

LESSON 8

Total Probability and Bayes' Rule

CSCI 3022

Roadmap

Lesson 8, CSCI 3022

- Total Probability
- Bayes' Rule

See Lecture Slides From Last Class for Filled In Solution:

Suppose you have a biased coin, with probability of heads given by q

a). You flip the coin 5 times. What is the probability that you get the sequence HTTHT?

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{you get the sequence } HTTHT) &= P(H_1, T_2, T_3, H_4, T_5) \text{ (because this is a joint probability)} \\&= P(H_1)P(T_2|H_1)P(T_3|H_1, T_2)P(H_4|H_1, T_2, T_3)P(T_5|H_1, T_2, T_3, H_4) \text{ (by the multiplication rule)} \\&= q(1-q)(1-q)q(1-q) \\&= q^2(1-q)^3\end{aligned}$$

b). You flip the coin 5 times. What is the probability that you get 2 heads?

Ways you can get 2 heads:

$E1 = HTTHT$

$E2 = HHTTT$

$E3 = HTTTH$

$E4 = HTHTT$

$E5 = THHTT$

$E6 = THTHT$

$E7 = THTTH$

$E8 = TTHTT$

$E9 = TTHTH$

$E10 = TTTHH$

For this problem we're interested in different possible ways we can get exactly 2 heads when flipping a coin 5 times.

We've provided the full list, but we don't actually need the list, just the number of ways.

We can count this using combinations. The number of ways is equivalent to $\binom{5}{2} = \frac{5!}{2!3!} = 10$

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{exactly two heads}) &= P(E1 \cup E2 \cup E3 \cup E4 \dots \cup E10) \\&= P(E1) + P(E2) + P(E3) + \dots + P(E10) \text{ (by the addition rule for disjoint events)} \\&= q^2(1-q)^3 + q^2(1-q)^3 + q^2(1-q)^3 \dots q^2(1-q)^3 \text{ (because the probability for EACH of these events is } q^2(1-q)^3) \\&= \binom{5}{2} q^2(1-q)^3 \\&= 10q^2(1-q)^3\end{aligned}$$

Warm-Up: Serendipity



- There population of CU undergraduates is $n=31,000$ students
- Suppose you are friends with $r=100$ people.
- You walk into a classroom and you see $k=160$ random people.
- Assume each group of k CU undergrads is equally likely to be in the room.

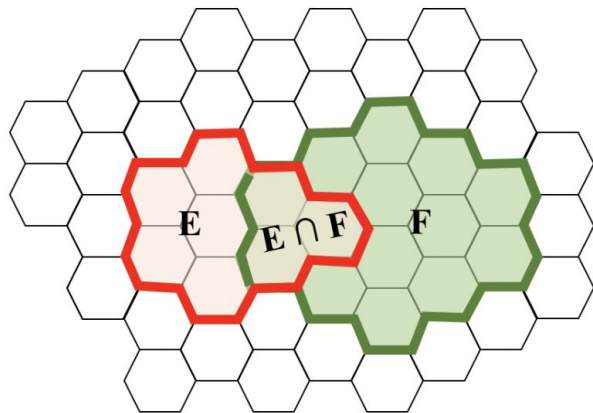
What is the probability that you see at least one friend in the room?

<https://web.stanford.edu/class/cs109/demos/serendipity.html>

Example

Suppose there's a rare disease with prevalence of $1/1000$ in the population.
A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5% and a false negative rate of 1%.

- a). What's the probability you test positive?
- b). You test positive. What's the probability you have the disease?



$$P(E) = P(E \text{ and } F) + P(E \text{ and } F^C)$$

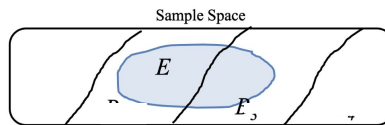
Law of Total Probability

Thm Let F be an event where $P(F) > 0$. For any event E ,

$$P(E) = P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^C)P(F^C)$$

General Law of Total Probability

Thm For **mutually exclusive events** F_1, F_2, \dots, F_n such that $F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \dots \cup F_n = S$,



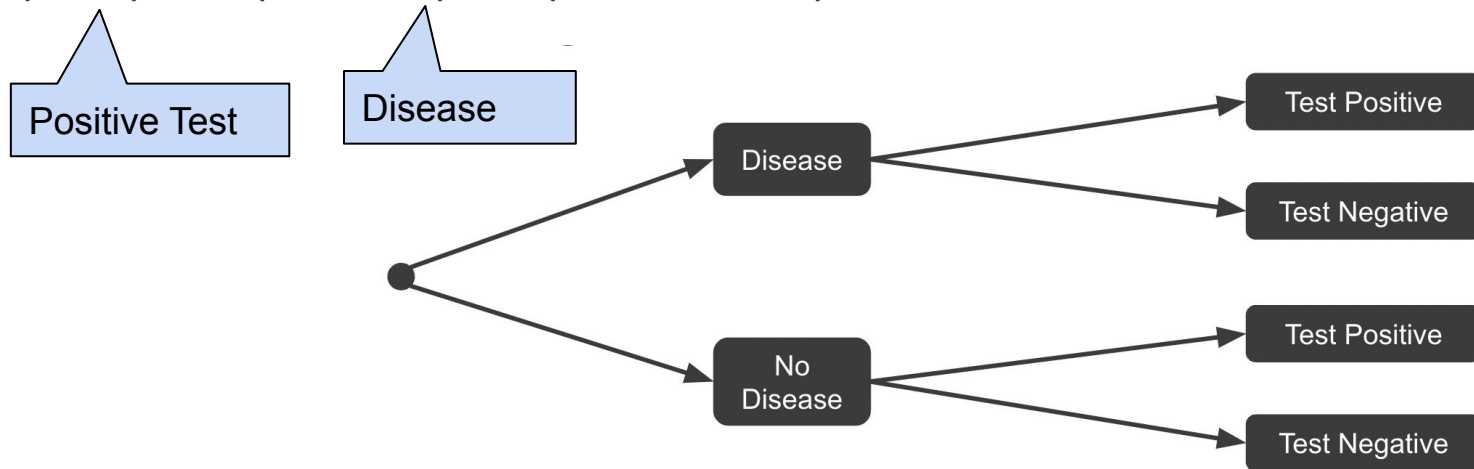
$$P(E) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E|F_i)P(F_i)$$

Example:

Suppose there's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.
A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5% and a false negative rate of 1%.

a). What's the probability you test positive?

$$P(\text{Pos}) = P(\text{Pos}, D) + P(\text{Pos}, \text{No } D)$$



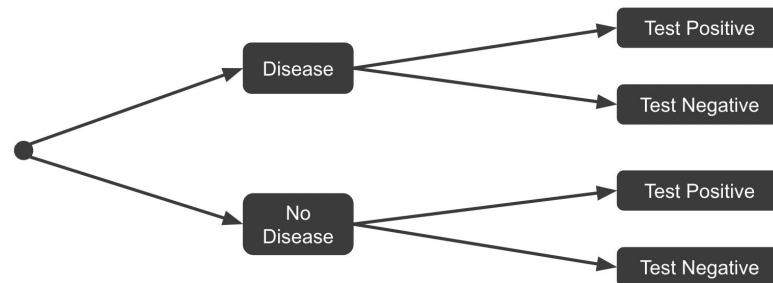
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$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Pos}) &= P(\text{Pos}, D) + P(\text{Pos}, \text{No } D) \\ &= P(D.) P(\text{Pos.} \mid D.) + P(\text{No } D.) P(\text{Pos.} \mid \text{No } D.) \end{aligned}$$



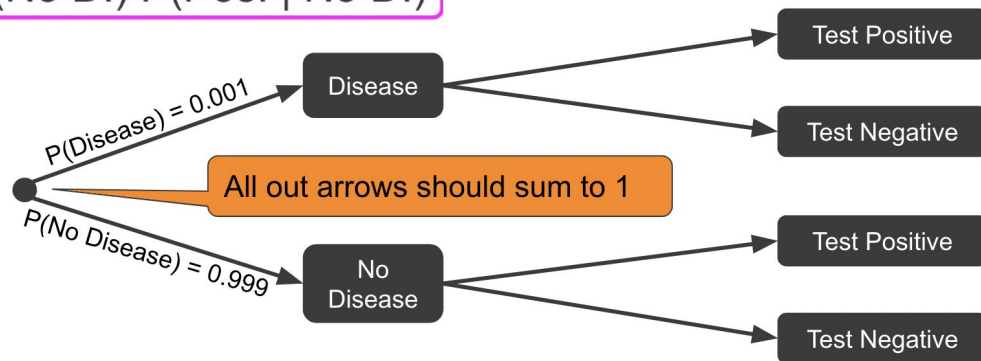
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- Rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in population

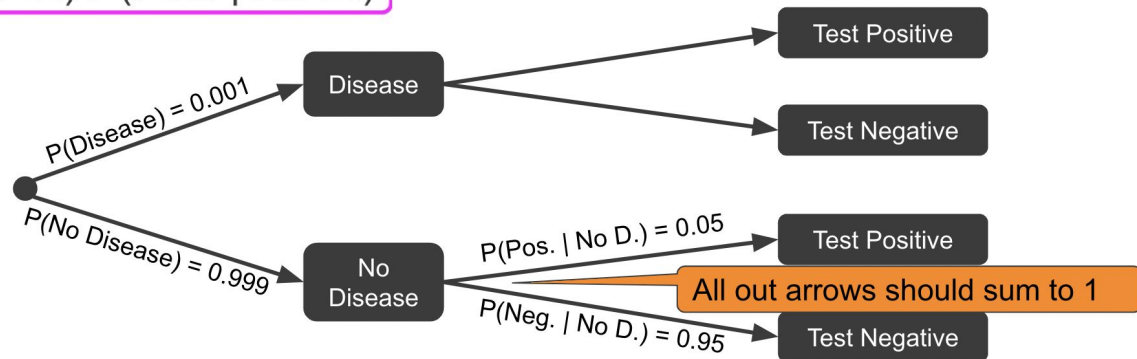
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○ **False Positive Rate of 5%**

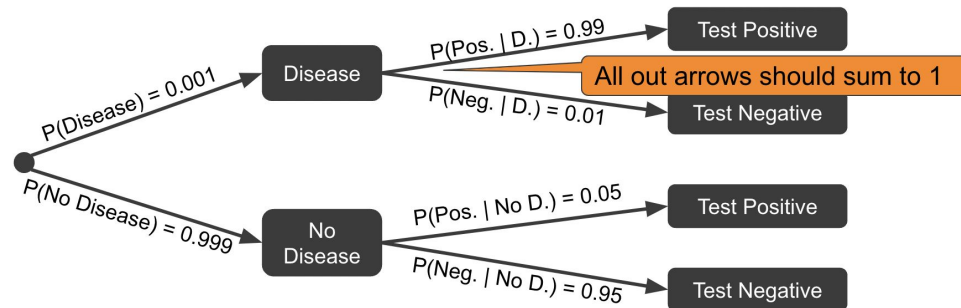
- If you do NOT have the disease then 5% of the time the test says you do.

Example:

Suppose there's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.
A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5% and a false negative rate of 1%.

a). What's the probability you test positive?

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- **False Negative Rate of 1%**
 - If you DO have the disease then 1% of the time the test says you do not have the disease.

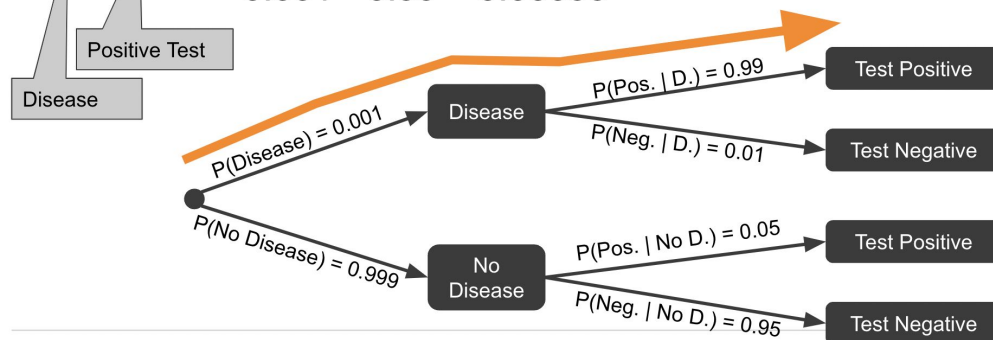
Example:

Suppose there's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.
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a). What's the probability you test positive?

$$P(\text{Pos}) = P(\text{Pos}, D) + P(\text{Pos}, \text{No } D)$$
$$= P(D.) P(\text{Pos.} | D.) + P(\text{No } D.) P(\text{Pos.} | \text{No } D.)$$

$$P(D., \text{Pos.}) = P(D.) P(\text{Pos.} | D.)$$
$$= 0.001 * 0.99 = 0.00099$$

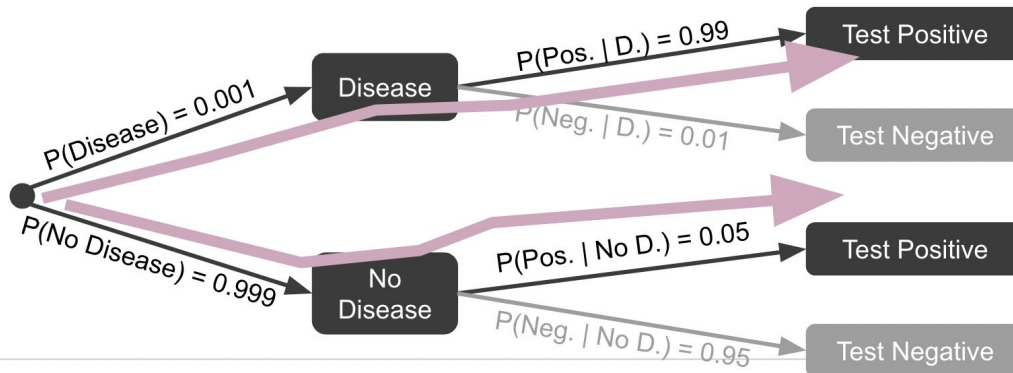


Example:

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a). What's the probability you test positive?

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Example

Suppose there's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.
A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5% and a false negative rate of 1%.

a). What's the probability you test positive?

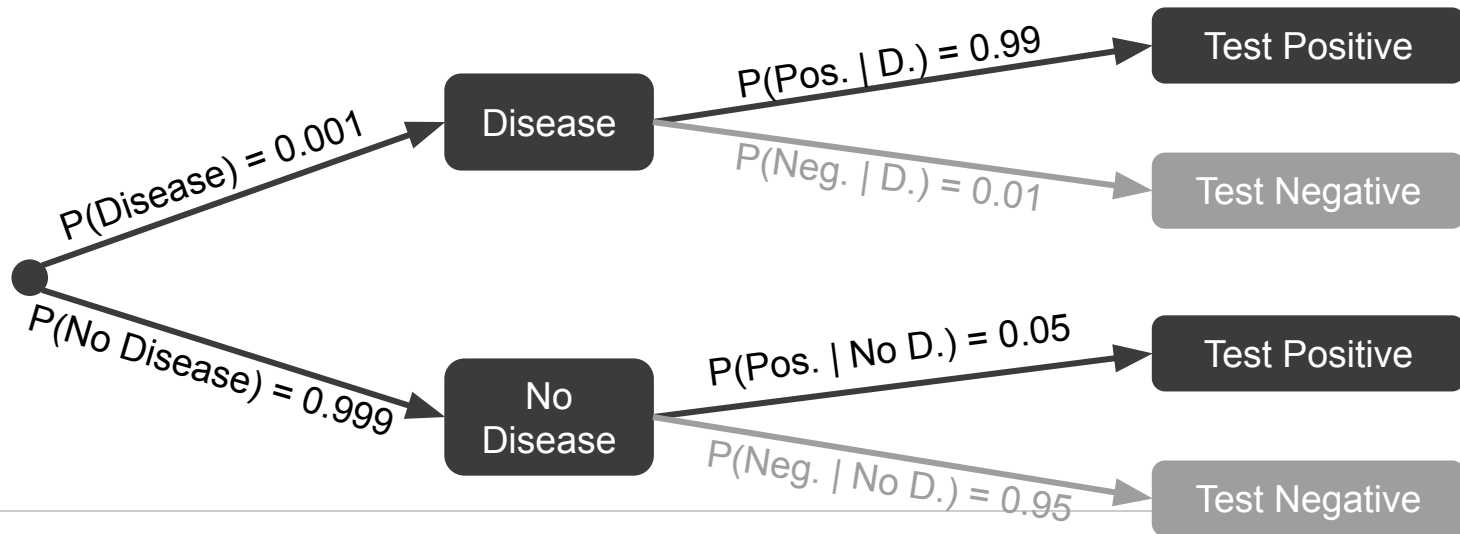
$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Pos}) &= P(\text{Pos}, D) + P(\text{Pos}, \text{No } D) \\ &= P(D.) P(\text{Pos.} \mid D.) + P(\text{No } D.) P(\text{Pos.} \mid \text{No } D.) \\ &= (.001) * (0.99) + (0.999) * (0.05) = \mathbf{0.05094} \end{aligned}$$

b). You test positive. What's the probability you have the disease?

There's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.
A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5% and a false negative rate of 1%.
b). You test positive. What's the prob you have the disease?

$$P(D. \mid \text{Pos.}) = \frac{P(D., \text{Pos.})}{P(\text{Pos.})} = \frac{P(D.) P(\text{Pos.} \mid D.)}{P(\text{Pos.})}$$

Famous
Equation Alert!
Bayes' Thm



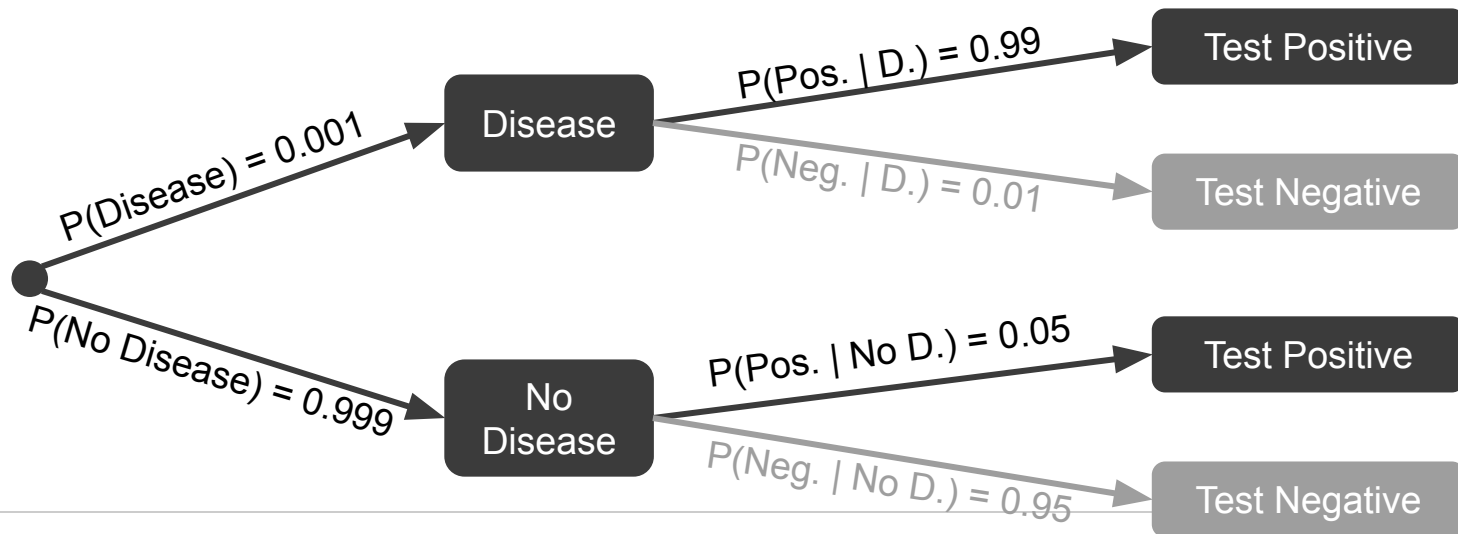
There's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.

A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5% and a false negative rate of 1%.

b). You test positive. What's the prob you have the disease?

$$P(D., \text{Pos.}) = P(D.) P(\text{Pos.} \mid D.) = 0.00099$$

$$P(D. \mid \text{Pos.}) = \frac{0.00099}{0.00099 + 0.04995} = 0.0194 \approx 2\%$$



Bayes' Theorem

$$P(E|F) \Rightarrow P(F|E)$$

Thm For any events E and F where $P(E) > 0$ and $P(F) > 0$,

$$P(F|E) = \frac{P(E|F)P(F)}{P(E)}$$

Proof

2 steps!

Expanded form:

$$P(F|E) = \frac{P(E|F)P(F)}{P(E|F)P(F) + P(E|F^c)P(F^c)}$$

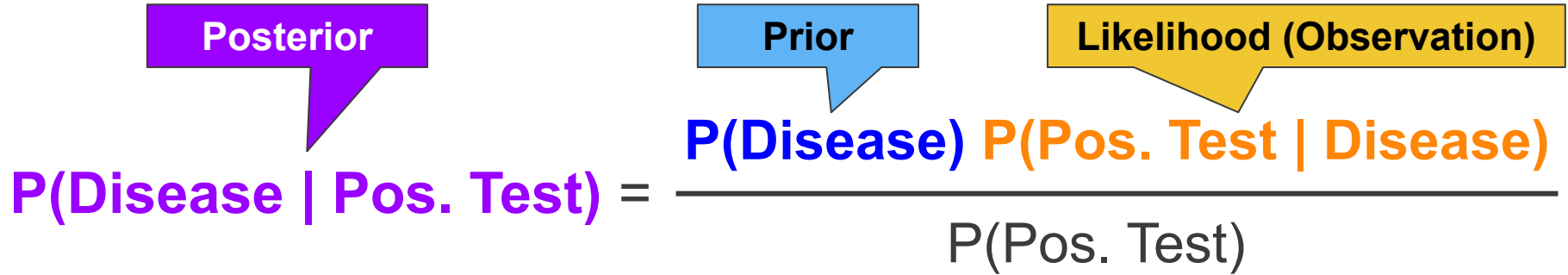
Proof

1 more step!



Famous Equation: Bayes' Rule

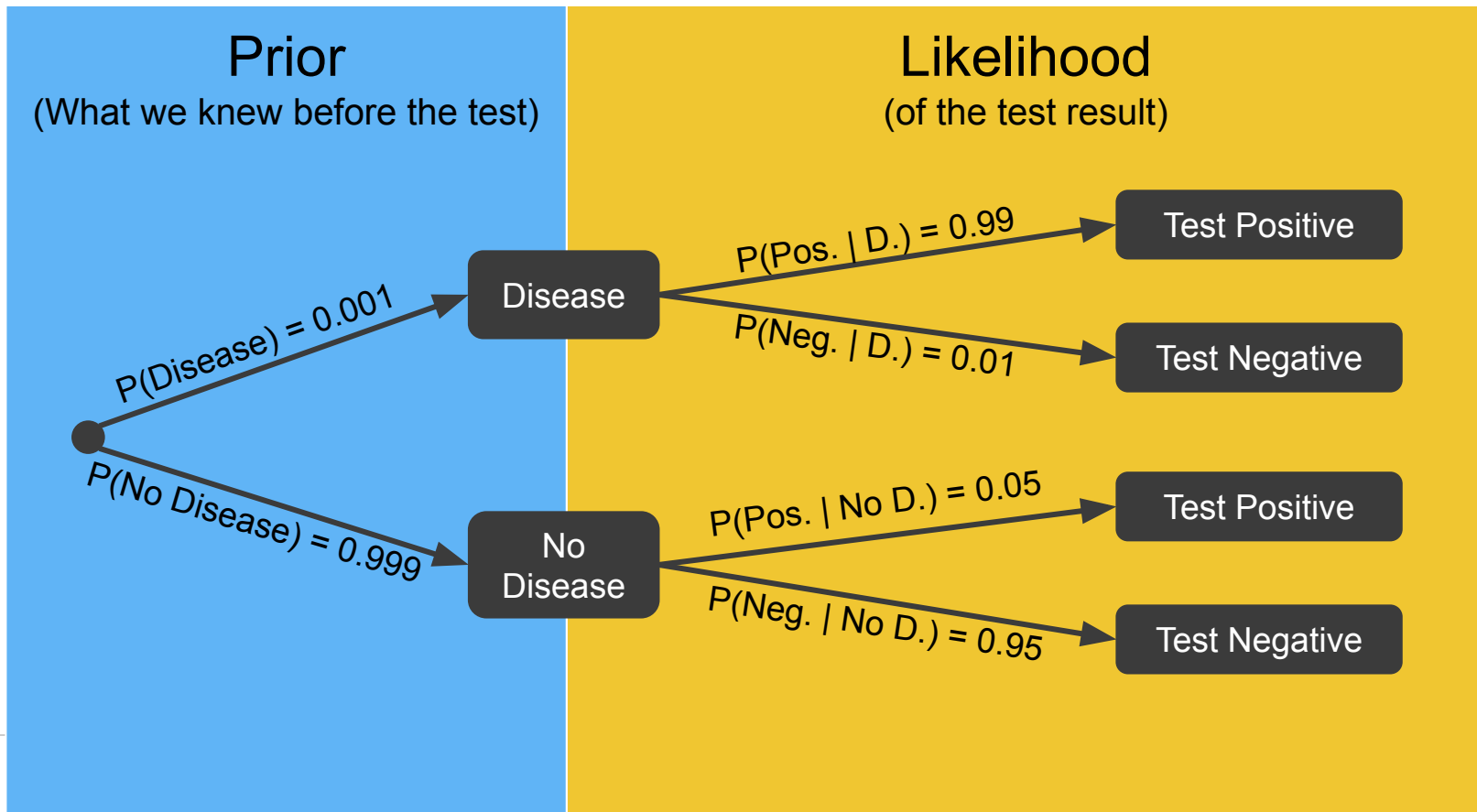
Bayes' Rule allows us to **update probabilities** by incorporating observations:



The diagram illustrates Bayes' Rule with three callout boxes: a purple box labeled 'Posterior' pointing to the left side of the equation, a blue box labeled 'Prior' pointing to the first term of the numerator, and a yellow box labeled 'Likelihood (Observation)' pointing to the second term of the numerator.

$$P(\text{Disease} \mid \text{Pos. Test}) = \frac{P(\text{Disease}) P(\text{Pos. Test} \mid \text{Disease})}{P(\text{Pos. Test})}$$

Tree Diagrams and Terminology



Bayes' Theorem

Review

$$\overset{\text{posterior}}{P(F|E)} = \frac{\overset{\text{likelihood}}{P(E|F)} \overset{\text{prior}}{P(F)}}{\underset{\text{normalization constant}}{P(E)}}$$

Mathematically:

$$P(E|F) \rightarrow P(F|E)$$

Real-life application:

Given new evidence E , update belief of fact F
Prior belief \rightarrow Posterior belief
 $P(F) \rightarrow P(F|E)$

A Closer Look at the Answer

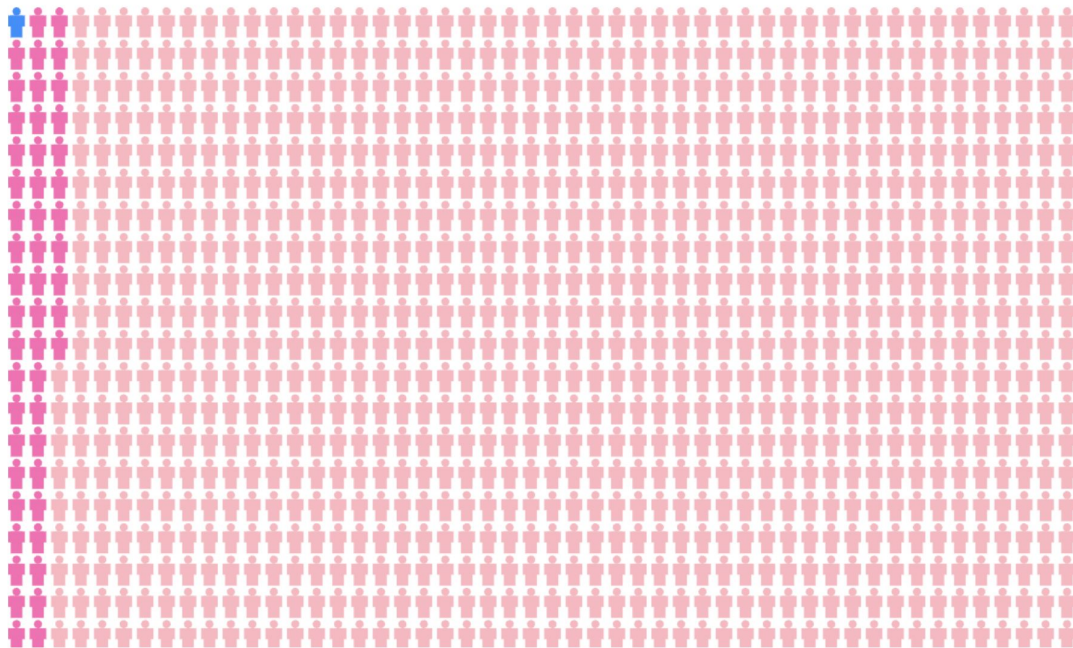
Assume a patient is picked at random.

- Prior probability of disease
 - $P(\text{Disease}) = 0.001 = \text{one-tenth of } 1\%$
 - Posterior probability of disease given positive test
 - $P(\text{Disease} \mid \text{Test positive}) = 0.0194... \approx 2\%$
 - Bigger than the prior, but still pretty small
 - Should we approve such a test?
 - The test has **low error rates** compared to most tests
 - How can this be?
-

There's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.
A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5% and a false negative rate of 1%.

b). You test positive. What's the prob you have the disease?

Here is the whole population of 1000 people:



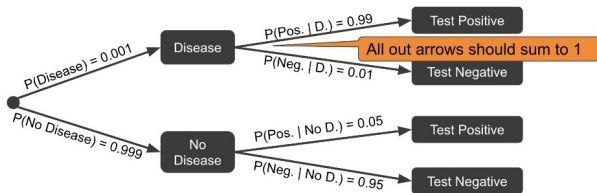
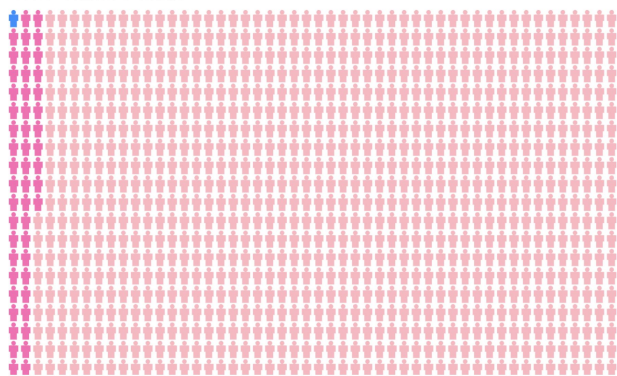
- Out of 1000 people:
- # of people with disease:
 $1000 * (1/1000) = 1$
- # of people who test positive and have the disease:
 $1000 * (.001 * .99) \cong 1$
- # of people who test positive and don't have the disease:
 $1000 * (.999 * .05) \cong 50$
- # of people who test positive:
 $1 + 50 = 51$

$$P(D | Pos) \cong 1/51 \cong 2\%$$

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Here is the whole population of 1000 people:



- Out of 1000 people:

- # of people with disease:
 $1000 \cdot (1/1000) = 1$

- # of people who test positive and have the disease:

$$1000 \cdot (.001 \cdot .99) \approx 1$$

- # of people who test positive and don't have the disease:

$$1000 \cdot (.999 \cdot .05) \approx 50$$

- # of people who test positive:
 $1 + 50 = 51$

$$P(D | Pos) \approx 1/51 \approx 2\%$$

- # of people who test negative and DO have the disease:

$$1000 \cdot (.001 \cdot .01) = 0.01 \approx 0$$

- # of people who test negative and don't have the disease:

$$1000 \cdot (.999 \cdot .95) \approx 949$$

- # of people who test negative:
 $0 + 949 = 949$

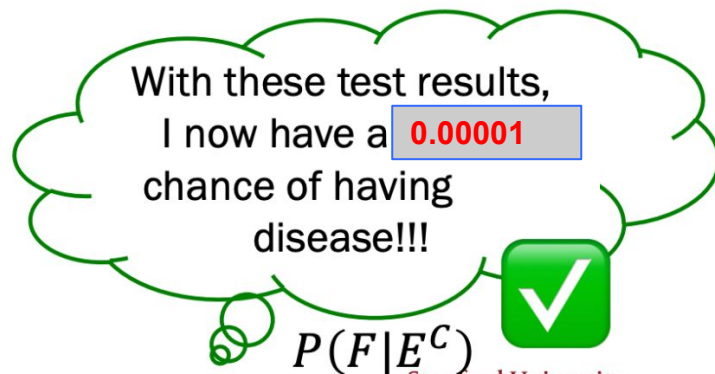
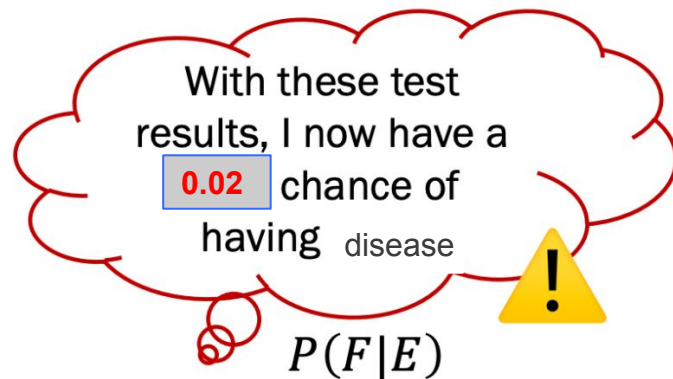
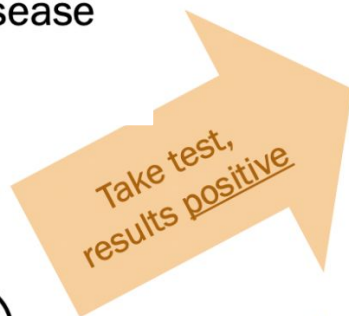
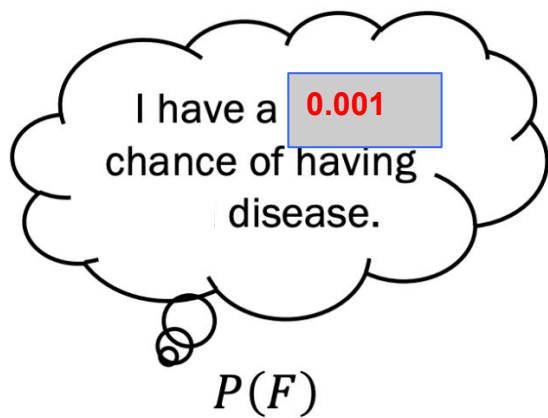
$$P(D | Neg) = 0.01/949 = 0.00001 \approx 0\%$$

Why it's still good to get tested

E = you test positive

F = you actually have the disease

E^C = you test **negative**

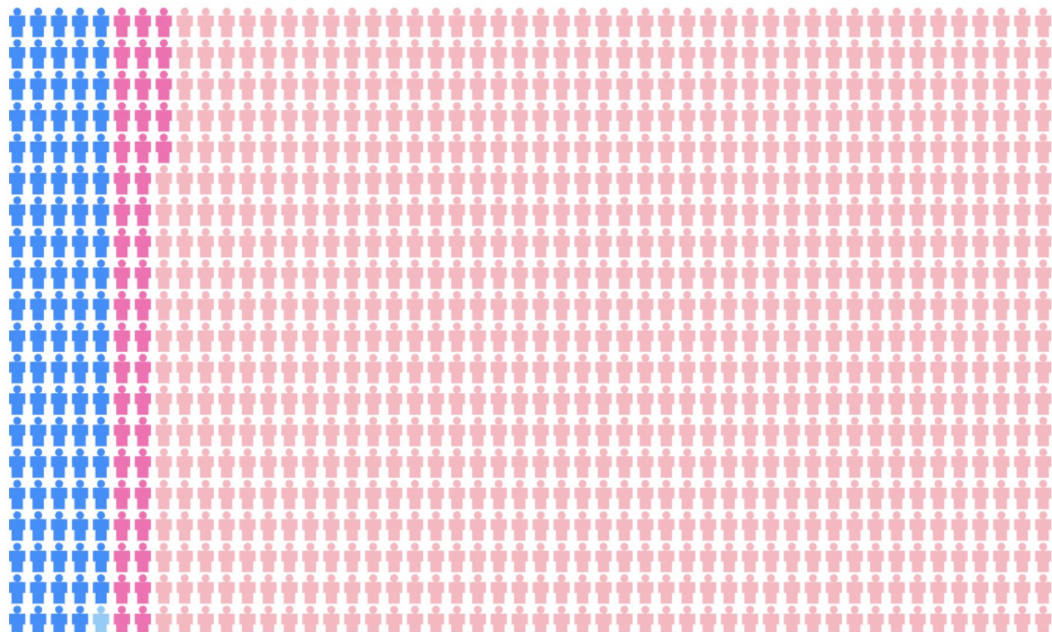


Assumptions Matter

- “**Assume a patient is picked at random.**”
 - But usually, people aren't picked at random for medical tests
 - So our intuition about randomly picked patients may not be great
 - For a ***randomly picked patient, the result does make sense***, because the disease is very rare.
 - What if the doctor believes there is a 10% chance the patient has the disease?
-

There's a rare disease with prevalence of 1/1000 in the population.
A test for the disease has a false positive rate of 5%
and a false negative rate of 1%.

b). You test positive. What's the prob you have the disease?



- What if, based on additional information your doctor believes you are in a subpopulation where there is a 10% chance you have the disease?

- Out of 1000 people:

- # of people with disease:
 $1000 * (1/10) = 100$
- # of people who test positive and have the disease:
 $1000 * (0.1 * 0.99) \cong 99$
- # of people who test positive and don't have the disease:
 $1000 * (.90 * .05) \cong 45$
- # of people who test positive:
 $99 + 45 = 144$

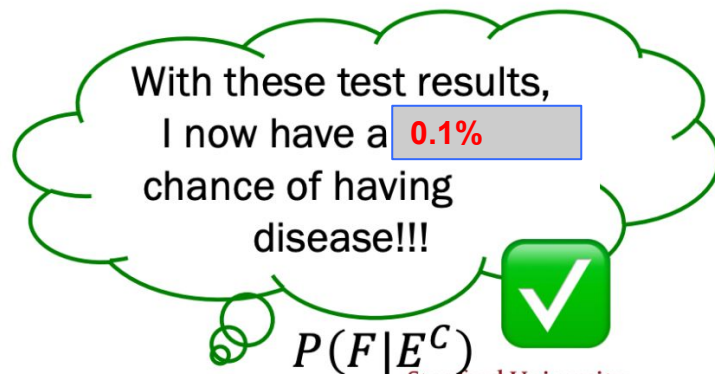
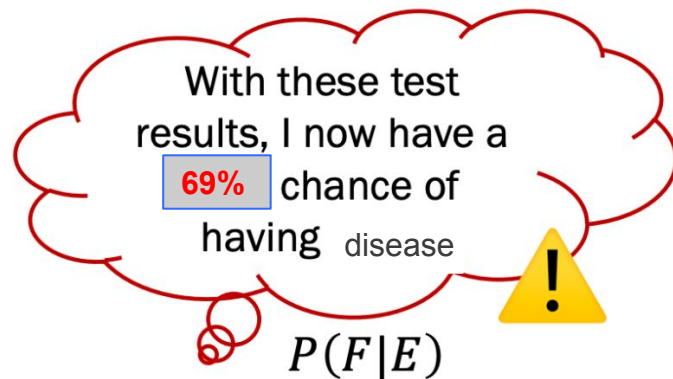
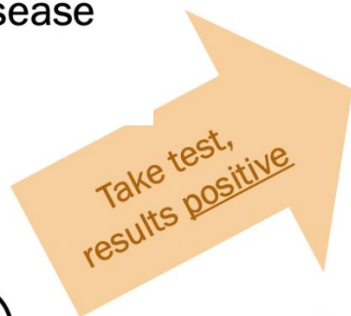
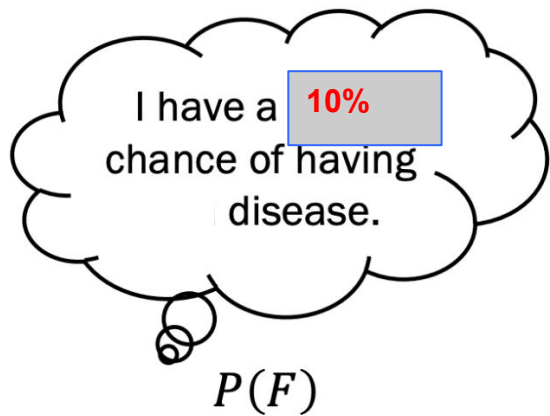
$$P(D | Pos) \cong 99/144 \cong 69\%$$

Assumptions Matter

E = you test positive

F = you actually have the disease

E^C = you test **negative**



Subjective Probabilities

$$\overset{\text{posterior}}{P(F|E)} = \frac{\overset{\text{likelihood}}{P(E|F)}\overset{\text{prior}}{P(F)}}{\underset{\text{normalization constant}}{P(E)}}$$

Recall: the probability of an outcome can be defined as:

[Frequentist] The **frequency** with which it will occur in repeated trials:

$$P(\text{Event}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{count}(\text{Event})}{n}$$

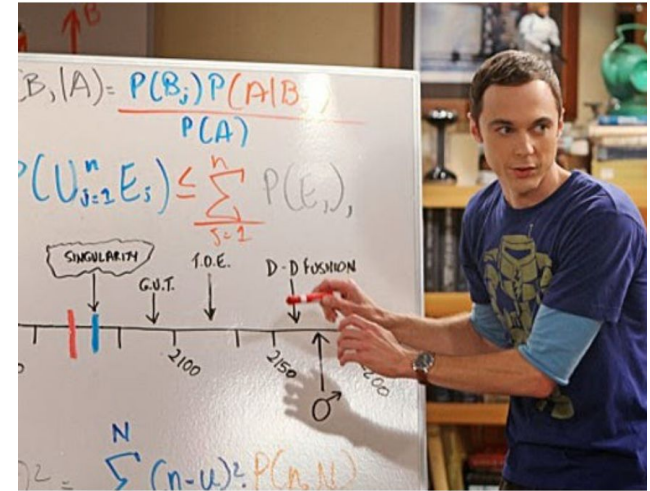
[Bayesian] Someone's **subjective degree** of belief that it will occur

Why use subjective priors?

- To quantify your degree of uncertainty about an outcome, even when there is no physical randomization
 - i.e. chance of CU football team getting into a Bowl game next year
 - i.e. chance of the “Big One” in the next 30 years
-

Purpose of Bayes' Rule

- Update your prediction based on new information
- In a multi-stage experiment, find the chance of an event at an earlier stage, given the result of a later stage



More Practice

A car heading from Berkeley to San Francisco is pulled over on the freeway **for speeding**. Which type of car is it more likely to be:

- a **Tesla** which is **relatively common** in California
- or a **Lamborghini** which is a **rare** car that is **known for speeding**

you don't have enough information to **calculate the answer directly**.

What would you guess, and why? Make some reasonable assumptions (data scientists often have to do this) and explain your thought process.

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What would you guess, and why? Make some reasonable assumptions (data scientists often have to do this) and explain your thought process.

Let T: Tesla, L: Lamborghini and S: speeding

We're interested in which one is bigger: $P(T|S)$ vs $P(L|S)$

$$P(T|S) = P(S|T)P(T)/P(S)$$

$$P(L|S) = P(S|L)P(L)/P(S)$$

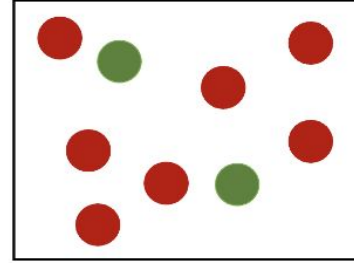
Notice - they both have the same denom, so we're just comparing numerators.

$P(L)$ is much much smaller than $P(T)$

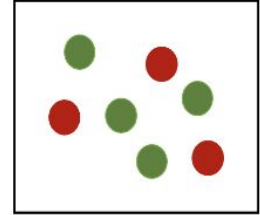
Even if we assume that $P(S|L)$ is greater than $P(S|T)$ it won't be SO much greater to make up for the fact that $P(L)$ is much much smaller than $P(T)$. So we would expect it's more likely to be a TESLA.

More Practice

Suppose we have two boxes filled with green and red balls. Paul selects a ball by first choosing one of the two boxes. Since box 1 is larger he is twice as likely to choose box 1 than he is box 2. He then selects one of the balls in the box at random. What is the probability Paul has selected a red ball?



Box 1: 2 greens, 7 reds



Box 2: 4 greens, 3 reds

More Practice

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Let R: Red, B1: Box 1, B2 :Box 2

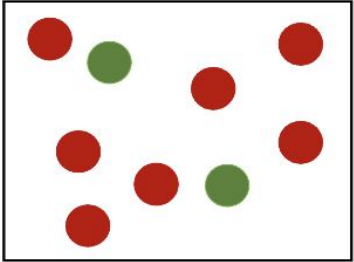
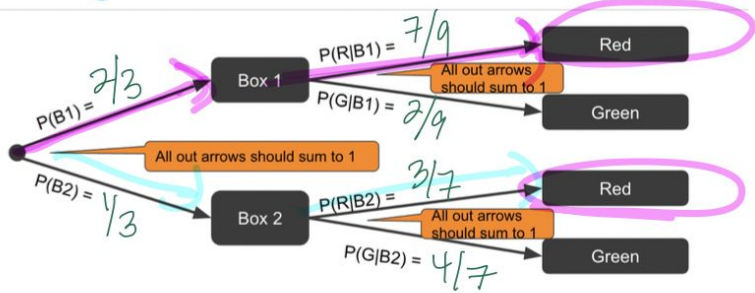
$$P(R) = P(R \cap B_1) + P(R \cap B_2)$$

$$P(R) = P(R|B_1)P(B_1) + P(R|B_2)P(B_2)$$

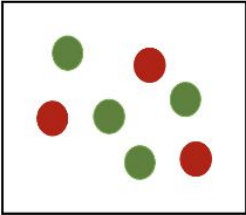
$$\left(\frac{7}{9}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) + \left(\frac{3}{7}\right) \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{14}{27} + \frac{1}{9}$$

Law of Total Prob

Tree Diagrams and Total Probabilities $\approx .66$



Box 1: 2 greens, 7 reds



Box 2: 4 greens, 3 reds