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MIE1624H – Introduction to Data Science and Analytics Lecture 3 – Basic Statistics

Lecture outline

Basic statistics

- Before you analyze your data
- Sources of uncertainty
- Summarizing and interpreting your data
 - Quantitative data
 - Categorical data
- Distributions
- Law of Large Numbers and Central Limit Theorem

Before You Analyze Your Data

Where does your data come from?

Do you have access to complete data, or only a sample?

Entire database of sales transactions

HR data about all employees

Sample of sales transactions

- · How was the subset selected?
- Systematically, randomly?

Data for a subset of employees

- Randomly selected?
- Voluntary response?

 How the data was collected will drive what kind of conclusions we may be able to draw, and how confident we can be in those conclusions.

Complete demographic data of NYC users of web service



Conclusions about all NYC users of the service?

Conclusions about all NYC inhabitants?

Election polling

- In many cases margins of error reported by pollsters substantially over-states the precision of poll-based forecasts
 - Usually reported margin of error is 3% (for a random and representative sample of around 1000 people)
 - □ Trump vs. Clinton election, why polls were wrong?
- Current polling practice
 - □ Low response rates (less than 10%)
 - □ Inadequate coverage
 - □ Hidden dependence (who tends to answer phone?)
 - Question design and the order in which questions are asked:
 - who would you vote for?
 - would you go and vote?
 - □ Pollster's methodology often produces results that lean to one side of politics or the other
 - Opinion polls tell us a historical fact on the date people were polled
- Sampling approach does not randomly select people from the entire population
- Segments of the population are excluded

THE WALL STREET JOURNAL.

World U.S. Politics Economy Business Tech Markets Opinion Arts Life

Bad Election Day Forecasts Deal Blow to Data Science

Prediction models suffered from narrow data, faulty algorithms and human foibles

By KIM S. NASH, STEVEN NORTON AND SARA CASTELLANOS

9 COMMENTS

Nov 9, 2016 6:33 pm ET

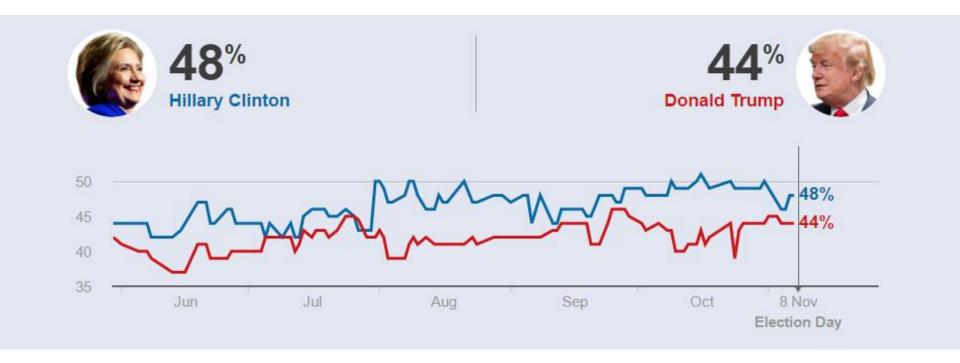
The New York Times

ELECTION 2016

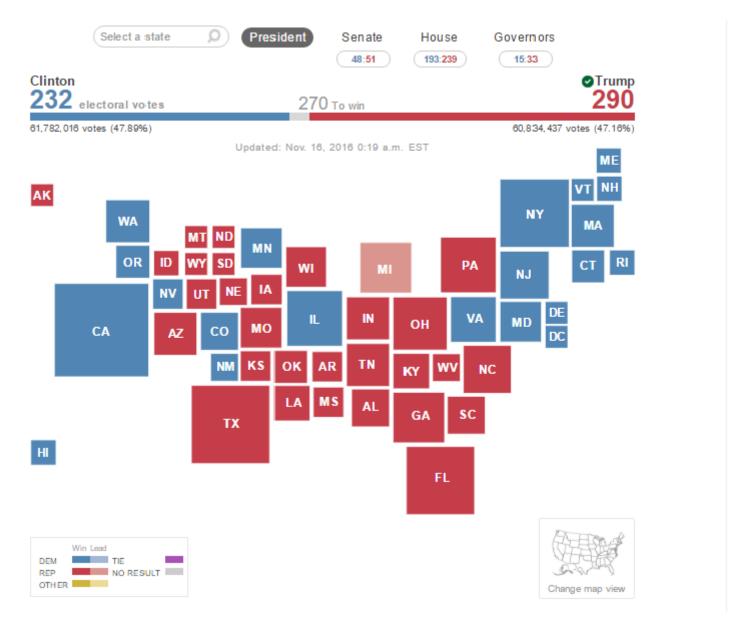
Full Results | Exit Polls | Trump's Cabinet

How Data Failed Us in Calling an Election

By STEVE LOHR and NATASHA SINGER NOV. 10, 2016



Source: BBC poll of polls

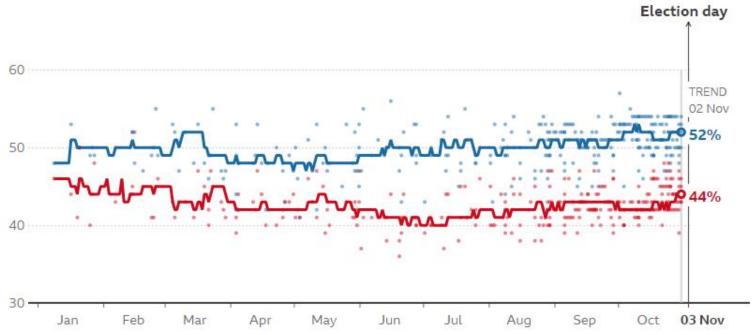






Trend line showing average voting intention based on individual polls



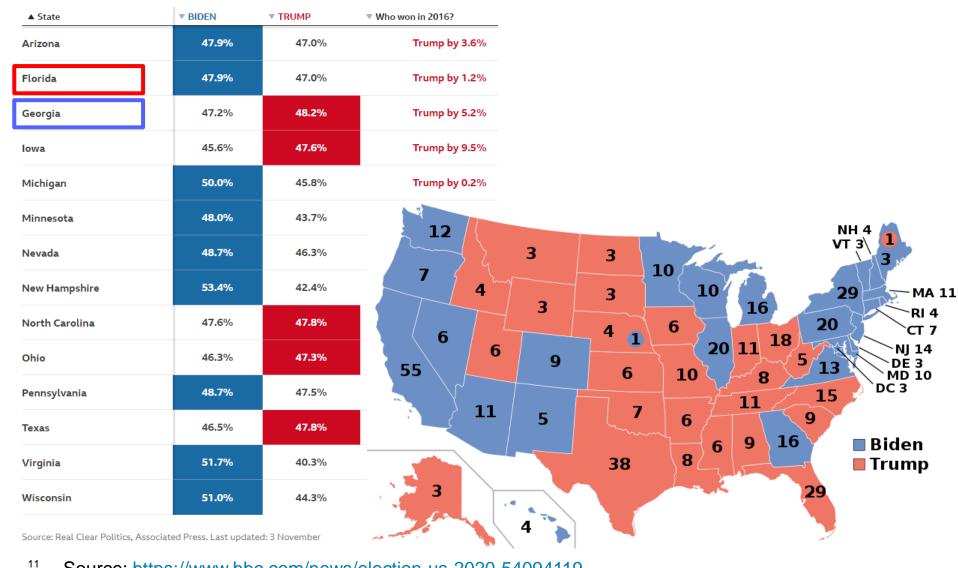


Source: BBC poll of polls https://www.bbc.com/news/election-us-2020-53657174

▼ Date	▼ Poll	▼ BIDEN	▼ TRUMP	▼ MoE	▼ Sample
Nov 02	Economist/YouGov	53	43	3.3	1,363 LV
Nov 02	IBD/TIPP*	50	46	3.2	1,212 LV
Nov 02	Reuters/Ipsos	52	45	3.7	914 LV
Nov 02	USC Dornsife	54	43	-	5,423 LV
Nov 01	CNBC/Change Research (D)	52	42	2.3	1,880 LV
Nov 01	IBD/TIPP	50	45	3.2	1,080 LV
Nov 01	IBD/TIPP*	49	46	3.2	1,080 LV
Nov 01	Quinnipiac	50	39	2.5	1,516 LV
Nov 01	Rasmussen Reports	48	47	2.5	1,500 LV
Nov 01	USC Dornsife	53	43	-	5,382 LV
Oct 31	IBD/TIPP	50	44	3.2	1,072 LV
Oct 31	JTN/RMG Research*	51	44	2.8	1,200 LV
Oct 31	NBC News/Wall St. Jrnl	52	42	3.4	1,000 RV
Oct 31	SurveyUSA	52	44	3.2	1,265 LV

Source: https://www.bbc.com/news/election-us-2020-54094119

Latest polling averages in battleground states



Source: https://www.bbc.com/news/election-us-2020-54094119

What kind of data are we dealing with?

- Types of data
 - Quantitative
 - Categorical (ordered, unordered)
- Data collection
 - Independent observations (one observation per subject)
 - Dependent observations (repeated observation of the same subject, relationships within groups, relationships over time or space)
- Type of data drives the direction of your analysis
 - How to plot
 - How to summarize
 - How to draw inferences and conclusions
 - How to issue predictions

Uncertainty stemming from the data collection process

No uncertainty

Complete data

e.g., census (in theory), database of all business transactions in the past, Big Data (in some cases)



Greater uncertainty

Sparse data

e.g., survey data, sensor data, experiments

Uncertainty due to data from only a sample, in addition to uncertainty in the measurement tool

Sources of uncertainty

Uncertainty from data collection



Uncertainty in model



Uncertainty in descriptive statistics, predictions and forecasts

Average vs. Individual (Standard Deviation)



Data vs. Reality (Confidence Interval, Margin of Error)



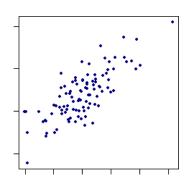
Prediction/Forecast (Prediction Intervals)

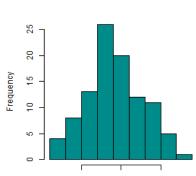


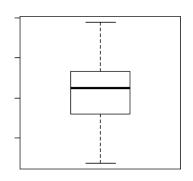
Quantitative Data

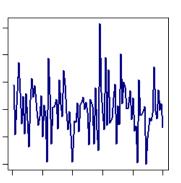
Quantitative data

- Examples: temperature, age, income
- Quick check: "Does it makes sense to calculate an average?"
- Appropriate summary statistics:
 - Mean and Median
 - Standard Deviation
 - Percentiles
- More advanced predictive methods: Regression, Time Series Analysis, ...
- Plot your data!



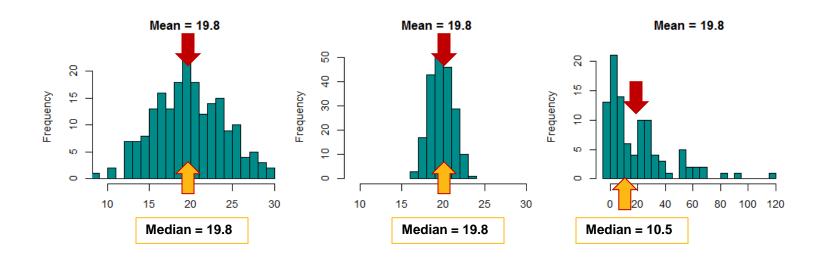




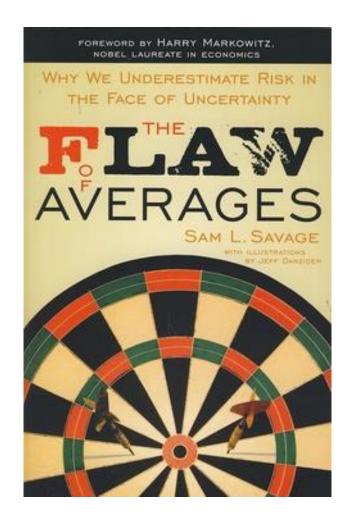


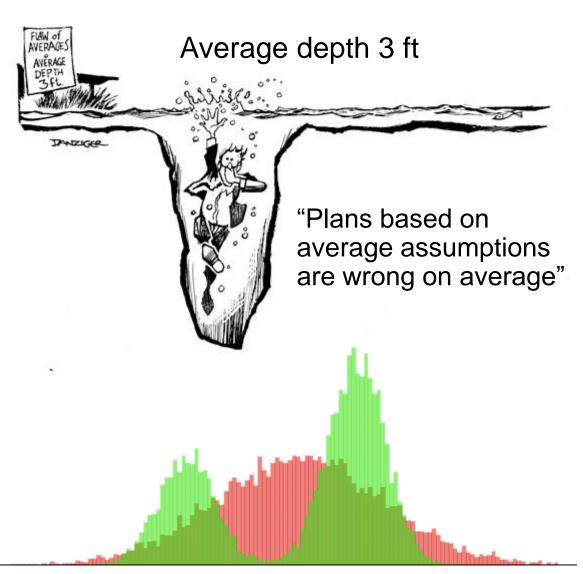
Summarizing quantitative data

- One-number summaries
 - Mean
 Average, obtained by summing all observations and dividing by the number of obs.
 - Median
 The center value, below and above which you will find 50% of the observations.
- Summarizing your data with one number may not tell the whole story:



Flaw of averages





Standard deviation

■ The standard deviation s is a measure of how spread out the n observations x_i are around the mean \bar{x}

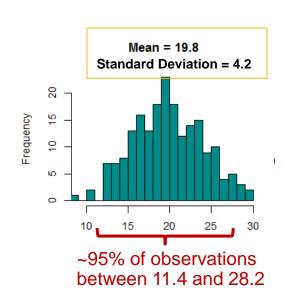
$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$$

Rule of thumb for interpreting standard deviation values:

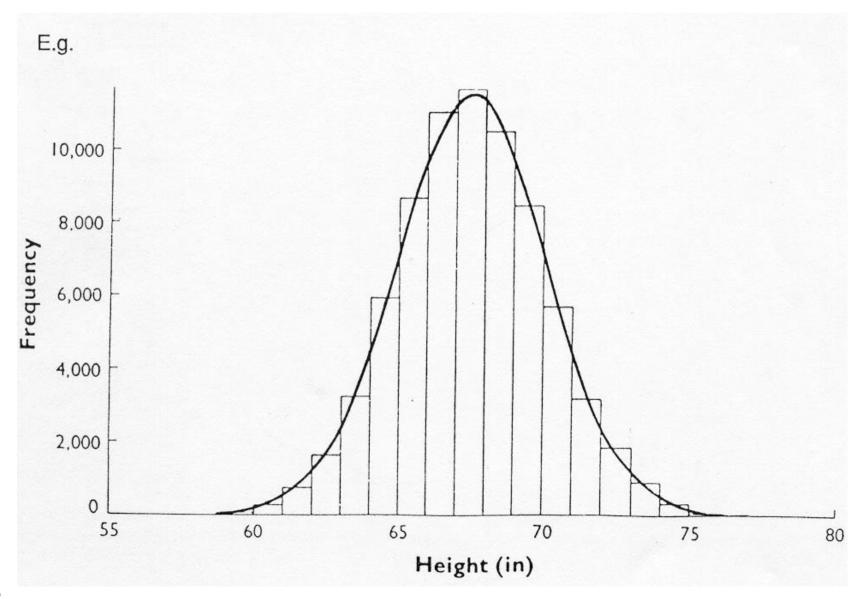
If the data is normally distributed

"Most observations fall within ±2 standard deviations of the mean."

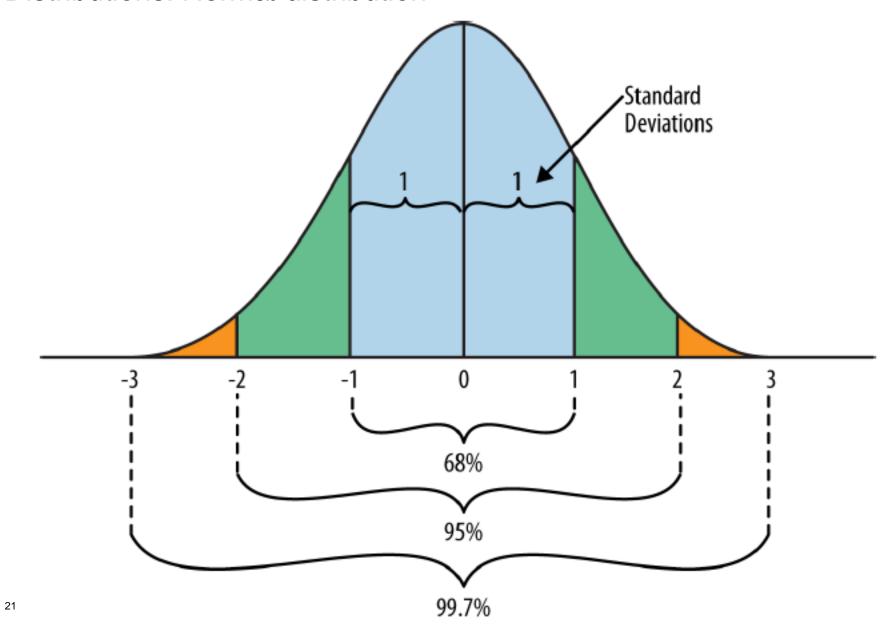
95 % of observations



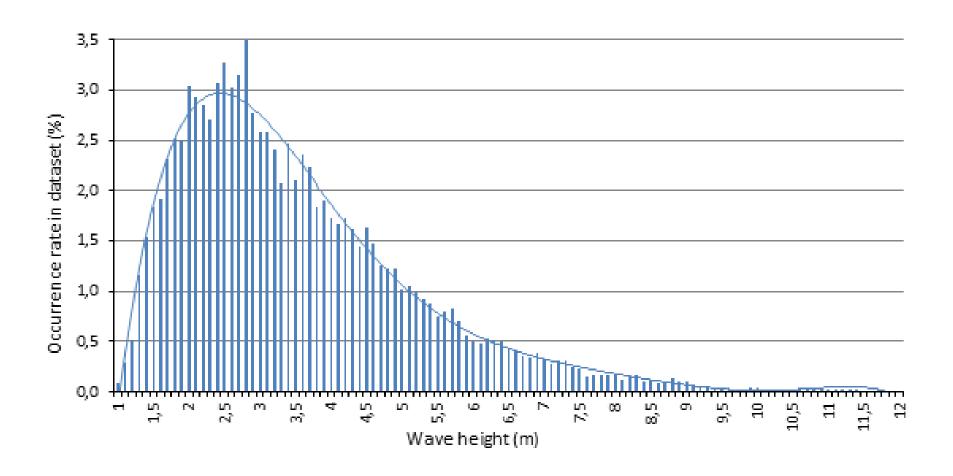
Distributions: Normal distribution



Distributions: Normal distribution



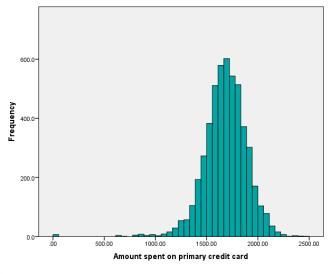
Distributions: Non-Normal distribution

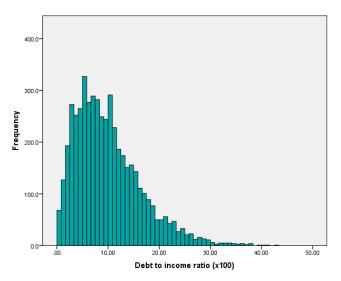


Descriptive statistics - example

Random sample of 5000 customers of a credit card company

		Amount spent	Debt to income
		on primary card	ratio (x100)
		last month	
NI	Valid	5000	5000
N	Missing	0	0
Mean		339.6359	9.9578
Median		278.6550	8.8000
Std. Dev	viation	248.3830	6.42317
Minimun	n	.00	.00
Maximu	m	3926.41	43.10





Percentiles

- Generalizations of the median (50th percentile).
- The p^{th} is the data point below which p percent of the observations fall.
- Often used to compare a single observation to a general population.
- Examples:
 - Standardized test scores
 If you scored in the 93th percentile, your score was higher than that of 93% of test takers.
 - Child growth percentiles
 - Stock market/Options trading
 "The call/put volume ratio of 2.15 stands in the 82nd annual percentile, pointing to a heightened demand for long calls during the last two weeks."

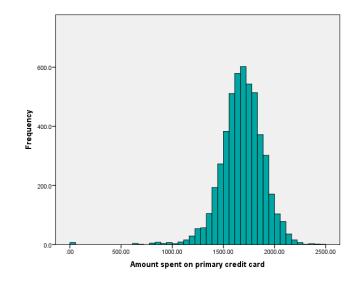
Percentiles - example

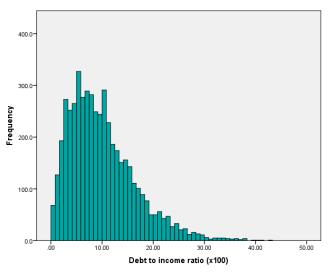
Percentiles can be another way of describing how spread out data values are.

Example: 5-Number Summary

Minimum – 25th percentile – Median – 50th percentile - Maximum

		Amount spent on	Debt to income
		primary card last	ratio (x100)
		month	
Minimum		.00	.00
	25	184.8600	5.1250
Percentiles	50	278.6550	8.8000
	75	422.4025	13.5000
Maximum		3926.41	43.10





Quantifying uncertainty – confidence intervals

• Unless we have complete data, we cannot be sure that the mean in the sample is equal to the true underlying mean (of the theoretically underlying complete data).

One-Sample Test

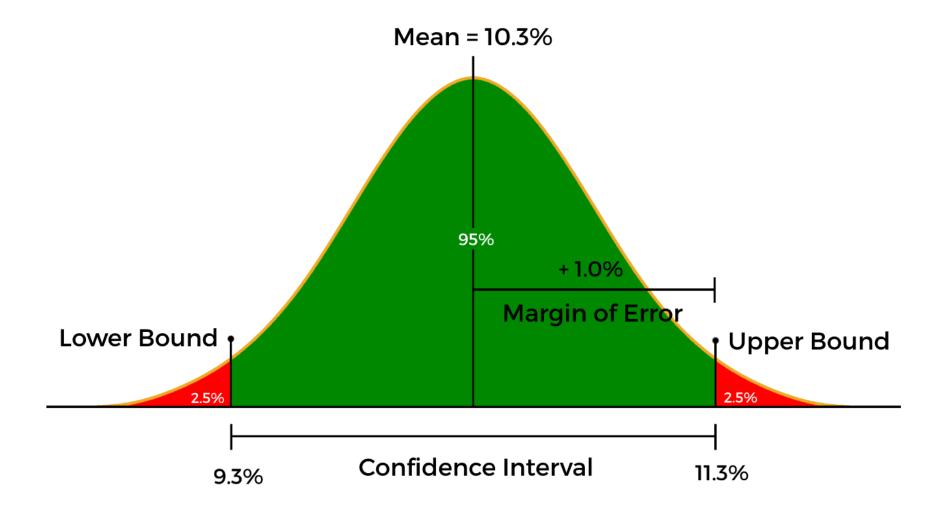
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Lower	Upper			
Debt to income ratio (x100)	9.7797	10.1359			
Amount spent on primary card last month	332.7519	346.5199			

"We are 95% percent confident that the <u>average</u> Debt-to-Income ratio (x100) is between 9.78 and 10.14."

"The <u>average</u> Debt-to-Income ratio (x100) is 9.96 with a margin of error of .18"

- Confidence Intervals (CI) and Margins of Error (MoE) tell us how close we think the mean is to the true value, with a certain level of confidence.
- Generally, CIs and MoEs are calculated for 95% percent confidence.
 Other levels of confidence are labeled explicitly.

Quantifying uncertainty – confidence intervals



- If two groups have different means in our data, can we conclude that the means would be different if we had complete information?
- In statistical terms, we want to test if the observed difference is statistically significant.
- Once again, we consider the fact that there is uncertainty in our data.

Example:

In our sample of customers, women have higher Debt-to-Income ratio, but spent less on their primary credit card.

Are these differences statistically significant?

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation				
Dobt to income ratio (v400)	Male	2449	9.9292	6.37257				
Debt to income ratio (x100)	Female	2551	9.9852	6.47251				
Amount spent on primary	Male	2449	356.6068	263.40686				
card last month	Female	2551	323.3435	231.93672				

Example: Independent samples t-test

Group Statistics

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Inde	pendent S	Samp	les Te	st
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				t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	P-values	
					Difference		
Debt to income votic (v4.00)	Equal variances not	308	4994.814	.758	05599		
Debt to income ratio (x100)	assumed						
Amount spent on primary card	Equal variances not	4.732	4862.365	.000	33.26335		
last month	assumed						

A statistical test tells us whether an observed difference is statistically significant:

P-value <.05: The difference observed in the data is most likely not due to chance. We conclude the difference is also present in the unobserved population. *The difference is statistically significant.*

P-value >.05: The difference observed could easily be simple due to chance. It is not safe to conclude that the difference is present in the underlying (unobserved) population.

Example: Independent samples t-test

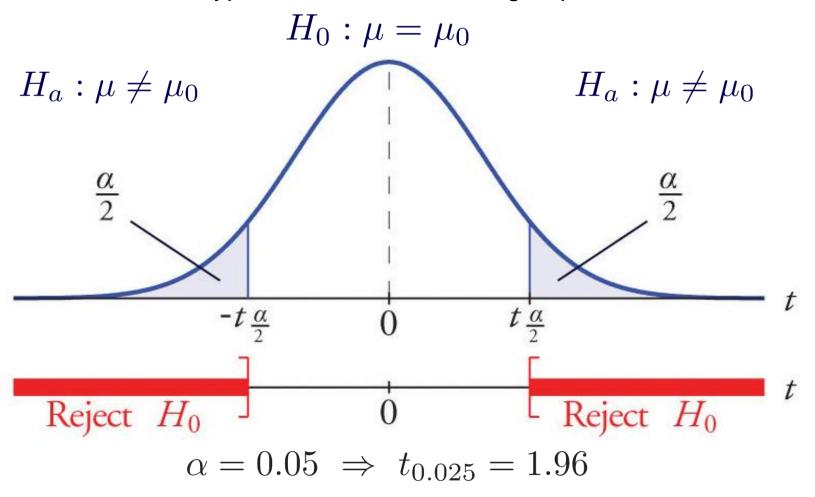
	Independent	Samples	Test			_
			t-test for	P-values		
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean	1 Value
					Difference	
Dobt to income ratio (v.100)	Equal variances not	308	4994.814	.758	05599	
Debt to income ratio (x100)	assumed					
Amount spent on primary card	Equal variances not	4.732	4862.365	.000	33.26335	
last month	assumed					

- In the case of Debt-to-Income ratio, we conclude that there is no significant difference between men and women (P-value = .758 > .05, not significant).
- In the case of Amount spent on primary card, we conclude that men tend to charge more on their primary card (P-value <.05, statistically significant).
- Note: The larger the sample, the more likely the difference of a given size will be significant.
- Caveat: Make sure all your observations are truly independent (repeated observations are cheating!)
- For any data scenario, there are different tests, that make their respective mathematical assumptions. When in doubt, consult your favorite statistician.

Hypothesis testing

$$t = \frac{\mu - \mu_0}{\sqrt{s^2(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n_0})}}$$

Null hypothesis: means of two groups are not different Alternative hypothesis: means of two groups are different



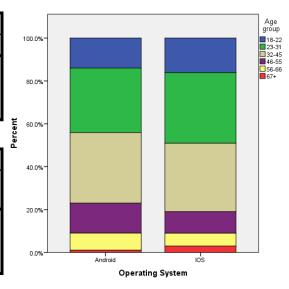
Categorical Data

Categorical data

- Examples: gender, age groups, product category
- Summarize using frequencies and percentages in crosstabs
- More advanced predictive methods: Logistic Regression, Classification, ...
- Example: IOS vs. Android users

Counts	Age group							
		18-22	23-31	32-45	46-55	56-66	67+	Total
Operating	Android	93	200	219	93	53	7	665
System	IOS	75	154	149	47	28	14	467
Total		168	354	368	140	81	21	1132

% within Ope		Age group						
System	18-22	23-31	32-45	46-55	56-66	67+	Total	
Operating	Android	14.0%	30.1%	32.9%	14.0%	8.0%	1.1%	100%
System	IOS	16.1%	33.0%	31.9%	10.1%	6.0%	3.0%	100%
Total		14.8%	31.3%	32.5%	12.4%	7.2%	1.9%	100%



Margin of error for categorical data

- Confidence intervals and Margins of Error can be calculated for categorical data as well
- For this survey, the margin of error was 1.32% for 95% confidence.





% within Operating			Age group					
System		18-22	23-31	32-45	46-55	56-66	67+	Total
Operating	Android	14.0%	30.1%	32.9%	14.0%	8.0%	1.1%	100%
System	IOS	16.1%	33.0%	31.9%	10.1%	6.0%	3.0%	100%
Total		14.8%	31.3%	32.5%	12.4%	7.2%	1.9%	100%

However, this data was based on a online survey, so the results might be biased!

Comparative statistics for categorical data

Is the distribution of one categorical variable independent of another categorical variable?

Example:

Is the distribution of age groups the same for IOS and Android users? It looks like IOS users tend to be younger than Android users. Is this difference *statistically significant*?





% within Operating			Age group					
System		18-22	23-31	32-45	46-55	56-66	67+	Total
Operating	Android	14.0%	30.1%	32.9%	14.0%	8.0%	1.1%	100%
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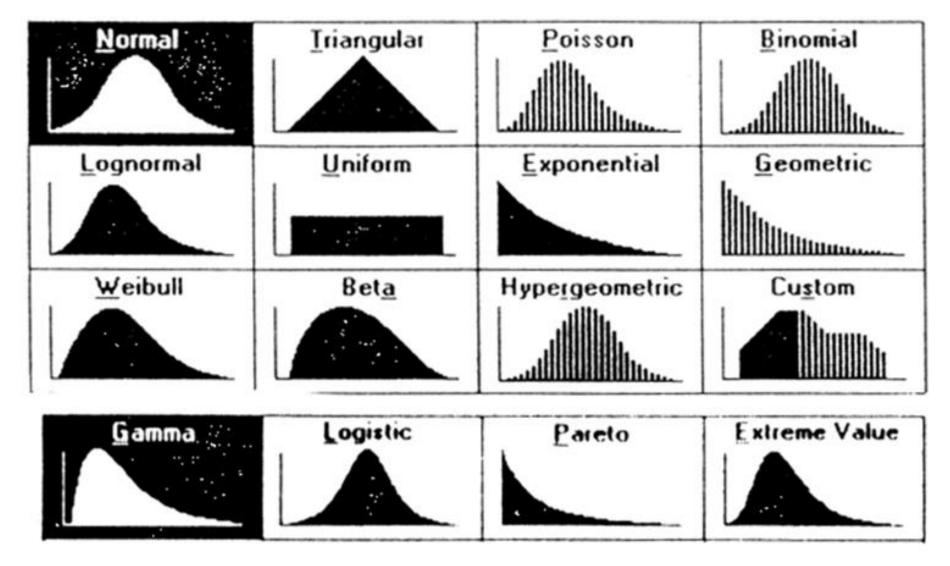




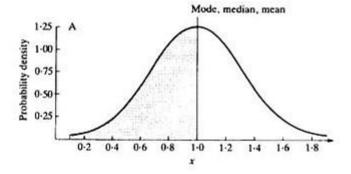
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Total		14.8%	31.3%	32.5%	12.4%	7.2%	1.9%	100%

Chi-Square Test

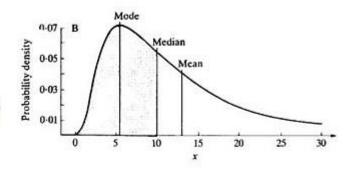
On Oquare rest								
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig.					
			(2-sided)					
Pearson Chi-	12.123a	5	.033)				
Square								
N of Valid Cases	1132							



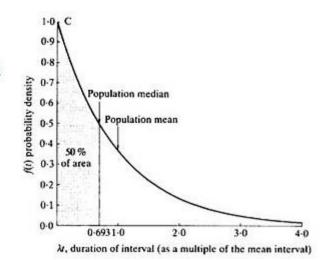
Gaussian p.d.f.



Positivelyskewed p.d.f. (e.g. lognormal')



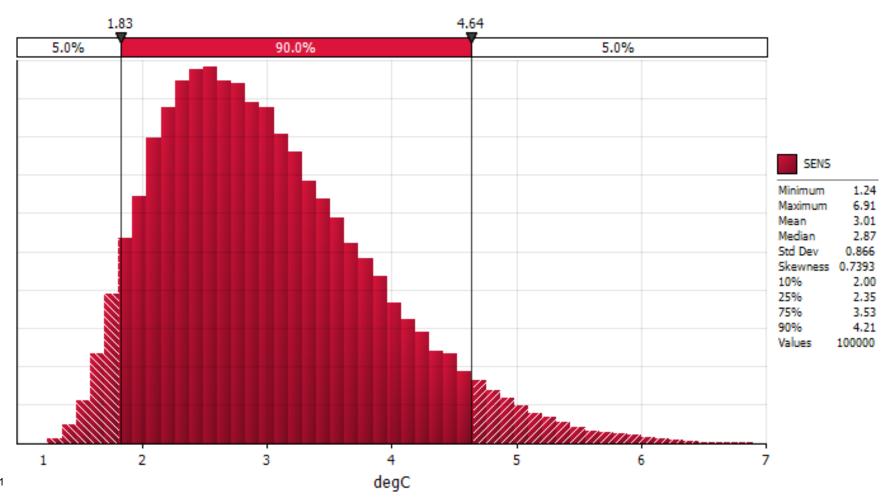
Exponential p.d.f.



Continuous distributions

	Notation	$F_X(x)$	$f_X(x)$	$\mathbb{E}\left[X ight]$	$\mathbb{V}\left[X ight]$	$M_X(s)$
Uniform	$\mathrm{Unif}(a,b)$	$\begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ \frac{x-a}{b-a} & a < x < b \\ 1 & x > b \end{cases}$	$\frac{I(a < x < b)}{b - a}$	$\frac{a+b}{2}$	$\frac{(b-a)^2}{12}$	$\frac{e^{sb}-e^{sa}}{s(b-a)}$
Normal	$\mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\sigma^2 ight)$	$\Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} \phi(t) dt$	$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}$	μ	σ^2	$\exp\left\{\mu s + \frac{\sigma^2 s^2}{2}\right\}$
Log-Normal	$\ln \mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\sigma^2\right)$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{erf}\left[\frac{\ln x - \mu}{\sqrt{2\sigma^2}}\right]$	$\frac{1}{x\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}\exp\left\{-\frac{(\ln x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}$	$e^{\mu+\sigma^2/2}$	$(e^{\sigma^2}-1)e^{2\mu+\sigma^2}$	
Multivariate Normal	$\operatorname{MVN}\left(\mu,\Sigma\right)$		$(2\pi)^{-k/2} \Sigma ^{-1/2}e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)}$	μ	Σ	$\exp\left\{\mu^T s + \frac{1}{2} s^T \Sigma s\right\}$
Student's t	$\mathrm{Student}(\nu)$	$I_x\left(rac{ u}{2},rac{ u}{2} ight)$	$\frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{\nu\pi}\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)}\left(1+\frac{x^2}{\nu}\right)^{-(\nu+1)/2}$	0	0	
Chi-square	χ_k^2	$\frac{1}{\Gamma(k/2)}\gamma\left(\frac{k}{2},\frac{x}{2}\right)$	$\frac{1}{2^{k/2}\Gamma(k/2)}x^{k/2}e^{-x/2}$	\boldsymbol{k}	2k	$(1-2s)^{-k/2} \ s < 1/2$
F	$\mathrm{F}(d_1,d_2)$	$I_{rac{d_1x}{d_1x+d_2}}\left(rac{d_1}{2},rac{d_1}{2} ight)$	$\frac{\sqrt{\frac{(d_1x)^{d_1}d_2^{d_2}}{(d_1x+d_2)^{d_1+d_2}}}}{x\mathrm{B}\left(\frac{d_1}{2},\frac{d_1}{2}\right)}$	$\frac{d_2}{d_2-2}$	$\frac{2d_2^2(d_1+d_2-2)}{d_1(d_2-2)^2(d_2-4)}$	
Exponential	$\mathrm{Exp}\left(\beta\right)$	$1-e^{-x/\beta}$	$\frac{1}{eta}e^{-x/eta}$	β	eta^2	$\frac{1}{1-\beta s} \left(s < 1/\beta \right)$
Gamma	$\operatorname{Gamma}\left(\alpha,\beta\right)$	$rac{\gamma(lpha,x/eta)}{\Gamma(lpha)}$	$rac{1}{\Gamma\left(lpha ight)eta^{lpha}}x^{lpha-1}e^{-x/eta}$	$\alpha \beta$	$lphaeta^2$	$\left(\frac{1}{1-\beta s}\right)^{\alpha} (s<1/\beta)$
Inverse Gamma	$\operatorname{InvGamma}\left(\alpha,\beta\right)$	$rac{\Gamma\left(lpha,rac{eta}{x} ight)}{\Gamma\left(lpha ight)}$	$\frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma\left(\alpha\right)}x^{-\alpha-1}e^{-\beta/x}$	$\frac{\beta}{\alpha-1} \ \alpha > 1$	$\frac{\beta^2}{(\alpha-1)^2(\alpha-2)^2}\;\alpha>2$	$rac{2(-eta s)^{lpha/2}}{\Gamma(lpha)}K_lpha\left(\sqrt{-4eta s} ight)$
Dirichlet	$\mathrm{Dir}\left(\alpha\right)$		$\frac{\Gamma\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k}\alpha_{i}\right)}{\prod_{i=1}^{k}\Gamma\left(\alpha_{i}\right)}\prod_{i=1}^{k}x_{i}^{\alpha_{i}-1}$	$\frac{\alpha_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i}$	$\frac{\mathbb{E}\left[X_{i}\right]\left(1-\mathbb{E}\left[X_{i}\right]\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k}\alpha_{i}+1}$	
Beta	$\mathrm{Beta}(\alpha,\beta)$	$I_x(lpha,eta)$	$\frac{\Gamma\left(\alpha+\beta\right)}{\Gamma\left(\alpha\right)\Gamma\left(\beta\right)}x^{\alpha-1}\left(1-x\right)^{\beta-1}$	$\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}$	$\frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha+\beta)^2(\alpha+\beta+1)}$	$1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\prod_{r=0}^{k-1} \frac{\alpha + r}{\alpha + \beta + r} \right) \frac{s^k}{k!}$
Weibull	$\mathrm{Weibull}(\lambda,k)$	$1 - e^{-(x/\lambda)^k}$	$rac{k}{\lambda} \left(rac{x}{\lambda} ight)^{k-1} e^{-(x/\lambda)^k}$	$\lambda\Gamma\left(1+\frac{1}{k}\right)$	$\lambda^2 \Gamma \left(1 + \frac{2}{k}\right) - \mu^2$	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} rac{s^n \lambda^n}{n!} \Gamma\left(1 + rac{n}{k} ight)$
Pareto	$\operatorname{Pareto}(x_m,\alpha)$	$1 - \left(\frac{x_m}{x}\right)^{\alpha} \ x \ge x_m$	$\alpha \frac{x_m^\alpha}{x^{\alpha+1}} x \geq x_m$	$\frac{\alpha x_m}{\alpha - 1} \ \alpha > 1$	$\frac{x_m^{\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)^2(\alpha-2)} \ \alpha > 2$	$\alpha(-x_m s)^{\alpha}\Gamma(-\alpha, -x_m s) \ s < 0$

Estimate of the probability distribution of global mean temperature resulting from a doubling of CO₂ relative to its pre-industrial value, made from 100000 simulations



Central Limit Theorem

Central Limit Theorem

Arithmetic means from a sufficiently large number of random samples from the entire population will be **Normally distributed** around the population mean (regardless of the distribution in the population)

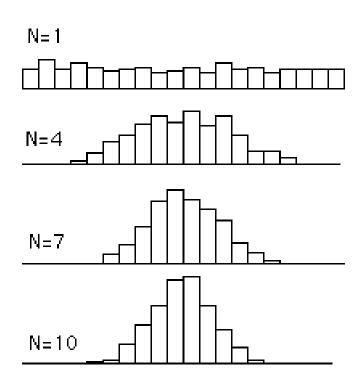
If
$$\mathbb{E}(x_i) = \mu$$
 and $\mathrm{var}(x_i) = \sigma^2$ for all i (and independent) then:

$$x_1 + \ldots + x_n \sim \mathcal{N}(n \cdot \mu, n \cdot \sigma^2)$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \ \sigma^2/n)$$

Central Limit Theorem – example

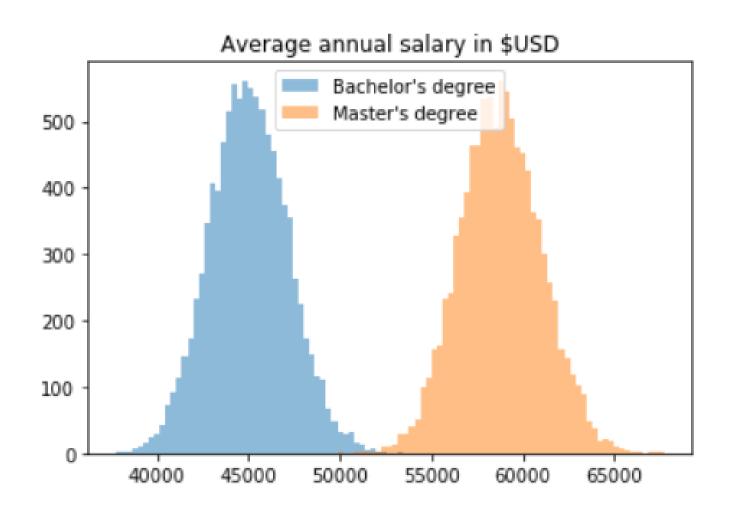
On the right are shown the resulting frequency distributions each based on 500 means. For n = 4, 4 scores were sampled from a uniform distribution 500 times and the mean computed each time. The same method was followed with means of 7 scores for n = 7 and 10 scores for n = 10



When *n* increases:

- 1. The distributions becomes more and more Normal
- 2. The spread of the distributions decreases

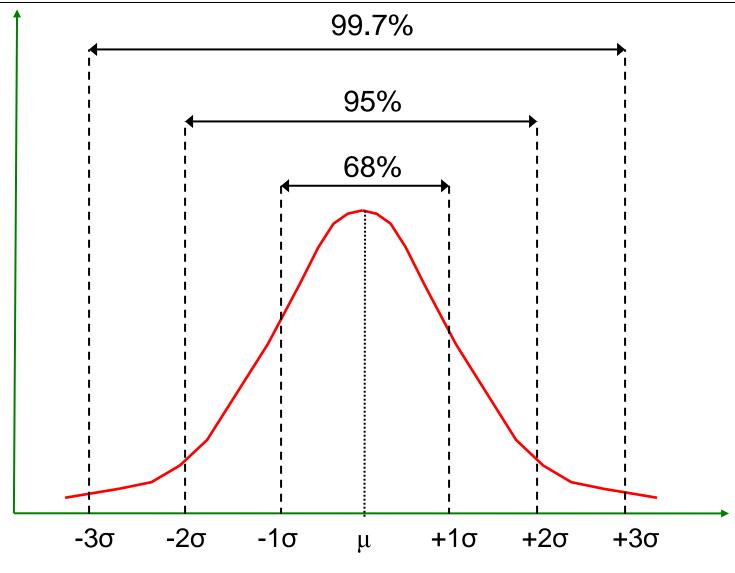
Central Limit Theorem – example (bootstrapping)



Central Limit Theorem

- The sampling distribution of the mean roughly follows a Normal distribution
- 95% of the time, an individual sample mean should lie within 2 (actually 1.96) standard deviations of the mean

prob
$$[(\mu - 1.96s) \le \bar{x} \le (\mu + 1.96s)] = 0.95$$



P(Z>=2.0) = 0.0228 P(-2<=Z<=+2) = 1 - 2*0.0228 = 0.9544

P(Z>=1.96) = 0.025 P(-1.96<=Z<=+1.96) = 1 - 2*0.025 = 0.95

Central Limit Theorem

■ The **standard deviation** *s* of the sampling distribution of the mean of *x* is:

$$s^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \qquad \qquad s = \sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

prob
$$[(\mu - 1.96s) \le \bar{x} \le (\mu + 1.96s)] = 0.95$$

prob
$$\left[(\mu - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}) \le \bar{x} \le (\mu + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}) \right] = 0.95$$

Rearranging

prob
$$\left[(\bar{x} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}) \le \mu \le (\bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}) \right] = 0.95$$

margin

Central Limit Theorem – election poll example

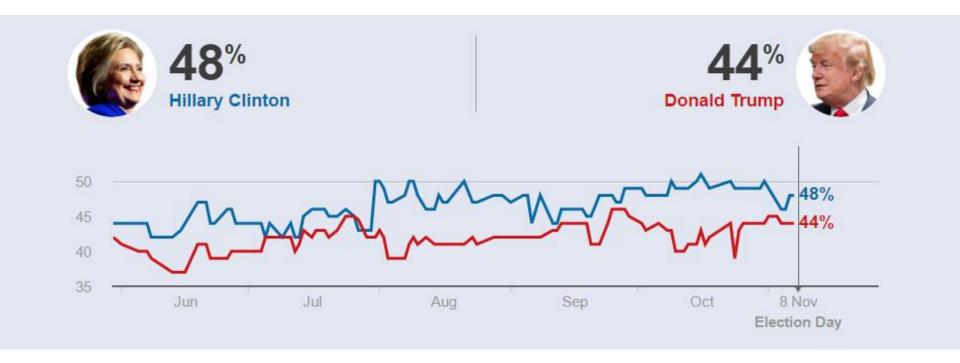
- Suppose we conduct a poll to try and get the outcome of an upcoming election with two candidates. We poll 1000 people, and 550 of them respond that they will vote for candidate A
- How confident can we be that a given person will cast their vote for candidate A?
- In this case we are working with a binomial distribution (i.e., a voter can choose Candidate A or B, which is a binomial function)
- We have a probability **estimator** from our sample, where the probability of an individual in our sample voting for candidate A was found to be 550/1000=0.55
- For the binominal distribution

$$s = \sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sqrt{p \cdot (1-p)}}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sqrt{0.55 \cdot 0.45}}{\sqrt{1000}} = 0.0157$$

• Margin of error = 1.96 * 0.0157 = 0.031 = 3%

Election Statistics Revisited

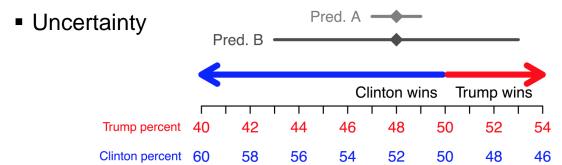
US presidential elections 2016



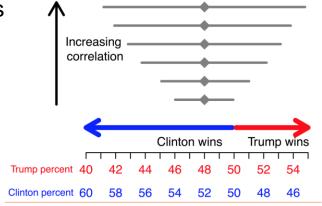
Source: BBC poll of polls

Election polling – quantitative issues relevant to the 2016 elections

- Errors in sampling and polling
 - □ Low response rates (less than 10%)
 - □ Inadequate coverage
 - **...**



Correlated errors



Source: http://senseaboutscienceusa.org/biggest-stats-lesson-2016/

Random variables – mean and variance

Random variable

- \square **x** is a random variable, takes finite number of values, x_i for i=1,2,...,n
- \Box a probability (associated with each event) represents the relative chance of an occurrence of x_i such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1 \text{ and } p_i \ge 0 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$
 relative frequency

- Expected value (mean value or mean)
 - average value obtained by regarding probabilities as frequencies

$$\overline{x} = \mathbb{E}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

finite number of possibilities

Variance - measure of possible deviation from the mean

$$\operatorname{var}(x) = \mathbb{E}\left[(x - \overline{x})^2\right] \leftarrow \\ = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2}{n - 1}$$

Expected value of squared variable how much *x* tends to vary from its mean

Random variables – covariance and correlation

lacktriangle Covariance of two random variables x and y

$$cov(x,y) = \sigma_{xy} = \mathbb{E}\left[(x - \overline{x})(y - \overline{y})\right]$$
$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{n-1}$$

lacktriangle Correlation between two random variables x and y

 $\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_{yx}$

$$\operatorname{cor}(x,y) = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(x,y)}{\sqrt{\operatorname{var}(x) \cdot \operatorname{var}(y)}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \rho_{x\,y} = \frac{\sigma_{x\,y}}{\sigma_x\sigma_y}$$

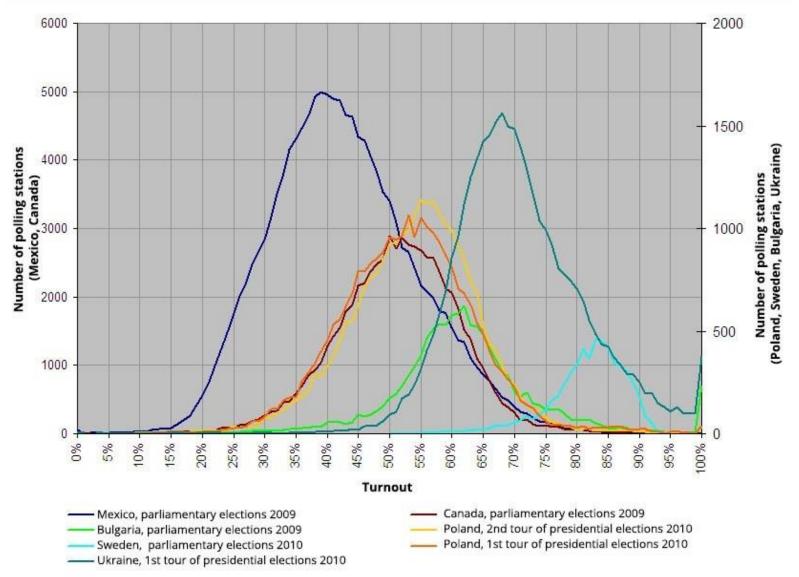
$$\rho_{x\,y} > 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{positively correlated}$$

$$\underset{\text{direction of the relationship}}{\operatorname{sign defines}} \quad \rho_{x\,y} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{uncorrelated (maybe independent)}$$

$$\rho_{x\,y} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{negatively correlated}$$

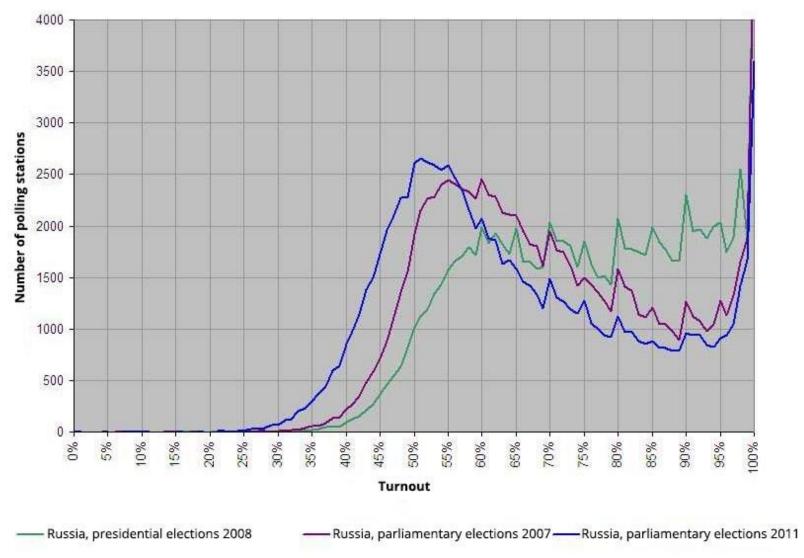
$$\rho_{x\,y} = \pm 1 \Rightarrow \quad \text{perfect +(-) correlation}$$

Voter turnout at elections - Canada, USA, Ukraine, Poland, Bulgaria



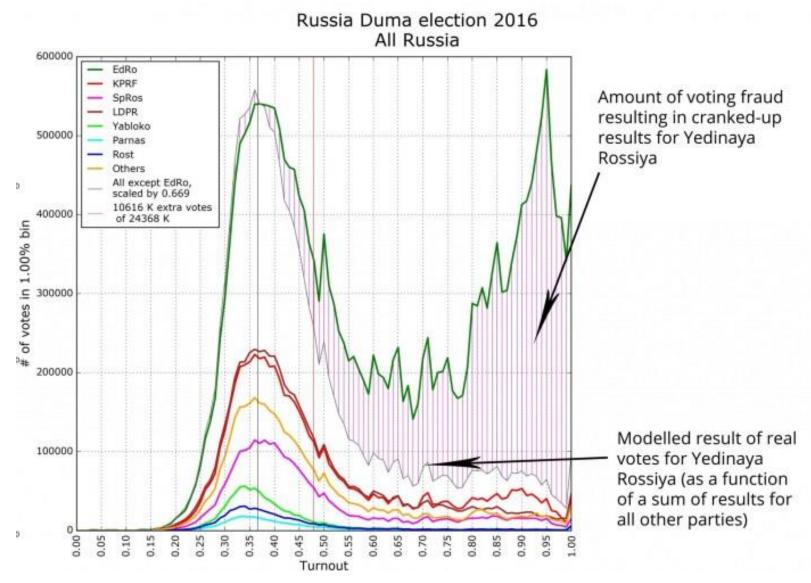
Source: http://euromaidanpress.com/2016/09/21/statistical-method-measures-voting-fraud-of-russias-pro-putin-party/

Voter turnout at elections – Russia election fraud



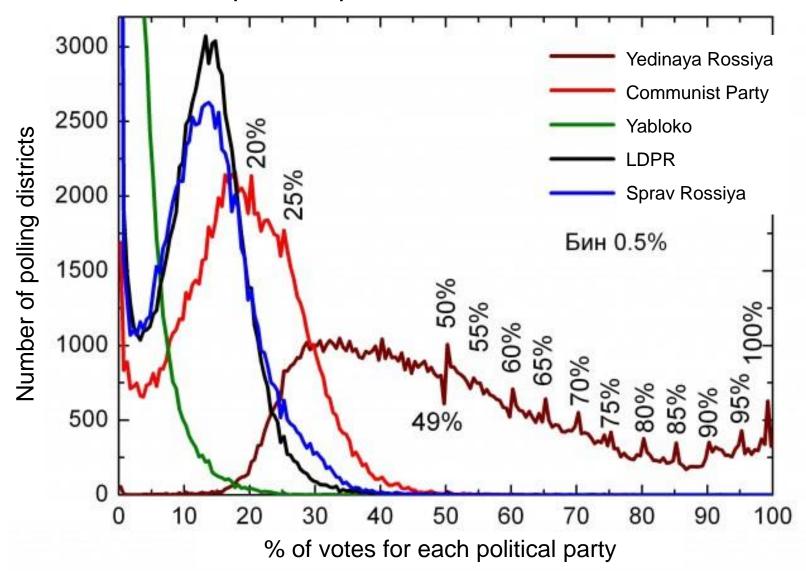
Source: http://euromaidanpress.com/2016/09/21/statistical-method-measures-voting-fraud-of-russias-pro-putin-party/

Voter turnout at elections – Russia election fraud



Source: http://euromaidanpress.com/2016/09/21/statistical-method-measures-voting-fraud-of-russias-pro-putin-party/

Number of votes for political parties – Russia election fraud



Source: https://keleg.livejournal.com/353195.html

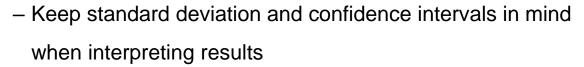
Summary of Lecture 3

Summary – good practices for data analysis

 Be aware of where your data comes from and how it was collected



- Plot your data
- Choose the appropriate summary statistics for your type of data
- Statistics generally have uncertainty associated with them



- Perform statistical tests to see if the difference in the data indicate a statistically significant difference
- Get familiar with distributions
- Apply statistical analysis to solve business problems



