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A geometric analogy

Consider \mathbb{R}^2 with the standard dot product:

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = (x_1, x_2) \cdot (y_1, y_2) = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2$$
.

Let (e_1, e_2) be an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^2 :

 $\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{e}_{j} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$

Any vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ can be decomposed in an unique way as

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{e}_1)\mathbf{e}_1 + (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{e}_2)\mathbf{e}_2\\ \text{cf.} \qquad \mathbb{P}(A) &= \mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^c)\mathbb{P}(B^c) \end{aligned}$

The analogue of orthogonality is now $\mathbb{P}(B|B^c) = \mathbf{0}$.

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A general partition rule

Definition

By a (finite) partition of Ω we mean events $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n\}$ such that $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$ and $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i = \Omega$.

Theorem (General partition rule)

Let $\{B_1, \ldots, B_n\}$ be a partition of Ω . Then for any event A,

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(A|B_i) \mathbb{P}(B_i) .$$

Proof.

This is proved in exactly the same way as in the case of the partition $\{B, B^c\}$.

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Example (More coins)

A box contains 3 double-headed coins, 2 double-tailed coins and 5 conventional coins. You pick a coin at random and flip it. What is the probability that you get a head?

Let H be the event that you get a head and let A, B, C be the events that the coin you picked was double-headed, double-tailed or conventional, respectively.

Then by the (general) partition rule

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{H}) &= \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{H}|\mathsf{A})\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{A}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{H}|\mathsf{B})\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{B}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{H}|\mathsf{C})\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{C}) \\ &= (1 \times \frac{3}{10}) + (0 \times \frac{2}{10}) + (\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{5}{10}) \\ &= \frac{3}{10} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{11}{20} \end{split}$$

Example (Medical tests)

A virus infects a proportion p of individuals in a given population. A test is devised to indicate whether a given individual is infected. The probability that the test is positive for an infected individual is 95%, but there is a 10% probability of a false positive. Testing an individual at random, what is the chance of a positive result?

Let P denote the event that the result of the test is positive and V the event that the individual is infected. Then

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{P}) &= \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{P}|\mathsf{V})\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{V}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{P}|\mathsf{V}^c)\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{V}^c) \\ &= 0.95\mathsf{p} + 0.1(1-\mathsf{p}) \\ &= 0.85\mathsf{p} + 0.1 \end{split}$$

(Not a very good test: if p is very small, most positive results are false positives.)

Example (Noisy channels)

Alice and Bob communicate across a noisy channel using a bit stream. Let S_0 (resp. S_1) denote the event that a 0(resp. 1) was sent, and let R_0 (resp. R_1) denote the event that a 0 (resp. 1) was received. Suppose that $\mathbb{P}(S_0) = \frac{4}{7}$ and that due to the noise $\mathbb{P}(R_1|S_0) = \frac{1}{8}$ and $\mathbb{P}(R_0|S_1) = \frac{1}{6}$. What is $\mathbb{P}(S_0|R_0)$?

$$\mathbb{P}(S_0|R_0) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_0 \cap R_0)}{\mathbb{P}(R_0)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_0 \cap R_0)}{\mathbb{P}(S_0 \cap R_0) + \mathbb{P}(S_1 \cap R_0)}$$

 $\mathbb{P}(S_1 \cap R_0) = \mathbb{P}(R_0|S_1)\mathbb{P}(S_1) = \mathbb{P}(R_0|S_1)(1 - \mathbb{P}(S_0)) = \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{3}{7} = \frac{1}{14}$ $\mathbb{P}(S_0 \cap R_0) = \mathbb{P}(R_0|S_0)\mathbb{P}(S_0) = (1 - \mathbb{P}(R_1|S_0))\mathbb{P}(S_0) = \frac{7}{8} \times \frac{4}{7} = \frac{1}{2}$

 $\therefore \quad \mathbb{P}(S_0|R_0) = \frac{1}{2} / (\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{14}) = \frac{1}{2} / \frac{4}{7} = \frac{7}{8}$

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Proof (continued)

We rewrite $\mathbb{P}'(A \cap C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}'(A \cap C | B_i \cap C) \mathbb{P}'(B_i \cap C)$ as

$$\mathbb{P}(A|C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}'(A \cap C|B_i \cap C)\mathbb{P}(B_i|C) \ .$$

We finish the proof by rewriting $\mathbb{P}'(A\cap C|B_i\cap C)$ as follows

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}'(A \cap C|B_i \cap C) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}'(A \cap B_i \cap C)}{\mathbb{P}'(B_i \cap C)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B_i|C)}{\mathbb{P}(B_i|C)} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B_i \cap C)}{\mathbb{P}(C)} \middle/ \frac{\mathbb{P}(B_i \cap C)}{\mathbb{P}(C)} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B_i \cap C)}{\mathbb{P}(B_i \cap C)} \\ &= \mathbb{P}(A|B_i \cap C) \;. \end{split}$$

Conditional partition rule

Theorem

Let $\{B_1, \ldots, B_n\}$ be a partition of Ω and let C be an event with $\mathbb{P}(C) > 0$. Then for any event A,

$$\mathbb{P}(A|C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(A|B_i \cap C) \mathbb{P}(B_i|C) \ .$$

Proof

The partition rule holds in *any* probability space, so in particular it holds for the conditional probability $\mathbb{P}'(A \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(A|C)$. Since $\{B_1 \cap C, \dots, B_n \cap C\}$ is a partition of C,

$$\mathbb{P}'(A \cap C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}'(A \cap C | B_i \cap C) \mathbb{P}'(B_i \cap C)$$

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Example

There are number of different drugs to treat a disease and each drug may give rise to side effects. A certain drug C has a 99% success rate in the absence of side effects and side effects only arise in 5% of cases. If they do arise, however, then C has only a 30% success rate. If C is used, what is the probability of the event A that a cure is effected?

Let B be the event that **no** side effects occur. We are given that

 $\mathbb{P}(A|B\cap C) = \textbf{0.99} \qquad \mathbb{P}(B|C) = \textbf{0.95} \qquad \mathbb{P}(A|B^c\cap C) = \textbf{0.3} \ ,$

whence $\mathbb{P}(B^c|C) = 0.05$. By the conditional partition rule corresponding to the partition $\{B, B^c\}$ and condition C,

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(A|C) &= \mathbb{P}(A|B \cap C)\mathbb{P}(B|C) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^c \cap C)\mathbb{P}(B^c|C) \\ &= (0.99 \times 0.95) + (0.3 \times 0.05) = 0.9555 \simeq 96\% \end{split}$$

Bayes's rule

Recall the product rule

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

which immediately gives



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Example (False positives)

You get tested for the virus in • the earlier example and it shows positive. What is the probability that you are actually infected? In the notation of • the earlier example, we want to compute $\mathbb{P}(V|P)$. By Bayes's rule

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V}|\mathbf{P}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{P}|\mathbf{V})\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{V})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{P})} = \frac{0.95p}{0.85p + 0.1}$$

So that if half the population is infected (p = 0.5), then $\mathbb{P}(V|P) \simeq 90\%$ and the test looks good, but if the virus affects only one person in every thousand ($p = 10^{-3}$), then $\mathbb{P}(V|P) \simeq 1\%$, so not very conclusive at all!

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Example (Multiple choice exam)

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A student is taking a multiple choice exam, each question having c available choices. The student either knows the answer to the question with probability p or else guesses at random with probability 1 - p. Given that the answer selected is correct, what is the probability that the student knew the answer?

Let A denote the event that the answer is correct and let K denote the event that the student knew the answer. We are after $\mathbb{P}(K|A)$. Bayes's rule says

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{K}|\mathsf{A}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{A}|\mathsf{K})\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{K})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{A})} ,$$

so we need to compute $\mathbb{P}(A)$. We will use the partition rule,

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A|K)\mathbb{P}(K) + \mathbb{P}(A|K^{c})\mathbb{P}(K^{c})$$

Example (Multiple choice exam – continued) We notice that $\mathbb{P}(A|K) = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(A|K^c) = 1/c$, whence

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(A) &= \mathbb{P}(A|K)\mathbb{P}(K) + \mathbb{P}(A|K^c)\mathbb{P}(K^c) \\ &= (1\times p) + (\frac{1}{c}\times(1-p)) \\ &= p + \frac{1-p}{c} \;. \end{split}$$

Finally,

$$\mathbb{P}(K|A) = \frac{p}{p + (1-p)/c} = \frac{cp}{1 + (c-1)p} .$$

Notice that the larger the number c, the more likely that the student knew the answer.

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Conditional probability in Mendelian genetics I

Basic question

How does your family's medical history affect your carrying a certain gene?

First some basic genetics:

- Genes are nucleotide sequences forming part of a chromosome.
- Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes, one of which are the sex chromosomes which come in two varieties X and Y.
 Females have two X chromosomes, whereas males have one X and one Y chromosome.
- Certain genetic traits are passed on through genes in the X chromosomes: the so-called X-linked genetic traits.
- A given gene can come in two (or more) mutated forms called **alleles**.

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Conditional probability in Mendelian genetics III

Example

Suppose that a male with genotype A and a female with genotype Aa have a daughter. She can have genotype AA or Aa, both with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. Now suppose that she herself has a son with genotype A. What is the (conditional) probability that she has genotype AA?

Let G_{AA} (resp. G_{Aa}) denote the event that the daughter has genotype AA (resp. Aa) and let S_A denote the event that the daughter's son has genotype A. We want $\mathbb{P}(G_{AA}|S_A)$. Notice that $\mathbb{P}(S_A|G_{AA}) = 1$ and $\mathbb{P}(S_A|G_{Aa}) = \frac{1}{2}$. By the partition rule

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(S_A) &= \mathbb{P}(S_A | G_{AA}) \mathbb{P}(G_{AA}) + \mathbb{P}(S_A | G_{Aa}) \mathbb{P}(G_{Aa}) \\ &= (1 \times \frac{1}{2}) + (\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4} \; . \end{split}$$

Bayes's: $\mathbb{P}(G_{AA}|S_A) = \mathbb{P}(S_A|G_{AA})\mathbb{P}(G_{AA})/\mathbb{P}(S_A) = \frac{1}{2} \Big/ \frac{3}{4} = \frac{2}{3}.$

Conditional probability in Mendelian genetics II

- Let us consider a gene contained inside the X chromosome and having two alleles: A and a.
- We will assume that a male with allele A in his one X chromosome does **not** present the genetic trait, whereas one with a does.
- We will assume that a female will present the trait if and only if both her X chromosomes contain the allele a.
- One says that allele A is **dominant** and a is **recessive**.
- We will assume the following laws of inheritance:
 - a son gets one of his mother's two X chromosomes at random
 - a daughter gets her father's X chromosome and one of her mother's at random
- Males can therefore be A or a, whereas females can be AA, Aa and aa. (We don't distinguish between Aa and aA.)

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Summary

- The partition rule: $\mathbb{P}(A) = \mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B) + \mathbb{P}(A|B^{c})\mathbb{P}(B^{c})$
- This generalises to a partition $\{B_i\}$ of the sample space:

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i} \mathbb{P}(A|B_{i})\mathbb{P}(B_{i})$$

• It also applies to conditional probability:

$$\mathbb{P}(A|C) = \sum_{i} \mathbb{P}(A|B_{i} \cap C)\mathbb{P}(B_{i}|C)$$

Bayes's rule allows us to compute ℙ(A|B) from a knowledge of ℙ(B|A) via

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

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