Official Title: Paradoxes in Probability

Title I wanted to use: You are bad at Probability

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What is a Paradox in the context of Mathematics?

- Not particularly well defined, some things just happen to be named a paradox
- The term paradox comes from the ancient Greek terms for "against" or "beyond" $(\pi \alpha \rho \dot{\alpha})$ and "expectation" or "opinion" $(\delta \delta \xi \alpha)$
- Typically you will see them come in one of two forms
 - A logical sequence or construction of an object which "breaks the rules" of Mathematics (falsidical)
 - A correct result which does not conform to our intuition (veridical)
- Historically, Mathematics was developed to solve real world problems, so many of the structures obey a sense of real world intuition



Some well known Paradoxes (there are a lot)

- The Banach-Tarski paradox
- Russel's paradox
- $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1 = -\frac{1}{2}$
- $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} n = \frac{1}{4}$
- Gabriel's Horn
- Hilbert's Grand Hotel
- The friendship paradox
- The intransitive dice paradox
- The potato paradox
- The staircase paradox
- The string girdling Earth paradox
- Simpson's paradox
- Freedman's paradox
- The Will Rogers phenomenon
- Lindley's paradox
- The inspection paradox
- Braess's paradox
- Berkson's paradox
- The accuracy paradox
- Abelson's paradox
- The false positive paradox
- The Cramer-Euler paradox
- Grice's paradox
- The two envelope paradox
- Propheting's paradov



The Banach-Tarski Paradox (veridical)

- The Paradox: A three dimensional ball may be decomposed into five disjoint sets such that after each is subjected to a rigid transformation, the resulting set is two copies of the original ball
- ► Our intuition tells us that the volume of a set in ℝ³ must be preserved under rigid transformations
- ► Our intuition also tells us that the **volume** of a set in \mathbb{R}^3 is equal to the sum of **volumes** of disjoint subsets
- These are both correct statements, if we restrict the word volume to only apply to certain sets
- The Banach-Tarski "paradox" relies on decomposing the ball into non-measurable sets
- I encourage you to look up this decomposition, it is surprisingly easy to understand considering the result



0 = 1 (falsidical)

Consider the following computation:

$$0 = (1 - 1)$$

= (1 - 1) + (1 - 1)
= (1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + \cdots
= 1 + (-1 + 1) + (-1 + 1) + \cdots
= 1

- This relies on the misuse of infinite series
- In particular, they must be defined in terms of a limit of the partial sums, which in this example do not converge
- Also, "..." can be a very misleading symbol, but I don't have time to go into that



Nature of the examples discussed today

- Each result discussed here is a veridical type paradox
 - Except one, because I want to emphasize an important point
- The examples will each begin with a question that should be extremely easy to understand regardless of mathematical background
 - So you can take these to parties and impress all of your friends
- Each Paradox in Probability will be based on a question about the probability of an event or the expected value or distribution of a random variable
 - Distinct from paradoxes in Statistics, but those are also very interesting to consider
- Audience participation!!!!! When you see this symbol: !!! just shout out your gut feeling answer
 - But if you are familiar with the question, please let me have my fun (be quiet)
- I will certainly run out of time before presenting all of my examples
 - Come find me if you want to hear more!



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$$1 - P(n) = \frac{364}{365} \cdot \frac{363}{365} \cdot \frac{362}{365} \cdots \frac{365 - (n-1)}{365}$$











▶
$$P(22) = 0.476$$
 and $P(23) = 0.507$

• Thus, the answer is $n^* = 23$

- Why do most people find this counterintuitive?
- ► As an individual, the probability that one other person has your birthday is 1/365
 - On average you would have to meet 365 people before meeting one with your birthday
- We naturally conflate this situation with the question of the Birthday Paradox, which is different!



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- What should your choice be? Does it make a difference? !!!



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- Conditional on at least one child being a boy, one of the above outcomes is impossible, leaving three equally likely outcomes
- ► Thus, the probability that there is a girl, given that there is at least one boy, is ²/₃!



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▶ Thus, the probability that the other child is a girl is $\frac{14}{27} \approx 0.52$



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- Conditioning on no odd outcomes is not the same as removing all odd outcomes



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Die Against the Odds - Crank it up to 11

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- NO! The conditional probabilities put very low weight on long sequences of rolls without stopping
- We can again explicitly compute this expected value



- ► For a general N sided die:
 - ► Let *T* be the random variable which is the number of rolls until the first 6
 - \blacktriangleright Let E be the event that all rolls are even

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[T|E] &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \mathbb{P}(T=k|E) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(T=k \text{ and } E)}{\mathbb{P}(E)} \end{split}$$

▶ It is not difficult to compute $\mathbb{P}(T = k \text{ and } E)$ and $\mathbb{P}(E)$:

$$\mathbb{P}(T = k \text{ and } E) = \left(\frac{\frac{N}{2} - 1}{N}\right)^{k-1} \frac{1}{N}$$
$$\mathbb{P}(E) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\frac{N}{2} - 1}{N}\right)^{k-1} \frac{1}{N}$$



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- Less than 2!



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 $X = (\cos(\theta)\cos(\varphi), \sin(\theta)\cos(\varphi), \sin(\varphi))$

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- ► The random variables θ and φ are **independent** with densities $f_1(\theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi}$ $f_2(\varphi) = \frac{1}{2}\cos(\varphi)$
- Thus, when parameterized in spherical coordinates the density of X is

$$f(\theta,\varphi) = \frac{1}{4\pi}\cos(\varphi)$$



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 - Conditional distributions come from conditional probabilities
- Conditional densities are perfectly fine to deal with, but a density function always appears inside an integral!















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 - Alice finishes with an average of 18 rolls



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- Both can be computed explicitly, but we won't do that here
 - In particular, Bob's time is typically done with computations related to a Markov chain
- Results by Monte Carlo simulation:
 - Alice finishes with an average of 18 rolls
 - Bob finishes with an average of 258 rolls


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 - Note: $258 = 6 + 6^2 + 6^3$
- This makes sense because in order to roll three 6's in a row you need to roll at least three 6's



- ► Alice rolls a die until a result of 6 is seen three times
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- Alice rolls a die until a result of 6 is seen three times
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- Who has a lower expected number of rolls conditional on all rolls being even? !!!



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- Results by Monte Carlo simulation:
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- Even though you have to roll at least three in order to roll three in a row, the skewed probabilities push the likelihood of finishing with a run of three towards the beginning



► Alice flips a coin repeatedly until seeing the sequence HTH



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 - But if Bob doesn't end on the next flip (...xxHTH) he has already begun his target sequence again



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 - ▶ Alice finishes on average with 10 rolls



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 - ▶ Alice finishes on average with 10 rolls
 - **Bob** finishes on average with 8 rolls



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- Consider again that the sequence starts with ...xxHT
- They are equally likely to win from this point
- Penny's Game is **non-transitive**:
 - ► For any sequence of three coin tosses, there is a different sequence that has greater than 0.5 probability of winning



What are the lessons here?

- Humans often don't have good intuition for probability
- This is especially true for conditional probability
 - Every example given involved conditional probabilities, except for the first (Birthday Paradox) and the last (Penny's Game)
- Every example was also veridical, except the Great Circle Paradox which is somewhere on the boundary between veridical and falsidical



Conditional Expectation (measure theoretic)

 This talk is not complete without the definition of conditional expectation

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space, let X be an integrable random variable, and let \mathcal{G} be a sub- σ -algebra of \mathcal{F} .

Suppose a random variable Y is $\mathcal G\text{-measurable}$ and satisfies

$$\int_A Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_A X d\mathbb{P}$$

for all $A \in \mathbb{G}$. Then we call Y the **conditional expectation** of X given \mathcal{G} and write

$$Y = \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]$$

From this we define ${\bf conditional\ probability}$ of and event E given ${\mathcal G}$ to be

$$\mathbb{P}(E|\mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}[1_E|\mathcal{G}]$$



Thanks for your attention!

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