

# Probability (Textbook Chapters 16 and 17)

R. Sekar

# Monty Hall Problem

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*Suppose you're on a game show, and you're given the choice of three doors. Behind one door is a car, behind the others, goats. You pick a door, say number 1, and the host, who knows what's behind the doors, opens another door, say number 3, which has a goat. He says to you, "Do you want to pick door number 2?" Is it to your advantage to switch your choice of doors?*

Describes a situation faced by contestants on a 70's game show *Let's Make a Deal*.

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- After the player picks a door, the host must open a different door with a goat behind it and offer the player a second choice.
- If the host has a choice of which door to open, then he is equally likely to select each of them.

# The Sample Space

- *Random variables* (aka “random quantities”)
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- *Outcome*: Values taken by random variables in any one experiment, e.g.,  $(A, C, B)$  denotes:
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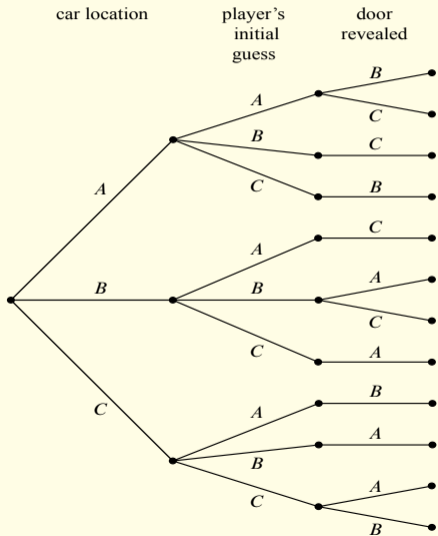
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  - the car is behind door  $A$ ,
  - the player chooses door  $C$ ,
  - the host opens door  $B$
- *Sample space*: Set of all possible outcomes

$$S = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (A, A, B), (A, A, C), (A, B, C), (A, C, B), (B, A, C), (B, B, A) \\ (B, B, C), (B, C, A), (C, A, B), (C, B, A), (C, C, A), (C, C, B) \end{array} \right\}$$

# Tree Diagram Displaying Sample Space

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# Events

A *set of outcomes* is called an event. Examples:

- “prize is behind door C”

$$\{(C, A, B), (C, B, A), (C, C, A), (C, C, B)\}$$

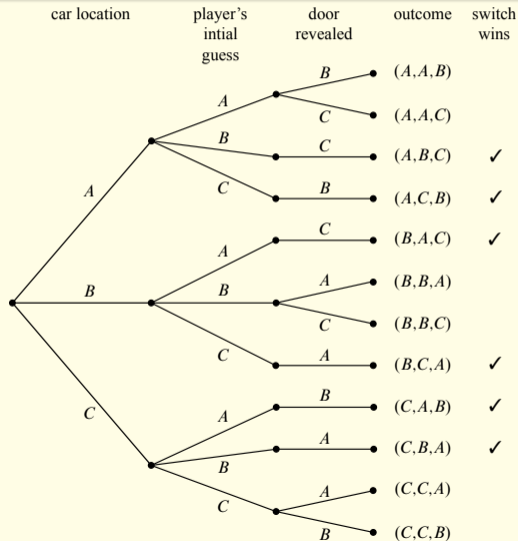
- “prize behind door first picked by the player”

$$\{(A, A, B), (A, A, C), (B, B, A), (B, B, C), (C, C, A), (C, C, B)\}$$

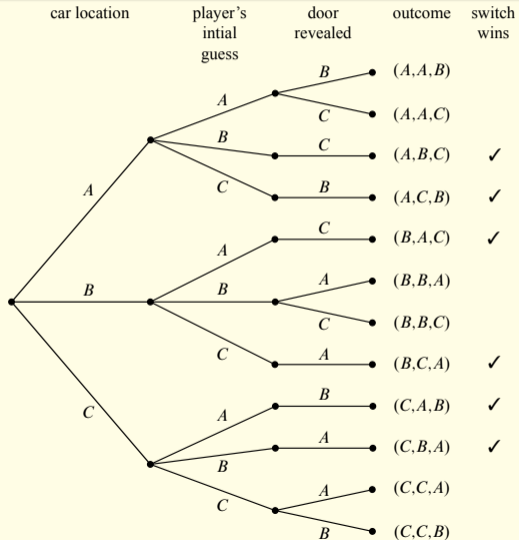
- “player wins by switching”

$$\{(A, B, C), (A, C, B), (B, A, C), (B, C, A), (C, A, B), (C, B, A)\}$$

# Tree Diagram With "Player Wins By Switching" Marked

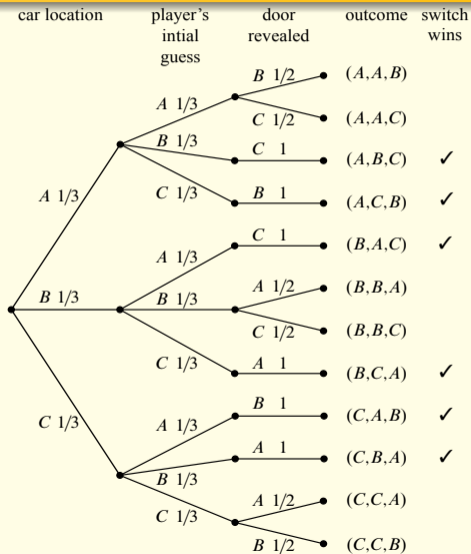


# Computing Event Probabilities



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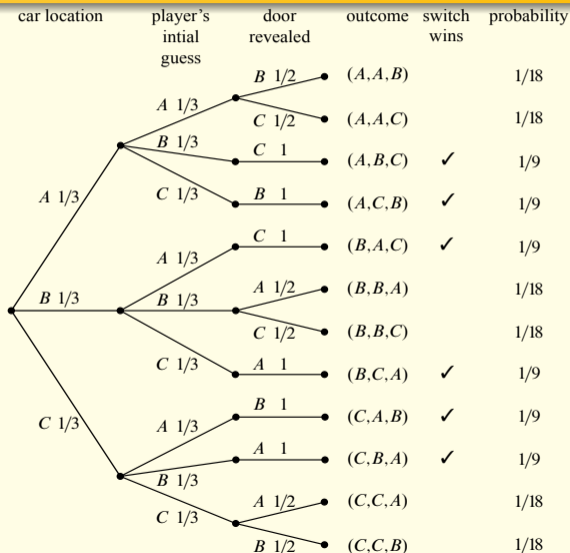
- Assign edge probabilities





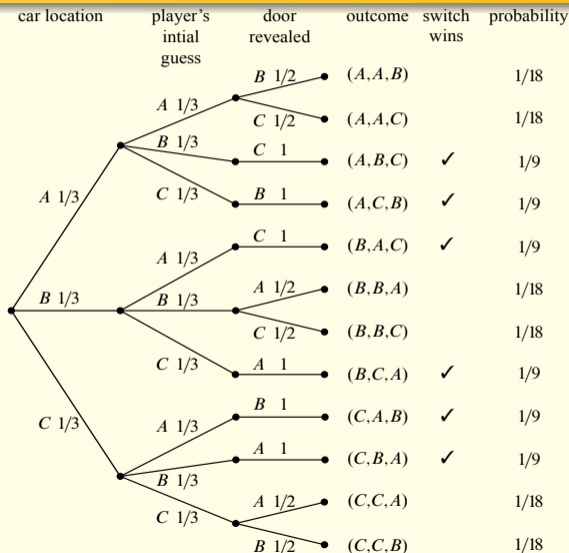
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- Assign edge probabilities
- Compute outcome probabilities



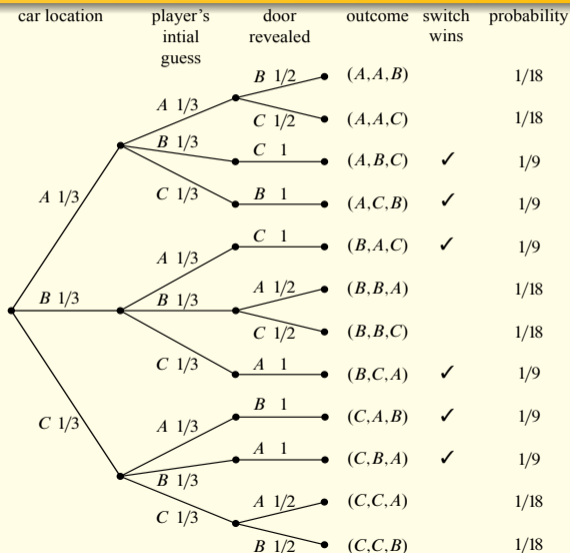
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- Assign edge probabilities
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- Compute event probability:



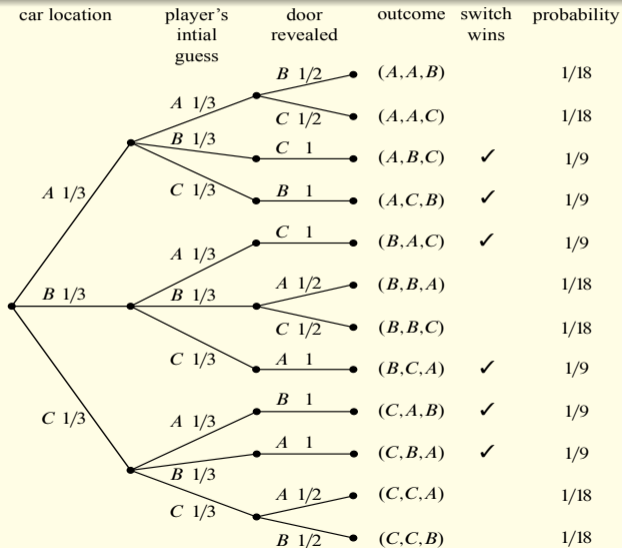
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- Assign edge probabilities
- Compute outcome probabilities
- Compute event probability:  $6/9 = 2/3!$



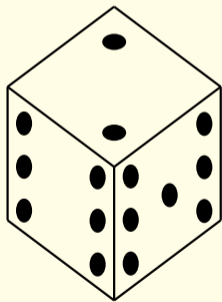
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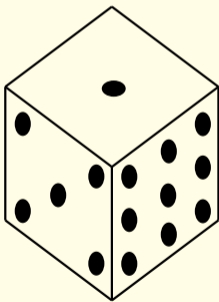


# Strange Die Game

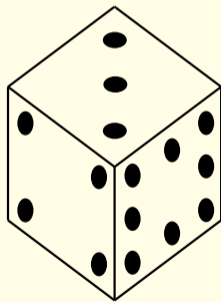
- A stranger challenges you to a game: whoever rolls higher will pay the other \$10.
- To sweeten the deal, he says you can pick your die first.



*A*

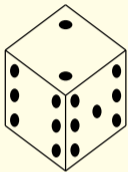


*B*

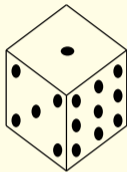


*C*

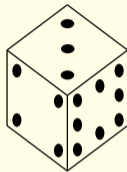
# Strange Die Game: A Vs B



*A*

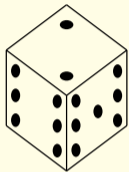


*B*

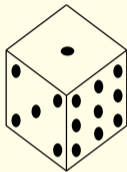


*C*

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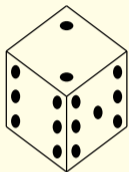


*B*

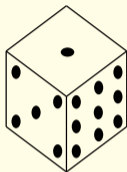


*C*

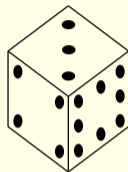
# Strange Die Game: B Vs C



*A*



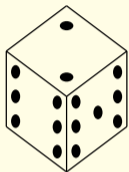
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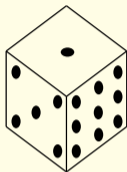
*C*



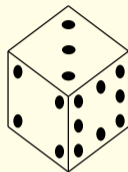
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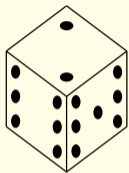


*B*

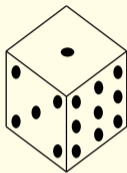


*C*

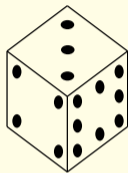
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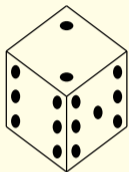


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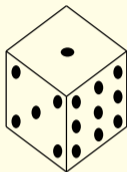


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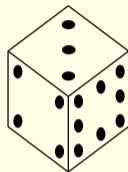
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*B*



*C*

# Birthday Problem

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- What is the probability of finding two people with the same birthday in this class?
- The probability that two students have different birthdays:  $\frac{364}{365}$
- In a class of  $n$ , there are  $\binom{n}{2}$  pairs of students to consider.
  - If we assume that whether one pair shares a birthday is independent of another, we can simply multiply these probabilities

$$Pr(\text{no two persons with same birthday}) \approx \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{\binom{n}{2}} \approx \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{n^2/2}$$

- For  $n = 44$ , this formula yields a probability of 7%
  - $n = 23$  is enough to have better than even chance of finding two with the same birthday.

## Birthday Problem: More Accurate Approach

- What is the probability of finding two people with the same birthday in this class?
- There are  $365^n$  possible sequences of birthdays for  $n$  people
  - We assume these are all equally likely

- Number of sequences without repetition:  $365 \cdot 364 \cdots (365 - (n - 1))$

- Probability that no two of  $n$  persons have same birthday:

$$\frac{365}{365} \cdot \frac{365 - 1}{365} \cdots \frac{365 - (n - 1)}{365} = \left(1 - \frac{0}{365}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{365}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n - 1}{365}\right)$$

- Use the approximation  $(1 - x) < e^{-x}$  to derive an upper bound:

$$Pr(\text{no two persons with same birthday}) < e^0 \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{365}} \cdot e^{-\frac{n-1}{365}} = e^{\frac{-1}{365} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i} = e^{\frac{-n(n-1)}{2 \cdot 365}}$$

- For  $n = 44$ , this evaluates to 7.5%

# Set Theory and Probability

- A countable *sample space*  $\mathcal{S}$  is a nonempty countable set.
- An *outcome*  $\omega$  is an element of  $\mathcal{S}$ .
- A *probability function*  $Pr : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a total function such that
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- An *event*  $E$  is a subset of  $\mathcal{S}$ . Its probability is given by:

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



# Probability Rules from Set Theory

Many probability rules follow from the rules on set cardinality

**Sum Rule:** If  $E_0, E_1, \dots, E_n, \dots$  are pairwise disjoint events, then

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**Union Bound:**  $Pr[A \cup B] \leq Pr[A] + Pr[B]$

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**Monotonicity:**  $A \subseteq B \rightarrow Pr[A] \leq Pr[B]$

# Uniform Probability Spaces

A finite probability space  $\mathcal{S}$  said to be uniform if  $Pr[\omega]$  is the same for all  $\omega$ . In such spaces:

$$Pr[E] = \frac{|E|}{|\mathcal{S}|}$$

We often this assumption — for instance, whenever probability was brought up while counting.

# Infinite Probability Spaces

Two players take turns flipping fair coins. The first one to land heads wins. What is the probability of each player winning?

# Conditional Probability

- Probability of an event under a condition
- The condition limits consideration to a subset of outcomes
  - Consider this subset (rather than whole of  $\mathcal{S}$ ) as the space of all possible outcomes

$$Pr[X|Y] = \frac{Pr[X \cap Y]}{Pr[Y]}$$



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**Example:**  $Pr[\text{win by switching} \mid \text{pick } A \text{ and goat at } B]$

$Pr[\{(A, B, C), (A, C, B), (B, A, C), (B, C, A), (C, A, B), (C, B, A)\} \mid \{(A, A, B), (A, A, C), (C, A, B)\}]$

i.e.,  $Pr[\{(C, A, B)\}] / Pr[\{(A, A, B), (A, A, C), (C, A, B)\}]$

which evaluates to  $1/2$  — switching does not seem to help!

# Monty Hall Problem Revisited

**Wrong Question:**  $Pr[\text{win by switching} \mid \text{pick } A \text{ and goat at } B]$

$$\begin{aligned} & Pr(\{(A, B, C), (A, C, B), (B, A, C), (B, C, A), (C, A, B), (C, B, A)\} \mid \{(A, A, B), (A, A, C), (C, A, B)\}) \\ &= Pr[\{(C, A, B)\}] / Pr[\{(A, A, B), (A, A, C), (C, A, B)\}] = \frac{1/9}{1/18+1/18+1/9} = 1/2 \end{aligned}$$

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**Right Question:**  $Pr[\text{win by switching} \mid \text{pick } A \text{ and host opens } B]$

$$\begin{aligned} & Pr(\{(A, B, C), (A, C, B), (B, A, C), (B, C, A), (C, A, B), (C, B, A)\} \mid \{(A, A, B), (C, A, B)\}) \\ &= Pr[\{(C, A, B)\}] / Pr[\{(A, A, B), (C, A, B)\}] = \frac{1/9}{1/18+1/9} = 2/3 \end{aligned}$$

- Switching does help: The main clue is the host's decision to open  $B$ !

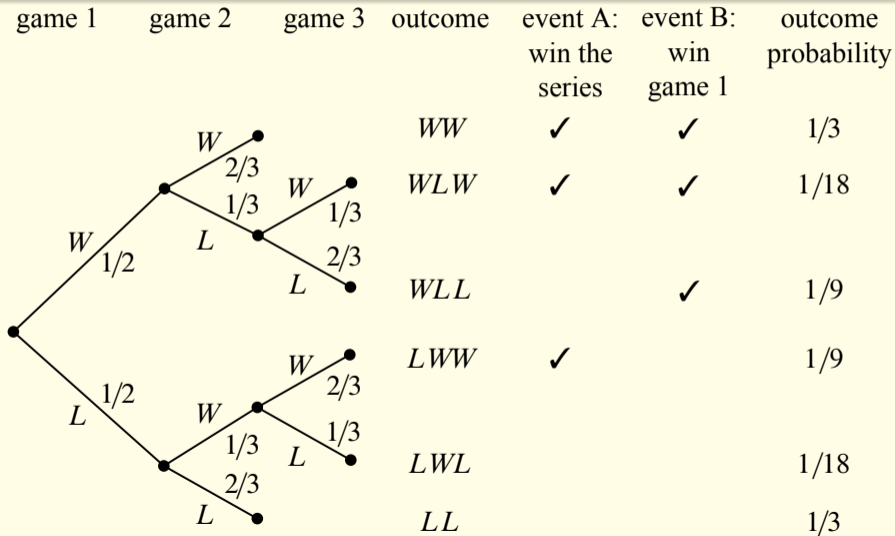
# Four-Step Method for Conditional Probability

## Best-of-Three Playoff

Both teams have a 0.5 probability of winning the first match. But for subsequent games, the winning team has a  $\frac{2}{3}$  probability of winning the next match. Similarly, the losing team has a  $\frac{2}{3}$  probability of losing the next match.

*What is the probability that the team that wins the first match will win the playoffs?*

# Four-Step Method for Conditional Probability



# Four-Step Method for Conditional Probability

- Find the sample space

$$\mathcal{S} = \{WW, WLW, WLL, LWW, LWL, LL\}$$

- Define events of interest

$$W_T = \{WW, WLW, LWW\}$$

$$W_F = \{WW, WLW, WLL\}$$

- Determine outcome probabilities

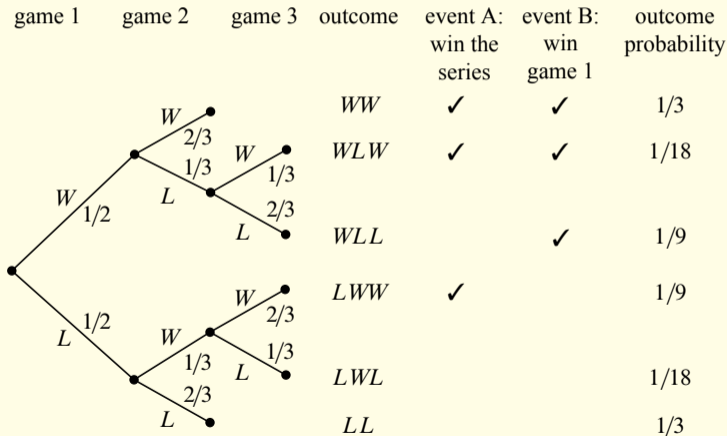
- Outcomes correspond to the tree leaves, and are annotated with their probabilities

- Compute event probabilities

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[W_T] &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{18} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{1}{2} \\ Pr[W_T|W_F] &= \frac{Pr[\{WW, WLW\}]}{Pr[W_F]} = \frac{1/3 + 1/18}{1/2} = \frac{7}{9} \end{aligned}$$

# What are Edge Probabilities in Tree Diagrams?

- They are just conditional probabilities!



# Extending Probability Rules for Conditional Probability

Product Rule 2:  $Pr[E_1 \cap E_2] = Pr[E_1] \cdot Pr[E_2|E_1]$



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Product Rule 2:  $Pr[E_1 \cap E_2] = Pr[E_1] \cdot Pr[E_2|E_1]$

Product Rule 3:  $Pr[E_1 \cap E_2 \cap E_3] = Pr[E_1] \cdot Pr[E_2|E_1] \cdot Pr[E_3|E_1 \cap E_2]$

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Bayes' Rule:  $Pr[B|A] = \frac{Pr[A|B] \cdot Pr[B]}{Pr[A]}$

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**Bayes' Rule:**  $Pr[B|A] = \frac{Pr[A|B] \cdot Pr[B]}{Pr[A]}$

**Total Probability Law:**  $Pr[A] = Pr[A|E] \cdot Pr[E] + Pr[A|\bar{E}] \cdot Pr[\bar{E}]$

**Total Probability Law 2:** If  $E_i$  are mutually disjoint and  $Pr[\bigcup E_i] = 1$  then

$$Pr[A] = \sum Pr[A|E_i] \cdot Pr[E_i]$$

**Inclusion-Exclusion:**  $Pr[A \cup B|C] = Pr[A|C] + Pr[B|C] - Pr[A \cap B|C]$

# Independence

- An event  $A$  is independent of  $B$  iff the following (equivalent) conditions hold:
  - $Pr[A|B] = Pr[A]$
  - $Pr[A \cap B] = Pr[A] \cdot Pr[B]$
  - $B$  is independent of  $A$
- Often, independence is an assumption.
- Definition can be generalized to 3 (or  $n$ ) events. Events  $E_1, E_2$  and  $E_3$  are mutually independent iff all of the following hold:
  - $Pr[E_1 \cap E_2] = Pr[E_1] \cdot Pr[E_2]$
  - $Pr[E_2 \cap E_3] = Pr[E_2] \cdot Pr[E_3]$
  - $Pr[E_1 \cap E_3] = Pr[E_1] \cdot Pr[E_3]$
  - $Pr[E_1 \cap E_2 \cap E_3] = Pr[E_1] \cdot Pr[E_2] \cdot Pr[E_3]$

# Medical Testing

**False Positive (FP):**  $Pr[\text{positive test} \mid \text{not sick}]$

In the context of statistical hypothesis testing:

- FP is called *type I error* or *significance* and denoted by the letter  $\alpha$
- $\gamma = 1 - \alpha$  is called *specificity* or *confidence* of the test.

**False Negative:**  $Pr[\text{negative test} \mid \text{sick}]$

In statistical hypothesis testing,

- FN is called *type II error* and denoted  $\beta$ .
- $1 - \beta$  is called the *power* of the test.

# Medical Testing

- Consider a diagnostic test with FP and FN probabilities of 0.05 and 0.02 respectively.
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It depends ...  
... on what fraction of the tested population is actually sick.  
Assume this is 1%.



# Medical Testing: Four-Step Method

- Find the sample space

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(sick, pos), (sick, neg), (\neg sick, pos), (\neg sick, neg)\}$$

- Define events of interest

$$Sick = \{(sick, pos), (sick, neg)\}$$

$$Pos = \{(sick, pos), (\neg sick, pos)\}$$

- Determine outcome probabilities: See the tree diagram on the previous slide
- Compute conditional probability

$$Pr[Pos] = Pr[(sick, pos)] + Pr[(\neg sick, pos)] = 0.01 \cdot 0.98 + 0.99 \cdot 0.05 = 0.0593$$

$$Pr[Sick|Pos] = \frac{Pr[\{(sick, pos)\}]}{Pr[Pos]} = 0.01 \cdot 0.98 / 0.0593 = 16.5\%$$

*Although the test is more than 95% accurate, a positive does not mean much:  
You have only a small (16.5%) chance of being actually sick!*

# Medical Testing: Summary

- While false positives are rare, they are more common than the likelihood of a random person being sick
  - In fact, the condition being tested is 5x less prevalent than FPs.
  - So, 4 out of 5 times, people flagged by the test are not sick.
- This calculation is based on the assumption that the person being tested is someone picked randomly from the population.
  - If we tested only those that display symptoms of the sickness, the rates will be different.
    - In particular, we need to use the prevalence of sickness among such symptomatic people.