

Covariance & Correlation

Let X, Y be random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) .

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))]$$

$$= E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

$$\mu_X = E(X) \quad \mu_Y = E(Y)$$

$$\rho(X, Y) = \text{Corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)} \sqrt{\text{Var}(Y)}} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

Observation

① Suppose X and Y are independent, then $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ and hence $\text{Corr}(X, Y) = 0$.
Equivalently, if $\text{Cov}(X, Y) \neq 0$, then X & Y are not independent.
 Cov and Corr measures some kind of dependence of X and Y .

② $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0 \not\Rightarrow X$ and Y are independent.

③ Sign of $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ tell us a relation between X and Y .
If X has tendency of taking higher values (lower values) with higher values of Y (lower value of Y), then $X - \mu_X$ is positive with $Y - \mu_Y$ ~~also~~ positive. ()

In this $\text{Cov}(X, Y) > 0$.

If X takes higher (lower) values with lower values (higher) of Y , then $\text{Cov}(X, Y) < 0$.

Sign of covariance gives you the tendency of changing Y with X .

④ Absolute value of covariance does not give any information about the amount of dependency between X and Y .

⑤ $|\text{Corr}(X, Y)| \leq 1$

(it follows from Cauchy Schwartz inequality)

Suppose $Y = aX + b$

$$\text{Corr}(X, Y) = \frac{E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{E(aX^2 + bX) - E(X)(aE(X) + b)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

$$= \frac{a E(X^2) - a [E(X)]^2 + 0}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

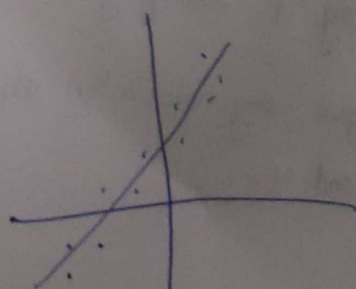
$$= \frac{a \cdot \text{Var } X}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{a \sqrt{\text{Var } X}}{\sqrt{\text{Var } Y}} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } a > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } a < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Var } Y = a^2 \text{Var } X$$

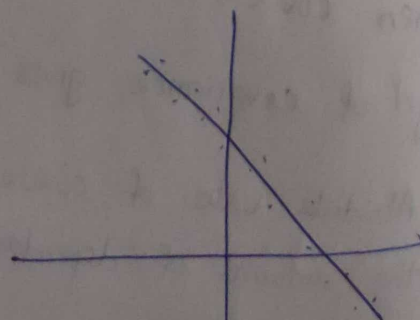
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(Y) &= E((aX+b)^2) - (E(aX+b))^2 \\ &= a^2 E(X^2) + 2ab E(X) + b^2 - a^2 (E(X))^2 - 2ab E(X) - b^2 \\ &= a^2 \text{Var } X \end{aligned}$$

From Cauchy Schwartz inequality, X and Y linearly related if and only if $|r_{X,Y}| = 1$

Heuristically, if X and Y are close to linearly dependent, then $\text{Corr}(X, Y)$ is close to $+1$ or -1 .



$r_{X,Y}$ close to 1 ($\because X \uparrow \Rightarrow Y \uparrow$)



$r_{X,Y}$ close to -1

In other situation, $e_{x,y} \xrightarrow{\Delta} 0$
close to

(No proof, only examples)

Examples

1. X is uniform on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$$P(X=i) = \frac{1}{n} \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

Y is uniform on $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$

Suppose X and Y are independent.

Define $Z = X + Y$

$$\text{Corr}(X, Z) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Z)}{\sqrt{\text{Var} X} \sqrt{\text{Var} Z}}$$

($\because X, Y$ are independent)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}(X, Z) &= E(X^2 + XY) - (E(X))^2 - E(X)E(Y) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 \\ &= \text{Var}(X) = \frac{n^2 - 1}{12} \end{aligned}$$

$$E(X) = \frac{n+1}{2}$$

$$E(Y) = \frac{k+1}{2}$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} - \frac{(n+1)^2}{4} = \frac{n+1}{2} \left[\frac{2n+1}{3} - \frac{n+1}{2} \right]$$

$$= \left(\frac{n+1}{2} \right) \left(\frac{n-1}{6} \right) = \frac{n^2 - 1}{12}$$

$$\text{Var}(Y) = \frac{k^2 - 1}{12}$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Z) = \frac{n^2 - 1}{12}$$

$$\text{Corr}(X, Z) = \frac{\frac{n^2 - 1}{12}}{\sqrt{\frac{n^2 - 1}{12}} \sqrt{\frac{k^2 - 1}{12} + \frac{n^2 - 1}{12}}} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } k=n \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } k \ll n \\ 0 & \text{if } k \gg n \end{cases}$$

Given: $X = j$,

How Z is distributed?

Z is uniformly distributed on $\{j+1, j+2, \dots, j+k\}$
($Z=j+1$)

↓
this match with $\begin{cases} \frac{1}{k} \\ 0 \end{cases}$

on last page.

(prediction possibility)

Example 2

X uniform on $\{-n, -n+1, \dots, 0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$$P(X=j) = \frac{1}{2n+1} \quad -n \leq j \leq n$$

Y is uniform on $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$

X, Y are independent.

$Z = X^2 + Y \rightarrow X, Z$ are dependent.

$$\text{Cov}(X, Z) = ?$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Z) = E(XZ) - E(X)E(Z)$$

$$E(X) = 0 \quad (\because \text{symmetry})$$

$$\text{Cov}(X, Z) = E(X^3 + XY)$$

$$= E(X^3) + E(XY)$$

$$= E(X^3)$$

$$\therefore \text{Cov}(X, Z) = 0 = \text{Cov}(X, Z)$$

($\because X, Y$ are independent)

$$\begin{aligned} (\because E(XY) - E(X)E(Y) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow E(XY) &= 0 \quad \text{as } E(X)=0 \end{aligned}$$

Plot (X, Z) will lie around parabola.

$$\text{Corr}(X, Z) \approx 0$$

But (X, Z) are heavily dependent.

Continuous Random Variable

$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) \rightarrow$ probability space

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

$\{\omega: X(\omega) \leq x\} \in \mathcal{F} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ } random variable.

Discrete Random Variable: A random variable X is called discrete if X takes at most countably many values.

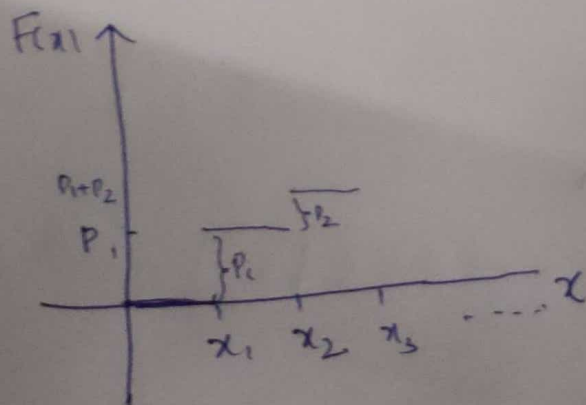
Range of X is $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$.

Probability mass f^n

$$p(x_i) = P(X=x_i) = P(\{\omega: X(\omega)=x_i\})$$

$$\begin{cases} p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1] \\ p(x) > 0 \text{ for at most countably many } x. \\ \sum p(x_i) = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$F_X(x) = \sum_{x_i \leq x} p(x_i)$$



$$p_n \rightarrow P(x_n)$$

Distribution of discrete random variable is not continuous. It has jump discontinuities at x_i if $P(X=x_i) > 0$.

For any distribution function F , we have:

(i) F is right continuous

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow x^+} F(y) = F(x)$$

(ii) Left limit of $F(x)$ exist.

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow x^-} F(y) \text{ exists.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X=x) &= F(x) - \lim_{y \rightarrow x^-} F(y) \\ &= F(x) - \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} F(x-h) \end{aligned}$$

Continuous RV

A random variable X is called continuous ^{RV} if its distribution function F is continuous.

Equivalently, X is called continuous RV if $P(X=x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Observation:

① If X is continuous RV, then range of X is uncountable.

eg: Range of $X = \mathbb{R}$ or $[0,1]$ or $[a,b]$ or $[0,\infty)$

② Ω is uncountable.

eg: $\Omega = [0,1]$ or $[a,b]$ or \mathbb{R} or (a,b)

Discrete situation:

$$\Omega = \mathbb{N}$$

$$P: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow [0,1]$$

$$\mathcal{F} = P(\mathbb{N})$$

$P(\{n\})$ $\forall n$ known, then

$$P(A) = \sum_{i \in A} P(i) \quad A \in \mathcal{F}$$

$\Omega = [0,1]$ \mathcal{F} = Borel sigma algebra (sigma algebra generated by open intervals of $[0,1]$).

$$P([a,b]) = b-a.$$

where $[a,b] \subseteq [0,1]$

smaller than power set of $[0,1]$

Ω

S is a set of subsets of Ω .

$\mathcal{F}_S = \bigcap \mathcal{G}$ where \mathcal{G} is a σ -algebra containing S .

Absolutely Continuous RV

X is a continuous RV. It is called absolutely continuous if $\exists f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$

s.t. $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$

f is called the density of random variable X or distribution F .

$F(x) \neq P(X=x)$ for continuous, right side is always zero.

$$p(x_i) = P(X=x_i)$$

↑
pmf.

↑
discrete



Tut

2) Given μ finite additivity of P .

$$P(\emptyset) = 1 - P(\Omega) = 0$$

Continuity \Rightarrow Countable additivity

Let B_i be increasing: $B_i \subset B_{i+1}$

$$\text{then: } P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(B_n)$$

Let $\{A_i\}$ is pairwise disjoint sets,

$$B_j = \bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i$$

Taking P on this

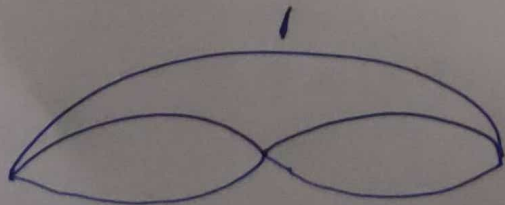
B_j is increasing.

$$P\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} B_j\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(B_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i\right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \quad \text{by countable additivity}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(B_n)$$

3)



$F \rightarrow 1$ open

$$P(A \cap C) = P(A \cap C | F) + P(A \cap C | F^c)$$

$$= 1 - p + (1 - p^2)^2 \cdot p$$

$$4) \{X_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

X_i takes values in \mathbb{N}

$\Omega = \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$ (countable cartesian product of natural numbers)

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}})$$

$$N = \min \{n > 0; X_n = X_0\}$$

Is this a RV?

$$G: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \text{ if } G(j) \in \mathcal{F} \quad \forall j \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\{N=1\} = \{X_1 = X_0\}$$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{X_1 = X_0 = i\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$N^{-1}(1) = \{ \dots, \infty, \infty, \dots \} \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$N^{-1}(i)^{i>1} = \{ \dots, X_n \neq X_0, n < i, X_n = X_0 \}$$

$$= \bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} \{X_j \neq X_0\} \cap \{X_i = X_0\}$$

$$= \left(\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} \{X_j \neq X_0\} \right) \cap \{X_i = X_0\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$\{X_2 = X_0\} = \{ (1, 1, N, N, \dots) \} \cup \{ (2, 2, N, N, \dots) \}$$

?

Continuous RV

Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space and X be a random variable of Ω .

X is called continuous rv if its distribution function F is continuous.

Equivalently, X is cont. rv if $P(X=x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Range of X is uncountable.

Ω is uncountable.

If Ω is countable/finite, then we have a clear understanding of \mathcal{F} . But Ω is uncountable, then it is not so straight forward.

Nothing here

Let \mathcal{C} be a collection of subsets of Ω .

Defⁿ: (σ -field generated by \mathcal{C})

A σ -field, denoted by $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$, is called the σ -field generated by \mathcal{C} if it satisfies the following:

(i) $\mathcal{C} \subset \sigma(\mathcal{C})$

(ii) If \mathcal{F} is any other σ -field containing \mathcal{C} , then

$$\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subseteq \mathcal{F}$$

$\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ is also known as minimal sigma field containing \mathcal{C} .

Result: Given a collection \mathcal{C} of subsets of Ω , there exist a unique minimal sigma field containing \mathcal{C} .

In other words, σ -field generated by \mathcal{C} is unique.

Proof: Let $T = \{ \mathcal{F} : \mathcal{F} \text{ is a } \sigma\text{-field and } \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{F} \}$

Observe that T is non empty.

$$\therefore P(\Omega) \in T$$

$$\text{Let } \mathcal{G} = \bigcap_{\mathcal{F} \in T} \mathcal{F}$$

$$\mathcal{G} \neq \emptyset \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \because \Omega \in \mathcal{G} \\ \because \Omega \in \mathcal{F} \quad \forall \mathcal{F} \end{array} \right)$$

(\because sigma field should contain full set)

We have seen that \mathcal{G} is a σ -field (\because arbitrary \cap of σ -fields is σ -field).

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega &= \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \\ \mathcal{C} &= \{ \{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\} \} \\ T &= \{ P(\Omega), \{ \{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\} \}, \\ &\quad \{ \{1, 2, 3\}, \{4\} \}, \\ &\quad \{ \{1, 2, 4\}, \{3\} \}, \\ &\quad \{ \{1, 3, 4\}, \{2\} \}, \\ &\quad \{ \{2, 3, 4\}, \{1\} \}, \\ &\quad P(\Omega) \} \end{aligned}$$

Claim: $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{G}$

By definition $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ ($\because \mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{F} \wedge \mathcal{F} \in \mathcal{T}$)
 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{C} \in \bigcap_{\mathcal{F} \in \mathcal{T}} \mathcal{F} = \mathcal{G}$

Condition (i) ✓

Let \mathcal{F}' be a sigma field containing \mathcal{C} .

$$\text{YST: } \mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}'$$

$\mathcal{F}' \in \mathcal{T}$ (\because it is a σ -field containing \mathcal{C})
 $\bigcap_{\mathcal{F} \in \mathcal{T}} \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{F}'$ (\because \mathcal{G} is intersection of all \mathcal{F})

Condition (ii) ✓

$$\therefore \sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \mathcal{G}$$

(\because if there is K also $K \subseteq \mathcal{G}$
 $\mathcal{G} \subseteq K$
 $\therefore K = \mathcal{G}$)

\therefore There exist a unique minimal σ -field containing \mathcal{C} .

For example, suppose $\Omega = (0, 1)$

$$P((a, b)) = b - a$$

$$\mathcal{C} = \{(a, b) : 0 < a \leq b < 1\}$$

Note \mathcal{C} is not a σ -field.

$$(0, \frac{1}{4}) \in \mathcal{C}$$

$$(\frac{1}{2}, 1) \in \mathcal{C}$$

Union,

$$(0, \frac{1}{4}) \cup (\frac{1}{2}, 1) \notin \mathcal{C}$$

Consider $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \rightarrow \sigma$ -field

Then \exists a probability measure on $\sigma(\mathcal{C})$ such that $P((a, b)) = b - a$
(no proof here)

Borel σ -field of \mathbb{R} ($\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$)

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) := \sigma(\mathcal{C})$$

$$\text{where } \mathcal{C} = \{(a, b) : a \leq b, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

An element of $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ is called borel set.

These are alternate descriptions of borel σ field of \mathbb{R} , which ^{follows:} are as

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}) = \sigma(\{(a, b) : a \leq b, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\})$$

$$= \sigma(\{(a, b] : a \leq b, a, b \in \mathbb{R}\})$$

$$= \sigma(\{[a, b] : \dots\})$$

$$= \sigma(\{(-\infty, x] : x \in \mathbb{R}\})$$

$$= \sigma(\{(x, \infty) : x \in \mathbb{R}\})$$

$$= \sigma(\text{open sets of } \mathbb{R})$$

\vdots

Proof: TST: $\sigma(\mathcal{C}) = \sigma(\mathcal{C}_1)$

$$\text{where } \mathcal{C} = \{(a, b) : a \leq b\}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_1 = \{(a, b] : a \leq b\}$$

Suppose we show

$$(a, b) \in \sigma(\mathcal{C}_1) \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

$$\mathcal{C} \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{C}_1)$$

$$\sigma(\mathcal{C}) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{C}_1) \quad (\because \sigma(\mathcal{C} \text{ is minimal})$$

Suppose we show

$$(a, b] \in \sigma(\mathcal{C}) \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_1 \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{C}) \Rightarrow \sigma(\mathcal{C}_1) \subseteq \sigma(\mathcal{C})$$

\downarrow
Finished.

So, need to show (i) & (ii)

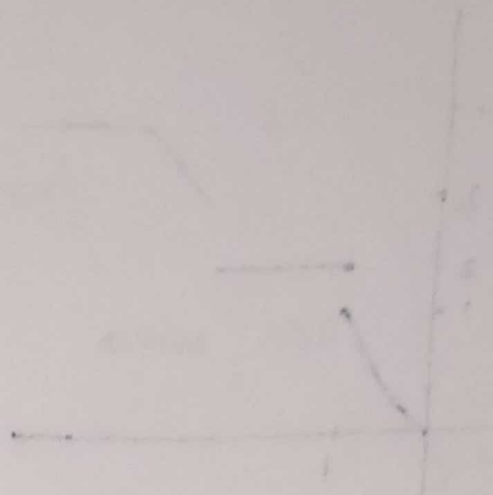
TS1: $(a, b) \in \sigma(\tau_1)$

$$(a, b) = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (a, b - \frac{1}{n}]$$

$$(a, b - \frac{1}{n}] \in \tau_1 \quad \therefore (a, b - \frac{1}{n}) \in \sigma(\tau_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} (a, b - \frac{1}{n}) \in \sigma(\tau_1)$$

$$(a, b] = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} (a, b + \frac{1}{n}) \in \sigma(\tau_1) \quad \text{similarly}$$



Absolutely Cont. RV

$$P(X \leq x) = F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \quad \downarrow x \in \mathbb{R}$$

X is absolutely cont. RV if $\exists f \geq 0$ s.t.

f - called density function of X .

Remark: ① f is not unique.

② Every continuous random variable does not have a density f^n .

eg: Cantor distribution.

$$③ P(a \leq x \leq b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

$$\parallel$$

$$P(a < x \leq b)$$

$$\parallel$$

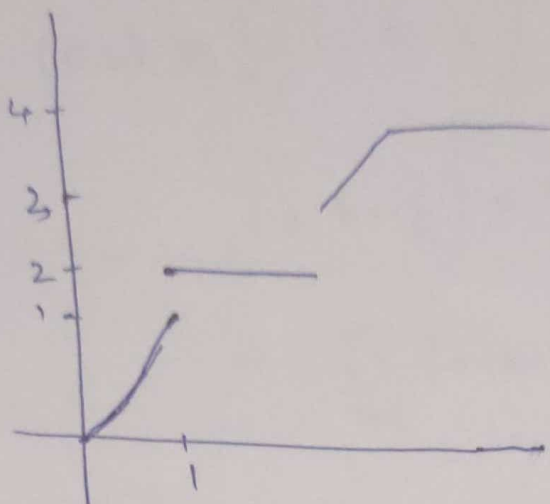
$$P(a \leq x < b)$$

$$\parallel$$

$$P(a < x < b)$$

Neither Discrete nor Continuous:

Mix of both



ex. Suppose X conti. with distribution f^n F . How to find the density?

Working Rule:

Take the derivative of F .

Define $f(x) = F'(x)$

(Do not exist always. If exist, this is one way)

X ~~cont.~~ discrete rv with density f .

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

$Y = g(X)$ is a rv.

in discrete case

$$\rightarrow \{\omega: Y(\omega) = y\} \quad \text{cf } \{ \}$$

$$= \bigcup_i \{\omega: X(\omega) = x_i\}$$

$$g(x_i) = y$$

(Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

X is a continuous random variable with density f .

$g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ borel measurable.

$Y = g(X)$ will be a RV.

We want to find, if possible, distribution f^n & density f^n of Y .

Example

not this g.

$$g(x) = ax + b$$

$$a \neq 0$$

$$Y = g(X) = aX + b$$

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(aX + b \leq y)$$

$$= P\left(X \leq \frac{y-b}{a}\right)$$

assume $a > 0$

$$= F_X\left(\frac{y-b}{a}\right)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{y-b}{a}} f(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^y g(u) du$$

Do change of variable & find g.

assume $a < 0$.

$$F_Y(y) = P\left(X \geq \frac{y-b}{a}\right)$$

$$= 1 - P\left(X < \frac{y-b}{a}\right) = 1 - F_X\left(\frac{y-b}{a}\right)$$

$$= 1 - F_X\left(\frac{y-b}{a}\right)$$

$$= 1 - \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{y-b}{a}} f(t) dt$$

Continuous & equally likely doesn't matter

try to find density

(ii) $g(x) = x^2$

Find distribution function and density function of $Y = g(X) = X^2$

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

$$= P(X^2 \leq y) = 0 \text{ if } y < 0$$

$$\text{If } y > 0, F_Y(y) = P(X^2 \leq y) = P(-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y}) = F_X(\sqrt{y}) - F_X(-\sqrt{y})$$

(property of continuous used)

$$F_Y(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y < 0 \\ F(\sqrt{y}) - F(-\sqrt{y}) & \text{if } y \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^y f(u) du = \int_{-\infty}^{-\sqrt{y}} f(u) du + \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} f(u) du + \int_{\sqrt{y}}^y f(u) du$$

after some manipulation

(or back calculation by differentiation)

$$\frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = f(\sqrt{y}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} + f(-\sqrt{y}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} = \frac{f(\sqrt{y}) + f(-\sqrt{y})}{2\sqrt{y}}$$

Density of Y

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < 0 \\ \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} (f(\sqrt{t}) + f(-\sqrt{t})) & \text{if } t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Show: $\int_0^y g(t) dt = F_Y(y)$

6. Variation of Parameters

$$a^2 + ab + c = 0$$

$$y(t) = e^{at}$$

By Euler's theorem, $\left(\frac{y_1}{y_2}\right)'(t) = 0$ for all t on $C \in (a, b)$.

$$\frac{y_1}{y_2}(t) = 0 = \frac{y_1}{y_2}(b)$$

y_1, y_2 must be diff \rightarrow so $\frac{y_1}{y_2}$ is also diff on (a, b) & const on $[a, b]$.

then $\frac{y_1}{y_2}$ is defined on (a, b) .

if not, $y_1(t) \neq 0$ $\forall C \in (a, b)$.

we need to find $C \in (a, b)$ s.t. $y_1(t) = 0$.

Let $B, a, b \in (a, b)$ for which $y_2(a) = 0, y_2(b) = 0$.

So $w(y_1, y_2) \neq 0$.

possible. $\Rightarrow w(y_1, y_2)(t) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow b$.

$$\frac{y_1}{y_2}(t) = 0 \Rightarrow w(y_1, y_2)(t) = 0$$

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$$\frac{y_1}{y_2}(t) = 0 \Rightarrow w(y_1, y_2)(t) = 0$$

Let X be a cont. rv with density f . We need to find density of $Y = X^2$.

$$F_Y(y) = P(X^2 \leq y) = 0 \quad \text{if } y \leq 0$$

$$F_Y(y) = P(X^2 \leq y) = P(-\sqrt{y} < X < \sqrt{y}) \quad \text{if } y > 0$$

$$= F(\sqrt{y}) - F(-\sqrt{y})$$

$$F'_Y(y) = \frac{f(\sqrt{y})}{2\sqrt{y}} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} f(-\sqrt{y})$$

Density f^N of Y

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y \leq 0 \\ \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} (f(\sqrt{y}) + f(-\sqrt{y})) & \text{if } y > 0 \end{cases}$$

Easy to see.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^y g(t) dt &= \int_0^y \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} (f(\sqrt{t}) + f(-\sqrt{t})) dt \\ &= \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} f(s) + f(-s) ds. \quad (\sqrt{t} = s \text{ - substi}) \\ &= \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} f(s) ds + \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^0 f(s) ds \\ &= \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} f(s) ds \\ &= F(\sqrt{y}) - F(-\sqrt{y}) \end{aligned}$$

Result: Suppose X is a continuous random variable with

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

differentiable, strictly monotonically increasing or decreasing on a

set $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Suppose $f(x) = 0$ if $x \notin I$

Then the density f^* of random variable $Y = \phi(X)$ is

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} f(\phi^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} \phi^{-1}(y) \right| & \text{for } y \in \phi(I) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

To remember:

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} f(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| & y \in \phi(I) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Proof: Assume ϕ is strictly increasing.

$$x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow \phi(x_1) < \phi(x_2)$$

ϕ^{-1} is defined on $\phi(I)$ and ϕ^{-1} is also strictly increasing.

$$F_Y(y) = P(\phi(X) \leq y) \quad \text{where } y \in \phi(I)$$

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

$$= P(X \leq \phi^{-1}(y))$$

$$= F(\phi^{-1}(y))$$

Take derivative to find density f^* .

If ϕ is strictly decreasing, ϕ^{-1} will be strictly decreasing.

$$F_Y(y) = P(\phi(X) \leq y)$$

$$= P(X \geq \phi^{-1}(y)) = 1 - F(\phi^{-1}(y))$$

Result: Suppose X is a continuous random variable with density $f(x)$.

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

differentiable, strictly monotonically increasing or decreasing on a

set $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Suppose $f(x) = 0$ if $x \notin I$

Then the density of $Y = \phi(X)$ is

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} f(\phi^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy} \phi^{-1}(y) \right| & \text{for } y \in \phi(I) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

To remember:

$$g(y) = \begin{cases} f(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| & y \in \phi(I) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Proof: Assume ϕ is strictly increasing.

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

$$= P(X \leq \phi^{-1}(y))$$

$$= F(\phi^{-1}(y))$$

Take derivative to find density f^y .

If ϕ is strictly decreasing, ϕ^{-1} will be strictly decreasing.

$$F_Y(y) = P(\phi(X) \leq y)$$

$$= P(X \geq \phi^{-1}(y)) = 1 - F(\phi^{-1}(y))$$

Complete it later

Symmetric RV

A rv X is called symmetric (around 0) if X and $-X$ have same distribution.

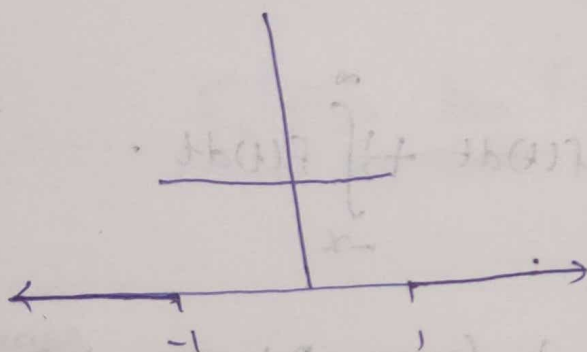
$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

$$\parallel \\ F_{-X}(x) = P(-X \leq x) = P(X \geq -x)$$

Examples: $\overset{\text{uniform}}{U(-1,1)}$, Normal $N(0, \sigma^2)$

$U(-1,1)$

$$\overset{\text{density}}{f(x)} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & x \in (-1,1) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



A fⁿ f is called symmetric around 0 if $f(x) = f(-x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

Observe: i) Density functions are symmetric RV.

Result: A continuous rv X is symmetric iff it has a symmetric density function.

Proof: Suppose X has a symmetric density f .

$$f(x) = f(-x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{check: } P(X \leq x) = P(X \geq -x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Conversely,

X is a symmetric rv, with density f .

We want to show that X has a symmetric density.

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{2} (f(x) + f(-x)) \quad \rightarrow \text{normal way to make symmetric } f^n$$

$$g(x) = g(-x), \quad g \text{ is symmetric.}$$

$$\text{TS1: } F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x g(t) dt \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^x g(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{2} (f(t) + f(-t)) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt + \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^x f(-t) dt \dots = F(x) \end{aligned}$$

Examples to Read: N , $U(a,b)$, Gamma, Beta, Exponential distributions.

Bivariate Distribution

Suppose X, Y are rvs defined on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P)

Then joint distribution F^n of (X, Y) is defined as

$$F(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$$

(X, Y) are called continuous random vector if $F(x, y)$ is continuous.

If \exists a non negative f^n $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ s.t

$$F(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f(s, t) ds dt$$

Then f is called density function of F or the pair (X, Y) .

Given bivariate distribution F , we can calculate marginal distribution functions.

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) = P(X \leq x, Y \in \mathbb{R})$$

\downarrow marginal distribution of X \downarrow using continuity of probability.

$$= \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)$$

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

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(A_n)$$

$$F_Y(y) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)$$

Exercise:

Find marginal density function of X and Y from joint density function $f(x, y)$

Independence

X, Y discrete

$$P(X=x_i, Y=y_j) = P(X=x_i) P(Y=y_j)$$

(if X & Y are independent)

If X, Y continuous

$$P(X=x) = 0 \quad \begin{matrix} \nearrow \text{null event} \\ P(Y=y) = 0 \end{matrix}$$

$\downarrow x$ $\downarrow y$

$$P((X, Y) = (x, y)) \leq P(X=x) = 0$$

Two random variable X and Y are independent if

$$P(X \leq x, Y \leq y) = P(X \leq x) P(Y \leq y)$$

equivalently $F(x, y) = F_X(x) F_Y(y)$

equivalently $P(a < X \leq b, c < Y \leq d) = P(a < X \leq b) P(c < Y \leq d)$
whenever $a \leq b, c \leq d$.

Exam

$$Q.4. N = \min \{ n > 0 : X_n = 0 \}$$

Possible values of N is $1, 2, 3, \dots$

To show:

$$\{N \leq x\} \in \mathcal{F} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\{N \leq x\} = \emptyset \in \mathcal{F} \quad \text{if } x < 1.$$

$x > 1$

$$\{N \leq x\} = \bigcup_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ k \leq x}} \{N = k\}$$

$$\{N = k\} = \left\{ \omega : \begin{array}{l} X_i \neq X_0 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k-1 \\ X_k = X_0 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \bigcup_{j=1}^m \left\{ \omega : \begin{array}{l} X_i \neq j \quad 1 \leq i \leq k-1 \\ X_k = X_0 = j \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \bigcup_{j=1}^m \left\{ \bigcap_{i=1}^{k-1} \{X_i \neq j\} \cap \{X_0 = j\} \cap \{X_k = j\} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

$$E(N) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(N \geq n)$$

$$P(N \geq n) = P(X_i \neq X_0, 1 \leq i \leq n-1)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^m P(X_i \neq X_0, 1 \leq i \leq n-1, X_0 = j)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^m P(X_i \neq j, 1 \leq i \leq n-1, X_0 = j)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^m \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} P(X_i \neq j) P(X_0 = j)$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^m p(j) (1-p(j))^{n-1} = m$$