MATH 2030 3.00 – Elementary Probability Course Notes Part II: Independence and Conditional Probabilities

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Independence and Conditional Probabilities

• Events A and B are said to be *independent* if

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

• If $P(B) \neq 0$ then the conditional probability of A given B is

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

Interpretation: If we repeat our experiment many times, one sees that P(A | B) is the relative frequency with which A will occur, out of just those repetitions in which B occurs. So it is the likelihood that A will occur, if we're given the information that B will occur. Likewise, if $P(B) \neq 0$ then independence $\Rightarrow P(A | B) = P(A)$. That is, knowing that B will occur doesn't affect the likelihood that A will occur. In other words, independence means that B occurring has no influence on A occuring.

Independence and Conditional Probabilities

Properties:

Independent - P(A ∩ B) = P(A)P(B)
 Mutually exclusive - P(A ∪ B) = P(A) + P(B).
 These are different; don't mix them up.

$$\blacktriangleright P(A \mid A) = 1$$

$$\blacktriangleright P(A^c \mid A) = 0$$

► $P(A^c | B) = 1 - P(A | B)$ [pf: $P(B) = P(A \cap B) + P(A^c \cap B)$. Now divide by P(B).]

- P(B) = 0 or $1 \Rightarrow B$ is independent of every event A.
- Sampling with replacement ⇒ independence.
 sampling without replacement ⇒ dependence.

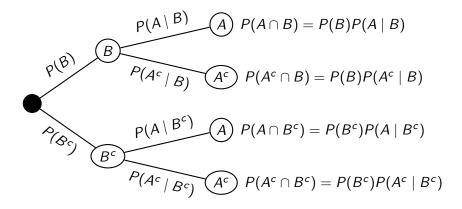
Probabilities \mapsto Conditional Prob's.

- Eg: Draw 2 cards in order, without replacement. P(2nd is a ♡ | 1st is a ♡) = P(both are ♡)/P(1st is a ♡) = 13×12/152×51/152×51 = 12/152×51/152×51 = 12/151
 [which is what we'd have guessed anyway].
 Roll 2 dice: P(1st is a 3) = 1/6 = P(2nd is a 3), and P(both are 3's) = 1/36 = 1/6 × 1/6, so they are independent [as we'd have guessed]. Likewise P(2nd is a 3 | 1st is a 3) = P(both are 3's)/P(2nd is a 3) = 1/6.
- Eg: Flip 4 coins. A is that all 4 flips agree.
 B is that flips 1 & 2 are H. C is that flip 1 is H.
 Then A and B are dependent, but A and C are independent.
 [Calculate: P(A | C) = ¹/₈ = P(A) ≠ P(A | B) = ¹/₄.
 The probability that the last 3 flips agree with the 1st doesn't depend on whether the 1st is H or T.]

Conditional Prob's \mapsto Probabilities.

- $\blacktriangleright P(A \cap B) = P(B)P(A \mid B)$
- $\blacktriangleright P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(C)P(B \mid C)P(A \mid B \cap C)$
- Eg. 2 urns. 1st has 3 red balls, 5 yellow balls. 2nd has 2 red and 3 yellow. Pick an urn at random and then a ball at random from that urn. What is the probability that it's red?
 A: ball is red. B: pick first urn. We know that P(B) = P(B^c) = ¹/₂, P(A | B) = ³/₈, P(A | B^c) = ²/₅. So P(A) = P(A ∩ B) + P(A ∩ B^c) = ¹/₂ × ³/₈ + ¹/₂ × ²/₅ = ³¹/₈₀.

Tree Diagrams

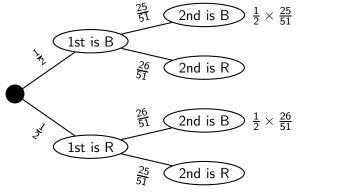


The probability for a node of the tree is the product of the conditional probabilities along the branches leading to that node.

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Tree Diagrams

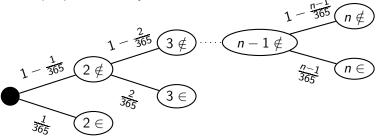
Eg: Draw 2 cards without replacement. P(2nd is black) = ?1st method: By symmetry, the answer must $= \frac{1}{2}$. 2nd method: Go back to a model and count. 3rd method: Conditional probabilities:



Adding the probabilities for these 2 nodes gives $\frac{1}{2}(\frac{25}{51} + \frac{26}{51}) = \frac{1}{2}$.

Birthday problem

Eg: *n* people. $P(\exists 2 \text{ people with the same birthday}) =?$ Put the people in some order and write eg. " $3 \notin$ " as an abbreviation for "the 3rd person's birthday is different from the first 2 peoples' birthdays".



Then the probability of having shared birthdays is $1 - (1 - \frac{1}{365})(1 - \frac{2}{365}) \cdots (1 - \frac{n-1}{365})$. If n = 30 this is ≈ 0.7063 , while if n = 65 it is ≈ 0.9977 , and for n = 80 is ≈ 0.9999

Independence for 2 events

If A and B are indep., then the following are also indep.:

► A^c and B[pf: $P(A^c \cap B) = P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ $= P(B) - P(A)P(B) = (1 - P(A))P(B) = P(A^c)P(B)$]

A and B^c [likewise]

A^c and B^c [likewise]

We'll see that this is the right way to generalize the notion of independence to 3 (or more) events.

Independence of 3 events

Three events A, B, C are said to be *independent* if $P(A_1 \cap B_1 \cap C_1) = P(A_1)P(B_1)P(C_1)$ for $A_1 = A$ or A^c , $B_1 = B$ or B^c , and $C_1 = C$ or C^c . In other words, if the following 8 conditions hold:

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

$$\blacktriangleright P(A \cap B \cap C^c) = P(A)P(B)P(C^c)$$

- $\blacktriangleright P(A \cap B^c \cap C) = P(A)P(B^c)P(C)$
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Independence of 3 events

Consequences:

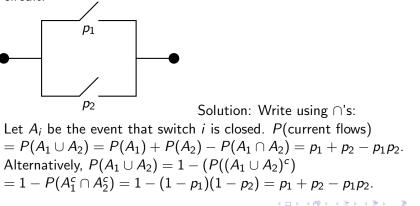
- ► A, B, C indep. \Rightarrow pairwise independence. [eg. A and B are independent, because $P(A \cap B) = P(A \cap B \cap C) + P(A \cap B \cap C^c)$ $= P(A)P(B)P(C) + P(A)P(B)P(C^c) = P(A)P(B)$]
- ▶ But A, B, C pairwise indep. ⇒ A, B, C indep. [You'll work out a counterexample on an assignment]
- ▶ A, B, C indep. $\Rightarrow A$ indep. of any event got from B, C. [eg. $P(A | B \cap C) = P(A)$]
- Therefore all conditional probabilities in the tree diagram for A, B, C equal the corresponding probabilities.
- ▶ A, B, C indep. \Leftrightarrow A, B, C pairwise indep. and $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A)P(B)P(C)$.

Switches

Eg: 2 switches in parallel.

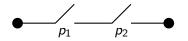
Switch 1 is closed (ie current flows through it), with probability p_1 . Switch 2 is closed, with probability p_2 .

Assume the switches are open/closed independently of each other. Problem: Find the probability that current flows through the circuit.



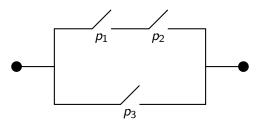
Switches

Eg: 2 switches in series.



 A_i : event that switch *i* is closed. $P(\text{current flows}) = P(A_1 \cap A_2) = p_1 p_2$

Eg: 3 switches.



3 switch example, cont'd

A = event that current flows.

 A_i = event that switch *i* is closed.

 $A_{12} = A_! \cap A_2$ is the event that current flows along the top.

- ► Inclusion/Exclusion: $P(A) = P(A_{12} \cup A_3)$ = $P(A_{12}) + P(A_3) - P(A_{12} \cap A_3) = p_1p_2 + p_3 - p_1p_2p_3$
- Complements: $P(A) = 1 P(A^c) = 1 P(A_{12}^c \cap A_3^c)$ = $1 - P(A_{12}^c)P(A_3^c) = 1 - (1 - p_1p_2)(1 - p_3).$
- Enumeration of alternatives:

 $A = A_3 \cup (A_{12} \cap A_3^c)$ and the latter are disjoint. So $P(A) = P(A_3) + P(A_{12} \cap A_3^c) = p_3 + p_1 p_2 (1 - p_3).$

With each approach, the point is to write things in terms of intersections, so that independence applies.

Bayes rule: 2 alternatives

- Problem: Compute P(B | A), knowing P(B), P(A | B), P(A | B^c).
- ► Bayes rule: $P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(B)P(A \mid B)}{P(B)P(A \mid B) + P(B^c)P(A \mid B^c)}$

• Proof:
$$=\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap B^c)}$$
.

Eg: 2 urns. Urn 1 has 3 Red & 5 Green balls. Urn 2 has 2 Red & 3 Green. Pick an urn at random and then a ball. If it's red, what are the chances we had picked the 1st urn? They will no longer be ¹/₂, since the evidence favours urn 2, which has a higher % of reds.

A: get a red ball. B: pick 1st urn.
$$P(B) = \frac{1}{2}$$
, $P(B^c) = \frac{1}{2}$,
 $P(A \mid B) = \frac{3}{8}$, $P(A \mid B^c) = \frac{2}{5}$.
So $P(B \mid A) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{8}}{\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{8} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{5}} = \frac{15}{31} < \frac{1}{2}$

Bayes rule: multiple alternatives

- Let B₁,..., B_n partition Ω. ie the B's are nonempty and disjoint, with ∪B_i = Ω.
- Bayes rule:

$$P(B_1 \mid A) = \frac{P(B_1)P(A \mid B_1)}{P(B_1)P(A \mid B_1) + \dots + P(B_n)P(A \mid B_n)}$$

Proof: same as before.

2-alternative case is $B_1 = B$, $B_2 = B^c$.

Eg: Medical screening test

A medical condition affects 1 person in 1,000. A test is 98% effective on healthy people and 99% effective on infected ones (ie it gives the "correct" answer that % of the time). If you test positive, what's the likelihood you have the condition?

Medical test, cont'd

- Define events A test positive. B are ill. B^c are healthy.
- Problem asks for $P(B \mid A)$
- ▶ Information given is that P(B) = 0.001, $P(A^c | B^c) = 0.98$, P(A | B) = 0.99
- ► Therefore we compute P(B^c) = 0.999 and P(A | B^c) = 0.02 and apply Bayes.
- ► $P(B \mid A) = \frac{0.001 \times 0.99}{0.001 \times 0.99 + 0.999 \times 0.02} \approx 0.0472$ ie. rather small.
- Point is that Bayes ⇒ false positives can swamp true ones, if the disease is rare. That is, such a screening test is only useful as a trigger for further tests. Doctors need to be able to explain this to patients.

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Bayes rule cont'd

Other examples:

Legal use of DNA testing:

A - DNA match; B - guilty; $B^c - innocent$.

Judge wants $P(B \mid A)$. Have same false positive issue as before: when a big database is tested, a match means much less than when an actual suspect is tested.

Bayesian statistics:

Suppose there is good evidence for a "prior probability" $P(B_k)$ for each alternative k. One then gathers data (ie observes an event A) and one revises the prior to get "posterior probabilities" $P(B_k | A)$. That is, likelihoods for the alternatives k, given the data.