Lecture 15: More Probability.

Events, Conditional Probability, Independence, Bayes' Rule

Modeling Uncertainty: Probability Space

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- 4. Event: "subset of outcomes."  $A \subseteq \Omega$ .  $Pr[A] = \sum_{w \in A} Pr[\omega]$
- 5. Some calculations.

#### CS70: Onwards.

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- 1. Probability Basics Review
- 2. Events
- 3. Conditional Probability
- Independence of Events
- 5. Bayes' Rule

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*A* is set of outcomes with *n* heads.  $|A| = {2n \choose n}$ . Approximation: roughly  $1/\sqrt{\pi n}$ .

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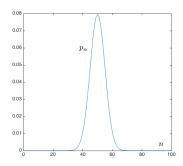
Approximation: roughly  $1/\sqrt{\pi n}$ .

 $\implies$  not surprising to have something like  $n + \sqrt{\pi n}/2$  heads

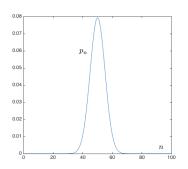
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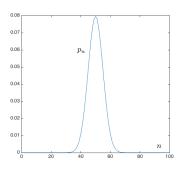


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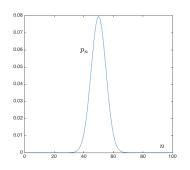
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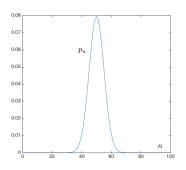
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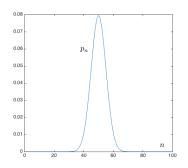
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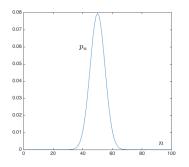
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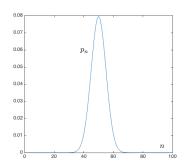
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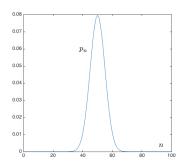


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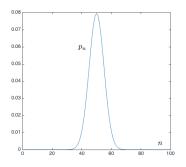
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Observe:

Concentration around mean:

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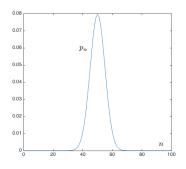


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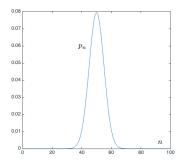
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- Concentration around mean: Law of Large Numbers;
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Obvious. Straightforward. Use definition of probability of events.

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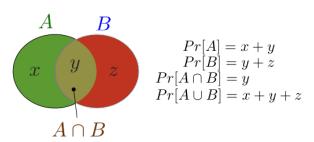
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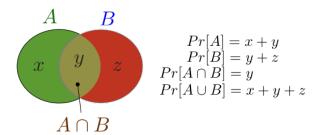
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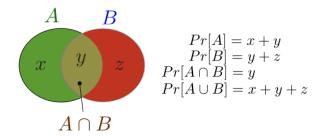


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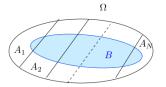
Another view.

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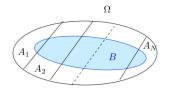


Another view. Any  $\omega \in A \cup B$  is in  $A \cap \overline{B}$ ,  $A \cup B$ , or  $\overline{A} \cap B$ . So, add it up.

Assume that  $\Omega$  is the union of the disjoint sets  $A_1, \ldots, A_N$ .



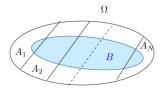
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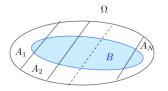


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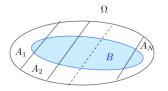


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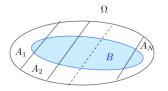
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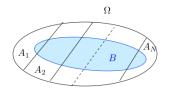
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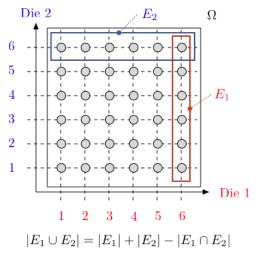
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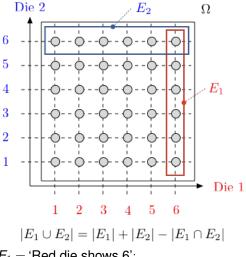
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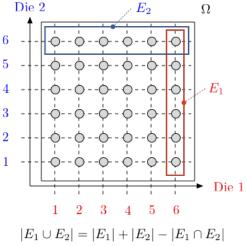
Add it up.



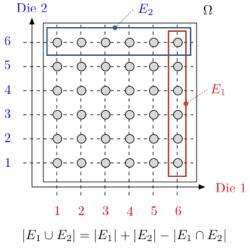




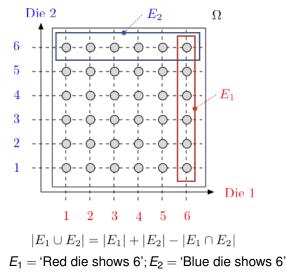
 $E_1$  = 'Red die shows 6';



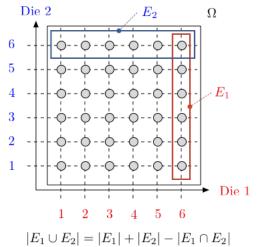
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 $E_1$  = 'Red die shows 6';  $E_2$  = 'Blue die shows 6'  $E_1 \cup E_2$  = 'At least one die shows 6'

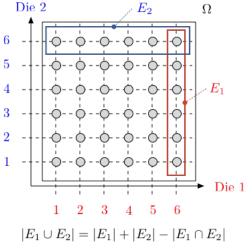


$$E_1 \cup E_2 =$$
 'At least one die shows 6'  $Pr[E_1] = \frac{6}{36}$ ,



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Two coin flips.

Two coin flips. First flip is heads.

Two coin flips. First flip is heads. Probability of two heads?

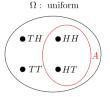
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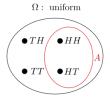
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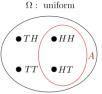


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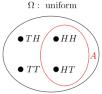
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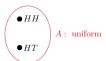
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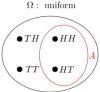


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Event B = two heads.

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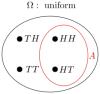
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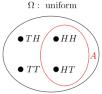


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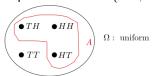
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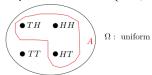


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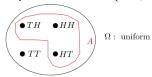
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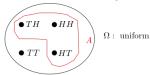
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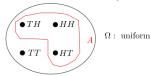


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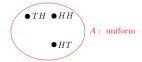
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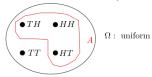
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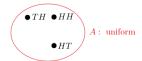
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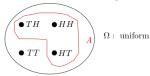
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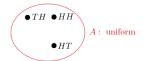
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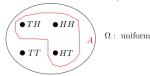
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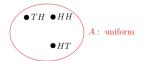
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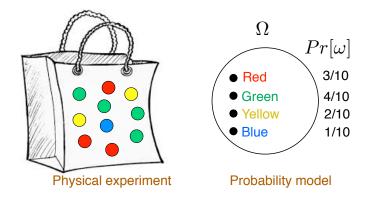


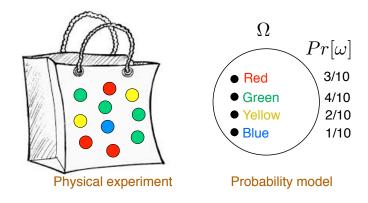
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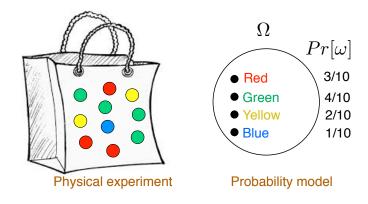
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The probability of two heads if at least one flip is heads. **The probability of** B **given** A is 1/3.

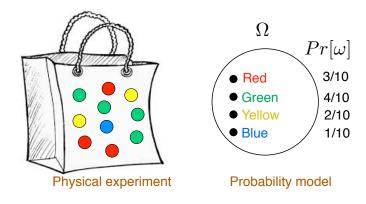




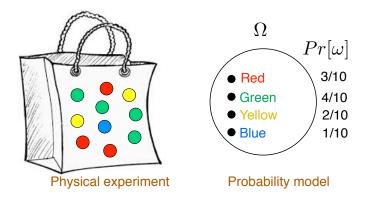
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$$Pr[\text{Red}|\text{Red or Green}] =$$

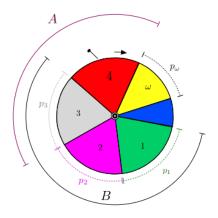


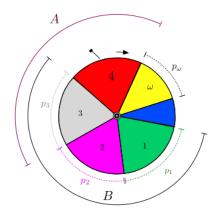
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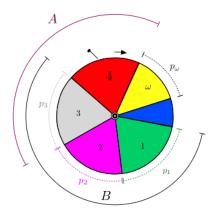
$$\Omega = \{ \text{Red, Green, Yellow, Blue} \}$$
 
$$Pr[\text{Red}|\text{Red or Green}] = \frac{3}{7} = \frac{Pr[\text{Red} \cap (\text{Red or Green})]}{Pr[\text{Red or Green}]}$$

Consider  $\Omega = \{1, 2, ..., N\}$  with  $Pr[n] = p_n$ .





$$Pr[A|B] =$$



$$Pr[A|B] = \frac{p_3}{p_1 + p_2 + p_3} = \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]}$$

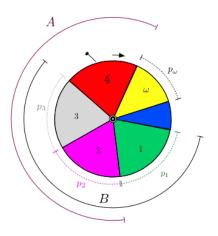
## Yet another non-uniform example

Consider  $\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$  with  $Pr[n] = p_n$ .

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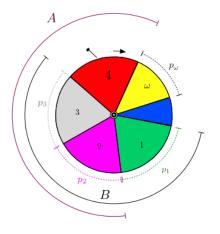
# Yet another non-uniform example

Consider  $\Omega = \{1, 2, ..., N\}$  with  $Pr[n] = p_n$ . Let  $A = \{2, 3, 4\}, B = \{1, 2, 3\}.$ 



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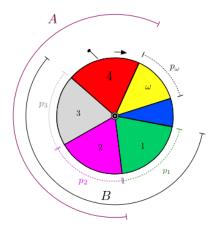
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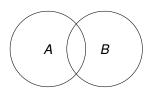
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$$Pr[A|B] = \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_1 + p_2 + p_3} = \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]}$$

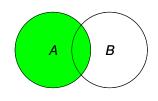
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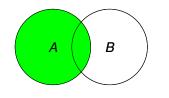
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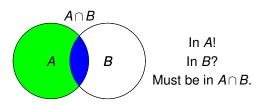
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In *A*! In *B*?

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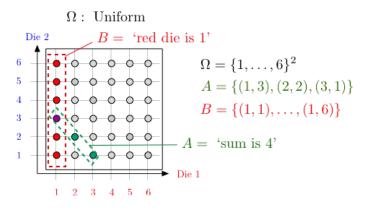
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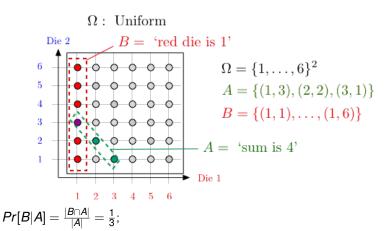
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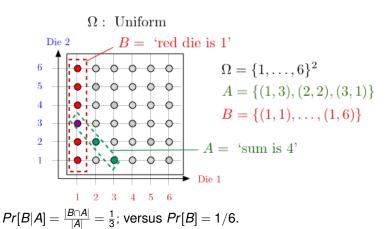
$$In B?$$

$$Must be in  $A \cap B$ .
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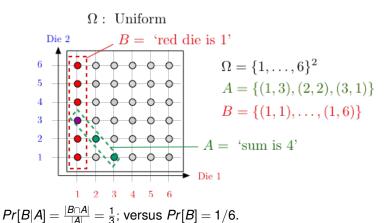
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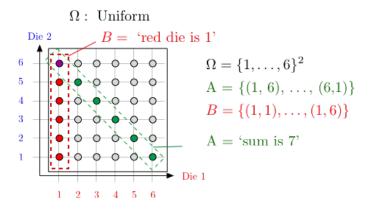


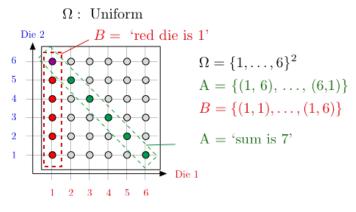


Toss a red and a blue die, sum is 4, What is probability that red is 1?

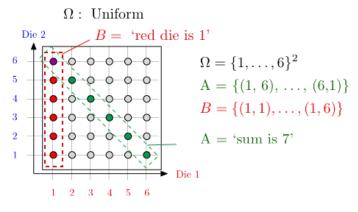


B is more likely given A.



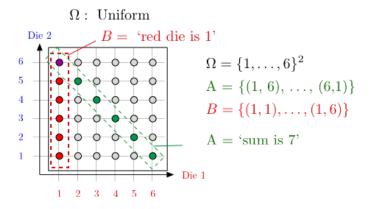


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; versus  $Pr[B] = \frac{1}{6}$ .

Toss a red and a blue die, sum is 7, what is probability that red is 1?



$$Pr[B|A] = \frac{|B \cap A|}{|A|} = \frac{1}{6}$$
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Observing A does not change your mind about the likelihood of B.

Suppose I toss 3 balls into 3 bins.

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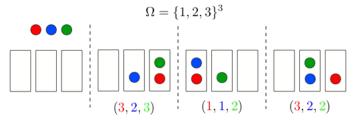
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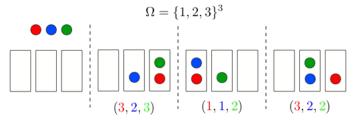
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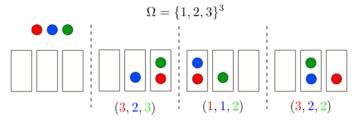


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Pr[B]

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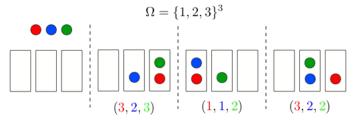
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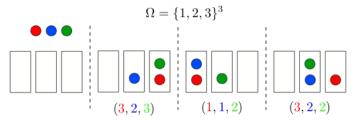
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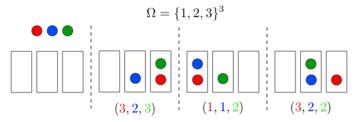
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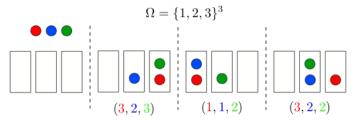
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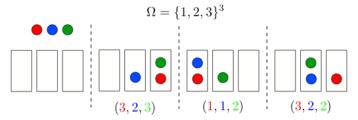


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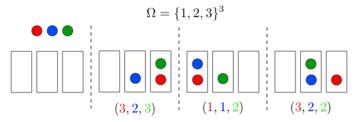
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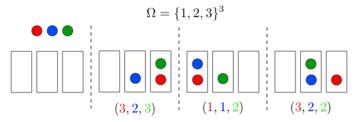
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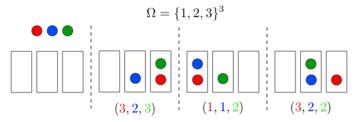
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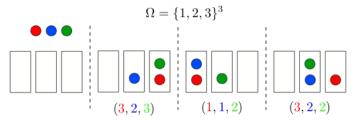
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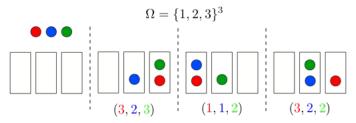
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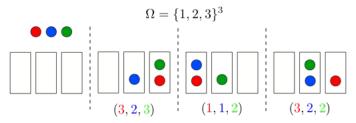
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A is less likely given B:

# Emptiness..

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A is less likely given B:

Second bin is empty  $\implies$  first bin is more likely to contain ball(s).

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The likelihood of 51st heads does not depend on the previous flips.

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Thus, the result holds for n+1.

An example.

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Random experiment: Pick a person at random.

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Smoking increases the probability of lung cancer by 17%.

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#### Conclusion:

- Smoking increases the probability of lung cancer by 17%.
- Smoking causes lung cancer.

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Tesla owners are more likely to be rich.

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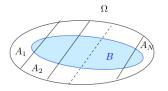
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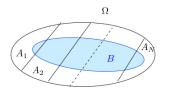
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More about such questions later. For fun, check "N. Taleb: Fooled by randomness."

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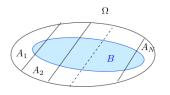
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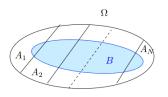


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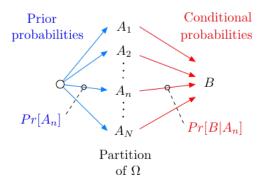
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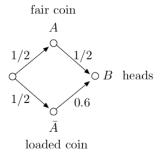
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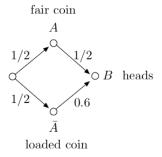
$$Pr[A|B] = \frac{Pr[A]Pr[B|A]}{Pr[B]} = \frac{(1/2)(1/2)}{(1/2)(1/2) + (1/2)0.6} \approx 0.45.$$

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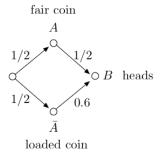


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Imagine 100 situations, among which m:=100(1/2)(1/2) are such that  $\bar{A}$  and  $\bar{B}$  occur and n:=100(1/2)(0.6) are such that  $\bar{A}$  and  $\bar{B}$  occur.

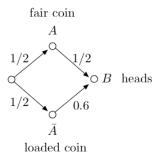
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- ▶ When flipping coins, A = coin 1 yields heads and B = coin 2 yields tails are independent;  $Pr[A \cap B] = \frac{1}{4}$ ,  $Pr[A]Pr[B] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ .
- ▶ When throwing 3 balls into 3 bins, A = bin 1 is empty and B = bin 2 is empty are not independent;  $Pr[A \cap B] = \frac{1}{27}, Pr[A]Pr[B] = \left(\frac{8}{27}\right)\left(\frac{8}{27}\right)$ .

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# Independence and conditional probability

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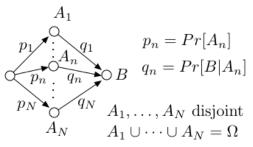
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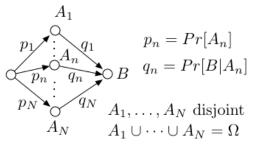
$$Pr[A|B] = Pr[A] \Leftrightarrow \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]} = Pr[A] \Leftrightarrow Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[A]Pr[B].$$

Another picture: We imagine that there are N possible causes  $A_1, \dots, A_N$ .

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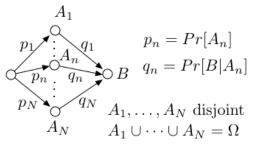
Another picture: We imagine that there are N possible causes  $A_1, \ldots, A_N$ .



Imagine 100 situations, among which  $100p_nq_n$  are such that  $A_n$  and B occur, for n = 1,...,N.

Thus, among the  $100\sum_{m}p_{m}q_{m}$  situations where B occurred, there are  $100p_{n}q_{n}$  where  $A_{n}$  occurred.

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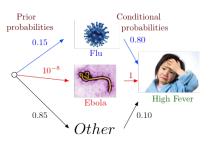


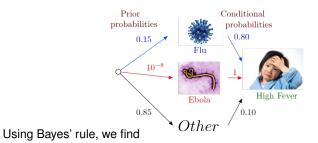
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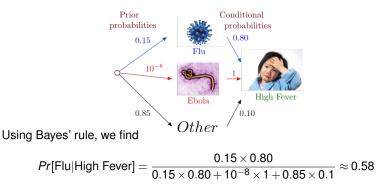
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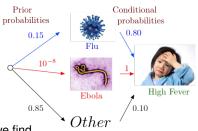
Hence,

$$Pr[A_n|B] = \frac{p_n q_n}{\sum_m p_m q_m}.$$



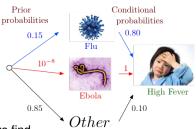






$$Pr[\text{Flu}|\text{High Fever}] = \frac{0.15 \times 0.80}{0.15 \times 0.80 + 10^{-8} \times 1 + 0.85 \times 0.1} \approx 0.58$$

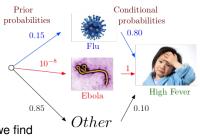
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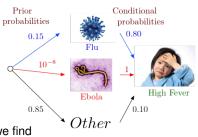
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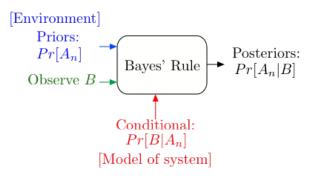
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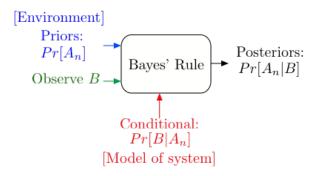
These are the posterior probabilities. One says that 'Flu' is the Most Likely a Posteriori (MAP) cause of the high fever.

# Bayes' Rule Operations

## Bayes' Rule Operations

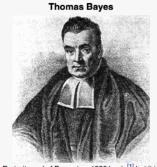


## Bayes' Rule Operations



Bayes' Rule is the canonical example of how information changes our opinions.

#### **Thomas Bayes**



Portrait used of Bayes in a 1936 book, [1] but it is doubtful whether the portrait is actually of him. [2] No earlier portrait or claimed portrait survives.

Born c. 1701

Died

London, England

7 April 1761 (aged 59) Tunbridge Wells, Kent, England

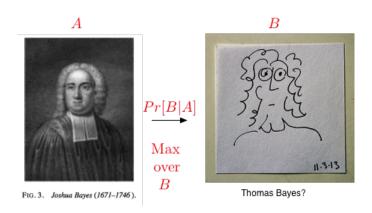
Residence Tunbridge Wells, Kent, England

Nationality English

Known for Bayes' theorem

Source: Wikipedia.

# **Thomas Bayes**



A Bayesian picture of Thomas Bayes.

Let's watch TV!!

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Random Experiment: Pick a random male.

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- ightharpoonup Pr[A] = 0.0016, (.16 % of the male population is affected.)
- ▶ Pr[B|A] = 0.80 (80% chance of positive test with disease.)
- ▶  $Pr[B|\overline{A}] = 0.10$  (10% chance of positive test without disease.)

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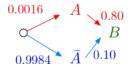
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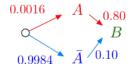
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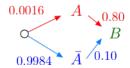
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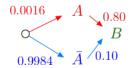
$$Pr[A|B]$$
???



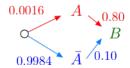




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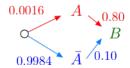
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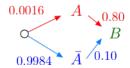
A 1.3% chance of prostate cancer with a positive PSA test.



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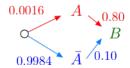
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Impotence...



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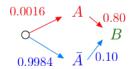
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All these are possible:

$$Pr[A|B] < Pr[A]; Pr[A|B] > Pr[A]; Pr[A|B] = Pr[A].$$