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Mathematical Biostatistics Boot Camp: Lecture 5, Conditional Probability

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Table of contents

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Conditional probability, motivation

- The probability of getting a one when rolling a (standard) die is usually assumed to be one sixth
- Suppose you were given the extra information that the die roll was an odd number (hence 1, 3 or 5)
- conditional on this new information, the probability of a one is now one third

Conditional probability, definition

- Let B be an event so that P(B) > 0
- Then the conditional probability of an event A given that B has occurred is

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

• Notice that if A and B are independent, then

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

- Consider our die roll example
- $B = \{1, 3, 5\}$
- $A = \{1\}$

$$P(\text{one given that roll is odd}) = P(A \mid B)$$

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

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

$$=$$
 $\frac{1/6}{3/6} = \frac{1}{3}$

Conditional densities and mass functions

- Conditional densities or mass functions of one variable conditional on the value of another
- Let f(x, y) be a bivariate density or mass function for random variables X and Y
- Let f(x) and f(y) be the associated marginal mass function or densities disregarding the other variables

$$f(y) = \int f(x,y)dx$$
 or $f(y) = \sum_{x} f(x,y)dx$.

• Then the **conditional** density or mass function *given that* Y = y is given by

$$f(x \mid y) = f(x, y)/f(y)$$

Notes

- It is easy to see that, in the discrete case, the definition of conditional probability is exactly as in the definition for conditional events where A = the event that X = x and B = the event that Y = y
- The continuous definition is a little harder to motivate, since the events X = x and Y = y each have probability 0
- However, a useful motivation can be performed by taking the appropriate limits as follows
- Define $A = \{X \le x\}$ while $B = \{Y \in [y, y + \epsilon]\}$

$$P(X \le x \mid Y \in [y, y + \epsilon]) = P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
$$= \frac{P(X \le x, Y \in [y, y + \epsilon])}{P(Y \in [y, y + \epsilon])}$$

$$= \frac{\int_{y}^{y+\epsilon} \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x,y) dx dy}{\int_{y}^{y+\epsilon} f(y) dy}$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon \int_{y}^{y+\epsilon} \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x,y) dx dy}{\epsilon \int_{y}^{y+\epsilon} f(y) dy}$$

Continued

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$$= \ \frac{\frac{\int_{-\infty}^{y+\epsilon} \int_{\infty}^{x} f(x,y) dx dy - \int_{-\infty}^{y} \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x,y) dx dy}{\epsilon}}{\frac{\int_{-\infty}^{y+\epsilon} f(y) dy - \int_{-\infty}^{y} f(y) dy}{\epsilon}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{g_1(y+\epsilon)-g_1(y)}{\epsilon}}{\frac{g_2(y+\epsilon)-g_2(y)}{\epsilon}}$$

where

$$g_1(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f(x,y) dx dy$$
 and $g_2(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y f(y) dy$.

- Notice that the limit of the numerator and denominator tends to g_1' and g_2' as ϵ gets smaller and smaller
- Hence we have that the conditional distribution function is

$$P(X \le x \mid Y = y) = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x, y) dx}{f(y)}.$$

 Now, taking the derivative with respect to x yields the conditional density

$$f(x \mid y) = \frac{f(x,y)}{f(y)}$$

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Geometrically

- Geometrically, the conditional density is obtained by taking the relevant slice of the joint density and appropriately renormalizing it
- This idea extends to any other line, or even non-linear functions

- Let $f(x,y) = ye^{-xy-y}$ for $0 \le x$ and $0 \le y$
- Then note

$$f(y) = \int_0^\infty f(x, y) dx = e^{-y} \int_0^\infty y e^{-xy} dx = e^{-y}$$

Therefore

$$f(x \mid y) = f(x,y)/f(y) = \frac{ye^{-xy-y}}{e^{-y}} = ye^{-xy}$$

Bayes' rule

- Let $f(x \mid y)$ be the conditional density or mass function for X given that Y = y
- Let f(y) be the marginal distribution for y
- Then if y is continuous

$$f(y \mid x) = \frac{f(x \mid y)f(y)}{\int f(x \mid t)f(t)dt}$$

• If y is discrete

$$f(y \mid x) = \frac{f(x \mid y)f(y)}{\sum_{t} f(x \mid t)f(t)}$$

- Bayes' rule relates the conditional density of $f(y \mid x)$ to the $f(x \mid y)$ and f(y)
- A special case of this kind relationship is for two sets A and B, which yields that

$$P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \mid B)P(B)}{P(A \mid B)P(B) + P(A \mid B^c)P(B^c)}.$$

Proof:

- Let X be an indicator that event A has occurred
- Let Y be an indicator that event B has occurred
- Plug into the discrete version of Bayes' rule

Example: diagnostic tests

- Let + and be the events that the result of a diagnostic test is positive or negative respectively
- Let *D* and *D^c* be the event that the subject of the test has or does not have the disease respectively
- The **sensitivity** is the probability that the test is positive given that the subject actually has the disease, $P(+ \mid D)$
- The **specificity** is the probability that the test is negative given that the subject does not have the disease, $P(-\mid D^c)$

More definitions

- The positive predictive value is the probability that the subject has the disease given that the test is positive, P(D | +)
- The **negative predictive value** is the probability that the subject does not have the disease given that the test is negative, $P(D^c \mid -)$
- The **prevalence of the disease** is the marginal probability of disease, P(D)

More definitions

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- The diagnostic likelihood ratio of a positive test, labeled DLR_+ , is $P(+\mid D)/P(+\mid D^c)$, which is the sensitivity /(1-specificity)
- The diagnostic likelihood ratio of a negative test, labeled DLR_- , is $P(-\mid D)/P(-\mid D^c)$, which is the (1-sensitivity)/specificity

Example

- A study comparing the efficacy of HIV tests, reports on an experiment which concluded that HIV antibody tests have a sensitivity of 99.7% and a specificity of 98.5%
- Suppose that a subject, from a population with a .1% prevalence of HIV, receives a positive test result. What is the probability that this subject has HIV?
- Mathematically, we want $P(D \mid +)$ given the sensitivity, $P(+ \mid D) = .997$, the specificity, $P(- \mid D^c) = .985$, and the prevalence P(D) = .001

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Using Bayes' formula

$$P(D \mid +) = \frac{P(+ \mid D)P(D)}{P(+ \mid D)P(D) + P(+ \mid D^{c})P(D^{c})}$$

$$= \frac{P(+ \mid D)P(D)}{P(+ \mid D)P(D) + \{1 - P(- \mid D^{c})\}\{1 - P(D)\}}$$

$$= \frac{.997 \times .001}{.997 \times .001 + .015 \times .999}$$

$$= .062$$

- In this population a positive test result only suggests a 6% probability that the subject has the disease
- (The positive predictive value is 6% for this test)

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More on this example

- The low positive predictive value is due to low prevalence of disease and the somewhat modest specificity
- Suppose it was known that the subject was an intravenous drug user and routinely had intercourse with an HIV infected partner
- Notice that the evidence implied by a positive test result does not change because of the prevalence of disease in the subject's population, only our interpretation of that evidence changes

Likelihood ratios

Using Bayes rule, we have

$$P(D \mid +) = \frac{P(+ \mid D)P(D)}{P(+ \mid D)P(D) + P(+ \mid D^c)P(D^c)}$$

and

$$P(D^c \mid +) = \frac{P(+ \mid D^c)P(D^c)}{P(+ \mid D)P(D) + P(+ \mid D^c)P(D^c)}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{P(D\mid +)}{P(D^c\mid +)} = \frac{P(+\mid D)}{P(+\mid D^c)} \times \frac{P(D)}{P(D^c)}$$

ie

post-test odds of
$$D = DLR_+ \times \text{pre-test}$$
 odds of D

• Similarly, *DLR*_ relates the decrease in the odds of the disease after a negative test result to the odds of disease prior to the test.

HIV example revisited

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- Suppose a subject has a positive HIV test
- $DLR_{+} = .997/(1 .985) \approx 66$
- The result of the positive test is that the odds of disease is now 66 times the pretest odds
- Or, equivalently, the hypothesis of disease is 66 times more supported by the data than the hypothesis of no disease

HIV example revisited

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- Suppose that a subject has a negative test result
- $DLR_{-} = (1 .997)/.985 \approx .003$
- Therefore, the post-test odds of disease is now .3% of the pretest odds given the negative test.
- Or, the hypothesis of disease is supported .003 times that
 of the hypothesis of absence of disease given the negative
 test result