STA257

Neil Montgomery | HTML is official | PDF versions good for in-class use only Last edited: 2016-11-09 15:00

from last time

Theorem: $X \perp Y$ if and only if the joint cdf $F(x, y) = F_x(x)F_y(y)$ is the product of the marginal cdfs.

Proof: \Leftarrow ("only if") too hard; \Longrightarrow left as exercise.

Corollary: $X \perp Y$ if and only if the joint $f(x, y) = f_x(x)f_y(y)$

To verify, in practice check two things:

- 1. The density factors. **Note: enough to factor into a function of** *x* **and a function of** *y*.
- 2. The non-zero region is a rectangle (possibly infinite in either direction.) **Note:** technically a "cross product" is all that is needed, but in almost all practical cases it will be a rectangle.

other important independence results (advanced)

Theorem: If X and Y are independent, so are g(X) and h(Y) for any* functions g and h.

Sketch of proof: ...

Definition of independence extends to any number of random variables. We say $X, Y, ..., X_n$ are independent if:

$$P(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A_2, \dots, X_n \in A_n) = P(X \in A_1) \cdots P(X_n \in A_n)$$

for any* subsets $A_i \in \mathbb{R}$.

conditional distributions

Recall the sum *X* and the absolute difference *X* of two dice:

							X_1					
		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
X_2	0	$\frac{1}{36}$	0	$\frac{1}{36}$	0	$\frac{1}{36}$	0	$\frac{1}{36}$	0	$\frac{1}{36}$	0	$\frac{1}{36}$
	1	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0								
	2	0	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	0
	3	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	0	0
	4	0	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	0	0	0
	5	0	0	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{36}$	0	0	0	0	0

discrete case

Given a joint pmf for X and Y denoted by p(x, y), define:

$$p_{x|y}(x|y) = \begin{cases} \frac{p(x,y)}{p_y(y)} & : \text{ where } p_y(y) > 0\\ 0 & : \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For any fixed *Y* with $p_{Y}(y) > 0$, this is a valid pmf.

This pmf describes what is called "the conditional distribution of X given Y = y."

Useful result:

$$p(x,y) = p_{x|y}(x|y)p_y(x)$$
$$p_x(x) = \sum_{y} p_{x|y}(x|y)p_y(y)$$

classic example

At home my phone rings Y times with $Y \sim \operatorname{Poisson}(\lambda)$ in one hour.I answer the phone with probability p when it rings. What is the distribution of the X, the number of times I answer the phone in an hour?

(In fact p so X=0 always. Note for people not in attendance...this is a joke about me not answering the phone.)

continuous case

The concept is similar. We examine a "slice" of the joint density at, say X = x and consider the distribution of Y at that fixed value of x.

The *conditional density of* Y *given* X = x is defined as:

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

wherever $f_x(x) > 0$.

Examples:

$$1. f(x, y) = \frac{1}{\pi} \text{ on } x^2 + y^2 \le 1.$$

$$2. f(x, y) = \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y} \text{ on } 0 < x < y.$$

the bivariate normal distributions an important class of joint distributions

since civilization is over anyway...

Let's do something **crazy**. Recall $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ has density for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$f_{x}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}\right)$$

Re-imagine x and μ as a column vectors with one element each: $\mathbf{x} = (x)$ and $\mu = (\mu)$. Re-imagine σ^2 as a 1×1 matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma} = (\sigma^2)$.

Note that $\det \mathbf{\Sigma} = |\mathbf{\Sigma}| = \sigma^2$ and $\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$, and:

$$f_{x}(x) = \frac{1}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2} (2\pi)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^{t} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)\right)$$

bivariate normal

The random variables X_1 and X_2 have a bivariate normal distribution with paramaters μ_1 , μ_2 , $\sigma_1^2 > 0$, $\sigma_2^2 > 0$, and $-1 < \rho < 1$ if:

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{1/2} (2\pi)^{2/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^t \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)\right)$$

where:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \\ \rho \sigma_1 \sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

book version of density

Some work will reveal that this is equivalent to the formula given in the textbook.

These densities actually look like "bells".

What if $\rho = 0$?

The densities have the interesting properties that the *marginal distributions* are normal, and the *conditional distributions* are also normal.