Statistics for Data Science

Lecture 7

Multiple Random Variables

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Content

Multiple Random Variables

Joint and Marginal Distributions

Conditional Distributions and Independence

Covariance and Correlation

Multiple Random Variables

 Until now, we've been (mostly) dealing with one random variable at a time.

- This is known as a 'univariate' model.
- In this lecture we will consider the case where we have more than one random variable.
 - This is known as a 'multivariate' model.

Multiple Random Variables

- When considering a experimental situation it is not unusual to observe more than one random variable simultaneously.
 - For example, if recording heights, we might also be recording weight, temperature, blood pressure.
- Initially we'll deal with the case of just two random variables.
 - This is known as 'bivariate' modelling.

Definition

• Recall:

• In the univariate case, a random variable was defined to be a function of a sample space S into real numbers.

• Multivariate case:

 An n-dimensional random vector is a function from a sample space S into Rⁿ, n-dimensional Euclidean space.

2 Dimensional Example

- Consider a point $(x,y) \in R^2$
 - Where R² denotes the plane.
- We can defined a two-dimensional random vector:
 - (X, Y)

Joint PMF

- Let (X,Y) be a discrete bivariate random vector.
- The function f(x,y) from R^2 into R is defined by:
 - f(x,y) = P(X=y, Y=y)
- Is known as the joint probability mass function.
 - The joint pmf of (X,Y) completely defines the probability distribution of the random vector (X,Y).

Hang on...

• Have n't we see this notation before?

• Yes, in the very first lecture.

• I introduced the joint, marginal and conditional probability.

But without any detailed explanation/proof.

Joint Probability

 The *joint* probability is the chance that a collection of events occur together

• We write

$$p(x = X, y = Y, z = Z)$$

Or simply

Exchangeability

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x, z, y) = p(y, z, x) = \cdots$$

Marginal Probability

 The marginal probability is the chance of observing a random variable in a particular state when two (or more) events are observed simultaneously

• Given variables x and y, the joint is p(x, y) the marginal is:

$$p(x) = \sum_{y} p(x, y)$$

Conditional Probability

• The *conditional* probability is the chance of observing an event y given that an event x has occurred

• This is written p(y|x), and can be calculated:

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)}$$

The generic version of selling newspapers

	<i>Y</i> ₁	<i>Y</i> ₂	 	Y_n	Marginal Probabilities of X
X_1	p_{11}	p_{12}	 	$p_{_{1n}}$	P_1
X_2	p_{21}	p_{22}	 	p_{2n}	P_2
X_{m}	p_{m1}	p_{m2}	 	$p_{\scriptscriptstyle mn}$	P_m
Marginal Probabilities of Y	P_1'	P_2'	 	P'_n	1

Expectation

 We can compute multivariate expectation values in just the same way as we computed them for the univariate case.

• If g(x,y) is a real-valued function defined for all possible values of (x,y) of the discrete random vector (X,Y) then g(X,Y) is itself a random variable and its expected value is...

$$Eg(X,Y) = \sum_{(x,y)\in R^2} g(x,y)f(x,y)$$

Without the sample space.

- Any non-negative function from R² into R that:
 - Is non-zero for at most a countable number of (x,y) pairs
 - And sums to 1.
 - Is the joint pmf for some bivariate discrete random vector (X,Y).

• By defining f(x,y) we can define a probability model for (X,Y) without ever working with the fundamental sample space S.

Theorem

• Let (X,Y) be a discrete bivariate random vector with joint pmf $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$

Then the marginal pmfs of X and Y

•
$$f_X(x) = P(X = x)$$
 and $f_Y(y) = P(Y = y)$

Are given by:

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{y \in R} f_{X,Y}(x, y)$$
 $f_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in R} f_{X,Y}(x, y)$

Proof - for $f_X(x)$

• For any $x \in R$, let $Ax = \{(x,y) : -\infty < y < \infty\}$

• That is A_x is the line in the plane with first coordinates equal to x.

• Then, for any $x \in R$

Proof

$$f_X(x) = P(X = x)$$

$$= P(X = x, -\infty < Y < \infty)$$

$$= P((X, Y) \in A_x)$$

$$= \sum_{(x,y)\in A_x} f_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

$$= \sum_{y\in R} f_{X,Y}(x, y)$$

Conditional Distributions

• Often, when two random variables are observed, their values a related.

- For example,
 - If we were sampling the height of people and their weight,
 - We would expect taller people to weight more.
- i.e. We'd expect, given two random variables X, Y the value of X would tell us something about the value of Y, even if not its exact value.

Conditional Probabilities

• Conditional probabilities regarding Y given knowledge of the value of X can be computed using the joint distribution.

 However, sometimes, knowledge of X will give us no information about Y.

Definition

- Let (X,Y) be a discrete bivariate random vector with
 - Joint pmf f(x,y)
 - And marginal $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$.

- For any x such that
 - $P(X=x) = f_X(x) > 0$
 - The conditional pmf of Y given X=x
 - Is the function of y denoted by f(y|x) and defined by

$$f(y|x) = P(Y = y|X = x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)}$$

- As we've called f(y|x) a pmf, we should verify that this function of y does indeed define a pmf of a random variable.
 - Firstly, $f(y|x) \ge 0$ for every y since $f(y,x) \ge 0$ and $f_x(x) \ge 0$.

• Secondly,
$$\sum_{y} f(y | x) = \frac{\sum_{y} f(x, y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{f_X(x)}{f_X(x)} = 1$$

• Thus, f(y|x) is indeed a pmf and can be used in the usual way to compute probabilities involving Y given the knowledge of X =x occurred.

Independence

• Let X and Y be independent random variables, then:

- For any A \subset R and B \subset R, P(X \in A, Y \in B) = P(X \in A) P(Y \in B)
 - That is the events $P(X \in A)$ and $P(Y \in B)$ are independent
- Let g(x) be a function only of x and h(y) be a function only of y, then,
 - E(g(X)h(Y)) = (Eg(X))(Eh(Y))

Proof

$$E(g(X)g(Y)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)h(y)f(x,y)dxdy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f_X(x)\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y)f_Y(y)dxdy$$

$$= \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f_X(x)dx\right)\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y)f_Y(y)dy\right)$$

$$= (Eg(X))(Eh(Y))$$

Independence

- We said mutually exclusive events add
- If they can occur together but are unrelated, we call this statistically independent, and say that

$$p(x|y) = p(x)$$

- e.g. probability of getting 6 on two dice: getting a 6 on one die does not affect the probability of getting a 6 on the other
- We can decompose the joint as

$$p(x,y) = p(x|y)p(y)$$

from the definition of the conditional probability

Therefore statistically independent probabilities multiply:

$$p(x,y) = p(x)p(y)$$

Conditional Independence

• More subtly, it is possible for x and y to be conditionally independent if

$$p(x|y,z) = p(x|z)$$

- This means if we know z, knowing y gives no new information about χ
- But it is still possible that $p(x|y) \neq p(x)$
- So x and y both depend on z

Example

- Alice (A) and Bob (B) both flip a coin which may be biased
- It is *not true* that these are statistically independent

$$p(A = H|B = H) \neq p(A = H)$$

because if Bob flips a head on a biased coin, we would increase the probability of Alice flipping a head

• However if we denote Z as the event "the coin is biased towards heads", then we can write

$$p(A = H|B = H, Z) = p(A = H|Z)$$

- We can remove Bob from the equation because we know the coin is biased
- An example of "correlation does not imply causation"

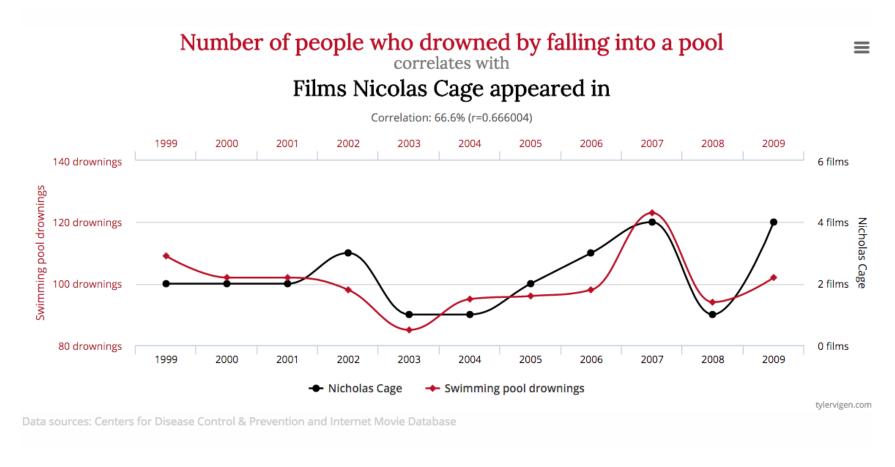
Covariance and Correlation

• We've considered the presence or absence of a relationship between two random variables.

• If there is a relationship, it may be strong or weak.

• It would be useful to have a way to quantify the strength of the relationship.

Correlation



Note: could be a third cause, but more likely to be totally random...!

Let's now take a look at nonindependent variables

• Example:

• Let's consider a set of 5x5 gray scale images that look like this: These regions are either dark together or bright together

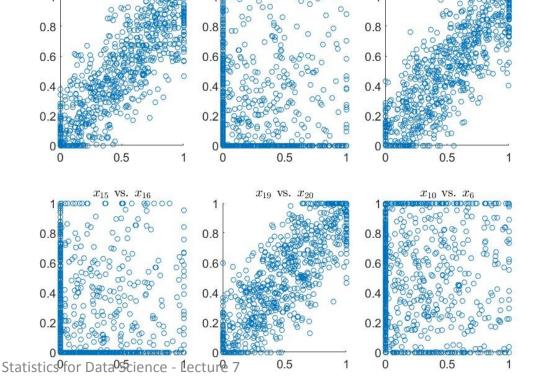
Non-independence

• In this example we have 25 random variables

We can plot one variable against another to see the

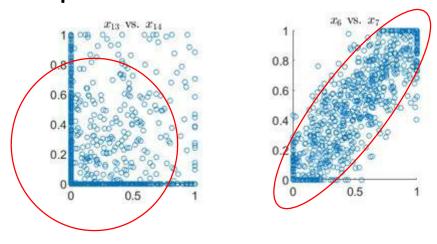
relationship

Which variables are correlated?



Non-independence

- In this example we have 25 random variables
- We can plot one variable against another to see the relationship



- Which variables are non-independent?
 - The non-axis aligned ellipses tell us that there is correlation between variables

Covariance

• The covariance

• Cov(X,Y) = E((X -
$$\mu_X$$
)(Y - μ_Y))

- If large values of X tend to be observed with large values of Y
- And small values of X tend to be observed with small values of Y
- Then Cov(X,Y) will be positive.

Calculating the covariance of random variables.

For discrete variables with a finite set of equal-probability values, x_k and y_k for k=1,...,n we can re-write this as:

Cov(X,Y) =
$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(xi - \mu_{X})(yi - \mu_{Y})$$

It can also be formulated without referencing the mean values of each variable:

Cov(X,Y) =
$$\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j>i}^{n} (xi - xj)(yi - yj)$$

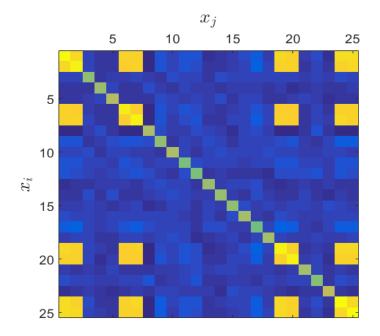
For continuous random variables, the covariance can be expressed as:

$$Cov(X,Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - E[X])(y - E[Y]) f_{XY}(x,y) dx dy$$

Where $f_{XY}(x,y)$ is the joint probability density function of X and Y.

Covariance Matrix (Heatmap)

 Where we have several random variables, a covariance hmatrix gives a visual guide to their relative (in)dependence.



Note the value of the diagonal.

Correlation

• The correlation coefficient is defined as:

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$