# 18.600: Lecture 28 <br> Lectures 17-27 Review 

Scott Sheffield

MIT

## Outline

Continuous random variables

Problems motivated by coin tossing

Random variable properties

## Outline

Continuous random variables

## Problems motivated by coin tossing

## Random variable properties

## Continuous random variables

- Say $X$ is a continuous random variable if there exists a probability density function $f=f_{X}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ such that $P\{X \in B\}=\int_{B} f(x) d x:=\int 1_{B}(x) f(x) d x$.


## Continuous random variables

- Say $X$ is a continuous random variable if there exists a probability density function $f=f_{X}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ such that $P\{X \in B\}=\int_{B} f(x) d x:=\int 1_{B}(x) f(x) d x$.
- We may assume $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) d x=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) d x=1$ and $f$ is non-negative.


## Continuous random variables

- Say $X$ is a continuous random variable if there exists a probability density function $f=f_{X}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ such that $P\{X \in B\}=\int_{B} f(x) d x:=\int 1_{B}(x) f(x) d x$.
- We may assume $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) d x=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) d x=1$ and $f$ is non-negative.
- Probability of interval $[a, b]$ is given by $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$, the area under $f$ between $a$ and $b$.


## Continuous random variables

- Say $X$ is a continuous random variable if there exists a probability density function $f=f_{X}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ such that $P\{X \in B\}=\int_{B} f(x) d x:=\int 1_{B}(x) f(x) d x$.
- We may assume $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) d x=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) d x=1$ and $f$ is non-negative.
- Probability of interval $[a, b]$ is given by $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$, the area under $f$ between $a$ and $b$.
- Probability of any single point is zero.


## Continuous random variables

- Say $X$ is a continuous random variable if there exists a probability density function $f=f_{X}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ such that $P\{X \in B\}=\int_{B} f(x) d x:=\int 1_{B}(x) f(x) d x$.
- We may assume $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) d x=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) d x=1$ and $f$ is non-negative.
- Probability of interval $[a, b]$ is given by $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$, the area under $f$ between $a$ and $b$.
- Probability of any single point is zero.
- Define cumulative distribution function

$$
F(a)=F_{X}(a):=P\{X<a\}=P\{X \leq a\}=\int_{-\infty}^{a} f(x) d x
$$

## Expectations of continuous random variables

- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[X]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) x
$$

## Expectations of continuous random variables

- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[X]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) x
$$

- How should we define $E[X]$ when $X$ is a continuous random variable?


## Expectations of continuous random variables

- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[X]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) x
$$

- How should we define $E[X]$ when $X$ is a continuous random variable?
- Answer: $E[X]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) x d x$.


## Expectations of continuous random variables

- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[X]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) x
$$

- How should we define $E[X]$ when $X$ is a continuous random variable?
- Answer: $E[X]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) x d x$.
- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[g(X)]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) g(x)
$$

## Expectations of continuous random variables

- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[X]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) x
$$

- How should we define $E[X]$ when $X$ is a continuous random variable?
- Answer: $E[X]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) x d x$.
- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[g(X)]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) g(x)
$$

- What is the analog when $X$ is a continuous random variable?


## Expectations of continuous random variables

- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[X]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) x
$$

- How should we define $E[X]$ when $X$ is a continuous random variable?
- Answer: $E[X]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) x d x$.
- Recall that when $X$ was a discrete random variable, with $p(x)=P\{X=x\}$, we wrote

$$
E[g(X)]=\sum_{x: p(x)>0} p(x) g(x)
$$

- What is the analog when $X_{i 申}$ a continuous random variable?
- Answer: we will write $E[g(X)]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) g(x) d x$.


## Variance of continuous random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a continuous random variable with mean $\mu$.


## Variance of continuous random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a continuous random variable with mean $\mu$.
- We can write $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[(X-\mu)^{2}\right]$, same as in the discrete case.


## Variance of continuous random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a continuous random variable with mean $\mu$.
- We can write $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[(X-\mu)^{2}\right]$, same as in the discrete case.
- Next, if $g=g_{1}+g_{2}$ then $E[g(X)]=\int g_{1}(x) f(x) d x+\int g_{2}(x) f(x) d x=$ $\int\left(g_{1}(x)+g_{2}(x)\right) f(x) d x=E\left[g_{1}(X)\right]+E\left[g_{2}(X)\right]$.


## Variance of continuous random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a continuous random variable with mean $\mu$.
- We can write $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[(X-\mu)^{2}\right]$, same as in the discrete case.
- Next, if $g=g_{1}+g_{2}$ then $E[g(X)]=\int g_{1}(x) f(x) d x+\int g_{2}(x) f(x) d x=$ $\int\left(g_{1}(x)+g_{2}(x)\right) f(x) d x=E\left[g_{1}(X)\right]+E\left[g_{2}(X)\right]$.
- Furthermore, $E[a g(X)]=a E[g(X)]$ when $a$ is a constant.


## Variance of continuous random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a continuous random variable with mean $\mu$.
- We can write $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[(X-\mu)^{2}\right]$, same as in the discrete case.
- Next, if $g=g_{1}+g_{2}$ then $E[g(X)]=\int g_{1}(x) f(x) d x+\int g_{2}(x) f(x) d x=$ $\int\left(g_{1}(x)+g_{2}(x)\right) f(x) d x=E\left[g_{1}(X)\right]+E\left[g_{2}(X)\right]$.
- Furthermore, $E[a g(X)]=a E[g(X)]$ when $a$ is a constant.
- Just as in the discrete case, we can expand the variance expression as $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}-2 \mu X+\mu^{2}\right]$ and use additivity of expectation to say that
$\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-2 \mu E[X]+E\left[\mu^{2}\right]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-2 \mu^{2}+\mu^{2}=$ $E\left[X^{2}\right]-E[X]^{2}$.


## Variance of continuous random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a continuous random variable with mean $\mu$.
- We can write $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[(X-\mu)^{2}\right]$, same as in the discrete case.
- Next, if $g=g_{1}+g_{2}$ then $E[g(X)]=\int g_{1}(x) f(x) d x+\int g_{2}(x) f(x) d x=$ $\int\left(g_{1}(x)+g_{2}(x)\right) f(x) d x=E\left[g_{1}(X)\right]+E\left[g_{2}(X)\right]$.
- Furthermore, $E[a g(X)]=a E[g(X)]$ when $a$ is a constant.
- Just as in the discrete case, we can expand the variance expression as $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}-2 \mu X+\mu^{2}\right]$ and use additivity of expectation to say that
$\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-2 \mu E[X]+E\left[\mu^{2}\right]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-2 \mu^{2}+\mu^{2}=$ $E\left[X^{2}\right]-E[X]^{2}$.
- Expectation of square minus square of expectation.


## Variance of continuous random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a continuous random variable with mean $\mu$.
- We can write $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[(X-\mu)^{2}\right]$, same as in the discrete case.
- Next, if $g=g_{1}+g_{2}$ then $E[g(X)]=\int g_{1}(x) f(x) d x+\int g_{2}(x) f(x) d x=$ $\int\left(g_{1}(x)+g_{2}(x)\right) f(x) d x=E\left[g_{1}(X)\right]+E\left[g_{2}(X)\right]$.
- Furthermore, $E[a g(X)]=a E[g(X)]$ when $a$ is a constant.
- Just as in the discrete case, we can expand the variance expression as $\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}-2 \mu X+\mu^{2}\right]$ and use additivity of expectation to say that
$\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-2 \mu E[X]+E\left[\mu^{2}\right]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-2 \mu^{2}+\mu^{2}=$ $E\left[X^{2}\right]-E[X]^{2}$.
- Expectation of square minus square of expectation.
- This formula is often useful for calculations.


## Outline

Continuous random variables

Problems motivated by coin tossing

Random variable properties

## Outline

## Continuous random variables

Problems motivated by coin tossing

Random variable properties

## It's the coins, stupid

- Much of what we have done in this course can be motivated by the i.i.d. sequence $X_{i}$ where each $X_{i}$ is 1 with probability $p$ and 0 otherwise. Write $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$.


## It's the coins, stupid

- Much of what we have done in this course can be motivated by the i.i.d. sequence $X_{i}$ where each $X_{i}$ is 1 with probability $p$ and 0 otherwise. Write $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$.
- Binomial ( $S_{n}$ — number of heads in $n$ tosses), geometric (steps required to obtain one heads), negative binomial (steps required to obtain $n$ heads).


## It's the coins, stupid

- Much of what we have done in this course can be motivated by the i.i.d. sequence $X_{i}$ where each $X_{i}$ is 1 with probability $p$ and 0 otherwise. Write $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$.
- Binomial ( $S_{n}$ — number of heads in $n$ tosses), geometric (steps required to obtain one heads), negative binomial (steps required to obtain $n$ heads).
- Standard normal approximates law of $\frac{S_{n}-E\left[S_{n}\right]}{\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)}$. Here $E\left[S_{n}\right]=n p$ and $\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)=\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left(S_{n}\right)}=\sqrt{n p q}$ where $q=1-p$.


## It's the coins, stupid

- Much of what we have done in this course can be motivated by the i.i.d. sequence $X_{i}$ where each $X_{i}$ is 1 with probability $p$ and 0 otherwise. Write $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$.
- Binomial ( $S_{n}$ — number of heads in $n$ tosses), geometric (steps required to obtain one heads), negative binomial (steps required to obtain $n$ heads).
- Standard normal approximates law of $\frac{S_{n}-E\left[S_{n}\right]}{\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)}$. Here $E\left[S_{n}\right]=n p$ and $\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)=\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left(S_{n}\right)}=\sqrt{n p q}$ where $q=1-p$.
- Poisson is limit of binomial as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when $p=\lambda / n$.


## It's the coins, stupid

- Much of what we have done in this course can be motivated by the i.i.d. sequence $X_{i}$ where each $X_{i}$ is 1 with probability $p$ and 0 otherwise. Write $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$.
- Binomial ( $S_{n}$ - number of heads in $n$ tosses), geometric (steps required to obtain one heads), negative binomial (steps required to obtain $n$ heads).
- Standard normal approximates law of $\frac{S_{n}-E\left[S_{n}\right]}{\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)}$. Here $E\left[S_{n}\right]=n p$ and $\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)=\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left(S_{n}\right)}=\sqrt{n p q}$ where $q=1-p$.
- Poisson is limit of binomial as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when $p=\lambda / n$.
- Poisson point process: toss one $\lambda / n$ coin during each length $1 / n$ time increment, take $n \rightarrow \infty$ limit.


## It's the coins, stupid

- Much of what we have done in this course can be motivated by the i.i.d. sequence $X_{i}$ where each $X_{i}$ is 1 with probability $p$ and 0 otherwise. Write $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$.
- Binomial ( $S_{n}$ - number of heads in $n$ tosses), geometric (steps required to obtain one heads), negative binomial (steps required to obtain $n$ heads).
- Standard normal approximates law of $\frac{S_{n}-E\left[S_{n}\right]}{\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)}$. Here $E\left[S_{n}\right]=n p$ and $\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)=\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left(S_{n}\right)}=\sqrt{n p q}$ where $q=1-p$.
- Poisson is limit of binomial as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when $p=\lambda / n$.
- Poisson point process: toss one $\lambda / n$ coin during each length $1 / n$ time increment, take $n \rightarrow \infty$ limit.
- Exponential: time till first event in $\lambda$ Poisson point process.


## It's the coins, stupid

- Much of what we have done in this course can be motivated by the i.i.d. sequence $X_{i}$ where each $X_{i}$ is 1 with probability $p$ and 0 otherwise. Write $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{n}$.
- Binomial ( $S_{n}$ — number of heads in $n$ tosses), geometric (steps required to obtain one heads), negative binomial (steps required to obtain $n$ heads).
- Standard normal approximates law of $\frac{S_{n}-E\left[S_{n}\right]}{\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)}$. Here $E\left[S_{n}\right]=n p$ and $\operatorname{SD}\left(S_{n}\right)=\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}\left(S_{n}\right)}=\sqrt{n p q}$ where $q=1-p$.
- Poisson is limit of binomial as $n \rightarrow \infty$ when $p=\lambda / n$.
- Poisson point process: toss one $\lambda / n$ coin during each length $1 / n$ time increment, take $n \rightarrow \infty$ limit.
- Exponential: time till first event in $\lambda$ Poisson point process.
- Gamma distribution: time ${ }^{3}$ ill $n$th event in $\lambda$ Poisson point process.


# Discrete random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition 

- Sum of two independent binomial random variables with parameters $\left(n_{1}, p\right)$ and $\left(n_{2}, p\right)$ is itself binomial $\left(n_{1}+n_{2}, p\right)$.


## Discrete random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of two independent binomial random variables with parameters $\left(n_{1}, p\right)$ and $\left(n_{2}, p\right)$ is itself binomial $\left(n_{1}+n_{2}, p\right)$.
- Sum of $n$ independent geometric random variables with parameter $p$ is negative binomial with parameter $(n, p)$.


## Discrete random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of two independent binomial random variables with parameters $\left(n_{1}, p\right)$ and $\left(n_{2}, p\right)$ is itself binomial $\left(n_{1}+n_{2}, p\right)$.
- Sum of $n$ independent geometric random variables with parameter $p$ is negative binomial with parameter $(n, p)$.
- Expectation of geometric random variable with parameter $p$ is $1 / p$.


## Discrete random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of two independent binomial random variables with parameters $\left(n_{1}, p\right)$ and ( $\left.n_{2}, p\right)$ is itself binomial $\left(n_{1}+n_{2}, p\right)$.
- Sum of $n$ independent geometric random variables with parameter $p$ is negative binomial with parameter $(n, p)$.
- Expectation of geometric random variable with parameter $p$ is $1 / p$.
- Expectation of binomial random variable with parameters $(n, p)$ is $n p$.


## Discrete random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of two independent binomial random variables with parameters $\left(n_{1}, p\right)$ and ( $\left.n_{2}, p\right)$ is itself binomial $\left(n_{1}+n_{2}, p\right)$.
- Sum of $n$ independent geometric random variables with parameter $p$ is negative binomial with parameter $(n, p)$.
- Expectation of geometric random variable with parameter $p$ is $1 / p$.
- Expectation of binomial random variable with parameters $(n, p)$ is $n p$.
- Variance of binomial random variable with parameters $(n, p)$ is $n p(1-p)=n p q$.


## Continuous random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of $n$ independent exponential random variables each with parameter $\lambda$ is gamma with parameters $(n, \lambda)$.


## Continuous random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of $n$ independent exponential random variables each with parameter $\lambda$ is gamma with parameters $(n, \lambda)$.
- Memoryless properties: given that exponential random variable $X$ is greater than $T>0$, the conditional law of $X-T$ is the same as the original law of $X$.


## Continuous random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of $n$ independent exponential random variables each with parameter $\lambda$ is gamma with parameters $(n, \lambda)$.
- Memoryless properties: given that exponential random variable $X$ is greater than $T>0$, the conditional law of $X-T$ is the same as the original law of $X$.
- Write $p=\lambda / n$. Poisson random variable expectation is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n \frac{\lambda}{n}=\lambda$. Variance is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p(1-p)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n(1-\lambda / n) \lambda / n=\lambda$.


## Continuous random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of $n$ independent exponential random variables each with parameter $\lambda$ is gamma with parameters $(n, \lambda)$.
- Memoryless properties: given that exponential random variable $X$ is greater than $T>0$, the conditional law of $X-T$ is the same as the original law of $X$.
- Write $p=\lambda / n$. Poisson random variable expectation is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n \frac{\lambda}{n}=\lambda$. Variance is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p(1-p)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n(1-\lambda / n) \lambda / n=\lambda$.
- Sum of $\lambda_{1}$ Poisson and independent $\lambda_{2}$ Poisson is a $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}$ Poisson.


## Continuous random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of $n$ independent exponential random variables each with parameter $\lambda$ is gamma with parameters $(n, \lambda)$.
- Memoryless properties: given that exponential random variable $X$ is greater than $T>0$, the conditional law of $X-T$ is the same as the original law of $X$.
- Write $p=\lambda / n$. Poisson random variable expectation is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n \frac{\lambda}{n}=\lambda$. Variance is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p(1-p)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n(1-\lambda / n) \lambda / n=\lambda$.
- Sum of $\lambda_{1}$ Poisson and independent $\lambda_{2}$ Poisson is a $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}$ Poisson.
- Times between successive events in $\lambda$ Poisson process are independent exponentials with parameter $\lambda$.


## Continuous random variable properties derivable from coin toss intuition

- Sum of $n$ independent exponential random variables each with parameter $\lambda$ is gamma with parameters $(n, \lambda)$.
- Memoryless properties: given that exponential random variable $X$ is greater than $T>0$, the conditional law of $X-T$ is the same as the original law of $X$.
- Write $p=\lambda / n$. Poisson random variable expectation is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n \frac{\lambda}{n}=\lambda$. Variance is $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n p(1-p)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} n(1-\lambda / n) \lambda / n=\lambda$.
- Sum of $\lambda_{1}$ Poisson and independent $\lambda_{2}$ Poisson is a $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}$ Poisson.
- Times between successive events in $\lambda$ Poisson process are independent exponentials with parameter $\lambda$.
- Minimum of independent ${ }^{4}$ exponentials with parameters $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$ is itself exponential with parameter $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}$.


## DeMoivre-Laplace Limit Theorem

- DeMoivre-Laplace limit theorem (special case of central limit theorem):

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left\{a \leq \frac{S_{n}-n p}{\sqrt{n p q}} \leq b\right\} \rightarrow \Phi(b)-\Phi(a)
$$

## DeMoivre-Laplace Limit Theorem

- DeMoivre-Laplace limit theorem (special case of central limit theorem):

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left\{a \leq \frac{S_{n}-n p}{\sqrt{n p q}} \leq b\right\} \rightarrow \Phi(b)-\Phi(a)
$$

- This is $\Phi(b)-\Phi(a)=P\{a \leq X \leq b\}$ when $X$ is a standard normal random variable.


## Problems

- Toss a million fair coins. Approximate the probability that I get more than 501, 000 heads.


## Problems

- Toss a million fair coins. Approximate the probability that I get more than 501, 000 heads.
- Answer: well, $\sqrt{n p q}=\sqrt{10^{6} \times .5 \times .5}=500$. So we're asking for probability to be over two SDs above mean. This is approximately $1-\Phi(2)=\Phi(-2)$.


## Problems

- Toss a million fair coins. Approximate the probability that I get more than 501, 000 heads.
- Answer: well, $\sqrt{n p q}=\sqrt{10^{6} \times .5 \times .5}=500$. So we're asking for probability to be over two SDs above mean. This is approximately $1-\Phi(2)=\Phi(-2)$.
- Roll 60000 dice. Expect to see 10000 sixes. What's the probability to see more than 9800 ?


## Problems

- Toss a million fair coins. Approximate the probability that I get more than 501, 000 heads.
- Answer: well, $\sqrt{n p q}=\sqrt{10^{6} \times .5 \times .5}=500$. So we're asking for probability to be over two SDs above mean. This is approximately $1-\Phi(2)=\Phi(-2)$.
- Roll 60000 dice. Expect to see 10000 sixes. What's the probability to see more than 9800 ?
- Here $\sqrt{n p q}=\sqrt{60000 \times \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{5}{6}} \approx 91.28$.


## Problems

- Toss a million fair coins. Approximate the probability that I get more than 501, 000 heads.
- Answer: well, $\sqrt{n p q}=\sqrt{10^{6} \times .5 \times .5}=500$. So we're asking for probability to be over two SDs above mean. This is approximately $1-\Phi(2)=\Phi(-2)$.
- Roll 60000 dice. Expect to see 10000 sixes. What's the probability to see more than 9800 ?
- Here $\sqrt{n p q}=\sqrt{60000 \times \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{5}{6}} \approx 91.28$.
- And $200 / 91.28 \approx 2.19$. Answer is about $1-\Phi(-2.19)$.


## Properties of normal random variables

- Say $X$ is a (standard) normal random variable if $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.


## Properties of normal random variables

- Say $X$ is a (standard) normal random variable if $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.
- Mean zero and variance one.


## Properties of normal random variables

- Say $X$ is a (standard) normal random variable if $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.
- Mean zero and variance one.
- The random variable $Y=\sigma X+\mu$ has variance $\sigma^{2}$ and expectation $\mu$.


## Properties of normal random variables

- Say $X$ is a (standard) normal random variable if $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.
- Mean zero and variance one.
- The random variable $Y=\sigma X+\mu$ has variance $\sigma^{2}$ and expectation $\mu$.
- $Y$ is said to be normal with parameters $\mu$ and $\sigma^{2}$. Its density function is $f_{Y}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^{2} / 2 \sigma^{2}}$.


## Properties of normal random variables

- Say $X$ is a (standard) normal random variable if $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.
- Mean zero and variance one.
- The random variable $Y=\sigma X+\mu$ has variance $\sigma^{2}$ and expectation $\mu$.
- $Y$ is said to be normal with parameters $\mu$ and $\sigma^{2}$. Its density function is $f_{Y}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^{2} / 2 \sigma^{2}}$.
- Function $\Phi(a)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{a} e^{-x^{2} / 2} d x$ can't be computed explicitly.


## Properties of normal random variables

- Say $X$ is a (standard) normal random variable if $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.
- Mean zero and variance one.
- The random variable $Y=\sigma X+\mu$ has variance $\sigma^{2}$ and expectation $\mu$.
- $Y$ is said to be normal with parameters $\mu$ and $\sigma^{2}$. Its density function is $f_{Y}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^{2} / 2 \sigma^{2}}$.
- Function $\Phi(a)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{a} e^{-x^{2} / 2} d x$ can't be computed explicitly.
- Values: $\Phi(-3) \approx .0013, \Phi(-2) \approx .023$ and $\Phi(-1) \approx .159$.


## Properties of normal random variables

- Say $X$ is a (standard) normal random variable if $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.
- Mean zero and variance one.
- The random variable $Y=\sigma X+\mu$ has variance $\sigma^{2}$ and expectation $\mu$.
- $Y$ is said to be normal with parameters $\mu$ and $\sigma^{2}$. Its density function is $f_{Y}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^{2} / 2 \sigma^{2}}$.
- Function $\Phi(a)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{a} e^{-x^{2} / 2} d x$ can't be computed explicitly.
- Values: $\Phi(-3) \approx .0013, \Phi(-2) \approx .023$ and $\Phi(-1) \approx .159$.
- Rule of thumb: "two thirds of time within one SD of mean, 95 percent of time within $2{ }_{55}{ }_{5}$ Ds of mean."


## Properties of exponential random variables

- Say $X$ is an exponential random variable of parameter $\lambda$ when its probability distribution function is $f(x)=\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$ (and $f(x)=0$ if $x<0$ ).


## Properties of exponential random variables

- Say $X$ is an exponential random variable of parameter $\lambda$ when its probability distribution function is $f(x)=\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$ (and $f(x)=0$ if $x<0$ ).
- For $a>0$ have

$$
F_{X}(a)=\int_{0}^{a} f(x) d x=\int_{0}^{a} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} d x=-e^{-\lambda x a}{ }_{0}^{a}=1-e^{-\lambda a} .
$$

## Properties of exponential random variables

- Say $X$ is an exponential random variable of parameter $\lambda$ when its probability distribution function is $f(x)=\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$ (and $f(x)=0$ if $x<0$ ).
- For $a>0$ have

$$
F_{X}(a)=\int_{0}^{a} f(x) d x=\int_{0}^{a} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} d x=-e^{-\lambda x a}=1-e^{-\lambda a}
$$

- Thus $P\{X<a\}=1-e^{-\lambda a}$ and $P\{X>a\}=e^{-\lambda a}$.


## Properties of exponential random variables

- Say $X$ is an exponential random variable of parameter $\lambda$ when its probability distribution function is $f(x)=\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$ (and $f(x)=0$ if $x<0$ ).
- For $a>0$ have

$$
F_{X}(a)=\int_{0}^{a} f(x) d x=\int_{0}^{a} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} d x=-e^{-\lambda x a}=1-e^{-\lambda a}
$$

- Thus $P\{X<a\}=1-e^{-\lambda a}$ and $P\{X>a\}=e^{-\lambda a}$.
- Formula $P\{X>a\}=e^{-\lambda a}$ is very important in practice.


## Properties of exponential random variables

- Say $X$ is an exponential random variable of parameter $\lambda$ when its probability distribution function is $f(x)=\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$ (and $f(x)=0$ if $x<0$ ).
- For $a>0$ have

$$
F_{X}(a)=\int_{0}^{a} f(x) d x=\int_{0}^{a} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} d x=-e^{-\lambda x a}=1-e^{-\lambda a}
$$

- Thus $P\{X<a\}=1-e^{-\lambda a}$ and $P\{X>a\}=e^{-\lambda a}$.
- Formula $P\{X>a\}=e^{-\lambda a}$ is very important in practice.
- Repeated integration by parts gives $E\left[X^{n}\right]=n!/ \lambda^{n}$.


## Properties of exponential random variables

- Say $X$ is an exponential random variable of parameter $\lambda$ when its probability distribution function is $f(x)=\lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0($ and $f(x)=0$ if $x<0)$.
- For $a>0$ have

$$
F_{X}(a)=\int_{0}^{a} f(x) d x=\int_{0}^{a} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} d x=-e^{-\lambda x a}{ }_{0}^{a}=1-e^{-\lambda a} .
$$

- Thus $P\{X<a\}=1-e^{-\lambda a}$ and $P\{X>a\}=e^{-\lambda a}$.
- Formula $P\{X>a\}=e^{-\lambda a}$ is very important in practice.
- Repeated integration by parts gives $E\left[X^{n}\right]=n!/ \lambda^{n}$.
- If $\lambda=1$, then $E\left[X^{n}\right]=n!$. Value $\Gamma(n):=E\left[X^{n-1}\right]$ defined for real $n>0$ and $\Gamma(n)=(n-1)$ !.


## Defining $\Gamma$ distribution

- Say that random variable $X$ has gamma distribution with parameters $(\alpha, \lambda)$ if $f_{X}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\frac{(\lambda x)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \lambda}{\Gamma(\alpha)} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x<0\end{array}\right.$.


## Defining $\Gamma$ distribution

- Say that random variable $X$ has gamma distribution with parameters $(\alpha, \lambda)$ if $f_{X}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\frac{(\lambda x)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \lambda}{\Gamma(\alpha)} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x<0\end{array}\right.$.
- Same as exponential distribution when $\alpha=1$. Otherwise, multiply by $x^{\alpha-1}$ and divide by $\Gamma(\alpha)$. The fact that $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is what you need to divide by to make the total integral one just follows from the definition of $\Gamma$.


## Defining $\Gamma$ distribution

- Say that random variable $X$ has gamma distribution with parameters $(\alpha, \lambda)$ if $f_{X}(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\frac{(\lambda x)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \lambda}{\Gamma(\alpha)} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x<0\end{array}\right.$.
- Same as exponential distribution when $\alpha=1$. Otherwise, multiply by $x^{\alpha-1}$ and divide by $\Gamma(\alpha)$. The fact that $\Gamma(\alpha)$ is what you need to divide by to make the total integral one just follows from the definition of $\Gamma$.
- Waiting time interpretation makes sense only for integer $\alpha$, but distribution is defined for general positive $\alpha$.


## Outline

Continuous random variables

Problems motivated by coin tossing

Random variable properties

## Outline

# Continuous random variables <br> <br> Problems motivated by coin tossing 

 <br> <br> Problems motivated by coin tossing}

Random variable properties

## Properties of uniform random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a random variable with probability density
function $f(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{\beta-\alpha} & x \in[\alpha, \beta] \\ 0 & x \notin[\alpha, \beta] .\end{cases}$


## Properties of uniform random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a random variable with probability density function $f(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{\beta-\alpha} & x \in[\alpha, \beta] \\ 0 & x \notin[\alpha, \beta] .\end{cases}$
- Then $E[X]=\frac{\alpha+\beta}{2}$.


## Properties of uniform random variables

- Suppose $X$ is a random variable with probability density function $f(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{\beta-\alpha} & x \in[\alpha, \beta] \\ 0 & x \notin[\alpha, \beta] .\end{cases}$
- Then $E[X]=\frac{\alpha+\beta}{2}$.
- And $\operatorname{Var}[X]=\operatorname{Var}[(\beta-\alpha) Y+\alpha]=\operatorname{Var}[(\beta-\alpha) Y]=$ $(\beta-\alpha)^{2} \operatorname{Var}[Y]=(\beta-\alpha)^{2} / 12$.


## Distribution of function of random variable

- Suppose $P\{X \leq a\}=F_{X}(a)$ is known for all a. Write $Y=X^{3}$. What is $P\{Y \leq 27\}$ ?


## Distribution of function of random variable

- Suppose $P\{X \leq a\}=F_{X}(a)$ is known for all a. Write $Y=X^{3}$. What is $P\{Y \leq 27\}$ ?
- Answer: note that $Y \leq 27$ if and only if $X \leq 3$. Hence $P\{Y \leq 27\}=P\{X \leq 3\}=F_{X}(3)$.


## Distribution of function of random variable

- Suppose $P\{X \leq a\}=F_{X}(a)$ is known for all a. Write $Y=X^{3}$. What is $P\{Y \leq 27\}$ ?
- Answer: note that $Y \leq 27$ if and only if $X \leq 3$. Hence $P\{Y \leq 27\}=P\{X \leq 3\}=F_{X}(3)$.
- Generally $F_{Y}(a)=P\{Y \leq a\}=P\left\{X \leq a^{1 / 3}\right\}=F_{X}\left(a^{1 / 3}\right)$


## Distribution of function of random variable

- Suppose $P\{X \leq a\}=F_{X}(a)$ is known for all a. Write $Y=X^{3}$. What is $P\{Y \leq 27\}$ ?
- Answer: note that $Y \leq 27$ if and only if $X \leq 3$. Hence $P\{Y \leq 27\}=P\{X \leq 3\}=F_{X}(3)$.
- Generally $F_{Y}(a)=P\{Y \leq a\}=P\left\{X \leq a^{1 / 3}\right\}=F_{X}\left(a^{1 / 3}\right)$
- This is a general principle. If $X$ is a continuous random variable and $g$ is a strictly increasing function of $x$ and $Y=g(X)$, then $F_{Y}(a)=F_{X}\left(g^{-1}(a)\right)$.


## Joint probability mass functions: discrete random variables

- If $X$ and $Y$ assume values in $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ then we can view $A_{i, j}=P\{X=i, Y=j\}$ as the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix.


## Joint probability mass functions: discrete random variables

- If $X$ and $Y$ assume values in $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ then we can view $A_{i, j}=P\{X=i, Y=j\}$ as the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix.
- Let's say I don't care about $Y$. I just want to know $P\{X=i\}$. How do I figure that out from the matrix?


## Joint probability mass functions: discrete random variables

- If $X$ and $Y$ assume values in $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ then we can view $A_{i, j}=P\{X=i, Y=j\}$ as the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix.
- Let's say I don't care about $Y$. I just want to know $P\{X=i\}$. How do I figure that out from the matrix?
- Answer: $P\{X=i\}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.


## Joint probability mass functions: discrete random variables

- If $X$ and $Y$ assume values in $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ then we can view $A_{i, j}=P\{X=i, Y=j\}$ as the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix.
- Let's say I don't care about $Y$. I just want to know $P\{X=i\}$. How do I figure that out from the matrix?
- Answer: $P\{X=i\}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.
- Similarly, $P\{Y=j\}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.


## Joint probability mass functions: discrete random variables

- If $X$ and $Y$ assume values in $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ then we can view $A_{i, j}=P\{X=i, Y=j\}$ as the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix.
- Let's say I don't care about $Y$. I just want to know $P\{X=i\}$. How do I figure that out from the matrix?
- Answer: $P\{X=i\}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.
- Similarly, $P\{Y=j\}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.
- In other words, the probability mass functions for $X$ and $Y$ are the row and columns sums of $A_{i, j}$.


## Joint probability mass functions: discrete random variables

- If $X$ and $Y$ assume values in $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ then we can view $A_{i, j}=P\{X=i, Y=j\}$ as the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix.
- Let's say I don't care about $Y$. I just want to know $P\{X=i\}$. How do I figure that out from the matrix?
- Answer: $P\{X=i\}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.
- Similarly, $P\{Y=j\}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.
- In other words, the probability mass functions for $X$ and $Y$ are the row and columns sums of $A_{i, j}$.
- Given the joint distribution of $X$ and $Y$, we sometimes call distribution of $X$ (ignoring $Y$ ) and distribution of $Y$ (ignoring $X$ ) the marginal distributions.


## Joint probability mass functions: discrete random variables

- If $X$ and $Y$ assume values in $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ then we can view $A_{i, j}=P\{X=i, Y=j\}$ as the entries of an $n \times n$ matrix.
- Let's say I don't care about $Y$. I just want to know $P\{X=i\}$. How do I figure that out from the matrix?
- Answer: $P\{X=i\}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.
- Similarly, $P\{Y=j\}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i, j}$.
- In other words, the probability mass functions for $X$ and $Y$ are the row and columns sums of $A_{i, j}$.
- Given the joint distribution of $X$ and $Y$, we sometimes call distribution of $X$ (ignoring $Y$ ) and distribution of $Y$ (ignoring $X$ ) the marginal distributions.
- In general, when $X$ and $Y$ are jointly defined discrete random variables, we write $p(x, y)=800_{X, Y}(x, y)=P\{X=x, Y=y\}$.


## Joint distribution functions: continuous random variables

- Given random variables $X$ and $Y$, define $F(a, b)=P\{X \leq a, Y \leq b\}$.


## Joint distribution functions: continuous random variables

- Given random variables $X$ and $Y$, define $F(a, b)=P\{X \leq a, Y \leq b\}$.
- The region $\{(x, y): x \leq a, y \leq b\}$ is the lower left "quadrant" centered at $(a, b)$.


## Joint distribution functions: continuous random variables

- Given random variables $X$ and $Y$, define $F(a, b)=P\{X \leq a, Y \leq b\}$.
- The region $\{(x, y): x \leq a, y \leq b\}$ is the lower left "quadrant" centered at $(a, b)$.
- Refer to $F_{X}(a)=P\{X \leq a\}$ and $F_{Y}(b)=P\{Y \leq b\}$ as marginal cumulative distribution functions.


## Joint distribution functions: continuous random variables

- Given random variables $X$ and $Y$, define $F(a, b)=P\{X \leq a, Y \leq b\}$.
- The region $\{(x, y): x \leq a, y \leq b\}$ is the lower left "quadrant" centered at $(a, b)$.
- Refer to $F_{X}(a)=P\{X \leq a\}$ and $F_{Y}(b)=P\{Y \leq b\}$ as marginal cumulative distribution functions.
- Question: if I tell you the two parameter function $F$, can you use it to determine the marginals $F_{X}$ and $F_{Y}$ ?


## Joint distribution functions: continuous random variables

- Given random variables $X$ and $Y$, define $F(a, b)=P\{X \leq a, Y \leq b\}$.
- The region $\{(x, y): x \leq a, y \leq b\}$ is the lower left "quadrant" centered at $(a, b)$.
- Refer to $F_{X}(a)=P\{X \leq a\}$ and $F_{Y}(b)=P\{Y \leq b\}$ as marginal cumulative distribution functions.
- Question: if I tell you the two parameter function $F$, can you use it to determine the marginals $F_{X}$ and $F_{Y}$ ?
- Answer: Yes. $F_{X}(a)=\lim _{b \rightarrow \infty} F(a, b)$ and $F_{Y}(b)=\lim _{a \rightarrow \infty} F(a, b)$.


## Joint distribution functions: continuous random variables

- Given random variables $X$ and $Y$, define $F(a, b)=P\{X \leq a, Y \leq b\}$.
- The region $\{(x, y): x \leq a, y \leq b\}$ is the lower left "quadrant" centered at $(a, b)$.
- Refer to $F_{X}(a)=P\{X \leq a\}$ and $F_{Y}(b)=P\{Y \leq b\}$ as marginal cumulative distribution functions.
- Question: if I tell you the two parameter function $F$, can you use it to determine the marginals $F_{X}$ and $F_{Y}$ ?
- Answer: Yes. $F_{X}(a)=\lim _{b \rightarrow \infty} F(a, b)$ and $F_{Y}(b)=\lim _{a \rightarrow \infty} F(a, b)$.
- Density: $f(x, y)=\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} F(x, y)$.


## Independent random variables

- We say $X$ and $Y$ are independent if for any two (measurable) sets $A$ and $B$ of real numbers we have

$$
P\{X \in A, Y \in B\}=P\{X \in A\} P\{Y \in B\}
$$

## Independent random variables

- We say $X$ and $Y$ are independent if for any two (measurable) sets $A$ and $B$ of real numbers we have

$$
P\{X \in A, Y \in B\}=P\{X \in A\} P\{Y \in B\}
$$

- When $X$ and $Y$ are discrete random variables, they are independent if $P\{X=x, Y=y\}=P\{X=x\} P\{Y=y\}$ for all $x$ and $y$ for which $P\{X=x\}$ and $P\{Y=y\}$ are non-zero.


## Independent random variables

- We say $X$ and $Y$ are independent if for any two (measurable) sets $A$ and $B$ of real numbers we have

$$
P\{X \in A, Y \in B\}=P\{X \in A\} P\{Y \in B\}
$$

- When $X$ and $Y$ are discrete random variables, they are independent if $P\{X=x, Y=y\}=P\{X=x\} P\{Y=y\}$ for all $x$ and $y$ for which $P\{X=x\}$ and $P\{Y=y\}$ are non-zero.
- When $X$ and $Y$ are continuous, they are independent if $f(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)$.


## Summing two random variables

- Say we have independent random variables $X$ and $Y$ and we know their density functions $f_{X}$ and $f_{Y}$.


## Summing two random variables

- Say we have independent random variables $X$ and $Y$ and we know their density functions $f_{X}$ and $f_{Y}$.
- Now let's try to find $F_{X+Y}(a)=P\{X+Y \leq a\}$.


## Summing two random variables

- Say we have independent random variables $X$ and $Y$ and we know their density functions $f_{X}$ and $f_{Y}$.
- Now let's try to find $F_{X+Y}(a)=P\{X+Y \leq a\}$.
- This is the integral over $\{(x, y): x+y \leq a\}$ of $f(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)$. Thus,


## Summing two random variables

- Say we have independent random variables $X$ and $Y$ and we know their density functions $f_{X}$ and $f_{Y}$.
- Now let's try to find $F_{X+Y}(a)=P\{X+Y \leq a\}$.
- This is the integral over $\{(x, y): x+y \leq a\}$ of $f(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\{X+Y & \leq a\}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{a-y} f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y) d x d y \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_{X}(a-y) f_{Y}(y) d y
\end{aligned}
$$

## Summing two random variables

- Say we have independent random variables $X$ and $Y$ and we know their density functions $f_{X}$ and $f_{Y}$.
- Now let's try to find $F_{X+Y}(a)=P\{X+Y \leq a\}$.
- This is the integral over $\{(x, y): x+y \leq a\}$ of $f(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\{X+Y & \leq a\}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{a-y} f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y) d x d y \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_{X}(a-y) f_{Y}(y) d y
\end{aligned}
$$

- Differentiating both sides gives $f_{X+Y}(a)=\frac{d}{d a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_{X}(a-y) f_{Y}(y) d y=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X}(a-y) f_{Y}(y) d y$.


## Summing two random variables

- Say we have independent random variables $X$ and $Y$ and we know their density functions $f_{X}$ and $f_{Y}$.
- Now let's try to find $F_{X+Y}(a)=P\{X+Y \leq a\}$.
- This is the integral over $\{(x, y): x+y \leq a\}$ of $f(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\{X+Y & \leq a\}=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{a-y} f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y) d x d y \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_{X}(a-y) f_{Y}(y) d y
\end{aligned}
$$

- Differentiating both sides gives $f_{X+Y}(a)=\frac{d}{d a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_{X}(a-y) f_{Y}(y) d y=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X}(a-y) f_{Y}(y) d y$.
- Latter formula makes some intuitive sense. We're integrating over the set of $x, y$ pairs that add up to $a$.


## Conditional distributions

- Let's say $X$ and $Y$ have joint probability density function $f(x, y)$.


## Conditional distributions

- Let's say $X$ and $Y$ have joint probability density function $f(x, y)$.
- We can define the conditional probability density of $X$ given that $Y=y$ by $f_{X \mid Y=y}(x)=\frac{f(x, y)}{f_{Y}(y)}$.


## Conditional distributions

- Let's say $X$ and $Y$ have joint probability density function $f(x, y)$.
- We can define the conditional probability density of $X$ given that $Y=y$ by $f_{X \mid Y=y}(x)=\frac{f(x, y)}{f_{Y}(y)}$.
- This amounts to restricting $f(x, y)$ to the line corresponding to the given $y$ value (and dividing by the constant that makes the integral along that line equal to 1 ).


## Maxima: pick five job candidates at random, choose best

- Suppose $I$ choose $n$ random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ uniformly at random on $[0,1]$, independently of each other.


## Maxima: pick five job candidates at random, choose best

- Suppose $I$ choose $n$ random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ uniformly at random on $[0,1]$, independently of each other.
- The $n$-tuple $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ has a constant density function on the $n$-dimensional cube $[0,1]^{n}$.


## Maxima: pick five job candidates at random, choose best

- Suppose $I$ choose $n$ random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ uniformly at random on $[0,1]$, independently of each other.
- The $n$-tuple $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ has a constant density function on the $n$-dimensional cube $[0,1]^{n}$.
- What is the probability that the largest of the $X_{i}$ is less than $a$ ?


## Maxima: pick five job candidates at random, choose best

- Suppose $I$ choose $n$ random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ uniformly at random on $[0,1]$, independently of each other.
- The $n$-tuple $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ has a constant density function on the $n$-dimensional cube $[0,1]^{n}$.
- What is the probability that the largest of the $X_{i}$ is less than a?
- ANSWER: $a^{n}$.


## Maxima: pick five job candidates at random, choose best

- Suppose $I$ choose $n$ random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ uniformly at random on $[0,1]$, independently of each other.
- The $n$-tuple $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ has a constant density function on the $n$-dimensional cube $[0,1]^{n}$.
- What is the probability that the largest of the $X_{i}$ is less than a?
- ANSWER: $a^{n}$.
- So if $X=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$, then what is the probability density function of $X$ ?


## Maxima: pick five job candidates at random, choose best

- Suppose $I$ choose $n$ random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ uniformly at random on $[0,1]$, independently of each other.
- The $n$-tuple $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ has a constant density function on the $n$-dimensional cube $[0,1]^{n}$.
- What is the probability that the largest of the $X_{i}$ is less than a?
- ANSWER: $a^{n}$.
- So if $X=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$, then what is the probability density function of $X$ ?
- Answer: $F_{X}(a)= \begin{cases}0 & a<0 \\ a^{n} & a \in[0,1] . \text { And } \\ 1 & a>1\end{cases}$ $f_{x}(a)=F_{X}^{\prime}(a)=n a^{n-1} . \quad 104$


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.
- Let $Y_{1}<Y_{2}<Y_{3} \ldots<Y_{n}$ be list obtained by sorting the $X_{j}$.


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.
- Let $Y_{1}<Y_{2}<Y_{3} \ldots<Y_{n}$ be list obtained by sorting the $X_{j}$.
- In particular, $Y_{1}=\min \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ and $Y_{n}=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ is the maximum.


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.
- Let $Y_{1}<Y_{2}<Y_{3} \ldots<Y_{n}$ be list obtained by sorting the $X_{j}$.
- In particular, $Y_{1}=\min \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ and $Y_{n}=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ is the maximum.
- What is the joint probability density of the $Y_{i}$ ?


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.
- Let $Y_{1}<Y_{2}<Y_{3} \ldots<Y_{n}$ be list obtained by sorting the $X_{j}$.
- In particular, $Y_{1}=\min \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ and $Y_{n}=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ is the maximum.
- What is the joint probability density of the $Y_{i}$ ?
- Answer: $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=n!\prod_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}\right)$ if $x_{1}<x_{2} \ldots<x_{n}$, zero otherwise.


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.
- Let $Y_{1}<Y_{2}<Y_{3} \ldots<Y_{n}$ be list obtained by sorting the $X_{j}$.
- In particular, $Y_{1}=\min \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ and $Y_{n}=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ is the maximum.
- What is the joint probability density of the $Y_{i}$ ?
- Answer: $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=n!\prod_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}\right)$ if $x_{1}<x_{2} \ldots<x_{n}$, zero otherwise.
- Let $\sigma:\{1,2, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ be the permutation such that $X_{j}=Y_{\sigma(j)}$


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.
- Let $Y_{1}<Y_{2}<Y_{3} \ldots<Y_{n}$ be list obtained by sorting the $X_{j}$.
- In particular, $Y_{1}=\min \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ and $Y_{n}=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ is the maximum.
- What is the joint probability density of the $Y_{i}$ ?
- Answer: $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=n!\prod_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}\right)$ if $x_{1}<x_{2} \ldots<x_{n}$, zero otherwise.
- Let $\sigma:\{1,2, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ be the permutation such that $X_{j}=Y_{\sigma(j)}$
- Are $\sigma$ and the vector $\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n}\right)$ independent of each other?


## General order statistics

- Consider i.i.d random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with continuous probability density $f$.
- Let $Y_{1}<Y_{2}<Y_{3} \ldots<Y_{n}$ be list obtained by sorting the $X_{j}$.
- In particular, $Y_{1}=\min \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ and $Y_{n}=\max \left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ is the maximum.
- What is the joint probability density of the $Y_{i}$ ?
- Answer: $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=n!\prod_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}\right)$ if $x_{1}<x_{2} \ldots<x_{n}$, zero otherwise.
- Let $\sigma:\{1,2, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ be the permutation such that $X_{j}=Y_{\sigma(j)}$
- Are $\sigma$ and the vector $\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n}\right)$ independent of each other?
- Yes.


## Properties of expectation

- Several properties we derived for discrete expectations continue to hold in the continuum.


## Properties of expectation

- Several properties we derived for discrete expectations continue to hold in the continuum.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[X]=\sum_{x} p(x) x$.


## Properties of expectation

- Several properties we derived for discrete expectations continue to hold in the continuum.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[X]=\sum_{x} p(x) x$.
- Similarly, if $X$ is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[X]=\int f(x) x d x$.


## Properties of expectation

- Several properties we derived for discrete expectations continue to hold in the continuum.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[X]=\sum_{x} p(x) x$.
- Similarly, if $X$ is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[X]=\int f(x) x d x$.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[g(x)]=\sum_{x} p(x) g(x)$.


## Properties of expectation

- Several properties we derived for discrete expectations continue to hold in the continuum.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[X]=\sum_{x} p(x) x$.
- Similarly, if $X$ is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[X]=\int f(x) x d x$.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[g(x)]=\sum_{x} p(x) g(x)$.
- Similarly, $X$ if is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[g(X)]=\int f(x) g(x) d x$.


## Properties of expectation

- Several properties we derived for discrete expectations continue to hold in the continuum.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[X]=\sum_{x} p(x) x$.
- Similarly, if $X$ is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[X]=\int f(x) x d x$.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[g(x)]=\sum_{x} p(x) g(x)$.
- Similarly, $X$ if is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[g(X)]=\int f(x) g(x) d x$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ have joint mass function $p(x, y)$ then $E[g(X, Y)]=\sum_{y} \sum_{x} g(x, y) p(x, y)$.


## Properties of expectation

- Several properties we derived for discrete expectations continue to hold in the continuum.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[X]=\sum_{x} p(x) x$.
- Similarly, if $X$ is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[X]=\int f(x) x d x$.
- If $X$ is discrete with mass function $p(x)$ then $E[g(x)]=\sum_{x} p(x) g(x)$.
- Similarly, $X$ if is continuous with density function $f(x)$ then $E[g(X)]=\int f(x) g(x) d x$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ have joint mass function $p(x, y)$ then $E[g(X, Y)]=\sum_{y} \sum_{x} g(x, y) p(x, y)$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ have joint probability density function $f(x, y)$ then $E[g(X, Y)]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, y) f(x, y) d x d y$.


## Properties of expectation

- For both discrete and continuous random variables $X$ and $Y$ we have $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.


## Properties of expectation

- For both discrete and continuous random variables $X$ and $Y$ we have $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.
- In both discrete and continuous settings, $E[a X]=a E[X]$ when $a$ is a constant. And $E\left[\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right]=\sum a_{i} E\left[X_{i}\right]$.


## Properties of expectation

- For both discrete and continuous random variables $X$ and $Y$ we have $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.
- In both discrete and continuous settings, $E[a X]=a E[X]$ when $a$ is a constant. And $E\left[\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right]=\sum a_{i} E\left[X_{i}\right]$.
- But what about that delightful "area under $1-F_{X}$ " formula for the expectation?


## Properties of expectation

- For both discrete and continuous random variables $X$ and $Y$ we have $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.
- In both discrete and continuous settings, $E[a X]=a E[X]$ when $a$ is a constant. And $E\left[\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right]=\sum a_{i} E\left[X_{i}\right]$.
- But what about that delightful "area under $1-F_{X}$ " formula for the expectation?
- When $X$ is non-negative with probability one, do we always have $E[X]=\int_{0}^{\infty} P\{X>x\}$, in both discrete and continuous settings?


## Properties of expectation

- For both discrete and continuous random variables $X$ and $Y$ we have $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.
- In both discrete and continuous settings, $E[a X]=a E[X]$ when $a$ is a constant. And $E\left[\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right]=\sum a_{i} E\left[X_{i}\right]$.
- But what about that delightful "area under $1-F_{X}$ " formula for the expectation?
- When $X$ is non-negative with probability one, do we always have $E[X]=\int_{0}^{\infty} P\{X>x\}$, in both discrete and continuous settings?
- Define $g(y)$ so that $1-F_{X}(g(y))=y$. (Draw horizontal line at height $y$ and look where it hits graph of $1-F_{X}$.)


## Properties of expectation

- For both discrete and continuous random variables $X$ and $Y$ we have $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.
- In both discrete and continuous settings, $E[a X]=a E[X]$ when $a$ is a constant. And $E\left[\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right]=\sum a_{i} E\left[X_{i}\right]$.
- But what about that delightful "area under $1-F_{X}$ " formula for the expectation?
- When $X$ is non-negative with probability one, do we always have $E[X]=\int_{0}^{\infty} P\{X>x\}$, in both discrete and continuous settings?
- Define $g(y)$ so that $1-F_{X}(g(y))=y$. (Draw horizontal line at height $y$ and look where it hits graph of $1-F_{X}$.)
- Choose $Y$ uniformly on $[0,1]$ and note that $g(Y)$ has the same probability distribution as $X$.


## Properties of expectation

- For both discrete and continuous random variables $X$ and $Y$ we have $E[X+Y]=E[X]+E[Y]$.
- In both discrete and continuous settings, $E[a X]=a E[X]$ when $a$ is a constant. And $E\left[\sum a_{i} X_{i}\right]=\sum a_{i} E\left[X_{i}\right]$.
- But what about that delightful "area under $1-F_{X}$ " formula for the expectation?
- When $X$ is non-negative with probability one, do we always have $E[X]=\int_{0}^{\infty} P\{X>x\}$, in both discrete and continuous settings?
- Define $g(y)$ so that $1-F_{X}(g(y))=y$. (Draw horizontal line at height $y$ and look where it hits graph of $1-F_{X}$.)
- Choose $Y$ uniformly on $[0,1]$ and note that $g(Y)$ has the same probability distribution as $X$.
- So $E[X]=E[g(Y)]=\int_{0}^{1} g(26) d y$, which is indeed the area under the graph of $1-F_{X}$.


## A property of independence

- If $X$ and $Y$ are independent then $E[g(X) h(Y)]=E[g(X)] E[h(Y)]$.


## A property of independence

- If $X$ and $Y$ are independent then $E[g(X) h(Y)]=E[g(X)] E[h(Y)]$.
- Just write $E[g(X) h(Y)]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) h(y) f(x, y) d x d y$.


## A property of independence

- If $X$ and $Y$ are independent then $E[g(X) h(Y)]=E[g(X)] E[h(Y)]$.
- Just write $E[g(X) h(Y)]=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) h(y) f(x, y) d x d y$.
- Since $f(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)$ this factors as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f_{Y}(y) d y \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_{X}(x) d x=E[h(Y)] E[g(X)]$.


## Defining covariance and correlation

- Now define covariance of $X$ and $Y$ by $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[(X-E[X])(Y-E[Y])$.


## Defining covariance and correlation

- Now define covariance of $X$ and $Y$ by $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[(X-E[X])(Y-E[Y])$.
- Note: by definition $\operatorname{Var}(X)=\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)$.


## Defining covariance and correlation

- Now define covariance of $X$ and $Y$ by $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[(X-E[X])(Y-E[Y])$.
- Note: by definition $\operatorname{Var}(X)=\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)$.
- Covariance formula $E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$, or "expectation of product minus product of expectations" is frequently useful.


## Defining covariance and correlation

- Now define covariance of $X$ and $Y$ by $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[(X-E[X])(Y-E[Y])$.
- Note: by definition $\operatorname{Var}(X)=\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)$.
- Covariance formula $E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$, or "expectation of product minus product of expectations" is frequently useful.
- If $X$ and $Y$ are independent then $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=0$.


## Defining covariance and correlation

- Now define covariance of $X$ and $Y$ by $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[(X-E[X])(Y-E[Y])$.
- Note: by definition $\operatorname{Var}(X)=\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)$.
- Covariance formula $E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$, or "expectation of product minus product of expectations" is frequently useful.
- If $X$ and $Y$ are independent then $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=0$.
- Converse is not true.


## Basic covariance facts

- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y, X)$


## Basic covariance facts

- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y, X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)=\operatorname{Var}(X)$


## Basic covariance facts

- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y, X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)=\operatorname{Var}(X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(a X, Y)=a \operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)$.


## Basic covariance facts

- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y, X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)=\operatorname{Var}(X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(a X, Y)=a \operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)$.
- $\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{1}+X_{2}, Y\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{1}, Y\right)+\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{2}, Y\right)$.


## Basic covariance facts

- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y, X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)=\operatorname{Var}(X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(a X, Y)=a \operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)$.
- $\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{1}+X_{2}, Y\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{1}, Y\right)+\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{2}, Y\right)$.
- General statement of bilinearity of covariance:

$$
\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} X_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{j} Y_{j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{j} \operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{i}, Y_{j}\right)
$$

## Basic covariance facts

- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Cov}(Y, X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(X, X)=\operatorname{Var}(X)$
- $\operatorname{Cov}(a X, Y)=a \operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)$.
- $\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{1}+X_{2}, Y\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{1}, Y\right)+\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{2}, Y\right)$.
- General statement of bilinearity of covariance:

$$
\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{i} X_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_{j} Y_{j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{j} \operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{i}, Y_{j}\right)
$$

- Special case:

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Var}\left(X_{i}\right)+2 \sum_{(i, j): i<j} \operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{i}, X_{j}\right)
$$

## Defining correlation

- Again, by definition $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$.


## Defining correlation

- Again, by definition $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$.
- Correlation of $X$ and $Y$ defined by

$$
\rho(X, Y):=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X) \operatorname{Var}(Y)}}
$$

## Defining correlation

- Again, by definition $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$.
- Correlation of $X$ and $Y$ defined by

$$
\rho(X, Y):=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X) \operatorname{Var}(Y)}} .
$$

- Correlation doesn't care what units you use for $X$ and $Y$. If $a>0$ and $c>0$ then $\rho(a X+b, c Y+d)=\rho(X, Y)$.


## Defining correlation

- Again, by definition $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$.
- Correlation of $X$ and $Y$ defined by

$$
\rho(X, Y):=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X) \operatorname{Var}(Y)}} .
$$

- Correlation doesn't care what units you use for $X$ and $Y$. If $a>0$ and $c>0$ then $\rho(a X+b, c Y+d)=\rho(X, Y)$.
- Satisfies $-1 \leq \rho(X, Y) \leq 1$.


## Defining correlation

- Again, by definition $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$.
- Correlation of $X$ and $Y$ defined by

$$
\rho(X, Y):=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X) \operatorname{Var}(Y)}} .
$$

- Correlation doesn't care what units you use for $X$ and $Y$. If $a>0$ and $c>0$ then $\rho(a X+b, c Y+d)=\rho(X, Y)$.
- Satisfies $-1 \leq \rho(X, Y) \leq 1$.
- If $a$ and $b$ are positive constants and $a>0$ then $\rho(a X+b, X)=1$.


## Defining correlation

- Again, by definition $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)=E[X Y]-E[X] E[Y]$.
- Correlation of $X$ and $Y$ defined by

$$
\rho(X, Y):=\frac{\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}(X) \operatorname{Var}(Y)}} .
$$

- Correlation doesn't care what units you use for $X$ and $Y$. If $a>0$ and $c>0$ then $\rho(a X+b, c Y+d)=\rho(X, Y)$.
- Satisfies $-1 \leq \rho(X, Y) \leq 1$.
- If $a$ and $b$ are positive constants and $a>0$ then $\rho(a X+b, X)=1$.
- If $a$ and $b$ are positive constants and $a<0$ then $\rho(a X+b, X)=-1$.


## Conditional probability distributions

- It all starts with the definition of conditional probability: $P(A \mid B)=P(A B) / P(B)$.


## Conditional probability distributions

- It all starts with the definition of conditional probability: $P(A \mid B)=P(A B) / P(B)$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ are jointly discrete random variables, we can use this to define a probability mass function for $X$ given $Y=y$.


## Conditional probability distributions

- It all starts with the definition of conditional probability: $P(A \mid B)=P(A B) / P(B)$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ are jointly discrete random variables, we can use this to define a probability mass function for $X$ given $Y=y$.
- That is, we write $p_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y)=P\{X=x \mid Y=y\}=\frac{p(x, y)}{p_{Y}(y)}$.


## Conditional probability distributions

- It all starts with the definition of conditional probability: $P(A \mid B)=P(A B) / P(B)$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ are jointly discrete random variables, we can use this to define a probability mass function for $X$ given $Y=y$.
- That is, we write $p_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y)=P\{X=x \mid Y=y\}=\frac{p(x, y)}{p_{Y}(y)}$.
- In words: first restrict sample space to pairs $(x, y)$ with given $y$ value. Then divide the original mass function by $p_{Y}(y)$ to obtain a probability mass function on the restricted space.


## Conditional probability distributions

- It all starts with the definition of conditional probability: $P(A \mid B)=P(A B) / P(B)$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ are jointly discrete random variables, we can use this to define a probability mass function for $X$ given $Y=y$.
- That is, we write $p_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y)=P\{X=x \mid Y=y\}=\frac{p(x, y)}{p_{Y}(y)}$.
- In words: first restrict sample space to pairs $(x, y)$ with given $y$ value. Then divide the original mass function by $p_{Y}(y)$ to obtain a probability mass function on the restricted space.
- We do something similar when $X$ and $Y$ are continuous random variables. In that case we write $f_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y)=\frac{f(x, y)}{f_{Y}(y)}$.


## Conditional probability distributions

- It all starts with the definition of conditional probability: $P(A \mid B)=P(A B) / P(B)$.
- If $X$ and $Y$ are jointly discrete random variables, we can use this to define a probability mass function for $X$ given $Y=y$.
- That is, we write $p_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y)=P\{X=x \mid Y=y\}=\frac{p(x, y)}{p_{Y}(y)}$.
- In words: first restrict sample space to pairs $(x, y)$ with given $y$ value. Then divide the original mass function by $p_{Y}(y)$ to obtain a probability mass function on the restricted space.
- We do something similar when $X$ and $Y$ are continuous random variables. In that case we write $f_{X \mid Y}(x \mid y)=\frac{f(x, y)}{f_{Y}(y)}$.
- Often useful to think of sampling $(X, Y)$ as a two-stage process. First sample $Y$ from its marginal distribution, obtain $Y=y$ for some particular $y_{152}$ Then sample $X$ from its probability distribution given $Y=y$.


## Example

- Let $X$ be a random variable of variance $\sigma_{X}^{2}$ and $Y$ an independent random variable of variance $\sigma_{Y}^{2}$ and write $Z=X+Y$. Assume $E[X]=E[Y]=0$.


## Example

- Let $X$ be a random variable of variance $\sigma_{X}^{2}$ and $Y$ an independent random variable of variance $\sigma_{Y}^{2}$ and write $Z=X+Y$. Assume $E[X]=E[Y]=0$.
- What are the covariances $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)$ and $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Z)$ ?


## Example

- Let $X$ be a random variable of variance $\sigma_{X}^{2}$ and $Y$ an independent random variable of variance $\sigma_{Y}^{2}$ and write $Z=X+Y$. Assume $E[X]=E[Y]=0$.
- What are the covariances $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Y)$ and $\operatorname{Cov}(X, Z)$ ?
- How about the correlation coefficients $\rho(X, Y)$ and $\rho(X, Z)$ ?


## Examples

- If $X$ is binomial with parameters $(p, n)$ then $M_{X}(t)=\left(p e^{t}+1-p\right)^{n}$.


## Examples

- If $X$ is binomial with parameters $(p, n)$ then $M_{X}(t)=\left(p e^{t}+1-p\right)^{n}$.
- If $X$ is Poisson with parameter $\lambda>0$ then $M_{X}(t)=\exp \left[\lambda\left(e^{t}-1\right)\right]$.


## Examples

- If $X$ is binomial with parameters $(p, n)$ then $M_{X}(t)=\left(p e^{t}+1-p\right)^{n}$.
- If $X$ is Poisson with parameter $\lambda>0$ then $M_{X}(t)=\exp \left[\lambda\left(e^{t}-1\right)\right]$.
- If $X$ is normal with mean 0 , variance 1 , then $M_{X}(t)=e^{t^{2} / 2}$.


## Examples

- If $X$ is binomial with parameters $(p, n)$ then $M_{X}(t)=\left(p e^{t}+1-p\right)^{n}$.
- If $X$ is Poisson with parameter $\lambda>0$ then $M_{X}(t)=\exp \left[\lambda\left(e^{t}-1\right)\right]$.
- If $X$ is normal with mean 0 , variance 1 , then $M_{X}(t)=e^{t^{2} / 2}$.
- If $X$ is normal with mean $\mu$, variance $\sigma^{2}$, then $M_{X}(t)=e^{\sigma^{2} t^{2} / 2+\mu t}$.


## Examples

- If $X$ is binomial with parameters $(p, n)$ then $M_{X}(t)=\left(p e^{t}+1-p\right)^{n}$.
- If $X$ is Poisson with parameter $\lambda>0$ then $M_{X}(t)=\exp \left[\lambda\left(e^{t}-1\right)\right]$.
- If $X$ is normal with mean 0 , variance 1 , then $M_{X}(t)=e^{t^{2} / 2}$.
- If $X$ is normal with mean $\mu$, variance $\sigma^{2}$, then $M_{X}(t)=e^{\sigma^{2} t^{2} / 2+\mu t}$.
- If $X$ is exponential with parameter $\lambda>0$ then $M_{X}(t)=\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}$.


## Cauchy distribution

- A standard Cauchy random variable is a random real number with probability density $f(x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$.


## Cauchy distribution

- A standard Cauchy random variable is a random real number with probability density $f(x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$.
- There is a "spinning flashlight" interpretation. Put a flashlight at $(0,1)$, spin it to a uniformly random angle in $[-\pi / 2, \pi / 2]$, and consider point $X$ where light beam hits the $x$-axis.


## Cauchy distribution

- A standard Cauchy random variable is a random real number with probability density $f(x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$.
- There is a "spinning flashlight" interpretation. Put a flashlight at $(0,1)$, spin it to a uniformly random angle in $[-\pi / 2, \pi / 2]$, and consider point $X$ where light beam hits the $x$-axis.
- $F_{X}(x)=P\{X \leq x\}=P\{\tan \theta \leq x\}=P\left\{\theta \leq \tan ^{-1} x\right\}=$ $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\pi} \tan ^{-1} x$.


## Cauchy distribution

- A standard Cauchy random variable is a random real number with probability density $f(x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$.
- There is a "spinning flashlight" interpretation. Put a flashlight at $(0,1)$, spin it to a uniformly random angle in $[-\pi / 2, \pi / 2]$, and consider point $X$ where light beam hits the $x$-axis.
- $F_{X}(x)=P\{X \leq x\}=P\{\tan \theta \leq x\}=P\left\{\theta \leq \tan ^{-1} x\right\}=$ $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\pi} \tan ^{-1} x$.
- Find $f_{X}(x)=\frac{d}{d x} F(x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$.


## Cauchy distribution

- A standard Cauchy random variable is a random real number with probability density $f(x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$.
- There is a "spinning flashlight" interpretation. Put a flashlight at $(0,1)$, spin it to a uniformly random angle in $[-\pi / 2, \pi / 2]$, and consider point $X$ where light beam hits the $x$-axis.
- $F_{X}(x)=P\{X \leq x\}=P\{\tan \theta \leq x\}=P\left\{\theta \leq \tan ^{-1} x\right\}=$ $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\pi} \tan ^{-1} x$.
- Find $f_{X}(x)=\frac{d}{d x} F(x)=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$.
- Cool fact: if $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ are i.i.d. Cauchy then their average $A=\frac{X_{1}+X_{2}+\ldots+X_{n}}{n}$ is also Cauchy.


## Beta distribution

- Two part experiment: first let $p$ be uniform random variable $[0,1]$, then let $X$ be binomial $(n, p)$ (number of heads when we toss $n$ p-coins).


## Beta distribution

- Two part experiment: first let $p$ be uniform random variable $[0,1]$, then let $X$ be binomial $(n, p)$ (number of heads when we toss $n p$-coins).
- Given that $X=a-1$ and $n-X=b-1$ the conditional law of $p$ is called the $\beta$ distribution.


## Beta distribution

- Two part experiment: first let $p$ be uniform random variable $[0,1]$, then let $X$ be binomial $(n, p)$ (number of heads when we toss $n p$-coins).
- Given that $X=a-1$ and $n-X=b-1$ the conditional law of $p$ is called the $\beta$ distribution.
- The density function is a constant (that doesn't depend on $x$ ) times $x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}$.


## Beta distribution

- Two part experiment: first let $p$ be uniform random variable $[0,1]$, then let $X$ be binomial $(n, p)$ (number of heads when we toss $n$ p-coins).
- Given that $X=a-1$ and $n-X=b-1$ the conditional law of $p$ is called the $\beta$ distribution.
- The density function is a constant (that doesn't depend on $x$ ) times $x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}$.
- That is $f(x)=\frac{1}{B(a, b)} x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}$ on $[0,1]$, where $B(a, b)$ is constant chosen to make integral one. Can show $B(a, b)=\frac{\Gamma(a) \Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)}$.


## Beta distribution

- Two part experiment: first let $p$ be uniform random variable $[0,1]$, then let $X$ be binomial $(n, p)$ (number of heads when we toss $n$ p-coins).
- Given that $X=a-1$ and $n-X=b-1$ the conditional law of $p$ is called the $\beta$ distribution.
- The density function is a constant (that doesn't depend on $x$ ) times $x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}$.
- That is $f(x)=\frac{1}{B(a, b)} x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}$ on $[0,1]$, where $B(a, b)$ is constant chosen to make integral one. Can show $B(a, b)=\frac{\Gamma(a) \Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+b)}$.
- Turns out that $E[X]=\frac{a}{a+b}$ and the mode of $X$ is $\frac{(a-1)}{(a-1)+(b-1)}$.


## Moment generating functions

- Let $X$ be a random variable and $M(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$.


## Moment generating functions

- Let $X$ be a random variable and $M(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$.
- Then $M^{\prime}(0)=E[X]$ and $M^{\prime \prime}(0)=E\left[X^{2}\right]$. Generally, $n$th derivative of $M$ at zero is $E\left[X^{n}\right]$.


## Moment generating functions

- Let $X$ be a random variable and $M(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$.
- Then $M^{\prime}(0)=E[X]$ and $M^{\prime \prime}(0)=E\left[X^{2}\right]$. Generally, $n$th derivative of $M$ at zero is $E\left[X^{n}\right]$.
- Let $X$ and $Y$ be independent random variables and $Z=X+Y$.


## Moment generating functions

- Let $X$ be a random variable and $M(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$.
- Then $M^{\prime}(0)=E[X]$ and $M^{\prime \prime}(0)=E\left[X^{2}\right]$. Generally, $n$th derivative of $M$ at zero is $E\left[X^{n}\right]$.
- Let $X$ and $Y$ be independent random variables and $Z=X+Y$.
- Write the moment generating functions as $M_{X}(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$ and $M_{Y}(t)=E\left[e^{t Y}\right]$ and $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t Z}\right]$.


## Moment generating functions

- Let $X$ be a random variable and $M(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$.
- Then $M^{\prime}(0)=E[X]$ and $M^{\prime \prime}(0)=E\left[X^{2}\right]$. Generally, $n$th derivative of $M$ at zero is $E\left[X^{n}\right]$.
- Let $X$ and $Y$ be independent random variables and $Z=X+Y$.
- Write the moment generating functions as $M_{X}(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$ and $M_{Y}(t)=E\left[e^{t Y}\right]$ and $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t Z}\right]$.
- If you knew $M_{X}$ and $M_{Y}$, could you compute $M_{Z}$ ?


## Moment generating functions

- Let $X$ be a random variable and $M(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$.
- Then $M^{\prime}(0)=E[X]$ and $M^{\prime \prime}(0)=E\left[X^{2}\right]$. Generally, $n$th derivative of $M$ at zero is $E\left[X^{n}\right]$.
- Let $X$ and $Y$ be independent random variables and $Z=X+Y$.
- Write the moment generating functions as $M_{X}(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$ and $M_{Y}(t)=E\left[e^{t Y}\right]$ and $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t Z}\right]$.
- If you knew $M_{X}$ and $M_{Y}$, could you compute $M_{Z}$ ?
- By independence, $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t(X+Y)}\right]=E\left[e^{t X} e^{t Y}\right]=$ $E\left[e^{t X}\right] E\left[e^{t Y}\right]=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$ for all $t$.


## Moment generating functions

- Let $X$ be a random variable and $M(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$.
- Then $M^{\prime}(0)=E[X]$ and $M^{\prime \prime}(0)=E\left[X^{2}\right]$. Generally, $n$th derivative of $M$ at zero is $E\left[X^{n}\right]$.
- Let $X$ and $Y$ be independent random variables and $Z=X+Y$.
- Write the moment generating functions as $M_{X}(t)=E\left[e^{t X}\right]$ and $M_{Y}(t)=E\left[e^{t Y}\right]$ and $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t Z}\right]$.
- If you knew $M_{X}$ and $M_{Y}$, could you compute $M_{Z}$ ?
- By independence, $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t(X+Y)}\right]=E\left[e^{t X} e^{t Y}\right]=$ $E\left[e^{t X}\right] E\left[e^{t Y}\right]=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$ for all $t$.
- In other words, adding independent random variables corresponds to multiplying moment generating functions.


# Moment generating functions for sums of i.i.d. random variables 

- We showed that if $Z=X+Y$ and $X$ and $Y$ are independent, then $M_{Z}(t)=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$


# Moment generating functions for sums of i.i.d. random variables 

- We showed that if $Z=X+Y$ and $X$ and $Y$ are independent, then $M_{Z}(t)=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$
- If $X_{1} \ldots X_{n}$ are i.i.d. copies of $X$ and $Z=X_{1}+\ldots+X_{n}$ then what is $M_{Z}$ ?


## Moment generating functions for sums of i.i.d. random

 variables- We showed that if $Z=X+Y$ and $X$ and $Y$ are independent, then $M_{Z}(t)=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$
- If $X_{1} \ldots X_{n}$ are i.i.d. copies of $X$ and $Z=X_{1}+\ldots+X_{n}$ then what is $M_{Z}$ ?
- Answer: $M_{X}^{n}$. Follows by repeatedly applying formula above.


## Moment generating functions for sums of i.i.d. random

 variables- We showed that if $Z=X+Y$ and $X$ and $Y$ are independent, then $M_{Z}(t)=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$
- If $X_{1} \ldots X_{n}$ are i.i.d. copies of $X$ and $Z=X_{1}+\ldots+X_{n}$ then what is $M_{Z}$ ?
- Answer: $M_{X}^{n}$. Follows by repeatedly applying formula above.
- This a big reason for studying moment generating functions. It helps us understand what happens when we sum up a lot of independent copies of the same random variable.


## Moment generating functions for sums of i.i.d. random

 variables- We showed that if $Z=X+Y$ and $X$ and $Y$ are independent, then $M_{Z}(t)=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$
- If $X_{1} \ldots X_{n}$ are i.i.d. copies of $X$ and $Z=X_{1}+\ldots+X_{n}$ then what is $M_{Z}$ ?
- Answer: $M_{X}^{n}$. Follows by repeatedly applying formula above.
- This a big reason for studying moment generating functions. It helps us understand what happens when we sum up a lot of independent copies of the same random variable.
- If $Z=a X$ then $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t Z}\right]=E\left[e^{t a X}\right]=M_{X}(a t)$.


## Moment generating functions for sums of i.i.d. random

 variables- We showed that if $Z=X+Y$ and $X$ and $Y$ are independent, then $M_{Z}(t)=M_{X}(t) M_{Y}(t)$
- If $X_{1} \ldots X_{n}$ are i.i.d. copies of $X$ and $Z=X_{1}+\ldots+X_{n}$ then what is $M_{Z}$ ?
- Answer: $M_{X}^{n}$. Follows by repeatedly applying formula above.
- This a big reason for studying moment generating functions. It helps us understand what happens when we sum up a lot of independent copies of the same random variable.
- If $Z=a X$ then $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t Z}\right]=E\left[e^{t a X}\right]=M_{X}(a t)$.
- If $Z=X+b$ then $M_{Z}(t)=E\left[e^{t Z}\right]=E\left[e^{t X+b t}\right]=e^{b t} M_{X}(t)$.

MIT OpenCourseWare https://ocw.mit.edu

### 18.600 Probability and Random Variables

Fall 2019

For information about citing these materials or our Terms of Use, visit: https://ocw.mit.edu/terms.

