Week 8: Probability Rules and Conditional Probabilities

Data Analysis for Psychology in R 1

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Course Overview

	Research design and data	
Exploratory Data	Describing categorical data	
Analysis	Describing continuous data	
	Describing relationships	
	Functions	
	Probability theory	
	Probability rules	
Probability	Random variables (discrete)	
	Random variables (continuous)	
	Sampling	

	Confidence intervals		
Foundations of inference	Hypothesis testing (p- values)		
	Hypothesis testing (critical values)		
	Hypothesis testing and confidence intervals		
	Errors, power, effect size, assumptions		
Common hypothesis tests	One sample t-test		
	Independent samples t- test		
	Paired samples t-test		
	Chi-square tests		
	Correlation		

Learning objectives

- Understand the use of probability rules
- Understand the basics of and how to use Bayes' equation
- Understand use of probability to test independence
- Apply probability rules and compute probability using R

Recap

Probabilities of multiple events

- Probability of A and B = $P(A \cap B)$
 - o Joint event or intersection of A and B
 - Both A and B have occurred
- Probability of A or B = $P(A \cup B)$
 - Union of A and B
 - A, B, or both have occurred
- Probability of **not** A = $P(A^c)$
 - \circ We describe the event not A as the *complement* of A
 - o Elements in U that are not A

Relations between events

- Mutually exclusive events: If A occurs, B can not occur
- Independent events: The occurrence of event A does not impact event B
- **Dependent** events: The occurrence of event A **does** impact event B
 - o "Impact" means that whether A occurs changes the probability of B

Rule	Formula
1. Range	$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
2. Sum of Outcomes	$P(a_1) + P(a_2) + \ldots P(a_i) = 1$
3. Complement Rule	$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$
4a. Simple Addition Rule	$P(A \bigcup B) = P(A) + P(B)$
4b. General Addition Rule	$P(A \bigcup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$
5a. Simple Multiplication Rule	$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$
5b. General Multiplication Rule	$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B A)$
6. Conditional Probability	$P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$

• As we discuss these rules in more depth, imagine that our random experiment is *drawing a single card from a fair deck*

1. The probability of any event will fall between 0 and 1

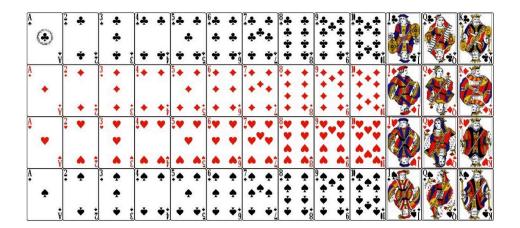
$$0 \le P(A) \le 1$$

- As ${\cal P}(A)$ approaches 1, ${\cal A}$ becomes more likely to occur
- ullet P(A)=0 indicates that event A is impossible
- $\bullet \ \ P(A) = 1 \ {\rm indicates} \ {\rm that} \ {\rm event} \ A \ {\rm will} \ {\rm absolutely}$ occur

2. The sum of the probabilities of all possible outcomes = 1

$$P(a_1) + P(a_2) + \dots P(a_i) = 1$$

- Because the sample space includes all possible outcomes of an experiment, one of these outcomes must occur
- ullet P=1 indicates an event will certainly occur
- Therefore, the probability of all events within the sample space will sum to 1

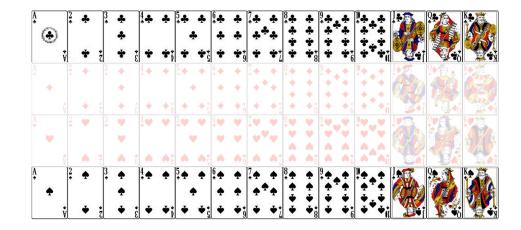


$$P(black)+P(red)=1$$
 $rac{26}{52}+rac{26}{52}=1$

3. Complement Rule

$$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$$

- $\bullet \;$ The probability of A^c (Not A) is equal to 1 the probability of A
- Notice how this is connected to Rule 2 (the probabilities of all possible outcomes sum to 1)



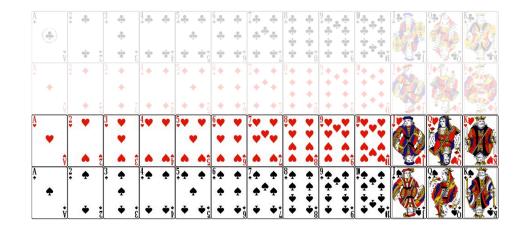
$$P(red^c) = 1 - P(red)$$

$$P(red^c)=1-rac{26}{52}$$

4a. Simple Addition Rule

$$P(A \bigcup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

- The probability that one or both events occur
- This rule can only be used for mutually exclusive events



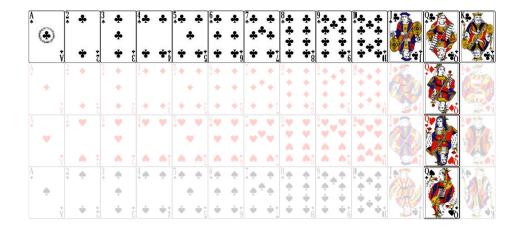
$$P(spade \bigcup heart) = rac{13}{52} + rac{13}{52}$$

$$P(spade \bigcup heart) = \frac{1}{2}$$

4b. General Addition Rule

$$P(A \bigcup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \bigcap B)$$

- The probability that one or both events occur when events *are not necessarily* mutually exclusive
- However, it could also be used when events are mutually exclusive, as $P(A \cap B) = 0$



$$P(club igcup queen) = rac{13}{52} + rac{4}{52} - rac{1}{52}$$
 $P(club igcup queen) = rac{16}{52} = rac{4}{13}$

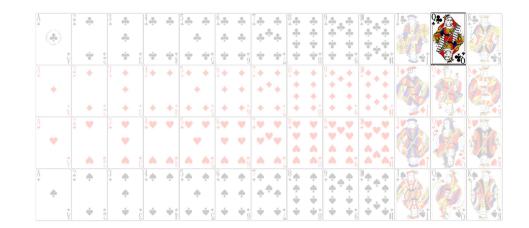
5a. Simple Multiplication Rule

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

also written as:

$$P(A \bigcap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

- The probability of the co-occurrence of A and B *if* they are independent events
- The probability of A and B will always be less than or equal to the probability of either single event



$$P(club \bigcap queen) = rac{13}{52} imes rac{4}{52}$$

$$P(club \bigcap queen) = rac{1}{52}$$

Question

- Why is the probability of A and B always less than or equal to the probability of either single event?
- Because the probability of A and B is reflective of the intersection of these events, and this intersection will never be larger than the probability of the least likely event
- Suppose we have two events
 - Event A occurs $\frac{1}{4}$ of the time
 - Event B occurs $\frac{1}{2}$ of the time
- If the events are independent (the probability of one does not impact the probability of the other), then event B will happen with equal probability when both A and not A
 - o So, of the total number of times A occurs, B will occur half the time
 - $\circ P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{8}$

5b. General multiplication rule

$$P(A \bigcap B) = P(A)P(B|A)$$

- The probability of the co-occurrence of A and B when they are not necessarily independent events
- Note that *and* is commutative (i.e., $A \cap B = B \cap A$).
 - o Probability of rain and Tuesday can't be different from the probability of Tuesday and rain
- But what is P(B|A)?

Conditional probability

- P(B|A): Probability of B given A
- This is referred to as conditional probability
 - When events are dependent, the likelihood of one event changes based on the outcome of the other
- Note that when P(A) and P(B) are independent, then the P(B|A) = P(B), hence the simple multiplication rule for independent events
- We can calculate conditional probability as:

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

• or the inverse:

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

Conditional probability: an example

- Let's imagine we have data on the handedness of boys and girls in a classroom
- Just by looking at our data, the likelihood of being left-handed changes depending on whether the student is a boy or a girl
- Specifically, if a student is a boy, they are more likely to be left-handed than if they are a girl

LeftRightMarginalBoys252449Girls104151Marginal3565100

• If we select one girl from the class, what is the probability that they are left handed?

Conditional probability: an example

$$P(Left|Girl) = rac{P(Left igcap Girl)}{P(Girl)}$$

$$P(Left|Girl) = rac{rac{10}{100}}{rac{51}{100}}$$

$$P(Left|Girl) = \frac{0.10}{0.51} = .196$$

	Left	Right	Marginal
Boys	25	24	49
Girls	10	41	51
Marginal	35	65	100

An important note: while $P(A \cap B)$ is equal to $P(B \cap A)$, P(A|B) is not equal to P(B|A)

- $P(Left|Girl) = \frac{.10}{.51} = .196$
- $P(Girl|Left) = \frac{.10}{.35} = .286$
- Another way to think about it: You draw a single card from a fair deck. Is the probability it's red given that it's a diamond equal to the probability that it's a diamond given that it's red?

Questions?

Bayes' Equation

Bayes' Rule

- Bayes' rule follows from the idea of conditional probability
- In a basic sense, it allows you to update your assessment of probability as you gather more evidence

We know that
$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \bigcap B)}{P(A)}$$
 and $P(A \bigcap B) = P(B \bigcap A)$

and
$$P(B \cap A) = P(B)P(A|B)$$

So by substitution we get:

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

• Rearrange this to get Bayes' rule:

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

Who cares?

- Turns out to be a big deal in psychology and statistics
 - Many psychological models based on Bayes' rule
 - o Bayesian statistics are becoming more prominent
- Can be really useful for calculating conditional probabilities when you don't know things like $P(A \cap B)$
- ullet Can also be useful if you know P(B|A) but not P(A|B), or vice versa
 - \circ E.g., P(clouds|rain) is much easier to calculate than P(rain|clouds)
- Let's apply the equation to our previous handedness example

Conditional probability: Bayes' equation

$$P(Left|Girl) = rac{P(Girl|Left)}{P(Girl)}P(Left)$$

	Left	Right	Marginal
Boys	25	24	49
Girls	10	41	51
Marginal	35	65	100

$$P(Girl|Left) = \frac{10}{35} = .2857$$

$$P(Left|Girl) = rac{0.2857}{.51} imes .35 = .196$$

Questions?

Assessing Independence of Events

- The multiplication rule, and the use of contingency tables, provides a way to assess if events are independent
- Example: Consider we have a sample of 200 students and faculty members at the university
 - 110 students and 90 faculty members
 - o Suppose we ask whether they live within one mile of campus. 140 say yes, 60 say no
- We can tabulate the proportions and think about the probabilities

- Notice that we're not using raw frequencies as in the handedness example, but relative frequencies
- E.g. 110 students out of our sample of 200 = 55%
- 70% of our sample live within a mile of campus (Yes), while 30% live further away (No)

	Yes	No	Marginal
Students	P(Student,Yes)	P(Student, No)	.55
Faculty	P(Faculty, Yes)	P(Faculty, No)	.45
Marginal	.70	.30	1.00

- If role and distance are independent, then the probability of living near campus should be 70% whether someone is a student or a faculty member
- With independent events, we can use the *multiplication rule* to compute the probability of each outcome:

	Yes	No	Marginal
Students	0.385	0.165	0.55
Faculty	0.315	0.135	0.45
Marginal	0.70	0.30	1.00

$$\circ P(yes \cap student) = P(yes)P(student) = .70 \times .55 = .385$$

- The values within each cell are the proportions we would expect if role and distance are absolutely independent
 - E.g. we would expect ~32% of our sample to be faculty members who live within a mile of campus

- But what if, when we looked within our data, we actually observed the proportions shown here?
- Given this outcome, our conditional probabilities are actually:

$$\circ~P(yes|student) = \frac{.45}{.55} = .82$$

$$\circ P(yes|faculty) = \frac{.25}{.45} = .56$$

• Using Bayes:

$$\circ \; rac{P(student|yes)}{P(student)} P(yes) = rac{rac{.45}{.70}}{.55} imes .70 = .82$$

$$\circ~P(yes|faculty) = rac{P(faculty|yes)}{P(faculty)} P(yes) = rac{rac{.25}{.70}}{.45} imes .70 = .56$$

	Yes	No	Marginal
Students	0.45	0.10	0.55
Faculty	0.25	0.20	0.45
Marginal	0.70	0.30	1.00

Expected (if independent)

	Yes	No	Marginal	
Students	0.385	0.165	0.55	
Faculty	0.315	0.135	0.45	
Marginal	0.70	0.30	1.00	
$P(yes student)$ = $rac{.385}{.55}$ $= .70$				

$$P(yes|faculty) = \frac{.315}{.45} = .70$$

$$P(no|student) = \frac{.165}{.55} = .30$$

$$P(no|faculty)$$
 = $\frac{.135}{.45}$ = .30

Observed

	Yes	No	Marginal	
Students	0.45	0.10	0.55	
Faculty	0.25	0.20	0.45	
Marginal	0.70	0.30	1.00	
$P(yes student) = rac{.45}{.55} = .82$				
$P(yes faculty) = rac{.25}{.45} = .56$				
$P(no student)$ = $rac{.10}{.55}$ = $.18$				
$P(no faculty) = \frac{.20}{45} = .44$				

Because the probabilities we observe within our data are not at all similar to the probabilities we would expect if
role and distance are independent, we might conclude that these events actually are dependent

Our first statistical test

- ullet What we have just done (more or less) is do all the background work to understand a χ^2 test of independence
- This tests the independence of two nominal category variables
- To use this in practice, we have a couple of extra steps covered later in DAPR1, but the above is the fundamental principle

Questions?

Summary of today

- 1. Review and extension of the rules of probability
- 2. Bayes' rule can be used to calculate conditional probabilities
- 3. How to do a simple test for independence
- Tomorrow, I'll present a live R session focused on computing probability based on these rules

This week



Tasks

- Attend both lectures
- Attend your lab and work together on the lab tasks
- Complete the weekly quiz
 - Opened Monday at 9am
 - Closes Sunday at 5pm



Support

- Office hours: for one-to-one support on course materials or assessments (see LEARN > Course information > Course contacts)
- Piazza: help each other on this peer-to-peer discussion forum
- Student Adviser: for general support while you are at university (find your student adviser on MyEd/Euclid)