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Complative Distribution Function
                                 PMF Px(xk)= 1/4 PMF discrete random variable

> CDF can be used for any kind of random variable
                                  - Definition
                                   A CDF of a random variable x is defined as Fx(x)=P(x < x)
                                   for all x \in R
                                   EX! I have tossed a coin twice. RV X is number of heads. Find
                                  its PMF and CDF.
                                                 P_{x} = \{0, 1, 2\}
P_{x}(0) = \frac{1}{4}
P_{x}(1) = \frac{1}{2}
P_{x}(2) = \frac{1}{4}
P_{x}(3) = \frac{1}{4}
                                 For \alpha \angle D f_{x}(\alpha) = 0
\alpha \ge 2 \qquad F_{x}(\alpha) = 1 = P_{x}(0) + P_{x}(1) + P_{x}(2)
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                                 COF: F_X(x) = P(X \angle x)
                                      0 \leq \alpha \leq 1 \qquad f_{\chi}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{4}
1 \leq \alpha \leq 2 \qquad f_{\chi}(\alpha) = \frac{3}{4} = f_{\chi}(0) + f_{\chi}(1)
               Properties of Complative Distribution Function
               (-) F<sub>x</sub> (-∞) = 0 F<sub>x</sub> (-∞)=1
              2-) CDF is a non decreasing function
                    Q (B=) F( (B) 2 F (B)
            3-) For any xx E Ry
                                          F_{x}(x_{k}) - \overline{f}_{x}(x_{k} - \overline{\xi}) = P(x - x_{k})
           4-) P(a < x \leq b) = P(x \leq b) - P(x \leq a) = f(a) - f(a)
           EXPECTATION
            a, a, ... an (ensider a R.V. x, how we find ) es ace-age)
          avnyage \sum_{i=0}^{n} Let X be a R.V. with R_{x} = \{X_{1}/X_{1},...=0\} the average expected value of random variable X, E
                  EX= Stk.p(X=1/k)

Expected
                     E[+]=E(4)=MX
           EX' X P(X) EX 0.75 EX 0.75 = 2.0,75+3.0,25
                                                                              - 2.25 -> EX
           FUNCTIONS OF RANDOM VARIABLES
            Xisa random variable Ry = {gcx) | x ∈ Rx}
             Y = g(X)
we already know the PMF(X), PMF(Y)
P(X) = P(X = X) = P(g(X) = X) = \sum_{X \in g(X) = Y} P(X)
R.V.
            EX. Let \times be a discrete R.V. with P_X(k) = \frac{1}{5} for k = -1, 2, 1/2, 3
            Let y = 2/x/ find range and part of y.
              R_{1} = \{-1,9,1,2,3\} P_{1}(0) = P_{1}(1) \cdots P_{n}(3) P_{2} = \{|2,-1|,|2,0|,|2,1|,|2,2|,|2,3|\}
                 P_{y}(0) = \frac{1}{5} P_{y}(2) = \frac{2}{5} P_{y}(4) = \frac{1}{5} P_{y}(6) = \frac{1}{5} P_{y}(6) = \frac{1}{5}
                                          Law of Unconscious stasización (LOTUS) per D.R.V.
            E [g(x)] = & g(xk), P(xk)
          EX. prev. question = Find E[7] where Y=2/x
           LOTUS E[3]=21-11\frac{1}{5}+2.101\frac{1}{5}+2.111\frac{1}{5}+2.121\frac{1}{5}+2.131\frac{1}{5}=\frac{14}{5}-ME(5)
          Variance and standard deviation
         - I am offered to invest $800, 2 investment accounts.
          1- will give me $ 1000 in a year,
           2- Will give me eigner 500 bor $ 1500 (equally likely) in one year.
         which are should I choose)
        (1900) = 1 y (500)=1 y (1500)=1 

Lo ex=1000 y (500)=1 

Ex = 500-1 + 1500 i = 1000 Sumo
         Only expectation is not sufficient - sudace E setuli degil
        The variance of a RV X with EX = \alpha_X Var(x) = E[(x-y_x)^2]
          0=000-0001-(x)-av
         (3) Var (y) = 500-1000 + 1500 - 1000
                                (-500)1
          Standard deviation: is a square root of variance
                                        0 = SLJ (X) = (Var (4)
                                                   Variance-small
           Covariance and Correlation
          Ex, var, sel. dw -> distribution of a single R.V.
         > Two R.V. -> Coveriance, correlation
         -> Cover; ance measure the association of 600 R.V.
         Covariance Euro RV. X and Y
                                Cov(X,7) is defined as = E(X-E^*) \cdot E(Y-E^*) = E(X^*) - E(X) \cdot E(Y)

regulable to the covidence of the co
              Cov (4,5) 203
                                                                                        COV(X,Y)=0 ->no relation be an X,y
                                                          (ov(x,y) 20
                                                       LODE OF XIY is
                                                          inc. and the
                                   increoury
                                                            other one is decressing
              Correlation
               like coveriance, the values of correlation is between [-1:1]
                                             > " P" = (or (x,y) = (or (x,y))
              1,-1 Perfect consolution
                              COV(x, y) LO small x, large y
                             COV (XIY) = O X and Y are uncorrelated
                                 Properties of variances and covariances
                    Var(aX + bY + c) = a^2 Var(X) + b^2 Var(Y) + 2ab Cov(X, Y)
                    Cov(aX + bY, cZ + dW)
                      = ac \operatorname{Cov}(X, Z) + ad \operatorname{Cov}(X, W) + bc \operatorname{Cov}(Y, Z) + bd \operatorname{Cov}(Y, W)
                                                = \operatorname{Cov}(Y, X)
                    Cov(X,Y)
                                                = \rho(Y, X)
                    \rho(X,Y)
                    In particular,
                                            = a^2 \operatorname{Var}(X)
                     Var(aX+b)
                     Cov(aX + b, cY + d) = ac Cov(X, Y)
                     \rho(aX + b, cY + d) = \rho(X, Y)
                     For independent X and Y,
                      Cov(X,Y)
                                                   = \operatorname{Var}(X) + \operatorname{Var}(Y)
                       Var(X + Y)
          Ex: A program consists two modles. The number
                                                               module x and the number
        oferress in the second module Y have joint
        digalibetion.
                               P(0,0) = P(0,1) = P(1,0) = 0.2
        P(x, y)
                               P(1,1) = P(1,2)= P(1) = 0.1
                               P(91) = P(91) = 0.09
  atmarsisal Prob. X and I P(1), P(4)
     P_{x}(0)_{2} \leq P(0,y) = 0.2 + 0.2 + 0.05 + 0.05 = 0.5
P_{x}(1) = \leq P(1,y) = 0.2 + 0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 = 0.5
     Py (0)= & P(x,0)= 0.2+0.2=0.4
                                              P_{y}(1) = \leq P(x,1) = 0.2 + 0.1 = 0.3
                                                                                                    Py(z) = & P(x,z) = 0.1+0.05=0.15
     Py(3) = & p(x13) = 0.15
  b-) × and y are independent?
    P(x, y)= P(x).P(y)
    P(0,1) = Px(0). Py(1)
   0.2=1.05.05 No -> x and Y unnt independent
  (-) Va-LXF? Var(4)=?
   Va- (x) = E(x-Mx) = dx = \( \frac{1}{2} \times \cdot P_X = 0.0.5 + 1.0.5 = 0.5 \)
   Var(y) = E[(3-13)] E(y) = dy = = = 0x0.4 + 1.0.3 + 2 × 0.15 = 1,05
  V~ (x) = E[(x-Mx)2] = (0-0.5)2+(1-0.5)2=5
  Var(9) = \sum_{s=0}^{4-3} -5(0-1.05)^{2} + (1-1.05)^{2} + (2-1.05)^{2} + (3-1.05)^{2}
1-) P(X, Y) = 7 = (or (x,y) = E (X-dx)(y-My)
                                     = E(x.y) - E(x), E(y)
           3.3.7 Chebyshev's inequality
           Knowing just the expectation and variance, one can find the range of values most likely taken
           by this variable. Russian mathematician Painury Chebyshev (1821–1894) showed that any random variable X with expectation \mu=\mathbf{E}(X) and variance g^2=\operatorname{Var}(X) belongs to the interval \mu\pm\varepsilon=[\mu-\varepsilon,\mu+\varepsilon] with probability of at least 1-(\sqrt[3]{\varepsilon}). That is,
                       Chebyshev's
                                          P\{|X - \mu| > \varepsilon\} \le \left(\frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon}\right)^{\epsilon}
                        inequality
                                     for any distribution with expectation \mu and variance \sigma^2 and for any positive \varepsilon_c
                  Disercte Random Variables and Their Distributions
    PROOF: Here we consider discrete random variables. For other types, the proof is similar. According to Definition 3.6.
                    \sum_{\mu \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{S}}} (x-\mu)^2 P(x) \qquad \geq \sum_{\nu \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{S}}} \sum_{\psi \mid |x-\nu| \geq 0} (x-\mu)^2 P(x) \qquad \qquad \neq \omega
\sum_{\mu \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{S}}} |\varepsilon^2 P(x)| = |\varepsilon|^2 \sum_{\nu \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{S}}} |P(x)| - |\varepsilon|^2 P\{|x-\mu| > \varepsilon\}.
     Chebyshev's inequality shows that only a large variance may allow a variable X to differ
     significantly from its expectation \mu. In this case, the risk of seeing an extremely high value of X increases. For this reason, risk is often measured in terms of a
      variance or standard deviation.
     Example 3.12. Suppose the number of errors in a new software has expectation \mu=20
           standard deviation of 2. According to (3.8), the
      Hence, P\{|x - \mu| > \varepsilon\} \le \sigma^2/\varepsilon^2
      Chebyshev's inequality shows that only a large variance may allow a variable X to differ
      significantly from its expectation \mu. In this case, the risk of seeing an extremely low or
      extremely high value of X increases. For this reason, risk is often measured in terms of a
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look chet y shows in equality

**Example 3.12.** Suppose the number of errors in a new software has expectation  $\mu = 20$ and a standard deviation of 2. According to (3.8), there are more than 30 errors with

However, if the standard deviation is 5 instead of 2, then the probability of more than 30

Chebyshev's inequality is universal because it works for any distribution. Often it gives a rather loose bound for the probability of  $|X - \mu| > \varepsilon$ . With more information about the

Chebyshey's inequality shows that in general, higher variance implies higher probabiliti

 $P\{X > 30\} \le P\{|X - 20| > 10\} \le \left(\frac{2}{10}\right)^2 = 0.04.$ 

variance or standard deviation.

errors can only be bounded by  $\left(\frac{5}{10}\right)^2 = 0.25$ .

distribution, this bound may be improved.

3.3.8 Application to finance

probability