Notes for Recitation 18

The Law of Total Probability is a handy tool for breaking down the computation of a probability into distinct cases. More precisely, suppose we are interested in the probability of an event $E$: $\Pr (E)$. Suppose also that the random experiment can evolve in two different ways; that is, two different cases $X$ and $\overline{X}$ are possible. Suppose also that

- it is easy to find the probability of each case: $\Pr (X)$ and $\Pr (\overline{X})$,
- it easy to find the probability of the event in each case: $\Pr (E \mid X)$ and $\Pr (E \mid \overline{X})$.

Then finding the probability of $E$ is only two multiplications and an addition away.

**Theorem 1 (Law of Total Probability).** Let $E$ and $X$ be events, and $0 < \Pr (X) < 1$. Then

$$\Pr (E) = \Pr (X) \cdot \Pr (E \mid X) + \Pr (\overline{X}) \cdot \Pr (E \mid \overline{X})$$

**Proof.** Let’s simplify the right-hand side.

$$\Pr (E \mid X) \cdot \Pr (X) + \Pr (E \mid \overline{X}) \cdot \Pr (\overline{X})$$

$$= \frac{\Pr (E \cap X)}{\Pr (X)} \cdot \Pr (X) + \frac{\Pr (E \cap \overline{X})}{\Pr (\overline{X})} \cdot \Pr (\overline{X})$$

$$= \Pr (E \cap X) + \Pr (E \cap \overline{X})$$

$$= \Pr (E)$$

The first step uses the definition of conditional probability. On the next-to-last line, we’re adding the probabilities of all outcomes in $E$ and $X$ to the probabilities of all outcomes in $E$ and not in $X$. Since every outcome in $E$ is either in $X$ or not in $X$, this is the sum of the probabilities of all outcomes in $E$, which equals $\Pr (E)$. 

What happens if the experiment can evolve in more than two different ways? That is, what if there are $n$ cases, $X_1, \ldots, X_n$, which are mutually exclusive (no two cases can happen simultaneously) and collectively exhaustive (at least one case must happen)? If it is still easy to find the probability of each case and the probability of the event in each case, then again finding $\Pr (E)$ is trivial.

**Theorem 2.** Let $E$ be an event and let $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ be disjoint events whose union exhausts the sample space. Then

$$\Pr (E) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Pr (E \mid X_i) \cdot \Pr (X_i)$$

provided that $\Pr (X_i) \neq 0$. 
Problem 1. There is a rare and deadly disease called *Nerditosis* which afflicts about 1 person in 1000. On symptom is a compulsion to refer to everything—fields of study, classes, buildings, etc.—using numbers. It’s horrible. As victims enter their final, downward spiral, they’re awarded a degree from MIT. Two doctors claim that they can diagnose Nerditosis.

(a) Doctor X received his degree from Harvard Medical School. He practices at Massachusetts General Hospital and has access to the latest scanners, lab tests, and research. Suppose you ask Doctor X whether you have the disease.

- If you have Nerditosis, he says “yes” with probability 0.99.
- If you don’t have it, he says “no” with probability 0.97.

Let $D$ be the event that you have the disease, and let $E$ be the event that the diagnosis is erroneous. Use the Total Probability Law to compute $\Pr(E)$, the probability that Doctor X makes a mistake.

**Solution.** By the Total Probability Law:

$$
\Pr(E) = \Pr(E \mid D) \cdot \Pr(D) + \Pr(E \mid D^c) \cdot \Pr(D^c)
$$

$$
= 0.01 \cdot 0.001 + 0.03 \cdot 0.999
$$

$$
= 0.02998
$$

(b) “Doctor” Y received his genuine degree from a fully-accredited university for $49.95 via a special internet offer. He knows that Nerditosis stikes 1 person in 1000, but is a little shakey on how to interpret this. So if you ask him whether you have the disease, he’ll helpfully say “yes” with probability 1 in 1000 regardless of whether you actually do or not.

Let $D$ be the event that you have the disease, and let $F$ be the event that the diagnosis is faulty. Use the Total Probability Law to compute $\Pr(F)$, the probability that Doctor Y made a mistake.

**Solution.** By the Total Probability Law:

$$
\Pr(F) = \Pr(F \mid D) \cdot \Pr(D) + \Pr(F \mid D^c) \cdot \Pr(D^c)
$$

$$
= 0.999 \cdot 0.001 + 0.001 \cdot 0.999
$$

$$
= 0.001998
$$

(c) Which doctor is more reliable?

**Solution.** Doctor X makes more than 15 times as many errors as Doctor Y.
**Problem 2.** A Barglesnort makes its lair in one of three caves:

The Barglesnort inhabits cave 1 with probability $\frac{1}{2}$, cave 2 with probability $\frac{1}{3}$, and cave 3 with probability $\frac{1}{3}$. A rabbit subsequently moves into one of the two unoccupied caves, selected with equal probability. With probability $\frac{1}{3}$, the rabbit leaves tracks at the entrance to its cave. (Barglesnorts are much too clever to leave tracks.) What is the probability that the Barglesnort lives in cave 3, given that there are no tracks in front of cave 2?

Use a tree diagram and the four-step method.

**Solution.** A tree diagram is given below. Let $B_3$ be the event that the Barglesnort inhabits cave 3, and let $T_2$ be the event that there are tracks in front of cave 2. Taking data from the tree diagram, we can compute the desired probability as follows:

$$
\Pr (B_3 \mid T_2) = \frac{\Pr (B_3 \cap T_2)}{\Pr (T_2)}
$$

$$
= \frac{\frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{12}}{1 - \frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{24}}
$$

$$
= \frac{5}{21}
$$

In the denominator, we apply the formula $\Pr (T_2) = 1 - \Pr (\neg T_2)$ for convenience.
Problem 3. There is a deck of cards on the table. Either John or Mary shuffled it and we have no reason to believe in one case more than the other. Now, John is a well-known cheater with well-known preferences: he always steals the ace of diamonds while shuffling. Mary, on the other hand, is a very honest girl: a deck suffled by her is always a full 52-card deck.

(a) You pick the topmost card on the deck and you see a queen of hearts. Before you do any calculations: Who is more likely to have shuffled the deck? Explain.

Solution. A shuffling by John strictly increases the fraction of non-aces in the deck. Hence, between the two worlds:

(1) the world where John has shuffled the deck and
(2) the world where Mary has shuffled the deck

it is the first world rather than the second one that favors the event of the topmost card being a non-ace. Since we know this event is a fact and the two worlds are otherwise equally likely, we should bet we live in world (1).

(b) Now calculate. What is the probability that John has shuffled the deck? What is the probability that it has been Mary?

Solution. Let \( J \) be the event that John shuffles the deck and \( A \) that the topmost card is an ace. We want the probabilities

\[
\Pr(J \mid A) \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr(M \mid A)
\]

Clearly, \( M = \overline{J} \) and therefore \( \Pr(M \mid A) = \Pr(J \mid \overline{A}) = 1 - \Pr(J \mid \overline{A}) \), so that we need only calculate the probability about John. By the definition of conditional probability (first equation) and then the product rule (on the enumerator) and the law of total probability (on the denominator), we know

\[
\Pr(J \mid \overline{A}) = \frac{\Pr(J \cap \overline{A})}{\Pr(\overline{A})} = \frac{\Pr(J) \cdot \Pr(\overline{A} \mid J)}{\Pr(J) \cdot \Pr(\overline{A} \mid J) + \Pr(M) \cdot \Pr(\overline{A} \mid M)}
\]

and everything in this last fraction is known:

\[
\Pr(J \mid \overline{A}) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{48}{51} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{48}{52}}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{48}{51} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{48}{52}} = \frac{\frac{1}{51} + \frac{1}{52}}{\frac{52}{51} + \frac{52}{51}} = \frac{52}{103}
\]

which is (slightly, but) strictly greater than \( \frac{1}{2} \), as expected.

Like John, Peter is also a well-known cheater: when he shuffles the deck, he also steals a card from it; but (unlike John) he steals a random card. That is, every card is equally likely to be stolen when Peter is shuffling.
(c) Suppose you know that Mary shuffled the deck and you are about to pick the topmost card. What is the probability that you will see an ace?

**Solution.** If we know Mary shuffled the deck, we know the deck if a full 52-card deck. So, easily, the probability is \( \frac{4}{52} \).

(d) Suppose you know that Peter shuffled the deck and you are about to pick the topmost card. What is the probability that you will see an ace? (Hint: What is this probability if Peter steals an ace? What if Peter steals a non-ace?)

**Solution.** Suppose Peter shuffles the deck. Then there are two cases about what card he steals: it’s either an ace or a non-ace. Let \( S_A \) be the event that he steals an ace. Since he steals a card at random, we know he steals an ace with probability \( \Pr (S_A) = \frac{4}{52} \) and a non-ace with probability \( \Pr (\overline{S_A}) = \frac{48}{52} \).

Now, as before, let \( A \) be the event that the topmost card is an ace. If we know what case we are in with respect to the stolen card, it is easy to calculate the probability of \( A \):

\[
\Pr (A \mid S_A) = \frac{3}{51} \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr (A \mid \overline{S_A}) = \frac{4}{51}
\]

So, we know the probability in each case and we also know the probability of each case. This rings the bell of the law of total probability:

\[
\Pr (A) = \Pr (S_A) \cdot \Pr (A \mid S_A) + \Pr (\overline{S_A}) \cdot \Pr (A \mid \overline{S_A}) = \frac{4}{52} \cdot \frac{3}{51} + \frac{48}{52} \cdot \frac{4}{51} = \frac{4 \cdot (3 + 48)}{52 \cdot 51} = \frac{4}{52}.
\]

So the probability that the topmost card is an ace is \( \frac{4}{52} \).

(e) Anything strange with the answers to parts (c) and (d)?

**Solution.** The two answers are identical. In other words, whether the deck is missing a card or not does not affect the probability that the topmost card is an ace! How can that be?

Here is an explanation. The situation of part (c) is identical to the following:

we pick the top two cards of a well-shuffled 52-card deck;
what is the probability that the *first* card is an ace?

(because the selection of the second card is irrelevant). Similarly, the situation of part (d) is identical to the following:

we pick the top two cards of a well-shuffled 52-card deck;
what is the probability that the *second* card is an ace?

(because the effect of Peter stealing a card at random and shuffling is identical to the effect of us drawing the topmost card). Now the two situations we have just introduced are identical, because the number of pairs where the first card is an ace is equal to the number of pairs where the second card is an ace, for obvious reasons of symmetry.