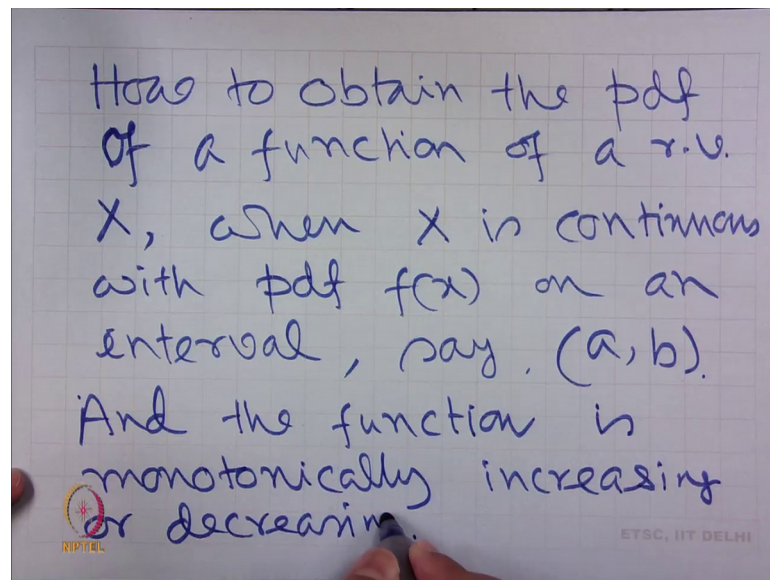


Statistical Inference
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Lecture – 05
Statistical Inference

Welcome friends to my MOOC's series of lectures on Statistical Inference. This is lecture number 5. If you remember in the last lecture I finished with how to obtain the pdf of a function of a random variable X ; when X is continuous with pdf f_X on an interval say a to b .

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And the function is monotonically increasing or decreasing, as I discussed that the monotonicity is important, because then for any given y is equal to say H of x we can uniquely determine x for given y .

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$y = H(x)$
We can uniquely determine x for a given value y of $Y = H(x)$.
 $g(y) = f(x) \cdot \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$ expressed in y .

And the result was that pdf of y , if we call it g_y then what we obtained is that g_y is equal to f at x into modulus of dx/dy expressed in y . So, with that result let us now look at some problems.

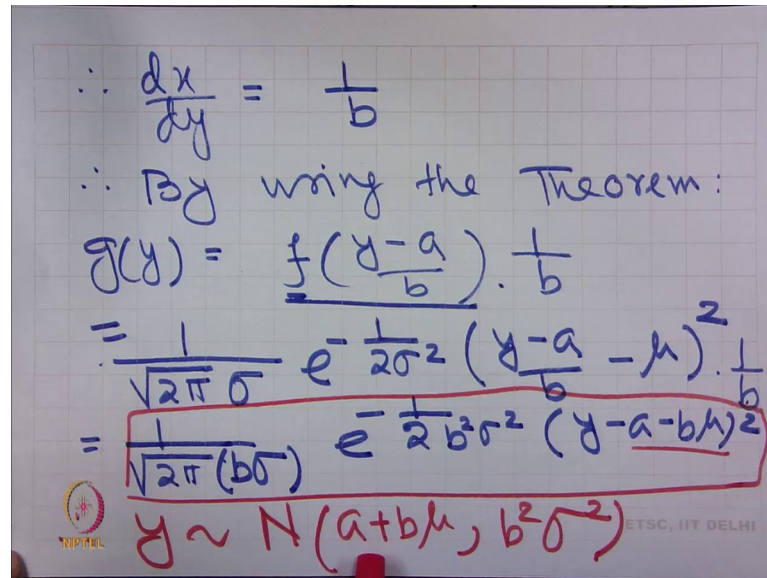
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EX Suppose $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
Consider $Y = a + bX$
Then what is the pdf of Y ?
 $Y = a + bX \quad \therefore \text{Given } y$
we can find the corresponding
 $x = \frac{y - a}{b}$ WLOG $b > 0$

Suppose X is a normal variate with μ and σ^2 , X is a normal variable with expected value is equal to μ and variance of X is equal to σ^2 . Consider Y is equal to $a + bX$, then what is the pdf of Y ?

So, we proceeded in the following way Y is equal to $a + bX$ therefore, given value of y we can find the corresponding x is equal to y minus a divided by b , without loss of generality let b be greater than 0.

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$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \frac{dx}{dy} &= \frac{1}{b} \\ \therefore \text{By using the Theorem:} \\ g(y) &= \frac{f\left(\frac{y-a}{b}\right)}{b} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\left(\frac{y-a}{b} - \mu\right)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{b} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}(b\sigma)} e^{-\frac{1}{2b^2\sigma^2}(y-a-b\mu)^2} \\ &\quad y \sim N(a+b\mu, b^2\sigma^2) \end{aligned}$$

Since x is equal to y minus a by b therefore dx of dy is equal to 1 by b ; therefore, by using the theorem g of y is equal to f at y minus a by b multiplied by 1 by b , it is the dx dy , and the modulus sign is not needed if because we are using b to be positive. Now, we know that f is the density of a standard density of a normal variable with mean μ variance σ^2 . Therefore, this term is 1 over root over 2π σ into e to the power 1 upon $2\sigma^2$ into y minus a upon b minus μ whole square, multiplied by 1 by b . This is equal to 1 over root over 2π into $b\sigma$ this becomes here e to the power minus 1 upon $2b^2\sigma^2$ into y minus a minus $b\mu$ whole square.

So, we obtain the pdf of y is this. What can we say from here? We can see that therefore, y is normal with mean is equal to $a + b\mu$ and variance is equal to $b^2\sigma^2$. Therefore, we find that if we make a linear transformation on a normal variable x , then the resulting variable is also a normal distribution with appropriate adjustment in the mean and in the variance.

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We can get the same result using MGF also.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MGF}_{a+bX}(t) &= E(e^{(a+bX)t}) \\ &= e^{at} E(e^{bXt}) \\ &= e^{at} E(e^{X(bt)}) \quad (*) \end{aligned}$$

We know $\text{MGF}_X(t) = e^{\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2}$

We can get the same result using moment generating function also. What is the moment generating function of $a + bX$? Is equal to expected value of e to the power $a + bX$ into t ; This is equal to e to the power a multiplied by expected value of e to the power bX into t ; is equal to e to the power a into expected value of e to the power X into bt . Now, we know that the MGF of e to the power μt plus half sigma square t square. If we look at the term, we can find that it is basically the same term with t replaced by bt , also we can see that there is a multiplier e to the power t .

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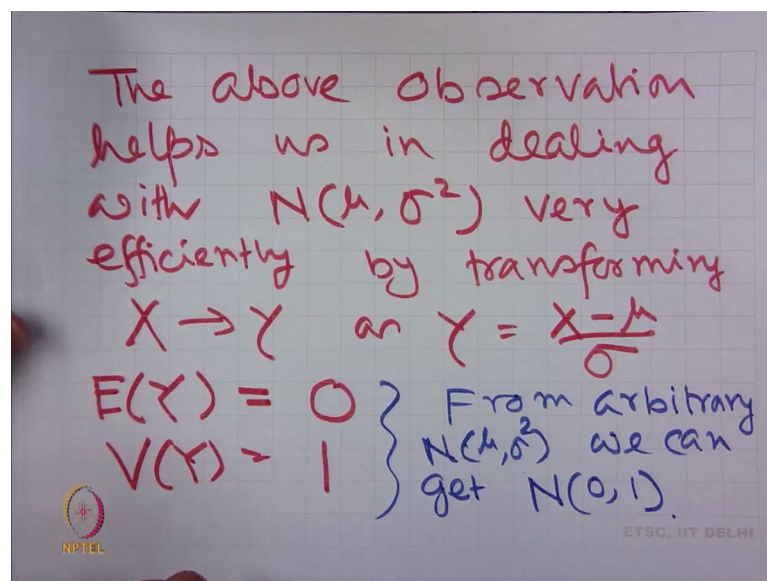
$$\begin{aligned} &e^{at} (e^{\mu bt + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 b^2 t^2}) \\ &= e^{(\mu b + a)t + \frac{1}{2}(bt)^2 \sigma^2} \end{aligned}$$

This is the MGF of $N(a + \mu b, b^2 \sigma^2)$

↳ Hence by uniqueness of MGF we say that $Y = a + bX \sim N(a + b\mu, b^2 \sigma^2)$

Therefore, this term we can write by comparing with this as e to the power $a t$ into multiplied by e to the power μt plus $\mu b t$ plus half $\sigma^2 b^2 t^2$; is equal to e to the power μb plus $a t$ plus half $b t^2$ into σ^2 . Now, we know that this is the MGF of normal variable with mean is equal to a plus μb , and variance is equal to $b^2 \sigma^2$. Hence, by uniqueness of moment generating function we can say that y is equal to a plus $b x$ is distributed as normal with mean a plus $b \mu$ and variance $b^2 \sigma^2$. So, the same result we can get using moment generating function, but the above theorem helps us to get it in a very simple way.

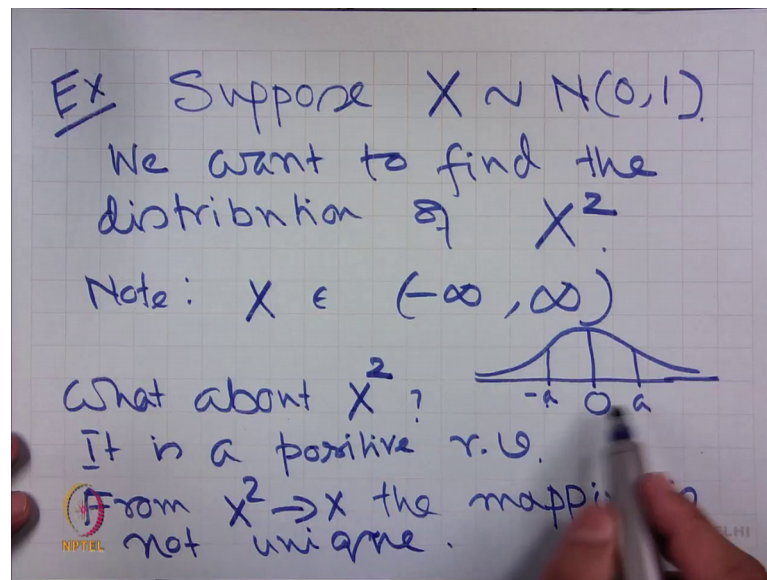
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The above observation helps us in dealing with normal μ σ^2 very efficiently by transforming x to y as y is equal to x minus μ by σ . What is the advantage? The advantage is expectation of Y is equal to 0, and variance of Y is equal to 1. Therefore, from arbitrary normal variate with μ and σ^2 , we can get standard normal distribution by doing this linear transformation.

And why we use normal 0 1? Because that makes our life simple; Even if you look at it from moment generating function for standard normal the moment generating function is e to the power t^2 by 2, but for arbitrary μ and σ the moment generating function becomes e to the power μt plus half $\sigma^2 t^2$. And therefore, dealing with that mathematically becomes more complicated. Let us now look at slightly more complicated problem.

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Suppose X is a variate with normal 0 1. We want to know the distribution of x square. Note X belongs to minus infinity to plus infinity. Because it is a standard normal variable and it is minus infinity to plus infinity and all of us know that it is symmetric around 0. What about X square? X square as you can see is a positive random variable.

And another problem with respect to this transformation is that this mapping is from x squared to x is not unique. Because 4 minus a and a for both of them, since for minus a and a for both of them the value of x square is equal to s square. Therefore, from x square when I go back to x this mapping is not unique, as I have explained in my previous lecture with respect to a discrete random variable if you remember I have taken minus 2 minus 1 0 1 2, and from there I explained that the inverse mapping is not there.

Or in other words, we can see that in this case y is equal to x square, the function is not monotonically increasing. And therefore, this theorem does not hold as such. So, what we do? We make a small adjustment.

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$Y = X^2$ is not one-to-one.
∴ To obtain the pdf of Y ,
we go as follows:
Let $g(y)$ be the pdf of Y
& $G(y)$ be c.d.f.
∴ $G(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(X^2 \leq y)$
 $= P(-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y})$

Y is equal to X square is not one to one therefore, to obtain the pdf of Y , we go as follows. Let g be the pdf of Y , maybe I write it as g_y and G_y be the cumulative distribution function; Therefore, G of y is equal to probability Y less than equal to y which is equal to probability X square less than equal to y . And because of the symmetricity around 0, we can find this is equal to probability minus root y less than equal to x less than equal to y .

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∴ $P(-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y})$
 $= 2 \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} f(x) dx$
 $\hookrightarrow 2 \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx = G(y)$
∴ $g(y) = G'(y) = 2 \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}}$
∴ $\frac{d(\sqrt{y})}{dy} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}}$

Now, since normal is symmetric, and if this is minus root y and this is plus root y, then this probability is actually 2 times the probability that x lies between 0 to root y. Therefore, probability minus root y less than equal to x less than equal to root y is equal to 2 times 0 to root y $f(x) dx$. And since f is normal 0 1 so, this becomes 2 times 0 to root y $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx$.

So, this is the value of G_y that is the cumulative distribution function for the random variable y which is nothing but x^2 . Therefore, g_y is equal to G'_y ; that means, I am differentiating this with respect to y. So, we know that that we get by first replacing x with root y in this formula, multiplied by the derivative of root y with respect to y.

So, this is 2 times $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}}$ is equal to y by 2 multiplied by $\frac{d}{dy} \sqrt{y}$. Because we know that it is dx/dy expressed in terms of y and x is equal to root y. Therefore, we can write it as half root y since; so, we replace this value here. Therefore, what we get?

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

$$= \boxed{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}} y^{-\frac{1}{2}}} \quad 0 < y < \infty$$

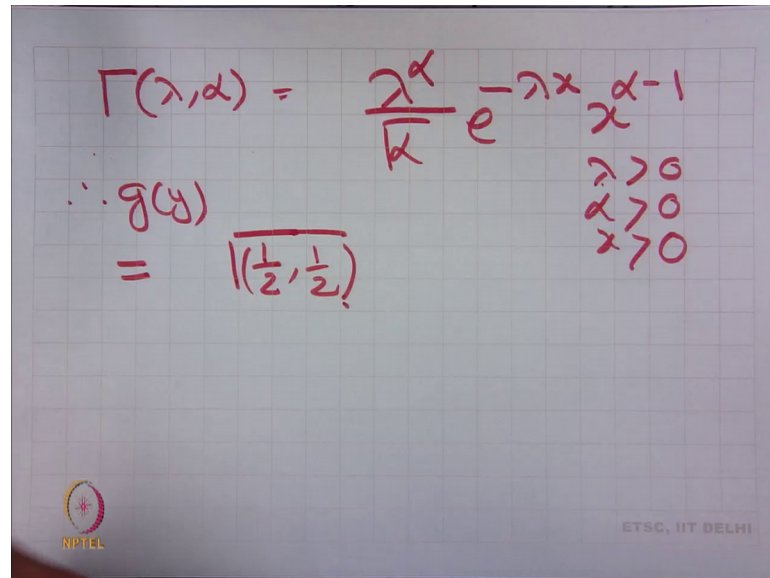
Let us observe that $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{\pi}$

$$g(y) = \boxed{\frac{(\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{2}-1}} \quad 0 < y < \infty$$

We get $g(y)$ is equal to $\sqrt{2}$ upon $\sqrt{\pi}$ $e^{-\frac{y}{2}}$ into $\frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}}$, which on simplification becomes $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}}$ $y^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ to the power minus half. So, we get a new type of density function for y; where y lies in the interval 0 to infinity. Now is it a density that is completely unknown to us. Perhaps most of you will say, yes. So, let us observe one thing, gamma of half is equal to root over pi. I am sure you have come across this in your mathematics course. So, I am utilizing this

property, and writing this as $g(y)$ is equal to half to the power half $1/\sqrt{2}$ is equal to half to the power half upon gamma half $e^{-y/2}$ to the power minus half y , y to the power half minus 1 $0 < y < \infty$.

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Handwritten slide showing the Gamma function formula and the specific case for the chi-squared distribution:

$$\Gamma(\lambda, \alpha) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-\lambda x} x^{\alpha-1}$$

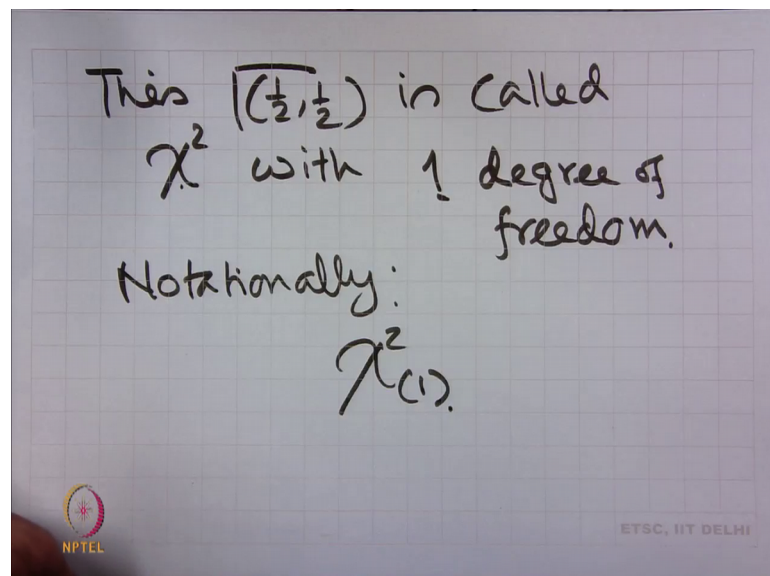
$\lambda > 0$
 $\alpha > 0$
 $x > 0$

$\therefore g(y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})}$

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Do you remember this density? I am sure you can because, this is of the form gamma lambda alpha which is lambda power alpha upon gamma alpha $e^{-\lambda x}$ to the power minus lambda x, x to the power alpha minus 1, lambda greater than 0 alpha greater than 0 and x greater than 0. Therefore, we can say is equal to actually gamma half comma half.

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Handwritten slide explaining the chi-squared distribution with 1 degree of freedom:

This $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ is called χ^2 with 1 degree of freedom.

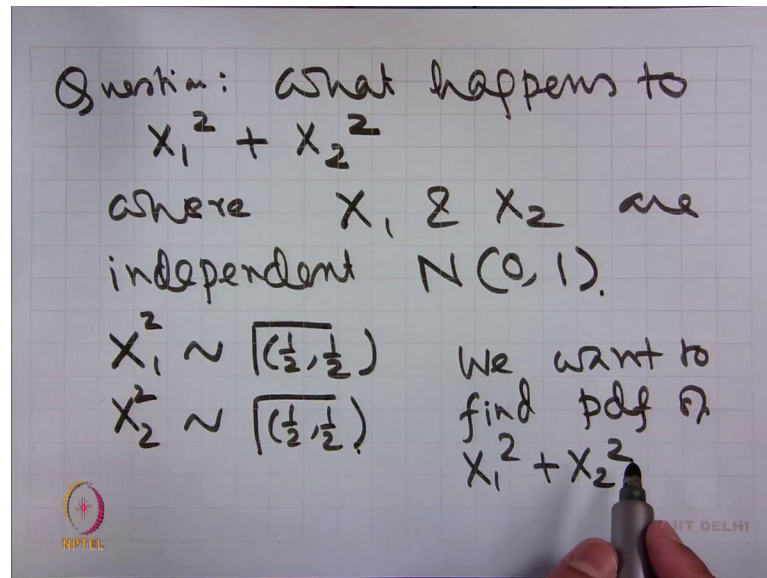
Notationally:

$\chi^2_{(1)}$

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This gamma half half is called chi square with one degrees of freedom. Why it is called one degree of freedom? Because this chi square has come from one normal distribution, that is why there is one independent random variable x which is giving rise to this chi square distribution. And therefore, we call it chi square with one degrees of freedom and notationally chi square with one degrees of freedom.

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Now, the question is what happens to X_1 square plus X_2 square where X_1 and X_2 are independent normal 0 1. We know that X_1 will become gamma half, half. X_2 will become gamma half, half. And therefore, given 2 different random variables which are independent we want to find pdf of X_1 square plus X_2 square. This we can do in many ways, let me first do it using moment generating function. In fact, I prove something more general than just half half. In fact, I prove it for general gamma distribution.

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Handwritten derivation of the Moment Generating Function (MGF) for a Gamma distribution with parameters λ and α . The derivation is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{Let } X \sim \Gamma(\lambda, \alpha) \quad \lambda > 0, \alpha > 0 \\
 &\therefore MGF_X(t) = E(e^{Xt}) \\
 &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{xt} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-\lambda x} x^{\alpha-1} dx \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} x^{\alpha-1} dx \quad t < \lambda \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{(\lambda-t)^\alpha} = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^\alpha
 \end{aligned}$$

The final result is boxed in red. A small logo is visible in the bottom left corner of the slide.

Let x be a gamma λ α $\lambda > 0$ $\alpha > 0$. Therefore, moment generating function of x is equal to expected value of e^{xt} ; is equal to 0 to infinity e^{xt} multiplied by the pdf of x , which is λ^α upon $\Gamma(\alpha)$ $e^{-\lambda x}$ $x^{\alpha-1} dx$, right? Is equal to so, I have used this and this together multiplied by $x^{\alpha-1} dx$ and this will converge for $t < \lambda$; Because in order to converge this part has to be positive. So, that along with this minus it becomes negative.

So, this is this will hold good for $t < \lambda$. And we can easily find out this integral, because we know that when we are integrating this part only. This is the pdf of gamma distribution. Therefore, this integrates to 1, and therefore, the integration of this part has to be λ^α upon $\Gamma(\alpha)$ so that it cancels out. Therefore, by comparing we can easily write that this part is going to be instead of λ^α upon $\Gamma(\alpha)$ it is going to be λ^α upon $(\lambda-t)^\alpha$, which says that the MGF is equal to λ^α upon $(\lambda-t)^\alpha$ whole to the power α . So, this is the moment generating function for normal for gamma λ α .

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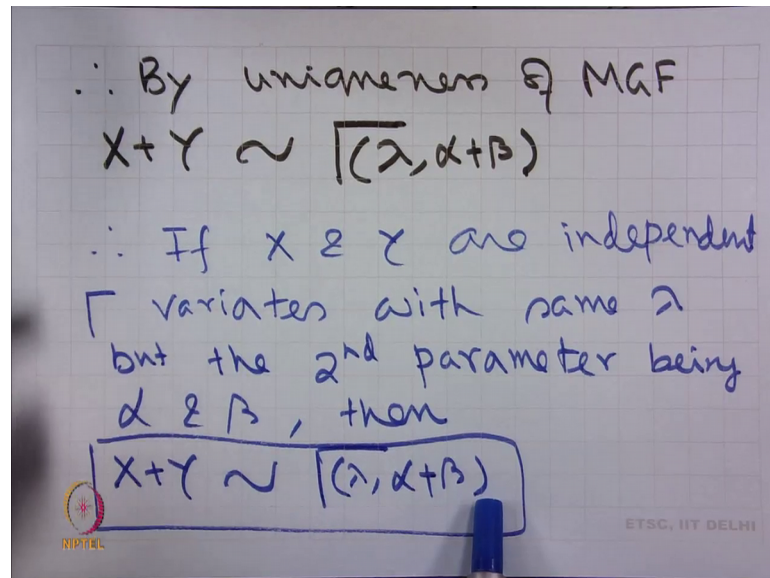
$\therefore$ If we take two independent $X \sim (\lambda, \alpha)$ & $Y \sim (\lambda, \beta)$ variates.
and we want to find the pdf of $X + Y$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MGF}_{X+Y}(t) &= \text{MGF}_X(t) \times \text{MGF}_Y(t) \\ &= \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}\right)^\alpha \times \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}\right)^\beta \\ &= \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t}\right)^{\alpha+\beta} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, if we take 2 independent gamma random variables, gamma lambda alpha and gamma lambda beta variates; And we want to know the pdf of so, say this is called X and this is called Y X plus Y then MGF of X plus Y t, we have already seen that if 2 random variables are independent, then the MGF of their addition of their sum is product of their individual moment generating functions.

And just now we have found out that this moment generating function is lambda upon lambda minus t whole to the power alpha. This is similarly going to be lambda upon lambda minus t whole to the power beta. Therefore, the product becomes lambda upon lambda minus t whole to the power alpha plus beta.

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∴ By uniqueness of MGF
 $X+Y \sim \Gamma(\lambda, \alpha+\beta)$

∴ If X & Y are independent
 Γ variates with same λ
but the 2nd parameter being
 α & β , then

$X+Y \sim \Gamma(\lambda, \alpha+\beta)$

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And therefore, by uniqueness theorem by uniqueness of moment generating function, we can say that x plus y is distributed as gamma with λ same, but this parameter becomes α plus β . So, what we obtain is that if X and Y are independent gamma variates with same λ , but the second parameter being α and β , then X plus Y is also a gamma variate with λ α plus β .

Therefore, we find an interesting result with respect to gamma random variable. That as we keep on adding independent random gamma variables, with the same λ then the summation of these random variables is also gamma with the same parameter λ , but the second parameter being the sum of the individual parameters.

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With respect to χ^2
 $\therefore$ If X_1 & X_2 are two independent $N(0,1)$.
Then $X_1^2 \sim \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) (\chi^2_{(1)})$
 $X_2^2 \sim \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) (\chi^2_{(1)})$
 $\therefore X_1^2 + X_2^2 = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right)$
 $= \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{2}\right) \cdot \chi^2_{(2)}$

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The advantages now with respect to chi square therefore, if X_1 and X_2 are 2 independent normal 0 1, then X_1 square is basically a gamma variate with half and half. X_2 square is also a gamma variate with half and half, therefore, X_1 square plus X_2 square is it also a gamma variate with parameters half and half plus half is equal to gamma with half comma one; which we write as gamma with half 2 by 2. And this is called chi square with 2 degrees of freedom. Why 2 degrees of freedom? Because we have used 2 independent normal 0 1; Can we therefore, generalize from there?

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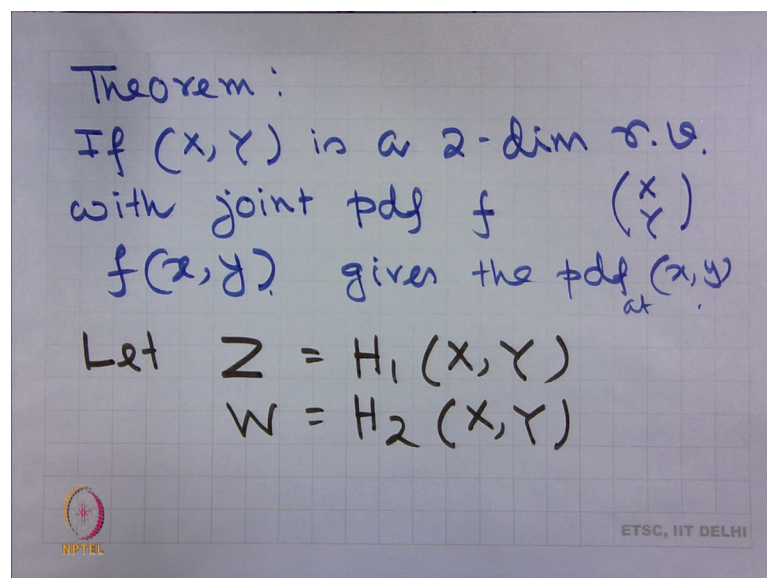
$\therefore$ If $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ are independent $N(0,1)$
then $X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_n^2$
 $\sim \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{n}{2}\right) = \chi^2_{(n)}$
 $= \frac{1}{2^{n/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)} e^{-\frac{x}{2}} x^{\frac{n}{2}-1}$
 $0 < x < \infty$

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We can, in fact, $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ are independent normal $0, 1$, then $X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_n^2$ will be gamma with half. And the second parameter it is half for each one of them therefore, when we add them up will get $n/2$. Therefore, a gamma half with $n/2$ is same as a chi square distribution with degrees of freedom n . So, sum of square of n independent random variables is chi square with n degrees of freedom, and we can write its pdf very simply, which is equal to $\lambda^\alpha \text{e}^{-\lambda x} x^{\alpha-1}$ for $x > 0$ and 0 elsewhere.

In this case, we could easily find the sum of 2 independent random variables. In general, how do you find the sum of 2 arbitrary random variables or why some why not weighted sum of 2 random variables, the difference between 2 random variables or even the product of 2 random variables or division of x by y , when $y \neq 0$, that is also a random variable. So, is there any way to find the pdf of a function of 2 random variables. So, the following theorem helps us in adding the following theorem helps us to find the pdf of function of 2 random variables under certain conditions. So, I am stating the theorem, but I am not going to prove it, because the mathematics for proving that is beyond the scope of this lecture.

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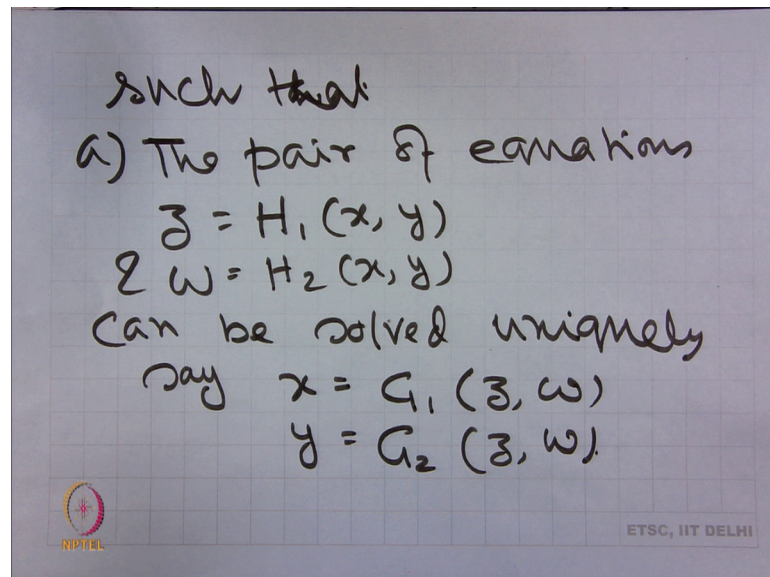
Theorem:
 If (X, Y) is a 2-dim r.v.
 with joint pdf $f(x, y)$
 given the pdf $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$
 Let $Z = H_1(X, Y)$
 $W = H_2(X, Y)$

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So, X and Y 2 random variables which we can write it as (X, Y) . And therefore, I am writing as a 2 dimensional random variable with joint pdf f ; that is, $f(x, y)$ gives the pdf

at x comma y . Now, consider two functions H_1 and H_2 ; such that Z is equal to H_1 of X Y . So, Z is a function of X and Y , W is a function of X Y . Therefore, basically from XY plane we are transforming it into another plane of z w ; such that the pair of equations z is equal to H_1 x y and w is equal to H_2 x y can be solved uniquely.

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Say, x is equal to G_1 of z w , and y is equal to G_2 of z w . So, you notice the similarity with when we are talking about function of a single random variable. We wanted the function to be monotonically increasing or decreasing so that we can get the inverse uniquely. Similarly, given z and w we want to obtain that from the values z and w we can identify the x and y uniquely. So, this condition ensures that also.

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b) The partial derivatives
 $\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial x}{\partial w}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial w}$
exist & continuous.
Then the joint $(X, Y) \rightarrow (Z, W)$
pdf $k(z, w)$
 $= f(\underline{G_1(z, w)}, \underline{G_2(z, w)})$
 $|J|$

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Another condition is that the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial x}{\partial w}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial z}, \frac{\partial y}{\partial w}$ exist and continuous. So, we have from XY plane a mapping to Z W plane such that it is one to one. So, that given any pair here we can uniquely determine the corresponding X Y. And also the partial derivatives of X and Y with respect to both Z and W they exist and continuous.

Then the joint pdf $k(z, w)$ so, we are looking at the joint probability density function of these 2 D random variables z, w is f at $G_1(z, w), G_2(z, w)$; that means, we are looking at the pdf of original random variable x, y , but expressed in terms of z, w multiplied by something which is called the jacobian. What is Jacobean?

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where $|J|$ is the modulus of the following determinant:

$$\left| \begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \omega} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \omega} \end{array} \right|$$

Thus we obtain the joint pdf of (Z, ω) .

Jacobian is the modulus of the following determinant $\det \frac{\partial (x, y, z)}{\partial (w, z, y)}$, $\det \frac{\partial (x, y, z)}{\partial (w, z, y)}$, $\det \frac{\partial (x, y, z)}{\partial (w, z, y)}$, $\det \frac{\partial (x, y, z)}{\partial (w, z, y)}$, $\det \frac{\partial (x, y, z)}{\partial (w, z, y)}$. So, we compute the determinant and the pdf f expressed in terms of z w multiplied by the determinant gives us the pdf for z w the joint pdf of z and w . What is the advantage?

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If we want to find pdf of a function $Z = H_1(X, Y)$.

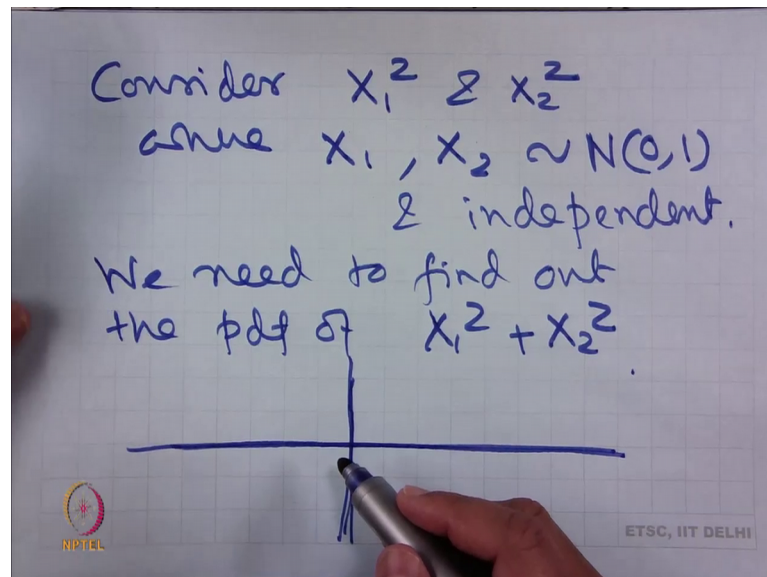
then we consider another
r.v $W = H_2(X, Y)$

- Obtain $K(z, \omega)$ the joint pdf
- Integrate over ω to obtain the pdf of Z

The advantages if we want to find pdf of a function z is equal to H of x, y , then we consider another random variable w is equal to say z is equal to H^{-1} . So, let us call it H^{-1} of X, Y obtain k, z, w the joint pdf, and just now I have shown the formula for obtaining it

integrate over w to obtain the pdf of z . Since our interest was only in this. In order to get it is pdf, we need to find out first the joint pdf by appropriately defining w . So, that this integration becomes easier, and from there we obtain the pdf of z . Therefore, let us now look at the same problem of summation of 2 chi square distribution.

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We need to find out the pdf of $X_1^2 + X_2^2$. Since X_1 is normal $0, 1$ so, we can consider X_1 along this axis, and X_2 along the y axis so that X_1, X_2 together can cover the entire 2 D plane, where you are doing that? Because that guides us to take a very meaningful transformation; what is that?

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Let us transform

$$\left. \begin{aligned} X &= R \cos \theta \\ Y &= R \sin \theta \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$-\infty < x < \infty$
 $-\infty < y < \infty$
 $0 < R < \infty$
 $0 < \theta < 2\pi$

$$\therefore |J| = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -R \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & R \cos \theta \end{vmatrix}$$

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So, we transform X is equal to $R \cos \theta$ Y is equal to $R \sin \theta$. So, instead of X_1 and X_2 , let me call them X and Y , therefore, we are covering the entire 2 D plane therefore, minus infinity less than x less than infinity, minus infinity less than y less than infinity or is the radius of transformation, therefore, R is going to be from 0 to infinity, and θ is covering the entire plane. So, θ will belong to 0 to 2π .

Therefore, Jacobean of transformation is equal to $dX dR$ which is $\cos \theta$. $dX d\theta$ which is minus $R \sin \theta$, $dY dR$ which is $\sin \theta$ and $dY d\theta$ is equal to $R \cos \theta$.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical derivations. The first line shows the determinant of the Jacobian matrix, $|J| = R \cos^2 \theta + R \sin^2 \theta = R$. The second line shows the joint probability density function in polar coordinates: $g(R, \theta) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} |R|$. The third line simplifies this to $= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2}} \cdot R$. The fourth line further simplifies it to $= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} R$, with a vertical line and R, θ to the right. The fifth line shows the marginal density of R as an integral: $g(R) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} R d\theta$. In the bottom left corner, there is a logo for NPTEL. In the bottom right corner, there is a small text that reads 'ETSC, IIT DELHI'.

$$\begin{aligned} |J| &= R \cos^2 \theta + R \sin^2 \theta \\ &= R \\ \therefore g(R, \theta) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} |R| \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2+y^2}{2}} \cdot R \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} R \quad | \quad R, \theta \\ \therefore g(R) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} R d\theta \end{aligned}$$

Therefore determinant of J is equal to $R \cos^2 \theta + R \sin^2 \theta$ is equal to R . Therefore, that joint pdf R, θ is equal to since x and y are independent, we can write the distribution as the product of their individual is equal to $\frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}}$ into R . Now this has to be expressed in terms of R, θ , therefore, this is $\frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} R$.

Therefore, g of R is equal to now I have to integrate out θ from 0 to 2π $e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}}$ into R into $d\theta$. And therefore, these 2π is being cancelled therefore, what we get is, but we need to find out the density of R^2 .

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$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \underline{g(R)} &= e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} R \\ \therefore g(R^2) &= x^2 + y^2 \\ &= R^2 \cos^2 \theta + R^2 \sin^2 \theta \\ &= R^2 \\ g(R^2) &= e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} R \cdot \left| \frac{dR}{dR^2} \right| \\ &= (R^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}} \frac{1}{2R} \\ &= \boxed{\frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{R^2}{2}}}\end{aligned}$$

Because we need x square plus y square is equal to R square cos square theta plus R square sin square theta is equal to R square. But so far we obtained the pdf of R, now we need to find out the pdf of R square, therefore, we use the transformation of the first one, let me write it in capital. Therefore, g of R square is equal to e to the power minus R square by 2 into R multiplied by d R upon d R square; is equal to these are therefore, we write as R square to the power half into e to the power minus R square by 2 and dr upon dr square is equal to 1 upon 2 R. So, this cancels with this, and what we are get it half e to the power minus R square by 2.

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$$\begin{aligned}\text{Therefore if we write} \\ Z &= R^2 \\ \text{then } f(z) &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} \\ &= \underline{\underline{(\frac{1}{2}, 1)}}.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore if we write Z is equal to R square, then f at z is equal to half into e to the power minus z by 2; which is equal to $\frac{\gamma}{2}$ $\frac{\gamma}{2} - 1$. So, this is the result that we have already obtained using moment generating function. With that I stopped here, in the next class I will be talking about some more different types of random variables, and we will try to obtain their pdf's in a similar way.

Thank you.