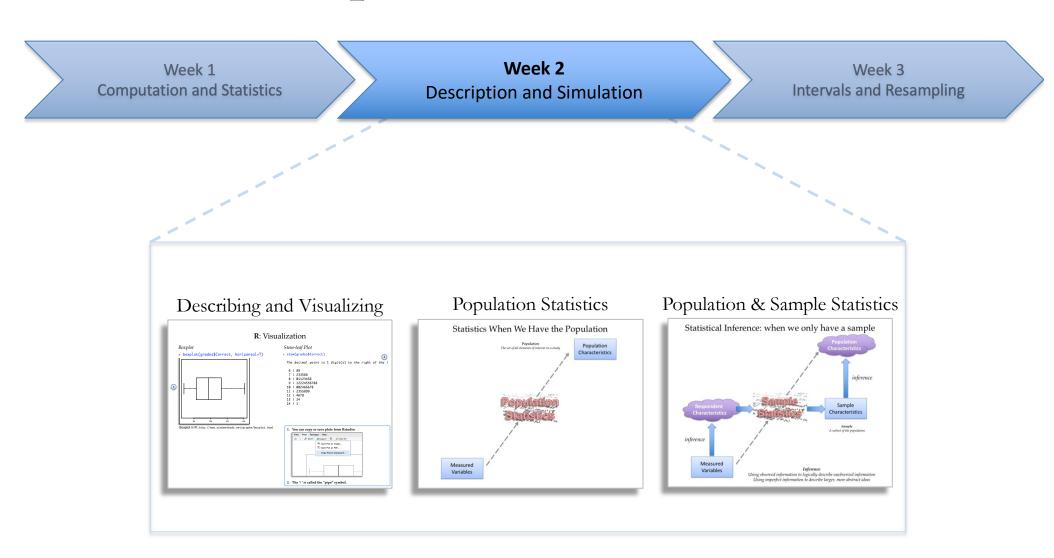
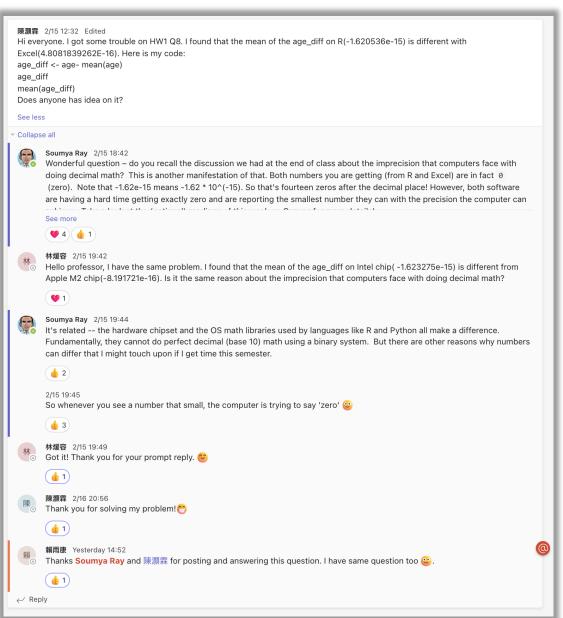
Business Analytics Using Computational Statistics



Social Coding is Easier





Asking questions benefits you and others who might have the same question



Answering questions benefits others, and helps buid your own understanding



Coding can seem scary and it helps to know that others are facing the same issues!

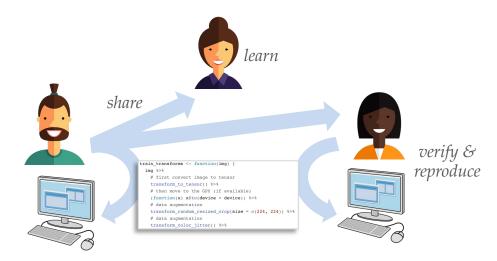
Social Coding is More Powerful

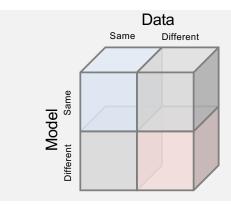
Sharable

Give your solution to others to learn from

Verifiable

Others can ensure it does the right things





Reproducible

Others can recreate your results

Reappliable

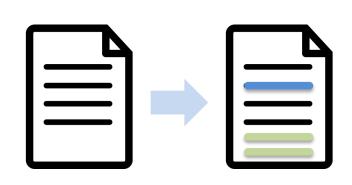
Others can reapply your process

Publishable

Publish your code & data as part of your paper

Extensible

Alter and improve on other studies!



Limits of Computation

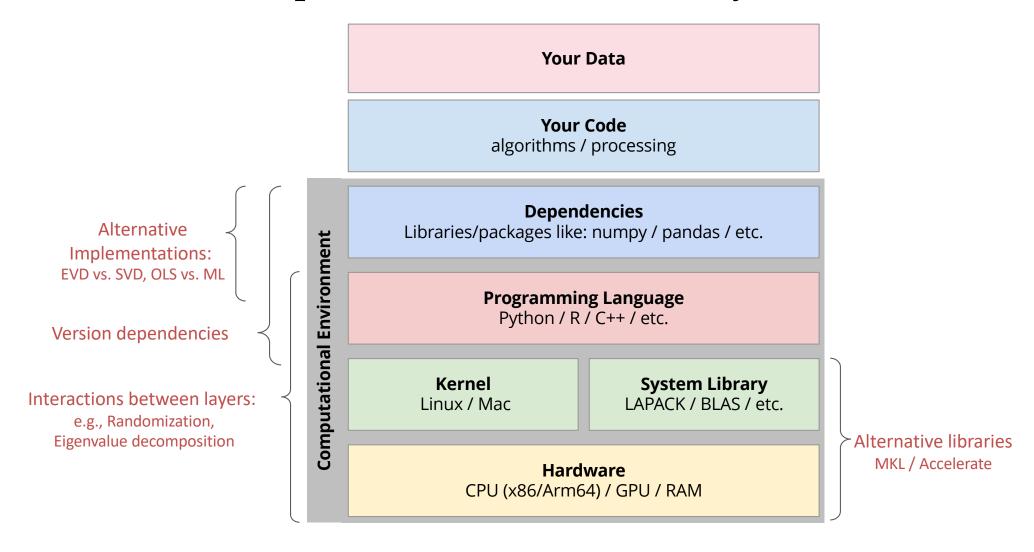
Differences in Arithmetic

```
(0.1 * 3) - 0.3
0.1 == 0.1
                               TRUE or FALSE?
0.1 + 0.1 == 0.2
                              TRUE or FALSE?
                                                                -5.551115\times10^{-17}
0.1 + 0.1 + 0.1 == 0.3 TRUE or FALSE?
                                                                -0.00000000000000005551115
0.1 * 4 == 0.4? TRUE or FALSE
0.1 * 5 == 0.5? TRUE or FALSE
0.1 * 6 == 0.6? TRUE or FALSE
                                                          When Math Fails You
0.1 * 7 == 0.7? TRUE or FALSE
                                            https://dev.to/jdsteinhauser/when-math-fails-you-2if8
0.1 * 8 == 0.8? TRUE or FALSE
0.1 * 9 == 0.9? TRUE or FALSE
                                                  Why 0.1 Does Not Exist In Floating-Point
0.1 * 10 == 1.0 ? TRUE or FALSE https://www.exploringbinary.com/why-0-point-1-does-not-exist-in-floating-point/
```

Finding Zero

```
ages - mean(ages)
 [1] 2.1929825 22.1929825 -5.8070175 26.1929825
                                                     -1.8070175 24.1929825
                                                                               3.1929825
    -3.8070175 23.1929825 -14.8070175
                                           0.1929825
                                                      30.1929825 17.1929825
                                                                               3.1929825
mean(ages - mean(ages))
 [1] -1.623275e-15
                                      It make a difference:
                                      - which language we use
    -1.623275 \times 10^{-15}
                                      - which operating system libraries we use
    -0.000000000000001623275
                                      - which hardware (CPU) we use
                                      - and more...
```

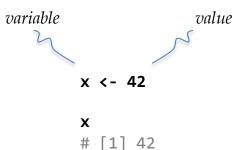
Computational Stack for Analytics

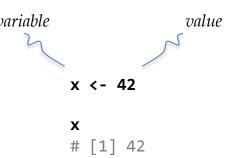




Each layer of this stack can affect the precision or other aspect of computational solutions

Variables vs. Values





Boxes?

variable is a container values are put in variables



Labels?

or

variable is a "sticky note" label value is an object in memory



Variables vs. Values



x # [1] 42

Boxes?

variable is a container values are put in variables



or

Labels?

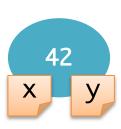
variable is a "sticky note" label value is an object in memory



x # [1] 42

y # [1] 42





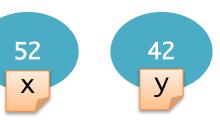
x # [1] 52

y # [1] 42



This variable-as-a-box metaphor does not match our results

New number 52 created



Old number 42



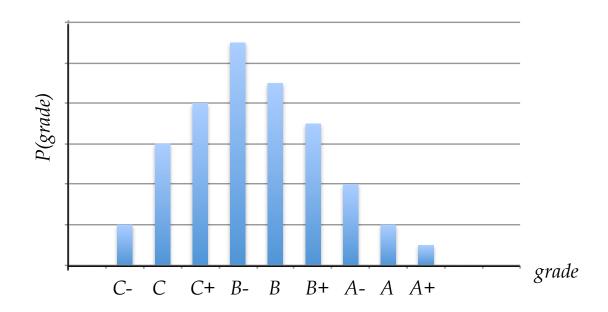
This variable-as-a-label metaphor is consistent with our results

Data Distributions

Discrete probability distribution

(useful for interval scale)

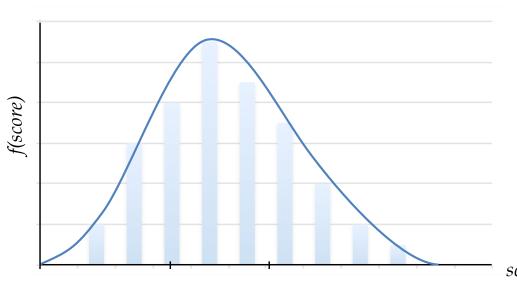
$$P(x) = \frac{occurences \ of \ an \ event}{total \ number \ of \ all \ events}$$



Continuous probability distribution

(more useful for ratio scale)

f(x): probability density function



score

Visualization: Histograms

exam <- read.table("exam_results.txt", header = TRUE)
scores <- exam\$scores</pre>

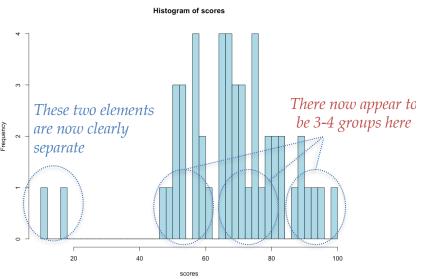
col changes the main color of a plot

hist(scores)

Histograms are created by breaking data into bins of equal length.

For every data element that falls in a bin, the bin's bar is 1 unit higher

These 2 elements seem like "outliers"



hist(scores, breaks = 50, col = "lightblue")

?hist

breaks one of: a vector giving the breakpoints between histogram cells, a function to compute the vector of breakpoints, a single number giving the number of cells for the histogram, a character string naming an algorithm to compute the number of cells (see 'Details'), a function to compute the number of cells.



How old is the 'histogram' visualization?

How should you find the optimal number of bins?

hist(scores, breaks = seq(0, 100, 10))

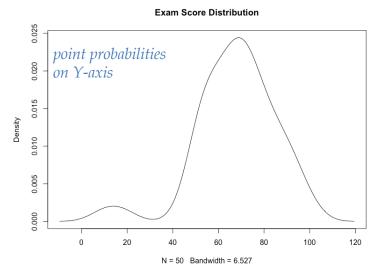
h <- hist(scores)</pre>



What's the **probability** of 80-90 grade?

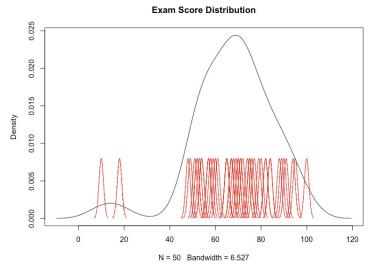
Visualization: Density Plot

plot(density(scores), main = "Exam Score Distribution")



Kernel density plots show the estimated probability density function of a data series.

Kernel: a curve function that has **area of 1**



Individual kernels of each data point are combined to estimate overall kernel density.

The smoothness of a density plot can be *adjusted* by scaling the *bandwidth* of the kernel.

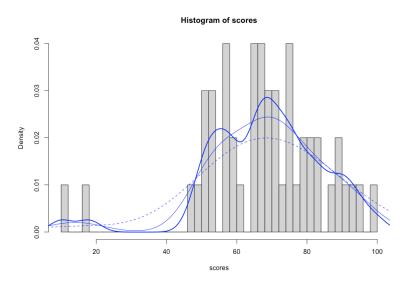
```
hist(scores, breaks=50, prob=TRUE)
lines(density(scores, adjust=0.5), col="blue", lwd=2)
lines(density(scores, adjust=1), col="blue")
lines(density(scores, adjust=2), col="blue", lty="dashed")
```

lines(...) similar plot(...) but plots on top of existing graphics

How should we find the optimal smoothness of bandwidth?



When should we use histogram vs. density plots?



ggplot2 package

Install the package (only needed once)

```
install.packages("ggplot2")
```

Install the package (every time you start the project)

```
library(ggplot2)
```

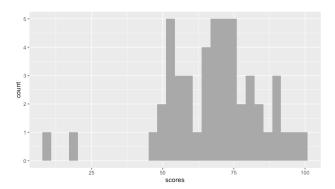
Specify the plot

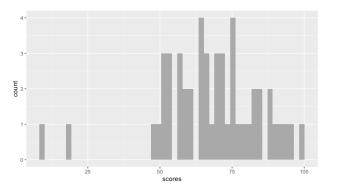
aesthetics define visual attributes

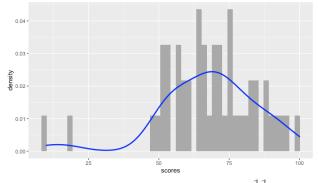
```
ggplot(exam, aes(x=scores)) + geom_histogram(bins=50, fill="darkgray")
```

```
ggplot(exam, aes(x=scores)) +
  geom_histogram(aes(y=after_stat(density)), bins=50, fill="darkgray") +
  geom_density(color="blue", linewidth=1)
```

Follows formal "grammar of graphics" to separate graphics into layers: data, geometries, etc.





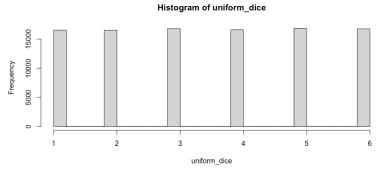


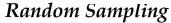
Simulation: Uniform Distributions

Random Uniform



```
[1] 0.50660837 0.82407258 0.23201429 0.99551556 0.48578535 [6] 0.80276338 0.72508096 0.08728901 0.83528430 0.80663412 uniform_dice <- round(runif(n=100000, min=0.5, max=6.5)) hist(uniform_dice)
```



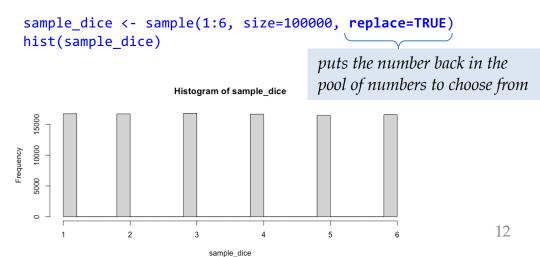


sampling with replacement

dice roll

P(roll)

The sample() function uniformly picks elements from a set

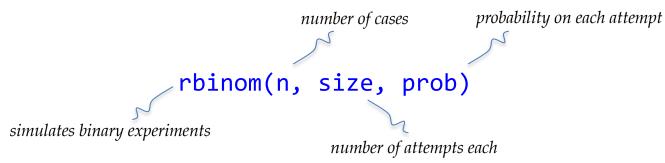


Simulation: Binomial Distribution

Imitates the behavior of a model



Binary outcomes: Experiments with **p** probability of success/failure **Repeated Attempts:** Number of success in **n** experiments



Number of heads if **1 person** flips **1 coin**:

```
rbinom(1, 1, 0.5)
# [1] 1
```

Number of heads if **1 person** flips **5 coins**:

```
rbinom(1, 5, 0.5)
# [1] 4
```

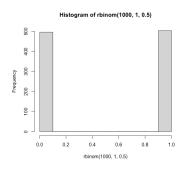
Number of heads if **10 people** flips **5 coins**:

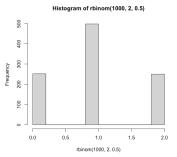
```
rbinom(10, 5, 0.5)
# [1] 3 3 3 1 2 4 3 2 0 2
```

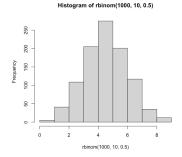
Visualizing the binomial distribution:

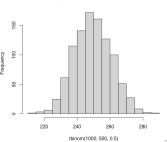
```
hist(rbinom(1000, 1, 0.5))
hist(rbinom(1000, 2, 0.5))
hist(rbinom(1000, 10, 0.5))
hist(rbinom(1000, 500, 0.5))
```









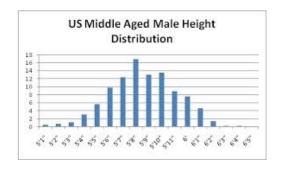


Histogram of rbinom(1000, 500, 0.5)

Simulation: Normal Distribution

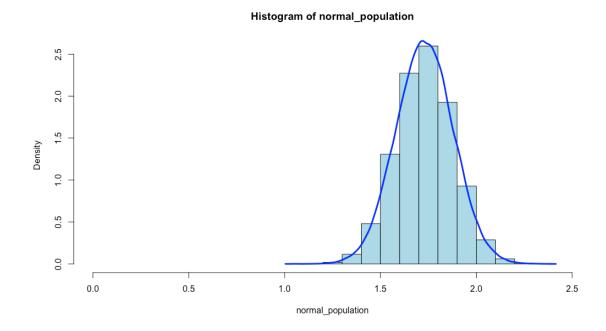
Random Normal

Let's assume this is a normal distribution, and make another distribution like it...



normal_population <- rnorm(100000, mean=1.73, sd=0.15)</pre>

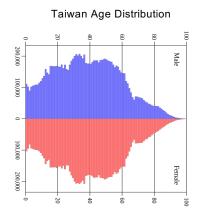
hist(normal_population, xlim=c(0,2.5), col="lightblue", probability=TRUE)
lines(density(normal population), col = "blue", lwd=3)



Simulation: Composite Distributions

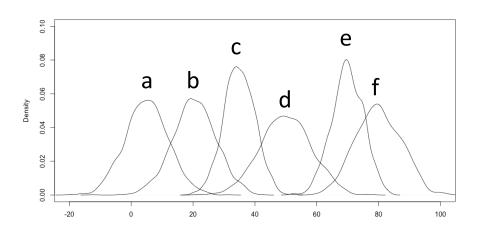
Made up of various smaller parts

Let's create an artificial distribution that looks something like the Taiwan Age Distribution...



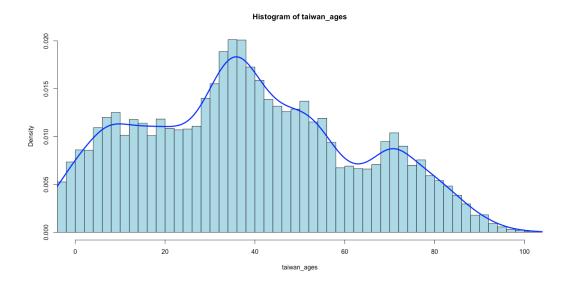
```
# Individual datasets
a <- rnorm(2000, mean=5, sd=7)
b <- rnorm(2000, mean=20, sd=7)
c <- rnorm(2500, mean=35, sd=5)
d <- rnorm(3000, mean=50, sd=8)
e <- rnorm(1000, mean=70, sd=5)
f <- rnorm(1000, mean=80, sd=7)

# Creating a composite dataset
taiwan_ages <- c(a,b,c,d,e,f)</pre>
```



hist(taiwan_ages, xlim=c(0,100), breaks=50, col="lightblue", probability=TRUE)

lines(density(taiwan_ages), col = "blue", lwd=3)



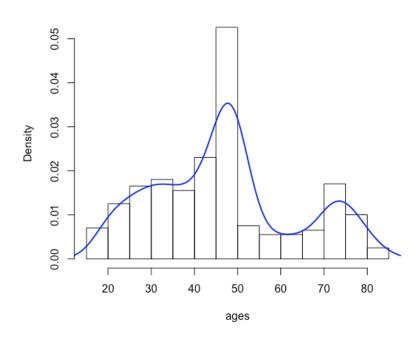
Descriptive Statistics

Let's look back at the customer ages dataset

```
customers <- read.table("customers.txt", header = TRUE)
ages <- customers$age

hist(ages, probability = TRUE, main = "Customer Ages", col="white")
lines(density(ages), col="blue", lwd=2)
lines(): function that plots on top of existing plot</pre>
```

Customer Ages



Central Tendency

typical value, or average value, for a distribution of numbers

Dispersion

how spread, or stretched, out is a distribution of numbers

Measures of Central Tendency

sort(ages)

Mean

: the mean of the data you have

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

$$n \leftarrow length(ages)$$

$$sum(ages) / n$$

$$[1] 46.80702$$

$$mean(ages)$$

$$[1] 46.80702$$

Our code looks like our statistical formulation!

The greek letter μ is pronounced 'mu'

Median

median(ages)
[1] 47

For even numbered sets, median is the average of the middle two elements

Population Mode

NOTE: no function to calculate mode in R!!!

Dispersion

Describing Dispersion

Range = maximum - minimum

Interquartile range (IQR) = $Q_3 - Q_1$

```
quantile(ages, 3/4)
    75%
52.5

Q1 <- quantile(ages, 1/4)  # 34.00
Q3 <- quantile(ages, 3/4)  # 52.50

iqr = unname(Q3 - Q1)  # 18.5

IQR(ages)  # 18.5</pre>
```

Detecting Outliers

```
Outliers are beyond:

lower: Q1 - 1.5(IQR)

upper: Q3 + 1.5(IQR)

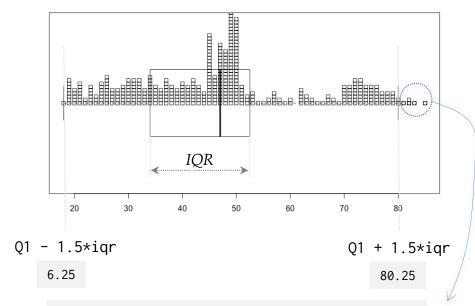
lower_limit <- Q1 - 1.5*iqr

upper_limit <- Q3 + 1.5*iqr

ages[ ages < lower_limit | ages > upper_limit ]

[1] 81 82 82 83 85
```

visual <- boxplot(ages, horizontal = TRUE)
stripchart(ages, method="stack", add=T)</pre>



Outliers: more than 1.5 IQR away from edge of box visual\$out
[1] 85 83 82 81 82

pipe symbol'\' means <condition1> OR <condition2>

Elements of sample: x_i

ages

[1] 49 69 41 73 45 71 50 43 70 32 47 77 64 50 50 45 49 47 62 50 47 72 47 63 21 49

[365] 23 74 31 20 50 30 82 70 43 20 50 48 18 45 62 41 71 19 73 26 75 41 46 49 49 23 [391] 74 53 23 51 71 50 50 67 74

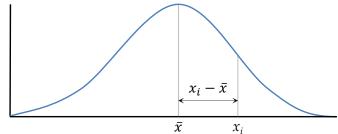
Deviation of x_i

$$x_i - \bar{x}$$

ages - mean(ages)

[1] 2.19 22.19 -5.81 26.19 -1.81 24.19 3.19 -3.81 23.19 -14.81 0.19

[386] -5.81 -0.81 2.19 2.19 -23.81 27.19 6.19 -23.81 4.19 24.19 3.19 [397] 3.19 20.19 27.19



Absolute Deviation of x_i

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

[391] 27.19 6.19 23.81 4.19 24.19 3.19 3.19 20.19 27.19

Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD)

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

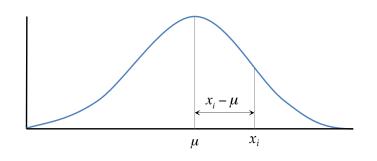
Median Absolute Deviation (MAD)

median(abs(ages - mean(ages)))
[1] 12.66948

mean(abs(ages - mean(ages)))
[1] 12.66948



Recall: What is the average "difference between each age and the mean age"?



Variability (sum of squared deviations): sum of squares (SS)

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

Variance

mean sum of squares (MSS)

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

$$s^2 = \frac{SS}{df}$$

Note: population variance uses population mean (μ) and size (N)

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum (x_i - \mu)^2}{N}$$



What are the **units** of variability, variance, and standard deviation?

Standard Deviation

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

[1] 16.3698

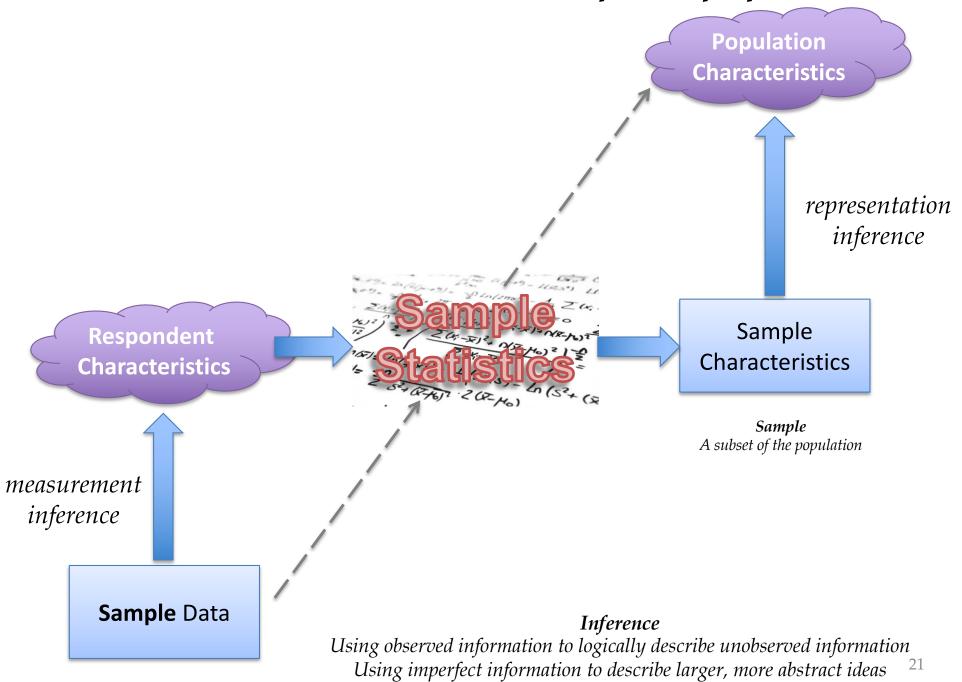
sd(ages)

[1] 16.3698



If we have **Standard Deviation**, why do we need any other measures of dispersion?

Statistical Inference: from sample to population



Simulation: Population vs. Sample

```
# Population of people who have seen a movie (10,000,000 people)
population_movie_ratings <- round(rnorm(mean=50, sd=9, n=10000000))
summary(population_movie_ratings)</pre>
```

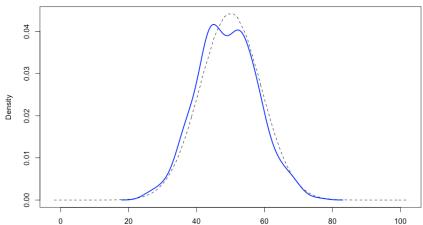
```
Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. 0 44 50 50 56 100
```

Sample of people we have asked (450)
sample_movie_ratings <- sample(population_movie_ratings, size=450)
summary(sample_movie_ratings)</pre>

```
Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. 25.00 43.00 49.00 48.99 55.00 76.00
```

lines(density(sample_movie_ratings), lty="dashed", lwd=1)





rnorm(...): Draws data randomly from normal distribution

