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# STAT 330 COURSE NOTES

MATHEMATICAL STATISTICS

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### Abstract

These notes are intended as a resource for myself; past, present, or future students of this course, and anyone interested in the material. The goal is to provide an end-to-end resource that covers all material discussed in the course displayed in an organized manner. These notes are my interpretation and transcription of the content covered in lectures. The instructor has not verified or confirmed the accuracy of these notes, and any discrepancies, misunderstandings, typos, etc. as these notes relate to course's content is not the responsibility of the instructor. If you spot any errors or would like to contribute, please contact me directly.

## 1 September 7, 2018

### 1.1 Random variables

We have two types (not include mixture r.v.s) random variables (r.v.s):

**Discrete** Probability (mass) function of  $X$

$$f(x) = P(X = x)$$

Support set of  $X$

$$A = \{x \mid f(x) > 0\}$$

The following two conditions must hold

•

$$f(x) \geq 0$$

•

$$\sum_{x \in A} f(x) = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f(x) = 1$$

**Continuous** Probability density function (pdf) of  $X$

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x) = F'(x)$$

if  $F$  is differentiable at  $x$ , otherwise  $f(x) = 0$ .

Support set of  $X$

$$A = \{x \mid f(x) > 0\}$$

The following two conditions must hold

•

$$f(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

•

$$\int_{x \in A} f(x) dx = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

Some examples of **discrete** r.v.s

**Bernoulli**  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  for  $0 < p < 1$  where

$$P[X = 1] = p \quad \text{or} \quad P[X = 0] = 1 - p$$

therefore

$$f(x) = P[X = x] = p^x(1-p)^{1-x} \quad x = 0, 1$$

and  $A = \{0, 1\}$ .

**Binomial**  $X \sim \text{BIN}(n, p)$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  and  $0 < p < 1$ .  $X$  represents the number of successes of  $n$  iid  $\text{BERN}(p)$  trials or  $X$  (or  $X$  is sum of  $n$  iid  $\text{BERN}(p)$  r.v.s):

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \quad Y_i \sim \text{BERN}(p)$$

therefore

$$f(x) = P[X = x] = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad x = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

and  $A = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

**Geometric**  $X \sim \text{GEO}(p)$  for  $0 < p < 1$ .  $X$  represents the number of failures before the 1st success in a sequence of iid  $\text{BERN}(p)$  trials, therefore

$$f(x) = P[X = x] = (1-p)^x p \quad x = 0, 1, \dots$$

and  $A = \{0, 1, \dots\}$ .

**Negative Binomial**  $X \sim \text{NB}(k, p)$  where  $X$  represents the number of successes in  $k$   $\text{BERN}(p)$  trials. We skip this for now.

Some examples of **continuous** r.v.s

**Normal/Gaussian**  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  for  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\sigma > 0$ .

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

**Gamma**  $X \sim \text{GAM}(\alpha, \beta)$  for  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ . The pdf may be left or right skewed.

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\beta}\right) \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^+$$

Note that the Gamma function  $\Gamma$  is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(\alpha) &= (\alpha-1)\Gamma(\alpha-1) \quad \alpha > 1 \\ \Gamma(n) &= (n-1)! \\ \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) &= \sqrt{\pi} \end{aligned}$$

**Exponential**  $X \sim \text{EXP}(\theta)$  for  $\theta > 0$ .

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}} \quad x \geq 0$$

Note that  $\text{EXP}(\theta)$  is simply  $\text{GAM}(1, \theta)$ .

## 2 September 10, 2018

### 2.1 Cumulative distribution function (cdf)

We denote the *cumulative distribution function* (cdf) as  $F(x) = P[X \leq x]$  with properties:

1. non-decreasing i.e.  $F(a) \leq F(b)$  if  $a \leq b$

2.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$$

3.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$$

4. right-continuous, i.e.  $\lim_{x \downarrow x_0} F(x) = F(x_0)$  (where  $x \downarrow x_0$  denotes  $x$  approaches  $x_0$  from  $x_0$ 's right-hand side or in this case from above).

**Remark 2.1.** If  $X$  is a continuous r.v. then  $F(x)$  is also left-continuous i.e.  $F(x)$  is continuous.

### 2.2 Location parameters

**Example 2.1.** If  $X \sim N(\mu, 1)$ ,  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\mu$  is a location parameter for  $X$  where

$$f(x; \mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2}} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$f(x, \mu)$  is *NOT completely specified* as  $f(\cdot, \mu)$  cannot be calculated at  $x$  as  $\mu$  is *unknown* (we would need to perform *statistical inference* to estimate  $\mu$ ).

On the other hand,  $f(x; 0)$  is completely specified. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} f(x; \mu) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu-0)^2}{2}} \\ &= f(x - \mu; 0) \end{aligned}$$

That is: the uncompletely specified  $f(x; \mu)$  can be rewritten as a completely specified  $f(\cdot; 0)$  evaluated at  $x - \mu$ .  $\mu$  is a *location parameter* for  $X \sim N(\mu, 1)$ .

**Definition 2.1.** A quantity  $\eta$  is a **location parameter** for  $X$  with a pdf  $f(x; \eta)$  if

$$f(x; \eta) = f(x - \eta; 0)$$

Increasing the value of the location parameter of the pdf shifts it to the right (e.g. for  $N(\mu, 1)$ ).

For a continuous r.v.  $X$  with a location parameter  $\eta$

$$\begin{aligned} F(x; \eta) &= P[X \leq x; \eta] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x f(t; \eta) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x f(t - \eta; 0) dt \end{aligned}$$

since  $\eta$  is a location parameter for our pdf  $f$ . Let  $s = t - \eta$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_{-\infty}^{x-\eta} f(s; 0) \, ds \\ &= F(x - \eta; 0) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\eta$  is a location parameter iff  $F(x; \eta) = F(x - \eta; 0)$ .

### 2.3 Scale parameters

**Example 2.2.** Let  $X \sim EXP(\theta)$ ,  $\theta > 0$  (as we will see,  $\theta$  is a scale parameter for  $X$ ). Recall

$$f(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}} \quad \theta > 0$$

is *NOT completely specified* as  $\theta$  is unknown.

However  $f(x; 1) = \exp(-x)$  for  $x > 0$  is the pdf of  $EXP(1)$  which is completely satisfied. Note that

$$f(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{\theta}\right) = \frac{1}{\theta} f\left(\frac{x}{\theta}; 1\right)$$

$\theta$  is a *scale parameter* for  $X \sim EXP(\theta)$ ,  $\theta > 0$ .

**Definition 2.2.** A quantity  $\theta$  is a **scale parameter** if its pdf satisfies

$$f(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} f\left(\frac{x}{\theta}; 1\right) \quad \theta > 0$$

That is: the uncompletely specified pdf can be re-written as the product of  $\frac{1}{\theta}$  and a completely specified pdf  $f(\cdot; 1)$  evaluated at  $\frac{x}{\theta}$ .

How about the corresponding cdf (for a continuous r.v with scale parameter  $\theta$ )?

$$\begin{aligned} F(x; \theta) &= \int_{-\infty}^x f(t; \theta) \, dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^x f\left(\frac{t}{\theta}; 1\right) \frac{1}{\theta} \, dt \end{aligned}$$

since  $\theta$  is a scale parameter. Let  $s = \frac{t}{\theta}$  (so  $ds = \frac{dt}{\theta}$ ), thus

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{x}{\theta}} f(s; 1) \, ds \\ &= F\left(\frac{x}{\theta}; 1\right) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\theta$  is a scale parameter iff  $F(x; \theta) = F\left(\frac{x}{\theta}; 1\right)$ .

### 2.4 Pivotal quantities

**Remark 2.2.** If  $\eta$  is a location parameter, then  $\hat{\eta} - \eta$  is a pivotal quantity for constructing a confidence interval for  $\eta$  (where  $\hat{\eta}$  is the Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE) of  $\eta$ ).

If  $\theta$  is a scale parameter, then  $\frac{\hat{\theta}}{\theta}$  is a pivotal quantity for construct a confidence interval for  $\theta$ .

### 3 September 12, 2018

#### 3.1 Pdf of a function

We want to find the pdf of a function of one r.v.

**Method 1** Let  $Y = h(X)$ . If  $h(\cdot)$  is a **1-1 function** then  $h(\cdot)$  is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.

1. When  $h(\cdot)$  is strictly increasing ( $h^{-1}(\cdot)$  exists and is also strictly increasing): let  $G(y)$  be the cdf of  $Y$  and  $g(y)$  be the pdf of  $Y$ .

Given that  $X$  is a continuous r.v. with pdf  $f(x)$  and cdf  $F(x)$ , then

$$G(y) = P[Y \leq y] = P[h(X) \leq y] = P[X \leq h^{-1}(y)] = F(h^{-1}(y))$$

For the pdf  $g(y)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} g(y) &= \frac{dG(y)}{dy} = \frac{dF(h^{-1}(y))}{dy} \\ &= f(h^{-1}(y)) \cdot \frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} \\ &= f(h^{-1}(y)) \cdot \left| \frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} \right| \end{aligned}$$

since  $h^{-1}(\cdot)$  is strictly increasing, we have  $\frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} > 0$  (so we can add an absolute sign).

2. When  $h(\cdot)$  and thus  $h^{-1}(\cdot)$  is strictly decreasing we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(y) &= P[h(X) \leq y] = P[h^{-1}(h(X)) \geq h^{-1}(y)] \\ &= P[X \geq h^{-1}(y)] \\ &= 1 - P[X < h^{-1}(y)] \\ &= 1 - P[X \leq h^{-1}(y)] & P[X = h^{-1}(y)] = 0 \text{ since } X \text{ is continuous} \\ &= 1 - F(h^{-1}(y)) \end{aligned}$$

For the pdf  $g(y)$

$$\begin{aligned} g(y) &= \frac{dG(y)}{dy} = \frac{d(1 - F(h^{-1}(y)))}{dy} \\ &= -f(h^{-1}(y)) \cdot \frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} \\ &= f(h^{-1}(y)) \cdot \left| \frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} \right| \end{aligned}$$

since  $h^{-1}(\cdot)$  is strictly decreasing thus  $\frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} < 0$ , hence the absolute sign.

So if  $h(\cdot)$  is a **1-1 function**, we have for  $Y = h(X)$  the pdf

$$g(y) = f(h^{-1}(y)) \cdot \left| \frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} \right|$$



How do we find the support set for  $Y$ ? Let  $A$  be the support set of  $X$  and  $B$  be the support set for  $Y$ . Let  $h : A \rightarrow B^*$  where  $B^*$  is the image of  $A$  under  $h(\cdot)$ .

Thus we have  $B = \{y \mid y \in B^* \text{ and } g(y) > 0\}$ .

**Example 3.1.** Let  $X$  have a pdf  $f(x) = \frac{\theta}{x^{\theta+1}}$  where  $x \geq 1$  and  $\theta > 0$ .

Find the pdf of  $Y = \log X$  (natural log).

We have  $h(X) = \log X$  thus  $X = e^Y = h^{-1}(Y)$ . Since  $h(x)$  is 1-1 we can use our previous result:

$$f(h^{-1}(y)) = f(e^y) = \frac{\theta}{(e^y)^{\theta+1}}$$

Also

$$\frac{\partial h^{-1}(y)}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial e^y}{\partial y} = e^y$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} g(y) &= \frac{\theta}{e^{y\theta} e^y} \cdot |e^y| \\ &= \frac{\theta}{e^{y\theta} e^y} \cdot e^y \\ &= \frac{\theta}{e^{y\theta}} \end{aligned}$$

To find the support, note that  $h(x) = \log X$  has support  $A = \{x \mid x \geq 1\}$  thus  $h : A \rightarrow B^* = \{y \mid y \geq 0\}$ . Note that  $g(y) = \frac{\theta}{e^{y\theta}} > 0$  for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , thus the support for  $Y$  is  $B = B^* = \{y \mid y \geq 0\}$ .

**Method 2** For functions  $h(\cdot)$  that are not 1-1, we use the cdf technique.

**Example 3.2.** Let  $X \sim N(0, 1)$  and  $Y = X^2$ : find the pdf  $G(Y)$  of  $Y$ .

$$G(y) = P[Y \leq y] = P[X^2 \leq y]$$

Note that  $P[X^2 \leq 0] = P[X^2 = 0] = 0$  since  $x^2 \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , so if  $y = 0$  then  $G(y) = 0$ .

For  $y > 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(y) &= P[X^2 \leq y] \\ &= P[-\sqrt{y} \leq X \leq \sqrt{y}] \\ &= 2P[0 \leq X \leq \sqrt{y}] && N(0, 1) \text{ is symmetric} \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} f(x) dx \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx \end{aligned}$$

We require  $g(y) = \frac{dG(y)}{dy}$ .

From Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, if  $f(x)$  is cont. on  $[a, b]$  and  $g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \forall x \in [a, b]$  is cont. on  $[a, b]$  then

$$\frac{dg(x)}{dx} = f(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$$

Thus for all  $y > 0$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dG(y)}{dy} &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{d \int_0^{\sqrt{y}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx}{dy} \\ &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(\sqrt{y})^2}{2}} \cdot \frac{d\sqrt{y}}{dy} \\ &= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi y}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}}\end{aligned}$$

So  $g(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi y}} e^{-\frac{y}{2}}$  is the pdf of  $Y \sim X^2(1)$

Note that  $h : A \rightarrow B^*$  where  $A = \mathbb{R}$ , thus  $B^* = \{y \mid y > 0\}$ .

The support set of  $Y$  is  $B$  where  $B = \{y \mid y \in B^* \text{ and } g(y) > 0\}$ .

Notice that  $G(y) = 0$  if  $y = 0$  and  $G(y)$  is not differentiable at  $y = 0$ , thus  $g(0) = 0$  so  $B = \{y \mid y > 0\}$ .

## 4 September 14, 2018

### 4.1 Expectations

The expectation  $E(X)$  of a r.v.  $X$  exists if  $E(|X|) < \infty$ . It is defined as

**Discrete r.v.  $X$**

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in A} x \cdot f(x)$$

By the Law of the Unconscious Statistician (LOTUS)

$$E(h(X)) = \sum_{x \in A} h(x) \cdot f(x)$$

**Continuous r.v.  $X$**

$$\begin{aligned}E(X) &= \int_A x f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx\end{aligned}$$

LOTUS holds for continuous r.v.'s as well

$$E(h(X)) = \int_A h(x) \cdot f(x) dx$$

### 4.2 Markov's inequality

**Theorem 4.1** (Markov's inequality). Markov's inequality states that

$$P[|X| \geq c] \leq \frac{E[|X|^k]}{c^k}$$

for all  $c, k > 0$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $P[|X| \geq c] = P[X \leq -c] + P[X \geq c]$  or the tail probabilities beyond  $-c$  and  $c$ . Thus Markov's inequality gives an *upper bound* for the tail probabilities. In the continuous case we have for the RHS

$$P[|X| \geq c] = \int_{\{|x||x| \geq c\}} f(x) dx$$

For the LHS we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{E[|X|^k]}{c^k} &= E\left[\left|\frac{X}{c}\right|^k\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left|\frac{x}{c}\right|^k f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{|x| \geq c} \left|\frac{x}{c}\right|^k f(x) dx + \int_{|x| < c} \left|\frac{x}{c}\right|^k f(x) dx \\ &\geq \int_{|x| \geq c} \left|\frac{x}{c}\right|^k f(x) dx && \text{right term is integral over non-negative function} \\ &\geq \int_{|x| \geq c} f(x) dx && |x| \geq c \Rightarrow \left|\frac{x}{c}\right|^k \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

and the result follows.  $\square$

**Example 4.1.** Given  $X \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , what is a bound on  $P[|X| \geq 3\sigma]$ ? From Markov's inequality, let  $k = 2$  (where  $E[X^2] = \sigma^2$ )

$$\begin{aligned} P[|X| \geq 3\sigma] &\leq \frac{E[|X|^k]}{(3\sigma)^k} \\ &= \frac{E[X^2]}{9\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{9\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{9} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $P[|X| \geq 3\sigma] \leq \frac{1}{9}$  then  $P[|X| \leq 3\sigma] \geq 1 - \frac{1}{9} = \frac{8}{9}$ . Thus  $X$  stays  $3\sigma$  distance from 0 with a high probability of at least  $\frac{8}{9}$ .

### 4.3 Moment generating function (mgf)

**Definition 4.1** (Moment generating function). For a r.v.  $X$  the expectation

$$M_X(t) = E[e^{tX}]$$

is called the moment generating function (if the expectation exists). One must state the values of  $t$  such that  $M_X(t)$  exists ("domain of convergence").

**Example 4.2.** Let  $X \sim GAM(\alpha, \beta)$ ,  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ . Find  $M_X(t)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
M_X(t) &= E[e^{tX}] \\
&= \int_0^\infty e^{tx} \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} dx \\
&= \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x(\frac{1}{\beta}-t)} dx
\end{aligned}$$

Note that for any pdf  $f(x)$  we have  $\int_A f(x) dx = 1$ , thus  $\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} = 1$  thus  $\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} dx = \beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)$ . Thus we have from before

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x(\frac{1}{\beta}-t)} dx &= \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)} \left( \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\beta}-t} \right)^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha) \\
&= \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^\alpha}
\end{aligned}$$

when  $(\frac{1}{\beta}-t)^{-1} > 0$  i.e.  $t < \frac{1}{\beta}$ . What if  $t \geq \frac{1}{\beta}$ ? When  $t = \frac{1}{\beta}$  our integral becomes  $\int_{-\infty}^\infty x^{\alpha-1} dx$  which goes to infinity for  $\alpha > 0$ .

Similarly it goes to infinity when  $t > \frac{1}{\beta}$ .

## 5 September 17, 2018 and September 19, 2018

### 5.1 Derivatives of mgf

For the continuous case (similarly for discrete) we can take the derivative of the mgf  $M_X(t)$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dM_X(t)}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} \sum_{-\infty}^\infty e^{tX} f(x) dx \\
&= \sum_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{d}{dt} [e^{tX} f(x)] dx && \text{Leibniz rule} \\
&= \sum_{-\infty}^\infty x e^{tX} f(x) dx
\end{aligned}$$

We can clearly see when  $t = 0$  we have the expected value  $E[X]$ . Similarly

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{d^2 M_X(t)}{dt^2} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left[ \frac{d}{dt} M_X(t) \right] \\
&= \frac{d}{dt} \left[ \sum_{-\infty}^\infty x e^{tX} f(x) dx \right] \\
&= \sum_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{d}{dt} [x e^{tX} f(x)] dx \\
&= \sum_{-\infty}^\infty x^2 e^{tX} f(x) dx
\end{aligned}$$

which we recognize when  $t = 0$  as the second moment  $E[X^2]$ .

In summary

$$\frac{d^r}{dt^r} M_X(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r e^{tX} f(x) dx \quad r = 1, 2, \dots$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{d^r}{dt^r} M_X(t) \right) \Big|_{t=0} &= \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r e^{tX} f(x) dx \right) \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r f(x) dx \\ &= E[X^r] \end{aligned}$$

**Example 5.1.** For  $X \sim \text{GAM}(\alpha, \beta)$  we have  $M_X(t) = \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^\alpha}$ ,  $t < \frac{1}{\beta}$ . Find  $E[X]$  and  $\text{Var}(X)$ . Note that  $\text{Var}(X) = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$ . Also

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} M_X(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} [(1 - \beta t)^{-\alpha}] \\ &= (-\alpha)(-\beta)(1 - \beta t)^{-\alpha-1} \\ &= \alpha\beta(1 - \beta t)^{-\alpha-1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $E[X] = \alpha\beta(1 - \beta 0)^{-\alpha-1} = \alpha\beta$ .

Similarly  $E[X^2] = \alpha(\alpha + 1)\beta^2$  thus  $\text{Var}(X) = \alpha\beta^2$ .

## 5.2 Joint cdf and pdf

The joint cdf  $F[x, y]$  is defined as  $P[X \leq x \text{ and } Y \leq y]$  or simply  $P[X \leq x, Y \leq y]$ .

Recall that for the cdf  $F(x)$  for  $X$ , we have

1.  $F(a) \leq F(b)$  if  $a \leq b$
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0$
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$
4.  $\lim_{x \downarrow x_0} F(x) = F(x_0)$  (right continuous)

Similarly, the properties for the *joint cdf* of  $X$  and  $Y$  are

1. For every fixed  $y$ ,  $F(x, y)$  is non-decreasing for  $x$ . Similarly for fixed  $x$ ,  $F(x, y)$  is non-decreasing for  $y$ .
2. For every fixed  $y$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x, y) = 0$  (similarly with fixed  $x$  and  $y \rightarrow -\infty$ ).
3.  $\lim_{x, y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = 1$
- 4.

$$F_1(x) = P[X \leq x] = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)$$

$$F_2(y) = P[Y \leq y] = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)$$

Comparing discrete and continuous joint r.v.s

**Discrete r.v.** For the pmf we have

$$f(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$$

Our support set is  $A = \{(x, y) \mid f(x, y) > 0\}$ .

For the pmf, we have

1.  $f(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$
2.  $\sum \sum f(x, y) = 1$  where  $(x, y) \in A$

To compute the marginal pmf for  $x$  we take

$$f_1(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} f(x, y)$$

(similarly for the marginal pmf for  $y$ ).

**Continuous r.v.** For the pdf we have

$$f(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 F(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y}$$

Our support set is  $A = \{(x, y) \mid f(x, y) > 0\}$ .

For the pdf, we have

1.  $f(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$
2.  $\int \int f(x, y) dx dy = 1$  where  $(x, y) \in A$

To compute the marginal pdf for  $x$  we take

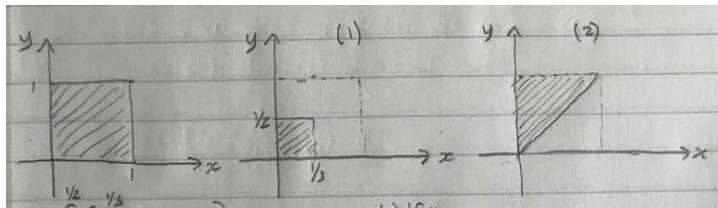
$$f_1(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dy$$

(similarly for the marginal pmf for  $y$ ).

**Example 5.2.** Suppose that  $X$  and  $Y$  are cont. r.v.s with joint pdf  $f(x, y) = x + y$  for  $0 < x < 1$  and  $0 < y < 1$ . Find

1.  $P[X \leq \frac{1}{3}, Y \leq \frac{1}{2}] = F(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2})$
2.  $P[X \leq Y]$
3.  $P[X + Y \leq \frac{1}{2}]$
4.  $P[XY \leq \frac{1}{2}]$
5.  $f_1(x)$
6.  $F(x, y)$
7.  $F_1(x)$

**Solution.** Note that while we may be finding  $P[X \leq \frac{1}{3}]$  which is generally everything to the right of  $x = \frac{1}{3}$ , we only want the region intersected by our support set. This is represented as the shaded region in the diagrams below.



**Figure 5.1:** Diagram of area we are trying to integrate over for (1) and (2).

1. We sum over the shaded square area

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \int_0^{\frac{1}{3}} f(x, y) dx \right) dy &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \int_0^{\frac{1}{3}} x + y dx \right) dy \\
 &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \frac{x^2}{2} + xy \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1/3} \right) dy \\
 &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{18} + \frac{y}{3} dy \\
 &= \frac{y}{18} + \frac{y^2}{6} \Big|_{y=0}^{y=1/2} \\
 &= \frac{5}{72}
 \end{aligned}$$

2. If the region is not rectangular we pick one variable first, say  $y$ , and range from its smallest value to the largest value in its region.

We then find the range of the other variable ( $x$  in this case) for every given  $y$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[X \leq Y] &= \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^y f(x, y) dx \right) dy \text{ OR} \\
 &= \int_0^1 \left( \int_x^1 f(x, y) dy \right) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[X \leq Y] &= \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^y f(x, y) dx \right) dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^y x + y dx \right) dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \frac{3y^2}{2} dy \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

3. The region is the triangle under the line  $y = \frac{1}{2} - x$  in quadrant 1.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[X + Y \leq \frac{1}{2}] &= P[Y \leq -x + \frac{1}{2}] \\
 &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}-y} x + y \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{x^2}{2} + xy \Big|_{x=0}^{\frac{1}{2}-y} \, dy \\
 &\vdots \\
 &= \frac{1}{24}
 \end{aligned}$$

4. We have  $1 - XY \geq \frac{1}{2}$  thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[XY \geq \frac{1}{2}] &= \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 \int_{\frac{1}{2y}}^1 f(x, y) \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \frac{1}{4}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $P[XY \leq \frac{1}{2}] = \frac{3}{4}$ .

Otherwise we would need to break it apart in two parts (when  $y \leq \frac{1}{2}$  and when  $y > \frac{1}{2}$ ):

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[XY \leq \frac{1}{2}] &= \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 \int_0^{\frac{1}{2y}} f(x, y) \, dx \, dy + \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^1 f(x, y) \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \frac{3}{4}
 \end{aligned}$$

5. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_1(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) \, dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 f(x, y) \, dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 x + y \, dy \\
 &= x + \frac{1}{2} \quad 0 < x < 1
 \end{aligned}
 \quad A = \{(x, y) \mid 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1\}$$

Similarly  $f_2(y) = \int_0^1 f(x, y) \, dx = y + \frac{1}{2}$  for  $0 < y < 1$ .

6. If  $x \leq 0$  or  $y \leq 0$ , then  $F(x, y) = 0$ .

Similarly if  $x \geq 1$  and  $y \geq 1$ , then  $F(x, y) = 1$ .



If  $0 < x \leq 1$  and  $0 < y \leq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} F(x, y) &= \int_0^y \int_0^x f(x, y) \, dx \, dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2}x^2y + \frac{1}{2}xy^2 \end{aligned}$$

If  $0 < x \leq 1$  and  $y > 1$

$$\begin{aligned} F(x, y) &= P[X \leq x, Y \leq y] \\ &= P[X \leq x, Y \leq 1] \\ &= F(x, 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + x) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly for  $x > 1$  and  $0 < y \leq 1$ ,  $F(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(y^2 + y)$ .

7. Note that  $F_1(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)$ . From above we have

$$F_1(x) = \begin{cases} \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} 0 = 0 & x \leq 0 \\ \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} 1 = 1 & x \geq 1 \\ \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + x) & 0 < x < 1 \end{cases}$$

## 6 September 21, 2018

### 6.1 Independence

$X$  and  $Y$  are independent if  $P[X \in A, Y \in B] = P[X \in A]P[Y \in B]$  for any  $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

**Corollary 6.1.** If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $h(X)$  and  $g(Y)$  are independent for any real-valued functions  $h(\cdot)$  and  $g(\cdot)$ .

*Proof.* To show  $h(X), g(Y)$  are independent, we need to prove

$$P[h(X) \in A^*, g(Y) \in B^*] = P[h(X) \in A^*]P[g(Y) \in B^*]$$

for any  $A^*, B^* \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

Note that for functions  $h : A \rightarrow A^*$  and  $g : B \rightarrow B^*$ ,  $x \in A \iff h(x) \in A^*$  and similarly  $y \in B \iff g(y) \in B^*$ .

Thus  $P[h(X) \in A^*, g(Y) \in B^*] = P[X \in A, Y \in B] = P[X \in A]P[Y \in B]$  as  $X, Y$  are independent.

Again since we have an  $\iff$  correspondence we have  $P[h(X) \in A^*]P[g(Y) \in B^*]$ . □

**Theorem 6.1.**  $X, Y$  are independent **if and only if** either

$$f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y) \quad \forall (x, y) \in A_1 \times A_2$$

where  $A_1, A_2$  are the support sets for  $X$  and  $Y$ , respectively, OR

$$F(x, y) = F_1(x)F_2(y) \quad \forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$$

**Example 6.1.** For  $f(x, y) = x + y$ ,  $0 < x < 1$ ,  $0 < y < 1$ , are  $X, Y$  independent? Why?

Note that from before we found that  $f_1(x) = \frac{1}{2} + x$  for  $0 < x < 1$ ;  $f_2(y) = \frac{1}{2} + y$  for  $0 < y < 1$ .

Does  $f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y)$  for all  $(x, y) \in A_1 \times A_2$ , where  $A_1 = \{x \mid 0 < x < 1\}$ ,  $A_2 = \{y \mid 0 < y < 1\}$ .  
 No: since  $(x + y) \neq (\frac{1}{2} + x)(\frac{1}{2} + y)$  for all  $(x, y) \in (0, 1) \times (0, 1)$ , thus  $X, Y$  are not independent.

## 6.2 Factorization independence theorem

**Theorem 6.2** (Factorization independence). Suppose  $X, Y$  have joint pdf  $f(x, y)$  and support set  $A = \{(x, y) \mid f(x, y) > 0\}$ .

Then  $X, Y$  are independent **if and only if**  $A = A_1 \times A_2$  and  $f(x, y) = h(x) \cdot g(y)$  for some non-negative functions  $h(\cdot)$  and  $g(\cdot)$  for all  $(x, y) \in A$ .

**Remark 6.1.** We need to check that

1.  $A = A_1 \times A_2$  i.e.  $A$  is rectangular (otherwise we would have undefined values for  $f(x, y)$  for some  $x \in A_1$  or  $y \in A_2$ ).
2. Check  $f(x, y) = h(x) \cdot g(y)$

**Example 6.2.** Suppose  $X, Y$  have joint pdf

$$f(x, y) = \frac{\theta^{x+y} e^{-2\theta}}{x!y!} \quad x, y = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Are  $X, Y$  independent? Why?

1. Does  $A = A_1 \times A_2$ ? Yes since we have  $A_1 = \{x \mid x = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  and  $A_2 = \{y \mid y = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ .
2. We see that

$$f(x, y) = \left(\frac{\theta^x}{x!}\right) \left(\frac{\theta^y e^{-2\theta}}{y!}\right)$$

and there are many other functions where each function has complementary constant scaling factors.

**Remark 6.2.** Note that  $h(\cdot)$  and  $g(\cdot)$  may not be true pdfs (i.e. they may not sum up to 1 over the support set: see the remark below).

Thus  $X, Y$  are independent by the Factorization theorem.

**Remark 6.3.** When the Factorization theorem holds,  $h(x)$  is *proportional* to  $f_1(x)$  and  $g(y)$  is proportional to  $f_2(y)$ .

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x) &= \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} f(x, y) \\ &= \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} h(x)g(y) \\ &= h(x) \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} g(y) \end{aligned}$$

From the example above, we had  $g(y) = \frac{\theta^y}{y!}$ , so

$$f_1(x) = h(x) \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \frac{\theta^y}{y!} = e^{\theta} h(x) = \frac{\theta^x e^{-\theta}}{x!}$$

Thus  $X \sim POI(\theta)$  and similarly  $Y \sim POI(\theta)$ . □

**Example 6.3.** Suppose  $X, Y$  have joint pdf

$$f(x, y) = \frac{2}{\pi} \quad 0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{1-y^2}, -1 \leq y \leq 1$$

Are  $X, Y$  independent? Why?

Note that  $A \neq A_1 \times A_2$  since we have  $A_1 = \{x \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$  and  $A_2 = \{y \mid -1 \leq y \leq 1\}$ .

Since  $A$  does not have the support set that is the rectangular bounds of  $A_1 \times A_2$  there is no way to factorize our joint pdf into the product of two marginal pdfs.

## 7 September 24, 2018

### 7.1 Conditional pmf/pdf

**Definition 7.1.** We define the **conditional pmf/pdf** of  $x$  on  $y$  to be

$$f_1(x \mid y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_2(y)} \quad (x, y) \in A \text{ and } f_2(y) \neq 0$$

where  $A$  is the support set for  $(X, Y)$  (i.e.  $f(x, y)$ )

Properties of  $f_1(x \mid y)$  for discrete and continuous r.v's:

**Discrete r.v.s** 1.  $f_1(x \mid y) \geq 0$  for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$

$$2. \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f_1(x \mid y) = 1$$

**Continuous r.v.s** 1.  $f_1(x \mid y) \geq 0$  for all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$

$$2. \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_1(x \mid y) dx = 1$$

Similarly  $f_2(y \mid x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_1(x)}$  and  $f_1(x) \neq 0$ .

### 7.2 Product rule

The product rule states that

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= f_1(x \mid y) f_2(y) \\ &= f_2(y \mid x) f_1(x) \end{aligned} \quad \text{OR}$$

Application of product rule: if  $f_1(x \mid y)$  and  $f_2(y)$  are given, we can find  $f_1(x)$  (Take  $\int_{y \in A} f_1(x \mid y) f_2(y) dy$  in the continuous case).

**Example 7.1.** Let  $Y \sim POI(\mu)$  and  $X \mid Y = y \sim BIN(y, p)$ . Find the marginal distribution of  $X$ .

We will take the route  $f_1(x \mid y)$  and  $f_2(y) \rightarrow f(x, y) \rightarrow f_1(x)$ .

Note that

$$f_2(y) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{y!} \quad y = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Also

$$f_1(x | y) = \binom{y}{x} p^x (1-p)^{y-x} \quad x = 0, 1, \dots, y$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= f_1(x | y) f_2(y) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{y!} \cdot \frac{y!}{(y-x)!x!} p^x (1-p)^{y-x} \\ &= \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{(y-x)!x!} p^x (1-p)^{y-x} \end{aligned}$$

where  $x = 0, 1, \dots, y$  and  $y = 0, 1, \dots$  i.e.  $0 \leq x \leq y$  (and  $y \geq 0$ ). We need to be aware of these bounds when marginalizing over  $x$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x) &= \sum_{y=x}^{\infty} f(x, y) \\ &= \frac{e^{-\mu} p^x (1-p)^{-x}}{x!} \sum_{y=x}^{\infty} \frac{\mu^y (1-p)^y}{(y-x)!} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\mu} \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)^x}{x!} \sum_{y=x}^{\infty} \frac{(\mu(1-p))^y}{(y-x)!} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\mu} \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)^x (\mu(1-p))^x}{x!} \sum_{y=x}^{\infty} \frac{(\mu(1-p))^{y-x}}{(y-x)!} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\mu} (\mu p)^x}{x!} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\mu(1-p))^n}{n!} \quad n = y - x \\ &= \frac{e^{-\mu} (\mu p)^x}{x!} e^{\mu(1-p)} \quad \text{Taylor series of } e^{\mu(1-p)} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\mu p} (\mu p)^x}{x!} \quad x = 0, 1, \dots \end{aligned}$$

that is  $X \sim POI(\mu p)$ .

**Example 7.2.** let  $Y \sim GAM(\alpha, 1)$  (not  $GAM(\alpha, \frac{1}{\theta})$  in the notes) and  $X | Y = y \sim WEI(y^{-\frac{1}{p}}, p)$  (Weibull distribution). Find the marginal pdf of  $X$ .

We will be following  $f_1(x | y)$  and  $f_2(y) \rightarrow f(x, y) \rightarrow f_1(x)$ .

Note that

$$f_1(y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y}$$

For a given  $X \sim WEI(\theta, \beta)$  we have

$$f(x) = \frac{\beta}{\theta \beta} x^{\beta-1} e^{-(\frac{x}{\theta})^\beta}$$

where  $x > 0$ . Thus we have

$$f_1(x | y) = \frac{p}{(y^{-\frac{1}{p}})^p} x^{p-1} e^{-\left(\frac{x}{y^{-\frac{1}{p}}}\right)^p}$$

Note we have  $A = \{(x, y) \mid x > 0, y > 0\}$  thus

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x) &= \int_0^\infty f(x, y) \, dy \\ &= \frac{px^{p-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty y^{\alpha-1} e^{-y} y e^{-x^p y} \, dy \\ &= \frac{px^{p-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty y^\alpha e^{-y(1+x^p)} \, dy \end{aligned}$$

Recall we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} \, dx &= 1 \\ \Rightarrow \Gamma(\alpha)\beta^\alpha &= \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}} \, dx \end{aligned}$$

So we have

$$\int_0^\infty y^\alpha e^{-y(1+x^p)} \, dy = \Gamma(\alpha+1)[(1+x^p)^{-1}]^{\alpha+1}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x) &= \frac{px^{p-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \Gamma(\alpha+1)[(1+x^p)^{-1}]^{\alpha+1} \\ &= p\alpha \cdot \frac{x^{p-1}}{(1+x^p)^{\alpha+1}} \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $X \sim \text{Burr}(p, \alpha)$  or the Burr distribution.

### 7.3 Independence and condition pmf/pdfs

Note that  $f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y) = f_1(x \mid y)f_2(y)$ , therefore  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent **if and only if**  $f_1(x \mid y) = f_1(x)$  (or similarly if  $f_2(y \mid x) = f_2(y)$ ).

**Example 7.3.** Let  $f(x, y) = \frac{2}{\pi}$  where  $0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{1-y^2}$ ,  $-1 \leq y \leq 1$ .

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x) &= \int_{-\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} f(x, y) \, dy = \frac{4\sqrt{1-x^2}}{\pi} & 0 < x < 1 \\ f_2(y) &= \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} f(x, y) \, dx = \frac{2\sqrt{1-y^2}}{\pi} & -1 < y < 1 \\ f_1(x \mid y) &= \frac{f(x, y)}{f_2(y)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} & 0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{1-y^2}, -1 < y < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $f_1(x, y) \neq f_1(x)$  then  $X$  and  $Y$  are not independent.

## 8 September 26, 2018

### 8.1 Joint expectation

We define the **joint expectation** for discrete and continuous r.v.s:

**Discrete** The joint expectation is

$$E[h(X, Y)] = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} h(x, y) \cdot f(x, y)$$

**Continuous** The joint expectation is

$$E[h(X, Y)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x, y) \cdot f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

**Theorem 8.1.** If  $X, Y$  are independent, then

$$E[g(X)h(Y)] = E[g(X)] \cdot E[h(Y)]$$

for any real-valued functions  $g(\cdot)$  and  $h(\cdot)$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $g(X)$  and  $h(Y)$  are functions of  $X$  and  $Y$ , thus by the joint expectation

$$\begin{aligned} E[g(X)h(Y)] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)h(y)f(x, y) \, dx \right] dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)h(y)f_1(x)f_2(y) \, dx \right] dy && \text{independence} \\ &= \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f_1(x) \, dx \right] \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y)f_2(y) \, dy \right] \\ &= E[g(X)] \cdot E[h(Y)] \end{aligned}$$

□

### 8.2 Conditional expectation

We define the **conditional expectation** for discrete and continuous r.v.s:

**Discrete** The conditional expectation is

$$E[Y \mid X = x] = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} y f_2(y \mid x)$$

by LOTUS

$$E[h(Y) \mid X = x] = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{R}} h(y) f_2(y \mid x)$$

**Continuous** The conditional expectation is

$$E[Y \mid X = x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_2(y \mid x) \, dy$$

by LOTUS

$$E[h(Y) | X = x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f_2(y | x) dy$$

**Remark 8.1.** 1.  $E[Y | X = x]$  is a function of  $x$  only since we've summed over our support for  $Y$ .

2. If  $X, Y$  are independent, then  $E[Y | X = x] = E[Y]$  since

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y | X = x] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_2(y | x) dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y f_2(y) dy && \text{independence} \\ &= E[Y] \end{aligned}$$

similarly  $E[h(Y) | X = x] = E[h(Y)]$ .

**Example 8.1.** Let  $f(x, y) = \frac{2}{\pi}$  where  $0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ ,  $-1 \leq y \leq 1$ .

Note that  $A = \{(x, y) | 0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{1 - y^2}, -1 \leq y \leq 1\}$  or  $A = \{(x, y) | 0 \leq x \leq 1, -\sqrt{1 - x^2} \leq y \leq \sqrt{1 - x^2}\}$ , where  $A_1 = \{x | 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$  and  $A_2 = \{y | -1 \leq y \leq 1\}$ .

Thus the conditional pdfs are

$$f_2(y | x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_1(x)} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

for  $(x, y) \in A$  and  $f_1(x) \neq 0$  thus  $0 \leq x < 1$  and  $-\sqrt{1 - x^2} \leq y \leq \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ .

Note that  $Y | X = x$  is actually a uniform distribution symmetric around  $y = 0$  ( $UNIF(-\sqrt{1 - x^2}, \sqrt{1 - x^2})$  for  $0 \leq x < 1$ ), thus we expect  $E[Y | X = x] = 0$ . We verify

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y | X = x] &= \int_{-\sqrt{1 - x^2}}^{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} y f_2(y | x) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \left( \frac{1}{2} y^2 \Big|_{-\sqrt{1 - x^2}}^{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \cdot 0 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

We can also find  $E[Y^2 | X = x]$

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y^2 | X = x] &= \int_{-\sqrt{1 - x^2}}^{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} y^2 f_2(y | x) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \left( \frac{1}{3} y^3 \Big|_{-\sqrt{1 - x^2}}^{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{(1 - x^2)}{3} \quad 0 \leq x < 1 \end{aligned}$$

For  $\text{Var}(Y \mid X = x)$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(Y \mid X = x) &= E[Y^2 \mid X = x] - E[Y \mid X = x]^2 \\ &= \frac{(1 - x^2)}{3} - 0^2 \\ &= \frac{(1 - x^2)}{3} \quad 0 \leq x < 1\end{aligned}$$

**Remark 8.2.**  $E[Y \mid X = x]$  and  $E[h(Y) \mid X = x]$  are functions of  $x$ , thus  $E[Y \mid X]$  is a function of  $X$  (function of a random variable is a random variable).

### 8.3 Expectation of a conditional expectation

**Theorem 8.2.** We claim  $E[E[h(Y) \mid X]] = E[h(Y)]$ .

Let  $g(X) = E[h(Y) \mid X]$ , thus we have a function of  $X$  which from LOTUS we know

$$\begin{aligned}E[g(X)] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_1(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E[h(Y) \mid X = x] f_1(x) dx & g(x) = E[h(Y) \mid X = x] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f_2(y \mid x) dy \right] f_1(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f_2(y \mid x) f_1(x) dy \right] dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f(x, y) dy \right] dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f(x, y) dx \right] dy & \text{Fubini's theorem} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, y) dx \right] dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(y) f_2(y) dy \\ &= E[h(Y)]\end{aligned}$$

### 8.4 Variance as sum of conditional expectations

**Theorem 8.3.** We claim  $\text{Var}(Y) = E[\text{Var}(Y \mid X)] + \text{Var}(E[Y \mid X])$ .

We have  $\text{Var}(Y) = E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2$  on the LHS.

On the RHS we have

$$\begin{aligned}E[\text{Var}(Y \mid X)] + \text{Var}(E[Y \mid X]) &= E[E[Y^2 \mid X] - E[Y \mid X]^2] + (E[E[Y \mid X]^2] - E[E[Y \mid X]]^2) \\ &= E[E[Y^2 \mid X]] - E[E[Y \mid X]^2] + E[E[Y \mid X]^2] - E[E[Y \mid X]]^2 \\ &= E[E[Y^2 \mid X]] - E[E[Y \mid X]]^2 \\ &= E[Y^2] - E[Y]^2\end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows from  $E[E[h(Y) \mid X]] = E[h(Y)]$ .



**Example 8.2.** Suppose  $Y | P = p \sim \text{BIN}(n, p)$  and  $P \sim \text{UNIF}(0, 1)$ . Find  $E[Y]$  and  $\text{Var}(Y)$ .  
Note that

$$E[Y] = E[E[Y | P]] = E[nP] = n \cdot E[P] = \frac{n}{2}$$

Similarly

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(Y) &= E[\text{Var}(Y | P)] + \text{Var}(E[Y | P]) = E[nP(1 - P)] + \text{Var}(nP) \\ &= nE[P] - nE[P^2] + n^2\text{Var}(P) \\ &= n\frac{1}{2} - n(\text{Var}(P) + E[P]^2) + n^2\text{Var}(P) \\ &= \frac{n}{2} - n\left(\frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{2^2}\right) + n^2\frac{1}{12} \\ &= \frac{5n}{6} + \frac{n^2}{12} \end{aligned}$$

## 9 September 28, 2018

### 9.1 Joint moment generating function (mgf)

Recall the moment generating function (mgf) of  $X$  is defined as  $M_X(t) = E[e^{tX}]$ . For a given MGF:

1. State the values of  $t$  such that  $M_X(t)$  exists, i.e.  $E[e^{tX}] < \infty$ .
2. Uniqueness: if  $X$  and  $Y$  have the same mgf, then  $X$  and  $Y$  are identically distributed (i.e.  $X, Y$  have the same pmf/pdf, cdf, etc.).

**Definition 9.1** (Joint mgf). The **joint mgf** of  $X$  and  $Y$  is defined as

$$M(t_1, t_2) = E[e^{(t_1, t_2) \cdot (X, Y)^T}] = E[e^{t_1 X + t_2 Y}] = E[e^{t_1 X} e^{t_2 Y}]$$

where one needs to state the values of  $t_1, t_2$  such that  $M(t_1, t_2)$  exists.

Note that given the joint mgf, it is straightforward to derive the marginal mgf

$$\begin{aligned} M_X(t_1) &= M(t_1, 0) = E[e^{t_1 X}] \\ M_Y(t_2) &= M(0, t_2) = E[e^{t_2 Y}] \end{aligned}$$

**Example 9.1.** Suppose  $f(x, y) = e^{-y}$ ,  $0 < x < y$ . Find  $M(t_1, t_2)$  and  $M_X(t)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} M(t_1, t_2) &= E[e^{t_1 X + t_2 Y}] = \int_0^\infty \left( \int_0^y e^{t_1 x} e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) dx \right) dy \\ &= \int_0^\infty e^{(t_2 - 1)y} \left( \int_0^y e^{t_1 x} dx \right) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{t_1} \int_0^\infty e^{(t_2 - 1)y} e^{t_1 y} - 1 dy \\ &= \frac{1}{t_1} \int_0^\infty e^{(t_2 - 1)y} \cdot (e^{t_1 y} - 1) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{t_1} \left( \int_0^\infty e^{(t_1 + t_2 - 1)y} dy - \int_0^\infty e^{(t_2 - 1)y} dy \right) \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\int_0^\infty e^{(t_1+t_2-1)y} dy = \frac{1}{t_1+t_2-1} e^{(t_1+t_2-1)y} \Big|_0^\infty$$

Taking the limit

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} e^{(t_1+t_2-1)y} < \infty = 0$$

iff  $t_1 + t_2 - 1 < 0$ . Similarly  $t_2 - 1 < 0$  must hold from our other integral.

So we have

$$\begin{aligned} M(t_1, t_2) &= \frac{1}{t_1} \left( \frac{1}{t_1+t_2-1} (0-1) + \frac{1}{t_2-1} (0-1) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{(t_2-1)(t_1+t_2-1)} \end{aligned}$$

For  $M_X(t)$  we have

$$M_X(t) = M(t, 0) = \frac{1}{1-t}$$

where  $t < 1$  (from our two constraints on  $t_1, t_2$ ).

For  $M_Y(t)$  we have

$$M_Y(t) = M(0, t) = \frac{1}{(1-t)^2}$$

where  $t_2 < 1$  (from our two constraints on  $t_1, t_2$ ).

Recall  $X \sim \text{GAM}(\alpha, \beta)$  has  $M_X(t) = \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^\alpha}$ ,  $t < \frac{1}{\beta}$ .

Due to the uniqueness of mgf,  $X \sim \text{GAM}(1, 1)$  and  $Y \sim \text{GAM}(2, 1)$ .

## 9.2 Independence and joint mgfs

$X$  and  $Y$  are independent if and only if

$$M(t_1, t_2) = M_X(t_1)M_Y(t_2) \quad \forall t_1 \in B_1, \forall t_2 \in B_2$$

where  $M_X(t_1)$  exists in  $B_1$  and  $M_Y(t_2)$  exists in  $B_2$  (i.e. the bounds on  $t_1, t_2$  such that  $M(t_1, t_2)$  is well-defined).

**Example 9.2.** From our previous example where

$$M(t_1, t_2) = \frac{1}{(t_2-1)(t_1+t_2-1)}$$

and  $M_X(t) = \frac{1}{1-t}$  and  $M_Y(t) = \frac{1}{(1-t)^2}$ , clearly  $M(t_1, t_2) \neq M_X(t_1)M_Y(t_2)$  so  $X, Y$  are not independent.

## 9.3 Summary of methods for verifying independence

The following are equivalent (TFAE) for showing independence of two r.v.s  $X, Y$ :

**joint pmf/pdf** Show  $f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y)$

**joint cdf** Show  $F(x, y) = F_1(x)F_2(y)$

**Factorization Theorem** Show  $f(x, y) = h(x)g(y)$  and support set is the rectangular Cartesian product of the individual support sets.

**conditional pdf** Show  $f_1(x | y) = f_1(x)$ .

**joint mgf** Show  $M(t_1, t_2) = M_X(t_1)M_Y(t_2)$  (for all  $(t_1, t_2) \in B$ ).

## 10 October 1, 2018

### 10.1 Expectations/moments from mgf

Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  have joint mgf  $M(t_1, t_2)$  for all  $t_1 \in (-h_1, h_1), t_2 \in (-h_2, h_2)$ , some  $h_1, h_2 > 0$ . Find  $E[XY^2]$  and  $E[X^k Y^j]$ ,  $k, j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

*Proof.* We can use the moment generating functions to find the expectations.

In the continuous case

$$M(t_1, t_2) = \int \left( \int e^{t_1 x} e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial M(t_1, t_2)}{\partial t_1} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} \int \left( \int e^{t_1 x} e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy \\ &= \int \left( \int \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} e^{t_1 x} \right) e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy \\ &= \int \left( \int x e^{t_1 x} e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy \end{aligned}$$

We then take

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} M(t_1, t_2) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t_1} M(t_1, t_2) \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} \int \left( \int x e^{t_1 x} e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy \\ &= \int \left( \int x e^{t_1 x} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} e^{t_2 y} \right) f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy \\ &= \int \left( \int x e^{t_1 x} y e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy \end{aligned}$$

Once more

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^3}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2^2} M(t_1, t_2) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_2} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} M(t_1, t_2) \right) \\ &= \int \left( \int x e^{t_1 x} y^2 e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy \end{aligned}$$

Thus if we continue in this fashion

$$\frac{\partial^{k+j}}{\partial t_1^k \partial t_2^j} M(t_1, t_2) = \int \left( \int x^k e^{t_1 x} y^j e^{t_2 y} f(x, y) \, dx \right) dy$$

To find  $E[XY^2]$ , we simply let  $t_1 = t_2 = 0$  in  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2} M(t_1, t_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{\partial^3}{\partial t_1 \partial t_2^2} M(t_1, t_2) \right) \big|_{t_1=t_2=0} &= \int \left( \int x e^{0x} y^2 e^{0y} f(x, y) dx \right) dy \\ &= \int \left( \int x y^2 f(x, y) dx \right) dy \\ &= E[XY^2] \end{aligned}$$

Similarly

$$\left( \frac{\partial^{k+j}}{\partial t_1^k \partial t_2^j} M(t_1, t_2) \right) \big|_{t_1=t_2=0} = E[X^k Y^j]$$

This also holds for  $E[X^k]$  where

$$\left( \frac{\partial^k}{\partial t_1^k} M(t_1, t_2) \right) \big|_{t_1=t_2=0} = E[X^k]$$

i.e.  $j = 0$ . □

## 10.2 Multinomial distribution

**Definition 10.1** (Multinomial distribution). Let  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k) \sim MULT(n, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k)$  where

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = \frac{n!}{x_1! x_2! \dots x_k! (n - \sum_{i=1}^k x_i)!} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \dots p_k^{x_k} (1 - \sum_{i=1}^k p_i)^{n - \sum_{i=1}^k x_i}$$

where  $0 \leq x_i \leq n$ ,  $0 \leq \sum_{i=1}^k x_i \leq n$ ,  $0 \leq p_i \leq 1$ ,  $0 \leq \sum_{i=1}^k p_i \leq 1$ .

**Remark 10.1.** The  $k$  random variables represents a random sample of size  $n$  where each unit in this random sample could be one of  $k + 1$  types with corresponding probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k, 1 - \sum_{i=1}^k p_i$  and  $x_i$  is the number elements of the  $i$ th type.

**Remark 10.2.** Binomial  $BIN(n, p)$  is a special case of  $MULT$  i.e. there are 2 types with probabilities  $p$  and  $1 - p$  i.e.  $MULT(n, p)$  with  $k = 1$ .

**Exercise 10.1** (Hardy-Weinberg law of genetics). We have a random sample of size  $n$  from the population. Each unit/person in this sample could be one of 3 genotypes: “AA” with probability  $p_1 = \theta^2$ , “Aa” with  $p_2 = 2\theta(1 - \theta)$ , and “aa” with probability  $p_3 = (1 - \theta)^2$ ,  $0 < \theta < 1$  i.e.  $0 < p_i < 1$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^3 p_i = 1$ .

Let  $X_1, X_2$  be the number of type “AA” and “Aa”, respectively.

Thus

$$P[X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2] = \frac{n!}{x_1! x_2! (n - x_1 - x_2)!} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} (1 - p_1 - p_2)^{n - x_1 - x_2}$$

where  $0 \leq x_1, x_2 \leq n$  and  $0 \leq x_1 + x_2 \leq n$  i.e.  $(X_1, X_2) \sim MULT(n, p_1, p_2)$ .

### 10.3 Mgf of multinomial distribution

Note that the MGF for  $MULT(n, p_1, p_2)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 M(t_1, t_2) &= E[e^{t_1 X_1 + t_2 X_2}] \\
 &= \sum_{x_1=0}^n \sum_{x_2=0}^{n-x_1} e^{t_1 x_1} e^{t_2 x_2} f(x_1, x_2) \\
 &= \sum_{x_1=0}^n \sum_{x_2=0}^{n-x_1} e^{t_1 x_1} e^{t_2 x_2} \frac{n!}{x_1! x_2! (n-x_1-x_2)!} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} (1-p_1-p_2)^{n-x_1-x_2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Recall the Multinomial series identity where

$$(a+b+c)^n = \sum_{x_1=0}^n \sum_{x_2=0}^{n-x_1} \frac{n!}{x_1! x_2! (n-x_1-x_2)!} a^{x_1} b^{x_2} c^{n-x_1-x_2}$$

for any  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Thus we have

$$M(t_1, t_2) = (e^{t_1} p_1 + e^{t_2} p_2 + 1 - p_1 - p_2)^n$$

For  $e^{t_1} p_1, e^{t_2} p_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , we require  $t_1, t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

In general for  $MULT(n, p_1, \dots, p_k)$

$$M(t_1, \dots, t_k) = (e^{t_1} p_1 + \dots + e^{t_k} p_k + 1 - \sum_{i=1}^k p_i)^n$$

### 10.4 Subset of multinomial is multinomial

**Claim.** Any “subset” of a multinomial still has a multinomial distribution.

For example suppose we had  $(X_1, \dots, X_6) \sim MULT(n, p_1, \dots, p_6)$ . We have  $(X_1, X_3, X_5) \sim MULT(n, p_1, p_3, p_5)$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $M(t_1, \dots, t_6) = (e^{t_1} p_1 + \dots + e^{t_6} p_6 + 1 - \sum_{i=1}^6 p_i)^n$ , thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 M_{X_1, X_3, X_5}(t_1, t_3, t_5) &= E[e^{t_1 X_1 + t_3 X_3 + t_5 X_5}] \\
 &= E[e^{t_1 X_1 + 0 X_2 + t_3 X_3 + 0 X_4 + t_5 X_5 + 0 X_6}] \\
 &= M(t_1, t_2=0, t_3, t_4=0, t_5, t_6=0) \\
 &= (e^{t_1} p_1 + e^0 p_2 + e^{t_3} p_3 + e^0 p_4 + e^{t_5} p_5 + e^0 p_6 + 1 - \sum_{i=1}^6 p_i)^n \\
 &= (e^{t_1} p_1 + p_2 + e^{t_3} p_3 + p_4 + e^{t_5} p_5 + p_6 + 1 - \sum_{i=1}^6 p_i)^n \\
 &= (e^{t_1} p_1 + e^{t_3} p_3 + e^{t_5} p_5 + 1 - p_1 - p_3 - p_5)^n
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the mgf of  $MULT(n, p_1, p_3, p_5)$ . By the uniqueness of mgfs our claim holds.  $\square$

## 11 October 3, 2018

### 11.1 More multinomial problems

**Example 11.1.** Let  $T = x_i + x_j$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq j \leq k$ .

**Claim.** We claim  $T \sim \text{BIN}(n, p_i + p_j)$ .

*Proof.* For  $(x_i, x_j) \sim \text{MULT}(n, p_i, p_j)$  we have the mgf  $M(t_i, t_j) = (e^{t_i}p_i + e^{t_j}p_j + 1 - p_i - p_j)^n$  for all  $t_i, t_j \in \mathbb{R}$ . The mgf of  $T$  is  $M_T(t) = E[e^{tT}] = E[e^{t(X_i+X_j)}] = E[e^{tX_i+tX_j}]$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} M_T(t) &= M(t_i = t, t_j = t) \\ &= (e^t p_i + e^t p_j + 1 - p_i - p_j)^n \\ &= (e^t (p_i + p_j) + 1 - (p_i + p_j))^n \end{aligned}$$

Recall the mgf of  $X \sim \text{BIN}(n, p)$  is  $M_X(t) = (e^t p + 1 - p)^n$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , thus  $T = x_i + x_j \sim \text{BIN}(n, p_i + p_j)$  by uniqueness of mgf.  $\square$

**Claim.** We claim  $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = -np_i p_j$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = E(X_i X_j) - E(X_i)E(X_j)$ . Also

$$E(X_i X_j) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_i \partial t_j} M(t_i, t_j) \right) \Big|_{t_i=t_j=0}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial t_i} M(t_i, t_j) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_i} (e^{t_i} p_i + e^{t_j} p_j + 1 - p_i - p_j)^n \\ &= n(e^{t_i} p_i + e^{t_j} p_j + 1 - p_i - p_j)^{n-1} \cdot e^{t_i} p_i \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_i \partial t_j} M(t_i, t_j) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t_j} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t_i} M(t_i, t_j) \right) \\ &= n(n-1)(e^{t_i} p_i + e^{t_j} p_j + 1 - p_i - p_j)^{n-2} \cdot e^{t_i} p_i \cdot e^{t_j} p_j \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} E(X_i X_j) &= n(n-1)(e^0 p_i + e^0 p_j + 1 - p_i - p_j)^{n-2} e^0 p_i e^0 p_j \\ &= n(n-1)p_i p_j \end{aligned}$$

So we have

$$\text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = n(n-1)p_i p_j - (np_i)(np_j) = -np_i p_j$$

as  $X_i \sim \text{BIN}(n, p_i)$  and  $E(X_i) = np_i$ .  $\square$

**Claim.** We claim  $(X_i \mid X_j = x_j) \sim \text{BIN}(n - x_j, \frac{p_i}{1-p_j})$ .

Note that  $(X_i, X_j) \sim \text{MULT}(n, p_i, p_j)$  and  $X_j \sim \text{BIN}(n, p_j)$ , thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x_i | x_j) &= \frac{f(x_i, x_j)}{f(x_j)} \\
 &= \frac{\frac{n!}{x_i!x_j!(n-x_i-x_j)!} p_i^{x_i} p_j^{x_j} (1-p_i-p_j)^{n-x_i-x_j}}{\frac{n!}{(n-x_j)!x_j!} p_j^{x_j} (1-p_j)^{n-x_j}} \\
 &= \frac{(n-x_j)!}{(n-x_j-x_i)!x_i!} \frac{p_i^{x_i} (1-p_i-p_j)^{n-x_i-x_j}}{(1-p_j)^{n-x_j}} \\
 &= \frac{(n-x_j)!}{(n-x_j-x_i)!x_i!} \frac{p_i^{x_i}}{(1-p_j)^{x_i}} \frac{(1-p_i-p_j)^{n-x_i-x_j}}{(1-p_j)^{n-x_j-x_i}} \\
 &= \frac{(n-x_j)!}{(n-x_j-x_i)!x_i!} \left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_j}\right)^{x_i} \left(\frac{1-p_i-p_j}{1-p_j}\right)^{n-x_i-x_j} \\
 &= \frac{(n-x_j)!}{(n-x_j-x_i)!x_i!} \left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_j}\right)^{x_i} \left(1 - \frac{p_i}{1-p_j}\right)^{n-x_i-x_j}
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $f_i(x_i | x_j)$  is the same as the pmf of  $\text{BIN}(n-x_j, \frac{p_i}{1-p_j})$  so the claim holds.

**Claim.** We claim  $X_i | X_i + X_j = t \sim \text{BIN}(t, \frac{p_i}{p_i+p_j})$ .

*Proof.* Note that

$$P(X_i = x_i, X_i + X_j = t) = P(X_i = x_i, X_j = t - x_i)$$

which is just our joint pmf.

Also from before we have  $P(X_i + X_j = t)$  is the pmf of  $T = X_i + X_j$  and  $T \sim \text{BIN}(n, p_i + p_j)$ .

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_i(x_i | t) &= \frac{P(X_i = x_i, X_j = t - x_i)}{P(T = t)} \\
 &= \frac{\frac{n!}{x_i!(t-x_i)!(n-t)!} p_i^{x_i} p_j^{t-x_i} (1-p_i-p_j)^{n-t}}{\frac{n!}{t!(n-t)!} (p_i + p_j)^t (1-p_i-p_j)^{n-t}} \\
 &= \frac{t!}{x_i!(t-x_i)!} \frac{p_i^{x_i} p_j^{t-x_i}}{(p_i + p_j)^t} \\
 &= \frac{t!}{x_i!(t-x_i)!} \left(\frac{p_i}{p_i + p_j}\right)^{x_i} \left(1 - \frac{p_i}{p_i + p_j}\right)^{t-x_i}
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the pmf of  $\text{BIN}(t, \frac{p_i}{p_i+p_j})$ . □

## 11.2 Bivariate normal distribution

Recall for a univariate normal distribution  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} (\sigma^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)(\sigma^2)^{-1}(x-\mu)}
 \end{aligned}$$

The bivariate normal distribution for  $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$  is denoted as  $X \sim BVN(\vec{\mu}, \Sigma)$  where  $\vec{\mu} = (E(X_1), E(X_2))^T$  and

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) \\ \text{Cov}(X_2, X_1) & \text{Var}(X_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that  $\text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) = \text{Cov}(X_2, X_1)$  i.e.  $\Sigma$  is symmetric and positive definite.

We define the pdf for the bivariate normal distribution as

$$f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{x}-\vec{\mu})}$$

for all  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

## 12 October 5, 2018

### 12.1 Remarks of bivariate normal

**Remark 12.1.** 1.

$$\vec{\mu} = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} E[X_1] \\ E[X_2] \end{bmatrix}$$

2.

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Var}(X_1) & \text{Cov}(X_1, X_2) \\ \text{Cov}(X_2, X_1) & \text{Var}(X_2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & P\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ P\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$P = \frac{\text{Cov}(X_1, X_2)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_1)}\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_2)}}$$

and  $-1 < P < 1$  (note if  $P = \pm 1$  then  $\Sigma$  is not full rank thus  $\Sigma^{-1}$  does not exist).

3.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 = 1$$

(useful for finding  $M(t_1, t_2)$ ).

4.  $\Sigma$  is positive definite (symmetric by definition) i.e. for all

$$\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

we have  $\vec{y}^T \Sigma \vec{y} > 0$ .

That is: both eigenvalues of  $\Sigma$  are positive.

**Remark 12.2.** If  $X \sim BVN(\mu + \Sigma t, \Sigma)$  where  $t = [t_1, t_2]^T$  then the joint pdf

$$g(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu-\Sigma t)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu-\Sigma t)}$$

for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$  then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 = 1$$



## 12.2 Mgf of bivariate normal

**Claim.** For  $BVN(\mu, \Sigma)$  we claim its mgf is

$$M(t_1, t_2) = e^{t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t}$$

where  $t = [t_1, t_2]^T \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .

*Proof.* Note that the following properties hold in general

1.  $a^T b = b^T a$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^2$ .
2.  $\Sigma = \Sigma^T$  since  $\Sigma$  is symmetric.
3.  $\Sigma \Sigma^{-1} = \Sigma^{-1} \Sigma = I_{2 \times 2}$
4.  $Ia = a$  and  $a^T I = a^T$ .
5.  $(\Sigma t)^T = t^T \Sigma^T$

We have

$$M(t_1, t_2) = E[e^{t^T x}]$$

where  $t = [t_1, t_2]^T, x = [x_1, x_2]^T$ .

$$\begin{aligned} M(t_1, t_2) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{t^T x} \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)} dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}((x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu) - 2t^T x)} dx_1 dx_2 \end{aligned}$$

If we can show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu) - 2t^T x} dx_1 dx_2 = e^{t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu^*)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu^*)} dx_1 dx_2$$

for some  $\mu^*$  then we are done since the integral on the right is just the total probability of a bivariate r.v.  $N(\mu^*, \Sigma)$  which is 1.

$$\begin{aligned} &e^{t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu^*)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu^*)} dx_1 dx_2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}((x-\mu^*)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu^*) - 2(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t))} dx_1 dx_2 \end{aligned}$$

We notice that every term is the same except for the exponential terms: thus we need to show the exponential terms are equivalent, specifically the terms in the exponent:

$$(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu) - 2t^T x = (x - \mu^*)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu^*) - 2(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t)$$

We claim  $\mu^* = \mu + \Sigma t$ . We have on the RHS

$$\begin{aligned}
& (x - \mu - \Sigma t)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu - \Sigma t) - 2(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t) \\
&= ((x - \mu)^T - (\Sigma t)^T) \Sigma^{-1} ((x - \mu) - (\Sigma t)) - 2(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t) \\
&= (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) + (\Sigma t)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\Sigma t) - (\Sigma t)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) - (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\Sigma t) - 2(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t) \\
&= (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) + t^T \Sigma t - t^T (x - \mu) - (x - \mu)^T t - 2(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t) \\
&= (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) - 2t^T (x - \mu) - 2(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t) \\
&= (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) - 2t^T x
\end{aligned}$$

as desired. □

### 12.3 Joint cdf from pdf

**Example 12.1.** Let  $f(x, y) = 2e^{-x}e^{-y}$  for  $0 < x < y$ .

We want to find  $F(x, y) = P(X \leq x, Y \leq y)$ .

If  $x \leq 0$  or  $y \leq 0$  then  $F(x, y) = 0$  (does not intersect our support set).

When  $0 < x \leq y$  (note  $P(x = y) = 0$  so it does not matter/influence or cdf), we have

$$\int_0^x \int_x^y f(x, y) dy dx = (1 - e^{-2x}) - 2e^{-y}(1 - e^{-x})$$

For  $0 < y < x$ , we note that since  $x < y$  in our support set we are really calculating  $F(y, y)$  so from above

$$F(y, y) = (1 - e^{-2y}) - 2e^{-y}(1 - e^{-y}) = 1 + e^{-2y} - 2e^{-y}$$

If we want to find  $F_1(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F(x, y)$ .

Note for the region  $x \leq 0$ , we have  $F_1(x) = 0$ .

For the region  $0 < x < \infty$ , we take our  $F(x, y)$  and take the limit thus we get  $F_1(x) = 1 - e^{-2x}$ .

## 13 October 12, 2018

### 13.1 Marginal pdf of bivariate normal

**Exercise 13.1.**  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  then  $M_X(t) = e^{t\mu + \frac{1}{2}t^2\sigma^2}$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Claim.** If  $X \sim BVN(\mu, \Sigma)$  then  $X_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$  and  $X_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ .

*Proof.* Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 M_X(t_1, t_2) &= \exp(t^T \mu + \frac{1}{2} t^T \Sigma t) \\
 &= \exp((t_1, t_2)(\mu_1, \mu_2)^T + \frac{1}{2}(t_1, t_2) \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & P\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ P\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{bmatrix} (t_1, t_2)^T) \\
 &= \exp(t_1\mu_1 + t_2\mu_2 + \frac{1}{2}t_1^2\sigma_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}t_2^2\sigma_2^2 + t_1t_2P\sigma_1\sigma_2) \\
 &= \exp(t_1\mu_1 + \frac{1}{2}t_1^2\sigma_1^2) \exp(t_2\mu_2 + \frac{1}{2}t_2^2\sigma_2^2) \exp(t_1t_2P\sigma_1\sigma_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 M_{X_1}(t_1) &= M_X(t_1, 0) = \exp(t_1\mu_1 + \frac{1}{2}t_1^2\sigma_1^2) \exp(0) \exp(0) \\
 &= \exp(t_1\mu_1 + \frac{1}{2}t_1^2\sigma_1^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the mgf of  $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ . Similarly  $M_{X_2}(t_2)$  has the same mgf as  $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ . □

**Claim.**  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent iff  $P = 0$ .

*Proof.* Recall  $X_1, X_2$  are independent iff  $M_X(t_1, t_2) = M_{X_1}(t_1)M_{X_2}(t_2)$  for all  $t_1, t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Thus the LHS is  $M(t_1, t_2) = M_{X_1}(t_1)M_{X_2}(t_2) \exp(t_1t_2P\sigma_1\sigma_2)$  and the RHS is  $M_{X_1}(t_1)M_{X_2}(t_2)$  therefore LHS = RHS iff  $\exp(t_1t_2P\sigma_1\sigma_2) = 1$  i.e.  $t_1t_2P\sigma_1\sigma_2 = 0$  for all  $t_1, t_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , thus  $P = 0$  since  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 > 0$ . □

**Claim.** If  $Y = c^T X \sim N(c^T \mu, c^T \Sigma c)$  where  $c = (c_1, c_2)^T \neq (0, 0)^T$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $M_Y(t) = E[\exp(tY)] = E[\exp(tc^T X)] = E[\exp((tc)^T X)]$ . Let  $t^* = tc$  then we have  $M_Y(t) = E[\exp((t^*)^T X)] = M(t_1^*, t_2^*) = \exp(t^* \mu + \frac{1}{2}(t^*)^T \Sigma t^*)$ .

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 M_Y(t) &= \exp((tc)^T \mu + \frac{1}{2}(tc)^T \Sigma (tc)) \\
 &= \exp(t(c^T \mu) + \frac{1}{2}t^2(c^T \Sigma c))
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the mgf of  $N(c^T \mu, c^T \Sigma c)$  due to the uniqueness theorem of mgf. □

**Claim.** Let  $Y = AX + b$  where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$  and  $b = (b_1, b_2)^T$ .

Then  $Y \sim BVN(A\mu + b, A\Sigma A^T)$ .

*Proof.* Exercise (similar to proof above). □

## 14 October 15, 2018

### 14.1 Bivariate transformation

Suppose we wanted to transform a bivariate r.v.  $(X, Y) \rightarrow (U, V)$  or to  $U$  only. We can then find the distribution of  $(U, V)$  (or  $U$  only) based on  $(X, Y)$ .

There are two methods that are analogous to the ones for univariate random variables

**Method 1** 1-to-1 transformation  $(X, Y) \iff (U, V)$

**Method 2** cdf technique

Recall in the univariate case with the 1-to-1 technique:

**Example 14.1.** Let  $f(x) = \frac{\beta\alpha^\beta}{x^{\beta+1}}$  for  $x > \alpha$  ( $\alpha, \beta > 0$ ).

Find the pdf of  $Y = \beta \log(\frac{X}{\alpha})$ .

Note that  $Y = h(X) = \beta \log(\frac{X}{\alpha})$  is a 1-to-1 function as  $\alpha, \beta > 0$  and  $\log(\cdot)$  is monotonically increasing.

Thus  $X = \alpha e^{\frac{Y}{\beta}} = h^{-1}(Y)$ . Note that

$$\frac{d}{dy}h^{-1}(y) = \frac{\alpha}{\beta}e^{\frac{y}{\beta}}$$

Thus we have

$$g(y) = f(h^{-1}(y)) \left| \frac{d}{dy}h^{-1}(y) \right| = \frac{\beta\alpha^\beta}{(\alpha e^{\frac{y}{\beta}})^{\beta+1}} \frac{\alpha}{\beta} e^{\frac{y}{\beta}} = e^{-y}$$

Note that the support set of  $Y$  is  $y > 0$ .

Similarly for this univariate case

**Example 14.2.** Let  $X \sim EXP(1)$ ,  $X > 0$ . Let  $Z = X^2$ . Find the pdf of  $Z$ .

**Method 1**  $Z = h(X) = X^2$  is 1-to-1 since  $X$  is positive. Therefore  $X = +\sqrt{Z} = h^{-1}(Z)$  thus  $\frac{d}{dz} = \frac{1}{2}z^{-0.5}$  and so

$$g(z) = e^{-z^{0.5}} \frac{1}{2}z^{-0.5} \quad z > 0$$

**Method 2** Note that  $G(z) = P(Z \leq z)$ , which is 0 if  $z \leq 0$ .

For  $z > 0$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(Z \leq z) &= P(X^2 \leq z) = P(X \leq \sqrt{z}) && X \text{ is positive} \\ &= F(\sqrt{z}) \\ &= 1 - e^{-\sqrt{z}} \end{aligned}$$

where  $F(x) = 1 - e^{-x}$  if  $x > 0$  and 0 if  $x \leq 0$ .

Thus

$$g(z) = \frac{d}{dz}G(z) = f(\sqrt{z}) \frac{1}{2}z^{-0.5} = e^{-\sqrt{z}} \frac{1}{2}z^{-0.5}$$

where  $z > 0$ .

What about a bivariate case?

**Example 14.3.** Recall that with  $f(x, y) = ke^{-x}e^{-y}$  for  $0 < x < y$  we wanted to find  $P(X + Y \geq 1)$ , i.e. if  $U = X + Y$  we are finding  $P(U \geq 1)$ . However  $(X, Y) \rightarrow U$  is not a 1-to-1 transformation: one pair  $(X, Y)$  corresponds to one  $U$  but one  $U$  does not correspond to a unique  $(X, Y)$ , thus we cannot transform our bivariate to a univariate distribution.

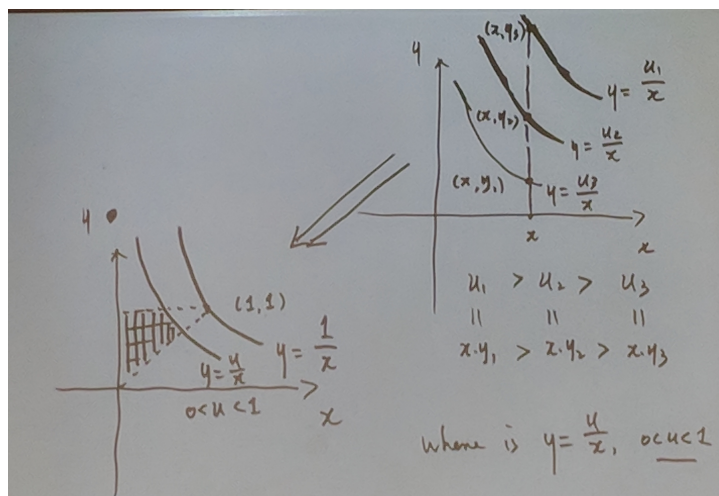
**Example 14.4.** Let  $f(x, y) = 3y$  for  $0 < x < y < 1$ . Find the pdf of  $U = XY$  i.e. we want to map  $(X, Y) \rightarrow U$ .

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} G(u) &= P(U \leq u) \\ &= P(XY \leq u) \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u \leq 0 \\ (*) & \text{if } 0 < u < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } u \geq 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where the above follows since the support set is  $0 < x < y < 1 \Rightarrow 0 < x, y < 1$ .

We have (\*) as  $P(xY \leq u) = P(Y \leq \frac{u}{x})$  for  $0 < u < 1$ .



**Figure 14.1:** Graphs of  $y = \frac{u_i}{x}$  for various  $0 < u_i < 1$  (top right); graph of  $y = \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $y = \frac{u}{x}$  for  $0 < u < 1$  and the support triangle region (bottom left). We want to integrate over the shaded area to find  $P(Y \leq \frac{u}{x})$ .

For a given fixed  $x$ , if we look at the  $y = \frac{u}{x}$  for  $0 < u < 1$ , we see that for  $P(Y \leq \frac{u}{x})$  we are essentially integrating the area underneath  $y = \frac{u}{x}$  that intersects with our support which is the region in the unit square of the first quadrant above  $y = x$  since  $y > x$ .



So we'd like to find

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(Y \leq \frac{u}{x}) &= 1 - P(Y > \frac{u}{x}) \\
 &= 1 - \int_{\frac{u}{y}}^1 \left( \int_{\frac{u}{y}}^y f(x, y) dx \right) dy \\
 &= 1 - \int_{\frac{u}{y}}^1 \left( \int_{\frac{u}{y}}^y 3y dx \right) dy \\
 &= 1 - \int_{\frac{u}{y}}^1 3y(y - \frac{u}{y}) dy \\
 &= 1 - (y^3 \Big|_{\frac{u}{y}}^1 - 3u(1 - \sqrt{u})) \\
 &= 3u - 2u\sqrt{u} \quad 0 < u < 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have

$$G(u) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u \leq 0 \\ 3u - 2u\sqrt{u} & \text{if } 0 < u < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } u \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

so  $g(u) = \frac{d}{du} G(u) = 3 - 3\sqrt{u}$  where  $G(u)$  is differentiable for  $0 < u < 1$ .

$G(u) = 0$  if  $u \leq 0$  implies  $g(u) = 0$  if  $u < 0$ , similarly if  $u \geq 1$  we have  $g(u) > 1$ .

What happens if  $u = 0$  or  $u = 1$ ? Note that at  $u = 0$   $G(u)$  is NOT differentiable. Question: Is  $G(u)$  differentiable at  $u = 1$ ?

Regardless, our answer is  $g(u) = 3 - 3\sqrt{u}$  for  $0 < u < 1$ .

**Exercise 14.1.** Find the pdf of  $V = \frac{Y}{X}$ .

**Example 14.5.** Let  $X_i$  be iid with common pdf and cdf  $f(x)$  and  $F(x)$ , respectively,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

Find the pdf of  $S = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  and  $T = \min(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  separately.

Notice that  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow S$  (or  $T$ ) is NOT 1-1.

So

$$\begin{aligned}
 G(s) &= P(S \leq s) = P(\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq s) \\
 &= P(X_1 \leq s, X_2 \leq s, \dots, X_n \leq s) \\
 &= P(X_1 \leq s) \cdot P(X_2 \leq s) \cdot \dots \cdot P(X_n \leq s) && \text{independence} \\
 &= F(s)^n
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$g(s) = \frac{d}{ds} G(s) = nF(s)^{n-1}f(s)$$

where  $F(s)$  and  $f(s)$  are the cdf and pdf of  $X$  evaluated at  $s$ , respectively.

**Exercise 14.2.** Find the pdf of  $T$ .

For 1-to-1 bivariate transformation where we have  $(X, Y) \iff (U, V)$ , we can find the joint pdf of  $(U, V)$  based on the joint pdf of  $(X, Y)$ .

Recall for  $Y = h(X)$  where  $h$  is 1-to-1, we have  $X = h^{-1}(Y)$  and

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

For  $U = h_1(X, Y)$  and  $V = h_2(X, Y)$  where  $h_1, h_2$  are 1-to-1, then  $X = w_1(U, V)$  and  $Y = w_2(U, V)$  where  $w_1, w_2$  are the inverses of  $h_1, h_2$ , respectively.

Thus

$$g(u, v) = f(w_1, w_2) \left| \frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} \right|$$

where

$$\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial w_2}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w_2}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial w_2}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial w_2}{\partial u}$$

Let  $R_{XY}$  and  $R_{UV}$  be the support set of  $(X, Y)$  of  $(U, V)$ , respectively.

Notice that  $R_{UV}$  is based on  $R_{XY}$  through the bivariate transformation.

Thus the steps for the 1-to-1 technique for bivariate transformations are

1. Verify 1-to-1 transformation
2. Find  $(w_1, w_2)$  and  $\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)}$
3. Find  $g(u, v)$
4. Find  $R_{UV}$

## 15 October 17, 2018

### 15.1 Verifying 1-to-1 for bivariate functions

The **inverse mapping/function theorem** states that  $U = h_1(X, Y)$  and  $V = h_2(X, Y)$  are 1-1 if

1.  $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y}$  are continuous functions of  $x$  and  $y$  in  $R_{XY}$ .
- 2.

$$\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial w_2}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial w_2}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} \neq 0$$

in  $R_{XY}$ .

### 15.2 Examples of bivariate transformations

**Example 15.1.** Let  $X \sim GAM(a, 1)$  independent of  $Y \sim GAM(b, 1)$ .

Let  $U = X + Y = h_1(X, Y)$ ,  $V = \frac{X}{X+Y} = h_2(X, Y)$ .

Find the joint pdf of  $(U, V)$ :  $g(u, v)$ .

**Solution.** We can do this in 4 steps:

**Step 1: find  $f(x, y)$**  Note that  $f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y)$  by independence so

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} e^{-x} \cdot \frac{1}{\Gamma(b)} y^{b-1} e^{-y}$$

Furthermore

$$R_{XY} = R_X \times R_Y = (0, \infty) \times (0, \infty) = \{(x, y) \mid x, y > 0\}$$



**Step 2: Verify 1-to-1** Verify 1-to-1 of  $h_1, h_2$  by inverse mapping theorem

1. Note  $\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x} = 1, \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y} = 1$ . Also

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x} &= \frac{(x+y) - x}{(x+y)^2} = \frac{y}{(x+y)^2} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y} &= \frac{-x}{(x+y)^2}\end{aligned}$$

Note both are continuous on  $R_{XY}$  (no discontinuity on  $R_{XY}$  since  $x+y \neq 0$  and they are quotients of continuous functions which is continuous).

2.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)} &= \det \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x} \\ &= 1 \frac{-x}{(x+y)^2} - 1 \frac{y}{(x+y)^2} \\ &= \frac{-1}{x+y} \\ &\neq 0 \quad (x, y) \in R_{XY}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore our functions are indeed 1-to-1 by the inverse mapping theorem.

**Step 3: find inverse**  $g(u, v)$  We find our inverse transformations and  $\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)}$ . Note that we can see

$$\begin{aligned}X &= UV = w_1(U, V) \\ Y &= U - UV = U(1 - V) = w_2(U, V)\end{aligned}$$

We also have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} &= \left(\frac{\partial w_1}{\partial u}\right)\left(\frac{\partial w_2}{\partial v}\right) - \left(\frac{\partial w_1}{\partial v}\right)\left(\frac{\partial w_2}{\partial u}\right) \\ &= (v)(-u) - (1-v)(u) \\ &= -u\end{aligned}$$

So we have (where  $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(a)}x^{a-1}e^{-x}y^{b-1}e^{-y}$ )

$$\begin{aligned}g(u, v) &= f(w_1, w_2) \left| \frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(a)} (uv)^{a-1} e^{-uv} (u(1-v))^{b-1} e^{-u(1-v)} \cdot |-u| \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(b)\Gamma(a)} u^{a+b-1} e^{-u} v^{a-1} (1-v)^{b-1}\end{aligned}$$

**Remark 15.1.** We can factorize  $g(u, v) = f_1(u)f_2(v)$  into a function of  $u$  and a function of  $v$ .

**Step 4: find  $R_{UV}$  support** We derive this from  $R_{XY}$ : note that  $R_{XY} = \{(x, y) \mid x, y > 0\}$ , where  $X = UV$  and  $Y = U - UV$ , thus we have

$$R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid w_1(u, v) = uv > 0, w_2(u, v) = u - uv > 0\}$$

Since  $uv > 0$ , then  $u, v > 0$ .

Secondly since  $u - uv > 0$ , then  $u > uv > 0$  so  $u, v > 0$  and  $v < 1$ .

Thus we have  $R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid u > 0, 0 < v < 1\}$ .

That is  $R_{UV} = (0, \infty) \times (0, 1)$  is rectangular, so  $U, V$  are independent by the remark above and the factorization theorem.

**Optional step: Marginal pdfs** We claim  $U \sim \text{GAM}(a + b, 1)$  and  $V \sim \text{BETA}(a, b)$ . Note that

$$g_1(u) = \int_0^1 g(u, v) dv = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a + b)} u^{a+b-1} e^{-u}$$

which is the pdf of  $\text{GAM}(a + b, 1)$ .

Similarly

$$g_2(v) = \int_0^\infty g(u, v) du = \frac{\Gamma(a + b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} v^{a-1} (1 - v)^{b-1}$$

which is the pdf of  $\text{BETA}(a, b)$ .

### 15.3 Computing determinant from the inverse's determinant

Note that in the previous example, we can compute  $\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)}$  indirectly by

$$\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} = \left[ \frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)} \right]^{-1} \Big|_{x=w_1(u, v), y=w_2(u, v)}$$

where we need to substitute  $x$  and  $y$  for  $w_1(u, v)$  and  $w_2(u, v)$  after computing the inverse of the determinant. Recall from our previous example that we had

$$\frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)} = \frac{-1}{x + y}$$

thus we have

$$\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} = \left( \frac{-1}{x + y} \right)^{-1} = -(x + y) = -(uv + u - uv) = -u$$

which agrees with our previous result.

### 15.4 Bivariate transformations of non 1-to-1 functions

**Example 15.2.** For  $f(x, y) = 3y$  where  $0 < x < y < 1$ , let  $U = XY$ . Suppose we wanted to find the pdf of  $U$ . Note that  $(X, Y) \rightarrow U$  is not 1-to-1: we have multiple  $f(x, y)$  for the same  $u$ . For example if we had  $u = 16$ , we can either  $(x, y) = (2, 8)$  or  $(x, y) = (4, 4)$  which maps to different  $f(x, y)$  values.

We can include some random variable  $V$  to ensure  $(X, Y) \leftrightarrow (U, V)$  is 1-to-1, then we can compute the marginal pdf of  $U$  via  $g_1(u) = \int g(u, v) dv$ .

What  $V$  do we choose? We claim  $V$  is not unique. Let  $V = X$ , so  $U = h_1(X, Y) = XY$  and  $V = h_2(X, Y) = X$ .

We note that for  $u = 16, v = 2$ , we only have one  $(x, y) = (2, 8)$  that maps to one unique  $f(x, y) = 24$  value. Similarly  $V = Y$  works as well.

## 16 October 19, 2018

### 16.1 Bivariate transformation with dummy second variable

For  $U = XY$ , find  $f(u, v)$  and  $f_1(u)$  for some  $V$  using the 1-to-1 technique.

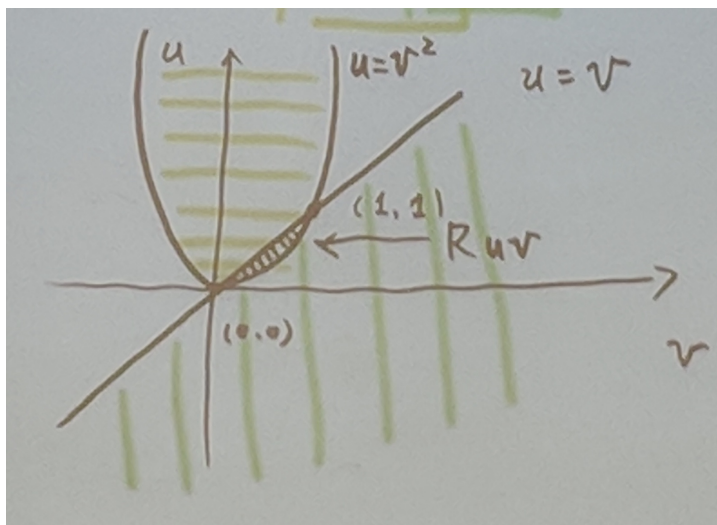
**Solution. Step 1: verify 1-to-1** Use inverse mapping theorem and verify the partial derivatives are continuous on  $R_{XY}$ .

**Step 2: inverse and determinant of Jacoby** We let  $V = X$ . Thus  $X = V = w_1(U, V)$  and  $Y = \frac{U}{V} = w_2(U, V)$ .

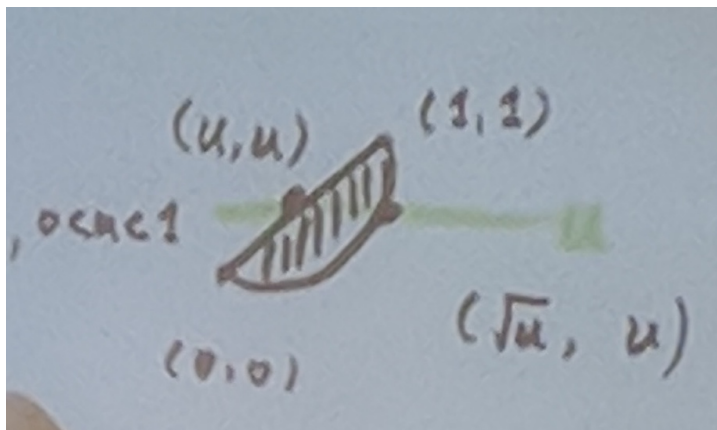
We find that  $\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} = \frac{-1}{v}$  (also  $\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} = \left( \frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)} \right)^{-1} \Big|_{x=w_1(u, v), y=w_2(u, v)}$  from step 1).

**Step 3: find  $g(u, v)$**  We find that  $g(u, v) = \frac{3u}{v}$ .

**Step 4: find  $R_{UV}$**  Recall  $R_{XY} = \{(x, y) \mid 0 < x < y < 1\}$ , thus  $R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid 0 < v < \frac{u}{v} < 1\}$ . Firstly:  $0 < u < 1$  since  $u = xy$  and  $0 < x < y < 1$  and  $0 < v < 1$  since  $v = x$ . Secondly,  $0 < v^2 < u < v$  where  $u$  is domain corresponding to the area above  $u = v^2$  (parabola) and below  $u = v$  (line).



**Step 5: find  $g_1(u)$**  Note that our integration over  $v$  bounds for  $u$  is  $u < v < \sqrt{u}$ .



$$\begin{aligned}
 g_1(u) &= \int_u^{\sqrt{u}} g(u, v) \, dv \\
 &= \int_u^{\sqrt{u}} \frac{3u}{v^2} \, dv \\
 &= 3 - 3\sqrt{u} \quad 0 < u < 1
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the safe pdf of  $u$  when we used the cdf technique.

## 16.2 Box-Mueller transformation example

Let  $X, Y \sim UNIF(0, 1)$  be iid.

Let

$$U = h_1(X, Y) = (-2 \log X)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos(2\pi Y)$$

$$V = h_2(X, Y) = (-2 \log X)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sin(2\pi Y)$$

Find  $g(u, v)$  and marginal distribution of  $U$  and  $V$ .

**Solution.** Note that our joint pdf for  $f(x, y)$  is  $f(x, y) = f_1(x)f_2(y) = 1$  where  $R_{XY} = \{(x, y) \mid 0 < x, y < 1\} = R_X \times R_Y$  due to independence.

We thus have

$$g(u, v) = f(w_1, w_2) \left| \frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| = \left| \frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| = \left| \left( \frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)} \right)^{-1} \right|$$

where

$$\frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)} = \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x} \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y} \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x}$$

**Step 1: Verify 1-to-1** Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x} &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{-2}{x}\right)(-2\log x)^{\frac{-1}{2}} \cos(2\pi y) \\ \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y} &= (-2\pi)(-2\log x)^{\frac{-1}{2}} \sin(2\pi y) \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x} &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{-2}{x}\right)(-2\log x)^{\frac{-1}{2}} \sin(2\pi y) \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y} &= (2\pi)(-2\log x)^{\frac{-1}{2}} \cos(2\pi y)\end{aligned}$$

these are all continuous functions of  $x$  and  $y$  in  $R_{XY} = \{(x, y) \mid 0 < x, y < 1\}$  thus by the inverse mapping theorem we have a 1-to-1 function.

**Step 2: find determinant of Jacoby**

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)} &= \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x} \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial y} \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x} \\ &\vdots \\ &= \frac{-2\pi}{x}\end{aligned}$$

which is  $\neq 0$  in  $R_{XY}$ .

Note that  $u^2 + v^2 = -2\log x = w_1(u, v)$  thus  $x = e^{-\frac{1}{2}(u^2+v^2)}$  so we have

$$\begin{aligned}\left|\frac{\partial(w_1, w_2)}{\partial(u, v)}\right| &= \left|\left(\frac{\partial(h_1, h_2)}{\partial(x, y)}\right)^{-1}\right| \\ &= \frac{x}{2\pi} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}(u^2+v^2)}}{2\pi}\end{aligned}$$

(note in this case an explicit  $y = w_2(u, v)$  is difficult to derive and is also not 1-to-1 since  $\cos$  and  $\sin$  are not 1-to-1).

**Step 3: find  $g(u, v)$**  We have

$$\begin{aligned}g(u, v) &= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}(u^2+v^2)}}{2\pi} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{v^2}{2}}\end{aligned}$$

which is the product of two  $N(0, 1)$  (by the factorization theorem we have independence between  $U$  and  $V$ ).

**Step 4: find  $R_{UV}$**  Note previously we found  $R_{UV}$  from  $R_{XY}$  by considering  $x = w_1(u, v)$  and  $y = w_2(u, v)$ , however we do not have an explicit  $w_2$ .

We observe what happens to our functions  $h_1$  and  $h_2$ :

1. When  $0 < x < 1$ , we have  $(-2\log x)^{\frac{1}{2}} > 0$ .
2. When  $0 < y < 1$  we have  $-1 \leq \cos(2\pi y), \sin(2\pi y) \leq 1$

Therefore  $R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid u, v \in \mathbb{R}\}$  where  $U, V$  are independent by the factorization theorem,  $U, V \sim N(0, 1)$ .

**Remark 16.1.** Since  $U, V$  are functions of uniform r.v.s  $X, Y$ , this tells us how to generate independent normal r.v.s from independent uniform r.v.s.

## 17 October 22, 2018

### 17.1 Univariate transformation with mgf technique

Let  $M_X(t)$  be the mgf of  $X$  for  $|t| < h$ , some  $h > 0$ .

Let  $Y = aX + b$ ,  $a \neq 0, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Find  $M_Y(t)$ .

Note that

$$M_Y(t) = E[e^{tY}] = E[e^{t(aX+b)}] = e^{tb} E[e^{(ta)X}]$$

Let  $t^* = ta$  then  $M_Y(t) = e^{tb} E[e^{t^*X}]$  where  $E[e^{t^*X}] = M_X(t^*)$ , thus  $M_Y(t) = e^{tb} M_X(ta)$ . We need to write bounds for  $t$  in  $M_Y(t)$ : that is  $|ta| < h$  iff  $|t| < \frac{h}{|a|}$ .

Some special results

1. If  $X \sim GAM(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $\alpha$  is a positive integer, let  $Y = \frac{2X}{\beta}$ . Then  $Y \sim \chi^2(2\alpha)$  (chi-squared).

*Proof.* We have  $Y = \frac{2X}{\beta}$  i.e.  $a = \frac{2}{\beta}$ ,  $b = 0$  (notation from our univariate linear transformation example).

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} M_Y(t) &= e^{t \cdot 0} M_X\left(t \cdot \frac{2}{\beta}\right) \\ &= M_X\left(\frac{2t}{\beta}\right) \\ &= M_X(t^*) \end{aligned} \quad t^* = \frac{2t}{\beta}$$

Recall that if  $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$  then  $M_X(t) = \frac{1}{(1-\beta t)^\alpha}$ ,  $t < \frac{1}{\beta}$ .

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} M_Y(t) &= M_X(t^*) = \frac{1}{(1 - \beta t^*)^\alpha} & t^* < \frac{1}{\beta} \\ &= \frac{1}{(1 - \beta \cdot \frac{2t}{\beta})^\alpha} & \frac{2t}{\beta} < \frac{1}{\beta} \\ &= \frac{1}{(1 - 2t)^{\frac{2\alpha}{2}}} & t < \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Note that if  $X \sim \chi^2(n)$ , then  $M_X(t) = \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{\frac{n}{2}}}$ ,  $t < \frac{1}{2}$ .

Thus  $Y \sim \chi^2(2\alpha)$  due to the uniqueness theorem of mgfs.

If  $X_i \sim GAM(\alpha_i, \beta)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  independent, then  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim GAM(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i, \beta)$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
 M_Y(t) &= E[e^{tY}] = E[e^{t \sum_{i=1}^n X_i}] \\
 &= \prod_{i=1}^n E[e^{tX_i}] && \text{independence} \\
 &= \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^n (1 - \beta t)^{\alpha_i}} && t < \frac{1}{\beta} \\
 &= \frac{1}{(1 - \beta t)^{\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i}}
 \end{aligned}$$

which is the mgf of  $GAM(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i, \beta)$ . □

2. If  $X_i \sim EXP(\beta)$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim GAM(n, \beta)$ . □

*Proof.* Exercise (hint:  $EXP(\beta) \sim GAM(1, \beta)$ ). □

3. If  $X_i \sim \chi^2(k_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  independent, then  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \chi^2(\sum_{i=1}^n k_i)$ . □

*Proof.* Similar to sum of Gamma proof. □

4. If  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 \sim \chi^2(n)$ . □

*Proof.* Hint: note  $\frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$  and  $N(0, 1)^2 \sim \chi^2(1)$ . □

5. If  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} POI(\mu_i)$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim POI(\sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i)$ . □

6. If  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} BIN(n_i, p)$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim BIN(\sum_{i=1}^n n_i, p)$ . □

## 17.2 Sum and mean of Gaussian random variables

**Theorem 17.1.** If  $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  independent, then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2\right)$$

*Proof.* Exercise. □

**Corollary 17.1.** If  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$ .

*Proof.* Let  $a_i = \frac{1}{n}$ . Then we have  $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} X_i = \bar{X}$ . From our theorem above we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{X} &\sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \mu, \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2} \sigma^2\right) \\
 &\sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

□

## 18 October 24, 2018

### 18.1 Independence of mean and sample variance

**Theorem 18.1.** If  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$  is independent of  $\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$  where  $S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$  is the sample variance.

*Proof.* Outline of steps to complete proof:

1.  $\bar{X}$  and  $(n-1)S^2$  are independent (by independent theorem of mgfs)

2.

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}$$

thus we have  $\chi^2(n) = \chi^2(1) + \chi^2(n-1)$ .

3.

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$$

from special result 14.

1. Note that  $(n-1)S^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = (X_1 - \bar{X})^2 + \dots + (X_n - \bar{X})^2$  i.e.  $(n-1)S^2$  is a function of  $\{(X_1 - \bar{X}), \dots, (X_n - \bar{X})\}$ .

To show  $\bar{X}$  is independent of  $(n-1)S^2$ , it suffices to show  $\bar{X}$  is independent of  $\{(X_1 - \bar{X}), \dots, (X_n - \bar{X})\}$ .

Let  $U_i = X_i - \bar{X}$ . Find the joint mgf of  $(U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n, \bar{X})$  ( $n+1$  entries), and then the marginal mgfs of  $(U_1, \dots, U_n)$  and  $\bar{X}$  respectively.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} M(s_1, \dots, s_n, s_0) &= E[e^{(s_1, \dots, s_n, s_0)(U_1, \dots, U_n, \bar{X})^T}] \\ &= E[e^{s_0 \bar{X} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i U_i}] \end{aligned}$$

Notice that  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  with a common mgf  $e^{t\mu + \frac{1}{2}t^2\sigma^2}$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Also  $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and  $U_i = X_i - \bar{X}$ . Ideally we want to decompose our joint mgf into a product of the



marginal mgfs: re-arranging we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 s_0 \bar{X} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i U_i &= s_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i (X_i - \bar{X}) \\
 &= (s_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i) \bar{X} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i X_i \\
 &= (s_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i X_i \\
 &= (s_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n s_i) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i X_i \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{s_0}{n} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n s_i}{n} \right) X_i + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i X_i \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{s_0}{n} - \bar{s} + s_i \right) X_i
 \end{aligned}$$

Let  $t_i = \frac{s_0}{n} - \bar{s} + s_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 M(s_1, \dots, s_n, s_0) &= E[e^{\sum_{i=1}^n t_i X_i}] \\
 &= \prod_{i=1}^n E[e^{t_i X_i}] && \text{independence} \\
 &= \prod_{i=1}^n e^{t_i \mu + \frac{1}{2} t_i^2 \sigma^2} \\
 &= e^{\mu \sum_{i=1}^n t_i + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n t_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{s_0}{n} - \bar{s} + s_i \\
 &= s_0 - n\bar{s} + \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \\
 &= s_0 && \sum_{i=1}^n s_i = n\bar{s}
 \end{aligned}$$

also

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{s_0}{n} (s_i - \bar{s}) \right)^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{s_0^2}{n^2} + (s_i - \bar{s})^2 - 2 \frac{s_0}{n} (s_i - \bar{s}) \right) \\
 &= \frac{s_0^2}{n} + \sum_{i=1}^n (s_i - \bar{s})^2 - 2 \frac{s_0}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (s_i - \bar{s}) \\
 &= \frac{s_0^2}{n} + \sum_{i=1}^n (s_i - \bar{s})^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 M(s_1, \dots, s_n, s_0) &= e^{\mu \sum_{i=1}^n t_i + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2} \\
 &= e^{\mu s_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \left( \frac{s_0^2}{n} + \sum_{i=1}^n (s_i - \bar{s})^2 \right)} \\
 &= e^{\mu s_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \frac{s_0^2}{n}} e^{\frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (s_i - \bar{s})^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

for  $t_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $t_i = \frac{s_0}{n} + s_i - \bar{s}$ , therefore  $s_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $s_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Note that  $M_{\bar{X}}(s_0) = M(s_1, \dots, s_n = 0, s_0) = e^{\mu s_0 + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \frac{s_0^2}{n}}$  which is identical to the mgf of  $N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$ , therefore  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$  (confirming our previous corollary).

Also  $M_{U_1, \dots, U_n}(s_1, \dots, s_n, 0) = e^{\frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (s_i - \bar{s})^2}$ .

Thus we have

$$M(s_1, \dots, s_n, s_0) = M_{\bar{X}}(s_0) \cdot M_{U_1, \dots, U_n}(s_1, \dots, s_n)$$

so  $\bar{X}$  and  $(U_1, \dots, U_n)$  are independent due to the mgf independence theorem.

2. We want to show

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 &= (n-1)S^2 + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 LHS &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X} + \bar{X} - \mu)^2 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n ((X_i - \bar{X})^2 + (\bar{X} - \mu)^2 + 2(\bar{X} - \mu)(X_i - \bar{X})) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2 + 2(\bar{X} - \mu) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore we have

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}$$

3. We want to show

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$$

First

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 \sim \chi^2(n)$$

(from special result above).

Secondly,

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}} &\sim N(0, 1) \\
 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}}\right)^2 &\sim \chi^2(1)
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{n}}}\right)^2 = \frac{n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(1)$$

Therefore from step two we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(X_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} + \frac{n(\bar{X} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}$$

from step 1 we know the right two terms are independent. The LHS is  $\chi^2(n)$  and the right term on the RHS is  $\chi^2(1)$  thus

$$\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$$

□

## 19 October 26, 2018

### 19.1 T distribution

**Theorem 19.1.** Suppose  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim t(n-1)$$

*Proof.* We define the  $t$  distribution as: if  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$  independent of  $X \sim \chi^2(n)$  then

$$\frac{Z}{\sqrt{\frac{X}{n}}} \sim t(n)$$

To prove the statement we need to show that

$$T = \frac{N(0, 1)}{\sqrt{\frac{\chi^2(n-1)}{n-1}}}$$

Recall that  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$  i.e.  $\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0, 1)$ . Furthermore  $\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$  and  $\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$  and  $\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}$  are independent therefore

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}} = \frac{\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}}{\sqrt{\frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}/(n-1)}} = \frac{N(0, 1)}{\sqrt{\frac{\chi^2(n-1)}{n-1}}}$$

as desired. □

### 19.2 F distribution

**Theorem 19.2.** Suppose  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma_1^2)$  and  $Y_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma_2^2)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  and  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . Let  $S_1^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$  and  $S_2^2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$ . Show that

$$\frac{S_1^2/\sigma_1^2}{S_2^2/\sigma_2^2} \sim f(n-1, m-1)$$

*Proof.* Recall that  $\frac{\chi^2(n)/n}{\chi^2(m)/m} \sim f(n, m)$  as long as numerator and denominator are independent.

We know that  $\frac{(n-1)S_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$  and  $\frac{(m-1)S_2^2}{\sigma_2^2} \sim \chi^2(m-1)$ , and they are independent since they are from two random samples (i.e.  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  are independent of  $(Y_1, \dots, Y_m)$ ).

Therefore

$$\frac{\frac{(n-1)S_1^2}{\sigma_1^2}/(n-1)}{\frac{(m-1)S_2^2}{\sigma_2^2}/(m-1)} = \frac{S_1^2/\sigma_1^2}{S_2^2/\sigma_2^2} \sim f(n-1, m-1)$$

□

### 19.3 Limiting distributions and asymptotics

**Question 19.1.** What is the limiting behavior of a set of random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

Later on we will look at the **Weak Law of Large Numbers (WLLN)** for convergence in probability and the **Central Limit Theorem (CLT)** for convergence in distributions.

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a sequence of random variables with cdf  $F_1(x), \dots, F_n(x)$ , respectively.

Let  $X$  be another r.v. with cdf  $F(x)$ .

#### Convergence in probability

**Theorem 19.3.** Convergence in probability  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  (however small)

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0$$

or

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon) = 1$$

(notice  $P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 1 - P(|X_n - X| \leq \epsilon)$ , therefore the above are equivalent).

That is: For large  $n$ ,  $X_n$  is close to  $X$  with probability approaching to 1.

#### Convergence in distribution

**Theorem 19.4.** Convergence in distribution  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$  for all  $x$  where  $F(\cdot)$  are continuous.

**Remark 19.1.** If we are interested in calculating  $f_n(x)$  for large  $n$ , we can calculate  $f(x)$  (pf of  $X$ ) instead if  $x$  is a continuity point of  $f(\cdot)$ .

**Remark 19.2.** When verifying  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$ , we only focus on continuous points of  $F(\cdot)$ : it is okay if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) \neq F(x)$  where  $F(\cdot)$  is not continuous.

**Example 19.1.** Suppose  $X_n \sim N(0, \frac{1}{n})$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . What is the limiting distribution of  $X_n$ ? Notice that  $N(0, \frac{1}{n})$  is symmetric around mean 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Question 19.2.** Is there convergence in the distribution, in probability, or both?

First: let's look at the convergence in distribution. Note

$$\begin{aligned} F_n(x) &= P(X_n \leq x) \\ &= P(\sqrt{n}X_n \leq \sqrt{n}x) \\ &= \Phi(\sqrt{n}x) \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{X_n}{\sqrt{1/n}} &\sim N(0, 1) \\ \Phi &\text{ cdf of } N(0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(\sqrt{n}x) = \begin{cases} \Phi(\infty) = 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \Phi(0) = \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \Phi(-\infty) = 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

This is not possibly a cdf as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x)$  is not right continuous at  $x = 0$ .

Now let  $X = 0$ , a degenerate r.v.

$P(X = 0) = 1$  so the cdf of  $X$  is  $F(x) = 0$  if  $x < 0$  and  $F(x) = 1$  if  $x \geq 0$ . So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$  at all  $x$  where  $F(\cdot)$  is continuous ( $F(\cdot)$  is only not continuous at  $x = 0$ ).

## 20 October 29, 2018

### 20.1 Relationship between convergence in probability and distribution

**Remark 20.1.** For verifying  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  is often done by Markov's inequality where we attempt to show

$$0 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) \leq 0$$

from the Squeeze theorem  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0$ .

We remark that

1.  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  implies  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$
2.  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X = c$  implies  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X = c$

**Remark 20.2.** In general  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$  does not imply  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$ , unless  $X = c$  (a real constant), then  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X = c$  is equivalent to  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X = c$ .

**Remark 20.3.** Convergence in probability is a stronger convergence (and convergence in distribution is a weaker convergence).

We will look at the case where convergence in distribution does not imply convergence in probability.

**Example 20.1.** Suppose  $X \sim N(0, 1)$  and  $X_n = -X$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  i.e.  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  has the same distribution where  $F_1(x) = F_2(x) = \dots$

Notice that  $X \sim N(0, 1)$ , is a symmetric (around 0) r.v. so  $-X \sim N(0, 1)$ .

Therefore  $F_1(x) = F_2(x) = \dots = \Phi(x)$  ( $\Phi$  is cdf of  $N(0, 1)$ ) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(x) = \Phi(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

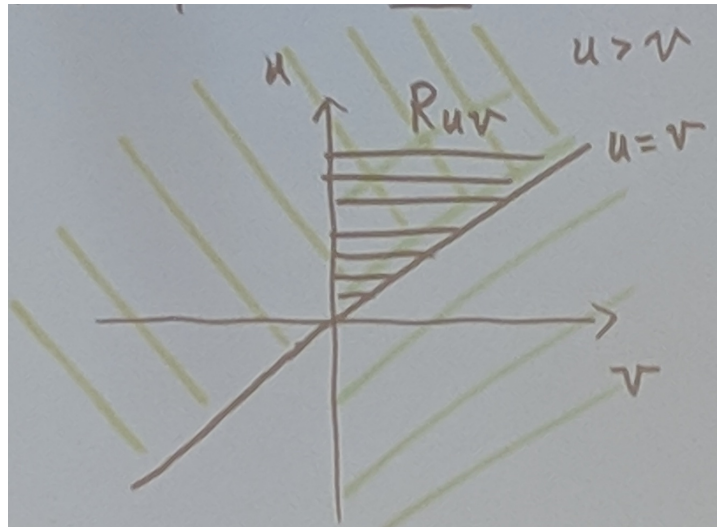
i.e.  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$ . Notice  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is cont. at any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

But notice  $X_n \not\xrightarrow{P} X$  since

$$\begin{aligned} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) &= P(|-X - X| > \epsilon) \\ &= P(2|X| > \epsilon) \\ &= P(|X| > \frac{\epsilon}{2}) \\ &= P(X > \frac{\epsilon}{2}) + P(X < -\frac{\epsilon}{2}) \\ &= 2\Phi(-\frac{\epsilon}{2}) \end{aligned}$$

### 20.2 More bivariate transformation examples

**Exercise 20.1.** Suppose  $g(u, v) = e^{-u}$  and  $R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid v > 0, u - v > 0\}$ .

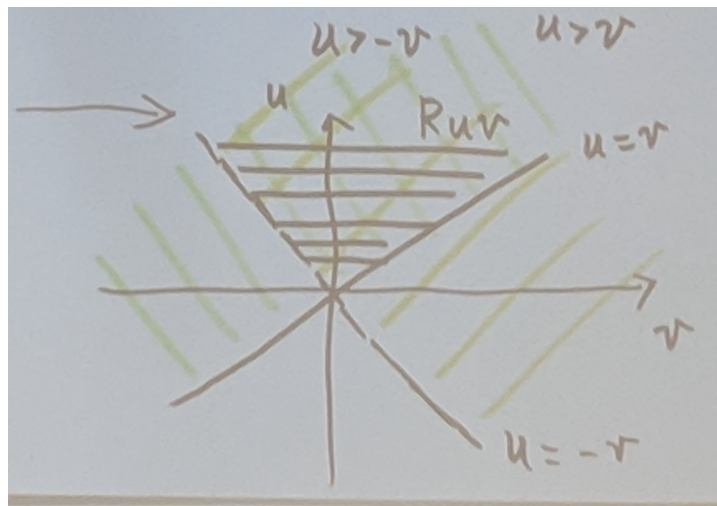


We can rewrite the support set to help us find the marginal pdfs i.e.  $R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid u > 0, 0 < v < u\}$ . Thus to find each of the marginals, we simply integrate over the other variable

$$g_1(u) = \int_0^u g(u, v) dv \quad u > 0$$

$$g_2(v) = \int_v^\infty g(u, v) du \quad v > 0$$

**Exercise 20.2.** Suppose  $g(u, v) = e^{-u/2}$  and  $R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid u + v > 0, u - v > 0\}$ , so  $u > -v$  and  $u > v$ .



We can rewrite the support set to help us find the marginal pdfs i.e.

$$R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid u > 0, -u < v < u\}$$

$$= \{(u, v) \mid v < 0, u > -v\} \cup \{(u, v) \mid v \geq 0, u > v\}$$

Thus to find each of the marginals, we simply integrate over the other variable

$$\begin{aligned} g_1(u) &= \int_{-u}^u g(u, v) dv & u > 0 \\ g_2(v) &= \int_0^\infty g(u, v) du & v < 0 \\ g_2(v) &= \int_0^\infty g(u, v) du & v > 0 \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 20.3.** Show that

$$\frac{X/n}{Y/m} \sim F(n, m)$$

if  $X \sim \chi^2(n)$  independent of  $Y \sim \chi^2(m)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $U = \frac{X/n}{Y/m}$ ,  $V = Y$ .

We have

$$g(u, v) = K \cdot u^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-v(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{nu}{2m})} v^{\frac{n+m}{2}-1}$$

where  $R_{UV} = \{(u, v) \mid u > 0, v > 0\}$  and  $g_1(u) = \int_0^\infty g(u, v) dv$ . We end up with

$$\begin{aligned} g_1(u) &= K \cdot u^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \int_0^\infty e^{-v(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{nu}{2m})} v^{\frac{n+m}{2}-1} dv \\ &= K \cdot u^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha) \\ &= K \cdot u^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{nu}{2m}\right)^{-\frac{n+m}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{n+m}{2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

which is the pdf of  $F(n, m)$ . □

## 21 October 31, 2018

### 21.1 Example of convergence in distribution

**Example 21.1.** Suppose  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} EXP(1)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  for a given  $n$ .

Let  $Y_n = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n) - \log n$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

Show  $Y_n \xrightarrow{D} Y$  and identify  $Y$ .

**Solution.** Let

$$\begin{aligned} F_n(y) &= P(Y_n < y) \\ &= P(\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) - \log n \leq y) \\ &= P(\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq y + \log n) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \leq y + \log n) \end{aligned}$$

Recall if  $X \sim EXP(1)$  then the cdf of  $X$  is

$$P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 - e^{-x} & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$



Thus

$$\begin{aligned} F_n(y) &= (P(X_1 \leq y + \log n))^n \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y + \log n \leq 0 \\ (1 - e^{-(y+\log n)})^n & \text{if } y + \log n > 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y \leq -\log n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} y = -\infty \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - e^{-(y+\log n)})^n & \text{if } y > -\infty \end{cases}$$

Notice that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - e^{-y} e^{-\log n})^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \frac{e^{-y}}{n})^n$$

Recall that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{b}{n})^n = e^b \quad b \in \mathbb{R}$$

thus we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \frac{e^{-y}}{n})^n = e^{-e^{-y}}$$

So in summary

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y \leq -\log n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} y = -\infty \\ e^{-e^{-y}} & \text{if } y > -\infty \end{cases}$$

note that  $\lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} e^{-e^{-y}} = 0$  so we simply have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(y) = e^{-e^{-y}}$  for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , that is  $Y_n \xrightarrow{D} Y$  with a cdf  $F(y) = e^{-e^{-y}}$ ,  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ .

In fact  $(-Y) \sim EV(1, 0)$ : the **extreme value distribution**.

## 21.2 Example of convergence in probability

**Example 21.2.** Suppose  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} UNIF(0, \theta)$ ,  $\theta > 0$ . Let  $Y_n = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . Show  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$  and identify  $Y$ .

**Solution.** Intuition: as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we have more and more uniform sample points on the interval  $(0, \theta)$ .  $Y_n$  is the maximum value of all these sample points so we expect  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_n = \theta) = 1$  i.e.  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y = \theta$ .

**Method 1** Show that  $Y_n \xrightarrow{D} Y = \theta$ , which implies  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y = \theta$ .

Let  $F_n(y) = P(\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq y) = P(X_i \leq y)^n$ .

Note that for  $X \sim UNIF(0, \theta)$

$$P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ \frac{x}{\theta} & \text{if } 0 < x < \theta \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq \theta \end{cases}$$

Thus we have

$$F_n(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y \leq 0 \\ (\frac{y}{\theta})^n & \text{if } 0 < y < \theta \\ 1 & \text{if } y \geq \theta \end{cases}$$

Thus we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} F_n(y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y < \theta \\ 1 & \text{if } y \geq \theta \end{cases}$$

since  $\frac{y}{\theta} < 1$ . Note that  $Y = \theta$  has the exact same cdf so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(y) = F(y)$  for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  (includes all continuity points of  $F(\cdot)$ ). Therefore  $Y_n \xrightarrow{D} Y$  so  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y$ .

**Method 2** By definition of convergence in probability (left as an exercise).

**Remark 21.1.** Let  $Y_n$  be an estimator of  $\theta$ :  $Y_n$  should be a good estimator of  $\theta$  as  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y = \theta$  i.e.  $Y_n$  is close to  $\theta$  with probability approaching 1 for large  $n$ .

### 21.3 Sequence of maximum of uniform r.v.s

**Theorem 21.1.** Suppose  $X_n$  has a cdf  $F_n(x)$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . If

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < b \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq b \end{cases} \quad \forall b \in \mathbb{R}$$

then  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X = b$ .

*Proof.* Suppose

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < b \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq b \end{cases}$$

Therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$  at all continuity points of  $F(\cdot)$  (notice that  $x = b$  is the only discontinuous point of  $F(\cdot)$ ).

So  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X = b$  then  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X = b$ . □

### 21.4 Sequence of minimum of shifted exponential r.v.s

**Theorem 21.2.** Let  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} EXP(1, \theta)$  and let  $Y_n = \min(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . Then  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y = \theta$ .

*Proof.* Recall that  $X \sim EXP(1, \theta)$  has pdf  $e^{x-\theta}$  for  $x \geq \theta$ .

So we expect  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y = \theta$  i.e. it approaches the lower bound of all the  $X_i$ 's.

**Method 1** Show  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y = \theta$  using theorem 5.2.4 (left as an exercise).

**Method 2** Using the definition of convergence in probability we show  $P(|Y_n - \theta| > \epsilon)$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} P(|Y_n - \theta| > \epsilon) &= P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) - \theta > \epsilon) \\ &= P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) > \epsilon + \theta) \\ &= P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) > \epsilon + \theta) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} P(X_i > \epsilon + \theta) \\ &= (P(X_1 > \epsilon + \theta))^n \end{aligned} \quad X_i \geq \theta$$

Recall for  $X \sim EXP(1, \theta)$  the cdf is

$$P(X \leq x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < \theta \\ 1 - e^{-(x-\theta)} & \text{if } x \geq \theta \end{cases}$$

So

$$P(X_1 > \theta + \epsilon) = 1 - P(X_1 \leq \theta + \epsilon) = 1 - (1 - e^{-(\theta + \epsilon - \theta)}) = e^{-\epsilon}$$

In summary  $P(|Y_n - Y| > \epsilon) = (e^{-\epsilon})^n = e^{-n\epsilon}$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|Y_n - Y| > \epsilon) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|Y_n - Y| > \epsilon)e^{-n\epsilon} = 0$ .

Thus  $Y_n \xrightarrow{P} Y = \theta$ .

□

**Remark 21.2.** We can use a sequence of  $X_i \sim EXP(1, \theta)$  and  $Y_n = \min(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  to estimate  $\theta$ .

## 22 November 2, 2018

### 22.1 Mgf limit theorem

**Theorem 22.1** (Mgf limit theorem). Let  $M_n(t)$  and  $M(t)$  be the mgfs of  $X_n$  and  $X$ , respectively where  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n(t) = M(t)$  for all  $t \in (-h, h)$ , some  $h > 0$ .

**Remark 22.1.** Suppose we manage to verify that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n(t) = M(t)$  for  $t < \frac{1}{2}$ .

By the theorem we need to find a neighbourhood with radius  $h$  around 0, which we can do for  $h = \frac{1}{4}$  i.e. the limit holds for  $t \in (-1/4, 1/4)$  so  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$  holds.

Similarly if the limit holds for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , then we can definitely find a neighbourhood around 0 (in fact neighbourhood of radius  $h$  for any  $h > 0$ ).

### 22.2 Poisson approximation to Binomial (example of mgf limit theorem)

**Example 22.1.** Suppose  $X_n \sim BIN(n, p)$  where  $p = \frac{\mu}{n}$  such that  $0 < \frac{\mu}{n} < 1$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

Show that  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} POI(\mu)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $M_n(t)$  be the mgf of  $X_n$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  and let  $M(t)$  be the mgf of  $X \sim POI(\mu)$  i.e.  $M(t) = e^{\mu(e^t - 1)}$ .

To show  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X \sim POI(\mu)$ , it suffices to show  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n(t) = M(t) = e^{\mu(e^t - 1)}$  for all  $t \in (-h, h)$  for some  $h > 0$ .

$M_n(t) = E[e^{tX_n}]$  where  $X_n \sim BIN(n, \frac{\mu}{n})$ .

Recall for  $Y \sim BIN(n, p)$  we have  $M_Y(t) = (e^t p + 1 - p)^n$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Thus  $M_n(t) = (e^{t\frac{\mu}{n}} + 1 - \frac{\mu}{n})^n$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Taking the limit we get

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n(t) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{\mu(e^t - 1)}{n}\right)^n \\ &= e^{\mu(e^t - 1)} \end{aligned} \qquad \left(1 + \frac{b}{n}\right)^n = e^b$$

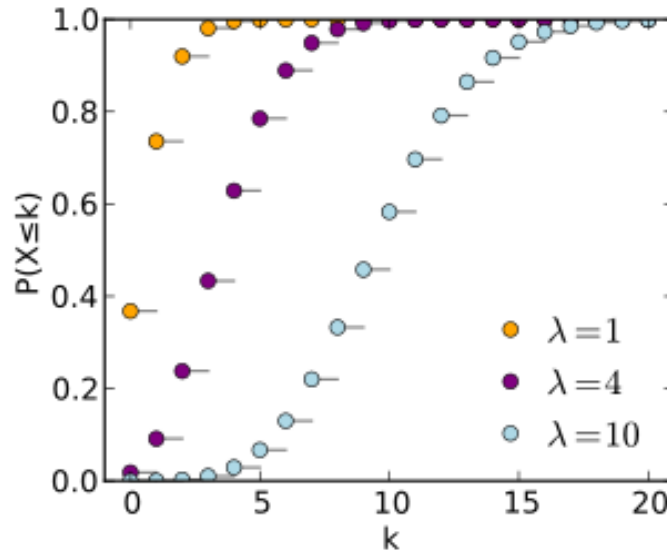
for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , thus by the mgf limit theorem we have  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X \sim POI(\mu)$ .

□

**Remark 22.2.** Note that  $P(POI(\mu) = r) \approx P(BIN(n, \frac{\mu}{n}) = r)$  for  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  for a large  $n$ .

Since  $P(POI(\mu) = r)$  is easier to compute so we can approximate a binomial from a Poisson distribution.

Notice that from  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$  we only have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$  for all continuous points of  $F(\cdot)$  i.e. we only have a convergence in the cdf. How do we show that the pmf also converges?



**Figure 22.1:** CDF of  $X \sim POI(\mu)$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $F(x)$  is continuous for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  except at  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

Therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  except at  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

We transform the cdf values to our desired pmf:

**cdf of  $X_n \sim BIN(n, \mu/n)$**  Note that

$$\begin{aligned} F_n(0.1) - F_n(-0.1) &= P(X_n \leq 0.1) - P(X_n \leq -0.1) \\ &= P(X_n = 0) - 0 \\ &= P(X_n = 0) \end{aligned}$$

**cdf of  $X \sim POI(\mu)$**  Note that

$$\begin{aligned} F(0.1) - F(-0.1) &= P(X \leq 0.1) - P(X \leq -0.1) \\ &= P(X = 0) - 0 \\ &= P(X = 0) \end{aligned}$$

Due to convergence in distributions we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(0.1) = F(0.1)$  (and similarly with  $F_n(-0.1)$  and  $F(-0.1)$ ), so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n = 0) = P(X = 0)$  i.e.  $P(X = 0) \approx P(X_n = 0)$  for a large  $n$ .  $\square$

### 22.3 Central limit theorem

**Theorem 22.2** (Central limit theorem). Suppose  $X_n$  are iid with  $E(X_i) = \mu$  and  $Var(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ . Then  $Z_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$  where  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ .

**Remark 22.3.** In our proof for the mean of Gaussian r.v.s we showed this holds for  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

**Remark 22.4.** We will show this via the mgf limit theorem (which requires more assumptions than necessary for the CLT i.e. we require  $X_n$ 's to have mgf  $M_n(t)$  for all  $t \in (-h, h)$  for some  $h > 0$ ).

Note that  $E(X_n^r) < \infty$  for  $r = 1, 2, \dots$ . If we prove the CLT using the characteristic function then we do not require the additional assumptions for the mgf limit theorem).

*Proof.* To show  $Z_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$  via the the mgf limit theorem, it suffices to show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{Z_n}(t) = M_Z(t)$  for all  $t \in (-h, h)$  for some  $h > 0$ .

Notice  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$  has mgf  $M_Z(t) = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  i.e. we need to show  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{Z_n}(t) = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}} \forall t \in (-h, h)$ .

Note that  $M_{Z_n}(t) = E[e^{tZ_n}] = E[e^{t\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma}}]$ .

Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} &= \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu}{\sigma} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \end{aligned}$$

where  $Y_i = \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}$ ,  $E(X_i) = \mu$  and  $Var(X_i) = \sigma^2$ , therefore  $E(Y_i) = 0$  and  $Var(Y_i) = E[Y_i^2] = 1$ .  $Y_i$ s and  $X_i$ s are both iid.

$$\begin{aligned} M_{Z_n}(t) &= E[e^{t\sqrt{n}(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma})}] \\ &= E[e^{t\sqrt{n}\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i}] \\ &= E[e^{\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}(Y_1 + \dots + Y_n)}] \\ &= (M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}))^n \end{aligned}$$

In summary  $M_{Z_n}(t) = (M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}))^n$  where  $E(Y_i) = 0$  and  $Var(Y_i) = E(Y_i^2) = 1$ .

Recall the Taylor expansion of  $f(x)$  at  $a$

$$f(x) = 1 + f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \dots$$

Taking the Taylor expansion of  $M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}})$  about 0

$$\begin{aligned} M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) &= M_{Y_i}(0) + \frac{M'_{Y_i}(0)}{1!}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}} - 0) + \frac{M''_{Y_i}(0)}{2!}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}})^2 + \frac{M^{(3)}_{Y_i}(0)}{3!}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}})^3 + \dots \\ &= E[e^{0Y_i}] + E[Y_i](\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}} - 0) + \frac{E[Y_i^2]}{2!} \frac{t^2}{n} + \frac{M^{(3)}_{Y_i}(0)}{3!} \frac{t^3}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{M^{(4)}_{Y_i}(0)}{4!} \frac{t^4}{n} \frac{1}{n} + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{t^2/2}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{M^{(3)}_{Y_i}(0)}{3!} \frac{t^3}{\sqrt{n}} + \frac{M^{(4)}_{Y_i}(0)}{4!} \frac{t^4}{n} + \dots \right) \end{aligned}$$

let  $\psi(n) = \frac{M^{(3)}_{Y_i}(0)}{3!} \frac{t^3}{\sqrt{n}} + \frac{M^{(4)}_{Y_i}(0)}{4!} \frac{t^4}{n} + \dots$ . Note that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \psi(n) = 0$  since  $M^{(n)}_{Y_i}(0)$  are constant and  $t$  is constant so as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  the term  $\rightarrow 0$ .

Thus we have

$$M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) = 1 + \frac{t^2/2}{n} + \frac{\phi(n)}{n}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} M_{Z_n}(t) &= (M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}))^n \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{t^2/2}{n} + \frac{\phi(n)}{n}\right)^n \end{aligned}$$

From the  $e$ -limit identity we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{b}{n} + \frac{\phi}{n}\right)^n = e^b \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi(n) = 0$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{Z_n}(t) = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$$

We now need to show this holds for some neighbourhood around 0 for  $t$ .

Note that we assumed  $X_n$ 's have mgf for  $|t| < h$  (for all  $t \in (-h, h)$ , some  $h > 0$ ). Also note that

$$\begin{aligned} M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) &= E(e^{\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{X_i - \mu}{\sigma}}) \\ &= e^{-\frac{t\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}} E(e^{\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} X_i}) \\ &= e^{-\frac{t\mu}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}} M_{X_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $M_{Y_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}})$  exists if  $M_{X_i}(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}\sigma})$  exists, i.e.  $|\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}| < h$  i.e.  $|t| < \sqrt{n}\sigma h$  (similarly  $M_{Z_n}(t)$  exists for the same  $t$  values).

Therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{Z_n}(t) = e^{\frac{t^2}{2}}$  for all  $t \in (-h\sigma, h\sigma)$  then  $Z_n \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$ . □

## 23 November 5, 2018

### 23.1 Example of CLT

**Example 23.1.** Suppose the number of times you check your smartphone follows  $POI(5)$ . Since there are 125 students let  $X_i$  be the # of times the  $i$ th student checks their point, then  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} POI(5)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, 125$ . Find  $P(\bar{X} \leq 5.5)$  approximately.

**Solution.**  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} POI(5)$  and  $E(X_i) = Var(X_i) = \sigma^2 = 5$ .

According to CLT we have  $Z_n = \sqrt{n} \frac{(\bar{X} - \mu)}{\sigma} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$  that is  $Z_n = \sqrt{n} \frac{(\bar{X} - 5)}{\sqrt{5}} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .  
So

$$\begin{aligned} P(\bar{X} \leq 5.5) &= P\left(\sqrt{n} \frac{(\bar{X} - 5)}{\sqrt{5}} \leq \sqrt{n} \frac{(5.5 - 5)}{\sqrt{5}}\right) \\ &= P\left(Z_n \leq \sqrt{n} \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{5}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Notice  $Z_n \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$  therefore

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Z_n \leq z) = P(Z \leq z) \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{R}$$

Thus we have

$$P(\bar{X} \leq 5.5) = P(Z_n \leq \sqrt{125} \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{5}}) \approx P(Z_n \leq 2.5) = \Phi(2.5) = 0.9938$$

**Example 23.2.** Suppose  $Y_n \sim \chi^2(n)$ . Let  $Z_n = \frac{Y_n - n}{\sqrt{2n}}$ .

Show  $Z_n \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

**Solution.** Note that  $Y_n \sim \chi^2(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  where  $X_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \chi^2(1)$  where  $E(Y_i) = 1$  and  $Var(Y_i) = 2 < \infty$ .  
According to CLT we have

$$\sqrt{n} \frac{(\bar{X} - 1)}{\sqrt{2}} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$$

so

$$\sqrt{n} \frac{(Y_n/n - 1)}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{Y_n - n}{\sqrt{2n}} \xrightarrow{D} Z \sim N(0, 1)$$

### 23.2 Weak law of large numbers (WLLN)

**Theorem 23.1** (Weak law of large numbers (WLLN)). Suppose  $X_n$ 's are *independent* (not necessarily identically distributed) r.v's and  $E(X_n) = \mu$  and  $Var(X_n) = \sigma^2 < \infty$ , then  $\bar{X} \xrightarrow{P} \mu$ .

**Remark 23.1.** As long as  $n$  is large, we can use  $\bar{X}$  to estimate  $\mu$  as  $\bar{X}$  is getting close to  $\mu$  with probability approaching 1.

### 23.3 Summary of limiting behaviour

**Convergence in distribution** 1.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F(x)$  for  $x$  where  $F(\cdot)$  is continuous

2.  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$  implies  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$

3. MGF limit theorem

## 4. CLT

**Convergence in probability** 1.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - X| > \epsilon) = 0$ 2.  $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X = c$  iff  $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X = c$ 

3. Weak law of large numbers (WLLN)