



Computer
Science

CSC196: Analyzing Data

**Introduction to Statistics
and Data Analysis**

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Outline

- Overview
- Sampling Procedures
- Measures of Location & Variability
- Graphical Diagnostics

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Example: Drug Selection

- Old drug is 80% effective
- New drug is 85% effective, but costs more
- Should we adopt the new drug?

But the 85% finding is based on a set of patients:

- Perhaps, if we run the trial again we will find that the new drug is only 75% effective...
- Natural variation from trial to trial must be accounted for
- Variation from patient to patient is endemic to the problem
- **Need to analyze sources of variation**

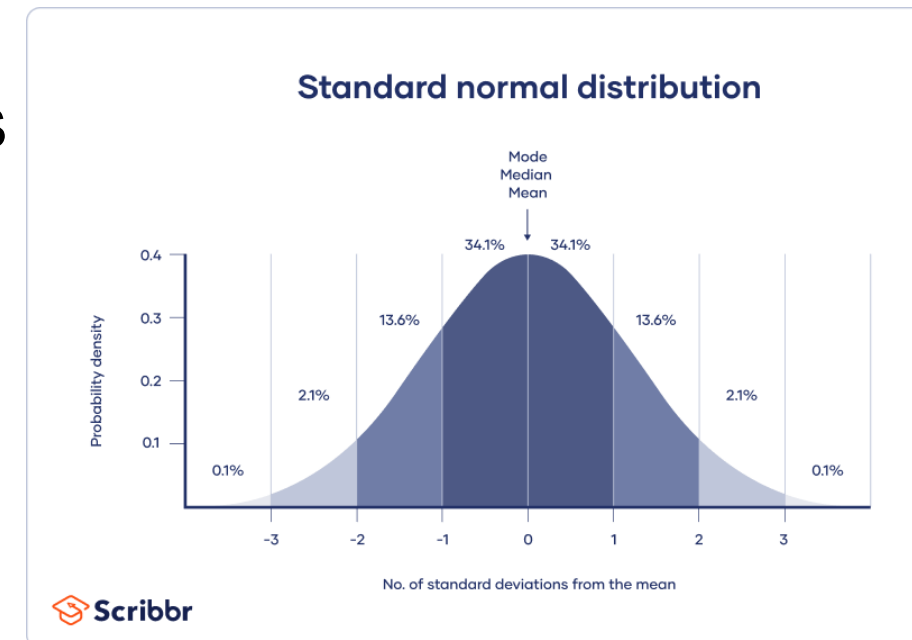


Variability in Scientific Data

*If there were no variability in patient-to-patient data,
there would be no need for statisticians*

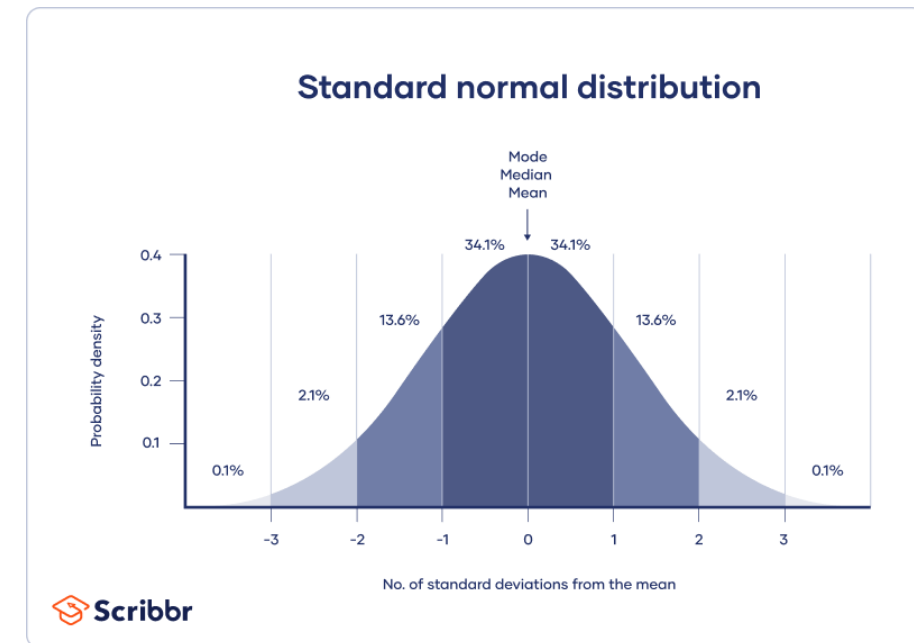
Statisticians:

- Make use of fundamental laws of probability and statistical inference
- Draw conclusions (or inferences)
- Gather information as **samples** or collections of **observations**



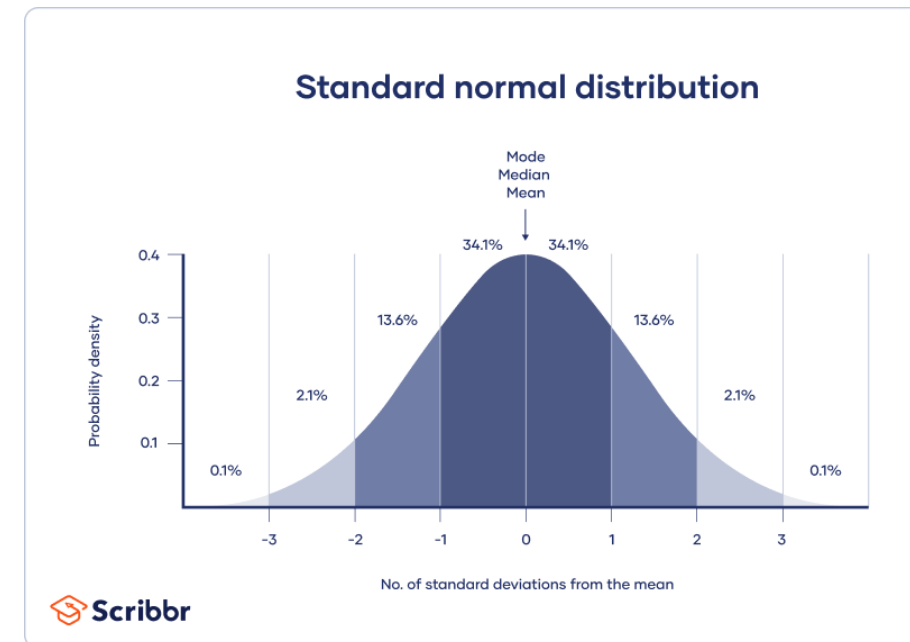
Descriptive Statistics

- Derive a set of single-number statistics from data
- Explain:
 - Location of the data
 - Variability of the data
 - General nature of the distribution of observations in a sample
- Show *footprint* of the nature of a sample via:
 - Mean
 - Median
 - Standard Deviation



Inferential Statistics

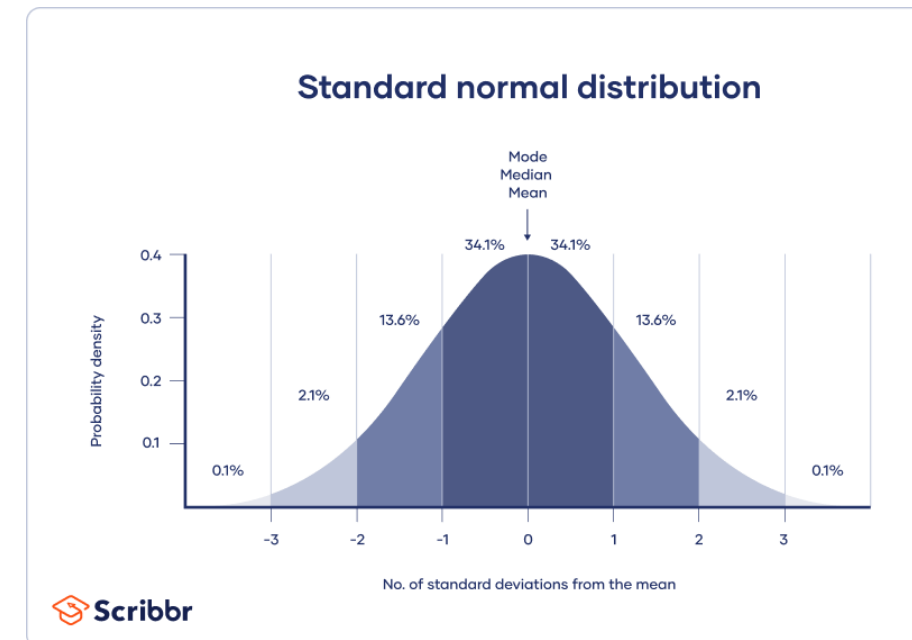
- Large *toolbox* of statistical methods employed by practitioners
- Goal: Make scientific judgements in the face of *uncertainty* and *variation*
- Often used to:
 - Analyze data from a *stochastic (random) process*
 - Determine how to improve process quality
 - Analyze sources of variation



Variability in Scientific Data

It is very important to collect scientific data in a systematic way

- Samples are collected from **populations**
- E.g. population of patients → all adults in a certain age range
- Typically focus on certain characteristics, or **factors**
- Ideally collected via **experimental design**
- Alternative is an **observational study**
- Both lend themselves to *statistical inference*

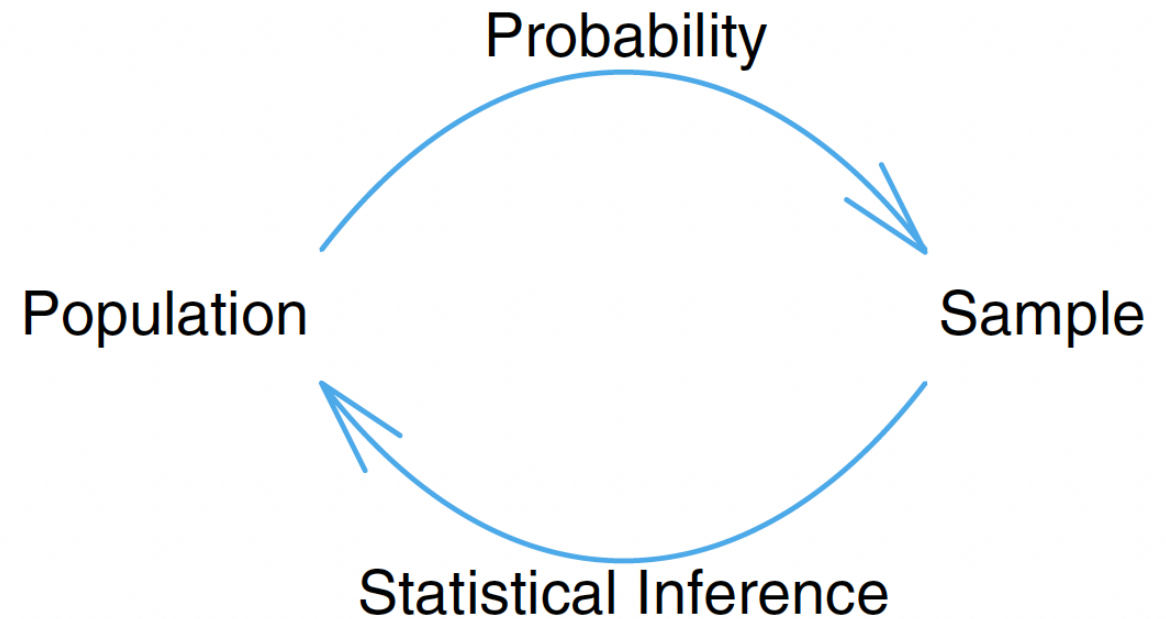


How do probability and statistics work together?

The sample + inferential statistics allows us to draw conclusions about the population

Probability allows us to draw conclusions about characteristics of hypothetical data taken from the population

Nothing can be learned about a population from a sample until the analyst learns the rudiments of uncertainty in that sample



Example: Nitrogen vs. No Nitrogen

Purpose: To determine if nitrogen has effect on stimulating root growth

- Two separate populations
- What conclusions do you draw?
- How can we summarize the data?

Table 1.1: Data Set for Example 1.2

| No Nitrogen | Nitrogen |
|-------------|----------|
| 0.32 | 0.26 |
| 0.53 | 0.43 |
| 0.28 | 0.47 |
| 0.37 | 0.49 |
| 0.47 | 0.52 |
| 0.43 | 0.75 |
| 0.36 | 0.79 |
| 0.42 | 0.86 |
| 0.38 | 0.62 |
| 0.43 | 0.46 |

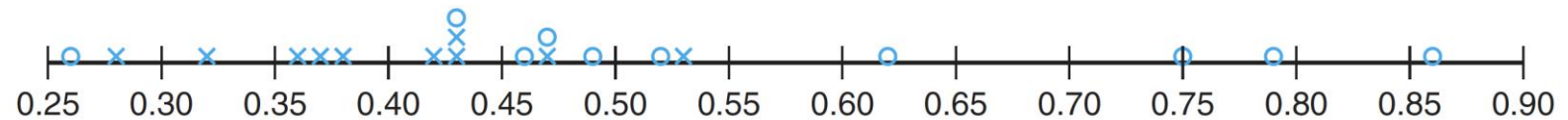


Figure 1.1: A dot plot of stem weight data.

Can make a probability statement

The probability that these data would be observed if there were no effect (e.g. P -value)

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Simple Random Sampling (SRS)

SRS implies that any sample of a specified sample size has the same chance of being selected as any other sample of the same size.

- **Sample size** – Number of elements in the sample
- E.g. we want to collect a sample of political leanings for a state
 - Sample size is 1,000
 - What if all 1,000 are in urban areas
 - Is this a representative sample?
 - Is it a biased sample?
 - Can we use it to draw inferences about the state?

Stratified Random Sampling

- Sampling group can often be divided into nonoverlapping groups that are *homogeneous*
- Homogeneous groups referred to as *strata*
- Perform simple random sampling within each strata
- Ensure no strata is over- or under-represented
- Eg. Sample 500 people from urban areas and 500 people from rural areas

Experimental Design

- Populations defined by a set of **treatments**
- E.g. nitrogen vs. no nitrogen populations
- Often considerable variability within and between groups due to the **experimental unit**
- Standard approach is to assign experimental units to the treatment conditions randomly
- E.g. assign 20 seedlings at random to treatment (nitrogen) group

Example: Corrosion Resistance

Treatment applies coating to surface. Also consider two humidity levels.

- 8 experimental units
- Each assigned randomly to 4 treatment combinations
- Cycles to failure → higher is more corrosion resistant

Table 1.2: Data for Example 1.3

| Coating | Humidity | Average Corrosion in Thousands of Cycles to Failure |
|--------------------|----------|--|
| Uncoated | 20% | 975 |
| | 80% | 350 |
| Chemical Corrosion | 20% | 1750 |
| | 80% | 1550 |

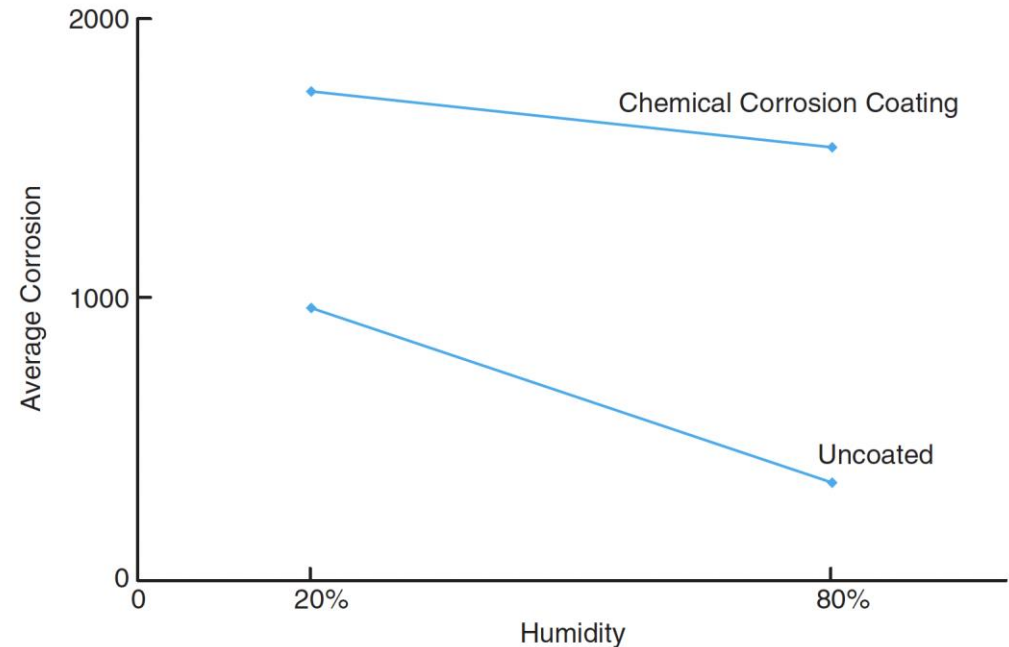


Figure 1.3: Corrosion results for Example 1.3.

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Measures of Location

Sample mean:

Suppose that the observations in a sample are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . The **sample mean**, denoted by \bar{x} , is

$$\bar{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{n} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}.$$

Measures of Location

Sample median:

Given that the observations in a sample are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , arranged in **increasing order** of magnitude, the sample median is

$$\tilde{x} = \begin{cases} x_{(n+1)/2}, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ \frac{1}{2}(x_{n/2} + x_{n/2+1}), & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

Measures of Location

Suppose the data set is the following: 1.7, 2.2, 3.9, 3.11, and 14.7. The sample mean and median are, respectively,

$$\bar{x} = 5.12, \quad \tilde{x} = 3.9.$$

What properties do you observe between these statistics?

Other Measures of Location

Trimmed Mean – Compute mean after “trimming away” largest and smallest set of values,

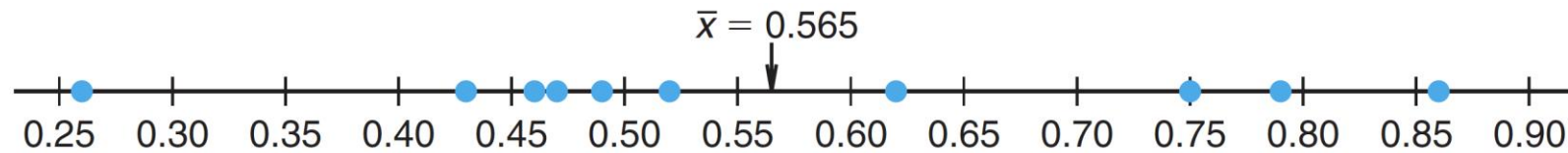


Figure 1.4: Sample mean as a centroid of the with-nitrogen stem weight.

$$\bar{x}_{\text{tr}(10)} = \frac{0.43 + 0.47 + 0.49 + 0.52 + 0.75 + 0.79 + 0.62 + 0.46}{8} = 0.56625.$$

Less sensitive to *outliers* than the sample mean, but more sensitive than the sample median.

Python Example

```
import numpy as np
from scipy import stats

# Example dataset
data = np.array([1, 2, 2, 3, 4, 30, 4, 4, 5])

# Calculate the standard mean
mean_val = np.mean(data)
print(f"Standard Mean: {mean_val}")

# Calculate the median
median_val = np.median(data)
print(f"Median: {median_val}")

# Calculate the 20% trimmed mean (proportiontocut=0.2)
# This removes the lowest 20% and highest 20% of values
trimmed_mean_val = stats.trim_mean(data, 0.2)
print(f"20% Trimmed Mean: {trimmed_mean_val}")
```

```
Standard Mean: 6.111111111111111
Median: 4.0
20% Trimmed Mean: 3.4285714285714284
```

Measures of Variability

Compare / contrast samples from the following two datasets,

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---------------------------|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Data set A: | X | X | X | X | X | X | 0 | X | X | 0 | 0 | X | X | X | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | | | | \uparrow \bar{x}_x | | | | | | | | \uparrow \bar{x}_0 | | | | | | | |
| Data set B: | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | | | | \uparrow \bar{x}_x | | | | | | | | | \uparrow \bar{x}_0 | | | | | | |

Dataset A exhibits large variability *within* the two groups.

Measures of Variability

Sample range: $X_{max} - X_{min}$

Sample variance / standard deviation:

The **sample variance**, denoted by s^2 , is given by

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

← **Degrees of Freedom**

The **sample standard deviation**, denoted by s , is the positive square root of s^2 , that is,

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

Python Example: Variability

```
# Example dataset
data = np.array([1, 2, 2, 3, 4, 30, 4, 4, 5])

# Calculate variance & standard deviation
var = np.var(data)
std = np.std(data)

# Calculate the range
data_range = max(data) - min(data)

print(f"Variance: {var}")
print(f"STDEV: {std}")
print(f"The minimum value is: {min(data)}")
print(f"The maximum value is: {max(data)}")
print(f"The statistical range is: {data_range}")
```

```
Variance: 72.76543209876543
STDEV: 8.530265652297437
The minimum value is: 1
The maximum value is: 30
The statistical range is: 29
```


Discrete and Continuous Data

E.g. a chemical engineer is interested in measuring the yield (in %) of a chemical process (continuous data).

E.g. a toxicologist is testing a new drug and the patient either responds or does not (binary data).

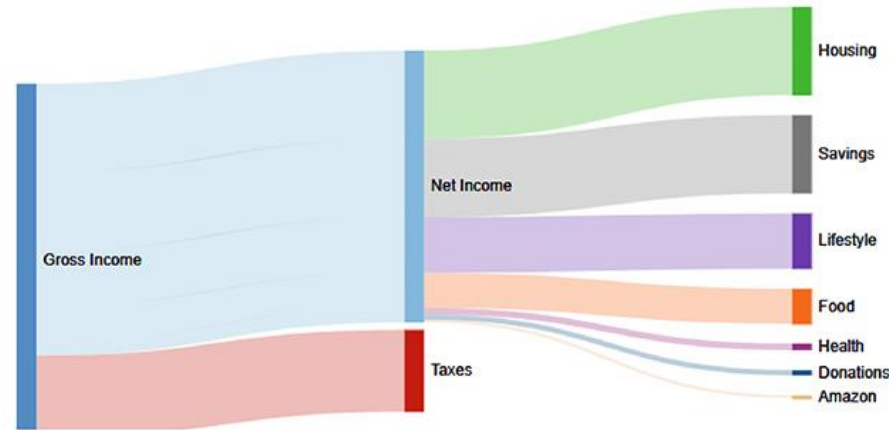
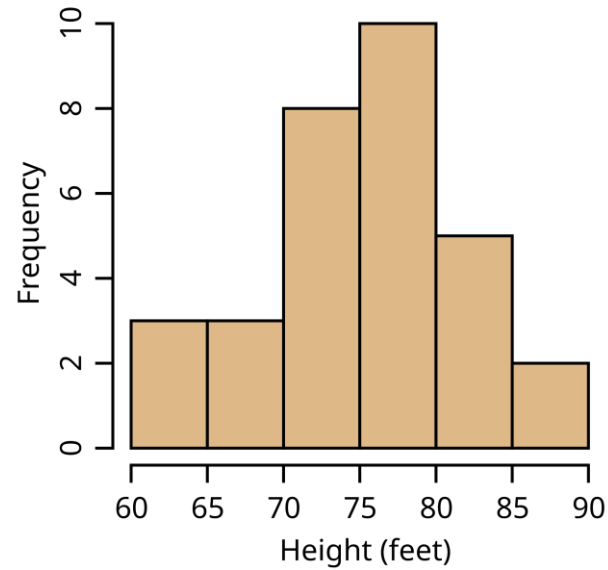
- Oftentimes binary data are reported as continuous ratios (e.g. successes / total)
- We will see significant distinctions between continuous / discrete data when we cover probability theory

Outline

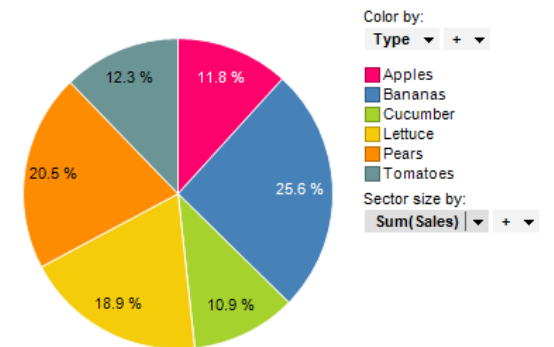
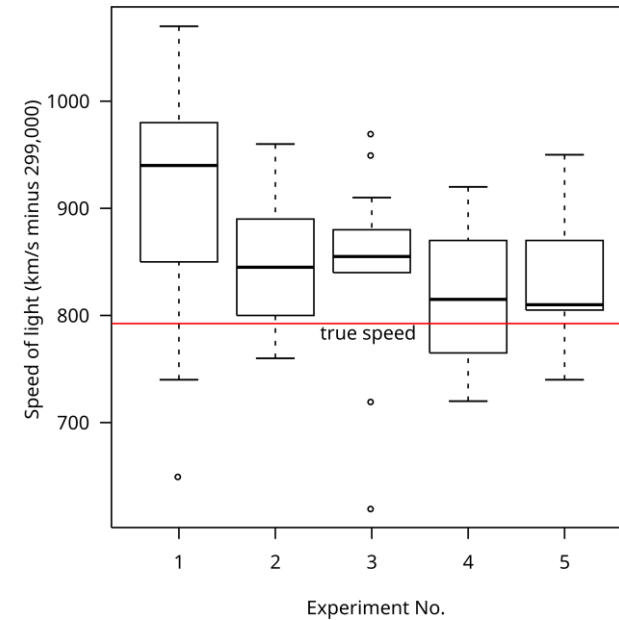
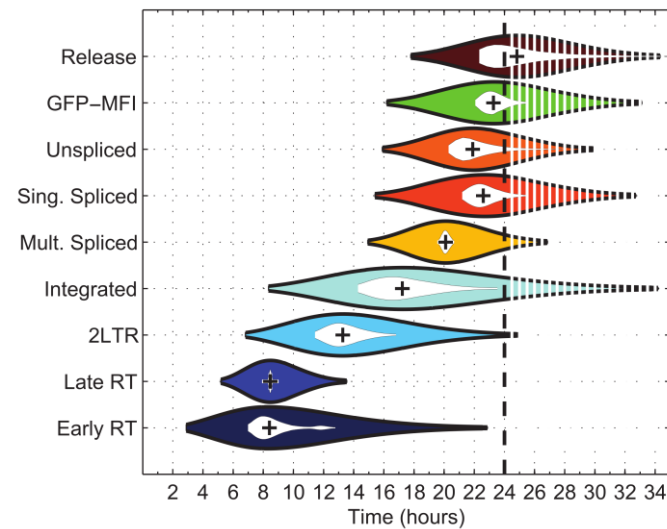
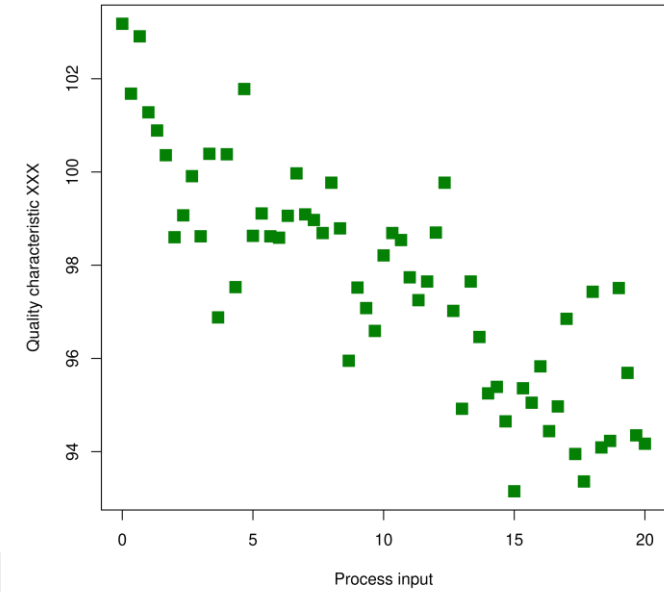
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Graphs

Heights of Black Cherry Trees



Scatterplot for quality characteristic XXX



Graphical Diagnostics: Scatterplot

Visual diagnostics can be helpful in identifying differences between groups.

Table 1.3: Tensile Strength

| Cotton Percentage | Tensile Strength |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 15 | 7, 7, 9, 8, 10 |
| 20 | 19, 20, 21, 20, 22 |
| 25 | 21, 21, 17, 19, 20 |
| 30 | 8, 7, 8, 9, 10 |

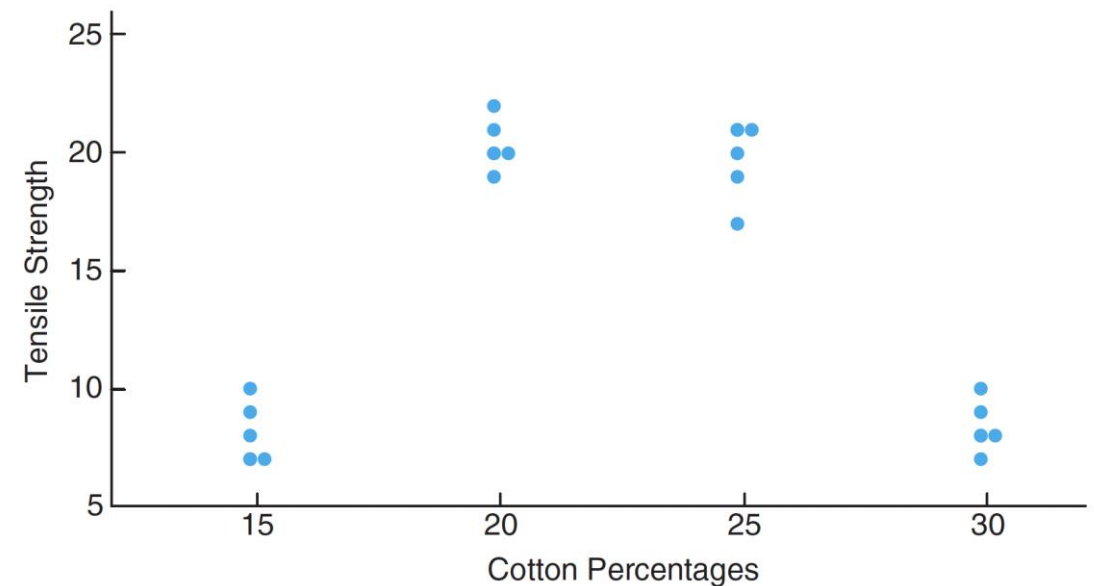


Figure 1.5: Scatter plot of tensile strength and cotton percentages.

Graphical Diagnostics: Histogram

Visual representation of the distribution of values.

Table 1.7: Relative Frequency Distribution of Battery Life

| Class Interval | Class Midpoint | Frequency, f | Relative Frequency |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 1.5–1.9 | 1.7 | 2 | 0.050 |
| 2.0–2.4 | 2.2 | 1 | 0.025 |
| 2.5–2.9 | 2.7 | 4 | 0.100 |
| 3.0–3.4 | 3.2 | 15 | 0.375 |
| 3.5–3.9 | 3.7 | 10 | 0.250 |
| 4.0–4.4 | 4.2 | 5 | 0.125 |
| 4.5–4.9 | 4.7 | 3 | 0.075 |

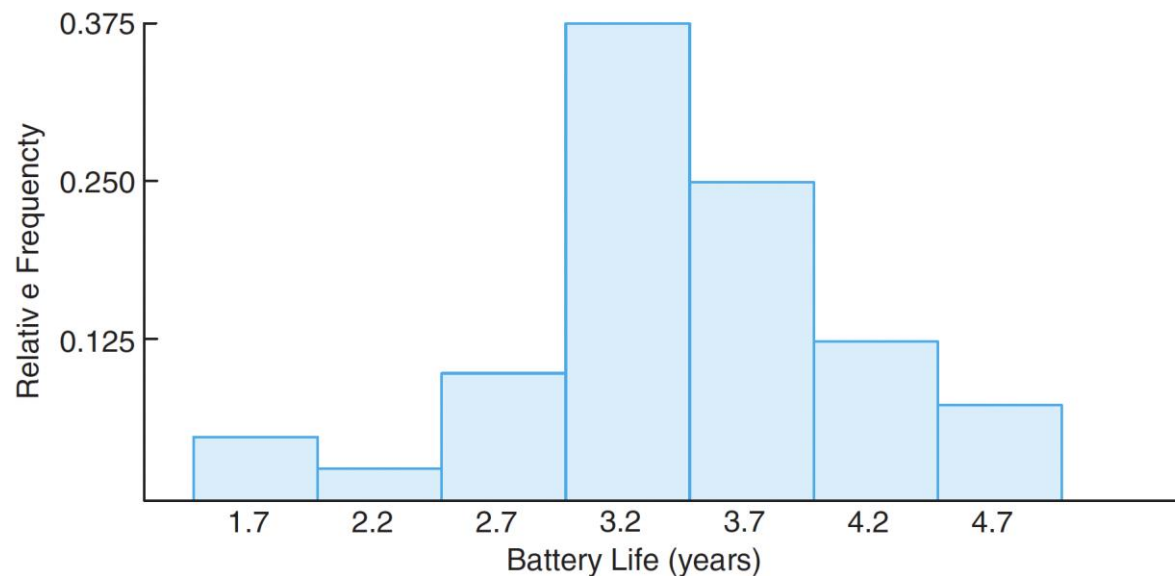


Figure 1.6: Relative frequency histogram.

Graphical Diagnostics: Box Plot

Whiskers indicate quartiles, dots indicate outliers. Note: Outlier determination is implementation-specific.

Table 1.8: Nicotine Data for Example 1.5

| | | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1.09 | 1.92 | 2.31 | 1.79 | 2.28 | 1.74 | 1.47 | 1.97 |
| 0.85 | 1.24 | 1.58 | 2.03 | 1.70 | 2.17 | 2.55 | 2.11 |
| 1.86 | 1.90 | 1.68 | 1.51 | 1.64 | 0.72 | 1.69 | 1.85 |
| 1.82 | 1.79 | 2.46 | 1.88 | 2.08 | 1.67 | 1.37 | 1.93 |
| 1.40 | 1.64 | 2.09 | 1.75 | 1.63 | 2.37 | 1.75 | 1.69 |

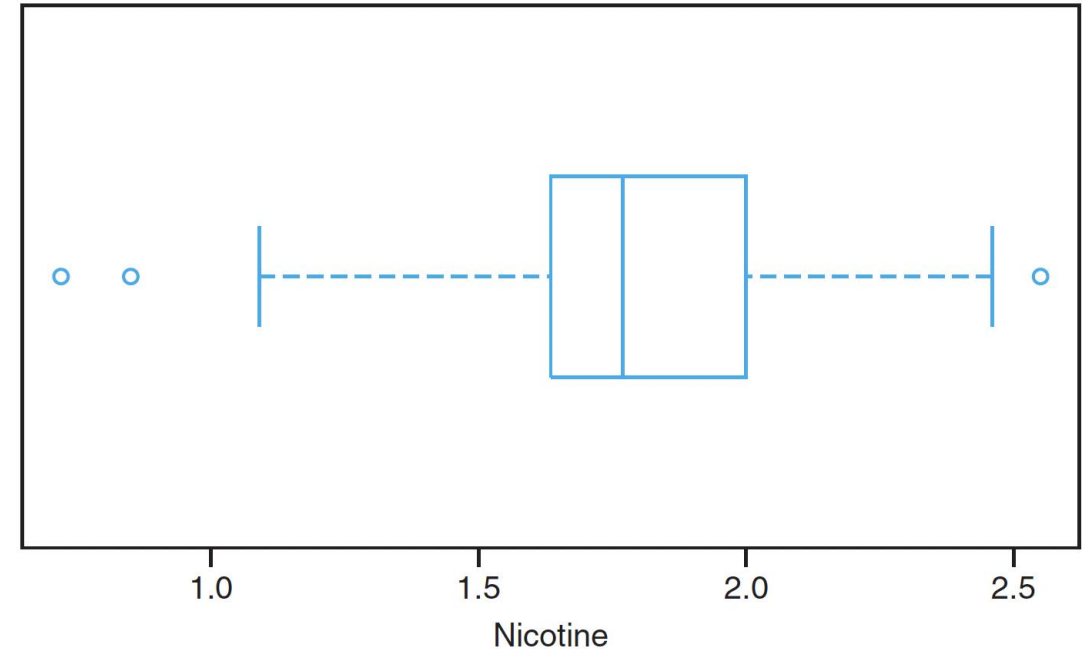


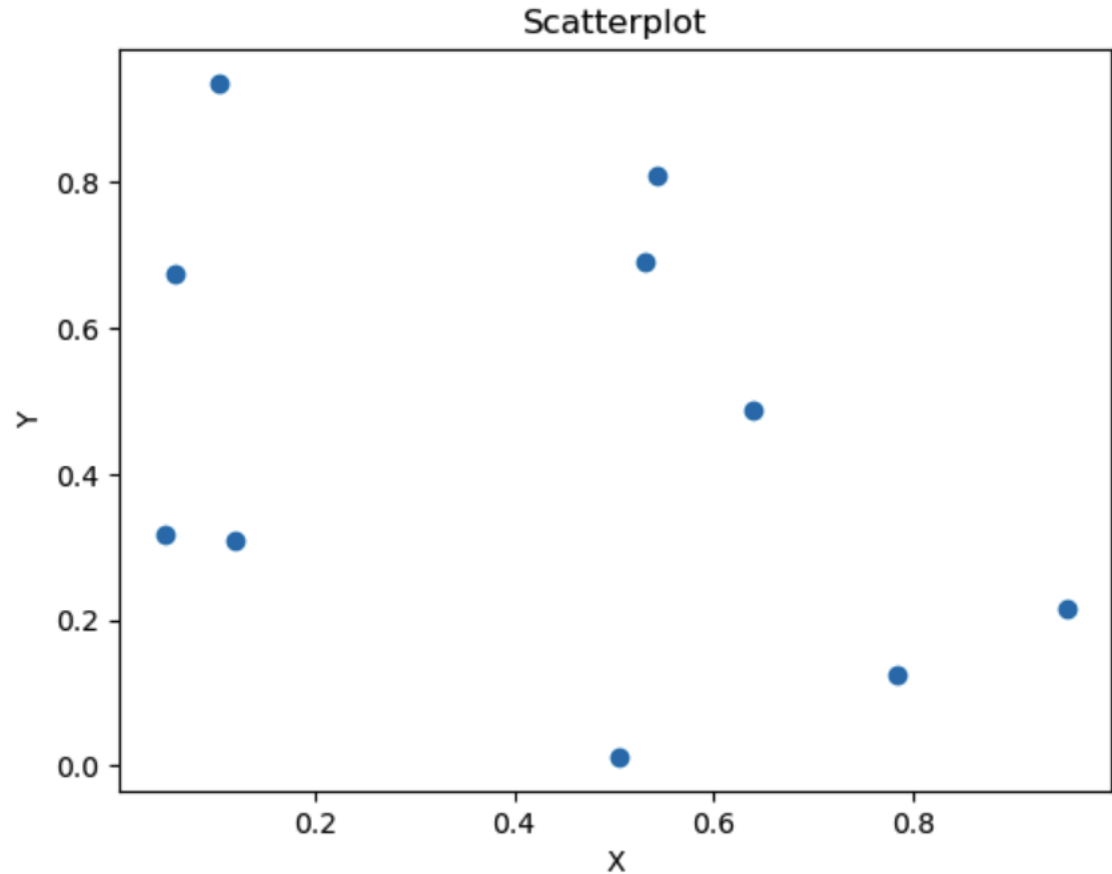
Figure 1.9: Box-and-whisker plot for Example 1.5.

Python Example: Scatterplot

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

# generate random X / Y coordinates
x = np.random.rand(10)
y = np.random.rand(10)

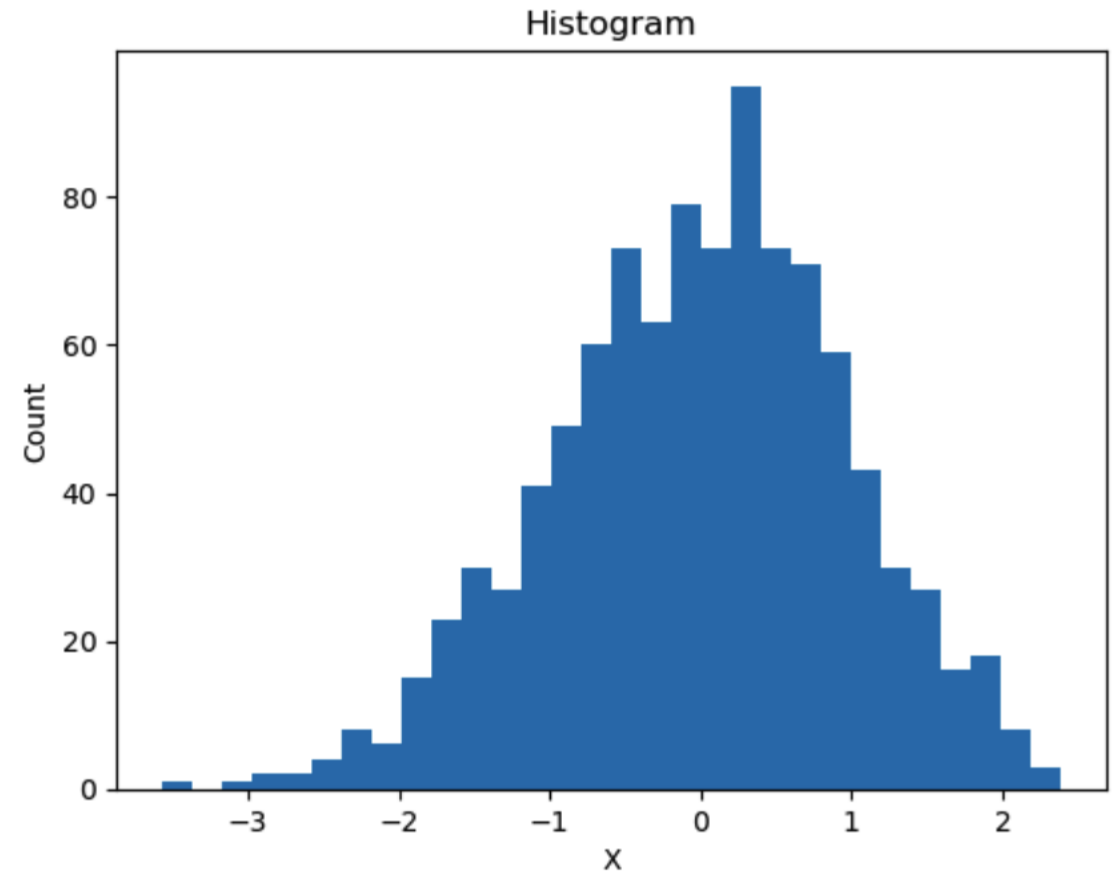
# scatterplot
plt.scatter(x, y)
plt.xlabel("X")
plt.ylabel("Y")
plt.title("Scatterplot")
plt.show()
```



Python Example: Histogram

```
# Sample from the standard Normal distribution
s = np.random.normal(size=1000)

# Plot histogram
count, bins, ignored = plt.hist(s, 30, density=False)
plt.xlabel("X")
plt.ylabel("Count")
plt.title("Histogram")
plt.show()
```



Python Example: Boxplot

```
# Sample from the standard Normal distribution
s1 = np.random.normal(loc=0, size=1000)
s2 = np.random.normal(loc=10, size=1000)
s3 = np.random.normal(loc=5, size=1000)
s = np.array((s1, s2, s3))

# Boxplot
plt.boxplot(s.T)
plt.xlabel("Group")
plt.ylabel("Value")
plt.title("Boxplot")
plt.show()
```

