

Conditional probability and independence

Given two events E, A :

Conditional probability of the E given A :

$$P(E|A) = P(E \cap A)/P(A),$$

provided $P(A) > 0$.

E is independent of A iff $P(E|A) = P(E)$.

For more than two events, say E, A, B :

- if $P(E|A) = P(E)$ we can **only** say A is independent of E
- to have **complete independence** of E, A, B we need to have

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} P(E \cap A) = P(E)P(A), \quad P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B), \\ P(E \cap B) = P(E)P(B) \\ P(E \cap A \cap B) = P(E)P(A)P(B). \end{array} \right.$$

Random variables

The triple $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, P)$ is called probability space and is all we need to compute the probability of any event.

However,

- \mathcal{S} is an abstract set, i.e. it contains objects of any kind (faces of a die, faces of a coin, etc.)
- in statistics we deal with data, i.e. numbers s.t. 1.2 kW/h, 10 defective items

Thus, the question: How do we conjugate sample spaces and events to data?



Answer: by the concept of a random variable (r.v.).

Random variables (cont'd)

Random variable: mapping $X : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that assigns a real number $X(s)$ to s , for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$.

Example 5 (Single die problem)

When we say “the probability of an odd number equals $1/2$ ”, we are using the r.v.

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s = \square \cdot \\ 2 & \text{if } s = \square \cdot \cdot \\ \vdots & \\ 6 & \text{if } s = \begin{smallmatrix} \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot \end{smallmatrix} \end{cases}$$

Probability of a random variable

In a triple $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, P)$, to each $s \in \mathcal{S}$ there is associated a probability, through P .

Thus, there is a probability associated to each $X(s)$ and, if we have a subset B of reals, using P we can compute the **probability that X takes values in B** .

Formally, let $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ then

$$P(X \in B) = P(\{s : X(s) \in B\}).$$

X is continuous if $P(X = x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

X is discrete if $P(X = x) > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ in the range of X .⁶

⁶If X is continuous, its range is uncountable; if X is discrete, its range is countable; X can also be mixed, discrete and continuous.

The probability (density) function

Let $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$, be the range of X

Probability (density) function (pdf) of X : $p(x) = P(X = x), \forall x \in \mathcal{X}$.

Example 6 (Singe die problem)

Let X , s.t. $X = -1$ if the die shows less than three dots, $X = 0$ if it shows three dots and $X = 1$ if it shows more than three dots. We have

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = -1) &= P(\{s : X(s) = -1\}) = P(\{\square, \square\}) \\ &= P(\{\square\}) + P(\{\square\}) = 1/3, \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and the pdf of } X \text{ is } p(x) = \begin{cases} 1/3 & \text{if } x = -1 & \{1, 2\} \\ 1/6 & \text{if } x = 0 & \{3\} \\ 1/2 & \text{if } x = 1 & \{4, 5, 6\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

The distribution function

(Cumulative) distribution function (df) of X : $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$,

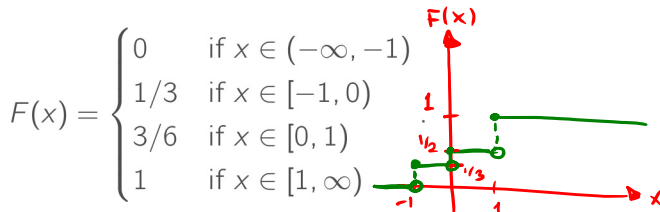
$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.⁷

$\hookrightarrow F(+\infty) = 1$
 $\hookrightarrow \text{Always}$
 $F(-\infty) = 0$

Example 7 (Example 6 cont'd)

Considering that

$$F(-1) = P(X \leq -1) = 1/3, \quad F(0) = P(X \leq 0) = 3/6, \quad \text{then}$$



Thus F is right-continuous and has jumps at $-1, 0, 1$ and is continuous everywhere.

⁷Yes, F is defined for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Continuous r.v.

For a continuous r.v. if there exists a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, s.t.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) dx = 1,$$

and for every $a \leq b$,

$$P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

then f is the pdf of X (probability density function)

The df of X : $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

pdf and df are related:

$$\underline{f(x) = \partial F(x) / \partial x}, \text{ at all } \underline{\text{continuity points of } F}.$$

Properties of a df

Given a function F how can we be sure it is a df?

The df has the following properties:

- (i) F is nondecreasing;
- (ii) F is continuous from the right; (used for the example)
- (iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$;
- (iv) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$.

Some further properties:

- (a) $P(X = x) = F(x) - F(x^-)$, where $F(x^-) = \lim_{y \rightarrow x^-} F(y)$ since it's not necessarily continuous from the left
- (b) $P(x < X \leq y) = F(y) - F(x)$
- (c) $P(X > x) = 1 - F(x)$;
- (d) $F(b) - F(a) = P(a < X < b) = P(a < X \leq b) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a \leq X \leq b)$, for a continuous X .

The quantile function

For a rv X with df F , the quantile function or inverse df is defined by

$$\underline{Q(p) = \inf\{x : F(x) \geq p\}}, \quad \forall p \in (0, 1).$$

$Q(1/4)$ is called the first quartile,
 $Q(1/2)$ is the second quartile or the median,
 $Q(3/4)$ is third quartile. In general

smallest x that has $F(x) \geq p$

$$\xi_p = Q(p), \quad \text{for any } p \in (0, 1),$$

is called the p th quantile of X .⁸

⁸We may assign $Q(0) = -\infty$ and $Q(1) = \infty$.

Notable rv's

- Bernoulli: $f(x) = \theta^x(1 - \theta)^{1-x}$, $x = 0, 1$, $\theta \in [0, 1]$, notation: $\text{Ber}(p)$;
- Binomial: $f(x) = \binom{n}{x}\theta^x(1 - \theta)^{n-x}$, $x = 0, 1, \dots, n$, $\theta \in [0, 1]$, notation: $\text{Bin}(n, p)$;
- Negative Binomial: $f(x) = \binom{x+r-1}{x}\theta^r(1 - \theta)^x$, $x, r \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, notation: $\text{NegBin}(r, p)$; If $r = 1$ it's called geometrical dist.
- Poisson: $f(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!}$, $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, $\lambda > 0$, notation $\text{Poi}(\lambda)$;
- Gaussian: $f(x) = e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} / (\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma)$, $x, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma^2 > 0$, notation: $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$;
- Exponential: $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$, $y \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, $\lambda > 0$, notation: $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$;
- Gamma: $f(x) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x}$, $y \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, $\alpha > 0, \lambda > 0$, notation: $\text{Ga}(\alpha, \lambda)$;
- Weibull: $f(x) = \frac{\alpha}{\beta} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x^\alpha}{\beta}}$, $y \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$, notation: $\text{Wei}(\alpha, \beta)$;
- Uniform: $f(x) = (b - a)^{-1} \mathbf{1}_{[a,b]}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$ notation: $\text{Unif}(a, b)$;

(NOT FOR MODELLING)

We write $X \sim F$ to say that ' X is distributed as F '.

- Chi-squared distribution: If $Z_i \sim N(0, 1)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, and Z_i 's are independent⁹ then

$$Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_n^2 \sim \chi_n^2,$$

n is called degrees of freedom;

- t distribution: if $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ and $U \sim \chi_\nu^2$, with Z, U independent, then

$$Z/\sqrt{U/\nu} \sim t_\nu,$$

, ν is called degrees of freedom.

- F distribution: if $U_1 \sim \chi_{n_1}^2$ and $U_2 \sim \chi_{n_2}^2$, with U_1, U_2 independent, then

$$(U_1/n_1)/(U_2/n_2) \sim F_{n_1, n_2},$$

and n_1, n_2 are the numerator and denominator degrees of freedom, resp.

⁹More on independence of rv's later

Moments

For $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the expectation of $g(X)$ is

$$E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx,$$

provided $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(x)|f(x)dx$ exists and is finite.

Examples

- $g(x) = x$: $E(X) = \mu_X$ the expectation of X ;
- $g(x) = (x - c)^n$, $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$: n th moment of X about c

$$E[(X - c)^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - c)^n f(x)dx,$$

provided the integral exists;

- $g(x) = (x - E(X))^n$: n th central moment; for $n = 2$, we get the variance of X , denoted $\text{var}(X) = \sigma_X^2$.

Transformation of a r.v.

Applying a function g to a r.v. X , leads to another r.v. $Y = g(X)$.

If X is discrete, the Y is discrete and

$$f_Y(y) = P(Y = y) = P(\{s : g(X(s)) = y\}).$$

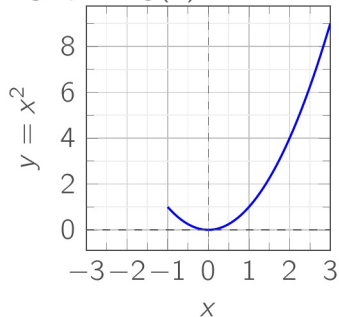
If X is continuous the procedure is more difficult, we have to:

- find $B_y = \{x : g(x) \leq y\}$, for each y in the range of Y ;
- find the df
$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(g(X) \leq y) = P(B_y) = \int_{B_y} f(x)dx;$$
- take the derivative, i.e. $f_Y(y) = F'_Y(y)$.

Transformation of a rv

Example 11

Let $X \sim \text{Unif}(-1, 3)$, we compute the pdf of $Y = X^2$. Consider the graph of $g(x) = x^2$.



Now $Y \in [0, 9]$, for $x \in [-1, 1]$, $g(x) \in [0, 1]$, whereas for $x > 1$ $g(x)$ is bijective. We have two cases:

- (1) $0 \leq y \leq 1$: $B_y = (-\sqrt{y}, \sqrt{y})$ and
$$F_Y(y) = (1/4) \int_{B_y} \mathbf{1}_{[-1,3]} dx = \sqrt{y}/2;$$
- (2) $y > 1$: $B_y = (-1, \sqrt{y})$,
$$F_Y(y) = (\sqrt{y} + 1)/4.$$

The pdf can be found by differentiating F_Y , taking care of the two cases.

Example 12 (Example 11 cont'd)

Let's compute $E(Y)$ and $\text{var} Y$. We have that

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 1/(4\sqrt{y}) & \text{if } 0 < y \leq 1 \\ 1/(8\sqrt{y}) & \text{if } 1 < y \leq 9. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y) &= \int_0^9 y f_Y(y) dy = \int_0^1 y/(4\sqrt{y}) dy + \int_1^9 y/(8\sqrt{y}) dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \sqrt{y}/4 dy + \int_1^9 \sqrt{y}/8 dy = 7/3. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y^2) &= \int_0^9 y^2 f_Y(y) dy = \int_0^1 y^2/(4\sqrt{y}) dy + \int_1^9 y^2/(8\sqrt{y}) dy \\ &= \int_0^1 y^{3/2}/4 dy + \int_1^9 y^{3/2}/8 dy = 61/5. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\text{var}(Y) = E(Y^2) - E(Y)^2 = 61/5 - 49/9 = 794/45$.

Inverse transform

Suppose Y is a continuous rv with distribution F_Y .

It can be shown that F_Y is continuous and bijective with inverse $F^{-1} = Q$.

Furthermore, if $X = \text{Unif}(0, 1)$, then $Q(X) \sim F_Y$.

This fact is useful when we want to draw random values from F_Y .
Indeed, if we

(a) draw a number p uniformly in $(0,1)$

(b) set $y = Q(p)$,

y is a random value from F_Y . This is known as the **inverse transform sampling** method.