

## Lecture 10: More Examples with Conditional Probability, and Using Random Variables

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We see a few more examples using conditional probability, and some examples where random variables are very useful.

Recall these basic facts:

**Fact 1** (Chain Rule). *If  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are events, then*

$$\begin{aligned} p(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) \\ = p(A_1) \cdot p(A_2|A_1) \cdot p(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2) \cdot \dots \cdot p(A_n|A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}). \end{aligned}$$

The chain rule can make it easy to compute probabilities:

*Example: Dealing Aces*

Suppose you split a standard deck of cards randomly into 4 parts. What is the probability that each of the aces is in a different part?

Let  $A_1$  be the event that the aces of hearts and spades are in different piles. Let  $A_2$  be the event that the aces of hearts, spades and diamonds are in different piles, and let  $A_3$  be the event that all aces are in different piles.

Then we want to calculate

$$p(A_3) = p(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = p(A_1) \cdot p(A_2|A_1) \cdot p(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2).$$

We have

$$p(A_1) = \frac{39}{51},$$

because for every placement of the ace of hearts, there are 51 locations where the ace of spades can go, and 39 of them would be in a different part. Similarly, we have

$$p(A_2|A_1) = \frac{26}{50},$$

and

$$p(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2) = \frac{13}{49}.$$

So, we conclude that

$$p(A_3) = \frac{39 \cdot 26 \cdot 13}{51 \cdot 50 \cdot 49} \approx 0.105.$$

You could also calculate this by explicitly counting:  $\frac{4! \cdot \binom{48}{12} \binom{36}{12} \binom{24}{12}}{\binom{52}{13} \binom{39}{13} \binom{26}{13}}$ . However, using conditional probability is much cleaner!

*Example: GPA*

Barack will get an A in physics with probability  $3/4$ , and will get an A in chemistry with probability  $3/5$ . He flips a coin and takes one of the courses based on his coin flip. What is the probability he gets an A?

If  $A$  denote the event that he gets an A,  $P$  denotes the event that he takes physics and  $C$  denotes the event that he takes Chemistry, we see that  $P, C$  are a partition of the probability space, so

$$p(A) = p(A|P) \cdot p(P) + p(A|C) \cdot p(C) = 3/8 + 3/10 = 27/40.$$

**Fact 2** (Law of Total Probability). *If  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are disjoint events that form a partition of the whole sample space, and  $B$  is another event, then*

$$p(B) = p(A_1 \cap B) + p(A_2 \cap B) + \dots + p(A_n \cap B).$$

One consequence of the Law of Total Probability is that whenever you have a random variable  $X$  and an event  $E$ , we have

$$p(E) = \sum_x p(X = x) \cdot p(E|X = x).$$

*Example: Even Number of Heads*

Suppose you toss  $n$  coins. What is the probability that the number of heads is even?

We already calculated this the *hard* way. Let us use an appropriate random variable to calculate this the easy way.

See notes for Lecture 6 on January 17.

Let  $X$  denote the outcome of tossing the first  $n - 1$  coins. Let  $E$  denote the event that the number of heads is even. Then:

$$p(E) = \sum_{x \in \{H,T\}^{n-1}} p(X = x) \cdot p(E|X = x).$$

Now observe that no matter what  $x$  is,  $p(E|X = x) = 1/2$ . This is because after you fix the first  $n - 1$  coin-tosses, the last coin toss is still uniformly random. If  $x$  has an even number of heads, then the total number of tosses is even when the last coin toss is a tail and so  $p(E|X = x) = 1/2$ . If  $x$  has an odd number of heads, the opposite is true, and still  $p(E|X = x) = 1/2$ . So, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} p(E) &= \sum_{x \in \{H,T\}^{n-1}} p(X = x) \cdot p(E|X = x) \\ &= (1/2) \cdot \sum_{x \in \{H,T\}^{n-1}} p(X = x) = 1/2. \end{aligned}$$