Data Summaries

Nate Wells

Math 141, 2/5/21

Nate Wells

Outline

In this lecture, we will...

Outline

In this lecture, we will...

- Use ggplot2 to create Barplots
- Investigate some options for further customizing graphs
- Discuss measurements of center and spread for quantitative data

Section 1

Common Graphs using ggplot2

The Five Named Graphs

• We focus on just 5 graphs fundamental to statistics (although other types exist)

The Five Named Graphs

- We focus on just 5 graphs fundamental to statistics (although other types exist)
 - Scatterplots
 - 2 Linegraphs
 - 8 Histograms
 - 4 Boxplots
 - Barplots

The Five Named Graphs

- We focus on just 5 graphs fundamental to statistics (although other types exist)
 - 1 Scatterplots
 - 2 Linegraphs
 - 8 Histograms
 - 4 Boxplots
 - 6 Barplots
- We'll use a common data set to investigate each graph: the Portland Biketown data

biketown <-

```
read_csv("biketown.csv")
```

• Both Boxplots and Histograms show the distribution of *quantitative* variables.

- Both Boxplots and Histograms show the distribution of *quantitative* variables.
- We use Bar Charts to visualize the distribution of *categorical* variables, whose values are broken down into distinct levels.

- Both Boxplots and Histograms show the distribution of *quantitative* variables.
- We use Bar Charts to visualize the distribution of *categorical* variables, whose values are broken down into distinct levels.
- Investigate the distribution of bike use by month

- Both Boxplots and Histograms show the distribution of *quantitative* variables.
- We use Bar Charts to visualize the distribution of *categorical* variables, whose values are broken down into distinct levels.
- Investigate the distribution of bike use by month

```
ggplot(data = biketown, mapping = aes(x = Month)) +
geom_bar()
```



• Bar charts used to visualize the *joint distribution* of 2 categorical variables.

• Bar charts used to visualize the *joint distribution* of 2 categorical variables.



• Bar charts used to visualize the *joint distribution* of 2 categorical variables.



 Each bar divided into count by fill variable.

• Bar charts used to visualize the *joint distribution* of 2 categorical variables.



- Each bar divided into count by fill variable.
- Hard to make direct comparisons

• Bar charts used to visualize the *joint distribution* of 2 categorical variables.



- Each bar divided into count by fill variable.
- Hard to make direct comparisons

• Bar charts used to visualize the *joint distribution* of 2 categorical variables.



- Each bar divided into count by fill variable.
- Hard to make direct comparisons

• Each bar divided into proportion by fill variable.

Section 2

Extending ggplot2

Nate Wells

Scatterplots, side-by-side boxplots, and segmented barcharts all show relationships between 2 variables.

But what can we do to simultaneously explore 3 variables?

Scatterplots, side-by-side boxplots, and segmented barcharts all show relationships between 2 variables.

But what can we do to simultaneously explore 3 variables?

• 3D Scatterplots; possible, but challenging to code and interpret (still limited to 2d display)

Scatterplots, side-by-side boxplots, and segmented barcharts all show relationships between 2 variables.

But what can we do to simultaneously explore 3 variables?

- 3D Scatterplots; possible, but challenging to code and interpret (still limited to 2d display)
- Ø Map variables to additional aesthetics (beyond just x and y)

Scatterplots, side-by-side boxplots, and segmented barcharts all show relationships between 2 variables.

But what can we do to simultaneously explore 3 variables?

- 3D Scatterplots; possible, but challenging to code and interpret (still limited to 2d display)
- Ø Map variables to additional aesthetics (beyond just x and y)
- Show several 2D plots side-by-side.

Multiple Variables on 2d Plots

Does ride distance depend on start location?

Multiple Variables on 2d Plots

Does ride distance depend on start location?



Facets

• Faceting is used to split one graphic into many smaller ones, based on the values of a categorical variable.

Facets

• Faceting is used to split one graphic into many smaller ones, based on the values of a categorical variable.

```
ggplot(data = biketown2, mapping = aes(x = StartHour, y = n)) +
geom_line() +
facet_wrap(-Month, ncol = 3)
```



• Adding titles and axes labels to graphs greatly improves clarity.

• Adding titles and axes labels to graphs greatly improves clarity.



• Adding titles, captions, and axis labels greatly improves clarity.

• Adding titles, captions, and axis labels greatly improves clarity.

```
ggplot(data = biketown2, mapping = aes(x = StartHour, y = n, color = Month)) +
geom_line() +
labs(x = "Checkout Time (hours after midnight)", y = "Number of Checkouts",
    title = "Checkout frequencies throughout a day",
    caption = "Data from www.biketownpdx.com/system-data")
```





Change Graphic Colors

By default, R uses Teal and Salmon colors when plotting cat. variables with 2 levels

Change Graphic Colors

By default, R uses Teal and Salmon colors when plotting cat. variables with 2 levels

```
ggplot(data = biketown, mapping = aes(x = Month, fill = PaymentPlan)) +
geom_bar(position = "fill")
```



Extending ggplot2

Data Summaries

Change Graphic Colors

But it's possible to alter this

Extending ggplot2

Change Graphic Colors





Change Theme

We can also control the styling of other plot elements via theme

Change Theme

We can also control the styling of other plot elements via theme


Re-order bars

For categorical variables, values are often displayed in alphabetical order. We can change that by changing the way the data is stored:

Re-order bars

For categorical variables, values are often displayed in alphabetical order. We can change that by changing the way the data is stored:

Re-order bars

For categorical variables, values are often displayed in alphabetical order. We can change that by changing the way the data is stored:



Section 3

Data Summaries

Nate Wells

Exam Statistics

Suppose you are an instructor trying to gauge class performance on an exam. You have exam scores for 200 intro stat students.

Exam Statistics

Suppose you are an instructor trying to gauge class performance on an exam. You have exam scores for 200 intro stat students.

What summarizing information would it be helpful to know in order to assess how well the class did?

Exam Statistics

Suppose you are an instructor trying to gauge class performance on an exam. You have exam scores for 200 intro stat students.

What summarizing information would it be helpful to know in order to assess how well the class did?

- What was the typical value (maybe average or median)?
- Ø How much variation was there in scores?
- O What was the shape of the data?
- **4** Were there any outliers?

The Mean

The **mean** or average of a data set is one measure of *center*, obtained by adding all observed values and dividing by their number:

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

where n is the number of observations and x_i is the value of the *i*th observation.

The Mean

The **mean** or average of a data set is one measure of *center*, obtained by adding all observed values and dividing by their number:

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

where *n* is the number of observations and x_i is the value of the *i*th observation. mean(biketown_short\$Distance_Miles)

[1] 1.677599

The Mean

The **mean** or average of a data set is one measure of *center*, obtained by adding all observed values and dividing by their number:

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

where *n* is the number of observations and x_i is the value of the *i*th observation. mean(biketown_short\$Distance_Miles)

```
## [1] 1.677599
```



• If the histogram were made of solid material, the mean would be the point along the horizontal axis where the solid is perfectly balanced.

The median is another measure of *center* and separates data into two equally sized sets.

The median is another measure of *center* and separates data into two equally sized sets.

Suppose the n values are ordered from least to greatest. The median is the value in the middle of the list.

• If *n* is even, then there are two middle values, and the median is their average.

The median is another measure of *center* and separates data into two equally sized sets.

Suppose the n values are ordered from least to greatest. The median is the value in the middle of the list.

• If *n* is even, then there are two middle values, and the median is their average. median(biketown_short\$Distance_Miles)

[1] 1.39

The median is another measure of center and separates data into two equally sized sets.

Suppose the n values are ordered from least to greatest. The median is the value in the middle of the list.

• If *n* is even, then there are two middle values, and the median is their average. median(biketown_short\$Distance_Miles)

[1] 1.39



• The median corresponds to the line that divides a histogram into two equal area pieces.

Both mean and median represent typical values for a data set.

Both mean and median represent typical values for a data set.



Both mean and median represent typical values for a data set.



• In non-symmetric distributions, the mean will further along the direction of skew than the median.

Both mean and median represent typical values for a data set.



• In non-symmetric distributions, the mean will further along the direction of skew than the median.

• Why?

Consider two data sets, one with a large outlier and one without:

my_data <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 10)
my_data_with_oulier <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 100)</pre>

Consider two data sets, one with a large outlier and one without:

my_data <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 10)
my_data_with_oulier <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 100)</pre>

The mean value of a dataset is very sensitive to outliers.

Consider two data sets, one with a large outlier and one without:

```
my_data <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 10)
my_data_with_oulier <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 100)</pre>
```

The mean value of a dataset is very sensitive to outliers. mean(my_data)

```
## [1] 5.5
```

```
mean(my_data_with_oulier)
```

[1] 20.5

Consider two data sets, one with a large outlier and one without:

```
my_data <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 10)
my_data_with_oulier <- c(1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 100)</pre>
```

The mean value of a dataset is very sensitive to outliers.

```
mean(my_data)
```

```
## [1] 5.5
mean(my_data_with_oulier)
```

[1] 20.5

```
The median, however, is not.
median(my_data)
```

```
## [1] 6
median(my_data_with_oulier)
```

```
## [1] 6
```

We'd like to assess how variable the data set is.

• Are values usually close to the mean, or are they spread out?

We'd like to assess how variable the data set is.

• Are values usually close to the mean, or are they spread out?

How can we find the typical amount an observation differs from the mean observation?

We'd like to assess how variable the data set is.

• Are values usually close to the mean, or are they spread out?

How can we find the typical amount an observation differs from the mean observation?

Guess 1: Compute the average difference $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i}-\bar{x})$	Distance_Miles	Mean	Deviations
	1.57	1.2	0.37
	2.09	1.2	0.89
	0.38	1.2	-0.82
i=1	0.86	1.2	-0.34
	1.10	1.2	-0.10

We'd like to assess how variable the data set is.

• Are values usually close to the mean, or are they spread out?

How can we find the typical amount an observation differs from the mean observation?

Distance_Miles	Mean	Deviations
1.57	1.2	0.37
2.09	1.2	0.89
0.38	1.2	-0.82
0.86	1.2	-0.34
1.10	1.2	-0.10
	Distance_Miles 1.57 2.09 0.38 0.86 1.10	Distance_Miles Mean 1.57 1.2 2.09 1.2 0.38 1.2 0.86 1.2 1.10 1.2

• What's the problem?

We'd like to assess how variable the data set is.

• Are values usually close to the mean, or are they spread out?

How can we find the typical amount an observation differs from the mean observation?

Guess 1: Compute the average difference	Distance_Miles	Mean	Deviations
	1.57	1.2	0.37
$\frac{1}{\sum}$ ($\tau = \overline{z}$)	2.09	1.2	0.89
$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - x_i)$	0.38	1.2	-0.82
i=1	0.86	1.2	-0.34
	1.10	1.2	-0.10

• What's the problem?



Extending ggplot2

Data Summaries

Measures of Variability

The fix?

The fix?

Guess 2: Compute the average <i>squared</i> difference	Distance_Miles	Mean	Sq_Deviation
	1.57	1.2	0.1369
1	2.09	1.2	0.7921
$\frac{1}{n}\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$	0.38	1.2	0.6724
$\frac{1}{i=1}$	0.86	1.2	0.1156
	1.10	1.2	0.0100

The fix?

Guess 2: Compute the average <i>squared</i> difference	Distance_Miles	Mean	Sq_Deviation
	1.57	1.2	0.1369
$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n(x_i-\bar{x})^2$	2.09	1.2	0.7921
	0.38	1.2	0.6724
	0.86	1.2	0.1156
	1.10	1.2	0.0100

• This is called the **Population Variance**

The fix?

Guess 2: Compute the average <i>squared</i> difference	Distance_Miles	Mean	Sq_Deviation
	1.57	1.2	0.1369
1 <u></u>	2.09	1.2	0.7921
$\frac{1}{n}\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$	0.38	1.2	0.6724
i = 1	0.86	1.2	0.1156
	1.10	1.2	0.0100

• This is called the **Population Variance**

Pop_	_Variance
	0.3454

The population variance does measure spread of data.

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

The population variance does measure spread of data.

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

But it does have two small problems:

The population variance does measure spread of data.

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

But it does have two small problems:

• When sampling, it tends to *underestimate* the variability in the population. So we increase it by dividing by something smaller:

The population variance does measure spread of data.

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

But it does have two small problems:

• When sampling, it tends to *underestimate* the variability in the population. So we increase it by dividing by something smaller:

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

The population variance does measure spread of data.

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

But it does have two small problems:

• When sampling, it tends to *underestimate* the variability in the population. So we increase it by dividing by something smaller:

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

Because observations are squared, it is no longer measured in same *units* as original data (i.e. if data is in miles, then variance is in sq. miles). So we take square roots:
Standard Deviation

The population variance does measure spread of data.

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

But it does have two small problems:

• When sampling, it tends to *underestimate* the variability in the population. So we increase it by dividing by something smaller:

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

Because observations are squared, it is no longer measured in same units as original data (i.e. if data is in miles, then variance is in sq. miles). So we take square roots:

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

The standard deviation measures the typical size of deviations of observations from the mean. $% \left({{{\bf{n}}_{\rm{s}}}} \right)$

The standard deviation measures the typical size of deviations of observations from the mean.

For most data sets, almost all observations are within a distance of 2 standard deviations of the mean:

The standard deviation measures the typical size of deviations of observations from the mean.

For most data sets, almost all observations are within a distance of 2 standard deviations of the mean:

```
sd(biketown_short$Distance_Miles)
```

[1] 1.172257

The standard deviation measures the typical size of deviations of observations from the mean.

For most data sets, almost all observations are within a distance of 2 standard deviations of the mean:

```
sd(biketown_short$Distance_Miles)
```

```
## [1] 1.172257
```



Where the median divides data into equal halves, quartiles divide data into equal quarters

Where the median divides data into equal halves, quartiles divide data into equal quarters

- 25% of all observations are less than the first quartile Q1
- 25% of all observations are greater than the third quartile Q3

Where the median divides data into equal halves, quartiles divide data into equal quarters

• 25% of all observations are less than the first quartile Q1

• 25% of all observations are greater than the *third quartile Q3* quantile(biketown_short\$Distance_Miles, c(.25, .75))

25% 75% ## 0.75 2.38

Where the median divides data into equal halves, quartiles divide data into equal quarters

- 25% of all observations are less than the first quartile Q1
- 25% of all observations are greater than the *third quartile* Q3 quantile(biketown_short\$Distance_Miles, c(.25, .75))

25% 75% ## 0.75 2.38



• The *IQR* is the distance between the 1st and 3rd quartile: IQR = Q3 - Q1

Where the median divides data into equal halves, quartiles divide data into equal quarters

• 25% of all observations are less than the first quartile Q1

• 25% of all observations are greater than the *third quartile* Q3 quantile(biketown_short\$Distance_Miles, c(.25, .75))

25% 75% ## 0.75 2.38



• The *IQR* is the distance between the 1st and 3rd quartile: IQR = Q3 - Q1

• Comparing Median - Q1 and Q3 - Median can show shape of distribution.

Nate Wells