

## Solutions to Homework 2

6.262 Discrete Stochastic Processes

MIT, Spring 2011

### Solution to Exercise 1.10:

a) We know that  $Z(\omega) = X(\omega) + Y(\omega)$  for each  $\omega \in \Omega$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(Z(\omega) = \pm\infty) &= \Pr\{\omega; Z(\omega) = +\infty \text{ or } Z(\omega) = -\infty\} \\ &= \Pr\{\omega; Z(\omega) = +\infty\} + \Pr\{\omega; Z(\omega) = -\infty\}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{\omega; Z(\omega) = +\infty\} &= \Pr\{\omega; X(\omega) = \infty \text{ or } Y(\omega) = \infty\} \\ &\leq \Pr\{\omega; X(\omega) = \infty\} + \Pr\{\omega; Y(\omega) = \infty\} \\ &= 0 + 0 = 0.\end{aligned}$$

We know that  $X$  is a random variable and based on the definition of random variables, we know that  $\Pr\{\omega; X(\omega) = \infty\} = 0$ .

Similarly, it can be proved that  $\Pr\{\omega; Z(\omega) = -\infty\} = 0$ . Thus,  $\Pr\{\omega; Z(\omega) = \pm\infty\} = 0$ .

### Solution to Exercise 1.17:

a)

Since  $Y$  is integer-valued,  $F_Y(y)$  and  $F_Y^c$  are constant between integer values. Thus,  $\int_0^\infty F_Y(y) dy = \sum_{y=0}^\infty F_Y^c(y)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[Y] &= \sum_{y=0}^{+\infty} F_Y^c(y) \\ &= \sum_{y=0}^{+\infty} \frac{2}{(y+1)(y+2)} \\ &= \sum_{y=0}^{+\infty} \frac{2}{y+1} - \frac{2}{y+2} \\ &= \frac{2}{1} = 2\end{aligned}$$

b) We can compute the PMF :

$$\begin{aligned}
p_Y(y) &= F_Y(y) - F_Y(y-1) \\
&= 1 - \frac{2}{(y+1)(y+2)} - \left(1 - \frac{2}{y(y+1)}\right) \\
&= \frac{4}{y(y+1)(y+2)}, \forall y > 0.
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[Y] &= \sum_{y=1}^{+\infty} y \cdot p_Y(y) \\
&= \sum_{y=1}^{+\infty} \frac{4}{(y+1)(y+2)} \\
&= \sum_{y=1}^{+\infty} \left( \frac{4}{(y+1)} - \frac{4}{(y+2)} \right) = \frac{4}{2} = 2.
\end{aligned}$$

**c)** Condition on the event  $[Y = y]$ , the rv  $X$  has a uniform distribution over the interval  $[1, y]$ . So,  $\mathbb{E}[X|Y = y] = (1 + y)/2$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y = y]] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1+y}{2}\right] = \frac{1 + \mathbb{E}[y]}{2} = 3/2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
p_X(x) &= \sum_{y=1}^{y=\infty} p_{X|Y}(x|y)p_Y(y) \\
&= \sum_{y=x}^{y=\infty} \frac{4}{y^2(y+1)(y+2)} \\
&= \sum_{y=x}^{y=\infty} \frac{-3}{y} + \frac{2}{y^2} + \frac{4}{y+1} - \frac{1}{y+2}
\end{aligned}$$

It's too complicated to calculate this term.

**d)** Condition on the event  $[Y = y]$ , the rv  $Z$  has a uniform distribution over the interval  $[1, y^2]$ . So,  $\mathbb{E}[Z|Y = y] = (1 + y^2)/2$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[Z] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1+y^2}{2}\right] = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{y=1}^{\infty} \frac{4y}{(y+1)(y+2)} = \infty$$

**Solution to Exercise 1.31:**

**a)**  
We know that:

$$\left| \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{rx} dF(x) \right| \leq \int_{-\infty}^0 |e^{rx}| dF(x)$$

And if  $r \geq 0$ , for  $x < 0$ ,  $|e^{rx}| \leq 1$ . Thus,

$$\left| \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{rx} dF(x) \right| \leq \int_{-\infty}^0 dF(x) \leq 1$$

Similarly, when  $r \leq 0$ ,  $|e^{rx}| \leq 1$  for  $x \geq 0$

$$\left| \int_0^{\infty} e^{rx} dF(x) \right| \leq \int_0^{\infty} |e^{rx}| dF(x) \leq \int_0^{\infty} dF(x) \leq 1$$

b) We know that for all  $x \geq 0$ , for each  $0 \leq r \leq r_1$ ,  $e^{rx} \leq e^{r_1x}$ . Thus,

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{rx} dF(x) \leq \int_0^{\infty} e^{r_1x} dF(x) < \infty$$

c) We know that for all  $x \leq 0$ , for each  $r_2 \leq r \leq 0$ ,  $e^{rx} \leq e^{r_2x}$ . Thus,

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 e^{rx} dF(x) \leq \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{r_2x} dF(x) < \infty$$

d) We know the value of  $g_X(r)$  for  $r = 0$ :

$$g_X(0) = \int_{-\infty}^0 dF(x) + \int_0^{\infty} dF(x) = 1$$

So for  $r = 0$ , the moment generating function exists. We also know that the first integral exists for all  $r \geq 0$ . And if the second integral exists for a given  $r_1 > 0$ , it exists for all  $0 \leq r \leq r_1$ . So if  $g_X(r)$  exists for some  $r_1 \geq 0$ , it exists for all  $0 \leq r \leq r_1$ . Similarly, we can prove that if  $g_X(r)$  exists for some  $r_2 \leq 0$ , it exists for all  $r_2 \leq r \leq 0$ . So the interval in which  $g_X(r)$  exists is from some  $r_2 \leq 0$  to some  $r_1 \geq 0$ .

e) We note immediately that with  $f_X(x) = e^{-x}$  for  $x \geq 0$ ,  $g_X(1) = \infty$ . With  $f_X(x) = (ax^{-2})e^{-x}$  for  $x \geq 1$  and 0 otherwise, it is clear that  $g_X(1) < \infty$ . Here  $a$  is taken to be such that  $\int_1^{\infty} (ax^{-2})e^{-x} dx = 1$ .

### **Solution to Exercise 1.33:**

Given that  $X_i$ 's are IID, we have  $\mathbb{E}[S_n] = n\mathbb{E}[X] = n\delta$  and  $Var(S_n) = nVar(X) = n\sigma^2$  where  $Var(X) = \sigma^2 = \delta(1 - \delta)$ . Since  $Var(X) < \infty$ , the CLT implies that the normalized version of  $S_n$ , defined as  $Y_n = (S_n - n\mathbb{E}[X]) / (\sqrt{n}\sigma)$  will tend to a normalized Gaussian

distribution as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , so we can use the integral in (1.81). First let us see what is happening and then we will verify the results.

**a)** The standard deviation of  $S_n$  is increasing in  $\sqrt{n}$  while the interval of the summation is a fixed interval about the mean. Thus, the probability distribution becomes flatter and more spread out as  $n$  increases, and the probability of interest tends to 0. Analytically, let  $Y_n = (S_n - n\mathbb{E}[X])/(\sqrt{n}\sigma)$ , then,

$$(1) \quad \sum_{i:n\delta-m \leq i \leq n\delta+m} \Pr \{S_n = i\} \sim F_{S_n}(n\delta+m) - F_{S_n}(n\delta-m) = F_{Y_n}\left(\frac{m}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right) - F_{Y_n}\left(-\frac{m}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right)$$

For large  $n$ ,  $Y_n$  becomes a standard normal,

$$(2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i:n\delta-m \leq i \leq n\delta+m} \Pr \{S_n = i\} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (F_{Y_n}\left(\frac{m}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right) - F_{Y_n}\left(-\frac{m}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right)) = 0$$

Comment: To be rigorous, which is not necessary here, the limit in (2) is taken as follows. We need to show that  $F_{Y_n}(y_n) \rightarrow \Phi(y)$  ( $\Phi$  is the cumulative gaussian distribution), where the sequence  $y_n \rightarrow y$  and the functions  $F_{Y_n} \rightarrow \Phi$  (pointwise). Consider an  $\epsilon > 0$  and pick  $N$  large enough so that for all  $n \geq N$  we have  $y - \epsilon \leq y_n \leq y + \epsilon$ . Then we get,  $F_{Y_n}(y - \epsilon) \leq F_{Y_n}(y_n) \leq F_{Y_n}(y + \epsilon)$ ,  $\forall n > N$  (since  $F_{Y_n}$  is non-decreasing). Take the limit  $n \rightarrow \infty$  which gives  $\Phi(y - \epsilon) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{Y_n}(y_n) \leq \Phi(y + \epsilon)$  (by CLT). Now, take the limit  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  and since  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is a continuous function, both sides of the inequality converge to the same value  $\Phi(y)$  which completes the proof.

**b)** The summation here is over all terms below the mean plus the terms which exceed the mean by at most  $m$ . As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the normalized distribution (the distribution of  $Y_n$ ) becomes Gaussian and the integral up to the mean becomes 1/2. Analytically,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i:0 \leq i \leq n\delta+m} \Pr \{S_n = i\} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (F_{Y_n}\left(\frac{m}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right) - F_{Y_n}\left(\frac{-n\delta}{\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right)) = 1/2$$

**c)** The interval of summation is increasing with  $n$  while the standard deviation is increasing with  $\sqrt{n}$ . Thus, in the limit, the probability of interest will include all the probability mass.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i:n(\delta-1/m) \leq i \leq n(\delta+1/m)} \Pr \{S_n = i\} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (F_{Y_n}\left(\frac{n}{m\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right) - F_{Y_n}\left(\frac{-n}{m\sqrt{n}\sigma}\right)) = 1$$

### Solution to Exercise 1.38:

We know that  $S_n$  is a r.v. with mean 0 and variance  $n\sigma^2$ . According to CLT, both  $S_n/\sigma\sqrt{n}$  and  $S_{2n}/\sigma\sqrt{2n}$  converge in distribution to normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1. But this does not imply the convergence of  $S_n/\sigma\sqrt{n} - S_{2n}/\sigma\sqrt{2n}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{S_n}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} - \frac{S_{2n}}{\sigma\sqrt{2n}} &= \frac{\sqrt{2}S_n - S_{2n}}{\sigma\sqrt{2n}} \\
&= \frac{\sqrt{2}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \sum_{i=1}^{2n} X_i}{\sigma\sqrt{2n}} \\
&= \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{\sum_{i=n+1}^{2n} X_i}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}
\end{aligned}$$

Independency of  $X_i$ 's imply the independency of  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  and  $S'_n = \sum_{i=n+1}^{2n} X_i$ . Both  $S_n/(\sigma\sqrt{n})$  and  $S'_n/(\sigma\sqrt{n})$  converge in distribution to zero mean, unit variance normal distribution and they are independent. Thus,  $(\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{\sqrt{2}}) \frac{S_n}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$  converges to a normal r.v. with mean 0 and variance  $3/2 - \sqrt{2}$  and is independent of  $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}) \frac{S'_n}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}$  which converges in distribution to a normal r.v. with mean 0 and variance 1/2.

So,  $\frac{S_n}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} - \frac{S_{2n}}{\sigma\sqrt{2n}}$  converges in distribution to a normal r.v with mean 0 and variance  $2 - \sqrt{2}$ . This means that  $\frac{S_n}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} - \frac{S_{2n}}{\sigma\sqrt{2n}}$  does not converge to a constant and it might take different values with the described probability distribution.

**Solution to Exercise 1.42:**

a)

$$\bar{X} = 100$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\sigma_X^2 &= (10^{12} - 100)^2 \times 10^{-10} + (100 + 1)^2 \times (1 - 10^{-10})/2 + (100 - 1)^2 \times (1 - 10^{-10})/2 \\
&= 10^{14} - 2 \times 10^4 + 10^4 \approx 10^{14}.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{S}_n &= 100n \\
\sigma_{S_n}^2 &= n \times 10^{14}
\end{aligned}$$

b) This is the event that all  $10^6$  trials result in  $\pm 1$ . That is, there are no occurrences of  $10^{12}$ . That is, there are no occurrences of  $10^{12}$ . Thus,  $\Pr S_n \leq 10^6 = (1 - 10^{-10})^{10^6}$ .

c) From the union bound, the probability of one or more occurrences of the sample value  $10^{12}$  out of  $10^6$  trials is bounded by a sum over  $10^6$  terms, each of which is  $10^{-10}$ , i.e.,  $1 - F_{S_n}(10^6) \leq 10^{-4}$ .

d) Conditional on no occurrences of  $10^{12}$ ,  $S_n$  simply has a binomial distribution. We know from the central limit theorem for the binomial case that  $S_n$  will be approximately Gaussian with mean 0 and standard deviation  $10^3$ . Since one or more occurrences of  $10^{12}$  occur only with probability  $10^{-4}$ , this can be neglected, so the distribution function is approximately Gaussian with 3 sigma points at  $\pm 3 \times 10^3$ .

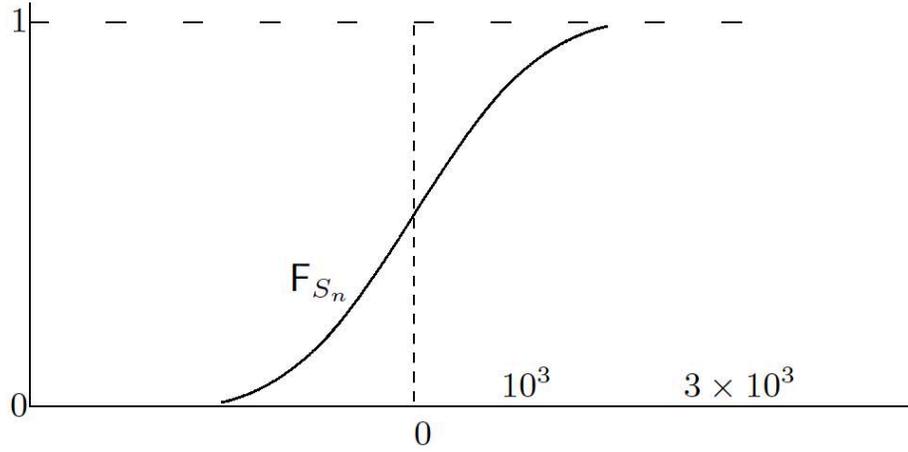


FIGURE 1. Distribution function of  $S_n$  for  $n = 10^6$

e) First, consider the PMF  $p_B(j) =$  of the number  $B = j$  of occurrences of the value  $10^{12}$ . We have

$$p_B(j) = \binom{10^{10}}{j} q^j (1-q)^{10^{10}-j}$$

where  $q = 10^{-10}$ .

$$p_B(0) = (1-q)^{10^{10}} = \exp(10^{10} \ln[1-q]) \approx \exp(-10^{10}q) = e^{-1}$$

$$p_B(1) = 10^{10}q(1-q)^{10^{10}-1} = (1-q)^{10^{10}-1} \approx e^{-1}$$

$$p_B(2) = \binom{10^{10}}{2} q^2 (1-q)^{10^{10}-2} = \frac{10^{10} \times (10^{10} - 1)}{2} (10^{-10})^2 (1 - 10^{-10})^{10^{10}-2} \approx \frac{1}{2} e^{-1}$$

Thus,

$$\Pr(B \leq 2) \approx 2.5e^{-1}$$

Conditional on  $\{B = j\}$ ,  $S_n$  will be approximately Gaussian with mean  $10^{12}j$  and standard deviation of  $10^5$ . Thus  $F_{S_n}(x)$  rises from 0 to  $e^{-1}$  over a range of  $x$  from about  $-3 \times 10^5$  to  $+3 \times 10^5$ . It then stays virtually constant up to about  $x = 10^{12} - 3 \times 10^5$ . It rises to  $2e^{-1}$  by about  $x = 10^{12} + 3 \times 10^5$ . It stays virtually constant up to about  $2 \times 10^{12} - 3 \times 10^5$  and rises to  $2.5e^{-1}$  by about  $2 \times 10^{12} + 3 \times 10^5$ . When we sketch this, the rises in  $F_{S_n}(x)$  for  $n = 10^{10}$  over a width of about  $6 \times 10^5$  look essentially vertical on a

scale of  $2 \times 10^{12}$ , rising from 0 to  $e^{-1}$  at 0, from  $1/e$  to  $2/e$  at  $10^{12}$  and from  $2/e$  to  $2.5/e$  at  $2 \times 10^{12}$ . There are smaller steps at larger values, but they would scarcely show up on this sketch.

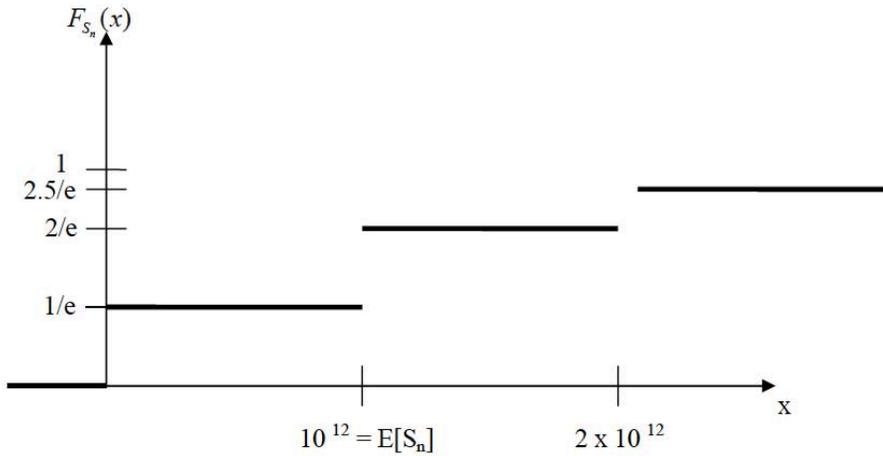


FIGURE 2. Distribution function of  $S_n$  for  $n = 10^{10}$

f) It can be seen that for this peculiar rv,  $S_n/n$  is not concentrated around its mean even for  $n = 10^{10}$  and  $S_n/\sqrt{(n)}$  does not look Gaussian even for  $n = 10^{10}$ . For this particular distribution,  $n$  has to be so large that  $B$ , the number of occurrences of  $10^{12}$ , is large, and this requires  $n \gg 10^{10}$ . This illustrates a common weakness of limit theorems. They say what happens as a parameter ( $n$  in this case) becomes sufficiently large, but it takes extra work to see how large that is.

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