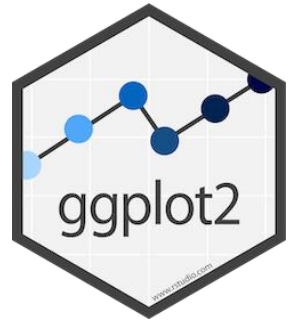


# Descriptive Statistics

Michael C. Hackett

Assistant Professor, Computer Science

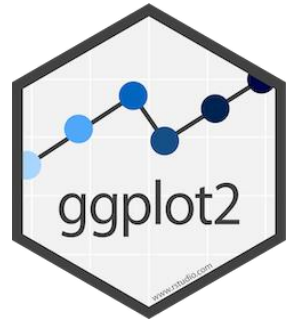
Community  
College  
*of* Philadelphia



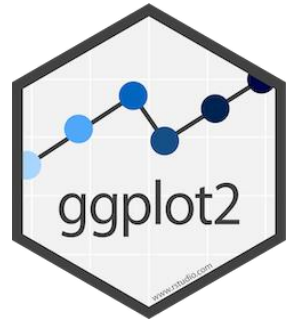
# ggplot2

- ggplot2 is a data visualization package in R's tidyverse
- Allows for declaratively creating graphics
  - Based on the text [The Grammar of Graphics](#)
- *"You provide the data, tell ggplot2 how to map variables to aesthetics, what graphical primitives to use, and it takes care of the details."*
  - Project homepage: <https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org/>

# ggplot2

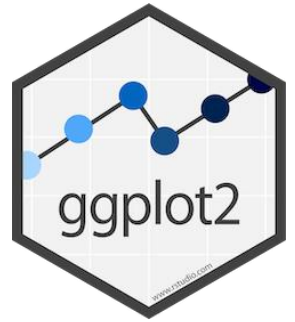


- ggplot2 is installed along with the tidyverse:  
**`install.packages("tidyverse")`**
- Can be installed as a stand-alone package:  
**`install.packages("ggplot2")`**
- Extensions:  
<https://exts.ggplot2.tidyverse.org/gallery/>



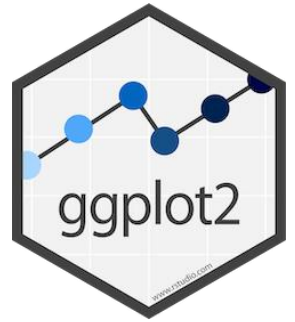
# ggplot2

- ggplot2 is loaded along with the rest of the tidyverse:  
**library(tidyverse)**
- Can be loaded by itself:  
**library(ggplot2)**
- ggplot2 has a sample data frame for demonstration purposes
  - The **mpg** dataset contains observations collected by the US Environmental Protection Agency on 38 models of cars



# ggplot2

- If tidyverse was loaded:  
`library(tidyverse)`  
`ggplot2::mpg`
- If ggplot2 was loaded by itself:  
`library(ggplot2)`  
`mpg`
- We'll assume ggplot2 was loaded by itself for the remainder of the lecture

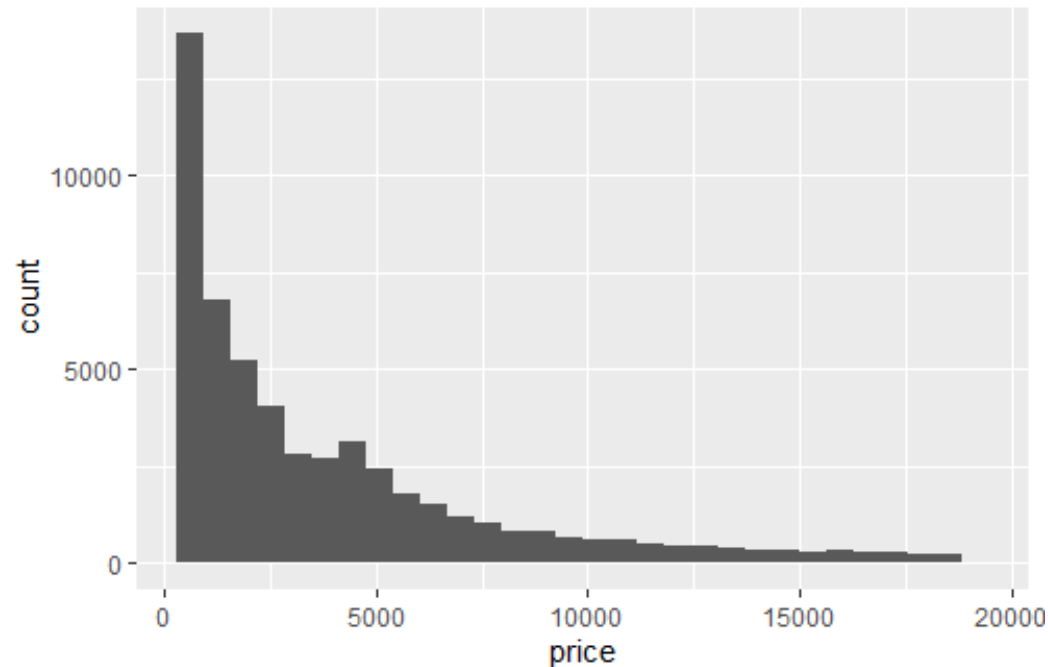


# ggplot2

- We begin creating a plot with the **ggplot()** function
  - This creates a coordinate system that layers can be added on to
- The first argument to the ggplot function is the data we wish to plot  
**ggplot(data = mpg)**
- Now that the plot has its data, layers are added that specify how to data is to be displayed.
  - Layers of data are referred to as *geometries* or ***geoms***

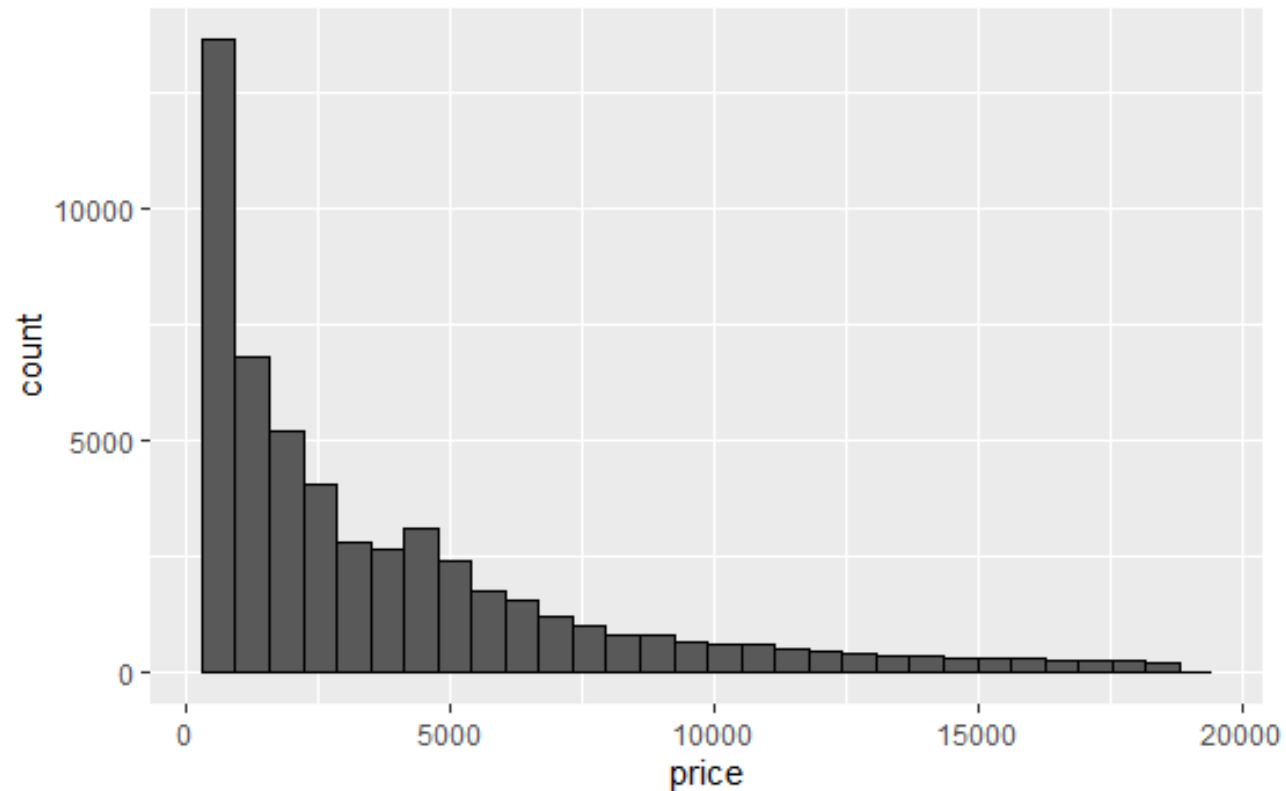
# Histograms

- **Histograms** are used to visualize the distribution of a numerical variable by grouping data into “bins”
  - Histograms show **data density**; Higher bars = fuller bins



# Histograms

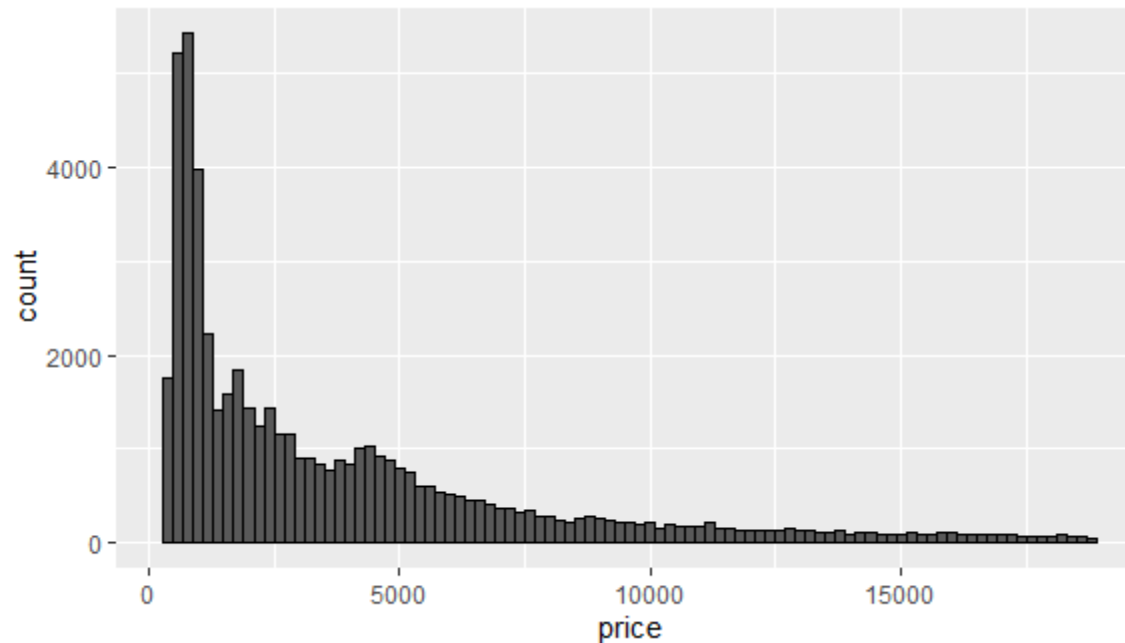
- Add borders for better visibility





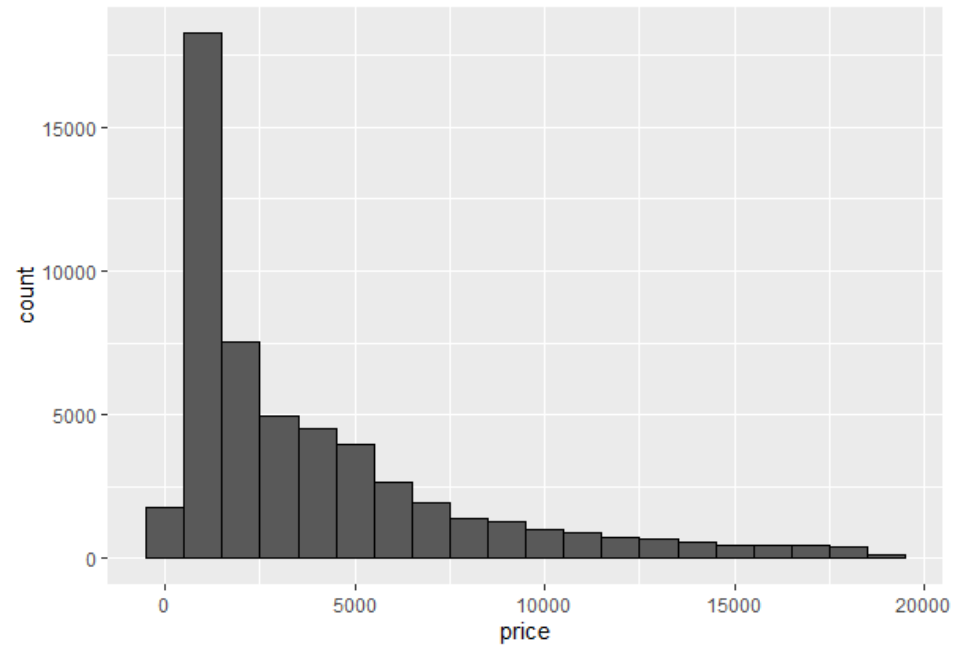
# Histograms

- This histogram has binwidths of 200
  - Provides greater detail about how data is distributed, but sometimes, less is more



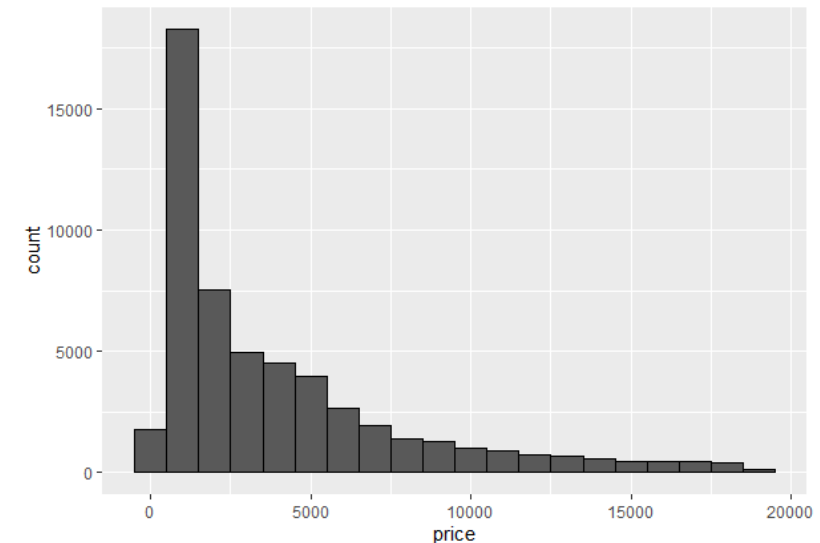
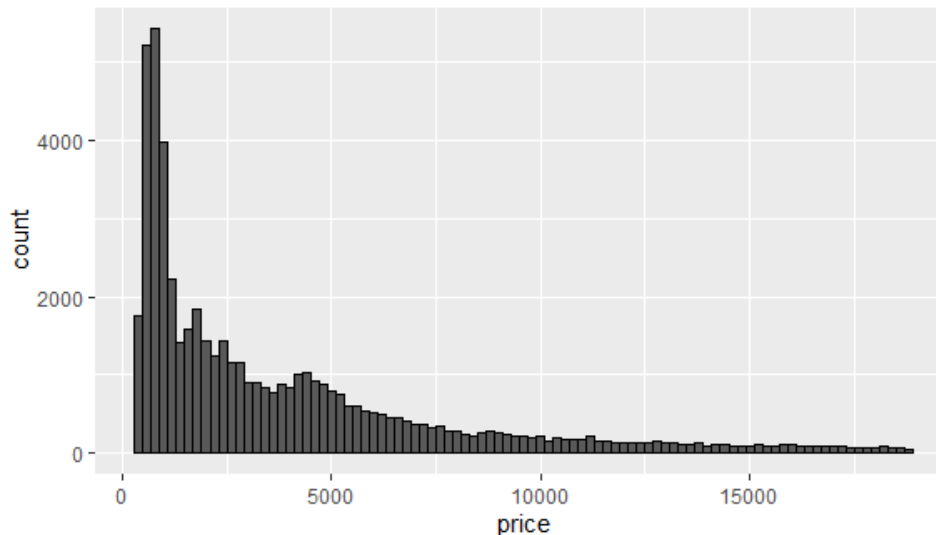
# Histograms

- This histogram has binwidths of 1000



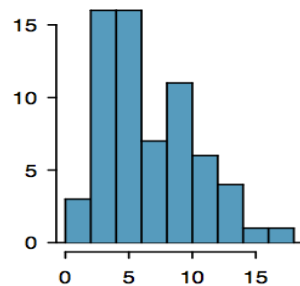
# Histograms

- Both are essentially telling the same story, but one histogram tells it with greater detail than the other.
  - Sometimes, less detail makes it easier to “digest” what the visualization is saying.

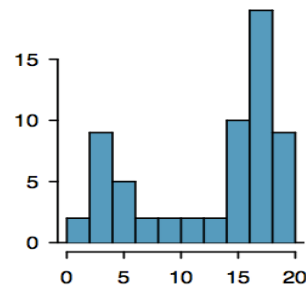


# Histograms

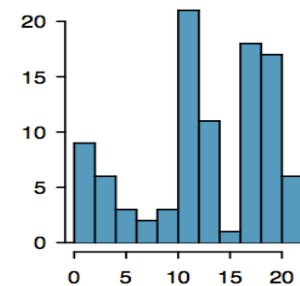
- The **modality** of a distribution is one way to describe its shape
  - *Unimodal*: One prominent peak
  - *Bimodal*: Two prominent peaks
  - *Multimodal*: More than two prominent peaks
  - *Uniform*: No prominent peaks



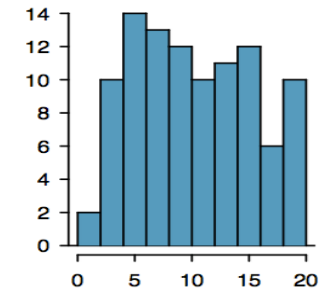
Unimodal



Bimodal



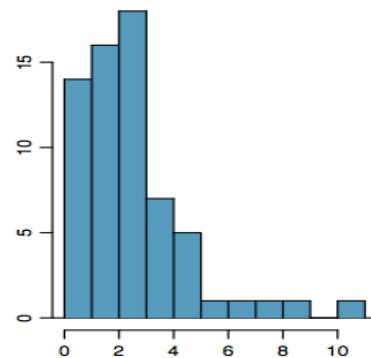
Multimodal



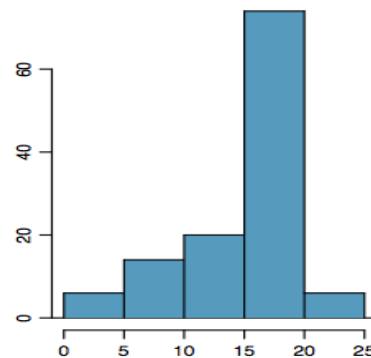
Uniform

# Histograms

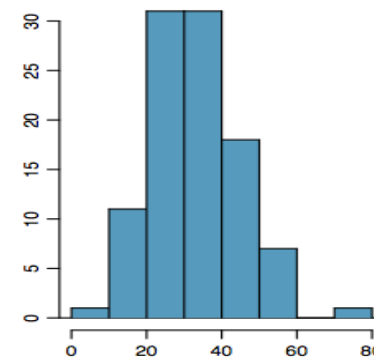
- The **skew** of a distribution is another way to describe its shape
  - *Right Skewed*: The data trails off to the right
  - *Left Skewed*: The data trails off to the left
  - *Symmetric*: The data trails off in both directions (roughly) equally



Right skewed



Left skewed



Symmetric

# Mean

- The **mean** (or average) is one method to find the center of a distribution.
  - The sum of the observed values divided by the total number of observed values.
- The mean is denoted by  $\bar{x}$ 
  - More specifically, the *sample mean* is denoted by  $\bar{x}$
  - The *population mean* is denoted by  $\mu$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

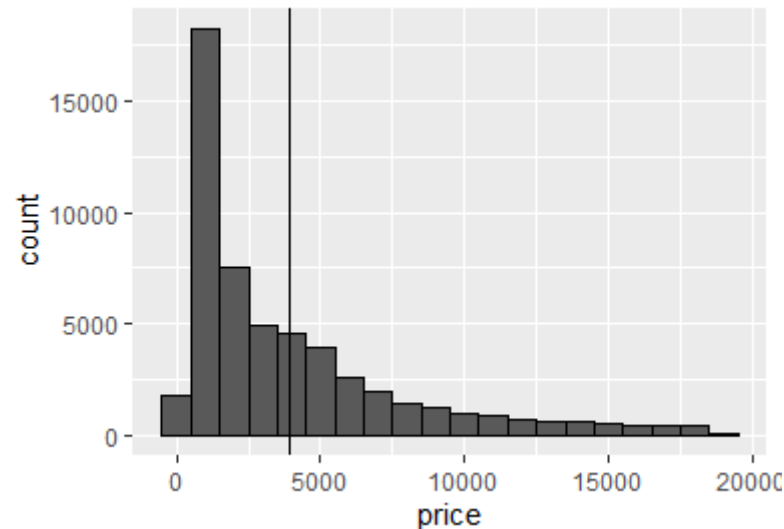
# Mean

- R's [mean function](#)

```
mean(diamonds$price)
```

~3932.80

- A histogram with a vertical line geometry at the x-intercept of the mean:



# Variance and Standard Deviation

- The distance of an observation from the mean is called **deviation**.

$$\text{deviation} = x_n - \bar{x}$$

- The average of the squared deviations from the mean is called the **variance ( $s^2$ )**.
  - Variance describes how spread out the data in a distribution is around the mean

$$s^2 = \frac{(x_1 - \bar{x})^2 + (x_2 - \bar{x})^2 + \dots + (x_n - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}$$



# Variance and Standard Deviation

- R's (variance) [var function](#)

`var(diamonds$price)`

~15915629.42 (A very high variance)

- The square root of the variance is called the **standard deviation (s)**.
  - The standard deviation is the typical deviation of any data from the mean.

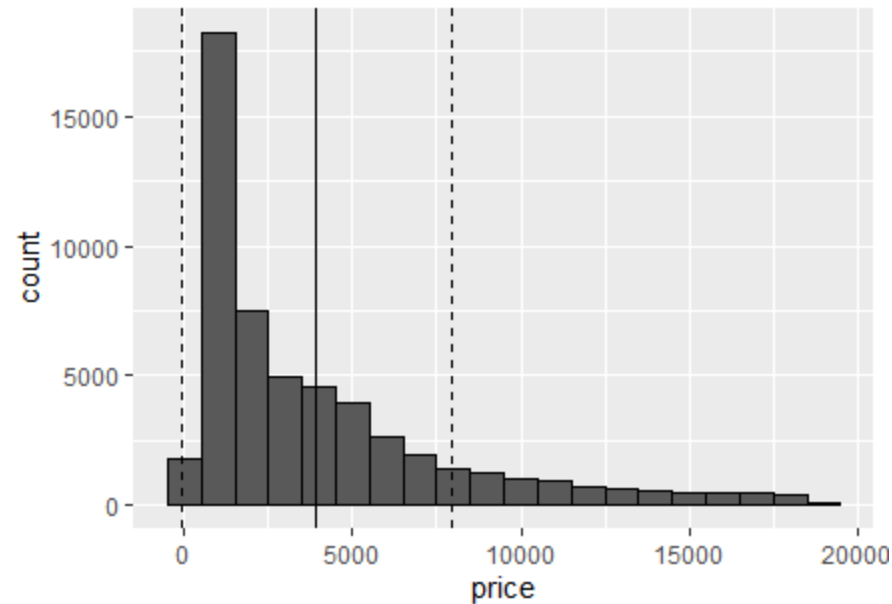
$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

# Variance and Standard Deviation

- R's (standard deviation) [sd function](#)  
`sd(diamonds$price)`  
~3989.43 (A very high variance)
- A general rule of thumb is that 70% of the data in a distribution will be within one standard deviation of the mean; 95% will be within two standard deviations.
  - We'll revisit this in more detail when we get into probability

# Variance and Standard Deviation

- ~70% of the data is between the dashed lines (one standard deviation away from the mean)

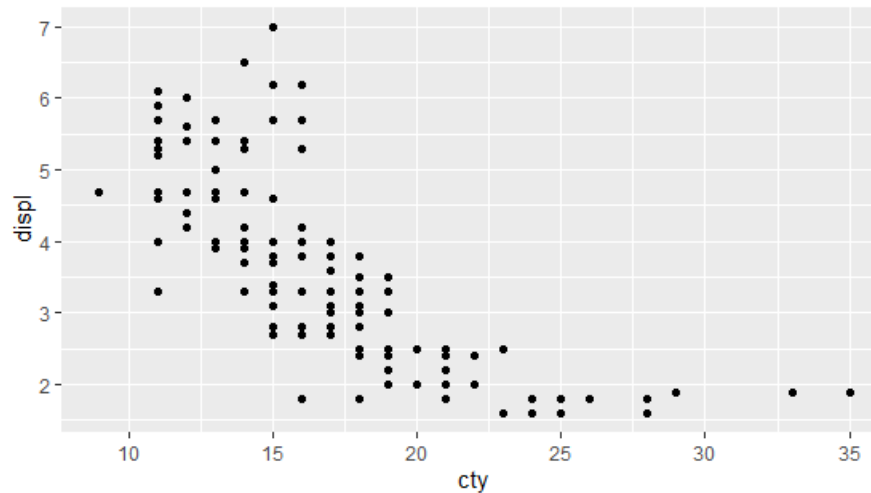


# Variance and Standard Deviation

- Symbols:
  - Sample variance:  $s^2$
  - Sample standard deviation:  $s$
  - Population variance:  $\sigma^2$
  - Population standard deviation:  $\sigma$

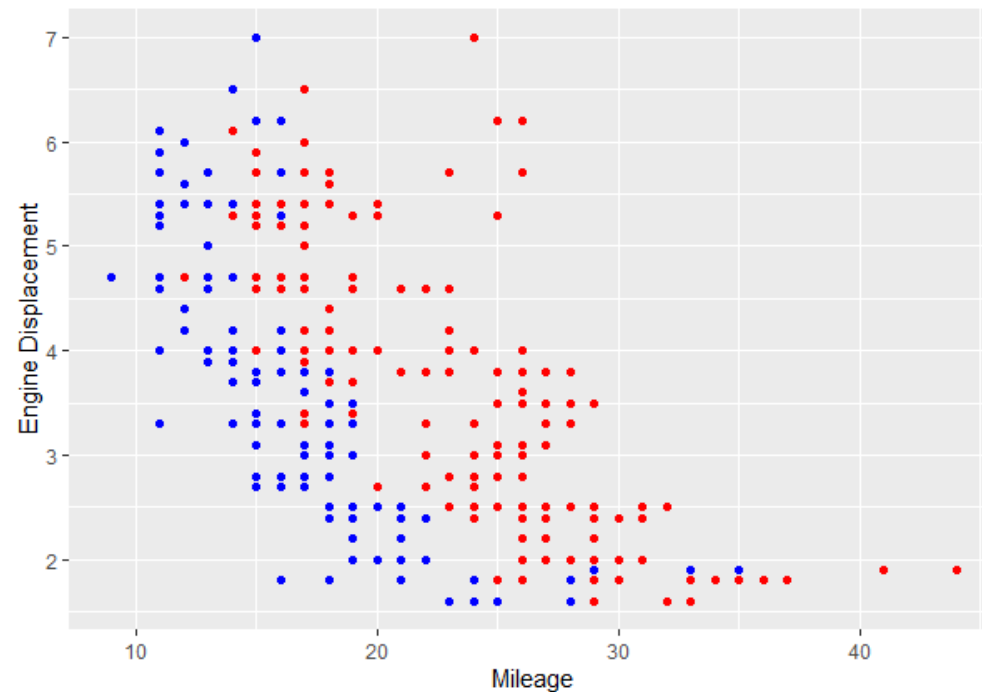
# Scatterplots

- Scatterplots visualize the association between two numerical variables.
  - This scatterplot shows the relationship between engine displacement and city milage
  - City milage improves in cars with smaller engine displacement



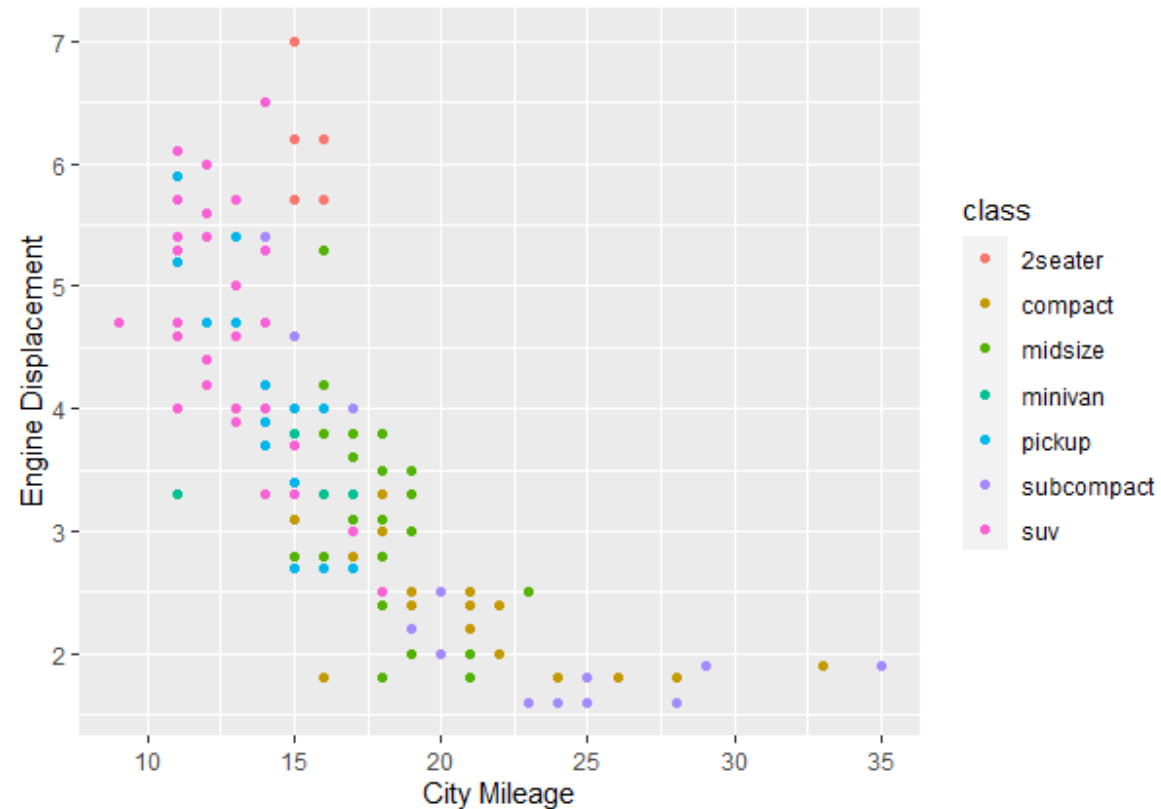
# Scatterplots

- Plotting both city (blue) and highway (red) milage
  - What associations does this scatterplot show?



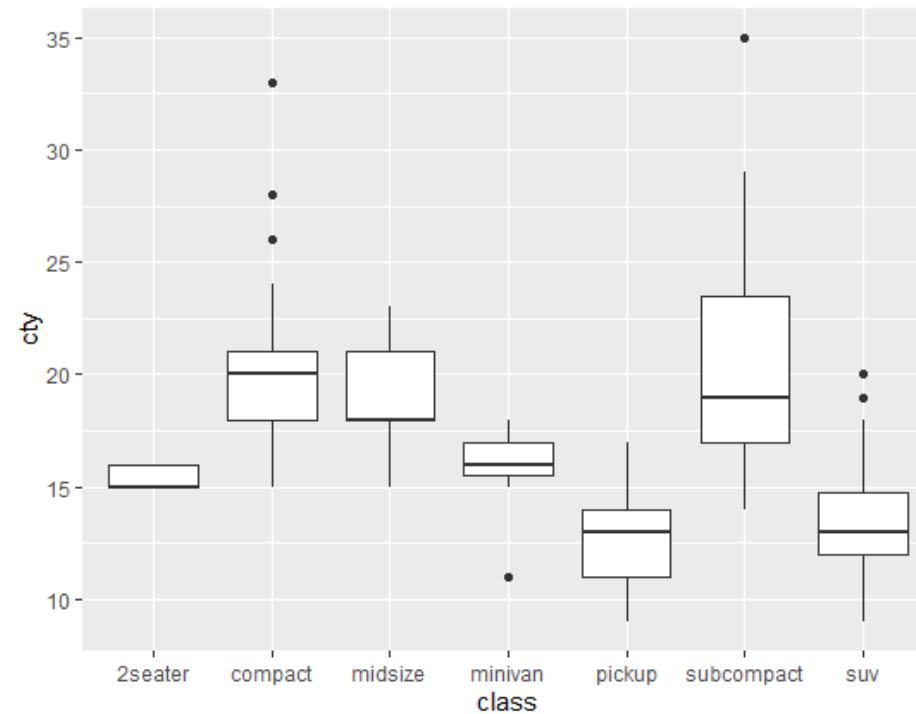
# Scatterplots

- What associations does this scatterplot show?



# Box Plots

- The box plot summarizes a data set with five statistics.

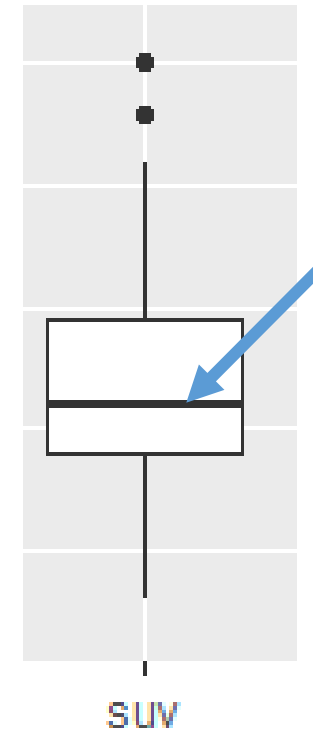




# Box Plots

1. The **median** is the observation in the middle of all observations

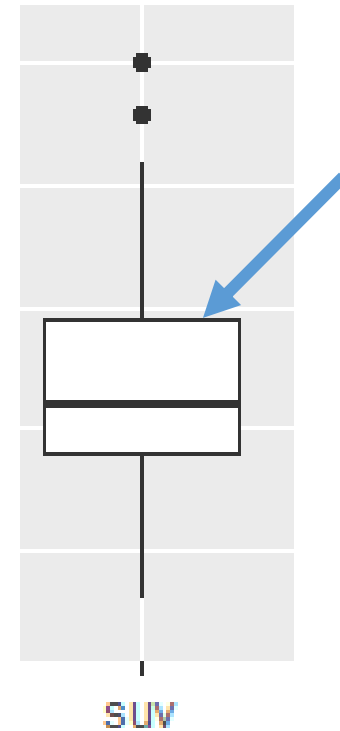
- If there are an even number of observations, the average of the two middle observations is used.
- 50% of data fall above the median; the other 50% falls below it



# Box Plots

2. The **third quartile** ( $Q_3$  or “75<sup>th</sup> percentile”) indicates where 75% of values in the data set fall under

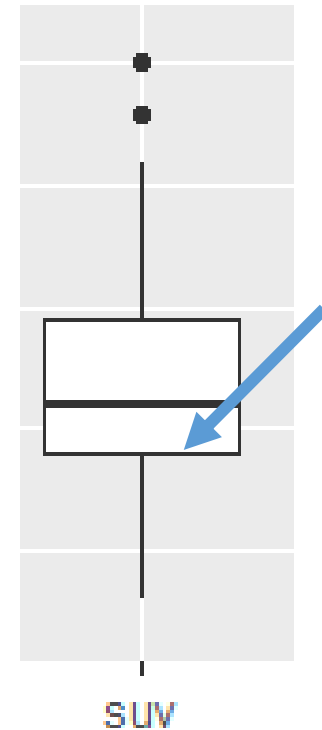
- 75% of observations fall below that line



# Box Plots

3. The **first quartile** ( $Q_1$  or “25<sup>th</sup> percentile”) indicates where 25% of values in the data set fall under

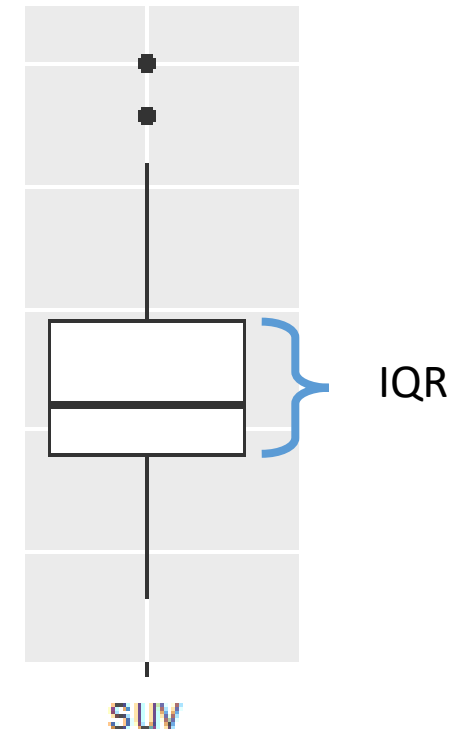
- 25% of observations fall below that line



# Box Plots

- Together, they mark the boundaries of the **interquartile range** or **IQR**.
  - 75% of observations fall below to top line
  - 25% of observations fall below the bottom line
  - Thus, 50% of all observations will fall between them (in the box)

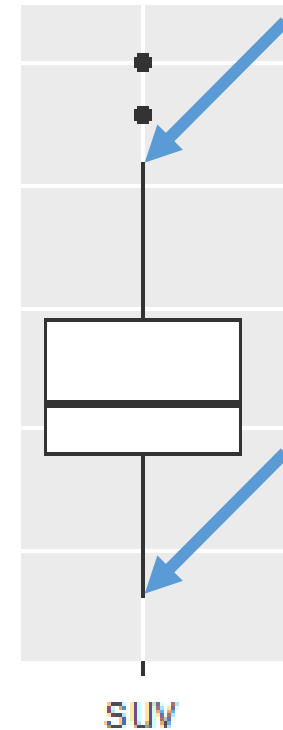
$$IQR = Q_3 - Q_1$$



# Box Plots

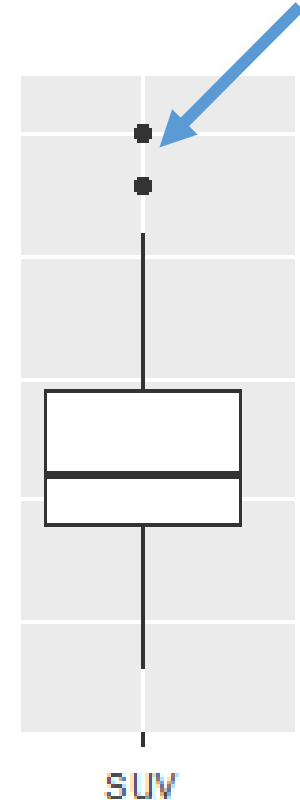
4 and 5. The **whiskers** try to capture the data outside of the IQR

- At most, they can extend  $1.5 \times IQR$
- Max upper whisker =  $Q_3 + 1.5 \times IQR$
- Max lower whisker =  $Q_1 - 1.5 \times IQR$



# Box Plots

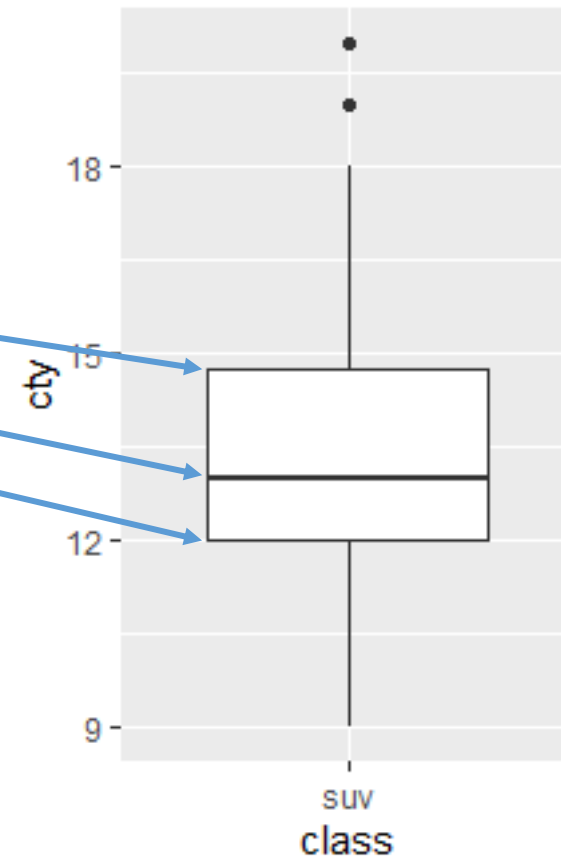
- The upper whisker extends as far as it can go  
 $(Q_3 + 1.5 \times IQR)$
- There are data points still outside of its reach.
  - These two data points (distant from the rest of the data) are called **outliers**
- Looking for outliers is useful for:
  - Identifying strong skew
  - Identifying data collection or data entry errors
  - Offering insight into interesting properties of the data



# Box Plots

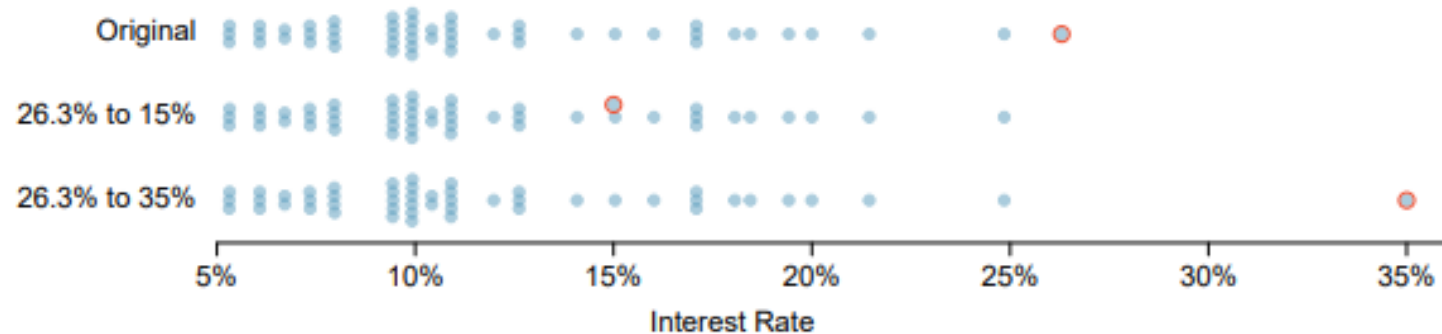
```
> summary(mpg$cty)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
  9.00  14.00   17.00   16.86  19.00   35.00
> summary(subset(mpg, class=="suv")$cty)
  Min. 1st Qu.  Median    Mean 3rd Qu.    Max.
  9.00  12.00   13.00   13.50  14.75   20.00
```

- R's [summary](#) function



# Robust Statistics

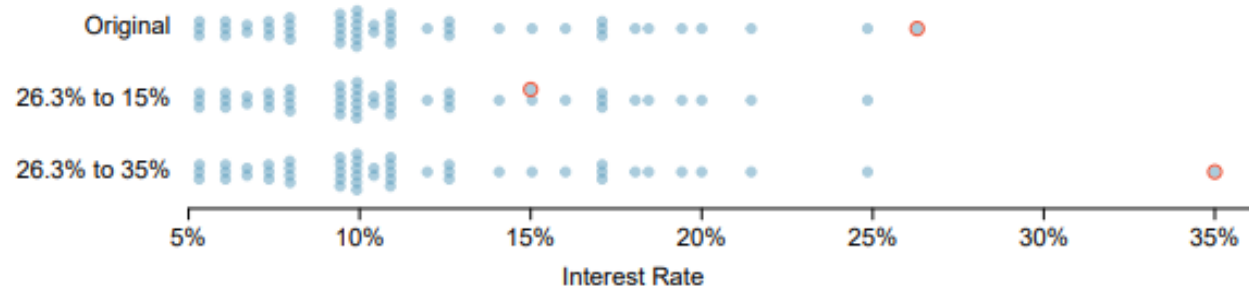
- Median and IQR are **robust statistics** in that extreme outliers have little effect on their values.
- This example shows an observation being changed three times.
  - What effect will this have on the sample statistics?





# Robust Statistics

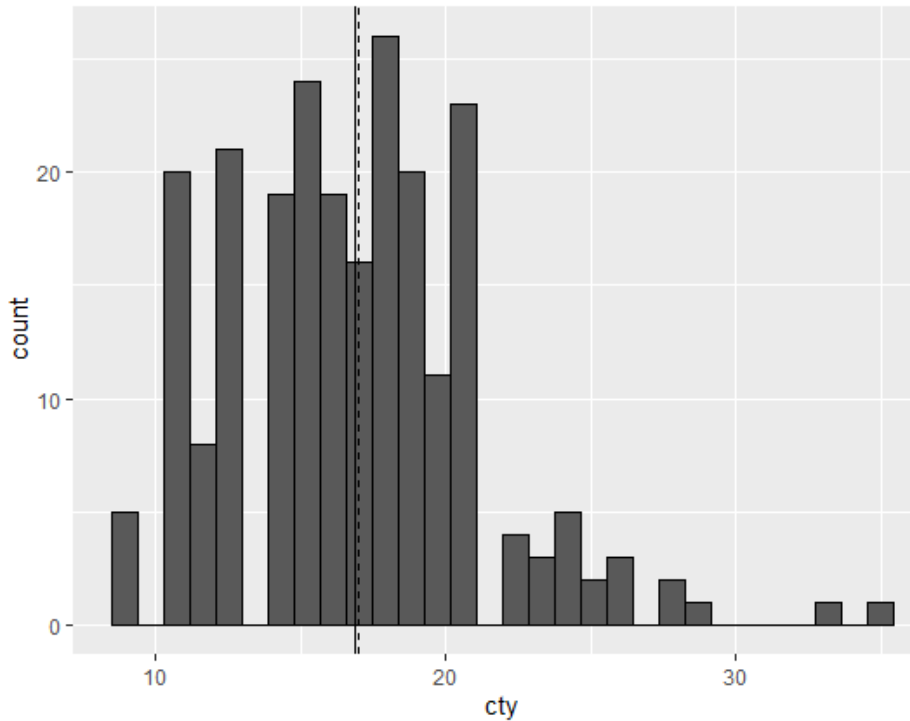
- No impact on median and IQR measurements
- *Did* impact the mean and standard deviation measurements



| scenario                    | robust |       | not robust |       |
|-----------------------------|--------|-------|------------|-------|
|                             | median | IQR   | $\bar{x}$  | $s$   |
| original interest_rate data | 9.93%  | 5.76% | 11.57%     | 5.05% |
| move 26.3% → 15%            | 9.93%  | 5.76% | 11.34%     | 4.61% |
| move 26.3% → 35%            | 9.93%  | 5.76% | 11.74%     | 5.68% |

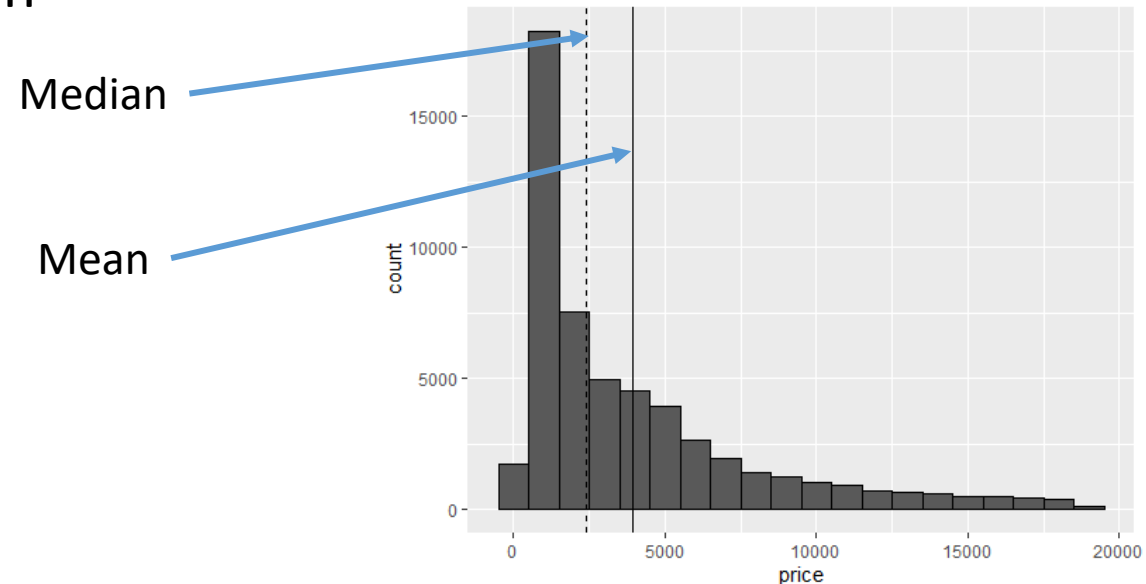
# Robust Statistics

- In symmetric distributions, the mean is typically used to describe the center
  - mean  $\sim$  median



# Robust Statistics

- In skewed distributions or where extreme outliers are present, the median is typically used to describe the center
  - Right skewed:  $\text{mean} > \text{median}$
  - Left skewed:  $\text{mean} < \text{median}$



# Robust Statistics

- For symmetric distributions, use  $\bar{x}$  and  $s$  to describe the center and spread
- For skewed distributions: use median and IQR to describe the center and spread

# Contingency Tables

- A **contingency table** is a table that summarizes data for two categorical variables.
- Contingency tables show the frequency of combinations between the two variables.
  - For example, the table below shows there were 3496 observations in the data set that had an application type of “individual” and homeownership type of “rent”
  - Another example, there were 183 observations in the data set that had an application type of “joint” and homeownership type of “own”

|          |            | homeownership |          |      | Total |
|----------|------------|---------------|----------|------|-------|
|          |            | rent          | mortgage | own  |       |
| app_type | individual | 3496          | 3839     | 1170 | 8505  |
|          | joint      | 362           | 950      | 183  | 1495  |
|          | Total      | 3858          | 4789     | 1353 | 10000 |

# Contingency Tables

```
> library(readr)
> loans <- read_csv("loans.csv")
Parsed with column specification:
cols(
  .default = col_double(),
  emp_title = col_character(),
  state = col_character(),
  homeownership = col_character(),
  verified_income = col_character(),
  verification_income_joint = col_character(),
  loan_purpose = col_character(),
  application_type = col_character(),
  grade = col_character(),
  sub_grade = col_character(),
  issue_month = col_character(),
  loan_status = col_character(),
  initial_listing_status = col_character(),
  disbursement_method = col_character()
)
See spec(...) for full column specifications.
> table(loans$application_type, loans$homeownership)

      MORTGAGE  OWN RENT
individual    3839 1170 3496
joint         950  183  362
> addmargins(table(loans$application_type, loans$homeownership))

      MORTGAGE  OWN RENT  Sum
individual    3839 1170 3496 8505
joint         950  183  362 1495
Sum           4789 1353 3858 10000
> |
```

|          |            | homeownership |          |      | Total |
|----------|------------|---------------|----------|------|-------|
|          |            | rent          | mortgage | own  |       |
| app_type | individual | 3496          | 3839     | 1170 | 8505  |
|          | joint      | 362           | 950      | 183  | 1495  |
|          | Total      | 3858          | 4789     | 1353 | 10000 |

[table function](#)  
[addmargins function](#)

# Contingency Tables

- A contingency table can also be used to summarize one categorical variable.

```
> table(loans$homeownership)
```

```
MORTGAGE    OWN    RENT  
    4789    1353    3858
```

```
> addmargins(table(loans$homeownership))
```

```
MORTGAGE    OWN    RENT    Sum  
    4789    1353    3858  10000
```

| homeownership | Count |
|---------------|-------|
| rent          | 3858  |
| mortgage      | 4789  |
| own           | 1353  |
| Total         | 10000 |

# Contingency Tables

- Sometimes, it is useful for contingency tables display proportions instead of frequencies.

```
> t<-table(loans$application_type, loans$homeownership)  
> t
```

|            | MORTGAGE | OWN  | RENT |
|------------|----------|------|------|
| individual | 3839     | 1170 | 3496 |
| joint      | 950      | 183  | 362  |

Frequencies

```
> prop.table(t)
```

|            | MORTGAGE | OWN    | RENT   |
|------------|----------|--------|--------|
| individual | 0.3839   | 0.1170 | 0.3496 |
| joint      | 0.0950   | 0.0183 | 0.0362 |

Proportions

[prop.table function](#)



# Contingency Tables

- Row Proportions:
  - 63.5% of observations with an application type of “joint” have a homeownership type of “mortgage”.
  - 12.2% of observations with an application type of “joint” have a homeownership type of “own”.
  - 24.2% of observations with an application type of “joint” have a homeownership type of “rent”.

```
> t<-table(loans$application_type, loans$homeownership)  
> t
```

|            | MORTGAGE | OWN  | RENT |
|------------|----------|------|------|
| individual | 3839     | 1170 | 3496 |
| joint      | 950      | 183  | 362  |

```
> prop.table(t, margin=1)
```

|            | MORTGAGE  | OWN       | RENT      |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| individual | 0.4513815 | 0.1375661 | 0.4110523 |
| joint      | 0.6354515 | 0.1224080 | 0.2421405 |

# Contingency Tables

- Column Proportions:

- 86.5% of observations with a homeownership type of “own” have an application type of “individual”.
- 13.5% of observations with a homeownership type of “own” have an application type of “joint”.

```
> t<-table(loans$application_type, loans$homeownership)
> t
```

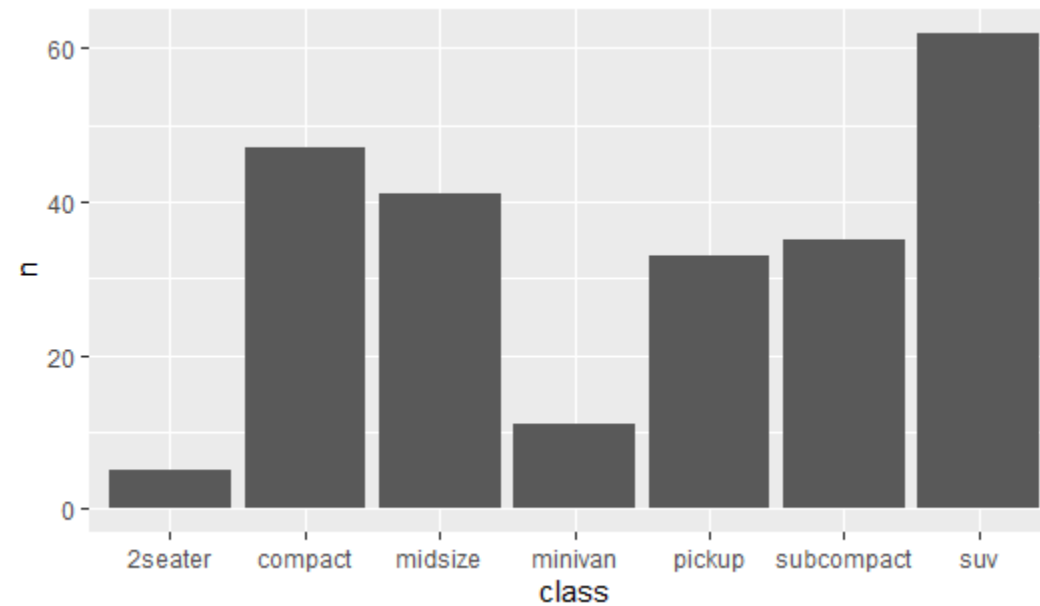
|            | MORTGAGE | OWN  | RENT |
|------------|----------|------|------|
| individual | 3839     | 1170 | 3496 |
| joint      | 950      | 183  | 362  |

```
> prop.table(t, margin=2)
```

|            | MORTGAGE  | OWN       | RENT      |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| individual | 0.8016287 | 0.8647450 | 0.9061690 |
| joint      | 0.1983713 | 0.1352550 | 0.0938310 |

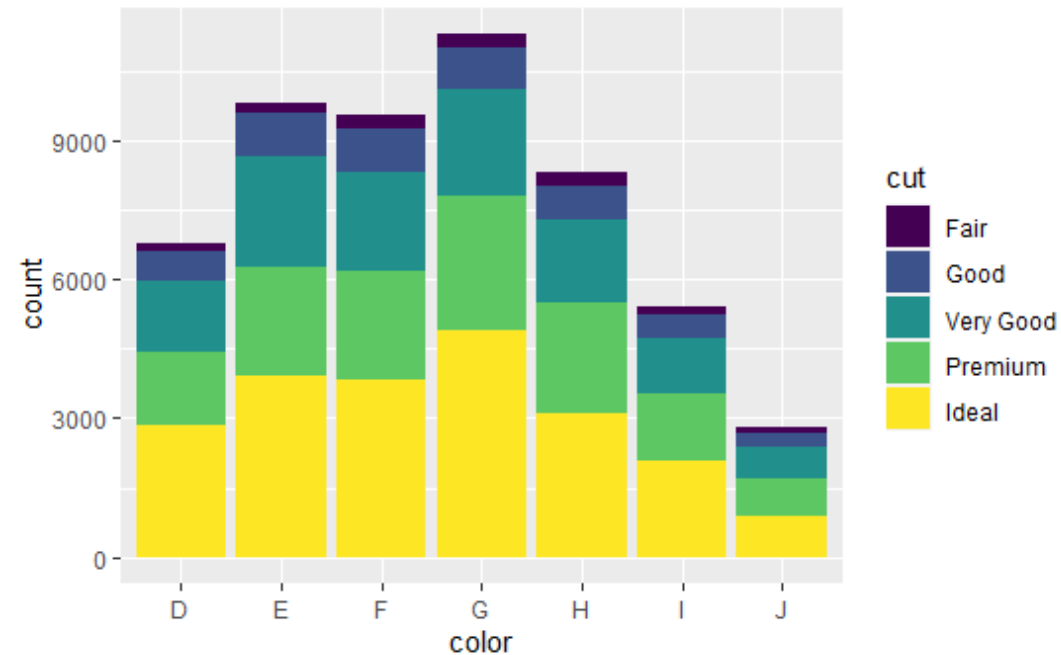
# Bar plots

- Bar plots are used to visualize the quantities of categorical variables.



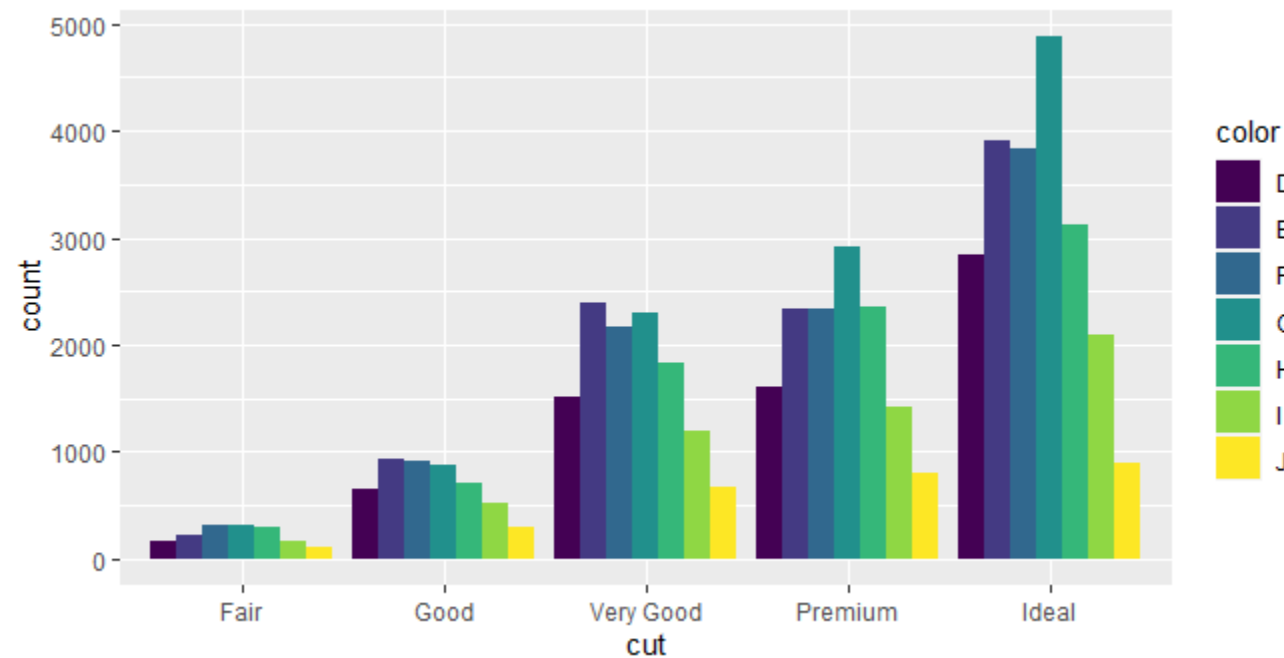
# Bar plots

- A *stacked bar plot* allows for plotting two categorical variables at once
  - Still emphasizes the totals of the x-axis variables



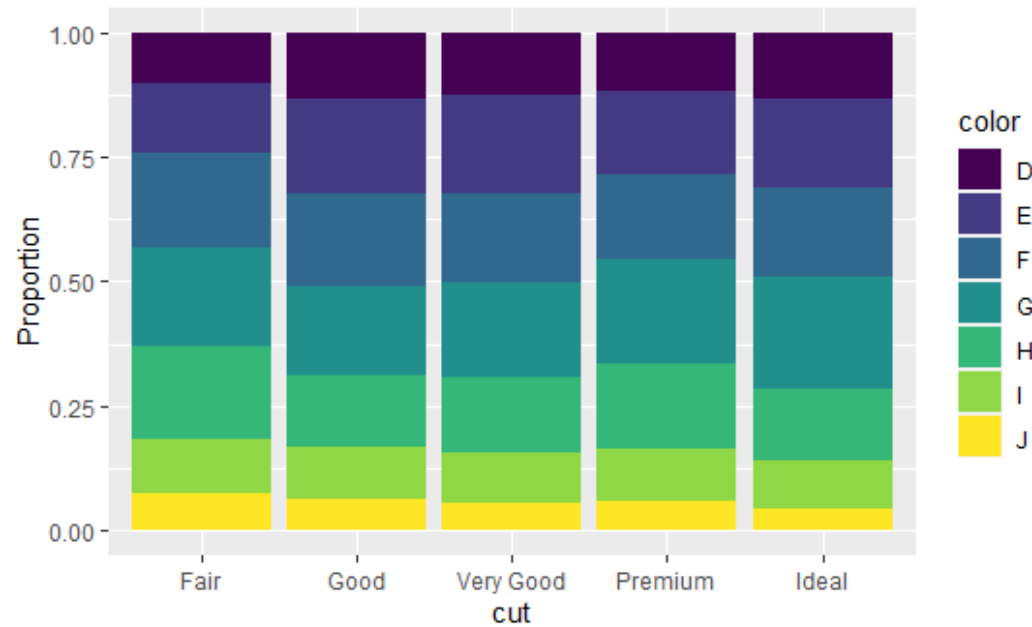
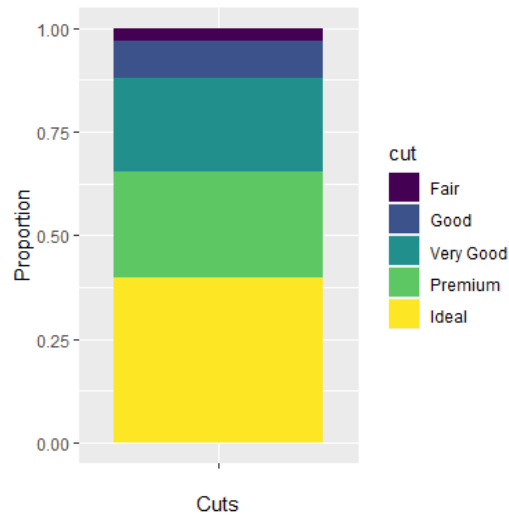
# Bar plots

- A *grouped bar plot* also allows for plotting two categorical variables at once.



# Bar plots

- Stacked bar plots can also be used to visualize proportions



# Bar plots

- Seen previously, grouped bar plots also show proportionality
  - In this case, the right plot is better for comparing the proportions of colors in each cut type

