Efficient Robust Methods and Their Applications

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Sample mean and variance

$$\overline{Y} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} Y_j$$

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (Y_j - \overline{Y})^2.$$

- The sample mean and the sample variance are the most widely used estimators for location (mean) and squared scale (variance).
- The problem is that they are very sensitive to contamination.

Example

- Data: Y = (-2, -1, 0, 1, 2)Mean response: mean = 0 and median = 0 Var. response: var = 2.5 and IQR = 2
- Data: (-2, -1, 0, 1, 102)Mean response: mean = 20 and median = 0 Var. response: var = 2102.5 and IQR = 2
- In the above, **median** (alternative to mean) and **IQR** (alternative to standard dev.) are illustrated.
- But, there are several other alternatives to them.



Alternative to mean and variance (or, standard deviation)

• Mean: median, Hodge-Lehmann

$$\mathrm{HL} = \underset{i \leq j}{\mathrm{median}} \left(\frac{Y_i + Y_j}{2} \right).$$

 Std Deviation: MAD, IQR, Shamos (needs Fisher-consistency correction).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MAD} &= \underset{1 \leq i \leq m}{\operatorname{median}} \left\{ |Y_i - \operatorname{median}(Y)| \right\} \\ &\text{IQR} &= Y_{[3m/4]} - Y_{[m/4]} \\ &\text{Shamos} &= \underset{i \leq i}{\operatorname{median}} \left(|Y_i - Y_j| \right) \end{aligned}$$

- Then which one should be selected?
- We need to consider (i) breakdown point and (ii) efficiency.

- **Breakdown point**: the proportion of incorrect observations (e.g. arbitrarily large observations) an estimator can handle.
- ARE (asymptotic relative efficiency) is the ratio of variance of MLE to variance of the corresponding estimator.

Properties of Location and Scale Estimators

Location	Mean	Median	Hodges-Lehmann
Breakdown	0%	50 %	29%
ARE	100%	64%	96%

Scale	SD	IQR	MAD	Shamos
Breakdown	0%	25%	50 %	29%
ARE	100%	38%	37%	86%

Mean and SD are the MLEs for the location and scale under the normal assumption

• Mean starts to break down even with a single extreme value (say, ∞).

$$\mathrm{Mean} = \frac{1}{10}Y_1 + \frac{1}{10}Y_2 + \dots + \frac{1}{10}Y_{10}$$
 (0% breakdown)



• Median starts to break down with **five** or more extremes out of **ten**.

$$Median = (Y_{(5)} + Y_{(6)})/2$$

(50% breakdown)

















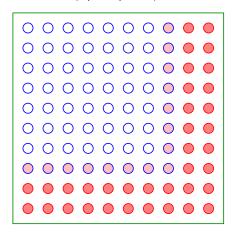


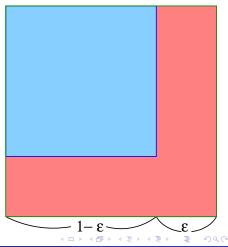




What is the breakdown point of the HL, $\operatorname{median}_{i \leq j}(Y_i + Y_j)/2$?

- When 2 out of 10 are contaminated, HL is OK. But, when 3 are contaminated, it breaks down.
- Thus, the breakdown point is between 2/10 and 3/10.
- Solving $(1 \epsilon)^2 = 1/2$ for ϵ , we have $\epsilon = 1 (1/2)^{1/2}$.





Robust Parameter Estimation (Breakdown Point)

What is the breakdown point of $\operatorname{median}_{i \leq j \leq k} (Y_i + Y_j + Y_k)/3$? Solving the following for ϵ (d = 3)

$$(1-\epsilon)^d = \frac{1}{2}$$

we have

$$\epsilon = 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{1/d}.$$

d=1	d=2	d = 3	d (vary large)
Median	Hodges-Lehmann	?	close to Mean
0.5 (50%)	0.293 (29.3%)	0.206 (20.6%)	close to 0

It looks like that the median is the best?

But, we also consider the ARE.



Robust Parameter Estimation (ARE)

The RE (relative efficiency) and ARE (asymptotic relative efficiency) are defined as

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{RE}(\hat{\theta}_{2}, \hat{\theta}_{1}) = \frac{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_{1})}{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_{2})} \times 100\% \\ & \operatorname{ARE}(\hat{\theta}_{2}, \hat{\theta}_{1}) = \frac{\operatorname{AVar}(\hat{\theta}_{1})}{\operatorname{AVar}(\hat{\theta}_{2})} \times 100\%, \end{aligned}$$

where $\hat{\theta}_1$ is a reference or baseline estimator (say, MLE without contamination).

- It is quite difficult to obtain the RE and ARE theoretically (Serfling, 2011).
- One can use Monte Carlo simulation.



Recall: Properties of Location and Scale Estimators

Location	Mean	Median	Hodges-Lehmann
Breakdown	0%	50 % 64%	29%
ARE	100%		96%

Scale	SD	IQR	MAD	Shamos
Breakdown ARE	0% 100%		50 % 37%	29% 86%

Robust Design (Dual Response)

• The process mean response function.

$$\hat{M}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\beta}_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\beta}_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i< j}^k \hat{\beta}_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

• The process variance response function.

$$\hat{V}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\eta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\eta}_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\eta}_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i < j}^k \hat{\eta}_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

Note: original x are centered and re-scaled to $x \in [-1, 1]$.

We need to estimate, $M(\mathbf{x})$, $V(\mathbf{x})$, β and η .

The β and η can be estimated using the least squares method, etc.

4D > 4B > 4B > 4B > B 990

Refer to Park and Leeds (2016).

```
Method A: \hat{M}(x) using the sample mean and
```

 $\hat{V}(\mathbf{x})$ using the sample variance.

(BASELINE - without contamination!)

Method B: $\hat{M}(x)$: **median** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **MAD**

Method C: $\hat{M}(x)$: **median** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **IQR**

Method D: $\hat{M}(x)$: **HL (Hodges-Lehmann)** and

 $\hat{V}(\mathbf{x})$: the squared **Shamos**

Method E: $\hat{M}(x)$: **median** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **Shamos**

Method F: $\hat{M}(x)$: **HL** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **MAD**.

Method G: $\hat{M}(x)$: **HL** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **IQR**.

Data Description

We will use a case study from Park (2013) in order to evaluate the outlier-resistance properties of Methods A–G.

- A company produces multi-filament microfiber tows.
- Control factors: polymer **temperature** $(x_{1,i})$ and polymer feeding speed $(x_{2,i})$.
- The diameter (Y): the main quality issue. Its nominal **target value**: $T_0 = 50$ microns.
- The 3×3 factorial design (i = 1, 2, ..., 9). We observe the diameters of 10 fibers (j = 1, 2, ..., 10).
- The original covariates have been centered and re-scaled so that $x_{1,i}$ and $x_{2,i}$ are in [-1,1].

The original observation $(Y_{11} = 73.94)$ will be modified later.

i	X1,i	X2,i			Y _{ij}		
1	-1	-1	Y ₁₁ 73.43	76.09 76.89	73.39 77.55	79.82 77.12	76.47 74.79
2	0	-1	67.30 63.49	64.55 63.56	62.08 65.91	58.18 65.61	66.36 65.05
3	1	-1	94.03 91.45	93.67 91.19	91.80 87.71	86.34 90.33	93.24 92.71
4	-1	0	66.93 62.58	63.35 62.63	64.55 63.45	63.47 66.29	60.23 65.47
5	0	0	51.23 50.02	51.03 52.42	53.16 53.32	52.84 51.35	50.06 53.57
6	1	0	80.58 84.45	78.10 78.70	80.44 77.04	76.83 81.00	83.11 79.27

The results with the original observation $(Y_{11} = 73.94)$

$$\hat{M}(\mathbf{x}) = 51.741 + 7.750x_1 + 8.053x_2 + 20.262x_1^2 + 19.939x_2^2 - 0.038x_1x_2.$$

$$\hat{V}(\mathbf{x}) = 0.841 - 0.015x_1 - 0.068x_2 + 0.620x_1^2 + 0.421x_2^2 - 0.339x_1x_2.$$

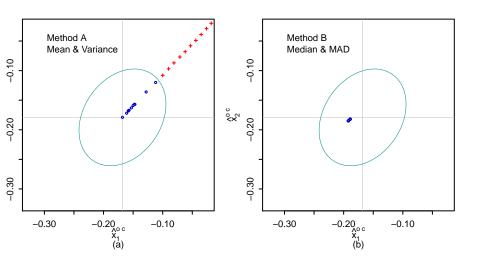
Then, by minimizing

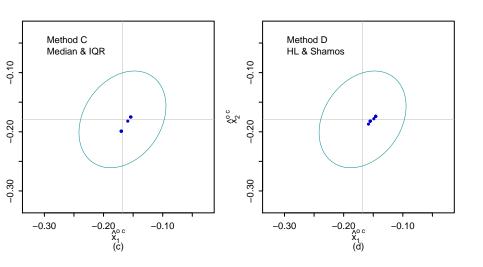
$$\{\hat{M}(\mathbf{x}) - 50\}^2 + \exp\left(\hat{V}(\mathbf{x})\right)$$

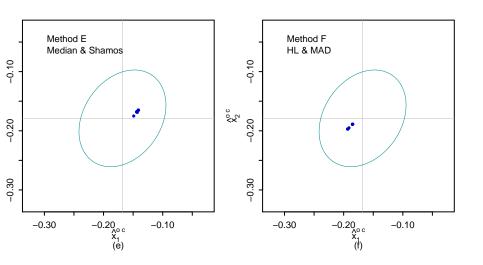
subject to $|x_1| \leq 1$ and $|x_2| \leq 1$, the optimal operating conditions were given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{oc}} = (\hat{x}_1^{\text{oc}}, \hat{x}_2^{\text{oc}}) = (-0.168, -0.179).$$

Next, we will do the above analysis again with contaminated data sets, where Y_{11} is changed to 10, 20, 30, ..., 200.







• Euclidean distance:

$$d = \sqrt{\left\{\hat{x}_{1,\text{noise}}^{\text{oc}} - (-0.168)\right\}^2 + \left\{\hat{x}_{2,\text{noise}}^{\text{oc}} - (-0.179)\right\}^2}.$$

- o It is not invariant w.r.t. scale.
- o The statistical distribution is unknown and this makes it difficult to measure the discrepancy statistically.

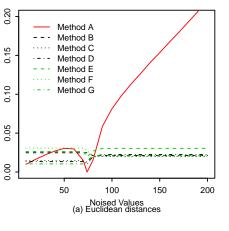
• Mahalanobis distance:

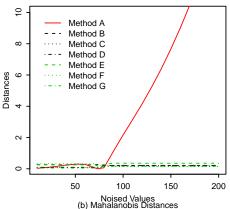
$$D_{M} = (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{noise}}^{\text{oc}} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{oc}})' \hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1} (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{noise}}^{\text{oc}} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}^{\text{oc}}), \tag{1}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{x}}^{\mathrm{oc}}=(-0.168,-0.179)$. Note the covariance matrix $\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}$ was estimated using the bootstrapping method proposed by Park (2013). Taking the inverse of $\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}$ resulted in

$$\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 498.0663 & -122.6756 \\ -122.6756 & 402.3380 \end{bmatrix}.$$

o It is computationally costly to calculate $\hat{\pmb{\Sigma}}^{-1}$





Simulation Studies

• We make the assumption that the true mean process $M(\mathbf{x})$ and variance process $V(\mathbf{x})$ are known to be the following:

$$M(\mathbf{x}) = T_0 + 5(x_1^2 + x_2^2) \text{ and } V(\mathbf{x}) = 1 + (x_1 - 1)^2 + (x_2 - 1)^2,$$

where the target $T_0 = 50$. At each design point i,

$$Y_{ij} \sim N(M(\mathbf{x}_i), V(\mathbf{x}_i)),$$

where $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{1i}, x_{2i})$ with $x_{1,i} = -1, 0, 1$ and $x_{2,i} = -1, 0, 1$, and $i = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ (3 × 3 design), and $j = 1, 2, \dots, 50$.

 Then we contaminate 5 of each of the original m = 50 uncontaminated responses (10% contamination) from the first simulation. This was done by randomly adding 100 to the originally uncontaminated value.

Theoretical optimal conditions with pure data

Denoting the MSE (squared loss) as $\phi(\mathbf{x})$, we have

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \left\{ M(\mathbf{x}) - T_0 \right\}^2 + V(\mathbf{x})$$

= 25(x₁² + x₂²)² + 1 + (x₁ - 1)² + (x₂ - 1)²

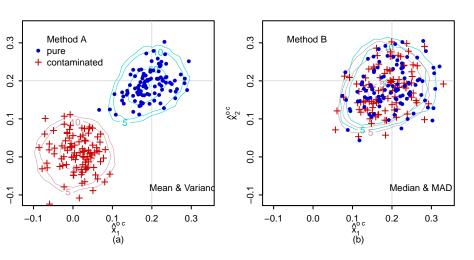
By setting $\partial \phi/\partial x_1=0$ and $\partial \phi/\partial x_2=0$, it is immediate that

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_1} = 100(x_1^2 + x_2^2)x_1 + 2(x_1 - 1) = 0 \tag{2}$$

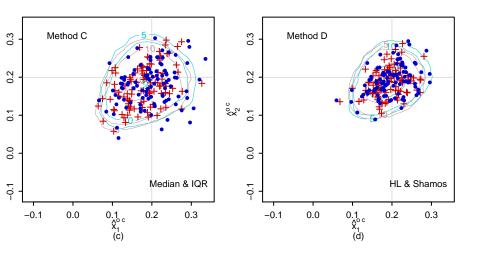
$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_2} = 100(x_1^2 + x_2^2)x_2 + 2(x_2 - 1) = 0$$
 (3)

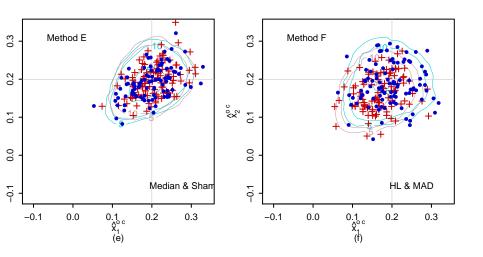
Solving the above, we have

$$(x_1^{\text{oc}}, x_2^{\text{oc}}) = (0.2, 0.2)$$



Note: We plot only 100 points from 10,000 simulation results.





A well known and useful comparison of two estimators, $\hat{\theta}_1$ and $\hat{\theta}_2$, is obtained by a direct comparison of their variances (see Section 2.2 of Lehmann (1999)) and is termed the relative efficiency of $\hat{\theta}_2$ to $\hat{\theta}_1$:

$$\operatorname{RE}(\hat{\theta}_2, \hat{\theta}_1) = \frac{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_1)}{\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\theta}_2)}.$$

However, the relative efficiency compares variances and, in our framework we are considering **two-dimensional** estimator (namely, location and scale at the same time). Therefore, the usual concept of efficiency is not directly applicable. In order to deal with this issue,

We propose the generalized variance using the determinant instead of the conventional variance. For more details, see Lee and Park (2017). Then the relative efficiency of Method 2 to Method 1 in our robust design framework is

$$RE(Method\ 2, Method\ 1) = \frac{gVar(Method\ 1)}{gVar(Method\ 2)}.$$

Table 1: Relative efficiencies of each method to Method A without contamination based on the generalized variance.

Method	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G
No contamination	100.0%	25.1%	25.2%	82.9%	59.6%	32.2%	32.2%
Contamination	1.9%	25.6%	25.6%	87.6 %	68.7%	26.5%	26.3%

Robust Design with Normal Model Departure

- Similar to Application I.
- We considered **normal model departure** instead of contamination.
- Refer to "Park, Ouyang, Byun and Leeds (2017)."

We briefly introduce their results.

Recall Dual Response Model

• The process mean response function.

$$\hat{M}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\beta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\beta}_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\beta}_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i< j}^k \hat{\beta}_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

• The process variance response function.

$$\hat{V}(\mathbf{x}) = \hat{\eta}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\eta}_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \hat{\eta}_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i < i}^k \hat{\eta}_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

Recall Simulation Studies of Application I

Assume $M(\mathbf{x})$ and $V(\mathbf{x})$ are known as

$$M(\mathbf{x}) = T_0 + 5(x_1^2 + x_2^2)$$
 and $V(\mathbf{x}) = 1 + (x_1 - 1)^2 + (x_2 - 1)^2$,

where the target $T_0 = 50$. At each design point i and $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{1i}, x_{2i})$ (j = 1, 2, ..., 50),

$$Y_{ij} \sim N(M(\mathbf{x}_i), V(\mathbf{x}_i)),$$

which is equivalent to

$$Y_{ij} = M(\mathbf{x}_i) + U_i$$
, where $U_i \sim N(0, V(\mathbf{x}_i))$.

Question: what if U_i is **not** normal?

We omit the index *i* for brevity.

- Normal: $Y = M(\mathbf{x}_i) + U_i$ where $U \sim N(0, V(\mathbf{x}))$
- Uniform: $Y = M(\mathbf{x}_i) + U_i$ where $U \sim \text{Uniform}(-\sqrt{3V(\mathbf{x})}, \sqrt{3V(\mathbf{x})})$.
- Logistic: $Y = M(\mathbf{x}_i) + \sqrt{3}/\pi \cdot U$ where U is from Logistic(0, $V(\mathbf{x})^{1/2}$).
- Laplace (or double exponential): $Y = M(\mathbf{x}) + U/\sqrt{2}$ where U is from Laplace(0, $V(\mathbf{x})^{1/2}$).
- Student t distribution: $Y = M(\mathbf{x}) + (\nu 2)/\nu \cdot V(\mathbf{x})^{1/2} \cdot U$, where U is from the t-distribution with ν degrees of freedom.

Consequently, in all the model departure scenarios above, we have the same E(Y) and $\mathrm{Var}(Y)$ as

$$E(Y) = M(\mathbf{x})$$
 and $Var(Y) = V(\mathbf{x})$.

As before, the relative efficiency of Method 2 to Method 1 is used

RE(Method 2, Method 1) =
$$\frac{\text{gVar}(\text{Method 1})}{\text{gVar}(\text{Method 2})}$$
.

It should be noted that the generalized variance $({\rm gVar})$ is investigated further in Lee and Park (2017) where the generalized mean square error is defined. Using this approach, we can also define the **generalized bias**.

We used the same methods as we did in Application I. We recall

```
Method A: \hat{M}(x) using the sample mean and \hat{V}(x) using the sample variance. (BASELINE – without contamination!)
```

Method B: $\hat{M}(x)$: **median** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **MAD**

Method C: $\hat{M}(x)$: **median** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **IQR**

Method D: $\hat{M}(x)$: HL (Hodges-Lehmann) and

 $\hat{V}(\mathbf{x})$: the squared **Shamos**

Method E: $\hat{M}(x)$: **median** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **Shamos**

Method F: $\hat{M}(x)$: **HL** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **MAD**.

Method G: $\hat{M}(x)$: **HL** and $\hat{V}(x)$: the squared **IQR**.

Relative efficiencies (percent) of each method under consideration

Table 2: Relative efficiencies (percent) of each method under consideration to Method A based on the generalized variance. The kurtosis of each distribution is shown in the last column.

(The kurtosis vs. model departure can be an interesting future topic).

Underlying	Method							Kurtosis
distribution	A	В	С	D	Е	F	G	$(\kappa-3)$
Normal	100.0	24.1	23.9	82.5	59.1	30.9	30.5	0
Uniform	100.0	7.4	7.6	80.4	26.2	14.5	14.7	-1.2
Logistic	100.0	34.9	34.7	101.4	83.3	40.2	39.9	1.2
Laplace	100.0	37.3	37.4	98.5	103.7	36.0	36.2	3
t (df=5)	100.0	57.8	57.2	151.2	131.7	63.9	63.2	6
t (df=4)	100.0	83.2	83.0	200.9	180.4	90.3	90.1	∞
t (df=3)	100.0	164.5	164.3	333.8	323.3	167.5	168.0	∞

We will shows the above results using the bar-plot.

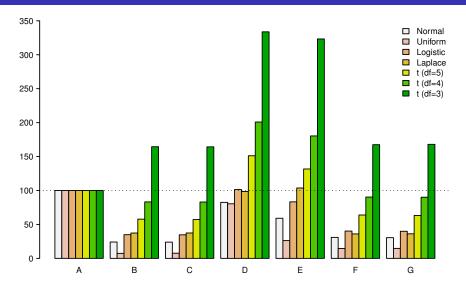


Figure 1: Relative efficiencies based on Table 35.

Basic Idea

Recall

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\bar{S} / \sqrt{n}} \tag{4}$$

Thus, one can use the median (or Hodges-Lehmann) instead of $|\bar{X}|$ and the MAD (or Shamos) instead of $|\bar{S}|$ in the above.

- Is it enough?
- Then is it distributed as N(0,1) or t-distribution?

Theorem 1 (Pivot with median and MAD)

Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be a random sample from a location-scale family with location μ and scale σ . Then the statistic below is a **pivotal** quantity:

$$\frac{ \underset{1 \le i \le n}{\operatorname{median}} X_i - \mu}{ \underset{1 \le i \le n}{\operatorname{MAD}} X_i / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{ \underset{1 \le i \le n}{\operatorname{median}} X_i - \mu}{ \underset{1 \le i \le n}{\operatorname{median}} |X_i - \underset{1 \le i \le n}{\operatorname{median}} X_i | / \sqrt{n}}$$
 (5)

Proof.

See Park (2018) and Jeong et al. (2018).



Theorem 2 (Asymptotic Normality with median and MAD)

Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n be a random sample from a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then we have

$$\sqrt{\frac{2n}{\pi}}\Phi^{-1}\Big(\frac{3}{4}\Big)\cdot \frac{ \displaystyle \mathop{\mathrm{median}}_{1\leq i\leq n} X_i - \mu}{ \displaystyle \mathop{\mathrm{median}}_{1\leq i\leq n} \left|X_i - \mathop{\mathrm{median}}_{1\leq i\leq n} X_i\right|} \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} \textit{N}(0,1).$$

Proof.

See Park (2018) and Jeong et al. (2018).



Summary: good results (with median and MAD)

- A very nice pivotal result which guarantees that only one distribution is needed for a given sample size.
- A decent asymptotic result which guarantees the asymptotic normality.

$$T_{A} = \sqrt{\frac{2n}{\pi}} \Phi^{-1} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right) \cdot \frac{ \underset{1 \leq i \leq n}{\operatorname{median}} X_{i} - \mu}{ \underset{1 \leq i \leq n}{\operatorname{median}} \left| X_{i} - \underset{1 \leq i \leq n}{\operatorname{median}} X_{i} \right|} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, 1).$$

• But, speed of convergence is slow as will be shown.

Some questions

- The above is an asymptotic result. Thus, it goes to N(0,1) as $n \to \infty$. In practice, then, how can we use the above result?
- We know that $T_A \xrightarrow{d} N(0,1)$. How quickly does it converge?
- Can we use other distribution as an approximation?

Application III (Robustified *t*-test with median and MAD)

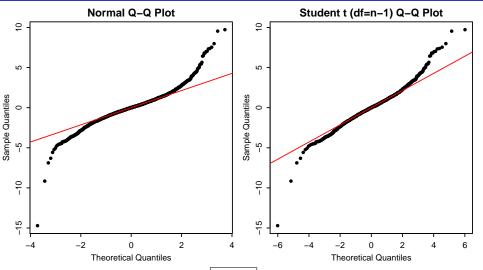


Figure 2: A random sample of size n=10 and iteration 5,000. (a) $T_{\rm mM}$ versus N(0,1) quantiles. (b) $T_{\rm mM}$ versus Student t (df=9) quantiles.

Application III (Robustified *t*-test with median and MAD)

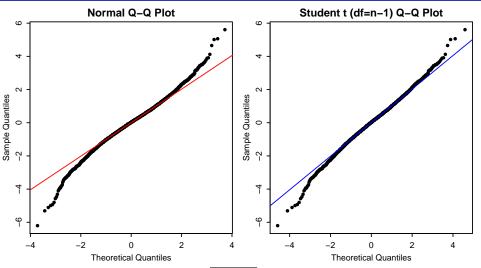


Figure 3: A random sample of size n=20 and iteration 5,000. (a) $T_{\rm mM}$ versus N(0,1) quantiles. (b) $T_{\rm mM}$ versus Student t (df=19) quantiles.

Application III (Robustified *t*-test with median and MAD)

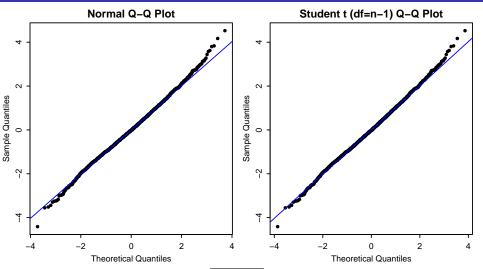


Figure 4: A random sample of size n = 100 and iteration 5,000. (a) $T_{\rm HS}$ versus N(0,1) quantiles. (b) $T_{\rm HS}$ versus Student t (df=99) quantiles.

Application III (Hodges-Lehmann and Shamos)

Theorem 3 (Pivot with Hodges-Lehmann and Shamos)

Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be a random sample from a location-scale family with location μ and scale σ . Then the statistic below is a **pivotal** quantity:

$$\frac{\underset{i \le j}{\operatorname{median}} \left(\frac{X_i + X_j}{2}\right) - \mu}{\underset{i \le j}{\operatorname{median}} \left(|X_i - X_j|\right) / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{\hat{\mu}_H - \mu}{\hat{\sigma}_S / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\mu}_H - \mu)}{\hat{\sigma}_S},\tag{6}$$

where $\hat{\mu}_H$ and $\hat{\sigma}_S$ are the Hodges-Lehmann and Shamos estimators.

Proof.

See Park (2018) and Jeong et al. (2018).



Theorem 4 (Asymptotic Normality with HL and Shamos)

Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be a random sample from a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then the following converges to N(0, 1).

$$T_B = \sqrt{\frac{6n}{\pi}} \Phi^{-1}(3/4) \frac{ \underset{i \le j}{\operatorname{median}} \left(\frac{X_i + X_j}{2} \right) - \mu}{ \underset{i \le j}{\operatorname{median}} \left(|X_i - X_j| \right)}$$
$$= \sqrt{\frac{6}{\pi}} \Phi^{-1}(3/4) \frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\mu}_H - \mu)}{\hat{\sigma}_S}.$$

Proof.

See Park (2018) and Jeong et al. (2018).



Summary: good results (with Hodges-Lehmann and Shamos)

- A very nice pivotal result which guarantees that only one distribution is needed for a given sample size.
- A very nice asymptotic result which guarantees the asymptotic normality.

$$T_B = \sqrt{\frac{6}{\pi}} \Phi^{-1}(3/4) \frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\mu}_H - \mu)}{\hat{\sigma}_S} \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N(0, 1).$$

Some questions

- The above is an asymptotic result. Thus, it goes to N(0,1) as $n \to \infty$. In practice, then, how can we use the above result?
- We know that $T_B \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} N(0,1)$. How quickly does it converge?
- Can we use other distribution as an approximation?

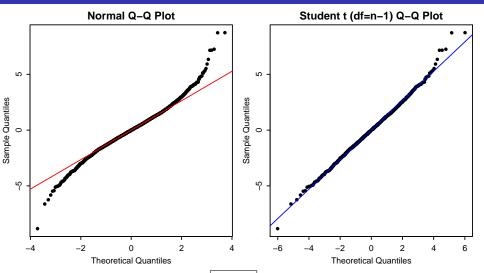


Figure 5: A random sample of size n=10 and iteration 5,000. (a) $T_{\rm HS}$ versus N(0,1) quantiles. (b) $T_{\rm HS}$ versus Student t (df=9) quantiles.

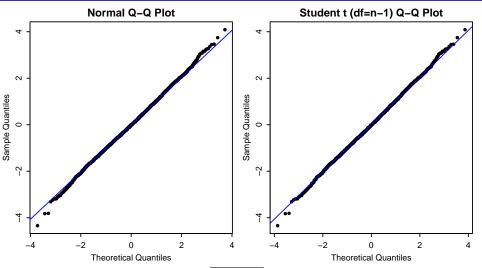


Figure 6: A random sample of size n = 100 and iteration 5,000. (a) $T_{\rm HS}$ versus N(0,1) quantiles. (b) $T_{\rm HS}$ versus Student t (df=99) quantiles.

Real Data Example: Darwin's Zea Mays (Corns)

Darwin's Data

- Darwin's Zea Mays (Darwin, 1876) experiment comparing the growth of pairs of corn (especially zea may) seedings, one produced by self-fertilization and the other produced by cross-fertilization.
- He selected one cross-fertilized plant one self-fertilized plant, grew them in the same pot, and measured their heights.
- This data set has been frequently used by many authors including Fisher (1936), Andrews and Herzberg (1985) among others. See also Section 4.5 of Hogg et al. (2013) and Odiase and Ogbonmwan (2007).
- Let x_i and y_i be the heights of the cross- and self-fertilized plants, respectively, and $d_i = x_i y_i$
- We want to test

 $H_0: \mu_d = 0$ versus $H_1: \mu_d \neq 0$.

Real Data Example: Darwin's Zea Mays (Corns)

Robustified t-test (rt.test) R Package (empirical distribution) using Park and Wang (2018a).

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https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/rt.test/
Note that n=15 << 100. (Inappropriate to use asymptotics).
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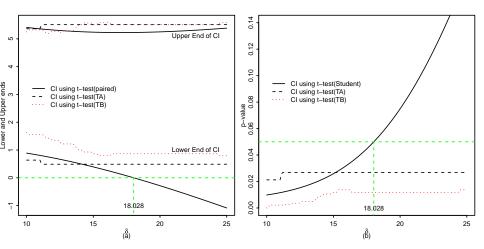
R Exercise with the Darwin's Data

• See Talk-2-Example.r on https://github.com/AppliedStat/seminar/tree/master/2018/R

Real Data Example: Darwin's Zea Mays (Corns)

Robustness property of the conventional *t*-test

- We changed the last value (18) with δ which ranges from 10 to 25 in a grid-like fashion.
- Actually, when the last value (18) is replaced with 18.028, the decision is reversed. That is, the null H_0 becomes accepted from rejection. The difference is only 0.028
- We also obtained the confidence intervals which say the same story.
 That is, zero was not included in the interval with the original
 observation. However, with 0.028 increment, the CI starts to include
 zero.
- We also calculate the p-values. With 0.028 increment, the p-value starts to increase to 0.05 (5%) or more.
- In what follows, we plot the CIs and p-values of the conventional t-test and proposed robustified t-test.



See Talk-2-Example.r on https://github.com/AppliedStat/seminar/tree/master/2018/R for the R code.

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