HW5 Solutions

Dr. Nick 3/4/2020

4.4.6

a. The median \tilde{x} can be computed

$$F(x)=\int_0^x 2tdt=x^2, \qquad ilde x=\sqrt{2}/2.$$

Then,

$$P(X_{(1)} > \sqrt{2}/2) = \left(1 - F\left(rac{\sqrt{2}}{2}
ight)
ight)^3 = (1 - (1/2))^3 = 1/8$$

b. The joint density is given by (see textbook)

$$g(y_1,y_2,y_3)=48y_1y_2y_3.$$

Then, the joint of (Y_1, Y_2) can be found by integrating over y_1 to get

$$g(y_2,y_3)=24y_2^3y_3.$$

Next, compute several expectations:

$$egin{aligned} E(Y_2Y_3) &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{y_3} 24y_2^4y_3^2dy_2dy_3 = 3/5 \ g(y_2) &= \int_{y_2}^1 24y_2^3y_3dy_3 = 12y_2^3(1-y_2^2) \ E(Y_2) &= 24/35 \ E(Y_3) &= 6/7 \ \sigma_{Y_2} &= 0.1726149 \ \sigma_{Y_3} &= 0.123718 \ Corr(Y_2,Y_3) &= 0.5733819 \end{aligned}$$

4.4.7

The formulas in the text for continuous distributions make use of differentiation of CDFs and use the fact that $P(X < c) = P(X \le c)$ when X is continuous. For discrete r.v.'s we have to be more careful about inequalities, and pmfs are not exactly analogous to pdfs so the formulas have a different interpretation.

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We can use a counting argument to argue that the given function is the pmf of Y_1 . First,

$$P(Y_1=1)=P(ext{not all are bigger than }1)=1-(5/6)^5$$

Next,

$$P(Y_1 = 2) = P(\text{not all are bigger than } 2 \text{ and none are } 1)$$

= P(none are 1) - P(none are 1 and all are bigger than 2)

$$=(5/6)^5-(4/6)^5$$

This argument can be repeated for $P(Y_1 = 3)$ and so on...and these probabilities match the pmf given.

4.4.8

Use Formula 4.4.3:

$$5!(1-e^{-y_2})(e^{-y_2}-e^{-y_4})e^{-y_4}e^{-y_2}e^{-y_4}$$

Put $y_2 = z_1$ and $y_4 = z_1 + z_2$ and note the absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian is simply 1:

$$=5!(1-e^{-z_1})e^{-4z_1}e^{-2z_2}(1-e^{-z_2})$$

which factors into a function of z_1 and a function of z_2 . Therefore, the two are independent.

4.7.6

```
data<-matrix(c(15,25,32,17,11,9,18,29,28,16),5,2)
chisq.test(data)</pre>
```

```
##
## Pearson's Chi-squared test
##
## data: data
## X-squared = 6.4019, df = 4, p-value = 0.1711
```

```
expected.counts<-t(outer(colSums(data), rowSums(data))/sum(data))
test.stat<-sum(((data-expected.counts)^2)/expected.counts)
test.stat</pre>
```

[1] 6.401891

qchisq(.95,4)

[1] 9.487729

pchisq(test.stat,4)

[1] 0.828922

Do not reject the null hypothesis of homogeneity.

4.8.2

```
U <- runif(10000)
mc.est <- mean(1/(1+U))
est.se <- sd(1/(1+U))/sqrt(10000)
abs.error<-abs(mc.est - log(2))
abs.error</pre>
```

[1] 0.001581317

```
perc.error <- abs.error/log(2)
perc.error</pre>
```

[1] 0.002281358

c(mc.est - log(2) - 1.96*est.se, mc.est - log(2) + 1.96*est.se)

[1] -0.001150324 0.004312958

4.8.18

a. To use the inverse CDF method first find the CDF

$$F(x)=\int_0^xeta t^{eta-1}dt=x^eta.$$

Then, we find the inverse:

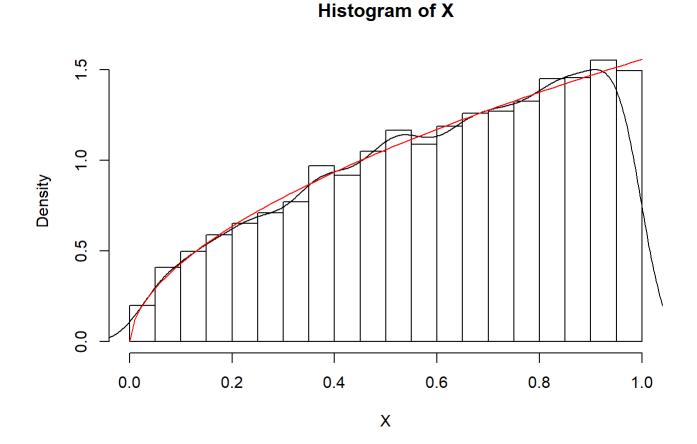
$$y=x^eta \Rightarrow x=y^{1/eta}.$$

Therefore, to general X we generate $U \sim Unif(0, 1)$ and assign $X = U^{1/\beta}$. For a simulation of this see the R code below (this was optional):

beta<- rexp(1)+1
beta</pre>

[1] 1.556455

```
U <- runif(10000)
X <- U^{1/beta}
hist(X, freq = FALSE)
lines(density(X))
curve(beta*x^(beta-1), 0,1,add = TRUE, col = 'red')</pre>
```



b)Notice that $\beta \exp(-(-x+1))$ dominates $\beta x^{\beta-1}$ when $\beta \ge 2$. This first function is a constant multiple of a shifted, reflected, and restricted exponential distribution with CDF $\frac{e^{x-1}-e^{-1}}{1-e^{-1}}$ for $x \in (0,1)$ so we can obtain samples from the inverse CDF method.

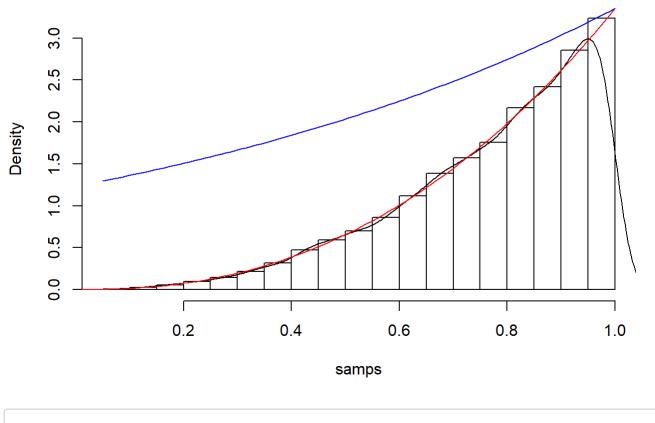
For $1 < eta \leq 2$ use a uniform distribution for the proposal distribution g.

beta<- rexp(1)+1 # just picking a beta at random, it has to be at least 1
beta</pre>

[1] 3.353966

```
desired.samps <- 10000
num.samps <- 0
num.tries<-0
samps<-rep(NA, desired.samps)</pre>
if(beta>2){
while(num.samps < 10000){</pre>
 x <- log(runif(1)*(1-exp(-1))+exp(-1))+1 #reflected and shifted exponential
  u < - runif(1)
  if(u<=((beta*(x^(beta-1)))/(beta*(exp(x-1)/(1-exp(-1)))))) {</pre>
    num.samps <- num.samps+1</pre>
    samps[num.samps]<-x</pre>
  }
  num.tries <- num.tries+1</pre>
}
hist(samps, freq=FALSE, ylim = c(0,beta))
lines(density(samps))
curve(beta*exp(-(1-x)), add=TRUE, col='blue')
curve(beta*x^(beta-1), 0,1,add = TRUE, col = 'red')
print(num.samps/num.tries)
print(1/beta)
} else {
while(num.samps < 10000){</pre>
 x <- runif(1) #reflected and shifted exponential
  u < - runif(1)
  if(u<=((beta*(x^(beta-1)))/(beta))) {</pre>
    num.samps <- num.samps+1</pre>
    samps[num.samps]<-x</pre>
  }
  num.tries <- num.tries+1</pre>
}
hist(samps, freq=FALSE, ylim = c(0,beta))
lines(density(samps))
abline(a=beta, b=0, col="blue")
curve(beta*x^(beta-1), 0,1,add = TRUE, col = 'red')
print(num.samps/num.tries)
print(1/beta)
}
```

Histogram of samps



[1] 0.3019324
[1] 0.2981545

4.8.21

This problem requires a good deal of geometry. Consider the joint distribution of (U, V). Since each is independent Unif(-1, 1) they are jointly independent coordinates on the square in the Euclidean plane with vertices $(\pm 1, \pm 1)$. And, $W = U^2 + V^2$ is the square of the hypotenuse of the triangle formed by (0, 0), (U, 0), and (U, V). If we consider only points (U, V) with W < 1 then we have the circle of radius 1 which is inscribed in the above square. Points (U, V) such that W < 1 must be uniformly distributed on the circle of radius 1 with center at the origin. Next turn your attention to X_1 and X_2 . We have

$$X_1 = rac{U}{\sqrt{W}} \sqrt{-2\log W}, ext{ and } X_2 = rac{V}{\sqrt{W}} \sqrt{-2\log W}.$$

Thinking back to the triangle formed by (0,0), (U,0), and (U,V) notice that $\frac{U}{\sqrt{W}} = \cos\theta$ and $\frac{V}{\sqrt{W}} = \sin\theta$ where θ is the angle btween the hypotense and the x-axis. Given W which is the square of the radius (hypotenuse) we actually do not know anything about θ . Hence, θ is independent from W which means $\frac{V}{\sqrt{W}}$ and $\frac{U}{\sqrt{W}}$ are independent of W. What is the distribution of W, the square of the radius? Well, the probability W < w is simply the area of the circle with radius \sqrt{w} divided by the area of the circle of radius 1, which is $\frac{\pi w}{\pi} = w$. 3/13/2020

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Therefore, W is uniformly distributed on (0, 1) because its CDF matches that of a Uniform (0, 1) CDF. What is the distribution of θ ? Since the points (U, V) are uniform on the disk, it's clear that the angle θ is uniformly distributed on $(0, 2\pi)$ with density $1/(2\pi)$. Then, write X_1 and X_2 as

$$X_1 = \cos heta \sqrt{-2 \log W}, ~~ ext{and} ~~ X_2 = \sin heta \sqrt{-2 \log W}.$$

We can solve these equations for heta and W noting that $\cos \arctan x = rac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$ so that

$$heta=rac{x_1}{\sqrt{x_1^2+x_2^2}}, \ \ ext{and} \ \ W=e^{-rac{1}{2}(x_1^2+x_2^2)}.$$

Then, use the transformation method:

$$rac{\partial W}{\partial x_1}=-x_1e^{-rac{1}{2}(x_1^2+x_2^2)}, ext{ and } rac{\partial W}{\partial x_2}=-x_2e^{-rac{1}{2}(x_1^2+x_2^2)} \ rac{\partial heta}{\partial x_1}=-rac{x_2}{x_1^2+x_2^2}, ext{ and } rac{\partial heta}{\partial x_2}=rac{x_1}{x_1^2+x_2^2}$$

using the fact that $\frac{d}{dx} \arctan(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$. The determinant of the Jacobian (in absolute value) is $e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x_1^2+x_2^2)}$ and the density of θ is $\frac{1}{2\pi}$ so the joint density of (X_1, X_2) is the product of standard normal densities, as claimed.