



Computational Statistics

Lecture 5: Simulating from arbitrary empirical random distributions

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Content of Lecture 5

1. Single-Pass estimation of arbitrary quantiles

Computing sample quantiles

Quantiles via selecting algorithms

Tracking the M largest in a single pass

2. Computing quantiles from binned data

Equally binned observation data

Linear interpolation formulas

Regular binned data quantiles

3. Incremental quantiles estimation : the IQ-agent

The incremental quantiles estimation algorithm

Using the IQ-agent

Monte Carlo simulations with the IQ-agent



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Example of empirical data series

Consider the following empirical data series X gathering service time (in minutes) measured for 51 units of health care actions in a hospital :

$$x = [21, 24, 24, 30, 30, 30, 30, 31, 31, 31, \\ 31, 32, 32, 33, 33, 34, 34, 34, 34, 34, \\ 36, 36, 36, 36, 37, 37, 38, 39, 40, 40, \\ 41, 41, 41, 42, 42, 43, 43, 45, 46, 46, \\ 46, 47, 48, 50, 51, 51, 55, 56, 56, 62, \\ 62]$$

How to compute, for instance, **quintiles** :

$$[x_{0\%}, x_{20\%}, x_{40\%}, x_{60\%}, x_{80\%}, x_{100\%}]$$

where $x_{\alpha\%}$ corresponds to the service time such that $\alpha\%$ of the observed data in the series x are lower or equal to this value.

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Example computation of sample quintiles

Number of data intervals $n = \text{length}(x) - 1 = 50$ and cumulative probabilities $p = [0.0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0]$.

$$x_{p[i]} = x_{(n \cdot p[i] + 1)} \quad \text{for } i = 1 \dots 6$$

Hence, $x_{0\%} = x_{(1)}$, $x_{20\%} = x_{(11)}$, $x_{40\%} = x_{(21)}$, $x_{60\%} = x_{(31)}$, $x_{80\%} = x_{(41)}$ and $x_{100\%} = x_{(51)}$

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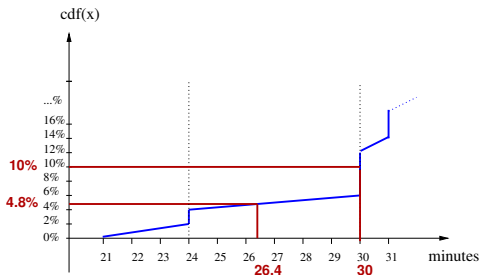
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```

The method above corresponds to the default `quantile()` function (type=7) in R. Mind that there is *no standard definition* for sample quantiles computation !

R's default sample quantile function

```
> X = read.csv(
+   'minutes.csv')
> x = X[1:51,]
> quantile(x,
+   seq(0,1,0.2))
0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100%
21  31  36  41  46  62
> quantile(x,0.048)
4.8% 26.4
> quantile(x,0.1)
10% 30
>
```

R type=7 cumulative distribution function
of the service times series (partial graph)





Selecting the k th smallest or $N - k$ largest

What is the k th smallest, equivalently the $m = N - k$ th largest element out of N preordered (with possible ties) elements $x_{(i)}$ with $i = 1, \dots, N$?

Here k may take on values between 1 and N , so $k = 1$ gives the minimum, and $k = N$ the maximum value (*R indexing rule*).

The most common use of selection is in statistical characterization of a set of data by **quantiles**.

The **quartiles** $Q_0 = x_{0\%}$, $Q_1 = x_{25\%}$, $Q_2 = x_{50\%}$ (the *median*), $Q_3 = x_{75\%}$, and $Q_4 = x_{100\%}$ are the quantiles used for *summaries* and *boxplots* for instance.

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Selecting via partitioning

- The fastest method for selection, allowing rearrangement, is partitioning, exactly as is done in the Quicksort algorithm.
- Selecting a random element, one marches through the array, forcing smaller elements to the left and larger elements to the right.
- One can ignore one subset, and continue only with the subset containing the desired k th element. Selection therefore does not need a stack of pending operations and its operations count scales as N .
- For a C++/nr3 implementaton see the `sort.h` code.



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Tracking the M largest in a single pass

- The previous partitioning approach should not be used for finding the largest or smallest element in an array.
- When one is looking for the M largest elements, where M is modest compared to N , the number of elements of the array, a good approach is to keep a **heap** of the M largest values.
- This approach is implemented as a `HeapSelect` class with :
 - a constructor where you specify M , the size of the heap,
 - an `add` method allowing to add new incoming data values one by one, and
 - a `report` method for getting the k th largest seen so far ($1 \leq k \leq M$).



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Heap select –continue

- The heap has to be sorted when reporting, but all k values may be given without resorting when no new data value is added meanwhile.
- A special case is that getting the $M - 1$ st largest is always cheap, since it is always at the top of the heap.
- So if you look for a single favorite k , it is best to choose M such that $M - 1 = k$.
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Equally binned empirical data series

Reconsider the pre ordered data series X showing the time in minutes measured for 51 units of health care actions in hospital :

```
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```

TABLE – Right-closed binning of data series X

bin	low	high	center	freq.	f%	F ↑	F* ↓
1]20	30]	25	7	13.7%	13.7%	100%
2]30	40]	35	23	45.1%	58.8%	86.7%
3]40	50]	45	14	27.5%	86.3%	41.2%
4]50	60]	55	5	9.8%	96.08%	13.7%
5]60	70]	65	2	3.9%	100%	3.9%

Working hypothesis!

Observations are **uniformly** distributed in each bin.

How to compute quantiles from the binned data series ?



Notations

Notation :

- X : a finite data series,
- n : number of bins,
- $a_0 < a_1 < \dots < a_m$: set of $n + 1$ ordered real-valued breaks defined on \mathbb{R} . No observation in X may be lower than a_0 or higher than a_n .
- $[a_{i-1}, a_i]$: a partition of \mathbb{R} into n non overlapping upper-closed bins with $i = 1, \dots, n$,
- $F(x)$: cumulative distribution function (cdf), $x \in \mathbb{R}$,
- $F^*(x)$: complementary cdf : $1.0 - F(x)$,
- $F^{-1}(p)$: inverse cdf where $p \in [0, 1]$,
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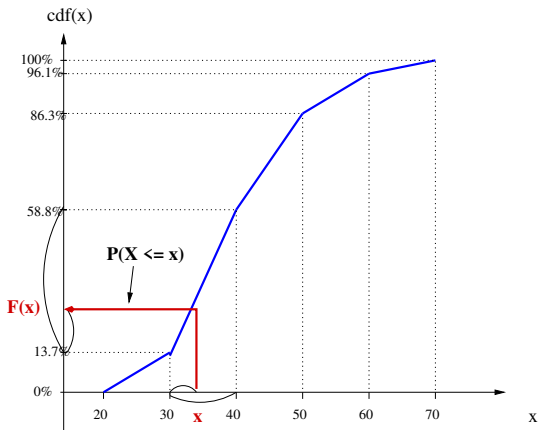
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- $a_0 < a_1 < \dots < a_m$: set of $n + 1$ ordered real-valued breaks defined on \mathbb{R} . No observation in X may be lower than a_0 or higher than a_n .
- $[a_{i-1}, a_i]$: a partition of \mathbb{R} into n non overlapping upper-closed bins with $i = 1, \dots, n$,
- $F(x)$: cumulative distribution function (cdf), $x \in \mathbb{R}$,
- $F^*(x)$: complementary cdf : $1.0 - F(x)$,
- $F^{-1}(p)$: inverse cdf where $p \in [0, 1]$,
- x_p : quantile gathering in increasing order $p\%$ of the observation data.

Example of binned observation data

Cumulative distribution function from binned data



Linear cdf interpolation formula

Given x_p , we are looking for $p = F(x_p)$. Now,

$$x_p \in]a_{i-1}, a_i] \quad \text{iff} \quad (a_i \geq x_p > a_{i-1})$$

Interpolation principle :

$$\boxed{\frac{F(x_p) - F(a_{i-1})}{F(a_i) - F(a_{i-1})} = \frac{x_p - a_{i-1}}{a_i - a_{i-1}}}$$

Interpolated cumulative distribution function F :

$$p = F(x_p) = F(a_{i-1}) + \frac{x_p - a_{i-1}}{a_i - a_{i-1}} \times (F(a_i) - F(a_{i-1}))$$

Linear quantile interpolation formula

Given $p = F(x_p)$, we are looking for $x_p = F^{-1}(p)$. Again,

$$\begin{aligned} x_p \in]a_{i-1}, a_i] & \quad \text{iff} \quad [(F(a_i) \geq p) \wedge (F^*(a_{i-1}) \geq 1 - p)] \\ & \quad \text{iff} \quad (F(a_i) \geq p > F(a_{i-1})) \end{aligned}$$

Interpolation principle :

$$\boxed{\frac{x_p - a_{i-1}}{a_i - a_{i-1}} = \frac{F(x_p) - F(a_{i-1})}{F(a_i) - F(a_{i-1})}}$$

Interpolated quantile function F^{-1} :

$$x_p = F^{-1}(p) = a_{i-1} + \frac{p - F(a_{i-1})}{F(a_i) - F(a_{i-1})} \times (a_i - a_{i-1})$$

Interpolating quantiles from binned data

i	$]a_{i-1}$	$a_i]$	center	freq.	f%	F \uparrow	F* \downarrow
1	20	30	25	7	13.7%	13.7%	100%
2	30	40	35	23	45.1%	58.8%	86.7%
3	40	50	45	14	27.5%	86.3%	41.2%
4	50	60	55	5	9.8%	96.1%	13.7%
5	60	70	65	2	3.9%	100%	3.9%

$$(58.8\% > 25\% > 13.7\%) \Rightarrow Q_1 = x_{25\%} \in]30; 40],$$

$$x_{25\%} = 30 + \frac{25\% - 13.7\%}{58.8\% - 13.7\%} \times (40 - 30) = 32.5 \text{ min.}$$

Similarly, $Q_2 = x_{50\%} = 38.0$ min. and $Q_3 = x_{75\%} = 45.9$ min.

By convention, $Q_0 = x_{0\%} = x_{(1)} = 21$ min. and

$Q_4 = x_{100\%} = x_{(51)} = 62$ min.

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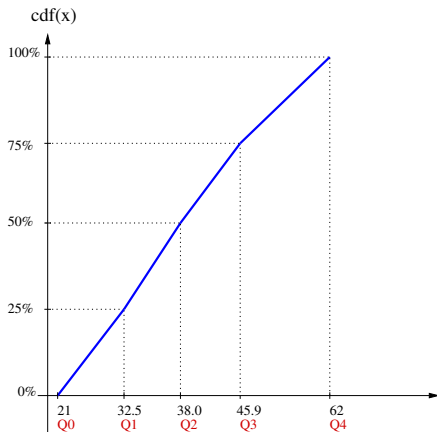
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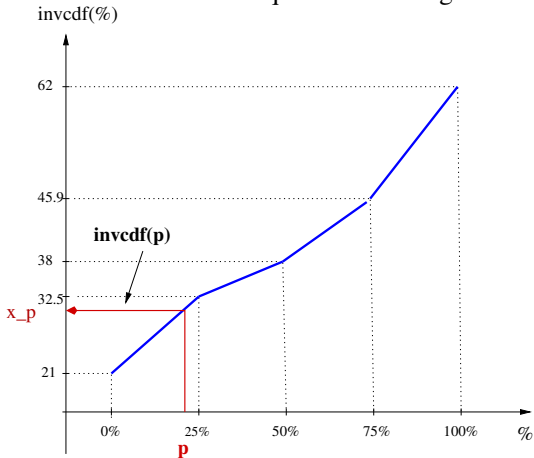
Regular quartiles binning

Cumulative quartiles distribution function



Regular quartiles binning

Inverse cumulative distribution function
from quantiles binning



Enhancing exponential tail quantiles' accuracy

Exponential tail quantiles' accuracy may be improved by applying non linear, i.e. a logit interpolation.

1. The **logit interpolation** of cumulated probability $F(x_p)$ of quantile x_p , with $p \in [0, 1]$, situated in bin $]a_{i-1}; a_i]$ with cumulated probabilities $F(a_{i-1})$ and $F(a_i)$ is defined as follows :

$$F(x_p) = g^{-1} \left(g(F(a_{i-1})) + (g(F(a_i)) - g(F(a_{i-1}))) \cdot \frac{x_p - a_{i-1}}{a_i - a_{i-1}} \right)$$

where $g(p) = \log(p/(1-p))$, and $g^{-1}(x) = (1 + \exp(x))^{-1}$.

2. **Inversely**, quantile x_p in bin $]a_{i-1}; a_i]$ with $F(a_{i-1}) < p < F(a_i)$, is defined as follows :

$x_p = \rho a_{i-1} + (1 - \rho) a_i$, where

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1. Single-Pass estimation of arbitrary quantiles

Computing sample quantiles

Quantiles via selecting algorithms

Tracking the M largest in a single pass

2. Computing quantiles from binned data

Equally binned observation data

Linear interpolation formulas

Regular binned data quantiles

3. Incremental quantiles estimation : the IQ-agent

The incremental quantiles estimation algorithm

Using the IQ-agent

Monte Carlo simulations with the IQ-agent



Single-pass estimation of a quantile

Working conditions :

1. The data values fly by in a stream.
2. You get to look at each value once, and do a constant-time process on it.
3. You only have a fixed amount of storage memory.
4. From time to time arbitrary quantiles of the data values seen so far have to be reported.



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With conditions stated, only an approximate answer about the exact quantiles of the observed data may be given.

The incremental quantiles estimation algorithm

John Chambers et al. (see moodle resources) have given a robust, and extremely fast, algorithm they call IQ agent, that adaptively adjusts a set of bins so that they converge to the data values of specified quantiles (centiles, quartiles, etc).

The idea is to :

1. accumulate incoming data into batches,
2. update a stored, piecewise linear, cumulative distribution function (cdf) by
 - 2.1 adding a batch's cdf, and
 - 2.2 interpolating back to the fixed set of quantiles,
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For a C++/nr3 implementation see the `iqagent.h` code.



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Major steps in the IQ algorithm

1. Suppose that T data values have been processed so far.
2. The quantile buffer Q holds the estimated quantiles $[q_{p_1}, q_{p_2}, \dots, q_{p_m}]$ for $p\%$ values :
 $[p_1 = 0.01, p_2 = 0.02, \dots, p_m = 0.99]$.
3. Refill the data buffer $D = [d_1, d_2, \dots, d_N]$ with N new data values.
4. If D is full or at prespecified times, D is converted into a discrete CDF $F_D(x)$ (a step function, see lecture 4).
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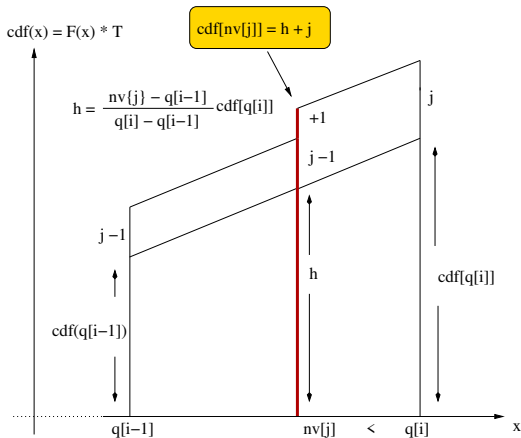
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Adding the j -th new observation



Merging the j th observed value $\text{nv}[j]$ before quantile $q[i]$



Incremental Python and/or R quantile agent

Exercise

1. *Re-implement the IQ-agent in Python and in R,*
2. *Design a suitable Monte Carlo simulation experience for verifying the re-implementations.*
3. *Compare the run times of your IQ-agent in Python and in R with the NR3C++ implementation.*

Empirical CDF agent

Exercise

Notice that the state of the incremental quantile agent represents in fact the empirical cumulated distribution function (cdf) constructed on the fly from an incoming random data stream.

1. *Add save and restore methods to the iqagent (C++/nr3 and R) that allow to save and restore the state of the agent in/from a file.*
2. *Add a cdf method to the iqagent in C++/nr3 and R rendering the propability $P(X \leq q)$ of a given quantile(q).*
3. *Add an inverse cdf method named cdfinv to the iqagent in C++/nr3 and R rendering the quantile $x_{u\%}$ gathering $u\%$ of the observation data.*

Use the `iqagent` for simulation problems

Exercise

Notice that previous incremental cdf agent may readily be used for Monte carlo simulation purposes :

- 1. Save an empirical cdf from a sample of 10000 random normal numbers of mean 50 and standard deviation 20*
- 2. Compare the previous cdf estimation with the theoretical random variable $\mathcal{N}(50, 20)$.*



Use the iqagent for simulation problems – continue

Exercise

The size of the data buffer has a certain influence on the accuracy of the iqagent estimations.

- 1. Estimate quantiles with the iqagent from a continuous stream of values generated from a known probability distribution, by varying the size of the data buffer D .*
- 2. What is the lowest size for D such that the accuracy stays within the 90% confidence interval of the χ^2 test of difference between the estimated and the real distribution.*