MATH 205: Statistical methods

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Lecture 2: Looking at relationship

Lectures:

MW 3:35pm-4:50pm, Kirkbride 205

- Labs:
 - Section 050L: M 2:30pm 3:20pm, Ewing 101
 - Section 051L: W 2:30pm 3:20pm, Ewing 101
- Office hours
 - TTh 2:00pm 3:30pm, Ewing 312
 - or by appointments

Communications

$\bullet \bullet \bullet \leftarrow \rightarrow \textcircled{\bullet}$	Q Search MATH205-Fall2021	4		
MATH205-Fa × 🕜	# general ~	🎄 🔜 🔺 54		
Threads	+ Add a bookmark			
പ് All DMs	Saturday, August 28th ~			
: More	Important infos about the class:			
 Channels 	 Course webpage: Information about the class, including the syllabus and infos about the midterm, can be found on the course webpage: https://vucdinh.github.io/m205f21.html Note that all handouts (homework assignments, lectures) will be posted at this webpage. Canvas will only be used to access your grades (and is set up to prepare for the scenarios when the course has to be moved online). The references for this class are: Lectures: <i>Probability and Statistics for Computer Science</i>. David Forsyth (2018) Labs: Limited Limit			
# general				
# lab-section-050				
# lab-session-051				
# inve-comments # random				
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 Direct messages 	Probability and Statistics for Computer Science. David Forsyth (2018)			
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👬 bdonbson	David Forsyth			
🚬 Boyuan Yang				
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Lectures:

Probability and Statistics for Computer Science. David Forsyth (2018)

Labs:

simpleR – Using R for Introductory Statistics. John Verzani (2002)

- Must wear a cloth mask that covers your nose and mouth
- Must not eat or drink in class
- Upon entering the classroom, wipe down your seat and desk area
- Write down the names of the students sitting around you at the beginning of each class

- The lectures will be recorded by UD Capture, accessible through Canvas.
 Note that there will be no camera in class, so work on the board wouldn't be seen in the records.
- The lab doesn't have UD Capture. I will provide a Zoom session for each lab.

Tentative schedule

Date	Theme/Topic	Labs	Assignments
Sep 1	Syllabus		
Sep 8	Chapter 1: Describing dataset	Section 2: Handling data	
Sep 13 - 15	Chapter 2: Looking at Relationships	Section 3: Univariate data	
Sep 20-22	Chapter 3: Basic Ideas in Probability	Section 4: Bivariate Data	Homework 1 (due 09/22)
Sep 27-29	Chapters 3-4	Section 4: Correlation	
Oct 4-6	Chapter 4: Random variables and expectations	Section 6: Random data	Homework 2 (due 10/06)
Oct 11-13	Chapter 5: Useful distributions	Section 7: The central limit theorem	
Oct 18-20	Chapter 6: Samples and populations	Section 9: Confidence interval estimation	Homework 3 (due 10/20)
Oct 25-27	Review and midterm exam		Midterm: Oct 27 (lecture), Oct 25-27 (labs)
Nov 1-3	Chapter 7: The significance of evidence	Section 10: Hypothesis testing	
Nov 8-10	Goodness of Fit	Section 12: Goodness of Fit	Homework 4 (due 11/10)
Nov 15-17	Linear Regression	Section 13: Linear regression	
Nov 22-24	Thanksgiving break		
Nov 29 - Dec 1	One-Way Analysis of Variance	Section 15: Analysis of variance	Homework 5 (due 12/01)
Dec 6-8	Selected topics + Review		
Exam week			

Chapter 1: Describing dataset

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- Categorical vs. continuous data
- Datasets as *d*-tuples

Summarizing univariate data:

- Mean
- Median
- Standard deviation
- Interquartile Range

Visualizing univariate data:

- Bar chart
- Pie chart
- Histogram
- Box plot



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Pie charts

A Pie Chart is a special chart that shows relative sizes of data using pie slices.



They are good if you are trying to compare parts of a single data series to the whole.

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- Mean
- Median
- Standard deviation
- Variance
- Interquartile Range

Definition 1.1 (Mean) Assume we have a dataset $\{x\}$ of N data items, x_1, \ldots, x_N . Their mean is

mean ({x}) =
$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$
.

Definition 1.4 (Median) The median of a set of data points is obtained by sorting the data points, and finding the point halfway along the list. If the list is of even length, it's usual to average the two numbers on either side of the middle. We write

median ($\{x\}$)

for the operator that returns the median.

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Median

The risk of developing iron deficiency is especially high during pregnancy. The problem with detecting such deficiency is that some methods for determining iron status can be affected by the state of pregnancy itself. Consider the following data on transferrin receptor concentration for a sample of women with laboratory evidence of overt iron-deficiency anemia ("Serum Transferrin Receptor for the Detection of Iron Deficiency in Pregnancy," *Amer. J. Clin. Nutrit.*, 1991: 1077–1081):

$$x_1 = 15.2$$
 $x_2 = 9.3$ $x_3 = 7.6$ $x_4 = 11.9$ $x_5 = 10.4$ $x_6 = 9.7$
 $x_7 = 20.4$ $x_8 = 9.4$ $x_9 = 11.5$ $x_{10} = 16.2$ $x_{11} = 9.4$ $x_{12} = 8.3$

The list of ordered values is

7.6 8.3 9.3 9.4 9.4 9.7 10.4 11.5 11.9 15.2 16.2 20.4

Since n = 12 is even, we average the n/2 = sixth- and seventh-ordered values:

sample median
$$=$$
 $\frac{9.7 + 10.4}{2} = 10.05$

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Definition 1.2 (Standard Deviation) Assume we have a dataset $\{x\}$ of N data items, x_1, \ldots, x_N . The standard deviation of this dataset is:

std ({x_i}) =
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{i=N} (x_i - \text{mean} (\{x\}))^2}$$

= $\sqrt{\text{mean} (\{(x_i - \text{mean} (\{x\}))^2\})}$

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Definition 1.3 (Variance) Assume we have a dataset $\{x\}$ of N data items, x_1, \ldots, x_N . where N > 1. Their variance is:

$$\operatorname{var}(\{x\}) = \frac{1}{N} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{i=N} (x_i - \operatorname{mean}(\{x\}))^2 \right)$$
$$= \operatorname{mean}\left(\left\{ (x_i - \operatorname{mean}(\{x\}))^2 \right\} \right).$$

Interquartile range

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Definition 1.5 (Percentile) The k'th percentile is the value such that k% of the data is less than or equal to that value. We write percentile($\{x\}, k$) for the k'th percentile of dataset $\{x\}$.

Definition 1.6 (Quartiles) The first quartile of the data is the value such that 25% of the data is less than or equal to that value (i.e. percentile($\{x\}, 25$)). The second quartile of the data is the value such that 50% of the data is less than or equal to that value, which is usually the median (i.e. percentile($\{x\}, 50$)). The third quartile of the data is the value such that 75% of the data is less than or equal to that value (i.e. percentile($\{x\}, 75$)).

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- If there are *n* data points, then the *p* quantile occurs at the position 1 + (n-1)p with weighted averaging if this is between integers.
- For example the .25 quantile of the numbers

10, 17, 18, 25, 28, 28

occurs at the position 1+(6-1)(.25) = 2.25. That is 1/4 of the way between the second and third number which in this example is 17.25.

Definition 1.7 (Interquartile Range) The interquartile range of a dataset $\{x\}$ is $iqr\{x\} = percentile(\{x\}, 75) - percentile(\{x\}, 25)$.

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Consider the previous example:

 $x_1 = 15.2$ $x_2 = 9.3$ $x_3 = 7.6$ $x_4 = 11.9$ $x_5 = 10.4$ $x_6 = 9.7$ $x_7 = 20.4$ $x_8 = 9.4$ $x_9 = 11.5$ $x_{10} = 16.2$ $x_{11} = 9.4$ $x_{12} = 8.3$

The list of ordered values is

7.6 8.3 9.3 9.4 9.4 9.7 10.4 11.5 11.9 15.2 16.2 20.4

Compute the Interquartile range of this dataset.



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- Convention: any point further than 1.5*[Interquartile range] from the closest quartile is called *an outlier*
- Boxplot with outliers: The whisker is shorten to just include non-outliers. Outliers are plotted by points.



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Final note: Standard coordinates

- It is often possible to get some useful insights about one univariate dataset from visualizations
- However, they are hard to compare because each is in a different set of units

Definition 1.8 (Standard Coordinates) Assume we have a dataset $\{x\}$ of N data items, x_1, \ldots, x_N . We represent these data items in standard coordinates by computing

$$\hat{x}_i = \frac{(x_i - \operatorname{mean}\left(\{x\}\right))}{\operatorname{std}\left(\{x\}\right)}.$$

We write $\{\hat{x}\}\$ for a dataset that happens to be in standard coordinates.

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We write $\{\hat{x}\}$ for a dataset that happens to be in standard coordinates.

Prove that:

- $mean(\{\hat{x}\}) = 0$
- $std({\hat{x}}) = 1$

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- We could then normalize the data by subtracting the location (mean) and dividing by the standard deviation (scale)
- The resulting values are unitless, and have zero mean

Chapter 2: Looking at relationship

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- We take a dataset, choose two different entries, and extract the corresponding elements from each tuple
- The result is a dataset consisting of 2-tuples, and we think of this as a two dimensional dataset
- Goal: to plot this dataset in a way that reveals relationships

- Categorial data: The Wild West. No strict rules. Depends on the data and the user's cleverness
- Numerical data: scatter plot

- Common approach: create a richer set of categories
- Example: Relationship between
 - automobile class (2seater, compact, midsize, minivan, pickup, subcompact, suv)
 - drive type (front-wheel, rear-wheel, or 4-wheel drive)

Grouped bar charts



Figure 4.2: Side-by-side bar chart

Stacked bar charts



Heatmap



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Categorial vs numerical



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- Use Cartesian coordinates to display values for two variables for a set of data
- The data are displayed as a collection of points, each having the value of one variable determining the position on the horizontal axis and the value of the other variable determining the position on the vertical axis



Scatterplot: example



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Standard coordinates



- From the figure: someone who is taller than the mean will tend to be heavier than the mean too
- This relationship is not always true for specific cases (and can not be represented by a function): some people are quite a lot taller than the mean, and quite a lot lighter

Question: when \hat{x} increases, does \hat{y} tend to increase, decrease, or stay the same?

- Positive correlation: larger \hat{x} values tend to appear with larger \hat{y} values
- Negative correlation: larger \hat{x} values tend to appear with smaller \hat{y} values
- Zero correlation: no relationship



Positive Correlation





Negative Correlation

No Correlation

Definition 2.1 (Correlation Coefficient) Assume we have *N* data items which are 2-vectors $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_N, y_N)$, where N > 1. These could be obtained, for example, by extracting components from larger vectors. We compute the correlation coefficient by first normalizing the *x* and *y* coordinates to obtain $\hat{x}_i = \frac{(x_i - \text{mean}(\{x\}))}{\text{std}(x)}, \hat{y}_i = \frac{(y_i - \text{mean}(\{y\}))}{\text{std}(y)}$. The correlation coefficient is the mean value of $\hat{x}\hat{y}$, and can be computed as:

$$\operatorname{corr}\left(\{(x, y)\}\right) = \frac{\sum_{i} \hat{x}_{i} \hat{y}_{i}}{N}$$

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- correlation is a measure of our ability to predict one value from another
- correlation coefficient takes values between -1 and 1
- If the correlation coefficient is close to 1 or -1, then we are likely to predict very well.

Correlation coefficient



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Property 2.1 The largest possible value of the correlation is 1, and this occurs when $\hat{x}_i = \hat{y}_i$ for all *i*. The smallest possible value of the correlation is -1, and this occurs when $\hat{x}_i = -\hat{y}_i$ for all *i*.

Proposition

 $-1 \le \text{corr}(\{(x, y)\}) \le 1$

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