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Lecture 14

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- 1 Review about logs
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Logs

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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 In
- 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)

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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

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n \log(X_i)$$

- 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 is often used when the X_i 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 1.01⁴ 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)

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• In this case the product and hence the geometric mean make more sense than the arithmetic mean

Nifty fact

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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 µ = E[log(X)]
- Therefore the geometric mean converges to exp{E[log(X)]} = e^µ, 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

Using the CLT

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- If you use the CLT to create a confidence interval for the log measurements, your interval is estimating μ, the expected value of the log measurements
- If you exponentiate the endpoints of the interval, you are estimating e^μ, the population geometric mean
- Recall, e^μ 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

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- 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, $\frac{e^{\mu_1}}{e^{\mu_2}}$

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The log-normal distribution

- 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 (μ, σ^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 density is

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

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

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The log-normal distribution

- Notice that if we assume that X₁,..., X_n are log-normal(μ, σ²) then Y₁ = log X₁,..., Y_n = log X_n are normally distributed with mean μ and variance σ²
- Creating a Gosset's t confidence interval on using the Y_i is a confidence interval for μ the log of the median of the X_i
- Exponentiate the endpoints of the interval to obtain a confidence interval for e^{μ} , 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 $6.35~log(\rm cm^3)$ (older) and $6.40~log(\rm cm^3)$ (younger). Exponentiating these numbers leads to 570.90 $\rm cm^3$ and 599.40 $\rm cm^3$
- The SDs were 0.11 log($\rm cm^3)$ and 0.11 log($\rm cm^3)$
- Cls
 - Younger: log scale [6.38, 6.41], exponentiated -[592.03, 606.86]

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- 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]