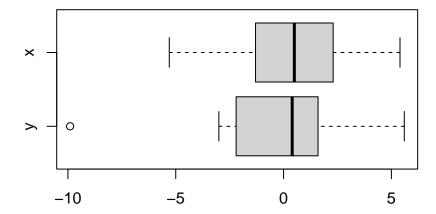
### Homework 1

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2025-01-26

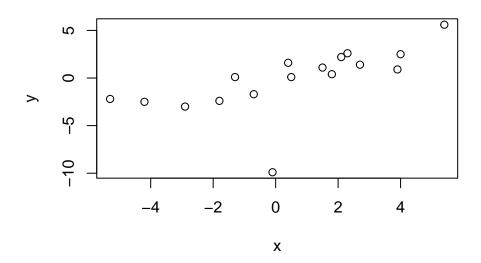
```
1
i
Using:
x \leftarrow c(2.7, 4.0, 2.3, 5.4, -5.3, 1.8, -1.3, -2.9, 2.1, 3.9,
       -1.8, 0.4, -4.2, 0.5, -0.1, 1.5, -0.7)
y \leftarrow c(1.4, 2.5, 2.6, 5.6, -2.2, 0.4, 0.1, -3.0, 2.2, 0.9,
       -2.4, 1.6, -2.5, 0.1, -9.9, 1.1, -1.7)
Five-number summary of x:
summary(x)
      Min. 1st Qu. Median
                               Mean 3rd Qu.
## -5.3000 -1.3000 0.5000 0.4882 2.3000 5.4000
Five-number summary of y:
summary(y)
      Min. 1st Qu. Median
                               Mean 3rd Qu.
                                                Max.
## -9.9000 -2.2000 0.4000 -0.1882 1.6000 5.6000
Sample variance of x:
var(x)
## [1] 8.673603
Sample variance of y:
var(y)
## [1] 11.37985
boxplot(y,x,
  main = "Distribution of xs and ys",
  names = c("y", "x"),
  horizontal = TRUE
)
```

# Distribution of xs and ys



The ys are skewed right while the \$xs have no skew. The outlier is the y-value -9.9 from the point (-0.1, -9.9).

ii



Correlation coefficient:

cor(x, y)

## [1] 0.6289777

Which means x and y are moderately linearly correlated.

### iii

Yes; (-0.1, -9.9) is an outlier.

```
x2 <- c(2.7, 4.0, 2.3, 5.4, -5.3, 1.8, -1.3, -2.9, 2.1, 3.9,

-1.8, 0.4, -4.2, 0.5, 1.5, -0.7)

y2 <- c(1.4, 2.5, 2.6, 5.6, -2.2, 0.4, 0.1, -3.0, 2.2, 0.9,

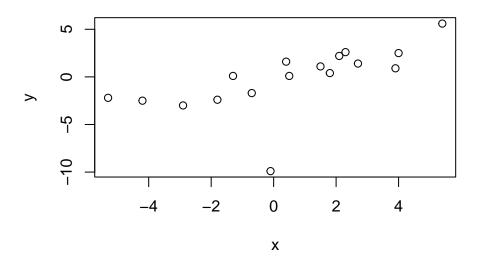
-2.4, 1.6, -2.5, 0.1, 1.1, -1.7)

cor(x2, y2)
```

## [1] 0.8822511

### iv

```
plot(x, y)
```



I can see the outlier (-0.1, -9.9) at the bottom-center of the graph.

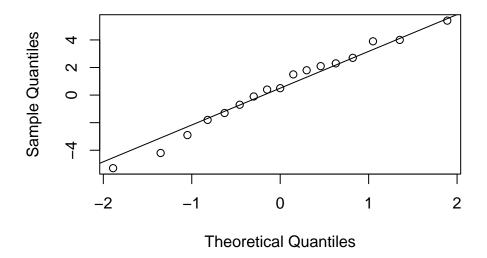
### ${f v}$

The sample correlation coefficient in iii is much higher than the one in ii.

### vi

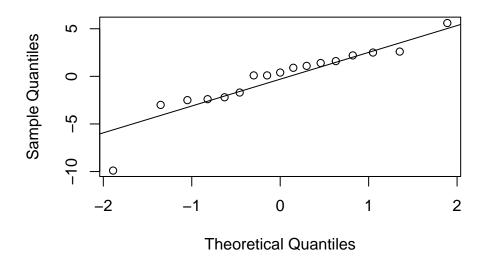
```
qqnorm(x, main="xs with outlier"); qqline(x)
```

### xs with outlier



qqnorm(y, main="ys with outlier"); qqline(y)

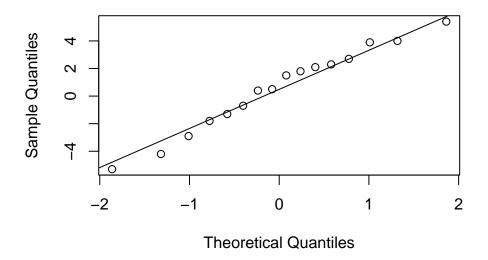
# ys with outlier



The xs look much closer to normal distribution than the ys.

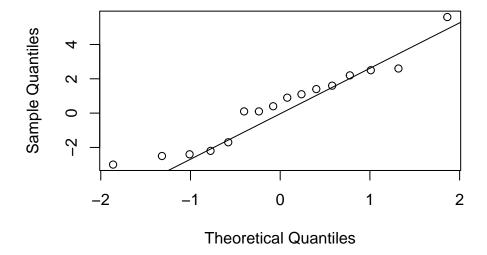
qqnorm(x2, main="xs without outlier"); qqline(x2)

### xs without outlier



qqnorm(y2, main="ys without outlier"); qqline(y2)

# ys without outlier



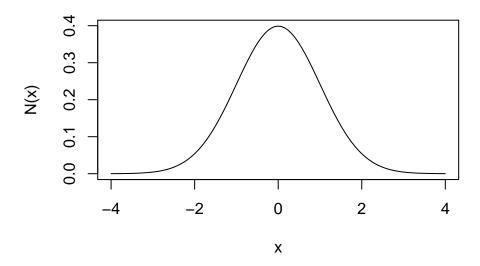
The xs still look much closer to normal distribution than the ys.

2

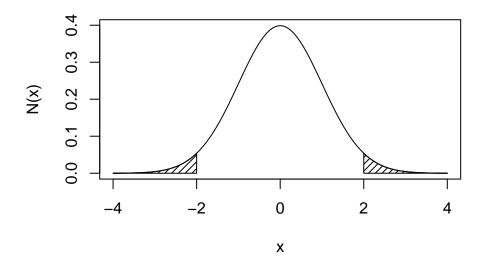
$$P(|Z| < 1) =$$
pnorm(-1) + pnorm(1, lower.tail=FALSE)

## [1] 0.3173105

```
N <- function(j) dnorm(j)
curve(N, from = -4, to = 4)
colorArea(from=-4, to=-1, dnorm, col=0, dens=20) #P(Z < -1)
colorArea(from=1, to=4, dnorm, col=0, dens=20) #P(Z > 1)
```



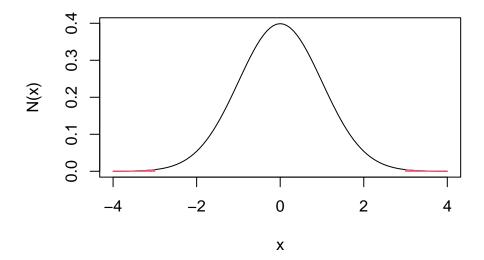
```
P(|Z| < 2) = \\ pnorm(-2) + pnorm(2, lower.tail=FALSE) \\ \#\# [1] 0.04550026 \\ curve(N, from = -4, to = 4) \\ colorArea(from=-4, to=-2, dnorm, col=1, dens=20) \#P(Z < -2) \\ colorArea(from=2, to=4, dnorm, col=1, dens=20) \#P(Z > 2) \\ \label{eq:pnorm}
```



```
P(|Z| < 3) = pnorm(-3) + pnorm(3, lower.tail=FALSE)
```

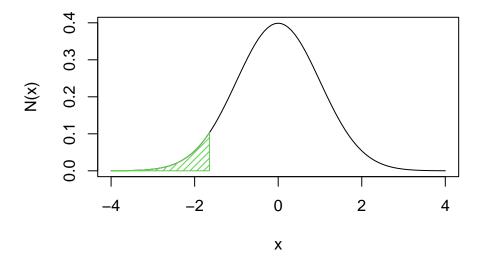
```
## [1] 0.002699796
```

```
curve(N, from = -4, to = 4) colorArea(from=-4, to=-3, dnorm, col=2, dens=20) \#P(Z < -3) colorArea(from=3, to=4, dnorm, col=2, dens=20) \#P(Z > 3)
```

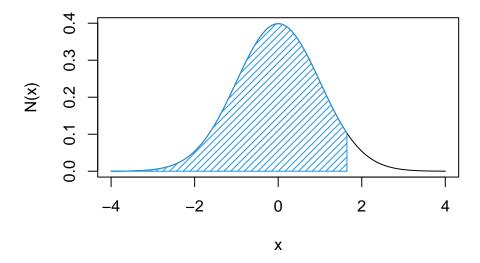


$$P(Z \le z_{0.1/2}) =$$

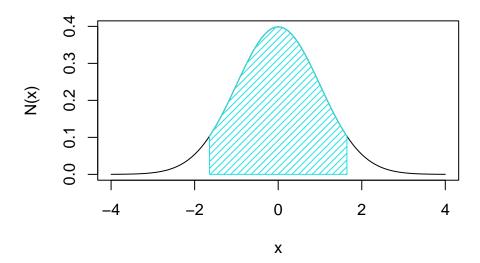
```
pnorm(qnorm(0.1/2))
## [1] 0.05
curve(N, from = -4, to = 4)
colorArea(from = -4, to = qnorm(0.1/2), dnorm, col=3, dens=20)
```



```
P(Z \le z_{1-0.1/2}) = \\ pnorm(qnorm(1-0.1/2)) \\ \#\# [1] 0.95 \\ curve(N, from = -4, to = 4) \\ colorArea(from = -4, to = qnorm(1 - 0.1/2), dnorm, col=4, dens=20)
```



```
\begin{split} &P(z_{0.1/2} \leq Z \leq z_{1-0.1/2}) = \\ &\text{pnorm}(\text{qnorm}(0.1/2)) + \text{pnorm}(\text{qnorm}(1-0.1/2), \text{lower.tail=FALSE}) \\ &\text{## [1] 0.1} \\ &\text{curve}(\mathbb{N}, \text{ from = -4, to = 4}) \\ &\text{colorArea}(\text{from = qnorm}(0.1/2), \text{ to = qnorm}(1 - 0.1/2), \text{ dnorm, col=5, dens=20}) \end{split}
```



### 3

We know F' is the inverse of cdf  $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ , which means  $P(X \le F'(x)) = F(F'(x)) = x$ . This means:

- $P(X \le F^{-1}(\alpha/2)) = \alpha/2$ . - This probability will decrease with a decrease in  $\alpha$ .
- $P(X > F^{-1}(1 \alpha/2)) = 1 P(X \le F^{-1}(1 \alpha/2)) = 1 1 \alpha/2 = -\alpha/2$ . - This probability will increase with a decrease in  $\alpha$ .
- $P(F^{-1}(\alpha/2) \le X \le F^{-1}(1-\alpha/2)) = P(X \le F^{-1}(1-\alpha/2)) P(X \le F^{-1}(\alpha/2)) = 1 \alpha/2 \alpha/2 = 1 \alpha$ . - This probability will increase with a decrease in  $\alpha$ .

### 4

#### i

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\bar{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i) - n\bar{x} \text{ (because } n \text{ is constant)}$$
$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} \implies \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = n\bar{x} \implies \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i) - n\bar{x} = n\bar{x} - n\bar{x} = 0.$$

### ii

If 
$$n = 2$$
, then  $(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i)^2 = (x_1 + x_2)^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 2x_1x_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{2} x_i^2 + 2\sum_{1 \le i < j \le 2} x_i x_j$ .

If 
$$n = 3$$
, then  $(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i)^2 = (x_1 + x_2 + x_3)^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + 2x_1x_2 + 2x_1x_3 + 2x_2x_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{3} x_i^2 + 2\sum_{1 \le i < j \le 3} x_i x_j$ .

We can generalize  $\sum_{i=1}^2 x_i + 2\sum_{1 \le i < j \le 2} x_i x_j$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^3 x_i + 2\sum_{1 \le i < j \le 3} x_i x_j$  to the form

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + 2 \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} x_i x_j.$$

# iii

#### Note that by convention n > 1.

$$(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + 2 \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} x_i x_j \implies \frac{1}{n} (\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{1 \le i < i n} x_i x_j \implies \frac{1}{n} (\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i)^2 \le \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 \implies \frac{1}{n} (\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i)^2 \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2.$$

#### iv

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i^2 + \bar{x}^2 - 2x_i \bar{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \bar{x}^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2x_i \bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + n\bar{x}^2 - 2\bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$
Recall  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = n\bar{x} \implies \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + n\bar{x}^2 - 2\bar{x} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 + n\bar{x}^2 - 2n\bar{x}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2$ .