

# BST 676 — Spring 2010 — Dr. Charnigo

## Written Assignment 2 Solutions

1a. We have  $m_1(\theta) = \theta/2$ . Solving  $m_1(\hat{\theta}) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$  yields the method of moments estimate  $\hat{\theta}_{MM} = 2n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$ , which is obviously different from the maximum likelihood estimate  $\max\{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n\}$ .

1b. The likelihood function is

$$L(\zeta; \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=1}^n (2\pi\zeta_2)^{-1/2} \exp[-(y_i - \zeta_1)^2 / (2\zeta_2)] = (2\pi\zeta_2)^{-n/2} \exp[-\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \zeta_1)^2 / (2\zeta_2)],$$

and so the log likelihood function is

$$l(\zeta; \mathbf{y}) = (-n/2) \log(2\pi) + (-n/2) \log(\zeta_2) - \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \zeta_1)^2 / (2\zeta_2).$$

We have

$$\frac{\partial l(\zeta; \mathbf{y})}{\partial \zeta_1} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \zeta_1) / \zeta_2 \quad (1)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial l(\zeta; \mathbf{y})}{\partial \zeta_2} = (-n/2) / \zeta_2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \zeta_1)^2 / (2\zeta_2^2). \quad (2)$$

Setting (1) to zero yields  $\zeta_1 = \bar{y}$ , and then setting (2) to zero yields  $\zeta_2 = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ . Thus, the maximum likelihood estimate is  $\hat{\theta}_{ML} = (\bar{y}, n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2)^T$ . This differs from the method of moments estimate, which had a divisor of  $(n-1)$  in its second component.

2a. We have  $m_1(\theta) = \int_{\theta}^{\infty} 3\theta^3/x^3 dx = (3/2)\theta$ . Solving  $m_1(\hat{\theta}) = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$  yields  $\hat{\theta}_{MM} = (2/3)n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ .

2b. The likelihood function is

$$L(\zeta; \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n 1_{\{x_i \geq \zeta\}} 3\zeta^3/x_i^4 = 1_{\{\min\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \geq \zeta\}} \zeta^{3n} 3^n / \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^4.$$

Since  $\zeta^{3n}$  is a strictly increasing function on  $(0, \infty)$ , the likelihood is maximized at the largest  $\zeta$  for which the indicator does not vanish. Thus,  $\hat{\theta}_{ML} = \min\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ .

3a. The likelihood function is

$$L(\zeta; \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \zeta^{x_i} (1 - \zeta)^{1 - x_i} = \zeta^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} (1 - \zeta)^{n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}. \quad (3)$$

If  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 0$ , then (3) simplifies to  $(1 - \zeta)^n$ , whose maximum on  $[0, 1]$  occurs at  $\zeta = 0 = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ .

If  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = n$ , then (3) simplifies to  $\zeta^n$ , whose maximum on  $[0, 1]$  occurs at  $\zeta = 1 = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ .

Otherwise, (3) equals zero at  $\zeta = 0$  and at  $\zeta = 1$ , so that the maximum occurs in the interior of  $[0, 1]$ . The log likelihood, defined on the interior of  $[0, 1]$ , is

$$l(\zeta; \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \log \zeta + (n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) \log(1 - \zeta).$$

Setting

$$\frac{\partial l(\zeta; \mathbf{x})}{\partial \zeta} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i / \zeta - (n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) / (1 - \zeta)$$

to zero yields  $\zeta = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ .

Thus, in any event, the maximum likelihood estimate is  $\hat{\theta}_{ML} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ .

3b. We have

$$p(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \propto p(\theta) L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \theta^{a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} (1 - \theta)^{b + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}.$$

Using calculations virtually identical to those in item 3a, we find that the posterior mode is  $\hat{\theta}_{PMo} = (a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i) / (a + b + n)$ .

Recognizing that the posterior distribution is beta with parameters  $a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + 1$  and  $b + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + 1$ , we can quote the known result that the beta distribution with parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  has mean  $\alpha / (\alpha + \beta)$  to determine that the posterior mean is  $\hat{\theta}_{PMe} = (a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + 1) / (a + b + n + 2)$ .

*Remark.* If we do not remember the known result about the mean of the beta distribution with parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we can derive it by the kernel method:

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^1 \theta \frac{\Gamma[\alpha + \beta]}{\Gamma[\alpha]\Gamma[\beta]} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} d\theta \\ &= \frac{\Gamma[\alpha + \beta]}{\Gamma[\alpha]\Gamma[\beta]} \frac{\Gamma[\alpha + 1]\Gamma[\beta]}{\Gamma[\alpha + \beta + 1]} \int_0^1 \frac{\Gamma[\alpha + \beta + 1]}{\Gamma[\alpha + 1]\Gamma[\beta]} \theta^{\alpha+1-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} d\theta \\ &= \frac{\Gamma[\alpha + \beta]}{\Gamma[\alpha]\Gamma[\beta]} \frac{\Gamma[\alpha + 1]\Gamma[\beta]}{\Gamma[\alpha + \beta + 1]} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma[\alpha + \beta]}{\Gamma[\alpha]} \frac{\alpha\Gamma[\alpha]}{(\alpha + \beta)\Gamma[\alpha + \beta]} \\ &= \alpha / (\alpha + \beta). \end{aligned}$$

4a. We can choose  $a$  and  $\nu$  so that  $\tau_1 Y_1 + \tau_2 Y_2$  and  $aY$  have the same mean and variance. Recalling that the mean of a chi-square random variable equals the degrees of freedom and that the variance equals twice the degrees of freedom, we obtain the equations

$$E[\tau_1 Y_1 + \tau_2 Y_2] = \tau_1 + \tau_2 = a\nu = E[aY]$$

and

$$Var[\tau_1 Y_1 + \tau_2 Y_2] = 2\tau_1^2 + 2\tau_2^2 = 2a^2\nu = Var[aY].$$

Dividing the second equation by twice the first yields  $a = (\tau_1^2 + \tau_2^2) / (\tau_1 + \tau_2)$ , and dividing twice the square of the first equation by the second yields  $\nu = (\tau_1 + \tau_2)^2 / (\tau_1^2 + \tau_2^2)$ .

4b. The given values of  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  yield  $a = 0.126$  and  $\nu = 1.96$ . Since  $\chi_{1.96, 0.95}^2 = 5.914$ , we have  $\alpha\chi_{\nu, 0.95}^2 = 0.745$ . The following R code conducts the requested simulation study.

```
Y1<-rchisq(10000,1)
Y2<-rchisq(10000,1)
tau1<-1/(4*sqrt(pi))
tau2<-3/(16*sqrt(pi))
sum(tau1*Y1+tau2*Y2>(tau1^2+tau2^2)/(tau1+tau2)*qchisq(0.95,(tau1+tau2)^2/(tau1^2+tau2^2)))/10000
```

A different result will be obtained each time the code is run since new random chi-square variables will be generated. However, the result will always be fairly close to 0.05.

This suggests that, if we are comfortable treating  $nD_n$  as if its null-hypothesis distribution were that of  $1/(4\sqrt{\pi}) \chi_1^2 + 3/(16\sqrt{\pi}) \chi_1^2$ , then we may as well take the further step and treat  $nD_n$  as if its null-hypothesis distribution were that of  $0.126 \chi_{1.96}^2$ .

What the simulation study does not clarify is what  $n$  must be for us to feel comfortable treating  $nD_n$  as if its null-hypothesis distribution were that of  $1/(4\sqrt{\pi}) \chi_1^2 + 3/(16\sqrt{\pi}) \chi_1^2$ . To get an idea about that, we would need to conduct another simulation study in which we generated 10000 realizations of  $nD_n$  and then examined a histogram of the 10000 realizations, for each of various  $n$  (small, medium, and large).