Discrete Probability: a brief review

CMPS 4750/6750: Computer Networks

Applications of Probability in Computer Science

- Information theory
- Networking
- Machine learning
- Algorithms
- Combinatorics
- Cryptography
- ...

Sample Space

- Experiment: a procedure that yields one of a given set of possible outcomes
 - Ex: flip a coin, roll two dice, draw five cards from a deck, etc.
- Sample space Ω : the set of possible outcomes
 - We focus on countable sample space: Ω is finite or countably infinite
 - In many applications, Ω is uncountable (e.g., a subset of \mathbb{R})
- Event: a subset of the sample space
 - Probability is assigned to events
 - For an event $A \subseteq \Omega$, its probability is denoted by P(A)
 - Describes beliefs about likelihood of outcomes

Discrete Probability

• Discrete Probability Law

- A function P: $\mathcal{P}(\Omega) \rightarrow [0,1]$ that assigns probability to events such that:

- $0 \le P(\{s\}) \le 1$ for all $s \in \Omega$ (Nonnegativity)
- $P(A) = \sum_{s \in A} P(\{s\})$ for all $A \subseteq \Omega$ (
- $P(\Omega) = \sum_{s \in \Omega} P(\{s\}) = 1$

- (Additivity)
- (Normalization)
- Discrete uniform probability law: $|\Omega| = n, P(A) = \frac{|A|}{n} \forall A \subseteq \Omega$

Examples

• Ex. 1: consider rolling a pair of 6-sided fair dice

 $-\Omega = \{(i, j): i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, each outcome has the same probability of 1/36

 $-P(\{\text{the sum of the rolls is even}\}) = 18/36 = 1/2$

• Ex. 2: consider rolling a 6-sided biased (loaded) die

- Assume P(3) =
$$\frac{2}{7}$$
, P(1) = P(2) = P(4) = P(5) = P(6) = $\frac{1}{7}$
- A = {1,3,5}, P(A) = $\frac{1}{7} + \frac{2}{7} + \frac{1}{7} = \frac{4}{7}$

Properties of Probability Laws

• Consider a probability law, and let A, B, and C be events

 $-\operatorname{If} A \subseteq B$, then $P(A) \leq P(B)$

$$-P(\overline{A}) = 1 - P(A)$$

$$-P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

 $-P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ if A and B are disjoint, i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Conditional Probability

- Conditional probability provides us with a way to reason about the outcome of an experiment, based on partial information
- Let A and B be two events (of a given sample space) where P(B) > 0. The conditional probability of A given B is defined as

Α

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

• Ex. 3: roll a six-sided fair die. Suppose we are told that the outcome is even. What is the probability that the outcome is 6? $P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{A}$

$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{6} \qquad B$$

$$P(B) = \frac{1}{2} \qquad P(A|B) = \frac{1}{3}$$

Independence

• We say that event A is independent of event B if P(A | B) = P(A)

• Two events A and B are independent if and only if $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$

• We say that the events $A_1, A_2, \dots A_n$ are (mutually) independent if and only if

 $P(\bigcap_{i \in S} A_i) = \prod_{i \in S} P(A_i)$, for every subset S of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$

Bernoulli Trials

- Bernoulli Trial: an experiment with two possible outcomes
 - E.g., flip a coin results in two possible outcomes: head (H) and tail (T)
- Independent Bernoulli Trials: a sequence of Bernoulli trails that are mutually independent
- Ex.4: Consider an experiment involving five independent tosses of a biased coin, in which the probability of heads is *p*.
 - What is the probability of the sequence *HHHTT*?
 - $A_i = \{i \text{th toss is a head}\}$
 - $P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \cap \overline{A}_4 \cap \overline{A}_5) = P(A_1)P(A_2)P(A_3)P(\overline{A}_4)P(\overline{A}_5) = p^3(1-p)^2$
 - What is the probability that exactly three heads come up?
 - P(exactly three heads come up) = $\binom{5}{3}p^3(1-p)^2$

Random Variables

- A random variable (r.v.) is a real-valued function of the experimental outcome.
- Ex. 5: Consider an experiment involving three independent tosses of a fair coin.

 $-\Omega = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$

-X(s) = the number of heads that appear for $s \in \Omega$.

 $-P(X = 2) = P({HHT,HTH,THH}) = 3/8$

 $-P(X < 2) = P({HTT, THT, TTH, TTT}) = 4/8 = 1/2$

• A discrete random variable is a real-valued function of the outcome of the experiment that can take a finite or countably infinite number of values

Probability Mass Functions

• Let X be a discrete r.v. Then the probability mass function (PMF), $p_X(\cdot)$ of X, is defined as:

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x) = P(s \in \Omega: X(s) = x))$$

$$-\sum_{x} P_X(x) = 1$$
$$-P(X \in S) = \sum_{x \in S} p_X(x)$$

• The cumulative distribution function (CDF) of *X* is defined as

$$F_X(a) = P(X \le a) = \sum_{x \le a} p_X(x)$$

Bernoulli Distribution

• Consider a Bernoulli trial with probability of success p. Let X be a r.v. where X = 1 if "success" and X = 0 if "failure"

 $X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{w/prob } p \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

We write $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$. The PMF of X is defined as:

 $p_X(1) = p$ $p_X(0) = 1 - p$

Binomial Distribution

- Consider an experiment of *n* independent Bernoulli trials, with the probability of success *p*. Let the r.v. *X* be the number of successes in the *n* trials.
- The PMF of *X* is defined as:

$$p_X(k) = P(X = k)$$

= $\binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$, where $k = 0, 1, 2, ..., n$

We write $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$.

Geometric Distribution

- Consider an experiment of independent Bernoulli trials, with probability of success *p*. Let *X* be the number of trials to get one success.
- Then the PMF of *X* is:

 $P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$, where k = 1, 2, 3 ...

We write $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$.

Expected Value

• The expected value (also called the expectation or the mean) of a random variable *X* on the sample space Ω is equal to

 $E(X) = \sum_{s \in \Omega} X(s) P(\{s\})$

 $=\sum_{x}xp_{X}(x)$

Ex. 6: If $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$, $E(X) = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot (1 - p) = p$ Ex. 7: If $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$, $E(X) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(1 - p)^{k-1}p = \frac{1}{p}$

Linearity of Expectations

- If X_i , i = 1, 2, ..., n are random variables on Ω , and a and b are real numbers, then $-E(X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) + \cdots + E(X_n)$ -E(aX + b) = aE(X) + b
- Ex. 8: *X*~ Binomial(*n*, *p*)

$$-E(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} k \binom{n}{k} p^{k} (1-p)^{n-k} = np$$

Variance

• The variance of a random variable *X* on the sample space Ω is equal to

$$V(X) = \sum_{s \in \Omega} (X(s) - E(X))^2 P(\{s\})$$
$$= E\left[(X - E(X))^2 \right]$$

- The variance provides a measure of dispersion of *X* around its mean
- Another measure of dispersion is the standard deviation of *X*:

 $\sigma(X) = \sqrt{V(X)}$

Variance

- Theorem: $V(X) = E(X^2) E(X)^2$
- Ex. 1: Let X be a Bernoulli random variable with parameter p $E(X) = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot (1 - p) = p \quad E(X^2) = 1 \cdot p + 0 \cdot (1 - p) = p$ $V(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = p - p^2$
- Ex. 2: Let *X* be a geometric random variable with parameter *p*

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{p}, \ E(X^2) = \frac{2}{p^2} - \frac{1}{p}$$
$$V(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$$

Moment-Generating Functions

• The moment-generating function of a r.v. X is

 $M_X(t) = E(e^{tX}), t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$e^{tX} = 1 + tX + \frac{t^2 X^2}{2!} + \frac{t^3 X^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{t^n X^n}{n!} + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow M_X(t) = 1 + tE(X) + \frac{t^2 E(X^2)}{2!} + \frac{t^3 E(X^3)}{3!} + \dots + \frac{t^n E(X^n)}{n!} + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^n M_X(0)}{dt} = E(X^n)$$

Joint Probability and Independence

• The joint probability mass function between discrete r.v.'s *X* and *Y* is defined by

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = P\{X = x \text{ and } Y = y\}$$

• We say two discrete r.v.'s X and Y are independent if

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = p_X(x) \cdot p_Y(y), \ \forall x, y$$

• Theorem: If two r.v.'s X and Y are independent, then E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)