

# Probability and Statistics

## Endsem Solutions

### Q1. Moment Generating Functions

#### (a) Geometric with parameter $p$

Let  $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$  denote the number of trials until the first success, where each trial is independent with success probability  $p$ ,  $0 < p < 1$ . Then the probability mass function (pmf) of  $X$  is

$$\mathbb{P}(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

The moment generating function (mgf) of  $X$  is defined as

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{tk} \mathbb{P}(X = k).$$

Substituting the pmf, we get

$$\begin{aligned} M_X(t) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{tk} (1 - p)^{k-1} p \\ &= p \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (e^t)^k (1 - p)^{k-1} \\ &= pe^t \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (e^t(1 - p))^{k-1} \\ &= pe^t \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (e^t(1 - p))^n, \end{aligned}$$

where we have re-indexed with  $n = k - 1$ . This is a geometric series with ratio  $r = e^t(1 - p)$ , and it converges for

$$|e^t(1 - p)| < 1.$$

Using the sum of a geometric series,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n = \frac{1}{1 - r}, \quad |r| < 1,$$

we obtain

$$M_X(t) = pe^t \cdot \frac{1}{1 - (1 - p)e^t} = \frac{pe^t}{1 - (1 - p)e^t},$$

valid for  $e^t(1 - p) < 1$ , i.e.,  $t < -\ln(1 - p)$ . Thus,

$$M_X(t) = \frac{pe^t}{1 - (1 - p)e^t}, \quad \text{for } t < -\ln(1 - p).$$

## (b) Exponential with parameter $\lambda$

Let  $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$  with parameter  $\lambda > 0$ . Then the probability density function (pdf) of  $X$  is

$$f_X(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x > 0.$$

The moment generating function of  $X$  is

$$M_X(t) = \mathbb{E}[e^{tX}] = \int_0^\infty e^{tx} f_X(x) dx = \int_0^\infty e^{tx} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx.$$

Combine the exponents:

$$M_X(t) = \lambda \int_0^\infty e^{-(\lambda-t)x} dx.$$

For the integral to converge, we require  $\lambda - t > 0$ , i.e.,  $t < \lambda$ . Using the standard result

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-ax} dx = \frac{1}{a}, \quad a > 0,$$

we get

$$M_X(t) = \lambda \cdot \frac{1}{\lambda - t} = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t},$$

valid for  $t < \lambda$ . Thus,

$$M_X(t) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}, \quad \text{for } t < \lambda.$$

## Q2. Monte Carlo Estimation of $\pi$

### Estimation Method:

Use two independent uniform samples to produce a point in the unit square  $[0, 1]^2$ . Count the number of points that fall inside the quarter of the unit circle of radius 1 centered at the origin. Repeat  $n$  times and rescale the fraction of "hits" to obtain an estimator for  $\pi$ .

More formally, let  $(X_i, Y_i)$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  be i.i.d. samples from the uniform distribution on  $[0, 1]^2$ . Define the Bernoulli random variable:

$$\mathbb{I}_{\{X_i^2 + Y_i^2 \leq 1\}}$$

which is 1 if the point  $(X_i, Y_i)$  lies inside the quarter circle and 0 otherwise. The estimator for  $\pi$  is given by:

$$\hat{\pi} = 4 \cdot \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}_{\{X_i^2 + Y_i^2 \leq 1\}}$$

### Justification

Intuitively, the ratio of the area of the quarter circle to the area of the unit square gives the probability that a randomly chosen point in the unit square falls inside the quarter circle.

However, a more formal justification is as follows:

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2(\theta) d\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

Now, if we evaluate the integral using Monte Carlo integration, we get a way to estimate  $\pi$ .

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} 1 dx dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \mathbb{I}_{\{x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}} dx dy = \mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)^2} [\mathbb{I}_{\{X^2 + Y^2 \leq 1\}}]$$

Where  $\mathbb{I}_{\{x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}}$  is a Bernoulli random variable. Now, using Monte Carlo integration, we can estimate the above integral as follows:

$$\mathbb{E}_{(X,Y) \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)^2} [\mathbb{I}_{\{X^2 + Y^2 \leq 1\}}] \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}_{\{X_i^2 + Y_i^2 \leq 1\}}$$

Where  $X_i, Y_i \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$  i.i.d. Thus, we have an unbiased estimator for  $\pi$  as:

$$\hat{\pi} = 4 \cdot \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}_{\{X_i^2 + Y_i^2 \leq 1\}}$$

## Q3. Sum of Independent Exponential Random Variables

### Part 1: Derivation using Convolution Formula

Let  $Z = X_1 + X_2$ . Since  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent continuous random variables, the PDF of  $Z$  is given by the convolution of their marginal PDFs:

$$f_Z(z) = (f_{X_1} * f_{X_2})(z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_1}(x) f_{X_2}(z-x) dx$$

Given that  $X_i \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ , the marginal PDFs are:

$$f_{X_i}(t) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda t} & t \geq 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

#### Determining the Limits of Integration:

For the integrand  $f_{X_1}(x)f_{X_2}(z-x)$  to be non-zero, both individual terms must be non-zero simultaneously. This imposes two constraints on the integration variable  $x$ :

1. From  $f_{X_1}(x)$ , we require  $x \geq 0$ .
2. From  $f_{X_2}(z-x)$ , we require argument  $z-x \geq 0$ , which implies  $x \leq z$ .

Combining these constraints ( $0 \leq x \leq z$ ):

- **Case 1 ( $z < 0$ ):** The interval  $[0, z]$  is empty (since  $x$  cannot be greater than 0 and less than a negative number). Thus, the integral is 0.
- **Case 2 ( $z \geq 0$ ):** The valid range for integration is  $x \in [0, z]$ .

#### Evaluating the Integral for $z \geq 0$ :

Substituting the explicit functional forms into the integral:

$$\begin{aligned} f_Z(z) &= \int_0^z (\lambda e^{-\lambda x}) (\lambda e^{-\lambda(z-x)}) dx \\ &= \int_0^z \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda x} e^{-\lambda z} e^{\lambda x} dx \\ &= \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda z} \int_0^z 1 dx \quad (\text{Since terms with } z \text{ are constant w.r.t } x) \\ &= \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda z} [x]_0^z \\ &= \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda z} (z - 0) \\ &= \lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z} \end{aligned}$$

#### Conclusion:

Combining both cases, the PDF of  $Z$  is:

$$f_Z(z) = \begin{cases} \lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z} & z \geq 0 \\ 0 & z < 0 \end{cases}$$

- *Note 1: This is the PDF of the Erlang(2,  $\lambda$ ) distribution or Gamma(2,  $\lambda$ ).*
- **Note 2: Several valid approaches begin from first principles and inherently derive the convolution formula as the problem is solved. Marks have been awarded for all correct solutions.**

## Part 2: Mean of $Z$

The mean is defined as  $E[Z] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z f_Z(z) dz$ . Using our derived PDF (where  $f_Z(z) = 0$  for  $z < 0$ ):

$$E[Z] = \int_0^{\infty} z(\lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z}) dz = \lambda^2 \int_0^{\infty} z^2 e^{-\lambda z} dz$$

### Method 1: Integration by Parts

Let  $u = z^2$  and  $dv = e^{-\lambda z} dz$ . Then  $du = 2z dz$  and  $v = -\frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda z}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} z^2 e^{-\lambda z} dz &= \left[ -\frac{z^2}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda z} \right]_0^{\infty} - \int_0^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda z} \right) 2z dz \\ &= 0 + \frac{2}{\lambda} \int_0^{\infty} z e^{-\lambda z} dz \end{aligned}$$

We recognize  $\int_0^{\infty} z e^{-\lambda z} dz = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$  (mean of standard exponential is  $1/\lambda$ , so integral without  $\lambda$  pre-factor is  $1/\lambda^2$ ).

$$E[Z] = \lambda^2 \left( \frac{2}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \right) = \frac{2}{\lambda}$$

### Method 2: Gamma Function Substitution

Alternatively, in the integral  $I = \lambda^2 \int_0^{\infty} z^2 e^{-\lambda z} dz$ , let  $u = \lambda z \implies dz = du/\lambda$ .

$$E[Z] = \lambda^2 \int_0^{\infty} \left( \frac{u}{\lambda} \right)^2 e^{-u} \frac{du}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_0^{\infty} u^{3-1} e^{-u} du = \frac{1}{\lambda} \Gamma(3)$$

Using  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$E[Z] = \frac{1}{\lambda} (2!) = \frac{2}{\lambda}$$

Or you could have recognized that the integral is equivalent to  $\lambda E[X^2]$  where  $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$

### Final Answer:

The PDF is  $f_Z(z) = \lambda^2 z e^{-\lambda z}$  for  $z \geq 0$  (and 0 otherwise). The Mean is  $E[Z] = \frac{2}{\lambda}$ .

## Q4. Mixture Distribution

Let  $Z$  be a discrete random variable taking values in  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  with

$$\mathbb{P}(Z = i) = p_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Conditioned on  $Z = i$ , let  $X$  be distributed as  $Y_i$ . Thus we define

$$X = Y_Z.$$

(a) Find  $\mathbb{E}[X]$ .

(b) Also prove that

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i f_{Y_i}(x).$$

### Part (a)

Using the law of total expectation,

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X \mid Z]].$$

Given  $Z = i$ , the random variable  $X$  has the same distribution as  $Y_i$ , so

$$\mathbb{E}[X \mid Z = i] = \mathbb{E}[Y_i].$$

Taking expectation over  $Z$  gives

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(Z = i) \mathbb{E}[X \mid Z = i] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(Z = i) \mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \mathbb{E}[Y_i].$$

Thus,

$$\boxed{\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \mathbb{E}[Y_i].}$$

### Part (b)

Apply the law of total probability at the point  $x$ :

$$f_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(Z = i) f_{X|Z=i}(x).$$

Since  $X \mid \{Z = i\}$  has the same distribution as  $Y_i$ , we have  $f_{X|Z=i}(x) = f_{Y_i}(x)$ , and therefore

$$\boxed{f_X(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i f_{Y_i}(x) .}$$

## Q5. MLE for Uniform Distribution

**Question:** Let  $D = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  denote i.i.d. samples from a uniform random variable  $U[a, b]$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are unknown. Find an MLE estimate for the unknown parameters  $a$  and  $b$ .

### Solution

The pdf of a  $U[a, b]$  random variable is given by

$$f_U(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & a \leq u \leq b \\ 0 & \text{o.w} \end{cases}$$

The likelihood of  $D$  is defined as

$$L(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; a, b) = f_{U_1, \dots, U_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n; a, b) = \prod f_{U_i}(x_i; a, b)$$

as the samples are i.i.d.

From the pdf, it is clear that  $L \neq 0$  if  $a \leq x_i \leq b \forall i = 1 \dots n$ . So  $L \neq 0$  iff

$$a \leq \min_i(x_i) \quad \text{and} \quad b \geq \max_i(x_i)$$

$$L(x_1, \dots, x_n; a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(b-a)^n}, & a \leq \min_i(x_i), \quad b \geq \max_i(x_i) \\ 0 & \text{o.w} \end{cases}$$

The log likelihood is

$$\log L(x_1, \dots, x_n; a, b) = \begin{cases} -n \log(b-a), & a \leq \min_i(x_i), \quad b \geq \max_i(x_i) \\ -\infty & \text{o.w} \end{cases}$$

The MLE estimate for  $a$  is given by

$$\hat{a}_{ML} = \arg \max_a \log L(x_1, \dots, x_n; a, b)$$

To find the maxima, we take the derivative w.r.t  $a$

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial a} = \frac{n}{b-a}$$

for  $a \leq \min_i(x_i), \quad b \geq \max_i(x_i)$ .

The derivative w.r.t  $a$  is monotonically increasing in the region  $a \leq \min_i(x_i)$ , so to maximize the likelihood we take the maximum value  $a$  can take in the region which is given by

$$\hat{a}_{ML} = \min_i x_i$$

Similarly, the MLE estimate for  $b$  is given by

$$\hat{b}_{ML} = \arg \max_b \log L(x_1, \dots, x_n; a, b)$$

To find the maxima, we take the derivative w.r.t  $b$

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial b} = -\frac{n}{b-a}$$

for  $a \leq \min_i(x_i)$ ,  $b \geq \max_i(x_i)$ .

The derivative w.r.t  $b$  is monotonically decreasing in the region  $b \geq \max_i(x_i)$ , so to maximize the likelihood we take the minimum value  $b$  can take in the region which is given by

$$\hat{b}_{ML} = \max_i x_i$$



## Q6. MLE for Poisson Distribution

### Part (a): Finding the MLE

Let  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\gamma)$  and let  $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  be i.i.d. samples.

The pmf is

$$P(X = x_i) = \frac{\gamma^{x_i} e^{-\gamma}}{x_i!}.$$

Thus the likelihood is

$$L(\gamma) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\gamma^{x_i} e^{-\gamma}}{x_i!} = \frac{\gamma^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} e^{-n\gamma}}{\prod_{i=1}^n x_i!}.$$

Taking the log-likelihood:

$$\ell(\gamma) = \log L(\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \log \gamma - n\gamma - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(x_i!).$$

Differentiate w.r.t.  $\gamma$  and set to zero:

$$\frac{d\ell}{d\gamma} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\gamma} - n = 0.$$

Solving gives the MLE:

$$\hat{\gamma}_{\text{MLE}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \bar{X}.$$

Finding the Second Derivative of  $\ell$  wrt  $\gamma$ ,

$$\frac{d^2\ell}{d\gamma^2} = -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{\gamma^2}$$

Since the samples are from a Poisson distribution, each sample is positive, making the numerator positive. Hence the overall term is still negative, satisfying the maximality of the estimator.

### Part (b): Bias and MSE

Since  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\gamma)$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \gamma, \quad \text{Var}(X) = \gamma.$$

Thus for the estimator  $\hat{\gamma} = \bar{X}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\gamma}] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(x_i) = \frac{n\gamma}{n} = \gamma,$$

Hence, the Bias = 0.

$$\text{Var}(\hat{\gamma}) = \text{Var}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}(x_i) = \frac{n\gamma}{n^2} = \frac{\gamma}{n}.$$

Hence the mean squared error (MSE) is

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\gamma}) = \text{Var}(\hat{\gamma}) + \text{Bias}^2 = \frac{\gamma}{n}.$$

## Q7. Convergence in Distribution and Probability

**Given:** Let  $X_n \sim \text{Uniform}(5 - \frac{1}{n}, 5 + \frac{1}{n})$ .

**(a) Show that  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} 5$ .**

To show convergence in distribution ( $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$ ), we must show that the Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) of  $X_n$ , denoted  $F_n(x)$ , converges to the CDF of the limiting random variable  $X$  at all points where  $F_X(x)$  is continuous.

### Step 1: Identify the limiting CDF

The limiting variable is the constant  $X = 5$ . The CDF of a constant random variable is a step function:

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 5 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 5 \end{cases}$$

The function  $F_X(x)$  is continuous everywhere except at  $x = 5$ . Therefore, we need to show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F_X(x)$  for all  $x \neq 5$ .

### Step 2: Define the CDF of $X_n$

The random variable  $X_n$  follows a uniform distribution on  $[a_n, b_n]$  where  $a_n = 5 - \frac{1}{n}$  and  $b_n = 5 + \frac{1}{n}$ . The length of the interval is  $b_n - a_n = \frac{2}{n}$ . The CDF is given by:

$$F_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 5 - \frac{1}{n} \\ \frac{x - (5 - \frac{1}{n})}{2/n} & \text{if } 5 - \frac{1}{n} \leq x \leq 5 + \frac{1}{n} \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 5 + \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

### Step 3: Evaluate the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$

- **Case 1:  $x < 5$**

Since  $x < 5$ , let  $\delta = 5 - x > 0$ . We can choose an integer  $N$  such that  $\frac{1}{N} < \delta$ . For all  $n > N$ , we have  $\frac{1}{n} < 5 - x$ , which implies  $x < 5 - \frac{1}{n}$ . In this region,  $F_n(x) = 0$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = 0 = F_X(x).$$

- **Case 2:  $x > 5$**

Since  $x > 5$ , let  $\delta = x - 5 > 0$ . We can choose an integer  $N$  such that  $\frac{1}{N} < \delta$ . For all  $n > N$ , we have  $\frac{1}{n} < x - 5$ , which implies  $x > 5 + \frac{1}{n}$ . In this region,  $F_n(x) = 1$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = 1 = F_X(x).$$

### Conclusion:

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) = F_X(x)$  for all continuity points of  $F_X$  (i.e., for all  $x \neq 5$ ), we conclude that:

$$X_n \xrightarrow{d} 5.$$

**(b) Compute  $P(|X_n - 5| > \varepsilon)$  explicitly and show that it converges to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .**

We fix an arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We want to compute the probability that  $X_n$  falls outside the interval  $(5 - \varepsilon, 5 + \varepsilon)$ .

The probability density function (PDF) of  $X_n$  is:

$$f_n(x) = \frac{1}{2/n} = \frac{n}{2}, \quad \text{for } 5 - \frac{1}{n} \leq x \leq 5 + \frac{1}{n},$$

and 0 otherwise. The maximum distance of  $X_n$  from 5 is  $\frac{1}{n}$ , that is:

$$|X_n - 5| \leq \frac{1}{n}$$

We compare  $\frac{1}{n}$  with  $\varepsilon$ :

- **Case 1: Large  $n$  (specifically  $n \geq \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ )**

If  $n \geq \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ , then  $\frac{1}{n} \leq \varepsilon$ . The entire support interval  $[5 - \frac{1}{n}, 5 + \frac{1}{n}]$  is contained within  $[5 - \varepsilon, 5 + \varepsilon]$ . Therefore, the probability of  $X_n$  falling outside this range is 0.

$$P(|X_n - 5| > \varepsilon) = 0.$$

- **Case 2: Small  $n$  (specifically  $n < \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ )**

If  $n < \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ , then  $\frac{1}{n} > \varepsilon$ . Hence  $5 - \frac{1}{n} < 5 - \varepsilon$  and  $5 + \frac{1}{n} > 5 + \varepsilon$ .

The regions where  $|X_n - 5| > \varepsilon$  are:

$$\left[5 - \frac{1}{n}, 5 - \varepsilon\right) \cup \left(5 + \varepsilon, 5 + \frac{1}{n}\right]$$

The total length of these two regions is:

$$2 \times \left( \left(5 + \frac{1}{n}\right) - (5 + \varepsilon) \right) = 2 \left( \frac{1}{n} - \varepsilon \right).$$

Hence

$$P(|X_n - 5| > \varepsilon) = \frac{n}{2} \times 2 \left( \frac{1}{n} - \varepsilon \right) = n \left( \frac{1}{n} - \varepsilon \right) = 1 - n\varepsilon.$$

**Explicit Formula:**

$$P(|X_n - 5| > \varepsilon) = \begin{cases} 1 - n\varepsilon & \text{if } n < \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \geq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \end{cases}$$

**Convergence:**

To find the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we observe that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an integer  $N > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ . For all  $n > N$ , we are in "Case 1" above, where the probability is exactly 0.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|X_n - 5| > \varepsilon) = 0.$$

This confirms that  $X_n$  converges to 5 in probability ( $X_n \xrightarrow{p} 5$ ).

## Q8. Markov Chain - Hitting Probabilities

**Problem:** Consider a Markov chain with state space  $\mathcal{S} = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and transition matrix  $P$ :

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.9 & 0 \\ 0.2 & 0.6 & 0.2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let  $F_{ij}$  denote the probability of the Markov chain ever returning to (or hitting) state  $i$  having started in state  $j$ . Calculate  $F_{ii}$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$  and classify the states as transient or recurrent.

### State Transition Diagram

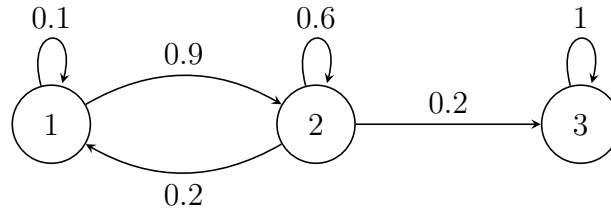


Figure 1: State Transition Diagram

### 0. General Formula Used

The probability of ever reaching a general state  $p$ , having started in the state  $q$  could be expressed in the following form:

$$F_{pq} = P_{qp} + \sum_{k \neq q} P_{pk} F_{qk}$$

### 1. Analysis of State 3 ( $F_{33}$ )

State 3 is an absorbing state because  $P_{33} = 1$ . Once the system enters state 3, it cannot leave.

$$F_{33} = P_{33} + \sum_{k \neq 3} P_{3k} F_{3k} = 1 + 0 = 1$$

**Conclusion:** Since  $F_{33} = 1$ , State 3 is **Recurrent**.

### 2. Analysis of State 1 ( $F_{11}$ )

We calculate the probability of returning to state 1 starting from state 1. We use First Step Analysis.

$$F_{11} = P_{11} \cdot 1 + P_{12} \cdot F_{12} + P_{13} \cdot F_{13}$$

Substituting values from matrix  $P$  (note that  $P_{13} = 0$ ):

$$F_{11} = 0.1 + 0.9F_{12} \quad (1)$$

Now we must calculate  $F_{12}$  (probability of hitting 1 starting from 2):

$$F_{12} = P_{21} \cdot 1 + P_{22} \cdot F_{12} + P_{23} \cdot F_{13}$$

Note that  $F_{13} = 0$  because if we enter state 3, we are absorbed and never reach state 1.

$$F_{12} = 0.2 + 0.6F_{12} + 0.2(0)$$

$$F_{12} = 0.2 + 0.6F_{12}$$

$$0.4F_{12} = 0.2$$

$$F_{12} = \frac{0.2}{0.4} = 0.5$$

Substitute  $F_{12} = 0.5$  back into Equation (1):

$$F_{11} = 0.1 + 0.9(0.5) = 0.1 + 0.45 = 0.55$$

**Conclusion:** Since  $F_{11} = 0.55 < 1$ , State 1 is **Transient**.

### 3. Analysis of State 2 ( $F_{22}$ )

We calculate the probability of returning to state 2 starting from state 2.

$$F_{22} = P_{22} \cdot 1 + P_{21} \cdot F_{21} + P_{23} \cdot F_{23}$$

Since state 3 is absorbing,  $F_{23} = 0$  (cannot return to 2 from 3).

$$F_{22} = 0.6 + 0.2F_{21} \quad (2)$$

Now we must calculate  $F_{21}$  (probability of hitting 2 starting from 1):

$$F_{21} = P_{12} \cdot 1 + P_{11} \cdot F_{21} + P_{13} \cdot 0$$

$$F_{21} = 0.9 + 0.1F_{21}$$

$$0.9F_{21} = 0.9$$

$$F_{21} = 1$$

Substitute  $F_{21} = 1$  back into Equation (2):

$$F_{22} = 0.6 + 0.2(1) = 0.8$$

**Conclusion:** Since  $F_{22} = 0.8 < 1$ , State 2 is **Transient**.

## Q9. Bayesian Estimation

### (a) Likelihood for the data

We first obtain the expression for likelihood. Let  $X_i$  be the random variable corresponding to sample  $x_i$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X_1, \dots, X_n | \Lambda}(x_1, \dots, x_n | \lambda^*) &= \prod_{i=1}^n f_{X_i | \Lambda}(x_i | \lambda^*) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda^* e^{-\lambda^* x_i} \\ &= (\lambda^*)^n e^{-\lambda^* \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}. \end{aligned}$$

The posterior distribution can be found using Bayes' rule:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\Lambda | X_1, \dots, X_n}(\lambda^* | x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \frac{f_{X_1, \dots, X_n | \Lambda}(x_1, \dots, x_n | \lambda^*) f_{\Lambda}(\lambda^*)}{f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \\ &= \frac{(\lambda^*)^n e^{-\lambda^* \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} \cdot \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} (\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta \lambda^*}}{\int_0^\infty f_{X_1, \dots, X_n | \Lambda}(x_1, \dots, x_n | \lambda) f_{\Lambda}(\lambda) d\lambda} \\ &= \frac{\frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} (\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*}}{\int_0^\infty \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \lambda^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda} d\lambda} \\ &= \frac{(\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*}}{\int_0^\infty \lambda^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda} d\lambda}. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda = t$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\Lambda | X_1, \dots, X_n}(\lambda^* | x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \frac{(\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*}}{\int_0^\infty \left( \frac{t}{\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} \right)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-t} \frac{1}{\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} dt} \\ &= \frac{(\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*}}{\frac{1}{(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^{\alpha+n}} \int_0^\infty t^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-t} dt}. \end{aligned}$$

We know that  $\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt$ :

$$f_{\Lambda | X_1, \dots, X_n}(\lambda^* | x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^{\alpha+n}}{\Gamma(\alpha + n)} (\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*}.$$

Which gives us  $\Lambda | X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha + n, \beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)$ .

### (b) MAP Estimate

To find the MAP estimate of  $\lambda^*$ :

$$\lambda_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\lambda^*} f_{\Lambda | X_1, \dots, X_n}(\lambda^* | x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Ignoring the variables independent of  $\lambda^*$ :

$$\lambda_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\lambda^*} (\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*}.$$

Differentiating the expression with respect to  $\lambda^*$  and setting it to zero to obtain the maximum point:

$$(\alpha - 1 + n)(\lambda^*)^{\alpha-2+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*} - (\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)(\lambda^*)^{\alpha-1+n} e^{-(\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \lambda^*} = 0$$

$$\lambda^* = \frac{\alpha - 1 + n}{\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}.$$

Thus our MAP estimate for  $\lambda^*$  is

$$\boxed{\lambda_{MAP} = \frac{\alpha - 1 + n}{\beta + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}}.$$



## Q10(a). Stationary vs Limiting Distribution

**Question:** Give an example of a 3-state Markov chain that has a stationary distribution but does not have a limiting distribution. Obtain its stationary distribution. (Hint: You saw a two-state example in class.)

Any correct example of a 3-state Markov chain that satisfies the conditions is acceptable, as long as it:

- clearly shows the transition structure,
- correctly finds a stationary distribution,
- and argues why there is no limiting distribution.

**Example solution:**

Consider the 3-state Markov chain with transition matrix

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This chain cycles through the states in order:  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1$ , repeatedly.

**Stationary distribution:**

Let  $\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3)$ . We need

$$\pi P = \pi, \quad \pi_1 + \pi_2 + \pi_3 = 1.$$

Computing,

$$\pi P = (\pi_3, \pi_1, \pi_2),$$

and setting  $\pi P = \pi$  gives

$$\pi_1 = \pi_2 = \pi_3.$$

Since they must sum to 1,

$$\pi = \left( \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right).$$

**Why there is no limiting distribution:**

Starting from  $(1, 0, 0)$ ,

$$(1, 0, 0)P^n = \begin{cases} (1, 0, 0), & n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}, \\ (0, 1, 0), & n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ (0, 0, 1), & n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

The distribution keeps rotating among the states and never converges to a single fixed distribution.

(b) Define the Mean square error of an estimator. Explain the bias-variance tradeoff.

## Solution

### 1. Definition of Mean Square Error (MSE)

Let  $\hat{\Theta}_n$  be a point estimator for an unknown parameter  $\theta^*$ . The Mean Square Error (MSE) of the estimator is defined as the expected value of the squared difference between the estimator and the true parameter:

$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}_n) = \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\Theta}_n - \theta^*)^2]$$

### 2. Bias-Variance Tradeoff

The MSE can be decomposed into two components: the variance of the estimator and the square of its bias. This decomposition represents the bias-variance tradeoff.

#### Derivation:

We expand the MSE term by adding and subtracting the expected value of the estimator,  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n]$  (analogous to the expansion used in the total variance identity in L25, Source 31):

$$\begin{aligned} MSE(\hat{\Theta}_n) &= \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\Theta}_n - \theta^*)^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\Theta}_n - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] + \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] - \theta^*)^2] \end{aligned}$$

Let  $A = \hat{\Theta}_n - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n]$  and  $B = \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] - \theta^*$ . Note that  $B$  is a constant (the Bias). Expanding the square:

$$= \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\Theta}_n - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n])^2] + (\mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] - \theta^*)^2 + 2(\mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] - \theta^*)\mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n]]$$

The last term vanishes because  $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n]] = \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] = 0$ .

Thus, we are left with:

$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}_n) = \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\Theta}_n - \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n])^2]}_{\text{Variance}} + \underbrace{(\mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}_n] - \theta^*)^2}_{\text{Bias}^2}$$

$$MSE(\hat{\Theta}_n) = Var(\hat{\Theta}_n) + [Bias(\hat{\Theta}_n)]^2$$

#### Explanation:

This equation shows that the error in estimation (MSE) comes from two sources:

- **Variance:** How spread out the estimator is around its expected value.
- **Bias:** The difference between the estimator's expected value and the true parameter  $\theta^*$  ( $Bias = \mathbb{E}[\hat{\Theta}] - \theta^*$ ).

The "tradeoff" implies that minimizing MSE often requires balancing these two; reducing bias might increase variance, and vice versa.