

Review Session Notes

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1 Probability Theory Exercise 1

1. For multiple random variables, pairwise independence does not imply joint independence: Let X, Y be independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter $\frac{1}{2}$, and $Z = X \oplus Y$. $P(X = 1, Y = 1, Z = 1) = 0$ (See 1-1)
2. Using formulas of conditional probability $P(A|B)$, Bayes formula, addition formula for disjoint event and multiplication formula for independent events. (See 1-2, 1-3, 2-1)
3. omit
4. Given a finite sample space Ω and a subset $C \subset 2^\Omega$, compute the size of the σ -field generated from C , written as $\sigma(C)$. The general formula for $C = \{A_1, \dots, A_k\}$ is 2^k if $\cup_{i=1}^k A_i = \Omega$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$. (See 1-4¹)
 - (a) $\sigma(C) = 16$. Notice that $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TT, TH\}$ which is equivalent with $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Further $A = \{1, 2\}$, $B = \{1, 4\}$, $C = \{A, B\}$. Then $|\sigma(C)| = |\sigma(\{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}\})| = 2^4 = 16$.
 - (b) $\Omega = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$ which is equivalent to $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$, $C = \{\{1, 2, 7\}, \{1, 6, 7\}, \{1, 2, 6\}\}$ $|\sigma(C)| = |\sigma(\{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{6\}, \{7\}, \{3, 4, 5, 8\}\})| = 2^5 = 32$.
5. BC-Lemma proof technique, definition of $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n := \cap_{k=1}^{\infty} \cup_{n \geq k} A_n$. $\mathbb{P}(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} \cup_{n=i}^{\infty} A_n) = 1$. Proof: From the condition $\mathbb{P}(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = 1$ follows $\mathbb{P}(\cap_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n^c) = 0$. Since $\{A_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is an independent sequence, we have $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n^c) = 0$. Since $\mathbb{P}(A_n) < 1$, $\mathbb{P}(A_n^c) > 0$. Then for any i , $\prod_{n=i}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_n^c) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(\cap_{n=i}^{\infty} A_n^c) = 0$. The probability $\mathbb{P}(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \cap_{n=i}^{\infty} A_n^c) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(\cap_{n=i}^{\infty} A_n^c) = 0$. Taking the complement we get $\mathbb{P}(\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} \cup_{n=i}^{\infty} A_n) = 1$ at last.
6. Definition of random variables, mapping from $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies additional condition: If X_1, X_2, \dots are random variables, and X_n converges pointwise to X , show that $X_1 + X_2, X$ are also random variables.

¹exercise 1, 4th problem

- (a) Since $\{w|X_1(w) + X_2(w) < c\} = \bigcup_{r \in \mathbb{Q}} \{w|X_1(w) > r\} \cap \{w|X_2(w) < c - r\}$ is F-measurable, $X_1 + X_2$ is a random variable.
- (b) $\{w|\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n(w) \leq c\} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \bigcap_{j=i}^{\infty} \{w|X_n(w) < c + \frac{1}{n}\}$ is F-measurable $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$ is a random variable.

2 Probability Theory Exercise 2

1. omit

2. Maximum entropy distribution.

- (a) Using the log sum inequality we have $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log \frac{p_i}{C r^{x_i}} \geq 0$, which is equivalent to $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log p_i \geq \log C + \mu \log r = \sum_{i=1}^n C r^{x_i} \log(C r^{x_i})$, since C, r satisfy the two constraints $\sum_{i=1}^n C r^{x_i} = 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n C r^{x_i} x_i = \mu$.

Another method: using Lagrange multiplier to minimize $\sum_{k=1}^n p_k \log p_k - \lambda_1 (\sum_{k=1}^n p_k - 1) - \lambda_2 (\sum_{k=1}^n p_k x_k - \mu)$. Taking the partial derivative on p_k , we get $p_k = \exp(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 x_k + 1)$. Let $C = \exp(\lambda_1 + 1)$ and $r = e^{\lambda_2}$. we get the required distribution $p_k = C r^{x_k}$.

- (b) $p_i = C r^i$, which has the same PMF as the geometric distribution. Let p be the parameter of the geometric distribution. Then we have $\mu = \frac{1}{p}$, $C = \frac{p}{1-p} = \frac{1}{\mu-1}$ and $r = 1 - p = 1 - \frac{1}{\mu}$.

3. Series sum, using $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \sim \log n + \gamma$.

- (a) Let the partial sum $T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{i}$. Also we define $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n}$. Then we can show that $T_{2n} = S_{2n} - S_n$. Using the asymptotic form for harmonic series, we have $S_n \sim \log n + \gamma$ where γ is the Euler constant. Therefore, $T_{2n} \sim \log(2n) - \log n = \log 2$. That is $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{i} = \log 2$.

- (b) Using similar method as above, let $F_{3n} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\frac{1}{2i-1} - \frac{1}{4i} - \frac{1}{4i-2})$. We will show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{3n} = \frac{1}{2} \log 2$. It is obvious that $F_{3n} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\frac{1}{2i-1} - \frac{1}{2i}) = \frac{1}{2} T_n$. Using conclusion from (a) we reach the conclusion.

- (c) $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = \infty$.

4. higher order moments for geometric and Poisson distribution. For geometric distribution, we have $\mathbb{E}[(X-1)^k | X > 1] = \mathbb{E}[X^k]$; For Poisson distribution, we have $\mathbb{E}[X(X-1) \dots (X-k)] = \lambda^{k+1}$. If $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$. we already know that $\mathbb{E}[X] = \frac{1}{p}$, $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \frac{2-p}{p^2}$. For third order moment,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X^3] &= P(X=1) \mathbb{E}[X^3 | X=1] + P(X>1) \mathbb{E}[X^3 | X>1] \\ &= p + (1-p)(\mathbb{E}[(X-1)^3 | X>1] + 3\mathbb{E}[(X-1)^2 | X>1] + 3\mathbb{E}[(X-1) | X>1] + 1) \\ &= p + (1-p)(\mathbb{E}[X^3] + \frac{3(2-p)}{p^2} + \frac{3}{p} + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Solving the equation we can get $\mathbb{E}[X^3] = \frac{p^2+6-6p}{p^3}$. For Poisson distribution, we already known that $\mathbb{E}[X] = \lambda, \mathbb{E}[X^2] = \lambda^2 + \lambda$. Using the formula $\mathbb{E}[X(X-1)(X-2)] = \lambda^3$ we can solve out $\mathbb{E}[X^3] = \lambda^3 + 3\lambda^2 + \lambda$.

5. Using Stirling's formula, $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$.

$\beta_0 = \frac{1}{2}$. Let A represents the event that no collision happens. Then $P(A) = \frac{(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{n^{k-1}}$. We analyze the asymptotic behaviour of $P(A)$ by Stirling's formula as follows: $P(A) = \frac{n!}{n^k(n-k)!} \sim \frac{(n/e)^n}{n^k((n-k)/e)^{n-k}}$. We can write $\frac{(n/e)^n}{n^k((n-k)/e)^{n-k}} = \frac{1}{\exp(k+(n-k)\log(1-\frac{k}{n}))} = \frac{1}{\exp((n+k)k^2/(2n^2)+O(k^3/n^2))}$. If $\beta < \frac{1}{2}$, $k^2 < n$ and $P(A) \rightarrow 1$. Otherwise $P(A) \rightarrow 0$.

Another method. We can write $P(A)$ as $\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{n-i}{n}$, $P(A)$ converges to 1 or 0 is equivalent to the series $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log(1 - \frac{i}{n})$ converges to 0 or diverges to $-\infty$. To analysis the series, we use the inequality $x - \frac{x^2}{2} < \log(1+x) < x$ for $x < 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} -\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{i}{n} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{i^2}{2n^2}\right) &< \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log(1 - \frac{i}{n}) < -\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{i}{n} \\ \Rightarrow -\left(\frac{k(k-1)}{2n} + O(\frac{k^3}{n^2})\right) &< \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log(1 - \frac{i}{n}) < -\frac{k(k-1)}{2n} \end{aligned}$$

Since $k = \lceil n^\beta \rceil$, $\frac{k(k-1)}{2n} \sim \frac{1}{2}n^{2\beta-1}$. When $\beta < \frac{1}{2}$, both the upper bound and lower bound of $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \log(1 - \frac{i}{n})$ converge to 0, which corresponds to $P(A) = 1$. On the other hand, when $\beta > \frac{1}{2}$, both sides diverge to $-\infty$.

6. Cauchy criterion.

(a) The recursive formula is

$$f(m) = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^6 f(m-i) \quad (1)$$

so that we get $f(2020) \approx 0.286$ by computer program.

(b) The complement of the event $\exists n, \text{s.t. } S_n = m$ is $\exists n, \text{s.t. } S_n < m \wedge S_{n+1} \geq m$, which can be further decomposed into 5 events: $S_n = m-j+1 \wedge X_{n+1} \geq j$ for $j = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$. Therefore, we have the following equation: $1 - f(m) = \sum_{j=1}^5 \frac{6-j}{6} f(m-j)$. Taking the limit $m \rightarrow \infty$ on both sides we have $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} f(m) = \frac{2}{7}$.

(c) Let $f(0) = 1$. Then $f(6)$ satisfies the recursive formula (1). Since $0 \leq f(m) \leq 1$, then $\max_m |f(m-j) - f(m)| \leq 1$ for $m \geq 0$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, 5$. Using the recursive formula, first we have $|f(m) - f(m-j)| = \frac{1}{6} |\sum_{i=1}^6 [f(m-i) - f(m-j)]| \leq \frac{5}{6}$ for $m \geq 6$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, 5$. Then we have $|f(m) - f(m-j)| = \frac{1}{6} |\sum_{i=1}^6 [f(m-i) - f(m-j)]|$

$|f(m) - f(m-j)| \leq (\frac{5}{6})^j$ for $m \geq 12$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, 5$. Recursively we have $|f(m) - f(m-j)| \leq (\frac{5}{6})^{\lfloor m/6 \rfloor}$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, 5$. Then $|f(m+n) - f(m)| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |f(m+i) - f(m+i-1)| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (\frac{5}{6})^{\lfloor (m+i)/6 \rfloor} \leq 6 \frac{1}{1-(5/6)} (\frac{5}{6})^{\lfloor (m+1)/6 \rfloor} = 36(\frac{5}{6})^{\lfloor (m+1)/6 \rfloor}$. By Cauchy's convergence test, $f(m)$ converges.

Another proof, analysis of complex root (linear difference equation). The characteristic equation of (1) is $6z^6 = 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + z^4 + z^5$. We will show that this equation has only one root whose norm is 1, and the norm of all other roots is less than 1. Then $f(n)$ will converge to a constant. For $|z| > 1$, we have $|\frac{1}{z}| < 1$, by triangular inequality $|\frac{1}{z} + \dots + \frac{1}{z^6}| < |\frac{1}{z}| + \dots + |\frac{1}{z^6}| < 6$. Therefore, $\frac{1}{z} + \dots + \frac{1}{z^6} \neq 6$ and $|z| > 1$ is not a root of $6z^6 = 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + z^4 + z^5$. On the other hand, multiplying the equation on both sides by $z-1$ we have $6z^7 - 7z^6 + 1 = 0$. Assume $z = e^{i\theta}$ for some $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$ is a root of this transformed equation, we will show that $\theta = 0$. Indeed, we can write the equation system of the real part and the imaginary part as

$$6 \cos 7\theta - 7 \cos 6\theta + 1 = 0$$

$$6 \sin 7\theta = 7 \sin 6\theta$$

Using the identity $\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t = 1$ to cancel 7θ , we have $\cos 6\theta = 1$ and $\sin 7\theta = 0$, which only allows $\theta = 0$. Finally, we verify that $z = 1$ is not duplicate roots of $6z^6 = 1 + z + z^2 + z^3 + z^4 + z^5$ by verifying that $z = 1$ is not a root of $36z^5 = 1 + 2z + 3z^2 + 4z^3 + 5z^4$ (derivative).

3 Probability Theory Exercise 3

1. Without the positive constraint, MCT does not hold. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P) = ([0, 1], \mathcal{B}, \lambda)$ where \mathcal{B} is the Borel σ -algebra and λ is the Lebesgue measure. Let $X_n(w) = \frac{-1}{nw}$ for $w \in (0, 1]$. Then $\mathbb{E}[X_n] = -\infty$ while $X_n \rightarrow X = 0$, whose expectation is zero. (See 3-1)
2. (a) $c = \frac{1}{2\pi}$.
 (b) When k is odd, $E[X^k] = 0$. When $k = 2m$ for $m = 2, 4, \dots$, using the Beta function $B(x, y) = \int_0^1 t^{x-1}(1-t)^{y-1}dt$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E[X^k] &= c \int_{-2}^2 x^{2m} \sqrt{4-x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^1 x^{2m} \sqrt{4-x^2} dx \\ &= 2^{2m+1} \int_0^1 t^{m-\frac{1}{2}} (1-t)^{1/2} dt &= \frac{2^{2m+1}}{\pi} B(m + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}) \\ &= \frac{2^{m+1}(2m-1)!!}{(m+1)!} &= \frac{2}{m+1} \frac{(2m)!}{(m!)^2} \end{aligned}$$

3. Make induction on n . Lemma 5 of [1]. For $n = 1$, $P(X \geq k) \geq P(Y \geq k)$ obviously holds. If the conclusion holds for $n = m$, then for $n = m + 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m+1} X_i \geq k\right) &= P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \geq k, X_{m+1} = 0\right) + P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \geq k-1, X_{m+1} = 1\right) \\ &= P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \geq k\right) + P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i = k-1\right)P(X_{m+1} = 1) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m+1} Y_i \geq k\right) = P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i \geq k\right) + P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i = k-1\right)P(Y_{m+1} = 1)$$

If $P(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i = k-1) \geq P(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i = k-1)$, then using induction for $n = m$ we have $P(\sum_{i=1}^{m+1} X_i \geq k) \geq P(\sum_{i=1}^{m+1} Y_i \geq k)$. Otherwise,

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m+1} X_i \geq k\right) - P\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m+1} Y_i \geq k\right) &= P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \geq k\right) - P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i \geq k\right) \\ &\quad + P(X_{m+1} = 1)(P(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i = k-1) - P(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i = k-1)) \\ &\geq P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \geq k\right) - P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i \geq k\right) + (P(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i = k-1) - P(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i = k-1)) \\ &= P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_i \geq k-1\right) - P\left(\sum_{i=1}^m Y_i \geq k-1\right) \stackrel{(a)}{\geq} 0 \end{aligned}$$

where (a) also follows from the deduction of $n = m$.

4. Multivariate change of variables
5. Calculus
6. Gaussian Orthogonal Ensemble. The joint probability distribution is

$$p(y_1, y_2) = c|y_1 - y_2| \exp\left(-\frac{y_1^2 + y_2^2}{4}\right) \quad (2)$$

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 & X_3 \\ X_3 & X_2 \end{bmatrix}$, the characteristic equation of A is $\det(A - \lambda I) = (X_1 - \lambda)(X_2 - \lambda) - X_3^2 = 0$.

Y_1 and Y_2 are two roots of this equation, we get $\begin{cases} Y_1 + Y_2 = X_1 + X_2 \\ Y_1 Y_2 = X_1 X_2 - X_3^2 \end{cases}$.

Also, $\begin{cases} Y_1 + Y_2 = X_1 + X_2 \\ (Y_1 - Y_2)^2 = 4((\frac{X_1 - X_2}{2})^2 + X_3^2) \end{cases}$. We have $X_1 \sim N(0, 2)$, $X_2 \sim$

$N(0, 2), X_3 \sim N(0, 1)$.
 So, $(X_1 + X_2) \sim N(0, 4)$, $\frac{X_1 - X_2}{2} \sim N(0, 1)$.
 $(\frac{X_1 - X_2}{2})^2 \sim \chi^2(1), X_3^2 \sim \chi^2(1), ((\frac{X_1 - X_2}{2})^2 + X_3^2) \sim \chi^2(2) = \text{Exp}(\frac{1}{2})$.

We define $\begin{cases} Z_1 = Y_1 + Y_2 = X_1 + X_2 \\ 4Z_2 = (Y_1 - Y_2)^2 = (X_1 - X_2)^2 + X_3^2 \end{cases}$. Then, $Z_1 \sim N(0, 4)$ and $Z_2 \sim \text{Exp}(\frac{1}{2})$. Since $\mathbb{E}[(X_1 - X_2)(X_1 + X_2)] = 0$, both $X_1 - X_2, X_1 + X_2$ follow Gaussian distribution, $X_1 - X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 + X_2 \Rightarrow Z_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp Z_2$.
 Let $Z_3 = Y_1 - Y_2$. Then for $z < 0$, $P(Z_3 < z) = \frac{1}{2}P(Z_2 > z^2/4) = \int_{z^2/4}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{4}e^{-u/2}du$. Taking the derivative on both sides, we have $f_3(z) = -\frac{z}{8}\exp(-\frac{z^2}{8})$ where f_3 is the pdf of Z_3 . Similarly, for $z > 0$ we have $f_3(z) = \frac{z}{8}\exp(-\frac{z^2}{8})$. Therefore, the pdf of Z_3 is $f_3(z) = \frac{|z|}{8}\exp(-\frac{z^2}{8})$.
 $Z_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp Z_2 \Rightarrow Z_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp Z_3$. Now we consider the transformation from (Z_1, Z_3) to (Y_1, Y_2) . The determinant of the Jacobian matrix is $|J| = \left| \frac{\partial(z_1, z_3)}{\partial(y_1, y_2)} \right| = 2$.
 Finally, we get

$$\begin{aligned} f_{Y_1, Y_2}(y_1, y_2) &= f_{Z_1, Z_3}(y_1 + y_2, y_1 - y_2) |J| \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(y_1 + y_2)^2}{8}} \frac{1}{8} |y_1 - y_2| e^{-\frac{(y_1 - y_2)^2}{8}} 2 \\ &= \frac{1}{8\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{y_1^2 - y_2^2}{4}} |y_1 - y_2| \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Another method, the eigenvalue decomposition of $\begin{pmatrix} X_1 & X_3 \\ X_3 & X_2 \end{pmatrix}$ is given by:

$$\begin{pmatrix} X_1 & X_3 \\ X_3 & X_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 & 0 \\ 0 & Y_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

After expansion, we have

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= Y_1 \cos^2 \theta + Y_2 \sin^2 \theta \\ X_2 &= Y_1 \sin^2 \theta + Y_2 \cos^2 \theta \\ X_3 &= (Y_1 - Y_2) \sin \theta \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

The absolute value of the determinant of the transformation matrix is given by

$$\left| \frac{\partial(x_1, x_2, x_3)}{\partial(y_1, y_2, \theta)} \right| = f(\theta) |y_1 - y_2|$$

Therefore, the distribution of (Y_1, Y_2, θ) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_1, y_2, \theta) &= c' f(\theta) |y_1 - y_2| \exp\left(-\frac{(y_1 \cos^2 \theta + y_2 \sin^2 \theta)^2 + (y_1 \sin^2 \theta + y_2 \cos^2 \theta)^2}{4}\right) \\ &\quad \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta (y_1 - y_2)^2}{2}\right) \\ &= c' f(\theta) |y_1 - y_2| \exp\left(-\frac{y_1^2 + y_2^2}{4}\right) \end{aligned}$$

where c' is a constant. After integration of θ over $[0, 2\pi]$, we can get the marginal distribution for (y_1, y_2) in (2).

4 Probability Theory Exercise 4

1. (a) If $s = 0$, $M_X(s) = 1$. Below we show that $M_X(s) = +\infty$. For any $s > 0$, we can find M satisfying $M > t$ and $e^{sx/2} > x^2$ for $x > M$. Then $M_X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{t}{t^2 + x^2} e^{sx} dx \geq \frac{t}{2\pi} \int_M^\infty \frac{e^{sx}}{x^2} dx \geq \frac{t}{2\pi} \int_M^\infty \frac{e^{sx/2}}{x^2} dx = +\infty$. Similar proof can be made for $s < 0$.
 (b) My answer is yes. The symmetric log-normal distribution satisfies the two conditions. Let $X = e^{-Z} + e^Z$ where Z is standard normal distribution. Then $E[X^n] = e^{-n^2/2} + e^{n^2/2}$, which is finite. On the other hand, $M_X(s) = +\infty$ for any $s \neq 0$.
 2. (a) From $\log x \leq x - 1$, we have $e^{tx-k} \geq \frac{t^k x^k}{k^k}$. Taking the expectation on both sides, $M_X(t)e^{-k} \geq \frac{t^k}{k^k} \mathbb{E}[X^k]$. Let $t = a > 0$. We then have $\mathbb{E}[X^k] \leq (\frac{k}{ae})^k M_X(a) < +\infty$.
 (b) We use the same inequality $e^{tx-k} \geq \frac{t^k x^k}{k^k}$ as (a) but we let $t = a - s > 0$, we then have $e^{ax-k} \geq e^{sx} x^k (\frac{a-s}{k})^k$. Taking the expectation on both sides, we have $\mathbb{E}[X^k e^{sX}] \leq (\frac{k}{(a-s)e})^k M_X(a) < \infty$.
 (c) Let $t = hX \geq 0$, then it is equivalent to show $e^t - 1 \leq te^t$, which is obvious from the inequality $1 - t \leq e^{-t}$.
 (d) From (c), $(e^{hX} - 1)/h$ is bounded by Xe^{hX} , which is an integrable function for sufficiently small $h < a$ from (b). Therefore, we can apply DCT and get the desired result.
 3. The existence of the limit follows from L'Hospital's rule.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x e^{x^2/(2\sigma^2)} P(X \geq x) &= x e^{x^2/(2\sigma^2)} \int_x^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-u^2/(2\sigma^2)} du \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_x^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-u^2/(2\sigma^2)} du}{e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}/x} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}}{(-x^2 e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)})/\sigma^2 - e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}/x^2} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sigma^2 x^2}{x^2 + \sigma^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Another method relies on integral by parts:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x e^{x^2/(2\sigma^2)} \int_x^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-u^2/(2\sigma^2)} du &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} x e^{x^2/(2\sigma^2)} \left(\int_x^{+\infty} \frac{\sigma^2}{u} d e^{-u^2/(2\sigma^2)} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(1 - x e^{x^2/(2\sigma^2)} \int_x^{+\infty} \frac{1}{u^2} e^{-u^2/(2\sigma^2)} du \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

The last time is $o(1)$. Therefore, the limit value is $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$.

4. (i) Let the CDF of X_1 be $F(x)$, PDF of X_1 be $f(x)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) = X_1) &= P(X_i \geq X_1, i = 2, \dots, n) \\
&= \int_{x_i \geq x_1, i=2, \dots, n} f(x_1)f(x_2) \dots f(x_n) dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_n \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x_1) dx_1 \left[\int_{x_1}^{+\infty} f(x_2) dx_2 \right]^{n-1} \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x_1)(1 - F(x_1))^{n-1} dx_1 \\
&= \int_0^1 (1 - u)^{n-1} du = \frac{1}{n}
\end{aligned}$$

- (ii) For Bernoulli random variables, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) = X_1) &= P(X_i \geq X_1, i = 2, \dots, n) \\
&= P(X_1 = 1, X_2 = 1, \dots, X_n = 1) + P(X_1 = 0) \\
&= 1 - p + p^n
\end{aligned}$$

- (iii) When X_i follows exponential distribution parameterized by λ_i , we have $F_i(x) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda_i x)$ and $f_i(x) = \lambda_i \exp(-\lambda_i x)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
P(\min(X_1, \dots, X_n) = X_1) &= P(X_i \geq X_1, i = 2, \dots, n) \\
&= \int_{x_i \geq x_1, i=2, \dots, n} f_1(x_1)f_2(x_2) \dots f_n(x_n) dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_n \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_1(x_1) dx_1 \left[\prod_{i=2}^n \int_{x_1}^{+\infty} f_i(x) dx \right] \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_1(x) \prod_{i=2}^n (1 - F_i(x)) dx \\
&= \lambda_1 \int_0^{+\infty} \exp(-x \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i) dx = \frac{\lambda_1}{\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i}
\end{aligned}$$

5. We claim that $\beta_0 = \sqrt{2}$. Consider $P(X \leq \beta\sqrt{\log n})$, which equals $P(X_1 \leq \beta\sqrt{\log n})^n$.

$$\begin{aligned}
P(X_1 \leq \beta\sqrt{\log n})^n &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\beta\sqrt{\log n}} e^{-x^2/2} dx \right)^n \\
&= \exp\left(n \log \left(1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\beta\sqrt{\log n}}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx \right)\right)
\end{aligned}$$

From Problem 3, we have $\int_x^\infty e^{-u^2/2} du \sim \frac{\exp(-x^2/2)}{x}$. The integral $\int_{\beta\sqrt{\log n}}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx$ can be approximated by $\frac{n^{-\beta^2/2}}{\beta\sqrt{\log n}}$. Therefore, $P(X \leq \beta\sqrt{\log n}) \sim \exp(-n^{1-\beta^2/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \log n} \beta})$. When $\beta \geq \beta_0 = \sqrt{2}$, $P(X \leq \beta\sqrt{\log n}) \rightarrow 1$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X \geq \beta\sqrt{\log n}) = 0$ holds; When $\beta < \beta_0 = \sqrt{2}$, $P(X \leq \beta\sqrt{\log n}) \rightarrow 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X \geq \beta\sqrt{\log n}) = 1$ holds.

6. We will derive a recursive formula for $\text{Var}[X_n]$. First we have $\mathbb{E}[X_n] = \mu^n$. Let W_1 follow the offspring distribution. Using the law of total variance, we have $\text{Var}[X_n] = \mathbb{E}[\text{Var}[X_n|X_{n-1}]] + \text{Var}[\mathbb{E}[X_n|X_{n-1}]]$. The random variable $X_n|X_{n-1}$ has mean $X_{n-1} \mathbb{E}[W_1]$, variance $X_{n-1} \text{Var}[W_1]$. Therefore, $\text{Var}[X_n] = \mathbb{E}[X_{n-1}] \text{Var}[W_1] + \text{Var}[X_{n-1}] \mathbb{E}[W_1]^2 = \sigma^2 \mu^{n-1} + \mu^2 \text{Var}[X_{n-1}]$, with the initial condition $\text{Var}[X_0] = 0$. As a result,

$$\text{Var}[X_n] = \begin{cases} n\sigma^2 & \mu = 1 \\ \sigma^2 \mu^{n-1} \frac{\mu^n - 1}{\mu - 1} & \mu \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

References

- [1] Ye, Min. "Exact recovery and sharp thresholds of Stochastic Ising Block Model." arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.05944 (2020).