STAT 30100: MATHEMATICAL STATISTICS-1

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Homework 1

Solutions by

JINHONG DU

STAT 30100, Homework 1

The first few problems of this assignment cover the handouts charfn.pdf and revmatalg.pdf, which are available on Canvas and are assumed to be review for you.

1. Prove that the characteristic function of a univariate normal $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ random variable Z is $\phi_Z(t) = \mathbb{E}[\exp(itZ)] = \exp(it\mu - \frac{t^2\sigma^2}{2})$.

Proof.

$$\mathcal{F}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} e^{j\omega x} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \cos(\omega x) dx + i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \sin(\omega x) dx$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \cos(\omega x) dx$$

Now, compute $\mathcal{F}'(\omega)$, and integrate by parts:

$$\mathcal{F}'(\omega) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} x \sin(\omega x) dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sin(\omega x) d\left(e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left. e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \sin(\omega x) \right|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \omega \cos(\omega x) dx = -\omega \mathcal{F}(\omega)$$

The solution to so obtained ODE, $\mathcal{F}'(\omega) = -\omega \mathcal{F}(\omega)$ is $\mathcal{F}(\omega) = c \exp\left(-\frac{\omega^2}{2}\right)$, and the integration constant is seen to be one from normalization requirement $\mathcal{F}(0) = 1$ of the Gaussian probability density.

- 2. Prove (3), (37), (19), (22), (24) on the "Review of Matrix Algebra" handout. For the first part of (19) you may use the determinental expansion $|A| = \sum_i a_{ij} B_{ij}$, where B_{ij} is the (i,j)th cofactor of A. [Hint: The second part of (19) can be shown from the first part by writing the general matrix A as a product of two matrices of the type in the first part, one of which has unit determinant and the other of which has the same determinant as A.]
 - (3) tr(AB) = tr(BA), whenever AB and BA are defined (and square).
 - (37) $\mathbf{x}^{\top} A \mathbf{x} = \operatorname{tr}(A \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top}).$
 - (19) If $A_{n\times n} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}$, where A_{11} and A_{22} are square matrices, then if $A_{12} = 0$ (or $A_{21} = 0$), we have
 - $|A| = |A_{11}||A_{22}|$. More generally, we have $|A| = |A_{22}||A_{11} A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}|$.
 - (22) Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \xi(A)$ where A is symmetric, $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$. Then corresponding eigenvectors x_1 and x_2 exist, and $x_1 \perp x_2$ (i.e. $x_1^{\top} x_2 = 0$; x_1 and x_2 are orthogonal).
 - (24) (a) H idempotent implies all eigenvalues of H are 0 or 1. (b) If $H_{m \times m}$ is symmetric, then H is idempotent iff all eigenvalues of H are 0 or 1.

Proof. (3) Suppose that $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then

$$\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (AB)_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} B_{ji} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ji} A_{ij} = \operatorname{tr}(BA).$$

Solution (cont.)

(37)

$$\mathbf{x}^{\top} A \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_i A_{ij} x_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_i x_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} (\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top})_{ji} = \operatorname{tr}(A \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top}).$$

(19) Suppose that $A_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_1}$ and $A_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2 \times n_2}$ where $n_1 + n_2 = n$. If $A_{12} = 0$, then

$$\begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ A_{21} & I_{n_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ A_{21} & I_{n_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \end{vmatrix}.$$

The determinental expansion of $\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ A_{21} & I_{n_2} \end{pmatrix}$ along the nth column is given by $\sum_{i=1}^n a_{in} B_{in} = B_{nn}$ where B_{in} is the (i,n)th cofactor of the matrix. Notice that $B_{nn} = (-1)^{n+n} |A_{-n}|$ is just the determinant of the matrix A_{-n} formed by removing the nth column and row of A, and A_{-n} has the similar form of A that is block diagonal with a identity matrix at the lower right corner. Repeating expand the determinent along the last column, we will have $\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ A_{21} & I_{n_2} \end{vmatrix} = |A_{11}|$. Analogously, we have $\begin{vmatrix} I_{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{vmatrix} = |A_{22}|$. Therefore, $|A| = |A_{11}| |A_{22}|$.

Therefore, $|A| = |A_{11}||A_{22}|$.

If $A_{21} = 0$, similarly, we have

$$\left| \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \right| = \left| \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{n_2} \end{pmatrix} \right| \left| \begin{pmatrix} I_{n_1} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \right| = |A_{11}| |A_{22}|.$$

If A_{22} is invertible, then

$$\begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21} & 0 \\ A_{21} & I_{n_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{n_1} & A_{12} \\ 0 & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} = |A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}||A_{22}|.$$

- (22) Since A is symmetric, it can be decomposed untarily as $A = Q\Lambda Q^{\top}$ where $Q \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is orthonormal and $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries being $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$. For all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $Ax = \lambda x$ is equivalent to $\Lambda(Q^{\top}x) = \lambda(Q^{\top}x)$. Let $\lambda = \lambda_1$ and λ_2 , then the eigenvector corresponding to λ_1 and λ_2 is given by $x_1 = Qe_1$ and $x_2 = Qe_2$ respectively (unique up to a scaling factor), where $e_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a unit vector with ith entry being 1. $x_1^{\top}x_2 = e_1^{\top}Q^{\top}Qe_2 = e_1^{\top}e_2 = 0$.
- (24) (a) First, we show that for different eigenvalues, the corresponding eigenvectors are different. Otherwise, $Hx = \lambda_1 x = \lambda_2 x$ with $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, and then all linear combination of λ_1 and λ_2 is also an eigenvalue. However, H can have at most n eigenvalues since the eigenvalues are the roots of a degree-n polynomial.

Suppose that λ is any eigenvalue of H with respect to eigenvector x, i.e., $Hx = \lambda x$. Then $Hx = H^k x = \lambda H x = \lambda^k x$, i.e., λ^k is also a eigenvalue of H with respect to x for all $k = 1, 2, \ldots$ Therefore, $\lambda = \lambda^k$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. So $\lambda = 0$ or 1.

(b) \Longrightarrow Result follows by (a).

 \Leftarrow Sicne H is symmetric, it can be decomposed unitarily as $H = Q\Lambda Q^{\top}$ with where $Q \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is orthonormal and $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries being 0 or 1. Then $\Lambda^2 = \Lambda$ since Λ is a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries being 0 or 1. Since $H^2 = Q\Lambda Q^{\top}Q\Lambda Q^{\top} = Q\Lambda^2 Q^{\top} = Q\Lambda Q^{\top} = Q\Lambda Q^{\top}Q\Lambda Q^{\top} = Q\Lambda Q^{\top}Q\Lambda Q^{\top} = Q\Lambda Q^{\top}Q\Lambda Q^{\top}$ we have H is idempotent.

- 3. Suppose the real matrix H is $n \times n$ symmetric and idempotent and projects R^n onto a linear subspace L, i.e. $L = \text{range}(H) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ s.t. } x = Hy \text{ for some } y \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$. Let L^{\perp} be the orthogonal complement of L, i.e. $L^{\perp} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ s.t. } x^{\top}y = 0 \text{ for all } y \in L\}$.
 - (a) Show that I H is symmetric and idempotent.

Proof

$$(I - H)^{\top} = I^{\top} - H^{\top} = I - H$$

 $(I - H)^2 = I - 2H + H^2 = I - 2H + H = I - H$

(b) Show that I - H projects \mathbb{R}^n onto L^{\perp} , i.e. show $L^{\perp} = \text{range}(I - H)$.

Proof. Since $\forall z \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $z = z_1 + z_2$ where $z_1 \in L$, $z_2 \in L^{\perp}$ and $z_1^{\top} z_2 = 0$. Also, we have z = (H + I - H)z = Hz + (I - H)z, $Hz \in L$. So, $Hz = z_1$.

Since

$$(Hz)^{\top}(I-H)z = z^{\top}H(I-H)z = z^{\top}(H-H)z = 0$$

and the orthogonal decomposition is unique, we have $z_2 = (I - H)z$.

Since this holds for all $z \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $L^{\perp} = \text{range}(I - H)$.

4. Consider the lognormal random variable X with pdf

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}x} e^{-\frac{(\log x)^2}{2}}, \quad 0 \le x < \infty.$$

(a) Show that $\mathbb{E}X^r = e^{\frac{r^2}{2}}$, r = 0, 1, ..., so all moments of X are finite.

Proof. For r = 0, 1, ...,

$$\mathbb{E}X^{r} = \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{r} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}x} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\log^{2}x} dx$$

$$\frac{y = \log x}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{ry} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y^{2}} dy$$

$$= \frac{e^{\frac{1}{2}r^{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y-r)^{2}} dy$$

$$= e^{\frac{r^{2}}{2}}$$

(b) Show that the moment generating function of X does not exist, i.e. there does not exist h > 0 such that $\mathbb{E}e^{tX}$ is finite for all t in -h < t < h.

Proof.

$$\mathbb{E}e^{tX} = \int_0^\infty e^{tx} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}x} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\log^2 x} dx$$
$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{tx}}{\sqrt{2\pi}x e^{\frac{1}{2}\log^2 x}} dx$$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{e^{tx}}{\sqrt{2\pi}xe^{\frac{1}{2}\log^2 x}} = \infty,$$

we have $\int_0^\infty \frac{e^{tx}}{\sqrt{2\pi}xe^{\frac{1}{2}\log^2 x}} dx = \infty$. Therefore $\mathbb{E}e^{tX} = \infty$ for t > 0.

- 5. (Problem 3.29 in Casella and Berger) For each family in
 - (a) normal family with either parameter μ or σ known;
 - (b) gamma family with either parameter α or β known or both unknown;
 - (c) beta family with either parameter α or β known or both unknown;
 - (d) Poisson family;
 - (e) negative binomial family with r known, 0 ,

describe the natural parameter space.

(a) If μ is known,

$$f(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = e^{-\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \cdot e^{x\frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} + x^2(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2})}$$

then $t_1(x) = x, t_2 = x^2, \ \eta = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} & -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \end{pmatrix}^\top$ and $\mathcal{H} = \{ \eta = (\eta_1, \eta_2)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \mu \eta_1 > 0, \eta_2 < 0 \}.$

$$f(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{-\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}} \cdot e^{x\frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}}$$

then $t_1(x) = x$, $\eta = \left(\frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}\right)$ and $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{R}$. (b) For $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta x}$. If α is known,

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = x^{\alpha - 1} \cdot \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot e^{x(-\beta)}$$

then $t_1(x) = x$, $\eta = (-\beta)$ and $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{R}^-$. If β is known

If β is known,

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = e^{x(-\beta)} \cdot \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot e^{\ln x(\alpha - 1)}$$

then $t_1(x) = \ln x$, $\eta = (\alpha - 1)$ and $\mathcal{H} = (-1, \infty)$.

Solution (cont.)

If both are unknown,

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = 1 \cdot \frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \cdot e^{\ln x(\alpha - 1) + x(-\beta)}$$

then $t_1(x) = \ln x$, $t_2(x) = x$, $\eta = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha - 1 & -\beta \end{pmatrix}^{\top}$ and $\mathcal{H} = \{ \eta = \begin{pmatrix} \eta_1 & \eta_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \eta_1 > -1, \eta_2 < 0 \}$. (c) For $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{x^{\alpha - 1}(1 - x)^{\beta - 1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}$ where $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}$. If α is known,

(c) For
$$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^+$$
, $f(x; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}$ where $B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$. If α is known,

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = x^{\alpha - 1} \cdot \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \cdot e^{\ln(1 - x) \cdot (\beta - 1)}$$

then $t_1(x) = \ln(1-x)$, $\eta = (\beta - 1)$ and $\mathcal{H} = (-1, \infty)$.

If β is known,

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = (1 - x)^{\beta - 1} \cdot \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \cdot e^{\ln x \cdot (\alpha - 1)}$$

then $t_1(x) = \ln x$, $\eta = (\alpha - 1)$ and $\mathcal{H} = (-1, \infty)$.

If both are unknown,

$$f(x; \alpha, \beta) = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \cdot e^{\ln x \cdot (\alpha - 1) + \ln(1 - x) \cdot (\beta - 1)}$$

then $t_1(x) = \ln x$, $t_2(x) = \ln(1-x)$, $\eta = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha - 1 & \beta - 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\top}$ and $\mathcal{H} = \{ \eta = \begin{pmatrix} \eta_1 & \eta_2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \eta_1 > -1, \eta_2 > 1 \}$

(d) For $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^+$,

$$f(x; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^x}{e^{-\lambda}} x! = x! \cdot e^{-\lambda} \cdot e^{x \ln \lambda},$$

then $t_1(x) = x$, $\eta = (\ln \lambda)$ and $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{R}$.

(e) For $p \in (0,1)$, if r is known,

$$f(x;r,p) = {x+r-1 \choose x} p^r (1-p)^x = (-1)^x {-r \choose x} \cdot p^r \cdot e^{x \ln(1-p)},$$

then $t_1(x) = x$, $\eta = (\ln(1-p))$ and $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{R}^-$.

6. For each of the following families:

- (i) Verify that it is a k-parameter exponential family and specify the value of k. Is it a curved or a full exponential family?
- (ii) Specify the original parameter space (where the original parameter is taken to be θ in each case).
- (iii) Specify and sketch a graph of the natural parameter space. (If the family is a curved exponential family, we could call this the curved parameter space.)
- (a) $N(\theta, \theta)$.

$$f(x; \theta, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\theta}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2\theta}} = e^x \cdot \frac{e^{-\frac{\theta}{2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi\theta}} \cdot e^{x^2(-\frac{1}{2\theta})}$$

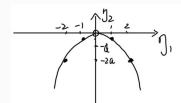
 $k=1,\,t_1(x)=x^2.$ It is a full exponential family. The original parameter space is \mathbb{R}^+ . $\eta=\left(-\frac{1}{2\theta}\right)$ so the natural parameter space is $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{R}^-$.

(b) $N(\theta, a\theta^2)$.

For a > 0,

$$f(x;\theta,a\theta^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a\theta^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2a\theta^2}} = e^{-\frac{1}{2a}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a\theta^2}} \cdot e^{x\frac{1}{a\theta} + x^2(-\frac{1}{2a\theta^2})}$$

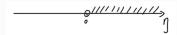
 $k=2,\,t_1(x)=x,t_2(x)=x^2.$ It is a curved exponential family. The original parameter space is $\mathbb{R}\setminus\{0\}$. $\eta=\left(\frac{1}{a\theta},-\frac{1}{2a\theta^2}\right)^{\top}$ so the natural parameter space is $\mathcal{H}=\{\eta=(\eta_1,\eta_2)^{\top}\in\mathbb{R}^2:\eta_2=-\frac{a}{2}\eta_1^2\}$.



(c) Gamma $(\theta, \frac{1}{\theta})$.

$$f(x;\theta,\tfrac{1}{\theta}) = \frac{\theta^\theta}{\Gamma(\theta)} x^{\theta-1} e^{-\theta x} = 1 \cdot \frac{\theta^\theta}{\Gamma(\theta)} \cdot e^{(\ln x - x) \cdot \theta} \cdot \frac{1}{x}$$

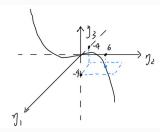
k = 1, $t_1(x) = \ln x - x$. It is a full exponential family. The original parameter space is \mathbb{R}^+ . $\eta = (\theta)$ so the natural parameter space is \mathbb{R}^+ .



(d) $f(x) = C \exp[-(x-\theta)^4]$, where C is a normalizing constant, $-\infty < x < \infty$.

$$f(x;\theta) = e^{-x^4} \cdot Ce^{-\theta^4} \cdot e^{x(4\theta^3) + x^2(-6\theta^2) + x^3(4\theta)}$$

 $k=3,\,t_1(x)=x,t_2(x)=x^2,t_3(x)=x^3.$ It is a curved exponential family. The original parameter space is \mathbb{R} . $\eta=\left(4\theta^3,-6\theta^2,4\theta\right)^{\top}$ so the natural parameter space is $\mathcal{H}=\{\eta=(\eta_1,\eta_2,\eta_3)^{\top}\in\mathbb{R}^3:\eta_1=\frac{1}{16}\eta_3^3,\eta_2=\frac{3}{8}\eta_3^2,\eta_3\in\mathbb{R}\}.$



7. (Problem 3.39 in Casella and Berger) Consider the Cauchy family defined in Section 3.3. This family can be extended to a location-scale family yielding pdfs of the form

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

The mean and variance do not exist for the Cauchy distribution. So the parameters μ , and σ^2 are not the mean and variance. But they do have important meaning. Show that if X is a random variable with a Cauchy distribution with parameters μ , and σ^2 , then:

- (a) μ is the median of the distribution of X, that is, $\mathbb{P}(X \geq \mu) = \mathbb{P}(X \leq \mu) = \frac{1}{2}$.
- (b) $\mu + \sigma$ and $\mu + \sigma$ are the quartiles of the distribution of X, that is, $\mathbb{P}(X \ge \mu + \sigma) = \mathbb{P}(X \le \mu \sigma) = \frac{1}{4}$ (Hint: Prove this first for $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$ and then use Exercise 3.38.)

Proof. (a) Since $f(2\mu - x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\pi\left(1 + \left(\frac{2\mu - x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right)} = \frac{1}{\sigma\pi\left(1 + \left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right)} = f(x; \mu, \sigma)$, we have $f(x; \mu, \sigma)$ is symmetrical about $x = \mu$. Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge \mu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\mu} f(x; \mu, \sigma) \mathrm{d}x = \int_{-\infty}^{\mu} f(2\mu - x; \mu, \sigma) \mathrm{d}x = \int_{\mu}^{+\infty} f(x; \mu, \sigma) \mathrm{d}x = \mathbb{P}(X \le \mu).$$

Since $\mathbb{P}(X \ge \mu) + \mathbb{P}(X \le \mu) = 1$, we have $\mathbb{P}(X \ge \mu) = \mathbb{P}(X \le \mu) = \frac{1}{2}$.

(b) For $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$, $f(x; 0, 1) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)}$. Since $f(x; \mu, \sigma)$ is symmetrical about x = 0, it follows that

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{0,1} \ge 1) = \mathbb{P}(X_{0,1} \le -1) = \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\pi(1+x^2)} dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan x \Big|_1^\infty = \frac{1}{4}$$

Since $f(x; \mu, \sigma)$ is in a location-scale family and $Z_{\mu, \sigma} = \frac{Z_{0,1} - \mu}{\sigma}$, from Exercise 3.38, we have $\mathbb{P}(X_{\mu, \sigma} \ge \mu + \sigma) = \frac{1}{4}$. By symmetry $\mathbb{P}(X_{\mu, \sigma} \ge \mu - \sigma) = \frac{1}{4}$.

8. Suppose X is a continuous, real-valued random variable distributed according to a one-parameter exponential family having density

$$f(x; \eta) = h(x)c(\eta)e^{\eta t(x)}$$

with natural parameter $\eta \in \mathcal{H}$, where \mathcal{H} is an interval in \mathbb{R}^1 . Note: Do not use Casella and Bergers Theorem 3.4.2 to solve this problem.

(a) Express $\frac{\partial \log[f(x;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}$ in terms of t(x) and $\mathbb{E}[t(X)]$

Suppose that $\mathcal{H} = [\eta_1, \eta_2]$.

Since $\log f(x; \eta) = \log h(x) + \log c(\eta) + \eta t(x)$, we have

$$\frac{\partial \log[f(x;\eta)]}{\partial \eta} = \frac{c'(\eta)}{c(\eta)} + t(x). \tag{8.1}$$

Since $c(\eta)$ is the normalizing factor that is larger than 0, we have $\frac{1}{c(\eta)} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)e^{\eta t(x)} dx$. Differentiating yields with respect to η ,

$$-\frac{c'(\eta)}{c^2(\eta)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)e^{\eta t(x)} d = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x) \frac{\partial e^{\eta t(x)}}{\partial \eta} d = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h(x)t(x)e^{\eta t(x)} dx,$$

where the second equality comes from Lebesgue dominated convergence theorem since

- (i) $h(x)e^{\eta t(x)}$ is integrable of x for each $\eta \in \mathcal{H}$;
- (ii) $\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} h(x) e^{\eta t(x)} = h(x) t(x) e^{\eta t(x)}$ exists for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$;

Solution (cont.)

(iii) $|h(x)e^{\eta t(x)}| \leq \max\{h(x)e^{\eta_1 t(x)}, h(x)e^{\eta_2 t(x)}\} \triangleq f_0(x)$ which is the dominated function.

Then,

$$\frac{c'(\eta)}{c(\eta)} = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} t(x)f(x;\eta)dx = -\mathbb{E}[t(X)]. \tag{8.2}$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial \log[f(x;\eta)]}{\partial \eta} = t(x) - \mathbb{E}[t(X)].$$

(b) Find $\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right]$.

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left\{t(X) - \mathbb{E}[t(X)]\right\} = \mathbb{E}[t(X)] - \mathbb{E}[t(X)] = 0.$$

(c) Express $\operatorname{Var}\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right]$ in terms of $\frac{\partial^2 \log[f(x;\eta)]}{\partial \eta^2}$.

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left\{\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right]^{2}\right\} - \left\{\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right]\right\}^{2}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left\{\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right]^{2}\right\}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left\{\left[t(X) - \mathbb{E}[t(X)]\right]^{2}\right\}$$

$$= \operatorname{Var}[t(X)]. \tag{8.5}$$

From (8.1), we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 \log[f(x;\eta)]}{\partial n^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \log c(\eta)}{\partial n^2}.$$
 (8.5)

From (8.2), we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 \log c(\eta)}{\partial \eta^2} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \int_{\mathbb{R}} t(x) f(x; \eta) dx$$

$$= -\int_{\mathbb{R}} t(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} f(x; \eta) dx$$

$$= -\int_{\mathbb{R}} t(x) [c'(\eta) + c(\eta) t(x)] e^{\eta t(x)} dx$$

$$= -\frac{c'(\eta)}{c(\eta)} \mathbb{E}[t(X)] - \mathbb{E}[t^2(X)]$$

$$= \{\mathbb{E}[t(X)]\}^2 - \mathbb{E}[t^2(X)]$$

$$= -\text{Var}[t(X)]. \tag{8.5}$$

Therefore, combining (8.5), (8.5) and (8.5), we have

$$\operatorname{Var}\left[\frac{\partial \log[f(X;\eta)]}{\partial \eta}\right] = -\frac{\partial^2 \log[f(x;\eta)]}{\partial \eta^2}$$