

5. independence



Defn: Two events E and F are *independent* if

$$P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$$

If $P(F) > 0$, this is equivalent to: $P(E|F) = P(E)$ (proof below)

Otherwise, they are called *dependent*

Roll two dice, yielding values D_1 and D_2

$$1) E = \{ D_1 = 1 \}$$

$$F = \{ D_2 = 1 \}$$

$$P(E) = 1/6, P(F) = 1/6, P(EF) = 1/36$$

$$P(EF) = P(E) \cdot P(F) \Rightarrow E \text{ and } F \text{ independent}$$

Intuitive; the two dice are not physically coupled

$$2) G = \{ D_1 + D_2 = 5 \} = \{ (1,4), (2,3), (3,2), (4,1) \}$$

$$P(E) = 1/6, P(G) = 4/36 = 1/9, P(EG) = 1/36$$

not independent!

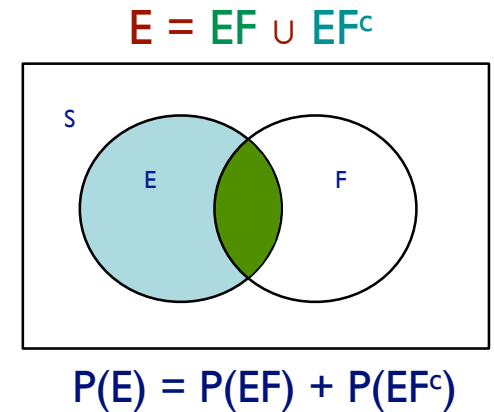
E, G are dependent events

The dice are still not physically coupled, but “ $D_1 + D_2 = 5$ ” couples them mathematically: info about D_1 constrains D_2 . (I.e., dependence/independence not always intuitively obvious; “use the definition, Luke.”)



Theorem: E, F independent $\Rightarrow E, F^c$ independent

Proof:
$$\begin{aligned} P(EF^c) &= P(E) - P(EF) \\ &= P(E) - P(E)P(F) \\ &= P(E)(1 - P(F)) \\ &= P(E)P(F^c) \end{aligned}$$



Theorem: if $P(E) > 0, P(F) > 0$, then
 E, F independent $\Leftrightarrow P(E|F) = P(E) \Leftrightarrow P(F|E) = P(F)$

Proof: Note $P(EF) = P(E|F)P(F)$, regardless of in/dep.

Assume independent. Then

$$P(E)P(F) = P(EF) = P(E|F)P(F) \Rightarrow P(E|F) = P(E) \quad (\div \text{ by } P(F))$$

Conversely, $P(E|F) = P(E) \Rightarrow P(E)P(F) = P(EF) \quad (\times \text{ by } P(F))$

Two events E and F are *independent* if

$$P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$$

If $P(F) > 0$, this is equivalent to: $P(E|F) = P(E)$

Otherwise, they are called *dependent*

Three events E, F, G are independent if

$$P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$$

$$P(EG) = P(E) P(G) \quad \text{and} \quad P(EFG) = P(E) P(F) P(G)$$

$$P(FG) = P(F) P(G)$$

Example: Let X, Y be each $\{-1, 1\}$ with equal prob

$$E = \{X = 1\}, F = \{Y = 1\}, G = \{XY = 1\}$$

$$P(EF) = P(E)P(F), P(EG) = P(E)P(G), P(FG) = P(F)P(G),$$

all $1/4$ but $P(EFG) = 1/4$ too!!! (because $P(G|EF) = 1$)

In general, events E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n are independent if for *every subset* S of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, we have

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i \in S} E_i\right) = \prod_{i \in S} P(E_i)$$

(Sometimes this property holds only for small subsets S . E.g., E, F, G on the previous slide are *pairwise* independent, but not fully independent.)

Suppose a biased coin comes up heads with probability p ,
independent of other flips



$$P(n \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips}) = p^n$$

$$P(n \text{ tails in } n \text{ flips}) = (1-p)^n$$

$$P(\text{exactly } k \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips}) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

Aside: note that the probability of some number of heads = $\sum_k \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} = (p + (1-p))^n = 1$
as it should, by the binomial theorem.

Suppose a biased coin comes up heads with probability p , *independent* of other flips

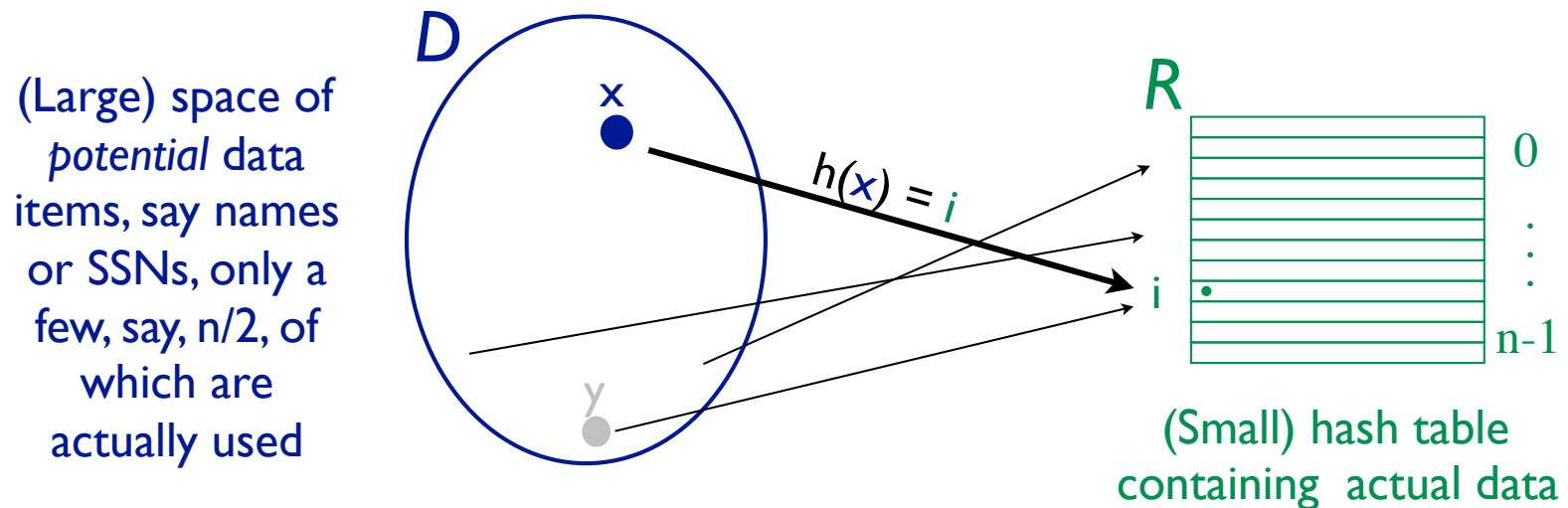


$$P(\text{exactly } k \text{ heads in } n \text{ flips}) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$$

Note when $p=1/2$, this is the same result we would have gotten by considering n flips in the “equally likely outcomes” scenario. But $p \neq 1/2$ makes that inapplicable. Instead, the *independence* assumption allows us to conveniently assign a probability to each of the 2^n outcomes, e.g.:

$$\Pr(\text{HHTHTTT}) = p^2(1-p)p(1-p)^3 = p^{\#H}(1-p)^{\#T}$$

A data structure problem: fast access to small subset of data drawn from a large space.

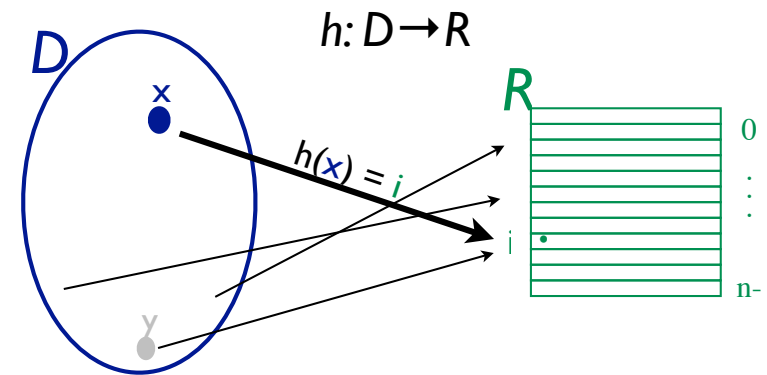


A solution: hash function $h: D \rightarrow R$ crunches/scrambles names from large space D into small one R .

Example: if x is (or can be viewed as) an integer:

$$h(x) = x \bmod n$$

Scenario: Hash $m \leq n$ keys from D into size n hash table.



How well does it work?

Worst case: All collide in one bucket. (Perhaps too pessimistic?)

Best case: No collisions. (Perhaps too optimistic?)

Exact analysis: ...? (Perhaps too complex?)

A middle ground: Probabilistic analysis.

Below, for simplicity, assume

- Keys drawn from D randomly, independently (with replacement)

- h maps equal numbers of domain points into each range bin, i.e., $|D| = k|R|$ for some integer k , and $|h^{-1}(i)| = k$ for all $0 \leq i \leq n-1$

Many possible questions; a few analyzed below

m keys hashed into a table with n buckets

Each string hashed is an *independent* sample from D

E = at least one string hashed to first bucket

What is $P(E)$?

Solution:

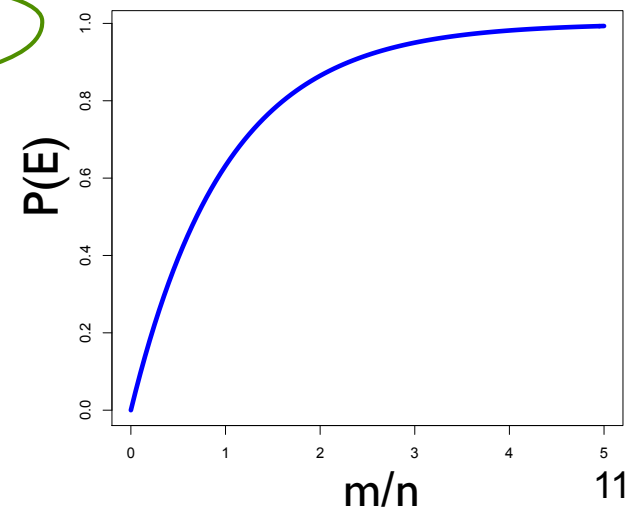
F_i = string i *not* hashed into first bucket ($i=1,2,\dots,m$)

$P(F_i) = (n-1)/n$ for all $i=1,2,\dots,m$

Event $(F_1 F_2 \dots F_m)$ = no strings hashed to first bucket

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(E) &= 1 - P(F_1 F_2 \dots F_m) \\
 &= 1 - P(F_1) P(F_2) \dots P(F_m) \\
 &= 1 - \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^m \\
 &= 1 - \left[\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^n\right]^{m/n} \\
 &\approx 1 - \exp(-m/n)
 \end{aligned}$$

indp



Let $|R| = n$, $D_0 \subseteq D$, $|D_0| = m$. A hash function $h:D \rightarrow R$ is *perfect* for D_0 if $h:D_0 \rightarrow R$ is injective (no collisions). **How likely is that?**

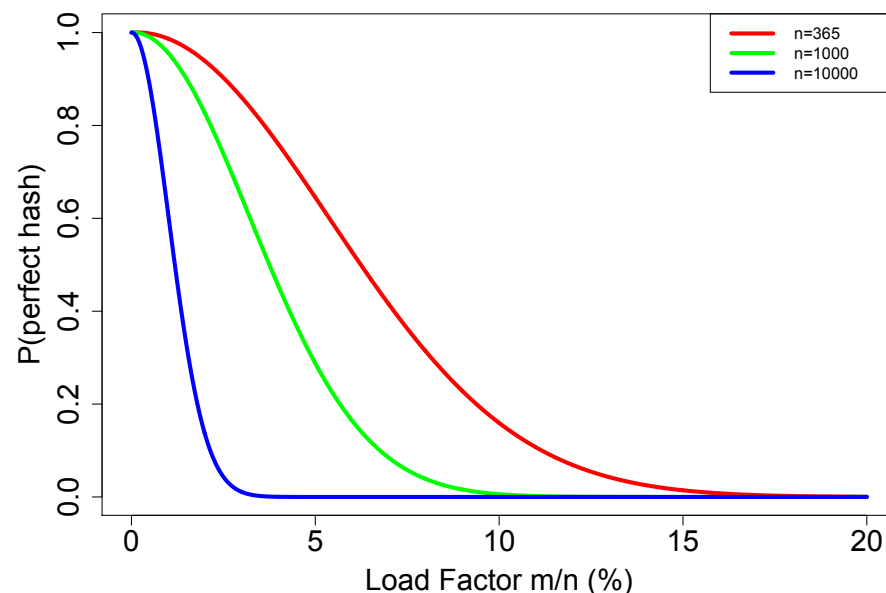
(i) Fix h ; pick m elements of D_0 independently at random $\in D$

Again, suppose h maps $(1/n)^{\text{th}}$ of D to each element of R . This is like the birthday problem:

$$P(h \text{ is perfect for } D_0) = \frac{n}{n} \frac{n-1}{n} \dots \frac{n-m+1}{n}$$

Except for very empty tables, a “perfect” hash is improbable

(Q: why less likely with larger n , fixed m/n ?)



Let $|R| = n$, $D_0 \subseteq D$, $|D_0| = m$. A hash function $h:D \rightarrow R$ is *perfect* for D_0 if $h:D_0 \rightarrow R$ is injective (no collisions). **How likely is that?**

(ii) Fix D_0 ; pick \underline{h} at random (among all with constant $|h^{-1}(i)|$)

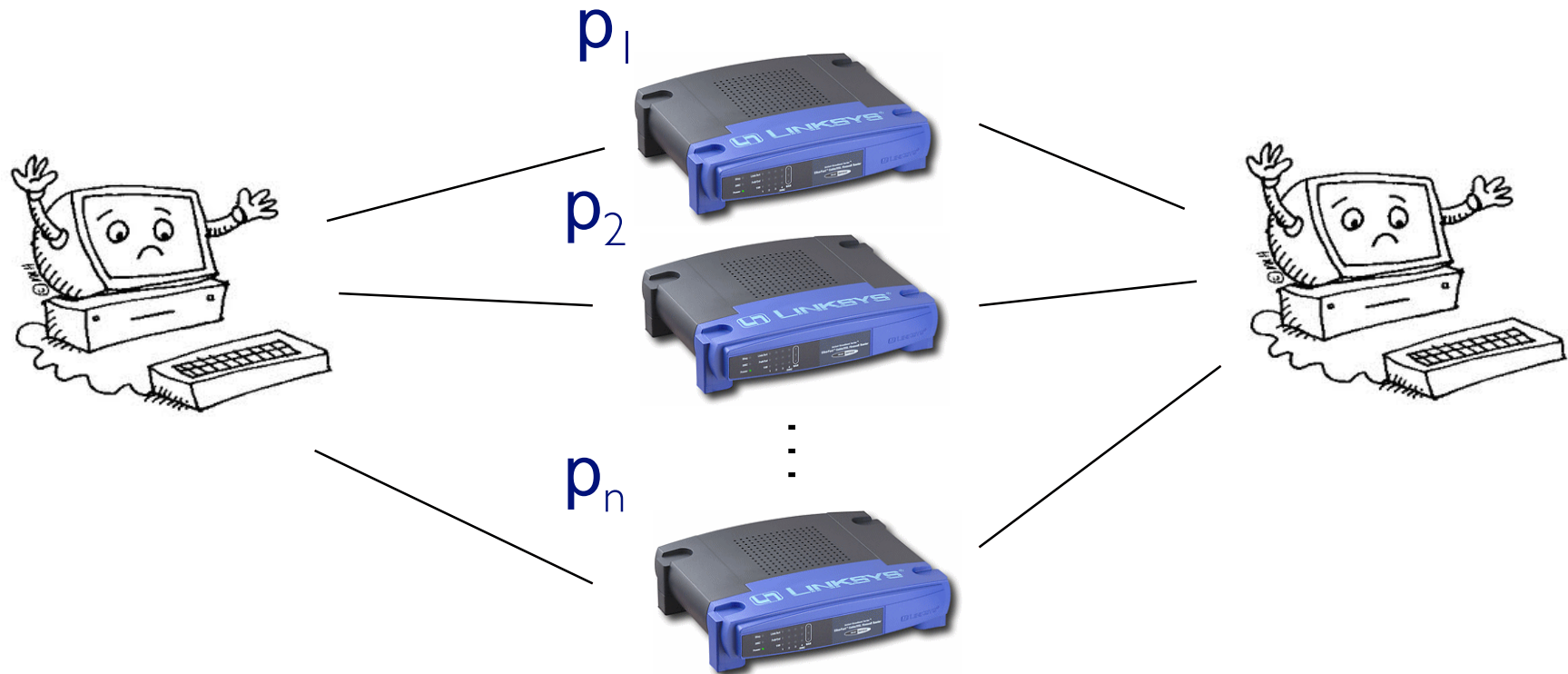
E.g., if $m = |D_0| = 23$ and $n = 365$, then there is $\sim 50\%$ chance that the first h you try is perfect for this *fixed* D_0 . If it isn't, pick $h_{(2)}$, $h_{(3)}$, ... With high probability, you'll quickly find a perfect one!

“Picking a random function h ” is easier said than done, but, empirically, picking from a set of *parameterized* fns like

$$h_{a,b}(x) = (a \cdot x + b) \bmod n$$

where a, b are random 64-bit ints is a start.

Consider the following parallel network

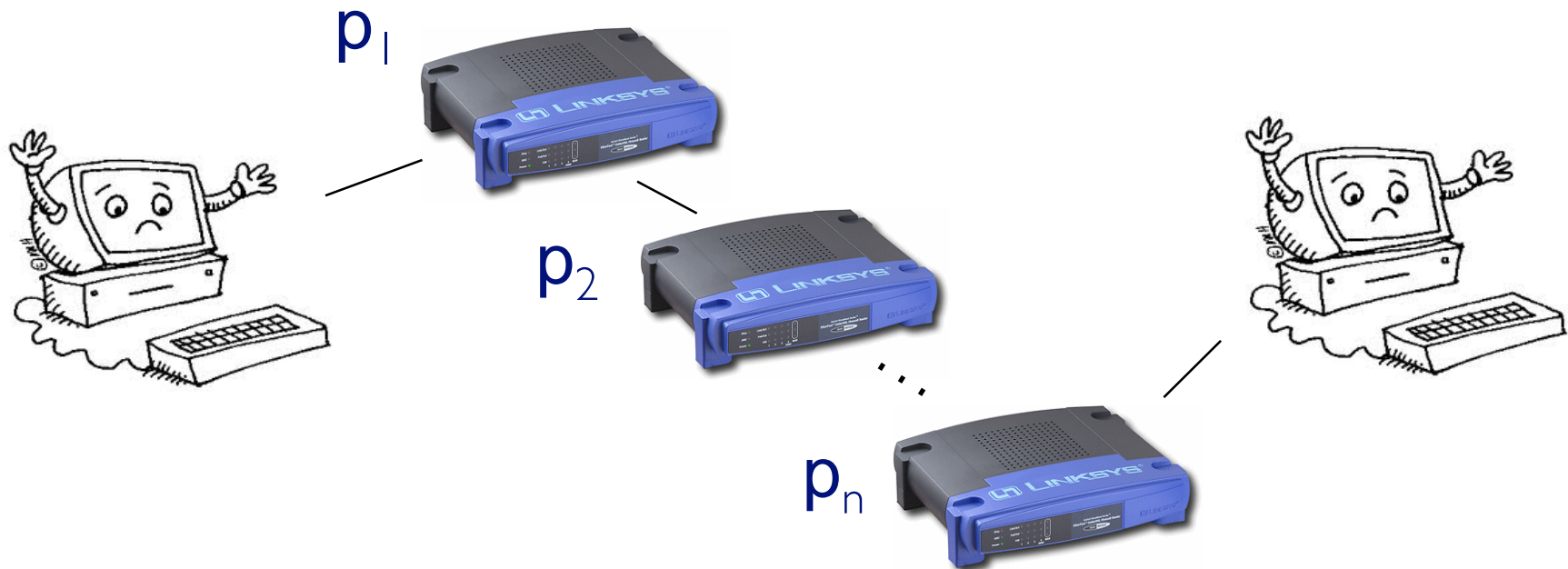


n routers, i^{th} has probability p_i of failing, independently

$P(\text{there is functional path}) = 1 - P(\text{all routers fail})$

$$= 1 - p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$$

Contrast: a series network



n routers, i^{th} has probability p_i of failing, independently

$P(\text{there is functional path}) =$

$$P(\text{no routers fail}) = (1 - p_1)(1 - p_2) \cdots (1 - p_n)$$

Recall: Two events E and F are independent if

$$P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$$

If E & F are independent, does that tell us anything about

$$P(EF|G), P(E|G), P(F|G),$$

when G is an arbitrary event? In particular, is

$$P(EF|G) = P(E|G) P(F|G) ?$$

In general, *no*.

Roll two 6-sided dice, yielding values D_1 and D_2

$$E = \{ D_1 = 1 \}$$

$$F = \{ D_2 = 6 \}$$

$$G = \{ D_1 + D_2 = 7 \}$$

E and F are independent

$$P(E|G) = 1/6$$

$$P(F|G) = 1/6, \text{ but}$$

$$P(EF|G) = 1/6, \text{ not } 1/36$$

so $E|G$ and $F|G$ are not independent!

Definition:

Two events E and F are called *conditionally independent given G*, if

$$P(EF|G) = P(E|G) P(F|G)$$

Or, equivalently (assuming $P(F)>0, P(G)>0$),

$$P(E|FG) = P(E|G)$$

Example:

E = has lung cancer

F = carries matches

G = smokes cigarettes

} non-independent (I think)

conditioning can also remove **DEPENDENCE**

Randomly choose a day of the week

$A = \{ \text{It is not a Monday} \}$

$B = \{ \text{It is a Saturday} \}$

$C = \{ \text{It is the weekend} \}$

A and B are dependent events

$$P(A) = 6/7, P(B) = 1/7, P(AB) = 1/7.$$

Now condition both A and B on C:

$$P(A|C) = 1, P(B|C) = 1/2, P(AB|C) = 1/2$$

$$P(AB|C) = P(A|C) P(B|C) \Rightarrow A|C \text{ and } B|C \text{ independent}$$



Dependent events can become independent by conditioning on additional information!

Another reason why conditioning is so useful

Events E & F are *independent* if

$P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$, or, equivalently $P(E|F) = P(E)$ (if $p(E) > 0$)

More than 2 events are indep if, for *all subsets*, joint probability = product of separate event probabilities

Dependent means correlated, associated, (partially) predictive

Independence can greatly simplify calculations

For fixed G, conditioning on G gives a probability measure, $P(E|G)$

But “conditioning” and “independence” are orthogonal:

Events E & F that are (unconditionally) independent may become dependent when conditioned on G

Events that are (unconditionally) dependent may become independent when conditioned on G