#### **DS 116 Data Visualization**

Univariate numeric variable

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Section 1

Histogram

#### Movies data set

```
movies <- read.csv('Data/movies.csv', stringsAsFactors = F)</pre>
str(movies)
## 'data.frame': 2911 obs. of 32 variables:
##
    $ title
                         : chr "Zoom" "Zoolander 2" "Zombieland" "Zodiac"
##
    $ genre_first
                         : chr "Action" "Comedy" "Adventure" "Crime" ...
    $ year
                                2006 2016 2009 2007 1998 2012 2005 2008 199
##
                         : int
##
    $ duration
                         : int
                                83 102 88 162 116 157 101 101 119 90 ...
                                14142117 29451448 86365946 39077724 2978040
##
    $ gross_adjusted
                         : num
                                42555556 51065177 26964263 76858659 7519018
##
    $ budget_adjusted
                         : int
##
    $ gross
                         : int
                                11631245 28837115 75590286 33048353 1980338
                                35000000 50000000 23600000 65000000 5000000
##
    $ budget
                         : int
##
    $ cast_facebook_likes: int
                                5022 24107 28011 36928 1209 2759 32232 638
                                176 376 998 966 232 1198 338 490 709 297 ...
##
    $ reviews
                         : int
##
    $ index
                         : num
                                1.22 1.02 1.14 1.18 1.5 ...
##
    $ Rated
                         : chr
                                "PG" "PG-13" "R" "R" ...
##
    $ Genre
                         : chr
                                "Action, Adventure, Comedy" "Comedy" "Adven
##
    $ Writer
                         : chr
                                "Adam Rifkin (screenplay), David Berenbaum
##
    $ Actors
                         : chr
                                "Tim Allen, Courteney Cox, Chevy Chase, Spe
```

\$ Plot

##

: chr

: chr

"Former superhero Jack is called back to wo

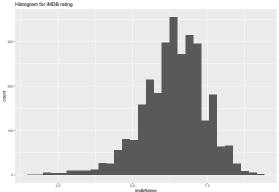
"English" "English, Italian, Spanish" "Engl

#### Histogram

- A histogram displays the frequency and distribution for a range of quantitative groups.
- Bar charts compare quantities for different categories, a histogram technically compares the number of observations across a range of value 'bins' using the size of lines/bars to represent the quantitative counts.
- Histogram allows to understand the shape of the distribution of the data

- You need to specify only one aesthetics: x
- Use geom\_histogram as a geometric object

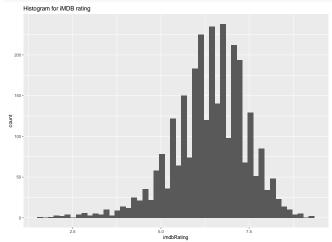
```
ggplot(data = movies, aes(x = imdbRating)) +
geom_histogram() + ggtitle('Histogram for iMDB rating')
```



- in ggplot you can either specify the number of bins (bins) or bin width (binwidth). One can be derived from another.
- The default value for number of bins is 30.
- There is no one golden rule on choosing number of bins, however in general
  - More bins (smaller binwidth) will result in higher detalization
  - Less bins (larger binwidth) will result in lower detalization

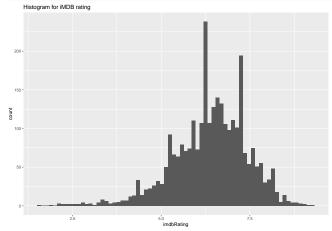
Number of bins = 50

```
ggplot(data = movies, aes(x = imdbRating)) + geom_histogram(bins = 50) +
ggtitle('Histogram for iMDB rating')
```



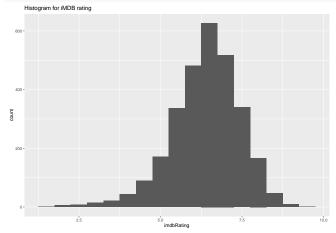
Number of bins = 70

```
ggplot(data = movies, aes(x = imdbRating)) +
geom_histogram(bins = 70) + ggtitle('Histogram for iMDB rating')
```



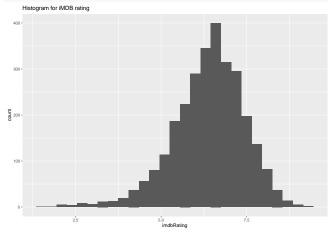
Alternatively you can set up the binwidth: binwidth = 0.5

```
ggplot(data = movies, aes(x = imdbRating)) +
  geom_histogram(binwidth = 0.5) + ggtitle('Histogram for iMDB rating')
```



Binwidth = 0.3

```
ggplot(data = movies, aes(x = imdbRating)) + geom_histogram(binwidth = 0.3)
ggtitle('Histogram for iMDB rating')
```



# Choosing the number of bins

- There is no one golden rule on how many bins need to be there
- Do try and error until you get histogram that can be interpreted
- However, there are few approaches for the calculation of optimal number of bins

# Methods for choosing the number of bins

Square root choice

$$k = \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$$

Rice rule

$$k = \lceil 2\sqrt[3]{n} \rceil$$

Sturges' formula

$$k = \lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 1$$

#### Methods for choosing the binwidth

Scott's normal reference rule (when data is approximately normal)

$$h = \frac{3.49\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$$

 Freedman-Diaconis' rule - a variation of Scott's rule but less sensitive to outliers

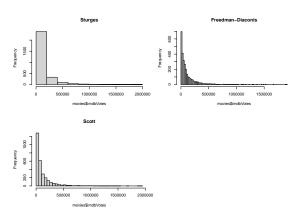
$$h = 2 \frac{\mathsf{IQR}(x)}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$$

# Doing in R

Basic R functionality for histogram allows to directly state the method for bin calculations

```
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
hist(movies$imdbVotes, breaks = 'sturges', main = 'Sturges', )
hist(movies$imdbVotes, breaks = 'fd', main = 'Freedman-Diaconis')
hist(movies$imdbVotes, breaks = 'scott', main = 'Scott')
```

# Doing in R

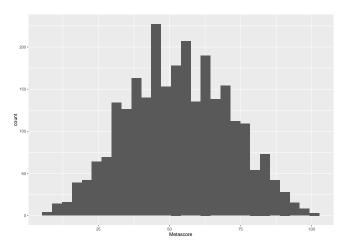


# Doing in ggplot2

In ggplot2 you need to calculate the number of the bins/binwidth then provide the result as an argument Example: Rice rule

```
n <- length(movies$Metascore[!is.na(movies$Metascore)])
k <- ceiling(2*(n^(1/3)))
ggplot(movies, aes(x = Metascore)) + geom_histogram(bins = k)</pre>
```

# Doing in ggplot2

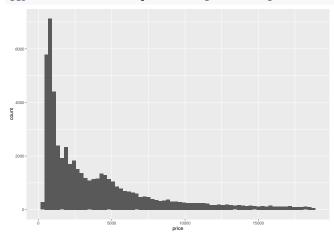


# **Bumpy distribution**

```
data("diamonds")
ggplot(diamonds, aes(price)) + geom_histogram()
 10000 -
                                  10000
                                                 15000
                                                                20000
                                  price
```

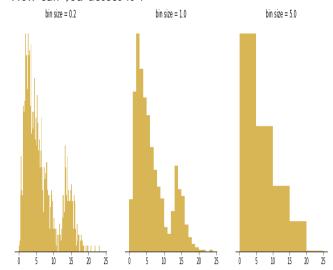
# **Bumpy distribution**

Increase the number of bins, the bump becomes more apparent



# **Bumpy distribution**

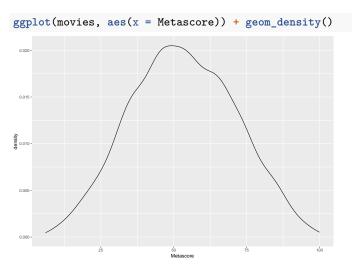
#### How can you detect it ?



#### **Density plots**

- To visualize the distribution of the continuous variable, you can also use kernel density estimate - smoothed version of the histogram.
- In ggplot it is done with the geom\_density()

# **Density plots**



# **Density plots: exponential distribution**

```
set.seed(1)
x \leftarrow rexp(1000, rate = 10)
ggplot() + geom_density(aes(x))
```

0.4

# **Density plots**

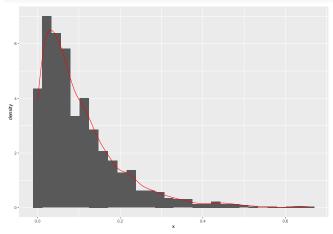
#### Scale the y axis

0.25

0.00

# Density plot over the histogram

```
ggplot(mapping = aes(x = x)) + geom_histogram(aes(y = ..density..)) +
geom_density(color = 'red')
```

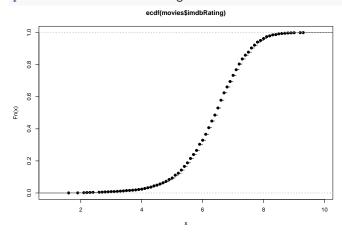


#### **Cumulative distribution function**

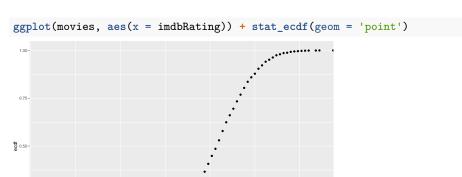
- The cumulative distribution function (CDF) of a random variable X, or just distribution function of X, evaluated at x is the P(X < x).
- When we have the data, we have the empirical distribution, we can construct Empirical Cumulative Distribution Function:

$$\widehat{F}_n(x) = \frac{\text{number of elements in the sample} \le x}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{I}(X_i \le x)$$

#### plot(ecdf(movies\$imdbRating))



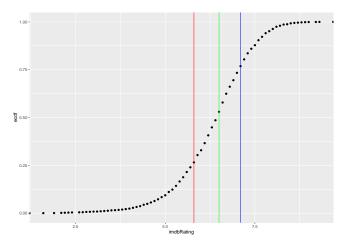
0.25



imdbRating

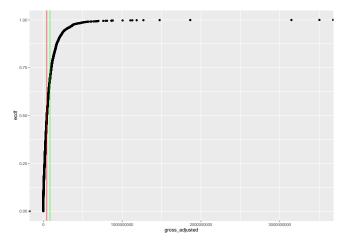
To make eCDF more informative we can add quartiles to the plot

```
quant <- quantile(movies$imdbRating, probs = c(0.25,0.5,0.75), na.rm = T)
ggplot(movies, aes(x = imdbRating)) + stat_ecdf(geom = 'point') +
  geom_vline(xintercept = quant, color = c('red', 'green', 'blue'))</pre>
```



#### Other distribution

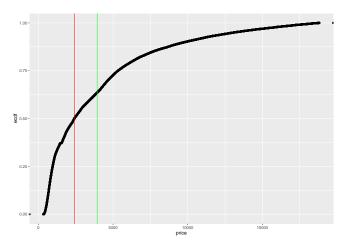
```
med <- median(movies$gross_adjusted)
avg <- mean(movies$gross_adjusted)
ggplot(movies, aes(x = gross_adjusted)) + stat_ecdf(geom = 'point') +
  geom_vline(xintercept = c(med, avg), color = c('red', 'green'))</pre>
```



#### Another skewed distribution

```
med <- median(diamonds$price)
avg <- mean(diamonds$price)
ggplot(diamonds, aes(x = price)) + stat_ecdf(geom = 'point') +
geom_vline(xintercept = c(med, avg), col = c("red", "green"))</pre>
```

#### Another skewed distribution



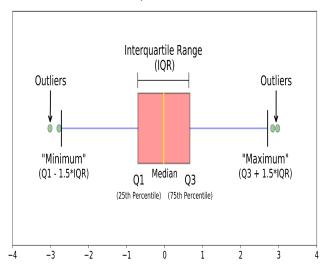
Section 2

**Boxplots** 

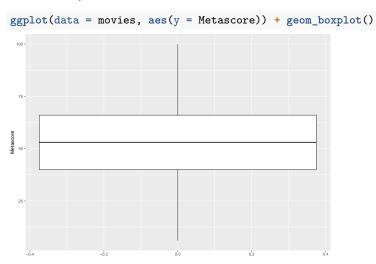
#### **Boxplot**

- Boxplot or box-whisker plot, is another way to display the distribution of the continuous variable
- Boxplots are usually used to visualize the distribution of some continuous variable by categories of a categorical variable
- They are also used to detect outliers (non-parametric way)

#### The structure of the boxplot



### Vertical Boxplot



### Horizontal boxplot

```
ggplot(data = movies, aes(x = Metascore)) + geom_boxplot()
0.4 -
0.2 -
0.0 -
-0.2
                                Metascore
```

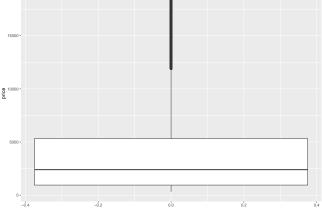
#### Reading the boxplot

- The width of the box IQR, is an indicator of the variance
- If the median is in the center and the whiskers have the same length with small to none outliers, then the variable has a bell shape

#### Boxplot of skewed distribution

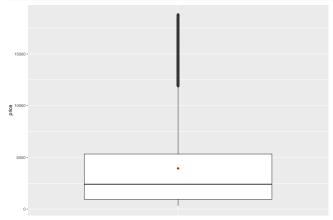
- Top whisker is longer
- Outliers on the top
- Initial conclusion: We have right skewed distribution

ggplot(data = diamonds, aes(y = price)) + geom\_boxplot()



- You can also add mean to the graph (added empty x in aesthetics)
- Mean greater than median right skewed distribution

```
ggplot(data = diamonds, aes(x = "", y = price)) + geom_boxplot() +
    stat_summary(fun = mean, geom = 'point', color = 'red') + xlab("") +
    theme(axis.ticks.x = element_blank())
```



Sometimes will need to compare the distribution of one continuous variable by different categories of a categorical variable

- The height of males and females
- Distribution of waiting time by weekdays
- Number of goals per position in football, etc

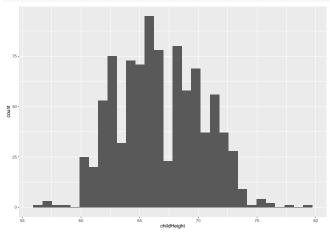
We can do this with histograms, boxplots and eCDF

- We will use Galton's hereditary data
- for the full analysis refer to Regression Towards Mediocrity in Hereditary Stature

```
data("GaltonFamilies")
str(GaltonFamilies)
  'data.frame': 934 obs. of 8 variables:
   $ family : Factor w/ 205 levels "001", "002", "003", ...: 1 1 1 1 2
##
##
   $ father
                  : num 67 67 67 67 66.5 66.5 66.5 66.5 64 64 ...
##
   $ mother
##
   $ midparentHeight: num 75.4 75.4 75.4 75.4 73.7 ...
##
   $ children : int 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 2 2 ...
##
   $ childNum
                  : int 1234123412 ...
##
   $ gender : Factor w/ 2 levels "female", "male": 2 1 1 1 2 2 1 1
   $ childHeight : num
                       73.2 69.2 69 69 73.5 72.5 65.5 65.5 71 68 ...
##
```

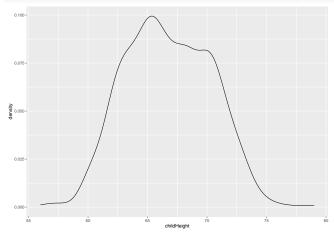
### Histogram of height

ggplot(data=GaltonFamilies, aes(x = childHeight)) + geom\_histogram()



#### Density estimate

```
ggplot(data = GaltonFamilies, aes(x = childHeight)) + geom_density()
```



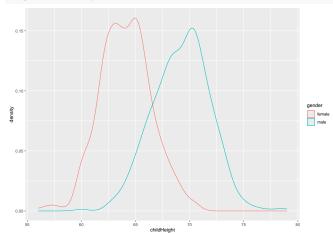
#### eCDF

```
ggplot(data = GaltonFamilies, aes(childHeight)) + stat_ecdf(geom = 'point')
 1.00 -
 0.75
0.50
 0.25
```

childHeight

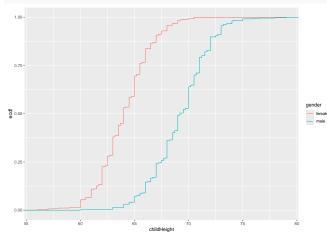
Compare height for male and female children There are two distinct distributions

```
ggplot(data = GaltonFamilies, aes(x = childHeight, color = gender)) +
  geom_density()
```



#### Create the eCDF

```
ggplot(data = GaltonFamilies, aes(x = childHeight, color = gender)) +
   stat_ecdf()
```

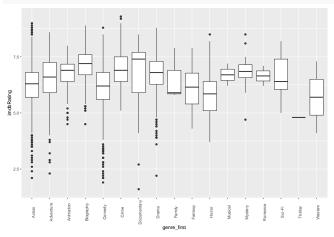


#### **Boxplot**

```
ggplot(data = GaltonFamilies, aes(x = gender, y = childHeight)) +
  geom_boxplot() +
  stat_summary(fun.y = mean, geom = 'point', color = 'red')
 75 -
 70 -
childHeight
 60
 55 -
```

gender

```
ggplot(movies, aes(x = genre_first, y = imdbRating)) + geom_boxplot() +
    theme(axis.text.x = element_text(angle = 90))
```



### Section 3

## **Testing for distribution**

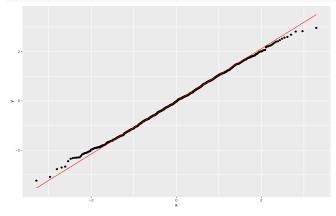
## **Probability plots**

- The probability plot is a graphical technique for assessing whether or not a variable follows a given distribution.
- The data is plotted against a theoretical distribution in such a way that the points should form approximately a straight line.
- Departures from this straight line indicate departures from the specified distribution.

- Q-Q Plots (Quantile-Quantile plots) are plots of quantiles of two variables plotted against each other.
- A quantile is a fraction where certain values fall below that value.
- The purpose of q-q plots is to find out if two sets of data come from the same distribution.
- If we have standard normal distribution then  $45^{\circ}$  angle is plotted on the QQ plot; if the two data sets come from the same distribution, the points will fall on that reference line, thus quantiles of theoretical and sample distributions are the same.
- The greater the departure from the reference line, the greater the evidence for the conclusion that the two data sets have come from populations with different distributions.
- If the data does not follow standard normal distribution, then the reference line is formed with intercept = mean and slope = standard deviation

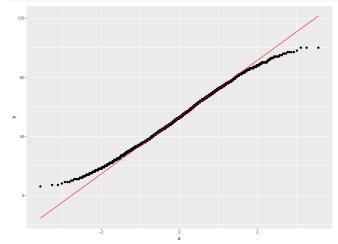
#### We have 45° line

```
x <- rnorm(1000)
ggplot(mapping = aes(sample = x)) + geom_qq() +
geom_qq_line(color = 'red')</pre>
```



```
q-q plot for Metascore
```

```
ggplot(movies, aes(sample = Metascore)) + geom_qq() +
  geom_qq_line(color = 'red')
```



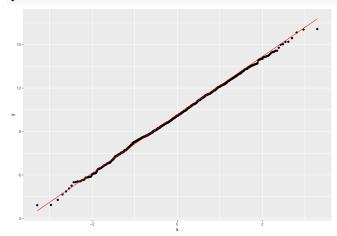
#### Pay Attention

- ullet We have corresponding Z scores for theoretical values on x axis
- The quantiles from the sample in the original scale
- Line is not 45° any more, but is rather estimated

Lets see what happens when you define the distribution parameters

```
x <- rnorm(1000, mean=10, sd = 2)
p1 <- ggplot(mapping = aes(sample = x)) + geom_qq() +
geom_qq_line(color = 'red')</pre>
```





#### Get the data used to draw the plot

#### Calculate the slope

```
slope <- diff(df1$y)/diff(df1$x)
slope
## [1] 2.01425</pre>
```

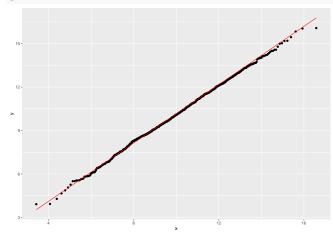
#### Intercept

```
df1$y[1] - slope*df1$x[1]
## [1] 10.1547
```

#### Define the right scale for theoretical distribution

```
p1 <- ggplot(mapping = aes(sample = x)) +
  geom_qq(dparams = list(mean = 10, sd = 2)) +
  geom_qq_line(color = 'red', dparams = list(mean = 10, sd = 2))</pre>
```

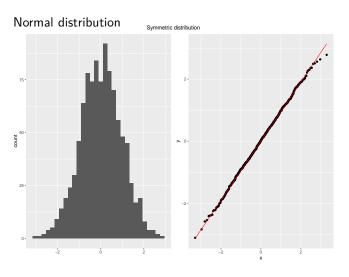


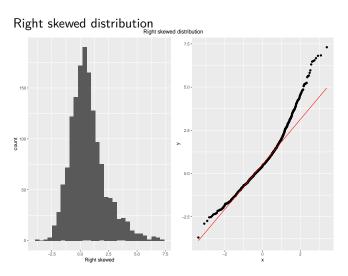


### Calculate the slope

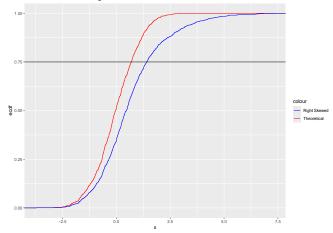
```
df1 <- ggplot_build(p1)$data[[2]]
slope <- diff(df1$y)/diff(df1$x)
slope
## [1] 1.007125
Intercept
df1$y[1] - slope*df1$x[1]</pre>
```

## [1] 0.08345323

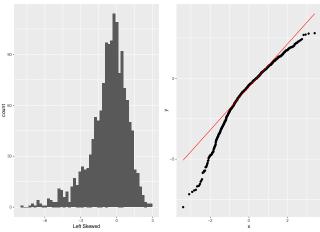




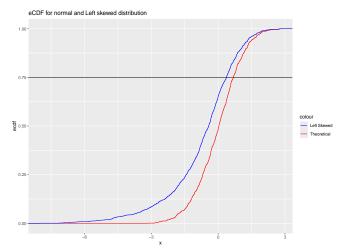
## eCDF for Right skewed and Theoretical distributions $_{\text{eCDF}}$ for Theoretical and Right skewed distribution



### Left skewed distribution $L_{\text{Left skewed distribution}}$



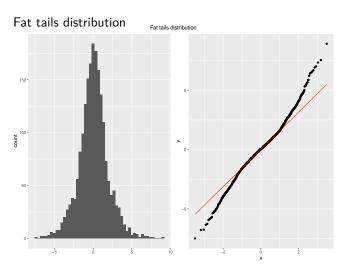
#### eCDF for left skewed distribution



- Right skewed distribution: The points' upward trend shows that the sample quantiles are much greater than the theoretical quantiles.
- Left skewed distribution: The sample quantiles are going to be much lower than the theoretical quantiles.

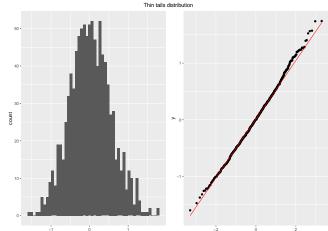
### Heavy tail (Fat tail)

- Fat tail means that compared to the normal distribution there is more data located at the extremes of the distribution and less data in the center of the distribution.
- In terms of quantiles this means that the first quantile is much less than the first theoretical quantile and the last quantile is greater than the last theoretical quantile

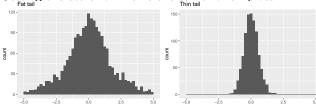


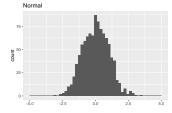
#### Thin tails distribution

With thin tails distribution you have less data in the tails than it should be compared to the normal distribution



## Setting the scale for X axis the same for all plots $_{\text{Thin tail}}$

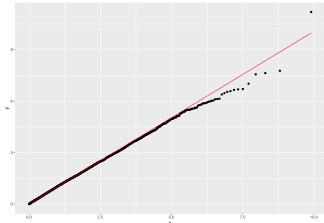




- By default the Q-Q plot is constructed with normal distribution as a theoretical distribution
- However you can use any distribution that is available in R
- Or provide your own distribution with parameters

q-q plot for exponential distribution

```
x_exp <- rexp(10000)
ggplot(mapping = aes(sample = x_exp)) + geom_qq(distribution = stats::qexp)
geom_qq_line(color = 'red', distribution = stats::qexp)</pre>
```



#### Budget

```
ggplot(movies, aes(sample = budget_adjusted)) +
  geom_qq(distribution = stats::qexp) +
  geom_qq_line(color = 'red', distribution = stats::qexp)
400000000 -
3000000000
200000000 -
100000000 -
```