

# Math 502AB - Lecture 9

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## 1 Lecture - Part 1

### 1.1 Exponential Family, Continued

**Recall:**

The exponential family of distribution is of the form:

$$f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k w_i(\theta) t_i(x) \right\}$$

#### 1.1.1 The Natural Paramaterization

A reparameterization of the exponential family where the density is written in the form:

$$f(x|\eta) = h(x)c^*(\eta) \exp \left[ \sum_{i=1}^k \eta_i t_i(x) \right]$$

Where  $h(x)$  and  $t_i(x)$  are the same as before, but the parameters enter linearly in the sum. The difference is in the summation part. In the *natural parameterization*, we have parameters expressed in linear functions (ie.  $\alpha$  instead of  $\log \alpha$ ).

The set  $H$  as defined below is referred to as the *natural parameter space*:

$$H = \left\{ (\eta_1, \dots, \eta_p) : \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) \exp \left[ \sum_{i=1}^k \eta_i t_i(x) \right] dx < \infty \right\}$$

This means that we have:

$$c^*(\eta) = \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) \exp \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \eta_i t_i(x) \right\} dx \right]^{-1}$$

### Examples

1.  $X \sim \text{gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} \frac{1}{x} \exp \left\{ \alpha \log x - \frac{1}{\beta} x \right\}$$

Since  $\frac{1}{\beta}$  appears in the summation portion, this is *not* a natural parameterization. We then rewrite the expression to find the natural parameterization:

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_1 &= \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_2 = \frac{1}{\beta} \\ \Rightarrow f_X(x) &= \frac{\eta_2^{\eta_1}}{\Gamma(\eta_1)} \cdot \frac{1}{x} \cdot \exp \{ \eta_1 \log x - \eta_2 x \} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, our natural parameterization is:

$$H = \left\{ \left( \alpha, \frac{1}{\beta} \right) : \alpha > 0, \beta > 0 \right\}$$

2. Use the above parameterization to obtain  $E(X)$  and  $E[\log X]$  for  $x \sim \text{gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$

Recall:

$$E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial w_i(\eta)}{\partial \eta_j} t_i(x) \right] = - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_j} \log c(\eta)$$

In general, expected value might be very difficult to compute using integration. This is the motivation behind taking the derivative.

$$E \left[ \frac{\partial w_1(\eta)}{\partial \eta_1} t_1(x) + \frac{\partial w_2(\eta)}{\partial \eta_2} t_2(x) \right] = E[\log x]$$

$$LHS = E \left[ \frac{\partial w_1(\eta)}{\partial \eta_1} t_1(x) + \frac{\partial w_2(\eta)}{\partial \eta_2} t_2(x) \right] = E[\log x]$$

$$\begin{aligned} RHS &= - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_1} \left[ \log \left( \frac{\eta_2^{\eta_1}}{\Gamma(\eta_1)} \right) \right] \\ &= - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_1} [\eta_1 \log \eta_2 - \log \Gamma(\eta_1)] \\ &= - \log \eta_2 + \frac{\Gamma'(\eta_1)}{\Gamma(\eta_1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$LHS = -E[X]$$

$$\begin{aligned} RHS &= - \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_2} [\eta_1 \log \eta_2 - \log \Gamma(\eta_1)] \\ &= - \frac{\eta_1}{\eta_2} = -\alpha\beta \end{aligned}$$

3.  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x - \mu)^2 \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x^2 - 2\mu x + \mu^2) \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} x^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} x \right\} \end{aligned}$$

We note that:

$$\eta_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \quad \eta_2 = \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \Rightarrow \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{\eta_1} \quad \mu = \frac{\eta_2}{\eta_1}$$

We can now write that

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \eta_1^{0.5} e^{0.5 \frac{\eta_2^2}{\eta_1}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \eta_1 x^2 + \eta_2 x \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} LHS &= E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial w_i(\eta)}{\partial \eta_j} t_i(x) \right] \\ &= E[X], \text{ since it is the natural parameter here} \\ RHS &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_j} \log c(\eta) \\ &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \log \eta_1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\eta_2^2}{\eta_1} \right] = \frac{\eta_2}{\eta_1} = \mu \end{aligned}$$

## 1.2 Curved Exponential Families

### 1.2.1 Full Exponential vs Curved Exponential Families

A *curved exponential* family of distributions is a family with densities of the form

$$f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k w_i(\theta) t_i(x) \right\}$$

for which  $\dim \theta < k$ . If  $\dim(\theta) = k$  then the family is called *full exponential family*.

**Examples:**

- (a)  $X \sim \gamma(\alpha, \beta)$  which has  $k = 2$ . Since  $\theta = \{(\alpha, \beta) : \alpha > 0, \beta > 0\}$  this is a *full exponential family*.  
 Consider a special case where  $\alpha = \beta$ . In this case,  $k = 2$  still, but  $\dim \theta = 1$ .
- (b)  $X \sim \chi_{(p)}^2 \sim \text{gamma}(\frac{p}{2}, 2)$

## 2 Lecture - Part 2

**Quick Note:** There has been one part of  $h(x)$  that has been omitted. Say for example, we are writing the *pdf* for a distribution, let's say for the *gamma*:

$$f(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} \frac{1}{x} \exp \left\{ \alpha \log x - \frac{1}{\beta} x \right\}$$

Now, this is supposed to be  $\forall x$ , but this is *non-zero* only when  $x > 0$ . So we add an indicator function:

$$f(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} \frac{1}{x} \exp \left\{ \alpha \log x - \frac{1}{\beta} x \right\} \mathcal{I}_{[x \geq 0]}$$

Where  $\mathcal{I}$  is the indicator function, and gets absorbed by  $h(x)$ .

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{x} \mathcal{I}_{[x \geq 0]}$$

### 2.1 Location Scale Families (Section 3.5)

The idea is to start with a standard form of a distribution and add parameters to *rescale* and *shift* the density or pmf. We have seen this before in the *standard normal* distribution  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . By adding  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$ , you change the location and scale.

**Theorem:**

Let  $f(x)$  be any *pdf*. Then for any  $\mu$  and  $\sigma > 0$ :

$$g(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma} f\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

To show this, we need to show that  $g(x) > 0$ ,  $\forall x$  and that the integral over the domain is equal to 1.

**Proof:**

$g(x|\mu, \sigma) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$  is obvious.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x|\mu, \sigma) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sigma} f\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) dx$$

$$\text{Letting } u = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \Rightarrow du = \frac{1}{\sigma} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u) du = 1$$

**Definitions:**

1. **Location Family:** Let  $f(x)$  be a *pdf*. Then the family of *pdf*'s  $f(x-\mu)$ , indexed by the parameter  $\mu$  is called the **location family** with standard *pdf*  $f(x)$ .  $\mu$  is referred to as the location parameter.
2. **Scale Family:** The family  $\frac{1}{\sigma} f(\frac{x}{\sigma})$  is called a **scale family** for the *pdf*  $f(x)$ , with scale  $\sigma$
3. **Location-Scale Family** The family  $\frac{1}{\sigma} f(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})$  is called a **location-scale family** for the *pdf*  $f(x)$  with scale  $\sigma$  and location parameter  $\mu$

**Theorem:**

Let  $f_Z$  be any *pdf*, and let  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^+$ . Then  $x$  has density  $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma} f_Z(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})$  **iff**  $x = \mu + \sigma Z$ , where  $Z$  has density  $f_Z$

**Proof**

( $\Leftarrow$ ): Suppose  $x = \mu + \sigma Z$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x) &= P(X \leq x) = P(\mu + \sigma Z \leq x) \\ &= P\left(Z \leq \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \\ &= F_Z\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \\ f_X(x) &= \frac{1}{\sigma} f_Z\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \end{aligned}$$

( $\Rightarrow$ ): Suppose that

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma} f_Z\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

We need to show:

$$P(X \leq a) = P(\mu + \sigma Z \leq a), \quad \forall a$$

$$\begin{aligned}
P(X \leq a) &= \int_{-\infty}^a f_X(x) dx \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^a \frac{1}{\sigma} f_Z\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) dx \\
\text{Let } z &= \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \Rightarrow dz = \frac{1}{\sigma} dx \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}} f_Z(z) dz = P\left(Z \leq \frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \\
&= P(\sigma z + \mu \leq a)
\end{aligned}$$

**Example:**

Suppose you have  $X \sim \text{cauchy}$  (which has no defined expected value and variance):

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

Then the function:

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} f\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \frac{1}{\pi\sigma} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

is a density despite not having a true  $\mu$  or  $\sigma$

## 2.2 Inequalities and Identities (Section 3.6)

### 2.2.1 Markov Inequality

**Theorem**

Let  $X$  be a random variable and  $g(x)$  be a *non-negative* function. Then for any scalar  $r > 0$

$$P(g(x) > r) \leq \frac{E[g(x)]}{r}$$

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned}
E[g(x)] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx \\
&\geq \int g(x) f_X(x) dx \quad \{x : g(x) > r\} \\
&\geq \int r f_X(x) dx \quad \{x : g(x) > r\} \\
&= r \int f_X(x) dx \quad \{x : g(x) > r\} = r \cdot P[g(x) > r]
\end{aligned}$$

### 2.2.2 Chebychev Inequality

#### Theorem:

Let  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  be *mean* and *standard deviation* for a random variable  $X$ . Consider the function  $g(x) = \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} > 0$ .

#### Side Note:

$$E[g(x)] = E\left[\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right] = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}E[(x-\mu)^2] = 1$$

Then, we have:

$$P\left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} > r\right) \leq \frac{1}{r}$$

Let  $t^2 = r$ . Then, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2} > t^2\right) &\leq \frac{1}{t^2} \\ \Rightarrow P(|x-\mu| > t\sigma) &\leq \frac{1}{t^2} \end{aligned}$$

What the *Chebyshev Inequality* tells us is that  $x$  ( $X \sim$  some distribution with mean and finite variance) can't get too far away from  $\mu$  with high probability. In other words, consider the case where  $t = 2$ . Then we have:

$$P(|x-\mu| > 2\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{4}$$

In other words, the probability that  $x$  is more than 2 standard deviations away from  $\mu$  is bounded by probability = 0.25. Often the probability estimates by *Chebyshev* are very conservative.

#### Example:

Consider  $X \sim \exp(1)$  with  $\mu = 1$ ,  $\sigma = 1$ . By *Chebyshev inequality*:

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X-1| > 2) &= 1 - P(|X-1| \leq 2) \\ &= 1 - P(0 < X < 3) \leq \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Exact value:

$$P(0 < X < 3) = \int_0^3 e^{-x} dx = e^{-3} \approx 0.05$$

It is **not possible** to come up with a general inequality with *tighter bounds*. The Chebychev bounds can not be improved upon without changing assumptions on  $X$ . To prove this, it is sufficient to come up with an example which has the exact bounds.

**Example:**

|        |               |               |               |
|--------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| X      | -1            | 0             | 1             |
| $f(x)$ | $\frac{1}{8}$ | $\frac{6}{8}$ | $\frac{1}{8}$ |

which has  $E[X] = 0$  and  $var(X) = \frac{1}{4}$

Taking  $t = 2$  we have:

$$P\left(|X - 0| \geq 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right) = P(|X| \geq 1) = \frac{1}{4}$$

**Example:**

Suppose  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . Then:

$$P(|Z| > t) \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{e^{-t^2/2}}{t}$$

**Side Note:** By *Chebyshev*, we have  $P(|Z| > 2) \leq \frac{1}{4}$

$$P(|Z| > 2) \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{e^{-2}}{2} = 0.054$$

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned} P(|Z| > t) &= 2P(Z > t) \\ &= 2 \int_t^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz \\ &\leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_t^\infty \frac{z}{t} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz, \text{ since } z > t \text{ we are multiplying by something } > 1 \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{e^{-t^2/2}}{t} \end{aligned}$$