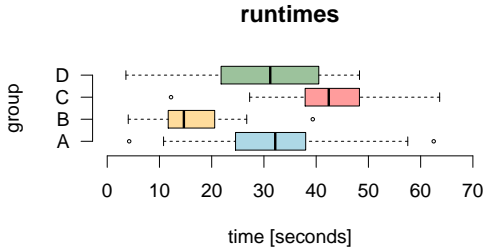


# Descriptive Statistics



All examples are fictitious. All data are simulated and the graphics were created with the statistical program package R.

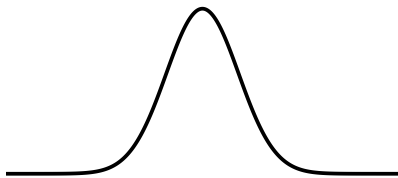
The materials are protected by copyright and are only provided for personal use for studies at TU Vienna. Further use is not permitted. In particular, it is not permitted to distribute the materials or make them publicly available (e.g. in social networks, on learning platforms, etc.).

Sämtliche Beispiele sind frei erfunden. Alle Daten sind simuliert und die Grafiken wurden mit statistischen Programmpaket R erstellt.

Die Materialien sind urheberrechtlich geschützt und dürfen ausschließlich für den Eigengebrauch im Rahmen des Studiums an der TU Wien genutzt werden. Eine weitere Nutzung ist nicht gestattet. Insbesondere ist es nicht gestattet, die Materialien zu verbreiten oder öffentlich zugänglich zu machen (etwa im Rahmen sozialer Netzwerke, Lernplattformen etc.).

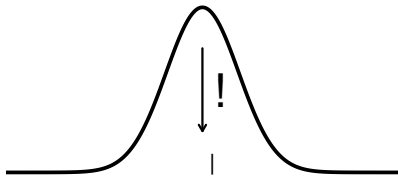
# Overview

We differentiate:  
Probability theory  
(Stochastics)  
=  
Theory of randomness



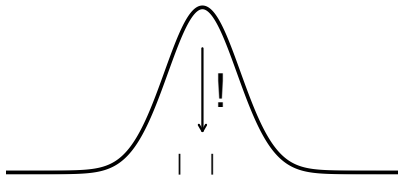
# Overview

We differentiate:  
Probability theory  
(Stochastics)  
=  
Theory of randomness



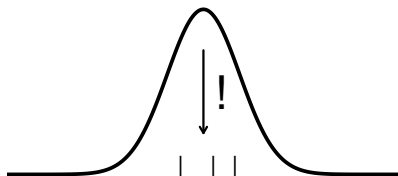
# Overview

We differentiate:  
Probability theory  
(Stochastics)  
=  
Theory of randomness



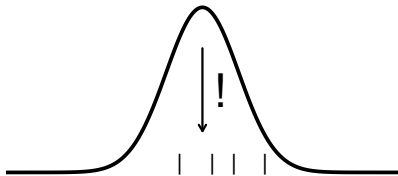
# Overview

We differentiate:  
Probability theory  
(Stochastics)  
=  
Theory of randomness



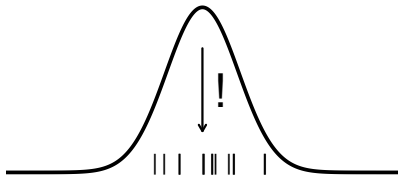
# Overview

We differentiate:  
Probability theory  
(Stochastics)  
=  
Theory of randomness



# Overview

We differentiate:  
Probability theory  
(Stochastics)  
=  
Theory of randomness

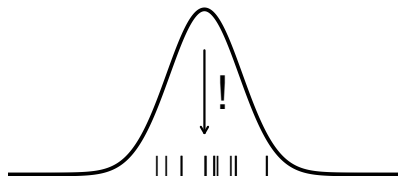




# Overview

We differentiate:  
Probability theory  
(Stochastics)  
=  
Theory of randomness

and  
Statistics  
=  
Description of data →



# Overview

We differentiate:

Probability theory  
(Stochastics)

=

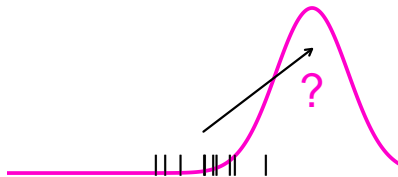
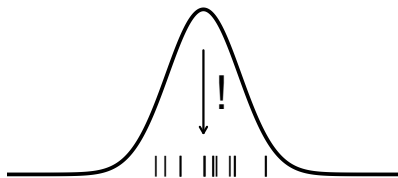
Theory of randomness

and

Statistics

=

Description of data  $\longrightarrow$   
(using stochastic **models**)



# Overview

We differentiate:

Probability theory  
(Stochastics)

=

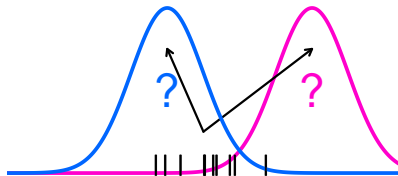
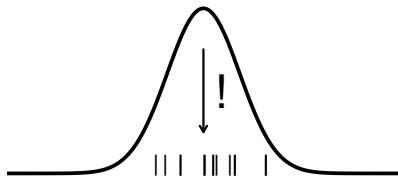
Theory of randomness

and

Statistics

=

Description of data →  
(using stochastic **models**)



# Overview

We differentiate:

Probability theory  
(Stochastics)

=

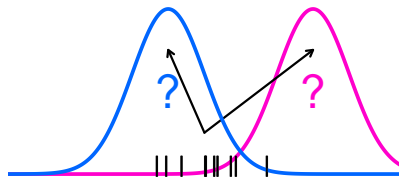
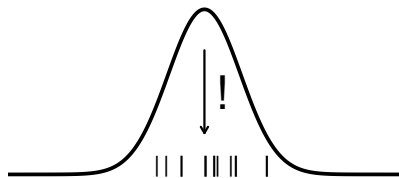
Theory of randomness

and

Statistics

=

Description of data →  
(using stochastic **models**)



---

Today: Short excursion to descriptive Statistics

How do data look like? How can they be summarized?

# Overview

We differentiate:

Probability theory  
(Stochastics)

=

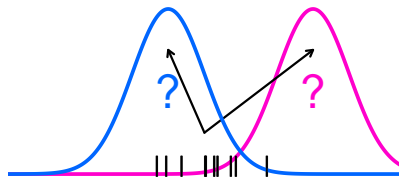
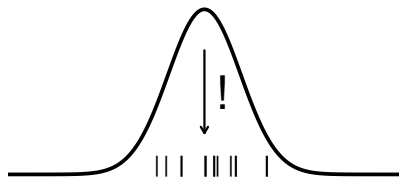
Theory of randomness

and

Statistics

=

Description of data  $\longrightarrow$   
(using stochastic **models**)



---

Today: Short excursion to descriptive Statistics

How do data look like? How can they be summarized?

From then on: inferential Statistics (Modelling)

How did the data occur?

# Scales

We differentiate scales

- Categorical data (nominal scale, no ordering)
  - Do you drink coffee? **yes** or **no** (two categories)
  - What is the color of your hair? **blond**, **brown**, **black**, **red**, **neither** (five categories)

# Scales

We differentiate scales

- Categorical data (nominal scale, no ordering)
  - Do you drink coffee? **yes** or **no** (two categories)
  - What is the color of your hair? **blond**, **brown**, **black**, **red**, **neither** (five categories)
- Metric data (Ratio scale, metric distance,  $2*3=6$ ,  $0=0$ )
  - How large are you? **size in cm**
  - How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented? **time in seconds**

# Scales

We differentiate scales

- Categorical data (nominal scale, no ordering)
  - Do you drink coffee? **yes** or **no** (two categories)
  - What is the color of your hair? **blond**, **brown**, **black**, **red**, **neither** (five categories)
- Ordinal data (order, but no metric distance)
  - How much did you learn in the course? **nothing**, **few**, **much** or **very much** (four ordered categories)
  - How often do you use Tuwel? **never**, **sometimes**, **often** (three ordered categories)
- Metric data (Ratio scale, metric distance,  $2*3=6$ ,  $0=0$ )
  - How large are you? **size in cm**
  - How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented? **time in seconds**



# Scales

We differentiate scales

- Categorical data (nominal scale, no ordering)
  - Do you drink coffee? **yes** or **no** (two categories)
  - What is the color of your hair? **blond**, **brown**, **black**, **red**, **neither** (five categories)
- Ordinal data (order, but no metric distance)
  - How much did you learn in the course? **nothing**, **few**, **much** or **very much** (four ordered categories)
  - How often do you use Tuwel? **never**, **sometimes**, **often** (three ordered categories)
- Metric data (Ratio scale, metric distance,  $2*3=6$ ,  $0=0$ )
  - How large are you? **size in cm**
  - How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented? **time in seconds**

(Today we stick to metric data)

# Data collection

How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented?

# Data collection

How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented?

$n = 121$  students requested (same technical setup)

# Data collection

How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented?

$n = 121$  students requested (same technical setup)

Results (in seconds):

24.6, 24, 31.4, 29.9, 37.8, 19.9, 46.1, 32.8, 30.3, 29, 47.1, 27.8, 33.8, 30.1, 53.3, 23.8, 32.1, 4.2, 42.8, 25.2, 52.3, 35, 30.1, 43.2, 25.4, 62.5, 35.4, 25.2, 37.6, 37.1, 22.9, 29.5, 44.5, 34.8, 33.3, 21.9, 37.2, 24, 37, 34, 24.1, 10.8, 24.9, 37.2, 52, 30.8, 22, 18.6, 22, 26.8, 52.3, 27, 23.6, 33.5, 30.8, 20.9, 35.6, 37.2, 57.5, 46.2, 36.1, 19.8, 38.1, 36.9, 26.5, 23.6, 30.3, 49.9, 39, 50.2, 35.7, 11.4, 24.1, 27.5, 36.4, 29.8, 49, 42.6, 22.5, 32.7, 34.3, 21.4, 34.7, 47.3, 20.3, 35.4, 41.8, 24.9, 15.2, 42.2, 29.1, 25.1, 22.7, 41, 28.2, 30.3, 25.6, 41.8, 16.6, 38, 43.1, 29.5, 40.3, 20.5, 39.9, 24.5, 33.7, 14.6, 23.3, 36.7, 34.7, 34.9, 39.1, 32.2, 43, 12.1, 19.8, 27.4, 39.3, 35, 46.3

# Data collection

How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented?

$n = 121$  students requested (same technical setup)

Results (in seconds):

24.6, 24, 31.4, 29.9, 37.8, 19.9, 46.1, 32.8, 30.3, 29, 47.1, 27.8, 33.8, 30.1, 53.3, 23.8, 32.1, 4.2, 42.8, 25.2, 52.3, 35, 30.1, 43.2, 25.4, 62.5, 35.4, 25.2, 37.6, 37.1, 22.9, 29.5, 44.5, 34.8, 33.3, 21.9, 37.2, 24, 37, 34, 24.1, 10.8, 24.9, 37.2, 52, 30.8, 22, 18.6, 22, 26.8, 52.3, 27, 23.6, 33.5, 30.8, 20.9, 35.6, 37.2, 57.5, 46.2, 36.1, 19.8, 38.1, 36.9, 26.5, 23.6, 30.3, 49.9, 39, 50.2, 35.7, 11.4, 24.1, 27.5, 36.4, 29.8, 49, 42.6, 22.5, 32.7, 34.3, 21.4, 34.7, 47.3, 20.3, 35.4, 41.8, 24.9, 15.2, 42.2, 29.1, 25.1, 22.7, 41, 28.2, 30.3, 25.6, 41.8, 16.6, 38, 43.1, 29.5, 40.3, 20.5, 39.9, 24.5, 33.7, 14.6, 23.3, 36.7, 34.7, 34.9, 39.1, 32.2, 43, 12.1, 19.8, 27.4, 39.3, 35, 46.3

We see:  $n$  data:  $x_1 = 24.6, x_2 = 24.0, \dots, x_n = 46.3$

# Data collection

How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented?

$n = 121$  students requested (same technical setup)

Results (in seconds):

24.6, 24, 31.4, 29.9, 37.8, 19.9, 46.1, 32.8, 30.3, 29, 47.1, 27.8, 33.8, 30.1, 53.3, 23.8, 32.1, 4.2, 42.8, 25.2, 52.3, 35, 30.1, 43.2, 25.4, 62.5, 35.4, 25.2, 37.6, 37.1, 22.9, 29.5, 44.5, 34.8, 33.3, 21.9, 37.2, 24, 37, 34, 24.1, 10.8, 24.9, 37.2, 52, 30.8, 22, 18.6, 22, 26.8, 52.3, 27, 23.6, 33.5, 30.8, 20.9, 35.6, 37.2, 57.5, 46.2, 36.1, 19.8, 38.1, 36.9, 26.5, 23.6, 30.3, 49.9, 39, 50.2, 35.7, 11.4, 24.1, 27.5, 36.4, 29.8, 49, 42.6, 22.5, 32.7, 34.3, 21.4, 34.7, 47.3, 20.3, 35.4, 41.8, 24.9, 15.2, 42.2, 29.1, 25.1, 22.7, 41, 28.2, 30.3, 25.6, 41.8, 16.6, 38, 43.1, 29.5, 40.3, 20.5, 39.9, 24.5, 33.7, 14.6, 23.3, 36.7, 34.7, 34.9, 39.1, 32.2, 43, 12.1, 19.8, 27.4, 39.3, 35, 46.3

We see:  $n$  data:  $x_1 = 24.6, x_2 = 24.0, \dots, x_n = 46.3$

We understand: nothing?

# Data collection

How long is the runtime of an algorithm that you implemented?

$n = 121$  students requested (same technical setup)

Results (in seconds):

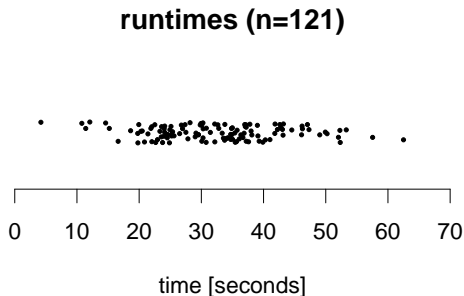
24.6, 24, 31.4, 29.9, 37.8, 19.9, 46.1, 32.8, 30.3, 29, 47.1, 27.8, 33.8, 30.1, 53.3, 23.8, 32.1, 4.2, 42.8, 25.2, 52.3, 35, 30.1, 43.2, 25.4, 62.5, 35.4, 25.2, 37.6, 37.1, 22.9, 29.5, 44.5, 34.8, 33.3, 21.9, 37.2, 24, 37, 34, 24.1, 10.8, 24.9, 37.2, 52, 30.8, 22, 18.6, 22, 26.8, 52.3, 27, 23.6, 33.5, 30.8, 20.9, 35.6, 37.2, 57.5, 46.2, 36.1, 19.8, 38.1, 36.9, 26.5, 23.6, 30.3, 49.9, 39, 50.2, 35.7, 11.4, 24.1, 27.5, 36.4, 29.8, 49, 42.6, 22.5, 32.7, 34.3, 21.4, 34.7, 47.3, 20.3, 35.4, 41.8, 24.9, 15.2, 42.2, 29.1, 25.1, 22.7, 41, 28.2, 30.3, 25.6, 41.8, 16.6, 38, 43.1, 29.5, 40.3, 20.5, 39.9, 24.5, 33.7, 14.6, 23.3, 36.7, 34.7, 34.9, 39.1, 32.2, 43, 12.1, 19.8, 27.4, 39.3, 35, 46.3

We see:  $n$  data:  $x_1 = 24.6, x_2 = 24.0, \dots, x_n = 46.3$

We understand: nothing?

Thus: descriptive Statistics  $\rightarrow$  graphical representation and summary of data

# Stripchart

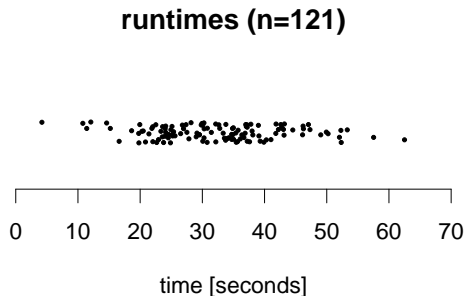


At first sight we understand how the  $n$  data distribute:

- Many data lie close to 30 (typical runtime)



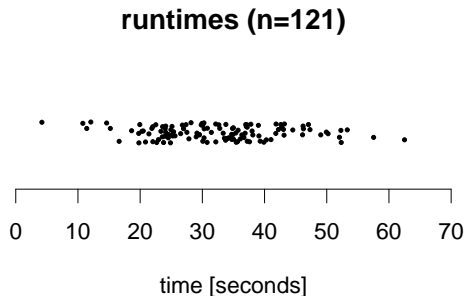
# Stripchart



At first sight we understand how the  $n$  data distribute:

- Many data lie close to 30 (typical runtime)
- The minimum is about 5 (fastest runtime),  
the maximum is about 65 (slowest runtime)

# Stripchart

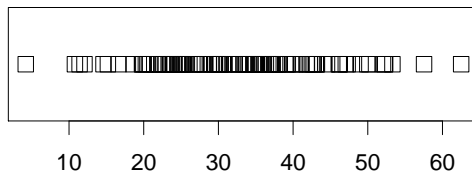


At first sight we understand how the  $n$  data distribute:

- Many data lie close to 30 (typical runtime)
- The minimum is about 5 (fastest runtime), the maximum is about 65 (slowest runtime)
- Remark.: the  $y$ -value has no meaning. The data are 'jittered' along the  $y$ -direction for a better overview.

# Stripchart in R

```
#Enter data  
x <- c(24.6, 24.0, 31.4, 29.9,...,39.3, 35.0, 46.3)  
#Create stripchart  
stripchart(x)
```

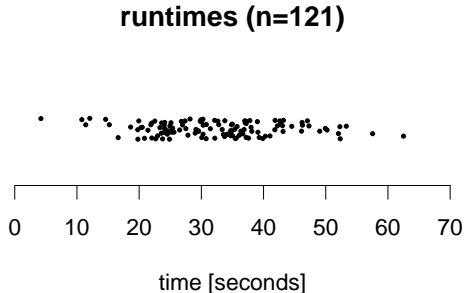


We don't understand too much - points superposed, axes annotations are missing, title is missing etc.

→ customize graphic using additional arguments or lowlevel graphics

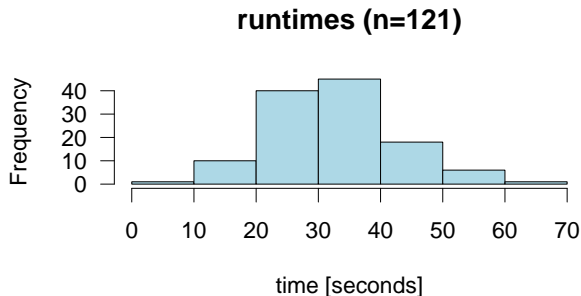
# Stripchart in R

```
#Enter data
x <- c(24.6, 24.0, 31.4, 29.9,...,39.3, 35.0, 46.3)
#Create stripchart with additional arguments
stripchart(x,method="jitter",pch=19,cex=0.4,axes=FALSE,
  xlim=c(0,70),main="runtimes_(n=121)",xlab="time_[seconds]")
#add x-axis (lowlevelgraphic)
axis(1,at=seq(0,70,10))
```



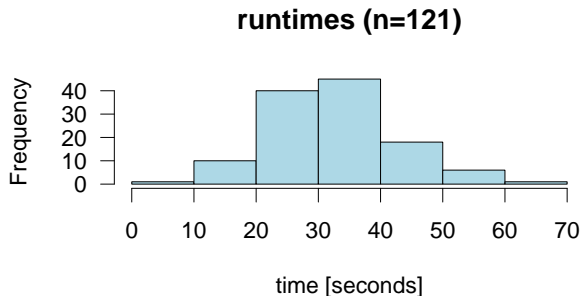
Much more informative!

# Histogram



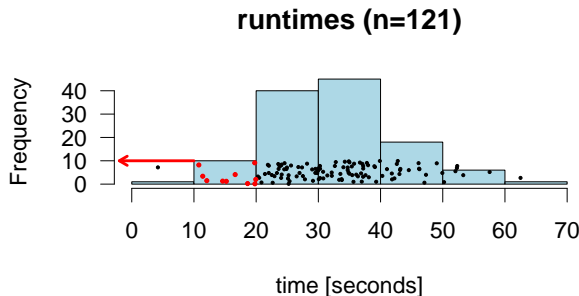
- Description of the distribution of data  
Here: approximately *bell-shaped*, i.e., unimodal and symmetric

# Histogram



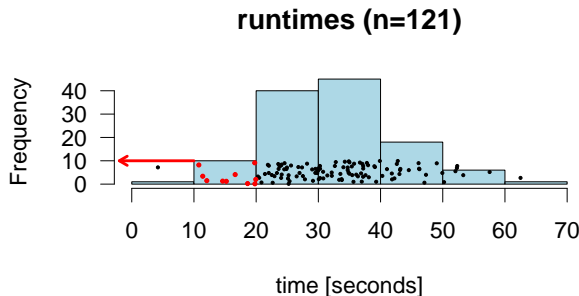
- Description of the distribution of data  
Here: approximately *bell-shaped*, i.e., unimodal and symmetric
- Absolute frequencies in the intervals  $\{(10k, 10(k+1)] : k = 0, 1, \dots, 6\}$   
given through the height of the bars

# Histogram



- Description of the distribution of data  
Here: approximately *bell-shaped*, i.e., unimodal and symmetric
- Absolute frequencies in the intervals  $\{(10k, 10(k+1)] : k = 0, 1, \dots, 6\}$   
given through the height of the bars  
e.g.: **10 data** are  $> 10$  and  $\leq 20$ , for short  $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(10,20]}(x_i) = 10$

# Histogram

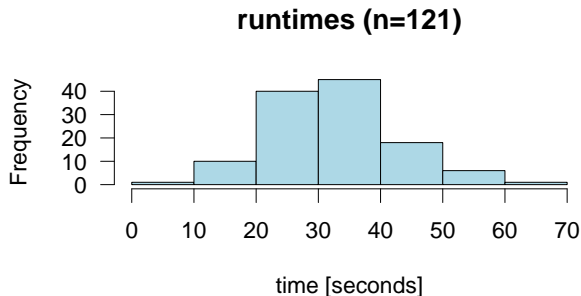


- Description of the distribution of data  
Here: approximately *bell-shaped*, i.e., unimodal and symmetric
- Absolute frequencies in the intervals  $\{(10k, 10(k+1)] : k = 0, 1, \dots, 6\}$  given through the height of the bars  
e.g.: **10 data** are  $> 10$  and  $\leq 20$ , for short  $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(10,20]}(x_i) = 10$   
Consequence: The sum of the bar heights is  $n = 121$



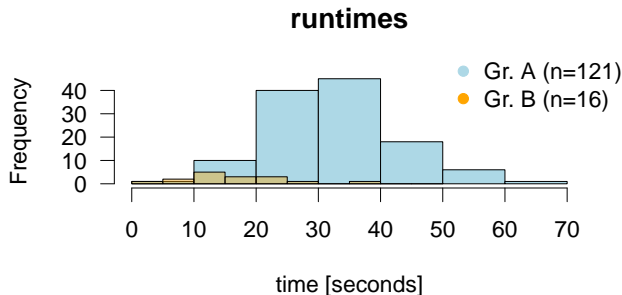
# Histogram in R

```
# Histogram with additional arguments  
hist(x, las=1, xlab="time_[seconds]", ylab="Frequency",  
main="runtimes_(n=121)", col="lightblue")
```



# Histogram

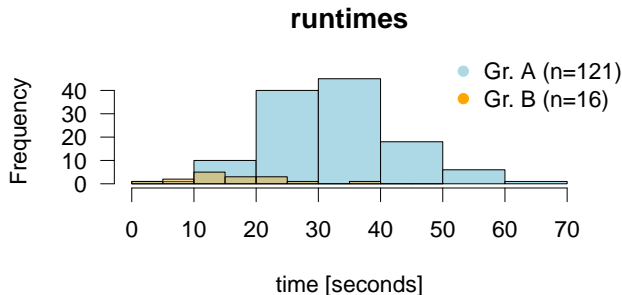
The same algorithm was implemented by 16 other students after they attended a certain programming course (group B)



- Comparison of group  $A$  ( $n_A = 121$ ) and group  $B$  ( $n_B = 16$ ) inappropriate, because the sizes of the groups differ tremendously.

# Histogram

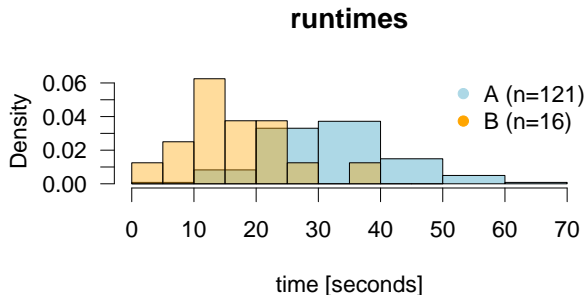
The same algorithm was implemented by 16 other students after they attended a certain programming course (group B)



- Comparison of group  $A$  ( $n_A = 121$ ) and group  $B$  ( $n_B = 16$ ) inappropriate, because the sizes of the groups differ tremendously.
- Idea: Norm the areas  $\rightarrow$  total area of 1 each

# Histogram

The same algorithm was implemented by 16 other students after they attended a certain programming course (group B)

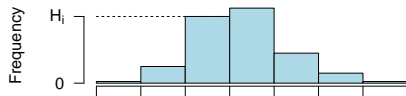


- Comparison of group A ( $n_A = 121$ ) and group B ( $n_B = 16$ ) inappropriate, because the sizes of the groups differ tremendously.
- Idea: Norm the areas  $\rightarrow$  total area of 1 each  
The distributions are now nicely visible:  
shifted against each other and about bell-shaped each.

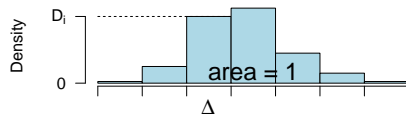
# Histogram

What happens when norming?

$$\sum H_i = n$$



$$\sum D_i \times \Delta = 1$$

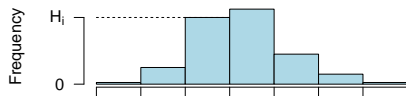


- Same 'picture', but different  $y$ -axis

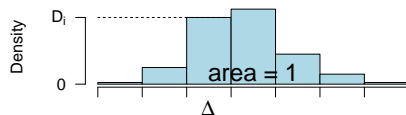
# Histogram

What happens when norming?

$$\sum H_i = n$$



$$\sum D_i \times \Delta = 1$$

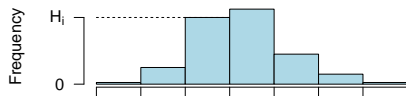


- Same 'picture', but different  $y$ -axis  
Search  $D_i$  such that total area  $\sum D_i \cdot \Delta \stackrel{!}{=} 1$

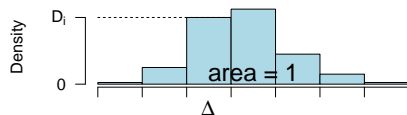
# Histogram

What happens when norming?

$$\sum H_i = n$$



$$\sum D_i \times \Delta = 1$$



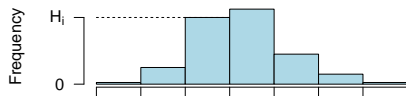
- Same 'picture', but different  $y$ -axis

Search  $D_i$  such that total area  $\sum D_i \cdot \Delta \stackrel{!}{=} 1$   
 $\sum H_i = n$

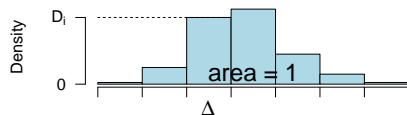
# Histogram

What happens when norming?

$$\sum H_i = n$$



$$\sum D_i \times \Delta = 1$$



- Same 'picture', but different  $y$ -axis

Search  $D_i$  such that total area  $\sum D_i \cdot \Delta \stackrel{!}{=} 1$

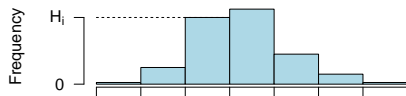
$$\sum H_i = n \Leftrightarrow 1 = \sum \frac{H_i}{n}$$



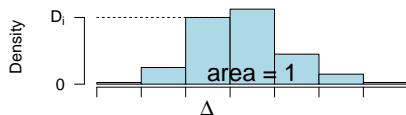
# Histogram

What happens when norming?

$$\sum H_i = n$$



$$\sum D_i \times \Delta = 1$$



- Same 'picture', but different  $y$ -axis

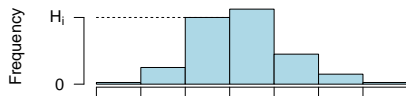
Search  $D_i$  such that total area  $\sum D_i \cdot \Delta \stackrel{!}{=} 1$

$$\sum H_i = n \Leftrightarrow 1 = \sum \frac{H_i}{n} = \sum \frac{H_i}{n \cdot \Delta} \cdot \Delta$$

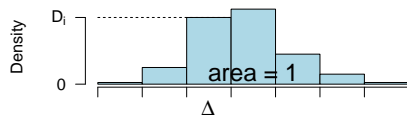
# Histogram

What happens when norming?

$$\sum H_i = n$$



$$\sum D_i \times \Delta = 1$$



- Same 'picture', but different  $y$ -axis

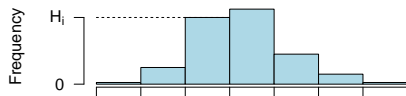
Search  $D_i$  such that total area  $\sum D_i \cdot \Delta \stackrel{!}{=} 1$

$$\sum H_i = n \Leftrightarrow 1 = \sum \frac{H_i}{n} = \sum \frac{H_i}{n \cdot \Delta} \cdot \Delta, \text{ hence } D_i = \frac{H_i}{n \cdot \Delta}$$

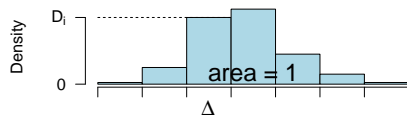
# Histogram

What happens when norming?

$$\sum H_i = n$$



$$\sum D_i \times \Delta = 1$$



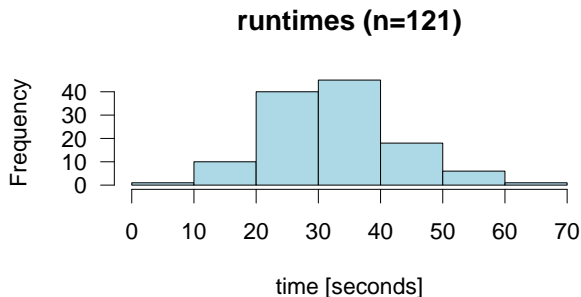
- Same 'picture', but different  $y$ -axis

Search  $D_i$  such that total area  $\sum D_i \cdot \Delta \stackrel{!}{=} 1$

$$\sum H_i = n \Leftrightarrow 1 = \sum \frac{H_i}{n} = \sum \frac{H_i}{n \cdot \Delta} \cdot \Delta, \text{ hence } D_i = \frac{H_i}{n \cdot \Delta}$$

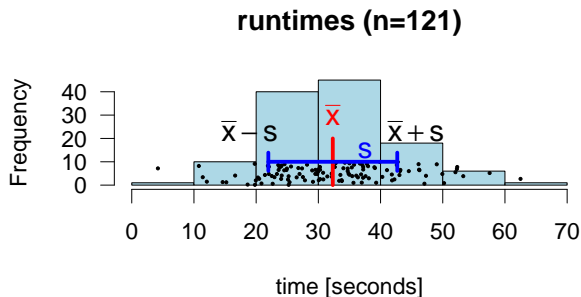
- R normes automatically via `hist(..., prob=TRUE)`

# Mean and empirical standard deviation



If the data distribute approximately bell-shaped, then they can be summarized nicely by two prominent *statistics*, i.e., functions of the data:

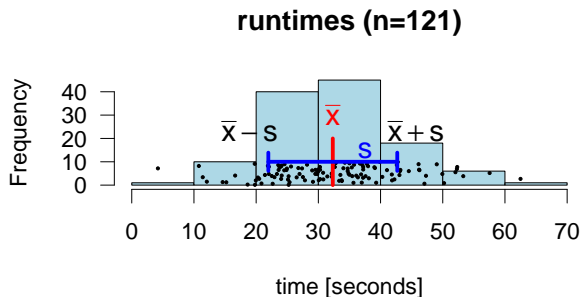
# Mean and empirical standard deviation



If the data distribute approximately bell-shaped, then they can be summarized nicely by two prominent *statistics*, i.e., functions of the data:

- 1. the mean  $\bar{x} \rightarrow$  where? (location)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation



If the data distribute approximately bell-shaped, then they can be summarized nicely by two prominent *statistics*, i.e., functions of the data:

- 1. the mean  $\bar{x}$  → where? (location)
- 2. the (empirical) standard deviation  $s$  → how variable? (dispersion)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

- The mean is

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

(center of mass of the data)



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

- The mean is

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

(center of mass of the data)

- The (empirical) variance is

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

‘the mean squared deviation of the data from the mean’

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

- The mean is

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

(center of mass of the data)

- The (empirical) variance is

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

'the mean squared deviation of the data from the mean'

- The (empirical) standard deviation is

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

'the square root of the variance'

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

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

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

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

Remark:

- The factor  $n - 1$  in  $s^2$  (instead of e.g.,  $n$ ) has technical reasons

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

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

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

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

Remark:

- The factor  $n - 1$  in  $s^2$  (instead of e.g.,  $n$ ) has technical reasons  
We speak about the *corrected* empirical variance, while for large  $n$  this correction has no practical relevance.

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

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

Random variable  $X$  (here discrete)

$$\mathbb{E}[X] := \sum x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X = x) \qquad \mathbb{V}\text{ar}(X) := \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \qquad \sigma_X := \sqrt{\mathbb{V}\text{ar}(X)}$$

Remark:

- The factor  $n - 1$  in  $s^2$  (instead of e.g.,  $n$ ) has technical reasons  
We speak about the *corrected* empirical variance, while for large  $n$  this correction has no practical relevance.
- Analogy to the 'universe of randomness': mean  $\leftrightarrow$  expectation

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Excursion: Analogy to the 'universe of randomness'. Reminder

Lemma: Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be i.i.d. random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[|X_1|^4] < \infty$ .

Set  $\mu := \mathbb{E}[X_1]$ ,  $\sigma^2 := \text{Var}(X_1)$  and  $\nu^2 := \mathbb{E}[(X_1 - \mu)^4] - \sigma^4$ .

Then for

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{and} \quad S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

it holds

unbiasedness:

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu \qquad \mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2 \qquad (\forall n \geq 2) \qquad (1)$$

Ideas for proofs: (1) linearity of the expectation (correction  $n - 1$  yields unbiasedness of  $S^2$ ),

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Excursion: Analogy to the 'universe of randomness'. Reminder

Lemma: Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be i.i.d. random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[|X_1|^4] < \infty$ .

Set  $\mu := \mathbb{E}[X_1]$ ,  $\sigma^2 := \text{Var}(X_1)$  and  $\nu^2 := \mathbb{E}[(X_1 - \mu)^4] - \sigma^4$ .

Then for

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{and} \quad S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

it holds

unbiasedness:

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu \qquad \mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2 \qquad (\forall n \geq 2) \qquad (1)$$

(strong) consistency:

$$\bar{X} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu \qquad S^2 \xrightarrow{a.s.} \sigma^2 \qquad (n \rightarrow \infty) \qquad (2)$$

' $\xrightarrow{a.s.}$ ' denotes convergence with probability 1, i.e., 'almost surely'. Throughout the course we implicitly consider all random variables to derive from a single probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ .

Ideas for proofs: (1) linearity of the expectation (correction  $n - 1$  yields unbiasedness of  $S^2$ ),  
(2) Strong law of large numbers,

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Excursion: Analogy to the 'universe of randomness'. Reminder

Lemma: Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be i.i.d. random variables with  $\mathbb{E}[|X_1|^4] < \infty$ .

Set  $\mu := \mathbb{E}[X_1]$ ,  $\sigma^2 := \text{Var}(X_1)$  and  $\nu^2 := \mathbb{E}[(X_1 - \mu)^4] - \sigma^4$ .

Then for

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \text{and} \quad S^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

it holds

unbiasedness:

$$\mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] = \mu \qquad \mathbb{E}[S^2] = \sigma^2 \qquad (\forall n \geq 2) \qquad (1)$$

(strong) consistency:

$$\bar{X} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu \qquad S^2 \xrightarrow{a.s.} \sigma^2 \qquad (n \rightarrow \infty) \qquad (2)$$

asymptotic normality:

$$\sqrt{n}[\bar{X} - \mu] \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \sigma^2) \qquad \sqrt{n}[S^2 - \sigma^2] \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \nu^2) \qquad (n \rightarrow \infty) \qquad (3)$$

' $\xrightarrow{a.s.}$ ' denotes convergence with probability 1, i.e., 'almost surely'. Throughout the course we implicitly consider all random variables to derive from a single probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mathbb{P})$ .

' $\xrightarrow{d}$ ' denotes convergence in distribution

Ideas for proofs: (1) linearity of the expectation (correction  $n - 1$  yields unbiasedness of  $S^2$ ),

(2) Strong law of large numbers, (3) Central limit theorem / delta method



# Notation

## Convention:

We use *capital letters* for random variables, e.g.,

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \quad (\text{'random'})$$

and *lowercase letters* for data or realizations of the random variables

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \quad (\text{'non-random'})$$

# Notation

## Convention:

We use *capital letters* for random variables, e.g.,

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \quad (\text{'random'})$$

and *lowercase letters* for data or realizations of the random variables

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \quad (\text{'non-random'})$$

## Outlook:

The main idea of statistical modelling:

Treat data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  ('real world')

as realizations of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  ('universe of randomness')

# Notation

## Convention:

We use *capital letters* for random variables, e.g.,

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \quad (\text{'random'})$$

and *lowercase letters* for data or realizations of the random variables

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \quad (\text{'non-random'})$$

## Outlook:

The main idea of statistical modelling:

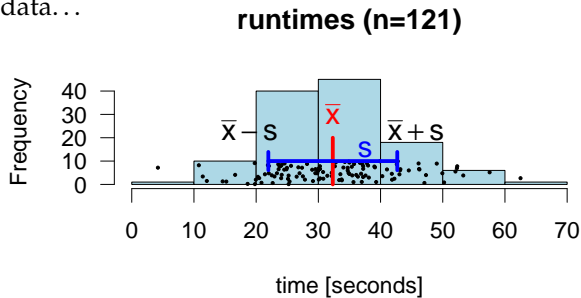
Treat data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  ('real world')

as realizations of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  ('universe of randomness')

Note that we evaluate *statistics* either on data, e.g.,  $\bar{x} = (1/n) \sum^n x_i$  ( $\rightarrow$  non-random), or on random variables  $\bar{X} = (1/n) \sum^n X_i$  ( $\rightarrow$  random)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Back to the data...



Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

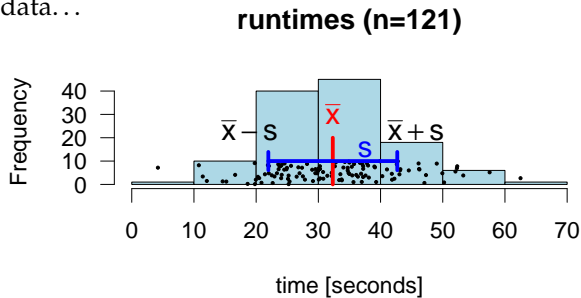
$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

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

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Back to the data...



Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

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

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

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

Evaluation

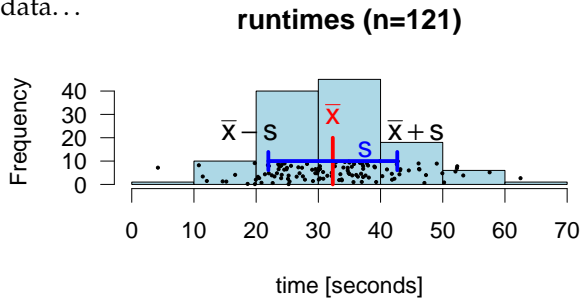
$$\bar{x} \approx 32.3$$

$$s^2 \approx 107.4$$

$$s \approx 10.4$$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Back to the data...



Data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

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

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

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

Evaluation

$$\bar{x} \approx 32.3$$

$$s^2 \approx 107.4$$

$$s \approx 10.4$$

in R via

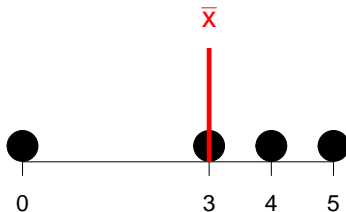
**mean(x)**

**var(x)**

**sd(x)**

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Numerically:  $\bar{x} = (0 + 3 + 4 + 5)/4 = 3$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$

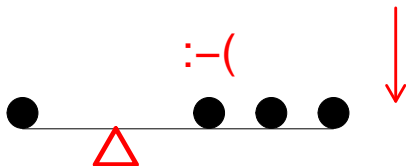


- Numerically:  $\bar{x} = (0 + 3 + 4 + 5)/4 = 3$
- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

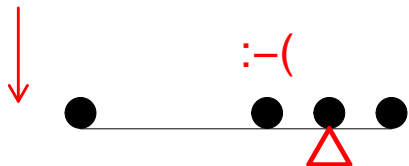
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Numerically:  $\bar{x} = (0 + 3 + 4 + 5)/4 = 3$
- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

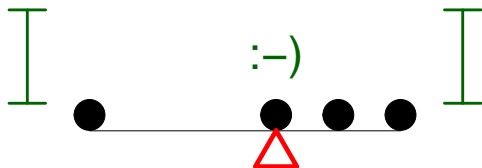
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Numerically:  $\bar{x} = (0 + 3 + 4 + 5)/4 = 3$
- Geometrically: Center of mass points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

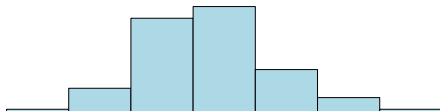
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Numerically:  $\bar{x} = (0 + 3 + 4 + 5)/4 = 3$
- Geometrically: Center of mass points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

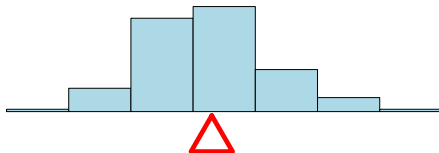
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?
- Consequence: Naive estimation from graphic

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

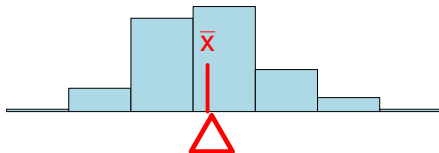
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?
- Consequence: Naive estimation from graphic

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

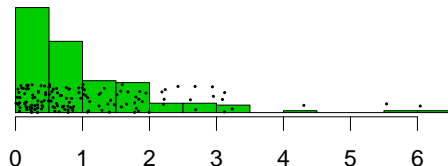
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?
- Consequence: Naive estimation from graphic

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

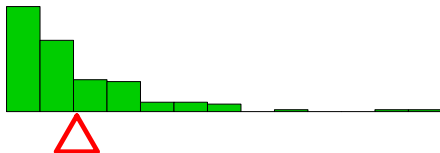
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?
- Consequence: Naive estimation from graphic  
Distribution not bell-shaped but *asymmetric*  
few large values 'pull'  $\bar{x}$  to the right

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$

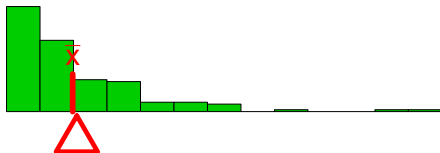


- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?
- Consequence: Naive estimation from graphic  
Distribution not bell-shaped but *asymmetric*  
few large values 'pull'  $\bar{x}$  to the right



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

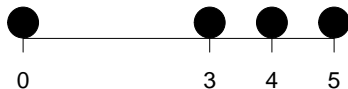
Geometrical interpretation of the mean  $\bar{x}$



- Geometrically: Center of mass  
points of same mass on a balance  
Where is the **center of rotation**  $\Delta$ , such that the balance is in **equilibrium**?
- Consequence: Naive estimation from graphic  
Distribution not bell-shaped but *asymmetric*  
few large values 'pull'  $\bar{x}$  to the right

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

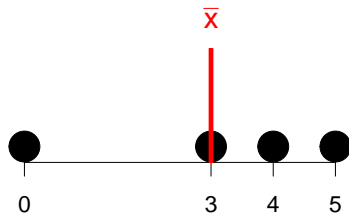
For the standard deviation  $s$



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

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

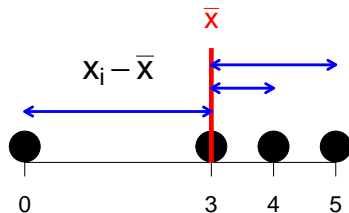
For the standard deviation  $s$



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

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

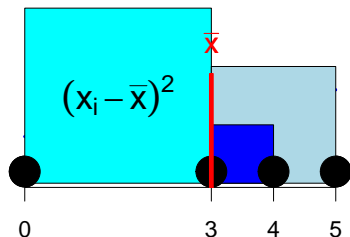
For the standard deviation  $s$



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

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

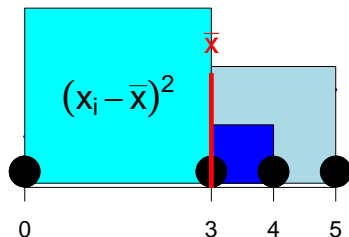
For the standard deviation  $s$



- numerically:  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$
- Large deviations from the mean have a large impact (squaring)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

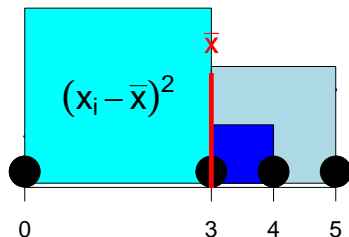
For the standard deviation  $s$



- numerically:  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{1}{3} (3^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 + 2^2) = \frac{14}{3}$
- Large deviations from the mean have a large impact (squaring)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

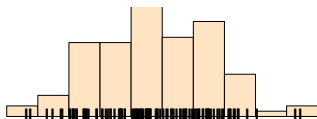
For the standard deviation  $s$



- numerically:  $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 = \frac{1}{3} (3^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 + 2^2) = \frac{14}{3} \rightarrow s = \sqrt{\frac{14}{3}}$
- Large deviations from the mean have a large impact (squaring)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

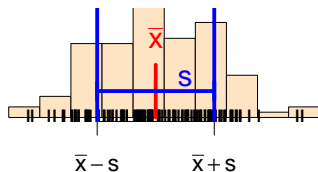
Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)





# Mean and empirical standard deviation

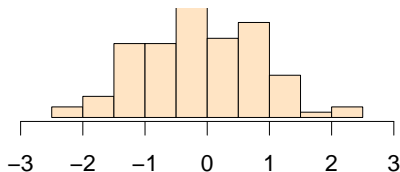
Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)



- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

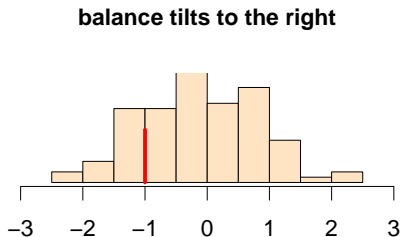
Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)



- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

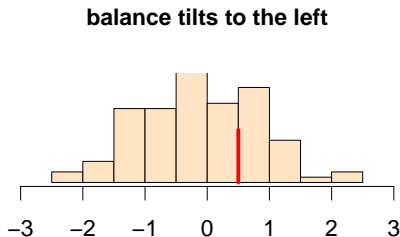
Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)



- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

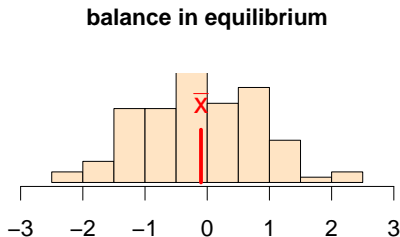
Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)



- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)

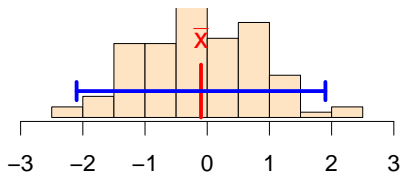


- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)

**more than 2/3 of the data captured**

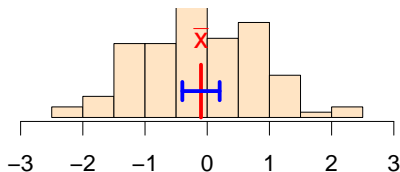


- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)
  - Capture 2/3 of the data around  $\bar{x}$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)

**less than 2/3 of the data captured**

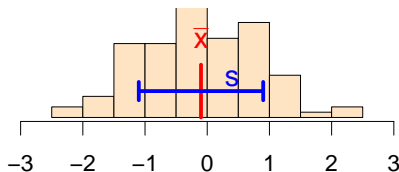


- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)
  - Capture 2/3 of the data around  $\bar{x}$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)

**about 2/3 of the data captured**



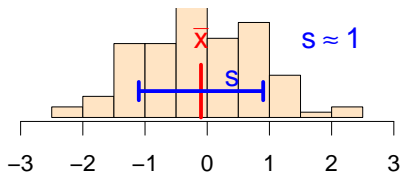
- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)
  - Capture 2/3 of the data around  $\bar{x}$



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)

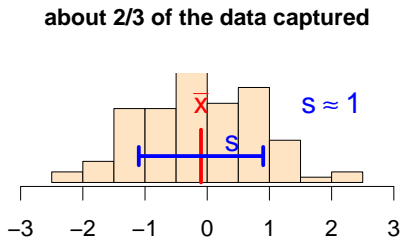
about 2/3 of the data captured



- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)
  - Capture 2/3 of the data around  $\bar{x}$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

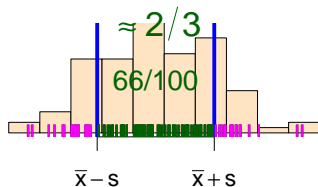
Naive estimation of  $s$  (only for bell-shaped distributions!)



- Fact: About 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$
- Turn the tables
  - Estimate  $\bar{x}$  ( $\rightarrow$  balance)
  - Capture 2/3 of the data around  $\bar{x}$
- Numerically:  $\bar{x} \approx -0.1$  and  $s \approx 0.94$

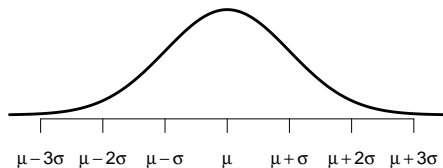
# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

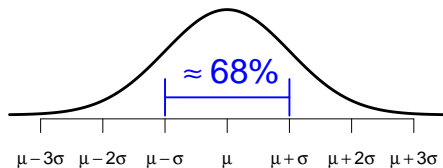
We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?



- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

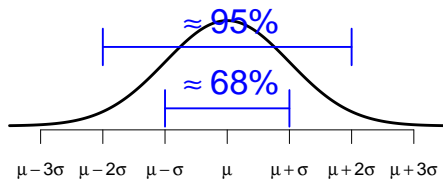
We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?



- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

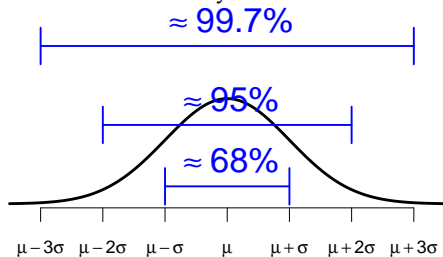
We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?



- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

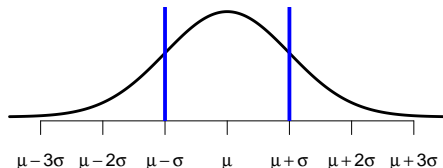


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$



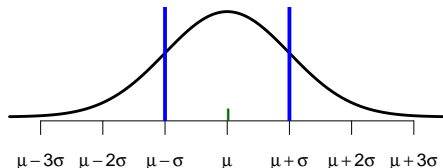
- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
X falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

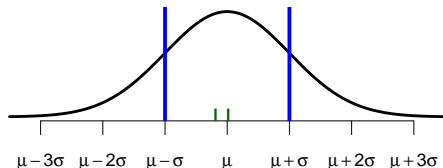


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
X falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

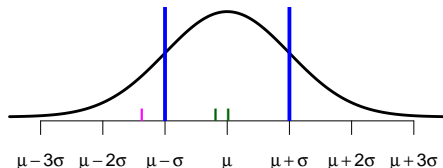


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

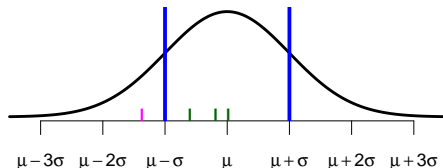


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
X falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

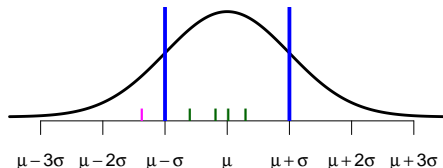


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

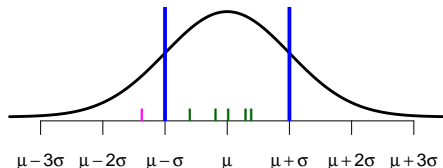


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
X falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

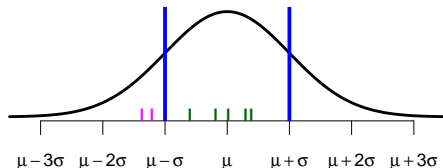


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
X falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

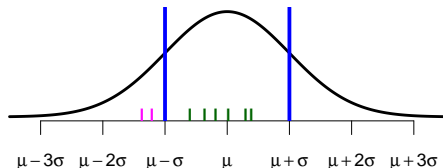


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$



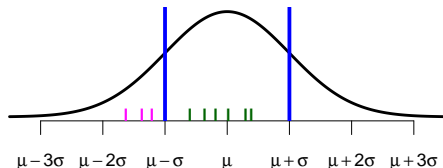
- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

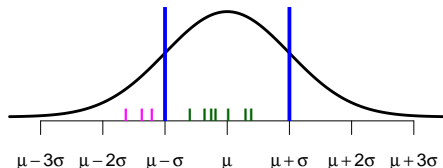


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

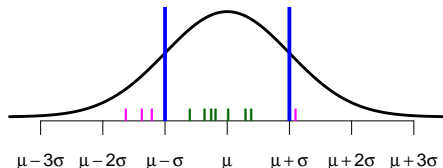


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

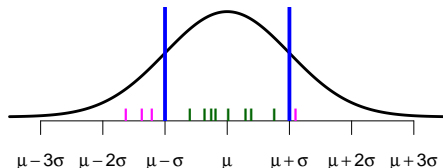


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

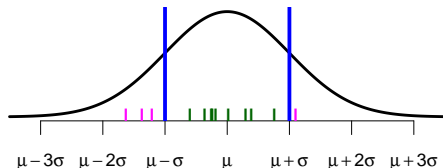


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

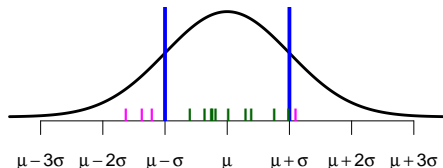


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

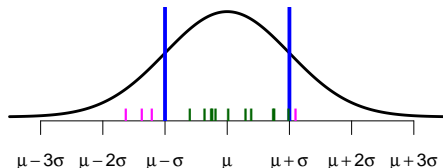


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about  $2/3$  of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

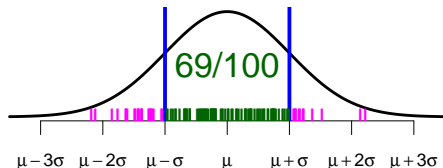


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about  $2/3$
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?

$$\frac{2}{3} \\ \approx 68\%$$

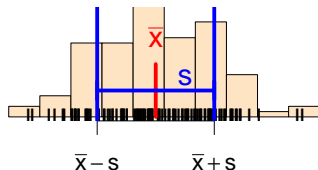


- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped
  - The *proportion* within  $\mu \pm \sigma$  lies close to 2/3 ( $\rightarrow$  Law of large numbers)  
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[\mu \pm \sigma]}(X_i) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{[\mu \pm \sigma]}(X_1)] = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \in [\mu \pm \sigma]) \approx 2/3, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$



# Mean and empirical standard deviation

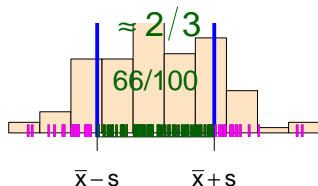
We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?



- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped
  - The *proportion* within  $\mu \pm \sigma$  lies close to 2/3 ( $\rightarrow$  Law of large numbers)  
 $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[\mu \pm \sigma]}(X_i) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{[\mu \pm \sigma]}(X_1)] = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \in [\mu \pm \sigma]) \approx 2/3, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$
  - $\bar{X}$  and  $S$  consistently *estimate*  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  ( $\rightarrow$  Law of large numbers)  
 $\bar{X} \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mu$  and  $S \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \sigma, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

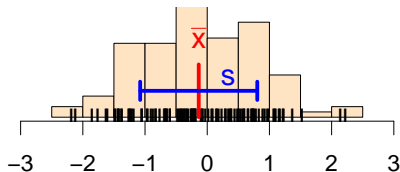
We used: For a bell-shaped distribution about 2/3 of the data lie in the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ . But why?



- Recall: Normal distribution  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - Let  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\mathbb{P}(X \in [\mu - \sigma, \mu + \sigma]) \approx 0.68 \approx 2/3$   
 $X$  falls in the  $\sigma$ -neighborhood of  $\mu$  with probability about 2/3
  - Consider data  $n = 100$  independent copies  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  of  $X$   
data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are interpreted as realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , reasonable as data is approx bell-shaped
  - The *proportion* within  $\mu \pm \sigma$  lies close to 2/3 ( $\rightarrow$  Law of large numbers)  
 $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[\mu \pm \sigma]}(X_i) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{[\mu \pm \sigma]}(X_1)] = \mathbb{P}(X_1 \in [\mu \pm \sigma]) \approx 2/3, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$
  - $\bar{X}$  and  $S$  consistently *estimate*  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  ( $\rightarrow$  Law of large numbers)  
 $\bar{X} \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mu$  and  $S \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \sigma, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$
  - Also the *proportion* within  $\bar{X} \pm S$  is close to 2/3  
 $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[\bar{X} \pm S]}(X_i) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{[\mu \pm \sigma]}(X_1)] \approx 2/3, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$  (note that the CDF of  $X$  is continuous)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

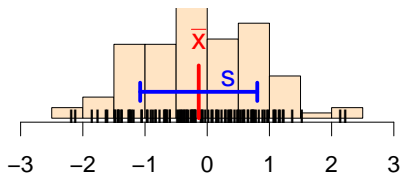
Interpretation (only for bell-shaped distributions of data)



- $\bar{x}$  is interpreted as a *typical observation*

# Mean and empirical standard deviation

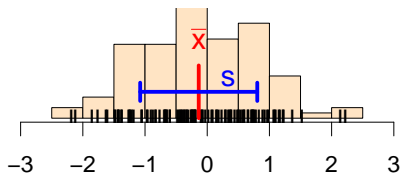
Interpretation (only for bell-shaped distributions of data)



- $\bar{x}$  is interpreted as a *typical observation*
- $s$  is interpreted as the *typical deviation* of an observation (from the mean)

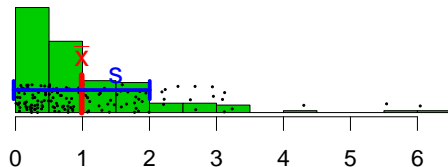
# Mean and empirical standard deviation

Interpretation (only for bell-shaped distributions of data)



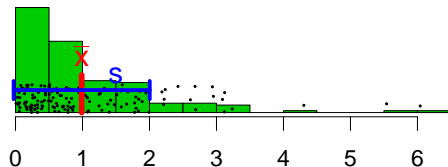
- $\bar{x}$  is interpreted as a *typical observation*
- $s$  is interpreted as the *typical deviation* of an observation (from the mean)
- These two statistics (only two!) suitably summarize the whole set of data (many!)

# Mean and empirical standard deviation



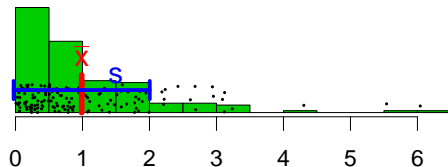
- If the data are not distributed approximately bell-shaped, then this interpretation is not useful

# Mean and empirical standard deviation



- If the data are not distributed approximately bell-shaped, then this interpretation is not useful
- Here  $\bar{x}$  is not a typical observation. Much more data lie left of  $\bar{x}$  than right of it

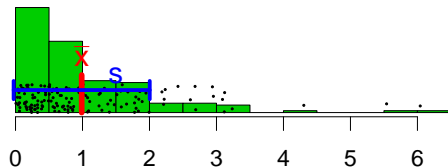
# Mean and empirical standard deviation



- If the data are not distributed approximately bell-shaped, then this interpretation is not useful
- Here  $\bar{x}$  is not a typical observation. Much more data lie left of  $\bar{x}$  than right of it
- $s$  does not describe the typical deviation of  $\bar{x}$ . Almost all of the data lie within the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ , only few outliers lie outside of it



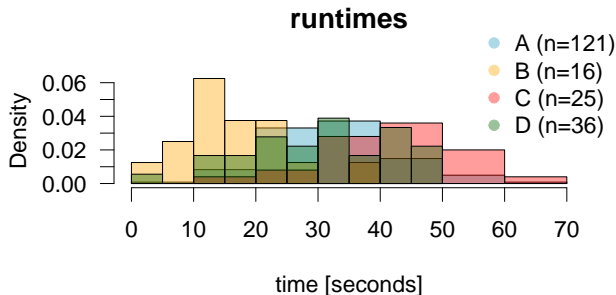
# Mean and empirical standard deviation



- If the data are not distributed approximately bell-shaped, then this interpretation is not useful
- Here  $\bar{x}$  is not a typical observation. Much more data lie left of  $\bar{x}$  than right of it
- $s$  does not describe the typical deviation of  $\bar{x}$ . Almost all of the data lie within the  $s$ -neighborhood of  $\bar{x}$ , only few outliers lie outside of it
- $\bar{x}$  and  $s$  should not be used for the description of the location and the dispersion of the data

# Boxplot

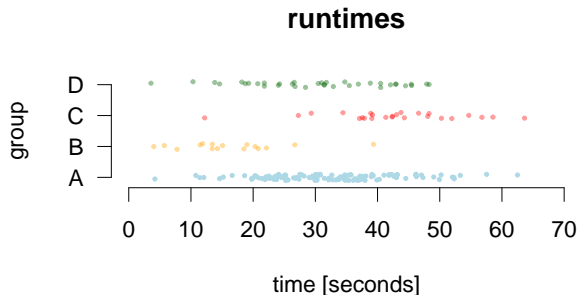
Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* and *D*



- Histograms overplotted

# Boxplot

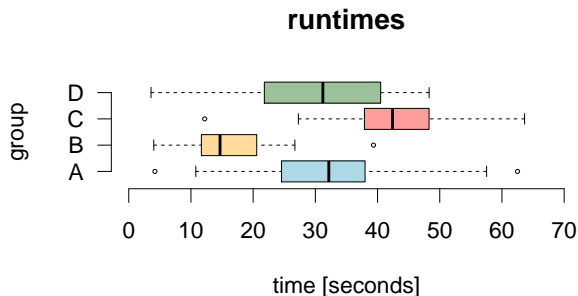
Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* and *D*



- Histograms overplotted  
Could represent the data in a stripchart

# Boxplot

Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* and *D*

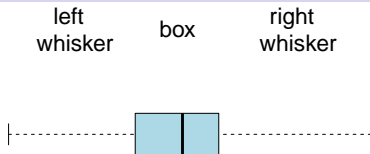


- Histograms overplotted  
Could represent the data in a stripchart  
Other possibility: the *box and whisker plot*, short boxplot

# Boxplot

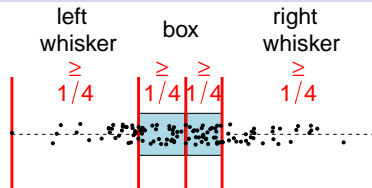


# Boxplot



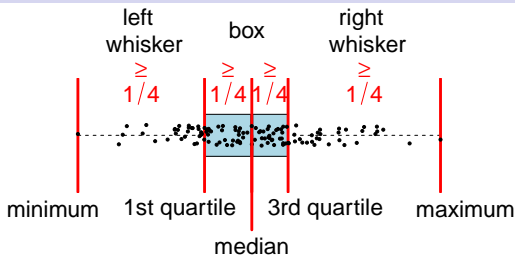
- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)

# Boxplot



- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)
- Four sections, contain at least  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the data

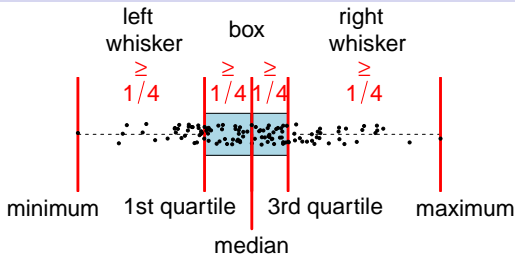
# Boxplot



- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)
- Four sections, contain at least  $1/4$  of the data
- → five statistics:
  - *Minimum*, smallest observation
  - *Maximum*, largest observation

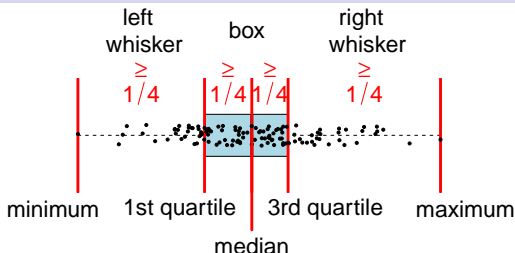


# Boxplot



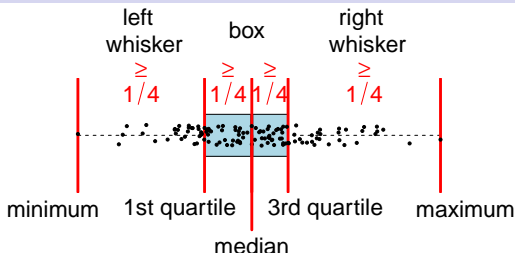
- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)
- Four sections, contain at least  $1/4$  of the data
- → five statistics:
  - *Minimum*, smallest observation
  - *Maximum*, largest observation
  - *Median* ( $m$ ), at least 50% of the data  $\geq m$  and at least 50% are  $\leq m$

# Boxplot



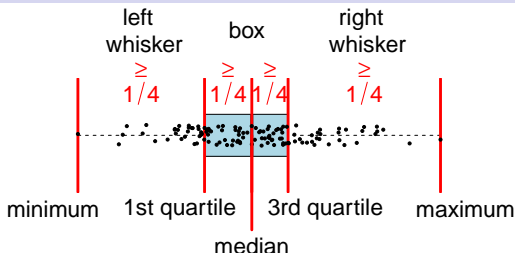
- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)
- Four sections, contain at least  $1/4$  of the data
- → five statistics:
  - *Minimum*, smallest observation
  - *Maximum*, largest observation
  - *Median* ( $m$ ), at least 50% of the data  $\geq m$  and at least 50% are  $\leq m$
  - *1st quartile* ( $q_{1/4}$ ), at least 25% are  $\leq q_{1/4}$  and at least 75% are  $\geq q_{1/4}$

# Boxplot



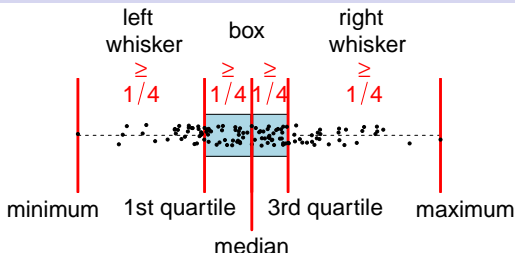
- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)
- Four sections, contain at least  $1/4$  of the data
- → five statistics:
  - *Minimum*, smallest observation
  - *Maximum*, largest observation
  - *Median* ( $m$ ), at least 50% of the data  $\geq m$  and at least 50% are  $\leq m$
  - *1st quartile* ( $q_{1/4}$ ), at least 25% are  $\leq q_{1/4}$  and at least 75% are  $\geq q_{1/4}$
  - *3rd quartile* ( $q_{3/4}$ ), at least 75% are  $\leq q_{3/4}$  and at least 25% are  $\geq q_{3/4}$

# Boxplot



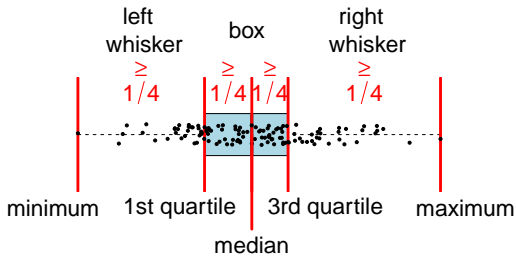
- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)
- Four sections, contain at least  $1/4$  of the data
- → five statistics:
  - *Minimum*, smallest observation
  - *Maximum*, largest observation
  - *Median* ( $m$ ), at least 50% of the data  $\geq m$  and at least 50% are  $\leq m$
  - *1st quartile* ( $q_{1/4}$ ), at least 25% are  $\leq q_{1/4}$  and at least 75% are  $\geq q_{1/4}$
  - *3rd quartile* ( $q_{3/4}$ ), at least 75% are  $\leq q_{3/4}$  and at least 25% are  $\geq q_{3/4}$
- Interpretation:
  - Median  $m$  is a measure for the location of the observations (→ where?)

# Boxplot



- Consists of a box and two whisker ('Schnurrhaare', meow!)
- Four sections, contain at least  $1/4$  of the data
- → five statistics:
  - *Minimum*, smallest observation
  - *Maximum*, largest observation
  - *Median* ( $m$ ), at least 50% of the data  $\geq m$  and at least 50% are  $\leq m$
  - *1st quartile* ( $q_{1/4}$ ), at least 25% are  $\leq q_{1/4}$  and at least 75% are  $\geq q_{1/4}$
  - *3rd quartile* ( $q_{3/4}$ ), at least 75% are  $\leq q_{3/4}$  and at least 25% are  $\geq q_{3/4}$
- Interpretation:
  - Median  $m$  is a measure for the location of the observations (→ where?)
  - Interquartile range  $q_{3/4} - q_{1/4}$  (width of the box) is a measure for the dispersion of the data (→ how variable?)

# Boxplot



# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .

# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .In formulas:

$$i. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$



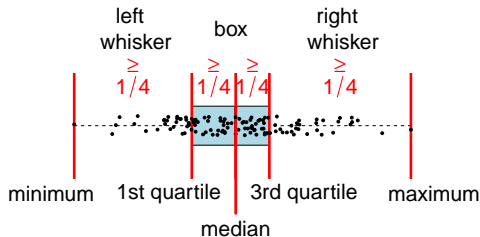
# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .

In formulas:

$$i.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

- We already know three prominent candidates (with their own name):  
a median is a 50%-quantile ( $p = 1/2$ )



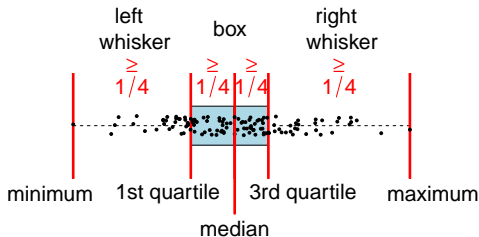
# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .

In formulas:

$$i. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

- We already know three prominent candidates (with their own name):
  - a median is a 50%-quantile ( $p = 1/2$ )
  - a 1st quartile is a 25%-quantile ( $p = 1/4$ )



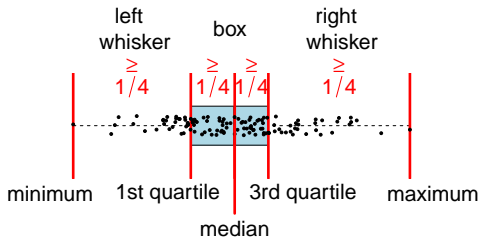
# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .

In formulas:

$$i. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

- We already know three prominent candidates (with their own name):
  - a median is a 50%-quantile ( $p = 1/2$ )
  - a 1st quartile is a 25%-quantile ( $p = 1/4$ )
  - a 3rd quartile is a 75%-quantile ( $p = 3/4$ )



# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .In formulas:

$$i. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

- Example: Four observations  $x = (1, 2, 3, 4)^t$

superscript  $t$  denotes the transpose

# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .In formulas:

$$i. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii. : \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

- Example: Four observations  $x = (1, 2, 3, 4)^t$  superscript  $t$  denotes the transpose
  - Many medians: Every number in the interval  $[2, 3]$  is a median

# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .In formulas:

$$i.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

- Example: Four observations  $x = (1, 2, 3, 4)^t$  superscript  $t$  denotes the transpose
  - Many medians: Every number in the interval  $[2, 3]$  is a median
  - Often: Define the *unique* median as the mean value of the bounds, here 2.5

# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .In formulas:

$$i.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

- Example: Four observations  $x = (1, 2, 3, 4)^t$  superscript  $t$  denotes the transpose
  - Many medians: Every number in the interval  $[2, 3]$  is a median
  - Often: Define the *unique* median as the mean value of the bounds, here 2.5
  - Analog: Every number in  $[1, 2]$  is 1/4-quantile, the unique quartile is 1.5

# Empirical quantile (general)

- Definition: Given  $n$  data  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Let  $p \in (0, 1)$ . A number  $q_p \in \mathbb{R}$  is called an (empirical)  $p$ -quantile, if
  - i. the proportion of the data that are smaller or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $p$  and
  - ii. the proportion of the data that are larger or equal  $q_p$  is at least  $1 - p$ .In formulas:

$$i.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{(-\infty, q_p]}(x_i) \geq p \quad \text{and} \quad ii.: \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{[q_p, \infty)}(x_i) \geq 1 - p$$

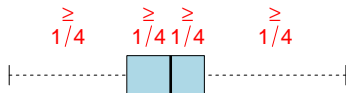
- Example: Four observations  $x = (1, 2, 3, 4)^t$  superscript  $t$  denotes the transpose
  - Many medians: Every number in the interval  $[2, 3]$  is a median
  - Often: Define the *unique* median as the mean value of the bounds, here 2.5
  - Analog: Every number in  $[1, 2]$  is 1/4-quantile, the unique quartile is 1.5
  - Many quantiles equal: The number 2 is a  $p$ -quantile for every  $p$  of  $[0.25, 0.5]$



# Empirical quantile (general)

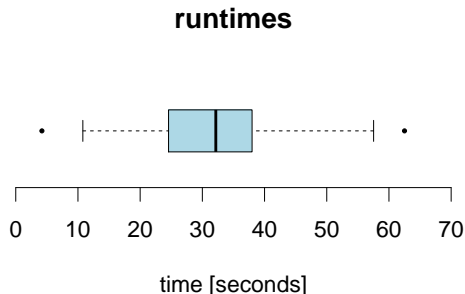
- Example: Four observations  $x = (1, 2, 3, 4)^t$  superscript  $t$  denotes the transpose
  - Many medians: Every number in the interval  $[2, 3]$  is a median
  - Often: Define the *unique* median as the mean value of the bounds, here 2.5
  - Analog: Every number in  $[1, 2]$  is 1/4-quantile, the unique quartile is 1.5
  - Many quantiles equal: The number 2 is a  $p$ -quantile for every  $p$  of  $[0.25, 0.5]$
- Remark.: These kind of 'exotic' messages may support the understanding of the definition of a quantile. The main message however is, that the boxplot appropriately summarizes many data using only five simple statistics

Take home: Many data  $\rightarrow$  at first sight: "1/4, 1/4, 1/4, 1/4"



# Boxplot in R

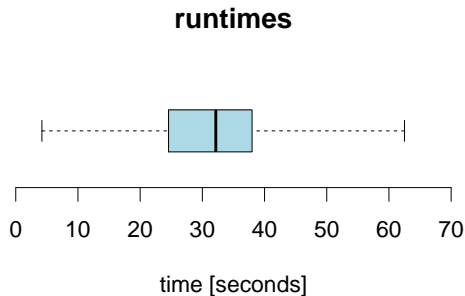
```
#Boxplot, horizontal representation  
boxplot(x, horizontal=TRUE, ...)
```



Attention: per default a whisker ranges to the observation which is most far away from the box, but does not exceed 1.5 times the interquartile range. Extreme values ('outliers') are plotted separately.

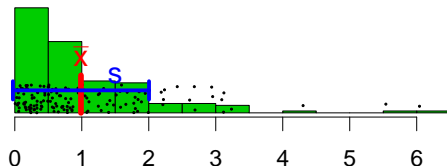
# Boxplot in R

```
#Boxplot, Whisker range to extreme values  
boxplot(x, horizontal=TRUE, range=0, ...)
```



Through the argument `range=0` the whiskers are extended to the extreme values

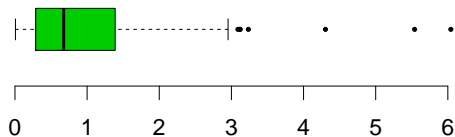
# Boxplot



## Reminder

- due to the asymmetric distribution of the data,  $\bar{x}$  and  $s$  should not be used for the description of the location and the dispersion

# Boxplot



## Reminder

- due to the asymmetric distribution of the data,  $\bar{x}$  and  $s$  should not be used for the description of the location and the dispersion
- The five statistics of the boxplot are more appropriate for the description of the data

Most important message today

3

Most important message today

2

Most important message today

1



Most important message today

Always graphically visualize  
your data first

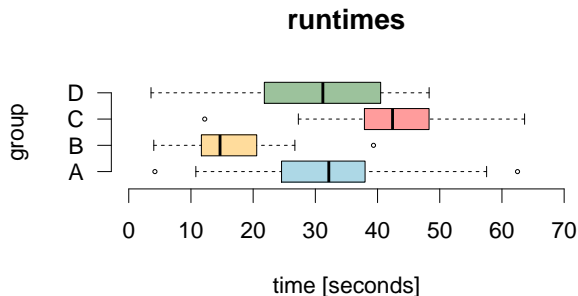
Most important message today

Always graphically visualize  
your data first

(and start computing afterwards)

# Questions

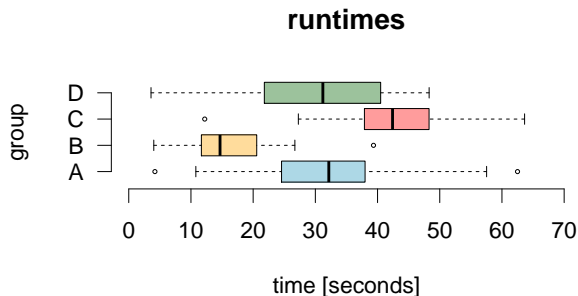
Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* und *D*



- The slowest runtime in *C* was about?

# Questions

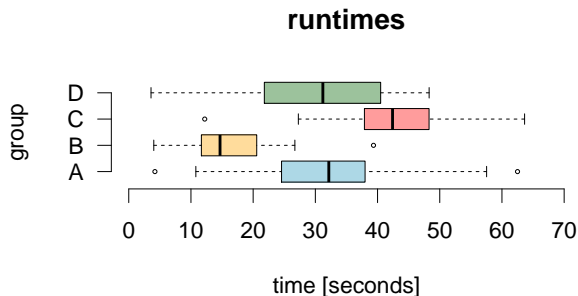
Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* und *D*



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65

# Questions

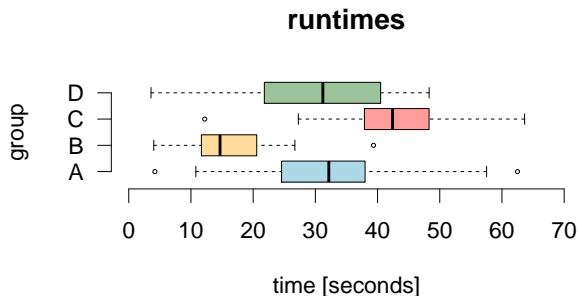
Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* und *D*



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about?

# Questions

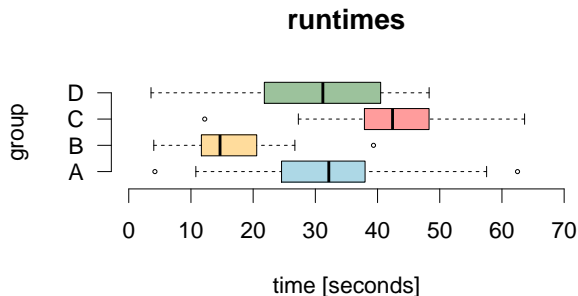
Comparison of four groups A, B, C und D



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5

# Questions

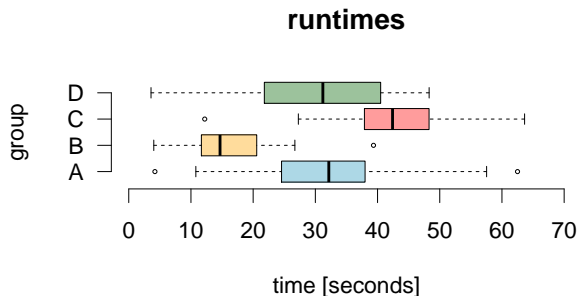
Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* und *D*



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about?

# Questions

Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* und *D*

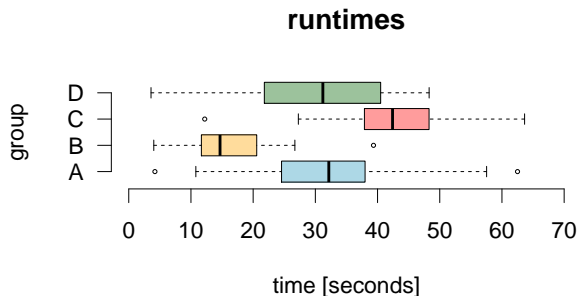


- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about? 30



# Questions

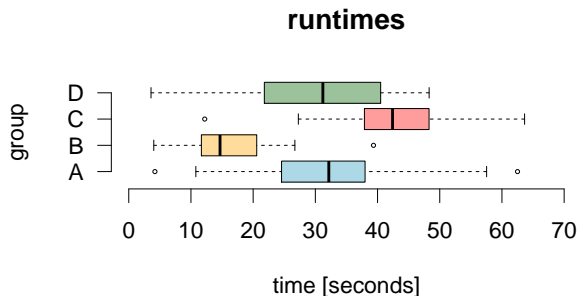
Comparison of four groups *A*, *B*, *C* und *D*



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about? 30
- What is the percentage of runtimes in group B that are smaller than 20?

# Questions

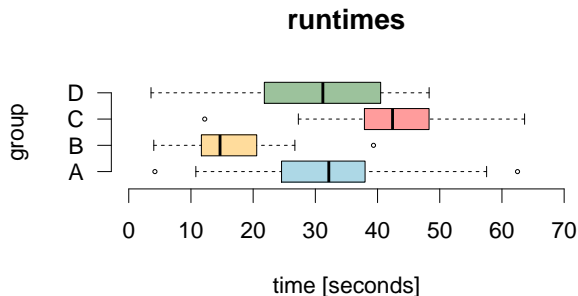
Comparison of four groups A, B, C und D



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about? 30
- What is the percentage of runtimes in group B that are smaller than 20?  
about 75%

# Questions

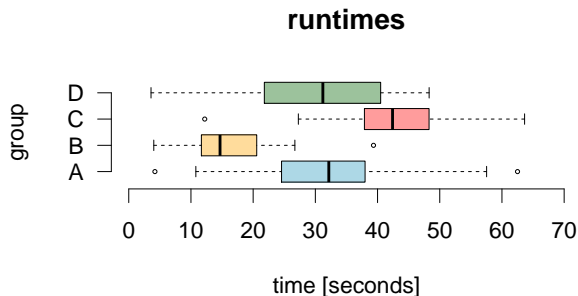
Comparison of four groups A, B, C und D



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about? 30
- What is the percentage of runtimes in group B that are smaller than 20?  
about 75%
- Were 50% of the runtimes in A faster than 75% of the times in C?

# Questions

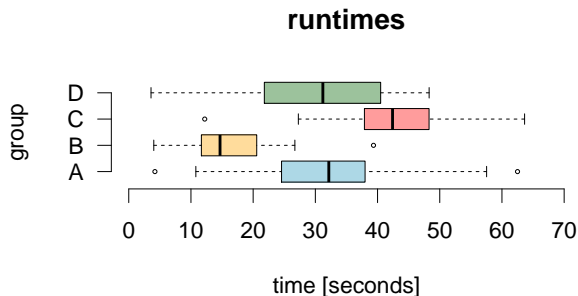
Comparison of four groups A, B, C und D



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about? 30
- What is the percentage of runtimes in group B that are smaller than 20?  
about 75%
- Were 50% of the runtimes in A faster than 75% of the times in C? yes

# Questions

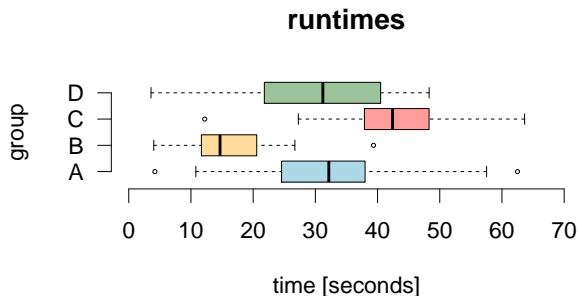
Comparison of four groups A, B, C und D



- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about? 30
- What is the percentage of runtimes in group B that are smaller than 20?  
about 75%
- Were 50% of the runtimes in A faster than 75% of the times in C? yes
- In group B, apart from a single runtime all others were faster than half of those of group A, half of those of C and half of those of D.

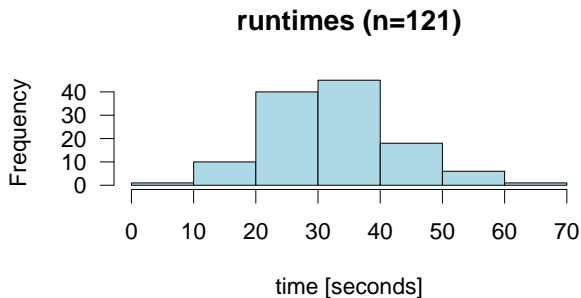
# Questions

Comparison of four groups A, B, C und D



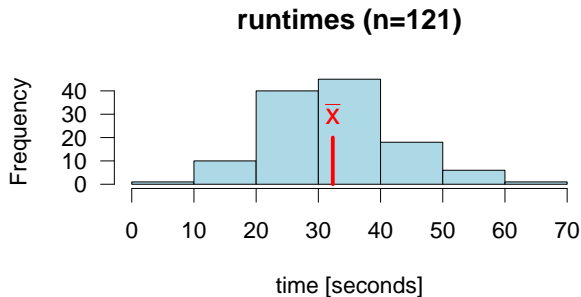
- The slowest runtime in C was about? 65
- The fastest runtime in A is about? 5
- The median runtime in D is about? 30
- What is the percentage of runtimes in group B that are smaller than 20?  
about 75%
- Were 50% of the runtimes in A faster than 75% of the times in C? yes
- In group B, apart from a single runtime all others were faster than half of those of group A, half of those of C and half of those of D. Correct

# Questions



- What is the mean runtime?

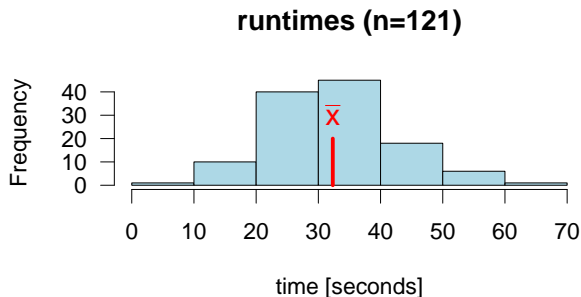
# Questions



- What is the mean runtime? **about 32**

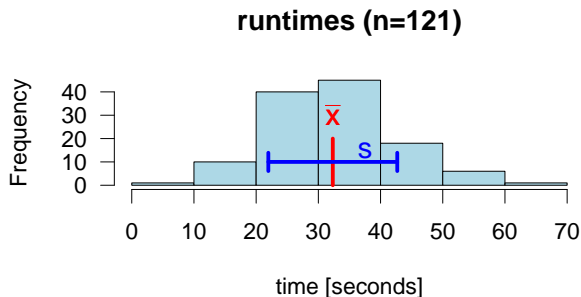


# Questions



- What is the mean runtime? **about 32**
- The standard deviation of the runtimes is about?

# Questions



- What is the mean runtime? about 32
- The standard deviation of the runtimes is about 10

Thank you!