

## When $P[A|B] = P[B|A]$

### 1. Introduction

Many students encountering probability theory for the first time have difficulty distinguishing conditional probabilities from joint or unconditional probabilities and they often confuse the conditional probabilities  $P[A|B]$  and  $P[B|A]$ . For a pair of compatible events  $A, B$  whose unconditional probabilities are neither 0 nor 1, this note demonstrates two consequences when  $P[A|B] = P[B|A]$ :  $P[B] = P[A]$  and  $P[A|\tilde{B}] = P[B|\tilde{A}]$ . The development of these consequences also provides some practice in the application of the laws of elementary probability.

### 2. $P[B] = P[A]$

The general multiplication law of probability quickly verifies that  $P[A|B]$  and  $P[B|A]$  are different, except when possible and compatible events  $A, B$  are equally likely:

$$P[AB] = P[B]P[A|B] = P[A]P[B|A] \quad (1)$$

$$\Rightarrow P[A|B] = \frac{P[A]P[B|A]}{P[B]} \quad (2)$$

If  $P[B] \neq P[A]$  then  $P[A|B] \neq P[B|A]$ .

Among the serious consequences of a failure to distinguish between  $P[A|B]$  and  $P[B|A]$  is the now-notorious “prosecutor’s fallacy” [1]. One tragic case of a miscarriage of justice was summarised in the Mathematical Association President’s Address of 2003 [2]. In a criminal trial involving forensic evidence, if  $I$  represents the event that an accused person is innocent and  $M$  represents the event that a forensic match occurs, implicating the accused in the crime, then it is often the case that  $P[M|I]$  is tiny (much less than one in a thousand), but the jury needs to know  $P[I|M]$ . From equation (2) they are connected by

$$P[I|M] = P[M|I] \cdot \frac{P[I]}{P[M]} \quad (3)$$

$P[I|M]$  can be a substantially larger number, enough in some cases for  $I|M$  to be odds on.

Equation (2) shows clearly that if  $P[A]$  and  $P[B]$  are non-zero and equal to each other, then  $P[A|B] = P[B|A]$ .

Rearranging equation (2) we have

$$P[B] = P[A] \cdot \frac{P[B|A]}{P[A|B]} \quad (4)$$

If events  $A, B$  are mutually exclusive then  $P[A|B]=P[B|A]=0$  and the expression for  $P[B]$  in equation (4) is indeterminate.  $P[A|B]=P[B|A] \neq 0$  in equation (4) leads to  $P[B]=P[A]$ .

An appeal to symmetry between events  $A, B$  when  $P[A|B]=P[B|A]$  also suggests that  $A, B$  should be equally likely, but this symmetry argument fails when the two events are mutually exclusive. The Venn probability diagram of figure 1 provides a simple counterexample.

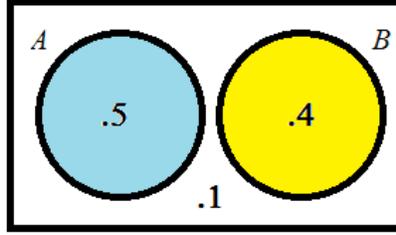


Figure 1:  $P[A|B]=P[B|A]$  but  $P[B] \neq P[A]$

$$3. \quad P[A|\tilde{B}] = P[B|\tilde{A}]$$

Now we show that  $P[A|B]=P[B|A] \neq 0$  forces  $P[A|\tilde{B}] = P[B|\tilde{A}]$ , (unless

$P[A]=P[B]=1$ ). From the definition of conditional probability (which follows from the general multiplication law of probability),

$$P[A|\tilde{B}] = \frac{P[A\tilde{B}]}{P[\tilde{B}]} \quad (5)$$

Applying the general multiplication law of probability in the numerator,

$$P[A|\tilde{B}] = \frac{P[A]P[\tilde{B}|A]}{P[\tilde{B}]} \quad (6)$$

Applying the total probability law to pairs of complementary events,

$$P[A|\tilde{B}] = \frac{P[A](1-P[B|A])}{1-P[B]} \quad (7)$$

By a similar set of operations,

$$P[B|\tilde{A}] = \frac{P[B\tilde{A}]}{P[\tilde{A}]} = \frac{P[B]P[\tilde{A}|B]}{P[\tilde{A}]} = \frac{P[B](1-P[A|B])}{1-P[A]} \quad (8)$$

But if  $P[A|B]=P[B|A] \neq 0$  then  $P[B]=P[A]$  and equations (7) and (8) both reduce to

$$P[A|\tilde{B}] = P[B|\tilde{A}] = \frac{P[A](1-P[B|A])}{1-P[A]} \quad (9)$$

unless  $P[A]=P[B]=1$ , in which case this expression for  $P[A|\tilde{B}]$  and  $P[B|\tilde{A}]$  is indeterminate (not surprising, when  $\tilde{A}$ ,  $\tilde{B}$  are both impossible events).

#### 4. Finding $P[A]$ from $P[A|B]$ and $P[A|\tilde{B}]$

When  $P[A|B]=P[B|A] \neq 0$  and neither  $A$  nor  $B$  is the universal set, equation (9) leads to an expression for  $P[A]$  and  $P[B]$  in terms of  $P[A|B]$  and  $P[A|\tilde{B}]$  only.

$$\begin{aligned} P[B|\tilde{A}] &= \frac{P[A](1-P[B|A])}{1-P[A]} \\ \Rightarrow (1-P[A])P[B|\tilde{A}] &= P[A](1-P[B|A]) \\ \Rightarrow P[B|\tilde{A}] &= P[A](1-P[B|A]+P[B|\tilde{A}]) \\ \Rightarrow P[A] &= \frac{P[B|\tilde{A}]}{1-P[B|A]+P[B|\tilde{A}]} \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

or, equivalently,

$$P[B] = P[A] = \frac{P[A|\tilde{B}]}{1-P[A|B]+P[A|\tilde{B}]} \quad (11)$$

#### 5. Example

Suppose that a current passes through a pair of pumping stations that are connected in parallel (as in figure 2). Each station has a 95% chance of operating properly if the other is functioning properly. However, a failure in one station puts more strain on the other station. The probability that either station operates properly when the other station has failed is only 20%. Find the unconditional probability for a station to operate properly and find the probability that the current will pass through this system.

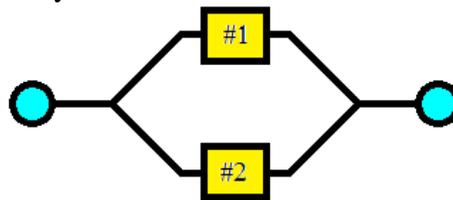


Figure 2: System connected in parallel

#### Solution

From the information in the question

$$P[A|B]=P[B|A]=.95 \text{ and } P[A|\tilde{B}]=P[B|\tilde{A}]=.20$$

where  $A$  represents the event that pumping station #1 is functioning properly and  $B$  represents the event that pumping station #2 is functioning properly

$$\text{Equation (11)} \Rightarrow P[A]=P[B]=\frac{.20}{1-.95+.20}=\frac{20}{25}=\frac{4}{5}$$

The probability that a station is functioning is 80%, in the absence of knowledge about the status of the other station. That probability rises to 95% if it is known that the other station is working, but falls to 20% if it is known that the other station has failed. While they are identical, the two events  $A, B$  are strongly dependent.

Current will pass through the system if at least one of the stations is functioning.

The probability that current will pass through this system is

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[A \cup B] &= P[\sim(\tilde{A} \cap \tilde{B})] \quad (\text{deMorgan's law}) \\
 &= 1 - P[\tilde{A} \cap \tilde{B}] \quad (\text{complementary events}) \\
 &= 1 - P[\tilde{A}]P[\tilde{B}|\tilde{A}] \quad (\text{general multiplication law}) \\
 &= 1 - (1 - P[A])(1 - P[B|\tilde{A}]) \quad (\text{complementary events}) \\
 &= 1 - \left(1 - \frac{4}{5}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{5}\right) = 1 - \frac{4}{25} \\
 \Rightarrow P[A \cup B] &= \frac{21}{25} = 84\%
 \end{aligned}$$

A direct approach is to partition the union into its three mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive components:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[A \cup B] &= P[A \text{ only}] + P[B \text{ only}] + P[\text{both}] \\
 &= P[A \cap \tilde{B}] + P[\tilde{A} \cap B] + P[A \cap B]
 \end{aligned}$$

But, from the total probability law,  $P[A] = P[A \cap \tilde{B}] + P[A \cap B]$

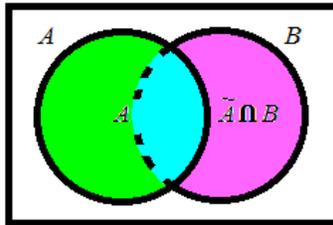


Figure 3:  $P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[\tilde{A} \cap B]$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Rightarrow P[A \cup B] &= P[A] + P[\tilde{A} \cap B] \\
 &= P[A] + P[\tilde{A}]P[B|\tilde{A}] \quad (\text{general multiplication law}) \\
 &= .8 + .2 \times .20 = .80 + .04 = .84
 \end{aligned}$$

Yet another approach is to use the general addition law of probability,

$$P[A \cup B] = P[A] + P[B] - P[A \cap B]$$

and then the general multiplication law of probability,

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[A \cup B] &= P[A] + P[B] - P[A]P[B|A] \\
 &= .8 + .8 - .8 \times .95 = .8 \times 1.05 = .84
 \end{aligned}$$

A tree diagram (figure 4) is a good visual method which illustrates the first two methods above for the calculation of  $P[A \cup B]$ .

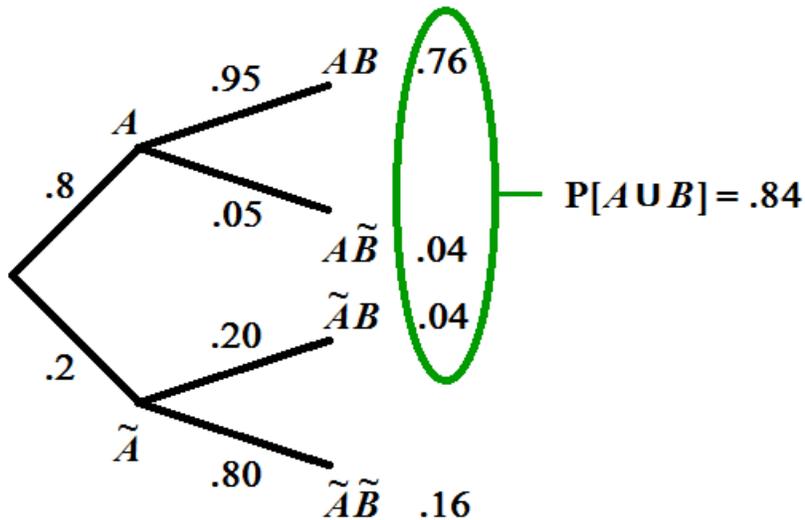


Figure 4: Tree diagram for  $P[A \cup B]$

There is therefore a probability of 84% that current will pass through this system.

#### References

1. [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prosecutor%27s\\_fallacy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prosecutor%27s_fallacy), accessed on 2016 Jan. 07.
2. B. Lewis, Taking Perspective (President's Address), *Math. Gaz.* **87** (November 2003), pp. 422-425.

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