

# STAT22000 Autumn 2013 Lecture 11

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- Conditional Probability
- General Multiplication Rule
- Independence of Events
- The Rule of Total Probability
- Bayes' Rule

Textbook Coverage: Section 4.2 and 4.5

Lecture 11 - 1

## Conditional Probabilities

Given two events  $A$  and  $B$ . We denote the probability of event  $A$  happens **given** that event  $B$  is known to happen as

$$P(A|B),$$

read as the probability of "A given B."

For the example on the previous slide, let

- $A$  = 1st card is an ace,
- $B$  = 2nd card is an ace.

We have

$$P(B|A) = \frac{3}{51} \neq P(B) = \frac{4}{52}.$$

**Current knowledge (outcome of the first draw) has changed (restricted) the sample space (possible outcomes) for future events.**

Lecture 11 - 3

## General Multiplication Rule (2)

- (The probability that two things will both happen)
- = (the unconditional probability that the 1st will happen)
- × ( the conditional probability that the 2nd will happen given that the 1st has happened).

In mathematical notation,

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

General multiplication Rule for several events:

$$P(ABCD) = P(A) \times P(B|A) \times P(C|AB) \times P(D|ABC)$$

and so on

Lecture 11 - 5

## Conditional Probabilities

Example: You are drawing cards from a "perfectly" shuffled deck.

- ▶ What is the probability that the first card drawn is an ace?

$$P(\text{1st card is an ace}) = \frac{4}{52} = \frac{1}{13}.$$

- ▶ What is the probability that the 2nd card drawn is an ace when the first card drawn was unknown?

$$P(\text{2nd card is an ace}) = \frac{1}{13}$$

- ▶ What is the probability that the second card is an ace if the first card was known to be an ace?  $\frac{3}{51}$

Lecture 11 - 2

## General Multiplication Rule (1)

A deck of cards is shuffled and the two top cards are placed face down on a table. What is the probability that both cards are aces?

- ▶ Imagine maace many such deals.
  - ▶ The 1st card will be an ace about  $\frac{4}{52}$  of the time.
  - ▶ Among the deals where the 1st card is an ace, the 2nd card will be an ace about  $\frac{3}{51}$  of the time.
  - ▶ So both cards will be aces about  $\frac{4}{52}$  of  $\frac{3}{51}$  of the time.
- ▶ The probability that both cards are aces equals:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (\text{The } \textit{unconditional} \text{ probability that the 1st card is an ace}) \\
 & \times (\text{the } \textit{conditional} \text{ probability that the 2nd card is an ace} \\
 & \quad \textit{given} \text{ that the 1st card is an ace}) \\
 & = \frac{4}{52} \times \frac{3}{51} = \frac{1}{221}
 \end{aligned}$$

Lecture 11 - 4

## An Example for the General Multiplication Rule

A deck of cards is shuffled and the two top cards are placed face down on a table. What is the probability that neither card is an ace?

**Solution.** Let

- $A$  = 1st card is NOT an ace,
- $B$  = 2nd card is NOT an ace.

- ▶  $P(A) = P(\text{the 1st card is not a ace}) = \frac{48}{52}$  .
- ▶ Given that the 1st card is not a ace, the conditional probability that the 2nd card is not a ace =?  $P(B|A) = \frac{47}{51}$  .
- ▶ So the probability that both cards are not aces =?

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A) \times P(B|A) = \frac{48}{52} \times \frac{47}{51} = \frac{188}{221} \approx 0.851.$$

Lecture 11 - 6

## An Alternative Way to Find Conditional Probability

In view of the general multiplication rule

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

we sometimes compute the conditional probability  $P(B|A)$  via the formula

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

when  $P(A \text{ and } B)$  and  $P(A)$  are easier to find.

**Remark:** The formula above is sometimes adopted as the definition of conditional probability.

See the next page for an example.

Lecture 11 - 7

## Example — Formula 1 Race (1)

Let  $A$  be the winning team in a Formula 1 race: Red Bull, McLaren or Ferrari. Let  $B$  be the track condition: either *dry* or *wet*.

Winning Team	Condition		$P(A)$
	Dry	Wet	
Red Bull	0.36	0.025	0.385
McLaren	0.27	0.025	0.295
Ferrari	0.27	0.050	0.320
$P(B)$	0.900	0.10	1.000

- ▶ Each cell gives the probability  $P(A \text{ and } B)$  for a particular combination of a team and a condition.
- ▶ The probabilities of the 6 cells add up to 1 because we enumerate all possibilities (in this simplified Formula 1).

Lecture 11 - 8

## Example — Formula 1 Race (2)

Now let's condition on the event  $B$ . The track is either dry, which occurs with probability  $P(B = \text{Dry}) = 0.9$ , or wet, which occurs with probability  $P(B = \text{Wet}) = 0.1$ .

Team	Conditional		Unconditional $P(A)$
	$P(A \text{Dry})$	$P(A \text{Wet})$	
Red Bull	$\frac{0.36}{0.9} = 0.40$	$\frac{0.025}{0.1} = 0.25$	0.385
McLaren	$\frac{0.27}{0.9} = 0.30$	$\frac{0.025}{0.1} = 0.25$	0.295
Ferrari	$\frac{0.27}{0.9} = 0.30$	$\frac{0.005}{0.1} = 0.50$	0.320
<b>Total</b>	1.00	1.00	

- ▶ Red Bull has higher probability to win on dry track; Ferrari has higher probability to win on wet track
- ▶  $\sum_A P(A|\text{Dry}) = 1$  because conditioning implies normalizing: by definition  $P(A|B) = P(A \text{ and } B)/P(B)$ .

Lecture 11 - 9

## Example — College Students (Ex. 4.44 on the Textbook)

age	full-time	part-time
15 to 19	0.21	0.03
20 to 24	0.32	0.07
25 to 34	0.10	0.10
35+	0.05	0.13

- ▶ Each cell gives the probability  $P(A \text{ and } B)$  for a combination of full/part-time and age groups.
- ▶ What is the probability that a student is enrolled full-time?  
 $P(\text{full time}) = 0.21 + 0.32 + 0.10 + 0.13 = 0.76$ .
- ▶ What is the probability that a full-time student is between 25 and 34 years of age?  
 $P(\text{age 25-34}|\text{full time}) = \frac{P(\text{full time and 25-34})}{P(\text{full time})} = \frac{0.1}{0.76} \approx 0.132$ .
- ▶ What is the probability that a student who is between 25 and 34 years of age is enrolled full-time?

$$P(\text{full time} | \text{age 25-34}) = \frac{P(\text{full time and 25-34})}{P(\text{age 25-34})} = \frac{0.1}{0.1 + 0.1} = 0.5.$$

Lecture 11 - 10

## Independence

Two events  $A$  and  $B$  are **independent** if the probability for  $B$  given  $A$  are the same, no matter where  $A$  are true or not. Otherwise, they are **dependent**.

In mathematical notation,

$$A \text{ and } B \text{ are independent if } P(B|A) = P(B)$$

**Example:** Someone is going to roll a die twice. Are the two rolls independent, or dependent?

- ▶ No matter how the 1st roll turns out, the 2nd roll will give 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6, with equal probabilities. So the two rolls are independent.

Lecture 11 - 11

## An Example of Dependent Events

A deck of cards is shuffled and the two top cards are placed face down on a table.

- ▶ Event  $A$ : the 1st card is a ace.
- ▶ Event  $B$ : the 2nd card is a ace.

**Q:** Are these two events independent, or dependent?

**A:**

- ▶ Given that the 1st card is a ace, the probability that the 2nd card is a ace equals  $P(B|A) = \frac{3}{51}$ .
- ▶ If the 1st card is unknown, the probability that the 2nd card is a ace equals  $P(B) = 4/52$ .

The probabilities for the 2nd event change, depending on how the 1st event turns out. So the two events are dependent.

Lecture 11 - 12

## Multiplication Rule for Independent Events

By the general multiplication rule,

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

when  $A$  and  $B$  are independent, then  $P(B|A) = P(B)$ . Hence, we have

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

*In general, if several events are independent, the probability that all of them will happen equals the product of their unconditional probabilities.*

Lecture 11 - 13

## Alternative Definitions of Independence

Two events  $A$  and  $B$  are **independent** if any of the following ones is true

- ▶  $P(B|A) = P(B)$
- ▶  $P(B|A) = P(B|A^c)$
- ▶  $P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$

Lecture 11 - 14

## Example of Multiplication Rules for Independent Events

Every day you buy a lottery ticket that offers 1 probability in 1000 of winning. What is the probability that you never win in 1000 plays?

The question asks for the probability of losing on each play.

- ▶ The plays are independent.
- ▶ Your probability of losing on any particular play = 0.999.
- ▶ Your probability of losing on all 1000 plays =  $(0.999)^{1000}$ , or 0.368.

The probability that you win at least once in 1000 plays equals  $1 - 0.368$ , or 0.632.

- ▶ The complement rule is useful here.

Lecture 11 - 15

## The Rule of Total Probability

Suppose the events  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  form a **partition** of the sample space  $S$  in which  $A_i$ 's form a **partition** means they are

- ▶ mutually exclusive, i.e.,  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  whenever  $i \neq j$ ;
- ▶ exhaustive, i.e.  $A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_k = S$  and

$$P(A_1) + \dots + P(A_k) = 1$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(B) &= P(B \text{ and } A_1) + \dots + P(B \text{ and } A_k) \\ &= P(B|A_1)P(A_1) + \dots + P(B|A_k)P(A_k) \end{aligned}$$

Lecture 11 - 16

## Example for the Rule of Total Probability

Suppose an applicant for a job has been invited for an interview.

The probability that

- ▶ he is nervous is  $P(N) = 0.7$ ,
- ▶ the interview is successful when he is nervous is  $P(S|N) = 0.2$ ,
- ▶ the interview is successful when he is not nervous is  $P(S|N^c) = 0.9$ .

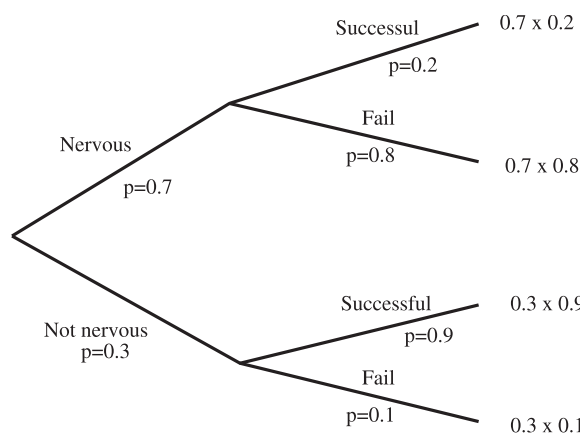
What is the probability that the interview is successful?

$$\begin{aligned} P(S) &= P(S \text{ and } N) + P(S \text{ and } N^c) \\ &= P(S|N)P(N) + P(S|N^c)P(N^c) \\ &= 0.2 \times 0.7 + 0.9 \times 0.3 = 0.41 \end{aligned}$$

Lecture 11 - 17

## Tree Diagram for the Rule of Total Probability

Another look at the interview example:



Lecture 11 - 18

## Interview Example Continued

Conversely, given the interview is successful, what is the probability that the job applicant is nervous during the interview?

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{Nervous}|\text{Successful}) &= \frac{P(\text{Nervous and Successful})}{P(\text{Successful})} \\&= \frac{P(\text{Nervous and Successful})}{0.41} \\&= \frac{P(\text{Successful}|\text{Nervous})P(\text{Nervous})}{0.41} \\&= \frac{0.2 \times 0.7}{0.41} = \frac{14}{41} \approx 0.34.\end{aligned}$$

in which  $P(\text{Successful}) = 0.41$  was found in the previous slide.

Lecture 11 - 19

## Bayes' Rule

The problem in the previous slide is an example of the **Bayes' Rule**, which combines the **reversal of conditioning**

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

and the total probability rule

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

If the events  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  form a partition of the sample space,

$$P(A_i|B) = \frac{P(B|A_i)P(A_i)}{P(B|A_1)P(A_1) + \dots + P(B|A_k)P(A_k)}$$

This is a more general form of Bayes' rule.

Lecture 11 - 20

## Enzyme Immunoassay Test for HIV

- ▶  $P(T+|I+) = 0.98$  (sensitivity - positive for infected)
- ▶  $P(T-|I-) = 0.995$  (specificity - negative for non-infected)
- ▶  $P(I+) = 1/300$  (prevalence in the US: estimated 1 million HIV infected)

What is the probability that the tested person is infected if the test was positive?

$$\begin{aligned}P(I+|T+) &= \frac{P(T+|I+)P(I+)}{P(T+|I+)P(I+) + P(T+|I-)P(I-)} \\&= \frac{0.98 \times 0.0033}{0.98 \times 0.0033 + 0.005 \times 0.9967} \\&= 39.4\%\end{aligned}$$

**This test is not confirmatory.** Need to be confirmed by a second type of test

Lecture 11 - 21