

Advanced statistics and modelling

2025 spring

Technical information

Contacts of the teachers

- **Gergely Palla** / pallag@hal.elte.hu
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Dept. of Physics of Complex Systems, Room 5.53
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Quant AVP at Citi MQA,
Dept. of Biological Physics, Room 3.90
- **János Báskay** / baskayj@caesar.elte.hu
Dept. of Biological Physics, Room 3.72.

Grading:

- 1 written test,
- if not satisfied with the offered grade, then an oral exam,

Course material:

- all slides, jupyter notebooks, etc. are going to be uploaded to the ELTE moodle site of the course.

Schedule

- **Sample space, Probability, Variable and Distribution**
- **Expectation, Inequalities, Convergence**
- **Models, Inference, Learning**
- **Empirical PDF, CDF, Smoothing, Binning**
- **Bootstrap, Maximum Likelihood, Hypothesis testing**
- **Regression, Inference About Independence**
- **Extreme Statistics, Posthoc Analysis**
- **Survival time analysis**
- **Hierarchical Bayesian models**
- **Classical chaos, Ljapunov exponents, Frobenius Perron operators**
- **Random Matrices and Eigenvalue Statistics**
- **Statistics in finance**
- **Stochastic Processes with applications in finance**

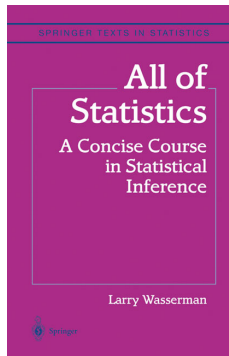
Schedule

Advanced statistics and modelling 2025 spring		
1. week	Feb. 13. Thursday Gergely Palla	Probability, variable, distribution
2. week	Feb. 20. Thursday Gergely Palla	Expectation, inequalities, convergence
3. week	Feb. 27. Thursday Gergely Palla	Statistical inference, estimating the CDF, PDF, Smoothing
4. week	Mar. 06. Thursday Bendegúz Borkovits	Bootstrap, Maximum Likelihood, Hypothesis testing
5. week	Mar. 13. Thursday Bendegúz Borkovits	Regression, inference about independence
6. week	Mar. 20. Thursday Bendegúz Borkovits	Extreme statistics, posthoc analysis
7. week	Mar. 27. Thursday Gergely Palla	Hierarchical Bayesian modelling
8. week	Apr. 03. Thursday János Báskay	Survival time analysis
9. week	Apr. 10. Thursday Zoltán Kaufmann	Classical chaos, Ljapunov exponent, Frobenius-Perron
10. week	Apr. 17. Thursday	Spring break
11. week	Apr. 24. Thursday László Oroszlány	Random matrices and eigenvalue statistics
12. week	May. 01. Thursday	National Holiday
13. week	May 08. Thursday Illés Farkas	Statistics in finance
14. week	May 15. Thursday	!! FINAL TEST !!

Recommended literature

Larry Wasserman: **All of Statistics**

A Concise Course in Statistical Inference



Sample space, Probability, Variable and Distribution

Sample space

- Events
- Operations between events
- Partition

Probability

- Kolmogorov's axioms
- Identities
- Conditional probability
- Bayes' theorem
- Independence

Random variable, CDF and PDF

- Random variable
- CDF
- Point mass function
- PDF
- Distributions
- Bivariate distribution
- Conditional distribution
- Multivariate distribution
- IID variables
- Transformations

SAMPLE SPACE, PROBABILITY, VARIABLE AND DISTRIBUTION

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Sample space

$\Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_n\}$ is the set of possible outcomes of an experiment. The points ω_i in Ω are called **sample outcomes** or **realisations**.

Events

A subset $A \subset \Omega$ is called an **event**.

- True event: $A = \Omega$, (always true).
- Null event: $A = \emptyset$, (always false).

Examples

- Coin tossing: $\Omega = \{\omega = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \dots), \omega_i \in \{H, T\}\}$
Event A can be e.g., that the first head appears on the third toss:
 $A = \{(\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \dots) : \omega_1 = T, \omega_2 = T, \omega_3 = H, \omega_i \in \{H, T\}\}$.
- Let ω be the outcome of a measurement of some physical quantity, e.g., temperature. Then $\Omega = [-\infty, \infty]$.
Event A can be e.g., that the measurement is between 10 and 20:
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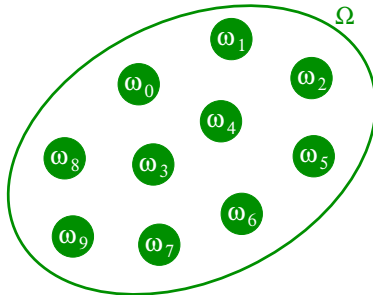
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- Union, $A \cup B$: at least one of them is true (OR): $A + B$.
- Intersection, $A \cap B$: both of them are true (AND): AB .
- Complement, A^c : it is false (NEGATION): \bar{A} .
- Inclusion: $A \subset C$.
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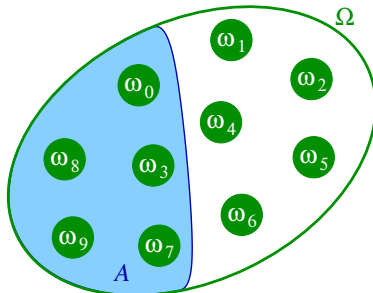
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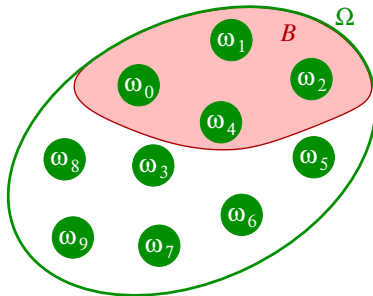
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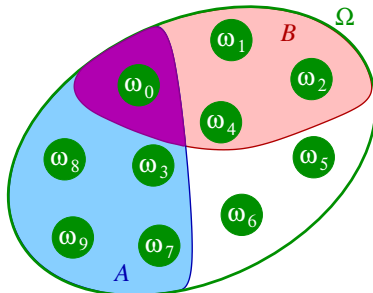
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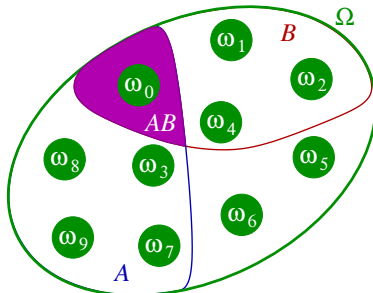
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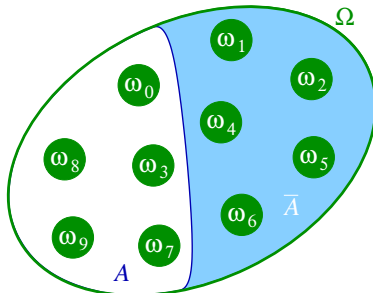
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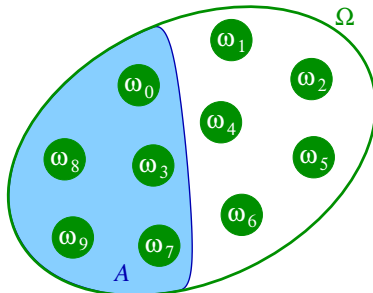
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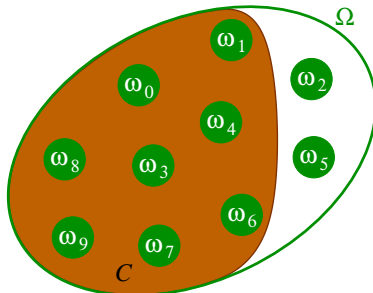
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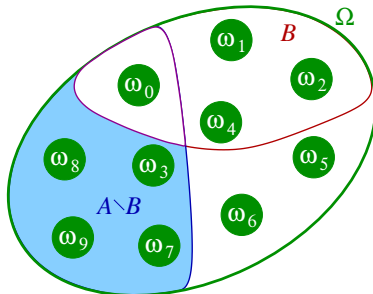
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Operational identities

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Operational identities

„AND”

- $A \cap B = B \cap A$
- $A \cap A = A$
- $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$
- $A \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$
- $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- $A \cap \Omega = A$

„OR”

- $A \cup B = B \cup A$
- $A \cup A = A$
- $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$
- $A \cup \bar{A} = \Omega$
- $A \cup \emptyset = A$
- $A \cup \Omega = \Omega$

- $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
- $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$
- $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
- $\overline{A \cap B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$
- $\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$

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Mutually exclusive events

A and B are mutually exclusive events if $A \cap B = \emptyset$

Partition

A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n is a partition of Ω , if for all $k = 1, \dots, n$

- a) $A_k \neq \emptyset$,
- b) $A_j \cap A_k = \emptyset$ if $j \neq k$,
- c) $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n = \Omega$.

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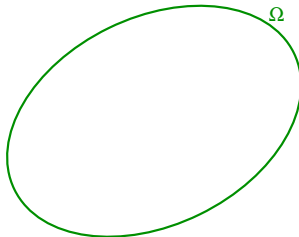
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Illustration:



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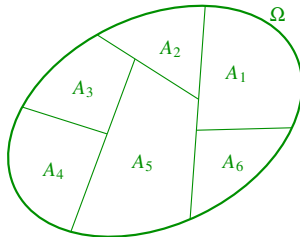
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PROBABILITY

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Definition of probability (Kolmogorov)

Given a sample space Ω , a function $P(A)$ over the subsets of Ω is a **probability distribution** or a **probability measure** if

K1 $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1 \quad \forall A \subset \Omega,$

K2 $P(\Omega) = 1,$

K3 If A_1, A_2, \dots are mutually exclusive, then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i).$$

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Definition of probability (Kolmogorov)

Given a sample space Ω , a function $P(A)$ over the subsets of Ω is a **probability distribution** or a **probability measure** if

K1 $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1 \quad \forall A \subset \Omega,$

K2 $P(\Omega) = 1,$

K3 If A_1, A_2, \dots are mutually exclusive, then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i).$$

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The probability of the false event \emptyset is 0.

$$\begin{aligned} A \cup \emptyset &= A, & A \cap \emptyset &= \emptyset \\ P(A) &= P(A \cup \emptyset) & \stackrel{K3}{=} & P(A) + P(\emptyset) \\ P(\emptyset) &= & 0 & \end{aligned}$$

For a partition A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n the sum of the probabilities is $\sum_i P(A_i) = 1$.

- $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ and $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \Omega$.
- Since $P(\Omega) = 1$, according to (K3) we obtain $\sum_i P(A_i) = 1$.

The probability of the complement \bar{A} is $P(\bar{A}) = 1 - P(A)$.

(A and \bar{A} together form a partition.)

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Probability of a subset

If A is included in B , i.e., $A \subset B$, then $P(B \setminus A) = P(B) - P(A)$.

- Since $A \subset B$, we can write B as $B = A \cup (B \setminus A)$.
- Also $A \cap (B \setminus A) = \emptyset$, thus according to (K3) $P(B) = P(A) + P(B \setminus A)$.

Probability of the union

For any events A and B the probability of their union is

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B).$$

- Since $A \cup B = A \cup (B \setminus A \cap B)$ and $A \cap (B \setminus A \cap B) = \emptyset$, according to (K3) $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B \setminus A \cap B)$.
- Since $A \cap B \subset B$, according to the previous result $P(B \setminus A \cap B) = P(B) - P(A \cap B)$, which substituted back yields the end result.

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Limit theorems

L I. If A_1, A_2, \dots is an infinite series of events where $A_n \supset A_{n+1}$ for all n , and

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = A, \text{ then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) = P(A).$$

L II. If A_1, A_2, \dots is an infinite series of events where $A_n \subset A_{n+1}$ for all n , and

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i = A, \text{ then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n) = P(A).$$

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The conditional probability of event A given event B is defined as

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

(where we assumed that $P(B) > 0$).

Properties:

- $0 \leq P(A | B) \leq 1$,
- $P(B | B) = 1$,
- If A_1, A_2, \dots , are pairwise disjoint, then $P(\cup_i A_i | B) = \sum_i P(A_i | B)$.
- The $P(A | B)$ function over the subsets A in Ω is also a probability distribution.
- $P(A | B)P(B) = P(A \cap B) = P(B | A)P(A)$.

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For any events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) &= P(A_1 \mid A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) P(A_2 \mid A_3 \cap \dots \cap A_n) \dots \\ &\dots P(A_{n-1} \mid A_n) P(A_n) = \\ &P(A_n) \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} P(A_i \mid A_{i+1} \cap \dots \cap A_n) \end{aligned}$$

Proof: by applying the multiplication rule for two events recursively, e.g.,

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3) = P(A_1 \mid A_2 \cap A_3) P(A_2 \cap A_3) = P(A_1 \mid A_2 \cap A_3) P(A_2 \mid A_3) P(A_3),$$

etc.

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If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n provide a partition and $P(A_i) > 0 \forall i$, then for any event B

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B | A_i)P(A_i).$$

- Since the A_i are pairwise disjoint, so are $B \cap A_i$.
- Based on $\bigcup_i A_i = \Omega$, the union of the events $B \cap A_i$ is
 $(B \cap A_1) \cup (B \cap A_2) \cup \dots \cup (B \cap A_n) = B \cap (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = B \cap \Omega = B$.
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- Since the A_i are pairwise disjoint, so are $B \cap A_i$.
- Based on $\cup_i A_i = \Omega$, the union of the events $B \cap A_i$ is

$$(B \cap A_1) \cup (B \cap A_2) \cup \dots \cup (B \cap A_n) = B \cap (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = B \cap \Omega = B.$$

- According to (K3) $P(\cup_i (B \cap A_i)) = \sum_i P(B \cap A_i)$.
- Multiplication rule for two events $P(B \cap A_i) = P(B | A_i)P(A_i)$.

$$\rightarrow P(B) = P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n B \cap A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B \cap A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B | A_i)P(A_i)$$

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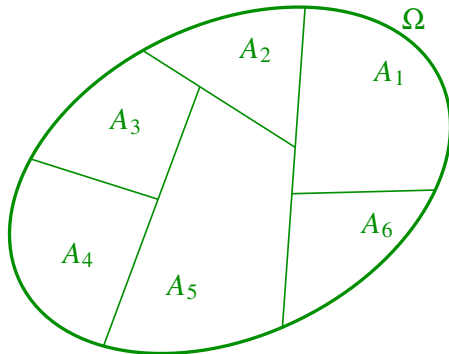
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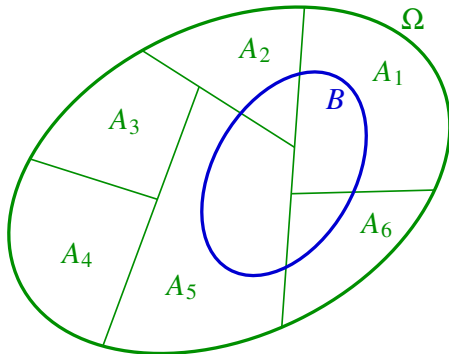
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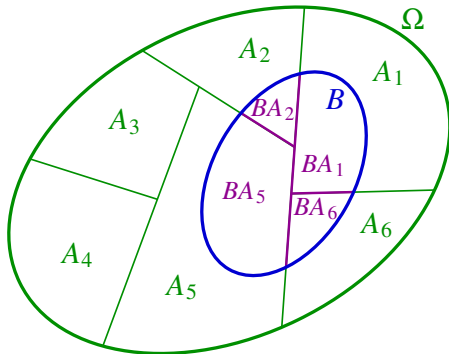
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$$P(A_k | B) = \frac{P(B | A_k)P(A_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(B | A_i)P(A_i)}.$$

Proof:

- According to the definition of the conditional probability $P(A_k | B)P(B) = P(B | A_k)P(A_k)$.
- We divide by $P(B)$ and use the law of total probability,

$$P(A_k | B) = \frac{P(B | A_k)P(A_k)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B | A_k)P(A_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(B | A_i)P(A_i)}.$$

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Independent events

Events A and B are independent if

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

- According to the definition the conditional probability of A given B in case of independence is

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

→ This can also be the alternative definition of independence.

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Random variable

A **random variable** is usually a mapping $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ assigning a real number $X(\omega)$ to each event. However in general a random variable can map also as

$$X(\omega) : \Omega \rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbb{N} \\ \mathbb{R} \\ \mathbb{C} \\ \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases}$$

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Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

The **cumulative distribution function** of a random variable X denoted by $F_X(x)$ is defined as

$$F_X(x) := P(X < x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega\} : X(\omega) < x)$$

Properties:

- If $x_1 < x_2$ then $F(x_1) \leq F(x_2)$,
(because event $X < x_1$ is a subset of $X < x_2$).
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$.
(These are the consequences of L I. and L II. limit theorems).
- $F(x)$ is continuous from the left:
ha $x_1 < x_2 \cdots < x_i < \cdots$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_n) = F(x)$.
(This comes from the limit theorem L II.)

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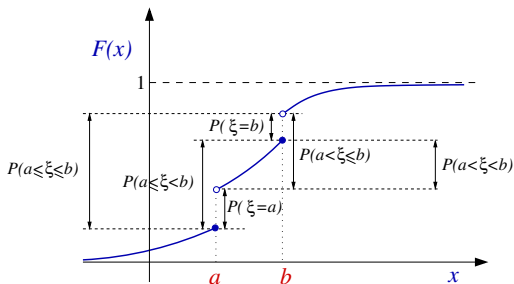
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- A random variable is **discrete** if its values $X(\omega) = x$ can take up finite or countable many different values.

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Point mass function

- A random variable is **discrete** if its values $X(\omega) = x$ can take up finite or countable many different values.
- Discrete random variables can be also characterised by their **point mass function** $f_X(x)$. By denoting the i -th discrete value $X(\omega)$ can take as x_i , the $f_X(x)$ can be defined as

$$f_X(x_i) := P(X(\omega) = x_i) = P(\{\omega_j\} : X(\omega_j) = x_i).$$

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$$f_X(x_i) := P(X(\omega) = x_i) = P(\{\omega_j\} : X(\omega_i) = x_i).$$

- The relation between the CDF and the point mass function can be written as

$$F(x) = \sum_{i: x_i < x} f_X(x_i) = \sum_{i: x_i < x} P(\{\omega_j\} : X(\omega_i) = x_i).$$

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Probability density function

- A random variable is **continuous**, if there is a $\rho(x) \geq 0$ function fulfilling

$$F(b) - F(a) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b \rho(x) dx.$$

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- Using $F(-\infty) = 0$ we can express the CDF as

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \rho(x') dx'.$$

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Probability density function

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$$F(b) - F(a) = P(a \leq X < b) = P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b \rho(x) dx.$$

- Using $F(-\infty) = 0$ we can express the CDF as

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \rho(x') dx'.$$

- The function $\rho(x)$ is called the **probability density function**.

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Properties of the PDF:

- It is normalised:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(x) dx = F(\infty) - F(-\infty) = 1.$$

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Properties of the PDF:

- It is normalised:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(x) dx = F(\infty) - F(-\infty) = 1.$$

- The probability that $X \in [a, b]$ can be expressed as

$$P(X \in [a, b]) = \int_a^b \rho(x) dx.$$

$F(x)$ and $\rho(x)$

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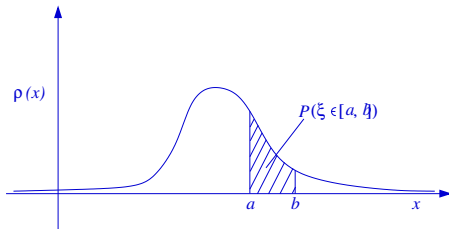
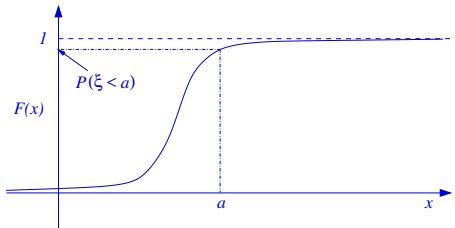
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Discrete uniform distribution

X has a uniform distribution on $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ if its point mass function is given by

$$f_X(x_i) = \frac{1}{n}.$$

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Discrete uniform distribution

X has a uniform distribution on $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ if its point mass function is given by

$$f_X(x_i) = \frac{1}{n}.$$

Bernoulli distribution

Let X represent an experiment with possibly two different outcomes (e.g., coin flip), where $P(X = 1) = p$ and $P(X = 0) = 1 - p$. Then X has a **Bernoulli distribution**, with a point mass function for $x \in 0, 1$ written as

$$f_X(x) = p^x(1-p)^{1-x} = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } x = 1, \\ 1-p, & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

This is usually denoted as $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$.

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Binomial and Geometric distributions

- Assume a coin flip with probability p for heads and probability $q = 1 - p$ for tails, repeated N times independently.

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Binomial and Geometric distributions

- Assume a coin flip with probability p for heads and probability $q = 1 - p$ for tails, repeated N times independently.
- Let X count to the number of heads. X has a **Binomial distribution** with a point mass function

$$f_X(x = k) = P(X = k) = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{N-k} = \binom{N}{k} p^k q^{N-k}.$$

This is usually denoted as $X \sim \text{Binomial}(N, p)$.

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$$f_X(x = k) = P(X = k) = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{N-k} = \binom{N}{k} p^k q^{N-k}.$$

This is usually denoted as $X \sim \text{Binomial}(N, p)$.

- Let Y count the number of flips needed until the first heads. Y has a **Geometrical distribution** with a point mass function

$$f_Y(y = k) = P(Y = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1} p.$$

This is usually denoted as $Y \sim \text{Geom}(p)$.

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Poisson distribution

X taking up non-negative integer values has a Poisson distribution if its point mass function can be written as

$$f_X(x = k) = P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}.$$

This is usually denoted as $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$.

If we take a binomial distribution $X \sim \text{Binom}(N, p)$ in the following limit:

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N = \infty, \quad \lim_{p \rightarrow 0} p = 0 \quad \lim_{\substack{N \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 0}} pN = \lambda,$$

then its point mass function is converging to a Poisson distribution

$$f_X(x = k) = P(X = k) = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(Np)^k}{k!} e^{-Np} = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}.$$



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Poisson distribution

X taking up non-negative integer values has a Poisson distribution if its point mass function can be written as

$$f_X(x = k) = P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}.$$

This is usually denoted as $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$.

If we take a binomial distribution $X \sim \text{Binom}(N, p)$ in the following limit:

$$\lim N = \infty, \quad \lim p = 0 \quad \lim_{\substack{N \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 0}} pN = \lambda,$$

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$$f_X(x = k) = P(X = k) = \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k} \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(Np)^k}{k!} e^{-Np} = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}.$$



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Continuous uniform distribution

The continuous random variable $X(\omega) \in [x_1, x_2]$ has a uniform distribution if

$$\rho_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x_2 - x_1} & \text{if } x_1 \leq x \leq x_2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < x_1 \\ \frac{x - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} & \text{if } x_1 \leq x \leq x_2 \\ 1 & \text{if } x > x_2 \end{cases}$$

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Exponential distribution

A continuous random variable X over the non-negative real numbers has an **Exponential distribution** if

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases} \quad \rho_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

This is usually denoted as $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$.

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Gamma distribution

- A continuous random variable X over the non-negative real numbers has a **Gamma distribution**, usually denoted as $X \sim \text{Gamma}(q, \lambda)$ if

$$\rho_X(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda^q \Gamma(q)} x^{q-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}},$$

where the Gamma function $\Gamma(z)$ is defined as

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{z-1} e^{-x} dx.$$

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$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{z-1} e^{-x} dx.$$

- Connections with the exponential distribution:
 - The exponential distribution corresponds to the special case of $\text{Gamma}(q = 1, \lambda)$.

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where the Gamma function $\Gamma(z)$ is defined as

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{z-1} e^{-x} dx.$$

- Connections with the exponential distribution:
 - The exponential distribution corresponds to the special case of $\text{Gamma}(q = 1, \lambda)$.
 - The sum of n independent random variables $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ has a Gamma distribution $\text{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$.

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$$\rho_X(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda^q \Gamma(q)} x^{q-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}},$$

where the Gamma function $\Gamma(z)$ is defined as

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{z-1} e^{-x} dx.$$

- Connections with the exponential distribution:
 - The exponential distribution corresponds to the special case of $\text{Gamma}(q = 1, \lambda)$.
 - The sum of n independent random variables $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ has a Gamma distribution $\text{Gamma}(n, \lambda)$.
 - Thus, also the sum of independent $X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(q_i, \lambda)$ has a distribution $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(\sum_{i=1}^n q_i, \lambda)$.

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Normal distribution

A continuous random variable X has a **Normal** (Gaussian) distribution (usually denoted by $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$) if

$$\rho_X(x) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \quad F_X(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right) \right],$$

A standard normal distribution is corresponding to $N(\mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$.

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A standard normal distribution is corresponding to $N(\mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$.

χ^2 distribution

- A continuous random variable X over the non-negative real numbers has a χ^2 distribution with n degrees of freedom (usually denoted by $X \sim \chi_n^2$) if

$$\rho_X(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) 2^{\frac{n}{2}}} x^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{x}{2}}$$

- Connection with the Normal distribution:
If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent standard Normal random variables, then $\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i^2 \sim \chi_n^2$.

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t distribution and Cauchy distribution

- A continuous random variable X over the non-negative real numbers has a **t distribution** (also called as Student's t distribution) with n degrees of freedom (usually denoted by $X \sim t_n$) if

$$\rho_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\pi}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)} \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{x^2}{n}\right)^{\frac{n+1}{2}}}.$$

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- Connection with the Normal distribution:
If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n and Y are independent standard Normal random variables, then the variable

$$Z := \frac{\sqrt{n}Y}{\sqrt{X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_n^2}} \text{ has a } t \text{ distribution, } Z \sim t_n$$

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If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n and Y are independent standard Normal random variables, then the variable

$$Z := \frac{\sqrt{n}Y}{\sqrt{X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_n^2}} \text{ has a } t \text{ distribution, } Z \sim t_n$$

- The $n = 1$ special case of the t distribution corresponds to the **Cauchy distribution**, where

$$\rho_X(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1 + x^2}.$$

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Cumulative distribution function

The joint CDF of random variables X and Y is defined as

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) := P(X \leq x, Y \leq y).$$

Properties:

- Monotonous, non-decreasing function of its variables.
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} F(x, y) = 0$ and $\lim_{x, y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = 1$.

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- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} F(x, y) = 0$ and $\lim_{x, y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = 1$.

Joint mass function

For discrete random variables X and Y the joint mass function is defined as

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

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Joint probability density function

For continuous random variables X and Y the joint probability density function is given by the function $\rho(x, y)$ connected to the joint CDF $F(x, y)$ as

$$F(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^x dx' \int_{-\infty}^y dy' \rho(x', y') \quad \rho(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 F(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y}$$

Properties:

- Normalised:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy' \rho(x', y') = 1.$$

- The probability that X and Y fall into given $[x_1, x_2]$ and $[y_1, y_2]$ intervals can be written as

$$P(x_1 < X < x_2, y_1 < Y < y_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx \int_{y_1}^{y_2} dy \rho(x, y).$$

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$$P(x_1 < X < x_2, y_1 < Y < y_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx \int_{y_1}^{y_2} dy \rho(x, y).$$

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Marginal CDF and probability densities

The joint distribution of X and Y uniquely determines the distribution of either X or Y , and these are called the marginals of the joint CDF:

$$F_X(x) = P(X < x, Y < \infty) = F_{X,Y}(x, \infty) = \int_{-\infty}^x dx' \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy' \rho(x', y'),$$

$$F_Y(y) = P(X < \infty, Y < y) = F_{X,Y}(\infty, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' \int_{-\infty}^y dy' \rho(x', y').$$

The marginal probability densities:

$$\rho_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \rho(x, y), \quad \rho_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \rho(x, y).$$

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$$F_Y(y) = P(X < \infty, Y < y) = F_{X,Y}(\infty, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' \int_{-\infty}^y dy' \rho(x', y').$$

The marginal probability densities:

$$\rho_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \rho(x, y), \quad \rho_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \rho(x, y).$$

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Independence of random variables

The random variables X and Y are independent if for any $x_1 \leq x_2$ and $y_1 \leq y_2$

$$P(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2, y_1 \leq Y \leq y_2) = P(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2)P(y_1 \leq Y \leq y_2).$$

- For discrete variables this means that for any x and y

$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y).$$

- For continuous variables this means that for any x and y

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y), \quad \rho(x,y) = \rho_X(x)\rho_Y(y).$$

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$$P(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2, y_1 \leq Y \leq y_2) = P(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2)P(y_1 \leq Y \leq y_2).$$

- For discrete variables this means that for any x and y

$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y).$$

- For continuous variables this means that for any x and y

$$F_{X,Y}(x, y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y), \quad \rho(x, y) = \rho_X(x)\rho_Y(y).$$

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Independence of random variables

The random variables X and Y are independent if for any $x_1 \leq x_2$ and $y_1 \leq y_2$

$$P(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2, y_1 \leq Y \leq y_2) = P(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2)P(y_1 \leq Y \leq y_2).$$

- For discrete variables this means that for any x and y

$$P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y).$$

- For continuous variables this means that for any x and y

$$F_{X,Y}(x,y) = F_X(x)F_Y(y), \quad \rho(x,y) = \rho_X(x)\rho_Y(y).$$

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Conditional distribution

- The conditional CDF of a random variable X given that the variable Y takes the value $Y = y$ can be defined as

$$F_X(x \mid Y = y) := \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} P(X < x \mid y \leq Y < y + \Delta y).$$

- The joint CDF of X and Y fully determines this distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x \mid y) &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} P(X < x \mid y \leq Y < y + \Delta y) = \\ &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(X < x, y \leq Y < y + \Delta y)}{P(y \leq Y < y + \Delta y)} = \\ &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x, y + \Delta y) - F(x, y)}{F_Y(y + \Delta y) - F_Y(y)} = \\ &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{F(x, y + \Delta y) - F(x, y)}{\Delta y}}{\frac{F_Y(y + \Delta y) - F_Y(y)}{\Delta y}} = \frac{\partial_y F(x, y)}{\rho_Y(y)} \end{aligned}$$

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Conditional probability density

- By taking the partial derivative of $F_X(x | y)$ -t with respect to x we obtain the conditional probability density of X as

$$\rho_X(x | y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} F_X(x | y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial y} F(x, y)}{\rho_Y(y)} = \frac{\rho(x, y)}{\rho_Y(y)}.$$

Similarly, the conditional CDF and density of Y given that $X = x$ can be written as

$$F_Y(y | X = x) = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial x} F(x, y)}{\rho_X(x)}, \quad \rho_Y(y | x) = \frac{\rho(x, y)}{\rho_X(x)}.$$

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$$F_Y(y | X = x) = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial x} F(x, y)}{\rho_X(x)}, \quad \rho_Y(y | x) = \frac{\rho(x, y)}{\rho_X(x)}.$$

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Marginal density distribution

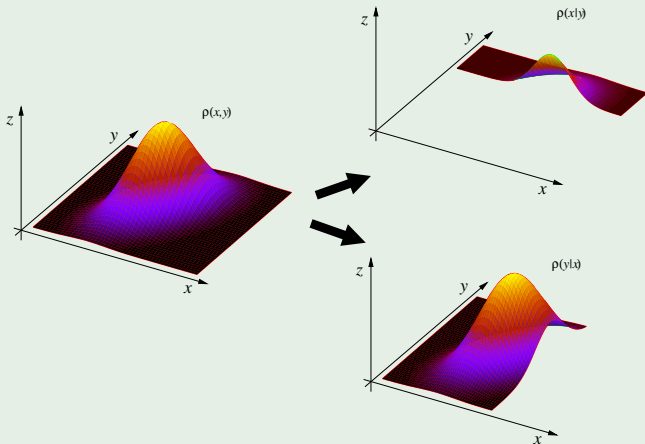
\leftrightarrow

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\leftrightarrow

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- Since

$$\rho(x, y) = \rho_X(x | y) \rho_Y(y) = \rho_Y(y | x) \rho_X(x),$$

the marginals can be expressed with the help of the conditional densities as

$$\rho_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \rho(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \rho_X(x | y) \rho_Y(y),$$

$$\rho_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \rho(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \rho_Y(y | x) \rho_X(x).$$

(These are analogous to the law of total probability).

- An identity analogous to Bayes' theorem:

$$\rho_X(x | y) = \frac{\rho(x, y)}{\rho_Y(y)} = \frac{\rho_Y(y | x) \rho_X(x)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \rho_Y(y | x) \rho_X(x)}$$

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Multivariate CDF

The joint CDF of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is defined similarly to the bivariate case as

$$F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) := P(X_1 < x_1, X_2 < x_2, \dots, X_n < x_n).$$

Properties:

- It is a monotonous non-decreasing function of its variables.

$$\bullet \forall i \in [1, n] \quad \lim_{x_i \rightarrow -\infty} F(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) = 0 \text{ and}$$
$$\lim_{x_1, \dots, x_n \rightarrow \infty} F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 1.$$

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Multivariate CDF

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The joint PDF of continuous random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n denoted by $\rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ fulfils

$$F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} dx'_1 \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} dx'_2 \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{x_n} dx'_n \rho(x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)$$

$$\rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\partial^n F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \cdots \partial x_n}$$

Properties:

- Normalised

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_2 \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_n \rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 1.$$

- The probability that (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) falls in some region E is

$$P((X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \in E) = \iint \cdots \int_E dx_1 dx_2 \cdots dx_n \rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

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$$F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_1} dx'_1 \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} dx'_2 \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{x_n} dx'_n \rho(x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)$$

$$\rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\partial^n F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \cdots \partial x_n}$$

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- Normalised

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_2 \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_n \rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 1.$$

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Independent and Identically distributed variables

- The independence of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is defined similarly to the bivariate case, i.e., they are independent if for any A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n where $A_i \subset \mathbb{R}$,

$$P(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A_2, \dots, X_n \in A_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \in A_i).$$

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- This is equivalent to

$$\rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \rho_{X_1}(x_1) \rho_{X_2}(x_2) \cdots \rho_{X_n}(x_n)$$

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- This is equivalent to

$$\rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \rho_{X_1}(x_1) \rho_{X_2}(x_2) \cdots \rho_{X_n}(x_n)$$

- If in addition all X_i have the same marginal distribution, then we call them **independent and identically distributed (IID)**. This means that they correspond to independent draws from the same distribution.

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Multinomial distribution

- This is the **multivariate** version of the **binomial distribution**.

Let us consider N draws with replacement from an urn with balls of q different colours, where the probability of drawing colour i is p_i . Let $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_q)$ count the number of drawn balls with the different colours. The probability mass function can be written as

$$f_X(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_q) = \frac{N!}{k_1! k_2! \dots k_q!} p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \dots p_q^{k_q}.$$

- The marginal distributions of $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_q) \sim \text{Multinomial}(N, p)$ where $p = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_q)$ are given by $X_i \sim \text{Binom}(N, p_i)$.

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- The marginal distributions of $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_q) \sim \text{Multinomial}(N, p)$ where $p = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_q)$ are given by $X_i \sim \text{Binom}(N, p_i)$.

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Multivariate normal distribution

The **multivariate Normal distribution** is parametrised by the vector of expected values $\mu = (\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_n)$ and the covariance matrix Σ . A random vector $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ has multivariate Normal distribution if the joint density distribution can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \Sigma}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\bar{x} - \bar{\mu})[\Sigma]^{-1}(\bar{x} - \bar{\mu})} = \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det \Sigma}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} [\Sigma^{-1}]_{ij} (x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j)}\end{aligned}$$

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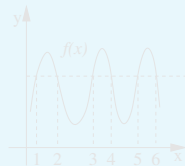
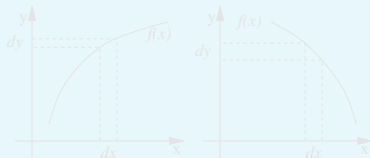
- If $Y = f(X)$, then how can we formulate the PDF of Y based on $\rho_X(x)$?

$$y = f(x) \rightarrow dy = f'(x)dx$$

$$\rho_Y(y) |dy| = \rho_X(x) |dx|$$

$$\rho_Y(y) = \rho_X(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| = \rho_X(f^{-1}(y)) \frac{1}{|f'(f^{-1}(y))|}$$

$$\rho_Y(y) = \sum_n \rho_X(f_n^{-1}(y)) \frac{1}{|f'(f_n^{-1}(y))|}$$



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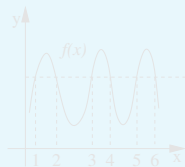
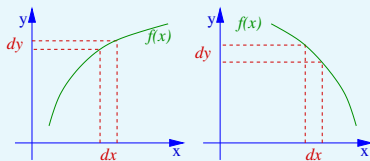
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$$\rho_Y(y) |dy| = \rho_X(x) |dx|$$

$$\rho_Y(y) = \rho_X(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| = \rho_X(f^{-1}(y)) \frac{1}{|f'(f^{-1}(y))|}$$

$$\rho_Y(y) = \sum_n \rho_X(f_n^{-1}(y)) \frac{1}{|f'(f_n^{-1}(y))|}$$



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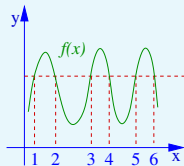
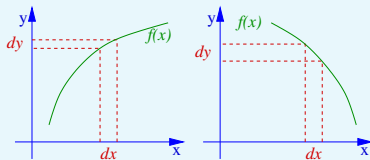
- If $Y = f(X)$, then how can we formulate the PDF of Y based on $\rho_X(x)$?

$$y = f(x) \rightarrow dy = f'(x)dx$$

$$\rho_Y(y) |dy| = \rho_X(x) |dx|$$

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$\vec{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_q) = \vec{f}(\vec{X}) = \vec{f}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)$ based on e.g.,
 $\rho_{\vec{X}}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$?

The general recipe:

- For each \vec{y} find the set

$$A_{\vec{y}} = \{\vec{x} : f_1(\vec{x}) < y_1, f_2(\vec{x}) < y_2, \dots, f_n(\vec{x}) < y_n\}.$$

- Based on that, the CDF can be written as

$$F_{\vec{Y}}(\vec{y}) = P(\vec{Y} < \vec{y}) = P(\vec{f}(\vec{x}) < \vec{y}) = P(\{\vec{x} : \vec{f}(\vec{x}) < \vec{y}\}) = \\ \int \int \dots \int_{A_{\vec{y}}} \rho_{\vec{X}}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_k$$

- The PDF is

$$\rho_{\vec{Y}}(\vec{y}) = F'_{\vec{Y}}(\vec{y}).$$

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- In the special case of $\vec{Y} = \vec{f}(\vec{X})$ where both Y and X have dimension n and f is invertible:

$$\vec{y} = \vec{f}(\vec{x}), \rightarrow d\vec{y} = D\vec{f}(\vec{x})d\vec{x}, \quad \rho_Y(\vec{y}) |d\vec{y}| = \rho_X(\vec{x}) |d\vec{x}|,$$

$$\rho_Y(\vec{y}) = \rho_X(\vec{x}) \frac{|d\vec{x}|}{|d\vec{y}|} = \rho_X(\vec{f}^{-1}(\vec{y})) \left| \det \mathbf{J} \left[\vec{f}^{-1}(\vec{y}) \right] \right|,$$

where the determinant of the Jacobi matrix is

$$\det \mathbf{J} [\vec{g}(\vec{x})] = \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial g_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial g_n}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial g_n}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

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- What if $\vec{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$, but \vec{Y} and also \vec{f} are m dimensional?

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- What if $\vec{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$, but \vec{Y} and also \vec{f} are m dimensional?

→ We can write an integral form with the help of the Dirac-delta :

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{\vec{Y}}(\vec{y}) &= \iint \cdots \int \delta(\vec{y} - \vec{f}(\vec{x})) \rho_{\vec{X}}(\vec{x}) d\vec{x} = \\ &\iint \cdots \int \delta(\vec{y} - \vec{f}(\vec{x})) \rho_{\vec{X}}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) dx^n.\end{aligned}$$