STAT/MTHE 353: 3 – Some Special Distributions

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Joint pmf of multinomial random variables

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• Let $x_1, \ldots, x_r \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ such that $x_1 + \cdots + x_r = n$. Then

 $P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_r = x_r) = C_n p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \cdots p_r^{x_r}$

where C_n is the number of sequences of outcomes of length n that have x_1 outcomes of type 1, x_2 outcomes of type 2,..., x_r outcomes of type r.

• Let's use the generalized counting principle: There are $\binom{n}{x_1}$ ways of choosing the x_1 positions for type 1 outcomes. For each such choice, there are $\binom{n-x_1}{x_2}$ ways of choosing the x_2 positions for type 2 outcomes, ... For each choice of the positions of the type $1 \dots r-1$ objects there are $\binom{n-x_1-\dots-x_{r-1}}{x_r} = 1$ ways of choosing the x_r positions for type r outcomes.

Multinomial Distribution

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- Consider an experiment with r possible outcomes such that the probability of the *i*th outcome is p_i , i = 1, ..., r, where $p_1 + p_2 + \cdots + p_r = 1$ (generalization of a Bernoulli trial).
- Repeat the experiment *independently* n times and let

 $X_i = \#$ of outcomes of type i in the n trials

- The random variables (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_r) are said to have a *multinomial distribution* with parameters n and (p_1, \ldots, p_r) .
- Note that all the X_i take nonnegative integer values and $X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_r = n$.

Thus

$$C_n = \binom{n}{x_1} \binom{n-x_1}{x_2} \cdots \binom{n-x_1-\dots-x_{r-1}}{x_r}$$
$$= \frac{n!}{x_1!x_2!\cdots x_r!}$$
$$= \binom{n}{x_1,x_2,\dots,x_r}$$
(multinomial coefficient)

We obtain

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_r = x_r) = \binom{n}{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \cdots p_r^{x_r}$$

for any $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_r \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ with $x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n = n$.

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• Noting that $X_r = n - \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} X_i$, and $p_r = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} p_i$ we can equivalently describe the multinomial distribution by the distribution of (X_1, \ldots, X_{r-1}) :

$$P(X_{1} = x_{1}, \dots, X_{r-1} = x_{r-1}) = \frac{n!}{x_{1}! \cdots x_{r-1}! (n - \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} x_{i})!} p_{1}^{x_{1}} \cdots p_{r-1}^{x_{r-1}} (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} p_{i})^{n - \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} x_{i}}$$

for all $x_1, \ldots, x_{r-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ with $x_1 + \cdots + x_{r-1} \leq n$.

Note: For r = 2 this is the usual way to write the Binomial(n, p) distribution. In this case $p = p_1$ and $p_2 = 1 - p$.

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- **Gamma Distribution**

Definition A continuous r.v. X is said to have a *gamma distribution* with parameters r > 0 and $\lambda > 0$ if its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^r}{\Gamma(r)} x^{r-1} e^{-\lambda x}, & \text{ if } x > 0, \\ 0 & \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

where $\Gamma(r)$ is the gamma function defined for r > 0 by

$$\Gamma(r) = \int_0^\infty y^{r-1} e^{-y} \, dy.$$

Notation: $X \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \lambda)$

• The *joint marginal pmfs* can be easily obtained from combinatorial considerations. For $\{i_1, \ldots, i_k\} \subset \{1, \ldots, r\}$ we want the joint pmf of $(X_{i_1}, \ldots, X_{i_k})$. Let's use the common label O for all outcomes not in $\{i_1, \ldots, i_k\}$. Thus we have outcomes i_1, \ldots, i_k , and O with probabilities p_{i_1}, \ldots, p_{i_k} and $p_O = 1 - p_{i_1} - \cdots - p_{i_k}$.

Then from the second representation of the multinomial pmf:

$$P(X_{i_1} = x_{i_1}, \dots, X_{i_k} = x_{i_k}) = \frac{n!}{x_{i_1}! \cdots x_{i_k}! (n - \sum_{j=1}^k x_{i_j})} p_{i_1}^{x_{i_1}} \cdots p_{i_k}^{x_{i_k}} (1 - \sum_{j=1}^k p_{i_j})^{n - \sum_{j=1}^k x_{i_j}}$$

for all $x_{i_1}, \ldots, x_{i_k} \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ with $x_{i_1} + \cdots + x_{i_k} \leq n$.

• From this we find that the marginal pdf of X_i is Binomial (n, p_i) :

$$P(X_i = x_i) = \frac{n!}{x_i!(n - x_i)!} p_i^{x_i} (1 - p_i)^{n - x_i}, \quad x_i = 0, \dots, n$$

Properties of the gamma function

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(1)
$$\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\tau}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \Gamma(1/2) &= \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} e^{-y} \, dy \qquad \text{(change of variable } y = u^2/2\text{)} \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\sqrt{2}}{u} e^{-u^2/2} u \, du \qquad (dy = u \, du) \\ &= \sqrt{2}\sqrt{2\pi} \underbrace{\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2} \, du}_{P(Z>0)=1/2, \text{ where } Z \sim N(0,1)} \\ &= 2\sqrt{\pi} \frac{1}{2} = \sqrt{\pi}. \qquad \Box \end{split}$$

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(2)
$$\Gamma(r) = (r-1)\Gamma(r-1)$$
 for $r > 1$.

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \Gamma(r) &= \int_{0}^{\infty} y^{r-1} e^{-y} \, dy \quad \text{(integration by parts:} \\ &= u = y^{r-1}, \, dv = e^{-y} \, dy \text{)} \\ &= \left[-y^{r-1} e^{-y} \right]_{0}^{\infty} + \int_{0}^{\infty} (r-1) y^{r-2} e^{-y} \, dy \\ &= (r-1) \int_{0}^{\infty} y^{r-2} e^{-y} \, dy \\ &= (r-1) \Gamma(r-1). \quad \Box \end{split}$$

Corollary: If r is a positive integer, then $\Gamma(r) = (r-1)!$

Proof: Noting that
$$\Gamma(1) = \int_0^\infty e^{-y} dy = 1$$
,

$$\Gamma(r) = (r-1)\Gamma(r-1) = (r-1)(r-2)\Gamma(r-2) = \dots$$

$$= (r-1)(r-2)\cdots 2\cdot 1\cdot \Gamma(1) = (r-1)! \square$$
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Special Cases

• If r = 1, then $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$, x > 0, so $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$, i.e, X has the *exponential distribution* with parameter λ . Thus

$$\mathsf{Exp}(\lambda) = \mathsf{Gamma}(1,\lambda)$$

• If r = k/2 for some positive integer k and $\lambda = 1/2$, then

$$f(x) = \frac{(1/2)^{k/2}}{\Gamma(k/2)} x^{k/2-1} e^{-x/2}, \quad x > 0$$

This is called the χ^2 (chi-squared) distribution with k degrees of freedom (χ_k^2) .

Example: ...

Moments $E(X^k)$: For $X \sim \text{Gamma}(r, \lambda)$ and $k \ge 1$ an integer,

$$\begin{split} E(X^k) &= \int_0^\infty x^k \left(\frac{\lambda^r}{\Gamma(r)} x^{r-1} e^{-\lambda x}\right) dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^r}{\Gamma(r)} \int_0^\infty x^{r+k-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^r}{\Gamma(r)} \frac{\Gamma(r+k)}{\lambda^{r+k}} \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^{r+k}}{\Gamma(r+k)} x^{r+k-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(r+k)}{\Gamma(r)\lambda^k} = \frac{(r+k-1)\Gamma(r+k-1)}{\Gamma(r)\lambda^k} \\ &= \frac{(r+k-1)(r+k-2)\cdots r\Gamma(r)}{\lambda^k} \\ &= \frac{(r+k-1)(r+k-2)\cdots r}{\lambda^k} \end{split}$$

For $k = 1$ we get $\overline{E(X) = \frac{r}{\lambda}}$; for $k = 2$, $\overline{E(X^2) = \frac{(r+1)r}{\lambda^2}}$, so $\lambda r(X) = \frac{(r+1)r}{\lambda^2} - \left(\frac{r}{\lambda}\right)^2 = \frac{r}{\lambda^2} \end{split}$

Beta function

Let $\alpha, \beta > 0$ and consider

$$\begin{split} \Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta) &= \left(\int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1}e^{-x}\,dx\right)\left(\int_0^\infty y^{\beta-1}e^{-y}\,dy\right) \\ &= \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1}y^{\beta-1}e^{-(x+y)}\,dxdy. \end{split}$$

Use change of variables u = x + y, v = x/(x + y) with inverse

$$x = uv,$$
 $y = u - uv = (1 - v)u.$

The region $\{x>0, y>0\}$ is mapped onto $\{u>0, 0 < v < 1\}.$ The Jacobian of the inverse is

$$J(u,v) = \det \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} = \det \begin{bmatrix} v & u \\ 1-v & -u \end{bmatrix} = -vu - (1-v)u = -u$$

$$\begin{split} \Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta) &= \int_{0}^{\infty} \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{\alpha-1} y^{\beta-1} e^{-(x+y)} \, dx dy \\ &= \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{\infty} (uv)^{\alpha-1} (u(1-v))^{\beta-1} e^{-u} |-u| \, du dv \\ &= \int_{0}^{1} \int_{0}^{\infty} u^{\alpha+\beta-1} e^{-u} v^{\alpha-1} (1-v))^{\beta-1} \, du dv \\ &= \left(\underbrace{\int_{0}^{\infty} u^{\alpha+\beta-1} e^{-u} \, du}_{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} \right) \left(\int_{0}^{1} v^{\alpha-1} (1-v)^{\beta-1} \, dv \right) \end{split}$$

Define the *beta function* of two positive arguments α and β by

$$B(\alpha,\beta) = \int_0^1 v^{\alpha-1} (1-v)^{\beta-1} dv$$

We have obtained

$$B(\alpha,\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$$

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- We have seen that if $X_1 \sim \text{Gamma}(r_1, \lambda)$ and $X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(r_2, \lambda)$ are independent, then $X_1 + X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(r_1 + r_2, \lambda)$.
- Inductively, if X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent with $X_i \sim \mathsf{Gamma}(r_i, \lambda)$, then

$$X_1 + \cdots + X_n \sim \mathsf{Gamma}(r_1 + \cdots + r_n, \lambda)$$

- Also, we saw that if $Z \sim N(0,1)$, then $Z^2 \sim \text{Gamma}(1/2,1/2)$ (i.e., $Z^2 \sim \chi_1^2$).
- Combining the above gives that if Z_1, \ldots, Z_n are i.i.d. N(0, 1)random variables, then

$$Z_1^2+\dots+Z_n^2\sim \mathsf{Gamma}(n/2,1/2)=\chi_n^2$$

• This result is often used in statistics.

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Example: Suppose $X_1 \sim \text{Gamma}(r_1, \lambda)$ and $X_2 \sim \text{Gamma}(r_2, \lambda)$ are independent. Find the pdf of $U = X_1 + X_2$.

Solution: ...

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Conclusion: the family of gamma distributions with given λ is closed under sums of independent random variables.

Let Z_1, \ldots, Z_n be i.i.d. random variables with common mean μ and variance σ^2 . The sample mean and sample variance are defined by

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$$\sigma^2$$
. The sample mean and sample variance are defined by

$$\bar{Z} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i, \qquad S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Z_i - \bar{Z})^2$$

Example: Show that $E(\overline{Z}) = \mu$ and $E(S^2) = \sigma^2$.

An important result in statistics is the following:

Assume Z_1, \ldots, Z_n are *i.i.d.* N(0, 1). Then

$$\bar{Z} \sim N(0, 1/n), \qquad (n-1)S^2 \sim \chi^2_{n-1}$$

and \overline{Z} and S^2 are independent.

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Lemma 1

Before proving the lemma, let's review a few facts about orthogonal (linear) transformations on \mathbb{R}^n .

- An $n \times n$ real matrix A is called *orthogonal* if $A^T = A^{-1}$, i.e., $AA^T = A^T A = I$ (the $n \times n$ identity matrix).
- An orthogonal A does not change the norm (length) of its argument:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 = \| \boldsymbol{x} \|^2 = \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{A}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x})^T (\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x}) = \| \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} \|^2$$

• If A is orthogonal, then $|\det A| = 1$.

Now let $Z = (Z_1, ..., Z_n)$ have joint pdf f(z). Letting Y = AZ for an orthogonal A, we have $Z = A^{-1}Y$. By the transformation formula the pdf $f_Y(y)$ of Y is

$$f_{\boldsymbol{Y}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = f(\boldsymbol{A}^{-1}\boldsymbol{y})|J| = f(\boldsymbol{A}^{-1}\boldsymbol{y})\frac{1}{|\det(\boldsymbol{A})|} = f(\boldsymbol{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{y}).$$

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Proof cont'd: From Y = AZ, we have

$$Y_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i = \frac{n\bar{Z}}{\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{n}\bar{Z}$$

and

$$Y_2^2 + \dots + Y_n^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2\right) - Y_1^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i^2\right) - n\bar{Z}^2$$
$$= \dots = \sum_{i=1}^n (Z_i - \bar{Z})^2 = (n-1)S^2.$$

Since \overline{Z} is a function of Y_1 , S^2 is a function of Y_2, \ldots, Y_n , we get that \overline{Z} and S^2 are independent (since Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n are independent).

Since
$$\overline{Z} = Y_i / \sqrt{n}$$
 and $Y_i \sim N(0, 1)$, we obtain $\overline{Z} \sim N(0, 1/n)$.

Since $(n-1)S^2 = Y_2^2 + \dots + Y_n^2$, we have $(n-1)S^2 \sim \text{Gamma}((n-1)/2, 1/2) = \chi_{n-1}^2$.

Proof of Lemma: The joint pdf of Z_1, \ldots, Z_n is

$$f(\boldsymbol{z}) = f(z_1, \dots, z_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z_i^2/2} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^n e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n z_i^2}$$

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with first row equal to $(1/\sqrt{n}, \ldots, 1/\sqrt{n})$ and choose rows $2, \ldots, n$ in any way so that they have unit length and they are orthogonal to all other rows. A constructed this way is *orthogonal*.

The joint pdf of Y = AZ is

$$f_{\boldsymbol{Y}}(\boldsymbol{y}) = f(\boldsymbol{A}^T \boldsymbol{y}) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^n e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}$$

since A^T is orthogonal and so $||A^Ty||^2 = ||y||^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2$. Thus Y_1, \ldots, Y_n are i.i.d. N(0, 1).

Connection with Poisson Process

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- Recall: If X₁ denotes the time of the *first* event occurring in a Poisson process with rate λ, then X₁ ~ Exp(λ).
- The following can be shown: For i = 1, 2, ..., n let X_i denote the time between the occurrence of the (i 1)th and the ith events in a Poisson process with rate λ. Then the random variables X₁,..., X_n are independent and X_i ~ Exp(λ).
- Let $S_n = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$, the time till until the *n*th event. Since $Exp(\lambda) = Gamma(1, \lambda)$, we obtain that

$$S_n \sim \mathsf{Gamma}(n, \lambda).$$

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Beta Distribution

Definition A continuous r.v. X is said to have a *beta distribution* with parameters $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$ if its pdf is given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}, & \text{ if } 0 < x < 1, \\ 0 & \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

where the beta function $B(\alpha, \beta)$ is given by

$$B(\alpha,\beta) = \int_0^1 y^{\alpha-1} (1-y)^{\beta-1} \, dy = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}.$$

Notation:
$$X \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$$

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Examples:

- For $\alpha = \beta = 1$ we obtain $X \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)$ having mean 1/2 and variance 1/12.
- Recall that the pdf of the kth order statistics $X_{(k)}$ of random sample X_1, \ldots, X_n with common cdf F(x) is

$$f_k(x) = \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} f(x)F(x)^{k-1} (1-F(x))^{n-k}$$

If the X_i are sampled from $\mathsf{Uniform}(0,1),$ then F(x)=x for 0 < x < 1 and we get

$$f_k(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} x^{k-1} (1-x)^{n-k} & \text{if } 0 < x < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Thus $X_{(k)} \sim \text{Beta}(k, n-k+1)$.

Moments $E(X^k)$: For $X \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ and $k \ge 1$ an integer,

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$$\begin{split} E(X^k) &= \int_0^1 x^k \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \int_0^1 x^{k+\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \frac{\Gamma(k+\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(k+\alpha+\beta)} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \frac{\Gamma(k+\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(k+\alpha+\beta)} \\ &= \frac{(k+\alpha-1)\cdots\alpha}{(k+\alpha+\beta-1)\cdots(\alpha+\beta)} \end{split}$$

Letting $k = 1,2$ we get $\boxed{E(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}}$ and $\boxed{E(X^2) = \frac{(\alpha+1)\alpha}{(\alpha+\beta+1)(\alpha+\beta)}}$, so $\operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{(\alpha+1)\alpha}{(\alpha+\beta+1)(\alpha+\beta)} - \frac{\alpha^2}{(\alpha+\beta)^2} = \boxed{\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta+1)(\alpha+\beta)^2}}$

The beta distribution is useful as a model for random variables that take values in a bounded interval, say (a, b).

Example: Let $X \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ and let Y = (b - a)X + a. Find the pdf of Y.

Solution: ...

Example: (Connection with gamma distribution) Assume X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent with $X_i \sim \text{Gamma}(r_i, \alpha)$. Show that

$$\frac{X_i}{\sum_{j=1}^n X_j} \sim \mathsf{Beta}(r_i, r_{-i})$$
 where $r_{-i} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n r_j\right) - r_i.$

Solution: ...