

# Principles of Biostatistics and Informatics

3rd Lecture: Descriptive Statistics

25<sup>th</sup> September 2014

Dániel VERES

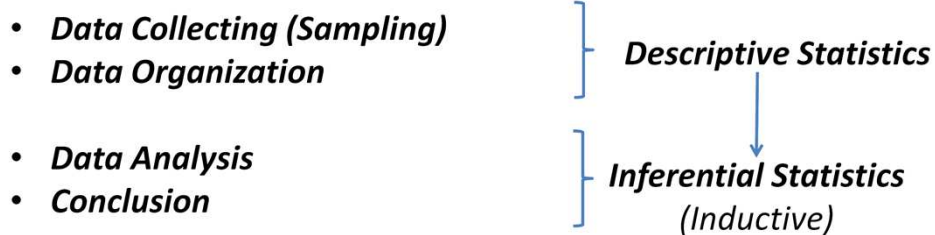
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In this course and in this lecture we are going to discuss the basic concepts of statistics. In the first part of the lecture I am going to give a definition on statistics. Thereafter we will classify the functions in statistics as descriptive and inferential statistics.

In the core of the lecture we will talk about descriptive statistics elements along the lines of Stevens's measurement scale. At first, we describe univariate and then multivariate samples. On the last few slides we will learn about percentile curves. On the last slide I am going to share some thoughts on data collection and data recording.

# Tastitsticsss? What's that?

**Statistics** describes **random mass** phenomena.



One definition of statistics: statistics describes *random mass* phenomena.

To describe the „random mass” – so (several) variables with several outcomes - we perform the next actions: *collecting data* (sampling with other words), *organizing data*, *analysing data* and *making conclusions*. The first two activities fall within the scope of *descriptive statistics* and the second two belong to the *inferential statistics* (called inductive statistics also). Although there is no sharp boundary between the two plots. I have to highlight that descriptive statistics – both data collection and organization – is always needed to create complete statistics and perfect conclusions.

# Tastitsticsss? What's that?

**Statistics** describes **random mass** phenomena.



- Data Collecting (Sampling)
- Data Organization
- Data Analysis
- Conclusion

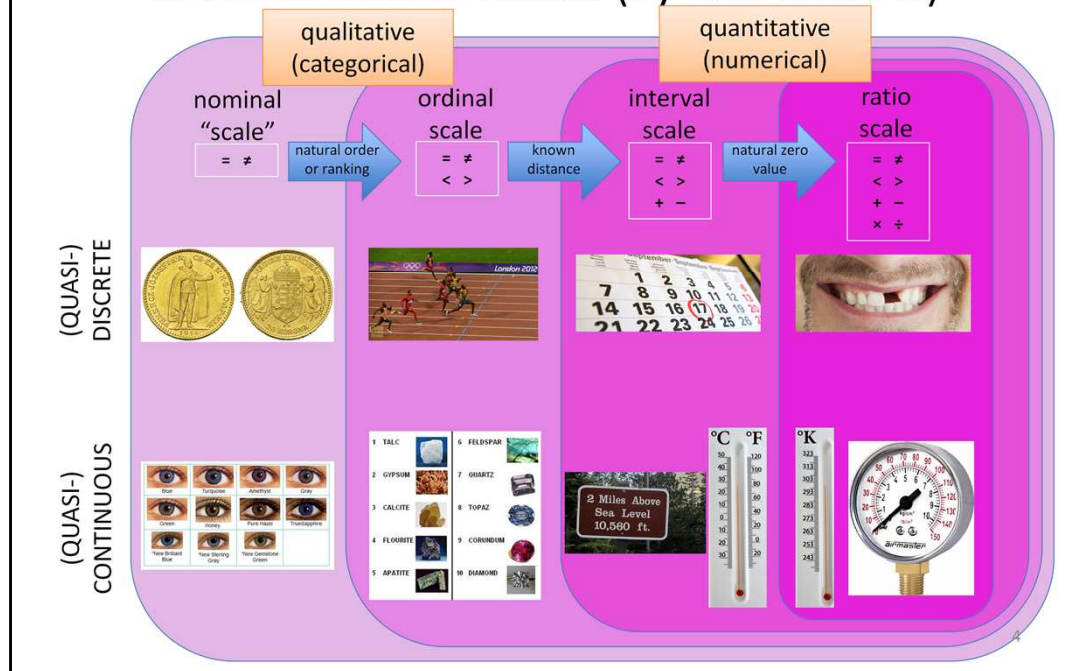
**Descriptive Statistics**

Inferential Statistics  
(Inductive)

Let's begin with the descriptive statistics. We will return later to the sampling but now we have to concentrate on data organization.

Data organization helps to describe, show or summarize our data in the sample *in a meaningful way* such as, for example, patterns might emerge from the data.

# Reminder I. - Statistical Variable Types (II): Levels of Measurement (by S. S. Stevens)



In this presentation you will find several figures from previous lectures to remind you what you have to already know...

For data organization *the level of the measuring scale* (the type) and the number of the examined variables *is crucial*.

# Description of Nominal Variables I.

## Numerical (analytical)

### List

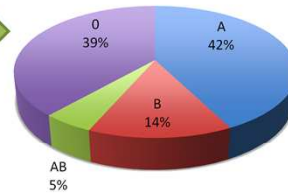
| patient № | blood group (ABO) | cholesterol level (mg/dL) |
|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 1         | B                 | 148                       |
| 2         | AB                | 147                       |
| 3         | B                 | 169                       |
| 4         | B                 | 159                       |
| 5         | B                 | 150                       |
| 6         | B                 | 167                       |
| 7         | A                 | 144                       |
| 8         | B                 | 158                       |
| 9         | A                 | 177                       |

### Frequency table

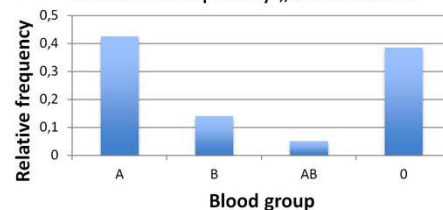
| blood group | (absolute) frequency | relative frequency |
|-------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| A           | 85                   | 0.425              |
| B           | 28                   | 0.14               |
| AB          | 10                   | 0.05               |
| O           | 77                   | 0.385              |
| Σ           | 200                  | 1                  |

## Graphical

### Relative frequency



### Relative frequency „distribution”



## Univariate organization – without losing information

Let's begin with how to organize a variable in a *nominal scale* using blood group type as an example.

In all statistical descriptions there are basically two options: *numerical* (called analytical also) where numbers are used to interpret the data and *graphical* where data are presented on charts.

After data collection we have a *list* that could be compacted to a *frequency table* or could be visualized on *frequency charts*. [As you learned in the first two lecture.]

In the case of nominal variables the shown organizations are *without losing information* that means we can recreate the original dataset on ABO blood group if we are interested only on blood type, not taking into account which blood type belongs to which patients – so we made univariate description.

For further analyses or comparisons, there are too much „information” – so we have to find a typical value – an indicator that could characterise our dataset.

## Description of Nominal Variables II.

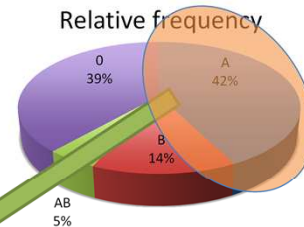
### Numerical

Frequency table

| blood group | (absolute) frequency | relative frequency |
|-------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| A           | 85                   | 0.425              |
| B           | 28                   | 0.14               |
| AB          | 10                   | 0.05               |
| O           | 77                   | 0.385              |
| $\Sigma$    | 200                  | 1                  |

### Graphical

*The brain and the common sense*



**Organization, but loss of information**

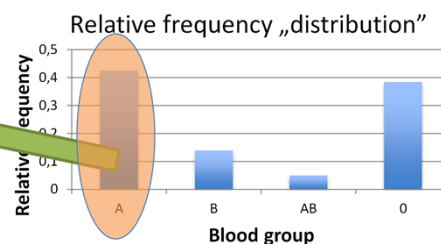
„Typical value” (*indicator*): **Mean?!**

**Mode:** most frequent element(s)

Notation: *Mod*,  $x_{mod}$

Other parameters:

**data count** ( $n$ ), **count of categories**



In the case of nominal scale this indicator could be only the *most frequent element*, the *mode*. (The mean has no meaning here...)

However, this solution has a disadvantage: only knowing the mode we can not restore the original data set – *we lose information*.

Never forget the power of a graphical interpretation: our human brain together with the common sense could easily find meaningful patterns behind the numbers! In the plots we could easily find the mode – that is A blood group type in the example. Another benefit of the graphical description that we could also easily see is the „goodness” of the mode in a certain case: in our example we realize that the frequency of A and O are very close.

There are other important parameters that are essential to the description: the *data count* (count of the data) and the *count of the categories*.

# Description of Ordinal Variables I.

## Numerical

### Frequency table

| Severity of pain | Relative frequency | Cumulative relative frequency |
|------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|
| no pain          | 0,06               | 0,06                          |
| noticed          | 0,08               | 0,14                          |
| mild             | 0,12               | 0,26                          |
| moderate         | 0,225              | 0,485                         |
| severe           | 0,175              | 0,66                          |
| very severe      | 0,28               | 0,94                          |
| extreme          | 0,06               | 1                             |
| $\Sigma$         | 1                  |                               |

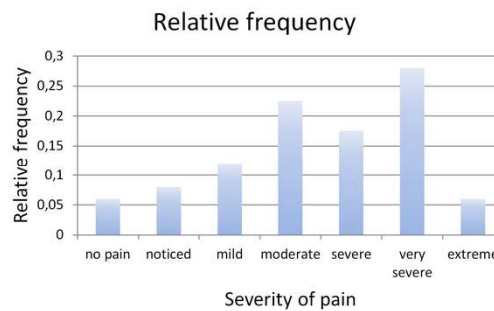
Indicator:

Mode

Other parameters:

***data count (n), count of categories***

## Graphical



On ordinal scale – for example a severity of pain scale - we can use the same descriptive solutions as in the case of nominal variables: we can use frequency tables, frequency distribution plots and the mode.

But could we give a new indicator that use the advantage of sorting opportunity?

Reminder: in this case there is a meaning to calculate cumulative frequencies. In the pain scale the cumulation shows the (relative) frequency of a given maximal pain.

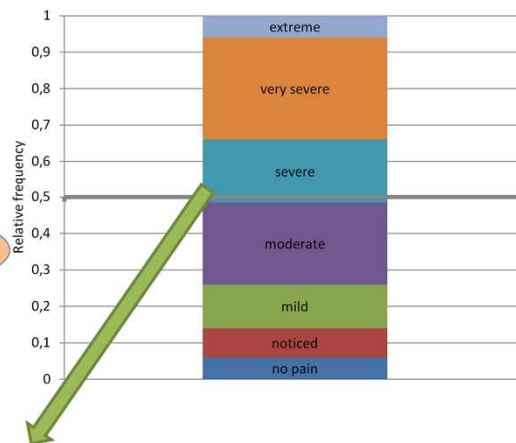
## Description of Ordinal Variables II.

### Numerical

Frequency table

| Severity of pain | Cumulative relative frequency |
|------------------|-------------------------------|
| no pain          | 0,06                          |
| noticed          | 0,14                          |
| mild             | 0,26                          |
| moderate         | 0,485                         |
| severe           | 0,66                          |
| very severe      | 0,94                          |
| extreme          | 1                             |
| $\Sigma$         |                               |

### Graphical



New indicator:

**Median:** „middle” element(s)

Notation: Me, Med,  $x_{med}$

Based on the ordering ability there is a new indicator that is the *median: the „middle” element(s)*, or „middle” point(s) in a sorted dataset. It means that in the sorted dataset 50% of the elements is below of this value and the 50% is over it. In this example the median value is *severe*.

Why I used plural between quotation marks? Could we use the quarter point like middle point? - Later we returns to it...



# Description of Quantitative Variables I.

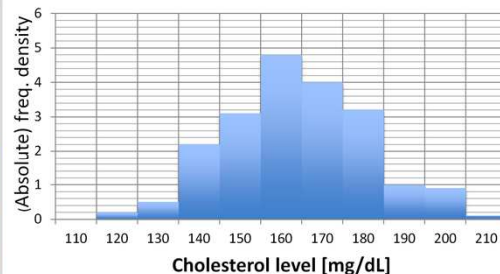
## Numerical (analytical)

## Graphical

### Frequency tables

| frequency distributions (differential discrimination functions) |                                  |                    |                              |                            |
|---|----------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| bins (classes, intervals)                                       | (absolute) frequency (FREQUENCY) | relative frequency | (absolute) frequency density | relative frequency density |
| $x \leq 100$  | 0                                |                    |                              |                            |
| $100 < x \leq 110$  | 0                                | 0                  | 0                            | 0                          |
| $110 < x \leq 120$  | 2                                | 0,01               | 0,2                          | 0,001                      |
| $120 < x \leq 130$  | 5                                | 0,025              | 0,5                          | 0,0025                     |
| $130 < x \leq 140$  | 22                               | 0,11               | 2,2                          | 0,011                      |
| $140 < x \leq 150$  | 31                               | 0,155              | 3,1                          | 0,0155                     |
| $150 < x \leq 160$  | 48                               | 0,24               | 4,8                          | 0,024                      |

(absolute)freq.density distribution



### Organizing data – with **loss of information**

Determination of bin width:

- technical and aesthetic concerns
- statistical concerns

In the next slides we discuss on quantitative (numerical) variables.

Reminder 1. In the case of quantitative variables to create frequency tables or frequency distribution of the sample we have to *define arbitrary categories* called intervals, bins or classes.

Organizing data in this way *resulted loss of information*.

*How to determine bin width?* It is based on *technical and aesthetic concerns together with statistical concerns*.

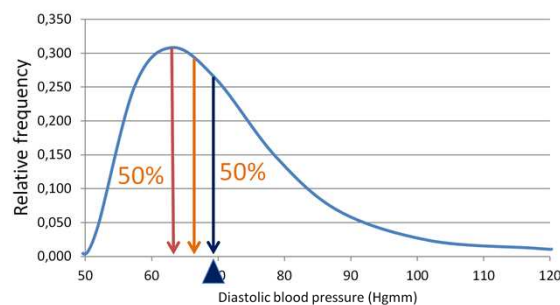
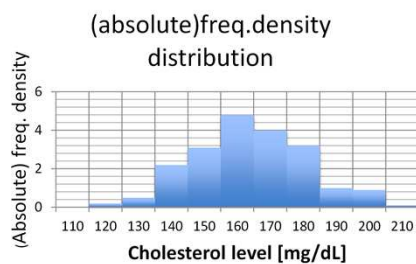
The statistical determination of the bin width uses often the next formula: bin width = (maximum-minimum)/(square root of data count).

The meaning of the technical and aesthetic concerns are more complicated. For example it has no meaning to use smaller bin width than the smallest measurable difference or use non integer bin width if our measurand is integer. We like to see series like integers or 0,5,10,15 or 10,20,30...

Summarizing the best way to determine the bin width is first use statistical concerns then round it up based on technical and aesthetic aspects.

Reminder 2. In the case of quantitative variables the difference between the outcomes can be interpreted also and density functions can be created.

## Description of Quantitative Variables II.



„Typical values” – **central tendencies** (special **measures of location**):

- **Mode**: most frequent element(s) ?
- **Median**: „middle” element(s?)
- **Mean** (arithmetic mean): „gravity center” , sensitive to „outliers”?

Notation:  $x_{mean}$ ,  $\bar{x}$

Advantage: compact, **could be determined from few data**

Formulas: in the formula collection...

To describe a quantitative variable we have the same and several new opportunities as before. To „feel the meaning” of the indicators imagine that I could create a frequency distribution with infinitely small bin width. (The measured variable is the diastolic blood pressure of 4 years old boys.)

One kind of „typical values” (indicators) that are very useful called central tendencies that try to describe the center of the distribution. These parameters are special measures of location.

*The mode as the most frequent element* in the dataset belongs to the highest frequency – the peak – in the graph.

*The median divide the area under the curve to two same area* – 50% of the boys has smaller and 50% of them has higher blood pressure.

*The mean is the center of gravity* – so if I crop this curve from a paper I could balance this (like a teeter) in the point of the mean value.

The relative position of central tendencies are visible in the graph: in a non symmetric distribution the median and a mean shifts to the tail respectively.

The advantage of the central tendencies against frequency distributions that these parameters could be determined from few data too.

I will return to the question (?) marks later.

## Digress I.

### *Average $\neq$ Mean*

In statistics the average could mean:

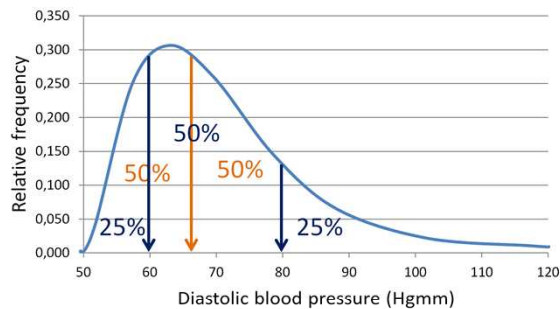
mode,

median,

means – arithmetic, geometric, harmonic... mean

Remark 1. In statistics average has different meaning than mean. The average could mean mode, median, means – arithmetic, geometric, harmonic... mean. Use the term *mean* in statistics not the *average*!

# Quantiles I.



Other measures of location:

- **Median:** 50-50% ( $Q_2$ )
- **Quartile:** lower quartile ( $Q_1$ ): 25-75%; upper quartile ( $Q_3$ ): 75-25%

General

***p*-quantile(s):** is the number to which the count of data are smaller is maximum  $n \cdot p$  and to which the count of data are larger is maximum  $n \cdot (1 - p)$ ,

where  $p$  is between 0 and 1, and  $n$  is the count of data

Now we define other measures of location. Like the median as a midpoint we can determine „quadrant points“ that divide the area in 25-75% proportion. This point (value) called *quartile* (from latin quartus that means  $\frac{1}{4}$ ), more precisely *lower or upper quartile*.

We could generalize it and give a general dividing point (value) called quantile. *p*-*quantile(s)*: is the number to which the count of data are smaller is maximum  $n \cdot p$  and to which the count of data are larger is maximum  $n \cdot (1 - p)$ , where  $p$  is between 0 and 1, and  $n$  is the count of data.

Using this general definition we could say that the median is the 0.5-quantile. The lower quartile is the 0.25-quantile, because  $\frac{1}{4} = 0.25$ . It is called first quartile ( $Q_1$ ) also because 1 is divided by four. The upper quartile is the 0.75-quantile, or third quartile, because  $\frac{3}{4}$  of all data is smaller than its value. With the same terminology we could call the median to second quartile ( $2/4$ ).

## Digress II.

| Day | Waiting time (min) |                |      | Day | Waiting time (min) |                |      |
|-----|--------------------|----------------|------|-----|--------------------|----------------|------|
| 1   | 1,27               | median         | 8,48 | 1   | 1,27               | median         | 8,48 |
| 2   | 3,3                | lower quartile | 3,59 | 2   | 3,3                | lower quartile | 3,59 |
| 3   | 3,44               | mean           | 7,72 | 3   | 3,44               | mean           | 8,31 |
| 4   | 3,64               |                |      | 4   | 3,64               |                |      |
| 5   | 6,33               |                |      | 5   | 6,33               |                |      |
| 6   | 7,72               |                |      | 6   | 7,72               |                |      |
| 7   | 9,23               |                |      | 7   | 9,23               |                |      |
| 8   | 9,87               |                |      | 8   | 9,87               |                |      |
| 9   | 10,31              |                |      | 9   | 10,31              |                |      |
| 10  | 12,29              |                |      | 10  | 12,29              |                |      |
| 11  | 12,3               |                |      | 11  | 12,3               |                |      |
| 12  | 12,98              |                |      | 12  | 20                 |                |      |

Median, quantiles could differ in theory and practice.  
Mean is sensitive to the outliers, but quantiles not (...).  
Mode?

Remark 2. In this slide I try to explain some of the points that mentioned before with ?, (s), "" marks.

Our example dataset is the waiting time in the public transport. In the slide I show you the sorted dataset.

At first about why I used plural for medians, quartiles and quantiles. For the median: 50% ( $p=0.5$ ) of 12 is 6. It means 6 data is below the median and 6 is over the median. Based on the definition (theory) the median is the value between 7.72 and 9.23 – so all the numbers between! We have the same situation for the quartiles and any kind of quantiles. In practice excel calculate only one number using inverse proportions between the two numbers „in the border“. For example in our dataset the lower quartile (25-75% smaller and larger) is theoretically between 3.44 and 3.65. The difference of this two numbers (the range between them) is 0.2. In practice the quartile value will be  $3.44 + (0.75 * 0.2) = 3.59$ .

Secondly, observe what will happen with the median and the mean if we have an „outlier“ – a value that is far from the others (we define it later). In our example I changed the highest value, the 12.98, to 20. We could realize that there is no change in the median while the mean changed greatly. In statistics we say that the mean is sensitive and the median is not sensitive to outliers.

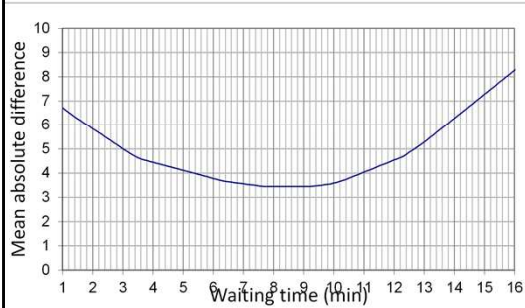
Finally: what about the mode? Is there any, or all of them in our dataset? In the case of a continuous variable it is hard and meaningless to define a mode in the sample. (We may give a range if it is necessary.)

## Digress III.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum |x_i - x^*|$$

Minimal if:

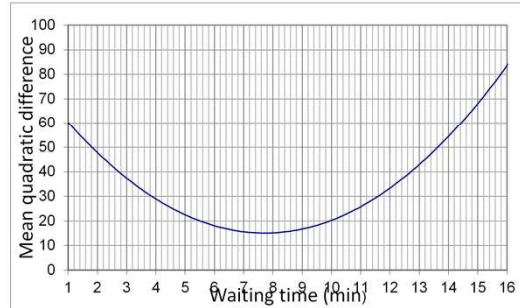
$$x^* = \text{Median}$$



$$\frac{1}{n} \sum (x_i - x^*)^2$$

Minimal if:

$$x^* = \text{Mean}$$

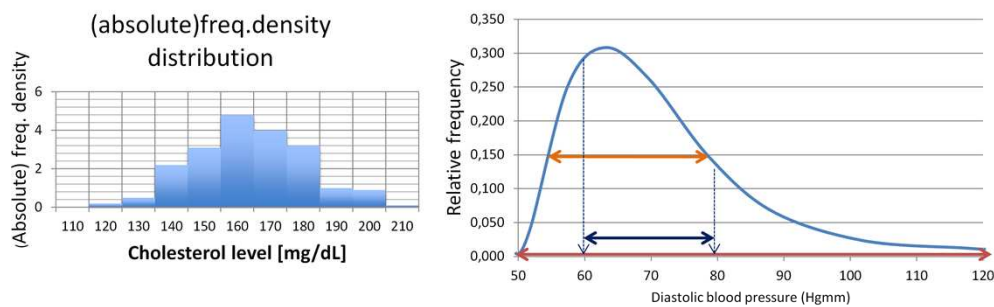


Remark 3. A little math.

1. The mean of absolute differences from a certain value is minimal for the median.  
(medians)

The mean of quadratic differences from a certain value is minimal for the mean.

## Description of Quantitative Variables III.



### Measures of spread:

- **Range**: the difference between the maximum and the minimum
- **Variance ( $s^2$ )**: the average of the squared distance from the mean (corrected - sample, uncorrected - population)
- **Standard deviation ( $s$ ,  $sd$ ,  $SD$ )**: the square root of the variance  
the width of the curve
- **Interquartile range (IQR)**: the difference between the upper and the lower quartile – not sensitive to the „outliers“

An other kind of indicators are that try to describe the width of the distribution – so the variations within the dataset. These parameters called measures of spread.

One of them is the *range*: the difference between the maximal and minimal values.

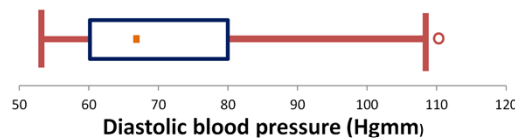
The *variance* is the average of the squared difference from the mean. We use the (Bessel) corrected variance if we describe the sample and without correction if we describe our population. The formulas for them are available in the formula collection. The *standard deviation* is the square root of the variance.

The *interquartile range* is the difference between the upper and lower quartiles.

The variance and the standard deviation is sensitive for outliers while the interquartile range is not.

## Description of Quantitative Variables IV.

Graphical: Box plot



**Middle point:** mean, or *median*

**Box:** 2\*standard deviation, or *interquartile range*, p-quantile range

**Whisker:** 3\*SD, minimum and maximum, 0.05 and 0.95 quantiles, p-quantiles,  $1.5*IQR$ ...

out of whiskers: **outliers**

Trimmed mean: mean calculated without outliers

There is a very effective graphical representation of a quantitative variables using the mentioned indicators. That is the *Box plot*, also called *Whisker plot*.

It consists of a *middle point* that is the mean or the median. (Now I represented the median.) We use mean if we have a symmetrical distribution and median if it is not symmetrical or it contains outliers.

It has a *box* that could represent the standard deviation, standard error or the interquartile range. We use standard deviation or standard error (if we have few data) if we use the mean as a middle point. We use the interquartile range if we have the median as middle (as in the example).

And it has *whiskers*. If the dataset doesn't contains values that are „very different” we use the minimum and maximum for whiskers. Otherwise we use the multiple times of the SD (usually 2 times) or IQR (1.5 times typically, as in our example) for the mean or median respectively. The  $1.5*IQR$  is commonly called non outlier range.

The outliers are the values that are out of the outlier range.

As you see there is a lot of possibility how we can construct our box plot, I only gave a recommendation that you have to know.

It is important to show what we use in the certain case.

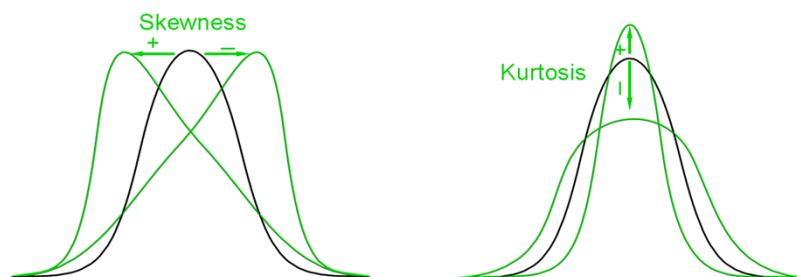
There is an other variant of mean called trimmed mean that is the mean calculated without outliers.



# Description of Quantitative Variables V.

Other parameters:

- **moment:**  
the k-th moment:  $\Sigma(x_i)^k / n$
- **central moment:**  
the k-th central moment:  $\Sigma(x_i - \mu)^k / n$
- **skewness,**
- **kurtosis** } *measures of shape*



There are other parameters that you have to know how to calculate: *moments* and *central moments*.

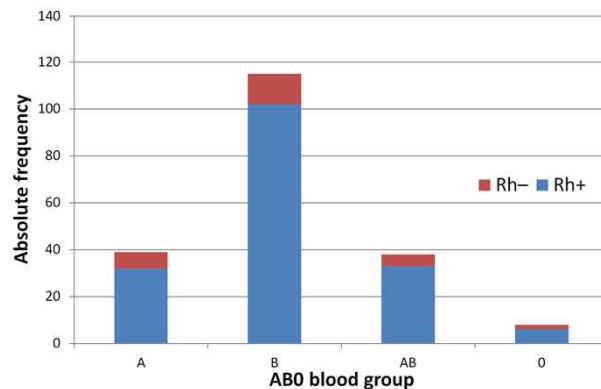
The third main indicator group of describing a quantitative variables is the measures of shape. These indicators describe the „position of the bulk of the values“. The *skewness* shows the horizontal shift from a symmetrical distribution, while *kurtosis* gives the peakedness of the distribution.

# Qualitative Bivariate Description

Numerical: **contingency** table

|          | A  | B   | AB | O | $\Sigma$ |
|----------|----|-----|----|---|----------|
| Rh+      | 32 | 102 | 33 | 6 | 173      |
| Rh-      | 7  | 13  | 5  | 2 | 27       |
| $\Sigma$ | 39 | 115 | 38 | 8 | 200      |

Graphical: **stacked bar chart**

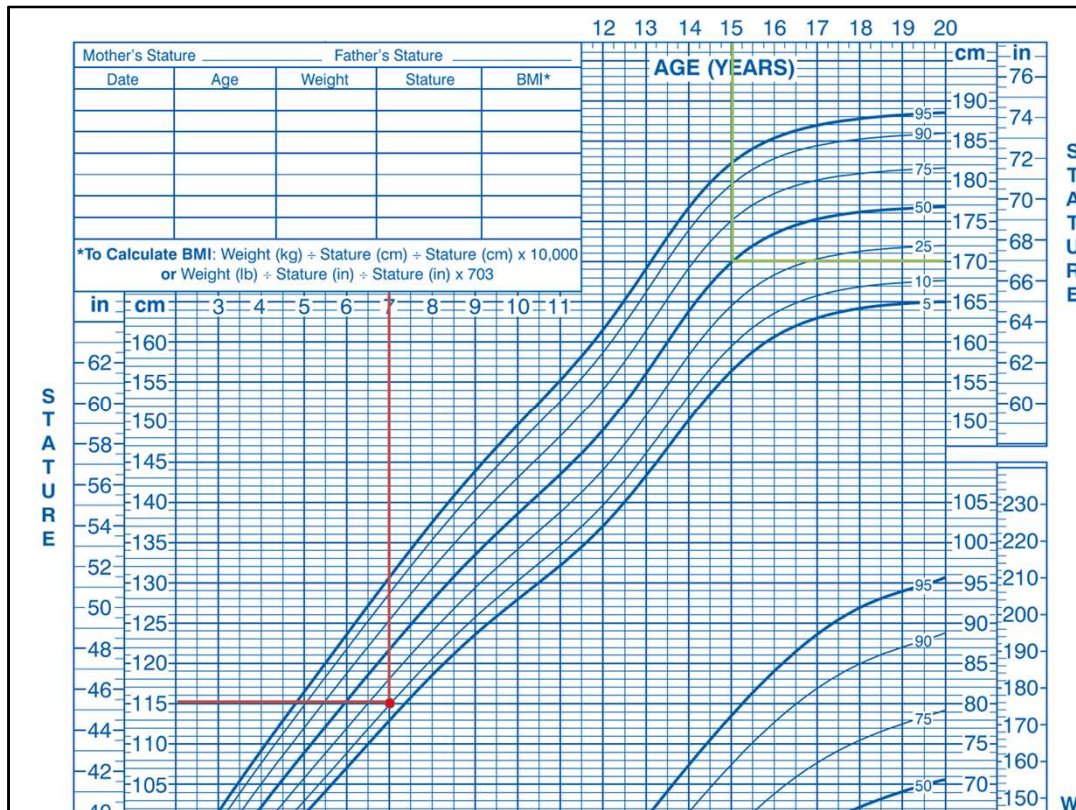


Describing more than one variable together is more difficult.

Now I give only some example for them. To organize two qualitative variables we usually use *contingency tables* – that is a 2 way frequency table. For graphical representation we can use *stacked bar charts*. Here the power of graphs for our mind is very obvious.

Percentile: quantile expressed as percentage

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How to use this curves? What is the meaning of them? What is the meaning of the red point?

In our example the red point – that is in the 10th percentile curve – means that 10% of the 7 years old boys are less than 115 cm.

# Data Collection Thoughts

Data collection is motivated by a goal and not by a variable.  
Use the highest Stevens' measurement level as possible.

Record data

- use a form that is easy to organize and convert - *excel*
- *variables in separated cells*
- *Coding have to be clear* (type of variable, categories)

I would like to highlight some ideas in data collection and data recording that are very important, but sometimes are forgotten.

Data collection is motivated by a goal and not by a variable.  
Use the highest Stevens' measurement level as possible.

Record data

- use a form that is easy to organize and convert - excel
- separate the variables in different cells
- coding have to be clear (e.g. a nominal variable won't be numerical if you coded with 0 and 1)

# Test Questions #1

- Give the four actions of statistics.
- Give the two part of descriptive statistics.
- Give the two part of inferential statistics.
- What are the two way as we could describe a variable?
- What are the indicators that we can use to describe a nominal variable?
- What are the indicators that we can use to describe an ordinal variable?
- What are the indicators that we can use to describe a numerical variable?
- Define the mode(s) of a dataset.
- What is the notation of mode?
- Define the median(s) of a dataset.
- What is the notation of median?
- In which type of measurement scale do we lose information usually?
- How we can determine the bin width?
- What is the equation we have to use to determine the bin width?
- What are the central tendencies in case of a numerical variable?
- What is the „meaning“ of the mode in a diagram?
- What is the „meaning“ of the median in a diagram?
- What is the „meaning“ of the mean in a diagram?
- Define the mean of a dataset.
- What is the notation of mean?
- Which central tendency sensitive to outliers?
- What is the advantage of indicators versus distribution functions?
- What is the difference between average and mean?
- What are the measures of location?
- Define the p-quantile.
- Define the lower quartile.
- What is the difference between the second quartile and the median?
- Show how we could calculate the lower quartile of a dataset in theory and in practice.
- What is the value that for the sum of the absolute differences are minimal?
- What is the value that for the sum of the squared differences are minimal?
- What are the measures of spread?
- What are the measures of shape?
- Define the variance.
- Define the standard deviation.
- Define the skewness.
- Define the kurtosis.
- Define the interquartile range.
- What is the notation of interquartile range?

The following questions may be answered using lecture material, consultation with practice teacher, or your own investigation (on the library or the internet). These test questions are examples for multiple choice items that may occur in the midterm and exam tests.

## Test Questions #2

- What is a box plot?
- What are the parts of a box plot?
- What we could use as a middle point of a box plot?
- What we could use as a box of a box plot?
- What we could use as a whisker of a box plot?
- What is recommended middle point in a box plot if we have a non symmetrical distribution with outliers?
- What is recommended box boundary in a box plot if we have a non symmetrical distribution with outliers?
- What is recommended box boundary in a box plot if we used a median as a middle point?
- What is the trimmed mean?
- How we define the outlier range commonly?
- What are the moments?
- What are the central moments?
- What is the first central moment?
- What is the first moment?
- What is the second central moment?
- What are the percentiles?
- What we could read out from a percentile curve?