Lecture 37: Dec 4

Last time

• Expectation

Today

- Course Evaluations (9/33)
- Transformations

Bivariate Transformation

Functions of random variables Let (X, Y) be a bivariate rv with known distributions. Define (U, V) by

$$U = g_1(X, Y), \quad V = g_2(X, Y)$$

Probability mapping For any Borel set $B \subset \mathbb{R}^2$,

$$\Pr[(U, V) \in B] = \Pr[(X, Y) \in A]$$

where A is the inverse mapping of B, such that

$$A = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : (g_1(x, y), g_2(x, y)) \in B\}.$$

The inverse is well defined even if the mapping is not bijective.

Example Let
$$g_1(x, y) = x, g_2(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$
.

Discrete RVs Suppose that (X,Y) is a discrete rv, i.e., the pmf is positive on a countable set \mathcal{A} . Then (U,V) is also discrete and takes values on a countable set \mathcal{B} . Define

$$A_{u,v} = \{(x,y) \in \mathcal{A} : g_1(x,y) = u, g_2(x,y) = v\}$$

Then

$$f_{UV}(u,v) = \Pr(U = u, V = v) = \sum_{(x,y) \in A_{u,v}} f_{XY}(x,y)$$

Sum of two independent Poissons Let $X \sim Poisson(\lambda_1)$, $Y \sim Poisson(\lambda_2)$, independent, and define

$$U = X + Y, \quad V = Y$$

- (X,Y) takes values in $\mathcal{A} = \{0,1,2,\ldots\} \times \{0,1,2,\ldots\}$
- (U, V) takes values on $\mathcal{B} = \{(u, v) : v = 0, 1, 2, \dots, u = v, v + 1, v + 2, \dots\}.$
- For a particular (u, v), $A_{uv} = \{(x, y) \in \mathcal{A} : x + y = u, y = v\} = (u v, u)$.

The joint pmf of U and V is

$$f_{UV}(u,v) = f_{XY}(u-v,v) = \frac{e^{-\lambda_1} \lambda_1^{u-v}}{(u-v)!} \frac{e^{-\lambda_2} \lambda_2^v}{(v)!}$$

The distribution of U = X + Y is the marginal

$$f_U(u) = \sum_{v=0}^u \frac{e^{-\lambda_1} \lambda_1^{u-v}}{(u-v)!} \frac{e^{-\lambda_2} \lambda_2^v}{(v)!}$$
$$= \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}}{u!} \sum_{v=0}^u {u \choose v} \lambda_1^{u-v} \lambda_2^v$$
$$= \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}}{u!} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^u$$

We obtain that U is Poisson with parameter $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$.

Bivariate Transformations of Continuous RVs Suppose (X, Y) is continuous and the joint transformation

$$u = g_1(x, y), \quad v = g_2(x, y)$$

is one-to-one and differentiable. Define the inverse mapping

$$x = h_1(u, v), \quad y = h_2(u, v)$$

Then

$$f_{UV}(u,v) = f_{XY}(h_1(u,v), h_2(u,v)) ||J(u,v)||$$

where J(u,v) is the Jacobian of the transformation $(x,y) \to (u,v)$ given by

$$J(u,v) = \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: Rotation of a bivariate normal vector Let $X \sim N(0,1), Y \sim N(0,1)$, independent. Define the rotation

$$U = X \cos \theta - Y \sin \theta$$
$$V = X \sin \theta + Y \cos \theta$$

for fixed θ . Then $U \sim N(0,1), V \sim N(0,1)$, independent.

Proof:

The range of (X,Y) is \mathbb{R}^2 . The range of (U,V) is \mathbb{R}^2 . Need the inverse transformation

$$X = U \cos \theta + V \sin \theta$$
$$Y = -U \sin \theta + V \cos \theta$$

with Jacobian

$$J(u,v) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

and its determinant is

$$|J(u,v)| = 1.$$

The joint pdf of (X, Y) is

$$f_{XY}(x,y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-(x^2+y^2)/2}$$

The joint pdf of (U, V) is

$$f_{UV}(u,v) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\left[(u\cos\theta + v\sin\theta)^2 + (-u\sin\theta + v\cos\theta)^2\right]/2} \cdot |1|$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-(u^2 + v^2)/2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-v^2/2}$$

so $U \sim N(0,1)$, $V \sim N(0,1)$, and U and V are independent.

Functions of independent random variables (Theorem 4.3.5) Let X and Y be independent rvs. Let $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $h: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be functions. Then the random variables U = g(X) and V = h(Y) are independent.

Sum of two independent rvs Suppose X and Y are independent. What is the distribution of Z = X + Y? In general:

$$F_Z(z) = \Pr(X + Y \leqslant z) = \Pr(\{(x, y) \text{ such that } x + y \leqslant z\})$$

Various approaches:

- bivariate transformation method (continuous and discrete)
- Discrete convolution

$$f_Z(z) = \sum_{x+y=z} f_X(x) f_Y(y) = \sum_x f_X(x) f_Y(z-x)$$

- Continuous convolution (Section 5.2)
- MGF method (continuous and discrete)

Example (Sum of two independent Poissons) Define X, Y to be two independent random variables having Poisson distributions with parameters λ_i , i = 1, 2. Then:

$$f_{X,Y}(x,y) = \frac{e^{-\lambda_1} \lambda_1^x}{x!} \frac{e^{-\lambda_2} \lambda_2^y}{y!}, x, y = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

The distribution of S = X + Y is

$$f_S(s) = \sum_{x=0}^s \frac{e^{-\lambda_1} \lambda_1^x}{x!} \frac{e^{-\lambda_2} \lambda_2^{s-x}}{(s-x)!}$$
$$= \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}}{s!} \sum_{x=0}^s \binom{s}{x} \lambda_1^x \lambda_2^{s-x}$$
$$= \frac{e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)}}{s!} (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^s$$

Again, S is Poisson with parameter $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$.

Moment generating function (Theorem 4.2.12) Let X and Y be independent rvs with mgfs $M_X(\cdot)$ and $M_Y(\cdot)$, respectively. Then the mgf of Z = X + Y is

$$M_Z(t) = M_X(t)M_Y(t)$$

Proof:

$$M_Z(t) = E \exp(Zt) = E\{\exp[(X+Y)t]\}$$

= $E[\exp(Xt)\exp(Yt)] = E[\exp(Xt)] \cdot E[\exp(Yt)]$
= $M_X(t)M_Y(t)$

Corollary: If X and Y are independent and Z = X - Y,

$$M_Z(t) = M_X(t)M_Y(-t)$$

Example (sum of two independent Poissons) Suppose $X \sim Poisson(\lambda_X)$ and $Y \sim Poisson(\lambda_Y)$ and put Z = X + Y. Then, $Z \sim Poisson(\lambda_X + \lambda_Y)$. Proof:

$$M_Z(t) = \exp \left[\lambda_X(e^t - 1)\right] \exp \left[\lambda_Y(e^t - 1)\right]$$
$$= \exp \left[(\lambda_X + \lambda_Y)(e^t - 1)\right]$$

Example (sum of two independent normals) Suppose $X \sim N(\mu_x, \sigma_x^2)$ and $Y \sim N(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$ and X and Y are independent and Z = X + Y. Then

$$Z \sim N(\mu_x + \mu_y, \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)$$

Proof:

$$M_Z(t) = \exp\left(\mu_x t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_x^2 t^2\right) \exp\left(\mu_y t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma_y^2 t^2\right)$$
$$= \exp\left[(\mu_x + \mu_y)t + \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2)t^2\right]$$

Example (sum of two independent gammas) Suppose $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha_x, \beta)$ and independently $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha_y, \beta)$. Let Z = X + Y. Then $Z \sim \Gamma((\alpha_x + \alpha_y), \beta)$. *Proof:*

$$M_Z(t) = \left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta t}\right)^{\alpha_x} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta t}\right)^{\alpha_y}$$
$$= \left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta t}\right)^{\alpha_x + \alpha_y}$$

Remember that

- If $\alpha = 1$ we have an exponential with parameter β .
- If $\alpha = n/2$ and $\beta = 2$, we have a $\chi^2(n)$ (with n d.f.). The above result states that $\chi^2(n_1) + \chi^2(n_2) = \chi^2(n_1 + n_2)$.

Covariance and Correlation Let X and Y be two random variables with respective means μ_X , μ_Y and variances $\sigma_X^2 > 0$ and $\sigma_Y^2 > 0$, all assumed to exist.

• The *covariance* of X and Y is

$$Cov(X, Y) = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = \sigma_{XY}$$

 \bullet The *correlation* between X and Y is

$$Cor(X,Y) = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$$

also written as

$$\rho_{XY} = \frac{\sigma_{XY}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = E\left[\left(\frac{X - \mu_X}{\sigma_X} \right) \left(\frac{Y - \mu_Y}{\sigma_Y} \right) \right]$$

Properties Let c be a constant:

1.
$$Cov(X, X) = Var(X),$$
 $Cor(X, X) = 1$

2.
$$Cov(X, Y) = Cov(Y, X),$$
 $Cor(X, Y) = Cor(Y, X)$

3.
$$Cov(X,c) = 0$$
, $Cor(X,c) = 0$

4.
$$Cov(X,Y) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

5. Let $X_c = X - \mu_X$, $Y_c = Y - \mu_Y$. Then

$$Cov(X, Y) = Cov(X_c, Y_c) = E(X_cY_c)$$

 $Cor(X, Y) = Cor(X_c, Y_c)$

6. Let $\tilde{X} = (X - \mu_X)/\sigma_X$, $\tilde{Y} = (Y - \mu_Y)/\sigma_Y$. Then,

$$Cor(X,Y) = Cor(\tilde{X},\tilde{Y}) = Cov(\tilde{X},\tilde{Y}) = E(\tilde{X}\tilde{Y})$$

Independent vs. Uncorrelated

• X and Y are called uncorrelated iff

$$Cov(X,Y) = 0$$
 or equivalently $\rho_{XY} = 0$

- If X and Y are independent and Cov(X,Y) exists, then Cov(X,Y) = 0.
- If X and Y are uncorrelated, this does **not** imply that they are independent.

Example $X \sim U[-1,1], Y = X^2$. Then Cov(X,Y) = 0 but X,Y are not independent.

Correlation coefficient For any random variables X and Y,

- 1. $-1 \le \rho_{XY} \le 1$
- 2. $|\rho_{XY}| = 1$ if and only if $\exists a \neq 0$ and b such that

$$\Pr(Y = aX + b) = 1.$$

if $\rho_{XY} = 1$ then a > 0, and if $\rho_{XY} = -1$, then a < 0.

proof:

Let
$$\tilde{X} = (X - \mu_X)/\sigma_X$$
, $\tilde{Y} = (Y - \mu_Y)/\sigma_Y$. Then $Cor(X, Y) = E(\tilde{X}\tilde{Y})$,

1.

$$0 \leqslant E(\tilde{X} - \tilde{Y})^2 = 1 + 1 - 2E(\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}) \implies E(\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}) \leqslant 1$$
$$0 \leqslant E(\tilde{X} + \tilde{Y})^2 = 1 + 1 + 2E(\tilde{X}\tilde{Y}) \implies -1 \leqslant E(\tilde{X}\tilde{Y})$$

2.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \rho_{XY} = 1 \iff \Pr(\tilde{Y} = \tilde{X}) = 1 & \Rightarrow & a > 0 \\ \rho_{XY} = -1 \iff \Pr(\tilde{Y} = -\tilde{X}) = 1 & \Rightarrow & a < 0 \end{array}$$

Random Samples

Definition The random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n are called a random sample of size n from the population f(x) if X_1, \ldots, X_n are mutually independent and identically distributed (iid) random variables with the same pdf or pmf f(x).

If X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid, then their joint pdf or pmf is

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1)f(x_2)\dots f(x_n) = \prod_{j=1}^n f(x_j)$$

Statistics Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be a random sample and let $T(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ be a function defined on \mathbb{R}^n . Then the random variable $Y = T(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ is called a *statistic*. The probability distribution of Y is called the *sampling distribution* of Y.

Note: T is only a function of (x_1, \ldots, x_n) , no parameters.

Examples

sample mean
$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_j$$

sample variance $S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_j - \bar{X})^2$
sample standard deviation $S = \sqrt{S^2}$
minimum $X_{(1)} = \min_{1 \leq i \leq n} X_i$

Properties Let x_1, \ldots, x_n be n numbers and define

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j, \quad s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \bar{x})^2$$

Then

$$\min_{a} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - a)^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \bar{x})^2$$
$$(n-1)s^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_j - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j^2 - n\bar{x}^2$$

Residuals Lemma: Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be a random sample from a population with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Define the residuals $R_i = X_i - \bar{X}$. Then

$$E(R_i) = 0$$
, $Var(R_i) = \frac{n-1}{n}\sigma^2$
 $Cov(R_i, \bar{X}) = 0$, $Cov(R_i, R_j) = -\sigma^2/n$ if $i \neq j$

Theorem Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be a random sample from a population with mgf $M_X(t)$. Then the mgf of the sample mean is

$$M_{\bar{X}}(t) = \left[M_X(t/n) \right]^n$$

Convergence

Convergence in Probability A sequence of random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n converges in probability to a random variable X, denoted

$$X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$$

if for every $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr(|X_n - X| < \epsilon) = 1$$

or equivalently

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

In other words, X_n is more and more likely to be close to X, or less and less likely to be far from X.

Example Let $X_n = X + \epsilon_n$, where $\epsilon_n \sim N(0, 1/n)$ and X is an arbitrary random variable. Then, as $n \to \infty$,

$$X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$$

Weak law of large numbers (WLLN) Let Y_1, \ldots, Y_n be iid with common mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then, as $n \to \infty$,

$$\bar{Y}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} Y_j \stackrel{p}{\to} \mu$$

Proof:

The proof is quite simple, being a straightforward application of Chebychev's Inequality. We have, for every $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\Pr(|\bar{Y}_n - \mu| \ge \epsilon) = \Pr(|\bar{Y}_n - \mu|^2 \ge \epsilon^2) \le \frac{E(\bar{Y} - \mu)^2}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{Var(\bar{Y})}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n\epsilon^2} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

Convergence in Distribution A sequence of random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n converges in distribution to a random variable X, denoted

$$X_N \stackrel{d}{\to} X$$

if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{X_n}(x) = F_X(x)$$

This is also called *convergence in law* or *weak convergence*. In other words, the distribution of X_n is closer and closer to the distribution of X.

Relation between "in distribution" and "in probability" Theorem:

1. Convergence in probability implies convergence in distribution:

$$X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X \Rightarrow X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$$

2. Suppose $X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} X$ where X has a degenerate distribution, i.e. $\Pr\{X = a\} = 1$ for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$X_n \stackrel{d}{\to} a \Rightarrow X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} a$$

Convergence in Distribution via Convergence of Mgfs Theorem: Suppose the mgf $M_n(t)$ of Y_n exists for |t| < h, and the mgf M(t) of Y exists for $|t| < h_1 < h$. Then,

$$Y_n \stackrel{d}{\to} Y \iff \lim_{n \to \infty} M_n(t) = M(t), \quad |t| < h_1$$

Example Let $X_{\lambda} \sim Poisson(\lambda)$. Then, as $\lambda \to \infty$,

$$\frac{X_{\lambda} - \lambda}{\lambda} \stackrel{p}{\to} 0$$

$$\frac{X_{\lambda} - \lambda}{\sqrt{\lambda}} \stackrel{d}{\to} N(0, 1)$$

Central Limit Theorem Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n be a sequence of iid random variables whose mgfs exist in a neighborhood of 0 (that is, $M_{X_i}(t)$ exists for |t| < h, for some positive h > 0). Let $EX_i = \mu$ and $Var(X_i) = \sigma^2 > 0$. (Both μ and σ^2 are finite since the mgf exists) Define $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$. Let $G_n(x)$ denote the cdf of $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma$. Then, for any $x, -\infty < x < \infty$,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} G_n(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2} dy;$$

that is, $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma$ has a limiting standard normal distribution, in other words, $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1)$

Proof:

Define $Y_i = (X_i - \mu)/\sigma$, and let $M_Y(t)$ denote the common mgf of Y_i s, which exists for $|t| < \sigma h$ and $M_Y(t) = M_{\frac{1}{\sigma}X_i - \mu/\sigma}(t) = e^{-\frac{\mu}{\sigma}t} M_X(\frac{t}{\sigma})$. Since

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i,$$

we have,

$$M_{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)/\sigma}(t) = M_{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i/\sqrt{n}}(t)$$
$$= M_{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i}(t/\sqrt{n})$$
$$= \left[M_Y(t/\sqrt{n})\right]^n.$$

We now expand $M_Y(t/\sqrt{n})$ in a Taylor series (power series) around 0.

$$M_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} M_Y^{(k)}(0) \frac{(t/\sqrt{n})^k}{k!},$$

where $M_Y^{(k)}(0) = (d^k/dt^k)M_Y(t)|_{t=0}$. Since the mgfs exist for |t| < h, the power series expansion is valid if $t < \sqrt{n}\sigma h$.

Using the facts that $M_Y^{(0)} = 1$, $M_Y^{(1)} = 0$, and $M_Y^{(2)} = 1$ (by construction, the mean and variance of Y are 0 and 1), we have

$$M_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) = 1 + \frac{(t/\sqrt{n})^2}{2!} + R_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}),$$

where R_Y is the remainder term in the Taylor expansion such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{R_Y(t/\sqrt{n})}{(t/\sqrt{n})^2} = 0.$$

Therefore, for any fixed t, we can write

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left[M_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) \right]^n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[1 + \frac{(t/\sqrt{n})^2}{2!} + R_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) \right]^n$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[1 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{t^2}{2} + nR_Y(\frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) \right) \right]^n$$
$$= e^{t^2/2}$$