AUA CS108, Statistics, Fall 2020 Lecture 05

Michael Poghosyan

4 Sep 2020

Contents

- ► Empirical CDF
- ► Histogram
- ► Stem and Leaf Plot

Empirical CDF

Let us recall the definition of the Empirical CDF:

Definition: The **Empirical Distribution Function, ECDF** or the **Cumulative Histogram** ecdf(x) of our data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is defined by

$$ecdf(x) = \frac{\text{number of elements in our dataset} \le x}{\text{the total number of elements in our dataset}} = \frac{\text{number of elements in our dataset} \le x}{n}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Example: Construct the ECDF (analytically and graphically) of the following data:

-1, 4, 7, 5, 4

Example: Construct the ECDF (analytically and graphically) of the following data:

$$-1, 4, 7, 5, 4$$

Analytical Part - on the board

To do the graphical part, we

Sort our Dataset from the lowest to the largest values

Example: Construct the ECDF (analytically and graphically) of the following data:

$$-1, 4, 7, 5, 4$$

Analytical Part - on the board

To do the graphical part, we

- Sort our Dataset from the lowest to the largest values
- Plot the Data points on the OX axis

Example: Construct the ECDF (analytically and graphically) of the following data:

$$-1, 4, 7, 5, 4$$

Analytical Part - on the board

To do the graphical part, we

- Sort our Dataset from the lowest to the largest values
- ▶ Plot the Data points on the *OX* axis
- ► ECDF is 0 for values of x less that the smallest Datapoint, and is 1 for values of x bigger than the largest Datapoint

Example: Construct the ECDF (analytically and graphically) of the following data:

$$-1, 4, 7, 5, 4$$

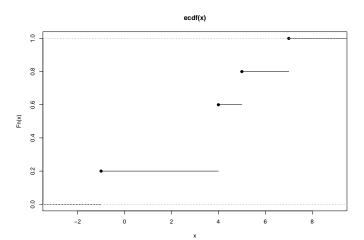
Analytical Part - on the board

To do the graphical part, we

- ▶ Sort our Dataset from the lowest to the largest values
- Plot the Data points on the OX axis
- ► ECDF is 0 for values of x less that the smallest Datapoint, and is 1 for values of x bigger than the largest Datapoint
- ▶ For each Data point, calculate the Relative Frequency of that Datapoint (the number of times it occurs in our Dataset over the total number of Datapoints). At that Datapoint, do a Jump of the size of the Relative Frequency, and draw a horizontal line up to the next Datapoint

Now, using R:

```
x <-c(-1, 4, 7, 5, 4)
f <- ecdf(x)
plot(f)</pre>
```



Note: It is easy to see that the ECDF satisfies all properties of a CDF.

Note: It is easy to see that the ECDF satisfies all properties of a CDF.

Note: It is easy to see that the ECDF for a Dataset

$$-1, 4, 7, 5, 4$$

coincides with the CDF of a r.v.

How do we know that the ECDF is representing (estimating) the unknown CDF behind the Data good enough?

How do we know that the ECDF is representing (estimating) the unknown CDF behind the Data good enough?

Well, this was proved by Glivenko and Cantelli: if our data $x_1, ..., x_n$ comes from the Distribution with the CDF F(x),

How do we know that the ECDF is representing (estimating) the unknown CDF behind the Data good enough?

Well, this was proved by Glivenko and Cantelli: if our data $x_1, ..., x_n$ comes from the Distribution with the CDF F(x), and if we will denote by $F_n(x)$ the ECDF constructed for $x_1, ..., x_n$, then

How do we know that the ECDF is representing (estimating) the unknown CDF behind the Data good enough?

Well, this was proved by Glivenko and Cantelli: if our data $x_1, ..., x_n$ comes from the Distribution with the CDF F(x), and if we will denote by $F_n(x)$ the ECDF constructed for $x_1, ..., x_n$, then

$$F_n(x) \to F(x)$$
 uniformly on \mathbb{R} .

How do we know that the ECDF is representing (estimating) the unknown CDF behind the Data good enough?

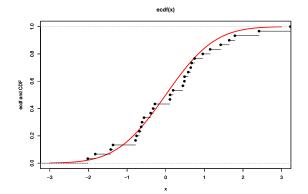
Well, this was proved by Glivenko and Cantelli: if our data $x_1, ..., x_n$ comes from the Distribution with the CDF F(x), and if we will denote by $F_n(x)$ the ECDF constructed for $x_1, ..., x_n$, then

$$F_n(x) \to F(x)$$
 uniformly on \mathbb{R} .

This Theorem says that if you will have enough datapoints from a Distribution, you can approximate the unknown CDF of your Distribution pretty well by using the ECDF.

Estimation of the CDF through ECDF

Let us check this theorem using R:



Now we want to estimate the PDF of the RV behind our Data, we want to get the *shape* of the Distribution.

Now we want to estimate the PDF of the RV behind our Data, we want to get the *shape* of the Distribution. We assume that our 1D dataset $x_1, ..., x_n$ is numerical, coming from an either Discrete or a Continuous Variable.

Now we want to estimate the PDF of the RV behind our Data, we want to get the *shape* of the Distribution. We assume that our 1D dataset $x_1, ..., x_n$ is numerical, coming from an either Discrete or a Continuous Variable.

Barplot or LinePlot can help us in some cases, but if we have Continuous Variable, or a Discrete variable with many distinct values, then Barplot/LinePlot will not give the required approximation.

Now we want to estimate the PDF of the RV behind our Data, we want to get the *shape* of the Distribution. We assume that our 1D dataset $x_1, ..., x_n$ is numerical, coming from an either Discrete or a Continuous Variable.

Barplot or LinePlot can help us in some cases, but if we have Continuous Variable, or a Discrete variable with many distinct values, then Barplot/LinePlot will not give the required approximation. So people use Histograms.

Now we want to estimate the PDF of the RV behind our Data, we want to get the *shape* of the Distribution. We assume that our 1D dataset $x_1, ..., x_n$ is numerical, coming from an either Discrete or a Continuous Variable.

Barplot or LinePlot can help us in some cases, but if we have Continuous Variable, or a Discrete variable with many distinct values, then Barplot/LinePlot will not give the required approximation. So people use Histograms.

To define the Histogram, first we divide the range of our Dataset into *class intervals* or *bins*:

Now we want to estimate the PDF of the RV behind our Data, we want to get the *shape* of the Distribution. We assume that our 1D dataset $x_1, ..., x_n$ is numerical, coming from an either Discrete or a Continuous Variable.

Barplot or LinePlot can help us in some cases, but if we have Continuous Variable, or a Discrete variable with many distinct values, then Barplot/LinePlot will not give the required approximation. So people use Histograms.

To define the Histogram, first we divide the range of our Dataset into *class intervals* or *bins*:

we take first the range: either $I = [\min_i \{x_i\}, \max_i \{x_i\}]$ or I is an interval containing $[\min_i \{x_i\}, \max_i \{x_i\}]$;

• we take a finite partition of $I: I_1, I_2, ..., I_k$, i.e. I_j -s are disjoint, and their union is the interval I;

we take a finite partition of $I: I_1, I_2, ..., I_k$, i.e. I_j -s are disjoint, and their union is the interval I; Usually, the intervals I_j have equal legths.

 $^{{}^{1}\}mathbf{R}$ is using the *right-endpoint* convention (i.e., right endpoint is included, but not the left one), by default.

we take a finite partition of $I: I_1, I_2, ..., I_k$, i.e. I_j -s are disjoint, and their union is the interval I; Usually, the intervals I_j have equal legths. And we will assume that I_j includes its left endpoint but not the right endpoint (except the case when I_j is the rightmost interval - in that case I_j includes also the right endpoint)¹.

 $^{{}^{1}}R$ is using the *right-endpoint* convention (i.e., right endpoint is included, but not the left one), by default.

- we take a finite partition of $I: I_1, I_2, ..., I_k$, i.e. I_j -s are disjoint, and their union is the interval I; Usually, the intervals I_j have equal legths. And we will assume that I_j includes its left endpoint but not the right endpoint (except the case when I_j is the rightmost interval in that case I_j includes also the right endpoint)¹.
- we calculate the number n_i of datapoints x_i lying in I_i :

 n_j = the number of data points in I_j j = 1, 2, ..., k.

 $^{{}^{1}}R$ is using the *right-endpoint* convention (i.e., right endpoint is included, but not the left one), by default.

Definition: The **frequency histogram** of our continuous (or a grouped) data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{freq}(x) = n_j, \quad \forall x \in I_j, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

Definition: The **frequency histogram** of our continuous (or a grouped) data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{freq}(x) = n_j, \quad \forall x \in I_j, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

Frequency histogram shows the number of observations in our dataset in each bin, in each class interval. One also defines $h_{freq}(x) = 0$ for all $x \notin I$.

airquality is a Dataset (standard Dataset in $\bf R$) about the daily air quality measurements in New York, May to September 1973.

airquality is a Dataset (standard Dataset in $\bf R$) about the daily air quality measurements in New York, May to September 1973.

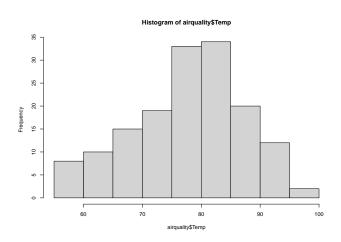
Here is the header:

head(airquality)

##		Ozone	${\tt Solar.R}$	${\tt Wind}$	Temp	${\tt Month}$	Day
##	1	41	190	7.4	67	5	1
##	2	36	118	8.0	72	5	2
##	3	12	149	12.6	74	5	3
##	4	18	313	11.5	62	5	4
##	5	NA	NA	14.3	56	5	5
##	6	28	NA	14.9	66	5	6

Let's Plot the histogram of the *Temp* (Temperature) Variable:

hist(airquality\$Temp)



Some Notes:

Some Notes:

R, by default, is choosing some appropriate bins;

Some Notes:

- **R**, by default, is choosing some appropriate bins;
- ▶ R's hist command default bins have equal lengths;

Some Notes:

- **R**, by default, is choosing some appropriate bins;
- R's hist command default bins have equal lengths;
- $ightharpoonup \mathbf{R}$ is adding the default OX axis name and the Figure Title.

Next is the Relative Frequency Histogram definition:

Definition The **relative frequency histogram** of our continuous data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{relfreq}(x) = \frac{n_j}{n}, \quad \forall x \in I_j, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

Next is the Relative Frequency Histogram definition:

Definition The **relative frequency histogram** of our continuous data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{relfreq}(x) = \frac{n_j}{n}, \quad \forall x \in I_j, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

or, which is the same,

$$h_{relfreq}(x) = \frac{h_{freq}(x)}{n}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Next is the Relative Frequency Histogram definition:

Definition The **relative frequency histogram** of our continuous data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{relfreq}(x) = \frac{n_j}{n}, \quad \forall x \in I_j, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

or, which is the same,

$$h_{relfreq}(x) = \frac{h_{freq}(x)}{n}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The Default **R** package has no Relative Frequency Histogram Plotting command (or I do not know $\ddot{\sim}$).

Next is the Relative Frequency Histogram definition:

Definition The **relative frequency histogram** of our continuous data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{relfreq}(x) = \frac{n_j}{n}, \qquad \forall x \in I_j, \quad j = 1, 2, ..., k.$$

or, which is the same,

$$h_{relfreq}(x) = \frac{h_{freq}(x)}{n}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The Default $\bf R$ package has no Relative Frequency Histogram Plotting command (or I do not know $\ddot{\ }$). But you can use, say, the *lattice* library's *histogram* command:

```
library(lattice)
histogram(airquality$Temp)
```

The Density or Normalized Relative Frequency Histogram

Next, and maybe the most important type of the Histogram is the Density Histogram:

The Density or Normalized Relative Frequency Histogram

Next, and maybe the most important type of the Histogram is the Density Histogram:

Definition: The **Density Histogram** or the **Normalized Relative Frequency Histogram** of our Data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{dens}(x) = \frac{n_j}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{length(I_j)}, \quad \forall x \in I_j.$$

The Density or Normalized Relative Frequency Histogram

Next, and maybe the most important type of the Histogram is the Density Histogram:

Definition: The **Density Histogram** or the **Normalized Relative Frequency Histogram** of our Data $x_1, ..., x_n$ is the piecewise constant function

$$h_{dens}(x) = \frac{n_j}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{length(I_j)}, \quad \forall x \in I_j.$$

Here $length(I_j)$ is the length of the interval I_j . Also we define $h_{dens}(x) = 0$, if $x \notin I$.

Note

In the case (which is the mostly used one) when all intervals $\emph{I}_\emph{j}$ have the same length:

$$length(I_j) = h$$
,

then

Note

In the case (which is the mostly used one) when all intervals I_j have the same length:

$$length(I_i) = h$$
,

then

$$h_{dens}(x) = \frac{h_{relfreq}(x)}{h} = \frac{n_j}{n \cdot h}, \quad \forall x \in I_j.$$

Idea of the Density Histogram

The idea of dividing to the length of the corresponding interval, in the definition of the Density Histogram, is that in this case, the Total Area of all rectangles of our Histogram is 1.

Idea of the Density Histogram

The idea of dividing to the length of the corresponding interval, in the definition of the Density Histogram, is that in this case, the Total Area of all rectangles of our Histogram is 1.

Recall that all PDF functions integrate to 1.

Idea of the Density Histogram

The idea of dividing to the length of the corresponding interval, in the definition of the Density Histogram, is that in this case, the Total Area of all rectangles of our Histogram is 1.

Recall that all PDF functions integrate to 1. And the Density Histogram is approximating (estimating) the unknown PDF behind our Data!