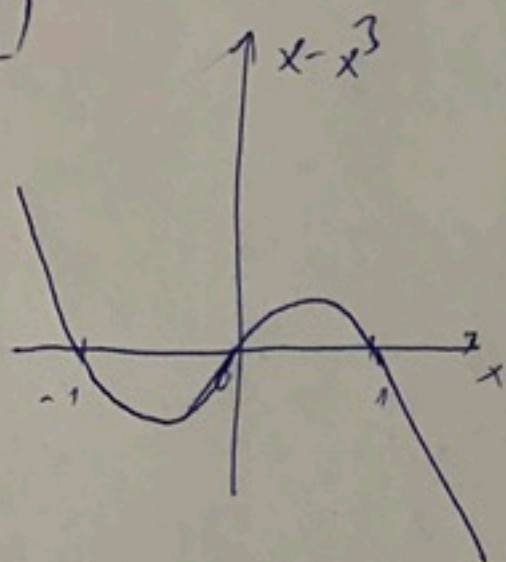


[1.]



a)  $x - x^3$  is positive on  $(0, 1)$ , so

$$A_n = \int_0^1 e^{n f(x)} dx \text{ with}$$

$$f(x) := \ln(x - x^3) \quad (\text{at least for } 0 < x < 1)$$

This  $f$  is twice differentiable with a unique global

Maximum:  $f'(x) = \frac{1-3x^2}{x-x^3} = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} =: x_0$ , the unique global max. place

$$f''(x) = \frac{-6x(x-x^3) - (1-3x^2)^2}{(x-x^3)^2} = \frac{6x^4 - 6x^2 - (1-3x^2)^2}{x^2(1-x^2)^2}$$

So  $A := f(x_0) = \ln\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} - \frac{1}{3\sqrt{3}}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{2\sqrt{3}}{9}\right)$

$B := -f''(x_0) = \frac{6 \cdot \frac{1}{9} - 6 \cdot \frac{1}{3} - 0^2}{\frac{1}{3} \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right)^2} = \frac{\frac{2}{3} - 2}{\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{4}{9}} = \frac{-\frac{4}{3}}{\frac{4}{27}} = -9$

$B = -f''(x_0) > 0$ , so the maximum is non-degenerate

$\Rightarrow$  by the Laplace method

$$A_n \sim e^{nA} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{nB}} = \left(\frac{2\sqrt{3}}{9}\right)^n \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{9n}}$$

b) For symmetry reasons  $B_n = \begin{cases} 2A_n & \text{if } n \text{ is even, that is} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$

$$B_n = \overline{\overline{1 + (-1)^n}} A_n \sim \overline{\overline{[1 + (-1)^n]}} \left(\frac{2\sqrt{3}}{9}\right)^n \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{9n}}$$

[2.]

$f$  is spherically symmetric:  $f(x) = \begin{cases} |x|^2 & \text{if } |x| \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if not} \end{cases} =: \tilde{f}(r)$   
 $r = |x|$

so by the high-dimensional polar coordinate substitution theorem

theorem

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) dx = \int_0^1 C_n r^{n-1} \tilde{f}(r) dr = C_n \int_0^1 \underbrace{r^{n-1}}_{r^{n-1}} \cdot r^2 dr = C_n \left[ \frac{r^{n+2}}{n+2} \right]_0^1 =$$

$$= \frac{C_n}{n+2} = \frac{2\pi^{n/2}}{(n+2)\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})}$$

[3.]

$$\int f d\mu \stackrel{\mu = f \cdot \nu}{=} \int f d f \cdot \nu \stackrel{\text{integral substitution theorem}}{=} \int f \circ f d\nu =$$

$$\stackrel{d\nu = f d\mathbb{Z}}{=} \int (f \circ f) \cdot f d\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\mathbb{Z} \text{ is counting measure on } \mathbb{Z}}{=} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} f(k) \cdot f(k)$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} f(|k|) \cdot f(k) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} (k^2)^2 \cdot k^2 = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} k^6 = \underline{\underline{A_6}}$$

[4.]

NOT true since  $\varphi(x) := x$  is not bounded.

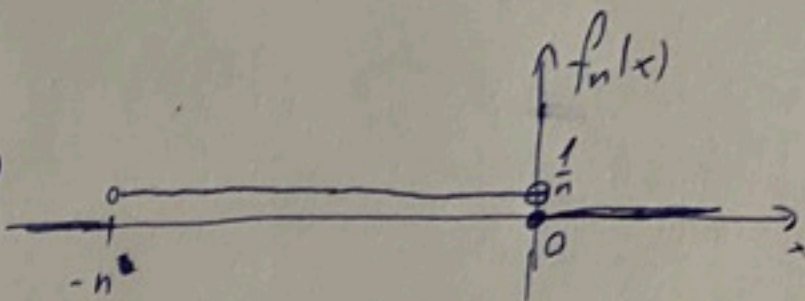
Example: Let  $X_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{with prob. } 1 - \frac{1}{n} \\ n & \text{with prob. } \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}; X \equiv 0$

Then  $X_n \Rightarrow X$ , but  $EX_n = 1 \rightarrow 0 = EX$

5

NOT true in general: e.g. let

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } -n < x < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if not} \end{cases}$$



$$f(x) \equiv 0$$

Then  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  for every  $x$ , but

e.g. for  $y=0$

$$\int_{-\infty}^y f_n(x) dx = 1 \not\rightarrow 0 = \int_{-\infty}^y f(x) dx$$

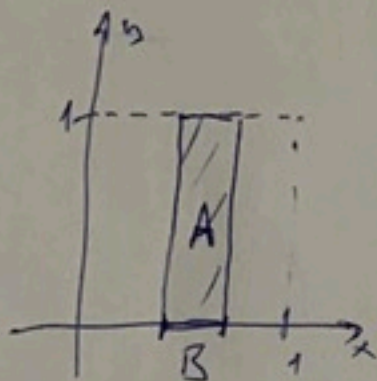
Remark: The statement is true under the extra

assumption that  $\int_{-b}^a f_n(x) dx = \int_{-b}^a f(x) dx$  for  $\forall n$  :

See the homework "weak convergence and densities":  
convergence of the densities to a ~~dens~~ probability density

implies weak convergence.

[6] SOLUTION 1



$\mathcal{G}$  consists of sets  $A = B \times [0, 1]$   
 where  $B \subset [0, 1]$  is Borel.

Correspondingly,  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable functions

$Z: \Omega = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x, y \leq 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  depend  
 on  $x$  only:

$$Z := \mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}) = \cancel{\mathbb{E}(Y)} Z(x, y) = f(x).$$

The other requirement is  $\iint_{B \times [0, 1]} Z dP = \iint_{B \times [0, 1]} Y dP$  for every  
 Borel set  $B \subset [0, 1]$ ,

so for  $B = [a, b] \subset [0, 1]$  this means

$$\int_a^b \int_0^1 \cancel{f(x)} \frac{dP(x, y)}{dP(x, y)} = \int_a^b \int_0^1 y dP(x, y)$$

a.) If  $P = \text{Leb}$ , then

$$\text{LHS} = \int_a^b \int_0^1 f(x) dP(x, y) = \int_a^b \int_0^1 f(x) dy dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\text{RHS} = \int_a^b \int_0^1 y dP(x, y) = \int_a^b \int_0^1 y dy dx = \int_a^b \frac{1}{2} dx$$

so  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}$   
 will do.  
 $\mathbb{E}(Y | \mathcal{G}) = \frac{1}{2}$

b.) If  $P$  has density  $g$ , then

$$\text{LHS} = \int_a^b \int_0^1 f(x) dP(x, y) = \int_a^b \int_0^1 f(x) g(x, y) dy dx = \int_a^b f(x) \left[ \int_0^1 g(x, y) dy \right] dx$$

$$\text{RHS} = \int_a^b \int_0^1 y dP(x, y) = \int_a^b \left[ \int_0^1 y g(x, y) dy \right] dx$$

so these  
 are equal  
 for  $\forall a < b$   
 iff

[6] Solution 1 continued

$$f(x) = \frac{\int_0^1 y g(x,y) dy}{\int_0^1 g(x,y) dy}$$

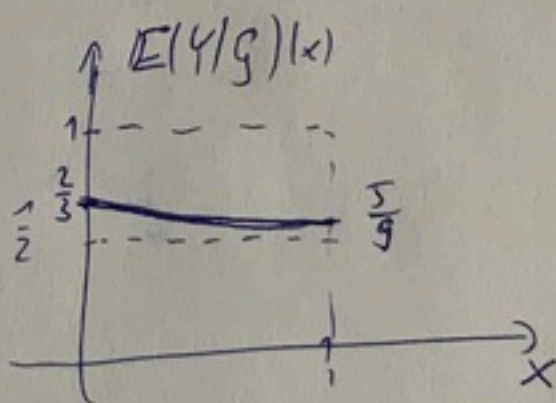
In our particular case  $g(x,y) = x+y$ , so

$$\int_0^1 g(x,y) dy = \int_0^1 x+y dy = x + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\int_0^1 y g(x,y) dy = \int_0^1 y(x+y) dy = \int_0^1 xy + y^2 dy = \frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = \frac{\frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{3}}{x + \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{3x+2}{3(2x+1)} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1/12}{x + \frac{1}{2}}$$

so  $E(Y|g) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1/12}{x + \frac{1}{2}}$



[6] SOLUTION 2: Since  $X$  and  $Y$  are coordinate projections,  $g$  is the joint density of  $(X, Y)$ . So we know from class that

a.)  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent  $\Rightarrow E(Y|g) = E(Y|X) = EY = \frac{1}{2}$

b.)  $E(Y|g) = E(Y|X) = f(x)$  with  $f(x) = \frac{\int_{\mathbb{R}} y g(x,y) dy}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x,y) dy} = \dots = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1/12}{x + \frac{1}{2}}$

$\Rightarrow E(Y|g) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1/12}{x + \frac{1}{2}}$

[7]  $Z^3$  determines  $Z$  uniquely, so it also determines  $Z^2$  uniquely, so  $Z^2$  is  $\sigma(Z^3)$ -measurable

$$\Rightarrow E(Z^2 | Z^3) = E(Z^2 | \sigma(Z^3)) = \underline{\underline{Z^2}}$$

[8] The covariance matrix  $C$  is degenerate with a zero eigenvalue, meaning that  $(X, Y)$  is actually concentrated on a lower dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

Indeed, the correlation coefficient is

$$r(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{D_X D_Y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1} \cdot \sqrt{1}} = 1 \quad \text{so (and } D_X = D_Y)$$

so  $Y = X + c$  with some constant  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{E(X | X+Y)}} = E(X | 2X+c) \underline{\underline{= X}}$$