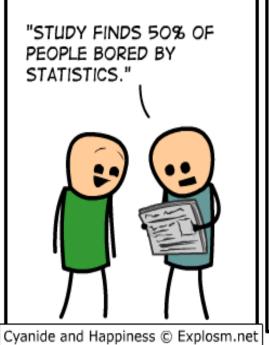
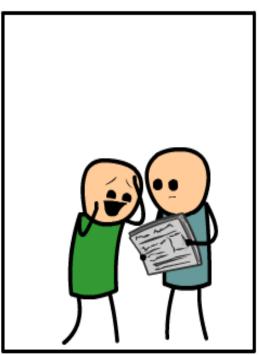
Basic Statistics







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What is Statistics?

- > Statistics is the science of
 - Collecting
 - Organizing
 - Summarizing
 - Analyzing and
 - Interpreting data
- > The goal of statistics is to:
 - Infer facts
 - Make predictions about future
 - Help make better decisions

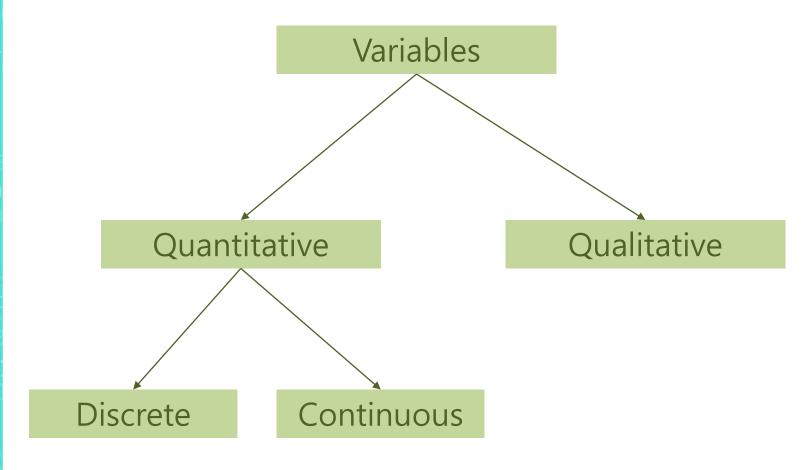
Basic Definitions

Variables

- Properties or characteristics of some event, object, or person that can take different values
- > An attribute that describes a person, place, thing or ides
- > Examples:
 - Height of a person
 - Hair color of a person
 - Inflation percentage in a country
 - Number of votes scored by a candidate in an election
 - Number of persons in a household

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Types of Variables



Dependent & Independent Variables

- In statistics, the dependent variable is the event studied and expected to change whenever the independent variable is changed or altered
- E.g. Final marks obtained by students vs. time spent by the students
- The variable final mark is dependent on the independent variable time spent
- ➤ Independent variable represent the input or causes and is also known as predictor variable
- > Dependent variable represent the output or effect and is also known as output variable



Quantitative & Qualitative Variables

- Quantitative variables take on values that are numeric for which arithmetic operations make sense
- E.g. Height of a person, GDP of a country etc.
- Qualitative variables take on values that are names or labels
- E.g. Hair color, breed of dog etc.
- Qualitative variables are numeric and hence arithmetic operations on Qualitative variables do not make sense



Discrete & Continuous Variables

- Discrete variables can take only certain values
- ➤ E.g. Number of persons in a household, outcome of rolling a six sided die
- Continuous variables can take any value between its maximum and minimum value
- ➤ E.g. Time taken by students to complete a 3 hour test, Height of students in a class

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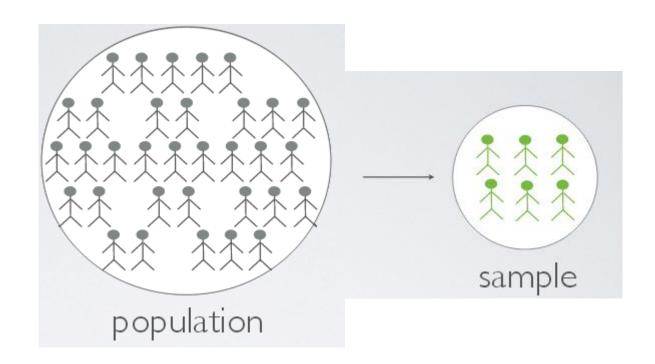
Classify the variables

- Breed of dog
- > Blood sugar level of a person
- > Final result in a examination
- > Number of matches played by a player
- > Batting average of a player
- > Favourite colour
- > State which you belong to
- Marks scored in a subject
- > Average marks in all subjects

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Population & Sample



Population & Sample (contd.)

- Population is the whole set of values or individuals you are interested in
- ➤ The number of items or elements in a population is called the population size, denoted by N
- > Sample is a subset of the population
- Sample size (number of observations in the sample) is denoted by n
- Randomization schemes help to build samples that are truly representative of the population

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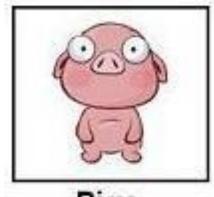
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Scales of Measurement

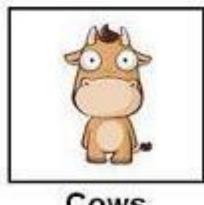
- Measurement scales are used to categorize and/or quantify variables
- ➤ Four different scales are commonly used in statistics:
 - Nominal
 - Ordinal
 - Interval
 - Ratio

Nominal Scale

Nominal







Cows



Dogs

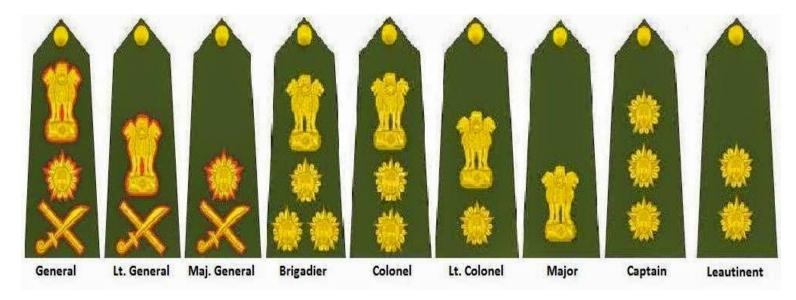




Nominal Scale (contd.)

- Most basic level of measurement
- > In Nominal Scale, data is neither measured nor ordered
- > Subjects are merely allocated to distinct categories
- > Also known as categorical or qualitative
- > Examples:
 - Sex
 - Color preference
 - Religion
- > Values can be stored as text or a numerical code
- > However numbers do not imply order

Ordinal Scale

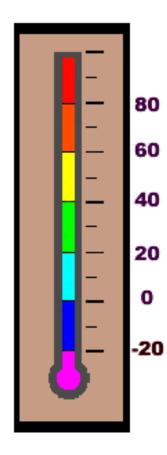


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Ordinal Scale (contd.)

- > Next level of measurement is Ordinal
- Data is ordered
- ➤ But difference between two levels may not be the same as the difference between another two levels
- Comparison is however possible
- > Examples:
 - Military Rank
 - Consumer Satisfaction Ratings
 - Rankings in a class

Interval Scale







Interval Scale (contd.)

- > Order is meaningful
- > Intervals are equal
- > Things that can be measured are expressed in interval scale
- But data has no zero point and hence ratio is of no real meaning
- > Examples:
 - Time of a day
 - Temperature in Celsius

Ratio Scale

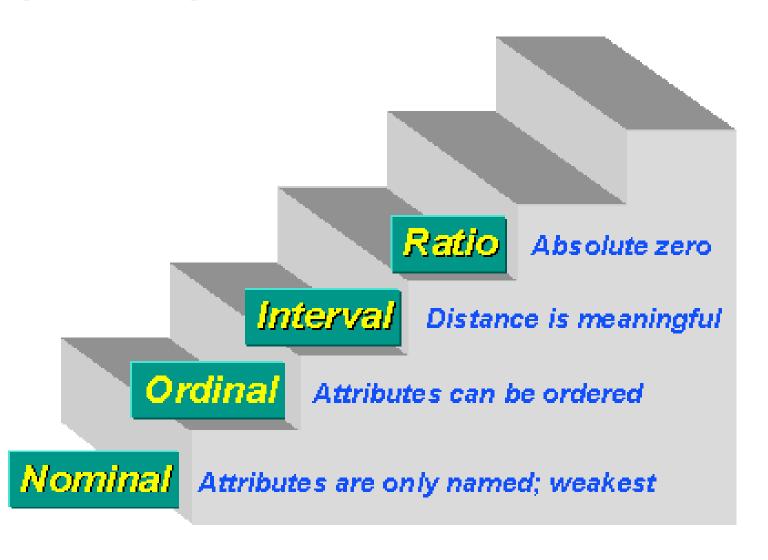




Ratio Scale (contd.)

- > Highest and most informative scale
- ➤ Has the qualities of nominal, ordinal and interval scales with the addition of an absolute zero point
- > Examples:
 - Years of experience
 - Amount of money
 - Number of children in a household

Scales of Measurement (contd.)



Scales of Measurement (contd.)

Let us consider a set of candidates taking an exam. Identify which scale of measurement to be used to measure the following variables:

- > Sex of the candidate
- > State which the candidate is from
- > Optional subjects chosen by the candidate
- Marks obtained by the candidate
- BMI Classification of a candidate (Underweight, Ideal, Overweight, Obese)
- > Final grade obtained by the candidate
- Confidence level of candidate before taking exam on a scale of 1 to 10

Summarizing Data Central Tendency

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Arithmetic Mean

- Sum of collection of numbers divided by the number of numbers
- Commonly known as average
- Measure of central tendency
- \triangleright Commonly denoted by the symbol \overline{x}
- Arithmetic Mean = (sum of observations) /
 (No. of observations)

$$\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n)}{\mathsf{n}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$

Median

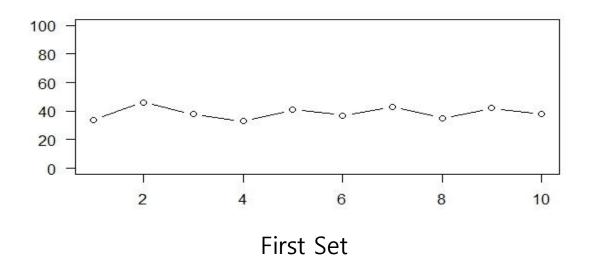
- > The number separating the higher half of the data sample from the lower half
- In other words it is the middle number between the smallest number and the largest number
- Can be found by arranging the observations from lowest value to the highest value and picking the middle one
- ➤ When the number of observations is odd: Median is (n+1)/2th observation
- ➤ When the number of observations is even: Median is mean of n/2th and (n/2)+1th observation

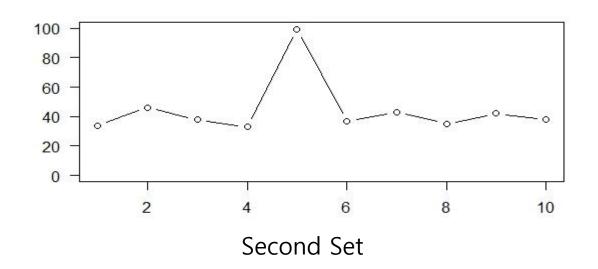
Trimmed Mean

- > Consider the following set of numbers:
- > 34, 46, 38, 33, 41, 37, 43, 35, 42, 38
- > Find the mean and median
- ➤ Mean is 38.7 and Median is 38
- > Now consider this new set of numbers:
- ▶ 34, 46, 38, 33, 99, 37, 43, 35, 42, 38
- > Find the mean and median
- ➤ Mean is 44.5 and Median is 38

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Trimmed Mean (contd.)





Trimmed Mean (contd.)

- Consider the following set of numbers:
- → 34, 46, 38, 33, 41, 37, 43, 35, 42, 38
- Find the mean and median
- ➤ Mean is 38.7 and Median is 38
- > Now consider this new set of numbers:
- ▶ 34, 46, 38, 33, 99, 37, 43, 35, 42, 38
- > Find the mean and median
- ➤ Mean is 44.5 and Median is 38
- ➤ The difference is because there is an outlier in the data '99' which is vastly different from the rest of the data
- Outlier influences the mean

Trimmed Mean (contd.)

- Trimmed Mean is normal Mean except that a certain percentage of the extremes are omitted while calculating the mean
- > This effectively removes the outliers from the observations
- The 10% trimmed mean of the observation is 39.125
- The Trimmed Mean 39.125 is more closer to the Median 38 than the true Mean 44.5

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Quartile

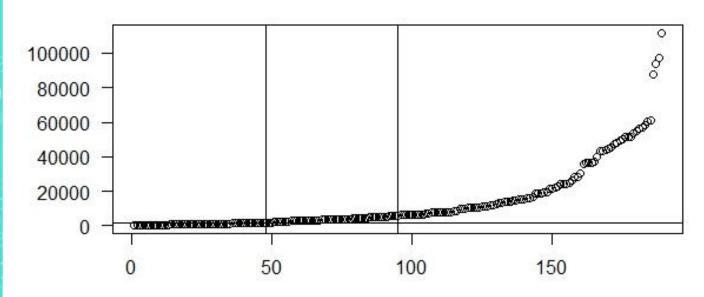
Median divides the data into two equal halves

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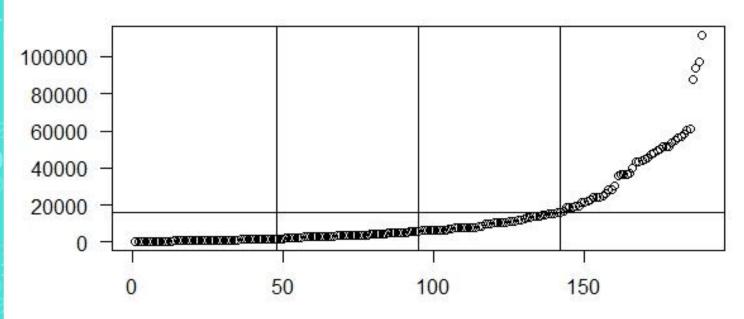
Quartile (contd.)

> Lets consider the lower half of the data



- ➤ The value 1781 is called the 1st Quartile
- > 1/4th of the observations are below 1781

Quartile (contd.)



- ➤ The value 16199 is called the 3rd Quartile
- > 3/4th of the observations are below 16199
- ➤ Median is the 2nd Quartile

Mode

- Mode is the value that appears most often in a set of data
- E.g. mode of 1,1,2,4,5,4,6,3,7,1 is 1 since 1 is appearing three times
- > A data may have more than one mode
- E.g. the dataset 1,1,3,1,4,5,5,6,5 has two modes 1 and 5
- > A data may not have a mode
- ➤ E.g. the dataset 1,2,3,4,5 doesn't have a mode since all the numbers appear only once
- There is no standard library function to find mode in R

Mode (contd.)

- > Write a function to calculate mode
- > Steps:
 - Select all the unique values of the object
 - Count the number of times each unique value appears in the object
 - Store the count values in a vector
 - Find out the maximum value of the count using 'which' function
 - Find out the unique values which correspond to the maximum value
 - Use 'if' condition to return an error message if all unique values have same count

Summarizing Data Spread of the data

Range

- Range is the difference between the lowest and the highest values
- \triangleright In {4, 5, 9, 3, 8} the lowest value is 3, and the highest is 9, so the range is 9 3 = 6
- Most useful in representing the dispersion of small data sets



Inter Quartile Range

- ➤ Difference between the 1st quartile and the 3rd quartile
- Middle half of the data fits into the Inter Quartile Range (IQR)
- > Also known as mid-spread or middle fifty

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Variance & Standard Deviation

- Measures how spread out our data is with reference to the mean
- Variance is always positive
- Small variance means data are close to each other
- Large variance means data are spread out widely
- > Standard deviation is the square root of variance

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum (X - \overline{X})^2}{N - 1}$$

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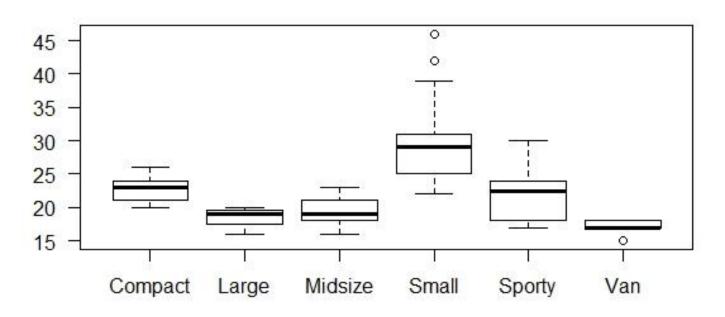
Variance & Standard Deviation (contd.)

- ➤ The value in the denominator of the formula is called as the Degrees of Freedom
- Degrees of Freedom is the number of values in the final calculation of a statistic that are free to vary
- \triangleright Standard deviation is usually denoted by the symbol sigma σ or S^2
- > Empirical Rule:
 - \sim 68% of data lies within the range (mean 1 σ) and (mean + 1 σ)
 - $\sim 95\%$ of data lies within the range (mean -2σ) and (mean $+2\sigma$)
 - $\sim 99.7\%$ of data lies within the range (mean -3σ) and (mean $+3\sigma$)

Data Graphs

Box Plot

Miles Per Gallon



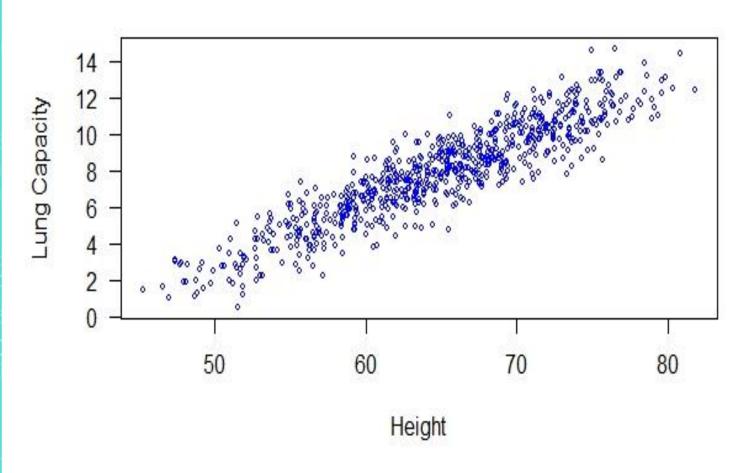
Box Plot (contd.)

- > Graphically summarize numerical variables
- > Central line is the median
- The lower end of the box is the 25th percentile
- The upper end of the box is the 50th percentile
- ➤ Inter Quartile Range (IQR) is the difference between the 25th and 50th percentile
- The whiskers are the lower inner fence and the upper inner fence
- ➤ Lower inner fence = 1st Quartile 1.5 * IQR
- ➤ Upper inner fence = 3rd Quartile + 1.5 * IQR
- > Outliers are shown outside the whiskers
- Summary command in R will give you all the values needed to create a box plot

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Scatter Plot



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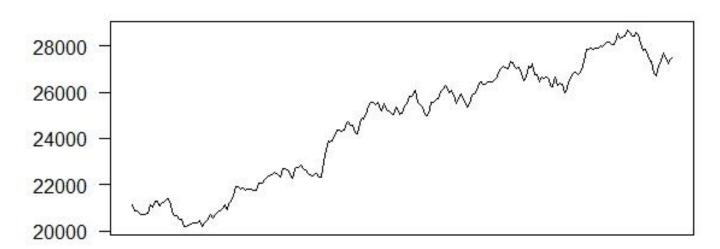
Scatter Plot (contd.)

- Displays two variables for a set of data in x and y axes
- It shows the relationship between two variables i.e. how much one variable is affected by the other
- The relationship between the two variables is called their correlation

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Line Graph





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Line Graph (contd.)

- Displays information as a series of data points connected by straight line segments
- Useful in displaying data or information that changes continuously over time
- > Also known as Line Chart

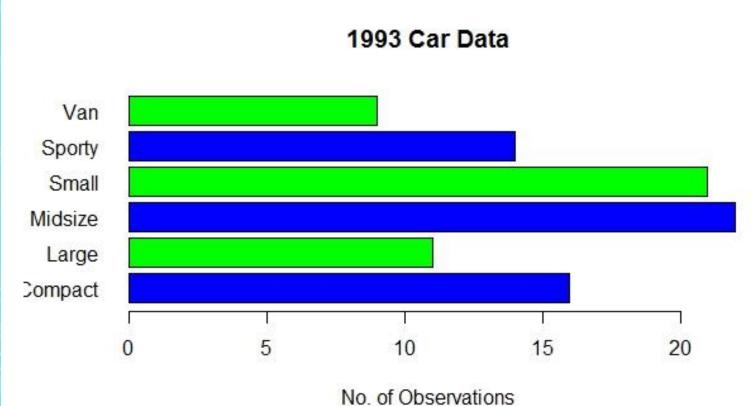
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Bar Graph

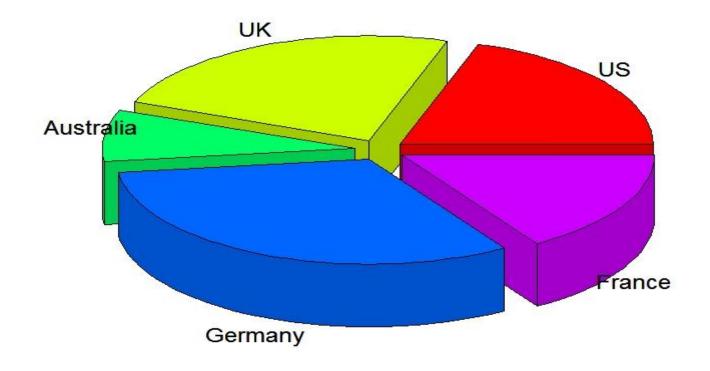


Bar Graph (contd.)

- Visual display of frequency or relative frequency (%) for each category of a categorical variable
- Also known as 'Bar Chart' or 'Column Bar Chart'
- > To construct a Bar Graph:
 - Compute frequency for each category
 - Plot frequency or relative frequency of each category as a bar
 - Height of each bar should correspond to the frequency of each category

Pie Chart

Pie Chart of Countries

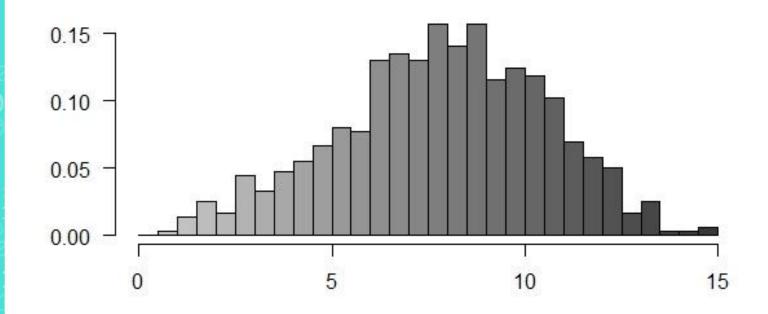


Pie Chart (contd.)

- > Circular graphic divided into slices
- The size of each slice (or the angle or length of the arc) is proportional to the quantity it represents
- ➤ Pie Chart is widely criticized by statisticians in recent times because they are difficult to interpret

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Histogram



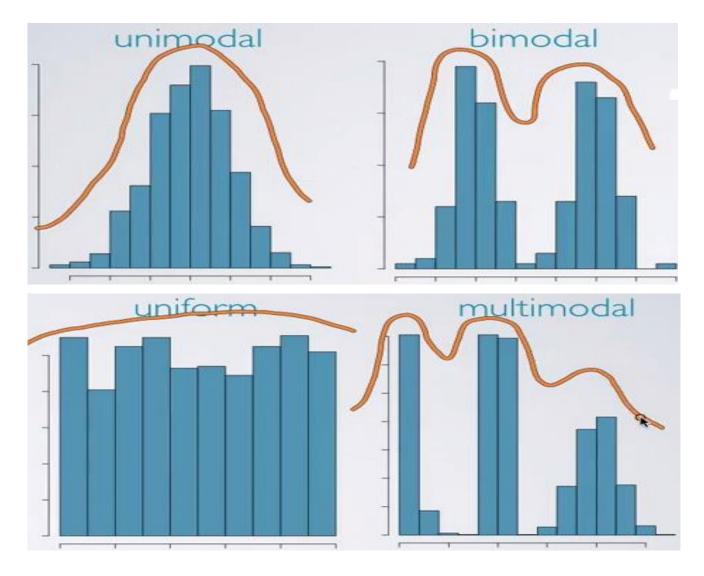
- Graphical representation of the distribution of numerical data
- Shows how often each different value in a set of data occurs
- > To construct a Histogram:
 - Group numeric data into different bins of equal width
 - Place the bins on the horizontal axis
 - Place the frequencies (no. of occurrences) of each bin in the vertical axis using a bar extending across each bin

- > We can get a lot of information about the data using a histogram
- The peak of the distribution is the mode of the data
- A histogram can be unimodal (single peak), bimodal (two peaks) or multimodal (multiple peaks) or uniform (no prominent peaks)

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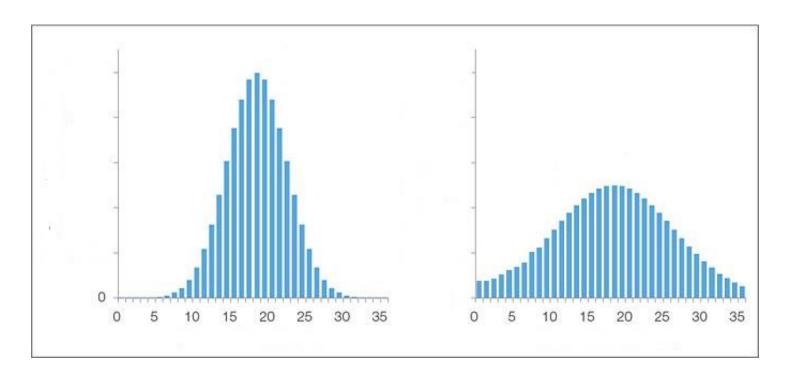


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Histogram (contd.)

> Histogram also gives us an idea about the extent of spread of data

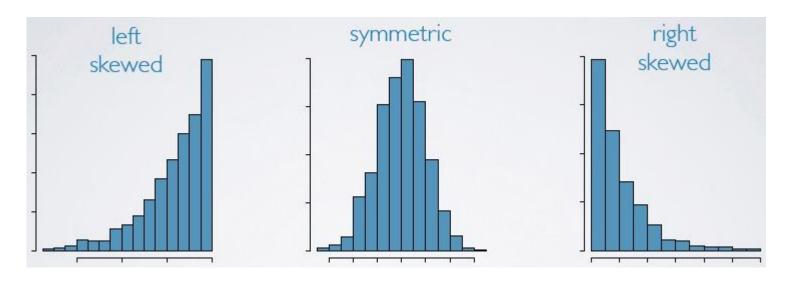




- ➤ We can also infer about the symmetry of the data from Histograms
- ➤ Left skewed is also known as negative skewed and right skewed is also known as positive skewed





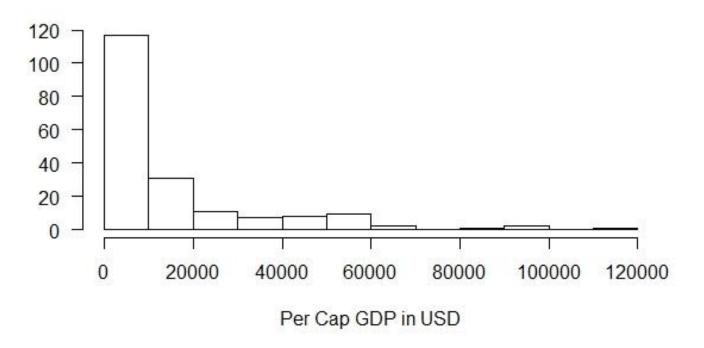


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Histogram (contd.)

Lets have a look at the histogram of Per Cap GDP data

Per Cap GDP of various countries



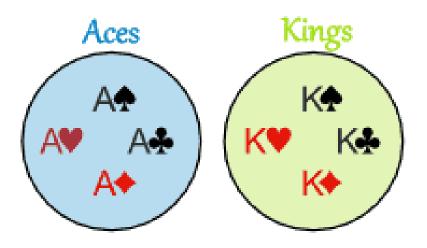
Definitions

- > **Probability** The chance or likelihood that a particular uncertain event will occur
- > Sample Space Collection of all possible events
- > Event An event is a subset of a the sample space
 - For e.g. let us consider an experiment where a coin is tossed twice
 - The sample space is the all possible outcomes which in our case is {HH, HT, TH, TT
 - We are interested in the case where at least one head occurs
 - So our event is {HH, HT, TH}

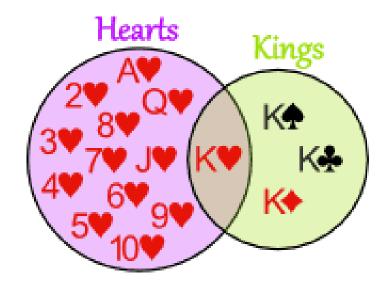
- ➤ Complement of an Event All outcomes that are not part of an event
 - For e.g. the complement of the event at least one head occurs is no head occurs and is given by the subset {TT}
 - Complement of event A is denoted by A^C
- ➤ Intersection of events The probability that events A and B both occur
 - Intersection of events A and B is denoted by P(A∩B)
- ➤ Union of events The probability that event A or B occurs
 - Union of events A and B is denoted by P(A∪B)

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- Mutually exclusive events Events that can't happen together
 - For e.g. When we draw a card from a deck of cards, the event of getting an ace and the event of getting a king are mutually exclusive



- > Mutually exclusive events Events that can't happen together
 - But the event of getting a heart or the event of getting a king are not mutually exclusive since both the events have common elements



- Collectively exhaustive events Events that cover the entire sample space
 - For e.g. When a single coin is tossed, the event A of getting a tail and the event B of getting a head are collectively exhaustive
 - One of the events must occur

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{Number of Times 'A' Occurs}}{\text{Total Number of Possible Outcomes}}$$

- Let us again consider the event at least one head occurs in a two coin toss
- The sample space is {HH, HT, TH, TT}
- Total number of possible outcomes in the event is the number of elements in the sample pace which is 4
- ➤ The subset of at least one head occurs is given by {HH, HT, TH}
- So the number of times out event can occur is
- > So the required probability is 3/4
- ➤ Probability is always between 0 and 1 (0-100%)

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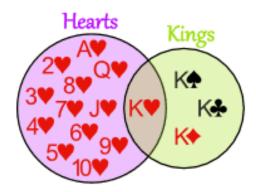
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Rules of Probability

- Rule of subtraction The complement of any outcome is equal to one minus the outcome
- \rightarrow P(A^C)=1-P(A)
 - The probability of getting two heads in a two coin toss is ½
 - The complement of the event is not getting any heads which is given by 3/4
 - Now probability of getting two heads can be found by subtracting the probability of its complement from 1
 - 1-3/4 = 1/4

Rules of Probability (contd.)

- ➤ Rule of addition The probability union of events A and B is equal to the probability that Event A plus the probability that Event B occurs minus the probability of intersection of Events A and B occur
- \triangleright P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)



 Calculate the probability of getting a king or getting an ace while drawing a card from a deck of cards

Rules of Probability (contd.)

- ➤ Two events A and B are said to be independent of each other if the probability of one event occurring is unaffected by the occurrence or non-occurrence of the other event
 - For e.g. consider two events, a coin toss and a roll of a dice. These are independent of each other as outcome of one does not affect the other
- ➤ Rule of Multiplication If two events A and B are independent, then
- \triangleright P(A and B) = P(A).P(B)

Rules of Probability (contd.)

- \triangleright P(A and B) = P(A).P(B)
 - Let us consider two events a coin toss and roll of a 6 faced dice
 - The sample space is given by {H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6}
 - Let event A be getting a head in the toss and event B be getting 1 or 2 in the roll of dice
 - Sub space of A and B is given by {H1, H2}
 - So P(A and B) is 2/12 = 1/6
 - P(A) = 1/2 and P(B) = 2/6 = 1/3
 - P(A).P(B) = 1/2 * 1/3 = 1/6

Conditional Probability

- Conditional Probability is the probability of an event A given that another event B has occurred
- Probability of A given B has occurred is denoted by P(A|B)

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

- Let us consider the previous example
- We want to find the probability of head in the toss and 1 or 2 in the roll of dice
- Now we are given additional information that event B has occurred i.e. the outcome of the dice roll is 1 or

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Conditional Probability (contd.)

- Probability of A given B has occurred is denoted by P(A|B)
 - We need to find $P(A \cap B)$
 - $A \cap B = \{H1, H2\}$
 - $P(A \cap B) = 2/12 = 1/6$
 - $P(A|B) = P(A \cap B) / P(B) = 1/2$
 - Let us verify: our new sample space is given by {H1, H2, T1, T2}
 - Total number of outcomes in the sample space has reduced to 4
 - Out of this the favourable outcomes are {H1, H2}
 - P(A|B) = 2/4 = 1/2

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Bayes' Theorem

➤ Bayes' Theorem helps us to find P(A|B) if we already know P(B|A)

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A)P(B|A)}{P(B)},$$

Odds

Odds of an event is defined as the probability of that event occurring / probability of that event not occurring

Odds =
$$\frac{\text{Probability of the event}}{1 - \text{Probability of event}} = \frac{P}{1 - P}$$

- > For example, consider a toss of a fair coin
- \triangleright The odds of heads = p(Heads) / (1-p(Heads))
- \triangleright 0.5/0.5 = 1 (or) 1:1
- ➤ In the roll of a fair die, the odds of getting 5 or 6
- \triangleright 0.33/0.66 = $\frac{1}{2}$ (or) 1:2

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Odds Ratio

> Is a ratio of two odds

$$OR = \frac{\frac{p_1}{1 - p_1}}{\frac{p_0}{1 - p_0}}$$

- ➤ In the roll of a fair die, the odds of getting 5 or 6
- \triangleright 0.33/0.66 = $\frac{1}{2}$ (or) 1:2
- \triangleright Odds of getting 1 = 0.1666/0.83333 = 1/5
- \triangleright Odds ratio = (1/2) / (1/5) = 2.5
- ➤ Odds of getting 5 or 6 is 2.5 times greater than the odds of getting 1

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Binomial Distributions

- Consider an experiment where one coin is tossed 2 times
- > Let Y denote the number of heads
- > We know that:

•
$$P(Y=0) = \frac{1}{4}$$

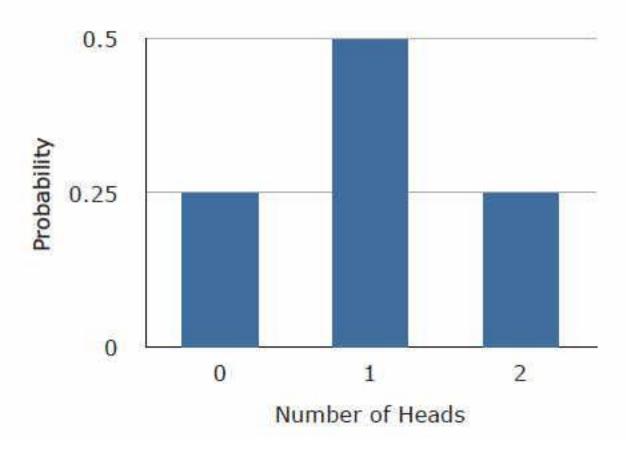
•
$$P(Y=1) = \frac{1}{2}$$

•
$$P(Y=2) = \frac{1}{4}$$

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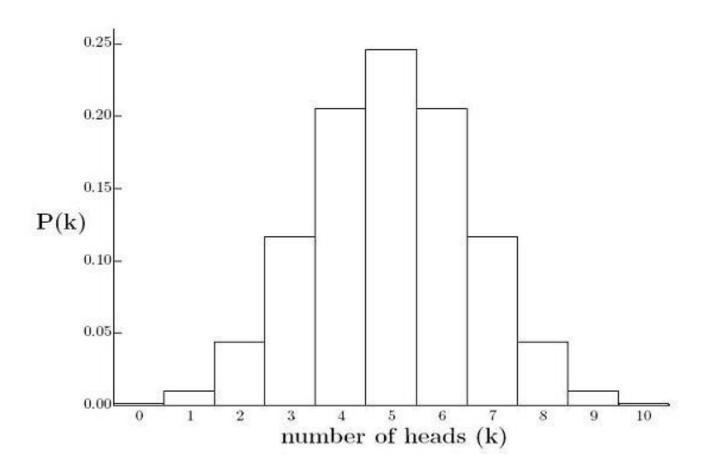
Binomial Distributions (contd.)

- > Let us plot the probabilities
- > This is called a Binomial Distribution



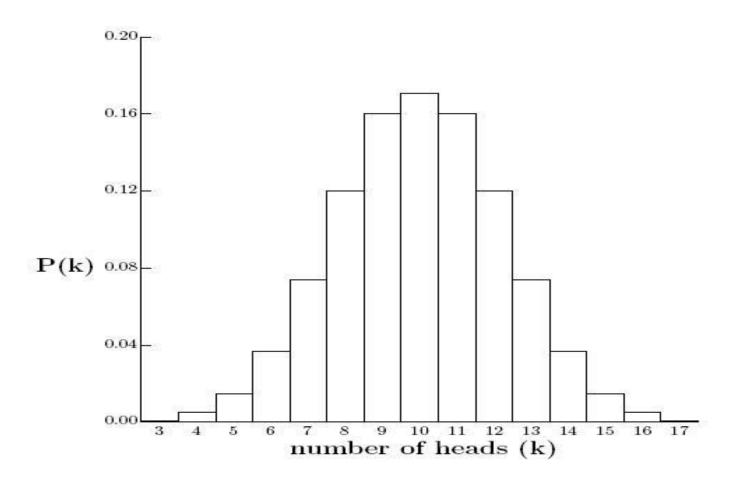
Binomial Distributions (contd.)

> Let us increase the number of tosses to 10



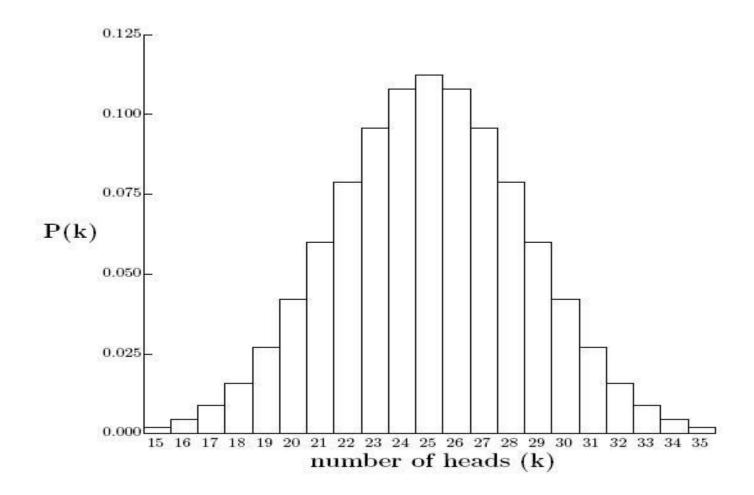
Binomial Distributions (contd.)

➤ Let us repeat the experiment with 20 tosses



Binomial Distributions (contd.)

> 50 tosses

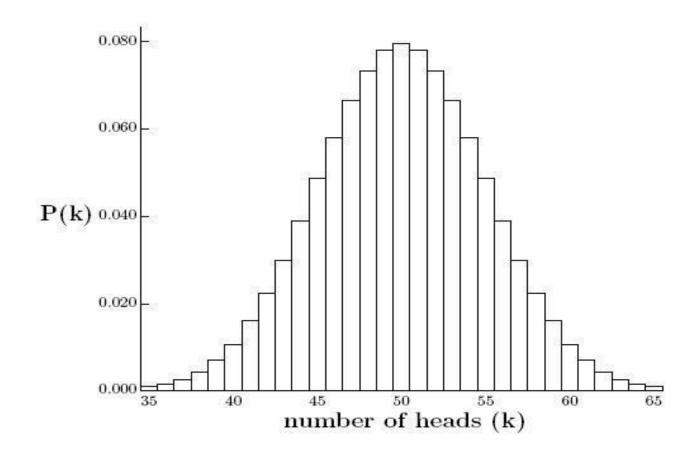


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Binomial Distributions (contd.)

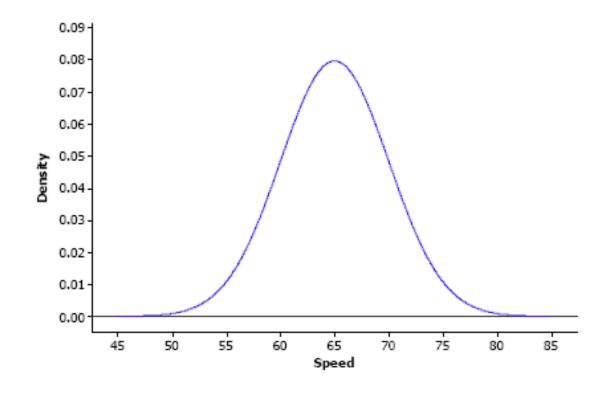
➤ 100 tosses



Continuous Distributions

- > So far we have seen probability distributions of discrete variables
- Number of heads in our previous experiments can only be whole numbers
- ➤ Let us think of some continuous variables instead of a discrete variable like number of heads in a series of coin tosses
- ➤ Let us consider the average speed of vehicles at a point in a highway
- ➤ Let us graph the probability of speed of a random vehicle

Continuous Distributions (contd.)



> This graph is called probability density function

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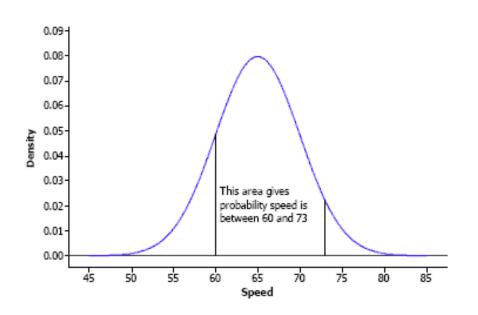
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0101000 **0101000 010100010** 10100010

101000101

Continuous Distributions (contd.)

- Unlike discrete distribution, we can't directly find the probability of a point
- ➤ In continuous distributions probability can be found only for intervals
- Probability for an interval = Area under the curve in that interval

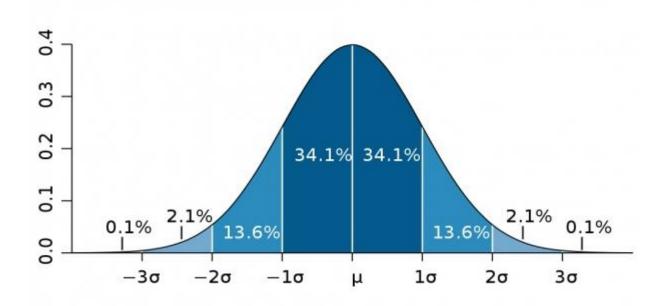


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Normal Distribution

- > Popularly known as bell-shaped curve
- \triangleright Normal distribution has a mean of μ and a standard distribution of σ





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Normal Distribution (contd.)

- > Features of a Normal Distribution:
 - Mean=Median=Mode
 - Symmetric about the centre
 - Defined by two parameters μ and σ
- Many natural occurring phenomenon follow normal distribution
 - Height of a large population
 - Blood pressure

Standard Normal Distribution

Standard Normal Distribution is a special case of Normal Distribution where mean, μ = 0 and standard deviation, σ = 1

