

Attrition in an organization

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Attrition in an Organization || Why Workers Quit? Employee Attritions



An Interesting Quote I Found:

" Managers tend to blame their turnover problems on everything under the sun, while ignoring the crux of the matter: people don't leave jobs; they leave managers." by Travis Bradberry

What is my aim with this project?

Recommendations: What recommendations will I give the
organization based on the analysis made with this data. How can
the organization reduce the rate of attrition inside the company? In
my opinion, this is the most important part of the analysis because
it gives us a better understanding of what the organization could
do to avoid the negative effect of attrition.

So, what is Attrition and what determines it? **Attrition:** It is basically the turnover rate of employees inside an organization.

This can happen for many reasons:

- Employees looking for better opportunities.
- A negative working environment.
- Bad management
- Sickness of an employee (or even death)
- Excessive working hours

Structure of the Project:

This project will be structured in the following way:

- **Questions:** Questions will be asked previous to the visualization to make sure the visualizations shown in this project are insightful.
- **Summary:** I will provide a summary to understand what we got from the visualizations.
- **Recommendations:** What recommendations could be given to the organization to reduce the **attrition rate**.

Table of Contents:

- I. General Information
- a) Summary of our Data:
- b) Converting some integers to category

II. Gender & Attrition Analysis:

- a) Age Distribution by Gender
- b) Attrition analysis by environment satisfaction
- c) Monthly Income by Gender

III.Other analysis:

- a) Mean, median, mode of gender categories
- b) Check gender bias based on salary
- c) Analysis for attrition and job satisfaction
- d) <u>Distribution of Job Satisfaction</u>
- e) Distribution of age
- f) Getting monthly income by gender
- g) Analysing age VS number of employee
- g) Analysing Monthly Income and Job Level

IV. Coefficients and Regression Analysis

- a) Linear regression model
- b) summary of the model
- c) Plotting the fitted regression model
- d) Use regression model for prediction

V. 3D Plots

a) When X1 and X2 are positively correlated

VI. Confidence Intervals:

I. Known Variance

- a) Confidence Intervals for known variance sample
- b) <u>Upper Confidence Intervals for known variance sample</u>
- c) Lower Confidence Intervals for known variance sample

V. Hypothesis testing

a)u=m and u is not equal to m

VII. Conclusion

a) Top Reasons why Employees Leave the Organization

Dataset Source: https://www.kaggle.com

>#Reading the dataset into df variable

- > df<-read.csv("C:\\Akanksha Porwal\\R Programming\\HR-Employee-Attrition.csv")
- > head(df)#for seeing first 5 rows of the data
- > tail(df) #for seeing first 5 rows of the data

For viewing our dataset

> View(df)



Variable's type:

- **Numeric variables**:

- Related to personal information: age, distance_from_home, employee_number (id variable)
- Related to income: hourly_rate, daily_rate, monthly_income, percent_salary_hike
- Related to time in company: years_at_company, years_in_current_role, years_since_last_promotion, years_with_curr_manager, total_working_years
- other: num_companies_worked, standard_hours(to delete), training_times_last_year, employee_count (to delete)
 - **Categorical variables**:
 - **Binary variables**: attrition(target variable),
 gender, over18 (to delete),
 over_time
- **Nominal variables**: department, education_field, job_role, marital_status
 - **Ordinal variables**:
- Ordinal regarding satisfaction and performance : environment_satisfaction, job_satisfaction, relationship_satisfaction, work_life_balance,job_involvement,performance_rating
- Other ordinal: business_travel, education, job_level, stock_option_level

Summary of our Data

Before we get into the deep visualizations, we want to make sure how our data looks like right? This will better help us have a better grasp as to how we should work with our data later throughout the project.

Questions we could Ask Ourselves:

- Columns and Observations: How many columns and observations is there in our dataset?
- Missing data: Are there any missing data in our dataset?
- **Data Type:** The different datatypes we are dealing in this dataset.
- **Distribution of our Data:** Is it right-skewed, left-skewed or symmetric? This might be useful especially if we are implementing any type of statistical analysis or even for modelling.
- Structure of our Data: Some datasets are a bit complex to work with however, the tidy-verse, ggplot2 etc packages are really useful to deal with complex datasets.
- Meaning of our Data: What does our data mean? Most features in this dataset are ordinal variables which are similar to categorical variables however, ordering of those variables matter. A lot of the variables in this dataset have a range from 1-4 or 1-5, The lower the ordinal variable, the worse it is in this case. For instance, Job Satisfaction 1 = "Low" while 4 = "Very High".
- Label: What is our label in the dataset or in other words the output?

Summary:

- **Dataset Structure:** 1470 observations (rows), 35 features (variables)
- **Missing Data:** Luckily for us, there is no missing data! this will make it easier to work with the dataset.
- Data Type: We only have two datatypes in this dataset: factors and integers
- Label" Attrition is the label in our dataset and we would like to find out why employees are leaving the organization!
- Imbalanced dataset: 1237 (84% of cases) employees did not leave the organization while 237 (16% of cases) did leave the organization making our dataset to be considered imbalanced since more people stay in the organization than they actually leave.

How many employees did not leave the organization?

```
> df$Attrition <- ifelse(df$Attrition=="Yes", 0, 1)
> sum(df$Attrition)
[1] 1470
```

To get summary of our data frame

summary statistic is computed using summary () function in R. **summary** () function is automatically applied to each column. The format of the result depends on the data type of the column.

- 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.

Descriptive statistics in R with simple summary function calculates

- minimum value of each column
- maximum value of each column
- mean value of each column
- median value of each column
- 1st quartile of each column (25th percentile)
- 3rd quartile of each column (75th percentile)

>summary(df)

```
> summary(df)
i..Age Attrition BusinessTravel DailyRate Department
Min. :18.00 Length:1470 Min. : 102.0 Length:1470
                                                                                      DistanceFromHome
                                                                                     Min. : 1.000
1st Qu.:30.00 Class:character Class:character 1st Qu.: 465.0 Class:character 1st Qu.: 2.000
Median :36.00 Mode :character Mode :character Median : 802.0 Mode :character Median : 7.000
Mean :36.92
                                                    Mean : 802.5
                                                                                      Mean : 9.193
3rd ou.:43.00
                                                    3rd Ou.:1157.0
                                                                                    3rd ou.:14.000
                                                                         Max. :29.000
Max. :60.00
                                                    Max. :1499.0
Education EducationField EmployeeCount EmployeeNumber EnvironmentSatisfaction Gender Min. :1.000 Length:1470 Min. :1 Min. : 1.0 Min. :1.000 Length:1470
1st Qu.:2.000 Class :character 1st Qu.:1 1st Qu.: 491.2 1st Qu.:2.000
                                                                                    Class :character
Median: 3.000 Mode: character Median: 1 Median: 1020.5 Median: 3.000
                                                                                    Mode :character
                                Mean :1 Mean :1024.9 Mean :2.722
Mean :2.913
                                3rd Qu.:1 3rd Qu.:1555.8 3rd Qu.:4.000
3rd Qu.:4.000
Max. :5.000 Max. :1 Max. :2068.0 Max. :4.000

HourlyRate JobInvolvement JobLevel JobRole JobSatisfaction MaritalStatus
Min. : 30.00 Min. :1.00 Min. :1.000 Length:1470 Min. :1.000 Length:1470
```

The glimpse method can be used to see the columns of data and display some portion of the data for each variable that can be fit on a single line.

Using an insightful summary

>glimpse (df)

Some inferences:

• **Age by Gender:** The average age of females is 37.3 and for males is 36.7 and both distributions are **similar**.

- Attrition by environment satisfaction: For individuals who didn't leave the organization, Environment satisfaction levels are higher than those who left the organization.
- However, for people who left the organization, had a lower Environment satisfaction level as opposed to previous.

 Salaries: The average salaries for both genders are practically the same with males having an average of 6381.0 and females 6687.0.

Summarise

summarise_at, summarise_if, summarise_all in R – Summary of the dataset (Mean, Median and Mode) in R can be done using Dplyr.

#Dplyr package in R is provided with **group_by ()** function which groups the dataframe by multiple columns with mean, sum and other functions like count, maximum and minimum.

#Usually, we can use the argument **na.rm** = **TRUE** to **exclude missing values** when calculating descriptive statistics in R.

>summarize_at(group_by(df,Gender),vars(ï..Age),funs(mean(.,na.rm=TRUE)))

>summarize_at(group_by(df,Gender),vars(ï..Age),funs(median(.,na.rm=TRUE)))

>summarize_at(group_by(df,Gender),vars(ï..Age),funs(mfv(.,na.rm=TRU E)))

```
# A tibble: 2 x 2
Gender ï..Age
 <chr> <int>
1 Female 34
2 Male 35
> |
```

Check minimum and maximum salary by gender

#Now we will see the minimum and maximum salary given to employees to check if there is a discrimination over gender in the company.

> summarize_at (group_by (df, Gender), vars (MonthlyIncome), funs (max (., na.rm=TRUE)))

Here, we can see the Minimum salary for female is greater than man and of maximum it's more for male so it's clear that there is no salary wise discrimination on gender.

Boxplots

They are a measure of how well distributed is the data in a data set. It divides the data set into three quartiles. This graph represents the minimum, maximum, median, first quartile and third quartile in the data set. It is also useful in comparing the distribution of data across data sets by drawing boxplots for each of them.

Job Satisfaction

Boxplot with attrition in the X-axis and Job Satisfaction in the y-Axis

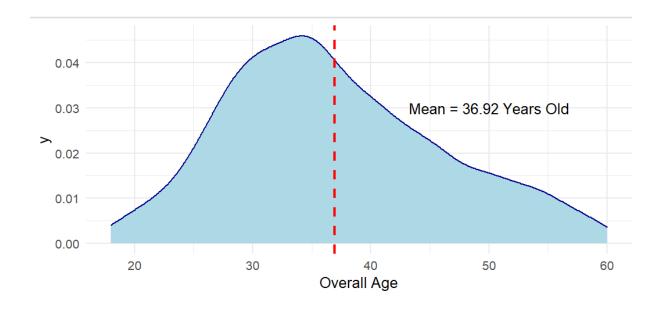
Distribution of Job Satisfaction

> ggplot(data=df,aes(x=JobSatisfaction)) +
geom_density(color="#013ADF", fill="#81BEF7", trim=TRUE) +
xlim(range(c(1,4)))



Distribution of age

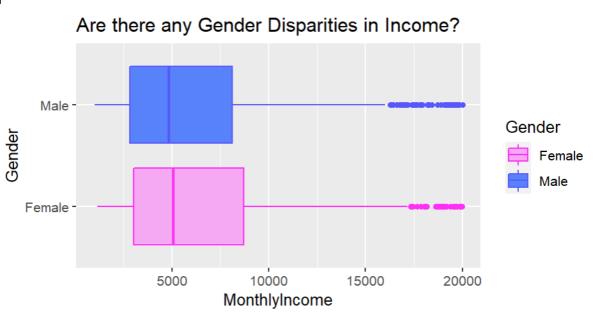
- > ggplot(data=df, mapping=aes(x=ï..Age)) +
 geom_density(color="darkblue", fill="lightblue") +
- + geom_vline(aes(xintercept=mean(i..Age)),
- + color="red", linetype="dashed", size=1) + theme_minimal() + labs(x="Overall Age") +
- + annotate("text", label = "Mean = 36.92 Years Old", x = 50, y = 0.03, color = "black")



#Monthly Income by Gender

```
p <- ggplot(df, aes(x=Gender, y=MonthlyIncome, color=Gender,
fill=Gender)) + geom_boxplot() +
scale_fill_manual(values=c("#F5A9F2", "#5882FA")) +
scale_color_manual(values=c("#FE2EF7", "#5858FA")) +
coord_flip() + labs(title="Are there any Gender Disparities in Income?")
```

p



#Variance

> var(df\$ï..Age)

[1] 83.45505

#Standard deviation

> sd(df\$ï..Age)

[1] 9.135373

#Quantiles

Quantiles are values that divide a ranked dataset into equal groups.

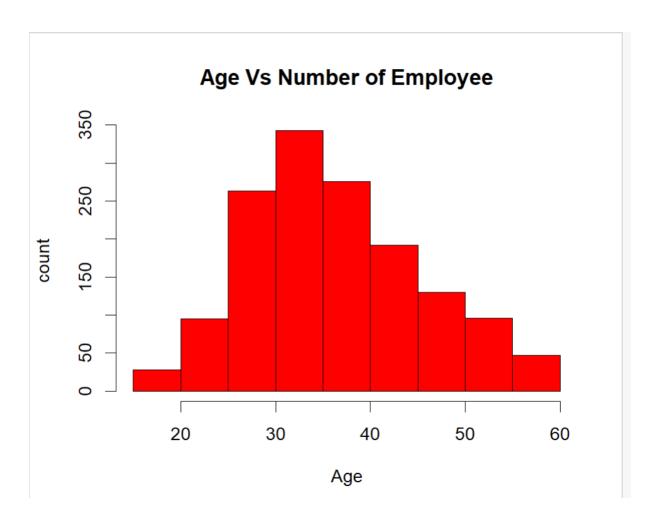
The **quantile()** function in R can be used to calculate sample quantiles of a dataset.

```
> quantile (df$ï.. Age, probs = seq(0, 1, 0.25), na.rm = FALSE)
0% 25% 50% 75% 100%
18 30 36 43 60
```

#Histogram

>The histogram consists of an x-axis, a y-axis and various bars of different heights. The y-axis shows how frequently the values on the x-axis occur in the data, while the bars group ranges of values or continuous categories on the x-axis.

```
> hist(main="Age Vs Number of
Employee",xlab="Age",ylab="count",df$\"i..Age,col="red")
```



Correlation coefficient

A **correlation coefficient** quite close to 0, but either positive or negative, implies little or no relationship between the two variables. A correlation coefficient close to plus 1 means a positive relationship between the two variables, with increases in one of the variables being associated with increases in the other variable.

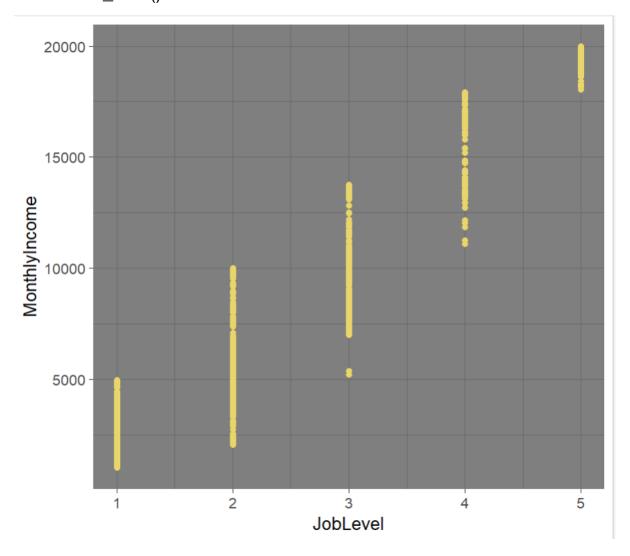
A correlation coefficient close to -1 indicates a negative relationship between two variables, with an increase in one of the variables being associated with a decrease in the other variable. A correlation coefficient can be produced for ordinal, interval or ratio level variables, but has little meaning for variables which are measured on a scale which is no more than nominal.

In statistics, Correlation studies and measures the direction and extent of relationship among variables, so the correlation measures covariation, not causation. Therefore, we should never interpret correlation as implying cause and effect relation. For example, there exists a correlation between two variables X and Y, which means the value of one variable is found to change in one direction, the value of the other variable is found to change either in the same direction (i.e. positive change) or in the opposite direction (i.e. negative change). Furthermore, if the correlation exists, it is linear, i.e., we can represent the relative movement of the two variables by drawing a straight line on graph paper.

```
> cor(df$\"at$i..Age,df$DistanceFromHome,method="spearman")
[1] -0.01929091
> cor(df$\"ailyRate,method="spearman")
[1] 0.007289728
> cor(df$\"at$"..Age,df$Education,method="spearman")
[1] 0.2049367
> cor(df$YearsAtCompany,df$JobSatisfaction,method="spearman")
[1] 0.01228041
> cor(df$YearsAtCompany,df$MonthlyIncome,method="spearman")
[1] 0.4643152
> cor(df$JobLevel,df$MonthlyIncome,method="spearman")
[1] 0.9204287
> cor(df$JobLevel,df$MonthlyIncome,method="pearson")
[1] 0.9502999
> cor(df$PerformanceRating,df$PercentSalaryHike,method="pearson")
[1] 0.77355
```

#Scatter plot

- > library(ggplot2)
- > df < -df
- > ggplot(df)+
- + aes(x=JobLevel,y=MonthlyIncome)+
- + geom_point(color="#e9d66b")+
- + theme_dark()



#Regression Analysis

• Simple linear regression is the most straight forward case having a single scalar predictor variable x and a single scalar response variable y. The equation for this regression is given as

y=a+bx The expansion to multiple and vector-valued predictor variables is known as multiple linear regression. It is also known as multivariable linear regression. The equation for this regression is given as Y = a+bX.

- The following example shows how to use this function in R to do the following:
- Fit a regression model
- View the summary of the regression model fit
- View the diagnostic plots for the model
- Plot the fitted regression model
- Make predictions using the regression model

The Im() function in R is used to fit linear regression models.

This function uses the following basic syntax:

```
Im(formula, data, ...)
```

where:

- formula: The formula for the linear model (e.g. $y \sim x1 + x2$)
- data: The name of the data frame that contains the data

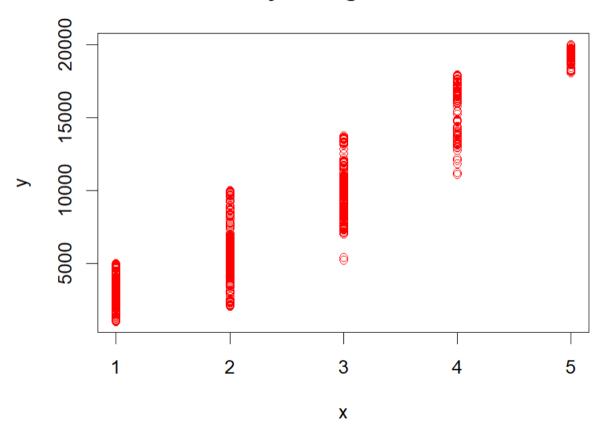
We can then use the **summary ()** function to view the summary of the regression model fit:

#Plot the Fitted Regression Model

We can use the **abline()** function to plot the fitted regression model:

```
> #create scatterplot of raw data
> plot(df$JobLevel, df$MonthlyIncome, col='red', main='Summary o
f Regression Model', xlab='x', ylab='y')
>
> #add fitted regression line
> abline(Model)
> |
```

Summary of Regression Model



#Use the Regression Model to Make Predictions

We can use the **predict()** function to predict the response value for a new observation:

```
> #define new observation
> new <- data.frame(x=c(5))</pre>
> #use the fitted model to predict the value for the new observa
tion
> predict(Model, newdata = df)
                                       4
1.9500088 1.7571839 1.0779399 1.2609336 1.3858341 1.2964598
                             9
                                      10
                                                 11
1.2075325 1.2126715 2.7394066 1.7810915 1.1530142 1.5478248
                 14
                            15
                                      16
                                                 17
1.2613805 1.2055216 1.0640869 2.8408463 1.3478500 1.2667429
                 20
                            21
                                      22
                                                 23
       19
4.0578997 1.4921894 1.5071596 1.3722045 3.2908455 0.8862322
                 26
                            27
                                      28
                                                 29
1.2723288 4.8772379 1.4866035 2.1359072 2.9007270 4.8443929
                 32
                                      34
                            33
                                                 35
       31
1.1686547 2.0554704 1.1038584 1.0770461 1.1232973 1.2019466
                 38
                            39
                                      40
                                                 41
1.2104371 1.0609588 1.3748857 1.8121491 1.0468823 1.1340222
                 44
                            45
                                      46
                                                 47
1.1232973 2.5606581 1.5071596 4.9780073 1.6316132 1.2861818
```

3D PLOT

Performance rating and PercentSalaryHike

```
> data_frame<-data.frame(df$PerformanceRating,df$PercentSalaryHike)</pre>
> mean(df$PerformanceRating)
[1] 3.153741
> mean(df$PercentSalaryHike)
[1] 15.20952
> cov(data_frame)
                       df.PerformanceRating df.PercentSalaryHike
df.PerformanceRating
                                                           1.021544
                                   0.1301936
df.PercentSalaryHike
                                   1.0215436
                                                          13.395144
> library (MASS)
> mu1<-c (3.153,15.209)
> sigma1 < -matrix(c(1.301936, 1.021544, 1.021544, 13.395144), ncol=2)
```

- > bivn<-mvrnorm(100000,mu=mu1,Sigma = sigma1)
- > head(bivn)

[,1] [,2]

[1,] 1.317991 18.24967

[2,] 3.990962 16.13695

[3,] 3.107126 14.64036

[4,] 3.159632 12.17732

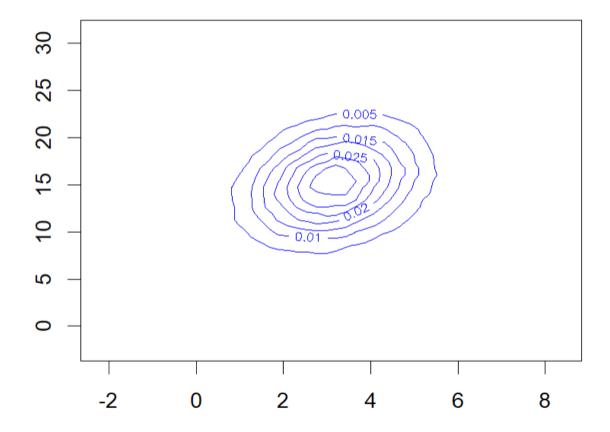
[5,] 3.460476 16.63745

[6,] 2.900196 10.93986

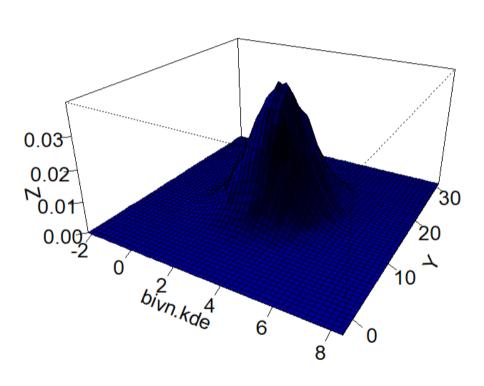
>

> bivn.kde<-kde2d(bivn[,1],bivn[,2],n=50)

> contour(bivn.kde,col="blue")



- > persp(bivn.kde,theta=30,phi=25,
- + shade=0.75,col="blue",expand=0.5,r=2,
- + ticktype="detailed")



Confidence Intervals-

Known variance-

Estimate the two-sided confidence interval of the mean of Normal distribution with known variance from a given sample and α.

> shapiro.test(df\$ï..Age)

Ho: Data is normally distributed

H1: Data is not normally distributed

p>alpha

so we accept the null hypothesis that data is normally distributed.

The lower bound on W is actually determined by the size of the sample. Normally distributed samples will result in a high value of W and samples deviating away from a normal distribution will have a lower value of W.

Now we will find CI:

First we will find standard deviation:-

```
> sd(df$MonthlyIncome)
[1] 4707.957

normCl_TS = function(n,sd,alpha){
mu=mean(n)
len1=length(n)
z1=qnorm(1-(alpha/2),mean=0,sd=1)
f1=(mu-(z1*(sd/sqrt(len1))))
f2=(mu+(z1*(sd/sqrt(len1))))
f=c(f1,f2)
print("Two Sided Confidence Interval is:")
return(f)
}
```

```
> sd(df$ï..Age)
[1] 9.135373
> normCI_TS = function(n,sd,alpha){
     mu=mean(n)
      len1=length(n)
      z1=qnorm(1-(alpha/2),mean=0,sd=1)
     f1=(mu-(z1*(sd/sqrt(len1))))
     f2=(mu+(z1*(sd/sqrt(len1))))
     f=c(f1,f2)
      print("Two Sided Confidence Interval is:")
                return(f)
+ }
> normCI_TS(n, 9.135373, 0.05)
[1] "Two Sided Confidence Interval is:"
[1] 36.45681 37.39081
>
```

#Upper confidence interval of the mean of Normal distribution with known variance from a given sample and α

#Estimate the lower confidence interval of the mean of Normal distribution with known variance from a given sample and α.

```
> normCI_LowerCI = function(n,sd,alpha){
+
      mu=mean(n)
      len1=length(n)
+
      z1=qnorm((1-alpha), mean=0, sd=1)
     f1=qnorm(0,0,1)
     f2=(mu+(z1*(sd/sqrt(len1))))
     f=c(f1,f2)
      print("Lower Confidence Interval is:")
                return(f)
+ }
> normCI_LowerCI(n,9.135373,0.05)
[1] "Lower Confidence Interval is:"
       -Inf 37.31573
[1]
>
```

Coming to Hypothesis testing...

#To test a null hypothesis $\mu = m$ and alternative hypothesis $\mu \neq m$.

Inference:

Actual mean was around 36.01 and so we have rejected the hypothesis at 95% ci that mean i.e. u=45.

#Pearsons's correlation

By Pearson's correlation test we can see they are highly positive correlation.

Ho=There is no relationship between the two variables.

H1=There is a relationship between the two variables.

t-statistic and p-value?

```
t-statistic = 3.6549
```

p- value= 0.0002664

Inference->

p-value<alpha(0.05) so we reject the null hypothesis at 95% confidence interval and thus we say that there is a relationship between those two variables.

Top Reasons why Employees leave the Organization:

- No Overtime This was a surprise, employees who don't have overtime are most likely to leave the organization. This could be that employees would like to have a higher amount of income or employees could feel that they are underused.
- Monthly Income: As expected, Income is a huge factor as why
 employees leave the organization in search for a better salary.
- Age:

This could also be expected, since people who are aiming to retire will leave the organization.

Knowing the most likely reasons why employees leave the organization, can help the organization take action and reduce the level of Attrition inside the organization.

