

Absolute basics of probability

Most of the probability we use will be over finite sample spaces, in which case we not have to worry about subtle issues like measurability or what is/isn't a legal event. The basic notions discussed in this brief note are

- sample spaces;
- probability distributions;
- events, compound events, and independence;
- random variables, expectation, and linearity of expectation.

This note is highly informal and contains only the absolute basics of terminology about these topics.

1 Sample spaces

As mentioned above we will only ever consider finite sample spaces. A *sample space* S is the set of all possible outcomes of some “probabilistic experiment.” The notion of a probabilistic experiment and its corresponding sample space may be best illustrated through some concrete examples:

1. **Example 1:** One probabilistic experiment would be “Pick a uniform random person from the entire Earth’s population as of midnight EST on Jan 1 2023.” For this probabilistic experiment, the sample space S would simply be the set of all living people on Earth at midnight EST on Jan 1 2023.
2. **Example 2:** A different probabilistic experiment (closer to our concerns) would be “Choose a random n -bit string.” In this case the sample space S would be the set $S = \{0, 1\}^n$.
3. **Example 3:** Finally, a third probabilistic experiment would be “Choose a random number between 1 and n where each number is i chosen with probability proportional to i^2 .” In this case the sample space S would be the set $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$.

2 Probability distributions

A *probability distribution* $\mathcal{D}$ over a sample space S is defined by a probability weight $\mathcal{D}(s)$ associated with each outcome $s \in S$. These probability weights must be nonnegative (they can be zero) and they must sum to 1; thus we have

$$\mathcal{D}(s) \geq 0 \text{ for all } s \in S \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{s \in S} \mathcal{D}(s) = 1.$$

A probabilistic experiment naturally corresponds to a probability distribution over the relevant sample space. Returning to Example (1.) from above, for each person s in the world we would have $\mathcal{D}(s) = 1/N$ where N is the total number of people in the world. For Example (2.), we would have $\mathcal{D}(x) = \frac{1}{2^n}$ for each $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$. For Example (3.), since $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$, we would have $\mathcal{D}(i) = \frac{i^2}{n(n+1)(2n+1)/6}$ for each $i \in [n]$. The intuition to have in mind is that we pick a random element of the sample space S according to $\mathcal{D}$.

This last example illustrates that (of course) not all probability distributions need to put equal weights on all possible outcomes; when a distribution puts equal weight on all points in the sample space S we say it is the *uniform distribution* over S . Examples (1.) and (2.) above correspond to uniform distributions, Example (3.) does not.

Instead of writing $\mathcal{D}(x)$ to denote the probability of outcome $x \in S$, we sometimes write $\Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[x]$ or just $\Pr[x]$ if the distribution $\mathcal{D}$ is clear from the context.

3 Events, compound events and independence

An *event* is simply a subset $A \subseteq S$ of the sample space. The probability of an event A under distribution $\mathcal{D}$ over S is simply $\Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[A] = \sum_{s \in A} \Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[s]$. (Think of an event as “something that either does or doesn’t happen” when the probabilistic experiment takes place, i.e. when a random s is drawn according to $\mathcal{D}$.)

For Example (1.) above, one event would be the subset of human beings who are complexity theorists; the probability of this event would be the probability that a randomly selected person is a complexity theorist. For Example (2.), one event would be the set of all n -bit strings with exactly $n/2$ many ones (say that n is even); since there are $\binom{n}{n/2}$ elements in this set and the distribution is uniform, the probability of this event (i.e. the probability that a uniform random n -bit string has exactly half of its coordinates 1 and exactly half 0) would be $\binom{n}{n/2}/2^n$, which is $\Theta(1/\sqrt{n})$ by **Stirling’s approximation**. For Example (3.), one event would be the set $\{1, 2\}$; if $n = 6$, then for this event A under the distribution $\mathcal{D}$ described above we would have $\Pr[A] = \frac{1^2 + 2^2}{1^2 + \dots + 6^2} = \frac{5}{91}$.

Given two events $A, B \subseteq S$, the *compound event* corresponding to A and B is written $A \wedge B$ or $A \cap B$; its probability is

$$\Pr[A \wedge B] = \sum_{s \in A \cap B} \Pr[s].$$

(As mentioned above, sometimes it’s more natural to think of an event A as “a condition that may or may not be satisfied when a random s is drawn from $\mathcal{D}$.” The notation $A \wedge B$ captures this; its intuitive meaning is that when s is drawn, it satisfies both condition A and condition B . In the context of Example (1.), A might be that a randomly selected person has brown hair, and B might be that a randomly selected person is a complexity theorist; $A \wedge B$ would be the condition that a randomly selected person is a brown-haired complexity theorist. A more formal take on the situation is that A is a subset of people, namely the set of brown-haired people, and B is another subset of people, namely the set of complexity theorists, and consequently $A \cap B$ is the intersection of these two subsets, namely the set of all brown-haired complexity theorists.)

We have that

$$\Pr[A \wedge B] = \Pr[A|B] \cdot \Pr[B], \quad \text{where} \quad \Pr[A|B] = \frac{\sum_{s \in A \cap B} \Pr[s]}{\sum_{s \in B} \Pr[s]} = \frac{\Pr[A \wedge B]}{\Pr[B]}. \quad (1)$$

$\Pr[A|B]$ is the *conditional probability of A given B* . In Example (2.), we might have that A is the set of all n -bit strings with an even number of 1’s and B is the set of all n -bit strings that have

their first three bits all being 1; then $\Pr[A|B]$ would be the fraction of all n -bit strings of the form $111*^{n-3}$ that have an even number of 1's.

An easy consequence of Equation (1) is the following:

$$\Pr[A] = \overbrace{\Pr[A \wedge B] + \Pr[A \wedge \overline{B}]}^{\text{"law of total probability"}} \leq \Pr[B] + \Pr[A|\overline{B}] \Pr[B] \leq \Pr[B] + \Pr[A|\overline{B}];$$

we will use this on several occasions.

Events A, B are said to be *independent* if $\Pr[A \wedge B] = \Pr[A] \cdot \Pr[B]$. Let's return to Example (2.), where again the probabilistic experiment is drawing a uniform n -bit string (call it x). Are the events A and B described above independent? (Yes, assuming $n > 3$; think about why...). Let C be the event "at least half of the bits in x are 1." Are events B and C independent? (No; again, think about why...)

Intuitively, independence between events is very powerful and useful because "independent repetitions of a random experiment drives probabilities down very fast" — if we perform a random experiment which has "success probability" p independently k times, the probability that all k occurrences result in success is only p^k . (Note that if the original sample space for a probabilistic experiment is S , then the sample space corresponding to k executions of the probabilistic experiment is S^k , the set of all k -tuples of elements of S .)

4 Random variables, expectation, and linearity of expectation.

Given a sample space S and a distribution $\mathcal{D}$ over S , a *random variable* is a function X from S to $\mathbb{R}$. In the context of Example (1.), one possible random variable would be the function which, on input a person on Earth, outputs their height in centimeters. In Example (3.), one possible random variable would be the function $X(s) = 3s + 4$. We'll usually write random variables in **bold font** - this is a useful convention that can help (both the reader and the writer) "keep track of where the randomness is."

The *expectation* of a random variable $\mathbf{X}$ is "the average value it takes over a random draw from $\mathcal{D}$ "; more precisely, it is

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}] := \sum_{s \in S} X(s) \mathcal{D}(s) = \sum_a a \cdot \Pr[X = a].$$

Returning to the random variable $\mathbf{X}$ described above for Example (1.), $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}]$ would just be the average height in centimeters of a random person on earth. In Example (3.), with $n = 3$ (so $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$) we would have

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}] = (3 \cdot 1 + 4) \cdot \frac{1^2}{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} + (3 \cdot 2 + 4) \cdot \frac{2^2}{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} + (3 \cdot 3 + 4) \cdot \frac{3^2}{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2}.$$

The most important thing to know about expectation is the principle of *linearity of expectation*. This says that given any collection of random variables $\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_t$ over a sample space S , *whether or not they are independent* we have

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{X}_t] = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_1] + \dots + \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_t]$$

(think about why this is true!) This principle can often simplify your life; for example, consider Example (2.) where the random variable $\mathbf{X}$ is the number of 1's in a uniformly random n -bit string.

What is $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}]$? A direct application of the definition of expectation gives

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}] = \sum_{i=0}^n i \cdot \frac{\binom{n}{i}}{2^n},$$

(since a uniform random n -bit string has i ones with probability $\binom{n}{i}/2^n$). It can be shown that this evaluates to $n/2$, but linearity of expectation makes this very easy to see: we have $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_1 + \cdots + \mathbf{X}_n$ where $\mathbf{X}_i \in \{0, 1\}$ is 1 if the i -th bit of the string is 1. Applying linearity of expectation we get that

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_1 + \cdots + \mathbf{X}_n] = \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_1] + \cdots + \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_n] = n \cdot (1/2)$$

since each of the n random variables $\mathbf{X}_i$ has $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{X}_i] = 1/2$.