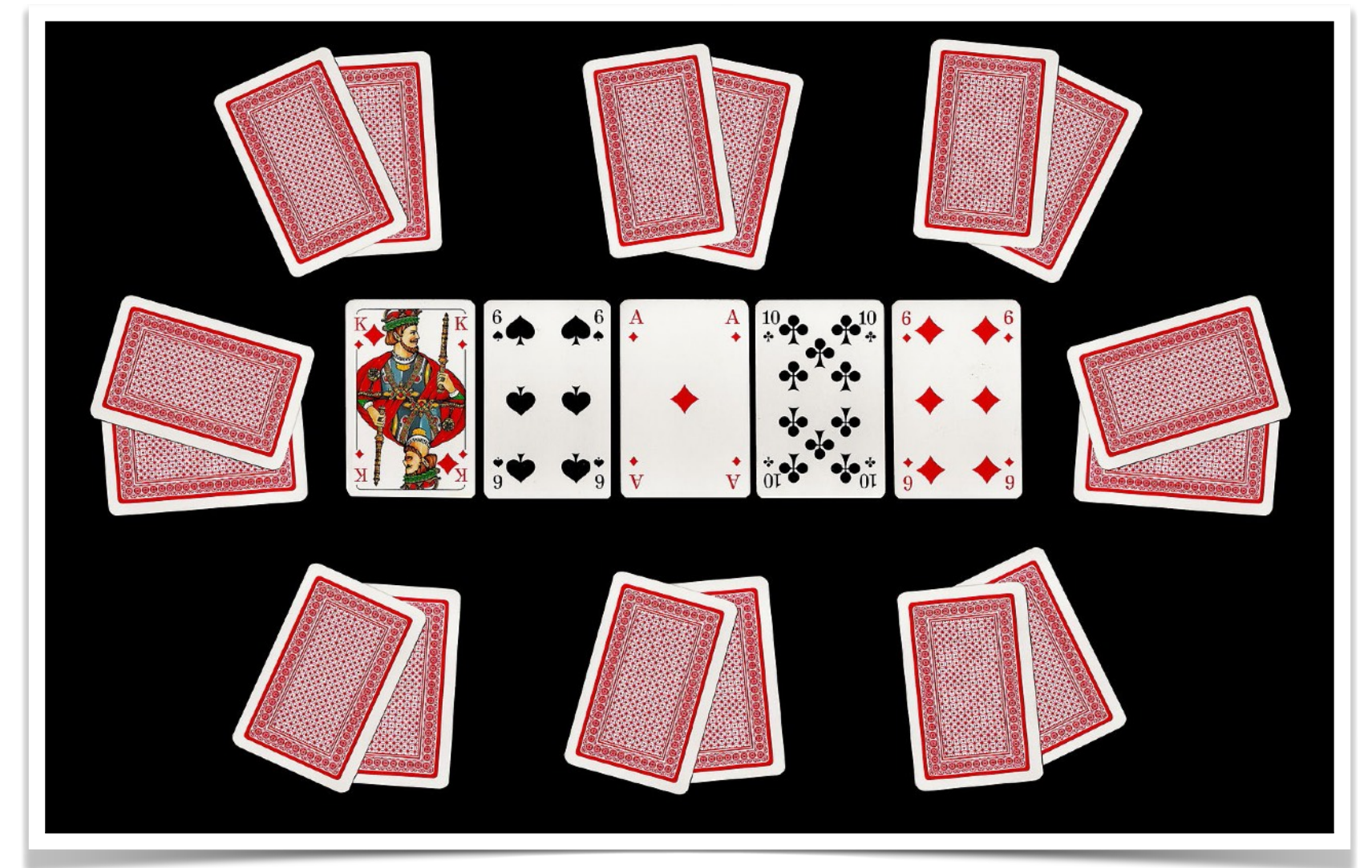
Then  $\Pr(B) = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(B_i)$ .

- Proof:** Consider the complements  $B_1^c \subseteq B_2^c \subseteq B_3^c \subseteq \dots$  which is an increasing sequence.

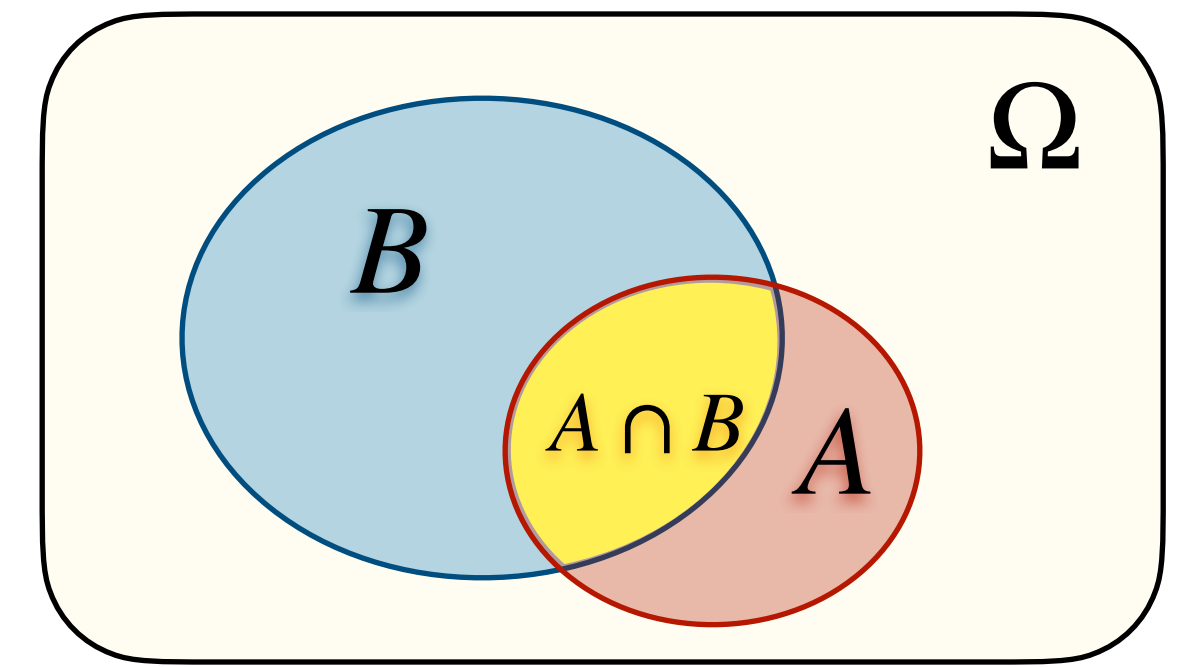
# Null and Almost Surely Events\*

- An event  $A \in \Sigma$  is called null if  $\Pr(A) = 0$ .
  - A null event is not necessarily the impossible event  $\emptyset$ .
- An event  $A \in \Sigma$  occurs almost surely (a.s.) if  $\Pr(A) = 1$ .
  - An event that occurs a.s., is not necessarily the certain event  $\Omega$ .
- A probability space is called complete, if all subsets of null events are events.
  - Without loss of generality: we only consider complete probability spaces  
(if we start with an incomplete one, we can complete it without changing the probabilities)

# Conditional Probability



# Conditional Probability



- Frequently, we need to make such statement:

“The probability of  $A$  is  $p$ , *given that  $B$  occurs.*”

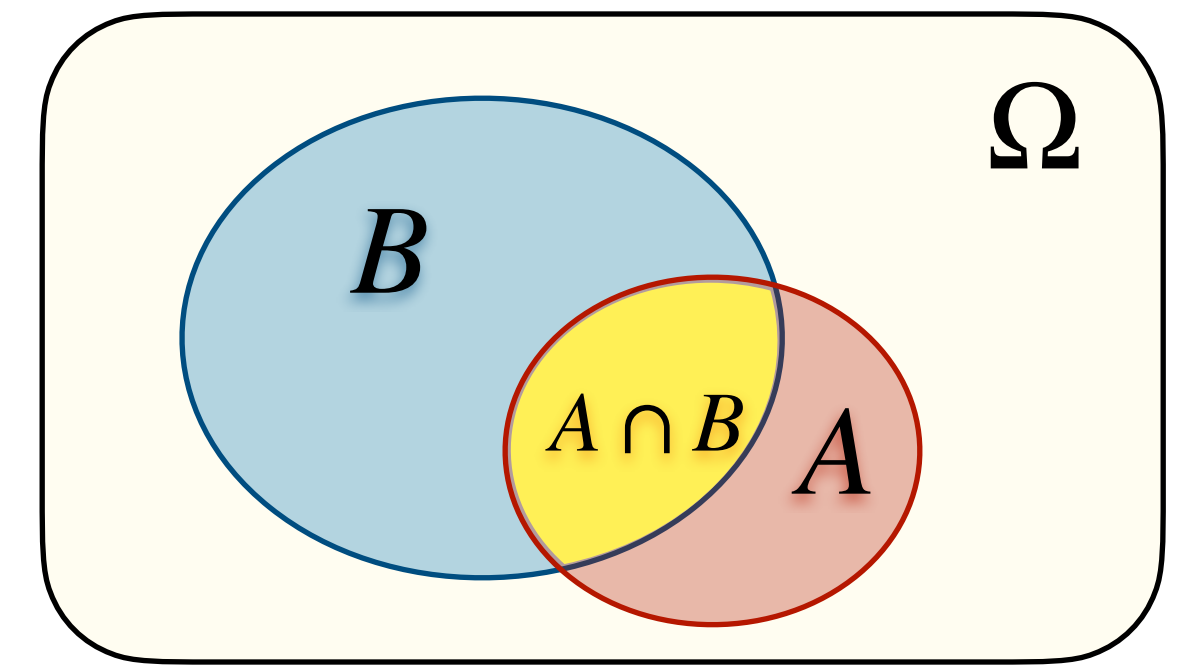
- For discrete uniform law: 
$$p = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|B|} = \frac{|A \cap B| / |\Omega|}{|B| / |\Omega|} = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(B)}$$

- Let  $A$  be an event, and let  $B$  be an event that  $\Pr(B) > 0$ .

The conditional probability that  $A$  occurs given that  $B$  occurs is defined to be

$$\Pr(A \mid B) = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(B)}$$

# Conditional Probability



- Let  $A$  be an event, and let  $B$  be an event that  $\Pr(B) > 0$ .  
The conditional probability that  $A$  occurs given that  $B$  occurs is defined to be

$$\Pr(A \mid B) = \frac{\Pr(A \cap B)}{\Pr(B)}$$

- $\Pr(\cdot \mid B)$  is a well-defined probability law:
  - sample space is  $B$
  - $\Sigma^B = \{A \cap B \mid A \in \Sigma\}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra
  - the law  $\Pr(\cdot \mid B)$  satisfies the probability axioms

# Fair Coins out of a Biased One

(von Neumann's Bernoulli factory)

- John von Neumann (1951): “Suppose you are given a coin for which the probability of **HEADS**, say  $p$ , is **unknown**. How can you use this coin to generate unbiased (fair) coin-flips.”
- **Protocol:** Repetitively flip the coin until a HT or TH is encountered, output **H** if HT is encountered, and output **T** if otherwise.
- Consider any two consecutive coin flips:

$$\Pr(\text{HT} \mid \{\text{HT}, \text{TH}\}) = \Pr(\text{TH} \mid \{\text{HT}, \text{TH}\}) = \frac{p(1-p)}{2p(1-p)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

# The Two Child Problem

(boy or girl paradox)

- Martin Gardner (1959): “Knowing that I have two children and at least one of them is girl, what is the probability that both children are girls?”
- Consider a uniform law  $\Pr$  over  $\Omega = \{BB, BG, GB, GG\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(\{GG\} \mid \{BG, GB, GG\}) &= \frac{\Pr(\{GG\})}{\Pr(\{BG, GB, GG\})} \\ &= \frac{1/4}{3/4} = \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$



# Laws for Conditional Probability

- **Chain rule:**

$$\Pr\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n \Pr\left(A_i \mid \bigcap_{j<i} A_j\right)$$

- **Law of total probability:** For partition  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$  of  $\Omega$ ,

$$\Pr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A \cap B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A \mid B_i) \Pr(B_i)$$

- **Bayes' law:** For partition  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$  of  $\Omega$ ,

$$\Pr(B_i \mid A) = \frac{\Pr(B_i) \Pr(A \mid B_i)}{\Pr(A)} = \frac{\Pr(B_i) \Pr(A \mid B_i)}{\Pr(A \mid B_1) \Pr(B_1) + \dots + \Pr(A \mid B_n) \Pr(B_n)}$$

# Chain Rule

## (General Product Rule / Law of Successive Conditioning)

- Assuming that all the involved conditions have positive probabilities, we have

$$\Pr \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i \right) = \prod_{i=1}^n \Pr \left( A_i \mid \bigcap_{j<i} A_j \right)$$

- Proof:** Due to the telescopic product

$$\Pr \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i \right) = \frac{\Pr \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i \right)}{\Pr \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i \right)} \cdot \frac{\Pr \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i \right)}{\Pr \left( \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-2} A_i \right)} \cdots \frac{\Pr \left( A_1 \cap A_2 \right)}{\Pr \left( A_1 \right)} \cdot \Pr(A_1)$$

# Birthday “Paradox”

“一个班级若想要100%地保证有两个人同一天过生日，需要班上有超过366人；但若仅想让这件事发生的可能性超过99%，则班上有超过57人就足够了。”

- Consider uniform random mapping  $f : [n] \rightarrow [m]$

$$\Pr[ f \text{ is 1-1 } ] = \frac{m!/(m-n)!}{m^n} = \prod_{i=1}^n \left( 1 - \frac{i-1}{m} \right)$$

- Balls-into-bins model: throwing  $n$  balls into  $m$  bins one-by-one at random

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[\text{every ball is thrown to an empty bin}] = \epsilon \text{ for } n \approx \sqrt{2m \ln(1/\epsilon)} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \Pr[\text{ball } i \text{ is thrown into an empty bin} \mid \text{every ball } j < i \text{ is in an empty bin}] = \prod_{i=1}^n \left( 1 - \frac{i-1}{m} \right) \\ &\approx \exp \left( - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i-1}{m} \right) \approx \exp \left( - \frac{n^2}{2m} \right) \end{aligned}$$

# Law of Total Probability

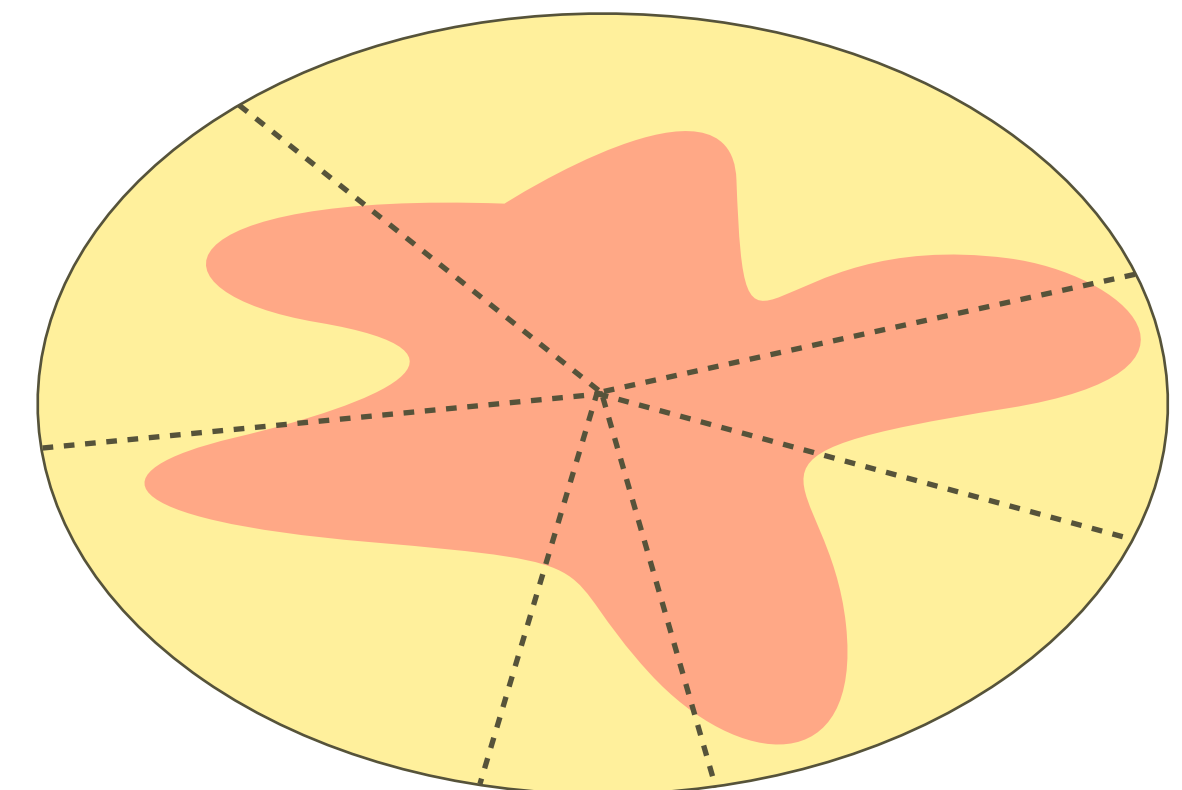
- Let events  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$  be a partition of  $\Omega$  such that  $\Pr(B_i) > 0$  for all  $i$ .  
Then:

$$\Pr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A \cap B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A \mid B_i) \Pr(B_i)$$

- Proof:**  $A \cap B_1, A \cap B_2, \dots, A \cap B_n$  are disjoint and  $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (A \cap B_i)$

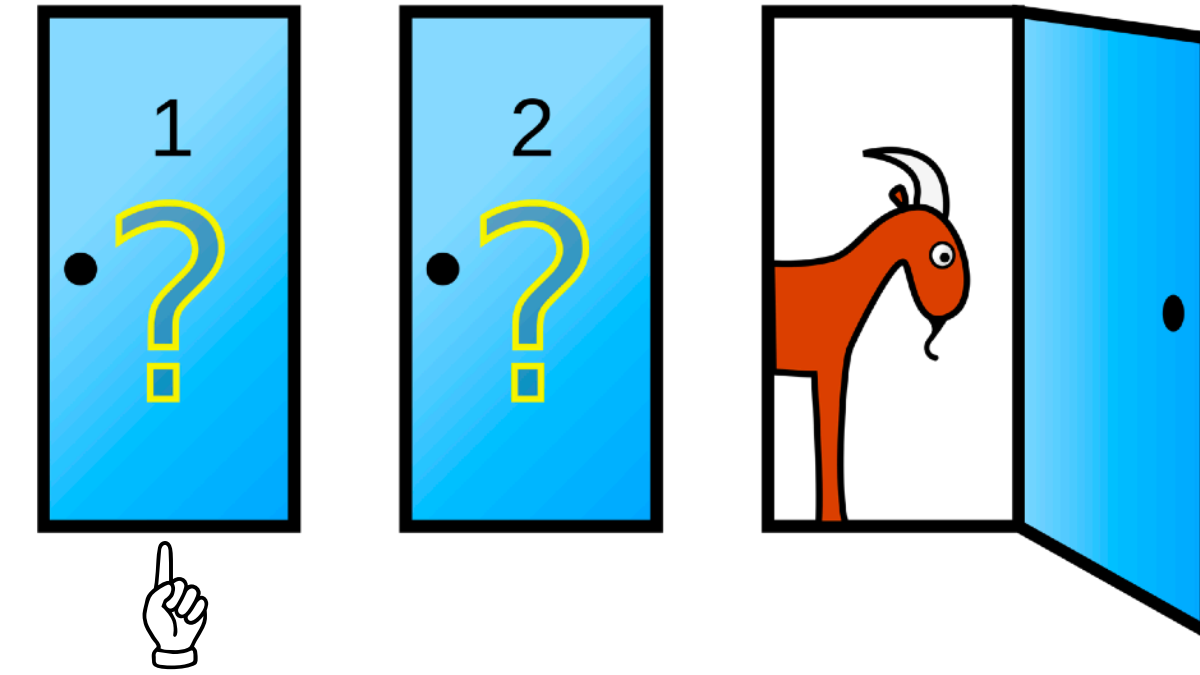
$$\implies \Pr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr(A \cap B_i)$$

Moreover:  $\Pr(A \cap B_i) = \Pr(A \mid B_i) \Pr(B_i)$ .



# Monty Hall Problem

(three doors problem)

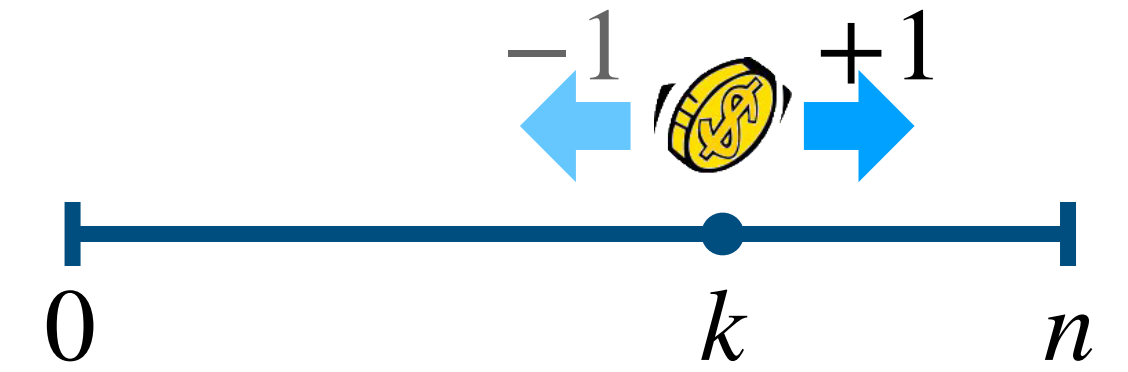


- Suppose you're on a game show, and you're given the choice of three doors: Behind one door is a car; behind the others, goats.
- You pick a door, say No.1, and the host, who knows what's behind the doors, opens another door, say No.3, which has a goat. He then says to you, "Do you want to pick door No.2?" Is it to your advantage to switch your choice?
- Define event  $A$  : you win at last  
event  $B$  : you pick the car at first

$$\Pr(A) = \begin{cases} \Pr(B) = 1/3 & \text{if not switching} \\ \Pr(A | B) \Pr(B) + \Pr(A | B^c) \Pr(B^c) & \text{if switching} \\ = 0 + 1 \cdot 2/3 = 2/3 & \end{cases}$$

# Gambler's Ruin

## (Symmetric Random Walk in One-Dimension)



- A gambler plays a fair gambling game: At each step, he flips a fair coin, earns 1 point if it's HEADS, and loses 1 point if otherwise. He starts with  $k$  points, and will keep playing until either his points reaches 0 (**lose**) or  $n > k$  (**win**).
- Define events  $A$ : the gambler loses; and  $B$ : the 1st coin flip returns HEADS
- Let  $\Pr_k$  be the law that the gambler starts with  $k$  points.

$$\Pr_k(A) = \frac{1}{2} \Pr_k(A | B) + \frac{1}{2} \Pr_k(A | B^c) = \frac{1}{2} \Pr_{k+1}(A) + \frac{1}{2} \Pr_{k-1}(A)$$

$$\Pr_k(A) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(\Pr_{k+1}(A) + \Pr_{k-1}(A)) = 1 - \frac{k}{n} & \text{if } 0 < k < n \\ 1 & \text{if } k = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } k = n \end{cases}$$

# Bayes' Law

## (Bayes' Theorem)

- For events  $A, B$  that  $\Pr(A), \Pr(B) > 0$ , we have

$$\Pr(B | A) = \frac{\Pr(B) \Pr(A | B)}{\Pr(A)}$$

- Let events  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$  be a partition of  $\Omega$  such that  $\Pr(B_i) > 0$  for all  $i$ .  
If event  $A$  has  $\Pr(A) > 0$ , then

$$\Pr(B_i | A) = \frac{\Pr(B_i) \Pr(A | B_i)}{\Pr(A)} = \frac{\Pr(B_i) \Pr(A | B_i)}{\Pr(A | B_1) \Pr(B_1) + \dots + \Pr(A | B_n) \Pr(B_n)}$$

# Dominating False Positives

- A rare disease occurs with probability 0.001.
- 5% testing error:

- A person with the disease tested  $\begin{cases} + & 95\% \\ - & 5\% \end{cases}$ ; a person without the disease tested  $\begin{cases} + & 5\% \\ - & 95\% \end{cases}$

- If a person is tested “+”, what is the probability that he/she is ill?

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(i|11 | +) &= \frac{\Pr(i|11) \Pr(+ | i|11)}{\Pr(+)} = \frac{\Pr(i|11) \Pr(+ | i|11)}{\Pr(+ | i|11) \Pr(i|11) + \Pr(+ | \neg i|11) \Pr(\neg i|11)} \\ &= \frac{0.001 \times 95\%}{95\% \times 0.001 + 5\% \times 0.999} \approx 1.87\% \end{aligned}$$



# Simpson's Paradox

	Women		Men	
	Drug I	Drug II	Drug I	Drug II
Success	200	10	19	1000
Fail	1800	190	1	1000

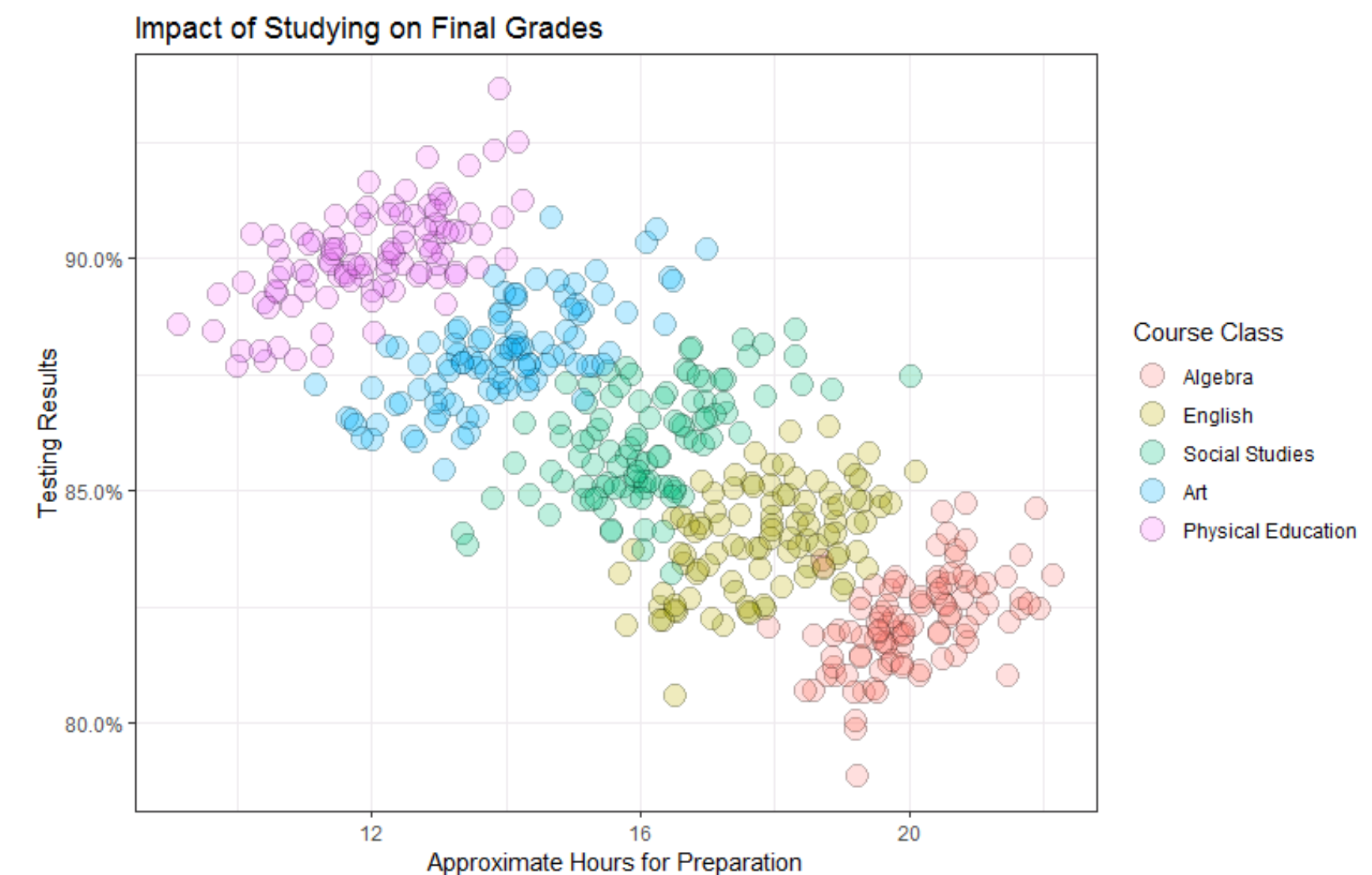
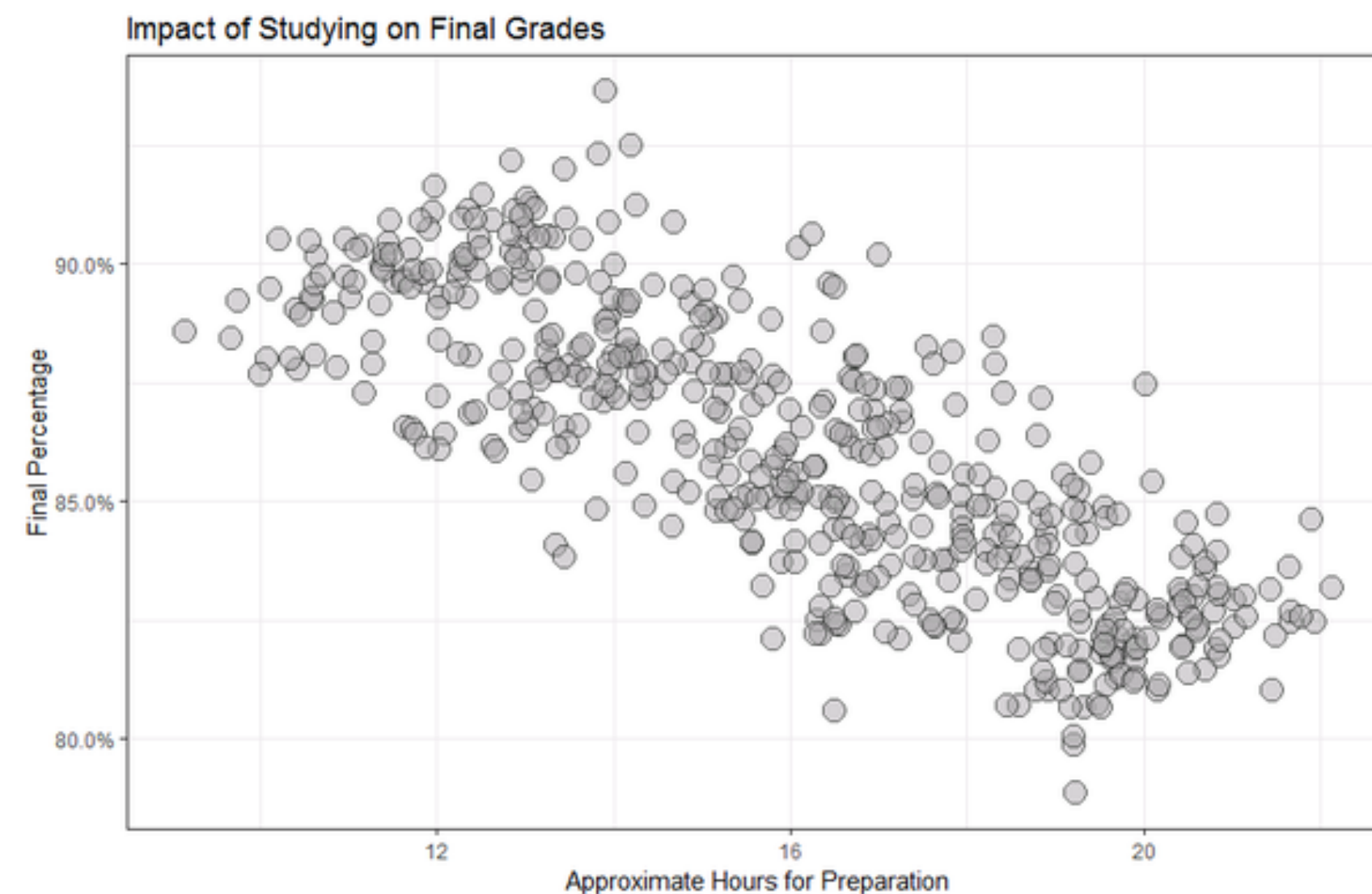
- Results of clinical trials for 2 drugs:
- Which drug is more effective?
  - Drug-II is better: overall success rate  $219/2020$  (I)  $<$   $1010/2200$  (II)
  - Drug-I is better: for women  $1/10$  (I)  $>$   $1/20$  (II), for men  $19/20$  (I)  $>$   $1/2$  (II)
- **In Probability:** It's possible that for events  $A, B$  and partition  $C_1, \dots, C_n$  of  $\Omega$ 
  - in case for each  $C_i$ , the occurrence of  $B$  has positive influence on  $A$ :
 
$$\Pr(A \mid B \cap C_i) > \Pr(A \mid B^c \cap C_i) \text{ for all } i$$
  - but overall, the occurrence of  $B$  has negative influence on  $A$ :

$$\Pr(A \mid B) < \Pr(A \mid B^c)$$

# Simpson's Paradox

(Edward H. Simpson in 1951; Karl Pearson in 1899; Udney Yule in 1903)

- **Example:** Correlation between hours for studying and grades.
  - Overall, it appears that lengths of studying have negative impact on grades. (*The longer the students study, the worse their grades are!*)
  - But truly they are positively correlated in every course.



# Independence



# Independence of *Two* Events

- The occurrence of some event  $B$  changes the probability of another event  $A$ , from  $\Pr(A)$  to  $\Pr(A \mid B)$ .
- If the occurrence of  $B$  has no influence on that of  $A$ , i.e.  $\Pr(A \mid B) = \Pr(A)$ , then  $A$  is said to be independent of  $B$ .
- The two events  $A$  and  $B$  are called independent if

$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B)$$

- **Propositions:** if  $\Pr(B) > 0$ :  $\Pr(A \mid B) = \Pr(A) \iff \Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B)$   
 $\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B) \iff \Pr(A \cap B^c) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B^c)$

# Independence of *Several* Events

- A family  $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  of events is called (mutually) independent if for all finite subsets  $J \subseteq I$

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

- An event  $A$  is called (mutually) independent of a family  $\{B_i \mid i \in I\}$  of events if for all disjoint finite subsets  $J^+, J^- \subseteq I$

$$\Pr(A) = \Pr\left(A \mid \bigcap_{i \in J^+} B_i \cap \bigcap_{i \in J^-} B_i^c\right)$$

# Product Probability Space

- Probability space constructed from a sequence of *independent experiments*.
- Consider *discrete* probability spaces  $(\Omega_1, p_1), (\Omega_2, p_2), \dots, (\Omega_n, p_n)$ .
- The product probability space  $(\Omega, p)$  is constructed as:
  - sample space  $\Omega = \Omega_1 \times \Omega_2 \times \dots \times \Omega_n$
  - $\forall \omega = (\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) \in \Omega$ : pmf  $p(\omega) = p_1(\omega_1) \cdots p_n(\omega_n)$
- For general probability spaces  $(\Omega_1, \Sigma_1, \Pr_1), \dots, (\Omega_n, \Sigma_n, \Pr_n)$ , the product probability space  $(\Omega, \Sigma, \Pr)$  can be constructed similarly, where  $\Sigma$  is the unique smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra that contains  $\Sigma_1 \times \dots \times \Sigma_n$ , and the law  $\Pr$  is a natural extension onto such  $\Sigma$  from the product probabilities:
$$\forall A = (A_1, \dots, A_n) \in \Sigma_1 \times \dots \times \Sigma_n, \Pr(A) = \Pr(A_1) \cdots \Pr(A_n)$$

# Dependency Structure

- The followings are all possible:
  - $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are mutually independent and  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$  are mutually independent, but  $A_i$  and  $B_i$  are not independent for every  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .
  - For every  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $A_i$  and  $B_i$  are independent, but for every  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ , neither  $A_i$  and  $A_j$ , nor  $B_i$  and  $B_j$ , are independent.
  - For an arbitrary undirected graph  $G(V, E)$  on vertices  $V = \{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$ , each  $A_i$  is mutually independent of all  $A_j$ 's that are not adjacent to  $A_i$  in  $G$ .

# Limited Independence

- A family  $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  of events is called pairwise independent if for all distinct  $i, j \in I$

$$\Pr(A_i \cap A_j) = \Pr(A_i) \Pr(A_j)$$

- Mutually independent events must be pairwise independent.
- Pairwise independent events are not necessarily mutually independent.
- **Example:** parities (XOR's) of random bits

$A$ : coin-1 is H;  $B$ : coin-2 is H;  $C$ : coin-3 is H;

$D$ : coin-1  $\neq$  coin-2;  $E$ : coin-2  $\neq$  coin-3;  $F$ : coin-3  $\neq$  coin-1;

$G$ : # of H in coins-1,2,3 is odd;



# Triply Independent but not pairwise

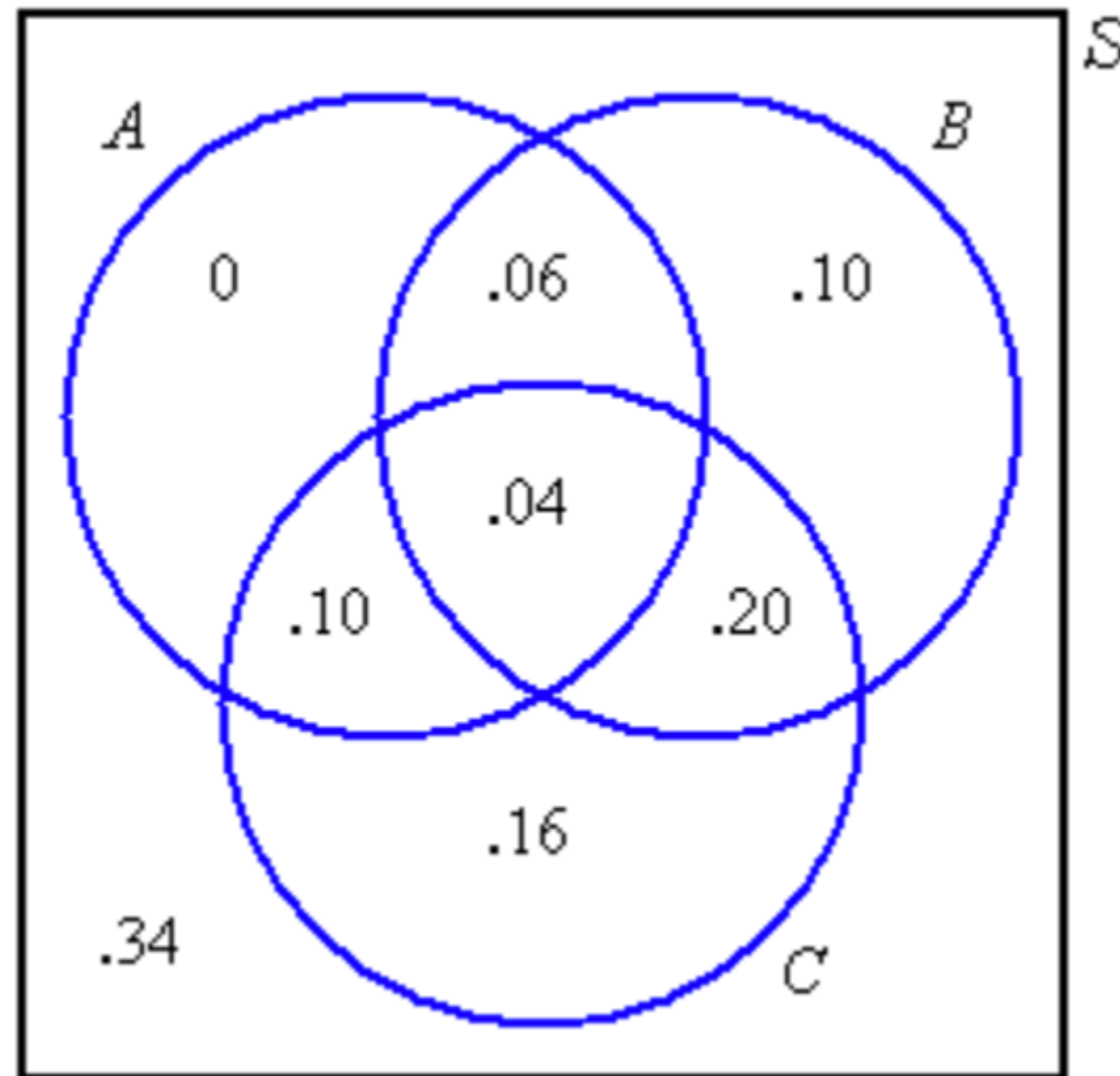


FIGURE 1

- $\Pr(A \cap B \cap C) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B) \Pr(C)$  but no pairwise independence
- Example and figure is from George, Glyn, "Testing for the independence of three events," *Mathematical Gazette* 88, November 2004, 568

# Error Reduction (one-sided case)

- Decision problem  $f : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ .
- Monte Carlo randomized algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  with *one-sided* error:
  - $\forall x \in \{0,1\}^*: f(x) = 1 \implies \mathcal{A}(x) = 1$
  - $\forall x \in \{0,1\}^*: f(x) = 0 \implies \Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = 0] \geq p$
- $\mathcal{A}^n$ : **independently** run  $\mathcal{A}$  for  $n$  times, return  $\bigwedge$  of the  $n$  outputs

$$f(x) = 0 \implies \Pr[\mathcal{A}^n(x) = 1] \leq (1 - p)^n$$

- The one-sided error is reduced to  $\epsilon$  by repeating  $n \approx \frac{1}{p} \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  times.

# Binomial Probability

- Consider  $n$  *independent* tosses of a coin, in which each coin toss returns **HEADs** independently with probability  $p$ .
- We say that we have a sequence of Bernoulli trials (伯努利实验), in which each trial **succeeds** with probability  $p$ .
- Binomial probability:  $p(k) = \Pr(k \text{ successes out of } n \text{ trials})$

$$= \sum_{S \in \binom{[n]}{k}} \Pr(\forall i \in S : i\text{th trial succeeds}) \Pr(\forall i \in [n] \setminus S : i\text{th trial fails})$$

$$= \sum_{S \in \binom{[n]}{k}} p^{|S|} (1-p)^{n-|S|} = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

$p(k)$  is a well-defined *pmf* on  
 $\Omega = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n p(k) = 1 \text{ (binomial Thm.)}$$

# Controlling a Fair Voting

- In a society of  $n$  isolated (**independent**) and neutral (**uniform**) people, how many people are there enough to manipulate the result of a majority vote with 95% certainty.
- Consider  $n$  independent coin tosses of a fair coin.

$$\Pr[|\text{\#HEADs} - \text{\#TAILs}| \geq t] = \Pr[\text{\#HEADs} \leq \frac{n}{2} - \frac{t}{2}] + \Pr[\text{\#HEADs} \geq \frac{n}{2} + \frac{t}{2}]$$

$$= \sum_{k \leq (n-t)/2} \binom{n}{k} 2^{-n} + \sum_{k \geq (n+t)/2} \binom{n}{k} 2^{-n}$$

$$= 2^{1-n} \sum_{k \leq (n-t)/2} \binom{n}{k}$$

(entropy bound on the volume of a Hamming ball)

$$\leq 2^{1-n+nH\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{t}{2n}\right)}$$

$$\approx 2 \exp\left(-\frac{t^2}{n}\right)$$

$$\leq 0.05 \text{ when } t \geq 2\sqrt{n}$$

where  $H(x) = -x \log_2 x - (1-x) \log_2 (1-x)$

$$H(x) \approx 1 - \frac{2}{\ln 2} \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + o\left(\left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^3\right)$$

# Error Reduction (two-sided case)

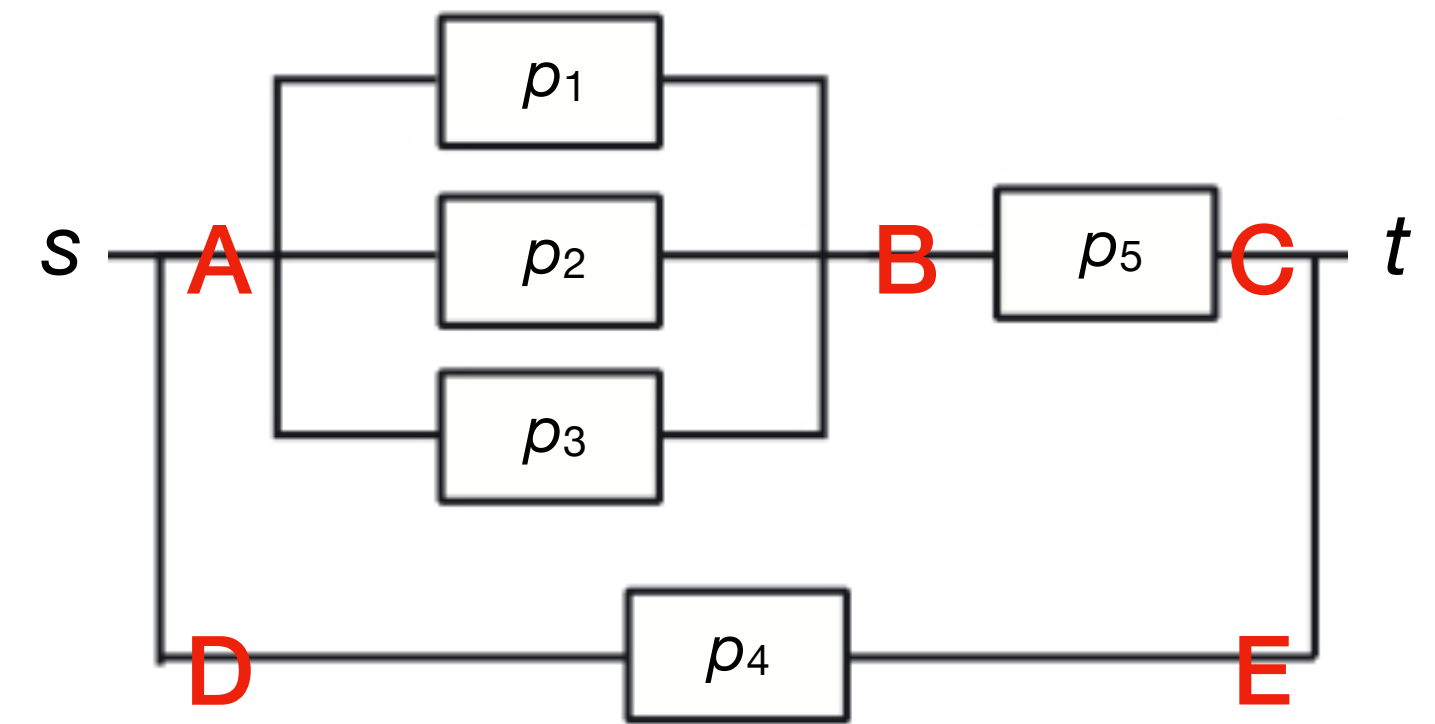
- Decision problem  $f : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ .
- Monte Carlo randomized algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  with *two-sided* error:
  - $\forall x \in \{0,1\}^* : \Pr[\mathcal{A}(x) = f(x)] \geq \frac{1}{2} + p$
- $\mathcal{A}^n$ : **independently** run  $\mathcal{A}$  for  $n$  times, return **majority** of the  $n$  outputs

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}^n(x) \neq f(x)] \leq \sum_{k < \frac{n}{2}} \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2} + p\right)^k \left(\frac{1}{2} - p\right)^{n-k} \leq \exp(-p^2 n)$$

$\leq \epsilon$  when  $n \geq \frac{1}{p^2} \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon}$

- How to calculate this? **(concentration inequalities)**

# Network Reliability



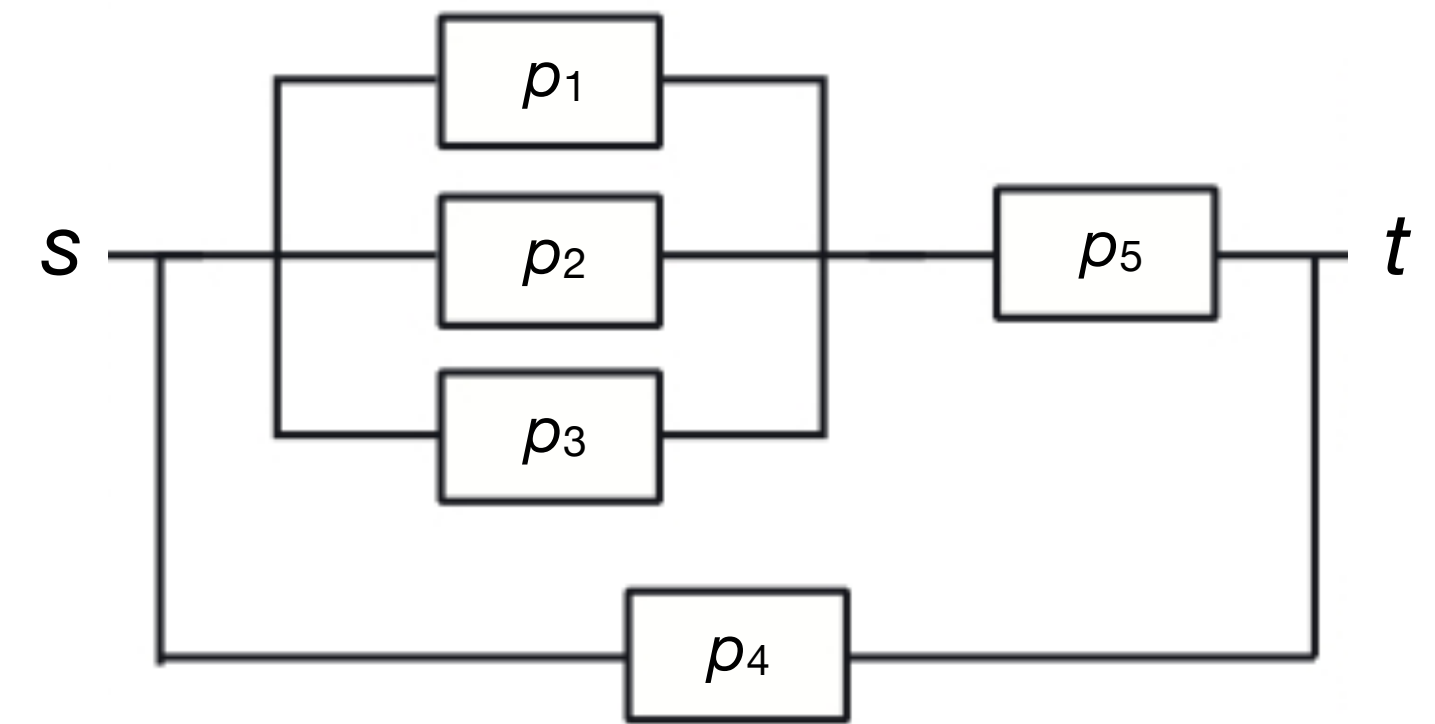
- A serial-parallel (串并联) network connects  $s$  to  $t$ .
- Suppose that each edge  $e = uv$  connects  $uv$  independently with probability  $p_e$ .
- $s$ - $t$  reliability  $P_{st} \triangleq \Pr[ s \text{ and } t \text{ are connected } ]$

$$= 1 - (1 - P_{AC})(1 - P_{DE}) = 1 - (1 - P_{AC})(1 - p_4)$$

$$P_{AC} = P_{AB}P_{BC} = P_{AB}p_5$$

$$P_{AB} = 1 - (1 - p_1)(1 - p_2)(1 - p_3)$$

# Network Reliability



- A ~~serial-parallel (串并联)~~ network connects  $s$  to  $t$ .
- Suppose that each edge  $e = uv$  connects  $uv$  independently with probability  $p_e$ .
- $s$ - $t$  reliability  $P_{st} \triangleq \Pr[ s \text{ and } t \text{ are connected } ]$
- (all-terminal) network reliability:  $\triangleq \Pr[ \text{ the resulting network is connected } ]$
- For general networks:
  - $s$ - $t$  reliability is **#P-complete** (Leslie Valiant, 1979)
  - all-terminal network reliability is **#P-complete** (Mark Jerrum, 1981)

# Conditional independence

- Two events  $A$  and  $B$  are conditionally independent given  $C$  if  $\Pr(C) > 0$  and

$$\Pr(A \cap B \mid C) = \Pr(A \mid C) \Pr(B \mid C)$$

- If  $\Pr(B \cap C) > 0$ :  $\Pr(A \cap B \mid C) = \Pr(A \mid C) \Pr(B \mid C) \iff \Pr(A \mid B \cap C) = \Pr(A \mid C)$
- Example: any two events are independent but not conditionally independent given the third event

$A$ : coin-1 is H;  $B$ : coin-2 is H;  $C$ : coin-1  $\neq$  coin-2;

- Example:  $A$  and  $B$  are not independent, but they are conditionally independent given  $C$

$A$ :  $X$  is tall;       $B$ :  $X$  knows a lot of math;       $C$ :  $X$  is 19 years old;

Suppose that  $X$  is a random person