

HG

1 October 2017

The moment generating function (mgf) of the gamma (α, λ) distribution and its application

(Supplementary note to the lecture Monday 25 Sept. on mgf's)

I did not have time to go through the mgf of the gamma distribution on the lecture and supply the mgf here due to the importance of the gamma distribution.

Suppose $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$ distributed with pdf

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} & \text{for } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

where $\alpha > 0$, $\lambda > 0$ are parameters.

(1) The mgf of X is given by $M(t) = E(e^{tX}) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}\right)^\alpha$, well defined for all $t < \lambda$.

Since $\lambda > 0$, the mgf is well defined in an open interval about 0, which implies that all moments of X exist (a fact we have proven before more directly).

Proof: If $t < \lambda$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} M(t) &= E(e^{tX}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} f(x) dx = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^{\infty} x^{\alpha-1} e^{(t-\lambda)x} dx = \\ &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{(\lambda - t)^\alpha} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda - t)^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} dx \stackrel{\text{Integral}=1}{=} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{(\lambda - t)^\alpha} = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}\right)^\alpha \end{aligned}$$

(Note that the integrand of the last integral is the pdf of the $\Gamma(\alpha, \lambda - t)$ distribution, which implies that the integral is 1.) **(End of proof)**

Having the mgf tool, we may derive a number of useful properties for the gamma distributions:

(2) If $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$, then $Y = \lambda X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, 1)$

Proof: We have seen in general that if Y is a linear transformation, $Y = a + bX$ (a, b constants), the mgf of Y is $M_Y(t) = e^{at} M_X(bt)$. Using this on $Y = \lambda X$, we get

$$M_Y(t) = e^0 M_X(\lambda t) = M_X(\lambda t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - \lambda t} \right)^\alpha = \left(\frac{1}{1-t} \right)^\alpha, \text{ i.e., the mgf of } \Gamma(\alpha, 1).$$

Since the mgf of any distribution is unique, it follows that $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha, 1)$. **EOP.**

(Note that this result may be proven directly using cdf's.)

In general, sums of independent rv's ($Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$) have very complicated distributions. Therefore, the following results sometimes turn out as useful.

(3) If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent and gamma distributed with the same scale (λ), i.e., $X_i \sim \Gamma(\alpha_i, \lambda)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, then $Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n, \lambda)$

Proof: A general mgf property is that, if X_1, X_2 are independent with mgf's $M_1(t), M_2(t)$ respectively, the mgf of $Y = X_1 + X_2$ is $M_Y(t) = M_1(t)M_2(t)$. Hence, if $X_i \sim \Gamma(\alpha_i, \lambda)$, $i = 1, 2$, then $M_Y(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^{\alpha_1} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^{\alpha_2} = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}$, i.e., the mgf of $\Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \lambda)$. The uniqueness of mgf's then implies that $Y = X_1 + X_2 \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \lambda)$. Hence, the result is proven for $n = 2$. For $n = 3$ we have $Y = X_1 + X_2 + X_3 = U + X_3$, where U and X_3 are independent and gamma distributed, implying as above that $Y \sim \Gamma(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3, \lambda)$. Having thus proven the result for $n = 3$, it follows in the same way that it is valid for $n = 4$ and then for $n = 5$, and so on, step by step, for all natural numbers, n .

(By the way, it may be worth mentioning that this way of reasoning is called *induction proof* and is often used in mathematics.) **EOP**

Note. The assumption that the X_i 's all have the same scale, is essential. If

$$X_i \sim \Gamma(\alpha_i, \lambda_i), \quad i = 1, 2, \quad \text{where } \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2, \quad \text{we get } M_Y(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 - t} \right)^{\alpha_1} \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_2 - t} \right)^{\alpha_2},$$

that is a mgf for some distribution that is *not* a gamma distribution (since it cannot be written in the form of (1)). On the other hand, explain yourself why $Y = \lambda_1 X_1 + \lambda_2 X_2$ is gamma distributed (which one?). (Hint: use (2) and (3).)

Special case I. If X is *exponentially distributed* with parameter $\lambda > 0$, ($X \sim \exp(\lambda)$), we know that $X \sim \Gamma(1, \lambda)$ distributed. The mgf of X then follows from (1):

$$M_X(t) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t}, \text{ well defined for } t < \lambda.$$

We also get from (3) that if X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are *iid* and exponential (λ), then $Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \sim \Gamma(n, \lambda)$.

Special case II. Chi-square distributions.

(See also supplementary exercise 4 on the net.) The chi-square distributions turn out to be important as approximate or exact inference distributions for many test-problems involving several parameters tested jointly (e.g., Pearson's chi-square test and likelihood ratio testing - that both will be discussed later - as well as various regression problems).

DEF. If $Z \sim \Gamma\left(\frac{d}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$, where d is a natural number (1,2,3,...), we say that Z is *chi square distributed with d degrees of freedom* (written shortly: $Z \sim \chi_d^2$)

Some properties:

(4) If $Z \sim \chi_d^2$, $E(Z) = d$, $\text{var}(Z) = 2d$
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Proof. If $X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda)$, we have from before that $E(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda}$, $\text{var}(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2}$.

If $Z \sim \chi_d^2 = \Gamma\left(\frac{d}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$, we get $E(Z) = \frac{d/2}{1/2} = d$ and $\text{var}(Z) = \frac{d/2}{1/4} = 2d$

EOP

From (1) we get immediately

(5) If $Z \sim \chi_d^2$, the mgf is $M_Z(t) = \left(\frac{1/2}{1/2-t}\right)^{d/2} = \frac{1}{(1-2t)^{d/2}} = (1-2t)^{-d/2}$, for $t < 1/2$
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From (3) we get immediately

(6) If Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n are independent and chi-square distributed, i.e., $Z_i \sim \chi_{d_i}^2$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, then $Y = Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_n$ is chi square distributed with $d = d_1 + d_2 + \dots + d_n$ degrees of freedom (i.e., $\Gamma\left(\frac{d}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ distributed).
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Note. The term “degrees of freedom” comes from applications when one wants to estimate a linear model with r unknown parameters based on n observations. The r parameters often imply r restrictions on the observations to estimate, leaving $d = n - r$ observations (degrees of freedom) for the estimation of variances.

(7) If X is standard normally distributed, i.e., $X \sim N(0,1)$, then $Y = X^2$ is chi-square distributed with 1 degree of freedom, i.e., $Y \sim \chi_1^2$.

(This is a classical result that Rice proves in the basic way using cdf's. As an illustration we may also prove it using mgf's instead:)

Proof. Let $X \sim N(0,1)$ and $Y = X^2$. The pdf of X is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty$$

The mgf of $Y = X^2$ then becomes

$$M_Y(t) = E\left(e^{tX^2}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx^2} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{(t-\frac{1}{2})x^2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-2t)}x^2} dx$$

Multiplying and dividing by $(1-2t)^{-1/2}$, we obtain the total integral of a normal pdf, of $N\left[0, (1-2t)^{-1}\right]$, which is equal to 1. So

$$M_Y(t) = (1-2t)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} (1-2t)^{-1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-2t)}x^2} dx = (1-2t)^{-1/2} \quad \text{for } t < 1/2,$$

which is the mgf (see (5)) of the χ_1^2 distribution. The uniqueness of the mgf then implies that $Y \sim \chi_1^2$. **EOP**

Using (6) and (7) we obtain immediately an important technical result that often underlies various distribution theorems relevant for handling statistically linear models with unknown parameters to be estimated.

(As an example, Rice uses it as part of the proof (see the first sentence) of theorem B of section 6.3 (optional reading), where he proves that if

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are iid and normal, $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sigma^2} \sim \chi_{n-1}^2$$

(8) If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent and standard normally distributed, i.e., $X_i \sim N(0,1)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, then $Y = X_1^2 + X_2^2 + \dots + X_n^2 \sim$ chi squared distributed with n degrees of freedom.