

**Probability space**

**Sample space:**  $S =$  set of all potential outcomes of experiment  
 E.g., flip two coins:  $S = \{(H,H), (H,T), (T,H), (T,T)\}$

**Events:**  $E \subseteq S$  is an arbitrary subset of the sample space  
 $\geq 1$  head in 2 flips:  $E = \{(H,H), (H,T), (T,H)\}$   $S =$

**Probability:**  
 A function from subsets of  $S$  to real numbers –  $\text{Pr}: 2^S \rightarrow [0,1]$

**Probability Axioms:**  
 Axiom 1 (Non-negativity):  $0 \leq \text{Pr}(E)$   
 Axiom 2 (Normalization):  $\text{Pr}(S) = 1$   
 Axiom 3 (Additivity):  $EF = \emptyset \Rightarrow \text{Pr}(E \cup F) = \text{Pr}(E) + \text{Pr}(F)$

**equally likely outcomes**

Simplest case: sample spaces with equally likely outcomes.

Coin flips:  $S = \{\text{Heads, Tails}\}$   
 Flipping two coins:  $S = \{(H,H), (H,T), (T,H), (T,T)\}$   
 Roll of 6-sided die:  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

$\text{Pr}(\text{each outcome}) = \frac{1}{|S|}$  uniform distribution

In that case,  
 $\text{Pr}(E) = \frac{\text{number of outcomes in } E}{\text{number of outcomes in } S} = \frac{|E|}{|S|}$

**conditional probability & chain rule**

**General defn:**  $P(E | F) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(F)}$  where  $P(F) > 0$

**Implies:**  $P(EF) = P(E|F) P(F)$  (“the chain rule”)

**General definition of Chain Rule:**  

$$P(E_1 E_2 \dots E_n) = P(E_1) P(E_2 | E_1) P(E_3 | E_1, E_2) \dots P(E_n | E_1, E_2, \dots, E_{n-1})$$

**Law of total probability**

$$\begin{aligned} P(E) &= P(EF) + P(EF^c) \\ &= P(E|F) P(F) + P(E|F^c) P(F^c) \\ &= P(E|F) P(F) + P(E|F^c) (1 - P(F)) \end{aligned}$$
 weighted average, conditioned on event F happening or not.

More generally, if  $F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n$  partition  $S$  (mutually exclusive,  $\bigcup_i F_i = S, P(F_i) > 0$ ), then

$$P(E) = \sum_i P(E|F_i) P(F_i)$$
 weighted average, conditioned on events  $F_i$  happening or not.

(Analogous to reasoning by cases; both are very handy.)

**Bayes Theorem**

**Most common form:**  

$$P(F | E) = \frac{P(E | F) P(F)}{P(E)}$$

**Expanded form (using law of total probability):**  

$$P(F | E) = \frac{P(E | F) P(F)}{P(E | F) P(F) + P(E | F^c) P(F^c)}$$

**Proof:**  

$$P(F | E) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E | F) P(F)}{P(E)}$$

**Independence**





**Independence of events**

Intuition: E is independent of F if the chance of E occurring is not affected by whether F occurs.

Formally:

$$Pr(E|F) = Pr(E) \quad \text{or} \quad Pr(E \cap F) = Pr(E)Pr(F)$$

These two definitions are equivalent.

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**Independence**

Draw a card from a shuffled deck of 52 cards.

E: card is a spade  
F: card is an Ace

Are E and F independent?

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**Independence**

Toss a coin 3 times. Each of 8 outcomes equally likely.  
Define

A = {at most one T} = {HHH, HHT, HTH, THH}  
B = {both H and T occur} = {HTH, THT, THT, HTH}<sup>c</sup>

Are A and B independent?

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**Independence as an assumption**

It is often convenient to **assume** independence.  
People often assume it without noticing.

Example: A sky diver has two chutes. Let

E = {main chute doesn't open}      Pr (E) = 0.02  
F = {backup doesn't open}          Pr (F) = 0.1

What is the chance that at least one opens assuming independence?

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Note: Assuming independence doesn't justify the assumption! Both chutes could fail because of the same rare event, e.g. freezing rain.

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**Using independence to define a probabilistic model**

We can **define** our probability model via independence.

Example: suppose a biased coin comes up heads with probability 2/3, independent of other flips.


Sample space: sequences of 3 coin tosses.

Pr (3 heads)=?  
Pr (3 tails) = ?  
Pr (2 heads) = ?

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biased coin

Suppose a biased coin comes up heads with probability  $p$ , *independent* of other flips




$P(n \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips})$   
 $P(n \text{ tails in } n \text{ flips})$   
 $P(\text{HHTHTTT})$   
 $P(\text{exactly } k \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips})$

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biased coin

Suppose a biased coin comes up heads with probability  $p$ , *independent* of other flips




$P(n \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips}) = p^n$   
 $P(n \text{ tails in } n \text{ flips}) = (1-p)^n$   
 $\Pr(\text{HHTHTTT}) = p^2(1-p)p(1-p)^3 = p^{\#H}(1-p)^{\#T}$   
 $P(\text{exactly } k \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips}) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$

Aside: note that the probability of some number of heads = as it should, by the binomial theorem.  $\sum_k \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = (p + (1-p))^n = 1$

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biased coin

Suppose a biased coin comes up heads with probability  $p$ , *independent* of other flips




$P(\text{exactly } k \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips}) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$   
 How does this compare to  $p=1/2$  case?

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biased coin

Suppose a biased coin comes up heads with probability  $p$ , *independent* of other flips

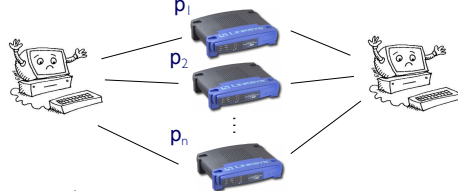


$P(\text{exactly } k \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips}) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$   
 Note when  $p=1/2$ , this is the same result we would have gotten by considering  $n$  flips in the "equally likely outcomes" scenario. But  $p \neq 1/2$  makes that inapplicable. Instead, the *independence* assumption allows us to conveniently assign a probability to each of the  $2^n$  outcomes, e.g.:  
 $\Pr(\text{HHTHTTT}) = p^2(1-p)p(1-p)^3 = p^{\#H}(1-p)^{\#T}$

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network failure

Consider the following parallel network

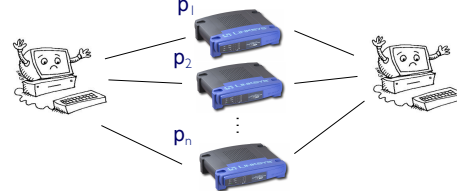


$n$  routers,  $i^{\text{th}}$  has probability  $p_i$  of failing, independently  
 $P(\text{there is functional path}) =$

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network failure

Consider the following parallel network



$n$  routers,  $i^{\text{th}}$  has probability  $p_i$  of failing, independently  
 $P(\text{there is functional path}) = 1 - P(\text{all routers fail})$   
 $= 1 - p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$

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network failure

Contrast: a series network

n routers,  $i^{\text{th}}$  has probability  $p_i$  of failing, independently

P(there is functional path) =

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network failure

Contrast: a series network

n routers,  $i^{\text{th}}$  has probability  $p_i$  of failing, independently

P(there is functional path) =  
P(no routers fail)

$$= (1 - p_1)(1 - p_2) \cdots (1 - p_n)$$

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hashing

A data structure problem: *fast* access to *small* subset of data drawn from a *large* space.

(Large) space of potential data items, say names or SSNs, only a few of which are actually used

(Small) hash table containing actual data

A solution: *hash function*  $h: D \rightarrow \{0, \dots, n-1\}$  crunches/scrambles names from large space into small one.

E.g., if  $x$  is integer:  $h(x) = x \bmod n$

Everything that hashes to same location stored in linked list.

Good hash functions *approximately* randomize placement. 21

hashing

**Scenario: Hash  $m \leq n$  keys from  $D$  into size  $n$  hash table.**

How well does it work?

**Worst case:** All collide in one bucket. (Perhaps too pessimistic?)

**Best case:** No collisions. (Perhaps too optimistic?)

**A middle ground:** Probabilistic analysis.

Below, for simplicity, assume

- Keys drawn from  $D$  randomly, independently (with replacement)
- $h$  maps equal numbers of domain points into each range bin, i.e.,  $|D| = k|R|$  for some integer  $k$ , and  $|h^{-1}(j)| = k$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq n-1$

*Many possible questions; a few analyzed below*

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hashing

$m$  keys hashed (uniformly) into a hash table with  $n$  buckets

Each key hashed is an *independent* trial

$E$  = at least one key hashed to first bucket

**What is  $P(E)$  ?**

Solution:

$F_i$  = key  $i$  *not* hashed into first bucket ( $i=1,2,\dots,m$ )

$P(F_i) = ?$

Event  $(F_1 F_2 \dots F_m)$  = no keys hashed to first bucket

$P(E) = ?$

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hashing

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**What is  $P(E)$  ?**

Solution:

$F_i$  = key  $i$  *not* hashed into first bucket ( $i=1,2,\dots,m$ )

$P(F_i) = 1 - 1/n = (n-1)/n$  for all  $i=1,2,\dots,m$

Event  $(F_1 F_2 \dots F_m)$  = no keys hashed to first bucket

$P(E)$

$$= 1 - P(F_1 F_2 \dots F_m)$$

$$= 1 - P(F_1) P(F_2) \dots P(F_m)$$

indp

$$= 1 - ((n-1)/n)^m$$

$$\approx 1 - \exp(-m/n)$$

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hashing

m keys hashed (non-uniformly) to table w/ n buckets  
 Each string hashed is an *independent* trial, with probability  $p_i$  of getting hashed to bucket i  
 E = At least 1 of first k buckets gets  $\geq 1$  key  
**What is P(E) ?**  
 Solution:  
 $F_i$  = at least one key hashed into i-th bucket  
 $P(E) =$

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hashing

m keys hashed (non-uniformly) to table w/ n buckets  
 Each string hashed is an *independent* trial, with probability  $p_i$  of getting hashed to bucket i  
 E = At least 1 of first k buckets gets  $\geq 1$  key  
**What is P(E) ?**  
 Solution:  
 $F_i$  = at least one key hashed into i-th bucket  
 $P(E) = P(F_1 \cup \dots \cup F_k) = 1 - P((F_1^c \cup \dots \cup F_k^c)^c)$   
 $= 1 - P(F_1^c \cap F_2^c \cap \dots \cap F_k^c)$   
 $= 1 - P(\text{no strings hashed to buckets 1 to k})$   
 $= 1 - (1 - p_1 - p_2 - \dots - p_k)^m$

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Perfect hashing (i)

Let  $|R| = n, D_0 \subseteq D, |D_0| = m$ . A hash function  $h: D \rightarrow R$  is *perfect* for  $D_0$  if  $h: D_0 \rightarrow R$  is injective (no collisions). How likely is that?  
 1) Fix  $h$ ; pick  $m$  elements of  $D_0$  independently at random  $\in D$   
 $P(h \text{ is perfect for } D_0) =$

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Perfect hashing (i)

Let  $|R| = n, D_0 \subseteq D, |D_0| = m$ . A hash function  $h: D \rightarrow R$  is *perfect* for  $D_0$  if  $h: D_0 \rightarrow R$  is injective (no collisions). How likely is that?  
 1) Fix  $h$ ; pick  $m$  elements of  $D_0$  independently at random  $\in D$   
 Again, suppose  $h$  maps  $(1/n)^{\text{th}}$  of  $D$  to each element of  $R$ . This is like the birthday problem:  
 $P(h \text{ is perfect for } D_0) = \frac{n}{n} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{n-m+1}{n}$   
 Except for very empty tables, a "perfect" hash is improbable

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If E and F are independent,  
 then so are E and  $F^c$   
 and so are  $E^c$  and F  
 and so are  $E^c$  and  $F^c$

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If E and F are independent,  
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 and so are  $E^c$  and F  
 and so are  $E^c$  and  $F^c$

Proof:  $P(EF^c) = P(E) - P(EF)$   
 $= P(E) - P(E)P(F)$   
 $= P(E)(1 - P(F))$   
 $= P(E)P(F^c)$

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#### Independence of several events

Three events E, F, G are mutually independent if

$$Pr(E \cap F) = Pr(E)Pr(F)$$

$$Pr(F \cap G) = Pr(F)Pr(G)$$

$$Pr(E \cap G) = Pr(E)Pr(G)$$

$$Pr(E \cap F \cap G) = Pr(E)Pr(F)Pr(G)$$

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#### Pairwise independent

E, F and G are pairwise independent if E is independent of F, F is independent of G, and E is independent of G.

Example: Toss a coin twice.

$$E = \{HH, HT\}$$

$$F = \{TH, HH\}$$

$$G = \{HH, TT\}$$

These are pairwise independent, but not mutually independent.

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#### Independence of several events

Three events E, F, G are mutually independent if

$$Pr(E \cap F) = Pr(E)Pr(F)$$

$$Pr(F \cap G) = Pr(F)Pr(G)$$

$$Pr(E \cap G) = Pr(E)Pr(G)$$

$$Pr(E \cap F \cap G) = Pr(E)Pr(F)Pr(G)$$

If E, F and G are independent, then E will be independent of any event formed from F and G.

Example: Show that E is independent of F U G.

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(F \cup G | E) &= Pr(F | E) + Pr(G | E) - Pr(FG | E) \\ &= Pr(F) + Pr(G) - Pr(EFG)/Pr(E) \\ &= Pr(F) + Pr(G) - Pr(FG) = Pr(F \cup G) \end{aligned}$$

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#### Summary - Independence

Events E & F are *independent* if

$$P(EF) = P(E)P(F), \text{ or, equivalently } P(E|F) = P(E) \text{ (if } p(F) > 0)$$

More than 2 events are indep if, for *all subsets*, joint probability = product of separate event probabilities

Dependent means correlated, associated, (partially) predictive

Independence can greatly simplify calculations

Independence can be used to **define** probability models.

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