$\Omega = \{t | t \ge 0\} = [0, \infty)$

- Ω is an infinite, but uncountable, set

continuous random

variable

Question

made by S.-W. Cheng (NTHU, Taiwan)

What are the differences between the Ω in these examples?

Definition (event, TBp. 2)

A particular <u>subset</u> of Ω is called an <u>event</u>.

Ch1~6, p.2-3 collection of all "well-defined" events → 6-field

Example 1.4 (cont. Ex. 1.1)

Let A be the event that total number of heads equals 2, then $A = \{hht, hth, thh\}.$

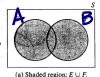
Example 1.5 (cont. Ex. 1.2)

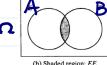
Let A be the event that fewer than 5 jobs in the print queue, then $A = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}.$

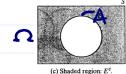
- **union.** $C = A \cup B \Rightarrow C$: at least one of A and B occur.
- <u>intersection</u>. $C = \underline{A \cap B} \Rightarrow C$: both A and B occur.
- complement. $C = \underline{A^c} \Rightarrow C$: A does <u>not</u> occur.

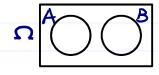
mutually

exclusive disjoint. $A \cap B = \emptyset \Rightarrow A$ and B have no outcomes in common.









Definition (probability measure, TBp. 4)

A probability measure on Ω is a function P from subsets of Ω to the real numbers that satisfies the following axioms:

1.
$$\underline{P(\Omega)} = \underline{1}$$
. \leftarrow total prob. $=$ |

2. If
$$A \subset \Omega$$
, then $\underline{P(A) \geq 0}$ \leftarrow non-negativity

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

Ch1~6, p.2-4

3. If A_1 and A_2 are disjoint, then \leftarrow additivity

Axioms of probability

$$P(\underline{A_1 \cup A_2}) = \underline{P(A_1) + P(A_2)}.$$

More generally, if A_1, A_2, \ldots are mutually disjoint, then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i).$$

Example 1.6 (cont. Ex. 1.1)

Suppose the coin is fair. For every outcome $\omega \in \Omega$, $P(\omega) = \frac{1}{8}$.

$$\Omega = \{hhh, hht, hth, thh, htt, tht, tth, ttt\} \qquad P: \Omega \rightarrow [0.1]$$

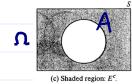
$$1/8 \quad 1/8 \quad 1/8$$

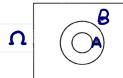
Property A. $P(A^{C}) = 1 - P(A)$.

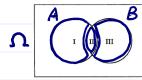
Property B. $P(\emptyset) = 0$.

 $= \sum P(Ai)$ - IP(AinAz) + IP(AinAz)nax) **Property C.** If $\underline{A \subset B}$, then $\underline{P(A) \leq P(B)}$.

Property D. $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$.







Definition (conditional probability, TBp. 17)

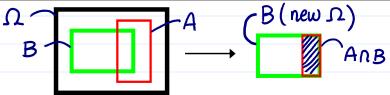
Let A and B be two events with P(B) > 0. The conditional **probability** of A given B is defined to be

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

 Ω : Why cond. prob. important in statistics?

generalization:

P(AIU ... UAn)



<u>Ans</u>: update information.

Ch1~6, p.2-6

Example 1.7 (cont. Ex. 1.6)

Suppose that the first throw is h. What is the probability that we can get exact two h's in the three trials?

$$\Omega = \{hhh, hht, hth, thh, htt, tht, tth, ttt\}$$

$$B = \{hhh, hht, hth, htt\}$$
 $A = \{hht, hth, hth\}$
 $P(AIB) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{28}{48} = \frac{1}{2}$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A\cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{48}{48} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Theorem (Multiplication Law, TBp. 17)

Let A and B be events and assume P(B) > 0. Then

generalization $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$.

P(AINA21...)An)

B

=P(Ai) P(A2(A1).P(A3/A1/1A2)....

→ Sometimes, this is easier to obtain $(:: \Omega \rightarrow B)$

Example 1.7 (Ex. B, TBp. 18)

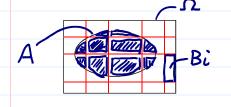
Suppose if it is cloudy (B), the probability that it is raining (A)is 0.3, and that the probability that it is cloudy is P(B) = 0.2. The probability that it is cloudy and raining is $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B) = 0.3 \times 0.2 = 0.06.$

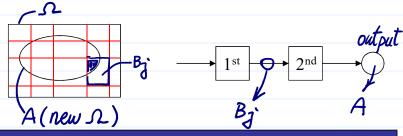
Theorem (Law of Total Probability, TBp. 18)

Let $\underline{B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_n}$ be such that $\underline{\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i = \Omega}$ and $\underline{B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset}$ for $i \neq j$, with $P(B_i) > 0$ for all i. Then, for any event A,

a partition of
$$\Omega$$

$$\underline{P(A)} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underbrace{P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}_{\text{P(A)Bi)}}. \quad \text{intuition}$$





Theorem (Bayes' Rule, TBp. 20)

Let \underline{A} and $\underline{B_1}, \ldots, \underline{B_n}$ be events where the $\underline{B_i}$ are disjoint, $\bigcup_{i=1}^n B_i = \Omega$ and $P(B_i) > 0$ for all i. Then

$$\frac{P(A \cap B_i)}{P(A)} = \underbrace{P(B_j|A)}_{\text{producte}} = \underbrace{P(A|B_j)P(B_j)}_{\sum_{i=1}^n P(A|B_i)P(B_i)}.$$

Definition (independence, TBp. 24)

Two events A and B are said to be **independent** if

definition of independence
$$P(A\cap B) = P(A)P(B).$$



A collection of events A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n are said to be **mutually independent** if for any subcollection, $A_{i_1}, \ldots A_{i_m}$,

$$P(\underline{A_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_m}}) = \underline{P(A_{i_1}) \cdots P(A_{i_m})}.$$

When A and B are independent,

generalization of multiplication

Ch1~6, p.2-8

$$-\underline{P(A|B)} = \frac{P(A\cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = \underline{P(A)},$$
 Law in LNp. 6

and $P(A^c|B) = P(A^c)$.

required optional

Furthermore,
$$P(A|B^c) = P(A)$$
 and $P(A^c|B^c) = P(A^c)$.

A $\Rightarrow B$ independence a complement $A^c \Rightarrow B^c$

Reading: textbook, Sections 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7

Surther Reading: Roussas, Chapters 1 and 2

Chapters 2 and 3

Outline

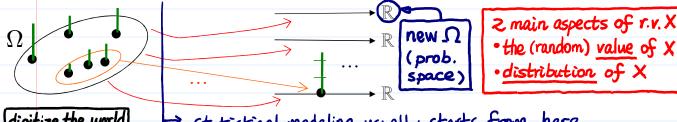
- ▶ random variables (隨機變數)
- **>** distribution
 - •discrete and continuous
 - •univariate and multivariate
 - •cdf, pmf, pdf

- > conditional distribution
- >independent random variables
- > function of random variables
 - distribution of transformed r.v.
 - extrema and order statistics

random variable

Definition 2.1 (random variable, TBp. 33)

A random variable is a function from Ω to the real numbers.



2 main aspects of r.v. X

Ch1~6, p.2-10

digitize the world > statistical modeling usually starts from here.

Example 2.1 (cont. Ex. 1.1)

- (1) X_1 = the total <u>number of heads</u>
- (2) X_2 = the number of heads on the first toss
- (3) $X_3 = \text{the number of heads minus the number of tails}$

update probability space

1/8 1/8 1/8 1/8 1/8 1/8 1/8 1/8 $\Omega = \{hhh, hht, hth, thh, htt, tht, tth, ttt\}$ $X_1: 3, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0.$ — new Ω $X_2: 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0.$ — measure $X_3: 3, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1, -3.$

Question 2.1

Why statisticians need random variables? Why they map to real line?

We need random variable because

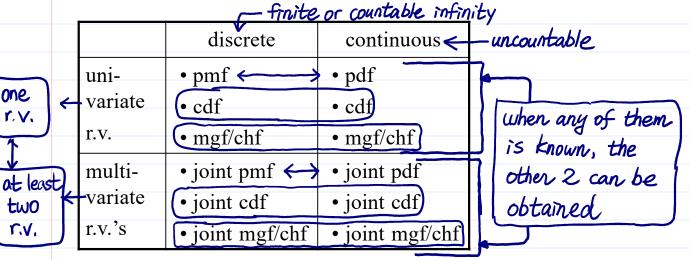
Data ->in IRn space Uncertainty -> need probability measure

5 can do

• distribution probability measure of riv. _don't know what value will appear (分面已,分布)
• For r.v., it value: random, but its distribution: fixed

Question 2.2

A <u>random variable</u> have a <u>sample space</u> on <u>real line</u>. Does it bring some <u>special ways</u> to <u>characterize</u> its <u>probability measure</u>?



<u>pmf</u>: probability mass function, <u>pdf</u>: probability density function, <u>cdf</u>: cumulative distribution function

 \underline{mgf} (moment generating function) and \underline{chf} (characteristic function) will be defined in Chapter 4

Ch1~6, p.2-12

Definition 2.2 (discrete and continuous random variables, TBp. 35 and 47)

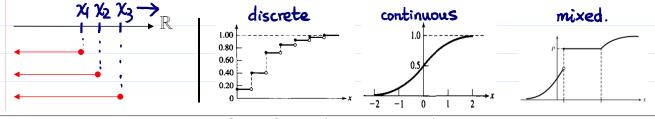
A <u>discrete</u> random variable can take on only a <u>finite</u> or at most a <u>countably infinite</u> number of values. A <u>continuous</u> random variable can take on a continuum of values.

e.g.	D: 1	Continuous
	Discrete	Continuous
	$X \in \{0,1,2,3\}$	X∈[0,1]
	$\chi \in \mathbb{Z}_+$	$X \in (-\infty, \infty)$

Definition 2.3 (cumulative distribution function, TBp. 36)

A function \underline{F} is called the <u>cumulative distribution function</u> (<u>cdf</u>) of a random variable \underline{X} if

$$\underline{F(x)} = \underline{P(X \le x)}, x \in \mathbb{R}.$$



Definition 2.4 (probability mass function/frequency function, TBp. 36)

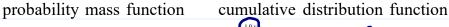
A function p(x) is called a **probability mass function (pmf)** or a **frequency function** if and only if (1) $p(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$, and (2) $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) = 1$. X:a finite

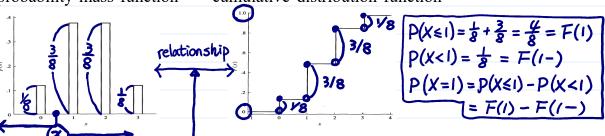
For a discrete random variable X with pmf p(x),

or countably infinite P(X=x)=p(x),set.

and

 $P(X \in A) = \sum_{x \in A} p(x).$





$$F(x) = \sum_{t \le x} P(X = t) = \sum_{\underline{t \le x}} p(t)$$

$$p(x) = P(X = x) = F(x) - F(x-)$$

$$p(x) = P(X = x) = F(x) - F(x-)$$

Definition 2.5 (probability density function, TBp. 46)

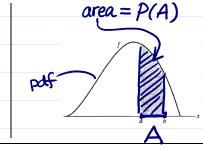
A function f(x) is a **probability density function (pdf)** or **density function** if and only if (1) $f(x) \ge 0$ for all x, and (2)

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

Note post plays a For a <u>continuous</u> random variable X with pdf f, similar role as $P(X \in A) = \int_A f(x) dx$.

$$P(\underline{X \in A}) = \underline{\int_A} f(x) \ dx$$

cdf of Uniform(0.1)pdf of Uniform(0, 1) $\int = area*$



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

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dt} F(x)$$

 $F(x) = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t) dt}{be \text{ larger than one (c.f. pmf)}}$ $f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x)$ (Note. $x \text{ st } \underline{f(x)} > 0, P(\underline{X} = x) = \int_{x}^{x} f(t) dt = \underline{0}$)

Question 2.3

How to interpret f(x)?

For small dx, $P\left(x - \frac{dx}{2} \le X \le x + \frac{dx}{2}\right) = \underbrace{\int_{x - \frac{dx}{2}}^{x + \frac{dx}{2}}}_{x - \frac{dx}{2}} f(t)dt \approx f(x)dx$

Theorem 2.1 (properties of cdf)

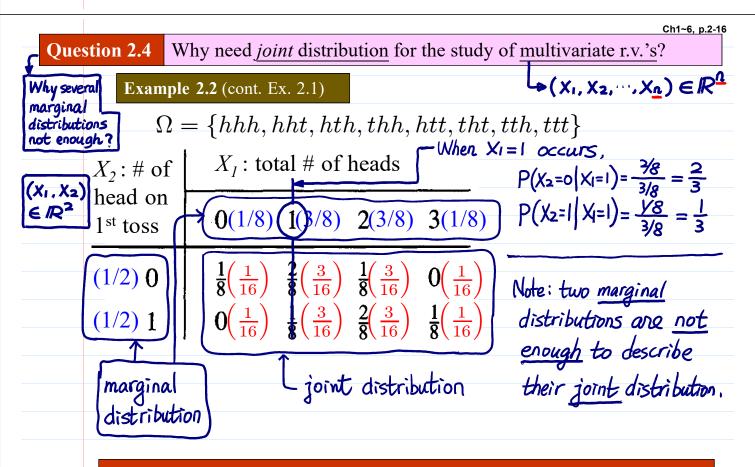
If $\underline{F(x)}$ is a <u>cumulative distribution function</u> of some random variable X then the following properties hold.

- 1. $0 \le F(x) \le 1$
- 2. F(x) is nondecreasing.
- 3. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, F(x) is continuous from the right; i.e.

$$\lim_{\underline{t \downarrow x}} F(\underline{t}) = \underline{F(x)}.$$

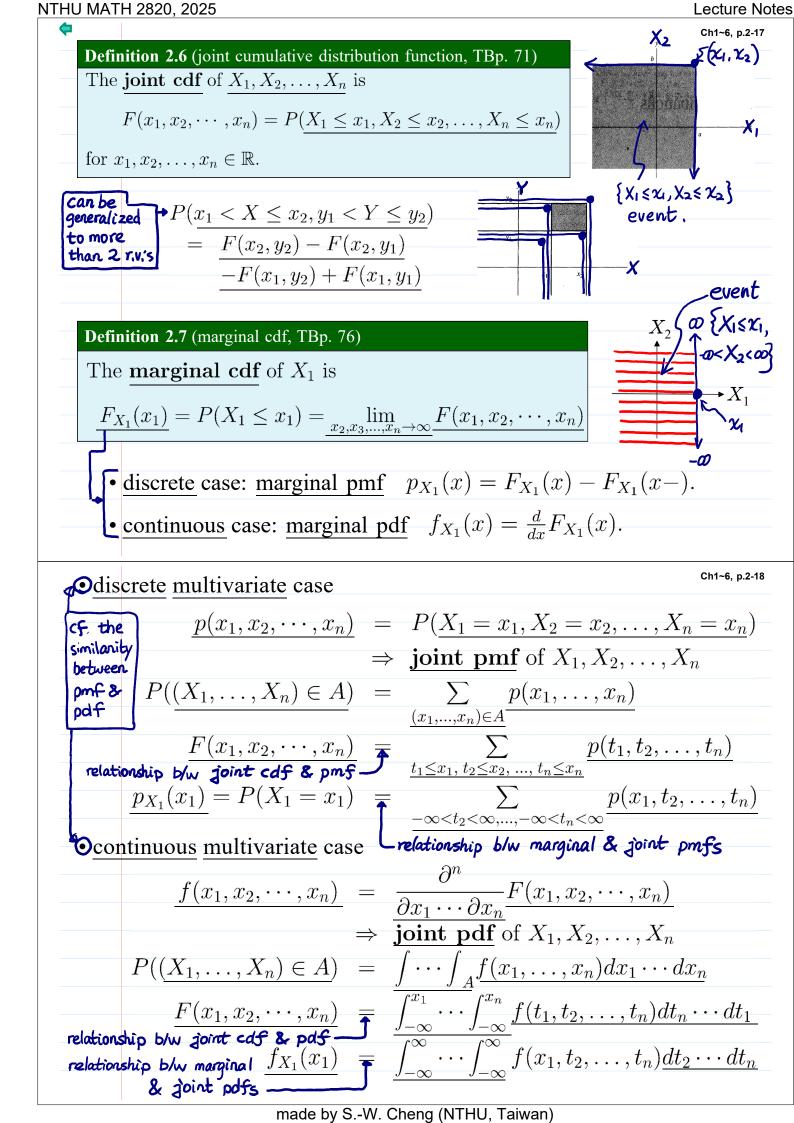
- 4. $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = \underline{1}$ and $\lim_{x \to -\infty} F(x) = \underline{0}$.
- 5. P(X > x) = 1 F(x) and $P(a < X \le b) = F(b) F(a)$.
- 6. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, F(x) has left limit. $\rightarrow F(x-) = P(x < x)$
- 7. There are at most countably many discontinuity points of F(x).

Conversely, if a function F(x) satisfies properties 2, 3, 4 then F(x) is a cdf.



Question 2.5

When we know the joint distribution, we can obtain every marginal distributions. Is the reverse statement true?



• independent random variables Recall. independent events (Up.8)

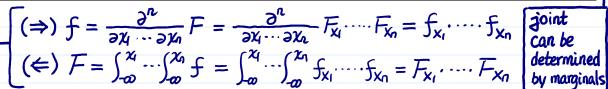
Definition 2.8 (independent random variables, TBp. 84)

Random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are said to be **independent** if their joint cdf factors into the product of their marginal cdf's



$$\underline{F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)} = \underline{F_{X_1}(x_1)F_{X_2}(x_2)\cdots F_{X_n}(x_n)} \blacktriangleleft$$

for all x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .



Theorem 2.2 (TBp. 85-86)

1. For continuous case,

$$F(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = F_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots F_{X_n}(x_n) \Leftrightarrow \underbrace{f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)}_{\text{Note: Similarity between}} = \underbrace{f_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots f_{X_n}(x_n)}_{\text{pdf \& pmf.}}$$

$$F(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = F_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots F_{X_n}(x_n) \Leftrightarrow p(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = p_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots p_{X_n}(x_n) \Leftrightarrow F(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = f_{X_1}(x_1)\cdots f_{X_n}(x_n) \Leftrightarrow F(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = f_{X_n}(x_n) \Leftrightarrow F(x_n,\ldots,x_n) = f_{X_n}(x_n) \Leftrightarrow F(x_n,\ldots,x_$$

2. X, Y independent

for interpretation P(YEB|XEA) $\Leftrightarrow P(X \in A, Y \in B) = P(X \in A)P(Y \in B)$ $|=P(Y \in B)$

i.e. the events $\{X \in A\}$ and $\{Y \in B\}$ are independent

No matter what data X occurs, it has no impact on the appearance probability of data Y

3 X, Y independent $\Rightarrow Z = g(X)$ and W = h(Y) are independent

indep. 8 transformation

e.g. X:生日 indep. Y:身髙 Q(X)星來 indep. R(Y):免費車票

Cintuition

generalization

 X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent $1 < i_0 < i_1 < \dots < i_k = n$

$$Y_1 = g_1(\underline{X_1, \dots, X_{i_1}}),$$

$$Y_1 = g_1(X_1, \dots, X_{i_1}),$$

 $Y_2 = g_2(X_{i_1+1}, \dots, X_{i_2}),$

$$Y_k = g_k(\underline{X_{i_{k-1}+1}, \dots, X_{i_k}}).$$

 Y_1, \ldots, Y_k are independent

*4. marginal distributions of X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n + independence \Rightarrow joint distribution of X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n

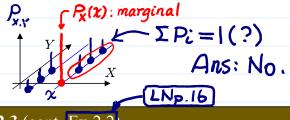
conditional distribution ← conditional probability (LNp.5)

Definition 2.9 (conditional pmf for discrete case, TBp. 87)

X and Y are discrete random variables with joint pmf $p_{XY}(x,y)$, the **conditional pmf** of Y given X is

$$p_{Y|X}(y|x) \equiv P(\underbrace{Y=y|X=x}_{\text{II}}) = \underbrace{\frac{P(X=x,Y=y)}{P(X=x)}}_{\text{event}} = \underbrace{\frac{P(X=x,Y=y)}{P(X=x)}}_{\text{marginal}}$$

if $p_X(x) > 0$. The probability is defined to be zero if $p_X(x) = 0$.



Example 2.3 (cont. Ex 2

$$p_{X_2|X_1}(0|1) = 2/3$$
, and $p_{X_2|X_1}(1|1) = 1/3$ update $P_{X_2}(0) = 1/2$ $P_{X_2}(1) = 1/2$

Ch1~6, p.2-22

Definition 2.10 (conditional pdf for continuous case, TBp. 86)

X and Y are continuous random variables with joint pdf $f_{XY}(x,y)$, the **conditional pdf** of Y given X is defined by

$$\frac{\textbf{joint}}{\text{marginal}} = f_{Y|X}(y|x) \stackrel{\checkmark}{=} \frac{f_{XY}(x,y)}{\underbrace{f_{XY}(x,y)}}, \quad y \in R, \quad \textbf{similarity between} \\ pmf & pdf.$$

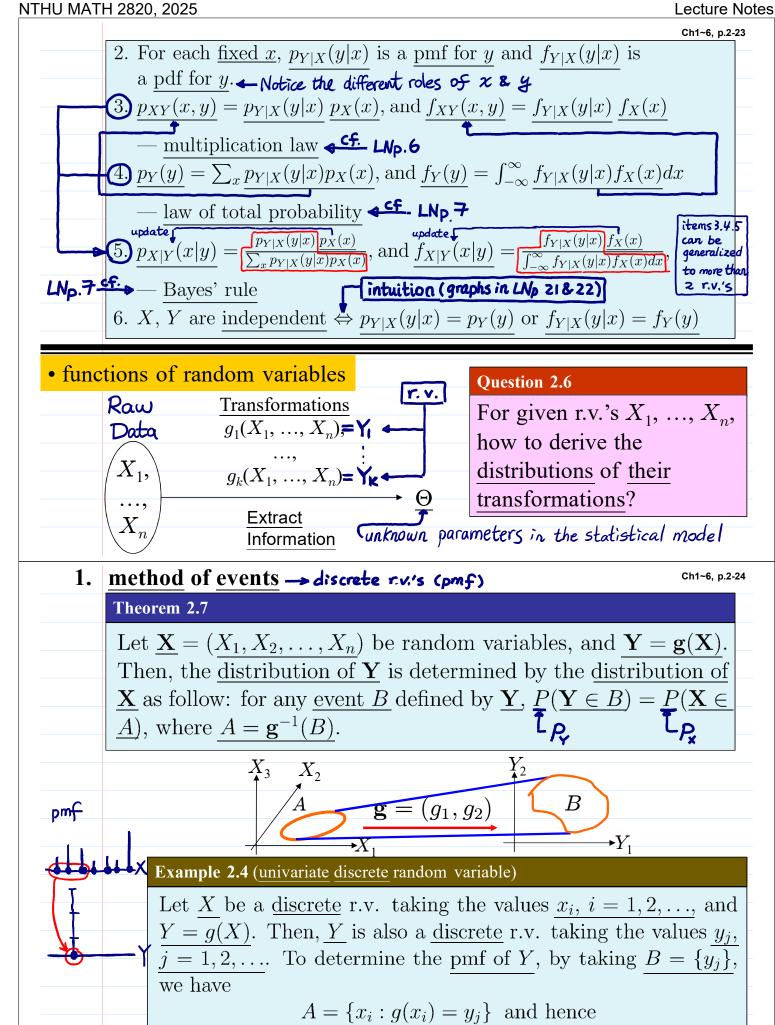
if $0 < f_X(x) < \infty$ and 0 otherwise.

$$f_{x}(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_{xy}(x,y) dy = 1$$
 (?)

Theorem 2.3

1. The definition of
$$f_{Y|X}(y|x)$$
 comes from
$$P(a \le Y \le b, x - \frac{\Delta X}{2} \le X \le x + \frac{\Delta X}{2}) P(x - \frac{\Delta X}{2} \le X \le x + \frac{\Delta X}{2}) = \frac{\int_{a}^{b} \int_{x - \Delta x/2}^{x + \Delta x/2} f_{XY}(u, v) du dv}{\int_{x - \Delta x/2}^{x + \Delta x/2} f_{XY}(u, v) du dv}$$

$$\approx \frac{\int_{a}^{b} f_{XY}(x, y) \Delta x dy}{f_{X}(x) \Delta x} = \int_{\underline{a}}^{\underline{b}} \frac{f_{XY}(x, y)}{f_{X}(x)} dy$$



$\underline{p_Y(y_j)} = P(\{y_j\}) = P(A) = \sum_{\underline{x_i \in A}} \underline{p_X(x_i)}.$

Example 2.5 (sum of two discrete random variables, TBp. 96)

<u>X</u> and <u>Y</u> are random variables with joint pmf p(x, y). Find the distribution of Z = X + Y.

(Exercise: difference of two random variables, Z=X-Y) \leftarrow Ans. $P_2(z) = \sum_{y} \rho(z+y,y)$

$$\underline{p_Z(z)} = P(\underline{Z=z}) = P(\underline{X+Y=z}) = \sum_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} \underline{p(x,z-x)}$$

When X, Y independent, $p(x,y) = p_X(x)p_Y(y)$,

$$p_Z(z) = \sum_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} p_X(x) p_Y(z-x) \Rightarrow \underline{\text{convolution of } p_X \text{ and } p_Y}$$

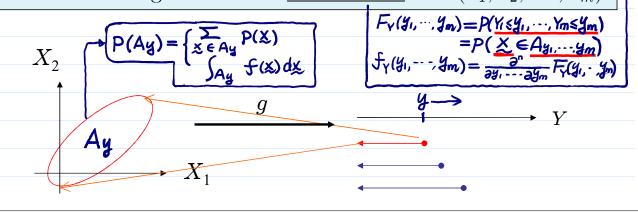
$$Y \qquad \qquad + cs. \underbrace{\frac{\text{value of } r.v.}{\text{distribution of } r.v.}}_{X+Y=3} \Rightarrow Y=3-X$$

Ch1~6, p.2-26 2. method of cumulative distribution function (a special case of method 1)

Let \underline{Y} be a <u>function</u> of the random variables $\underline{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n}$.

- 1. Find the region $\underline{Y \leq y}$ in the (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) space. 2. Find $\underline{F_Y(y)} = P(\underline{Y \leq y})$ by summing the joint pmf or integrating the joint pdf of $X_1, \overline{X_2, \ldots, X_n}$ over the region $Y \leq y$.
- 3. (for <u>continuous</u> case) Find the pdf of Y by differentiating $\underline{F_Y(y)}$, i.e., $f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy}F_Y(y)$.

Note. It can be generalized to <u>multivariate</u> $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_m)$.



Example 2.6 (square of a random variable, similar example see TBp. 61)

 \underline{X} is a random variables with $\underline{\mathrm{pdf}}\ f_X(x)$ and $\underline{\mathrm{cdf}}\ F_X(x)$. Find the distribution of $\underline{Y} = \underline{X^2}$.

For
$$y \ge 0$$
, $\{Y \le y\} = \{-\sqrt{y} \le X \le \sqrt{y}\}$

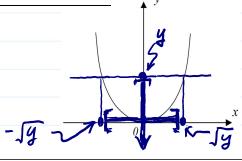
$$\underline{F_Y(y)} = P(\underline{Y \le y}) = P(-\sqrt{y} \le X \le \sqrt{y}) = \underline{F_X(\sqrt{y}) - F_X(-\sqrt{y})}$$

$$\frac{f_Y(y)}{dy} = \frac{d}{dy} F_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_X(\sqrt{y}) - \frac{d}{dy} F_X(-\sqrt{y})$$

$$= f_X(\sqrt{y}) \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} - f_X(-\sqrt{y})(-\frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}} (f_X(\sqrt{y}) + f_X(-\sqrt{y}))$$

and $f_Y(y) = 0$ for y < 0.



Ch1~6, p.2-28

Example 2.7 (sum of two continuous random variables, TBp. 97)

 $\underline{X} \text{ and } \underline{Y} \text{ are random variables with } \underline{\text{joint pdf } f(x,y)}.$ Find the distribution of $\underline{Z} = \underline{X+Y}.$

(Exercise: difference of two random variables, Z=X-Y)

Let R_z be $\{(x,y): x+y \leq z\}$. Then,

$$-\underline{Ans}. \ f_z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z+y,y) dy$$

$$F_{Z}(z) = P(\underline{Z} \leq z) = P(\underline{X} + Y \leq z) = \int \int_{R_{z}} f(x,y) dxdy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{z-x} f(x,y) dydx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{z} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x,v-x) dxdv \text{ (set } y = v - x)$$

$$f_{Z}(z) = \frac{d}{dz} F_{Z}(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{f(x,z-x)} dx$$

$$\chi + \chi = 3$$

When X, Y independent, $f(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y)$,

$$f_Z(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) f_Y(z-x) dx \Rightarrow$$
convolution of f_X and f_Y

the convolution for discrete r.v.'s (LNp.25)

Ch1~6, p.2-30

Example 2.8 (quotient of two continuous random variables, TBp. 98)

 \underline{X} and \underline{Y} are r.v. with joint pdf f(x,y). Find the distribution of $\underline{Z} = \underline{Y}/X$. (Exercise: product of two random variables, $\underline{Z} = \underline{XY}$)

$$Q_z = \{(x,y) : y/x \le z\} = \{(x,y) : x < 0, y \ge zx\} \cup \{(x,y) : x > 0, y \le zx\}$$

$$F_{Z}(z) = \int \int_{Q_{z}} f(x,y) dx dy = \int_{-\infty}^{0} \int_{xz}^{\infty} + \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{xz} f(x,y) dy dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{0} \int_{z}^{-\infty} + \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{z} x f(x,xv) dv dx \quad (\text{set } y = xv)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{0} \int_{-\infty}^{z} \frac{(-x) f(x,xv) dv dx}{|x|} + \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{z} x f(x,xv) dv dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{z} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| f(x,xv) dx dv$$

$$\frac{f_Z(z)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| f(x, xz) dx} = \frac{\frac{d}{dz} F_Z(z)}{\left(= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| f(x, xz) dx \text{ when } \underline{X}, Y \text{ independent} \right)}$$

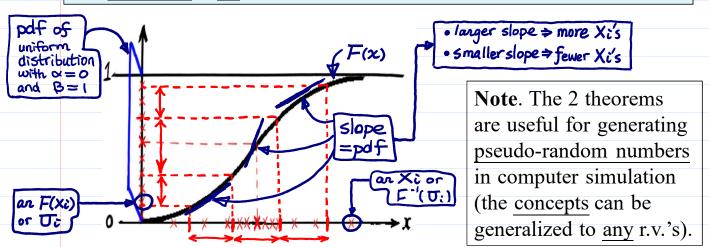
Theorem 2.4 (TBp. 63)

Let \underline{X} be a random variable whose $\underline{\operatorname{cdf}} F$ possesses a unique inverse F^{-1} . Let $\underline{Z} = F(X)$, then \underline{Z} has a uniform distribution on [0,1].

 \rightarrow 1) no jump 2) strictly increasing \Rightarrow \times : a continuous r.v.

Theorem 2.5 (TBp. 63)

Let \underline{U} be a <u>uniform random variable</u> on $\underline{[0,1]}$ and \underline{F} is a cdf which possesses a <u>unique inverse F^{-1} </u>. Let $\underline{X} = F^{-1}(\underline{U})$. Then the cdf of \underline{X} is \underline{F} .



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3. method of probability density function (for continuous r.v.'s and

differentiable, one-to-one transformations, a special case of method 2): check its proof in textbook

Theorem 2.6 (univariate continuous case, TBp. 62)

Let \underline{X} be a <u>continuous</u> random variable with $\underline{\mathrm{pdf}}\ f_X(x)$. Let $\underline{Y} = g(X)$, where \underline{g} is differentiable, strictly monotone. Then,

can be relaxed to piecewise strictly monotone

$$\underline{f_Y(y)} = \underline{f_X}(\underline{g^{-1}(y)}) \left| \frac{dg^{-1}(y)}{dy} \right| \quad \text{in LNp 24}$$
 in LNp 24 Q: What's the role of the term?

for y s.t. y = g(x) for some x, and $f_Y(y) = 0$ otherwise.

Example 2.9

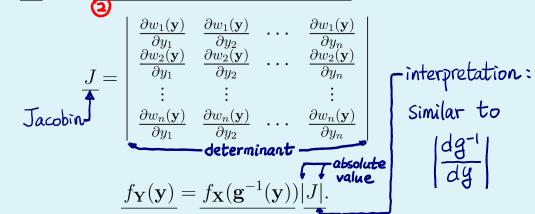
 \underline{X} is a random variables with $\underline{\mathrm{pdf}}\ f_X(x)$. Find the distributon of $\underline{Y} = \underline{1/X}$.

For
$$\underline{x > 0}$$
 (or $\underline{x < 0}$),
 $y = \underline{1/x \equiv g(x)} \Rightarrow x = \underline{g^{-1}(y)} = 1/y$
 $\underline{dg^{-1}/dy} = -1/y^2$ and $\underline{|dg^{-1}/dy|} = 1/y^2$
hence $\underline{f_Y(y)} = \underline{f_X(1/y)}(\underline{1/y^2})$

Theorem 2.7 (multivariate continuous case, TBp. 102-103)

 $\underline{\mathbf{X}} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \text{ multivariate } \underline{\text{continuous}}, \underline{\mathbf{Y}} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n) \equiv \underline{\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{X})}. \quad \underline{\mathbf{g}} \text{ is } \underline{\text{one-to-one, so that its } \underline{\text{inverse exists and is denoted}}} \\ \underline{\mathbf{x}_1} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_2} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \\ \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \\ \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \\ \underline{\mathbf{x}_n} \quad \underline{\mathbf{x}_n}$

Assume w have continuous partial derivatives, and let



Then

for y s.t. y = g(x) for some x, and $f_Y(y) = 0$, otherwise.

Note. When the <u>dimensionality</u> of $\underline{\mathbf{Y}}$, denoted by \underline{k} , is less than \underline{n} , we can choose <u>another n-k</u> transformations $\underline{\mathbf{Z}}$ such that $\underline{(\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{Z})}$ satisfy the <u>above assumptions</u>. By <u>integrating out the last n-k arguments in the pdf of (\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{Z}) , the pdf of $\underline{\mathbf{Y}}$ can be obtained.</u>

Example 2.10 (cont. Ex 2.8)

 X_1 and X_2 are random variables with joint pdf $f_{X_1X_2}(x_1,x_2)$. Find the distribution of $\underline{Y_1} = \underline{X_2/X_1}$. (Exercise: $\underline{Y_1} = \underline{X_2/X_2}$)

Let $\underline{Y_2} = X_1$. Then

$$\frac{x_1 = y_2}{x_2 = y_1 y_2} \equiv \frac{w_1(y_1, y_2)}{w_2(y_1, y_2)}.$$

$$\frac{\partial w_1}{\partial y_1} = 0$$
, $\frac{\partial w_1}{\partial y_2} = 1$, $\frac{\partial w_2}{\partial y_1} = y_2$, $\frac{\partial w_2}{\partial y_2} = y_1$.

$$\underline{J} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ y_2 & y_1 \end{vmatrix} = -y_2, \text{ and } \underline{|J|} = |y_2|$$

Therefore,

$$\underline{f_{Y_1Y_2}(y_1, y_2)} = \underline{f_{X_1X_2}(y_2, y_1y_2)} \underline{|y_2|}$$

nerefore,
$$\frac{f_{Y_1Y_2}(y_1,y_2) = f_{X_1X_2}(y_2,y_1y_2)|y_2|}{f_{Y_1}(y_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Y_1Y_2}(y_1,y_2) \underline{dy_2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_1X_2}(y_2,y_1y_2)|y_2|dy_2}$$
 cf. Ex2.8 in LNp.29

Ch1~6, p.2-34 4. method of moment generating function: based on the uniqueness theorem of moment generating function. To be explained later in Chapter 4.

• extrema and order statistics 则原序統計量 → quantile (分位數)

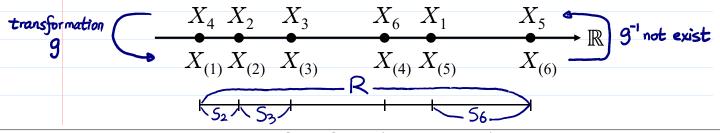
Definition 2.11 (order statistics, sec 3.7)

Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n be random variables. We sort the X_i 's and denote by $X_{(1)} \leq X_{(2)} \leq \cdots \leq X_{(n)}$ the **order statistics**. Using the notation,

$$\underline{X_{(1)}} = \underline{\min}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$
 is the $\underline{\min}$ $\underline{X_{(n)}} = \underline{\max}(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ is the $\underline{\max}$

$$\overline{R} \equiv X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}$$
 is called **range**

$$S_j \equiv X_{(j)} - X_{(j-1)}, j = 2, \dots, n$$
 are called jth **spacings**



for $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \cdots \leq x_n$, and $f_{X_{(1)}X_{(2)}...X_{(n)}} = 0$ otherwise.

Question: Are $X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \ldots, X_{(n)}$ independent, judged from the from of its joint pdf? \leftarrow C.f. Thm 2.2, item 1 (LNp,19)

set.

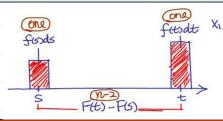
Example 2.11 (range, TBp. 105-106)

The joint pdf of $X_{(1)}$ and $X_{(n)}$ is $P(s-\frac{ds}{2} < X_{(1)} < s+\frac{ds}{2}, t-\frac{dt}{2} < X_{(n)} < t+\frac{dt}{2})$ $\approx \int_{X_{(1)}, X_{(n)}} (s, t) ds dt$.

$$\underline{f_{X_{(1)}X_{(n)}}(s,t)} = n(n-1)f(s)f(t)[F(t) - F(s)]^{n-2}, \text{ for } \underline{s \le t},$$

and 0 otherwise. Therefore, the pdf of $R = X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}$ is

Check exercise in Ex2,7(LNp.28) $f_R(r) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_{(1)}X_{(n)}}(s,s+r)ds$ for r>0, and $f_R(r)=0$, otherwise.



fits $X_1, --, X_n \Rightarrow$ choose one to place $T_n(s\frac{ds}{s}, s+\frac{ds}{2})$ one $(t-\frac{dt}{s}, t+\frac{ds}{2})$ the rest $T_n(s,t)$ $T_n(s,t)$ $T_n(s,t)$

Exercise

- 1. Find the joint pdf of $X_{(i)}$ and $X_{(j)}$, where i < j. 2. Find the joint pdf of $X_{(j)}$ and $X_{(j-1)}$, and derive the pdf of jth spacing $S_j = X_{(j)} - X_{(j-1)}$.
- ❖ Reading: textbook, 2.1 (not including 2.1.1~5), 2.2 (not including 2.2.1~4), 2.3, 2.4, Chapter 3
- **Further Reading**: Roussas, 3.1, 4.1, 4.2, 7.1, 7.2, 9.1, 9.2, 9.3, 9.4, 10.1

Chapter 4

Ch1~6, p.2-38

Outline

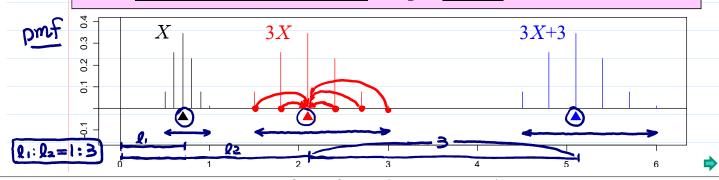
➤ expectation — 期望值

 mean, variance, standard deviation, covariance, correlation coefficient

- > moment generating function & characteristic function
- > conditional expectation and prediction
- \triangleright δ method

Question 3.1

Can we describe the characteristics of distributions by use of some intuitive and meaningful simple values?



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expectation

Definition 3.1 (expectation, TBp. 122, 123)

For random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n , the **expectation** of a univariate random variable $\underline{Y} = g(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is defined as

$$\underline{\underline{E(Y)}} \equiv \sum yp_Y(y) = \underline{E[g(X_1, \dots, X_n)]}$$

deviation.

if X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are discrete random variables, or Y: random

$$\underline{E(Y)} \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_Y(y) dy = E[g(X_1, \dots, X_n)]$$

$$\equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underline{g(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \underline{f(x_1, \dots, x_n)} dx_1 \cdots dx_n,$$

if \underline{Y} and X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are <u>continuous</u> random variables.

Ch1~6, p.2-40

Definition 3.2 (mean, variance, standard deviation, covariance, correlation coefficient)

 $g(x) = x \Rightarrow E[g(X)] = E(X)$ is called 1. (TBp.116&118) **mean** of X, usually denoted by $\overline{E(X)}$ or μ_X .

constant

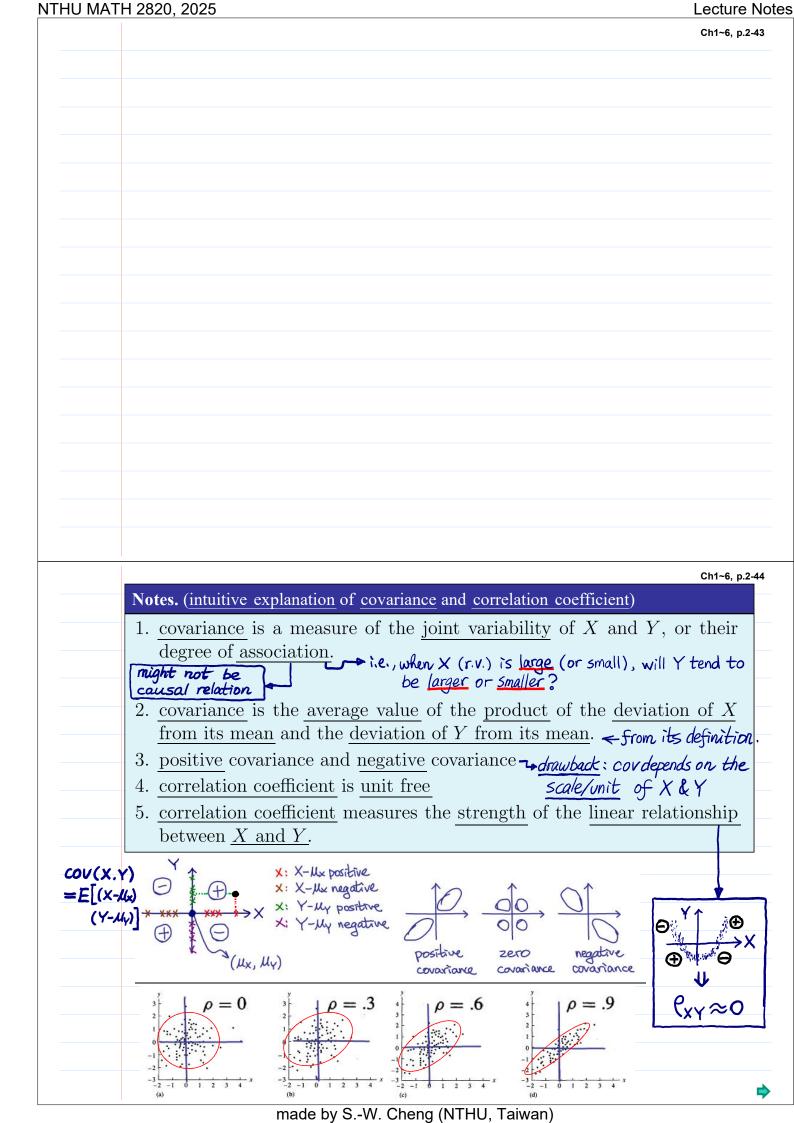
2. (TBp.131) $g(x) = (x - \mu_X)^2 \Rightarrow E[g(X)] = E[(X - E(X))^2]$ is called **variance** of X, usually denoted by Var(X) or σ_X^2 . The square root of variance, i.e., σ_X , is called **standard**

constant, not random

- 3. (TBp.138) $g(x,y) = (x \mu_X)(y \mu_Y) \Rightarrow E[g(X,Y)] = E[(X E(X))(Y E(Y))]$ is called **covariance** of X and \overline{Y} , usually denoted by $\underline{Cov(X,Y)}$ or $\underline{\sigma_{XY}}$.
- The correlation coefficient of X, Y is defined as $\sigma_{XY}/(\sigma_X\sigma_Y)$, usually denoted by Cor(X,Y) or ρ_{XY} . X and Y are called <u>uncorrelated</u> if $\rho_{XY} = 0$. $\iff \delta_{XY} = 0$

 $\underline{\text{variance}} + \underline{\text{bias square}} \bigsqcup_{\theta} = E[(x - \mu_x)^2 + (\mu_x - \theta)^2 - 2(\mu_x - \theta)(x - \mu_x)]$

5. (TBp.136)



Theorem 3.4 (properties of covariance and correlation coefficient)

(Note. $Cov(X,Y) = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = E(XY) - \mu_X \mu_Y$ (Note. Cov(X,X) = Var(X).)

Sor calculation purpose

2. (TBp.140)

[bi --- bn]

[cij = Cov(xi,Yj)]

[di]

dm

$$Cov\left(\underbrace{a+\sum_{i=1}^nb_iX_i,c+\sum_{j=1}^md_jY_j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j=1}^m\underline{b_id_j}Cov(X_i,Y_j)$$

- 3. (TBp.140) If X, Y are independent then Cov(X,Y) = 0, i.e., independent \Rightarrow uncorrelated. But, the converse statement is not necessarily true.
- 4. (TBp.143) $-1 \le \rho_{XY} \le 1$ and $\rho_{XY} = \pm 1$ if and only if $\underline{Y} = aX + b$ with probability one for some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. standardization (標準化)
- $5. \ \underline{\rho_{XY}} = \underline{E}\left[\frac{X \mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right] \underbrace{\left(\frac{Y \mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)}_{\text{Fig. (17.48)}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{Y \mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)}_{\text{Var}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{Y$
- 6. $|\underline{Cor}(a+b\overline{X},\underline{c+dY})| = |\underline{Cor}(X,\underline{Y})|$ | ocation shift scale change \Rightarrow no impact on continuous

Ch1~6, p.2-46

moment generating function & characteristics function

Definition 3.3 (moment generating function, TBp. 155)

The moment generating function (mgf) of a random variable X is

$$\frac{M_X(t)}{Laplace transformation of } \underbrace{\frac{E(e^{tX})}{E^{tX}}_{\text{fx}(x)} dx}_{\text{fx}(x)} = \underbrace{\begin{cases} e^{tX} f_{\text{fx}(x)} dx \\ E^{tX} f_{\text{fx}(x)} dx \end{cases}}_{\text{fx}(x)}$$

if the expectation exists.

Theorem 3.5 (properties of moment generating function)

1. The moment generating function $\underline{\text{may or may not}}$ $\underline{\text{exist}}$ for any particular value of t.

$$t=0 \Rightarrow E(e^{0.x}) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{always exists} \qquad i.e., E(e^{tX}) < \infty$$

2. <u>uniqueness theorem</u> (TBp.143). If the moment generating function <u>exists</u> for t in an <u>open interval containing</u> zero, it uniquely determines the probability distribution.





Lecture Notes Ch1~6, p.2-47

★3. (TBp.156) If the moment generating function exists in an

open interval containing zero, then

know all moments $\underset{k=0}{\longrightarrow} M_{k}^{(k)}(0) t^{k}$ $\Rightarrow know dist$.

the reason why it's called moment generating function.

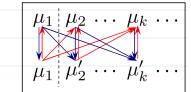
- 4. (TBp.158) For any constants $a, b, M_{a+bX}(t) = e^{at} M_X(\underline{bt})$.
- (TBp.159) $X, Y \text{ independent} \Rightarrow M_{X+Y}(t) = M_X(t)M_Y(t)$. *useful for identifying the dist. of X1+...+Xn
 - I for identifying the dist. of $x_1 + \cdots + x_n$ Generalization: indep. x_1, \cdots, x_n 6. continuity theorem (see Chapter 5) $M_{x_1 + \cdots + x_n}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n M_{x_i}(t)$

Definition 3.4 (moment, TBp. 155)

The <u>kth moment</u> of a random variable is $E(X_{\bullet}^{k}) \equiv \underline{\mu_{k}}$, and the kth central moment is $E[(X - \mu_X)^k] \equiv \overline{\mu'_k}$. (-4x+44x)

Some Notes.

- $\begin{array}{ll} \bullet & \underline{\mu_k'} & = & \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} (-\mu_X)^{n-i} \underline{\mu_i}. \\ \bullet & \underline{\mu_k} & = & \underline{\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} (\mu_X)^{n-i} \underline{\mu_i'}. \\ \end{array}$
- In particular, $E(X) = \mu_X = \mu_1$, and, $Var(X) = \sigma_X^2 = \mu_2 \mu_1^2 = \mu_2$. $\mu_1 \quad \mu_2 \dots \mu_k \dots$ $\mu_1 \quad \mu_2 \dots \mu_k \dots$ $Var(X) = \sigma_X^2 = \mu_2 - \mu_1^2 = \mu_2'.$



Ch1~6, p.2-48

Definition 3.5 (joint moment generating function, TBp. 161)

For random variables X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n , their **joint mgf** is defined as:

For random
$$M_{x_1,\dots,x_n}(t,\dots,t)$$

$$=M_{x_1}+\dots+x_n(t)$$

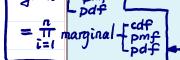
$$M_{X_1X_2\cdots X_n}(\underline{t_1,t_2,\ldots,t_n}) = \underbrace{\frac{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_2+\cdots+t_nX_n})}{\text{of the expection exists.}}}$$

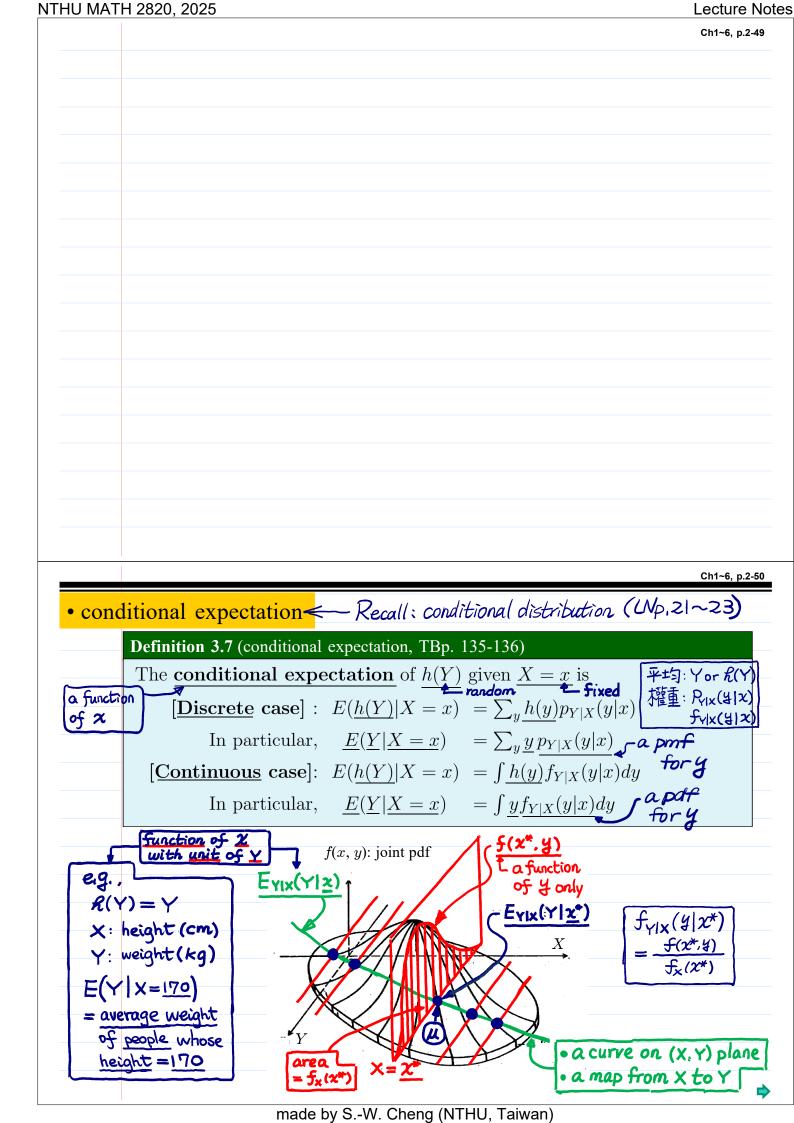
$$= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_2+\cdots+t_nX_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_1+t_2X_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_n})}_{= \underbrace{E(e^{t_1X_n})}_$$

Theorem 3.6 (properties of joint mgf)

- 1. $M_{\underline{X_1}}(\underline{t_1}) = M_{\underline{X_1}\underline{X_2}\cdots \underline{X_n}}(\underline{t_1},\underline{0,\ldots,0})$ relationship between joint mgf & <u>marginal</u> mgf.
- 2. uniqueness theorem

3. X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n are independent if and only if





 $Y = E_{Y|X}(Y|X)$

 $E_{x}[Var_{Y|x}(Y|x)] = 0$

with probability one.

prediction

 G_3

mean:

best

under MSE

Example 3.1 (predicting the value of a r.v. Y from another r.v. X, TBp. 152-154)

• data: X and Y (example?

- X 期 审量 Y 體重 米產量
- statistical modeling: assign (X, Y) a $\overline{\text{(known) joint distribution }}(\text{cdf }\overline{F(x,y)}), \text{ pdf } f(x,y), \text{ or pmf } p(x,y))$
- objective: Predict Y by using a function of X, i.e., g(X).

- We consider the following three groups of g's: (i) $\underline{G_1} = \{g(x) : \underline{g(x)} = c, \text{ where } c \in \mathbb{R}\}$ information of X
 - (ii) $G_2 = \{g(x) : g(x) = a + bx, \text{ where } a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}, \text{ and }$
 - (iii) $G_3 = \{g(x) : g \text{ is arbitrary}\}.$

Note. $G_1 \subset G_2 \subset G_3$.

- question: Within each group, what is the "best" prediction?
- i.e. how to choose c for GI
 ror: : : g for G3 • **criterion**: minimizing <u>mean square error</u>:

meaning? $\longrightarrow \underline{\mathrm{MSE}} \equiv \underline{E_{X,Y}} \{ [\underline{Y} - \underline{g(X)}]^2 \}$. predicted value true value

GI Example 3.2 ("best" constant prediction, TBp. 153)

 $\underline{E_{X,Y}}(Y-\underline{c})^2 = \underline{E_Y}(Y-\underline{c})^2 \geq E_Y[Y-\underline{E_Y(Y)}]^2 = \underline{Var_Y(Y)} \text{ min}$

The equality holds if and only if $c = E_Y(Y)$.

Example 3.3 ("best" prediction of Y using X, TBp. 153)

 $E_{X,Y}[Y - \underline{g(X)}]^2 \ge E_{X,Y}[Y - \underline{E_{Y|X}(Y|X)}]^2 = \underline{E_X[Var_{Y|X}(Y|X)]}$ The equlity holds if and only if $g(x) = E_{Y|X}(Y|x)$.

Notes for the best predictor in G_3 .

- $E_{Y|X}(Y|X)$ is the best predictor of Y based on X, in the mean squared prediction error sense. intuition check the graph in LNp. 50 | median: best predictor under E | Y-g(x) | best in GI: EY(Y)
 - \odot need to know the joint distribution of X and Y, or at least $E_{Y|X}(Y|x)$
 - $E_{Y|X}(Y|x)$ is called the regression function of Y on X.

Example 3.4 ("best" <u>linear prediction</u> of Y using X, TBp. 153-154)

 $E_{X,Y}[Y-\underline{(a+bX)}]^2 \geq E_{X,Y}\left\{Y-\left[\mu_Y+\rho\frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}(X-\mu_X)\right]\right\}^2 = \underbrace{\sigma_Y^2(1-\rho^2)}_{\text{min}}$

The equality holds if and only if $\underline{a = \mu_Y - b\mu_X}$ and $\underline{b = \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}}$. unit=?

Notes for the best predictor in G_2 .

• $E_{Y|X}(Y|x) = \mu_Y + \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}(x - \mu_X)$ if (X, Y) is distributed as bivariate normal best in G_2 more information more information

best in G3 - linear regression analysis

better predictor needs to know only the means, variances and covariances

cf.) sthe best in G. & G3 -> Which one require more information?

 $\bullet \sigma_Y^2(1-\rho^2)$ is small if ρ is close to +1 or -1, and large if ρ is close to 0 intuition - check the plot in Up.44

 $\lim_{a \to b} E[Y - (\underline{a + bX})]^2 \le \min_{a \to b} E(Y - \underline{c})^2 \text{ and the equality holds}$

Collect data of X.Yto <u>estimate</u> their joint

dist.

if and only if $\underline{\rho} = 0$. Carry Given Eigenstein $E[Y - (\underline{a} + bX)]^2$ and the equality holds if and only if $E_{Y|X}(Y|x) = \mu_Y + \rho(\sigma_Y/\sigma_X)(x-\mu_X)$.

Question 3.3

 \bullet What if the joint distribution of X and Y is unknown?

Ch1~6, p.2-56

- * Reading: textbook, Chapter 4
- **Further Reading:** Roussas, 5.1, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 6.1, 6.2, 6.4, 6.5

Some Commonly Used Distributions (from Chapters 2, 3, 6)

Ch1~6, p.2-58

Question 4.1

For a given random phenomenon or data, what distribution (or statistical model) is more appropriate to depict it? Latistical modeling

discrete distributions

Definition 4.1 (Uniform distribution $U(a_1,...,a_m)$)

Equal probability to obtain a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m .

 $pmf: p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{m}, & x = a_1, \dots, a_m \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

• $\operatorname{mgf}: \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{m} e^{a_{j}t}}{m} \leftarrow \text{by definition (Ec)}$

- mean: $\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{m} a_j}{m} \equiv \bar{a}$
- parameter: $a_i \in \mathbb{R}, \ m = 1, 2, \dots$
- variance: $\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{m} (a_j \bar{a})^2}{m}$ example: throw a fair die once

Ch1~6, p.2-60

Definition 4.2 (Bernoulli distribution B(p), sec 2.1.1)

A Bernoulli distribution takes on only two values: 0 and 1, with probabilities 1-p and p, respectively.

$$\frac{\mathbf{pmf:}\ p(x)}{a \, pmf?} = \begin{cases} p^x (1-p)^{(1-x)}, & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ or } x = 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• $mgf: pe^t + 1 - p - by$ definition (Ec)

• mean:
$$p$$
 — by definition (Ec) p — Use mgf (Ec) p — p —

• mean:
$$p$$
 — $\underbrace{\text{use mgf}}_{\text{use mgf}}$ (Ec) $\underbrace{\text{use mgf}}_{\text{var}(x) = \underline{E(x^2)} - [\underline{E(x)}]^2}$ • variance: $p(1-p)$ — $\underbrace{\text{Var}(x) = \underline{E(x^2)} - [\underline{E(x)}]^2}_{\text{var}(x) = \underline{E(x^2)} + \underline{E(x)} - [\underline{E(x)}]^2}$ (Ec)

• parameter: $p \in [0,1]$ use ma

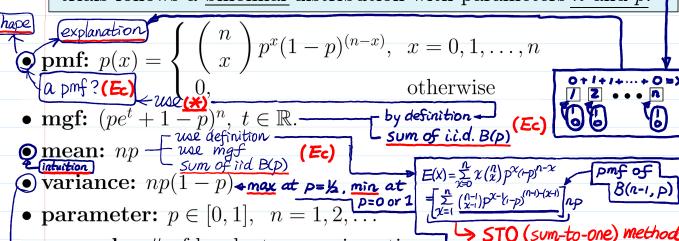
• example: toss a coin once, p=probability that head occurs

Note: If \underline{A} is an event, then the indicator random variable $\underline{I}_{\underline{A}}$ follows the Bernoulli distribution. $\downarrow \\ p = P(\underline{A})$ $\downarrow \\ I_{\underline{A}}: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} . I_{\underline{A}}(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \omega \in \underline{A} \\ 0, & \text{if } \omega \notin \underline{A} \end{cases}$

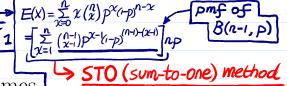
$$I_{A}: \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \quad I_{A}(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ 0, & \text{if } \omega \notin A \end{cases}$$

Definition 4.3 (Binomial distribution B(n, p), sec 2.1.2)

Suppose that n independent Bernoulli trials are performed, where n is a fixed number. The total number of 1 appearing in the ntrials follows a binomial distribution with parameters n and p.



• example: # of heads, toss a coin n times \longrightarrow STO (sum-to-one) method



n = 10 and p = .1

n = 10 and p = .5Find $E(x^2)$ using mgf

Find E[X(X-1)] using STO (Ec)

sum of i.i.d. B(p)

Note: (*) $(a+b)^n = \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} a^x b^{n-x}$.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Note.

1. <u>binomial</u> distribution is a generalization of <u>bernoulli</u> distriintuition) bution from 1 trial to n trials

Q. Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. B(p), then $Y = X_1 + \cdots + X_n \sim$ $\frac{B(n,p)}{3}. - \text{prove using } \underbrace{\frac{B(n,p)}{mgf}}_{\text{intuition}} \underbrace{\frac{B(n,p)}{mgf}}_{\text{intuition}}$

pendent. Then, $Y = X_1 + \cdots + X_k \sim B(n_1 + \cdots + n_k, p)$.

prove using mgf

prove using convolutions induction (Fe) $X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_K = Y = \# \text{ of } 1\text{'s in } (n_1 + \cdots + n_k) \text{ trial}$

Definition 4.4 (Geometric distribution G(p), sec 2.1.3)

The geometric distribution is constructed from an infinite sequence of independent Bernoulli trials. Let X be the total number of trials up to and including the first appearance of 1. Then, X follows the geometric distribution.

Ch1~6, p.2-62

Using (**)

• $\operatorname{mgf:} \frac{pe^{t}}{1-(1-p)e^{t}}, \ t < -\log(1-p).$ we sto

where $\operatorname{mean:} \frac{1}{p}$ where $\operatorname{mgf:} \frac{E(X) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(X \geqslant K)}{p(X \geqslant K)}$ or use (**)

intuition

• $\operatorname{variance:} \frac{1-p}{p^{2}}$ Find $E(X^{2})$ using $\operatorname{mgf:} \frac{E(X)}{p(X \geqslant K)}$ • $\operatorname{parameter:} \ p \in [0, 1]$

• parameter: $p \in [0, 1]$

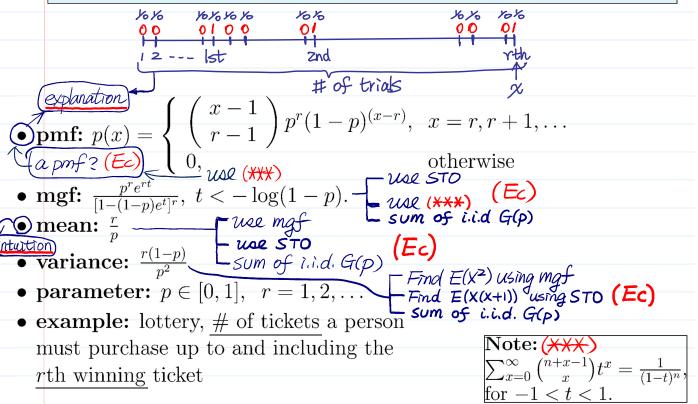
• example: lottery, # of tickets a person must purchase up to and including the first winning ticket

Note: a memoryless distribution ← intuition Lcheck its definition (LNp.74) and prove (Ec)

Note: (**) $\sum_{x=n}^{\infty} t^x = \frac{t^n}{1-t},$ for -1 < t < 1

Definition 4.5 (Negative Binomial distribution NB(r, p), sec 2.1.3)

An <u>infinite</u> sequence of independent Bernoulli trials is performed until the appearance of the rth 1. Let X denote the total number of trials. Then, X follows negative binomial distribution.

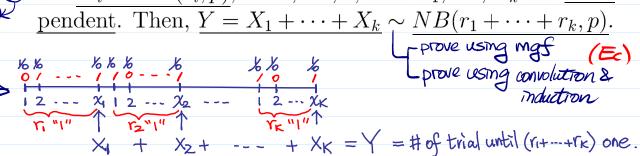


Note.

intuition !

Ch1~6, p.2-64

- 1. negative binomial distribution is a generalization of geometric distribution from 1st success to rth success
- (2) Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_r be i.i.d. G(p), then $Y = X_1 + \cdots + X_r \sim 1$ NB(r,p) - prove using \bigcirc mgf (My(t) = $\frac{\pi}{12}$ Mx:(t)) \bigcirc convolution \bigcirc induction (Ec)
- \mathfrak{J} . Let $X_i \sim NB(r_i, p), i = 1, \ldots, k$, and X_1, \ldots, X_k are inde-



Definition 4.6 (Multinomial distribution $\underline{Multinomial(n, p_1, p_2, ..., p_r)}$, TBp.73-74)

Suppose that each of n independent trials can result in one of rtypes of outcomes, and that on each trial the probabilities of the r outcomes are p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_r . Let X_i be the <u>total number</u> of outcomes of type i in the n trials, $i = 1, \ldots, r$. Then, (X_1, \ldots, X_r) follows a multinomial distribution.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{ joint pmf:} & \textbf{ use (****)} \\ \hline & \textbf{ a joint pmf? (Ec)} \\ p(x_1,\ldots,x_r) = \\ \hline & (x_1\cdots x_r) \end{array} \begin{array}{ll} p_1^{x_1}\cdots p_r^{x_r}, & x_i=0,1,\ldots,n, \text{ and } \\ x_1\cdots x_r & \sum_{i=1}^r x_i=n \\ \hline & \text{ otherwise} \end{array}$$

- joint mgf: $(p_1e^{t_1} + \cdots + p_re^{t_r})^n, t_1, \ldots, t_r \in \mathbb{R}$. Luse STO
- marginal distribution: $X_i \sim B(n, p_i), i = 1, \dots, r$ intuition (E)
- mean: $E(X_i) = np_i, i = 1, ..., n$

- variance: $Var(X_i) = np_i(1-p_i), i = 1, \ldots, n$ covariance: $Cov(X_i, X_j) = \underline{-np_ip_j}, i \neq j$ parameter: $p_i \in [0, 1], \text{ and } \underline{\sum_{i=1}^r p_i = 1}, n = 1, 2, \ldots$ (Ec)
- example: randomly choose n people, record the numbers of people with different religions

why negative?

Ch1~6, p.2-66

Note:
$$(a_1 + \dots + a_k)^n = \sum_{x_1 + \dots + x_k = n} {n \choose x_1, \dots, x_k} a_1^{x_1} \dots a_k^{x_k}$$

Notes: multinomial distribution is a generalization of the binomial distribution from 2 outcomes to r outcomes.

Definition 4.7 (Poisson distribution $P(\lambda)$, sec 2.1.5)

<u>Limit</u> of <u>binomial</u> distributions $X_n \sim \underline{B(n, p_n)}$, where $\underline{p_n \to 0}$ as $\underline{n \to \infty}$ in such a way that $\underline{\lambda_n} \equiv \underline{np_n \to \lambda}$.

$$\frac{\binom{n}{x}p_n^x(1-p_n)^{(n-x)}}{\sum_{x=0}^{n} \frac{\lambda_n}{n}} \qquad \text{Note: if } a_n \to a, \ \left(1+\frac{a_n}{n}\right)^n \to e^a.$$

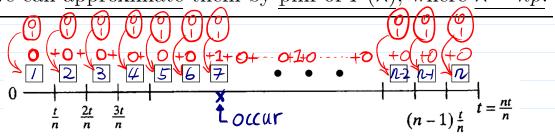
$$= \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-x+1)}{x!} \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{n}\right)^x \left(1-\frac{\lambda_n}{n}\right)^{n-x}$$

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

$$= 1(1 - \frac{1}{n}) \cdots (1 - \frac{x - 1}{n}) \frac{\lambda_n^x}{x!} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_n}{n}\right)^n \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_n}{n}\right)^{-x} \longrightarrow 1^x \cdot \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot 1 = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$$
explanations.

explanations.

1. if <u>n large</u>, the pmf of B(n, p) is not easily calculated. Then, we can approximate them by pmf of $P(\lambda)$, where $\lambda = np$.



$$\begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \left(n \\ x \end{array} \right) \left(m \\ r - x \end{array} \right), & x = 0, 1, \ldots, \underline{\min(r, n)}, \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} 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• mgf: exist, but no simple expression

 $\underbrace{\text{mean: } \frac{\eta_n}{n+m}} < \text{use STO (Ec)}$

- variance: $\frac{rnm(n+m-r)}{(n+m)^2(n+m-1)} \leftarrow Fmd \ E[X(X-I)] \ using STO (Ec)$
- parameter: $r, n, m, = 1, 2, ..., r \le n + m$
- **example:** sampling industrial products for defect inspection

Notes. a relationship between hypergeometric and binomial distributions: Let $m, n \to \infty$ in such a way that

$$\underline{p_{m,n}} \equiv \frac{n}{m+n} \to p,$$

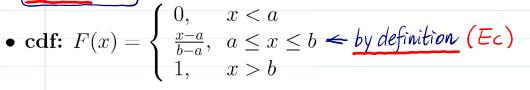
where 0 . Then, intuition: When <math>m, n are large, with replacement \approx without replacement $\left(\frac{n}{x}\right)\binom{m}{r-x} \to \left(\frac{r}{x}\right)p^x(1-p)^{r-x}$.

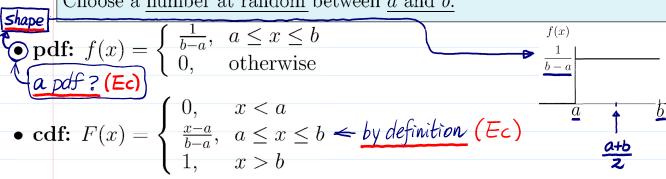
Ch1~6, p.2-70

continuous distributions

Definition 4.9 (Uniform distribution U(a, b), sec 2.2)

Choose a number at random between a and b.





- mgf: $\frac{e^{bt}-e^{at}}{t(b-a)}$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$. \leftarrow by definition (Ec)

 mean: $\frac{a+b}{2}$ \leftarrow use mgf

 variance: $\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$ \leftarrow Find $E(X^2)$ using definition (Ec)

 Thm 2.4, 2.5 (LNp.30)

Note: U(0,1) is useful for pseudo-random number generation

Exponential densities

 $\lambda = .5$ (solid)

 $\lambda = 1$ (dotted).

 $\lambda = 2$ (dashed).

Definition 4.10 (Exponential distribution $E(\lambda)$, sec 2.2.1)

shape pdf: $f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & x \ge 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$ or cdf: $F(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\lambda x}, & x \ge 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$ by definition (Ec) (Ec)

• $\operatorname{mgf:} \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}, \ t < \lambda. < \begin{cases} \text{by definition} \\ \text{use STO} \end{cases}$

mean: $\frac{1}{\lambda} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} use \ STO \\ use \ mgf \end{bmatrix}$ (Ec)

• variance: $\frac{1}{\lambda^2} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} Find \ E(X^2) \ using \ STO \end{bmatrix}$ (Ec)

• parameter: $\lambda > 0$

• example: lifetime or waiting time

→ meaning of parameter— 人: average waiting time (時間)

入: average occurrence rate (時間)

♥Notes:

st

Poisson **Process**

Ch1~6, p.2-72

1. **memoryless** (future independent of past): Let $T \sim E(\lambda)$, then

$$\frac{T-s > t}{P(T > t + s | T > s)} = \frac{P(T > t + s \text{ and } T > s)}{P(T > s)} = \frac{P(T > t + s)}{P(T > s)}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\lambda(t+s)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = P(T > t)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\lambda(t+s)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = P(T > t)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\lambda(t+s)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = P(T > t)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\lambda(t+s)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = P(T > t)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\lambda(t+s)}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = e^{-\lambda t} = \frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{e^{-\lambda s}} = \frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{e^{-\lambda t}} = \frac{e^{-\lambda t}}{e^$$

 \bullet (\Leftarrow) If a continuous distribution is memoryless, it is exponential

• It does not mean the two events T > s and T > t + s are independent.

2. relationship between exponential, gamma, and Poisson distributions

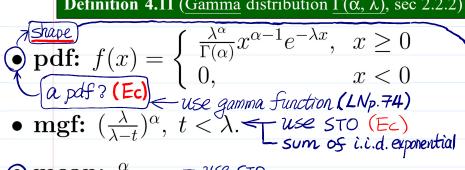
Let T_1, T_2, T_3, \ldots be i.i.d. $\sim E(\lambda)$ and $S_k = T_1 + \cdots + T_k$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots$ Let X_i be the number of S_k 's that falls in $[t_{i-1}, t_i], i = 1, \ldots, n$, then X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent, and $X_i \sim P(\lambda(t_i - t_{i-1}))$. The reverse state-

ment is also ture.

t is also ture. $\begin{array}{c}
P_{i}(T_{i}, t) = P_{i}(P(\lambda t) = 0) = e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{2} = e^{-\lambda t} \\
X_{i} # of events occur \\
during [to, t_{i}] \rightarrow [o, t_{i}] \\
P_{i}(X_{i}, t) = P_{i}(P(\lambda t) = 0) = e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{2} = e^{-\lambda t} \\
X_{i} # of events occur \\
during [to, t_{i}] \rightarrow [o, t_{i}] \\
P_{i}(X_{i}, t) = P_{i}(P(\lambda t) = 0) = e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{2} = e^{-\lambda t} \\
X_{i} # of events occur \\
during [to, t_{i}] \rightarrow [o, t_{i}] \\
Y_{i} # of events occur \\
Y_{i} # of events o$

3. Sometimes, the pdf is written as $\frac{1}{\lambda}e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}}$. In the case, how to interpret λ ?

Definition 4.11 (Gamma distribution $\Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$, sec 2.2.2)



- mean: $\frac{\alpha}{\lambda}$ use STO

 use mgf (Ec)

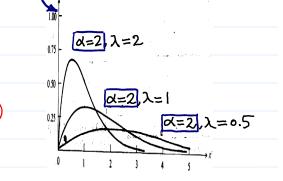
 variance: $\frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2}$ sum of i.i.d exponential
- parameter: $\alpha, \lambda > 0$

Notes.

Find
$$E(x^2)$$
 using STO

Find $E(x^2)$ using mgf (Ec)

Sum of i.i.d exponential



Ch1~6, p.2-74

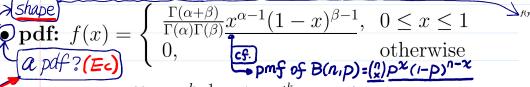
 $\alpha=1,\lambda=1$

 $\alpha = 2, \lambda = 1$

- 1. $\underline{\alpha}$: shape parameter; $\underline{\lambda}$: scale parameter (Question 4.3: how to interpret α , λ from the view point of Poisson process? (LNp.72) >: occurrence rate, < + of summed exponential r.v.'s ←
- 2. properties of gamma function $\Gamma(\alpha)$:
 - $\Gamma(\alpha) \equiv \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy$ (which is finite for $\alpha > 0$)
 - $\Gamma(1) = 1$ and $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$
 - $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha 1)\Gamma(\overline{\alpha 1})$
 - $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha 1)!$ if α is an integer
 - $\Gamma(\frac{\alpha}{2}) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}(\alpha-1)!}{2^{\alpha-1}(\frac{\alpha-1}{2})!}$ if $\underline{\alpha}$ is an odd integer
- 3. gamma distribution can be viewed as a generalization of exponential distribution, i.e., $\Gamma(\underline{1}, \lambda) = E(\lambda)$. (Ec) intuition prove using mgf
- 4. Let X_1, \ldots, X_k be i.i.d. $\sim E(\lambda)$, then $Y = X_1 + \cdots + X_k \sim \Gamma(k, \lambda)$.
- 5. Let X_1, \ldots, X_k be independent, and $X_i \sim \Gamma(\alpha_i, \lambda)$, then $Y = X_1 + \cdots + X_k \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_k, \lambda)$.

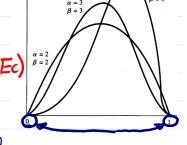
 6. Let $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$, then $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda/c)$, where $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda/c)$, where $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda/c)$ prove using mgf
- 7. $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda) \Rightarrow E(X^k) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+k)}{\lambda^k \Gamma(\alpha)}$, for 0 < k and $E(\frac{1}{X^k}) = \frac{\lambda^k \Gamma(\alpha-k)}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$, for $0 < k < \alpha$.

Definition 4.12 (Beta distribution $beta(\alpha, \beta)$, sec 15.3.2)



• mgf: $1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\prod_{r=0}^{k-1} \frac{\alpha+r}{\alpha+\beta+r}) \frac{t^k}{k!} \leftarrow \text{by definition}$ • mean: $\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta} \leftarrow \text{Use STO}$ Use mgf (Ec)

• mgf: $1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\prod_{r=0}^{k-1} \frac{\alpha+r}{\alpha+\beta+r}) \frac{t^k}{k!} \leftarrow \text{by definition}$ • $\frac{\omega}{(Note)!} e^{\pm ix} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\pm x)^k}{|k|} (\text{Ec})$ • $\frac{\omega}{\beta} = \frac{\omega}{(1+x)^k} (1+x)^k$



Notes:

2. $\underline{\beta(1,1)} = \underline{U(0,1)}$ meaning of $\alpha \& \beta$

3 Let $X_1 \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1, \lambda)$, $X_2 \sim \Gamma(\alpha_2, \lambda)$, and X_1, X_2 independent. Then, $\frac{X_1}{X_1 + X_2} \sim \underline{beta(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)}$. $Y_1 = \frac{x_1}{X_1 + X_2}$ \underline{f} find the joint pdf of \underline{f} of