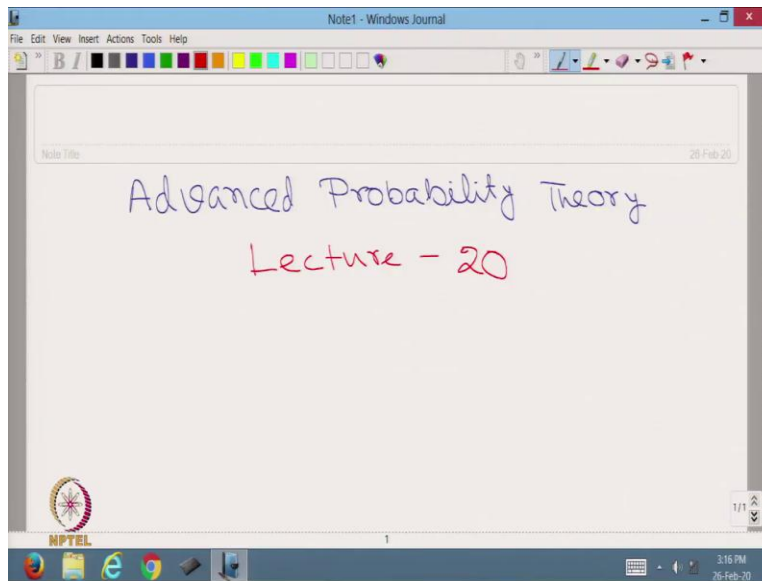


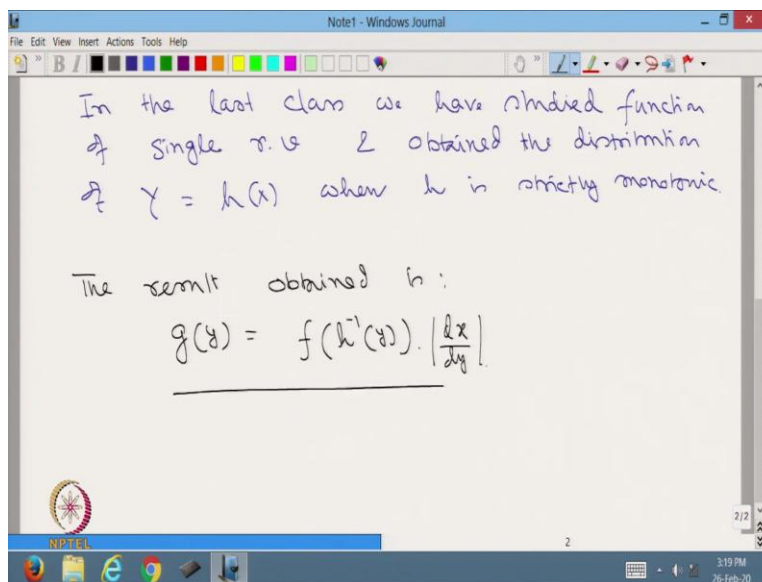
**Advanced Probability Theory**  
**Professor Niladri Chatterjee**  
**Department of Mathematics**  
**Indian Institute of Technology, Delhi**  
**Lecture 20**

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Welcome students to the MOOCS series of lectures on Advanced Probability Theory, this is lecture number 20.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:29)



In the last lecture we have studied function of single random variable and obtained the distribution of  $Y$  is equal to  $h(x)$  when  $h$  is strictly monotonic. The results obtained is  $g(y)$  is equal to  $f(h^{-1}(y))$  multiplied by modulus of  $dx/dy$ .

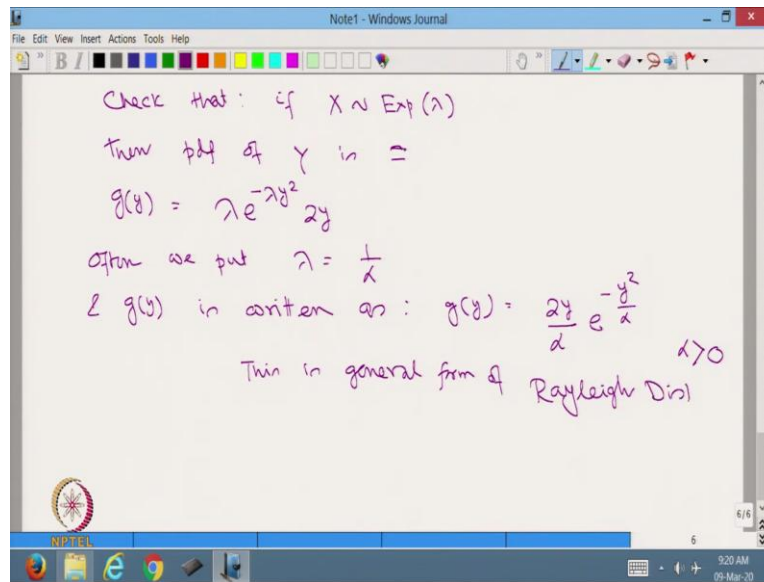
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For recapitulation let us consider the following example:  
 $X \sim \text{Exp}(1)$  what is the pdf of  $Y = \sqrt{X}$ .  
 Since  $X$  is a positive r.v.  $\therefore$  Given  $X$ ,  $Y$  can be determined uniquely.  
 Hence the above theorem applies.  
 $\therefore h(x) = \sqrt{x}$  Hence  $h'(y) = y^2 \therefore \left| \frac{dh'(y)}{dy} \right| = 2y$   
 Hence  $g(y) = f(h'(y)) \cdot 2y$   
 $= e^{-y^2} \cdot 2y$  This is a special case of one distribution - Rayleigh distribution.

For recapitulation let us consider the following example, if  $X$  follows exponential with 1 degrees of freedom what is the pdf of  $Y$  is equal root over of  $X$ . Since,  $X$  is a positive random variable. Therefore, given  $X$ ,  $Y$  can be determined uniquely. Hence, the above theorem applies straight away.

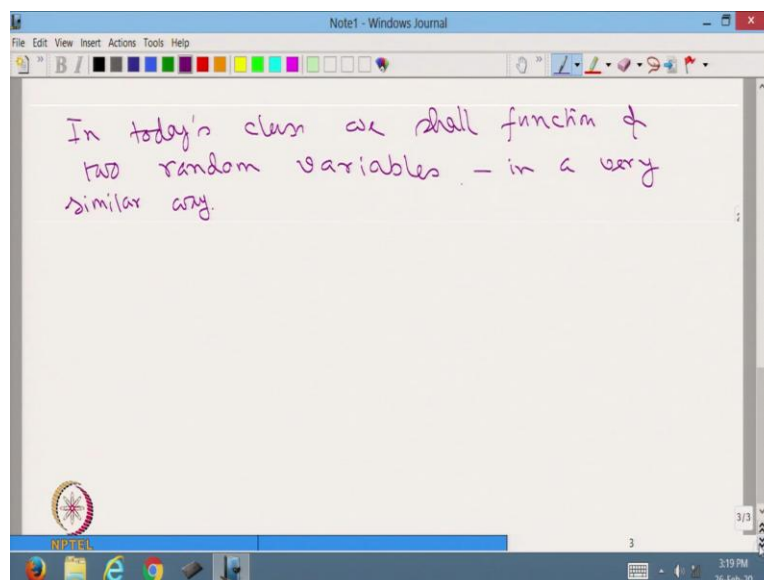
Therefore,  $h$  of  $x$  is equal to root over of  $x$ . Hence,  $h$  inverse of  $y$  is equal to  $y$  square. Therefore,  $dh^{-1}(y)/dy$  is equal to  $2y$ . Hence,  $g$  of  $y$  is equal to  $f$  at  $h^{-1}(y)$  into  $2y$  is equal to  $e^{-y^2} \cdot 2y$ . This is a special case of one distribution whose name is Rayleigh Distribution.

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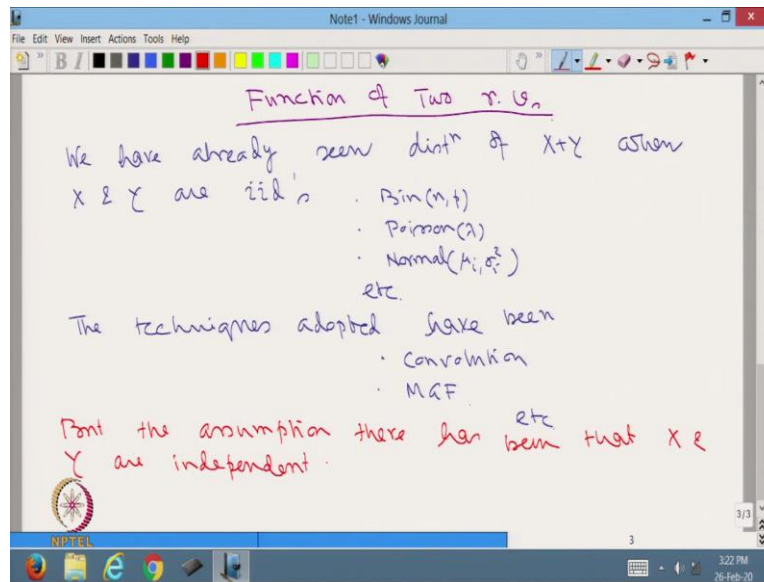
Check that if  $X$  is exponential with  $\lambda$  then pdf of  $Y$  is going to be  $g$  of  $y$  is equal  $\lambda$   $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda y$  square into  $2y$ . Often we put  $\lambda$  is equal  $1$  upon  $\alpha$  and  $g y$  is written as  $g y$  is equal  $2y$  upon  $\alpha$   $e$  to the power minus  $y$  square by  $\alpha$   $y$  greater than  $0$  and  $\alpha$  is greater than  $0$ . So, this a general form of Rayleigh Distribution.

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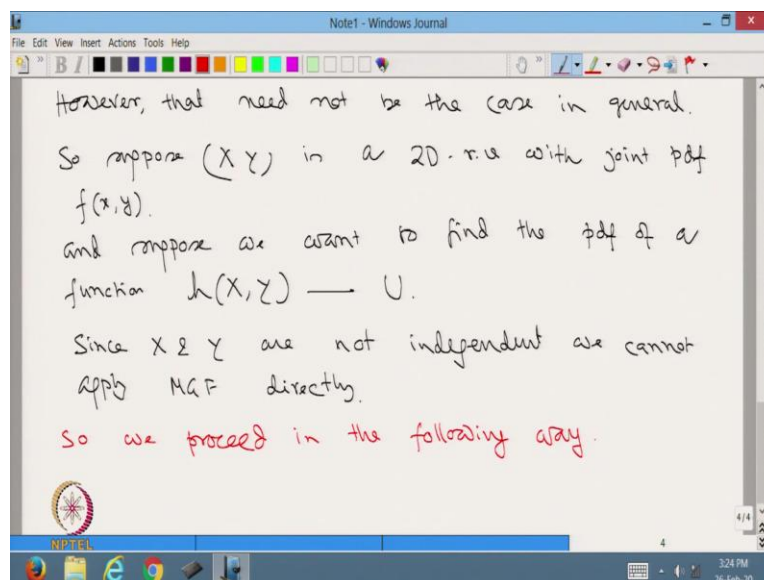
In today's class we shall see function of two random variables which as we will see in a very similar way.

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So, our topic for today is function of two random variables. We have already seen distribution of  $X$  plus  $Y$  when  $X$  and  $Y$  are iid's particularly for say binomial,  $(n, p)$ , even normal, etcetera. The techniques adapted have been through convolution or using moment generating function, etcetera. But the assumption there has been that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

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However, that need not be the case in general. So, suppose  $X, Y$  is a 2D random variable with joint pdf  $f$  of  $x, y$  and suppose we want to find the pdf of a function  $h$  of  $X, Y$ . So, let us call it  $U$ .

Since  $X$  and  $Y$  are not independent we cannot apply MGF directly. So, we proceed in the following way.

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Method:

- Introduce a new r.v., say  $V$ , which is also a function of  $X$  &  $Y$ .  
Let us call  $V = h_1(X, Y)$ .
- We obtain the joint pdf of  $U, V = g(u, v)$ .
- We integrate  $v$  over its possible range to get the marginal density of  $U$ .
- $V$  can be chosen in many different ways.  
But we typically keep it simple so that subsequent integration remains straightforward.

So, the method introduce a new random variable say  $V$  which is also a function of  $X$  and  $Y$ . So, let us call it  $V$  is equal  $h_1$  of  $X$  and  $Y$ . We obtain the joint pdf of  $U$  and  $V$ , so let us call it  $g(u, v)$ . Then, we integrate  $v$  over its possible range to get the marginal density of  $U$ .  $V$  can be chosen in many different ways but we typically keep it simple so that subsequent integration remains straight forward.

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Note that  $V$  does not have any specific interest for us.

We need it for obtaining the joint density  $g(u, v)$  and from there to compute  $f(u)$ .

- For computation of  $g(u, v)$  we need a mathematical quantity called Jacobian which is defined as absolute value of the determinant of the 2D matrix

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix}$$

← This determinant has to exist.

Note that  $V$  does not have any specific interest for us. We need it for obtaining the joint density  $g(u, v)$  and from there to compute say  $f$  at  $u$ . For computation of  $g(u, v)$  we need a mathematical quantity called Jacobian which is defined as the absolute value of the determinant of the 2D matrix  $\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$ . And therefore, we need to compute this determinant, this determinant has to exist.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:23)

Theorem: Let  $(X, Y)$  be a 2D r.v. with continuous joint pdf  $f(x, y)$ .  
 Let  $U = h_1(X, Y)$  &  $V = h_2(X, Y)$ , s.t.  
 • The equations  $u = h_1(X, Y)$  &  $v = h_2(X, Y)$  } can be solved uniquely for  $x, y$  in terms of  $u, v$ .  
 Say  $x = g_1(u, v)$  &  $y = g_2(u, v)$ .  
 • The partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}$  &  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$  exist & continuous.

Hence, we use the following theorem. Let  $X, Y$  be a 2D random variable with continuous joint pdf  $f(x, y)$ . Let  $U$  equal to  $h_1$  of  $X, Y$  and  $V$  is equal to  $h_2$  of  $X, Y$  such that the equations  $U$  is equal to  $h_1(x, y)$  and  $v$  is equal to  $h_2(x, y)$  can be solved uniquely for  $x, y$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ . So, say  $x$  is equal to  $g_1$  of  $u, v$  and  $y$  is equal to  $g_2$  of  $u, v$ . The second assumption is that the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}$  and  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$  exist and continuous.

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Then the joint pdf of  $(u, v)$ , call it  $g(u, v)$ , is given by

$$g(u, v) = f(\underbrace{g_1(u, v)}_x, \underbrace{g_2(u, v)}_y) |J|$$

Can be computed as explained earlier

Then the joint pdf of  $u, v$  let us call it  $g(u, v)$  is given by  $g(u, v)$  is equal to  $f(g_1(u, v), g_2(u, v))$  multiplied by the Jacobian which I have already explained. So, note that this is actually corresponding to  $x$  and this is corresponding to  $y$ . Thus,  $f$  of this thing make sense and  $J$  can be computed as explained earlier.

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Let us observe the similarity with the single variable case.

1. The monotonicity requirement of the function  $h(x)$  is replaced with the one-to-one correspondence between  $(x, y) \longleftrightarrow (u, v)$

Since  $x = g_1(u, v)$   
 $y = g_2(u, v)$

$\Rightarrow$  that given  $(x, y)$  we can get  $(u, v)$  uniquely & vice versa.

We are not proving this theorem but, let us observe this similarity with the single variable case that we studied in the last class. So, the monotonicity requirement of the function  $h$  of  $x$  is replaced with the one to one correspondence between  $x, y$  and  $u, v$  this is possible. Since,  $x$  is



equal to  $g_1(u, v)$  and  $y$  is equal to  $g_2(u, v)$  implies that given  $x, y$  we can get  $u, v$  uniquely and vice versa. That is given  $u, v$  we can get  $x, y$ .

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2. The differentiability of  $h(x)$  is replaced by similar assumption using the four partial derivatives:  
 $\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$ .

3. The absolute value of  $\left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$  is replaced by the absolute value of the Jacobian.

Thus the two theorems are very similar in nature hence easy to remember

**Two**, the differentiability of  $h$  of  $x$  the function is replaced by similar assumption using the four partial derivatives. As I have mentioned before these are  $\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial x}{\partial v}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}$  and  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$ . The absolute value of  $dx dy$  is replaced by the absolute value of the Jacobian. Thus, the two theorems are very similar in nature hence easy to remember.

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$g(u, v) = f(g_1(u, v), g_2(u, v)) |J|$   
 expressed in terms of  $u, v$



So, pictorially let us draw this. Suppose, this is the XY plane and suppose this is the uv plane we have a point x, y therefore this is the coordinate x and this is the coordinate y. We are mapping it to a point u, v therefore this is the point u and this is the point v and we have the following that we have one mapping that from x, y maps to u we are calling it h1 of x, y. In a similar way, we have another mapping, which is mapping to v therefore this we are calling as h2 of x, y.

Since these are unique therefore we get inverse mapping which from u, v is mapping to x and that we have given the name g1 of u, v. And in a similar way it is mapping to y which we are calling g2 of u, v and we have got that g of u, v is equal to f at g1 at u, v g2 at u, v multiplied by the Jacobian and expressed in terms of u, v. As I said we are not going to prove this theorem but we accept this and let us solve a few problems using this theorem.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:46)

The image shows a digital whiteboard with handwritten notes. The notes are as follows:

**Ex 1** Suppose  $X, Y$  are independent Gamma distributions  
 $X \sim (\lambda, \alpha)$  &  $Y \sim (\lambda, \beta)$   
 what is pdf of  $X+Y$ .

Let 
$$\begin{cases} U = X+Y \\ V = X \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} X = V \\ Y = U-V \end{cases}$$

$\therefore$  Jacobian of transformation is

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix}$$

On the right side, there is a note: "We know the result that  $Z = X+Y \sim (\lambda, \alpha+\beta)$ ".

So, example 1, let us go ahead with x and y to be independent so that the joint pdf we can write as the product their individual densities. So, consider the following suppose X and Y are independent gamma distributions with X following gamma with lambda and alpha and Y following gamma with lambda and beta, what is the pdf of X plus Y.

Note we know the result that Z is equal to X plus Y is distributed as gamma with lambda, comma alpha plus with beta. We shall try to obtain the same result using the above theorem. Let U is equal to X plus Y, we have to take a V we keep it simple and suppose we take V is equal to X. Therefore, X is equal to V and Y is equal to U minus V. Thus in effect from the transformation

h1 and h2 we get their inverse transformation g1 and g2 which will bring back x, y from u and v. Therefore, Jacobian of transformation is  $\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}$  and  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 28:31)

Handwritten mathematical derivation in a Windows Journal window:

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -1$$

$\therefore x = v$   
 $y = u - v \quad \therefore |J| = 1$

$$g(u, v) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-\lambda u} u^{\alpha-1} \cdot \frac{\lambda^\beta}{\Gamma(\beta)} e^{-\lambda(u-v)} (u-v)^{\beta-1}$$

$$\therefore g(u) = \int_0^u \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-\lambda u} u^{\alpha-1} \cdot \frac{\lambda^\beta}{\Gamma(\beta)} e^{-\lambda(u-v)} (u-v)^{\beta-1} dv$$

Note that  $v$  ranges from 0 to  $u$ ,  $\because u = x + y$   
 $\therefore$  value of  $x$ , i.e.  $v$  cannot be more than  $u$ .

Which is equal to  $\frac{\partial v}{\partial u} \frac{\partial v}{\partial v} \frac{\partial u}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial v} \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}$  minus  $v \frac{\partial u}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial v}$ . Since,  $x$  is equal to  $v$  and  $y$  is equal to  $u$  minus  $v$  is equal to  $0 \ 1 \ 1$  and minus  $1$ . Therefore, determinant is minus  $1$  and therefore absolute value of  $J$  is equal to  $1$ . Therefore,  $g(u, v)$  is equal to  $\lambda^\alpha$  upon  $\Gamma(\alpha)$   $e^{-\lambda u}$   $u^{\alpha-1}$  multiplied by  $\lambda^\beta$  upon  $\Gamma(\beta)$   $e^{-\lambda(u-v)}$   $(u-v)^{\beta-1}$ . This we get from the distribution of  $x$  multiplied by  $\lambda^\beta$  upon  $\Gamma(\beta)$   $e^{-\lambda(u-v)}$   $(u-v)^{\beta-1}$ .

Note that,  $V$  ranges from  $0$  to  $u$  since  $u$  is equal to  $x$  plus  $y$ . Therefore value of  $x$  that is  $v$  cannot be more than  $u$ . So, this is the most important thing therefore we are integrating it  $0$  to  $u$   $\lambda^\alpha$  upon  $\Gamma(\alpha)$   $e^{-\lambda u}$   $u^{\alpha-1}$  multiplied by  $\lambda^\beta$  upon  $\Gamma(\beta)$   $e^{-\lambda(u-v)}$   $(u-v)^{\beta-1}$  this multiplied by  $1$  which is the Jacobian this multiplied by  $dv$ . Therefore, this is the integration that we have to carry out.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:32)

The image shows a handwritten derivation in a 'Note1 - Windows Journal' window. The derivation starts with the integral representation of the Gamma function: 
$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty v^{\alpha-1} e^{-v} dv$$
 (labeled as 1.e). It then considers the integral 
$$\int_0^u v^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda v} (u-v)^{\beta-1} dv$$
. A substitution  $z = \frac{v}{u}$  is introduced, leading to  $\frac{dz}{dv} = \frac{1}{u} \Rightarrow dv = u dz$ . The integral is then transformed to 
$$\int_0^1 (uz)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda uz} (u-uz)^{\beta-1} u dz$$
. The limits of integration are noted: as  $v$  ranges from 0 to  $u$ ,  $z$  ranges from 0 to 1. The integral simplifies to 
$$u^{\alpha+\beta} e^{-\lambda u} \int_0^1 z^{\alpha-1} (1-z)^{\beta-1} dz$$
. This integral is identified as the Beta function  $B(\alpha, \beta)$ . The final result is 
$$\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta) = \frac{1}{\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}} e^{-\lambda u} u^{\alpha+\beta-1} B(\alpha, \beta)$$
.

That is  $g(u)$  is equal now we take out  $\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}$  we take out  $\Gamma(\alpha)$ ,  $\Gamma(\beta)$ , we take  $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda u$  as that is independent of  $v$ . Therefore, we are left with integration 0 to  $u$   $v$  to the power  $\alpha-1$   $u-v$  to the power  $\beta-1$   $dv$ . Consider  $z$  is equal  $v$  by  $u$  therefore,  $dz$   $dv$  is equal to  $1$  upon  $u$  therefore  $dv$  is equal  $u dz$ . So, this is what we are going to use to compute the integral.

Note that as  $v$  ranges from 0 to  $u$ ,  $z$  ranges from 0 to 1. Therefore, this buzz down to  $\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}$  upon  $\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)$   $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda u$  integration 0 to 1  $u z$  to the power  $\alpha-1$  into  $u-u z$  to the power  $\beta-1$  multiplied by  $u$ , comma  $u dz$  is equal to  $\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}$   $\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)$   $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda u$ , now power of  $u$  is  $u^{\alpha+\beta-1}$  plus  $u$ .

Therefore, we out  $u$  to the power  $\alpha+\beta-1$  integration 0 to 1  $z$  to the power  $\alpha-1$   $1-z$  to the power  $\beta-1$   $dz$  this quantity as we can understand is going to be  $\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)$ . Therefore, we have  $\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}$  upon  $\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)$   $e$  to the power minus  $\lambda u$ ,  $u^{\alpha+\beta-1}$  into  $\Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(\beta)$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 34:46)

The image shows a handwritten derivation in a Windows Journal window. The text is as follows:

$$= \frac{\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} \cdot u^{\alpha+\beta-1} e^{-\lambda u}$$

Obviously:  
 $0 \leq u < \infty$

$\therefore$  pdf of  $u = g(u)$

$$= \frac{\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} u^{\alpha+\beta-1} e^{-\lambda u}$$

i.e.  $U \sim \Gamma(\lambda, \alpha+\beta)$

So we get the same result using the above theorem

Is equal to the power alpha plus beta upon gamma alpha gamma beta now beta alpha, beta we can write it as gamma alpha gamma beta upon gamma alpha plus beta multiplied by u to the power alpha plus beta minus 1 and e to the power minus lambda u. Obviously 0 less than equal to u less than infinity.

Therefore, pdf of u is equal to gu is equal to lambda power alpha plus beta upon gamma alpha plus beta u to the power alpha plus beta minus 1 into e to the power minus lambda u that is, u is distributed as gamma with parameter lambda and alpha plus beta. So, we get the same result using the above theorem.

(Refer Slide Time: 36:19)

Ex Consider  $X, Y$  iid  $N(0, 1)$   
 what is the dist<sup>n</sup> of  $X^2 + Y^2$

The natural transformation is  
 $X = R \cos \theta$  where:  $R \in (0, \infty)$   
 $Y = R \sin \theta$   $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$

$\therefore |J| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial R \cos \theta}{\partial R} & \frac{\partial R \cos \theta}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial R \sin \theta}{\partial R} & \frac{\partial R \sin \theta}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix}$

$= \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -R \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & R \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = R \cos^2 \theta + R \sin^2 \theta$   
 $= R$

We know that  $X^2 + Y^2 \sim \chi^2_{(2)}$   
 $\therefore f(z) = \chi^2_{(2)}$   
 $= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^1$   
 $= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-3/2} 1^{-1}$   
 $= \frac{1}{2} e^{-3/2}$

Another example, consider  $X$  and  $Y$  to be iid normal  $0, 1$ . What is the distribution of  $X$  square plus  $Y$  square? We know that  $X$  square plus  $Y$  square is distributed as chi square with 2 degrees of freedom that is,  $f$  of  $z$  is equal to chi square with 2 is equal to gamma with half, comma 1 and gamma with half, comma 1 is equal to lambda power alpha gamma alpha  $e$  to the power minus lambda  $\times z$  to the power alpha minus 1. Therefore, this is going to be half  $e$  to the power minus  $z$  by 2. So, we know the pdf anyway, let us now solve this problem using the above method.

The natural transformation is  $X$  is equal to  $R \cos \theta$  and  $Y$  is equal to  $R \sin \theta$  where,  $R$  belongs to 0 to infinity and  $\theta$  belongs to 0 to  $2\pi$ . Therefore, Jacobean is equal to  $\frac{\partial R \cos \theta}{\partial R} \frac{\partial R \cos \theta}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial R \sin \theta}{\partial R} \frac{\partial R \sin \theta}{\partial \theta}$  is equal to determinant of the matrix  $\begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -R \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & R \cos \theta \end{vmatrix}$  is equal to  $R \cos^2 \theta + R \sin^2 \theta$  is equal to  $R$ . So, this is the Jacobean.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:18)

Handwritten derivation in a Windows Journal window:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore f(R) &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{R^2 \cos^2 \theta}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{R^2 \sin^2 \theta}{2}} \cdot R \, d\theta \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2 (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)}{2}} R \, d\theta \\
 &= \frac{R}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta = \frac{R}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} \cdot 2\pi = R e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} \quad 0 \leq R < \infty.
 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f(R) = R e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}}$

But we are interested in the pdf of  $X^2 + Y^2 = R^2$

Therefore,  $f$  of  $R$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{R^2 \cos^2 \theta}{2}}$  multiplied by  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{R^2 \sin^2 \theta}{2}}$  multiplied by the Jacobian which is  $R$ . And then I am integrating it for the range  $0$  to  $2\pi$  with respect to  $\theta$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2 (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)}{2}} R \, d\theta$  is equal to  $\frac{R}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta$  is equal to  $\frac{R}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} \cdot 2\pi$  is equal to  $R e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}}$  when  $0 \leq R < \infty$ .

Therefore,  $f$  of  $R$  is equal to  $R e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}}$ . But, we are interested in the pdf of  $X^2 + Y^2 = R^2$ . And what we got is the pdf of  $R$ .



(Refer Slide Time: 41:41)

What is the pdf of  $R^2 = Z$  when  $f(R) = R e^{-R^2/2}$ .

$\therefore Z = R^2$

$\left| \frac{dz}{dy} \right|$

from the theorem on single variables

Now  $\frac{dR^2}{dR} = 2R$

$\therefore \frac{dR}{dR^2} = \frac{1}{2R} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{z}}$

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

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

Ex Consider  $X, Y$  iid  $N(0,1)$

What is the dist<sup>n</sup> of  $X^2 + Y^2$

The natural transformation is

$X = R \cos \theta$  where:  $R \in (0, \infty)$

$Y = R \sin \theta$   $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$

$\therefore |J| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial R \cos \theta}{\partial R} & \frac{\partial R \cos \theta}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial R \sin \theta}{\partial R} & \frac{\partial R \sin \theta}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix}$

$= \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -R \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & R \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = R \cos^2 \theta + R \sin^2 \theta$

$= R$

We know that  $X^2 + Y^2 \sim \chi^2_{(2)}$

i.e.  $f(z) = \chi^2_{(2)}$

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

Therefore, what is the pdf of  $R$  square is equal to  $z$  when  $f$  of  $R$  is equal to  $R e$  to the power minus  $R$  square by 2. Therefore,  $z$  is equal to  $R$  square, therefore if we call it  $x$  and if we call it  $y$  then we need to compute  $dx dy$  from the theorem on single variable. Therefore,  $f$  of  $z$  is equal to root over  $z$  because  $R$  is equal to root over  $R$  square  $e$  to the power minus  $z$  by 2 into  $dR dR$  square.

Now,  $dR$  square  $dR$  is equal to  $2R$ , therefore  $dR dR$  square is equal to  $1$  upon  $2R$  which is is equal to  $1$  upon  $2$  root  $z$ . Therefore, putting here we get  $f$  of  $z$  is equal to root over  $z$   $e$  to the

power minus  $z$  by 2 into 1 upon 2 root  $z$  is equal to half  $e$  to the power minus  $z$  by 2. Go back to that result we obtained, we see that we have got the same result here.

(Refer Slide Time: 43:50)

The image shows a digital whiteboard with handwritten mathematical notes. The text is as follows:

Ex: If  $X, Y$  are iid  $N(0, 1)$   
 Find the dist<sup>n</sup> of  $\frac{X}{Y}$ .

Sol<sup>n</sup>: Let  $U = \frac{X}{Y}$   $\therefore Y = \frac{X}{U}$   $\therefore |J| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix}$   
 $V = Y$   $\underline{X = UV}$   $= \begin{vmatrix} v & u \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = v$

$\therefore$  Since  $V = Y$   $\therefore V$  takes values in  $(-\infty, \infty)$   $\therefore$  we need to take  $|v|$  to compute the joint pdf of  $u, v$ .

Another example, if  $X$  and  $Y$  are iid normal  $0, 1$ . Find the distribution of  $X$  upon  $Y$ . So as before, let  $Y$  is equal to  $X$  by  $Y$  and let  $V$  is equal to  $Y$ , therefore  $Y$  is equal to  $V$  and  $X$  is equal to  $UV$ . So, this is the inverse transformation. Therefore, Jacobean is equal to determinant of  $\frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial v}$  is equal to  $v$   $u$   $0$  and  $1$  is equal to  $v$ . Therefore, since,  $V$  is equal to  $Y$ , therefore  $V$  takes values in minus infinity to infinity, therefore we need to take modulus of  $v$  to compute the joint pdf of  $u$  and  $v$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 45:46)

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore g(u, v) &= f(x, y) |v| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2} \cdot |v| \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2}} |v| \quad \text{in terms of } u, v \\ \therefore g(u) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{u^2+v^2}{2}} |v| dv = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} |v| dv \\ \therefore \text{It is an even function as we can write} \\ g(u) &= \frac{2}{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} v dv = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} v \cdot e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} dv \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $g(u, v)$  is equal to  $f(x, y)$  multiplied by modulus of  $v$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} \cdot |v|$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ . Is equal to  $\frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2}} |v|$ . Therefore,  $g(u)$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} |v| dv$ . Since, it is an even function, we can write  $g(u)$  is equal to  $\frac{2}{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} v \cdot e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} dv$ , because  $v$  here is always positive, is equal to  $\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} v \cdot e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} dv$ .

This we are integrating from minus infinity to infinity with respect to  $v$ , which is is equal to  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} |v| dv$ . Since, it is an even function, we can write  $g(u)$  is equal to  $\frac{2}{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} v \cdot e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} dv$ , because  $v$  here is always positive, is equal to  $\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} v \cdot e^{-\frac{(u^2+v^2)}{2}} dv$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 48.47)

Put  $\frac{v^2(u^2+1)}{2} = z \quad \therefore \frac{dz}{dv} = \frac{2v \cdot (u^2+1)}{2} = v(u^2+1)$   
 $\therefore dz = v(u^2+1) dv$   
 $\therefore g(u) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty e^{-z} \cdot \frac{dz}{u^2+1}$   
 $= \frac{1}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{1+u^2} \int_0^\infty e^{-z} dz$   
 $\therefore g(u) = \frac{1}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{1+u^2} \quad \text{when } -\infty < u < \infty$   
 $\therefore \frac{X}{Y} \text{ follows a Cauchy}(1, 0) \text{ distribution.}$

Put  $v$  square into  $u$  square plus 1 by 2 is equal to  $z$ . Therefore,  $dz$   $dv$  is equal to  $2v$  into  $u$  square plus 1 upon 2 is equal to  $v$  into  $u$  square plus 1. Therefore,  $dz$  is equal to  $v$  into  $u$  square plus 1 into  $dv$ . Therefore,  $g(u)$  is equal to  $1$  over  $\pi$  integration  $0$  to infinity  $e$  to the power minus  $z$ . I am replacing  $z$  in the equation and  $v dv$  we are writing at  $dz$  upon  $u$  square plus 1 is equal to  $1$  upon  $\pi$  into  $1$  upon  $1 + u$  square integration  $0$  to infinity  $e$  to the power minus  $z$   $dz$ .

This integrates to 1, therefore  $g$  of  $u$  is equal to  $1$  upon  $\pi$  into  $1$  upon  $1 + u$  square when minus infinity less than  $u$  less than infinity. Therefore,  $X$  by  $Y$  follows a Cauchy distribution.

(Refer Slide Time: 50:55)

Ex  $X$  &  $Y$  are independent Exp(1) dist<sup>n</sup>.  
 Find the joint density of  $X+Y = Z$   
 $X-Y = W$ .  
 And from there compute pdf  $X+Y$  &  $X-Y$ .  
 Ans:  $Z = X+Y \quad \therefore X = \frac{Z+W}{2}$   
 $W = X-Y \quad \therefore Y = \frac{Z-W}{2}$   
 $\therefore |J| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$   
 $\therefore \text{Joint pdf } g(z, w) = e^{-z} \cdot e^{-w} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \quad (\text{Expressed in } z, w)$   
 $= \frac{1}{2} e^{-(z+w)}$   
 $= \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} \quad \text{when } z > 0$

Let us now consider another example, X and Y are independent, exponential 1 distribution, find the joint density of X plus Y, so let us call it Z and X minus Y let us call it W. And from there compute pdf of X plus Y and X minus Y. So, let us move as follows. Let so Z is equal to X plus Y, W is equal to X minus Y therefore X is equal to Z plus W by 2 and Y is equal to Z minus W by 2, therefore Jacobean is equal to del x del Z del W del x del W del y del Z del y del W is equal to 1 by 4 plus 1 by 4 is equal to half.

Therefore, joint pdf g ZW of zw is equal to e to the power minus x into e to the power minus y into half expressed in zw is equal to e to the power minus x plus y into half is equal to half e to the power minus z because x plus y is equal to z when z is greater than 0. Because it is the summation of two exponential random variables.

(Refer Slide Time: 53:36)

Note that :  $z > 0$  and  $w \in (-\infty, \infty)$   
In the joint pdf  $w$  has no role.

Let us compute pdf of Z.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore g(z) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dw \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} [z - (-z)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} 2z = z e^{-z} \end{aligned}$$

Question is what is the range of  $w$ .

Note that if  $Z = z$   
Then range of  $w$  is  $(-z, z)$   
Because lowest possible value for  $w$  is when  $X$  is minimum &  $Y$  is maximum:  
 $\begin{aligned} \text{If } X=0 \text{ \& } Y=z &\therefore W=-z \\ \text{If } X=z \text{ \& } Y=0 &\therefore W=+z \end{aligned}$

limit we already know

Note that, z is greater than 0 but, w belongs minus infinity to plus infinity and also note that in the joint pdf w has no role. So, let us compute pdf of Z therefore g<sub>Z</sub> is equal to integration of half e to the power minus z with respect to w. Question is, what is the range of w? Note that, if Z is equal to z, then range of w is minus z to z, because lowest possible value for W is when X is minimum and Y is maximum.

Therefore, if X is equal to 0 and Y is equal to z we get the value z therefore W is equal to minus z. Similarly, X is equal to z and Y is equal to 0 implies W is equal to plus z. Hence, the limit of integration is equal to minus z to plus z of half e to the power minus z is equal to half e to the

power minus  $z$  minus  $z$  to plus  $z$   $dz$  is equal to half  $e$  to the power minus  $z$   $z$  minus minus  $z$  is equal to half into  $e$  to the power minus  $z$  into  $2z$  is equal to  $z e$  to the power minus  $z$ .

This in any case we knew because the sum of two exponential is going to be gamma with lambda and parameter alpha is equal to 2. So, this result we already know.

(Refer Slide Time: 57:01)

Let us now compute pdf of  $W$ .

$g(w) = \int \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} dz$

Case-1  $w > 0$

$\therefore X - Y = w$

$\therefore$  Smallest value for  $Z$  is  $w$  when  $X = w$   $Y = 0$

$\therefore g(w) = \int_w^\infty \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} dz$

$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{e^{-z}}{-1} \right]_w^\infty = \frac{1}{2} e^{-w}$

Case 2  $w < 0$

So smallest value for  $Z$  is  $-w$  consider in  $+ve$

$\therefore f(w) = \int_{-w}^\infty \frac{1}{2} e^{-z} dz$

$= \frac{1}{2} e^{-|w|}$

$\therefore pdf_W = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|w|}$

$-\infty < w < \infty$

Let us now compute pdf of  $W$ , therefore  $g(w)$  is equal to integration of half  $e$  to the power minus  $z$  to  $dz$ . So, we are now integrating out  $z$ . Case 1,  $w$  is greater than 0, therefore  $X$  minus  $Y$  is equal to  $w$ , therefore smallest value for  $Z$  is  $w$  when  $X$  is equal to  $w$  and  $Y$  is equal to 0.

Therefore,  $g(w)$  is equal to integration  $w$  to infinity half  $e$  to the power minus  $z$   $dz$  is equal to half  $e$  to the power minus  $z$  minus 1 infinity  $w$ , at infinity it is going to be 0. So, what we get is half  $e$  to the power minus  $w$ . Case 2,  $w$  is less than 0 so smallest value for  $z$  is minus  $w$  which is positive. Therefore,  $f(w)$  is equal to integration minus  $w$  to infinity half  $e$  to the power minus  $z$   $dz$ . And in a similar way we get half of  $e$  to the power minus mod of  $w$ .

Therefore, pdf of  $W$  is equal to half  $e$  to the power minus mod  $w$  when minus infinity less than  $w$  less than infinity. This is called double exponential distributions. Okay friends, I stop here today. So, in today's class we have seen how to obtain the density function for an arbitrary function of two random variables. In the next class I shall continue with that.



And I shall introduce you to some important pdfs namely t and f distribution. Okay then, till then thank you.