Statistics

Descriptive statistics:

Statistics involving describing data. Involves summarizing and organizing data so they can be easily understood.

Inference statistics:

Complex set of procedures to draw conclusions over large populations with sample data.

Data

Numeric: wind speed, time duration, discrete etc.

Categorical: Car types, Binary, ordinal (ordered).

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Exploratory Data Analysis

Data Structure:

* Rectangular (rows are records & columns are variable or features) and
* Non-Rectangular (spatial or graph)

In statistics we use mostly rectangular data:

**Estimates of Location**

An estimate of where most of the data is located (i.e., its central tendency)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Key Term | Definition | Formula | Usage |
| Mean | Sum of all values/ number of values |  | average |
| Weighted Mean | Sum of all values times a weight / sum of weights |  | Some variables are intrinsically more variable than other and high variable observations are given lower weight. Ex: when taking average from multiple sensors giving lower weight for sensors that giving less accurate readings. |
| Median | The value such that one-half of data lies above and below |  | While calculating average household income in a city where bill gate lives the mean gives diff value where median gives right value no matter who is rich or not. |
| Percentile | The value such that P percentage of data lies below |  |  |
| Weighted Median | The value such that one half of the weighted sum lies above and below the sorted data. |  |  |
| Trimmed Mean | The average of all values after removing fixed number of extreme values | P smallest and largest values omitted | A trimmed means eliminate the influence of extreme values, EX: International diving the top score & bottom score from five judges are dropped and the final score is the average of scores from 3 remaining judges. This makes it difficult for a single judge to manipulate the scores. |

Note: Trimmed mean, Median and weighted median are robust to outliers.

Outlier: is a any value which is very distant from other values in data set and cause skewness.

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[Refer Estimates of Location in Python Notebooks]

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**Estimates of Variability**

Measures whether the data values are tightly clustered or spread out.

At the heart of the statistics lies variability:

* Measuring it
* Reducing it
* Distinguishing random from real variability
* Identifying the various sources of real variability
* Make decision out of it in presence.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Key Terms | Why | Formula | Formula Explanation |
| Deviation | To calculate how individual item deviate from mean, useful to calculate Standard deviation | Mean – Individual Value | Simple distance calculation formula |
| Variance | How each data is varied from the mean |  | Its not express in square root as it already quantifies the spread of data in squared units. |
| Standard Deviation  (Population) means whole dataset | Square root of variance |  | Just calculating the mean of deviations (distance form mean), squaring to avoid negatives to cancel with positive. Square root to get back squares to their original unit. |
| Standard Deviation (sample) | Same as population but n-1  Dividing by 𝑛−1 instead of n results in a slightly larger value for the standard deviation, which better reflects the variability in the population from which the sample was drawn |  | This adjustment is known as Bessel's correction. The rationale behind this correction is to provide an unbiased estimate of the population standard deviation. |
| Mean Absolute Deviation (Manhattan Norm, l1 – norm) | Mean of absolute values of the deviation from the mean |  | SD emphasize the large deviation, but MAD won’t because its taking absolute values |
| Median Absolute Deviation from Median | Robustness to outliers |  | Median of absolute values of the deviation from the median |
| Percentile | A percentile tells you where a certain value falls within a dataset when arranged in ascending order. |  | Simple percentage calculation  For instance, if your score is at the 70th percentile, it means you've scored as well as or better than 70% of the other people in the dataset. |
| Interquartile range | The difference between 75th percentile and 25th percentile |  | This range represents where the bulk of the data lies, excluding the extremes. |

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**Degrees of freedom and n or n – 1?**

whether you divide by n or n – 1. It is based on the premise that you want to make estimates about a population, based on a sample. If you use the intuitive denominator of n in the variance formula, you will underestimate the true value of the variance and the standard deviation in the population. This is referred to as a biased estimate. However, if you divide by n – 1 instead of n, the variance becomes an unbiased estimate.

To fully explain why using n leads to a biased estimate involves the notion of degrees of freedom, which considers the number of constraints in computing an estimate. In this case, there are n – 1 degrees of freedom since there is one constraint: the standard deviation depends on calculating the sample mean. For most problems, data scientists do not need to worry about degrees of freedom.

Notes:

* Even for normal distribution the calculation of SD, MAD, Median AD are different.
* The percentile is essentially the same as a quantile, with quantiles indexed by fractions (so the .8 quantile is the same as the 80th percentile).

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[Refer Estimates of Variability in Python Notebooks]

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**Explore Data Distribution**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Key Term | Usage | visual |
| Box Plot | * Helps to identify the quartiles, Interquartile, median, find outliers | Box Plot - Simply explained - DATAtab |
| Frequency Table | * Able to find how frequent or the count of category or intervals in a dataset. * Helps to summarize data. * Further helps to plot Bar and pie charts. | Frequency Table: How to Make & Examples - Statistics By Jim |
| Histogram | Visual representation of data distribution, the bar height says how frequence of the data occur.  Uses bins to represent frequency of observations. | Histograms Unveiled: Analyzing Numeric Distributions |
| Density Plot | A smoothed version of the histogram, often based on a kernel density estimate.  estimate the probability density function (PDF) of the underlying distribution, providing a smoothed representation of the data distribution.  When dataset is large and continuous data. | Density – from Data to Viz |

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[Refer Estimates of Distribution in Python Notebooks]

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**Exploring Binary and Categorical data**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Key Term | Definition | Example |
| Mode | The most commonly occurring category or value in a data set. | In most part of US, the mode of religious preference would be Christian |
| Expected value | When categories can be associated with numerical values, this gives an average value based on category’s probability of occurrence. |  |
| Bar chart | The proportion of each category plotted as bars |  |
| Pie chart | The proportion of each category plotted as wedges in a pie. |  |

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[Refer Exploration of Binary and Categorical Data in Python Notebooks]

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Expected Value

A marketer for a new cloud technology, for example, offers two levels of service, one priced at $300/month and another at $50/month. The marketer offers free webinars to generate leads, and the firm figures that 5% of the attendees will sign up for the $300 service, 15% will sign up for the $50 service, and 80% will not sign up for anything. This data can be summed up, for financial purposes, in a single “expected value,”

The expected value is calculated as follows:

1. Multiply each outcome by its probability of occurrence.

2. Sum these values

In the cloud service example, the expected value of a webinar attendee is thus $22.50 per month, calculated as follows:

EV = (0 .05) (300) + (0 .15) (50) + (0 .80) (0) = 22.5

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**Probability**

For our purposes the probability of an event will happen is the proportion of the event will occur if the situation could be repeated over and over again, infinitely.

**Correlation**

In Exploratory Data Analysis the correlation will be performed among features or between feature and target variables.

If the highest value of X goes with highest value of Y then correlation of X and Y is positively correlated and also for vice versa.

If the highest value of X goes with lowest value of X then correlation of X and Y is negatively correlated and also for vice versa

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**Correlation key terms**

*Correlation coefficient:* a metric to which extend the numerical variables are associated ranges from -1 to +1.

*Correlation matrix*: a matrix in which variables are both in rows and columns and correlation between them as values.

*Scatter plot:* a plot which x-axis is one plot and y axis is one plot.

**Vector Sum of Products**

First, let's clarify what the "vector sum of products" means:

Given two vectors:

Vector 𝐴

A = [1, 2, 3]

Vector 𝐵

B = [4, 5, 6]

The sum of products (or dot product) of these vectors is calculated as:

1⋅4 + 2⋅5 + 3⋅6

Breaking it down:

1⋅4=4

2⋅5=10=10

3⋅6=18

Adding these up:

4+10+18=32

Shuffling and Recalculation

The next part talks about shuffling one of the vectors and recalculating the sum of products. Let's shuffle vector 𝐵

Assume we shuffle vector 𝐵

B to [6, 4, 5]. Now, we recalculate the sum of products:

1⋅6+2⋅4+3⋅5

Breaking it down:

1⋅6=6

2⋅4=8

3⋅5=15

Adding these up:

6+8+15=29

In this case, the new sum of products is 29, which is less than 32.

Why the Original Sum is the Highest

The text states that "the vector sum of products will never be higher than 32" when you shuffle the elements. This is because the original ordering of the vectors (1, 2, 3 with 4, 5, 6) maximizes the sum of products due to the way the values are paired. This property is a result of the vectors being sorted in the same order. When both vectors are sorted in increasing order, the sum of their products is maximized.

Using the Sum as a Metric

The sum of products (32 in the original case) can be used as a metric to compare against random shufflings. By shuffling one of the vectors multiple times and calculating the sum of products each time, you can generate a distribution of sums. This relates to a resampling-based estimate.

Resampling-Based Estimate

In statistics, resampling methods involve repeatedly drawing samples from a data set and calculating a statistic (in this case, the sum of products) for each sample. By comparing the observed statistic (32) to the distribution of statistics from the resampled data, you can determine how likely or unusual the observed value is.

In summary, the vector sum of products is maximized when both vectors are in the same order. Shuffling and recalculating this sum multiple times allows for a comparison of the observed value against a distribution of potential values, which can be used in various statistical analyses, such as hypothesis testing or confidence interval estimation.

To compute **Pearson’s correlation coefficient**, we multiply deviations from the mean for variable 1 times those for variable 2, and divide by the product of the standard deviations



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Variables can have an association that is not linear, in which case the correlation coefficient may not be a useful metric. The relationship between tax rates and revenue raised is an example: as tax rates increase from zero, the revenue raised also increases. However, once tax rates reach a high level and approach 100%, tax avoidance increa‐ ses and tax revenue actually declines.



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