10 Quantitative Data Analysis Approaches

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In order to understand data and present findings in an accurate way, researchers and managers need to develop an awareness of statistical analysis techniques. The previous chapter concentrated on quantitative data collection, this chapter delves into the statistical tools used to analyse the data once collected. It focuses on two sets of the most widely used statistical tools – exploring relationships and comparing groups – as shown in the 'Deductive' section in the Data Analysis area of the Methods Map (see Chapter 4). Finally, we briefly explain the nature of Big Data.

Data preparation

Real-life data generally cannot be used directly for data analysis – they are unorganised and filled with different types of problems and errors. We discuss three pre-processing steps that prepare data for further analysis: data entry, data cleaning and data formatting.

■ Data entry

A conventional way to organise data is to use tables, with *records* as rows and *attributes* as columns. A record is an identifiable piece of information which contains a set of values of attributes to the record. For example, one may organise the information collected from questionnaires in the following way: each record corresponds to all the answers from a respondent, with each attribute associated with the answer to one question.

No matter how careful one is, it is difficult to avoid making mistakes when entering data. To maintain a certain level of precision, one could use *double entry*. Its idea is very simple – let two individuals enter the same content and compare their inputs. When discrepancies are found, one shall verify and maintain the correct copy. By doubling efforts, double entry is very efficient in preventing entry mistakes. Another method is to use encoding to avoid entering text data directly. For example, when entering gender information such as 'male' or 'female' in text forms, some may introduce typos such as 'mael' and 'femeal', and some may capitalize the first letters as 'Female' and 'Male', which could be interpreted as different words. Alternatively, one can encode 'male' as '0' and 'female' as '1', so that one could enter 0s and 1s instead. The encoding function is explicitly provided in many data analysis software such as SPSS (Statistical package for the social sciences). SPSS can be used to analyse questionnaire-based and other data organised as cases with particular variables. Figure 10.1 illustrates a snapshot of variable view (information on variables is entered in the SPSS) and data value (data entered directly or can be imported from a spreadsheet file) on SPSS. Table 10.1 explains the information required for each variable in the questionnaire.

Table 10.1: Information required for each variable in the questionnaire in variable view in SPSS

Variable Label	Short Description
Name	Up to 8 characters (no spaces), starting with a letter Not allowed: ALL, AND, BY, EQ, GT, LE, LT, NE, NOT, WITH, OR, TO Can be: short version of item description e.g., var01, Q1a
Width	Max. no. of characters
Decimal places	Decimal places for numbers
Label	Longer version of name
Values	Values for coded variables
Missing	Blanks, no answer, etc
Columns	No. of columns in data view screen
Alignment	Left, right, centre
Types of measure	Nominal, ordinal, scales

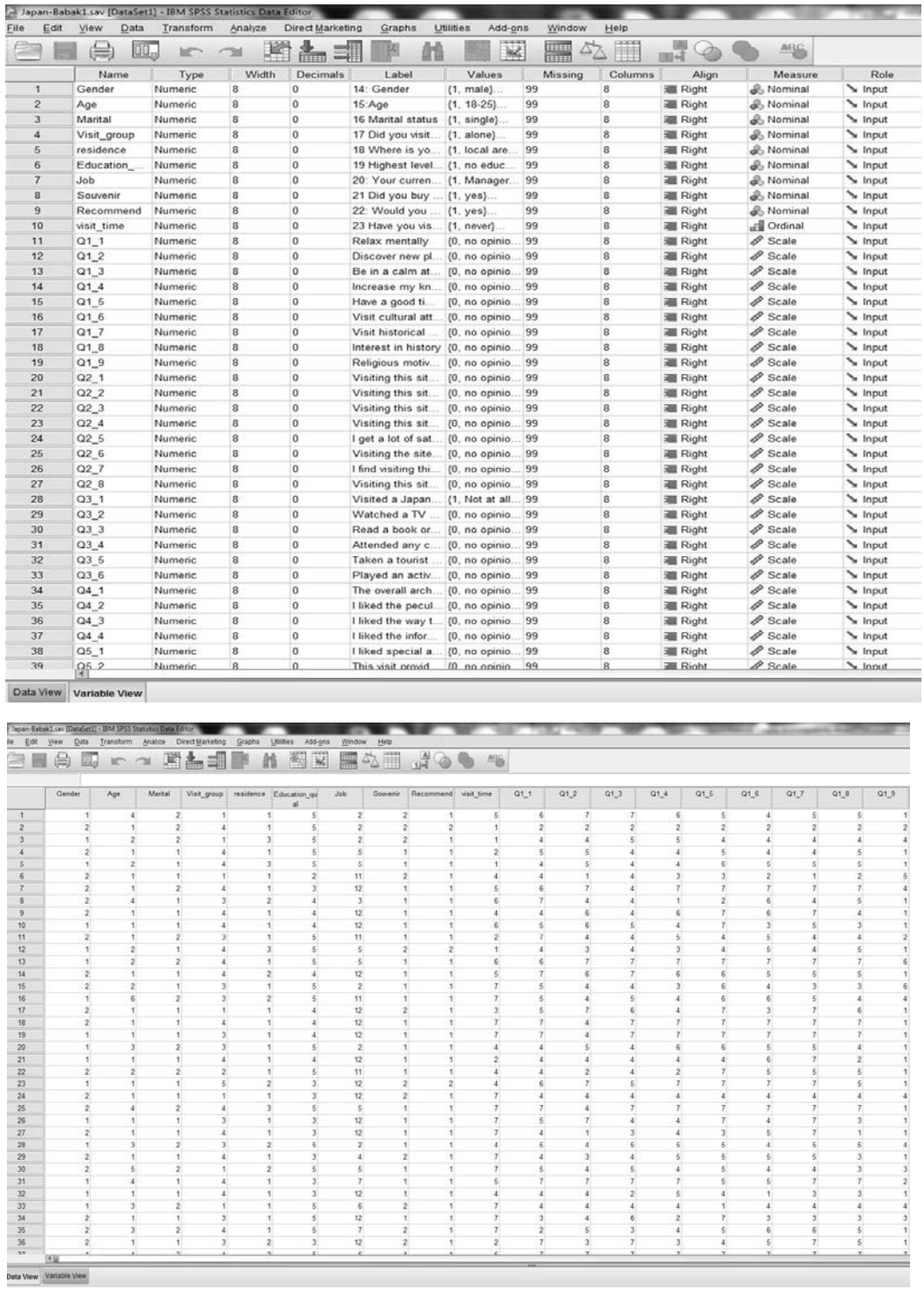

Figure 10.1: Example of (top) variable view and (bottom) data view in SPSS software

Data cleaning

Even if there are no errors introduced during entry phase, real-life data need to be cleaned because they are often *incomplete*, *noisy* and *inconsistent* (Han, Kamber, & Pei, 2011). Incompleteness arises when for some records the values for some attributes are missing. There are mainly two ways to deal with this issue. First, delete the whole record that misses data; this could be viable when the number of records with missing data is relatively small compared to the whole dataset. Second, fill the missing values; one can use the expected value on the corresponding attribute or regression on other attributes to predict the missing value. Noises refer to random factors that can only be quantified in a probabilistic way. Noises confound observations and cause *outliers* that are far away from normal observations. A primary task of data cleaning is to identify and 'smooth' out these outliers. Inconsistencies often arise when one combines information from different sources. For example, combining datasets with both American and British date information may cause confusion (i.e. the 3rd of April 1990 could be displayed as both 4/3/90 and 3/4/90).

Preliminary analysis

Describing data

To present a sample in an illustrative way one can either use descriptive statistics (numbers) or graphs, or both; it is a matter of personal preference – some prefer descriptive statistics because they are quantifiable while others prefer graphs because they are more intuitive. Therefore, when deciding which form to present data, it is important to know who your target audience is.

If the sample is of a nonmetric type (for example an ordinal scale as described in Chapter 9), *frequency* and *ratio* are two commonly used descriptive statistics. Frequency counts the number of occurrences of a specific category, and ratio calculates the corresponding percentage of frequency in the entire sample. Nonmetric data can be visualised through pie charts or bar charts. We give an example on the cut quality of diamonds based on a dataset with 53940 records (Source: http://vincentarelbundock.github.io/Rdatasets/datasets.html). The cut quality of diamonds is a nonmetric measurement and has five categories: fair, good, very good, premium and