#### Lecture 14

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#### Lecture 14

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- Review about logs
- 2 Introduce the geometric mean
- 3 Interpretations of the geometric mean
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- Recall that  $log_B(x)$  is the number y so that  $B^y = x$
- Note that you can not take the log of a negative number;  $\log_B(1)$  is always 0 and  $\log_B(0)$  is  $-\infty$
- When the base is B = e we write  $log_e$  as just log or ln
- Other useful bases are 10 (orders of magnitude) or 2
- Recall that  $\log(ab) = \log(a) + \log(b)$ ,  $\log(a^b) = b \log(a)$ ,  $\log(a/b) = \log(a) \log(b)$  (log turns multiplication into addition, division into subtraction, powers into multiplication)

#### Logs

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### Some reasons for "logging" data

- To correct for right skewness
- When considering ratios
- In settings where errors are feasibly multiplicative, such as when dealing with concentrations or rates
- To consider orders of magnitude (using log base 10); for example when considering astronomical distances
- Counts are often logged (though note the problem with zero counts)

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### The geometric mean

• The (sample) geometric mean of a data set  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is

$$\left(\prod_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^{1/n}$$

• Note that (provided that the  $X_i$  are positive) the log of the geometric mean is

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\log(X_{i}) = \left(0^{2}\left(1\right)X_{1}\right)^{n}$$

- As the log of the geometric mean is an average, the LLN and clt apply (under what assumptions?)
- The geometric mean is always less than or equal to the sample (arithmetic) mean

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### The geometric mean

- The geometric mean is often used when the X<sub>i</sub> are all multiplicative
- Suppose that in a population of interest, the prevalence of a disease rose 2% one year, then fell 1% the next, then rose 2%, then rose 1%; since these factors act multiplicatively it makes sense to consider the geometric mean

$$(1.02 \times .99 \times 1.02 \times 1.01)^{1/4} = 1.01$$

for a 1% geometric mean increase in disease prevalence

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- Notice that multiplying the initial prevalence by 1.01<sup>4</sup> is the same as multiplying by the original four numbers in sequence
- Hence 1.01 is constant factor by which you would need to multiply the initial prevalence each year to achieve the same overall increase in prevalence over a four year period
- The arithmetic mean, in contrast, is the constant factor by which your would need to add each year to achieve the same total increase (1.02 + .99 + 1.02 + 1.01)
- In this case the product and hence the geometric mean make more sense than the arithmetic mean

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 The question corner (google) at the University of Toronto's web site (where I got much of this) has a fun interpretation of the geometric mean

- If a and b are the lengths of the sides of a rectangle then
  - The arithmetic mean (a+b)/2 is the length of the sides of the square that has the same perimeter
  - The geometric mean  $(ab)^{1/2}$  is the length of the sides of the square that has the same area
- So if you're interested in perimeters (adding) use the arithmetic mean; if you're interested in areas (multiplying) use the geometric mean

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## Asymptotics

- Note, by the LLN the log of the geometric mean converges to  $\mu = E[\log(X)]$
- Therefore the geometric mean converges to  $\exp\{E[\log(X)]\}=e^{\mu}$ , which is *not* the population mean on the natural scale; we call this the population geometric mean (but no one else seems to)
- To reiterate

$$\exp\{E[\log(x)]\} \neq E[\exp\{\log(X)\}] = E[X]$$

• Note if the distribution of log(X) is symmetric then

$$.5 = P(\log X \le \mu) = P(X \le e^{\mu})$$

• Therefore, for log-symmetric distributions the geometric mean is estimating the median

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# Using the CLT

- If you use the CLT to create a confidence interval for the log measurements, your interval is estimating  $\mu$ , the expected value of the log measurements
- If you exponentiate the endpoints of the interval, you are estimating  $e^{\mu}$ , the population geometric mean
- Recall,  $e^{\mu}$  is the population median when the distribution of the logged data is symmetric
- This is especially useful for paired data when their ratio, rather than their difference, is of interest

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## Comparisons

 $X^{\downarrow}$   $\log X^{\downarrow}$   $\log Y^{\downarrow} - \log X^{\uparrow}$   $Y^{\downarrow}$   $\log Y^{\downarrow} = \log \frac{Y^{\downarrow}}{X^{\downarrow}}$ 

- Consider when you have two independent groups, logging the individual data points and creating a confidence interval for the difference in the log means
- Prove to yourself that exponentiating the endpoints of this interval is then an interval for the *ratio* of the population geometric means,  $\frac{e^{\mu_1}}{a^{\mu_2}}$

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- A random variable is log-normally distributed if its log is a normally distributed random variable
- "I am log-normal" means "take logs of me and then I'll then be normal"
- Note log-normal random variables are not logs of normal random variables!!!!!! (You can't even take the log of a normal random variable)
- Formally, X is lognormal $(\mu, \sigma^2)$  if  $\log(X) \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- If  $Y \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  then  $X = e^Y$  is log-normal

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### The log-normal distribution

• The log-normal density is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\times\frac{\exp[-\{\log(x)-\mu\}^2/(2\sigma^2)]}{x} \ \text{for} \ 0\leq x\leq \infty$$

- Its mean is  $e^{\mu+(\sigma^2/2)}$  and variance is  $e^{2\mu+\sigma^2}(e^{\sigma^2}-1)$
- Its median is  $e^{\mu}$

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- Notice that if we assume that  $X_1,\ldots,X_n$  are  $\log \operatorname{normal}(\mu,\sigma^2)$  then  $Y_1 = \log X_1,\ldots,Y_n = \log X_n$  are normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$
- Creating a Gosset's t confidence interval on using the Y<sub>i</sub> is a confidence interval for μ the log of the median of the X<sub>i</sub>
- Exponentiate the endpoints of the interval to obtain a confidence interval for  $e^{\mu}$ , the median on the original scale
- Assuming log-normality, exponentiating t confidence intervals for the difference in two log means again estimates ratios of geometric means

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### Example: interpret these results

Gray matter volumes for 342 older subjects (over 60) and 287 younger subjects were compared.

- The mean log gray matter volumes was  $6.35 \log(\mathrm{cm}^3)$  (older) and  $6.40 \log(\mathrm{cm}^3)$  (younger). Exponentiating these numbers leads to  $570.90 \mathrm{~cm}^3$  and  $599.40 \mathrm{~cm}^3$
- The SDs were 0.11 log(cm $^3$ ) and 0.11 log(cm $^3$ )
- Cls
  - Younger: log scale [6.38, 6.41], exponentiated [592.03, 606.86]
  - Older: log scale [6.34, 6.36], exponentiated [564.36, 577.50]
- Two sample mean comparison
  - Log scale [0.03, 0.07]
  - Exponentiated [1.03, 1.07]