# Part III — Statistics

## Based on lectures by Brian Notes taken by Dexter Chua

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These notes are not endorsed by the lecturers, and I have modified them (often significantly) after lectures. They are nowhere near accurate representations of what was actually lectured, and in particular, all errors are almost surely mine.

Contents III Statistics

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# 1 Representation and summary of data - location

## 1.1 Basic Concepts of Variable

**Definition** (Quantitative variables and Qualitative variables). Quantitative variable associated with numerical observation. Qualitative variables associated with non-numerical observations.

**Definition** (Continuous variable and discrete variable). Continuous variable can take ant value in given range. Discrete can take only specific values in a given range.

## 1.2 Grouped data

**Definition** (Grouped data). The groups are more commonly known as classes.

- class boundaries.
- mid-point of a class.
- class width.

Example. Example 5-6

**Definition** (Frequency and cumulative frequency). Number of anything; example is how many sheeps. It is sometimes helpful to add a column to the table showing the running total of the frequencies. This is called the cumulative frequency

**Definition** (Ungrouped data). Show all data

## 1.3 Mean, mode and median

**Definition** (Mode). The mode is the value that occurs most often

**Definition** (Median). n/2 term or 1 term above

**Definition** (Mean).

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$

## 1.4 Linear interpolation

Example. Example 14-15

#### 1.5 Coding

Example. pick 1 example

# 2 Representation and summary of data - measures of dispersion

## 2.1 Range and interquartile range

The list of formula:

- Range = Upper value - Lowest value

Example. example 3

## 2.2 Percentiles split the data into 100 parts

Example. example 4

## 2.3 Range and Interquartile range

Example (Linear Interpolation).

## 2.4 Variance and standard deviation

**Definition** (Variance). Let f stand for the frequency, then  $n = \sum f$  and

$$\text{Variance} = \frac{\sum f(x - \bar{x})^2}{\sum f} \text{ or } \frac{\sum fx^2}{\sum f} - (\frac{\sum fx^2}{\sum f})$$

# 2.5 Variance and standard deviation for grouped data Definition.

Example. example 7-8

#### 2.6 Coding

Example. example 9-11

## 3 Representation of data

## 3.1 Stem and Leaf diagrams

## 3.2 Outlier

**Definition.** An outlier is an extreme value that lies outside the overall pattern of the data.

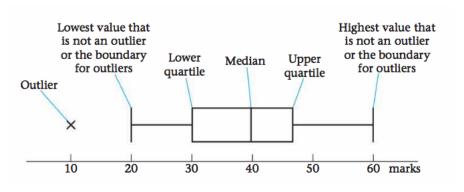
An outlier is any value, which is

greater than the upper quartile  $+1.5 \times \text{interquartile range}$ 

OR

less than the lower quartile  $+1.5 \times$  interquartile range

## 3.3 Box plot



## 3.4 Histogram

**Definition** (Frequency density).

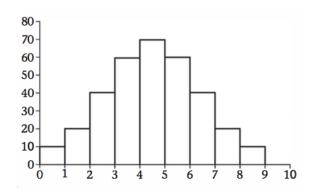
$$frequency\ density = \frac{frequency}{class\ width}$$

Example. 7

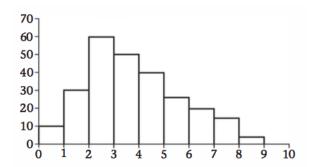
## 3.5 Skewness (Shape)

A distribution can be symmetrical , have positive skew or have negative skew

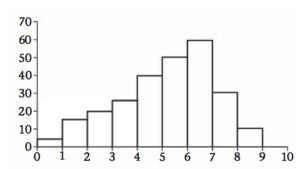
symmetrical 
$$Q_2 - Q_1 = Q_3 - Q_2$$
 or mode=median=mean



positive : $Q_2 - Q_1 < Q_3 - Q_2$  or mode<median<mean



negative : $Q_2 - Q_1 > Q_3 - Q_2$  or mode>median>mean



Or you can calculate:

$$\frac{3(\mathrm{mean}-\mathrm{median})}{\mathrm{SD}}$$

## 3.6 What!?

**Example.** example 10-12

Probability III Statistics

## 4 Probability

## 4.1 Classical Probability

## 4.2 Venn diagram and their rules

**Definition** (Complementary Probability).

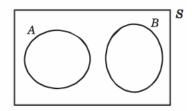
## 4.3 Conditional Probabilites

#### 4.3.1 Vann diagram

## 4.3.2 Tree diagram

## 4.4 Special Events of Probabilites

**Definition** (Mutually exclusive). When events have no outcomes in common, they are mutually exclusive.



There is no intersection of A and B, so  $P(A \cap B) = 0$ 

We can use  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  result is

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

**Definition** (Independent events). When one event has no effect on another, they are independent so P(A|B) = P(A)

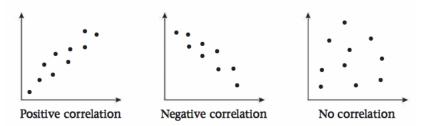
by 
$$\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = P(A)$$
 we have:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B) \times P(A)$$

## 5 Correlation III Statistics

## 5 Correlation

## 5.1 Correlation



## 5.2 Bivariate data

Recall this formula:

Variance = 
$$\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{n}$$

In correlation we write:

$$S_{xx} = \sum (x - \bar{x})^2$$

$$S_{yy} = \sum (y - \bar{y})^2$$

SO

Variance = 
$$\frac{S_{xx}}{n}$$

**Definition** (Co-Variance).

$$S_{xy} = \frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})(x - \bar{y})}{n}$$

## 5.3 Product moment Correlation coefficient r

$$r = \frac{S_{xy}}{\sqrt{S_{xx}S_{yy}}}$$

The value of r varies between -1 and 1

If r = 1, positive linear correlation

If r = -1, nagative linear correlation

If r = 0, no linear correlation

limitation:

## 5.4 Coding

does not effect  $\boldsymbol{r}$ 

6 Regression III Statistics

## 6 Regression

## 6.1 Linear

let y = a + bx be a regression line where

$$b = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_{xx}}$$
 and  $a = \bar{y} - b\bar{x}$ 

## 6.2 Coding

## 6.3 Interpolation and Extrapolation

## 7 Discrete random variables

## 7.1 Probability distribution

**Definition** (Mean / Expected value).

$$E(X) = \sum x p(x)$$

when we find  $E(X^n)$ :

$$E(X^n) = \sum x^n p(x)$$

**Definition** (Variable).

$$Var(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$$

The constant a and b affect on E(X) and Var(X)

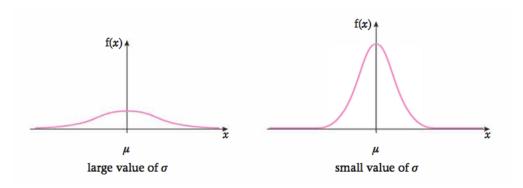
$$E(aX + b) = aE(x) + b$$

$$Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$$

**Definition** (Uniform distribution). The distribution is uniform when all the probabilities is the same of all values.

## 8 The normal distribution

 $Z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  represent the normal distribution.



The random variable X can be written as  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

you can transformed X to Z by this formula

$$z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Example. Example 8-9

## 9 Binomial distribution

## 9.1 Basic Concept

 $X \sim B(n,p)$  represent the Binomial distribution, then

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n - x}$$

## 9.2 Mean and Variance

If  $X \sim B(n, p)$  then

$$E(X) = \mu = np$$
$$Var(X) = \sigma^2 = np(1 - p)$$

Example. example 9-14

## 10 Poisson distribution

## 10.1 Basic Concepts

Recall the exponential function

$$e^x = 1 + \frac{x^1}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^r}{r!} + \dots$$

If you let  $x = \lambda$  and remember that  $\lambda^0 = 1$  this gives

$$e^{\lambda} = \lambda^{0} + \frac{\lambda^{1}}{1!} + \frac{\lambda^{2}}{2!} + \frac{\lambda^{3}}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\lambda^{r}}{r!} + \dots$$

Dividing by  $e^{\lambda}$  gives

$$\frac{e^{\lambda}}{e^{\lambda}} = \lambda^0 + \frac{\lambda^1 e^{-\lambda}}{1!} + \frac{\lambda^2 e^{-\lambda}}{2!} + \frac{\lambda^3 e^{-\lambda}}{3!} + \dots + \frac{\lambda^r e^{-\lambda}}{r!} + \dots$$

And the probability function is

$$P(X = x) = \frac{\lambda^x e^{-\lambda}}{x!}$$

We say that X has a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\lambda$  abd write

$$X \sim Po(\lambda)$$

#### 10.2 Mean and Variance

$$Var(X) = E(X) = \mu = \sigma^2 = \lambda$$

**Lemma.** If mean and standard deviation square is same, we usually use Poisson distribution.

Example. example 5-6

## 10.3 Approximate a Binomial with Poisson

If  $X \sim B(n, p)$  and

- n is large
- -p is small

then X can be approximated by

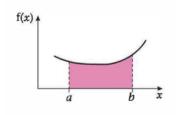
Example. example 7-8 9-10

## 11 Continuous random variables

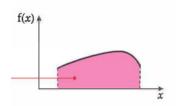
## 11.1 Continous random variable

The Continuous random variables with p.d.f f(x) satisfied the following properties:

- (i)  $f(x) \ge 0$  since we cannot have negative probabilities
- (ii)  $P(a < X < b) = \text{shaded area} = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$



(iii)  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$  since the area under the curve = 1.



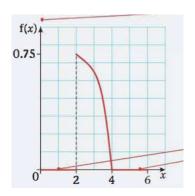
**Example.** The random variable X has probability density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} kx(4-x) & 2 \le x \le 4\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Find the value of k and sketch the p.d.f

Proof.

$$\int_{2}^{4} k(4x - x^{2}) dx = 1$$
$$k[2x^{2} - \frac{x^{3}}{3}]_{2}^{4} = 1$$
$$k = (\frac{3}{16})$$



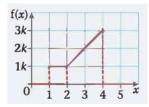
**Example.** The random variable X has probability density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} k & 1 < x < 2 \\ k(x-1) & 2 \le x \le 4 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Find the value of k and sketch the p.d.f

Proof.

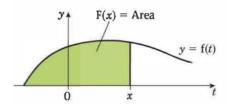
$$\int_{1}^{2} k \, dx + \int_{2}^{4} k(x-1) \, dx = 1$$
$$k = \frac{1}{5}$$



## 11.2 Cumulative distribution function

$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t) dt$$

where  $F(x) = P(X \le x) = 1$ 



If X us a Continous random variable with c.d.f. F(x) and p.d.f f(x)

$$f(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}F(x)$$
 and  $F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t) \,\mathrm{d}t$ 

Example. example 5-6

## 11.3 Mean and Variance

If X is a Continuous random variable with p.d.f f(x)

$$\mu = E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

$$\sigma^2 = E(X^2) - \mu^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \mu^2$$

**Remark.** The range is the range of that function instead of negative infinity to infinity.

## 11.4 Mode, median and quartiles

The median m or  $Q_2$  satisfies  $F(m) = F(Q_2) = 0.5$ 

The lower quartile  $Q_1$  satisfies  $F(Q_1) = 0.25$ 

The lower quartile  $Q_1$  satisfies  $F(Q_3) = 0.75$ 

The mode is the x value at the highest point of the p.d.f f(x)

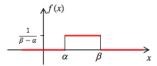
## 12 Continuous uniform distribution

## 12.1 Continuous uniform distribution

#### Definition

A continuous uniform distribution has **constant** probability density over a fixed interval.

Thus  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha}$  is the continuous uniform p.d.f. over the interval  $[\alpha, \beta]$  and has a rectangular shape.



#### Median

By symmetry the median is  $\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}$ 

## Mean and Variance

The expected mean is  $E[X] = \mu = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}$ , which is the same as the median.

and the expected variance is  $Var[X] = \sigma^2 = \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{12}$ .

These formulae are proved in the appendix

## 12.2 Mean and Variance

Example. example 4-7

## 12.3 Choosing the right model

Example. example 8-10

## 13 Normal approximation

## 13.1 Approximating binomial by normal

If  $X \sim B(n, p)$  and

- -n is large
- -p is close to 0.5

Then X can be approximated by

$$Y \sim N(np, np(1-p))$$

**Example.**  $X \sim B(120, 0.25)$  approximated to  $Y \sim N(30, (\sqrt{22.5})^2)$ 

Example. example 4

## 13.2 Approximating Poisson by normal

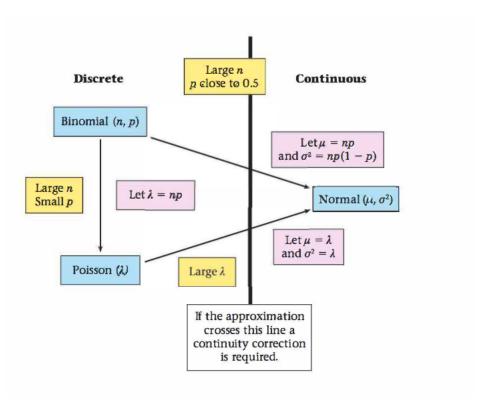
If  $\lambda$  is large

$$X \sim Po(\lambda) \text{to} Y \sim N(\lambda, (\sqrt{\lambda})^2)$$

**Example.**  $X \sim Po(25)$  transformed to  $Y \sim N(25, 5^2)$ 

Example. example 6

## 13.3 Choosing the appropriate approximation



Example. example 7

## 14 Population and samples

## 14.1 The Concept of population and samples

List of the possible samples and find their probabilities and distribution.

Example. example 5 6

## 15 Hypothesis testing

## 15.1 Concept of hypothesis testing

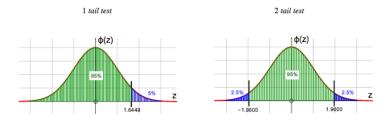
**Definition** (Null hypothesis  $H_0$ ). The hypothesis which is assumed to be correct unless shown otherwise.

**Definition** (Alternarive hypothesis  $H_1$ ). This is the conclusion that should be made if  $H_0$  is rejected

**Definition** (Critical region). The range of values which would lead you to reject the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ 

**Definition** (Significance level). The actual significance level is the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when it is in fact true.

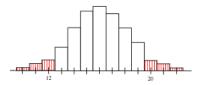
From your observed result (test statistic) you decide whether to reject or not to reject the null hypothesis  ${\cal H}_0$ 



The test statistic is significant t5%, or that we reject  $H_0$ . Thus  $H_0$ could actually be true but we still reject it. Thus, the significance level, 5%, is the probability that we reject  $H_0$  when it is in fact true, or the probability of incorrectly rejecting  $H_0$ .

When we reject the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , we use the alternative hypothesis to write the conclusion.

The Poisson and Binomial distributions are discrete, and we look at probability histograms.



In the diagram, the critical region (shown by the shaded areas) is  $X \leq 12$  or  $X \geq 20$ .

We include the whole bar around X = 12 and around X = 20

So  $P(X \le 12)$  is the area to the left of 12.5, and  $P(X \ge 20)$  is the area to the right of 19.5,

If  $P(X \le 12) = 0.0234$  and  $P(X \ge 20) = 0.0217$ , then the actual signifiance level is 0.0234 + 0.0217 = 0.0451 = 4.51%Thus the probability of incorrectly rejecting  $H_0$  is 0.0451.

## 15.2 One- and two-tailed tests

The One-tail test is

$$H_0 : a = b$$
  
 $H_1 : a > b \text{ or } a < b$ 

The Two-tail test is

$$H_0: a = b$$
$$H_1: a \neq b$$

Example. 3

Example. 4-13

## 16 Combination of random variables

17 Sampling III Statistics

# 17 Sampling

# 18 Estimation , confidence intervals and tests

# 19 Goodness of fit and contingency tables

# 20 Regression and correlation

# 21 Quality of tests and estimators

# 22 One-sample procedures

# 23 Two-sample procedures