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great by
deeds, not by
birth"

-Chanakya

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**ANOVA with two timescale stochastic approximation for estimating
Variance of Conditional Expectation**

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ANOVA with two timescale stochastic approximation for estimating Variance of Conditional Expectation

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Abstract

The ANOVA method is of value to detect if a population, consisting of labelled sub-populations, has any statistically significant support for considering such labels as valid. In classical ANOVA, the effect of a variable in each sub-population is treated as a Conditional Expectation (CE), and the variance of such CE among the sub-populations has a bearing on whether the null hypothesis can be rejected or not. ANOVA formulae can therefore be used to estimate the Variance of CE (Var-of-CE) itself, and a fairly recent publication has proposed a method wherein a fixed number of samples in each sub-population is used to estimate Var-of-CE. This method assumes repeated sampling of both sub-populations and samples within them, and have designed provably unbiased estimators of Var-of-CE, with one of these being approximately minimum variance under some conditions. Combined with another more recent method, such methods have disadvantages, such as requiring a pilot simulation, or suffering an empirically-observed Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) that is unfavourable. The work explained here proposes an ANOVA estimator for Var-of-CE that requires an increasing number of samples from each subpopulation. Yet, the estimator reduces the empirically-observed MSE in Var-of-CE estimate in 3 benchmark experiments from the literature.

I. Introduction

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique is used extensively in statistical methods to understand whether effect τ_k of an alternate hypothesis has a dominating impact on error $\epsilon_{k,j}$, which is the noise in observation j that belong to a sub-population k . The samples drawn are $X_{k,j}$ where each $X_{k,j} = \mu + \tau_k + \epsilon_{k,j}$, in which μ is expectation of $X_{k,j}$ over all effects k (representing the outer loop of the simulation) and inner loop samples j . In particular, $\mu = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty, n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{nK} \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^n X_{k,j}$. Note that we have assumed n corresponding to an outer loop iteration k to be fixed, but in general it can be an integer n_k dependant on k . Thus K sub-populations are considered in the outer loop of the simulation, while within each sub-population k , n_k samples are considered in the inner loop.

The standard formulas used in ANOVA to estimate Var-of-CE, the quantity below with notation $\hat{\sigma}_\tau^2$, are written as follows:

$$SS_\epsilon = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} (X_{k,j} - \bar{X}_k)^2 \text{ where } \bar{X}_k := \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} X_{k,j}$$

$$SS_\tau = \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot (\bar{X}_k - \bar{X})^2, \text{ where } \bar{X} := \frac{1}{C} \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot \bar{X}_k, \text{ and } C := \sum_{k=1}^K n_k$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2 = \frac{SS_\epsilon}{C - K} \tag{1}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_\tau^2 = \frac{SS_\tau - (K - 1) \cdot \hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2}{C - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K n_k^2}{C}} \tag{2}$$

We have used the notation in [1, (6)-(8)], where a simple derivation of the above formulas is also given.

We consider situations where $K \rightarrow \infty$. Note that classical single-factor ANOVA considers finite K and $F = \frac{(\frac{SS_\tau}{K-1})}{\hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2}$ is used as the F -statistic with $(K - 1, C - K)$ degrees of freedom. If this $F \geq F_\alpha$, where α is a

statistical significance level that depends on degrees of freedom, then the null hypothesis is rejected. Note the requirement that it is sufficient for an unbiased estimator that 1. $K \rightarrow \infty$ as $C \rightarrow \infty$ - so that estimator $\hat{\sigma}_\tau^2$ has lower variance - and 2. as $K \rightarrow \infty$ (therefore $k \rightarrow \infty$ also), we require $n_k \rightarrow \infty$ to result in lower bias. This implies that a static sampling budget C , which assures nearly unbiased and minimal-variance behaviour, could be such that $K \gg 0$ and $n_k = N \gg 0$. We utilise this scheme to structure K , $\{n_k\}_{k=1}^K$ to satisfy the above conditions such that 1. $\sum_{k=1}^K n_k \leq C$ while $\sum_{k=1}^{K+1} n_k \leq C$, and 2. $n_k = k^\alpha$, $\alpha > 0$, respectively. The value of α will be further filtered to also satisfy the conditions of two-timescale stochastic approximation.

A. Survey of Literature

Recent work [1] has proposed a one-and-half level nested simulation where a pilot experiment, costing about 20% of sampling budget C , calculates an approximation to the optimal n^* , with $n_k = n^*$ for all k . Here n^* is inner loop size that results in a minimum-variance Var-of-CE estimator $\hat{\sigma}_M^2$, under the conditions that i. $n_k = n$, i.e. n_k is a fixed integer n for all $k \leq K$, such that ii. number of subpopulations $K \rightarrow \infty$. More recently, [2], proposed an easier estimator that required only a one level simulation such that $n_k = 2$, $\forall k \leq K$. The advantage with the algorithm in [2] is that it doesn't require a pilot simulation unlike [1]. After establishing that the algorithm is unbiased, [2] test their work on 3 experiments where closed-form value of σ_τ^2 is known and thus a diminishing root mean square error (RMSE) is observed against sampling budget C . In contrast, [1] use a Delta Hedging example from finance where variance of estimator $\hat{\sigma}_\tau^2$ in different experiments is recorded, to indicate a low variance when $n_k = n^*$, and higher variances when $n_k = n \neq n^*$, for different C . Notice that RMSE in [1, (10)] is $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{C}})$ asymptotically despite $n_k = n^*$, i.e. samples drawn from sub-populations k being bounded in number. Notice also that this claim holds true for ANOVA-based Var-of-CE estimator (1)-(2) above.

Note that rate of convergence being $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{C}})$ would also depend on the method of apportioning K and n_k . For example, one such scheme could be $K = \sqrt{C}$, while $n_k = n$, with $n = \sqrt{C}$. Such a scheme of apportioning, since $n_k = n$, $\forall k$, would nevertheless have the desirable property of RMSE converging at rate $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{C}})$. Also note in this scheme that as $C \rightarrow \infty$, we have $K \rightarrow \infty$ and $n \rightarrow \infty$, for better properties of the ANOVA Var-of-CE estimator. However, since n_k , $\forall k$, must be calculated upfront, the sampling budget C must also be declared apriori and is therefore not sequential in nature. Separately, experimental performance indicates $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{C}})$ or better RMSE convergence for ANOVA and 2TS-ANOVA, since these have a lower RMSE than the estimator in [2], as seen below in the results section.

II. Proposed Algorithm: 2TS-ANOVA

The proposed algorithm in this work is to calculate an additional term $\tilde{\bar{X}}_k$ which is a critic, updated over n_k samples, for an imaginary actor recursion. The actor role is also played by \bar{X}_k , with the constraint that its value is evaluated only at the k -th outer loop instance. The requirement in 2TS algorithms is that changes in actor parameter converge to 0 as $k \rightarrow \infty$, note that $\tilde{\bar{X}}_k \rightarrow \bar{X}$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ irrespective of any structure on n_k . Therefore the claim is that $\tilde{\bar{X}}_k$ converges to \bar{X} at the rate $\frac{1}{k}$ and a critic recursion may be designed around this. This critic recursion would also be the calculation of $\tilde{\bar{X}}_k$, however at a more granular number of samples, $N_k = \sum_{s=1}^k n_s$, with n_s suitably chosen.

The principles of two-timescale actor-critic stochastic approximation algorithms were first proposed in [3]. Note that in [3], it is required to have separating updating stepsizes for both actor and critic algorithms. The specific variant of two-timescale algorithm used here is referred to as a Type-1 algorithm described in [4]. To give an illustration of what an updating stepsize is, assume that $n_k = n$, $\forall k$, and note the recursion $\bar{X}_k := \bar{X}_{k-1} + \frac{1}{k} \cdot (\bar{X}_k - \bar{X}_{k-1})$ for $\bar{X}_k \rightarrow \bar{X}$ used above. In this illustration, $\frac{1}{k}$ is the updating stepsize and also suits the context where \bar{X} is calculated as an average of \bar{X}_k .

The formulas used in 2TS-ANOVA are proposed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{S}S_\epsilon &= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} (X_{k,j} - \tilde{X}_k)^2, \text{ where } \tilde{X}_k := \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{m=1}^k n_m \cdot \bar{X}_m, \text{ and } N_k := \sum_{m=1}^k n_m \\ \tilde{S}S_\tau &= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot (\bar{X}_k - \tilde{X}_k)^2 \\ \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\sigma}_\tau^2 \\ \hat{\sigma}_\epsilon^2 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{k-1} n_m^2 + (N_k - n_k)^2}{N_k^2} & \sum_{k=1}^K \left(1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k}\right)^2 + \frac{n_k \cdot N_{k-1}}{N_k^2} \\ \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{k-1} n_m^2 + (N_k - n_k)^2}{N_k^2} & \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot \frac{N_k(N_k - 1)}{N_k^2} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{S}S_\tau \\ \tilde{S}S_\epsilon \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

The method of calculating coefficients is similar to the treatment in [1, (6)-(8)].

We denote these calculations below:

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{S}S_\epsilon &= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} (X_{k,j} - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^{N_k} X_{s_1,s_2})^2, \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} (\mu + \tau_k + \epsilon_{k,j} - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^{N_k} (\mu + \tau_{s_1} + \epsilon_{s_1,s_2}))^2, \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} (\tau_k + \epsilon_{k,j} - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^{N_k} (\tau_{s_1} + \epsilon_{s_1,s_2}))^2, \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} (\tau_k - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^k n_s \tau_s + \epsilon_{k,j} - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^{N_k} \epsilon_{s_1,s_2})^2, \\
E(\tilde{S}S_\epsilon) &= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} E(\tau_k - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^k n_s \tau_s)^2 + E(\epsilon_{k,j} - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^{N_k} \epsilon_{s_1,s_2})^2 \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} ((1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k})\tau_k - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} n_s \tau_s)^2 + ((1 - \frac{1}{N_k})\epsilon_{k,j} - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{s=1, (s_1,s_2) \neq (k,j)}^{N_k} \epsilon_{s_1,s_2})^2 \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} ((1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k})^2 - \frac{1}{N_k^2} \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} n_s^2) \sigma_M^2 + ((1 - \frac{1}{N_k})^2 + \frac{1}{N_k^2} (N_k - 1)) \sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{k-1} n_s^2 + (N_k - n_k)^2}{N_k^2} \sigma_M^2 + \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} \frac{(N_k - 1)^2 + (N_k - 1)}{N_k^2} \sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{k-1} n_s^2 + (N_k - n_k)^2}{N_k^2} \sigma_M^2 + \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \frac{N_k(N_k - 1)}{N_k^2} \sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
\tilde{S}S_\tau &= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k (\bar{X}_k - \tilde{X}_k)^2, \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k (\frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} X_{k,j} - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{j=1}^{N_k} X_{j_1,j_2})^2, \\
E(\tilde{S}S_\tau) &= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot E((\tau_k - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{j=1}^k n_j \tau_j) + (\bar{\epsilon}_k - \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{j=1}^k n_j \bar{\epsilon}_j))^2, \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot \left(((1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k})^2 + \frac{1}{N_k^2} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} n_j^2) \cdot \sigma_M^2 + ((1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k})^2 \frac{1}{n_k} + \frac{1}{N_k^2} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} n_j) \cdot \sigma_\epsilon^2 \right), \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot ((1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k})^2 + \frac{1}{N_k^2} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} n_j^2) \cdot \sigma_M^2 + \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot ((1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k})^2 \frac{1}{n_k} + \frac{1}{N_k^2} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} n_j) \cdot \sigma_\epsilon^2, \\
&= \sum_{k=1}^K n_k \cdot \frac{((N_k - n_k)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} n_j^2)}{N_k^2} \cdot \sigma_M^2 + \sum_{k=1}^K ((1 - \frac{n_k}{N_k})^2 + \frac{n_k \cdot N_{k-1}}{N_k^2}) \cdot \sigma_\epsilon^2.
\end{aligned}$$

The method of calculating coefficients is similar to the treatment in [1, (6)-(8)].

III. Results

Consider Experiment 3 of [2] as the first example, and $n_k = \lceil k^{0.51} \rceil$, where 0.51 is used such that $n_k \rightarrow \infty$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ (a requirement in [3]). The outcome in Experiments 1-2 of [2] also indicate advantage for the

2TS-ANOVA algorithm, with performance of algorithm in [2] in Experiment 3 also plotted for reference below. The second graph below is to compare the variance of ANOVA and ANOVA-2TS in the Delta Hedging setting of [1]. The measured variance is equivalent for lower sampling budgets - with a slight edge for ANOVA-2TS - but becomes indistinguishable later.

We describe the 3 experiments from [2] as follows: in the first experiment, a random variable Y_k is sampled from the distribution $\beta(4, 4)$, then samples $\{X_{k,j}\}_{j=1}^{n_k}$ are sampled from $N(Y_k, \sqrt{0.5})$. Note that for the method of [2], $n_k = 2, \forall k$. For the second experiment, Y_k is sampled as in the first experiment, but samples $\{X_{k,j}\}_{j=1}^{n_k}$ are drawn from $N(Y_k, Y_k)$. In the third example, the inner-loop samples $\{X_{k,j}\}_{j=1}^{n_k}$ are drawn from exponential distribution as $\text{EXP}(\frac{1}{Y_k+1})$. Experimental results of all 3 experiments are included here, over 10000 simulations each, and are compared with [2] algorithm.

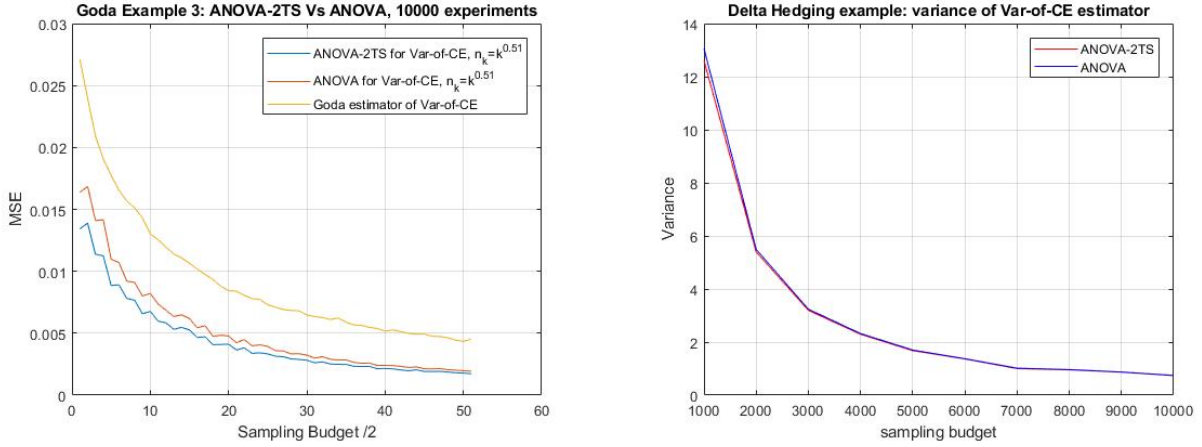


Fig. 1. Performance of ANOVA Vs 2TS-ANOVA in Example 3 of [2] and [1]

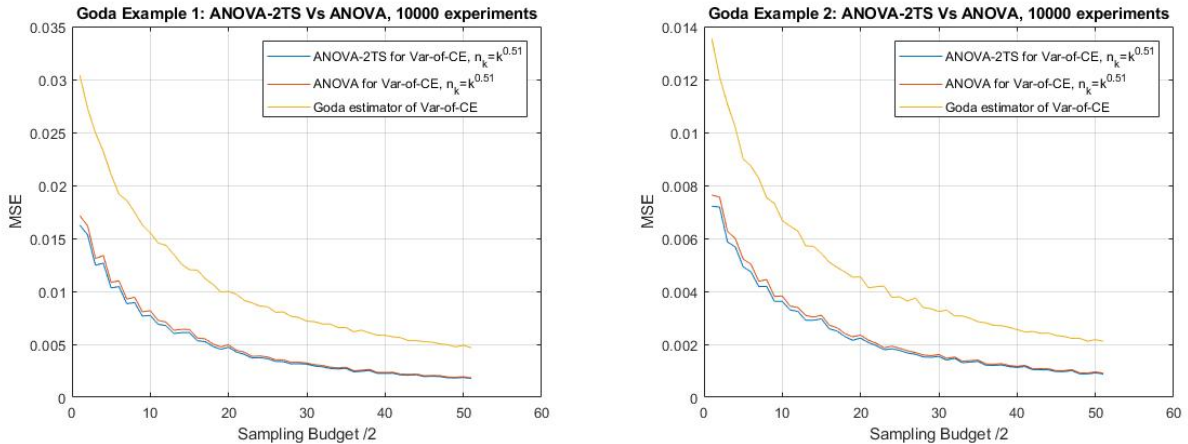


Fig. 2. Performance of ANOVA Vs 2TS-ANOVA in Examples 1 and 2 of [2]

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