Statistics is the art of summarization. It is an art because, for any given set of data, there are many ways of summarizing that data.

We'll focus on some fairly standard techniques for summarizing sets of data called:

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are usually a single number, whose purpose is to describe the data;

Examples include:

Range Number of Observations Average (mean) Proportion (fraction, frequency)

As a general rule, there is not a statistical or probability model associated descriptive statistics.

This is good and bad. Why?

Summarization

Review: Types of data

- Categorical Nominal and Ordinal
- Numerical Discrete and Continuous

Different types of data require will require different descriptive statistics!

Example:

Proportion of females vs. Average Gender

Average Height vs. Proportion of height

There is no rule for determining which summary measure should be used. Use the context in which the data arose for a guide.

DATA: Male Life Expectancy by Country (from 1993 Demographic Yearbook)

	Country	<u>Years</u>	Notation
1.	Canada	73.02	X ₁
2.	Costa Rica	72.89	x_2
3.	Cuba	72.74	x_3
4.	United States	72.00	x_4
5.	Jamaica	71.41	X 5
6.	Bermuda	70.23	X ₆
7.	Panama	69.78	X ₇
8.	Bahamas	68.32	X 8
9.	Aruba	68.30	X 9
10.	Barbados	67.15	X ₁₀
11.	Nicaragua	64.80	X ₁₁
12.	Mexico	62.10	X ₁₂
13.	Greenland	60.40	X ₁₃
14.	Haiti	54.95	X ₁₄
15.	El Salvador	50.74	X ₁₅

Note: *Lower case* letters, such as x_9 or y_{22} , always represent observed data.

Mean -- object (average -- verb)

Observations: $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$

The Mean is defined as: $\overline{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$

Example: Mean Male Life Expectancy

$$\overline{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{15} x_i}{15}$$
$$= \frac{(73.02 + 72.89 + \dots + 50.74)}{15} = 66.59$$

Note: The mean is *very* sensitive to the magnitude of the observations

2. Weighted Average

(Observations: $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$)

Let $w_1,...,w_n$ each be a number between 0 and 1, such that $w_1+...+w_n=1$.

The weighted average is defined as

$$\overline{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \times x_i = (w_1 \times x_1 + \dots + w_n \times x_n)$$

Some familiar weights:

w_i = 1/n gives the normal average (mean)

For the Male Life Expectancy data:

- $w_1,...,w_{14} = 0$ and $w_{15} = 1$ gives the minimum
- $w_2,...,w_{15} = 0$ and $w_1 = 1$ gives the maximum

Every average is a weighted average. We just leave off the 'weighted' phrase if all the weights are equal.

3. Median

<u>ORDERED</u> observations: $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ ⇒ Ordered implies $x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_n$

(Note: our data set is already ordered, but in the opposite direction, i.e. x_1 is the largest and x_n is the smallest)

The median is defined as the 50th percentile of the observations.

'middle most number' 'half the data is below, half above'

n odd: Median is the $((n+1)/2)^{th}$ observation

n even: Median is the *average* of the $(n/2)^{th}$ observation and the $(n/2+1)^{th}$ observation

Example: Median Male Life Expectancy

15 is odd: the Median observation is
$$x_8 = 68.32$$
 {Bahamas b/c $(15+1)/2=8$ }

Now throw out El Salvador (observation x_{15}) so the data set only has 14 observations.

Now the median is

14 is even: The median is
$$(x_7 + x_8)/2 = 69.05$$

 x_7 b/c $14/2=7$, and
 x_8 b/c $(14/2+1)=8$, and
 $(69.78 + 68.32)/2 = 69.05$

Example: Median Male Life Expectancy (continued)

Mean is now:
$$\overline{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{14} x_i}{14} = 67.72$$

Unlike the mean, the median is *not* sensitive to the magnitude of the observations!

Regardless of magnitude for El Salvador (x₁₅),
the Median Male Life Expectancy
remains the same (in both data sets)!

However the Mean Male Life Expectancy depends heavily on the magnitude of the Male Life Expectancy in El Salvador (x_{15})

(Trick) Question:

Which do you prefer, mean or median?

4. Centiles (percentiles)

<u>ORDERED</u> observations: $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ ⇒ Ordered implies $x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_n$

(Note: our data set is already ordered, but in the opposite direction, i.e. x_1 is the largest and x_n is the smallest)

The zth centile is the observation that is greater than z% of the data and less than (100-z)% of the data.

Rules for calculating the zth centile can be found on page 44 of Pagano. But nobody does them, so just find a computer and make it do the work.

Stata command for percentiles: centile *varname*, centile(10,20,33,78,94)

Example: Male Life Expectancy data in Stata

I entered the data by hand into stata

. list		
	country	life
1.	El Salvador	50.74
2.	Haiti	54.95
3.	Greenland	60.4
4.	Mexico	62.1
5.	Nicaragua	64.8
6.	Barbados	67.15
7.	Aruba	68.3
8.	Bahamas	68.32
9.	Panama	69.78
10.	Bermuda	70.23
11.	Jamaica	71.41
12.	United States	72
13.	Cuba	72.74
14.	Costa Rica	72.89
15.	Canada	73.02

. summarize life

		Std. Dev.	
life		6 81074	

Example: Male Life Expectancy data in Stata

. centile life, centile(1,5,10,25,50,75,90,95,99)

Variable	Obs	Percentile	Centile	Binom. I [95% Conf	•
life	15	1	50.74	50.74	54.45343*
j		5	50.74	50.74	61.01954*
j		10	53.266	50.74	64.02599*
j		25	62.1	51.47319	68.31608
j		50	68.32	62.58105	71.89488
j		75	72	68.60591	72.99736
j		90	72.942	71.57914	73.02*
j		95	73.02	72.47032	73.02*
j		99	73.02	72.90533	73.02*

^{*} Lower (upper) confidence limit held at minimum (maximum) of sample

Actually the rules for the 25th and 75th percentile are easy:

$$75^{th}$$
 centile = $(3*(n+1)/4)^{th}$ observation round down

5. Mode

Observations: $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$

The mode is defined as the most frequent observation.

Example: Median Male Life Expectancy

As the data stand, each observation is unique, so there is no mode (or each observation is a mode).

But if we round the Male Life Expectancy data to the nearest integer (see next page),

the mode is 73 $(x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 73)$

Summarization

Rounded DATA: Male Life Expectancy by Country (from 1993 Demographic Yearbook)

. generate rlife=round(life,1)

. list

	country	life	rlife
1.	Canada	73.02	73
2.	Coata Rica	72.89	73
3.	Cuba	72.74	73
4.	United States	72	72
5.	Jamaica	71.41	71
6.	Bermuda	70.23	70
7.	Panama	69.78	70
8.	Bahamas	68.32	68
9.	Aruba	68.3	68
10.	Bardados	67.15	67
11.	Nicaragua	64.8	65
12.	Mexico	62.1	62
13.	Greenland	60.4	60
14.	Haiti	54.95	55
15.	El Salvador	50.74	51

Measures of Dispersion (Variation)

1. Range

The range is defined as the difference between the maximum and minimum observation.

Example: Range of Male Life Expectancy
Range =
$$x_1 - x_{15} = 73.02-50.74 = 22.28$$

2. Interquartile Range (IQR)

The Interquartile Range is defined as the difference between the 75th centile observation and 25th centile observation.

$$IQR = x_4 - x_{12} = 72-62.1 = 9.9$$

Measures of Dispersion (Variation)

2. Variance and Standard Deviation

The variance can be thought of as the <u>average</u> squared deviation of the observations from the sample mean.

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

However, the variance is in squared x units, unlike to the mean \overline{x} , which is in regular units of measurement.

Therefore, it is easier to talk about, $s = \sqrt{s^2}$, which is known as the **standard deviation (s)**. Now, units of measurement for s are the same as \overline{x} .

Example: Male Life Expectancy

- . egen xbar=mean(life)
- . generate diff=life-xbar
- . generate diff2=diff^2
- . list

	country	life	xbar	diff	diff2
1.	Canada	73.02	66.59	6.43	41.36
2.	Coata Rica	72.89	66.59	6.30	39.701
3.	Cuba	72.74	66.59	6.15	37.84
4.	United States	72	66.59	5.41	29.28
5.	Jamaica	71.41	66.59	4.82	23.25
6.	Bermuda	70.23	66.59	3.64	13.26
7.	Panama	69.78	66.59	3.19	10.18
8.	Bahamas	68.32	66.59	1.73	2.998
9.	Aruba	68.3	66.59	1.71	2.929
10.	Bardados	67.15	66.59	0.56	0.315
11.	Nicaragua	64.8	66.59	-1.79	3.199
12.	Mexico	62.1	66.59	-4.49	20.15
13.	Greenland	60.4	66.59	-6.19	38.30
14.	Haiti	54.95	66.59	-11.64	135.46
15.	El Salvador	50.74	66.59	-15.85	251.18

. summ xbar diff diff2

Į.		Mean		Min	Max
xbar	15	66.58867	0	66.58867	66.58867
diff					6.431328
diff2	15	43.29376	66.34464	0.31510	251.1803

. summarize life

•		Std. Dev.	
•		6.81074	

Notice: $s^2 = (6.811)^2 = 46.39 = 43.29376*(15/14)$

Example: Thinking about variability

Sample 1: 66, 66, 66, 67, 67, 67, 68, 69

$$\bar{x} = 67$$
 s = 1.069

Sample 2: 52, 53, 61, 67, 71, 72, 78, 82

$$\bar{x} = 67$$
 s = 10.98

Sample 3: 43, 44, 50, 54, 67, 90, 91, 97

$$\bar{x} = 67$$
 s = 22.58

- All three samples have the same mean but different amounts of variability.
- Often a single summary measure will not do!

Measures of Dispersion (Variation)

3. Coefficient of Variation (cv)

The Coefficient of Variation relates the standard deviation to the mean.

$$cv = \frac{s}{\overline{x}}$$

Sometimes the CV is expressed in percentages.

Measures of Dispersion (Variation) for Grouped Data

Pagano and Gauvreau take some time to discuss how to calculate the 'mean' and 'variance' of grouped data.

I think this is a bad idea. We should not make a habit of treating categorical data as if it was continuous.

Example: Pagano page 51

Cholesterol	Midpoint	Number of
Level		Men
80-119	99.5	13
120-159	139.5	150
160-199	179.5	442
200-239	219.5	299
240-279	259.5	115
280-319	299.5	34
320-359	339.5	9
360-399	379.5	5
Total	Total	1067

Measures of Dispersion (Variation) for Grouped Data

Pagano averages the midpoint of the categories, pretending that the midpoints were actual observations. He gets a mean of **198.8**.

This is a dangerous practice because it implies that you have more information than you really do.

For example, instead averaging the midpoint of the categories, average the lower boundaries to a mean of **179.3**. If the upper boundary is averaged the mean is **218.3**.

So all we can really say is that the true mean is between **179.3** and **218.3**.

(Grouped variance has similar problems.)

Why not use the table itself as the summary statistic?

Moments

Moments are average deviations about the mean. They characterize or summarize the distribution.

$$m_{1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})}{n}$$

$$m_{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2}}{n}$$

$$m_{3} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{3}}{n}$$

$$m_{j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{j}}{n}$$

etc..

Why are moments useful?

1st moment (m₁)

Automatically sums to zero

$$m_1=0$$
 (by definition)

2nd moment (m₂)

- average squared deviation from the mean
- each terms is non-negative
- related to sample variance

$$S^2 = m_2 \times n/(n-1)$$

Summarization

3rd moment (m₃)

- Average cubed deviation about the mean
- Each term negative or positive
- Does not automatically sum to zero
- Measures symmetry about the mean

When $m_3=0$, then the distribution is *symmetric* about the mean

Skewness is measured by the 3rd moment

Skewness
$$(\gamma) = m_3 / (m_2)^{3/2}$$

(standardized so that skewness does not depend on the units of measure)

Summarization

Variable	mean	median	IQR	SD	Skewness
DBP 24	61.8	61	8	7.6	0.1
FIRI	11.3	9.5	9.8	8.0	1.7
CPR	2.5	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.5

