Conditional Probability

- Q: Should the following probabilities be different?
 - ▶Event = 王建民本季戰績至少獲得6次勝投
 - P=?? in the beginning P=?? in the middle of the season
 - of the season
- *P*=?? now

- Event = rain tomorrow
 - P=?? if no information about where you are staying
 - P=?? if you are staying in a desert
 - P=?? if a typhoon will hit the place you stay tomorrow
- Q: What causes the differences?
 - For an event, *new information* (i.e., some other event has occurred) could change its probability
 - We call the altered probability a conditional probability
- Mathematical Definition: If A and B are two events in a sample space Ω and P(A)>0, then

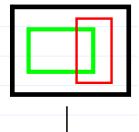
$$P(B|A) \equiv \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

is called the *conditional probability* of B given A.

In the classical model,

$$P(A) = \#A/\#\Omega$$
 and $P(A \cap B) = \#(A \cap B)/\#\Omega$
 $\Rightarrow P(B|A) = \frac{\#(A \cap B)/\#\Omega}{\#A/\#\Omega} = \frac{\#(A \cap B)}{\#A}.$
• Example: A family is known to have 2 children, at least one of

- whom is a girl. Q: Probability that the other is a boy=??
 - $\square \Omega = \{bb, bg, gb, gg\}$
 - $\Box A = \{bg, gb, gg\} \text{ and } B = \{bb, bg, gb\}$
 - $P(B|A) = \#(A \cap B) / \#A = 2/3$
- Note: $\#\Omega$ is reduced to #A.
- ► In effect by conditioning,
 - we are restricting the sample space from Ω to A, i.e., $\Omega \to A$,
 - ullet and, for an arbitrary event B in Ω to occur when Ahas occurred, we need that both A and B occur $B \to B \cap A$. together, i.e.,
- The division by P(A) in the definition above rescales all probabilities from the entire sample space Ω to being relative to the new sample space A

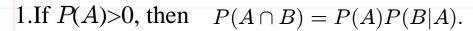


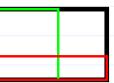
p. 3-2

- $\triangleright P(B|A)$ is a probability measure defined on B, but not A.
 - $P(\cdot|A)$ satisfies the 3 axioms of probability (exercise)



- Any propositions developed in Chapter 2 for probability measures can be applied on $P(\cdot|A)$. (For example, $P(B^c|A)=1-P(B|A)$.)
- 3 Useful Formulas for Calculating Probabilities (for 2-events case)





2.If 0 < P(A) < 1, then

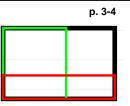
$$P(B) = P(A)P(B|A) + P(A^c)P(B|A^c).$$



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3.If 0 < P(A) < 1 and P(B) > 0, then

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A)P(B|A)}{P(A)P(B|A) + P(A^c)P(B|A^c)}.$$



Example (Urn Problem)

- The Story. n balls sequentially and randomly chosen, without replacement, from an urn containing R red and N-R white balls $(n \le N)$. Q: Given that k of the n balls are red $(k \le R)$, probability that the 1^{st} ball chosen is red = ??
- Let $A = \{k \text{ of the } n \text{ balls are red}\}$ $B = \{1^{\text{st}} \text{ ball chosen is red}\}$

■ Method 1:
$$P(B|A) = \binom{n-1}{k-1} / \binom{n}{k} = k/n$$

■ Method 2:

$$P(A) = \left[\binom{R}{k} \times \binom{N-R}{n-k} \right] / \binom{N}{n}$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B)P(A|B) = \frac{R}{N} \times \frac{\binom{R-1}{k-1} \times \binom{N-R}{n-k}}{\binom{N-1}{n-1}}$$

$$\square P(B|A) = P(A \cap B)/P(A) = k/n$$

- Example (Diagnostic Tests)
 - <u>The Story</u>. A diagnostic test for a *rare* disease (e.g., an Xray for lung cancer) is part of a routine physical exam.
 - Let $\Omega = \{\text{the whole population of Taiwan}\}\$ $D = \{\text{disease is present}\}\$

 $E=\{\text{test indicates disease present}\}$

- Suppose that P(D)=0.001, P(E|D)=0.98, $P(E|D^c)=0.01$ Q: Do you think the test is effective?
- Let us examine it from an alternative viewpoint

$$P(E) = P(D)P(E|D) + P(D^{c})P(E|D^{c})$$

= 0.001 \times 0.98 + 0.999 \times 0.01 = 0.01097.

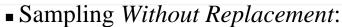
$$P(D|E) = \frac{P(D)P(E|D)}{P(D)P(E|D) + P(D^c)P(E|D^c)} = \frac{0.00098}{0.01097} = 0.0893.$$

$$P(D^c|E) = 1 - P(D|E) = 0.9107$$

Q: Now, do you still think the test is effective?

Q: But, why the 2 interpretations so different? What causes it?

- The probability of D increased by a factor of roughly 90 $(0.001 \rightarrow 0.0893)$ when E occurs, but 0.0893 is still small
- The $P(E|D^c)$ (=0.01) and $P(E^c|D)$ (=1-P(E|D)=0.02) are called the *false positive* and *false negative rates*, respectively.
- Example (Sampling Experiments): An urn contains R red balls and N-R white balls. Sample 2 balls from the urn.
 - $\blacksquare A = \{ \text{red on the first draw} \}$
 - $B = \{ \text{red on the second draw} \}$



$$P(A) = \frac{R(N-1)}{N(N-1)} = \frac{R}{N}, \qquad P(A \cap B) = \frac{R(R-1)}{N(N-1)},$$

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} = \frac{(R(R-1))/(N(N-1))}{R/N} = \frac{R-1}{N-1}.$$

Similarly, $P(B|A^c) = \frac{R}{N-1}$. (exercise)

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

$$= \frac{R}{N} \cdot \frac{R-1}{N-1} + \frac{N-R}{N} \cdot \frac{R}{N-1}$$

$$= \frac{R^{2} - R + NR - R^{2}}{N(N-1)} = \frac{R(N-1)}{N(N-1)} = \frac{R}{N}.$$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A\cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{(R(R-1))/(N(N-1))}{R/N} = \frac{R-1}{N-1}.$$

□ Notes:

- ◆The probabilities are proportional to # of red balls left
- $\bullet P(A|B) = P(B|A) \Rightarrow \text{Symmetry}.$
- Sampling *With Replacement*:

$$P(A) = \frac{R}{N} \cdot \frac{N}{N} = \frac{R}{N}, \quad P(B) = \frac{N}{N} \cdot \frac{R}{N} = \frac{R}{N},$$

$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{R}{N} \cdot \frac{R}{N} = \frac{R^2}{N^2}, \quad P(B|A) = \frac{R^2/N^2}{R/N} = \frac{R}{N} = P(B).$$

- Extensions of the 3 Useful Formulas (for m-events case)
 - 1.(Multiplication Law) If $A_1, ..., A_m$ are events for which

$$P(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{m-1}) > 0$$
, then
$$P(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_m)$$

$$= P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1)P(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2) \cdots P(A_m|A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{m-1}).$$

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■ Example (Birthday Problem, LNp.2-3). Let A_k be the event that the kth birthday differs from the first k-1. Then, $P(A_1)$ =1,

$$P(A_k|A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{k-1}) = \frac{365 - k + 1}{365}$$

$$P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1) \dots P(A_n|A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1})$$

$$= \prod_{k=1}^{n} \frac{365 - k + 1}{365} = \frac{365!}{365^n \cdot (365 - n)!} = \frac{(365)_n}{365^n}.$$

■ Example (Matching Problem, LNp.2-11). \mathbb{Q} : Probability that exactly k of n members have matches = ??

Let Ω be all permutations $\omega = (i_1, ..., i_n)$ of 1, 2, ..., n.

$$\Box$$
 Let $A_j = \{\omega : i_j = j\}$ and

$$A = \bigcup_{1 \le j_1 < \dots < j_k \le n} \left(A_1^c \cap \dots \cap A_{j_1-1}^c \cap A_{j_1} \cap A_{j_1+1}^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c \right)$$

By symmetry,
$$P(A) = \binom{n}{k} \times P(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_k \cap A_{k+1}^c \cap \cdots \cap A_n^c)$$

$$\Box$$
 Let $E = A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_k$ and $G = A_{k+1}^c \cap \cdots \cap A_n^c$

Then, $P(E \cap G) = P(E)P(G|E)$, where

$$P(E) = P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1) \cdots P(A_k|A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_{k-1})$$

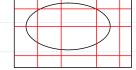
$$= \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{1}{n-1} \times \cdots \times \frac{1}{n-k+1} = \frac{(n-k)!}{n!} = \frac{1}{(n)_k}$$

and,
$$P(G|E) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-k} (-1)^i \frac{1}{i!} \equiv p_{n-k}$$

$$P(A) = \binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{(n)_k} p_{n-k} = \frac{p_{n-k}}{k!} \approx \frac{e^{-1}}{k!}, \text{ when } n \text{ is large}$$

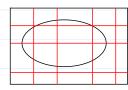
2.(Law of Total Probability) Let $A_1, ..., A_m$ be a partition of Ω and $P(A_i) > 0$, i=1, ..., m, then for any event $B \subset \Omega$,

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} P(A_i) P(B|A_i).$$



3.(Bayes' Rule) Let $A_1, ..., A_m$ be a partition of Ω and $P(A_i) > 0$, i=1, ..., m. If B is an event such that P(B) > 0, then for $1 \le j \le m$,

$$P(A_j|B) = \frac{P(A_j)P(B|A_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}.$$



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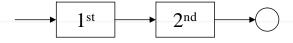
■ From Bayesians' viewpoint,

p. 3-10

 $P(A_i)$ =probability of A_i before B occurs $\rightarrow prior$ prob.

 $P(A_j|B)$ =probability of A_j after B occurs $\rightarrow posterior$ prob.

- \Rightarrow The Bayes' rule tells how to update the probabilities of A_j in light of the new information (i.e., B occurs)
- An Application of Bayes' Rule. Suppose that a random experiment consists of two random stages



- □ The probabilities of the 2nd-stage results depend on what happened in the 1st stage
- We never see the result of the 1st stage, only the final result
- We may be interested in finding the probability for outcomes in the 1st stage given the final result

- Example (Gold Coins):
 - The Story.
 - ■Box 1 contains 2 silver coins.
 - ■Box 2 contains 1 gold and 1 silver coin.
 - ■Box 3 contains 2 gold coins.
 - Experiment: (i) Select a box at random and, (ii) Examine the 2 coins in order (assuming all choices are equally likely at each stage)
 - Q: Given that 1^{st} coin is gold, what is the probability that Box k is selected, k=1, 2, 3?

Let
$$A_k = \{ \text{Box } k \text{ is selected} \}, B = \{ 1^{\text{st}} \text{ coin is gold} \},$$

$$P(B|A_k) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } k = 1, \\ 1/2, & \text{if } k = 2, \\ 1, & \text{if } k = 3. \end{cases}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0 + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{2}.$$

$$P(A_1|B) = \frac{(1/3) \cdot 0}{1/2} = 0.$$

Similarly,
$$P(A_2|B) = 1/3$$
, $P(A_3|B) = 2/3$.

• Q: Given that 1^{st} coin is gold, what is the probability that 2^{nd} coin is gold?

$$P(B \cap C) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0 + \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0 + \frac{1}{3} \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{3}.$$
 (1, if $k = 0$)

$$P(C|B) = \frac{P(B \cap C)}{P(B)} = \frac{1/3}{1/2} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

➤ Q: Why are the 3 formulas useful in calculating probabilities? (Note: They all benefit from conditional probabilities.)

- (ii) 簡=conditioning because the sample space is reduced from Ω to a smaller set. (For example, in many cases, $P(B|A_i)$'s are known or are easier to find)
- Odds and Conditional Odds
 - \triangleright The odds of an event A:

$$o(A) \equiv \frac{P(A)}{P(A^c)} = \frac{P(A)}{1 - P(A)}$$

The odd of event B given A:

$$o(B|A) \equiv rac{P(B|A)}{P(B^c|A)}$$

and

$$o(B|A) = o(B) \times \frac{P(A|B)}{P(A|B^c)}$$

Reading: textbook, Sec 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.5

Independence

• Definition (independence for 2-events case): Two events A and B are said to be *independent* if and only if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B).$$

Otherwise, they are said to be dependent.

Notes. For independent events A and B, if P(A) > 0, then

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

similarly, if P(B) > 0, P(A|B) = P(A).

Q: How to interpret the equality of the conditional and unconditional probabilities?

Example (Sampling 2 balls, LNp.3-6) A and B were independent for sampling with replacement, but dependent for sampling without replacement.

Example (Cards): If a card is selected from a standard deck, let

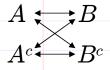
•
$$A = \{ace\}$$
 and $B = \{spade\}$. Then,

$$P(A) = \frac{4}{52} = \frac{1}{13}, \quad P(B) = \frac{13}{52} = \frac{1}{4},$$
$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{52} = P(A)P(B)$$

⇒ Face and Suit are independent

Theorem (Independence and Complements, 2-events case).

If A and B are independent, then so are A^c and B.



• Corollary: If A and B^c are independent, as are A^c and B^c

■ Corellary: If A and B are independent and 0 < P(A) < 1, 0 < P(B) < 1, then $P(B) = P(B|A) = P(B|A^c)$

$$P(B) = P(B|A) = P(B|A^{c}),$$

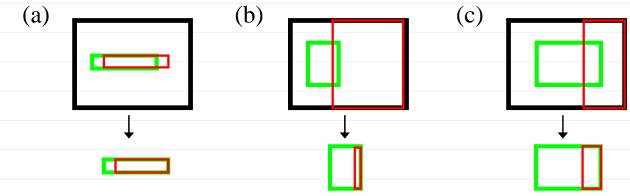
$$P(B^{c}) = P(B^{c}|A) = P(B^{c}|A^{c}),$$

$$P(A) = P(A|B) = P(A|B^{c}),$$

$$P(A^{c}) = P(A^{c}|B) = P(A^{c}|B^{c}).$$

Q: What do these equalities say?

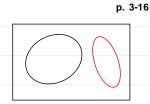
➤ Q: Which of the following graphs represents "green and red events are independent"?



Q: Let green event={graduate from Tsing-Hua University}, red event={your future dream will come true}.

Which of the graphs would you prefer?

Theorem (Independence and Mutually Exclusive). If A and B are mutually exclusive and P(A)>0, P(B)>0, then A and B are dependent since $P(B|A) = 0 \neq P(B)$.



• Definition (independence for n-events case). Events $A_1, ..., A_n$ are said to be pairwise independent iff

$$P(A_i \cap A_j) = P(A_i)P(A_j),$$

for all $1 \le i < j \le n$; $A_1, ..., A_n$ are said to be mutually independent iff

$$P(A_i \cap A_j) = P(A_i)P(A_j), \text{ for } 1 \le i < j \le n,$$

$$P(A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k) = P(A_i)P(A_j)P(A_k), \text{ for } 1 \le i < j < k \le n,$$

• • •

$$P(A_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_k}) = P(A_{i_1}) \cdots P(A_{i_k}), \text{ for } 1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_k \leq n,$$
 where $k=2, \ldots, n$.

➤Note:

- Mutual independence implies pairwise independence; but, the converse statement is usually not true.
- "n events are independent" means "mutually independent"

Example (Sampling With Replacement)

- ullet A sample of n balls is drawn with replacement from an urn containing R red and $N\!-\!R$ white balls
- Let A_k ={red on the kth draw}, then $P(A_k)$ =R/N, k=1, ..., n.
- For all $1 \le i_1 < \cdots < i_k \le n$, where $k=2, \ldots, n$,

$$P(A_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_k}) = \frac{R^k N^{n-k}}{N^n} = \left(\frac{R}{N}\right)^k = P(A_{i_1}) \cdots P(A_{i_k}),$$

- $\Rightarrow A_1, ..., A_n$ are mutually independent
- Example. Draw one card from a standard deck.

 - P(A) = 26/52 = 1/2, similarly, P(B) = P(C) = 1/2.
 - $P(A \cap B) = P(\{\text{Clubs}\}) = \frac{13}{52} = \frac{1}{4} = P(A)P(B)$, similarly, $P(A \cap C) = 1/4 = P(A)P(C)$, $P(B \cap C) = 1/4 = P(B)P(C)$. $\Rightarrow A, B, \text{ and } C \text{ are pairwise independent}$
 - However, made by Shao-Wei Cheng (NTHU, Taiwan) p. 3-18 $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(\{\text{Clubs}\}) = \frac{1}{4} \neq \frac{1}{8} = P(A)P(B)P(C),$
 - \Rightarrow A, B, and C are *not* mutually independent
- Theorem (Independence and Complements, *n*-events case).

 $A_1, ..., A_n$ are mutually independent if and only if

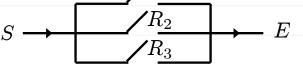
$$P(B_1 \cap \cdots \cap B_n) = P(B_1) \cdots P(B_n),$$

where B_i is either A_i or A_i^c , for i=1, ..., n.

■ Example (Series and Parallel Connections of Relays).

Series Connection $S \longrightarrow R_1 \longrightarrow R_2 \longrightarrow E$

Parallel Connection



 \Box The Story. For n electrical relays $R_1, ..., R_n$, let

$$A_k = \{R_k \text{ works properly}\},$$

- k=1,...,n, and suppose that $A_1,...,A_n$ are independent.
- \square Series Connection. The probability that current can flow from S to E (which corresponds to the event $A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n$) is

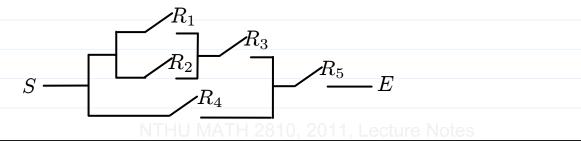
$$P(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) \cdots P(A_n).$$

□ Parallel Connection. The probability that current can flow from S to E (which corresponds to the event $A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_n$) is

$$P(A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = 1 - P(A_1^c \cap \dots \cap A_n^c)$$

= 1 - P(A_1^c) \dots P(A_n^c) = 1 - \int_{k=1}^n [1 - P(A_k)]

Combination of Series and Parallel Connections



Theorem. If $A_1, ..., A_n$ are mutually independent and $B_1, ..., B_m$, $m \le n$, are formed by taking unions or intersections of mutually exclusive subgroups of $A_1, ..., A_n$, then $B_1, ..., B_m$ are independent.

• Definition (conditional independence): Events $B_1, ..., B_n$ are (pairwise or mutually) independent under the probability measure $P(\cdot|A)$

 \triangleright e.g., B_1 and B_2 are conditionally independent given A iff

$$P(B_1 \cap B_2|A) = P(B_1|A)P(B_2|A),$$

or, equivalently,

$$P(B_1|B_2 \cap A) = P(B_1|A).$$

- Example (Gold Coins):
 - The Story.
 - Box *i* contains *i* gold coins and k-i silver coins, i=0,1,...,k.
 - Experiment: (i) Select a box at random and, (ii) draw coins with replacement from the box
 - Q: Given that first n draws are all gold, what is the probability that $(n+1)^{st}$ draw is gold?
 - Let A_i = {Box i is selected}, B = {first n draws are gold}, C = { $(n+1)^{st}$ draw is gold}
 - By law of total probability,

$$P(C|B) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} P(A_i|B)P(C|A_i \cap B)$$

 \square Because B and C are conditionally independent given A_i ,

$$P(C|A_i \cap B) = P(C|A_i) = i/k$$

By Bayes' rule, $P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k P(A_i)P(B|A_i)} = \frac{[1/(k+1)](i/k)^n}{\sum_{j=1}^k [1/(k+1)](j/k)^n}$

□ Hence,
$$P(C|B) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} (i/k)^{n+1} / \sum_{i=0}^{k} (i/k)^{n}$$

• \mathbb{Q} : Are the two events B and C independent?