Conditional Probability, Independence, Bayes’ Theorem
18.05 Spring 2014
Sample Space Confusions

1. Sample space = set of all possible outcomes of an experiment.
2. The size of the set is **NOT** the sample space.
3. Outcomes can be sequences of numbers.

**Examples.**
1. Roll 5 dice: $\Omega = \text{set of all sequences of 5 numbers between 1 and 6}$, e.g. $(1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 5) \in \Omega$.
   The size $|\Omega| = 6^5$ is not a set.
2. $\Omega = \text{set of all sequences of 10 birthdays}$, e.g. $(111, 231, 3, 44, 55, 129, 345, 14, 24, 14) \in \Omega$.$\quad |\Omega| = 365^{10}$
3. $n$ some number, $\Omega = \text{set of all sequences of } n \text{ birthdays}$.$\quad |\Omega| = 365^n$. 
Conditional Probability

‘the probability of $A$ given $B$’.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}, \text{ provided } P(B) \neq 0.$$
Table/Concept Question
(Work with your tablemates, then everyone click in the answer.)

Toss a coin 4 times. Let
\( A = \) ‘at least three heads’
\( B = \) ‘first toss is tails’.

1. What is \( P(A|B) \)?
   (a) 1/16  (b) 1/8  (c) 1/4  (d) 1/5

2. What is \( P(B|A) \)?
   (a) 1/16  (b) 1/8  (c) 1/4  (d) 1/5

**answer:** 1. (b) 1/8.  2. (d) 1/5.

Counting we find \(|A| = 5\), \(|B| = 8\) and \(|A \cap B| = 1\). Since all sequences are equally likely

\[
P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|B|} = 1/8. \quad P(B|A) = \frac{|B \cap A|}{|A|} = 1/5.
\]
“Steve is very shy and withdrawn, invariably helpful, but with little interest in people, or in the world of reality. A meek and tidy soul, he has a need for order and structure and a passion for detail.”*

What is the probability that Steve is a librarian?
What is the probability that Steve is a farmer?

*Discussion on next slide.

*From Judgment under uncertainty: heuristics and biases by Tversky and Kahneman.
Discussion: Most people say that it is more likely that Steve is a librarian than a farmer. Almost all people fail to consider that for every male librarian in the United States, there are more than fifty male farmers. When this is explained, most people who chose librarian switch their solution to farmer. This illustrates how people often substitute representativeness for likelihood. The fact that a librarian may be likely to have the above personality traits does not mean that someone with these traits is likely to be a librarian.
Multiplication Rule, Law of Total Probability

Multiplication rule: \[ P(A \cap B) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B). \]

Law of total probability: If \( B_1, B_2, B_3 \) partition \( \Omega \) then

\[
P(A) = P(A \cap B_1) + P(A \cap B_2) + P(A \cap B_3)
= P(A|B_1)P(B_1) + P(A|B_2)P(B_2) + P(A|B_3)P(B_3)
\]
Trees

- Organize computations
- Compute total probability
- Compute Bayes’ formula

**Example.** : Game: 5 red and 2 green balls in an urn. A random ball is selected and replaced by a ball of the other color; then a second ball is drawn.

1. What is the probability the second ball is red?
2. What is the probability the first ball was red given the second ball was red?

First draw

Second draw

$$\begin{array}{c}
R_1 & 5/7 & R_2 \\
4/7 & 3/7 & G_2 \\
\hline
5/7 & 3/7 & 6/7 \\
\end{array}$$
1. The law of total probability gives
\[ P(R_2) = \frac{5}{7} \cdot \frac{4}{7} + \frac{2}{7} \cdot \frac{6}{7} = \frac{32}{49} \]

2. Bayes’ rule gives
\[ P(R_1|R_2) = \frac{P(R_1 \cap R_2)}{P(R_2)} = \frac{20/49}{32/49} = \frac{20}{32} \]
1. The probability $x$ represents

(a) $P(A_1)$
(b) $P(A_1|B_2)$
(c) $P(B_2|A_1)$
(d) $P(C_1|B_2 \cap A_1)$.

**answer:** (a) $P(A_1)$. 
2. The probability $y$ represents

(a) $P(B_2)$  
(b) $P(A_1|B_2)$  
(c) $P(B_2|A_1)$  
(d) $P(C_1|B_2 \cap A_1)$.

**answer:** (c) $P(B_2|A_1)$. 
3. The probability $z$ represents

(a) $P(C_1)$
(b) $P(B_2|C_1)$
(c) $P(C_1|B_2)$
(d) $P(C_1|B_2 \cap A_1)$.

**answer:** (d) $P(C_1|B_2 \cap A_1)$. 
4. The circled node represents the event

(a) \( C_1 \)
(b) \( B_2 \cap C_1 \)
(c) \( A_1 \cap B_2 \cap C_1 \)
(d) \( C_1 \mid B_2 \cap A_1 \).

**answer:** (c) \( A_1 \cap B_2 \cap C_1 \).
Let’s Make a Deal with Monty Hall

- One door hides a car, two hide goats.
- The contestant chooses any door.
- Monty always opens a different door with a goat. (He can do this because he knows where the car is.)
- The contestant is then allowed to switch doors if she wants.

What is the best strategy for winning a car?

(a) Switch  (b) Don’t switch  (c) It doesn’t matter
Board question: Monty Hall

Organize the Monty Hall problem into a tree and compute the probability of winning if you always switch.

Hint first break the game into a sequence of actions.

answer: Switch. $P(C|\text{switch}) = \frac{2}{3}$

It’s easiest to show this with a tree representing the switching strategy: First the contestant chooses a door, (then Monty shows a goat), then the contestant switches doors.

The (total) probability of $C$ is $P(C|\text{switch}) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0 + \frac{2}{3} \cdot 1 = \frac{2}{3}$.
Independence

Events $A$ and $B$ are independent if the probability that one occurred is not affected by knowledge that the other occurred.

\[
\text{Independence } \iff P(A|B) = P(A) \quad \text{(provided } P(B) \neq 0) \\
\iff P(B|A) = P(B) \quad \text{(provided } P(A) \neq 0) \\
\iff P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)
\]

(For any $A$ and $B$)
Table/Concept Question: Independence
(Work with your tablemates, then everyone click in the answer.)

Roll two dice and consider the following events
- $A = \text{‘first die is 3’}$
- $B = \text{‘sum is 6’}$
- $C = \text{‘sum is 7’}$

$A$ is independent of
- (a) $B$ and $C$
- (b) $B$ alone
- (c) $C$ alone
- (d) Neither $B$ or $C$.

**answer:** (c). (*Explanation on next slide*)
Solution

\[ P(A) = 1/6, \quad P(A|B) = 1/5. \] Not equal, so not independent.

\[ P(A) = 1/6, \quad P(A|C) = 1/6. \] Equal, so independent.

Notice that knowing \( B \), removes 6 as a possibility for the first die and makes \( A \) more probable. So, knowing \( B \) occurred changes the probability of \( A \).

But, knowing \( C \) does not change the probabilities for the possible values of the first roll; they are still 1/6 for each value. In particular, knowing \( C \) occurred does not change the probability of \( A \).

Could also have done this problem by showing

\[ P(B|A) \neq P(B) \quad \text{or} \quad P(A \cap B) \neq P(A)P(B). \]
Bayes’ Theorem

Also called Bayes’ Rule and Bayes’ Formula.

Allows you to find $P(A|B)$ from $P(B|A)$, i.e. to ‘invert’ conditional probabilities.

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

Often compute the denominator $P(B)$ using the law of total probability.
Of the one million squirrels on MIT’s campus most are good-natured. But one hundred of them are pure evil! An enterprising student in Course 6 develops an “Evil Squirrel Alarm” which she offers to sell to MIT for a passing grade. MIT decides to test the reliability of the alarm by conducting trials.
Evil Squirrels Continued

- When presented with an evil squirrel, the alarm goes off 99% of the time.
- When presented with a good-natured squirrel, the alarm goes off 1% of the time.

(a) If a squirrel sets off the alarm, what is the probability that it is evil?

(b) Should MIT co-opt the patent rights and employ the system?

*Solution on next slides.*
One solution
(This is a base rate fallacy problem)
We are given:

\[ P(\text{nice}) = 0.9999, \quad P(\text{evil}) = 0.0001 \text{ (base rate)} \]

\[ P(\text{alarm} \mid \text{nice}) = 0.01, \quad P(\text{alarm} \mid \text{evil}) = 0.99 \]

\[
P(\text{evil} \mid \text{alarm}) = \frac{P(\text{alarm} \mid \text{evil})P(\text{evil})}{P(\text{alarm})}
\]

\[
= \frac{P(\text{alarm} \mid \text{evil})P(\text{evil})}{P(\text{alarm} \mid \text{evil})P(\text{evil}) + P(\text{alarm} \mid \text{nice})P(\text{nice})}
\]

\[
= \frac{(0.99)(0.0001)}{(0.99)(0.0001) + (0.01)(0.9999)}
\]

\approx 0.01
Squirrels continued

Summary:

- Probability a random test is correct $= 0.99$
- Probability a positive test is correct $\approx 0.01$

These probabilities are not the same!

Alternative method of calculation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Evil</th>
<th>Nice</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alarm</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>9999</td>
<td>10098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No alarm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>989901</td>
<td>989902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>999900</td>
<td>1000000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Evil Squirrels Solution

**answer:** (a) This is the same solution as in the slides above, but in a more compact notation. Let $E$ be the event that a squirrel is evil. Let $A$ be the event that the alarm goes off. By Bayes’ Theorem, we have:

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

$$= \frac{.99 \frac{100}{1000000}}{.99 \frac{100}{1000000} + .01 \frac{999900}{1000000}}$$

$$\approx .01.$$ 

(b) No. The alarm would be more trouble than its worth, since for every true positive there are about 99 false positives.
Annual physical exam is probably unnecessary if you’re generally healthy

For patients, the negatives include time away from work and possibly unnecessary tests. “Getting a simple urinalysis could lead to a false positive, which could trigger a cascade of even more tests, only to discover in the end that you had nothing wrong with you.” Mehrotra says.

http://www.washingtonpost.com/national/health-science/annual-physical-exam-is-probably-unnecessary-if-you-re-general-2013/02/08/2c1e326a-5f2b-11e2-a389-ee565c81c565_story.html
Table Question: Dice Game

1. The Randomizer holds the 6-sided die in one fist and the 8-sided die in the other.
2. The Roller selects one of the Randomizer’s fists and covertly takes the die.
3. The Roller rolls the die in secret and reports the result to the table.

Given the reported number, what is the probability that the 6-sided die was chosen? (Find the probability for each possible reported number.)

answer: If the number rolled is 1-6 then $P(\text{six-sided}) = \frac{4}{7}$.
If the number rolled is 7 or 8 then $P(\text{six-sided}) = 0$.

Explanation on next page
Dice Solution

This is a Bayes’ formula problem. For concreteness let’s suppose the roll was a 4. What we want to compute is \( P(6\text{-sided}|\text{roll 4}) \). But, what is easy to compute is \( P(\text{roll 4}|6\text{-sided}) \).

Bayes’ formula says

\[
P(6\text{-sided}|\text{roll 4}) = \frac{P(\text{roll 4}|6\text{-sided})P(6\text{-sided})}{P(4)}
\]

\[
= \frac{(1/6)(1/2)}{(1/6)(1/2) + (1/8)(1/2)} = \frac{4}{7}.
\]

The denominator is computed using the law of total probability:

\[
P(4) = P(4|6\text{-sided})P(6\text{-sided}) + P(4|8\text{-sided})P(8\text{-sided}) = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{1}{2}.
\]

Note that any roll of 1,2,\ldots,6 would give the same result. A roll of 7 (or 8) would give clearly give probability 0. This is seen in Bayes’ formula because the term \( P(\text{roll 7}|6\text{-sided}) = 0 \).
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