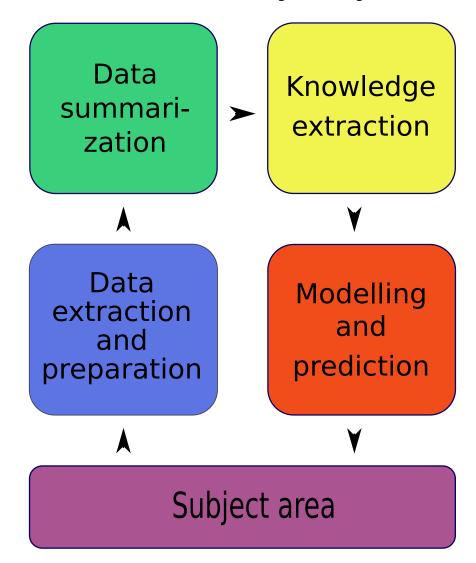
The data analysis cycle



Data Analysis: Relationships Between Data Part 1

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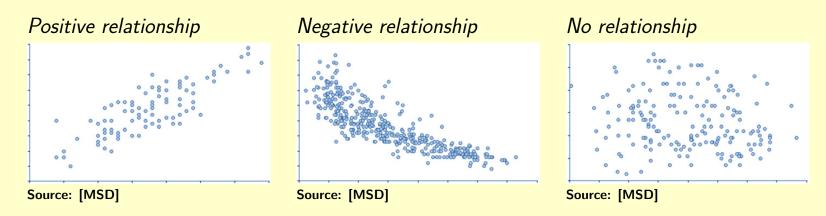
Relationships

- The relationships we refer to here are relationships **between two variables**.
- We say that a relationship exists if we can say something about unknown values of one variable from the values of another.
- Relationships can be examined using visualisation or expressed through mathematically calculated measures.
- To measure relationships, we must have values pertaining to the same instances for both variables.
- NOTE: The existence of a relationship between two variables *does not* imply that there is any causation involved.

Relationship visualisation

Relationships can be discovered by examining suitable visual representations of data

• Scatterplots (two numeric variables)



Summary tables and graphs (one numeric and one categorical variable)

To show data in a summary table or graph, the data is grouped based on the values of a discrete variable or ranges of a continuous variable. The table or graph summarises properties of a numeric variable for each group.

- Summary table
 - * Each data subset is shown in a row of the table
 - * One of the columns usually contains observation counts for the subsets
 - * The remaining columns represent properties, such as mean or standard deviation, of a numeric variable

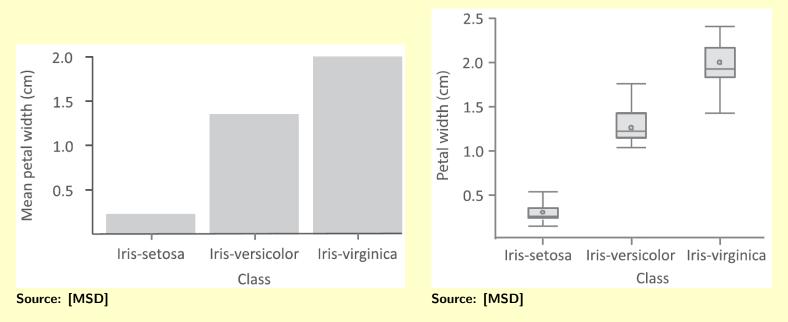
Class	Count	Minimum (petal width (cm))	Maximum (petal width (cm))	Mean (petal width (cm))	Median (petal width (cm))	Standard deviation (petal width (cm))
Iris-setosa	50	0.1	0.6	0.244	0.2	0.107
Iris-versicolor	50	1	1.8	1.33	1.3	0.198
Iris-virginica	50	1.4	2.5	2.03	2	0.275

Source: [MSD]

The data in the table above is grouped by type of iris. The columns represent properties of the variable "petal width". The table is immediately informative, showing the marked difference between the petal width of the three classes of iris.

- Summary graph

- * A graphical representation of the data shown in a summary table
- * The grouping variable from the summary table is on the x-axis
- * The y-axis represents a property of the other variable



These two summary diagrams are of the mean petal width and of petal width box and whisker visualisations for the different iris classes. Comparing the classes is even easier than with the summary table.

Contingency table (two categorical variables)

- Provides insight into the relationship between two categorical variables (or non-categorical variables converted to categorical).
- Contains observation counts for each possible pair of values for the two variables
- Also called cross-classification table

	Gender						
		Male	Female	Totals			
	10-19	847	810	1657			
	20-29	4878	3176	8054			
	30-39	6037	2576	8613			
	40-49	5014	2161	7175			
Age-group	50-59	3191	1227	4418			
	60-69	1403	612	2015			
	70-79	337	171	508			
	80-89	54	24	78			
	90-99	29	14	43			
	Total	21,790	10,771	32,561			

An example of a contingency table, showing counts for pairs of values for variables Gender and Age-group

Source: [MSD]

Measuring relatedness (statistics)

A number of different measures are used for quantifying the degree of relatedness between variables.

• Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient

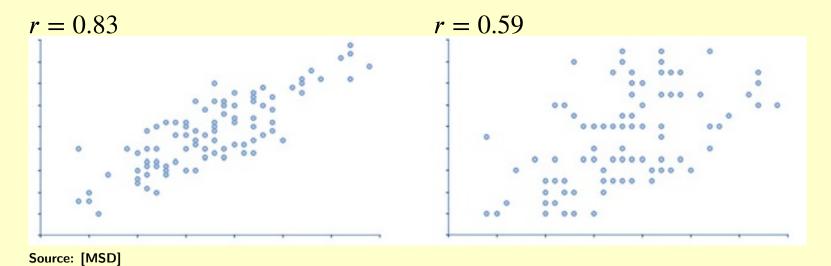
- Most common correlation coefficient, often referred to simply as 'correlation coefficient'
- Defined by Karl Pearson (1857-1936), English mathematician and statistician
- Measures linear correlation between two numeric variables (on interval or ratio scale)
- A number between -1.0 and 1.0, inclusive, expressing relatedness on a scale from *perfect* negative correlation (-1.0) to perfect positive correlation (1.0). A value of 0 means no correlation.

The formula for calculating the correlation coefficient is:

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{(n-1)s_x s_y}$$

where x and y are variables, x_i are the individual values of x, y_i are the individual values of y, \bar{x} is the mean of the x variable, \bar{y} is the mean of the y variable, s_x and s_y are the standard deviations of variables x and y, respectively, and y is the number of observations.

- Examples of two scatterplots with different values of correlation coefficient:



- Testing the significance of Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient
 - * For a pair of perfectly independent variables, the coefficient that is calculated on a pair of samples has a distribution with mean equal to 0 (see here).
 - * The smaller the sample size, the greater the correlation value needs to be in order to be considered significant (Wikipedia picture illustrating this.)
 - * The critical values are always given in a table:

											1%
4	.950	.990	7	.754	.874	10	.632	.765	13	.553	.684
5	.878	.959	8	.707	.834	11	.602	.735	14	.532	.661
6	.811	.917	9	.666	.798	12	.576	.708	15	.514	.684 .661 .641

Source: [US]

A larger table can be found <u>here</u>. The degrees of freedom value is calculated as df = N - 2.

Kendall Tau

- Measures association betwen a pair of numeric variables for which values can be ordered
 i.e. ranked (numeric or ordinal)
- Defined by English statistician Maurice Kendall (1907-1983)
- Also called Kendall rank correlation coefficient
- Calculated using value ranks rather than values, as follows:
 - 1. Let's say that the variables are X and Y, with values $x_1, x_2, ... x_n$ and $y_1, y_2, ... y_n$, respectively, and pairs $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ... (x_n, y_n)$ corresponding to observations.
 - 2. Each value is given a rank within the context of its variable, based on numeric value (the highest value receives rank 1 etc.). This means that the values for X will have unique rank values between 1 and n, as will the values for Y.
 - 3. The pairs are tested with other pairs for *concordance* vs. *discordance*. The following table shows tested conditions and corresponding rank relationship designations.

Fulfilled condition	Concordance value for (x_i, y_i) and (x_j, y_j)
$r(x_i) - r(x_j) > 0 \text{ AND } r(y_i) - r(y_j) > 0$	concordant
$r(x_i) - r(x_j) < 0 \text{ AND } r(y_i) - r(y_j) < 0$	concordant
$r(x_i) - r(x_j) > 0 \text{ AND } r(y_i) - r(y_j) < 0$	discordant
$r(x_i) - r(x_j) < 0 \text{ AND } r(y_i) - r(y_j) > 0$	discordant
$r(x_i) - r(x_j) = 0$	x-tied
$r(y_i) - r(y_j) = 0$	y-tied

NOTE: $r(x_i)$ denotes the rank of value x_i in the context of variable X etc.

- 4. The counts of concordant, discordant, x-tied and y-tied pairs (n_c, n_d, t_x) and t_y , respectively) are determined (note that a pair can be both x-tied and y-tied at the same time i.e. counted both in t_x and in t_y). The counts are used in the calculation of the Tau value.
- 5. There are two Tau calculations, τ_A and τ_B , each resulting in values between -1.0 and 1.0. The former is simpler and is used when there are no ties. The Tau forumalae are:

$$\tau_{A} = \frac{n_{c} - n_{d}}{n(n-1)/2}$$

$$\tau_{B} = \frac{n_{c} - n_{d}}{\sqrt{(n_{c} + n_{d} + t_{x})(n_{c} + n_{d} + t_{y})}}$$

The significance of Kendall's Tau also depends on the sample size. We test it by looking
it up in the table of Kendall Tau critical values:

1											1%
4	1.000	*	7	.619	.810	10	.467	.600	13	.359	.513 .473 .467
5	.800	1.000	8	.571	.714	11	.418	.564	14	.363	.473
6	.733	.867	9	.500	.667	12	.394	.545	15	.333	.467

Source: [US]

t-Tests for comparing two groups

- Test the means of two groups of observations for whether the difference between their means is statistically significant (not likely to be due to expected variation in values)
- Take the form of hypothesis tests
- Is typically applied in cases where the number of instances is small (less than 30)
- The statistic used in a t-test is called a T value and is the difference between the two
 means, normalised to the standard error of the difference distribution
- The T value follows a t-distribution with a number of degrees of freedom that depends on the properties of the two variables
- The formula for this value, in the case that the two groups are independently normally distributed and have similar variances, is:

$$T = \frac{\bar{x_1} - \bar{x_2}}{s_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}$$

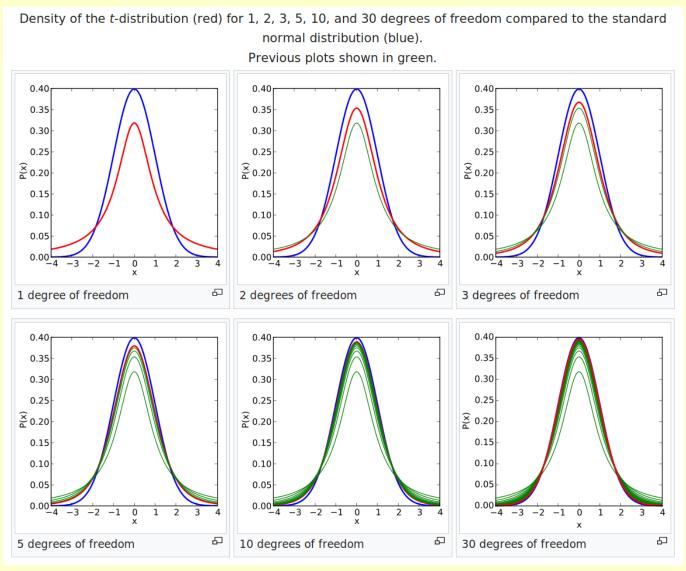
where $\bar{x_1}$ and $\bar{x_2}$ are the group means, n_1 and n_2 are group observation count and s_p is an estimate of the standard deviation, calculated as follows:

$$s_p = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}$$

where s_1^2 and s_2^2 are group variances.

In this case the number of degrees of freedom is $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$.

- In the case that the group variances are not similar, a different, more complicated formula is used.
- Testing the significance of a t statistic
 - * If the calculated value of T falls within a certain range in the middle of the relevant t-distribution (usually a range that includes 95% of the distribution's values), it is taken that the difference between the two group means is not statistically significant i.e. that the means of the populations they represent are highly likely to be the same.
 - * t-statistic distribution graphs:



Source: Wikipedia

* t-statistic critical value table for lookup can be found here.

ANOVA

- Tests the variance of three or more groups of observations for whether there is a significant difference between their means (i.e. probably not due to normal variation in the samples)
- The name stands for *completely randomized one-way analysis of variance*
- Can be applied to cases where the groups are independent and random, the distributions
 are normal and the populations have similar variances
- A hypothesis test, where the null hypothesis is that the means of the groups are equal
- Central to ANOVA is a number called the F statistic, which is essentially the ratio between inter-group variation and intra-group variation
- The F-statistic is compared with the critical value from a table called the F-table (based on the F-statistic distribution) as a means of deciding whether the null hypothesis should be accepted. The critical value depends on the required confidence level, the number of groups and the number of observations.

Calculation of the F-statistic:

$$MSB = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{\bar{x}})^2}{k-1}$$

$$MSW = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} (n_i - 1)s_i^2}{N - k}$$

$$F = \frac{MSB}{MSW}$$

where k is the number of groups, N is the overall number of observations, n_i is the number of observations in group i and s_i is the standard deviation within group i, $\bar{x_i}$ is the mean within group i and $\bar{\bar{x}}$ is the overall mean.

 The F-distribution depends on two degrees of freedom values, which also need to be used when looking up the F-table:

$$df_{between} = k - 1$$

$$df_{within} = N - k$$

A file containing an F-table can be found here.

Chi-square

- Tests the independence of categorical variables (on the nominal or ordinal scale)
- Chi-square can also be used to test goodnes of fit for a distribution (but we are not looking at that here)
- A hypothesis test where the hypothesis is that there is no relationship between the variables
- The value on which the hypothesis test is based is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

where k is the number of cells (categories) in the contingency table for the two variables, O_i is the observed frequency in cell i and E_i is the expected frequency for cell i. The expected cell frequency is calculated as:

$$E_i = \frac{n_{Ri} \times n_{Ci}}{n}$$

where n_{Ri} is the sum of frequencies in the entire row to which cell i belongs, n_{Ci} is the sum of frequencies in the column to which cell i belongs and n is the sum of frequencies across the entire table.

- The calculated χ^2 value is compared with the critical value for the required confidence level and number of degrees of freedom $(df = (r-1) \times (c-1))$, where r and c are the number of rows and columns, respectively, in the contingency table) from the standard chi-square table. If the calculated χ^2 is greater than the critical value, the null hypothesis is rejected and it is taken that there is a relationship between the categorical variables.
- A Chi-square table can be found <u>here</u>.

References Some pictures in this presentation were taken from the following books. The source for each picture is cited beside it.

[MSD] Making Sense of Data I: A Practical Guide to Exploratory Data Analysis and Data Mining, by Glenn J. Myatt and Wayne P. Johnson, John Wiley & Sons, 2014.