

FIT2086 Self-Study/Revision

Summary Statistics, Basic Graphs and Revision

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1 Descriptive Statistics

- Descriptive Statistics
- Associations Between Variables

2 Mathematics Revision

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2 Mathematics Revision

Basic Types of Data – Refresher

- **Categorical-Nominal:**

- Discrete numbers of values, no inherent ordering
- E.g., country of birth, sex

- **Categorical-Ordinal:**

- Discrete number of states, but with an ordering
- E.g., Education status, State of disease progression

- **Numeric-Discrete:**

- Numeric, but the values are enumerable
- e.g., Number of live births, Age (in whole years)

- **Numeric-Continuous:**

- Numeric, not enumerable (i.e., real numbers)
- E.g., Weight, Height, Distance from CBD

- **Quantitative vs Qualitative:**

- Generally, categorical data is qualitative, numeric data is quantitative

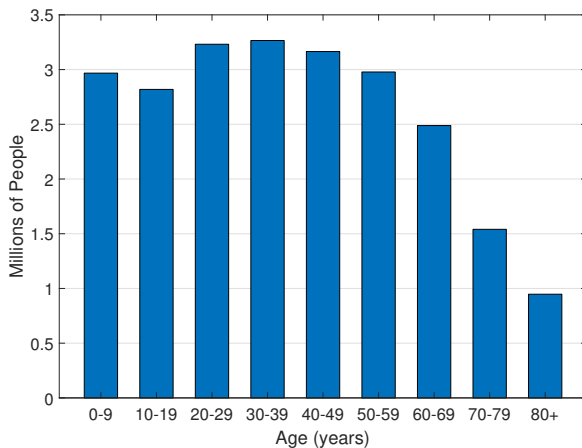
Graphical representations – Refresher

- It is often useful to visualise data
 - Can sometimes quickly reveal patterns
 - However, going beyond two dimensions is problematic
- For categorical data, standard visualisations include:
 - Frequency tables
 - Bar graphs
 - Pie charts (not recommended!)
- For numeric data (continuous and discrete), we can use:
 - Histograms
 - Box-and-whisker plots

Age (years)	Number of People
0-9	2,967,425
10-19	2,818,778
20-29	3,231,395
30-39	3,265,526
40-49	3,164,712
50-59	2,977,883
60-69	2,488,396
70-79	1,540,373
80+	947,411

Australian Population by Age (2016 Census)

Bar charts



Australian population by age (2016 Census)

Histograms

- Histograms are a special type of bar chart
 - Bar-charts only applicable to categorical data
- Group numeric data into categories by putting it bins
- If $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ are our data points, we divide them between K equally spaced bins, i.e.,
 - The number of samples that fall in bin (category) k are

$$v_k = \#\{y_j \in (\min\{\mathbf{y}\} + (k-1)w, \min\{\mathbf{y}\} + kw)\}$$

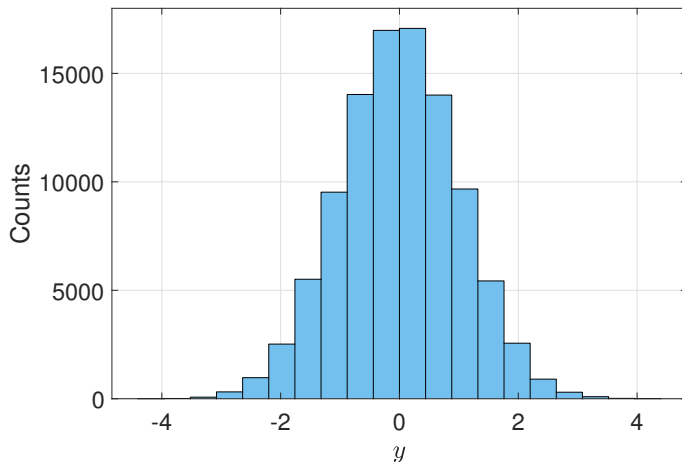
where

$$w = \frac{\max\{\mathbf{y}\} - \min\{\mathbf{y}\}}{K}$$

is the width of the bins

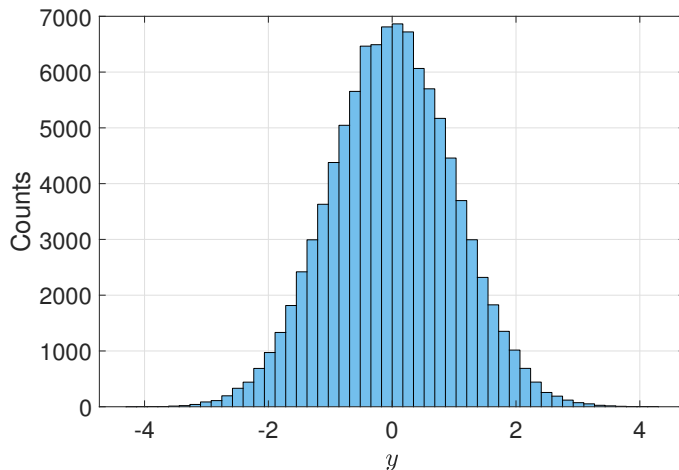
\implies plot v_1, \dots, v_K using bar-chart

Histograms: Example



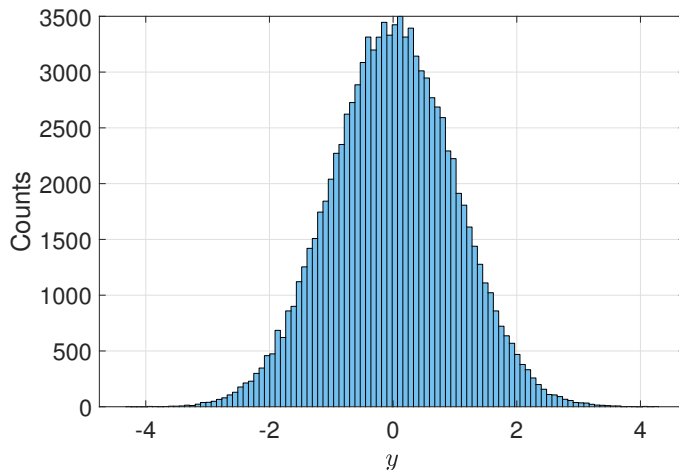
Histogram with $K = 20$ bins

Histograms: Example



Histogram with $K = 50$ bins; looks smoother

Histograms: Example



Histogram with $K = 100$; starting to look ragged

- Descriptive statistics summarise aspects of the data
- What is a “statistic”?
 - Let \mathbf{y} denote a sample of data
 - Then a statistic is any function $s(\mathbf{y})$ of the data
- Some functions (statistics) more useful than others
 - But all describe properties of the data

Measures of Centrality

- Let $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ be a sample of n data points
- The the most common measure of centrality, or averageness, is the arithmetic **mean**

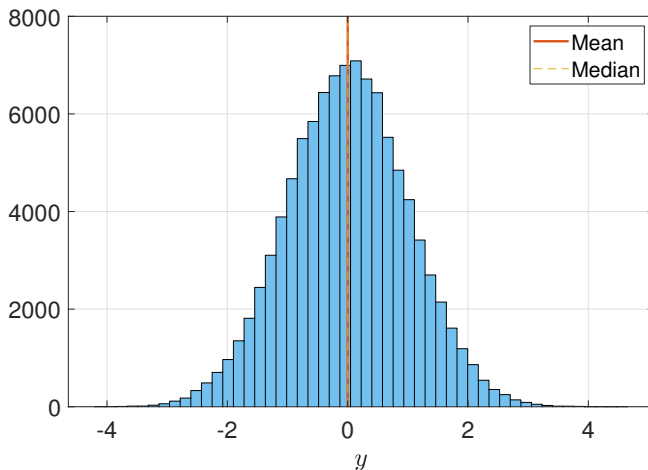
$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n y_j$$

- The **mode** is the most frequently occurring value in the sample
 - Of limited use for continuous numeric data
- Another common measure is the **median**, $\text{med}(\mathbf{y})$
 - Value such that 50% of samples have values less than $\text{med}(\mathbf{y})$
 - Easily found by sorting samples and finding middle sample

Mean vs Median

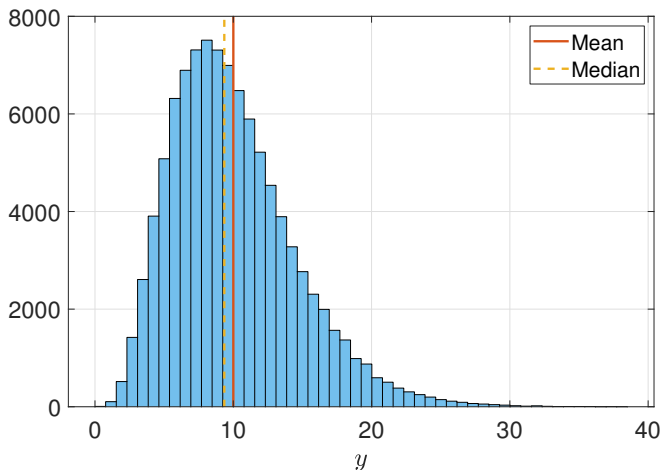
- The mean uses *all* the values of the sample
 - Any change to any sample changes the mean
 - The mean can be changed as much as desired by changing just one sample by a large enough amount
- The median uses at most two of the values of the sample
 - Is very resistant to changes to the samples not in the middle
- Example:
 - $\mathbf{y} = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) \Rightarrow \bar{y} = 3, \text{ med}(\mathbf{y}) = 3$
 - $\mathbf{y} = (1, 2, 3, 4, 50) \Rightarrow \bar{y} = 12, \text{ med}(\mathbf{y}) = 3$

Mean vs Median: Symmetric Distributions



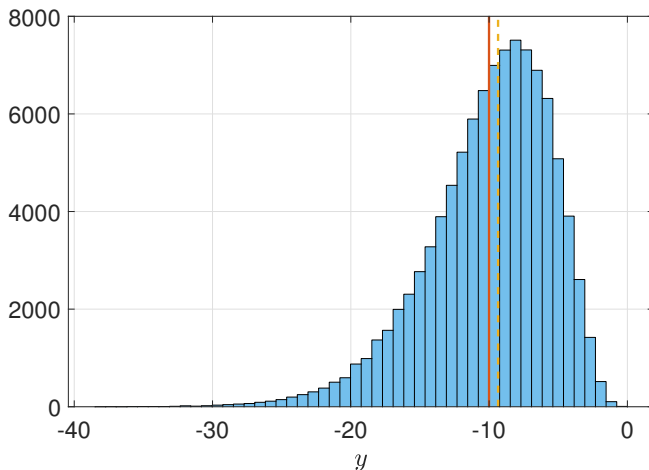
Symmetric distribution of data; mean and median (nearly) the same

Mean vs Median: Positively Skewed Data



Positively skewed data; mean greater than median

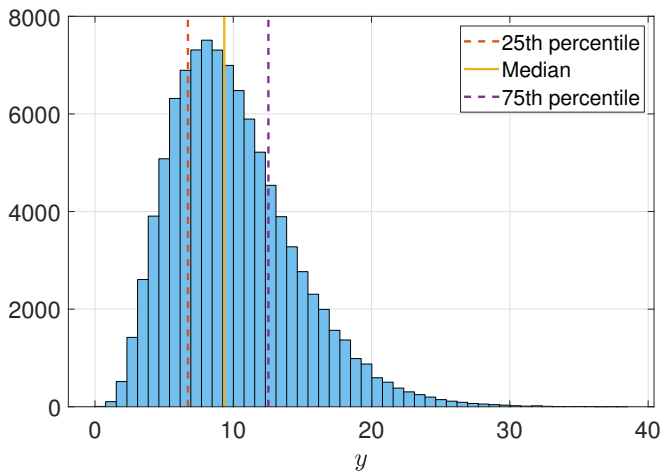
Mean vs Median: Negatively Skewed Data



Negatively skewed data; mean less than median

- More generally, we can define the **percentiles**
 - The p -th percentile is the value, $Q(\mathbf{y}, p)$ such that $p\%$ of the values of the sample are lower than $Q(\mathbf{y}, p)$
- The median is simply the 50th percentile, $Q(\mathbf{y}, 50)$
- Other important percentiles are the 1st and 3rd **quartiles**
 - i.e., the 25th and 75th percentiles

Percentiles



Measures of Spread (1)

- Measures of centrality tell us about the **typical** value of the sample
- Measures of **spread** tell us how much the samples differ, on average, from the typical value
- The most straightforward is the **range**

$$\text{rng}(\mathbf{y}) = \max\{\mathbf{y}\} - \min\{\mathbf{y}\}$$

where

- $\min\{\mathbf{y}\}$ denotes the minimum value in the sample;
- $\max\{\mathbf{y}\}$ denotes the maximum value in the sample.

Measures of Spread (2)

- The most common measure of spread used is the sample **standard deviation**

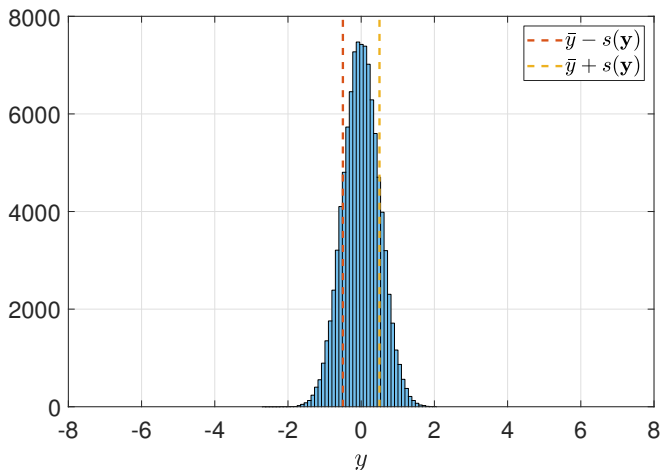
$$s(\mathbf{y}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (y_j - \bar{y})^2}$$

- The sample standard deviation is the arithmetic mean of the squared deviations from the sample mean
 \implies has the same unit as the data
- Like the mean, is sensitive to changes in the sample
- Often, the sample **variance**

$$v(\mathbf{y}) = s^2(\mathbf{y})$$

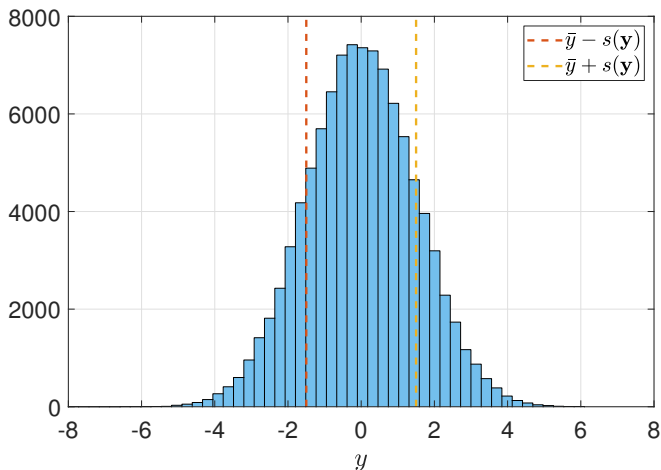
is used, as it can be easier to work with

Measures of Spread: Example



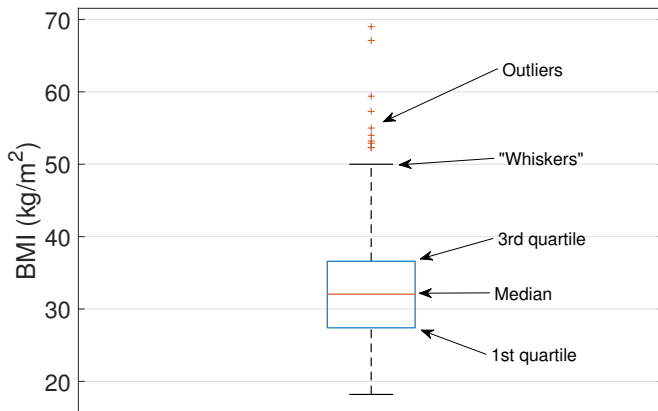
$$\text{rng}(\mathbf{y}) = 4.63 \quad (\min\{\mathbf{y}\} = -2.61, \max\{\mathbf{y}\} = 2.01), \quad s(\mathbf{y}) = 0.5$$

Measures of Spread: Example



$\text{rng}(\mathbf{y}) = 13.89$ ($\min\{\mathbf{y}\} = -7.84$, $\max\{\mathbf{y}\} = 6.05$), $s(\mathbf{y}) = 1.5$

Visualising Continuous Data: Boxplots



Boxplot graphically captures centrality, spread and skewness in one plot

Association Between Two Continuous Variables

- Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ be two numeric variables measured on the same objects
 - We might ask if there is an association between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y}
- **Pearson correlation** measures **linear** association

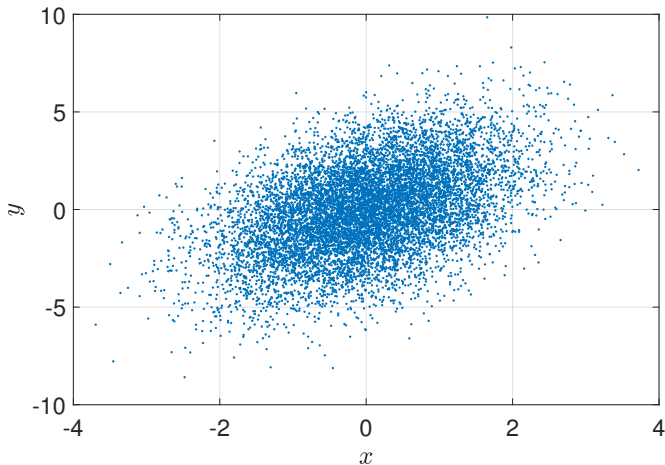
$$R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \bar{x})(y_j - \bar{y})}{n s(\mathbf{x})s(\mathbf{y})}$$

- Correlation is always between -1 (completely negatively correlated) and 1 (completely positively correlated)
 - A correlation of zero implies there is no linear association
 \implies does not imply no non-linear association
- Remember: correlation \neq causation!

Scatter Plots

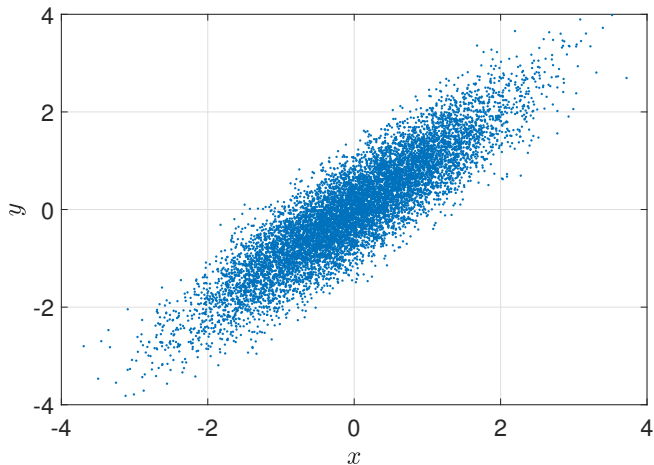
- Scatter plots help us visualise relationships between two (usually) numeric variables
 - Plot points, with one variable on x -axis and one on y -axis
- Can be used to visually look for association
- Correlation coefficients are statistics that quantitatively measure the strength of the association between two variables
 - The two can be combined for more information
- Three-variable scatter plots, like almost all three-dimensional plots, should be avoided

Correlation/Scatter Plot Example (1)



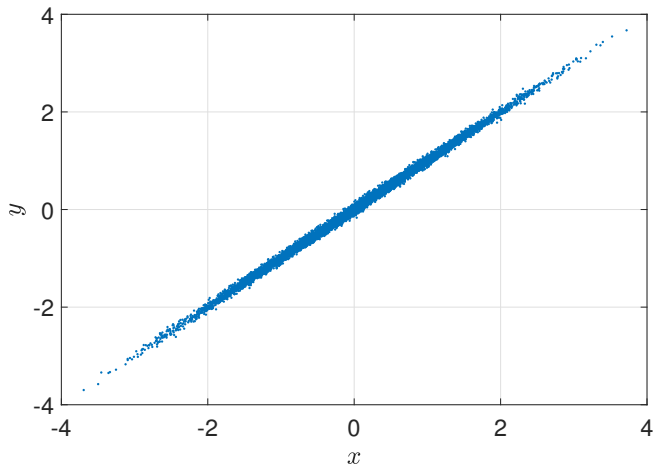
$$R \approx 0.44$$

Correlation/Scatter Plot Example (2)



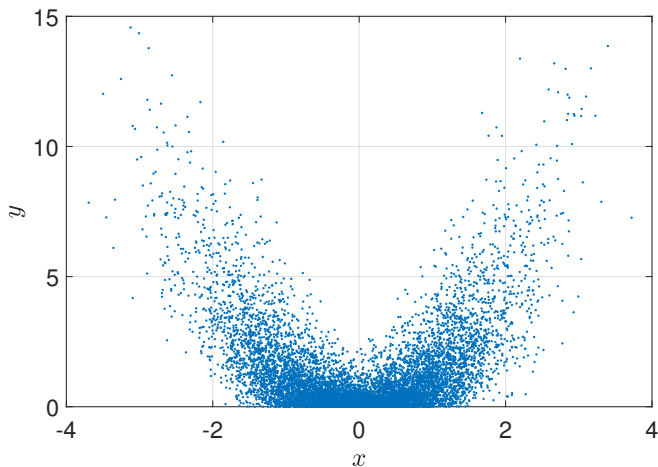
$$R = 0.9$$

Correlation/Scatter Plot Example (3)



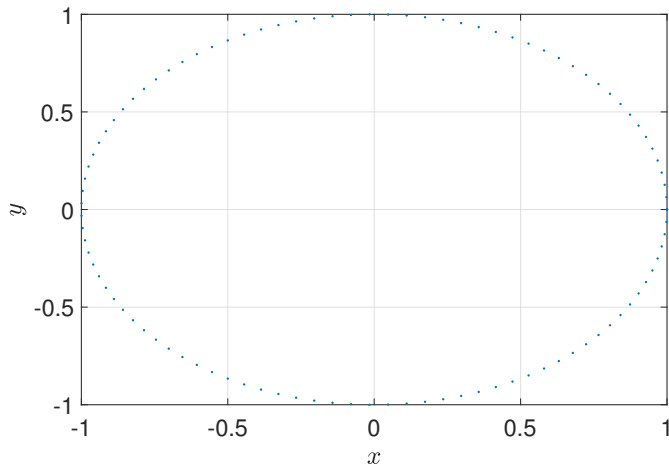
$$R \approx 0.999$$

Correlation/Scatter Plot Example (4)



$R \approx 0.01$ – though clearly associated, as $y = x^2 + \text{noise}$

Correlation/Scatter Plot Example (5)

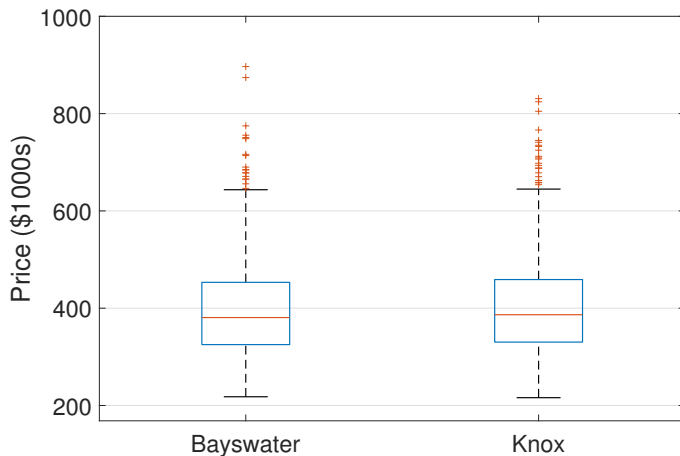


$R = 0$, though there is a **deterministic** association between x and y

Association Between Categorical and Numeric Variables

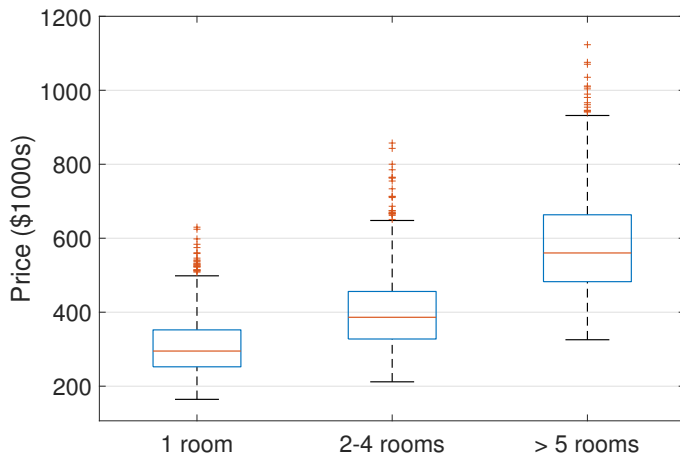
- If x is categorical, and y is numeric, how to visualise?
- A standard approach is the side-by-side boxplot
 - Divide the data between categories, then plot boxplots for each group
 - Do the boxplots look different?
- If x and y are both categorical, we can use a side-by-side bargraph instead
 - Are the distributions/bargraphs different between categories?
 - If so, there is a possible association

Example: Categorical and Numeric Variables (1)



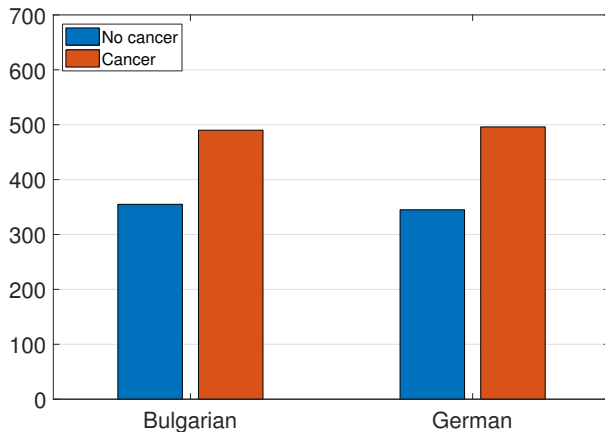
Distribution of price similar between suburbs

Example: Categorical and Numeric Variables (2)



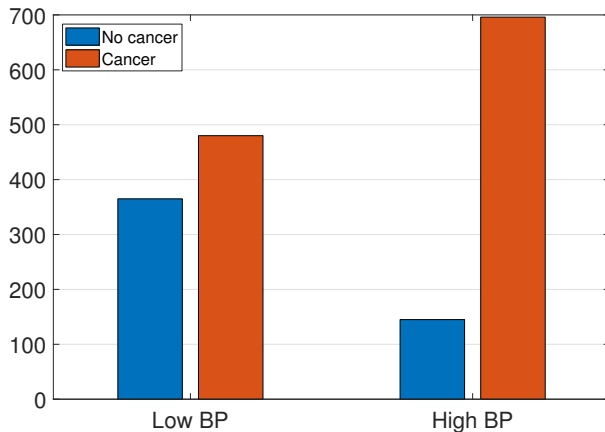
Distribution of price varies greatly with number of rooms

Example: Two Categorical Variables (1)



Frequency of cancer does not seem to change with ethnicity; unlikely to be associated

Example: Two Categorical Variables (2)



Frequency of cancer changes substantially with blood pressure; likely to be strong association

Outline

1 Descriptive Statistics

- Descriptive Statistics
- Associations Between Variables

2 Mathematics Revision

Useful Identities (1)

- The following logarithmic identities will be useful

$$\log 1 = 0$$

$$\log ab = \log a + \log b$$

$$\log a/b = \log a - \log b$$

$$\log a^b = b \log a$$

- The following exponential identities will be useful

$$e^a e^b = e^{a+b}$$

$$e^{-a} = 1/e^a$$

$$(e^a)^b = e^{ab}$$

Useful Identities (2)

- The following calculus identities will be useful

$$\frac{d}{dx} \{x^n\} = nx^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \{\log x\} = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \{e^x\} = e^x$$

$$\text{Linearity : } \frac{d}{dx} \{a f(x) + b\} = a \frac{d}{dx} \{f(x)\} + b$$

$$\text{Product Rule : } \frac{d}{dx} \{f(x)g(x)\} = g(x) \frac{d}{dx} \{f(x)\} + f(x) \frac{d}{dx} \{g(x)\}$$

$$\text{Chain Rule : } \frac{d}{dx} \{f(g(x))\} = \frac{d}{dg(x)} \{f(g(x))\} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \{g(x)\}$$

Useful Identities (3)

- If we have a function, $f(x, y)$, of two variables, the partial derivative

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x}$$

is found by differentiating $f(x, y)$ w.r.t. x treating y as a constant.

- Example:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left\{ y \log(x^2 y + 1) \right\} &= y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left\{ \log(x^2 y + 1) \right\} \quad (\text{linearity}) \\ &= y \cdot \frac{1}{x^2 y + 1} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left\{ x^2 y + 1 \right\} \quad (\text{chain rule}) \\ &= \frac{2xy^2}{x^2 y + 1}\end{aligned}$$

- Reading for this week: Chapter 2 of Ross.
- Terms you should know:
 - Histogram;
 - Measures of central tendency: mean, median, mode;
 - Measures of dispersion: standard deviation, variance, range;
 - Percentiles and quartiles;
 - Scatter plot;
 - Correlation coefficient