

# Computational Statistics

## Lesson 7: On "Averaging"

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## The Law of Large Numbers

- Assume that  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent and identically distributed random variables with finite mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = \mu$$

*almost certainly.*

- The expression *almost certainly* means that, with probability one, the averages of any realization  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  of the random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  converge toward their common mean  $\mu$ .
- This is good news, since many observed data sets concern multiple realizations of some random variables.

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## Estimating noise distribution parameters

- Assume that we have a measurement device whose output is a noisy signal; meaning that the signal observed contains a noise component.
- By attaching the device to a dummy load whose theoretical noiseless output we know, we may calibrate the proper noise level of the device, by subtracting this theoretical output, to obtain its pure noise level.
- We assume that an observed pure noise vector  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  contains  $n$  realizations of a same random variable  $X : \Omega \Rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- If we assume that the  $n$  realizations are mutually independent, the mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  of  $X$  can be estimated via the formulas:

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \quad \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2.$$

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## Howto reduce noise by averaging

- Having performed the noise calibration, we realize that the signal-to-noise ratio of our device is so poor that important features of the signal are cluttered under the noise.
- We may repeat the measurement  $nSim$  times and average the noisy signals in the hope of reducing the variance of the noise component.
- How many measurements do we need to reach a desired signal-to-noise ratio?

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## Howto reduce noise – continue

- If  $x^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  denotes the noise vector observed in the  $k$ -th repeated measurement, the average noise vector  $\bar{x}$  becomes:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{nSim} \sum_{k=1}^{nSim} (x^k) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

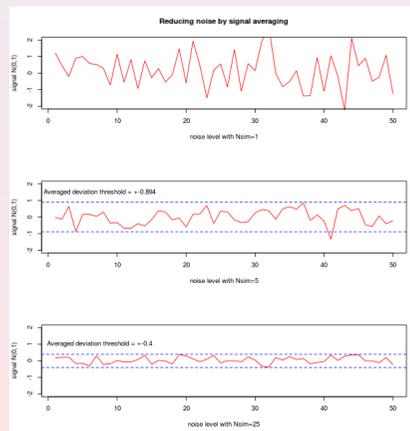
- From the CLT we know that, as  $nSim \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\bar{x}$  becomes Gaussian distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance going to zero like  $\sigma^2/nSim$ .
- To obtain, hence, a signal whose variance is below a given threshold value  $\tau^2$ , we need to choose  $nSim$  such that:  $\sigma^2/nSim < \tau^2$ .

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## Howto reduce noise – Graphical illustration

To demonstrate the noise reduction by averaging, we generate 25 standard Gaussian noise vectors of dimension  $n = 50$ , and average them.

```
nSim=25
xn = rep(0,50)
for (i in 1:nSim) {
  xn = xn + rnorm(50,0,1)
}
xn = xn/nSim
plot(xn,type="l",ylim=c(-2,2),
     xlab="noise level with nSim=25",
     ylab="signal N(0,1)",col="red")
n = 2/sqrt(nSim)
abline(h=+n,lty=2,col="blue")
abline(h=-n,lty=2,col="blue")
```



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### Exercise

1. Reconsider the previous noise reduction problem when observing a Gaussian noise  $X$  with estimated mean  $\hat{\mu}$  and variance  $\hat{\sigma}^2$ . How many measurements  $nSim$  must be made in order to assure that 95.5% of the realizations will appear between  $\mu \pm \hat{\sigma}$ .
2. Realize a graphical illustration of your solution when assuming a standard Gaussian noise.

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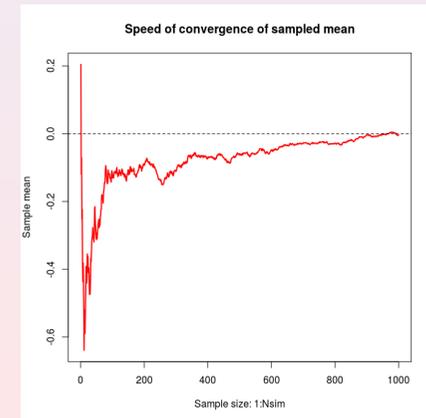
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## How fast converges the average?

Let us sample the mean of i.i.d. Gaussian variables  $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$ . The LLN tells us that the sampled mean will approach certainly the common mean value 0 with a standard deviation  $\sigma/\sqrt{nSim}$ . How fast is this convergence ?

```
> nSim = 1000
> mn = rep(0,nSim)
> dn = rnorm(nSim)
> for (i in 1:nSim) {
+   mn[i] = mean(dn[1:i])}
> plot(mn,type="l",col="red")
> abline(h=0,lty=2)
```



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## And if there are potential outliers?

Let us now consider the ratio  $X/Y$  of two independent standard Gaussian variables  $\mathcal{N}(\mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$ . This ratio has a cumulative density function:

$$P[X/Y \leq z] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \int_{x/y \leq z} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}x^2) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}y^2) dx dy, \quad z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

which becomes a Cauchy density with mode 0 and spread 1:

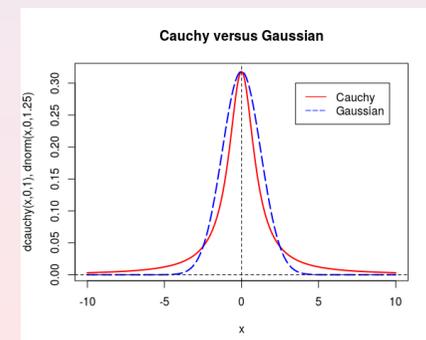
$$P[X/Y \leq z]'_z = \frac{1}{\pi(1+z^2)}, \quad z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The **Cauchy** distribution, also called after **Lorentz**, has **no finite mean and variance** and the LLN will not work in this case.

## The “heavily tailed” Cauchy distribution

The parameters of the Cauchy are the **mode** (called location in R) and a **scale** factor which may be aligned to match with the standard deviation concept. The solid red curve below is a Cauchy density with mode = 0 and scale 1. The dashed blue curve is a Gaussian density with same density peak at value  $1/\pi$  at mean (or mode) 0 and standard deviation  $\sqrt{\pi/2} = 1.253314$ .

```
> x = seq(-10,10,by=0.1)
> plot(x,dcauchy(x,0,1),
+ "l",lwd=2,col="red")
> lines(x,dnorm(x,0,1.253),
+ lwd=2,lty=5,col="blue")
> abline(h=0,v=0,lty=2)
```



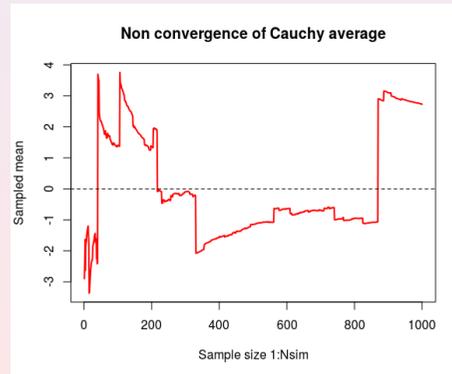
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## Non convergence of the Cauchy average?

Let us sample the mean of 1000 i.i.d. Cauchy variables with location = 0 and scale = 1.

```
> nSim = 1000
> mn = rep(0,nSim)
> dc = rcauchy(nSim,0,1)
> for (i in 1:nSim) {
+ mn[i] = mean(dn[1:i])}
> plot(mn,type="l",
+ col="red")
> abline(h=0,lty=2)
```

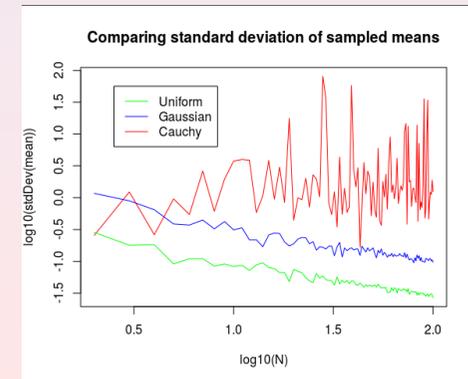


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## Comparing sampled averages' standard deviations

The Figure below compares the standard deviation from samples of size  $N = 1 : 100$  drawn from a standard uniform, Gaussian, and Cauchy random sequence of size 10 000. This is a log-log plot where  $\sigma/\sqrt{N}$  appears as a more or less straight line with slope  $\approx -1/2$  for the uniform and Gaussian distributions, whereas the Cauchy sample mean will evolve **erratically**.

```
> nSim = 10000
> sdc = rep(0,100)
> dc = rcauchy(nSim,0,1)
> for (N in 1:100) {
+ sampc = sample(dc,N)
+ sdc[N] = sd(sampc
+ - mean(sampc))/sqrt(N)}
lsdc = log10(sdc[-1])
logN = log10(2:100)
plot(logN,lsdc,type="l",
+ col="red")
```



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## The $t$ statistic

Suppose we have two independent samples  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$  and  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  from statistical variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , and we wish to test the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \mu_X == \mu_Y$  that the actual means of both variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are in fact the same.

The standard test for this  $H_0$  is based on the  $t$ -statistic:

$$T = \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{y}}{\sigma_p \sqrt{(1/m + 1/n)}}$$

where  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  are the respective observed sample means, and  $\sigma_p$  is the *pooled* standard deviation:

$$\sigma_p = \sqrt{\frac{(m-1)\sigma_x^2 + (n-1)\sigma_y^2}{m+n-2}}$$

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## Robustness of the t Statistics

Under  $H_0$ ,  $T \sim \mathcal{T}(df = m + n - 2)$ . Suppose the level of significance of the test is set at  $\alpha$ , then one rejects  $H_0$  when  $|T| \geq t_{n+m-2, \alpha/2}$  where  $t_{df, p}$  is the  $1 - p$  quantile of a  $t$  random variable with  $df$  degrees of freedom.

The underlying assumptions of the test are:

1.  $X$  and  $Y$  are **independent normal** distributed variables,
2.  $X$  and  $Y$  admit the **same variance**.

An interesting problem is to investigate the **robustness** of this popular test with respect to changes in the assumptions.

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## Writing a function to estimate the t Statistic

Here some R commands for computing a t statistic:

```
> X = rnorm(10, mean=50, sd=10)
> Y = rnorm(10, mean=50, sd=10)
> m = length(X)
> n = length(Y)
> sp = sqrt(( (m-1)*sd(X)^2 +
+ (n-1)*sd(Y)^2 ) / ( m+n -2) )
> t = ( mean(X) - mean(Y) ) /
+ ( sp * sqrt(1/m + 1/n) )
```

We may write a R function `tstatistic` to compute these results in the future.

The following text is saved in file "tstatistics.R":

```
tstatistic = function(X,Y)
{
  m = length(X)
  n = length(Y)
  sp = sqrt(( (m-1)*sd(X)^2 +
  (n-1)*sd(Y)^2 ) / ( m+n -2) )
  t = ( mean(X) - mean(Y) ) /
  ( sp * sqrt(1/m + 1/n) )
  return(t)
}
```

We may load this function in R with the command `> source("tstatistic.R")`.

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## true significance of $H_0$ rejection test

True significance of the t statistic will depend on:

- the required  $\alpha$  level of significance of the test,
- the shape of the distributions  $X$  and  $Y$ ,
- the spreads of the distributions  $X$  and  $Y$ , and
- the sample sizes  $m$  and  $n$ .

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## Monte Carlo simulation of the $H_0$ rejection

Given a particular choice of  $\alpha$ , shape, spreads, and sample sizes, we wish to estimate the true significance level of the  $H_0$  rejection test given by:

$$\alpha^T = P(|T| \geq t_{n+m-2, \alpha/2})$$

Here an outline of a simulation algorithm: Repeat  $nSim$  times:

1. generate independent sequences of the  $X$  and  $Y$  random variables,
2. compute the empirical  $T$  statistic from the two samples,
3. if  $|T|$  exceeds the theoretical  $t$  value, reject  $H_0$

The estimate  $\hat{\alpha}^T$  of the true significance is given as the ratio of the number of rejections of  $H_0$  over  $nSim$ .

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## Robustness of the true significance level

### Exercise

Suppose we fix the required significance level at  $\alpha = 0.1$  and keep the sample sizes at  $m = 10$  and  $n = 10$ . One may simulate  $nSim = 10^4$   $t$ -statistics with the following assumptions:

1. normal  $Z$  variables (zero means and spreads of one)
2. normal variables with zero means and spreads of one, respectively 10,
3.  $T$  variables with 4 dfs and equal spreads,
4. exponential variables with equal mean of one,
5. one normal variable (mean=10, sd=2) and one exponential variable with mean = 10.

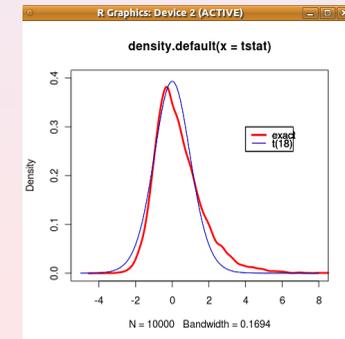
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## Graphical illustration of the $T$ distributions

We may illustrate the empirical  $T$  distribution for instance in the fourth case where we suppose a normal and an exponential variable.

We suppose that the `nSim` simulated values of the  $t$  statistic are gathered in a `tstat` vector:

```
> tstat = rep(0,nSim)
> for (i in 1:nSim){
+   X=rnorm(10,mean=10,sd=2)
+   Y=rexp(10,rate=1/10)
+   tstat[i] = tstatistic(X,Y) }
> plot(density(tstat),xlim=c(-5,8),
+   ylim=c(0,.4), lwd=3, col="red")
> x = seq(-5,8,length=200)
> lines(x,dt(x,df=18),col="blue")
> legend(4,.3,c("exact","t(18)"),
+   lwd=c(3,1), col=c("red","blue"))
```



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## Exercise

### Exercise (Robustness of the confidence interval of proportions)

Suppose one observes a random variable  $X$  that is supposed to be binomially distributed with a sample size  $n$  and a success probability of  $p$ . The standard 90% confidence interval of  $p$  is given by

$$C(X) = \left[ \hat{p} - z_{0.9} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}}, \hat{p} + z_{0.9} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}} \right],$$

where  $\hat{p} = \sum X/n$ .

We rely in this approach on the assumption that  $P(p \in C(X)) = 0.90$  for all  $0 < p < 1$ .

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## Exercise – continue

### Exercise (Robustness of the confidence interval of proportions)

Questions:

1. Write a R-function called `binomialConfInterval` that returns the limits of a 90% confidence interval for a simulation of a binomial random variable  $X$  with sample size  $n$ .
2. Simulate  $nSim = 1000$  times the computation of the confidence interval when  $n = 20$  and the true value of  $p$  is 0.5 and estimate the true probability of coverage.
3. Construct a Monte Carlo study that investigates how the probability of coverage depends on the sample size  $n$  and true proportion value. Let  $n$  take the values 10, 25, and 50 and let  $p$  be 5%, 25%, and 50%. The number of simulations  $nSim$  be 1000 in each case.
4. Write a function that takes three arguments:  $n$ ,  $p$  and  $nSim$ , and returns the estimate of the true coverage probability.
5. Describe how the actual coverage probability of the confidence interval estimate depends in fact on the sample size and true success proportion of the underlying binomial process.