Machine Problem 2 in STAT 123

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Problem 1

Let X be a discrete random variable with distribution f, and let a < b. Sketch the distribution functions of the 'truncated' random variables Y and Z given by

$$Y = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } X < a, \\ X & \text{if } a \leqslant X \leqslant b, \\ b & \text{if } X > b \end{cases} \qquad Z = \begin{cases} X & \text{if } |X| \leqslant a, \\ 0 & \text{if } |X| > b \end{cases}$$

Indicate how these distributions functions behave as $a \to -\infty$, $b \to \infty$.

A Algorithm and R Code

Since X is a discrete random variable, we can generate n random values for X. Additionally, a and b can be any arbitrary numbers where a < b.

For the 'truncated' random variable Y,

- 1. Traverse the entirety of X (from 1 to n) and do the following truncation to all its elements (i.e. change the value if it satisfies the condition):
 - 1.1. if the value is less than a, change the value to a,
 - 1.2. else, if the value is greater than b, change it to b
 - 1.3. otherwise, do nothing
- 2. Return the truncated random variable.

For the 'truncated' random variable Z,

- 1. Traverse the entirety of X (from 1 to n) and do the following truncation to all its elements (i.e. change the value if it satisfies the condition):
 - 1.1. if the absolute value of X is greater than b, change the value to 0,
 - 1.2. otherwise, do nothing
- 2. Return the truncated random variable.

```
YTruncation <- function(x, a, b){
     for (i in 1:length(x)){
2
       if (x[i] < a)
                               x[i] \leftarrow a
3
       else if (x[i] > b)
                               x[i] \leftarrow b
     return (x)
   }
   ZTruncation <- function (x,b){</pre>
9
     for (i in 1:length(x)){
       if (abs(x[i]) > b)
                               x[i] < 0
12
     return (x)
   }
```

B Simulation and Analysis

For this simulation, we assume X has a binomial distribution f. Using set.seed(141421356) (for replication of results), we generate 1000 (n = 1000) random values for X with a size of 100 and a probability of 0.23, shown in Code 1.2. A histogram of the randomly generated values can be seen in Figure 1.1.

```
Code 1.2: Initialization of X
```

```
x <- rbinom(1000, size = 100, prob=0.23)
```

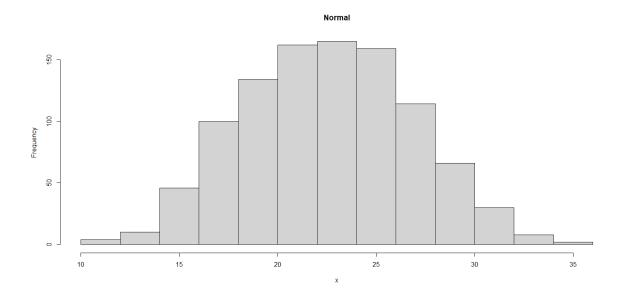
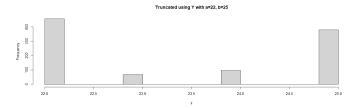


Figure 1.1: Distribution of the randomly generated values for X

Using the values for a and b found in Table 1.1, we truncate X using the truncation functions for Y (below, left column) and Z (below, right column). The values for a and b were chosen such that it starts near the mean of X ($\mu = 23.047$) and grow outward such that $a \to -\infty$ and $b \to \infty$.

Table 1.1: Values for a and b used in the truncation functions Y and Z

Case	1	2	3	4	5
a	22	20	15	10	0
b	25	30	35	40	50



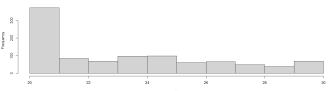
Frequency 100 150 2

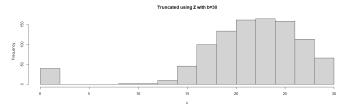
Truncated using Z with b=25

Case 1.1: Truncated Y using a = 22, b = 25

Truncated using Y with a=20, b=30

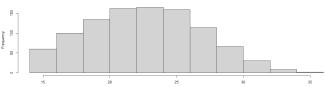
Case 1.2: Truncated Z using b = 25

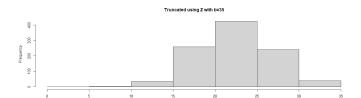




Case 2.1: Truncated Y using a = 20, b = 30

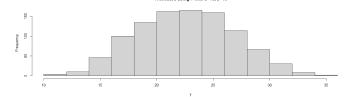
Truncated using Y with a=15, b=35

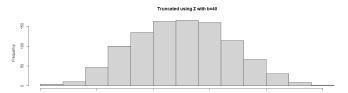




Case 2.2: Truncated Z using b = 30

Case 3.1: Truncated Y using a = 15, b = 35

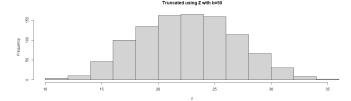




Case 3.2: Truncated Z using b = 35

Case 4.1: Truncated Y using a = 10, b = 40

Case 4.2: Truncated Z using b = 40



Case 5.1: Truncated Y using a = 0, b = 50

Case 5.2: Truncated Z using b = 50

Analyzing the graphs found in the previous page, we can infer that the truncation function Y limits the values for the random variable to be within the interval [a, b]. The function prevents the values to exceed beyond the interval by capping the values at the boundaries. Meanwhile the truncation function Z limits the random variable to be within the interval [-b, b] by converting the values that exceeded the interval to 0.

Moreover, as $a \to -\infty$ and $b \to \infty$, the distribution of the truncated random variables Y and Z becomes similar to f, it approaches the original (untruncated) distribution. Beyond certain values, the truncation functions will have no effect to the random variable, as seen in cases 5.1 and 5.2 where a = 0 and b = 50.

Problem 3

Paul rolls 6n dice once; he needs at least n sixes. Yves rolls 6(n+1) dice; he needs at least n+1 sixes. Simulate this game and determine who among Paul or Yves is more likely to obtain the number of sixes he needs.

A Algorithm and R Code

Code 3.1: The Entire Code

```
number_3 = function(n){
     Paul = 6 * n
2
     Yves = 6 * (n + 1)
     Paul_roll = sample(1:6, Paul, replace = T)
     Yves_roll = sample(1:6, Yves, replace = T)
6
     p = table(Paul_roll)
     y = table(Yves_roll)
9
     Paul_sixes = p[names(p) == 6]
10
     Yves_sixes = y[names(y) == 6]
     print(paste("Number of Rolls (Paul):",Paul))
     print(paste("Number of Rolls (Yves):",Yves))
14
     print(paste("Number of Sixes (Paul):",Paul_sixes))
     print(paste("Number of sixes (Yves):",Yves_sixes))
     probP_Paul = Paul_sixes/Paul
19
     probP_Yves = Yves_sixes/Yves
20
     print(paste("Success (Paul):", probP_Paul))
     print(paste("Fail (Paul):", probQ_Paul))A
23
     print(paste("Success (Yves):", probP_Yves))
24
     print(paste("Fail (Yves):", probQ_Yves))
25
27
     prob_Paul = 1 - pbinom(n - 1, size = Paul, prob = probP_Paul)
28
     prob_Yves = 1 - pbinom(n, size = Yves, prob = probP_Yves)
29
30
     print(prob_Paul)
31
     print(prob_Yves)
33
```

To simulate the problem, we have created a function for this named <code>number_3</code> with the parameters of <code>n</code>. First, it initializes the number of rolls Paul and Yves will have. Then simulate those roles based on the number of rolls Paul and Yves have which will be named <code>Paul_roll</code> and <code>Yves_roll</code>, respectively. This can be found on Code 3.2: Initialization.

Code 3.2: Initialization

```
number_3 = function(n){
Paul = 6 * n
Yves = 6 * (n + 1)
Paul_roll = sample(1:6, Paul, replace = T)
Yves_roll = sample(1:6, Yves, replace = T)
```

For the next part of the code, the p and y corresponds to Paul and Yves where the simulated rolls are made into a table where the value of each roll is counted. An example would be Paul's roll has 10 sixes, 25 three's, 30 fours and so on. Paul_sixes and Yves_sixes are the variables that isolates the number of sixes only for both players. This can be found in Code 3.3: Counting

Code 3.3: Counting

```
p = table(Paul_roll)
y = table(Yves_roll)

Paul_sixes = p[names(p) == 6]
Yves_sixes = y[names(y) == 6]
```

The variables probP_Paul and probP_Yves stands for the probability of success of having rolled a 6 for Paul and Yves. This computes the number of sixes both players has divided the number of rolls they made. This can be found in Code 3.4: Success and Failure

Code 3.4: Success and Failure

```
probP_Paul = Paul_sixes/Paul
probP_Yves = Yves_sixes/Yves
```

The variables prob_Paul and prob_Yves indicates the probability of Paul obtaining n 6 sixes and Yves obtaining n+1 sixes. In this section, we used the function pbinom() where it computes the $P(X \le x)$ using the binomial distribution. Since we are looking for $P(X \ge x)$, we used the formula $P(X > x) = 1 - P(X \le x)$.

```
Code 3.5: Probability
```

```
prob_Paul = 1 - pbinom(n - 1, size = Paul, prob = probP_Paul)
prob_Yves = 1 - pbinom(n, size = Yves, prob = probP_Yves)
```

B Simulation

Given the varied number of simulations that was made, different probabilities was inferred from the function. Since the probabilities are too varied to draw a conclusion, the average will be taken from these results.

```
> number_3(10)
[1] 0.7867852
[1] 0.9109702
> number_3(100)
[1] 0.5169916
[1] 0.8151214
> number_3(1000)
[1] 0.8438581
[1] 0.6779699
> number_3(10000)
[1] 0.7660767
[1] 0.8246529
> number_3(100000)
[1] 0.186857
[1] 0.9747448
> number_3(100000)
[1] 0.4735308
[1] 0.9133399
```

Figure 3.1: Results of the simulation

```
Let p=1 probability of Paul getting p=1 ammount/s of six Let p=1 probability of Yves getting p=1 ammount/s of six p=\frac{0.7868+0.5170+0.8439+0.7661+0.1869+0.4735}{6} =0.5957=59.57\% y=\frac{0.9110+0.8151+0.6780+0.8247+0.9747+0.9133}{6} =0.8528=85.28\%
```

C Conclusion

Given that Paul has 6n rolls and must have n number of six, while Yves has 6(n+1) rolls and must have n+1 number of sixes. Using the function coded for number 3, which simulated the situation. Yves has a 85.28% chance to have n+1 sixes given that he has 6(n+1) rolls, while Paul has only 59.57% chance to have n sixes given that he has 6n rolls. Which makes Yves more likely to have n+1 sixes, rather than Paul having n sixes.

Problem 5

Every package of some intrinsically dull commodity includes a small and exciting plastic object. There are k different types of object, and each package is equally likely to contain any given type. You buy one package each day.

- (a) Find the mean number of days which elapse between the acquisitions of the n^{th} new type of object and the $(n+1)^{th}$ new type.
- (b) Find the mean number of days which elapse before you have a full set of k objects.

A Algorithm and R Code

To solve for (a), we create a counter that counts the number of days elapsed since receiving a new type of object. We reset it to 0 once we receive a new type. Additionally, since the algorithm has basically finished its function once we receive all types of object, we terminate it once we reach that point. Moreover, to calculate the mean number of elapsed days, we disregard the first day of receiving the object since its value is 0.

- 1. Input k, the number of different types of object. Since a descriptive information of the types of object is not necessary, we represent all the different types using integer values from 1 to k.
- 2. Randomly choose an object, from 1 to k.
- 3. Check if the object has already been received previously. If it hasn't,
 - 3.1 add it to the list of received objects,
 - 3.2 record the days since a new type of object is received, and
 - 3.3 reset the elapsed days counter.

In this way, we can ascertain that all types of objects are received and the days elapsed are recorded.

- 4. Increment the elapsed days counter.
- 5. If there are still objects that haven't been received, repeat steps 2 to 5 until all types of objects are received.
- 6. Return the calculated mean of the elapsed days and the total number of days. We acquire the total number of days by summing all elapsed days and adding 1 (this is to account for the first day of receiving the object).

```
nicePackage <- function(k){</pre>
     set.seed(6626068) # allow for replication of results
2
     recievedObj <- c() # records received object</pre>
3
     daysPassed <- c() # vector for storing elapsed days until receiving new object
     elapsed <- 0 # elapsed days counter
     while (length(recievedObj) < k) { # loops until a complete set is reached</pre>
       obj <- ceiling(runif(1, min=0, max=k))</pre>
       flag <- 0 # determines if obj is already received</pre>
       for (j in recievedObj){
         if (j == obj){
          flag <- 1
          break
         }
       if (flag == 0){ # if received object is new,
         recievedObj <- c(recievedObj, obj) # add to receivedObj,</pre>
18
         if (elapsed != 0)
19
          daysPassed <- c(daysPassed, elapsed) # records elapsed days
         elapsed <- 0 # reset counter</pre>
23
       elapsed <- elapsed + 1
26
     # returns the mean number of elapsed days and total days to have a full set
     return (c(mean(daysPassed), sum(daysPassed+1)))
   }
```

To solve for (b), we utilize the second element of nicePackage's return value (i.e. the total number of days). And since this requires multiple iterations of the first algorithm, we create a new function.

- 1. Input k, the number of different types of object, and the number of iterations, n.
- 2. Iterate nicePackage n times and record the total number of days to receive all the types of objects.
- 3. Return the mean number of days.

Code 5.2: manyNicePackages function

```
manyNicePackages <- function(k, n) {
    set.seed(981) # allow for replication of results
    totalDays <- c()

for (i in 1:n)
    totalDays <- c(totalDays, nicePackage(k)[2])

return (mean(totalDays))
}
</pre>
```

B Simulation and Analysis

Running the **nicePackage** function above with k = 101 (101 unique objects), we get a mean of 5.81 days. Additionally, a k of only 13 yields a mean of 2.92 days. A visualization of the number of days passed before getting the $n + 1^{th}$ object can be seen in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2.

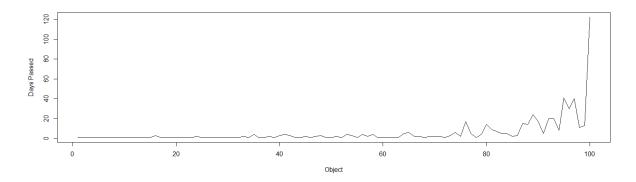


Figure 5.1: with k = 101

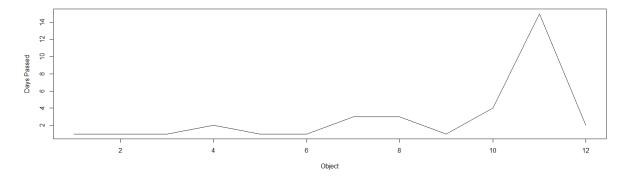


Figure 5.2: with k = 13

Moreover, running the manyNicePackage function with k = 101 (101 unique objects), n = 50 (50 iterations of the nicePackage function), and removing the set.seed(6626068) in the nicePackage function, we get a mean of 622.08 days. While a k = 13 and n = 50 results to a mean of 55.36 days. It is important to note that the values for k and n were chosen such that the simulation covers from a relatively small to a relatively large number of objects.

```
> manyNicePackages(13, 50)
[1] 55.36
> manyNicePackages(101, 50)
[1] 622.08
```

Figure 5.3: RStudio output for the manyNicePackage simulation