# **Topic 1: Descriptive Statistics**

**<u>Reference:</u>** AWS: Chapters 1 and 2. <u>**Objectives:**</u> Basic Statistical Definitions Methods of Displaying Data

**Definitions:** 

<u>S</u>: a <u>numerical</u> piece of information

Example: We are interested in economic data prices prices



<u>**Descriptive Statistics:**</u> ways of <u>summarizing</u> or <u>p</u> statistical information efficiently and effectively.

**Inferential Statistics** – used to assist with decision making when faced with <u>un</u>.

■In order to understand the distinction between these definitions, we need to understand the distinction between a "**population**" and a <u>"sample":</u>

**<u>Population</u>**: <u>All</u> the \_\_\_\_\_ items that may be of interest.

<u>Sample:</u> A selected <u>subset</u> of the population items (How should you select this subset?)

The distinction between "population" and sample may depend on context.

## Example:

<u>Population</u>: (ALL) New cars sold in Vancouver. <u>Sample</u>: Ten new cars sold in Vancouver auto\_\_\_\_\_.

▲ The statistical sample attempts to provide information that helps us understand some characteristic (\_\_\_\_\_) of the population.

▲We are trying to infer something about the (general) population from the (\_\_\_\_\_) sample results.

(Trying to make a generalization about a population, from the results attained from a sample of population.)

Such a process involves **uncertainty.** (\_\_\_\_\_)

We need to be able to <u>measure /</u>\_\_\_\_\_ this, so we can judge the \_\_\_\_\_ of our inferences.

(Provide a margin of error; numerical measure of \_\_\_\_\_\_ Population – no uncertainty – have all the facts Sample – uncertainty – not have the whole picture.)

<u>**Our Motivation:**</u> Decision making is an essential activity for corporations, government agencies, etc..

Decisions often involve quantitative information. Such information often involves <u>uncertainty</u>.



Policy makingForecasting

# **Statistical Inference Involves 3 Basic Procedures:**

Example: minimum price of new car sold Example: average percent of cups of coffee sold that are decaffeinated.

(2) <u>**H**</u> Testing – testing the validity of some statement about a population.

Example: 10% of all new cars sold are less that \$12,000 (Cdn\$). Example: 25% of all coffee sold is decaffeinated.

(3)  $\underline{\mathbf{F}}$  \_\_\_\_\_ – Predicting outside the sample.

Example: Minimum price of new car in 2015. Example: Average amount of coffee sold that is decaffeinated next month.

► Look at the trends

# **Must Learn about:**



# **Population and Sample Characteristics**

Often a population is very \_\_\_\_\_, so it is useful to summarize its key features by focussing on a few important <u>characteristics</u>.

Examples:

"What is the <u>average</u> or most typical population value?"

 $\Rightarrow$ The average wage of <u>all</u> working Canadians is \$54,250.13 per year.

"What <u>range</u> of values does the data cover?" ⇒The number of trucks sold by <u>every</u> Toyota dealership in Canada range from as low as 5 to a maximum of 498 per year.

Such characteristics are called **population** 

# Numerical Example:

Suppose there are only 10 retail stores in \_\_\_\_\_\_ that sell a particular ink cartridge for an old piece of office equipment.

The prices of these cartridges are:

{23.45, 23.23, 20.98, 24.56, 24.05, 23.24, 23.99, 22.99, 25.50, 23.99}

Sum =235.98

The <u>population mean</u> (average) is \_\_\_\_\_:



 $\mu = mean$ 

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \left( X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_N \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i \right)$$

where:  

$$N = Population size$$
  
 $X_i = i^{th} value$ 

Г

$$\mu = \frac{1}{10} (23.45 + 23.23 + ... + 23.99) = \frac{1}{10} (235.98) = 23.598$$

## The <u>Proportion</u> of values in the population below \$\_\_:

$$\Pi = \frac{y}{N} = \frac{2}{10} = \frac{1}{5} = 20\%$$
where:

y = number of values below \$23.

$$N = Population size.$$

The most **frequently** value in the population is:

M=\$23.99 — occurring twice.

# Often we need to work with a \_\_\_\_\_ of data, instead of the entire population because:

(i) <u>Population is very</u> - expensive (i.e. labour cost, time.)

(ii) Part of the population may be in\_\_\_\_\_



# (iii) Measurement may be

- Eg. Testing the reliability of an electrical component can only be performed if the component is destroyed; stress test.
- Eg. Crash testing \_\_\_\_\_\_ for certain safety features.



Eg. Water monitoring for quality control.



## ⇒The individual sample \_\_\_\_\_ are called <u>sample statistics</u>.

⇒Similarly, any **function** of the sample values is also called a statistic.

 $\Rightarrow$  The sample s\_\_\_\_\_ characterize the feature of a sample in the way that **parameters** characterize a population.

**Example**: using the ink cartridge data, we choose 3 items (n=3) from the population of 10 prices:

{23.23, 23.99, 20.98}

The sample mean price is: 
$$\overline{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i = \frac{1}{3} (23.23 + 23.99 + 20.98) = \frac{1}{3} (68.2) = 22.73$$

The sample proportion of prices below \$23 is:

There is no most frequently occurring value; each occurs once in this sample.

# **Comparison of Population and Sample Characteristics:**

μ =23.598	$\bar{X} = 22.73$	are different
П =20%	p=33.33%	proportions are
M=23.99	m	different

Using a sample introduces <u>uncertainty</u>.

(Can sampling error be controlled?) (YES!! \_\_\_\_\_\_n.)

# **Data Presentation**

# (I) Tabular Presentation:

When reporting data, you need to report:

(i) \_\_\_\_\_

- (ii) units of m\_
- (iii) method of sampling (telephone; volunteer)
- (iv) reliability (outliers, rounding)
- (v) consistency with other data
- (vi) relevance for our purposes
- (vii) potential to be \_\_\_\_\_ (maintained)



#### Self-rated health, by sex, household population aged 12 and over, Canada, provinces, territories, health regions and peer groups, 2005

Geographic code and name	Self-rated health					(			
	Total	Very good or excellent Good		d	Fair or poor		Not stated		
		number	%	number	%	number	%	number	%
Canada	27,131,964	16,295,063	60.1	7,781,666	28.7	3,028,494	11.2	26,742	0.1
Males	13,371,912	8,097,453	60.6	3,835,129	28.7	1,425,163	10.7	14,167	0.1
Females	13,760,052	8,197,610	59.6	3,946,536	28.7	1,603,331	11.7	12,574 <sup>E</sup>	0.1 <sup>E</sup>
10 Newfoundland and Labrador	448,813	288,338	64.2	106,825	23.8	53,454	11.9	F	F
Males	219,553	137,739	62.7	55,234	25.2	26,406	12.0	F	F
Females	229,259	150,599	65.7	51,591	22.5	27,049	11.8	F	F
1011-C Eastern RIHA, N.L.	260,578	171,600	65.9	60,600	23.3	28,255	10.8	F	F
Males	126,614	82,022	64.8	30,666	24.2	13,802	10.9	F	F
▼ <u> </u>									

 Health regions are defined by the provincial ministries of health. These are legislated administrative areas in all provinces. The health regions presented in this table are based on boundaries and names in effect as of June 2005. For complete Canadian coverage, each of the northern territories also represents a health region.

 A "peer group" is a grouping of health regions that have similar social and economic characteristics. The nine peer groups are identified by the letters A through I, which are appended to the health region 4-digit code.

In Nova Scotia, zones are aggregations of the nine district health authorities.

4 No data available for "Dégion du Nunavik" and "Dégion des Terres Ories de la Baie, James".

# Table 1Most prevalent occupations usually requiring a university degree, women, 1996 and 2016

	1996				2016						
	Workers	Workers	Workers	Workers	Proportion of workers aged 55 and over	Median age	Ratio of younger workers to older workers 2	Workers	Proportion of workers aged 55 and over	Median age	Ratio of younge workers to olde workers 2
	number	percent	years	ratio	number	percent	years	rati			
Occupation											
Registered nurses and registered psychiatric nurses	214,800	9.6	41.6	4.51	262,500	20.3	42.8	1.5			
Elementary school and kindergarten teachers	183,100	7.2	43.7	4.18	238,700	13.8	41.2	2.6			
Financial auditors and accountants	52,200	6.4	37.2	4.65	108,400	19.1	43.8	1.3			
Secondary school teachers	77,300	7.9	42.7	4.12	94,900	16.0	42.2	2.5			
Professional occupations in advertising, marketing and public relations	16,200	5.6	36.7	5.45	60,100	10.9	35.7	4.0			
Human resources professionals	14,200	3.7	40.2	10.40	53,200	15.1	40.8	1.8			
Other financial officers 1	12,200	6.9	38.8	3.61	5 <b>1</b> ,600	19.5	44.3	1.3			
Social workers	28,400	6.1	39.2	3.97	49,200	16.7	41.4	2.1			

# A Good Data Table will include:

 $\Rightarrow$  \_\_\_\_\_ – what, when where

 $\Rightarrow$  \_\_\_\_\_ of measurement

➡ Definitions of symbols / terms

 $\Rightarrow$ Source(s)

⇒ Data adjustments – rounding

⇒Breaks in the data

# **There Are Many Potential Pitfalls:**

▽Misinterpretation of figures (units may differ)
▽Misleading \_\_\_\_\_
▽Mixed reliability (*misinterpretation by collectors*)
▽Inadequate \_\_\_\_\_ / Incomplete title

# "- we need a method that will summarize or describe large masses of data without loss or distortion of essential characteristics and make the data easier to interpret. One such method is the arrangement of data into what is called a distribution:"

# **Frequency Distributions:**

A convenient way of summarizing a large set of \_\_\_\_\_ data.

-Divide values into <u>intervals</u> and report the <u>frequency of</u> <u>o</u> of values in each interval. (*Group by frequency of occurrence*)

"To construct a frequency distribution, it is first necessary to divide data into a limited amount of classes and report the number of times (frequency) an observation falls (is distributed) in to \_\_\_\_\_ class."

## **Example**: Suppose we have a population of 20 prices:

Class (i)	Range (\$)	<b>Frequency</b> (f <sub>i</sub> )	<b>Relative Frequency</b> $(f_i/N)$
	(width =5)		
1	$10 \leq X < 15$	8	0.40
2	$15 \leq X < 20$	4	0.20
3	$20 \leq X < 25$	5	0.25
4	$25 \leq X < 30$	2	0.10
5	$30 \leq X < 35$	1	0.05
		N=20= $\sum f_i$	1.00

**Relative frequency is the frequency in each class** \_\_\_\_\_\_ to the total number of observations.

The relative frequency is determined by dividing the frequency of each class by the total number of observations and expressing the result as a \_\_\_\_\_.

<u>Note:</u> with this example, data is in interval form instead of individual observations:

□ Individual data details are "\_\_\_\_"

 $\Box$  Intervals have equal width – 5 units

- □ Intervals are non-overlapping
- □ Interval widths are sensible for the data
- □ Number of intervals are sensible
- □ Intervals are 'closed'
- □ Could use \_\_\_\_\_ as representative (*for calculations*)

Also useful to construct a <u>cumulative frequency distribution</u> or a <u>cumulative relative frequency distribution</u>:

Class	Range	fi	$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i$	$\begin{pmatrix} f_i \\ N \end{pmatrix}$	$\sum \left( \frac{f_i}{N} \right)$
(i)	(\$)			, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
1	$10 \leq X < 15$	8		0.40	
2	$15 \leq X < 20$	4		0.20	
3	$20 \le X < 25$	5		0.25	
4	$25 \le X < 30$	2		0.10	
5	$30 \le X < 35$	1		0.05	

The cumulative frequency is the sum of the absolute frequencies from lowest class to the highest class.

Relative frequency sums to 1.

# (B) Graphical Presentation:

A graph is another way to summarize data. More effective if data features are complex. –i.e. greater impact/ more efficient

"Graphs and charts are usually employed when a visual representation is desired." Composition of 38th Parliament of Canada as of May 19, 2005



# However, there is a greater potential for mis-interpretation.

Along with the previous requirements for a good data table, we also need these:

- ▲ All \_\_\_\_ must be labelled
- (s) must be labelled
- ▲ A clear, uncluttered image

Easy to construct graphs corresponding to frequency, relative frequency, cumulative frequency and cumulative relative frequency.

*"While it is often useful to arrange the values in a data set into a frequency distribution, many analysts prefer a pictorial presentation."* 

"The most common type is a graph in which the classes are plotted on the horizontal axis and the frequency of each class is plotted on the vertical axis. This type of graph is called a \_\_\_\_\_\_or (loosely) a <u>bar graph.</u>"

		Incomes (\$'000)		
Class i	Range	Frequency	<b>Relative</b> Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
1	80 ≤X < 100		0.050	2
2	<i>100</i> ≤ X < 120		0.150	8
3	$120 \le X < 140$		0.200	16
4	$140 \le X < 160$		0.150	22
5	$160 \le X < 180$		0.075	25
6	$180 \le X < 200$		0.325	38
7	$200 \le \mathbf{X} < 220$		0.050	40

Example: Physician's Incomes (N=40)

# Two Graphs:

Frequency polygon: in addition to the histogram representation, a \_\_\_\_\_ polygon is constructed by drawing a straight line between the \_\_\_\_\_ of adjacent class intervals.

(Picture 1-21).

Frequency Polygon



A graph made by joining the middletop points of the columns of a frequency histogram

# Ogive: with the \_\_\_\_\_\_ histogram, the ogive connects the \_\_\_\_\_ points.

"Cumulative histogram can be "smoothed" by a line similar to the frequency polygon. This line is called a Ogive – connects the corner points of the cumulative histogram."

Note that the class boundaries rather than class marks are labelled, the cumulative number of individuals is read off the graph at the right boundary of the class, and straight (diagonal) lines are drawn accross each class. The information can also be displayed in a cumulative relative frequency ogive as indicated below.



### Example: Physician's Incomes (N=40)

	Incomes								
	(\$'000)								
Class	Range	Frequency	Relative	Cumulative					
i			Frequency	Frequency					
1	$80 \le X < 100$		0.050	2					
2	$100 \le X < 120$		0.150	8					
3	$120 \le X < 140$		0.200	16					
4	<i>140</i> ≤X < 160		0.150	22					
5	<i>160</i> ≤X < 180		0.075	25					
6	$180 \le X < 200$		0.325	38					
7	$200 \le X < 220$		0.050	40					





