



Kampus  
Merdeka  
INDONESIA JAYA



# Exploratory Data Analysis



Penyusun Modul: Chairul Aulia  
Editor: Rina Fitriyani, Silfa Rahma Aulia



# Exploratory Data Analysis

“The youngest child is usually spoiled”

Anecdotal evidence is evidence collected in a casual or informal manner and relying heavily or entirely on personal testimony based on data that is unpublished and usually personal.



# Exploratory Data Analysis

By those standards, anecdotal evidence usually fails, because...

①

## **SMALL NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS**

the difference is  
probably small  
compared to  
natural variation

②

## **SELECTION BIAS**

People who join a  
discussion of this  
question might be  
interested because  
they relate to the  
topics

③

## **CONFIRMATION BIAS**

People who believe the  
claim might be more likely  
to contribute examples  
that confirm it.  
People who doubt the  
claim are more likely to  
cite counterexamples

④

## **IN-ACCURACY**

Anecdotes are often  
personal stories, and  
often  
misremembered,  
misrepresented,  
repeated inaccurately,  
etc



# Exploratory Data Analysis

To address the limitations of anecdotes, we will use the tools of statistics, which include,

## DATA COLLECTION

Use data from a large national survey that was designed explicitly with the goal of generating statistically valid inferences about the population

## DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Generate statistics that summarize the data concisely, and evaluate different ways to visualize data

## HYPOTHESIS TESTING

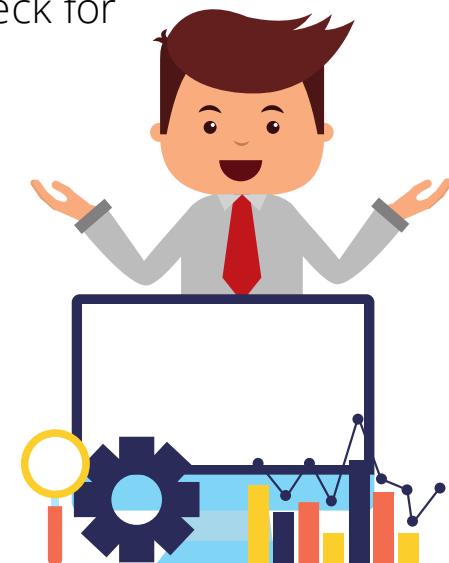
See apparent effects, like a difference between two groups, we will evaluate whether the effect might have happened by chance.

## EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS

Look for patterns, differences, and other features that address the questions we are interested in. At the same time we will check for inconsistencies and identify limitations

## ESTIMATIONS

Use data from a sample to estimate characteristics of the general population.





# Exploratory Data Analysis

Exploratory Data Analysis does two main things:

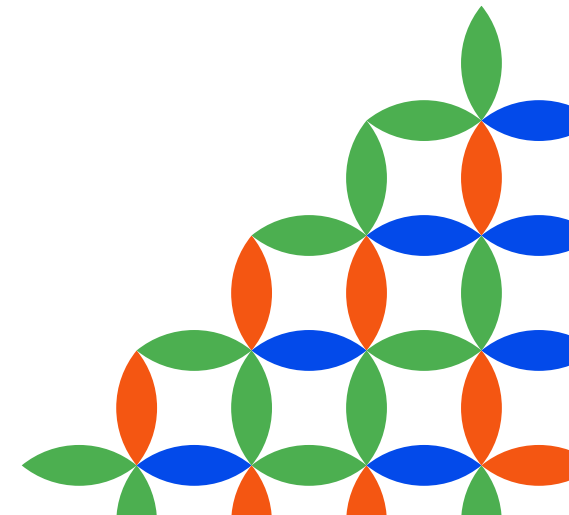
## 1. It helps clean up a dataset

For data scientists, cleaning and prepping the dataset before using them to build a machine learning model is one of the first step of building a good model.

In fact, you will mostly spend your time on doing data cleansing and data analysis than building the model

## 2. It gives you a better understanding of the variables and the relationships between them.

Doing EDA will give you many insights on the project by learning the very useful **Feature Importance**





# Exploratory Data Analysis

## Why is Feature Importance so Useful?

Feature Importance is extremely useful for the following reasons:

### Data Understanding

Building a model is one thing, but understanding the data that goes into the model is another. Like a correlation matrix, feature importance allows you to understand the relationship between the features and the target variable. It also helps you understand what features are irrelevant for the model.

### Model Improvement

When training your model, you can use the scores calculated from feature importance to reduce the dimensionality of the model. The higher scores are usually kept and the lower scores are deleted as they are not important for the model. This not only makes the model simpler but also speeds up the model's working, ultimately improving the performance of the model.

### Model Interpretability.

Feature Importance is also useful for interpreting and communicating your model to other stakeholders. By calculating scores for each feature, you can determine which features attribute the most to the predictive power of your model.





# Wait!

Before we delve further into the unknown field of Exploratory Data Analysis, we need to properly learn about the fundamental of it

## The Statistics!



# Statistics

## What is Statistics?

Statistics is the study and manipulation of data, including ways to gather, review, analyze, and draw conclusions from data. The two major areas of statistics are descriptive and inferential statistics. Statistics can be used to make better-informed business and investing decisions.

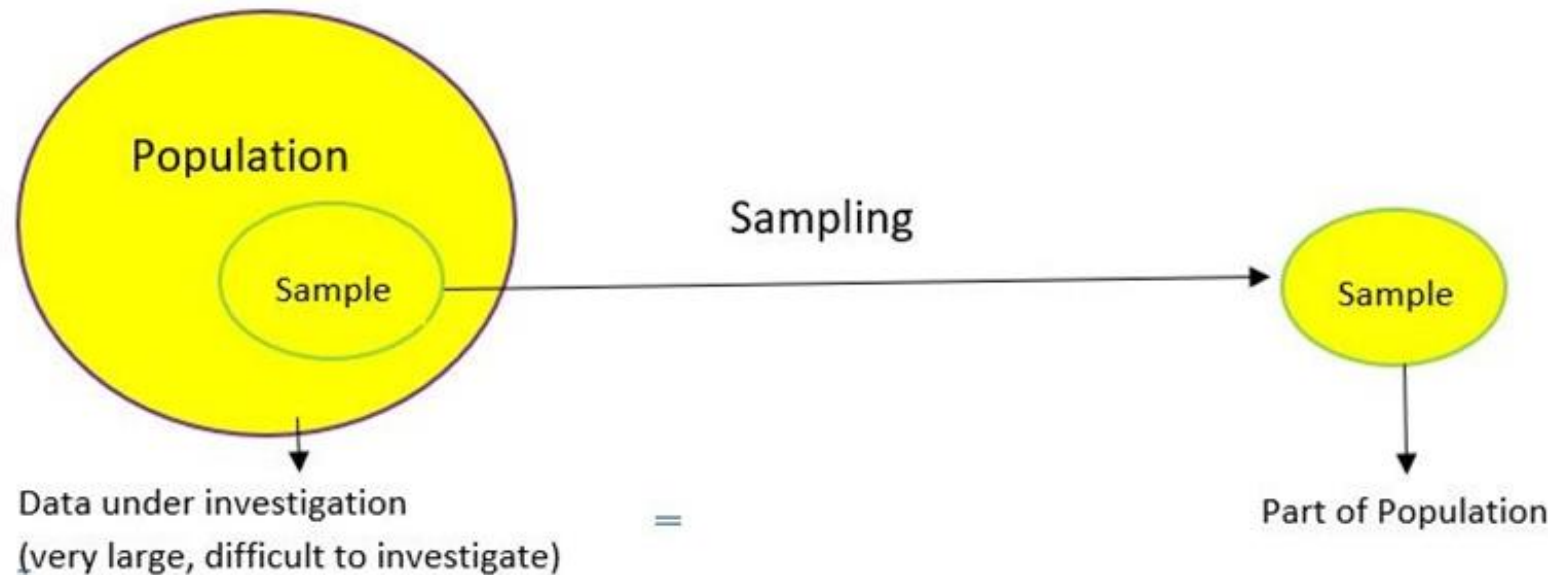






# Sampling

Margono (2004), Population is the whole data which is the center of attention of a researcher in the specified scope and time. While, sample is part of the population selected and whose characteristics will be researched (Djarwanto, 1994: 43).

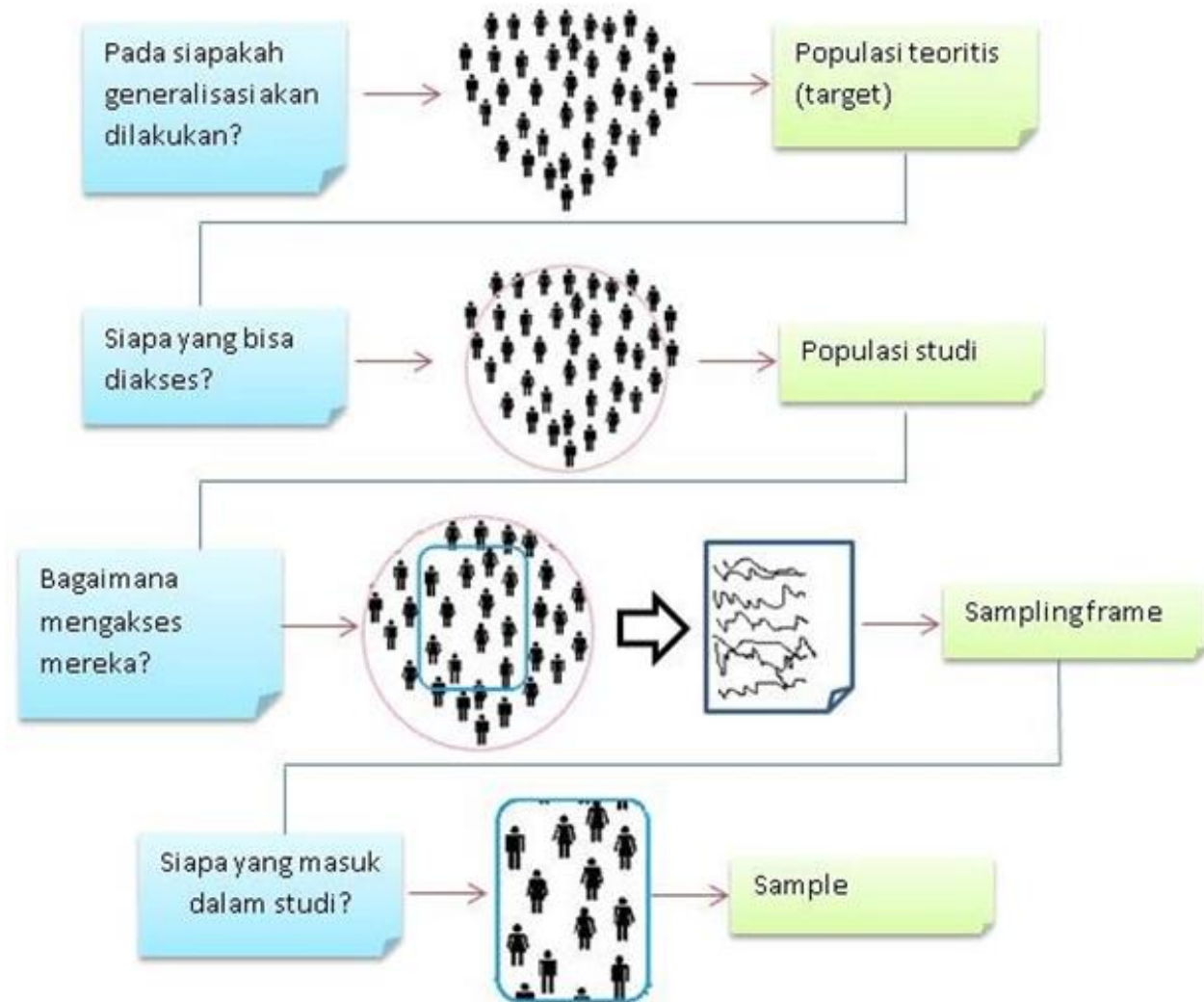


Source :

<https://www.analyticsvidhya.com>



# Sampling

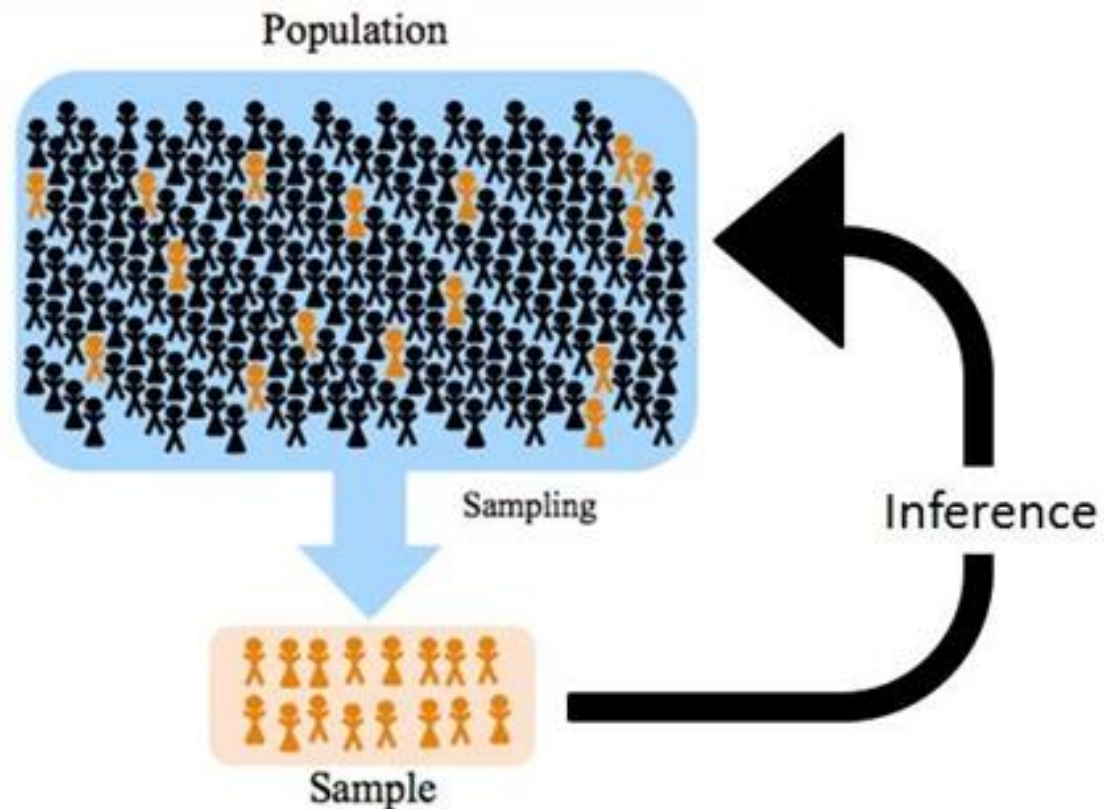


Source : <https://www.tau-data.id>



# Sampling

Why do we need Sampling?



Population and Sample like organisms and organs.

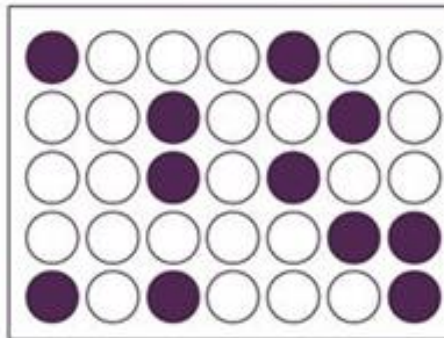
Source:

<https://towardsdatascience.com/>



# Sampling Methods

## Randomization



Source:  
<https://towardsdatascience.com/>

## Sampling Methods

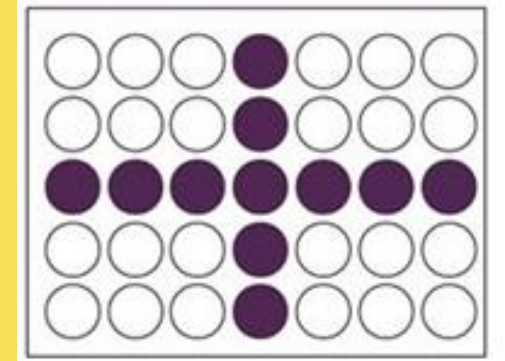
### Probability Sampling

1. Simple Random
2. Systematic
3. Stratified
4. Cluster

### Non- Probability Sampling

1. Convenience
2. Quota
3. Judgement
4. Snowball

## Non Randomization



Source:  
<https://towardsdatascience.com/>

Source :  
<https://www.analyticsvidhya.com>



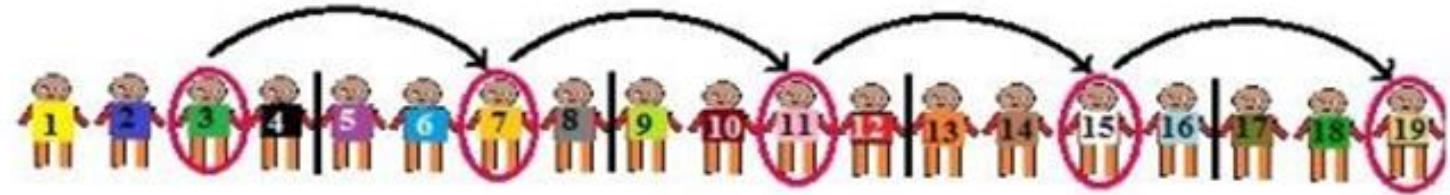


# Sampling Methods



Source:

<https://towardsdatascience.com/>



Source:

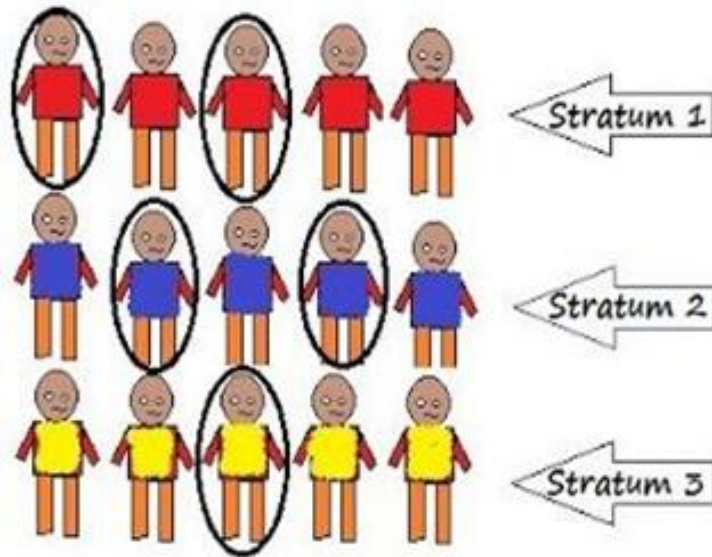
<https://towardsdatascience.com/>

Systematic Clustering: Selection of elements is systematic and not random except the first element.

Simple Random Sampling: Every element has an equal chance of getting selected to be the part sample.



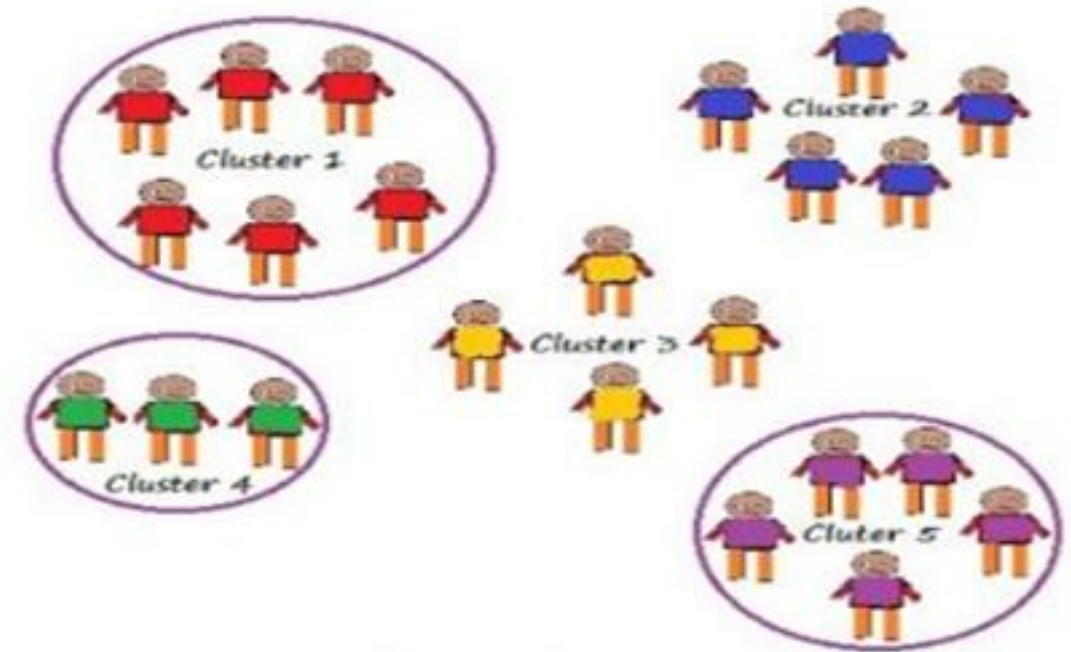
# Sampling Methods



Source:

<https://towardsdatascience.com/>

Stratified Sampling: This technique divides the elements of the population into small subgroups (strata) based on the similarity in such a way that the elements within the group are homogeneous and heterogeneous among the other subgroups formed. And then the elements are randomly selected from each of these strata.



Source:

<https://towardsdatascience.com/>

Cluster Sampling: **The entire population is divided into clusters or sections and then the clusters are randomly selected. All the elements of the cluster are used for sampling.**

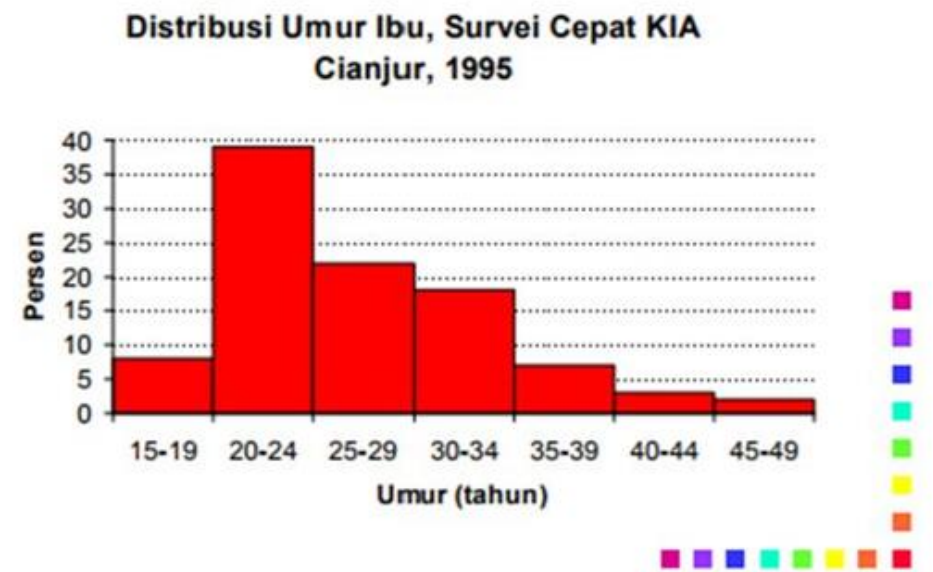


# Histogram

Histogram is a graphical display of data using bars of different heights.



© Jurusan Biostatistik FKM-UI, 2005



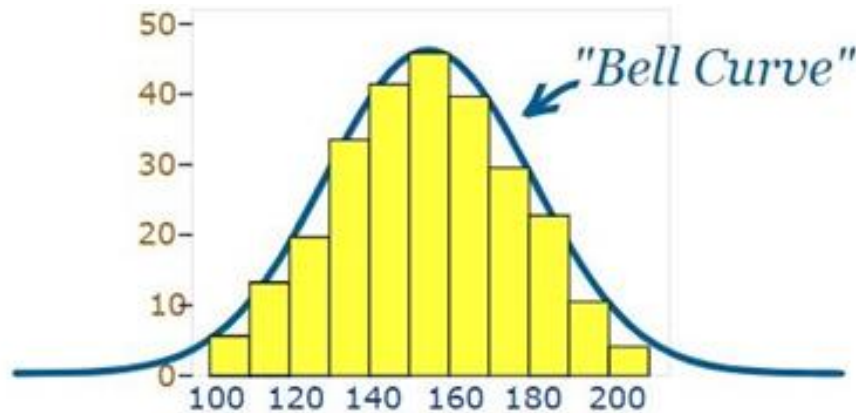
© Jurusan Biostatistik FKM-UI, 2005



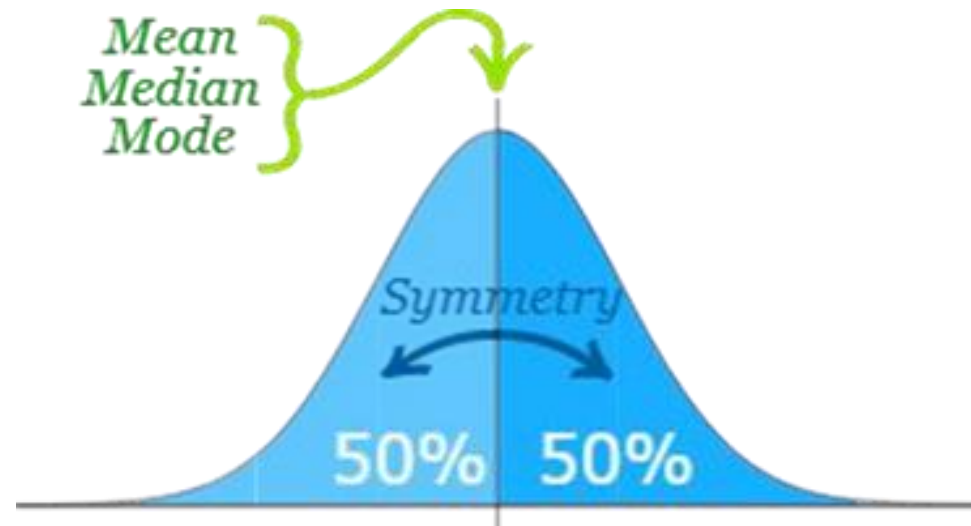


# Normal Distribution

The normal distribution is a symmetric distribution where most of the observations cluster around the central peak and the probabilities for values further away from the mean taper off equally in both directions.



A Normal Distribution



Source:

<https://www.mathsisfun.com/>  
The Normal Distribution has:

Mean = Median = Mode

Symmetry about  
the center

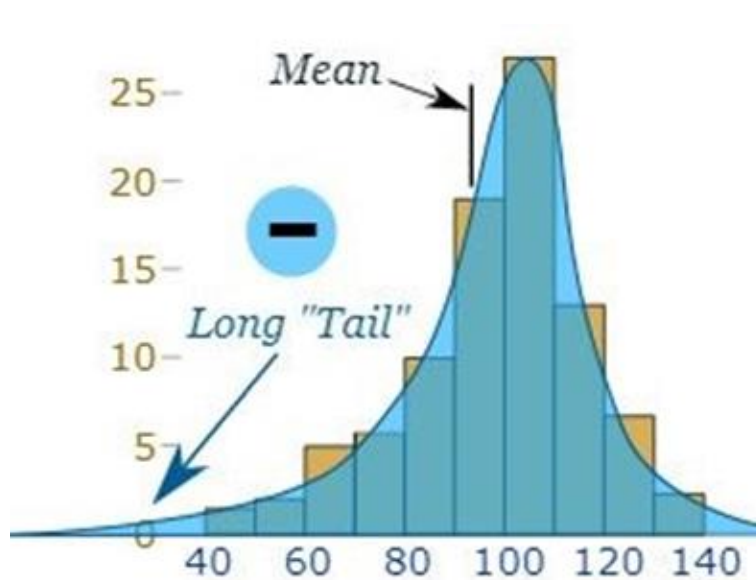
50% of values less than the mean and  
50% greater than the mean





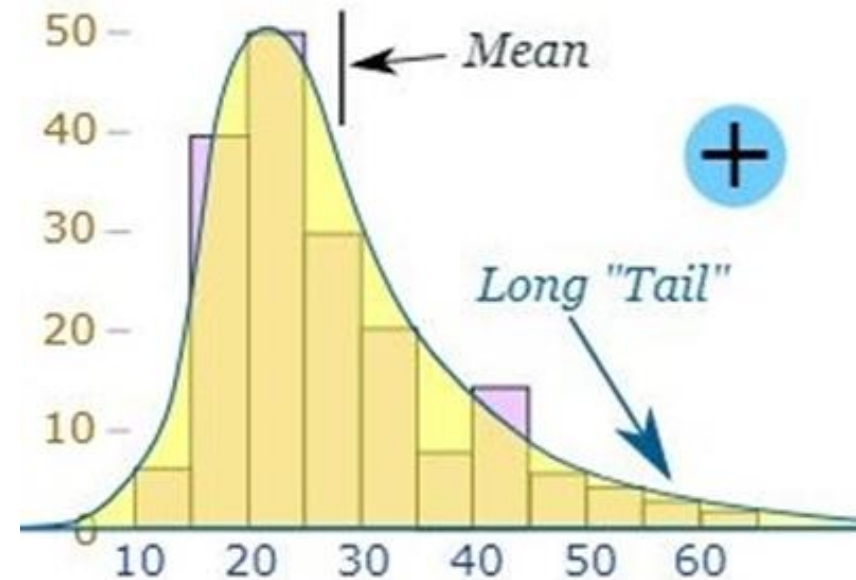
# Skewed Distribution

Skewed distribution is neither symmetric nor normal because the data values trail off more sharply on oneside than on the other.



Negative Skewed

Mean < Median < Mode



Positive Skewed

Mean > Median >  
Mode

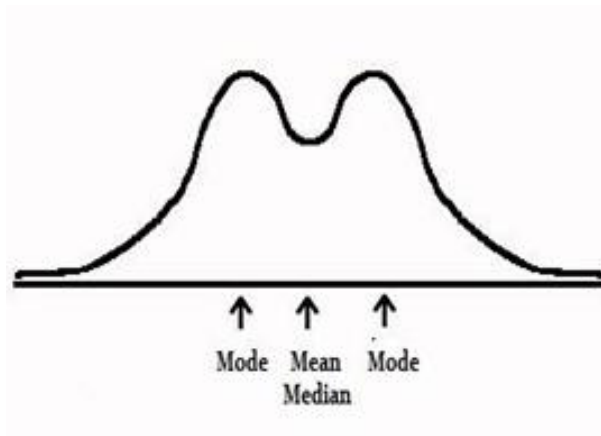
Source :  
<https://www.mathsisfun.com/>





# Distribution

## Binomial Distribution



Source :

<https://www.statisticshowto.com/>

Bimodal distribution is a probability distribution with two different modes. Bimodal distribution can occur because the results of two processes with different distributions are combined in one data set.

## Multimodal Distribution



Source :

<https://www.statisticshowto.com/>

Multimodal distribution is a distribution of probabilities which has two or more modes. In other words, multimodal distribution is a number of processes with a normal distribution combined. Multimodal distribution is known as Plateau Distribution, when there are more than a few peaks that are close together.

## Comb Distribution



Comb distribution

Source :

<https://www.statisticshowto.com/>

This distribution often results from rounded-off data and/or an incorrectly constructed histogram.



# Distribution

## Edge Peak Distribution



Source:  
<https://asq.org/>

The edge peak distribution looks like the normal distribution except that it has a large peak at one tail. Usually this is caused by faulty construction of the histogram, with data lumped together into a group labeled “greater than.”

## Truncated or heart-cut Distribution



Source:  
<https://asq.org/>

The truncated or heart-cut distribution looks like a normal distribution with the tails cut off.

## Dog Food Distribution



Source:  
<https://asq.org/>

The dog food distribution is missing something—results in the average



# Descriptive Statistics

There are two Commonly Used Measures :

## 1. Measures of Central Tendency

Typically describes the center of the data. These one number summary is of three types.

### Mean

Mean is a number around which the entire data set is spread.

#### Rumus Mean (Rata-rata) Data Kelompok

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1f_1 + x_2f_2 + \dots + x_nf_n}{f_1 + f_2 + \dots + f_n} \quad \text{atau} \quad \bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i f_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i}$$

$\bar{x}$  = average calculated from group data  
 $d_i$  = i-class frequency  
 $x_i$  = middle value of i-class

### Median

Median is the point which divides the entire data into two equal halves.

#### Rumus Median Data Kelompok

$$Me = Q_2 = Tb + \left( \frac{\frac{1}{2}n - f_k}{f_i} \right) p$$

Tb = the lower edge of the median class  
 $n$  = total frequency  
 $f_k$  = number of frequencies before the median class  
 $f_i$  = median class frequency  
 $p$  = length of the interval class

### Mode

Mode is the number which has the maximum frequency in the entire data set.

#### Rumus Modus Data Kelompok

$$Mo = Tb + \left( \frac{d_1}{d_1 + d_2} \right) p$$

Tb = the bottom edge of the mode class  
 $d_1$  = difference in mode class frequency with frequency before mode class  
 $d_2$  = difference in mode class frequency with frequency after mode class  
 $p$  = length of class interval



# Descriptive Statistics

## 2. Measures of Dispersion (or Variability)

Measures of Dispersion describes the spread of the data around the central value (or the Measures of Central Tendency).

- 1 Absolute Deviation from Mean — also called Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD), describe the variation in the data set, in sense that it tells the average absolute distance of each data point in the set. It is calculated as

$$\text{Mean Absolute Deviation} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |X_i - \bar{X}|$$

- 2 Variance — Variance measures how far are data points spread out from the mean. It is calculated as

$$\text{Variance} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

- 3 Standard Deviation — The square root of Variance is called the Standard Deviation. It is calculated as

$$\text{Std Deviation} = \sqrt{\text{Variance}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

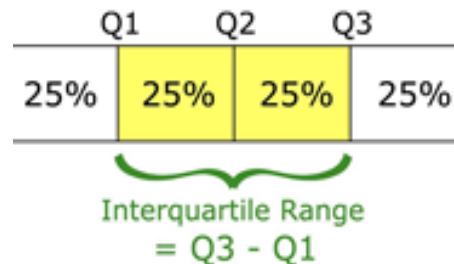


# Descriptive Statistics

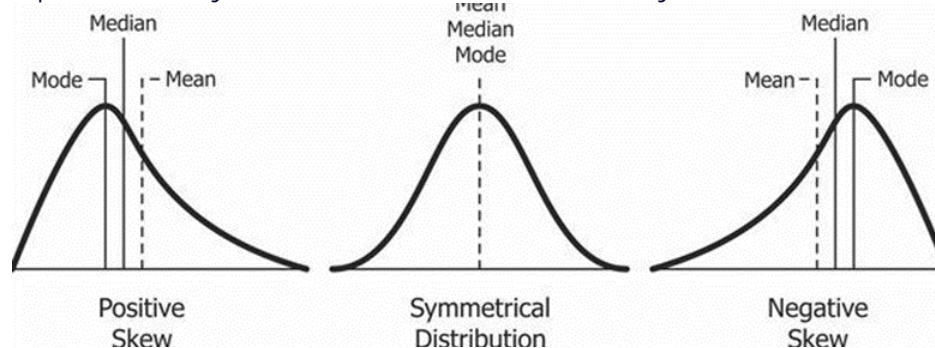
- 4 Range — Range is the difference between the Maximum value and the Minimum value in the data set. It is given as

$$\text{Range} = \text{Maximum} - \text{minimum}$$

- 5 Quartiles — Quartiles are the points in the data set that divides the data set into four equal parts

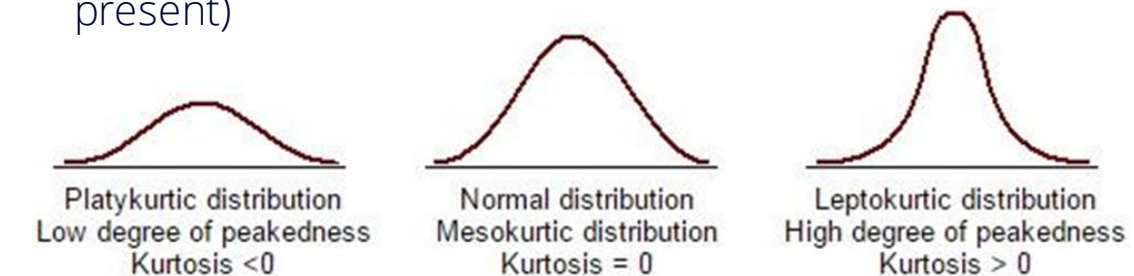


- 6 Skewness — The measure of asymmetry in a probability distribution is defined by Skewness



Source :

- 7 Kurtosis — Kurtosis describes the whether the data is light tailed (lack of outliers) or heavy tailed (outliers present)



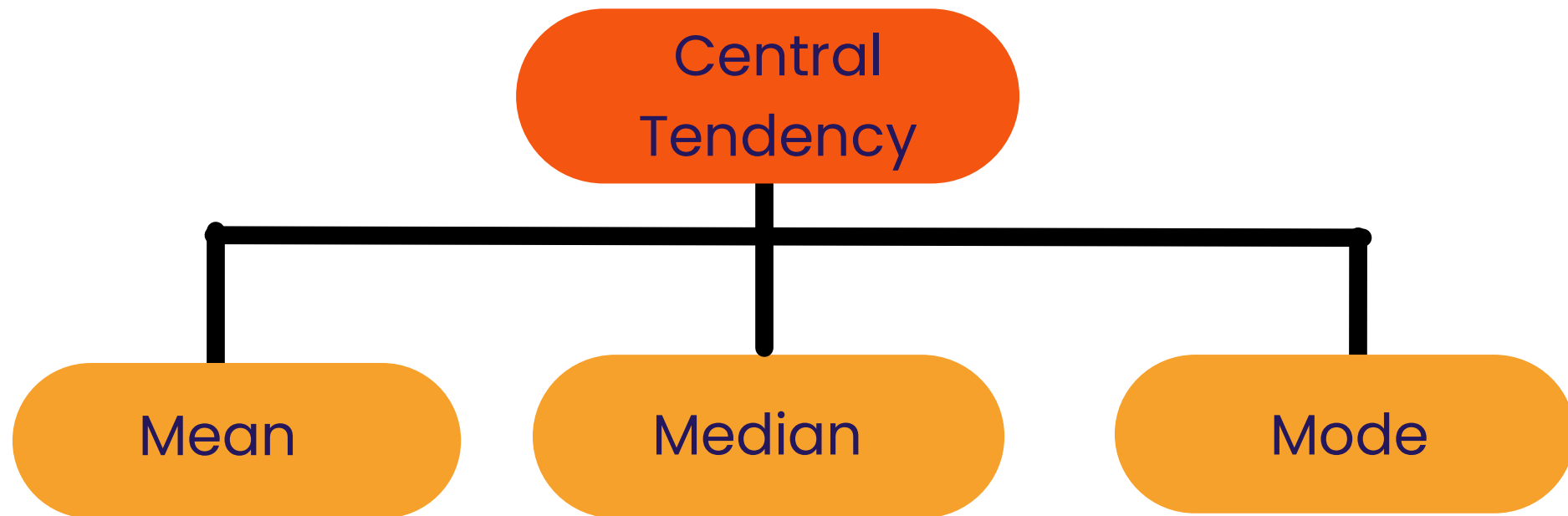
Source :

<https://towardsdatascience.com/>



# Central Tendency

A measure of central tendency is a single value that attempts to describe a set of data by identifying the central position within that set of data. As such, measures of central tendency are sometimes called measures of central location.







# Mean

Mean is equal to the sum of all the values in the data set divided by the number of values in the data set.

Consider the wages of staff at a factory below

Staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Salary	15k	18k	16k	14k	15k	15k	12k	17k	90k	95k





# Median

Median is the middle score for a set of data that has been arranged in order of magnitude. The median is less affected by outliers and skewed data. In order to calculate the median, suppose we have the data below:

Consider the wages of staff at a factory below

65	55	89	56	35	14	56	55	87	45	92
----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

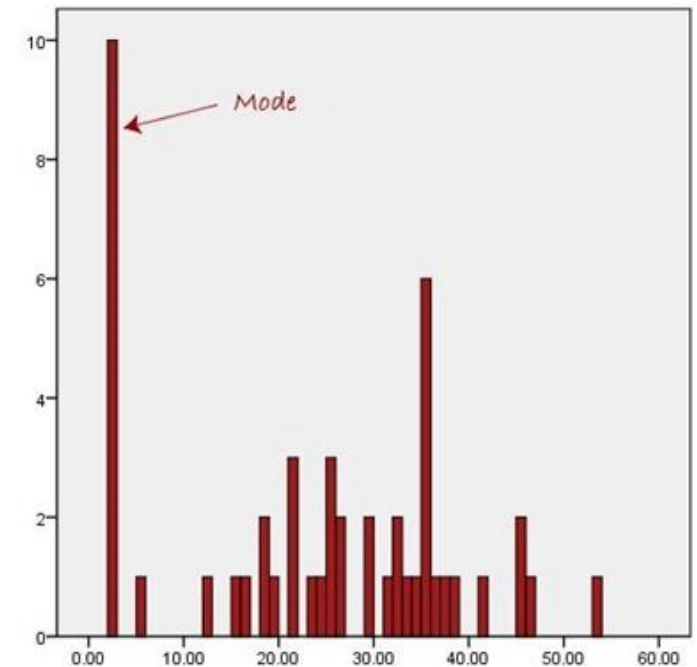
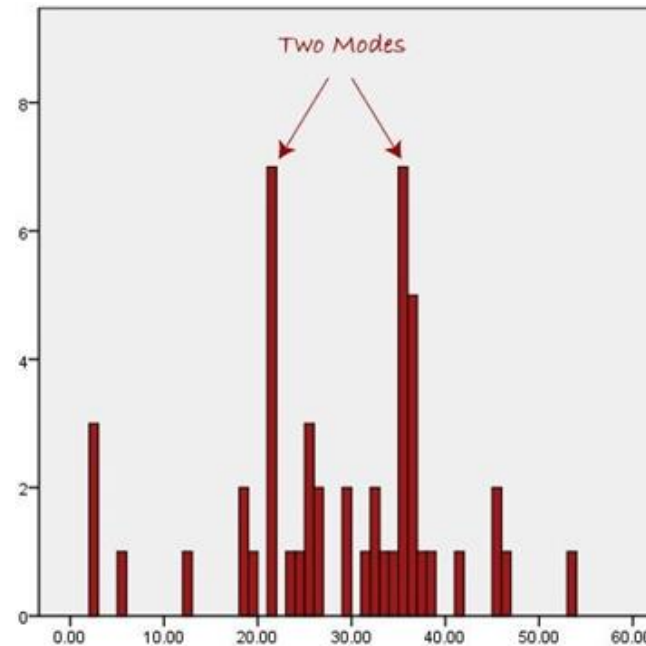
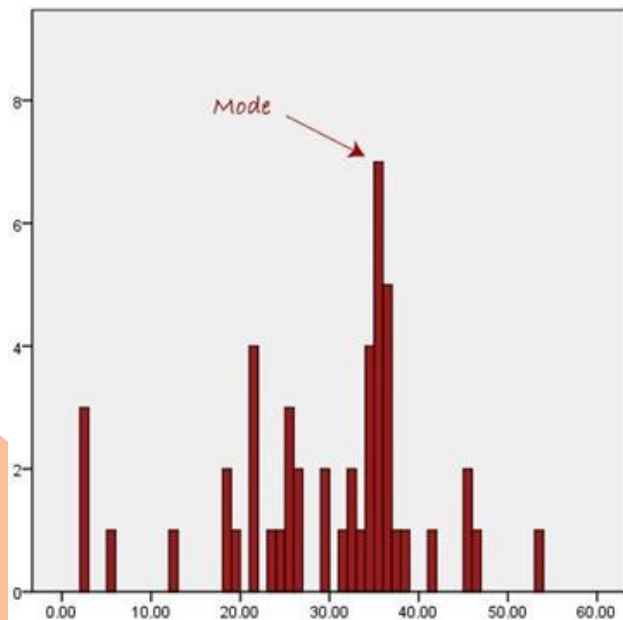
So, if we look at the example below:

65	55	89	56	35	14	56	55	87	45
----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----



# Mode

Mode is the most frequent score in our data set. On a histogram it represents the highest bar in a bar chart or histogram.



Source :  
<https://statistics.laerd.com/>



Type of Variable	Best measure of central tendency
Nominal	Mode
Ordinal	Median
Interval/Ratio (not skewed)	Mean
Interval/Ratio (skewed)	Median

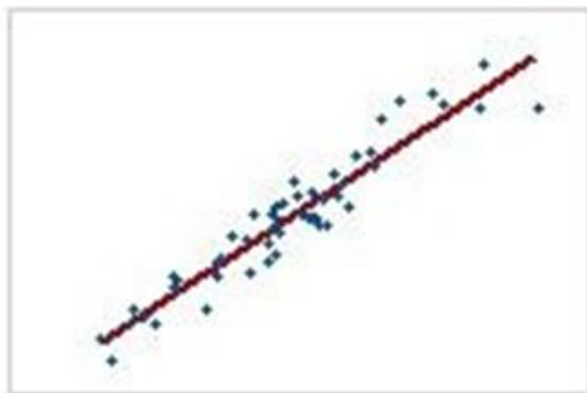
When to use the  
mean, median and  
mode



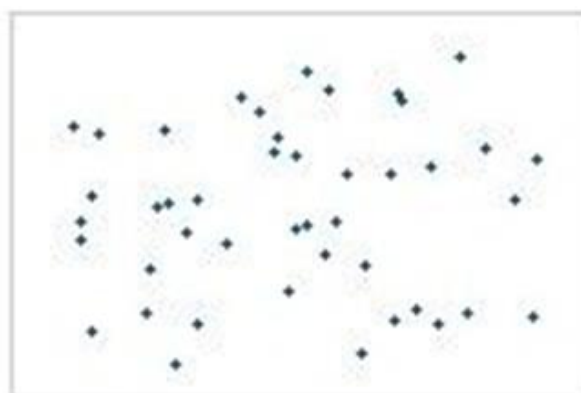


# Correlation

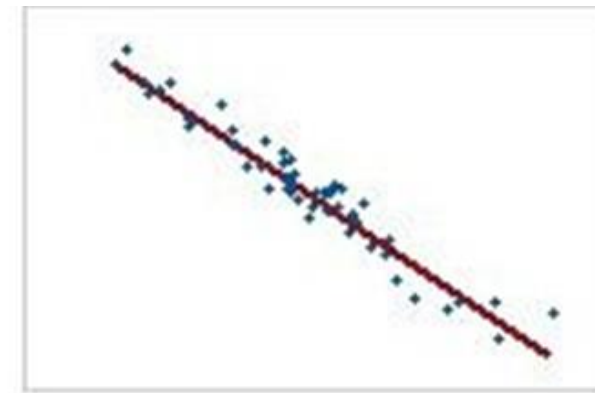
Correlation is a statistical measure that describes how two variables are related and indicates that as one variable changes in value, the other variable tends to change in a specific direction.



Positive correlation



no correlation



Negative correlation

Source :  
<https://towardsdatascience.com/>





Correlation value:

CHARACTERISTIC	INTERPRETATION
Positive correlation value	Positive direction / association; as one variable increases, so does the other
Negative correlation value	Negative direction / association; as one variable increases, the other decreases
$ r $ is closer to 1	The closer $ r $ is to one, the stronger the association
$ r $ closer to 0	The closer $ r $ is to zero, the weaker the association

# Size of Correlation

The table below demonstrates how to interpret the size (strength) of a correlation coefficient

Size of Correlation	Interpretation
.90 to 1.00 (−.90 to −1.00)	Very high positive (negative) correlation
.70 to .90 (−.70 to −.90)	High positive (negative) correlation
.50 to .70 (−.50 to −.70)	Moderate positive (negative) correlation
.30 to .50 (−.30 to −.50)	Low positive (negative) correlation
.00 to .30 (.00 to −.30)	negligible correlation



# Standard Deviation

Standard deviation is a number that describes how spread out the observations are.

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

	Duration	Average_Pulse	Max_Pulse	Calorie_Burnage	Hours_Work	Hours_Sleep
count	163.0	163.0	163.0	163.0	163.0	163.0
mean	64.26	107.72	134.23	382.37	4.39	7.68
std	42.99	14.63	16.4	274.23	3.92	0.66
min	15.0	80.0	100.0	50.0	0.0	5.0
25%	45.0	100.0	124.0	256.5	0.0	7.5
50%	60.0	105.0	131.0	320.0	5.0	8.0
75%	60.0	111.0	141.0	388.5	8.0	8.0
max	300.0	159.0	184.0	1860.0	11.0	12.0

A mathematical function will have difficulties in predicting precise values, if the observations are "spread". Standard deviation is a measure of uncertainty.

A low standard deviation means that most of the numbers are close to the mean (average) value.

A high standard deviation means that the values are spread out over a wider range.



# Variance

Variance measures how far a set of data is spread out.

$$\text{Population Variance} = (\sigma x)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$$\text{Sample Variance} = (Sx)^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

$\sum$  = "the sum of ..."

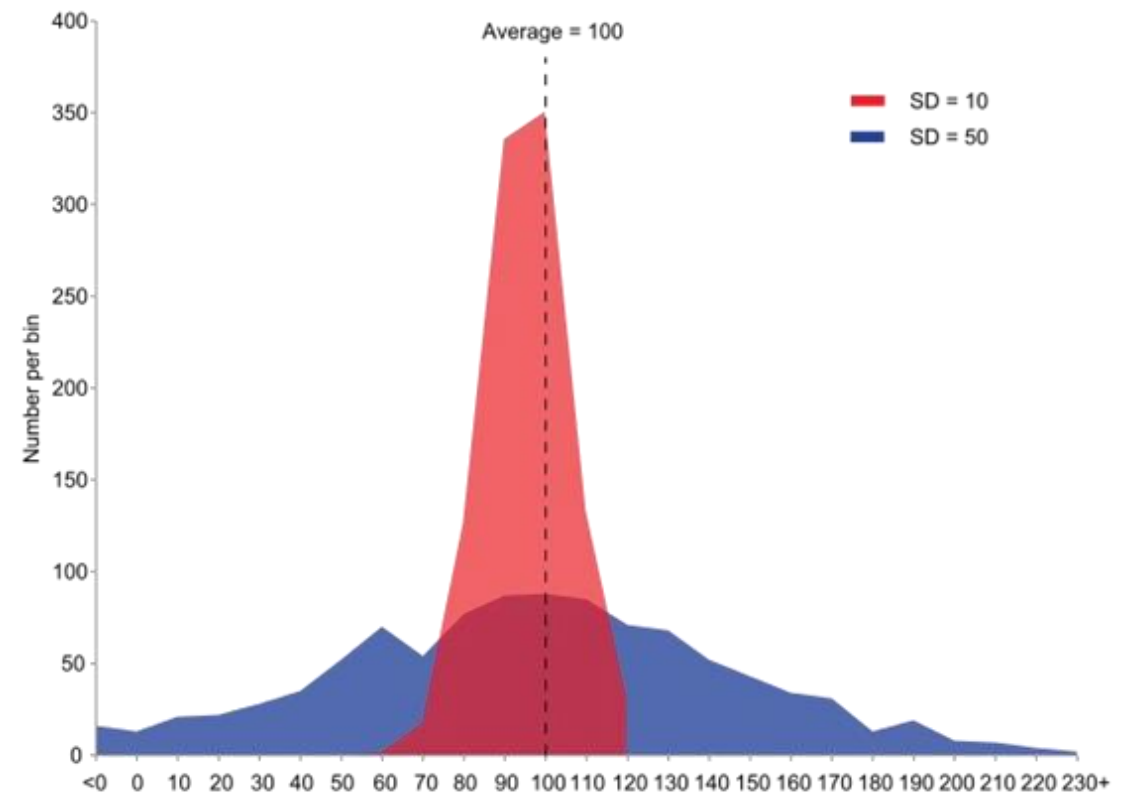
$n$  = number of pieces of data (population)

$n-1$  = number of pieces of data (sample)

$\bar{x}$  = mean (average) of data

$x_i$  = each of the values in the data

$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots, x_n$  (as  $i$  goes from 1 to  $n$ )







# Covariance

Covariance is a measure of how much two random variables vary together

Population 
$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_j - \bar{Y})}{n}$$

Sample 
$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_j - \bar{Y})}{n - 1}$$

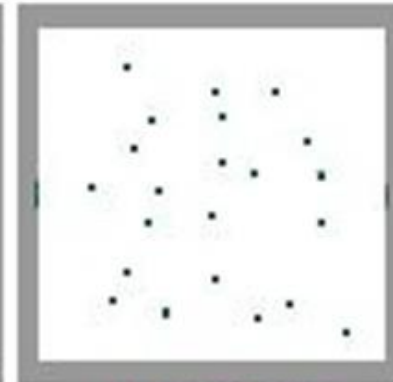
Where:

- $X_i$  = the values of the X-variable
- $Y_j$  = the values of the Y-variable
- $\bar{X}$  = the mean (average) of the X-variable
- $\bar{Y}$  = the mean (average) of the Y-variable
- $n$  – the number of data points

## COVARIANCE



Large Negative  
Covariance



Near Zero  
Covariance



Large Positive  
Covariance

Source :

<https://www.statisticshowto.com/>