

# Probabilities

$\def\operatorname{E}\operatorname{E}$   $\def\operatorname{Var}\operatorname{Var}$   $\def\operatorname{Cov}\operatorname{Cov}$   
 $\def\mathrm{d}\mathrm{d}$   $\def\mathrm{e}\mathrm{e}$   $\def\operatorname{Norm}\operatorname{Norm}$   
 $\def\operatorname{Uniform}\operatorname{Uniform}$

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## Outline

- What are probabilities?
- Notation and basic concepts
  - Sets
  - Outcomes, events
  - Probabilities
    - Addition and multiplication
    - Independence, conditional
    - Bayes' theorem
- Exercises
  - Birthday problem
  - Monty Hall problem

## What are probabilities?

- **Probability as frequency of outcome of events:**
  - In this way of thinking about probabilities we look at the number of times a given event happens over a large number of tries.
  - It is difficult to define consistently however, without running into circular reasoning.

- **Probability as degree of belief:**

- Subjective probability is associated with personal judgements about how likely something is to happen.
- For example, 'I believe that team X will beat team Y, because team Y's star player has an injury, while team X has been training really hard.' Such statements can be made even if teams X and Y have never played each other.
- By requiring that two people arrive at the same conclusion if given the same assumptions and data, this definition of probability can be formalised into a mathematical system equivalent to the other definitions.

- **Probably derived from axioms:**

- Probability is a measure that satisfies a set of axioms derived from logic and set theory, such as the Kolmogorov or Cox axioms.
- This sidesteps the frequentist vs Bayesian interpretation by sticking to purely mathematical concepts.

In this course we start out with this definition. In general we will follow the Bayesian degree-of-believe way of thinking about probability.

## Notation and basic concepts

### Set notation

- A set is a collection of elements, e.g.:  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $e \in A$  means  $e$  is a member of the set  $A$ , e.g.:  $1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$
- A set can also be represented by a rule:  $\{x \mid x \text{ follows a rule} \}$

For example, the set  $E$  of even integers:  $E = \{x \mid x=2y, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

- Set inclusion ( $\subseteq$ ).  $A$  is included in  $B$  (or is a subset of  $B$ ) if all the elements of  $A$  are also elements of  $B$ .

For example:  $\{1, 2\} \subseteq \{1, 2, 3\}$

### Set operators

Let  $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ ;  $B = \{2, 3, 4\}$

- **Union  $\cup$**  All elements of  $A$  and all elements of  $B$

$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

- **Intersection  $A \cap B$ :** Elements that are in both A and B

$$A \cap B = \{3\}$$

- **Difference  $A \setminus B$ :** Elements that are in A but not in B

$$A \setminus B = \{1, 5\}$$

$$B \setminus A = \{2, 4\}$$

- **Complement:**

The complement of A in reference to  $\Omega$  includes all elements in  $\Omega$  that are not in A. For the die example  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ ,

$$A^c = \{2, 4, 6\} \text{ or}$$

$$A^c = \{\omega : \omega \in \Omega \text{ and } \omega \notin A\}$$

- **Empty set  $\varnothing$**

The empty set,  $\varnothing$ , is the complement of the universal set:

$$\Omega^c = \varnothing \text{ and } \varnothing^c = \Omega.$$

This means,  $A \cup \varnothing = A$  and  $A \cap \varnothing = \varnothing$ .

- **Power set**

Collection of all possible sets of a given set

$$A = \{1, 3, 5\}$$

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{\varnothing, \{1\}, \{3\}, \{5\}, \{1, 3\}, \{1, 5\}, \{3, 5\}, \{1, 3, 5\}\}$$

## Outcomes, events, probability

### Outcomes and sample space

The outcomes  $\omega$  of an experiment are elements of the set of all possible outcomes, called the sample space  $\Omega$ .

Consider the experiment of tossing a (fair) coin twice:

- $\omega = \text{HH}$  ("two heads")
- $\omega \in \Omega = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}, \text{TH}, \text{TT}\}$

### Events and event space

An event  $F$  is a set of outcomes

- $F = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}, \text{TH}\}$  ("at least one head")

Events are elements of the event space  $\mathcal{F}$ : the power set of the sample space (the set of all possible outcomes)

Note that  $\Omega$  and  $\mathcal{F}$  are not the same. The sample space contains the basic outcomes and event space contains sets of outcomes.

## Probability

The probability function  $P$  assigns a probability (a number between 0 and 1) to events

- $F = \{\text{HH}, \text{HT}, \text{TH}\}$
- $\Pr(F) = \frac{3}{4}$

## Kolmogorov's axioms of probability

- The probability measure of events is a real number equal or larger than 0:

$$0 \leq \Pr(A)$$

- The probability measure of the universal set is 1.

$$\Pr(\Omega) = 1$$

- If the sets  $A_1, A_2, A_3 \dots \in \mathcal{F}$  are disjoint, then

$$\Pr(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = \Pr(A_1) + \Pr(A_2) + \dots$$

## Consequences of the axioms of probability

- Numeric bound:

$$0 \leq \Pr(A) \leq 1$$

- Monotonicity:

$$A \subseteq B \text{ then } \Pr(A) \leq \Pr(B)$$

- Complement rule:

$$\Pr(A^c) = 1 - \Pr(A)$$

- Sum rule:

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B)$$

Example, a single fair die:

- $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- $\Pr(\omega) = \frac{1}{6} \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega$
- Events  $A = \{1, 3\}$  and  $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

- Monotonicity:

$$A \subseteq B, \Pr(A) = \frac{1}{3} \leq \Pr(B) = \frac{2}{3}$$

- Complement rule:

$$\Pr(A^c) = \Pr(\{2, 4, 5, 6\}) = \frac{2}{3} = 1 - \Pr(A)$$

- Sum rule:

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(\{1, 2, 3, 4\}) = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} - \Pr(\{1, 3\}) = \frac{2}{3}$$

## Clicker

Two fair six-sided dice are rolled. What's the probability to obtain two sixes?

- $1/25$
- $1/36$
- $2/36$
- $1/6$

## Conditional probabilities and independence

### Conditional probabilities

The conditional probability of event A happening, given that event B happened, is

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

Instead of the Kolmogorov axioms, probability theory can also be defined in terms of conditional probabilities, using the Cox axioms.

### Independence

If A is independent of B,  $\Pr(A|B) = \Pr(A)$ : the conditional probability of A given B does not depend on B. From this follows that

$$\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \Pr(B)$$

## Law of total probability

Let  $\{H_1, H_2, \dots\}$  be a countable collection of sets which is a partition of  $\Omega$ , where

$$H_i \cap H_j = \emptyset \text{ for } i \neq j$$

$$H_1 \cup H_2 \cup \dots = \Omega$$

The probability of an event  $D$  can be calculated as

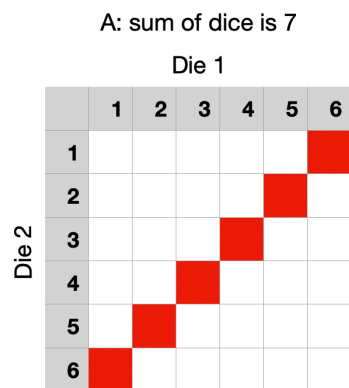
$$\Pr(D) = \Pr(D \cap H_1) + \Pr(D \cap H_2) + \dots$$

or in terms of conditional probabilities

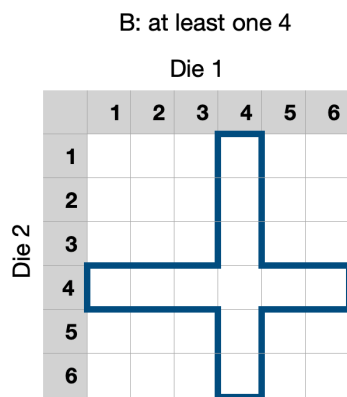
$$\Pr(D) = \Pr(D | H_1) \Pr(H_1) + \Pr(D | H_2) \Pr(H_2) + \dots$$

## Clicker

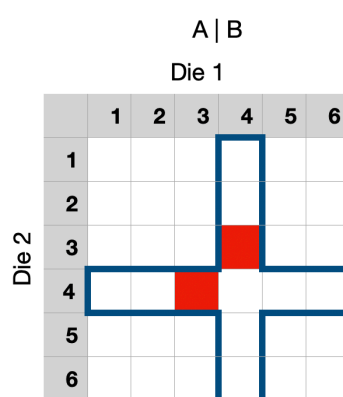
Two fair six-sided dice are rolled. Let  $A$  be the event that the sum of the dice is 7, and let  $B$  be the event that at least one of the two dice is a 4. Are  $A$  and  $B$  independent?



$$P(A) = 1/6$$

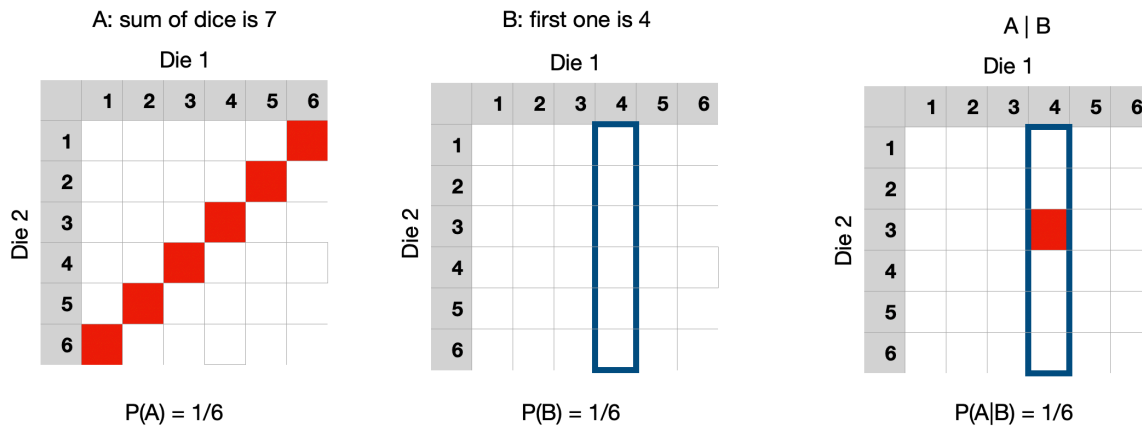


$$P(B) = 11/36$$



$$P(A|B) = 2/11$$

What about when  $B$  is the event that the first die is a 4?



## Bayes' theorem

Applying the definition of the conditional probability twice we get Bayes' theorem:

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

Named after Thomas Bayes, British clergyman, 1702–1761

## Clicker: a test for rare events

Let us assume there is a rare disease that affects 0.1% of the population. There is a test that can detect this disease. It has a detection efficiency of 99% and a probability of error (false-positive) of 2%.

What is the probability  $P(D | +)$  of having the disease when receiving a positive test?

$$P(D | +) = \frac{P(+ | D)P(D)}{P(+ | D)P(D) + P(+ | D^c)P(D^c)} \text{ (law of total probability)}$$

- $P(+ | D) = 0.99$ : probability of a positive test result, given the disease is present (detection efficiency of 99%)
- $P(D) = 0.001$ : the disease affects 0.1% of the population
- $P(+ | D^c) = 0.02$ : probability of a positive test result, given the disease is not present (false-positive rate of 2%)

$$P(D | +) = \frac{0.99 \cdot 0.001}{0.99 \cdot 0.001 + 0.02 \cdot 0.999} = 0.047$$

The disease is only present in 5% of the cases where the test is positive!