# Chapter 4

# Statistics by Simulation (solutions to exercises)

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# Import Python packages

```
# Import all needed python packages
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import pandas as pd
import scipy.stats as stats
import statsmodels.formula.api as smf
import statsmodels.api as sm
```

# 4.1 Reliability: System lifetime (simulation as a computation tool)

#### Exercise 4.1 Reliability: System lifetime (simulation as a computation tool)

A system consists of three components A, B and C serially connected, such that A is positioned before B, which is again positioned before C. The system will be functioning only so long as A, B and C are all functioning. The lifetime in months of the three components are assumed to follow exponential distributions with means: 2 months, 3 months and 5 months, respectively (hence there are three random variables,  $X_A$ ,  $X_B$  and  $X_C$  with exponential distributions with  $\lambda_A = 1/2$ ,  $\lambda_B = 1/3$  and  $\lambda_C = 1/5$  resp.). A little Python-help: You will probably need (or at least it would help) to put three variables together to make e.g. a  $k \times 3$ -matrix – this can be done by the cbind function:

x = np.column\_stack((xA,xB,xC))

And just as an example, in Python we can easily compute e.g. the mean of the three values for each of all the *k* rows of this matrix by using the "axis" argument in the np.mean function. This argument specifies the axis along which the means are computed, so for axis=1, we take the mean for the three columns in the x. Many functions in Python have this argument, so it is a good idea to get familiar with it. Example for mean:

simmeans = np.mean(x, axis=1)

a) Generate, by simulation, a large number (at least 1000 - go for 10000 or 100000 if your computer is up for it) of system lifetimes (hint: consider how the random variable Y = System lifetime is a function of the three *X*-variables: is it the sum, the mean, the median, the minimum, the maximum, the range or something even different?).

#### **Solution**

Note that the lifetime can be seen as the minimal value of the three random component lifetimes:

"Lifetime" =  $\min(X_A, X_B, X_C)$ .

First, note that the generated solution below has been generated with this seed in order to get the same result each time. Note, that when a simulation analysis is carried out, this number should only be set once and set randomly (potentially it is possible to find a seed (see Remark 2.12) that gives a rare simulation result and thus showing a "wrong" result, however if k is high enough this is very hard). The solution below has been generated with the following seed

## You might want to set the seed to achieve a particular result
np.random.seed(82719)

The following Python-code generates 10.000 simulated system lifetimes:

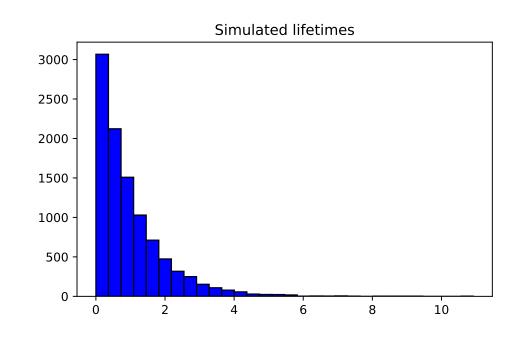
```
# Number of simulations
k = 10000
# Generating k component A lifetimes
xA = np.random.exponential(scale=2, size=k)
# Checking the mean of these
print(np.mean(xA))
2.0035078916253752
# Generating k component B lifetimes
xB = np.random.exponential(scale=3, size=k)
# Checking the mean of these
print(np.mean(xB))
3.0264519724715777
# Generating k component C lifetimes
xC = np.random.exponential(scale=5, size=k)
# Checking the mean of these
print(np.mean(xC))
5.047803906911606
# Putting these three sets of k lifetimes together
# into a single k-by-3 matrix
x = np.column_stack((xA, xB, xC))
# Finding the minimum value of the three components in each of the k
situations
```

```
lifetimes = np.min(x, axis=1)
```

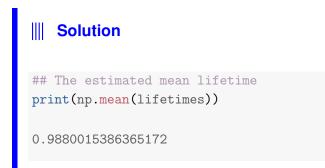
#### **Solution**

Let us have a look at these simulated lifetimes:

```
## Histogram of the simulated lifetimes
plt.hist(lifetimes, bins=30, color='blue', edgecolor='black')
plt.title('Simulated lifetimes')
plt.show()
```



b) Estimate the mean system lifetime.



c) Estimate the standard deviation of system lifetimes.

#### **Solution**

```
## The estimated std. dev. of the lifetime
print(np.std(lifetimes,ddof=1))
```

```
0.9959225338611547
```

d) Estimate the probability that the system fails within 1 month.

#### **Solution**

We need to count how often the lifetimes are smaller than or equal to 1 month – this can in Python be achieved by use of a logical operator:

```
## The fraction of times the simulated lifetime was below or equal 1
print(np.mean(lifetimes <= 1))
0.6391
# or
print(np.sum(lifetimes <= 1)/k)
0.6391</pre>
```

In Python FALSE is a 0 and a TRUE is a 1 - this is why we can simply apply the mean function directly on the vector of TRUES and FALSES like this.

e) Estimate the median system lifetime

# Solution

```
## The estimated median lifetime
print(np.median(lifetimes))
```

```
0.6878542614451192
```

f) Estimate the 10th percentile of system lifetimes

```
Solution
## The estimated 10% quantile
print(np.quantile(lifetimes, 0.1))
0.10367217182567331
```

g) What seems to be the distribution of system lifetimes? (histogram etc)

#### **Solution**

We already made the histogram above. It appears that the minimum of the three exponential variables also has a distribution that looks like an exponential. In fact, there is a theoretical result (beoynd the syllabus of this course) that states that the distribution of the minimum of these three exponential distributions is again an exponential distribution but now with

$$\lambda_{min} = \lambda_A + \lambda_B + \lambda_C = 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/5 = 31/30.$$

Note how this matches nicely with the found mean above!

#### 4.2 Basic bootstrap CI

#### Exercise 4.2 Basic bootstrap CI

(Can be handled without using R) The following measurements were given for the cylindrical compressive strength (in MPa) for 11 prestressed concrete beams:

38.43, 38.43, 38.39, 38.83, 38.45, 38.35, 38.43, 38.31, 38.32, 38.48, 38.50.

1000 bootstrap samples (each sample hence consisting of 11 measurements) were generated from these data, and the 1000 bootstrap means were arranged on order. Refer to the smallest as  $\bar{x}^*_{(1)}$ , the second smallest as  $\bar{x}^*_{(2)}$  and so on, with the largest being  $\bar{x}^*_{(1000)}$ . Assume that

$$\bar{x}^*_{(25)} = 38.3818,$$
  
 $\bar{x}^*_{(26)} = 38.3818,$   
 $\bar{x}^*_{(50)} = 38.3909,$   
 $\bar{x}^*_{(51)} = 38.3918,$   
 $\bar{x}^*_{(950)} = 38.5218,$   
 $\bar{x}^*_{(951)} = 38.5236,$   
 $\bar{x}^*_{(975)} = 38.5382,$   
 $\bar{x}^*_{(976)} = 38.5391.$ 

a) Compute a 95% bootstrap confidence interval for the mean compressive strength.

#### **Solution**

Looking at Method box 4.10, we see that we need to find the 2.5%, and 97.5% quantiles of the 1000 bootstrap samples. According to the rule for finding the 2.5% quantile this should be the average of the 25th and the 26th observation:

$$q_{0.025} = \frac{\bar{x}_{(25)}^* + \bar{x}_{(26)}^*}{2} = 38.3818,$$

and similarly

$$q_{0.975} = rac{ar{x}^*_{(975)} + ar{x}^*_{(976)}}{2} = rac{38.5382 + 38.5391}{2} = 38.5387$$

and hence the 95% bootstrap confidence band is:

[38.3818; 38.5387].

b) Compute a 90% bootstrap confidence interval for the mean compressive strength.

#### **Solution**

As above we get:

$$q_{0.05} = \frac{\bar{x}_{(50)}^* + \bar{x}_{(51)}^*}{2} = \frac{38.3909 + 38.3919}{2} = 38.3914,$$

and similarly:

$$q_{0.95} = \frac{\bar{x}_{(950)}^* + \bar{x}_{(951)}^*}{2} = \frac{38.5218 + 38.5236}{2} = 38.5227$$

and hence the 90% bootstrap confidence band is:

[38.3914; 38.5227].

## 4.3 Various bootstrap CIs

#### Exercise 4.3 Various bootstrap Cls

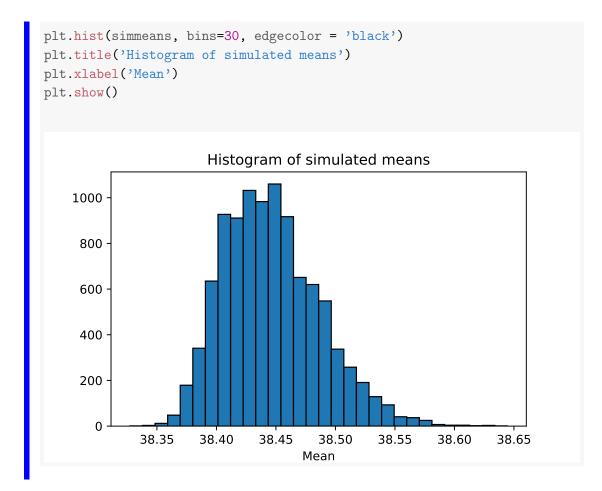
Consider the data from the exercise above. These data are entered into Python as:

Now generate k = 1000 bootstrap samples and compute the 1000 means (go higher if your computer is fine with it)

a) What are the 2.5%, and 97.5% quantiles (so what is the 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  without assuming any distribution)?

#### **Solution**

The solution below has been generated with the following seed (see Remark 2.12)



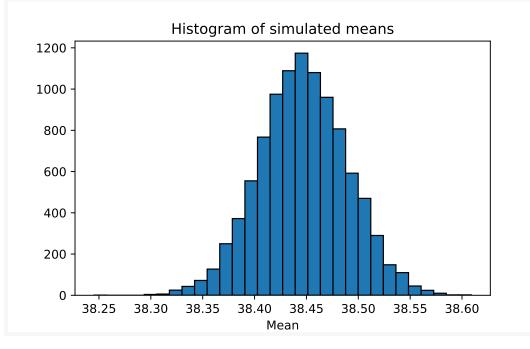
b) Find the 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  by the parametric bootstrap assuming the normal distribution for the observations. Compare with the classical analytic approach based on the *t*-distribution from Chapter 2.

First we do the parametric bootstrap:

```
k = 10000
n = len(x)
simsamples = np.random.normal(np.mean(x), np.std(x,ddof=1), (n, k))
simmeans = np.mean(simsamples, axis=0)
print(np.quantile(simmeans, [0.025, 0.975]))
```

[38.363 38.530]

```
# Histogram
plt.hist(simmeans, bins=30, edgecolor = 'black')
plt.title('Histogram of simulated means')
plt.xlabel('Mean')
plt.show()
```



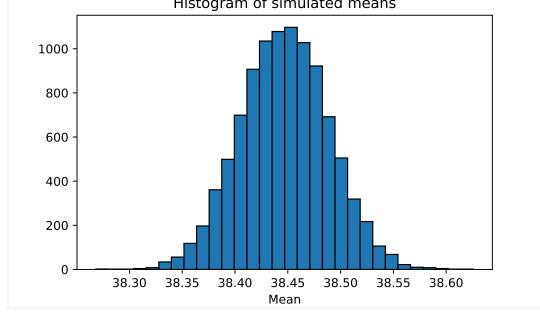
And the classic *t*-based approach (without simulation):

```
t_stat,p_val = stats.ttest_1samp(x, 38.5)
print(t_stat)
-1.239610578766898
print(p_val)
0.24342150717016434
# interval directly
(CI_low,CI_high) = stats.t.interval(0.95, len(x)-1, loc=np.mean(x),
scale=stats.sem(x))
print(CI_low,CI_high)
38.35249805615088 38.54204739839457
```

c) Find the 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  by the parametric bootstrap assuming the log-normal distribution for the observations. (Help: To use the np.random.lognormal function to simulate the log-normal distribution, we face the challenge that we need to specify the mean and standard deviation on the log-scale and not on the raw scale, so compute mean and standard deviation for log-transformed data for this Python-function)

We do the parametric bootstrap using the log-normal distribution.

```
k = 10000
n = len(x)
simsamples = np.random.lognormal(np.mean(np.log(x)),
np.std(np.log(x),ddof=1), (n, k))
simmeans = np.mean(simsamples, axis=0)
print(np.quantile(simmeans, [0.025, 0.975]))
[38.365 38.529]
# Histogram
plt.hist(simmeans, bins=30, edgecolor = 'black')
plt.title('Histogram of simulated means')
plt.xlabel('Mean')
plt.show()
Histogram of simulated means
```



d) Find the 95% confidence interval for the lower quartile  $Q_1$  by the parametric bootstrap assuming the normal distribution for the observations.

We do the parametric bootstrap of lower quartile  $Q_1$  using the normal distribution by first making a Q1-function in Python, and then the usual stuff:

```
k = 10000
n = len(x)
simsamples = np.random.normal(np.mean(x),np.std(x,ddof=1), (n, k))
simQ1s = np.quantile(simsamples, 0.25, axis=0)
print(np.quantile(simQ1s, [0.025, 0.975]))
[38.258 38.466]
# Histogram
plt.hist(simQ1s, bins=30, edgecolor = 'black')
plt.title('Histogram of simulated Q1s')
plt.xlabel('Q1')
plt.show()
                        Histogram of simulated Q1s
    1200
    1000
    800
    600
    400
    200
       0
                              38.3
                                                     38.5
       38.1
                   38.2
                                          38.4
                                     Q1
```

e) Find the 95% confidence interval for the lower quartile  $Q_1$  by the nonparametric bootstrap (so without any distributional assumptions)

We simply substitute the sampling line with the non-parametric version:

```
k = 10000
n = len(x)
simsamples = np.random.choice(x, (n, k), replace=True)
simQ1s = np.quantile(simsamples, 0.25, axis=0)
print(np.quantile(simQ1s, [0.025, 0.975]))
```

[38.315 38.430]

## 4.4 Two-sample TV data

#### Exercise 4.4 Two-sample TV data

A TV producer had 20 consumers evaluate the quality of two different TV flat screens - 10 consumers for each screen. A scale from 1 (worst) up to 5 (best) were used and the following results were obtained:

TV screen 1	TV screen 2
1	3
2	4
1	2
3	4
2	2
1	3
2	2
3	4
1	3
1	2

a) Compare the two means without assuming any distribution for the two samples (non-parametric bootstrap confidence interval and relevant hypothesis test interpretation).

The solution below has been generated with the following seed (see Remark 2.12)

```
## You might want to set the seed to achieve a particular result
np.random.seed(98273)
```

```
x1 = np.array([1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 1, 2, 3, 1, 1])
x2 = np.array([3, 4, 2, 4, 2, 3, 2, 4, 3, 2])
## Number of simulated (bootstrapped) samples
k = 10000
n = len(x1) # same as len(x2)
## Simulated samples of TV1 and TV2 groups
simx1samples = np.random.choice(x1, (n, k), replace=True)
simx2samples = np.random.choice(x2, (n, k), replace=True)
simmeandifs = np.mean(simx1samples, axis=0) - np.mean(simx2samples,
axis=0)
# Confidence interval
ci = np.quantile(simmeandifs, [0.025, 0.975])
print(ci)
[-1.900 -0.500]
```

We reject the null hypothesis of  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ , since zero is not included in the CI of the differences.

b) Compare the two means assuming normal distributions for the two samples - without using simulations (or rather: assuming/hoping that the sample sizes are large enough to make the results approximately valid).

```
Solution
t_stat, p_val = stats.ttest_ind(x1, x2)
print(t_stat)
-3.157408869505305
print(p_val)
0.005449057981469947
```

We reject the null hypothesis of  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ .

c) Compare the two means assuming normal distributions for the two samples - simulation based (parametric bootstrap confidence interval and relevant hypothesis test interpretation – in spite of the obviously wrong assumption).

#### **Solution**

```
simx1samples = np.random.normal(np.mean(x1), np.std(x1,ddof=1), (n, k))
simx2samples = np.random.normal(np.mean(x2), np.std(x2,ddof=1), (n, k))
simmeandifs = np.mean(simx1samples, axis=0) - np.mean(simx2samples,
axis=0)
# Confidence interval
print(np.quantile(simmeandifs, [0.025, 0.975]))
[-1.948 -0.442]
```

We reject the null hypothesis of  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ .

# 4.5 Non-linear error propagation

#### Exercise 4.5 Non-linear error propagation

The pressure *P*, and the volume *V* of one mole of an ideal gas are related by the equation PV = 8.31T, when *P* is measured in kilopascals, *T* is measured in kelvins, and *V* is measured in liters.

a) Assume that *P* is measured to be 240.48 kPa and *V* to be 9.987 L with known measurement errors (given as standard deviations): 0.03 kPa and 0.002 L. Estimate *T* and find the uncertainty in the estimate.

#### **Solution**

This is a almost direct copy of the rectangle example (A = XY) (Example 4.5), since T = PV/8.31, so since: To use the approximate error propagation rule, we must differentiate the function f(x, y) = xy/8.31 with respect to both x and y:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = y/8.31 \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x/8.31.$$

We get the result:  $\hat{T} = 240.48 \cdot 9.987/8.31 = 289.0101$ , and the uncertainty is:

$$\sigma_{\uparrow} = \sqrt{9.987^2 \times 0.03^2 + 240.48^2 \times 0.002^2 / 8.31} = 0.0682$$

b) Assume that *P* is measured to be 240.48kPa and *T* to be 289.12K with known measurement errors (given as standard deviations): 0.03kPa and 0.02K. Estimate *V* and find the uncertainty in the estimate.

$$V = f(P, T) = 8.31T/P.$$

So:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial T} = 8.31/P \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial P} = -8.31\frac{T}{P^2},$$

and hence:

$$\hat{V} = 8.31 \cdot 289.12/240.48 = 9.9908.$$

and

$$\sigma_{\hat{V}} = 8.31\sqrt{1/240.48^2 \times 0.02^2 + 289.12^2/240.48^4 \times 0.03^2} = 0.00143.$$

c) Assume that *V* is measured to be 9.987 L and *T* to be 289.12 K with known measurement errors (given as standard deviations): 0.002 L and 0.02 K. Estimate *P* and find the uncertainty in the estimate.

#### **Solution**

Since

$$P = f(V,T) = 8.31T/V,$$

we can simply change the roles of *P* and *V* in the above and find similarly

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial T} = 8.31/V \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial V} = -8.31 \frac{T}{V^2},$$

and hence

$$\hat{P} = 8.31 \cdot 289.12/9.987 = 240.5715,$$

and

$$\sigma_{\hat{P}} = 8.31 \sqrt{1/9.987^2 \times 0.02^2 + 289.12^2/9.987^4 \times 0.002^2} = 0.0510.$$

d) Try to answer one or more of these questions by simulation (assume that the errors are normally distributed).

#### Solution

Let's look at 3. The following Python-code will do the job:

The solution below has been generated with the following seed (see Remark 2.12)

```
## You might want to set the seed to achieve a particular result
np.random.seed(28973)
k = 10000
Vs = np.random.normal(loc=9.987, scale=0.002,size=k)
Ts = np.random.normal(loc=289.12,scale=0.02, size=k)
Ps = 8.31*Ts/Vs
print(np.std(Ps, ddof=1))
0.05119900268933971
```

Rerunning this a few times will show that 0.051 is the proper result. This additional re-running gives a feeling of the error in the simulation - rather small here. Alternatively increase k.

Similarly 2. can be handled as:

```
k = 10000
Ps = np.random.normal(240.28, 0.03, k)
Ts = np.random.normal(loc=289.12,scale=0.02, size=k)
Vs = 8.31*Ts/Ps
print(np.std(Vs, ddof=1))
0.0014176700426727481
```

Providing again basically the same answer as above: 0.0014.