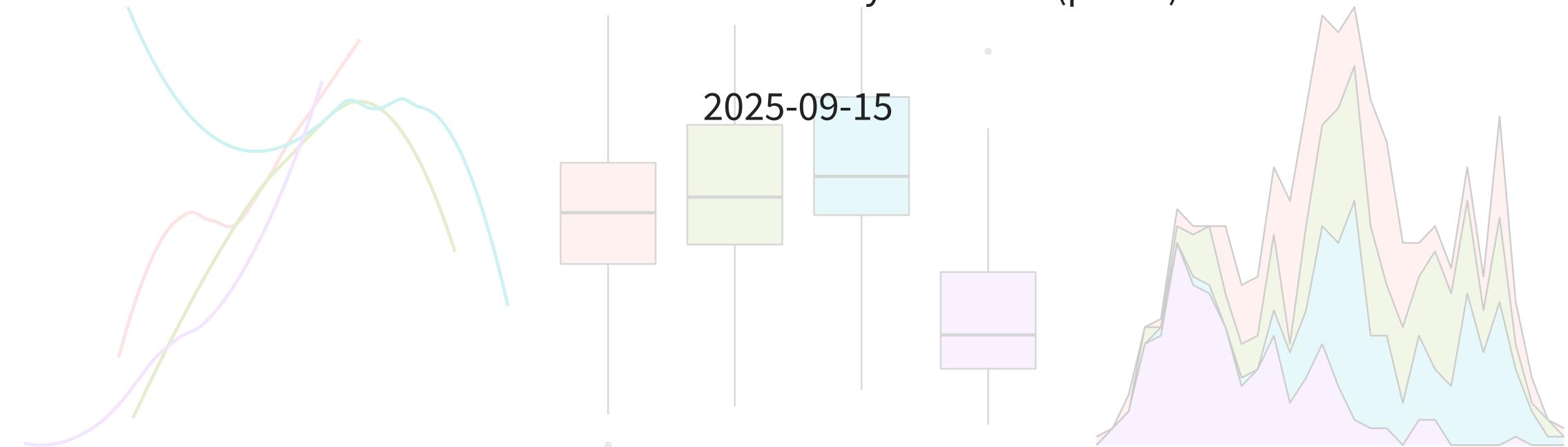


# Numerical data

Visualization and summary statistics (part 1)



# Housekeeping

- Where to find feedback on coding practice
- Problem set 1 due tonight!
- Office hours today 2-3pm
- Activity!

# Variables types

- Variables can be broadly broken into two categories: numerical (quantitative) or categorical (qualitative)
- **Numerical** variables take a wide range of numerical values, and it is sensible to add/subtract/do mathematical operations with those values. Two types:
  1. **Discrete** if it can only take on finitely many numerical values within a given interval
  2. **Continuous** if it can take on any infinitely many values within a given interval
- **Categorical** variables are essentially everything else (more on this next week!)
- Examples and non-examples?

# Example

We will be looking at some medical insurance data throughout these slides.

Which of the following variables are numerical? Which are discrete vs. continuous?

Show 5 entries Search:

	age	sex	bmi	children	smoker	region	charges
1	19	female	27.9	0	yes	southwest	16884.924
2	18	male	33.77	1	no	southeast	1725.5523
3	28	male	33	3	no	southeast	4449.462
4	33	male	22.705	0	no	northwest	21984.47061
5	32	male	28.88	0	no	northwest	3866.8552

Showing 1 to 5 of 200 entries

# Summary statistics for numerical data

# Condensing information

- We often care about variable's **distribution**: the different values the variable can take on along with how often
- Rather than provide someone with an entire dataset, it is more useful to provide quick "snapshot" information
- Two pieces of quantitative information that describe a distribution:
  - Center
  - Spread

# Mean

- Most common way to measure the center of the distribution of a numerical variable is using the **mean** (also called the **average**)
- **Sample mean:** a mean calculated using sampled data. The sample mean is typically denoted as  $\bar{x}$ 
  - $x$  is a placeholder for the variable of interest (e.g. **BMI**, **charges**)
  - The bar communicates that we are looking at the average
- The sample mean is the sum over all the observed values of the variable, divided by total number of observations  $n$ :

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

# Mean (cont.)

- The sample mean  $\bar{x}$  is an example of a sample statistic
- The mean over the entire population is an example of a population parameter. The **population mean** is denoted  $\mu$  (Greek letter mu)
  - The sample mean  $\bar{x}$  is often used as an estimate for  $\mu$  (more on this in a few weeks!)

# Examples

- Let's calculate the sample mean weight of a piece of candy in our bag. Let  $x$  be the weight of a candy.

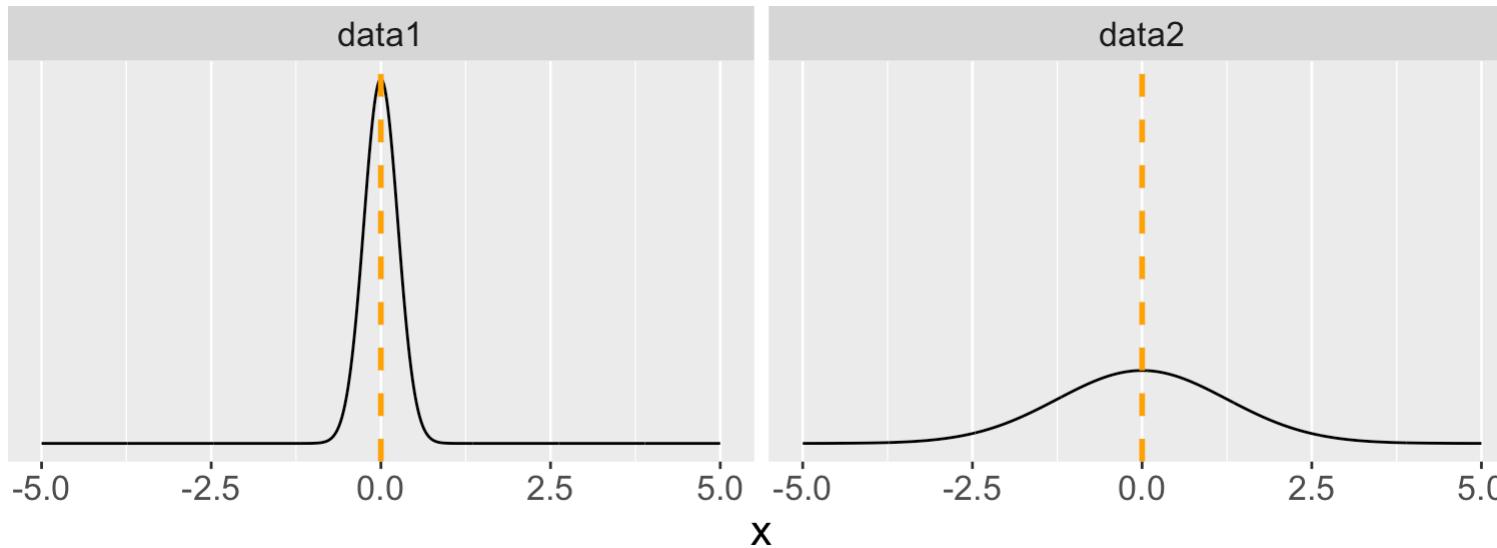
■ Calculate your  $\bar{x}$

- How would we obtain the population mean  $\mu$ ?

- What is the average of the following values? 1, 4, 4
- If instead there were ten 1's and twenty 4's, would the average be the same?
- Thus, we see that means depend on proportions!

# Variability

- At the heart of statistics is also the **variability** or spread of the distribution of the variable
- We will work with variance and standard deviation, which are ways to describe how spread out data are *from their mean*



# Deviation

We begin with **deviation**, which is the distance or difference between an observation from the (sample) mean

- How might we write this using statistical notation?
- Let's write out the deviations of your five sampled weights

# Variance and standard deviation

- The **sample variance**  $s^2$  squares the deviations and takes an average:

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

- Let's talk about this notation and intuition behind this formula. In particular, there are at least two things to note
- Set-up the calculation of the sample variance of your sample
  - I will calculate this in **R**
- The **sample standard deviation**  $s$  is the simply the square root of the sample variance ( $s = \sqrt{s^2}$ )

# Variance and standard deviation (cont.)

- Like the mean, the population values for variance and standard deviation are denoted with Greek letters:
  - $\sigma$  for population standard deviation (Greek letter “sigma”)
  - $\sigma^2$  for population variance
- If the calculation of standard deviation is a more complicated quantity than the variance, why do we bother with standard deviation?

# Live code

Functions to calculate sample mean, variance, and standard deviation in [R](#). Each expects a vector of numerical values as input:

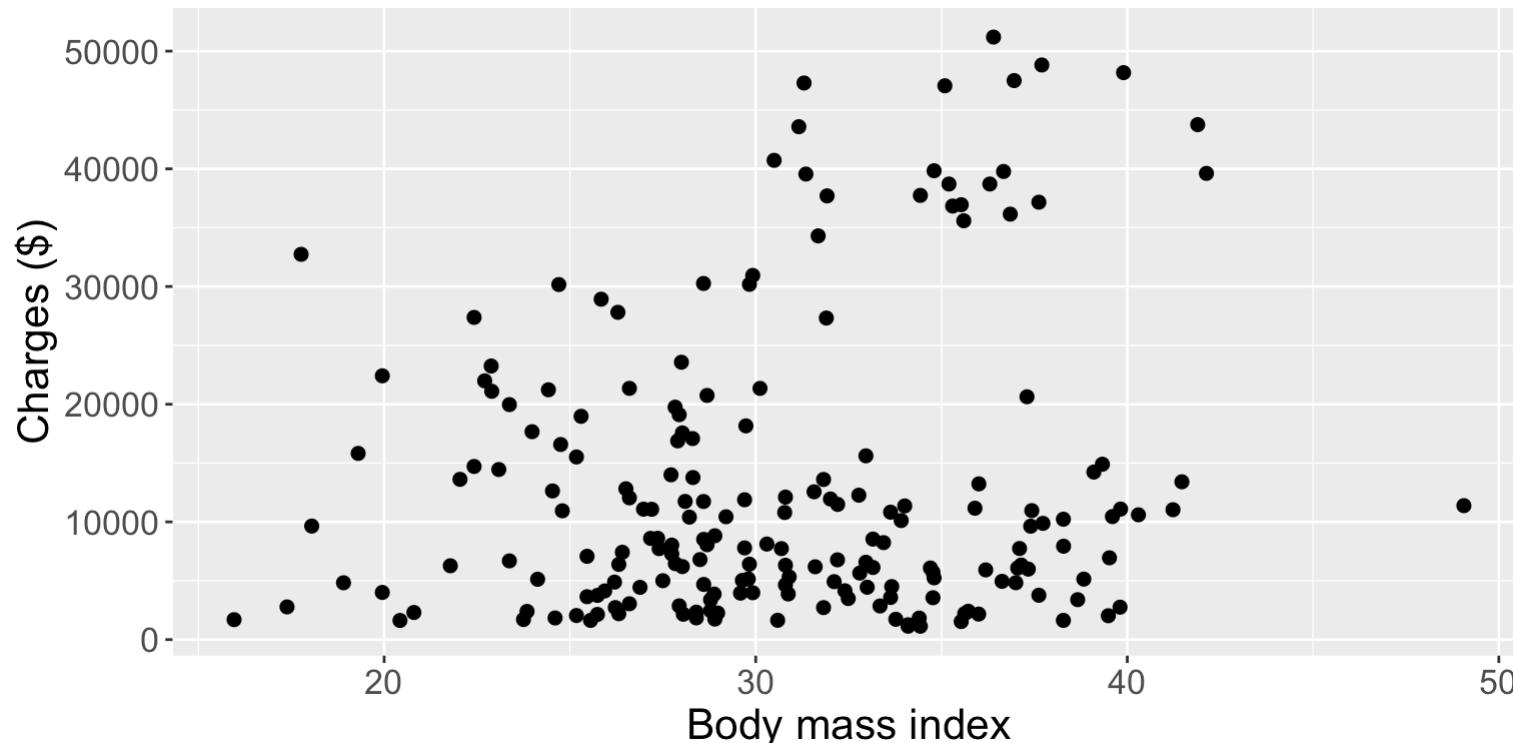
- `mean()`
- `var()`
- `sd()`

# Visualizing numerical data

# Scatterplots

Scatterplots are *bivariate* (two-variable) visualizations that provide a case-by-case view of the data for **two numerical variables**

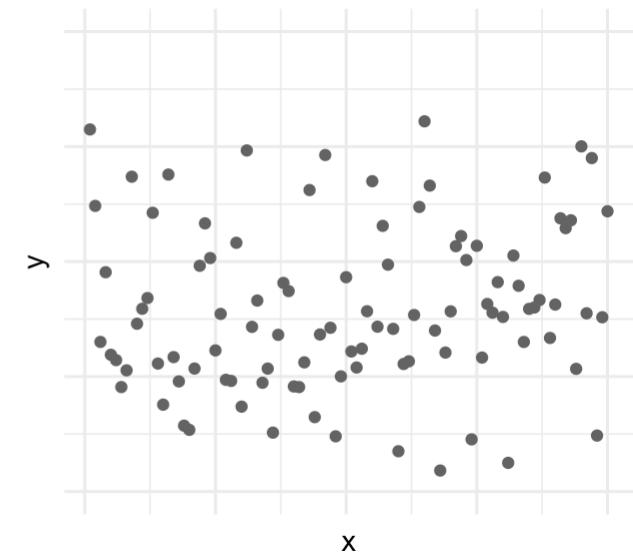
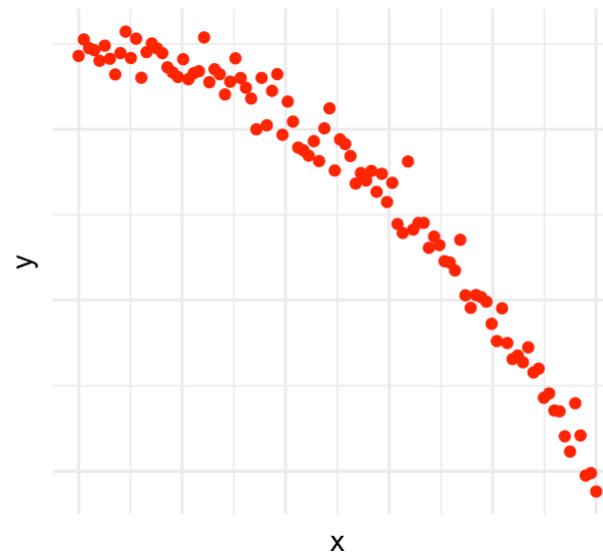
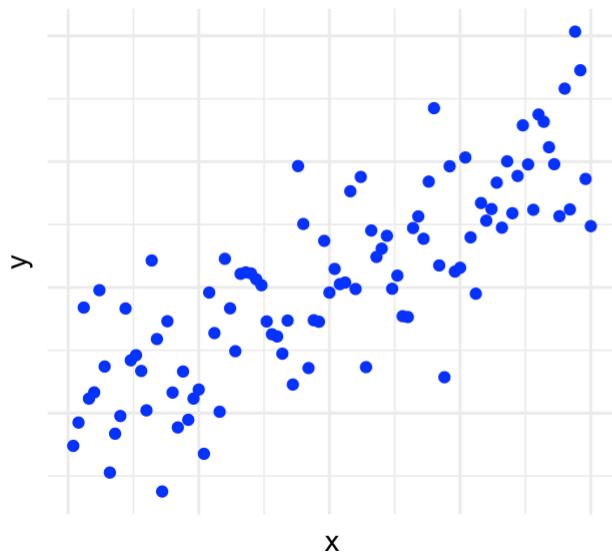
- Each point represents the observed pair of values of variables 1 and 2 for a case in the dataset



# Scatterplots (cont.)

Use scatterplots to reveal:

- **Association** (positive, negative, none), and if there is an association:
  - The **strength** (very weak to very strong)
  - The **type** of association (e.g. linear, quadratic)



- If there is a notion of explanatory and response, the explanatory goes on  $x$ -axis!

# Visualizing univariate numerical data

- To visualize the distribution (i.e. behavior) of a *single* variable, we could create a dot plot where:
  - Each case is plotted on a horizontal axis as a dot
  - Values that appear multiple times in the dataset would have stacked dots
- We can make a dot plot from our activity
- Pros and cons?

# Binning

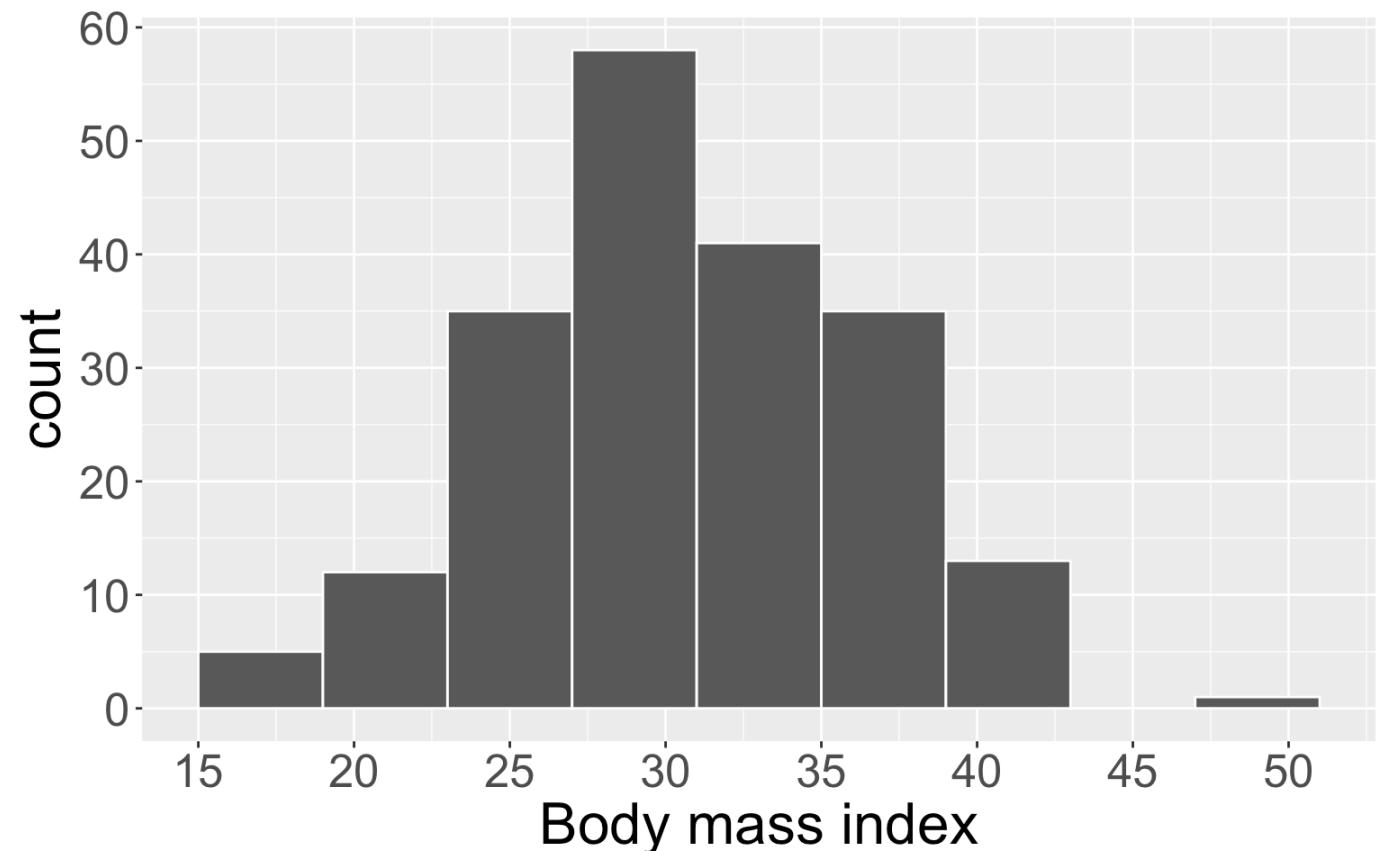
- We will sacrifice precision for convenience by *binning*:
  - Segment the variable into equal-sized bins
  - Visualize the value of each observation using its corresponding bin
- For example, the `bmi` variable has observed values of 15.96 through 49.6. Consider the following bins of size 5: [15, 19), [19, 23), [23, 27), ..., [49, 53)
  - Convention of left or right inclusive?
- We tabulate/count up the number of observations that fall into each bin.

# Histograms

**Histograms** are visualizations that display the binned counts as bars for each bin.

- Histograms provide a view of the **density** of the data (the values the data take on as well as how often)

bmi_bin	count
[15, 19)	5
[19, 23)	12
[23, 27)	35
[27, 31)	58
[31, 35)	41
[35, 39)	35
[39, 43)	13
[49, 52)	1





# Describing distributions

A convenient way to describe a variable's behavior is through the *shape* of its distribution. Using histograms, we should identify:

## 1. Skewness (or lack thereof):

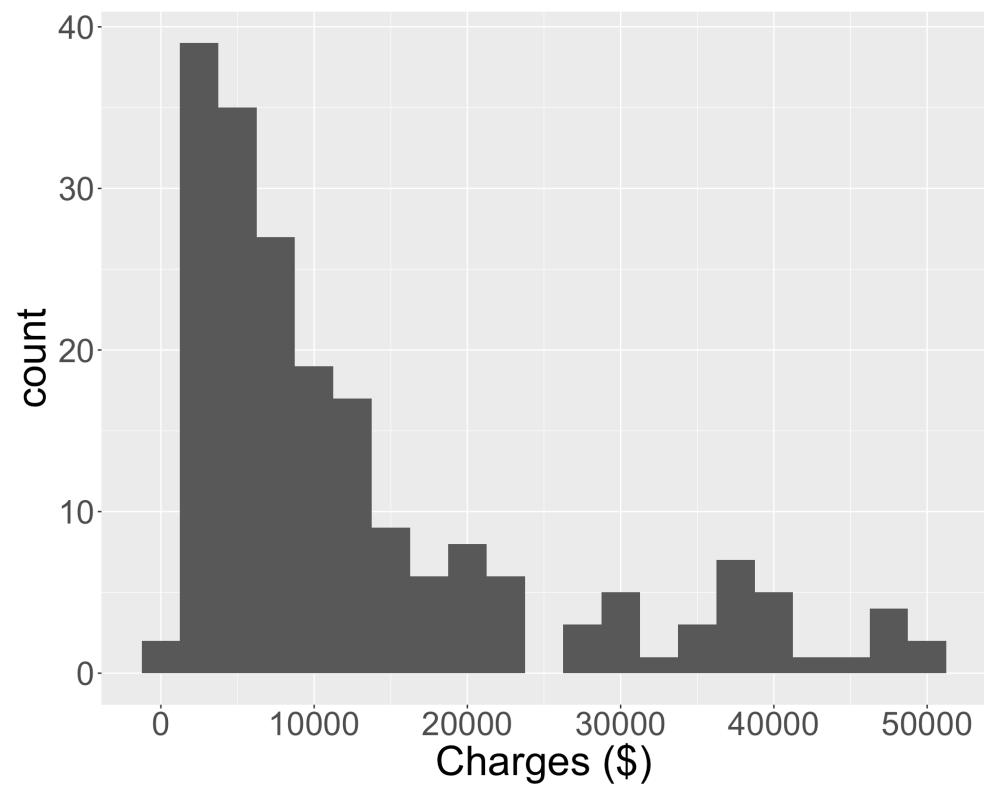
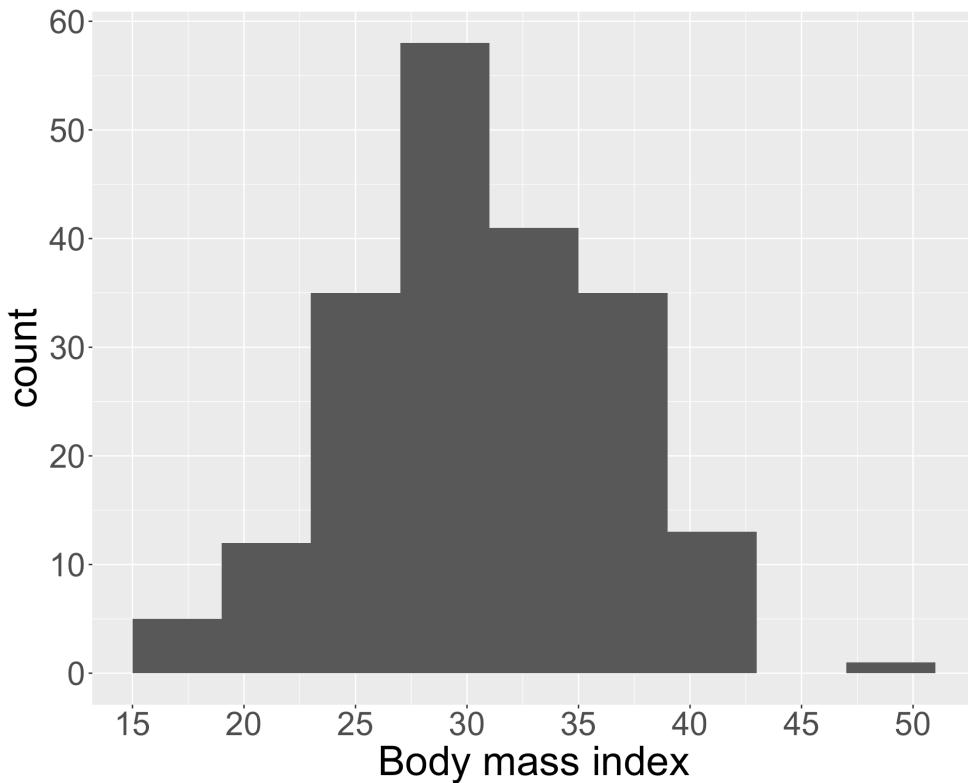
- Distributions with long tails to the left are called **left-skewed**
- Distributions with long tails to the right are **right-skewed**
- If not skewed, then the distribution is **symmetric**

## 2. Modes: prominent peaks in the distribution

- Distribution may be **unimodal** (one peak), **bimodal** (two peaks), or **multimodal** (more than two peaks)
- Peaks need not be same height

# Histograms (cont.)

How would you describe the shape (i.e. skewness and modality) of the distributions in the following two histograms?



# Creating visualizations

Working in your groups:

1. Using a histogram, visualize the distribution of the sample mean weights from our activity
2. Convince yourselves as a group: what does a case represent in this data?
3. Describe the shape of your distribution (i.e. skewness and modality)
4. Obtain the sample mean and standard deviation of the sample means