Conditional probability and independence

Lecturer:

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Probability and Statistics

BIE-PST, WS 2024/25, Lecture 2



Content

Probability theory:

- Events, probability, conditional probability, Bayes' Theorem, independence of events.
- Random variables, distribution function, functions of random variables, characteristics of random variables: expected value, variance, moments, generating function, quantiles, critical values, covariance and correlation, important discrete and continuous distributions.
- Random vectors, joint and marginal distributions, functions of random vectors, independence of random variables, conditional distribution, conditional expected value.
- Markov's and Chebyshev's inequality, weak law of large numbers, strong law of large numbers. Central limit theorem.

• Mathematical statistics:

- Point estimators, sample mean, sample variance, properties of point estimators, Maximum likelihood method.
- Interval estimators, hypothesis testing, one-sided vs. two-sided alternatives, linear regression, estimators of regression parameters, testing of linear model.



Recap

A random experiment is represented using a probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) :

- Ω is the set of possible results;
- \mathcal{F} is a system of subsets of Ω ;
- elements $A \in \mathcal{F}$ are called random events:
- the probability measure P is a function, which assigns to the random events a real value from 0 to 1, representing the ideal proportion of cases, in which the events occur.

If there is only a finite many possible results with equal probabilities, then

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}.$$



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If we know that an even number was rolled, then it is clear that P(4 | even) = 1/3.

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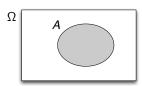
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Definition

Let A,B be events and $\mathrm{P}(B)>0$. The **conditional probability** of the event A given (the event) B is denoted by $\mathrm{P}(A|B)$ and is defined as

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



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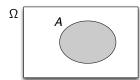




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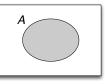


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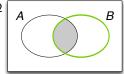
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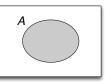
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Lecture 2





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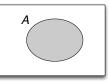
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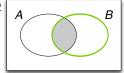
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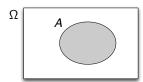
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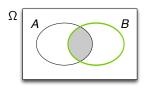
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Formally:
$$\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}^2$$
,

$$P(A) = |A|/36$$
 for each $A \subset \Omega$.

Let
$$B = \{(3, \omega_2) : 1 \le \omega_2 \le 6\}, A = \{(\omega_1, \omega_2) : \omega_1 + \omega_2 > 6\}.$$

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Then

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{\frac{|A \cap B|}{36}}{\frac{|B|}{36}} = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|B|} = \frac{3}{6}.$$

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Example – family with two children

A trickier example:

A family has two children. What is the probability that both are boys, given that at least one of them is a boy? I.e., what is the value of $P(\text{both boys} \mid \text{at least one is a boy})$?



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$$P(BB|BG \cup GB \cup BB) = \frac{P(BB \cap (BG \cup GB \cup BB))}{P(BG \cup BG \cup BB)}$$
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Lecture 2

Lemma

Let P(B) > 0. Then the conditional probability $P(\cdot|B)$ is a probability measure, i.e., $P(\cdot|B) \in [0,1]$ and it fulfills the axioms of probability.



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We need to prove the following:

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- iv) σ -additivity: If $A_1, A_2, \ldots \in \mathcal{F}$ are mutually disjoint events (i.e., $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $\forall i, j : i \neq j$), then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{+\infty} A_i \middle| B\right) = \frac{P\left(\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{+\infty} A_i\right) \cap B\right)}{P(B)} = \frac{P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{+\infty} (A_i \cap B)\right)}{P(B)} = \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{+\infty} P(A_i | B).$$

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Conditional probability fulfills all mentioned properties of probability as well:

- if A_1 and A_2 are mutually disjoint, then $P(A_1 \cup A_2|B) = P(A_1|B) + P(A_2|B)$,
- $P(A_1 \cup A_2|B) = P(A_1|B) + P(A_2|B) P(A_1 \cap A_2|B),$
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Moreover, the probability P(A|B) "lives" on B: for $A \cap B = \emptyset$ we have P(A|B) = 0.

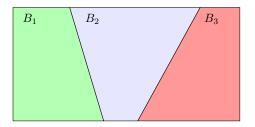
Furthermore,
$$P(A \cap B|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = P(A|B).$$

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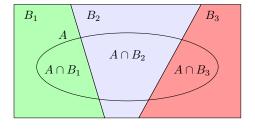
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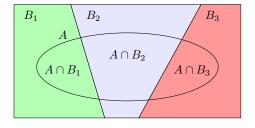


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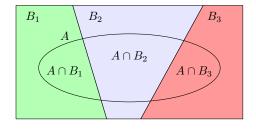
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Case distinct formula (Law of total probability)

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Recall:

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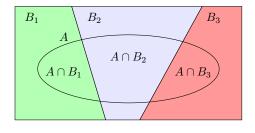
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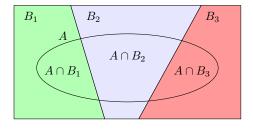
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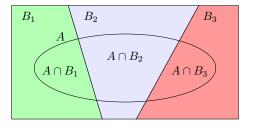
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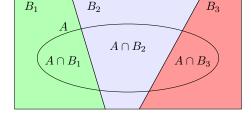
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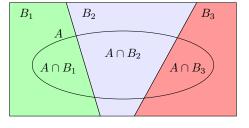
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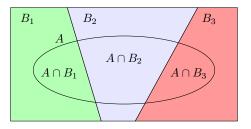
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$$P(B_j|A) = \frac{P(A|B_j) P(B_j)}{P(A|B_1) P(B_1) + P(A|B_2) P(B_2) + P(A|B_3) P(B_3)}$$



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Bayes' Theorem (Thomas Bayes, 1701–1761)

A family of mutual disjoint events $B_1, B_2, \dots B_n$ is called a **partition** of the set Ω , if

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Theorem – case distinct formula (Law of total probability)

Let B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_n be a partition of Ω such that $\forall i : P(B_i) > 0$. Then for each event A it holds that

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Bayes' Theorem (Thomas Bayes, 1701–1761)

A family of mutual disjoint events $B_1, B_2, \dots B_n$ is called a **partition** of the set Ω , if

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_i.$$

Theorem – case distinct formula (Law of total probability)

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$$P(B_j|A) = \frac{P(A|B_j) P(B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} P(A|B_i) P(B_i)}.$$

Bayes' Theorem – example

Example – spam filter

From the analysis of our email account we find out that:

- 30% of all delivered messages is spam;
- in 70% of spam messages there is the word "copy";
- only in 10% of non-spam messages there is the word "copy".

Calculate the probability that a message containing the word "copy" is a spam,

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S: set of spam messages,

 $S^c = \Omega \setminus S$: set of non-spam messages,

C: set of messages containing word "copy",

 C^c : set of messages not containing the word "copy".

$$P(S) = 0.3, P(S^c) = 0.7, P(C|S) = 0.7, P(C|S^c) = 0.1$$

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$$\mathrm{P}(S|C) = \frac{\mathrm{P}(C|S)\,\mathrm{P}(S)}{\mathrm{P}(C|S)\,\mathrm{P}(S) + \mathrm{P}(C|S^c)\,\mathrm{P}(S^c)} = \frac{0.7\cdot0.3}{0.7\cdot0.3 + 0.1\cdot0.7} = \frac{21}{28} = 0.75.$$

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First let us recall a useful relation:

From the definition of conditional probability it follows that:

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which can be proven by using the definition of conditional probability on the right hand side:

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

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Lemma - Multiplicative law

Let for events A_1, \ldots, A_n hold that $P(A_1 \cap \cdots \cap A_n) > 0$. Then it holds that

$$P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) P(A_2 | A_1) P(A_3 | A_1 \cap A_2) \dots P(A_n | A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}).$$

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Proof

We apply successively the relation $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B|A)$ following from the definition of conditional probability:

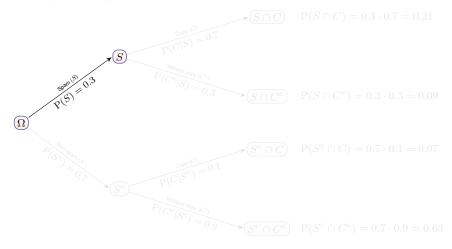
$$P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1}) P(A_n | A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1})$$

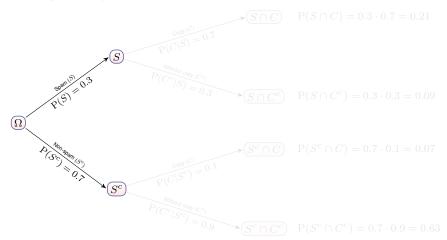
$$= P(A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-2}) P(A_{n-1} | A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-2}) P(A_n | A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{n-1})$$

$$= \dots$$

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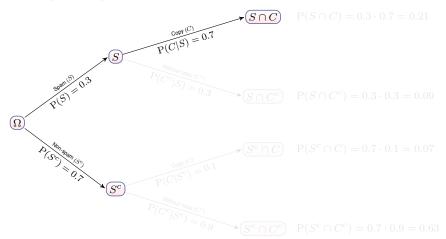
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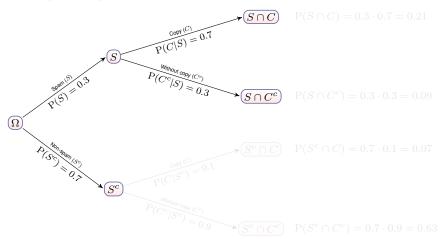
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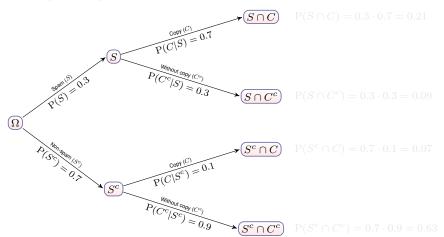


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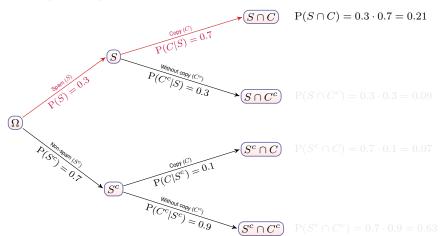


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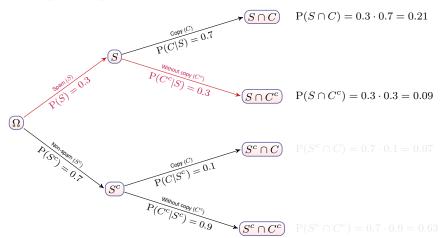
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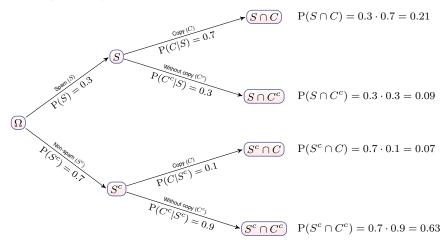


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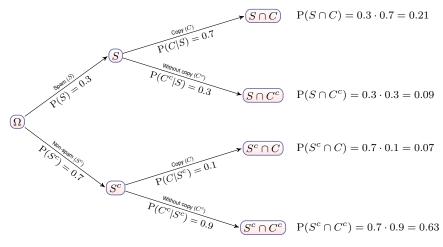


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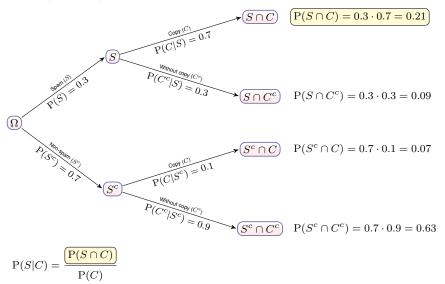
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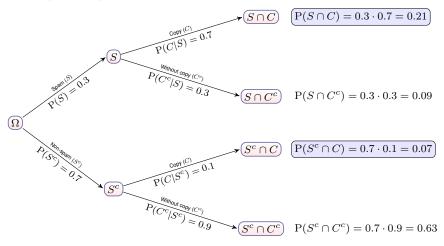


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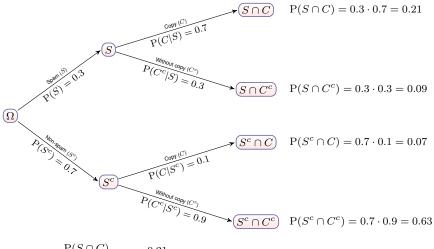
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Probability and Statistics



$$P(S|C) = \frac{P(S \cap C)}{(P(C))}$$

Lecture 2



$$P(S|C) = \frac{P(S \cap C)}{P(C)} = \frac{0.21}{0.21 + 0.07} = 0.75$$

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Suppose we draw cards without replacement from a 52 cards deck. What is the probability that in a sequence of 3 cards drawn one after another there are no hearts?

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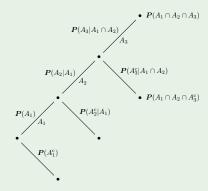
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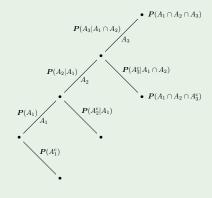


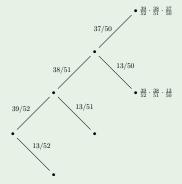
Example - multiplicative law

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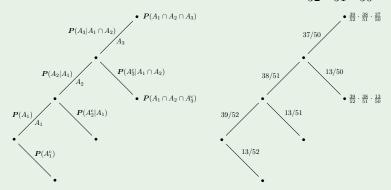


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The probability of a given vertex of the tree is the product of the corresponding values on the path stemming from the root.

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Many data misinterpretations and fallacies are based on incorrect understanding of conditional probabilities:



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- This means that 90% of fatal accidents are caused by sober drivers!
- Does this mean that we should should beware of the sober drivers?

Example – driving under influence continued

Does this mean that we should should beware of the sober drivers? Of course not. We have to carefully read the probabilities.

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Example - driving under influence continued

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The figure tells us that among all accidents, the percentage caused by drunk drivers is 10%. Thus

$$P(drunk|accident) = 0.1.$$

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$$\begin{split} \frac{P(\text{accident}|\text{drunk})}{P(\text{accident}|\text{sober})} &= \frac{P(\text{accident} \cap \text{drunk})/P(\text{drunk})}{P(\text{accident} \cap \text{sober})/P(\text{sober})} \\ &= \frac{P(\text{drunk}|\text{accident}) \cdot P(\text{accident})/P(\text{drunk})}{P(\text{sober}|\text{accident}) \cdot P(\text{accident})/P(\text{sober})} &= \frac{0.1/0.01}{0.9/0.99} = 11. \end{split}$$

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Drunk drivers have at least $11\ \mathrm{times}$ higher probability of causing a fatal accident.

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Intuitively: A and B are independent if the probability of the event A is not influenced by the knowledge about occurrence of the event B, i.e., P(A|B) = P(A), and (vice versa) P(B|A) = P(B).



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Generally, a family of events $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ is called **independent** if

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i\in J}A_i\right) = \prod_{i\in J}P(A_i)$$

for all finite non-empty subsets J of I.

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Example - rolling a die

Consider the events

A: "an even number is rolled" and B: "a number less than 3 is rolled".

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$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{6}$$
 and $P(A) P(B) = \frac{3}{6} \cdot \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Then the events A and B are independent.

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Then events A and B are not independent.

Relation between independence and conditional probability

Let A and B be independent events and $\mathrm{P}(B)>0$. Then clearly

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

For A and B independent the knowledge of B does not bring us any information about A.



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Theorem

If $(A_i)_{i\in I}$ is a family of independent events, then for any arbitrary non-empty finite subset $\emptyset \neq J \subset I$ it holds that

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{i\in J}A_i\mid\bigcap_{i\in I\setminus J}A_i\right)=\mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{i\in J}A_i\right).$$

A common error is to make the fallacious statement that A and B are independent if $A\cap B=\emptyset$.



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The events being disjoint is a matter of sets, independence is a matter of probabilities.

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Definition

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space and C an event with P(C) > 0. Events A and B are called **conditionally independent with respect to** C, if

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

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Recall:

- Q(A) = P(A|C) is a probability measure;
- ullet the conditional independence is thus the independence with respect to probability Q.

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Example - rolling a seven-sided die

Suppose we roll a seven-sided die with all sides equally likely. Consider the events:

A: "an even number is rolled", B: "a number less than 3 is rolled".

Are the events A and B independent?



Lecture 2

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$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{7}$$
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Events A and B are not independent.

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Example - rolling a seven-sided die + condition

Consider further event
$$C$$
: "we rolled at most 6 "

$$C = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

Are events A and B conditionally independent with respect to C?



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$$C = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}.$$

Are events A and B conditionally independent with respect to C?

$$P(A \cap B|C) = \frac{P(A \cap B \cap C)}{P(C)} = \frac{P(\{2\})}{P(\{1, \dots, 6\})} = \frac{1/7}{6/7} = \frac{1}{6},$$

$$P(A|C) \cdot P(B|C) = \frac{3/7}{6/7} \cdot \frac{2/7}{6/7} = \frac{1}{6}.$$

Events A and B are conditionally independent with respect to C.

Recap

- The conditional probability that an event A occurs if we know that an event B with $\mathrm{P}(B)>0$ occured, is defined as $\mathrm{P}(A|B)=\frac{\mathrm{P}(A\cap B)}{\mathrm{P}(B)}.$
- Law of total probability: For A and B with $\mathrm{P}(B)>0$ we have

$$P(A) = P(A|B) P(B) + P(A|B^c) P(B^c).$$

 $lackbox{ Bayes' Theorem: For A and B with $\mathrm{P}(A)>0$ and $\mathrm{P}(B)>0$ we have $A=0$. }$

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



Recap

- The **conditional probability** that an event A occurs if we know that an event B with P(B) > 0 occured, is defined as $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$.
- Law of total probability: For A and B with P(B) > 0 we have

$$P(A) = P(A|B) P(B) + P(A|B^c) P(B^c).$$

Bayes' Theorem: For A and B with P(A) > 0 and P(B) > 0 we have

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

Events A and B are called **independent** if

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

For independent events A and B the knowledge that one of them occurred or not does not change the probability of the other one happening:

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$
 and $P(B|A) = P(B)$.

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