4.2.5 CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY DENSITY: SCALAR CASE

When two random variables are related, the probability density of a random variable changes when the other random variable takes on a particular value.

The probability density of a random variable when one or more other random variables are fixed is called *conditional probability density*.

This concept is important in stochastic estimation as it can be used to develop estimates of unknown variables based on readings of other related variables.

Let x and y be random variables. Suppose x and y have joint probability density $\mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y)$. One may then ask what the probability density of x is given a particular value of y (say $y = \beta$). Formally, this is called "conditional density function" of x given y and denoted as $\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y)$. $\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y)$ is computed as

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$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta;x|y) = \frac{\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \int_{\beta-\epsilon}^{\beta+\epsilon} \mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta^*;x,y) d\beta^*}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{\beta-\epsilon}^{\beta+\epsilon} \mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta^*;x,y) d\beta^* d\zeta}$$
(4.51)

normalization factor

$$\frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y) d\zeta}$$
(4.52)

$$= \frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y)}{\mathcal{P}(\beta,y)} \tag{4.53}$$



Note:

• The above means

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{Conditional Density} \\ \text{of } x \text{ given } y \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\text{Joint Density of } x \text{ and } y}{\text{Marginal Density of } y}$$
(4.54)

This should be quite intuitive.

• Due to the normalization,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) \ d\zeta = 1$$
(4.55)

which is what we want for a density function.

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$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) = \mathcal{P}(\zeta, x) \tag{4.56}$$

if and only if

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y) = \mathcal{P}(\zeta,x)\mathcal{P}(\beta,y) \tag{4.57}$$

This means that the conditional density is same as the marginal density when and only when x and y are independent.

We are interested in the conditional density, because often some of the random variables are measured while others are not. For a particular trial, if x is not measurable, but y is, we are intersted in knowing $\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y)$ for estimation of x.

Finally, note the distinctions among different density functions:

• $\mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y)$: Joint Probability Density of x and y represents the probability density of $x = \zeta$ and $y = \beta$ simultaneously.

$$\int_{a_2}^{b_2} \int_{a_1}^{b_1} \mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y) d\zeta d\beta = \Pr\{a_1 < x \le b_1 \text{ and } a_2 < y \le b_2\} \quad (4.58)$$

• $\mathcal{P}(\zeta; x)$: Marginal Probability Density of xrepresents the probability density of $x = \zeta$ NOT knowing what y is.

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta, x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y) d\beta$$
(4.59)

• $\mathcal{P}(\beta; y)$: Marginal Probability Density of yrepresents the probability density of $y = \beta$ NOT knowing what x is.

$$\mathcal{P}(\beta, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y) d\zeta$$
(4.60)

• $\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y)$: Conditional Probability Density of x given y represents the probability density of x when $y = \beta$.

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) = \frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y)}{\mathcal{P}(\beta, y)}$$
(4.61)

• $\mathcal{P}(\beta|\zeta; y|x)$: Conditional Probability Density of y given x represents the probability density of y when $x = \zeta$.

$$\mathcal{P}(\beta|\zeta; y|x) = \frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y)}{\mathcal{P}(\zeta, x)}$$
(4.62)

Baye's Rule:

Note that

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) = \frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y)}{\mathcal{P}(\beta, y)}$$
(4.63)

$$\mathcal{P}(\beta|\zeta; y|x) = \frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta, \beta; x, y)}{\mathcal{P}(\zeta, x)}$$
(4.64)

Hence, we arrive at

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) = \frac{\mathcal{P}(\beta|\zeta; y|x)\mathcal{P}(\zeta, x)}{\mathcal{P}(\beta, y)}$$
(4.65)

The above is known as the *Baye's Rule*. It essentially says

(Cond. Prob. of x given y) \times (Marg. Prob. of y) (4.66)

= (Cond. Prob. of
$$y$$
 given x) × (Marg. Prob. of x) (4.67)

Baye's Rule is useful, since in many cases, we are trying to compute $\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y)$ and it's difficult to obtain the expression for it directly, while it may be easy to write down the expression for $\mathcal{P}(\beta|\zeta; y|x)$.

We can define the concepts of conditional expectation and conditional covariance using the conditional density. For instance, the conditional expectation of x given $y = \beta$ is defined as

$$E\{x|y\} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \zeta \mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) d\zeta$$
(4.68)

Conditional variance can be defined as

$$\operatorname{Var}\{x|y\} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} E\{(\zeta - E\{x|y\})^2\}$$

$$(4.69)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\zeta - E\{x|y\})^2 \mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) d\zeta \qquad (4.70)$$

Example: Jointly Normally Distributed or Gaussian Variables Suppose that x and y have the following joint normal densities parametrized by $m_1, m_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \rho$:

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^x\sigma_y(1-\rho^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\times \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\left(\frac{\zeta-\bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right)^2 - 2\rho\frac{(\zeta-\bar{x})(\beta-\bar{y})}{\sigma_x\sigma_y} + \left(\frac{\beta-\bar{y}}{\sigma_y}\right)^2\right]\right\}$$

$$(4.71)$$

Some algebra yields

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\beta-\bar{y}}{\sigma_y}\right)^2\right\}$$
(4.72)

$$\times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2(1-\rho^2)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\zeta-\bar{x}-\rho\frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}(\beta-\bar{y})}{\sigma_x\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}\right)^2\right\}$$
(4.73)
conditional density of x

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\zeta-\bar{x}}{\sigma_x}\right)^2\right\}$$
marginal density of x

$$\times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y^2(1-\rho^2)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\beta-\bar{y}-\rho\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}(\zeta-\bar{x})}{\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}\right)^2\right\}$$
conditional density of y

Hence,

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2(1-\rho^2)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\zeta - \bar{x} - \rho\frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}(\beta - \bar{y})}{\sigma_x\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}\right)^2\right\} (4.74)$$
$$\mathcal{P}(\beta|\zeta; y|x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y^2(1-\rho^2)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\beta - \bar{y} - \rho\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}(\zeta - \bar{x})}{\sigma_y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}\right)^2\right\} (4.75)$$

Note that the above conditional densities are normal. For instance, $\mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y)$ is a normal density with mean of $\bar{x} + \rho \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}(\beta - \bar{y})$ and variance of $\sigma_x^2(1-\rho^2)$. So,

$$E\{x|y\} = \bar{x} + \rho \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y} (\beta - \bar{y})$$
(4.76)

$$= \bar{x} + \frac{\rho \sigma_x \sigma_y}{\sigma_y^2} (\beta - \bar{y}) \tag{4.77}$$

$$= E\{x\} + \operatorname{Cov}\{x, y\} \operatorname{Var}^{-1}\{y\} (\beta - \bar{y})$$
 (4.78)

Conditional covariance of x given $y = \beta$ is:

=

$$E\{(x - E\{x|y\})^2|y\} = \sigma_x^2(1 - \rho^2)$$

$$\sigma_x^2 \sigma_x^2 \sigma_x^2$$

$$\sigma_x^2 - \frac{\sigma_x^2 \sigma_y^2 \rho^2}{\sigma_y^2} \tag{4.80}$$

$$= \sigma_x^2 - (\sigma_x \sigma_y \rho) \frac{1}{\sigma_y^2} (\sigma_x \sigma_y \rho)$$
(4.81)

$$= \operatorname{Var}\{x\} - \operatorname{Cov}\{x, y\} \operatorname{Var}^{-1}\{y\} \operatorname{Cov}\{y, x\} (4.82)$$

Notice that the conditional distribution becomes a point density as $\rho \to 1$, which should be intuitively obvious.

4.2.6 CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY DENSITY: VECTOR CASE

We can extend the concept of conditional probability distribution to the vector case similarly as before.

Let x and y be n and m dimensional random vectors respectively. Then, the conditional density of x given $y = [\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m]^T$ is defined as

$$= \frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta_1, \cdots, \zeta_n | \beta_1, \cdots, \beta_m; x_1, \cdots, x_n | y_1, \cdots, y_m)}{\mathcal{P}(\zeta_1, \cdots, \zeta_n, \beta_1, \cdots, \beta_m; x_1, \cdots, x_n, y_1, \cdots, y_m)}$$
(4.83)

Baye's Rule can be stated as

$$= \frac{\mathcal{P}(\zeta_1, \cdots, \zeta_n | \beta_1, \cdots, \beta_m; x_1, \cdots, x_n | y_1, \cdots, y_m)}{\mathcal{P}(\beta_1, \cdots, \beta_m; y_1, \cdots, y_m | x_1, \cdots, x_n) \mathcal{P}(\zeta_1, \cdots, \zeta_n; x_1, \cdots, x_n)} \frac{\mathcal{P}(\beta_1, \cdots, \beta_m; y_1, \cdots, y_m)}{\mathcal{P}(\beta_1, \cdots, \beta_m; y_1, \cdots, y_m)}$$
(4.84)

The conditional expectation and covariance matrix can be defined similarly:

$$E\{x|y\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \begin{bmatrix} \zeta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \zeta_n \end{bmatrix} \mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) \ d\zeta_1, \cdots, d\zeta_n$$
(4.85)

$$\operatorname{Cov}\{x|y\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\begin{array}{c} \zeta_{1} - E\{x_{1}|y\} \\ \vdots \\ \zeta_{n} - E\{x_{n}|y\} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \zeta_{1} - E\{x_{1}|y\} \\ \vdots \\ \zeta_{n} - E\{x_{n}|y\} \end{array} \right]^{T} \mathcal{P}(\zeta|\beta; x|y) \ d\zeta_{1}, \cdots, d\zeta_{n}$$

$$(4.86)$$

Example: Gaussian or Jointly Normally Distributed Variables Let x and y be jointly normally distributed random variable vectors of dimension n and m respectively. Let

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \tag{4.87}$$

The joint distribution takes the form of

$$\mathcal{P}(\zeta,\beta;x,y) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n+m}{2}} |P_z|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\eta-\bar{z})^T P_z^{-1}(\eta-\bar{z})\right\}$$
(4.88)

where

$$\bar{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x} \\ \bar{y} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \eta = \begin{bmatrix} \zeta \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.89)

$$P_{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Cov}(x) & \operatorname{Cov}(x,y) \\ \operatorname{Cov}(y,x) & \operatorname{Cov}(y) \end{bmatrix}$$
(4.90)

Then, it can be proven that (see Theorem 2.13 in [Jaz70])

$$E\{x|y\} = \bar{x} + Cov(x, y)Cov^{-1}(y)(\beta - \bar{y})$$
(4.91)

$$E\{y|x\} = \bar{y} + Cov(y, x)Cov^{-1}(x)(\zeta - \bar{x})$$
(4.92)

and

$$\operatorname{Cov}\{x|y\} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} E\left\{\left(\zeta - E\{x|y\}\right)\left(\zeta - E\{x|y\}\right)^{T}\right\}$$
(4.93)

$$= \operatorname{Cov}\{x\} - \operatorname{Cov}\{x, y\} \operatorname{Cov}^{-1}\{y\} \operatorname{Cov}\{y, x\}$$
(4.94)

$$\operatorname{Cov}\{y|x\} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} E\left\{\left(\beta - E\{y|x\}\right)\left(\beta - E\{y|x\}\right)^{T}\right\}$$
(4.95)

$$= \operatorname{Cov}\{y\} - \operatorname{Cov}\{y, x\} \operatorname{Cov}^{-1}\{x\} \operatorname{Cov}\{x, y\}$$
(4.96)

4.3 STATISTICS

4.3.1 PREDICTION

The first problem of statistics is prediction of the outcome of a future trial given a probabilistic model.

Suppose $\mathcal{P}(x)$, the probability density for random variable x, is given. Predict the outcome of x for a new trial (which is about to occur).

Note that, unless $\mathcal{P}(x)$ is a point distribution, x cannot be predicted exactly.

To do optimal estimation, one must first establish a formal criterion. For example, the most likely value of x is the one that corresponds to the highest density value:

$$\hat{x} = \arg\left[\max_{x} \mathcal{P}(x)\right]$$

A more commonly used criterion is the following minimum variance estimate:

 $\hat{x} = \arg\left[\min_{\hat{x}} E\left\{\|x - \hat{x}\|_{2}^{2}\right\}\right]$

The solution to the above is $\hat{x} = E\{x\}$. Exercise: Can you prove the above? If a related variable y (from the same trial) is given, then one should use $\hat{x} = E\{x|y\}$ instead.

4.3.2 SAMPLE MEAN AND COVARIANCE, PROBABILISTIC MODEL

The other problem of statistics is inferring a probabilistic model from collected data. The simplest of such problems is the following:

We are given the data for random variable x from N trials. These data are labeled as $x(1), \dots, x(N)$. Find the probability density function for x.

Often times, a certain density shape (like normal distribution) is assumed to make it a well-posed problem. If a normal density is assumed, the following sample averages can then be used as estimates for the mean and covariance:

$$\hat{x} = rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}x(i)$$
 $\hat{Rx} = rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}x(i)x^{T}(i)$

Note that the above estimates are *consistent* estimates of real mean and covariance \bar{x} and R_x (i.e., they converge to true values as $N \to \infty$).

A slightly more general problem is:

A random variable vector y is produced according to

$$y = f(\theta, u) + x$$

In the above, x is another random variable vector, u is a known deterministic vector (which can change from trial to trial) and θ is

an unknown deterministic vector (which is invariant). Given data for y from N trials, find the probability density parameters for x(e.g., \bar{x} , R_x) and the unknown deterministic vector θ .

This problem will be discussed later in the regression section.