

# Mathematical Statistics I

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# 1 Probability and Distribution

## 1.1 Sets

**Theorem 1.1** (Distributive Laws). For any sets  $A, B$ , and  $C$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}A \cap (B \cup C) &= (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \\A \cup (B \cap C) &= (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 1.2** (DeMorgan's Laws). For any sets  $A$  and  $B$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}(A \cap B)^c &= A^c \cup B^c \\(A \cup B)^c &= A^c \cap B^c\end{aligned}$$

## 1.2 Probability Set Function

**Definition 1.1** (Probability Set Function). Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be a sample space, let  $\mathcal{B}$  be the set of events,  $P$  be a real-valued function defined on  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then  $P$  is a **probability set function** if  $P$  satisfies the following three conditions:

1.  $P(A) \geq 0, \forall A \in \mathcal{B}$ .
2.  $P(\mathcal{S}) = 1$ .
3. If  $\{A_n\}$  is a sequence of events in  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $A_m \cap A_n = \emptyset, \forall m \neq n$ , then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)$$

**Definition 1.2.** A collection of events whose members are pairwise disjoint is said to be a **mutually exclusive collection** and its union is referred to as a disjoint union. The collection is said to be **exhaustive** if the union of its events is the sample space. A mutually exclusive and exhaustive collection of events forms a partition of  $\mathcal{S}$ .

**Theorem 1.3.** For each event  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$ .

*Proof.* We have  $\mathcal{S} = A \cup A^c$  and  $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$ . Thus,  $P(A) + P(A^c) = 1$ . □

**Theorem 1.4.** The probability of the null set is zero, i.e.,  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ .

*Proof.* We have  $\emptyset^c = \mathcal{S}$ . Accordingly,  $P(\emptyset) = 1 - P(\mathcal{S}) = 1 - 1 = 0$ . □

**Theorem 1.5.** If  $A$  and  $B$  are events s.t.  $A \subset B$ , then  $P(A) \leq P(B)$ .

*Proof.* We have  $B = A \cup (A^c \cap B)$  and  $A \cap (A^c \cap B) = \emptyset$ . Hence,  $P(B) = P(A) + P(A^c \cap B)$ . From the definition,  $P(A^c \cap B) \geq 0$ , and thus  $P(B) \geq P(A)$ . □

**Theorem 1.6.** For each  $A \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\emptyset \subset A \subset \mathcal{S}$ , we have  $P(\emptyset) \leq P(A) \leq P(\mathcal{S})$  or  $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ . □

**Theorem 1.7.** If  $A$  and  $B$  are events in  $\mathcal{S}$ , then  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ .

*Proof.* We can represent  $A \cup B$  and  $B$  as a union of non-intersecting sets:  $A \cup B = A \cup (A^c \cap B)$  and  $B = (A \cap B) \cup (A^c \cap B)$ . Hence,  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(A^c \cap B)$  and  $P(B) = P(A \cap B) + P(A^c \cap B)$ . Therefore,  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ . □

**Definition 1.3** (Equiprobability). Let  $\mathcal{S} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$  be a finite sample space. Let  $p_i = \frac{1}{m}$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . For all subsets  $A$  of  $\mathcal{S}$  define

$$P(A) = \sum_{x_i \in A} \frac{1}{m} = \frac{\#(A)}{m}$$

where  $\#(A)$  denotes the number of elements in  $A$ . Then  $P$  is a probability on  $\mathcal{S}$  and it is referred to as the equilikely case.

### 1.2.1 Counting Rule

**Definition 1.4** (Permutation). The number of  $k$  *permutations* taken from a set of  $n$  elements is

$$P_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

**Definition 1.5** (Combination).

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

which is also referred to a *binomial coefficient*.

### 1.2.2 Additional Properties of Probability

**Theorem 1.8.** Let  $\{C_n\}$  be a non-decreasing sequence of events, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(C_n) = P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n\right) = P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n\right)$$

Let  $\{C_n\}$  be a decreasing sequence of events, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(C_n) = P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n\right) = P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n\right)$$

**Theorem 1.9** (Boole's Inequality). Let  $\{C_n\}$  be an arbitrary sequence of events, then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n\right) \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(C_n)$$

## 1.3 Conditional Probability and Independence

**Definition 1.6** (Conditional Probability). Let  $B$  and  $A$  be events with  $P(A) > 0$ , then we defined the conditional probability of  $B$  given  $A$  as

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

**Property 1.1.** We have:

1.  $P(B|A) \geq 0$ .
2.  $P(A|A) = 1$ .
- 3.

$$P\left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n|A\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(B_n|A)$$

provided that  $B_1, \dots, B_n$  are mutually exclusive events.

4.  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B|A)$ .

**Theorem 1.10** (Bayes' Theorem). Let  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  be events s.t.  $P(A_i) > 0, i = 1, \dots, k$ . Assume that  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  form a partition of the sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ . Let  $B$  be any event. Then

$$P(A_j|B) = \frac{P(A_j)P(B|A_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^k P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}$$

**Definition 1.7** (Independence). We say  $A$  and  $B$  are **independent** if when  $P(A) > 0, P(B|A) = P(B)$ , i.e., the occurrence of  $A$  does not change the probability of  $B$ ; or when  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$ .

**Property 1.2.** Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  are independent, then the following three pairs are independent:  $A^c$  and  $B$ ,  $A$  and  $B^c$ , and  $A^c$  and  $B^c$ .

*Proof.* We have

$$P(A^c \cap B) = P(B) - P(A \cap B) = P(B) - P(A)P(B) = [1 - P(A)]P(B) = P(A^c)P(B)$$

□

**Definition 1.8** (Mutually Independence). The events are **mutually independent** iff they are pairwise independent.

**Example 1.1.** We say  $A_1, A_2$ , and  $A_3$  are mutually independent iff

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_1 \cap A_3) &= P(A_1)P(A_3) \\ P(A_1 \cap A_2) &= P(A_1)P(A_2) \\ P(A_2 \cap A_3) &= P(A_2)P(A_3) \\ P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) &= P(A_1)P(A_2)P(A_3) \end{aligned}$$

## 1.4 Random Variable

**Definition 1.9.** Consider a random experiment with a sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ . A function  $X$ , which assigns to each element  $s \in \mathcal{S}$  one and only one number  $X(s) = x$ , is called a **random variable**. The **space/range** of  $X$  is the set of real numbers  $\mathcal{D} = \{x : x = X(s), s \in \mathcal{S}\}$ .

**Definition 1.10** (Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF)). Let  $X$  be a r.v., then its **cumulative distribution function** (CDF) is defined as

$$F_X(x) = P_X((-\infty, x]) = P(\{s \in \mathcal{S} : X(s) \leq x\}) = P(X \leq x)$$

**Definition 1.11** (Equal in Distribution). Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two r.v.s., then  $X$  and  $Y$  are **equal in distribution** iff  $F_X(x) = F_Y(x), \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ , denoted  $X \stackrel{D}{=} Y$ .

**Note.** While  $X$  and  $Y$  may be equal in distribution, they may be quite different.

**Theorem 1.11.** Let  $X$  be a r.v. with CDF  $F(x)$ . Then

1.  $\forall a, b$ , if  $a < b$ , then  $F(a) \leq F(b)$ .
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$ .
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$ .
4.  $F$  is right continuous:  $\lim_{x \downarrow x_0} F(x) = F(x_0)$ .

**Theorem 1.12.** Let  $X$  be a r.v. with CDF  $F_X$ . Then for  $a < b$ ,  $P(a < X \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a)$ .

**Theorem 1.13.** For any r.v.,  $P(X = x) = F_X(x) - F_X(x-), \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ , where  $F_X(x-) = \lim_{z \uparrow x} F_X(z)$ .

*Proof.* For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$\{x\} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( x - \frac{1}{n}, x \right]$$

i.e.,  $\{x\}$  is the limit of a decreasing sequence of sets. Hence, by theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = x) &= P\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ x - \frac{1}{n} < X \leq x \right\}\right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(x - \frac{1}{n} < X \leq x\right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [F_X(x) - F_X(x - 1/n)] \\ &= F_X(x) - F_X(x-) \end{aligned}$$

□

## 1.5 Discrete Random Variable

**Definition 1.12** (Discrete Random Variable). We say a r.v. is a **discrete random variable** if its space is either finite or countable.

**Definition 1.13** (Probability Mass Function (PMF)). Let  $X$  be a discrete r.v. with space  $\mathcal{D}$ . The **probability mass function** (PMF) of  $X$  is

$$p_X(x) = P(X = x), x \in \mathcal{D}$$

which satisfies the two properties:

1.  $0 \leq p_X(x) \leq 1, x \in \mathcal{D}$ .
2.  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} p_X(x) = 1$ .

### 1.5.1 Transformation

Assume  $X$  is discrete with space  $\mathcal{D}_X$  and  $Y = g(X)$ , then the space of  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{D}_Y = \{g(x) : x \in \mathcal{D}_X\}$ . If  $g$  is one-to-one, then the PMF of  $Y$  is

$$p_Y(y) = P(Y = y) = P(g(X) = y) = P(X = g^{-1}(y)) = p_X(g^{-1}(y))$$

## 1.6 Continuous Random Variable

**Definition 1.14** (Continuous Random Variable). We say a r.v. is a **continuous random variable** if its cumulative distribution function  $F_X(x)$  is a continuous function for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Note 1.** For a continuous r.v.  $X$ , there are no points of discrete mass, i.e., if  $X$  is continuous, then  $P(X = x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Note 2.** Most continuous r.v.s. are absolutely continuous, i.e.,

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt$$

for some function  $f_X(t)$ , which is called a **probability density function** (PDF) of  $X$ .

**Note 3.** If  $f_X(x)$  is continuous, then the fundamental theorem of calculus implies that

$$\frac{d}{dx}F_X(x) = f_X(x)$$

**Note 4.** The support of a continuous r.v.  $X$  consists of all points  $x$  s.t.  $f_X(x) > 0$ .

**Note 5.** If  $X$  is a continuous r.v., then probabilities can be obtained by integration

$$P(a < X \leq b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a) = \int_a^b f_X(t)dt$$

**Note 6.** For continuous r.v.,

$$P(a < X \leq b) = P(a \leq X \leq b) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a < X < b)$$

**Note 7.** PDF satisfies two properties:  $f_X(x) \geq 0$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(t)dt = 1$  (follows from  $F_X(\infty) = 1$ ).

### 1.6.1 Quantile

**Definition 1.15** (Quantile). Let  $0 < p < 1$ . The **quantile** of order  $p$  of the distribution of a r.v.  $X$  is a value  $\xi_p$  s.t.  $P(X < \xi_p) < p$  and  $P(X \leq \xi_p) \geq p$ . It is also known as the  $(100p)$ th percentile of  $X$ .

### 1.6.2 Transformation

**Theorem 1.14.** Let  $X$  be a continuous r.v. with PDF  $f_X(x)$  and support  $\mathcal{S}_X$ . Let  $Y = g(X)$ , where  $g(x)$  is a one-to-one differentiable function, on the support of  $X$ ,  $\mathcal{S}_X$ . Denote the inverse of  $g$  by  $x = g^{-1}(y)$  and let  $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{d[g^{-1}(y)]}{dy}$ . Then the PDF of  $Y$  is given by

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|, y \in \mathcal{S}_Y$$

where the support of  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{S}_Y = \{y = g(x) : x \in \mathcal{S}_X\}$

**Note.** We refer to  $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy}$  as the Jacobian (denoted by  $J$ ) of the transformation.

Assume that transformation  $Y = g(X)$  is one-to-one, the following steps lead to the PDF of  $Y$  :

1. Find the support of  $Y$ .
2. Solve for the inverse of transformation, i.e., solve for  $x$  in terms of  $y$  in  $y = g(x)$ , thereby obtaining  $x = g^{-1}(y)$ .
3. Obtain  $\frac{dx}{dy}$ .
4. The PDF of  $Y$  is  $f_Y(y) = f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$ .

**Example 1.2.** Let  $X$  have the PDF

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 4x^3, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Consider the r.v.  $Y = -\ln X$ .

The support of  $Y$  is  $(0, \infty)$ . If  $y = -\ln x$ , then  $x = e^{-y}$  and  $\frac{dx}{dy} = -e^{-y}$ . The PDF of  $Y$  is

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(e^{-y})| -e^{-y}| = 4e^{-4y}$$

## 1.7 Expectation of a Random Variable

**Definition 1.16** (Expectation). Let  $X$  be a r.v. If  $X$  is a continuous r.v. with PDF  $f(x)$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|f(x)dx < \infty$ , then the expectation of  $X$  is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$$

If  $X$  is a discrete r.v. with PMF  $p(x)$  and  $\sum_x |x|p(x) < \infty$ , then the expectation of  $X$  is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_x xp(x)$$

**Theorem 1.15.** Let  $X$  be a r.v. and  $Y = g(X)$  for some function  $g$ . If  $X$  is continuous with PDF  $f_X(x)$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(x)|f_X(x)dx < \infty$ , then the expectation of  $Y$  exists:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f_X(x)dx$$

If  $X$  is discrete with PMF  $p_X(x)$  with the support  $\mathcal{S}_X$  and  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_X} |g(x)|p_X(x) < \infty$ , then the expectation of  $Y$  exists:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}_X} g(x)p_X(x)$$

**Theorem 1.16.** Let  $g_1(X)$  and  $g_2(X)$  be functions of a r.v.  $X$ . Suppose the expectations of  $g_1(X)$  and  $g_2(X)$  exists. Then for any constants  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , the expectation of  $k_1g_1(X) + k_2g_2(X)$  exists:

$$\mathbb{E}[k_1g_1(X) + k_2g_2(X)] = k_1\mathbb{E}[g_1(X)] + k_2\mathbb{E}[g_2(X)]$$

**Definition 1.17** (Mean). Let  $X$  be a r.v. whose expectation exists. The **mean** value  $\mu$  of  $X$  is defined to be  $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$ .

**Definition 1.18** (Variance). Let  $X$  be a r.v. with finite mean  $\mu$  and s.t.  $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]$  is finite. Then the **variance** of  $X$  is defined to be  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2]$

**Note.**  $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu^2$ .

**Theorem 1.17.** Let  $X$  be a r.v. with finite mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then for all constants  $a$  and  $b$ ,

$$\text{Var}[aX + b] = a^2\text{Var}[X]$$

**Definition 1.19** (Moment Generating Function). Let  $X$  be a r.v. s.t. for some  $h > 0$ , the expectation of  $e^{tX}$  exists for  $-h < t < h$ . The **moment generating function** (MGF) of  $X$  is defined to be the function

$$M(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}]$$

for  $-h < t < h$ .

**Theorem 1.18.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be r.v.s. with MGF  $M_X$  and  $M_Y$ , respectively, existing in open intervals about 0. Then  $F_X(z) = F_Y(z)$  for all  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  iff  $M_X(t) = M_Y(t)$  for all  $t \in (-h, h)$  for some  $h > 0$ .

**Theorem 1.19.**  $M'(0) = \mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$  and  $M''(0) = \mathbb{E}[X^2]$ . Accordingly,  $\sigma^2 = M''(0) - [M'(0)]^2$ . In general, if  $m$  is a positive integer and if  $M^{(m)}(t)$  means the  $m$ th derivative of  $M(t)$ , we have

$$M^{(m)}(0) = \mathbb{E}[X^m]$$

which is called the  $m$ th moment of the distribution, or the  $m$ th moment of  $X$ .

## 1.8 Inequality

**Theorem 1.20.** Let  $X$  be a r.v. and  $m$  be a positive integer. Suppose  $\mathbb{E}[X^m]$  exists. If  $k$  is a positive integer and  $k \leq m$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[X^k]$  exists.

*Proof.* We prove it for the continuous cases. Let  $f(x)$  be the PDF of  $X$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^k f(x) dx &= \int_{|x| \leq 1} |x|^k f(x) dx + \int_{|x| > 1} |x|^k f(x) dx \\ &\leq \int_{|x| \leq 1} f(x) dx + \int_{|x| > 1} |x|^m f(x) dx \\ &\leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x|^m f(x) dx \\ &\leq 1 + \mathbb{E}[|X|^m] < \infty \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 1.21** (Markov's Inequality). Let  $u(X)$  be a non-negative function of the r.v.  $X$ . If  $\mathbb{E}[u(X)]$  exists, then for every positive constant  $c$ ,

$$P(u(X) \geq c) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[u(X)]}{c}$$

**Theorem 1.22** (Chebyshev's Inequality). Let  $X$  be a r.v. with finite variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then for every  $k > 0$ ,

$$P(|X - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

or equivalently

$$P(|X - \mu| < k\sigma) \geq 1 - \frac{1}{k^2}$$

**Theorem 1.23** (Jensen's Inequality). If  $\phi$  is convex on an open interval  $I$  and  $X$  is a r.v. whose support is contained in  $I$  and has finite expectation, then

$$\phi[\mathbb{E}[X]] \leq \mathbb{E}[\phi(X)]$$

If  $\phi$  is strictly convex, then the inequality is strict unless  $X$  is a constant r.v.



## 2 Multivariate Distributions

### 2.1 Distribution of Two Random Variables

**Definition 2.1** (Random Vector). Given a random experiment with a sample space  $\mathcal{S}$ , consider two r.v.s.  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , which assign to each element  $s$  of  $\mathcal{S}$  on and only one ordered pair of numbers  $X_1(s) = x_1, X_2(s) = x_2$ . Then we say that  $(X_1, X_2)$  is a **random vector**. The space of  $(X_1, X_2)$  is the set of ordered pairs  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, x_2) : x_1 = X_1(s), x_2 = X_2(s), s \in \mathcal{S}\}$ .

**Note.** We often denote random vectors using  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2)^T$ .

#### 2.1.1 Marginal Distribution

Let  $(X_1, X_2)$  be a random vector. The marginal distribution of  $X_1$  is  $F_{X_1}(x_1) = P(X_1 \leq x_1, -\infty < X_2 < \infty)$ .

For discrete case, let  $\mathcal{D}_{X_1}$  be the support of  $X_1$ . For  $x_1 \in \mathcal{D}_{X_1}$ ,

$$F_{X_1}(x_1) = \sum_{w_1 \leq x_1} \sum_{-\infty < x_2 < \infty} p_{X_1, X_2}(w_1, x_2) = \sum_{w_1 \leq x_1} \left[ \sum_{x_2 < \infty} p_{X_1, X_2}(w_1, x_2) \right]$$

By the uniqueness of CDF,

$$p_{X_1}(x_1) = \sum_{x_2 < \infty} p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)$$

for all  $x_1 \in \mathcal{D}_{X_1}$ .

For continuous case, let  $\mathcal{D}_{X_1}$  be the support of  $X_1$ . For  $x_1 \in \mathcal{D}_{X_1}$ ,

$$F_{X_1}(x_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_1, X_2}(w_1, x_2) dx_2 dw_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_1, X_2}(w_1, x_2) dx_2 \right] dw_1$$

By the uniqueness of CDF,

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

for all  $x_1 \in \mathcal{D}_{X_1}$ .

#### 2.1.2 Expectation

Let  $(X_1, X_2)$  be a random vector and  $Y = g(X_1, X_2)$  for some real-valued function. Suppose  $(X_1, X_2)$  is continuous, then  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$  exists if

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(x_1, x_2)| f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 < \infty$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x_1, x_2) f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2$$

If  $(X_1, X_2)$  is discrete, then  $\mathbb{E}[Y]$  exists if

$$\sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} |g(x_1, x_2)| p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) < \infty$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} g(x_1, x_2) p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)$$

**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $(X_1, X_2)$  be a random vector. Let  $Y_1 = g_1(X_1, X_2)$  and  $Y_2 = g_2(X_1, X_2)$  be r.v.s. whose expectations exist. Then for all real numbers  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[k_1 Y_1 + k_2 Y_2] = k_1 \mathbb{E}[Y_1] + k_2 \mathbb{E}[Y_2]$$

**Definition 2.2** (Moment Generating Function of a Random Vector). Let  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2)^T$  be a random vector. If  $\mathbb{E}[e^{t_1 X_1 + t_2 X_2}]$  exists for  $|t_1| < h_1$  and  $|t_2| < h_2$  where  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are positive, it is denoted by  $M_{X_1, X_2}(t_1, t_2)$  and is called the **moment generating function** (MGF) of  $\mathbf{X}$ .

**Note 1.** MGF of a random vector uniquely determines the distribution of the random vector, as in the one-variable case.

**Note 2.** Let  $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2)^T$ , then we can write

$$M_{X_1, X_2}(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{X}}]$$

**Definition 2.3** (Expected Value of a Random Vector). Let  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2)^T$  be a random vector. Then the **expected value** of  $\mathbf{X}$  exists if the expectations of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  exist. If it exists, then

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[X_1] \\ \mathbb{E}[X_2] \end{bmatrix}$$

## 2.2 Transformations: Bivariate Random Variables

Let  $p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2)$  be the joint PMF of two discrete r.v.s.  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  with  $\mathcal{S}$  the two-dimensional set of points at which  $p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) > 0$ . Let  $y_1 = u_1(x_1, x_2)$  and  $y_2 = u_2(x_1, x_2)$  define a one-to-one transformation that maps  $\mathcal{S}$  onto  $\mathcal{T}$ . The joint PMF of the two new r.v.s.  $Y_1 = u_1(X_1, X_2)$  and  $Y_2 = u_2(X_1, X_2)$  is given by

$$p_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} p_{X_1, X_2}[w_1(y_1, y_2), w_2(y_1, y_2)], & (y_1, y_2) \in \mathcal{T} \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

where  $x_1 = w_1(y_1, y_2)$ ,  $x_2 = w_2(y_1, y_2)$  is the single-valued inverse of  $y_1 = u_1(x_1, x_2)$ ,  $y_2 = u_2(x_1, x_2)$ .

**Example 2.1.** Suppose the joint PMF is

$$p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = \frac{\mu_1^{x_1} \mu_2^{x_2} e^{-\mu_1} e^{-\mu_2}}{x_1! x_2!}, x_1 = 0, 1, \dots, x_2 = 0, 1, \dots$$

Suppose we want to know the distribution of  $Y_1 = X_1 + X_2$  and we take  $Y_2 = X_2$ . Then  $y_1 = x_1 + x_2$  and  $y_2 = x_2$  represent a one-to-one transformation that maps  $\mathcal{S}$  onto

$$\mathcal{T} = \{(y_1, y_2) : y_2 = 0, 1, \dots, y_1, y_1 = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

Note that if  $(y_1, y_2) \in \mathcal{T}$ , then  $0 \leq y_2 \leq y_1$ . The inverse functions are given by  $x_1 = y_1 - y_2$  and  $x_2 = y_2$ . Thus the joint PMF of  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  is

$$p_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \frac{\mu_1^{y_1 - y_2} \mu_2^{y_2} e^{-\mu_1 - \mu_2}}{(y_1 - y_2)! y_2!}, (y_1, y_2) \in \mathcal{T}$$

The marginal PMF of  $Y_1$  is

$$p_{Y_1}(y_1) = \sum_{y_2=0}^{y_1} p_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \frac{e^{-\mu_1 - \mu_2}}{y_1!} \sum_{y_2=0}^{y_1} \frac{y_1!}{(y_1 - y_2)! y_2!} \mu_1^{y_1 - y_2} \mu_2^{y_2} = \frac{(\mu_1 + \mu_2)^{y_1} e^{-\mu_1 - \mu_2}}{y_1!}, y_1 = 0, 1, \dots$$

For continuous case,

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} f_{X_1, X_2}[w_1(y_1, y_2), w_2(y_1, y_2)]|J|, & (y_1, y_2) \in \mathcal{T} \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

where

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_2} \\ \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_2} \end{vmatrix}$$