

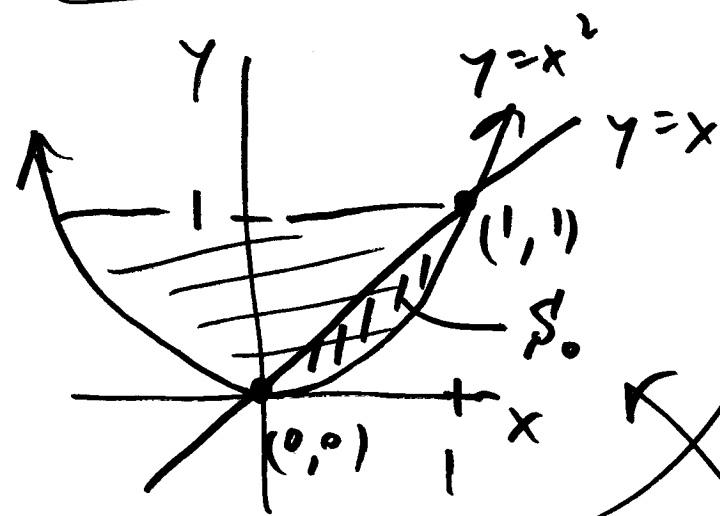
$$= \frac{c}{3} \int_0^1 2y^{5/2} dy = \frac{2c}{3} \left(\frac{y^{7/2}}{7/2} \Big|_0^1 \right) \textcircled{10}$$

$$= \frac{4}{21} c \text{ as before (} \iint dx dy \text{ and } \iint dy dx$$

always have to agree, of course).

Example, continued

let's compute
 $P(\bar{X} \geq \bar{Y})$



The relevant part
 S_0 of S where
 $X \geq Y$ is sketched
 here, so

$$P(\bar{X} \geq \bar{Y}) = \iint_{S_0} f_{\bar{X}\bar{Y}}(x,y) dy dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_{x^2}^x \frac{21}{4} x^2 y dy dx = \frac{3}{20} \dots$$

integrate
 $21 x^2 y / 4$
 $dy, y = x^2$
 $\dots x$

then
 integrate
 result
 $x=0 \dots 1$

You can have bivariate distributions (102) in which one of (X, Y) is discrete and the other is continuous. Definition

Case 3

mixed bivariate distribution

(X, Y) rv such that X is discrete

and Y is continuous \rightarrow suppose you

can find a function $f_{XY}(x, y)$ defined

on \mathbb{R}^2 such that for every pair of (non-void) subsets A and B of \mathbb{R}^n (assume interval exists)

$$P(X \in A \text{ and } Y \in B) = \int_B \sum_{x \in A} f_{XY}(x, y) dy.$$

Then f_{XY} is the joint pmf/pdf of (X, Y)

Immediate

consequence

If X takes on values $x_1, x_2, \dots,$

then
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f(x_i, y) dy = 1.$$

Example randomized controlled (clinical) 13
trial; patients in \textcircled{T} get a treatment,
patients in \textcircled{C} get a placebo. Outcome
is success (e.g., cancer goes into remission)
or failure; let $X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if patient } i \\ & \text{in } \textcircled{T} \text{ is a success} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

$\theta \leftarrow$ (unknown)
and let θ be the proportion of patients
in the population of all patients who
might get the treatment who would have
no relapse if they had been in the
study. Then our uncertainty about
 θ is continuous on $(0, 1)$ and
 (X_i, θ) has a mixed bivariate distribution.

If you model $(X | \theta)$ as Bernoulli(θ)
and $\theta \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$

the joint f/pf of (X, θ) would be

$$f_{X, \theta}(x, \theta) = \begin{cases} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{1-x} & \text{for } \begin{cases} x=0, 1 \\ 0 < \theta < 1 \end{cases} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

f/pf \nearrow

Then (e.g.) $P(X=1) = P(X=1 \text{ and } \theta \text{ is anything between } 0 \text{ and } 1)$

$$= \int_0^1 \theta^1 (1-\theta)^{1-1} d\theta = \int_0^1 \theta d\theta = \frac{1}{2}.$$

(2 May 19)

Bivariate CDFs Def. The joint CDF of two rvs X and Y is the function $F_{X,Y}(x,y)$

satisfying $F_{X,Y}(x,y) = P(X \leq x \text{ and } Y \leq y)$

for all $-\infty < x < \infty$ and $-\infty < y < \infty$

Consequences
of this
definition

① If (X, Y) has the joint CDF $F_{XY}(x, y)$,
you can obtain the

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marginal CDF $F_X(x)$ from the joint

$$\text{CDF as } F_X(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F_{XY}(x, y),$$

and similarly the marginal CDF

$$F_Y(y) \text{ is just } F_Y(y) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_{XY}(x, y)$$

② The joint pdf and joint CDF are related in a manner similar to their relationship in the univariate (one rv at a time) case:

If (X, Y) have a joint pdf $f_{XY}(x, y)$ (106)

then $F_{XY}(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x f_{XY}(v, s) dv ds$

and $f_{XY}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F_{XY}(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x} F_{XY}(x, y)$

(at every (x, y) where the partial derivatives exist).

~~Consequence of~~ (3) If (X, Y) have a discrete joint distribution with

joint pmf $f_{XY}(x, y)$, then the marginal

pmf $f_X(x)$ of X is $f_X(x) = \sum_y f_{XY}(x, y)$

(and similarly for $f_Y(y)$).

The idea behind marginal distributions⁽¹⁰⁾ is that it's harder to visualize a joint (2-dimensional) distribution than it is to visualize each of its 1-dimensional marginal distributions.

(4) If $(\underline{X}, \underline{Y})$ have a continuous joint distribution with joint pdf $f_{\underline{X}\underline{Y}}(x, y)$, the marginal pdf $f_{\underline{X}}(x)$ of \underline{X} is (marginalizing out \underline{Y})

$$f_{\underline{X}}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\underline{X}\underline{Y}}(x, y) dy \quad (\text{for all } -\infty < x < \infty)$$

and the marginal pdf $f_{\underline{Y}}(y)$ of \underline{Y}

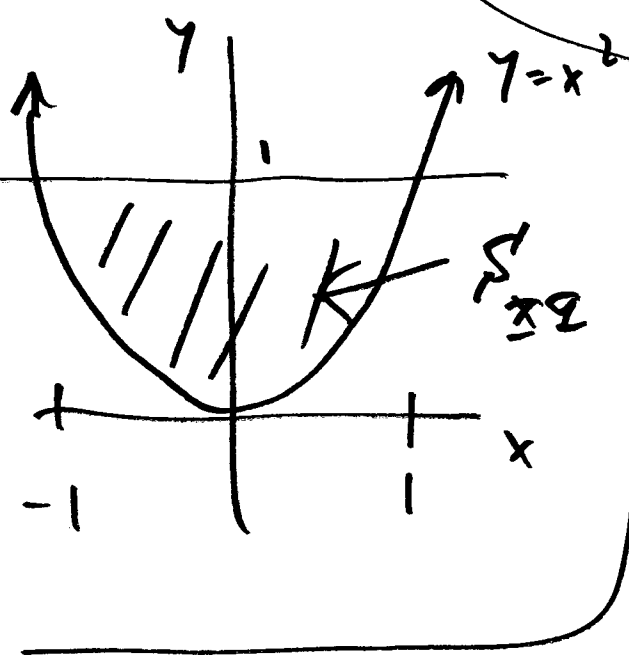
is

$$f_{\underline{Y}}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\underline{X}\underline{Y}}(x, y) dx \quad (\text{for all } -\infty < y < \infty).$$

Earlier example, continued

(X, Y) have joint pdf

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{21}{4} x^2 y, & 0 \leq x \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



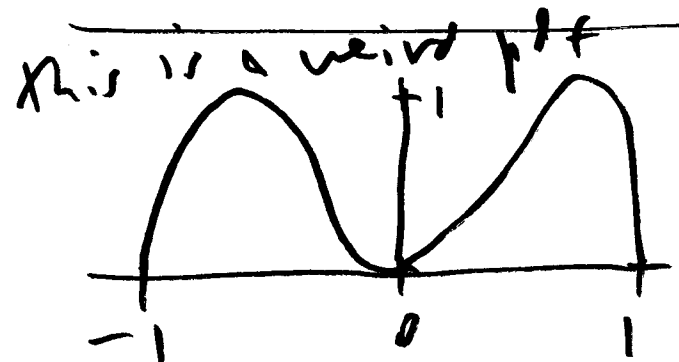
You can see from the sketch of the support S_{XY} of $f_{XY}(x, y)$ that

$-1 \leq X \leq 1$, so the support of X is

$(-1, 1)$ and its marginal pdf is

Wd integrate $21 x^2 y / 4$ for y from x^2 to 1

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, y) dy = \int_{x^2}^1 \frac{21}{4} x^2 y dy$$



This is a weird pdf (compared to be symmetric!) & bimodal

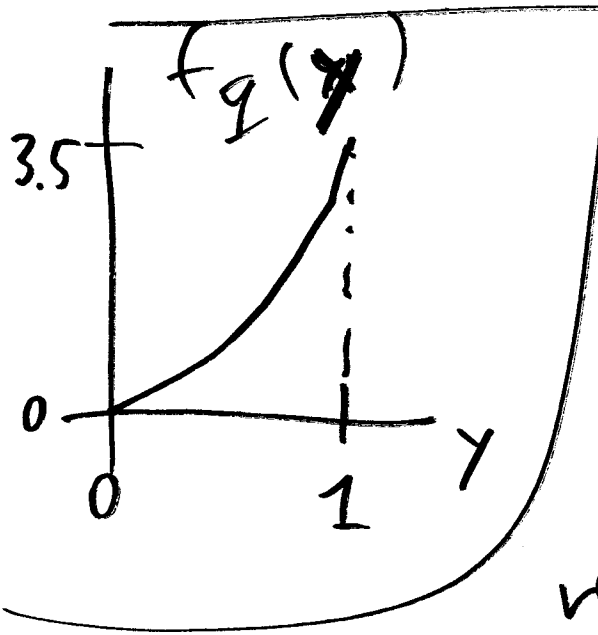
$$= \left(\frac{21}{8} x^2 (1-x^4) \right) \quad -1 < x < 1$$

0 else

Similarly, the support of $f_{\mathcal{Y}}$ is $(0, 1]$ and its marginal pdf is

$$f_{\mathcal{Y}}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}}(x, y) dx = \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} \frac{21}{4} x^2 y dx$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{7}{2} y^{\frac{5}{2}} & \text{for } 0 < y < 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



Consequences, If you have the joint dist. (4 Aug 11)

$f_{\mathcal{X}\mathcal{Y}}(x, y)$, you can reconstruct the marginals

$f_{\mathcal{X}}(x)$ and $f_{\mathcal{Y}}(y)$, but not the other

way around: if all you have is the marginals, in general they do not uniquely determine the joint.

Example (DS p. 134)

Case 1: $X = \# \text{ heads in } n \text{ tosses of fair coin 1}$
and independently

Case 2: $Y = \# \text{ heads in } n \text{ tosses of fair coin 2}$

$Z = X$

$X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, \frac{1}{2})$

so $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} (\frac{1}{2})^x (1-\frac{1}{2})^{n-x} & x=0, 1, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

and Y is also $\sim \text{Binomial}(n, \frac{1}{2})$

$\binom{n}{x} (\frac{1}{2})^n$

so $f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{y} (\frac{1}{2})^n & y=0, 1, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

Since X and Y are independent in Case 1, $f_{XY}(x, y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y)$
(as we'll see in a minute),

sp in case 1

$$f_{\underline{X}\underline{Y}}(x, y) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} \binom{n}{y} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2n} & \text{for } \textcircled{\text{III}} \\ & x=0, 1, \dots, n \\ & \text{and } y=0, 1, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

However: In case 2,

\underline{X} is Binomial $(n, \frac{1}{2})$ and so is \underline{Y} (same as in case 1), but their joint distribution (since $\underline{Y} = \underline{X}$) is

$$f_{\underline{X}\underline{Y}}(x, y) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n & \text{for } x=y=0, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

note:
JS error

There is one situation in which the marginals ^{do} uniquely determine the joint: when \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are independent.

Def. rvs X and Y are independent (non-weird)

if for every sets A and B of real numbers

$$P(X \in A \text{ and } Y \in B) = P(X \in A) \cdot P(Y \in B)$$

Consequence

① Immediately you get that if X and Y are indep.

$$F_{XY}(x, y) = P(X \leq x \text{ and } Y \leq y)$$

$$= P(X \leq x) P(Y \leq y)$$

$$= F_X(x) \cdot F_Y(y)$$

This is an iff: the converse is also true

② Differentiate this equation once with respect to x and once with respect to y

to get the result that

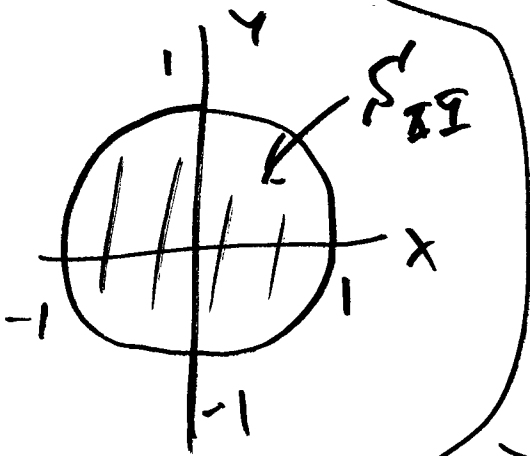
$$X, Y \text{ independent} \iff f_{XY}(x, y) = f_X(x) \cdot f_Y(y)$$

Example

Suppose that continuous rvs 113

X and Y have joint pdf

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = \begin{cases} kx^2y^2 & \text{for } 0 \leq x^2 + y^2 \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



The support S_{XY} of f_{XY} is the region

inside the unit circle.

You can

evaluate the normalizing constant by

computing $\iint_{S_{XY}} kx^2y^2 dx dy$ and setting it

equal to 1 : $1 = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} kx^2y^2 dy dx$

So $k = \frac{24}{\pi}$

Q:

Are X and

Y independent?

$$= \frac{\pi}{24}$$

A: No, they can't be: since the only 114 points (x, y) with positive density satisfy $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$, for any given value y of Y , the possible values of X depend on y , & vice versa.

Example:

Continuous rv X and Y have joint pdf

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = \begin{cases} k e^{-(x+2y)} & \text{for } x \geq 0 \text{ and } y \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Q: Are X and Y independent?

A: Yes, because (a) $e^{-(x+2y)}$ factors into $(e^{-x})(e^{-2y})$ and (b) the support S_{XY} also "factors": $(x \geq 0) \& (y \geq 0)$

Just choose (k, k_x, k_y) such that (115)

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} k e^{-(x+2y)} dx dy = 1, \quad \int_0^{\infty} k_x e^{-x} dx = 1,$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} k_y e^{-2y} dy = 1, \quad \text{and } k = k_x \cdot k_y:$$

you get $k_x = 1$, $k_y = 2$, $k = 2$. ✓

Conditional
probability
distributions

Recalling that for two events
 A and B , $P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$

(as long as $P(A) > 0$), we

should be able to extend this idea to

random variables.

Start with \mathbb{X} and

\mathbb{Y} both discrete, so that we can talk
about $P(\mathbb{Y} = y | \mathbb{X} = x)$:

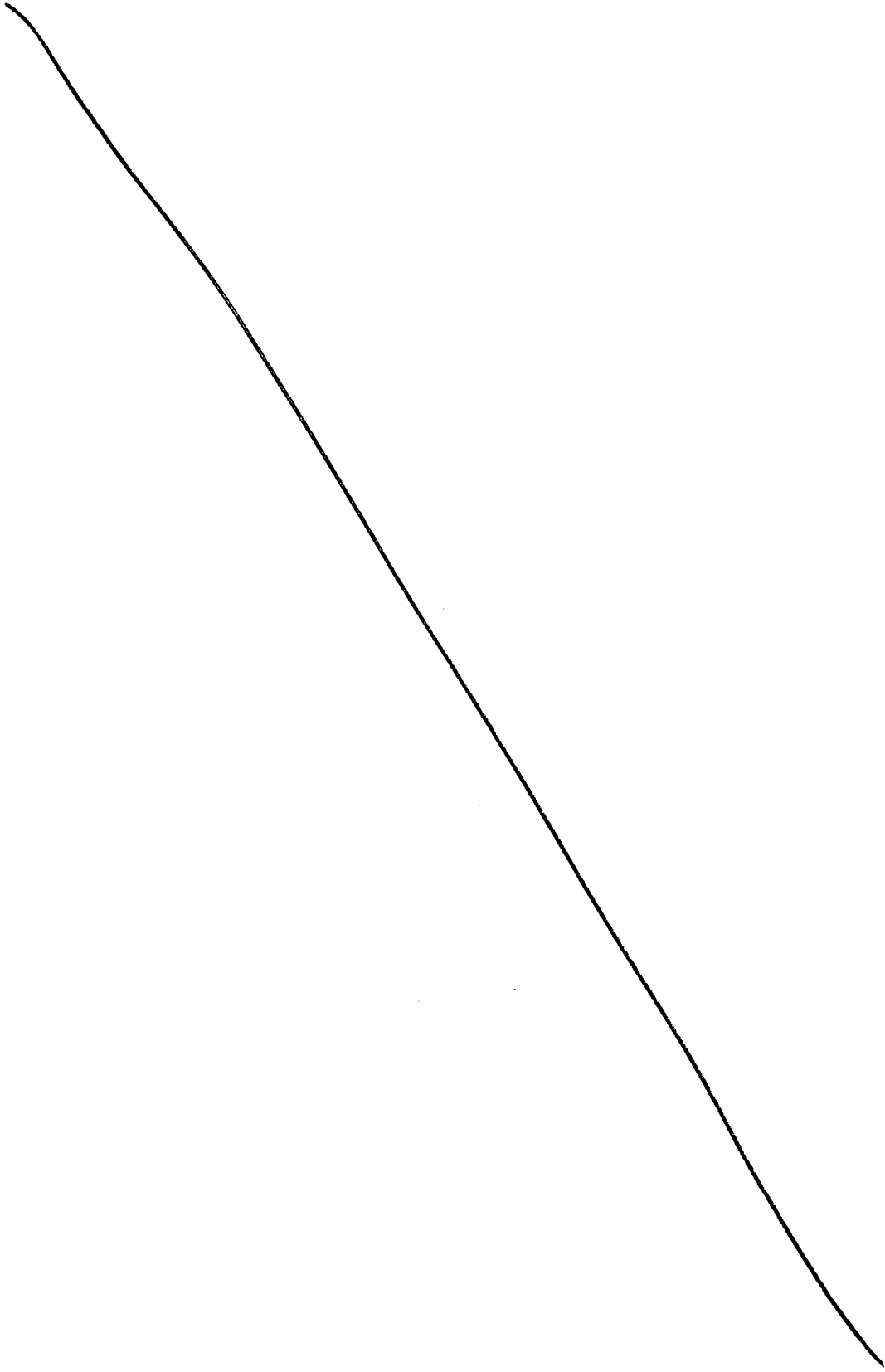
Def. If X and Y have a discrete joint distribution with joint pmf $f_{XY}(x, y)$ and X has marginal pmf $f_X(x)$, then for each x such that $f_X(x) > 0$ define

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) \triangleq \frac{f_{XY}(x, y)}{f_X(x)} \quad \text{to be } P(Y=y|X=x)$$

the conditional pmf of Y given X (12.56)

Example:
gender &
marijuana
legalization
preference
at UCLA

(see doc. com. notes
~~doc. com. notes~~ 14
~~doc. com. notes~~ Aug
~~doc. com. notes~~ 17)
& quiz 3



Now let's do the analogous thing for continuous rvs.

Def. If X and Y

have a continuous joint distribution

with joint pdf $f_{XY}(x, y)$ and X

has ^(continuous) marginal pdf $f_X(x)$, then for

each x such that $f_X(x) > 0$, define

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = \left\{ \frac{f_{XY}(x, y)}{f_X(x)} \right\} \text{ to be}$$

the conditional pdf of Y given X .

Continuing
or earlier
example

X, Y have joint pdf

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{21}{4} x^2 y & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

let's work out $f_{Y|X}(y|x)$ and (119)

$f_{X|Y}(x|y)$.

Earlier we saw that

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{21}{8} x^2 (1-x^4) & \text{for } -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \text{ and}$$

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{7}{2} y^{5/2} & \text{for } 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}.$$

Immediately, then, (for all x for which

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{f_X(x)}$$

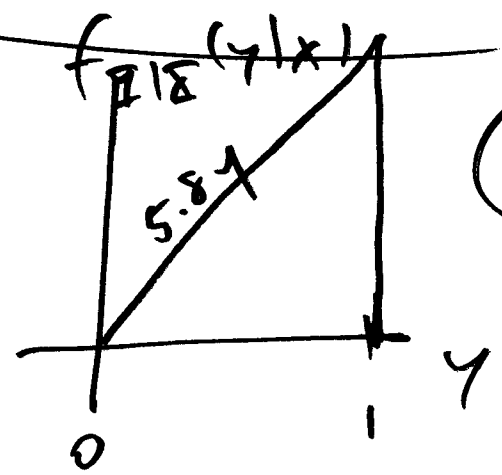
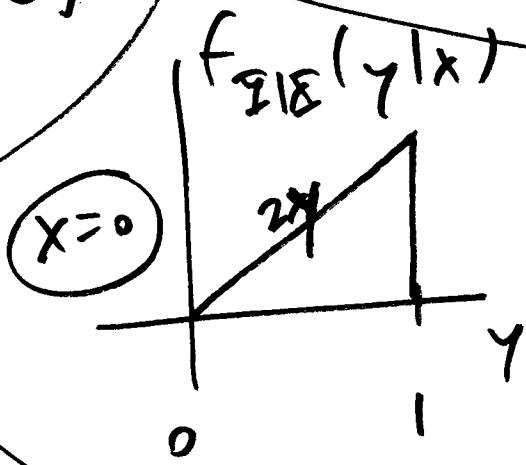
$f_X(x) > 0$,
namely
 $-1 < x < 1$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{\frac{21}{4} x^2 y}{\frac{21}{8} x^2 (1-x^4)} & \text{for } 0 \leq x^2 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

and this simplifies to

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2y}{1-x^4} & 0 \leq x^2 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

A few "slices" of this:



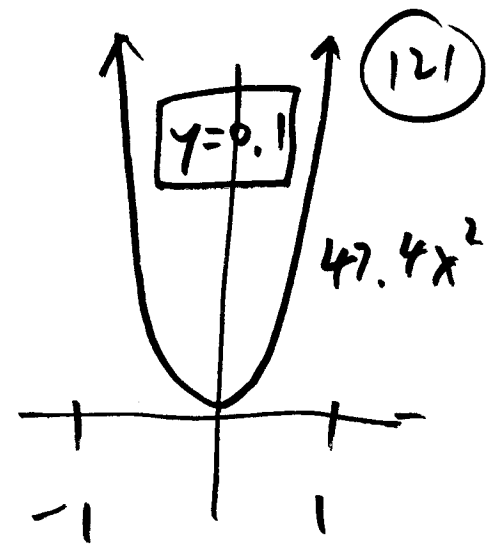
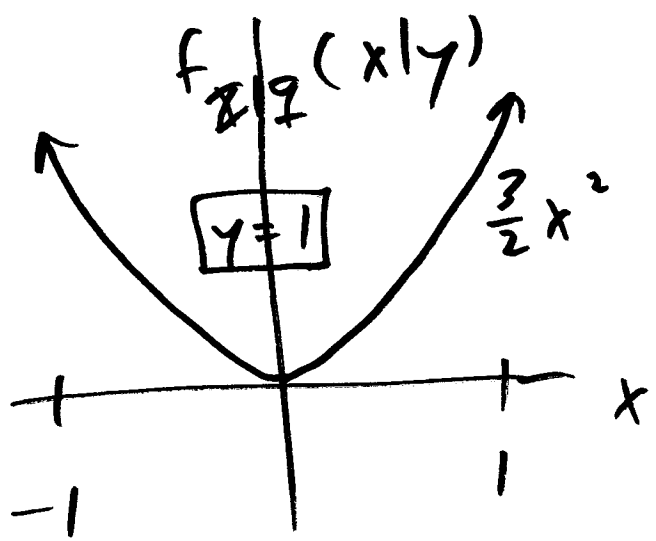
And in the other direction

for $0 \leq y \leq 1$

$$f_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{f_Y(y)}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{\frac{21}{4} x^2 y}{\frac{7}{2} y^{5/2}} = \frac{3x^2}{2y^{3/2}} = \frac{3}{2} x^2 y^{-3/2} & \text{for } 0 \leq x^2 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

A few "slices" of this



Note:

when X and Y are continuous, computing $f_{Y|X}(y|x)$ may seem to involve conditioning on the event $X=x$, which (as we saw earlier) has probability 0. But that's not what's actually going

on; strictly speaking $f_{Y|X}(y|x)$ is a limit:

$$f_{Y|X}(y|x^*) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \frac{d}{dy} P(Y \leq y | x^* - \epsilon \leq X \leq x^* + \epsilon)$$

In other words, you take a little strip

$$x^* - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq X \leq x^* + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

of x values of width ϵ around $X = x^*$, (122)

compute $P(Z \leq y \mid X \text{ is in the strip})$,

differentiate the result with respect to y ,

and let ϵ go to 0. Thus you can

think of $f_{Z|X}(y|x)$ as the conditional

pdf of Z given that X is close to x .

Constructing
a joint pdf
from marginals
& conditionals

we know that (as long
as no divisions by 0
happen)

$$f_{Z|X}(y|x) = \frac{f_{XZ}(x,y)}{f_X(x)} \quad (1)$$



$$\text{and } f_{X|Z}(x|y) = \frac{f_{XZ}(x,y)}{f_Z(y)} \quad (2)$$

Multiply equation ① by $f_X(x)$ and equation ② by $f_Y(y)$ to get (123)

$$f_{XY}(x, y) = f_X(x) f_{Y|X}(y|x) \\ = f_Y(y) f_{X|Y}(x|y)$$

So there are two ways to construct a joint pdf from a marginal pdf and a conditional pdf.

~~Case Study~~
Bayesian
statistical analysis

A machine produces nuts  and bolts , and the nut paired with a particular bolt in the manufacturing process is

supposed to fit snugly ~~on~~ the bolt; (24)

let's call a (nut, bolt) pair defective

if the correct snug fit does not happen

(eg., bolt diameter either too big or too small, or nut diameter too small or too

big).

Let $\theta =$

proportion of defective bolts if the machine were allowed to run for an indefinitely long period

Since we can only observe the machine for a finite (short) time interval, θ is unknown.

To learn about θ , we could take a random sample of (nut, bolt) pairs of size n (say) and

Implicit assumption (stationarity): θ is constant over the entire indefinite time period

count the # of defectives in the sample

(call this N)

Let $D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if (nut bolt) pair } i \text{ is defective} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

$(D_i | \theta) \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$
(i.i.d.)
Stationarity
(i=1, ..., n)

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^m D_i$$

so the ^{conditional} pmf of N is fixed & known

$$f_{N|\theta}(n | m, \theta) = \binom{m}{n} \theta^n (1-\theta)^{m-n} \quad (\text{Sampling dist.})$$

Suppose that $m = 114, N = 3$

$$\begin{cases} \binom{m}{n} \theta^n (1-\theta)^{m-n} & \text{for } n = 0, 1, \dots, m \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

A reasonable estimate of θ would be

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{N}{m} = \frac{3}{114} = 2.6\%$$

but how much uncertainty do we have about θ on the basis of this dataset?

Bayesian story θ unknown $E(0,1)$ continuous
vector $D = (D_1, \dots, D_n)$ dataset

probability AMS 131
 $p(\text{data} | \text{unknown})$ easy
 $p(N | \theta) = *$

AMS 132/206 statistics
 $p(\text{unknown} | \text{data})$
(stat. inference) harder

$$p(\theta | \underline{D}) = p(\theta | \underline{N})$$

$$p(\underline{D} | \theta) = p(\theta | \underline{D})$$

Bayes's Theorem

$$p(\theta | \underline{D}) = \frac{p(\theta) p(\underline{D} | \theta)}{p(\underline{D})}$$

$$p(\theta | N) = \frac{p(\theta) p(N | \theta)}{p(N)}$$

total info about θ
info about θ external to dataset
(normalizing constant)

because Bernoulli: dataset $D = (D_1, \dots, D_n)$
and the var N carry the same info about θ

info about θ internal to dataset
(7 May 18)

Multivariate
distributions

So far we've looked at (127)
one and then two rvs at
a time; easy to generalize to a finite
number of rv Z_1, \dots, Z_n , n positive
finite integer.

Def. The joint CDF of n rvs

Z_1, \dots, Z_n is the function $F_{Z_1, \dots, Z_n}(y_1, \dots, y_n)$

specified by $F_{Z_1, \dots, Z_n}(y_1, \dots, y_n) = P(Z_1 \leq y_1, \dots, Z_n \leq y_n)$

More compact to use vector

notation: $\underline{Z} = (Z_1, \dots, Z_n)$, $\underline{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$

$F_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{y}) = P(Z_1 \leq y_1, \dots, Z_n \leq y_n)$ \underline{Z} is

said to be a random vector taking values
in \mathbb{R}^n .

Def. n rv (Z_1, \dots, Z_n) have a discrete joint distribution if the random vector \underline{Z} can only take on a finite or countably infinite # of possible values $(z_1, \dots, z_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

The joint PF (probability ^{mass} function) of \underline{Z} is

$$f_{Z_1, \dots, Z_n}(z_1, \dots, z_n) = P(Z_1 = z_1, \dots, Z_n = z_n)$$

or equivalently $f_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z}) = P(\underline{Z} = \underline{z})$.

Example n patients in treatment group of a randomized clinical trial; $B_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if patient } i \text{ has a good outcome} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

If nothing else is known about the patients (e.g., age, disease burden at start of trial, ...) it would be reasonable to model the B_i as IID Bernoulli; (0) ^{same} success probability.

$\underline{B} = (B_1, \dots, B_n)$; $\underline{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$; \underline{B} has a (129)
 discrete joint distribution $f_{\underline{B}}(\underline{b}) = P(B_1 = b_1, \dots, B_n = b_n)$.
 (PF) \nwarrow \searrow

If θ were known you could use $f_{\underline{B}}(\underline{b})$ to predict the dataset before it arrives: by the IID assumption $P(B_1 = b_1, \dots, B_n = b_n | \theta) = P(B_1 = b_1 | \theta) \dots P(B_n = b_n | \theta)$

Recall that

$$P(B_i = b_i | \theta) = \theta^{b_i} (1-\theta)^{1-b_i} \text{ for } b_i = 0, 1 \text{ so}$$

$$f_{\underline{B}}(\underline{b}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \theta^{b_i} (1-\theta)^{1-b_i} = \theta^{\sum_{i=1}^n b_i} (1-\theta)^{n - \sum_{i=1}^n b_i} = \theta^s (1-\theta)^{n-s}$$

Def. n rv Z_1, \dots, Z_n have a continuous joint distribution if you can find a function $f_{\underline{Z}}$ on \mathbb{R}^n such that for every (non-weird) subset $G \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ with $s = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i$

continuous joint distribution if you can find a function $f_{\underline{Z}}$ on \mathbb{R}^n such that for every (non-weird) subset $G \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

$$P[(Z_1, \dots, Z_n) \in G] = \int \dots \int_G f_{Z_1, \dots, Z_n}(z_1, \dots, z_n) dz_1 \dots dz_n$$

$f_{\underline{Z}}(z)$ is the joint PDF (probability density function) of \underline{Z} .
More compactly

$$P(\underline{Z} \in G) = \int \dots \int_G f_{\underline{Z}}(z) dz$$

Consequences of this def.

① If the joint dist. of \underline{Z} is continuous,

then $f_{\underline{Z}}(z) = \frac{\partial^n}{\partial z_1 \dots \partial z_n} F_{\underline{Z}}(z)$

Mixed discrete/continuous

with n rv random vectors behave just as they do with 2 rv.

more realistically, θ would be unknown, and you can think about the

Example clinical trial (continued)

joint dist. of $(\underline{B}, \theta) = (B_1, \dots, B_n, \theta)$, (131)
 in which the B_i are discrete and $0 < \theta < 1$ is
 continuous.

Marginal distributions

If you know the joint PDF $f_{\underline{Z}}$ of \underline{Z} , you
 can work out the marginal distribution of
any subset of (Z_1, \dots, Z_n) by integrating
~~the~~ $f_{\underline{Z}}(z)$ over the elements of (Z_1, \dots, Z_n)
 that are not in the subset.

Example

$$\underline{Z} = (Z_1, Z_2, Z_3, Z_4)$$

$$f_{Z_1}(z_1) = \iiint f_{\underline{Z}}(z) dz_2 dz_3 dz_4$$

$$f_{Z_2, Z_3}(z_2, z_3) = \iint f_{\underline{Z}}(z) dz_1 dz_4 \quad \text{and so on.}$$

Similarly, you can work out a marginal
 CDF by sending the other components

to ∞ : for example

(132)

$$F_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z}) = P(\underline{Z} \leq \underline{z}) = P(Z_1 \leq z_1, Z_2 < \infty, \dots, Z_n < \infty)$$

$$= \lim_{z_2 \rightarrow \infty, \dots, z_n \rightarrow \infty} F_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z})$$

Definition

n rvs Z_1, \dots, Z_n are independent if
non-void
for any sets A_1, \dots, A_n of real numbers

$$P(Z_1 \in A_1, \dots, Z_n \in A_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(Z_i \in A_i)$$

Immediate
consequences

① Z_1, \dots, Z_n independent iff

$$F_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^n F_{Z_i}(z_i)$$

② Z_1, \dots, Z_n

independent iff $f_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{Z_i}(z_i)$

(133)

Def. Starting with a univariate P_n^M or (133)

PDF $f_{\mathcal{I}_i}(y_i)$, n rvs $(\mathcal{I}_1, \dots, \mathcal{I}_n)$ form a random sample of size n from $f_{\mathcal{I}_i}$ if the \mathcal{I}_i are

independent and all of them have marginal

P_n^M or PDF $f_{\mathcal{I}_i} \leftrightarrow$ i.e., if the \mathcal{I}_i are an

independent identically distributed (IID)

sample from $f_{\mathcal{I}_i}$

Example

deer at usrc:
some have a disease
(chronic wasting disease)

population
all deer living within usrc boundary

9 May 2019


Sample
the observed deer

disease?
↑
 $N = ?$
(≈ 800)
↓
 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

mean $\theta = ?$
(unknown)

~~IID~~

disease?
 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ \vdots \\ n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

mean $\bar{y} = \hat{\theta}$

"y-bar"

$1 = y$
 $0 = N$
 $n = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$

estimate of
"theta-hat"

Shortcut for the diagram:

$$(Y_i | \theta) \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$$

(end example for now)

Definition 134

Start with random vector

$\underline{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$; partition it into 2

subvectors $\underline{X} = (\underline{Y}, \underline{Z})$, $\underline{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_k)$
 $1 \leq k \leq n-1$

$\underline{Z} = (Z_1, \dots, Z_{n-k})$

Then for every point

\underline{z} for which $f_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z}) > 0$, the conditional

distribution of \underline{Y} given \underline{z} is

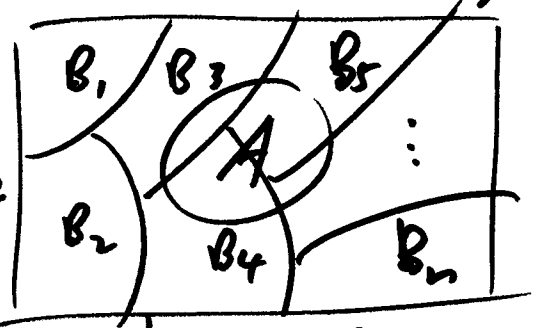
$$f_{\underline{Y} | \underline{Z}}(\underline{y} | \underline{z}) = \frac{f_{\underline{Y}, \underline{Z}}(\underline{y}, \underline{z})}{f_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z})}, \quad \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

from which

$$f_{\underline{Y}, \underline{Z}}(\underline{y}, \underline{z}) = f_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z}) f_{\underline{Y} | \underline{Z}}(\underline{y} | \underline{z}).$$

Multivariate
law of total
probability

You'll recall that if
A is an
event & you're



trying to compute $P(A)$ & it's hard, one
idea is to find another aspect of the world
B upon which A depends, such that the
events B_1, \dots, B_n form a partition;

$$\text{then } P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A \cap B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B_i) P(A|B_i)$$

This has an analogue with continuous rvs:

using the
notation
in the
definition
of conditional
distributions

$$f_{\underline{X}}(\underline{x}) = \int \dots \int_{\mathbb{R}^{n-k}} \underbrace{f_{\underline{X}}(\underline{z})}_{\text{like } B_i} \underbrace{f_{\underline{X}|\underline{Z}}(\underline{x}|\underline{z})}_{\text{like } P(A|B_i)} d\underline{z}$$

Multivariate
Bayes's
Theorem

using the same notation,

$$f_{\vec{z}|\vec{y}}(\vec{z}|\vec{y}) = f_{\vec{z}}(\vec{z}) f_{\vec{y}|\vec{z}}(\vec{y}|\vec{z})$$

(posterior info) (prior info) (likelihood info)

↑ ↓

unknown data

The usual application of this in statistics is as follows.

(normalizing constant) $f_{\vec{y}}(\vec{y})$

Def.

\vec{z} a random vector with multivariate distribution $f_{\vec{z}}(\vec{z})$; then random variables

X_1, \dots, X_n are conditionally independent

given \vec{z} if for all \vec{z} with $f_{\vec{z}}(\vec{z}) > 0$,

$$f_{\vec{X}|\vec{z}}(\vec{x}|\vec{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_{X_i|\vec{z}}(x_i|\vec{z}).$$

Earlier
example,
revisited

Remember the machine with (137)
a θ dial that can make IID
coin tosses with $P(\text{heads}) = \theta$?

Earlier

We agreed that, if θ is unknown to you,

① the results of the coin tosses I_1, I_2, \dots
are dependent, because there is useful
information in any subset of them for
predicting any other subset, but ② the
 I_i become conditionally independent

given θ , because once you know θ
there's no longer any useful information
in the I_i to predict other I_i .

this is why - in both the clinical trial, example & the (nuts & bolts) example - we

model the data values Y_i as $(Y_i | \theta) \stackrel{\text{conditionally}}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(\theta)$.

Functions of a rv

Case 1: discrete

X discrete rv with $P_X = f_X(x)$; $Y = h(X)$ for some function

h defined on {possible values of X }. Then

$$f_Y(y) = P(Y=y) = P(h(X)=y)$$

$$= \sum_{\{X: h(X)=y\}} f_X(x)$$

Example
Discrete
 $X \sim \text{Uniform}\{1, 2, \dots, 9\}$

The median of this distribution is 5;

$Y = |X - 5| = h(X)$ keeps track of how far

X is from the median.

y	X such that $X+Y=y$	$P(X=Y)$
0	5	$1/9$
1	4 or 6	$2/9$
2	3 or 7	$2/9$
3	2 or 8	$2/9$
4	1 or 9	$2/9$
		<u>1</u>

Case 2: (139)
 Continuous

X continuous
 or with PDF
 $f_X(x)$;
 $Y = h(X)$
 as before.

The CDF $F_Y(y)$ can be worked out as follows:

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(h(X) \leq y)$$

$$= \int_{\{x: h(x) \leq y\}} f_X(x) dx$$

and if Y is also continuous

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y)$$

(at every point y where F_Y is differentiable).

Example) X = rate at which customers served in a queue at the bank

Natural to model X as continuous, (also, $X \geq 0$) with CDF F_X .

Turns out that the average waiting time is $Z = \frac{1}{X} = h(X)$. You can set the PDF of Z

- in 2 steps:
 - work out CDF of Z
 - differentiate with respect to y

① (for $y > 0$)

$$F_Z(y) = P(Z \leq y) = P[h(X) \leq y]$$

$$= P\left(\frac{1}{X} \leq y\right) = P\left(X \geq \frac{1}{y}\right)$$

since X is continuous

$$= 1 - P\left(X < \frac{1}{y}\right) = 1 - P\left(X \leq \frac{1}{y}\right)$$

$$= 1 - F_X\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) \quad \text{and now}$$

$$f_Z(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Z(y) = \frac{d}{dy} \left(1 - F_X\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) \right) \quad (14)$$

$$= - f_X\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) (-y^{-2}) = \frac{f_X\left(\frac{1}{y}\right)}{y^2}$$

chain rule

Example $X \sim \text{Uniform}[-1, +1]$ (14 Aug 17) (continuous)

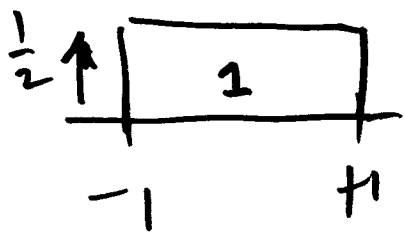
$Z = X^2$ find PDF of Z

First

note that Z 's possible values are $[0, 1]$.

for $0 < y < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} F_Z(y) &= P(Z \leq y) = P(X^2 \leq y) \\ &= P(-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y}) = \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} f_X(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x \Big|_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} \\ &= \sqrt{y} \end{aligned}$$

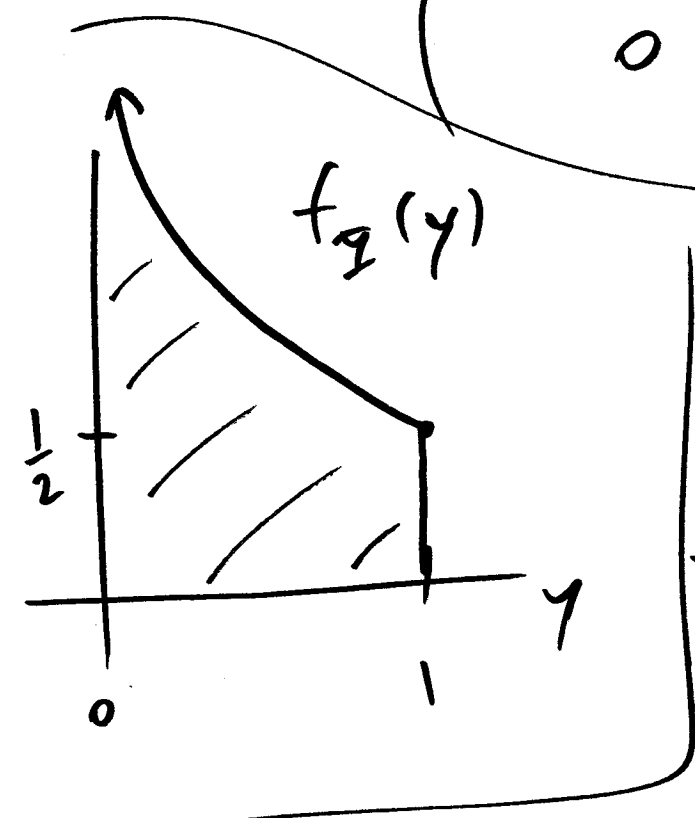


$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

② Thus

$$f_Z(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_Z(y)$$

$$\text{So } f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} & \text{for } 0 < y < 1 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



This density is unbounded at 0 (!). Easy theorem

X continuous rv with pdf $f_X(x)$,

$$Y = aX + b \quad (a \neq 0) \quad \text{linear transformation}$$

$$\rightarrow f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{|a|} f_X\left(\frac{y-b}{a}\right)$$

Interesting and useful fact

X continuous with CDF $F_X(x)$, what's the distribution of $Y = F_X(X)$?

$$F_{\mathcal{Z}}(y) = P(\mathcal{Z} \leq y) = P\left[F_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{X}) \leq y\right] \quad (143)$$

$$\boxed{\text{for } 0 < y < 1} = P\left[\mathcal{X} \leq F_{\mathcal{X}}^{-1}(y)\right] = F_{\mathcal{X}}\left[F_{\mathcal{X}}^{-1}(y)\right] = y$$

But the dist. with $F_{\mathcal{Z}}(y) = y$ for $0 < y < 1$ is the Uniform $(0, 1)$ distribution (!)

Probability
Integral
Transform

\mathcal{X} continuous, CDF, $\mathcal{Z} = F_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{X})$ with $F_{\mathcal{X}}$

$\rightarrow \mathcal{Z} \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$
or $[0, 1]$

Why is
this
useful?

Converse is also true:

$\mathcal{Z} \sim \text{Uniform}[0, 1]$, $F_{\mathcal{X}}$

continuous CDF with quantile function

$$F_{\mathcal{X}}^{-1} \rightarrow \mathcal{X} = F_{\mathcal{X}}^{-1}(\mathcal{Z}) \sim F_{\mathcal{X}}$$

This is the practical basis for the generation of many forms of pseudo-random numbers:

It turns out to be easy to generate pseudo-uniform (0,1) values; therefore if you want to generate pseudo-random X s from a distribution with CDF F_X and F_X^{-1} is easy & fast to compute,

Algorithm

$u_1, \dots, u_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{uniform}(0,1)$

(Quiz 6)

$F_X^{-1}(u_1), \dots, F_X^{-1}(u_n) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F_X$

Earlier Example revisited

If $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$, its

PDF is $f_X(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{for } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

Earlier we saw that $F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-\lambda x} & x > 0 \end{cases}$

$$\text{and } F_X^{-1}(p) = \frac{-\log(1-p)}{\lambda}$$

($0 < p < 1$)
(R lemma)

Now (145)
you can see immediately

that if $U \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$ so is $(1-U)$,
so to generate IID Exponential^(λ) rv you
just compute $-\frac{1}{\lambda} \log U_i$, $U_i \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$
(rexp) R

why do
people
want/need
pseudo-
random
numbers?

Some stochastic (probabilistic)
models of real-world phenomena
are too complicated to fully
characterize mathematically
in closed form; one highly

useful method in such situations is
(computer-based)
to conduct a simulation study driven
by pseudo-random numbers.

Bedrock method
in data science
today.

The method used above for working out (146)
the distribution of $\mathbb{I} = \frac{1}{X}$ can be
generalized, or follows. Some
functions $h(\mathbb{I})$

are nice, in that they are both differentiable

and one-to-one (invertible)

Calculus
reminder

← real-valued

If $h(x)$ is differentiable and one-to-one (1-1)

for x in the open interval (a, b) , then

h is either monotonically increasing or

decreasing, and h is also continuous,

so it transforms the interval (a, b) to

another open interval $h[(a, b)] = (\alpha, \beta)$

called the image of (a, b) under h .

Since h is invertible, it makes sense

to talk about $y = h(x) \Leftrightarrow x = h^{-1}(y)$. (147)

Theorem: X continuous rv with PDF $f_X(x)$

and for which $P(a < X < b) = 1$; $Y = h(X)$,
could be infinite

with h differentiable and 1-1 for $a < x < b$;

(α, β) image of (a, b) under h ; h^{-1} inverse

function of $h(x)$ for $\alpha < y < \beta$ \rightarrow PDF
(chain rule)

of Y is $f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} f_X[h^{-1}(y)] \left| \frac{dh^{-1}(y)}{dy} \right| & \text{for } \alpha < y < \beta \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

Easy short-hand

way to remember this: "multiply" both sides

$$y = h(x)$$

$$x = h^{-1}(y)$$

$$by |dy| \text{ to get } f_Y(y) |dy| =$$

$$f_X(x) |dx|$$

$$Y = h(X) = \frac{1}{X} : \text{average waiting}$$

time in the bank queue

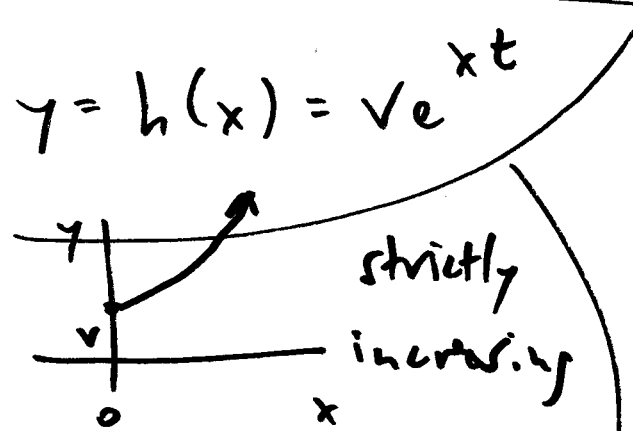
Earlier example, revisited

Here $y = h(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ so $x = h^{-1}(y) = \frac{1}{y}$

and $\frac{d}{dy} \frac{1}{y} = -\frac{1}{y^2}$; thus $f_{\Sigma}(y) = \frac{f_{\Sigma}(\frac{1}{y})}{y^2}$ as before

Example / At time 0, v organisms introduced into large tank of water with nutrients; Σ = rate of growth. Under one model that's realistic in some circumstances, at time t the predicted population size would be $\Sigma = v e^{\Sigma t}$ (exponential growth).

Σ unknown, modeled with $f_{\Sigma}(x) = \begin{cases} 3(1-x)^2 & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0 & \text{else!} \end{cases}$



$x=0 \rightarrow y=v$
 $x=1 \rightarrow y = v e^t$ (image)

$$\frac{z}{v} = e^{xt} \rightarrow \log\left(\frac{z}{v}\right) = xt \rightarrow x = h^{-1}(y) = \frac{\log(z/v)}{t} \quad (49)$$

$$\frac{d}{dy} \frac{1}{t} \log\left(\frac{z}{v}\right) = \frac{1}{t} \left(\frac{z}{v}\right)^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{ty} \quad \text{Thus}$$

$$f_{\mathbb{I}}(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{3 \left[1 - \frac{1}{t} \log\left(\frac{z}{v}\right)\right]^2}{ty} & v < y < ve^t \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

(9 May 19)

Functions
of 2 or
more rvs

Case 1:
discrete

n rvs X_1, \dots, X_n
discrete joint dist.

with joint $\prod_{i=1}^n f_{X_i}(x_i)$

$$\text{define } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Y_1 = h_1(X_1, \dots, X_n) \\ \vdots \\ Y_m = h_m(X_1, \dots, X_n) \end{array} \right\} \quad (m \geq 1)$$

↑
real-valued

$(h_j : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$

Given values $\underline{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_m)$ of $(\underline{Y}_1, \dots, \underline{Y}_m)$ (150)

let A be the set of points (x_1, \dots, x_n)

such that
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} y_1 = h_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ y_m = h_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{array} \right\} .$$
 Then

the joint PDF $f_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z})$ is given by

$$f_{\underline{Z}}(\underline{z}) = \sum_{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in A} f_{\underline{X}}(\underline{x})$$

Case 2: n rvs $\underline{X}_1, \dots, \underline{X}_n$, continuous
 continuous, joint dist with joint PDF $f_{\underline{X}}(\underline{x})$
 ($n=1$)

$\underline{Y} = h(\underline{X})$
 univariate (real) For each y define
 $A_y = \{ \underline{x} : h(\underline{x}) = y \}$

Then PDF of \underline{Y} is $f_{\underline{Y}}(y) = \int_{A_y} f_{\underline{X}}(\underline{x}) d\underline{x}$