

# Lecture 1 – Events and Probability

A **discrete probability space** is a model to capture the set of discrete outcomes of a random process. E.g., picking a prime from the first 100 numbers. More formally, it is a pair  $(\Omega, p)$ , where  $\Omega$  is a countable set (possibly finite) and  $p : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is the probability function such that  $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p_{\omega} = 1$ . A subset  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is called an **event** and its probability is naturally defined as  $\Pr(A) := \sum_{\omega \in A} p_{\omega}$ . More examples:

1. Place  $r$  balls in  $n$  bins uniformly at random. Each assignment of balls corresponds to a map from  $[r] \rightarrow [n]$ . Therefore,  $\Omega$  is the set of all such functions, and because of uniformity each mapping is assigned the probability  $1/n^r$ .
2. Randomly shuffle a deck of  $n$  cards.  $\Omega$  is the set of all permutations with probability  $1/n!$ .
3. Throw a fair die  $n$  times.  $\Omega = [6]^n$ , that is, the set of  $n$ -tuples with entries from  $1, \dots, 6$  and probability  $1/6^n$ .

Claim: If  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ , are a countable set of pairwise mutually disjoint events then

$$\Pr(\cup_i A_i) = \sum_i \Pr(A_i).$$

Claim: For any two events  $A, B \subseteq \Omega$ , we have

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B).$$

As a consequence, by induction we have the **union bound**: For any countable sequence of events  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ ,

$$\Pr(\bigcup_{i \geq 1} A_i) \leq \sum_{i \geq 1} \Pr(A_i). \tag{1}$$

Two events  $A, B \subseteq \Omega$  are said to be **independent** if

$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B). \tag{2}$$

A finite sequence of events  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  are said to be **mutually independent** iff for all  $I \subseteq [k]$

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

What is the probability that non of the mutually independent events occur? It is  $1 - \Pr(\cup_i A_i)$ . By inclusion-exclusion we get

$$1 - \Pr(\bigcup_i A_i) = 1 - \sum_{\ell \geq 1} (-1)^{\ell-1} \sum_{I \subseteq [k]: |I|=\ell} \Pr(A_I) = \prod_{i=1}^k (1 - \Pr(A_i)).$$

**¶1. Example** : A set of events that are pairwise independent but not mutually independent. Toss three fair coins independently. The probability space is the set of all 3-tuples with entries {head, tail}. Let  $A_{ij}$  be the event that the  $i$ th and  $j$ th coin have the same value. Then  $\Pr(A_{ij}) = 1/2$ . If  $i \neq j \neq k$  then

$$\Pr(A_{ij} \cap A_{jk}) = \Pr(\text{all coins are same}) = \frac{1}{4}.$$

So the events are pairwise independent. However, the events are not mutually independent since

$$\Pr(A_{12} \cap A_{23} \cap A_{13}) = \Pr(\text{all coins are same}) = \frac{1}{4}$$

which is larger than  $1/8$ , the product of the individual probabilities; note that  $A_{12} \cap A_{23}$  implies  $A_{13}$  and so intuitively the three events are not mutually independent.

The **conditional probability** that event  $B$  occurs given  $A$  is defined as

$$\Pr(B|A) := \frac{\Pr(B \cap A)}{\Pr(A)}.$$

Note the normalization by the probability of event  $A$ .

## 1 Applications

Testing if two univariate polynomials  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  of degree at most  $d$  are the same. This is interesting when the polynomials are not given in their coefficient representation and are in some other form, for instance, an algebraic circuit. A simple probabilistic algorithm does the following: For a constant  $c > 1$ , pick a number  $a$  uniformly at random from the set  $\{1, \dots, cd\}$ . If  $f(a) \neq g(a)$ , then output not equivalent; otherwise, output equivalent. Clearly, the algorithm can go wrong if the two polynomials are not equivalent but  $f(a) = g(a)$  and it outputs equivalent. What is the probability that the algorithm errs? The probability space is the set of numbers  $1, \dots, cd$  each picked with probability  $1/(cd)$ . The event  $A$  that we go wrong is if  $a$  is a root of the polynomial  $f(x) - g(x)$ . There are at most  $d$  such roots and probability that  $a$  is one of them is at most  $1/c$ . Therefore,  $\Pr(\text{Algo is wrong}) \leq 1/c$ .

To boost this probability, we can run the experiment a couple of times say  $k$  times. In each run, we have a choice: either pick a number with replacement or without. We would expect the probability of making error in the latter format to be smaller than the former, and indeed that is the case. Let  $A_i$  be the event that we fail with replacement, where each of the runs are independent. Therefore, the probability that the algorithm fails to detect non-equivalence all the  $k$  times is

$$\Pr(\bigcap_{i=1}^k A_i) = \prod_{i=1}^k \Pr(A_i) \leq c^{-k}.$$

To consider probabilities without replacement, we need conditional probabilities. The probability that we fail at  $i$ th step given we have failed in the previous steps is if we pick a root of the polynomial  $f - g$  that is different from the  $(i - 1)$  roots picked in the earlier rounds (as we also failed in the earlier rounds); this can be done in  $(d - (i - 1))$  ways out of the  $(cd - (i - 1))$  remaining numbers, that is,

$$\Pr(A_i | A_1, \dots, A_{i-1}) \leq \frac{d - (i - 1)}{cd - (i - 1)}.$$

By induction,

$$\Pr\left(\bigcap_i A_i\right) = \prod_{i=1}^k \Pr(A_i | A_1, \dots, A_{i-1}) \leq \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{d - (i - 1)}{cd - (i - 1)} \leq c^{-k}$$

since for  $i \geq 1$ ,  $(d - (i - 1))/(cd - (i - 1)) \leq 1/c$ .

### 1.1 Verifying Matrix Multiplication

$A, B, C \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ , check if  $AB = C$  modulo two. Let  $\mathbf{r} \in 0, 1^n$  be chosen uniformly at random. Check if  $AB\mathbf{r} = C\mathbf{r}$ ; if not output not equal, otherwise yes. Simple randomized algorithm taking  $\Theta(n^2)$  operations.

Claim: If  $AB \neq C$ , then  $\Pr AB\mathbf{r} = C\mathbf{r} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ . Let  $D := AB - C \neq 0$ . Then  $D\mathbf{r} = 0$  gives us a  $n$  linear relations on the coordinates of  $\mathbf{r}$ . In particular, let's assume that  $d_{11} \neq 0$  then we get that

$$r_1 \equiv - \sum_{j>1} r_j d_j / d_{11} \pmod{2}$$

That is once the  $r_j$ 's, for  $j = 2, \dots, n$ , are fixed then there is one choice of  $r_1 \pmod 2$  that works. Now we observe that choosing  $\mathbf{r} \in \{0, 1\}^n$  or choosing individual  $r_i$ 's in  $\{0, 1\}$  give us the same probability function over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . Therefore, we can think of choosing the coordinates  $r_2, \dots, r_n$  and then the probability that  $r_1$  takes the value above is at most  $1/2$ . To formalize this, we need the following:

**Lemma 1 (Law of Total Probability)** *If  $A_1, \dots$ , are mutually disjoint events in  $\Omega$  that partition it then*

$$\Pr(B) = \sum_{i \geq 1} \Pr(B \cap A_i).$$

Using this we have the following chain:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(AB\mathbf{r} \equiv C\mathbf{r}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^{n-1}} \Pr(AB\mathbf{r} \equiv C\mathbf{r} \mid (r_2, \dots, r_n) = \mathbf{x}) \\ &\leq \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^{n-1}} \Pr(r_1 \equiv -\sum_{j>1} r_j d_j / d_{11} \pmod 2 \mid (r_2, \dots, r_n) = \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^{n-1}} \Pr(r_1 \equiv -\sum_{j>1} r_j d_j / d_{11} \pmod 2) \cdot \Pr((r_2, \dots, r_n) = \mathbf{x}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^{n-1}} \Pr((r_2, \dots, r_n) = \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

## 1.2 Schwartz-Zippel Lemma

We now consider the following generalization of the 1-d case of polynomial identity testing.

**Lemma 2** *Let  $F(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  be a non-zero polynomial total degree  $d$  polynomial over a field  $K$ . Let  $S \subseteq K$  be a finite subset and  $r_1, \dots, r_n$  be chosen independently at random from  $S$ . Then*

$$\Pr(F(\mathbf{r}) = 0) \leq \frac{d}{|S|}.$$

*Proof.* Proof is by induction on  $n$ . For  $n = 1$  the result follows from the fundamental theorem of algebra.

Since  $F \neq 0$ , if we express as  $F(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=0}^d x_1^i F_i(x_2, \dots, x_n)$  then there is a largest index  $j$  such that  $F_j \neq 0$  and  $\deg(F_j) \leq d - j$ . By the law of total probability we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(F(\mathbf{r}) = 0) &= \Pr(F(\mathbf{r}) = 0 \cap F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) = 0) + \Pr(F(\mathbf{r}) = 0 \cap F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) \neq 0) \\ &= \Pr(F(\mathbf{r}) = 0 \mid F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) = 0) \Pr(F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) = 0) \\ &\quad + \Pr(F(\mathbf{r}) = 0 \cap F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) \neq 0) \Pr(F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) \neq 0) \\ &\leq \Pr(F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) = 0) + \Pr(F(\mathbf{r}) = 0 \cap F_j(r_2, \dots, r_n) \neq 0). \end{aligned}$$

By induction the first term is  $(d-j)/|S|$  and second term is  $j/|S|$ , which gives us the desired result. **Q.E.D.**