

POLS3316: Statistics for Political Scientists

Lecture 2: Variables, Units of Observation, Variable Types, Measures of Central Tendency

Instructor: Tom Hanna, Fall 2025

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Table of contents

1 Descriptive Statistics	2
2 Why do we use descriptive statistics?	2
3 What are the most basic things we need to know?	3
4 What are variables?	3
5 What is a unit of observation?	3
6 Putting it together	3
7 Example	3
8 Wide format	4
9 Long Format	5
10 Country-year format	6
11 Measures of Central Tendency	7
12 Measures of Central Tendency	7
13 Mean	7
14 Example A:	8
15 Example A:	8

16 Example A:	8
17 Example B	9
18 Example B	9
19 Median	10
20 Example A	10
21 Example A:	10
22 Example B	11
23 Example B	11
24 Example B	11
25 Keep in mind for later	12
26 Mode	12
27 Examples:	12
28 Advantages and disadvantages	13
29 Variable Types	13
30 Variable Type Examples: Categorical	13
31 Variable Type Examples: Numerical	14
32 Social Science examples	14
33 Skewed distribution - when mean and median are different	14
34 Authorship and License	15

1 Descriptive Statistics

2 Why do we use descriptive statistics?

- Explore the data
- See patterns in the data

- Communicate about the data

3 What are the most basic things we need to know?

- What are the variables?
- What is the scope of the data (time, geography, cases)?
- What is the unit of observation?

4 What are variables?

- In math (algebra) - a symbol that represents a number
- In science - a characteristic or attribute that can vary across units of observation
- In statistics - a characteristic or attribute that can vary across units of observation
- In R coding - a column in a *data frame*
- In all of the above - something that can take on different values

5 What is a unit of observation?

- In science - the entity that is being measured
- In statistics - the entity that is being measured
- In R coding - a row in a *data frame*
- In all of the above - the thing that has the variable measured on/for it

6 Putting it together

- Variables are characteristics or attributes that vary across units of observation

7 Example

Titanic data

```

# Load Titanic dataset

titanic_data <- as.data.frame(Titanic)

# merge the first three colnames to create a new rowname "Passenger_Type" that combines Class and Sex

titanic_data <- titanic_data %>%
  unite("Passenger_Type", Class, Sex, Age, sep = "-")

# where survived is No, create a variable called number of deaths that is equal to Freq, otherwise 0

titanic_data <- titanic_data %>%
  mutate(number_of_deaths = ifelse(Survived == "No", Freq, 0))

# drop the Freq column and Survived column

titanic_data <- titanic_data %>%
  select(-Freq, -Survived)

# View the first 8 rows of the dataset
head(titanic_data, 8)

```

	Passenger_Type	number_of_deaths
1	1st-Male-Child	0
2	2nd-Male-Child	0
3	3rd-Male-Child	35
4	Crew-Male-Child	0
5	1st-Female-Child	0
6	2nd-Female-Child	0
7	3rd-Female-Child	17
8	Crew-Female-Child	0

- units of observation
- variables: columns

8 Wide format

BEWARE! Not all data is formatted this way! Sometimes you have to think “is this a variable or a unit of observation?”

For example, the following data on Scandinavian temperatures:

```

# From https://sejdemyr.github.io/r-tutorials/basics/wide-and-long/
# created by SIMON EJDEMYR

# Create long dataset
country_long <- data.frame(
  expand.grid(country = c("Sweden", "Denmark", "Norway"), year = 1994:1996),
  avgtemp = round(runif(9, 3, 12), 0)
)

# Create wide dataset
country_wide <- data.frame(
  country = c("Sweden", "Denmark", "Norway"),
  avgtemp.1994 = country_long$avgtemp[1:3],
  avgtemp.1995 = country_long$avgtemp[4:6],
  avgtemp.1996 = country_long$avgtemp[7:9])
country_wide

```

	country	avgtemp.1994	avgtemp.1995	avgtemp.1996
1	Sweden	10	9	11
2	Denmark	6	6	3
3	Norway	6	5	8

It looks like the unit of observation is country and the variable is a combination of year and temperature.

9 Long Format

If we look at it in long format, it's a little clearer:

```
country_long
```

	country	year	avgtemp
1	Sweden	1994	10
2	Denmark	1994	6
3	Norway	1994	6
4	Sweden	1995	9
5	Denmark	1995	6
6	Norway	1995	5
7	Sweden	1996	11

8 Denmark 1996	3
9 Norway 1996	8

The variable is average temperature.

10 Country-year format

```
# change the country_long dataset to a wide dataframe with country-year as the row name and country as the column names
# combine country and year to make the row names
# avgtemp is still the variable
# 9 observations
# do not pivot wider

country_wide2 <- country_long %>%
  unite("country_year", country, year, sep = "-") %>%
  pivot_wider(names_from = country_year, values_from = avgtemp)

df_long <- country_wide2 |>
  pivot_longer(cols = everything(),
               names_to = "country_year",
               values_to = "avg_temp")

df_long <- as.data.frame(df_long)

## Create two variables - high_temp and low_temp by adding a random number between 1 and 5 to each
set.seed(123) # for reproducibility
df_long <- df_long %>%
  mutate(high_temp = avg_temp + sample(1:5, n(), replace = TRUE),
        low_temp = avg_temp - sample(1:5, n(), replace = TRUE))

# sort by country_year

df_long <- df_long %>%
  arrange(country_year)

df_long
```

country_year avg_temp high_temp low_temp

1	Denmark-1994	6	9	1
2	Denmark-1995	6	9	5
3	Denmark-1996	3	4	2
4	Norway-1994	6	8	3
5	Norway-1995	5	10	1
6	Norway-1996	8	10	3
7	Sweden-1994	10	13	7
8	Sweden-1995	9	11	6
9	Sweden-1996	11	15	10

But the unit of observation is no longer country - it is country-year.

Beware again: This is *wide format* in statistical terms. This is *long format* in R *tidyverse* nomenclature.

11 Measures of Central Tendency

Measures of central tendency help us:

- reveal patterns
- find the typical measurement
- find the center

12 Measures of Central Tendency

A few numbers that can summarize the center of measurement

- Mean
- Median
- Mode

13 Mean

- Symbol: \bar{x}
- Not the middle value
- Not the most common
- The center of mass - the sum above equals the sum below
- Formula is $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum X_i}{n}$

- Read that: The mean of X equals the sum of the observations (i) of X divided by the number (n) of observations.

14 Example A:

A. What is the mean of 1,5,7,9,10,12,18

15 Example A:

A. What is the mean of 1,5,7,9,10,12,18

```
A <- c(1,5,7,9,10,12,18)

answer_a1 <- (sum(A)/7)

answer_a2 <- mean(A)

# label this as "produced by sum function" and "produced by mean function"

paste("Mean produced by sum function:", answer_a1)
```

[1] "Mean produced by sum function: 8.85714285714286"

```
paste("Mean produced by mean function:", answer_a2)
```

[1] "Mean produced by mean function: 8.85714285714286"

16 Example A:

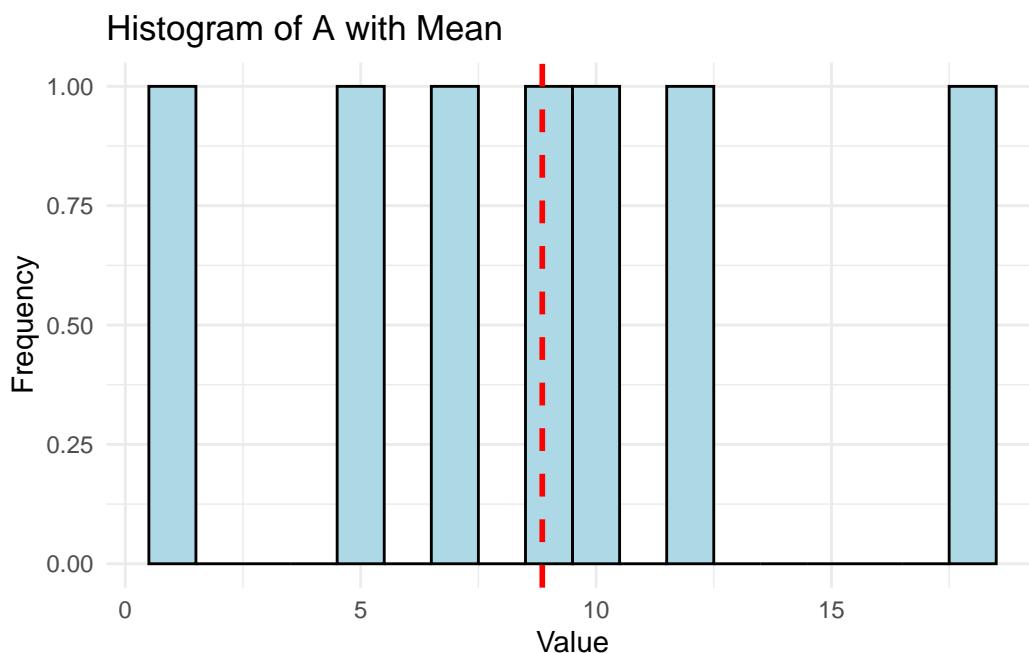
A. What is the mean of 1,5,7,9,10,12,18

Center of mass

```
# demonstrate how the mean is the center of mass with ggplot

library(ggplot2)
df_a <- data.frame(x = A)
ggplot(df_a, aes(x = x)) +
  geom_histogram(binwidth = 1, fill = "lightblue", color = "black") +
  geom_vline(aes(xintercept = mean(x)), color = "red", linetype = "dashed", size = 1) +
  labs(title = "Histogram of A with Mean", x = "Value", y = "Frequency") +
  theme_minimal()
```

Warning: Using `size` aesthetic for lines was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.0.
i Please use `linewidth` instead.



17 Example B

- B. What is the mean of 10,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,75

18 Example B

- B. What is the mean of 10,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,75

```
B <- c(10,20,30,35,40,45,50,75,25)

mean_b1 <- (sum(B)/9)

mean_b2 <- mean(B)

mean_b1
```

[1] 36.66667

```
mean_b2
```

[1] 36.66667

19 Median

- Midpoint
- Half observations are greater, half are lower
- Just count
- Even observations - midpoint between middle two

20 Example A

A - 1,5,7,9,10,12,18

21 Example A:

A. What is the mean of 1,5,7,9,10,12,18

```
# label this as "median of A"

paste("Median of A:", median(A))
```

[1] "Median of A: 9"

22 Example B

B - 10,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,75

23 Example B

B - 10,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,75

```
# label this as "median of B"  
paste("Median of B:", median(B))
```

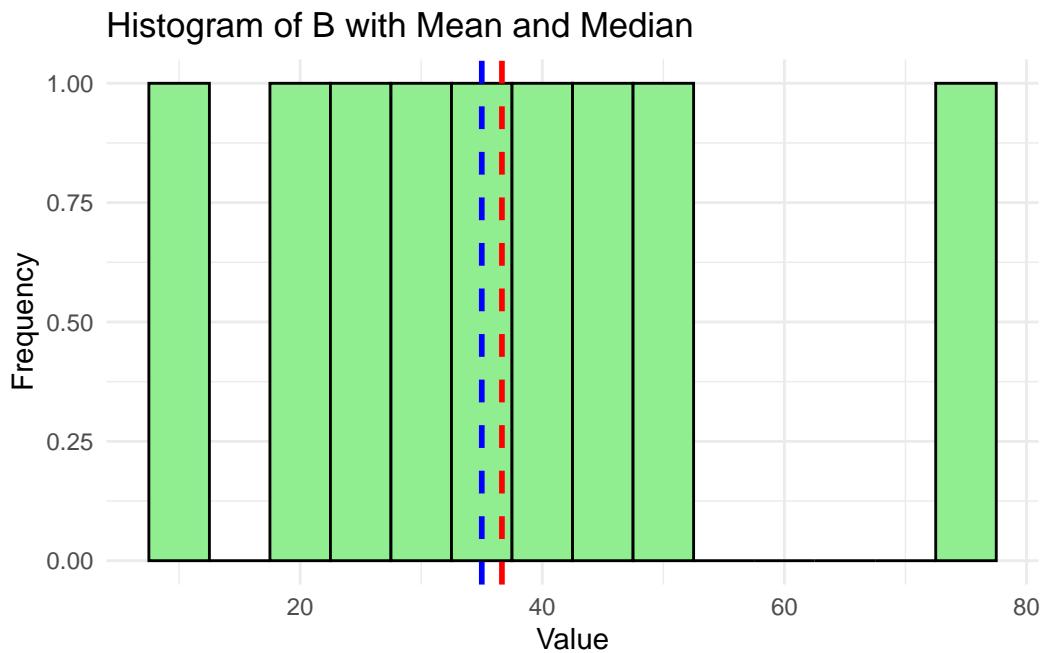
[1] "Median of B: 35"

24 Example B

B - 10,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,75

Midpoint and Center of Mass

```
# demonstrate how the midpoint and center of mass are different with ggplot  
  
library(ggplot2)  
df_b <- data.frame(x = B)  
ggplot(df_b, aes(x = x)) +  
  geom_histogram(binwidth = 5, fill = "lightgreen", color = "black") +  
  geom_vline(aes(xintercept = mean(x)), color = "red", linetype = "dashed", size = 1) +  
  geom_vline(aes(xintercept = median(x)), color = "blue", linetype = "dashed", size = 1) +  
  labs(title = "Histogram of B with Mean and Median", x = "Value", y = "Frequency") +  
  theme_minimal()
```



25 Keep in mind for later

In both of our examples, the mean and median were close but not the same. That isn't always the case.

26 Mode

- Most common value
- Just count

27 Examples:

C. 1,2,3,4,4,5,6,7

Answer:

D. 10,20,30,30,40,40,40,50,50,50,60,70

Answer:

28 Advantages and disadvantages

- Median isn't affected by outliers
- Mean gives the broader picture because it includes the outliers.
- Mode is the only option for *categorical variables*.

29 Variable Types

- Categorical (nominal, ordinal)
- Numerical (interval, ratio)

30 Variable Type Examples: Categorical

- Nominal (Order is meaningless)
 - Gender
 - Race
 - Religion
 - Democrat vs Republican (also binary)
- Ordinal (ORDer matters)
 - Education level
 - Income brackets
 - Likert scale responses
- Binary
 - Yes/No
 - 0/1
 - True/False

31 Variable Type Examples: Numerical

- Interval (equal intervals, no true zero) *
 - Temperature (Celsius, Fahrenheit)
 - IQ scores
 - Calendar years
- Ratio (equal intervals, true zero) *
 - Height
 - Weight
 - Age
 - Income
 - Kelvin temperature
- Discrete (countable values)
 - Number of children
 - Number of countries in a trade agreement
 - Battle deaths in a conflict

32 Social Science examples

- V-Dem v2x_libdem → ratio (0-1, true zero = no polyarchy) *
- Polity2 score (-10 to 10) → interval (0 not “no democracy”) *
- Country GDP → ratio *
- Year → interval
- Battle deaths (COW) → ratio/discrete *
- is_autocracy (0/1) → binary/categorical
- regime_type (dem/au/other) → nominal categorical
- freedom_level (low/med/high) → ordinal categorical

33 Skewed distribution - when mean and median are different

The three numbers are often different for the same sample or population.

Example:

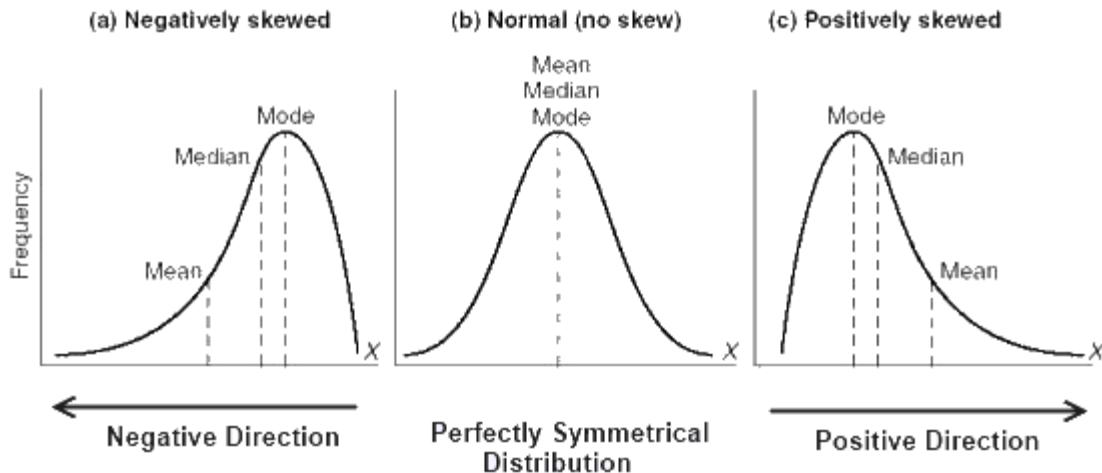


Figure 1: Negatively skewed, Normal, and Positively Skewed distributions

34 Authorship and License

- Author: Tom Hanna
- Website: tomhanna.me

skewed distribution source: Statistics by Jim

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