

# Chapter 1: Introduction

Juhyung Lee

Department of Statistics  
University of Florida

# Population and Sample

Statistics consists of methods for **designing** studies, **describing** data obtained for those studies, and making **inferences** based on those data to answer a statistical question of interest.

## Definition (Subjects)

The entities that we measure in a study are called the **subjects** (e.g., people, schools, counties, etc.).

## Definition (Population)

The **population** is the set of all the subjects of interest (e.g., all students taking STA 3032 this semester).

## Definition (Sample)

A **sample** is the subset of the population for whom we have data, often randomly selected (e.g., students in my section of STA 3032).

The ultimate goal of most studies is to **learn about the population** using a sample (why sample, not census?).

# Descriptive Statistics and Inferential Statistics

## Description in Statistical Analyses

**Descriptive statistics** refers to methods for summarizing the collected data. The summaries usually consist of graphs and numbers such as averages and percentages.

## Inference in Statistical Analyses

**Inferential statistics** refers to methods of making decisions or predictions about a population, based on data obtained from a sample of that population.

- Descriptive statistics are useful for both census and sample.
- Inferential statistics are used when data are available for a sample only, which is usually the case.
- In general, we *describe* the sample, and we make *inferences* about the population.

# Descriptive Statistics and Inferential Statistics

## Example (Polling Opinions on Handgun Control)

In a recent poll of 834 Florida residents, 54.0% of the sampled subjects said they favored controls over the sales of handguns. Here, the margin of error (later in the course) is 3.4%. This means we can predict with 95% confidence (later in the course) that the percentage of all adult Floridians favoring control over sales of handguns falls between 50.6% and 57.4%.

What are the subjects, population, and sample? What is the descriptive statistical analysis and what is the inferential statistical analysis?

# Sample Statistics and Population Parameters

## Definition (Parameter and Statistic)

A **parameter** is a numerical summary of the population. A **statistic** is a numerical summary of a sample taken from the population.

## Example (Polling Opinions on Handgun Control)

- The (unknown) percentage of the population of all adult Florida residents favoring handgun control is a parameter.
  - The percentage 54.0% of the sample favoring handgun control is a sample statistic (sample proportion specifically).
- 
- We hope to learn about parameters so that we can better understand the population.
  - The true parameter values are almost always unknown.
  - We use sample statistics to estimate the parameter values.

# Discrete and Continuous Data

## Definition (Variable)

A **variable** is any characteristic observed in a study.

## Definition (Categorical and Quantitative Variables)

A variable is called **categorical** if each observation belongs to one of a set of categories (e.g., gender, blood type, letter grade, etc.).

A variable is called **quantitative** if observations on it take numerical values that represent different magnitudes of the variable (e.g., number of siblings, number of typos in a book, weight, commuting time, etc.).

## Definition (Discrete and Continuous Variables)

A quantitative variable is **discrete** if its possible values form a set of separate numbers, such as  $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$  (e.g., number of siblings, number of typos in a book, etc.).

A quantitative variable is **continuous** if its possible values form an interval (e.g., weight, commuting time, etc.).

# Measures of Location: Mean and Median

Measures of location provide some quantitative values of where the center, or some other location, of data is located.

## Definition (Sample Mean)

Suppose that the observations in a sample are  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . The **sample mean**, denoted by  $\bar{x}$ , is

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{n} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

(i.e., a numerical average).

## Definition (Sample Median)

Given that the observations in a sample are  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , arranged in **increasing order** of magnitude, the **sample median** is

$$\tilde{x} = \begin{cases} x_{(n+1)/2}, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ \frac{1}{2}(x_{n/2} + x_{n/2+1}), & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \end{cases}$$

(i.e., the middle value).

# Measures of Location: Mean and Median

## Example (CO<sub>2</sub> Pollution)

Per capita CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (tons/person) for the nine largest countries in population size in 2011.

Nigeria	Bangladesh	Pakistan	India	Indonesia
0.3	0.4	0.8	1.4	1.8
Brazil	China	Russia	United States	
2.1	5.9	11.6	16.9	

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{n} = \frac{0.3 + 0.4 + \cdots + 16.9}{9} = 4.6,$$

$$\tilde{x} = x_{(9+1)/2} = x_5 = 1.8.$$



# Measures of Location: Mean and Median

## Example (CO<sub>2</sub> Pollution)

```
> x <- c(0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.4, 1.8, 2.1, 5.9, 11.6, 16.9)
>
> mean(x) # sample mean
[1] 4.577778
>
> median(x) # sample median
[1] 1.8
```

# Measures of Location: Mean and Median

- The mean uses the numerical values of all the observations (informative, but sensitive to outliers).
- The median uses only the ordering (less informative, but resistant to outliers).
- In practice, it is a good idea to report both the mean and the median.

## Example (CO<sub>2</sub> Pollution)

Change 16.9 to 90 for United States:

0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.4, 1.8, 2.1, 5.9, 11.6, **90**.

Now,  $\bar{x}^* = 12.7 > 4.6 = \bar{x}$ , but  $\tilde{x}^* = \tilde{x} = 1.8$ .

## Example (Airplane Crashes)

One variable in a study measures how many airplane crashes a commercial airline company has had in the past year. Why would the mean likely be more useful than the median for summarizing the responses of 60 airline companies?

# Measures of Location: Percentiles, Quantiles, and Quartiles

## Definition (Percentile and Quantile)

The  **$p$ th percentile** is a value such that  $p$  percent of the observations fall below or at that value. The  $p$ th percentile is also called the  **$p/100$  quantile**.

## Definition (Quartiles)

- The **first quartile  $Q_1$**  is the 0.25 quantile (i.e., the 25th percentile).
  - The **second quartile  $Q_2$**  is the 0.5 quantile (i.e., the 50th percentile).
  - The **third quartile  $Q_3$**  is the 0.75 quantile (i.e., the 75th percentile).
- 
- The quartiles split the data into four parts, each containing one quarter (25%) of the observations.
  - $Q_2$  is the median.
  - $Q_1$  is the median of the lower half of the observations (excluding the median itself if  $n$  is odd).
  - $Q_3$  is the median of the upper half of the observations (excluding the median itself if  $n$  is odd).

# Measures of Location: Percentiles, Quantiles, and Quartiles

## Example (CO<sub>2</sub> Pollution)

Nigeria	Bangladesh	Pakistan	India	Indonesia
0.3	0.4	0.8	1.4	1.8
Brazil	China	Russia	United States	
2.1	5.9	11.6	16.9	

$$Q_2 = \text{median}(0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.4, 1.8, 2.1, 5.9, 11.6, 16.9) = 1.8,$$

$$Q_1 = \text{median}(0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.4) = \frac{0.4 + 0.8}{2} = 0.6,$$

$$Q_3 = \text{median}(2.1, 5.9, 11.6, 16.9) = \frac{5.9 + 11.6}{2} = 8.75.$$

```
> x <- c(0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.4, 1.8, 2.1, 5.9, 11.6, 16.9)
>
> quantile(x, c(0.25, 0.5, 0.75), type = 6) # quartiles
25%  50%  75%
0.60 1.80 8.75
```

# Measures of Variability: Range, Variance, and Standard Deviation

## Definition (Sample Range)

The **sample range** is the difference between the largest and the smallest observations.

## Definition (Sample Variance and Standard Deviation)

The **sample variance**, denoted by  $s^2$ , is given by

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

The **sample standard deviation**, denoted by  $s$ , is the positive square root of  $s^2$ , that is,

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

# Measures of Variability: Interquartile Range (IQR)

## Definition (Interquartile Range)

The **interquartile range** is the distance between the third and first quartiles,

$$\text{IQR} = Q_3 - Q_1.$$

# Measures of Variability: Interquartile Range (IQR)

## Example (CO<sub>2</sub> Pollution)

```
> x <- c(0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.4, 1.8, 2.1, 5.9, 11.6, 16.9)
>
> max(x) - min(x) # range
[1] 16.6
>
> var(x) # sample variance
[1] 34.60944
> sd(x) # sample standard deviation
[1] 5.882979
> sqrt(var(x)) # same as above
[1] 5.882979
>
> quantile(x, c(0.25, 0.75), type = 6) # Q1 and Q3
25%  75%
0.60 8.75
> IQR(x, type = 6) # IQR
[1] 8.15
```

# Measures of Variability

- The range uses only the largest and smallest observations (sensitive to outliers, not used much).
- The standard deviation  $s$  uses all observations (sensitive to outliers).
- The IQR is not affected by outliers.
- The IQR is preferred over  $s$  when there are severe outliers.

## Example (CO<sub>2</sub> Pollution)

Change 16.9 to 90 for United States:

0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.4, 1.8, 2.1, 5.9, 11.6, **90**.

Now,

$$\text{range}^* = 89.7 > 16.6 = \text{range},$$

$$s^* = 29.2 > 5.9 = s,$$

$$\text{IQR}^* = 8.15 = \text{IQR}.$$



# Histograms

## Histogram

A histogram is a graph that uses bars to portray the frequencies or the relative frequencies of the possible outcomes for a quantitative variable.

### Example (Car Battery Life)

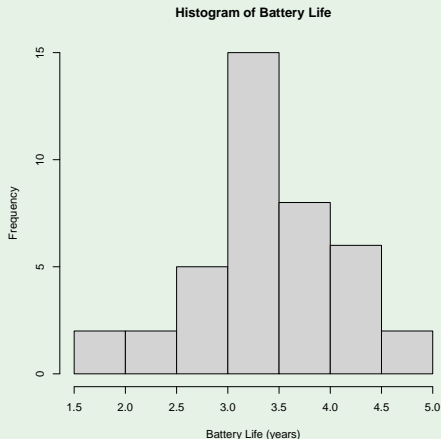
Life of 40 similar car batteries recorded to the nearest tenth of a year (see Table 1.4 of [WMMY](#)).

Interval	Frequency	Relative Frequency
(1.5, 2.0]	2	0.050
(2.0, 2.5]	2	0.050
(2.5, 3.0]	5	0.125
(3.0, 3.5]	15	0.375
(3.5, 4.0]	8	0.200
(4.0, 4.5]	6	0.150
(4.5, 5.0]	2	0.050

# Histograms

## Example (Car Battery Life)

```
> hist(x, main = "Histogram of Battery Life",  
+       xlab = "Battery Life (years)")
```



# The Shape of a Distribution

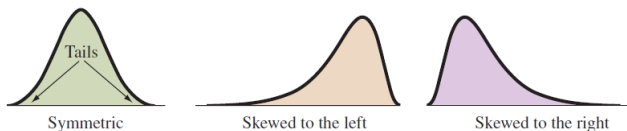
## Symmetric Distribution

A distribution is **symmetric** if the side of the distribution below a central value is a mirror image of the side above that central value.

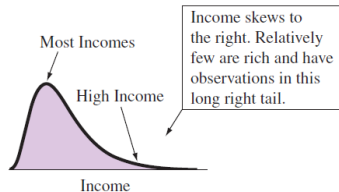
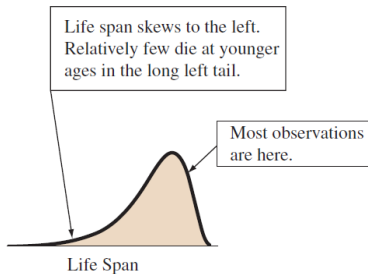
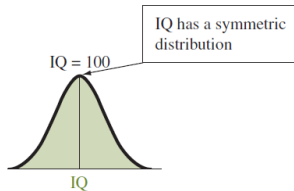
## Skewed Distribution

A distribution is **skewed to the left** if the left tail is longer than the right tail.

A distribution is **skewed to the right** if the right tail is longer than the left tail.



# The Shape of a Distribution



# Detecting Potential Outliers

## The $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$ Criterion for Identifying Potential Outliers

An observation is a potential outlier if it falls more than  $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$  below  $Q_1$  or more than  $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$  above  $Q_3$ .

### Example (Car Battery Life)

For the car battery life data,

$$Q_1 = 3.1, Q_3 = 3.85, \text{IQR} = 0.75 \text{ (check!),}$$

and

$$Q_1 - 1.5 \times \text{IQR} = 3.1 - 1.5 \times 0.75 = 1.975,$$

$$Q_3 + 1.5 \times \text{IQR} = 3.8 + 1.5 \times 0.75 = 4.975.$$

By the  $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$  criterion, observations below 1.975 or above 4.975 are potential outliers. The observations 1.6 and 1.9 are the only potential outliers (check!).

# The Five-Number Summary

## The Five-Number Summary

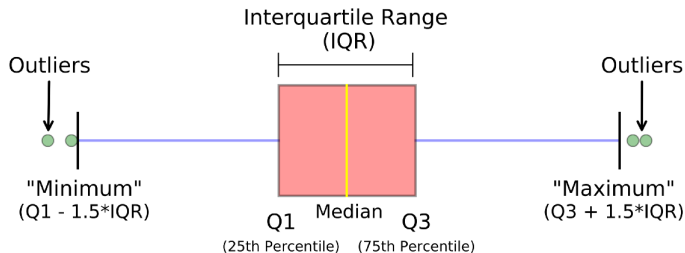
The five-number summary of a dataset is the minimum value,  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$  (i.e., median),  $Q_3$ , and the maximum value.

The five-number summary is the basis of a graphical display called the boxplot.

# The Boxplot

## Constructing a Boxplot

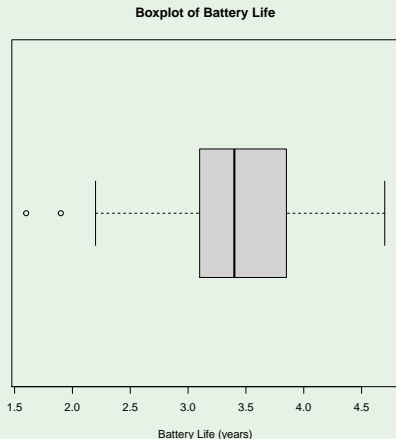
- A box goes from  $Q_1$  to  $Q_3$ .
- A line is drawn inside the box at the median.
- A line goes from the lower end of the box to the smallest observation that is not a potential outlier.
- A separate line goes from the upper end of the box to the largest observation that is not a potential outlier.
- The potential outliers are shown separately.



# The Boxplot

## Example (Car Battery Life)

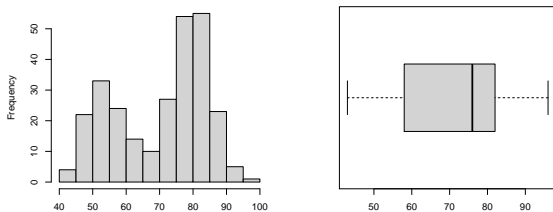
```
> boxplot(x, horizontal = TRUE, main = "Boxplot of Battery Life",  
+         xlab = "Battery Life (years)")
```



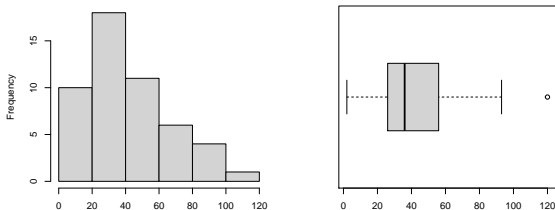


# The Boxplot Compared with the Histogram

- A boxplot does not portray certain features of a distribution, such as distinct mounds and possible gaps, as clearly as does a histogram.



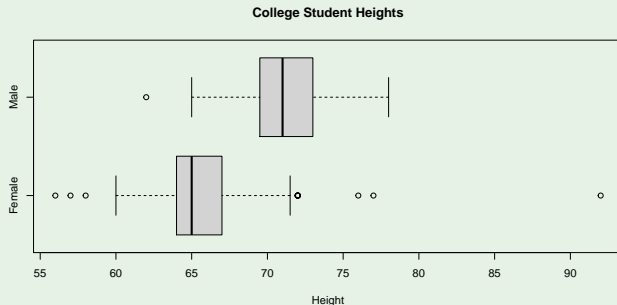
- A boxplot does indicate skew and is useful for identifying potential outliers.



# Side-by-Side Boxplots Help to Compare Groups

- Boxplots are also useful for graphical comparisons of distributions.

## Example (College Student Heights)



- Both distributions are approximately symmetric.
- Although the centers differ, the variability of the middle 50% of the distribution is similar.
- The upper 75% of the male heights are higher than the lower 75% of female heights.

# Response Variables and Explanatory Variables

## Definition (Response Variable and Explanatory Variable)

The **response variable** is the outcome variable on which comparisons are made (e.g., survival status, GPA, etc.).

When the **explanatory variable is categorical**, it defines the groups to be compared with respect to values for the response variable (e.g., smoking status).

When the **explanatory variable is quantitative**, it defines the change in different numerical values to be compared with respect to values for the response variable (e.g., number of hours a week spent studying).

# Scatterplot

## Scatterplot

A **scatterplot** is a graphical display for two quantitative variables using the horizontal ( $x$ ) axis for the explanatory variable  $x$  and the vertical ( $y$ ) axis for the response variable  $y$ . The values of  $x$  and  $y$  for a subject are represented by a point relative to the two axes. The observations for the  $n$  subjects are  $n$  points on the scatterplot.

## Example (Positive Association and Negative Association)

