

Solutions for exercise 7

1. If we are not interested in the dependencies inside the groups  $\mathbf{X}_1$  or  $\mathbf{X}_2$  but are interested only on dependencies between these groups, we can use canonical correlation analysis (CCA). It means that we try to find projections from  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\mathbf{X}_2$  which would be as correlated as possible. CCA uses only second-order statistics; for Gaussian variables this is sufficient but CCA can also be used for non-Gaussian variables. For a tutorial on CCA, see, e.g., the one by Magnus Borga available at <http://people.imt.liu.se/~magnus/cca/>. The following is partly based on the information in that tutorial.

The correlation coefficient between zero mean random variables  $a$  and  $b$  is defined to be  $\rho_{ab} = E\{ab\} / \sqrt{E\{a^2\}E\{b^2\}}$ . We have projections  $a_i = \mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{x}_1$  and  $b_i = \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{x}_2$  and we would like to maximise the correlations between  $a_i$  and  $b_i$ . We restrict the solutions to be uncorrelated for different  $i$ :  $E\{a_i a_j\} = E\{b_i b_j\} = E\{a_i b_j\} = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ .

For the  $i$ th projections we have

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_{a_i b_i} &= \frac{E\{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2^T \mathbf{v}_i\}}{\sqrt{E\{\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{u}_i\} E\{\mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}_2^T \mathbf{v}_i\}}} = \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T E\{\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2^T\} \mathbf{v}_i}{\sqrt{\mathbf{u}_i^T E\{\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T\} \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T E\{\mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}_2^T\} \mathbf{v}_i}} \\ &= \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \mathbf{v}_i}{\sqrt{\mathbf{u}_i^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2 \mathbf{v}_i}}. \end{aligned}$$

It can be shown that the maximization corresponds to solving either one of the following eigenvalue equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}^T \mathbf{u}_i &= \rho_{a_i b_i}^2 \mathbf{u}_i \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \mathbf{v}_i &= \rho_{a_i b_i}^2 \mathbf{v}_i. \end{aligned}$$

**Connection to singular value decomposition.** Canonical correlations are invariant to affine transformations (for example, if a transformation  $\mathbf{A}$  is used for  $\mathbf{x}_1$ , just set  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{u}_i$ ). Therefore, to simplify the situation, suppose that  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\mathbf{X}_2$  have been whitened (see problem 4 for the precise transformations needed). Then  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 = \mathbf{I}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2 = \mathbf{I}$ . (Note that  $\mathbf{X}_1$  and  $\mathbf{X}_2$  can have different dimensionalities, so the two identity matrices can be of different sizes.) The eigenvalue equations then become

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}^T \mathbf{u}_i = \rho_{a_i b_i}^2 \mathbf{u}_i, \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} \mathbf{v}_i = \rho_{a_i b_i}^2 \mathbf{v}_i. \quad (1)$$

Solving the above equations corresponds to *singular value decomposition* (SVD) of  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12}$ . SVD is similar to eigendecomposition but the orthogonal matrices need not be the same. This also means the SVD can be extended for non-square matrices. The singular value decomposition for matrix  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} = E\{\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2^T\}$  gives a decomposition  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{12} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{V}^T$ , where  $\mathbf{U}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$  are orthogonal square matrices and  $\mathbf{D}$  is a matrix which has non-zero elements

only on its diagonal. Notice that  $\mathbf{D}$  has the same shape as  $\mathbf{\Sigma}_{12}$  and it is therefore not necessarily square. The matrices  $\mathbf{U}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$  are computed by eigendecomposition:

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_{12} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^T \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{12}\mathbf{\Sigma}_{12}^T = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V}\mathbf{D}^T\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{D}^T\mathbf{U}^T & \text{and} \\ \mathbf{\Sigma}_{12}^T\mathbf{\Sigma}_{12} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{D}^T\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{D}^T\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^T. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Therefore  $\mathbf{U}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$  are the same as the solutions to the eigenvalue equations (1):  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \dots \mathbf{u}_n]^T$  and  $\mathbf{V} = [\mathbf{v}_1 \dots \mathbf{v}_m]^T$  and the diagonal elements of  $\mathbf{D}$  are the corresponding correlation coefficients  $\rho_i$ .

Note: SVD can be seen as an extension to eigendecomposition. If SVD is done for the covariance matrix  $\mathbf{\Sigma}_1 = E\{\mathbf{x}_1\mathbf{x}_1^T\}$ , we have  $\mathbf{\Sigma}_1\mathbf{\Sigma}_1^T = \mathbf{\Sigma}_1^T\mathbf{\Sigma}_1$  and  $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{D}^T = \mathbf{D}^T\mathbf{D}$  in equation (2), and the orthogonal matrices  $\mathbf{U}$  and  $\mathbf{V}$  are therefore the same. The diagonal matrix then contains the eigenvalues which can be interpreted as variances to the directions given by the eigenvectors. For  $\mathbf{\Sigma}_{12}$  the diagonal elements give the correlation coefficients (assuming that  $\mathbf{\Sigma}_{12}$  is computed for the whitened data).

2. (a) We shall use subindices  $k$  and  $l$  instead of  $i$  and  $j$  in order to avoid confusion with the  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ . Denote the Fourier transform of the sequence  $x_k(t)$  by  $X_k(\omega)$  and the Fourier transform of  $s_l(t)$  by  $S_l(\omega)$ . Recall that the Fourier transform changes a delay by  $D_{kl}$  into multiplication with term  $e^{i\omega D_{kl}}$ . Fourier transforming both sides of the equation defining the mixtures thus yields

$$X_k(\omega) = \sum_{l=1}^N a_{kl} e^{i\omega D_{kl}} S_l(\omega).$$

This can be written as  $\mathbf{X}(\omega) = \mathbf{A}(\omega)\mathbf{S}(\omega)$  when  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{S}$  are defined to be the vectors containing  $X_k$  and  $S_l$  and

$$\mathbf{A}(\omega) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}e^{i\omega D_{11}} & \dots & a_{1N}e^{i\omega D_{1N}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{M1}e^{i\omega D_{M1}} & \dots & a_{MN}e^{i\omega D_{MN}} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Notice that  $\mathbf{A}$  is not constant.

- (b) Since the original  $a_{kl}$  are real, we have  $a_{kl} = \pm|A_{kl}|$ , where  $A_{kl}$  denotes the element of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ .
3. Assume that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are independent random variables. The kurtosis (fourth-order cumulant) of a random variable  $y$  is defined by

$$kurt(y) = E\{(y - E\{y\})^4\} - 3(E\{(y - E\{y\})^2\})^2.$$

Let us prove that  $kurt(x_1 + x_2) = kurt(x_1) + kurt(x_2)$ . We may without loss of generality assume that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are zero-mean. Then the kurtosis of  $x_1 + x_2$  is

$$\begin{aligned} kurt(x_1 + x_2) &= E\{(x_1 + x_2)^4\} - 3(E\{(x_1 + x_2)^2\})^2 \\ &= E\{x_1^4 + 4x_1^3x_2 + 6x_1^2x_2^2 + 4x_1x_2^3 + x_2^4\} - 3(E\{x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2\})^2 \end{aligned}$$

Expectation is a linear operation, ie.  $E\{\alpha y_1 + \beta y_2\} = \alpha E\{y_1\} + \beta E\{y_2\}$  for random variables  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  and scalar multipliers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . The above formula can therefore be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} kurt(x_1 + x_2) &= E\{x_1^4\} + 4E\{x_1^3x_2\} + 6E\{x_1^2x_2^2\} + 4E\{x_1x_2^3\} + E\{x_2^4\} \\ &\quad - 3(E\{x_1^2\} + 2E\{x_1x_2\} + E\{x_2^2\})^2 \\ &= E\{x_1^4\} + 4E\{x_1^3x_2\} + 6E\{x_1^2x_2^2\} + 4E\{x_1x_2^3\} + E\{x_2^4\} \\ &\quad - 3E\{x_1^2\}^2 - 12E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_1x_2\} - 6E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_2^2\} \\ &\quad - 12E\{x_1x_2\}^2 - 12E\{x_1x_2\}E\{x_2^2\} - 3E\{x_2^2\}^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are independent,  $E\{x_1^p x_2^q\} = E\{x_1^p\}E\{x_2^q\}$ , for all  $q, p \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$ . Then the above formula can be further rewritten:

$$\begin{aligned} kurt(x_1 + x_2) &= E\{x_1^4\} + 4E\{x_1^3\}E\{x_2\} + 6E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_2^2\} + 4E\{x_1\}E\{x_2^3\} + E\{x_2^4\} \\ &\quad - 3E\{x_1^2\}^2 - 12E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_1\}E\{x_2\} - 6E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_2^2\} \\ &\quad - 12E\{x_1\}^2E\{x_2\}^2 - 12E\{x_1\}E\{x_2\}E\{x_2^2\} - 3E\{x_2^2\}^2. \end{aligned}$$

Here,  $E\{x_1\} = E\{x_2\} = 0$ , so the above reduces to

$$kurt(x_1 + x_2) = E\{x_1^4\} + 6E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_2^2\} + E\{x_2^4\} - 3E\{x_1^2\}^2 - 6E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_2^2\} - 3E\{x_2^2\}^2.$$

The terms  $6E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_2^2\}$  and  $-6E\{x_1^2\}E\{x_2^2\}$  cancel each other. Rearranging terms, we get

$$kurt(x_1 + x_2) = E\{x_1^4\} - 3E\{x_1^2\}^2 + E\{x_2^4\} - 3E\{x_2^2\}^2 = kurt(x_1) + kurt(x_2).$$

Let us prove the second property  $kurt(\alpha x_1) = \alpha^4 kurt(x_1)$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} kurt(\alpha x_1) &= E\{(\alpha x_1)^4\} - 3(E\{(\alpha x_1)^2\})^2 = E\{\alpha^4 x_1^4\} - 3(E\{\alpha^2 x_1^2\})^2 \\ &= \alpha^4 E\{x_1^4\} - 3(\alpha^2 E\{x_1^2\})^2 = \alpha^4 E\{x_1^4\} - 3\alpha^4 (E\{x_1^2\})^2 \\ &= \alpha^4 (E\{x_1^4\} - 3(E\{x_1^2\})^2) = \alpha^4 kurt(x_1). \end{aligned}$$

4. Let  $\mathbf{x}$  be the observed vector, and denote

$$\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{x},$$

where  $\mathbf{E}$  is the orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors of  $E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T\}$ ,  $\mathbf{D}$  is the diagonal matrix of its eigenvalues,  $\mathbf{D} = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ , and  $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}$  is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements are simply those of  $\mathbf{D}$  raised to power  $-1/2$ ,  $\mathbf{D}^{-1/2} = \text{diag}(d_1^{-1/2}, \dots, d_n^{-1/2})$ . Let us show that  $\mathbf{x}_2$  is white.

Assume that  $\mathbf{x}$  is zero-mean ( $E\{\mathbf{x}\} = \mathbf{0}$ ). The matrices  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{D}$  are constant with regard to the expectation operator. Then

$$E\{\mathbf{x}_2\} = E\{\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{x}\} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T E\{\mathbf{x}\} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}.$$

It remains to show that  $E\{\mathbf{x}_2\mathbf{x}_2^T\} = \mathbf{I}$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} E\{\mathbf{x}_2\mathbf{x}_2^T\} &= E\{(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{x})^T\} = E\{\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T\} \\ &= \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T\}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T, \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality follows because  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{D}$  are constant with regard to expectation. From the definition of  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mathbf{D}$  we have the eigendecomposition

$$E\{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T\} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{E}^T.$$

Inserting this into the previous equation we get

$$E\{\mathbf{x}_2\mathbf{x}_2^T\} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{E}^T)\mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T.$$

Since the eigenvector matrix  $\mathbf{E}$  is orthogonal, we have  $\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}^T = \mathbf{I}$ . Applying this, we get

$$\begin{aligned} E\{\mathbf{x}_2\mathbf{x}_2^T\} &= \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}(\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{E})\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{E}^T\mathbf{E})\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T \\ &= \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{E}^T = \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{D}^{-1/2}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{D}^{-1/2})\mathbf{E}^T \\ &= \mathbf{E}(\text{diag}(d_1^{-1/2}, \dots, d_n^{-1/2}) \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n) \text{diag}(d_1^{-1/2}, \dots, d_n^{-1/2}))\mathbf{E}^T \\ &= \mathbf{E}(\text{diag}(d_1^{-1/2}, \dots, d_n^{-1/2}) \text{diag}(d_1^{1/2}, \dots, d_n^{1/2}))\mathbf{E}^T \\ &= \mathbf{E}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{E}^T = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}^T = \mathbf{I}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\mathbf{x}_2$  is white.

5. Let us consider the distribution

$$g(x) = \frac{b}{4}\{\exp(-b|x - a|) + \exp(-b|x + a|)\}$$

where we assume  $b > 0$  (otherwise  $g(x)$  would not be a distribution).

(a) The  $n^{\text{th}}$  order moment of a distribution  $p(x)$  with infinite support is

$$m_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x)x^n dx.$$

Note that  $g(x)$  is symmetric about zero. Therefore the mean (first moment) of the distribution is zero (this can also be proved by integration). The kurtosis of  $g(x)$  (the kurtosis of a random variable  $x$  distributed according to  $g(x)$ ) is then defined by

$$\text{kurt}_{g(x)}(x) = E\{x^4\} - 3(E\{x^2\})^2 = m_4 - 3m_2^2.$$

Let us calculate  $m_4$  and  $m_2$ . For  $m_n$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} m_n &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)x^n dx = \frac{b}{4} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \{\exp(-b|x - a|) + \exp(-b|x + a|)\}x^n dx \\ &= \frac{b}{4} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-b|x - a|)x^n dx + \frac{b}{4} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-b|x + a|)x^n dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{b}{4} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^a e^{b(x-a)} x^n dx + \int_a^{\infty} e^{-b(x-a)} x^n dx + \int_{-\infty}^{-a} e^{b(x+a)} x^n dx + \int_{-a}^{\infty} e^{-b(x+a)} x^n dx \right] \\
&= \frac{b}{4} \left[ e^{-ba} \int_{-\infty}^a e^{bx} x^n dx + e^{ba} \int_a^{\infty} e^{-bx} x^n dx + e^{ba} \int_{-\infty}^{-a} e^{bx} x^n dx + e^{-ba} \int_{-a}^{\infty} e^{-bx} x^n dx \right]
\end{aligned}$$

In our case,  $n$  is even, so  $x^n$  is symmetric about zero. Let us then change the integration variable from  $x$  to  $-x$  in the second and fourth integrals. We get

$$\begin{aligned}
m_n &= \frac{b}{4} \left[ e^{-ba} \int_{-\infty}^a e^{bx} x^n dx - e^{ba} \int_{-a}^{-\infty} e^{bx} x^n dx + e^{ba} \int_{-\infty}^{-a} e^{bx} x^n dx - e^{-ba} \int_a^{\infty} e^{-bx} x^n dx \right] \\
&= \frac{b}{4} \left[ e^{-ba} \int_{-\infty}^a e^{bx} x^n dx + e^{ba} \int_{-\infty}^{-a} e^{bx} x^n dx + e^{ba} \int_{-\infty}^{-a} e^{bx} x^n dx + e^{-ba} \int_{-\infty}^a e^{bx} x^n dx \right] \\
&= \frac{b}{2} \left[ e^{-ba} \int_{-\infty}^a e^{bx} x^n dx + e^{ba} \int_{-\infty}^{-a} e^{bx} x^n dx \right].
\end{aligned}$$

The remaining integrals can be computed by partial integration. For  $n = 4$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-\infty}^c e^{bx} x^4 dx &= \frac{c^4}{b} e^{bc} - \int_{-\infty}^c \frac{4}{b} e^{bx} x^3 dx \\
&= \left[ \frac{c^4}{b} - \frac{4c^3}{b^2} \right] e^{bc} + \int_{-\infty}^c \frac{12}{b^2} e^{bx} x^2 dx = \left[ \frac{c^4}{b} - \frac{4c^3}{b^2} + \frac{12c^2}{b^3} \right] e^{bc} - \int_{-\infty}^c \frac{24}{b^3} e^{bx} x dx \\
&= \left[ \frac{c^4}{b} - \frac{4c^3}{b^2} + \frac{12c^2}{b^3} - \frac{24c}{b^4} \right] e^{bc} + \int_{-\infty}^c \frac{24}{b^4} e^{bx} dx = \left[ \frac{c^4}{b} - \frac{4c^3}{b^2} + \frac{12c^2}{b^3} - \frac{24c}{b^4} + \frac{24}{b^5} \right] e^{bc}
\end{aligned}$$

Inserting this result into the formula for  $m_4$ , with  $a$  and  $-a$  in place of  $c$ , respectively, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
m_4 &= \frac{b}{2} e^{-ba+ba} \left[ \left( \frac{a^4}{b} - \frac{4a^3}{b^2} + \frac{12a^2}{b^3} - \frac{24a}{b^4} + \frac{24}{b^5} \right) + \left( \frac{a^4}{b} + \frac{4a^3}{b^2} + \frac{12a^2}{b^3} + \frac{24a}{b^4} + \frac{24}{b^5} \right) \right] \\
&= b \left[ \frac{a^4}{b} + \frac{12a^2}{b^3} + \frac{24}{b^5} \right].
\end{aligned}$$

Performing a similar partial integration procedure for  $m_2$ , we get

$$m_2 = \frac{b}{2} \left[ e^{-ba} e^{ba} \left( \frac{a^2}{b} - \frac{2a}{b^2} + \frac{2}{b^3} \right) + e^{ba} e^{-ba} \left( \frac{a^2}{b} + \frac{2a}{b^2} + \frac{2}{b^3} \right) \right] = b \left[ \frac{a^2}{b} + \frac{2}{b^3} \right].$$

Inserting these results into the moment-based formula for the kurtosis, we have

$$kurt_{g(x)}(x) = m_4 - 3m_2^2 = b \left[ \frac{a^4}{b} + \frac{12a^2}{b^3} + \frac{24}{b^5} \right] - 3b^2 \left[ \frac{a^4}{b^2} + \frac{4a^2}{b^4} + \frac{4}{b^6} \right] = \frac{12 - 2a^4 b^4}{b^4}.$$

Let us assume that the distribution  $g(x)$  has unit variance ( $m_2 = 1$ ). Then

$$b \left[ \frac{a^2}{b} + \frac{2}{b^3} \right] = a^2 + \frac{2}{b^2} = 1 \Rightarrow \left( a^2 + \frac{2}{b^2} \right)^2 = a^4 + \frac{4a^2}{b^2} + \frac{4}{b^4} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow b^4 = b^4 a^4 + 4a^2 b^2 + 4 \Rightarrow kurt_{g(x)}(x) = \frac{12 - 2a^4 b^4}{4 + 4a^2 b^2 + a^4 b^4}.$$

Here we require  $b^2 > 0 \Rightarrow a^2 < 1$ , where the the right-hand side follows from the unit variance assumption. In this case, the previous formula is in fact simpler.

(b) Since  $b^4 > 0$ , the sign of the kurtosis depends only on the numerator term of the above expression.

i. When the kurtosis is negative, we have

$$12 - 2a^4b^4 < 0 \Rightarrow a^4 > \frac{6}{b^4} \Rightarrow a^2 > \frac{\sqrt{6}}{b^2} \Rightarrow |a| > \frac{\sqrt[4]{6}}{b}.$$

With the unit variance assumption, we have  $b^4 = 4/(1 - 2a^2 + a^4)$ , from which

$$a^4 > \frac{6}{b^4} = \frac{3}{2}(1 - 2a^2 + a^4) \Rightarrow a^4 - 6a^2 + 3 < 0, a^2 > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 3 - \sqrt{6} < a^2 < 3 + \sqrt{6} \Rightarrow \sqrt{3 - \sqrt{6}} < |a| < \sqrt{3 + \sqrt{6}} \Rightarrow \sqrt{3 - \sqrt{6}} < |a| < 1.$$

The corresponding values for  $b$  can be calculated from the unit variance assumption (see the formula above).

ii. The kurtosis is zero when  $|a| = \sqrt[4]{6}/b$ . In the unit variance case this becomes  $|a| = \sqrt{3 - \sqrt{6}}$  (2 points).

iii. The kurtosis is positive when  $|a| < \sqrt[4]{6}/b$ . In the unit variance case this becomes  $|a| < \sqrt{3 - \sqrt{6}}$  (1 interval).

(c) Distributions (or the associated random variables) with negative kurtosis are called subgaussian and distributions with positive kurtosis are called supergaussian. Here, the distribution  $g(x)$  can be either, depending on the values of  $a$  and  $b$  (see the previous section). In the figure below, the solid curve is subgaussian, the dashed curve has zero kurtosis and the dashdot curve is supergaussian.

