

K. J. Somaiya College of Engineering, Mumbai-77 (A Constituent College of Somaiya Vidyavihar University)

Department of Computer Engineering

Batch:-H2_1 Roll No.: 16010122151

Experiment No. 2

Title: To apply the descriptive statistics techniques

Aim:To apply various descriptive statistics techniques, such as measures of central tendency, variability, and distribution, to analyze and summarize the key features of a dataset.

Expected Outcome of Experiment:

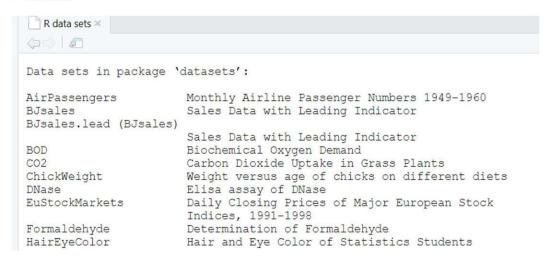
CO1: Develop an understanding of data science and business analytics.

Books/ Journals/ Websites referred:

Select a built-in R dataset

You can see a list of all the built-in datasets using the data() function.

> data()



Here, we'll use the built-in R data set named *iris*. Every student in the batch has to choose a unique dataset.

> # Store the data in the variable my_data
> my_data <- iris</pre>



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Check your data

You can inspect your data using the functions **head**() and **tails**(), which will display the first and the last part of the data, respectively.

- > # Print the first 6 rows
- > head(my_data, 6)

-		, -,			
	Sepal.Length	Sepal.Width	Petal.Length	Petal.Width	Species
1	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	setosa
2	4.9	3.0	1.4	0.2	setosa
3	4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2	setosa
4	4.6	3.1	1.5	0.2	setosa
5	5.0	3.6	1.4	0.2	setosa
6	5.4	3.9	1.7	0.4	setosa

To find number or row in data

>nrow(my_data)

What will be output of

>ncol(my_data)

R functions for computing descriptive statistics

Description	R function			
Mean	mean()			
Standard deviation	sd()			
Variance	var()			
Minimum	min()			
Maximum	maximum()			
Median	median()			
Range of values (minimum and maximum)	range()			
Sample quantiles	quantile()			
Generic function	summary()			
Interquartile range	IQR()			

Descriptive statistics for a single group



Measure of central tendency: mean, median, mode

Mean is nothing but the average of the given set of values.

Median The median of a set of data is the **middlemost number or centre value in the set**. The median is also the number that is halfway into the set. To find the median, the data should be arranged first in order of least to greatest or greatest to the least value.

```
> # Compute the mean value
> mean(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 5.843333
>
> # Compute the median value
> median(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 5.8
```

The **mode** is the value that appears most often in a set of data. The mode of a discrete probability distribution is the value x at which its probability mass function takes its maximum value. In other words, it is the value that is most likely to be sampled.

The function mfv() [in the modeest R package] can be used to compute the mode of a variable.

```
> # Compute the mode
> install.packages("modeest")
> require(modeest)
Loading required package: modeest
> mfv(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 5
```

Measure of variability

Range: minimum & maximum

```
> # Compute the minimum value
> min(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 4.3
> # Compute the maximum value
> max(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 7.9
> # Range
> range(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 4.3 7.9
```



Quantiles

A quantile is a particular part of a data set that determines how many values in a distribution are above or below a certain limit. Quantiles are cut points that divide the range of a probability distribution into continuous intervals with equal probabilities, or divide the observations in a sample in the same way. The word "quantile" comes from the word quantity, and it refers to dividing a sample or a probability distribution into equal-sized, adjacent subgroups.

So given data set is arranged in the ascending order. Assume there are 100 samples; then, 25% means THE value of 25th sample; in other words the value below which 25% of the samples lie.

```
> quantile(my_data$Sepal.Length)
   0% 25% 50% 75% 100%
4.3 5.1 5.8 6.4 7.9
```

By default, the function returns the minimum, the maximum and three **quartiles** (the 0.25, 0.50 and 0.75 quantiles).

```
> quantile(my_data$Sepal.Length, seq(0, 1, 0.25))
   0% 25% 50% 75% 100%
4.3 5.1 5.8 6.4 7.9
```

To compute deciles (0.1, 0.2, 0.3, ..., 0.9), use this:

```
> quantile(my_data$Sepal.Length, seq(0, 1, 0.1))
   0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%
4.30 4.80 5.00 5.27 5.60 5.80 6.10 6.30 6.52 6.90 7.90
```



Interquartile range

The difference between the **upper and lower quartile** is known as the interquartile range.

```
> IQR(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 1.3
```

Variance and standard deviation

```
> # Compute the variance
> var(my_data$sepal.Length)
[1] 0.6856935
> # Compute the standard deviation =
> # square root of th variance
> sd(my_data$sepal.Length)
[1] 0.8280661
```

Median absolute deviation

```
> # Compute the median absolute deviation
> mad(my_data$Sepal.Length)
[1] 1.03782
```

Computing an overall summary of a variable and an entire data frame

summary() function

Summary of a single variable. Five values are returned: the mean, median, 25th and 75th quartiles, min and max in one single line call:

Summary of a data frame. In this case, the function **summary**() is automatically applied to each column. The format of the result depends on the type of the data contained in the column. For example:

- If the column is a numeric variable, mean, median, min, max and quartiles are returned.
- If the column is a factor variable, the number of observations in each group is returned.



```
> summary(my_data, digits = 2)
 Sepal.Length Sepal.Width
                              Petal.Length Petal.Width
                                                                Species
        :4.3
Min.
               Min.
                      :2.0
                                    :1.0
                                           Min.
                                                   :0.1
                                                          setosa
                                                                    :50
                             Min.
1st Qu.:5.1
               1st Qu.:2.8
                                            1st Qu.:0.3
                             1st Qu.:1.6
                                                          versicolor:50
Median:5.8
               Median:3.0
                             Median:4.3
                                           Median :1.3
                                                          virginica:50
Mean
        :5.8
               Mean
                      :3.1
                             Mean
                                    :3.8
                                           Mean
                                                   :1.2
               3rd Qu.:3.3
                             3rd Qu.:5.1
                                           3rd Qu.:1.8
 3rd Qu.:6.4
Max.
        :7.9
               Max.
                      :4.4
                             Max.
                                    :6.9
                                           Max.
                                                  :2.5
```

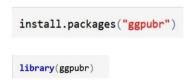
sapply() function

It's also possible to use the function **sapply**() to apply a particular function over a list or vector. For instance, we can use it to compute for each column in a data frame, the mean, sd, var, min, quantile, ...

```
> # Compute the mean of each column
> sapply(my_data[, -5], mean)
Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length
                                          Petal.Width
    5.843333
                  3.057333
                               3.758000
                                             1.199333
> # Compute quartiles
> sapply(my_data[, -5], quantile)
     Sepal.Length Sepal.Width Petal.Length Petal.Width
              4.3
                          2.0
                                      1.00
                                                   0.1
25%
              5.1
                          2.8
                                      1.60
                                                   0.3
50%
              5.8
                          3.0
                                      4.35
                                                   1.3
75%
                          3.3
                                      5.10
                                                   1.8
              6.4
100%
              7.9
                          4.4
                                      6.90
                                                   2.5
```

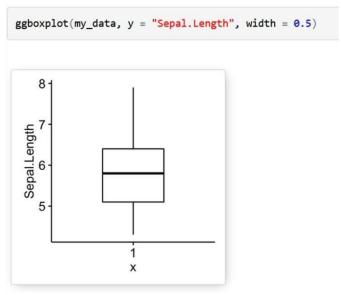
Graphical display of distributions

The R package **ggpubr** will be used to create graphs.

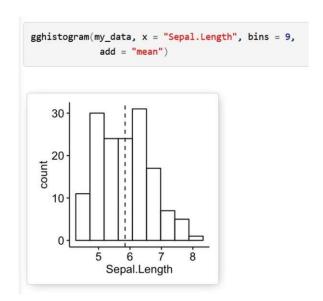


Box Plot





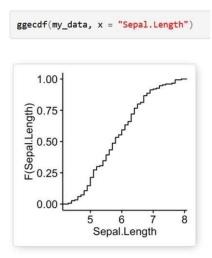
Histogram with mean line



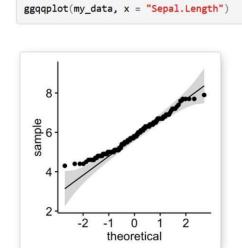
Empirical cumulative distribution function (ECDF)

ECDF is the fraction of data smaller than or equal to x.





QQ plots are used to check whether the data is normally distributed.



Descriptive statistics by groups

To compute summary statistics by groups, the functions $group_by()$ and summarise() [in dplyr package] can be used.

- We want to group the data by *Species* and then:
 - o compute the number of element in each group. R function: **n**()
 - o compute the mean. R function mean()
 - o and the standard deviation. R function **sd**()

Install **ddplyr** as follow:



```
install.packages("dplyr")
```

Descriptive statistics by groups:

To compute summary statistics by groups, the functions **group_by**() and **summarise**() [in **dplyr** package] can be used.

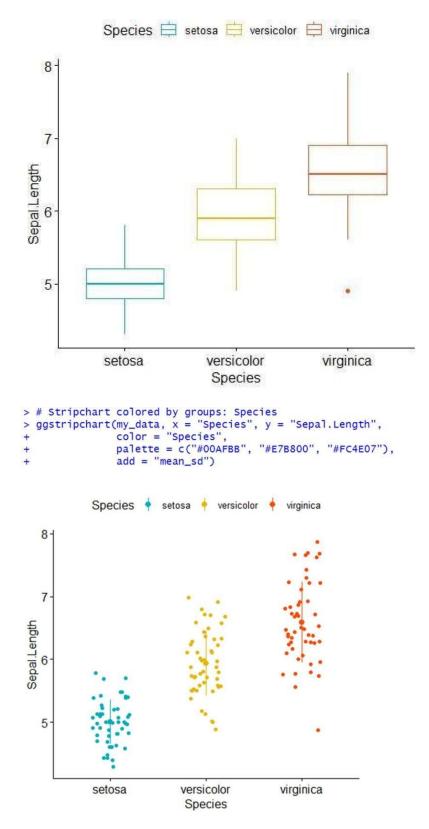
- We want to group the data by Species and then:
 - o compute the number of element in each group. R function: **n**()
 - o compute the mean. R function **mean**()
 - o and the standard deviation. R function sd()

%>% is used to chain the operations.

```
> library(dplyr)
Attaching package: 'dplyr'
The following objects are masked from 'package:stats':
    filter, lag
The following objects are masked from 'package:base':
    intersect, setdiff, setequal, union
> group_by(my_data, Species) %>%
      summarise(
          count = n().
          mean = mean(Sepal.Length, na.rm = TRUE),
          sd = sd(Sepal.Length, na.rm = TRUE)
  A tibble: 3 \times 4
Species count mean
2 versicolor 50 5.94 0.516
3 virginica 50 6.59 0.636
>
Graphics for grouped data:
> # Box plot colored by groups: Species
> ggboxplot(my_data, x = "Species", y = "Sepal.Length",
+ color = "Species",
```

palette = c("#00AFBB", "#E7B800", "#FC4E07"))





Frequency tables



A frequency table (or contingency table) is used to describe categorical variables. It contains the counts at each combination of factor levels.

R function to generate tables: **table**()

For this section we will use the built-in R dataset that contains the distribution of hair and eye color by sex of 592 students:

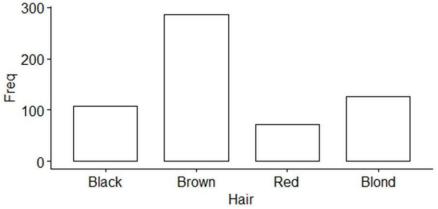
```
> # Hair/eye color data
> df <- as.data.frame(HairEyeColor)
> hair_eye_col <- df[rep(row.names(df), df$Freq), 1:3]
> rownames(hair_eye_col) <- 1:nrow(hair_eye_col)
> head(hair_eye_col)
    Hair Eye Sex
1 Black Brown Male
2 Black Brown Male
3 Black Brown Male
4 Black Brown Male
5 Black Brown Male
6 Black Brown Male
6 Black Brown Male
```

Simple frequency distribution: one categorical variable

Table of counts

```
> # hair/eye variables
> Hair <- hair_eye_col$Hair
> Eye <- hair_eye_col$Eye
> # Frequency distribution of hair color
> table(Hair)
Hair
Black Brown Red Blond
  108 286
              71 127
> # Frequency distribution of eye color
> table(Eye)
Eye
Brown Blue Hazel Green
  220
       215
             93
Visualization:
> # Visualize using bar plot
> library(ggpubr)
> ggbarplot(df, x = "Hair", y = "Freq")
```





Two-way contingency table: Two categorical variables

```
> hair_eye <- table(Hair , Eye)
> hair_eye
       Eye
        Brown Blue Hazel Green
Hair
 Black
                 20
                       15
                              5
           68
                 84
                       54
                             29
  Brown
          119
  Red
           26
                 17
                       14
                             14
  Blond
            7
                 94
                       10
                             16
```

Multiway tables: More than two categorical variables

• Hair and Eye color distributions by sex using **xtabs**():

```
> xtabs(~Hair + Eye + Sex, data = hair_eye_col)
, , Sex = Male
       Eye
Hair
        Brown Blue Hazel Green
 Black
                       10
           32
                11
                              3
  Brown
           53
                50
                       25
                             15
  Red
           10
                10
                        7
                              8
 Blond
                30
, , Sex = Female
       Eye
Hair
        Brown Blue Hazel Green
 Black
           36
                 9
                       5
                              2
  Brown
           66
                34
                       29
                             14
                 7
                        7
  Red
           16
  Blond
                64
```

You can also use the function **ftable**() [for flat contingency tables]. It returns a cleaner looking output compared to xtabs() when you have more than two variables:



```
> ftable(Sex + Hair ~ Eye, data = hair_eye_col)
            Male
                                   Female.
      sex
      Hair Black Brown Red Blond Black Brown Red Blond
Eye
Brown
               32
                     53
                         10
                                3
                                       36
                                             66
                                                 16
                                        9
                                                  7
                                                        64
Blue
              11
                     50
                         10
                               30
                                             34
                                             29
                     25
                          7
                                5
                                                  7
                                                         5
Hazel
              10
                                        5
                          7
               3
                     15
                                8
                                        2
                                             14
                                                         8
Green
```

Compute table margins and relative frequency

Table margins correspond to the sums of counts along rows or columns of the table.

```
> # Margin of rows
> margin.table(hair_eye, 1)
Hair
Black Brown
              Red Blond
  108
        286
               71
                    127
> # Margin of columns
> margin.table(hair_eye, 2)
Eye
Brown
       Blue Hazel Green
  220
        215
               93
                      64
```

Relative frequencies express table entries as proportions of table margins (i.e., row or column totals).

```
> # Frequencies relative to row total
> prop.table(hair_eye, 1)
       Eye
Hair
             Brown
                         Blue
                                   Hazel
 Black 0.62962963 0.18518519 0.13888889 0.04629630
 Brown 0.41608392 0.29370629 0.18881119 0.10139860
        0.36619718 0.23943662 0.19718310 0.19718310
 Blond 0.05511811 0.74015748 0.07874016 0.12598425
> # Table of percentages
> round(prop.table(hair_eye, 1), 2)*100
       Eye
Hair
        Brown Blue Hazel Green
 Black
           63
                19
                      14
                             5
                29
                      19
 Brown
           42
                            10
           37
                24
                      20
                            20
 Red
 Blond
           6
                74
                       8
                            13
> # Table of percentages
> round(prop.table(hair_eye, 1), 4)*100
       Eye
        Brown Blue Hazel Green
 Black 62.96 18.52 13.89 4.63
 Brown 41.61 29.37 18.88 10.14
        36.62 23.94 19.72 19.72
 Blond 5.51 74.02 7.87 12.60
```



EXECUTION:

CODE:

my_data <- trees print(my_data) nrow(my_data) ncol(my_data) typeof(my_data)

#Mean mean(my_data\$Girth)

#Median median(my_data\$Height)

#Mode install.packages("modeest") require(modeest) mfv(my_data\$Volume)

#Min min(my_data\$Height)

#Max max(my_data\$Height)

#Range range(my_data\$Girth)

#Quantiles quantile(my_data\$Girth) quantile(my_data\$Height) quantile(my_data\$Volume)

#Interquartile Range IQR(my_data\$Girth)

#Variance & Standard Deviation var(my_data\$Height) sd(my_data\$Volume)

#Median Absolute Deviation mad(my_data\$Girth)

#Summary summary(my_data\$Volume) summary(my_data, digits = 2)



```
#Sapply
sapply(my_data[, -5], mean)
sapply(my_data[, -1], quantile)
#Box Plot
ggboxplot(my_data, y = "Girth", width = 0.5)
#Histogram
gghistogram(my\_data, x = "Height", bins = 12, add = "mean")
#ecdf
ggecdf(my_data, x = "Volume")
#qqplot
ggqqplot(my_data, x = "Height")
#Descriptive Statistics
dplyr::group_by(my_data, Girth) %>%
dplyr::summarise(
  count = n(),
  mean = mean(Girth, na.rm = TRUE),
  sd = sd(Girth, na.rm = TRUE)
 )
#Box Plot colored by groups
my_data1 <- iris
print(my data1)
ggstripchart(my_data1, x = "Species", y = "Sepal.Length", color = "Species",
      palette = c("#00AFBB", "#E7B800", "#FC4E07"))
#Frequency
my data2 <- HairEyeColor
df <- as.data.frame(HairEyeColor)</pre>
hair eye col <- df[rep(row.names(df), df$Freq), 1:4]
rownames(hair_eye_col) <- 1:nrow(hair_eye_col)</pre>
head(hair_eye_col)
#Table of counts of categorical variables
Hair <- table(hair_eye_col$Hair)</pre>
Eye <- table(hair_eye_col$Eye)
print(Hair)
print(Eye)
#Visualization of the the counts
ggbarplot(df, x = "Hair", y = "Freq")
#Two-way contingency table
```



```
hair_eye <- table(hair_eye_col$Hair, hair_eye_col$Eye)
hair_eye

#Multiway Tables
xtabs(~Hair + Eye + Sex, data = hair_eye_col)

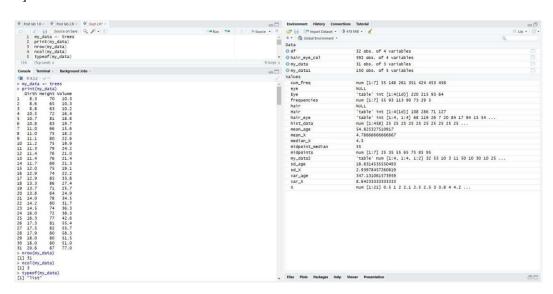
#Flat Contingency Table
ftable(Sex + Hair ~ Eye, data = hair_eye_col)

#Table Margins
margin.table(hair_eye, 1)
margin.table(hair_eye, 2)

#Relative Frequencies of row total
prop.table(hair_eye, 1)

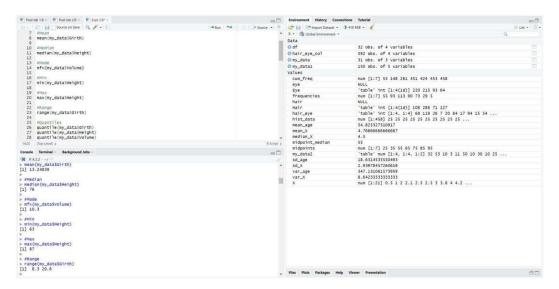
#Table of Percentages
hair_eye <- table(hair_eye_col$Hair, hair_eye_col$Eye)
round(prop.table(hair_eye, 1), 2)*100
round(prop.table(hair_eye, 2), 4)*100
```

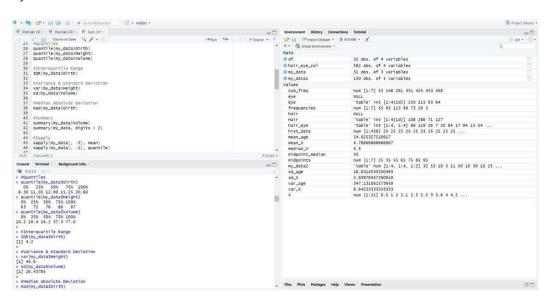
EXECUTION SCREENSHOTS:





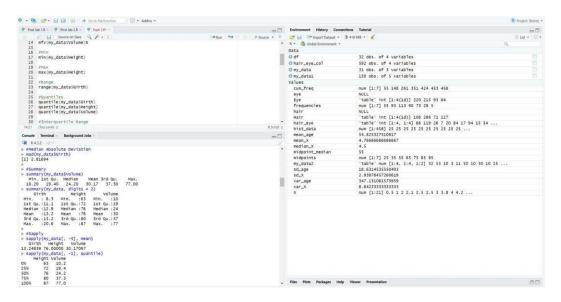
2]

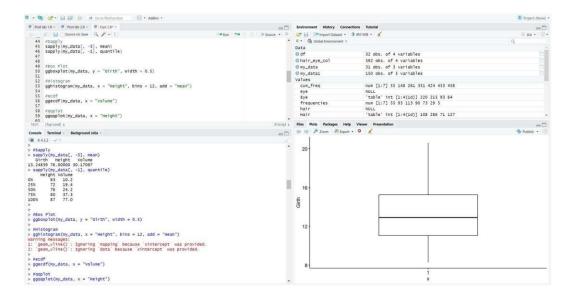






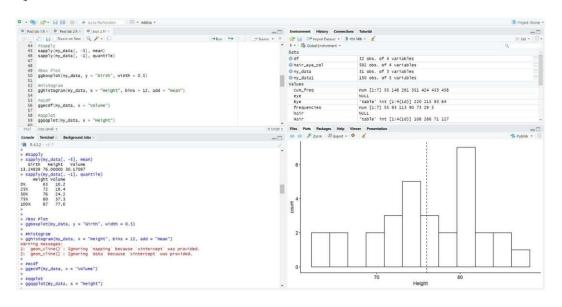
4]

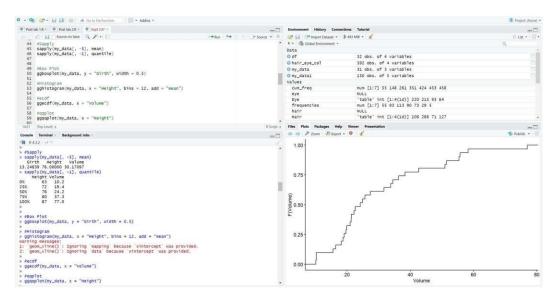






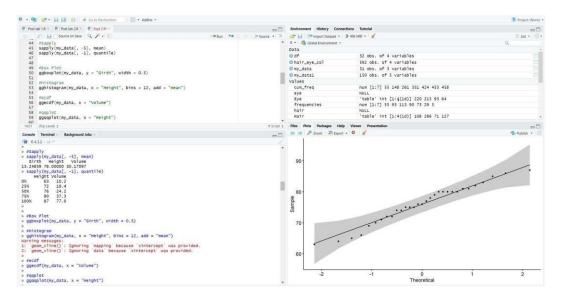
6]



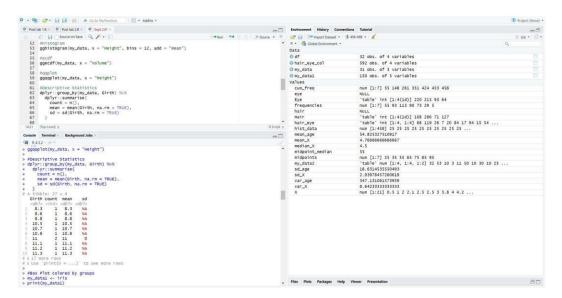




8]

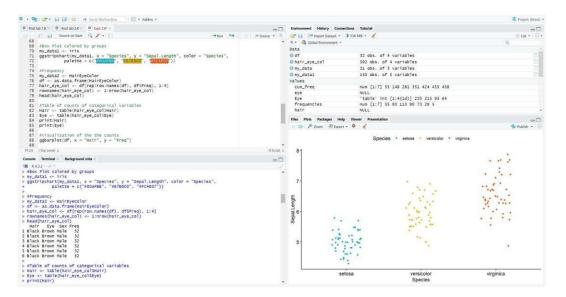


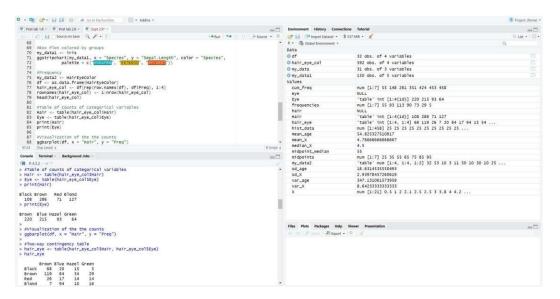
91





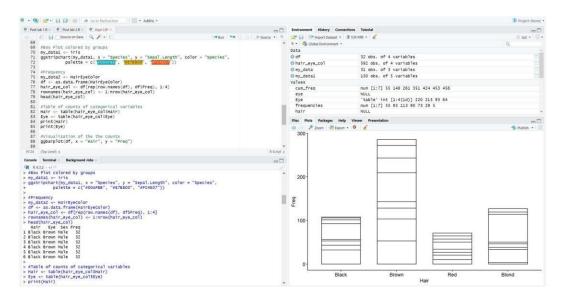
10]

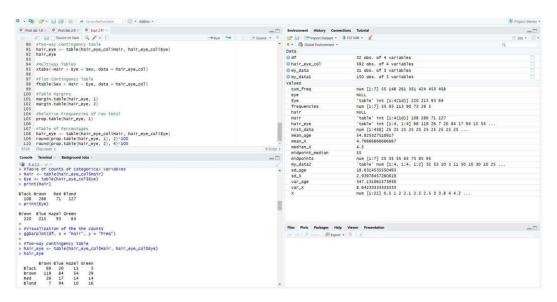






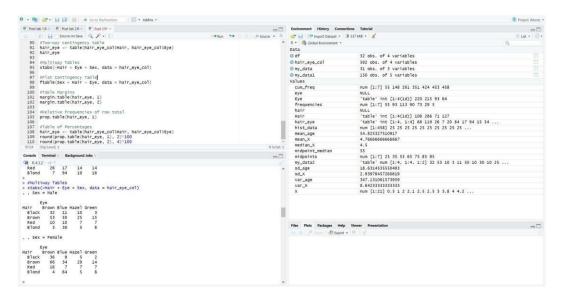
12]

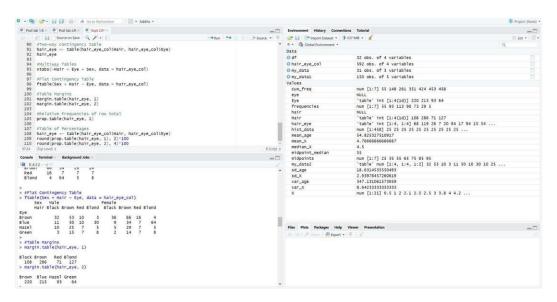






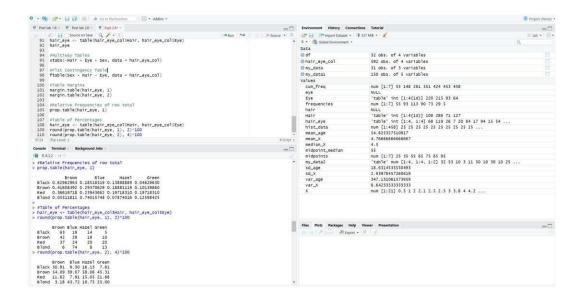
14]







16]



<u>Conclusion:</u> Applying descriptive statistics in Applied Data Science reveals insights into central tendencies, variabilities, and distributions. It forms a foundational step for informed decision-making and strategic data-driven approaches.



Post Lab questions

Write R commands for the following

- **1.** In an article in American Journal of Pathology, Pitts et al (2001) have taken the measurements on diameters in centimetres of the neoplasm removed from the breasts of 20 subjects with pure sarcoma. Following is the dataset: 0.5, 1, 2, 2.1, 2.5, 2.5, 3.0, 3.8, 4.0, 4.2, 4.5, 5.0, 5.0, 5.0, 5.0, 6.0, 6.5, 7.0, 8.0, 9.5, 13.0
 - a. Enter the dataset using scan function and store in the variable X
 - b. Find the mean, median, variance and standard deviation of x
 - c. Create the boxplot

SOLUTION:

CODE:

```
# a. Enter the dataset using scan function and store in the variable X X <- scan(text = "0.5 1 2 2.1 2.5 2.5 3.0 3.8 4.0 4.2 4.5 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 6.0 6.5 7.0 8.0 9.5 13.0")
```

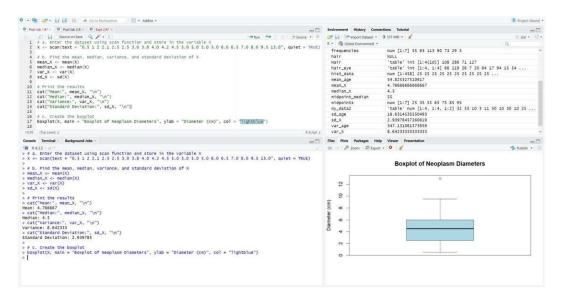
```
# b. Find the mean, median, variance, and standard deviation of X mean_X \leftarrow mean(X) median_X \leftarrow median(X) var_X \leftarrow var(X) sd_X \leftarrow sd(X)
```

```
# Print the results
cat("Mean:", mean_X, "\n")
cat("Median:", median_X, "\n")
cat("Variance:", var_X, "\n")
cat("Standard Deviation:", sd_X, "\n")
```

```
# c. Create the boxplot boxplot(X, main = "Boxplot of Neoplasm Diameters", ylab = "Diameter (cm)", col = "lightblue")
```



EXECUTION SCREENSHOT:





2. American Journal of psychiatry conducted a study of the presence of significant psychiatric illness in heterozygous carriers of the gene for the Wolfram syndrome. Among the subject studied were 543 blood relatives of patients of Wolfram syndrome. Following is the frequency distribution of ages of these blood relatives:

			55				
Number(Frequency)	55	93	113	90	73	29	5

- a. Enter the dataset using data.frame command
- b. Add a column cumulative frequency
- c. Add a column of relative frequency (frequency/total frequency)
- d. Add a column of relative cumulative frequency (cumulative frequency/total frequency)
- e. Plot cumulative frequency vs mid points

SOLUTION:

CODE:

Given frequency distribution midpoints <- c(25, 35, 55, 65, 75, 85, 95) frequencies <- c(55, 93, 113, 90, 73, 29, 5)

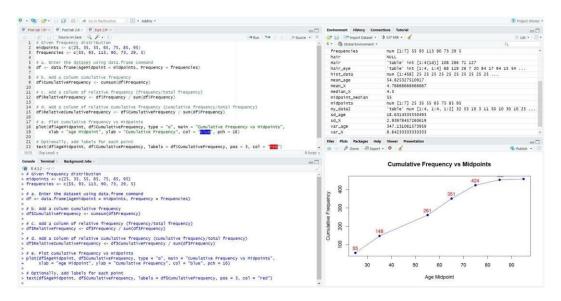
- # a. Enter the dataset using data.frame command df <- data.frame(AgeMidpoint = midpoints, Frequency = frequencies)
- # b. Add a column cumulative frequency df\$CumulativeFrequency <- cumsum(df\$Frequency)
- # c. Add a column of relative frequency (frequency/total frequency) df\$RelativeFrequency <- df\$Frequency / sum(df\$Frequency)
- # d. Add a column of relative cumulative frequency (cumulative frequency/total frequency) df\$RelativeCumulativeFrequency <- df\$CumulativeFrequency / sum(df\$Frequency)
- # e. Plot cumulative frequency vs midpoints plot(df\$AgeMidpoint, df\$CumulativeFrequency, type = "o", main = "Cumulative Frequency vs Midpoints",

xlab = "Age Midpoint", ylab = "Cumulative Frequency", col = "blue", pch = 16)

Optionally, add labels for each point text(df\$AgeMidpoint, df\$CumulativeFrequency, labels = df\$CumulativeFrequency, pos = 3, col = "red")



EXECUTION SCREENSHOT:



3. Critically assess the limitations of using only measures of central tendency in data analysis.

Limitations of Using Only Measures of Central Tendency:

Central tendency measures (mean, median, mode) have limitations:

Ignoring Distribution Shape: They don't provide information about the shape of the distribution. Two datasets with the same mean might have very different distributions.

Sensitivity to Outliers: The mean is sensitive to extreme values (outliers), and a few outliers can significantly distort the mean. Median is less affected, but still may not be entirely robust.

Not Descriptive of Spread: Central tendency measures don't give insights into the spread or dispersion of data. Two datasets with the same mean can have different levels of variability.

Applicability to Different Distributions: Different central tendency measures might be more suitable for different types of data (e.g., median for skewed data, mean for symmetric).



4. Compare and contrast the different measures of variability, with the focus on when one measure might be more informative than the other.

Comparison of Measures of Variability:

Measures of variability (range, variance, standard deviation, interquartile range) have distinct characteristics:

Range: Simple but sensitive to outliers; it doesn't capture the overall spread effectively.

Variance and Standard Deviation: Provide a more nuanced understanding of the spread around the mean; sensitive to outliers.

Interquartile Range (IQR): Captures the spread of the middle 50% of the data, less sensitive to extreme values.

When to Use One Measure Over Another:

Use Range for Simplicity: When simplicity is crucial and extreme values are not a significant concern.

Use Variance/SD for Precision: When a more precise measure of spread is needed and outliers need to be considered.

Use IQR for Robustness: When you want a measure that is less sensitive to extreme values.



5. Imagine you are presented with a dataset from a research study. Discuss how applying descriptive statistics techniques could aid in understanding the key features and trends in the data. Take any real life examples to aid your analysis.

Descriptive Statistics Techniques in Understanding Data:

Example Scenario: Examining Exam Scores

Mean: Provides an average score, indicating the overall performance.

Median: Shows the middle point of the scores, helpful if there are extreme scores.

Mode: Identifies the most common score.

Variance/SD: Indicates the spread of scores around the mean.

Histogram/Boxplot: Visual representations to grasp the distribution shape and detect outliers.

Understanding these descriptive statistics aids in identifying trends, variations, and potential outliers, helping researchers make informed decisions and interpretations.

Real-Life Example: Examining Income Distribution

Mean Income: Gives an average income level.

Median Income: Provides the income level at the middle point.

Mode Income: Shows the most frequently occurring income range.

Standard Deviation: Indicates the variation in income levels.

Boxplot: Visualizes the income distribution and identifies potential outliers.

Analysing these descriptive statistics helps policymakers understand income disparities, target interventions, and make evidence-based decisions.