Descriptive Statistics, pt. II

ECON 3640-001

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Motivation

Another way of describing our data

Last time, we started the process of knowing our data better by looking at **visual** descriptive techniques.

Another way of describing complex sets of data is through descriptive numerical techniques.

These techniques are divided in **two** main categories:

- Measures of *central location*;
- Measures of variability.

Among the **most popular** measures of central location, we will study the following:

- 1. Mean;
- 2. Median;
- 3. Mode.

Among the most popular measures of central location, we will study the following:

1. Mean:

The arithmetic mean, also known as the *average*, is simply the sum of all observations in a data set, divided by the total number of observations.

• **Population mean** (µ):

$$\mu = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{i=1}^N x_i}{N}$$

• Sample mean (\bar{x}) :

$$ar{x} = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$

1. Mean:

• **Population mean** (µ):

$$\mu = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{i=1}^N x_i}{N}$$

where the numerator is the sum of each observation contained in the data set (x_i) , from the first (i=1) until the N^{th} data point. The denominator is the total population size (N), i.e., the total number of observations within this population.

• Sample mean (\bar{x}) :

$$ar{x} = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$

where n is the sample size.

Notice the difference in notation when referring to sample and population measures.

Among the most popular measures of central location, we will study the following:

- 1. Mean;
- 2. Median:

To calculate the **median**, we need to place all observations in order (it does not matter whether ascending or descending).

The observation that lies in the **middle** is the median.

It serves for both population and sample medians.

Among the most popular measures of central location, we will study the following:

- 1. Mean;
- 2. Median;
- 3. Mode:

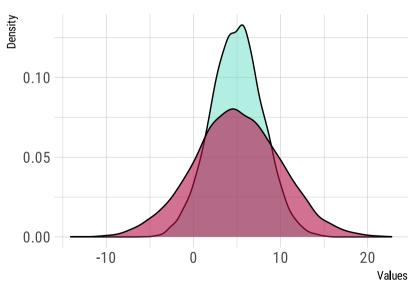
The **mode** of a data set is (are) the observation(s) that occur(s) with the *highest frequency*.

It works in the same way with populations and samples.

Up until now, we were interested in information about the central location of a data set.

However, these measures do not tell us anything about **how spread out**, or how **concentrated** are the data.

Same mean, different variances



To address this issue, we will study the following:

- 1. Range;
- 2. Variance;
- 3. Standard deviation.

To address the variability issue, we will study the following:

1. Range:

The range of a data set is simply its largest observation minus the smallest.

To address the variability issue, we will study the following:

- 1. Range;
- 2. Variance:

The **variance** is the average of the *squared deviations* of each observation within a data set from its mean.

• **Population variance** (σ^2) :

$$\sigma_x^2 = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \mu)^2}{N}$$

• Sample variance (s²):

$$s_x^2 = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - ar{x})^2}{n-1}$$

An alternative formula for the sample variance, s^2 :

$$s_x^2 = rac{1}{n-1} \Bigg[\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - rac{igg(\sum_{i=1}^n x_iigg)^2}{n} \Bigg]$$

To address the variability issue, we will study the following:

- 1. Range;
- 2. Variance;
- 3. Standard deviation:

The **standard deviation** is simply the *squared root* of the variance.

Population standard deviation (σ):

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

• Sample standard deviation (s):

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

The **intuition** behind the variance and standard deviation measures:

The idea behind the variance and the standard deviation as measures of spread is as follows: the deviations (x_i - x) display the spread of the values x_i about their mean x. Some of these deviations will be positive and some negative because some of the observations fall on each side of the mean. In fact, the sum of the deviations of the observations from their mean will always be zero. Squaring the deviations makes them all positive, so that observations far from the mean in either direction have large positive squared deviations. The variance is the average squared deviation. Therefore, s^2 and s will be large if the observations are widely spread about their mean, and small if the observations are all close to the mean.

(Moore, McCabe, and Craig, 2009, p. 41)

Measures of **relative standing** are designed to provide information about the *position* of particular values, relative to the entire data set.

The **median** can also be interpreted as one of these measures, since it locates the *central point* of a data set, relative to its entirety.

Let us see other measures in more detail:

- **Percentile**: the p^{th} percentile is the value for which p percent are less than that value.
 - ∘ And (100 p)% are above that value.
- Quartile: the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles are called *quartiles*.
 - Any guesses about what the 50th percentile is equal to?

In order to **locate** a specific percentile within a data set, it may not always be straightforward to do so.

The following formula helps:

$$L_p = (n+1)\frac{p}{100}$$

where n is the sample size, and p is the percentile we would like to find.

The **interquartile range** (IQR) is obtained by subtracting the *third* from the *first* quartile ($Q_3 - Q_1$).

It measures the *spread* of the middle 50% of observations.

• Large values will mean that Q₁ and Q₃ are far apart, indicating *high variability* (spread) in the data set.

A *visual* tool that helps the statistics practitioner on measures of relative standing is the **box plot** (*aka* box & whiskers plot).

It shows **5** statistics:

- 1. The minimum value;
- 2. The maximum value;
- 3. And the first, second, and third *quartiles* (Q_1 , Q_2 , and Q_3).

The **3** main steps to construct a box plot are the following:

- 1. Place the observations in ascending order;
- 2. Separate *maximum* and *minimum* observations;
- 3. Identify the 3 quartiles (Q_1 , Q_2 , and Q_3).

In a data set, we may sometimes find **unusally** large or small values.

Such values are called **outliers**.

They may appear due to wrong entrances in data spreadsheets, processing errors, or because the data set actually contains unusual observations.

That being said, how to identify outliers in a data set?

There are a few techniques, and the one we will cover in this course is by using information used for box plots, as well as the interquartile range.

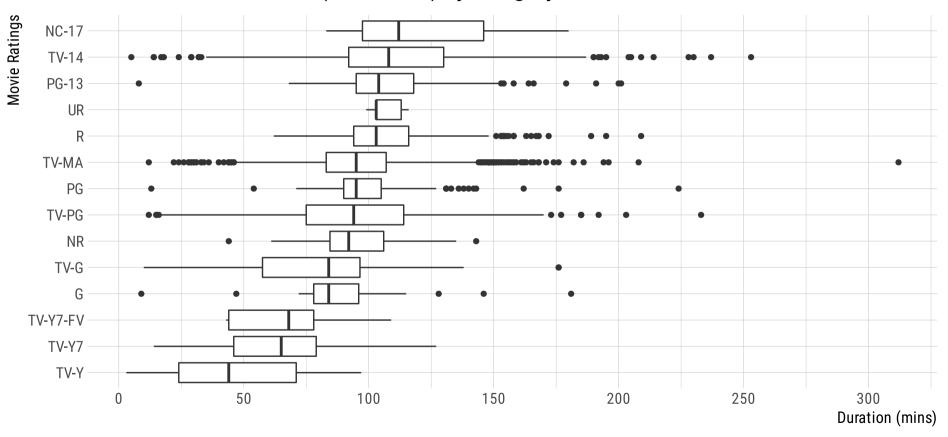
A data point is an *outlier* if it is **smaller** than

A data point is an *outlier* if it is **greater** than

$$Q_1 - 1.5(Q_3 - Q_1)$$

$$Q_3 + 1.5(Q_3 - Q_1)$$

Netflix movie durations (in minutes) by category



Next time: Descriptive Statistics in R