

## Probability and Statistics, Lec 5.

**Prob.** Consider a construction work on campus. Let  $0.6$  is the probability that there will be a strike,  $0.85$  is the prob. the work will be completed on time if there is no strike, and  $0.35$  is the probability that the work will be completed on time even if there is a strike. What is the probability that the construction work will be completed on time?

**Ans.** Let  $A$  be the event which describes that the work will be completed on time. Let  $B$  be the event that there will be a strike.

$$P(B) = 0.6, P(A|B^c) = 0.85, P(A|B) = 0.35$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= P[(A|B) \cup (A|B^c)] \\ &\stackrel{+3}{=} P(A|B) + P(A|B^c) \\ &\stackrel{\text{Calculation}}{=} P(B)P(A|B) + P(B^c)P(A|B^c) \\ &= (0.6 \times 0.35) + [(1-0.6) \times 0.85] \\ &= 0.47 \end{aligned}$$

**Observation:** If a partition of the sample space is given along with the probabilities of happening of these events.

$$A = \frac{(A|B_1) \cup (A|B_2) \cup \dots \cup (A|B_k)}{(B_1 \cup B_2 \cup \dots \cup B_k)}$$

**Rule of total probability:**

If there are events  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$  which constitute a partition of a sample space  $S$  and  $P(B_i) \neq 0$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, k$  then for any event  $A$  in  $S$ ,

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(B_i) P(A|B_i)$$

**Partition of a Set:** Let  $S$  be a set. Then  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  constitute a partition of  $S$  if

$$A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ and } \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i = S$$

**Prob.** Let 117 Kgf rent cars from three rental agencies: 60 percent of time 117 Kgf rent cars from Agency 1, 30 percent from Agency 2, and 10 percent from Agency 3. If 9 percent of the cars from Agency 1 need an oil change, 20 percent from Agency 2 need oil change, and 6 percent from Agency 3 need oil change.

What is the probability that a rented car given to 117 Kgf needs an oil change?

**Ans.** Let  $A$  be the event that the car needs an oil change.

Let  $B_1, B_2, B_3$  be the events that the car comes from Agency 1, 2 or 3 respectively.

$$P(B_1) = 0.6, P(B_2) = 0.3, P(B_3) = 0.1$$

$$P(A|B_1) = 0.09, P(A|B_2) = 0.2, P(A|B_3) = 0.06$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= P(B_1)P(A|B_1) \\ &\quad + P(B_2)P(A|B_2) \\ &\quad + P(B_3)P(A|B_3) \\ &= 0.41 \end{aligned}$$

**Bayes' Theorem:**

If  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$  form a partition of a sample space  $S$ , and  $P(B_i) \neq 0$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Then for any event  $A$  with  $P(A) \neq 0$ ,

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(B_i)P(A|B_i)}{P(A)}$$

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n P(B_j) P(A|B_j)}{P(A)}$$

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(B_i \cap A)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(B_i) P(A|B_i)}{\text{total probability}}$$

Bayes' theorem

Prob. In the Agency problem: what is the probability that the rental car unit needs an oil change and came from Agency 1?

Random variables:

Objective: Associate <sup>real</sup> numbers with possible outcomes and formulate the desired events through this association. Explain the events through the numbers which correspond to the outcomes/sample points.

$$X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Exp.  $S = \{H, T\}$

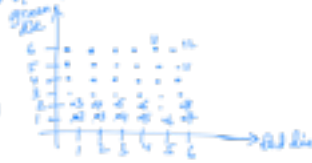
$$X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$X(H) = 2 \quad \begin{cases} X(H) = 2 \\ X(T) = 1 \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} X(H) = 0 \\ X(T) = 1 \end{cases}$$

Exp. roll a pair of dice

$$X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$X(d_1, d_2) = d_1 + d_2$$



Random variable: If  $S$  is the sample space corresponding to an experiment then a function  $X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a random variable.

Hint:

measurable function



$$\text{If } Z = S, X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$X = 5 \iff \{s \in S \mid X(s) = 5\}$$

$$X = a \iff \text{corresponds to the event } \{s \in S \mid X(s) = a\}$$

In the previous example,  
 $X = 6$  corresponds to the event  $\{(1,5), (2,4), (3,3)\}$

$X = 9$  corresponds to the event  $\{(3,6), (4,5), (5,4), (6,3)\}$

$X = 0$  corresponds to the event  $\emptyset$

... random variable is a constant

If the function, for example  $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined as  $X(\omega) = 10 \iff \omega \in A$ , for the previous example of rolling a pair of dice.

Then for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$X = a \text{ corresponds to the event } \frac{1}{36} \text{ if } a=10$$

The objective of defining a random variable is to explain the events in terms of the real valued function.

Next  $\rightarrow$  how to find  $P(X=a)$ ?  $\rightarrow$  how

$$P(X=a) = f(x) \quad \text{distribution function of the random variable.}$$

Test-1 on Feb 2 (12:00-1pm) Lec-6

15 mins Topic: Statistics we discussed before

Test-2 on Feb 23 (12:00-1pm)

15 mins Topic: Random variables and Special distributions

Tests will be - 1 Full on the blank type

Random Variables

$X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

The sample space corresponding to the example of rolling a pair of dice.

$$\Omega = \{(\omega) \mid 1 \leq \omega_1, \omega_2 \leq 6\}$$

$$X(\omega) = X(\omega) = \omega_1 + \omega_2, \omega \in \Omega.$$

$$|\Omega| = 36. \quad P(\omega) = \frac{1}{36} \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega.$$

$$\text{Let } a \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$X = a \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) = a\} \subseteq \Omega$$

$$X \leq a \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \leq a\} \subseteq \Omega$$

$$X \geq a \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) \geq a\} \subseteq \Omega$$

$$a \leq X \leq b \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega \mid a \leq X(\omega) \leq b\} \subseteq \Omega$$

$$\text{If } a=2, b=5 \text{ then}$$

$$a \leq X \leq b \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega \mid 2 \leq X(\omega) \leq 5\}$$

$$\equiv \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (1,3), (1,4), (2,2), (2,3), (2,1), (4,1), (3,2)\} \subseteq \Omega$$

$$Q. P(a \leq X \leq b) = ?$$

Sample Space  $\rightarrow$  discrete  $\rightarrow$  discrete random variable

$\rightarrow$  continuous  $\rightarrow$  continuous random variable.

probability mass function / distribution function

$$\text{For any } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$P(X=x) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid X(\omega) = x\})$$

$$= f(x) \leftarrow p.m.f.$$

Q. What is the probability of the random variable for the previous exp. of rolling a pair of dice.

First look for those 'x' for which 'X=x' is a non-trivial event

$$x \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$$

$$x \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$$

$$x \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$$

$$x \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$$

$$x \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$$

$$x \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$$

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$$x \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 X=2 &= \{ (1,2), (2,1) \} \quad 1/6 \\
 X=3 &= \{ (1,3), (3,1), (2,2) \} \\
 X=4 &= \{ (1,4), (4,1), (2,3), (3,2) \} \\
 &\vdots \\
 X=12 &= \{ (6,6) \} \\
 f(x) &= P(X=x) = \frac{6-(x-1)}{36} \quad 2 \leq x \leq 12
 \end{aligned}$$

Exp. Tossing of a coin 4 times.

$S = \{xyzw \mid x,y,z,w \in \{H,T\}\}$

$X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Path	$x$
HHHH	4
HHHT	3
HHTH	3
HTHH	3
HTHT	2
HTTH	2
HHTT	2
HTTT	1
THTT	1
THTH	0
TTHT	0
TTTH	0
TTTT	0

$x$	$P(X=x)$
0	1/16
1	4/16
2	6/16
3	4/16
4	1/16

$X(x) = \# \text{ of heads in } x$

$$X=x \equiv \{ \omega \in S \mid X(\omega)=x \}$$

$$X=0 \equiv \{ TTTT \}$$

$$X=1 \equiv \{ HTTT, THTT, TTHT, TTTH \}$$

Q.  $f(x) = P(X=x) = \frac{\binom{4}{x}}{16}$

Q. Can any function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0,1]$  be a p.m.f. corresponding to some discrete random variable? No.

for finite sample space

$$S = \{ \omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_n \}, \quad X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$[f(\omega_1), f(\omega_2), \dots, f(\omega_n)] \quad X(\omega_i) = x_i$$

$$\equiv \begin{bmatrix} P(X=x_1) \\ P(X=x_2) \\ \vdots \\ P(X=x_n) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^n$$

for infinite sample space

$$S = \{ \omega_1, \omega_2, \dots \}, \quad X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

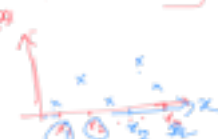
$$p.m.f. = \begin{bmatrix} f(\omega_1) \\ f(\omega_2) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

Defn. A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  can represent a distribution function corresponding to a random variable 'if'.

$$(1) f(x) \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(2) \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f(x) = 1$$

H.W. why?



Q. Let  $f(x) = \frac{x+2}{25}, x = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$

is it a p.m.f.?

Does  $f(x)$  represent...

Les-7

# Random Variables (contd)

(Exam next Tuesday, Feb 02, 2021)

Lecture videos are available in youtube now, the link is mentioned in AIT chat.

PS Ln, nat, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, ...

$$X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

↳ purpose is to associate values to sample points



explaining events as subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$  through  $X$

$$P(X=2) = P(\{ \omega \in S \mid X(\omega)=2 \})$$

$f(x)$  = pmf of  $X$

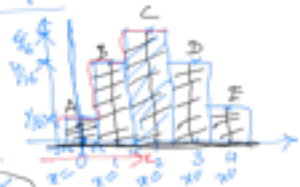
$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\textcircled{1} f(x) \geq 0 \quad \textcircled{2} \sum_{x \in X, \text{ range of } X} f(x) = 1$$

## Probability Histogram

Exp. tossing of unbiased coin 4 times

$X = \#$  of heads

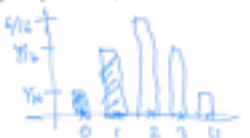


$$P(X=x) = f(x)$$

$f(0)$  = area of rectangle A

$f(4)$  = area of rectang E.

## Bar-chart



## Cumulative Distribution of a random variable 'X'

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) \quad F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = P(\{ \omega \in S \mid X(\omega) \leq x \}) = \sum_{t \leq x} f(t)$$

$$P(X > x) = 1 - P(X \leq x)$$

Exp.  $f(0) = 1/16, f(1) = 4/16$   
 $f(2) = 6/16, f(3) = 4/16$   
 $f(4) = 1/16$

$$\begin{aligned}
 F(0) &= f(0) = \frac{1}{16} \\
 F(1) &= f(0) + f(1) = \frac{5}{16} \\
 F(4) &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

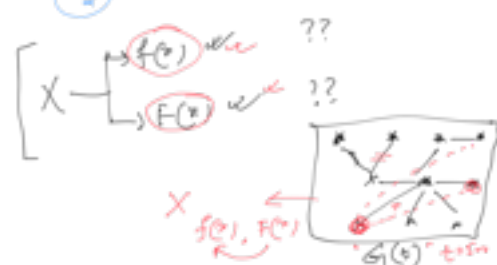
$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{16}, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ \frac{5}{16}, & 1 \leq x < 2 \\ \frac{11}{16}, & 2 \leq x < 3 \\ \frac{15}{16}, & 3 \leq x < 4 \\ 1, & x \geq 4 \end{cases}$$

Properties of cdf:

$$① F(\infty) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1 \text{ (why?)}$$

$$② F(-\infty) = 0 \text{ (why?)}$$

$$③ a < b, F(a) \leq F(b) \text{ (why?)}$$

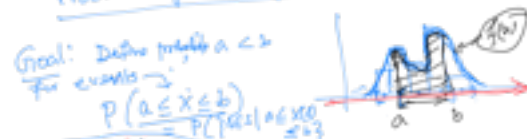


Continuous random variable

The sample space is not countable



Probability density function (pdf)



$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad \int_{-12}^{12}$$

$$X = c, \quad a \leq X \leq c$$

$$P(X = c) = 0$$

probability of an interval



it implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(a \leq X \leq b) &= P(a < X < b) \\
 &= P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= P(a < X < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

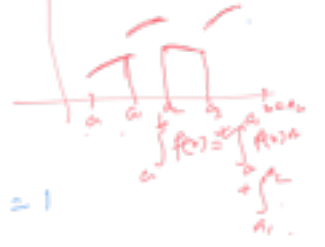
Q. Can any  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  act as a pdf for some continuous r.v.  
Ans. No.

$f(x): [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $f(x): (\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$



$f(x)$  has to satisfy two conditions:

- ①  $f(x) \geq 0$
- ②  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$



Ex.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} k e^{-3x}, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$

Find the value of  $k$  for which  $f(x)$  represent a pdf of a random variable  $X$ . Then find  $P(0.5 \leq X \leq 1)$ .

Ans.  $f(x) \geq 0$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 0 dx + \int_0^{\infty} k e^{-3x} dx$$

$$= k \int_0^{\infty} e^{-3x} dx$$

$$= k \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{-3x} dx$$

$$= k \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{e^{-3x}}{-3} \right]_0^t = \frac{k}{3}$$

it implies  $k = 3$ .

$$P(0.5 \leq X \leq 1) = \int_{0.5}^1 3 e^{-3x} dx$$

$$= x \text{ to } x$$

Cumulative density/distribution f:

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

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

$F(-\infty) = 0, F(\infty) = 1$   
 $F(a) \leq F(b)$  if  $a \leq b$ .

△ If we know  $F(x)$  that can find  $f(x)$

Q. we about probability events.

Observation-1:  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx - \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$$

Observation-2:  $f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x)$   
where the derivative exists.

Q. Calculate the c.d.f. of the pdf defined above.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 3e^{-3x}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Ans:  $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^x 3e^{-3t} dt$

$$= \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-3x}, & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-3x}, & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$P(0.5 \leq X \leq 1) = F(1) - F(0.5)$$

Random Experiment (Sample space, set of events)

Random Variable  $\rightarrow$  discrete (sum)  
 $\rightarrow$  continuous (integral)

pmf/pdf  
cdf

$$f(x) = P(X=x)$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = P(a \leq X \leq b)$$

Next goal:

Determine properties of random variables corresponding to these functions.

Reminder: Think of random variable as a measuring strategy

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = P(a \leq X \leq b)$$

$$a=b \Rightarrow P(c \leq X \leq c) = P(X=c)$$

$$= \int_c^c f(x) dx = 0$$





# Random Variables

Lec-8

discrete  
pmf (Histogram)  
cdf

continuous  
pdf  
cdf

$$P(X=x) = f(x) \quad P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$F(x) = \sum_{t \leq x} f(t) \quad F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$$

Ex: Expected value of a random variable.



Def: If  $X$  is a discrete random variable and  $f(x)$  is the pmf corresponding to  $X$  then the expected value of  $X$  is

$$E(X) = \sum_x x f(x) = \sum_x x P(X=x)$$

If  $X$  is a continuous random variable then

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

$$\text{Avg}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)x_1 + \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)x_2 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)x_n$$

$$= \underbrace{P(X=x_1)}_{\frac{1}{n}} x_1 + \underbrace{P(X=x_2)}_{\frac{1}{n}} x_2 + \dots + \underbrace{P(X=x_n)}_{\frac{1}{n}} x_n$$

Ex:  $Y = X + 0.5$ , for some  $X$



Theorem: If  $X$  is a discrete r.v. and  $g(x)$  is the corresponding pmf then the expected value of  $g(X)$  is

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x) f(x)$$

If  $X$  is continuous r.v. with pdf  $f(x)$  then

$$E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx$$

Ex: Let  $X$  have pdf  $f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x/4}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$  then find  $E(g(X))$  where  $g(x) = e^{x/4}$ .

$$\text{Sol: } E(e^{x/4}) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{x/4} e^{-x/4} dx$$


$$= \int_0^{\infty} 1 dx$$

= ∞

Formula of expectation of 'affine' function

$$\text{Def: } \textcircled{1} E(aX+b) = aE(X) + b$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are some constants.



$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}(ax+b) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (ax+b)f(x)dx \\
 &= a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx + b \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx \\
 &= a \mathbb{E}(X) + b
 \end{aligned}$$

②  $\mathbb{E}(aX) = a \mathbb{E}(X)$

③  $\mathbb{E}(b) = b$

$$\begin{aligned}
 X: S &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\
 X(\omega) &= b
 \end{aligned}$$

④  $\mathbb{E}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n c_i g_i(X)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \mathbb{E}(g_i(X))$

⑤  $\mathbb{E}\left((aX+b)^n\right) = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} a^i b^{n-i} \mathbb{E}(X^i)$

Recall Math-8

$T: V \rightarrow W$

$T(\alpha u + \beta v) = \alpha T(u) + \beta T(v)$

Gr. Expectation  $\mathbb{E}(X)$  is linear

Concept of 'moments'

Def: The  $k$ -th moment of a discrete random variable  $X$  is given by

$\mu'_k = \mathbb{E}(X^k) = \sum x^k f(x)$

If  $X$  is a continuous r.v. then

$\mu'_k = \mathbb{E}(X^k) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f(x) dx$

The 'moment' word comes from the field of physics

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu'_2 &= \sum x^2 f(x) \\
 \mu'_1 &= \sum x f(x)
 \end{aligned}$$



does it relation with center of gravity

Note:  $\mu'_1$  is also called mean of the r.v.  $X$ .

Moments about the mean:

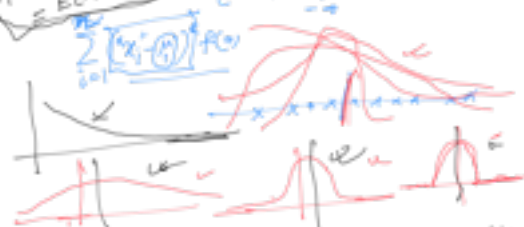
The  $k$ -th moment about the mean of a r.v.  $X$  is

$\mu_k = \mathbb{E}\left((X - \mu)^k\right)$



$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu_1 &= \mathbb{E}(X - \mu) \\
 &= \mathbb{E}(X) - \mu = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu_k &= \mathbb{E}\left((X - \mu)^k\right) \\
 &= \sum (x - \mu)^k f(x) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^k f(x) dx
 \end{aligned}$$



Measure of skewness / lack of symmetry

how much skewed the pdf is

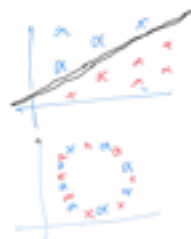


Q. How to measure the spread of a pdf

Def:  $\mu_2 \rightarrow$  the 2nd moment about the mean is called the variance of the random variable. It is denoted as  $\text{Var}(X)$ ,  $V(X)$  or  $\sigma^2$ .

$$\sigma^2, \sigma_x^2$$

The positive square root of the variance is called standard deviation of the corresponding random variable.



H.W. The small value of  $\sigma^2$  means that there is a high probability the value you get is close to the mean, whereas for ~~small~~ large value of  $\sigma^2$  there is a greater probability of getting a value that is not close to the mean.

The skewness or skewness of the distribution is given by  $\mu_3/\sigma^3$ .

$$\sigma^2 = E[(X-\mu)^2]$$

$$\mu_3 = E[(X-\mu)^3]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= E[(X-\mu)^2] \\ &= E[X^2 - 2\mu X + \mu^2] \\ &= E(X^2) - E(2\mu X) + E(\mu^2) \\ &= E(X^2) - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2 \\ &= E(X^2) - 2\mu^2 + \mu^2 \\ &= E(X^2) - \mu^2 \\ &= E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$E(X) = \mu$$

Obs. If  $X$  has variance  $\sigma^2$   
 then  $\text{Var}(aX+b) = a^2 \sigma^2$   
 (H.H.)  
 If  $b=0$   $\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \sigma^2$   
 If  $a=1$   $\text{Var}(X+b) = \sigma^2$   
 $\text{Var}(aX+b) = \text{Var}(X+b)$   
 $\text{Var}(aX) = a^2 \sigma^2$

random variable  $\rightarrow$  discrete  
 $\rightarrow$  continuous

Lec 9

Expectation of a random variable

$E(X)$

Expectation of some "special" functions of a random variable:

Moments:  $\mu'_k = E(X^k)$ ,  $k=1,2,\dots$

Moments about the mean:

relation for mean:  $\mu$

$\mu'_k = E((X-\mu)^k)$ ,  $k=1,2,\dots$

Ex. Class Test 3.

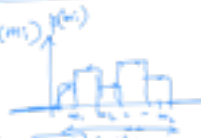
$m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$

$p \rightarrow \{p(m_1), p(m_2), \dots, p(m_k)\}$

$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^k m_i p(m_i)$

variance  $\sigma^2 = \mu'_2$

$= E((X-\mu)^2) = E(X^2) - 2\mu E(X) + \mu^2$



Standard deviation:  $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$

Imp. ① Expectation is a linear fn  
 $E(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$E(aX+b) = aE(X) + b$   
 $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

② Variance  $(aX+b) = a^2 \sigma^2$

Chaplyshin's Theorem:

Let  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  be the mean and standard deviation of a random variable  $X$ . Suppose  $x > 0$ . Then

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

$\mu - x\sigma < X < \mu + x\sigma$



Pr.  $\sigma^2 = E((X-\mu)^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 f(x) dx$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\mu} (x-\mu)^2 f(x) dx + \int_{\mu}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 f(x) dx$$

Thus implies

$$\sigma^2 \geq \int_{-\infty}^{\mu-k\sigma} (x-\mu)^2 f(x) dx + \int_{\mu+k\sigma}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 f(x) dx$$

Since  $(x-\mu)^2 \geq (k\sigma)^2$  when  $x \geq \mu+k\sigma$  or  $x \leq \mu-k\sigma$

Then  $\sigma^2 \geq \int_{\mu-k\sigma}^{\mu+k\sigma} (k\sigma)^2 f(x) dx + \int_{\mu+k\sigma}^{\infty} (k\sigma)^2 f(x) dx + \int_{-\infty}^{\mu-k\sigma} (k\sigma)^2 f(x) dx$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{k^2} \geq \int_{-\infty}^{\mu-k\sigma} f(x) dx + \int_{\mu+k\sigma}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

Remember  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

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

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

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

"Moment" generating function (mgf)

Let  $X$  be a random variable.  
Then the mgf of  $X$  is defined as

$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \begin{cases} \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x), & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx, & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

$$e^{tx} = 1 + tx + \frac{t^2 x^2}{2!} + \frac{t^3 x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{t^k x^k}{k!} + \dots$$

If  $X$  is discrete

$$M_X(t) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( 1 + tx + \dots + \frac{t^k x^k}{k!} + \dots \right) f(x)$$

$$= \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) + t \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) + \frac{t^2}{2!} \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) + \dots$$

$$= 1 + t E(X) + \frac{t^2}{2!} E(X^2) + \dots + \frac{t^k}{k!} E(X^k) + \dots$$

$$= 1 + t \left( \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) \right) + \frac{t^2}{2!} \left( \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) \right) + \dots + \frac{t^k}{k!} \left( \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f(x) \right) + \dots$$

Then  $\left. \frac{d^k}{dt^k} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0} = \mu_k'$

Ex: Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

be the pdf of a random variable  $X$ .  
is  $X$  a r.v.?

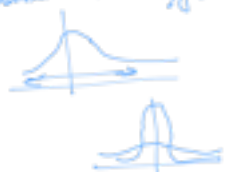
Let  $x \sim U(0,1)$

$$\text{d.f. } M_X(t) = E(e^{tx}) = \int_0^1 e^{tx} dx = \left[ \frac{e^{tx}}{t} \right]_0^1 = \frac{e^t - 1}{t} \text{ for } t < 1$$

Properties of m.f.:

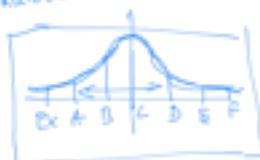
- ①  $M_{X(t)} = E(e^{tx+g}) = e^{gt} M_X(t)$
- ②  $M_{\frac{X}{b}}(t) = E(e^{t \frac{X}{b}}) = M_X(\frac{t}{b})$
- ③  $M_{\frac{X+c}{b}}(t) = E(e^{t(\frac{X+c}{b})}) = e^{\frac{ct}{b}} M_X(\frac{t}{b})$

Symmetry or lack of symmetry of a pdf can be measured by  $\frac{k_3}{\sigma^3}$



The extent up to which a pdf is flat or peaked can be measured by  $\frac{k_4}{\sigma^4}$ . This measure is called "kurtosis".

H.W. How to decide quality since the total mass are known.



"Standard" pdf. (Discrete)

① Discrete "uniform" distribution.

A random variable  $X$  is said to have discrete uniform distribution if the prob. is given by  $P(X=x_i) = f(x_i) = \frac{1}{k}$ ,  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$  all distinct.

② Bernoulli distribution.

A random variable  $X$  is said to have a Bernoulli distribution if the prob. is

$$f(x) = p^x (1-p)^{1-x}, \quad x=0,1$$

$$P(X=0) = 1-p, \quad P(X=1) = p$$



$$p \neq 1$$

↳ Bernoulli trial

③ The binomial distribution  
A random variable  $X$  is said to have "binomial" distribution if

$$f(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}, x=0,1,\dots,n$$

$$\sum_{x=0}^n f(x) = 1$$

it is called 'binomial' since the terms of the probability function are given by the successive terms of the binomial expansion  $[(1-p)+p]^n$

" $X$  is # of successes in 'n' independent trials"

0	1	0	0	0	1
↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
0	1	0	0	0	1

The mean or expectation of the r.v. associated with binomial distribution is  $\mu = np$  ( $= \sum_{x=0}^n x f(x)$ )

and the variance is  $\sigma^2 = np(1-p)$

The mgf of the binomial distribution is  $M_X(t) = [1 + p(e^t - 1)]^n$

0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1

↑ in Bernoulli trial as success

1 denotes success  
0 denotes failure

④ "Negative" Binomial distribution.  
A r.v.  $X$  has negative binomial distribution if pmf is

$$P(X=x) = f(x) = \binom{x-1}{k-1} p^k (1-p)^{x-k}$$

the parameters  $k, p$

Explain  
Probability of  $k$ -th success is to occur on the  $x$ -th trial.

$X \equiv$  the # of trial on which  $k$ th success occurs.

This is called "negative" binomial.  
Look at the expansion of  $\left[ \frac{1}{1-p} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p^k \right]$   
Success terms of this expansion are the probabilities.

Special distribution functions  $f(x) = P(X=x)$

Uniform distribution:  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, x \in [a, b]$

Bernoulli distribution:  $B(p) = f(x)$   
 (Bernoulli trials)  
 $p = \text{probability of success}$   
 $= p^x (1-p)^{1-x}$   
 $x \in \{0, 1\}$

Binomial distribution:  
 (independent Bernoulli trials)  
 $B(n, p) = f(x)$   
 $= \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$   
 $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$

Negative binomial distribution:  
 (Pascal distribution)  $\bar{B}(k, p) = f(x)$   
 $k \rightarrow \# \text{ of successes}$   
 $x \rightarrow \text{index for the trial}$   
 $= \binom{x-1}{k-1} p^k (1-p)^{x-k}$   
 $x \in \{k, k+1, k+2, \dots\}$

Geometric distribution ( $k=1$  in negative binomial distribution)  
 $G(p) = f(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1}, x \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Hypergeometric distribution

Assmt: the trials are not independent



Consider a set of  $N$  elements.  
 Suppose  $M$  out of these  $N$  elements are considered as successes, which means  $N-M$  are considered as failures.

We are interested in the probability of getting  $x$  successes in  $n$  trials.

From above we have the following observation:

$A = \binom{M}{x}$  = ways of choosing  $x$  of the  $M$  successes.

$B = \binom{N-M}{n-x}$  = ways of choosing  $n-x$  of the  $N-M$  failures.

Thus  $\binom{M}{x} \binom{N-M}{n-x}$  is the number of ways of  $x$  successes and  $n-x$  failures.



# of choices when choosing  $n$  elements out of  $N$  elements  $\binom{N}{n}$



Special discrete random variables

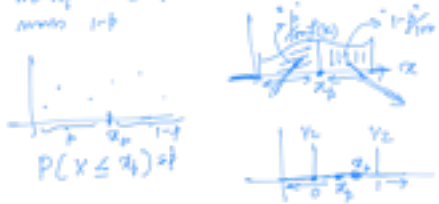
- Uniform
- Bernoulli
- Binomial
- Negative binomial / Pascal
- Geometric
- Hypergeometric

Percentile for random variable

Defn The  $p$ th percentile of a random variable  $X$  is the value  $x_p \in \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies

$$P(X \leq x_p) = \frac{p}{100}$$

Which means: The 100th percentile is a measure of location for the probability distribution in a sense that  $x_p$  divides the distribution into two parts: one having probability mass/density  $\frac{p}{100}$  and the other having probability mass  $1 - \frac{p}{100}$ .



Ex Suppose the random variable  $X$  has the density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{x-2} & \text{for } x < 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

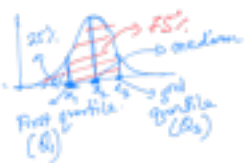
What is the 75th percentile of  $X$ ?

Ans Using the definition

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{75}{100} &= 0.75 = P(X \leq x_p) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{x_p} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{x_p} e^{x-2} dx \\ &= e^{x-2} \Big|_{-\infty}^{x_p} = e^{x_p-2} \\ \Rightarrow x_p &= 2 + \ln \frac{3}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Defn The 25th and 75th percentiles of any distribution are called the first and the third quantiles respectively.

$Q_1$ : is a number such that 25% of the observations are less than it.



$Q_3$ : is a number such that 75% observations are less than it.

Defn The 50th percentile of any distribution is called the 'median'.

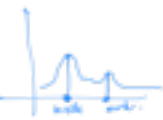
Which means: The median of the distribution divides the probability mass/density into two equal parts.





### Mode measure

A 'mode' of the distribution of a continuous random variable  $X$  is the value of  $x$  that the pdf attains a relative local maximum.



$f(x) =$

Which means: A mode of a r.v.  $X$  is one of the most probable values. And a pdf can have infinitely many modes.

### Syllabus for Class Test - 2, Tuesday Feb 22

Random variables, prob. pdf, cdf, moments and mgf, median and quantiles, Chebyshev's inequality, special discrete distribution (excluding Poisson)

### "Stochastic process"

A stochastic process is a mathematical model of a probabilistic experiment that evolves in time and generates a sequence of numerical values.

For example,

- ① the sequence of failure times of a machine
- ② the sequence of daily prices of a stock
- ③ the sequence of scores in a cricket match
- ④ the sequence of # of friends

Each numerical value in the sequence can be modeled as a random variable, and hence stochastic process is a sequence of random variables.

i.i.d. — independent and identically distributed random variables.

$X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n, \dots$



"Markov Processes"  
there is a probabilistic dependence on the past.  
In Markov process the future depends on past.



## Bernoulli Process

A sequence of Bernoulli trials.

$X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$



$$X_i \sim \text{Ber}(p) \quad P(X_i=1) = P(\text{success at trial } i) \\ \Rightarrow P(X_i=0) = P(\text{failure at trial } i) = 1-p.$$

$X_i$  is a i.i.d

$X_i$  are "Memoryless"

Consider two new random variables associated with Bernoulli Process

$Y_k$  — the time of  $k$ -th success

$T_k$  —  $k$ -th interarrival time which represents the number of trials before  $k$ -th success until we may



Previously we found:

$T_1 \rightarrow$  the time until the first success is geometrically distributed

$T_2 \rightarrow$  geometrically distributed and it is independent of  $T_1$

$\vdots$

$$T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, \dots$$

interarrival times: these are independent and geometrically distributed

Suppose  $k$ -th arrival time.

$$Y_k = T_1 + T_2 + \dots + T_k$$

which is a sum of independent identically distributed random variables.

$$E(Y_k) = E(T_1) + E(T_2) + \dots + E(T_k) \\ = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p} + \dots + \frac{1}{p} = \frac{k}{p}$$

$$\text{Var}(Y_k) = k \frac{(1-p)}{p^2}$$

$$P_{Y_k}(t) = \binom{t-1}{k-1} p^k (1-p)^{t-k}, t \geq k, k=1, 2, \dots$$

negative binomial/Pascal

Real binomial: the # of success in  $n$  independent Bernoulli trials with mean " $np$ ".

Focus: " $n$  is large but " $p$  is small"  
mean " $np$ "  $\rightarrow$  constant value.

growing for discrete  
to contrast  
  
 $n$  is growing and " $p$ " is going down such that  $np$  is a constant value.  
 Let  $np = \lambda$

Poisson distribution

In distribution of the random variable  $X$  with parameter  $\lambda$  is given by  

$$P(X=x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}, \quad x=0,1,2,\dots$$
  
 $E(X) = \lambda, \quad Var(X) = \lambda$

## Stochastic Process Lec 12

Arrival-type Markov  
 $\rightarrow$  Bernoulli process  
 $\rightarrow$  Poisson process  
 (continuous-time analog of the Bernoulli process)

Exp. traffic accidents in a city  
 happen - at least one traffic accident in a minute



Assumption: traffic intensity is constant over time and successive are independent.



when we increase the # of Bernoulli trials and  $p \rightarrow 0$

$\lambda = np \rightarrow$  constant,  $n \rightarrow \infty, p \rightarrow 0$   
 $\lambda$  is rate of arrival

$p = \lambda/n$

$$B(x; n, p) = \frac{n!}{(n-x)!x!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

$$= \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-x+1)}{x!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x}$$

$$= \frac{n \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{n-x+1}{n}}{x!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x}$$

Observe that  $\lambda$  is fixed.  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$1 - \frac{1}{n} \quad 1 - \frac{1}{n} \quad 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{nk} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^{-k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$$

$$\downarrow \quad \downarrow$$

$$1 \quad e^{-1}$$

$$\therefore B(k; n, p) = f(n, p) \rightarrow e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}$$

$$k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Now Bernoulli

Poisson distribution can be approximated by Binomial distribution when  $n \rightarrow \infty, p \rightarrow 0$

Given:  $n, p$  and  $k$

$$B(k; n, p) = \text{Binomial} \approx f(k; n) = \text{Poisson}$$

Rule of thumb:

$$e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \approx \frac{n!}{(n-k)! k!} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

$$k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

if  $n \geq 100$ ,  $p \leq 0.01$ , and  $\lambda = np$ .  
Then Binomial closely approximates the Poisson.

MGF of Poisson:

$$M_{\text{Poisson}}(t) = e^{\lambda(e^t - 1)}$$

$$\mu = \lambda, \quad \sigma^2 = \lambda$$

	Poisson	Bernoulli
Time of arrival	Continuous	Discrete
PDF of number of arrivals	Poisson	Binomial
Interarrival/Waiting time CDF	Exponential	Geometric
Arrival rate	$\lambda$ per unit time	$p$ per unit time

Definition of Poisson Process

Let  $p(x; t) = P(\text{there are exactly } x \text{ arrivals during an interval of length } t)$

$$\frac{1}{t} \times \frac{t}{t} \times \frac{t}{t} \times \frac{t}{t} \times \dots$$

$\lambda \rightarrow$  arrival rate or intensity

Then the arrival process is said to be a Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$  if it follows the following:

- (Time-homogeneity) The probability  $P(x, t)$  of  $x$  arrivals in some interval of some length  $t$  for all intervals of some length  $t$
- (Independence) The number of arrivals in any interval is independent of the number of arrivals in any other interval.

arrivals are independent of the history of arrivals outside this interval

② (Small interval probabilities) The probability  $P(x, \epsilon)$  satisfies

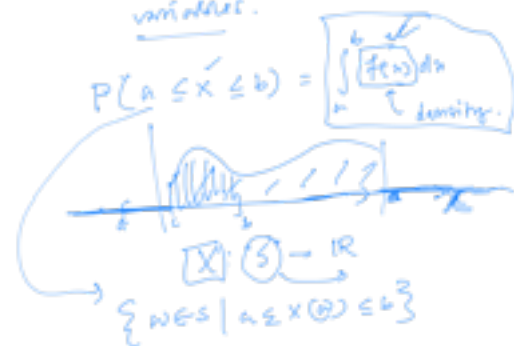
$$\begin{cases} P(0, \epsilon) = 1 - \lambda\epsilon + O(\epsilon) \\ P(1, \epsilon) = \lambda\epsilon + O(\epsilon) \\ P(x, \epsilon) = O_x(\epsilon), \quad x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

where  $O(\epsilon)$  and  $O_x(\epsilon)$  are functions of  $\epsilon$  that satisfy

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{O(\epsilon)}{\epsilon} = 0, \quad \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{O_x(\epsilon)}{\epsilon} = 0$$

~~Class Test~~ - Substandard, Mandelstam  
Tommaso 25 Feb. NO class Test.

③ Probability density functions of special continuous random variables.



① Uniform distribution Suppose a continuous r.v.  $X$  has a uniform distribution if

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .



$$\mu = E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 = \frac{1}{12} (b-a)^2$$

② Now we are interested in the pdfs which are of the following type:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} kx^{p-1} e^{-\lambda x} & \text{for } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

where  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $p > 0$ , and we can fix the value of  $k$  such that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

is happy.

Then  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} K x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx$   
 $= K \beta^{\alpha} \int_0^{\infty} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$  where  $y = \frac{x}{\beta}$

Recall: Gamma function

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} y^{x-1} e^{-y} dy \quad x > 0$$

and also recall:

$$\Gamma(x) = (x-1) \Gamma(x-1) \quad \text{when } x > 1$$

$$\text{and } \Gamma(1) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y} dy = 1$$

$$\Gamma(x) = (x-1) \Gamma(x-1) = (x-1)(x-2) \Gamma(x-2) = \dots = (x-1)! \quad \text{when } x \text{ is a positive integer}$$

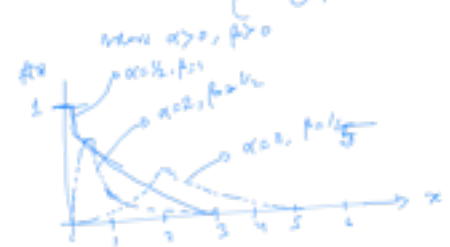
$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

Then  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} K x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx$   
 $= K \beta^{\alpha} \int_0^{\infty} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$   
 $= K \beta^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha)$   
 $= 1$

$$\Rightarrow K = \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha)}$$

Gamma distribution: A r.v.  $X$  is said to have Gamma distribution if

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



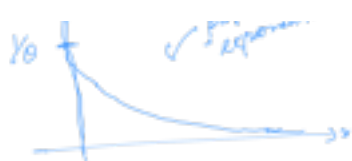
③ Setting  $\alpha=1, \beta=\theta$   
 Then the Gamma is called the exponential distribution:

A r.v.  $X$  is said to have exponential distribution if

$$f(x; \theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-x/\theta}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $\theta > 0$

mean =  $\theta$  and



Suppose the probability of getting  
 $\lambda$  decreases as time interval  
 of length  $\Delta t$   
 (1) the prob. of  $\lambda$  is given by the  
 Poisson probability

Gamma distribution. Lec-13

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$ .

Exponential.  $\alpha = 1, \beta = \theta$

$$f(x; \theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-x/\theta}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Chi-square.  $\alpha = \frac{\nu}{2}, \beta = 2$

$$f(x; \nu) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^{\nu/2} \Gamma(\nu/2)} x^{\nu/2-1} e^{-x/2}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\nu =$  the number of "degrees of freedom"

Thm. The  $r$ th moment about origin  
 of Gamma distribution

$$\mu_r' = \frac{\int_0^\infty x^r f(x) dx}{\int_0^\infty f(x) dx}$$

$$\mu_r' = \frac{\int_0^\infty x^r \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx}{\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x/\beta} dx}$$

$$\text{Let } y = \frac{x}{\beta} \Rightarrow x = \beta y, dx = \beta dy$$

$$= \frac{\beta^r}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\int_0^\infty y^{\alpha+r-1} e^{-y} dy}{\int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy}$$

$$= \frac{\beta^r}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+r)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \quad (*)$$

From (\*), setting  $r=1$ ,

$$\mu_1' = \frac{\beta \Gamma(\alpha+1)}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} = \alpha \beta$$

$$\mu_2' = \frac{\beta^2}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \Gamma(\alpha+2)$$

$$= \alpha(\alpha+1) \beta^2$$

$$\sigma^2 = \alpha(\alpha+1) \beta^2 - (\alpha \beta)^2 = \alpha \beta^2$$

$$\mu = \alpha \beta$$

For exponential dist.  
 $\alpha = 1, \sigma^2 = \beta^2$



Chi-square  $\mu = 2, \sigma^2 = 2\mu$

Mgf. of gamma  
 $M_X(t) = (1 - pt)^{-\alpha}$

Beta distribution pdf is  
 $f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Why Beta  $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$

$$\int_0^1 f(x; \alpha, \beta) dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} dx = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$$

Beta function  
 $B(\alpha, \beta)$

$$\mu = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$$

Normal distribution



$$N(\mu, \sigma^2) = f(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}, -\infty < x < \infty$$

Mgf.

$$M_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{xt} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}[-2\mu\sigma^2 + (x-\mu)^2]} dx$$

$$-2\mu\sigma^2 + (x-\mu)^2 = \left[ x - \left( \mu + t\sigma^2 \right) \right]^2 - \frac{2\mu t\sigma^2}{1-t^2\sigma^4}$$

$$M_X(t) = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}t^2\sigma^2} \left[ \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{u}{\sigma}\right)^2} du \right]$$

pdf.  $N(\mu + \sigma^2 t, \sigma)$

$$= e^{\mu t} + e^{\frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 t^2}$$

Then  $M'_X(t) = (\mu + \sigma^2 t) M_X(t)$

$$M''_X(t) = [(\mu + \sigma^2 t)^2 + \sigma^2] M_X(t)$$

For  $t=0$   $M'_X(0) = \mu$

$$M''_X(0) = \mu^2 + \sigma^2$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = M''_X(0) - (M'_X(0))^2$$

$$= \mu^2 + \sigma^2 - \mu^2$$

$$= \sigma^2$$

Standard Normal distribution.

$$N(\mu=0, \sigma=1) = N(0, 1)$$

$Z \rightarrow$  random variable

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{z^2}{\sigma^2}}$$

Thm. If  $X$  has normal distn with mean  $\mu$  & s.d.  $\sigma$  i.e.  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$

Then  $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{\frac{X}{\sigma} - \frac{\mu}{\sigma}}$

has standard normal distn.

pdf.  $z_1 = \frac{x_1 - \mu}{\sigma}, z_2 = \frac{x_2 - \mu}{\sigma}$

Proof.  $P(z_1 < X < z_2) = P(z_1 < Z < z_2)$

$$P(z_1 < X < z_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \int_{z_1}^{z_2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \right) \int_{z_1}^{z_2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} z^2} dz$$

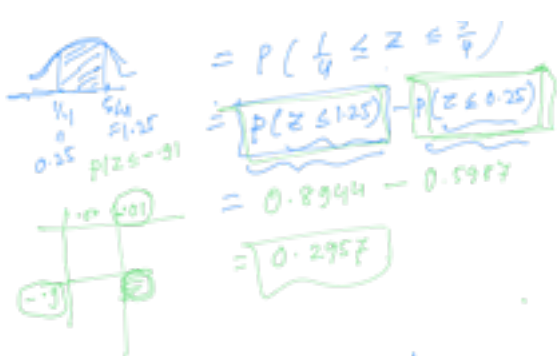
$$= \int_{z_1}^{z_2} N(z, 0, 1) dz$$

$$= P(z_1 < Z < z_2)$$

Ex.  $X \sim N(3, 16)$  then what is  $P(4 \leq X \leq 8)$ ?

Soln.  $P(4 \leq X \leq 8)$

$$= P\left(\frac{4-3}{4} \leq \frac{X-3}{4} \leq \frac{8-3}{4}\right)$$



Thm.  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  then  
 $\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$

Pf  $W = \left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2$   
 $w = \left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2$

Claim.  $g(w) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi w}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}w}, & 0 < w < \infty \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$G(w) = P(W \leq w)$   
 $= P\left(\left(\frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 \leq w\right)$   
 $= P\left(-\sqrt{w} \leq \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \leq \sqrt{w}\right)$   
 $= P\left(-\sqrt{w} \leq Z \leq \sqrt{w}\right)$   
 $= \int_{-\sqrt{w}}^{\sqrt{w}} f(z) dz$   
 where  $f(z)$  is the pdf of  $Z$  (standard normal).

$g(w) = \frac{d}{dw} G(w)$   
 $= \frac{d}{dw} \int_{-\sqrt{w}}^{\sqrt{w}} f(z) dz$   
 $= f(\sqrt{w}) \frac{d}{dw} \sqrt{w} - f(-\sqrt{w}) \frac{d}{dw} (-\sqrt{w})$   
 $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}w} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{w}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}w} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{w}}$   
 $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi w}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}w}$

Lognormal distribution.

This is the distribution of a random variable whose logarithm is a normal distribution.

- is normally distributed
  - distribution of stars in the universe
  - dist. of size of insects
- (Cobb-Douglas distribution)

p.d.f.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\ln(x)-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} & \text{continuous} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

—  $-\infty < \mu < \infty$ ,  $0 < \sigma^2 < \infty$ .  
two parameters.

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

Thm.  $E(X) = e^{\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2}$   
 $\text{Var}(X) = [e^{\sigma^2} - 1] e^{2\mu + \sigma^2}$

Weibull distribution.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} K x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\alpha x^\beta}, & x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\alpha > 0, \beta > 0.$

$\beta = 1$  then it becomes exponential  
 $M = \frac{1}{\alpha} \Gamma(1 + \frac{1}{\beta})$

Cauchy distribution.

$$f(x) = \frac{\frac{\beta}{\pi}}{(x-\alpha)^2 + \beta^2} \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

Here  $\mu, \sigma^2$  undefined.

Multivariate distributions. Lec-14  
 (bivariate)

Sample space, Probability measure.

Univariate  $\leftarrow P(X \leq x), P(a \leq X \leq b)$

$$S = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (a_i, b_i) \mid \begin{cases} 1 \leq i \leq n \\ 1 \leq b_i \leq a_{i+1} \end{cases}$$

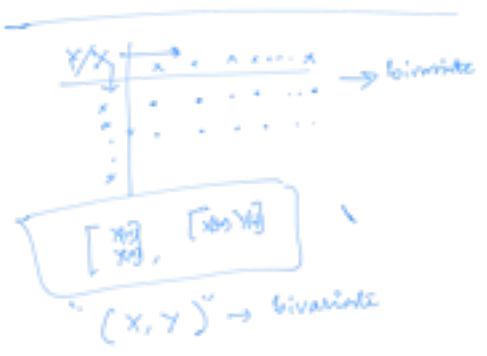
$$X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$f(x) = a+b$

$$X(0,y) = \dots$$

$$Y(x,0) = a-b$$

$X =$  total number in this case  
 $Y =$  . . . . .



Joint probability distribution.  
 When  $X$  and  $Y$  are discrete random variables then the "joint" probability distribution is defined

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

If  $X, Y$  are continuous random variables, then  $f(x, y)$  is a joint density function of  $(x, y)$  iff

$$P((x, y) \in A) = \iint_A f(x, y) dx dy$$



Conditions for a function  $f(x, y)$  to be pdf.

- Discrete:
- ①  $f(x, y) \geq 0$
  - ②  $\sum_x \sum_y f(x, y) = 1$

- Continuous:
- ①  $f(x, y) \geq 0$
  - ②  $\iint_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx dy = 1$

Joint distribution function.

$$F(x, y) = \begin{cases} P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = \sum_{i=1}^x \sum_{j=1}^y f(i, j) & \text{for discrete } (X, Y) \\ \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(t, u) dt du & \text{for continuous } (X, Y) \end{cases}$$

Ex. Suppose  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} x y, & 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$   
 is a joint pdf of  $(X, Y)$ .

Find  $P((X,Y) \in A)$   
 where  $A = \{(x,y) \mid 0 < x < 2, 1 < y < 2\}$

Soln.  

$$P((X,Y) \in A) = P(0 < X < 2, 1 < Y < 2)$$

$$= \int_0^2 \int_1^2 \frac{1}{6} x(y+2) dy dx$$

$$= \int_0^2 \left[ \frac{xy^2}{2} + \frac{2xy}{2} \right]_1^2 dx$$

$$= \dots$$

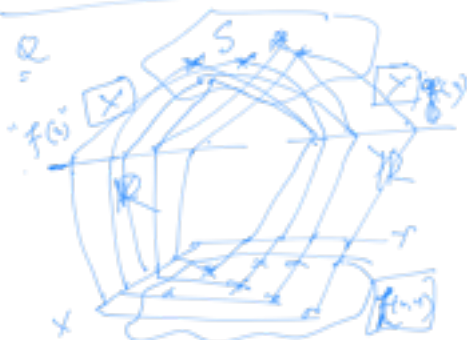
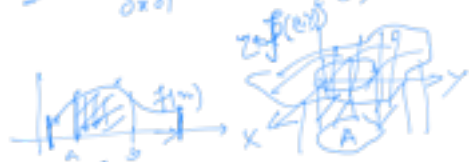
$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} \leftarrow f(x,y) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x,y)$   

$$f(x,y) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F(x,y) \text{ if partial derivatives exist.}$$

Ex 10.  $F(x,y) = \begin{cases} (1-e^{-x})(1-e^{-y}) & x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Find pdf. and determine  $P(1 < X < 3, 1 < Y < 2)$

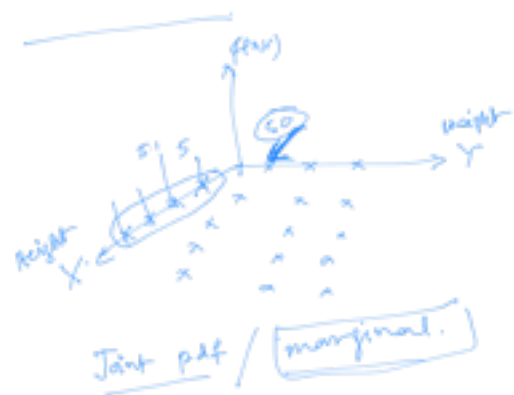
Soln.  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} F(x,y) = \begin{cases} e^{-x}e^{-y} & x > 0, y > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



How  $R(x,y)$  is related to  $f(x,y)$  and  $g(y)$

if I know  $f(x,y)$  and  $g(y)$ ,  
 can we determine  $R(x,y)$

→ if I know  $h(x,y)$  can  
we determine  $f(x)$



Conditional distribution.

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

$$P(X=x | Y=y) = \frac{p(x=y, y)}{p(Y=y)}$$

$$= \frac{f(x,y)}{h(y)}$$

Conditional distribution:

Let  $f(x,y)$  be the joint pdf  
for discrete  $(x,y)$  at  $(x,y)$ .  
 $h(y)$  is the marginal distribution  
of  $Y$  at  $y$ . Then identity

$$f(x|y) = \frac{f(x,y)}{h(y)}, h(y) > 0$$

For each  $x$ , is known as  
the conditional distribution of  
 $X$  given  $Y=y$  identity

$$\text{Hence, } h(y|x) = \frac{f(x,y)}{g(x)}, g(x) > 0$$

$$f(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{3} (x+y), & 0 < x < 1, \\ & 0 < y < 1 \end{cases}$$

Ex:  $f(x,y) = \frac{2}{3}(x+y)$  (0, 1) (0, 1) uniform

Sol:  $g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,y) dy$   
 $= \int_0^1 \frac{2}{3}(x+y) dy = \frac{2}{3}(x+1)$

$h(y) = \int_0^1 \frac{2}{3}(x+y) dx = \frac{1}{3}(1+4y)$

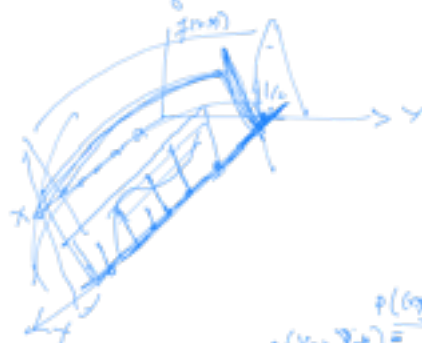
$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{3}(x+1), & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$h(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{3}(1+4y), & 0 \leq y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$f(x|y) = \frac{f(x,y)}{h(y)} = \frac{\frac{2}{3}(x+y)}{\frac{1}{3}(1+4y)}$   
 $= \frac{2x+4y}{1+4y}, \quad 0 \leq x < 1$

Now  $f(x|\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{2x+4 \cdot \frac{1}{2}}{1+4 \cdot \frac{1}{2}}$   
 $= \frac{2x+2}{3}$

$P(X \leq \frac{1}{2} | Y = \frac{1}{2})$   
 $= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{2x+2}{3} dx = \frac{5}{12}$



$f(x,y) = P(X=x, Y=y) = \frac{P((X,Y) \in (x,y))}{P(X=x) \cdot P(Y=y)}$   
 $\frac{f(x,y)}{f(x|y)} = \frac{f(y|x)}{f(y)}$   
 $= P(X=x|Y=y) = P(Y=y|X=x)$

Independence of random variable.  
 $(X,Y)$  pair of r.v.

$f(x,y), g(x), h(y)$

Then  $X, Y$  are independent iff  
 and only:  $f(x,y) = g(x)h(y)$



$$f(x,y) = p(x,y)$$

$$p(x,y) = p(x)p(y)$$

Suppose  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  is an  $n$ -tuple of random variables.  
Then  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent if  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1) \dots f_n(x_n)$

Expectation of (a function of a pair of random variables) a pair of r.v.s.

$$E(X) = \sum_x x f(x)$$

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_x g(x) f(x)$$

$$E[g(X,Y)] = \sum_x \sum_y g(x,y) f(x,y)$$

is the joint probability distribution f.

$$E[g(X,Y)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x,y) f(x,y) dx dy$$

Moments (about the origin)

$$\mu'_r = E(X^r) = \sum_x x^r f(x)$$

The  $r$ th and  $s$ th 'product' moment about origin of the r.v.  $X$  &  $Y$

$$\mu'_{r,s} = E(X^r Y^s)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \sum_x \sum_y x^r y^s f(x,y) & \text{discrete pair } (X,Y) \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r y^s f(x,y) dx dy & \text{continuous } (X,Y) \end{cases}$$

As a special case,

$$\mu'_{1,0} = E(X), \quad \mu'_{0,1} = E(Y)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix}$$

## Product moment about the mean

The  $r$ th &  $s$ th product moment about the means of the r.v.  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$\mu_{rs} = E[(X - \mu_x)^r (Y - \mu_y)^s]$$

$$= \sum_x \sum_y (x - \mu_x)^r (y - \mu_y)^s f(x, y)$$

$r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$s = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

When  $X, Y$  are discrete

$$\mu_{rs} = E[(X - \mu_x)^r (Y - \mu_y)^s]$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu_x)^r (y - \mu_y)^s f(x, y) dx dy$$

When  $r = s = 1$

Then  $\mu_{11}$  is called the covariance of  $X$  and  $Y$  denoted by  $\text{COV}(X, Y)$ ,  $\sigma_{xy}$ ,  $\sigma(x, y)$

or

$$\sigma_{xy} = E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)]$$

$$= E[XY - X\mu_y - Y\mu_x + \mu_x\mu_y]$$

$$= E(XY) - \mu_x E(Y) - \mu_y E(X) + \mu_x\mu_y$$

$$= E(XY) - \mu_x \mu_y$$

$$= \mu'_{11} - \mu_x \mu_y$$

Ex: 

		X			
		0	1	2	
Y	0	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
	1	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{6}$		$\frac{1}{4}$
	2	$\frac{1}{12}$			$\frac{1}{6}$
		$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	

Find the  $\text{cov}(X, Y)$  /  $\sigma_{xy}$

Sol<sup>n</sup>:  $E(XY) = \sum_{x,y} xy f(x,y)$

$$= 0 \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 1 \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 2 \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 0 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{2}{9} + 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{9} + 2 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{9}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\mu_x = 0 \cdot \frac{5}{10} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\mu_y = -$$

Obs. If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent  
then  $E(XY) = E(X) E(Y)$

$$= \mu_x \mu_y$$

and hence  $Cov(X,Y) = 0$

Pf.  $E(XY) = \sum_{x,y} xy f(x,y)$

However the converse need not be true i.e.  $Cov(X,Y) = 0$  does not necessarily imply that the corresponding r.v.s are independent.

Ex.

		-1	0	1	
	-1	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{2}{3}$
	0	0	0	0	0
	1	$\frac{1}{6}$	0	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{3}$
		$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	1

Then  $\mu_x = 0, \mu_y = -\frac{1}{3}$

$$E(XY) = (-1)(-1)\frac{1}{6} + 1(-1)\frac{1}{6} + (-1)(1)\frac{1}{6} + 1(1)\frac{1}{6}$$

$$= 0$$

$$\therefore \sigma_{xy} = E(XY) - \mu_x \mu_y = 0 - 0 = 0$$

But  $f(x,y) \neq g(x)h(y)$   
where  $g(x) = \frac{1}{3}, h(y) = \frac{1}{3}$

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are

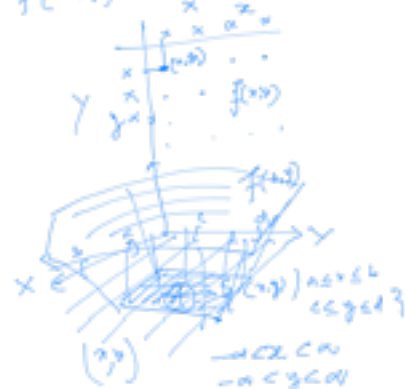
Def. <sup>on</sup> independent trees  
 $E(X_1 X_2 \dots X_n) = E(X_1) E(X_2) \dots E(X_n)$

pair of random variables. Lec-15

$(X, Y)$   $X: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $Y: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$



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



$$P((X, Y) \in A) = \int_A f(x, y) dx dy$$

$(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}) \rightarrow$

marginal pdf.

conditional pdf.

$$f(X|Y=y) = f(x|y)$$

$$f(Y|X=x) = g(y|x)$$

Expectation

$$E(X, Y)$$

moments /  $E(X^r Y^s)$

moments about the mean

$$E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$$

$\rho = 1, \Delta \neq 0$  Covariance.

$$\sigma_{xy} = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$$

$$= E(XY) - \mu_x \mu_y$$

" $f(x, y)$ " are related with  $g(x), h(y)$

$(X, Y)$  independent.  $f(x, y) = g(x) h(y)$

$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_1(x_1) f_2(x_2) \dots f_n(x_n)$

$\sigma_{xy} = 0$  (since  $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y) = \mu_x \mu_y$ )

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

$$\rho = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E(XY) - \mu_x \mu_y$$

$$\Rightarrow E(XY) = \mu_x \mu_y + \rho \sigma_x \sigma_y$$

$$Z(w) = X(w)Y(w)$$

$$\rho = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \frac{E[(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)]}{\sigma_x \sigma_y} = \frac{\sum_i \sum_j \frac{(x_i - \mu_x)(y_j - \mu_y)}{n}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

$$\rho > 0 \text{ or } \rho < 0.$$



Obs.  $-1 \leq \rho \leq 1$

$\swarrow$   $\searrow$

-valley correlation  $\quad$  +valley correlation

Linear combination of random variables.

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be r.v.s.

Then  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i, a_i \in \mathbb{R}$

$$E(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i E(X_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(Y) &= E([Y - E(Y)]^2) \\ &= E\left(\left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i E(X_i)\right]^2\right) \\ &= E\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i (X_i - \mu_i)\right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

na.  $(a+b+c+d)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 + 2ab + 2ac + 2ad + 2bc + 2bd + 2cd$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 E(X_i - \mu_i)^2 + 2 \sum_{i < j} a_i a_j E[(X_i - \mu_i)(X_j - \mu_j)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}(X_i) + 2 \sum_{i < j} a_i a_j \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$$

$\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \text{Cov}(X_j, X_i)$

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables.

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \text{Var}(X_i)$$

Exp.  $X, Y, Z$ .  
 $\mu_X = 2, \mu_Y = -3, \mu_Z = 4$   
 $\sigma_X^2 = 1, \sigma_Y^2 = 5, \sigma_Z^2 = 2$   
 $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = -2,$   
 $\text{Cov}(X, Z) = -1$   
 $\text{Cov}(Y, Z) = 1$   
 Find the mean & variance of  $W = 3X - Y + 2Z$

Suppose  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ .  
 $Y_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i, Y_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i X_i$

$$\text{Cov}(\bar{Y}_1, \bar{Y}_2) \\ = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \text{Var}(X_i) \\ + \sum_{i < j} (a_i b_j + a_j b_i) \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j)$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \text{Cov}(Y, Y)$$

$(X, Y)$

Conditional random variable.

$$Z = X | Y=y$$

Conditional expectation.

Let  $X$  be a discrete r.v. and  $f(x|y)$  is the conditional probability distribution of  $X$  given  $Y=y$ . Then the conditional expectation 'u(x) given Y=y'

$$E(u(x)|y) \\ = \sum_x u(x) \cdot f(x|y)$$

If  $X$  is continuous.

$$E(u(x)|y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(x) f(x|y) dx$$

If  $u(x) = x$

Conditional mean

$$\mu_{x/y} = E(X|y)$$

Conditional variance

$$\sigma_{x/y}^2 = E[(X - \mu_{x/y})^2 | y] \\ = E(X^2 | y) - \mu_{x/y}^2 \\ (E(X^2) - (E(X))^2)$$

$$= 2 \cdot \text{Cov}(X, Y) \cdot \frac{\partial \text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\partial y}$$

Exp.  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{2x+4y}{1+4xy}, & 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Find the mean & the variance of  $X$  given  $Y = \frac{1}{2}$

Sol:  $f(x|y) = \begin{cases} \frac{2x+4y}{1+4xy}, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Then  $f(x|y=\frac{1}{2}) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{3}(x+1), & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$\mu = E(X|\frac{1}{2})$

$= \int_0^1 \frac{2}{3} x(x+1) dx = \frac{5}{9}$

$E(X^2|\frac{1}{2}) = \int_0^1 \frac{2}{3} x^2(x+1) dx = \frac{7}{18}$

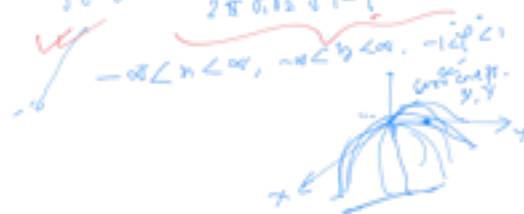
Then  $\sigma_{X|\frac{1}{2}}^2 = \frac{7}{18} - \left(\frac{5}{9}\right)^2 = \frac{13}{162}$



Bivariate Normal Distribution.

A pair of random variables  $X$  &  $Y$  said to have a bivariate normal distribution if the joint pdf is given by

$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 - 2\rho\left(\frac{x-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)\left(\frac{y-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right) + \left(\frac{y-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right)^2\right]}$



Find the marginal dist. of  $x$ .

$g(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 - 2\rho\left(\frac{x-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)\left(\frac{y-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right) + \left(\frac{y-\mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right)^2\right]} dy$

$\mu = \frac{\mu_1 - \rho^2 \mu_2}{1 - \rho^2}, \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma_1^2 (1 - \rho^2)}{1 - \rho^2}$



$$\begin{aligned}
 q(v) &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2(1-\rho^2)}v^2}}{\sigma_1\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2(1-\rho^2)}(v-\rho u)^2} \frac{1}{\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} du \\
 u^2 - 2\rho uv + \rho^2 u^2 &= (u-\rho v)^2 - \rho^2 v^2 \\
 q(v) &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}v^2}}{\sigma_1\sqrt{2\pi}} \left\{ \frac{1}{\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(u-\rho v)^2} du \right\} \\
 &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}v^2}}{\sigma_1\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{v-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2} \\
 &= N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Obs. Suppose  $X, Y$  have bivariate normal distribution.

Then the conditional mean & variance for  $X|Y=y$  are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu_{X|Y} &= \mu_1 + \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} \rho (y - \mu_2) \\
 \sigma_{X|Y}^2 &= \sigma_1^2 (1 - \rho^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

The conditional mean & variance  $Y|X=x$  are

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu_{Y|X} &= \mu_2 + \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \rho (x - \mu_1) \\
 \sigma_{Y|X}^2 &= \sigma_2^2 (1 - \rho^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

Obs. 3 If two r.v.s have bivariate normal distribution, they are independent if and only if  $\rho = 0$ .



# Functions of random variables. Lec 10

$$(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

Suppose we know the joint probability distribution / density function

$$Q. \quad Y = u(X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

pdf of  $Y = ?$

Two methods

- ① distribution function technique
- ② transformation technique

Distribution function technique.

$$F(y) = P(Y \leq y)$$

$$= P(u(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq y)$$

Then differentiating  $F(y)$  we obtain

$$f(y) = \frac{dF(y)}{dy}$$

Ex. Suppose pdf of  $X$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 6x(1-x), & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find the pdf of  $Y = X^3$ .

Ans.  $G(y) = P(Y \leq y)$

$$= P(X^3 \leq y)$$

$$= P(X \leq y^{1/3})$$

$$= \int_0^{y^{1/3}} 6x(1-x) dx$$

$$= 3y^{2/3} - 2y$$

$$\therefore g(y) = \begin{cases} 2(y^{1/3} - 1), & 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Exp.  $X$  — random variable.

$$Y = |X|$$

If  $X$  is standard normal, what is the pdf of  $Y$ ?

Ans.  $G(y) = P(Y \leq y)$

$$= P(|X| \leq y)$$

$$= P(-y \leq X \leq y)$$

$$= F(y) - F(-y)$$

upon differentiation

$$g(y) = f(y) + f(-y)$$

... then

Since  $|x|$  is non-negative  
 $g(y) = 0$  when  $y \leq 0$ .

Then  $g(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{f(y) + f(-y)}{2}, & y > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

If  $X$  is standard normal  
 $X \sim N(0,1)$

$$g(y) = N(y, 0.1) + N(-y, 0.1)$$

$$= 2N(y, 0.1)$$

when  $y > 0$   
 otherwise  $g(y) = 0$ .

Ex. Let the joint pdf of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} 6e^{-2x_1 - 3x_2}, & x_1 > 0, x_2 > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find the pdf of  $Y = X_1 + X_2$

Ans.  $F(y) = \int_0^y \int_0^{y-x_1} 6e^{-2x_1 - 3x_2} dx_2 dx_1$

$$= 1 + 2e^{-2y} - 3e^{-3y}$$

Then upon differentiation.

$$f(y) = \frac{dF(y)}{dy} = 0(e^{-2y} - e^{-3y})$$

when  $y > 0$

otherwise  $f(y) = 0$ .

Transformation technique.

(i) One variable.

Given pdf of  $X$  then find pdf of  $Y = u(X)$ .

Ex. Suppose  $X$  denotes the # of heads in four tosses of a balanced coin. Find the pdf of  $Y = \frac{1}{1+X}$ .  
 Find the pdf of  $X = (X-2)^2$ .  
 Ans.  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(4, p = \frac{1}{2})$

$x$	0	1	2	3	4
$f(x)$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{4}{16}$	$\frac{6}{16}$	$\frac{4}{16}$	$\frac{1}{16}$

$$Y = \frac{1}{1+X}$$

$$y = \frac{1}{1+x} \Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{y} - 1$$

$\therefore x$  lies

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & y=1 \\ \frac{y}{16} & y=\frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{y}{16} & y=\frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{y}{16} & y=\frac{1}{8} \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \binom{4}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4, \quad x=0,1,2,3,4$$

$$g(y) = f\left(\frac{1}{y}-1\right)$$

$$= \binom{4}{\frac{1}{y}-1} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^4, \quad y=1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}$$

For Z, suppose  $h(z)$  denotes the p.d.f.

$$h(2) = f(2) = \frac{6}{16}$$

$$h(1) = f(0) + f(3) = \frac{1}{16} + \frac{6}{16} = \frac{7}{16}$$

$$h(4) = f(0) + f(4) = \frac{7}{16}$$

For continuous,  $Y = u(X)$

$y = u(x)$  is differentiable and either increasing or decreasing for all values of  $x$  for which  $f(x) > 0$ .

$x = w(y)$  exist for all  $y$ .

Thm. Let  $f(x)$  be the p.d.f. of  $X$ .

If  $y = u(x)$  is differentiable and either increasing or decreasing for all values within the range of  $X$  for which  $f(x) > 0$ , then for these values of  $y$ , the unique equation  $y = u(x)$  can be uniquely solved for  $x$ , to give  $x = w(y)$ .

for the corresponding  $y$  the p.d.f. of  $Y = u(X)$  is

$$g(y) = f[w(y)] |w'(y)|,$$

provided  $u'(x) > 0$ .  
 otherwise  $g(y) = 0$ .

Ex. Suppose  $X$  is following exponential distribution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x}, & x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find p.d.f. of  $Y = \sqrt{X}$ .

Soln.  $y = \sqrt{x} \Rightarrow x = y^2 \equiv w(y)$

$$w'(y) = \frac{dx}{dy} = 2y$$

$$\therefore g(y) = e^{-y^2} |2y|$$

$$= 2y e^{-y^2}, \quad y > 0$$

$$\therefore g(y) = 0$$

Expt Let  $X$  be standard normal  
Find the pdf of  $Z = X^2$ .

Sol:  $Z = u(X) = X^2$   
 decreasing when  $x < 0$   
 increasing when  $x > 0$

First, we find pdf of  $Y = |X|$   
 and then find pdf of  $Z = Y^2 (x > 0)$

we have seen before

$$f(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y^2}$$

and  $g(y) = 0$  when  $y < 0$

Then the task is to find  
 pdf of  $Z = Y^2$ ,  $y > 0$   
 as for which  $g(y) \neq 0$

$$\frac{dy}{dz} = \frac{1}{2} z^{-1/2}$$

$$\therefore h(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z} \left| \frac{1}{2} z^{-1/2} \right|$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} z^{-1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z}$$

for  $z > 0$

and  $h(z) = 0$  otherwise

Observe that this is  
 chi-square distribution  
 with  $\nu = 1$

⑥ Transformation technique for  
 more than two random variables

$$X_1, X_2$$

$$Y = u(X_1, X_2)$$

$$(Y_1, Y_2) = u(X_1, X_2)$$

If the relation between  
 $y$  and  $x_1$  ( $x_2$  is const.)

or  $y$  and  $x_2$  ( $x_1$  is const.)

$$\text{Then } g(y, x_2) = f(x_1, x_2) \left| \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y} \right|$$

$$g(x_1, y) = f(x_1, x_2) \left| \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y} \right|$$

Exp. The pdf of  $X_1$  &  $X_2$   
 $f(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} e^{-(x_1+x_2)}, & x_1 > 0, x_2 > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Find the pdf of  $Y = \frac{X_1}{X_1 + X_2}$

Soln: Suppose  $x_1$  is constant

Using the transformation technique,  
 we can find the joint density of  
 $X_1$  &  $Y$ .

$$y = \frac{x_1}{x_1 + x_2} \Rightarrow x_2 = x_1 \frac{1-y}{y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{dx_2}{dy} = -\frac{x_1}{y^2}}$$

$$g(x_1, y) = e^{-(x_1/y) - (x_1/y^2)}$$

$$= \frac{x_1}{y^2} e^{-(x_1/y)}$$