# A quick review of probability theory

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## Outline

- Events and probability
- Bayes' rule
- Discrete random variables and expectation
- Moments and derivations

## **Definition of Probability**

- **Experiment:** toss a coin twice
- Sample space: possible outcomes of an experiment
   Ω={HH, HT,TH,TT}
- Event: a subset of possible outcomes.

 $- A = \{HH\}, B = \{HT, TH\}$ 

- **Probability of an event:** an number assigned to an event Pr(A)
  - Axiom 1:  $Pr(A) \ge 0$
  - Axiom 2:  $Pr(\Omega) = 1$
  - Axiom 3: For every sequence of disjoint events  $Pr(\bigcup_i A_i) = \sum_i Pr(A_i)$

#### Set notations

- $E_1 \cap E_2$  is the event that both  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  happen.
- $E_1 \cup E_2$  for the event that at least one of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  happen.
- $E_1 E_2$  for the occurrence of an event that is in  $E_1$  but not in  $E_2$ .
- $\overline{E}$  stands for  $\Omega E$ .

**Lemma:** for any two events  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ :

 $Pr(E_1 \cup E_2) = Pr(E_1) + Pr(E_2) - Pr(E_1 \cap E_2)$ 

**Proof.** (Inclusion-exclusion principle)

#### **Union Bound**

**Lemma:** For any finite or countably infinite sequence of events  $E_1, E_2, ...$ 

# $Pr\left(\bigcup_{i\geq 1}E_i\right)\leq \sum_{i\geq 1}\Pr(E_i).$

Proof.

#### Independence

 Two events A and B are independent in case

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

• A set of events  $\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_k\}$  are **mutually independent** iff for any subset  $I \subseteq [1, k]$ 

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

#### Independence

Consider the experiment of tossing a coin twice

#### • Example I.

 $-A = \{HT, HH\}, B = \{HT\}$ 

– Will event A independent from event B?

#### • Example II.

$$-A = \{HT\}, B = \{TH\}$$

– Will event A independent from event B?

- Disjoint ≠ Independence
- If A is independent from B, B is independent from C, will A be independent from C?

#### Application1: Identify polynomials (x + 1)(x - 2)(x + 3)(x - 4)(x + 5)(x - 6)

 $? = x^6 - 7x^3 + 25$ 

• Generally F(x) ? = G(x)

#### Probabilistic algorithm

- Assume Max(Deg(G(x)), Deg(F(x))) = d
- Algorithm
  - Choose an integer *r* uniformly at random in the range {1, ..., 100*d*}
  - Compute F(r) and G(r)
  - If F(r) = G(r) output Yes; otherwise, output No.

# Analysis

- *E*: The event that the algorithm fails.
- The algorithm may fail iff
  - $-F(x) \neq G(x) \text{ and } F(r) = G(r)$
  - *r* is the solution of H(x) = F(x) G(x) = 0.
  - -H(x) has at most *d* solutions.
- $\Pr(E) \le \frac{d}{100d} = \frac{1}{100}$
- Idea : If it keeps returning (Yes), we repeat the algorithm for k times.

- The updated algorithm will fail iff every  $E_i$  fails for  $1 \le i \le k$ .

For i = 1 to k do

- Choose an integer r uniformly at random in the range {1, ..., 100d}
- Compute F(r) and G(r)
- If F(r) = G(r) return Yes; otherwise stop and output No.

• 
$$\Pr(E) = \Pr(E_1 \cap E_2 \cap \dots \cap E_k)$$
  
=  $\Pr(E_1) \cdot \Pr(E_2) \cdot \dots \cdot \Pr(E_k)$   
 $\leq \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^k$ 

# Conditioning

- If *E* and *F* are events with Pr(F) > 0, the conditional probability of *E* given *F* is  $Pr(E|F) = \frac{Pr(E \cap F)}{Pr(F)}$
- If *E* and *F* are independent

$$\Pr(E|F) = \frac{\Pr(E \cap F)}{\Pr(F)} = \frac{\Pr(E)\Pr(F)}{\Pr(F)} = \Pr(E)$$

## Application

• Example: Drug test

	Women	Men
Success	200	1800
Failure	1800	200

A = {Patient is a Women}

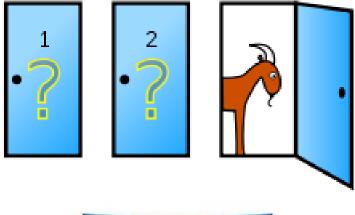
$$\mathbf{B} = \{ \mathbf{Drug fails} \}$$

$$Pr(B|A) = ?$$

$$Pr(A|B) = ?$$

#### Application 2: Monty Hall 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?

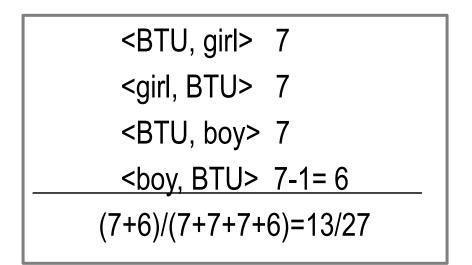




Behind door 1	Behind door 2	Behind door 3	Result if staying at door #1	Result if switching to the door offered
Car	Goat	Goat	Wins car	Wins goat
Goat	Car	Goat	Wins goat	Wins car
Goat	Goat	Car	Wins goat	Wins car

## Tuesday boy problem

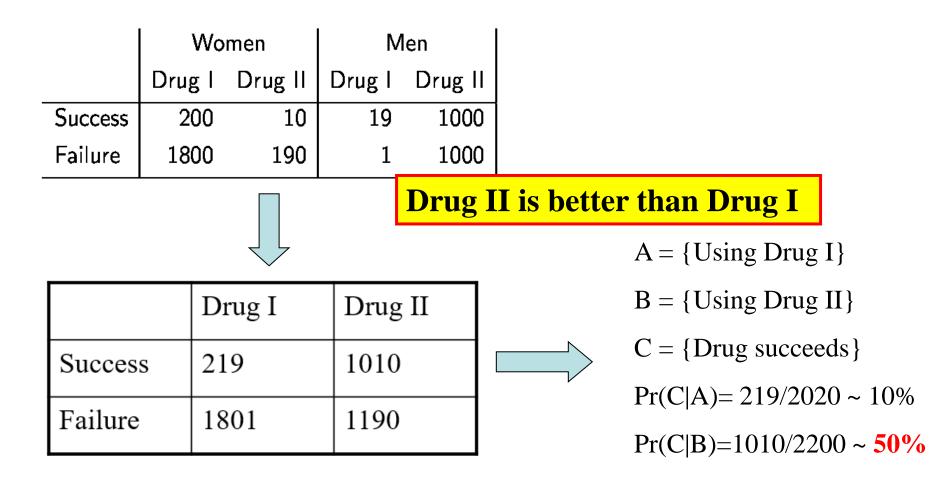
 "I have two children. One is a boy born on a Tuesday. What is the probability I have two boys?"



### **Drug Evaluation**

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

#### Simpson's Paradox: View I



# Simpson's Paradox: View II

	Wo	men	M	len	
	Drug I	Drug II	Drug I	Drug II	
Success	200	10	19	1000	
Failure	1800	190	1	1000	
	I		Drug	g I is be	etter than Drug II
<b>Female Patient</b>				Male Patient	
$A = \{Using Drug I\}$			$A = \{Using Drug I\}$		
$B = {Using Drug II}$			$B = \{Using Drug II\}$		
$C = \{Drug succeeds\}$			C	= {Drug succeeds}	
$\Pr(C A) \sim \mathbf{10\%}$		$\Pr(C A) \sim 100\%$		r(C A) ~ <b>100%</b>	
Pr(C B)	$Pr(C B) \sim 5\%$			P	$r(C B) \sim 50\%$

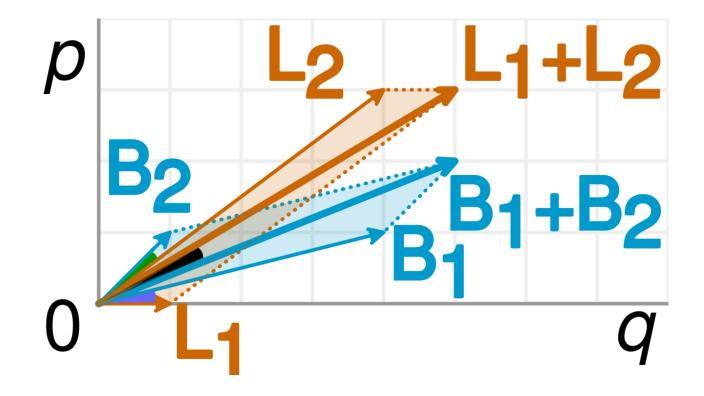
#### Another version: Berkeley gender bias case (1973)

	Applicants	Admitted
Men	8442	44%
Women	4321	35%

Department	Men		Women	
Department	Applicants	Admitted	Applicants	Admitted
A	825	62%	108	82%
В	560	63%	25	68%
С	325	37%	593	34%
D	417	33%	375	35%
Е	191	28%	393	24%
F	272	6%	341	7%

Simpson's paradox - Wikipedia

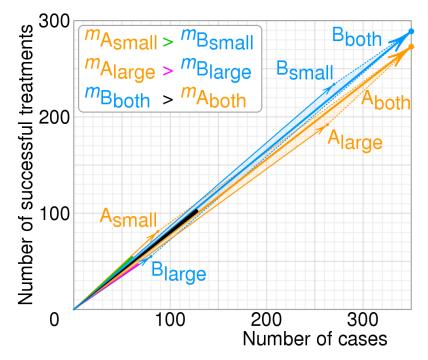
## Vector interpretation of Simpson's paradox



Simpson's paradox - Wikipedia

A real-life example from a medical study comparing the success rates of two treatments for kidney stones.

	Treatment A	Treatment B
Small Stones	Group 1 93% (81/87)	Group 2 87% (234/270)
Large Stones	Group 3 <b>73%</b> (192/263)	Group 4 69% (55/80)
Both	78% (273/350)	<b>83%</b> (289/350)



Vector representation in which each vector's slope denotes its success rate.

Simpson's paradox - Wikipedia

#### Law of total probability

- Let  $E_1, E_2, ..., E_n$  be mutually disjoint events in the sample space  $\Omega$ , and let  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_i = \Omega$ , then  $\Pr(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Pr(B \cap E_i)$ 
  - $= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Pr(B|E_i) \Pr(E_i)$

#### **Conditional Independence**

• Event A and B are conditionally independent given C in case  $Pr(A \cap B|C) = Pr(A|C) \cdot Pr(B|C)$ 

Or equivalently,  $Pr(A|B \cap C) = Pr(A|C)$  • Example: There are three events: *A*, *B*, *C* 

$$-\Pr(A) = \Pr(B) = \Pr(C) = \frac{1}{5}$$

- $-\Pr(A \cap C) = \Pr(B \cap C) = \frac{1}{25}, \Pr(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{10}$
- $-\Pr(A \cap B \cap C) = \frac{1}{125}$
- Whether *A*, *B* are conditionally independent given *C*?
- Whether *A*, *B* are independent?

• Example: There are three events: *A*, *B*, *C* 

$$-\Pr(A) = \Pr(B) = \Pr(C) = \frac{1}{5}$$

- $-\Pr(A \cap C) = \Pr(B \cap C) = \frac{1}{25}, \Pr(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{10}$
- $-\Pr(A \cap B \cap C) = \frac{1}{125}$
- Whether *A*, *B* are conditionally independent given *C*? Yes
- Whether *A*, *B* are independent? No

- A box contains two coins: a regular coin and one fake two-headed coin (P(H) = 1). One chooses a coin at random and toss it twice. Define the following events.
  - -A = First coin toss results in an H
  - -B = Second coin toss results in an H
  - C = Coin 1 (regular) has been selected.
- $P(A \cap B) = 5/8 \neq P(A)P(B) = 9/16$ , which means that A and B are not independent.
- Given C(Coin 1 is selected), A and B are independent.

Conditional independence neither implies (nor is it implied by) independence.

### Outline

- Events and probability
- Bayes' rule
- Discrete random variables and expectation
- Moments and derivations

#### Bayes' Rule

• Given two events A and B and suppose that Pr(A) > 0. Then Pr(A|B) Pr(B|A)

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

• Example:

Pr(W R)	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
$\neg W$	0.3	0.6

R: It is a rainy day W: The grass is wet Pr(R|W) = ?

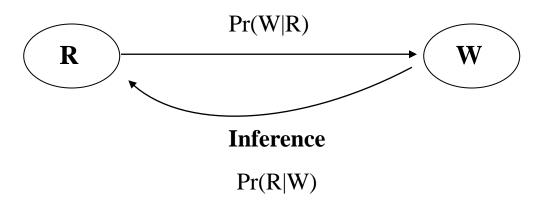
Pr(R) = 0.8

#### Bayes' Rule

	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
$\neg W$	0.3	0.6

R: It rains W: The grass is wet

Information

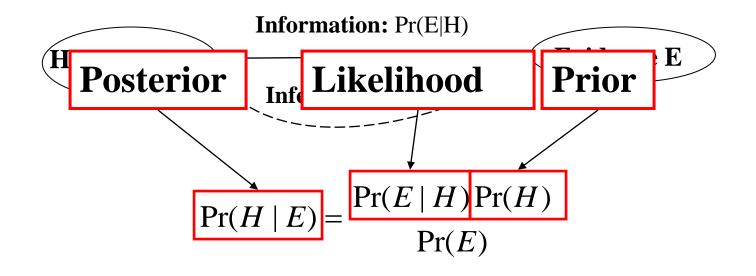


#### Bayes' Rule

	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
$\neg W$	0.3	0.6

R: It rains

W: The grass is wet



#### Bayes' Rule: More Complicated

Suppose that  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$  form a partition of S:

$$B_i \bigcap B_j = \emptyset; \ \bigcup_i B_i = S$$

Suppose that Pr(Bi) > 0 and Pr(A) > 0. Then  $Pr(B_i | A) = \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{Pr(A)}$ 

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$$= \frac{\Pr(A \mid B_i) \Pr(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} \Pr(AB_j)}$$

#### **Bayes' Rule: More Complicated**

Suppose that  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$  form a partition of S:

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Suppose that Pr(Bi) > 0 and Pr(A) > 0. Then

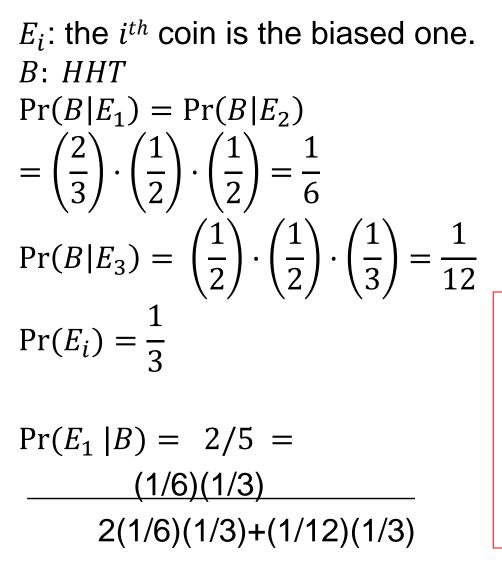
$$Pr(B_i | A) = \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{Pr(A)}$$
$$= \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k Pr(AB_j)}$$
$$= \frac{Pr(A | B_i) Pr(B_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k Pr(B_j) Pr(A | B_j)}$$

#### In all

Assume that  $E_1, E_2, ..., E_n$  are mutually disjoint sets such that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i = E$ , then

$$\Pr(E_j|B) = \frac{\Pr(E_j \cap B)}{\Pr(B)}$$
$$= \frac{\Pr(B|E_j)\Pr(E_j)}{\sum_{i=0}^{n} \Pr(B|E_i)\Pr(E_i)}$$

#### Example





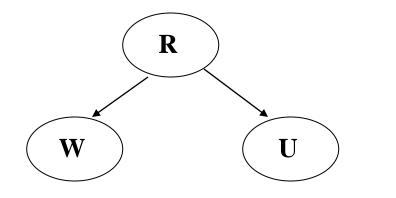
- We have three coins
  - Two of them: fair
  - The other one: Pr(H) = 2/3
- Flip them we get: *HHT*
- Problem: What is the probability that the first coin is the biased one?

# A More Complicated Example

R

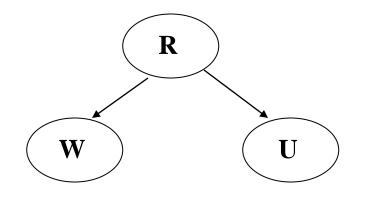
W

U



- It rains
- The grass is wet
  - People bring umbrella

# A More Complicated Example



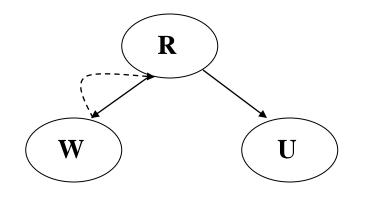
**R** It rains

W The grass is wet

U People bring umbrella

Pr(UW|R)=Pr(U|R)Pr(W|R) $Pr(UW|\neg R)=Pr(U|\neg R)Pr(W|\neg R)$ 

# A More Complicated Example



Pr(R) = 0.8

R	It rains

W The grass is wet

U People bring umbrella

Pr(UW|R) = Pr(U|R)Pr(W|R)

 $Pr(UW| \neg R) = Pr(U| \neg R)Pr(W| \neg R)$ 

Pr(W R)	R	$\neg R$
W	0.7	0.4
$\neg W$	0.3	0.6

Pr(U R)	R	$\neg R$
U	0.9	0.2
¬U	0.1	0.8

$$Pr(U|W) = ?$$

# Outline

- Events and probability
- Bayes' rule
- Discrete random variables and expectation
- Moments and derivations
- The probabilistic method

#### Random Variable and Distribution

- A random variable X is a numerical outcomes of a random experiment  $X: \Omega \rightarrow R$
- The distribution of a random variable is the collection of possible outcomes along with their probabilities:

– Discrete case:

$$\Pr(X = a) = \sum_{s \in \Omega, X(s) = a} \Pr(s)$$

### Random Variable: Example

- Let *S* be the set of all sequences of two rolls of a die. Let *X* be the sum of the number of dots on the two rolls.
- The event X = 4 corresponds to the set of basic *events* {(1,3), (2,2), (3,1)}. Hence

$$\Pr(X=4) = \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$$

## Independent random variable

• Two random variables X and Y are independent if and only if

 $\Pr((X = x) \cap (Y = y)) = \Pr(X = x) \cdot \Pr(Y = y)$ 

### Expectation

- A basic characteristic of a random variable is expectation.
- The expectation of a random variable is a weighted average of the values it assumes, where each value is weighted by the probability that the variable assumes that value.

#### Expectation

 A random variable X~Pr(X = x). Then, its expectation is

$$E[X] = \sum_{x} x \Pr(X = x)$$

• In an empirical sample,  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$ ,

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

### Examples

□ The expectation of the random variable X representing the sum of two dice is  $E(X) = \frac{1}{36} \cdot 2 + \frac{2}{36} \cdot 3 + \frac{3}{36} \cdot 4 + \dots + \frac{1}{36} \cdot 12 = 7$ 

### Examples

- □ The expectation of the random variable X representing the sum of two dice is  $E(X) = \frac{1}{36} \cdot 2 + \frac{2}{36} \cdot 3 + \frac{3}{36} \cdot 4 + \dots + \frac{1}{36} \cdot 12 = 7$
- □ A random variable X that takes on the value 2<sup>i</sup> with probability 1/2<sup>i</sup> for i=1,2,...

$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} 2^i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty$$

# Linearity of expectations

• Expectation of sum of random variables E(X) + E(Y) = E(X + Y)Proof. □ Generally: For any finite collection of discrete random variables  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  with finite expectations.

$$E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E[X_{i}]$$

### Example



Recall: The expected sum of two dice.
 *Solution*:

Let  $X = X_1 + X_2$ 

where  $X_i$  represents the outcome of dice *i* for i = 1, 2. Then

$$E(X_i) = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{j=1}^{6} j = \frac{7}{2}$$
$$E(X) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) = 7$$

### Lemma

For any constant c and discrete random variable X

$$E[cX] = c \cdot E[X]$$

Proof.

$$E[cX] = \sum_{j} j \cdot \Pr(cX = j)$$
  
=  $c\sum_{j} (j/c) \cdot \Pr(X = j/c)$   
=  $c\sum_{k} k \cdot \Pr(X = k)$   
=  $c \cdot E[X]$ 

### Variance

• The variance of a random variable X is the expectation of  $(X - E[X])^2$ :

$$Var(X) = E((X - E[X])^{2})$$
  
=  $E(X^{2} + E[X]^{2} - 2XE[X])$   
=  $E(X^{2} - E[X]^{2})$   
=  $E[X^{2}] - E[X]^{2}$ 

### **Bernoulli Distribution**

- The outcome of an experiment can either be success (i.e., 1) and failure (i.e., 0).
- $\Pr(X = 1) = p$ ,  $\Pr(X = 0) = 1 p$
- E[X] = p, Var(X) = p(1-p)

# **Binomial Distribution**

- Consider a sequence of *n* independent coin flips. What is the distribution of the number of heads in the entire sequence?
- *n* draws of a Bernoulli distribution. *X* stands for the number of successes in these experiments.
- Random variable *X* stands for the number of times that experiments are successful.

$$\Pr(X = x) = p_{\theta}(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} p^{x} (1-p)^{n-x} & x = 1, 2, ..., n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• E[X] = np (by linearity), Var(X) = np(1-p)

### **Geometric Distribution**

- Suppose that we flip a coin *until* it lands on heads. What is the distribution of the number of flips?
- A geometric random variable X with parameter p is given by the following probability distribution on n=1,2,....:

$$\Pr(X = n) = (1 - p)^{n - 1} p$$

# Memoryless

- Geometric random variables are said to be memoryless: the probability that you will reach your first success n trials from now is independent of the number of failures you have experienced.
- Formally,

Pr(X = n + k | X > k) = Pr(X = n)

## Proof.

 $\Pr(X = n + k \mid X > k) = \frac{\Pr((X = n + k) \cap (X > k))}{\Pr(X > k)}$  $=\frac{\Pr(X=n+k)}{\Pr(X>k)}$  $=\frac{(1-p)^{n+k-1}p}{\sum_{i=k}^{\infty}(1-p)^{i}p}$  $=\frac{(1-p)^{n+k-1}p}{(1-p)^k}$  $=(1-p)^{n-1}p$  $= \Pr(X = n)$ 

### Expectation

- Method 1: make use of the definitions.
- Method 2:

 $E[X] = p \cdot 1 + (1 - p) \cdot (E[X] + 1)$   $p \cdot E[X] = 1$  E[X] = 1/p  $Var[X] = (1 - p)/p^{2}$ 

#### Application: Coupon Collector's Problem

- Each box of cereal contain one of n different coupons.
- Once you obtain one of every type of coupon, you can send in for a prize.
- Coupons are distributed independently and uniformly at random from the n possibilities.
- Question: How many boxes of cereal must you buy before you obtain at least one of every type of coupon?





# Solution

- Let X be the number of boxes bought until at least one of every type of coupon is obtained.
- X<sub>i</sub> is the number of boxes bought while you had exactly i-1 different coupons.
- Clearly,  $X = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} X_i$
- X<sub>i</sub> is a geometric random variable:
  - When exactly *i* 1 coupons have been found, the probability of obtaining a new coupon *is*  $p_i = 1 \frac{i-1}{n}$

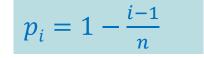
$$- E[X_i] = \frac{1}{p_i} = \frac{n}{n-i+1}$$

• By the linearity of expectations, we have

$$E[X] = E[\sum_{1 \le i \le n} X_i] = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} E[X_i] = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} \frac{n}{n - i + 1} = n \cdot \sum_{1 \le i \le n} \left(\frac{1}{i}\right)$$
$$= n \cdot \ln n + \Theta(n)$$
(Where  $\sum_{1 \le i \le n} \left(\frac{1}{i}\right) = H(n) = \Theta(\ln n)$  harmonic number)

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 $Var(X) = Var(X_1 + \cdots X_n)$ 



 $= Var(X_{1}) + \dots + Var(X_{n})$   $= \frac{1 - p_{1}}{p_{1}^{2}} + \dots + \frac{1 - p_{n}}{p_{n}^{2}}$ 

$$< \left(\frac{n^2}{n^2} + \frac{n^2}{(n-1)^2} + \cdots + \frac{n^2}{1}\right)$$

$$= n^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

$$< \frac{\pi^2}{6}n^2$$

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# Markov's Inequality

• Let *X* be a random variable that assumes only nonnegative values. Then for all a > 0

$$\Pr(X \ge a) \le \frac{E[X]}{a}$$

• Proof.

### Example

- Bound the probability of obtaining more than  $\frac{3n}{4}$  heads in a sequence of *n* fair coin flips. Let  $X_i = 1$  if the *i*<sup>th</sup> coin flip is head, otherwise,  $X_i = 0$ .
  - Let  $X = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} X_i$ . It follows that  $E[X] = \frac{n}{2}$

$$-\Pr\left(X \ge \frac{3n}{4}\right) \le \frac{E[X]}{\frac{3n}{4}} = 2/3$$

### Chebyshev's Inequality

- For any a > 0,  $\Pr(|X - E(X)| \ge a) \le \frac{Var[X]}{a^2}$
- Proof.

### Example: Coupon Collector's Problem

Recall:  $E[X] = n \cdot Hn$ 

By Markov's inequality:

#### $\Pr(X \ge 2n \cdot Hn) \le 1/2$

By Chebyshev's inequality, this can be improved to

$$\Pr(X \ge 2n \cdot Hn) \le O\left(\frac{1}{(\ln n)^2}\right)$$

# Union bound

- After unpacking  $2n \cdot Hn$  cereals, the probability that the *i*th card has not shown is Pr(no card *i* after  $2n \cdot Hn$  step) =  $\left(1 \frac{1}{n}\right)^{2n \cdot Hn}$
- The probability that we do not get the whole set of *n* cards after step is:

$$\Pr(X > 2n \cdot Hn) \le n \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{2n \cdot Hn}$$

$$\leq n \cdot e^{-2 \cdot Hn} = O(1/n)$$

•  $\Pr(X \ge 2n \cdot Hn) \le \frac{1}{2}$ 

Markov

•  $\Pr(X \ge 2n \cdot Hn) \le O\left(\frac{1}{(\ln n)^2}\right)$ 

Chebyshev

•  $\Pr(X > 2n \cdot Hn) \le O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$  Union Bound

Chebyshev also gives (weak) lower bound. Using more advanced tools one can show

•  $\Pr(X \le (1 - \epsilon)(n - 1) \ln n) \le e^{-n^{\epsilon}}$ 

[1801.06733] Probabilistic Tools for the Analysis of Randomized Optimization Heuristics (arxiv.org)

### **Chernoff Bound-style**

 $Pr(X \ge a) = Pr(e^{tX} \ge e^{t \cdot a})$  for any t > 0

$$\leq \frac{E(e^{tX})}{e^{t \cdot a}}$$
$$\leq \min_{t>0} \frac{E(e^{tX})}{e^{t \cdot a}}$$

## **Conditional Expectation**

 X is a discrete random variable, and E is an event with P(E) > 0. The conditional expectation of X conditioned on E is

$$E[X|E] \triangleq \sum_{x \in Ran(X)} x \cdot P[X = x|E]$$

• Let *Y* be another discrete random variable. The conditional expectation of *X* conditioned on *Y*, written as E[X|Y], is a random variable of E[X|Y = y].

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## **Conditional Expectation**

- Proposition: E[E[X|Y]] = E[X].
- Proof.

 $= \sum_{v} \Pr[Y = y] \cdot E[X|Y = y]$  $= \sum_{v} \Pr[Y = y] \cdot \sum_{x} x \cdot \Pr[X = x | Y = y]$  $= \sum_{y} \Pr[Y = y] \cdot \sum_{x} x \cdot \frac{\Pr[X = x \cap Y = y]}{\Pr[Y = y]}$  $= \sum_{y} \sum_{x} x \cdot \Pr[X = x \cap Y = y]$  $= \sum_{x} x \sum_{y} \Pr[X = x \cap Y = y]$  $=\sum_{x} x \cdot \Pr[X = x]$ = E[X]

# Proof of Chernoff bounds (1)

• Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be independent random variables such that  $X_i \sim Ber(p_i)$  for each i = 1, 2, ..., n. Let  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and denote  $\mu = E[X]$ , then  $\Pr(X \ge (1 + \delta)\mu) \le \left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^{\mu}$ 

If 
$$0 < \delta < 1$$
, then  $\Pr(X \le (1 - \delta)\mu) \le \left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1 - \delta)^{1 - \delta}}\right)^{\mu}$ .

$$M_{X_{i}}(t) = E[e^{tX_{i}}]$$
  
=  $p_{i}e^{t} + (1 - p_{i})$   
=  $1 + p_{i}(e^{t} - 1)$   
 $\leq e^{p_{i}(e^{t} - 1)}$ 

$$M_X(t) = \prod_{\substack{i=1\\n}}^n M_{X_i}(t)$$
  
$$\leq \prod_{i=1}^n e^{p_i(e^t - 1)}$$
  
$$= \exp\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n p_i(e^t - 1)\right\}$$
  
$$= e^{(e^t - 1)\mu}$$

# Proof of Chernoff bounds (2)

• Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be independent random variables such that  $X_i \sim Ber(p_i)$  for each i = 1, 2, ..., n. Let  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and denote  $\mu = E[X]$ , then  $\Pr(X \ge (1 + \delta)\mu) \le \left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^{\mu}$ 

If  $0 < \delta < 1$ , then  $\Pr(X \le (1 - \delta)\mu) \le \left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1 - \delta)^{1 - \delta}}\right)^{\mu}$ .

Pr

$$(X \ge (1+\delta)\mu) = \Pr(e^{tX} \ge e^{t(1+\delta)\mu}) \text{ for any } t > 0$$

$$\leq \frac{E(e^{tX})}{e^{t(1+\delta)\mu}}$$

$$\leq \frac{e^{(e^t-1)\mu}}{e^{t(1+\delta)\mu}} \text{ for any } \delta > 0$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^{\mu} \text{ set } t = \ln(1+\delta) > 0$$

# Proof of Chernoff bounds (3)

• Let  $X_1, ..., X_n$  be independent random variables such that  $X_i \sim Ber(p_i)$  for each i = 1, 2, ..., n. Let  $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and denote  $\mu = E[X]$ , then  $\Pr(X \ge (1 + \delta)\mu) \le \left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1 + \delta)^{1 + \delta}}\right)^{\mu}$ 

If  $0 < \delta < 1$ , then  $\Pr(X \le (1 - \delta)\mu) \le \left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1 - \delta)^{1 - \delta}}\right)^{\mu}$ .

$$\Pr(X \le (1 - \delta)\mu) = \Pr(e^{tX} \ge e^{t(1 - \delta)\mu}), \text{ for any } t < 0$$

$$\le \frac{E(e^{tX})}{e^{t(1 - \delta)\mu}}$$

$$\le \frac{e^{(e^t - 1)\mu}}{e^{t(1 - \delta)\mu}} \text{ for any } 0 < \delta < 1$$

$$\le \left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1 - \delta)^{1 - \delta}}\right)^{\mu} \text{ set } t = \ln(1 - \delta) < 0$$