

BBM 205 Discrete Mathematics
Hacettepe University
<http://web.cs.hacettepe.edu.tr/~bbm205>

Lecture 9b: Events, Conditional Probability, Independence, Bayes' Rule

Resources:
Kenneth Rosen, "Discrete Mathematics and App."
<http://www.eecs70.org/>

CS70: On to Calculation.

Events, Conditional Probability, Independence, Bayes' Rule

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

Probability Basics Review

Setup:

- ▶ Random Experiment.
Flip a fair coin twice.
- ▶ Probability Space.
 - ▶ **Sample Space:** Set of outcomes, Ω .
 $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$
(Note: **Not** $\Omega = \{H, T\}$ with two picks!)
 - ▶ **Probability:** $Pr[\omega]$ for all $\omega \in \Omega$.
 $Pr[HH] = \dots = Pr[TT] = 1/4$
 1. $0 \leq Pr[\omega] \leq 1$.
 2. $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} Pr[\omega] = 1$.

Set notation review

Ω

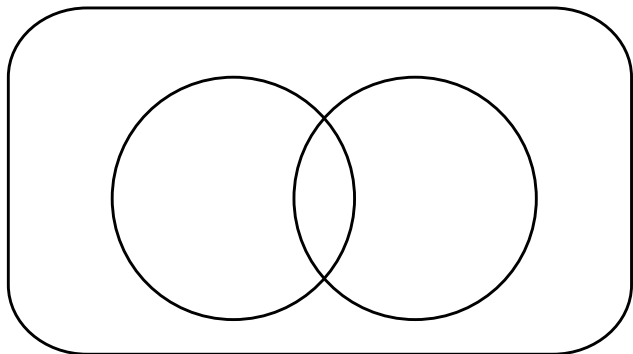


Figure: Two events

Ω

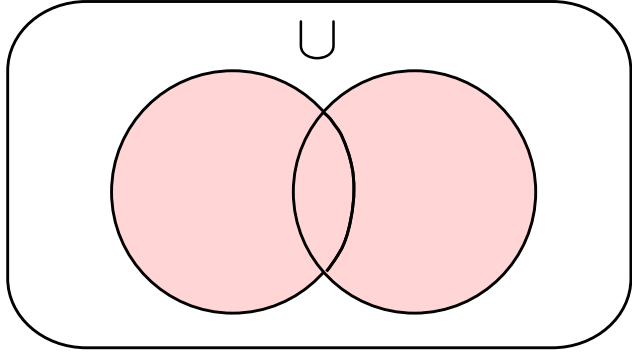


Figure: Union (or)

Ω

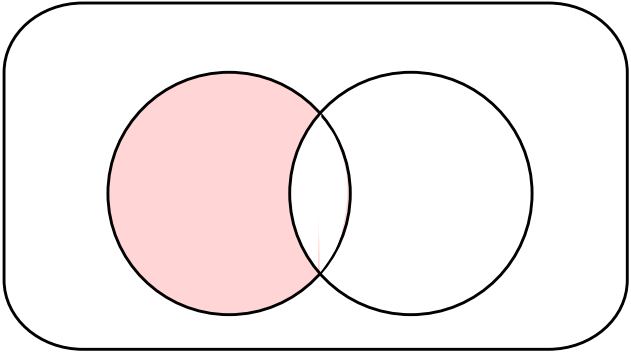


Figure: Difference (A , not B)

Ω

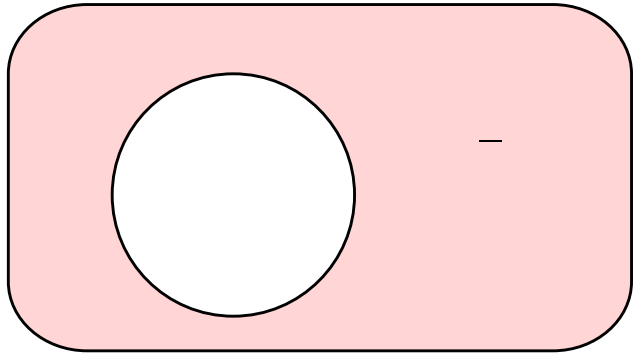


Figure: Complement (not)

Ω

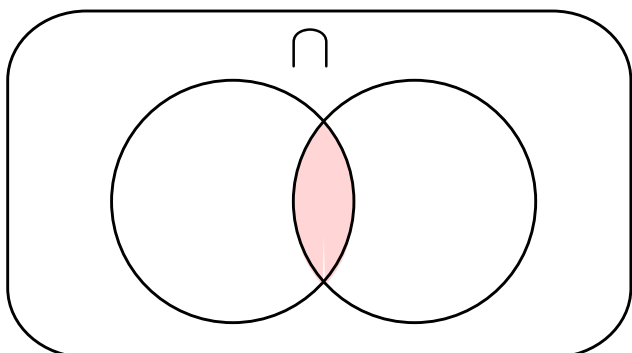


Figure: Intersection (and)

Ω

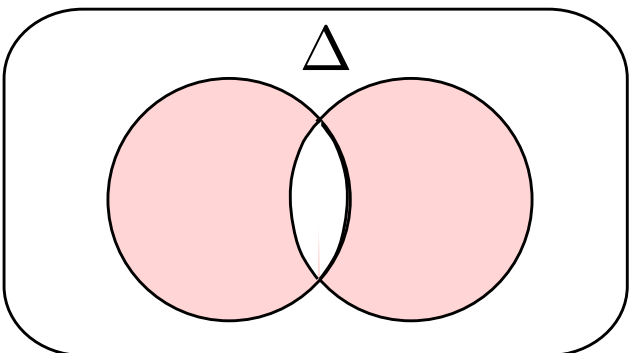


Figure: Symmetric difference (only one)

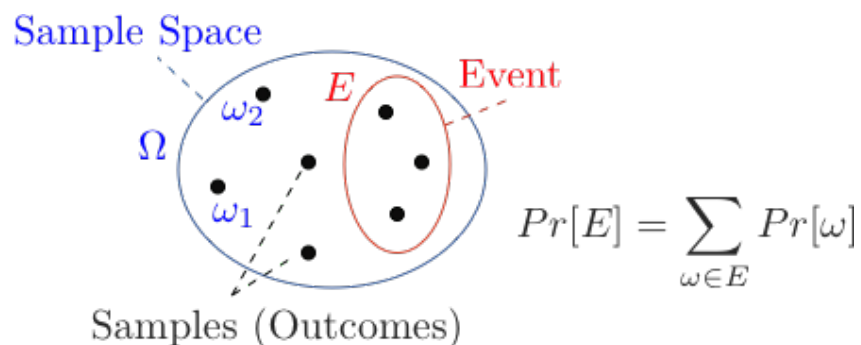
Probability of exactly one 'heads' in two coin flips?

Idea: Sum the probabilities of all the different outcomes that have exactly one 'heads': HT, TH .

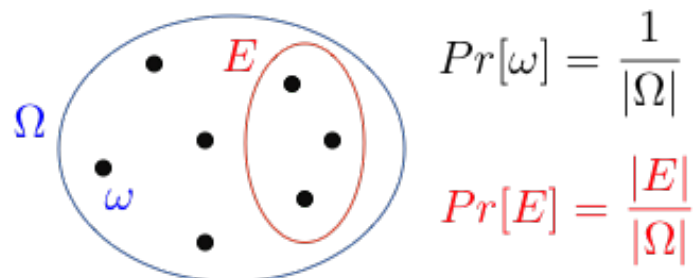
This leads to a definition!

Definition:

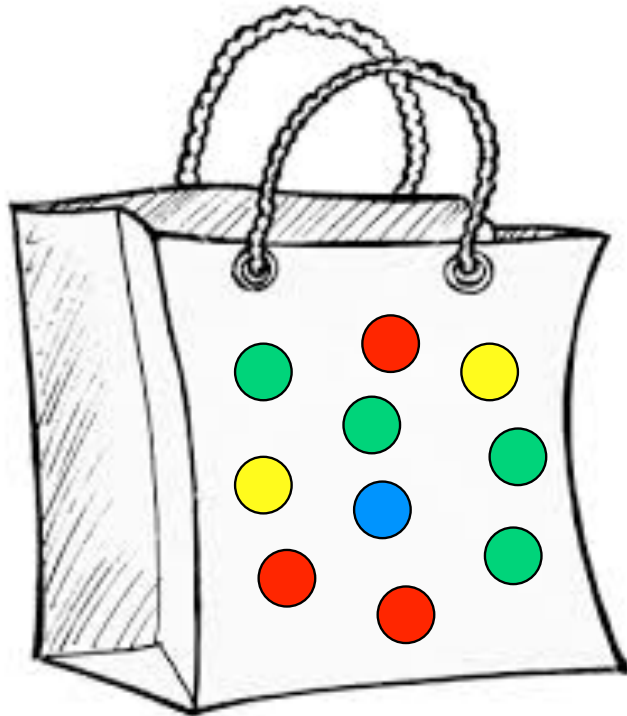
- ▶ An **event**, E , is a subset of outcomes: $E \subset \Omega$.
- ▶ The **probability of E** is defined as $Pr[E] = \sum_{\omega \in E} Pr[\omega]$.



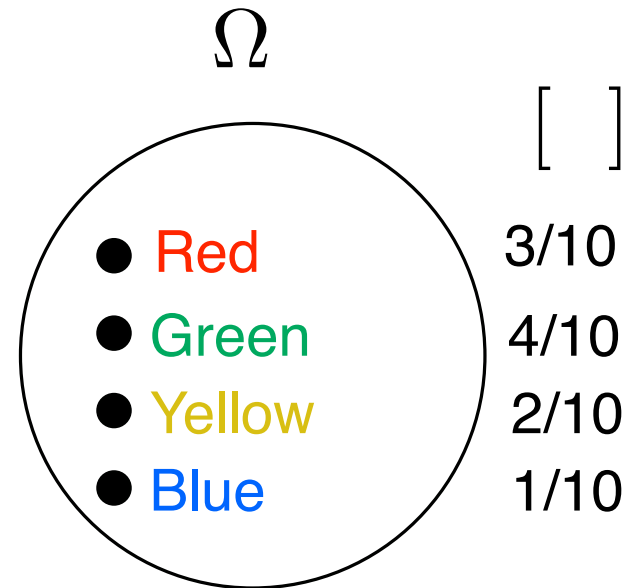
Uniform Probability Space



Event: Example



Physical experiment



Probability model

$$\Omega = \{\text{Red, Green, Yellow, Blue}\}$$

$$Pr[\text{Red}] = \frac{3}{10}, Pr[\text{Green}] = \frac{4}{10}, \text{ etc.}$$

$$E = \{\text{Red, Green}\} \Rightarrow Pr[E] = \frac{3+4}{10} = \frac{3}{10} + \frac{4}{10} = Pr[\text{Red}] + Pr[\text{Green}].$$

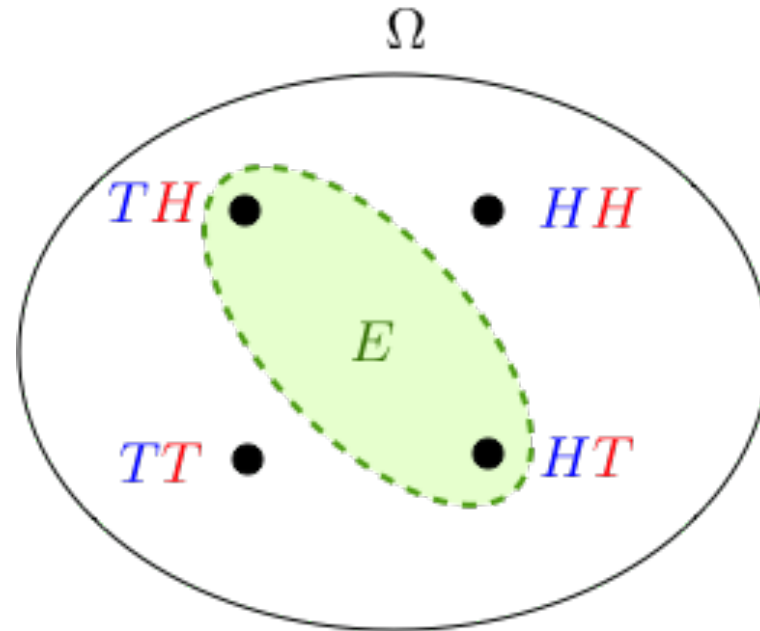
Probability of exactly one heads in two coin flips?

Sample Space, $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$.

Uniform probability space:

$$Pr[HH] = Pr[HT] = Pr[TH] = Pr[TT] = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Event, E , “exactly one heads”: $\{TH, HT\}$.



$$Pr[E] = \sum_{\omega \in E} Pr[\omega] = \frac{|E|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Example: 20 coin tosses.

20 coin tosses

Sample space: $\Omega =$ set of 20 fair coin tosses.

$$\Omega = \{T, H\}^{20} \equiv \{0, 1\}^{20}; \quad |\Omega| = 2^{20}.$$

► What is more likely?

► $\omega_1 := (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$, or

► $\omega_2 := (1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0)$?

Answer: Both are equally likely: $Pr[\omega_1] = Pr[\omega_2] = \frac{1}{|\Omega|}$.

► What is more likely?

(E_1) Twenty Hs out of twenty, or

(E_2) Ten Hs out of twenty?

Answer: Ten Hs out of twenty.

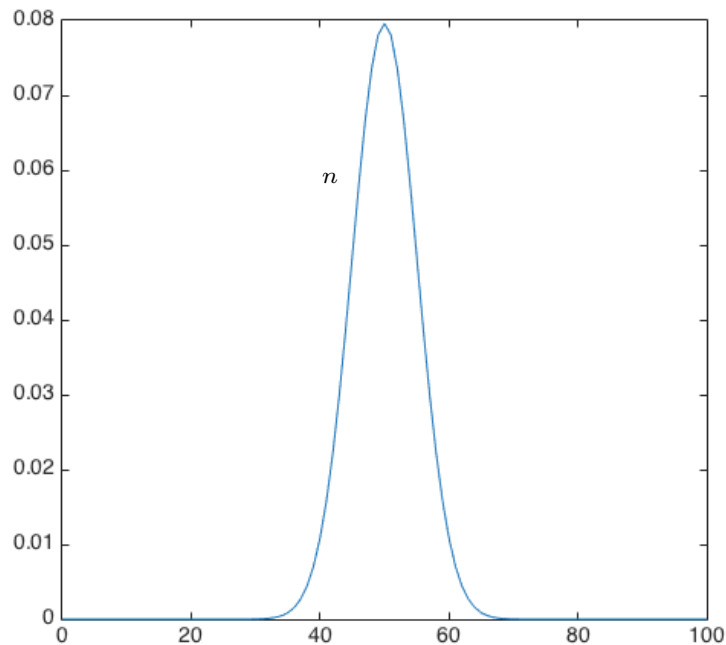
Why? There are many sequences of 20 tosses with ten Hs;

only one with twenty Hs. $\Rightarrow Pr[E_1] = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \ll Pr[E_2] = \frac{|E_2|}{|\Omega|}$.

$$|E_2| = \binom{20}{10} = 184,756.$$

Probability of n heads in 100 coin tosses.

$$\Omega = \{H, T\}^{100}; |\Omega| = 2^{100}.$$



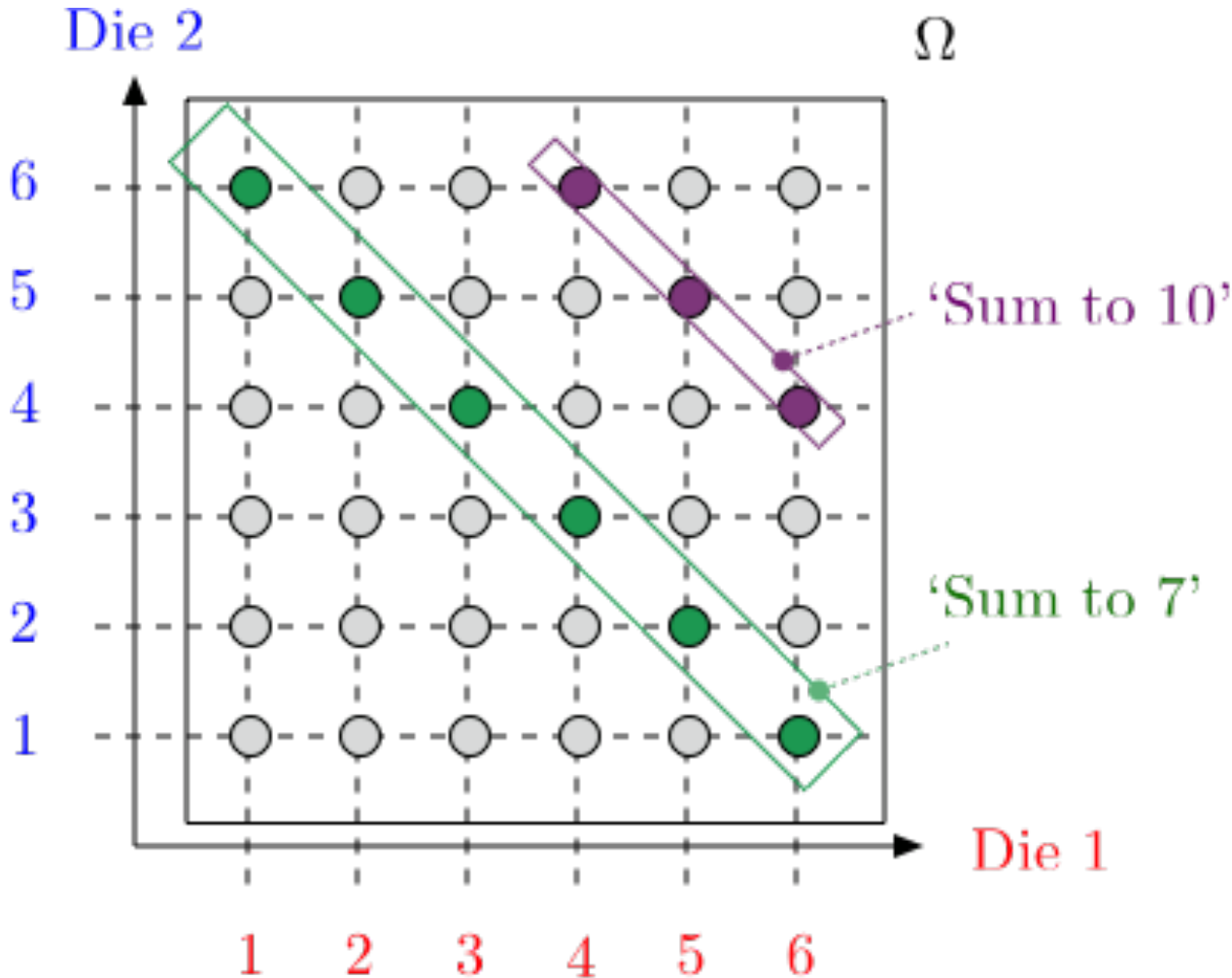
Event $E_n = 'n \text{ heads}'; |E_n| = \binom{100}{n}$

$$p_n := Pr[E_n] = \frac{|E_n|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{\binom{100}{n}}{2^{100}}$$

Observe:

- ▶ Concentration around mean: **Law of Large Numbers**;
- ▶ Bell-shape: **Central Limit Theorem**.

Roll a red and a blue die.



$$Pr[\text{Sum to 7}] = \frac{6}{36}$$

$$Pr[\text{Sum to 10}] = \frac{3}{36}$$

Exactly 50 heads in 100 coin tosses.

Sample space: $\Omega = \text{set of 100 coin tosses} = \{H, T\}^{100}$.
 $|\Omega| = 2 \times 2 \times \dots \times 2 = 2^{100}$.

Uniform probability space: $Pr[\omega] = \frac{1}{2^{100}}$.

Event $E = \text{"100 coin tosses with exactly 50 heads"}$

$|E|?$

Choose 50 positions out of 100 to be heads.

$|E| = \binom{100}{50}$.

$$Pr[E] = \frac{\binom{100}{50}}{2^{100}}.$$

Calculation.

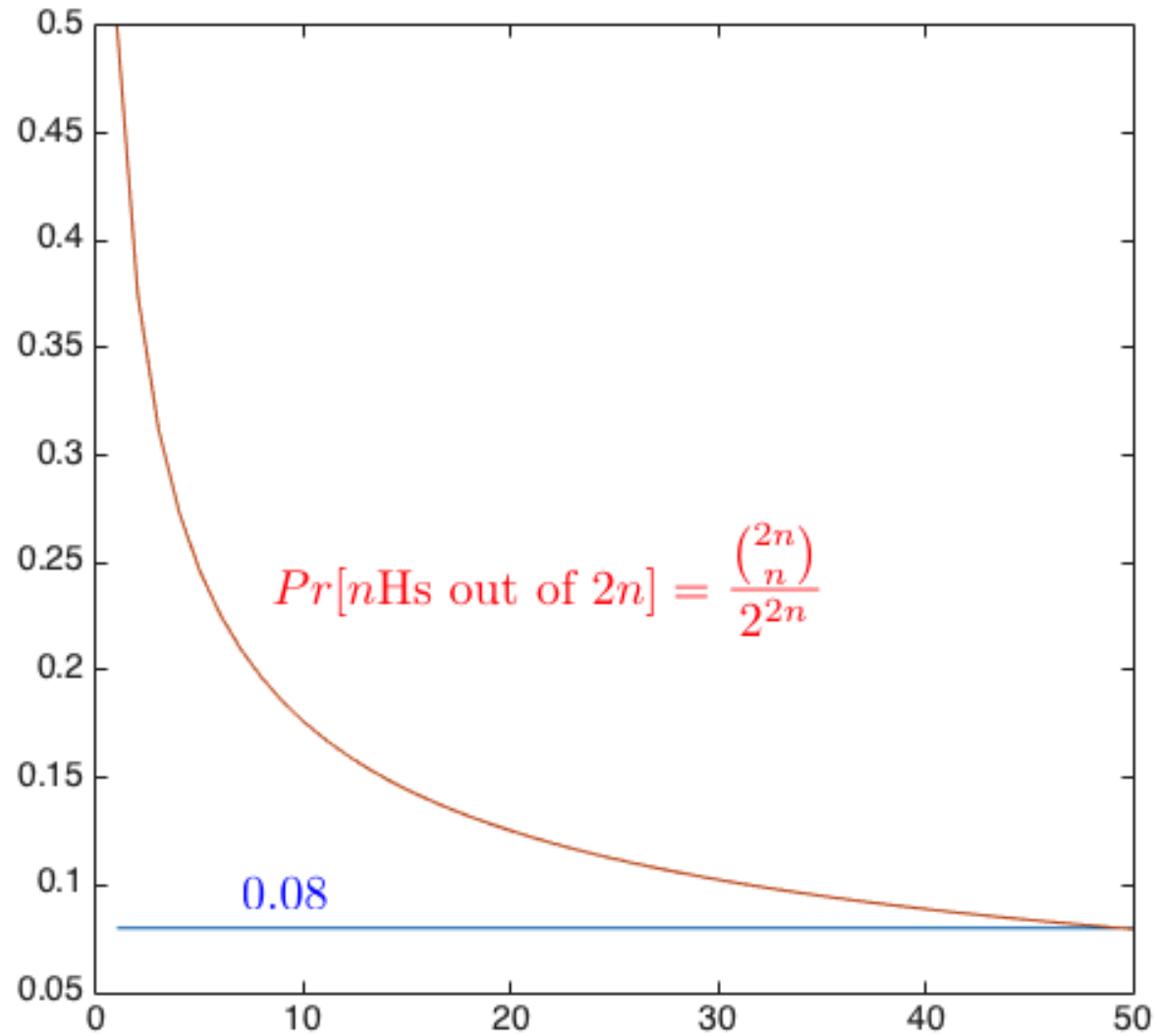
Stirling formula (for large n):

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n.$$

$$\binom{2n}{n} \approx \frac{\sqrt{4\pi n}(2n/e)^{2n}}{[\sqrt{2\pi n}(n/e)^n]^2} \approx \frac{4^n}{\sqrt{\pi n}}.$$

$$Pr[E] = \frac{|E|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{|E|}{2^{2n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{50\pi}} \approx .08.$$

Exactly 50 heads in 100 coin tosses.



Probability is Additive

Theorem

(a) If events A and B are disjoint, i.e., $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then

$$Pr[A \cup B] = Pr[A] + Pr[B].$$

(b) If events A_1, \dots, A_n are **pairwise** disjoint, i.e., $A_k \cap A_m = \emptyset, \forall k \neq m$, then

$$Pr[A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n] = Pr[A_1] + \dots + Pr[A_n].$$

Proof:

Obvious.

Consequences of Additivity

Theorem

$$(a) \Pr[A \cup B] = \Pr[A] + \Pr[B] - \Pr[A \cap B];$$

(inclusion-exclusion property)

$$(b) \Pr[A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n] \leq \Pr[A_1] + \dots + \Pr[A_n];$$

(union bound)

(c) If A_1, \dots, A_N are a **partition** of Ω , i.e., pairwise disjoint and $\bigcup_{m=1}^N A_m = \Omega$, then

$$\Pr[B] = \Pr[B \cap A_1] + \dots + \Pr[B \cap A_N].$$

(law of total probability)

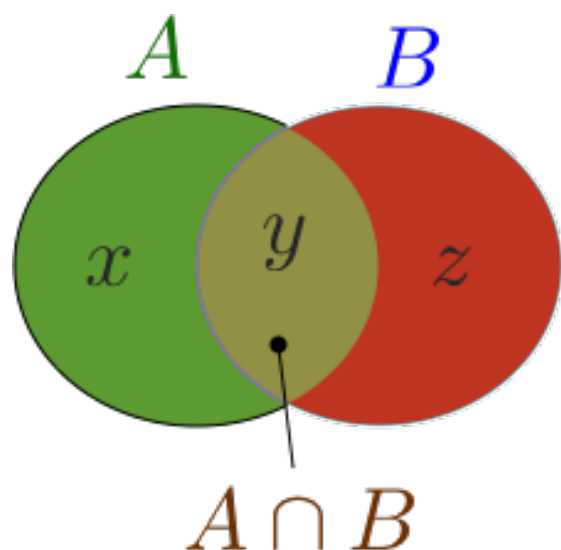
Proof:

(b) is obvious.

Proofs for (a) and (c)? Next...

Inclusion/Exclusion

$$Pr[A \cup B] = Pr[A] + Pr[B] - Pr[A \cap B]$$

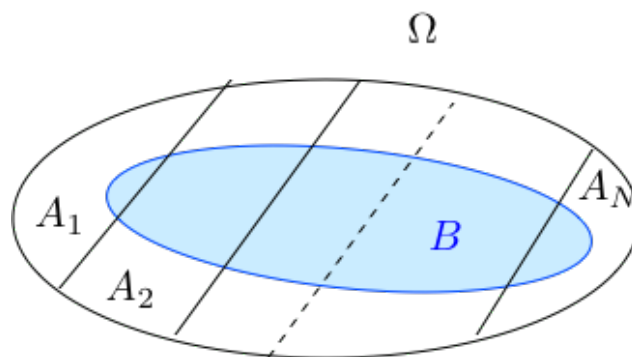


$$\begin{aligned} Pr[A] &= x + y \\ Pr[B] &= y + z \\ Pr[A \cap B] &= y \\ Pr[A \cup B] &= x + y + z \end{aligned}$$

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

Total probability

Assume that Ω is the union of the disjoint sets A_1, \dots, A_N .



Then,

$$Pr[B] = Pr[A_1 \cap B] + \dots + Pr[A_N \cap B].$$

Indeed, B is the union of the disjoint sets $A_n \cap B$ for $n = 1, \dots, N$.

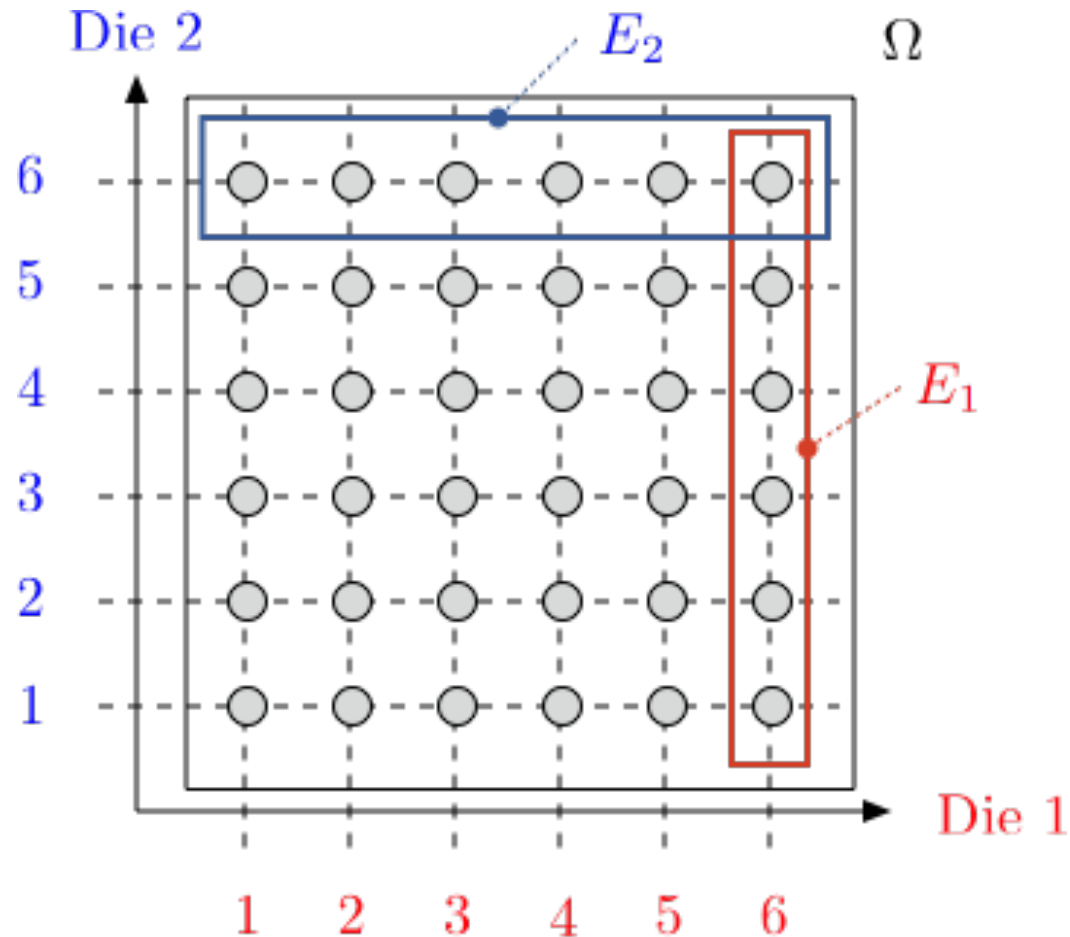
In “math”: $\omega \in B$ is in exactly one of $A_i \cap B$.

Adding up probability of them, get $Pr[\omega]$ in sum.

..Did I say...

Add it up.

Roll a Red and a Blue Die.



$$|E_1 \cup E_2| = |E_1| + |E_2| - |E_1 \cap E_2|$$

E_1 = 'Red die shows 6'; E_2 = 'Blue die shows 6'

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

$$Pr[E_1] = \frac{6}{36}, Pr[E_2] = \frac{6}{36}, Pr[E_1 \cup E_2] = \frac{11}{36}.$$

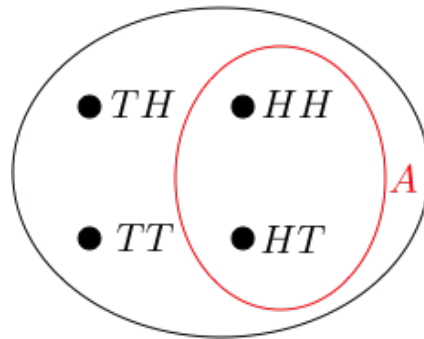
Conditional probability: example.

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

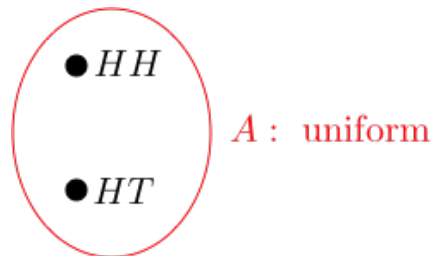
$\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$; Uniform probability space.

Event $A =$ first flip is heads: $A = \{HH, HT\}$.

Ω : uniform



New sample space: A ; uniform still.



Event $B =$ two heads.

The probability of two heads if the first flip is heads.

The probability of B given A is $1/2$.

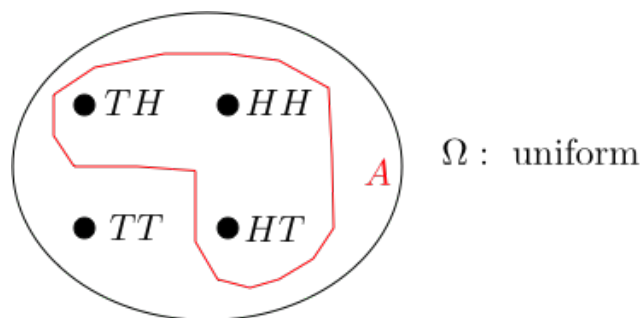
A similar example.

Two coin flips. At least one of the flips is heads.

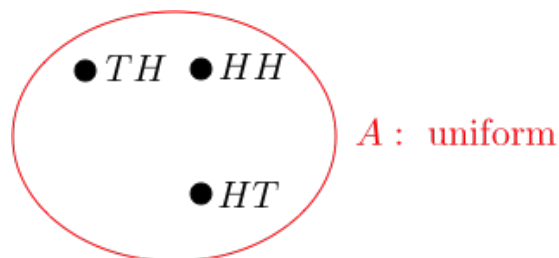
→ Probability of two heads?

$\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$; uniform.

Event $A =$ at least one flip is heads. $A = \{HH, HT, TH\}$.



New sample space: A ; uniform still.

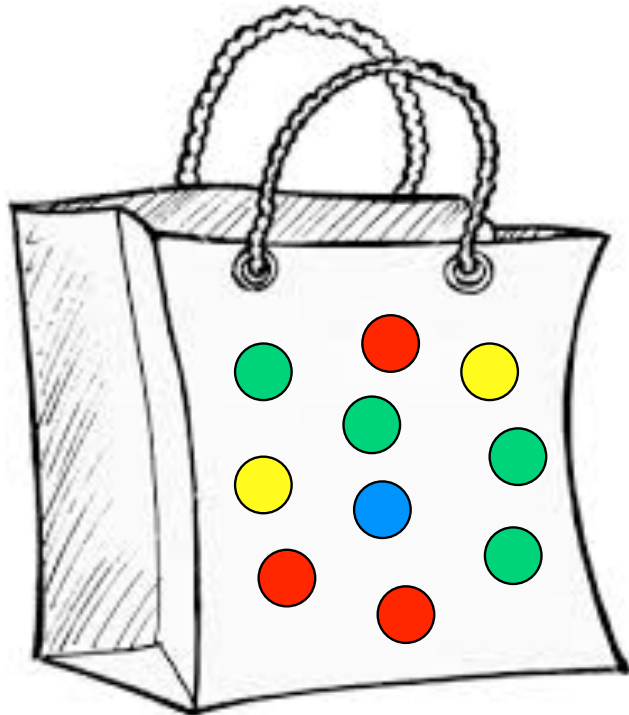


Event $B =$ two heads.

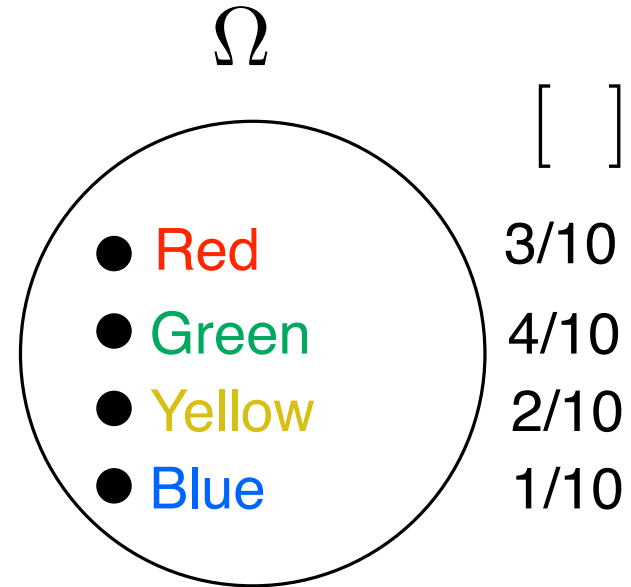
The probability of two heads if at least one flip is heads.

The probability of B given A is $1/3$.

Conditional Probability: A non-uniform example



Physical experiment



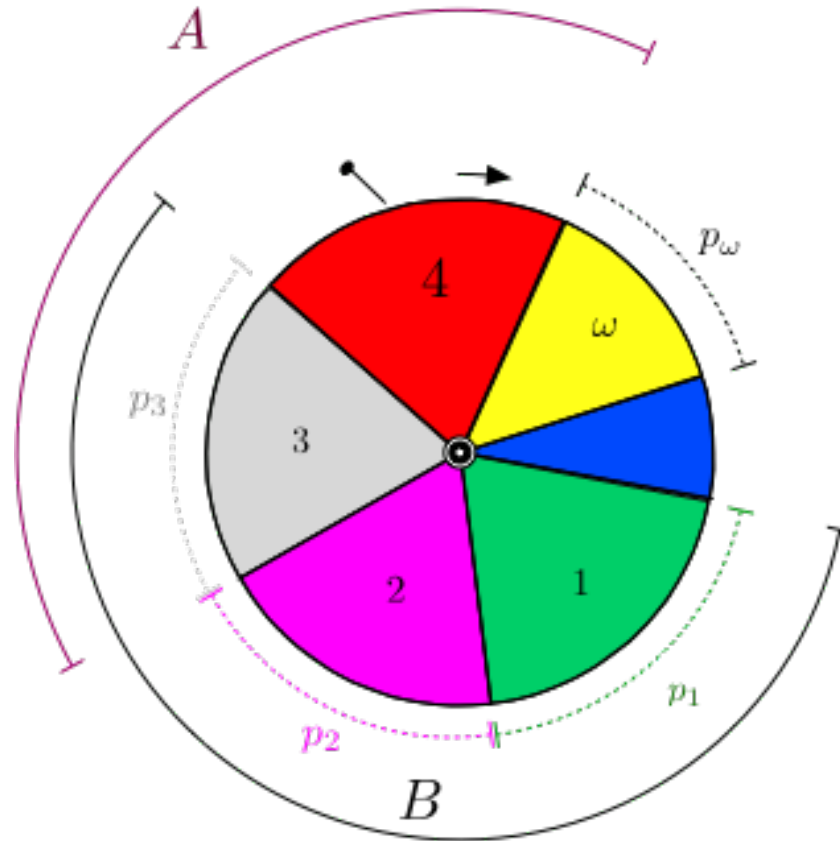
Probability model

$$\Omega = \{\text{Red, Green, Yellow, Blue}\}$$

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

Another non-uniform example

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

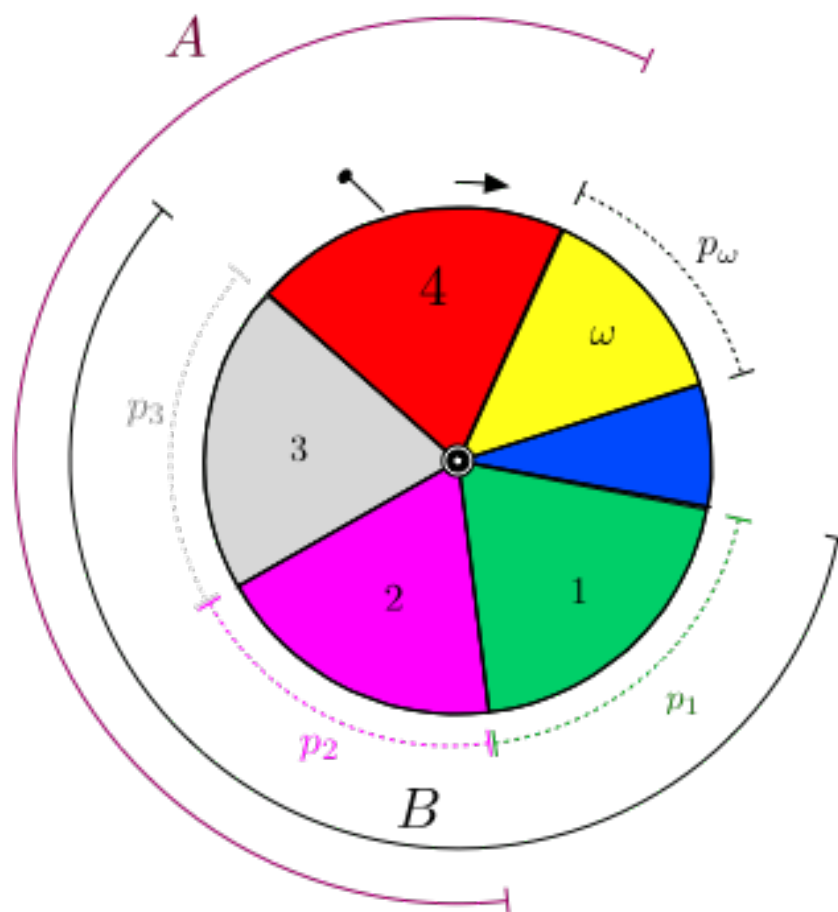


$$Pr[A|B] = \frac{p_3}{p_1 + p_2 + p_3} = \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]}.$$

Yet another non-uniform example

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

Let $A = \{2, 3, 4\}$, $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$.

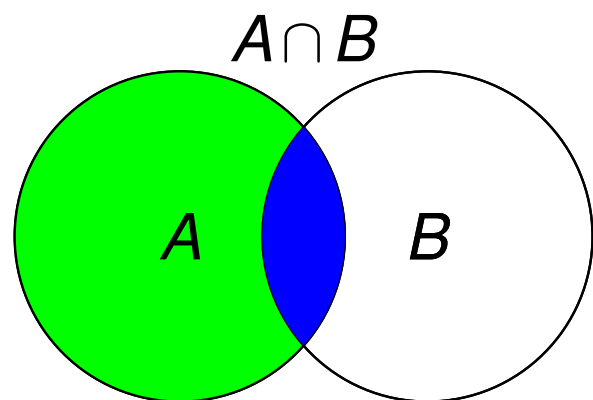


$$Pr[A|B] = \frac{p_2 + p_3}{p_1 + p_2 + p_3} = \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]}.$$

Conditional Probability.

Definition: The **conditional probability** of B given A is

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



In A !

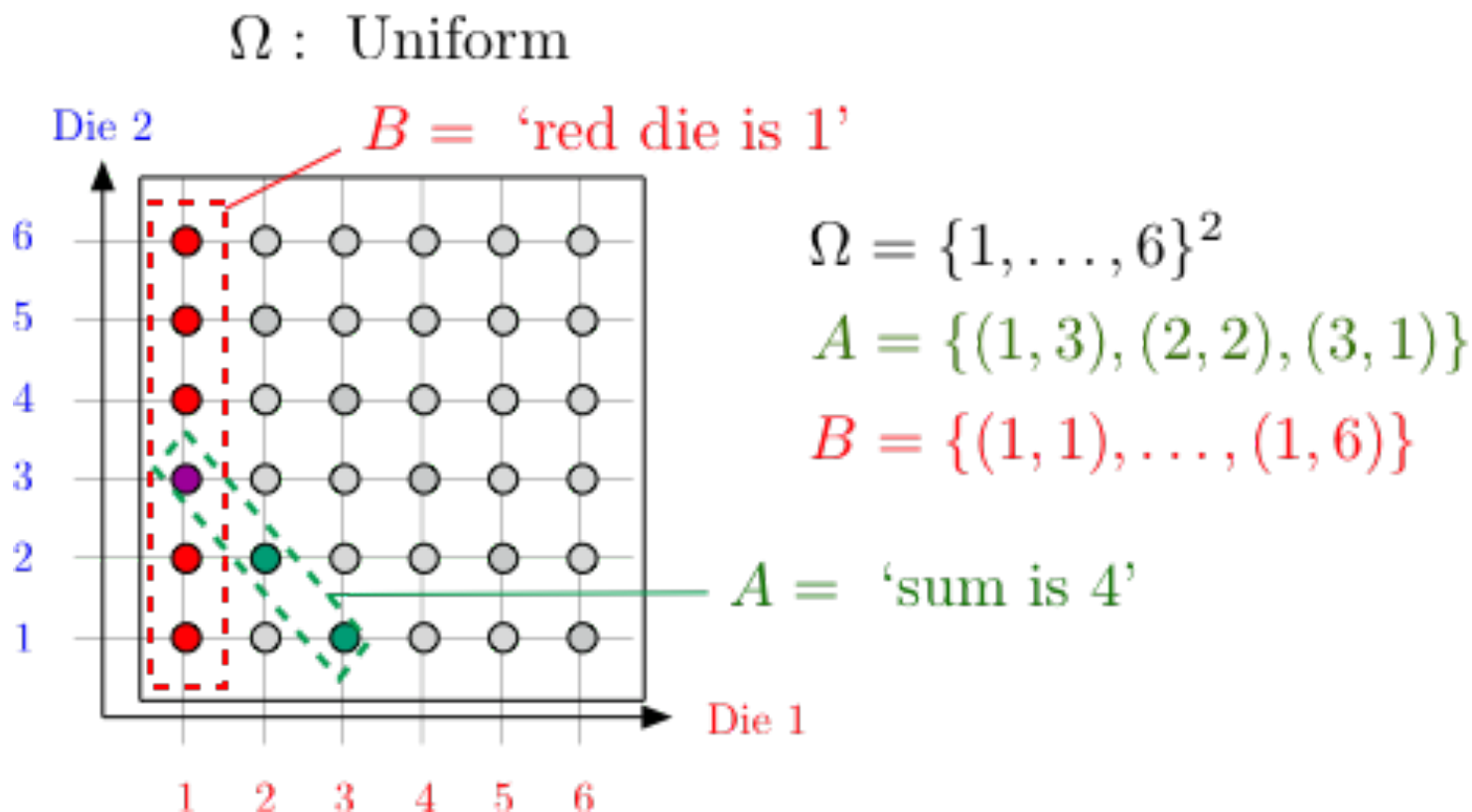
In B ?

Must be in $A \cap B$.

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

More fun with conditional probability.

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

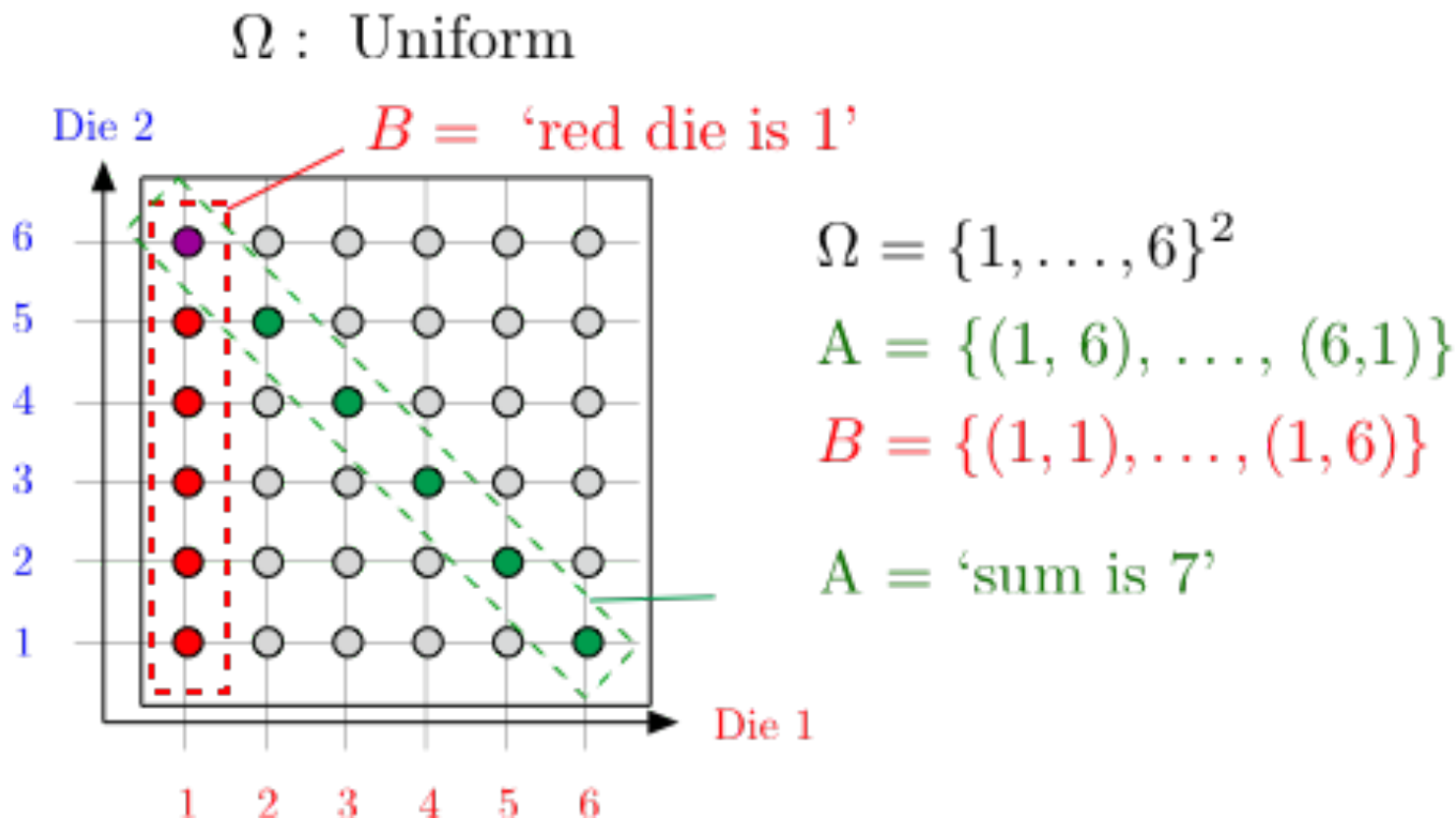


$$Pr[B|A] = \frac{|B \cap A|}{|A|} = \frac{1}{3}; \text{ versus } Pr[B] = 1/6.$$

B is more likely given A .

Yet more fun with conditional probability.

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



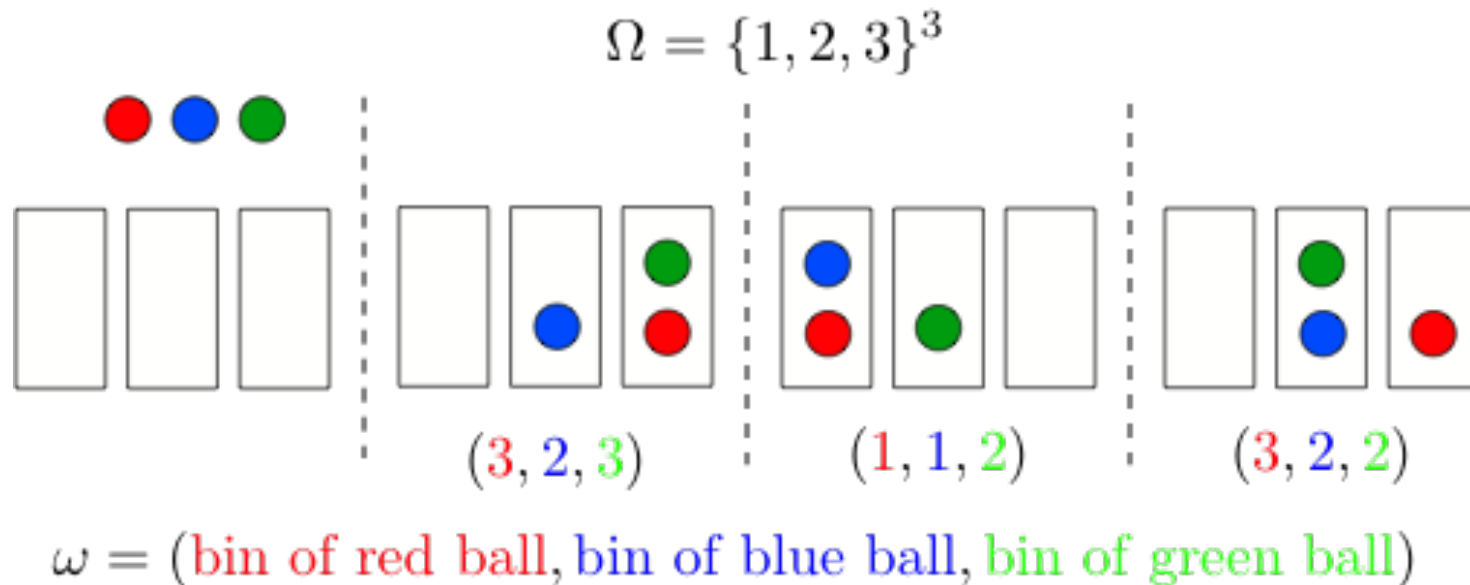
$$Pr[B|A] = \frac{|B \cap A|}{|A|} = \frac{1}{6}; \text{ versus } Pr[B] = \frac{1}{6}.$$

Observing A does not change your mind about the likelihood of B .

Emptiness..

Suppose I toss 3 balls into 3 bins.

A = "1st bin empty"; B = "2nd bin empty." What is $Pr[A|B]$?



$$Pr[B] = Pr[\{(a, b, c) \mid a, b, c \in \{1, 3\}\}] = Pr[\{1, 3\}^3] = \frac{8}{27}$$

$$Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[(3, 3, 3)] = \frac{1}{27}$$

$$Pr[A|B] = \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]} = \frac{(1/27)}{(8/27)} = 1/8; \text{ vs. } Pr[A] = \frac{8}{27}.$$

A is less likely given B : If second bin is empty the first is more likely to have balls in it.

Three Card Problem

Three cards: Red/Red, Red/Black, Black/Black.

Pick one at random and place on the table. The upturned side is a Red. What is the probability that the other side is Black?

Can't be the BB card, so...prob should be 0.5, right?

R : upturned card is Red; RB : the Red/Black card was selected.

Want $P(RB|R)$.

What's wrong with the reasoning that leads to $\frac{1}{2}$?

$$\begin{aligned}P(RB|R) &= \frac{P(RB \cap R)}{P(R)} \\&= \frac{\frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{3}(1) + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}(0)} \\&= \frac{\frac{1}{6}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{3}\end{aligned}$$

Once you are given R : it is twice as likely that the RR card was picked.

Gambler's fallacy.

Flip a fair coin 51 times.

A = “first 50 flips are heads”

B = “the 51st is heads”

$Pr[B|A]$?

$A = \{HH \dots HT, HH \dots HH\}$

$B \cap A = \{HH \dots HH\}$

Uniform probability space.

$$Pr[B|A] = \frac{|B \cap A|}{|A|} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Same as $Pr[B]$.

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

Product Rule

Recall the definition:

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

Hence,

$$Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[A]Pr[B|A].$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[A \cap B \cap C] &= Pr[(A \cap B) \cap C] \\ &= Pr[A \cap B]Pr[C|A \cap B] \\ &= Pr[A]Pr[B|A]Pr[C|A \cap B]. \end{aligned}$$

Product Rule

Theorem Product Rule

Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be events. Then

$$Pr[A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n] = Pr[A_1] Pr[A_2|A_1] \cdots Pr[A_n|A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}].$$

Proof: By induction.

Assume the result is true for n . (It holds for $n = 2$.) Then,

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n \cap A_{n+1}] &= Pr[A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n] Pr[A_{n+1}|A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n] \\ &= Pr[A_1] Pr[A_2|A_1] \cdots Pr[A_n|A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}] Pr[A_{n+1}|A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n], \end{aligned}$$

so that the result holds for $n + 1$. □

Correlation

An example.

Random experiment: Pick a person at random.

Event A : the person has lung cancer.

Event B : the person is a heavy smoker.

Fact:

$$Pr[A|B] = 1.17 \times Pr[A].$$

Conclusion:

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

Correlation

Event A : the person has lung cancer. Event B : the person is a heavy smoker. $Pr[A|B] = 1.17 \times Pr[A]$.

A second look.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[A|B] = 1.17 \times Pr[A] &\Leftrightarrow \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]} = 1.17 \times Pr[A] \\ &\Leftrightarrow Pr[A \cap B] = 1.17 \times Pr[A] Pr[B] \\ &\Leftrightarrow Pr[B|A] = 1.17 \times Pr[B]. \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion:

- ▶ Lung cancer increases the probability of smoking by 17%.
- ▶ Lung cancer causes smoking. Really?

Causality vs. Correlation

Events A and B are **positively correlated** if

$$Pr[A \cap B] > Pr[A]Pr[B].$$

(E.g., smoking and lung cancer.)

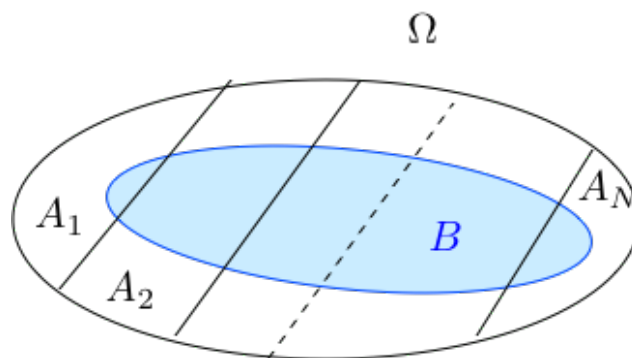
A and B being positively correlated does not mean that A causes B or that B causes A .

Other examples:

- ▶ Tesla owners are more likely to be rich. That does not mean that poor people should buy a Tesla to get rich.
- ▶ People who go to the opera are more likely to have a good career. That does not mean that going to the opera will improve your career.
- ▶ Rabbits eat more carrots and do not wear glasses. Are carrots good for eyesight?

Total probability

Assume that Ω is the union of the disjoint sets A_1, \dots, A_N .



Then,

$$Pr[B] = Pr[A_1 \cap B] + \dots + Pr[A_N \cap B].$$

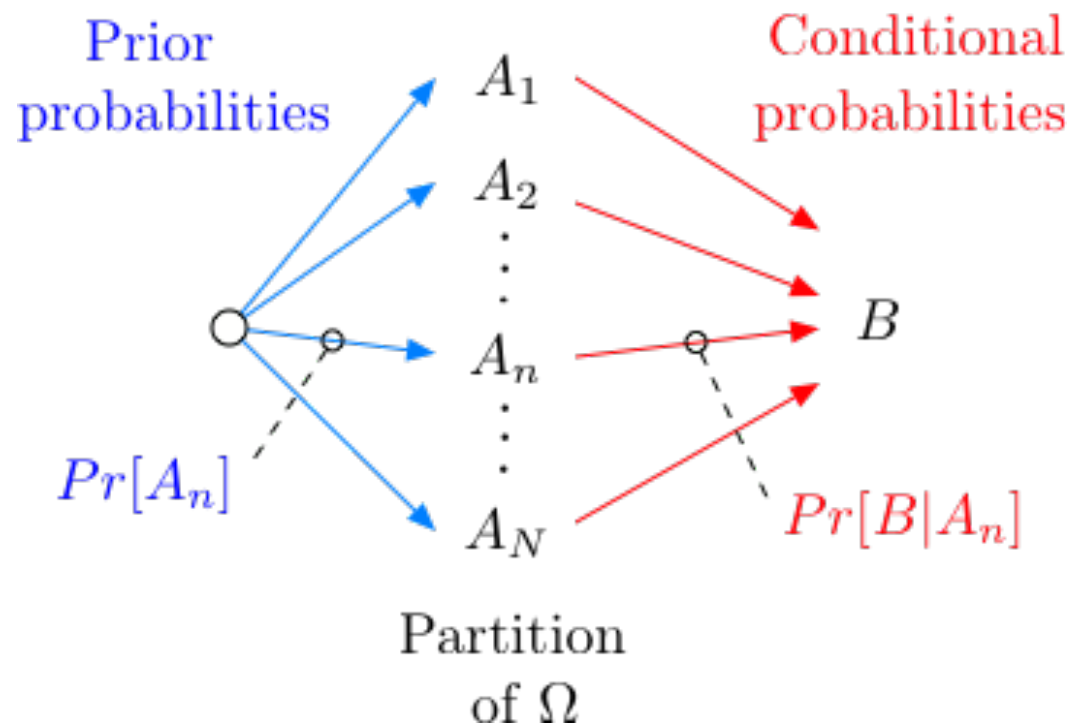
Indeed, B is the union of the disjoint sets $A_n \cap B$ for $n = 1, \dots, N$.

Thus,

$$Pr[B] = Pr[A_1]Pr[B|A_1] + \dots + Pr[A_N]Pr[B|A_N].$$

Total probability

Assume that Ω is the union of the disjoint sets A_1, \dots, A_N .



$$Pr[B] = Pr[A_1]Pr[B|A_1] + \dots + Pr[A_N]Pr[B|A_N].$$

Is your coin loaded?

Your coin is fair w.p. $1/2$ or such that $Pr[H] = 0.6$, otherwise.

You flip your coin and it yields heads.

What is the probability that it is fair?

Analysis:

$A =$ 'coin is fair', $B =$ 'outcome is heads'

We want to calculate $P[A|B]$.

We know $P[B|A] = 1/2$, $P[B|\bar{A}] = 0.6$, $Pr[A] = 1/2 = Pr[\bar{A}]$

Now,

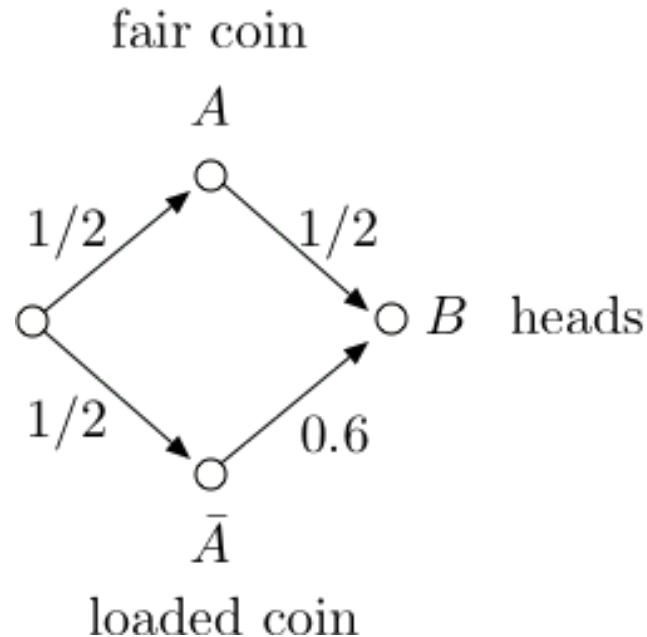
$$\begin{aligned} Pr[B] &= Pr[A \cap B] + Pr[\bar{A} \cap B] = Pr[A]Pr[B|A] + Pr[\bar{A}]Pr[B|\bar{A}] \\ &= (1/2)(1/2) + (1/2)0.6 = 0.55. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

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

Is your coin loaded?

A picture:



Imagine 100 situations, among which

$m := 100(1/2)(1/2)$ are such that A and B occur and

$n := 100(1/2)(0.6)$ are such that \bar{A} and B occur.

Thus, among the $m + n$ situations where B occurred, there are m where A occurred.

Hence,

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

Independence

Definition: Two events A and B are **independent** if

$$Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[A]Pr[B].$$

Examples:

- ▶ When rolling two dice, $A =$ sum is 7 and $B =$ red die is 1 are independent;
- ▶ When rolling two dice, $A =$ sum is 3 and $B =$ red die is 1 are **not** independent;
- ▶ When flipping coins, $A =$ coin 1 yields heads and $B =$ coin 2 yields tails are independent;
- ▶ When throwing 3 balls into 3 bins, $A =$ bin 1 is empty and $B =$ bin 2 is empty are **not** independent;

Independence and conditional probability

Fact: Two events A and B are **independent** if and only if

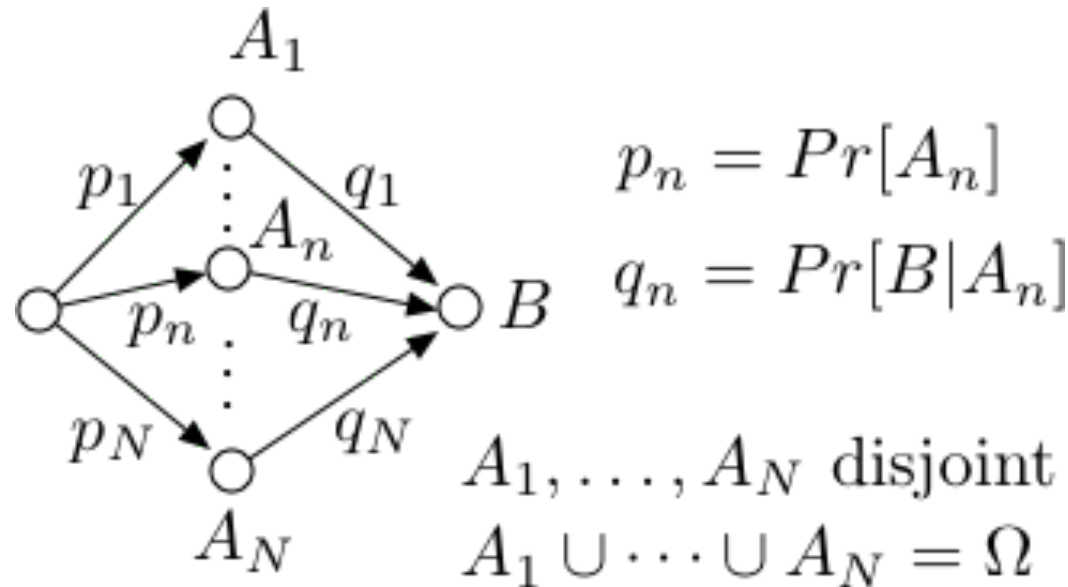
$$Pr[A|B] = Pr[A].$$

Indeed: $Pr[A|B] = \frac{Pr[A \cap B]}{Pr[B]}$, so that

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

Bayes Rule

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



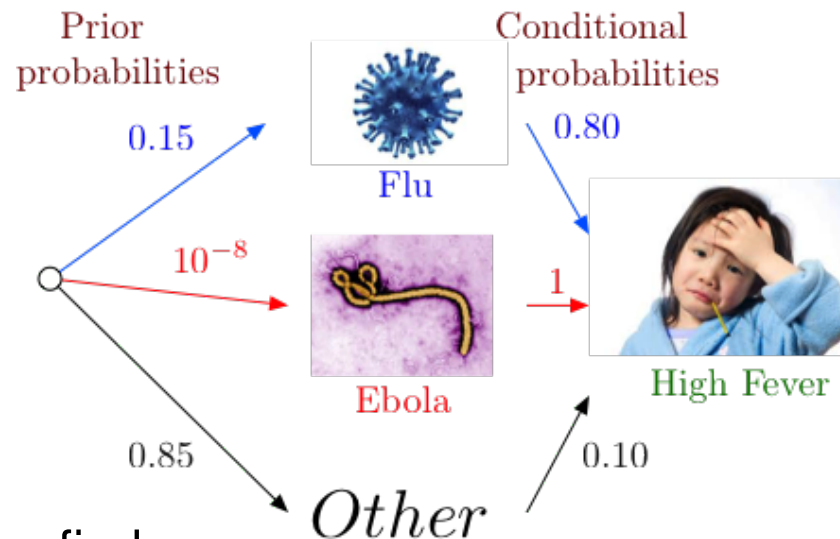
Imagine 100 situations, among which $100p_nq_n$ are such that A_n and B occur, for $n = 1, \dots, N$.

Thus, among the $100 \sum_m p_m q_m$ situations where B occurred, there are $100p_nq_n$ where A_n occurred.

Hence,

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

Why do you have a fever?



Using Bayes' rule, we find

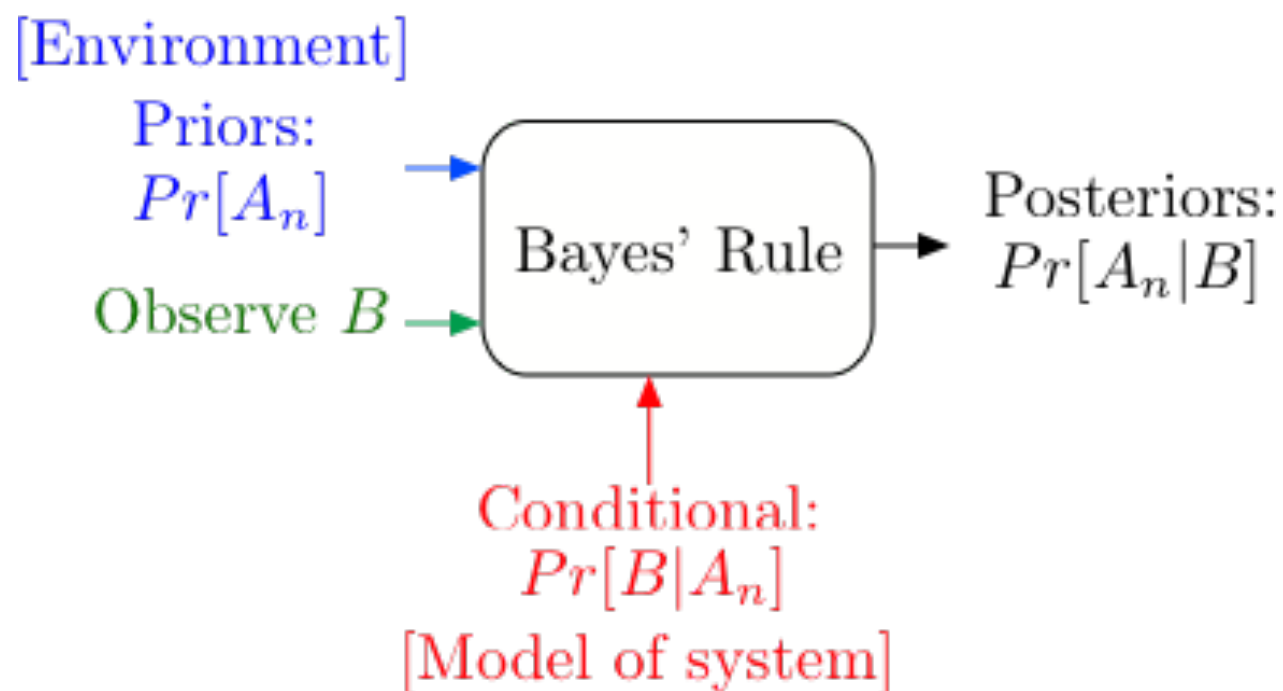
$$Pr[\text{Flu}|\text{High Fever}] = \frac{0.15 \times 0.80}{0.15 \times 0.80 + 10^{-8} \times 1 + 0.85 \times 0.1} \approx 0.58$$

$$Pr[\text{Ebola}|\text{High Fever}] = \frac{10^{-8} \times 1}{0.15 \times 0.80 + 10^{-8} \times 1 + 0.85 \times 0.1} \approx 5 \times 10^{-8}$$

$$Pr[\text{Other}|\text{High Fever}] = \frac{0.85 \times 0.1}{0.15 \times 0.80 + 10^{-8} \times 1 + 0.85 \times 0.1} \approx 0.42$$

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 is the canonical example of how information changes our opinions.

Thomas Bayes

Thomas Bayes

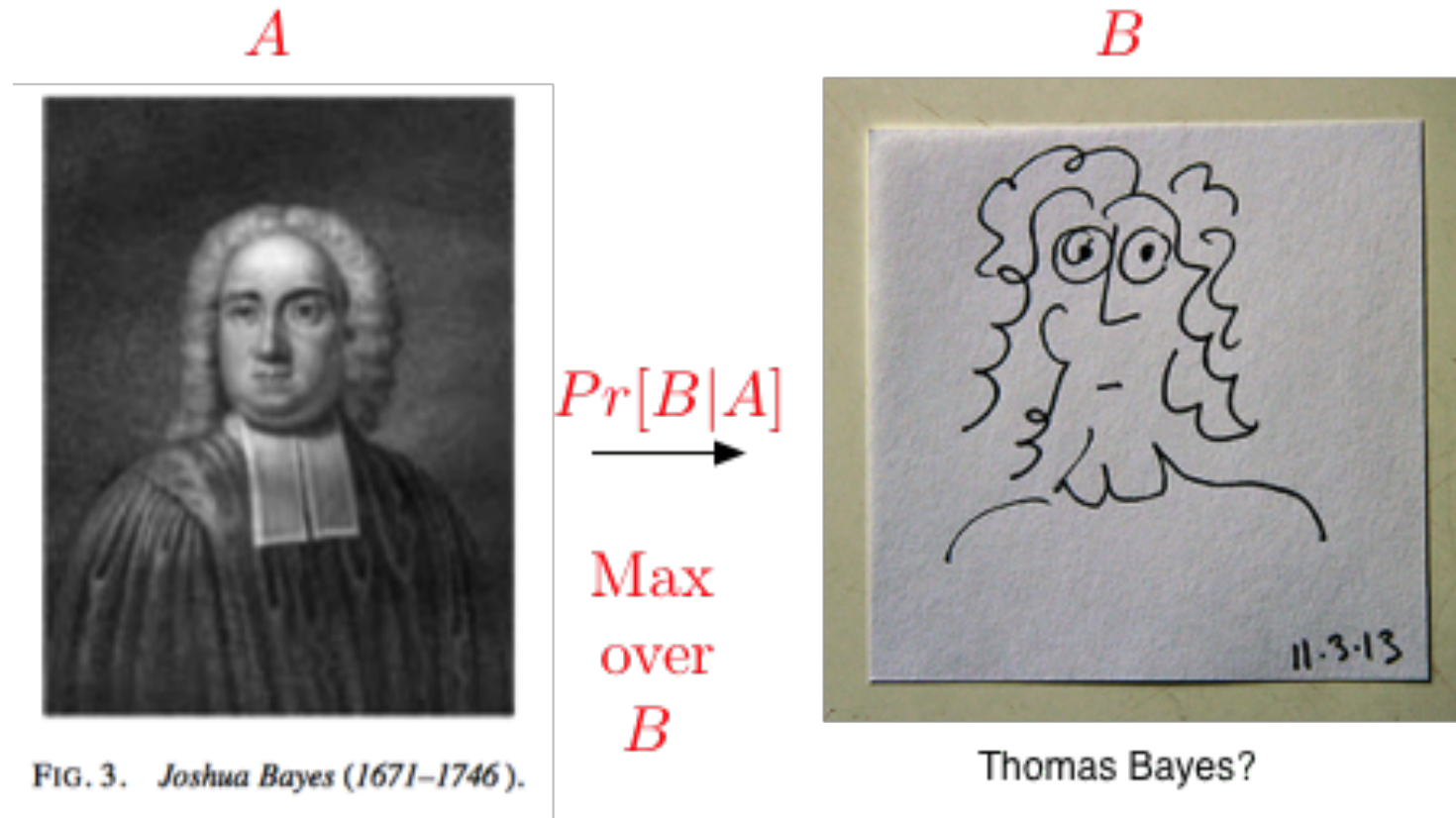


Portrait used of Bayes in a 1936 book,^[1] but it is doubtful whether the portrait is actually of him.^[2]

No earlier portrait or claimed portrait survives.

Born	c. 1701 London, England
Died	7 April 1761 (aged 59) Tunbridge Wells, Kent, England
Residence	Tunbridge Wells, Kent, England
Nationality	English
Known for	Bayes' theorem

Thomas Bayes



A Bayesian picture of Thomas Bayes.

Testing for disease.

Let's watch TV!!

Random Experiment: Pick a random male.

Outcomes: (*test, disease*)

A - prostate cancer.

B - positive PSA test.

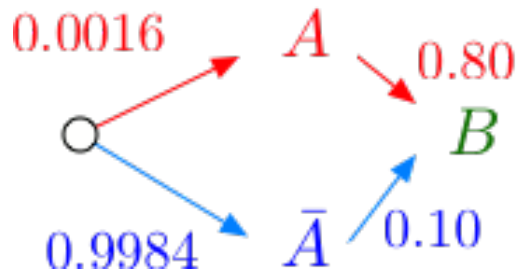
- ▶ $Pr[A] = 0.0016$, (.16 % of the male population is affected.)
- ▶ $Pr[B|A] = 0.80$ (80% chance of positive test with disease.)
- ▶ $Pr[B|\bar{A}] = 0.10$ (10% chance of positive test without disease.)

From http://www.cpcn.org/01_psa_tests.htm and
<http://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/prost.html> (10/12/2011.)

Positive PSA test (*B*). Do I have disease?

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

Bayes Rule.



Using Bayes' rule, we find

$$P[A|B] = \frac{0.0016 \times 0.80}{0.0016 \times 0.80 + 0.9984 \times 0.10} = .013.$$

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

Surgery anyone?

Impotence...

Incontinence..

Death.

Summary

Events, Conditional Probability, Independence, Bayes' Rule

Key Ideas:

- ▶ Conditional Probability:

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

- ▶ Independence: $Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[A]Pr[B]$.

- ▶ Bayes' Rule:

$$Pr[A_n|B] = \frac{Pr[A_n]Pr[B|A_n]}{\sum_m Pr[A_m]Pr[B|A_m]}.$$

$Pr[A_n|B]$ = posterior probability; $Pr[A_n]$ = prior probability .

- ▶ All these are possible:

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