

Advanced Topics in Software Engineering: Data Analysis

Prof. Michele Loreti

Advanced Topics in Software Engineering *Corso di Laurea in Informatica (L31) Scuola di Scienze e Tecnologie*



A sample space $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ is the set of possible outcomes of an experiment.

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



A sample space $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ is the set of possible outcomes of an experiment.

A $\sigma\text{-algebra}\ \Sigma$ on Ω is a family of subsets of Ω such that:

• if
$$A \in \Sigma$$
 then $\overline{A} = \Omega - A \in \Sigma$;

• for any
$$A_1, \ldots, A_n \in \Sigma$$
 $\bigcup_i A_i \in \Sigma$



A sample space $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ is the set of possible outcomes of an experiment.

A σ -algebra Σ on Ω is a family of subsets of Ω such that:

•
$$\Omega \in \Sigma$$
;
• if $A \in \Sigma$ then $\overline{A} = \Omega - A \in \Sigma$;
• for any $A_1, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma$
 $\bigcup_i A_i \in \Sigma$

An element $\omega \in \Omega$ is named a sample outcomes or realisation while $A \in \Sigma$ is an event.







Example: Tossing a coin twice

 $\Omega = \{\textit{TT},\textit{TH},\textit{HT},\textit{HH}\}$



 $\Omega = \{TT, TH, HT, HH\}$

The event "the first is head" is

 $A = \{HT, HH\}$





 $\Omega = \{TT, TH, HT, HH\}$

The event "the first is head" is

 $A = \{HT, HH\}$

Example: Measurement of a physical experiment

Example: Tossing a coin twice

 $\Omega = \{TT, TH, HT, HH\}$

The event "the first is head" is

$$A = \{HT, HH\}$$

Example: Measurement of a physical experiment

$$\Omega=\mathbb{R}=[-\infty,+\infty]$$



Example: Tossing a coin twice

 $\Omega = \{TT, TH, HT, HH\}$

The event "the first is head" is

$$A = \{HT, HH\}$$

Example: Measurement of a physical experiment

$$\Omega = \mathbb{R} = [-\infty, +\infty]$$

The event "measure is larger than 10 but less or equale to 23" is

$$A = (10, 23]$$

Data Analysis





Recall. . .

A probability space is a tuple (Ω, Σ, Pr) where

UNICAM Islamiti é familie 1336

Recall. . .

A probability space is a tuple (Ω, Σ, Pr) where

• Ω is a sample space;

UNICAM Islamiti é familie 1336

Recall. . .

A probability space is a tuple (Ω, Σ, Pr) where

- Ω is a sample space;
- Σ is a σ-algebra on Ω;

Recall. . .

A probability space is a tuple (Ω, Σ, Pr) where

- Ω is a sample space;
- Σ is a σ-algebra on Ω;
- $Pr: \Sigma \rightarrow [0,1]$ such that:
 - $Pr(\Omega) = 1$

• for any
$$A_1, \ldots, A_n$$
 $(A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for any $i \neq j$):

$$Pr\left(\bigcup_{i}A_{i}\right)=\sum_{i}Pr(A_{i})$$



Recall...

A probability space is a tuple (Ω, Σ, Pr) where

- Ω is a sample space;
- Σ is a σ-algebra on Ω;
- $Pr: \Sigma \rightarrow [0,1]$ such that:
 - $Pr(\Omega) = 1$
 - for any A_1, \ldots, A_n $(A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for any $i \neq j$):

$$Pr\left(\bigcup_{i}A_{i}\right)=\sum_{i}Pr(A_{i})$$

Remark: If Ω is finite, and if each outcome is equally likely, then

$$Pr(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$$

Data Analysis





Let (Ω, Σ, Pr) be a probability space...

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



Let (Ω, Σ, Pr) be a probability space...

For any $A, B \in \Sigma$, $Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) \cup Pr(B) - Pr(A \cap B)$.



Let (Ω, Σ, Pr) be a probability space...

For any
$$A, B \in \Sigma$$
, $Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) \cup Pr(B) - Pr(A \cap B)$.

Two events $A, B \in \Sigma$ are independent if and only if

$$Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A) \cdot Pr(B).$$



Let $A, B \in \Sigma$, if Pr(B) > 0 then the conditional probability of A given B is:

$$Pr(A|B) = rac{Pr(A \cap B)}{Pr(B)}$$



Let $A, B \in \Sigma$, if Pr(B) > 0 then the conditional probability of A given B is:

$$Pr(A|B) = rac{Pr(A \cap B)}{Pr(B)}$$

Remark: Pr(A|B) is the fraction of times A occurs among those in which B occurs!



Let $A, B \in \Sigma$, if Pr(B) > 0 then the conditional probability of A given B is:

$$Pr(A|B) = rac{Pr(A \cap B)}{Pr(B)}$$

Remark: Pr(A|B) is the fraction of times A occurs among those in which B occurs!

If A and B are independent...

$$Pr(A|B) = \frac{Pr(A \cap B)}{Pr(B)} = \frac{Pr(A) \cdot Pr(B)}{Pr(B)} = Pr(A)$$

Prof. Michele Loreti

Random Variables...



A random variable is a mapping $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis

330 / 365



A random variable is a mapping $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.

Let (Ω, Σ, \Pr) be a probability space, a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a measurable function from Ω to \mathbb{R} .



A random variable is a mapping $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.

Let (Ω, Σ, Pr) be a probability space, a random variable $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a measurable function from Ω to \mathbb{R} .

The probability that X takes value in a measurable set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is written as:

$$\Pr(X \in S) = \Pr(\{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) \in S\})$$

Random Variables...



The sample space of 3 coin flips is:

 $\Omega = \{\textit{TTT}, \textit{TTH}, \textit{THT}, \textit{THH}, \textit{HTT}, \textit{HTH}, \textit{HHT}, \textit{HHH}\}$

Random Variables...



The sample space of 3 coin flips is:

 $\Omega = \{\textit{TTT}, \textit{TTH}, \textit{THT}, \textit{THH}, \textit{HTT}, \textit{HTH}, \textit{HHT}, \textit{HHH}\}$

If the coin is *fair*, for each $\omega \in \Omega$ $Pr(\omega) = \frac{1}{8}$.

Random Variables. . . Example...



The sample space of 3 coin flips is:

 $\Omega = \{TTT, TTH, THT, THH, HTT, HTH, HHT, HHH\}$

If the coin is *fair*, for each $\omega \in \Omega$ $Pr(\omega) = \frac{1}{8}$.

Let $X(\omega)$ be the number of *heads* in the sequence ω .

UNICAM Unicam Unicam Unicam Unicam Unicam Unicam Unicam Unicam

Random Variables...

The sample space of 3 coin flips is:

 $\Omega = \{TTT, TTH, THT, THH, HTT, HTH, HHT, HHH\}$

If the coin is *fair*, for each $\omega \in \Omega$ $Pr(\omega) = \frac{1}{8}$.

Let $X(\omega)$ be the number of *heads* in the sequence ω .

Let $k \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$:

$$Pr(X = k) = {\binom{3}{k}}\frac{1}{8} = \frac{3!}{k! \cdot (3-k)!}\frac{1}{8}$$

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



Let X a random variable on the probability space (Ω, Σ, Pr) , we define the distribution function F_X for each real $x \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$F_X(x) = \Pr[X \le x] = \Pr(\{\omega | X(\omega) \le x\})$$



Let X a random variable on the probability space (Ω, Σ, Pr) , we define the distribution function F_X for each real $x \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$F_X(x) = \Pr[X \le x] = \Pr(\{\omega | X(\omega) \le x\})$$

We associate another function $p_X(\cdot)$, called the probability mass function, with X (pmf), for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$p(x) = \Pr[X = x] = \Pr(\{\omega | X(\omega) \le x\})$$



Let X a random variable on the probability space (Ω, Σ, Pr) , we define the distribution function F_X for each real $x \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$F_X(x) = \Pr[X \le x] = \Pr(\{\omega | X(\omega) \le x\})$$

We associate another function $p_X(\cdot)$, called the probability mass function, with X (pmf), for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$p(x) = \Pr[X = x] = \Pr(\{\omega | X(\omega) \le x\})$$

A random variable X is continuous if p(x) = 0 for all real x.



Let X a random variable on the probability space (Ω, Σ, Pr) , we define the distribution function F_X for each real $x \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$F_X(x) = \Pr[X \le x] = \Pr(\{\omega | X(\omega) \le x\})$$

We associate another function $p_X(\cdot)$, called the probability mass function, with X (pmf), for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$p(x) = \Pr[X = x] = \Pr(\{\omega | X(\omega) \le x\})$$

A random variable X is continuous if p(x) = 0 for all real x.

NB: If X is a continuous random variable, then X can assume infinitely many values, and so it is reasonable that the probability of its assuming any specific value we choose beforehand is zero.

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



A random variable can be used to describe the process of rolling two (fair) dice and the possible outcomes.



. . .

A random variable can be used to describe the process of rolling two (fair) dice and the possible outcomes.

We can consider the probability space $(\Omega_{2D}, \Sigma_{2D}, \mathsf{Pr}_{2D})$ such that:

$$\Omega_{2D} = \{(n_1, n_2) | 1 \le n_1, n_2 \le 6\}$$
 $\Sigma_{2D} = 2^{\Omega_{2D}}$ $Pr(A) = \frac{|A|}{36}$



A random variable can be used to describe the process of rolling two (fair) dice and the possible outcomes.

We can consider the probability space $(\Omega_{2D}, \Sigma_{2D}, Pr_{2D})$ such that:

$$\Omega_{2D} = \{(n_1, n_2) | 1 \le n_1, n_2 \le 6\} \qquad \Sigma_{2D} = 2^{\Omega_{2D}} \qquad Pr(A) = \frac{|A|}{36}$$

The total number rolled is then a random variable X given by the function that maps the pair to the sum: $X((n_1, n_2)) = n_1 + n_2$



A random variable can be used to describe the process of rolling two (fair) dice and the possible outcomes.

We can consider the probability space $(\Omega_{2D}, \Sigma_{2D}, Pr_{2D})$ such that:

$$\Omega_{2D} = \{ (n_1, n_2) | 1 \le n_1, n_2 \le 6 \} \qquad \Sigma_{2D} = 2^{\Omega_{2D}} \qquad Pr(A) = \frac{|A|}{36}$$

The total number rolled is then a random variable X given by the function that maps the pair to the sum: $X((n_1, n_2)) = n_1 + n_2$

The pms function p_X and the df F_X function can be defined as:

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\min(x-1,13-x)}{36} & 2 \le x \le 12\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \qquad F_X(x) = \sum_{y \le x} p_X(y)$$

Prof. Michele Loreti



If X is a discrete random variable with probability mass function $p(\cdot)$, we define the mean or expected value of $X \in S$, $\mu = E[X]$ by

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in S} x \cdot p(x)$$



If X is a discrete random variable with probability mass function $p(\cdot)$, we define the mean or expected value of $X \in S$, $\mu = E[X]$ by

$$\mathsf{E}(X) = \sum_{x \in S} x \cdot \mathsf{p}(x)$$

If X is a continuous random variable with density function $f(\cdot) = \frac{dF(\cdot)}{dx}$, we define the mean or expected value of X, $\mu = E[X]$ by

$$\mu = E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f(x) dx$$

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



The expectation only gives us an idea of the average value assumed by a random variable, not how much individual values may differ from this average.



The expectation only gives us an idea of the average value assumed by a random variable, not how much individual values may differ from this average.

The variance, Var(X), gives us an indication of the "spread" of values:

$$Var(X) = E[(X - E[X])^2] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$



The expectation only gives us an idea of the average value assumed by a random variable, not how much individual values may differ from this average.

The variance, Var(X), gives us an indication of the "spread" of values:

$$Var(X) = E\left[(X - E[X])^2\right] = E\left[X^2\right] - E\left[X\right]^2$$

The standard deviation of X, $sd(X) = \sqrt{Var(X)}$.

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



Let X and Y be two random variables with means μ_X and μ_Y and standard deviations σ_X and σ_Y . The covariance between X and Y is defined as:

$$Cov(X,Y) = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$$



Let X and Y be two random variables with means μ_X and μ_Y and standard deviations σ_X and σ_Y . The covariance between X and Y is defined as:

$$Cov(X,Y) = E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)]$$

The correlation is defined as:

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$



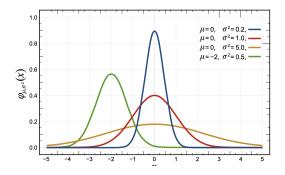
A random variable X has a Normal (or Gaussian) distribution with parameters μ and σ if and only if it has *probability density function*:

$$\phi_{\mu,\sigma^2}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$



A random variable X has a Normal (or Gaussian) distribution with parameters μ and σ if and only if it has *probability density function*:

$$\phi_{\mu,\sigma^2}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$



Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



We say that X has a standard Normal distribution if $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$.



We say that X has a standard Normal distribution if $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$. Random variables with standard Normal distribution are denoted by Z.



We say that X has a standard Normal distribution if $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$. Random variables with standard Normal distribution are denoted by Z.

Some facts about Normal Distribution:

• If X has distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2$ then $Z = \frac{(X-\mu)}{\sigma}$ has distribution N(0, 1)



We say that X has a standard Normal distribution if $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$. Random variables with standard Normal distribution are denoted by Z.

Some facts about Normal Distribution:

- If X has distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2$ then $Z = \frac{(X-\mu)}{\sigma}$ has distribution N(0, 1)
- If Z has distribution N(0,1) then $X = \mu + \sigma Z$ has distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.



We say that X has a standard Normal distribution if $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$. Random variables with standard Normal distribution are denoted by Z.

Some facts about Normal Distribution:

- If X has distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2$ then $Z = \frac{(X-\mu)}{\sigma}$ has distribution N(0, 1)
- If Z has distribution N(0, 1) then $X = \mu + \sigma Z$ has distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

1

• X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent and distributed with $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ then $\sum_i X_i$ has distribution

$$\mathsf{V}\left(\sum_{i}\mu_{i},\sum_{i}\sigma_{i}^{2}\right)$$



Let X be a random variable distributed as $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$:

$$Pr(a < X < b) = Pr\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma} < Z < \frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{b-\mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-\mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

where Φ is the distribution function of *Z*.



Let X be a random variable distributed as $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$:

$$\Pr(a < X < b) = \Pr\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma} < Z < \frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

where Φ is the distribution function of *Z*.

Unfortunately, there is not any closed form for Φ !



Let X be a random variable distributed as $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$:

$$\Pr(a < X < b) = \Pr\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma} < Z < \frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{b - \mu}{\sigma}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

where Φ is the distribution function of *Z*.

Unfortunately, there is not any closed form for Φ !

Tables are available!

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis

UNICAM Unical Unical Unical Unical Unical

Let X be distributed as N(3,5)...



$$Pr(X > 1) = 1 - Pr(X < 1) = 1 - Pr\left(Z < \frac{1 - 3}{\sqrt{5}}\right)$$





$$Pr(X > 1) = 1 - Pr(X < 1) = 1 - Pr\left(Z < \frac{1-3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = 1 - \Phi(-.8944)$$



$$Pr(X > 1) = 1 - Pr(X < 1) = 1 - Pr\left(Z < \frac{1 - 3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = 1 - \Phi(-.8944) = 0.81$$



Let X be distributed as N(3,5)...Compute Pr(X > 1).

$$\Pr(X > 1) = 1 - \Pr(X < 1) = 1 - \Pr\left(Z < \frac{1 - 3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = 1 - \Phi(-.8944) = 0.81$$

Find q such that Pr(X < q) = .2.



Let X be distributed as N(3,5)...Compute Pr(X > 1).

$$Pr(X > 1) = 1 - Pr(X < 1) = 1 - Pr\left(Z < \frac{1 - 3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = 1 - \Phi(-.8944) = 0.81$$

Find q such that Pr(X < q) = .2.

 $0.2 = \Pr(X < q)$



Let X be distributed as N(3,5)...Compute Pr(X > 1).

$$Pr(X > 1) = 1 - Pr(X < 1) = 1 - Pr\left(Z < \frac{1 - 3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = 1 - \Phi(-.8944) = 0.81$$

Find q such that Pr(X < q) = .2.

$$0.2 = \Pr(X < q) = \Pr\left(Z < \frac{q-3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{q-3}{\sqrt{5}}\right)$$



Let X be distributed as N(3,5)...Compute Pr(X > 1).

$$Pr(X > 1) = 1 - Pr(X < 1) = 1 - Pr\left(Z < \frac{1 - 3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = 1 - \Phi(-.8944) = 0.81$$

Find q such that Pr(X < q) = .2.

$$0.2 = \Pr(X < q) = \Pr\left(Z < \frac{q-3}{\sqrt{5}}\right) = \Phi\left(\frac{q-3}{\sqrt{5}}\right)$$

From the Normal table, $\Phi(-.8416) = .2$. Hence:

$$-.8416 = rac{q-3}{\sqrt{5}} \Rightarrow q = 1.1181$$

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



Markov's Inequiality: Let X be a non-negative random variable and suppose that E[X] exists. For any t > 0:

$$Pr(X > t) \leq \frac{E[X]}{t}$$

Markov's Inequiality: Let X be a non-negative random variable and suppose that E[X] exists. For any t > 0:

$$Pr(X > t) \leq \frac{E[X]}{t}$$

Chebyshev Inequiality: Let $\mu = E[X]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X]$. The,

$$Pr(|X-\mu|>t) \leq rac{\sigma^2}{t} \qquad Pr(|Z|\geq k) \leq rac{1}{k^2}$$
 where $Z=rac{X-\mu}{\sigma}.$









Unfortunately, often we don't know the exact probability distribution of a random variable X.



Unfortunately, often we don't know the exact probability distribution of a random variable X.

In this case we can try to reconstruct the properties of X by using a number of observation.



Unfortunately, often we don't know the exact probability distribution of a random variable X.

In this case we can try to reconstruct the properties of X by using a number of observation.

We can consider two approaches:



Unfortunately, often we don't know the exact probability distribution of a random variable X.

In this case we can try to reconstruct the properties of X by using a number of observation.

We can consider two approaches:

 Descriptive Statistics, that is used to say something about a set of information that has been collected only.



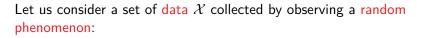
Unfortunately, often we don't know the exact probability distribution of a random variable X.

In this case we can try to reconstruct the properties of X by using a number of observation.

We can consider two approaches:

- Descriptive Statistics, that is used to say something about a set of information that has been collected only.
- Inferential Statistics, that is used to make prediction or comparisons about a larger group (a population) using information gathered about a small part of that population.

Independent and Identically Distributed Random Variables...



$$\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$$



Independent and Identically Distributed Random Variables...

Let us consider a set of data \mathcal{X} collected by observing a random phenomenon:

$$\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$$

We can say that $X = (X_1, ..., X_n)$ is a random vector and that $X_1, ..., X_n$ are Independent and Identically Distributed Random Variables with a Cumulative Distribution Function F.



Independent and Identically Distributed Random Variables...

Let us consider a set of data \mathcal{X} collected by observing a random phenomenon:

$$\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$$

We can say that $X = (X_1, ..., X_n)$ is a random vector and that $X_1, ..., X_n$ are Independent and Identically Distributed Random Variables with a Cumulative Distribution Function F.

We call (v_1, \ldots, v_n) a random sample from F.

Medians...



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.



The median of \mathcal{X} is the middle number of a set of numbers arranged in numerical order. If the number of values in a set is even, then the median is the sum of the two middle values, divided by 2.



The median of \mathcal{X} is the middle number of a set of numbers arranged in numerical order. If the number of values in a set is even, then the median is the sum of the two middle values, divided by 2.

Example:

 $1,\boldsymbol{3},\boldsymbol{3},\boldsymbol{6},\boldsymbol{7},\boldsymbol{8},\boldsymbol{9}$



The median of \mathcal{X} is the middle number of a set of numbers arranged in numerical order. If the number of values in a set is even, then the median is the sum of the two middle values, divided by 2.

Example:

 $1,3,3,{\color{red}{6}},7,8,9$



The median of \mathcal{X} is the middle number of a set of numbers arranged in numerical order. If the number of values in a set is even, then the median is the sum of the two middle values, divided by 2.

Example:

$$1, 3, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9 \Rightarrow$$
 Median = 6



The median of \mathcal{X} is the middle number of a set of numbers arranged in numerical order. If the number of values in a set is even, then the median is the sum of the two middle values, divided by 2.

Example:

$$1, 3, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9 \Rightarrow$$
 Median = 6

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9



The median of \mathcal{X} is the middle number of a set of numbers arranged in numerical order. If the number of values in a set is even, then the median is the sum of the two middle values, divided by 2.

Example:

$$1, 3, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9 \Rightarrow$$
 Median = 6

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9



The median of \mathcal{X} is the middle number of a set of numbers arranged in numerical order. If the number of values in a set is even, then the median is the sum of the two middle values, divided by 2.

Example:

$$1, 3, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \text{Median} = 6$$
$$1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \text{Median} = \frac{4+5}{2} = 4.5$$

Mode...



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.



The mode is the most frequent value in the set. A set can have more than one mode; if it has two, it is said to be bimodal, or in general multimodal.



The mode is the most frequent value in the set. A set can have more than one mode; if it has two, it is said to be bimodal, or in general multimodal.

Example:

1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8



The mode is the most frequent value in the set. A set can have more than one mode; if it has two, it is said to be bimodal, or in general multimodal.

Example:

$$1,1,2,3,5,8 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \text{mode is} = 1$$



The mode is the most frequent value in the set. A set can have more than one mode; if it has two, it is said to be bimodal, or in general multimodal.

Example:

$$1,1,2,3,5,8 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \text{mode is} = 1$$

1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 9, 21, 25, 25, 31

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



The mode is the most frequent value in the set. A set can have more than one mode; if it has two, it is said to be bimodal, or in general multimodal.

Example:

$$1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8 \Rightarrow mode is = 1$$

 $1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 9, 21, 25, 25, 31 \Rightarrow modes are = 9 and 25$

Mean...



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.

Mean...



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.

The mean is the sum of all the values in a set, divided by the number of values. The mean of a sample \mathcal{X} is usually denoted by $\overline{\mathcal{X}}$.



The mean is the sum of all the values in a set, divided by the number of values. The mean of a sample \mathcal{X} is usually denoted by $\overline{\mathcal{X}}$.

The mean is sensitive to any change in value, unlike the median and mode, where a change to an extreme or uncommon value usually has no effect.



The mean is the sum of all the values in a set, divided by the number of values. The mean of a sample \mathcal{X} is usually denoted by $\overline{\mathcal{X}}$.

The mean is sensitive to any change in value, unlike the median and mode, where a change to an extreme or uncommon value usually has no effect.

One disadvantage of the mean is that a small number of extreme values can distort its value:

1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 200



The mean is the sum of all the values in a set, divided by the number of values. The mean of a sample \mathcal{X} is usually denoted by $\overline{\mathcal{X}}$.

The mean is sensitive to any change in value, unlike the median and mode, where a change to an extreme or uncommon value usually has no effect.

One disadvantage of the mean is that a small number of extreme values can distort its value:

1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 200

The trimmed mean, where the smallest and largest quarters of the values are removed before the mean is taken, can solve this problem.

Prof. Michele Loreti

Variability



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.

Variability



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.

The range of ${\mathcal X}$ is the difference between the largest and smallest values of ${\mathcal X}.$

The range of a set is simple to calculate, but is not very useful because it depends on the extreme values, which may be distorted.

Variability



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.

The range of ${\mathcal X}$ is the difference between the largest and smallest values of ${\mathcal X}.$

The range of a set is simple to calculate, but is not very useful because it depends on the extreme values, which may be distorted.

Example:

1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 200



The Interquartile Range (IRQ) is computed as the range of the set with smallest and largest quarters removed.



The Interquartile Range (IRQ) is computed as the range of the set with smallest and largest quarters removed.

Algorithm:

- 1. Quartiles are calculated recursively, by using median;
- 2. If the number of entries is an even number 2n:
 - first quartile *Q*1 is defined as median of the *n* smallest entries;
 - the third quartile Q3 is the median of the n largest entries.
- 3. If the number of entries is an odd number 2n + 1:
 - first quartile *Q*1 is defined as median of the *n* smallest entries;
 - the third quartile Q3 is the median of the n largest entries;
 - the second quartile Q2 is the the same as the ordinary median.

Interquartile range Example...



i	x[i]	Median	Quartile
1	7	Q ₂ =87 (median of whole table)	Q ₁ =31 (median of upper half, from row 1 to 6)
2	7		
3	31		
4	31		
5	47		
6	75		
7	87		
8	115		$\ensuremath{\mathbb{Q}_3}\xspace=119$ (median of lower half, from row 8 to 13)
9	116		
10	119		
11	119		
12	155		
13	177		

Outliers...



The IQR is useful for determining outliers, or extreme values such as the element 200 in the following dataset:

1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 200

Outliers. . .



The IQR is useful for determining outliers, or extreme values such as the element 200 in the following dataset:

If Q1 and Q3 are the lower and the upper quartiles respectively, then one could define an outlier to be any observation outside the range:

$$[Q1 - k(Q3 - Q1), Q3 + k(Q3 - Q1)]$$

where k is a nonnegative constant.

Outliers. . .



The IQR is useful for determining outliers, or extreme values such as the element 200 in the following dataset:

If Q1 and Q3 are the lower and the upper quartiles respectively, then one could define an outlier to be any observation outside the range:

$$[Q1 - k(Q3 - Q1), Q3 + k(Q3 - Q1)]$$

where k is a nonnegative constant.

This method has been proposed by John Tukey and suggested k = 1.5 to indicate an outlier and k = 3 for far out.

Prof. Michele Loreti

Variance and standard deviation



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.

Variance and standard deviation



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a sequence of data.

The variance s^2 of \mathcal{X} is a measure of how items are dispersed about their mean. It can be calculated as:

$$s^2 = rac{\sum (v_i - \overline{\mathcal{X}})}{n-1}$$



The variance s^2 of \mathcal{X} is a measure of how items are dispersed about their mean. It can be calculated as:

$$s^2 = rac{\sum (v_i - \overline{\mathcal{X}})}{n-1}$$

The standard deviation s of \mathcal{X} is the square root of the variance.

The relative variability of ${\mathcal X}$ is the standard deviation of ${\mathcal X}$ divided by its mean.

Prof. Michele Loreti



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ be a set of data we are interested study how each v_i is positioned (or ranked) in \mathcal{X} .



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ be a set of data we are interested study how each v_i is positioned (or ranked) in \mathcal{X} .

A simple ranking is used when an element is ranked as its position in the order.



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a set of data we are interested study how each v_i is positioned (or ranked) in \mathcal{X} .

A simple ranking is used when an element is ranked as its position in the order.

The percentile ranking of a value v_i is the percent of values that are below it.



Let $\mathcal{X} = (v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a set of data we are interested study how each v_i is positioned (or ranked) in \mathcal{X} .

A simple ranking is used when an element is ranked as its position in the order.

The percentile ranking of a value v_i is the percent of values that are below it.

The z-score of a value v_i is the number of standard deviations it is from the mean:

$$z=\frac{v_i-\mathcal{X}}{s}$$



Let $\mathcal{X} = \{1.1, 2.34, 2.9, 3.14, 3.29, 3.57, 4.0\},$ we have that:

- \overline{X} = 2.91
- *s* = 0.88



Let $\mathcal{X} = \{1.1, 2.34, 2.9, 3.14, 3.29, 3.57, 4.0\}$, we have that:

■
$$\overline{X} = 2.91$$

■ *s* = 0.88

Let us consider value 3.57:

- Its simple ranking is 2 out of 7;
- Its percentile ranking is $\frac{5}{7} = 71,43\%$;
- Its z-score is $\frac{3.57-2.91}{0.88} = 0.75$.



The five-number summary is a set of descriptive statistics that provide information about a dataset.



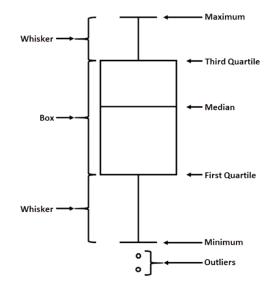
The five-number summary is a set of descriptive statistics that provide information about a dataset.

It consists of the five most important sample percentiles:

- the sample minimum (smallest observation);
- the lower quartile or first quartile;
- the median (the middle value);
- the upper quartile or third quartile;
- the sample maximum (largest observation).

Box plot...





Convergence of Random Variables...



Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be a sequence of random variables, and let X be another random variable. Let F_n denote the CDF of X_n and let F denote the CDF of X.

Convergence of Random Variables...



Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be a sequence of random variables, and let X be another random variable. Let F_n denote the CDF of X_n and let F denote the CDF of X.

 X_n converges to X in probability, written $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, if for every $\varepsilon > 0$,

 $Pr(|X_n - X| > 0) \rightarrow 0$

as $n \to \infty$.

Convergence of Random Variables...

Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be a sequence of random variables, and let X be another random variable. Let F_n denote the CDF of X_n and let F denote the CDF of X.

 X_n converges to X in probability, written $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, if for every $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\Pr(|X_n - X| > 0) \to 0$$

as $n \to \infty$.

 X_n converges to X in distribution, written $X_n \rightsquigarrow X$, if for every $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}F_n(t)=F(t)$$

at all t for which F is continuous.

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis





Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be an IID sample and let $\mu = E[X_1]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X_1]$ then:

$$\overline{X_n} \xrightarrow{P} \mu$$

where $\overline{X_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_n$ and $Var[\overline{X_n}] = \frac{\sigma^n}{n}$.



Let X_1 , X_2 ,... be an IID sample and let $\mu = E[X_1]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X_1]$ then:

where
$$\overline{X_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_n$$
 and $Var[\overline{X_n}] = \frac{\sigma^n}{n}$.

The Weak Law of Large Numbers guarantee that the distribution of $\overline{X_n}$ becomes more concentrated around μ as *n* gets large!



Let X_1 , X_2 ,... be an IID sample and let $\mu = E[X_1]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X_1]$ then:

where
$$\overline{X_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum X_n$$
 and $Var[\overline{X_n}] = \frac{\sigma^n}{n}$.

The Weak Law of Large Numbers guarantee that the distribution of $\overline{X_n}$ becomes more concentrated around μ as *n* gets large!

X_1 , X_2 ,... must be IID!

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



Consider flipping a coin for which the probability of *heads* is p. Let X_i denote the outcome of a single toss (0 or 1). Hence, $p = Pr(X_i = 1) = E[X_i].$



Consider flipping a coin for which the probability of *heads* is *p*. Let X_i denote the outcome of a single toss (0 or 1). Hence, $p = Pr(X_i = 1) = E[X_i].$

The fraction of heads after *n* tosses is $\overline{X_n}$. According to the WLLN $\overline{X_n}$ converges to *p* in probability.



Consider flipping a coin for which the probability of *heads* is *p*. Let X_i denote the outcome of a single toss (0 or 1). Hence, $p = Pr(X_i = 1) = E[X_i].$

The fraction of heads after *n* tosses is $\overline{X_n}$. According to the WLLN $\overline{X_n}$ converges to *p* in probability.

This does not mean that $\overline{X_n}$ will numerically equal p!



Consider flipping a coin for which the probability of *heads* is *p*. Let X_i denote the outcome of a single toss (0 or 1). Hence, $p = Pr(X_i = 1) = E[X_i].$

The fraction of heads after *n* tosses is $\overline{X_n}$. According to the WLLN $\overline{X_n}$ converges to *p* in probability.

This does not mean that $\overline{X_n}$ will numerically equal p!

We only know that when *n* is large, $\overline{X_n}$ is tightly concentrated around *p*.

Consider flipping a coin for which the probability of *heads* is *p*. Let X_i denote the outcome of a single toss (0 or 1). Hence, $p = Pr(X_i = 1) = E[X_i].$

The fraction of heads after *n* tosses is $\overline{X_n}$. According to the WLLN $\overline{X_n}$ converges to *p* in probability.

This does not mean that $\overline{X_n}$ will numerically equal p!

We only know that when *n* is large, $\overline{X_n}$ is tightly concentrated around *p*. Question: How large should be *n* so that

$$Pr(|\overline{X_n}-p|<0.1)\geq \overline{p}?$$

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



Answer: From Chebyshev's inequality we know that:

$${\it Pr}(|\overline{X}-p|>0.1)\leq rac{\sigma^2}{n\cdot (0.1)^2}$$

Prof. Michele Loreti

The Weak Law of Large Numbers... Example

Answer: From Chebyshev's inequality we know that:

$${\sf Pr}(|\overline{X}-p|>0.1)\leq rac{\sigma^2}{n\cdot (0.1)^2}$$

Hence:

$$Pr(|\overline{X_n}-p|\leq 0.1)=1-Pr(|\overline{X}-p|>0.1)\geq 1-rac{\sigma^2}{n\cdot(0.1)^2}$$





Prof. Michele Loreti

The Weak Law of Large Numbers...

Answer: From Chebyshev's inequality we know that:

$${\sf Pr}(|\overline{X}-{\sf p}|>0.1)\leq rac{\sigma^2}{n\cdot(0.1)^2}$$

Hence:

$$\mathsf{Pr}(|\overline{X_n}-p|\leq 0.1)=1-\mathsf{Pr}(|\overline{X}-p|>0.1)\geq 1-rac{\sigma^2}{n\cdot(0.1)^2}$$

Warning: In the general case σ^2 is unknown!





2

Prof. Michele Loreti

The Weak Law of Large Numbers... Example

Answer: From Chebyshev's inequality we know that:

$${\sf Pr}(|\overline{X}-{\sf p}|>0.1)\leq rac{\sigma^2}{n\cdot(0.1)^2}$$

Hence:

$$\mathsf{Pr}(|\overline{X_n}-\mathsf{p}|\leq 0.1)=1-\mathsf{Pr}(|\overline{X}-\mathsf{p}|>0.1)\geq 1-rac{\sigma^2}{n\cdot(0.1)^2}$$

Warning: In the general case σ^2 is unknown!

Solution: We can use s^2 !

2



Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be an IID sample and let $\mu = E[X_1]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X_1]$ then:

$$Z_n \equiv \frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - \mu)}{\sigma} \rightsquigarrow Z$$

where Z is distributed as N(0, 1).



Let X_1 , X_2 ,... be an IID sample and let $\mu = E[X_1]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X_1]$ then:

$$Z_n \equiv \frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - \mu)}{\sigma} \rightsquigarrow Z$$

where Z is distributed as N(0, 1).

Probability statements about X_n can be approximated using a Normal distribution. It's the probability statements that we are approximating, not the random variable itself.

After a reasonable number of observations we can estimate how good is the average value we have computed!



Let $X_1, X_2,...$ be an IID sample and let $\mu = E[X_1]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X_1]$ then following notations are all equivalent:

•
$$Z_n \approx N(0,1)$$

•
$$\overline{X_n} \approx N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$$

•
$$\overline{X_n} - \mu = N(0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$$

•
$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - \mu) = N(0, \sigma^2)$$

•
$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n}-\mu)}{\sigma} = N(0,1)$$

Prof. Michele Loreti



Let X_1 , X_2 ,... be an IID sample and let $\mu = E[X_1]$ and $\sigma^2 = Var[X_1]$ then following notations are all equivalent:

•
$$Z_n \approx N(0,1)$$

•
$$\overline{X_n} \approx N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$$

•
$$\overline{X_n} - \mu = N(0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$$

•
$$\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n} - \mu) = N(0, \sigma^2)$$

•
$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X_n}-\mu)}{\sigma} = N(0,1)$$

Remark: When μ and σ^2 are unknown we can use their estimations!

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis



To be continued...

Prof. Michele Loreti

Data Analysis

362 / 365