#### DATA ANALYSIS Year 2019–2020

## **#1 Statistical Methods**

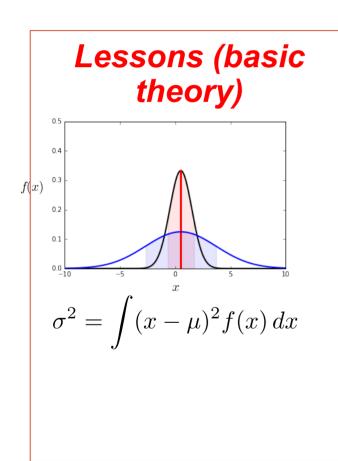
# Statistical Analysis

#### **Objectif**

Basic knowledge of statistical data analysis methods and application to geophysics data

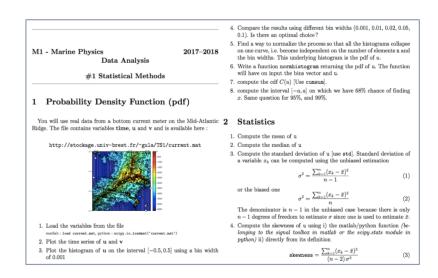
#### Plan

- Basic notions: random variables, PDF, CDF, distributions, moments, estimators, the central limit theorem.
- Resampling methods (bootstrap, jackknife, Monte Carlo method), construction of confidence intervals, hypothesis testing, Bayesian statistics
- Extreme value theory, generalized Pareto distributions



#### **Activities**

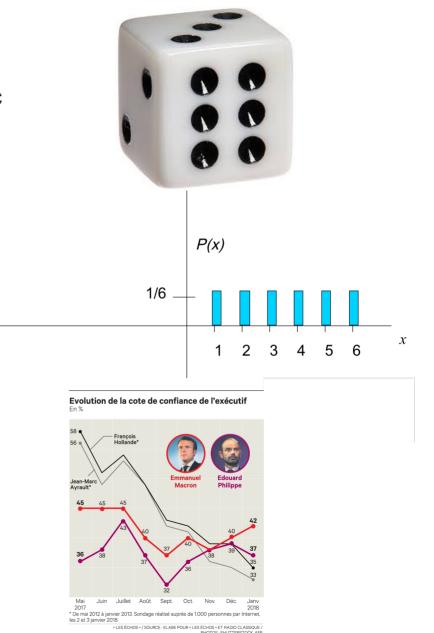
 Applications to geophysics data (mooring, argo, model, etc.) using Python



#### **Grade**

1 homework assignment + 1 computer exam

- A random variable, aleatory variable or stochastic variable is a variable whose value is subject to variations due to chance.
- A random variable can take on a set of possible different values, each with an associated probability.
- For example, if you roll a dice, the outcome is random (not fixed) and there are 6 possible outcomes, each of which occur with probability one-sixth.
- For example, if you poll people about their voting preferences, the percentage of the sample that responds "Yes" is a also a random variable (the percentage will be slightly different every time you poll).



- A random variable's possible values might represent the possible outcomes of a yet-to-be-performed experiment, or the possible outcomes of a past experiment whose already-existing value is uncertain (for example, due to imprecise measurements or quantum uncertainty).
- They may also conceptually represent either the results of an "objectively" random process (such as rolling a die) or the "subjective" randomness that results from incomplete knowledge of a quantity (i.e. quantity of precipitation per day at a given location). The mathematics works the same regardless of the particular interpretation in use.

The mathematical function describing the possible values of a random variable and their associated probabilities is known as a **probability distribution**.

#### Random variables can be:

- discrete, that is, taking any of a specified finite or countable list of values, endowed with a probability mass function, characteristic of a probability distribution;
- **continuous**, taking any numerical value in an interval or collection of intervals, via a probability density function that is characteristic of a probability distribution.

**Discrete** random variables have a countable number of outcomes.

#### Examples:

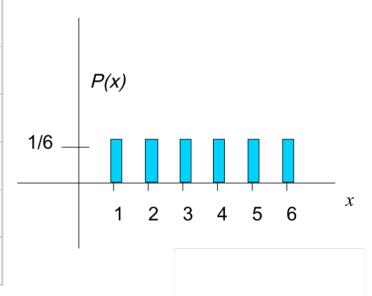
- dice
- yes/no
- Dead/alive
- treatment/placebo
- counts
- etc.

## Probability mass function

The probability mass function f(x) or p(x) for a discrete random variable is the function giving the probability to draw the value  $\boldsymbol{x}$ 

Example of a dice:

X	p(x)
1	<i>p(x=1)</i> =1/6
2	<i>p(x=2)</i> =1/6
3	<i>p(x=3)</i> =1/6
4	<i>p(x=4)</i> =1/6
5	<i>p(x=5)</i> =1/6
6	<i>p(x=6)</i> =1/6



We have necessarily:

$$\sum f(x) = 1$$

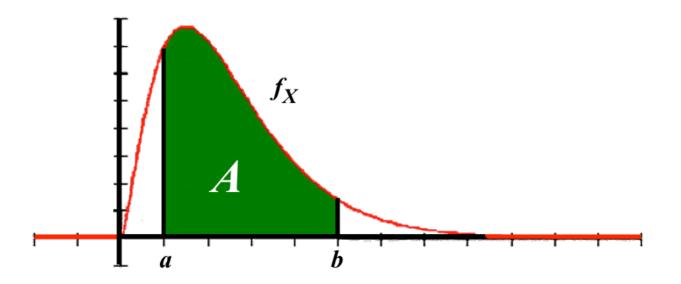
**Continuous** random variables have an infinite continuum of possible values.

#### Examples:

- distribution of height among human beings
- distribution of incomes in a society
- distribution of wealth among human beings
- amount of precipitation per day at a given location
- percentage of clouds in the sky at a given location
- intensity of the quakes in a given region
- point-wise velocity in a turbulent flow
- instantaneous dissipation of energy in a turbulent flow
- wave height during a storm
- etc.

The pdf f(x) is a probability **density**.

The probability to draw a value in the interval [x,x+dx] is f(x)dx. The probability to get a value in the interval [a,b] is  $\Pr(a \le x \le b)$  the area under the graph of f(x) over the interval [a,b]



#### Example:

Survival times after lung transplant may roughly follow an exponential function:

$$p(x) = e^{-x}$$

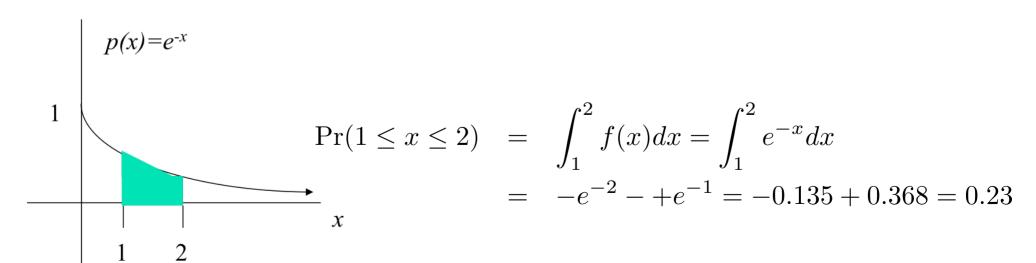
What is the probability that a patient will die in the second year after surgery (between years 1 and 2)?:

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What is the probability that a patient will die in the second year after surgery (between years 1 and 2)?:



The probability that x is any exact particular value is 0.

$$\Pr(x = a) = 0$$

we can only assign probabilities to possible ranges of x.

Why: the area of the pdf for a single value is zero because the width of the interval is zero! This DOES NOT imply that x cannot take the value a, it simply means that the probability that it takes this value exactly is infinitely small.

The probability density is always positive:  $f(x) \ge 0$ 

And by definition: 
$$\int f(x)dx = 1$$

summed over the full interval on which it is defined.

The probability f(x)dx is dimensionless, such that f(x) has the dimension of the inverse of  $\mathcal X$ 

## Cumulated density function

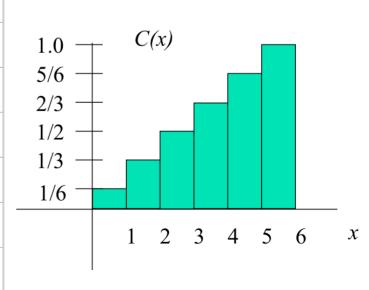
It is the primitive of f(x)

$$C(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(z) \, dz$$

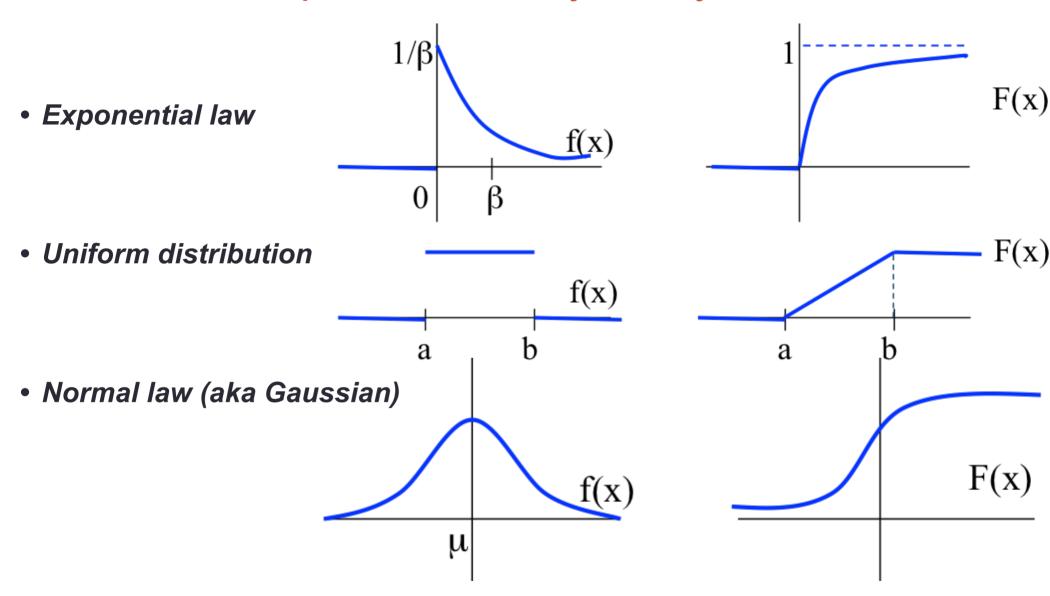
By construction it is an increasing function from 0 to 1.

Example of a dice:

P(x≤A)
<i>P(x≤1)</i> =1/6
<i>P(x≤2)</i> =2/6
<i>P(x≤3)</i> =3/6
<i>P(x≤4)</i> =4/6
<i>P(x≤5)</i> =5/6
<i>P(x≤6)</i> =6/6



## Classical examples of Probability density function



poisson law, power-law, log-normal law, chi-squared distribution, Pareto distribution, Cauchy distribution, etc.

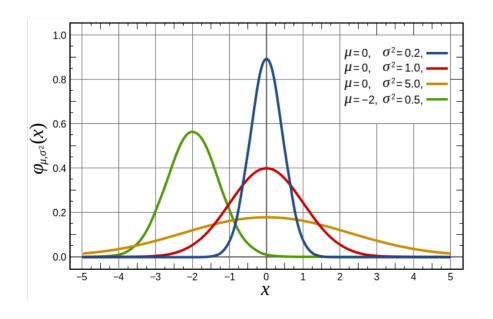
## Classical examples of Probability density function

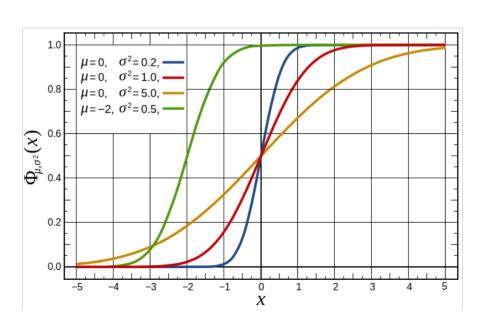
The normalized centered normal distribution reads

$$\mathcal{N}(0,1) \sim f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$$

• And for a given mean and standard deviation  $(\mu,\sigma)$ 

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$



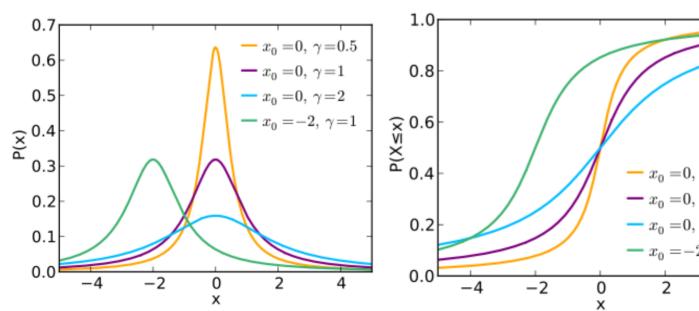


## Classical examples of Probability density function

The Cauchy distribution

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

$$C(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} arctan(x) + \frac{1}{2}$$



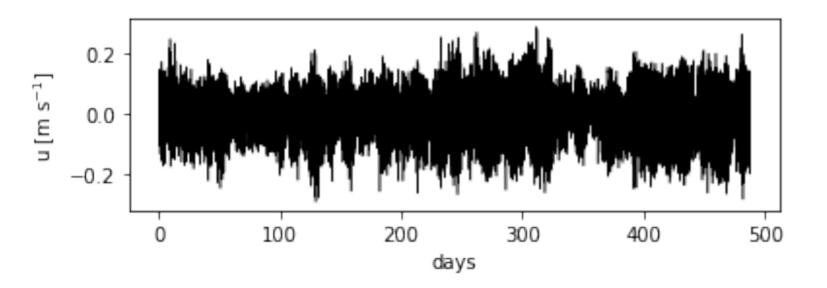
## Estimating the PDF

• In practice, if X is a random variable, we will deal with a finite number N of empirical realizations of the random variables :

$$x_k, k = 1 \dots N$$

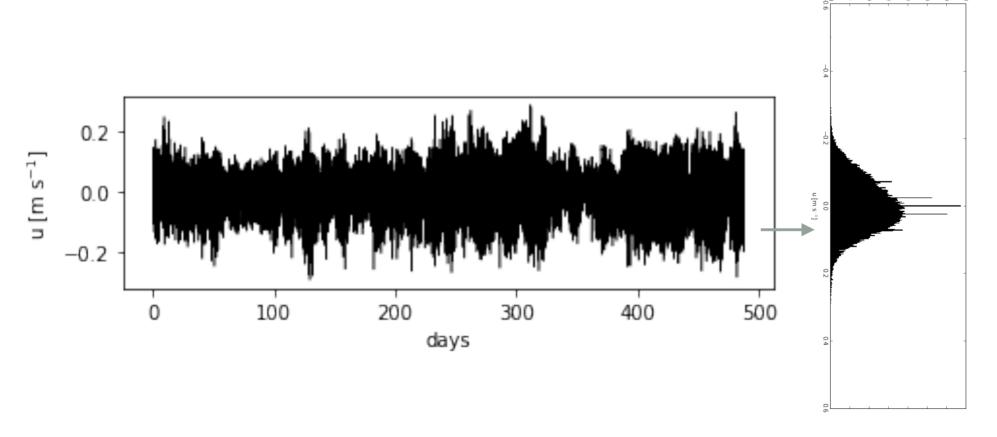
- We have access to the properties of X only via the empirical N samples. Intuitively we see that the larger N the better we know X.
- In practice we never know the pdf but we can estimate it, by computing an histogram of the.  $\mathcal{X}_k$

#### Example:



The most basic estimate of a population distribution can be made by

using the histogram of the measured data points.



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The most basic descriptive parameter is the sample mean:  $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k} x_k$ 

To determine how the data are spread about the mean, we can

compute the standard deviation:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_k (x_k - \overline{\mu})^2}$$

$$\sum_{\substack{0.3 \\ 0.2 \\ 0.1 \\ -0.2 \\ -0.3 \\ -100}} \sum_{\substack{0.0 \\ 0.1 \\ -0.2 \\ 0.1 \\ -0.2 \\ 0.0 \\ -0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0 \\ 0.0$$

## Estimating the PDF

• See TD1 – Statistics (#1)

The most basic estimate of a population distribution can be made by using the histogram of the measured data points.

The most basic descriptive parameter is the sample mean:

$$\overline{\mu} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k} x_k}$$

To determine how the data are spread about the mean,

we can compute the variance:

$$s^{2} = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{k} (x_{k} - \overline{\mu})^{2}$$

or standard deviation:

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