

## Statistics 581, Problem Set 3 Solutions

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1. Ferguson, ACILST, page 18, problem 3: Suppose that  $X_n$  is a sequence of random variables with densities  $f_n$  and  $X$  is a random variable with density  $f$  with respect to a common dominating measure  $\mu$ , and that  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for all  $x$ . Show that

$$Eg(X_n) \rightarrow Eg(X)$$

for all bounded measurable functions  $g$ .

**Solution:** First, note that

$$\|g\|_\infty \equiv \sup_{-\infty < x < \infty} |g(x)| < \infty.$$

Hence it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |Eg(X_n) - Eg(X)| &\leq \left| \int g(x)f_n(x)d\mu(x) - \int g(x)f(x)d\mu(x) \right| \\ &= \left| \int g(x)(f_n(x) - f(x))d\mu(x) \right| \\ &\leq \int |g(x)||f_n(x) - f(x)|d\mu(x) \\ &\leq \|g\|_\infty \int |f_n(x) - f(x)|d\mu(x) \\ &\rightarrow \|g\|_\infty \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

by Scheffé's lemma.

2. Suppose that  $Y$  is a random variable with  $E(Y^2) < \infty$ .

(a) Show that

$$\text{Var}(Y) = E\{\text{Var}(Y|X)\} + \text{Var}\{E(Y|X)\}.$$

(b) Suppose that  $X$  and  $Y$  are random variables defined on the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ , and let  $\mathcal{D}$  be the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $X$ ;  $\mathcal{D} = \sigma[X] \equiv X^{-1}(\mathcal{B})$  where  $\mathcal{B}$  is the Borel sigma-field for the real line  $R$ . Let  $L_2(\Omega, \mathcal{D}, P)$  be the space of all random variables which are  $\mathcal{D}$  measurable and Show that  $Y - E(Y|X) \perp L_2(\Omega, \mathcal{D}, P)$  in the sense that

$$E\{(Y - E(Y|X))Z\} = 0$$

for all  $Z \in L_2(\Omega, \mathcal{D}, P)$ .

[Hint: You may use the following fact: if  $Z \in L_2(\Omega, \mathcal{D}, P)$ , then  $Z = g(X)$  for some measurable function  $g$  from  $R$  to  $R$  with  $E\{g^2(X)\} < \infty$ .]

(c) Interpret (a) and (b) geometrically.

(d) Suppose that  $Y \sim \chi_n^2(\delta)$ . Compute  $E(Y)$  and  $\text{Var}(Y)$ .

**Solution:** (a) We compute directly:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(Y) &= E[Y - E(Y)]^2 = E[Y - E(Y|X) + E(Y|X) - E(Y)]^2 \\ &= E[Y - E(Y|X)]^2 + 2E[(Y - E(Y|X))[E(Y|X) - E(Y)]] + E[E(Y|X) - E(Y)]^2 \\ &= E\{E\{[Y - E(Y|X)]^2|X\}\} + 0 + \text{Var}[E(Y|X)] \\ &= E\{\text{Var}[Y|X]\} + \text{Var}[E(Y|X)] \end{aligned}$$

since, by computing conditionally,

$$\begin{aligned}
E[(Y - E(Y|X))[E(Y|X) - E(X)] &= E\{E\{[(Y - E(Y|X))[E(Y|X) - E(X)]|X\}\} \\
&= E\{[E(Y|X) - E(X)]E\{[Y - E(Y|X)]|X\}\} \\
&= E\{[E(Y|X) - E(X)]\{E(Y|X) - E(Y|X)\}\} \\
&= E\{[E(Y|X) - E(X)] \cdot 0\} \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

(b) By the hint,  $Z = g(X)$  for some measurable function  $g$ . Then, by computing conditionally much as in (a) we have

$$\begin{aligned}
E\{(Y - E(Y|X))Z\} &= E\{(Y - E(Y|X))g(X)\} \\
&= E\{E\{(Y - E(Y|X))g(X)|X\}\} \\
&= E\{g(X)E\{(Y - E(Y|X))|X\}\} \\
&= E\{g(X)(E(Y|X) - E(Y|X))\} \\
&= E\{g(X) \cdot 0\} = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

(c) A geometric interpretation of (a) is that  $Y - E(Y|X)$  is orthogonal to  $E(Y|X) - E(Y)$  in  $L_2(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) = L_2(P)$ , thus the identity in (a) can be interpreted as a “pythagorean theorem”. (b) says something a bit stronger:  $Y - E(Y|X)$  is orthogonal to the whole space consisting of all square-integrable functions of  $X$ . Thus  $E(Y|X)$  is the orthogonal projection of  $Y$  onto this subspace.

(d) Now  $(Y|K) \sim \chi_{2K+n}^2$  where  $K \sim \text{Poisson}(\delta/2)$ , so

$$E(Y) = E\{E(Y|K)\} = E\{2K + n\} = n + 2(\delta/2) = n + \delta.$$

Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Var}(Y) &= E\{\text{Var}(Y|K)\} + \text{Var}\{E(Y|K)\} \\
&= E\{2(2K + n)\} + \text{Var}\{2K + n\} \\
&= 4(\delta/2) + 2n + 4(\delta/2) \\
&= 2n + 4\delta.
\end{aligned}$$

3. Suppose that  $X$  is a random variable with finite fourth moment;  $E|X|^4 < \infty$ . Then  $\mu_4 = E(X - \mu)^4$  is the fourth central moment of  $X$ . The ratio  $\mu_4/\sigma^4 \equiv \kappa$  is the *kurtosis* of  $X$  (or of the distribution function  $F$  of  $X$ ), and  $\gamma_2 \equiv \mu_4/\sigma^4 - 3$  is called the *excess of kurtosis*; note that for any  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  random variable,  $\gamma_2 = 0$ . Investigate the value of  $\gamma_2$  for various classical distributions ( $t_r$ , uniform, bernoulli, Poisson( $\lambda$ ), ... ). How big can  $\gamma_2$  be? How small can  $\gamma_2$  be? **Solution:** Note that  $\mu_4^{1/4} = \{E(X - \mu)^4\}^{1/4} \geq \{E(X - \mu)^2\}^{1/2} = \sigma$  by Liapunov’s inequality. Thus  $\mu_4/\sigma^4 \geq 1$  always, or  $\gamma_2 \equiv \mu_4/\sigma^4 \geq -2$  with equality if  $X = \pm 1$  with probability 1/2 each: then  $\mu = 0$ ,  $\sigma^2 = 1$ ,  $\mu_4 = 1$ , and  $\gamma_2 = -2$ .

For  $X \sim N(0, 1)$ ,  $\gamma_2 = 0$  since  $EX^4 = 3$ .

For  $X \sim t_r$ ,  $r > 4$ ,  $\gamma_2 = 6/(r - 4) \nearrow \infty$  as  $r \searrow 4$ ;  $\gamma_2 \searrow 0$  as  $r \nearrow \infty$ .

For  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ ,  $\gamma_2 = 6/\alpha \nearrow \infty$  as  $\alpha \searrow 0$ .

For  $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ ,  $\gamma_2 = 1/\lambda \nearrow \infty$  as  $\lambda \searrow 0$ .

For  $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ ,  $\gamma_2 = (1-p)^2/p + p^2/(1-p) - 3$  which  $= -2$  when  $p = 1/2$ , and  $\nearrow \infty$  when  $p \rightarrow 0, 1$ .

4. Suppose that  $X, X_1, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d. with mean  $\mu$ , variance  $\sigma^2$ , and  $E|X|^4 < \infty$ .  
 (a) Show that the sample variance  $S_n^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 / (n-1)$  satisfies

$$\sqrt{n}(S_n^2 - \sigma^2) / \sqrt{2}\sigma^2 \rightarrow_d N(0, 1 + \gamma_2/2).$$

where  $\mu_4 \equiv E(X - \mu)^4$  and  $\gamma_2 \equiv \mu_4/\sigma^4 - 3$  is called the *excess of kurtosis*.

(b) Suppose that you want to test  $H : \sigma \leq \sigma_0^2$  versus  $K : \sigma^2 > \sigma_0^2$  for  $\sigma_0$  a fixed number, and you base your test on normal theory, but in fact the  $X$ 's are *not normal* with  $\gamma_2 \neq 0$ . What effect does this have on the level (or size or actual type one error) of the normal theory test?

**Solution:** (a) Since

$$\bar{S}_n^2 \equiv \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu)^2 - (\bar{X}_n - \mu)^2$$

where  $Y_i \equiv (X_i - \mu)^2$  are i.i.d.  $(E(Y_1), \text{Var}(Y_1)) = (\sigma^2, \mu_4 - \sigma^4)$ , it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{n}(\bar{S}_n^2 - \sigma^2) &= \sqrt{n}(\bar{Y}_n - \sigma^2) - \sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \mu)(\bar{X}_n - \mu) \\ &\rightarrow_d N(0, \mu_4 - \sigma^4) - N(0, \sigma^2) \cdot 0 \\ &= N(0, \mu_4 - \sigma^4). \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{S}_n^2 - \sigma^2) / (\sqrt{2}\sigma^2) \rightarrow_d N(0, (\mu_4/\sigma^4 - 1)/2) = N(0, (\mu_4/\sigma^4 - 3 + 2)/2) = N(0, 1 + \gamma_2/2).$$

If instead of  $\bar{S}_n^2$  we consider the more usual  $S_n^2 = (n/(n-1))\bar{S}_n^2$ , it is easily seen that

$$\sqrt{n}(S_n^2 - \bar{S}_n^2) = \sqrt{n}\left(\frac{n}{n-1} - 1\right)\bar{S}_n^2 = o(1)O_p(1) = o_p(1).$$

Thus we also have

$$\sqrt{n}(S_n^2 - \sigma^2) / (\sqrt{2}\sigma^2) \rightarrow_d N(0, 1 + \gamma_2/2).$$

(b) When the  $X_i$ 's are normal,  $\gamma_2 = 0$  and  $(n-1)S_n^2/\sigma_0^2 \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$  when  $\sigma = \sigma_0$  is true. Hence the size of the normal theory test when normal theory is true is

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= P_{\sigma_0}((n-1)S_n^2/\sigma_0^2 \geq \chi_{n-1, \alpha}^2) \\ &= P_{\sigma_0}(\sqrt{n}(S_n^2/\sigma_0^2 - 1)/\sqrt{2} \geq \sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}(\frac{\chi_{n-1, \alpha}^2}{n-1} - 1)). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sqrt{n}(S_n^2/\sigma_0^2 - 1)/\sqrt{2} \rightarrow_d N(0, 1)$  under normality, this forces

$$\sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}\left(\frac{\chi_{n-1, \alpha}^2}{n-1} - 1\right) \rightarrow z_\alpha.$$

Thus when the  $X_i$ 's are not normal we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\sigma_0}((n-1)S_n^2/\sigma_0^2 \geq \chi_{n-1,\alpha}^2) &= P_{\sigma_0}(\sqrt{n}(S_n^2/\sigma_0^2 - 1)/\sqrt{2} \geq \sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}(\frac{\chi_{n-1,\alpha}^2}{n-1} - 1)) \\ &\rightarrow P(N(0, 1 + \gamma_2/2) \geq z_\alpha) \\ &= P(Z \geq \frac{z_\alpha}{\sqrt{1 + \gamma_2/2}}) = 1 - \Phi(\frac{z_\alpha}{\sqrt{1 + \gamma_2/2}}). \end{aligned}$$

When  $\gamma_2 = -2$ , the asymptotic size is 0; when  $\gamma_2 = 0$ , the asymptotic size is  $\alpha$ ; when  $\gamma_2 = \infty$ , the asymptotic size is 1/2. For  $\gamma_2 \in [-2, 0)$  the asymptotic size is  $< \alpha$  while for  $\gamma_2 \in (0, \infty)$  the asymptotic size is  $> \alpha$ .

5. Suppose that  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent Poisson( $\lambda$ ) random variables (so  $P(X_1 = k) = e^{-\lambda}\lambda^k/k!$ ,  $k = 0, 1, \dots$ ).

(a) Show that  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \lambda) \rightarrow_d N(0, \text{"something"})$ .

(b) Show that the sequence  $\{\sqrt{n}|\bar{X}_n - \lambda|\}$  is uniformly integrable and find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(\sqrt{n}|\bar{X}_n - \lambda|)$ .

(c) Let  $g(x) = x^\gamma$  for  $x \geq 0$  and  $0 < \gamma < \infty$ . Show that  $\sqrt{n}(g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\lambda)) \rightarrow_d N(0, V^2)$  and compute  $V^2$  explicitly in terms of  $\lambda$  and  $\gamma$ . For what  $\gamma$  is  $V^2$  constant in  $\lambda$ ? Is this the value of  $\gamma$  that makes  $g(\bar{X}_n)$  "most nearly normal"? (a) By the univariate CLT, since  $E(X_1) = \lambda$  and  $\text{Var}(X_1) = \lambda$ ,

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \lambda) \rightarrow_d Y \sim N(0, \lambda);$$

note that  $Y =_d \sqrt{\lambda}Z$  where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

(b) Let  $Y_n = \sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n - \lambda)$ . Then  $E(Y_n) = 0$  and  $E(Y_n^2) = \text{Var}(Y_n) = n(\lambda/n) = \lambda$ . Hence  $\overline{\lim}_n E(Y_n^2) = \lambda < \infty$ . But this implies that  $\{|Y_n|\}_{n \geq 1}$  is uniformly integrable. Hence  $E|Y_n| \rightarrow E|Y| = \sqrt{\lambda}E|Z| = \sqrt{2\lambda/\pi}$  since

$$E|Z| = 2 \int_0^\infty z\phi(z)dz = 2 \int_0^\infty \{-\phi'(z)\}dz = 2\phi(0) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}.$$

(c) Since  $g'(x) = \gamma x^{\gamma-1}$  the  $g'$  theorem yields

$$\sqrt{n}(g(\bar{X}_n) - g(\lambda)) \rightarrow_d g'(\lambda)Y = \gamma\lambda^{\gamma-1}Y \sim N(0, \gamma^2\lambda^{2\gamma-1}).$$

When  $\gamma = 1/2$  this yields

$$\sqrt{n}(\sqrt{\bar{X}_n} - \sqrt{\lambda}) \rightarrow_d N(0, 1/4).$$

Thus  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is variance stabilizing for Poisson. It is not the transformation which makes  $g(\bar{X}_n)$  most nearly normal in terms of skewness; it turns out that with  $g(x) = x^{2/3}$  the transformed variable  $g(\bar{X}_n)$  has approximate skewness 0; see e.g. Anscombe (1948), *Biometrika* **35**, 246 - 254, or Efron (1982), *Ann. Statist.* **10**, 323 - 339. Of course this transformation is *not* variance stabilizing;  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n^{2/3} - \lambda^{2/3}) \rightarrow_d N(0, (4/9)\lambda^{1/3})$  which depends on  $\lambda$ .