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LM in Ingegneria dell'Informazione e dell'Automazione  
Complementi di Probabilità e Statistica  
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**Problem 1** Let  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  a sequence of independent real random variables on a probability space  $\Omega$  such that

$$\mathbf{P}(X_n = x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } x = \sqrt{n} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In the assigned order, check whether the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges in distribution, converges in probability, converges almost surely, converges in mean, and converges in square mean.

**Solution.** According to the definition of the probability distribution,  $X_n$  is a Bernoulli random variable on  $\Omega$  with states 0,  $\sqrt{n}$  and success probability  $\frac{1}{n}$ , for every  $n \geq 1$ . In symbols,

$$X_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \mathbf{P}(X_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \\ \sqrt{n} & \mathbf{P}(X_n = \sqrt{n}) = \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}.$$

Then, considering the distribution function  $F_{X_n} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  of  $X_n$ , we have

$$F_{X_n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 - \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } 0 \leq x < \sqrt{n} \\ 1 & \text{if } \sqrt{n} \leq x \end{cases}.$$

As a consequence,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}.$$

In fact, for any  $x < 0$  we have  $F_{X_n}(x) = 0$ , for every  $n \geq 1$ , which clearly implies  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = 0$ . On the other hand, for any  $x \geq 0$  there clearly exist  $n_x \geq 1$  such that  $x \leq \sqrt{n}$  for every  $n \geq n_x$ . It follows,  $F_{X_n}(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}$  for any  $n \geq n_x$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \frac{1}{n}) = 1$ .

Therefore, the sequence  $(F_{X_n})_{n \geq 0}$  of distribution functions converges to the Heaviside function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases},$$

for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . In particular for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  where  $F$  is continuous. This means that the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges in distribution to the Dirac random variable concentrated at 0. Write  $X \equiv \text{Dir}(0)$ . Now, for any  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$  consider the event  $\{|X_n - X| \geq \varepsilon\}$  on varying of  $n \geq 1$ . We have

$$|X_n - X| = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } X_n = 0 \\ \sqrt{n} & \text{if } X_n = \sqrt{n} \end{cases}.$$

Hence,

$$|X_n - X| = X_n.$$

The latter implies

$$\{|X_n - X| \geq \varepsilon\} = \{X_n \geq \varepsilon\} = \{X_n = \sqrt{n}\}.$$

It follows

$$\mathbf{P}(|X_n - X| \geq \varepsilon) = \mathbf{P}(X_n = \sqrt{n}) = \frac{1}{n},$$

for every  $n \geq 1$ . As a consequence,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}(|X_n - X| \geq \varepsilon) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0,$$

which yields the convergence in probability of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  to  $X$ . Note that this result is implied by the theorem stating that any sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  which converges in distribution to a Dirac random variable converges also in probability to this Dirac random variable.

To check the almost sure convergence of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  to  $X$ , choosing any  $\varepsilon < 1$ , on account of the independence of the random variables of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ , we estimate

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{n \geq m} \{|X_n| \leq \varepsilon\}\right) &\leq \mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{n=m}^{2m} \{|X_n| \leq \varepsilon\}\right) = \prod_{n=m}^{2m} \mathbf{P}(|X_n| \leq \varepsilon) \\ &= \prod_{n=m}^{2m} \mathbf{P}(X_n = 0) = \prod_{n=m}^{2m} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &\leq \prod_{n=m}^{2m} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2m}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2m}\right)^m. \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence,

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{n \geq m} \{|X_n| \leq \varepsilon\}\right) \leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2m}\right)^m = e^{-1/2} < 1.$$

This prevents that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}\left(\bigcap_{n \geq m} \{|X_n| \leq \varepsilon\}\right) = 1,$$

so that  $X_n \not\stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\rightarrow} 0$ .

To check the convergence in mean of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ , recall first that if a sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  of real random variables converges in probability to a real random variable  $X$  and  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges also in mean, then  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges in mean to  $X$ . In light of this, we check the convergence in mean of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  to  $X$ . By virtue of (??), we have

$$\mathbf{E}[|X_n - X|] = \mathbf{E}[X_n].$$

On the other hand,

$$\mathbf{E}[X_n] = 0 \cdot \mathbf{P}(X_n = 0) + \sqrt{n} \cdot \mathbf{P}(X_n = \sqrt{n}) = 0 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + \sqrt{n} \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[|X_n - X|] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[X_n] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = 0,$$

which yields the convergence in mean of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  to  $X$ .

To check the convergence in square mean of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ , recall first that if a sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  of real random variables converges in probability to a real random variable  $X$  and  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges also in square mean, then  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges in square mean to  $X$ . In light of this, we check convergence in square mean of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  to  $X$ . By virtue of (??), we have

$$\mathbf{E}[|X_n - X|^2] = \mathbf{E}[X_n^2].$$

On the other hand,

$$\mathbf{E}[X_n^2] = 0 \cdot \mathbf{P}(X_n = 0) + n \cdot \mathbf{P}(X_n = \sqrt{n}) = 0 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + n \frac{1}{n} = 1.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E} [|X_n - X|^2] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E} [X_n^2] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 = 1.$$

This prevents the convergence in square mean of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  to  $X$ .

**Problem 2** Let  $X \sim U(0, 1)$  and let  $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$  be the sequence of real random variables given by

$$Y_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} n & \text{if } 0 \leq X < \frac{1}{n}, \\ 0 & \text{if } 1/n \leq X \leq 1. \end{cases}, \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

Check whether the sequence  $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converges in probability, converges in mean, converges almost surely, in the assigned order.

**Exercise 3** Hint: to deal with the almost sure convergence consider the event  $E_0 \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = 0\}$  and the complement  $E_0^c$ .

**Solution.** Note that, according to the definition

$$\mathbf{P}(Y_n = n) = \mathbf{P}\left(0 \leq X < \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{P}(Y_n = 0) = \mathbf{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \leq X \leq 1\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}.$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbf{P}(|Y_n| \leq \varepsilon) \geq \mathbf{P}(Y_n = 0) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}.$$

It follows

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}(|Y_n| \leq \varepsilon) \geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) = 1,$$

which implies the convergence in probability to 0. Now, to check the convergence in mean, we consider

$$\mathbf{E}[Y_n] = n\mathbf{P}(Y_n = n) + 0\mathbf{P}(Y_n = 0) = 1$$

It follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[|Y_n - 0|] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[Y_n] = 1 \neq 0.$$

Hence,  $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$  does not converge in mean. In the end, consider the event

$$E_0 \equiv \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = 0\}.$$

Since  $X \sim U(0, 1)$  we have  $\mathbf{P}(E_0) = 0$ . In addition, for every  $\omega \in E_0^c$  we have  $X(\omega) > 0$  and it is possible to find  $n_\omega$  such that for every  $n > n_\omega$

$$\frac{1}{n} < X(\omega).$$

It then follows that

$$Y_n(\omega) = 0$$

for every  $n > n_\omega$ . This implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Y_n(\omega) = 0, \quad \forall \omega \in E_0^c$$

which yields the almost sure convergence to 0 of the sequence  $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$ .

**Problem 4** Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{P}) \equiv \Omega$  be a probability space and let  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  be a sequence of real random variables on  $\Omega$ . Assume that  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  are identically distributed and let  $f_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  their common density function given by

$$f_X(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{2}{x^3} 1_{(1, +\infty)}(x), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Set

$$Y_n \equiv \frac{X_n}{n^\alpha}, \quad \forall n \geq 1,$$

where  $\alpha > 0$ .

1. Study the convergence in distribution, probability, and  $L^p$  of the sequence  $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$  on varying of  $\alpha > 0$ .
2. Under the additional assumption of independence of the random variables of the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ , does the sequence  $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$  converge almost surely?

**Solution.** Note that the random variables of the sequences  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  and  $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$  are almost surely positive. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[|Y_n|^p] &= \mathbf{E}[Y_n^p] = \int_{\Omega} Y_n^p d\mathbf{P} = \frac{1}{n^{\alpha p}} \int_{\Omega} X_n^p d\mathbf{P} = \frac{1}{n^{\alpha p}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x^p f_X(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{n^{\alpha p}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} 2x^{p-3} 1_{(1, +\infty)}(x) dx = \frac{2}{n^{\alpha p}} \int_1^{+\infty} x^{p-3} dx, \end{aligned}$$

for every  $\alpha > 0, p \geq 1$ . On the other hand,

$$\int_1^{+\infty} x^{p-3} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p-2} x^{p-2} \Big|_1^{+\infty} = \frac{1}{2-p} & \text{if } 1 \leq p < 2 \\ +\infty & \text{if } p \geq 2 \end{cases}.$$

It then follows

$$\mathbf{E}[|Y_n|^p] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2-p} \frac{2}{n^{\alpha p}} & \text{if } 1 \leq p < 2 \\ +\infty & \text{if } p \geq 2 \end{cases}.$$

for every  $\alpha > 0$ . As a consequence,  $Y_n \xrightarrow{L^p} 0$  for every  $\alpha > 0$  if and only if  $1 \leq p < 2$ . In particular,  $Y_n \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}} 0$  and  $Y_n \xrightarrow{\mathbf{w}} 0$  for every  $\alpha > 0$ . Now, we can write

$$\mathbf{P}(|Y_n| > \varepsilon) = \mathbf{P}(Y_n > \varepsilon) = \mathbf{P}(X_n > n^\alpha \varepsilon) = \int_{n^\alpha \varepsilon}^{+\infty} 2x^{-3} 1_{(1, +\infty)}(x) dx = -x^{-2} \Big|_{n^\alpha \varepsilon}^{+\infty} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2 n^{2\alpha}}$$

for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and every  $n > n_\varepsilon$ , where  $n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$  is such that  $n^\alpha \varepsilon > 1$ . As a consequence,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{P}(|Y_n| > \varepsilon) < \infty \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2\alpha}} < \infty \Leftrightarrow \alpha > \frac{1}{2}.$$

Therefore, we have

$$Y_n \not\xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0, \quad \forall \alpha \leq \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad Y_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0, \quad \forall \alpha > \frac{1}{2}.$$

**Exercise 5** Consider the interval  $[0, 1]$  of the real Euclidean line. Let  $\mathcal{B}([0, 1])$  the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $[0, 1]$  and let  $\mu_L : \mathcal{B}([0, 1]) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  be the Lebesgue measure on  $[0, 1]$ . Hence, consider the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{P})$  where  $\Omega \equiv [0, 1]$ ,  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{B}([0, 1])$ , and  $\mathbf{P} \equiv \mu_L$ . Prove, **following the prescribed order whitout independence assumption**, that the sequence  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  of random variables given by

$$X_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{n} 1_{[0, 1/n]}, \quad \forall n \geq 1 \tag{1}$$

converges in distribution, in probability, almost surely, and in mean to the Dirac random variable concentrated at 0. Prove also that  $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$  does not converge in square mean.

**Solution.** According to Definition 1 we have

$$X_n(\omega) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{n} & \text{if } \omega \in [0, 1/n] \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \in (1/n, 1] \end{cases},$$

for every  $n \geq 1$ . Hence,

$$\mathbf{P}(X_n = \sqrt{n}) = \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{P}(X_n = 0) = \frac{n-1}{n}.$$

That is  $X_n$  is a Bernoulli random variable with states 0,  $\sqrt{n}$  and success probability  $\frac{1}{n}$ . As a consequence, considering the distribution function  $F_{X_n} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  of  $X_n$ , we have

$$F_{X_n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ \frac{n-1}{n} & \text{if } 0 \leq x < \sqrt{n} \\ 1 & \text{if } \sqrt{n} \leq x \end{cases},$$

for every  $n \geq 1$ . It follows

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \end{cases}.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = H(x),$$

for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , where  $H(x)$  is the Heaviside function which is the distribution function of the Dirac random variable concentrated at 0. This shows that

$$X_n \xrightarrow{d} X_0,$$

where  $X_0$  is the Dirac random variable concentrated at 0

$$X_0(\omega) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 0, \quad \mathbf{P}(X_0 = 0) = 1.$$

To prove the convergence in probability of  $X_n$  to  $X_0$ , we have to show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}(|X_n - X_0| < \varepsilon) = 1,$$

for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We have

$$|X_n - X_0| = X_n \quad \text{a.s. on } \Omega.$$

Hence,

$$\mathbf{P}(|X_n - X_0| < \varepsilon) = \mathbf{P}(X_n < \varepsilon).$$

Now, for any  $\varepsilon \leq 1$  we have

$$\mathbf{P}(X_n < \varepsilon) = \mathbf{P}(X_n = 0) = \mu_L((1/n, 1]) = 1 - \frac{1}{n}.$$

It follows,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{P}(|X_n - X_0| < \varepsilon) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \frac{1}{n} = 1.$$

this is sufficient to prove that

$$X_n \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}} X_0.$$

To prove the almost sure convergence of  $X_n$  to  $X_0$ , we need to show that there exists an event  $E \in \mathcal{E}$  such that  $\mathbf{P}(E) = 1$  and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = X_0(\omega),$$

for every  $\omega \in E$ . To this goal consider the event  $E = (0, 1]$ . We have

$$\mathbf{P}(E) = \mu_L(E) = 1.$$

In addition for every  $\omega \in E$  there exists  $n_\omega$  such that

$$\frac{1}{n} < \omega$$

for every  $n > n_\omega$ . This implies that

$$X_n(\omega) = 0$$

for every  $n > n_\omega$  and it follows

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(\omega) = 0 = X_0(\omega).$$

That is

$$X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X_0.$$

To prove the convergence in mean of  $X_n$  to  $X_0$ , we have to show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[|X_n - X_0|] = 0.$$

We have

$$\mathbf{E}[|X_n - X_0|] = \mathbf{E}[X_n] = \sqrt{n} \mathbf{P}(X_n = \sqrt{n}) = \sqrt{n} \mathbf{P}([0, 1/n]) = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

It follows

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[|X_n - X_0|] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = 0,$$

which proves

$$X_n \xrightarrow{\mathbf{L}^1} X_0.$$

To prove that  $X_n$  does not converge in square mean to  $X_0$ , we compute

$$\mathbf{E}[|X_n - X_0|^2] = \mathbf{E}[X_n^2] = n \mathbf{P}(X_n = \sqrt{n}) = n \mathbf{P}([0, 1/n]) = \frac{n}{n} = 1.$$

It follows

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[|X_n - X_0|^2] = 1,$$

which prevents

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}[|X_n - X_0|^2] = 0,$$

as it would be necessary to have

$$X_n \xrightarrow{\mathbf{L}^2} X_0.$$

**Problem 6** Show that the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$f(x, y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} \frac{y-x}{2} & \text{if } (x, y) \in [-1, 0] \times [0, 1] \\ \frac{x-y}{2} & \text{if } (x, y) \in [0, 1] \times [-1, 0] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is a probability density. Hence, consider the random vector  $(X, Y)^\top$  with density  $f_{X,Y} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$f_{X,Y}(x, y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(x, y).$$

Determine the marginal densities of entries  $X$  and  $Y$  of  $(X, Y)^\top$ . Are  $X$  and  $Y$  correlated? Are  $X$  and  $Y$  independent? Compute

$$\mathbf{P}(X + Y \geq 0).$$

**Solution.** To prove that  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a probability density, we need to show that

$$f(x, y) \geq 0,$$

for almost every  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x, y) \, d\mu_L(x, y) = 1.$$

Since in  $[-1, 0] \times [0, 1]$  [resp.  $[0, 1] \times [-1, 0]$ ] we have  $x \leq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$  [resp.  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \leq 0$ ] it follows  $y - x \geq 0$  [resp.  $x - y \geq 0$ ]. This proves the positivity of  $f(x, y)$  for every  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Since we can write

$$f(x, y) = \frac{y - x}{2} 1_{[-1, 0] \times [0, 1]}(x, y) + \frac{x - y}{2} 1_{[0, 1] \times [-1, 0]}(x, y),$$

for every  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , thanks to the properties of the Lebesgue integral for positive functions, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} f(x, y) \, d\mu_L(x, y) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \left( \frac{y - x}{2} 1_{[-1, 0] \times [0, 1]}(x, y) + \frac{x - y}{2} 1_{[0, 1] \times [-1, 0]}(x, y) \right) d\mu_L(x, y) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{y - x}{2} 1_{[-1, 0] \times [0, 1]}(x, y) \, d\mu_L(x, y) + \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{x - y}{2} 1_{[0, 1] \times [-1, 0]}(x, y) \, d\mu_L(x, y) \\ &= \int_{[-1, 0] \times [0, 1]} \frac{y - x}{2} \, d\mu_L(x, y) + \int_{[0, 1] \times [-1, 0]} \frac{x - y}{2} \, d\mu_L(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, the function  $y - x$  [resp.  $x - y$ ] is continuous on  $[-1, 0] \times [0, 1]$  [resp.  $[0, 1] \times [-1, 0]$ ]. It follows

$$\int_{[-1, 0] \times [0, 1]} \frac{y - x}{2} \, d\mu_L(x, y) = \int_{x=-1}^0 \int_{y=0}^1 \frac{y - x}{2} \, dx dy \quad [\text{resp.} \quad \int_{[0, 1] \times [-1, 0]} \frac{x - y}{2} \, d\mu_L(x, y) = \int_{x=1}^0 \int_{y=-1}^0 \frac{y - x}{2} \, dx dy].$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{x=-1}^0 \int_{y=0}^1 \frac{y - x}{2} \, dx dy &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=-1}^0 \left( \int_{y=0}^1 (y - x) \, dy \right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=-1}^0 \left( \frac{(y - x)^2}{2} \Big|_{y=0}^1 \right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=-1}^0 \left( \frac{(1 - x)^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2} \right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=-1}^0 \left( \frac{1 - 2x + x^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2} \right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=-1}^0 \left( \frac{1}{2} - x \right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right) \Big|_{x=-1}^0 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left( x - x^2 \right) \Big|_{x=-1}^0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, we clearly have

$$\int_{x=1}^0 \int_{y=-1}^0 \frac{y - x}{2} \, dx dy = \int_{x=-1}^0 \int_{y=0}^1 \frac{y - x}{2} \, dx dy.$$

It then follows that  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a probability density. The marginal densities  $f_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f_Y : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are given by

$$f_X(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x,y) d\mu_L(y) \quad \text{and} \quad f_Y(y) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{X,Y}(x,y) d\mu_L(x).$$

Since we can write

$$f(x,y) = \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) 1_{[0,1]}(y) + \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) 1_{[-1,0]}(y),$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) 1_{[0,1]}(y) d\mu_L(y) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) 1_{[-1,0]}(y) d\mu_L(y) \\ &= 1_{[-1,0]}(x) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(y) d\mu_L(y) + 1_{[0,1]}(x) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(y) d\mu_L(y) \\ &= 1_{[-1,0]}(x) \int_{[0,1]} \frac{y-x}{2} d\mu_L(y) + 1_{[0,1]}(x) \int_{[-1,0]} \frac{x-y}{2} d\mu_L(y) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) \int_0^1 (y-x) dy + \frac{1}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) \int_{-1}^0 (x-y) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) \left. \frac{(y-x)^2}{2} \right|_{y=0}^1 - \frac{1}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) \left. \frac{(x-y)^2}{2} \right|_{y=-1}^0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) \left( \frac{(1-x)^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) \left( \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{(x+1)^2}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1-2x}{2} \right) 1_{[-1,0]}(x) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1+2x}{2} \right) 1_{[0,1]}(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} ((1-2x) 1_{[-1,0]}(x) + (1+2x) 1_{[0,1]}(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} f_Y(y) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) 1_{[0,1]}(y) d\mu_L(x) + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) 1_{[-1,0]}(y) d\mu_L(x) \\ &= 1_{[0,1]}(y) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) d\mu_L(x) + 1_{[-1,0]}(y) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) d\mu_L(x) \\ &= 1_{[0,1]}(y) \int_{[-1,0]} \frac{y-x}{2} d\mu_L(x) + 1_{[-1,0]}(y) \int_{[0,1]} \frac{x-y}{2} d\mu_L(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(y) \int_{-1}^0 (y-x) dx + \frac{1}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(y) \int_0^1 (x-y) dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(y) \left. \frac{(y-x)^2}{2} \right|_{x=-1}^0 + \frac{1}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(y) \left. \frac{(x-y)^2}{2} \right|_{x=0}^1 \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(y) \left( \frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{(y+1)^2}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(y) \left( \frac{(1-y)^2}{2} - \frac{y^2}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1+2y}{2} \right) 1_{[0,1]}(y) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1-2y}{2} \right) 1_{[-1,0]}(y) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} ((1-2y) 1_{[-1,0]}(y) + (1+2y) 1_{[0,1]}(y)). \end{aligned}$$



Note that we have<sup>1</sup>

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(-x) &= \frac{1}{4} ((1+2x) 1_{[-1,0]}(-x) + (1-2x) 1_{[0,1]}(-x)) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} ((1+2x) 1_{[0,1]}(x) + (1-2x) 1_{[-1,0]}(x)) \\ &= f_X(x). \end{aligned}$$

That is  $f_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  is an even function. Moreover,

$$f_Y(y) = f_X(x) \big|_{x=y}.$$

As a consequence,

$$\mathbf{E}[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f_X(x) d\mu_L(x) = 0 = \mathbf{E}[Y].$$

Otherwise, in terms of explicit computations, we can write,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[X] &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f_X(x) d\mu_L(x) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{4} (x(1-2x) 1_{[-1,0]}(x) + x(1+2x) 1_{[0,1]}(x)) d\mu_L(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left( \int_{[-1,0]} x(1-2x) d\mu_L(x) + \int_{[0,1]} x(1+2x) d\mu_L(x) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left( \int_{-1}^0 (x-2x^2) dx + \int_0^1 (x+2x^2) dx \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left( \left. \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{2}{3}x^3 \right|_{x=-1}^0 + \left. \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{2}{3}x^3 \right|_{x=0}^1 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left( -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} \right) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The same computation yields

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[Y] &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} y f_Y(y) d\mu_L(y) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{4} (1_{[-1,0]}(y) y(1-2y) + 1_{[0,1]}(y) y(1+2y)) d\mu_L(y) \\ &= \frac{1}{0}. \end{aligned}$$

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<sup>1</sup>Thanks to Tiziana Mannucci

On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}[XY] &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} xy f_{X,Y}(x, y) d\mu_L(x, y) \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \left( \frac{xy(y-x)}{2} 1_{[-1,0] \times [0,1]}(x, y) + \frac{xy(x-y)}{2} 1_{[0,1] \times [-1,0]}(x, y) \right) d\mu_L(x, y) \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{xy(y-x)}{2} 1_{[-1,0] \times [0,1]}(x, y) d\mu_L(x, y) + \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \frac{xy(x-y)}{2} 1_{[0,1] \times [-1,0]}(x, y) d\mu_L(x, y) \\
&= \int_{[-1,0] \times [0,1]} \frac{xy(y-x)}{2} d\mu_L(x, y) + \int_{[0,1] \times [-1,0]} \frac{xy(x-y)}{2} d\mu_L(x, y) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{y=0}^1 \left( \int_{x=-1}^0 (xy^2 - x^2y) dx \right) dy + \int_{y=-1}^0 \left( \int_{x=0}^1 (x^2y - xy^2) dx \right) dy \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{y=0}^1 \left. \frac{1}{2}x^2y^2 - \frac{1}{3}x^3y \right|_{x=-1}^0 dy + \int_{y=-1}^0 \left. \frac{1}{3}x^3y - \frac{1}{2}x^2y^2 \right|_{x=0}^1 dy \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( - \int_{y=0}^1 \left( \frac{1}{2}y^2 + \frac{1}{3}y \right) dy + \int_{y=-1}^0 \left( \frac{1}{3}y - \frac{1}{2}y^2 \right) dy \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( - \frac{1}{6}y^3 + \frac{1}{6}y^2 \Big|_{y=0}^1 + \frac{1}{6}y^2 - \frac{1}{6}y^3 \Big|_{y=-1}^0 \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{12}(-2 - 2) \\
&= -\frac{1}{3}.
\end{aligned}$$

It follows

$$\mathbf{E}[XY] \neq \mathbf{E}[X] \mathbf{E}[Y],$$

which shows that  $X$  and  $Y$  are correlated. Therefore,  $X$  and  $Y$  are not independent. In the end, setting

$$H = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x + y \geq 0\},$$

which is the half-plane on the right of the line of equation

$$x + y = 0,$$

we have

$$\mathbf{P}(X + Y \geq 0) = \int_H f_{X,Y}(x, y) d\mu_L^2(x, y).$$

Now, since we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x, y) &= \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0] \times [0,1]}(x, y) + \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1] \times [-1,0]}(x, y) \\
&= \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) 1_{[0,1]}(y) + \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) 1_{[-1,0]}(y)
\end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}
f(-x, -y) &= \frac{-y+x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(-x) 1_{[0,1]}(-y) + \frac{-x+y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(-x) 1_{[-1,0]}(-y) \\
&= \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) 1_{[-1,0]}(y) + \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) 1_{[0,1]}(y) \\
&= f(x, y).
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} f(y, x) &= \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(y) 1_{[0,1]}(x) + \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(y) 1_{[-1,0]}(x) \\ &= \frac{y-x}{2} 1_{[-1,0]}(x) 1_{[0,1]}(y) + \frac{x-y}{2} 1_{[0,1]}(x) 1_{[-1,0]}(y) \\ &= f(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

This means that the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is symmetric with respect to the point  $(0,0)$  and the line  $x+y=0$ . As a consequence,

$$\int_H f_{X,Y}(x, y) d\mu_L^2(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}.$$