1. Difference between descriptive statistics and Inferential?

Descriptive Statistics describes the characteristics of a data set. It is a simple technique to describe, show and summarize data in a meaningful way. You simply choose a group you're interested in, record data about the group, and then use summary statistics and graphs to describe the group.

Inferential statistics involves drawing conclusions about populations by examining samples.

	Descriptive Statistics	Inferential Statistics
Purpose	Describe and summarize data	Make inferences and draw conclusions about a population based on sample data
Data Analysis	Analyzes and interprets the characteristics of a dataset	Uses sample data to make generalizations or predictions about a larger population
Population vs Sample	Focuses on the entire population or dataset	Focuses on a subset of the population (sample) to draw conclusions about the entire population
Measurements	Provides measures of central tendency and dispersion	Estimates parameters, tests hypotheses, and determines the level of confidence or significance in the results
Examples	Mean, median, mode, standard deviation, range, frequency tables	Hypothesis testing, confidence intervals, regression analysis, ANOVA (analysis of variance), chi-square tests, t-tests, etc.

1. Sample vs Population

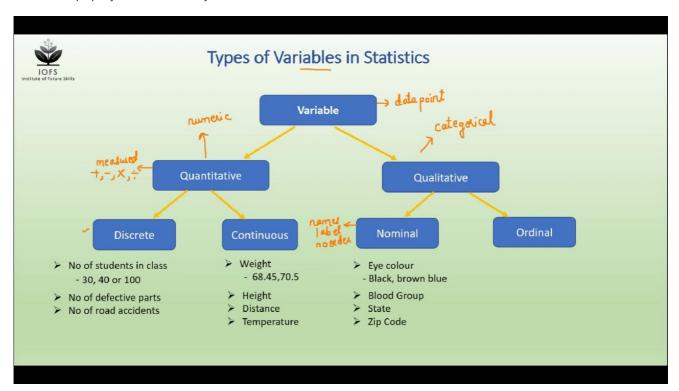
POPULATION The measurable quality is called a parameter. The population is a complete set. SAMPLE The measurable quality is called a statistic. The sample is a subset of the population.

- Reports are a true representation of opinion.
- It contains all members of a specified group.

- Reports have a margin of error and confidence interval.
- It is a subset that represents the entire population.
 - QuestionPro

Variable in stat

Variable is a property that can take many values



Discrete only contain whole number (not decimal).

Measure of Central Tendency - Maen, Median and mode

Central tendency is measure of central of distribution of data.

Population Mean	Sample Mean
$\mu = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i}{N}$	$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$
N = number of items in	n = number of items in
the population	the sample

Mean

summation xi is nothing the summation or addition of total data/number of data.

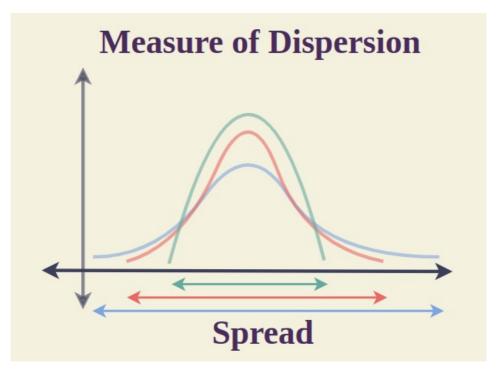
```
In [2]: print(mean)
          4.125
          4.125 is mean, but if we add some big number here:
 In [3]: # Example; 1,2,2,3,6,8,9,2,100
          mean=(1+2+2+3+6+9+8+2+100)/9
 In [4]: print(mean)
          14.7777777777779
          See the difference in mean with addition of one num, so it may not giving accurate central distribution of number. In such case, we say
          100 as outliner, in such case we use median.
 In [6]: l=(1,2,2,3,6,8,9,2,100)
          L=tuple(sorted(l))
 In [7]: print(L)
          (1, 2, 2, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 100)
          median=3 is median.But, what if total number is even in count?
 In [8]: L=(1,2,2,2,3,6,8,9,100,110)
          median=(3+6)/2
 In [9]:
          print(median)
In [10]:
          4.5
          see there is not such big difference as in mean so median is mainly used when mean cannot decide central distribution of data due to
          outliners.
          Mode? most occurance of frequency
          Example: mainly used in categorical, suppose one column of table is gender and there is M,F,M,F,F,F,-,M one value is missing, in such
          case we use mode, largest repeating frequency is Female so we provide F to missing values.
In [11]: #Numerically, in above exaple 2 is mode.
          Lets see in pythonic way:
In [19]:
          import statistics
          import numpy as np
In [13]: l=(1,2,2,3,6,8,9,2,100)
          mean_a=np.mean(l)
In [15]:
          print(mean)
          14.7777777777779
In [16]:
          median_a=np.median(l)
          print(median)
          4.5
In [21]:
          mode a=statistics.mode(l)
```

Measure of dispersion - Variance and Statndar Deviation

print(mode_a)

2

Measure of dispersion talk about spread of data.



Population Variance Sample Variance $\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \mu)^2}{N}$ $s^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \overline{x})^2}{1}$ σ^2 = population variance s^2 = sample variance x_i = value of i^{th} element x_i = value of i^{th} element \overline{x} = sample mean μ = population mean n =sample size N = population size

Note: n-1 is called bessel correction or degree of freedom

Example of variance calculation:

Example 2: Find the sample variance of the data set {2, 6, 12, 15}

Solution: Variance is a measure of dispersion given by

$$\sum_{1}^{n} \frac{(X_{i}-\overline{X})^{2}}{n-1}$$

$$n = 4$$

$$\overline{X} = (2+6+12+15) / 4 = 8.75$$

$$Variance = \frac{(2-8.75)^{2}+(6-8.75)^{2}+(12-8.75)^{2}+(15-8.75)^{2}}{3} = 34.25$$

Answer: Variance = 34.25

Actaully what is 34.25? - It is spreadness of data

```
In [5]: variance_of_x=np.var(x)
    print(variance_of_x)
```

25.6875

Why answer is different, because python is calculating population variance automatically, lets calculate sample variance using degree of freedom.

```
In [6]: variance_of_x_sample=np.var(x, ddof=1)
    print(variance_of_x_sample)
```

34 25

Okay, but when we use variance in real example in data science. Suppose we are calculating variance of two cricket player of this worldcup

```
In [7]: #lets look babar azam and virat kholi data of worldcup 2023. later in hardcore python, we will do web scrapping
#just an example
import random
BA=[random.randint(1, 100) for _ in range(5)]
VK=[random.randint(1,150) for _ in range(5)]
```

```
In [8]: print(BA)
  print(VK)
```

[41, 92, 83, 36, 97] [11, 43, 113, 34, 142]

In [9]: #lets calculate variance to calculate consitent player, like not good or bad player but who is scoring similar
#in all 5 games
BA_variance=np.var(BA)
VK_variance=np.var(VK)

```
In [10]: print(BA_variance)
    print(VK_variance)
```

675.76 2505.84

In [11]: #low variance means low spread and near to mean, it shows BA is more consistent player.

Standar Deviation

Formula for standard deviation=root of variance.

```
In [12]: #previous above example - 2,6,12,15
  variance_of_x_sample=np.var(x, ddof=1)
  print(variance_of_x_sample)
```

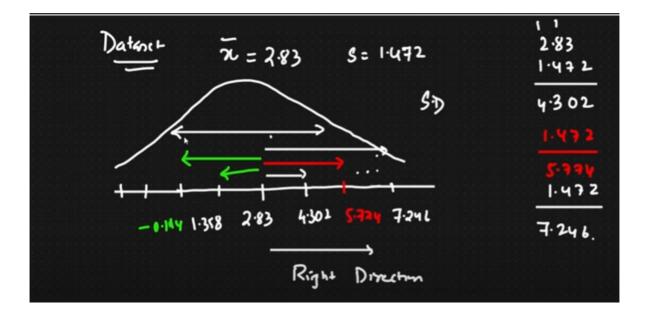
34.25

```
In [16]: #lets find SD
    #lets check manually what is square root of 34.25 = 5.85
# pythonic way
sd=np.std(x,ddof=1)
print(sd)
```

5.852349955359813

Always remember for sample, we have to use degree of freedom but not for population

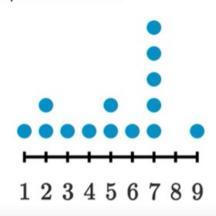
How figure is related to SD and variance?



Suppose 2.83 is mean then 1.472 is SD then on right side we add mean + SD = 4.302 (First SD right side), we deduct for left side

PERCENTILE AND QUARTILE

The dot plot shows the number of hours of daily driving time for 14 school bus drivers. Each dot represents a driver.



Daily driving time (hours)

In [1]: #Now find percentile of driver who drive 6 hour a day?

In [2]: #manual formula
percentile= (value below 6/n)*100
percentile=(5/9)*100
print(percentile)

55.55555555556

It means driver driver 6 hr daily is better than 55% of total driver driving

Quartile

25 percentile= Q1 (first quartile) 75 percentile = Q3 (Third quartile

Quartile is mainly used to find outliner.

CONSTRUCT BOXPLOT AND OUTLINER \dots

Five Number Summary

In [36]: data=[12,15,17,19,20,22,23,24,25,28,30,32,35,40,45,50,60,70,80,100]
len(data)

Out[36]: 2

1. Calculate Q1 (1st quartile) and Q3 (3rd quartile) from the dataset.

0. Calculate IOD: IOP = O2

```
4. Calculate UF: UF = Q3 + 1.5 	imes IQR
In [37]: import numpy as np
In [38]: q1 = np.percentile(data, 25)
q3 = np.percentile(data, 75)
          k=1.5
          # Calculate the interquartile range (IQR)
          iqr = q3 - q1
          # Calculate the lower fence (LF) and upper fence (UF)
          lf = q1 - k * iqr

uf = q3 + k * iqr
In [39]: print(iqr)
          print(lf)
          print(uf)
          24.75
          -15.625
          83.375
In [40]: #so for above data 100 is outlier
In [41]: #If want to see visually, lets import seaborn
          import seaborn as sns
          sns.boxplot(data)
Out[41]: <Axes: >
           100
```

 \angle . Calculate IQR. $I \otimes II - \otimes I - \otimes I$

3. Calculate LF: LF = Q1 - 1.5 imes IQR

Normal Distribution/Gussian Distribution And Its Empirical Formula

Empirical Rule or 3 sigma rule (Properties of gussian)

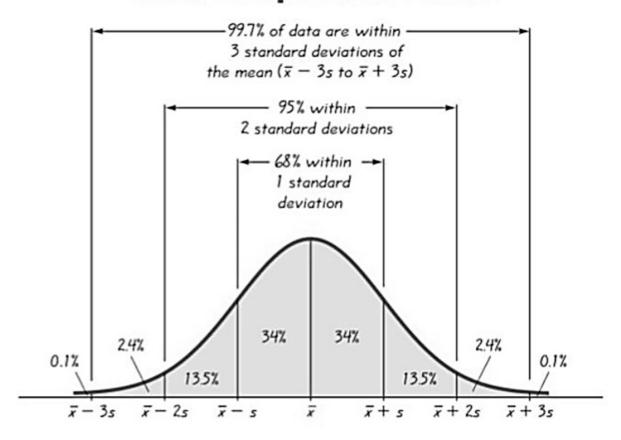
80

60

40

20

The Empirical Rule



Note; above figure is symmetrical figure thatswhy empirical rule will effectively apply.

CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM

Suppose we have left or right sekewed curve, but now we take or increase sample size, n>30 then graph will move towards normal distribution

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