



LUND UNIVERSITY

Why distinguish between statistics and mathematical statistics - the case of Swedish academia

Lindgren, Georg; Guttorp, Peter

2016

Document Version:
Other version

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Lindgren, G., & Guttorp, P. (2016). *Why distinguish between statistics and mathematical statistics - the case of Swedish academia*. (Preprints in Mathematical Sciences; Vol. 2016:4, No. LUTFMS-5095-2016). Mathematical Statistics, Centre for Mathematical Sciences, Lund University.

Total number of authors:
2

General rights

Unless other specific re-use rights are stated the following general rights apply:

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

Read more about Creative commons licenses: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

LUND UNIVERSITY

PO Box 117
221 00 Lund
+46 46-222 00 00

Why distinguish between statistics and mathematical statistics

—

the case of Swedish academia

Peter Guttorp¹ and Georg Lindgren²

¹Department of Statistics, University of Washington, Seattle

²Mathematical Statistics, Lund University, Lund

2016/08/15

Abstract

A separation between the academic subjects statistics and mathematical statistics has existed in Sweden almost as long as there have been statistics professors. The same distinction has not been maintained in other countries. Why is it kept in Sweden?

In May 2015 it has been 100 years since *Mathematical Statistics* was formally established as an academic discipline at a Swedish university where *Statistics* had existed since the turn of the century.

We give an account of the debate in Lund and elsewhere about this division during the first decades after 1900 and present two of its leading personalities. The Lund University astronomer (and mathematical statistician) C.V.L. Charlier was a leading proponent for a position in mathematical statistics at the university. Charlier's adversary in the debate was Pontus Fahlbeck, professor in political science and statistics, who reserved the word statistics for "statistics as a social science". Charlier not only secured the first academic position in Sweden in mathematical statistics for his former Ph.D. student Sven Wicksell, but he also demonstrated that a mathematical statistician can be influential in matters of state, finance, as well as in different natural sciences. Fahlbeck saw mathematical statistics as a set of tools that sometimes could be useful in his brand of statistics.

After a summary of the organisational growth of the statistical sciences in Sweden that has taken place during the last 50 years, we discuss what effects the Charlier-Fahlbeck divergence might have had on this development.

Statistics is a science in my opinion, and is no more a branch of mathematics than are physics, chemistry and economics; for if its methods fail the test of experience – not the test of logic – they are discarded; (Tukey, 1953)

Statistics may have a more important role to play in technology than in science; it may itself best be considered as a technology rather than as a science; (Healey, 1978).

The naming of cats is a difficult matter, It isn't just one of your holiday games; (Eliot, 1939)

1 Introduction

By the end of the 19th century, the subject of statistics was starting to gain acceptance as an academic endeavour. In England, the polymath Karl Pearson (Pearson, 1895) was developing general approaches to fit probabilistic models to data; in Germany the economist Ladislaus von Bortkiewicz (Bortkiewicz, 1917, p. 177) was arguing that fitting models to data was not sufficient, one needed to develop a mathematical model for the data production; while in Denmark, the astronomer and actuary Thorvald Thiele (Lauritzen, 2002) came up with the idea of the likelihood function and a system for approximating distribution functions (both these ideas were later reinvented by R.A. Fisher).

Karl Pearson was a leading proponent of statistics as a universal science, to be generalised beyond social phenomena, political science, and demography, (Pearson, 1891). He reserved the use of the name statistics for a methodological science, “married with probability and couched in the abstract language of mathematics”, (Klein, 1997, p. 199).

In Sweden, the first years of the new century saw a few signs which in different ways pointed at what would emerge on the statistical scene. To our knowledge, the first Swedish professorship with the word statistics in the title was awarded to Rudolf Kjellén (1864-1922) at Göteborg University College in 1901. In Lund 1902, Pontus Fahlbeck, professor in history and political science, had his chair changed to “political science *and statistics*”. In 1903 Gustav Sundbärg (1857-1914) earned the title of docent in statistics at Stockholm University College. The same year, 1903, Filip Lundberg (1876-1965) published a deep treaty on collective risk theory, (Lundberg, 1903). Through the work of Harald Cramér (1893-1985), one of the few who understood Lundberg's text, the ideas in Lundberg's thesis became a key part of actuarial mathematics.

In 1907, the Chancellor of the Swedish universities declared that “Statistics, whose importance as an independent science nowadays is commonly agreed upon, and whose

importance undoubtedly will grow in all future, in parallel with the development of societal and political sciences, demands, in my opinion, a much firmer position at our universities than it has henceforth been awarded. It is in particular of utmost importance for society that the opportunity for scientific study of statistics as a theoretical discipline is obtained for the steadily growing number of civil servants needing such education.” (Kungl. Maj:t, 1914).

2 Fahlbeck and Charlier

The actors and their environment

During the early years of the century, Carl Vilhelm Ludvig Charlier (1862-1934), astronomy professor in Lund, started to lecture on mathematical statistics and its use in empirical research, (Charlier, 1905b,a, 1906). Charlier and Fahlbeck were strong personalities – with direct and indirect influence on the statistical sciences in Sweden that has lasted a century.

Pontus Fahlbeck (1850-1923) became a professor of history and political science at Lund University in 1889, and C.V.L. Charlier became professor in astronomy in 1897. Both scientists were not only interested in but also actively using and developing statistical methods in their work. The use of statistical means to describe mass phenomena, in Fahlbeck’s case masses of people or economies; in Charlier’s masses of stars or galaxies, was key in their work. In fact, Charlier developed a branch of astronomy which he named “Stellar statistics” in a sequence of papers, summarised in the book (Charlier, 1921).

Fahlbeck was a member of the first chamber of the Swedish parliament. He was, as most professors in Lund, a conservative. Charlier, on the other hand, while not politically active (Lundmark, 1935) was a radical liberal, who in Uppsala had been active in the student club Verlandi. The appointment of Charlier was unusually complicated, and he was not the first choice of the university (Petrén, 1955).

Fahlbeck: statistics as the only exact social science

Fahlbeck viewed statistics as purely a social science, dealing only with humans and their activities. Fahlbeck (1918) describes the subject matter of statistics as “counting and measuring the human things and find the regularity in their measures.” In his view, statistics was the only exact social science. The use of the mathematics of mass phenomena “yields for statistics [...] an immeasurable area. Hardly anything exists between heaven and earth that can not be considered statistics. The absurdity of this is obvious, and is most evident if one recalls the historical and etymological meaning of statistics as ‘statesmanship’.”

Fahlbeck vigorously defended the definition of “statistics” as a social science only, not to be confused in any way with “statistical methods”, which he preferred to describe as “numerical means to reach knowledge”. In Fahlbeck (1918) he is seriously distressed by the usurpation of the term “statistics” to be used for methods to describe variation in any other field, be it astronomy, meteorology, medicine, or economy. He saw it as a deadly threat to statistics as a science.

Sigfrid Wallengren, Fahlbeck’s successor as professor in political science and statistics, was respectfully cautious when he wrote, in the obituary (Wallengren, 1923), “To what extent he was too strict to limit the use of higher mathematics in statistics, is a different matter that must be left to the debate of the specialists.”

Charlier: statistics as a tool to bring structure to data

The standard view of a theoretical astronomer at the turn of the 20th century was a person sitting alone in an office, maybe with some computational help from the occasional student, but producing research much as a mathematician, while the applied astronomer spent the nights at the telescope taking pictures of the sky.

Charlier operated in a very different fashion. He felt an astronomer must be able to handle very large data sets, as well as making complex calculations. In order to manage these task he decided that it would make sense to hire computational staff, people (usually women without astronomical training) fluent at using mechanical calculators. Computational problems were broken down into manageable chunks, and each chunk was handled by one of these computers. Big multivariate data sets, common in astronomy, required card catalogues, with one card for each observation. Of course, a similar method was used in the official statistics, being the data collection arm of Fahlbeck’s view of statistics.

Charlier was not only an astronomer and a mathematical statistician but used his intellectual capacity also in public affairs. He argued for proportional representation in general elections, proposed a new system for rail transport tariffs, and presented a statistical characterisation of the eligible voters in Lund. In mathematical statistics he is well known for his contribution to series expansions of density functions (Gram-Charlier series). His broad scientific work meant that many scientists wanted to send their doctoral students to Lund to study with Charlier (Holmberg, 1999).

As a statistician Charlier shared Karl Pearson’s view of statistics as a universal science, calling him “an outstanding scholar”, (Charlier, 1910), even if he disagreed with Pearson on technical issues.

Their students

The opposing views of Fahlbeck and Charlier on statistics as a science did not have much consequences for their students. Writing dissertations on statistical topics while

getting degrees in political science or astronomy, they ended up being very influential in society regardless of their basic training.

For example, Fahlbeck's student David Bergström (1858-1946) became a liberal minister of war (the first civilian one in Sweden), and did a lot to anchor the use of statistics in the Swedish civil service (Sjöström, 2002).

Charlier's student Josua Linders (1882-1938) worked with the Central Bureau of Statistics and the Central Board of School Planning, before spending several years at the Eugenics Institute in Uppsala and eventually getting the professorship in statistics in Uppsala in 1931 (Holmberg, 1999).

It is noteworthy that Charlier does not seem to have argued particularly around the statistical topic of the decade: how to handle and understand biological variation and evolution. The Mendelian Society was founded in Lund 1910, ten years after the revival of Mendel's genetic experiments. In Copenhagen, the Danish biologist Wilhelm Johannsen coined the name *gene* and explained how one could combine Mendelian inheritance with variation within population. Johannsen and Karl Pearson disagreed on fundamental statistical issues (Guttorp and Lindgren, 2009), but the contacts between Charlier and Johannsen seem to have concerned only the organisation of statistical teaching and research (Johannsen, 1908).

Sven Wicksell (1890-1939), son of the radical economics professor Knut Wicksell (1851-1926), was another Charlier student to whom we will return in the next section.

3 Statistics established ¹

Shaping statistics education as an academic subject

In order that academic studies in the new and growing discipline of statistics could be accepted in an academic degree, a formal study plan had to be approved by the Chancellor of the Swedish universities.

The study plans for statistics at the different universities and colleges in Sweden could vary a fair bit. In 1912 Nils Wohlin (1881-1948), then docent (essentially reader) of statistics at Stockholm University College, developed a syllabus (Wohlin, 1913) that was based on the division of the subject into three parts: a theoretical, an administrative and an applied. The theoretical part requires some understanding of mathematics, and was inspired by G.U. Yule's text (Yule, 1913). The administrative part dealt with official statistics, while the applied part required understanding of the subject matter of the application, often economics. The Uppsala curriculum was similar, but did not contain the requirement of understanding some theoretical statistics.

¹Statistics is an illegitimate child of mathematics (Peter Jagers).

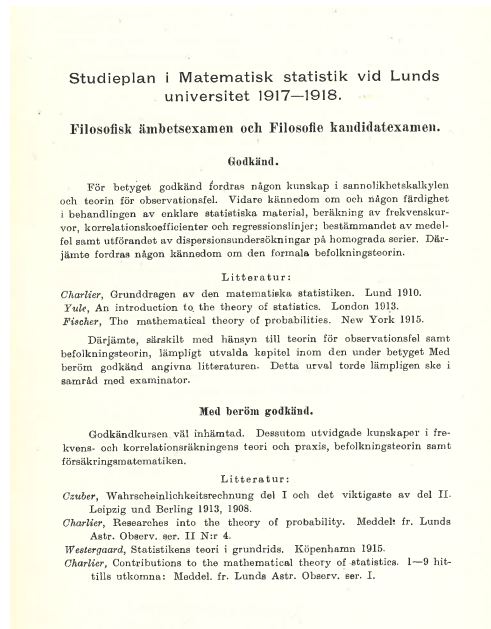


Figure 1: Official study plan for studies in mathematical statistics at Lund University published by Sven Wicksell (Wicksell, 1917).

In 1917, Sven Wicksell, then lecturer in mathematical statistics at Lund University, published his syllabus (Wicksell, 1917) for examining students in the subject. It is largely similar to Wohlin’s syllabus, but also requires studies in probability theory. The topic could then be included in the academic degree Master of Philosophy (Filosofie magister). Texts by Charlier (1906), Czuber (1908), Westergaard (1916), and others are listed in the syllabus. Wicksell also anticipated the need for further studies in statistics, leading to a Licentiate degree, a pre-requisite for being a teacher at the university. The syllabus allows for specialisations, theoretical or more applied, in insurance, astronomy, biology (with a recommended text by Johannsen (1913)), or demography.

Arguments for splitting the Lund position into two

Already in 1907, five years after employing a professor in statistics and political science, Lund University started to advocate splitting the joint position into two, one in each scientific field. The argument that the growing subject of statistics needed the full attention of a professor also in Lund earned sympathy from the Minister of Education (1909), but he considered it wise to gain experience from the new statistics professorship in Uppsala before any expansion of the subject could be considered.

After a few failed requests for a statistics chair in Lund, the Larger Academic Consistorium (the board of the university), had a major debate in 1912. There were strong arguments for a separation of political science and statistics, and an important aspect was that Fahlbeck was nearing retirement. It was thought very unlikely that one could find a candidate with competence both in statistics and in political

science. A special committee was appointed to investigate the areas of competence in a professorship in statistics, and to formulate the university's arguments to the government.

Naturally, Fahlbeck and Charlier were the leading members of the committee, and they expressed their individual opinions on what should be the responsibilities of a professor's chair in statistics and what competencies should be required. Their different views on the meaning of the word "statistics" and on the role of mathematics and mathematical statistics made it impossible for the committee to reach a consensus on the arguments. The history professor Samuel Clason, arguing that statistics was after all a social science, expressed worries that too strong emphasis on mathematics could jeopardise the recruitment. The suggestion from the humanities section to the university followed Fahlbeck and Clason.

At the university level, the economy professor Knut Wicksell complicated matters by suggesting that the title for the suggested professorship should indicate that it included mathematical statistics.² In April 1913 the university decided to suggest to the government that statistics should be represented by a separate professorship without further specification.

The University Chancellor supported the request and a government proposition was sent to the parliament meeting 1914. The professorship was turned down by the parliament with the explicit motivation that there had been such a disagreement in Lund on its profile.

Fahlbeck retired in 1915 and was succeeded by Sigfrid Wallengren (1876-1927) as professor in political science and statistics. He was the only candidate who had any statistics at all in his CV; his main qualifications were in political science. We will return to the Lund scene after an excursion to Uppsala, where the future of the statistical science was at stake in a serious debate on the role of statistics.

The Uppsala debate

The first professor of statistics at Uppsala University, Gustav Sundbärg, did not last long because of illness. He was replaced in 1916 by Nils Wohlin, who in 1921 urged the government to change the professorship from one only in statistics to one in economics and statistics, partly since, as he argued, the fields are so similar. Wohlin, who between 1919 and 1942 was a member of the Swedish parliament, as well as holding positions as Minister of Trade and Minister of Finance, was not often available to perform his professorial duties in Uppsala. The teaching and examination was performed by a lecturer.

Uppsala University had been arguing for a professorship in economics, but the University Chancellor had not approved this, and was now using Wohlin's suggestion

²Knut Wicksell had a university background in mathematics from Uppsala, but long before he obtained a Licentiate degree in mathematics (1885) he had switched interest to social problems and economy.

to propose a solution. The Faculty of Philosophy at Uppsala University had a long discussion about this (Andersson (1922); all citations from this debate are from this reference). Wohlin, citing his article (Wohlin, 1913), pointed out that he was not mathematically capable of doing research in theoretical statistics, and that he would not accept dissertations in mathematical statistics while he was the professor. The acting professor, Karl Arvid Edin (1880-1937), responded that the reason that statistical research had been limited at the university may be related to the lack of presence of the professor.

After requesting advice from outside experts (Pontus Fahlbeck, the retired Lund University professor, Eli Heckscher, economist at Stockholm University College, and Ludvig Widell, the director of the Royal Bureau of Statistics), the Faculty pointed out that the only satisfactory solution would be to maintain the professorship in Statistics and add a new one in Economics.

Fahlbeck argued against the similarity between statistics and economics, stating that “While economics is primarily deductive and reasoning, statistics equally clearly is inductive and numerical.”³ He also maintained that “All attempts to deny statistics the character of an independent scientific discipline, they may as here come from economics or, as is also common, from mathematics, have fallen and must fall on their own absurdity.”

Heckscher argued the opposite point of view, maintaining that “A student who studies statistics as his main subject, will hardly obtain any unified knowledge or thinking, and this not due to neglect from the point of view of his academic teachers but simply since the subject does not allow any unity.” He deduces that one should avoid professorships in statistics, “at least as long as one does not thereby mean ‘mathematical statistics.’” Not surprisingly, Heckscher comes out in favour of the proposal to combine statistics with economics.

The main argument against the proposal (strongly pushed by Rudolf Kjellén, the former professor in statistics and political science in Göteborg, now professor of political science and rhetoric in Uppsala) was that “Statistics, both in name and in fact, will be pushed down from the independent position it eventually reached at our University.”

The Larger Academic Consistorium accepted, with 12 votes to 4, the argument from the Faculty of Philosophy that statistics should be represented by a professorship of its own.

The University Chancellor also asked for advice from Lund University (the private University Colleges in Göteborg and Stockholm did not become state universities until much later and were therefore not consulted directly). The statement by the Lund Faculty of Philosophy was essentially written by the professor of political science

³Karl Pearson had a rather vicious debate with some economists, including Keynes, in 1910-11 about the use of data in social science (Stigler, 1999, Ch. 1)

and statistics, Sigfrid Wallengren, and the professor of economics, Emil Sommarin (after consulting with the docent in mathematical statistics, Sven Wicksell; see next section), and stressed that the university repeatedly had asked for the professorship in political science and statistics to be split in two, one for each subject. They point out that the subject of statistics is growing quickly: in four years 55 Cand. Phil. examina, as well as two Lic. Phil. and one Ph.D., had been awarded. The Larger Academic Consistorium added a statement about the importance of statistical science in medical research and other scientific fields.

Based on these statements from the two universities, the Chancellor saw no reason to make a proposal to the government.

The first Swedish academic in “Mathematical statistics”

The discussion in the previous section highlighted the different views on the role of mathematics in statistics. The term “Mathematical statistics” (in German *Mathematische Statistik*) dates at least back to Wittstein (1867). In the introduction to his treatise on mathematical statistics (Charlier, 1910), Charlier writes: “Mathematical statistics is the tool that empowers the statistician to draw conclusions from his statistical material. . . . mathematical statistics is just as necessary for the statistician as the knife is for the surgeon.”

Charlier’s perception of mathematical statistics and its relation to the wider field of statistics as defined by Fahlbeck is clear. But he also realised the generality of the statistical way to describe phenomena from different fields; besides astronomy, he mentions psychology, biology, economics. He concludes that *“mathematical statistics has, during the last decade, developed into an almost completely new science”*.

In 1915 Charlier proposed to the section of mathematical and natural sciences that his recently graduated Ph.D. Sven Dag Wicksell should be appointed as a docent in Mathematical statistics. He argued that “it has long been considered highly desirable and warranted to have a docent in mathematical statistics, which would be of great importance for a majority of the disciplines belonging to this section.” The recommendation was sent to the Chancellor of the Universities, who appointed Wicksell on May 12, 1915. However, this was just a position, a “license to teach”, and had no money associated with it. The Faculty of Philosophy had a six-year docent stipend available, and Wicksell was one of three candidates (the other two from the humanities section). After a considerable debate, Wicksell was awarded the stipend 1916, getting 9 votes out of 16. The renowned geneticist Herman Nilsson-Ehle supported Wicksell and emphasised the importance for all empirical sciences of the subject he represented.

To the best of our knowledge, the appointment of Wicksell as docent makes him one of the first academic teachers in mathematical statistics in the world, third only to Evgeny Slutsky in Kiev (lecturer in Mathematical statistics, 1913) and H.L. Reitz

in Chicago (professor in Mathematical statistics, 1913).

Wicksell quickly started to teach, and was soon awarded the right to examine students in statistics. That meant that the subject became a regular subject at the university. Until then students had needed to apply to the Chancellor in order to be allowed to include statistics in a degree program.

4 The professorship

As docent in mathematical statistics and with formal and paid appointment as teacher in statistics (1918 and 1920, respectively) Wicksell represented both statistics, with its regular syllabus, and mathematical statistics. Students wanting to use mathematical statistics in their degree program still had to apply to the Chancellor for permission. The reason that Wicksell (and not Wallengren, who after all was professor in the subject) got the examination rights was presumably that Wallengren had so many outside commissions that he frequently was not present in Lund. Sigfrid Wallengren was very appreciated for his ability to listen to different opinions, and much of his time was spent as mediator in labor market conflicts, (Erlander, 1972, p. 136). He did not do much science as professor, but he realised and supported the need for a separate statistics professorship. The request for a financed professorship at Lund University was finally approved by the parliament in 1926, twelve years since it was turned down in 1914.

Wicksell was the natural choice as professor – he already had a solid reputation in all the different aspects of a statistics professor. His ability as a mathematical statistician was recognised, but he had also gained much experience in statistics as a social science. Actually, not only as a scientist but as an indispensable competence in society, taking part in a national committee on the organisation of the Swedish official statistics.

Lund University decided to investigate the possibility to summon Wicksell as professor, and invited Charlier in Lund, Westergaard in Copenhagen, and Wohlin in Uppsala to assess whether he was “superior to any Swedish man (sic!) who could reasonably be considered for the position.” Wicksell was appointed professor of statistics in 1926, and a Department of Statistics was created in 1929.

Wicksell’s main interests as professor went to demography, both of interest in its mathematical methods and by concern for the future of the Swedish population growth, or even decline.

Wicksell thus managed to fill two versions of the role as statistics professor – that designed by Charlier and that by Fahlbeck.⁴ He has his name attached to the Wicksell corpuscle problem (Wicksell, 1925, 1926), which earned him a doctors degree Honoris

⁴One can only speculate on what had happened if the parliament had approved a professorship in statistics in 1914, one year before Wicksell earned his doctor’s degree.

Causa in medicine 1936, and to a bivariate gamma distribution (Wicksell, 1933). He also represented a link between Charlier and the next statistics professor in Lund, Carl-Erik Quensel (1907-1977): all three wrote on the representation of statistical distributions as series; see (Särndal, 1971; Cramér, 1972) for details on their work.

5 Later developments

Once Wicksell became professor of statistics, the formal activities in mathematical statistics in Lund slowed down. Charlier retired in 1927 and died 1934. However, as mentioned, Wicksell and his successor Quensel included mathematical statistics as part of their duties as professors in statistics, both in their research and in their teaching.

We give here first a summary of the status of mathematical statistics in Sweden and Lund up to around 1960, and then we describe the start of the expansion of the statistical sciences that has taken place since then.

Mathematical statistics 1929 – 1958

The focus (and in fact, for a long time to come, the only locus) of the field of mathematical statistics in Sweden moved to Stockholm, where Cramér became the first professor in mathematical statistics (and insurance mathematics) in 1929. His professorship was funded by the insurance industry (Sundberg, 2013). The department became a hotbed for development of the theory and applications of stochastic processes, with long-term visitors like William Feller, Kari Karhunen and Ted Anderson, and students such as Herman Wold, Kai-Lai Chung, and Ulf Grenander.⁵

Of course, Cramér (1945) lay the foundation of modern mathematical statistics in combining tools from the Russian school of probability with methods from the British-American approach to statistics, thereby formalising theoretical statistics.

Mathematics statistics in the vein of Charlier continued to be present in Swedish astronomy. In the mid 1950s Ejnar Lyttkens (1916-1990) worked at the astronomical observatory in Uppsala and published four mathematical papers on series representations of distribution functions, among them a generalisation of the multidimensional A-series (Lyttkens, 1950). He then turned to statistics and worked for many years at the statistics department in Uppsala; he was for a time acting professor in statistics at the new university in Umeå in 1963.

From a Lund perspective, the mathematics professor Marcel Riesz (1886-1969) kept the topic alive through his personal contacts with Swedish probabilists and statisticians. Riesz had been Harald Cramér’s adviser in Stockholm, on a thesis in

⁵Stigler (1999, Ch.8) argues that 1933 is the birth year of mathematical statistics, based on events in UK and USA.

number theory, before moving to Lund in 1926. He corresponded with Charlier in Lund as well as with many Swedish insurance mathematicians, and he was also a source of great support for Cramér in Stockholm through many years; (Peetre and Magnusson, 2009a,b).

Lars Gårding (1919-2014), student of Marcel Riesz and legendary mathematics professor in Lund 1952–1984, started his academic studies in Lund with an ambition for a career in actuarial mathematics. He took courses both from Wicksell and his successor Quensel, which earned him actuarial competence. But his mind soon turned to mathematics. Harry Malmheden, another student of Riesz’ in Lund, wrote a textbook in Mathematical statistics. As a teacher in mathematics he also inspired to future studies in Statistics, (Taube, 2006).

Expansion in higher education leads to more statistics

The number of new students entering Swedish universities increased by a factor 2.5 between 1956 and 1963, both in the humanities and in mathematics, natural sciences, and engineering. During the same time the number of professorships in mathematical statistics increased, from one in 1959 to five in 1963.

At the two old technical universities, Chalmers Institute of Technology (CTH) in Göteborg and the Royal Institute of Technology (KTH) in Stockholm, professor positions in applied mathematics had been held, since 1949, by Harald Bergström (1908-2001) and Carl-Gustaf Esseen (1918-2001), respectively. Both were changed to professorships in mathematical statistics; Bergström in 1960 and Esseen in 1962.

A fresh new professor in mathematical statistics was Bertil Matérn (1917–2007), a student of Cramér. He had worked for many years at the Forest Research Institute when he in 1960 presented his now famous thesis *Spatial variation* (Matérn, 1960). He became professor in “Silvicultural mathematical statistics” at the new Forestry College in Stockholm in 1963.

Mathematical statistics reborn in Lund

At the time of the described expansions Lund University had already a new docent in mathematical statistics, Gunnar Blom (1920-2003), also a student of Cramér in Stockholm. There he had been a member of the Applied statistics research group, giving statistics courses for Swedish industry. He moved in the early 1950s to Malmö and started working as an industrial statistician in the textile industry, the sugar industry, and several other branches. At the same time he wrote his doctoral dissertation, which he presented in 1958.

Blom became docent at Lund university 1959⁶ and started regular courses in mathematical statistics 1960. However, students who wanted to include the subject

⁶As Blom recalls, the docent position had been dormant since Wicksell’s time!

in a degree still had to get permission from the Chancellor. The interest in the courses was overwhelming, and after repeated student requests the university asked the government for a change, and from 1961 mathematical statistics was a regular subject also in Lund. The study plan for the first semester listed only introductions to statistical theory and probability. The new probability textbook by Feller (1957) set the style for the second semester, together with (Cramér, 1945) during the third. Experimental design and analysis of variance were trained through practical cases from Blom's industrial years. The fourth semester listed only very theoretical books, both in probability and statistics.

In the late 1950s the need for a reformation of higher education became clear. A government committee, U55,⁷ scrutinised most aspects of higher education and research. One of its conclusions was that a third technical university should be opened, and organised near, and with support from, an existing environment for mathematics and natural sciences. Lund was chosen as the best localisation, and Lund Institute of Technology, LTH, was born by a decision in the parliament in 1960.

Mathematical statistics should be organised, together with mathematics and numerical analysis, in a department joint between the new LTH and Lund University. Gunnar Blom worked hard with the organisation of statistics courses for all the engineering programs, stressing the need for different focus and depth according to specialisation. Even the architect students got their own statistics course. A separate course in experimental design should be a necessary link between engineering practise and statistical theory.

Gunnar Blom was in 1963 appointed to the first professor's chair of mathematical statistics in Lund, with responsibility for statistical research and education both at Lund Institute of Technology and at the Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences at Lund University. Part of Charlier's vision had materialised after almost 50 years.

Statistical sciences

In connection with a major reorganisation of higher education in Sweden in the late 1960s the relation between the subjects statistics and mathematical statistics was discussed at length. A government committee wanted a merger, but professors from both professions urged the University Chancellor to keep the distinction. The Chancellor accepted the view.

The Swedish academic system adapted to the rules, and from 1963, the statistical sciences expanded ever further along the two tracks. Nine more universities or university colleges now (2015) have biostatistics, mathematical statistics, or statistics represented on the professor's level, according to local needs; see list on page 16.

⁷One member was Sven Moberg, Ph.D. in statistics under Carl-Erik Quensel in Lund.

When mathematical statistics was introduced at the Swedish technical universities around 1960 it was in an environment where mathematics was the common language. Emerging new technologies, in telephone communication, control theory, reliability, computers, delivered challenges for mathematical statistics. A new group of engineering students was opened for recruitment to higher studies. Together, these conditions added a new facet to the identity of mathematical statistics.

To begin with, the modified identity sharpened the distinction between the two “statistics”, or three, if we include biostatistics. An administrative change in the structure of higher education in the late 1970s seemed to make the distinction permanent, by assigning the three statistics programs to different professional careers: in the technical sector, the administrative, economical and social sector, and the health care sector.

However, the differences have been much reduced in current times. First of all, the role of the faculty allocation has lost some of its relevance: possible health effects of mobile phone use involves statistics together with technology and economy, life science, human behaviour; future climate studies needs statistics together with physical climate modelling, environmental, health, economic, and behavioural consequences, to give just two examples. In recognition of the general role of statistics in scientific work, the Swedish Research Council recently set aside funds for statistics in empirical sciences, with participation from all statistics groups.

Secondly, the statistical sciences in Sweden are not much different from what is seen on the contemporary international scene, where different statistics groups tend to specialise on different subject areas, combining methodological development with direct application.

6 Discussion

Many of the current views of statistics as a discipline were available in the discussions in the early 20th century. For example, the importance of a cross-disciplinary view of the field was clearly expressed by both Fahlbeck and Charlier. Fahlbeck (1918, p. 31) writes that “statistics treats these sides of human activities in its own fashion, in that it views them purely as societal phenomena, without regard to what they are or concern in themselves (in economics, exchange and production of valuable goods, in medicine, life and health processes, in ethics, evil and good deeds, etc.) and further join them together with other similarly treated aspects to an independent science about humanity.” Similarly the need for mathematical (particularly probabilistic) tools to develop the methodology of the field seemed to be a point of agreement between the two sides.

On the other hand there was no agreement as to the scope of statistics as a science. Fahlbeck’s view that it had to be limited to social science seems strange

to us, although it is the foundation for the current division between statistics and mathematical statistics at Swedish universities. He argued (Fahlbeck, 1918, preface) that this was needed to defend the subject against a point of view which would reduce it from an independent science to a branch of mathematics. He admitted that there are cases where novel methodology has been developed by mathematically inclined statisticians, but claimed that these methods did not become *statistical* methods until they were routinely employed by statisticians in the field. Again, the argument that the scope of statistics does not (and should not) go beyond social science applications is puzzling.

Fahlbeck's restricted view of the subject matter of statistics undoubtedly impacted on the Swedish academic organisation, yielding statistics departments located in social sciences, separated from the natural sciences. Charlier's unrestricted view of where the subject of statistics can be used, on the other hand, has been adopted globally, and is the basis of the modern statistical science.

Modern statistics is a multidisciplinary discipline. It works across boundaries. One of the central roles of statistics, that neither of the two Lund scientists really anticipated, has now become one of the leading themes of statistics. It is in theory of knowledge, where in many subject areas it has become compulsory to use statistical methods to verify novel results. Most often this is done using statistical tests, which of course were not readily available to Fahlbeck and Charlier. The multidisciplinary nature of statistics renders it particularly important for the statistical scientist to understand the subject matter from which a problem arises. This, on the other hand, both Fahlbeck and Charlier understood and emphasised.

The main reason for considering statistical science as an independent field is the transferability of methodology between application areas, coupled with mathematical and computational research that determines properties of the methods and generalises them to be applicable in new areas. In order to do this, it is necessary to have statistics departments, where both transfer and development of methods take place. It is not sufficient to have individuals with statistics expertise in subject matter departments, since this will not enable transferability, and will not reward theoretical work.

Some mathematical tools have had important impact on how we think in statistics: matrix theory, probability, derivatives, optimisation. Modern statistics requires not only "high level mathematics", but also computer science and engineering. Statistics is not a subset of applied mathematics (even if Statistics Sweden classifies the research area "probability and statistics" under this heading; not mentioning mathematical statistics!), but is an independent science. Statistics is a way of thinking, and it is there because it is needed. It does not much matter whether we call it statistics, biostatistics, or mathematical statistics: we can call it statistical science. It is a necessary science.

First professorships by institution

Location	Subject	Name	Year
Göteborg University College	Political science and statistics	Rudolf Kjellén	1901
Lund University	Political science and statistics	Pontus Fahlbeck	1902
Stockholm School of Economics	Economics with statis- tics	Eli Heckscher	1909
Uppsala University	Statistics	Gustav Sundbärg	1910
Stockholm Univer- sity College	Actuarial mathematics and mathematical statistics	Harald Cramér	1929
Stockholm Univer- sity College	Statistics	Sten Wahlund	1938
Chalmers Institute of Technology	Mathematical statistics	Harald Bergström	1960
Royal Institute of Technology	Mathematical statistics	Carl-Gustav Esseen	1962
Lund Institute of Technology	Mathematical statistics	Gunnar Blom	1963
Forestry College	Silvicultural mathe- matical statistics	Bertil Matérn	1963
Umeå University	Statistics	Ejnar Lyttkens, acting	1963
Umeå University	Mathematical statistics	Gunnar Kulldorff	1966
Uppsala University	Mathematical statistics	Carl-Gustaf Es- seen	1967
Göteborg University	Biostatistics	Sture Holm	1993
Örebro University	Statistics	Bengt Swensson	1995
Linköping University	Statistics	Anders Grimwall	1998
Karolinska Institutet	Biostatistics	Juni Palmgren	1999
Linköping University	Mathematical statistics	Timo Koski	2000
Dalarna University	Statistics	Kenneth Carling	2003
Luleå Technical Uni- versity	Mathematical statistics	Kerstin Vännman	2004

References

- Andersson, T. (1922). Statistiken vid Sverges universitet (Statistics at Swedish universities). *Nord. Stat. Tidskr.* 1, 409–477.
- Bortkiewicz, L. v. (1917). *Die Iteration: Ein Beitrag zur Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie*. Berlin: Springer.
- Charlier, C. (1910). *Grunddragen af den matematiska statistiken (Foundations of the mathematical statistics)*. Lund: Statsvetenskaplig tidskrift.
- Charlier, C. (1921). *Lectures on Stellar Statistics*. Lund: SCIENTIA.
- Charlier, C. V. L. (1905a). Über das Fehlergesetz. *Medd. Lunds Astron. Obs.* 25.
- Charlier, C. V. L. (1905b). Die zweite Form des Fehlergesetzes. *Medd. Lunds Astron. Obs.* 26.
- Charlier, C. V. L. (1906). *Researches into the theory of probability*, Volume II of *Meddel. fr. Lunds Astr. Observ.* Lund: Olsson.
- Cramér, H. (1945). *Mathematical Methods in Statistics*. Uppsala: Almqvist & Wiksell.
- Cramér, H. (1972). On the history of certain expansions used in mathematical statistics. *Biometrika* 59, 205–207.
- Czuber, E. (1908). *Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie, Fehlerausgleichung und Kollektiv-masslehre*. Leipzig: Teubner.
- Eliot, T. S. (1939). *Old Possum's Book of Practical Cats*. London: Faber and Faber.
- Erlander, T. (1972). *1901–1939*. Stockholm: Tidens förlag.
- Fahlbeck, P. (1918). *Statistiken och den numeriska kunskapsmetoden (Statistics and the numeric theory of knowledge)*. Lunds universitets årsskrift. Lund: Gleerups.
- Feller, W. (1957). *An introduction to probability theory and its applications, Vol. I*. New York: Wiley.
- Guttorp, P. and G. Lindgren (2009). Karl Pearson and the Scandinavian school of statistics. *Internat. Statist. Rev.* 77, 64–71.
- Healey, M. (1978). Is statistics a science? *J. R. Stat. Soc, A* 141, 385–393.
- Holmberg, G. (1999). *Reaching for the Stars*, Volume 13 of *Ugglan*. Lund: Lund Studies in the History of Science and Ideas.

- Johannsen, W. (1908). Letters to C.V. Charlier. Lund University Library.
- Johannsen, W. L. (1913). *Elemente der exakten Erblchkeitslehre mit Grundzügen der biologischen Variationsstatistik*. Jena: Verlag von Gustav Fischer.
- Klein, J. (1997). *Statistical visions in time. A history of time series analysis 1662–1930*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kungl. Maj:t (1914). *Statsverkspropositionen (Budget and finance bill)*. Stockholm: Riksdagstrycket.
- Lauritzen, S. (2002). *Thiele – Pioneer in Statistics*. Oxford: Oxford.
- Lundberg, F. (1903). *I. Approximerad framställning af sannolikhetsfunktioner. II. Återförsäkring af kollektivrisken (I. Approximate representation of the probability function. II. Reinsurance of the collective risk)*. Uppsala: Almqvist & Wiksell.
- Lundmark, K. (1935). Carl Vilhelm Ludvid Charlier. *Mon. Not. R. Astron. Soc.* 95, 339–342.
- Lyttkens, E. (1950). A generalisation of the multidimensional A-series. *Arkiv för Astronomi* 1, 47–57.
- Matérn, B. (1960). *Spatial variation*, Volume 39. Meddelande från statens skogs-forskningsinstitut.
- Pearson, K. (1891). The geometry of statistics. Lecture given at Gresham College. The Library. University College, London.
- Pearson, K. (1895). Contributions to the mathematical theory of evolution. II. Skew variation in homogeneous material. *Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. London Ser. A* 186, 343–414.
- Peetre, J. and R. Magnusson (2009a). Correspondence of Marcel Riesz with Swedes, Part I. <http://www.maths.lth.se/matematiklu/personal/jaak/Riesz1.pdf>.
- Peetre, J. and R. Magnusson (2009b). Correspondence of Marcel Riesz with Swedes, Part II. <http://www.maths.lth.se/matematiklu/personal/jaak/Riesz2.pdf>.
- Petrén, G. (1955). Minnen och interiörer rörande professor Charliers installation i Lund år 1897 (Memories and interiors regarding professor Charlier’s installation in Lund in 1897). In G. Bentz (Ed.), *Under Lundagårds kronor*, pp. 95–109. Lund: Gleerups.
- Särndal, C.-E. (1971). The hypothesis of elementary errors and the Scandinavian school in statistical theory. *Biometrika* 58, 375–391.

- Sjöström, O. (2002). *Svensk statistikhistoria (Swedish history of statistics)*. Hedemora: Gidlund.
- Stigler, S. M. (1999). *Statistics on the Table*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard.
- Sundberg, R. (2013). “Institutets” historia under Stockholms högskolas tid (The history of the Institute during the time of Stockholm University College). http://www.math.su.se/polopoly_fs/1.137308.1370288756!/menu/standard/file/CramerInstitutet.pdf.
- Taube, A. (2006). *Mest medvind – intryck från Uppsala och världen*. Lund: Uppsala Publishing House.
- Tukey, J. (1953). The growth of experimental design in a research laboratory. In *Research Operations in Industry*, pp. 303–313. New York: King’s Crown Press.
- Wallengren, S. (1923). Pontus Fahlbeck, 1850-1923. *Statsvet. tidskr.* 26, 211–228.
- Westergaard, H. (1916). *Statistikens teori i grundrids (Foundations of statistical theory)*. København: Gad.
- Wicksell, S. (1917). Studieplan i matematisk statistik vid Lunds universitet 1917-1918 (Syllabus in mathematical statistics at Lund University 1917-1918). *Sv. aktuariiefören. tidskr.* 4, 187.
- Wicksell, S. (1925). The corpuscle problem I. *Biometrika* 17, 84–99.
- Wicksell, S. (1926). The corpuscle problem II. *Biometrika* 18, 152–172.
- Wicksell, S. (1933). On correlation functions of type III. *Biometrika* 25, 121–133.
- Wittstein, T. (1867). *Mathematische Statistik und deren Anwendung auf National-Ökonomie und Versicherungs-Wissenschaft*. Hannover: Hahn.
- Wohlin, N. (1913). Några ord om akademiska studier och studieplaner i statistik (Some words about academic studies and syllabi in statistics). *Statsvet. tidskr.* 16, 116–140.
- Yule, G. Y. (1913). *An introduction to the theory of statistics*. London: Griffin.