FSML_Part 2_YuHsuanTING

Yu-Hsuan TING Sep. 16 2019

Exercise 1:

[1] 1.281552

```
(a). X \sim \mathcal{N}(-1, 0.01) 0.01 is variance. Compute:
  1. P(X \le -0.98)
  2. P(X \le -1.02)
  3. P(X \ge -0.82)
  4. P(X \in [-1.22; -0.96])
pnorm(-0.98, mean = -1, sd = sqrt(0.01))
## [1] 0.5792597
pnorm(-1.02, mean = -1, sd = sqrt(0.01))
## [1] 0.4207403
1-pnorm(-0.82,mean = -1,sd = sqrt(0.01))
## [1] 0.03593032
pnorm(-0.96,mean = -1,sd = sqrt(0.01))-pnorm(-1.22,mean = -1,sd = sqrt(0.01))
## [1] 0.6415183
(b). X \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1) determine t such that:
  1. P(X \le t) = 0.9
  2. P(X \le t) = 0.2
  3. P(X \in [-t, t]) = 0.95
#1.
qnorm(0.9)
```

```
#2. qnorm(0.2)
```

[1] -0.8416212

[1] 1.959964

Exercise 2:

(a) Give the definition of a density function f_d

For continuous variable we use density function, we need to define first the number of class and the class range

table class	relative frequence	density
$\overline{[\rho_1,\rho_2[}$	f_1	d_1
$[\rho_2, \rho_3[$	f_2	d_2
$[\rho_k, \rho_{k+1}[$	f_k	d_k

where
$$f_i = P(x \in [\rho_i, \rho_{i+1}])$$
 and $d_i = \frac{f_i}{\rho_{i+1} - \rho_i}$

Therefore density function is define as:

$$f_d(x) = d_i$$
 if $t \in [\rho_i, \rho_{i+1}]$
 0 otherwise

- $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ $f_d(x) \ge 0$
- $\int f_d(x)dx = 1$
- (b) Let θ_n an estimator of a parameter θ . Give the definition of θ_n an unbiased estimator of θ .

we say that θ_n is an unbiased estimator of θ if $\mathbb{E}[\theta_n] = \theta$ (expectation of θ_n is θ)

(c) Let $X_1, ..., X_n$ a n-sample. We denote by μ the expectation of X_1 and σ^2 its variance. Let $\overline{X_n}$ the empirical mean associated. Compute the expectation and the variance of $\overline{X_n}$.

note that
$$\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$$
 and $V[X_i] = \sigma^2$

 $\overline{X_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ we see that $\overline{X_n}$ just depend on $X_1, ..., X_n$ so it is an estimator

 $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n}] = \mathbb{E}[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] = \frac{1}{n} \times n\mu = \mu$ (here we understand that $\overline{X_n}$ is an unbiased estimator for μ)

$$V[\overline{X_n}] = V[\frac{1}{n}\sum X_i] = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum V[X_i] = \frac{1}{n^2}\times n\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

(d) Let $X_1,...,X_n$ a n-sample with a $\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma^2)$ distribution. Give an unbiased estimator of σ^2 when we assume that μ is unknown. Prove the fact that it is unbiased.

note that $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$ and $V[X_i] = \sigma^2$

 $\hat{\sigma_n^2}$ is an estimator because it's just a function of $X_1,...,X_n$, and we can compute the expectation of $\hat{\sigma_n^2}$

we denote that:

$$V[X_i] = \mathbb{E}[X_i^2] - (\mathbb{E}[X_i])^2$$
 so $\sum \mathbb{E}[X_i^2] = n(\sigma^2 + \mu)$

$$V[\overline{X_n}] = \mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n}^2] - (\mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n}])^2$$
 so $\sum \mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n}^2] = n(\frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \mu)$ (refer to (c))

$$\sum X_i = n\overline{X_n}$$
 so $\sum 2X_i\overline{X_n} = 2n\overline{X_n}^2$

We can now compute the following:

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma_n^2}] = \mathbb{E}[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \overline{X_n})^2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}\left[\sum X_i^2 - \sum 2X_i \overline{X_n} + \sum \overline{X_n}^2\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} (\mathbb{E}[\sum X_i^2] - \mathbb{E}[\sum 2X_i \overline{X_n}] + \mathbb{E}[\sum \overline{X_n}^2])$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} (\mathbb{E}[\sum X_i^2] - 2n\mathbb{E}[\sum \overline{X_n}^2] + \mathbb{E}[\sum \overline{X_n}^2])$$

$$=(\sigma^2+\mu)-2\mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n}^2]+\mathbb{E}[\overline{X_n}^2]$$

$$= (\sigma^2 + \mu) - (\frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \mu) = \frac{n-1}{n}\sigma^2$$

we see from the equation $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma_n^2}] = \frac{n-1}{n}\sigma^2 \neq \sigma^2$ so it is not an unbiased estimator, although $\frac{n-1}{1} \to 1$ when $n \to \infty$ we can say that $\hat{\sigma_n}^2$ is asymptotically an unbiased estimator of σ^2

we can do a linear transformation for our estimator (it would still be an estimator) $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\sigma_n^2}] = \frac{n-1}{n}\sigma^2$ to $\mathbb{E}[\frac{n}{n-1}\hat{\sigma_n^2}] = \sigma^2$. Therefore we can say that $\frac{n}{n-1}\hat{\sigma_n^2}$ is an unbiased estimator of σ^2

Exercise 3:

• read table into T1

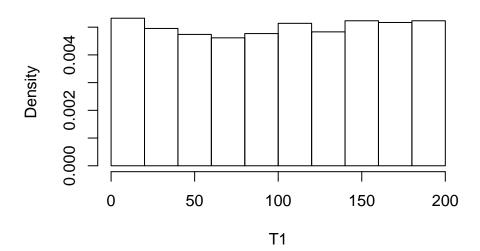
```
T1=read.table('dataexam.txt')
head(T1)
##
## 1 0.00000000
## 2 0.03811531
## 3 0.20292690
## 4 0.31850700
## 5 0.89276500
## 6 1.04180300
dim(T1)
## [1] 1625
```

- (a) Make a test to show that those times are distributed according to a uniform distribution.
 - draw a histogram

1

```
T1=as.matrix(T1)
hist(T1,freq=FALSE)
```

Histogram of T1



Uniform distrivurion $X \sim \mathrm{U}(a,b)$ where a is the lowest of x and b is the highest value of x with density function $f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$ for $a \le x \le b$

theoretical mean and sd are $\mu=\frac{a+b}{2}$ and $\sigma=\sqrt{\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}}$

• all the value is between

```
maxT1=max(T1[,1])
minT1=min(T1[,1])
```

 $\bullet\,$ now we compute the sample mean

```
sm=mean(T1[,1])
ssd=sd(T1[,1])
sm
```

[1] 100.8505

ssd

[1] 58.42301

• we check the theoretical mean and sd, it is very close to the sample true mean and sd

```
tm=(maxT1+minT1)/2
tsd=sqrt((maxT1-minT1)**2/12)
tm
```

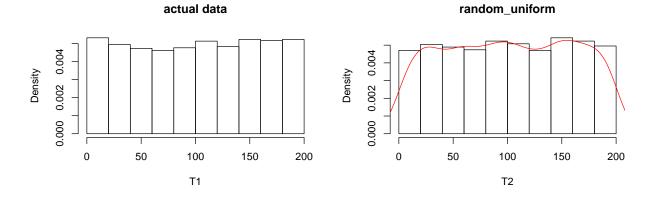
[1] 99.977

tsd

[1] 57.72175

We see from the graph generate random uniform distribution it looks similar as our dataset, that we can say our dataset is uniform distribution

```
T2=runif(1625, minT1, maxT1)
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
hist(T1,freq=FALSE,main="actual data")
hist(T2, freq = FALSE, main="random_uniform")
lines(density(T2),col='red')
```



#density(T2)

We can also check by ks.test to perform a one- or two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

Here the null hypothesis is that the data follow a uniform distribution. We see that the p-value is high so that we don't reject the null hypothesis.

```
ks.test(T1,T2)
```

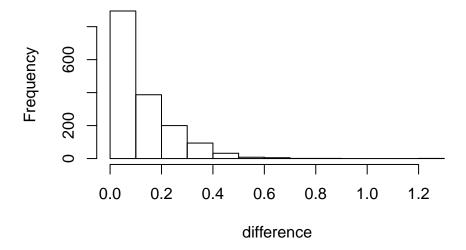
```
##
## Two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
##
## data: T1 and T2
## D = 0.013538, p-value = 0.9984
## alternative hypothesis: two-sided
```

(b) Now if we consider the time between two events, how can you modelize this distribution?

draw the histogram of the difference between the data, it seems to be exponential distribution

```
difference=diff(T1[,1])
hist(difference)
```

Histogram of difference



if $x \sim E(\lambda)$, $\mathbb{E}[x] = \frac{1}{\lambda}$

```
#actual
m=mean(difference)
m
```

[1] 0.1231244

```
#theoretical
lambda=1/m
lambda
```

[1] 8.121868

```
#compare 2 histogram

par(mfrow=c(1,2))
hist(difference,freq=FALSE,main="actual data")
#curve(dexp(lambda))
testexp=rexp(n=length(difference),lambda)
hist(testexp,freq = FALSE)
#curve(dexp,xlim = c(0,1.2),add = TRUE)
lines(density(testexp),col='red')
```

Density 0.0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0 1.2 difference

actual data

0.8

1.0

1.2

Histogram of testexp

We can also use ks.test to check the goodness of fit for exponential distribution. As the p-value is high we also don't reject the null hypothesis that is the difference is exponential distribution.

Density

0.0

0.2

0.4

0.6

testexp

```
ks.test(difference, testexp)
```

```
## Warning in ks.test(difference, testexp): p-value will be approximate in the
## presence of ties

##
## Two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
##
## data: difference and testexp
## D = 0.025246, p-value = 0.6787
## alternative hypothesis: two-sided
```

(c) Guess the value of the parameter and compute a confidence interval for it.

we assum that lambda is 8.121868, we are going to compute the confidence interval

• Thanks to Central Limit theorem we have $\sqrt{n} \frac{\overline{x_n} - \mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$

• we denote that:

1.
$$\mu = \mathbb{E}[x]$$
 which is $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ in exponential distribution 2. $\sigma = \sqrt{V[x]}$ which is $\sqrt{\frac{1}{\lambda^2}}$

- so we can get: $\sqrt{n}(\lambda \overline{x_n} 1) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$
- we define S and T such that: $P(\sqrt{n}(\lambda \overline{x_n} 1) \in [S, T]) = 1 \alpha$
- we make a choice that S=-T, so T is the fractile of $1-\frac{\alpha}{2}$
- it means that $P(\mathcal{N}(0,1) \leq t) = 1 \frac{\alpha}{2}$ $P(\sqrt{n}(\lambda \overline{x_n} - 1) \in [-T, T]) = 1 - \alpha$ $\Leftrightarrow P(\frac{1}{\overline{x}}(1 - \frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}) \leq \lambda \leq \frac{1}{\overline{x}}(1 + \frac{t}{\sqrt{n}}))$ with $\alpha = 0.05$

```
t=qnorm(0.975) #1-0.05/2
lb=1/m*(1-t/sqrt(length(difference)))
ub=1/m*(1+t/sqrt(length(difference)))
cat("confidence interval:[",c(lb,ub),"]")
```

confidence interval:[7.726855 8.516881]

Exercise 4:

Let X be a random variable whose distribution is an exponential with parameter $\lambda > 0$

(a) We define the conditional probability $P(A \mid B)$ by:

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

if $P(B) \neq 0$ Prove that the exponential random variable is with no memory which means:

$$\forall s, t > 0, \quad P(X > t + s \mid X > t) = P(X > s)$$

- for exponential cumulative probability $P(X < x) = 1 e^{-\lambda x}$ that is $P(X > x) = e^{-\lambda x}$
- equations:

$$\begin{split} &P(X>t+s\mid X>t) = \frac{P(X>t+s\ \cap\ X>t)}{P(X>t)} = \frac{P(X>t+s)}{P(X>t)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow \frac{e^{-\lambda(t+s)}}{e^{-\lambda t}} = \frac{e^{-\lambda t}\times e^{-\lambda s}}{e^{-\lambda t}} = e^{-\lambda s} \\ &\Leftrightarrow P(X>s) \end{split}$$

here since it is exponential distribution and s,t>0, we can say that $P(X>t+s\cap X>t)=P(X>t+s)$

• let's try with the code, set lambda=1, random choose an integer between 1 to 5 for t and s

```
#random choose t and s
set.seed(10)
t=sample(1:5,1)
s=sample(1:5,1)
t

## [1] 3
s

## [1] 1

(1-pexp(t+s))/(1-pexp(t))

## [1] 0.3678794

1-pexp(s)
```

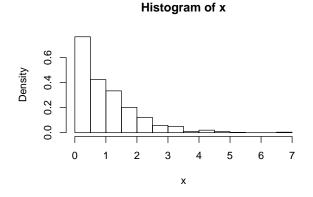
[1] 0.3678794

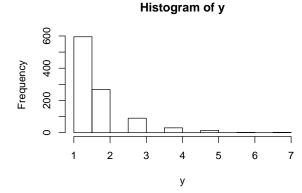
(b) Let's consider Y = E(x) + 1 where $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x})$ is the biggest integer smaller or equal to \mathbf{x}

let's try with 1000 random data, here we can see that our data is not anymore continuous. Moreover, y cannot be 0 the smallest is 1, we can assum it to be geometric distribution.

```
set.seed(10)
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
x=rexp(1000)
hist(x, freq=FALSE)

y=floor(x)+1
hist(y)
```



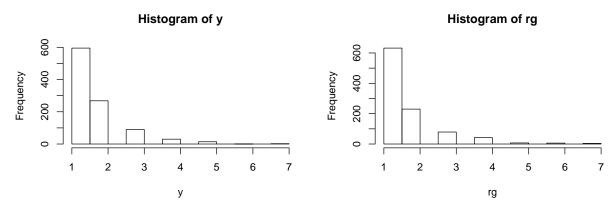


table(y)

```
## y
## 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
## 595 268 90 30 14 1 2
```

with Geometric distribution, $\mu=\frac{1}{p}$ therefor we get p=0.6207325 and we do a random 1000 data from geometric distribution to see if it looks like our y. But rgeom start at 0 so we can add the value all to 1

```
gp=1/mean(y)
par(mfrow=c(1,2))
hist(y)
rg=rgeom(1000,gp)+1
hist(rg)
```



We can then check the distribution from ks.test, but since ks.test is meant to use for continuouse variable, therefore I use chisq.test instead and it suggest me that it is a geometric distribution.

```
#ks.test(y,rg)
chisq.test(y,rg)
```

```
## Warning in chisq.test(y, rg): Chi-squared approximation may be incorrect
##
## Pearson's Chi-squared test
##
## data: y and rg
## X-squared = 25.789, df = 36, p-value = 0.8962
```