

# Introduction to Machine Learning and Data Mining

## Statistics: the basics

assoc. prof. Branko Kavšek

# Outline

**Basic definitions**

**Distributions**

**Probability**

**Patterns**

# About statistics ...

## Definition:

1. Statistics is a branch of mathematics dealing with data collection, organization, analysis, interpretation and presentation.  
*(from: Wikipedia)*
2. Statistics is a form of mathematical analysis that uses quantified models, representations and synopses for a given set of experimental data or real-life studies.  
*(from: Investopedia)*

# “Statistical” statements – examples

- The most violent earthquake measured 9.2 on Richter scale.
- The probability for murderers of being men is 10 times higher than for women.
- Every eighth South-african is infected with the HIV virus.
- In the year 2022 there will be 15 people older than 64 for each newborn.

# Thus, statistics ...

- ... uses mathematical calculations,
- ... deals with numbers.

## But, is also important ...

- ... how we choose those numbers,
- ... how we interpret the results of calculations.

**Let's take a look at some examples →**

# Example no. 1

## **“Statistical” finding/result:**

Due to a new commercial campaign in May the sales of ice cream XYZ went up 30% in the next 3 months.

**The sales of ice cream in the summer months (June, July, August) goes up regardless of the commercial.**

**“Historical effect”** – interpreting the result depending on one variable when in reality it is dependent on another (variable) – in our case *time*.

## Example no. 2

### **“Statistical” finding/result:**

The highest the number of churches in a city, the highest the criminal rate. Hence: churches lead to criminal.

**Both the increase in the number of churches and criminal rate can be bound to the increase in a city's population – bigger city, more churches, more criminal.**

**“Third variable effect” – we wrongly assume that there is a connection between two variables where in fact there is a third variable affecting both variables.**

## Example no. 3

### **“Statistical” finding/result:**

This year there is 75% more interracial marriages than 25 years ago.

**What if 25 years ago there were 1% interracial marriages, this year 1.75% (75% more). Does this really mean a so drastic increase? What about the fluctuations in the years in between?**

**Lack of data** – we simply do not have enough data, to make sound conclusions.



# Why is it important to know statistics?

- We hear “statistical” statements, similar to those on previous slides, every day
  - We can believe to some
  - But, most of them can be deceiving
- The knowing of statistics enables us to differentiate between truth and deception
- **Statistics is an introduction to Data Mining**

# Basic terminology and definitions

- Descriptive statistics
- Inferential statistics
  - sampling
- Variables/attributes
- Percentiles
- Measuring
  - How to choose a measure?
  - Data collection basics
- (probabilistic) Distributions
- Linear transformations

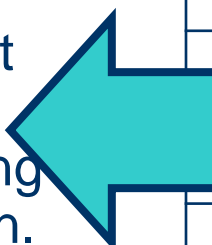
# Descriptive statistics

- Describe the data at hand
- Do not “make conclusions” based on this data

- **Descriptive statistic:**

Interesting, Americans are paying more for people that take care of their teeth and feet than for those protecting and educating their children.  
(is Slovenia different?)

- **Example** – table representing the average annual income of people in the US by occupation for the year 1999:



\$ 112,760	pediatritians
\$ 106,130	dentists
\$ 100,090	podiatritians
\$ 76,140	fizicists
\$ 53,410	architects
\$ 49,720	psychologists
\$ 47,910	hosteses
\$ 39,560	elementary school teachers
\$ 38,710	policemen
\$ 18,980	florists

# Inferential statistics

- From properties of a **sample** we try to draw conclusions about the whole **population**
  - How to choose a “good” / random sample?
  - What is a sample's bias?

# How to choose a sample? sampling

## Rule:

The sample has to be **representative** = has to represent the properties of the population + beware of the sample **size**!

sample **bias**



- Types of sampling:
  - (simple) random sampling
  - advanced samplings:
    - random assignment
    - stratified sampling

# Sampling – examples (1)

- Random sampling:
  - each individual from the population has to have **the same probability** of being chosen (in the sample)
  - The selection of one individual must not affect the selection of the others = **independence**

## Example:

Among the Slovenian population, aged 19 to 35 years we survey all those individuals whose last name begins with the letter “Z”, but just every hundredth such person.

**What is the problem?**

# Sampling – examples (2)

- The size of a sample:
  - Small samples are often **non-representative** = they do not represent the properties of the entire population

## Example:

We infer the probabilities of a fair coin toss "coming out" head or tails from tossing such a coin 10 times.

**What is the problem?**

# Sampling – examples (3)

- Random assignment:
  - there is no actual population; we deal with a **hypothetical population**
  - the sample from this hypothetical population is randomly split in 2 or more groups = the individuals from the sample get **randomly assigned** to groups

## Example:

When testing the effect of a drug, we split a sample of people into 2 groups. To one group (the controls) we give the *placebo*, to the other the actual drug. We then observe whether there are differences between the two groups.

## What could be the problem?



# Sampling – examples (4)

- Stratified sampling:
  - We sample in layers (**stratus** = **layer**) based on some property of the population

## Example:

There are 1000 balls in the basket (population), **70%** are **red**, **20%** are **green** and **10%** are **blue**. The property used for stratification is thus the **color** of the balls.

**How to sample this population to get a representative sample?**

# Variables / attributes

- Also: properties, attributes, classes, ...
- They can be:
  - independent, dependent
  - qualitative, quantitative
  - discrete, continuous
- More – a bit later in "measuring things"

# Percentiles

- What is a **percentile**? – example:

Say, you did a test of motoric abilities and you scored 35 points out of a total of 50 points. What does this tell you about your motoric abilities? What are your motoric abilities compared to other participants on the testing?

A more informative indicator would be: “what percentage of people is (motorically) less capable than me?” → this percentage is called a **percentile**.

If your score is in the **65<sup>th</sup> percentile**, this means that **65%** of all people taking the test scored **worse** than you. In your case the **65<sup>th</sup> percentile = 35**.

# 3 definitions of a percentile

## Definition 1:

The  $N^{\text{th}}$  percentile is the lowest value that is strictly greater than  $N\%$  of all values.

## Definition 2:

The  $N^{\text{th}}$  percentile is the lowest value that is greater than or equal to  $N\%$  of all values.

## Definition 3:

A *weighted average* of the percentiles from the first two definitions (the most accurate definition that we are going to use)

# Percentile definitions – example

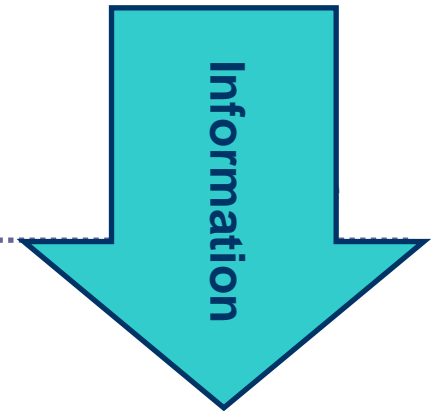
Value	Rank
3	1
5	2
7	3
8	4
9	5
11	6
13	7
15	8

25<sup>th</sup> percentile = 5.5

Definition 3

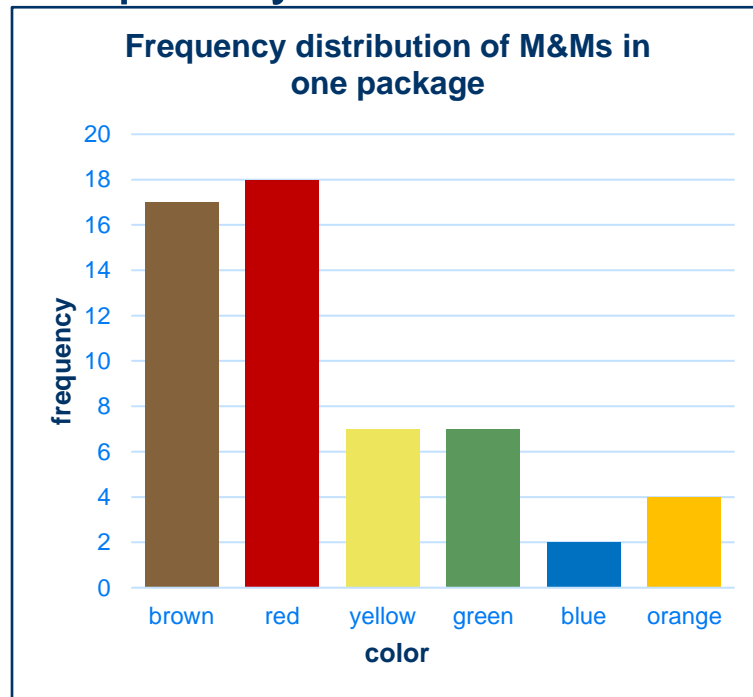
# How do we measure things?

- In science data often come from measurements
- How can we measure?
  - Nominal (descriptive) values
  - Ordinal (ordered) values
  - Interval values
  - Ratio values
- Transformations between different types  
= basis of data collection / **errors**

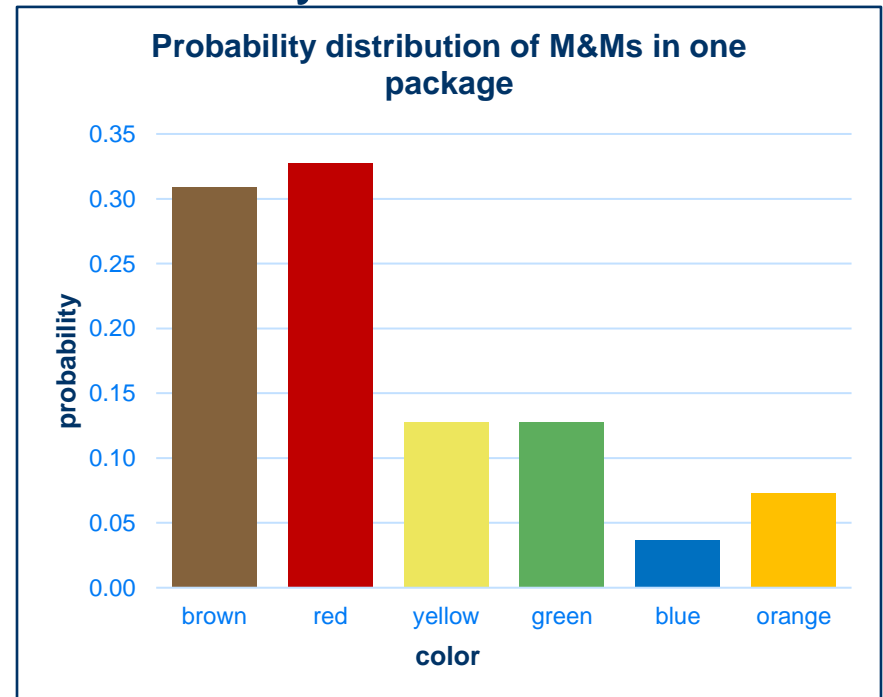


# Distributions of discrete variables

## Frequency distribution:

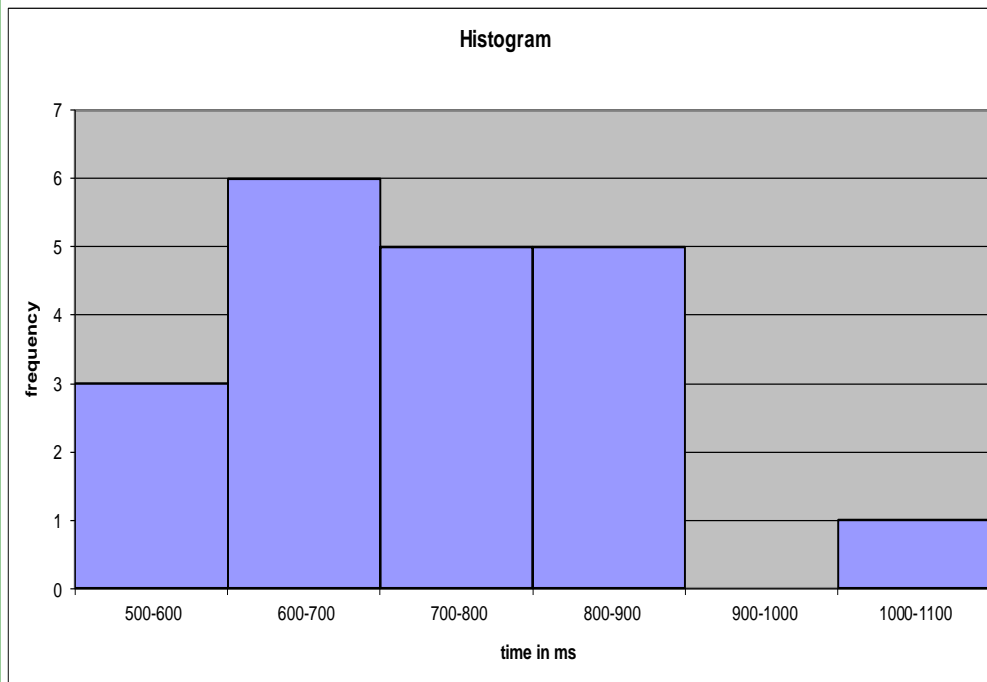


## Probability distribution:



# Distributions of continuous variables

- Grouped frequency distribution
  - graphic → histogram

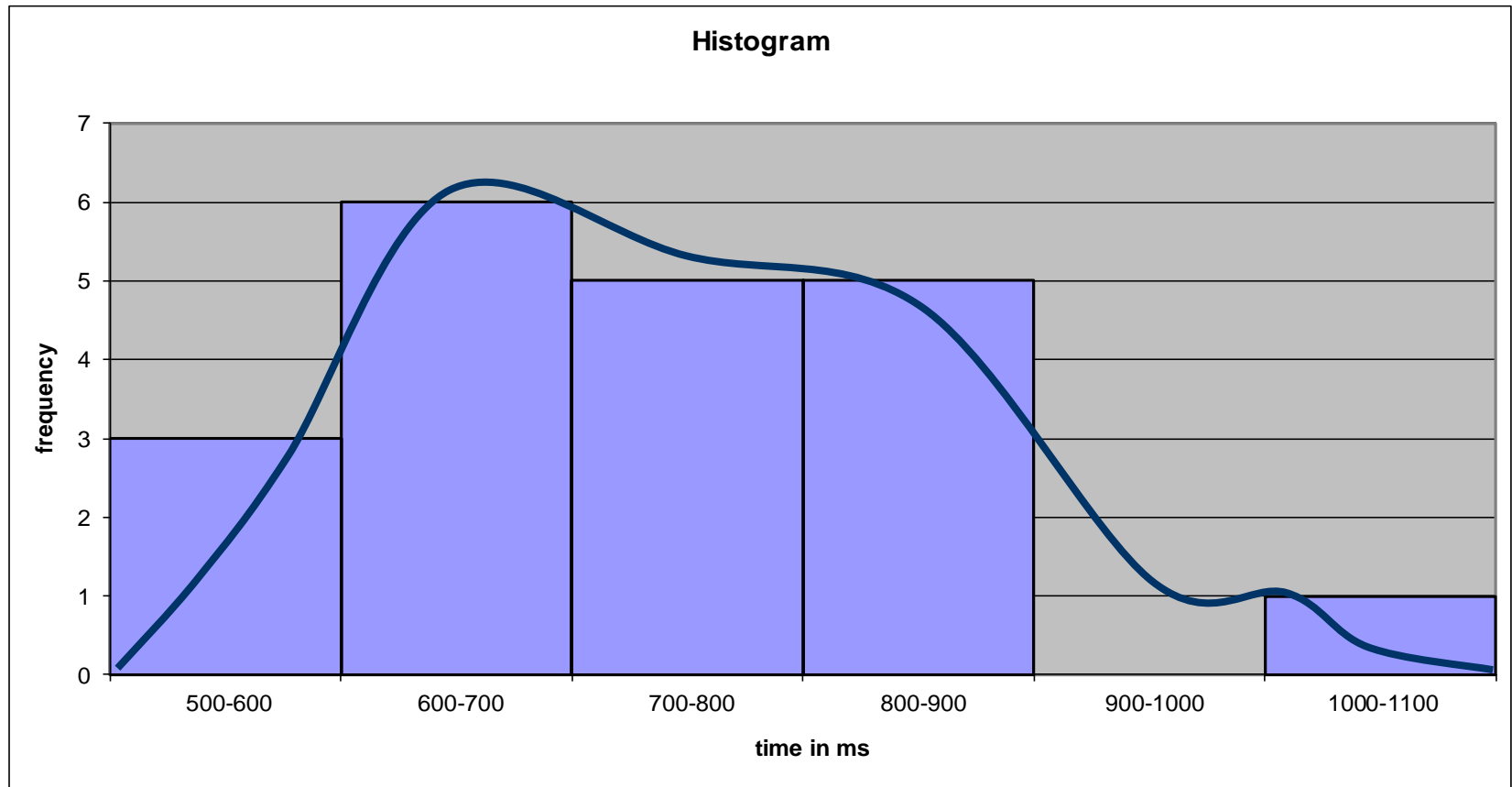


Interval	Frequency
500-600	3
600-700	6
700-800	5
800-900	5
900-1000	0
1000-1100	1

Time in ms
568
577
581
640
641
645
657
673
696
703
720
728
729
777
808
824
825
865
875
1007



# Probability density



# Linear transformations

- **Transformation** = to change/transform
- **Linear** = using only multiplication /w constant and/or adding a constant
  - if “original” and transformed values are depicted as a scatter plot, we “observe” a linear function.
- **Examples:**
  - Transformation of inches into centimeters ( $x \cdot 2.54$ )
  - Transformation from  $^{\circ}\text{F}$  into  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $x \cdot 9/5 + 32$ )