# A Random Walk through CS70, Pt. II: Probability

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## **Conditional Probability**

Definition:

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

Live demo.

From definition:  $Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[A] Pr[B|A]$ .

Or, generally:  $Pr[A_1 \cap ... \cap A_n] = Pr[A_1] Pr[A_2 | A_1] ... Pr[A_n | A_1 \cap ... \cap A_{n-1}].$ 

## Today

Same as yesterday (and tomorrow). Review, applications, gigs, cool examples, research questions...

Probability today!

# Bayes' Theorem

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

Or if I know for sure that exactly one of  $A_1,...,A_n$  hold, then:

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

Useful theorem for inference (updating beliefs). Heavily used in Al. CS188

## **Fundamentals**

Map of outcomes in a probability space  $\Omega$  to values in [0,1]:

 $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \Pr[\omega] = 1$ 

Events: set of outcomes.  $\Pr[E] = \sum_{\omega \in E} \Pr[\omega]$ .

Inclusion-Exclusion:  $Pr[A \cup B] = Pr[A] + Pr[B] - Pr[A \cap B]$ .

Union bound:  $Pr[A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_n] \le Pr[A_1] + Pr[A_2] + ... Pr[A_n]$ .

Total probability: if  $A_1,...,A_n$  partition the entire sample space (disjoint, covers all of it), then  $Pr[B] = Pr[B \cap A_1] + ... + Pr[B \cap A_n]$ .

Random Variables: Discrete

Random variable: function that assigns a real number  $X(\omega)$  to each outcome  $\omega$  in a probability space.

Random variables X, Y are independent if the events Y = a and X = b are independent for all a, b. If X, Y independent, then f(X), g(Y) independent for all f, q.

Expectation:  $E[X] = \sum_t t \Pr[X = t]$ 

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Tail sum: for nonnegative r.v. X:  $E[X] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Pr[X > i]$ .

Expectation of function:  $E[g(X)] = \sum_t g(t) \Pr[X = t]$ 

Variance:  $Var[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$ 

Standard deviation: square root of variance.

Linearity of expectation: E[aX + bY] = aE[X] + bE[Y]

For independent RV: E[XY] = E[X]E[Y], Var[X + Y] = Var[X] + Var[Y]

## Example: Random-SAT

Let's say I have some Boolean clause that looks like this ("3-CNF")

$$(a \vee b \vee \overline{c}) \wedge (\overline{b} \vee d \vee e) \wedge ...$$

n clauses (three boolean variables, some may be negated). What is expected number of clauses that I satisfy with a random assignment? 7n/8.

Doesn't matter if variables are repeated! Expectation is linear.

Also proves (by probabilistic method) that there exists some assignment satisfying at least 7/8 of the clauses.

Turns out that we don't know any better constant-factor approximation for this. 7/8 is the best we can do! If we can efficiently do better (i.e.  $7/8+\varepsilon$  fraction of clauses satisfied, for constant  $\varepsilon$ ) this would prove P=NP which would, among many other things, render public key cryptography impossible!

"Hardness of approximation". Ongoing topic of research.

# Application: Streaming Algorithm for Counting Uniques

Let's say that you're building a server that wants to count unique visitors. But you only have a very small amount of memory - enough to remember one number. How do you distinguish between a million unique visitors and a single IP address sending a million requests to your site?

Map each IP address to a single number between 0 and 1 uniformly.

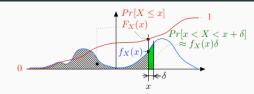
Keep the minimum number of all the visitors to your website (only requires space for one number!).

What's the number you get? Minimum of Uniform(0,1). Distribution? CDF:

$$\Pr(\min X_i \le x) = 1 - \Pr(\text{all } x_i \text{ at least } x) = 1 - (1 - x)^n$$

So PDF is  $f(x) = n(1-x)^{n-1}$ . Expectation:  $\int_0^1 x n(1-x)^{n-1} dx = 1/(n+1)$ . Just invert the minimum number to estimate number of unique visitors!

## Random Variables: Continuous



Distributions represented with a pdf

$$f_X(t) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \frac{\Pr[X \in [t, t + \delta]]}{\delta}$$

...or, equivalently, a cdf:

$$F_X(t) = \Pr[X \le t] = \int_{-\infty}^t f_X(z) dz.$$

$$\Pr[X \in [a,b]] = \int_a^b f_X(t)dt = F_X(b) - F_X(a)$$

## Distributions

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Discrete: Uniform, Bernoulli, geometric, binomial, Poisson

Continuous: Exponential, normal, uniform.

Make sure you know what they mean intuitively (although formula sheet will have the formulas for them).

For instance: What's the distribution of the sum of two independent binomial random variables? What's the distribution of the minimum of two independent geometric random variables? Prove these formally for practice!

# **Expectation/Variance for Continuous**

Sum → Integral. Most properties carry over.

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t f_X(t) dt$$

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) f_X(t) dt$$

$$Var[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

Linearity of expectation: E[aX + bY] = aE[X] + bE[Y]

For independent RV: E[XY] = E[X]E[Y], Var[X + Y] = Var[X] + Var[Y]

#### Tail Bounds

Markov: For X non-negative, a positive,

$$\Pr[X \ge A] \le \frac{E[X]}{a}.$$

Chebyshev: For all a positive,

$$\Pr[|X - E[X]| \ge a] \le \frac{Var[X]}{a^2}.$$

Chernoff: Family of exponential bounds for sum of mutually independent 0-1 random variables. Derive by noting that  $Pr[X \ge a] = Pr[e^{tX} \ge e^{ta}]$ , and then applying Markov to bound

$$\Pr[e^{tX} \ge e^{ta}] \le \frac{E[e^{tX}]}{e^{ta}}$$

for a good value of t.

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## Law of Large Numbers and CLT

If  $X_1,X_2,...$  are pairwise independent, and identically distributed with mean  $\mu\colon \Pr[\frac{\sum_i X_i}{n} - \mu] \geq \varepsilon] \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

With many i.i.d. samples we converge not only to the mean, but also to a normal distribution with the same variance.

CLT: Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \ldots$  are i.i.d. random variables with expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Let

$$S_n := \frac{(\sum_i X_i) - n\mu}{\sigma \sqrt{n}}$$

Then  $S_n$  tends towards  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$  as  $n \to \infty$ .

Or:

$$\Pr[S_n \leq a] \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\alpha} e^{-x^2/2} dx$$

This is an approximation, not a bound.

# Example: Markov Proof

Here's a theorem and a proof of the sort that we might ask you to do on the test.

**Theorem:** If a transient state j is accessible from state i, then state i is transient.

**Proof:** Suppose i is not accessible from j. Then there is a nonzero probability that, starting at i, we will go to j, at which point we will never be able to see i again. So i is transient.

On the other hand, suppose i is accessible from j. Suppose for contradiction that i is recurrent. Then if we're at j, we have to hit i again (because i is recurrent, so we have to go back to i if we go from i to j). But when we're at i, we know that we're definitely going to hit j sometime (because there's a nonzero chance of going to j from i, and we'll be back at i infinitely many times due to it being recurrent). So j is recurrent. Contradiction! So j has to be transient.

Markov Chains

Live Demo

Transition matrix *P*. Timesteps correspond to matrix multiplication:  $\pi \rightarrow \pi P$ 

**Hitting time:** How long does it take us to get to some state j? Strategy: let  $\beta(i)$  be the time it takes to get to j from i, for each state i.  $\beta(j) = 0$ . Set up system of linear equations and solve.

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## Markov Chain Classifications

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Irreducible Markov chain: all states communicate with every other state. Equivalently: graph representation is strongly connected.

Periodic Markov chain: any state is periodic.

**Ergodic** Markov chain: every state is ergodic. Any finite, irreducible, aperiodic Markov chain is ergodic.

## State Classifications

State *j* is **accessible** from *i*: can get from i to j with nonzero probability. Equivalently: exists path from i to j.

i accessible from j and j accessible from i: i, j communicate.

If, given that we're at some state, we will see that state again sometime in the future with probability 1, state is **recurrent**. If there is a nonzero probability that we don't ever see state again, state is **transient**.

Every finite chain has a recurrent state.

State is **periodic** if, given that we're currently at that state, the probability that we are at that state s steps later is zero unless s divides some integer  $\Delta > 1$ .

Ergodic state: aperiodic + recurrent.

. .

# Stationary Distributions

Distribution is unchanged by state. Intuitively: if I have a lot (approaching infinity) of people on the same MC: the number of people at each state is constant (even if the individual people may move around).

To find limiting distribution? Solve balance equations:  $\pi = \pi P$ .

Let  $r_{i,j}^t$  be the probability that we first (if i=j, we don't count the zeroth timestep) hit j exactly t timesteps after we start at i. Then  $h_{i,j} = \sum_{t>1} tr_{i,i}^t$ .

Suppose we are given a finite, irreducible, aperiodic Markov chain.

- There is a unquue stationary distribution  $\pi$ .
- For all j, i, the limit  $\lim_{t\to\infty} P_{i,i}^t$  exists and is independent of j.
- $\cdot \pi_i = \lim_{t \to \infty} P_{i,i}^t = 1/h_{i,i}$

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### Random Walks

Markov chain on an undirected graph. At a vertex, pick edge with uniform probability and walk down it.

For undirected graphs: aperiodic if and only if graph is not bipartite.

Stationary distribution:  $\pi_v = d(v)/(2|E|)$ .

Cover time (expected time that it takes to hit all the vertices, starting from the worst vertex possible): bounded above by 4|V||E|.

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#### Parrondo's Paradox III

So how often do we end up with case A? Here's the approach: one state for each value of  $d \pmod{3}$ .



Aperiodic? Irreducible? Yep! Limiting distribution = stationary distribution! Just solve for the stationary distribution with  $\pi=\pi P$ .

Result:  $\pi = [0.382604, 0.154728, 0.462668]$ . Plug in:

$$0.3826(0.09) + (0.1547 + 0.4627)(0.74) = 0.4913 < \frac{1}{2}$$

So I lose money in the long run.

# Example/Gig: Parrondo's Paradox

Let's say I have two slot machines. Each one takes some amount of money and then spits out some amount of money.

Suppose that the expected return of each machine is negative - I get less money than I put in... the house always wins, after all. If I play machine 1 for a while, I expect to end up broke. Same with machine 2.

So if I play machine 1 and machine 2 alternately, I should expect to end up broke too, right? Hmm...

## Parrondo's Paradox III

So now, what if I decide to flip a fair coin to figure out which machine to play?

I have d dollars... if d is a multiple of 3, probability of winning is:

$$\frac{1}{2}(0.49) + \frac{1}{2}(0.09) = 0.29$$

If d isn't a multiple of 3, probability of winning is:

$$\frac{1}{2}(0.49) + \frac{1}{2}(0.74) = 0.615$$



## Parrondo's Paradox II

Let's say that the slot machines work as follows:

Machine 1: Put in some money. You gain a dollar w.p. 0.49 and lose a dollar w.p. 0.51. Pretty obvious that you lose money playing this game.

Machine 2: You put in *d* dollars.

- Case A: If *d* is a multiple of 3 then you gain a dollar w.p. 0.09 and lose a dollar w.p. 0.91.
- Case B: Otherwise, you gain a dollar w.p. 0.74 and lose a dollar w.p. 0.26.

What's the probability of winning a round? 1/3 probability of case A happening, so it would be

$$\frac{1}{3}(0.09) + \frac{2}{3}(0.74) = \frac{157}{300} > \frac{1}{2}$$

right? Are you sure? No! Probability of case A happening is not 1/3! (be careful about nonuniform probability spaces. MT2 1.1/1.2!

### Parrondo's Paradox IV

Stationary distribution:  $\pi = [0.344583, 0.254343, 0.401075]$ . Probability of winning:

$$0.3446(0.29) + (0.2543 + 0.4011)(0.615) = 0.503011 > \frac{1}{2}$$

So we expect to... gain money??!?!!!?!?!

Did we just break linearity of expectation? No! It doesn't make a whole lot of sense to talk about "expected winnings" for a state without taking into account the current state. Our distribution across states changes between the two games!

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