

Sampling from the Normal Distribution

Derived distributions: Snedecor's F

Let $V_1 \sim \chi^2_{\nu_1}$ and $V_2 \sim \chi^2_{\nu_2}$ be independent r.v.s, then the r.v.

$$X = \frac{V_1/\nu_1}{V_2/\nu_2} = \frac{\nu_2 V_1}{\nu_1 V_2} = \mathcal{F}_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$$

has a Snedecor's F distribution with ν_1 and ν_2 degrees of freedom, denoted

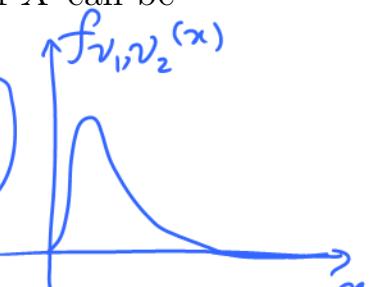
$$X \sim F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}.$$

Note: $\mathcal{F}_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \neq \mathcal{F}_{\nu_2, \nu_1}, \quad F_{\nu_2, \nu_1} = \frac{1}{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}}$

Snedecor named the distribution after R.A. Fisher

Using a transformation $X = (V_1/\nu_1)/(V_2/\nu_2)$ and $Y = V_1/\nu_1$, the pdf of X can be determined as

$$\rightarrow f_X(x) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{\nu_1}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{\nu_2}{2})} \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}\right)^{\nu_1/2} x^{\frac{\nu_2}{2}-1} \left(1 + x \frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}\right)^{-(\nu_1 + \nu_2)/2}$$



$$\begin{cases} X = \frac{V_1/\nu_1}{V_2/\nu_2} \\ Y = \frac{V_1}{\nu_1} \end{cases}$$

$$Y = \frac{V_1}{\nu_1} \Rightarrow V_1 = Y\nu_1$$

$$X = \frac{Y}{\frac{V_2}{\nu_2}} \Leftrightarrow X = \frac{\nu_2 Y}{V_2} \Leftrightarrow V_2 = \frac{\nu_2 Y}{X}$$

To find $f_X(x)$:

Step 1: Find $f_{X,Y}(x,y)$

Step 2: Marginal $f_X(x)$ by $\int f_{X,Y}(x,y) dy$

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_{V_1, V_2}\left(y\nu_1, \frac{\nu_2 y}{x}\right) |J|$$

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

Sampling from the Normal Distribution

Derived distributions: Student's t

Properties: $X = \frac{(\chi_{\nu_1}^2/\nu_1)/(\chi_{\nu_2}^2/\nu_2)}{\nu_1/\nu_2} \sim F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$

$$1. EX = (\nu_2/\nu_1)E\chi_{\nu_1}^2/\chi_{\nu_2}^2 = (\nu_2/\nu_1)E(\chi_{\nu_1}^2) \cdot E(1/\chi_{\nu_2}^2) = ?$$

$$= \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1} \cancel{E(\chi_{\nu_1}^2)} \quad \boxed{E\left(\frac{1}{\chi_{\nu_2}^2}\right)}$$

2. if $\nu_1 = 1$, then

$$F_{1, \nu_2} \stackrel{d}{=} \left(T_{\nu_2}\right)^2$$

$$3. X^{-1} \sim (\chi_{\nu_2}^2/\nu_2)/(\chi_{\nu_1}^2/\nu_1) \sim F_{\nu_2, \nu_1}$$

$\text{If } \nu_2 > 2$

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{\chi_{\nu_2}^2}\right) = \frac{1}{\nu_2 - 2}$$

provided $\nu_2 > 2$

$$\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{\chi_{\nu_2}^2}\right) \neq \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}(\chi_{\nu_2}^2)}$$

Hint: $\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{1}{\chi_{\nu_2}^2}\right) = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x} f_{\chi_{\nu_2}^2}(x) dx$

4. If $\nu_2 = \infty$, then $X \sim \chi_{\nu_1}^2/\nu_1$

5. $\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}X/(1 + \frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}X) \sim \text{Beta}(\nu_1/2, \nu_2/2)$, equivalent to $\chi_{\nu_1}^2/(\chi_{\nu_1}^2 + \chi_{\nu_2}^2) \sim \text{Beta}(\nu_1/2, \nu_2/2)$

Motivating application: two independent normal samples

- X_1, \dots, X_n iid $N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$ and Y_1, \dots, Y_m iid $N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$ are independent samples

- $(n-1)S_x^2/\sigma_x^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$ and $(m-1)S_y^2/\sigma_y^2 \sim \chi_{m-1}^2$ are then independent

- Then,

$$F = \frac{(n-1)S_x^2/\sigma_x^2}{n-1} / \frac{(m-1)S_y^2/\sigma_y^2}{m-1} = \frac{\sigma_y^2 S_x^2}{\sigma_x^2 S_y^2} \sim F_{n-1, m-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F_{n-1, m-1} &\sim \frac{\chi_{n-1}^2}{\chi_{m-1}^2} = \frac{S_x^2}{S_y^2} \\ &= \frac{\sigma_y^2}{\sigma_x^2} \frac{S_x^2}{S_y^2} \end{aligned}$$

- ratios of sample variances have F distribution in normal problems

STAT 542: Summary to date

Where we have been & where we are headed

- Completed
 - Probability and random variables (definition, cdf, pdf/pmf)
 - Univariate distributions (definitions, expectation, transformations, families)
 - Multivariate distributions (joint distribution, covariance, conditional distribution, marginal distribution, independence, transformations)
 - Random samples (properties of sample mean, order statistics, normal sampling theory)
- Next
 - Convergence concepts (e.g., convergence in probability or in distribution)
 - Large sample results (e.g., WLLN, CLT)

Before we tackling these convergence topics, I need to mention one thing about Section 4.7 of Casella & Berger (this is out of order)

Inequalities (again)

Casella & Berger, Section 4.7

We've seen some inequalities for random variables already

{ 1. **Markov inequality:** Suppose X is a r.v. and $g(x) \geq 0$. Then, for any $r > 0$,

$$P(g(X) \geq r) \leq \frac{Eg(X)}{r}.$$

2. **Jensen's inequality:** Suppose X is a r.v. and $g(x)$ is a convex function.

Then,

$$Eg(X) \geq g(EX)$$

Section 4.7 of Casella & Berger repeats Jensen's inequality & some more inequalities. The most useful additional one is the following:



Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: If $\underline{\underline{X}}$ and $\underline{\underline{Y}}$ are random variables with finite variances, then

$$|\text{Cov}(X, Y)| \leq \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)}.$$

(Essentially, we've seen this because the correlation $|\text{corr}(X, Y)| \leq 1$.)

$$\left| \rho_{XY} \right| \leq 1 \Leftrightarrow \left| \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)}} \right| \leq 1$$

There's also a generalization of this:

Hölder's inequality: Suppose $p, q > 0$ are positive real-numbers such that

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

Then

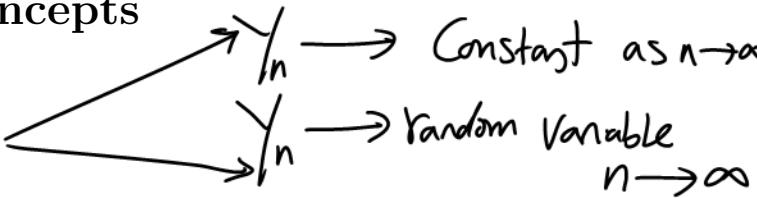
$$E|XY| \leq \left[E|X|^p \right]^{\frac{1}{p}} \left[E|Y|^q \right]^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

Convergence concepts

Motivation:

$(Y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $n \uparrow$

Introduction



- At times we can have random variables whose distributions we can't (or don't want) to work out or describe exactly.

However, it can be possible to see that the distribution of a random variable is “close to” another distribution that *can* be described completely (often this happens for large sample sizes n).

In which case, instead of the exact distribution of a random variable, one can use an approximate distribution in its place (i.e., for finding probabilities).

- Up to this point a finite-dimensional (or non-sequential) point of view

- distribution of a single random variable X $F_X(x)$
- distribution of a random vector (X_1, \dots, X_n) $F_{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- distribution of transformation $Y = g(X_1, \dots, X_n) \rightarrow P(g(X_1, \dots, X_n) \leq a)$

- Now consider a sequence of r.v.s Y_n , $n = 1, 2, 3$

- distribution of $\underline{Y_n}$ may be unknown
- distributional behavior of Y_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$ is predictable

→ example: X_1, X_2, \dots iid sequence of r.v.s with mean μ and variance σ^2

* $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ has mean μ and variance σ^2/n $E\bar{X} = \mu$, $\text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \sigma^2/n$
(distribution generally unknown)

WLLN

* “ $\bar{X}_n \rightarrow \mu$ ” as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (law of large numbers)

* \bar{X}_n is approx $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ for “large” n (central limit theorem)

CLT

Convergence concepts

Introduction (cont'd)

We will consider two types of ways in which sequences of r.v.s can “converge”

- X_1, X_2, \dots are iid
1. Convergence in distribution $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$
 2. Convergence in probability $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$

(a) mostly, convergence in probability to a constant (a degenerate r.v.)

$$X_n \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} X$$

In our text, there are other types of convergence (“convergence almost surely”) which we will not discuss; these are topics discussed in STAT 6420 in more detail (the textbook attempts these but this only muddies the water).

Arguably, in statistics, convergence in distribution is most common

- conveniently, this type of convergence only requires working with probability distributions directly
- convergence in probability to a constant is the same as convergence in distribution to a constant (as we will see)

Set up: Let $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n, \dots$ be a sequence of r.v.s

- the distribution of Y_n can change with n
- One common situation
 1. X_1, X_2, \dots is an iid sequence
 2. $Y_n = g(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ for each n
 3. functions $g()$ include: mean, sample variance, minimum, maximum