Independence and Counting

Berlin Chen

Department of Computer Science & Information Engineering National Taiwan Normal University

Reference:

- D. P. Bertsekas, J. N. Tsitsiklis, Introduction to Probability, Sections 1.5-1.6

Independence (1/2)

- Recall that conditional probability $\mathbf{P}(A|B)$ captures the partial information that event B provides about event A
- A special case arises when the occurrence of B provides no such information and does not alter the probability that A has occurred

$$\mathbf{P}(A|B) = \mathbf{P}(A)$$

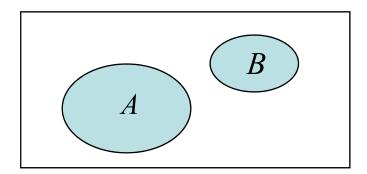
 $-\ A$ is independent of B (B also is independent of A)

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

Independence (2/2)

- A and B are independent \Rightarrow A and B are disjoint (?)
 - No! Why?
 - A and B are disjoint then $P(A \cap B) = 0$
 - However, if P(A) > 0 and P(B) > 0

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{P}(A \cap B) \neq \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B)$$



• Two disjoint events A and B with $\mathbf{P}(A) > 0$ and $\mathbf{P}(B) > 0$ are never independent

Independence: An Example (1/3)

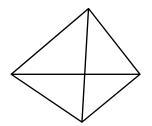
• Example 1.19. Consider an experiment involving two successive rolls of a 4-sided die in which all 16 possible outcomes are equally likely and have probability 1/16

Using Discrete Uniform Probability Law here

(a) Are the events,

 $A_i = \{1 \text{st roll results in } i \},$

 $B_j = \{2 \text{nd roll results in } j \}$, independent?

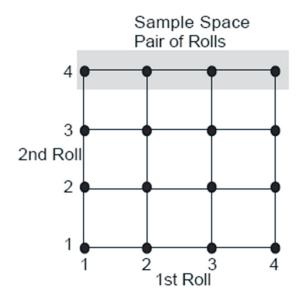


$$\mathbf{P}(A_i \cap B_j) = \frac{1}{16}$$

$$\mathbf{P}(A_i) = \frac{4}{16}, \ \mathbf{P}(B_j) = \frac{4}{16}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{P}(A_i \cap B_j) = \mathbf{P}(A_i)\mathbf{P}(B_j)$$

$$\Rightarrow A_i \text{ and } B_j \text{ are independent } !$$



Independence: An Example (2/3)

(b) Are the events,

 $A = \{1st roll is a 1\},$

B= {sum of the two rolls is a 5}, independent?

$$P(A) = \frac{4}{16}$$
 (the results of two rolls are (1,1),(1,2),(1,3),(1,4))

$$P(B) = \frac{4}{16}$$
 (the results of two rolls are (1,4),(2,3),(3,2),(4,1))

$$\mathbf{P}(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{16}$$
 (the only one result of two rolls is (1,4))

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B)$$

 \Rightarrow A and B are independent!

Independence: An Example (3/3)

(c) Are the events,

A= {maximum of the two rolls is 2},

B= {minimum of the two rolls is 2}, independent?

$$P(A) = \frac{3}{16}$$
 (the results of two rolls are (1,2),(2,1),(2,2))

$$\mathbf{P}(A) = \frac{3}{16} \quad \text{(the results of two rolls are (1,2),(2,1),(2,2))}$$

$$\mathbf{P}(B) = \frac{5}{16} \quad \text{(the results of two rolls are (2,2),(2,3),(2,4),(3,2),(4,2))}$$

$$\mathbf{P}(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{16}$$
 (the only one result of two rolls is (2,2))

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{P}(A \cap B) \neq \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B)$$

 \Rightarrow A and B are dependent!

Conditional Independence (1/2)

 Given an event C, the events A and B are called conditionally independent if

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

We also know that

$$\mathbf{P}(A \cap B | C) = \frac{\mathbf{P}(A \cap B \cap C)}{\mathbf{P}(C)}$$
 multiplication rule
$$= \frac{\mathbf{P}(C)\mathbf{P}(B | C)\mathbf{P}(A | B \cap C)}{\mathbf{P}(C)}$$

- If P(B|C) > 0, we have an alternative way to express conditional independence

$$\mathbf{P}(A|B\cap C) = \mathbf{P}(A|C)^{3}$$

Conditional Independence (2/2)

 Notice that independence of two events A and B with respect to the unconditionally probability law does not imply conditional independence, and vice versa

$$\mathbf{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{P}(A \cap B|C) = \mathbf{P}(A|C)\mathbf{P}(B|C)$$

- If A and B are independent, the same holds for
 - (i) A and B^c
 - (ii) A^c and B^c
 - How can we verify it? (See Problem 43)

Conditional Independence: Examples (1/2)

Example 1.20. Consider two independent fair coin tosses, in which all four possible outcomes are equally likely. Let

Using Discrete Uniform Probability Law here

$$H_1$$
 = {1st toss is a head}, (H,T) , (H,H)
 H_2 = {2nd toss is a head}, (T,H) , (H,H)
 D = {the two tosses have different results}. (T,H) , (H,T)

$$\mathbf{P}(H_1|D) = \frac{1}{2} \qquad (H,T)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(H_2|D) = \frac{1}{2} \qquad (T,H)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2|D) = \frac{\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2 \cap D)}{\mathbf{P}(D)} = 0 \neq \mathbf{P}(H_1|D)\mathbf{P}(H_2|D)$$

 $\Rightarrow H_1$ and H_2 are conditionally dependent!

Conditional Independence: Examples (2/2)

- Example 1.21. There are two coins, a blue and a red one
 - We choose one of the two at random, each being chosen with probability 1/2, and proceed with two independent tosses
 - The coins are biased: with the blue coin, the probability of heads in any given toss is 0.99, whereas for the red coin it is 0.01
 - Let B be the event that the blue coin was selected. Let also H_i be the event that the i-th toss resulted in heads

the event that the *I*-th toss resulted in heads conditional case:
$$\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2 | B) = \mathbf{P}(H_1 | B)\mathbf{P}(H_2 | B) \quad \text{Given the choice of a coin, the events } H_1 \text{ and } H_2 \text{ are independent}$$
 unconditional case:
$$\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2) = \mathbf{P}(H_1)\mathbf{P}(H_2)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(H_1) = \mathbf{P}(B)\mathbf{P}(H_1 | B) + \mathbf{P}(B^C)\mathbf{P}(H_1 | B^C) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0.99 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0.01 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\mathbf{P}(H_2) = \mathbf{P}(B)\mathbf{P}(H_2 | B) + \mathbf{P}(B^C)\mathbf{P}(H_2 | B^C) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0.99 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0.01 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2) = \mathbf{P}(B)\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2 | B) + \mathbf{P}(B^C)\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2 | B^C)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0.99 \cdot 0.99 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0.01 \cdot 0.01 \neq \frac{1}{4}$$

Independence of a Collection of Events (1/2)

• We say that the events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are **independent** if

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{i\in S}A_i\right) = \prod_{i\in S}\mathbf{P}(A_i), \text{ for every subset } S \text{ of } \{1,2,\ldots,n\}$$

• For example, the independence of three events A_1, A_2, A_3 amounts to satisfying the four conditions

$$\mathbf{P}(A_1 \cap A_2) = \mathbf{P}(A_1)\mathbf{P}(A_2)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(A_1 \cap A_3) = \mathbf{P}(A_1)\mathbf{P}(A_3)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(A_2 \cap A_3) = \mathbf{P}(A_2)\mathbf{P}(A_3)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = \mathbf{P}(A_1)\mathbf{P}(A_2)\mathbf{P}(A_3)$$

Independence of a Collection of Events (2/2)

 Independence means that the occurrence or nonoccurrence of any number of the events from that collection carries no information on the remaining events or their complements

$$\mathbf{P}(A_1 \cup A_2 | A_3 \cap A_4) = \mathbf{P}(A_1 \cup A_2)$$

$$\mathbf{P}\left(A_1 \cup A_2^c \middle| A_3^c \cap A_4\right) = \mathbf{P}\left(A_1 \cup A_2^c\right)$$

(see the end-of-chapter problems)

Independence of a Collection of Events: Examples (1/4)

- Example 1.22. Pairwise independence does not imply independence.
 - Consider two independent fair coin tosses, and the following events:

```
H_1 = { 1st toss is a head }, (H,T),(H,H)

H_2 = { 2nd toss is a head }, (T,H),(H,H)

D = { the two tosses have different results }. (T,H),(H,T)

\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2) = \mathbf{P}(H_1)\mathbf{P}(H_2)
```

$$\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2) = \mathbf{P}(H_1)\mathbf{P}(H_2)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap D) = \mathbf{P}(H_1)\mathbf{P}(D)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(H_2 \cap D) = \mathbf{P}(H_2)\mathbf{P}(D)$$
However,
$$\mathbf{P}(H_1 \cap H_2 \cap D) = 0 \neq \mathbf{P}(H_1)\mathbf{P}(H_2)\mathbf{P}(D)$$

Independence of a Collection of Events: Examples (2/4)

Example 1.23. The equality

$$\mathbf{P}(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = \mathbf{P}(A_1)\mathbf{P}(A_2)\mathbf{P}(A_3)$$

is not enough for independence.

 Consider two independent rolls of a fair six-sided die, and the following events:

$$A = \{ 1st roll is 1, 2, or 3 \},$$

$$B = \{ 1st roll is 3, 4, or 5 \},$$

 $C = \{ \text{ the sum of the two rolls is 9 } \}.$

$$\mathbf{P}(A \cap B \cap C) = \frac{1}{36} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{4}{36} = \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B)\mathbf{P}(C)$$

However,

$$\mathbf{P}(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{6} \neq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B)$$

$$\mathbf{P}(A \cap C) = \frac{1}{36} \neq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{4}{36} = \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(C)$$

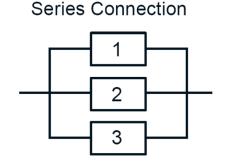
$$\mathbf{P}(B \cap C) = \frac{1}{12} \neq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{4}{36} = \mathbf{P}(B)\mathbf{P}(C)$$

Independence of a Collection of Events: Examples (3/4)

- Example 1.24. Network connectivity. A computer network connects two nodes A and B through intermediate nodes C, D, E, F (See next slide)
 - For every pair of directly connected nodes, say i and j, there is a given probability p_{ij} that the link from i to j is up. We assume that link failures are independent of each other
 - What is the probability that there is a path connecting A and B in which all links are up?



 $\mathbf{P}(\text{series subsystem succeeds}) = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$

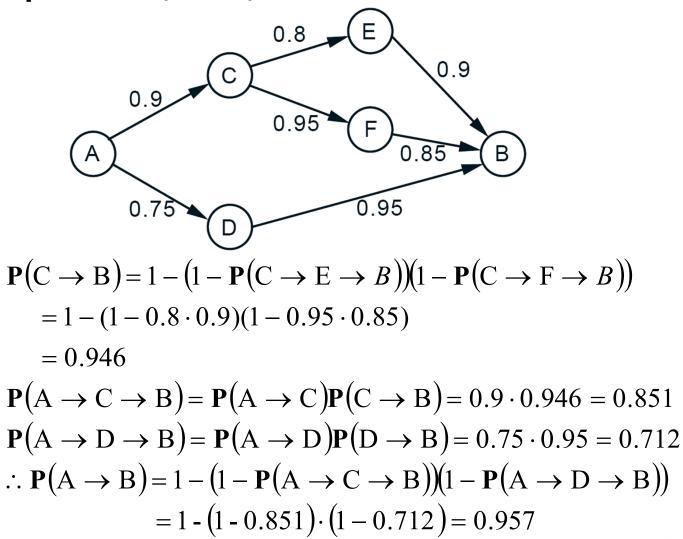


Parallel Connection

P(parallel subsystem succeeds)
=
$$1 - \mathbf{P}$$
(parallel subsystem fails)
= $1 - (1 - p_i)(1 - p_2) \cdots (1 - p_n)$

Independence of a Collection of Events: Examples (4/4)

Example 1.24. (cont.)



Recall: Counting in Probability Calculation

- Two applications of the discrete uniform probability law
 - When the sample space $\,\Omega\,$ has a finite number of equally likely outcomes, the probability of any event $\,A\,$ is given by

$$\mathbf{P}(A) = \frac{\text{number of elements of A}}{\text{number of elements of } \Omega}$$

— When we want to calculate the probability of an event $\,A\,$ with a finite number of equally likely outcomes, each of which has an already known probability $\,p\,$. Then the probability of A is given by

$$\mathbf{P}(A) = p \cdot (\text{number of elements of } A)$$

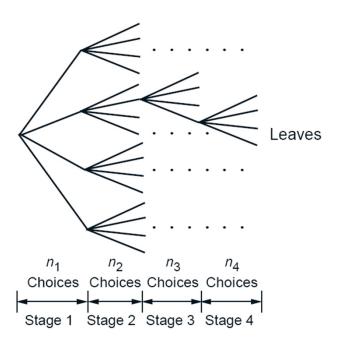
• E.g., the calculation of *k* heads in *n* coin tosses

The Counting Principle

- Consider a process that consists of r stages. Suppose that:
 - (a) There are n_1 possible results for the first stage
 - (b) For every possible result of the first stage, there are n_2 possible results at the second stage
 - (c) More generally, for all possible results of the first i -1 stages, there are n_i possible results at the i-th stage

Then, the total number of possible results of the *r*-stage process is

 $n_1 n_2 \cdot \cdot \cdot n_r$



Common Types of Counting

Permutations of n objects

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$$

k-permutations of n objects

$$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

Combinations of k out of n objects

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

 Partitions of n objects into r groups with the i-th group having n_i objects

$$\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_r!}$$

Summary of Chapter 1 (1/2)

- A probability problem can usually be broken down into a few basic steps:
 - 1. The description of the sample space, i.e., the set of possible outcomes of a given experiment
 - 2. The (possibly indirect) specification of the probability law (the probability of each event)
 - 3. The calculation of probabilities and conditional probabilities of various events of interest

Summary of Chapter 1 (2/2)

- Three common methods for calculating probabilities
 - The counting method: if the number of outcome is finite and all outcome are equally likely

$$\mathbf{P}(A) = \frac{\text{number of elements of A}}{\text{number of elements of } \Omega}$$

The sequential method: the use of the multiplication (chain) rule

$$\mathbf{P}(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i) = \mathbf{P}(A_1)\mathbf{P}(A_2|A_1)\mathbf{P}(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2) \cdots \mathbf{P}(A_n|\bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i)$$

 The divide-and-conquer method: the probability of an event is obtained based on a set of conditional probabilities

$$\mathbf{P}(B) = \mathbf{P}(A_1 \cap B) + \dots + \mathbf{P}(A_n \cap B)$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(A_1)\mathbf{P}(B|A_1) + \dots + \mathbf{P}(A_n)\mathbf{P}(B|A_n)$$

• A_1, \dots, A_n are disjoint events that form a partition of the sample space

Recitation

- SECTION 1.5 Independence
 - Problems 37, 38, 39, 40, 42