

$$X, Y \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Exp}(1) = e^{-x} \mathbb{1}_{x \in (0, \infty)}$$

$$D := X - Y \sim f_D(d) = ?$$

$$\text{let } Z = -Y \sim e^{-x} \mathbb{1}_{-x \in (0, \infty)} = e^x \mathbb{1}_{x \in (-\infty, 0)}, \quad S_Z = (-\infty, 0)$$

$$D = X + Z \sim \int_{x \in S_X} f_X(x) f_Z(d-x) \mathbb{1}_{d-x \in S_Z} dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty e^{-x} e^{d-x} \mathbb{1}_{d-x \in (-\infty, 0)} dx$$

$\underbrace{x-d \in (0, \infty)}_{x \in (d, \infty)}$

$$= e^d \begin{cases} \int_0^\infty e^{-2x} dx & \text{if } d \leq 0 \\ \int_d^\infty e^{-2x} dx & \text{if } d > 0 \end{cases} = -\frac{e^d}{2} \begin{cases} [e^{-2x}]_0^\infty & \text{if } d \leq 0 \\ [e^{-2x}]_d^\infty & \text{if } d > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$= -\frac{e^d}{2} \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } d \leq 0 \\ -e^{-2d} & \text{if } d > 0 \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} e^d & \text{if } d \leq 0 \\ e^{-d} & \text{if } d > 0 \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|d|} = \text{Laplace}(0, 1)$$

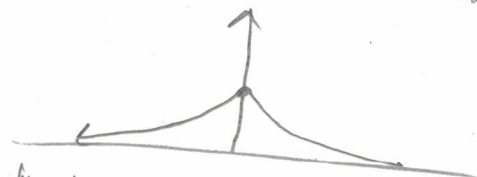
"Double Exponential"  
Standard Laplace

$$E[D] = E[X] - E[Y] = 1 - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{Var}[D] = \text{Var}[X] + \text{Var}[Y] = 1 + 1 = 2$$

$$\text{let } X \sim \text{Laplace}(0, 1), \quad Y = \mu + \sigma X \sim \frac{1}{2\sigma} e^{-\frac{|x-\mu|}{\sigma}}$$

where  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma > 0$



PDF &  
Hr: joint PDF

Laplace came up with this dist in 1774 and called it the "first law of errors". What was he trying to solve?

Imagine you want to measure a value  $\mu$  but your measure is with error  $\epsilon$ , so you observe  $m = \mu + \epsilon$ .

What is the dist of errors?  $M = \mu + \epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon \sim ?$

He made a few assumptions...

$$E[m] = \mu$$

①  $E[\epsilon] = 0$ . So on average you measure  $\mu$  (" unbiased ")

②  $f_{\epsilon}(\epsilon) = f_{\epsilon}(-\epsilon)$ . A size  $+\epsilon$  error is equally likely as a size  $-\epsilon$  error (symmetric about zero)

$\Rightarrow$  50% errors  $> 0$ , 50% errors  $< 0$ .

③  $f'(\epsilon) < 0$  for  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $f'(\epsilon) > 0$  for  $\epsilon < 0$ .



Higher magnitude errors are less likely than lower magnitude errors

There are many dists that satisfy ①, ②, ③... Normal, Logistic

Laplace then considered if  $f''(\epsilon) = -f'(\epsilon) \Rightarrow f(\epsilon) = c e^{-|\epsilon|}$

Solving for constants

$\Rightarrow \epsilon \sim \text{Laplace}(0, 1)$

for Hump - Dumpy

Second Law of Errors (1778)

$$f(\epsilon) = c e^{-d\epsilon^2} \Rightarrow f(\epsilon) = N(0, 1)$$

sketch Solving for constants for Hump - Dumpy

Another one...  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2), Y = e^X \Leftrightarrow X = \ln(Y) = g^{-1}(Y)$$

$$\left| \frac{d}{dy} [g^{-1}(y)] \right| = \frac{1}{|y|}$$

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\ln(y) - \mu)^2} \frac{1}{|y|} \mathbb{1}_{\ln(y) \in \mathbb{R}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2} y^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\ln(y) - \mu)^2} \mathbb{1}_{y \in (0, \infty)}$$

$$= \text{Log } N(\mu, \sigma^2) \text{ "Log-normal"}$$

Since if you transform  $X = \ln(Y) \Rightarrow X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

It can easily have been called

"Exponential-normal"

$$X_1, \dots, X_k \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Exp}(\lambda), \lambda > 0$$

another way: one draw. wait for  $k$   $\text{Exp}(\lambda)$ 's to realize..

$$X \equiv X_1 + \dots + X_k \sim \text{Erlang}(k, \lambda), k \in \mathbb{N}, \lambda > 0$$

$$= \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \lambda^k e^{-\lambda x} x^{k-1} \mathbb{1}_{x \in (0, \infty)}$$

Is this a valid PDF? Yes, it came from the convolution formula. Let's investigate its Hupitz-Dupuy identity below:

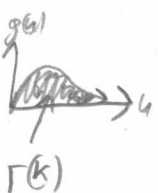
$$1 = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \lambda^k e^{-\lambda x} x^{k-1} dx$$

$$= \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\lambda x} x^{k-1} dx = \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} \left(\frac{u}{\lambda}\right)^{k-1} \frac{1}{\lambda} du = \frac{\lambda^k}{(k-1)!} \frac{1}{\lambda^k} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} u^{k-1} du$$

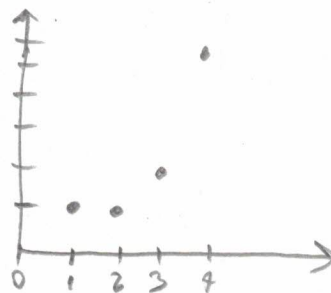
let  $u = \lambda x \Rightarrow x = \frac{u}{\lambda} \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = \lambda \Rightarrow dx = \frac{1}{\lambda} du, x=0 \Rightarrow u=0, x=\infty \Rightarrow u=\infty$

$$\Rightarrow (k-1)! = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} u^{k-1} du \quad \text{very interesting identity!}$$

The integral on the rhs is very common, so it gets its own name and symbol, the gamma function:

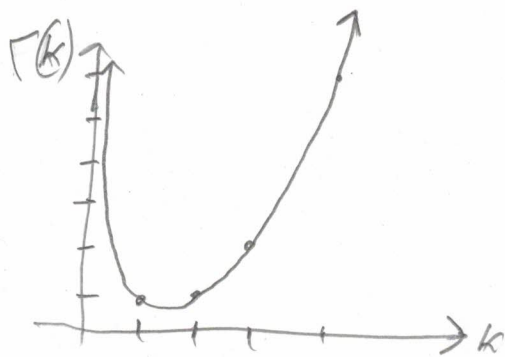
  $\Gamma(k) := \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} u^{k-1} du$

Very cool function! Note:  $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} u^{k-1} du$  has no closed form expression.



For the purposes of this class,  
The  $\Gamma$  function exists for  $k \in (0, \infty)$ . At  $k=0$ , the integral diverges. (It also exists for  $k \in (-\infty, 0) \setminus \mathbb{Z}$  but we're not interested in negative  $k$  values in this class.)

Using numerical integration, you can show the function looks like:



And you can prove it's strictly increasing from  $(\approx 1.46, \infty)$

Why not use this function to extend the factorial function to all  $k \in (0, \infty)$ ? We can!

The major property of the gamma function.

Just like  $k! = k(k-1)!$   $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$  (trivial elsewhere)

So too  $\Gamma(k+1) = k \Gamma(k) \forall k > 0$  Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(k) &:= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y} y^{k-1} dy \stackrel{\text{integrate by parts}}{=} [uv]_0^{\infty} - \int_0^{\infty} v dy = \left[ \frac{e^{-y} y^k}{k} \right]_0^{\infty} - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{y^k}{k} (-e^{-y}) dy \\ &= (0-0) - \frac{1}{k} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y} y^{(k+1)-1} dy = \frac{1}{k} \Gamma(k+1) \Rightarrow \Gamma(k+1) = k \Gamma(k) \end{aligned}$$

Reusing the PDF of the Erlang using the gamma function,

$$X \sim \text{Erlang}(k, \lambda) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \lambda^k e^{-\lambda x} x^{k-1} \mathbb{1}_{x \in (0, \infty)}$$

this PDF integrates to 1  $\forall k > 0$  not only  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We've now argued the parameter space of the Erlang. This new rv historically gets a new name: the Gamma Disor!

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$$X \sim \text{gamma}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \beta^\alpha e^{-\beta x} x^{\alpha-1} \mathbb{1}_{x \in (0, \infty)}$$

where  $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$

(Verifying the

why is it called the gamma? Hyper-Dirichlet property uses the gamma function)

Some more definitions. Let  $a > 0$

$$\Gamma(k) = \int_0^\infty e^{-u} u^{k-1} du = \underbrace{\int_0^a e^{-u} u^{k-1} du}_{\delta(k, a)} + \underbrace{\int_a^\infty e^{-u} u^{k-1} du}_{\Gamma(k, a)}$$

lower incomplete  
gamma function

upper incomplete  
gamma function

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma(k) = \delta(k, a) + \Gamma(k, a)$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = \underbrace{\frac{\delta(k, a)}{\Gamma(k)}}_{P(k, a)} + \underbrace{\frac{\Gamma(k, a)}{\Gamma(k)}}_{Q(k, a)}$$

lower  
regularized  
gamma  
function

upper  
regularized  
gamma  
function

$$\Rightarrow 1 = P(k, a) + Q(k, a)$$

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \delta(k, a) = \Gamma(k) \quad \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \Gamma(k, a) = 0$$

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \delta(k, a) = 0$$

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \Gamma(k, a) = \Gamma(k)$$

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} P(k, a) = 1$$

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} Q(k, a) = 0$$

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 0} P(k, a) = 0$$

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 0} Q(k, a) = 1$$



Useful gamma-family integrals:

$$u = \frac{v}{c} \Rightarrow v = uc$$

$$\text{let } v = cu \Rightarrow \frac{dv}{du} = c \Rightarrow du = \frac{1}{c} dv, u=0 \Rightarrow v=0, u=\infty \Rightarrow v=\infty$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} u^{k-1} e^{-cu} du = \int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^{k-1} e^{-v} \frac{1}{c} dv = \frac{1}{c^k} \int_0^{\infty} v^{k-1} e^{-v} dv = \frac{\Gamma(k)}{c^k}$$

$$\int_0^q u^{k-1} e^{-cu} du = \int_0^{qc} \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^{k-1} e^{-v} \frac{1}{c} dv = \frac{1}{c^k} \int_0^{qc} v^{k-1} e^{-v} dv = \frac{\gamma(k, qc)}{c^k}$$

$$\int_q^{\infty} u^{k-1} e^{-cu} du = \int_0^{\infty} u^{k-1} e^{-cu} du - \int_0^q u^{k-1} e^{-cu} du = \frac{\Gamma(k)}{c^k} - \frac{\gamma(k, qc)}{c^k} = \frac{\Gamma(k, qc)}{c^k}$$

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

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$$F_X(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \beta^\alpha e^{-\beta x} y^{\alpha-1} dy = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^x y^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta y} dy = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\gamma(\alpha, \beta x)}{\beta^\alpha} = P(\alpha, \beta x)$$

$$\Gamma(k, q) = \int_q^{\infty} \underbrace{u^{k-1}}_q \underbrace{e^{-u}}_{dr} du = [qr]_q^{\infty} - \int_q^{\infty} r dr$$

$$S_X(x) = 1 - F_X(x) = Q(\alpha, \beta x)$$

$$= [u^{k-1}(-e^{-u})]_q^{\infty} - \int_q^{\infty} (-e^{-u})(k-1) u^{k-2} du$$

$$= q^{k-1} e^{-q} + (k-1) \int_q^{\infty} e^{-u} u^{k-2} du$$

$$= q^{k-1} e^{-q} + (k-1) \Gamma(k-1, q)$$

$$= q^{k-1} e^{-q} + (k-1) (q^{k-2} e^{-q} + (k-2) \Gamma(k-2, q))$$

$$= q^{k-1} e^{-q} + (k-1) q^{k-2} e^{-q} + (k-1)(k-2) \Gamma(k-2, q)$$

$$= e^{-q} (q^{k-1} + (k-1) q^{k-2} + (k-1)(k-2) q^{k-3} + \dots + (k-1)! q^0)$$

$$\Gamma(1, q) = \int_q^{\infty} e^{-u} du = [-e^{-u}]_q^{\infty} = e^{-q}$$

$$= e^{-q} \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-1)!} \left( q^{n-1} + (n-1)q^{n-2} + \dots + (n-1)!q^0 \right)$$

$$= e^{-q} (n-1)! \left( \frac{q^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} + \frac{q^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} + \dots + \frac{q^0}{0!} \right)$$

$$= e^{-q} (n-1)! \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{q^i}{i!} = \Gamma(n, q)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma(n+1, q) = e^{-q} n! \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{q^i}{i!}$$

Recall the Negative Binomial

$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{iid}(\text{geom}(p))$

$$\frac{(k+t-1)!}{(k-1)! t!}$$

$$X = X_1 + \dots + X_n \sim \text{Neg Bin}(k, p) = \binom{k+t-1}{k-1} (1-p)^t p^k \mathbb{1}_{t \in \mathbb{N}_0}$$

we are waiting for  $k$  geometric r.v.'s to realize. Can  $k=3.5$ ? No...  
but conceptually it makes sense... Can we extend  $k \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow k \in (0, \infty)$ ?  
Yes:

$$X \sim \text{Ext-Neg Bin}(k, p) = \frac{\Gamma(k+t)}{\Gamma(k) t!} (1-p)^t p^k \mathbb{1}_{t \in \mathbb{N}_0}$$

Extended negative binomial



B

$Z \sim N(0,1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} \mathbb{1}_{z \in \mathbb{R}}$  not 1:1! we cannot use our formula!!

How to solve... let's go back to CDF's...

$$F_Y(y) = P(Y \leq y) = P(Z^2 \leq y) = P(Z \in (-\sqrt{y}, \sqrt{y}))$$

$$= \int_{-\sqrt{y}}^{\sqrt{y}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz \stackrel{\text{by symmetry around 0}}{=} 2 \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz$$

zero of  $f_z(z)$

$$= 2 \left( F_2(\sqrt{y}) - \underbrace{F_2(0)}_{\frac{1}{2}} \right) = 2F_2(\sqrt{y}) - 1$$

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{d}{dy} [2F_2(\sqrt{y}) - 1] = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} y^{-\frac{1}{2}} f_2(\sqrt{y}) = y^{-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{y})^2} \mathbb{1}_{\substack{\sqrt{y} \in \mathbb{R} \\ y \in (0, \infty)}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} y^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}y} \mathbb{1}_{y \in (0, \infty)} = \chi_1^2$$

"Chi-Square with 1 degree of freedom"

the parameter is called degrees of freedom and it's denoted as a subscript

$$= \chi_1^2$$

the notation you're used to