MODULE 5

SOME SPECIAL ABSOLUTELY CONTINUOUS DISTRIBUTIONS

LECTURE 21

Topics

5.1 UNIFORM OR RECTANGULAR DISTRIBUTION

5.1.1 Quantile function and uniform distribution

5.2 GAMMA AND RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

Lemma 1.1

Let *X* be a random variable having distribution function $F_X(\cdot)$ and quantile function $Q_X(\cdot)$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $p \in (0,1)$ and $0 < p_1 < p_2 < 1$. Then

- (i) $Q_X(F_X(x)) \le x$, provided $0 < F_X(x) < 1$;
- (ii) $F_X(Q_X(p)) \geq p$;
- (iii) $F_X(Q_X(p)) = p$, provided there exists an $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $F_X(x_0) = p$. In particular if $F_X(\cdot)$ is continuous then $F_X(Q_X(p)) = p$;
- (iv) $Q_X(p) \le x \Leftrightarrow F_X(x) \ge p$;
- (v) $Q_X(p) = F_X^{-1}(p)$, provided $F_X^{-1}(p)$ exists;
- (vi) $Q_X(p_1) \le Q_X(p_2)$.

Proof. For $p \in (0, 1)$, define

$$S_p = \{ s \in \mathbb{R} : F_X(s) \ge p \},$$

so that $Q_X(p) = \inf S_p$, $p \in (0, 1)$.

- (i) Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$ be such that $0 < F_X(x) < 1$. Then $x \in S_{F_X(x)} = \{s \in \mathbb{R}: F_X(s) \ge F_X(x)\}$ and, therefore, $x \ge \inf S_{F_X(x)} = Q(F_X(x))$, i.e., $Q_X(F_X(x)) \le x$.
- (ii) Let $p \in (0,1)$. Then $Q_X(p) = \inf S_p$. Thus there exists a sequence $\{t_n : n = 1,2,...\}$ in S_p such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} t_n = Q_X(p)$. Consequently $t_n \geq Q_X(p), n = 1,2,...$ and $F_X(t_n) \geq p, n = 1,2,...$ This implies that $\lim_{n\to\infty} F_X(t_n) \geq p$. Since $F_X(\cdot)$ is right continuous, $t_n \geq Q_X(p), n = 1,2,...$ and $\lim_{n\to\infty} t_n = Q_X(p)$, we get

$$F_X(Q_X(p)) = \lim_{n\to\infty} F_X(t_n) \ge p.$$

(iii) Let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ be such that $F_X(x_0) = p$. Then

$$x_0 \in S_p = \{ s \in \mathbb{R} : F_X(s) \ge p \}$$

 $\Rightarrow x_0 \ge \inf S_p = Q_X(p).$

Now using (ii) and the fact that $F_X(\cdot)$ is non-decreasing, we get

$$p = F_X(x_0) \ge F_X(Q_X(p)) \ge p$$

\Rightarrow F_X(Q_X(p)) = p.

Note that $\lim_{x\to-\infty} F_X(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x\to\infty} F_X(x) = 1$. Thus if $F_X(\cdot)$ is continuous then the intermediate value property of continuous functions implies that there exists an $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $F_X(x_0) = p \in (0,1)$ and therefore $F_X(Q_X(p)) = p$.

(iv) First suppose that $Q_X(p) = \inf S_p \le x$. Then, since $F_X(\cdot)$ is non-decreasing, we have

$$F_X(Q_X(p)) \le F_X(x)$$

 $\Rightarrow p \le F_X(x)$. (using (ii))

Now suppose that $F_X(x) \ge p$. Then $x \in S_p = \{s \in \mathbb{R}: F_X(s) \ge p\}$ and, therefore,

$$x \ge \inf S_p = Q_X(p).$$

(v) Since $p_1 < p_2$, we have

$$\begin{split} S_{p_2} &= \{s \in \mathbb{R} \colon F_X(s) \geq p_2\} \subseteq \{s \in \mathbb{R} \colon F_X(s) \geq p_1\} = S_{p_1} \\ &\Rightarrow S_{p_2} \subseteq S_{p_1} \\ &\Rightarrow Q_X(p_1) = \inf S_{p_1} \leq \inf S_{p_2} = Q_X(p_2). \ \blacksquare \end{split}$$

Theorem 1.3

Let X be a random variable with distribution function $F_X(\cdot)$ and quantile function $Q_X(\cdot)$.

- (i) (*Probability Integral Transformation*) If the random variable X is of continuous type then $Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} F_X(X) \sim U(0,1)$;
- (ii) Let $U \sim U(0,1)$. Then $Z \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Q_X(U) \stackrel{d}{=} X$.

Proof.

(i) Let $G(\cdot)$ be the d.f. of $Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} F_X(X)$, i.e.,

$$G(y) = P({F_X(X) \le y}), y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Clearly, for y < 0, G(y) = 0 and, for $y \ge 1$, G(y) = 1. Now suppose that $y \in (0,1)$. By Lemma 1.1 (iv) we have

$${s \in \mathbb{R}: F_X(s) \ge y} = {s \in \mathbb{R}: s \ge Q_X(y)}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(\lbrace F_X(X) \ge y \rbrace) = P(\lbrace X \ge Q_X(y) \rbrace)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(\lbrace F_X(X) < y \rbrace) = P(\lbrace X < Q_X(y) \rbrace)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(\lbrace F_X(X) < y \rbrace) = P(\lbrace X \le Q_X(y) \rbrace). \text{ (since } F_X(\cdot) \text{ is continuous) (1.4)}$$

Since $F_X(\cdot)$ is continuous $\{x \in \mathbb{R}: F_X(x) = y\} = [x_1, x_2]$, for some real numbers x_1 and x_2 such that $-\infty < x_1 \le x_2 < \infty$ (see Figures 1.5 (a) & (b)).

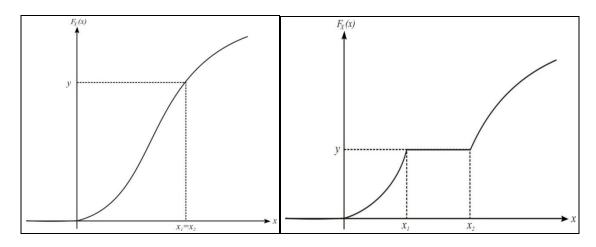


Figure 1.5 (a)

Figure 1.5 (b)

Thus, for $y \in (0, 1)$,

$$P(\{F_X(X) = y\}) = P(\{x_1 \le X \le x_2\})$$

$$= F_X(x_2) - F_X(x_1)$$

$$= y - y = 0.$$
(1.5)

Using (1.4), (1.5) and Lemma 1.1 (iii) we get, for $y \in (0, 1)$,

$$G(y) = P(\{F_X(X) \le y\}) = P(\{F_X(X) < y\}) = P(\{X \le Q_X(y)\}) = y.$$

Also right continuity of d.f. $G(\cdot)$ implies that

$$G(0) = \lim_{x \downarrow 0} G(x) = \lim_{x \downarrow 0} x = 0.$$

Therefore we have

$$G(y) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } y < 0 \\ y, & \text{if } 0 \le y < 1, \\ 1, & \text{if } y \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

i. e.,
$$Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} F_X(X) \sim U(0, 1)$$
.

(ii) Let $U \sim U(0,1)$, so that $P(\{U \le u\}) = u$, $\forall u \in [0,1]$ and $P(\{0 < U < 1\}) = 1$. Then the d.f. of $Z \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Q_X(U)$ is $H(z) = P(\{Z \le z\})$ $= P(\{Q_X(U) \le z\})$ $= P(\{Q_X(U) \le z, 0 < U < 1\}) \text{ (since } P(\{0 < U < 1\}) = 1)$ $= P(\{F_X(z) \ge U, 0 < U < 1\}) \text{ (using Lemma 1.1 (iv))}$ $= P(\{U \le F_X(z)\})$ $= F_X(z), \quad z \in \mathbb{R}$

Remark 1.3

The above theorem provides a method to generate observations from any arbitrary distribution using observations from U(0,1) distribution. Suppose that we require an observation X from a distribution having known d.f. $F(\cdot)$ and quantile function $Q(\cdot)$. To do so, the above theorem suggests that, generate an observation U from the U(0,1) distribution and take X = Q(U).

Example 1.2

Using a random observation $U \sim U(0,1)$, describe a method to generate a random observation X from the distribution having

(i) probability density function

 $\Rightarrow Z \stackrel{d}{=} X$.

$$f(x) = \frac{e^{-|x|}}{2}, -\infty < x < \infty;$$

(ii) probability mass function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{n - x}, & \text{if } x \in \{0, 1, ..., n\}, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\theta \in (0, 1)$ are real constants.

Solution.

(i) For x < 0, we have

$$F(x) = P(\lbrace X \le x \rbrace)$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{x} f_X(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{e^{t}}{2} dt$$
$$= \frac{e^{x}}{2},$$

and, for $x \ge 0$, we have

$$F(x) = P(\lbrace X \leq x \rbrace)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{x} f_X(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{0} f_X(t) dt + \int_{0}^{x} f_X(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{e^t}{2} dt + \int_{0}^{x} \frac{e^{-t}}{2} dt$$

$$= 1 - \frac{e^{-x}}{2}.$$

Thus the d.f. of *X* is given by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^x}{2}, & \text{if } x < 0\\ 1 - \frac{e^{-x}}{2}, & \text{if } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

and the q.f. of X is given by

$$Q(p) = F^{-1}(p) = \begin{cases} \ln(2p), & \text{if } 0$$

Using Theorem 1.3 (ii) the desired random observation is given by

$$X = Q(U) = \begin{cases} \ln(2U), & \text{if } 0 < U < \frac{1}{2} \\ -\ln(2(1-U)), & \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \le U < 1 \end{cases}.$$

The distribution function of X is given by (ii)

The distribution function of
$$X$$
 is given by
$$G(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x < 0 \\ \sum_{j=0}^{k} {n \choose j} \theta^j (1-\theta)^{n-j}, & \text{if } k \le x < k+1; \ k = 0, 1, ..., n-1, \\ 1, & \text{if } x \ge n \end{cases}$$
and the quantile function of X is given by

and the quantile function of X is given by

$$Q(p) = \inf\{s \in \mathbb{R}: G(s) \ge p\}$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } 0$$

Now, using Theorem 1.3 (ii), the desired random observation is given by

$$X = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } 0 < U \le (1 - \theta)^n \\ k, & \text{if } \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{j} \theta^j (1 - \theta)^{n-j} < U \le \sum_{j=0}^{k} \binom{n}{j} \theta^j (1 - \theta)^{n-j} ; \\ k = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1 \\ n, & \text{if } \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{j} \theta^j (1 - \theta)^{n-j} < U < 1 \end{cases}$$

5.2 GAMMA AND RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

We begin this section with the definition of gamma function.

Definition 2.1

The function $\Gamma:(0,\infty)\to(0,\infty)$, defined by,

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int\limits_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$
, $\alpha > 0$

is called the gamma function. \blacksquare

To examine convergence of the integral

$$\int\limits_0^\infty e^{-t}t^{lpha-1}dt$$
 , $lpha\in\mathbb{R}$,

consider the following cases.

Case I $\alpha \leq 0$

In this case the integral

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

will converge if, and only if, both the integrals

$$\int_{0}^{1} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt \text{ and } \int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

converge. Note that, for $\alpha \leq 0$,

$$e^{-t}t^{\alpha-1} \ge \frac{t^{\alpha-1}}{e}$$
, $\forall t \in (0,1)$

and the integral

$$\int_{0}^{1} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

diverges. This implies that, for $\alpha \leq 0$, the integral

$$\int_{0}^{1} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

diverges. Consequently the integral

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

diverges for $\alpha \leq 0$.

Case II $0 < \alpha < 1$

In this case again the integral

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

will converge if, and only if, both the integrals

$$\int_{0}^{1} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt \text{ and } \int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

converge. Note that, for $\alpha > 0$,

$$0 \le e^{-t}t^{\alpha-1} \le t^{\alpha-1}, \quad \forall t \in (0,1)$$

and the integral

$$\int_{0}^{1} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

is convergent. Therefore the integral

$$\int\limits_{0}^{1}e^{-t}t^{\alpha-1}dt$$

is convergent for any $\alpha > 0$.

Now let us examine the convergence of the integral

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt.$$

Fix $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and choose $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $k_0 > \alpha$. Then we know that

$$e^t \ge \frac{t^{k_0}}{k_0!} \ , \qquad \forall t > 0$$

$$\Longrightarrow 0 \leq e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} \leq \frac{k_0!}{t^{k_0-\alpha+1}}, \ \forall t>0.$$

Also $k_0 - \alpha + 1 > 1$ and, therefore, the integral

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{t^{k_0 - \alpha + 1}} dt$$

converges. Consequently

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha - 1} dt$$

converges for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. From the above discussion it follows that the integral

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

converges for $0 < \alpha < 1$.

Case III $\alpha \ge 1$

In this case the integral

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

will converge if, and only if, the integral

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

converges. We have seen in the Case II above that the integral

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

converges for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

On combining cases I – III we conclude that the integral

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

converges if, and only if, $\alpha > 0$.

Using integration by parts, for $\alpha > 0$, we have

$$\Gamma(\alpha+1) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha} dt$$
$$= \left[-e^{-t} t^{\alpha} \right]_{0}^{\infty} + \alpha \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{\alpha-1} dt$$

$$=\alpha\int_0^\infty\!e^{-t}t^{\alpha-1}dt$$
 i. e.,
$$\boxed{\Gamma(\alpha+1)=\alpha\;\Gamma(\alpha),\;\;\alpha>0.}$$

Note that

$$\Gamma(1) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} dt = 1.$$
 (2.2)

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, using (2.1) and (2.2), we have

$$\Gamma(n+1) = n \Gamma(n) = n(n-1) \Gamma(n-1) = \dots = n(n-1) \dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \Gamma(1) = n!$$
 (2.3)

On combining (2.1), (2.2) and (2.3) we get

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$
(2.4)

with the convention that 0! = 1.

We have

$$\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{-1/2} dt$$

$$= 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})\right)^{2} = 4 \left[\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} dx\right] \left[\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-y^{2}} dy\right]$$

$$= 4 \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-(x^{2} + y^{2})} dx dy.$$

On making the transformation $x = r \cos \theta$ and $y = r \sin \theta$ in the above integral (so that the Jacobian of the transformation is r), we have

$$\left(\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})\right)^2 = 4 \int_0^\infty \int_0^{\pi/2} re^{-r^2} d\theta dr$$

$$= 2\pi \int_{0}^{\infty} re^{-r^{2}} dr$$

$$= \pi \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} dt$$

$$= \pi.$$

Since

$$\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{1/2-1} dt \ge 0,$$

we get

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi} \tag{2.5}$$

Also, using (2.1),

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2},$$

and

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{5}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2^2} \sqrt{\pi},$$

In general

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{2n+1}{2}\right) = \frac{1\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdots (2n-1)}{2^n}\sqrt{\pi}, \qquad n\in\mathbb{N},$$
(2.6)

i.e., for $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{2n+1}{2}\right) = \frac{(2n)!}{n! \, 4^n} \sqrt{\pi}, \qquad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$
(2.7)