

Probability 2: Conditional Probability

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Roadmap

- ① Conditional Probability
- ② Bayes's Rule
- ③ Independence

1. Conditional Probability

Conditional probability

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- Conditioning our analysis on B having occurred.

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- Examples:
 - ▶ What is probability of two states going to war if they are both democracies?
 - ▶ What is the probability of a judge ruling in a pro-choice direction **conditional** on having daughters?
 - ▶ What is the probability that there will be a coup in a country **conditional** on having a presidential system?
- Conditional probability is the cornerstone of quantitative social science.

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 - ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\text{in POLI 502} \mid \text{smart})$ is low

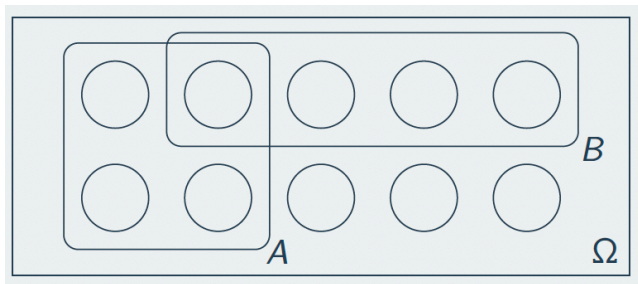
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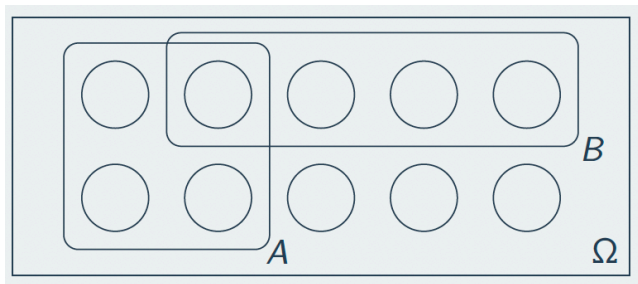
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 - ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\text{in POLI 502} \mid \text{smart})$ is low
 - ▶ There are many many smart people out there who are not in this class (perhaps in other universities or other departments or on the street)!
 - ▶ Also known as the **prosecutor's fallacy**
 - ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\text{innocent} \mid \text{evidence})$ is not the same as $\mathbb{P}(\text{evidence} \mid \text{innocent})$

Examples



- $A = \{\text{you get an A grade}\}$, $B = \{\text{everyone gets an A grade}\}$
- If B occurs then A must also occur, so $Pr(A|B) = 1$.
- Does this mean that $Pr(B|A) = 1$ as well?

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- $A = \{\text{you get an A grade}\}$, $B = \{\text{everyone gets an A grade}\}$
- If B occurs then A must also occur, so $Pr(A|B) = 1$.
- Does this mean that $Pr(B|A) = 1$ as well?
- Now let $A = \{\text{you get a B grade}\}$.
- The intersection $A \cap B = \emptyset$, so that $Pr(A|B) = 0$.
- Intuitively, it's because B occurring precludes A from occurring.

Conditional probabilities are probabilities

- Condition probabilities $\mathbb{P}(A|B)$ are valid probability functions:
 - 1 $\mathbb{P}(A|B) \geq 0$
 - 2 $\mathbb{P}(\Omega|B) = 1$
 - 3 Addition/Partition rule: If A_1 and A_2 are disjoint, then
$$\mathbb{P}(A_1 \cup A_2|B) = \mathbb{P}(A_1|B) + \mathbb{P}(A_2|B)$$
- \rightsquigarrow rules of probability apply to left-hand side of conditioning bar (A)
- All probabilities normalized to event B, $\mathbb{P}(B | B) = 1$.
- Not for right-hand side, so even if B and C are disjoint,
$$\mathbb{P}(A|B \cup C) \neq \mathbb{P}(A|B) + \mathbb{P}(A|C)$$

Joint probabilities from conditional probabilities

- Joint probabilities: probability of two events occurring (intersections)
- Often replace \cap with commas: $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B \cap C) = \mathbb{P}(A, B, C)$

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- Definition of conditional prob. implies:
 $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) \equiv \mathbb{P}(A, B) = \mathbb{P}(B)\mathbb{P}(A | B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B | A)$
- Look at what we defined before for cond. prob., we're just "moving parts" in the same equation!

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

- Let's draw a Venn diagram?
- What about three events? $\mathbb{P}(A, B, C) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B | A)\mathbb{P}(C | A, B)$
- Generalize to the intersection of N events: $\mathbb{P}(A_1, \dots, A_N) = \mathbb{P}(A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_2 | A_1)\mathbb{P}(A_3 | A_1, A_2)\cdots\mathbb{P}(A_N | A_1, \dots, A_{N-1})$

Joint probabilities from conditionals, example

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$$\mathbb{P}(Ace1 \cap Ace2 \cap Ace3) = \mathbb{P}(Ace1) \mathbb{P}(Ace2 \mid Ace1) \mathbb{P}(Ace3 \mid Ace1 \cap Ace2)$$

- What are these probabilities?
 - ▶ 4 Aces to pick out of 52 cards

Joint probabilities from conditionals, example

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 - ▶ 3 Aces left in the 51 remaining cards

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 - ▶ 3 Aces left in the 51 remaining cards $\rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}(Ace_2 | Ace_1) = \frac{3}{51}$
 - ▶ 2 Aces left in the 50 remaining cards

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 - ▶ 3 Aces left in the 51 remaining cards $\rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}(Ace_2 | Ace_1) = \frac{3}{51}$
 - ▶ 2 Aces left in the 50 remaining cards $\rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}(Ace_3 | Ace_2 \cap Ace_1) = \frac{2}{50}$
- Thus, $\mathbb{P}(Ace_1 \cap Ace_2 \cap Ace_3) = \frac{4}{52} \times \frac{3}{51} \times \frac{2}{50}$

2. Bayes' rule

Bayes' rule



- Reverend Thomas Bayes (1701–61): English minister and statistician

Bayes' rule

- Recall conditional probability

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

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

- **Bayes' rule:** if $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$, then:

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

- We often call $\mathbb{P}(B)$ as our prior, and $\mathbb{P}(A|B)$ as our data/observations

Bayes' rule example

- Use the Covid test example

- ▶ Want to know $\mathbb{P}(\text{covid} \mid \text{test positive})$ or $\mathbb{P}(C \mid PT)$
- ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\text{test positive} \mid \text{covid}) = 0.8$ true positive rate
- ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\text{covid}) = 0.007$ rough prevalence of active Covid cases
- ▶ $\mathbb{P}(\text{test positive}) = 0.011$ rough prevalence of active Covid cases

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{covid} \mid \text{test positive}) =$$

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$$\mathbb{P}(\text{covid} \mid \text{test positive}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\text{test positive} \mid \text{covid}) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\text{covid})}{\mathbb{P}(\text{test positive})}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(C \mid PT) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(PT \mid C) \cdot \mathbb{P}(C)}{\mathbb{P}(PT)} = \frac{0.8 \cdot 0.007}{0.011} = 0.53$$

More general version of Bayes Theorem

- Suppose X and θ are two continuous random variables.
 - ▶ θ corresponds to the unobserved effects E_i 's
 - ▶ X corresponds to the observed outcome F (or data)
- We have available two pieces of information:
 - ▶ The marginal p.d.f of θ , $\xi(\theta)$, corresponding to $\mathbb{P}(E_i)$
 - ▶ The conditional p.d.f of X given θ , $f(x|\theta)$, corresponding to $\mathbb{P}(F|E_i)$

More general version of Bayes Theorem

- The joint p.d.f. of X and θ

$$f(x, \theta) = \xi(\theta|x) f_x(x) \quad (1)$$

- From this, we get that for x such that $f_x(x) > 0$

$$\xi(\theta|x) = \frac{f(x, \theta)}{f_x(x)} = \frac{f(x|\theta)\xi(\theta)}{f_x(x)} \quad (2)$$

- Since this is a p.d.f., it must integrate to 1. That is,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x|u)\xi(\theta)du}{f_x(x)} = 1 \quad (3)$$

- Therefore, we have

$$f_x(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x|u)\xi(\theta)du \quad (4)$$

- Now, plug in what you have in the equation 2

$$\xi(\theta|x) = \frac{f(x|\theta)\xi(\theta)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x|u)\xi(\theta)du} \quad (5)$$

More general version of Bayes Theorum

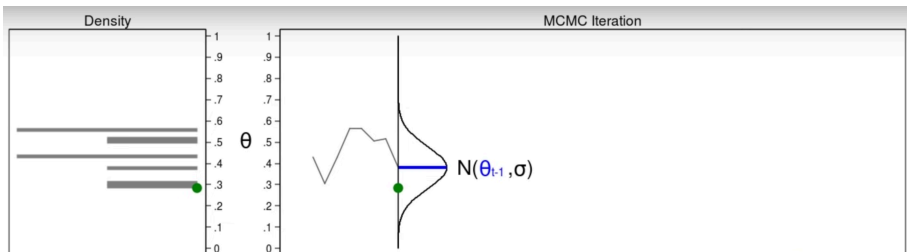
- The denominator is only a normalizing constant so that the density in θ integrates to 1.
- We can simplify the equation (5) to this:

$$\underbrace{\xi(\theta|x)}_{\text{posterior dist.}} \propto \underbrace{f(x|\theta)}_{\text{data, given Likelihood}} \underbrace{\xi(\theta)}_{\text{prior dist.}} \quad (6)$$

$$\underbrace{\xi(\theta|data)}_{\text{posterior dist}} \propto \underbrace{f(data|\theta)}_{\text{data}} \underbrace{\xi(\theta)}_{\text{prior dist}} \quad (7)$$

More general version of Bayes Theorem

- Random draws of $\xi(\theta|x)$ are done by MCMC (Monte Carlo Markov Chain) iterations in Bayesian models



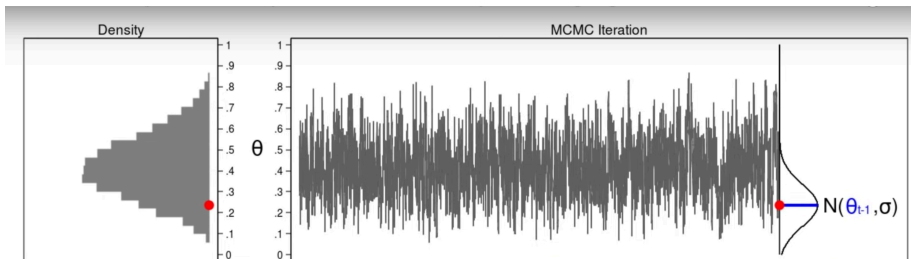
$$\text{Step 1: } r(\theta_{\text{new}}, \theta_{t-1}) = \frac{\text{Posterior}(\theta_{\text{new}})}{\text{Posterior}(\theta_{t-1})} = \frac{\text{Beta}(1,1,0.286) \times \text{Binomial}(10,4,0.286)}{\text{Beta}(1,1,0.380) \times \text{Binomial}(10,4,0.380)} = 0.747$$

$$\text{Step 2: Acceptance probability } \alpha(\theta_{\text{new}}, \theta_{t-1}) = \min\{r(\theta_{\text{new}}, \theta_{t-1}), 1\} = \min\{0.747, 1\} = 0.747$$

$$\text{Step 3: Draw } u \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1) = 0.094$$

$$\text{Step 4: If } u < \alpha(\theta_{\text{new}}, \theta_{t-1}) \rightarrow \text{If } 0.094 < 0.747 \quad \text{Then } \theta_t = \theta_{\text{new}} = 0.286 \\ \text{Otherwise } \theta_t = \theta_{t-1} = 0.380$$

More general version of Bayes Theorum



$$\text{Step 1: } r(\theta_{\text{new}}, \theta_{t-1}) = \frac{\text{Posterior}(\theta_{\text{new}})}{\text{Posterior}(\theta_{t-1})} = \frac{\text{Beta}(1,1,0.180) \times \text{Binomial}(10,4,0.180)}{\text{Beta}(1,1,0.235) \times \text{Binomial}(10,4,0.235)} = 0.523$$

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$$\text{Step 3: Draw } u \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1) = 0.867$$

$$\text{Step 4: If } u < \alpha(\theta_{\text{new}}, \theta_{t-1}) \rightarrow \text{If } 0.867 < 0.523 \quad \text{Then } \theta_t = \theta_{\text{new}} = 0.180 \\ \text{Otherwise } \theta_t = \theta_{t-1} = 0.235$$

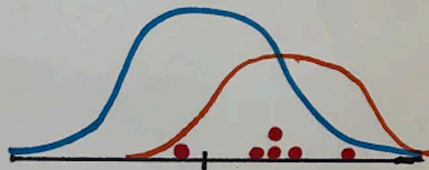
* If you're interested in this process, watch this intro to Bayes stats video from 2:40 → [YouTube link](#)

Frequentist vs. Bayesian Hypothesis Testing

Probability Theory



Frequentist



Bayesian

Why Should I learn Bayesian statistics

- It allows us to acquire information on the strength of **evidence** for our results. We don't get this information with the p-value point estimate. Such information is highly valuable in research.
- Advantages
 - ▶ More **intuitive**
 - ▶ Gives you a range between which you can be certain for or against your hypotheses rather than a point-estimate
 - ▶ All information is contained within the data itself as opposed to unobserved frequencies
 - ▶ Calculates the probability distribution of the hypotheses
- Disadvantages
 - ▶ Setting the prior probabilities of the hypothesis can be different values because they're subjective, thus making them appear arbitrary
 - ▶ Bayesian analyses are complex and can require advanced statistical packages and software
 - ▶ Require more advanced statistical knowledge and computing power

3. Independence

Independence

- Heart of Bayes's rule: knowing B occurs often changes probability of A.
 - ▶ What if B provides no information? \rightsquigarrow independence
- Two events A and B are independent if $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) =$

Independence

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▶ What if B provides no information? \rightsquigarrow independence

- Two events A and B are independent if $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$
- Sometimes written as $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B$
- Symmetric: $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ equivalent to $B \perp\!\!\!\perp A$
- Important consequence: if $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ and $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$ then:

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

- Knowing B occurs has no impact on the probability of A.
- Works other way too: if $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$ and $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \rightsquigarrow \mathbb{P}(B | A) = \mathbb{P}(B)$
- Common misunderstanding: **independent is different than disjoint!**
- Mutually exclusive events provide information

Independence and random sampling

- How we draw the random sample matters:
 - ▶ Sample $n > 1$ with replacement \rightsquigarrow independent events
 - ▶ Sample $n > 1$ without replacement \rightsquigarrow dependent events
- Sampling with replacement n for gathering:

$$\mathbb{P}(A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = \mathbb{P}(A_1) \cdot \mathbb{P}(A_2) \cdots \mathbb{P}(A_n)$$

Conditional independence

- A and B are *conditionally independent* given E if
$$\mathbb{P}(A \cap B \mid E) = \mathbb{P}(A \mid E)\mathbb{P}(B \mid E)$$
- Massively important in statistics and causal inference.
- Warning: independence \neq conditional independence.
 - ▶ Cond. ind. $\not\Rightarrow$ ind.: flipping a coin with unknown bias.
 - ▶ Ind. $\not\Rightarrow$ cond. ind.: test scores, athletics, and college admission.
- You will learn later on why the assumption of independence among observations matters and why it is **not** okay we constantly violate this assumption.