

몬테카를로 방사선해석 (Monte Carlo Radiation Analysis)

## Random Number Test

*Notice: This document is prepared and distributed for educational purposes only.*

# Testing Random Number Generators

## ➤ Desirable properties:

- $E[R] \rightarrow 1/2$ ,  $\text{var}[R] \rightarrow 1/12$  as  $m \rightarrow \infty$ .

## ➤ Proof

For a full period LCG, every integer value from 0 to  $m-1$  is represented. Thus

$$E = [\{0+1+\dots+(m-1)\}/m]/m = \{(m-1)(m)/2\}/m^2$$

$$= (m^2-m)/(2m^2) = (1/2) - (1/2m) \rightarrow 1/2 \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty.$$

$$V = [\{0^2+1^2+2^2+\dots+(m-1)^2\}/m^2]/m - E^2$$

$$= [(m)(m-1)(2m-1)/6]/m^3 - [(1/2) - (1/2m)]^2$$

$$= [(1/12) - (1/12m^2)] \rightarrow 1/12 \text{ as } m \rightarrow \infty.$$

# Uniformity Test for Random Numbers

## 1. Frequency (or Spectral) test

Uses the Kolmogorov–Smirnov or the chi-square test to compare the distribution of the set of numbers generated with a uniform distribution.

## Uniformity Test for Random Numbers (cont.)

- In testing for uniformity, the hypotheses are as follows:

$$H_0: R_i \sim U[0,1]$$

$$H_1: R_i \neq U[0,1]$$

- The null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , reads that the numbers are distributed uniformly on the interval  $[0,1]$ .

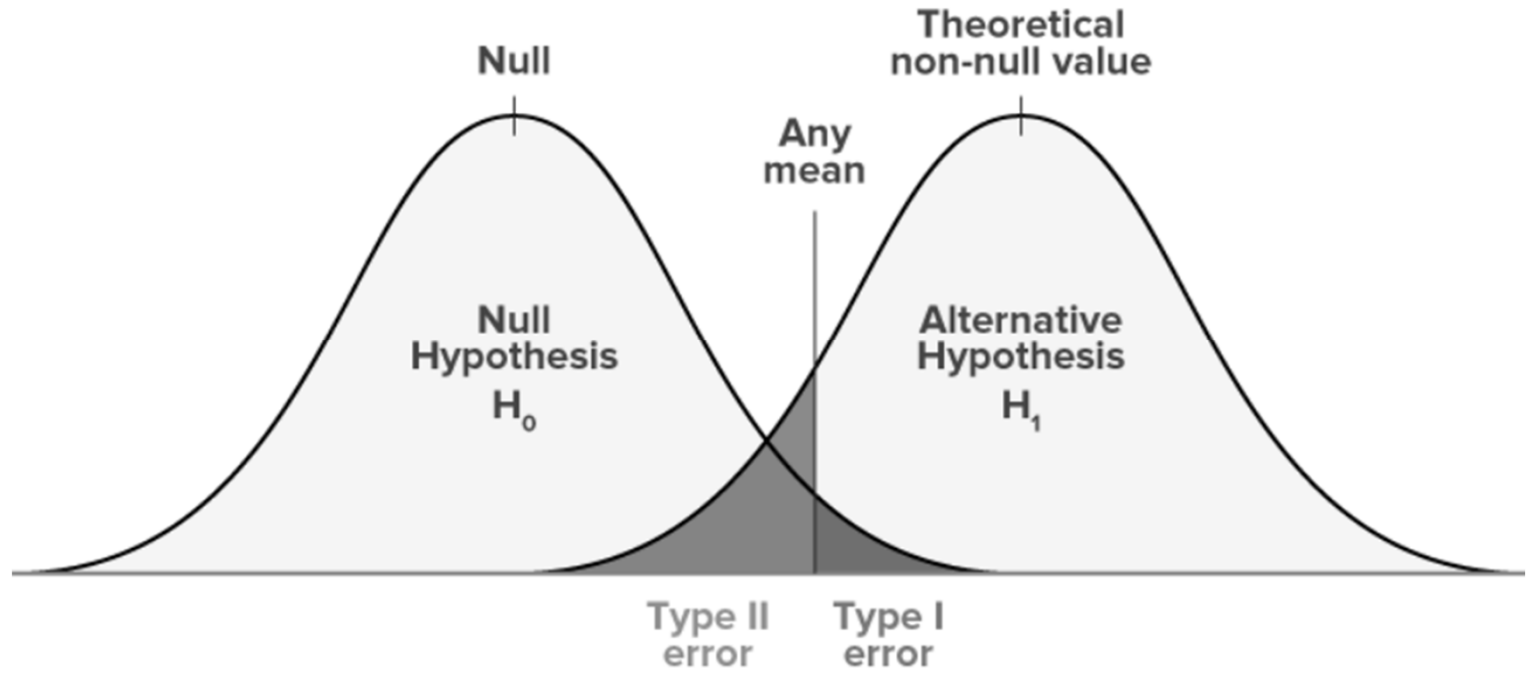
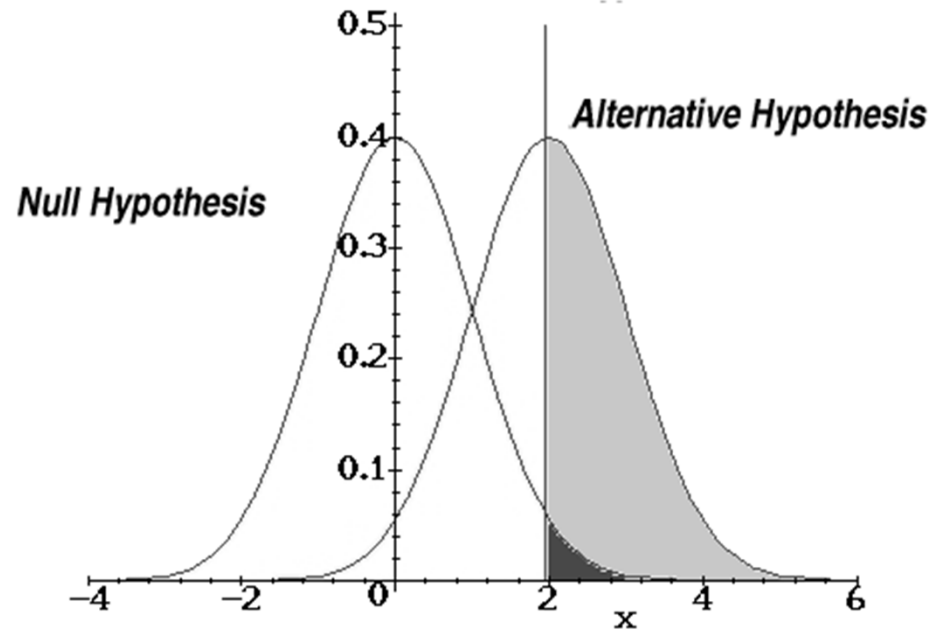
## Uniformity Test for Random Numbers (cont.)

➤ Level of significance  $\alpha$

$$\alpha = P(\text{reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ true})$$

Frequently,  $\alpha$  is set to 0.01 or 0.05

	Hypothesis	
	Actually True	Actually False
Accept	$1-\alpha$	$\beta$ (type II error)
Reject	$\alpha$ (type I error)	$1-\beta$



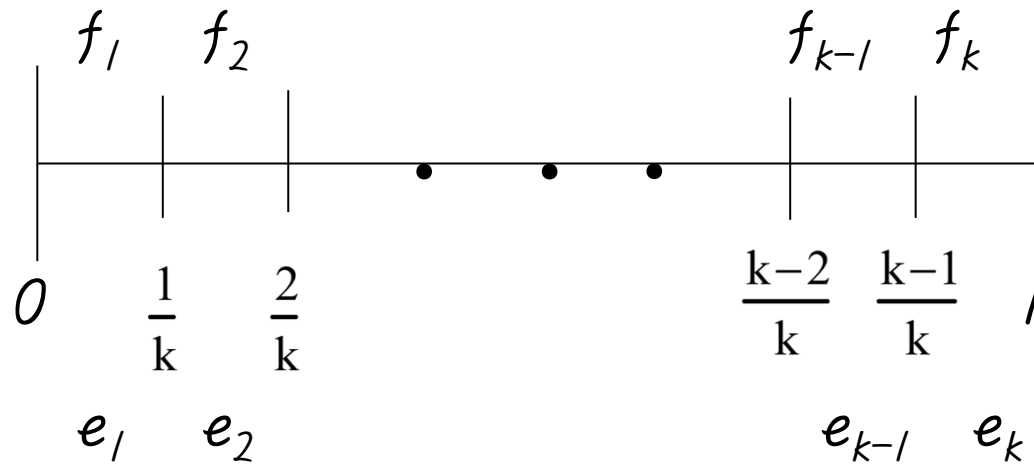
## Uniformity Test for Random Numbers (cont.)

### ➤ $\chi^2$ Goodness of fit test

1. Divide  $n$  observations into  $k$  intervals
2. Count frequencies  $f_i$ ,  $i=1,2,\dots,k$  for each interval
3. Compute

not just  $V^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (f_i - e_i)^2$ , but  $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(f_i - e_i)^2}{e_i}$

where  $e_i$  = expected frequency in the  $i$ -th interval  
and  $(/e_i)$  is applied to give correct weights to each squared discrepancies.



$p_i =$  expected probabilities observed in interval  $i$   
 $= e_i/n$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$



# Binomial Distribution

- $P(x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$  for  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

- $\bar{x} = E[x] = np$

- $Var[x] = E[x^2] - \{E[x]\}^2$

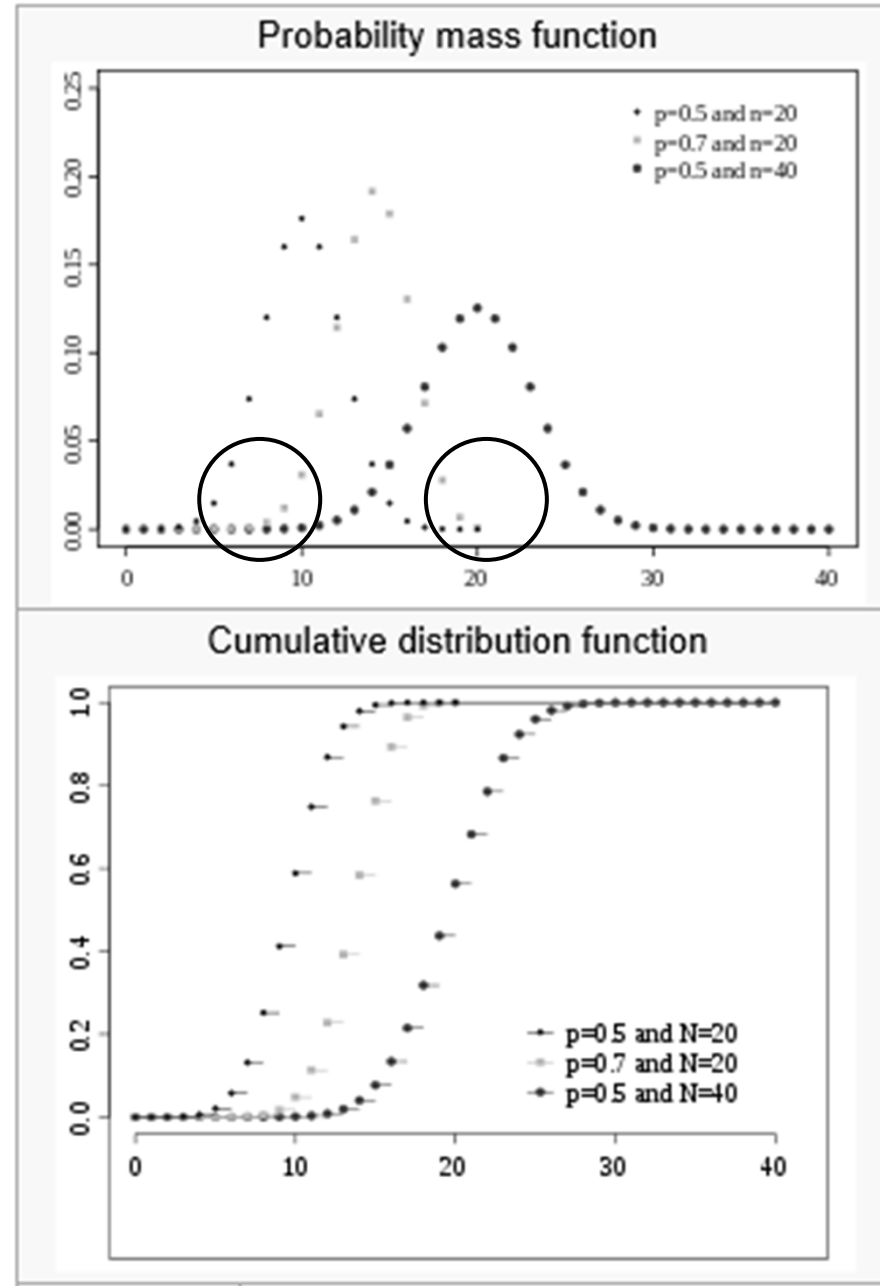
$$= \sum_{x=0}^n x^2 P(x) - (np)^2$$

$$= \sum_{x=0}^n x(x-1)P(x) + \sum_{x=0}^n xP(x) - (np)^2$$

$$= \sum_{x=2}^n x(x-1)P(x) + np - (np)^2 = np(1-p)$$

# binomial

Review



# Poisson Approximation to BD

Review

- The probability of observing  $x$  events out of  $n$  trials, given that the probability of a single event per trial is  $p$ .

$$P(x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad \text{for } x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

$$- \bar{x} = np, \quad \sigma^2 = np(1-p)$$

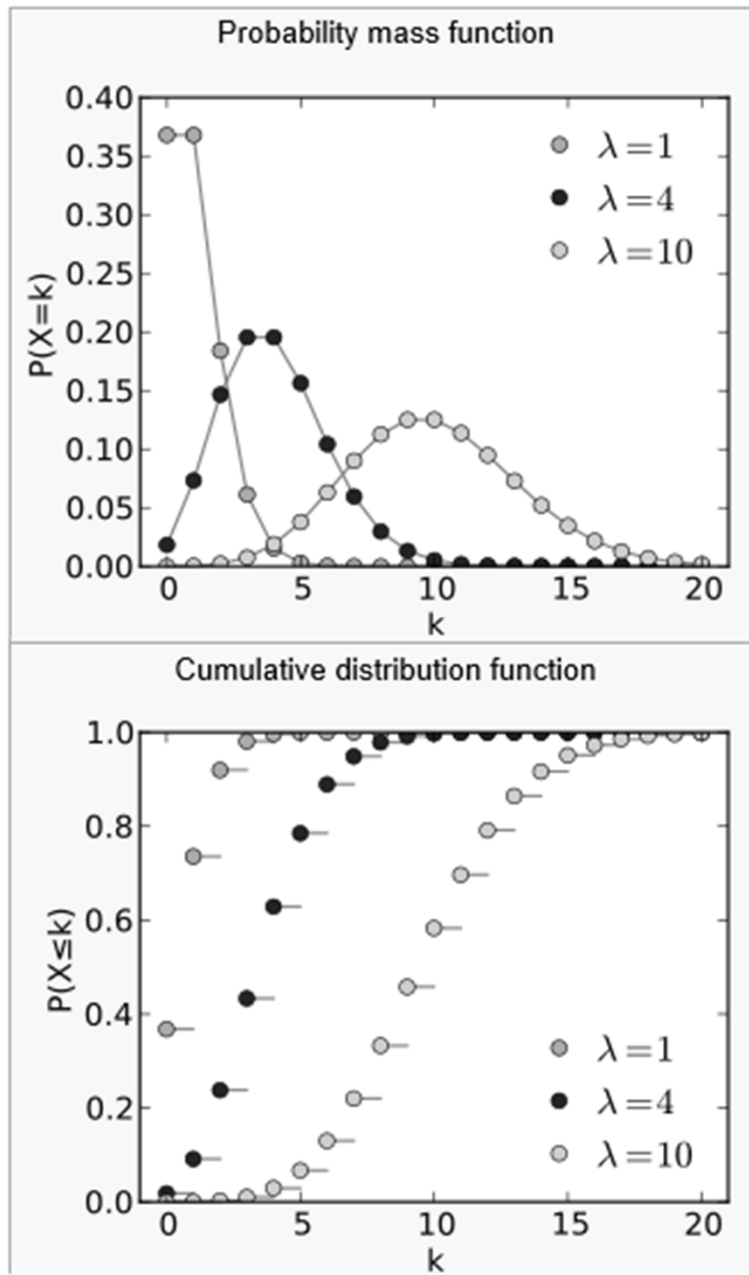
- With  $p \ll 1$  and for  $n \gg x$  ( $np \sim \text{constant}$ )

$$\frac{n!}{(n-x)!} \sim n^x; \quad (1-p)^{n-x} \sim e^{-np};$$

$$P(x) \cong \frac{(np)^x e^{-np}}{x!} = \frac{\mu^x e^{-\mu}}{x!} \quad (\mu = np)$$

$$- \text{Var}[x] = E[x^2] - \{E[x]\}^2 = (\mu^2 + \mu) - \mu^2 = \mu$$

Poisson



✓ The horizontal axis is the index  $k$ , the number of occurrences.  $\lambda$  is the expected number of occurrences. The vertical axis is the probability of  $k$  occurrences given  $\lambda$ . The function is defined only at integer values of  $k$ . The connecting lines are only guides for the eye.

✓ The horizontal axis is the index  $k$ , the number of occurrences. The CDF is discontinuous at the integers of  $k$  and flat everywhere else because a variable that is Poisson distributed takes on only integer values.

# Normal Approximation to BD

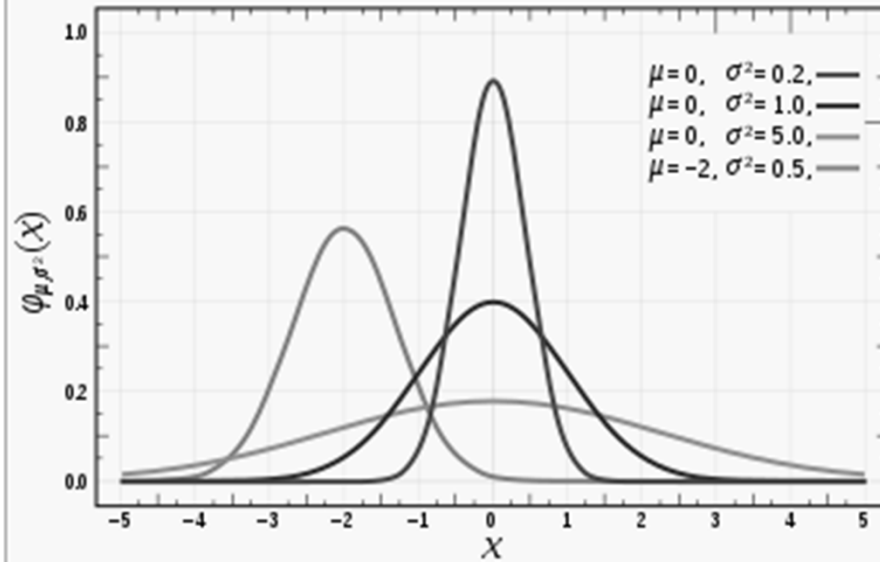
- $P(x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$  for  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ .
- $P(x) \cong \frac{\mu^x e^{-\mu}}{x!}$  ( $\mu > 0$ ) for  $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  with  $p \ll 1$  and for  $x \ll n$
- $P(x) \cong \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$

when  $n$  is large so that  $\mu = np \gg 1$  and non-zero only for  $|x - \mu| \ll \mu$ .

- The approximation is acceptable for values of  $n$  and  $p$  such that either ( $p \leq 0.5$  and  $np > 5$ ) or ( $p > 0.5$  and  $n(1-p) \geq 5$ )

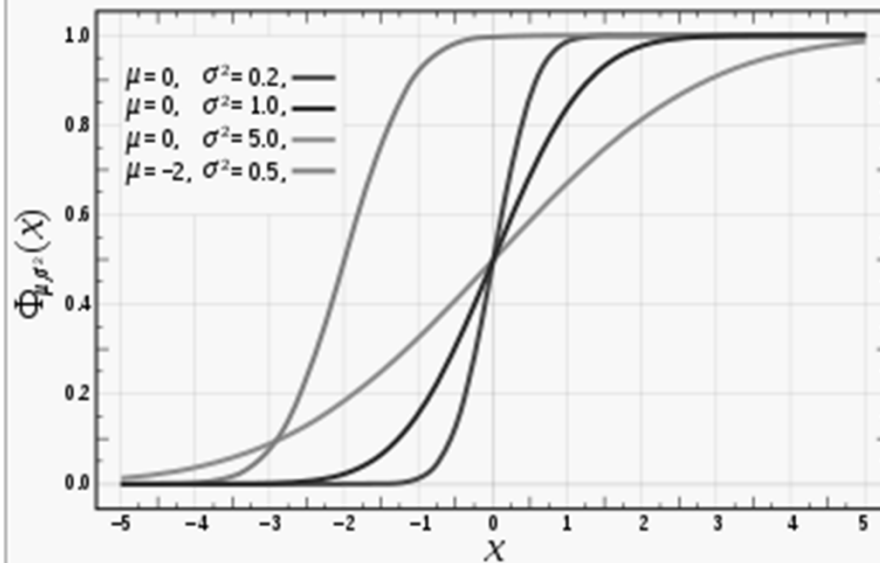
### Normal distribution

Probability density function



The red curve is the *standard normal distribution*

Cumulative distribution function



# Gaussian (Normal) Distribution

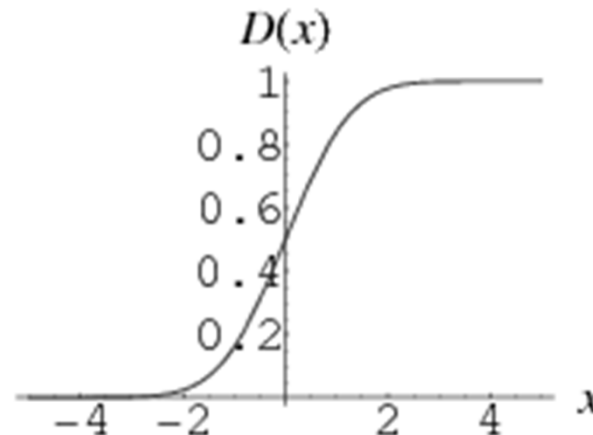
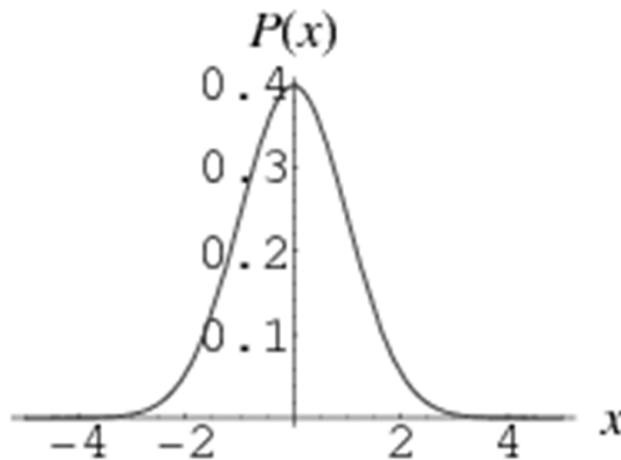
Review

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}, \text{ for } -\infty < x < \infty.$$

- Standard Normal distribution

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}, \text{ for } -\infty < z < \infty; \frac{(x-\mu)}{\sigma} \rightarrow z \text{ score}$$

which is a normal distribution with mean = 0 and variance = 1.

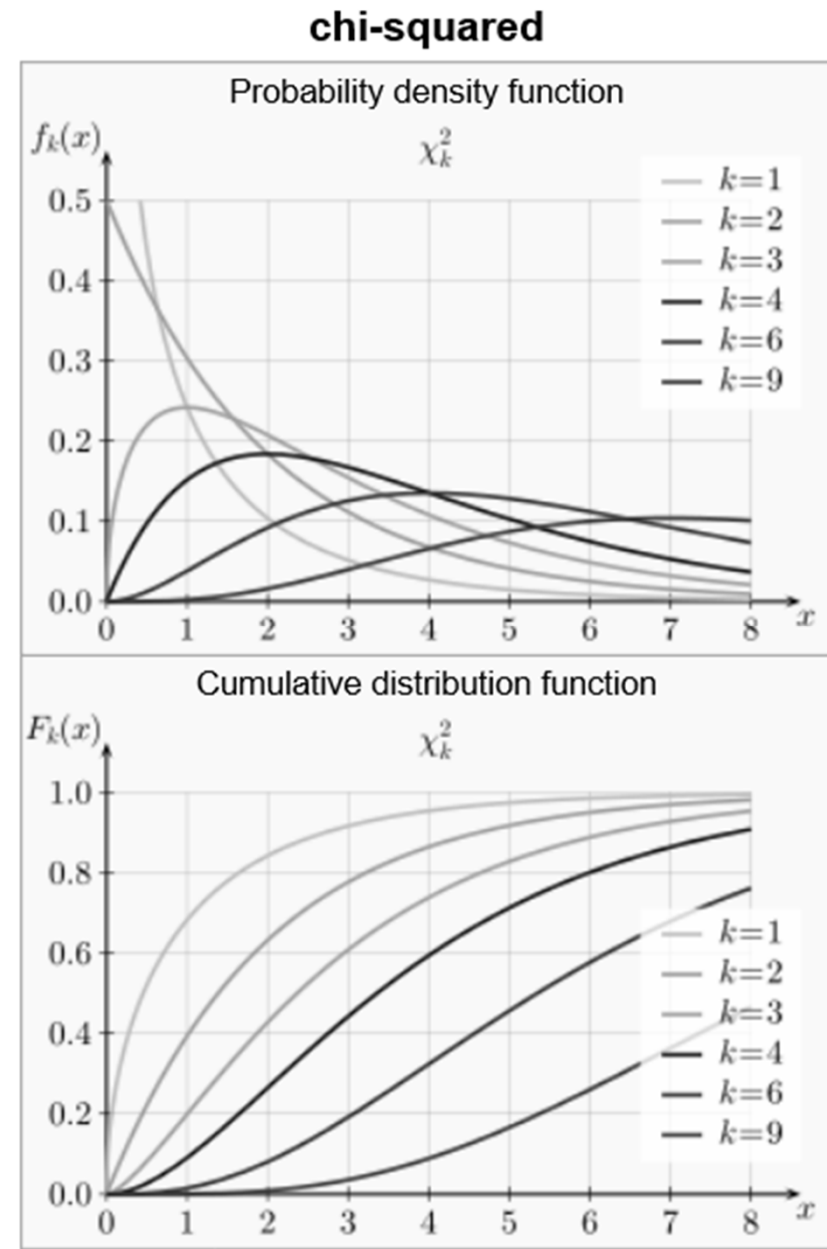


## ✓ Chi-Square Distribution

✓ The  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $k$  degrees of freedom = the distribution of a sum of the squares of  $k$  independent standard normal random variables.

$$f(x; k) = \frac{1}{2^{k/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)} x^{\frac{k}{2}-1} e^{-x/2} \quad (x \geq 0)$$

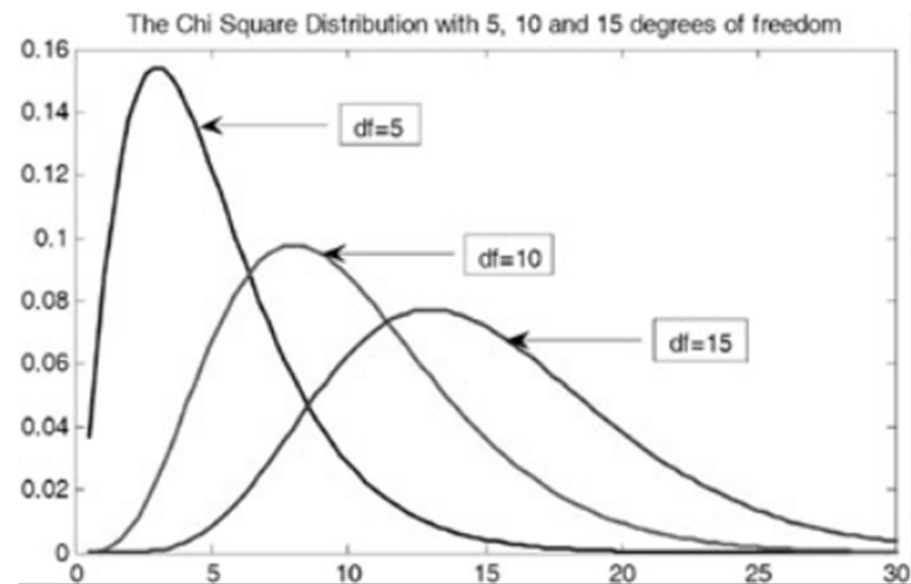
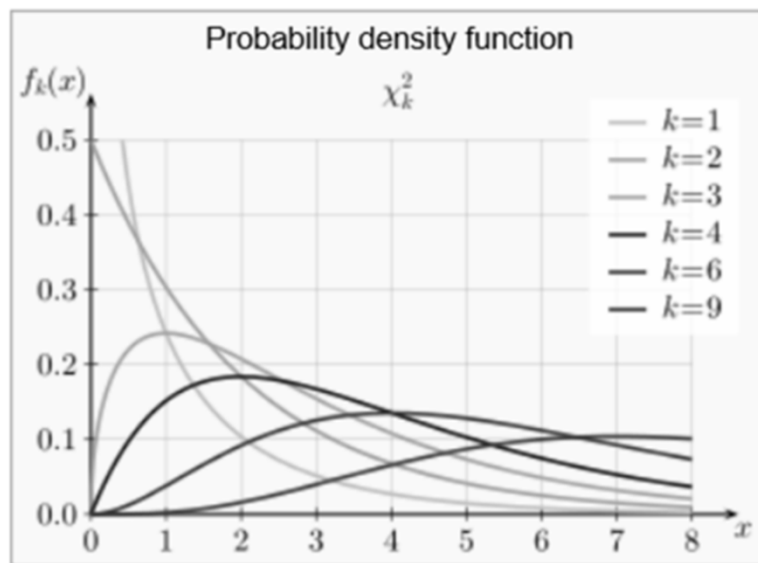
✓ degree of freedom = the number of values in the final calculation of a statistic that are free to vary.





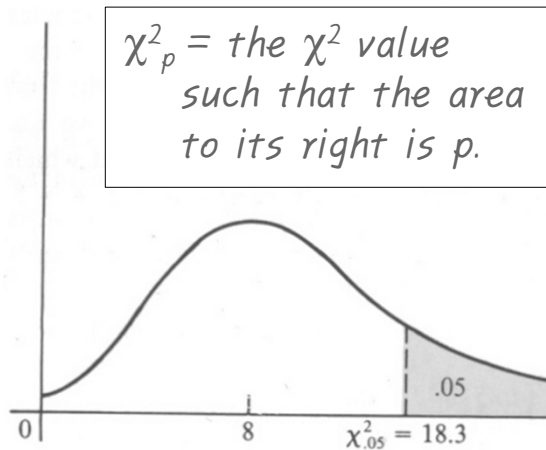
## ✓ Chi-Squared Distribution (cont.)

- ✓ No negative variable values ( $X^2$ )
- ✓ Mean (of  $X^2$ ) is equal to the degrees of freedom
- ✓ As the degree of freedom increases, the standard deviation increases so the chi-square curve spreads out more.
- ✓ As the degree of freedom becomes vary large, the shape becomes more like the normal distribution.



# ✓ Chi-Squared Distribution (cont.)

chi-square distribution table



df \ p	0.995	0.975	0.9	0.5	0.1	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	df
1	.000	.000	0.016	0.455	2.706	3.841	5.024	6.635	7.879	1
2	0.010	0.051	0.211	1.386	4.605	5.991	7.378	9.210	10.597	2
3	0.072	0.216	0.584	2.366	6.251	7.815	9.348	11.345	12.838	3
4	0.207	0.484	1.064	3.357	7.779	9.488	11.143	13.277	14.860	4
5	0.412	0.831	1.610	4.351	9.236	11.070	12.832	15.086	16.750	5
6	0.676	1.237	2.204	5.348	10.645	12.592	14.449	16.812	18.548	6
7	0.989	1.690	2.833	6.346	12.017	14.067	16.013	18.475	20.278	7
8	1.344	2.180	3.490	7.344	13.362	15.507	17.535	20.090	21.955	8
9	1.735	2.700	4.168	8.343	14.684	16.919	19.023	21.666	23.589	9
10	2.156	3.247	4.865	9.342	15.987	18.307	20.483	23.209	25.188	10
11	2.603	3.816	5.578	10.341	17.275	19.675	21.920	24.725	26.757	11
12	3.074	4.404	6.304	11.340	18.549	21.026	23.337	26.217	28.300	12
13	3.565	5.009	7.042	12.340	19.812	22.362	24.736	27.688	29.819	13
14	4.075	5.629	7.790	13.339	21.064	23.685	26.119	29.141	31.319	14
15	4.601	6.262	8.547	14.339	22.307	24.996	27.488	30.578	32.801	15

FIGURE 4.5

$P[X_{10}^2 \geq \chi_{.05}^2] = .05$  and  $P[X_{10}^2 < \chi_{.05}^2] = .95$ .

- $p$  = the probability that a random sample from a true Poisson distribution would have a larger value of  $\chi^2$  than the specified value shown in the table.
  - Very low value (say less than 0.02) indicate abnormally large fluctuations in the data whereas very high probabilities (greater than 0.98) indicate abnormally small fluctuation.
  - Perfect fit to the Poisson distribution for large samples would yield a probability 0.50.

## *Chi-Squared (Goodness-of-Fit) Test*

- *used to test if a sample of data came from a population with a specific distribution.*
- *can be applied to any univariate distribution for which one can calculate the cdf.*
- *can be applied to discrete distributions such as the binomial and the Poisson.*
- *can perform poorly for small sample sizes due to its test statistic not having an approximate chi-squared distribution.*

## NOTE

- ✓  $(f_i - np_i) / (np_i)^{1/2}$  is the  $N(0,1)$  approximation of a multinomial distribution for large  $n$ , where

$$E[f_i] = np_i \text{ and } \text{Var} [f_i] = np_i(1-p_i).$$

- ✓ For large  $n$ ,  $X^2$  is approximated to  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $k-1$  degrees of freedom
- ✓ Reject randomness on condition  $X^2 > \chi^2$

- ✓  $X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(f_i - np_i)^2}{np_i} \sim [(k-1)s^2/\sigma^2]$  for binomial distribution with small identical  $p_i$ 's so that  $\sigma^2 \sim \sigma_i^2 = np_i(1-p_i) \sim np_i$

## Chi-Squared Test (cont.)

- Test for the null hypothesis  $H_0$
- $H_0$  : The data follow a specified distribution  $f$
- $H_a$  : The data do not follow the specified distribution
- Test statistic :  $X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (O_i - E_i)^2 / E_i$

where  $O_i$  = the observed frequency for bin  $i$  and  
 $E_i$  = the expected frequency for bin  $i$ .

- Significance level :  $\alpha$
- Critical region : The null hypothesis is rejected if

$$X^2 > \chi^2_{\alpha, k-c}$$

(= the  $1-\alpha$  quantile of  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $k-c$  degrees of freedom)

where  $k$  is the number of non-empty cells and  $c$  = (the number of estimated parameters for the distribution) + 1

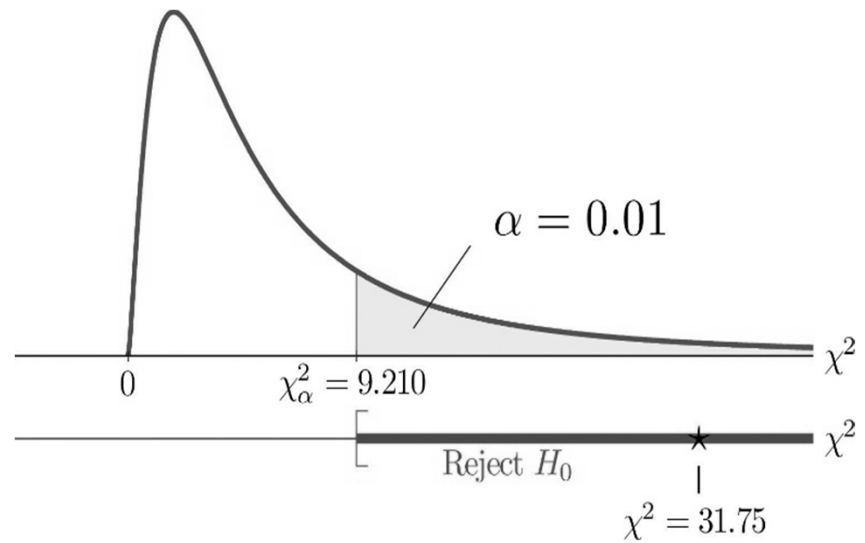
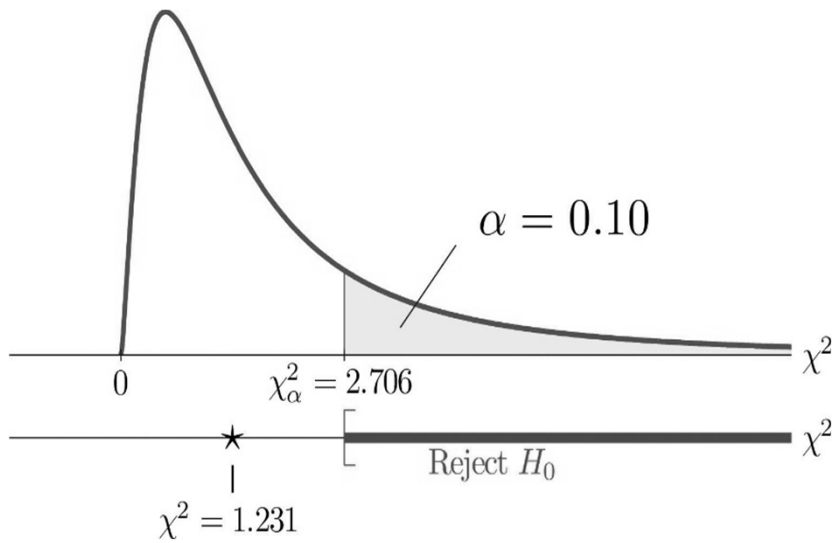
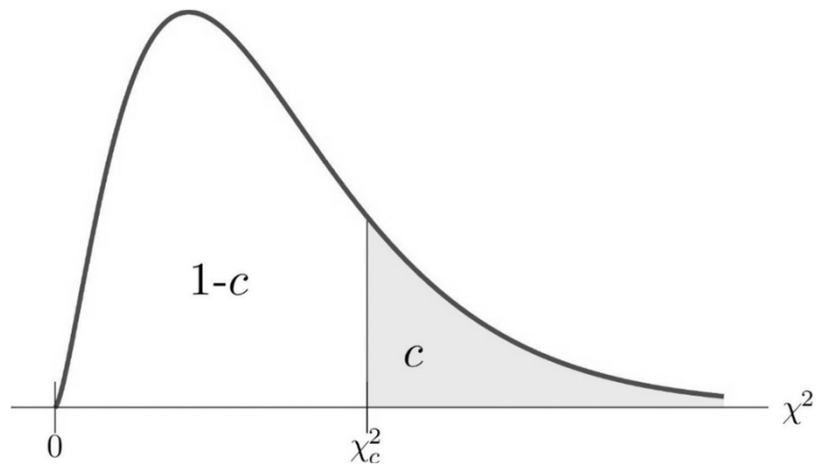
## Chi-Squared Test (cont.)

- ✓ The expected frequency is calculated by

$$E_i = N \cdot (F(Y_u) - F(Y_l))$$

where  $F$  is the cdf for the distribution  $f$  being tested,  $Y_u$  is the upper limit for class  $i$ , and  $Y_l$  is the lower limit, and  $N$  is the sample size.

- ✓ The test statistic  $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (O_i - E_i)^2 / E_i$  approximately follows a chi-square distribution with  $(k-c)$  degrees of freedom.



*Chi-Squared test vs. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test*



## Why not Chi square test but K-S test

- ✓ Chi square test assumes that the situations produce "normal" data that differ only in that the average outcome in one situation is different from the average outcome in the other situation.
- ✓ If one applies the chi square test to non-normal data, the risk of error is probably increased.
- ✓ The Central Limit Theorem shows that the chi square test can avoid becoming unusually fallible when applied to non-normal datasets, if the control/treatment datasets are sufficiently "large".

# Kolmogorov–Smirnov (Goodness-of-Fit) Test

- used as an alternative to the chi-square test when the sample size is small.
- A non-parametric and distribution-free test
- used to compare a sample with a reference probability distribution (one-sample K-S test) or to compare two samples from the same probability distribution (two-sample K-S test).
- does not depend on the underlying cumulative distribution function being tested.

## Kolmogorov–Smirnov Test (cont.)

➤ Test for the null hypothesis  $H_0$

–  $H_0$  : The data follow a specified distribution  $f$

–  $H_a$  : The data do not follow the specified distribution

– Test statistic :  $D = \text{Max}|F(x_i) - E(x_i)|$

where  $F(x_i)$  = the theoretical (exact, not approximate) cdf for the distribution  $f$  and  $E(x_i)$  = the empirical cdf evaluated, both at  $x_i$ .

– Significance level :  $\alpha$

– Critical region : The null hypothesis is rejected if

$$D > CV(\alpha, n) \text{ from K-S distribution}$$

## Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (cont.)

- ✓ Those two cdf functions evaluated at  $x_i$  are defined as

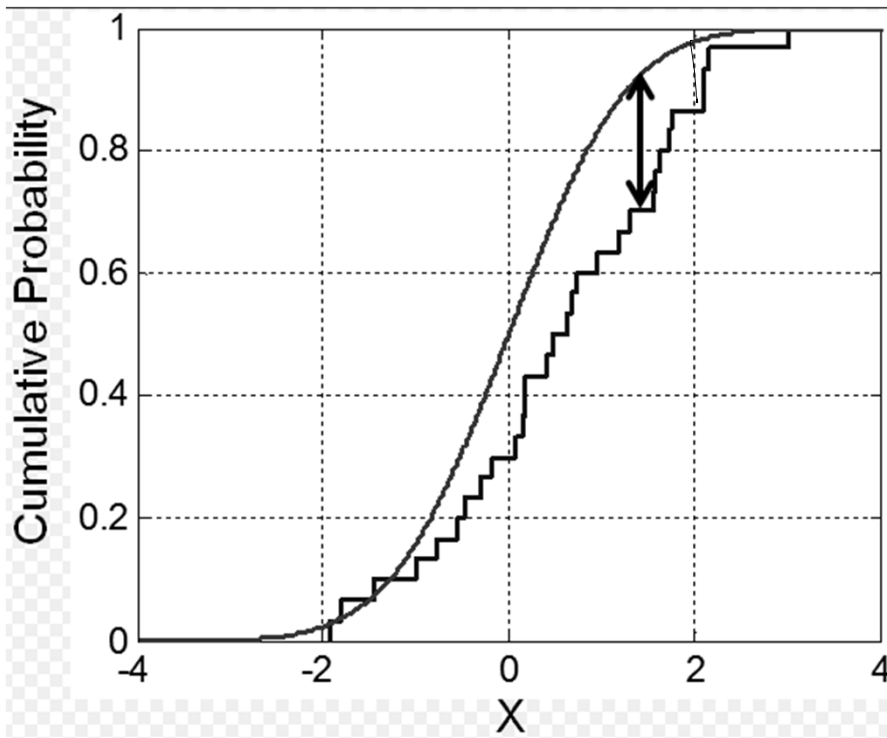
$$F(x_i) = P(X \leq x_i)$$

and

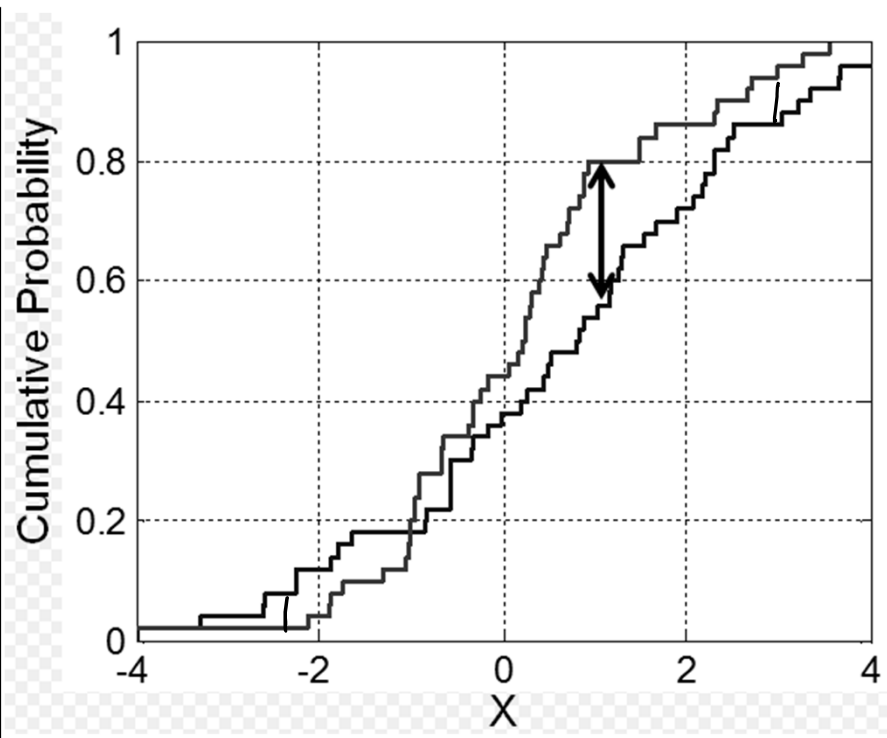
$$E(x_i) = \frac{\# \text{ of } X\text{'s} \leq x_i}{n} = \frac{i}{n} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

\*  $F(x) = x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  for uniform distribution  $f(x)$

- ✓ If  $D > CV(\alpha, n)$ , it is unlikely that  $F(x)$  is the underlying data distribution.
- ✓ The probability of  $D > CV(\alpha, n)$  is  $\alpha$ .



One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic:  
 Red line is CDF; blue line is an ECDF  
 (empirical CDF); and the black arrow is  
 the K-S statistic.



two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic:  
 Red and blue lines each correspond to  
 an empirical distribution function, and  
 the black arrow is the two-sample KS  
 statistic.

✓ Kolmogorov published the asymptotic K-S distribution and K-S  
 statistic and Smirnov published the table of K-S cdf.

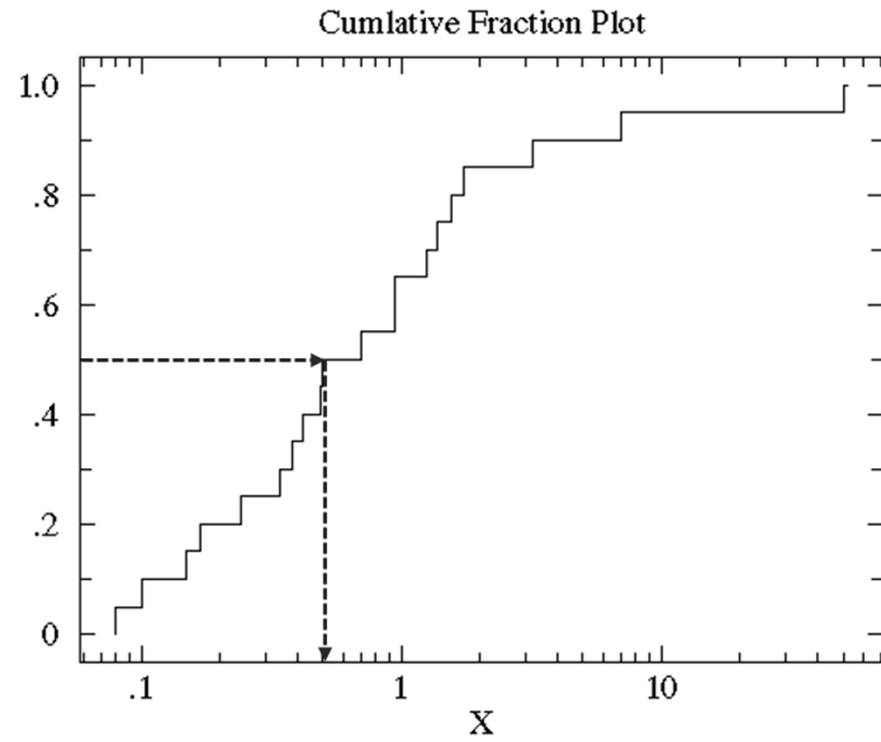
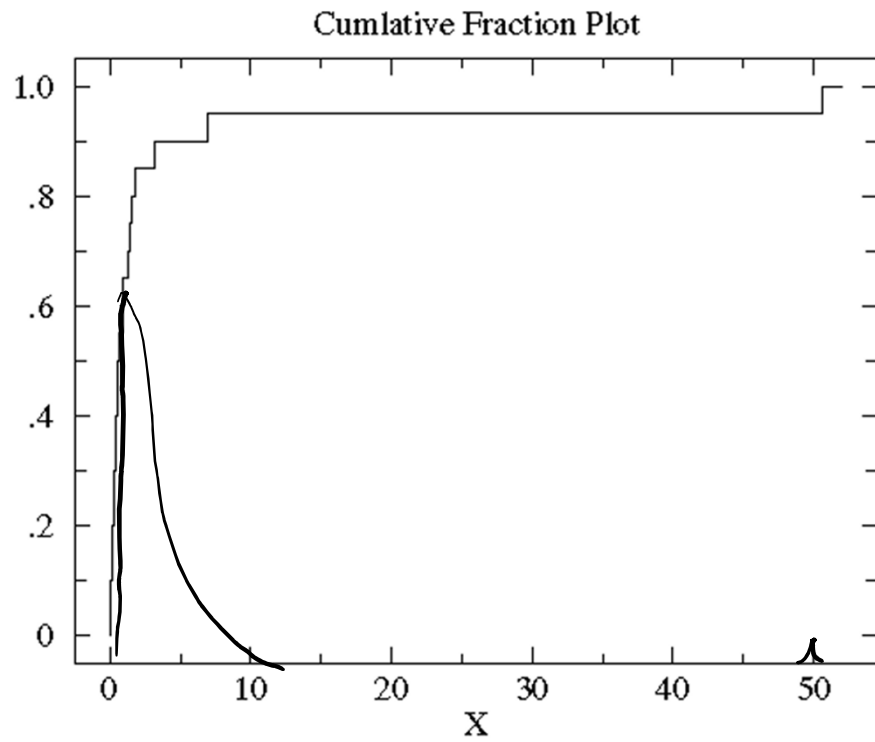


✓ Kolmogorov–Smirnov table (excerpt)

Table 1 Critical values,  $CV(\alpha, n)$ , of the KS test with sample size  $n$  at the different levels of  $\alpha$ .

$n$	Level of significance ( $\alpha$ )					
	0.40	0.20	0.10	0.05	0.04	0.01
5	0.369	0.447	0.509	0.562	0.580	0.667
10	0.268	0.322	0.368	0.409	0.422	0.487
20	0.192	0.232	0.264	0.294	0.304	0.352
30	0.158	0.190	0.217	0.242	0.250	0.290
50	0.123	0.149	0.169	0.189	0.194	0.225
>50	$\frac{0.87}{\sqrt{n}}$	$\frac{1.07}{\sqrt{n}}$	$\frac{1.22}{\sqrt{n}}$	$\frac{1.36}{\sqrt{n}}$	$\frac{1.37}{\sqrt{n}}$	$\frac{1.63}{\sqrt{n}}$

# Data scale in linear vs. in log

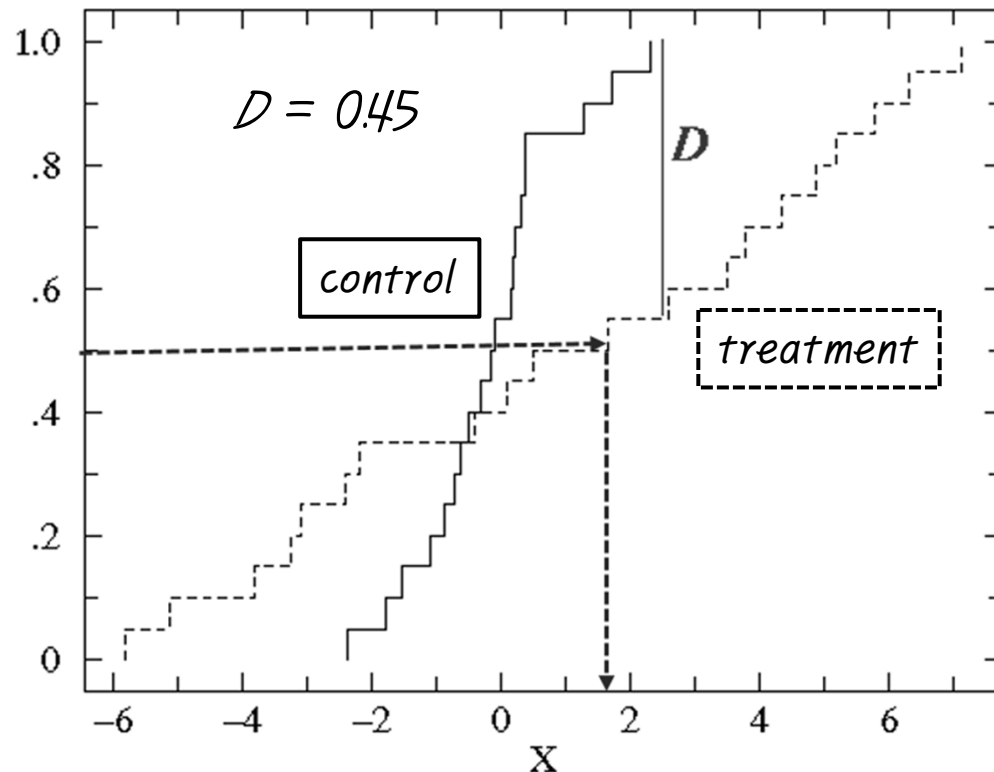




## Cumulative Fraction Plot: example #1

Control A={0.22, -0.87, -2.39, -1.79, 0.37, -1.54, 1.28, -0.31, -0.74, 1.72, 0.38, -0.17, -0.62, -1.10, 0.30, 0.15, 2.30, 0.19, -0.50, -0.09}

Treatment A={-5.13, -2.19, -2.43, -3.83, 0.50, -3.25, 4.32, 1.63, 5.18, -0.43, 7.11, 4.87, -3.10, -5.81, 3.76, 6.31, 2.58, 0.07, 5.76, 3.50}

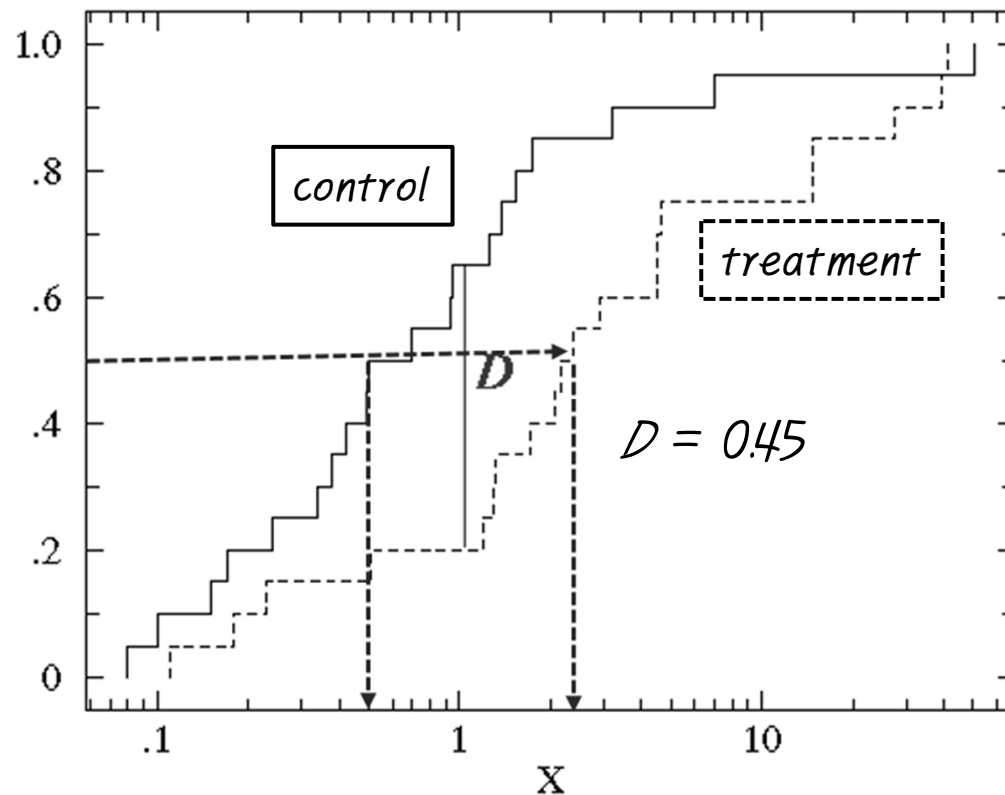


- ✓ Both data sets do not differ in mean, but differ in variance.
- ✓ Chi square test does not see the difference.

## Cumulative Fraction Plot: example #2

Control B = {1.26, 0.34, 0.70, 1.75, 50.57, 1.55, 0.08, 0.42, 0.50, 3.20, 0.15, 0.49, 0.95, 0.24, 1.37, 0.17, 6.98, 0.10, 0.94, 0.38}

Treatment B = {2.37, 2.16, 14.82, 1.73, 41.04, 0.23, 1.32, 2.91, 39.41, 0.11, 27.44, 4.51, 0.51, 4.50, 0.18, 14.68, 4.66, 1.30, 2.06, 1.19}



- ✓ Both data sets were drawn from lognormal (that is, non-normal) distributions that differ in median.
- ✓ One can “see” the difference in the plot.

## *Cumulative Fraction vs. Percentile*

- ✓ *Take a data set*

$\{-0.45, 1.11, 0.48, -0.82, -1.26\}$

- ✓ *Sort from the smallest to the largest:*

$\{-1.26, -0.82, -0.45, 0.48, 1.11\}$

- ✓ *Calculate the percentiles:*

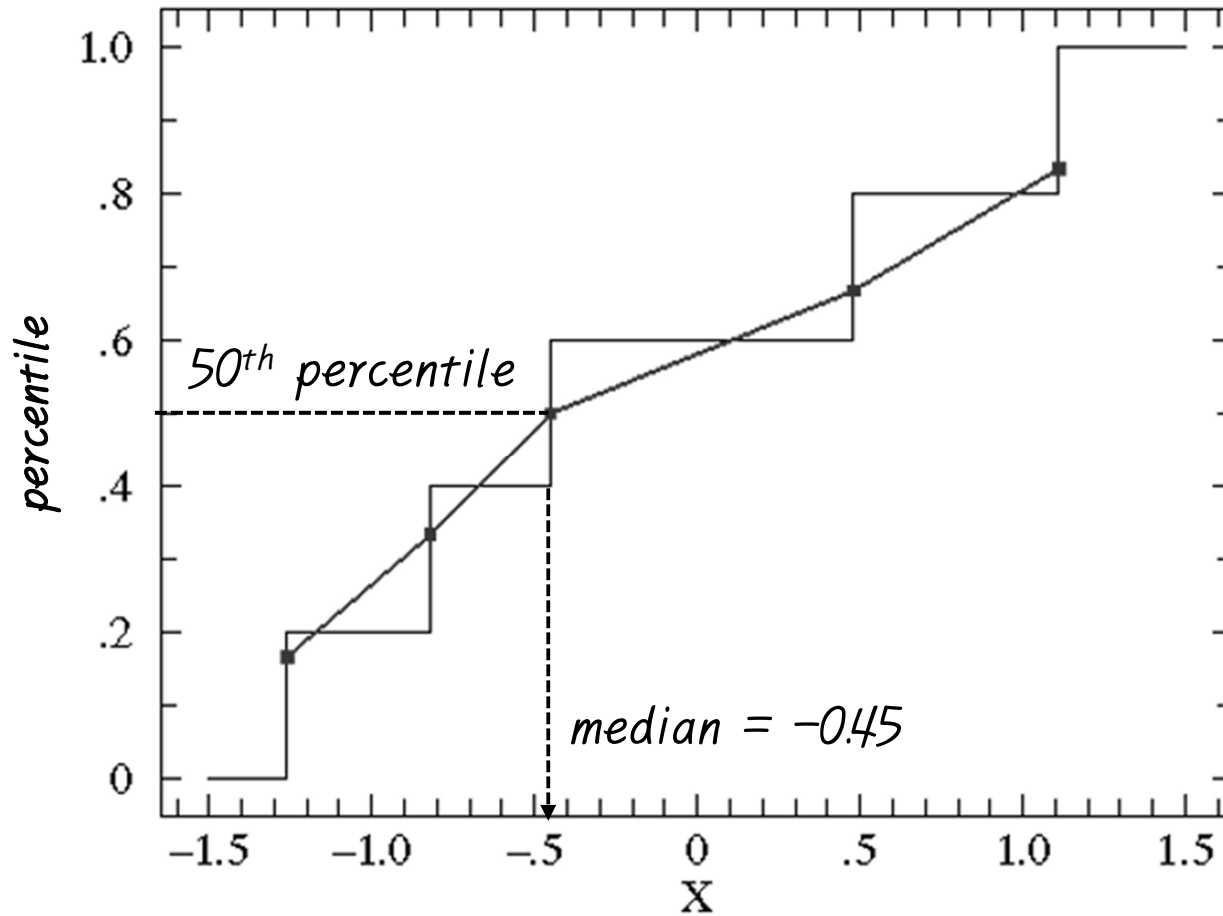
$$\text{Percentile} = r/(N+1) \times 100 \text{ (-th)}$$

*where  $r$  is the location of each point among  $N$  data*

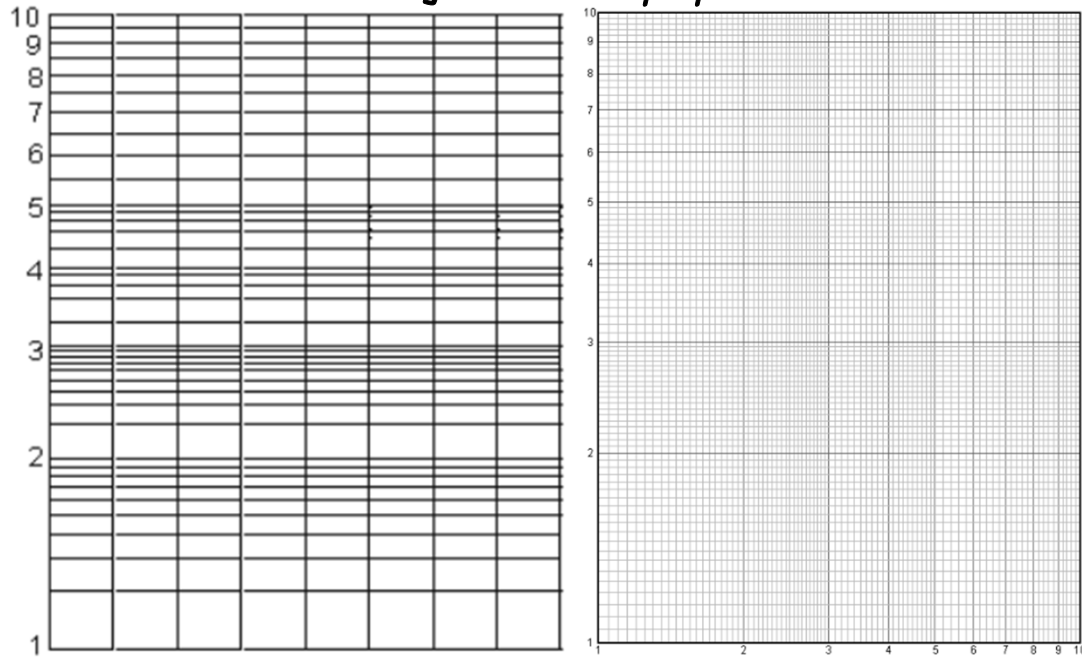
- ✓ *Align the set of (datum, percentile) pairs*

$\{(-1.26, .167), (-0.82, .333), (-0.45, .5), (0.48, .667), (1.11, .833)\}$

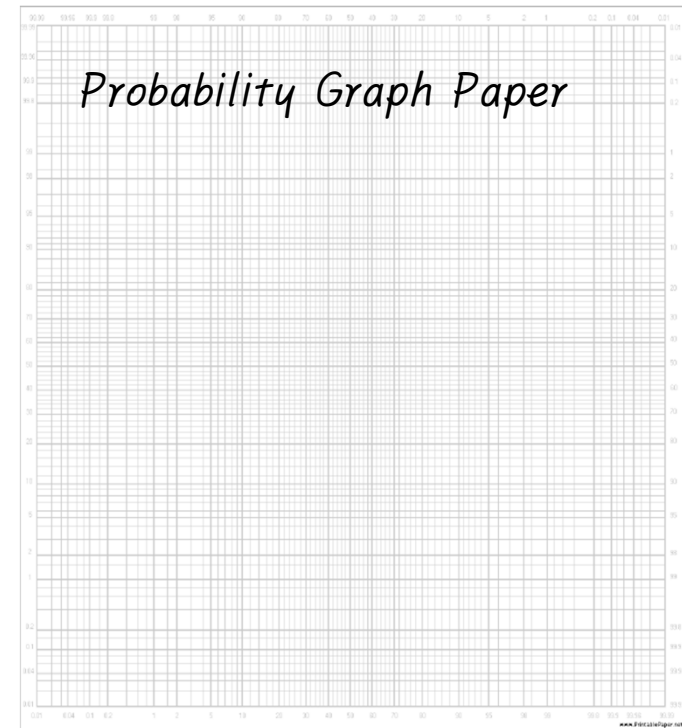
# *cumulative fraction vs. percentile plot*



*logarithmic paper*



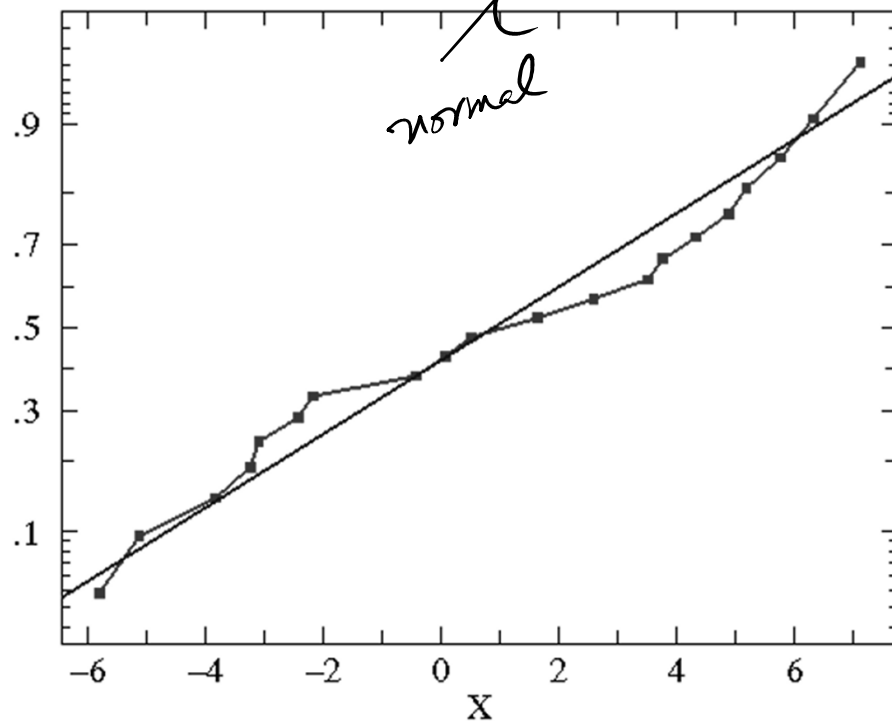
*Probability Graph Paper*



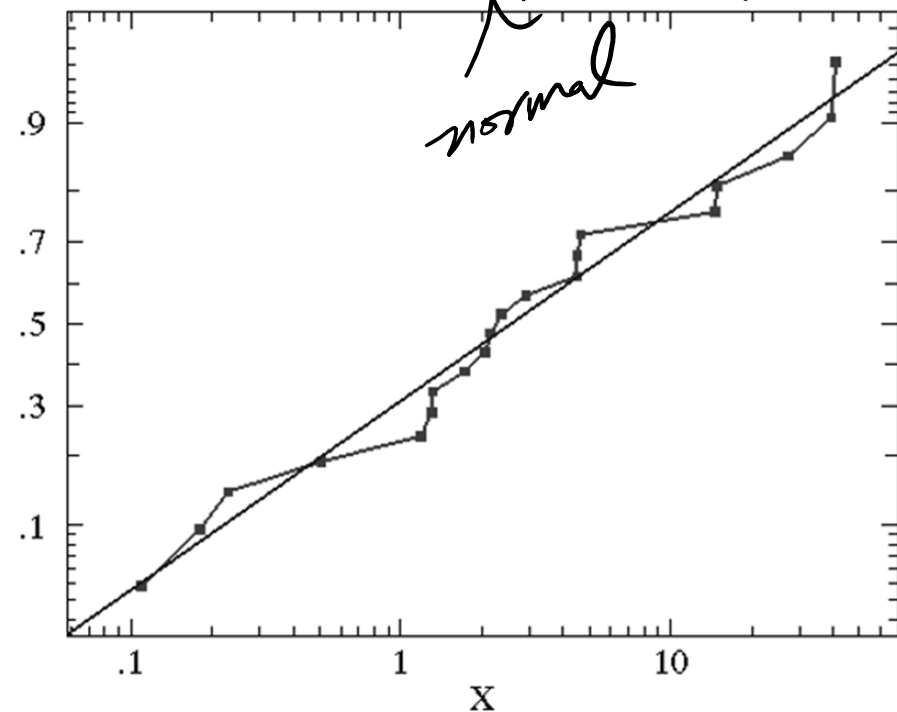
- ✓ *Logarithmic paper has rectangles drawn in varying widths corresponding to logarithmic scales for semi-log plots or log-log plots.*
- ✓ *Normal probability paper is a graph paper with rectangles of variable widths. It is designed so that "the graph of the normal distribution function is represented on it by a straight line", i.e. it can be used for a normal probability plot.*

# percentile plot on probability graph paper

linear-probability scale



log-probability scale

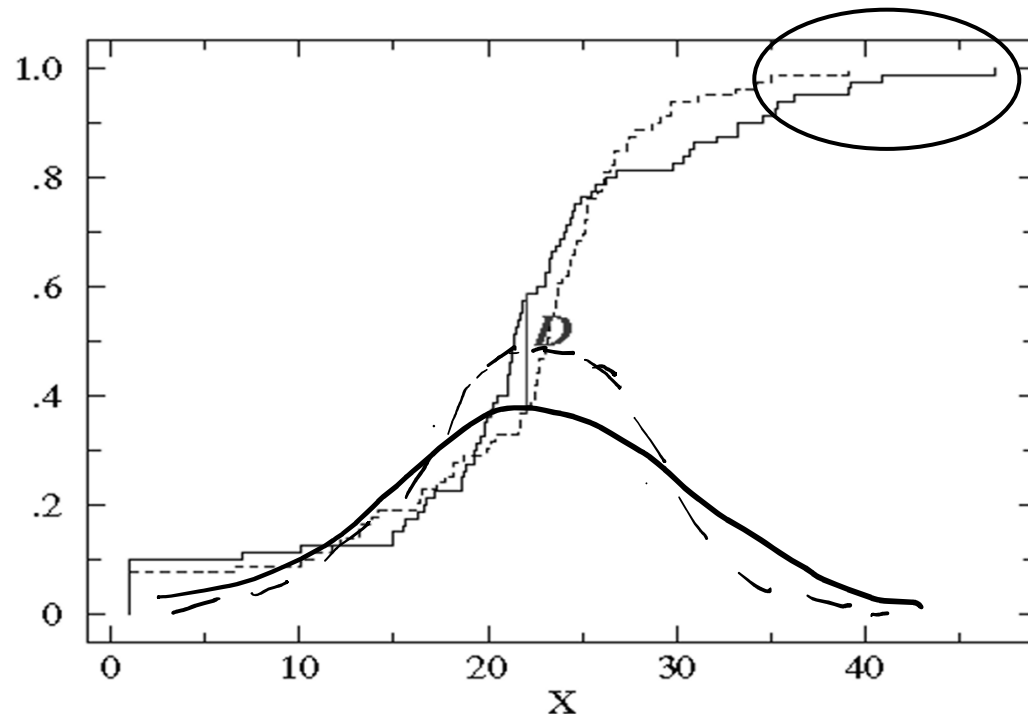


- ✓ Uniformly distributed data will plot as a straight line using the regular graph paper.
- ✓ Normally-distributed data will plot as a straight line on the linear-probability paper.
- ✓ Lognormal data will plot as a straight line with log-probability scaled axes.

# Chi Square test vs. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

Control C={23.4, 30.9, 18.8, 23.0, 21.4, 1, 24.6, 23.8, 24.1, 18.7, 16.3, 20.3, 14.9, 35.4, 21.6, 21.2, 21.0, 15.0, 15.6, 24.0, 34.6, 40.9, 30.7, 24.5, 16.6, 1, 21.7, 1, 23.6, 1, 25.7, 19.3, 46.9, 23.3, 21.8, 33.3, 24.9, 24.4, 1, 19.8, 17.2, 21.5, 25.5, 23.3, 18.6, 22.0, 29.8, 33.3, 1, 21.3, 18.6, 26.8, 19.4, 21.1, 21.2, 20.5, 19.8, 26.3, 39.3, 21.4, 22.6, 1, 35.3, 7.0, 19.3, 21.3, 10.1, 20.2, 1, 36.2, 16.7, 21.1, 39.1, 19.9, 32.1, 23.1, 21.8, 30.4, 19.62, 15.5}

Treatment C={16.5, 1, 22.6, 25.3, 23.7, 1, 23.3, 23.9, 16.2, 23.0, 21.6, 10.8, 12.2, 23.6, 10.1, 24.4, 16.4, 11.7, 17.7, 34.3, 24.3, 18.7, 27.5, 25.8, 22.5, 14.2, 21.7, 1, 31.2, 13.8, 29.7, 23.1, 26.1, 25.1, 23.4, 21.7, 24.4, 13.2, 22.1, 26.7, 22.7, 1, 18.2, 28.7, 29.1, 27.4, 22.3, 13.2, 22.5, 25.0, 1, 6.6, 23.7, 23.5, 17.3, 24.6, 27.8, 29.7, 25.3, 19.9, 18.2, 26.2, 20.4, 23.3, 26.7, 26.0, 1, 25.1, 33.1, 35.0, 25.3, 23.6, 23.2, 20.2, 24.7, 22.6, 39.1, 26.5, 22.7}



- ✓ The Chi square test can not see the difference (large  $N$ ), whereas the KS-test can.
- ✓ Take the Cauchy distribution instead of Normal distribution!

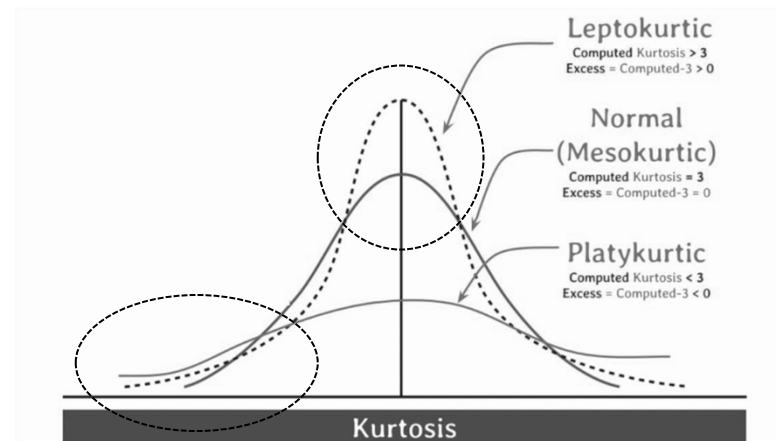
4<sup>th</sup> moment: measure of peakedness

$$\mu_4 \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \bar{X})^2 \cdot f(x) dx = E[(x_i - \bar{X})^2] \quad \text{or} \quad \mu_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \cdot (x_i - \bar{X})^2$$

$$\text{kurtosis} \equiv E \left[ \left( \frac{x_i - \bar{X}}{\sigma} \right)^4 \right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[ \frac{(x_i - \bar{X})}{\sigma} \right]^4 = \frac{\mu_4}{\sigma^4} = \frac{\mu_4}{\mu_2^2} :$$

peakedness or attendance of outliers

$$\text{kurtosis}(\text{첨도, 尖度}) \cong \frac{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^4}{\left[ \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \right]^2}$$



- *kurtosis with light tails* < 3 of normal distribution < *kurtosis with heavy tails*



# Cauchy Distribution

- Cauchy distribution

$$f(x; x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi\gamma \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{x - x_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right]} = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\gamma}{(x - x_0)^2 + \gamma^2} \right]$$

where  $x_0$  = location parameter specifying the location of the peak in distribution;  $\gamma$  = the scale parameter specifying the half-width at half maximum (HWHM)

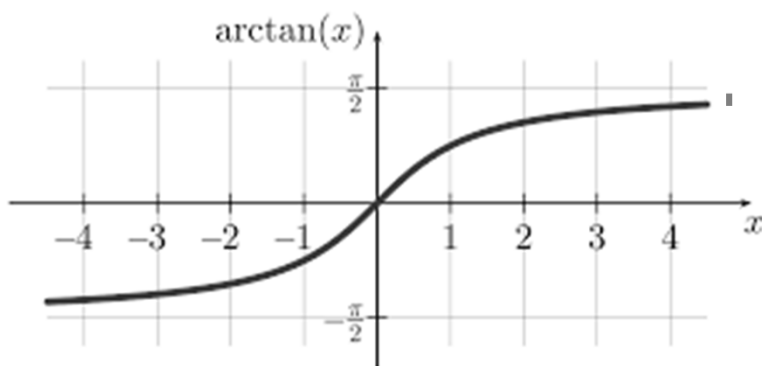
- Standard Cauchy distribution with mode = 0 and HWHM = 1.

$$f(x; 0, 1) = \frac{1}{\pi(1 + x^2)} \quad ; \quad \frac{(x - x_0)}{\gamma} \Rightarrow x$$

# Cauchy Distribution

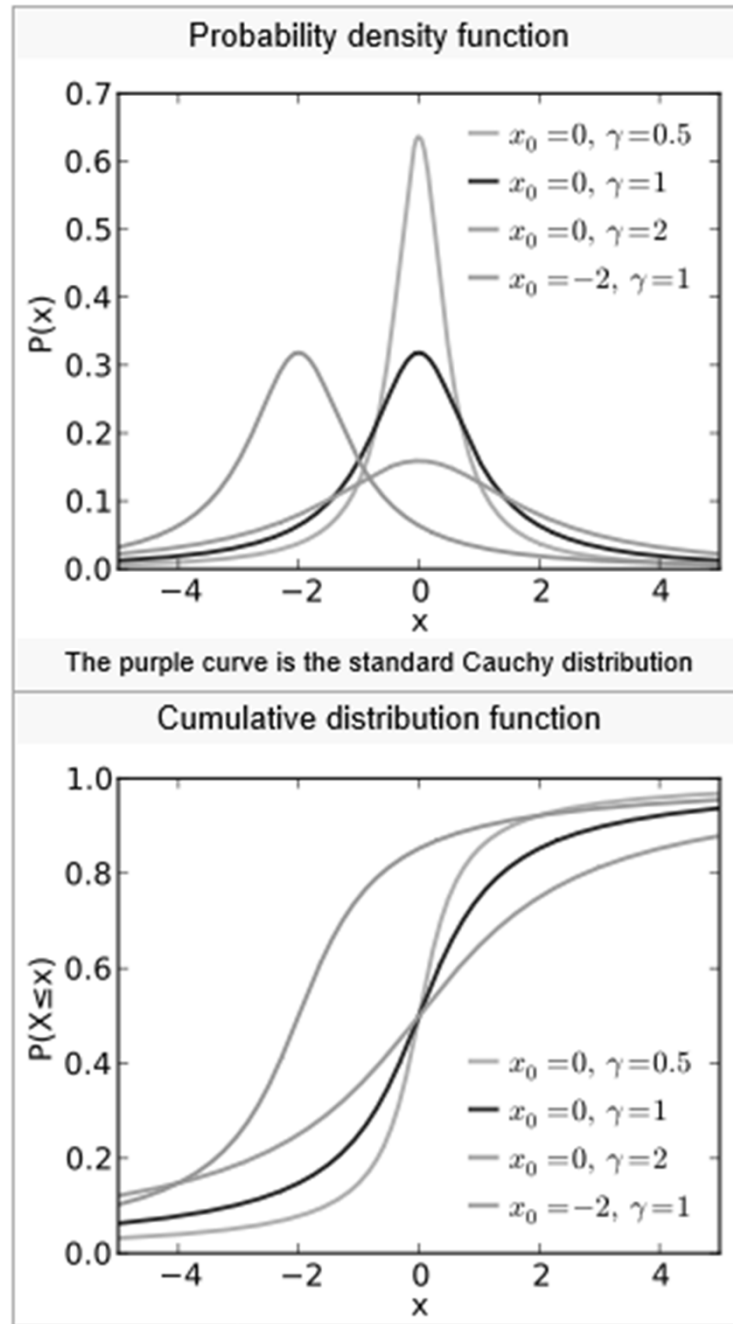
- Distribution of the ratio of two independent normally distributed Gaussian random variables
- Cumulative distribution function of Cauchy dist.

$$F(x; x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi} \arctan\left(\frac{x - x_0}{\gamma}\right) + \frac{1}{2}$$



# Cauchy

# Review



✓ Cauchy distribution with mode/median =  $x_0$  and HWHM =  $\gamma$ .

$$f(x; x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi\gamma \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{x - x_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right]} = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\gamma}{(x - x_0)^2 + \gamma^2} \right]$$

- Expected value and other moments do not exist:

(indefinite value of  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x)dx$  due to heavy tail)

✓ Normal distribution with mean =  $\mu$  and standard deviation =  $\sigma$ .

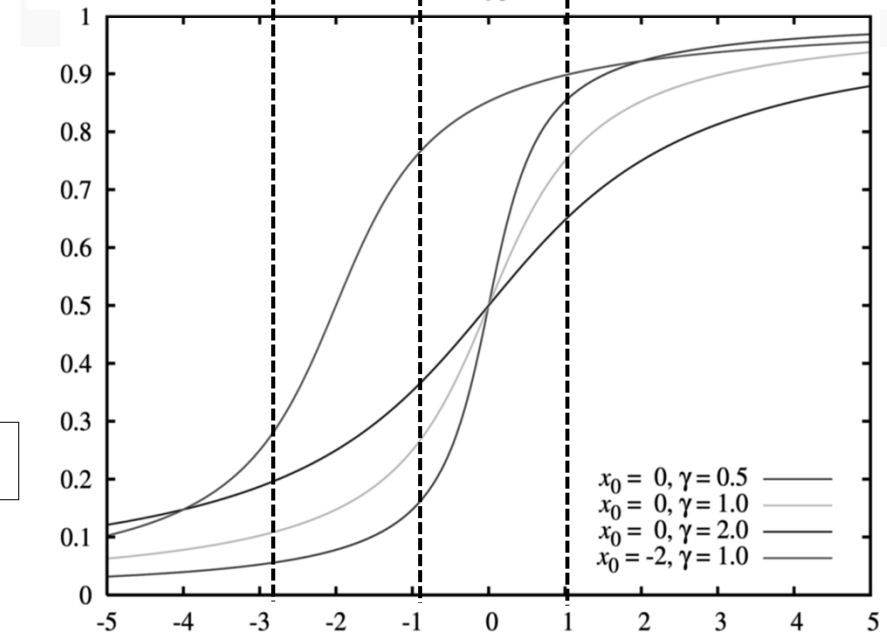
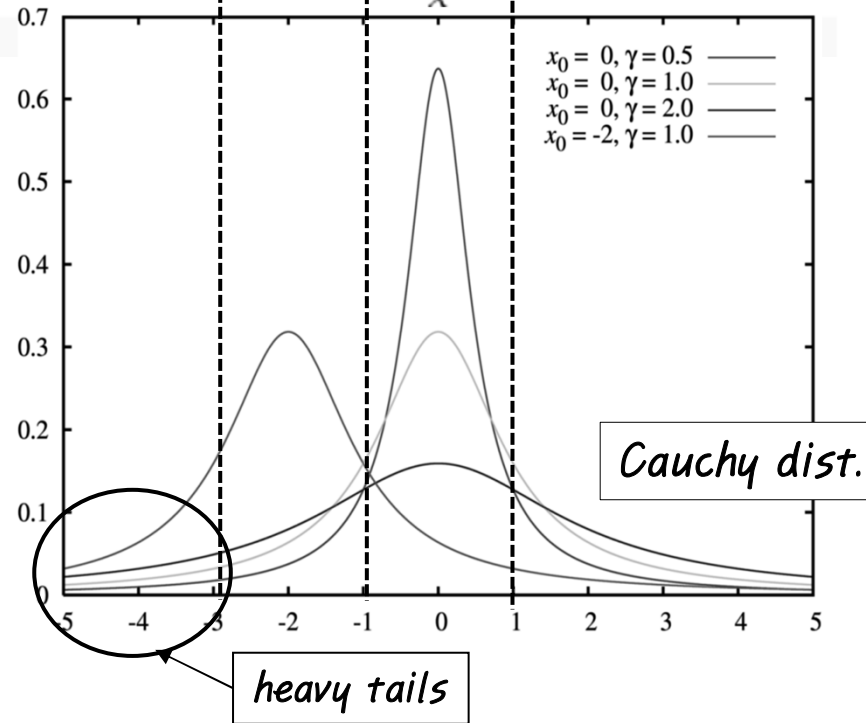
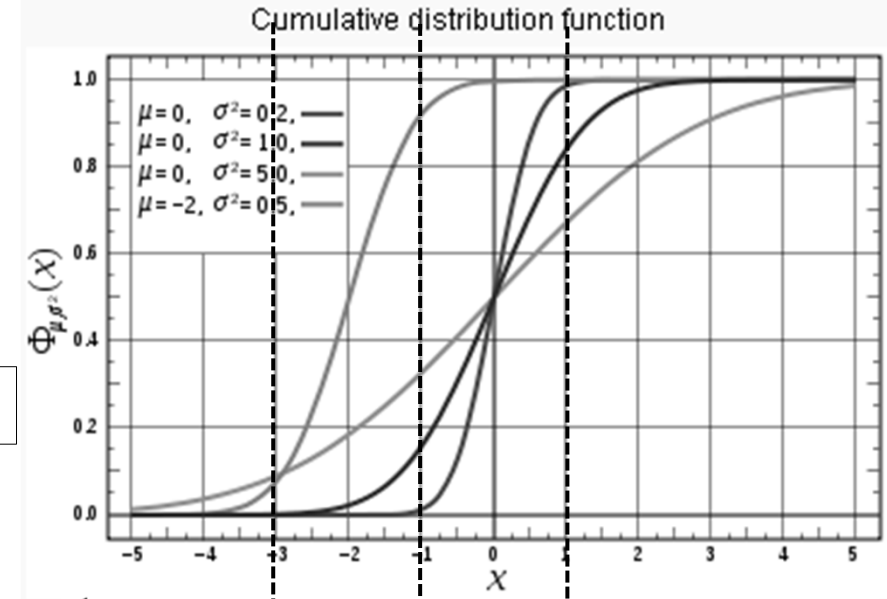
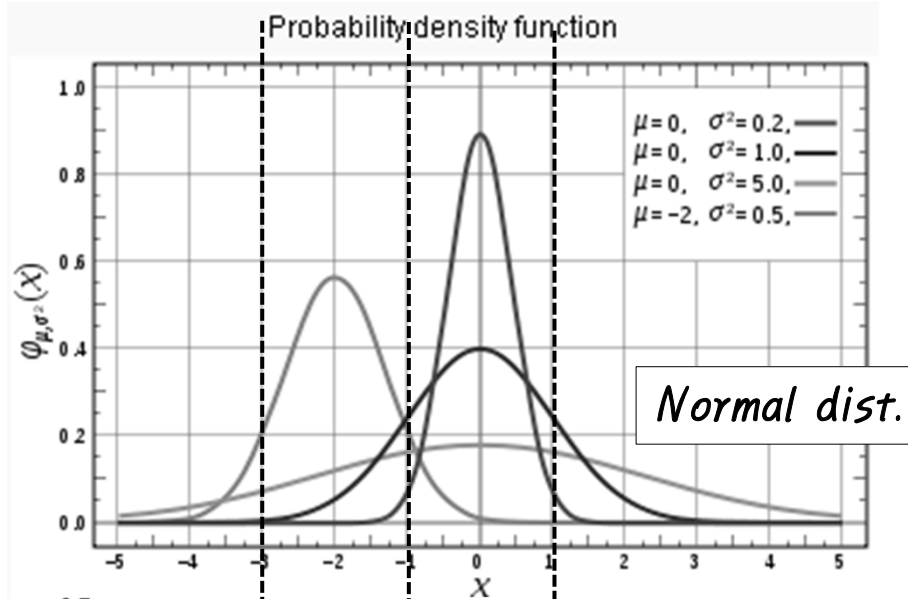
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2}, \text{ for } -\infty < x < \infty.$$

$$f(x; x_0, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\pi\gamma \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{x - x_0}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right]} = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\gamma}{(x - x_0)^2 + \gamma^2} \right]$$

$$f(x; 0, 1) = \frac{1}{\pi(1 + x^2)}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$



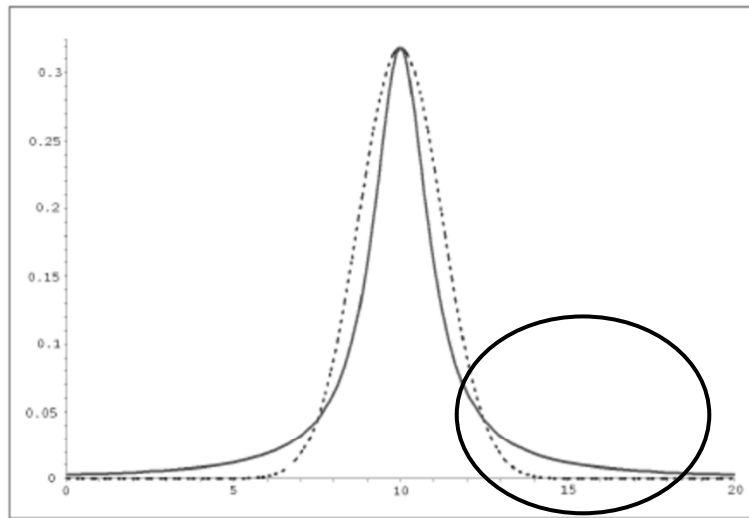


Figure 1: Solid red curve is a Cauchy density function with  $z_0=10$  and  $b=1$ . The dashed curve is a Gaussian with the same peak as the Gaussian ( $1/\pi$ ) with mean=10 and variance =  $\pi/2$ . The Cauchy has heavier tails.

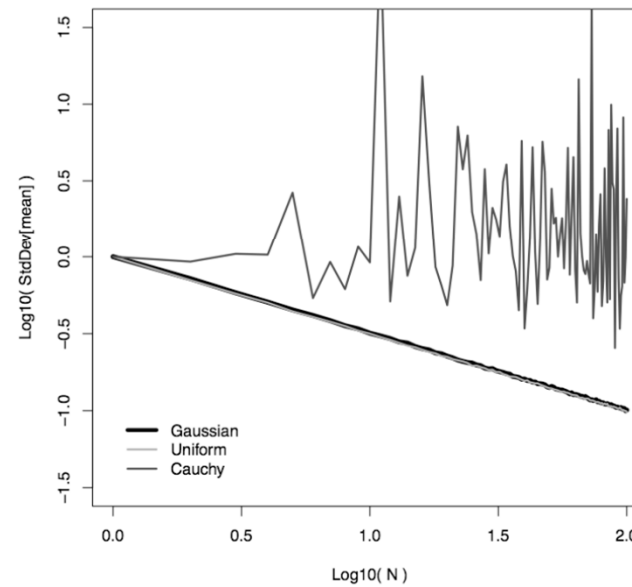
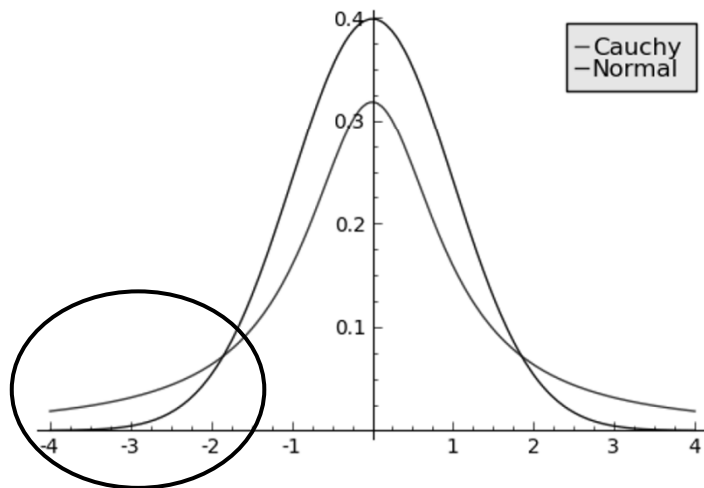


Figure 2: standard-deviation of the sample mean for sample sizes  $N = 1,2,3...100$  drawn from three popular distributions. All estimates are scaled to have standard-deviation = 1 at sample size  $N = 1$ .