

CS70 - Spring 2024

Lecture 16 - March 12

Last Lecture:

- Definition of a probability space:

Ω = set of outcomes

$\Pr[\omega]$ = probability for each $\omega \in \Omega$

- Events $E \subseteq \Omega$

$$\Pr[E] = \sum_{\omega \in E} \Pr[\omega]$$

- Uniform probability space:

$$\Pr[\omega] = \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega$$

$$\Pr[E] = \frac{|E|}{|\Omega|} \quad \forall E \subseteq \Omega$$

Ref: Note 13

Today:

- Conditional probability
- Intersections & unions of events
- Bayes Rule & inference

Ref: Note 14

Conditional Probability

Recall: 5-card poker hand

→ uniform prob. space with $|\Omega| = \binom{52}{5}$



Event E_{Flush} = all five cards of same suit

$$\Pr[E_{\text{Flush}}] = \frac{|E_{\text{Flush}}|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{4 \times \binom{13}{5}}{\binom{52}{5}} \approx 0.002$$

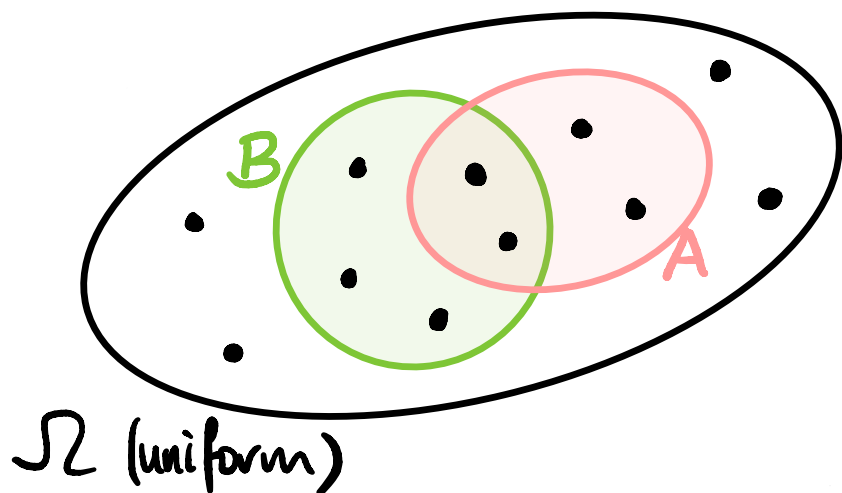
Now suppose your first 4 cards are all \diamond

What is now $\Pr[E_{\text{Flush}}]$?

$$\Pr[E_{\text{Flush}} | \diamond \diamond \diamond \diamond] = \frac{\# \text{remaining } \diamond}{\# \text{remaining cards}} = \frac{9}{48} \approx 0.19$$

Defn: For any events A, B with $\Pr[B] > 0$, the conditional probability of A given B is

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



$$\Pr[A] = \frac{4}{11}$$

$$\Pr[A|B] = \boxed{\frac{2}{5}}$$

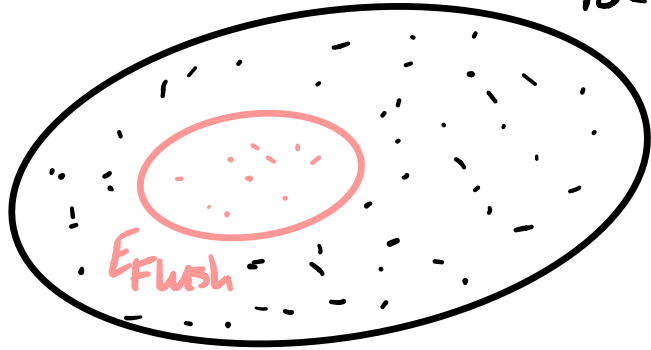
For each sample point $\omega \in B$: $\Pr[\omega] \rightarrow \frac{\Pr[\omega]}{\Pr[B]}$

----- $\omega \notin B$: $\Pr[\omega] \rightarrow 0$

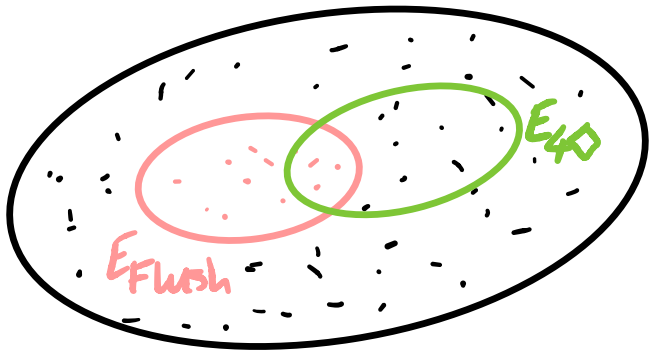
$$\text{Then } \Pr[A] = \sum_{\omega \in A} \Pr[\omega] \longrightarrow \sum_{\omega \in A \cap B} \frac{\Pr[\omega]}{\Pr[B]} = \frac{\Pr[A \cap B]}{\Pr[B]}$$

Example: Flush

$$|\Omega| = 52!$$



$$\Pr[E_{\text{Flush}}] = \frac{|E_{\text{Flush}}|}{|\Omega|} \approx 0.002$$



$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[E_{\text{Flush}} | E_{4\heartsuit}] &= \frac{|E_{\text{Flush}} \cap E_{4\heartsuit}|}{|E_{4\heartsuit}|} \\ &= \frac{\binom{13}{5}}{\binom{13}{4} \times 48} \\ &= \frac{9}{48} \end{aligned}$$

Example: Dice Game



Roll 2 dice - you win if sum is ≥ 9

$$\Pr[\text{win}] = \frac{|W|}{|R|} = \frac{10}{36} = \frac{5}{18}$$

Define $E_i =$ "red die shows i "

$$\Pr[W|E_6] = \frac{\Pr[W \cap E_6]}{\Pr[E_6]}$$

$$= \frac{4/36}{1/6} = \boxed{\frac{2}{3}} > \Pr[W]$$

$$\Pr[W|E_3] = \frac{\Pr[W \cap E_3]}{\Pr[E_3]}$$

$$= \frac{1/36}{1/6} = \boxed{\frac{1}{6}} < \Pr[W]$$

6	•	•	•	•	•	•
5	•	•	•	•	•	•
4	•	•	•	•	•	•
3	•	•	•	•	•	•
2	•	•	•	•	•	•
1	•	•	•	•	•	•
	1	2	3	4	5	6

Example: Coin Tossing

Toss a fair coin 20 times

$E_i =$ "ith toss comes up Heads"

$$\Pr[E_i] = 1/2 \quad \forall i$$

Suppose the first 19 tosses all come up Heads

What is now $\Pr[E_{20}]$?

$$\Pr[E_{20} | E_1, \dots, E_{19}] = \frac{\Pr[E_1, \dots, E_{19}, E_{20}]}{\Pr[E_1, \dots, E_{19}]} = \frac{1/2^{20}}{1/2^{19}} = \boxed{\frac{1}{2}} = \Pr[E_{20}]$$

We say that E_{20} is independent of E_1, \dots, E_{19}

Correlation

We have seen that $\Pr[A|B]$ can be $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} > \\ = \\ < \end{array} \right\} \Pr[A]$

$\Pr[A|B] > \Pr[A] \rightarrow A, B$ positively correlated

$\Pr[A|B] < \Pr[A] \rightarrow A, B$ negatively correlated

$\Pr[A|B] = \Pr[A] \rightarrow A, B$ independent

E.g. Uniform prob. space over US population

$A =$ "gets lung cancer" $B =$ "is a smoker"

$\Pr[A|B] \approx 1.17 \times \Pr[A] \Rightarrow A, B$ positively correlated

Note: This doesn't necessarily imply that smoking causes lung cancer!

Independence

Defn: Events A, B are independent if

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

or equivalently if

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

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

Independent or Not?

1. 20 fair coin tosses

A = all 20 tosses are H

B = first 19 tosses are H

2. Roll 2 dice

A = sum is ≥ 10

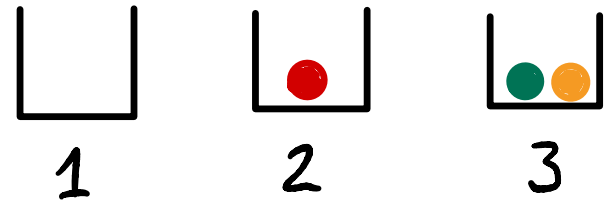
B = first die shows 4

3. Toss 3 balls u.a.r. into 3 bins

A = bin #1 is empty

B = bin #2 is empty

6	•	•	•	•	•	•
5	•	•	•	•	•	•
4	•	•	•	•	•	•
3	•	•	•	•	•	•
2	•	•	•	•	•	•
1	•	•	•	•	•	•
	1	2	3	4	5	6



Mutual Independence

Defn: Events A_1, \dots, A_n are mutually independent if for all subsets $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$

$$\Pr\left[\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right] = \prod_{i \in I} \Pr[A_i]$$

Example: 2 fair coin flips

A_1 : "first flip is H"

$$\Pr[A_1] =$$

A_2 : "second flip is H"

$$\Pr[A_2] =$$

A_3 : "both flips the same (HH or TT)"

$$\Pr[A_3] =$$

A_1, A_2 : independent (obvious)

$$A_1, A_3: \Pr[A_1 \cap A_3] = \Pr[HH] = 1/4 = \Pr[A_1] \Pr[A_3]$$

A_2, A_3 : same

BUT: $\Pr[A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3] =$

Independent Coin Flips

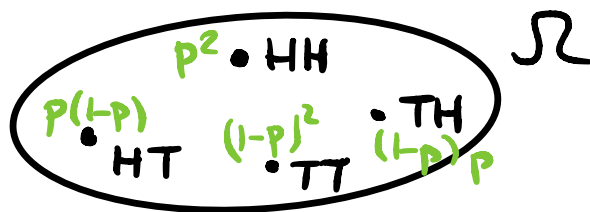
We often use independence to define prob. spaces

Example: Flipping a biased coin (Heads prob. p) twice

We want the flips to be independent, e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[HT] &= \Pr[1st \text{ is } H] \times \underbrace{\Pr[2nd \text{ is } H \mid 1st \text{ is } H]} \\ &= p \times (1-p) && = \Pr[2nd \text{ is } H] \\ &&& \text{(independence)} \end{aligned}$$

So we get



More generally, with n flips, for any seq. ω with i Heads and $n-i$ Tails,

$$\Pr[\omega] = p^i (1-p)^{n-i}$$

Intersections: Product Rule

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

This implies ...

Product Rule: For any events A, B

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

More generally ...

Product Rule: For any events A_1, \dots, A_n

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

Product Rule: For any events A_1, \dots, A_n

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

Proof: By induction on n .

Base case $n=2$: basic product rule for 2 events

Inductive step ($n \geq 3$):

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1} \cap A_n] &= \Pr[B] \times \Pr[A_n | B] \\ &\quad \swarrow \text{ind. hypothesis} \\ &= \Pr[A_1] \times \Pr[A_2 | A_1] \times \dots \times \Pr[A_{n-1} | A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-2}] \\ &\quad \times \Pr[A_n | A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}] \end{aligned}$$

Unions of Events

Another dice game:

Roll two fair dice - you win if you roll at least one 6

$$\Pr[\text{roll 6 on one die}] = 1/6$$

$$\Pr[\text{Win}] = \Pr[\text{roll 6 on either die}] = 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/3 \quad ?$$

What if you roll 10 dice?

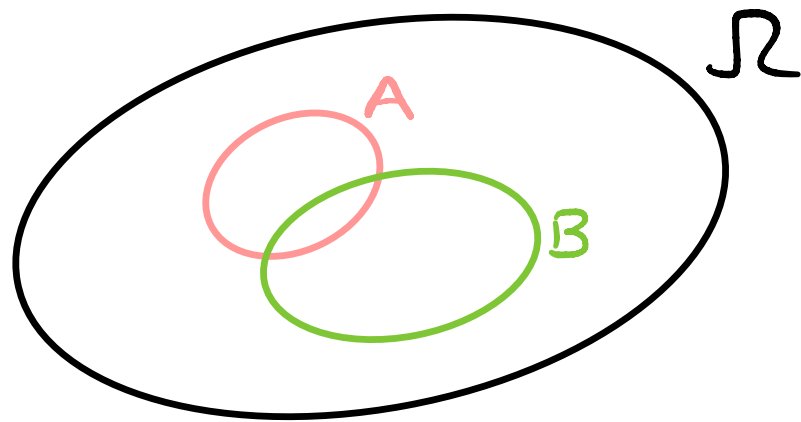
$$\Pr[\text{win}] = 1/6 + \dots + 1/6 = \frac{10}{6} \quad ???$$

Problem: You may roll more than one 6

Rolling 6's are not disjoint events

Thm: For any events A, B

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



Proof:
$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[A \cup B] &= \sum_{\omega \in A \cup B} \Pr[\omega] \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in A} \Pr[\omega] + \sum_{\omega \in B} \Pr[\omega] - \sum_{\omega \in A \cap B} \Pr[\omega] \\ &= \Pr[A] + \Pr[B] - \Pr[A \cap B] \end{aligned}$$

Note: If A, B are disjoint ($A \cap B = \emptyset$) then $\Pr[A \cup B] = \Pr[A] + \Pr[B]$

Example :

Another dice game :

Roll two fair dice - you win if you roll at least one 6

$$\Pr[\text{roll 6 on one die}] = 1/6$$

A = roll 6 on first die

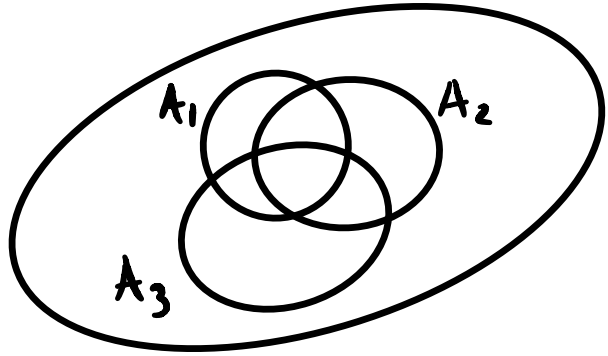
B = roll 6 on second die

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[\text{Win}] &= \Pr[A \cup B] = \Pr[A] + \Pr[B] - \Pr[A \cap B] \\ &= 1/6 + 1/6 - 1/36 \\ &= 11/36\end{aligned}$$

Inclusion-Exclusion

More generally, for any events A_1, \dots, A_n

$$\Pr[A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n] = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[A_i] - \sum_{i < j} \Pr[A_i \cap A_j]$$



$$+ \sum_{i < j < k} \Pr[A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k]$$

- - -

$$\pm \Pr[A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n]$$

Proof: See inclusion-exclusion under "Counting"

Union Bound

Thm : For any events A_1, \dots, A_n

$$\Pr[A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n] \leq \Pr[A_1] + \dots + \Pr[A_n]$$

Proof : $\Pr[\cup_i A_i] = \sum_{\omega \in \cup_i A_i} \Pr[\omega]$

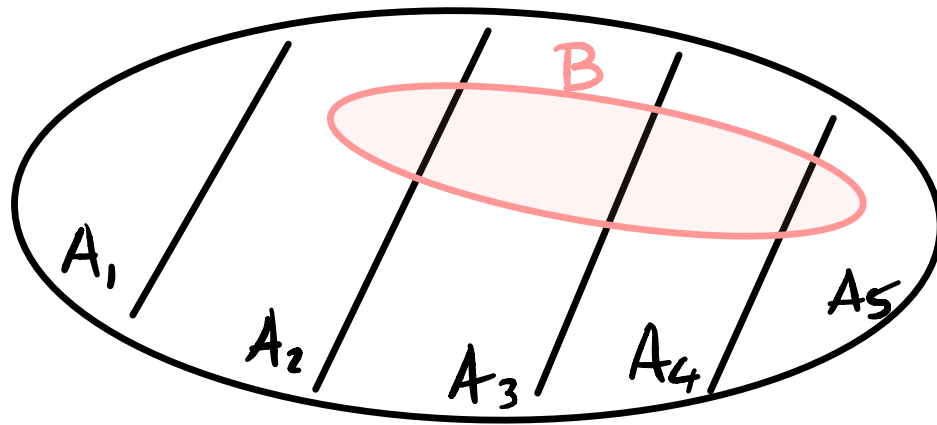
$$\leq \sum_{\omega \in A_1} \Pr[\omega] + \dots + \sum_{\omega \in A_n} \Pr[\omega]$$

Later : We will see how useful this very simple upper bound can be !

Law of Total Probability

If A_1, \dots, A_n are pairwise disjoint ($A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \forall i \neq j$) and $A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n = \Omega$, then for any event B

$$\Pr[B] = \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[B \cap A_i]$$



Proof: The events $B \cap A_i$ are pairwise disjoint and $B = \bigcup_i (B \cap A_i)$

Bayes Rule: For any events A, B with $\Pr[A] > 0$, $\Pr[B] > 0$, we have

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

Proof: Statement is equivalent to

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

This is true because both sides = $\Pr[A \cap B]$

Bayes rule allows us to "flip the conditioning around", from $\Pr[B|A]$ to $\Pr[A|B]$

Example 1: Two coins, heads probs. $p=1/2$ and $p=3/5$

- pick a coin u.a.r. ("uniformly at random")

- flip the chosen coin

Suppose the flipped coin comes up Heads
What is the prob. we picked the biased coin?

A = "picked biased coin"

B = "coin comes up Heads"

We know: $\Pr[A] = 1/2$

$$\Pr[B|A] = 3/5$$

$$\Pr[B|\bar{A}] = 1/2$$

Goal: Compute $\Pr[A|B]$

A = "picked biased coin"

B = "coin comes up Heads"

We know: $\Pr[A] = 1/2$

$$\Pr[B|A] = 3/5 \quad \Pr[B|\bar{A}] = 1/2$$

Goal: Compute $\Pr[A|B]$

Bayes Rule: $\Pr[A|B] = \frac{\Pr[B|A]\Pr[A]}{\Pr[B]} = \frac{3/5 \times 1/2}{\Pr[B]} = \frac{3/10}{\Pr[B]}$

What is $\Pr[B]$?

Total Probability: $\Pr[B] = \Pr[B|A]\Pr[A] + \Pr[B|\bar{A}]\Pr[\bar{A}]$
 $= \left(\frac{3}{5} \times \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}\right) = 11/20$

So $\Pr[A|B] = \frac{3/10}{11/20} = \boxed{6/11}$

Updated Bayes Rule

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(B|A) \Pr(A)}{\underbrace{\Pr(B|A) \Pr(A) + \Pr(B|\bar{A}) \Pr(\bar{A})}_{= \Pr[B]}}$$

More generally:

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(B|A) \Pr(A)}{\underbrace{\sum_i \Pr(B|A_i) \Pr(A_i)}_{= \Pr[B]}}$$

where A_1, \dots, A_n partitions Ω

E.g. 3 possible "Go" opponents, one chosen uniformly:

Opp. #1	wins w. prob.	90%
Opp. #2	- - - - -	60%
Opp. #3	- - - - -	20%

$$\Pr(\text{you lose}) = \left(\frac{1}{3} \times 0.9\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times 0.6\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} \times 0.2\right) \approx \boxed{0.57}$$

Example 2 : Medical Testing

Some disease affects 0.1% ($=0.001$) of population

A test has the following efficacy for a random person:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Pr[\text{test positive} | \text{sick}] = 0.99 \\ \Pr[\text{test positive} | \text{not sick}] = 0.01 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{false pos/neg} \\ \text{rates are both} \\ 0.01 \end{array}$$

Q: A random person arrives & tests positive.

What is the likelihood this person is sick?

$$\Pr[\text{pos.} | \text{sick}] = 0.99$$

$$\Pr[\text{sick}] = 0.001$$

$$\Pr[\text{pos.} | \text{not sick}] = 0.01$$

Q: A random person arrives & tests positive.


What is the likelihood this person is sick?

$$\Pr[\text{pos.} | \text{sick}] = 0.99$$

$$\Pr[\text{sick}] = 0.001$$

$$\Pr[\text{pos.} | \text{not sick}] = 0.01$$

Bayes:

$$\Pr[\text{sick} | \text{pos}] = \frac{\Pr[\text{pos} | \text{sick}] \Pr[\text{sick}]}{\Pr[\text{pos} | \text{sick}] \Pr[\text{sick}] + \Pr[\text{pos} | \text{not sick}] \Pr[\text{not sick}]}$$
$$= \frac{0.99 \times 0.001}{(0.99 \times 0.001) + (0.01 \times 0.999)}$$
$$\approx 0.09$$


Not a great test?

Reason: False pos. rate is large compared to % of sick people

Simpson's Paradox

On-time arrival performance of two airlines:

	Airline A			Airline B		
	#flights	#ontime	%ontime	#flights	#ontime	%ontime
L.A.	600	534	89%	200	188	94%
Chicago	250	176	70%	900	685	76%
Total	850	710	84%	1100	873	79%

Which airline would you fly

- into L.A. ?
- into Chicago ?
- overall ?

Explanation: Airline A has a much higher percentage of its flights into L.A., which has better performance than Chicago.

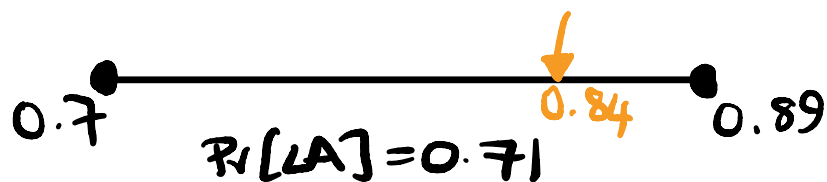
Math: Pick a random flight

on Airline A

$$\Pr[\text{on time} | \text{LA}] = 0.89$$

$$\Pr[\text{on time} | \text{Chicago}] = 0.70$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[\text{on time}] &= \Pr[\text{on time} | \text{LA}] \Pr[\text{LA}] \\ &\quad + \Pr[\text{on time} | \text{Chic.}] \Pr[\text{Chic.}] \\ &= (0.89 \times \Pr[\text{LA}]) + (0.70 \times \Pr[\text{Chic.}])\end{aligned}$$



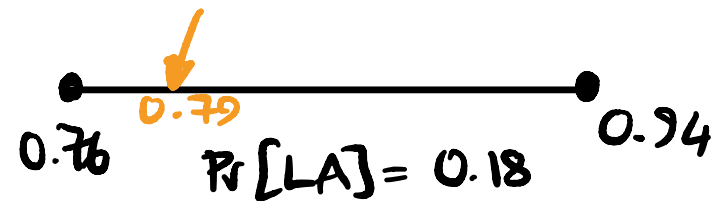
on Airline B

$$\Pr[\text{on time} | \text{LA}] = 0.94$$

$$\Pr[\text{on time} | \text{Chic.}] = 0.76$$

$$\Pr[\text{on time}] = \dots$$

$$= (0.94 \times \Pr[\text{LA}]) + (0.76 \times \Pr[\text{Chic.}])$$



Summary

- Conditional probability
- Correlation & Independence
- Unions & intersections of events
- Bayes Rule & Total Probability Rule
- Inference ; Simpson's Paradox