Analytics 511: Homework #2

Brody Vogel September 16th

Preparation

 $Pr(X \leq 10) \approx .4506$

```
Problem 9
```

 $\Pr(\mathrm{X}>5)=1$ - $\Pr(\mathrm{X}\leq5)pprox.8492$

$$\Pr(|X$$
 - $8| < 3) = \Pr(X < 11)$ - $\Pr(X \le 5) \approx .3558$

 $z\,\approx\,4.0258$

```
pgamma(10, shape = 2.5, scale = 5)

## [1] 0.450584

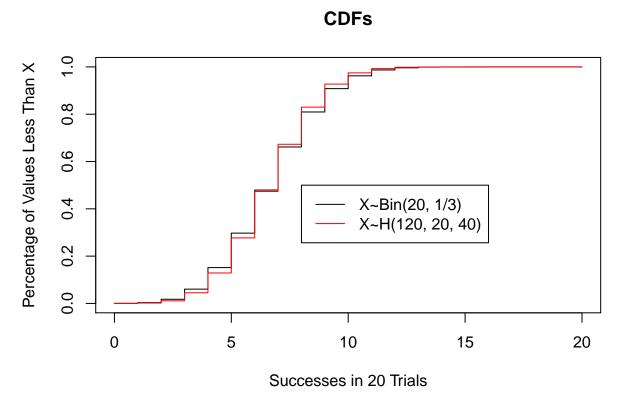
1 - pgamma(5, shape = 2.5, scale = 5)

## [1] 0.849145

pgamma(10.9999, shape = 2.5, scale = 5) - pgamma(5, shape = 2.5, scale = 5)

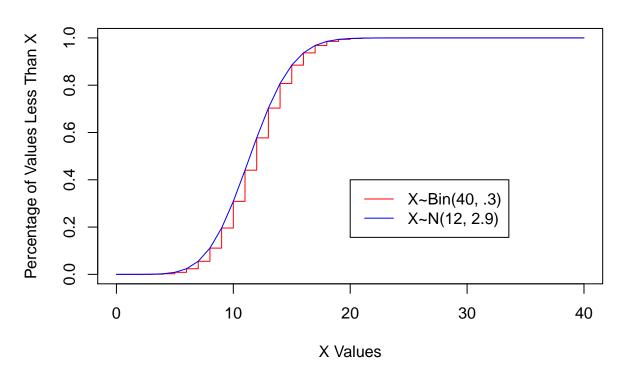
## [1] 0.3557661

z <- qgamma(.1, shape = 2.5, scale = 5)</pre>
z
```

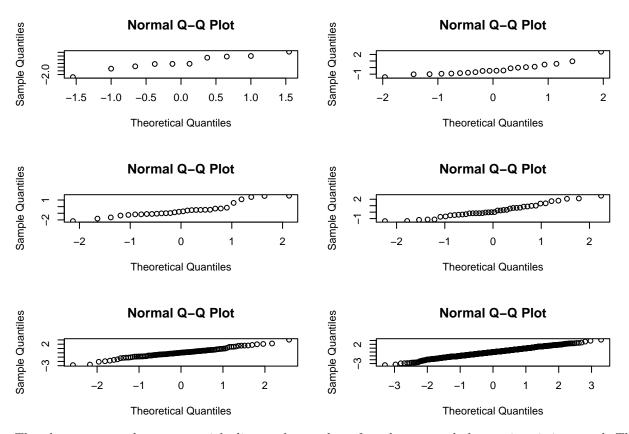


The plot confirms that the distributions are nearly identical.

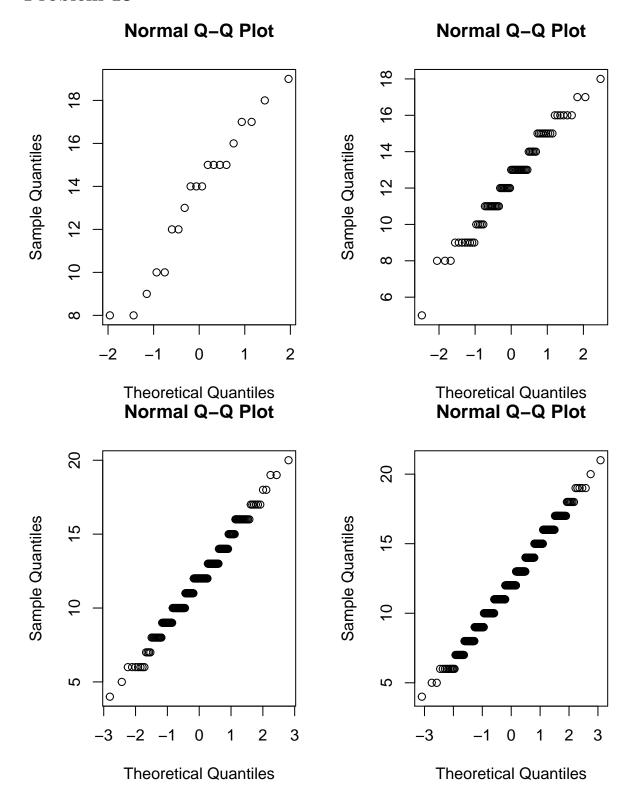




The two distributions are very close, so much so that if you plot them using the same linetype they overlap. The biggest difference is that the Normally-distributed CDF is continuous, whereas the Binomial is discrete. Also, and relatedly, the Binomially-distributed line hits 1.0 exactly at 40, whereas the Normally-distributed line never reaches 1 because it has an infinite upper bound.

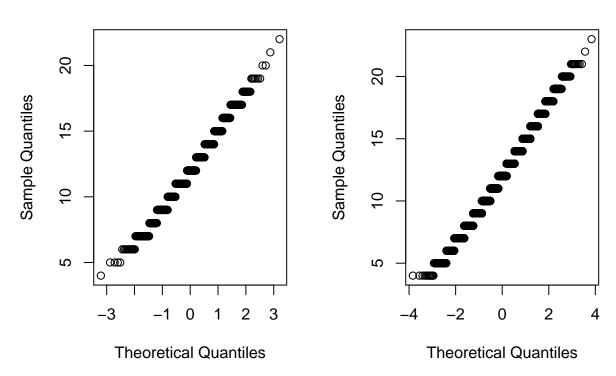


The plots get very close to a straight line as the number of random normal observations is increased. The furthest deviations from a sraight line occur at the ends of the plots where outliers can change the shape.



Normal Q-Q Plot

Normal Q-Q Plot



The plots come out looking like staircase plots because the samples are from a discrete distribution. So, instead of looking like a continuous line, the steps get longer as the sample size increases, because there are more observations of discrete values. Hence, the rbinom(x, 40, .3) call, for example, will never produce the value 12.5, because it's impossible to get 12.5 successes in 40 trials; it will, however, produce longer steps as x increases.

Problem 14

a) 1 -
$$Pr(X \le 3) \approx .00135$$

b) 1 -
$$\Pr(X \le 42) \approx .12167$$

c)
$$Pr(k = 10) = \binom{10}{10}.8^{10} * .2^0 \approx .10737$$

d)
$$F(.9) = .9/1 = .9$$

e) 1 -
$$F(6.5) \approx .03877$$

```
a <- 1 - pnorm(3)

b <- 1 - pnorm(42, mean = 35, sd = 6)

c <- .8^10

d <- (.9 - 0) / 1

e <- 1 - pchisq(6.5, df = 2)
```

```
## [1] 0.001349898

## [1] 0.1216725

c

## [1] 0.1073742

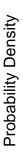
d

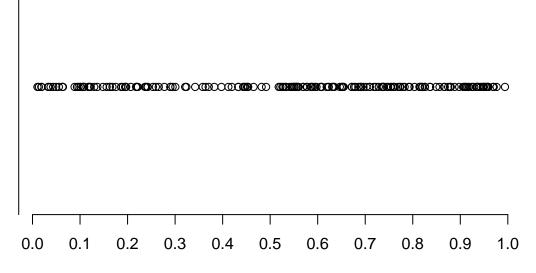
## [1] 0.9

e

## [1] 0.03877421
```

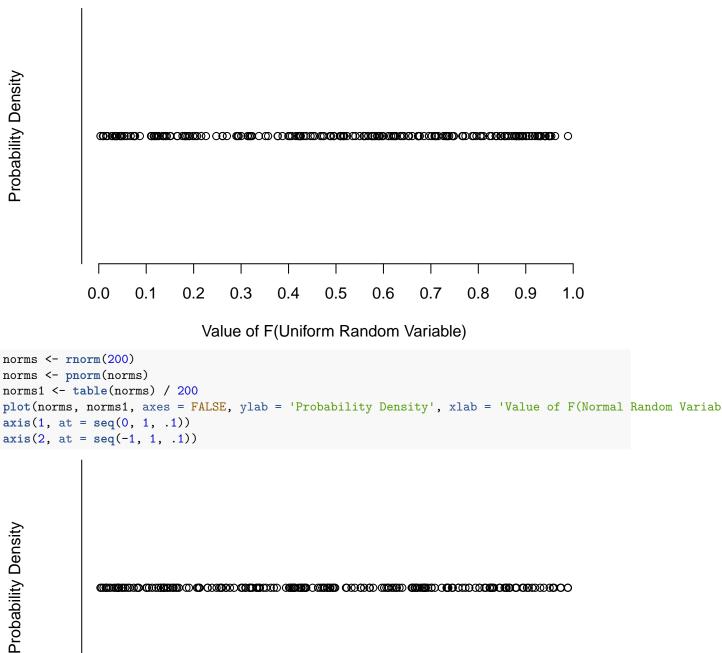
```
options(digits = 20)
exps <- rexp(200)
exps <- pexp(exps)
exps1 <- table(exps)/200
plot(exps, exps1, axes = FALSE, ylab = 'Probability Density', xlab = 'Value of F(Exponential Random Variation(1, at = seq(0, 1, .1))
axis(2, at = seq(-.2, 1, .05))</pre>
```

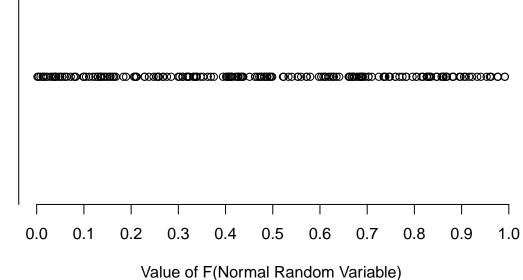




Value of F(Exponential Random Variable)

```
unis <- runif(200)
unis <- punif(unis)
unis1 <- table(unis) / 200
plot(unis, unis1, axes = FALSE, ylab = 'Probability Density', xlab = 'Value of F(Uniform Random Variablaxis(1, at = seq(0, 1, .1))
axis(2, at = seq(0, 1, .2))</pre>
```





Each new random variable, U = F(X), appears to be $\sim Unif(0,1)$, which can be proven as follows.

-Let $X \sim EXP(\lambda)$. -Because X is continuous, no two values from any sample will be equal. -Because no two values of X from any sample will be equal, no two values of F(X) will be equal. -So our new random variable, U = F(X), is uniformly distributed at 1 / size of the sample. -Also, because $Pr(X = n, n \in R) = 0$, the point at which U is uniformly distributed will approach 0 as the sample size approaches infinity.

Problem 16

```
\alpha \approx .26
```

```
expys <- replicate(2000, rexp(1) + rexp(1))
qqnorm(expys^.26)
qqline(expys^.26)</pre>
```

Normal Q-Q Plot

