Contents

Data	
Data Basics	2
Visualizing Data	2
Visualizing Data: Revisited (Post-Chapter 2)	3
Describing Statistics	
Descriptive vs. Inferential	4
Accuracy, Precision, Resolution	4
Data Distribution	4
Measures of Central Tendency	4
Measures of Disperion	5
Interquartile Range and QQ Plots	6
Statistical Moments	6
Data Normalization	
Z-Score Normalization	8
Min-Max Scaling	8
Outliers	8

1 Data

Data Basics

- Frequent types of data in statistics:
 - Interval: numeric scale with meaningful intervals, e.g. temperature in celsius.
 - o Ratio: numeric but with a meaningful zero, e.g. height.
 - **Discrete**: numeric with with no arbitrary precision, e.g. population.
 - o **Ordinal**: sortable and discrete, e.g. education level.
 - Nominal: non-sortable and discrete, e.g. genre.
- > **Sample data**: Data from *some* members of a group.
- ▶ **Population data**: Data from *all* members of a group.
- \triangleright Sample population sometimes uses hat notation, e.g. $\hat{\beta}$, $\hat{\sigma}$, or other slight ambiguities. Sample data is used more often than population in statistics.

Visualizing Data

- ▶ Bar plots: used to represent categorical (nominal and ordinal) and discrete numerical data.
- ▶ Box plots: collection of a data that is split into separate quartiles (the box) and data min/max points (whiskers) in order to illustrate overall distribution of data and its potential outliers (often denoted by **).
- ▶ **Histograms**: similar to bar plots, but with binned continuous data on the x-axis. Shape and order is meaningful.
 - Histograms of counts:
 - Often more meaningful interpretation of raw data.
 - Difficult to compare across datasets.
 - Does not need to sum up to 1.
 - Usually better for qualitative inspection.
 - Histograms of proportion:
 - Can be more difficult to relate to raw data.
 - Easier to compare across datasets.
 - Illustrates proportion of dataset.

- Usually better for quantitative analysis.
- \triangleright Translating from counts to proportions: $bin_i = 100 (bin_i / sum(bins))$
- ▶ **Pie charts**: representation of nominal, ordinal, or discrete data that must sum up to 1.

Visualizing Data: Revisited (Post-Chapter 2)

- Determining number of bins for historgrams:
 - Number of bins (k) can be specified directly of calculated from width of bins h:

$$- k = \left\lceil \frac{\Delta x}{h} \right\rceil$$

- ☐ represnets the ceiling, our rounding up to nearest int.
- Sturges guideline: $k = \lceil \log 2(n) \rceil + 1$
 - Advantage: relates to the data count.

• Freedman-Diaconis:
$$h = 2\frac{IQR}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$$

- Advantage: relates to both the data count and data spread.
- o Arbitrary choices, or other methods, often are decent enough and easier to implement, though Freedman-Diaconis is usually the best choice.
- ▶ **Violin plots**: a rotated and mirrored historgram.
 - o IQR, mean, median, and distribution can all be easily represented.
 - Usually symmetric, but can comopare two similar datasets asymmetrically.
 - Swarm plots are similar, except you can see individual data points.

2 Describing Statistics

Descriptive vs. Inferential

▶ Descriptive:

- The point is to obtain individual numbers that describe a dataset.
- Mean, median, mode, variance, kurtosis, skew, distribution, spectrum.
- No relation to population; no generalization to other datasets of groups.

▶ Inferential:

- Use features of sample data set to make generalizations about a population.
- P-value, T/F/chi-square value.
- Confidence intervals.
- Hypothesis testing.

Accuracy, Precision, Resolution

- ▶ Accuracy: the relationship between measurement and the actual truth. Inversely related to bias.
- ▶ **Precision**: the certainty of each measurement. Inversely related to variance.
- ▶ **Resolution**: the number of data points per unit measurement.

Data Distribution

- ▶ **Data Distribution**: a function that lists values or intervals of data, and how often each value occurs.
- ▷ Common distributions include power-law, gaussian (bell curve), t, F, and Chi-squared.
- ▶ Most statistical procedures are based on assumptions about distributions.
- Data distributions provide insights into nature and often used to model physical and biological systems.

Measures of Central Tendency

- ▶ **Central tendency**: the center of typical value for a probability distribution.
- ▷ Common measures of central tendency: mean, median, mode.
- Mean, aka average or arithmetic mean:

- Formula: $\bar{x} = n^{-1} \sum x_i$.
- Alternate notations for mean: μ , μ_x .
- The mean is most suitable for normally distributed interval and ratio data.
- Discrete and ordinal data can be useful, but must be carefully interpreted.
- ▶ Median:

$$\circ x_i, i = \frac{n+1}{2}$$

- Most suitable for unimodal distributed interval and ratio data.
- ▶ Mode: the most common value that is suitable for any distribution and data type, though mostly used for nominal.

Measures of Disperion

- ▶ **Dispersion**: also called variability, scatter, or spread; a single number that describes how dispersed the data is around the central tendency.
- ▶ Main measures of dispersion: standard deviation and variance.
- ▶ Variance: indicates dispersion around the mean.

• Formula:
$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

- Suitable for any distribution.
- Works best with numerical data, or ordinal data with a mean.
- Taking the absolute value instead of the square of the mean difference results in the mean absolute difference (MAD).
- Squaring emphasizes large values; better for optimization; closer to euclidean distance; is the second "moment"; better link to least-squares regression; and more.
- MAD is robust to outliers, though less commonly used.
- o Dividing by N-1 is for sample variance, while N is for population.
- ▶ Standard deviation: simply the square root of variance.
- ▶ Knowing the standard deivation gives you variance and vice versa. Variance is more useful mathematically, while standard deviation has convenience of being expressed in units of the original variable.
- ▶ There other related measures such as Fano factor and Coefficient of variation, which are normalized measures of variability. Sensible only for datasets with

positive values.

- ho Fano factor: $F = \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu}$; variance divided by the mean.
- ho Coefficient of variation: $CV = \frac{\sigma}{\mu}$; standard deviation divided by the mean.

Interquartile Range and QQ Plots

- ▶ Each half of the data made by the median can be divided further by taking the median again, resulting in 3 boundary points, or quartiles
- ▶ Quartile 1 is the "left"; quatile 2 is the middle, or "global median", and quartile 3 is the right.
- ▶ **Interquartile range (IQR)**: the range between quartile 1 and 2 that represents 50% of the data.
- ▶ Revisiting box plots: IQR is represented by the box of the plot.
- ▶ QQ plots: aka quantile-quantile plots; a diagnostic scatter plot that compares two probability distributions by plotting their quantiles against each other in order to determin if it comes from a normal distribution.

Statistical Moments

- Unstandardized statiscal moments:
 - General formula: $m_k = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (x_i \bar{x})^k$
 - First moment: the mean, with a k value of 1.
 - Second moment: the variance, with k value of 1.
 - Further moments are increments of k.
- Standardized statiscal moments:
 - Third and fourth moments are standardized with additional variance terms, $(n\sigma^k)^{-1}$ insted of just n.
 - **Skewness**: the *third moment*; dispersion asymmetry around the mean.
 - positive skew; the range of outliers pulled to right.
 - negative skew; the range of outliers pulled to the left.
 - **Kurtosis**: the *fourth moment*; the length of the distribution from the mean, heavy-tailed or light-tailed, relative to the normal distribution.
 - Data with low kurtosis have light tails, or lack of outliers.
 - Data with high kurtosis have heavy tails, or more outliers.

- > There are further moments, but generally lack significance.
- ▶ **Shannon entropy**: entropy related to information processing that represnets the average level of information/uncertainty inherent in a variable possbile outcomes.
 - o Surprising events convey more information.
 - Formula: $H = -\sum p(x_i) \log_2(p(x_i))$
 - x = data values, p = probability.
 - o Used for nominal, ordinal, or discrete data.
 - Interval or ratio data must be coverted to discrete by binning; entropy is affected by bin width and number.
 - High entropy means the dataset has high variability.
 - Low entropy means most values repeat and offer redundant information.
 - Entropy is related to variance, though it is nonlinear and makes no assumptions about distribution.
 - log₂ entropy gives bit based units.
 - In entropy accross datasets of consists units gives nat based units.

3 Data Normalization

Z-Score Normalization

- > Problem: comparing two things of unrealted units.
- ▷ Solution: normalize both measurements to a unit-less scale.
- ▶ **Z-score**: or *standard score*: the number of standard deviations of a value from the mean.
 - Formula: $z_i = \frac{x_i \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}$
 - Mean center: subtract the average from each value.
 - Variance-normalize: divide by the standard deviation.
 - Shifts and stretches, but doesn't change shape.
 - The distributions should be roughly Gaussian.

Min-Max Scaling

- Scale data into any arbitrary range, usually 0−1.
 - o 0-1 scaled is often called unity-normalized.
- ▶ No relative information is loss.
- ightharpoonup Formula: $\tilde{x_i} = \frac{x_i min(x)}{max(x) min(x)}$
- \triangleright Scale to arbitrary range: $x^* = a + \tilde{x}(b a)$

Outliers

- Names for outlier: anomaly, extreme (deviant) data, non-representative data, noise, etc.
- ▶ Multi-dimensional data can make it very hard to determin outliers.
- ▶ **Leverage**: measure of how far away an independent variable value differs from other variables.
- Dealing with outliers:
 - o Identify and remove outliers, assuming they are invalid.
 - Leave outliers in but use other methods that reduce negative impact of the outliers, assuming they are unusual but valid.
- Dutliers must be investigated; don't ignore or remove without thought.
- ▶ Using z-score method:

- o Convert data to z-score.
- o Set a standard deviation threshold (usually 3), then remove outliers.
- o Can iterate over same steps after removing an outlier.
- ▶ Modified z-score method for non-normal distributions:

o Formula:
$$M_i = \frac{0.6745(x_i - \tilde{x})}{MAD}$$

o MAD: median absolute deviation (vs mean absolute deivation)

-
$$MAD = median(|x_i - \tilde{x})|$$

$$-\tilde{x} = median(x)$$

- 0.6745 is the standard deviation units for 3rd quartile.