

Probability, Independence, Bayes Rule

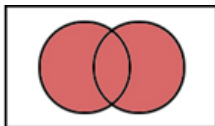
Hayk Aprikyan, Hayk Tarkhanyan

April 11, 2025

Preliminaries

Recall the set operations:

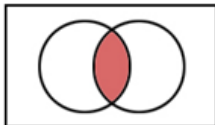
$A \cup B$



Union $A \cup B$:

All elements that belong to A or B or both

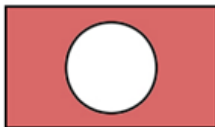
$A \cap B$



Intersection $A \cap B$:

All elements that belong to *both* A and B

A^c



Complement A^c :

All elements that do not belong to A

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- E.g. predicting the score of a football match, or the outcome of a tossed coin.
- While we cannot tell the exact outcome of such an event, we can still speculate about the likely outcomes (e.g. which outcome is more likely than the others).
- The mathematical notion associated with the likeliness of a particular output to happen is called **probability**.

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We denote the sample space with the letter Ω , so

$$\Omega = \{\text{all possible outcomes}\}$$

Example

A football match is a random experiment, where:

- Outcome is the score of the game.
- For example, one possible outcomes is "Pyunik 2 - 1 Alashkert". One way to denote it is $(2, 1)$.
- The sample space is:

$$\Omega = \{(0, 0); (0, 1); (1, 0); (1, 1); (2, 0); \dots\}$$

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Informally, we can say that both outcomes are equally likely: 50/50.

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- Outcome is the time until the bus arrives.
- Practically, it can be *any* positive value, perhaps under 60 minutes.
E.g. 2.3497 minutes is a possible outcome.
- The sample space is:

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Whenever Ω is an interval (e.g. $(0, 1)$, $[1, 10]$, $[0, +\infty)$), the probability of each outcome is 0.

(of course, this does not mean that they are impossible – [watch this!](#))

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- The set of all events is called the **event space** and denoted by \mathcal{F} .

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Two events A and B of the same experiment are called **disjoint** or **mutually exclusive** if $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

In other words, events are disjoint if they cannot occur at the same time.

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Example

When rolling a die, the events $A = \{1, 4\}$ and $B = \{2, 5\}$ are disjoint, while A and $C = \{3, 4, 5\}$ are not.

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When waiting for a bus, the events $A = [0, 20]$ and $B = [30, 40]$ are disjoint, but none of them is disjoint with $C = [10, 40]$.

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Experiments like this (where all outcomes have the same probability of occurring) are called **equiprobable**.

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since A has 3 elements and the total number of outcomes is 6.

In equiprobable case, the probability of any event $A \in \mathcal{F}$ is:

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Now we roll two fair dice. Our sample space will be

$$\Omega = \{(x, y) \mid 1 \leq x, y \leq 6\}.$$

Assuming that all of 36 outcomes are equally likely to show up, the probability of each (x, y) outcome is:

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As it shows, probability can also be not equiprobable.

Probability

So in general, in different problems the *probability measure* \mathbb{P} can be different, and it depends on the specifics of the problem how it is computed.

There are, however, three properties which the probability measure \mathbb{P} always satisfies:

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- 1 $\mathbb{P}(A) \geq 0$ for any event $A \in \mathcal{F}$,
- 2 $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$,
- 3 For any disjoint events A_1, A_2, \dots ,

$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \mathbb{P}(A_2) + \dots$$

i.e.

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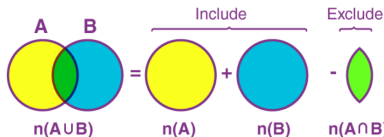
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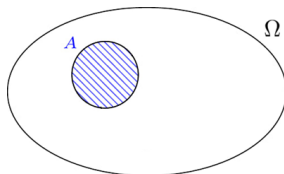
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is called the **conditional probability** of A **given** B (or the probability of A under the condition of B).



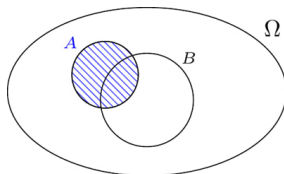
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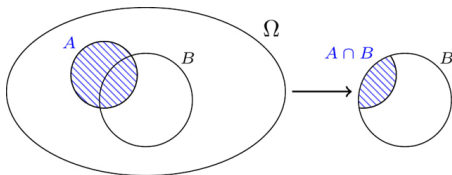
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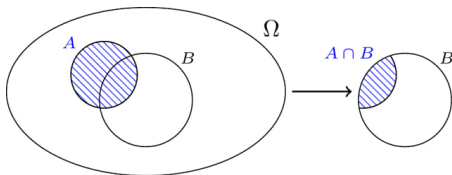
Conditional Probability

Definition

For any events A and B (if $\mathbb{P}(B) \neq 0$), the following number:

$$\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$$

is called the **conditional probability** of A **given** B
(or the probability of A under the condition of B).



In our problem, if A means being even and B means being prime, we had:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{even} \mid \text{given that prime}) = \mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)} = \frac{1/6}{3/6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Conditional Probability

Example

Suppose we roll two fair dice. What is the probability that the first one is 2, given that their sum is no greater than 5?

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	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
6	7	8	9	10	11	12

Usually, there would be 36 total outcomes, but since we *know* the sum is 5, they are only 10 possible outcomes left. Out of them only three outcomes ("2-1", "2-2" and "2-3") are desired. So the probability is $\frac{3}{10}$.

Law of Total Probability

Question

In some university, $3/5$ of all students are women and the rest are men. It is known that 15% of men are over left-handed, while only 10% of women are. If you choose a random student, what is the probability of the student being left-handed?

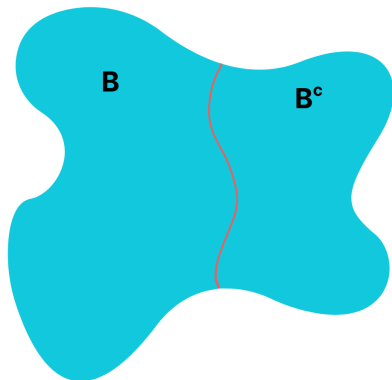
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In some university, $3/5$ of all students are women and the rest are men. It is known that 15% of men are over left-handed, while only 10% of women are. If you choose a random student, what is the probability of the student being left-handed?

Let B denote the event that the randomly selected student is a woman, and B^c that he is a man.

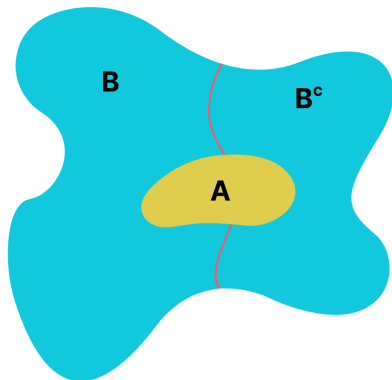
With another letter, say A , let us denote the event of being left-handed.

Law of Total Probability



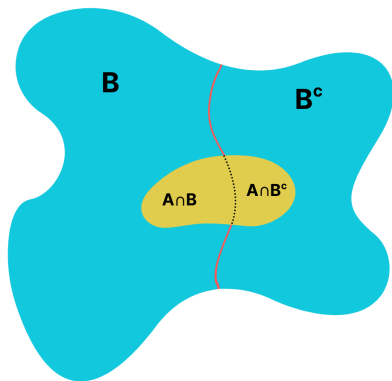
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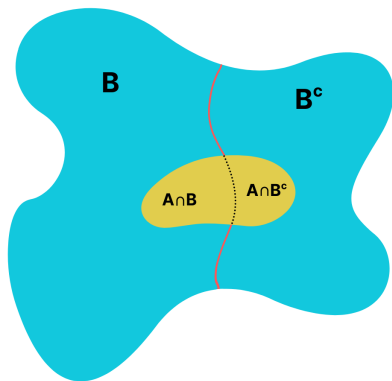
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$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A \cap B) + \mathbb{P}(A \cap B^c) = \mathbb{P}(B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B) + \mathbb{P}(B^c) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B^c)$$

Law of Total Probability

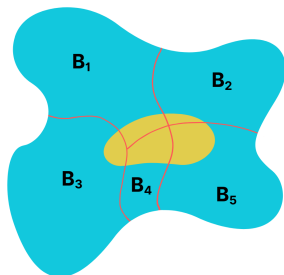
What we get is known as the Law of Total Probability:

Theorem

If A and B are some events such that $\mathbb{P}(B) \neq 0$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B) + \mathbb{P}(B^c) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B^c)$$

Law of Total Probability



We can also generalize it to the case of three or more subgroups:

Theorem

If B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n are some disjoint events such that $A \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^n B_k$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(B_1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B_1) + \dots + \mathbb{P}(B_n) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B_n)$$

Law of Total Probability

Example

There are 52 cards in a deck. One of the cards is randomly removed from the deck, 51 are left. What is the probability that if we take a card, it will be a diamond?

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If we denote by A the probability of taking a diamond, and by B the probability that the removed card was a diamond, then either:

- the taken card was a diamond, and there are 12 left,
- the taken card wasn't a diamond, and there are 13 left.

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The total probability will be:

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(B) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B) + \mathbb{P}(B^c) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A|B^c)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \frac{13}{52} \cdot \frac{12}{51} + \frac{39}{52} \cdot \frac{13}{51} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Bayes Rule

One more simple yet powerful tool is the so called Bayes Rule:

Theorem

If A and B are some events (with non-zero probabilities), then

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Let F denote dangerous fire, S smoke. Then:

$$\mathbb{P}(F|S) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(F) \cdot \mathbb{P}(S|F)}{\mathbb{P}(S)} = \frac{1}{100} \cdot \frac{90}{100} : \frac{10}{100} = 0.09$$

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Now let's consider another simple experiment: flipping a fair coin and rolling a six-sided die. The probability of getting **Heads** on the coin flip is independent of the probability of rolling a specific number on the die, as these two events *do not affect* each other.

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This definition makes sense because it means that the probability of both A and B occurring together is simply the product of their individual probabilities: the outcome of one event has no effect on the other.

Independence

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	(1, 1)	(1, 2)	(1, 3)	(1, 4)	(1, 5)	(1, 6)
2	(2, 1)	(2, 2)	(2, 3)	(2, 4)	(2, 5)	(2, 6)
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4	(4, 1)	(4, 2)	(4, 3)	(4, 4)	(4, 5)	(4, 6)
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Event A = the first die is even, B = the second die is odd.

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When solving a problem, principles like total probability, Bayes rule, and independence help us a lot. Let's explore one more useful problem solving technique.

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Example

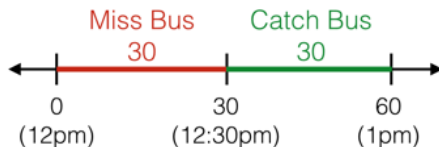
Your bus is coming at a random time between 12 pm and 1 pm. If you show up at 12:30 pm, how likely are you to catch the bus?

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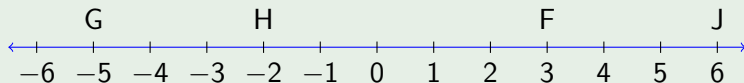
If we draw the hours on a number line and mark the time points for which we will miss or catch the bus, we see that the *length* of the segment for catching the bus is half the total length:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{catching the bus}) = \frac{30}{30 + 30} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Geometric Probability

Example

A selection is to be made between points G and J as seen below

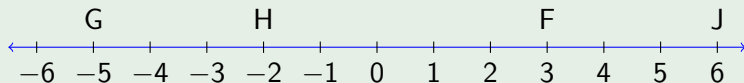


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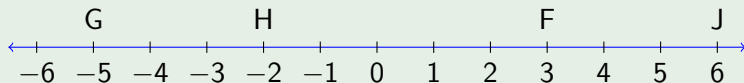


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So in general, we draw the sample space and the set of desired outcomes as lines or line segments, and divide the length of the "desired outcomes" by the length of the "sample space" to get the probability.

Geometric Probability

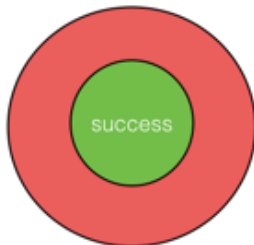
Imagine now that we are playing darts with two circles, and the smaller circle has two times smaller radius than the bigger one.



A dart is thrown at a random. What is the probability that it lands in the smaller circle?

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In this case, since the sample space and the set of desired outcomes is 2-dimensional, we should divide the *area* of the smaller circle by the *area* of the bigger circle.

The probability that the dart falls in the smaller circle, is $\frac{\pi r^2}{\pi (2r)^2} = \frac{1}{4}$.

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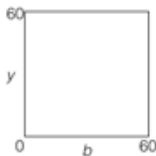
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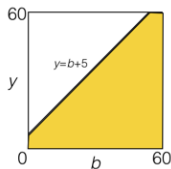
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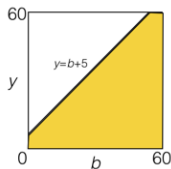
Geometric Probability

Then, we need to determine the region of "success"; that is, the points where we catch the bus. Since the bus will wait for 5 minutes, you need to arrive within 5 minutes of the bus' arrival, so $y \leq b + 5$.

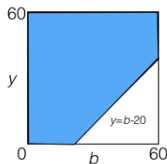


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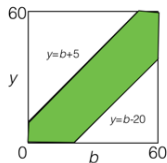


However, you only wait for 20 minutes, so you can't arrive more than 20 minutes before the bus, so $y \geq b - 20$.



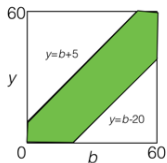
Geometric Probability

Combining our two conditions, we can draw the region of success:

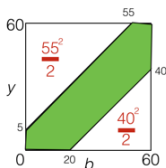


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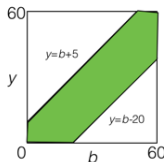


Now, we just need to find the area of this region. A simple method is to find the remaining area, and then subtract that from the total area:

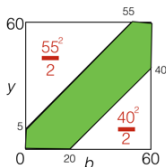


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$$\mathbb{P}(\text{catching the bus}) = \frac{60^2 - \frac{55^2}{2} - \frac{40^2}{2}}{60^2} = \frac{103}{288}$$