## Overview

Today we'll discuss ways to learn how to think about events that are influenced by chance.

- Basic probability: cards, coins and dice

6 Definitions and rules: mutually exclusive events and independent events

- Expectation: given probabilites, what can we compute?
- Conditional probability: for example, the probability that a child smokes, given that her parents do.
- More applications: why it's very hard to detect rare things.


## What does probability mean?

To say that an event has probability $p$ means that the long-term average of

Number of times event occurs
Number of times it could have occured
is $p$.

## Example 0.1 (A fair coin)

Two possible outcomes: Heads and Tails

- Each assumed equally likely, so

$$
P(\text { Heads })=P(\text { Tails })=1 / 2
$$

## Properties of probabilities

- Probabilities are numbers $0 \leq p \leq 1$.

Given an exhaustive list of possible outcomes, their probabilities add up to one.

The pair " $A$ happens" and " $A$ doesn't happen" are exhaustive, so

$$
P(\text { not } A)=1-P(A)
$$

## Mutually exclusive events

Two events are mutually exclusive if one precludes the other, for example: "Toss a coin and get Heads" and "Get Tails on the same toss".

## Example 0.2 (Drawing cards)

Consider drawing a card from an ordinary deck: what it the probability of getting an ace?

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## Example 0.2 (Drawing cards)

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Answer

$$
\frac{\text { Number of aces }}{\text { Number of cards in deck }}=\frac{4}{52}=\frac{1}{13} \text {. }
$$

## Addition rule for mutually exclusive

 eventsThe previous example suggests a rule for working out the probability of either of two mutually exclusive events happening: If $A \& B$ are mutually exclusive events,

$$
P(A \text { or } B)=P(A)+P(B) .
$$

## Example 0.2 (Rolling a die)

A single roll of a die may show a 1 or a 2, but not both. The probability that it shows either a 1 or a 2 is

$$
1 / 6+1 / 6=1 / 3 .
$$

## Independent events

Two events are independent if knowing that one has happened tells us nothing about whether the other will happen.

Example 0.2 (Tossing two coins)
Consider tossing a penny and a pound coin.

- Use h \& t to show the result for the penny, and H \& T, for the pound.
- Possible outcomes are $\{\mathrm{hH}, \mathrm{hT}, \mathrm{tH}, \mathrm{tT}\}$. Each is equally likely.


## Multiplication rule for independent

 events- By counting it is clear that
$P($ Heads on penny $)=(2 / 4)=0.5$
$P($ Heads on pound $)=(2 / 4)=0.5$
$P($ Heads on both $)=(1 / 4)=0.25$
Example suggests a rule for probability of two independent events happening together: If $A$ \& $B$ are independent events,

$$
P(A \text { and } B)=P(A) \times P(B)
$$

## More about combining events

Finally, there is a rule for combining the probabilities of events that are not mutually exclusive (i.e. those for which $P(A \& B) \neq 0)$.

$$
\text { Generally, } P(A \text { or } B)=P(A)+P(B)-P(A \& B) \text {. }
$$

To see how this works consider rolling two dice, one six-sided and one four-sided and consider events
A The four-sided die comes up an even number;
B The sum of the two rolls is an even number.

## Outcomes for the two dice


(6) Outcomes contributing to event A appear in dashed boxes.
(6) Those contributing to event B are circled.

6 Six outcomes contribute to both events.

## Using the rule

Counting up events from the diagram, one can see the rule in action

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(A \text { or } B) & =P(A)+P(B)-P(A \text { and } B) \\
& =(12 / 24)+(12 / 24)-(6 / 24) \\
& =(1 / 2)+(1 / 2)-(1 / 4) \\
& =(3 / 4)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Review: mutually exclusive events

If $A \& B$ are mutually exclusive, which of the following statements are true?
a) $P(A$ or $B)=P(A)+P(B)$
b) $P(A$ and $B)=0$
c) $P(A$ and $B)=P(A) \times P(B)$
d) $P(A)=P(B)$
e) $P(A)+P(B)=1$

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Answer: only a) and b) are true.

## Review: independence

The probability of a certain hard-to-manufacture chip having fault $X$ is 0.20 while the probability of it having flaw $Y$ is 0.05 . If these probs are independent, which of the following is true?
a) prob. it has both faults is 0.01 ;
b) prob. it has both faults is 0.25 ;
c) prob. it has either fault, or both, is 0.24 ;
d) if it has $X$, prob. it has $Y$ also is 0.01 ;
e) if it has $Y$, prob. it has $X$ also is 0.20 .

## Review: independence

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a) prob. it has both faults is 0.01 ;
b) prob. it has both faults is 0.25 ;
c) prob. it has either fault, or both, is 0.24 ;
d) if it has $X$, prob. it has $Y$ also is 0.01 ;
e) if it has $Y$, prob. it has $X$ also is 0.20 .

Answer: a), c) and e) are true.

## Conditional probability

Want a concise notion/notation for the probability that one event occurs, given that another has.
Example 0.2 Roll a six-sided die: what is the probability of getting a two, given that the result is an even number? There are three possible even numbers, $\{2,4,6\}$ and only one of them is a 2 , so by direct counting the probability is (1/3).

## The notation $P(A / B)$

Write conditional probabilities as $P(A \mid B)$ and read them as "the probability of A given B ". Examples include:

6 $\quad P$ ( It will rain tomorrow $\mid$ it is raining now $)$
6 $P$ ( It will rain tomorrow | one is in Manchester )
© $P($ Woman gets breast cancer | mother and sister did )

## A sum rule

The simplest rule about conditional probabilities underlies reasonable statements such as:
$P($ rain $\mid$ Manchester $)+P($ no rain $\mid$ Manchester $)=1$.

More formally, the rule is
If one has an exhaustive list of mutually exclusive events then their conditional probabilities add up to one.

## Recovering ordinary probabilities

Sometimes one needs to pass from conditional probabilities back to non-conditional ones. The main tool one needs is the formula:

$$
P(A \& B)=P(A \mid B) \times P(B)
$$

## Using conditional probability

Epidemiology of lung cancer
6 Divide subjects into three groups
Heavy smokers: more that 40 a day

- Smokers: up to 39 per day
- Non-smokers: none
- Find risk of cancer for each group, e.g.

$$
P \text { (lung cancer | heavy smoker). }
$$

continued ...

## Using . . .

Use conditional probabilities to find risk for general population:
$P$ ( subject develops lung cancer )
$=P($ [cancer \& heavy smoker] or [cancer \& smoker] or [cancer \& non-smoker])
$=P($ cancer $\&$ heavy smoker $)+$ $P($ cancer \& smoker $)+$ $P($ cancer \& non-smoker )

## Using . . .

Then use ( $\star$ ) to say
$P($ subject develops lung cancer $)=$
$P($ cancer $\mid$ heavy smoker $) \times P($ heavy smoker $)+$
$P($ cancer $\mid$ smoker $) \times P($ smoker $)+$
$P($ cancer $\mid$ non-smoker $) \times P($ non-smoker $)$

## Bayes Theorem

On the left side of $(\star)$ the events $A$ and $B$ play the same role: $A \& B$ means the same thing as $B \& A$. On the right things seem to be different: $P(A \mid B)$ is not generally the same as $P(B \mid A)$, but


This final expression is sometimes known as Bayes Theorem.

## Application: screening for rare

 conditionsConsider a screening program for a CCTV system that observes Manchester's city centre
target population (say, persons subject to exclusion orders) is rare (1 per 10,000 of population);

- test correctly flags $99 \%$ of such persons (true positive);

6 test flags only $0.5 \%$ of ordinary shoppers (false positive).

What is the probability that when the system identifies a suspect, they really do pose a threat?

## Formulate the problem

Using the lanuage of conditional probability

- we want $P$ ( threat | positive test );

6 we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(\text { pos } \mid \text { threat })=0.99 \\
& P(\text { pos } \mid \text { ordinary })=0.005 \\
& P(\text { threat })=0.0001 \\
& P(\text { ordinary })=(1-P(\text { threat }))=0.9999
\end{aligned}
$$

Start with Bayes Theorem
$P($ threat $\mid$ pos $) \times P($ pos $)=P($ pos $\mid$ threat $) \times P($ threat $)$

## Solve for necessary probabilities

$$
P(\text { threat } \mid \text { pos })=\frac{P(\text { pos } \mid \text { threat }) \times P(\text { threat })}{P(\text { pos })}
$$

We need $P($ pos ), but we can find it with a calculation similar to the one about probability of lung cancer sketched earlier:

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(\text { pos })= & P(\text { pos } \mid \text { threat }) \times P(\text { threat }) \\
& +P(\text { pos } \mid \text { ordinary }) \times P(\text { ordinary })
\end{aligned}
$$

## Assemble results

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P(\text { ill } \mid \text { pos }) \\
& =\frac{P(\text { pos } \mid \text { threat }) \times P(\text { threat })}{P(\text { pos })} \\
& \quad=(0.99 \times 0.0001) /(0.99 \times 0.0001+0.005 \times 0.9999) \\
& \quad \approx 0.019
\end{aligned}
$$

Discouraging: a positive result from a implausibly precise recognition system gives only a lukewarm indication that a person may pose a problem.

