

Chapter 1

Introduction to Statistics and Data Analysis

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1.1 Overview

- Success of Statistical Methods
- Statistical Inference
 - Samples
 - Populations
 - Experimental Design
- Statistics and Data Analysis

Success of Statistical Methods

- Beginning in the 1980s
- The use of statistical methods in
 - Manufacturing
 - Development of food products
 - Computer software
 - Pharmaceuticals
 - Many other areas
- Examples
 - Improvement of quality in American industry
 - Japanese “industrial miracle”: High-quality products

Inferential Statistics

- Collecting scientific (commercial) data or information in a systematic way with planning. Data provide understanding of scientific phenomena.
- Information is gathered in the form of samples, or collections of observations. Samples are collected from populations.
- Scientists or engineers often focus only on certain properties of objects in the population, and seeks to learn about the population.
- Example
 - An engineer may need to study the effect of process conditions, temperature, humidity, amount of a particular ingredient, ...

Statistics and Data Analysis

- Data analysis: center of location, variability, and general nature of the distribution of observations in the sample.
- Offspring of inferential statistics: a large of “Toolbox” of statistical methods which are used to make scientific judgments in face of uncertainty and variation.
- Modern statistical software packages allow for computation of means, medians, standard deviations.
- Graphical methods include histograms, stem and leaf plots, dot plots, and box plots.

Role of Probability

- Concepts in probability form a major component that supplements statistical methods and help **estimate the strength of the statistical inference**.
- Example 1.1
 - In a manufacturing process, 100 items are sampled and 10 are found to be defective.
 - However, in the long run, the company can only tolerate 5% defective in the process.
 - Suppose we learn that if the process is acceptable, i.e., if it does produce items 5% of which are defective, there is a probability of 0.0282 of obtaining 10 or more defective items in a random sample of 100 items from the process.
 - The **small probability** suggests that the process indeed have a **long-run defective exceeding 5%**.
 - Probability aids in translation of sample information into conclusions.

Role of Probability

- Example 1.2
 - Study the development of a relationship between the roots of trees and the action of a fungus (真菌).
 - Minerals are transferred from the fungus to the trees and sugars from the trees to the fungus.
 - Does the use of nitrogen influence stem weight?
 - Experimental Design: Two samples of 10 northern red oak seedlings (幼苗) are planted in a greenhouse, one containing seedlings treated with nitrogen and one containing no nitrogen.
 - All other environmental conditions are held constant.

Role of Probability

- Example 1.2

- The stem weights in grams were recorded after the end of 140 days.
- 4 nitrogen observations are larger than any of the no-nitrogen observations.
- Most of the no-nitrogen observations appear to be below the center of the data.
- Would the data set indicate that nitrogen is effective?
- How can this can be quantified or summarized in some sense ?

| No nitrogen | Nitrogen |
|-------------|----------|
| 0.32 | 0.26 |
| 0.53 | 0.43 |
| 0.28 | 0.47 |
| 0.37 | 0.49 |
| 0.47 | 0.52 |
| 0.43 | 0.75 |
| 0.36 | 0.79 |
| 0.42 | 0.86 |
| 0.38 | 0.62 |
| 0.43 | 0.46 |

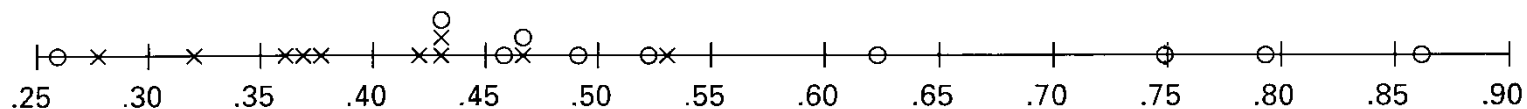


Figure 1.1 Stem weight data.

Role of Probability

- For a statistical problem, the sample along with inferential statistics allow us to draw conclusions about the population, with inferential statistics making clear use of elements of probability.
- Problems in probability allow us to draw conclusions about characteristics of hypothetical (假設的) data taken from the population based on known features of the population.

1.2 Sampling Procedures

- The importance of **proper sampling** revolves around the degree of confidence with which the analyst is able to answer the questions being asked.
- Simple **random sampling** implies that any particular sample of a specified sample size has the same chance of being selected as any other sample of the same size.
- **Biased sample**: Simple random sampling is not always proper.
 - Example: A sample is chosen to answer certain questions regarding political preferences in a certain state in the U.S. Now, suppose that all or nearly all of the 1,000 sampling families chosen live in urban (vs. rural) areas.
- To characterize and quantify **measures of variability** is very important in inferential statistics.

1.3 Measures of Location: Sample Mean and Median

- Location measures in a data set are designed to provide some quantitative measure of where the data center is in a sample.
 - The observations in a sample are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .
 - The sample mean is $\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{n} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$
 - The sample median is $\tilde{x} = \begin{cases} x_{(n+1)/2} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \\ \frac{x_{n/2} + x_{n/2+1}}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$
- Example: If the data set is the following: 1.7, 2.2, 3.11, 3.9, and 14.7, then $\bar{x} = 5.72$, $\tilde{x} = 3.11$
- The computation of \bar{x} is the basis of an **estimate of the population mean** in statistical inference.

Other Measures of Locations

- A trimmed mean is computed by “trimming away” a certain percent of both the largest and smallest set of values.
- Example
 - The 10% trimmed mean is found by eliminating the largest 10% and smallest 10% and computing the average of the remaining values.
 - So, for the with nitrogen group the 10% trimmed mean is

| No nitrogen | Nitrogen |
|-------------|-----------------|
| 0.32 | 0.26 |
| 0.53 | 0.43 |
| 0.28 | 0.47 |
| 0.37 | 0.49 |
| 0.47 | 0.52 |
| 0.43 | 0.75 |
| 0.36 | 0.79 |
| 0.42 | 0.86 |
| 0.38 | 0.62 |
| 0.43 | 0.46 |

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x}_{tr(10)} &= \frac{0.43 + 0.47 + 0.49 + 0 + 0.75 + 0.79 + 0.62 + 0.46}{8} \\ &= 0.56625\end{aligned}$$

1.4 Measure of Variability

- Process and product variability is a fact of life in engineering and scientific systems: **the control or reduction of process variability** is often a source of major difficulty.
- The sample range, $X_{max} - X_{min}$, has applications in the area of **statistical quality control**.
- The sample variance is donated by $s^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}$
- The sample standard deviation is donated by

$$s = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$$

Measure of Variability

- Example 1.4: An engineer is interested in testing the “bias” in a PH meter. Data are collected on the meter by measuring the PH of a neutral substance ($H = 7.0$). A sample of size 10 is taken with results given by

| | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|
| 7.07 | 7.00 | 7.10 | 6.97 | 7.00 |
| 7.03 | 7.01 | 7.01 | 6.98 | 7.08 |

$$\bar{x} = \frac{7.07 + 7.00 + 7.10 + \dots + 7.08}{10} = 7.0205$$

$$s^2 = \frac{(7.07 - 7.0205)^2 + (7.00 - 7.0205)^2 + (7.10 - 7.0205)^2 + \dots + (7.08 - 7.0205)^2}{10 - 1}$$
$$= 0.001939$$

$$s = \sqrt{0.00193} = 0.0440$$

Measure of Variability

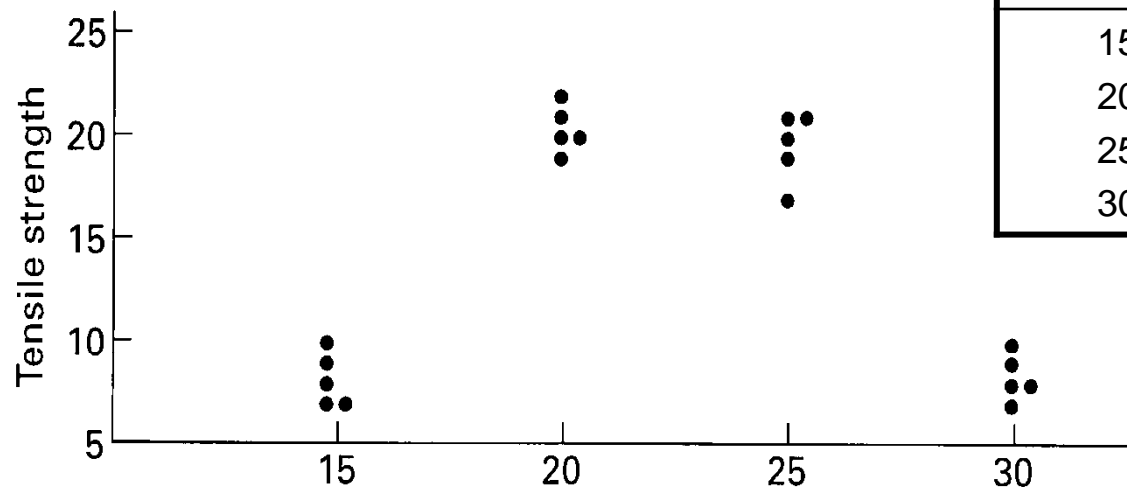
- In the context of statistical inference
 - Usually, focus on drawing conclusions about characteristics of populations, called population parameters.
 - Population mean and population variance are two important parameters.
 - The sample mean plays an explicit role to draw inferences about the population mean.
 - The sample variance (standard deviation) plays an explicit role to draw inferences about the population variance (standard deviation).

1.6 Statistical Modeling, Scientific Inspection, and Graphical Diagnostics

- The result of a statistical analysis is the estimation of parameters of a postulated (假設的) model.
- A statistical model is **not deterministic** but, rather, must entail (意味著) some probabilistic aspects.
- A model form is often the foundation of assumptions that are made by the analyst.
 - Example 1.2 scientists draw some distinction between “nitrogen” and “no-nitrogen” populations through the sample information.
 - The analysis may require a certain model for the data, e.g., normal (Gaussian) distributions (see Chapter 6).

Statistical Modeling, Scientific Inspection, and Graphical Diagnostics

- Some simple **graphics (plots)** can shed important light on the **clear distinction between the samples**, e.g., means and variability.
- Often, plots can illustrate information that sometimes are not retrieved from the formal analysis.



| Cotton percentage | Tensile strength |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 15 | 7, 7, 9, 8, 10 |
| 20 | 19, 20, 21, 20, 22 |
| 25 | 21, 21, 17, 19, 20 |
| 30 | 8, 7, 8, 9, 10 |

Figure 1.5 Plot of tensile strength and cotton percentages.

Statistical Modeling, Scientific Inspection, and Graphical Diagnostics

- It is likely that the scientist anticipates the existence of a maximum population mean tensile strength.
- Here the analysis of the data should revolve around a **different type of model**, whose **structure** relating the population mean tensile strength to the cotton concentration.
 - E.g., a regression model $\mu_{t,c} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 C + \beta_2 C^2$ where $\mu_{t,c}$ is the population mean of tensile strength, which varies with the amount of cotton in the product C .
 - The use of an **empirical model** is accompanied by **estimation theory**, where $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ are estimated by the data.

Statistical Modeling, Scientific Inspection, and Graphical Diagnostics

- The **type of model** used to describe the data often depends on the **goal of the experiment**.
- The **structure** of the model should take advantage of nonstatistical scientific input.
- A **selection of a model** represents a **fundamental assumption** upon which the resulting **statistical inference** is based.
- Often, **plots (graphics)** can illustrate information that allows the results of the **formal statistical inference** to be better communicated to the scientist or engineer, and teach the analyst something not retrieved from the formal analysis.

Graphical Methods and Data Description

- Characterizing or **summarizing** the nature of collections of data is important.
- A summary of a collection of data via **a graphical display can provide insight** regarding the system from which the data were taken.
- Example

| Table 1.4 Car Battery Life | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 2.2 | 4.1 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 3.0 | 2.6 |
| 3.4 | 1.6 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 3.1 | 4.7 | 3.7 |
| | | | | | | | |

| Table 1.5 Stem and Leaf Plot of Battery Life | | |
|---|---------------------------|-----------|
| Stem | Leaf | Frequency |
| 1 | 69 | 2 |
| 2 | 25669 | 5 |
| 3 | 0011112223334445567778899 | 25 |
| 4 | 11234577 | 8 |

| Table 1.6 Double-Stem and Leaf Plot of Battery Life | | |
|--|-----------------|-----------|
| Stem | Leaf | Frequency |
| 1. | 69 | 2 |
| 2* | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | 5669 | 4 |
| 3* | 001111222333444 | 15 |
| 3. | 5567778899 | 10 |
| 4* | 11234 | 5 |
| 4. | 577 | 3 |

Usually, we choose between 5 and 20 stems.

Table 1.7 Relative Frequency Distribution of Battery Life

| Class interval | Class midpoint | Frequency, f | Relative Frequency |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 1.5-1.9 | 1.7 | 2 | 0.05 |
| 2.0-2.4 | 2.2 | 1 | 0.025 |
| 2.5-2.9 | 2.7 | 4 | 0.100 |
| 3.0-3.4 | 3.2 | 15 | 0.375 |
| 3.5-3.9 | 3.7 | 10 | 0.250 |
| 4.0-4.4 | 4.2 | 5 | 0.125 |
| 4.5-4.9 | 4.7 | 3 | 0.075 |

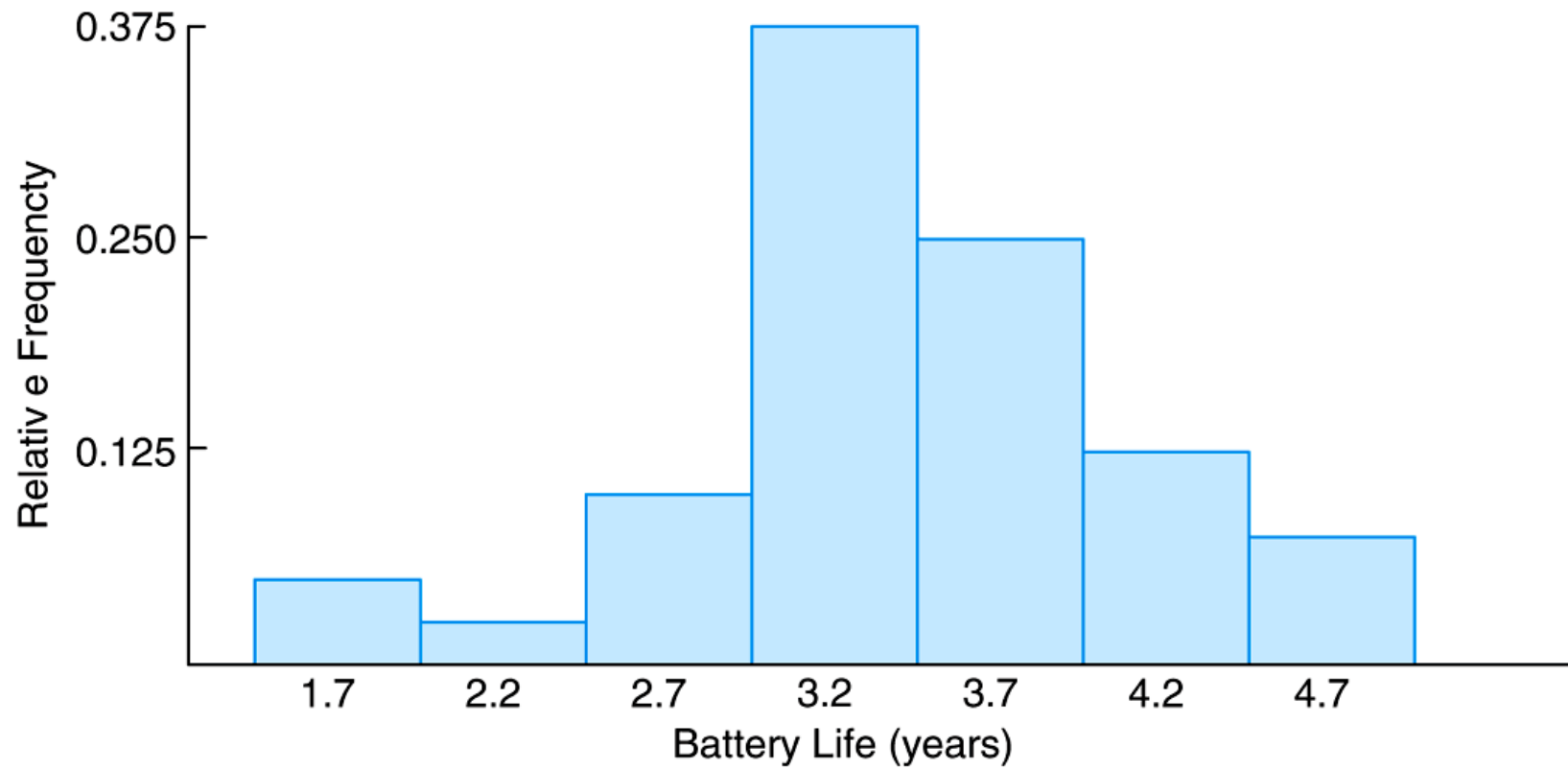


Figure 1.6 Relative frequency histogram

- Continuous frequency distribution in Figure 1.7:
Bell-shaped curve
- **Distribution** (probability distribution) is a property of the population (Chapters 5 & 6)

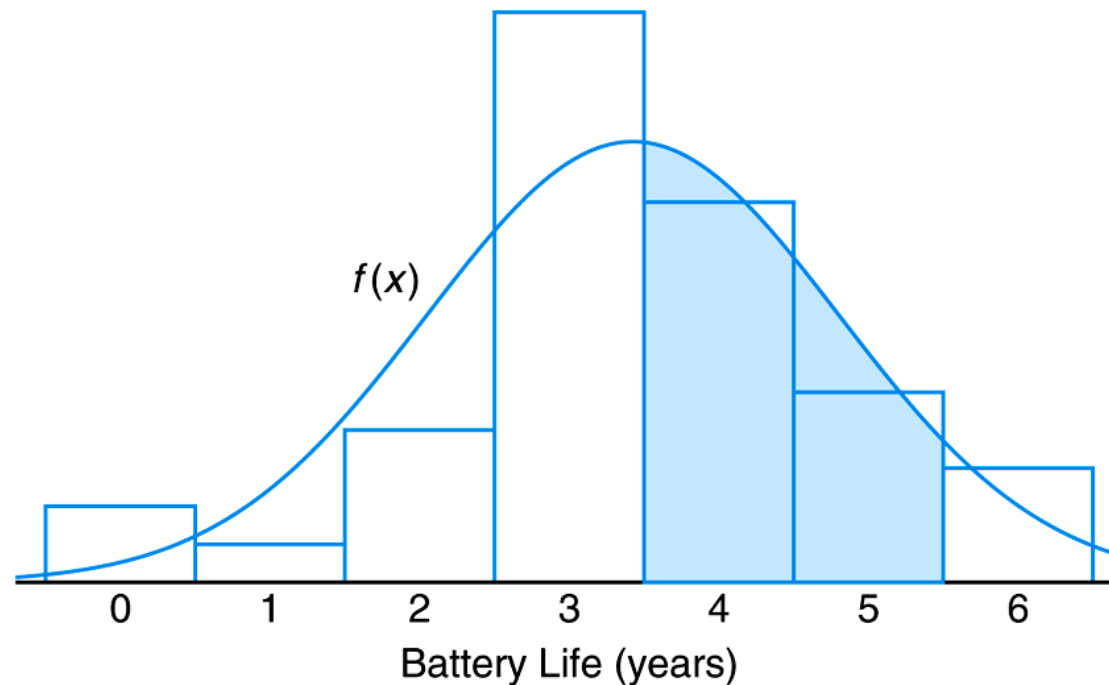


Figure 1.7 Estimating frequency distribution

- A distribution is **symmetric** if it can be folded along a vertical axis so that the two sides coincide, otherwise **skewed**.
- By rotating a stem and leaf plot counterclockwise through an angle of 90° , the resulting columns of leaves form a picture that is similar to a **histogram**.

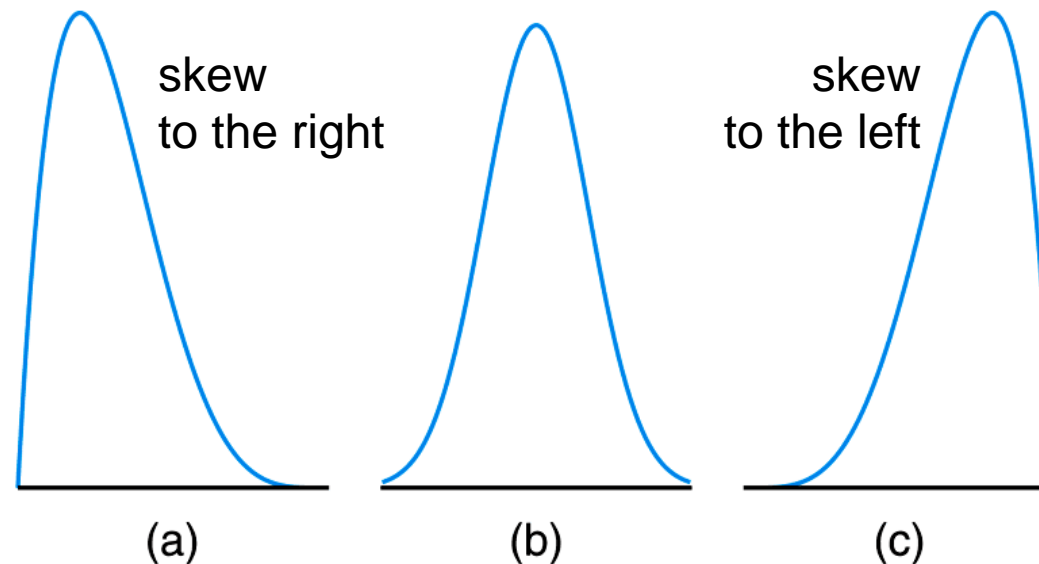


Figure 1.8 Skewness of data

| | | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1.09 | 1.92 | 2.31 | 1.79 | 2.28 | 1.74 | 1.47 | 1.97 |
| 0.85 | 1.24 | 1.58 | 2.03 | 1.70 | 2.17 | 2.55 | 2.11 |
| 1.86 | 1.90 | 1.68 | 1.51 | 1.64 | 0.72 | 1.69 | 1.85 |
| 1.82 | 1.79 | 2.46 | 1.88 | 2.08 | 1.67 | 1.37 | 1.93 |
| 1.40 | 1.64 | 2.09 | 1.75 | 1.63 | 2.37 | 1.75 | 1.69 |

Table 1.8 Nicotine Data for Example 1.5

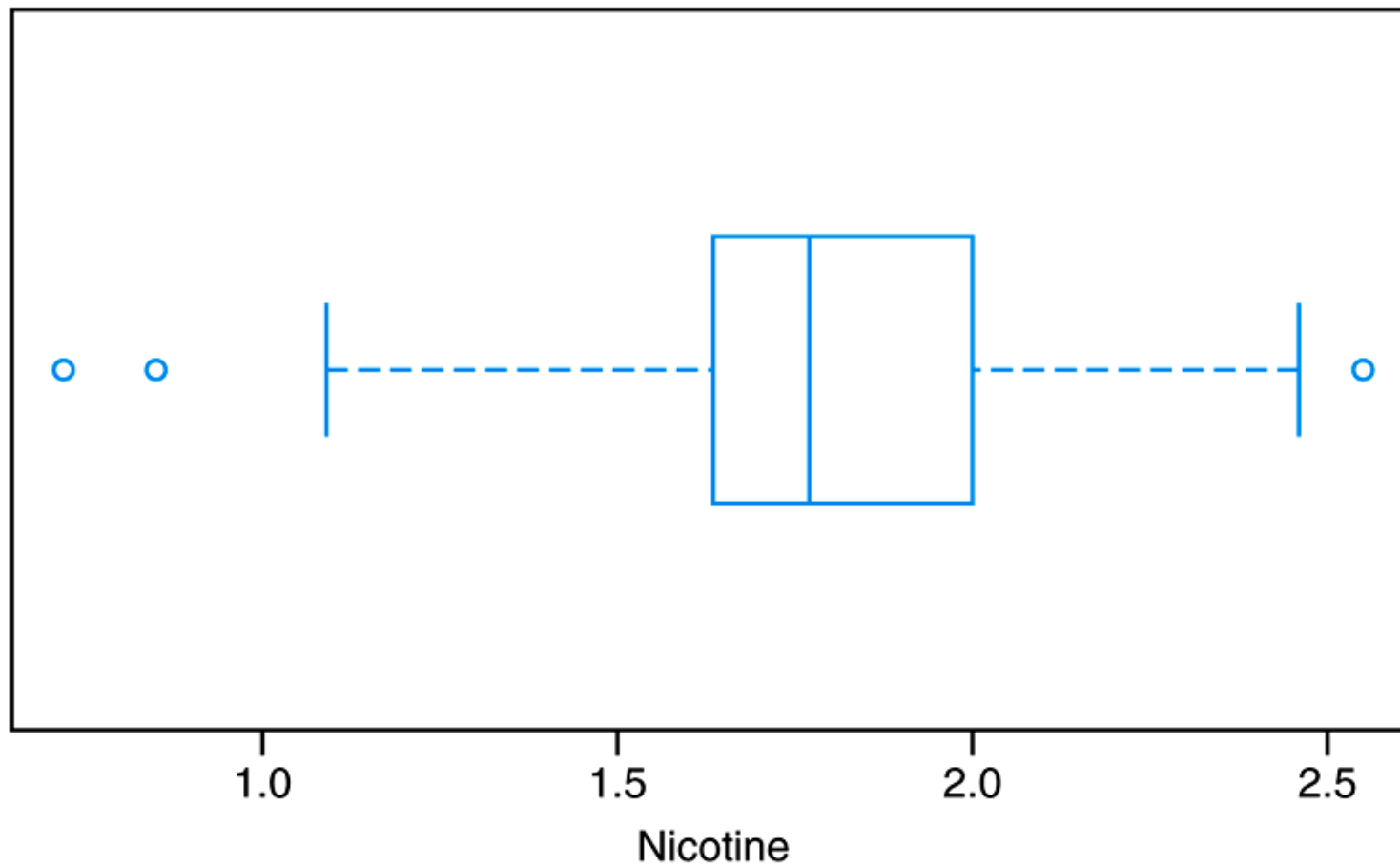


Figure 1.9 Box-and-whisker plot for Example 1.5

The decimal point is 1 digit(s) to the left of the |

| | | |
|----|--|---------|
| 7 | | 2 |
| 8 | | 5 |
| 9 | | |
| 10 | | 9 |
| 11 | | |
| 12 | | 4 |
| 13 | | 7 |
| 14 | | 07 |
| 15 | | 18 |
| 16 | | 3447899 |
| 17 | | 045599 |
| 18 | | 2568 |
| 19 | | 0237 |
| 20 | | 389 |
| 21 | | 17 |
| 22 | | 8 |
| 23 | | 17 |
| 24 | | 6 |
| 25 | | 5 |

Figure 1.10 Stem-and-Leaf plot for the nicotine data

| Sample | Measurements | Sample | Measurements |
|--------|----------------|--------|----------------|
| 1 | 29 36 39 34 34 | 16 | 35 30 35 29 37 |
| 2 | 29 29 28 32 31 | 17 | 40 31 38 35 31 |
| 3 | 34 34 39 38 37 | 18 | 35 36 30 33 32 |
| 4 | 35 37 33 38 41 | 19 | 35 34 35 30 36 |
| 5 | 30 29 31 38 29 | 20 | 35 35 31 38 36 |
| 6 | 34 31 37 39 36 | 21 | 32 36 36 32 36 |
| 7 | 30 35 33 40 36 | 22 | 36 37 32 34 34 |
| 8 | 28 28 31 34 30 | 23 | 29 34 33 37 35 |
| 9 | 32 36 38 38 35 | 24 | 36 36 35 37 37 |
| 10 | 35 30 37 35 31 | 25 | 36 30 35 33 31 |
| 11 | 35 30 35 38 35 | 26 | 35 30 29 38 35 |
| 12 | 38 34 35 35 31 | 27 | 35 36 30 34 36 |
| 13 | 34 35 33 30 34 | 28 | 35 30 36 29 35 |
| 14 | 40 35 34 33 35 | 29 | 38 36 35 31 31 |
| 15 | 34 35 38 35 30 | 30 | 30 34 40 28 30 |

Table 1.9 Data for Example 1.6

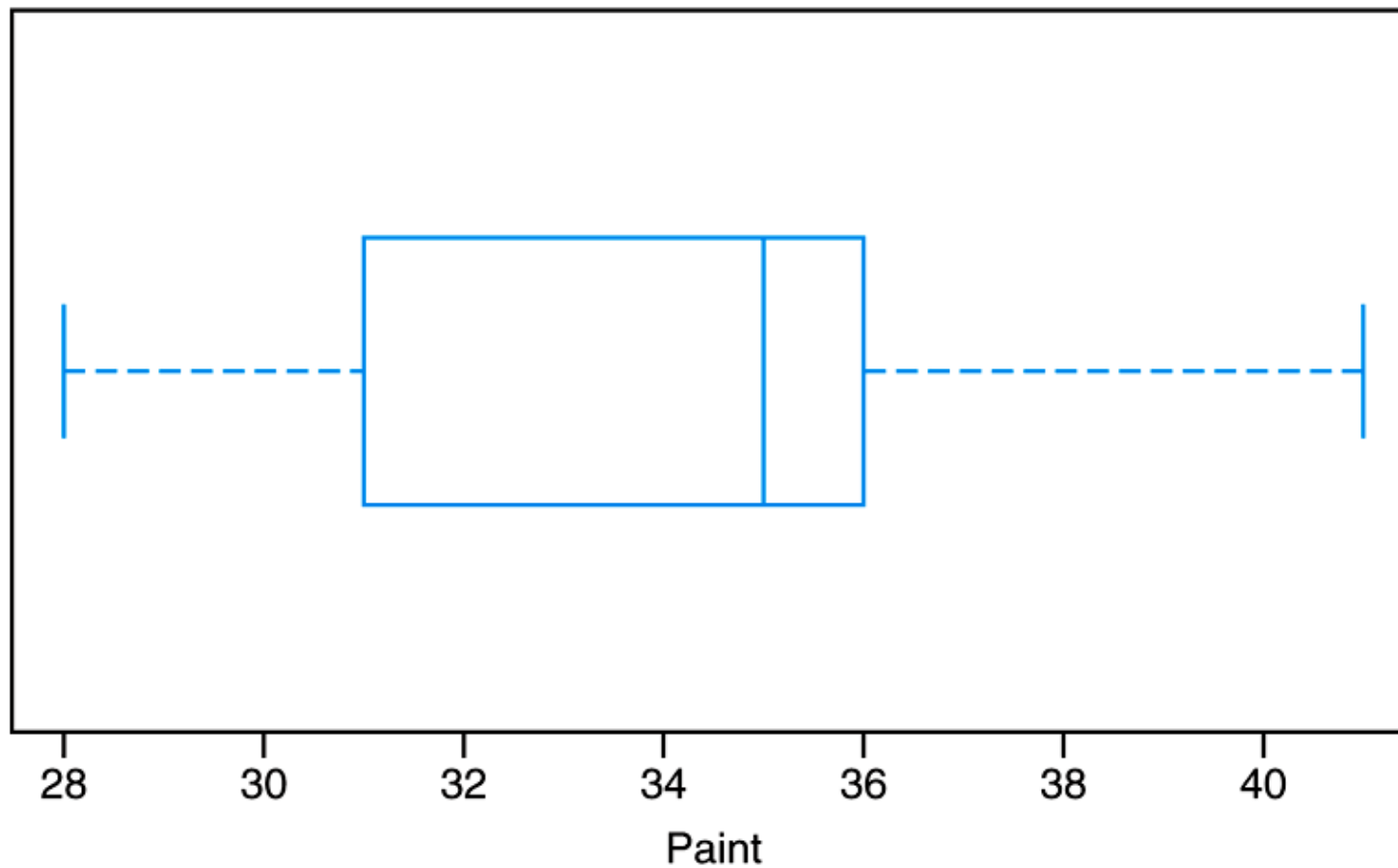


Figure 1.11 Box-and-whisker plot for thickness of paint can “ears”