

Single Variable Visualization

At this time, we will focus in on a single variable, i.e., for each particular trait we have n observations on this trait, namely $x_{1j}, x_{2j}, \dots, x_{nj}$. With what tools can we analyze this set of values?

Data Frame:

		Variables →				
j^{th} variable	Units	x_{11}	\dots	x_{1j}	\dots	x_{1p}
		\vdots	\dots	\vdots	\dots	\vdots
		x_{i1}	\dots	x_{ij}	\dots	x_{ip}
		\vdots	\dots	\vdots	\dots	\vdots
		x_{n1}	\dots	x_{nj}	\dots	x_{np}

Our first set of tools include pictorial and frequency methods from **Descriptive Statistics**.

The Cars93 Data Frame

The Cars93 data frame (in the MASS package) contains information on 93 cars sold in the U.S. in the year 1993. It has 93 rows and 27 columns. Additional information is available using `?Cars93` or `help(Cars93)`

The command `head` displays the first few lines (the default is 6) of an object in R.

```
> head(Cars93)
```

	Manufacturer	Model	Type	Min.Price	Price	Max.Price	MPG.city	MPG.highway		AirBags	DriveTrain
1	Acura	Integra	Small	12.9	15.9	18.8	25	31		None	Front
2	Acura	Legend	Midsize	29.2	33.9	38.7	18	25	Driver & Passenger		Front
3	Audi	90	Compact	25.9	29.1	32.3	20	26	Driver only		Front
4	Audi	100	Midsize	30.8	37.7	44.6	19	26	Driver & Passenger		Front
5	BMW	535i	Midsize	23.7	30.0	36.2	22	30	Driver only		Rear
6	Buick	Century	Midsize	14.2	15.7	17.3	22	31	Driver only		Front
	Cylinders	EngineSize	Horsepower	RPM	Rev.per.mile	Man.trans.avail	Fuel.tank.capacity	Passengers	Length		
1	4	1.8	140	6300	2890	Yes	13.2	5	177		
2	6	3.2	200	5500	2335	Yes	18.0	5	195		
3	6	2.8	172	5500	2280	Yes	16.9	5	180		
4	6	2.8	172	5500	2535	Yes	21.1	6	193		
5	4	3.5	208	5700	2545	Yes	21.1	4	186		
6	4	2.2	110	5200	2565	No	16.4	6	189		
	Wheelbase	Width	Turn.circle	Rear.seat.room	Luggage.room	Weight	Origin	Make			
1	102	68	37	26.5	11	2705	non-USA	Acura Integra			
2	115	71	38	30.0	15	3560	non-USA	Acura Legend			
3	102	67	37	28.0	14	3375	non-USA	Audi 90			
4	106	70	37	31.0	17	3405	non-USA	Audi 100			
5	109	69	39	27.0	13	3640	non-USA	BMW 535i			
6	105	69	41	28.0	16	2880	USA	Buick Century			

Distribution of a Variable

The *distribution* of a variable provides the possible values that a variable can take on and how often (frequently) these possible values occur. The distribution of a variable shows the **pattern** of variation of the variable.

The distribution of a variable can be summarized graphically, numerically, or with a model.

Displaying Distributions

Categorical Variables

Categorical variables are usually not measured on a numerical scale. Typically, the frequency or percentage of observations in each category is displayed.

Definition: A **frequency** of a category is the number of times it occurs in the data set.

Definition: A **frequency distribution** is a table that presents the frequency for each category.

Example: The data frame `Cars93` contains data from 93 cars on sale in the USA in 1993. We can use the `table` function to find the frequency distribution for the standard airbag option.

```
> table(Cars93$AirBags)
```

```
Driver & Passenger  
16
```

```
Driver only  
43
```

```
None  
34
```

Displaying Distributions

Categorical Variables

Definition: The ***relative frequency*** of a category is the frequency of the category divided by the sum of all the frequencies.

Definition: A ***relative frequency distribution*** is a table that presents the relative frequency of each category. Often the frequency is presented as well.

Example: We can use the `table` function to display the relative frequency for the standard airbag option in the `Cars93` dataset.

```
> table(Cars93$AirBags) / nrow(Cars93)
```

Driver & Passenger	Driver only	None
0.1720430	0.4623656	0.3655914

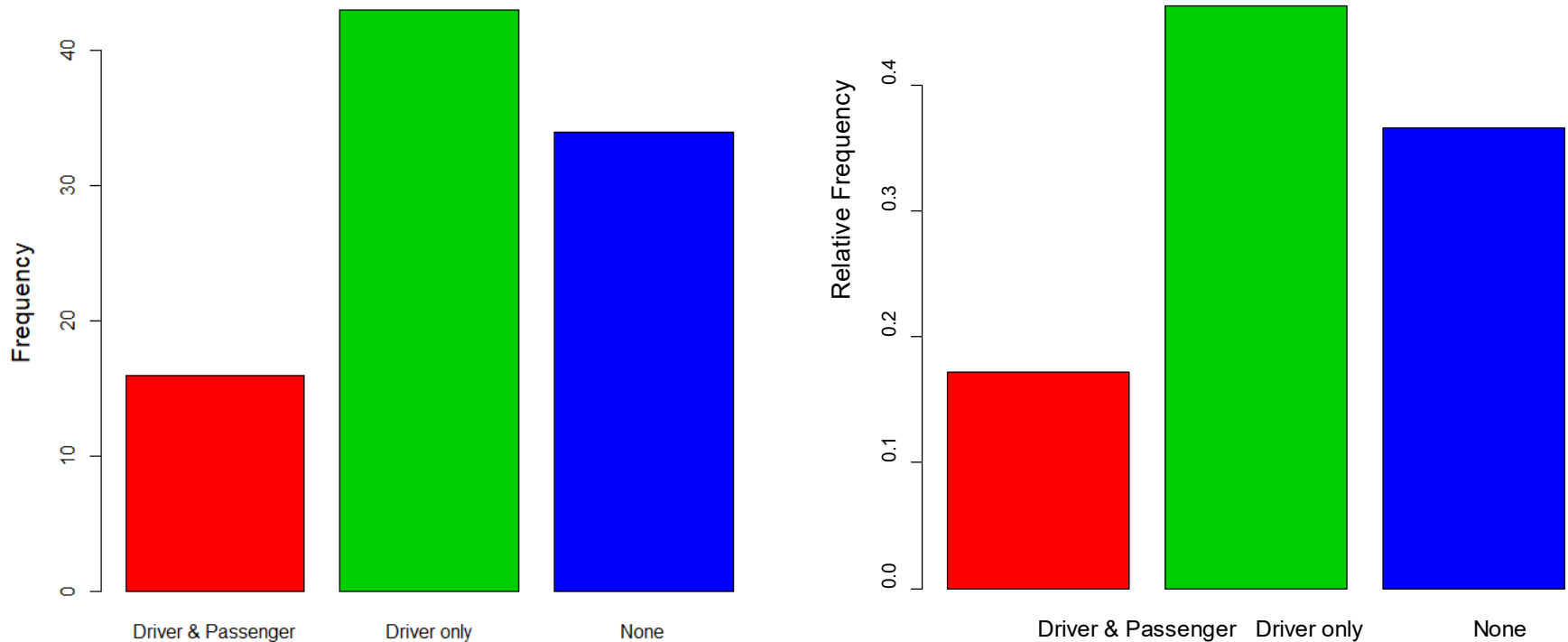
```
> round(table(Cars93$AirBags) / nrow(Cars93), 3)
```

Driver & Passenger	Driver only	None
0.172	0.462	0.366

Bar Graphs

- A *bar graph* is a graphical representation of a frequency distribution.
- One bar is displayed for each category, and the height of each bar is the frequency (count) or relative frequency (proportion) in each category.
- The width of the bars has no meaning.

```
> barplot(table(Cars93$AirBags), ylab="Frequency", cex.lab=1.3, col=c(2,3,4))  
> barplot(table(Cars93$AirBags)/nrow(Cars93), ylab="Relative Frequency",  
+ cex.lab=1.3, cex.names=1.2, col=c(2,3,4))
```



A Note on Colors

You will often want to add color to a graphic (lines, plotting characters, fill, ...) and R has a large variety of color possibilities. As is often the case in R, there are multiple ways to specify colors.

The available built-in color names can be accessed with the `colors` function. Here are the first 20 (of 657)

```
> colors()[1:20]
[1] "white"          "aliceblue"      "antiquewhite"   "antiquewhite1"  "antiquewhite2"
[6] "antiquewhite3"  "antiquewhite4"  "aquamarine"     "aquamarine1"    "aquamarine2"
[11] "aquamarine3"    "aquamarine4"    "azure"          "azure1"         "azure2"
[16] "azure3"         "azure4"         "beige"          "bisque"         "bisque1"
```

The **color palette** tells R which color name is referred to by a specific integer. It can be viewed using the `palette` function.

```
> palette()
[1] "black"  "red"    "green3" "blue"   "cyan"   "magenta" "yellow" "gray"
```

This shows that in the current palette (the default) 1 indicates black, 2 gives red, 3 gives green3, 4 gives blue, etc.

A Note on Colors

You can also set the palette with the `palette` command.

```
> palette(c("red2", "orchid1", "yellow4", "tomato2"))  
> palette()  
[1] "red2"      "orchid1"   "yellow4"   "tomato2"
```

The color palette now assigns 1 to red2, 2 to orchid1, 3 to yellow4, etc. We can restore the default at any time using

```
> palette("default")  
> palette()  
[1] "black"      "red"        "green3"     "blue"       "cyan"       "magenta"    "yellow"     "gray"
```

When setting the `col` parameter, either use the color names (with quotes around them) or first set the palette and then use the mapped integers.

Additional colors in R can be created using primitives `rgb`, `hsv`, and `hcl` or the derived `rainbow`, and `heat.color`.

Bar Graphs

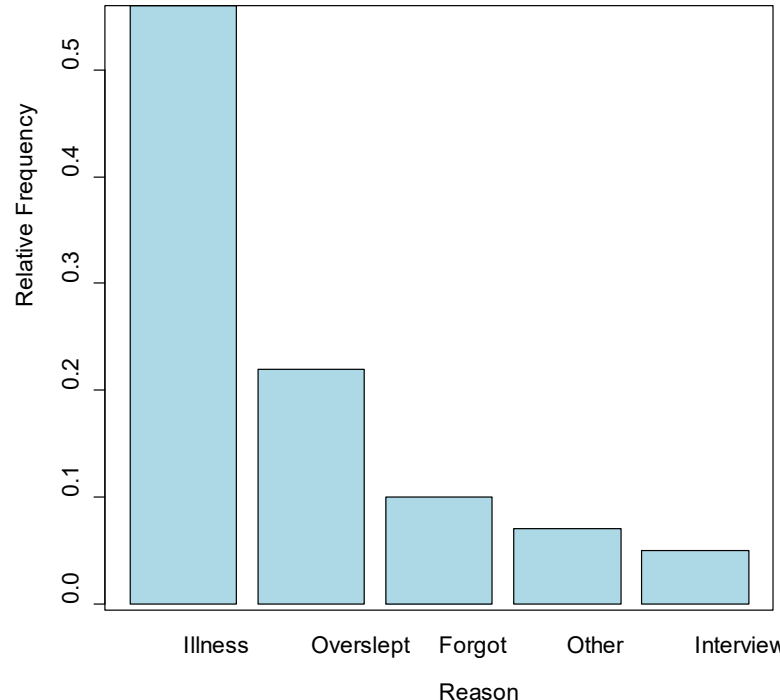
A bar graph is called a ***Pareto Chart*** if it is constructed with the categories presented in order of frequency or relative frequency with the largest value to the left.

- This can be used to highlight important issues

Example: The following is a Pareto chart for the reasons given for missing my Single Variable Calculus class last semester.

```
> barplot(sort(table(Reason)/length(Reason),decreasing=T),ylab="Relative Frequency",  
+ xlab="Reason",col="lightblue",cex.names=1.2,cex.axis=1.2,cex.lab=1.2)  
> box()
```

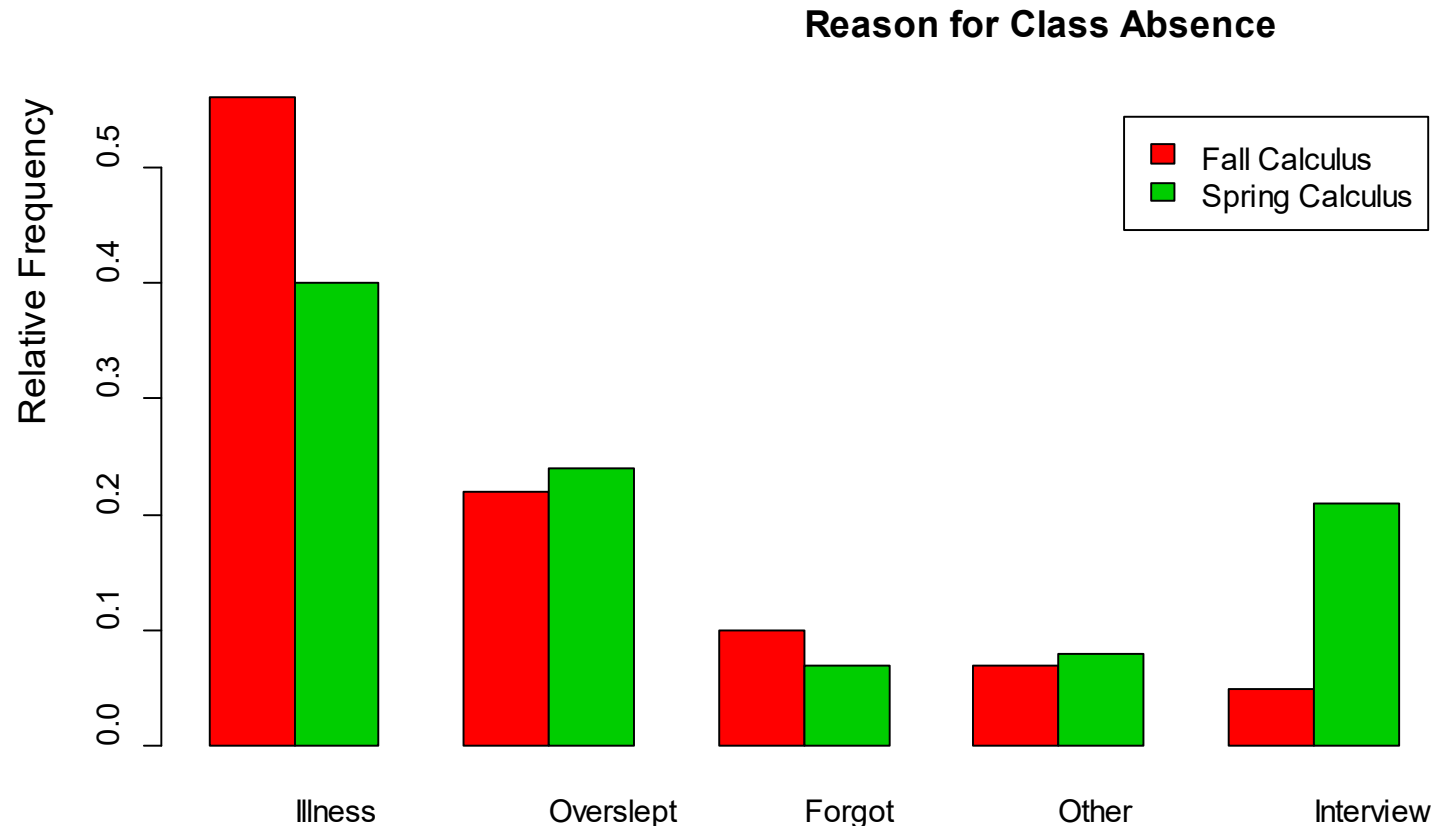
The function `box`
draws a box around
the current plot



Bar Graphs

To compare two bar graphs with the same categories, we can construct a ***side-by-side bar graph***.

Example: The following side-by-side bar graph shows the reasons given for missing my Single Variable Calculus class during the spring and fall semesters last academic year.



Example

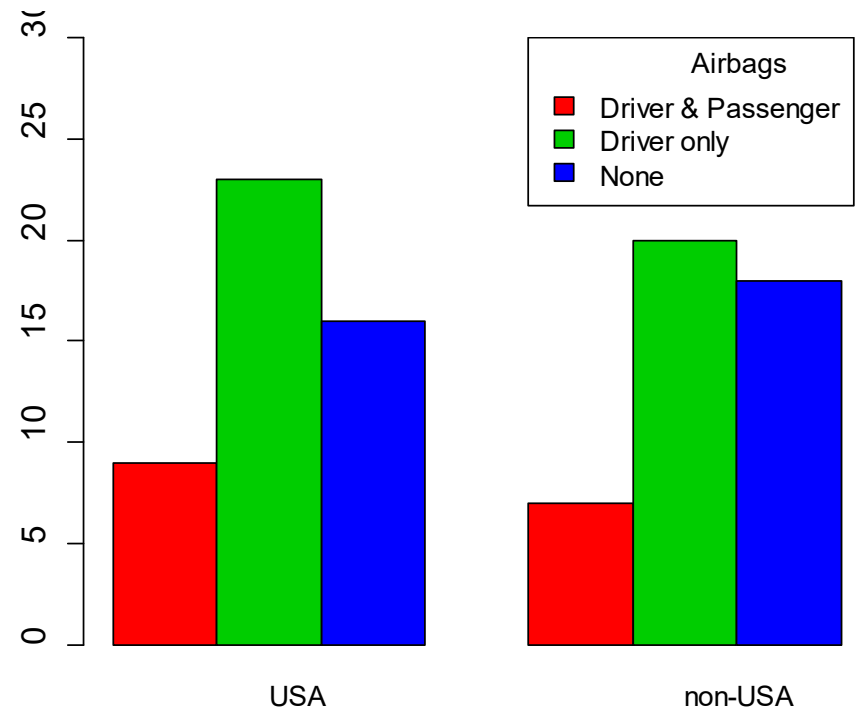
We can obtain the two-way frequency table of Airbags by Origin using:

```
> table(Cars93$AirBags, Cars93$Origin)
```

	USA	non-USA
Driver & Passenger	9	7
Driver only	23	20
None	16	18

```
> barplot(table(Cars93$AirBags, Cars93$Origin), col=c(2,3,4), beside=T,  
+ ylim=c(0,30), cex.axis=1.2)  
> legend(x=5,y=30,title="Airbags", legend=sort(unique(Cars93$AirBags)),  
+ fill=c(2,3,4))
```

The script above provides the figure to the right depicting the AirBags variable as a function of the Origin variable.



Pie Charts

- A **pie chart** is a graphical method for displaying the distribution of a qualitative variable.
- The circle or pie represents the whole (all the units). The pie is divided into slices, one for each category of the qualitative variable.

```
> pie(table(Cars93$AirBags), main="Standard Air Bags", col=c(2,3,4), cex=1.3)
```

Note that the eye is good at judging linear measures and bad at judging relative areas. A bar chart or is often a preferable way of displaying this type of data.

