

Supplemental Lecture

1.5 Independence

$A, B \subseteq \Omega$ are independent if

*
$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

The occurrence of B gives no information about A , i.e.

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

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

Defn

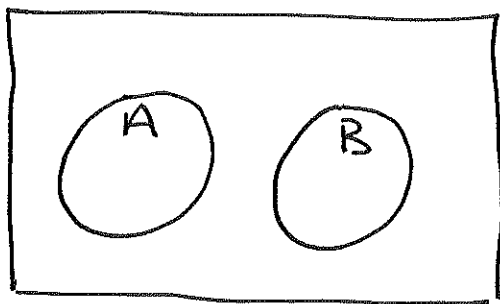
Given $A, B \subseteq \Omega$, we say A, B are independent iff

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

Warning: $A \cap B = \emptyset$ does not imply independence. why?

$$A \cap B = \emptyset \Rightarrow P(A \cap B) = 0$$

neither $P(A)$ nor $P(B)$ need be 0 though



$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &\neq 0 \\ P(B) &\neq 0 \\ P(A \cap B) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

independent

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Ex. Throw two fair dice. let

$$A_i = \{1^{\text{st}} \text{ die is } i\} \quad 1 \leq i \leq 6$$

$$B_j = \{2^{\text{nd}} \text{ die is } j\} \quad 1 \leq j \leq 6$$

note: A_i, B_j are independent (any, i, j).

$$P(A_i \cap B_j) = P(A_i) \cdot P(B_j) = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{36}$$

This gives the discrete uniform Probability law.

$$\text{Let } C = \{ \text{sum} = 5 \}$$

$$= \{14, 23, 32, 41\}$$

$$\therefore P(C) = \frac{4}{36} = \frac{1}{9}$$

$\Rightarrow C$ independent of A_2 ?

$$A_2 = \{21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26\}$$

$$A_2 \cap C = \{23\} \quad P(A_2 \cap C) = \frac{1}{36}$$

$$P(A_2) \cdot P(C) = \frac{6}{36} \cdot \frac{1}{9} = \frac{1}{54} \neq \frac{1}{36} = P(A_2 \cap C)$$

$\therefore C$ and A_2 are not independent.

Let $D = \{\text{doubles}\} = \{11, 22, 33, 44, 55, 66\}$

$\Rightarrow D$ independent of A_2 ?

$$P(D) = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$D \cap A_2 = \{22\} \quad P(D \cap A_2) = \frac{1}{36}$$

$$P(D) \cdot P(A_2) = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{36}$$

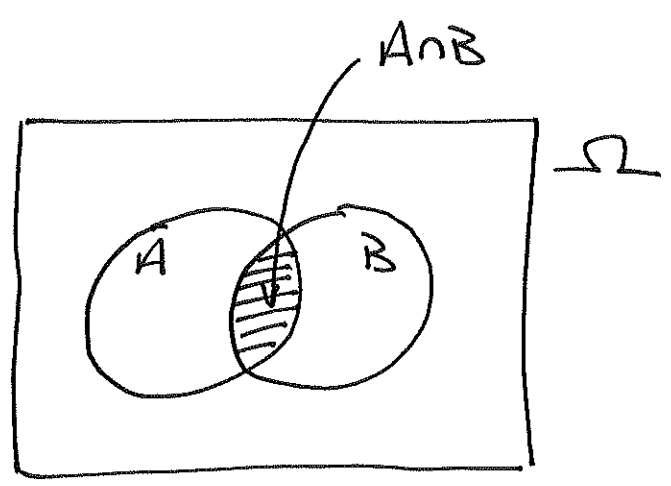
$\therefore D$ and A_2 are independent.

Exercise

Let $A, B \subseteq \Omega$. Prove that the following are equivalent.

- (a) A, B are independent
- (b) A, B^c " "
- (c) A^c, B " "
- (d) A^c, B^c " "

Geometric intuition:



independence : $P(A|B) = P(A)$

i.e.
$$\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)}{P(\Omega)}$$

Conditional Independence

Recall that if $P(C) > 0$, then

$$P(\cdot | C)$$

is itself a valid Probability law.

Defn

we say events A, B are conditionally independent given C iff

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

note:

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

$$= \frac{\cancel{P(C)} \cdot P(B | C) \cdot P(A | B \cap C)}{\cancel{P(C)}} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{by the} \\ \text{mult.} \\ \text{rule} \end{array} \right.$$

□

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

so A, B are cond. ind. given C iff

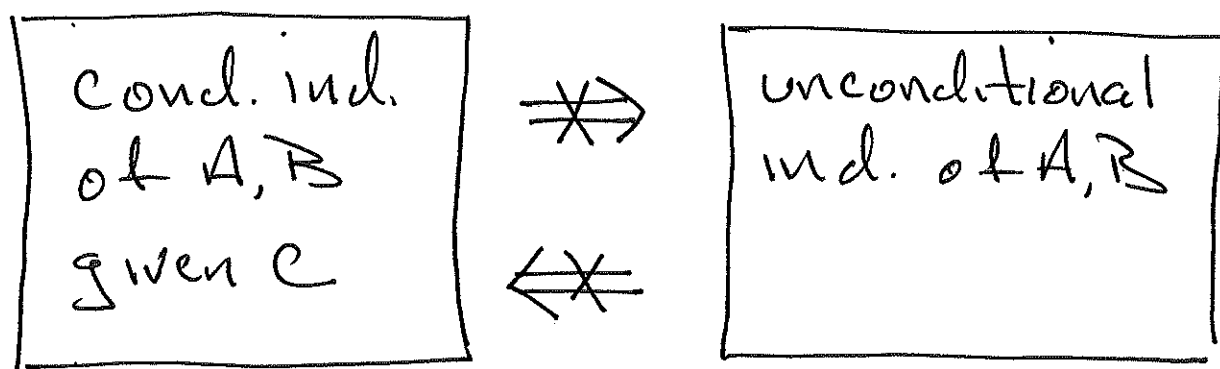
$$\cancel{P(B|C)} \cdot P(A|B \cap C) = P(A|C) \cdot \cancel{P(B|C)}$$

alternate definition!

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

Interpretation: A, B are cond. ind. given C iff: if C is known to occur, the additional knowledge that B occurs, does not change the Prob. of A .

Be warned that



see examples 1.20, 1.21 in
text (P. 37).

Independence of Multiple events

Defn

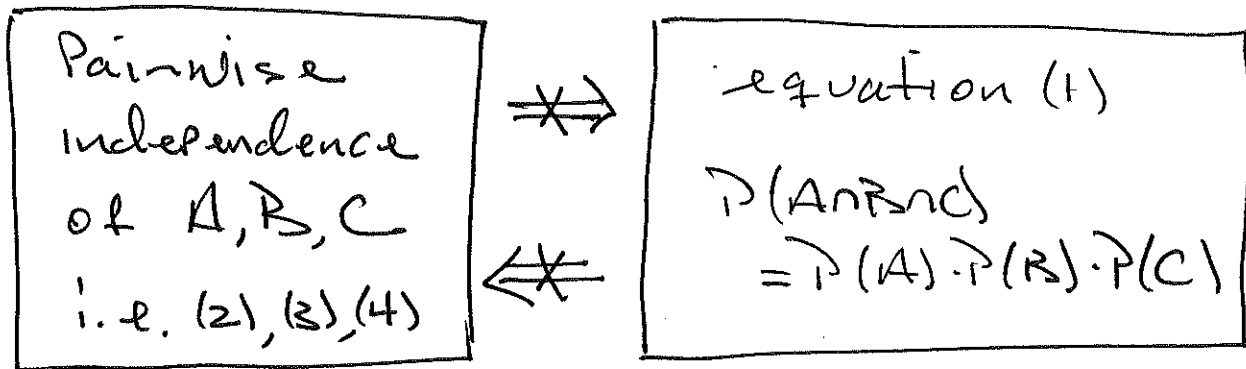
We say A, B, C are independent
iff the following hold

$$(1) P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(B) \cdot P(C)$$

Pairwise independence {

$$\begin{aligned} (2) & P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B) \\ (3) & P(B \cap C) = P(B) \cdot P(C) \\ (4) & P(A \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(C) \end{aligned}$$

Be warned that



see examples 1.22, 1.23 in text
(p. 39).

Binomial Probabilities

Recall from CSE 16: Binomial Coefficients

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

$$= \begin{cases} \# \text{ of } k\text{-element} \\ \text{subsets of an } n\text{-element set} \end{cases} \quad 0 \leq k \leq n$$

$$= \begin{cases} \# \text{ of bit strings of len. } n \\ \text{having exactly } k \text{ 1's} \end{cases}$$

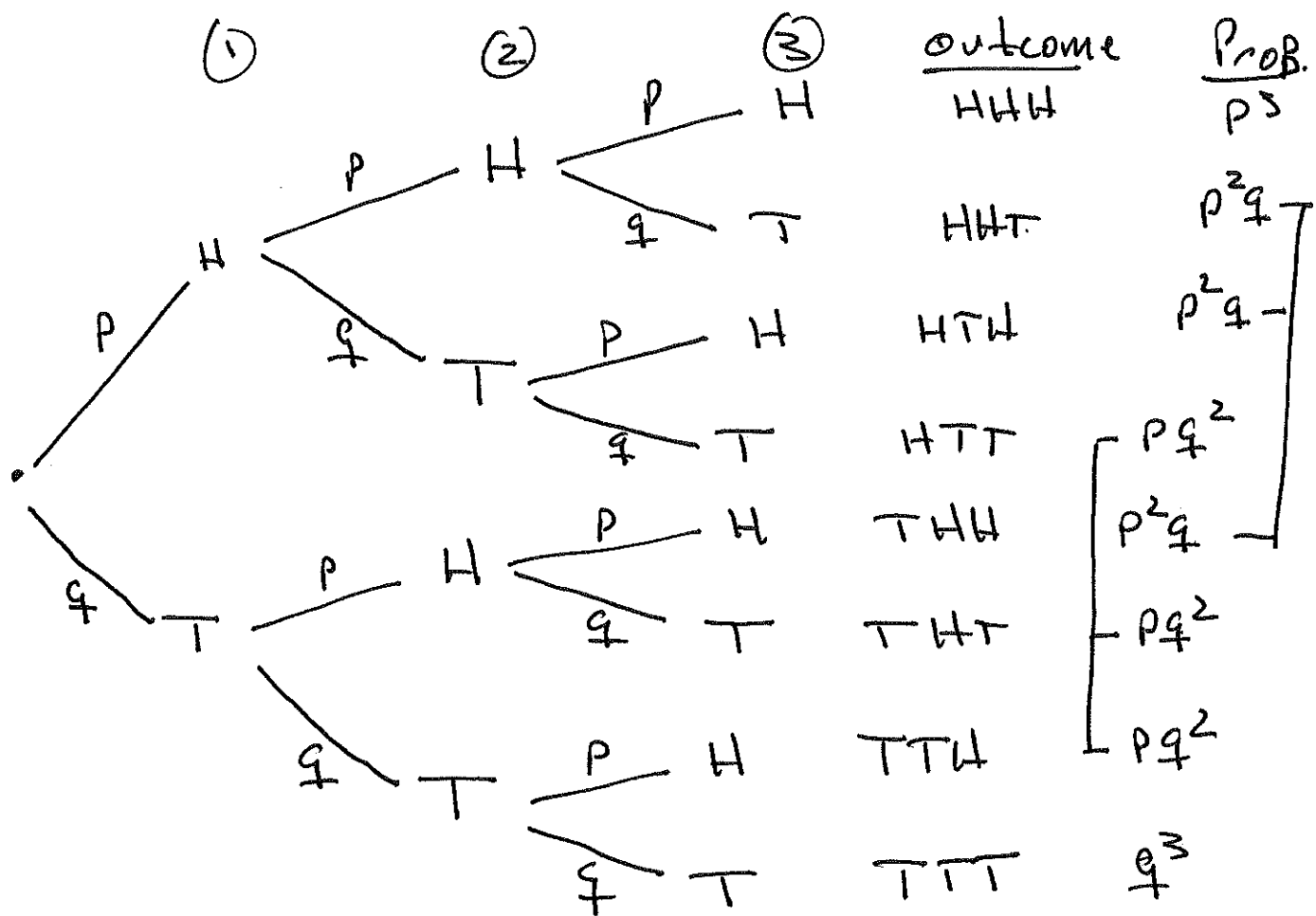
often an experiment is a combination of a seq. of identical independent sub-experiments.

A simple experiment with exactly 2 outcomes is called a Bernoulli Trial.

$$\text{outcomes} = \begin{cases} \text{success} = \text{heads} = 1 \\ \text{failure} = \text{tails} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Ex Perform a seq. of 3 independent tosses of a weighted coin with

$$P(H) = p \quad \text{and} \quad P(T) = q = 1-p$$



note: $p^3 + 3p^2q + 3pq^2 + q^3 = (p+q)^3 = 1$

observe

$$P(3 \text{ heads}) = p^3$$

$$P(2 \text{ heads}) = 3p^2q$$

$$P(1 \text{ head}) = 3pq^2$$

$$P(0 \text{ heads}) = q^3$$

Generalize to n flips:

$$P(\#heads = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad (0 \leq k \leq n)$$

↑
Binomial
Probabilities

Recall: Binomial Theorem

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$