STA286 Lecture 09

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

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Y	1	1.5	1.75	Marginal
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
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$$P(X = 1.5|Y = 2) = {0.14 \over 0.395}$$
 $P(X = 1.75|Y = 2) = {0.095 \over 0.395}$

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.

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provided $f_Y(y) > 0$.

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.

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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.

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The conditional density of Y given X=0.5 will be 0 when y is outside (0,0.5). Otherwise it will be:

$$f(y|x=0.5) = \frac{2}{2 \cdot (1-0.5)} = 2$$

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Unlike marginal densities, conditional densities can sometimes be visualized. They are just "slices" of the joint density.

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.

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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.

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

$$p(x,y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y)$$
 (discrete) $f(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$ (continuous)

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

$$I_{\mathcal{A}}(\omega) = egin{cases} 1 & : \omega \in A \ 0 & : \omega
otin A \end{cases}$$

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



	$I_{\mathcal{A}}$		
I_B	0	1	Marginal
0			
1			
Marginal			

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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

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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.



Recall the sample average:

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

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

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Outcome \$	-2	0	1	2

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Probability	2/6	1/6	2/6	1/6

BIG MONEY is a "fair game"

Your expected winnings are (theoretically):

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

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The expected value of a discrete random variable X is:

$$E(X) = \sum_{x} x p(x)$$

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

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

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$$= p \frac{d}{dp} \left(\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} (1-p)^x \right) = p \frac{d}{dp} \left(\frac{1}{1-(1-p)} \right) = \frac{1}{p}$$

expected value non-example

Let X have the following pmf (!):

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

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:

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Bus stop example. What is the expected waiting time?