

STA286 Lecture 09

Neil Montgomery

Last edited: 2017-01-31 09:01

conditional distributions

Consider again the gas pipe joint (and marginal) distributions:

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	0.075	0.100	0.150	0.325
1	0.110	0.080	0.090	0.280
2	0.160	0.140	0.095	0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

conditional distributions

Consider again the gas pipe joint (and marginal) distributions:

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	0.075	0.100	0.150	0.325
1	0.110	0.080	0.090	0.280
2	0.160	0.140	0.095	0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

What are the probabilities of X taking on any of its three possible values *given* $Y = 2$, say.

conditional distributions

Consider again the gas pipe joint (and marginal) distributions:

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	0.075	0.100	0.150	0.325
1	0.110	0.080	0.090	0.280
2	0.160	0.140	0.095	0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

What are the probabilities of X taking on any of its three possible values *given* $Y = 2$, say.

$$P(X = 1|Y = 2) = \frac{P(X = 1, Y = 2)}{P(Y = 2)} = \frac{0.16}{0.395}$$

conditional distributions

Consider again the gas pipe joint (and marginal) distributions:

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	0.075	0.100	0.150	0.325
1	0.110	0.080	0.090	0.280
2	0.160	0.140	0.095	0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

What are the probabilities of X taking on any of its three possible values *given* $Y = 2$, say.

$$P(X = 1|Y = 2) = \frac{P(X = 1, Y = 2)}{P(Y = 2)} = \frac{0.16}{0.395}$$

$$P(X = 1.5|Y = 2) = \frac{0.14}{0.395}$$

$$P(X = 1.75|Y = 2) = \frac{0.095}{0.395}$$

conditional pmf and conditional density

Given the joint pmf $p(x, y)$ for X and Y , the conditional pmf for X given $Y = y$ is:

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

provided $P(Y = y) > 0$.

conditional pmf and conditional density

Given the joint pmf $p(x, y)$ for X and Y , the conditional pmf for X given $Y = y$ is:

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

provided $P(Y = y) > 0$.

Given the joint density $f(x, y)$ for X and Y , the conditional density for X given $Y = y$ is:

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

provided $f_Y(y) > 0$.

conditional density example

Reconsider the two electronic components example:

$$f(x, y) \begin{cases} 2e^{-x-2y} & : x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for Y is $2e^{-2y}$ on $y > 0$.

conditional density example

Reconsider the two electronic components example:

$$f(x, y) \begin{cases} 2e^{-x-2y} & : x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for Y is $2e^{-2y}$ on $y > 0$.

The conditional density for X given $Y = 2$ is:

conditional density example

Reconsider the two electronic components example:

$$f(x, y) \begin{cases} 2e^{-x-2y} & : x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for Y is $2e^{-2y}$ on $y > 0$.

The conditional density for X given $Y = 2$ is:

$$e^{-x} \text{ on } x > 0$$

conditional density example

Reconsider the two electronic components example:

$$f(x, y) \begin{cases} 2e^{-x-2y} & : x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for Y is $2e^{-2y}$ on $y > 0$.

The conditional density for X given $Y = 2$ is:

$$e^{-x} \text{ on } x > 0$$

Heck, the conditional density for X given Y equals *anything* greater than 0 is still always e^{-x} on $x > 0$.

conditional density example

Reconsider the two electronic components example:

$$f(x, y) \begin{cases} 2e^{-x-2y} & : x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for Y is $2e^{-2y}$ on $y > 0$.

The conditional density for X given $Y = 2$ is:

$$e^{-x} \text{ on } x > 0$$

Heck, the conditional density for X given Y equals *anything* greater than 0 is still always e^{-x} on $x > 0$.

That's because X and Y have a special relationship... to be revisited.

conditional density example “uniform on a triangle”

Consider again X and Y with the following density.

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2 & : 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1, x + y < 1 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for X was found to be $f_X(x) = 2(1 - x)$ for $0 < x < 1$.

conditional density example “uniform on a triangle”

Consider again X and Y with the following density.

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2 & : 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1, x + y < 1 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for X was found to be $f_X(x) = 2(1 - x)$ for $0 < x < 1$.

The conditional density of Y given $X = 0.8$ will be 0 when y is outside $(0, 0.2)$.

Otherwise it will be:

$$f(y|x = 0.8) = \frac{2}{2 \cdot (1 - 0.8)} = 5$$

conditional density example “uniform on a triangle”

Consider again X and Y with the following density.

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2 & : 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1, x + y < 1 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The marginal density for X was found to be $f_X(x) = 2(1 - x)$ for $0 < x < 1$.

The conditional density of Y given $X = 0.8$ will be 0 when y is outside $(0, 0.2)$.

Otherwise it will be:

$$f(y|x = 0.8) = \frac{2}{2 \cdot (1 - 0.8)} = 5$$

Unlike marginal densities, conditional densities can sometimes be visualized. They are just “slices” of the joint density (normalized to 1.)

independence

In the “two electronic component” example, the conditional density for X given $Y = y$ (no matter what $y > 0$) never changes:

$$f(x|y) = f(x)$$

Knowledge of the outcome of Y doesn't tell you anything about the distribution of X .

independence

In the “two electronic component” example, the conditional density for X given $Y = y$ (no matter what $y > 0$) never changes:

$$f(x|y) = f(x)$$

Knowledge of the outcome of Y doesn't tell you anything about the distribution of X .

In the “uniform on a triangle” example, the conditional density for Y given $X = x$ is always going to be (for $0 < x < 1$):

$$f(y|x) = \frac{2}{2x} = \frac{1}{x}$$

for $0 < y < x$ and 0 otherwise. So knowledge of the outcome of X tells something about the distribution of Y .

independence

In the gas pipes pmf:

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	0.075	0.100	0.150	0.325
1	0.110	0.080	0.090	0.280
2	0.160	0.140	0.095	0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

the conditional distributions for X given $Y = y$ are all different (as well as those for Y given $X = x$.)

independence

In the gas pipes pmf:

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	0.075	0.100	0.150	0.325
1	0.110	0.080	0.090	0.280
2	0.160	0.140	0.095	0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

the conditional distributions for X given $Y = y$ are all different (as well as those for Y given $X = x$.)

Definition: X and Y are *independent* (or $X \perp Y$) if:

$$p(x, y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y) \quad (\text{discrete}) \qquad f(x, y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y) \quad (\text{continuous})$$

gas pipe diameters and pressures “made” independent

Suppose the marginal distributions are the same. What would the joint pmf have to be?

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5				0.325
1				0.280
2				0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

gas pipe diameters and pressures “made” independent

Suppose the marginal distributions are the same. What would the joint pmf have to be?

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	$0.345 \cdot 0.325$			0.325
1				0.280
2				0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

gas pipe diameters and pressures “made” independent

Suppose the marginal distributions are the same. What would the joint pmf have to be?

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	$0.345 \cdot 0.325$			0.325
1				0.280
2	$0.320 \cdot 0.395$			0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

gas pipe diameters and pressures “made” independent

Suppose the marginal distributions are the same. What would the joint pmf have to be?

Y	X			Marginal
	1	1.5	1.75	
0.5	$0.345 \cdot 0.325$			0.325
1	$0.335 \cdot 0.280$			0.280
2	$0.320 \cdot 0.395$			0.395
Marginal	0.345	0.320	0.335	1.000

relationship with independence of events

For an event A from a sample space S , define the *indicator random variable*:

$$I_A(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & : \omega \in A \\ 0 & : \omega \notin A \end{cases}$$

This is the general “Bernoulli trial” and one of the most important random variables there is.

relationship with independence of events

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0			
1			
Marginal			

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0			$P(B)$
1			
Marginal	$P(A)$		

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0			$P(B')$
1			$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0			$P(B')$
1		$P(A \cap B)$	$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0		$P(A \cap B')$	$P(B')$
1		$P(A \cap B)$	$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0	$P(A' \cap B')$	$P(A \cap B')$	$P(B')$
1		$P(A \cap B)$	$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0	$P(A' \cap B')$	$P(A \cap B')$	$P(B')$
1	$P(A' \cap B)$	$P(A \cap B)$	$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0	$P(A' \cap B')$	$P(A \cap B')$	$P(B')$
1	$P(A' \cap B)$	$P(A \cap B)$	$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

Now suppose $A \perp B$. Recall that this is actually a “strong” statement equivalent to $A \perp B'$ and $A' \perp B'$ and $A' \perp B$.

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0	$P(A' \cap B')$	$P(A \cap B')$	$P(B')$
1	$P(A' \cap B)$	$P(A \cap B)$	$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

Now suppose $A \perp B$. Recall that this is actually a “strong” statement equivalent to $A \perp B'$ and $A' \perp B'$ and $A' \perp B$.

So it is also equivalent to the independence of the random variables I_A and I_B .

relationship with independence of events

Suppose A and B are events in S . Consider the joint pmf for A and B :

I_B	I_A		Marginal
	0	1	
0	$P(A' \cap B')$	$P(A \cap B')$	$P(B')$
1	$P(A' \cap B)$	$P(A \cap B)$	$P(B)$
Marginal	$P(A')$	$P(A)$	

Now suppose $A \perp B$. Recall that this is actually a “strong” statement equivalent to $A \perp B'$ and $A' \perp B'$ and $A' \perp B$.

So it is also equivalent to the independence of the random variables I_A and I_B .

The formal definition of independence is:

$$P(X \in C, Y \in D) = P(X \in C)P(Y \in D)$$

for any $C, D \subset \mathbb{R}$.

notes on verifying independence

First of all, in practice independence continues to be someone one generally *assumes*.

notes on verifying independence

First of all, in practice independence continues to be someone one generally *assumes*.

But one still needs to know how to verify independence, which is easy for continuous X and Y :

- ▶ the joint density factors:

$$f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$$

notes on verifying independence

First of all, in practice independence continues to be someone one generally *assumes*.

But one still needs to know how to verify independence, which is easy for continuous X and Y :

- ▶ the joint density factors:

$$f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$$

- ▶ and the non-zero region of f is a “rectangle”

notes on verifying independence

First of all, in practice independence continues to be someone one generally *assumes*.

But one still needs to know how to verify independence, which is easy for continuous X and Y :

- ▶ the joint density factors:

$$f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$$

- ▶ and the non-zero region of f is a “rectangle”

notes on verifying independence

First of all, in practice independence continues to be someone one generally *assumes*.

But one still needs to know how to verify independence, which is easy for continuous X and Y :

- ▶ the joint density factors:

$$f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$$

- ▶ and the non-zero region of f is a “rectangle”

Examples:

- ▶ $f(x, y) = x + y$ on $0 < x, y < 1$ and 0 otherwise.

notes on verifying independence

First of all, in practice independence continues to be someone one generally *assumes*.

But one still needs to know how to verify independence, which is easy for continuous X and Y :

- ▶ the joint density factors:

$$f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$$

- ▶ and the non-zero region of f is a “rectangle”

Examples:

- ▶ $f(x, y) = x + y$ on $0 < x, y < 1$ and 0 otherwise.
- ▶ $f(x, y) = 24xy$ on $x > 0, y > 0, 0 < x + y < 1$ and 0 otherwise.

the spanish inquisition

expected value

Recall the sample average:

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

which can be considered as a weighted sum with weights $w_i = 1/n$.

expected value

Recall the sample average:

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

which can be considered as a weighted sum with weights $w_i = 1/n$.

A (discrete) random variable can have an “average”, which is a weighted sum of the outcomes with their probabilities as weights.

expected value

Recall the sample average:

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

which can be considered as a weighted sum with weights $w_i = 1/n$.

A (discrete) random variable can have an “average”, which is a weighted sum of the outcomes with their probabilities as weights.

BIG MONEY. We play a gambling game called BIG MONEY. Roll a die. This is your outcome after each play of BIG MONEY:

Roll	1, 2	3	4, 5	6
Outcome \$	-2	0	1	2

expected value

Recall the sample average:

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

which can be considered as a weighted sum with weights $w_i = 1/n$.

A (discrete) random variable can have an “average”, which is a weighted sum of the outcomes with their probabilities as weights.

BIG MONEY. We play a gambling game called BIG MONEY. Roll a die. This is your outcome after each play of BIG MONEY:

	Roll	1, 2	3	4, 5	6
Outcome \$		-2	0	1	2
Probability		2/6	1/6	2/6	1/6

BIG MONEY is a “fair game”

Your *expected* winnings are (theoretically):

$$-2\frac{2}{6} + 0\frac{1}{6} + 1\frac{2}{6} + 2\frac{1}{6} = 0$$

BIG MONEY is a “fair game”

Your *expected* winnings are (theoretically):

$$-2\frac{2}{6} + 0\frac{1}{6} + 1\frac{2}{6} + 2\frac{1}{6} = 0$$

The *expected value* of a discrete random variable X is:

$$E(X) = \sum_x xp(x)$$

if the sum exists (actually it has to converge absolutely.)

expected number of coin tosses to first H

Denote by X the number of coin tosses until the first H. The pmf is:

$$p(x) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)^{x-1} \frac{1}{2}$$

for $x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. For a moment replace $\frac{1}{2}$ with p .

expected number of coin tosses to first H

Denote by X the number of coin tosses until the first H. The pmf is:

$$p(x) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)^{x-1} \frac{1}{2}$$

for $x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. For a moment replace $\frac{1}{2}$ with p .

$$E(X) = \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x(1-p)^{x-1}p$$

expected number of coin tosses to first H

Denote by X the number of coin tosses until the first H. The pmf is:

$$p(x) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)^{x-1} \frac{1}{2}$$

for $x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. For a moment replace $\frac{1}{2}$ with p .

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x(1-p)^{x-1}p \\ &= p \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x(1-p)^{x-1} \end{aligned}$$

expected number of coin tosses to first H

Denote by X the number of coin tosses until the first H. The pmf is:

$$p(x) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)^{x-1} \frac{1}{2}$$

for $x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. For a moment replace $\frac{1}{2}$ with p .

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x(1-p)^{x-1}p \\ &= p \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x(1-p)^{x-1} \\ &= p \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dp}(1-p)^x \end{aligned}$$

expected number of coin tosses to first H

Denote by X the number of coin tosses until the first H. The pmf is:

$$p(x) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)^{x-1} \frac{1}{2}$$

for $x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. For a moment replace $\frac{1}{2}$ with p .

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x(1-p)^{x-1}p \\ &= p \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x(1-p)^{x-1} \\ &= p \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dp}(1-p)^x \\ &= p \frac{d}{dp} \left(\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} (1-p)^x \right) = p \frac{d}{dp} \left(\frac{1}{1-(1-p)} \right) = \frac{1}{p} \end{aligned}$$

expected value non-example

Let X have the following pmf (!):

$$p(x) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 x^2}, x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

X does not have an expected value, because $\sum_x xp(x)$ does not converge.

expected value - continuous version

If X is continuous with density f , its expected value is:

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx$$

provided the integral converges (absolutely).

expected value - continuous version

If X is continuous with density f , its expected value is:

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx$$

provided the integral converges (absolutely).

Bus stop example. What is the expected waiting time?