

JPL-Caltech Virtual Summer School

Big Data Analytics

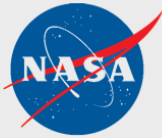
September 2 – 12, 2014

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Basic Probability

Part 2



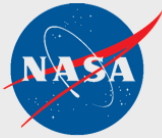
National Aeronautics and
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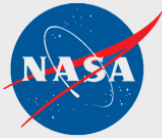
Outline

Introduce mathematical formalism for coding and describing the outcomes of uncertain phenomena:

- ▶ Random variables.
- ▶ Distributions, densities, and mass functions.
- ▶ Expectation.

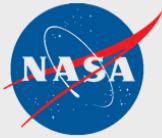


- ▶ A random variable (r.v.) is a numerical coding of the outcome of a trial or a set of trials.
- ▶ Example: I toss coin. $X = 1$ if it comes up heads, $X = 0$ if it comes up tails.
- ▶ Random variables can be discrete (taking on at most a countable number of values) or continuous.
- ▶ Example of a discrete r.v.: the number of times I say "hello" today.
- ▶ Example of a continuous r.v.: the height of the next person I meet.



Notation is very important:

- ▶ Random variables (scalars) are denoted by capital letters, e.g., X .
- ▶ Ordinary variables that take on fixed but possibly arbitrary values are denoted by lower-case letters, e.g., x . In the context of the event $\{X = x\}$, we say that x is a realization of X .
- ▶ We may also have random vectors (a collection of random variables representing a point in high-dimensional space), and these are denoted by bold: \mathbf{X}
- ▶ Example of a discrete r.v.: the number of times I say "hello" today.
- ▶ Example of a continuous r.v.: the height of the next person I meet.



Distributions, densities, and mass functions

- ▶ The behavior of a random variable is described by its cumulative distribution function (CDF):

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x).$$

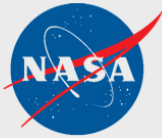
- ▶ The function $P(X = x)$ is called the probability mass function (PMF) if X is discrete. In this case,

$$F_X(a) = P(X \leq a) = \sum_{x \leq a} P(X = x).$$

- ▶ The function $P(X = x)$ is called the probability density function (PDF) if X is continuous. In this case,

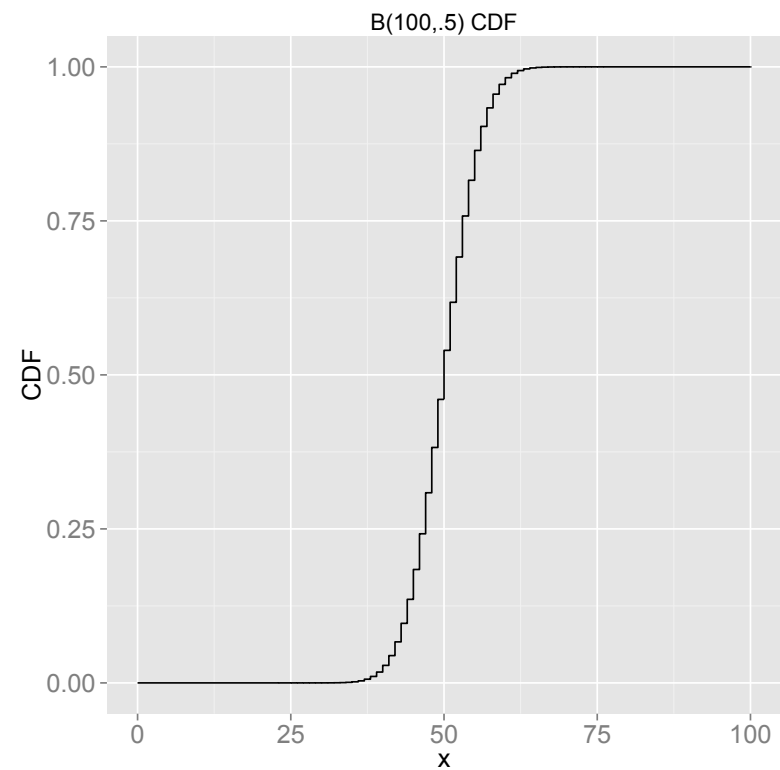
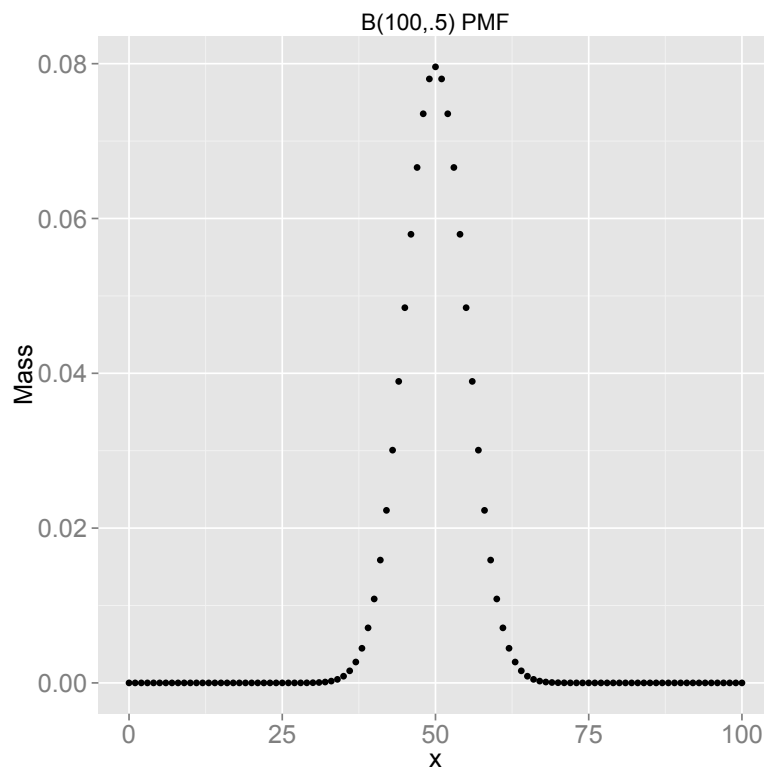
$$F_X(a) = P(X \leq a) = \int_{x \leq a} f_X(x) dx,$$

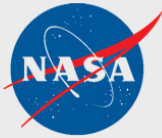
where $f_X(x) = P(X = x)$ and $f_X(x)$ is the derivative of $F_X(x)$.



Distributions, densities, and mass functions

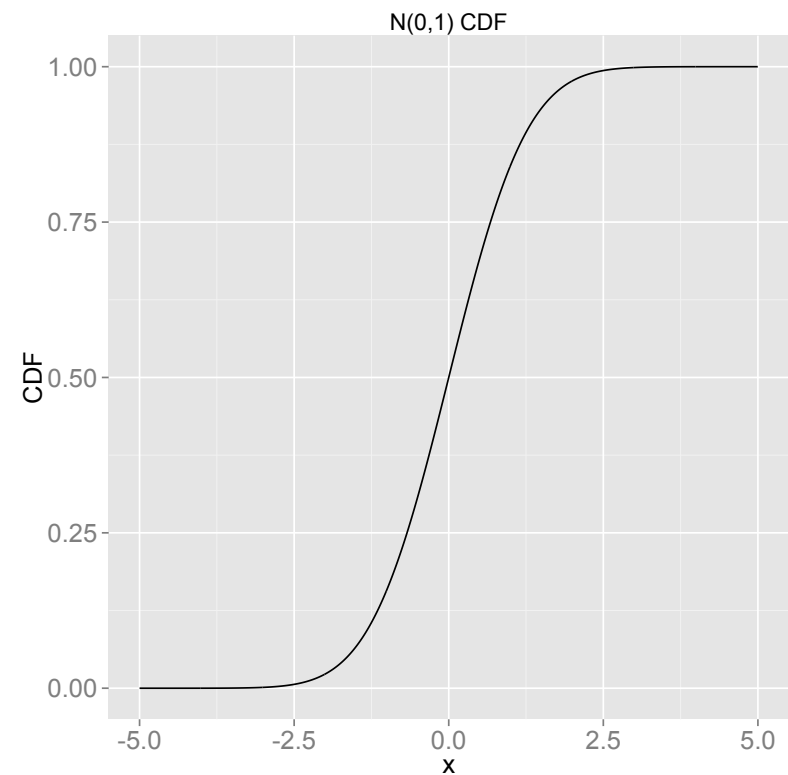
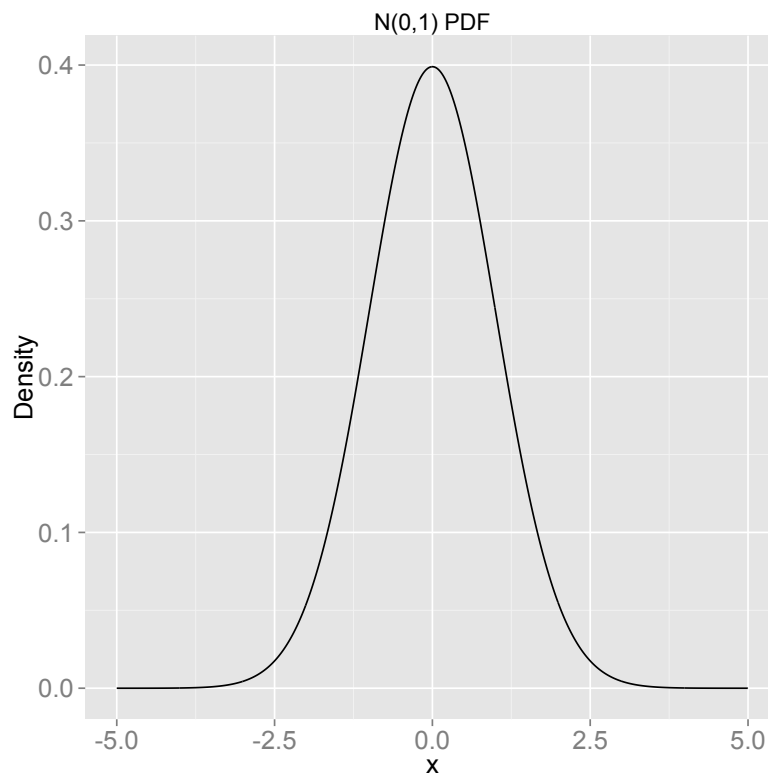
PMF and CDF of a discrete random variable:

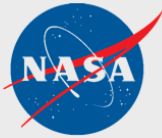




Distributions, densities, and mass functions

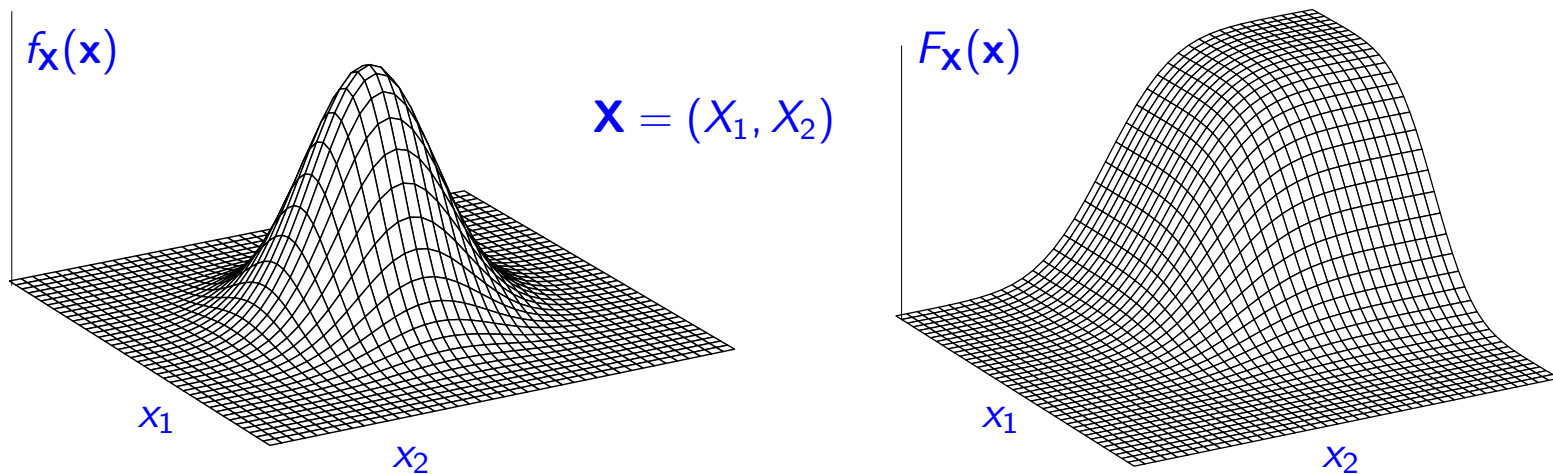
PDF and CDF of a continuous random variable:





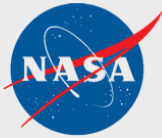
Distributions, densities, and mass functions

PDF and CDF of a bivariate random vector:



- Definitions generalize straightforwardly to higher dimensions:

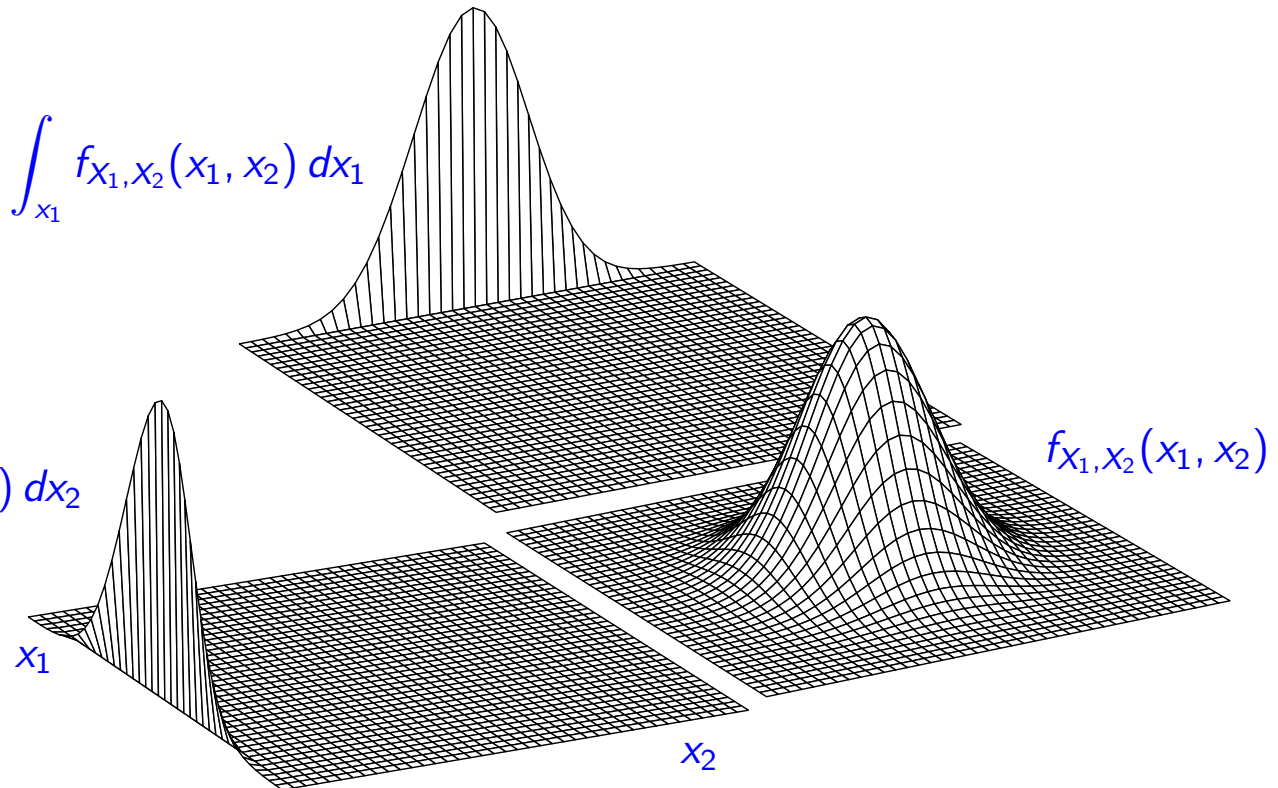
$$f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2), \quad F_{X_1, X_2}(a, b) = P(X_1 \leq a, X_2 \leq b).$$



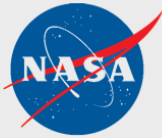
Distributions, densities, and mass functions

$$f_{X_2}(x_2) = \int_{x_1} f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) dx_1$$

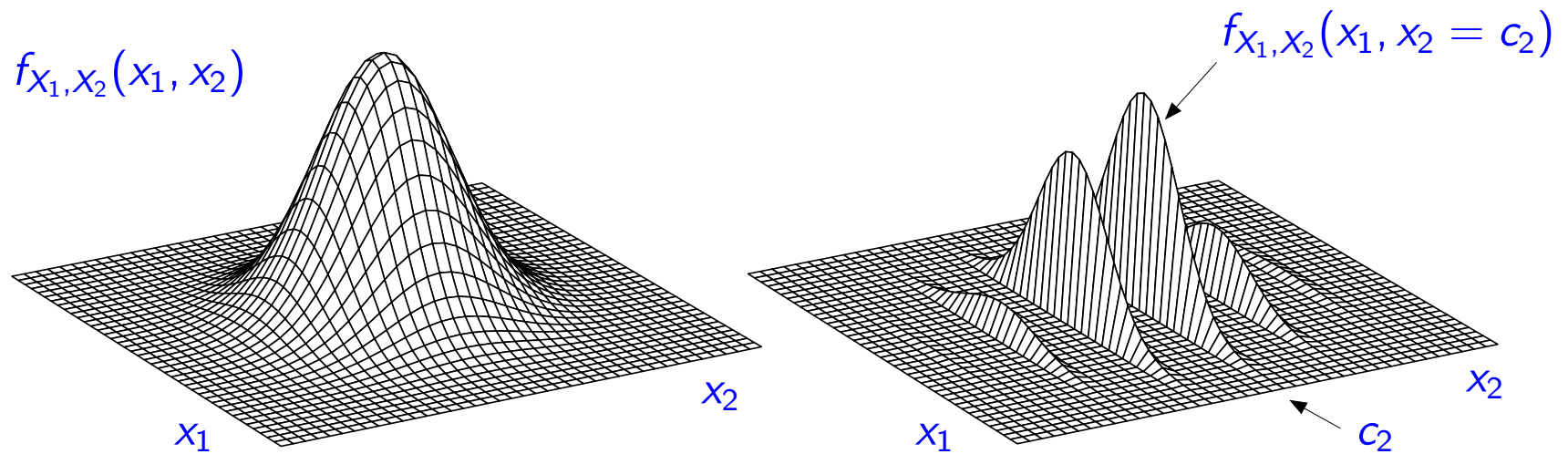
$$f_{X_1}(x_1) = \int_{x_2} f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) dx_2$$



- Marginal densities: integrate a continuous joint density (or sum a discrete mass function) over the other variable (by the Law of total probability).

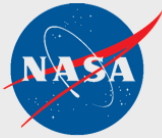


Distributions, densities, and mass functions



- Conditional density: a “slice” of the joint density, renormalized to integrate to one.

$$f_{X_1|X_2}(x_1|x_2 = c_2) = \frac{f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2 = c_2)}{\int_{x_1} f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2 = c_2) dx_1}.$$



Distributions, densities, and mass functions

PMF and PDF of a function of a random variable:

- ▶ Suppose X is a r.v. with distribution function $F_X(x)$. What is the distribution function of $Y = g(X)$?

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(g(X) \leq y) = P(X \leq g^{-1}(y)) = F_X(g^{-1}(y)).$$

- ▶ If X and Y are discrete, then

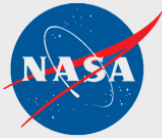
$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)).$$

- ▶ If X and Y are continuous, then

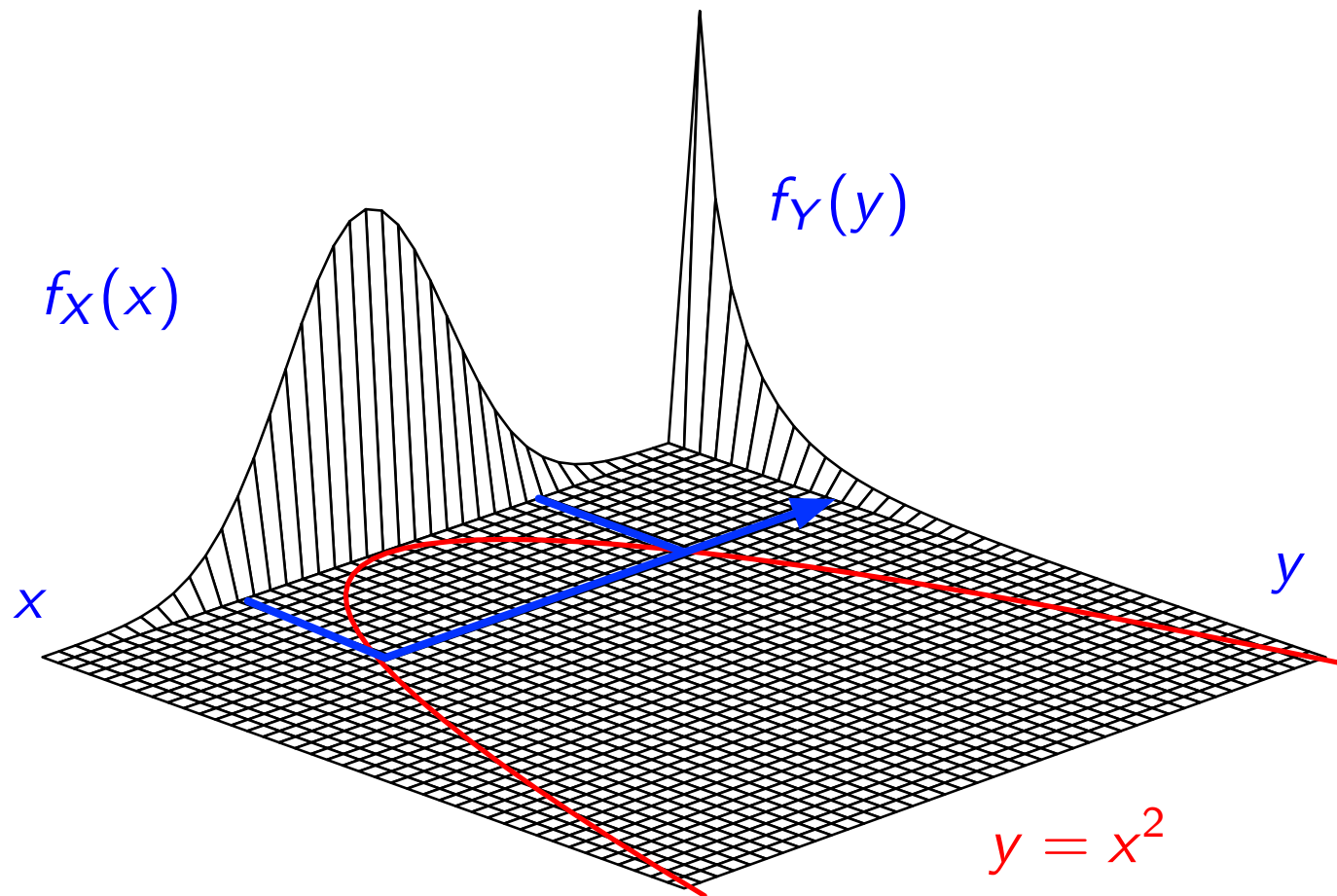
$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} g^{-1}(y) \right|.$$

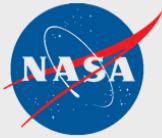
- ▶ The joint distribution of X and Y is

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_{Y|X}(y|x)f_X(x).$$



Distributions, densities, and mass functions





Distributions, densities, and mass functions

PDF of a function of a random vector:

- ▶ Suppose X_1 and X_2 are jointly continuous, $Y_1 = g_1(X_1, X_2)$, and $Y_2 = g_2(X_1, X_2)$.
- ▶ Suppose that $g_1(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $g_2(\cdot, \cdot)$ have continuous partial derivatives at all (x_1, x_2) ; that there exist inverses $h_1(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $h_2(\cdot, \cdot)$ such that

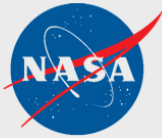
$$x_1 = h_1(y_1, y_2), \quad x_2 = h_2(y_1, y_2),$$

and that the determinant,

$$J(x_1, x_2) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_2} \end{vmatrix} \neq 0.$$

- ▶ Then,

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = f_{X_1, X_2}(h_1(y_1, y_2), h_2(y_1, y_2)) |J(x_1, x_2)|^{-1}.$$



- ▶ The expected value of random variable X (sometimes also called the mean) is the weighted average of its potential realizations, where the weights are the probabilities associated with the realizations:

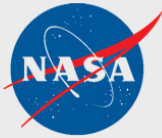
$$E(X) = \sum_x xP(X = x) \text{ (discrete),} \quad E(X) = \int_x xP(X = x) dx \text{ (continuous) ,}$$

or equivalently,

$$E(X) = \sum_x xf_X(x), \quad E(X) = \int_x xf_X(x) dx.$$

- ▶ The expected value of a random vector is the vector of expected values of its components:

$$E(\mathbf{X}) = E(X_1, X_2)^T = (E(X_1), E(X_2))^T.$$



- ▶ Expected value of a function of a random variable:

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x)f_X(x) \text{ (discrete), } E(g(X)) = \int_x g(x)f_X(x) dx \text{ (continuous).}$$

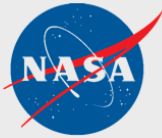
- ▶ The expected deviation of X from its own expected value (mean):

$$E(X - \mu_X) = \begin{cases} \sum_x (x - \mu_X)f_X(x) & \text{discrete,} \\ \int_x (x - \mu_X)f_X(x) dx & \text{continuous,} \end{cases}$$

where $\mu_X = E(X)$.

- ▶ The variance of a random variable is its expected squared deviation from its mean:

$$E(X - \mu_X)^2 = \begin{cases} \sum_x (x - \mu_X)^2 f_X(x) & \text{discrete,} \\ \int_x (x - \mu_X)^2 f_X(x) dx & \text{continuous.} \end{cases}$$



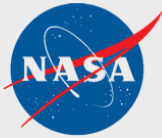
- The covariance of two random variables is,

$$\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = E(X_1 - \mu_{X_1})(X_2 - \mu_{X_2}).$$

- The variance of a random vector is a matrix; the variance-covariance matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\mathbf{X}) &= E(\mathbf{X} - \mu_{\mathbf{X}})(\mathbf{X} - \mu_{\mathbf{X}})^T, \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} E(X_1 - \mu_{X_1})(X_1 - \mu_{X_1}) & E(X_1 - \mu_{X_1})(X_2 - \mu_{X_2}) \\ E(X_2 - \mu_{X_2})(X_1 - \mu_{X_1}) & E(X_2 - \mu_{X_2})(X_2 - \mu_{X_2}) \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

- We often use $\sigma_{X_i}^2$ as shorthand for $E(X_i - \mu_{X_i})(X_i - \mu_{X_i})$, and $\sigma_{X_i X_j}$ as shorthand for $E(X_i - \mu_{X_i})(X_j - \mu_{X_j})$.

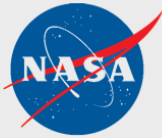


- The cross-covariance between two random vectors is a matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) &= E(\mathbf{X} - \mu_{\mathbf{X}})(\mathbf{Y} - \mu_{\mathbf{Y}})^T, \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} E(X_1 - \mu_{X_1})(Y_1 - \mu_{Y_1}) & E(X_1 - \mu_{X_1})(Y_2 - \mu_{Y_2}) \\ E(X_2 - \mu_{X_2})(Y_1 - \mu_{Y_1}) & E(X_2 - \mu_{X_2})(Y_2 - \mu_{Y_2}) \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

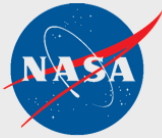
where \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are both two-dimensional here.

- In general, the cross-covariance matrix need not be square or symmetric.



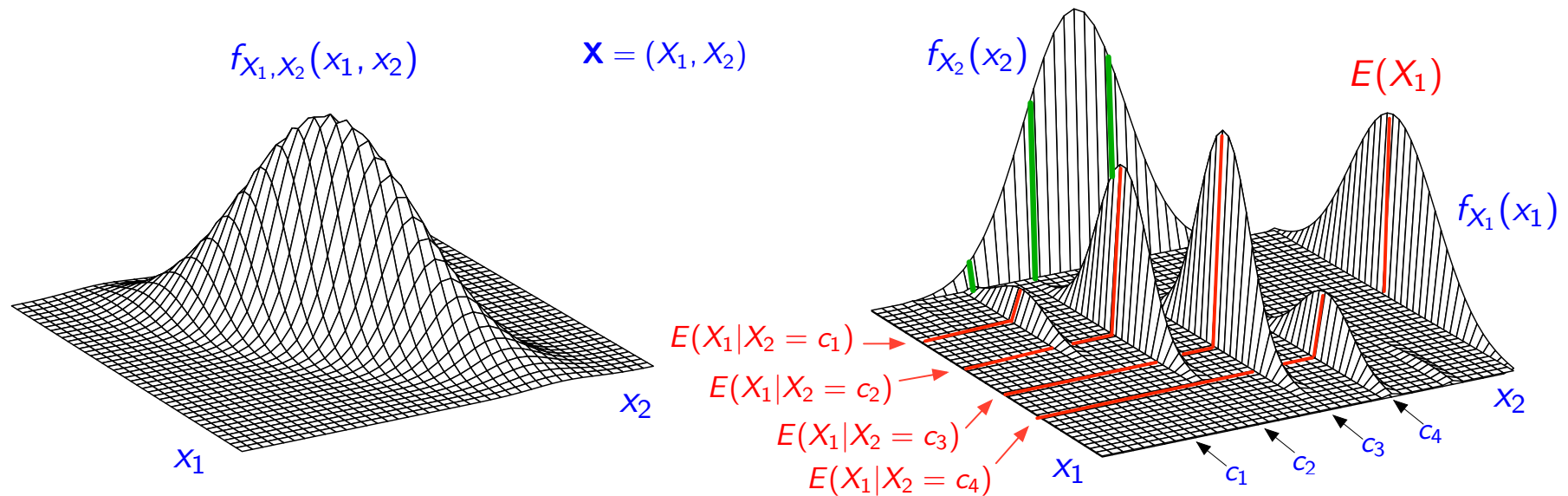
Properties of expectation for continuous r.v.'s (discrete and vector analogs are similar):

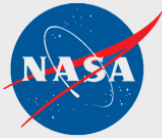
- ▶ Expectation is a linear operator: $E(a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2) = a_1 E(X_1) + a_2 E(X_2)$.
 - ▶ Follows from $E[g(X_1, X_2)] = \int_{x_1} \int_{x_2} g(x_1, x_2) f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2$.
 - ▶ General: $E(\sum_{i=1}^N a_i X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i E(X_i)$.
- ▶ If X_1 and X_2 are independent, then $E[g(X_1)h(X_2)] = E[g(X_1)]E[h(X_2)]$.
- ▶ $E(X_1 | X_2 = x_2) = \int_{x_1} x_1 f_{X_1 | X_2}(x_1 | x_2) dx_1$, viewed as a function of x_2 , is the regression of X_1 on X_2 .



- Law of iterated conditional expectation:

$$E[E(X_1|X_2)] = \int_{x_2} E(X_1|X_2 = x_2) f_{X_2}(x_2) dx_2 = E(X_1).$$





Properties of variance for continuous r.v.'s (discrete and vector analogs are similar):

- Variance of a linear function:

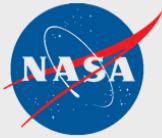
$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2) &= \text{var}(a_1 X_1) + \text{var}(a_2 X_2) + 2 \text{cov}(a_1 X_1, a_2 X_2), \\ &= a_1^2 \text{var}(X_1) + a_2^2 \text{var}(X_2) + a_1 a_2 \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{var} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_i X_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i^2 \text{var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_i a_j \text{cov}(X_i, X_j)$$

- Variance of a non-linear function: suppose $Y = g(X) \approx g(\mu_X) + g'(\mu_X)(X - g(\mu_X))$. Then,

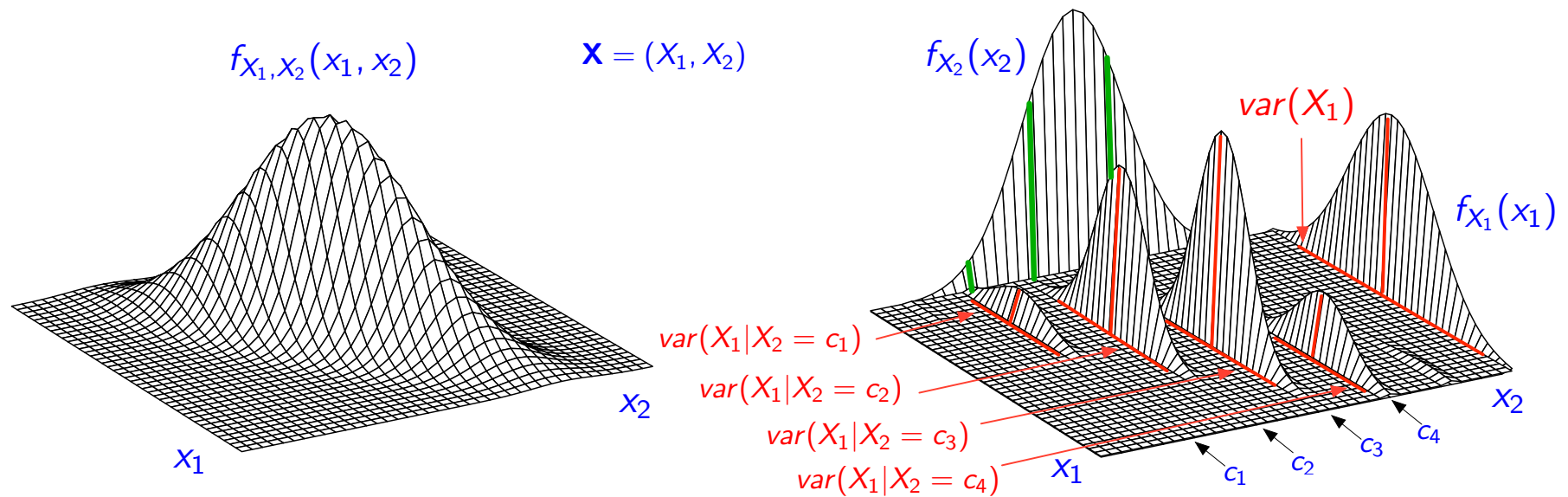
$$\text{var}(g(X)) \approx [g'(\mu_X)]^2 \text{var}(X).$$

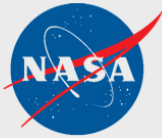
- If X_1 and X_2 are independent, then $\text{cov}(X_1, X_2) = 0$, but the converse is not necessarily true.



► Conditional variance formula:

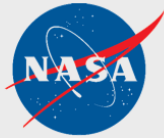
$$\text{var}(X_1) = \text{var} [E(X_1|X_2)] + E [\text{var}(X_1|X_2)] .$$





By now you must be thinking, “Why should I care about this stuff?”

- ▶ We will model unknown or uncertain population characteristics with probability distributions. Call these distributions process distributions.
- ▶ To make inferences about process distributions, we compute statistics from samples.
- ▶ Statistics are themselves random variables, and have distributions of their own. Call these sampling distributions.
- ▶ The discipline of Statistics is largely concerned with understanding the relationship between a process distribution parameter of interest and the sampling distribution of a statistic designed to estimate it.

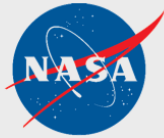


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Bibliography

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- ▶ *An Introduction to Probability Theory and Its Applications* Volumes 1 and 2, by William Feller, John Wiley and Sons, 1957.



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Next

In the next module, we will look at how statistical inferences are made using probability models.