INDEPENDENCE, TRANSFORMATIONS AND JACOBIANS, SIMULATION

1. REVIEW OF INDEPENDENCE

- If two random vectors X and Y have joint pdf p(x,y), they are **independent** if and only if $p(x,y) = q_X(x)q_Y(y)$, where q_X and q_Y both integrate to one.
- In this case it is easy to verify that q_X and q_Y are the marginal pdf's of X and Y and also $q_X(x) = q_{X|Y}(x|y)$, $q_Y(y) = q_{Y|X}(y|x)$, that is, q_X and q_Y are also the conditional pdf's of $X \mid Y$ and $Y \mid X$.
- Obviously this means that the conditional distribution of $\{Y|X\}$ does not depend on X and for any function f of Y, E[f(Y)|X] = E[f(Y)]. (Of course also the same things with the Y, X roles reversed.)
- A more general definition: Y is independent of X if for every function g(Y) such that $E[|g(Y)|] < \infty$, $E[g(Y)|X] \equiv E[g(Y)]$. It turns out that if this is true, the same is true with the roles of x and y reversed.
- Yet another definition: *Y* and *X* are independent if and only if we can write their joint cdf $F_{X,Y}(x,y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y)$.
- A collection $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ of random vectors is **mutually independent** if for every i and for every g with $E[g(X_i)]$ defined and finite, $E[g(X_i)|X_{-i}] = E[g(X_i)]$. Here we're using the notation that X_{-i} means all the elements of the X vector except the one with index i. If they have a joint pdf, this is equivalent to

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n q_i(x_i).$$

• It is possible to have X_i independent of X_j for any $i \neq j$ between 1 and n, yet to have the collection $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ not mutually independent. That is, pairwise independence does not imply mutual independence.

2. Transformations and Jacobians

Suppose we start with a random variable X with known pdf p(x), but now want to find the pdf of Z = g(X).

- g had better be monotone, or else we have to break up its domain into pieces on which it is monotone, then sum up the results.
- Simply substituting $g^{-1}(z) = x$ into g to obtain $p(g^{-1}(z))$ produces the pdf of z only under highly restrictive conditions. These conditions occur fairly often in regression models, so it is all too common for people to forget that they do not hold generally.

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• The correct formula: The pdf of Z = g(X) is given by

$$q(z) = p(g^{-1}(z)) \left| \frac{dx}{dz} \right| = p(g^{-1}(z)) \left| \frac{1}{g'(g^{-1}(z))} \right|.$$

• The formula is less messy if we can solve for $h(z) = g^{-1}(z)$. Then it is

$$q(z) = p(h(z)) |h'(z)|.$$

• A possibly helpful mnemonic device: always think of a pdf p(x) as p(x)dx. Then the Jacobian rule is

$$p(x)dx \to p(x(z)) \left| \frac{dx}{dz} \right| dz$$

and the Jacobian looks like a natural correction for the fact that we are replacing dx with dz.

3. MULTIVARIATE GENERALIZATION

- In the univariate case, the |dx/dz| term is not usually called a "Jacobian". That term comes from the multivariate case.
- With X a vector and X = h(Z) a vector-valued function with the dimensions of Z and X matching, the formula becomes

$$q(z) = p(h(z)) \operatorname{abs}\left(\left|\frac{dx}{dz}\right|\right).$$

• The |dx/dz| term is what is properly called a Jacobian. It is defined as

$$\left| \frac{dx}{dz} \right| = \left| \left[\frac{\partial h_i(z)}{\partial z_j} \right] \right|$$

4. EXAMPLES: SQUARING A NORMAL

• $X \sim N(0,1), Z = \frac{1}{2}X^2$.

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}, \quad h(z) = \sqrt{2z}, \quad q(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-z}.$$

- What happened to the $\frac{1}{2}$?
- This q is a special case of the general $Gamma(n, \alpha)$, which has pdf

Gamma
$$(z|n,\alpha) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} \alpha^n z^{n-1} e^{-\alpha z}$$
.

- The gamma function is defined for n > 0, satisfies $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ for integer n and $n\Gamma(n) = \Gamma(n+1)$ for all n > 0.
- If $Z \sim \text{Gamma}(n, \alpha)$, then its mean E[Z] is n/α .

- Notation for the gamma distribution is not well standardized. What we have called n is sometimes called p or α . It is the "shape" parameter. What we have called α is sometimes replaced by its inverse, which is then sometimes called β or σ . α is the "inverse-scale" parameter, and its inverse is called the "scale".
 - 5. EXAMPLES: SUM OF TWO INDEPENDENT RANDOM VARIABLES
- Z = X + Y, X and Y independent, pdf's p(x) and q(y).
- To keep the Jacobian square, we have to think of the transformation as

$$(Z,X) = g(Y,X) \quad (Y,X) = h(Z,X).$$

 $\frac{\partial h}{\partial z, x} = \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial (y, x)}\right)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}.$

• So the Jacobian part is easy. But now we are left with the joint pdf p(x)q(z-x). To get the marginal pdf r(z) of Z we have to integrate:

$$r(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x)q(z-x) dx = p * q(z).$$

- This is called the **convolution** of p with q.
- These steps Pad the transformation until it is square, apply Jacobian rule, integrate
 out parts of the transformed vector we are not interested in are needed whenever
 we are deriving the pdf of a function of a vector of random variables that is of lower
 dimension than its arguments. In more complicated cases, these calculations can be
 burdensome.
 - 6. Examples: Sums of squares of normals, sums of gammas
- X and Y independent, both N(0,1). $Z = X^2 + Y^2$. We could do this directly, but note that we already know that $U = \frac{1}{2}X^2$ and $V = \frac{1}{2}Y^2$ are $Gamma(\frac{1}{2}, 1)$.
- So let's apply the convolution rule to the sum of two i.i.d. (independent, identically distributed) gammas, W=U+V:

$$q(w) = \int_0^w \frac{1}{\pi} u^{-\frac{1}{2}} (w - u)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-w} du$$

• We can make the integral come out as a constant by replacing u with t = u/w. This leads to

$$q(w) = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{w\pi} t^{-\frac{1}{2}} (1-t)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-w} w dt.$$

• Here, as often in dealing with pdf's, we don't need to determine the exact value of the integral now that we know it's a constant, call it κ , because the constant will be absorbed in the normalizing constant.

$$q(w) = \kappa e^{-w} = \operatorname{Gamma}(w | 1, 1)$$
.

- This same sort of trick gives the conclusion that in general the sum of a Gamma (n, α) with a Gamma (m, α) is a Gamma $(n + m, \alpha)$.
- In our original case now, we know that $\frac{1}{2}Z \sim \text{Gamma}(1,1)$. This result can be applied recursively to get the conclusion that half the sum of n squared i.i.d. N(0,1) variables is distributed as $\text{Gamma}(\frac{n}{2},1)$. Though the transformation from Z to $\frac{1}{2}Z$ is trivial, the distribution of the sum of n squared i.i.d. N(0,1) variates occurs so often that it is given a special name: $\chi^2(n)$. So obviously if $X \sim \chi^2(n)$, $\frac{1}{2}X \sim \text{Gamma}(\frac{n}{2},1)$.
 - 7. EXAMPLES: WHERE A JACOBIAN CALCULATION MIGHT BE NASTY
- A common form of model is one that involves linear equations, written in matrix form as

$$Y\Gamma = XB$$
.

• Often Γ is square and non-singular and we need to discuss how Y responds to X, which corresponds to finding Π in

$$Y = XB\Gamma^{-1} = X\Pi$$
.

- Suppose we know the joint pdf's of the elements of Γ and B. What is the joint pdf of the elements of Π ? A terrible mess.
- 8. Simulation: the refuge of those who want to avoid calculus
- Instead of taking derivatives of inverses of matrices, then integrating out redundant variables, we can simulate.
- Get the computer to generate a large sample of (pseudo-)random numbers with the joint distribution of the elements of Γ , B. For each draw i, form $\Pi_i = B_i \Gamma_i^{-1}$.
- If, for example, we want to know the expectation of π_{jk} , the j'th row, k'th column element of Π , we can just take the sample average of that element over our artificial sample $\{\Pi_i\}$, i.e. if there are N matrices in our sample, for $N^{-1}\sum_i \pi_{iki}$.
- To estimate the density function for π_{jk} , we can form a histogram or kernel density estimate from the artificial sample (hist or density in R).
- You do have to program the computer. It may take the computer a while, in a real-world application, to generate a big enough sample to give you accurate estimates.
 But you can spend the time productively elsewhere, and in some cases the computer will be faster than your calculus.