

1. Question: Basic Inequalities (*very elementary*)

Let X be an exponential random variable with parameter $\lambda = 12$, i.e. with density

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 12e^{-12x}, & x \geq 0, \\ 0, & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- 1.1. Use Markov's inequality to find an upper bound for $P(X > 6)$.
- 1.2. Use Chebyshev's inequality to find an upper bound for $P(X > 6)$.
- 1.3. Explicitly compute the probability above and compare with the upper bounds you derived.

Solution:

1.1.

$$P(X > 6) \leq \frac{E[X]}{6} = \frac{1}{72}.$$

1.2. From Chebyshev's inequality, we have

$$P(|X - E[X]| > t) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{t^2}.$$

Then

$$P(X > 6) \leq P\left(\left|X - \frac{1}{12}\right| > 6 - \frac{1}{12}\right) \leq \frac{\text{Var}(X)}{(71/12)^2} = \frac{1}{71^2}.$$

1.3.

$$P(X > 6) = \int_6^\infty 12e^{-12x} dx = 1 - e^{-12x} \Big|_6^\infty = e^{-72} \approx 5.3801862e - 32.$$

We notice that the exact probability is much smaller than the upper bounds we derived in **1.1** and **1.2**, but that is not completely fine! The nature of upper bounds is to find expressions that will *always* be larger than what they are bounding, even in "extreme" cases.

2. Question: Transformations of Several Random Variables (*elementary*)

2.1. Let X and Y be independent random variables with cumulative distribution functions F_X and F_Y , respectively. Show that the cumulative distribution function of $X + Y$ is

$$F_{X+Y}(t) = \int F_Y(t-x) d\mathbb{P}_X(x). \quad (\star)$$

2.2. The concept of **2.1** is also referred to as *convolution*. Specifically write out the pmf and pdf of $X + Y$ when X and Y are discrete and continuous RVs, respectively.

Hint: You may use that in (\star) , integration and differentiation are interchangeable by the dominated convergence theorem and mean value theorem.

2.3. Let X be a uniform distribution on $[0, 1]$, i.e. $f_X(x) = \frac{1}{1-0} \mathbb{1}_{x \in [0,1]}$, and Y be a uniform distribution on $[1, 2]$, i.e. $f_Y(x) = \frac{1}{2-1} \mathbb{1}_{x \in [1,2]}$. Find f_Z for $Z := X + Y$.

2.4. Determine the cdf of the random variable $Z := \min\{X, Y\}$ for independent random variables X and Y . What does the pdf look like if X and Y are continuous?

Solution:

2.1. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X+Y}(t) &= \int_{x+y \leq t} d\mathbb{P}_X(x) d\mathbb{P}_Y(y) \\ &= \int \left(\int_{y \leq t-x} d\mathbb{P}_Y(y) \right) d\mathbb{P}_X(x) \\ &= \int F_Y(t-x) d\mathbb{P}_X(x), \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality follows from Fubini's theorem.

2.2. For continuous X and Y :

$$\begin{aligned} f_{X+Y}(t) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F_{X+Y}(t) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int F_Y(t-x) d\mathbb{P}_X(x) \stackrel{\text{Hint}}{=} \int_{x \in \Omega_X} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f_X(x) F_Y(t-x)) dx \stackrel{(*)}{=} \int_{x \in \Omega_X} f_X(x) f_Y(t-x) dx \end{aligned}$$

Where $(*)$ follows from the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} F_Y(t-x) = f_Y(t-x) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (t-x) = f_Y(t-x) \cdot 1 = f_Y(t-x).$$

For discrete X and Y , $(*)$ of course still holds, but since the pmf is not defined as the derivative of the cdf, getting from the formula for $F_{X+Y}(t)$ to the formula for $p_{X+Y}(t)$ is not straightforward. So, we take the direct approach:

$$\begin{aligned} p_{X+Y}(t) &= \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \mathbb{P}(X=x, Y=t-x) \stackrel{\text{Independence}}{=} \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} \mathbb{P}(X=x) \mathbb{P}(Y=t-x) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p_X(x) p_Y(t-x). \end{aligned}$$

Note that this corresponds nicely to the following result of $(*)$ in the discrete case:

$$F_{X+Y}(t) = \sum_{x \in \Omega_X} p_X(x) F_Y(t-x).$$

2.3. Using the formula from **2.1.**, or rather **2.2**,

$$\begin{aligned} f_Z(t) &= \int_0^1 f_X(x) f_Y(t-x) dx \\ &= \int_0^1 f_Y(t-x) dx = \int_0^1 1_{t-x \in [1,2]} dx = \int_0^1 1_{x \in [t-2, t-1]} dx \end{aligned}$$

The last integral follows from the following: $t-x \in [1, 2]$ when $2 \geq t-x \geq 1$, which implies $t-1 \geq x \geq t-2$. When $t \in [1, 2]$, x can only be in $[t-2, t-1] \cap [0, 1]$ if $x \in [0, t-1]$.

Therefore, we get

$$f_Z(t) = \begin{cases} t-1 & t \in [1, 2] \\ 3-t & t \in [2, 3] \end{cases}.$$

2.4.

$$\begin{aligned} F_Z(z) &= \mathbb{P}(Z \leq z) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(Z > z) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(\min\{X, Y\} > z) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(X > z, Y > z) \\ \text{because of independence} &= 1 - (1 - F_X(z))(1 - F_Y(z)) \\ &= F_X(z) + F_Y(z) - F_X(z)F_Y(z). \end{aligned}$$

If f_X, f_Y are the densities of continuous X, Y with cdfs $F_X(z), F_Y(z)$, then taking the derivative yields:

$$f_X(z) + f_Y(z) - f_X(z)F_Y(z) - F_X(z)f_Y(z).$$

3. Question: Convergence of Random Variables (*elementary*)

3.1. Consider a sequence of random variables $(X_n : n \in \mathbb{N})$ such that $X_n \xrightarrow{L^p} X$, then $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$.

3.2. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be IID with finite mean $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X_1)$ and finite variance $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{V}(X_1)$. Let \bar{X}_n be the sample mean and let S_n^2 be the sample variance.

(i) Show that $\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu$ and $\mathbb{E}(S_n^2) = \sigma^2$. (You may use that $E(\bar{X}^2) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \mu^2$.)

(ii) Show that $S_n^2 \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2$. *Hint: Show that $S_n^2 = c_n n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - d_n \bar{X}_n^2$ where $c_n \rightarrow 1$ and $d_n \rightarrow 1$. Apply the law of large numbers to $n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2$ and to \bar{X}_n . Then use part (e) of Theorem 11.1.*

3.3. Let X_1, X_2, \dots be a sequence of random variables such that

$$\mathbb{P}\left(X_n = \frac{1}{n}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{n^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Does X_n converge in probability? Does X_n converge in L^2 ?

3.4. Construct an example where $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$ and $Y_n \rightsquigarrow Y$ but $X_n + Y_n$ does not converge in distribution to $X + Y$.

Solution:

3.1. Let $\epsilon > 0$, then from the Markov's inequality applied to random variable $|X_n - X|^p$, we have

$$P\{|X_n - X| > \epsilon\} \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}|X_n - X|^p}{\epsilon^p} \rightarrow 0.$$

3.2. (i) First,

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum X_i\right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{1}{n} n \mu = \mu$$

Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} E(s_n^2) &= \frac{1}{n-1} E\left(\sum X_i^2 + \sum \bar{X}^2 - 2 \underbrace{\sum X_i \bar{X}}_{n \bar{X}^2}\right) \\ &= \frac{n}{n-1} (E(X_i^2) - E(\bar{X}^2)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{Hint and } E(X_i^2) = \sigma^2 + \mu^2}{\Rightarrow} E(S_n^2) = \frac{n}{n-1} \left(\sigma^2 + \mu^2 - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} - \mu^2\right) = \sigma^2.$$

(ii)

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \underbrace{\frac{n}{n-1}}_{c_n} \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i^2 - \underbrace{\frac{n}{n-1}}_{d_n} \bar{x}^2$$

With $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_n = 1$ and the LLN, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{X}_n &\xrightarrow{P} \mu \Rightarrow \bar{X}_n^2 \xrightarrow{P} \mu^2 \\ &\Rightarrow d_n \bar{X}_n^2 \xrightarrow{P} \mu^2 \\ \bar{Y}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i^2 &\xrightarrow{P} E(x_i^2) \Rightarrow Y_n \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2 + \mu^2 \\ &\Rightarrow c_n Y_n \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2 + \mu^2\end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned}s_n^2 &= c_n Y_n - d_n \bar{X}_n^2 \\ &\Rightarrow s_n^2 \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2 + \mu^2 - \mu^2 \\ &\Rightarrow s_n^2 \xrightarrow{P} \sigma^2.\end{aligned}$$

- 3.3.** • X_n does converge in probability, specifically $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$, because

$$\mathbb{P}(|X_n| > \varepsilon) \text{ as } \frac{1}{n} \text{ becomes } \leq \varepsilon \text{ for } n \rightarrow \infty \mathbb{P}(X_n = n) = \frac{1}{n^2} \rightarrow 0.$$

- Given that convergence in L^p implies convergence in probability, we only need to check whether $X_n \xrightarrow{P} 0$. Since,

$$\begin{aligned}E(X_n^2) &= \mathbb{P}(X = \frac{1}{n}) \frac{1}{n^2} + \mathbb{P}(X = n) n^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right) + n^2 \frac{1}{n^2} \rightarrow 1,\end{aligned}$$

however, this is not the case and, therefore, X_n does not converge in L^2 .

- 3.4.** An example would be any X_1, X_1, \dots distributed i.i.d. according to a symmetric distribution \mathcal{D} (such as standard normal $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$) and Y_n defined as

$$Y_n := -X_n.$$

Then, both $X_n \rightsquigarrow Z \sim \mathcal{D}$ and $Y_n \rightsquigarrow Z \sim \mathcal{D}$, but $X_n + Y_n = 0 \neq 2Z$.

4. Question: Miscellaneous Probability Theory (slightly more advanced)

- 4.1.** Let X be a random variable with $\mathbb{E}[X]^2 < \infty$ and let $Y = |X|$. Suppose that X has a Lebesgue density symmetric about 0. Show that X and Y are uncorrelated (i.e. $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}Y = 0$), but they are not independent.
- 4.2.** Show that a random variable X is independent of itself if and only if X is constant a.s. Can X and $f(X)$ be independent, where f is a Borel function?
- 4.3.** Let X be a random variable having a cumulative distribution function F with corresponding probability measure \mathbb{P} . Show that if $\mathbb{E}[X]$ exists, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_0^\infty [1 - F(x)] dx - \int_{-\infty}^0 F(x) dx.$$

Solution:

- 4.1.** Let f be the Lebesgue density of X . Then $f(x) = f(-x)$. Since X and $XY = X|X|$ are odd functions of X , $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[X|X|] = 0$. Hence,

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y] = E(X|X|) - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[|X|] = 0$$

Let t be a positive constant such that $p = P(0 < X < t) > 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} P(0 < X < t, Y < t) &= P(0 < X < t, -t < X < t) \\ &= P(0 < X < t) \\ &= p \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} P(0 < X < t)P(Y < t) &= P(0 < X < t)P(-t < X < t) \\ &= 2P(0 < X < t)P(0 < X < t) \\ &= 2p^2 \end{aligned}$$

i.e., $P(0 < X < t, Y < t) \neq P(0 < X < t)P(Y < t)$. Hence X and Y are not independent.

- 4.2.** • Suppose that $X = c$ a.s. for a constant $c \in \mathcal{R}$. For any $A \in \mathcal{B}$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$,

$$P(X \in A, X \in B) = I_A(c)I_B(c) = P(X \in A)P(X \in B)$$

Hence X and X are independent. Suppose now that X is independent of itself. Then, for any $t \in \mathcal{R}$,

$$P(X \leq t) = P(X \leq t, X \leq t) = [P(X \leq t)]^2$$

This means that $P(X \leq t)$ can only be 0 or 1. Since $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P(X \leq t) = 1$ and $\lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} P(X \leq t) = 0$, there must be a $c \in \mathcal{R}$ such that $P(X \leq c) = 1$ and $P(X < c) = 0$. This shows that $X = c$ a.s.

- Note that if X and $f(X)$ are independent, then so are $f(X)$ and $f(X)$. This is the case because, for any $A, B \in \mathcal{B}$

$$X, f(X) \text{ independent} \implies \mathbb{P}(X \in A, f(X) \in B) = \mathbb{P}(X \in A)\mathbb{P}(f(X) \in B)$$

Now, define the set $A := f^{-1}(C) := \{x : f(x) \in C\}$ for an arbitrary set $C \in \mathcal{B}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(f(X) \in C, f(X) \in B) &= \mathbb{P}(X \in A, f(X) \in B) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(X \in A)\mathbb{P}(f(X) \in B) = \mathbb{P}(f(X) \in C)\mathbb{P}(f(X) \in B). \end{aligned}$$

From the previous result, this occurs if and only if $f(X)$ is constant a.s.

- 4.3.** By Fubini's theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty [1 - F(x)]dx &= \int_0^\infty \int_{(x, \infty)} d\mathbb{P}(y)dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \int_{(0, y)} dx d\mathbb{P}(y) \\ &= \int_0^\infty y d\mathbb{P}(y) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 F(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 \int_{(-\infty, x]} d\mathbb{P}(y)dx = - \int_{-\infty}^0 y d\mathbb{P}(y)$$

If $\mathbb{E}[X]$ exists, then at least one of $\int_0^\infty y d\mathbb{P}(y)$ and $\int_{-\infty}^0 y d\mathbb{P}(y)$ is finite and

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^\infty y d\mathbb{P}(y) = \int_0^\infty [1 - F(x)]dx - \int_{-\infty}^0 F(x)dx.$$

If you have any questions or feedback, please feel free to contact me via E-mail at hannah.kuempel@stat.uni-muenchen.de!!

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