

Basic Probability and Statistics

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Single Quantitative Variable Exploration
 - Numerical Summaries
 - Graphical Summaries
- 3 Association Between Two Variables
 - Two Quantitative Variables
 - One Categorical and One Quantitative Variable
 - Two Categorical Variables

1 Introduction

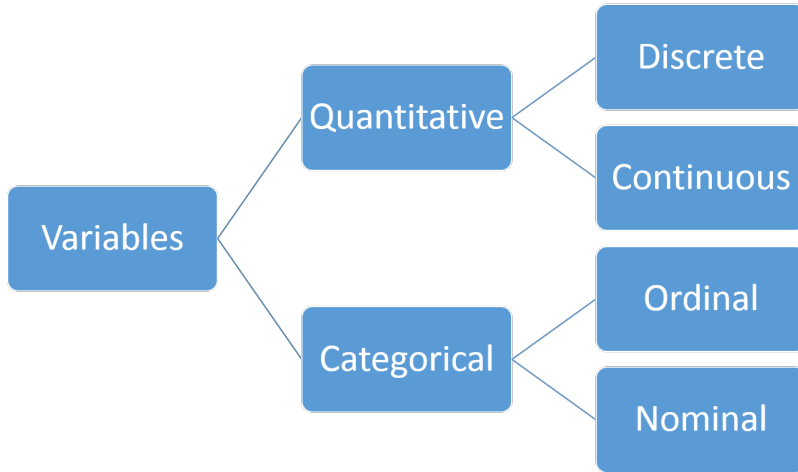
2 Single Quantitative Variable Exploration

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Types of Data



Descriptive Statistics

- There are two major ways of describing data descriptively: numerical and graphical summaries.
- One variable: the numerical and graphical summaries will be covered.
- For two variables: association between two variables will be covered.

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Numerical and Graphical Summaries

- **Numerical summaries**/descriptive measures: number of observations (sample size), location, variability and other measures.
- **Graphical summaries**: histogram, boxplot, QQ plot (for checking normality of a dataset), scatter plot for bivariate data.

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An Example: Yearly Sales

- `> sales <- read.csv("C:/Data/yearly_sales.csv")`
- The function `head()` displays the first few records in the data set

```
> head(sales)
```

	cust_id	sales_total	num_of_orders	gender
1	100001	800.64	3	F
2	100002	217.53	3	F
3	100003	74.58	2	M
4	100004	498.60	3	M
5	100005	723.11	4	F
6	100006	69.43	2	F

```
> total = sales$sales_total
```

Summary of the Center

- Center of data should include the information on: mean, median and mode.
- About the total sales, we roughly can have

```
> n = length(total); n
```

```
[1] 10000
```

```
> summary(total)
```

Min.	1st Qu.	Median	Mean	3rd Qu.	Max.
30.02	80.29	151.65	249.46	295.50	7606.09

Summary of the Variability

```
> range(total)
[1] 30.02 7606.09
```

```
> var(total)
[1] 101793.4
```

```
> sd(total)
[1] 319.0508
```

```
> IQR(total)
[1] 215.21
```

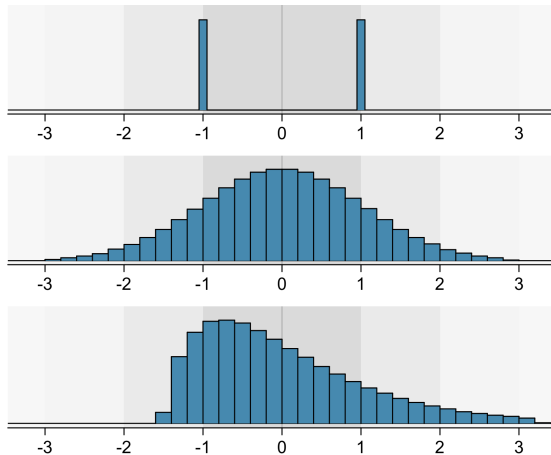
A Note on Numerical Summaries

- For a sample, if the mean is the same or approximately the same as the median, then the sample is close to symmetric.
- Mean is sensitive to the outlier(s) while median is not.
- When the mean is much larger than the median, sample is right skewed; while when the mean is much smaller than the median then sample is left skewed.

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Numerical Summaries Are Not Enough

- All 3 samples below had a sample mean of 0 and a sample variance of 1.
- No matter how many of the summary measures we report, nothing beats a picture.



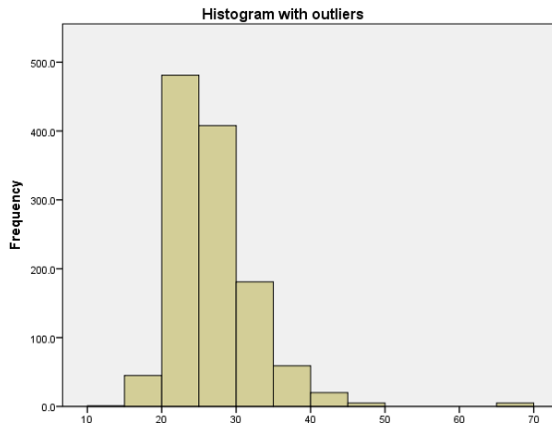
Histogram and Density Plot

- A histogram is a graph that uses bars to portray the frequencies or relative frequencies of the possible outcomes for a quantitative variable.
- Density plots can be thought of as plots of smoothed histograms.

Histogram

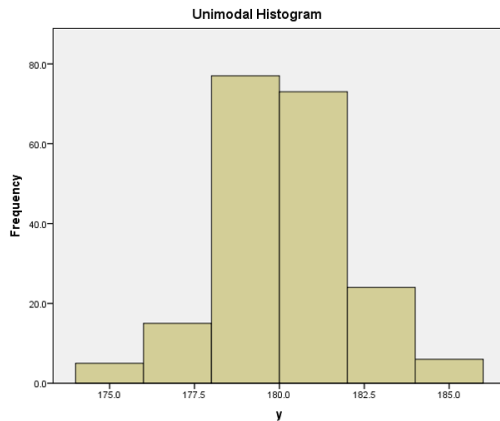
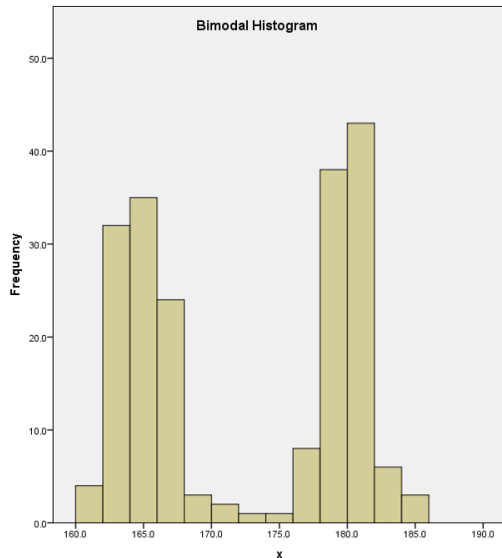
- What do we look for in a histogram?
 - ▶ The overall pattern. Do the data cluster together, or is there a gap such that one or more observations deviate from the rest?
 - ▶ Do the data have a single mound? This is known as a unimodal distribution. Data with two mounds are known as bimodal, and data with many mounds are referred to as multimodal.
 - ▶ Is the distribution symmetric or skewed? Any suspected outliers?

A Histogram With Suspected Outliers

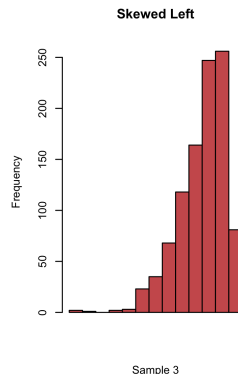
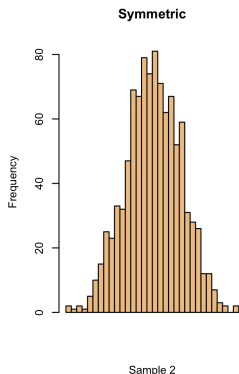
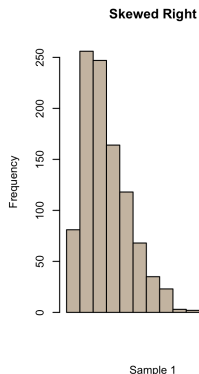


- This histogram is unimodal, but it has suspected outliers on the right.

Unimodal and Bimodal Histograms



Skewness of Histograms



- Income is typically right-skewed.
- IQ is typically symmetric.
- Life-span is typically left-skewed.

Histogram and Density Plot in R

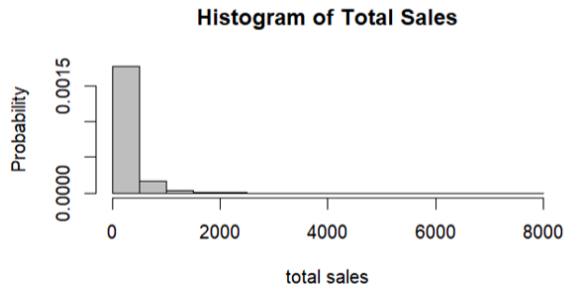
There are many ways to plot histograms in R:

- The `hist` function in the base `graphics` package;
- `truehist` in package `MASS`;
- `histogram` in package `lattice`;
- `geom_histogram` in package `ggplot2`.

```
## Default S3 method:  
hist(x, breaks = "Sturges",  
     freq = NULL, probability = !freq,  
     include.lowest = TRUE, right = TRUE,  
     density = NULL, angle = 45, col = "lightgray", border = NULL,  
     main = paste("Histogram of" , xname),  
     xlim = range(breaks), ylim = NULL,  
     xlab = xname, ylab,  
     axes = TRUE, plot = TRUE, labels = FALSE,  
     nclass = NULL, warn.unused = TRUE, ...)
```

Histogram and Normal Density Plot in R

```
> hist(total, freq=FALSE, main = paste("Histogram of Total Sales"),  
+       xlab = "total sales", ylab="Probability", col = "grey")
```

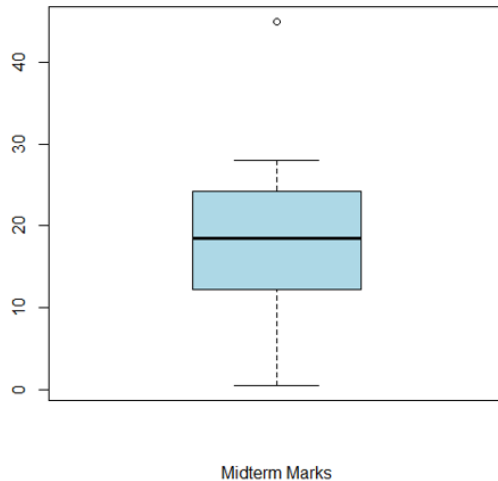


The histogram is highly right skewed.

Boxplots

- Boxplots provide a skeletal representation of a distribution, and they are very well suited for showing distributions for multiple variables.
- A boxplot helps us to identify median, lower and upper quantiles, IQR, and outlier(s).

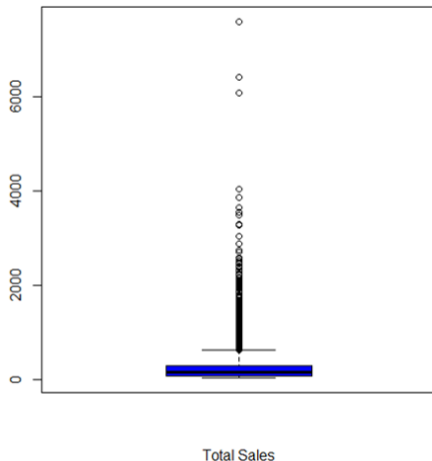
Boxplot



Boxplots in R

The code should be

```
> boxplot(total, xlab = "Total Sales", col = "blue")
```

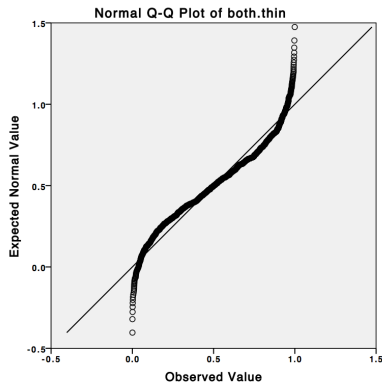
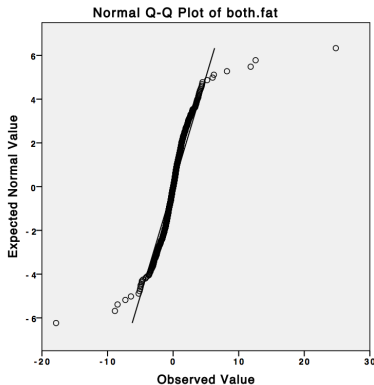


- The median is very low, close to 200. Box plot shows many outliers and extreme outliers.
- If the sample is unimodal then the distribution is highly right skewed.

QQ Plots

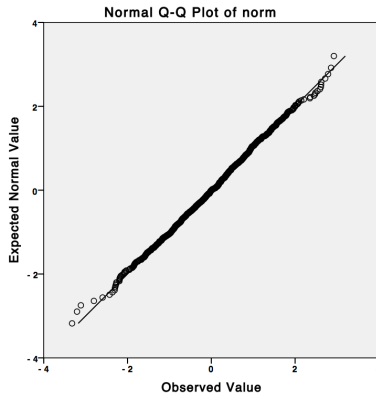
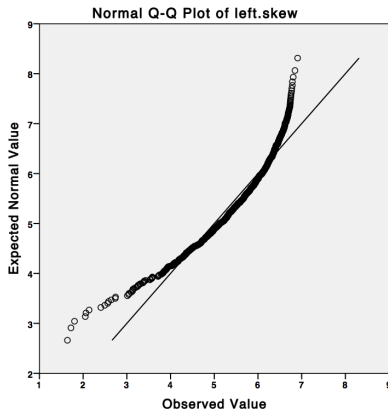
- The purpose of plotting a QQ plot of a sample is to see if the sample follows (approximately) a normal distribution or not.
- A QQ-plot matches the standardized sample quantiles against the theoretical quantiles of a $N(0, 1)$ distribution.
- From the points on the plot, we can usually tell whether our sample has longer or shorter tail than normal.

QQ plots (1)



- Figure on the left is a data with both longer tails than normal.
- Figure on the right is a data with both shorter tails than normal.

QQ plots (2)

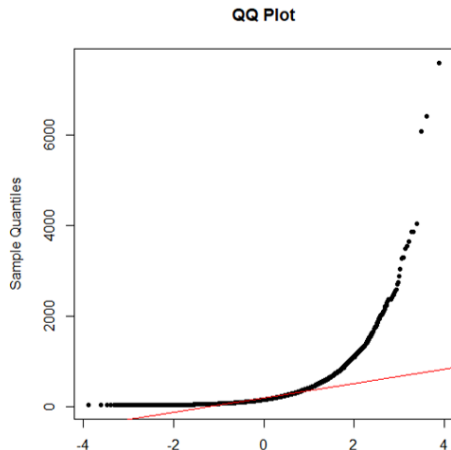


- Figure on the left is a data with left tail longer than normal but right tail is shorter than normal.
- Figure on the right is a data with both tails are normal.

QQ Plots in R

The code should be

```
> qqnorm(total, main = "QQ Plot", pch = 20)  
> qqline(total, col = "red")
```



- The QQ plot of the sample has the right tail much longer than normal while the left tail is much shorter than normal.

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 - Two Categorical Variables

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 - Graphical Summaries
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Quantifying the Association: Correlation Value

- Let X and Y are two features from a set of n points.
- The correlation of these two is defined as:

$$r = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s_X} \right) \left(\frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{s_Y} \right)$$

where \bar{X}, \bar{Y} are the sample means, s_X, s_Y are the sample standard deviations of the two features.

- r is always between -1 and 1.

Correlation Value

- A positive value for r indicates a positive association and a negative value of r indicates a negative association.

```
> order = sales$num_of_orders  
> cor(total, order)  
[1] 0.7508015
```


Visualization the Association: Scatterplots

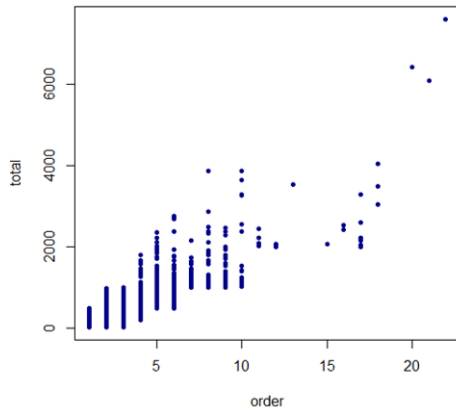
- Scatterplot can help to visualize the association between two quantitative features well.

What to say given a scatterplot:

- Is there any (possible) relationship between the 2 variables?
- If yes, is the association positive or negative?
- If there is association, is it linear or non-linear type?
- Are some observations unusual, departing from the overall trend?

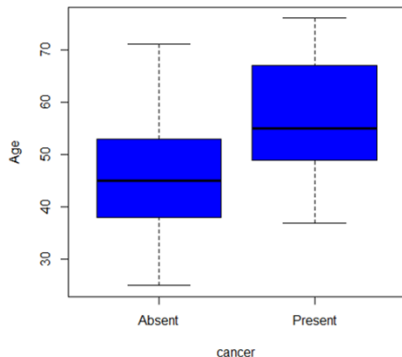
Scatterplots in R

```
> plot(order, total, pch = 20, col = "darkblue")
```



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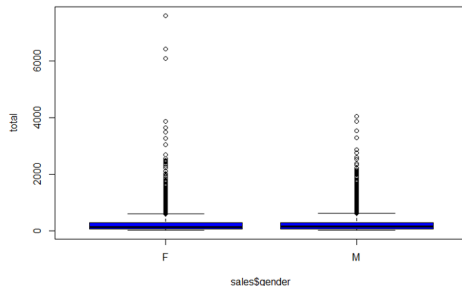
Boxplots of Multiple Groups



Categorical variable “cancer” has two categories: male and female. Variable “Age” is quantitative. One would check if any relationship between these two variables.

Boxplots of Multiple Groups in R

```
> attach(sales)  
> boxplot(total ~ gender)
```



There is no obvious difference in the total sales of the customer's gender. The median of two groups are similar, and the IRQ are about the same.

Association of 3 Variables

- Can you figure out a way to visualize the association of the three features: total sales, number of orders and the gender of the customers?

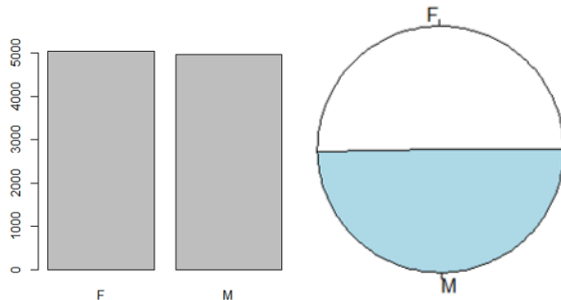
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- 2 Single Quantitative Variable Exploration
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 - Graphical Summaries
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Summary of a Categorical Variable

- For a single categorical variable, we can use **frequency table** (which also can produce the proportion or percentage) as numerical summaries.
- The category with the highest frequency is reported as the **modal category**.
- Common graphical to display a categorical variable is **bar plot** or pie chart.

Barplot and Pie Chart

```
> count = table(gender)
> count # frequency table
gender
  F      M
5035 4965
> barplot(count)
> pie(count)
```



Two Categorical Variables

- Contingency table is often used to summarize the two categorical variables.
- Odds ratio is useful too.

Two Categorical Variables

- Categorizing the number of orders into two categories: small and large size.

```
> order.size = ifelse(order<=5, "small", "large")
> table(order.size)
order.size
large small
   324   9676
```

- Contingency table of **frequency**

```
> table = table(gender, order.size); table
      order.size
gender large small
   F    142  4893
   M    182  4783
```

Contingency Tables

- Contingency table of joint proportion

```
> prop.table(table)
      order.size
gender large  small
F 0.0142 0.4893
M 0.0182 0.4783
```

Contingency Tables

- Contingency table of **proportion by gender**

```
> tab = prop.table(table, "gender") # proportion by gender  
> tab
```

```
      order.size  
gender      large      small  
F 0.02820258 0.97179742  
M 0.03665660 0.96334340
```

Among orders by females, 2.82% are large orders while 3.67% of orders by males are large.

Odds of Success

- For a probability of success π , the **odds of success** is defined as $odds = \pi / (1 - \pi)$.
- If we consider having a large order is a success, then **for the female groups**, the odds of success, or **the odds of large order**, is 0.029.

```
> tab[1]/(1-tab[1])  
[1] 0.02902105
```

- For the male group, the odds of having large order is 0.038.

```
> tab[2]/(1-tab[2])  
[1] 0.03805143
```

Odds Ratio

- **Odds ratio is the ratio of two odds of success:** odds of larger orders in the female group (0.029), and odds of larger orders in the male group (0.038).

$$OR = \frac{0.029}{0.038} = 0.76.$$

What does this value mean?