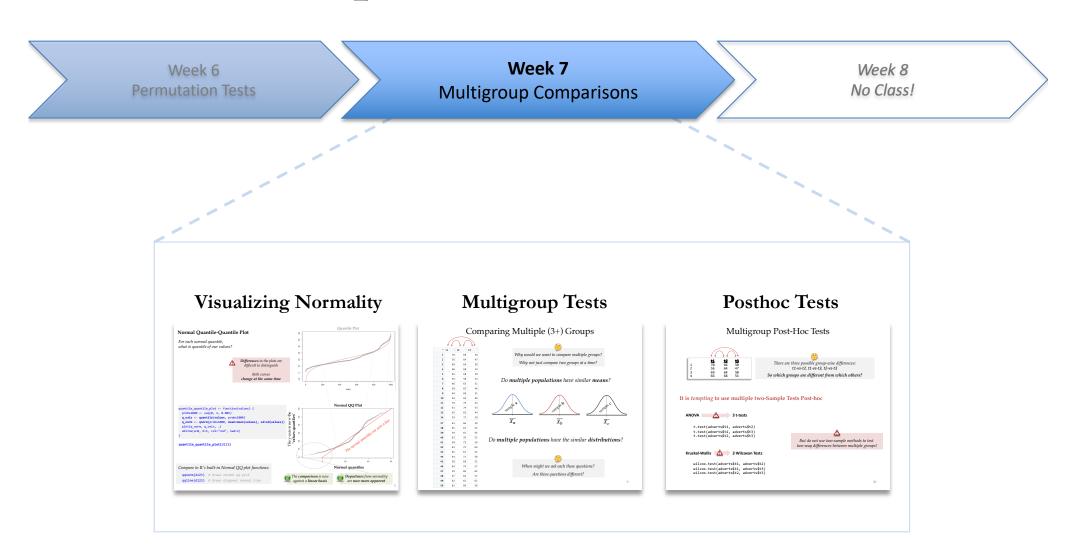
Business Analytics Using Computational Statistics



Picking Packages

TidyR

Well maintained and updated

Simpler Syntax

Used in many books/tutorials

Part of larger "tidy" universe
(might be better for large analytics project)

Reshape2

▲ Seems to be "superseded" by TidyR (will it stop being maintained one day?)



Still found in online tutorials

© Custom built for reshaping (might be better for using in your own packages)



There's a **lot of decisions** that should go into adopting a package for your work.

Consider the factors that are **important for you**

There are no right or wrong choices
(you may learn more by switching between packages)

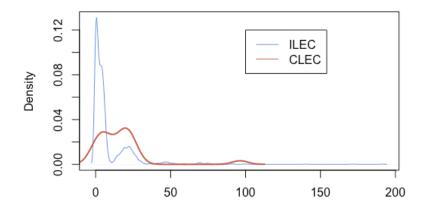
```
library(tidyR)
verizon <- read.csv("verizon_wide.csv")

verizon_long <- gather(verizon_wide, na.rm = TRUE, key = "provider", value = "time")
providers <- split(x = verizon_long$time, f = verizon_long$provider)</pre>
```

t-Test of Sample Means

Assumptions of Two-Sample t-Tests:

- 1. Ratio/Interval scale (continuous numbers)
- 2. Normal distribution of data
- 3. Homogeneity of variance (constant variance)



Student's t-Test assuming <u>equal variances</u>

t.test(providers\$CLEC, providers\$ILEC, alt="greater", var.equal=TRUE, conf.level = 0.99)

```
# t = 2.6125, df = 1685, p-value = 0.004534

Reject H_{null}
```



Assumptions about variances are important: we arrive at contrary conclusions at $\alpha = 0.01$

Welch's t-Test assuming <u>unequal variances</u>

t.test(providers\$CLEC, providers\$ILEC, alt="greater", var.equal=FALSE, conf.level = 0.99)

Cannot Reject H_{null}



We must also confirm normality assumption

Assessing Normality

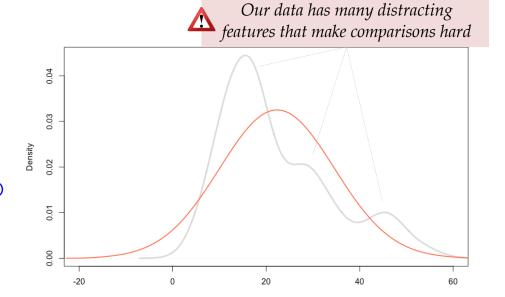
How can we visually compare distributions?

Density Plots

We can plot the <u>distributions</u> of our data against perfect normal

Let's take 1000 quantiles from a normal distribution with same central tendencey and dispersion as our original data

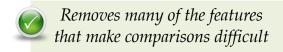
```
probs1000 <- seq(0, 1, 0.001)
qnorm1000 <- qnorm(probs1000, mean=mean(d123), sd=sd(d123))
plot(density(d123), main=NA, xlab=NA)
lines(density(qnorm1000))</pre>
```

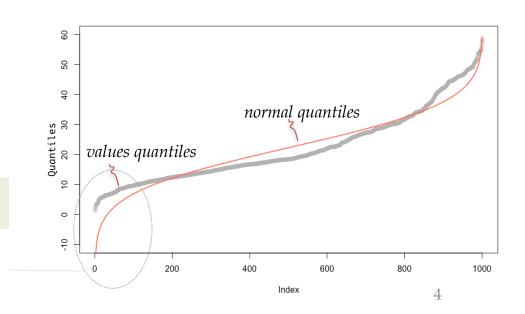


Quantile Plots

We can plot the quantiles of our data against perfect normal

```
plot(quantile(d123, probs=probs1000))
lines(qnorm1000)
```





Normal Quantile-Quantile Plot

For each normal quantile, what is quantile of our values?



Differences in the plots are difficult to distinguish

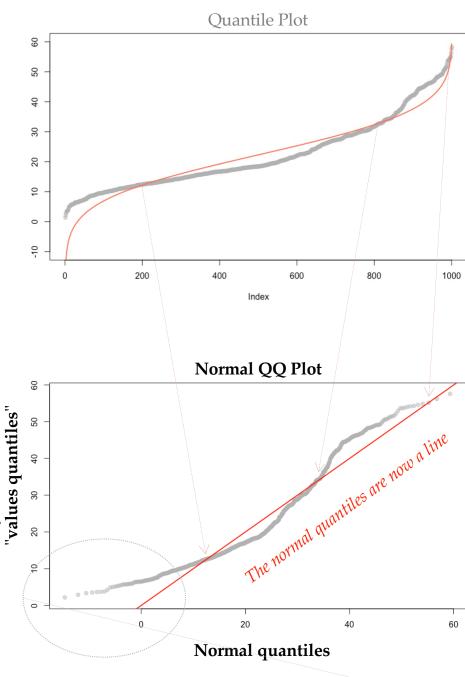
Both curves change at the same time

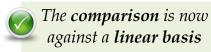
```
quantile_quantile_plot <- function(values) {
  probs1000 <- seq(0, 1, 0.001)
  q_vals <- quantile(values, probs1000)
  q_norm <- qnorm(probs1000, mean=mean(values), sd=sd(values))
  plot(q_norm, q_vals, ...)
  abline(a=0, b=1, col="red", lwd=2)
}</pre>
```

quantile_quantile_plot(d123)

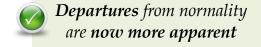
Compare to R's built-in Normal QQ plot functions:

```
qqnorm(d123) # Draws normal qq plot
qqline(d123) # Draws diagonal normal line
```



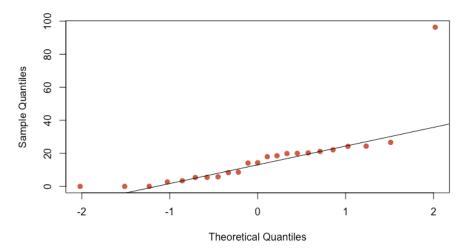


The y-axis is now the

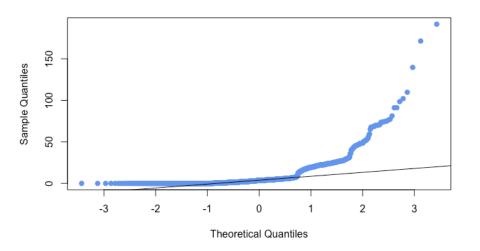


Does our data match assumptions of normality?

qqnorm(providers\$CLEC, col="coral3", pch=19)
qqline(providers\$CLEC)



qqnorm(providers\$ILEC, col="cornflowerblue", pch=19)
qqline(providers\$ILEC)





We should likely prefer our non-parametric tests

You now know exactly how Normal-QQ plots work,
But use the built-in functions qqnorm(), qqLine() in your work

Permutation Tests of Sample Means

```
observed diff <- mean(providers$CLEC) - mean(providers$ILEC)</pre>
# Simulate Permuted differences
permute diff <- function(values, groups) {</pre>
  permuted <- sample(values, replace = FALSE)</pre>
  grouped <- split(permuted, groups)</pre>
  mean(grouped$CLEC) - mean(grouped$ILEC)
nperms <- 10000
set.seed(895702709)
permuted diffs <- replicate(nperms, permute diff(verizon long$time, verizon long$provider))</pre>
                                                                               Null Distribution of Differences
# Visualize permuted differences
hist(permuted diffs, breaks = "fd", probability = TRUE, ...)
                                                                Density
lines(density(permuted diffs), lwd=2)
                                                                   90.0
abline(v=observed diff, col="coral3", lwd=3)
                                                                                                     10
                                                                       -20
                                                                                 -10
                                                                                                               20
# Significance of permuted differences
                                                                                       permuted diffs
p_1tailed <- sum(permuted diffs > observed diff) / nperm
# [1] 0.0186
Cannot Reject H<sub>null</sub>
```

Assumption free conclusion: we cannot reject H_{null}

30

Would two-tailed p-value be different?

Wilcoxon Test of Samples



Assumption free conclusion:

Values in the two samples are distinct (values seem shifted)

Mean of samples are not distinguishable

BUT

CLEC-vs-ILEC customers seem to be treated differently

Comparing Multiple (3+) Groups

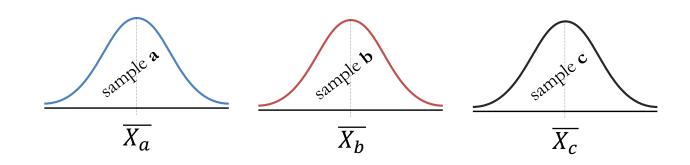


	t1 [‡]	t2 [‡]	t3 [‡]
1	70	66	50
2	56	64	47
3	69	64	50
4	66	68	54
5	65	68	50
6	63	58	54
7	66	65	51
8	58	65	46
9	64	69	51
10	63	64	60
11	70	74	43
12	61	74	53
13	65	62	44
14	59	71	59
37	63	66	39
38	65	67	55
39	59	65	45
40	63	70	53
41	58	72	50
42	63	72	60
43	65	67	52
44	64	71	58
45	58	69	55
46	64	74	57
47	59	60	62
48	57	64	57
49	62	62	62
50	62	60	58



Why would we want to compare multiple groups?
Why not just compare two groups at a time?

Do multiple populations have similar means?



Do multiple populations have the similar distributions?



When might we ask each these questions?

Are these questions different?

Advertising Example

A marketing manager is trying to develop a new nation-wide advertising campaign. She is not sure whether to advertise the low price, the high quality, or the great features of the product. To find out which strategy works best, she conducts an experiment using three different advertisements in three different cities that have nearly identical sales and demographics. She monitors the sales in each city for 50 days.

Assume: the 3 strategies might not have run at the same time; the 3 cities are very similar; people did not share their reviews between cities

She treats the three advertisements differently:

- the low product price is advertised in the first city (t1)
- the high product quality is advertised in the second city (t2)
- the number of product features is advertized in the third city (t3)



- 1. Did the three strategies produce different sales, on average?
- 2. Did the three strategies produce difference sales numbers?

adverts <- read.table("marketing_strategies.txt", header=TRUE)</pre>

Descriptive Statistics:

sapply(adverts, mean) t1 t2 t3 62.36 66.74 51.96

sapply(adverts, sd) t1 t2

t1 t2 t3 4.279805 4.173825 6.630049

$$-\frac{1}{x_1}$$
: 62.36 s_1 : 4.28

$$\bar{x}_2:66.74$$
 $s_2:4.17$

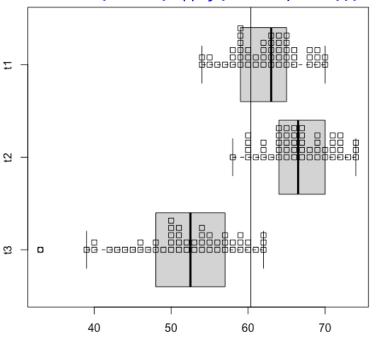
$$\bar{x}_3:51.96$$
 $s_3:6.63$

Overall sample mean (grand mean):

mean(sapply(adverts, mean)) =
$$x:60.35$$

rev() reverses order

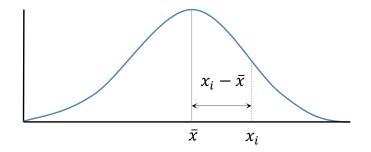
boxplot(rev(adverts), horizontal=TRUE)
stripchart(rev(adverts), method="stack", add=TRUE)
abline(v=mean(sapply(adverts, mean)))



wide dataframe

	t1	t2	t3
1	70	66	50
2	56	64	47
3	69	64	50
4	66	68	54
5	65	68	50
6	63	58	54
7	66	65	51
8	58	65	46
9	64	69	51
•	•	•	•
49	62	62	62
50	62	60	58
	-	10	

Parametric Approach: Analyze Variances



Absolute Deviation

$$|x_i - \bar{x}|$$

Mean Absolute Deviation

$$\frac{\sum |x_i - \bar{x}|}{N}$$

Variability

$$\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

"Sum of Squares"

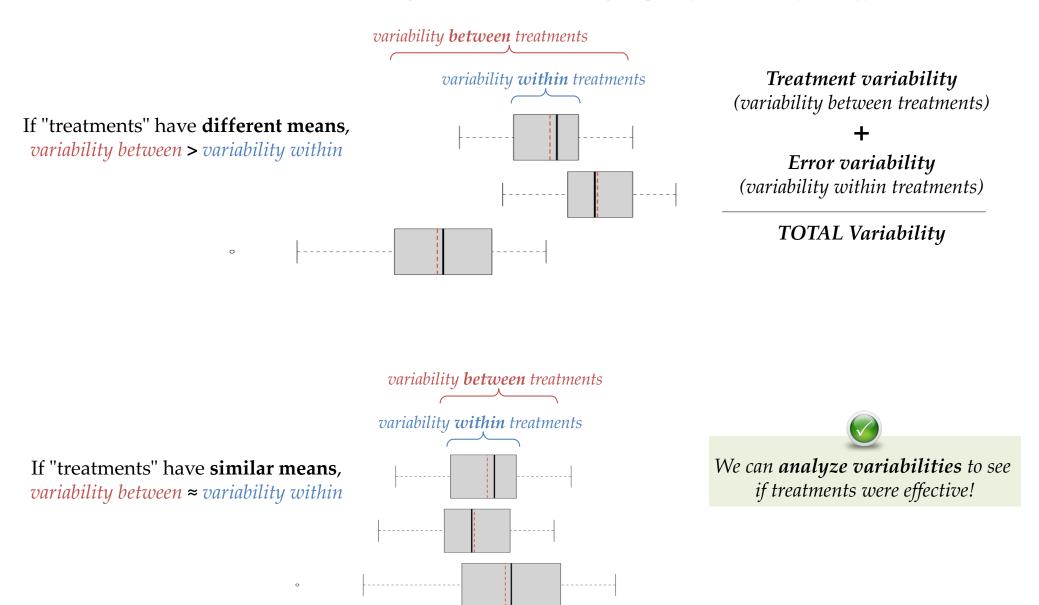
Variance

$$\frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}$$

"Mean Squares" (average variability?)

Sources of Variance: Between/Within Treatments

Treatment: what was changed to create different groups (e.g., advertising strategy)



One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

 \mathbf{H}_{null} : The means of the three treatment populations are the same

 $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$

 \mathbf{H}_{alt} : The means of the three treatments populations are not the same

at least one mean is different

k treatments
of 1 factor

t1 t2 t3

1 70 66 50
2 56 64 47
3 69 64 50
4 66 68 54

 $n_i \times k = n_T$ total observaitons

SSTR: sum of squares due to treatments (treatment variability)

MSTR: mean square due to treatments (treatment variance)

SSE: sum of squares due to error (error variability)

MSE: mean square due to error (error variance)

between-treatments variance:
(variance of treatment means
from grand mean)

$$MSTR = \frac{SSTR}{df_{MSTR}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{K} n_j (\bar{x}_j - \bar{x})^2}{k - 1}$$

within-treatments variance:
(average variance within treatments)

$$MSE = \frac{SSE}{df_{MSE}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{K} (n_j - 1)s_j^2}{n_T - k}$$

$$F = \frac{MSTR}{MSE}$$

Ratio of variances follows **F** distribution

k: number of treatments

n_j: sample size of treatment j

s_j: standard deviation of treatment j

n_T: size of all treatments combined

 x_j : mean of sample j

 $_{x}^{=}$: grand mean (mean of all sample means)

df: degrees of freedom

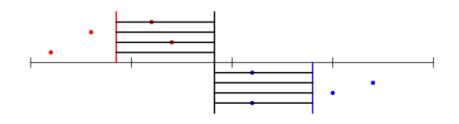
between-treatments estimate of variance

"variance between treatment means"

 s^2 = (treatment variance) + (error variance)

Will be larger than MSE if H_{null} is false

$$MSTR = \frac{SSTR}{df_{MSTR}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} n_{j} (\bar{x}_{j} - \bar{x})^{2}}{k - 1}$$



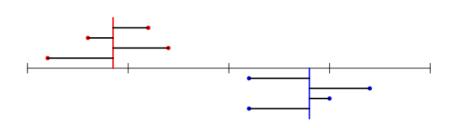
within-treatments estimate of variance

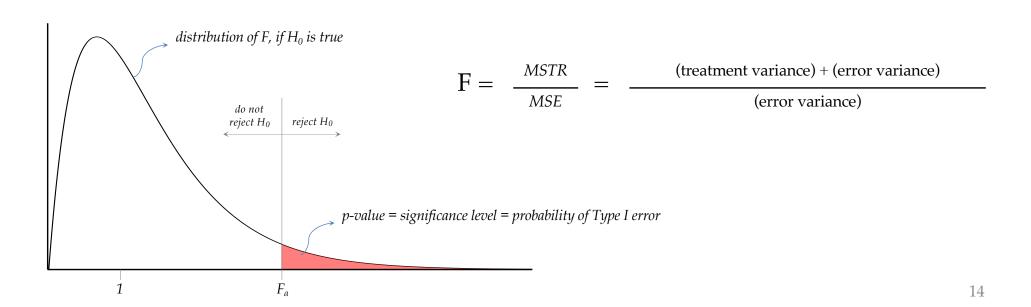
"average variance of all treatments"

$$s^2$$
 = (error variance)

$$MSE = \frac{SSE}{df_{MSE}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} s_j^2}{k}$$
 if treatment sizes are the same

$$MSE = \frac{SSE}{df_{MSE}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} (n_j - 1)s_j^2}{n_T - k}$$
 if treatment sizes are different





One-way ANOVA the long way in R

functional iteration -- we don't need to explicitly loop through all the treatments!

$$MSTR = \frac{SSTR}{df_{MSTR}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} n_j (\bar{x}_j - \bar{x})^2}{k - 1} = \frac{5763.21}{3 - 1} = 2881.61$$

$$MSTR = \frac{SSTR}{df_{MSTR}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} n_j (\bar{x}_j - \bar{x})^2}{k-1} = \frac{5763.21}{3-1} = 2881.61$$

$$sstr <- 50*sum((sapply(adverts, mean) - mean(sapply(adverts, mean)))^2)$$

$$df_{MSTR} = \frac{SSTR}{df_{MSTR}} = \frac{5763.21}{3-1} = 2881.61$$

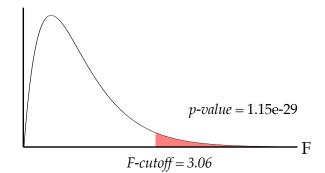
$$mstr <- 3-1$$

$$mstr <- sstr/df_mstr$$

$$MSE = \frac{SSE}{df_{MSE}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k} (n_j - 1)s_j^2}{n_T - k} = \frac{3905.06}{150 - 3} = 26.56$$

$$F = \frac{MSTR}{MSE} = \frac{2881.61}{26.56} = 108.47$$

f value <- mstr/mse</pre>



One-way ANOVA the easy way in R

	t1	t2	t3	
1	70	66	50	
2	70 56	64	47	
3	69	64	50	
4	66	68	54	

1 2 3 4	strategy s t1 t1 t1 t1	sales 70 56 69 66
51 52 53 54	t2 t2 t2 t2	66 64 64 68
101 102 103 104	t3 t3 t3 t3	50 47 50 54
	• • •	• • •

Change shape data of data to row-wise format

```
library(reshape2)
ads <- melt(adverts, id.vars = NULL,</pre>
            variable.name = "strategy",
             value.name = "sales")
```

Run oneway.test() function for one-way ANOVA

The **tilde** ~ separates dependent and independent variables

factor() tells R that this is a **categorical** variable

```
oneway.test(ads$sales ~ factor(ads$strategy), var.equal=TRUE)
One-way analysis of means
data: ads$sales and ads$strategy
```

F = 108.4737, num df = 2, denom df = 147, p-value < 2.2e-16

Alternatively, run the more general aov() function for ANOVA

```
anova model <- aov( ads$sales ~ factor(ads$strategy))</pre>
summary(anova_model)
```

```
summary() often gives a
more in-depth report on
an estimated model
```

```
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
                                       108.5 <2e-16 ***
factor(ads$strategy)
                          5763 2881.6
Residuals
                          3905
                                  26.6
                    147
Signif. codes: 0 (***, 0.001 (**, 0.01 (*, 0.05 (., 0.1 (), 1
```

Requirements for ANOVA

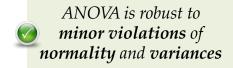
ANOVA requires some assumptions to be met:

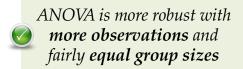
- 1. Each treatment/population's response variable is normally distributed
- 2. The variance (s^2) of the response variables is the same for all treatments/populations



3. The **observations** are **independent**: the response variables are not related between groups

But it is fairly robust to minor violations







But what should we do if we must greatly violate these assumptions?

Kruskal Wallis Test of Multiple Samples

An extension of Mann-Whitney/Wilcox for multiple groups!

 H_{null} : All groups would give you similar a value if randomly drawn from them

H_{alt}: At least one group would give you a larger value than another if randomly drawn

•	strategy [‡]	sales [‡]	ranks [‡]
1	t1	70	136.5
2	t1	56	40.0
3	t1	69	131.0
4	t1	66	113.5
5	t1	65	104.5
	• •	•	•

51	t2	66	113.5
52	t2	64	94.5
53	t2	64	94.5
54	t2	68	125.0
55	t2	68	125.0
		•	

101	t3	50	17.0
102	t3	47	11.0
103	t3	50	17.0
104	t3	54	30.5
105	t3	50	17.0
		•	•

These rank sums (R_i) give us a sense of how big the values are in each group

1. Rank all the combined values across groups (i=3)

Use the rank() function in R

```
sales_ranks <- rank(. . .)</pre>
```

```
[1] 136.5 40.0 131.0 113.5 104.5 86.5 113.5 48.5 94.5 86.5 136.5 71.5 104.5 56.0 [15] 131.0 56.0 94.5 65.0 56.0 131.0 30.5 30.5 113.5 104.5 94.5 71.5 36.0 125.0 [29] 36.0 56.0 78.5 125.0 65.0 78.5 125.0 65.0 86.5 104.5 56.0 86.5 48.5 86.5 [43] 104.5 94.5 104.5 131.0 94.5 56.0 43.5 78.5 78.5 131.5 94.5 94.5 125.0 125.0 48.5 [57] 104.5 104.5 131.0 94.5 149.0 149.0 78.5 140.5 131.0 113.5 104.5 94.5 140.5 144.5 [71] 86.5 113.5 104.5 147.0 120.0 65.0 78.5 131.0 136.5 120.0 140.5 113.5 120.0 65.0 [85] 71.5 144.5 113.5 120.0 104.5 136.5 144.5 144.5 120.0 140.5 131.0 149.0 65.0 94.5 [99] 78.5 65.0 17.0 11.0 17.0 30.5 17.0 30.5 21.5 9.5 21.5 65.0 6.0 26.5 [113] 7.0 56.0 9.5 36.0 5.0 3.5 21.5 56.0 21.5 78.5 56.0 30.5 43.5 1.0 [127] 40.0 40.0 12.5 12.5 71.5 14.0 3.5 36.0 43.5 78.5 48.5
```

2. **Group the ranks** into original groups

```
group_ranks <- split(. . .)</pre>
```

```
[1] 136.5 40.0 131.0 113.5 104.5 86.5 113.5 48.5 94.5 86.5 136.5 71.5 104.5 56.0 [15] 131.0 56.0 94.5 65.0 56.0 131.0 30.5 30.5 113.5 104.5 94.5 71.5 36.0 125.0 [29] 36.0 56.0 78.5 125.0 65.0 78.5 125.0 65.0 86.5 104.5 56.0 86.5 48.5 86.5 [43] 104.5 94.5 48.5 94.5 56.0 43.5 78.5 78.5 [1] 113.5 94.5 94.5 125.0 125.0 48.5 104.5 104.5 131.0 94.5 149.0 149.0 78.5 140.5 [15] 131.0 113.5 104.5 94.5 140.5 144.5 86.5 113.5 104.5 147.0 120.0 65.0 78.5 131.0 [29] 136.5 120.0 140.5 113.5 120.0 65.0 71.5 144.5 113.5 120.0 104.5 136.5 144.5 144.5 [43] 120.0 140.5 131.0 149.0 65.0 94.5 78.5 65.0 [1] 17.0 11.0 17.0 30.5 17.0 30.5 21.5 9.5 21.5 65.0 6.0 26.5 7.0 56.0 9.5 36.0 5.0 [18] 3.5 21.5 56.0 21.5 78.5 56.0 30.5 43.5 1.0 40.0 40.0 12.5 12.5 71.5 14.0 3.5 30.5 [35] 17.0 24.5 2.0 36.0 8.0 26.5 17.0 65.0 24.5 48.5 36.0 43.5 78.5 43.5 78.5 48.5
```

3. **Sum the ranks** for each group

But these rank sums also depend on the size of each group (n_i)

4. Apply the Kruskal Wallis formula to sum the squared ranks

There are multiple ways of computing H We will look at the rank sum approach...

$$R_{i} - sum of ranks of group i$$

$$Kruskal Wallis H = \frac{12}{N(N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{R_{i}^{2}}{n_{i}} - 3(N+1)$$

We adjust the rank sums by their group size, and compute a value that follows a chi-square distribution

 n_i – number of observations in group i

H # [1] 92.49268

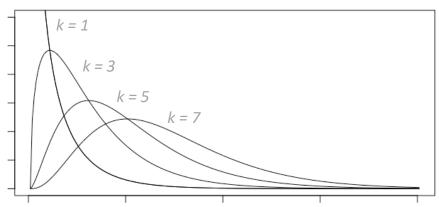
5. **Find p-value** of H from χ^2 distribution

p-value tells you significance of test

$$kw_p \leftarrow 1 - pchisq(H, df=k-1)$$
 $k-number of groups$

kw_p
[1] 0 Reject H_{null}

χ^2 "Chi-square" distribution



R has a built-in Kruskal-Wallis Test!

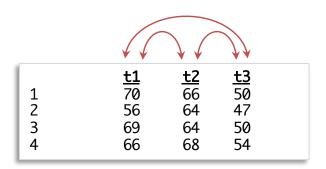
kruskal.test(sales ~ strategy, data = ads)

Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 92.679, df = 2, p-value < 2.2e-16

Note: There will be some difference in the calculation of H because kruskal.test() accounts for ties in ranks...

Multigroup <u>Post hoc</u> Tests

After data or results are seen





There are three possible group-wise differences: t1-vs-t2, t1-vs-t3, t2-vs-t3

So which groups are different from which others?

It is tempting to use multiple two-Sample Tests Post-hoc



t.test(adverts\$t1, adverts\$t2)

t.test(adverts\$t1, adverts\$t3)

t.test(adverts\$t2, adverts\$t3)



But do not use two-sample methods to test two-way differences between multiple groups!

Kruskal-Wallis 3 Wilcoxon Tests

wilcox.test(adverts\$t1, adverts\$t2)
wilcox.test(adverts\$t1, adverts\$t3)

wilcox.test(adverts\$t2, adverts\$t3)

Family-Wise Error



Running a test at 5% significance (α =0.05) is like rolling a 20-sided dice

Imagine rolling **one** 20-sided dice; probability of getting a "1" each time is 5%

This is the **single** risk of Type I error at 5% significance











family of dice

Imagine rolling **five** 20-sided dice; probability of getting a "1" each time is **22**%

This is the **family-wise** risk of type I error at 5% significance





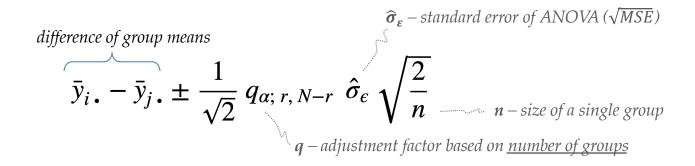
When evaluating many hypotheses, you are quite likely to commit type I error



So we cannot assess a family of tests using the same method to assess a single test

Tukey Test: Post-Hoc Test for <u>ANOVA</u>

Confidence interval of difference of means



TukeyHSD(anova_model, conf.level = 0.01)

p adj	upr	Lwr	diff	
0.000112	4.519185	4.240815	4.38	t2-t1
0.000000	-10.260815	-10.539185	-10.40	t3-t1
0.000000	-14.640815	-14.919185	-14.78	t3-t2



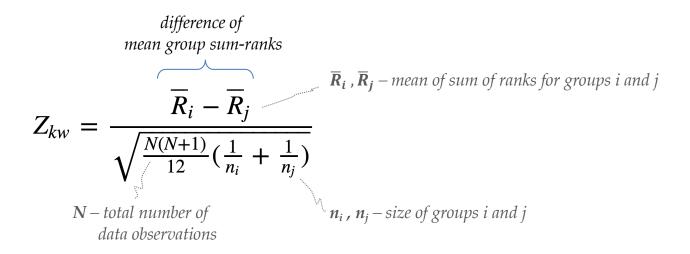
Considers number of groups Considers unexplained variance (MSE)



Assumptions of Tukey Test

- 1. The variance (s^2) of the response variables is the same for all treatments/populations
- 2. The **observations** are **independent**: the response variables are not related between groups

Dunn Test: Posthoc Tests for Kruskal Wallis



```
# install.packages("FSA")
library(FSA)
dunnTest(sales ~ strategy, data = ads, method = "bonferroni")
```

```
Comparison Z P.unadj P.adj
1 t1 - t2 -3.42499 6.148226e-04 1.844468e-03
2 t1 - t3 6.07927 1.207306e-09 3.621918e-09
3 t2 - t3 9.50426 2.014750e-21 6.044251e-21
```



No assumptions of variance homogeneity **No assumptions** of equal group sizes

Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Methods

	Parametric Methods	Non-parametric Methods
Data Distribution Assumptions	Distribution parameters of original data	
Approach	Statistical (simple, elegant formulas)	Computational (resampling/ranking)
Advantage	More statistical power if assumptions are met	Better when assumptions violated; Useful for new/different statistics
Disadvantage	Often not applicable to noisy real-world data; Often not applicable to new/different statistics	Procedures get complicated quickly; Many variations to choose from

Parametric Tests

Non-parametric Tests

Assumptions that need to be met	Distribution parameters of original data	
Information that is tested	Mean, Variance	Median, Quantiles, Ranks, Deviation,
Example of One-sample test	t-Tests	Bootstrap
Example of Two-sample test	t-Tests	Bootstrapped t-Tests Parametric Test Wilcoxon Test Signed-Rank Test
Example of Multi-group test	ANOVA	Bootstrapped ANOVA Kruskal Wallis Test
Posthoc multigroup comparisons	Tukey Test	Dunn Test
Major Disadvantage	Assumptions often cannot be met in real world data	Gets very complicated quickly; Many variations and alternatives