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Chapter 2: Conditional Probability

MATH/STAT 354: Probability I

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Summer 2026

Learning Goals

By the end of this lecture, students should be able to:

- interpret conditional probability intuitively;
- apply **Bayes' rule** and the Law of Total Probability;
- distinguish between $P(A|B)$ and $P(B|A)$;
- understand independence and conditional independence;
- use conditioning as a strategy in solving in probability problems.

Conditional Probability

Definition

If

$$P(B) > 0,$$

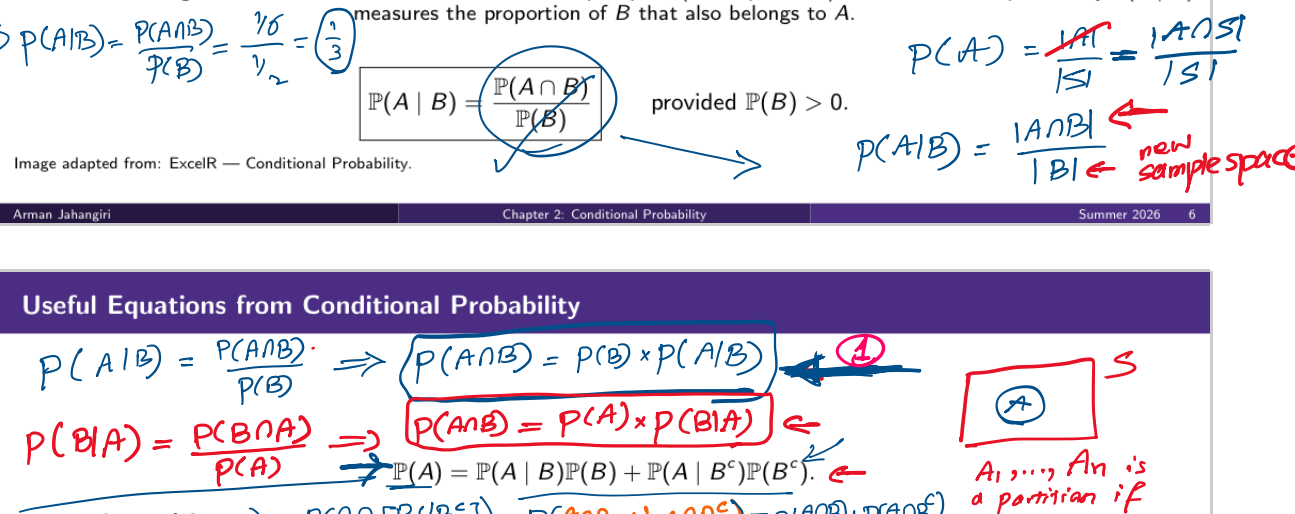
then the conditional probability of A given B is

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \leq 1$$

Interpretation:

- B is the observed evidence;
- we restrict attention to outcomes in B ;
- probabilities are renormalized within B .

Visual Interpretation of Conditional Probability



Useful Equations from Conditional Probability

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

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

$$P(A) = P(A \cap S) = P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^c) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A) + P(A) \cdot P(B^c|A)$$

$$P(B) = P(B \cap A) + P(B \cap A^c) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A) + P(A^c) \cdot P(B|A^c)$$

Law of Total Probability

Each equation partitions the sample space into two disjoint cases and adds the corresponding conditional probabilities.

example ②: $A \cap S = A \cap (B \cup B^c) = A \cap B \cup A \cap B^c \Rightarrow A \cap S = A$

example ①: $S = S \cap (A \cup A^c) = S \cap A \cup S \cap A^c \Rightarrow S = A \cup A^c$

Example: Two Cards

Two cards are drawn without replacement.

Define

 $A = \{\text{first card is a heart}\}, \quad B = \{\text{second card is red}\}.$

Using the multiplication rule,

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B|A)P(A) = \frac{13}{52} \cdot \frac{26}{51} = \frac{13}{102}$$

Also,

$$P(A) = \frac{13}{52} = \frac{1}{4}$$

and

$$P(B) = P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|A^c)P(A^c) = \frac{13}{52} \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{13}{51} \cdot \frac{3}{4} = \frac{13}{102}$$

Therefore,

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} = \frac{13/102}{1/4} = \frac{52}{102} = \frac{26}{51} < P(B)$$

and

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{13/102}{13/102} = \frac{1}{2} > P(A)$$

Important Warning

Conditional probabilities are directional

In general,

$$P(A|B) \neq P(B|A)$$

The conditioning event matters.

means:

probability of A after learning B .

Bayes' Rule and LOTP

Intersection Formula

From the definition:

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

Multiplying both sides by $P(B)$ gives:

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

Similarly,

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

The last two equalities together imply an important equality in probability, known as the Bayes' rule, given in the next slide.

Bayes' Rule: Updating Beliefs with Evidence

Bayes' Rule

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

Bayes' rule describes how probabilities "evolve" when new information is observed.

Interpretation: Learning that B occurred gives information about A (and vice versa).
 Using Bayes' Rule and the LOTP:
 The observation of B changes our belief about whether A occurred.

Law of Total Probability

Suppose

$$P(A) = P(A|B_1)P(B_1) + P(A|B_2)P(B_2) + \dots + P(A|B_n)P(B_n)$$

form a partition of S .

Then:

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B|A_i)P(A_i)$$

Interpretation

Break the sample space into cases, compute probabilities within each case, then combine them.

Rare Disease Example

Suppose we are analyzing the disease rate in a certain area.

Let

 $D = \{\text{person has the disease}\}, \quad T = \{\text{test result is positive}\}.$

and assume

$$P(D) = 0.01, \quad P(T|D) = 0.95, \quad P(T^c|D^c) = 0.95$$

Interpretation:

- The disease prevalence is 1%.
- The test correctly detects the disease 95% of the time;
- The test correctly returns a negative result 95% of the time for healthy individuals.

Question: A patient tests positive. What is $P(D|T)$?

$$P(D|T) = \frac{P(T|D)P(D)}{P(T|D)P(D) + P(T|D^c)P(D^c)} = \frac{0.95(0.01)}{0.95(0.01) + 0.05(0.99)} \approx 0.16$$

Why This Feels Surprising

Most people expect the answer to be close to 95%.

But the disease is very rare.

Among many healthy people:

still test positive.

Those false positives greatly outnumber the true positives.

Lesson

- Posterior probabilities depend both on:
 - the evidence,
 - and the prior probability.

Conditional Probability as Probability

Conditional Probability is a Probability Measure

Fix an event E with

$$P(E) > 0.$$

Then the conditional probability function

$$P(\cdot | E)$$

satisfies the three probability axioms.

Axiom 1 (Nonnegativity)

$$P(A|E) \geq 0 \quad \text{for every event } A.$$

Axiom 2 (Normalization)

$$P(S|E) = 1$$

Axiom 3 (Countable Additivity) If $A_1, A_2, \dots$ are pairwise disjoint events, then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i | E\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i | E)$$

Independence

Definition (Independence)

Events A and B are independent if

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

provided $P(B) > 0$.

Interpretation:

Learning that B occurred gives no information about A (and vice versa).

Thus independence is symmetric:

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

Think of it this way: $P(A$ with new (additional) information) = $P(A$ with no additional information)

Lemma (Equivalent characterization of independence)

Events A and B are independent if and only if

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

Conditional Independence

Events A and B are conditionally independent given E if

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

Conditional independence is different from ordinary independence.

Two events may:

- be independent but not conditionally independent;
- be conditionally independent but not independent.

Example: A Hidden Variable Creates Dependence

A coin is selected at random:

- Fair coin with probability $1/2$;
- Biased coin ($P(H) = 0.9$) with probability $1/2$.

If we know which coin was selected:

The tosses are independent.

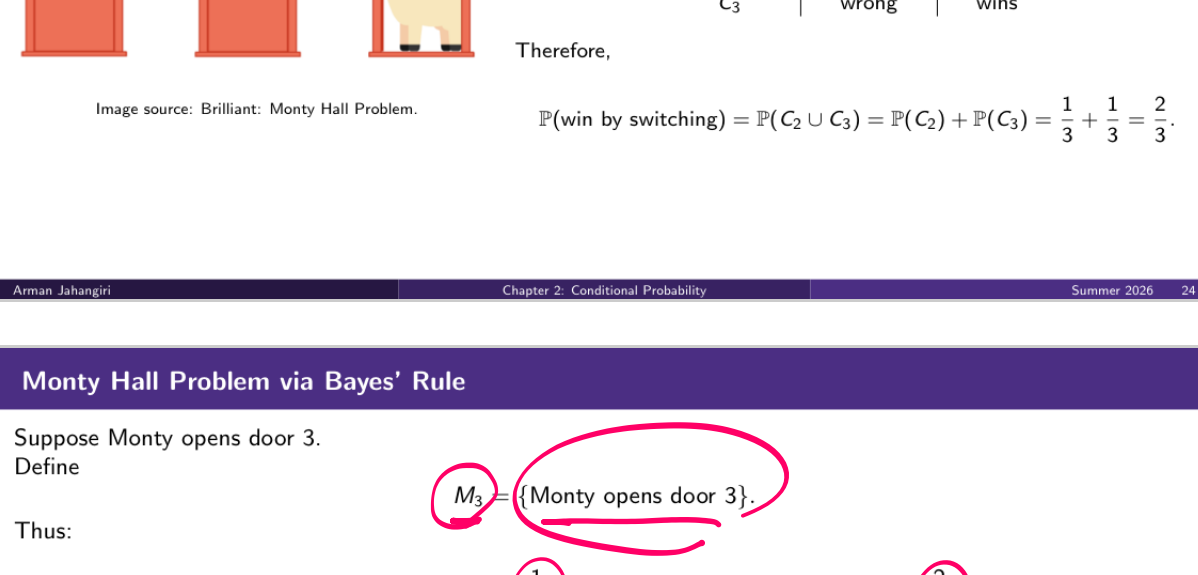
If we do not know which coin was selected:

Observing early tosses changes our belief about which coin we have. Therefore, earlier tosses affect our prediction of later tosses, so the tosses are not independent.

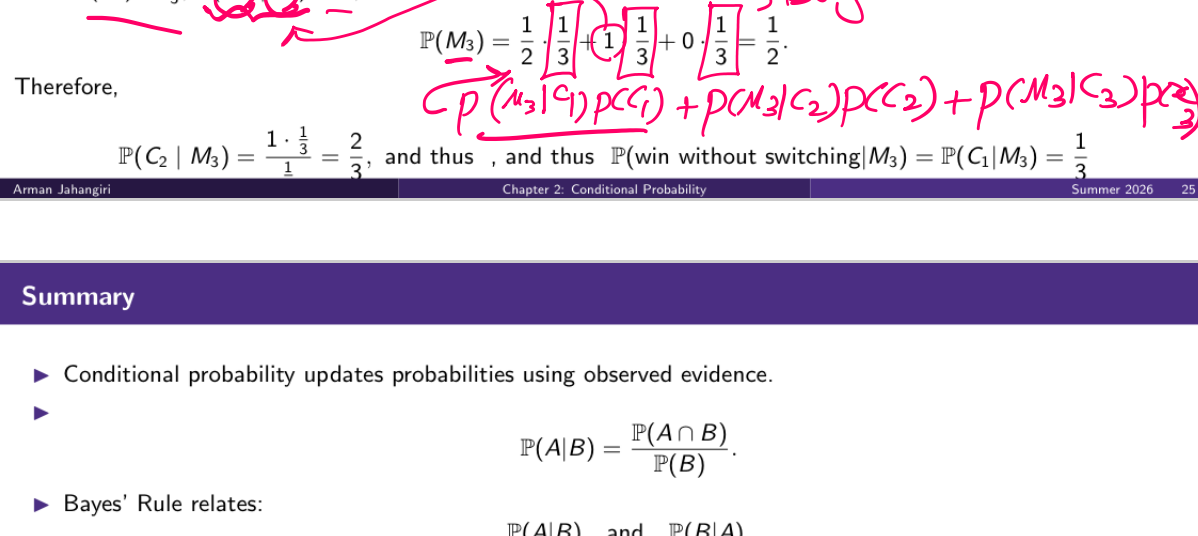
$$P(H_2 | H_1) \neq P(H_2)$$

Conditioning as a Strategy

Monty Hall Problem: Setup



Monty Hall Problem: Why Switching Wins



Monty Hall Problem via Bayes' Rule

Suppose Monty opens door 3.

Define

$$M_3 = \{\text{Monty opens door 3}\}$$

Thus:

$$P(\text{initial choice correct}) = \frac{1}{3} \quad \text{and} \quad P(\text{initial choice wrong}) = \frac{2}{3}$$

After Monty reveals a goat behind door 3, the entire remaining probability mass concentrates on door 2.

Using Bayes' Rule,

$$P(\text{win by switching} | M_3) = P(C_2 | M_3) + P(C_3 | M_3) = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Now, $P(C_2) = \frac{1}{3}$, $P(M_3 | C_2) = 1$, and

$$P(C_2 | M_3) = \frac{P(M_3 | C_2)P(C_2)}{P(M_3 | C_2)P(C_2) + P(M_3 | C_1)P(C_1)} = \frac{1 \cdot \frac{1}{3}}{1 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore,

$$P(C_2 | M_3) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad P(C_3 | M_3) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \text{and thus } P(\text{win without switching} | M_3) = P(C_1 | M_3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

Summary

- Conditional probability updates probabilities using observed evidence.

- Bayes' Rule relates:

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

- LOTP breaks problems into cases.

- Conditional probabilities themselves satisfy the probability axioms.

- Independence means:

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

- Conditioning is a powerful problem-solving strategy.

Next lecture

Random variables and distributions.