



COMP9033  
DATA ANALYTICS

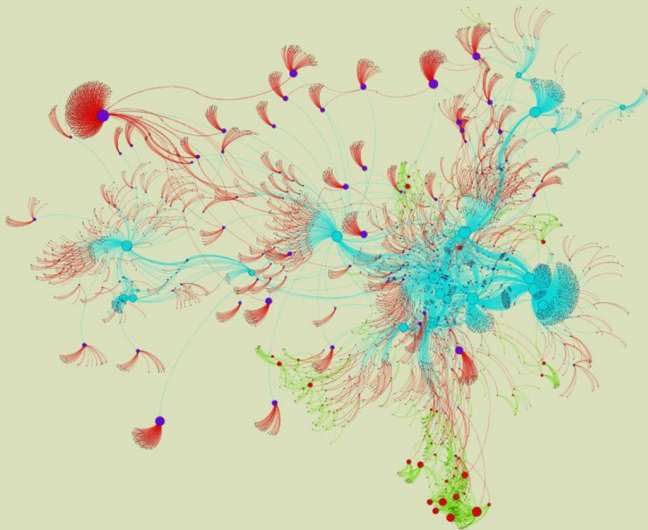
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EXPLORATORY DATA  
ANALYSIS I

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# Overview

### 1. Introduction to data analysis:

- What is it?
- How does it work?
- Real world examples.

### 2. Module outline:

- Overview of topics.
- Marking scheme.
- Lab work.
- Project work.
- Contact information.

### 3. Data analysis processes:

- What are they?
- Why use them?
- How do they work?
- Which one to use?

### 4. Data sampling:

- What is it?
- Why is it important?
- How to do it?

### 1. Exploratory data analysis:

- What is exploratory data analysis?
- Why is it important?
- Data types.

### 2. Visual data analysis:

- Chart types.
- Visual cues — what they are, why they're important.
- The Four Pillars of Effective Visualisation.

### 3. Distributions:

- Histograms.
- The normal distribution.
- Other kinds of distribution.
- Visualising category distributions.

# Exploratory data analysis

- The term *exploratory data analysis* (EDA) refers to a commonly used approach for analysing data sets.
- Broadly, the aims of EDA are to:
  - Become familiar with the data to be analysed.
  - Uncover hidden structure in the data.
  - Determine whether the data contains important variables.
  - Detect anomalies in the data.
  - Test assumptions about the data.
- Generally, EDA is carried out *after* sampling the data but *before* cleaning and/or transforming it (recall SEMMA/CRISP-DM from Lecture 01).

## 1.2 / EXAMPLES OF EDA TECHNIQUES

- EDA techniques consist of both *quantitative* and *graphical* methods, *e.g.*
  - Categorising the type of the data, *e.g.* time series, geographic coordinates.
  - Visualising the behaviour of the data, *e.g.* time series plot, histogram.
  - Summarising the behaviour of variables, *e.g.* typical values, ranges.
  - Detecting outliers and anomalies, *e.g.* snow in summertime.
  - Determining whether the data follows a particular distribution, *e.g.* the normal distribution.
  - Discovering or verifying relationships between variables, *e.g.* more sunshine → more icecream sales.
  - Finding groups or categories within the data, *e.g.* distinct species in a sample of animals.

## 1.3 / IDENTIFYING DATA TYPES

- The *type* of data describes its content, *e.g.* whether it is numeric, categoric, a time series, GPS coordinates, *etc.*
- Defining the type of data you are working with is important as it affects the kind of techniques you can use throughout the remainder of the analysis process, *e.g.*
  - We can't compute the average of a set of categories (*e.g.* {Dog, Cat, Dog}).
  - Time series data may need to be treated sequentially in order to preserve certain chronological properties.
  - Spatial data may need to be transformed into a common coordinate reference system (*e.g.* WGS84).
- Data can have more than one type — in such cases, you should determine the type that is most relevant to the analysis you are carrying out.



## 1.4 / EXAMPLES OF DATA TYPES

**Quantitative** Numeric data with no inherent order or dependencies, *e.g.*

- Currency.
- Temperature.
- Population.

**Categoric** Data consisting of unordered groups of items, *e.g.*

- Breeds of dog.
- Car manufacturers.
- Countries with the Euro currency.

**Ordinal** Data with an intrinsic order (*i.e.* the sequence matters), *e.g.*

- Relative popularity of political parties (also numeric).
- Finishing positions in a race (also categoric).
- Countries with the Euro currency in GDP order (also categoric).

**Spatial** Data measured with respect to location, *e.g.*

- GPS coordinates (also numeric).
- Post codes (also categoric).
- Addresses (text, can be converted to coordinates or post codes).

**Temporal** Data measured with respect to time, *e.g.*

- Currency fluctuation over time (also numeric).
- World Cup winners (also categoric).
- GPS trace of running route (also spatial).

**Relational** Data with an inherent structure, *e.g.*

- Social network contacts.
- Organisation chart hierarchy.
- Commonly purchased groups of items.

# Visual data analysis

- Visual analysis can give us an intuitive understanding of data quickly:
  - Quantitative techniques (*e.g.* statistics) give us precise numerical answers.
  - However, digesting large amounts of quantitative data can be overwhelming.
  - Graphical techniques allow to us to get a high level “feel” for what’s going on.
  - However, graphical techniques do not give the same level of precise numerical detail as quantitative techniques.
  - A combination of both is typically the best approach.

## 2.2 / VISUAL CUES

- The primary aim of data visualisation is the *effective* communication of information:
  - Good visualisations make complex data *easier* to understand.
  - Bad visualisations make simple data *harder* to understand.
- One way to make better visualisations is to choose chart types that encode<sup>1</sup> the meaning of our data using appropriate *visual cues*:
  - A visual cue graphically encodes data with shapes, colours, sizes, *etc.*
  - Generally, visual cues are self-explanatory — we intuitively understand what they mean, *e.g.* the length of a bar in a bar chart conveys magnitude.
  - If we choose visual cues well, we can minimise clutter and maximise intuitive understanding of our visualisations.

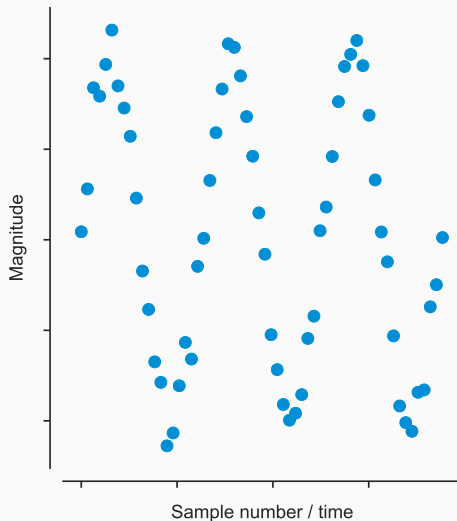
<sup>1</sup>For more information, see [bit.ly/2kUpGQA](https://bit.ly/2kUpGQA).

## 2.3 / EXAMPLES OF VISUAL CUES

| VISUAL CUE         | NUMBER OF VARIABLES | EXAMPLE USAGE                                       |
|--------------------|---------------------|---|
| length             | large               | the length of bars in a bar chart                   |
| size/area          | large               | the size of bubbles in a bubble chart               |
| position/placement | large               | the placement of bubbles in a bubble chart          |
| connection         | large               | edges between nodes in a network graph              |
| angle              | moderate            | the angle of slices in a pie chart                  |
| shape/icon         | moderate            | highlighting points in a scatter plot               |
| colour/saturation  | small               | the colour of bars in a bar chart                   |
| line pattern       | small               | highlighting different lines in a line plot         |
| line weight        | small               | highlighting different lines in a line plot         |
| line endings       | small               | highlighting the direction of trends in a line plot |

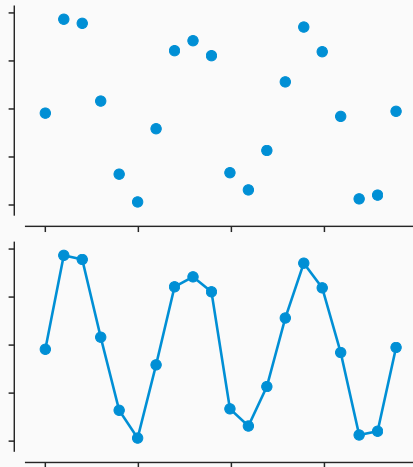
## 2.4 / VISUALISING QUANTITIES: SCATTER/LINE PLOTS

- Scatter plots can help us to understand trends in time series and other ordered quantitative data samples:
  - The x-axis measures the *sample order* (e.g. time) of the data points in the sample.
  - The y-axis measures the *magnitude* of the values in the sample.



## 2.5 / VISUALISING QUANTITIES: SCATTER/LINE PLOTS

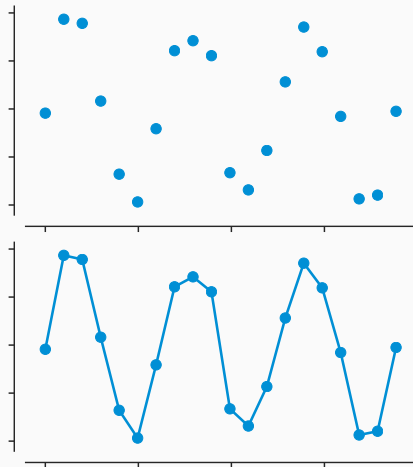
- If the number of data points in the sample is small, then it might be difficult to determine a trend visually.
- If the number of data points is not too small, we can use a line plot to help:
  - The axes in a line plot work the same way as in a scatter plot.
  - Consecutive points are connected by a trend line.





## 2.6 / VISUALISING QUANTITIES: SCATTER/LINE PLOTS

- Meaning can be encoded in a number of ways:
  - The position of points indicates their value.
  - The colour of points/lines indicates their meaning, *e.g.* when plotting multiple series.
  - Varying the colour/styles of points (*e.g.* circles, squares, crosses) can emphasise different trends or subgroups.
  - Varying line properties can help to differentiate when plotting multiple series.
  - Adding a line ending (*e.g.* an arrow) shows directionality/order.



## 2.7 / EXAMPLE: MISUSING POSITION

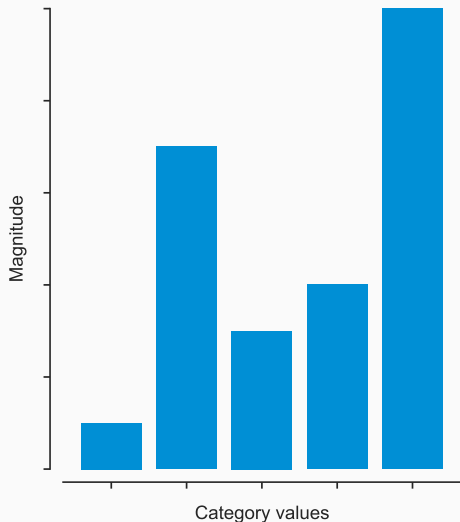
- If the distances between points is warped, or if points are excluded from the trend line, the meaning of the data becomes distorted!
- In the chart to the right, the x axis distances look even, but represent different time gaps.
- Also, as the data is quarterly, there should be sixteen points in total (four points per year), not one from a different month over four years.



Credit: Fox News

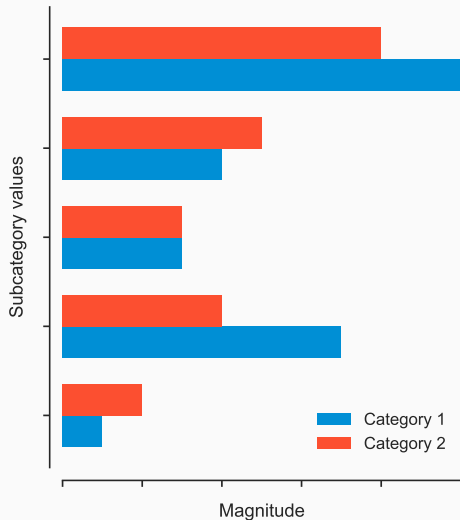
## 2.8 / VISUALISING CATEGORIES: BAR CHARTS

- Bar charts are a useful way to visualise the magnitude and relative proportion of quantities in a categoric sample:
  - The x-axis measures the *category value* of the data points in the sample.
  - The y-axis measures the *magnitude* of the value of the corresponding category.



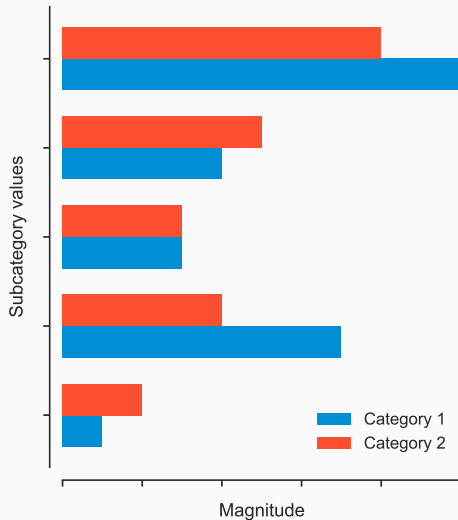
## 2.9 / VISUALISING CATEGORIES: BAR CHARTS

- Bar charts can also be displayed horizontally — we just have to swap the x and y axes.
- Category hierarchies can be compared by using different colours (e.g. number of Olympic medals won by the US and UK in different events).
- It's important to include a legend in this case, so that the meaning of the colours can be distinguished.



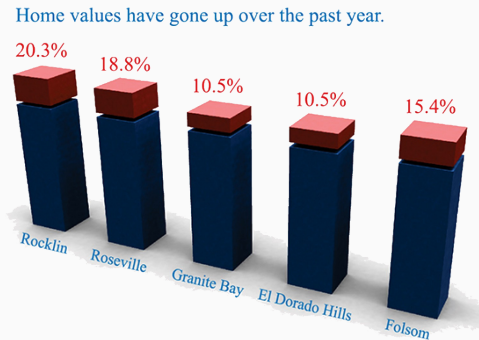
## 2.10 / VISUALISING CATEGORIES: BAR CHARTS

- Bar charts encode meaning of categoric data using *length* and *colour*:
  - The length of a bar indicates the magnitude of the corresponding variable.
  - The colour of a bar indicates the category of the corresponding variable, e.g. when plotting multiple series.



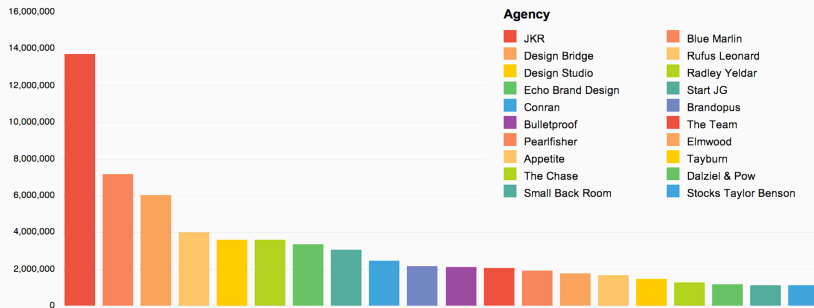
## 2.11 / EXAMPLE: MISUSING LENGTH

- If we misuse a visual cue, we can make our graphics harder to understand.
- For instance, in this case, the value that the left-most bar represents is almost twice the value of the middle bar.
- However, because each bar has been placed on a “pedestal”, this difference is not apparent at first glance.



Credit: Infographic Marketing

## 2.12 / EXAMPLE: MISUSING COLOUR



Credit: DesignStudio

- In this case, colour has been misused — some bars have very similar colours (e.g. the second and third from the left), while the colours themselves repeat halfway across making the true meaning of the chart unintelligible.

## 2.13 / VISUALISING CATEGORIES: PIE CHARTS

- Pie charts can also be useful when visualising proportions in a categoric sample:
  - The colours of the sections represent the *category values* of the data points in the sample.
  - The angles of the sections measure the *magnitude* of the value of the corresponding category.





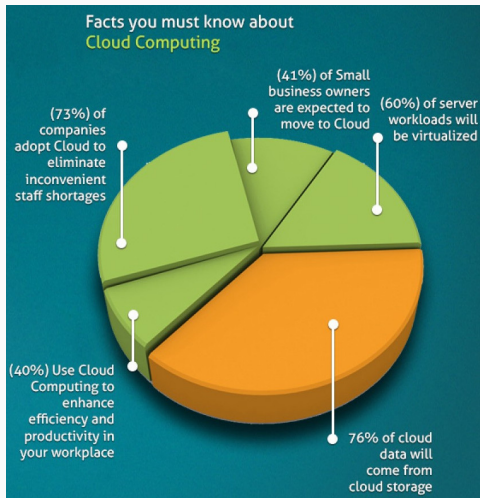
## 2.14 / VISUALISING CATEGORIES: PIE CHARTS

- Pie charts can be useful, but are often difficult to interpret:
  - The difference in the lengths of angles can be harder to discern than the difference in the height of bars.
  - For instance, in the image on the right, which is larger — pink or green?
- For more information, see [read.bi/1MIkvcB](https://read.bi/1MIkvcB).



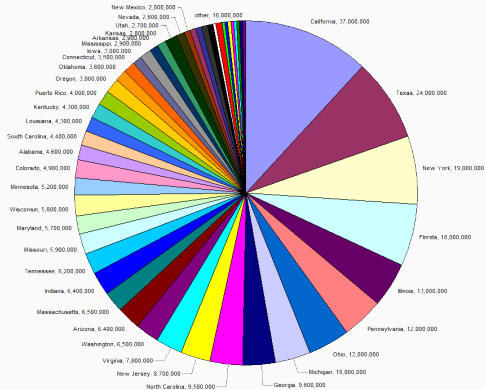
## 2.15 / EXAMPLE: MISUSING ANGLES

- Pie charts only make sense when the magnitudes of the slice variables sum logically.
- After all, a pie chart is a circle, so there are just  $360^\circ$  to share.
- When slice values don't add up, neither does the visualisation.



## 2.16 / EXAMPLE: MISUSING ANGLES AND COLOUR

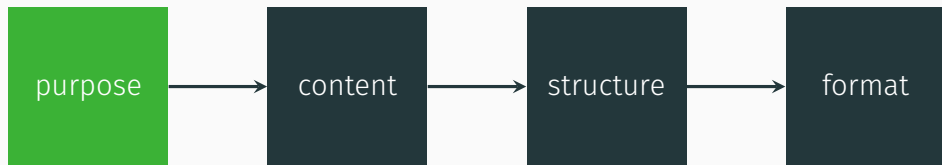
- As you add more variables to the chart, the angles of each slice becomes smaller.
- Eventually, you will reach a point where it's no longer easy to understand the magnitude represented by a slice.
- The problem is compounded by the fact that you can't choose a large number of easily distinguishable colours.



Credit: Mikael Häggström/Wikipedia

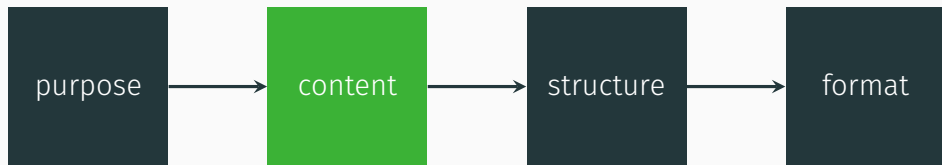
- Creating effective visualisations can be tricky at times — there are lots of factors to consider.
- Following a process model can help us to remember all the essential steps and considerations.
- One such process, known as the *Four Pillars of Effective Visualisation*<sup>2</sup>, emphasises the following steps:
  1. Purpose: *why* are you creating your visualisation?
  2. Content: *what* are you going to visualise?
  3. Structure: *how* are you going to visualise it?
  4. Formatting: *who* is your audience?

<sup>2</sup>For more information, see [bit.ly/2llzal5](https://bit.ly/2llzal5).



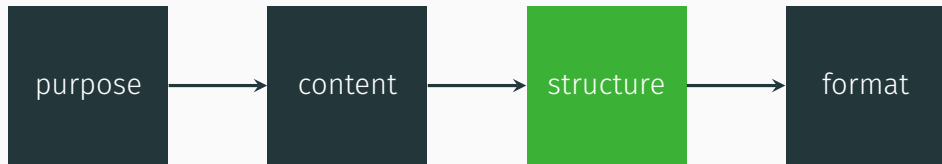
- The first stage in designing an effective visualisation is to define its purpose, *i.e.*
  - What is your purpose?
  - What is the aim of your visualisation?
  - What information are you trying to convey?

## 2.19 / THE DATA VISUALISATION PROCESS: CONTENT



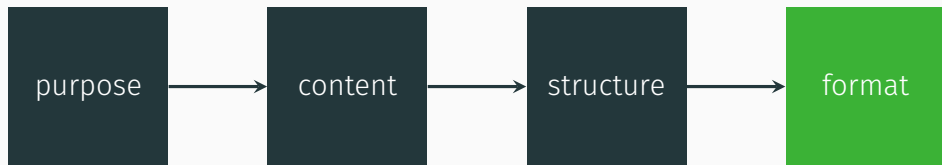
- The second stage in designing an effective visualisation is to decide what its content will be, *i.e.*
  - What data are you going to visualise?
  - Do you have enough data?
  - Do you have too much data? Do you need to visualise all of it or just a subset?
  - Are there relationships in the data that support your purpose?

## 2.20 / THE DATA VISUALISATION PROCESS: STRUCTURE



- The third stage in designing an effective visualisation is to decide on a method to visualise your data with — this generally depends on:
  1. The data type you are working with, which should decide what chart type to use.
  2. The properties of your data, which are encoded by *visual cues*.
- Choosing a poor structure makes your visualisation more difficult to understand, so this is a crucial step.

## 2.21 / THE DATA VISUALISATION PROCESS: FORMAT



- The final stage in designing an effective visualisation is to decide how much additional formatting is required.
- This is also a crucial step, as it determines the amount of time you should spend touching up your visualisation once the first three steps are complete.
- Generally, this depends on the intended audience of the visualisation, *i.e.* *who* will be viewing your image?



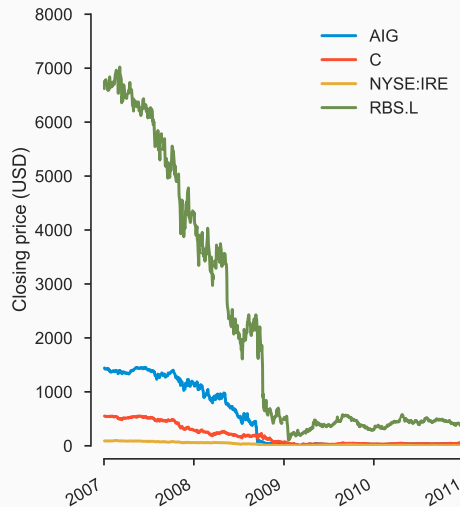
- Why consider your audience? Because technical and non-technical audiences have different requirements!
- If your audience is technical (e.g. fellow team members, subject matter experts), then a “quick and dirty” visualisation might be best:
  - Misunderstandings can usually be cleared up quickly.
  - If speed is a priority, then image quality is usually not.
- If your audience is non-technical (e.g. management or customers), then you might want to spend more time making things look good:
  - Well designed graphics are easier to interpret and understand, and so can save time, questions and frustration.
  - If your visualisation looks good, you look good!

## 2.23 / THE DATA VISUALISATION PROCESS: FORMAT

- So, what should you consider when formatting your visualisation?
  - Whether to label graph axes and, if so, with what.
  - Whether to include a plot legend and, if so, of what kind.
  - What colour scheme to use, if colour is used (e.g. should it be colour blind friendly?).
  - Whether to include additional annotation to highlight important features (e.g. the month with the highest sales).
  - Whether to use grid lines, which can make visual comparison easier, but also add unwanted clutter.
  - What aspect ratio to use.
  - What font to use.
  - ...essentially, any form of visual polish that makes your graphic easier to interpret!
- Be careful not to visually clutter your graphic while formatting it — this will undo all the benefits!

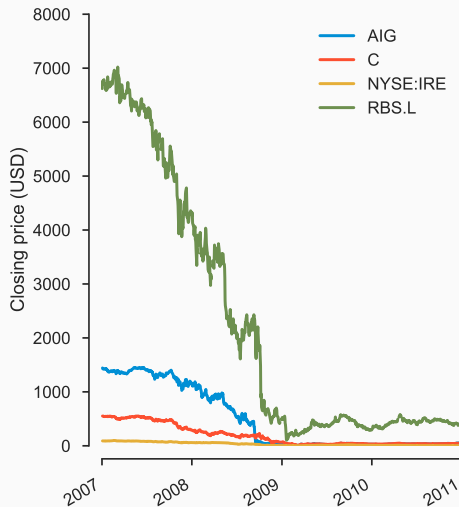
## 2.24 / EXAMPLE: FORMATTING

- The image to the right shows the closing stock prices of four major companies around the time of the 2008-2009 global financial crisis.



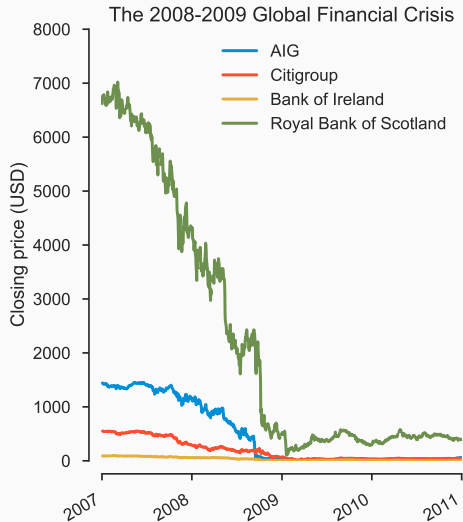
## 2.25 / EXAMPLE: FORMATTING

- Some formatting has already been applied:
  - The trend lines have been given distinct colours, to make them easily distinguishable.
  - The y axis has been titled to make its meaning clearer.
  - The x axis has not been titled; its tick labels have been formatted as dates (and rotated to fit) instead.
  - The plot has been given a legend, so that we can look up what each trend line represents.



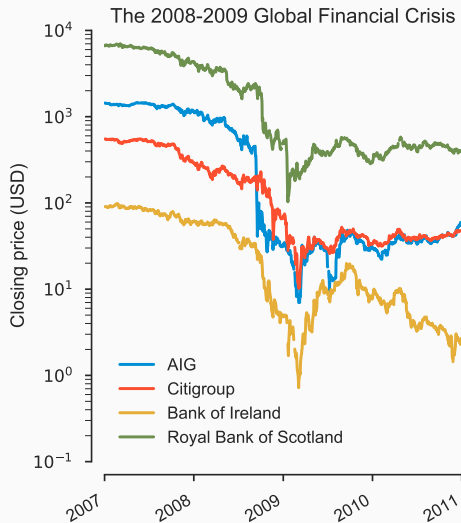
## 2.26 / EXAMPLE: FORMATTING

- We can take this further though!
  - Adding a title makes the *purpose* of our chart immediately clear.
  - We can also remove the stock tickers and replace them with the names of the companies they represent to make the legend easier to understand.



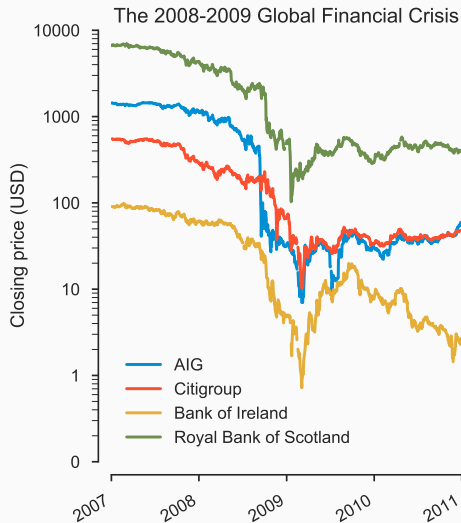
## 2.27 / EXAMPLE: FORMATTING

- Converting the y axis scale from linear to logarithmic emphasises the exponential changes in the magnitude of the data:
  - Small changes are more apparent.
  - Big changes are still clear.
  - It's now clearer that all of the trends have experienced a similar phenomenon (*i.e.* emphasise the *purpose* of the image).
- The legend is also repositioned so as not to overlap with any of the trend lines.



## 2.28 / EXAMPLE: FORMATTING

- Simplifying the y axis labels adds further clarity:
  - Scientific notation for numbers (e.g.  $10^4$ ) is the norm in some sectors, organisations and businesses, but not in others.
  - If our audience is technical (e.g. engineers, statisticians), then it may be fine to use scientific notation — the extra detail may be appreciated.
  - If our audience is not scientific, then using natural numbers may make the *purpose* of the graphic more readily understood.



## 2.29 / EXAMPLE: FORMATTING

- Often, you can do almost all the formatting you'll need using code (e.g. matplotlib, pandas, seaborn).
- However, while languages like Python and R have a good selection of graphic manipulation libraries, sometimes we want extra *oomph*.
- In such cases, the convention is to export your image in vector graphic form (e.g. PDF, SVG) and edit it directly using an image manipulation tool, such as Adobe Illustrator or Inkscape.
- This gives you much finer grain control over layout, colour and fonts, and makes it significantly easier to produce production quality images.
- However, the additional effort required is usually costly (in terms of time) and so is not appropriate for every situation - know your audience and act accordingly!



# The 2008-2009 Global Financial Crisis

How the mighty have fallen: a selection of international financial institutions and how they were affected.

Closing price (USD)



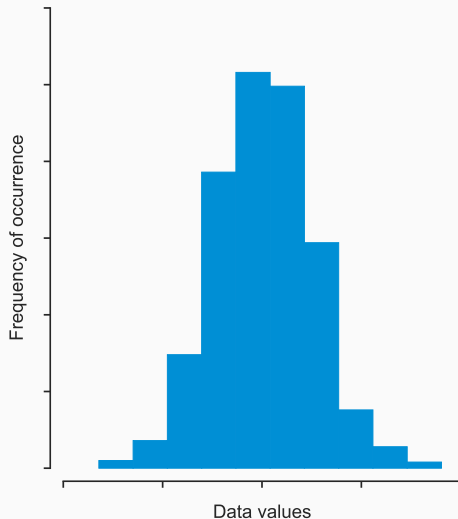
# Distributions

## 3.1 / DISTRIBUTIONS

- A *distribution* is a measurement of the frequency or likelihood of occurrence of a given value, *e.g.*
  - In an Amazon product review, how many users gave one star, two stars, *etc.*?
  - What are the chances of winning a lottery with a given combination of numbers?
  - What is the temperature range in Madrid in September? What temperature is most likely?
- We can compute distributions by counting how often different values occur in our data sample.
- Examining the distribution of the variables in your data is an essential step in any analysis!

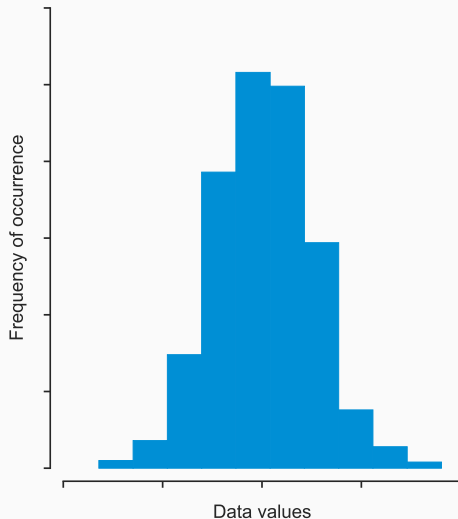
## 3.2 / HISTOGRAMS

- The *histogram* is a commonly used technique for visualising the distribution of data in a sample:
  - The x-axis measures the *values* of the data points in the sample.
  - The y-axis measures the *frequency of occurrence* of the values in the sample, *i.e.* how often a given value occurs.



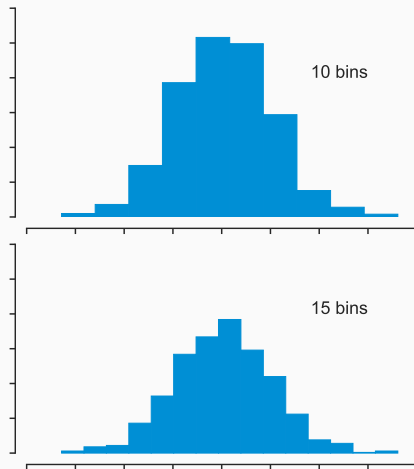
### 3.3 / HISTOGRAMS

- We can create a histogram by placing the sample data points in *bins*.
- Each bin is visually represented by a vertical bar:
  - The width of the bar represents the range of the values of the sample data points contained in the bin.
  - The height of the bar represents the number of sample data points contained in the bin.



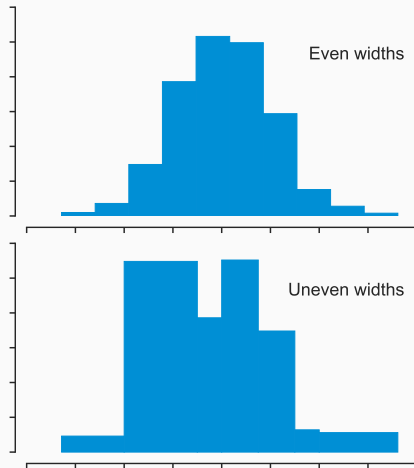
## 3.4 / HISTOGRAMS

- The number of bins in a histogram is arbitrary, but the choice is important:
  - Too few bins distorts the shape of the distribution.
  - Too many bins leads to a “broken comb” look.
- The histograms on the right show the effect of varying numbers of bins on the same data sample.



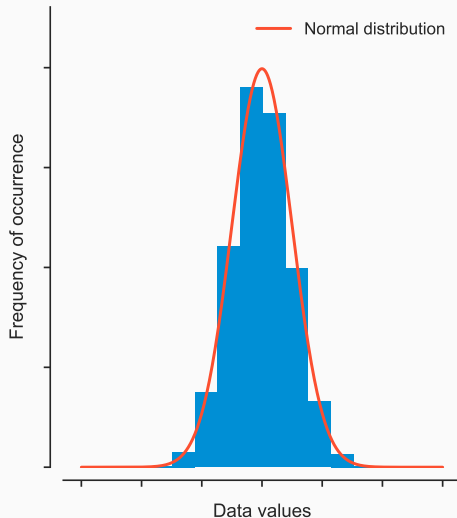
## 3.5 / HISTOGRAMS

- The widths of the bins are also arbitrary, but again the choice is important:
  - Wider bins can decrease noise (spikiness) in ranges where the density of samples is low.
  - Narrower bins can increase precision in ranges where the density of data points is high.
- The histograms on the right show how uneven bin widths can distort the shape of the same distribution.



## 3.6 / THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

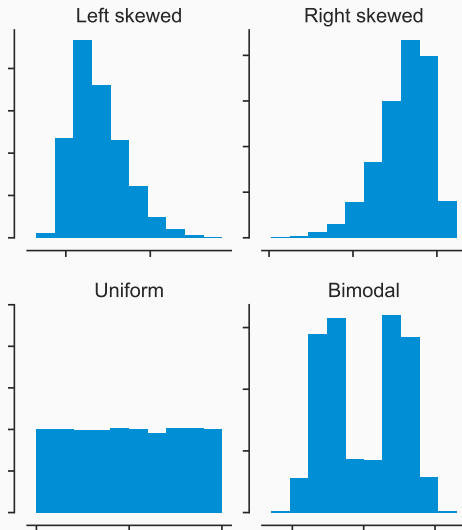
- In some situations, a distribution might look “normal”, *i.e.* it resembles the *probability density function* of the *normal distribution*.
- The normal distribution (*a.k.a.* the Gaussian distribution) is an idealised distribution with useful mathematical properties.
- In cases where a sample distribution is very close to a normal distribution, we can exploit these properties to simplify our analysis (more on this later!).





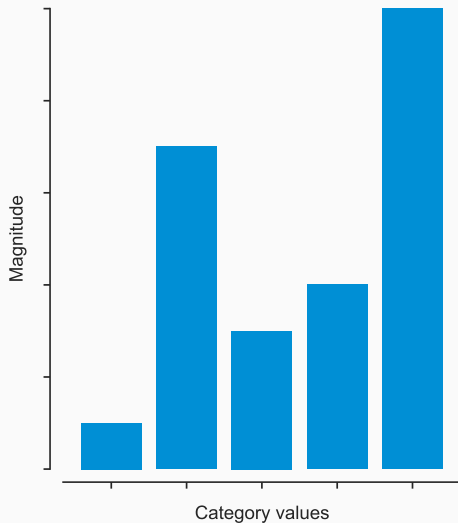
## 3.7 / OTHER DISTRIBUTIONS

- However, not every distribution is normal!
- Sometimes, distributions have long tails - this property is known as *skewness*.
- Distributions can also be flat or *uniform*.
- Distributions with two peaks are known as *bimodal* or, more generally, *multimodal*.
- It's important to understand the shape of your distributions before conducting any complex analysis.



## 3.8 / CATEGORIC DISTRIBUTIONS

- In cases where we are dealing with categoric data, we cannot use a histogram to represent the distribution of values, *e.g.*
  - Numbers of cat images and dog images.
  - The proportion of spam to non-spam email.
  - The countries of origin of different customers.
- Instead, we can use a bar chart (or a pie chart) to visualise the proportions of the values in our sample.



## Summary

- Lots of material this week!
  - Data types.
  - Visual cues and how to use them.
  - A process for data visualisation — why, what, how and who?
  - Distributions.
- This week's lab focuses on how to apply visual EDA techniques with pandas:
  - Bar charts.
  - Pie charts.
  - Histograms.
  - Scatter plot matrices.
- Next week, we'll look at:
  - Statistics.
  - Anomalies.
  - Relationships.

1. Yau, Nathan. *Data points: Visualization that means something*. John Wiley & Sons, 2013. ([bit.ly/2k8TqWR](https://bit.ly/2k8TqWR))
2. Tufte, Edward. *The Visual Display of Quantitative Information*. Graphics Press, 2001. ([bit.ly/2kAU2Ic](https://bit.ly/2kAU2Ic))
3. Khan Academy. *Data and statistics*. ([bit.ly/1DZTQpA](https://bit.ly/1DZTQpA))