Statistics MM1: Introduction to statistics

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Schedule

- 1. Introduction to statistics
- 2. Parameter estimation
- 3. Confidence intervals
- 4. Hypothesis testing 1
- 5. Hypothesis testing 2
- 6. Regression
- 7. Workshop: wrap-up and exam problems



Outline

What is statistics?

Classification of statistics

The law of large numbers

The normal (Gaussian) distribution

The central limit theorem

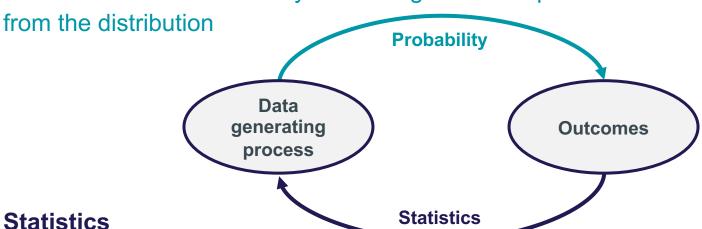


What is statistics?

What is statistics?

Probability

Methods that allow us to say something about the possible outcomes of a process



Statistics

Methods that allow us to say something about a process from the outcomes

What is statistics?

Methods that allow us to say something about a process from its samples Basis for data-driven methods and machine learning

Statistical inference:

Process of using data samples to infer the distribution that generated them

- Prediction
- Classification
- Clustering
- Estimation

Problem: In everyday statistics, the uncertainty is oftentimes hidden It's difficult to deal with uncertainty because we are used to live based on certainty



Fair dice example

A fair dice should have the exact same probability of rolling any of the numbers Can you say if a dice is fair by rolling it once?

Twice?

After rolling it 100 times, how confident are you that it is fair?





Why do we need statistics?

In real life, we rarely know the distribution that generates the data points We might only have some initial assumptions

Statistics allows us to interpret data

Transform measurements into a model that can be used to make predictions

The scientific method often relies on statistics for empirical confirmation **Hypothesis testing:** Can I accept or reject the hypothesis with the data I have?



Classification of statistics

Descriptive and inferential statistics

Descriptive statistics

Used to present the data in an understandable way How can we show our results to say something meaningful?

From measurements to graphs, plots, charts, ...

Inferential statistics

Used to extend the results to a larger population
What can we say about the phenomena from the data we have?
From measurements to predictions



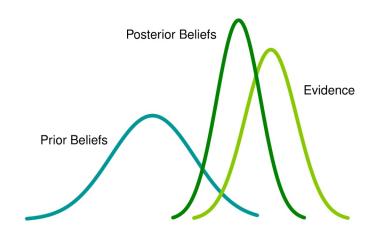
Frequentist and Bayesian statistics

Frequentist statistics

Look only at the data, with fixed parameters Easy to compute

Bayesian statistics

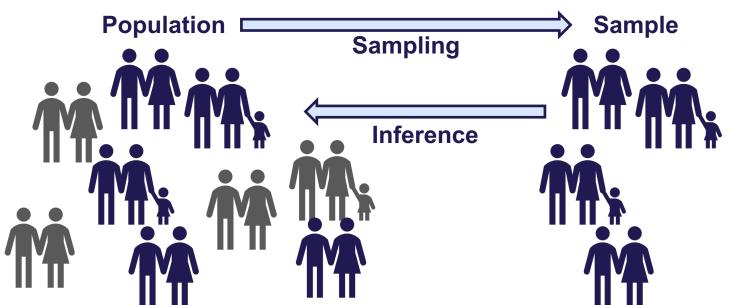
Can include prior knowledge
Can be updated with new information
Parameters are stochastic
Hard to compute



Sampling

Sampling

If we cannot measure the whole population, we use a smaller sample







Sample space and events

Sample space Ω is the set of possible outcomes of an experiment **Outcomes** are individual points $\omega \in \Omega$ **Events** are subsets of outcomes $A \subseteq \Omega$

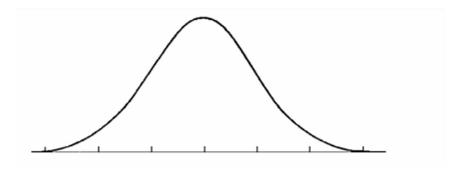
Example

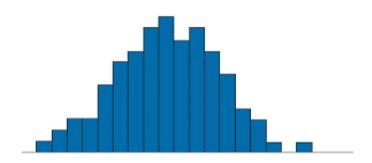
If we toss a coin twice, where the outcome of each toss is either H or T, then

- The possible outcomes are:
- The sample space is:
- The event that the first toss is heads is:

How do we create a sample?

We randomly draw n values from the population Each value X_i is a random variable with distribution FWe use the sample to estimate some parameter of F (inference)





Implications and assumptions during sampling

If we randomly draw n values from the population And each value X_i is a random variable with distribution F Then a sufficiently large sample will *look like* the whole population

What does it mean looking like?

The parameters of the population are similar to the statistics

The parameters describe the population and the statistics describe the sample

- Mean
- Variance
- Quantiles



Descriptive statistics

Types of data

Quantitative

Objective measurements about some value: age, height, GPA

Qualitative

Categorical data for classification into groups

Name	Age	Gender	Height	GPA	Degree
Andy Smith	21	М	1.83	94.5%	Electronics
Mark Young	23	М	1.77	93.8%	CS
Alice Brown	19	F	1.79	98.2%	Robotics
Jenny Black	22	F	1.64	94.3%	CS
Luke Scott	18	М	1.92	99.1%	Robotics



Summary representation

Absolute frequency of occurrence

How many samples fall in a category?

Relative frequency of occurrence

Frequency normalized by sample size

Must sum to 1 or 100%

Degree	Frequency	Relative frequency
CS	31	
Electronics	23	
Robotics	44	
Architecture	37	

Histograms

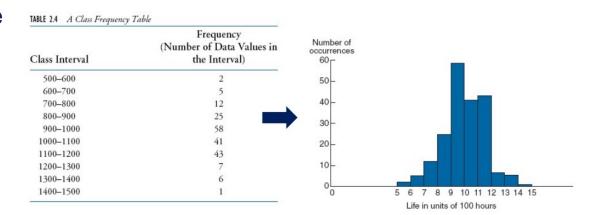
Represent the frequency of occurrence of the outcomes

- 1. Divide the range of values into bins
- 2. Count the occurrences
- 3. Plot

Can be absolute or relative

Main challenge

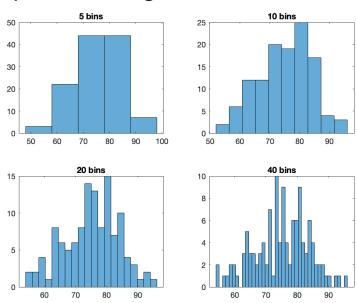
How to choose the bins?





Example

There is a file called examgrades.mat in the Scripts folder By running DataDescription.m, we generate the following histograms

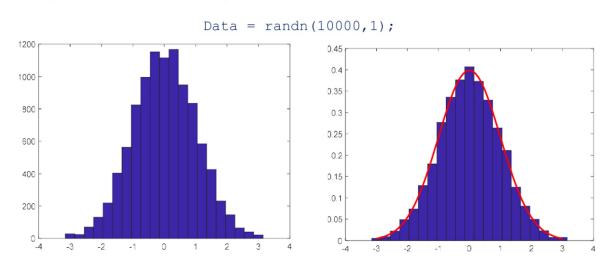


Types of histograms

Absolute frequency

Relative frequency: You get an approximation of a pmf

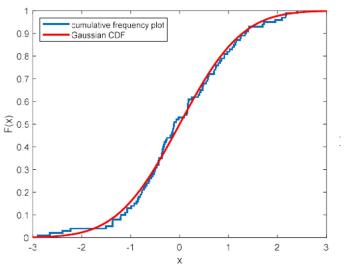
Normalized by bin size: You get an approximation of a pdf



Cumulative frequency plot (ogive)

We know that a CDF shows $P(X \le x)$: obtained by integrating the PDF/pmf To obtain the plot:

- 1. Sort the categories or values (ascending order)
- 2. The value for a given x is the number of outcomes lesser than x





Sample mean and variance

If $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are random variables, the **sample mean** is the random variable

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

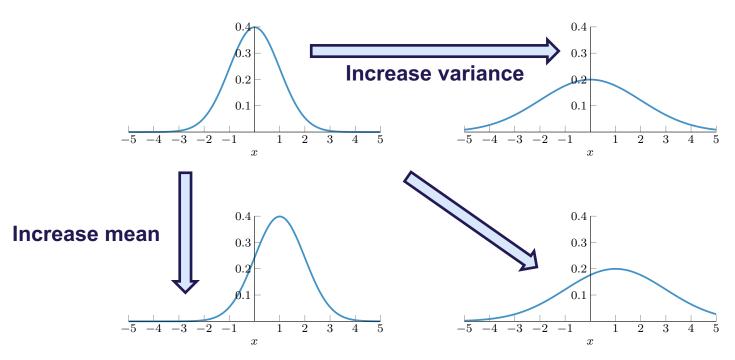
And the **sample variance** is

$$S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2$$

Important

The square root of the variance is the **standard deviation Look at the denominator in the formula for the sample variance**

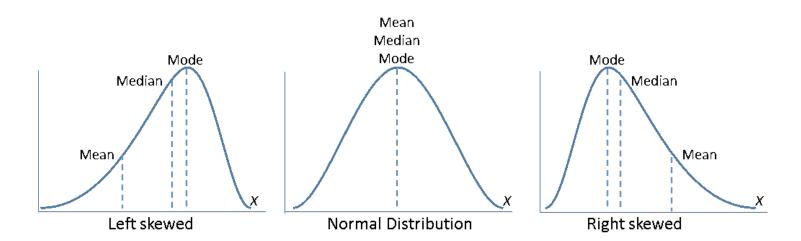
Sample mean and variance visualized



The mean is not always equal to the median

Median: 50% of the outcomes are below and 50% are above

Mode: Category with highest frequency



The law of large numbers

The linearity of the expectation and sample mean

Expectation

$$\mathbb{E}(X+Y) = \mathbb{E}(X) + \mathbb{E}(Y)$$

$$\mathbb{E}(aX + b) = a\mathbb{E}(X) + b$$

Sample mean

If
$$Z_i = X_i + Y_i$$
, then

If
$$Z_i = aX_i + b$$
, then

$$\bar{Z}_n = \bar{X}_n + \bar{Y}_n$$

$$\bar{Z}_n = a\bar{X}_n + b$$

THE LAW OF LARGE NUMBERS

If $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ are i.i.d. random variables and the sample mean is

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Then, \bar{X}_n converges in probability to $\mu = \mathbb{E}(X_i)$ as $n \to \infty$

$$\bar{X}_n \stackrel{P}{\to} \mu = \mathbb{E}(X_i)$$

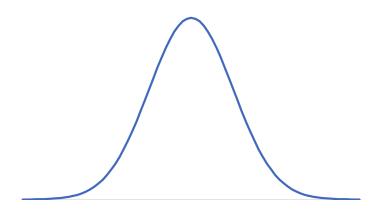
So, \bar{X}_n is close to μ with high probability if the sample size is large

The normal (Gaussian) distribution

The Gaussian distribution

Also called **normal distribution**

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



Mean μ , located at the center of the distribution

Variance σ^2 tells us how wide it is

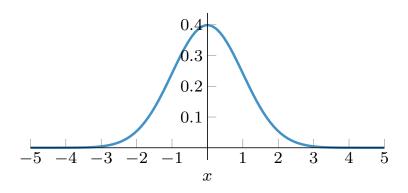
Compact representation is $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

■ If X is normal RV we say $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Standard normal distribution N(0,1)

The case of a normal distribution with $\mu=0$ and $\sigma^2=1$ Denoted by small greek letter phi

$$\varphi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$



Standard normal distribution and Q-function

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) is denoted by $\Phi(x)$ (Phi of x)

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

Q-function

$$Q(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{x}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt \int_{x}^{0.2} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

Relation to Q-function

$$\Phi(x) = 1 - Q(x)$$

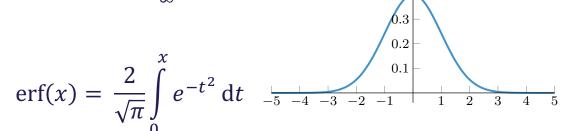
Standard normal distribution and error function

Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) is denoted by $\Phi(x)$ (Phi of x)

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{x} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

Error function

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{0}^{x} e^{-t^2} dt$$



Relation to error function

$$\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \right]$$

Every normal distribution is a scaled standard normal

PDF

$$f(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \varphi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

$$\frac{0.4}{0.3}$$

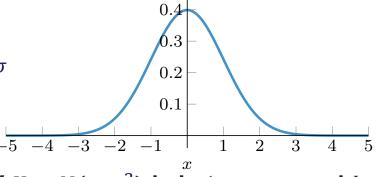
$$\frac{0.2}{0.1}$$
Increase variance
$$F(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \Phi\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$
Increase mean
$$\frac{0.4}{0.3}$$

$$\frac{0.$$

Using the standard normal

Probabilities of the outcomes using σ

- 68% of outcomes are between $\mu \sigma$ and $\mu + \sigma$
- 95% of outcomes are between $\mu 2\sigma$ and $\mu + 2\sigma$
- 99.7% of outcomes between $\mu 3\sigma$ and $\mu + 3\sigma$



Probability that the outcome of a normal RV $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is between a and b

$$P(a < X < b) = F(b; \mu, \sigma^{2}) - F(a; \mu, \sigma^{2})$$
$$= \Phi\left(\frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

Linear operations with the normal distribution

If $X_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ and i = 1, 2, ..., n are independent, then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \sim N\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i^2\right)$$

If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then aX + b has mean $a\mu + b$ and standard deviation $|a|\sigma$

Any linear combination of normal RVs X_1 and X_2

$$W = aX_1 + bX_2$$

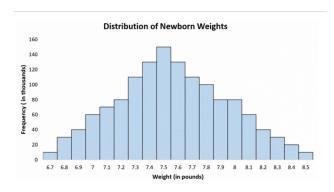
has a normal distribution $W \sim N(a\mu_1 + b\mu_2, a^2\sigma_1^2 + b^2\sigma_2^2)$

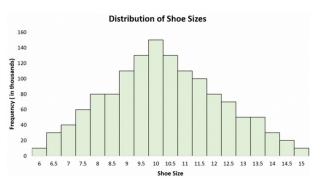
Check normal.py

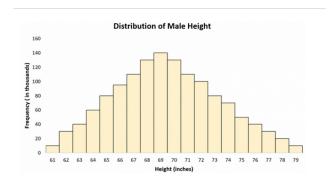


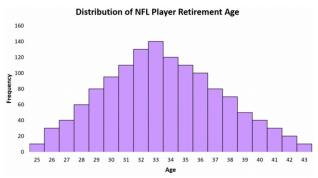
The central limit theorem

Normal distributions are everywhere











THE CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM

Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be i.i.d. random variables with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then, if n is large:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \approx N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$$

In words

The sum of n i.i.d. random variables is approximately normally distributed with mean $\mu_n = n\mu$ and variance $\sigma_n^2 = n\sigma^2$.

Note: There is no requirement on the type of distribution of $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$

Example: Board game

A board game requires the player to roll multiple die

The outcome is the sum of values of the die

How does the distribution look like?

One dice: uniform between 1 and 6

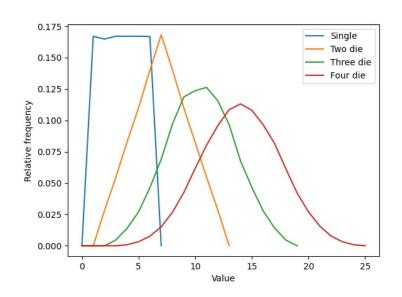
$$X_i \sim U(1,6)$$

$$\mathbb{E}(X_i) = \sum_{k=1}^{6} p_k k = \sum_{k=1}^{6} \frac{1}{6} k = 3.5$$

Two, three, four...?

The more die the more it looks normal

Mean
$$\mu_n = Variance \sigma_n^2 =$$



Example: Coin toss

A coin toss X_i is a Bernoulli RV with probability p = 0.5

Outcomes are heads *H* and tails *T*

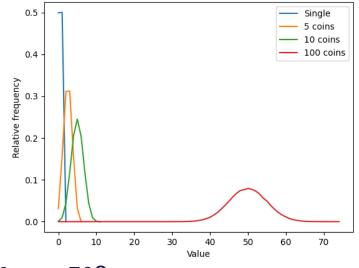
Now we toss the coin n times

The number of heads is a binomial RV H_n

Find the mean of μ_n

- Using the formulas for Binomial distribution
- Using the Central Limit Theorem
- Does it match the graph to the right?

What is the probability of getting $H_{10} = 7$ and $H_{100} = 70$?



Concluding remarks

Lessons learnt

Statistics are everywhere, and it's important to learn them

The basic ways of **describing and visualizing statistical data**:

- Distributions: PDF and pmf
- Cumulative plots: CDF and empirical CDF (ogive)
- Others: box plots, running averages

Sampling is needed and the sample should be representative of the population

Law of large numbers

When the sample is large, we can accurately approximate the mean

The Central Limit Theorem

The sum of a large number of RVs is approximately normal



Useful links and packages

Sources for data:

Our world in data: https://ourworldindata.org/

Matlab

Commands normpdf and normcdf to easily create a normal PDF and CDF

Python

Draw random samples from normal distribution

Numpy: np.random.normal(loc=mu, scale=std, size=(m,n,k))

Scipy: scp.stats.norm.() creates an RV object with the specified parameters

Simulate rolling a fair dice n times.

- a) Calculate the sample mean \bar{X}_i and variance S_i^2 for all i=1,2,...,n
- b) Plot the sample mean \bar{X}_i and $\bar{X}_i \pm S_i$
- c) Plot a normalized histogram with the n outcomes. How many times do you need to roll the dice so the histogram resembles the pmf of a uniform RV?

Help: You can use the code dice_loln.py in the moodle page as a base

Recall the example of the number of heads after n coin tosses Also recall that the pmf of a binomial RV is

$$f(n,k,p) = P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k},$$

the mean is np and the variance is np(1-p)

Calculate the probability of $H_{10} \ge 7$ and $H_{100} \ge 70$:

a) Summing over the pmf as

$$P(H_n \ge k) = \sum_{i=k}^{n} {n \choose i} p^i (1-p)^{n-i}$$

b) Using the Central Limit Theorem. Are these probabilities close to those in a)?

The following data represent the lifetime (in hours) of a sample of n=40 transistors:

```
112, 121, 126, 108, 141, 104, 136, 134, 121, 118
143, 116, 108, 122, 127, 140, 113, 117, 126, 130
134, 120, 131, 133, 118, 125, 151, 147, 137, 140
132, 119, 110, 124, 132, 152, 135, 130, 136, 128
```

- a) Calculate the sample mean \bar{X}_i and variance S_i^2 for all $i=1,2,\ldots,n$
- b) Plot the sample mean \bar{X}_i , $\bar{X}_i \pm S_i$, and $\bar{X}_i \pm 2S_i$
- c) Are the data approximately normal?
- d) What percentage of the data falls within $\bar{X}_n \pm 2S_n$

A basketball team will play a 60-game season.

Thirty-two of these games are against class A teams and 28 are against class B teams. The outcomes of the games are independent.

The team will win each game against a class A opponent with probability 0.5, and it will win each game against a class B opponent with probability 0.7. Let *X* denote its total number of victories in the season.

- a) Is X a Binomial RV?
- b) Let X_A and X_B denote, respectively, the number of victories against class A and class B teams. What are the distributions of X_A and X_B ?
- c) What is the relationship between X_A , X_B , and X?
- d) Approximate the probability that the team wins 40 or more games