

CONTINUOUS RANDOM VARIABLES

CHAPTER-4

CS6015-LINEAR ALGEBRA AND RANDOM PROCESSES

Probability Density Functions

- A random variable X is *continuous* if its distribution function

$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ can be written as

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(u) du$$

for some integrable $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$

- The function f is called the (probability) density function of the continuous random variable X .

$$\mathbb{P}(x < X \leq x + dx) = F(x + dx) - F(x) \simeq f(x) dx.$$

The probability that X takes a value in the interval $[a, b]$ is

$$\mathbb{P}(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in B) = \int_B f(x) dx,$$

Where B is a subset of \mathbb{R} .

Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is integrable and

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

$$\mathbb{P}(B) = \int_B f(x) dx.$$

(5) Lemma. *If X has density function f then*

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

(b) $\mathbb{P}(X = x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R},$

(c) $\mathbb{P}(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$

Independence :

- We cannot continue to define the independence of X and Y in terms of events such as $\{X = x\}$ and $\{Y = y\}$, since these events have zero probability and are trivially independent.

Definition. Random variables X and Y are called **independent** if

$\{X \leq x\}$ and $\{Y \leq y\}$ are independent events for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$

$g, h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then $g(X)$ and $h(Y)$ are functions which map Ω into \mathbb{R} by

$$g(X)(\omega) = g(X(\omega)), \quad h(Y)(\omega) = h(Y(\omega))$$

where $g, h: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

where, $g(X)$ and $h(Y)$ are functions; i.e., $g, h: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Theorem. *If X and Y are independent, then so are $g(X)$ and $h(Y)$.*

Expectation

- The expectation of a discrete variable X is

$$\mathbb{E}X = \sum_x x \mathbb{P}(X = x)$$

- This is an average of the possible values of X , each value being weighted by its probability.
- For continuous variables, expectations are defined as integrals.

(1) Definition. The **expectation** of a continuous random variable X with density function f is given by

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

whenever this integral exists.

Theorem. *If X and $g(X)$ are continuous random variables then*

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

(4) Lemma. *If X has density function f with $f(x) = 0$ when $x < 0$, and distribution function F , then*

$$\mathbb{E}X = \int_0^{\infty} [1 - F(x)] dx.$$

Proof:

$$\int_0^{\infty} [1 - F(x)] dx = \int_0^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X > x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \int_{y=x}^{\infty} f(y) dy dx.$$

- Now change the order of integration in the last term.

Proof of Theorem by Lemma, when $g \geq 0$

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \int_0^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(g(X) > x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \left(\int_B f_X(y) dy \right) dx$$

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \int_0^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(g(X) > x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \left(\int_B f_X(y) dy \right) dx$$

- where $B = \{y : g(y) > x\}$. We interchange the order of integration here to obtain

$$\mathbb{E}(g(X)) = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{g(y)} dx f_X(y) dy = \int_0^{\infty} g(y) f_X(y) dy.$$

- The k^{th} moment of a continuous variable X is given by:

$$m_k = \mathbb{E}(X^k);$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X^k) = \int x^k f(x) dx$$

Continuous RV distributions

- **Uniform distribution** : The random variable X is *uniform* on $[a, b]$ function if it has distribution function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq a, \\ \frac{x - a}{b - a} & \text{if } a < x \leq b, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > b. \end{cases}$$

- **Exponential distribution** : The random variable X is *exponential* with parameter) $\lambda (> 0)$ if it has distribution function

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \geq 0.$$

- The exponential distribution has mean $\frac{1}{\lambda}$.

- **Normal (Gaussian) distribution** : has two parameters μ (mean), and σ^2 (variance) and density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

It is denoted by $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. If $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$ then the density of the standard normal distribution is:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty,$$

$$Y = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}.$$

For the distribution of Y ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) &= \mathbb{P}((X - \mu)/\sigma \leq y) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq y\sigma + \mu) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{y\sigma + \mu} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^y e^{-\frac{1}{2}v^2} dv \quad \text{by substituting } x = v\sigma + \mu. \end{aligned}$$

- Thus Y is $N(0,1)$.

- The density function of Y :
$$\phi(v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}v^2}$$

- The distribution function of Y :

$$\Phi(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) = \int_{-\infty}^y \phi(v) dv.$$

- **Gamma distribution** : The random variable X has the *gamma* distribution with parameters $\lambda, t > 0$, denoted $\Gamma(\lambda, t)$, if it has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(t)} \lambda^t x^{t-1} e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \geq 0.$$

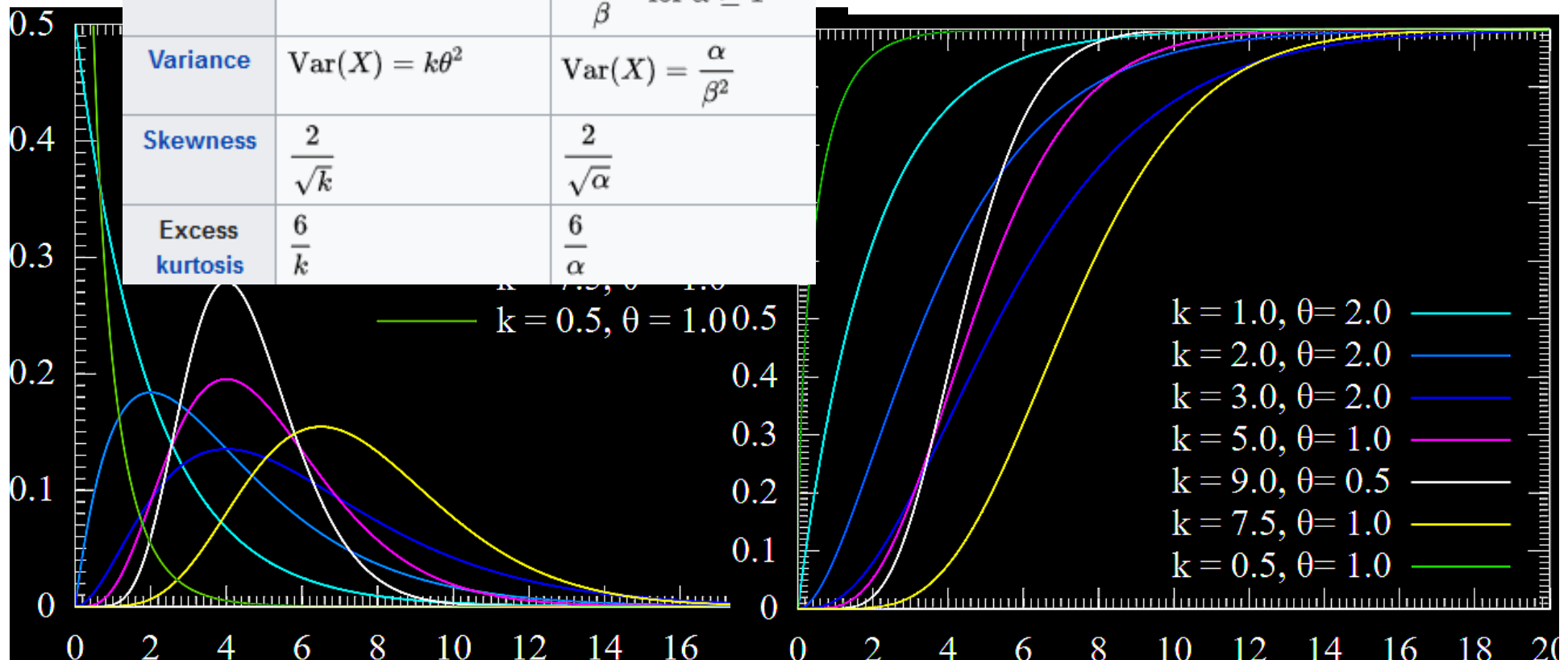
- Here, $\Gamma(t)$ is the *gamma function*

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

Parameters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $k > 0$ shape • $\theta > 0$ scale 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $\alpha > 0$ shape • $\beta > 0$ rate
Support	$x \in (0, \infty)$	$x \in (0, \infty)$
PDF	$\frac{1}{\Gamma(k)\theta^k} x^{k-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}}$	$\frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta x}$
CDF	$\frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \gamma\left(k, \frac{x}{\theta}\right)$	$\frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \gamma(\alpha, \beta x)$
Mean	$E[X] = k\theta$	$E[X] = \frac{\alpha}{\beta}$
Median	No simple closed form	No simple closed form
Mode	$(k - 1)\theta$ for $k \geq 1$	$\frac{\alpha - 1}{\beta}$ for $\alpha \geq 1$
Variance	$\text{Var}(X) = k\theta^2$	$\text{Var}(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\beta^2}$
Skewness	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{k}}$	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{\alpha}}$
Excess kurtosis	$\frac{6}{k}$	$\frac{6}{\alpha}$

Gamma distribution

Src: WIKI



- If $t = 1$ then X is exponentially distributed with parameter λ . If $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$, $t = \frac{1}{2}d$, for some integer d , then X is said to have the *chi-squared distribution* $\chi^2(d)$ with d degrees of freedom.
- **Cauchy distribution** : The random variable X has the *Cauchy* distribution t if it has density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

- **Beta distribution** : The random variable X is *beta*, parameters $a, b > 0$, if it has density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{B(a, b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$

We denote this distribution by $\beta(a, b)$. The ‘beta function’

$$B(a, b) = \int_0^1 x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} dx$$

Cauchy distribution

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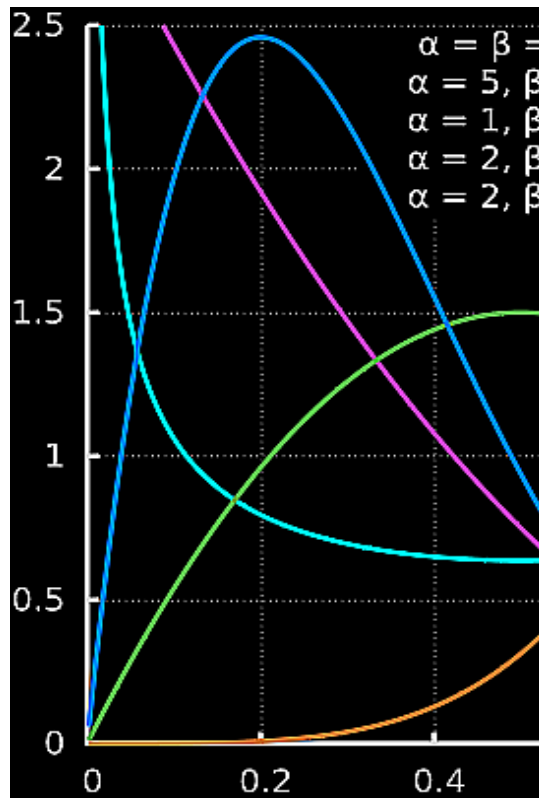
Support	$x \in (-\infty, +\infty)$
PDF	$\frac{1}{\pi\gamma \left[1 + \left(\frac{x-x_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right]}$
CDF	$\frac{1}{\pi} \arctan\left(\frac{x-x_0}{\gamma}\right) + \frac{1}{2}$
Quantile	$x_0 + \gamma \tan\left[\pi\left(F - \frac{1}{2}\right)\right]$
Mean	undefined
Median	x_0
Mode	x_0
Variance	undefined
Skewness	undefined
Ex. kurtosis	undefined
Entropy	$\log(4\pi\gamma)$
MGF	does not exist
CF	$\exp(x_0 i t - \gamma t)$



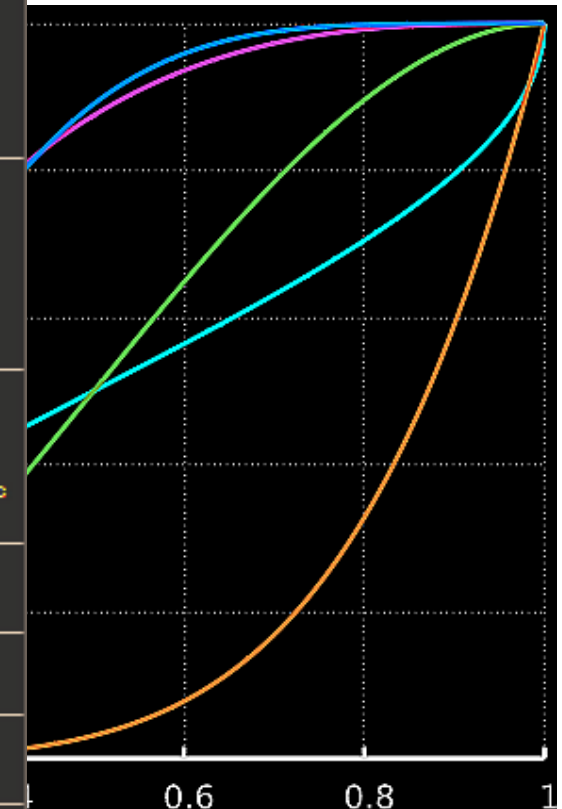
Beta distribution

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$$B(x, y) = \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$$



Parameters	$\alpha > 0$ shape (real) $\beta > 0$ shape (real)
Support	$x \in [0, 1]$ or $x \in (0, 1)$
PDF	$\frac{x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}$ where $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}$
CDF	$I_x(\alpha, \beta)$ (the regularised incomplete beta function)
Mean	$E[X] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$ $E[\ln X] = \psi(\alpha) - \psi(\alpha + \beta)$ $E[X \ln X] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} [\psi(\alpha + 1) - \psi(\alpha + \beta + 1)]$ (see digamma function and see section: Geometric mean)
Median	$I_{\frac{1}{2}}^{(-1)}(\alpha, \beta)$ (in general) $\approx \frac{\alpha - \frac{1}{3}}{\alpha + \beta - \frac{2}{3}}$ for $\alpha, \beta > 1$
Mode	$\frac{\alpha - 1}{\alpha + \beta - 2}$ for $\alpha, \beta > 1$ any value in $(0, 1)$ for $\alpha, \beta = 1$ 0 for $\alpha = 1, \beta > 1$ 1 for $\alpha > 1, \beta = 1$
Variance	$\text{var}[X] = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$ $\text{var}[\ln X] = \psi_1(\alpha) - \psi_1(\alpha + \beta)$ (see trigamma function and see section: Geometric variance)
Skewness	$\frac{2(\beta - \alpha)\sqrt{\alpha + \beta + 1}}{(\alpha + \beta + 2)\sqrt{\alpha\beta}}$
Ex. kurtosis	$\frac{6[(\alpha - \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1) - \alpha\beta(\alpha + \beta + 2)]}{\alpha\beta(\alpha + \beta + 2)(\alpha + \beta + 3)}$
Entropy	$\ln B(\alpha, \beta) - (\alpha - 1)\psi(\alpha) - (\beta - 1)\psi(\beta) + (\alpha + \beta - 2)\psi(\alpha + \beta)$



is chosen so that f has total integral equal to one. If $a = b = 1$ then X is uniform

- **Weibull distribution** : The r parameters $\alpha, \beta > 0$. if it has

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-\alpha x^\beta}$$

Differentiate to find that

$$f(x) = \alpha \beta x^{\beta-1} e^{-\alpha x^\beta}$$

Set $\beta = 1$, to obtain the expo

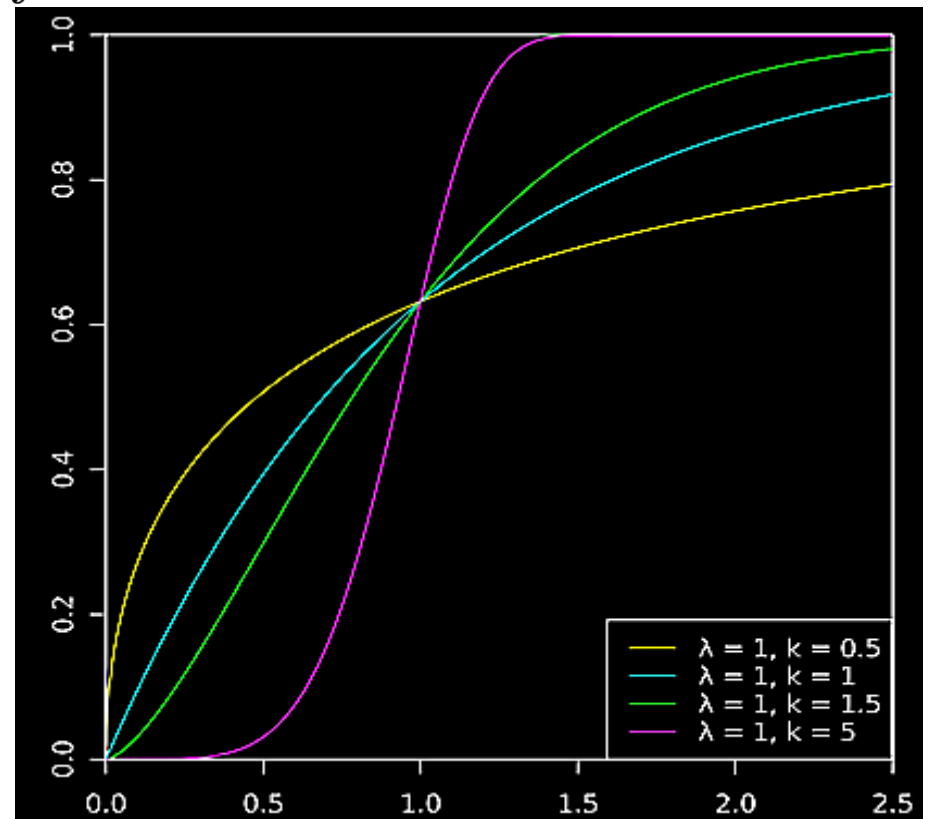
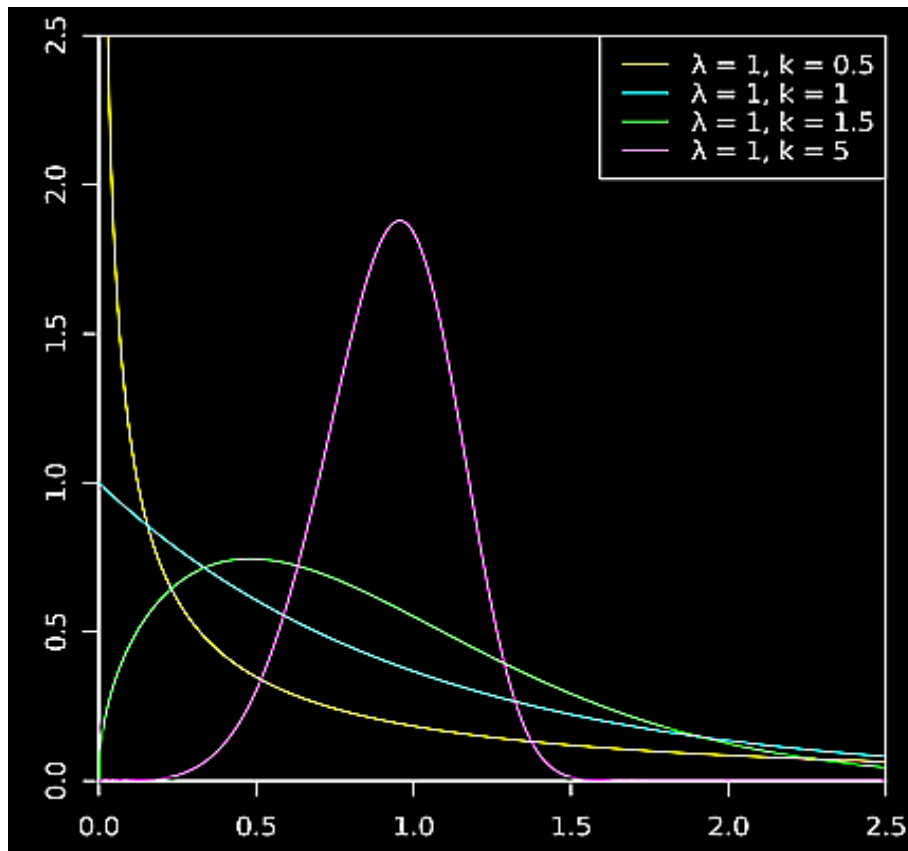
Parameters	$\lambda \in (0, +\infty)$ scale $k \in (0, +\infty)$ shape
Support	$x \in [0, +\infty)$
PDF	$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{k}{\lambda} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{k-1} e^{-(x/\lambda)^k} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$
CDF	$\begin{cases} 1 - e^{-(x/\lambda)^k} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$
Mean	$\lambda \Gamma(1 + 1/k)$
Median	$\lambda (\ln 2)^{1/k}$
Mode	$\begin{cases} \lambda \left(\frac{k-1}{k}\right)^{1/k} & k > 1 \\ 0 & k \leq 1 \end{cases}$
Variance	$\lambda^2 \left[\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{2}{k}\right) - \left(\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)\right)^2 \right]$
Skewness	$\frac{\Gamma(1 + 3/k) \lambda^3 - 3\mu\sigma^2 - \mu^3}{\sigma^3}$
Ex. kurtosis	(see text)
Entropy	$\gamma(1 - 1/k) + \ln(\lambda/k) + 1$

$$f(x; \lambda, k) = \begin{cases} \frac{k}{\lambda} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{k-1} e^{-(x/\lambda)^k} & x \geq 0, \\ 0 & x < 0, \end{cases}$$

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-(x/\lambda)^k}$$

$$-\ln(1 - F(x)) = (x/\lambda)^k$$

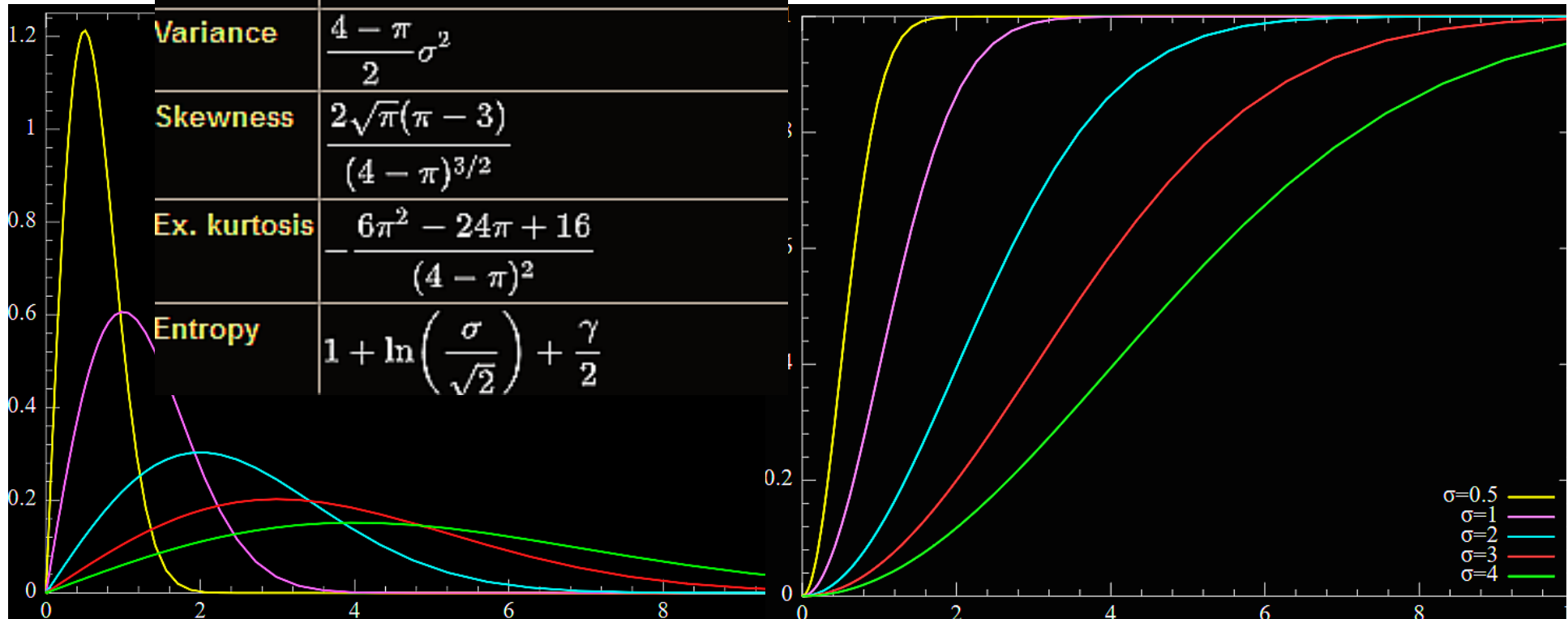
$$\underbrace{\ln(-\ln(1 - F(x)))}_{\text{'y'}} = \underbrace{k \ln x}_{\text{'mx'}} - \underbrace{k \ln \lambda}_{\text{'c'}}$$



Rayleigh distribution

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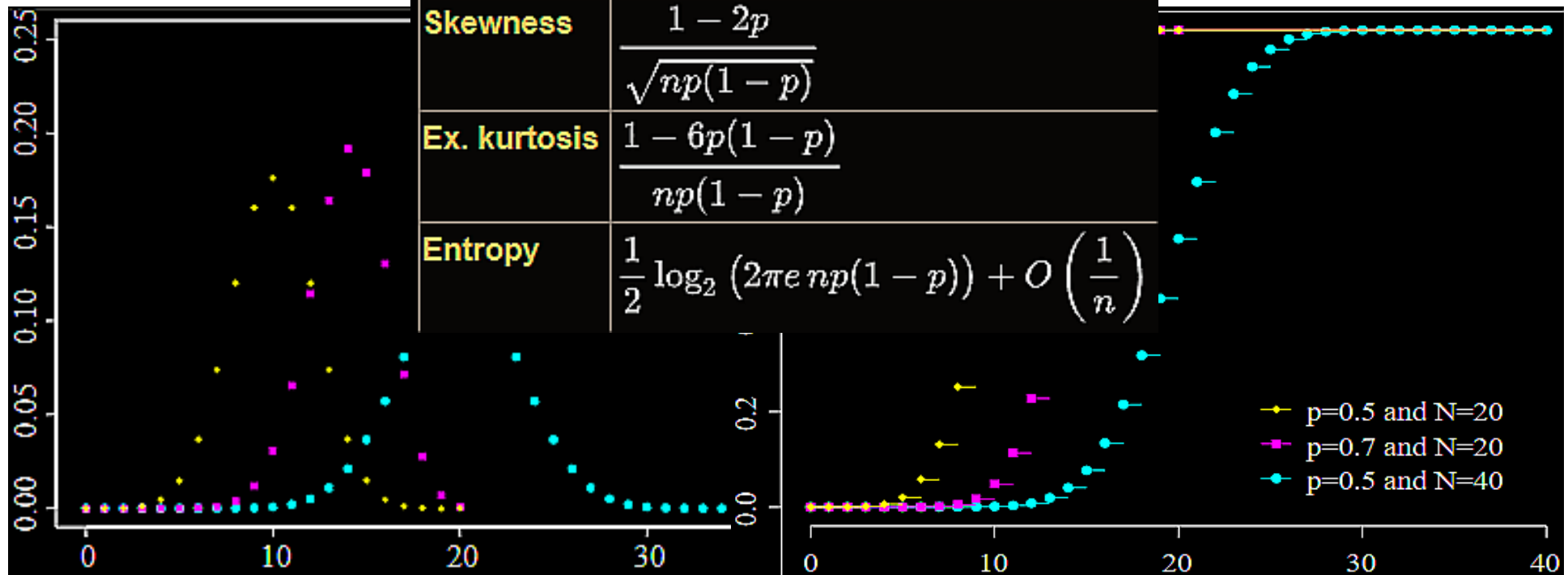
Parameters	scale: $\sigma > 0$
Support	$x \in [0, \infty)$
PDF	$\frac{x}{\sigma^2} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}$
CDF	$1 - e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}$
Quantile	$Q(F; \sigma) = \sigma \sqrt{-2 \ln(1 - F)}$
Mean	$\sigma \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}}$
Median	$\sigma \sqrt{2 \ln(2)}$
Mode	σ
Variance	$\frac{4 - \pi}{2} \sigma^2$
Skewness	$\frac{2\sqrt{\pi}(\pi - 3)}{(4 - \pi)^{3/2}}$
Ex. kurtosis	$\frac{6\pi^2 - 24\pi + 16}{(4 - \pi)^2}$
Entropy	$1 + \ln\left(\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + \frac{\gamma}{2}$



Binomial distribution

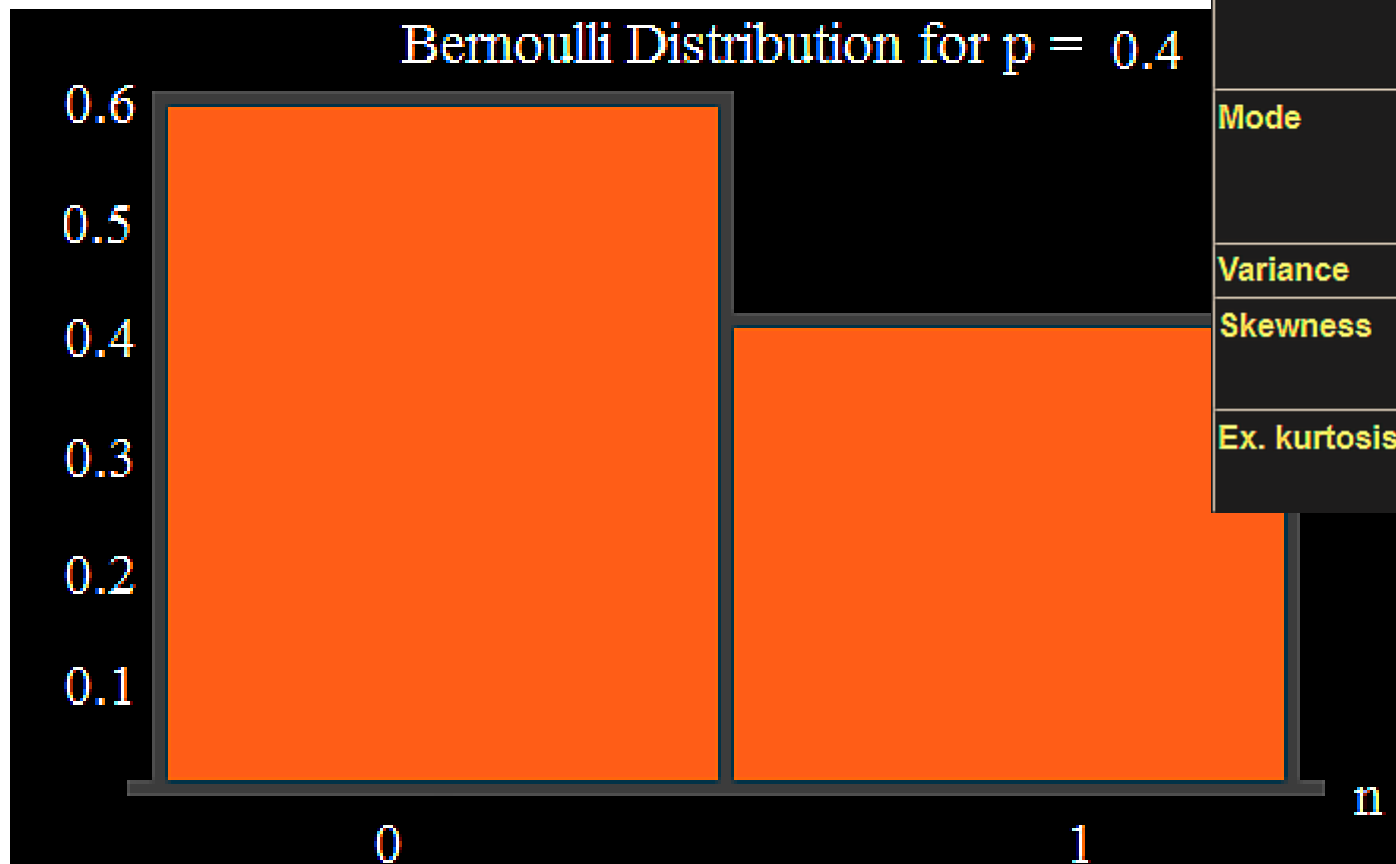
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Notation	$B(n, p)$
Parameters	$n \in \mathbf{N}_0$ — number of trials $p \in [0, 1]$ — success probability in each trial
Support	$k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ — number of successes
pmf	$\binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$
CDF	$I_{1-p}(n - k, 1 + k)$
Mean	np
Median	$\lfloor np \rfloor$ or $\lceil np \rceil$
Mode	$\lfloor (n + 1)p \rfloor$ or $\lceil (n + 1)p \rceil - 1$
Variance	$np(1 - p)$
Skewness	$\frac{1 - 2p}{\sqrt{np(1 - p)}}$
Ex. kurtosis	$\frac{1 - 6p(1 - p)}{np(1 - p)}$
Entropy	$\frac{1}{2} \log_2 (2\pi e np(1 - p)) + O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$



Bernoulli distribution

Src: WIKI



Parameters	$0 \leq p \leq 1$ $q = 1 - p$
Support	$k \in \{0, 1\}$
pmf	$\begin{cases} q = 1 - p & \text{if } k = 0 \\ p & \text{if } k = 1 \end{cases}$
CDF	$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k < 0 \\ 1 - p & \text{if } 0 \leq k < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } k \geq 1 \end{cases}$
Mean	p
Median	$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p < 1/2 \\ 1/2 & \text{if } p = 1/2 \\ 1 & \text{if } p > 1/2 \end{cases}$
Mode	$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p < 1/2 \\ 0, 1 & \text{if } p = 1/2 \\ 1 & \text{if } p > 1/2 \end{cases}$
Variance	$p(1 - p) = pq$
Skewness	$\frac{1 - 2p}{\sqrt{pq}}$
Ex. kurtosis	$\frac{1 - 6pq}{pq}$

Dependence

(1) **Definition.** The **joint distribution function** of X and Y is the function $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]$ given by

$$F(x, y) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x, Y \leq y).$$

(2) **Definition.** The random variables X and Y are **(jointly) continuous** with **joint (probability) density function** $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ if

$$F(x, y) = \int_{v=-\infty}^y \int_{u=-\infty}^x f(u, v) du dv \quad \text{for each } x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

- If F is sufficiently differentiable at the point (x, y) , then we usually specify

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

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(a \leq X \leq b, c \leq Y \leq d) &= F(b, d) - F(a, d) - F(b, c) + F(a, c) \\ &= \int_{y=c}^d \int_{x=a}^b f(x, y) dx dy. \end{aligned}$$

- Think of $f(x, y)dxdy$ as the element of probability $P(x < X \leq x + dx, y < Y \leq y + dy)$, so that if B is a sufficiently nice subset of \mathbb{R}^2 then

$$\mathbb{P}((X, Y) \in B) = \iint_B f(x, y) dx dy.$$

- We can think of (X, Y) as a point chosen randomly from the plane; then $P((X, Y) \in B)$ is the probability that the outcome of this random choice lies in the subset B .
- **Marginal distributions:** The *marginal distribution functions* of X and Y are

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq x) = F(x, \infty), \quad F_Y(y) = \mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) = F(\infty, y),$$

- where $F(x, \infty)$ is shorthand for $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)$ now,

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u, y) dy \right) du$$

and it follows that the *marginal density function* of X is

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy.$$

Similarly, the *marginal density function* of Y is

$$f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx.$$

- **Expectation :**

If $g: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function

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

- In particular, setting $g(x, y) = ax + by$,

$$\mathbb{E}(aX + bY) = a\mathbb{E}X + b\mathbb{E}Y.$$

- **Independence :** The random variables X and Y are *independent* if and only if

$$F(x, y) = F_X(x) F_Y(y) \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathbb{R},$$

which, for continuous random variables, is equivalent to requiring that

$$f(x, y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y)$$

Example of independence

- **Bivariate normal distribution.** Let $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}(x^2 - 2\rho xy + y^2)\right)$$

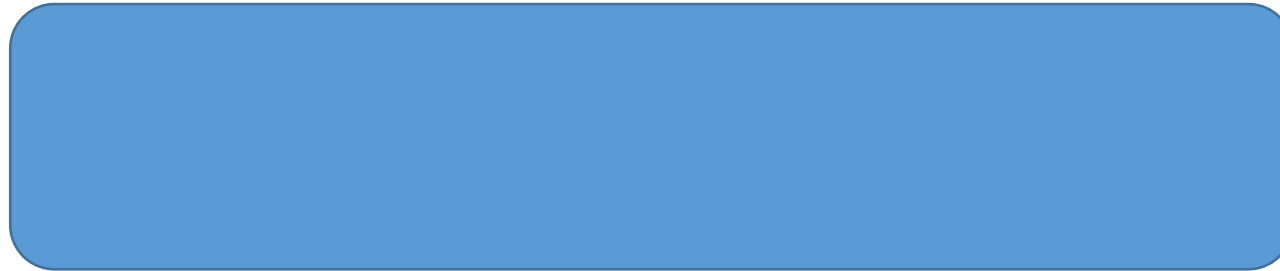
- The covariance

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}(XY) - \mathbb{E}(X)\mathbb{E}(Y)$$

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xyf(x, y) dx dy = \rho;$$

- Remember that independent variables are uncorrelated, but the converse is not true in general.
- In this case, however, if $\rho = 0$ then

$$f(x, y) =$$



and so X and Y are independent.

- We reach the following important conclusion. ***Bivariate normal variables are independent if and only if they are uncorrelated.***

- The general bivariate normal distribution is more complicated. We say that the pair X, Y has the bivariate normal distribution with means μ_1 and μ_2 , variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 , and correlation ρ if their joint density function is

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

- where $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 > 0$ and Q is the following quadratic form

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

Routine integrations (*exercise*) show that:

- (a) X is $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and Y is $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$,
- (b) the correlation between X and Y is ρ ,
- (c) X and Y are independent if and only if $\rho = 0$.

$$p(X) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(\Sigma)(2\pi)^d}} \exp\left[-\frac{(X - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (X - \mu)}{2}\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(\Sigma)(2\pi)^d}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} (x_i - \mu_i) s_{ij} (x_j - \mu_j)\right]$$

where, s_{ij} is the i - j th component of Σ^{-1} (the inverse of covariance matrix Σ).

Special case, $d = 2$; where $X = (x \ y)^T$; Then: $\mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{pmatrix}$

and $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \sigma_{xy} \\ \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_y^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x^2 & \rho_{xy} \sigma_x \sigma_y \\ \rho_{xy} \sigma_x \sigma_y & \sigma_y^2 \end{pmatrix}$

Can you now obtain this,
as given earlier:

$$p(x, y) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho_{xy}^2)} \left[\left(\frac{x-\mu_x}{\sigma_x}\right)^2 - \frac{2\rho_{xy}(x-\mu_x)(y-\mu_y)}{\sigma_x\sigma_y} + \left(\frac{y-\mu_y}{\sigma_y}\right)^2 \right]}}{2\pi\sigma_x\sigma_y\sqrt{(1-\rho_{xy}^2)}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} dx = \sqrt{2\pi}$$

and hence that

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

is indeed a density function.

Similarly, a change of variables in the integral shows that the more general function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$$

is itself a density function.

let X and Y have joint density function given by:

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}(x^2 - 2\rho xy + y^2)\right)$$

By completing the square in the exponent of the integrand:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(X, Y) &= \iint xyf(x, y) dx dy \\ &= \int y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y^2} \left(\int xg(x, y) dx \right) dy \end{aligned}$$

$$g(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1-\rho^2)}} \quad \text{[redacted]}$$

is the density function of the $N(\rho y, 1-\rho^2)$ distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(X, Y) &= \iint xyf(x, y) dx dy \\ &= \int y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y^2} \left(\int xg(x, y) dx \right) dy \end{aligned}$$

$$g(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1-\rho^2)}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\rho y)^2}{(1-\rho^2)}\right)$$

Therefore, $\int xg(x, y) dx$ is the mean, ρy , of this distribution, giving:

$$\text{cov}(X, Y) =$$

$$= \rho, \text{ why ??}$$

(12) Theorem. Cauchy–Schwarz inequality. *For any pair X, Y of jointly continuous variables, we have that*

$$\{\mathbb{E}(XY)\}^2 \leq \mathbb{E}(X^2)\mathbb{E}(Y^2),$$

with equality if and only if $\mathbb{P}(aX = bY) = 1$ for some real a and b , at least one of which is non-zero.

Conditional distributions and conditional expectation

- Suppose that X and Y have joint density function f .
- We wish to discuss the conditional distribution of Y given that X takes the value x .
- However, the probability $P(Y \leq y | X = x)$ is undefined since we may only condition on events which have strictly positive probability.
- If $f_X(x) > 0$ then,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y | x \leq X \leq x + dx) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y, x \leq X \leq x + dx)}{\mathbb{P}(x \leq X \leq x + dx)} \\ &\simeq \frac{\int_{v=-\infty}^y f(x, v) dx dv}{f_X(x) dx} \\ &= \int_{v=-\infty}^y \frac{f(x, v)}{f_X(x)} dv.\end{aligned}$$

- As $dx \downarrow 0$ the left-hand side of this equation approaches our intuitive notion of the probability that $Y \leq y$ given that $X = x$. Hence, the following can be stated:

(1) Definition. The **conditional distribution function** of Y given $X = x$ is the function $F_{Y|X}(\cdot | x)$ given by

$$F_{Y|X}(y | x) = \int_{-\infty}^y \frac{f(x, v)}{f_X(x)} dv$$

for any x such that $f_X(x) > 0$. It is sometimes denoted $\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y | X = x)$.

(2) Definition. The **conditional density function** of $F_{Y|X}$, written $f_{Y|X}$, is given by

$$f_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)}$$

for any x such that $f_X(x) > 0$.

Of course, $f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$, and therefore

$$f_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy}.$$

$$f_{Y|X} = f_{X,Y} / f_X$$

Conditional expectation of Y given X

$$\psi(x) = \mathbb{E}(Y | X = x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_{Y|X}(y | x) dy;$$

(5) Theorem. *The conditional expectation $\psi(X) = \mathbb{E}(Y | X)$ satisfies*

$$\mathbb{E}(\psi(X)) = \mathbb{E}(Y).$$

- It is normally written as $E(E(Y | X)) = E(Y)$, and it provides a useful method for calculating $E(Y)$ since it asserts that

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}(Y | X = x) f_X(x) dx.$$

- **Example :** Let X and Y have the standard bivariate normal distribution. Then

$$f_{Y|X}(y | x) = f_{X,Y}(x, y) / f_X(x) =$$



$$f_{Y|X}(y | x) = f_{X,Y}(x, y)/f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1 - \rho^2)}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y - \rho x)^2}{2(1 - \rho^2)}\right)$$

is the density function of the $N(\rho x, 1 - \rho^2)$ distribution.

Thus $E(Y|X = x) = \rho x$, giving that $E(Y|X) = \rho X$

(10) Theorem. *The conditional expectation $\psi(X) = \mathbb{E}(Y | X)$ satisfies*

$$(11) \quad \mathbb{E}(\psi(X)g(X)) = \mathbb{E}(Yg(X))$$

for any function g for which both expectations exist.

Functions of random variables

- Let X be a random variable with density function f , and let $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be another function.
- Then $y = g(X)$ is a random variable also. In order to calculate the distribution of Y , we proceed as:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(Y \leq y) &= \mathbb{P}(g(X) \leq y) = \mathbb{P}(g(X) \in (-\infty, y]) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(X \in g^{-1}(-\infty, y]) = \int_{g^{-1}(-\infty, y]} f(x) dx.\end{aligned}$$

- More generally, if X_1 and X_2 have joint density function f and g and h are functions mapping \mathbb{R}^2 to \mathbb{R} , then what is the joint density function of the pair

$$Y_1 = g(X_1, X_2), Y_2 = h(X_1, X_2)$$

(use change of variables within an integral.)

- Let $y_1 = y_1(x_1, x_2), y_2 = y_2(x_1, x_2)$ be a one-one mapping $T: (x_1, x_2) \mapsto (y_1, y_2)$ taking some domain $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ onto some range $R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$.

- The transformation can be converted as

$$x_1 = x_1(y_1, y_2), \quad x_2 = x_2(y_1, y_2).$$

- The Jacobian of this inverse is defined to be the determinant

$$J = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_1} \\ \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_2} & \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_2} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_1} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_2} - \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial y_2} \frac{\partial x_2}{\partial y_1}$$

(3) Theorem. *If $g : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and T maps the set $A \subseteq D$ onto the set $B \subseteq R$ then*

$$\iint_A g(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 = \iint_B g(x_1(y_1, y_2), x_2(y_1, y_2)) |J(y_1, y_2)| dy_1 dy_2.$$

(4) Corollary. *If X_1, X_2 have joint density function f , then the pair Y_1, Y_2 given by $(Y_1, Y_2) = T(X_1, X_2)$ has joint density function*

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} f(x_1(y_1, y_2), x_2(y_1, y_2)) |J(y_1, y_2)| & \text{if } (y_1, y_2) \text{ is in the range of } T, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- **Example** : Let X_1 and X_2 be independent exponential variables, parameter λ . Find the joint density function of

$$Y_1 = X_1 + X_2, \quad Y_2 = X_1/X_2,$$

and show that they are independent.

Solution : Let T map (x_1, x_2) to (y_1, y_2) by

$$y_1 = x_1 + x_2, \quad y_2 = x_1/x_2, \quad x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2 \geq 0.$$

The inverse T^{-1} maps (y_1, y_2) to (x_1, x_2) by

$$x_1 = y_1 y_2 / (1 + y_2), \quad x_2 = y_1 / (1 + y_2)$$

and the Jacobian is

$$J(y_1, y_2) = -y_1 / (1 + y_2)^2,$$

giving $f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = f_{X_1, X_2}(y_1 y_2 / (1 + y_2), y_1 / (1 + y_2)) \frac{|y_1|}{(1 + y_2)^2}$.

- However, X_1 and X_2 are independent and exponential, so that

$$f_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = f_{X_1}(x_1)f_{X_2}(x_2) = \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda(x_1+x_2)} \quad \text{if } x_1, x_2 \geq 0,$$

Whence

$$f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) = \frac{\lambda^2 e^{-\lambda y_1} y_1}{(1 + y_2)^2} \quad \text{if } y_1, y_2 \geq 0$$

factorizes as the product of a function of y_1 and a function of y_2

$$f_{Y_1}(y_1) = \lambda^2 y_1 e^{-\lambda y_1}, \quad f_{Y_2}(y_2) = \frac{1}{(1 + y_2)^2}.$$

Sums of random variables

(1) Theorem. *If X and Y have joint density function f then $X + Y$ has density function*

$$f_{X+Y}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, z - x) dx.$$

Proof. Let $A = \{(x, y) : x + y \leq z\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X + Y \leq z) &= \iint_A f(u, v) du dv = \int_{u=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{v=-\infty}^{z-u} dv du \\ &= \int_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{y=-\infty}^z f(x, y - x) dy dx \end{aligned}$$

by the substitution $x = u, y = v + u$.

- If X and Y are independent, the result becomes

$$f_{X+Y}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) f_Y(z-x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(z-y) f_Y(y) dy.$$

- The function f_{X+Y} is called the *convolution* of f_X and f_Y , and is written

$$f_{X+Y} = f_X * f_Y.$$

- If X is $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and Y is $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$, and X and Y are independent,

then $Z = X + Y$ is $N(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$.

Multivariate normal distribution

(4) Definition. The vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ has the **multivariate normal distribution** (or **multinormal distribution**), written $N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{V})$, if its joint density function is

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n |\mathbf{V}|}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\mathbf{V}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})'\right], \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

where \mathbf{V} is a positive definite symmetric matrix.

(5) Theorem. *If \mathbf{X} is $N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{V})$ then*

(a) $\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X}) = \boldsymbol{\mu}$, which is to say that $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \mu_i$ for all i ,

(b) $\mathbf{V} = (v_{ij})$ is called the covariance matrix, because $v_{ij} = \text{cov}(X_i, X_j)$.

(6) Theorem. *If $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ is $N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{V})$ and $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_m)$ is given by $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{D}$ for some matrix \mathbf{D} of rank $m \leq n$, then \mathbf{Y} is $N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}'\mathbf{V}\mathbf{D})$.*

Distributions arising from the normal distribution

- Statisticians are frequently faced with a collection X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n of random variables arising from a sequence of experiments.
- They might be prepared to make a general assumption about the unknown distribution of these variables without specifying the numerical values of certain parameters.
- Commonly they might suppose that X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is a collection of independent $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ variables for some fixed but unknown values of μ and σ^2 .
- This assumption is sometimes a very close approximation to reality.
- They might then proceed to estimate the values of μ and σ^2 by using functions of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .
- They will commonly use the ***sample mean***.

- **Sample mean :**

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

as a guess at the value of μ and **Sample variance :**

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

as a guess at the value of σ^2 .

- These at least have the property of being 'unbiased' in that $E(\bar{X}) = \mu$ and $E(S^2) = \sigma^2$

(1) Theorem. *If X_1, X_2, \dots are independent $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ variables then \bar{X} and S^2 are independent. We have that \bar{X} is $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ and $(n-1)S^2/\sigma^2$ is $\chi^2(n-1)$.*

where, $\chi^2(d)$ denotes the chi-squared distribution with d degrees of freedom.

Student's t distribution :

- In probability and statistics, **Student's *t*-distribution** (or simply the ***t*-distribution**) is any member of a family of continuous probability distributions that arises when estimating the mean of a normally distributed population in situations where the **sample size is small** and **population standard deviation is unknown**.

$$t \equiv \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{s / \sqrt{N}},$$

- where μ – population mean

\bar{x} - sample mean, s – estimator for population standard deviation

$$s^2 \equiv \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2.$$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Student%27s_t-distribution

<http://mathworld.wolfram.com/Studentst-Distribution.html>

Sampling from a distribution

- A basic way of generating a random variable with given distribution function is to use the following theorem.

(1) Theorem. Inverse transform technique. *Let F be a distribution function, and let U be uniformly distributed on the interval $[0, 1]$.*

(a) *If F is a continuous function, the random variable $X = F^{-1}(U)$ has distribution function F .*

(b) *Let F be the distribution function of a random variable taking non-negative integer values. The random variable X given by*

$$X = k \quad \text{if and only if} \quad F(k - 1) < U \leq F(k)$$

has distribution function F .

