# STAT 403 Spring 2018 HW03

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# $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{1}$

### **Q1-a**

```
data("chickwts")

feed_linseed_dt <- subset(chickwts, feed == 'linseed')

> t.test(x=feed_linseed_dt, mu=240, alternative='two.sided')

One Sample t-test

data: sample_wt
    t = -1.4092, df = 11, p-value = 0.1864
    alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 240
95 percent confidence interval:
    185.561 251.939
    sample estimates:
    mean of x
    218.75
```

We can perceive from summary that the p-value calculated from our sample is 0.1864, which is greater than 0.1. Therefore, under the test size  $\alpha = 0.1$ , we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

#### Q1-b

```
> mean(feed_linseed_dt$weight)
[1] 218.75
> sd(feed_linseed_dt$weight)
[1] 52.2357
```

Mean weight of chicken fed by linseed is 218.75 Standard deviation is 52.2358

#### Q1-c

```
sim_size <- 10000
alpha <- 0.1
sim_result <- rep(NA, sim_size)
for (i in 1:sim_size) {
   sample <- rnorm(n=12, mean=220, sd=52)
    t_result <- t.test(x=sample, mu=240, alternative='two.sided')
   sim_result[i] <- t_result$p.value < alpha
}
t_power <- sum(sim_result) / sim_size
> t_power
[1] 0.3377
```

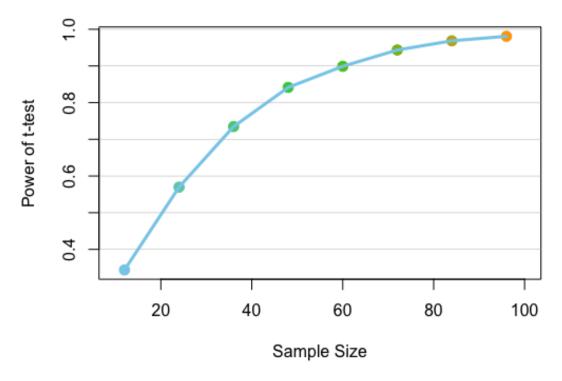
The power of the t-test under the condition that true population mean is 220, is the probability of rejecting  $H_0$ :  $\mu_0 = 240$  with test size  $\alpha = 0.1$ .

Base on my simulation, 3377 of 10000 simulations rejected the null. Since the proportion of rejection among simulations is an unbiased estimator of test power, we can say the power of t-test under this condition is  $\frac{3377}{10000} = 0.3377$ .

### **Q1-d**

```
sim_size <- 10000
sample_sz_seq \leftarrow c(12,24,36,48,60,72,84,96)
power_seq <- rep(NA, length(sample_sz_seq))</pre>
for (i in 1:length(sample_sz_seq)) {
  sim_result <- rep(NA, sim_size)</pre>
  for (j in 1:sim_size) {
    sample <- rnorm(n=sample_sz_seq[i], mean=220, sd=52)</pre>
    t_result <- t.test(x=sample, mu=240, alternative='two.sided')</pre>
    sim_result[j] <- t_result$p.value < alpha</pre>
  t_power <- sum(sim_result) / sim_size
  power_seq[i] <- t_power</pre>
}
size_power_comp <- data.frame(cbind(sample_sz_seq, power_seq))</pre>
colnames(size_power_comp)[1] <- 'size'</pre>
colnames(size_power_comp)[2] <- 'power'</pre>
col_ramp = colorRampPalette(c("skyblue","limegreen"))
plot(x=size_power_comp$size, y=size_power_comp$power, col=col_ramp(nrow(size_power_comp))
     pch=20, cex=2, xlim=c(10, 100), main='Size-Power Plot (test size 0.1)',
     ylab='Power of t-test', xlab='Sample Size')
lines(x=size_power_comp$size, y=size_power_comp$power, lwd=3, col="skyblue")
grid(nx=NA,ny=NULL,lty=1,lwd=0.5,col="gray")
```

## Size-Power Plot (test size 0.1)



Under the condition of same true parameter and same test size, the power of t-test has a logarithmic growth as sample size increases.

# **Q1-e**

When estimating the power of test, the variance of Monte Carlo simulation is

$$Var(\bar{D}_N) = \frac{\beta(1-\beta)}{N}$$

N denotes number of simulations,  $\beta$  is power of t-test. Under the same sample size and test size, the power is constant.

$$Var(\bar{D}_{N=10000}) = \frac{\beta(1-\beta)}{10000}$$
$$Var(\bar{D}_{N=1000000}) = \frac{\beta(1-\beta)}{1000000}$$
$$\frac{Var(\bar{D}_{10000})}{Var(\bar{D}_{1000000})} = 100$$

Thereby we know that the Monte Carlo Variance of 10000 simulations is 100 times larger than error of 1000000 simulations. The Monte Carlo error is  $sd(\bar{D}_N) = \sqrt{Var(\bar{D}_N)}$ , therefore, error of N = 10000 is  $\sqrt{100} = 10$  times bigger than error of N = 1000000

We assumed the Monte Carlo error at N=10000 is  $5\times10^{-3}$ , therefore, the error of Monte Carlo simulation with N=1000000 will be  $5\times10^{-4}$ .

# $\mathbf{Q2}$

### **Q2-a**

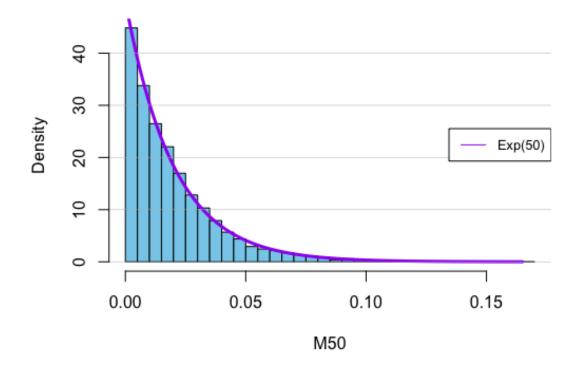
```
sim_size <- 10000
sample_size <- 50
minunif_eva <- rep(NA, sim_size)

for (i in 1:sim_size) {
   sample <- runif(sample_size)
   minunif_eva[i] <- min(sample)
}
> mean(minunif_eva)
[1] 0.01959125
> sd(minunif_eva)
[1] 0.01923361
```

Mean of  $M_{50}$  is 0.01959125 Standard deviation of  $M_{50}$  is 0.01923361

### **Q2-b**

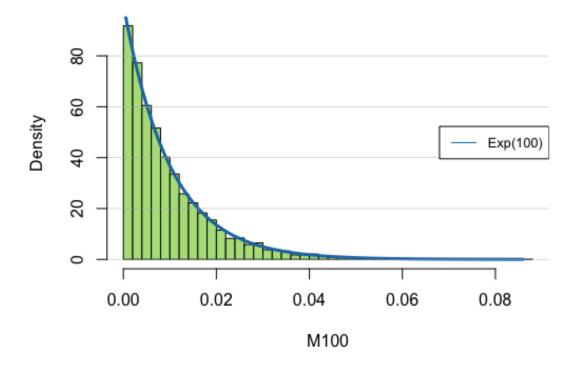
### Histogram of M50 with Exponential(50)



The distribution of  $M_{50} = Min(U_1, U_2, ... U_{50})$  seems to fit the density curve of exp(50).

### Q2-c

### Histogram of M100 with Exponential(100)



The distribution of  $M_{100} = Min(U_1, U_2, ...U_100)$  seems to fit the density curve of exp(100).

#### Q2-d

Find the cdf of  $nM_n$ 

$$P(nM_n \ge x) = P(M_n \ge \frac{x}{n})$$

$$= P(U_1 \ge \frac{x}{n}, U_2 \ge \frac{x}{n}, ... U_n \ge \frac{x}{n})$$

$$= P(U_1 \ge \frac{x}{n}) P(U_2 \ge \frac{x}{n}) ... P(U_n \ge \frac{x}{n})$$

$$= (1 - P(U_1 < \frac{x}{n}))(1 - P(U_2 < \frac{x}{n})) ... (1 - P(U_n < \frac{x}{n}))$$

$$= (1 - F_U(\frac{x}{n}))^n, (F_U(\frac{x}{n}) = \frac{x}{n})$$

$$= (1 - \frac{x}{n})^n$$

$$F_{nM_n}(x) = 1 - P(nM_n \ge x)$$
  
=  $1 - (1 - \frac{x}{n})^n$ 

The exponential function tells us that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (1 + (-\frac{x}{n}))^n = e^{-x}$$

As n goes to infinity, the cdf and pdf of  $nM_n$  turn out to be

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F_{nM_n}(x) = 1 - e^{-x}$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_{nM_n}(x) = \frac{\partial F_{nM_n}}{\partial x}$$

$$= e^{-x}$$

The pdf of Exp(1) is also defined as  $\epsilon(x) = e^{-x}$ , therefore,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_{nM_n} = e^{-x} = \epsilon(x)$$

This proves that as n goes to infinity  $n \cdot M_n$  converses in distribution to exp(1).