Math 447 - Probability

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BINGHAMTON UNIVERSITY

STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Chapter 1

Introduction

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Statistical techniques play an important role in achieving the objective of each of these practical situations.

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- Graphically, e.g. using a histogram to plot relative frequencies of, say, GPAs of students in the class, or
- Numerically, e.g. finding the average annual rainfall in California over the past 50 years and the deviation from this average quantity in a particular year.

We may also be interested in the *likelihood* of a certain event, e.g. drawing the Royalty (King and Queen) of *different* suits from a standard deck of cards.

Basic to inference making is the problem of calculating the *probability* of an observed sample.

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Throughout the notes, the words "Text" and "Book" will refer to the book mentioned above.





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- Bayes' Theorem Problem (e.g. Text 2.125)

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Surprise: *every* department reports that women are admitted at *higher* rates than men.

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"Simpson's Paradox"

Probability: simple, but not obvious. You have to do the work!

End of Chapter 1

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Chapter 2

Probability

Math 447 - Probability

Dikran Karagueuzian

SUNY-Binghamton

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An "Interview Problem"

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Example (3)

If the player flips T, H, T and then stops, their payout is $\frac{1}{3} =$ \$0.33....

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This is called the "Chow-Robbins Game". The exact value is unknown.

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- The fair price for the game is called an "Expected Value" or "Mean".

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Example: Coin Flip

On flipping two fair coins, the possible outcomes are *HH*, *HT*, *TH*, and *TT*, all equally likely. So the probability of each outcome is $\frac{1}{4} = 0.25$.
Axiomatic Probability

Math 447 - Probability

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Axiom 1: $P(A) \ge 0$.

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Axiom 1: $P(A) \ge 0$. Axiom 2: P(S) = 1.

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- Axiom 1: $P(A) \ge 0$.
- Axiom 2: P(S) = 1.

Axiom 3: If A_1, A_2, \ldots form a sequence of pairwise mutually exclusive events in S (that is, $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$), then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n).$$

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The "sample space" S of possible outcomes is

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

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Example (continued)

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We already know how to assign a probability P(A):

$$P(A)=rac{1}{2}.$$

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You already know the axioms of probability. The fact above is a special case of the most complex axiom.

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Problems in Discrete Probability

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Here is a type of problem where there is a sample space S (which is a finite set) and we know, or can assume, that every individual outcome in S is equally likely.

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Solution:

Count the elements of S and those of A.

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$$\mathsf{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|}$$

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Solution:

Count the elements of S and those of A. Then

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 number of elements of A number of elements of S

This applies to our example of rolling the die.

Solution:

Count the elements of S and those of A. Then

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \text{number of elements of } A$$

number of elements of *S*

This applies to our example of rolling the die. There

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} |S| = 6$$

Solution:

Count the elements of S and those of A. Then

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \text{number of elements of } A$$

number of elements of *S*

This applies to our example of rolling the die. There

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} |S| = 6$$

$$A = \{2, 4, 6\} |A| = 3$$

Solution:

Count the elements of S and those of A. Then

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \text{number of elements of } A$$

number of elements of *S*

This applies to our example of rolling the die. There

$$\begin{array}{ll} S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} & |S| = 6 \\ A = \{2, 4, 6\} & |A| = 3 \implies P(A) = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}. \end{array}$$

Solution:

Count the elements of S and those of A. Then

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|S|} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \text{number of elements of } A$$

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This applies to our example of rolling the die. There

$$\begin{array}{ll} S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} & |S| = 6 \\ A = \{2, 4, 6\} & |A| = 3 \implies P(A) = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}. \end{array}$$

Note that this process only works when we know that all members of S are equally likely outcomes.

The "Sample-Point Method"

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- Define the event of interest, A, as a specific collection of sample points (A sample point is in A if A occurs when the sample point occurs. Test all sample points in S to identify those in A.)

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- Define the event of interest, A, as a specific collection of sample points (A sample point is in A if A occurs when the sample point occurs. Test *all* sample points in S to identify those in A.)
- Solution Find P(A) by summing the probabilities of the sample points in A.

It is possible to define probabilities in a different way so that not all members of S are equally likely.

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Exercise 2.12

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A vehicle arriving at an intersection can turn right, turn left, or continue straight ahead. The experiment consists of observing the movement of a single vehicle through the intersection.

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 $S = \{ turns right, turns left, straight ahead \}.$

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- (a) List the sample space for this experiment.
- (b) Assuming that all sample points are equally likely, find the probability that the vehicle turns.

Solution:

 $S = \{$ turns right, turns left, straight ahead $\}$. Assuming all sample points are equally likely, find the probability that the vehicle turns. Here $T = \{$ turns $\} = \{$ turns right, turns left $\}$. So $P(T) = \frac{|T|}{|S|} = \frac{2}{3}$.

Exercise 2.10

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The proportions of blood phenotypes, A, B, AB, and O, in the population of all Caucasians in the Unites States are approximately .41, .10, .04, and .45, respectively. A single Caucasian is chosen at random from the population.

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- (a) List the sample space for this experiment.
- (b) Make use of the information given above to assign probabilities to each of the simple events.
- (c) What is the probability that the person chosen at random has either type A or type AB blood?

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 $S = \{A, B, AB, O\};$

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 $S = \{A, B, AB, O\}; P(A) = 0.41, P(B) = 0.10, P(AB) = 0.04, P(O) = 0.45;$

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 $S = \{A, B, AB, O\}; P(A) = 0.41, P(B) = 0.10, P(AB) = 0.04, P(O) = 0.45; E = \{\text{person has type } A \text{ or } AB \text{ blood} \}.$

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$$S = \{A, B, AB, O\}; P(A) = 0.41, P(B) = 0.10, P(AB) = 0.04$$

 $P(O) = 0.45; E = \{\text{person has type } A \text{ or } AB \text{ blood} \}.$ Then
 $P(E) = P(A) + P(AB) = 0.41 + 0.04 = 0.45.$

Remark:

In a situation like this (not all simple events are equally likely), we need extra information to find the probabilities.

So far, we have thought of S as a finite set of points ("simple events").

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In Section 2.8, we will see various probability formulas to get an idea of what's going on.

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The probability then becomes something like a measurement of area. Note that all axioms of probability are satisfied if S = unit square and the event A is a subset of the unit square; then P(A) = area of A.

In Section 2.8, we will see various probability formulas to get an idea of what's going on. Pretend we are in the situation of subsets of the unit square and that probability = area.

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

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Proof:

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 $area(A \cup B) = area(A) + area(B) - double counted part.$

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Let's draw a picture:



Example (Theorem 2.7: $P(A) = 1 - P(\overline{A})$)

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Suppose A and B are two events with P(A) = 0.8, P(B) = 0.7.

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Solution:

Answer: NO!

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Solution:

Answer: NO!



Combine the two statements $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ and $P(A \cup B) \le 1$: $1 \ge P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

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Suppose A and B are two events with P(A) = 0.8, P(B) = 0.7. Is it possible that $P(A \cap B) = 0.3$?

Solution: Answer: NO! A \mathbf{S} Combine the two statements $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ and $P(A \cup B) \leq 1$: $1 > P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$ $A \cap B$ B $= 0.8 + 0.7 - P(A \cap B)$ $= 1.5 - P(A \cap B).$ So $-0.5 > -P(A \cap B)$, that is, $P(A \cap B) > 0.5.$

Math 447 - Probability

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A labor dispute has arisen concerning the distribution of 20 laborers to four different construction jobs.

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A labor dispute has arisen concerning the distribution of 20 laborers to four different construction jobs. The first job (considered to be very undesirable) required 6 laborers; the second, third, and fourth utilized 4, 5, and 5 laborers, respectively. The dispute arose over an alleged random distribution of the laborers to the jobs that placed all 4 members of a particular ethnic group on job 1.

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A labor dispute has arisen concerning the distribution of 20 laborers to four different construction jobs. The first job (considered to be very undesirable) required 6 laborers; the second, third, and fourth utilized 4, 5, and 5 laborers, respectively. The dispute arose over an alleged random distribution of the laborers to the jobs that placed all 4 members of a particular ethnic group on job 1. In considering whether the assignment represented injustice, a mediation panel desired the probability of the observed event.

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A labor dispute has arisen concerning the distribution of 20 laborers to four different construction jobs. The first job (considered to be very undesirable) required 6 laborers; the second, third, and fourth utilized 4, 5, and 5 laborers, respectively. The dispute arose over an alleged random distribution of the laborers to the jobs that placed all 4 members of a particular ethnic group on job 1. In considering whether the assignment represented injustice, a mediation panel desired the probability of the observed event.

 (a) Determine the number of sample points in the sample space S for this experiment, that is, determine the number of ways the 20 laborers can be divided into groups of the appropriate sizes to fill all of the jobs.

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- (a) Determine the number of sample points in the sample space S for this experiment, that is, determine the number of ways the 20 laborers can be divided into groups of the appropriate sizes to fill all of the jobs.
- (b) Find the probability of the observed event if it is assumed that the laborers are randomly assigned to jobs.

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Math 447 -	Probability
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How many ways can we do this so that all 4 members of the minority group are assigned to the most "unpleasant" job?

Note that the "unpleasant" job requires 6 people.

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$$= \frac{16! \cdot 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2!}{20 \cdot 19 \cdot 18 \cdot 17 \cdot 16! \cdot 2!}$$

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 - Maybe there were many chances to observe this event.

If $n = n_1 + \cdots + n_k$, the number of ways of partitioning n objects into subsets of size n_1, \ldots, n_k is the "Multinomial Coefficient"

$$\binom{n}{n_1 \ n_2 \ \dots \ n_k} = \frac{n!}{n_1! \cdot n_2! \cdot \dots \cdot n_k!}.$$

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Binomial Theorem:

$$(x+y)^{n} = x^{n} + \binom{n}{1} x^{n-1} y + \binom{n}{2} x^{n-2} y^{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} x y^{n-1} + y^{n}$$
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There is an analogous "Multinomial Theorem":

$$(x_1+\cdots+x_k)^n = \sum_{\substack{n_1,\ldots,n_k \ \sum_i^{n_i=n}}} \binom{n}{n_1 \cdots n_k} x_1^{n_1} \cdots x_k^{n_k}.$$

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What is the coefficient of $x^2y^5z^{10}$ in the expansion of $(x + y + z)^{17}$?

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Math 447 - Probability

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Math 447 - Probability

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$$P(A)=rac{1}{6}, \qquad P(A\mid B)=0.$$

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Definition

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<u>Remark</u>: $P(A | B) \neq P(B | A)$ in general.

The "Law of Total Probability"

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The "Law of Total Probability"

Definition (Partition of a Set)

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Remark:

This is really saying
$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} P(A \cap B_i)$$
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If B_1, \dots, B_k is a partition of S and $P(B_i) > 0$ for all i, then $P(B_j \mid A) = \frac{P(A \mid B_j) \cdot P(B_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^k P(A \mid B_i) \cdot P(B_i)}.$

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Now apply the law of total probability in the denominator.

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You are a doctor, you have a 90% accurate test for a disease. The prevalence of this disease in the population is 1%. A patient tests positive. What is the probability that the patient actually has the disease?

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Interpretation: There are two ways of testing positive:

- have the disease $(P(A | B_1) \cdot P(B_1))$, or
- false positive $(P(A | B_2) \cdot P(B_2))$.

We are given $P(A \mid B_1) = 90\%$, $P(A \mid B_2) = 10\%$, $P(B_1) = 1\%$.

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We are given $P(A \mid B_1) = 90\%$, $P(A \mid B_2) = 10\%$, $P(B_1) = 1\%$. We can deduce $P(B_2) = 99\%$.

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= $\frac{0.009}{0.009 + 0.099} = \frac{0.009}{0.108}$
= $\frac{1}{12} \approx 0.0833.$

Conclusion:

The probability that the patient actually has the disease is only about $\underline{8\%}$.

Another way to think about this:

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Suppose in the same setup that we have 1000 patients, of which 10 actually have the disease.

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If we know that a patient tests positive, we know that they are one of the 108 = 9 + 99 patients identified above.

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Remark:

The key to the analysis is: there are two ways to test positive: have disease, or false positive.

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Remark:

The key to the analysis is: there are two ways to test positive: have disease, or false positive.

Analysis: What is the relative likelihood of these two events?

Problem:

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Unfortunately, Gary is the superior player.

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Describe Vlad's optimal strategy in this 2-game match.

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• Scoring of a chess match: win = 1, loss = 0, draw = $\frac{1}{2}$.

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• Scoring of a chess match: win = 1, loss = 0, draw = $\frac{1}{2}$. After 2 games, the player with more points wins the match.

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 (T) Timid: Gary wins 10%, draw 90%.

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(1) Timid: Gary wins 10%, draw 90%
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, Vlad wins $\frac{4}{9}$.

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- Conclusion of the problem: With the correct strategy, Vlad has better chances of winning the match.

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- Gary is the better player, but Vlad can vary his strategy:

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- (B) Bold: Gary wins $\frac{5}{a}$, Vlad wins $\frac{4}{a}$.
- Conclusion of the problem: With the correct strategy, Vlad has better chances of winning the match.

Correct Strategy:

Play boldly in the first game. If win, play timidly in the second game. Otherwise, play boldly again.

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A student answers a multiple-choice examination question that offers four possible answers.

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Suppose the probability that the student knows the answer to the question is .8 and the probability that the student will guess is .2.

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A student answers a multiple-choice examination question that offers four possible answers.

Suppose the probability that the student knows the answer to the question is .8 and the probability that the student will guess is .2.

Assume that if the student guesses, the probability of selecting the correct answer is .25.

If the student correctly answers a question, what is the probability that the student really knew the correct answer?

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• Setup: name the events: N = student knows answer, \overline{N} = student does not know answer, C = student answers correctly.

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- What do we want? $P(N \mid C)$.
- Bayes' Formula:

$$P(N \mid C) = \frac{P(C \mid N)P(N)}{P(C \mid N)P(N) + P(C \mid \overline{N})P(\overline{N})}$$

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Now plug in the numbers:

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$$P(N \mid C) = \frac{(1)(0.8)}{(1)(0.8) + (0.25)(0.2)} = \frac{0.80}{0.85}$$

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Now plug in the numbers:

$$P(N \mid C) = \frac{(1)(0.8)}{(1)(0.8) + (0.25)(0.2)} = \frac{0.80}{0.85} = \frac{16}{17}$$

- Setup: name the events: N = student knows answer, N = student does not know answer, C = student answers correctly.
- Translate info from problem into notation:

$$P(N) = 0.8, P(\overline{N}) = 0.2, P(C \mid N) = 1, P(C \mid \overline{N}) = 0.25.$$

- What do we want? P(N | C).
- Bayes' Formula:

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Good Prize



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Dud 2

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Good Prize



Dud 1



Dud 2

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Good Prize



Dud 1



Dud 2

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(a) If the contestant has no idea which curtains hide the various prizes and selects a curtain at random, assign reasonable probabilities to the simple events and calculate the probability that the contestant selects the curtain hiding the nice prize.
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Which strategy maximizes the c ontestant's probability of winning the good prize: stay with the initial choice or switch to the other curtain?

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Which strategy maximizes the c ontestant's probability of winning the good prize: stay with the initial choice or switch to the other curtain? In answering the following sequence of questions, you will discover that, perhaps surprisingly, this question can be answered by considering only the sample space above and using the probabilities that you assigned to answer part (a).

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(i) If the contestant choses to stay with her initial choice, she wins the good prize if and only if she initially chose curtain G. If she stays with her initial choice, what is the probability that she wins the good prize?

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- (iv) If the contestant switches from her initial choice (as the result of being shown one of the duds), what is the probability that the contestant wins the good prize?
- (v) Which strategy maximizes the contestant's probability of winning the good prize: stay with the initial choice or switch to the other curtain?

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• Let G be the event that the initially selected curtain hides the good prize: $P(G) = \frac{1}{3}$.

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Conclusion:

It is correct to switch curtains: the probability of winning by switching is $\frac{2}{3}$, while that of winning by not switching is $\frac{1}{3}$.

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Math 447 - Probability

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Question:

What if there were 4 curtains instead of 3?

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Question:

What if there were 4 curtains instead of 3?

Analysis:

Similar to the previous case!

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Analysis (4 curtains):

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Again, let ${\sf G}$ be the event that the initially selected curtain holds the good prize.

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By Law of Total Probability,

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By Law of Total Probability,

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$$P(G) = \frac{1}{4}, P(W \mid G) = 0 \text{ as before.}$$

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Two curtains are eliminated: one because the event \overline{G} is "our selection does NOT hide the good prize", and one because we see a dud.

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We should switch because
$$\frac{3}{8} > \frac{1}{4}$$
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5 curtains, but at a cost:

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Now suppose that there are 5 curtains. The good prize is 1000, but it costs 100 to switch.

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Same analysis: G and W as before.
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 \$1000 $-$ \$100 $pprox$ \$166.67.

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By switching, we get a $\frac{4}{15}$ chance of \$1000, minus the switching cost of \$100; that is, $\frac{4}{15} \cdot $1000 - $100 \approx $166.67.$
As \$166.67 < \$200, we should NOT switch for the cost.

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End of Chapter 2

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Chapter 3

Discrete Random Variables and Their Probability Distributions

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Random Variables and Expected Values

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$$X = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{with probability } 2/3 \\ -1 & \text{with probability } 1/3 \end{cases}$$

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Definition

The average value of a random variable (over a large number of trials, say) is called the Expected Value of the random variable.

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This is written E[X] and we speak of "the expectation of X" or "the mean of X".

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The formal definition captures some properties and subtleties not seen in our format. But this format is very convenient for computing the expected value E[X] or "mean of X": in this case,

$$E[X] = 2 \cdot \frac{2}{3} + (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{4}{3} - \frac{1}{3} = 1.$$

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Here X can take on values 2 and -1, and $P(X = 2) = \frac{2}{3}$, $P(X = -1) = \frac{1}{3}$. So the "probability function" p(x) := P(X = x) is $\begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{3} & (x = 2) \end{pmatrix}$

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{3} & (x=2) \\ \frac{1}{3} & (x=-1) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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$$0 \le p(x) \le 1$$
 for all x ,

$$\bigcirc \sum_{x} p(x) = 1.$$

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$$Y = egin{cases} \$1000 - \$100 & ext{with probability } $^{4/15}$ & $-\$100$ & with probability $^{11/15}$. \end{cases}$$

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We find

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Math 447 - Probability

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The expected value in switching is $\underline{\mathsf{less}}$ than that without switching. So we should NOT switch.

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Some simple types of Exercises

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• Write down the probability function for a random variable. Find the mean.

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When the health department tested private wells in a county for two impurities commonly found in drinking water, it found that 20% of the wells had neither impurity, 40% had impurity A, and 50% had impurity B. (Obviously, some had both impurities.)

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Solution:

Y can take the values 0, 1, or 2. We must find P(Y = 0), P(Y = 1), and P(Y = 2).

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Now translate the problem statement into probability statements about these events:

$$P(\overline{A} \cap \overline{B}) = 20\%, P(Y = 2) = P(A \cap B).$$

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$$P(Y = 1) = P(A \cup B) - P(A \cap B).$$

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We know that P(A) = 40%, and P(B) = 50%. Also $P(Y = 1) + P(Y = 2) = P(A \cup B) = 80\%$.

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$$\begin{array}{c|c} y & p(y) = P(Y = y) \\ \hline 0 & 20\% \\ 1 & 70\% \\ 2 & 10\% \end{array}$$

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We can now find E[Y]:

$$E[Y] = 0 \cdot 20\% + 1 \cdot 70\% + 2 \cdot 10\% = 0.7 + 0.2 = 0.9$$

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Math 447 - Probability

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A group of four components is known to contain two defectives. An inspector tests the components one at a time until the two defectives are located. Once she locates the two defectives, she stops testing, but the second defective is tested to ensure accuracy.

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Observe that Y must be 2, 3, or 4.

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$$\binom{4}{2} = 6$$

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\times	\times	0	0	(Y = 2)	×	0	\times	0	(Y = 2)
\times	0	0	\times	(Y = 4)	0	×	\times	0	(Y = 3)
0	×	0	\times	(Y = 4)	0	0	\times	×	(Y = 4)

In each of these cases, we can write down the number of the test on which the second defective is found. (Proceed left to right).

×	\times	0	0	(Y = 2)	\times	0	\times	0	(Y = 2)
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Find the probability distribution of Y using the "Sample Point Method" from Chapter 2:

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The expected value $E[Y]$ is

$$E[Y] = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

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\times	\times	0	0	(Y = 2)	×	0	\times	0	(Y = 2)
\times	0	0	\times	(Y = 4)	0	\times	\times	0	(Y = 3)
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Properties of Expected Value:

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Properties of integrals and sums usually hold for expected value. In particular,

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We can use these properties to give a standard formula for "variance".

If Y is a random variable with mean $E[Y] = \mu$, the <u>variance</u> of the random variable Y is defined to be the expected value of $(Y - \mu)^2$.

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= E[Y²] - 2\mu E[Y] + E[\mu^2] (linearity of E)

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= $E[Y^2] - 2\mu \cdot \mu + \mu^2$ (properties of expected value)
= $E[Y^2] - \mu^2$.

We noted that expectation was linear:

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This is NOT true for variance:

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$$E[aX + bY] = aE[X] + bE[Y].$$

This is NOT true for variance: if *a* is a constant, then $V[aY] = a^2 V[Y]$. This is because $E[aY] = aE[Y] = a\mu$,

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There is a concept of independence for the random variables:

Remark:

Think of variance as being like "norm-squared" and independence as being the orthogonality. The above equation is the Pythagorean Theorem.

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<u>Note:</u> We use one of the equivalent terms "distribution", "probability distribution", "probability function", and "probability mass function".

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Definition (Bernoulli Random Variable)

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To compute $E[X^2]$, we apply Theorem 3.2:

Let Y be a discrete random variable with probability function p(y) and g(Y) be a real-valued function of Y.

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Many of the variables of Chapter 3 are built from repeated independent Bernoulli trials. Example: Binomial random variable with parameters n and p.

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Equivalently, Y is Binomial with parameters n and p if Y has the probability function

$$p(k) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} & (k=0,1,\ldots,n), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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Why must Y have the above probability function?

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We can now compute E[Y] and V[Y].

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Alternate derivation is given in Theorem 3.7.

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Proof:

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Do the computations to obtain V[Y] = npq.

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Example:

Think of flipping a coin again and again until we get "heads".

We do repeated independent Bernoulli trials until we get a success. Let Y be the number of the trial on which the first success occurs. Then Y is a <u>Geometric random variable</u> with parameter p, written $Y \sim \text{Geom}(p)$. (p is the parameter in all the independent Bernoulli trials.)

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Think of flipping a coin again and again until we get "heads".

Remark:

We use the convention that the number of the first trial is 1 (not zero). So $Y \ge 1$.

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Think of flipping a coin again and again until we get "heads".

Remark:

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From the description above, we can find the probability function, mean, and variance of Y.

$$p(1) = P(Y = 1)$$

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$$p(1) = P(Y=1) = p,$$

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$$p(1) = P(Y = 1) = p,$$

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$$p(1) = P(Y = 1) = p,$$

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$$p(1) = P(Y = 1) = p,$$

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(This is an exercise in Calculus 2.)

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Warm-up Exercise:

What is
$$\sum_{y=1}^{\infty} p(y) = \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} q^{y-1} p$$
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Warm-up Exercise:

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Review of Calculus:

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Remark:

This is very intuitive: if the chance of success is $\frac{1}{3}$, the expected waiting time until success is 3 trials.

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We need to compute $E[Y^2]$; we already know $E[Y]^2 = \frac{1}{p^2}$. This is $\sum_{y=1}^{\infty} y^2 q^{y-1} p$.

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This last guy (*) is $E[Y(Y-1)] = E[Y^2] - E[Y]$.

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Exercise:

Do the work outlined above to get

$$V[Y] = \frac{q}{p^2}$$

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$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}\left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right) = \frac{2}{(1-x)^3} = \frac{d^2}{dx^2}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1)x^{n-2}$$

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Step 2: Write in terms of q and y and multiply by qp.

$$\frac{2qp}{(1-q)^3} = \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} y(y-1)q^{y-1}p = E[Y(Y-1)]$$

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Step 3: Use $E[Y(Y-1)] = E[Y^2] - E[Y]$, $V[Y] = E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2$, and E[Y] = 1/p to find V[Y].

$$E[Y^2] = E[Y(Y-1)] + E[Y] = \frac{2q}{p^2} + \frac{1}{p}$$

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$$E[Y^{2}] = E[Y(Y-1)] + E[Y] = \frac{2q}{p^{2}} + \frac{1}{p}$$

$$V[Y] = E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2 = \frac{2q}{p^2} + \frac{1}{p} - \frac{1}{p^2} = \frac{q}{p^2}$$

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Negative Binomial Random Variable

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Negative Binomial Random Variable

We consider repeated independent Bernoulli trials, all with parameter *p*.

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If the r^{th} success is on trial y, i.e. Y = y, then

(1) The y^{th} trial must be a success,

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- (1) The y^{th} trial must be a success,
- (2) There must be exactly r 1 successes in the first y 1 trials.

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If the r^{th} success is on trial y, i.e. Y = y, then

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What is the probability of (2)?

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(1) The y^{th} trial must be a success,

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What is the probability of (2)? There are $\binom{y-1}{r-1}$ ways to distribute r-1 successes in y-1 trials.

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What is the probability of (2)? There are $\binom{y-1}{r-1}$ ways to distribute r-1 successes in y-1 trials. The probability of any particular way occurring is $p^{r-1}q^{(y-1)-(r-1)} = p^{r-1}q^{y-r}$.

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$$p(y) = \binom{y-1}{r-1} p^{r-1} q^{y-r} p$$

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$$p(y) = {\binom{y-1}{r-1}} p^{r-1} q^{y-r} p = {\binom{y-1}{r-1}} p^r q^{y-r}.$$

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Remarks:

In the text, the definition of a negative binomial random variable is something which has the probability distribution as above.

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Remarks:

- In the text, the definition of a negative binomial random variable is something which has the probability distribution as above.
- **2** If r = 1, this is just a geometric random variable.

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- The waiting time for r successes is the waiting time for the first, plus the waiting time for the second, ..., plus the waiting time for the rth success.
- The waiting time for each success is a geometric random variable with parameter p.

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- The waiting time for r successes is the waiting time for the first, plus the waiting time for the second, ..., plus the waiting time for the rth success.
- The waiting time for each success is a geometric random variable with parameter p. This means that the negative binomial random variable with parameters r and p is the sum of r independent geometric random variables, each with parameter p.

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Let X_1, \ldots, X_r be independent geometric RVs with parameter p.

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So if we remember that for a geometric RV the mean is $\frac{1}{p}$ and the variance is $\frac{q}{p^2}$, then the mean and variance of a negative binomial RV are easy to remember.

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- The word "balanced" in the problem statement means that this probability is $\frac{1}{2}$.

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$$P(Y \ge 12 \mid Y \ge 11) = \frac{P(Y \ge 12 \cap Y \ge 11)}{P(Y \ge 11)} = \frac{P(Y \ge 12)}{P(Y \ge 11)}$$

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New problem, 3.72 revised

We have a bag of 100 coins. One is "double-tails" and 99 are normal. We pick one coin from the bag and flip it 10 times. It comes up tails 10 times in a row. What are the chances that it is actually the trick coin?
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Name the events:

- T = event that the coin selected is the trick coin.
- R = event that we get a run of 10 tails.

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Compute with Bayes' Rule.

$$P(T) = 0.01, P(\bar{T}) = 0.99, P(R \mid T) = 1, P(R \mid \bar{T}) = 1/2^{10}$$

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$$P(T \mid R) = \frac{1 \cdot 0.01}{1 \cdot 0.01 + 2^{-10} \cdot 0.99} \approx 0.912$$

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So far we have studied the following distributions: (1) Bernoulli random variable (Bernoulli trial).

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- (2) Binomial RV, Bin(n, p).

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For each of these RVs, you should be able to produce the "probability function" (sometimes called distribution or PDF) p(y) = P(Y = y).

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Let's try now to produce a table with the probability function, mean, and variance for all of these RVs.

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Distribution	p (y)	E[Y]	V[Y]	
Bernoulli	$p^{y}q^{1-y}$ (y = 0,1)	р	pq	[q=1-p]
	or $\begin{cases} p & y = 1 \\ q & y = 0 \end{cases}$			
Geometric	$q^{y-1}p$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{q}{p^2}$	
Binomial	$\binom{n}{y}p^{y}q^{n-y}$	np	npq	
Negative Binomial	$\binom{y-1}{r-1}q^{y-r}p^r$	$\frac{r}{p}$	$\frac{rq}{p^2}$	

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Hypergeometric Random Variable

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Suppose we have an urn with r red balls and N - r black balls.

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Suppose we have an urn with r red balls and N - r black balls. We select (without replacement) n balls from the urn and count the number Y of red balls.

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The hypergeometric RV has probability function

$$p(y) = \frac{\binom{r}{y}\binom{N-r}{n-y}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

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The hypergeometric RV has probability function

$$p(y) = \frac{\binom{r}{y}\binom{N-r}{n-y}}{\binom{N}{n}} = \frac{(\# \text{ of ways to get } y \text{ red from } r) \times}{(\# \text{ of ways to get } n-y \text{ black from } N-r)} \cdot \frac{(\# \text{ of ways to get } n-y \text{ black from } N-r)}{\# \text{ of ways to take } n \text{ balls from } N}.$$

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There is a close analogy between the binomial and hypergeometric RVs. In the limit as N becomes large, they are almost the same.

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Suppose for the moment we only take one ball from the urn, so n = 1.

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Suppose for the moment we only take one ball from the urn, so n = 1. Then the probability that we get a red ball is $\frac{r}{N}$ and the probability that we get a black ball is $\frac{N-r}{N}$. So the expected number of red balls is $\frac{r}{N}$.

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(Expected # on try 1) + (Expected # on try 2) $+ \dots + (Expected # on try n)$

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$$(\text{Expected } \# \text{ on try } 1) + (\text{Expected } \# \text{ on try } 2) \\ + \dots + (\text{Expected } \# \text{ on try } n) = n \cdot \frac{r}{N}$$

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The probability of success, p, is $\frac{r}{N}$, and the mean is $n \cdot \frac{r}{N}$. We would therefore expect to get for the variance V[Y] the result $n \cdot \frac{r}{N} \cdot \frac{N-r}{N}$.

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There is a correction term:

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Computation (Chapter 5) shows

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A convention for binomial coefficients:

$$\binom{n}{k} = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad k > n.$$

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This convention is relevant in evaluating the probability function for the hypergeometric distribution.

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We have to find P(Y = 5) = p(5).

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Distribution	р(у)	$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{Y}]$	V[Y]
Bernoulli	$p^{y}q^{1-y} (y = 0, 1)$ or $\begin{cases} p & y = 1 \\ q & y = 0 \end{cases}$	p	рq
Geometric	$q^{y-1}p$	$\frac{1}{p}$	$\frac{q}{p^2}$
Binomial	$\binom{n}{y}p^{y}q^{n-y}$	np	npq
Negative Binomial	$\binom{y-1}{r-1}q^{y-r}p^r$	r p	$\frac{rq}{p^2}$
Hypergeometric	$\frac{\binom{r}{y}\binom{N-r}{n-y}}{\binom{N}{n}}$	nr N	$\frac{nr}{N} \cdot \frac{N-r}{N} \cdot \frac{N-n}{N-1}$
[q = 1 - p]			

Poisson Distribution

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Y has the Poisson distribution with parameter λ if Y has the probability function

$$p(y) = \frac{\lambda^{y} e^{-\lambda}}{y!} \qquad (y = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

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Notice that Y can take on any positive integer value.

$$\sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^y e^{-\lambda}}{y!}$$

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Easy to remember, but the derivation requires some work with power series:

$$E[Y] = \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} yp(y)$$

Math 447 - Probability



$$E[Y] = \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} yp(y) = \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} y \frac{\lambda^{y} e^{-\lambda}}{y!}$$

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Note:

This result is important in understanding problems which say "Y is a Poisson distributed with average rate _____".

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Remark:

We do this because the distribution is determined by the moment generating function (MGF).

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How is this of any use? Sometimes we can determine the MGF of an unknown distribution.

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= $E[e^{tX}]E[e^{tY}]$ (by independence)
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So if $Y \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n,p)$, then $m_Y(t) = (q + pe^t)^n$.

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In the text, we may exchange the order of limits without justification. This does not generally work, but works in the context.

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Where did we do this? Note that an infinite sum is a limit:
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{N \to \infty} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} a_n\right).$$

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$$\frac{d}{dx}f(x)) = \lim_{h\to 0} \left[\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}\right].$$

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We will show for the geometric RV that

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Using the connection between the geometric and the negative binomial RVs, namely that the negative binomial RV is the sum of r independent geometric RVs, we get, for the negative binomial RV,

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Let B be the event that B wins, that is, Y is an even number.

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Now plug in
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This is basically re-deriving the probability function for the geometric RV.

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Consequence: $m_{Y}^{(k)}(0) = \mu'_{k} = E[Y^{k}].$

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What about $m'_{Y}(0)$?

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What about $m'_{Y}(0)$? We should get E[Y]. We find $m'_{Y}(t) = \frac{pe^{t} \cdot (1 - qe^{t}) - pe^{t} \cdot (-qe^{t})}{(1 - qe^{t})^{2}}.$

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Evaluate this at 0: use $e^0 = 1$ and get

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<u>Caution</u>: V[Y] is <u>not</u> $m_Y^{(2)}(0)$, unless E[Y] = 0.

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Tchebysheff's Theorem

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The result says that P(Y is far from mean) is small. In particular, the probability that Y is 3 or more standard deviations away from its mean is less than or equal to $\frac{1}{9}$.

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- The bound is weak, in the sense that it can be greatly improved with the knowlegde of the distribution.

Let

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$$igl(-1)$$
 with probability 1 /18

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Remark:

We specialized k = 3 for clarity. But a similar example can be constructed with $\frac{1}{18}$ replaced by $\frac{1}{2k^2}$ for any k, and get similar results.

Math 447 - Probability

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Notice that we had to know the probability function for the Poisson RV.

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Another thing to try:

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$$= \frac{pe^{t}}{1-qe^{t}}.$$

Famous Problem: "St. Petersburg Paradox"

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Interpretation:

We are looking at the expectation of a function of a geometric RV.

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Before we move on to Chapter 4:

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Challenging problems in Probability: "Interview Puzzles".

Examples The Chow-Robbins Game (From the 1st slide).

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- 4 points are chosen at random on the unit sphere in ℝ³. They form a tetrahedron. What is the probability that the origin (the center of the sphere) lies in the tetrahedron?

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End of Chapter 3

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Chapter 4

Continuous Variables and Their Probability Distributions

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Math 447 - Probability

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First note that if y < 0, then $P(Y \le y) = 0$.

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Graph of $F_Y(y)$:



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$$P(Y = 1) = P(1 \le Y \le 1) = F_Y(1) - F_Y(1) = 0$$

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Remark:

By definition, $P(Y \leq a) = F_Y(a)$.

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But the difference does not matter, because, as we saw before,

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<u>Intuition</u>: For a continuous RV Y we really don't want to talk about P(Y = a). Remember the analogy between probability and length (or area). P(Y = a) is like the length of a single point (zero). But a line segment, which is made up of points, has a nonzero length.

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But the difference does not matter, because, as we saw before, P(Y = a) = 0, and $\{a\} \cap \{a < Y \le b\} = \emptyset$.

Intuition: For a continuous RV Y we really don't want to talk about P(Y = a). Remember the analogy between probability and length (or area). P(Y = a) is like the length of a single point (zero). But a line segment, which is made up of points, has a nonzero length. So just as we only want to talk about the length of sets that are "non-discrete" (discrete sets have zero length), for a continuous RV Y we only want to talk about $P(Y \in S)$ if S is a set that makes sense in the context.

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Define

$${\mathcal F}_Y(y) = egin{cases} 0 & y \leq 0 \ y & 0 < y < 1 \ 1 & y \geq 1 \end{cases}.$$

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So the probability that a point chosen according to this distribution lies in a subinterval [a, b] is proportional to the length of that subinterval.

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So the probability that a point chosen according to this distribution lies in a subinterval [a, b] is proportional to the length of that subinterval. Such distributions are called <u>Uniform</u>.

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Then

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And this is what we will do for most of Chapter 4. Note by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy}F_Y(y).$$

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Recall that we studied F(Y) where $Y \sim Bin(2, \frac{1}{2})$. We saw that F_Y is a step function.

$$F_{Y}(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & y < 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} & 0 \leq y < 1 \\ \frac{3}{4} & 1 \leq y < 2 \\ 1 & y \geq 2. \end{cases}$$

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In this book we can just assume that F_Y is differentiable.

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Properties of PDF:

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Properties of F	PDF:		
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Let's define a RV by giving a PDF.

Math 447 - Probability

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We just defined a continuous RV Y. This Y is said to have "the uniform distribution" on the interval [0, 1].

Math 447 - Probability

Dikran Karagueuzian

SUNY-Binghamton

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For a continuous RV Y,

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As before, not every RV has an expectation: we need this integral to be convergent.

• Also, analogously to Chapter 3,

$$E[g(Y)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y)f(y)dy.$$

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What is V[Y]? We know that $V[Y] = E[(Y - \mu)^2]$, and the expectation E has the same linearity properties as it did for discrete RVs. So $E[(Y - \mu)^2] = E[Y^2 - 2\mu Y + \mu^2]$ $= E[Y^2] - 2\mu E[Y] + \mu^2 \qquad (\text{Linearity of } E)$

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Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{I}[Y] &= E[Y^2] - \mu^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^2 f(y) dy - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{0} y^2 \cdot 0 dy + \int_{0}^{1} y^2 \cdot 1 dy + \int_{1}^{\infty} y^2 \cdot 0 dy - \frac{1}{4} \\ &= \int_{0}^{1} y^2 dy - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{y^3}{3} \Big|_{0}^{1} - \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

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Suppose that Y possesses the density function

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} cy & 0 \le y \le 2\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

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This only works for linear functions.


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The relationship of the density function to the values of the random variable is:

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In various exercises you may also see Weibull distribution, Pareto distribution, Rayleigh distribution, and some more.

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The normal distribution is defined by its PDF

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If Y is normal with parameters μ and σ (denoted $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$), then $E[Y] = \mu$ and $V[Y] = \sigma^2$.

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Math 447 - Probability

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Remarks on the function:

 $\int f(y) = e^{-y^2}$ Start with e^{-y^2} . This is a "Bell Curve". \boldsymbol{y} $e^{-(y-\mu)^2}$ Suppose we wanted to center it on μ : μ We could change this to $e^{-(y-\mu)^2}$. y

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Convert to polar coordinates, and deduce that

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Our PDF needs to be

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When we are done with all this "adjusting" and "normalizing", we get

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

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If Y is a normal RV with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then $P(a \le Y \le b) = \int_a^b \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dy.$

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$$P(a \leq Y \leq b) = \int_a^b \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dy.$$

Unfortunately it is not possible to express this integral in closed form.

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$$P(z \leq Y < \infty) = \int_{z}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} dy$$
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1. If Y is normal with mean μ and standard deviation σ (variance σ^2), then $\frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma}$ is also normal with mean 0 and variance 1.

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Two tricks:

 If Y is normal with mean μ and standard deviation σ (variance σ²), then Y - μ/σ is <u>also normal</u> with mean 0 and variance 1.
Suppose, for a standard normal RV Z, we want P(-1 ≤ z ≤ 1). This

is the same as $P(-1 \le z \le \alpha) - P(1 \le z \le \alpha)$: (pictures follow:)

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Look up in the table: $P(1 \le z < \infty) = 0.1587$.

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Thus

$$P(-1 \le z \le 1) = 0.8413 - 0.1587 \approx 68\%.$$

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(We already saw how to compute this.)

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Remark:

That Z has E[Z] = 0, V[Z] = 1 is easy (linearity of E). That Z is also normal is not trivial or obvious, but we will see it later using MGFs.

The achievement scores for a college entrance examination are normally distributed with mean 75 and standard deviation 10. What fraction of the scores lies between 80 and 90?

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Interpretation:

Y is normal with $\mu = 75, \sigma = 10$. Find $P(80 \le Y \le 90)$.

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Noting that $Z = \frac{Y - 75}{10}$ is standard normal, we need to find $P(0.5 \le Z \le 1.5)$. This is $\int_{0.5}^{1.5} f_Z(y) dy = \int_{0.5}^{\infty} f_Z(y) dy - \int_{1.5}^{\infty} f_Z(y) dy.$

where f_Z is the standard normal PDF.

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Answer: 0.3085 - 0.0668 = 0.2417.

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- The numbers $0.5 = \frac{80 75}{10}$ and $1.5 = \frac{90 75}{10}$ are called <u>z-scores</u>: a "raw score" is converted to a "z-score", which is measures in standard deviations away from the mean.

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- Z is a common notation for a standard normal RV.
- The table in the book is "complementary error function":

$$\operatorname{erfc}(z) = \int_{z}^{\infty} f_{Z}(y) dy.$$

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Exercise 4.73(a):

The width of bolts of fabric is normally distributed with mean 950 mm (millimeters) and standard deviation 10 mm. What is the probability that a randomly chosen bolt has a width of between 947 and 958 mm?

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Exercise 4.73(a):

The width of bolts of fabric is normally distributed with mean 950 mm (millimeters) and standard deviation 10 mm. What is the probability that a randomly chosen bolt has a width of between 947 and 958 mm?

Interpretation:

Find $P(947 \le Y \le 958)$, where $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(950, 100)$.

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We have

$$P(947 \le Y \le 958) = P\left(\frac{947 - 950}{10} \le \frac{Y - 950}{10} \le \frac{958 - 950}{10}\right)$$

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We have

$$P(947 \le Y \le 958) = P\left(\frac{947 - 950}{10} \le \frac{Y - 950}{10} \le \frac{958 - 950}{10}\right)$$
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Remark:

The book does not use the erfc notation.

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Remark: The "95% Rule" aka the "68 - 95 - 99.7% Rule"

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Sometimes people say that the normal distribution has "thin tails". By this they mean that $P(Z \ge n) + P(Z \le -n)$ is very small for values of n greater than, say 4.

In practical problems, it may be appropriate to use a different distribution, if we are interested in, say, $P(Z \ge 5)$.

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Math 447 - Probability

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Example: Time-to-failure, or "first repair".

The Gamma distribution is a model for this. There is a hump "near 0", and a "tail" going out to $+\infty.$

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Observe that a normally distributed RV can take on <u>any</u> real value. We might be interested in a situation where we know that the RV is positive (or at least non-negative).

Example: Time-to-failure, or "first repair".

The Gamma distribution is a model for this. There is a hump "near 0", and a "tail" going out to $+\infty.$

Definition (The Gamma Distribution)

Y has the Gamma distribution with parameters α and β if the PDF is

$$f_Y(y) = egin{cases} rac{y^{lpha - 1} e^{-rac{y}{eta}}}{eta^{lpha} \Gamma(lpha)} & y \geq 0, \ 0 & y < 0, \end{cases}$$

where

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha - 1} e^{-y} dy$$

is the "generalized factorial function".

How to make sense of this?

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and we get this shape:
$$\longrightarrow$$

Note that the number $\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha)$ is put in the PDF so that
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Y}(y)dy = \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{y^{\alpha-1}e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}}{\beta^{\alpha}\Gamma(\alpha)}dy = 1.$$

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Math 447 - Probability

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• α and β are called the "shape" and the "scale" parameters, respectively.

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- Other sources may work in terms of $\lambda = \frac{1}{\beta}$.

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The way we handle the Γ function in this course is to treat it as a black box: The Gamma PDF uses the Γ function as a normalization. We generally will not evaluate $\Gamma(\alpha)$ unless α is a nonnegative integer.

If
$$Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$$
, then $E[Y] = \alpha\beta$ and $V[Y] = \alpha\beta^2$.

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substitute $v = \frac{y}{\beta}$, so that $y = \beta v$ and $dy = \beta dv.$

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$$= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \beta \cdot \Gamma(\alpha+1) \quad \text{by definition of } \Gamma \text{ function.}$$

$$\begin{split} & : \quad E[Y] = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty \frac{(\beta v)^{\alpha} e^{-v}}{\beta^{\alpha}} \beta dv \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty v^{\alpha} e^{-v} \cdot \beta dv \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \beta \int_0^\infty v^{(\alpha+1)-1} e^{-v} dv \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \beta \cdot \Gamma(\alpha+1) \quad \text{ by definition of } \Gamma \text{ function.} \\ & = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \beta \cdot \alpha \Gamma(\alpha) \quad \text{ by the recursive formula for } \Gamma. \end{split}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \therefore \quad E[Y] = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty \frac{(\beta v)^{\alpha} e^{-v}}{\beta^{\alpha}} \beta dv \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty v^{\alpha} e^{-v} \cdot \beta dv \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \beta \int_0^\infty v^{(\alpha+1)-1} e^{-v} dv \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \beta \cdot \Gamma(\alpha+1) \quad \text{ by definition of } \Gamma \text{ function.} \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \beta \cdot \alpha \Gamma(\alpha) \quad \text{ by the recursive formula for } \Gamma. \\ &= \boxed{\alpha \beta}. \end{array}$$

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 by definition of Γ function.
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Finding V[Y] is similar, but much more complicated.

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Recall that any PDF $f_Y(y)$ has

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Y(y) dy = 1 \iff P(-\infty < Y < \infty) = 1.$$

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The Exponential Distribution:

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The Chi-Squared (χ^2) Distribution with k degrees of freedom:

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Remark:

The reason we study this separately is in Theorem 7.2:

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Remark:

The reason we study this separately is in Theorem 7.2: If Z_1, \ldots, Z_k are independent standard normal RVs and $Y = Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_k^2$ (think of Y as a sum of squared errors), then $Y \sim \chi^2[k]$.

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If Y has an exponential distribution and P(Y > 2) = .0821, what is $\beta = E[Y]$?

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Solution:

 $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\beta), P(Y > 2) = .0821$. Now find β . Notice that $P(Y > 2) = \int_{2}^{\infty} f_{Y}(y) dy$. Plug in the PDF, evaluate the integral, and solve (expression in β) = 0.0821 for β .

If Y has an exponential distribution and P(Y > 2) = .0821, what is $\beta = E[Y]$?

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Notice that $P(Y > 2) = \int_{2}^{\infty} f_{Y}(y) dy$. Plug in the PDF, evaluate the integral, and solve (expression in β) = 0.0821 for β . By definition, the PDF is

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{y^{1-1}e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}}}{\beta^1\Gamma(1)} & y \ge 0\\ 0 & y < 0 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta}e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}} & y \ge 0\\ 0 & y < 0 \end{cases}.$$

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So $-\frac{2}{\beta} = \ln(0.0821)$

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So
$$-\frac{2}{\beta} = \ln(0.0821) \implies \beta = -\frac{2}{\ln(0.0821)} \approx \boxed{0.8}$$
.

The operator of a pumping station has observed that demand for water during early afternoon hours has an approximately exponential distribution with mean 100 cfs (cubic feet per second). Find the probability that the demand will exceed 200 cfs during the early afternoon on a randomly selected day.

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 Since $E[Y] = \beta$, we have $\beta = 100.$

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$$P(Y>200)=\int_{200}^{\infty}f_{Y}(y)dy$$

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$$= e^{-\frac{200}{\beta}} = e^{-\frac{200}{100}} = \boxed{e^{-2}}.$$

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} dy.$$

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Integrate by parts:

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$$\therefore \int_0^\infty u \, dv = uv \Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty v \, du = y^{\alpha - 1} (-e^{-y}) \Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty v du$$

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$$u = y^{\alpha - 1}, \quad dv = e^{-y} dy$$
$$du = (\alpha - 1)y^{\alpha - 2} dy, \quad v = -e^{-y}.$$
$$\therefore \int_0^\infty u \, dv = uv \Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty v \, du = y^{\alpha - 1} (-e^{-y}) \Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty v du$$
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Thus the recursion formula $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)\Gamma(\alpha - 1)$.

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The key formula for many problems and exercises is

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The above remarks will save you from having to integrate by parts several times.

All of this is based on integration by parts, it's just made easier with clever packaging.

Suppose that Y has a Gamma distribution with parameters α and β . If a is any positive or negative value such that $\alpha + a > 0$, show that

$$E[Y^a] = \frac{\beta^a \Gamma(\alpha + a)}{\Gamma(\alpha)}.$$

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Math 447 - Probability

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A random variable Y is said to have the Beta distribution (denoted $Y \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ if the PDF is

$$f_Y(y) = egin{cases} rac{y^{lpha - 1}(1-y)^{eta - 1}}{B(lpha,eta)} & 0 \leq y \leq 1 \ 0 & ext{elsewhere}, \end{cases}$$

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$$B(\alpha,\beta) = \int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1} (1-y)^{\beta-1} dy = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$$

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Remark:

If
$$Y \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$$
, then $0 \leq Y \leq 1$.

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If
$$Y \sim Beta(\alpha, \beta)$$
, then

$$E[Y] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

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If $Y \sim Beta(\alpha, \beta)$, then $E[Y] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$ and $V[Y] = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$.

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= $\frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} \cdot B(\alpha+1,\beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta+1)}$
= $\frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\cdot\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \frac{\alpha\Gamma(\alpha)\cdot\Gamma(\beta)}{(\alpha+\beta)\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} = \left[\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}\right].$

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• The CDF for the Beta distribution is called the "incomplete Beta function".

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- If $0 \le y \le 1$, we can write this as

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This, like so much else, is proved by integration by parts.

The percentage of impurities per batch in a chemical product is a random variable Y with density function

$$f_Y(y) = egin{cases} 12y^2(1-y) & 0 \leq y \leq 1 \ 0 & ext{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

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• Uniform,

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- Uniform,
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Now we move on to cover some things that are relevant to all distributions:

- Moment Generating Functions, and
- Tchebysheff's Theorem.

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Remark:

Sometimes people think in terms of "central moments" $\mu_k = E[(Y - \mu)^k]$, but we can derive these from the μ'_k (and vice versa).

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(1) A linear function of a normal RV is normal. (\star)

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(2) Later we will see using similar ideas that a linear combination of independent normal RVs is normal. Again, this is special to the normal distribution.

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Example

 $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$. Find the MGF of Y.

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Now rearrange this to get an integral we can evaluate using the standard formula for Γ integrals.

Now

$$\int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}} dy = \beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha).$$

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$$\int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{y}{\beta}} dy = \beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha). \quad \text{(Integral of Γ PDF must be 1.)}$$

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So

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$$\therefore m(t) = \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^{\infty} y^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\frac{y}{\beta/(1 - \beta t)}} dy$$

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$$= \frac{1}{\beta^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha)} \left(\frac{\beta}{1 - \beta t}\right)^{\alpha} \Gamma(\alpha) = \boxed{\frac{1}{(1 - \beta t)^{\alpha}}}$$

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Further trickery in integration will show that for a normal RV with mean 0 and variance σ^2 that $m(t) = e^{\left(\frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2}\right)}$.

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Suppose Y is a RV with MGF $m_Y(t)$ and X = aY + b.

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$$= E[e^{bt} e^{bt}] = e^{bt} E[e^{(bt)}]$$
$$= e^{bt} m_{Y}(t). \qquad (\star)$$

Suppose Y is a RV with MGF $m_Y(t)$ and X = aY + b. What is $m_X(t)$? $m_X(t) = E[e^{tX}] = E[e^{t(aY+b)}]$ $= E[e^{atY}e^{bt}] = e^{bt}E[e^{(at)Y}]$ $= e^{bt}m_Y(t).$ (*)

So if Y is normal with mean 0 and variance
$$\sigma^2$$
, and $X = Y + \mu$, then

$$m_X(t) = e^{\mu t} m_Y(t)$$

Suppose Y is a RV with MGF $m_Y(t)$ and X = aY + b. What is $m_X(t)$? $m_X(t) = E[e^{tX}] = E[e^{t(aY+b)}]$ $= E[e^{atY}e^{bt}] = e^{bt}E[e^{(at)Y}]$

$$= e^{\rho t} m_Y(t). \qquad (\star)$$
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 $m_X(t) = e^{\mu t} m_Y(t) = e^{\mu t} e^{\left(\frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2}\right)} = e^{\left(\mu t + \frac{\sigma^2 t^2}{2}\right)}.$

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Exercise in "trickery": (Example 4.16)

Find the MGF for $g(Y) = Y - \mu$, where $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

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If
$$Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
 and $X = -3Y + 4$, find $m_X(t)$.

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Solution:

Using (\star) from the previous slide, we find

$$m_X(t) = e^{4t} m_Y(-3t)$$

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Solution:

Using (\star) from the previous slide, we find

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$$= e^{\left(4t + (-3\mu)t + \frac{\sigma^2(9t^2)}{2}\right)}$$

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What is the distribution of X?

X is normal with mean $-3\mu + 4$ and variance $(3\sigma)^2$ (or standard deviation 3σ),

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$$= e^{\left((-3\mu + 4)t + \frac{(3\sigma)^2t^2}{2}\right)}.$$

What is the distribution of *X*?

X is normal with mean $-3\mu + 4$ and variance $(3\sigma)^2$ (or standard deviation 3σ), because X has the same MGF as a normal RV mean $-3\mu + 4$ and standard deviation 3σ .

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If Y is any RV with mean μ and standard deviation σ , then 1

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Note that "with mean μ and standard deviation σ " is part of the hypothesis; not every RV has a mean and a standard deviation.

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Equivalently,

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Note that "with mean μ and standard deviation σ " is part of the hypothesis; not every RV has a mean and a standard deviation. (Recall the St. Petersburg Paradox.)

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Start with the equation for σ^2 , and estimate to get an inequality:

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Note that all 3 parts are nonnegative.

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Note that all 3 parts are nonnegative. In particular, the middle one is \geq 0.

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Note that all 3 parts are nonnegative. In particular, the middle one is ≥ 0 . Also, in the first and the third part, $(y - \mu)^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2$ (Check this!).

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Note that all 3 parts are nonnegative. In particular, the middle one is ≥ 0 . Also, in the first and the third part, $(y - \mu)^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2$ (Check this!). So

$$\sigma^2 \geq \int_{y \leq \mu - k\sigma} k^2 \sigma^2 f_Y(y) dy + 0 + \int_{y \geq \mu - k\sigma} k^2 \sigma^2 f_Y(y) dy$$

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Note that all 3 parts are nonnegative. In particular, the middle one is ≥ 0 . Also, in the first and the third part, $(y - \mu)^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2$ (Check this!). So

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When would you use Tchebysheff's theorem? Mainly when you don't know the distribution of the RV being studied.

Exercise 4.147:

A machine used to fill cereal boxes dispenses, on the average, μ ounces per box. The manufacturer wants the actual ounces dispensed Y to be within 1 ounce of μ at least 75% of the time. What is the largest value of σ , the standard deviation of Y, that can be tolerated if the manufacturer's objectives are to be met?
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we find
$$k = 2$$
 and $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$

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• If you want to go on, consider doing some of these exercises.

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(This could be improved with better data from the Census Bureau.)

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Question: Who counts as American? (Green Card? Only Citizens? etc.)

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Sometimes the model isn't appropriate for answering the question being asked – question (b) is one of those times.

End of Chapter 4

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Chapter 5

Multivariate Probability Distributions

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 $p(y_1, y_2) = P(Y_1 = y_1 \text{ and } Y_2 = y_2).$

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$$\sum_{y_1} \sum_{y_2} p(y_1, y_2) = 1.$$

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A local supermarket has three checkout counters. Two customers arrive at the counters at different times when the counters are serving no other customers. Each customer chooses a counter at random, independently of the other. Let Y_1 denote the number of customers who choose counter 1 and Y_2 , the number who select counter 2. Find the joint probability function of Y_1 and Y_2 .

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The decisions of the customers are independent, so the probability is $^{2}/_{3} \times ^{2}/_{3} = ^{4}/_{9}$.

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From the joint probability function, we can derive the individual probability functions ("Marginal Probability Functions"):

$$p_1(y_1) = \sum_{\text{all } y_2} p(y_1, y_2).$$

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So the terminology "marginal distribution" comes from the fact that this is the distribution on the margin of the original table.

<i>y</i> ₁ <i>y</i> ₂	0	1	2	$p_2(y_2) \downarrow$
0	1/9	2/9	1/9	4/9
1	2/9	2/9	0	4/9
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Everything that we did before will be repeated in the context of 2 random variables.

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$$P(A \mid B) = rac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)},$$

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• Conditional probability $p(y_1 | y_2)$ is only defined if $p_2(y_2) > 0$.

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Marginal Probability Functions: Continuous Case

Math 447 - Probability



Marginal Probability Functions: Continuous Case

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Also the conditional density function $f(y_1 | y_2)$ is

$$\frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)} \quad \text{analogous to} \quad \frac{p(y_1, y_2)}{p_2(y_2)}$$

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Recall that $F(y_1, y_2) = P(Y_1 \le y_1, Y_2 \le y_2)$.

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 $S = X \setminus (A \cup B).$

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 $S = X \setminus (A \cup B).$ $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B).$

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$\therefore P(S) = P(X) - P(A \cup B) = P(X) - P(A) - P(B) + P(A \cap B)$

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$$\therefore P(S) = P(X) - P(A \cup B) = P(X) - P(A) - P(B) + P(A \cap B)$$
$$= F(c, d) - F(a, d) - F(c, b) + F(a, b). (*)$$

In all of this, we take $P(Y_1 = a)$ (for example) to be 0. Technically (*) above is $P(a < Y_1 \le c, b < Y_2 \le d)$.

Consequence:

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$$\therefore P(S) = P(X) - P(A \cup B) = P(X) - P(A) - P(B) + P(A \cap B)$$
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In all of this, we take $P(Y_1 = a)$ (for example) to be 0. Technically (*) above is $P(a < Y_1 \le c, b < Y_2 \le d)$.

Consequence:

Any joint distribution function (JDF) F must satisfy $F(c, d) - F(a, d) - F(c, b) + F(a, b) \ge 0$ whenever $d \ge b$ and $c \ge a$, because $P((Y_1, Y_2) \in S) \ge 0$.

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$$\therefore P(S) = P(X) - P(A \cup B) = P(X) - P(A) - P(B) + P(A \cap B)$$
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$$F(c,d) - F(a,d) - F(c,b) + F(a,b) \ge 0$$

whenever $d \ge b$ and $c \ge a$, because $P((Y_1, Y_2) \in S) \ge 0$.

Note that this JDF has other properties which are analogous to the properties of a distribution function for a single RV, e.g.

$$\lim_{y_1\to\infty}\lim_{y_2\to\infty}F(y_1,y_2)=1.$$

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$$\lim_{y_1\to\infty}\lim_{y_2\to\infty}F(y_1,y_2)=1. \qquad (\text{see p.228 in the text.})$$

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• Translate paragraph into $P(Y_1, Y_2) = X$.



1 Translate paragraph into
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.

Set up a multiple integral.

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Example

Define the joint distribution of two RVs Y_1 , Y_2 by taking them to be the coordinates of a point chosen at random from the unit square $[0,1] \times [0,1]$. Find $P(0.1 \le Y_1 \le 0.3, 0 \le Y_2 \le 0.5)$.

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Define the joint distribution of two RVs Y_1 , Y_2 by taking them to be the coordinates of a point chosen at random from the unit square $[0,1] \times [0,1]$. Find $P(0.1 \le Y_1 \le 0.3, 0 \le Y_2 \le 0.5)$.

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- Translate paragraph into $P(Y_1, Y_2) = X$.
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Example

Define the joint distribution of two RVs Y_1 , Y_2 by taking them to be the coordinates of a point chosen at random from the unit square $[0,1] \times [0,1]$. Find $P(0.1 \le Y_1 \le 0.3, 0 \le Y_2 \le 0.5)$.

Solution:

We must find the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2)$.

- Translate paragraph into $P(Y_1, Y_2) = X$.
- Set up a multiple integral.
- O multiple integral.

Example

Define the joint distribution of two RVs Y_1 , Y_2 by taking them to be the coordinates of a point chosen at random from the unit square $[0,1] \times [0,1]$. Find $P(0.1 \le Y_1 \le 0.3, 0 \le Y_2 \le 0.5)$.

Solution:

We must find the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2)$. "Chosen at random" means "uniform distribution", which in turn implies that "The density function is constant in some region and is 0 elsewhere".

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- Translate paragraph into $P(Y_1, Y_2) = X$.
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Define the joint distribution of two RVs Y_1 , Y_2 by taking them to be the coordinates of a point chosen at random from the unit square $[0,1] \times [0,1]$. Find $P(0.1 \le Y_1 \le 0.3, 0 \le Y_2 \le 0.5)$.

Solution:

We must find the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2)$. "Chosen at random" means "uniform distribution", which in turn implies that "The density function is constant in some region and is 0 elsewhere".

Here the region is the unit square $[0,1] \times [0,1]$.

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The density function is required to satisfy

Total Probability
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2 = 1$$

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If this f is zero outside $[0,1] \times [0,1]$ and f = c inside it, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2 = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 c \, dy_1 \, dy_2$$

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So c = 1, because the density function must integrate to 1.

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$$= c y_2 \Big|_0^1 = c \cdot 1 - c \cdot 0 = c.$$

So c = 1, because the density function must integrate to 1. Or, more simply,

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 c \, dy_1 \, dy_2 = \text{area of unit square} \cdot c = c.$$

Later you will just be able to write down the density function almost immediately, in cases like this.

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Solution: (continued)

We're supposed to find $P(0.1 \le Y_1 \le 0.3, 0 \le Y_2 \le 0.5)$.

Later you will just be able to write down the density function almost immediately, in cases like this.

Solution: (continued)

We're supposed to find $P(0.1 \le Y_1 \le 0.3, 0 \le Y_2 \le 0.5)$. This is

$$\int_{0.1}^{0.3} \int_0^{0.5} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2.$$

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But $f \equiv 1$ here.

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But $f \equiv 1$ here. So the probability is $\int_{0.1}^{0.3} \int_0^{0.5} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2 = (0.3 - 0.1) \times (0.5 - 0) = 0.2 \times 0.5 = \boxed{0.1}.$

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Remark:

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Remark:

The double integrals and setup can get more complicated; not every region is a rectangle.

Also, the questions can take a different form:

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 $F(0.2, 0.4) = P(Y_1 \le 0.2, Y_2 \le 0.4)$

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$$F(0.2, 0.4) = P(Y_1 \le 0.2, Y_2 \le 0.4) = \int_{-\infty}^{0.2} \int_{-\infty}^{0.4} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$

$$F(0.2, 0.4) = P(Y_1 \le 0.2, Y_2 \le 0.4) = \int_{-\infty}^{0.2} \int_{-\infty}^{0.4} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$

Since $f \equiv 1$ in the unit square and 0 elsewhere, this is

$$F(0.2, 0.4) = \int_0^{0.2} \int_0^{0.4} 1 \, dy_2 \, dy_1$$

$$F(0.2, 0.4) = P(Y_1 \le 0.2, Y_2 \le 0.4) = \int_{-\infty}^{0.2} \int_{-\infty}^{0.4} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$

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$$F(0.2, 0.4) = \int_0^{0.2} \int_0^{0.4} 1 \, dy_2 \, dy_1 = \boxed{0.08}.$$

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$$F(0.2, 0.4) = \int_0^{0.2} \int_0^{0.4} 1 \, dy_2 \, dy_1 = \boxed{0.08}.$$

Remark:

In the definition of density functions, do not forget about the "f = 0 elsewhere" clause:

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$$F(0.2, 0.4) = P(Y_1 \le 0.2, Y_2 \le 0.4) = \int_{-\infty}^{0.2} \int_{-\infty}^{0.4} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$

Since $f \equiv 1$ in the unit square and 0 elsewhere, this is

$$F(0.2, 0.4) = \int_0^{0.2} \int_0^{0.4} 1 \, dy_2 \, dy_1 = \boxed{0.08}.$$

Remark:

In the definition of density functions, do not forget about the "f = 0 elsewhere" clause:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{0.2} 1 \, dy_1$$

does not converge.

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Example 5.4:

Gasoline is to be stocked in a bulk tank once at the beginning of each week and then sold to individual customers. Let Y_1 denote the proportion of the capacity of the bulk tank that is available after the tank is stocked at the beginning of the week. Because of the limited supplies, Y_1 varies from week to week. Let Y_2 denote the proportion of the capacity of the bulk tank that is sold during the week. Because Y_1 and Y_2 are both proportions, both variables take on values between 0 and 1. Further, the amount sold, y_2 , cannot exceed the amount available, y_1 . Suppose that the joint density function for Y_1 and Y_2 is given by

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Find the probability that less than one-half of the tank will be stocked and more than one-quarter of the tank will be sold.

Example 5.4:

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$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Find the probability that less than one-half of the tank will be stocked and more than one-quarter of the tank will be sold.

We convert the above paragraph into some simpler-looking math:

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Suppose Y_1 and Y_2 have the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$

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Suppose Y_1 and Y_2 have the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$ Find $P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25)$.

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Suppose Y_1 and Y_2 have the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$

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Solution:

Start by graphing the region of integration.

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Find $P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25)$.

Solution:

Start by graphing the region of integration. Where is $f(y_1, y_2)$ nonzero?

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Suppose Y_1 and Y_2 have the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$

Find $P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25)$.

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Suppose Y_1 and Y_2 have the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$

Find $P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25)$.

Solution:

Start by graphing the region of integration.

Where is $f(y_1, y_2)$ nonzero? Where is the region of integration?


Interpretation:

Suppose Y_1 and Y_2 have the joint density function $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$

Find $P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25)$.

Solution:



Where is $f(y_1, y_2)$ nonzero? Where is the region of integration?



 y_1

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So really the region for integration is

So really the region for integration is this:



So really the region for integration is this:



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$$P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25) = \int_0^{0.5} \int_{0.25}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$

So really the region for integration is this:

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$$P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25) = \int_0^{0.5} \int_{0.25}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$

But, since f = 0 outside the small triangle, this is

$$\int_0^{0.5} \int_{0.25}^{y_1} (3y_1) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$

So really the region for integration is this:

$$P(0 \leq Y_1 \leq 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25) = \int_0^{0.5} \int_{0.25}^\infty f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_2 \, dy_1.$$



 y_2

 y_1



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Suppressing the work, the integral comes out as
$$\frac{5}{128}$$
, So the answer is
$$P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25) = \boxed{\frac{5}{128}}.$$

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Solution: (continued) Suppressing the work, the integral comes out as $\frac{5}{128}$, So the answer is $P(0 \le Y_1 \le 0.5, Y_2 > 0.25) = \boxed{\frac{5}{128}}.$

For an example where you must find the density function, see problems 5.8-5.11 in Section 5.2.

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We have discussed marginal and conditional distributions.

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Here the integration with respect to y_2 replaces the sum over y_2 .

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Remark:

Remembering these definitions is essential to being able to do problems without the aid of the text.

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Suppose that Y_1 is the total time between a customer's arrival in the store and departure from the service window, Y_2 is the time spent in line before reaching the window, and the joint density of these variables is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} e^{-y_1} & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 < \infty \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Find the marginal density functions for Y_1 and Y_2 .

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Notice that if $y_1 \leq 0$, then $f(y_1, y_2) = 0$ for all y_2 . This means that $f_1(y_1) = 0$ if $y_1 < 0$.

If $y_1 \ge 0$, then $f(y_1, y_2)$ is nonzero for $0 \le y_2 \le y_1$.

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$$\therefore f(y_1 \mid y_2) = \begin{cases} e^{-y_1}/e^{-y_2} & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 < \infty \\ \text{undefined} & y_2 < 0 \\ 0 & 0 \le y_1 \le y_2 < \infty. \end{cases}$$

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Note that $e^{-y_1}/e^{-y_2} = e^{-(y_1-y_2)}$ (in order to reconcile with back of text).

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Note that $e^{-y_1}/e^{-y_2} = e^{-(y_1-y_2)}$ (in order to reconcile with back of text). It may help to keep a picture of the plane in which the functions are defined.

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Let's consider $f(y_1, y_2)$:

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Recall when we found $f_1(y_1)$ we integrated over y_2 .

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Recall when we found $f_1(y_1)$ we integrated over y_2 . This corresponds to the picture alongside if $y_1 \ge 0$:

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Math 447 - Probability

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If f has 2 cases and g has 2 cases, then fg has 4 cases.

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If f has 2 cases and g has 2 cases, then fg has 4 cases. Example:

$$f(x) = |x| = \begin{cases} x & x \ge 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}, \quad g(x) = \begin{cases} x & -1 \le x \le 1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

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Then

$$f(x)g(x) = \begin{cases} x \cdot x & x \ge 0, -1 \le x \le 1\\ x \cdot 0 & x \ge 0, x \notin [-1, 1]\\ -x \cdot x & x < 0, -1 \le x \le 1\\ -x \cdot 0 & x < 0, x \notin [-1, 1]. \end{cases}$$

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$$f(x)g(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & x \in [0,1] \\ -x^2 & x \in [-1,0] \\ 0 & x \notin [-1,1]. \end{cases}$$

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What we did for 5.33 (b) was much like this.

Independence of Random Variables

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An important property of independent RVs:

If Y_1, Y_2 are independent, then $E[Y_1Y_2] = E[Y_1]E[Y_2]$.

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Definition (Expectation of Functions of RVs)

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Definition (Expectation of Functions of RVs)

If Y_1, Y_2 have joint probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$, and g is a function of Y_1 and Y_2 , then

$$E[g(Y_1, Y_2)] = \sum_{y_1} \sum_{y_2} g(y_1, y_2) p(y_1, y_2).$$

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Analogously, for continuous RVs,

$$E[g(Y_1, Y_2)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y_1, y_2) f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2.$$

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Remark:

Independence is a somewhat subtle property. It is possible, for example, to construct RVs Y_1 , Y_2 , and Y_3 , such that Y_1 and Y_2 are independent, Y_2 and Y_3 are independent, and Y_1 and Y_3 are independent; BUT Y_1 , Y_2 , Y_3 are not independent.

Definition (Expectation of Functions of RVs)

If Y_1, Y_2 have joint probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$, and g is a function of Y_1 and Y_2 , then

$$E[g(Y_1, Y_2)] = \sum_{y_1} \sum_{y_2} g(y_1, y_2) p(y_1, y_2).$$

Analogously, for continuous RVs,

$$E[g(Y_1, Y_2)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y_1, y_2) f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2.$$

Expectation has the same linearity properties we studied before. These can be used to simplify many problems.

Math 447 - Probability

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Suppose that a radioactive particle is randomly located in a square with sides of unit length. A reasonable model for the joint density function for Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \le y_1 \le 1, 0 \le y_2 \le 1\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Find (a) $E[Y_1 - Y_2]$. (b) $E[Y_1 Y_2]$.
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Solution: (a)

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Observe that the RVs are independent, and the marginal distributions are uniform on [0, 1].

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$$E[Y_1 - Y_2] = E[Y_1] - E[Y_2] = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 0,$$

without any integration at all.

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Solution by formal procedure and integration:



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We must integrate

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}y_1f(y_1,y_2)\,dy_1\,dy_2,$$

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Solution by formal procedure and integration:

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where f is the joint density function. What is this joint density function? "Uniform" means f is a constant in the triangle (let's call it T) and 0 outside.

What is this constant?

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$$\therefore \quad \iint_{T} c \, dy_1 \, dy_2 = 1$$

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y = x + 1

y = 1 - x

Now we must find the limits of integration y=x+1 for the triangle:

$$\iint_{T} y_{1} \, dy_{1} \, dy_{2} = \int_{y_{1}=-1}^{0} \int_{y_{2}=0}^{y_{1}+1} y_{1} \, dy_{2} \, dy_{1} + \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{1-y_{1}} y_{1} \, dy_{2} \, dy_{1}$$
$$= \int_{-1}^{0} y_{1} \int_{0}^{y_{1}+1} dy_{2} \, dy_{1} + \int_{0}^{1} y_{1} \int_{0}^{1-y_{1}} dy_{2} \, dy_{1}$$

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$$= \left(\frac{y^{3}}{3} + \frac{y^{2}}{2}\right)\Big|_{-1}^{0} + \left(\frac{y^{2}}{2} - \frac{y^{3}}{3}\right)\Big|_{0}^{1}$$

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Solution by symmetry:

What is the geometric interpretation of $E[Y_1]$?

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What is the geometric interpretation of $E[Y_1]$? This is the y_1 -coordinate such that we can "balance" the triangle at this point,

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Solution by symmetry:

What is the geometric interpretation of $E[Y_1]$? This is the y_1 -coordinate such that we can "balance" the triangle at this point, i.e., By symmetry, $E(Y_1) = 0$.





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With (Y_1, Y_2) uniformly distributed over the triangle T alongside, find $E[Y_2]$. You can use the results obtained earlier, e.g. $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{in } T \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$



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$$E[Y_2] = \iint_T y_2 \, dy_1 \, dy_2 \qquad \text{(just like before)}$$
$$= \int_{y_1=-1}^0 \int_{y_2=0}^{y_1+1} y_2 \, dy_2 \, dy_1 + \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-y_1} y_2 \, dy_2 \, dy_2$$

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= $\int_{-1}^0 \frac{y_2^2}{2} \Big|_0^{y_1+1} \, dy_1 + \int_0^1 \frac{y_2^2}{2} \Big|_0^{1-y_1} \, dy_1$

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= $\int_{-1}^0 \frac{(y_1+1)^2}{2} \, dy_1 + \int_0^1 \frac{(1-y_1)^2}{2} \, dy_1$

$$= \int_{-1}^{0} \left(\frac{(y_1^2}{2} + y_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) \, dy_1 + \int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{1}{2} - y_1 + \frac{y_1^2}{2} \right) \, dy_1$$

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$$= \int_{-1}^{0} \left(\frac{(y_1^2}{2} + y_1 + \frac{1}{2}) dy_1 + \int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{1}{2} - y_1 + \frac{y_1^2}{2} \right) dy_1 \\ = \left(\frac{y_1^3}{6} + \frac{y_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1}{2} \right) \Big|_{-1}^{0} + \left(\frac{y_1}{2} - \frac{y_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1^3}{6} \right) \Big|_{0}^{1}$$

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$$= \int_{-1}^{0} \left(\frac{(y_1^2}{2} + y_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) dy_1 + \int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{1}{2} - y_1 + \frac{y_1^2}{2} \right) dy_1$$

= $\left(\frac{y_1^3}{6} + \frac{y_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1}{2} \right) \Big|_{-1}^{0} + \left(\frac{y_1}{2} - \frac{y_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1^3}{6} \right) \Big|_{0}^{1}$
= $- \left(\frac{(-1)^3}{6} + \frac{(-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(-1)}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1^2}{2} + \frac{1^3}{6} \right)$

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$$\begin{split} &= \int_{-1}^{0} \left(\frac{(y_1^2}{2} + y_1 + \frac{1}{2}) dy_1 + \int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{1}{2} - y_1 + \frac{y_1^2}{2} \right) dy_1 \\ &= \left(\frac{y_1^3}{6} + \frac{y_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1}{2} \right) \Big|_{-1}^{0} + \left(\frac{y_1}{2} - \frac{y_1^2}{2} + \frac{y_1^3}{6} \right) \Big|_{0}^{1} \\ &= -\left(\frac{(-1)^3}{6} + \frac{(-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(-1)}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1^2}{2} + \frac{1^3}{6} \right) \\ &= -\left(-\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} \right) \end{split}$$

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$$\begin{split} &= \int_{-1}^{0} \left(\frac{\left(y_{1}^{2}}{2} + y_{1} + \frac{1}{2}\right) \, dy_{1} + \int_{0}^{1} \left(\frac{1}{2} - y_{1} + \frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2} \right) \, dy_{1} \\ &= \left(\frac{y_{1}^{3}}{6} + \frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2} + \frac{y_{1}}{2} \right) \Big|_{-1}^{0} + \left(\frac{y_{1}}{2} - \frac{y_{1}^{2}}{2} + \frac{y_{1}^{3}}{6} \right) \Big|_{0}^{1} \\ &= -\left(\frac{\left(-1\right)^{3}}{6} + \frac{\left(-1\right)^{2}}{2} + \frac{\left(-1\right)}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1^{2}}{2} + \frac{1^{3}}{6} \right) \\ &= -\left(-\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} \right) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} \end{split}$$

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Find *a* so that the area of the top triangle is the same as the area of the bottom trapezoid.



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The *a* that works has

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Definition (Covariance)

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The covariance of two RVs Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = E[(Y_1 - \mu)(Y_2 - \nu)],$$

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Remark:

In order to compute these, we need to know the joint distribution of Y_1 and Y_2 .

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Remarks:

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• Using the linearity properties of E, we have

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• Using the linearity properties of E, we have

$$E[(Y_1 - \mu)(Y_2 - \nu)] = E[Y_1Y_2] - \mu\nu.$$

This is basically the same calculation that gave us $V[Y] = E[(Y - \mu)^2] = E[Y^2] - \mu^2.$

• If Y_1, Y_2 are independent, then $E[Y_1Y_2] = E[Y_1]E[Y_2]$, so that $Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = E[Y_1Y_2] - \mu\nu = E[Y_1]E[Y_2] - \mu\nu = \mu\nu - \mu\nu = 0.$ Thus

$$Y_1, Y_2$$
 independent \implies $Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = 0.$

But the converse is not true!

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Suppose that Y_1 , Y_2 are discrete RVs whose joint probability function is given by the following table:

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$$\mu = E[Y_1] = 0, \nu = E[Y_2] = 0.$$

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$$\label{eq:multiplicative} \begin{split} \mu &= E[Y_1] = 0, \nu = E[Y_2] = 0. \\ \text{What is } E[Y_1 \, Y_2]? \end{split}$$

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$$\operatorname{Cov}(Y_1, Y_2) = E[Y_1 Y_2] - \mu \nu$$

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$$Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = E[Y_1Y_2] - \mu\nu = 0 - 0 = 0$$

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$$Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = E[Y_1Y_2] - \mu\nu = 0 - 0 = 0$$

But Y_1, Y_2 are NOT independent.

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But Y_1, Y_2 are NOT independent.

Recall that Y_1 and Y_2 are independent if the joint probability function $p(y_1, y_2)$ is the product of the marginal distributions:

$$p(y_1, y_2) = p_1(y_1) \cdot p_2(y_2).$$

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But $0 \neq \frac{6}{16} \cdot \frac{6}{16}$.

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But $0 \neq \frac{6}{16} \cdot \frac{6}{16}$. So Y_1 and Y_2 are NOT independent.

The joint distribution of Y_1 , Y_2 is uniform over the triangle shown alongside. Are Y_1 and Y_2 independent?



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So $Cov(Y_1, Y_2) = 0$, but Y_1 and Y_2 are NOT independent.

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Recall:

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$$\boxed{\mathsf{Cov}(X,Y) = E[(X - \mu)(Y - \nu)]},$$

where $\mu = E[X]$ and $\nu = E[Y].$

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$$\mathsf{Cov}(X,Y) = E[(X-\mu)(Y-\nu)],$$

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Remark:

The covariance is a measure of the extent to which X and Y "vary together".

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Remark:

The covariance is a measure of the extent to which X and Y "vary together". Note that the covariance can be negative.

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Math 447 - Probability

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ъ.
Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n and X_1, \ldots, X_m be random variables with $E(Y_i) = \mu_i$ and $E(X_j) = \nu_j$. Define

$$U_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i Y_i$$
 and $U_2 = \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j X_j$

for constants $a_1 \dots a_n$ and $b_1 \dots b_m$.

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(a)
$$E[U_1] = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i.$$

(b) $V[U_1] = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 V[Y_i] + 2 \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} a_i a_j Cov(Y_i, Y_j)$

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(c) $Cov(U_1, U_2) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m a_i b_j Cov(Y_i, X_j).$

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The above theorem presents an important property of covariance:

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The above theorem presents an important property of covariance: Covariance is <u>bilinear</u>,

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The above theorem presents an important property of covariance: Covariance is <u>bilinear</u>, that is, it is a function of two variables which is separately linear in each variable.

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$$\mathsf{Cov}(2X+1,Y) = \mathsf{Cov}(2X,Y) + \mathsf{Cov}(1,Y).$$

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$$Cov(2X + 1, Y) = Cov(2X, Y) + Cov(1, Y).$$

Also

$$\operatorname{Cov}(X,3Y+4) = \operatorname{Cov}(X,3Y) + \operatorname{Cov}(X,4).$$

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Remark:

Note that it is "separately" linear in each variable:

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Remark:

Note that it is "separately" linear in each variable: it is NOT true that Cov(2X + 1, 2Y + 1) = 2 Cov(X, Y) + 1.

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Remark:

Note that it is "separately" linear in each variable: it is NOT true that Cov(2X + 1, 2Y + 1) = 2 Cov(X, Y) + 1.

How does this give us the complicated statement of Theorem 5.12?

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Observe that V[X] = Cov(X, X).

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 $V[U] = \operatorname{Cov}(U, U)$

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$$V[U] = Cov(U, U)$$

= Cov(b₁X₁ + \dots + b_mX_m, b₁X₁ + \dots + b_mX_m)

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$$V[U] = \operatorname{Cov}(U, U)$$

= $\operatorname{Cov}(b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m, b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m)$
= $b_1 \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m) + \dots$
+ $b_m \operatorname{Cov}(X_m, b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m)$

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$$V[U] = Cov(U, U)$$

= Cov(b₁X₁ + ... + b_mX_m, b₁X₁ + ... + b_mX_m)
= b₁ Cov(X₁, b₁X₁ + ... + b_mX_m) + ...
+ b_m Cov(X_m, b₁X₁ + ... + b_mX_m)
= b₁b₂ Cov(X₁, X₁) + b₁b₂ Cov(X₁, X₂) + ... + b₁b_m Cov(X₁, X_m)
+ b₂b₁ Cov(X₂, X₁) + b₂b₂ Cov(X₂, X₂) + ... + b₂b_m Cov(X₂, X_m)
+ \vdots \vdots \vdots
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$$V[U] = \operatorname{Cov}(U, U)$$

= $\operatorname{Cov}(b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m, b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m)$
= $b_1 \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m) + \dots$
+ $b_m \operatorname{Cov}(X_m, b_1X_1 + \dots + b_mX_m)$
= $b_1b_2 \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, X_1) + b_1b_2 \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, X_2) + \dots + b_1b_m \operatorname{Cov}(X_1, X_m)$
+ $b_2b_1 \operatorname{Cov}(X_2, X_1) + b_2b_2 \operatorname{Cov}(X_2, X_2) + \dots + b_2b_m \operatorname{Cov}(X_2, X_m)$
+ \vdots \vdots \vdots
+ $b_mb_1 \operatorname{Cov}(X_m, X_1) + b_mb_2 \operatorname{Cov}(X_m, X_2) + \dots + b_mb_m \operatorname{Cov}(X_m, X_m)$
= $\sum_{j=1}^m b_j^2 V[X_j] + 2\sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} b_i b_j \operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_j).$

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The proof of Theorem 5.12 consists of calculations like this one.

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How will this come up? You may be asked to compute some variance (or covariance) and the easiest way to do it will be to use this result.

The proof of Theorem 5.12 consists of calculations like this one. The key point is the verification (directly from the definition) that the covariance is bilinear.

How will this come up? You may be asked to compute some variance (or covariance) and the easiest way to do it will be to use this result.

Exercise 5.112

Let Y_1 and Y_2 denote the lengths of life, in hundreds of hours, for components of types I and II, respectively, in an electronic system. The joint density of Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{y_1}{8} e^{-(y_1 + y_2)/2} & y_1 > 0, y_2 > 0, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

The cost *C* of replacing the two components depends upon their length of life at failure and is given by $C = 50 + 2Y_1 + 4Y_2$. Find E[C] and V[C].

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Remarks:

- This dupliates the calculation for Theorem 5.12, but with 4 terms and not m^2 terms.
- The biggest "difficulty" in some of the problems is setting up and doing double integrals.

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Given that the joint density function of Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 6(1 - y_2) & 0 \le y_1 \le y_2 \le 1, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases}$$

find $P(Y_2 \le 1/2 | Y_1 \le 3/4)$.

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$$P\left(Y_1 \leq \frac{3}{4}\right) = \iint_{\text{shaded region}} 6(1 - y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2$$

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$$= -(1-y_1)^3\Big|_0^{3/4}$$

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$$= -(1-y_1)^3\Big|_0^{3/4} = \left[-\left(1-rac{3}{4}
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$$= -\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^3 + 1$$

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$$= -\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^3 + 1 = -\frac{1}{64} + 1$$

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Next: $P(Y_2 \le 1/2, Y_1 \le 3/4)$. Again, draw the region: Notice for this region, the cutoff $Y_1 \le 3/4$ doesn't matter!



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Next: $P\left(Y_2 \le 1/2, Y_1 \le 3/4\right)$.
Again, draw the region:
Notice for this region, the cutoff $Y_1 \le 3/4$
doesn't matter!
Remark: We might have missed this if we hadn't drawn the region: this is a common mistake.

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$$P\left(Y_2 \leq \frac{1}{2}, Y_1 \leq \frac{3}{4}
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$$= \int_{0}^{1/2} \left[\left(6 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - 3 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2} \right) - \left(6y_{1} - 3y_{1}^{2}\right) \right] \, dy_{1}$$

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$$= \int_{0}^{1/2} \left[\left(-\frac{3}{4} \right) + \left(3 - 6y_{1} + 3y_{1}^{2} \right) \right] \, dy_{1}$$

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$$=\int_{0}^{1/2}\left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)dy_{1}+\int_{0}^{1/2}3(1-y_{1}^{2})dy_{1}$$

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$$= \int_0^{1/2} \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right) dy_1 + \int_0^{1/2} 3(1-y_1^2) dy_1$$
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= $-\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 - \left(-(1-0)^3\right) - \frac{3}{8}$

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$$= \int_0^{1/2} \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right) dy_1 + \int_0^{1/2} 3(1-y_1^2) dy_1$$

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= $-\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 - \left(-(1-0)^3\right) - \frac{3}{8}$
= $-\frac{1}{8} - (-1) - \frac{3}{8}$

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$$= \int_{0}^{1/2} \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right) dy_{1} + \int_{0}^{1/2} 3(1-y_{1}^{2}) dy_{1}$$

$$= 3 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{3}\right) (1-y_{1})^{3} \Big|_{0}^{1/2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)$$

$$= -\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{3} - \left(-(1-0)^{3}\right) - \frac{3}{8}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8} - (-1) - \frac{3}{8} = \boxed{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Math 447 - Probability

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$$= \int_0^{1/2} \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right) dy_1 + \int_0^{1/2} 3(1-y_1^2) dy_1$$

= $3 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{3}\right) (1-y_1)^3 \Big|_0^{1/2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)$
= $-\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 - \left(-(1-0)^3\right) - \frac{3}{8}$
= $-\frac{1}{8} - (-1) - \frac{3}{8} = \left[\frac{1}{2}\right].$

To finish, divide this by the previous fraction.

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$$= \int_{0}^{1/2} \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right) dy_{1} + \int_{0}^{1/2} 3(1-y_{1}^{2}) dy_{1}$$
$$= 3 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{3}\right) (1-y_{1})^{3} \Big|_{0}^{1/2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)$$
$$= -\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{3} - \left(-(1-0)^{3}\right) - \frac{3}{8}$$
$$= -\frac{1}{8} - (-1) - \frac{3}{8} = \left[\frac{1}{2}\right].$$

To finish, divide this by the previous fraction. Final answer: $\frac{32}{63}$.

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Given that the joint density function of Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{y_1}{8}e^{-\frac{(y_1+y_2)}{2}} & y_1 > 0, y_2 > 0, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases}$$
find $E\left[\frac{y_2}{Y_1}\right].$

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Solution:

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find $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right]$. [Hint: Y_1, Y_2 are independent.]

Solution:

Since Y_1, Y_2 are independent, so are $Y_2, \frac{1}{Y_1}$.

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find $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right]$. [Hint: Y_1, Y_2 are independent.]

Solution:

Since Y_1, Y_2 are independent, so are $Y_2, \frac{1}{Y_1}$. So $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right] = E[Y_2] \cdot E\left[\frac{1}{Y_1}\right]$.

Given that the joint density function of Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{y_1}{8} e^{-\frac{(y_1+y_2)}{2}} & y_1 > 0, y_2 > 0, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases}$$

find $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right]$. [Hint: Y_1, Y_2 are independent.]

Solution:

Since Y_1, Y_2 are independent, so are $Y_2, \frac{1}{Y_1}$. So $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right] = E[Y_2] \cdot E\left[\frac{1}{Y_1}\right]$. To find $E[Y_2]$, we first find the marginal density function

$$f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1.$$

Given that the joint density function of Y_1 and Y_2 is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{y_1}{8}e^{-\frac{(y_1+y_2)}{2}} & y_1 > 0, y_2 > 0\\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases}$$

find $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right]$. [Hint: Y_1, Y_2 are independent.]

Solution:

Since Y_1, Y_2 are independent, so are $Y_2, \frac{1}{Y_1}$. So $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right] = E[Y_2] \cdot E\left[\frac{1}{Y_1}\right]$. To find $E[Y_2]$, we first find the marginal density function

$$f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1.$$

Then

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2.$$

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We compute

$$f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1$$

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We compute

$$f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1$$
$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{y_1}{8} e^{-\frac{(y_1 + y_2)}{2}} \, dy_2$$

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We compute

$$f_{2}(y_{2}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_{1}, y_{2}) dy_{1}$$

= $\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{y_{1}}{8} e^{-\frac{(y_{1}+y_{2})}{2}} dy_{1} = \frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{0}^{\infty} y_{1} e^{-\frac{y_{1}}{2}} dy_{1}$

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 $v = \frac{y_{1}}{2} \qquad 2v = y$

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 $v = \frac{y_{1}}{2} \quad 2v = y$
 $dv = \frac{1}{2} dy_{1} \quad 2dv = dy_{1}$

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We compute

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$$f_{2}(y_{2}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_{1}, y_{2}) dy_{1}$$

= $\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{y_{1}}{8} e^{-\frac{(y_{1}+y_{2})}{2}} dy_{1} = \frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{0}^{\infty} y_{1} e^{-\frac{y_{1}}{2}} dy_{1}$
= $\frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{v=0}^{\infty} 2v e^{-v} 2dv$ $v = \frac{y_{1}}{2} 2v = y$
 $dv = \frac{1}{2} dy_{1} 2dv = dy_{1}$

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We compute

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 $dv = \frac{1}{2} dy_{1} 2dv = dy_{1}$
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We compute

$$f_{2}(y_{2}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_{1}, y_{2}) dy_{1}$$

= $\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{y_{1}}{8} e^{-\frac{(y_{1}+y_{2})}{2}} dy_{1} = \frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{0}^{\infty} y_{1} e^{-\frac{y_{1}}{2}} dy_{1}$
= $\frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{v=0}^{\infty} 2v e^{-v} 2dv$ $v = \frac{y_{1}}{2} 2v = y$
 $dv = \frac{1}{2} dy_{1} 2dv = dy_{1}$
= $\frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{v=0}^{\infty} v e^{-v} dv = \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \left[-v e^{-v} \Big|_{0}^{\infty} - \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-v} dv \right]$

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We compute

$$f_{2}(y_{2}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_{1}, y_{2}) dy_{1}$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{y_{1}}{8} e^{-\frac{(y_{1}+y_{2})}{2}} dy_{1} = \frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{0}^{\infty} y_{1} e^{-\frac{y_{1}}{2}} dy_{1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{v=0}^{\infty} 2v e^{-v} 2dv \qquad \begin{array}{c} v = \frac{y_{1}}{2} & 2v = y \\ dv = \frac{1}{2} dy_{1} & 2dv = dy_{1} \end{array}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{v=0}^{\infty} v e^{-v} dv = \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \left[-v e^{-v} \Big|_{0}^{\infty} - \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-v} dv \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}}.$$

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We compute

$$\begin{split} f_{2}(y_{2}) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_{1}, y_{2}) \, dy_{1} \\ &= \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{y_{1}}{8} e^{-\frac{(y_{1}+y_{2})}{2}} \, dy_{1} = \frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{0}^{\infty} y_{1} e^{-\frac{y_{1}}{2}} \, dy_{1} \\ &= \frac{1}{8} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{v=0}^{\infty} 2v e^{-v} \, 2dv \qquad v = \frac{y_{1}}{2} \, 2v = y \\ dv &= \frac{1}{2} dy_{1} \quad 2dv = dy_{1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \int_{v=0}^{\infty} v e^{-v} \, dv = \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}} \left[-v e^{-v} \Big|_{0}^{\infty} - \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-v} \, dv \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{y_{2}}{2}}. \quad (\text{Note } f_{2}(y_{2}) = 0 \text{ for } y_{2} < 0.) \end{split}$$

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2$$

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$

$$=\frac{1}{2}\underbrace{\int_0^\infty y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} dy_2}_{-\frac{y_2}{2}}$$

This is exactly the \leftarrow integral we just did with y_1 replaced by y_2 .

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$
This is a

$$= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\int_0^\infty y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} dy_2}_{= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4}$$

This is exactly the \leftarrow integral we just did with y_1 replaced by y_2 .

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\int_{0}^{\infty} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} dy_2}_{= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = 2}.$$

This is exactly the — integral we just did with y₁ replaced by y₂.

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\int_0^{\infty} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2}_{= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = 2}$. This is
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with y_1 r

Similarly, compute $E\left[\frac{1}{Y_1}\right]$.

This is exactly the — integral we just did with y₁ replaced by y₂.

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\int_0^{\infty} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2}_{= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = \boxed{2}.$$

This is exactly the integral we just did with y_1 replaced by y_2 .

Similarly, compute $E\left\lfloor \overline{Y_1} \right\rfloor$.

Now multiply these to get the final answer:

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$
This is e

$$= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\int_{0}^{5} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} dy_2}_{= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = 2}.$$

Similarly, compute $E\left[\frac{1}{Y_1}\right]$. $\left(=\frac{1}{2}\right)$.

This is exactly the integral we just did with y₁ replaced by y₂.

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Now multiply these to get the final answer:

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So

$$E[Y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_2 f_2(y_2) \, dy_2 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\int_0^{\infty} y_2 e^{-\frac{y_2}{2}} \, dy_2}_{= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 = \boxed{2}.$ This is exactly the integral we just did with y_1 replaced by y_2 .

Similarly, compute $E\left[\frac{1}{Y_1}\right]$. $\left(=\frac{1}{2}\right)$.

Now multiply these to get the final answer: $E\left[\frac{Y_2}{Y_1}\right] = 1$.

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Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

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Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

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Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right]$$

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}]$$

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu$$

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu,$$

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu,$$
$$V\left[\overline{Y}\right] = V\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right]$$

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu,$$
$$V\left[\overline{Y}\right] = V\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \operatorname{Cov}\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu,$$

$$V\left[\overline{Y}\right] = V\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \operatorname{Cov}\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$
Exercise 5.27: (Relevant for MATH 448)

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu,$$

$$V\left[\overline{Y}\right] = V\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \operatorname{Cov}\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

Exercise 5.27: (Relevant for MATH 448)

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu,$$

$$V\left[\overline{Y}\right] = V\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \operatorname{Cov}\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^{2}}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}\operatorname{Cov}\left(Y_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n}Y_{j}\right)\right]$$

Exercise 5.27: (Relevant for MATH 448)

Let Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n be independent random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma^2$. Consider the new RV $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$. What are the mean and the variance of \overline{Y} ?

Solution:

$$E\left[\overline{Y}\right] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}E[Y_{i}] = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mu = \mu,$$

$$V\left[\overline{Y}\right] = V\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right] = \operatorname{Cov}\left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right) = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\operatorname{Cov}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}, \sum_{i=1}^{n}Y_{i}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^{2}}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}\operatorname{Cov}\left(Y_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n}Y_{j}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{n^{2}}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n}\operatorname{Cov}\left(Y_{i}, Y_{j}\right)\right].$$

But Y_i and Y_j are independent if $i \neq j$.

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But Y_i and Y_j are independent if $i \neq j$. So $Cov(Y_i, Y_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$.

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$$V[\overline{Y}] = \frac{1}{n^2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Cov}(Y_i, Y_i) + \sum_{\substack{i,j=1\\i\neq j}}^{n} \operatorname{Cov}(Y_i, Y_j) \right]$$

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$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n \cdot \sigma^2$$

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$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot n \cdot \sigma^2 = \left[\frac{\sigma^2}{n} \right].$$

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Shortcut: If random variables X, Y are independent, then V[X + Y] = V[X] + V[Y].

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Note that in the correct version of this computation, we used $V[aY] = a^2 V[Y]$, and that if X, Y are independent, then X and -Y are independent.

Suppose that an urn contains r red balls and N - r black balls. A random sample of n balls is drawn without replacement and Y, the number of red balls in the sample, is observed. Find the mean and variance of Y.

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Solution:

We have learnt that for a hypergeometric distribution Y,

$$E[Y] = \frac{nr}{N}, \qquad V[Y] = \frac{nr}{N} \cdot \frac{N-r}{N} \cdot \frac{N-n}{N-1}.$$

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Let $Y = X_1 + \dots + X_n$. Consider each X_i separately. $P(X_i = 1) = \frac{r}{N}$, so $E[X_i] = \frac{r}{N}$. By linearity of Expectation, we find

 $E[Y] = E[X_1 + \cdots + X_n]$

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Note that the X_i are dependent on one another and we can use linearity of E anyway.

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Let's consider the dependence more carefully:

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Let's consider the dependence more carefully:

$$P(X_2 = 1, X_1 = 1) = P(X_2 = 1 \mid X_1 = 1) \cdot P(X_1 = 1)$$

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$$P(X_2 = 1, X_1 = 1) = P(X_2 = 1 | X_1 = 1) \cdot P(X_1 = 1) = \frac{r-1}{N-1} \cdot \frac{r}{N}$$

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More generally, $P(X_{j} = 1, X_{i} = 1) = \frac{(r-1)r}{(N-1)N}.$
Since $X_{i} = 0$ or 1, $E[X_{i}X_{j}] = \frac{(r-1)r}{(N-1)N}.$

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Since $X_{i} = 0$ or 1, $E[X_{i}X_{j}] = \frac{(r-1)r}{(N-1)N}.$
We can now start thinking about

$$V[Y] = \operatorname{Cov}(Y, Y)$$

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$$V[Y] = \operatorname{Cov}(Y, Y) = \operatorname{Cov}(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i)$$
$$E[Y] = E[X_1 + \cdots + X_n] = E[X_1] + \cdots + E[X_n] = \frac{nr}{N}.$$

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Let's consider the dependence more carefully:

$$P(X_{2} = 1, X_{1} = 1) = P(X_{2} = 1 | X_{1} = 1) \cdot P(X_{1} = 1) = \frac{r-1}{N-1} \cdot \frac{r}{N}.$$

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We can now start thinking about

$$V[Y] = Cov(Y, Y) = Cov(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Cov(X_i, X_j).$$

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If $i \neq j$, then

 $Cov(X_i, X_j) = E[X_i X_j] - E[X_i]E[X_j]$

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If $i \neq j$, then

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$$\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = E[X_i^2] - E[X_i]^2.$$

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If $i \neq j$, then $\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = E[X_i X_j] - E[X_i]E[X_j] = \frac{(r-1)r}{(N-1)N} - \frac{r}{N} \cdot \frac{r}{N}.$ If i = j, then $\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = E[X_i^2] - E[X_i]^2.$

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$$Cov(X_i, X_i) = E[X_i^2] - E[X_i]^2.$$

But $Y_i = 0$ or 1. So $X_i^2 = X_i$. Thus $E[X_i^2] = \frac{r}{N}$,

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But $Y_i = 0$ or 1. So $X_i^2 = X_i$. Thus $E[X_i^2] = \frac{r}{N}$, and
 $\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = \frac{r}{N} - \left(\frac{r}{N}\right)^2.$

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If $i \neq j$, then

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$$\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = E[X_i^2] - E[X_i]^2.$$

But $Y_i = 0$ or 1. So $X_i^2 = X_i$. Thus $E[X_i^2] = \frac{r}{N}$, and
 $\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = \frac{r}{N} - \left(\frac{r}{N}\right)^2$. Therefore
 $V[Y] = n \cdot \left[\frac{r}{N} - \left(\frac{r}{N}\right)^2\right] + n(n-1) \cdot \left[\frac{(r-1)r}{(N-1)N} - \left(\frac{r}{N}\right)^2\right]$

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 $\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = \frac{r}{N} - \left(\frac{r}{N}\right)^2$. Therefore
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 $= \frac{nr}{N} \cdot \left(\left[1 - \frac{r}{N}\right] + (n-1)\left[\frac{r-1}{N-1} - \frac{r}{N}\right]\right)$

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If $i \neq j$, then

$$\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = E[X_i X_j] - E[X_i]E[X_j] = \frac{(r-1)r}{(N-1)N} - \frac{r}{N} \cdot \frac{r}{N}.$$

If i = j, then

$$\operatorname{Cov}(X_i, X_i) = E[X_i^2] - E[X_i]^2.$$

But $Y_i = 0$ or 1. So $X_i^2 = X_i$. Thus $E[X_i^2] = \frac{r}{N}$, and
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Multinomial experiment is like a binomial experiment, but there are k possible outcomes, not just 2.

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By thinking of outcome type i as success, and anything else as failure, we see that the marginal distribution of each Y_i is binomial with parameters n (the number of trials) and p_i (the probability of outcome type i).

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Proof: (Part (2) of Theorem 5.13)

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Proof: (Part (2) of Theorem 5.13) Define $U_{i} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if trial } i \text{ results} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, V_{j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if trial } j \text{ results} \\ i & \text{in outcome } t, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

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as claimed.

A learning experiment requires a rat to run a maze (a network of pathways) until it locates one of three possible exits. Exit 1 presents a reward of food, but exits 2 and 3 do not. (If the rat eventually selects exit 1 almost every time, learning may have taken place.) Let Y_i denote the number of times exit *i* is chosen in successive runnings. For the following, assume that the rat chooses an exit at random on each run.

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- (b) For general n, find $E[Y_1]$ and $V[Y_1]$.
- (c) Find $Cov(Y_2, Y_3)$ for general *n*.

A learning experiment requires a rat to run a maze (a network of pathways) until it locates one of three possible exits. Exit 1 presents a reward of food, but exits 2 and 3 do not. (If the rat eventually selects exit 1 almost every time, learning may have taken place.) Let Y_i denote the number of times exit *i* is chosen in successive runnings. For the following, assume that the rat chooses an exit at random on each run.

- (a) Find the probability that n = 6 runs result in $Y_1 = 3$, $Y_2 = 1$, and $Y_3 = 2$.
- (b) For general n, find $E[Y_1]$ and $V[Y_1]$.
- (c) Find $Cov(Y_2, Y_3)$ for general *n*.
- (d) To check for the rat's preference between exits 2 and 3, we may look at $Y_2 Y_3$. Find $E[Y_2 Y_3]$ and $V[Y_2 Y_3]$ for general *n*.

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$$E[Y_2 - Y_3] = E[Y_2] - E[Y_3] = \frac{n}{3} - \frac{n}{3} = 0.$$

Correlation

Math 447 - Probability

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If we translate this to the language of random variables by saying that the inner product of two RVs X, Y is Cov(X, Y) – notice that $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and $Cov(\cdot, \cdot)$ are both bilinear.

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The length or norm ||v|| translates to σ_X , i.e. $\sqrt{V[X]}$.

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$$|\rho_{X,Y}| = \frac{|\mathsf{Cov}(X,Y)|}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \le 1.$$

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Remark:

If you think of X and Y as being like vectors, you can think of $\rho_{X,Y}$ as being like the cosine of the angle between them.

Suppose $\rho_{X,Y} = 0.9$ and $\rho_{Y,Z} = 0.8$. What is the minimum possible value of $\rho_{X,Z}$?

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Example (Properties of Correlation)

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Suppose $\rho_{X,Y} = 0.2$ and Z = 2Y + 3. What is $\rho_{X,Z}$?

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Suppose $\rho_{X,Y} = 0.2$ and Z = 2Y + 3. What is $\rho_{X,Z}$?

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What if Z = -3Y + 4 instead? Same calculation shows that $\rho_{X,Z} = -\rho_{X,Y}$. This means that a linear change of variable can only change the sign of the correlation and not the magnitude.

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The Bivariate Normal Distribution

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Definition (Bivariate Normal Distribution)

Two continuous RVs Y_1 , Y_2 are said to have the bivariate normal distribution if the density function is given by

$$f(y_1, y_2) = rac{e^{-Q/2}}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-
ho^2}}, \quad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, -\infty < y_2 < \infty,$$

where

$$Q = \frac{1}{1-\rho^2} \left[\frac{(y_1-\mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} - 2\rho \frac{(y_1-\mu_1)(y_2-\mu_2)}{\sigma_1\sigma_2} + \frac{(y_2-\mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2} \right].$$

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Thus the bivariate normal distribution is a function of five parameters: $\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2$, and ρ .

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Exercise 5.128

The marginal distributions of Y_1 and Y_2 are normal distributions with means μ_1 and μ_2 and variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 , respectively.

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Exercise 5.128

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Remarks:

• With a bit of somewhat tedious integration, we can also show that $Cov(Y_1, Y_2)$

$$\rho = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(Y_1, Y_2)}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2} = \rho_{Y_1, Y_2},$$

the correlation coefficient between Y_1 and Y_2 .

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$$\rho = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}(Y_1, Y_2)}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2} = \rho_{Y_1, Y_2},$$

the correlation coefficient between Y_1 and Y_2 .

• This distribution is special, in the sense that, if Y_1 and Y_2 have a bivariate normal distribution, they are independent if and only if their covariance (equivalently, $\rho = \rho_{Y_1, Y_2}$) is zero.

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• With a bit of somewhat tedious integration, we can also show that $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x})$

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• This distribution is special, in the sense that, if Y_1 and Y_2 have a bivariate normal distribution, they are independent if and only if their covariance (equivalently, $\rho = \rho_{Y_1, Y_2}$) is zero. Zero covariance does not imply independence in general.

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Definition (The k-variate Normal Distribution $(k \ge 2)$)

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Let $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_k)$ denote a *k*-dimensional *random vector* (i.e. Y_1, \dots, Y_k are *k* random variables).

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Then Y_1, \ldots, Y_k have the k-variate normal distribution if their joint density function is

$$f_{\mathbf{Y}}(y_1,\ldots,y_k) = rac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2}\sqrt{\det \Sigma}} e^{\left(-rac{1}{2}(\mathbf{Y}-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{Y}-\mu)
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Check that k = 2 gives the bivariate normal distribution we have just seen.

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Conditional Expectation

Math 447 - Probability

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Conditional Expectation

$$E[Y_1 | Y_2 = y_2]$$
 or $E[g(Y_1) | Y_2 = y_2].$

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$$E[g(Y_1) \mid Y_2 = y_2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(y_1) f(y_1 \mid y_2) \, dy_1.$$

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Notice that this is a function of y_2 .

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Notice that this is a function of y_2 .

Recall that
$$f(y_1 \mid y_2) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)}$$

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Notice that this is a function of y_2 .

Recall that
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Assuming that everything is defined and we haven't divided by zero, we could compute the expectation of $E[Y_1 | Y_2 = y_2]$, because it is a function of Y_2 .

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Theorem (5.14)

Let Y_1 and Y_2 denote random variables. Then $E[Y_1] = E[E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]],$

where on the right-hand side the inside expectation is with respect to the conditional distribution of Y_1 given Y_2 and the outside expectation is with respect to the distribution of Y_2 .

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Proof: (continuous case; the discrete case is analogous.)
Let Y_1 and Y_2 denote random variables. Then $E[Y_1] = E[E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]],$

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Proof: (continuous case; the discrete case is analogous.)

$$E[E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E[Y_1 \mid Y_2] f_2(y_2) \, dy_2$$

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Proof: (continuous case; the discrete case is analogous.)

$$E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E[Y_1 | Y_2] f_2(y_2) \, dy_2$$

=
$$\int_{y_2=-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{y_1=-\infty}^{\infty} y_1 f(y_1 | y_2) \, dy_1 \right] f_2(y_2) \, dy_2$$

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Proof: (continuous case; the discrete case is analogous.)

$$E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E[Y_1 | Y_2] f_2(y_2) \, dy_2$$

=
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=
$$\int_{y_2 = -\infty}^{\infty} \int_{y_1 = -\infty}^{\infty} y_1 \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)} f_2(y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2$$

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Proof: (continuous case; the discrete case is analogous.)

$$E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E[Y_1 | Y_2] f_2(y_2) \, dy_2$$

= $\int_{y_2=-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{y_1=-\infty}^{\infty} y_1 f(y_1 | y_2) \, dy_1 \right] f_2(y_2) \, dy_2$
= $\int_{y_2=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{y_1=-\infty}^{\infty} y_1 \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_2(y_2)} f_2(y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2$
= $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_1 f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2$

Let Y_1 and Y_2 denote random variables. Then $E[Y_1] = E[E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]],$

where on the right-hand side the inside expectation is with respect to the conditional distribution of Y_1 given Y_2 and the outside expectation is with respect to the distribution of Y_2 .

Proof: (continuous case; the discrete case is analogous.)

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= $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y_1 f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1 \, dy_2 = E[Y_1].$

Our computation may be easier with the information given in the problem.

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Note:

 $E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]$ can be regarded as a RV.

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 $E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]$ can be regarded as a RV. Then $V[Y_1 \mid Y_2] = E[Y_1^2 \mid Y_2] - E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]^2.$

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Note:

 $E[Y_1 | Y_2]$ can be regarded as a RV. Then

$$V[Y_1 \mid Y_2] = E[Y_1^2 \mid Y_2] - E[Y_1 \mid Y_2]^2.$$

The formula in Theorem 5.14 was a relationship between the unconditional expectation $E[Y_1]$ and the conditional expectation $E[Y_1 | Y_2]$.

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The formula in Theorem 5.14 was a relationship between the unconditional expectation $E[Y_1]$ and the conditional expectation $E[Y_1 | Y_2]$. There is a more complicated relation between the unconditional variance V[Y] and the conditional variance $V[Y_1 | Y_2]$:

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Theorem (5.15)

$$V[Y_1] = E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]] + V[E[Y_1 | Y_2]].$$

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There are similar, but more complicated relationships between conditional and unconditional higher moments $E[Y_1^3]$, etc.

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Proof of Theorem 5.15:

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Recall

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$$E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]] = E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]] - E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]^2].$$

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Proof of Theorem 5.15:

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Then

$$E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]] = E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]] - E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]^2].$$

By definition,

$$V[E[Y_1 | Y_2]] = E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]^2] - E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]^2.$$

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The variance of Y_1 is $V[Y_1] = E[Y_1^2] - E[Y_1]^2$

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The variance of
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The variance of Y_1 is $V[Y_1] = E[Y_1^2] - E[Y_1]^2$ $= E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]] - E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]^2$ (By Theorem 5.14)

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 $= E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]] - E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]^2] + E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]^2]$
 $- E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]^2$

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$$= \underbrace{E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]] - E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]^2]}_{-E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]^2} + E[E[Y_1^2 | Y_2]^2]$$

$$= \underbrace{E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]}_{-E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]}$$

• By the definition of "conditional variance".

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$$= \underbrace{E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]}_{-E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]} + \underbrace{V[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]}_{-E[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]},$$

- By the definition of "conditional variance".
- Because $E[Y_1 | Y_2]$ is a RV and $V[X] = E[X^2] E[X]^2$.

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$$= \underbrace{E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]}_{-E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]} + \underbrace{V[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]}_{-E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]}, \text{ as claimed.}$$

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$$= \underbrace{E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]}_{-E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]} + \underbrace{V[E[Y_1 | Y_2]]}_{-E[V[Y_1 | Y_2]]}, \text{ as claimed.}$$

- By the definition of "conditional variance".
- Because $E[Y_1 | Y_2]$ is a RV and $V[X] = E[X^2] E[X]^2$.

<u>Note:</u> Make sure to remember this result: it will help with Exercises 5.136 and 5.138.

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Exercise 5.136

The number of defects per yard in a certain fabric, Y, has a Poisson distribution with parameter λ , which is assumed to be a random variable with a density function given by

$$f(\lambda) = egin{cases} e^{-\lambda} & \lambda \geq 0, \ 0 & ext{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Find (a) the expectation, and (b) the variance of Y. (c) Is it likely that $Y \ge 9$?

Exercise 5.136

The number of defects per yard in a certain fabric, Y, has a Poisson distribution with parameter λ , which is assumed to be a random variable with a density function given by

$$f(\lambda) = egin{cases} e^{-\lambda} & \lambda \geq 0, \ 0 & ext{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

Find (a) the expectation, and (b) the variance of Y. (c) Is it likely that $Y \ge 9$?

Exercise 5.138

Assume that Y denotes the number of bacteria per cubic centimeter in a particular liquid and that Y has a Poisson distribution with parameter λ . Further assume that λ varies from location to location and has a Gamma distribution with parameters α and β , where α is a positive integer. If we randomly select a location, what is the

- (a) expected number of bacteria per cubic centimeter?
- (b) standard deviation of the number of bacteria per cubic centimeter?

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• Use Theorem 5.14 for parts (a) and Theorem 5.15 for parts (b).

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- Use Theorem 5.14 for parts (a) and Theorem 5.15 for parts (b).
- Now 5.136(c) is easy.

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Exercise 5.167

Let Y_1 and Y_2 be jointly distributed random variables with finite variances.

(a) Show that

$$E[Y_1Y_2]^2 \le E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]$$

by observing that

$$E[(tY_1 - Y_2)^2] \ge 0$$

for any real number t.

- Use Theorem 5.14 for parts (a) and Theorem 5.15 for parts (b).
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by observing that

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(b) Hence prove that

$$-1 \le
ho_{Y_1,Y_2} \le 1$$

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If Y_1, Y_2 are RVs, then note that $E[(tY_1 - Y_2)^2] \ge 0$.

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If Y_1, Y_2 are RVs, then note that $E[(tY_1 - Y_2)^2] \ge 0$. So $E[t^2Y_1^2 - 2tY_1Y_2 + Y_2^2] \ge 0$.

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Math 447 - Probability
If Y_1, Y_2 are RVs, then note that $E[(tY_1 - Y_2)^2] \ge 0$. So $E[t^2Y_1^2 - 2tY_1Y_2 + Y_2^2] \ge 0$. $\therefore t^2 E[Y_1^2] - 2tE[Y_1Y_2] + E[Y_2^2] \ge 0$.

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$$b = -2E[Y_1Y_2], \qquad a = E[Y_1^2], \qquad c = E[Y_2^2].$$

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This is a quadratic $at^2 + bt + c \ge 0$. Since this is true for all real t, $b^2 - 4ac < 0$. Now

$$b = -2E[Y_1Y_2], \qquad a = E[Y_1^2], \qquad c = E[Y_2^2].$$

So

$$(-2E[Y_1Y_2])^2 - 4E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2] \le 0.$$

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$$(-2E[Y_1Y_2])^2 - 4E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2] \le 0.$$

$$\therefore \quad 4(E[Y_1Y_2])^2 - E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]) \le 0.$$

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$$\begin{array}{l} (-2E[Y_1Y_2])^2 - 4E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2] \leq 0. \\ \therefore \quad 4(E[Y_1Y_2])^2 - E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]) \leq 0. \\ \therefore \quad E[Y_1Y_2]^2 \leq E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]. \end{array}$$

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Now recall, for RVs X_1, X_2 , $\rho_{X_1, X_2} = \frac{\text{Cov}(X_1, X_2)}{\sigma_{X_1} \sigma_{X_2}}$

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where $\mu_1 = E[X_1]$ and $\mu_2 = E[X_2]$.

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Now let $Y_1 = X_1 - \mu_1$ and $Y_2 = X_2 - \mu_2$.

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Now let $Y_1 = X_1 - \mu_1$ and $Y_2 = X_2 - \mu_2$.
By Exercise 5.167(a), we know that $E[Y_1Y_2]^2 \le E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]$,

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$$\frac{E[Y_1Y_2]^2}{E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]} \le 1$$

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 $\frac{E[Y_1Y_2]^2}{E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]} \le 1 \implies \rho_{Y_1, Y_2}^2 \le 1,$

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 $\frac{E[Y_1Y_2]^2}{E[Y_1^2]E[Y_2^2]} \le 1 \implies \rho_{Y_1, Y_2}^2 \le 1,$
where we have used the linearity of Expectations. Thus

$$-1 \leq \rho_{Y_1,Y_2} \leq 1,$$

as desired.

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The joint density function of Y_1 and Y_2 is given by $f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 30y_1y_2^2 & y_1 - 1 \le y_2 \le 1 - y_1, 0 \le y_1 \le 1, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$

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(a) Show that the marginal density of Y_1 is a beta density with $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = 4$.

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- (a) Show that the marginal density of Y_1 is a beta density with $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = 4$.
- (b) Derive the marginal density of Y_2 .

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- (a) Show that the marginal density of Y_1 is a beta density with $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = 4$.
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- (c) Derive the conditional density of Y_2 given $Y_1 = y_1$.

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Solution:

First, graph the region in which the density function is nonzero:

 $y_2 = 1 - y_1$

 $y_2 = y_1 - 1$

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Recall the definition of marginal density function:

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$$\begin{cases} \int_{y_{1}-1}^{1-y_{1}} 30y_{1}y_{2}^{2} dy_{2} & 0 \le y_{1} \le 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

=
$$\begin{cases} 30y_{1} \frac{y_{2}^{3}}{3} \Big|_{y_{1}-1}^{1-y_{1}} & 0 \le y_{1} \le 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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 All of this is part of the definition of $f_1(y_1)$!

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Math 447 - Probability

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$$f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1.$$

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$$f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1$$
. Now there are 3 cases!

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 Now there are 3 cases!
If $-1 \le y_2 \le 0, \quad \int_0^{1+y_2} 30y_1y_2^2 \, dy_1$

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$$f_2(y_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y_1, y_2) \, dy_1. \text{ Now there are 3 cases!}$$

If $-1 \le y_2 \le 0$, $\int_{0}^{1+y_2} 30y_1y_2^2 \, dy_1 = 30y_2^2 \left. \frac{y_1^2}{2} \right|_{0}^{1+y_2}$

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and 0 otherwise. That is,
$$f_{2}(y_{2}) = \begin{cases} 0 & y_{2} \notin [-1,1], \\ 15y_{2}^{2}(1+y_{2})^{2} & y_{2} \in [-1,0], \\ 15y_{2}^{2}(1-y_{2})^{2} & y_{2} \in [0,1]. \end{cases}$$

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$$f(y_2 \mid y_1) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_1(y_1)}.$$

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$$f(y_2 \mid y_1) = \frac{f(y_1, y_2)}{f_1(y_1)}$$
. This is defined only if $y_1 \in (0, 1)$.

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 This is defined only if $y_1 \in (0, 1)$. In the triangle $\{y_1 - 1 < y_2 < 1 - y_1, 0 < y_1 < 1\}$, it is $\frac{30y_1y_2^2}{20y_1(1 - y_1)^3}$

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Solution: (d)

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 This is 0 unless
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Ξ.

A quality control plan for an assembly line involves sampling n = 10 finished items per day and counting Y, the number of defectives. If p denotes the probability of observing a defective, then Y has a binomial distribution, assuming that a large number of items are produced by the line. But p varies from day to day and is assumed to have a uniform distribution on the interval from 0 to $\frac{1}{4}$. Find the expected value of Y.

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Solution:

We employ Theorem 5.14:

A quality control plan for an assembly line involves sampling n = 10 finished items per day and counting Y, the number of defectives. If p denotes the probability of observing a defective, then Y has a binomial distribution, assuming that a large number of items are produced by the line. But p varies from day to day and is assumed to have a uniform distribution on the interval from 0 to $\frac{1}{4}$. Find the expected value of Y.

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We employ Theorem 5.14: E[Y] = E[E[Y | p]].

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 $E[Y \mid p] = np$ because we know the expectation of a binomial RV.

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o $E[Y] = \left[\frac{n}{8}\right]$.

In Example 5.32, find the variance of Y.

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Solution:

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Here we apply Theorem 5.15:

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Solution:

Here we apply Theorem 5.15: $V[Y] = E[V[Y \mid p]] + V[E[Y \mid p]].$

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Solution:

Here we apply Theorem 5.15: V[Y] = E[V[Y | p]] + V[E[Y | p]]. We know that for any particular value of p, Y is a binomial RV, whose mean and variance are known:

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, (where $q = 1 - p$).

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So V[Y] = E[npq] - V[np].

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$$E[Y \mid p] - np, V[Y \mid p] = npq, \text{ (where } q = 1 - p\text{)}.$$
$$V[Y] = E[npq] - V[np]. \text{ Remember that } p \sim \text{Unif}\left(0, \frac{1}{4}\right).$$

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Here we apply Theorem 5.15: V[Y] = E[V[Y | p]] + V[E[Y | p]]. We know that for any particular value of p, Y is a binomial RV, whose mean and variance are known:

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So $V[Y] = E[npq] - V[np]$. Remember that $p \sim \text{Unif}\left(0, \frac{1}{4}\right)$. So

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$$E[npq] = nE[pq] = n \int_0^{1/4} y(1-y) \frac{1}{1/4} dy$$
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Solution: (continued)

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Solution: (continued)

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Math 447 - Probability

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So $V[Y] = \boxed{\frac{5n}{48} + \frac{n^2}{192}}.$

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Now use the theorem.

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Slogan for Tchebysheff's Theorem:

The probability that Y is far from its mean, where "far" is measured in units of σ , is small.

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Suppose Y is a normal RV with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

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Does this show that Z is standard normal? <u>No</u>. This shows the "standard" part, but not the "normal" part. That is, we showed that Z has mean 0 and variance 1, but not that Z is normally distributed.

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Can you think of another RV which has mean 0 and variance 1?

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Two examples:

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• Uniform RV on [-a, a].

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• Uniform RV on
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This has mean $\frac{a + (-a)}{2} = 0$ and variance
 $\frac{(a - (-a))^2}{12} = \frac{4a^2}{12} = \frac{a^2}{3}$.

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This has mean $\frac{a + (-a)}{2} = 0$ and variance
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Uniform RV on [-a, a]. This has mean \$\frac{a+(-a)}{2} = 0\$ and variance \$\frac{(a-(-a))^2}{12} = \frac{4a^2}{12} = \frac{a^2}{3}\$. So if we take \$a = \sqrt{3}\$, this has variance 1.
Let

X = \$\begin{bmatrix}+1 & with probability \$1/2\$, \$-1\$ with probability \$1/2\$.

Then E[X] = 0, $V[X] = E[X^2] - 0^2 = 1$.

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One way to "recognize" a RV is to use the moment generating function.

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This shows that it is not possible to "recognize" a RV using only its mean and variance.

One way to "recognize" a RV is to use the moment generating function. That is, if we know (for whatever reason) that $m_X(t) = m_Y(t)$ for all t near t = 0, then we have that X and Y have the same distribution.

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The way we prove that $Z = \frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma}$ is normal is we show that Z has the right MGF.

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$$= e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}E[e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)\gamma}] = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}m_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right) = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}e^{\left(\frac{\mu\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)+\frac{\sigma^2\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)^2}{2}\right)}$$
$$= e^{\left(-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}+\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}+\frac{t^2}{2}\right)}$$

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$$= e^{\left(-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma} + \frac{\mu t}{\sigma} + \frac{t^2}{2}\right)} = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}.$$
And thus m (t) $e^{0t} = e^{0t}$

And thus $m_2(t) = e^{(0)t + \frac{(0)t}{2}}$.

This means that the MGF of Z is $E[e^{tZ}] = E[e^{t\left(\frac{Y-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}] = E[e^{\frac{t}{\sigma}(Y-\mu)}] = E[e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}Y\right)}]E[e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}(-\mu)\right)}]$ $= e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}E[e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)Y}] = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}m_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right) = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}e^{\left(\frac{\mu(\frac{t}{\sigma})+\frac{\sigma^2(\frac{t}{\sigma})^2}{2}\right)}$ $= e^{\left(-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}+\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}+\frac{t^2}{2}\right)} = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}.$

And thus $m_2(t) = e^{(0)t + \frac{(1)^2t^2}{2}}$. This is the MGF of a normal RV with mean 0 and variance 1.

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$$= e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}E[e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)Y}] = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}m_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right) = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}e^{\left(\mu\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right) + \frac{\sigma^2\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)^2}{2}\right)}$$
$$= e^{\left(-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma} + \frac{\mu t}{\sigma} + \frac{t^2}{2}\right)} = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}.$$

And thus $m_2(t) = e^{(0)t + \frac{(1)^2t^2}{2}}$. This is the MGF of a normal RV with mean 0 and variance 1. Therefore by "uniqueness of MGF", Z is normal, with mean 0 and variance 1.

End of Chapter 5

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Chapter 6

Functions of Random Variables

Math 447 - Probability

Dikran Karagueuzian

SUNY-Binghamton

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Functions of Random Variables

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Functions of Random Variables

Suppose we have random variables X, Y with some joint distribution.

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Suppose we have random variables X, Y with some joint distribution. We can construct a new RV U from X and Y by combining them somehow.

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Suppose we "know" X and Y in the sense that we know the joint density or joint distribution function.

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Simple Example:

Suppose Y has the density function

$$f(y) = egin{cases} 2y & y \in [0,1], \ 0 & y \notin [0,1]. \end{cases}$$

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Simple Example:

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Let U = 3Y - 1.

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Simple Example:

Suppose Y has the density function

$$T(y) = egin{cases} 2y & y \in [0,1], \ 0 & y \notin [0,1]. \end{cases}$$

Let U = 3Y - 1. Find the PDF of U.

Finding the Probability Distribution of a Function of RVs

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There are three key methods for finding the probability distribution for a function of random variables:

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- (1) The method of Distribution Functions,
- (2) The method of Transformations, and
- (3) The method of Moment-Generating Functions.

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There is also a fourth method for finding the *joint* distribution of several functions of random variables.

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There is also a fourth method for finding the *joint* distribution of several functions of random variables.

The method that works "best" varies from one application to another. Hence, acquaintance with the first three methods is desirable.

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Consider random variables Y_1, \ldots, Y_n and a function $U(Y_1, \ldots, Y_n)$, denoted simply as U.

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The method that works "best" varies from one application to another. Hence, acquaintance with the first three methods is desirable.

Consider random variables Y_1, \ldots, Y_n and a function $U(Y_1, \ldots, Y_n)$, denoted simply as U. Then three of the methods for finding the probability distribution of U are as follows:

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Outline:

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• Find the distribution function (CDF) $F_Y(y) = P(Y \le y)$.

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Step 1: Find
$$F_Y = P(Y \le y) = \int_{-\infty}^{y} f(t) dt$$
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Solution: (Simple Example)

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 $F_Y \equiv 0$ if y < 0. Also, since the PDF f_Y integrates to 1, $F_Y \equiv 1$ if y > 1.

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$$\underbrace{\text{Step 1:}}_{F_{Y}} \text{ Find } F_{Y} = P(Y \le y) = \int_{-\infty}^{y} f(t) \, dt.$$

$$F_{Y} \equiv 0 \text{ if } y < 0. \text{ Also, since the PDF } f_{Y} \text{ integrates to 1, } F_{Y} \equiv 1 \text{ if } y > 1.$$
If $y \in [0,1]$, then $\int_{-\infty}^{y} f(t) \, dt = \int_{0}^{y} 2t \, dt = t^{2} \Big|_{0}^{y}.$ So $F_{Y}(y) = y^{2}$. Thus
$$F_{Y}(y) = \begin{cases} y^{2} & y \in [0,1], \\ 0 & y < 0, \\ 1 & y > 1. \end{cases}$$

Step 2:

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Step 2: We know $P(Y \le y)$; we will use this to find $P(U \le u)$.

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$$= \begin{cases} \left(\frac{u+1}{3}\right)^2 & \frac{u+1}{3} \in [0,1], \\ 0 & \frac{u+1}{3} < 0, \\ 1 & \frac{u+1}{3} > 1. \end{cases}$$

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$${\mathcal F}_U(u) = egin{cases} rac{(u+1)^2}{9} & u \in [-1,2], \ 0 & u < -1, \ 1 & u > 2. \end{cases}$$

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Step 3:

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A more complicated example:

Suppose that X and Y are independent and have the unniform distribution on the unit interval [0, 1]. Let U = X + Y. Find the density function $f_U(u)$.

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Remark:

$$(X, Y)$$
 is a random point in $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$.

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Solution:

Write
$$F_U(u) = P(U \le u) = P(X + Y \le u)$$
.

Since (X, Y) is a random point in $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, we have $0 \le X + Y \le 2$.

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Since (X, Y) is a random point in $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, we have $0 \le X + Y \le 2$. Thus $F_U(u) = 0$ if u < 0 and $F_U(u) = 1$ if u > 2.

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We want to draw a square and the region $x + y \le u$:

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What is the area of the shaded region?

Since (X, Y) is a random point in $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, we have $0 \le X + Y \le 2$. Thus $F_U(u) = 0$ if u < 0 and $F_U(u) = 1$ if u > 2. In between we can draw a picture and solve geometrically.

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What is the area of the shaded region? $\frac{u^2}{2}$.

Since (X, Y) is a random point in $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, we have $0 \le X + Y \le 2$. Thus $F_U(u) = 0$ if u < 0 and $F_U(u) = 1$ if u > 2. In between we can draw a picture and solve geometrically.

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What is the area of the shaded region? $\frac{u^2}{2}$.

This works for $0 \le u \le 1$.

Since (X, Y) is a random point in $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, we have $0 \le X + Y \le 2$. Thus $F_U(u) = 0$ if u < 0 and $F_U(u) = 1$ if u > 2. In between we can draw a picture and solve geometrically.



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We want to draw a square and the region $x + y \le u$: Shaded region: $(x, y) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ and x + y < u. (0, u) What is the area of the shaded region? $\frac{u^2}{2}$. (u, 0) This works for 0 < u < 1. If 1 < u < 2, the picture is different: (u - 1, 1)(1, 1) $y_1 + y_2 = u$ Notice that this is no longer a triangle; it is a square with a triangle removed. (1.u - 1)The removed triangle has area $\frac{1}{2}(2-u)(2-u)$.

This tells us that

$$F_U(u) = \begin{cases} 0 & u < 0, \\ 1 & u > 2, \\ \frac{u^2}{2} & u \in [0, 1], \\ 1 - \frac{1}{2}(2 - u)^2 & u \in [1, 2]. \end{cases}$$

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This is a special case of a general fact: if U = X + Y, then the density of U is the convolution of the densities of X and Y.

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Example	

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Suppose Y_1, Y_2 have joint density

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 3y_1 & 0 \le y_2 \le y_1 \le 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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To find the density function $f_U(u)$, use $f_U(u) = \frac{d}{du}F_U(u)$.

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We found $F_U(u)$ by writing $F_U(u) = P(U \le u) = P(3Y - 1 \le u)$ and then rearranging to get $P\left(Y \le \frac{u+1}{3}\right) = F_Y\left(\frac{u+1}{3}\right)$.

Abstractly, we know f_Y and F_Y . Also u = h(Y), where h is an increasing function, so it preserves inequalities. So we can write

$$F_U(u) = P(U \le u) = P(h(Y) \le u) = P(Y \le h^{-1}(u)) = F_Y(h^{-1}(u)).$$

Thus

$$f_U(u) = \frac{d}{du}F_U(u) = \frac{d}{du}F_Y(h^{-1}(u)) = f_Y(h^{-1}(u)) \cdot \frac{d}{du}(h^{-1})(u).$$

This also works if h is decreasing: if h is decreasing, it <u>reverses</u> inequalities.

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So for such an *h*,

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$P(U \leq u) = P(h(Y) \leq u)$

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$$egin{aligned} & \mathcal{P}(U \leq u) = \mathcal{P}(h(Y) \leq u) = \mathcal{P}(h^{-1}(h(y)) \geq h^{-1}(u)) \ & = \mathcal{P}(Y \geq h^{-1}u) = 1 - \mathcal{F}_Y(h^{-1}(u)). \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{split} P(U \leq u) &= P(h(Y) \leq u) = P(h^{-1}(h(y)) \geq h^{-1}(u)) \\ &= P(Y \geq h^{-1}u) = 1 - F_Y(h^{-1}(u)). \end{split}$$

So

$$\frac{d}{du}F_U(u) = \frac{d}{du}\left[1 - F_Y(h^{-1}(u))\right]$$

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So $\left|\frac{d}{du}(h^{-1})\right| \equiv \frac{1}{3}$. Thus $f_U(u) = \frac{1}{3}f_Y\left(\frac{u+1}{3}\right)$, which is

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The method can be adapted for non-invertible cases; we consider such an example:

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Example

Let Y_1 , Y_2 be independent exponential RVs with parameter = 1. Let $U = Y_1 + Y_2$. Find the PDF $f_U(u)$.

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Where is our function invertible and increasing? For fixed y_1 , $U = y_1 + Y_2 = h(Y_2)$.

Regard this as a function of Y_2 .

Solution: (continued)

Now we will use the method to obtain the joint density of U and Y_1 :

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Let $\alpha,m>0$ be constants. Suppose that Y has the Weibull distribution, whose density function is

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Find the density function of $U = Y^m$.

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Find the density function of $U = Y^m$.

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Now translate this to obtain the desired $f_U(u)$:

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$$f_{U}(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\alpha} m \left(u^{\frac{1}{m}} \right)^{m-1} e^{-\frac{(u^{1/m})^{m}}{\alpha}} \left| \frac{d}{du} (h^{-1})(u) \right| & y > 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Math 447 - Probability

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$$\begin{split} h_X(t) &= E\left[e^{tX}\right] = E\left[e^{t\left(\frac{Y-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}\right] \\ &= E\left[e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)Y}e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}\right] = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}} \cdot E\left[e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)Y}\right] \\ &= e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}m_Y\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right) = e^{-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma}}e^{\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}+\frac{\sigma^2\left(\frac{t}{\sigma}\right)^2}{2}\right)} \end{split}$$

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$$= e^{\frac{t^{2}}{2}}, \quad \text{exactly the same as the MGF of } Z.$$
$$\underline{Conclusion:} X = \frac{Y-\mu}{\sigma} \text{ has the standard normal distribution.}$$

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$$\implies 1 - 2t = \frac{1}{\sigma^{2}}$$

$$\therefore \quad m_{\mathbf{Y}}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\left(-\frac{z^2}{2} + tz^2\right)} dz.$$

We'd like $-\frac{z^2}{2} + tz^2 = \frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}$ for some σ . What does σ have to be? $-\frac{1}{2} + t = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \implies \frac{1}{2} - t = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}$

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 $\therefore \quad m_{Y}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\left(-\frac{z^{2}}{2} + tz^{2}\right)} dz.$ We'd like $-\frac{z^2}{2} + tz^2 = \frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}$ for some σ . What does σ have to be? $-\frac{1}{2}+t=-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\implies \frac{1}{2}-t=\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}$ $\implies 1-2t = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \implies \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{1-2t}.$ $\therefore \quad m_Y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}} dz \quad \text{where } \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{1-2t}.$ $\therefore \quad \frac{1}{\sigma}m_Y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}} dz = 1.$ normal PDF Thus $m_Y(t) = \sigma = \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{1/2}}$. This is the MGF for a Gamma RV with $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ and $\beta = 2$. The same is a MGF of a $\chi^2[1]$ RV.
Conclusion: The distribution of
$$Y = Z^2$$
 is $\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}, 2\right)$ which is the same as $\chi^2[1]$.

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Problem:

In the above setting, find $E[Z^4]$.

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We have just shown that if Z is standard normal, then Z^2 is $\chi^2[1]$.

:. $E[Z^4] = E[(Z^2)^2] = V[Z^2] + E[Z^2]^2$ using $V[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$.

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$$V[Z^2] = \alpha \beta^2, \quad E[Z^2] = \alpha \beta, \qquad \text{where } \alpha = \frac{1}{2}, \beta = 2.$$

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Suppose X, Y are RVs with $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1, \beta)$ and $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha_2, \beta)$, and X, Y are independent.

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Suppose X, Y are RVs with $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1, \beta)$ and $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha_2, \beta)$, and X, Y are independent. Let U = X + Y.

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Solution:

Note that

$$m_U(t) = E[e^{tU}]$$

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$$m_U(t) = E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(X+Y)}] = E[e^{tX}e^{tY}]$$

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$$m_U(t) = E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(X+Y)}] = E[e^{tX}e^{tY}]$$

= $E[e^{tX}]E[e^{tY}]$ (by independence) = $m_X(t)M_Y(t)$
= $\frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_1}} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_2}}$

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Solution:

Note that

$$\begin{split} m_U(t) &= E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(X+Y)}] = E[e^{tX}e^{tY}] \\ &= E[e^{tX}]E[e^{tY}] \quad \text{(by independence)} \quad = m_X(t)M_Y(t) \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_1}} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_2}} = \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_1+\alpha_2}}. \end{split}$$

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Suppose X, Y are RVs with $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1, \beta)$ and $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha_2, \beta)$, and X, Y are independent. Let U = X + Y. What is the distribution of U?

Solution:

Note that $m_U(t) = E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(X+Y)}] = E[e^{tX}e^{tY}]$ $= E[e^{tX}]E[e^{tY}] \quad (by independence) = m_X(t)M_Y(t)$ $= \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_1}} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_2}} = \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_1+\alpha_2}}.$ This is the MGF of a $\Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \beta)$ RV.

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Solution:

Note that $m_{U}(t) = E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(X+Y)}] = E[e^{tX}e^{tY}]$ $= E[e^{tX}]E[e^{tY}] \quad (by independence) = m_{X}(t)M_{Y}(t)$ $= \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_{1}}} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_{2}}} = \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^{\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}}}.$ This is the MGF of a $\Gamma(\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2}, \beta)$ RV. So if $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha_{1}, \beta)$ and $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha_{2}, \beta)$ are independent, then $U = X + Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha_{1} + \alpha_{2}, \beta).$

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Theorem (6.3)

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be independent normally distributed random variables with $E[Y_i] = \mu_i$ and $V[Y_i] = \sigma_i^2$, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$, and let a_1, \ldots, a_n be constants. If

$$U=\sum_{i=1}^n a_i Y_i,$$

then U is a normally distributed random variable with

$$E[U] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \mu_i$$
 and $V[U] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 \sigma_i^2$.

The normally distributed RV Y_i has the MGF

$$n_{Y_i}(t) = e^{\left(\mu_i t + \frac{\sigma_i^2 t^2}{2}\right)}$$

for each $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

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The normally distributed RV Y_i has the MGF

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$$p_{Y_i}(t) = e^{\left(\mu_i t + rac{\sigma_i^2 t^2}{2}\right)}$$

for each i = 1, ..., n. So the RV $a_i Y_i$ has the MGF _____. (Find it!)

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The normally distributed RV Y_i has the MGF

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$$\eta_{Y_i}(t) = e^{\left(\mu_i t + \frac{\sigma_i^2 t^2}{2}\right)}$$

for each i = 1, ..., n. So the RV $a_i Y_i$ has the MGF _____. (Find it!) Now use the independence of Y_i (thus that of $a_i Y_i$) to find

$$m_U(t) = \prod_{i=1}^n m_{a_i Y_i}(t)$$

The normally distributed RV Y_i has the MGF

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$$m_{U}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} m_{a_{i}Y_{i}}(t) = e^{\left(t\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}\mu_{i} + \frac{t^{2}}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}^{2}\sigma_{i}^{2}\right)}.$$
 (Verify!)

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 (Verify!)

By uniqueness of MGF, U is a normally distributed random variable with

$$E[U] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \mu_i$$
 and $V[U] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 \sigma_i^2$.

Theorem (6.4)

If Z_1, \ldots, Z_n are independent standard normal RVs, then $U = Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[n]$. (Same as $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}, 2\right)$.)

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If Z_1, \ldots, Z_n are independent standard normal RVs, then $U = Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[n]$. (Same as $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}, 2\right)$.)

Proof:
If Z_1, \ldots, Z_n are independent standard normal RVs, then $U = Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[n]$. (Same as $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}, 2\right)$.)

Proof:

If
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Proof:

Claim:
$$m_U(t) = \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{n/2}}$$
, the MGF of $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2},2\right)$

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 $m_U(t) = E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_n^2)}]$
 $= E[e^{tZ_1^2} - e^{tZ_n^2}]$

$$= E[e^{tZ_1^2}] \dots E[e^{tZ_n^2}] \qquad (by independence)$$

If
$$Z_1, \ldots, Z_n$$
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 $U = Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[n]$. (Same as $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}, 2\right)$.)

Proof:

We use the method of MGFs.

Claim:
$$m_U(t) = \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{n/2}}$$
, the MGF of $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}, 2\right)$.
 $m_U(t) = E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_n^2)}]$
 $= E[e^{tZ_1^2} \dots e^{tZ_n^2}]$
 $= E[e^{tZ_1^2}] \dots E[e^{tZ_n^2}]$ (by independence)
 $= \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{1/2}} \dots \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{1/2}}$ (as each Z_i^2 has the $\chi^2[1]$ distribution)

n times

Math 447 - Probability

If
$$Z_1, \ldots, Z_n$$
 are independent standard normal RVs, then
 $U = Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[n]$. (Same as $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}, 2\right)$.)

Proof:

Claim:
$$m_U(t) = \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{n/2}}$$
, the MGF of $\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}, 2\right)$.
 $m_U(t) = E[e^{tU}] = E[e^{t(Z_1^2 + \dots + Z_n^2)}]$
 $= E[e^{tZ_1^2} \dots e^{tZ_n^2}]$ (by independence)
 $= \underbrace{\frac{1}{(1-2t)^{1/2}} \dots \underbrace{\frac{1}{(1-2t)^{1/2}}}_{n \text{ times}}$ (as each Z_i^2 has the $\chi^2[1]$ distribution)
 $= \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{n/2}}$.

Let's consider the case of two random variables first.

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The Bivariate Transform Method

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The Bivariate Transform Method

Suppose that Y_1 and Y_2 are continuous random variables with joint density function $f_{Y_1,Y_2}(y_1,y_2)$ and that for all (y_1,y_2) , such that $f_{Y_1,Y_2}(y_1,y_2) > 0$,

 $u_1 = h_1(y_1, y_2)$ and $u_2 = h_2(y_1, y_2)$

is a one-to-one transformation from (y_1, y_2) to (u_1, u_2) with inverse

$$y_1 = h_1^{-1}(u_1, u_2)$$
 and $y_2 = h_2^{-1}(u_1, u_2)$.

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$$y_1 = h_1^{-1}(u_1, u_2)$$
 and $y_2 = h_2^{-1}(u_1, u_2).$

If $h_1^{-1}(u_1, u_2)$ and $h_2^{-1}(u_1, u_2)$ have continuous partial derivatives with respect to u_1 and u_2 and the *Jacobian*

$$J = \det \begin{bmatrix} \partial h_1^{-1} / \partial u_1 & \partial h_1^{-1} / \partial u_2 \\ \partial h_2^{-1} / \partial u_1 & \partial h_2^{-1} / \partial u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\partial h_1^{-1}}{\partial u_1} \frac{\partial h_2^{-1}}{\partial u_2} - \frac{\partial h_2^{-1}}{\partial u_1} \frac{\partial h_1^{-1}}{\partial u_2} \neq 0,$$

then the joint density of U_1 and U_2 is

$$f_{U_1,U_2}(u_1,u_2) = f_{Y_1,Y_2}\left(h_1^{-1}(u_1,u_2),h_2^{-1}(u_1,u_2)\right)|J|,$$

where |J| is the absolute value of J.

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The transformation follows from calculus results used for change of variables in multiple integration.

Caution:

Be sure that the bivariate transformation $u_1 = h_1(y_1, y_2)$, $u_2 = h_2(y_1, y_2)$ is a one-to-one transformation for all (y_1, y_2) such that $f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) > 0$.

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Let's use this method for the following example:

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Caution:

Be sure that the bivariate transformation $u_1 = h_1(y_1, y_2)$, $u_2 = h_2(y_1, y_2)$ is a one-to-one transformation for all (y_1, y_2) such that $f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) > 0$. If not, then the resulting "density" function will not have the necessary properties of a valid density function.

Let's use this method for the following example:

Example 6.13

Let Y_1 and Y_2 be independent standard normal random variables. If $U_1 = Y_1 + Y_2$ and $U_2 = Y_1 - Y_2$, then what is the joint density of U_1 and U_2 ?

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The density functions for Y_1 and Y_2 are

$$f_1(y_1) = rac{e^{-rac{1}{2}y_1^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad f_2(y_2) = rac{e^{-rac{1}{2}y_2^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, \ -\infty < y_2 < \infty,$$

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$$f_1(y_1) = rac{e^{-rac{1}{2}y_1^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad f_2(y_2) = rac{e^{-rac{1}{2}y_2^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, \ -\infty < y_2 < \infty,$$

and the independence of Y_1 and Y_2 implies that their joint density is

$$f_{Y_1,Y_2}(y_1,y_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y_1^2+y_2^2)}, \qquad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, \\ -\infty < y_2 < \infty.$$

The density functions for Y_1 and Y_2 are

$$f_1(y_1) = rac{e^{-rac{1}{2}y_1^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad f_2(y_2) = rac{e^{-rac{1}{2}y_2^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, \ -\infty < y_2 < \infty,$$

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In this case $f_{Y_1,Y_2}(y_1,y_2) > 0$ for all $-\infty < y_1 < \infty$ and $-\infty < y2 < \infty.$

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and the independence of Y_1 and Y_2 implies that their joint density is

$$f_{Y_1,Y_2}(y_1,y_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y_1^2+y_2^2)}, \qquad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, \\ -\infty < y_2 < \infty.$$

In this case $f_{Y_1,Y_2}(y_1,y_2) > 0$ for all $-\infty < y_1 < \infty$ and $-\infty < y^2 < \infty$. We are interested in the transformation

$$u_1 = y_1 + y_2 = h_1(y_1, y_2)$$
 and $u_2 = y_1 - y_2 = h_2(y_1, y_2),$

The density functions for Y_1 and Y_2 are

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and the independence of Y_1 and Y_2 implies that their joint density is

$$f_{Y_1,Y_2}(y_1,y_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y_1^2+y_2^2)}, \qquad -\infty < y_1 < \infty, \\ -\infty < y_2 < \infty.$$

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with the inverse transformation

$$y_1 = \frac{u_1 + u_2}{2} = h_1^{-1}(u_1, u_2)$$
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Because $\frac{\partial h_1^{-1}}{\partial u_1} = \frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{\partial h_1^{-1}}{\partial u_2} = \frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{\partial h_2^{-1}}{\partial u_1} = \frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{\partial h_2^{-1}}{\partial u_2} = -\frac{1}{2}$, the Jacobian of this transformation is

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$$J = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$J = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$$

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and the joint density of U_1 and U_2 is

$$f_{U_1,U_2}(u_1,u_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{u_1+u_2}{2} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{u_1-u_2}{2} \right)^2 \right]} \left| -\frac{1}{2} \right|, \quad -\infty < \frac{u_1+u_2}{2} < \infty, \\ -\infty < \frac{u_1-u_2}{2} < \infty.$$

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A little algebra manipulation yields

$$f_{U_1,U_2}(u_1,u_2) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{u_1^2}{2}\right)}}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{u_2^2}{2}\right)}}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad -\infty < u_1 < \infty, \\ -\infty < u_2 < \infty.$$

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ight)}}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad -\infty < u_1 < \infty, \ -\infty < u_2 < \infty.$$

Notice that U_1 and U_2 are *independent* and normally distributed, both with mean 0 and variance 2.

$$J = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = -\frac{1}{2} \neq 0,$$

and the joint density of U_1 and U_2 is

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A little algebra manipulation yields

$$f_{U_1,U_2}(u_1,u_2) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{u_1^2}{2}\right)}}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{u_2^2}{2}\right)}}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2\pi}}, \quad -\infty < u_1 < \infty, \\ -\infty < u_2 < \infty.$$

Notice that U_1 and U_2 are *independent* and normally distributed, both with mean 0 and variance 2. The extra information provided by the joint distribution of U_1 and U_2 is that the two variables are independent!

The *k*-variate Transformation

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The *k*-variate Transformation

If Y_1, \ldots, Y_k are jointly continuous random variables and $U_1 = h_1(Y_1, \ldots, Y_k), \quad \ldots \quad , U_k = h_k(Y_1, \ldots, Y_k),$

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The *k*-variate Transformation

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where the transformation

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is a one-to-one transformation from (y_1, \ldots, y_k) to (u_1, \ldots, u_k) ,

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$$y_1 = h_1^{-1}(u_1, \ldots, u_k), \quad \ldots \quad , y_k = h_k^{-1}(u_1, \ldots, u_k),$$

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$$U_1 = h_1(Y_1,\ldots,Y_k), \quad \ldots \quad , U_k = h_k(Y_1,\ldots,Y_k),$$

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$$J = \det \begin{bmatrix} \partial h_1^{-1} / \partial u_1 & \cdots & \partial h_1^{-1} / \partial u_k \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \partial h_k^{-1} / \partial u_1 & \cdots & \partial h_k^{-1} / \partial u_k \end{bmatrix} \neq 0,$$

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$$U_1 = h_1(Y_1,\ldots,Y_k), \quad \ldots \quad , U_k = h_k(Y_1,\ldots,Y_k),$$

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then there is a result analogous to the bivariate case that can be used to find the joint density of U_1, \ldots, U_k .

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Math 447 - Probability

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If Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are independent normal RVs with means μ_i and variances σ_i^2 , we can write $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$

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If Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are independent normal RVs with means μ_i and variances σ_i^2 , we can write $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$ and compute $Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ (a sum of squared normalized "errors").

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So we can do hypothesis testing by computing this quantity, and seeing how the results compare to the predicted distribution.

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"Order Statistics"

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"Order Statistics"

Suppose we have Y_1, \ldots, Y_n independent and identically distributed (IID) RVs.

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So we can do hypothesis testing by computing this quantity, and seeing how the results compare to the predicted distribution.

"Order Statistics"

Suppose we have Y_1, \ldots, Y_n independent and identically distributed (IID) RVs. We could write $Y_{(1)}$ for the smallest, $Y_{(n)}$ for the largest; so $Y_{(1)} \leq Y_{(2)} \leq \cdots \leq Y_{(n)}$;

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If Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are independent normal RVs with means μ_i and variances σ_i^2 , we can write $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$ and compute $Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ (a sum of squared normalized "errors"). We know the distribution of this quantity.

So we can do hypothesis testing by computing this quantity, and seeing how the results compare to the predicted distribution.

"Order Statistics"

Suppose we have Y_1, \ldots, Y_n independent and identically distributed (IID) RVs. We could write $Y_{(1)}$ for the smallest, $Y_{(n)}$ for the largest; so

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{(1)} &\leq Y_{(2)} \leq \cdots \leq Y_{(n)}; \\ \text{where} \quad Y_{(1)} &= \min\{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}, \ Y_{(n)} &= \max\{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\} \end{aligned}$$

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If Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are independent normal RVs with means μ_i and variances σ_i^2 , we can write $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$ and compute $Z_1^2 + \cdots + Z_n^2$ (a sum of squared normalized "errors"). We know the distribution of this quantity.

So we can do hypothesis testing by computing this quantity, and seeing how the results compare to the predicted distribution.

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What is the distribution of $Y_{(1)}, \dots, Y_{(n)}$?

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Suppose we have Y_1, \ldots, Y_n independent and identically distributed (IID) RVs. We could write $Y_{(1)}$ for the smallest, $Y_{(n)}$ for the largest; so $Y_{(1)} \leq Y_{(2)} \leq \cdots \leq Y_{(n)}$; where $Y_{(1)} = \min\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}, Y_{(n)} = \max\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}$. What is the distribution of $Y_{(1)}, \ldots, Y_{(n)}$? The answer is given by Theorem 6.5:

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A $\mathit{statistic}$ is a function of the observable random variables in a sample and known constants.

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Theorem (6.5)

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Theorem (6.5)

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be independent identically distributed continuous random variables with common distribution function F(y) and common density function f(y). If $Y_{(k)}$ denotes the k^{th} -order statistic, then the density function of $Y_{(k)}$ is given by

$$g_{(k)}(y_k) = \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} [F(y_k)]^{k-1} [1 - F(y_k)]^{n-k} f(y).$$

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If j and k are two integers such that $1 \le j < k \le n$, the joint density of $Y_{(j)}$ and $Y_{(k)}$, for $y_j < y_k$, is given by

$$g_{(j)(k)}(y_j, y_k) = \frac{n!}{(j-1)!(k-1-j)!(n-k)!} [F(y_j)]^{j-1} \\ \times [F(y_k) - F(y_j)]^{k-1-j} \times [1 - F(y_k)]^{n-k} f(y_j) f(y_k).$$

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We will look at the simplest cases $Y_{(n)}$ and $Y_{(1)}$.

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Assume that the distribution of each Y_i is known, with CDF F(y) and PDF f(y).

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distribution of $Y_{(n)} = G_{(n)}(y) := P(Y_{(n)} \leq y)$.

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Write $g_{(n)}(y)$ for the PDF of $Y_{(n)}$.

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$$G_{(n)}(y) = P(Y_{(n)} \leq y) = P(\max\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\} \leq y)$$

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Write $g_{(n)}(y)$ for the PDF of $Y_{(n)}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} F_{(n)}(y) &= P(Y_{(n)} \leq y) = P(\max\{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\} \leq y) \\ &= P(Y_1 \leq y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n \leq y) \\ &= P(Y_1 \leq y) \cdots P(Y_n \leq y) \quad \text{(by independence)} \\ &= \underbrace{F(y) \cdots F(y)}_{n \text{ times}} \end{aligned}$$

n times

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= $P(Y_1 \le y) \cdots P(Y_n \le y)$ (by independence)
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So $G_{(n)}(y) = (F(y))^{n}$.

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= $P(Y_1 \le y) \cdots P(Y_n \le y)$ (by independence)
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So $G_{(n)}(y) = (F(y))^n$. It follows that

$$g_{(n)}(y)=G'_{(n)}(y)$$

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= $P(Y_1 \le y) \cdots P(Y_n \le y)$ (by independence)
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So $G_{(n)}(y) = (F(y))^n$. It follows that

$$g_{(n)}(y) = G'_{(n)}(y) = n (F(y))^{n-1} f(y).$$

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So $G_{(n)}(y) = (F(y))^n$. It follows that

$$g_{(n)}(y) = G'_{(n)}(y) = n(F(y))^{n-1} f(y).$$

What about the CDF and PDF for $Y_{(1)} = \min\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}$?

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Proof:

Assume that the distribution of each Y_i is known, with CDF F(y) and PDF f(y). What is the distribution of $Y_{(n)}$?

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= $P(Y_1 \le y) \cdots P(Y_n \le y)$ (by independence)
= $\underbrace{F(y) \cdots F(y)}_{n \text{ times}} = (F(y))^n.$

So $G_{(n)}(y) = (F(y))^n$. It follows that

$$g_{(n)}(y) = G'_{(n)}(y) = n (F(y))^{n-1} f(y).$$

What about the CDF and PDF for $Y_{(1)} = \min\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}$? Work it out in a similar manner as above to discover

$$G_{(1)}(y) = 1 - (1 - F(y))^n$$
,

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What about the CDF and PDF for $Y_{(1)} = \min\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_n\}$? Work it out in a similar manner as above to discover

$$G_{(1)}(y) = 1 - (1 - F(y))^n$$
, and $g_{(1)}(y) = n(1 - F(y))^{n-1} f(y)$.

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(1) In terms of the distribution function F, what is $P(Y_1 > y)$?

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(2) In terms of the distribution function F, what is $P(Y_m > y)$?

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- (2) In terms of the distribution function F, what is $P(Y_m > y)$?
- (3) In terms of the distribution function F, what is $P(Y_m \le y)$?

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- (2) In terms of the distribution function F, what is $P(Y_m > y)$?
- (3) In terms of the distribution function F, what is $P(Y_m \le y)$?
- (4) Find the probability density function f_m of Y_m in terms of F and f.

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(1) $P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y)$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = |1 - F(y)|.$$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \boxed{1 - F(y)}$$
.
(2) $Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y.$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = 1 - F(y)$$
.
(2)

$$Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y.$$

Therefore

$$P(Y_m > y) = P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y)$$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = 1 - F(y)$$
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(2)

$$Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{split} P(Y_m > y) &= P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y) \\ &= P(Y_1 > y) \cdots P(Y_n > y) \quad (\text{by independence}) \end{split}$$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = 1 - F(y)$$
.
(2)

$$Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y.$$

Therefore

$$P(Y_m > y) = P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y)$$

= $P(Y_1 > y) \cdots P(Y_n > y)$ (by independence)
= $\underbrace{(1 - F(y)) \cdots (1 - F(y))}_{n \text{ times}}$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \lfloor 1 - F(y) \rfloor$$
.
(2) $Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y$.

Therefore

$$P(Y_m > y) = P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y)$$

= $P(Y_1 > y) \cdots P(Y_n > y)$ (by independence)
= $\underbrace{(1 - F(y)) \cdots (1 - F(y))}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{(1 - F(y))^n}_{n \text{ times}}.$

Math 447 - Probability

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \lfloor 1 - F(y) \rfloor$$
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(3) $P(Y_m \le y) = 1 - P(Y_m > y)$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \lfloor 1 - F(y) \rfloor$$
.
(2) $Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y$.
Therefore $P(Y_m > y) = P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } y_n \ge y)$

$$P(Y_m > y) = P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y)$$

= $P(Y_1 > y) \dots P(Y_n > y)$ (by independence)
= $\underbrace{(1 - F(y)) \dots (1 - F(y))}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{(1 - F(y))^n}_{n \text{ times}}.$

(3)
$$P(Y_m \le y) = 1 - P(Y_m > y) = \left[1 - (1 - F(y))^n\right].$$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \lfloor 1 - F(y) \rfloor$$
.
(2)
 $Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y$.
Therefore
 $P(Y_m > y) = P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y)$
 $= P(Y_1 > y) \cdots P(Y_n > y)$ (by independence)
 $= \underbrace{(1 - F(y)) \cdots (1 - F(y))}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{(1 - F(y))^n}_{n \text{ times}}$.

(3)
$$P(Y_m \le y) = 1 - P(Y_m > y) = \lfloor 1 - (1 - F(y))^n \rfloor$$
.
(4)
 $f_m(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_m(y)$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \lfloor 1 - F(y) \rfloor$$
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(3) $P(Y_m \le y) = 1 - P(Y_m > y) = \underbrace{(1 - (1 - F(y))^n}_{n \text{ times}}.$
(4)

$$f_m(y) = \frac{d}{dy}F_m(y) = \frac{d}{dy}\left[1 - (1 - F(y))^n\right]$$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \boxed{1 - F(y)}$$
.
(2)
 $Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y.$
Therefore
 $P(Y_m > y) = P(Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y)$
 $= P(Y_1 > y) \cdots P(Y_n > y) \quad \text{(by independence)}$
 $= \underbrace{(1 - F(y)) \cdots (1 - F(y))}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{(1 - F(y))^n}_{\text{(4)}}.$
(3) $P(Y_m \le y) = 1 - P(Y_m > y) = \underbrace{1 - (1 - F(y))^n}_{\text{(4)}}.$

$$f_m(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_m(y) = \frac{d}{dy} \left[1 - (1 - F(y))^n \right]$$
$$= -n[1 - F(y)]^{n-1} \frac{d}{dy} (-F(y))$$

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(1)
$$P(Y_1 > y) = 1 - P(Y_1 \le y) = \boxed{1 - F(y)}$$
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 $Y_m > y \iff Y_1 > y \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } Y_n > y$.
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 $= P(Y_1 > y) \cdots P(Y_n > y)$ (by independence)
 $= \underbrace{(1 - F(y)) \cdots (1 - F(y))}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{(1 - F(y))^n}_{n}$.
(3) $P(Y_m \le y) = 1 - P(Y_m > y) = \underbrace{1 - (1 - F(y))^n}_{n}$.
(4)
 $f_m(y) = \frac{d}{dy} F_m(y) = \frac{d}{dy} [1 - (1 - F(y))^n]$
 $= -n[1 - F(y)]^{n-1} \frac{d}{dy} (-F(y)) = \boxed{n(1 - F(y))^{n-1} f(y)}_{n}$.

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The joint distribution of amount of pollutant emitted from a smokestack without a cleaning device (Y_1) and a similar smokestack with a cleaning device (Y_2) is

$$f(y_1, y_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \le y_1 \le 2, 0 \le y \le 1 \text{ and } 2y_2 \le y_1, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

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Solution:

Note that the region where the PDF $f(y_1, y_2) \neq 0$ is as shown along:

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Now we find the PDF for $U = Y_1 - Y_2$.

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If $0 \le u \le 1$, the region looks like this:






If $1 \le u \le 2$, this is how the region looks:

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If $1 \le u \le 2$, this is how the region looks: The area of the region is 1 minus the area of the small triangle.



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If $1 \le u \le 2$, this is how the region looks: The area of the region is 1 minus the area of the small triangle. The area of the shaded region, as a function of u, is the PDF of U.

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Example 6.4

Let Y have probability density function given by

$$f_Y(y) = \begin{cases} rac{y+1}{2} & -1 \leq y \leq 1, \\ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Find the density function for $U = Y^2$.

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Find the density function for $U = Y^2$.

Answer:
$$f_U(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} & 0 < u \le 1, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases}$$

End of Chapter 6

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Chapter 7

Sampling Distributions and the Central Limit Theorem

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Theorem (7.1)

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be a random sample of size n from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

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$$\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$$

is normally distributed with mean $\mu_{\overline{Y}} = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2 = \sigma^2/n$.

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is normally distributed with mean $\mu_{\overline{Y}} = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2 = \sigma^2/n$.

Proof:

Because Y_1, \ldots, Y_n is a random sample from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , $Y_i, i = 1, \ldots, n$, are independent, normally distributed variables, with $E(Y_i) = \mu$ and $V(Y_i) = \sigma^2$.

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$$\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i = \frac{Y_1}{n} + \dots + \frac{Y_n}{n} = a_1 Y_1 + \dots + a_n Y_n,$$

where $a_i = 1/n$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

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Because Y_1, \ldots, Y_n is a random sample from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , $Y_i, i = 1, \ldots, n$, are independent, normally distributed variables, with $E(Y_i) = \mu$ and $V(Y_i) = \sigma^2$. Further,

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where $a_i = 1/n$, i = 1, ..., n. Thus, \overline{Y} is a linear combination of $Y_1, ..., Y_n$.

By Theorem 6.3, we conclude that \overline{Y} is normally distributed with

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Remark:

Under the conditions of Theorem 7.1, \overline{Y} is normally distributed with mean $\mu_{\overline{Y}} = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2 = \sigma^2/n$.

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Remark:

Under the conditions of Theorem 7.1, \overline{Y} is normally distributed with mean $\mu_{\overline{Y}} = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2 = \sigma^2/n$. It follows that

$$Z = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu_{\overline{Y}}}{\sigma_{\overline{Y}}} = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$

has the standard normal distribution.

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Remarks:

• Notice that the variance of each of the random variables Y_1, \ldots, Y_n is σ^2 and that of the sampling distribution of the random variable \overline{Y} is σ^2/n .

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- With \overline{Y} as in Theorem 7.1, it follows that

$$Z = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu_{\overline{Y}}}{\sigma_{\overline{Y}}} = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{n} \left(\frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

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has a standard normal distribution.

Example 7.2:

A bottling machine can be regulated so that it discharges an average of μ ounces per bottle. It has been observed that the amount of fill dispensed by the machine is normally distributed with $\sigma = 1.0$ ounce. A sample of n = 9 filled bottles is randomly selected from the output of the machine on a given day (all bottled with the same machine setting), and the ounces of fill are measured for each. Find the probability that the sample mean will be within .3 ounce of the true mean μ for the chosen machine setting.

If Y_1, \ldots, Y_9 denote the ounces of fill to be observed, then we know that the Y_i s are normally distributed with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, 9$.

If Y_1, \ldots, Y_9 denote the ounces of fill to be observed, then we know that the Y_i s are normally distributed with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, 9$. Therefore, by Theorem 7.1, Y possesses a normal sampling distribution with mean $\mu_Y = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_Y^2 = \sigma/\sqrt{n} = 1/9$.

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$$P(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \le 0.3) = P(-0.3 \le \overline{Y} - \mu \le 0.3)$$

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$$\begin{split} P(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \leq 0.3) &= P(-0.3 \leq \overline{Y} - \mu \leq 0.3) \\ &= P\left(-\frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) \end{split}$$

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ight) \end{aligned}$$

Because $\frac{Y - \mu_{\overline{Y}}}{\sigma_{\overline{Y}}} = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ has a standard normal distribution, it follows that

 $P(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \le 0.3) = P\left(-rac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}} \le Z \le rac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}}
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$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \leq 0.3) &= \mathcal{P}(-0.3 \leq \overline{Y} - \mu \leq 0.3) \\ &= \mathcal{P}\left(-\frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Because $\frac{Y - \mu_{\overline{Y}}}{\sigma_{\overline{Y}}} = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ has a standard normal distribution, it follows that

$$P(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \le 0.3) = P\left(-\frac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}} \le Z \le \frac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}}\right) = P(-0.9 \le Z \le 0.9).$$

If Y_1, \ldots, Y_9 denote the ounces of fill to be observed, then we know that the Y_i s are normally distributed with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, 9$. Therefore, by Theorem 7.1, Y possesses a normal sampling distribution with mean $\mu_Y = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_Y^2 = \sigma/\sqrt{n} = 1/9$. We want to find

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Using Table 4, Appendix 3, we find

$$P(-0.9 \le Z \le 0.9) = 1 - 2P(Z > 0.9)$$

If Y_1, \ldots, Y_9 denote the ounces of fill to be observed, then we know that the Y_i s are normally distributed with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, 9$. Therefore, by Theorem 7.1, Y possesses a normal sampling distribution with mean $\mu_Y = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_Y^2 = \sigma/\sqrt{n} = 1/9$. We want to find

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \leq 0.3) &= \mathcal{P}(-0.3 \leq \overline{Y} - \mu \leq 0.3) \\ &= \mathcal{P}\left(-\frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Because $\frac{Y - \mu_{\overline{Y}}}{\sigma_{\overline{Y}}} = \frac{Y - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ has a standard normal distribution, it follows that

$$P(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \le 0.3) = P\left(-\frac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}} \le Z \le \frac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}}\right) = P(-0.9 \le Z \le 0.9).$$

Using Table 4, Appendix 3, we find

$$P(-0.9 \le Z \le 0.9) = 1 - 2P(Z > 0.9) = 1 - 2(0.1841) = 0.6318.$$
Solution:

If Y_1, \ldots, Y_9 denote the ounces of fill to be observed, then we know that the Y_i s are normally distributed with mean μ and variance $\sigma^2 = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, 9$. Therefore, by Theorem 7.1, Y possesses a normal sampling distribution with mean $\mu_Y = \mu$ and variance $\sigma_Y^2 = \sigma/\sqrt{n} = 1/9$. We want to find

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Because $\frac{Y - \mu_{\overline{Y}}}{\sigma_{\overline{Y}}} = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ has a standard normal distribution, it follows that

$$P(|\overline{Y} - \mu| \le 0.3) = P\left(-rac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}} \le Z \le rac{0.3}{1/\sqrt{9}}
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Using Table 4, Appendix 3, we find

 $P(-0.9 \le Z \le 0.9) = 1 - 2P(Z > 0.9) = 1 - 2(0.1841) = 0.6318.$

Thus, the probability is only .6318 that the sample mean will be within .3 ounce of the true population mean.

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Refer to Example 7.2. How many observations should be included in the sample if we wish \overline{Y} to be within .3 ounce of μ with probability .95?

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Solution:

Now we want

$$\mathsf{P}(|\overline{Y}-\mu|\leq 0.3)=\mathsf{P}(-0.3\leq \overline{Y}-\mu\leq 0.3)=0.95.$$

Refer to Example 7.2. How many observations should be included in the sample if we wish \overline{Y} to be within .3 ounce of μ with probability .95?

Solution:

Now we want

$$\mathsf{P}(|\overline{Y}-\mu|\leq 0.3)=\mathsf{P}(-0.3\leq \overline{Y}-\mu\leq 0.3)=0.95.$$

Divide each term of the inequality by $\sigma_{\overline{Y}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ to get

$$P\left(-\frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}
ight) = P(-0.3\sqrt{n} \leq Z \leq 0.3\sqrt{n}) = 0.95.$$

Recall that $\sigma = 1$.

Refer to Example 7.2. How many observations should be included in the sample if we wish \overline{Y} to be within .3 ounce of μ with probability .95?

Solution:

Now we want

$$\mathsf{P}(|\overline{Y}-\mu|\leq 0.3)=\mathsf{P}(-0.3\leq \overline{Y}-\mu\leq 0.3)=0.95.$$

Divide each term of the inequality by $\sigma_{\overline{Y}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ to get

$$P\left(-rac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\leqrac{\overline{Y}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\leqrac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}
ight)=P(-0.3\sqrt{n}\leq Z\leq 0.3\sqrt{n})=0.95.$$

(Recall that $\sigma = 1$). But using Table 4, Appendix 3, we obtain $P(-1.96 \le Z \le 1.96) = 0.95$.

Refer to Example 7.2. How many observations should be included in the sample if we wish \overline{Y} to be within .3 ounce of μ with probability .95?

Solution:

Now we want

$$\mathsf{P}(|\overline{Y}-\mu|\leq 0.3)=\mathsf{P}(-0.3\leq \overline{Y}-\mu\leq 0.3)=0.95.$$

Divide each term of the inequality by $\sigma_{\overline{Y}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ to get

$$P\left(-\frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\overline{Y}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) = P(-0.3\sqrt{n} \leq Z \leq 0.3\sqrt{n}) = 0.95.$$

(Recall that $\sigma = 1$). But using Table 4, Appendix 3, we obtain $P(-1.96 \le Z \le 1.96) = 0.95$. It must follow that

 $0.3\sqrt{n} = 1.96$

Refer to Example 7.2. How many observations should be included in the sample if we wish \overline{Y} to be within .3 ounce of μ with probability .95?

Solution:

Now we want

$$\mathsf{P}(|\overline{Y}-\mu|\leq 0.3)=\mathsf{P}(-0.3\leq \overline{Y}-\mu\leq 0.3)=0.95.$$

Divide each term of the inequality by $\sigma_{\overline{Y}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ to get

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$$0.3\sqrt{n} = 1.96 \implies n = \left(\frac{1.96}{0.3}\right)^2 \approx 42.68.$$

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Practically, it is impossible to take a sample of size 42.68.

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(Recall that $\sigma = 1$). But using Table 4, Appendix 3, we obtain $P(-1.96 \le Z \le 1.96) = 0.95$. It must follow that

$$0.3\sqrt{n} = 1.96 \implies n = \left(\frac{1.96}{0.3}\right)^2 \approx 42.68.$$

Practically, it is impossible to take a sample of size 42.68. Our solution indicates that a sample of size 42 is not quite large enough to reach our objective.

Refer to Example 7.2. How many observations should be included in the sample if we wish \overline{Y} to be within .3 ounce of μ with probability .95?

Solution:

Now we want

$$\mathsf{P}(|\overline{Y}-\mu|\leq 0.3)=\mathsf{P}(-0.3\leq \overline{Y}-\mu\leq 0.3)=0.95.$$

Divide each term of the inequality by $\sigma_{\overline{Y}} = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ to get

$$P\left(-\frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\overline{Y}-\mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{0.3}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) = P(-0.3\sqrt{n} \leq Z \leq 0.3\sqrt{n}) = 0.95.$$

(Recall that $\sigma = 1$). But using Table 4, Appendix 3, we obtain $P(-1.96 \le Z \le 1.96) = 0.95$. It must follow that

$$0.3\sqrt{n} = 1.96 \implies n = \left(\frac{1.96}{0.3}\right)^2 \approx 42.68.$$

Practically, it is impossible to take a sample of size 42.68. Our solution indicates that a sample of size 42 is not quite large enough to reach our objective. If n = 43, $P(|Y - \mu| \le 0.3)$ slightly exceeds 0.95.

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be as in Theorem 7.1. Then $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu}{\sigma}$ are independent standard normal random variables, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, and $\prod_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \mu)^2$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{Y_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2$$

has a χ^2 distribution with n degrees of freedom.

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Proof.

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has a χ^2 distribution with n degrees of freedom.

Proof.

Because Y_1, \ldots, Y_n is a random sample from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu}{\sigma}$ has a standard normal distribution for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

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Proof.

Because Y_1, \ldots, Y_n is a random sample from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu}{\sigma}$ has a standard normal distribution for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Further, the random variables Z_i are independent as the random variables Y_i are independent, $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

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Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be as in Theorem 7.1. Then $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu}{\sigma}$ are independent standard normal random variables, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{Y_i - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2$$

has a χ^2 distribution with n degrees of freedom.

Proof.

Because Y_1, \ldots, Y_n is a random sample from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , $Z_i = \frac{Y_i - \mu}{\sigma}$ has a standard normal distribution for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Further, the random variables Z_i are independent as the random variables Y_i are independent, $i = 1, \ldots, n$. It follows directly from Theorem 6.4 that $\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[n]$.

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From Table 6, Appendix 3, we can find values χ^2_{α} so that $P(\chi^2 > \chi^2_{\alpha}) = \alpha$, that is, $P(\chi^2 \le \chi^2_{\alpha}) = 1 - \alpha$.

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The following example illustrates the combined use of Theorem 7.2 and the χ^2 tables.

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If Z_1, \ldots, Z_6 denotes a random sample from the standard normal distribution, find a number *b* such that

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 \le b\right) = 0.95.$$

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If Z_1, \ldots, Z_6 denotes a random sample from the standard normal distribution, find a number *b* such that

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Solution:

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If Z_1, \ldots, Z_6 denotes a random sample from the standard normal distribution, find a number *b* such that

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6}Z_i^2\leq b\right)=0.95.$$

Solution:

By Theorem 7.2,
$$\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2$$
 has the distribution χ^2 [6].

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If Z_1, \ldots, Z_6 denotes a random sample from the standard normal distribution, find a number *b* such that

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 \le b\right) = 0.95.$$

Solution:

By Theorem 7.2, $\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2$ has the distribution χ^2 [6]. Looking at Table 6, Appendix 3, in the row headed 6 df and the column headed $\chi^2_{.05}$, we see the number 12.5916.

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If Z_1, \ldots, Z_6 denotes a random sample from the standard normal distribution, find a number *b* such that

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 \le b\right) = 0.95.$$

Solution:

By Theorem 7.2, $\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[6]$. Looking at Table 6, Appendix 3, in the row headed 6 df and the column headed $\chi^2_{.05}$, we see the number 12.5916. Thus

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{5} Z_i^2 > 12.5916\right) = 0.05$$

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If Z_1, \ldots, Z_6 denotes a random sample from the standard normal distribution, find a number *b* such that

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 \le b\right) = 0.95.$$

Solution:

By Theorem 7.2, $\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2$ has the distribution $\chi^2[6]$. Looking at Table 6, Appendix 3, in the row headed 6 df and the column headed $\chi^2_{.05}$, we see the number 12.5916. Thus $P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 > 12.5916\right) = 0.05 \quad (x,y) = P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 < 12.5916\right) = 0.05$

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{5} Z_i^2 > 12.5916\right) = 0.05 \iff P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{5} Z_i^2 \le 12.5916\right) = 0.95,$$

If Z_1, \ldots, Z_6 denotes a random sample from the standard normal distribution, find a number *b* such that

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 \le b\right) = 0.95.$$

Solution:

By Theorem 7.2,
$$\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2$$
 has the distribution $\chi^2[6]$. Looking at Table 6,
Appendix 3, in the row headed 6 df and the column headed $\chi^2_{.05}$, we see the number 12.5916. Thus
 $P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 > 12.5916\right) = 0.05 \iff P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{6} Z_i^2 \le 12.5916\right) = 0.95,$

and b = 12.5916 is the .95 quantile (95th percentile) of the sum of the squares of six independent standard normal random variables.

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The χ^2 distribution plays an important role in many inferential procedures.

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$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2.$$

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$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2.$$

The following theorem gives the probability distribution for a function of the statistic S^2 .

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Theorem (7.3)

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be a random sample from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2$$

has the distribution $\chi^2[n-1]$.

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Theorem (7.3)

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be a random sample from a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2$$

has the distribution $\chi^2[n-1]$. Also \overline{Y} and S^2 are independent random variables.

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Proof:

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Proof:

For simplicity, we only consider the case n = 2, and show that $\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}$ has the distribution $\chi^2[1]$.

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, $\overline{Y} = \frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2}$, and, therefore

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, $\overline{Y} = \frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2}$, and, therefore,

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{2 - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{2} (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2 = \left[Y_1 - \frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2}\right]^2 + \left[Y_2 - \frac{Y_1 + Y_2}{2}\right]^2$$

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$$= \left[\frac{Y_1 - Y_2}{2}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{Y_2 - Y_1}{2}\right]^2 = 2\left[\frac{Y_1 - Y_2}{2}\right]^2$$

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It follows that, when n = 2,

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(Y_1 - Y_2)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

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It follows that, when n = 2,

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(Y_1 - Y_2)^2}{2\sigma^2} = \left(\frac{Y_1 - Y_2}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}\right)^2$$

For simplicity, we only consider the case n = 2, and show that $\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}$ has the distribution $\chi^2[1]$.

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$$= \left[\frac{Y_1 - Y_2}{2}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{Y_2 - Y_1}{2}\right]^2 = 2\left[\frac{Y_1 - Y_2}{2}\right]^2 = \frac{(Y_1 - Y_2)^2}{2}.$$

It follows that, when n = 2,

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(Y_1 - Y_2)^2}{2\sigma^2} = \left(\frac{Y_1 - Y_2}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}\right)^2$$

We will show that this quantity is equal to the square of a standard normal random variable; that is, it is a Z^2 , which possesses the distribution $\chi^2[1]$.

Because $Y_1 - Y_2$ is a linear combination of independent, normally distributed random variables $(Y_1 - Y_2 = a_1Y_1 + a_2Y_2$ with $a_1 = 1$ and $a_2 = -1)$,

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Definition (7.2)

Let Z be a standard normal random variable and let W be a $\chi^2[\nu]$ -distributed variable. Then, if Z and W are independent, $T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{W/\nu}}$ is said to have the *t*-distribution with ν degrees of freedom (or parameter ν).

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If Y_1, \ldots, Y_n constitute a random sample from a normal population with mean μ and variance σ^2 , Theorem 7.1 may be applied to show that $Z = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{Y} - \mu)}{\sigma}$ has a standard normal distribution.

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$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{W/\nu}}$$

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$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{W/\nu}} = \frac{\sqrt{n}\left((\overline{Y} - \mu)/\sigma\right)}{\sqrt{((n-1)S^2/\sigma^2)/(n-1)}}$$

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$$T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{W/\nu}} = \frac{\sqrt{n}\left((\overline{Y} - \mu)/\sigma\right)}{\sqrt{((n-1)S^2/\sigma^2)/(n-1)}} = \sqrt{n}\left(\frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{S}\right)$$

has a *t*-distribution with n - 1 df.

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Exercise 7.98:

Suppose that T is defined as in Definition 7.2.

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Suppose that T is defined as in Definition 7.2.

- (a) If W is fixed at w, then T is given by Z/c, where $c = w/\nu$. Use this idea to find the conditional density of T for a fixed W = w.
- (b) Find the joint density of T and W, f(t, w), by using f(t, w) = f(t | w)f(w).

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Suppose that T is defined as in Definition 7.2.

- (a) If W is fixed at w, then T is given by Z/c, where $c = w/\nu$. Use this idea to find the conditional density of T for a fixed W = w.
- (b) Find the joint density of T and W, f(t, w), by using f(t, w) = f(t | w)f(w).

(c) Integrate over w to show that

$$f(t) = rac{\Gamma\left(rac{
u+1}{2}
ight)}{\sqrt{\pi
u}\Gamma\left(rac{
u}{2}
ight)}\left(1+rac{t^2}{
u}
ight)^{-rac{
u+1}{2}}, \qquad -\infty < t < \infty.$$



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Table 5, Appendix 3 lists the values of t_{α} such that $P(T > t_{\alpha})$.

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In general, $t_{\alpha} = \phi_{1-\alpha}$, the $(1 - \alpha)$ quantile (the $100(1 - \alpha)^{\text{th}}$ percentile) of a *t*-distributed RV.



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In general, $t_{\alpha} = \phi_{1-\alpha}$, the $(1 - \alpha)$ quantile (the $100(1 - \alpha)^{\text{th}}$ percentile) of a *t*-distributed RV.

Example 7.6:

The tensile strength for a type of wire is normally distributed with unknown mean μ and unknown variance σ^2 . Six pieces of wire were randomly selected from a large roll; Y_i , the tensile strength for portion *i*, is measured for i = 1, ..., 6. The population mean μ and variance σ^2 can be estimated by \overline{Y} and S^2 , respectively. Because $\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2 = \sigma^2/n$, it follows that $\sigma_{\overline{Y}}^2$ can be estimated by σ^2/n . Find the approximate probability that \overline{Y} will be within $\frac{2S}{\sqrt{n}}$ of the true population mean μ .

Solution:

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Solution:

We want to find

$$P\left(-\frac{2S}{\sqrt{n}} \le \overline{Y} - \mu \le \frac{2S}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

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Solution:

We want to find

$$P\left(-\frac{2S}{\sqrt{n}} \le \overline{Y} - \mu \le \frac{2S}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = P\left(-2 \le \sqrt{n}\left(\frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{S}\right) \le 2\right)$$

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$$= P(-2 \le T \le 2),$$

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$$P\left(-\frac{2S}{\sqrt{n}} \le \overline{Y} - \mu \le \frac{2S}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = P\left(-2 \le \sqrt{n}\left(\frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{S}\right) \le 2\right)$$
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where T has a t-distribution with, in this case, n-1 = 5 df. Table 5, Appendix 3 suggests that the upper-tail area to the right of 2.015 is 0.05. Hence $P(-2.015 \le T \le 2.015) = 0.9$, and the probability that \overline{Y} will be within 2 estimated standard deviations of μ is slightly less than 0.9.

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Remark:

If σ^2 were known, the probability that \overline{Y} will fll within $2\sigma_{\overline{Y}}$ of μ would be

$$P\left(-\frac{2\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \overline{Y} - \mu \le \frac{2\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

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$$= P(-2 \le T \le 2),$$

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$$= P(-2 \le Z \le 2) = 0.9544.$$

Math 447 - Probability

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The ratio $\frac{S_1^2/\sigma_1^2}{S_2^2/\sigma_2^2} = \frac{\sigma_2^2}{\sigma_1^2} \left(\frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2}\right)$ has the *F*-distribution with $n_1 - 1$ numerator degrees of freedom and $n_2 - 1$ denominator degrees of freedom.

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Definition (7.3)

Let W_1 and W_2 be independent χ^2 -distributed random variables with ν_1 and ν_2 df, respectively. Then $F = \frac{W_1/\nu_1}{W_2/\nu_2}$ is said to have an *F*-distribution with ν_1 numerator degrees of freedom and ν_2 denominator degrees of freedom.

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Exercise 7.99:

Suppose F is defined as in Definition 7.3.

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(a) If W_2 is fixed at w_2 , then $F = W_1/c$, where $c = w_2\nu_1/\nu_2$. Find the conditional density of F for fixed $W_2 = w_2$.

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Suppose F is defined as in Definition 7.3.

- (a) If W_2 is fixed at w_2 , then $F = W_1/c$, where $c = w_2\nu_1/\nu_2$. Find the conditional density of F for fixed $W_2 = w_2$.
- (b) Find the joint density of F and W_2 .

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Suppose F is defined as in Definition 7.3.

- (a) If W_2 is fixed at w_2 , then $F = W_1/c$, where $c = w_2\nu_1/\nu_2$. Find the conditional density of F for fixed $W_2 = w_2$.
- (b) Find the joint density of F and W_2 .

(c) Integrate over w_2 to show that the probability density function of F – say, g(y) – is given by

$$g(y) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}\right)^{\frac{\nu_1}{2}}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_2}{2}\right)} y^{\frac{\nu_1}{2} - 1} \left(1 + \frac{\nu_1 y}{\nu_2}\right)^{-\frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2}{2}}, \quad 0 < y < \infty.$$

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In general, $F_{\alpha} = \phi_{1-\alpha}$, the $(1-\alpha)$ quantile (the $100(1-\alpha)^{\text{th}}$ percentile) of an *F*-distributed RV.

Example 7.7:

If we take independent samples of size $n_1 = 6$ and $n_2 = 10$ from two normal populations with equal population variances, find the number *b* such that

$$P\left(\frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2} \le b\right) = 0.95.$$

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Because $n_1 = 6$ and $n_2 = 10$, and the population variances are equal, $\frac{S_1^2/\sigma_1^2}{S_2^2/\sigma_2^2} = \frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2}$ has an *F*-distribution

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Therefore, we want to find the number b cutting off an upper-tail area of 0.05 under the F density function with 5 numerator degrees of freedom and 9 denominator degrees of freedom.

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Remark:

Even when the population variances are equal, the probability that the ratio of the sample variances exceeds 3.48 is still 0.05 (assuming sample sizes of $n_1 = 6$ and $n_2 = 10$).

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The Central Limit Theorem

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$$\lim_{n\to\infty} P(U_n \le u) = \int_{-\infty}^u \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{t^2/2} dt \quad \text{for all } u.$$

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Note: The formula
$$U_n = \frac{\overline{Y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$
, where $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$, guarantees that $E[U_n] = 0$.

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<u>Remark:</u> There are other senses of convergence, such as "weak convergence", "almost sure convergence", etc.

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How do we apply this theorem in the context of Chapter 7?

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Exercise 7.43:

An anthropologist wishes to estimate the average height of men for a certain race of people. If the population standard deviation is assumed to be 2.5 inches and if she randomly samples 100 men, find the probability that the difference between the sample mean and the true population mean will not exceed .5 inch.

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- No specific distribution is mentioned. So if we don't apply the CLT, how can we do the problem?
- We are given the population standard deviation, which we need to apply the CLT for this exercise.

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_{100} be the heights, and let $\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{100} Y_i$ be the sample mean.

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But U_{100} is approximately standard normal. Using the "95% rule" approximation, the answer is $P(|U_{100}| < 2) = 1 - 2(0.0228) \approx 95.4\%$.

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Definition (The *t*-distribution)

Let Z be a standard normal random variable and let W be a $\chi^2[\nu]$ -distributed variable. Then, if Z and W are independent, $T = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{W/\nu}}$ is said to have the *t*-distribution with ν degrees of freedom (or parameter ν).

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Remark:

The *t*-distribution with larger ν does have a variance.

Math 447 - Probability

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Remark:

The *t*-distribution with larger ν does have a variance. $\nu = 1$ is something of an exceptional case.

Math 447 - Probability

The *t*-distribution with $\nu = 1$ has the PDF $f(y) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+y^2}$.

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Remark: (for those interested in finance)

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The standard model for "log-returns" in risk management is the *t*-distribution with $\nu = 5$ (maybe 4 or 6). Reason: "fatter tails".

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- (a) Theorem 7.5, which we use as a black box.
- (b) Taylor's theorem with remainder, which is another black box.
- (c) Limit definition of the exponential function.

Let Y and Y₁, Y₂,... be random variables with moment-generating functions m(t) and $m_1(t), m_2(t), \ldots$, respectively. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} m_n(t) = m(t)$ for all real t, then the distribution function of Y_n converges to the distribution function of Y as $n \to \infty$.

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The Exponential Function:

Recall that
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n = e$$
 and $\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n} \right)^n = e^x$,

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How does this apply to the CLT?

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Recall that we "normalized" $Z_1 = \frac{Y_1 - \mu}{\sigma}$ so that it has mean 0 and variance 1.

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- You should be able to produce a correct statement of the CLT. Most importantly, using this, you should be able to do the problems of the form "Apply the CLT", even if the problem statements do not explicitly mention the CLT.

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Application of the Central Limit Theorem

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Workers employed in a large service industry have an average wage of \$7.00 per hour with a standard deviation of \$0.50. The industry has 64 workers of a certain ethnic group. These workers have an average wage of \$6.90 per hour. Is it reasonable to assume that the wage rate of the ethnic group is equivalent to that of a random sample of workers from those employed in the service industry?

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Solution: (continued)

$$\overline{Y} \leq 6.9 \iff \overline{Y} - 7 \leq 6.9 - 7 = -0.1.$$

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Exercise 7.37(a):

Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_5 be a random sample of size 5 from a normal population with mean 0 and variance 1 and let $Y = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^{5} Y_i$. What is the distribution of $W = \sum_{i=1}^{5} Y_i^2$? Why?

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<u>Answer</u>: Using MGFs, we can show that $W \sim \chi^2$ [5].

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$$\left|\overline{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu\right| \leq 1 \iff \left|\frac{\overline{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right| \leq \frac{1}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \implies \left|\underbrace{\left(\frac{\overline{\mathbf{Y}} - \mu}{10/\sqrt{n}}\right)}\right| \leq \frac{1}{10/\sqrt{n}}$$

By CLT, the braced expression above is standard normal for large n.

Now we need to find *n* such that
$$P\left(|Z| \leq \frac{1}{10/\sqrt{n}}\right) = 0.99.$$

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By symmetry, this is the same as:

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For which *a* is the shaded area = 0.99?
By symmetry, this is the same as:
For which *a* is the shaded area = 0.005?
This we can look up! $a \approx 2.575$ from the table. So we solve for *n*:
 $\frac{1}{10/\sqrt{n}} \approx 2.575 \implies \frac{\sqrt{n}}{10} \approx 2.575 \implies \sqrt{n} \approx 25.75$
 $\implies n \approx (25.75)^2 \approx 663$.
Thus $n = 663$ is good enough.

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Exercise 7.53 (b):

One-hour carbon monoxide concentrations in air samples from a large city average 12 ppm (parts per million) with standard deviation 9 ppm. Find the probability that the average concentration in 100 randomly selected samples will exceed 14 ppm.

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The Normal Approximation to the Binomial Distribution

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The central limit theorem also can be used to approximate probabilities for some discrete random variables when the exact probabilities are tedious to calculate. One useful example involves the binomial distribution for large values of the number of trials n.

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Alternatively, we can view Y, the number of successes in n trials, as a sum of a sample consisting of 0s and 1s; that is,

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i, \quad \text{where } X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the } i^{\text{th}} \text{ trial is success,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The random variables X_i for i = 1, ..., n are independent (because the trials are independent), and it is easy to show that $E[X_i] = p$ and $V[X_i] = p(1-p)$ for i = 1, ..., n.

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$$\frac{Y}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i = \overline{X}_i$$

possesses an approximately normal sampling distribution with mean $\mu_{\overline{X}} = E[X_i] = p$ and variance $V_{\overline{X}} = \frac{V[X_i]}{n} = \frac{p(1-p)}{n}$.

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The normal approximation to binomial probabilities works well even for moderately large n as long as p is not close to zero or one.

$$0 and $p + 3\sqrt{rac{p(1-p)}{n}} < 1.$$$

$$0$$

Equivalently, the normal approximation is adequate if

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Since n = 25 > 13.5, the normal approximation is indeed adequate.

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Note that

$$\mu_W = np = 25(0.4) = 10,$$

and

$$\sigma_W^2 = np(1-p) = 25(0.4)(0.6) = 6.$$

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Example 7.11

Suppose that $Y \sim Bin(25, 0.4)$. Find the exact probabilities that $Y \le 8$ and Y = 8 and compare these to the corresponding values found by using the normal approximation.

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Solution:

The exact probability that $Y \le 8$ is the blue (filled) area of the histogram shown along:

Example 7.11

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We look up Table 1, Appendix 3, to find $P(Y \le 8) = 0.274$.

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Now our normal approximation is $W \sim \mathcal{N}(10,6)$. Looking at the picture, we need to find $P(Y \le 8) \approx P(W \le 8.5)$, and $P(Y = 8) \approx P(7.5 \le W \le 8.5)$; the half-integers accouting for the (obvious) correction.

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End of Chapter 7

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