MATH 6605 Probability Theory Section 9.3: Moment Generating Functions (continued) Section 9.4: Fubini's Theorem

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Recap of Moment Generating Functions:

Definition 9.3.A. The moment generating function (MGF) of a random variable X is the function $M_X : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty]$ defined by

$$M_X(s) := E\left(e^{sX}\right) \qquad (s \in \mathbb{R}).$$

Properties 9.3.B. (ii) If X and Y are independent random variables, then $M_{X+Y}(s) = M_X(s) M_Y(s)$.

Theorem 9.3.3: Let X be a random variable. Assume $M_X(s) < \infty$ for every $s \in (-a, a)$, for some a > 0. Then

$$M_X(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s^k E(X^k)}{k!}$$
 for all $s \in (-a, a)$.

Consequently,
$$\left. \frac{d^k M_X(s)}{ds^k} \right|_{s=0} = E(X^k).$$

Example: We calculated in class that if X has the exponential distribution with parameter $\beta>0$ (which we can write briefly as " $X\sim \text{Exponential}(\beta)$ "), then

$$M_X(s) = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta}{\beta - s} & \text{if } s < \beta, \\ \infty & \text{if } s \ge \beta. \end{cases}$$

From this, we can compute the moments $E(X^k)$ of X:

$$M'(s) = \frac{\beta}{(\beta-s)^2}$$
 $\therefore E(X) = M'(0) = \frac{\beta}{(\beta-0)^2} = \frac{1}{\beta}.$

$$M''(s) = \frac{2\beta}{(\beta - s)^3}$$
 : $E(X^2) = M''(0) = \frac{2\beta}{(\beta - 0)^3} = \frac{2}{\beta^2}$.

$$\therefore Var(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2 = \frac{2}{\beta^2} - \left(\frac{1}{\beta}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{\beta^2}.$$

And so on.

Alternatively, we can compute the moments using the power series expansion:

$$M_X(s) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{s}{\beta}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s^k}{\beta^k}$$
 for $-\beta < s < \beta$.

Recalling from Theorem 9.3.3 that
$$M_X(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s^k E(X^k)}{k!}$$
,

we observe
$$\frac{E(X^k)}{k!} = \frac{1}{\beta^k}$$
 for every k ; $\therefore E(X^k) = \frac{k!}{\beta^k}$.

Application of MGFs: Large Deviations

We shall illustrate through the following detailed example.

Let H_n represent the number of Heads in n tosses of a fair coin. In our probability triple $(\Omega_*, \sigma_E, \mathbf{P}_E)$ of sequences of tosses of a fair coin, we take $H_n(\omega)$ to be the number of H's in $(\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n)$. We know that H_n has the binomial distribution with parameters n and 1/2, and $E(H_n) = n/2$.

We know that H_n/n converges to $\frac{1}{2}$ in probability (and almost surely) by the laws of large numbers. In particular, we know that $\mathbf{P}(H_n \geq 0.6n)$ goes to 0 as $n \to \infty$, but how quickly? Recall how we used Chebyshev's Inequality to prove the WLLN:

$$\mathbf{P}\left(H_n \geq \left(\frac{1}{2} + 0.1\right)n\right) = \mathbf{P}\left(\frac{H_n}{n} - \frac{1}{2} \geq 0.1\right)$$

$$\leq \mathbf{P}\left(\left|\frac{H_n}{n} - \frac{1}{2}\right| \geq 0.1\right)$$

$$\leq \frac{\mathsf{Var}\left(\frac{H_n}{n}\right)}{(0.1)^2} = \frac{\mathsf{constant}}{n}.$$

But in fact, the probability decays much faster, as we now show.



Theorem 9.3.C: (Special case of Theorem 9.3.4) Let H_n have the binomial distribution with parameters n and 1/2 (corresponding to the number of Heads in n tosses of a fair coin; note that $E(H_n/n) = 1/2$). Assume 1/2 < b < 1. Then

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\frac{H_n}{n} \geq b\right) \leq \rho^n$$
, where $\rho = \frac{1}{2(1-b)^{1-b}b^b} < 1$.

To illustrate, for b=0.6, we get $\rho=0.980\ldots$ Then $\rho^{100}=0.133\ldots$, and $\rho^{1000}\approx 1.7\times 10^{-9}$.

Proof of Theorem 9.3.C: We follow the text's proof of 9.3.4.

Fix b > 1/2 (and b < 1).

Let X_1, X_2, \ldots be i.i.d. random variables with

$$P(X_i = 0) = \frac{1}{2} = P(X_i = 1)$$
. Then $\mathcal{L}(H_n) = \mathcal{L}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$.

$$\frac{1}{2} < b < 1; X_1, X_2, \dots$$
 are i.i.d. with $\mathbf{P}(X_i = 0) = \frac{1}{2} = \mathbf{P}(X_i = 1);$ $\mathcal{L}(H_n) = \mathcal{L}(X_1 + \dots + X_n).$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}(H_n \geq bn) &= \mathbf{P}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - bn \geq 0\right) \\ &= \mathbf{P}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - b) \geq 0\right) \\ &\leq \mathbf{P}\left(e^{s\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - b)} \geq e^0\right) \quad \text{for all } s > 0 \\ &\leq E\left(e^{s\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - b)}\right) / e^0 \quad \text{(by Markov's Inequality)} \\ &= E\left(e^{s(X_1 - b)}e^{s(X_2 - b)} \cdots e^{s(X_n - b)}\right) \\ &= E\left(e^{s(X_1 - b)}\right) E\left(e^{s(X_2 - b)}\right) \cdots E\left(e^{s(X_n - b)}\right) \\ &= \left(E\left(e^{s(X_1 - b)}\right)\right)^n = \left(M_{X_1 - b}(s)\right)^n \quad (\{X_i\} \text{ i.i.d}). \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} < b < 1; X_1, X_2, \dots$$
 are i.i.d. with $\mathbf{P}(X_i = 0) = \frac{1}{2} = \mathbf{P}(X_i = 1);$ $\mathcal{L}(H_n) = \mathcal{L}(X_1 + \dots + X_n).$ (*) $\mathbf{P}(H_n \ge bn) \le (M_{X_1 - b}(s))^n$ for all $s > 0$.

Now,
$$M_{X_1-b}(s) = E\left(e^{s(X_1-b)}\right) = \frac{1}{2}e^{s(0-b)} + \frac{1}{2}e^{s(1-b)}.$$

$$M'_{X_1-b}(s) = \frac{1}{2}\left(-be^{-sb} + (1-b)e^{s(1-b)}\right)$$

$$\therefore M'_{X_1-b}(0) = \frac{1}{2}(1-2b) < 0 \quad (=E(X_1-b) < 0)$$

Also note $M_{X_1-b}''(s) > 0$. So we can find the best s for (*) [i.e., minimize $M_{X_1-b}(s)$] by solving M'(s) = 0:

$$be^{-sb} = (1-b)e^{s(1-b)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad e^s = \frac{b}{1-b} \quad \therefore \operatorname{Let} \, s^* = \operatorname{In} \left(\frac{b}{1-b} \right).$$

Notice $s^* > 0$ since $b > \frac{1}{2}$.

Now substitute $s = s^*$ into (*): $P(H_n \ge bn) \le (M_{X_1-b}(s^*))^n$



$$\begin{split} M_{X_1-b}(s^*) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(e^{-s^*b} + e^{s^*(1-b)} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(e^{s^*} \right)^{-b} (1 + e^{s^*}) \quad \text{Recall } e^{s^*} = \frac{b}{1-b} : \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{b}{1-b} \right)^{-b} \left(1 + \frac{b}{1-b} \right) \quad \text{Do some algebra.} \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{2 \, b^b \, (1-b)^{1-b}} \quad < M_X(0) = 1. \end{split}$$
 Let $\rho = \frac{1}{2 \, b^b \, (1-b)^{1-b}}.$

Then we have $P(H_n \ge bn) \le (M_{X_1-b}(s^*))^n = \rho^n$. Q.E.D.

Remark: It can in fact be proved that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbf{P}(H_n \geq bn)^{1/n} = \rho$.

Section 9.4: Fubini's Theorem

Recall product measure from Section 2.7:

Let $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathbf{P}_1)$ and $(\Omega_2, \mathcal{F}_2, \mathbf{P}_2)$ be probability triples. Their product measure triple is the probability triple $(\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2, \mathcal{F}_{12}, \mathbf{P}_{12})$ characterized by $\mathbf{P}_{12}(A \times B) = \mathbf{P}_1(A)\,\mathbf{P}_2(B)$ for $A \in \mathcal{F}_1$, $B \in \mathcal{F}_2$. (We can also write this \mathbf{P}_{12} as $\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2$.)

For random variables X on the product triple, we can evaluate E(X) as usual (start with simple functions on $\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2$, etc.), but we can also evaluate it by iterated expectations involving only one of \mathbf{P}_1 or \mathbf{P}_2 at a time.

<u>Notation:</u> For a random variable X on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbf{P})$, we can write the expectation as a Lebesgue-type integral:

$$E_{\mathbf{P}}(X) = \int_{\Omega} X(\omega) \mathbf{P}(d\omega) = \int_{\Omega} X d\mathbf{P}.$$

For the product measure, this is

$$E_{\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2}(X) = \int_{\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2} X(\omega_1, \omega_2) d(\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2).$$

Theorem 9.4.1: Fubini's Theorem. For the product measures on the previous slide, let X be a random variable on $(\Omega_1 \times \Omega_2, \mathcal{F}_{12}, \mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2)$ whose expected value is defined. Then

$$E_{\mathbf{P}_{1}\times\mathbf{P}_{2}}(X) = \int_{\Omega_{1}\times\Omega_{2}} X(\omega_{1},\omega_{2}) d(\mathbf{P}_{1}\times\mathbf{P}_{2})$$

$$= \int_{\Omega_{1}} \left(\int_{\Omega_{2}} X(\omega_{1},\omega_{2}) \mathbf{P}_{2}(d\omega_{2}) \right) \mathbf{P}_{1}(d\omega_{1}) \quad (1)$$

$$= \int_{\Omega_{2}} \left(\int_{\Omega_{1}} X(\omega_{1},\omega_{2}) \mathbf{P}_{1}(d\omega_{1}) \right) \mathbf{P}_{2}(d\omega_{2}). \quad (2)$$

(Proof omitted.)

We can also write (1) as $E_{\mathbf{P_1}}(E_{\mathbf{P_2}}X(\omega_1,\omega_2))$, where the inner quantity $E_{\mathbf{P_2}}X(\omega_1,\omega_2)$ is interpreted as having ω_1 fixed, and the expected value taken with respect to $\omega_2 \in \Omega_2$.

Thus, $E_{\mathbf{P}_2}X(\omega_1,\omega_2)$ is a function of ω_1 , which is measurable with respect to $(\Omega_1, \mathcal{F}_1, \mathbf{P}_1)$ (measurability can be proved).

Important case: Suppose $X = g(Y_1(\omega_1), Y_2(\omega_2))$, where each Y_i is a random variable on $(\Omega_i, \mathcal{F}_i, \mathbf{P}_i)$. By construction of product measure, Y_1 and Y_2 are independent, because

$$\mathbf{P}_{12}(Y_1(\omega_1) \in A, Y_2(\omega_2) \in B) = \mathbf{P}_{12}((\omega_1, \omega_2) \in Y_1^{-1}(A) \times Y_2^{-1}(B))
= \mathbf{P}_1(Y_1^{-1}(A)) \mathbf{P}_2(Y_2^{-1}(B))
= \mathbf{P}_1(Y_1 \in A)) \mathbf{P}_2(Y_2 \in B).$$

Then $E_{P_2}(g(Y_1(\omega_1), Y_2(\omega_2))) = g_1(Y_1(\omega_1))$ where the function g_1 on $\mathbb R$ is defined by $g_1(y_1) = E_{P_2}(g(y_1, Y_2))$. Then Fubini's Theorem says that

$$E_{\mathbf{P}_{12}}(g(Y_1, Y_2)) = E_{\mathbf{P}_1}(g_1(Y_1)).$$

To illustrate, we shall consider the important example of computing the distribution of the sum of two independent random variables. Let Y and Z be independent random variables, with c.d.f.'s F_Y and F_Z . We want to compute the c.d.f. of the random variable Y + Z.

We take P_1 to be μ_Y , and P_2 to be μ_Z .

Correspondingly, $\Omega_1 = \Omega_2 = \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{F}_1 = \mathcal{F}_2 = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

Write \mathbf{P}_{YZ} for $\mu_Y \times \mu_Z$, and (y, z) for (ω_1, ω_2) .

Fix $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and let $g(y,z) = \mathbf{1}_{\{y+z < t\}}(y,z)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_{YZ}(Y+Z \leq t) &=& E_{\mathbf{P}_{YZ}}g(Y,Z) \\ &=& E_{\mu_Y}(g_2(Y)) \\ \text{where} & g_2(y) &=& E_{\mu_Z}(g(y,Z)) \\ &=& \mu_Z(y+Z \leq t) \\ &=& \mu_Z(Z \leq t-y) &=& F_Z(t-y). \\ \therefore & \mathbf{P}_{YZ}(Y+Z \leq t) &=& E_{\mu_Y}\left(F_Z(t-Y)\right) \\ &=& \int_{\mathbb{T}} F_Z(t-y) \, \mu_Y(dy). \end{aligned}$$

See Theorem 9.4.5 for a more general statement.



$$\mathbf{P}_{YZ}(Y+Z\leq t) = E_{\mu_Y}(F_Z(t-Y)) = \int_{\mathbb{D}} F_Z(t-y)\,\mu_Y(dy).$$

If Y has pdf f_Y , then this becomes

$$\mathbf{P}_{YZ}(Y+Z\leq t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_Z(t-y) f_Y(y) dy.$$

If also Z has pdf f_Z , then we have

$$F_{Z}(t-y) = \int_{-\infty}^{t-y} f_{Z}(z) dz \quad \text{Substitute } z = u-y, dz = du$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{t} f_{Z}(u-y) du,$$

$$\therefore \mathbf{P}_{YZ}(Y+Z \le t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{t} f_{Z}(u-y) du f_{Y}(y) dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{Z}(u-y) f_{Y}(y) dy du$$

Hence Y + Z has pdf $f_{Y+Z}(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Z(u-y) f_Y(y) dy$.



The integral expression $f_{Y+Z}(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_Z(u-y) f_Y(y) dy$ is called the convolution of f_Y and f_Z .

There is a similar formula in the discrete case, which is easier to derive. Suppose Y and Z are independent integer-valued random variables. Then for each integer k, we have

$$P(Y + Z = k) = \sum_{i,j: i+j=k} P(Y = i, Z = j)$$

$$= \sum_{i,j: i+j=k} P(Y = i) P(Z = j)$$

$$= \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} P(Y = i) P(Z = k - i).$$

<u>Exercise 9.5.15:</u> Use the above formula to show that the sum of two independent Poisson random variables has a Poisson distribution.