

UiO: Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences University of Oslo

Department of Informatics
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INF 5060/9060

Quantitative Performance Analysis



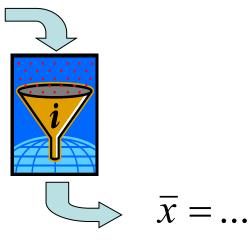
Özgü Alay Carsten Griwodz



Why do we need statistics?

1. Noise, noise, noise, noise!

445 446 397 226 388 3445 188 1002 47762 432 54 12 98 345 2245 8839 77492 472 565 999 1 34 882 545 4022 827 572 597 364



2. Aggregate data into meaningful information.

"Impossible things usually don't happen."

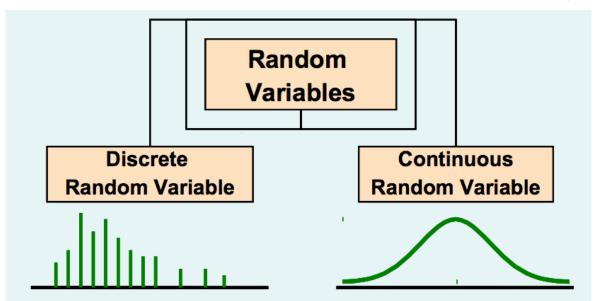
- Sam Treiman, Princeton University

Statistics helps us quantify "usually."



Basic Probability and Statistics Concepts

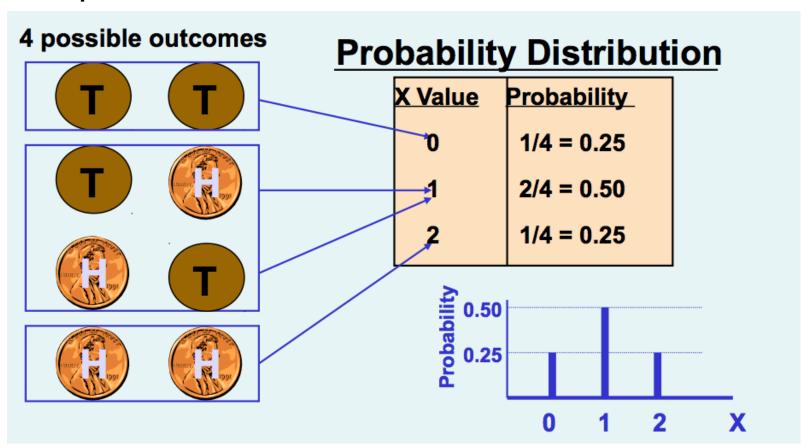
- Independent Events:
 - One event does not affect the other
 - Knowing probability of one event does not change estimate of another
- Random Variable:
 - A variable is called a random variable if it takes one of a specified set of values with a specified probability





Example of a Discrete Random Variable Probability Distribution

Experiment: Toss 2 Coins. Let X = # heads

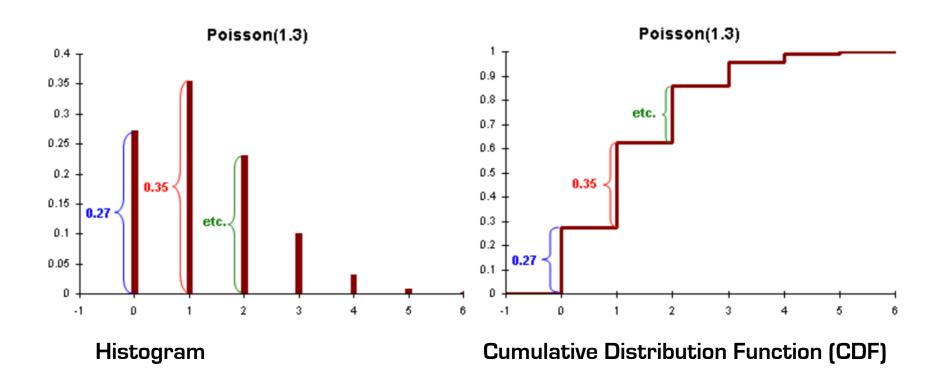




Histogram and Cumulative Distribition

Histogram: $f(x_i) = p_i$

Cumulative Distribution Function: $F_x(a) = P(x \le a)$



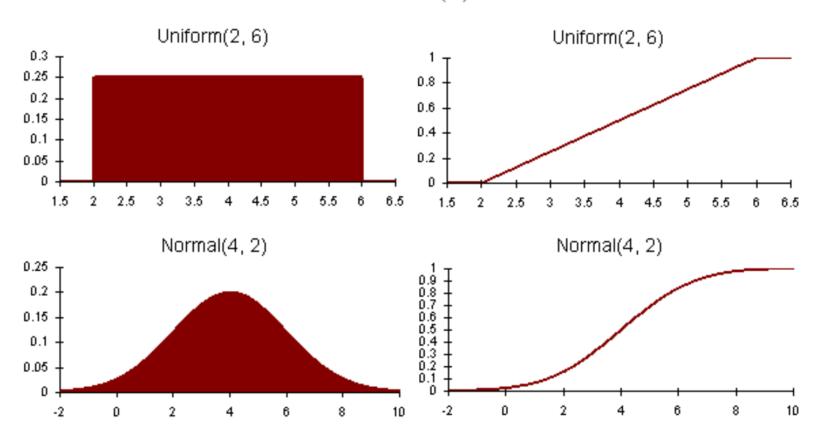


Continuous Random Variable Probability Density Function

The probability density function, pdf, as f(x).

$$F_x(a) = P(x \le a)$$

The cumulative distribution function, cdf, as F(x).





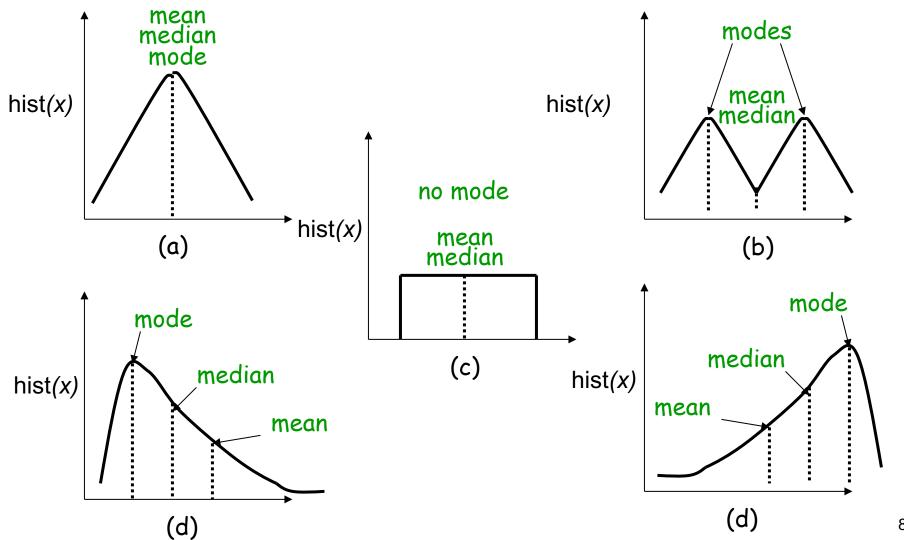
Indices of central tendency

Summarizing Data by a Single Number

- Mean sum all observations, divide by number
- Median sort in increasing order, take middle
- Mode plot histogram and take largest bucket
- Mean can be affected by outliers, while median or mode ignore lots of info
- Mean has additive properties (mean of a sum is the sum of the means), but not median or mode



Relationship Between Mean, Median, Mode

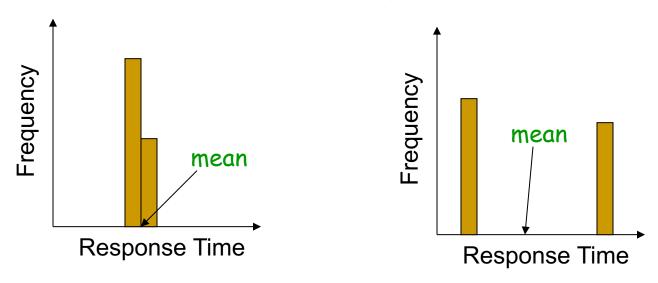




Summarizing Variability

"Then there is the man who drowned crossing a stream with an average depth of six inches." – W.I.E. Gates

- Summarizing by a single number is rarely enough
- → need statement about *variability*



If two systems have same mean, tend to prefer one with less variability



Indices of Dispersion

- Range min and max values observed
- Variance or standard deviation or CoV
 - Variance: Square of the distance between a set of values x_i with relative frequency p_i and the mean μ

•
$$\sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i (x_i - \mu)^2$$

– or, if you have exactly n samples $x_1 \dots x_n$

•
$$\sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$

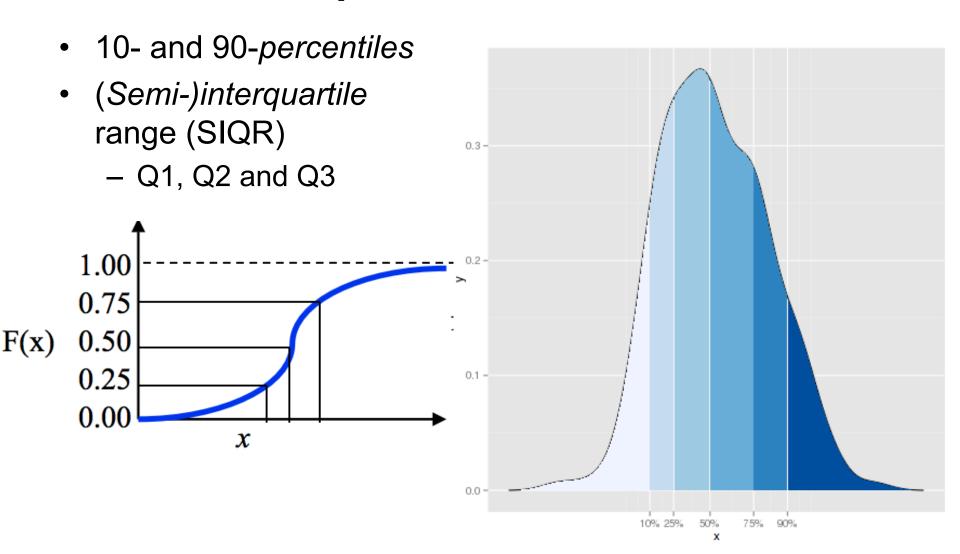
- Standard deviation, σ , is square root of variance
- Coefficient of Variation (C.O.V.): Ratio of standard deviation to mean: = σ / μ

Percentiles

– The x value at which the *cdf* takes a value α is called the α-percentile and denoted x_{α} , so $F(x_{\alpha}) = \alpha$



Indices of Dispersion





Determining Distribution of Data

- Additional summary information could be the distribution of the data
 - Ex: Disk I/O mean 13, variance 48. Ok. Perhaps more useful to say data is *uniformly distributed* between 1 and 25.
 - Plus, distribution useful for later simulation or analytic modeling
- How do determine distribution?
 - Plot histogram

For more formal testing: statistical comparison of

CDF (Komolgorov-Smirnov test) or PDF (Chi-square test)

The Art of Computer Systems Performance Analysis, pp. 460-465



Comparing Systems Using Sample Data

"Statistics are like alienists – they will testify for either side." – Fiorello La Guardia

- The word "sample" comes from the same root word as "example"
- Similarly, one sample does not prove a theory, but rather is an example
- Basically, a definite statement cannot be made about characteristics of all systems
- Instead, make probabilistic statement about range of most systems
 - Confidence intervals



Sample versus Population

- Say we generate 1-million random numbers
 - mean μ and stddev σ .
 - μ is population mean
- Put them in an urn draw sample of n
 - Sample $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$ has mean \bar{x} , stddev s
- \bar{x} is likely different than μ !
 - With many samples, $\overline{x_1} \neq \overline{x_2} \neq \cdots$
- Typically, μ is not known and may be impossible to know
 - Instead, get estimate of μ from $\overline{x_1}$, $\overline{x_2}$, ...



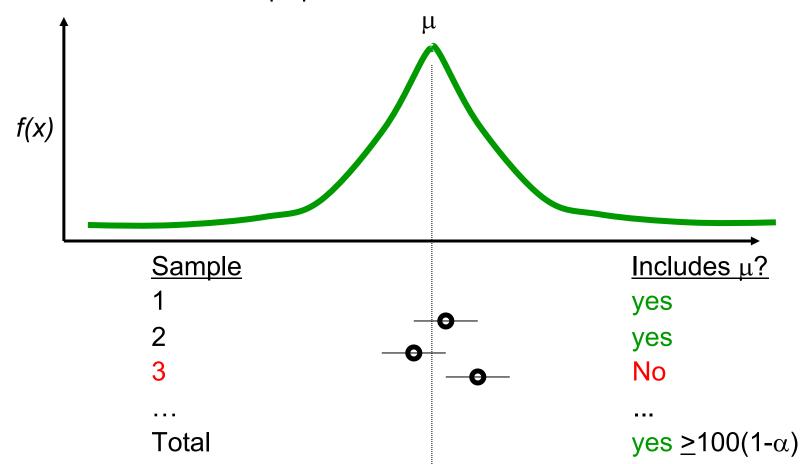
Confidence Interval for the Mean

- Obtain probability of μ in interval $\left[c_{1,}c_{2}\right]$
 - $Prob(c_1 \le \mu \le c_2) = 1 \alpha$
 - $[c_1, c_2]$ is the confidence interval
 - α is the *significance level*
 - $100(1-\alpha)$ is the confidence level
- Typically want α small so confidence level 90%, 95% or 99% (more later)
- Use 5-percentile and 95-percentile of the sample means to get 90% confidence interval



Meaning of Confidence Interval

 For a 90% confidence level, if we take 100 samples and construct the confidence interval for each sample, the interval would include the population mean in 90 cases.





What if *n* not large?

- Above only applies for large samples, 30+
- For smaller n, can only construct confidence intervals if observations come from normally distributed population: t-variate

$$-\left[\bar{x}-t_{\left[\frac{1-lpha}{2};n-1\right]}\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}};\bar{x}+t_{\left[\frac{1-lpha}{2};n-1\right]}\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right]$$

 \bar{x} : sampled mean

s: sampled standard deviation

n: number of samples

 $t_{\left[\frac{1-\alpha}{2};n-1\right]}$: tabulated value of the t distribution

Table A.4 of Jain's book



What Confidence Level to Use?

- Often see 90% or 95% (or even 99%), but...
- Example:
 - Lottery ticket \$1, pays \$5 million
 - Chance of winning is 10⁻⁷ (1 in 10 million)
 - To win with 90% confidence, need 9 million tickets
 - No one would buy that many tickets!
 - So, most people happy with 0.01% confidence