

Independence

Learning Goals

1. Be able to recognize independent events
2. Use independence rules to calculate probabilities
3. Recognize and use *conditional* independencies



Summary

Two events A and B are called independent if:

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B) \quad P(A|B) = P(A)$$

Otherwise, they are called dependent events

Two events A and B are
conditionally independent on C if:

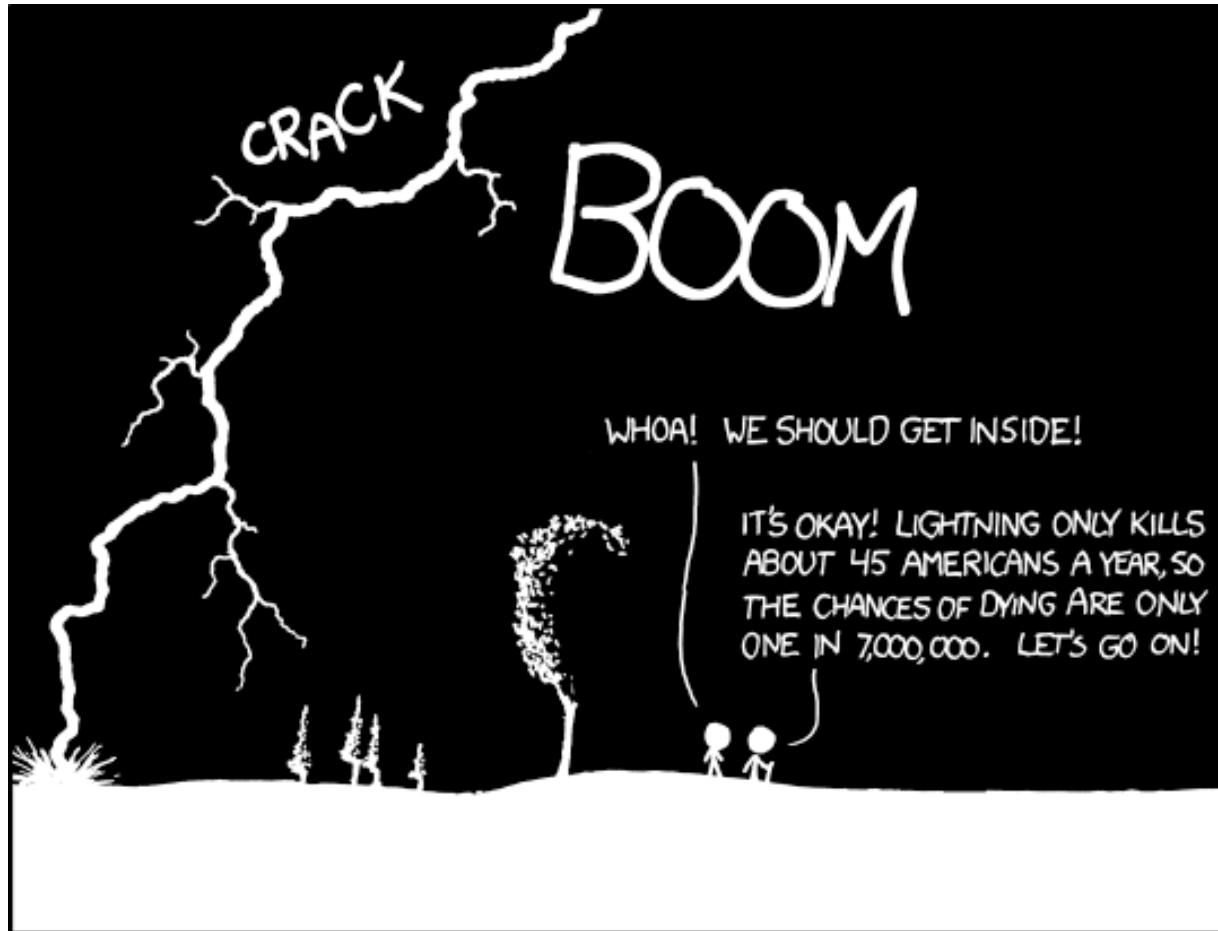
$$P(AB|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$$

$$P(A|BC) = P(A|C)$$



Review

The Tragedy of Conditional Prob



THE ANNUAL DEATH RATE AMONG PEOPLE
WHO KNOW THAT STATISTIC IS ONE IN SIX.

Thanks xkcd! <http://xkcd.com/795/>



And vs Condition

$P(AB)$ vs $P(A|B)$

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



A Few Useful Formulas

- For any events A and B:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B \cap A) \quad (\text{Commutativity})$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap B) &= P(A | B) P(B) \\ &= P(B | A) P(A) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Chain rule})$$

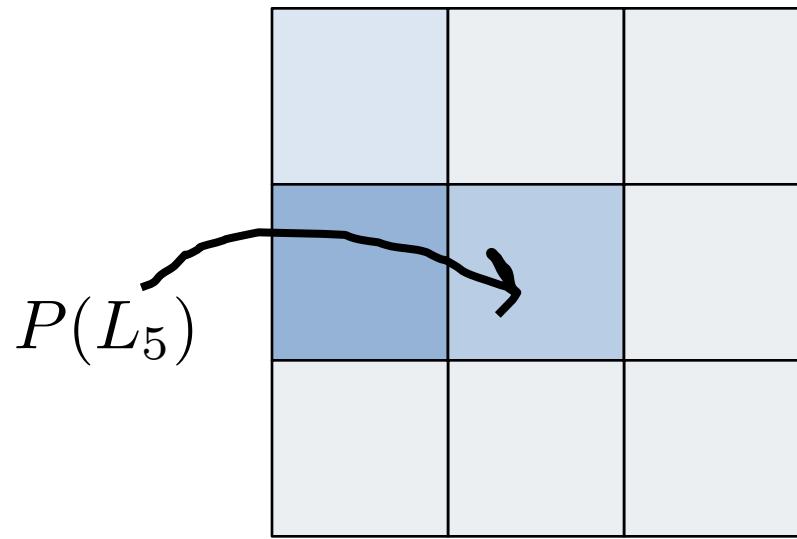
$$P(A \cap B^c) = P(A) - P(AB) \quad (\text{Intersection})$$

$$P(A) + P(A^c) = 1 \quad (\text{Total Probability})$$

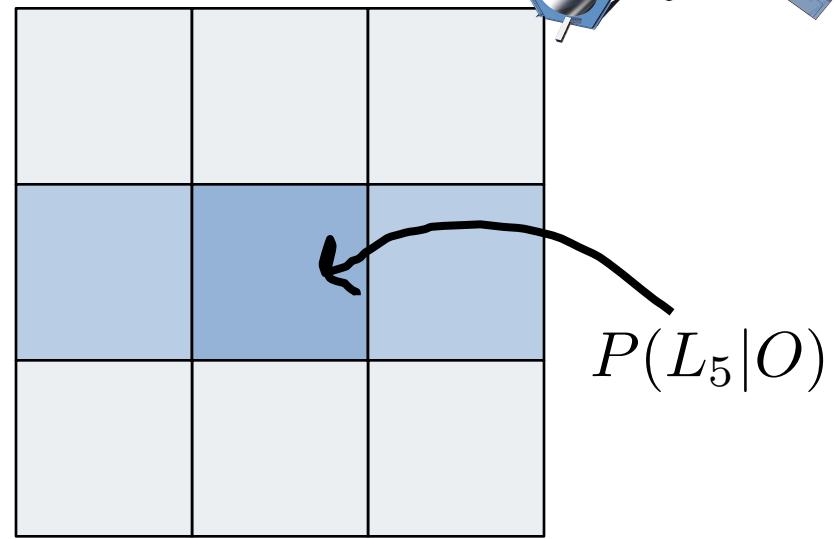
$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(B | A) P(A)}{P(B)} \quad (\text{Bayes Theorem})$$



Bayes: Update Belief

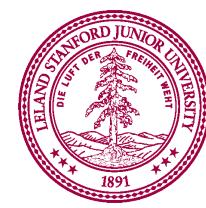
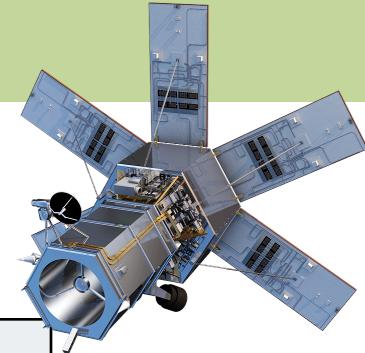


Before Observation



After Observation

$$P(L_5|O) = \frac{P(O|L_5)P(L_5)}{P(O)}$$



Generality of Conditional Probability

- For any events A, B, and E, you can condition consistently on E, and these formulas still hold:

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

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

$$P(A | B \cap E) = \frac{P(B | A \cap E) P(A | E)}{P(B | E)} \quad (\text{Bayes' Thm.})$$

- Can think of E as “everything you already know”
- Formally, $P(\cdot | E)$ satisfies 3 axioms of probability



BAE's Theorem?

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



End Review

Today, start with a cool program



G₁

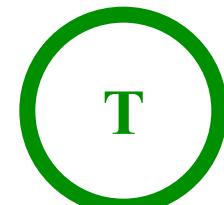
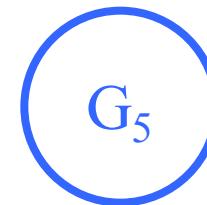
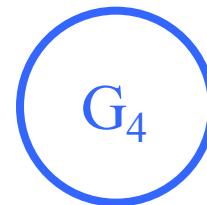
G₂

G₃

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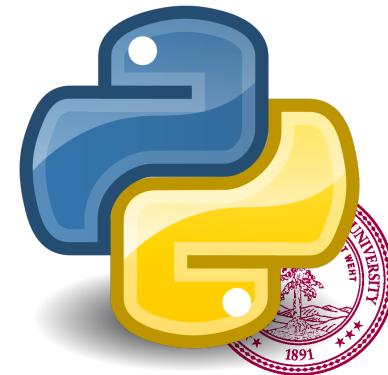
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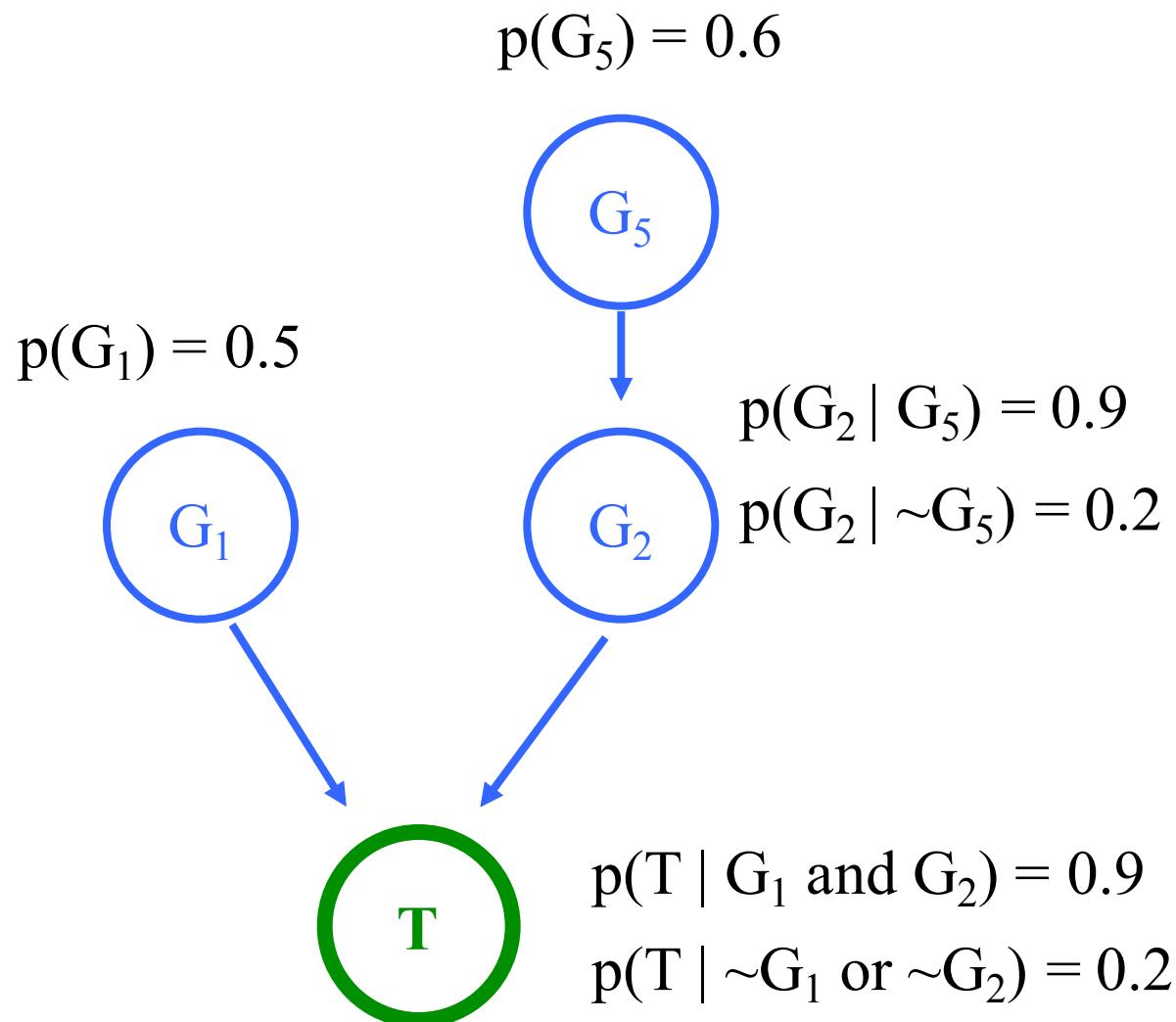
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36 False, False, False, True, False, False
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6 observations per sample

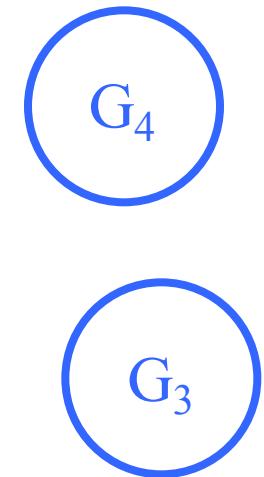
100,000
samples



Discovered Pattern



These genes
don't impact T



We've gotten ahead of ourselves



Source: The Ho

Start at the beginning



Source: The Ho

Independence

Two events A and B are called independent if:

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$$

Or, equivalently:

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

Otherwise, they are called dependent events



Dice, Our Misunderstood Friends

- Roll two 6-sided dice, yielding values D_1 and D_2
 - Let E be event: $D_1 = 1$
 - Let F be event: $D_2 = 1$
- What is $P(E)$, $P(F)$, and $P(EF)$?
 - $P(E) = 1/6$, $P(F) = 1/6$, $P(EF) = 1/36$
 - $P(EF) = P(E) P(F)$ \rightarrow E and F independent
- Let G be event: $D_1 + D_2 = 5$ $\{(1, 4), (2, 3), (3, 2), (4, 1)\}$
- What is $P(E)$, $P(G)$, and $P(EG)$?
 - $P(E) = 1/6$, $P(G) = 4/36 = 1/9$, $P(EG) = 1/36$
 - $P(EG) \neq P(E) P(G)$ \rightarrow E and G dependent



Intuition through proofs:

Independence with Proofs

Let A and B be independent

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

Definition of
conditional probability

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

Since A and B are
independent

$$= P(A)$$

Taking the bus to
cancel city

Knowing that event B happened, doesn't change
our belief that A will happen.



Independence

Given independent events A and B, prove that A and B^C are independent

We want to show that $P(AB^C) = P(A)P(B^C)$

$$\begin{aligned} P(AB^C) &= P(A) - P(AB) && \text{By Intersection Rule} \\ &= P(A) - P(A)P(B) && \text{By independence} \\ &= P(A)[1 - P(B)] && \text{Factoring} \\ &= P(A)P(B^C) && \text{Since } P(B) + P(B^C) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

So if A and B are independent A and B^C are also independent



Independence

Let A and B be independent

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

From our first proof

A and B^C are independent

From our second proof

And thus:

$$P(A|B^C) = P(A)$$

Since A and B^C are independent

$$P(A|B) = P(A) = P(A|B^C)$$

Put it all together

Intuitively, if A and B are independent, knowing whether B holds gives us no information about A



Generalization



Generalized Independence

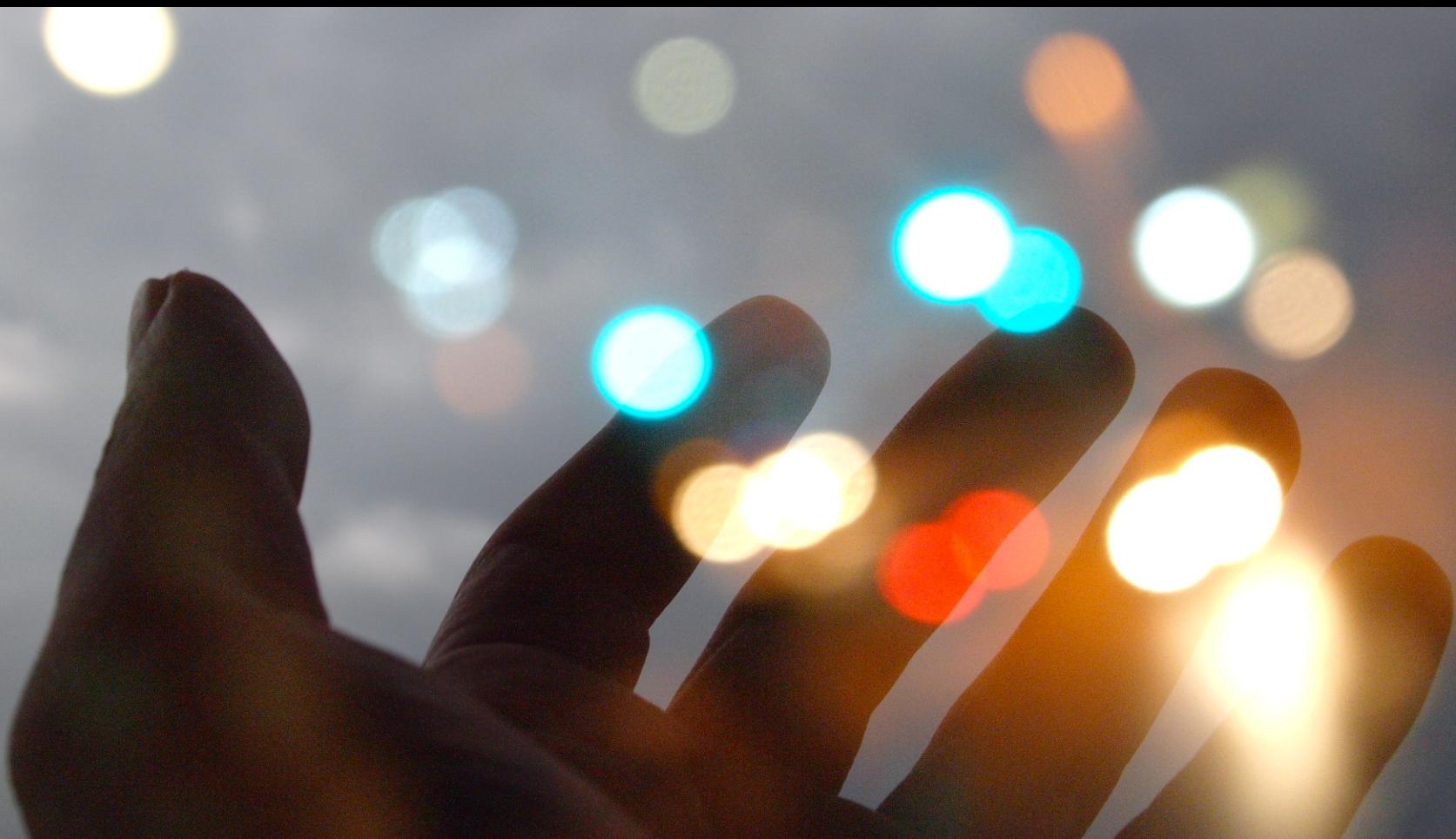
- General definition of Independence:
Events E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n are independent if for every subset with r elements (where $r \leq n$) it holds that:

$$\begin{aligned} P(E_{s_1}, E_{s_2}, E_{s_3}, \dots, E_{s_r}) \\ = P(E_{s_1})P(E_{s_2})P(E_{s_3}) \dots P(E_{s_r}) \end{aligned}$$

- Example: outcomes of n separate flips of a coin are all independent of one another
 - Each flip in this case is called a “trial” of the experiment

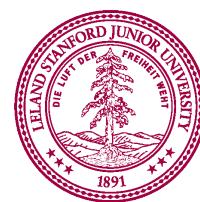


Math > Intuition



Two Dice

- Roll two 6-sided dice, yielding values D_1 and D_2
 - Let E be event: $D_1 = 1$
 - Let F be event: $D_2 = 6$
 - Are E and F independent? Yes!
- Let G be event: $D_1 + D_2 = 7$
 - Are E and G independent? Yes!
 - $P(E) = 1/6, P(G) = 1/6, P(E \cap G) = 1/36$ [roll (1, 6)]
 - Are F and G independent? Yes!
 - $P(F) = 1/6, P(G) = 1/6, P(F \cap G) = 1/36$ [roll (1, 6)]
 - Are E, F and G independent? No!
 - $P(E \cap F \cap G) = 1/36 \neq 1/216 = (1/6)(1/6)(1/6)$

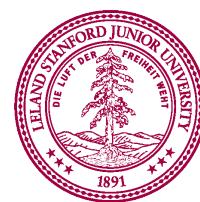


New Ability



Generating Random Bits

- A computer produces a series of random bits, with probability p of producing a 1.
 - Each bit generated is an independent trial
 - E = first n bits are 1's, followed by a single 0
 - What is $P(E)$?
- Solution
 - $P(\text{first } n \text{ 1's}) = P(\text{1}^{\text{st}} \text{ bit}=1) P(\text{2}^{\text{nd}} \text{ bit}=1) \dots P(n^{\text{th}} \text{ bit}=1)$
 $= p^n$
 - $P(n+1 \text{ bit}=0) = (1 - p)$
 - $P(E) = P(\text{first } n \text{ 1's}) P(n+1 \text{ bit}=0) = p^n (1 - p)$



Coin Flips

- Say a coin comes up heads with probability p
 - Each coin flip is an independent trial
- $P(n \text{ heads on } n \text{ coin flips}) = p^n$
- $P(n \text{ tails on } n \text{ coin flips}) = (1 - p)^n$
- $P(\text{first } k \text{ heads, then } n - k \text{ tails}) = p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$
- $P(\text{exactly } k \text{ heads on } n \text{ coin flips}) = ?$



Important Result

P(exactly k heads on n coin flips)?

$$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

Think of the flips as ordered:

Ordering 1: T, H, H, T, T, T....

The coin flips are independent!

Ordering 2: H, T, H, T, T, T....

And so on...

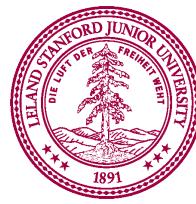
$$P(F_i) = p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

Let's make each ordering with k heads an event... F_i

P(exactly k heads on n coin flips) = P(any one of the events)

P(exactly k heads on n coin flips) = P(F_1 or F_2 or F_3 ...)

Those events are mutually exclusive!



Moment of Crystallization

Add vs Multiply?



Batman vs Superman



COMING SOON
#BATMAN v SUPERMAN

SEE IT IN 3D



VULCANI UNUSUAL FILMS

TM & © DC COMICS

DOLBY ATMOS
WATSONS
WATERSTON

WARNER BROS. PICTURES
A TIME WARNER ENTERTAINMENT COMPANY

Add vs Multiply

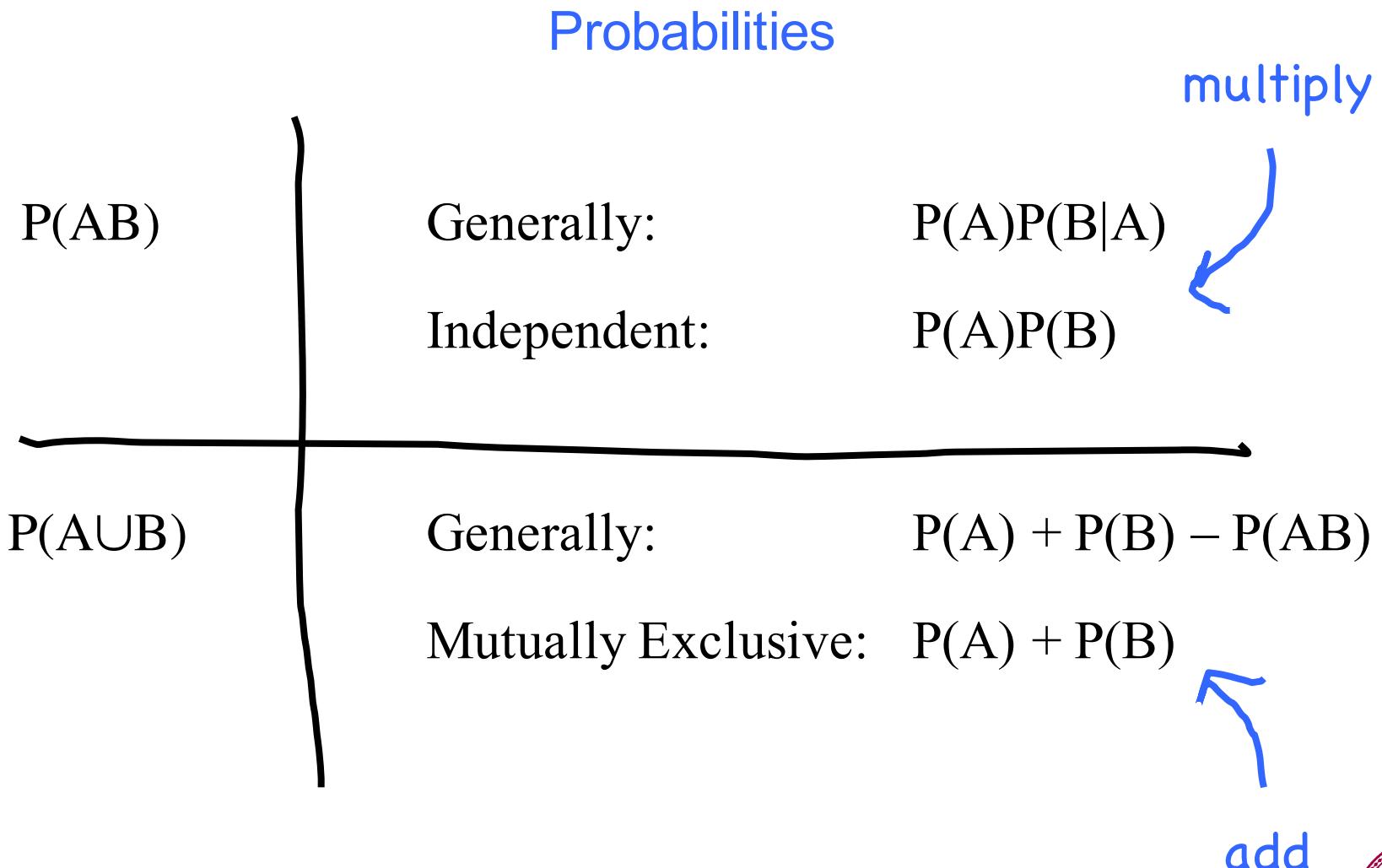
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vs

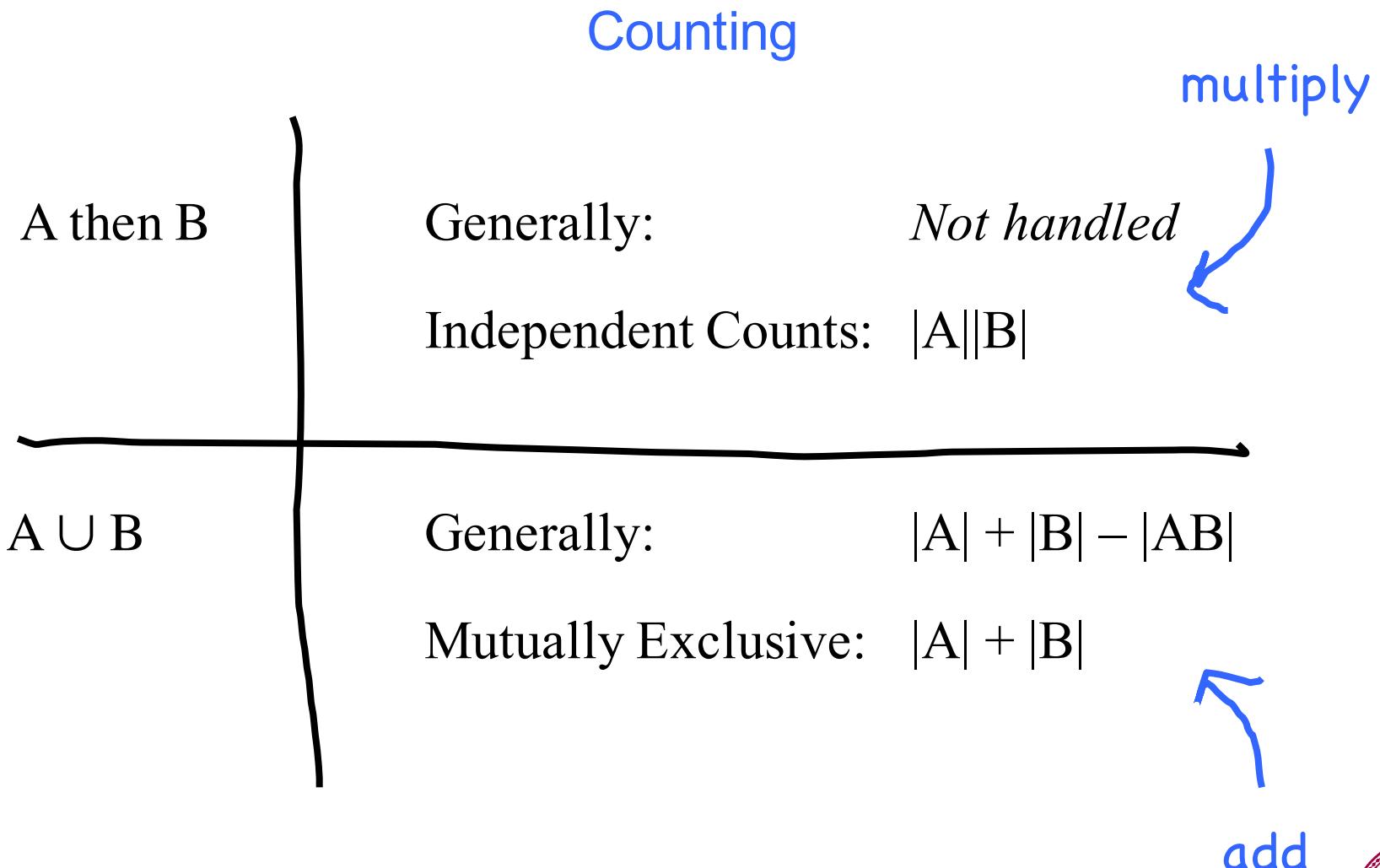
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Add vs Multiply



Add vs Multiply

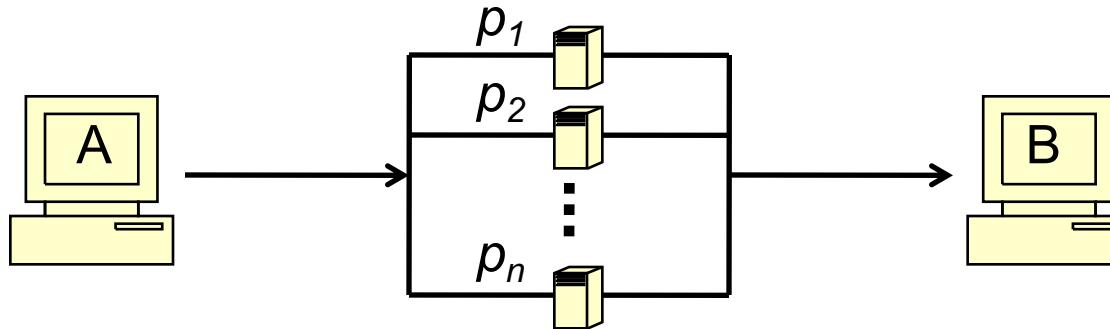


Combining with Previous Skills



Sending a Message Through Network

- Consider the following parallel network:



- n independent routers, each with probability p_i of functioning (where $1 \leq i \leq n$)
- $E =$ functional path from A to B exists. What is $P(E)$?

- Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} P(E) &= 1 - P(\text{all routers fail}) \\ &= 1 - (1 - p_1)(1 - p_2)\dots(1 - p_n) \\ &= 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - p_i) \end{aligned}$$



Yet More Hash Tables

- m strings are hashed (unequally) into a hash table with n buckets
 - Each string hashed is an independent trial, with probability p_i of getting hashed to bucket i
 - $E = \text{At least 1 of}$ buckets 1 to k has ≥ 1 string hashed to it
- Solution
 - $F_i = \text{at least one string hashed into } i\text{-th bucket}$
 - $P(E) = P(F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \dots \cup F_k) = 1 - P((F_1 \cup F_2 \cup \dots \cup F_k)^c)$
 $= 1 - P(F_1^c F_2^c \dots F_k^c)$ (DeMorgan's Law)
 - $P(F_1^c F_2^c \dots F_k^c) = P(\text{no strings hashed to buckets 1 to } k)$
 $= (1 - p_1 - p_2 - \dots - p_k)^m$
 - $P(E) = 1 - (1 - p_1 - p_2 - \dots - p_k)^m$



The Hardest Example

- m strings are hashed (unequally) into a hash table with n buckets
 - Each string hashed is an independent trial, with probability p_i of getting hashed to bucket i
 - $E = \text{Each of}$ buckets 1 to k has ≥ 1 string hashed to it
 - Solution
 - $F_i = \text{at least one string hashed into } i\text{-th bucket}$
 - $P(E) = P(F_1 F_2 \dots F_k) = 1 - P((F_1 F_2 \dots F_k)^c)$
 $= 1 - P(F_1^c \cup F_2^c \cup \dots \cup F_k^c)$ (DeMorgan's Law)
 $= 1 - P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^k F_i^c\right) = 1 - \sum_{r=1}^k (-1)^{(r+1)} \sum_{i_1 < \dots < i_r} P(F_{i_1}^c F_{i_2}^c \dots F_{i_r}^c)$
- where $P(F_{i_1}^c F_{i_2}^c \dots F_{i_r}^c) = (1 - p_{i_1} - p_{i_2} - \dots - p_{i_r})^m$



Phew...

Conditional Independence

Recall, two events A and B are independent if:

$$P(A) = P(A)P(B)$$

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

Two events E and F are
conditionally independent on C if:

$$P(AB|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$$

$$P(A|BC) = P(A|C)$$



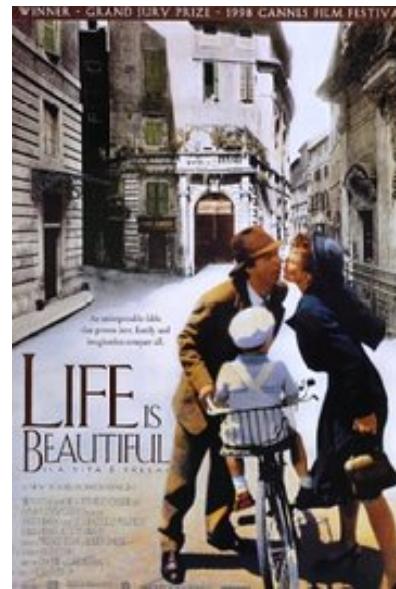
NETFLIX

And Learn

Netflix and Learn

What is the probability
that a user will watch
Life is Beautiful?

$$P(E)$$



$$P(E) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(E)}{n} \approx \frac{\text{\#people who watched movie}}{\text{\#people on Netflix}}$$

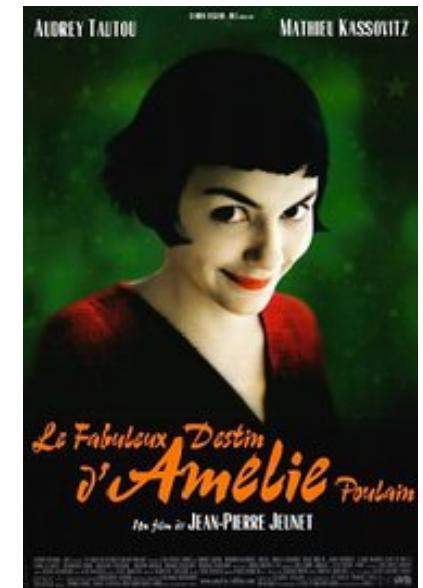
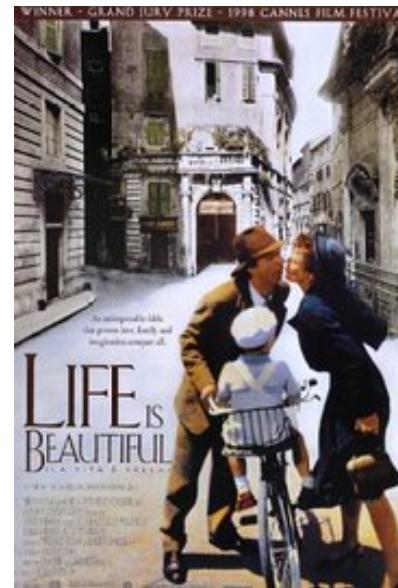
$$P(E) = 10,234,231 / 50,923,123 = 0.20$$



Netflix and Learn

What is the probability
that a user will watch
Life is Beautiful, given
they watched Amelie?

$$P(E|F)$$



$$P(E|F) = \frac{P(EF)}{P(F)} = \frac{\text{\#people who watched both}}{\text{\#people who watched } F}$$

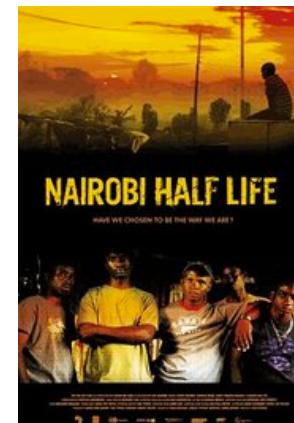
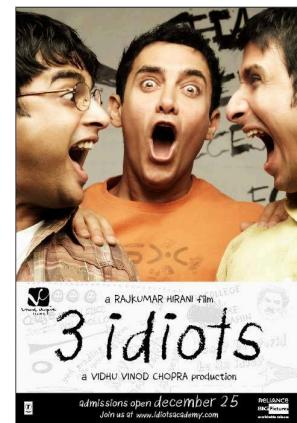
$$P(E|F) = 0.42$$



Conditioned on watching a set of movies?

Netflix and Learn

Each event corresponds to watching a particular movie



E_1

E_2

E_3

E_4

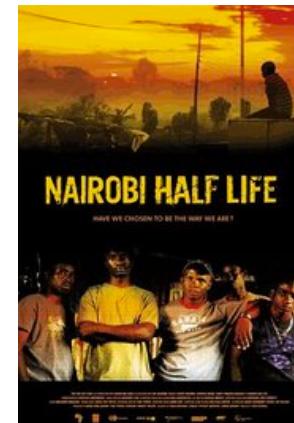
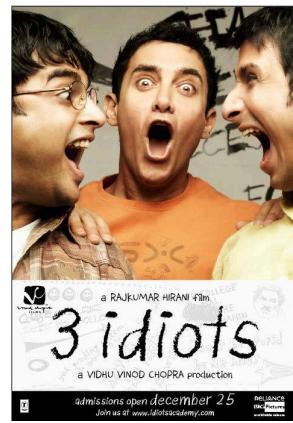
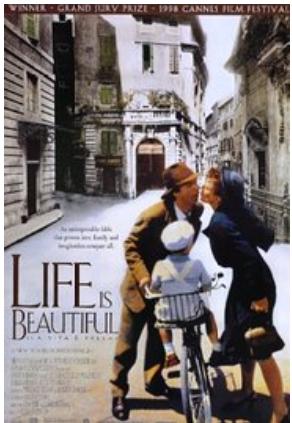
$$P(E_4|E_1, E_2, E_3) ?$$



Is E_4 independent of E_1, E_2, E_3 ?

Netflix and Learn

Is E_4 independent of E_1, E_2, E_3 ?



E_1

E_2

E_3

E_4

$$P(E_4 | E_1, E_2, E_3) \stackrel{?}{=} P(E_4)$$



Netflix and Learn

- What is the probability that a user watched four particular movies?
 - There are 13,000 titles on Netflix
 - The user watches 30 random titles
 - E = movies watched include the given four.
- Solution:

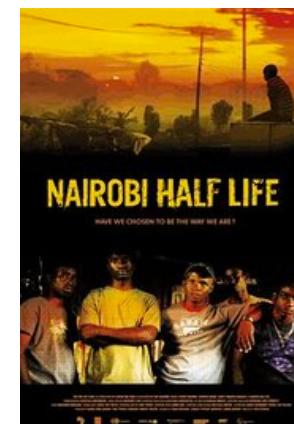
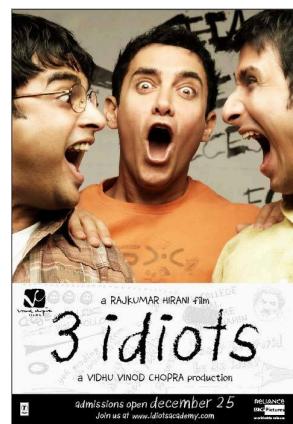
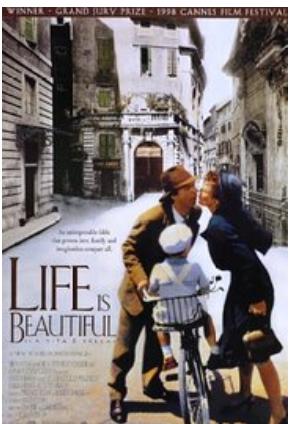
$$P(E) = \frac{\binom{4}{4} \binom{12996}{24}}{\binom{13000}{30}} = 10^{-11}$$

Watch those four *Choose 24 movies
not in the set*

↗
*Choose 30 movies
from netflix*



Netflix and Learn



E_1

E_2

E_3

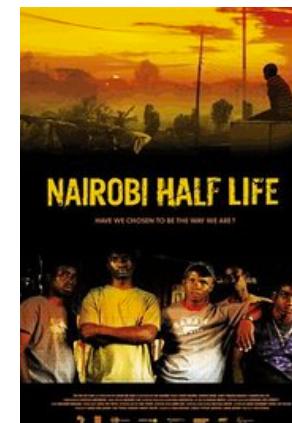
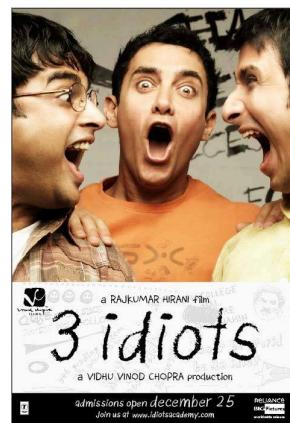
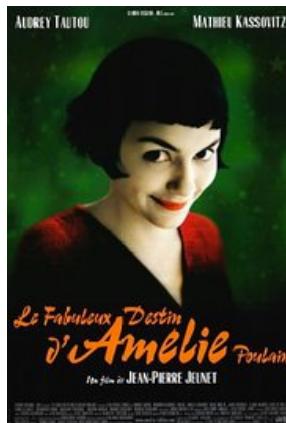
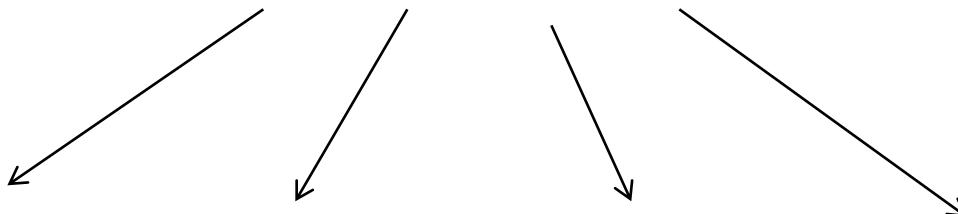
E_4



Netflix and Learn

G

Like foreign emotional comedies



E_1

E_2

E_3

E_4

Assume E_1, E_2, E_3 and E_4 are conditionally independent given G



Netflix and Learn

G

Like foreign emotional comedies



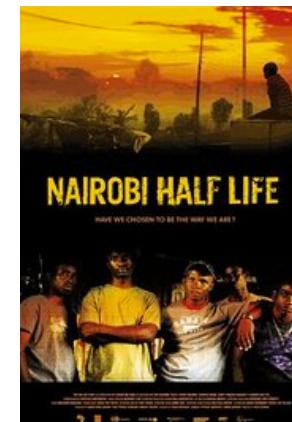
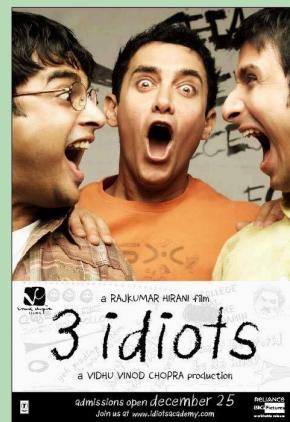
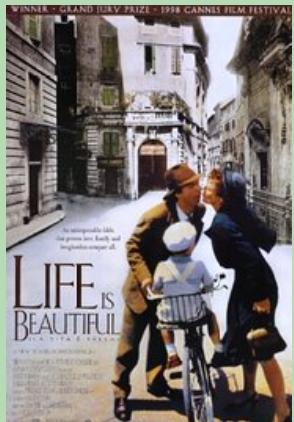
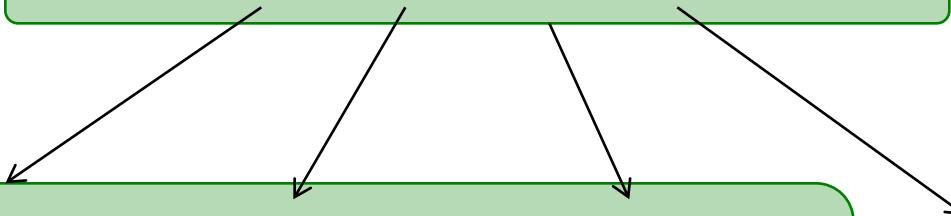
Assume E_1, E_2, E_3 and E_4 are conditionally independent given **G**



Netflix and Learn

G

Like foreign emotional comedies



E_1

E_2

E_3

E_4

Assume E_1, E_2, E_3 and E_4 are conditionally independent given G



Netflix and Learn

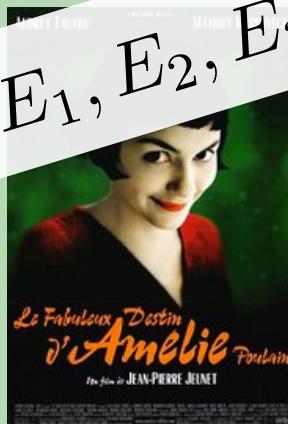
G

Like foreign emotional comedies

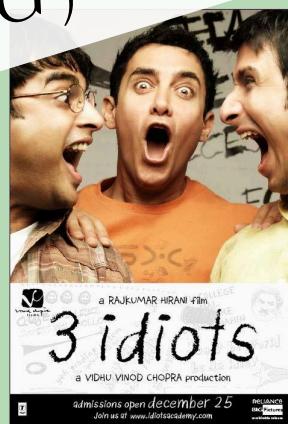
$$P(E_4|E_1, E_2, E_3, G) = P(E_4|G)$$



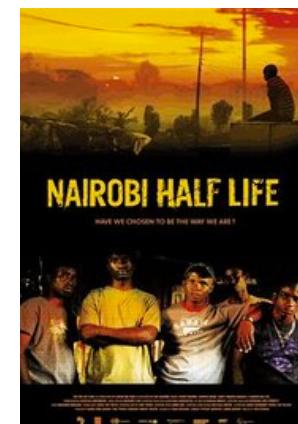
E_1



E_2



E_3



E_4

Assume E_1, E_2, E_3 and E_4 are conditionally independent given G



Conditional independence is a practical, real world way of decomposing hard probability questions.

Big Deal

“Exploiting conditional independence to generate fast probabilistic computations is one of the main contributions CS has made to probability theory”

-Judea Pearl wins 2011 Turing Award, “*For fundamental contributions to artificial intelligence through the development of a calculus for probabilistic and causal reasoning*”



When we introduced conditions

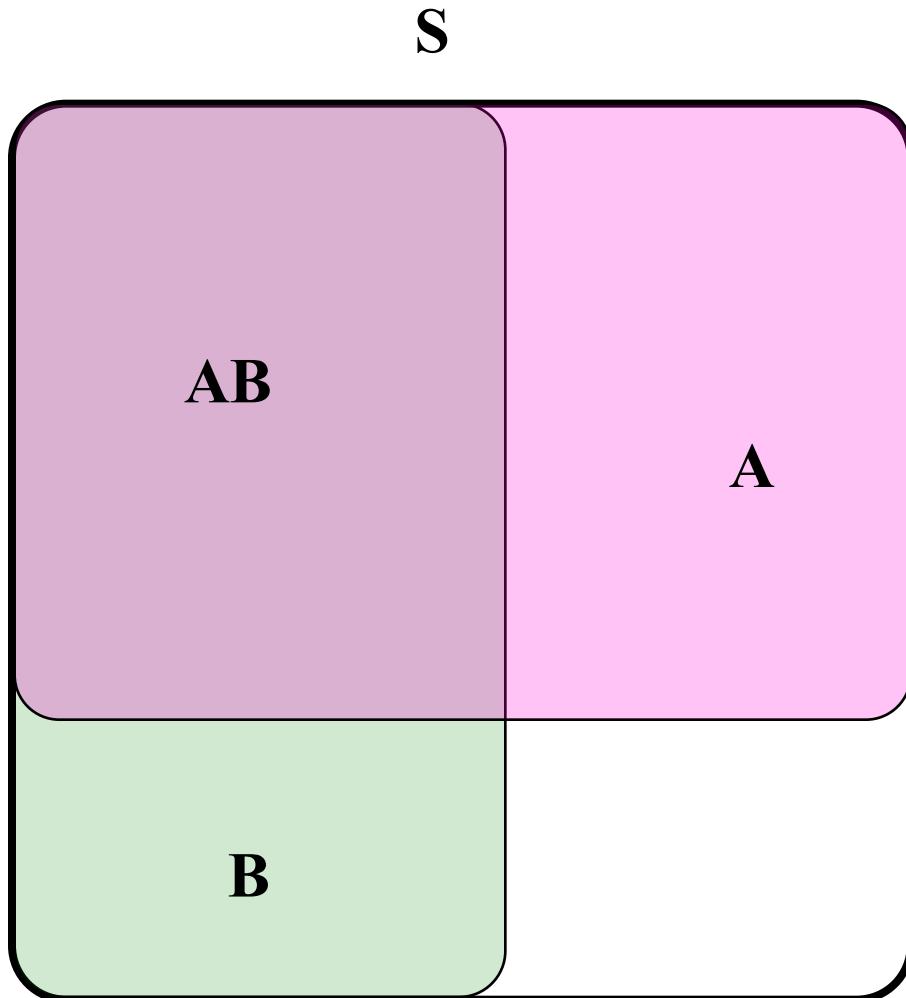
Identities of probability remain the same

But sometimes independence /
dependence relationships change

What the fish?

What does independence look
like?

Independence



Independence Definition 1:

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$$

$$\frac{|AB|}{|S|} = \frac{|A|}{|S|} \times \frac{|B|}{|S|}$$

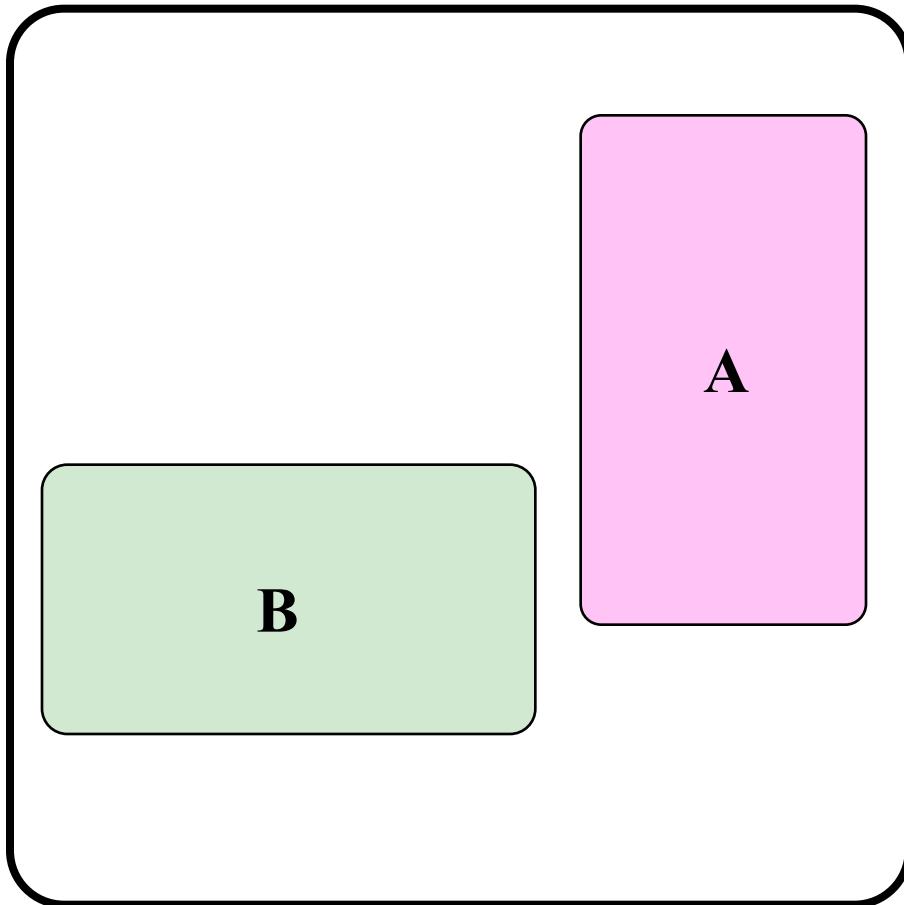
Independence Definition 2:

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

$$\frac{|AB|}{|B|} = \frac{|A|}{|S|}$$



Independence?



Independence Definition 1:

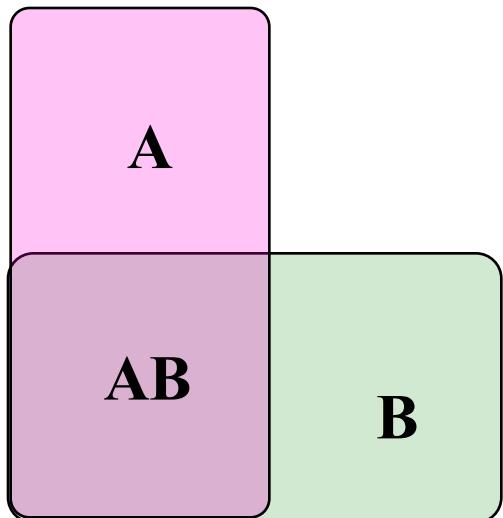
$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$$

$$\frac{|AB|}{|S|} = \frac{|A|}{|S|} \times \frac{|B|}{|S|}$$



Independence?

S

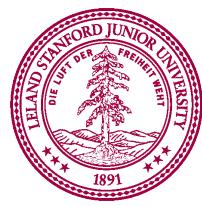


Independence Definition 2:

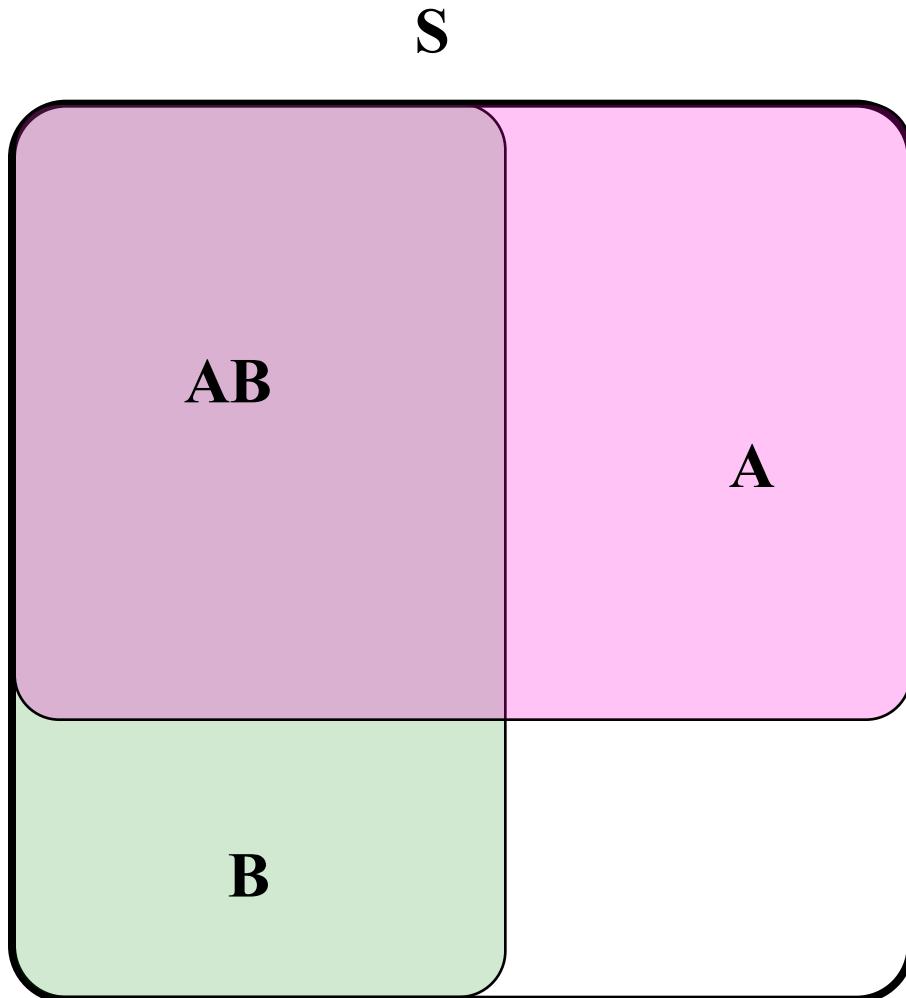
$$P(A|B) \stackrel{?}{=} P(A)$$

$$\frac{|AB|}{|B|} \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{|A|}{|S|}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \neq \frac{2}{16}$$



Independence



Independence Definition 1:

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B)$$

$$\frac{|AB|}{|S|} = \frac{|A|}{|S|} \times \frac{|B|}{|S|}$$

Independence Definition 2:

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

$$\frac{|AB|}{|B|} = \frac{|A|}{|S|}$$



Friday Night Fever

- Population of 10,000 people.
 - Of those, 300 have Malaria (event M) and 200 have Bacterial Infection (event B). 6 people have both.
 - Have Fever if and only if you have Malaria or Bacteria.
 - Are M and B independent?
- Solution:
 - $P(M) = 300 / 10,000 = 0.03$
 - $P(B) = 200 / 10,000 = 0.02$
 - $P(MB) = 6 / 10,000 = 0.0006$
 - $P(M)P(B) = 0.0006$
 - $P(M)P(B) = P(MB)$
 - Independent



Causality

Malaria (M)

Bacteria (B)

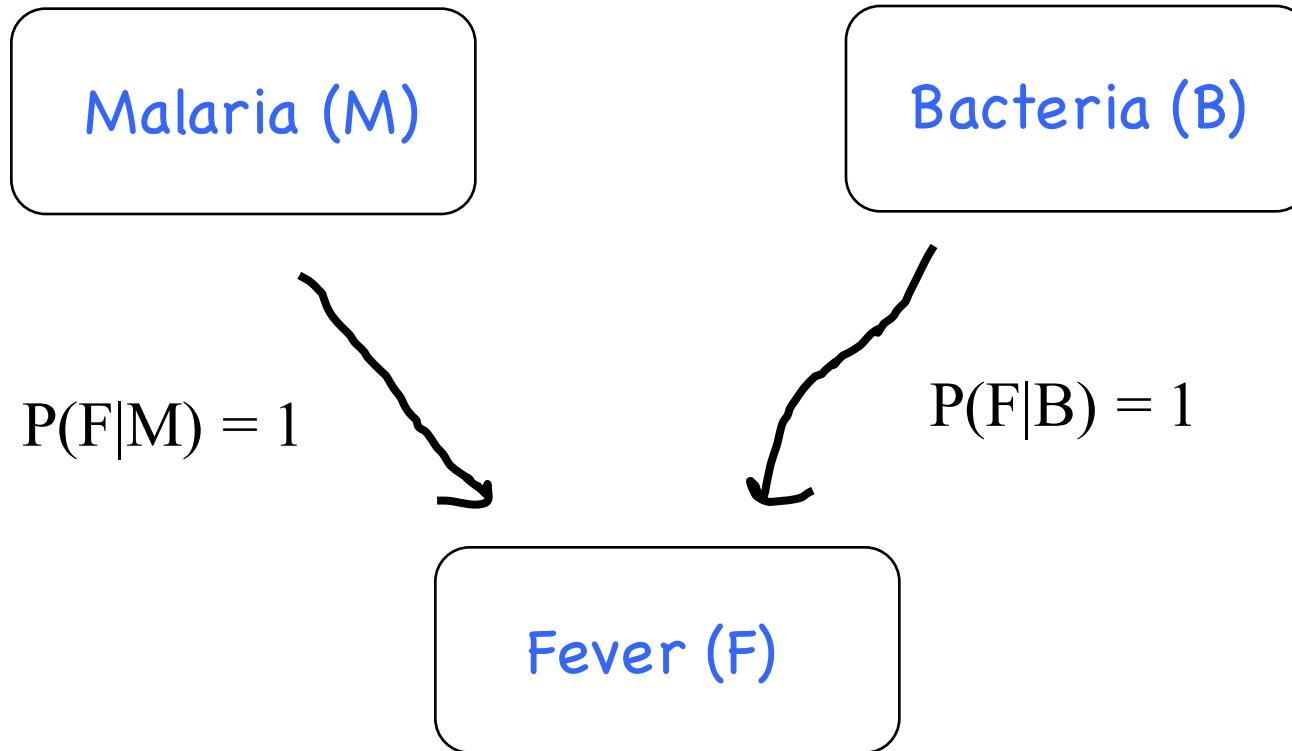
Malaria does not cause Bacteria and
Bacteria does not cause Malaria

This is 9/10 important

*This is a “causal” diagram. It helps explain why things are independent



Causality



*This is a “causal” diagram. It helps explain why things are independent



Friday Night Fever

- Population of 10,000 people.
 - Of those, 300 have Malaria (event M) and 200 have Bacterial Infection (event B). 6 people have both.
 - Have Fever if and only if you have Malaria or Bacteria.
 - Are M and B independent **given F?**
- Solution:
 - Total people with Fever = $200+300 - 6 = 494$
 - $P(M|F) = 300 / 494 = 0.61$
 - $P(B|F) = 200 / 494 = 0.40$
 - $P(MB|F) = 6 / 494 = 0.012$
 - $P(M|F)P(B|F) = 0.224$
 - $P(M|F)P(B|F) \neq P(MB|F)$
 - **Conditionally dependent**



Conditional Dependence

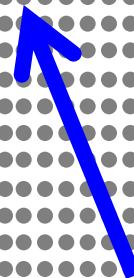
10000 people

• =

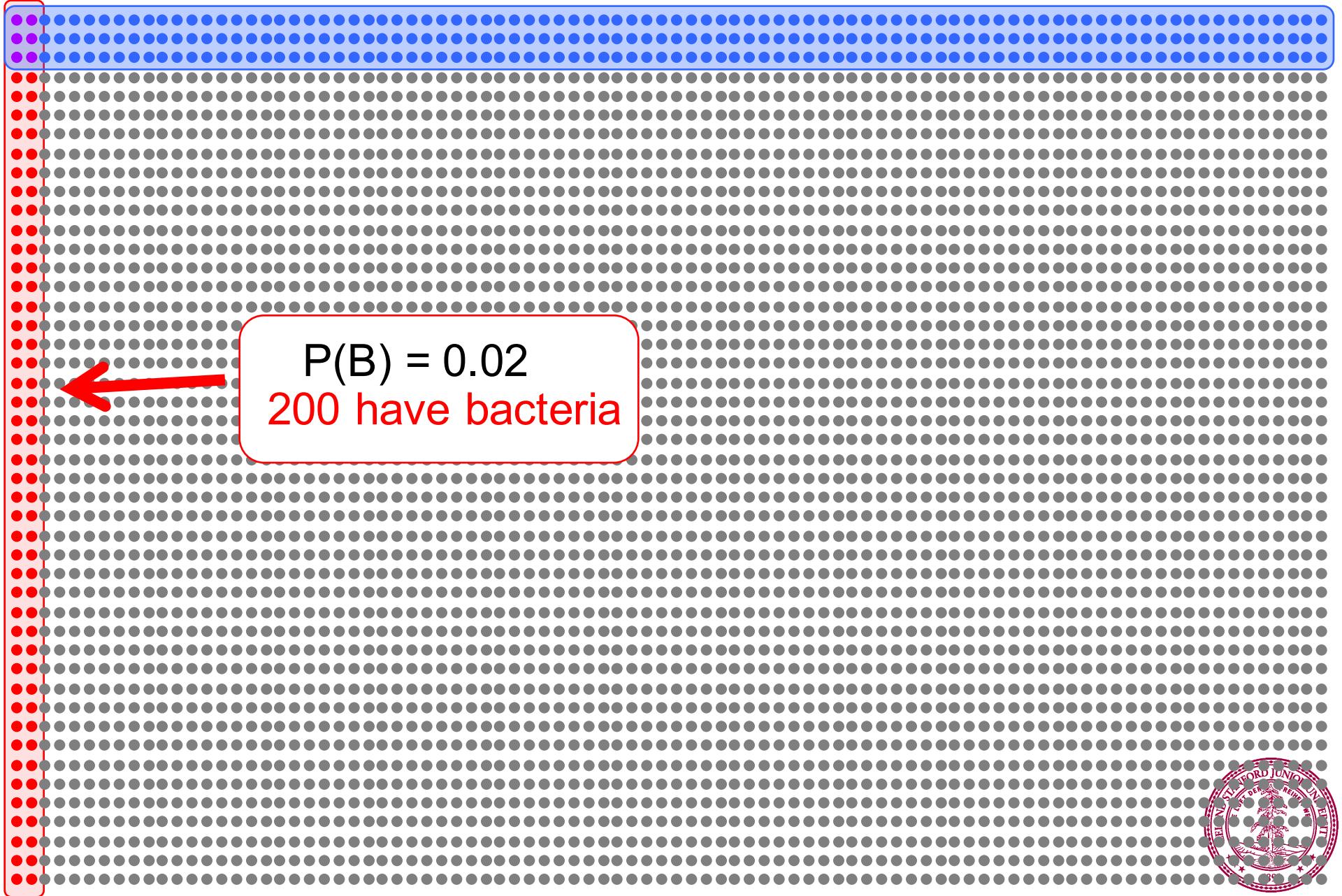


Conditional Dependence

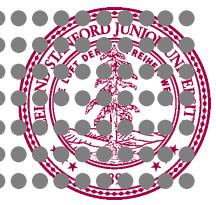
$P(M) = 0.03$
300 have malaria



Conditional Dependence



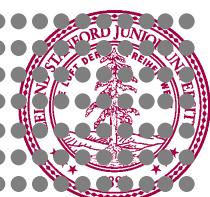
$P(B) = 0.02$
200 have bacteria



Conditional Dependence

$P(BM) = 0.006$

6 have both



Conditional Dependence

If we condition
on B, the same
ratio of people
have malaria

$$P(M|B) = 6/200 = 0.03$$

$$P(M) = 300/10000 = 0.03$$

$$P(M) = P(M|B)$$



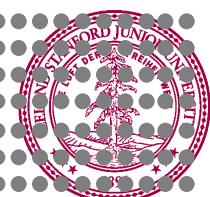
That's the math
definition of
independence



Conditional Dependence

$$P(B|M) = 0.006$$

6 have both



Conditional Dependence

If we condition
on M, the same
ratio of people
have bacteria

There it is again!



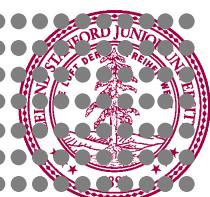
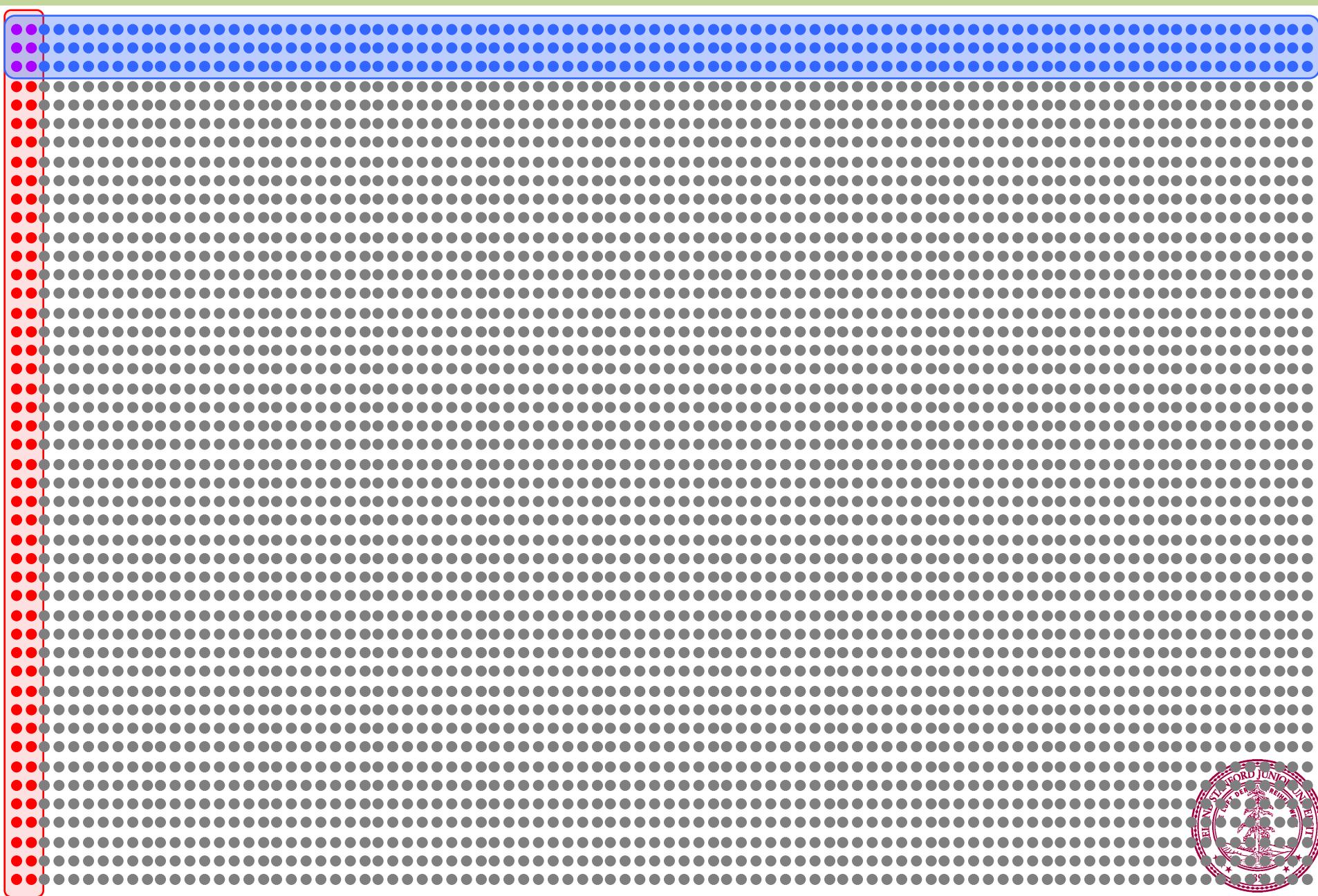
$$P(B|M) = 6/300 = 0.02$$

$$P(B) = 200/10000 = 0.02$$

$$P(B|M) = P(B)$$



Conditional Dependence



Conditioned on Fever

If we condition on F,
we are left with only
the people who have
malaria and bacteria

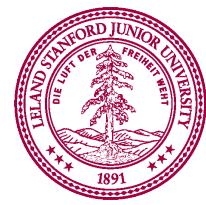
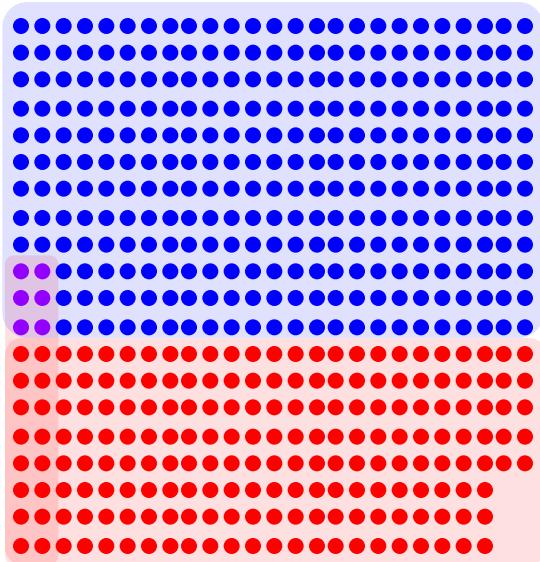


Conditioned on Fever

$$P(B|F) = 200/494 = 0.40$$

$$P(M|F) = 300/494 = 0.61$$

Conditioned on Fever

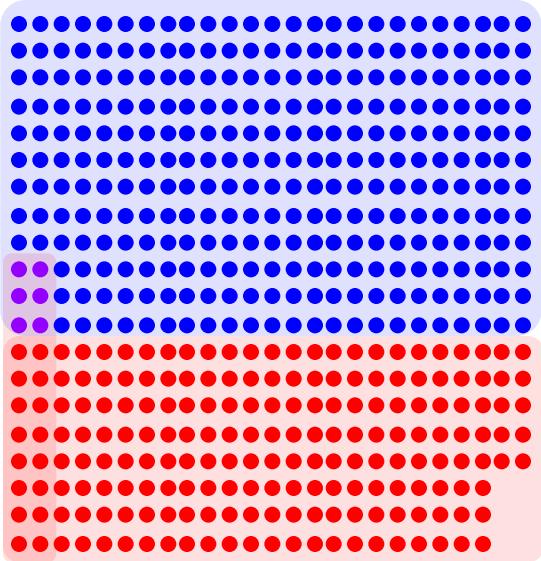


Conditioned on Fever

$$P(B|F) = 200/494 = 0.40$$

$$P(M|F) = 300/494 = 0.61$$

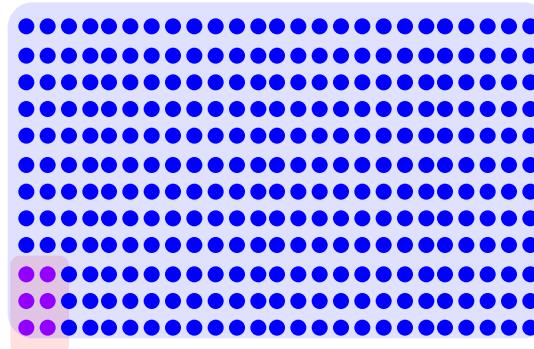
Conditioned on Fever



Test shows
Malaria



Conditioned on Fever + Malaria



$$P(B|MF) = 6/300 = 0.02$$

$$P(B|F) \neq P(B|MF)$$

That's the math definition
of conditional dependence

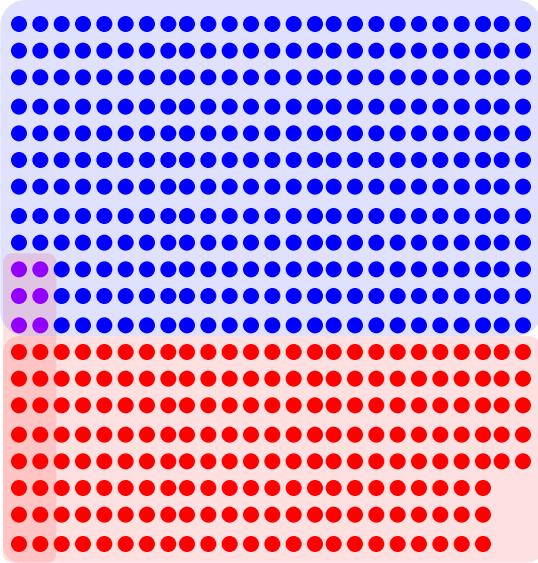


Conditioned on Fever

Conditioned on Fever

$$P(B|F) = 200/494 = 0.40$$

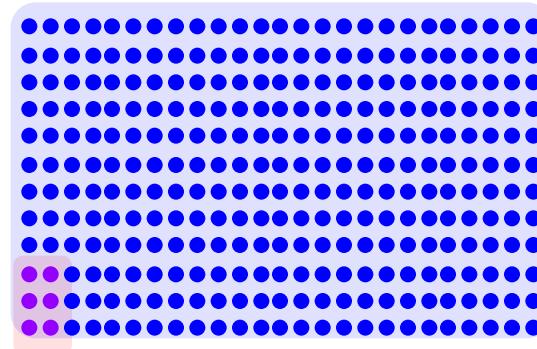
$$P(M|F) = 300/494 = 0.61$$



Test shows
Malaria



Conditioned on Fever + Malaria

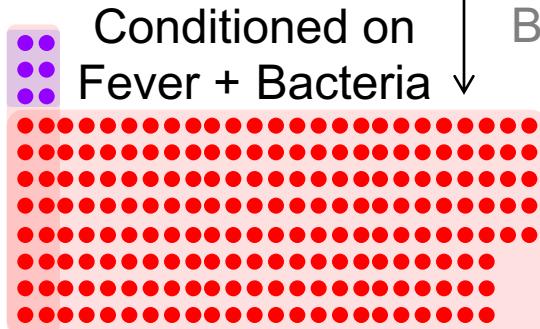


$$P(B|MF) = 6/300 = 0.02$$

$$P(B|F) \neq P(B|MF)$$



That's the math definition
of conditional dependence



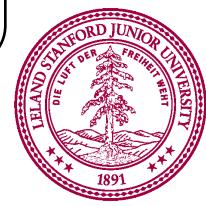
Test shows
Bacteria

Conditioned on
Fever + Bacteria

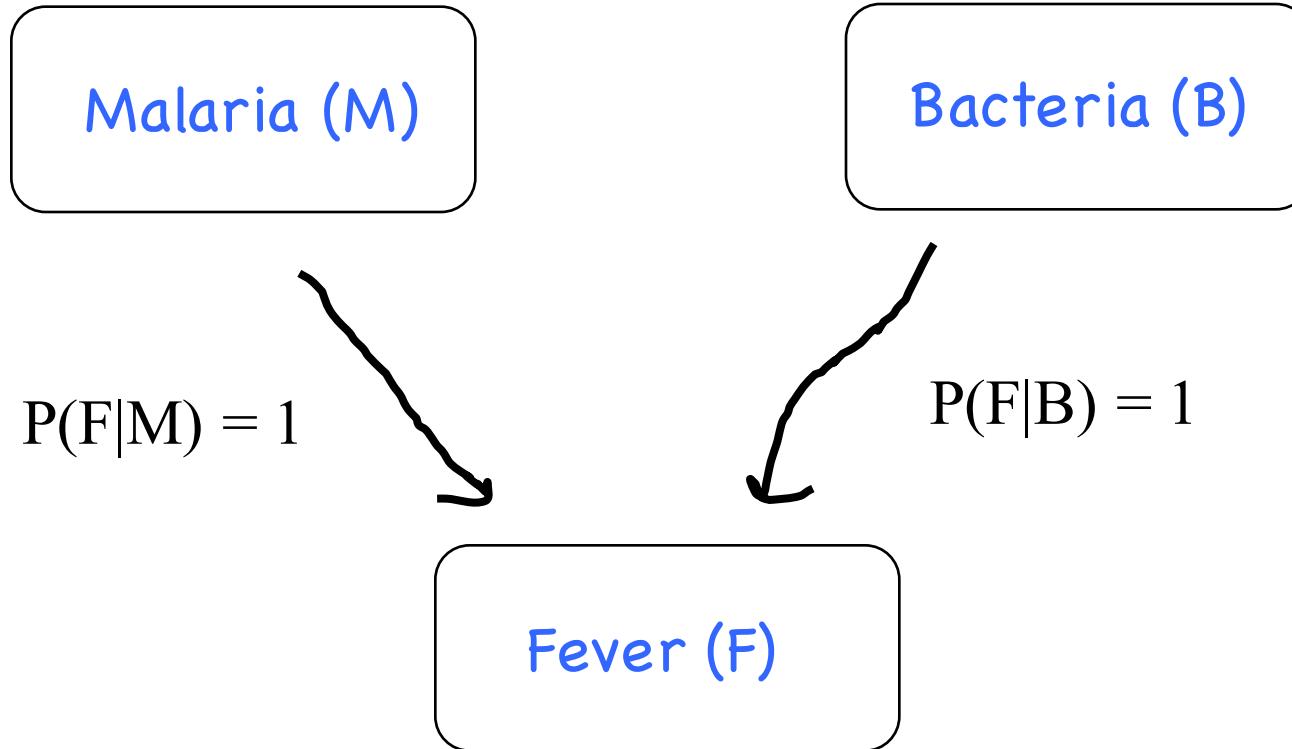
$$P(M|BF) = 6/200 = 0.03$$

$$P(M|F) \neq P(M|BF)$$

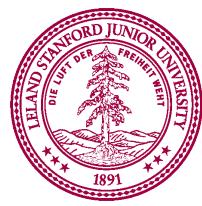
If we condition on F, the
events bacteria and malaria
become dependent



Conditional Dependence



*This is a “causal” diagram. It helps explain why things are independent



Parents With a Common Child



Say two independent parents have a common child:
When conditioned on the child they are no longer independent

And Here We Are





G₁

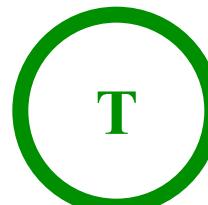
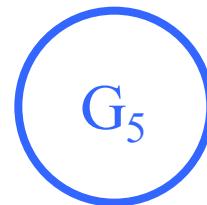
G₂

G₃

G₄

G₅

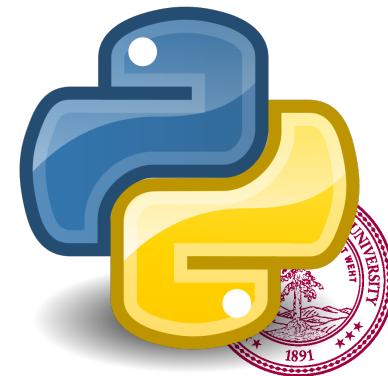
T



1 False, True, False, False, True, False
2 True, True, False, True, True, False
3 True, True, False, True, True, True
4 False, True, False, True, True, False
5 False, True, False, False, True, False
6 True, True, False, True, True, True
7 False, False, True, False, False, False
8 False, False, True, False, True, False
9 True, False, False, True, False, False
10 False, True, False, True, True, False
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25 True, False, False, False, False, True
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33 True, True, False, True, True, True
34 True, True, False, False, True, True
35 True, True, False, True, True, True
36 False, False, False, True, False, False
--

6 observations per sample

100,000
samples



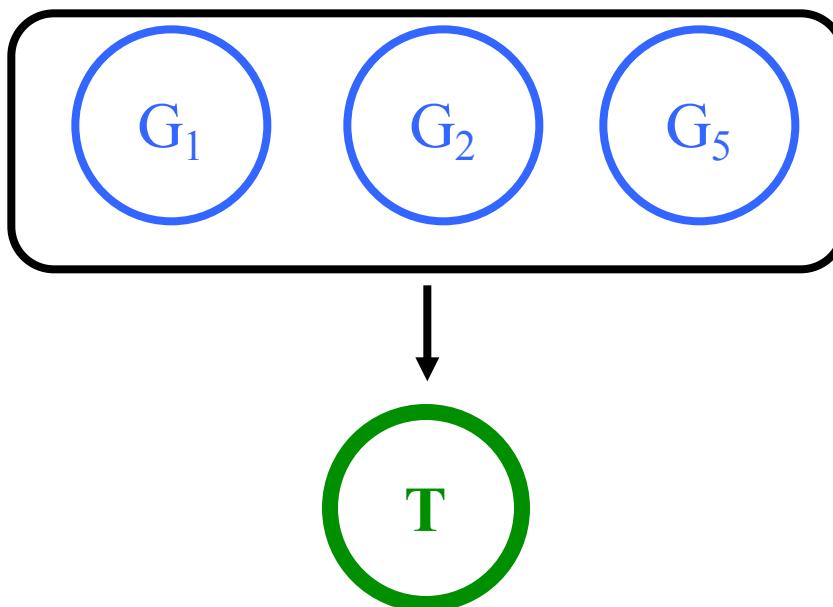
Correlation does not imply
causation

Independence implies lack of causation

Model Discovery

$p(G_1) = 0.500$
 $p(G_2) = 0.545$
 $p(G_3) = 0.299$
 $p(G_4) = 0.701$
 $p(G_5) = 0.600$
 $p(T) = 0.390$

$p(T \text{ and } G_1) = 0.291 , P(T)p(G_1) = 0.195$
 $p(T \text{ and } G_2) = 0.300 , P(T)p(G_2) = 0.213$
 $p(T \text{ and } G_3) = 0.116 , P(T)p(G_3) = 0.117$
 $p(T \text{ and } G_4) = 0.273 , P(T)p(G_4) = 0.273$
 $p(T \text{ and } G_5) = 0.309 , P(T)p(G_5) = 0.234$



Model Discovery

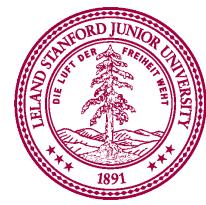
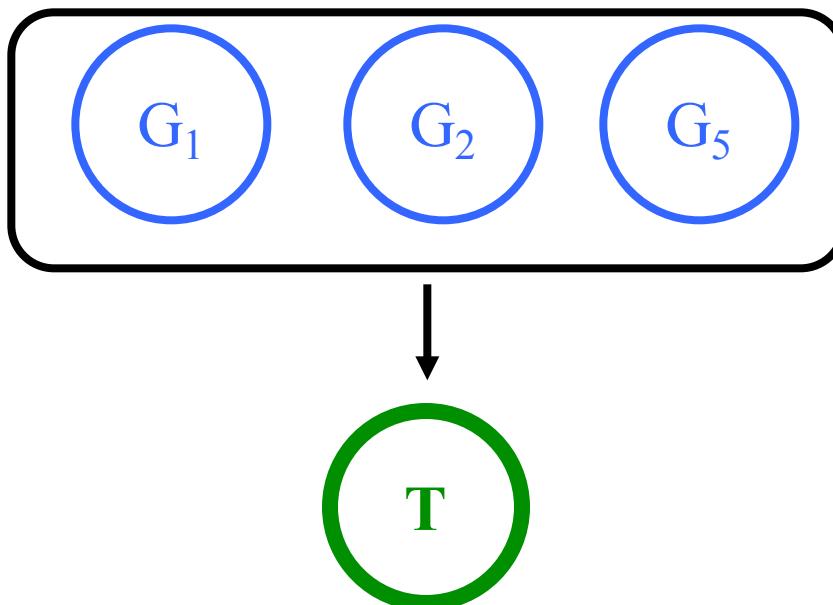
T is independent of G3

T is independent of G4

G1 is independent of G2

G1 is independent of G5

T is independent of G5 | G2



Model Discovery

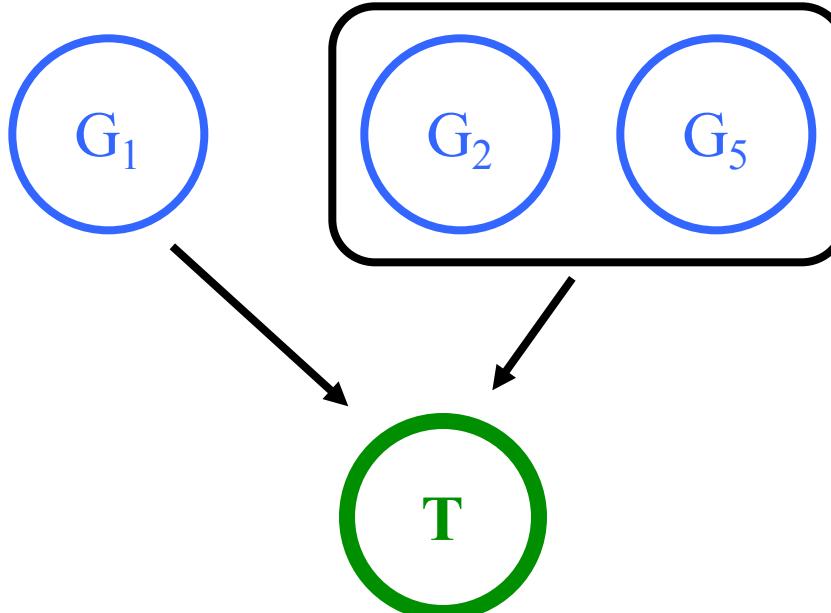
T is independent of G3

T is independent of G4

G1 is independent of G2

G1 is independent of G5

T is independent of G5 | G2



Model Discovery

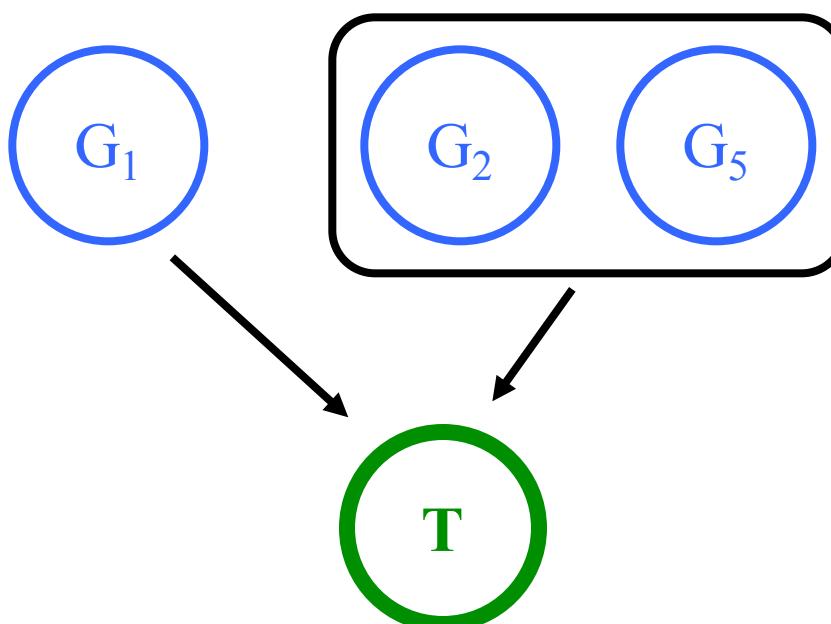
T is independent of G3

T is independent of G4

G1 is independent of G2

G1 is independent of G5

T is independent of G5 | G2



Model Discovery

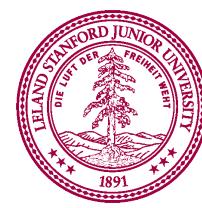
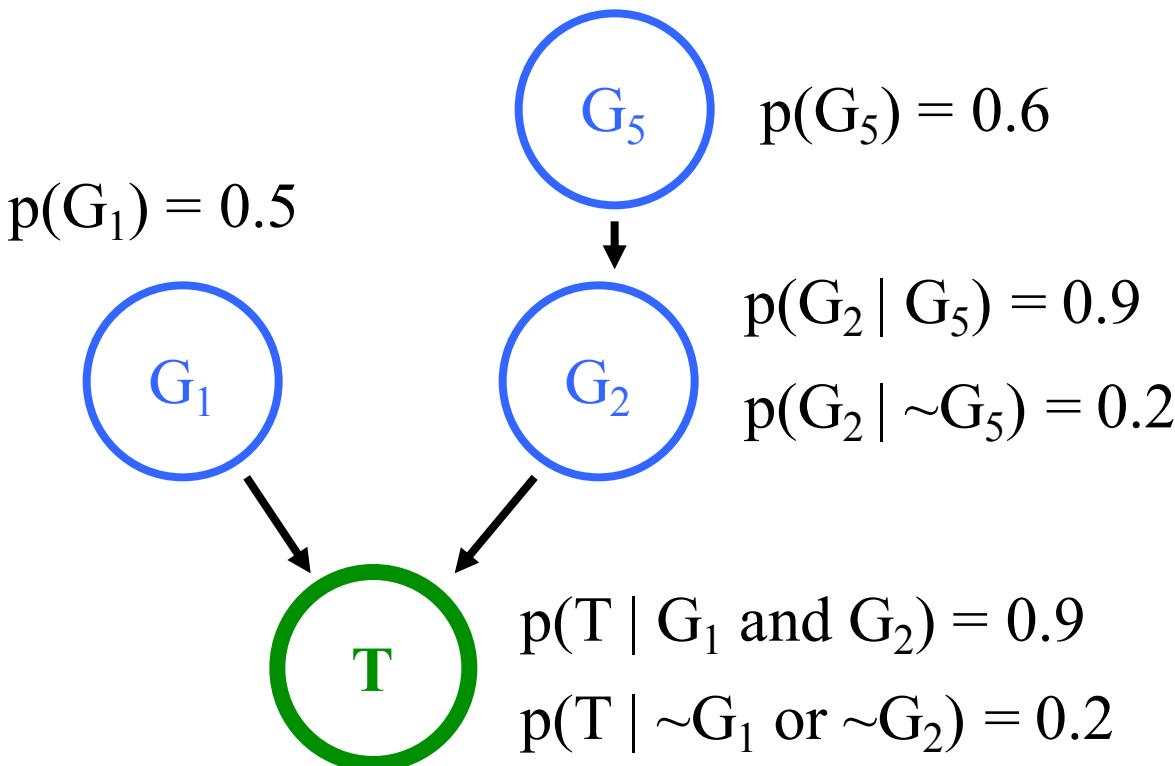
T is independent of G3

T is independent of G4

G1 is independent of G2

G1 is independent of G5

T is independent of G5 | G2



Summary

Two events A and B are called independent if:

$$P(AB) = P(A)P(B) \quad P(A|B) = P(A)$$

Otherwise, they are called dependent events

Two events A and B are
conditionally independent on C if:

$$P(AB|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$$

$$P(A|BC) = P(A|C)$$



Advanced Reading

W Chow-Liu tree - Wikipedia Chris Piech

Secure https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chow-Liu_tree

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Chow–Liu tree

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

In probability theory and statistics **Chow–Liu tree** is an efficient method for constructing a second-order product approximation of a joint probability distribution, first described in a paper by [Chow & Liu \(1968\)](#). The goals of such a decomposition, as with such [Bayesian networks](#) in general, may be either [data compression](#) or [inference](#).

Contents [hide]

- 1 The Chow–Liu representation
- 2 The Chow–Liu algorithm
- 3 Variations on Chow–Liu trees
- 4 See also
- 5 Notes
- 6 References

A first-order dependency tree representing the product on the left.

The Chow–Liu representation [edit]

The Chow–Liu method describes a joint probability distribution $P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ as a product of second-order conditional and marginal distributions. For example, the six-dimensional distribution $P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6)$ might be approximated as

$$P'(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6) = P(X_6|X_5)P(X_5|X_4)P(X_4|X_3)P(X_3|X_2)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_1)$$

where each new term in the product introduces just one new variable, and the product can be represented as a first-order dependency tree shown in the figure. The Chow–Liu algorithm finds a high-quality approximation to the true joint distribution.

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