

Lecture 2. Conditional Probability

January 18, 2013

Agenda

- Motivation and Definition
- Properties of Conditional Probabilities
- Law of Total Probability
- Bayes' Theorem
- Examples
 - ▶ False Positive Paradox
 - ▶ Monty Hall Problem
- Summary

Motivation and Definition

Recall (see Lecture 1) that the **sample space** is the set of **all possible outcomes** of an experiment. Suppose we are interested only in **part** of the sample space, the part where **we know** some event – call it **A** – **has happened**, and we want to know how likely it is that various other events ($B, C, D \dots$) have also happened.

What we want is the **conditional probability** of **B** given **A** .

Definition

If $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$, then the conditional probability of B given A is

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

Useful Interpretation:

Think of $\mathbb{P}(B|A)$ as the

fraction of times B occurs among those in which A occurs

Properties of Conditional Probabilities

Here are some facts about conditional probabilities:

- ➊ For any fixed A such that $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$, $\mathbb{P}(\cdot|A)$ is a probability, i.e. it satisfies the rules of probability:
 - ▶ $0 \leq \mathbb{P}(B|A) \leq 1$
 - ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\Omega|A) = 1$
 - ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\emptyset|A) = 0$
 - ▶ $\mathbb{P}(B|A) + \mathbb{P}(\bar{B}|A) = 1$
 - ▶ $\mathbb{P}(B + C|A) = \mathbb{P}(B|A) + \mathbb{P}(C|A) - \mathbb{P}(BC|A)$

➋ Important: The rules of probability apply to events on the **left** of the bar.

➌ In general

$$\mathbb{P}(B|A) \neq \mathbb{P}(A|B)$$

Example: the probability of spots given you have measles is 1 but the probability that you have measles given that you have spots is not 1.

➍ What if A and B are independent? Then

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

Thus, another interpretation of independence is that knowing A does not change the probability of B .

Law of Total Probability

From the definition of conditional probability we can write

$$\mathbb{P}(AB) = \mathbb{P}(B|A)\mathbb{P}(A) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}(AB) = \mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B)$$

Often these formulae give us a convenient way to compute $\mathbb{P}(AB)$ when A and B are not independent.

A useful tool for computing probabilities is the following law.

Law of Total Probability

Let A_1, \dots, A_n be a partition of Ω , i.e.

- $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \Omega$ (A_1, \dots, A_k are jointly exhaustive events)
- $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$ (A_1, \dots, A_k are mutually exclusive events)
- $\mathbb{P}(A_i) > 0$

Then for any event B

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(B|A_i)\mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

Bayes' Theorem

Conditional probabilities can be **inverted**. That is,

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

This relationship is called **Bayes' Rule** after **Thomas Bayes** (1702-1761) who did not discover it (in this form, Bayes' Rule was proved by Laplace).



Example: False Positive Paradox

Problem

Suppose a rare disease infects one out of every 1000 people in a population. And suppose that there is a good, but not perfect, test for this disease: if a person has the disease, the test comes back positive 99% of the time. On the other hand, the test also produces some false positives. About 2% of uninfected patients also test positive. Suppose you just tested positive. What are your chances of having the disease?

Answer: the chances of having the disease is **less than 5%** !

Important Conclusion: When dealing with **conditional probabilities:**

don't trust your intuition, do computations!

Monty Hall problem

Problem

Suppose you are on a game show, and you are given the choice of three doors. A prize is placed at random between one of three doors. You pick a door, say door 1 (but the door is not opened), and the host, who knows what's behind the doors, opens another door which is empty. He then gives you the opportunity to keep your door 1 or switch to the other unopened door. Should you stay or switch?

Answer: You should switch!

Summary

- If $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$, then

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

- $\mathbb{P}(\cdot|A)$ satisfies the axioms of probability for fixed A . In general $\mathbb{P}(A|\cdot)$ does not satisfy the axioms of probability for fixed A .
- In general, $\mathbb{P}(B|A) \neq \mathbb{P}(A|B)$
- A and B are independent if and only if $\mathbb{P}(B|A) = \mathbb{P}(B)$
- Law of Total Probability: If A_1, \dots, A_n is a partition of Ω , then for any $B \subset \Omega$

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(B|A_i)\mathbb{P}(A_i)$$

- Bayes' Theorem

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