Statistics: Homework 1

Due on Aug 5, 2014

 $Instructor:\ Rados\ Radoicic\ 6:00\ pm$

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The standard Student's t distribution

The standard Student's t distribution is a special case of Student's t distribution. By first explaining this special case, the exposition of the more general case is greatly facilitated. The standard Student's t distribution is characterized as follows:

Definition: We say that X has a standard Student's t distribution with n degrees of freedom if its probability density function is:

$$f_X(x) = c(1 + \frac{x^2}{n})^{-(n+1)/2} \tag{1}$$

where c is a constant:

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{B(\frac{n}{2}, \frac{1}{2})} \tag{2}$$

where B() is a beta function.

Proposition: The probability density function of X can be written as:e

$$f_X(x) = \int_0^\infty f_{X|Z=z}(x) f_Z(z) dz \tag{3}$$

where $f_{X|Z=z}(x)$ is the probability density function of a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{2}$, $f_Z(z)$ is the probability density function of a Gamma random variable with parameters n and h=1. This is obvious. If X is a zero-mean normal random variable with variance 1/z, conditional on Z=z, then we can think of X as a ratio:

$$X = \frac{Y}{\sqrt{Z}} \tag{4}$$

where Y has a standard normal distribution, Z has a Gamma distribution and Y and Z are independent. **Expected value:** The expected value of a standard Student's t random variable X is well-defined only for n > 1 and it is equal to:

$$E[X] = 0 (5)$$

It follows from the fact that the density function is symmetric around 0:

$$E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{0} x f_X(x) dx + \int_{0}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$
$$= -\int_{0}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx + \int_{0}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$$
$$= 0$$
 (6)

by exchanging the bounds of integration and $f_X(x) = f_X(x)$. The above integrals are finite (and so the expected value is well-defined) only if n > 1, because

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} = \lim_{u \to \infty} \int_{0}^{u} x c (1 + \frac{x^{2}}{n})^{-(n+1)/2} dx$$

$$= c \int_{0}^{u} \left[-\frac{n}{n-1} (1 + \frac{x^{2}}{n})^{-(n-1)/2} \right]_{0}^{u}$$

$$= \frac{-cn}{n-1} \left[\lim_{u \to \infty} (1 + \frac{u^{2}}{n})^{-\frac{1}{2}(n-1)} \right]$$
(7)

and the above limit is finite only if n > 1.

Variance: The variance of a standard Student's t random variable X is well-defined only for n > 2 and it is equal to:

$$Var[X] = \frac{n}{n-2} \tag{8}$$

It can be derived thanks to the usual variance formula $(Var(X) = E[X^2] - (E[X])^2)$ and to the integral representation of the Beta function:

$$E[X^{2}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} f_{X}(x) dx$$

$$= 2c \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{2} (1 + \frac{x^{2}}{n})^{-(n+1)/2} dx$$

$$= 2c \int_{0}^{\infty} n(1+t)^{-n/2-1/2} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} dt$$

$$= cn^{3/2} \int_{0}^{\infty} t^{3/2-1} (1+t)^{-3/2-(n/2-1)} dt$$

$$= cn^{3/2} B(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{n}{2} - 1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \frac{1}{B(\frac{n}{2}, \frac{1}{2})} n^{3/2} B(\frac{3}{2}, \frac{n}{2} - 1)$$

$$= n \frac{\Gamma(n/2 + 1/2)}{\Gamma(n/2)\Gamma(1/2)} \frac{\Gamma(1/2 + 1)\Gamma(n/2 - 1)}{n/2 + 1/2}$$

$$= n \frac{\Gamma(1/2) \frac{1}{2} \Gamma(n/2) \frac{2}{n-2}}{\Gamma(1/2)\Gamma(n/2)}$$

$$= \frac{n}{n-2}$$
(9)

Therefore using $(E[X])^2 = 0$,

$$Var[X] = E[X^{2}] - (E[X])^{2} = \frac{n}{n-2}$$
(10)

From the above derivation, it should be clear that the variance is well-defined only when n > 2. Otherwise, if $n \le 2$, the above improper integrals do not converge (and the Beta function is not well-defined).

Student's t distribution in general

Definition: We say that X has a Student's t distribution with mean μ , scale σ^2 and n degrees of freedom if its probability density function is:

$$f_X(x) = \frac{c}{\sigma} \left(1 + \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{n\sigma^2}\right)^{-\frac{n+1}{2}} \tag{11}$$

where c is a constant:

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}B(n/2, 1/2)} \tag{12}$$

and B() is the Beta function. A random variable X which has a t distribution with mean μ , scale σ^2 and n degrees of freedom is just a linear function of a standard Student's t random variable:

$$X = \mu + \sigma Z \tag{13}$$

where Z is a random variable having a standard t distribution.

Expectation: The expected value of a Student's t random variable X is well-defined only for n > 1 and it is equal to:

$$E[X] = \mu \tag{14}$$

It is an immediate consequence of the fact that $X = \mu + \sigma Z$ and the linearity of the expected value:

$$E[X] = E[\mu + \sigma Z] = \mu + \sigma E[Z] = \mu + \sigma 0 = \mu \tag{15}$$

As we have seen above, E[Z] is well-defined only for n > 1 and, as a consequence, also E[X] is well-defined only for n > 1.

Variance: The variance of a Student's t random variable X is well-defined only for n > 2 and it is equal to:

$$Var[X] = \frac{n}{n-2}\sigma^2 \tag{16}$$

It can be derived using the formula for the variance of affine transformations on $X = \mu + \sigma Z$:

$$Var[X] = Var[\mu + \sigma Z] = \sigma^2 Var[Z] = \sigma^2 \frac{n}{n-2}$$
(17)

As we have seen above, Var[Z] is well-defined only for n > 2 and, as a consequence, also Var[X] is well-defined only for n > 2.

Problem 2

Gamma mgf

The gamma pdf is given

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-x/\beta}$$
(18)

for $0 < x < \infty, \alpha > 0, \beta > 0$, where $\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty t^{\alpha - 1} e^{-t} dt$ denotes the gamma function. The mgf is

$$M_X(t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{tx} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-x/\beta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} \int_0^{\infty} x^{\alpha - 1} e^{-x/(\frac{\beta}{1 - \beta t})}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)\beta^{\alpha}} \Gamma(\alpha) (\frac{\beta}{1 - \beta t})^{\alpha}$$

$$= (\frac{1}{1 - \beta t})^{\alpha}$$
(19)

for $t < \frac{1}{\beta}$. If $t \ge \frac{1}{\beta}$ then the quantity $1 - \beta t$ is nonpositive and the integral is infinite. Thus, the mgf of the gamma distribution exists only if $t < 1/\beta$.

Gamma skewness and kurtosis

Gamma mgf giving the logarithmic moment-generating function as

$$\mu_{0} = R(t) = -\alpha \ln(1 - \beta t)$$

$$\mu_{1} = R'(t) = \frac{\alpha \beta}{1 - \beta t}$$

$$\mu_{2} = R''(t) = \frac{\alpha \beta^{2}}{(1 - \beta t)^{2}}$$

$$\mu_{3} = R^{(3)}(t) = \frac{2\alpha \beta^{3}}{(1 - \beta t)^{3}}$$

$$\mu_{4} = R^{(4)}(t) = \frac{6\alpha \beta^{4}}{(1 - \beta t)^{4}}$$
(20)

The skewness and kurtosis are then

$$\gamma_1 = \frac{\mu_3}{\mu_2^{3/2}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\alpha}}$$

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2} = \frac{6}{\alpha} + 3$$
(21)

(a)

We have two Normal distributions $N_1 \sim N(0,1)$ and $N_2 \sim N(0,10)$ with the same mean (which without loss of generality is set to zero) but with different standard deviations. we form a mixture, M, of these two different distributions, i.e. a distribution where the probability of drawing from the first distribution is $p_1 = 95\%$ and from the second distribution is $p_2 = 5\%$. The kurtosis of the mixture is as follows:

$$\frac{3(p_1\sigma_1^4 + p_2\sigma_2^4)}{(p_1\sigma_1^2 + p_2\sigma_2^2)^2} - 3 = \frac{3(0.95 \times 1 + 0.05 \times 100)}{(0.95 \times 1 + 0.05 \times 10)^2} - 3 = 5.489893$$
 (22)

(b)

Actually I have used that formula as a conclusion in my part(a). I will show how to derive it in this part. Let $X_1, ..., X_n$ denote random variables from the n component distributions, and let X denote a random variable from the mixture distribution. Then, for any function H() for which $E[H(X_i)]$ exists, and assuming that the component densities $p_i(x)$ exist (to distinguish, I use w to denote weights here.)

$$E[H(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(x) \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i p_i(x) dx$$
(23)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_i(x) H(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i E[H(X_i)].$$
 (24)

The relation,

$$E[H(X)] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i E[H(X_i)],$$
(25)

holds more generally.

It is a trivial matter to note that the jth moment about zero (i.e. choosing $H(x) = x^j$) is simply a weighted average of the jth moments of the components. Moments about the mean $H(x) = (x\mu)^j$ involve a binomial expansion:

$$E[(X - \mu)^j] = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i E[(X_i - \mu_i + \mu_i - \mu)^j]$$
(26)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=0}^{j} {j \choose k} (\mu_i - \mu)^{j-k} w_i \operatorname{E}[(X_i - \mu_i)^k],$$
 (27)

where μ_i denotes the mean of the ith component.

In case of a mixture of one-dimensional normal distributions with weights w_i , means μ_i and variances σ_i^2 , the total mean and variance will be:

$$E[X] = \mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \mu_i,$$
 (28)

$$E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i ((\mu_i - \mu)^2 + \sigma_i^2)$$
(29)

(30)

Similarly we are able to derive $E[(X - \mu)^3]$, $E[(X - \mu)^4]$ and the kurtosis is

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{\mathrm{E}[(X - \mu)^4]}{(\mathrm{E}[(X - \mu)^2])^2} - 3 \tag{31}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^4} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i [3\sigma_i^4 + 6(\mu_i - \mu)^2 \sigma_i^2 + (\mu_i - \mu)^4] - 3$$
 (32)

In our problem, there are only two components with $p_1 = p, p_2 = 1 - p, \ \mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0, \ \sigma_1 = 1, \sigma_2 = \sigma$ as parameters, then

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{3[p + (1-p)\sigma^4]}{[p + (1-p)\sigma^2]^2} - 3 \tag{33}$$

(c)

We can rewrite γ_2 as

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{3(1-p)\sigma^4 + 3p}{(1-p)^2\sigma^4 + 2(1-p)p\sigma^2 + p^2} - 3 \tag{34}$$

Then we take $\sigma = 1/(1-p)$ (my intuition is to make p very close to 1 and σ very large)

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{3(1-p) + 3p(1-p)^4}{(1-p)^2 + 2(1-p)^3p + p^2(1-p)^4} - 3 \tag{35}$$

When $p \to 1$, or when $q = 1 - p \to 0$,

$$\lim_{p \to 1} \gamma_2 = \lim_{q \to 0} \frac{3q + 3(1 - q)q^4}{q^2 + 2(1 - q)q^3 + (1 - q)^2 q^4} - 3 = \lim_{q \to 0} \frac{3}{q} - 3 \to \infty$$
 (36)

which means kurtosis can be arbitrarily large.

To find values of σ and p so that the kurtosis is 10000, we can just let $\sigma = 1/(1-p)$

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{3(1-p) + 3p(1-p)^4}{(1-p)^2 + 2(1-p)^3p + p^2(1-p)^4} - 3 = 10000$$
(37)

which generates

$$p \approx 0.9997, \sigma \approx 3334.3 \tag{38}$$

(d)

In this part, our goal is to construct p and σ , to reach a kurtosis at least M. Again we can continue using the same construction as did in part(c), take $p = p_0 + \epsilon$ ($\epsilon \in (0, 1 - p_0)$) and $\sigma = 1/(1 - p)$, we still have the kurtosis as

$$\gamma_2 = \frac{3(1-p) + 3p(1-p)^4}{(1-p)^2 + 2(1-p)^3 p + p^2(1-p)^4} - 3$$
(39)

No matter p_0 how close to 1, that is $p_0 \to 1$, we also have $p = p_0 + \epsilon \to 1$, then we let

$$\lim_{p \to 1} \gamma_2 = 3/(1-p) - 3 \ge M \tag{40}$$

which generates

$$p \ge \frac{M}{M+3} \tag{41}$$

If we take

$$p = \max\{\frac{M}{M+3}, p_0\}, \sigma = \frac{1}{1-p}$$
(42)

we are able to get a kurtosis at least M.

(A)

For a Poisson distribution,

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_1}}{x_1!} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_2}}{x_2!} \dots \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_n}}{x_n!} = \frac{e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum x_i}}{x_1! x_2! \dots x_n!}$$
(43)

$$\ln f = -n\lambda + (\ln \lambda) \sum x_i - \ln(\prod x_i!) \tag{44}$$

$$\frac{d(\ln f)}{d\lambda} = -n + \frac{\sum x_i}{\lambda} = 0 \tag{45}$$

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n} \tag{46}$$

It is easy to verify that

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda^2} \log f(x|\lambda) = -\frac{x}{\lambda^2} \tag{47}$$

Therefore the Fisher information is

$$I(\lambda) = -E[-\frac{X}{\lambda^2}] = \frac{1}{\lambda} \tag{48}$$

The asymptotic normality of MLE is

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\lambda} - \lambda_0) \to N(0, \lambda_0)$$
 (49)

(B)

For a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where σ^2 is known. The likelihood function is

$$L(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \mu) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \mu)^2)$$
 (50)

The log-likelihood function is

$$l(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \mu) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} \ln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \mu)^2$$
(51)

The partial derivative of the log-likelihood with respect to the mean is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} l(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \mu) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (\sum_{j=1}^n x_j - n\mu) = 0$$
 (52)

Therefore the maximum likelihood estimator of the mean is

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j \tag{53}$$

It is easy to verify that

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \mu^2} l(x|\mu) = -\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \tag{54}$$

Therefore the Fisher information is

$$I(\mu) = -E[-\frac{1}{\sigma^2}] = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$
 (55)

The asymptotic normality of MLE is

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\mu} - \mu_0) \to N(0, \sigma^2) \tag{56}$$

(C)

For a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where $\mu = 0$ is known. The likelihood function is

$$L(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \sigma) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2)$$
 (57)

The log-likelihood function is

$$l(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \sigma) = -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} \ln(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2$$
 (58)

The partial derivative of the log-likelihood with respect to the variance is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma^2} l(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \sigma) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2 - n \right)$$
 (59)

Therefore the maximum likelihood estimator of the variance is

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2 \tag{60}$$

It is easy to verify that

$$\frac{\partial^2}{(\partial\sigma^2)^2}l(x|\sigma) = -\frac{x^2}{\sigma^6} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \tag{61}$$

Therefore the Fisher information is

$$I(\sigma^2) = -E[-\frac{X^2}{\sigma^6} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4}] = \frac{1}{2\sigma^4}$$
 (62)

The asymptotic normality of MLE is

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma_0^2) \to N(0, 2\sigma_0^4) \tag{63}$$

Problem 5

MLE of b

Uniform distribution has p.d.f.

$$f(x|b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & a \le b\\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (64)

First note that f(x|b) = 1/(b-a), for $a \le x \le b$ and 0 elsewhere. Then it is easy to see that the likelihood function is given by

$$L(b|x) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{b-a} I(X_i \in [a,b]) = (b-a)^{-n} I(\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) \le b)$$
 (65)

Here the indicator function I(A) equals to 1 if event A happens and 0 otherwise. What the indicator above means is that the likelihood will be equal to 0 if at least one of the factors is 0 and this will happen if at least one observation X_i will fall outside of the allowed interval [a, b]. Another way to say it is that the maximum among observations will exceed b, i.e.

$$L(b) = 0 \text{ if } b < \max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$
(66)

and

$$L(b) = \frac{1}{(b-a)^n} \text{ if } b \ge \max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$
(67)

which is a decreasing function in the second part. Therefore $\hat{b} = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ is the MLE.

MLE of a

Follow the same step in the previous part and using the property of symmetry, MLE of a is

$$\hat{a} = \min(X_1, \dots, X_n) \tag{68}$$

MLE of mean μ

According to the invariance property of MLE, \hat{a} and \hat{b} are the MLE of a and b, then $g(\hat{a}, \hat{b})$ is the MLE of g(a, b) for any one-to-one function g, respectively for a and b. So for the mean μ , we will let

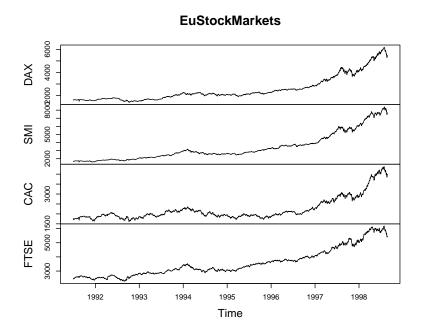
$$g(a,b) = \frac{a+b}{2} \tag{69}$$

Therefore, MLE of μ is

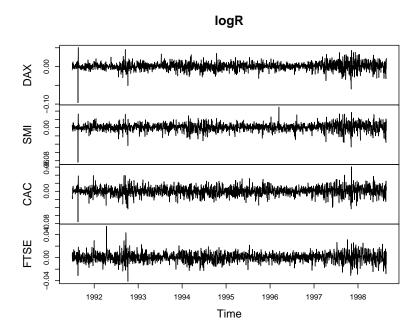
$$\hat{\mu} = g(\hat{a}, \hat{b}) = \frac{\hat{a} + \hat{b}}{2} = \frac{\max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) + \min(X_1, \dots, X_n)}{2}$$
(70)

Problem 6

Problem 1

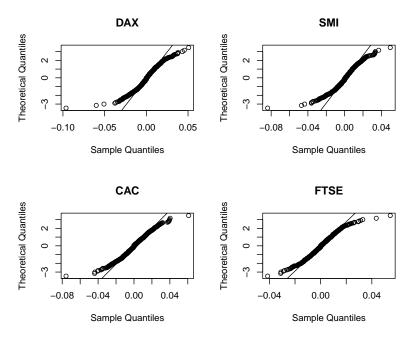


The series does not look stationary. The fluctuations does not seem to be of constant size, the volatility becomes larger and larger when time passes.



The series looks stationary. The fluctuations seems to be of constant size.

Problem 3



The marginal distribution of all series are symmetric and their tails appear heavier than a normal distribution. This is the printed out results

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: logR[, i]

```
W = 0.9538, p-value < 2.2e-16

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: logR[, i]
W = 0.9554, p-value < 2.2e-16

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: logR[, i]
W = 0.982, p-value = 1.574e-14

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: logR[, i]
W = 0.9799, p-value = 1.754e-15</pre>
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All the Shapiro-Wilk tests reject the null hypothesis of normality with extremely small p-values. I don't have time to accomplish the left tests, sorry.