

Chapter I

Introduction to data



Boston housing data

```
library(mlbench)
data(BostonHousing2)
```

Consider the following dataset:

The Boston house-price data of Harrison, D. and Rubinfeld, D.L

	crim	chas	...	age	town	rad	medv
1	0.00632	0	...	65.2	Nahant	1	24.0
2	0.02731	0	...	78.9	Swampscott	2	21.6
3	0.02729	1	...	61.1	Swampscott	2	34.7
4	0.03237	0	...	45.8	Marblehead	6	33.4
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
505	0.10959	1	...	89.3	Winthrop	1	22.0
506	0.04741	0	...	80.8	Winthrop	1	11.9



Boston housing data

1
2
3
4
...
505
506

506
observations
506 census tracts



Boston housing data

	crim	chas	...	age	town	rad	medv
1	0.00632	0	...	65.2	Nahant	1	24.0
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3	0.02729	1	...	61.1	Swampscott	2	34.7
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Boston housing data

	crim	chas	...	age	town	rad	medv
--	------	------	-----	-----	------	-----	------

We see 6 **variables**



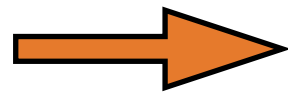
Types of variables

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2	0.02731	0	...	78.9	Swampscott	2	21.6
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...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
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506	0.04741	0	...	80.8	Winthrop	1	11.9



Types of variables

crim
0.00632
0.02731
0.02729
0.03237
...
0.10959
0.04741

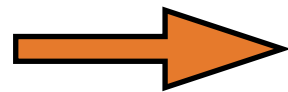


variable **crim**:
——— [per capita crime rate



Types of variables

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0.02731
0.02729
0.03237
...
0.10959
0.04741



variable **crim**:

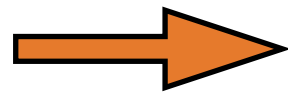
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?BostonHousing2



Types of variables

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0.02731
0.02729
0.03237
...
0.10959
0.04741



variable **crim**:

— [per capita crime rate

?BostonHousing2

- Numerical (it's a number)
- Continuous (can take potentially a continuum of values)

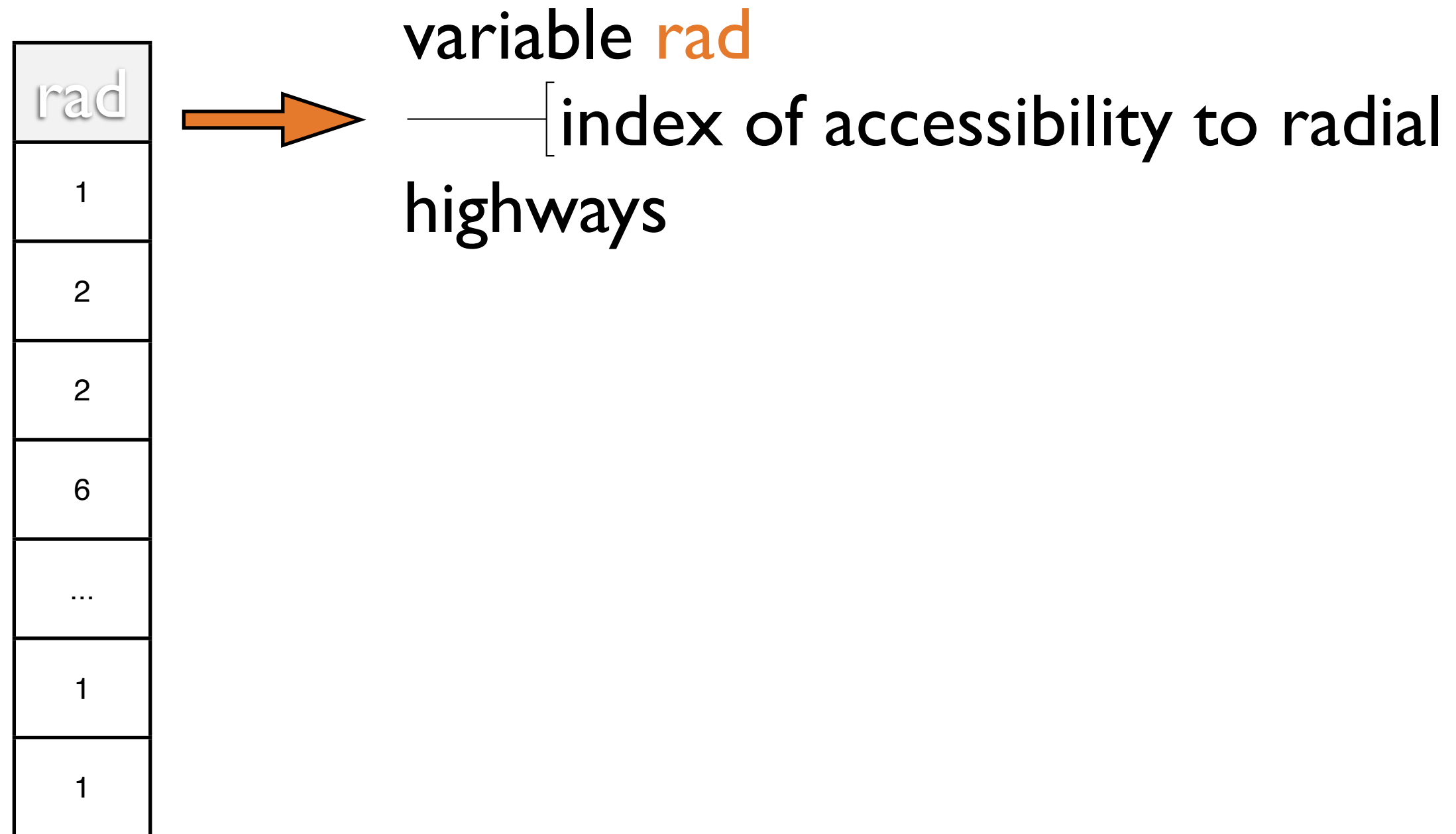


Types of variables

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...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
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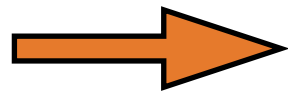


Types of variables



Types of variables

rad
1
2
2
6
...
1
1



variable **rad**

— [index of accessibility to radial highways]

- Numerical (it's a number)
- Discrete (can take only a discrete set of values. Here: 6 or more)

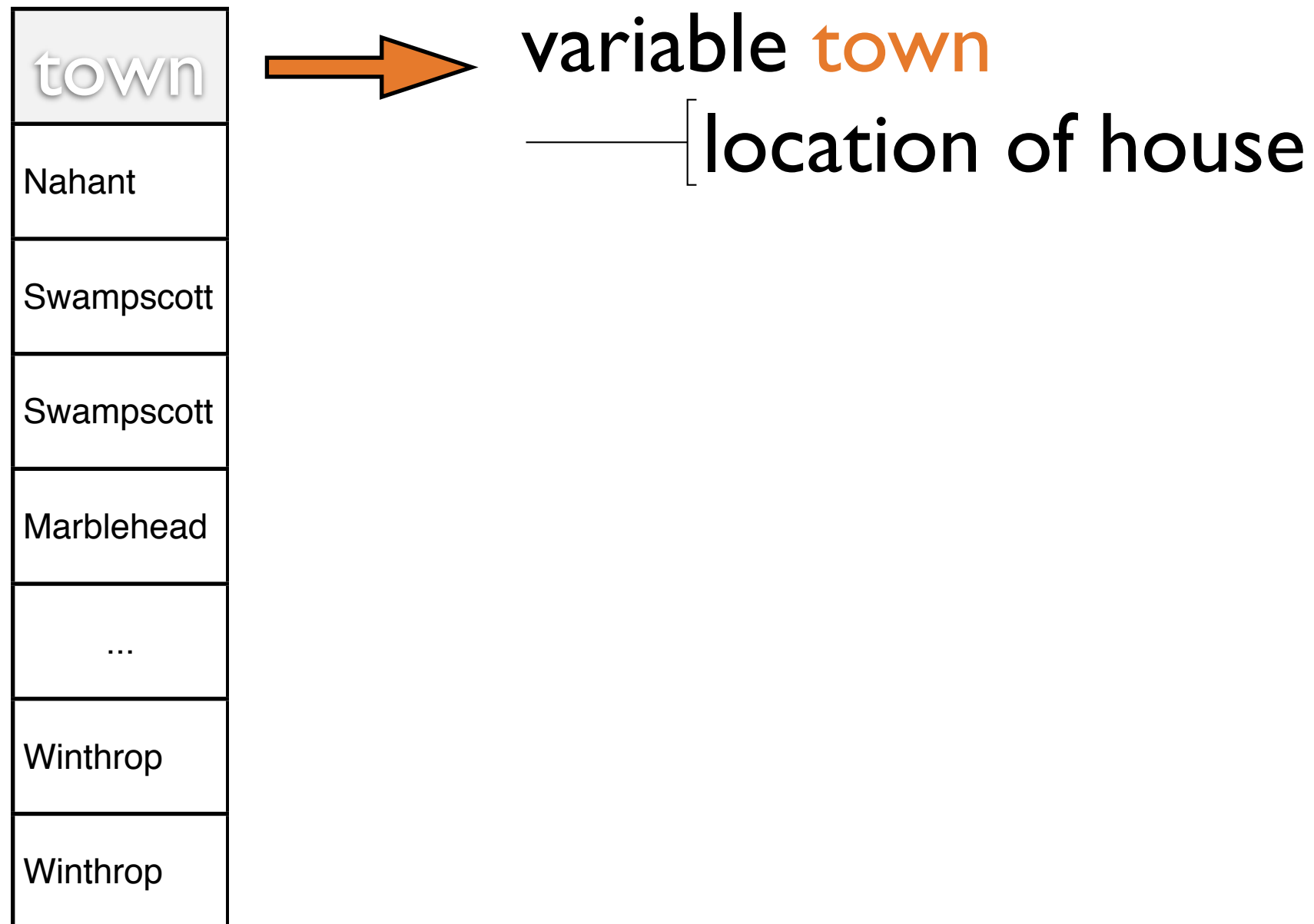


Types of variables

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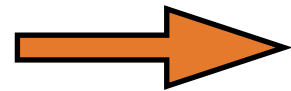


Types of variables



Types of variables

town
Nahant
Swampscott
Swampscott
Marblehead
...
Winthrop
Winthrop



variable **town**

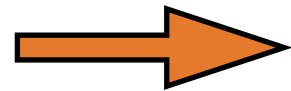
— [location of house

- Categorical (it's a label)



Types of variables

town
Nahant
Swampscott
Swampscott
Marblehead
...
Winthrop
Winthrop



variable **town**

— [location of house

- Categorical (it's a label)

Categorical variables are ALWAYS discrete.
The discrete/continuous distinction is made
only for numerical variables



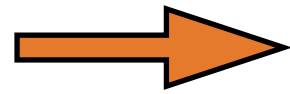
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505	0.10959	1	...	89.3	Winthrop	1	22.0
506	0.04741	0	...	80.8	Winthrop	1	11.9



Types of variables

chas
0
0
1
0
...
1
0



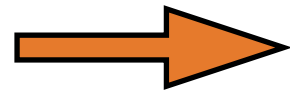
variable **chas**:

— [Charles River (= 1 if tract
bounds river; 0 otherwise)



Types of variables

chas
0
0
1
0
...
1
0



variable **chas**:

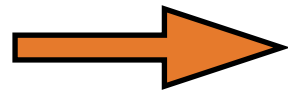
— [Charles River (= 1 if tract
bounds river; 0 otherwise)

- Numerical (it's a number)
- Discrete (can take only a discrete set of values. Here: 2)



Types of variables

chas
0
0
1
0
...
1
0



variable **chas**:

— [Charles River (= 1 if tract
bounds river; 0 otherwise)

- Numerical (it's a number)
- Discrete (can take only a discrete set of values. Here: 2)
- Could also be considered **categorical**
- Categories: YES or NO



Types of variables

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Types of variables

medv
24.0
21.6
34.7
33.4
...
22.0
11.9



variable **medv**:

— [median value of owner-occupied homes in USD 1000's

What type of variable is it?



Variables relationships

What is the variable of interest here?

Questions we may ask:

- Are houses on the river more expensive?
- Does the crime rate impact the value?
- Is the crime rate affected by the index **rad**?
- Is the town of **winthrop** more expensive than **nahant**?

```
attach(BostonHousing2)
mean(medv[town=="Winthrop"])
mean(medv[town=="Nahant"])
```



Variables relationships

What is the variable of interest here?

medv

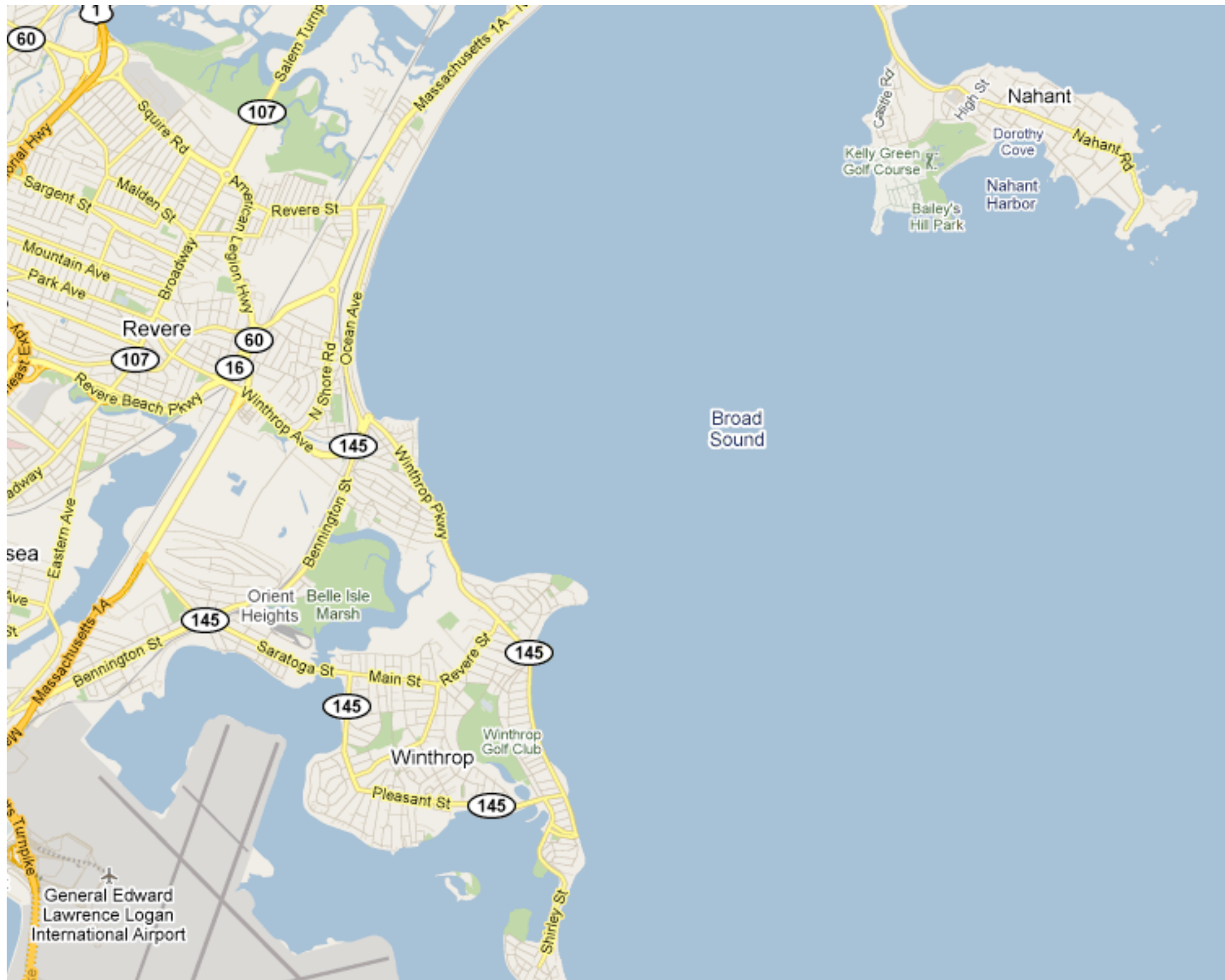
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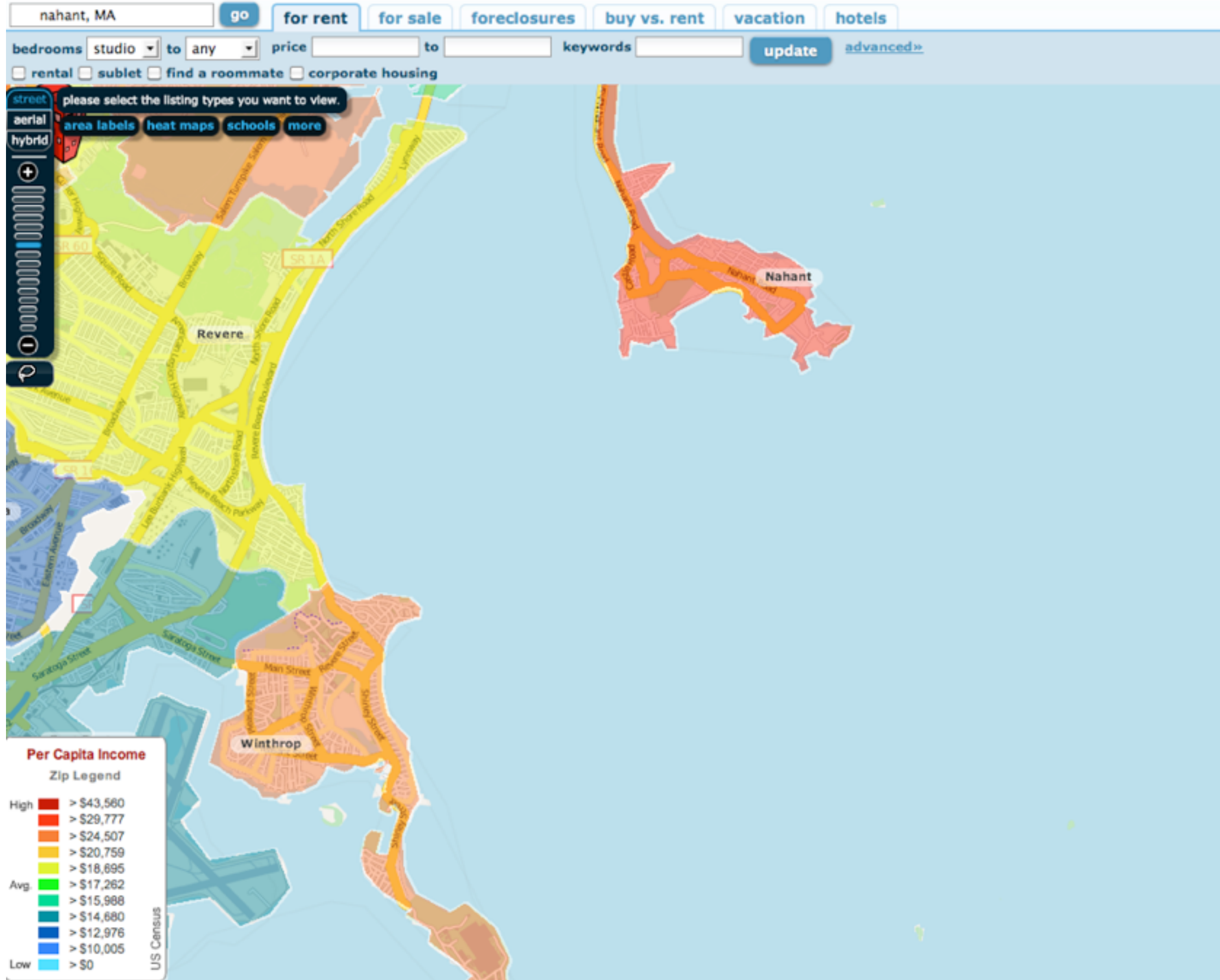
- Are houses on the river more expensive?
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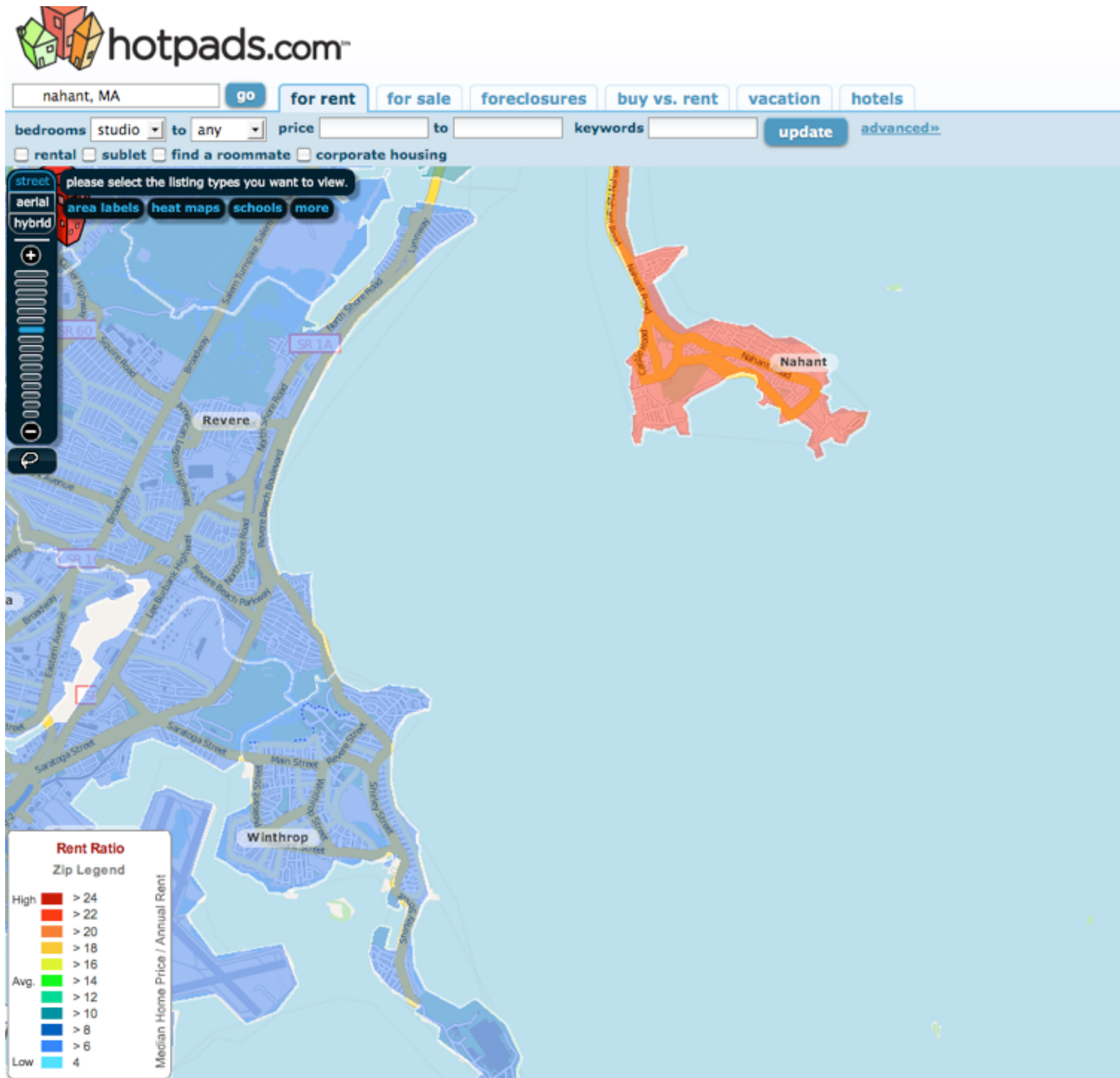
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mean(medv[town=="Winthrop"])
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Variables relationships

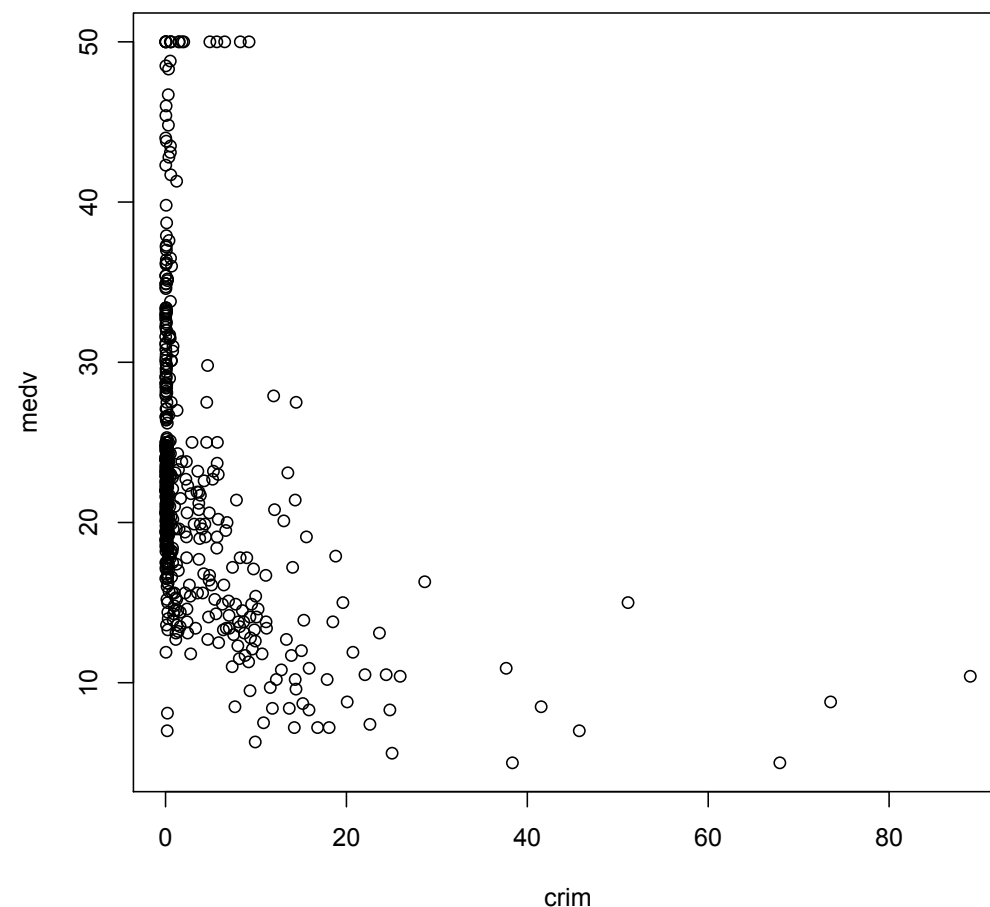






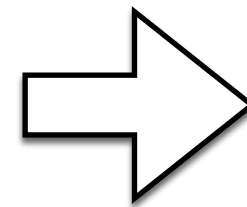
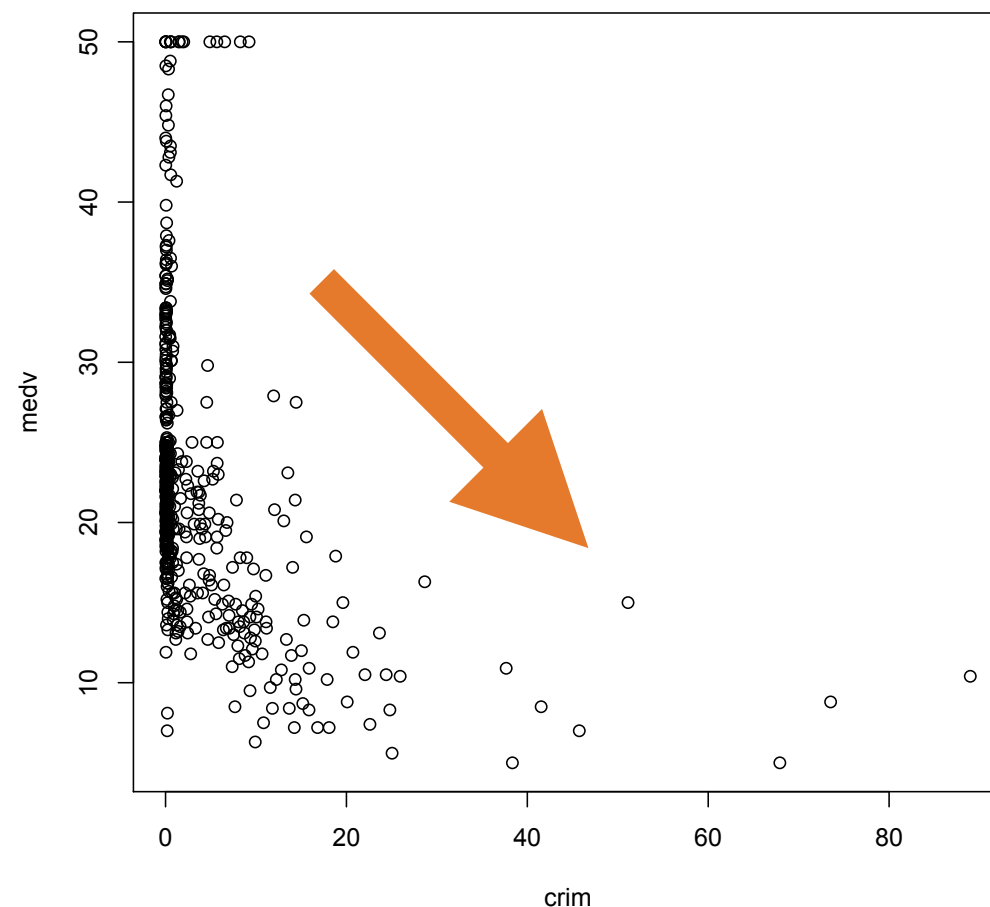
Associated and independent variables

Two variables are **associated** if one affects the other (which affects which does not matter)



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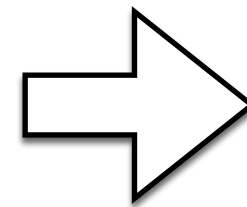
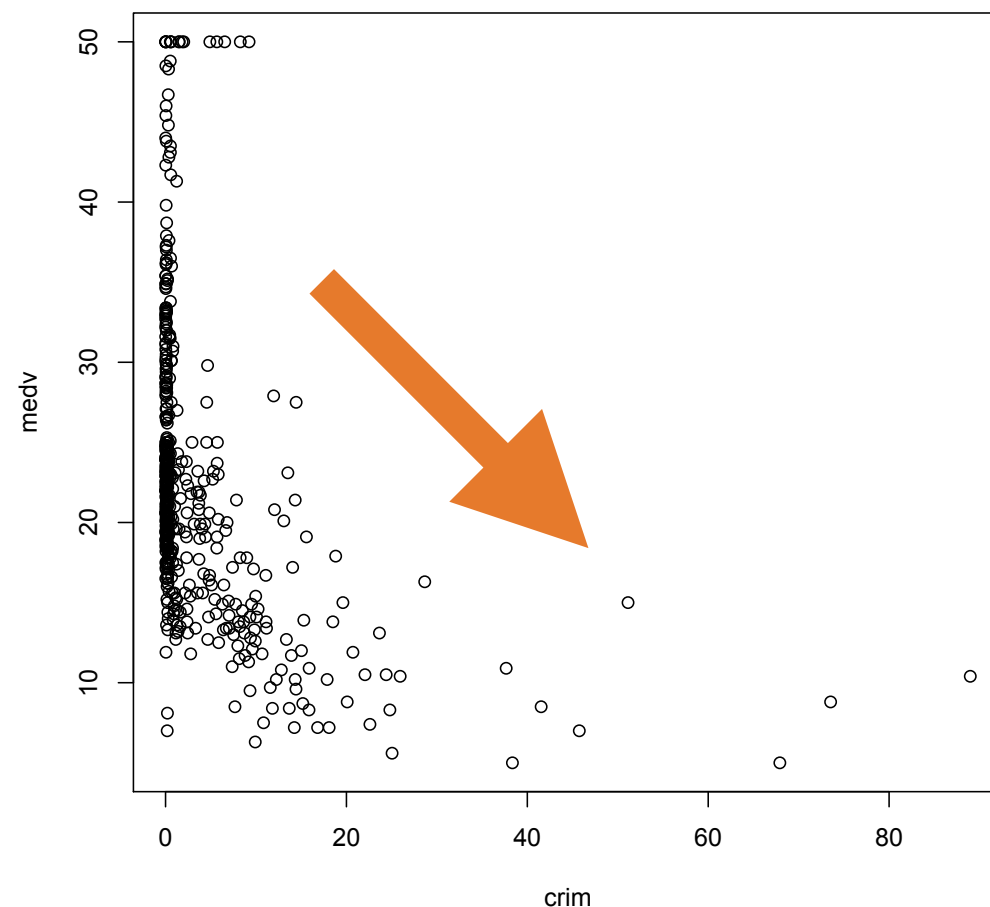


**Negative
association**



Associated and independent variables

Two variables are **associated** if one affects the other (which affects which does not matter)



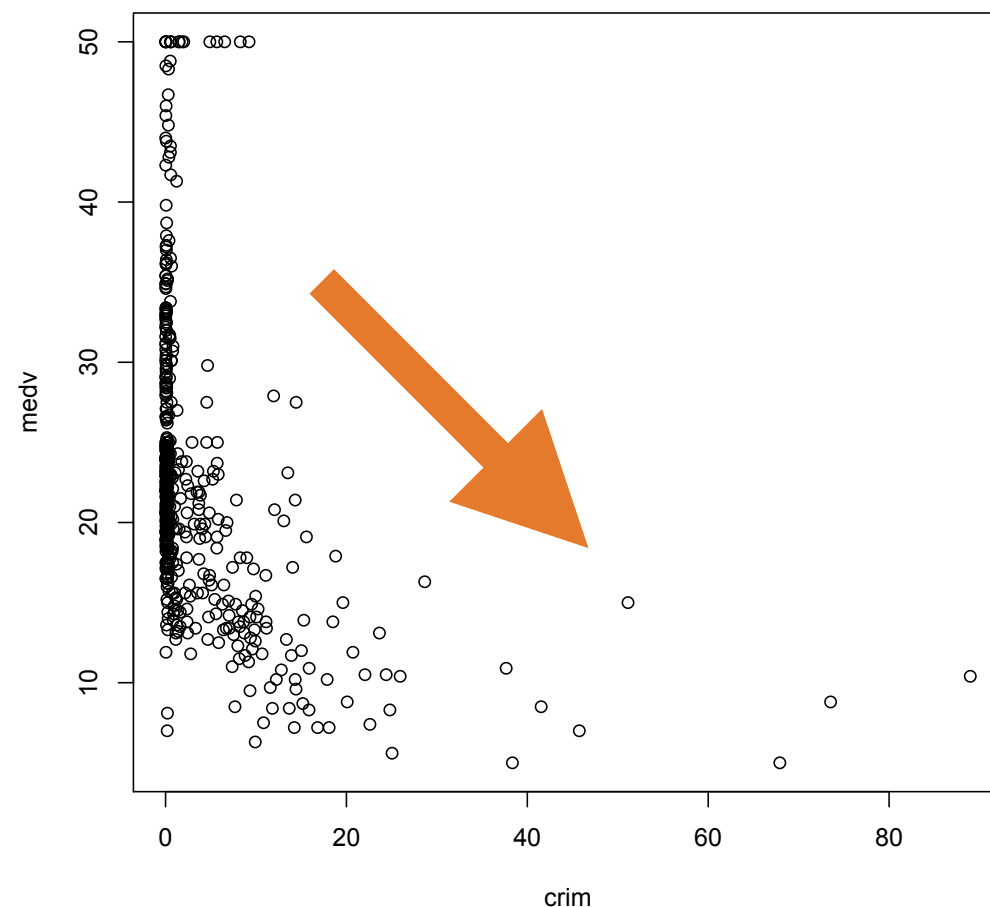
**Negative
association**

If not associated: **independent**



Associated and independent variables

Two variables are **associated** if one affects the other (which affects which does not matter)



Negative
association

This is a **scatterplot**
`plot(crim, medv)`

If not associated: **independent**



Summarizing **numerical** data

The nice things about numerical data:

1. We can add (average) them
2. There is a natural order

We will consider two types of summaries

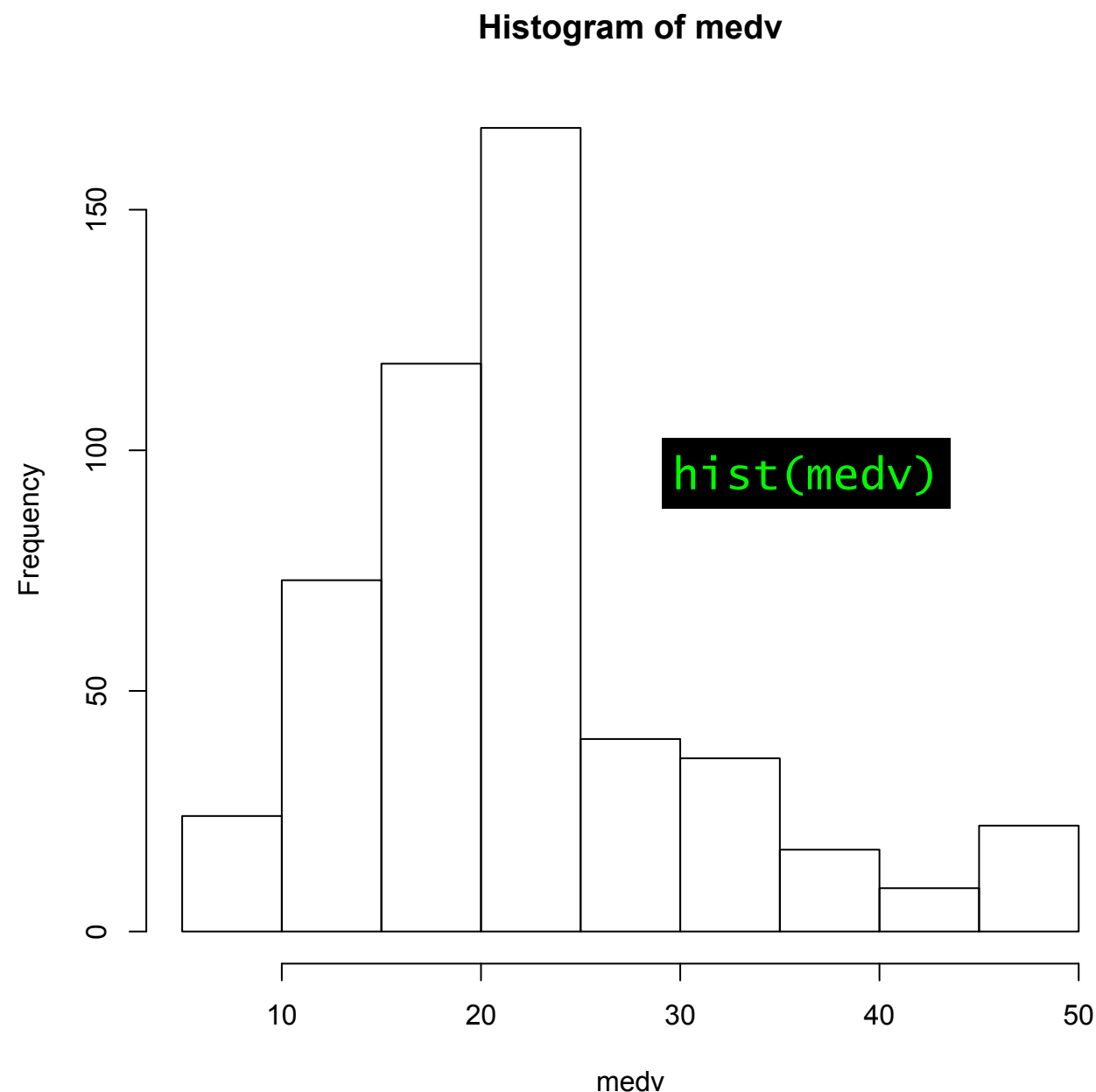
- **Numerical**: mean, median, standard deviation, quantiles
- **Graphical**: scatter plots, boxplots.

They give the “big picture” about the dataset.
Hereafter, we work on the variable **medv**



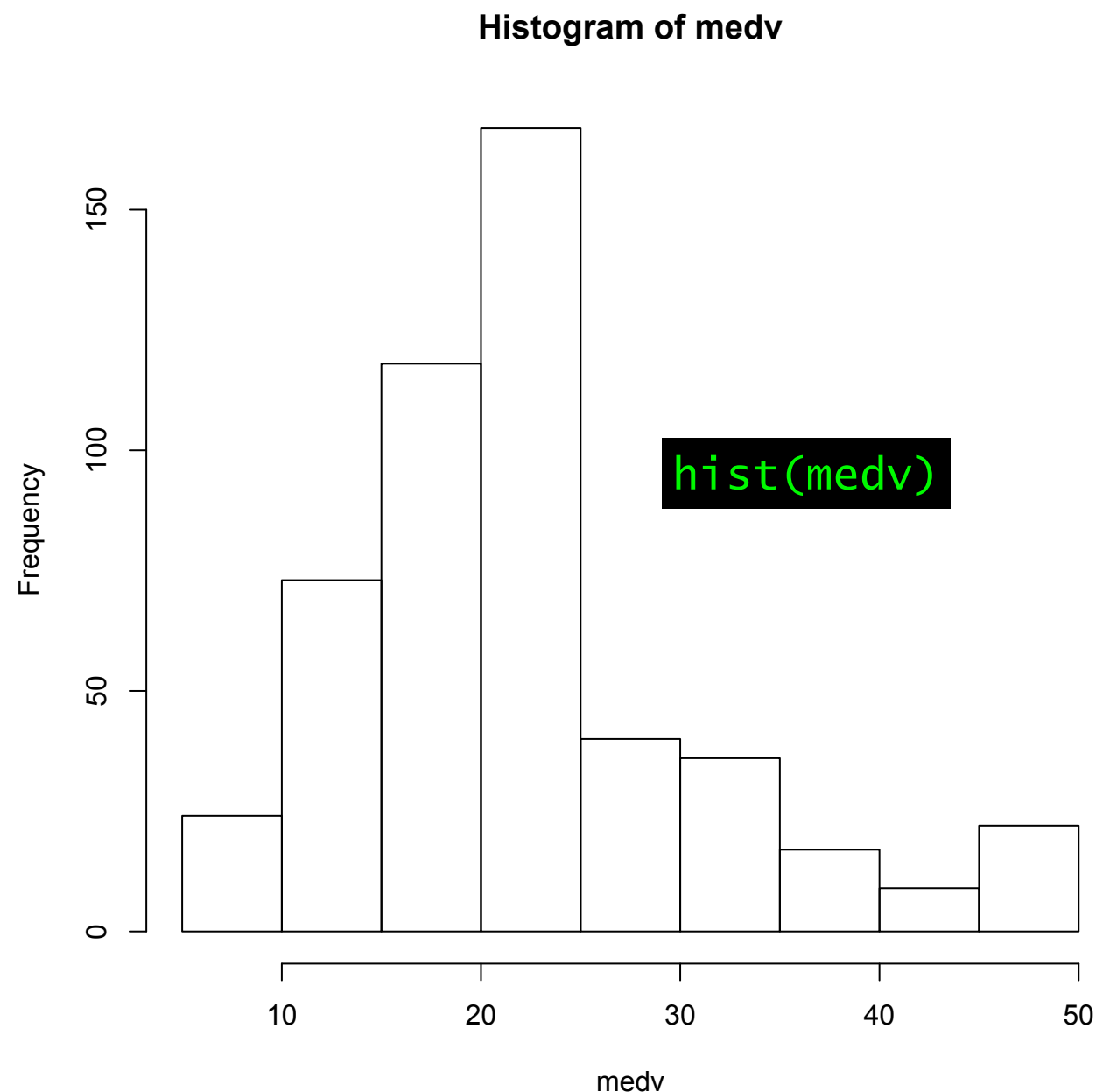
Histograms

- A histogram is probably the most informative graphical summary about a variable.



Histograms

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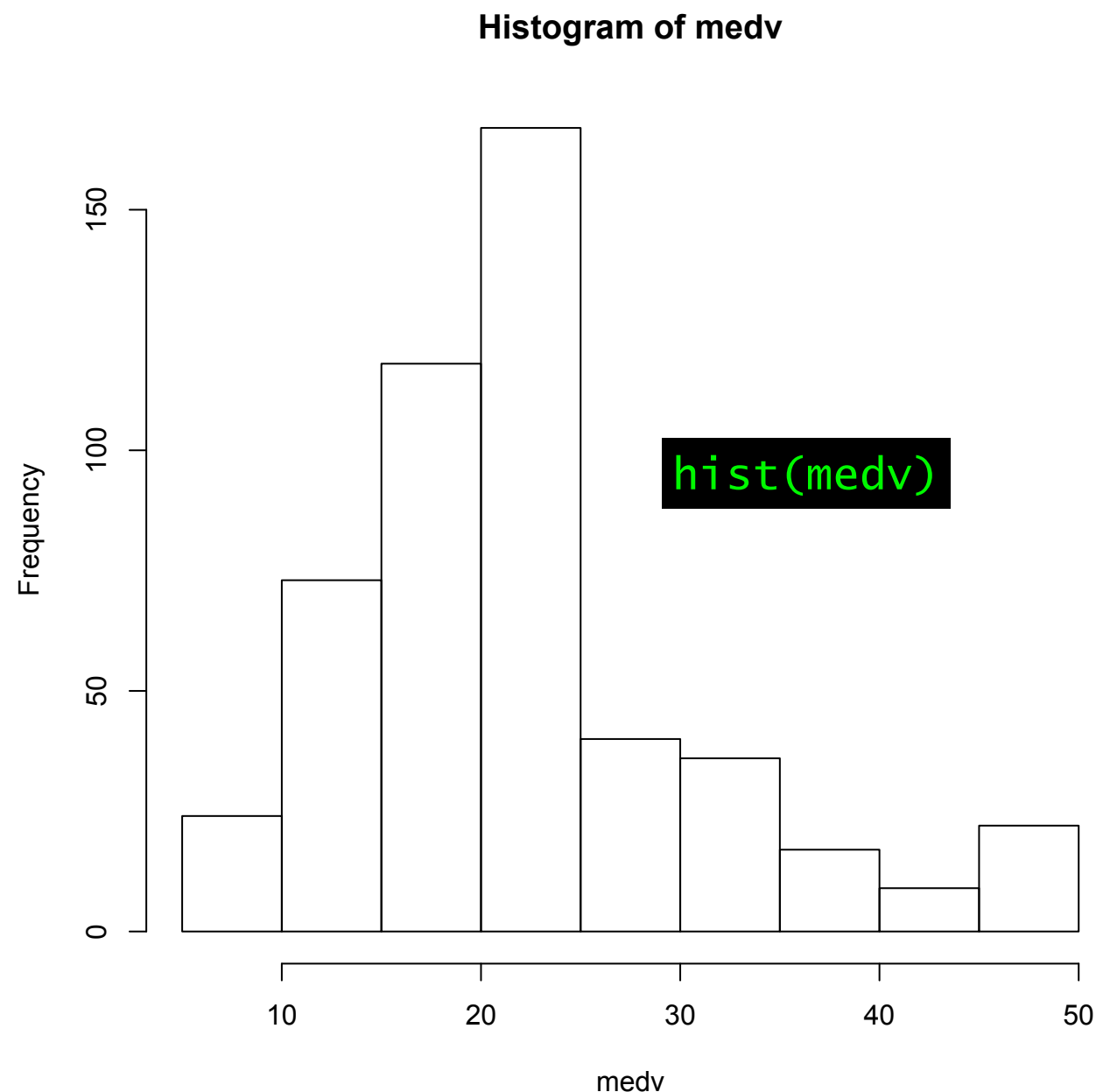
Comments:

- Peak in 20-25
- 25 seems to be a cut-off
- Few houses below 10



Histograms

- A histogram is probably the most informative graphical summary about a variable.



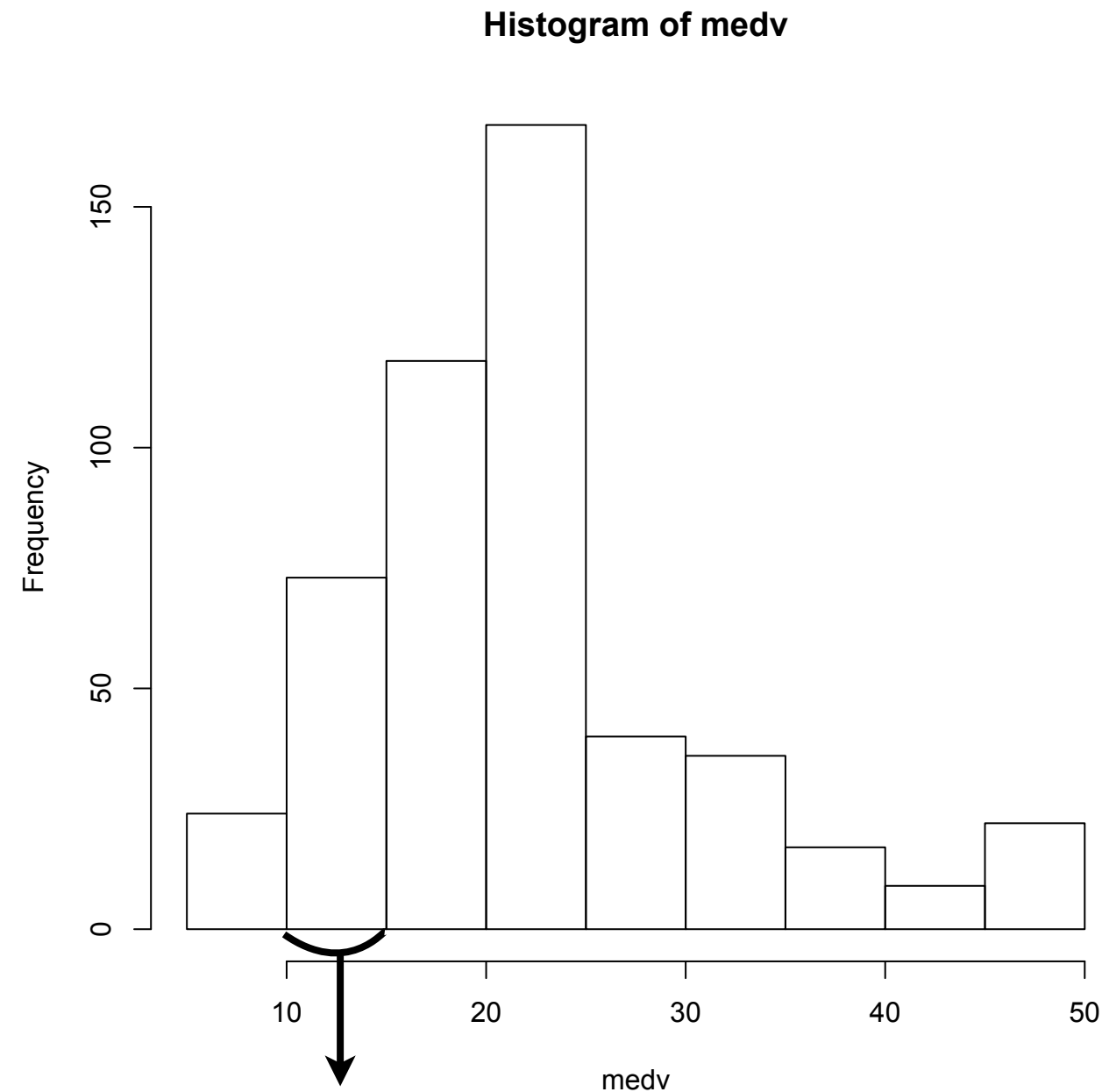
Comments:

- Peak in 20-25
- 25 seems to be a cut-off
- Few houses below 10

To read it better, we need to know how it's made.



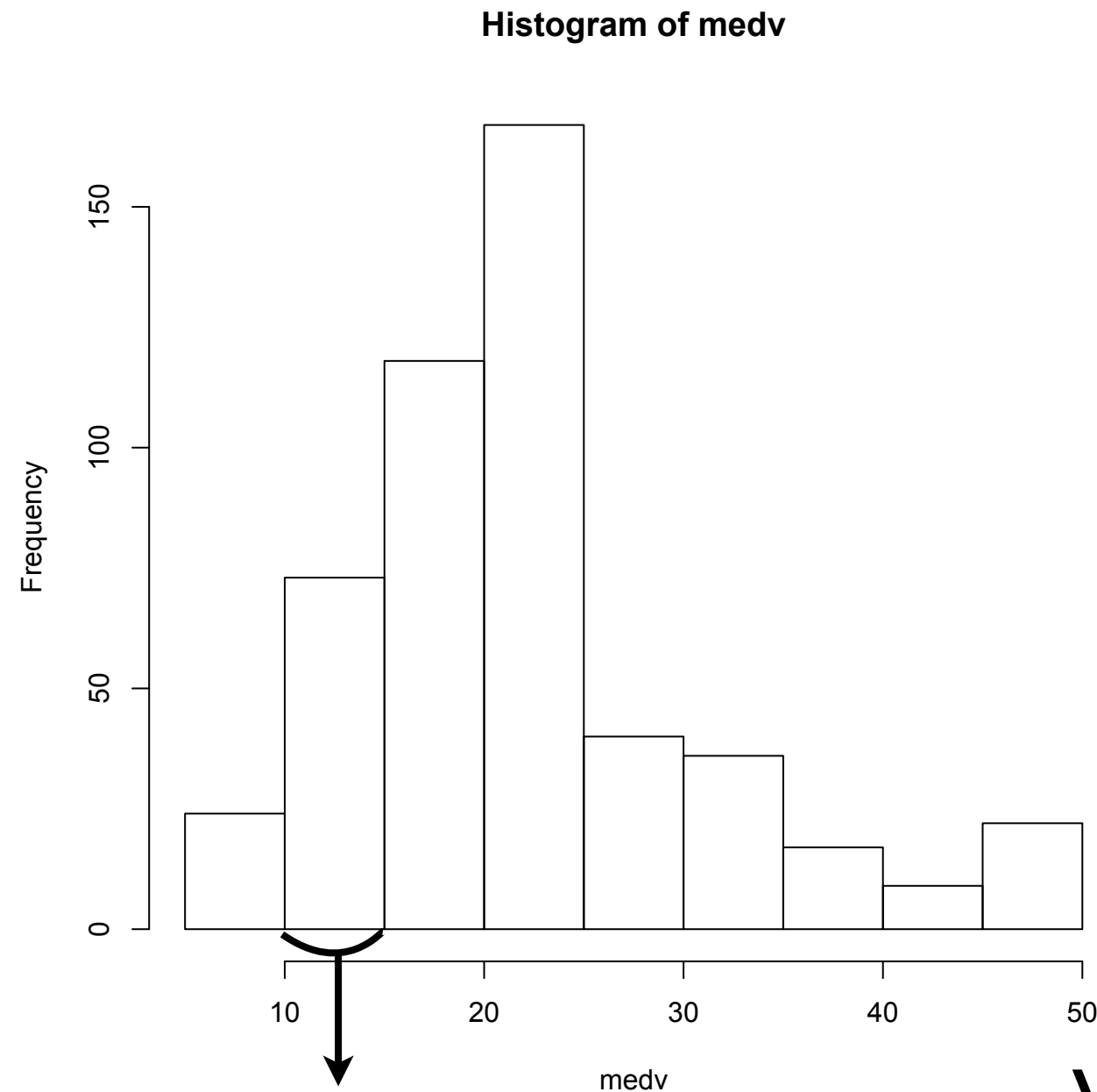
Histograms



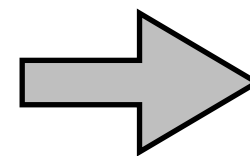
This a **bin** (or **class**).
Here: tracts where
 $10 < \text{medv} < 15$



Histograms



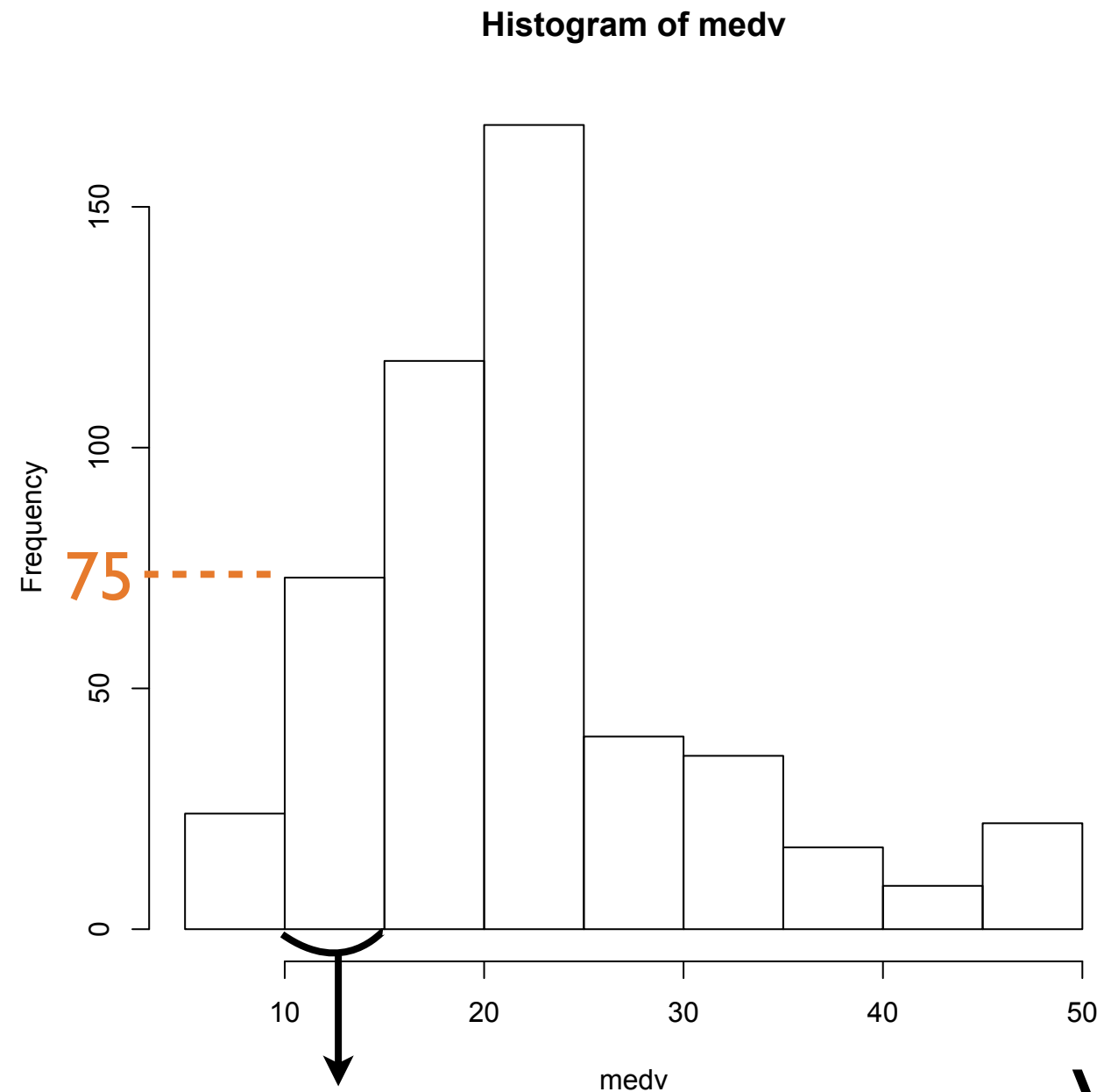
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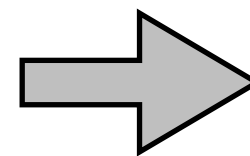
We can read on
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Histograms



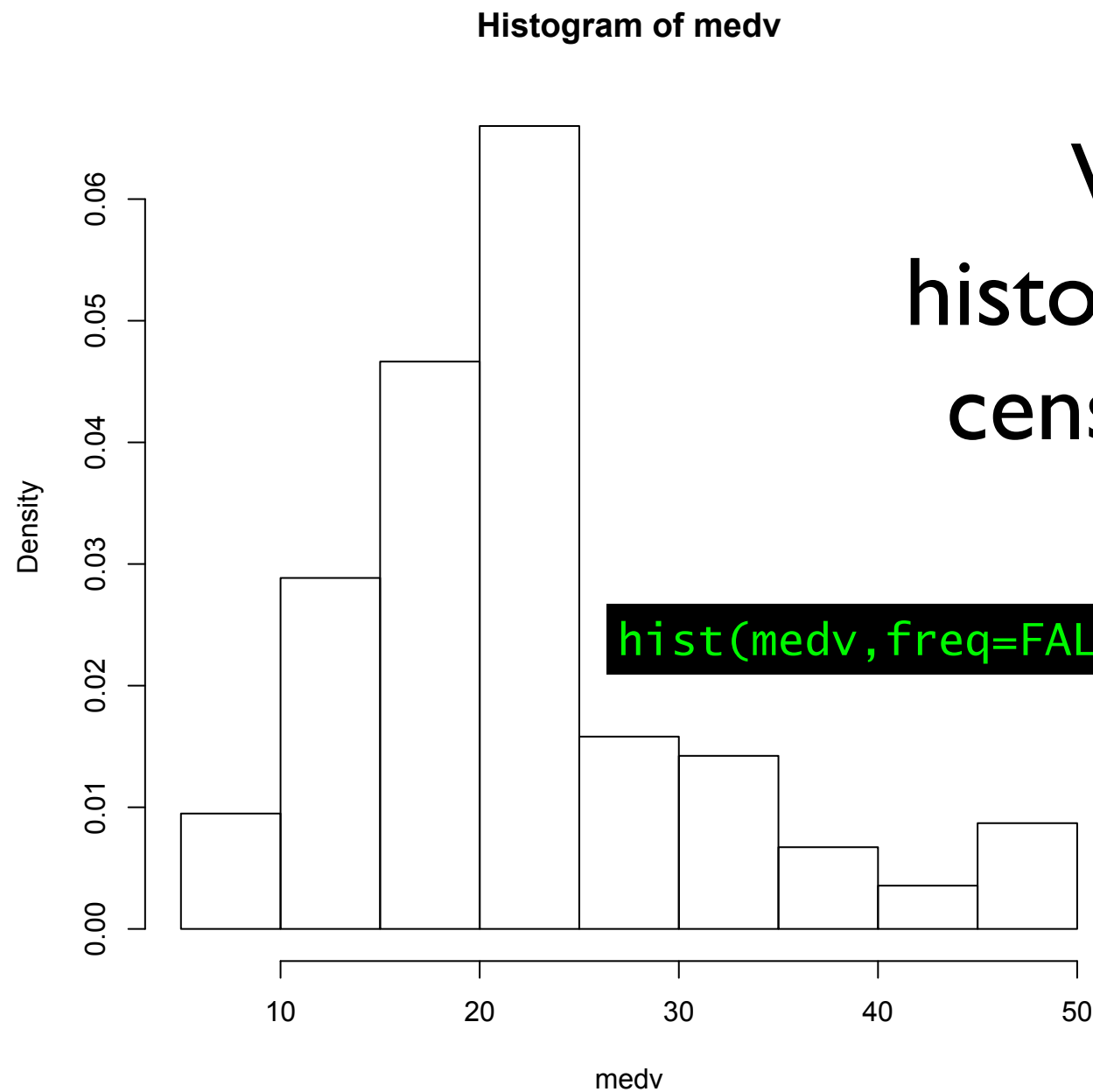
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We can read on
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Histograms with frequencies



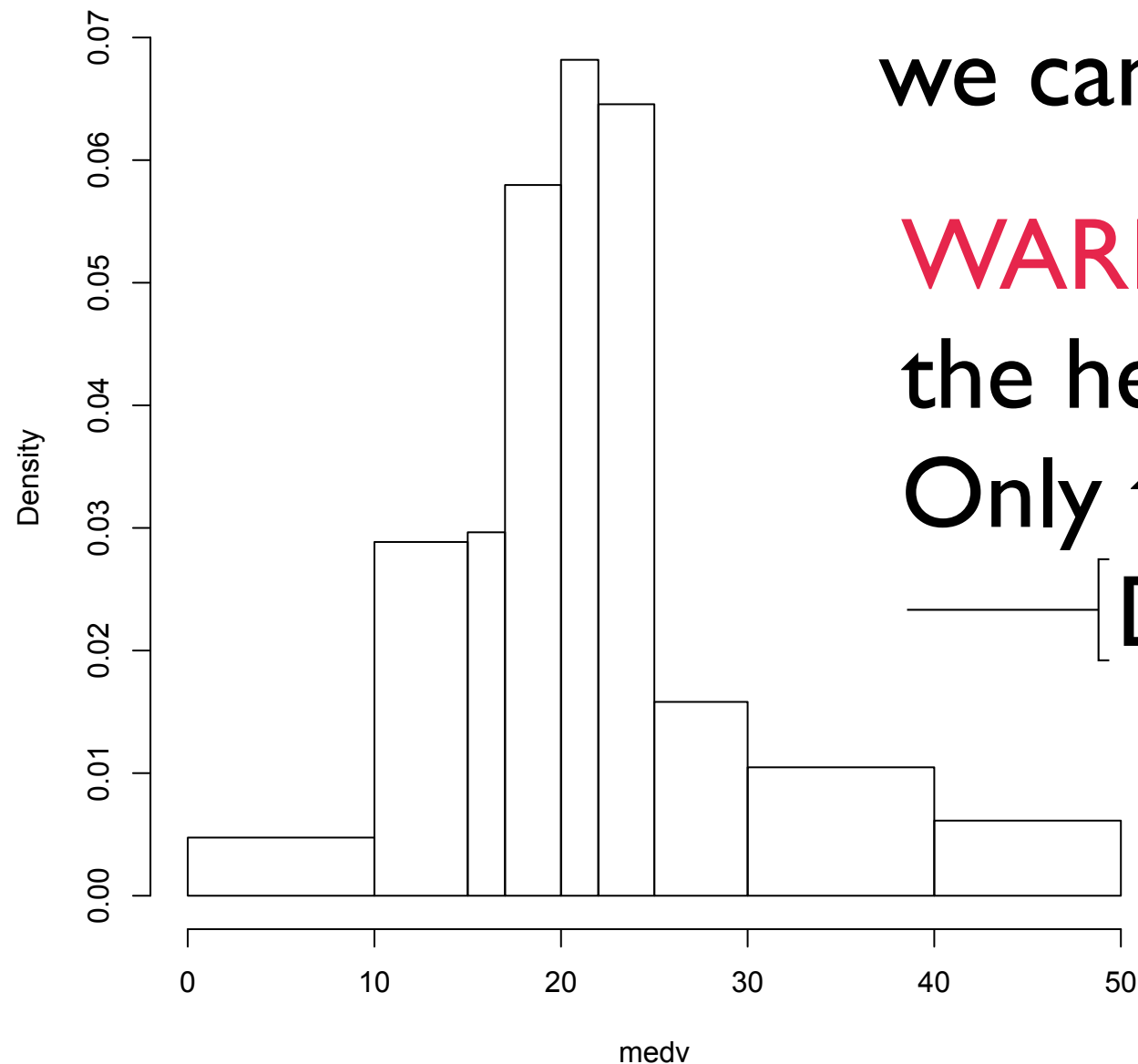
We can read on the histogram the **proportion** of census tracts in a bin/class

```
hist(medv, freq=FALSE)
```



Histograms with different bin size

Histogram of medv



To have a better picture,
we can change the bins.

WARNING:

the height of the bar is meaningless

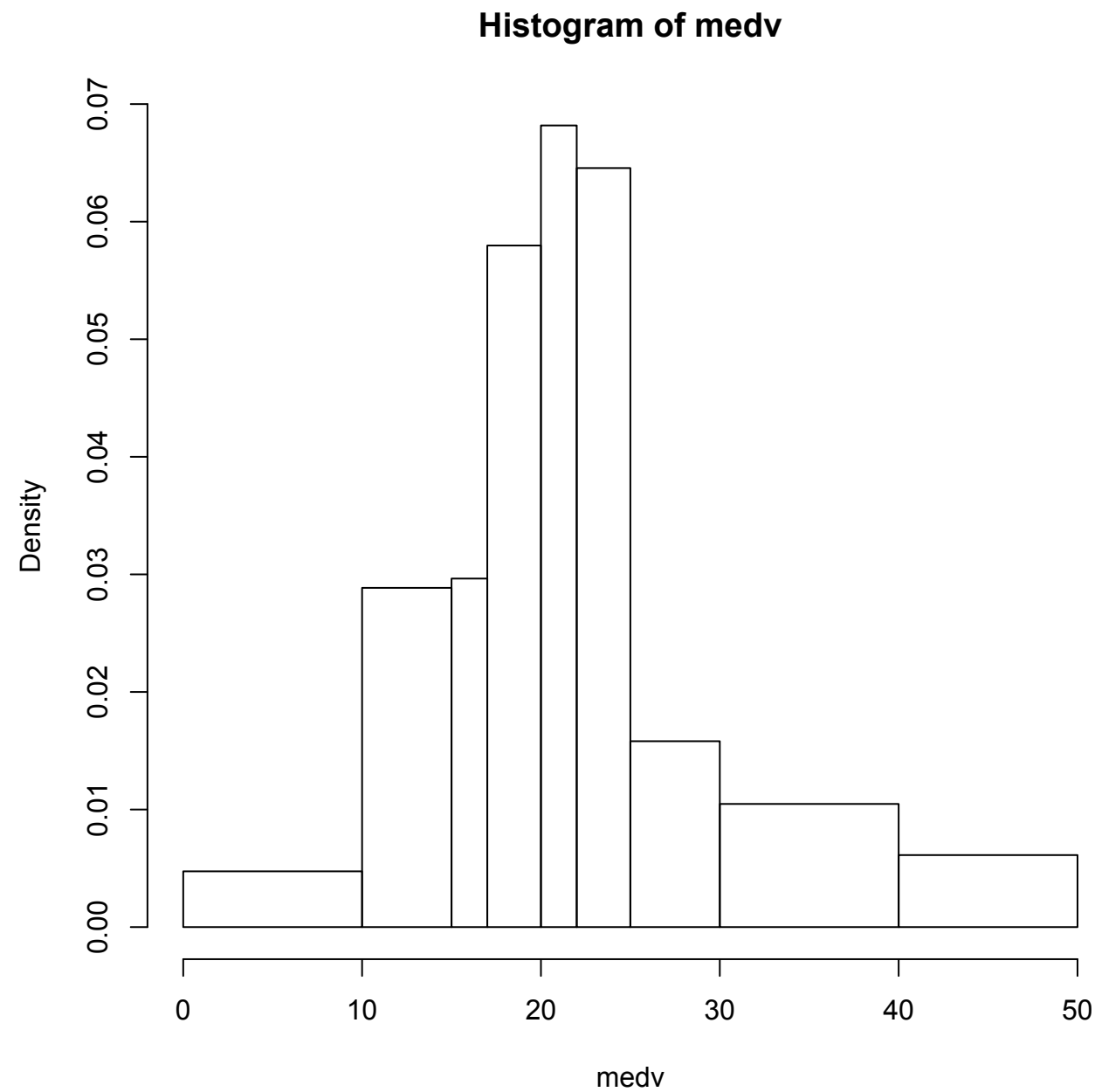
Only the **area** matters

— [Data density!

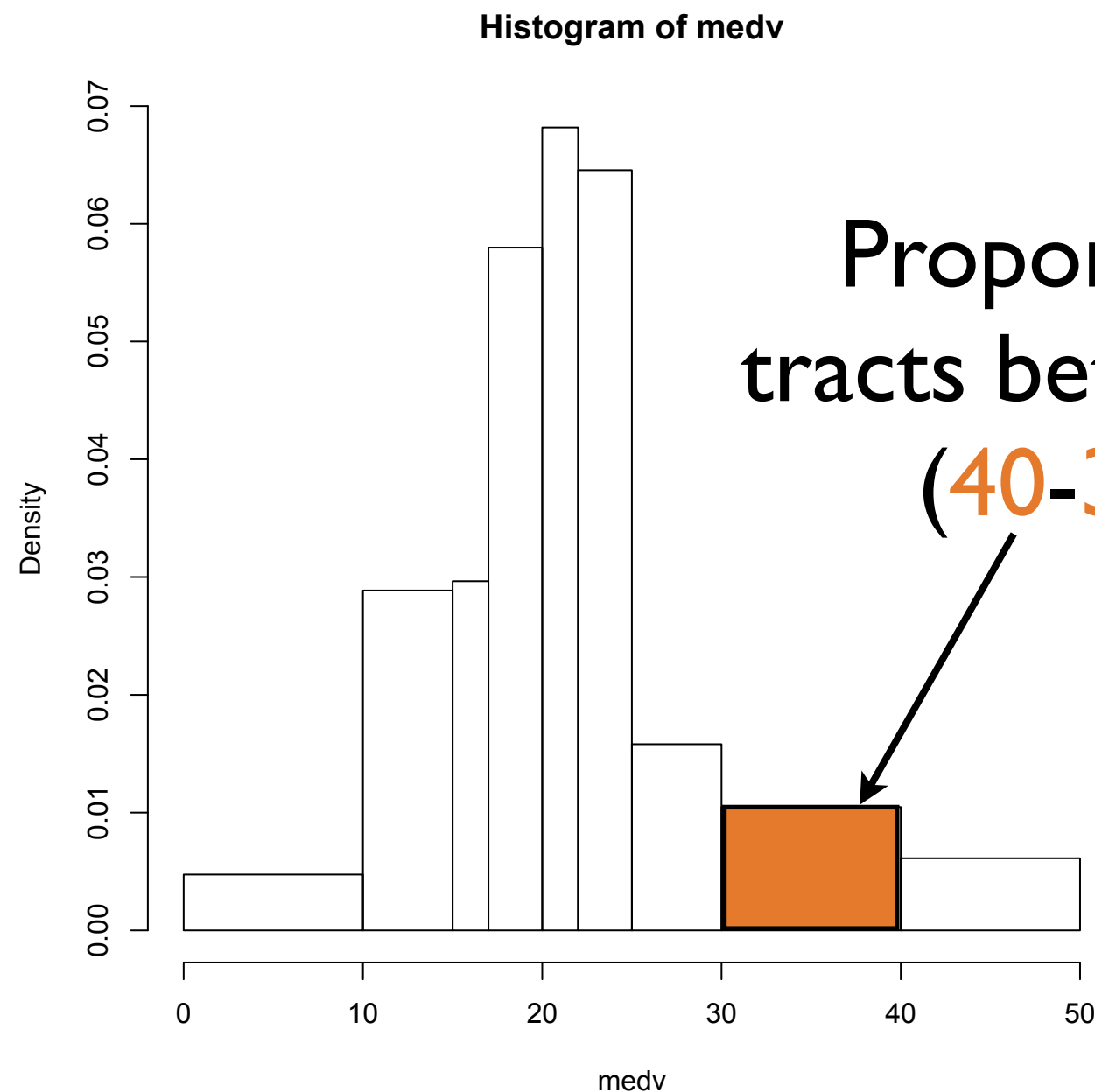
```
hist(medv, freq=FALSE, breaks=c(0, 10, 15, 17, 20, 22, 25, 30, 40, 50))
```



Histograms with different bin size



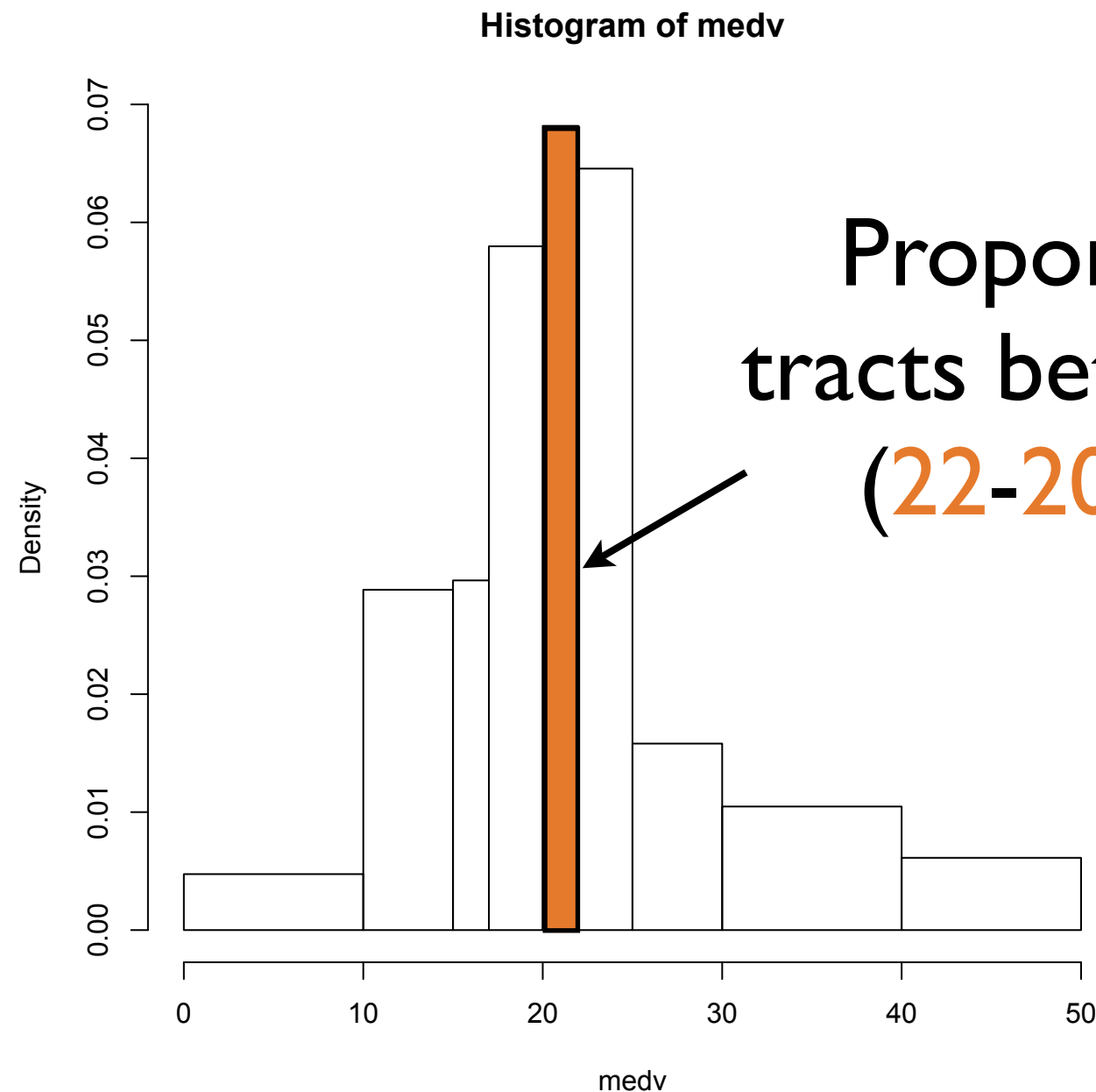
Histograms with different bin size



Proportion of census
tracts between 30 and 40:
 $(40-30)0.01=10\%$



Histograms with different bin size



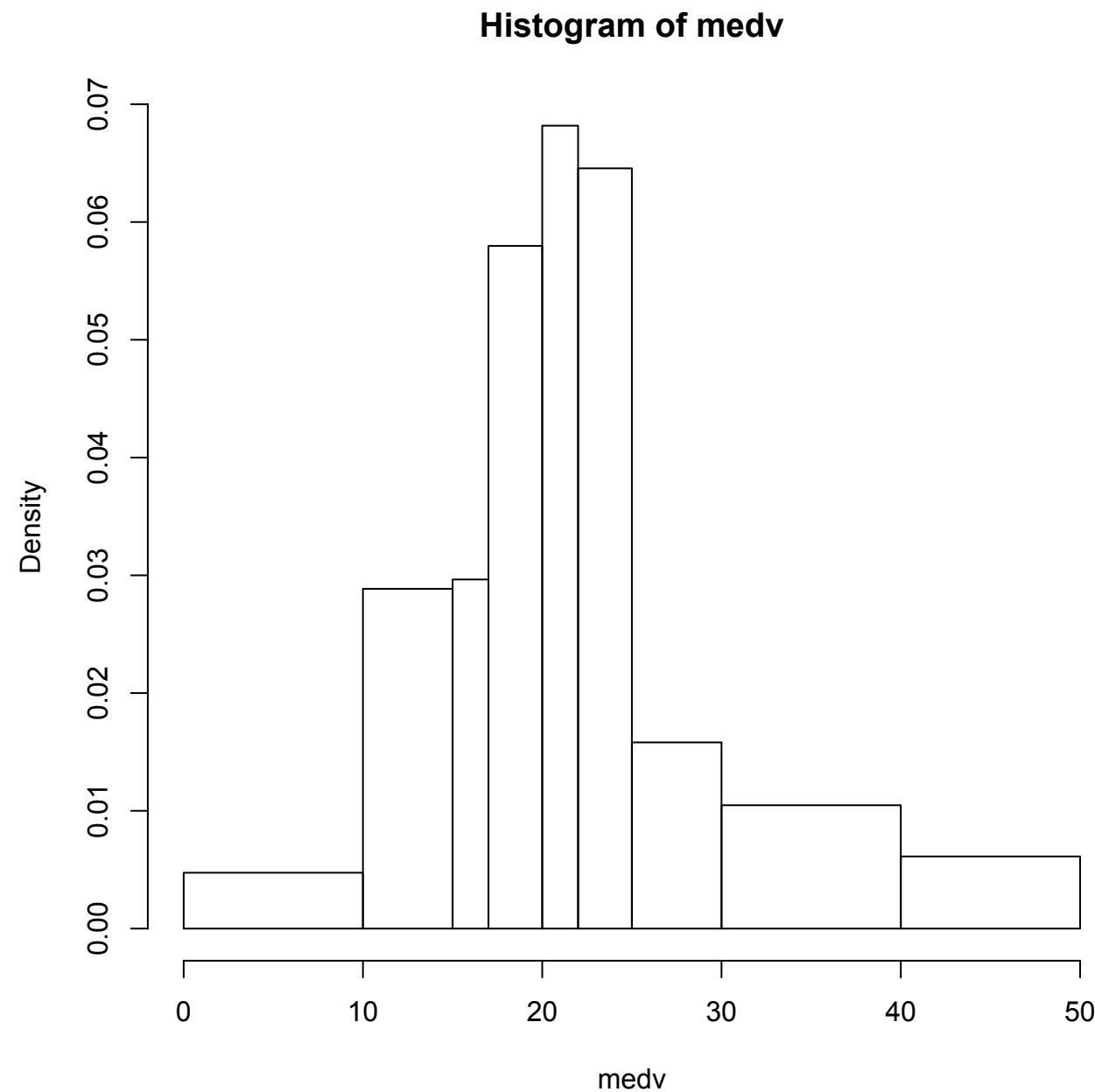
Proportion of census
tracts between 20 and 22:
 $(22-20)0.068=13.6\%$

Questions:

1. where is the largest proportion? 20-22 or 22-25
2. What is the proportion of $\text{medv} > 30$?



Shape



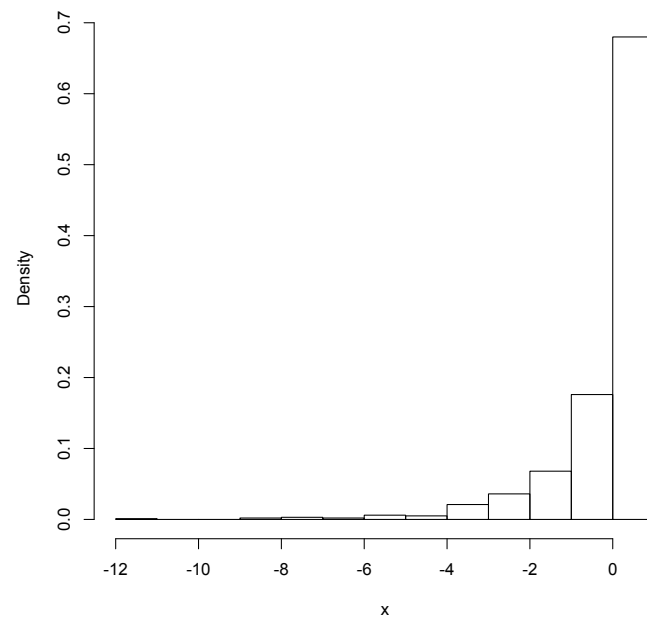
This histogram is said to be

Skewed to the right (or right skewed)

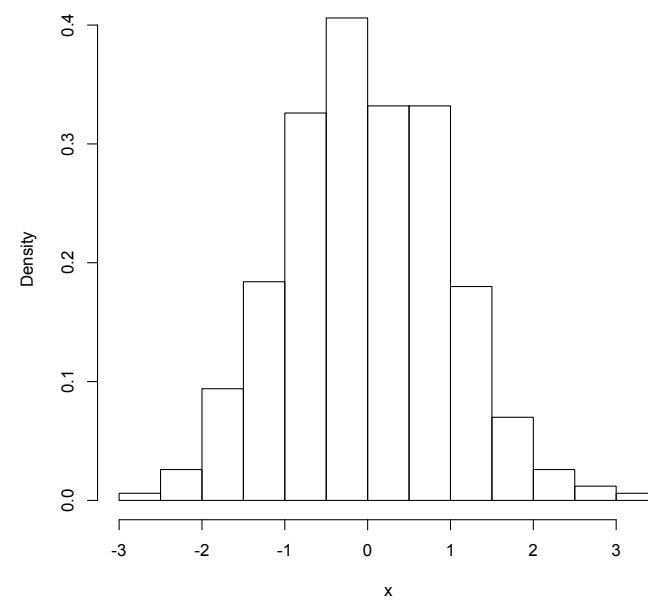
The data tend to trail off to the right



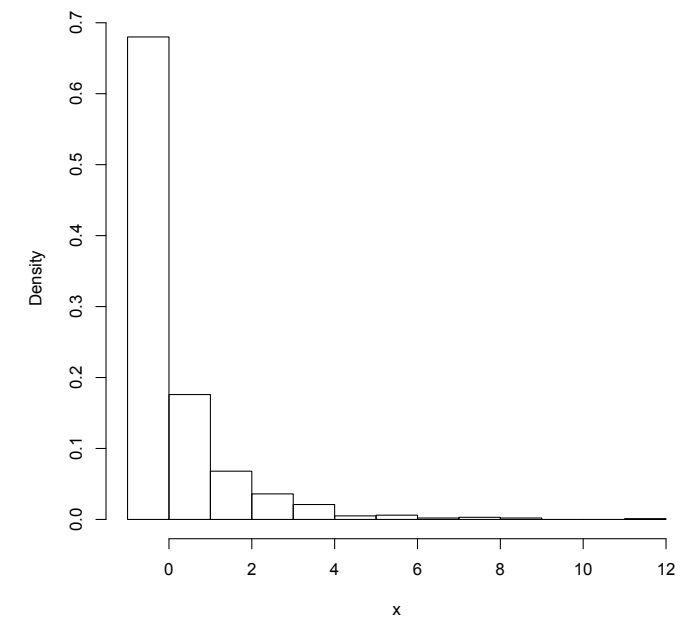
Shape



Left skewed



Symmetric



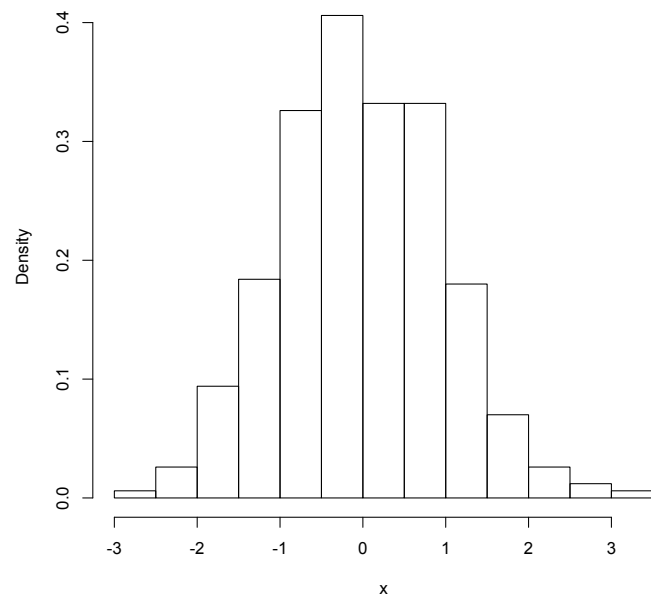
Right skewed



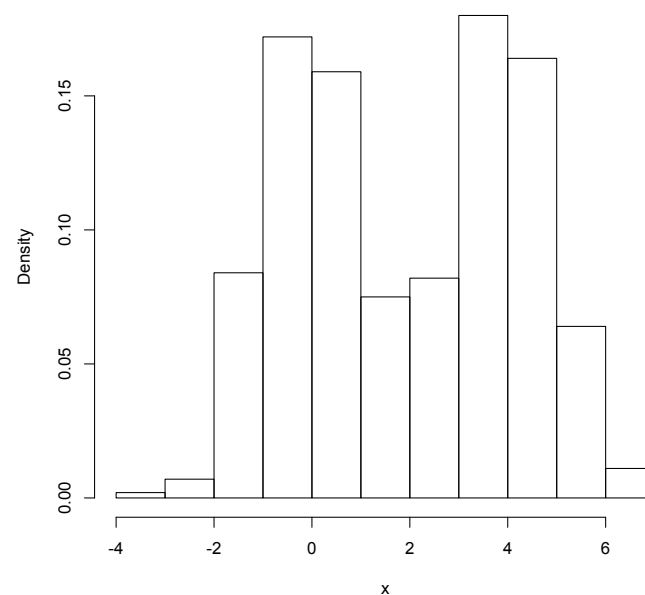
Modes

A **mode** is a peak in the distribution. It indicates a highly populated bin.

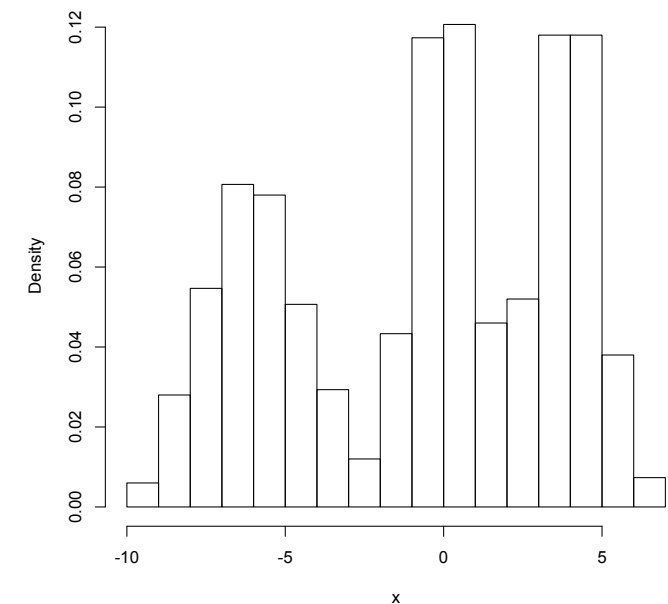
We can have **one**, **two**, or **more than two** modes indicating that there may be one, two or more sub-populations in our data.



Unimodal



Bimodal



Multimodal



Summary statistics

	crim	chas	...	age	town	rad	medv
1	0.00632	0	...	65.2	Nahant	1	24.0
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...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
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Summary statistics

Numbers that summarize **crim**:

crim
0.00632
0.02731
0.02729
0.03237
...
0.10959
0.04741

Mean	3.61	summary(crim) mean(crim) median(crim) min(crim) max(crim) quantile(crim,.25) quantile(crim,.75)
Median	0.26	
Min	0.01	
Max	88.98	
1st quartile	0.08	
3rd quartile	3.68	
Standard deviation	8.60	sd(crim)
Variance	73.99	var(crim)



A little reminder

Consider a list of numbers: $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 = 10$$

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^4 i \right)^2 = (1 + 2 + 3 + 4)^2 = 100$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 i^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 = 30$$



A little reminder

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 (2i) = \quad = 20$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 (2 + i) = \quad = 18$$



Measures of location

Mean:

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

Median: the number in the middle

Order the list $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ into $x_{(1)} \leq x_{(2)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)}$

Then median: $x_{med} = \begin{cases} x_{(\frac{n+1}{2})} & \text{if } n \text{ odd} \\ \frac{x_{(\frac{n}{2})} + x_{(\frac{n}{2} + 1)}}{2} & \text{if } n \text{ even} \end{cases}$

Example:
variable **age**

65.2 78.9 61.1 45.8 89.3 80.3



Median: n even

45.8

61.1

65.2

78.9

80.3

89.3



Median: n even

45.8 $\leq$ 61.1 $\leq$ 65.2 $\leq$ 78.9 $\leq$ 80.3 $\leq$ 89.3



Median: n even

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} x_{(1)} & & x_{(2)} & & x_{(3)} & & x_{(4)} & & x_{(5)} & & x_{(6)} \\ 45.8 & \leq & 61.1 & \leq & 65.2 & \leq & 78.9 & \leq & 80.3 & \leq & 89.3 \end{array}$$



Median: n even

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} x_{(1)} & & x_{(2)} & & x_{(3)} & & x_{(4)} & & x_{(5)} & & x_{(6)} \\ 45.8 & \leq & 61.1 & \leq & 65.2 & \leq & 78.9 & \leq & 80.3 & \leq & 89.3 \end{array}$$



Median: n even

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} x_{(1)} & & x_{(2)} & & x_{(3)} & & x_{(4)} & & x_{(5)} & & x_{(6)} \\ 45.8 & \leq & 61.1 & \leq & 65.2 & \leq & 78.9 & \leq & 80.3 & \leq & 89.3 \end{array}$$



$$n=6 \quad \text{even: } x_{med} = \frac{x_{(3)} + x_{(4)}}{2} = \frac{65.2 + 78.9}{2} = 72.05$$



Median: n odd

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} x_{(1)} & & x_{(2)} & & x_{(3)} & & x_{(4)} & & x_{(5)} \\ 45.8 & \leq & 61.1 & \leq & 65.2 & \leq & 78.9 & \leq & 80.3 \end{array}$$



$$n=5 \quad \text{odd:} \quad x_{med} = x_{(3)} = 62.5$$



Quartiles

Median splits the list in half. **Quartiles** split it into
1/4 - 3/4 and 3/4 - 1/4

$$Q_1 \simeq x_{(\frac{n}{4})}$$

$$Q_3 \simeq x_{(\frac{3n}{4})}$$

First quartile

Third quartile

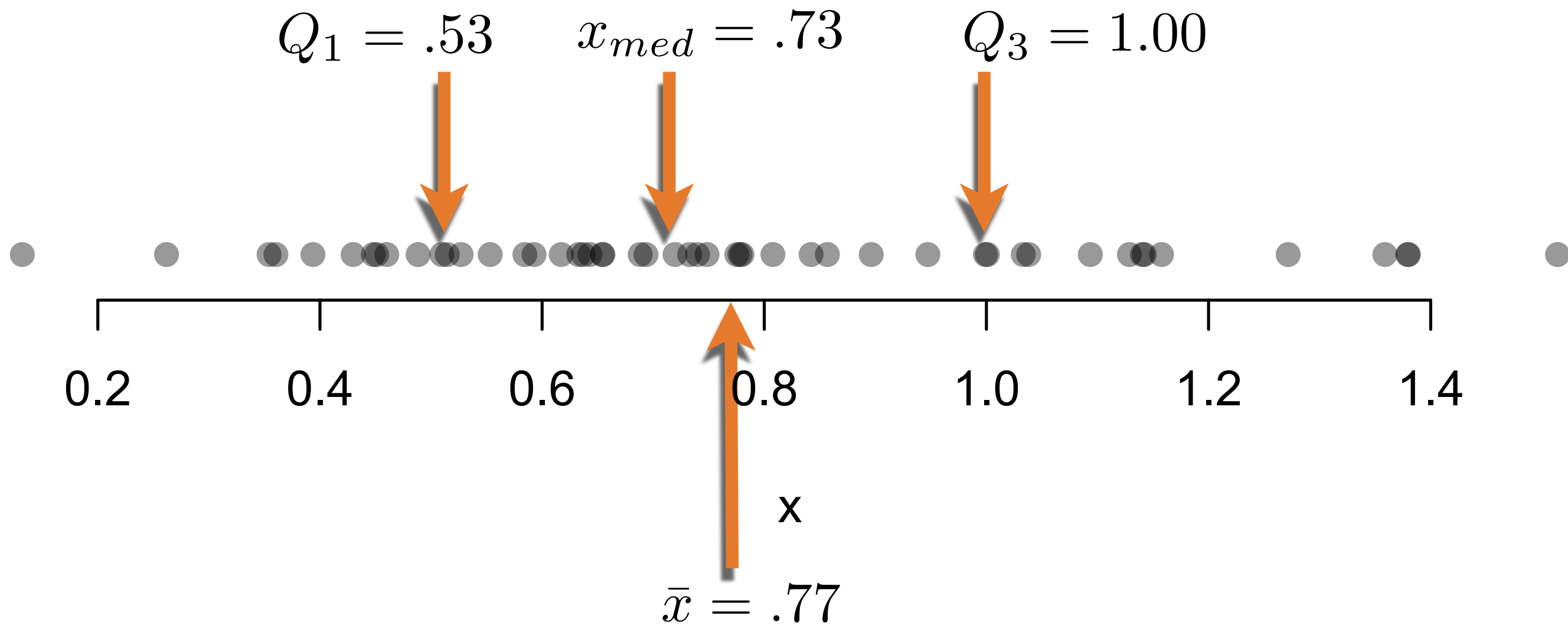
What is the second quartile?

A fourth of the data is smaller than Q_1

A fourth of the data is larger than Q_3



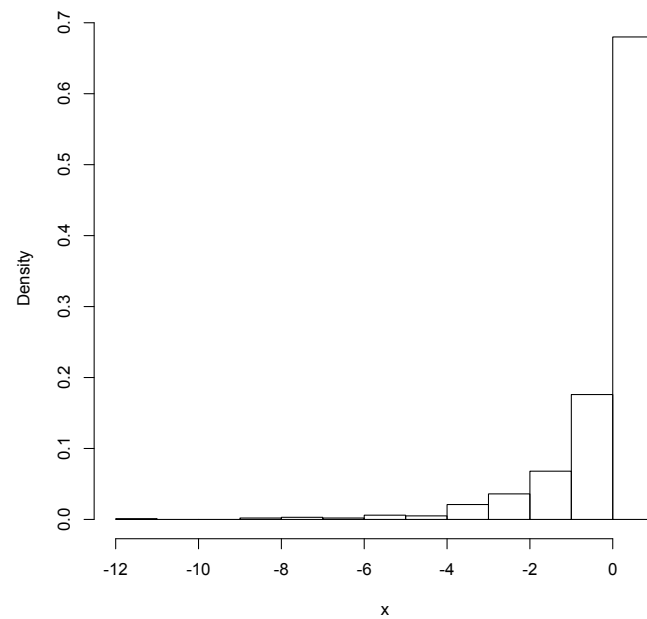
On a dot plot



```
library(openintro)  
dotPlot(x, ylab="")
```

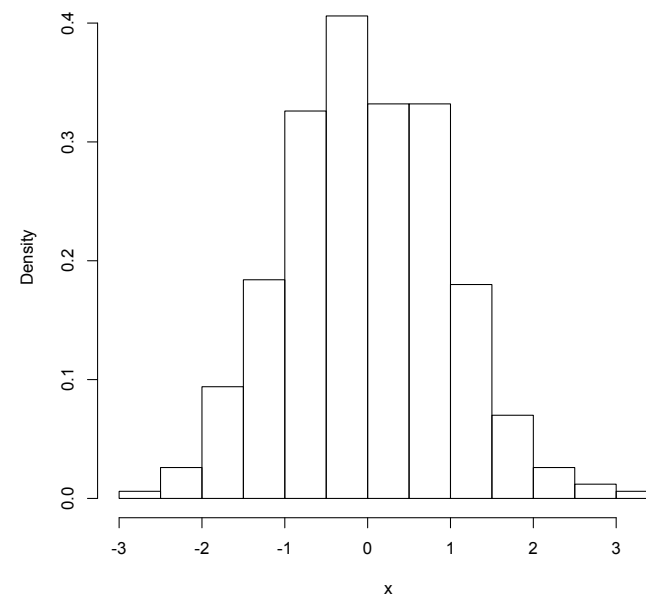


Shape, mean and median



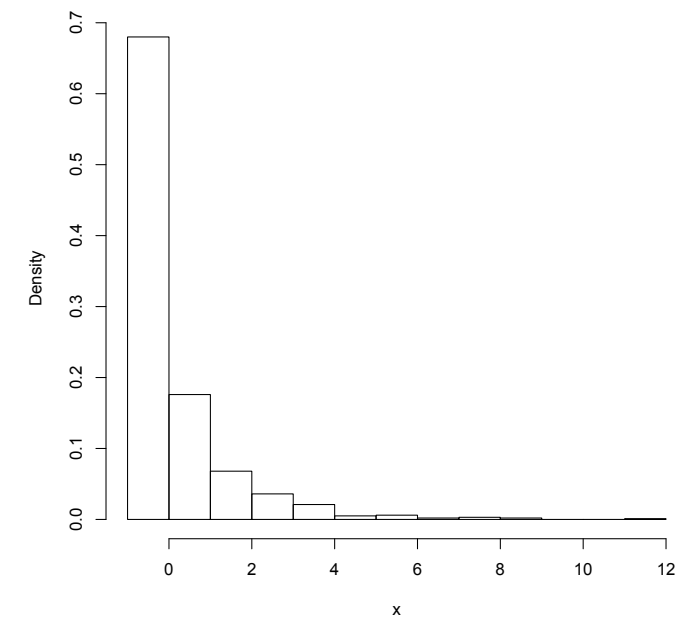
Left skewed

Mean < median



Symmetric

Mean $\simeq$ median



Right skewed

Mean > median



Measures of dispersion

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

Standard deviation: $s = \sqrt{s^2}$ same units as x_i



Measures of dispersion

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

Standard deviation: $s = \sqrt{s^2}$ same units as x_i

If all the numbers in the list are close to each other, they are close to their mean $\bar{x}$ and $(x_i - \bar{x})^2$ is close to zero. The variance and (standard deviation) measure how the data is “clustered” around its mean $\bar{x}$



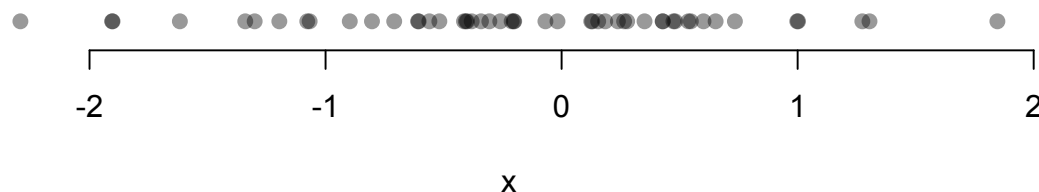
Measures of dispersion

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

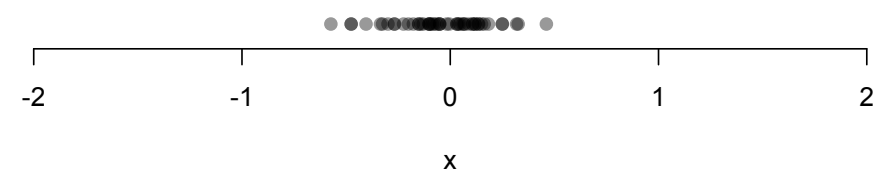
Standard deviation: $s = \sqrt{s^2}$ same units as x_i

If all the numbers in the list are close to each other, they are close to their mean $\bar{x}$ and $(x_i - \bar{x})^2$ is close to zero. The variance and (standard deviation) measure how the data is “clustered” around its mean $\bar{x}$

$$\bar{x} = 0 \quad s = 0.90$$



$$\bar{x} = 0 \quad s = 0.22$$

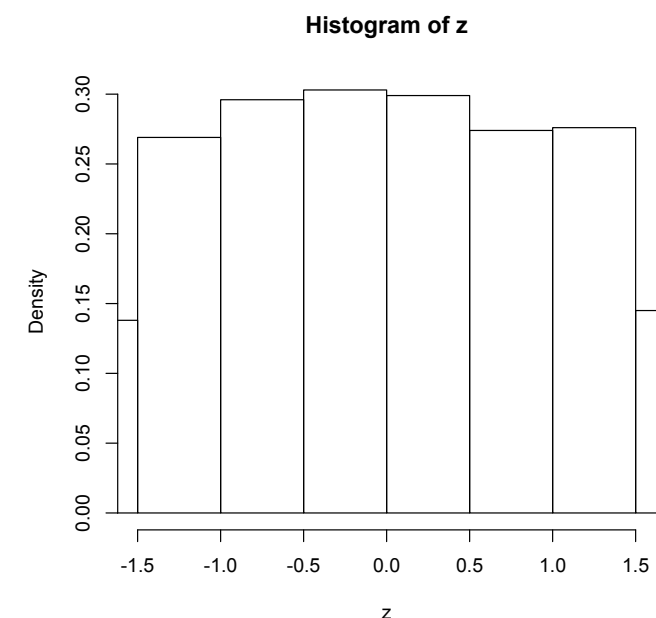
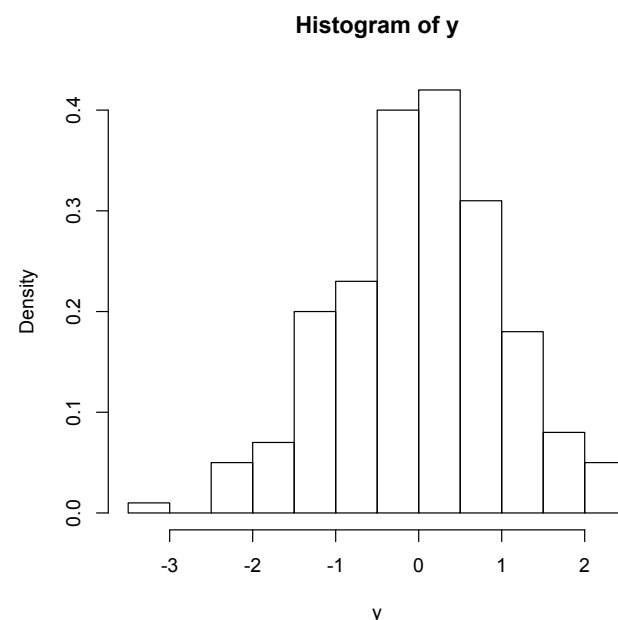
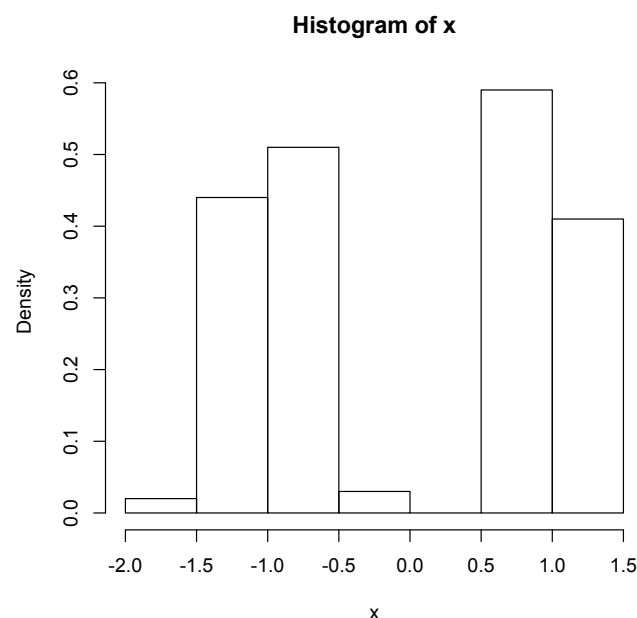


Measures of dispersion

Interquartile range (IQR) = $Q_3 - Q_1$

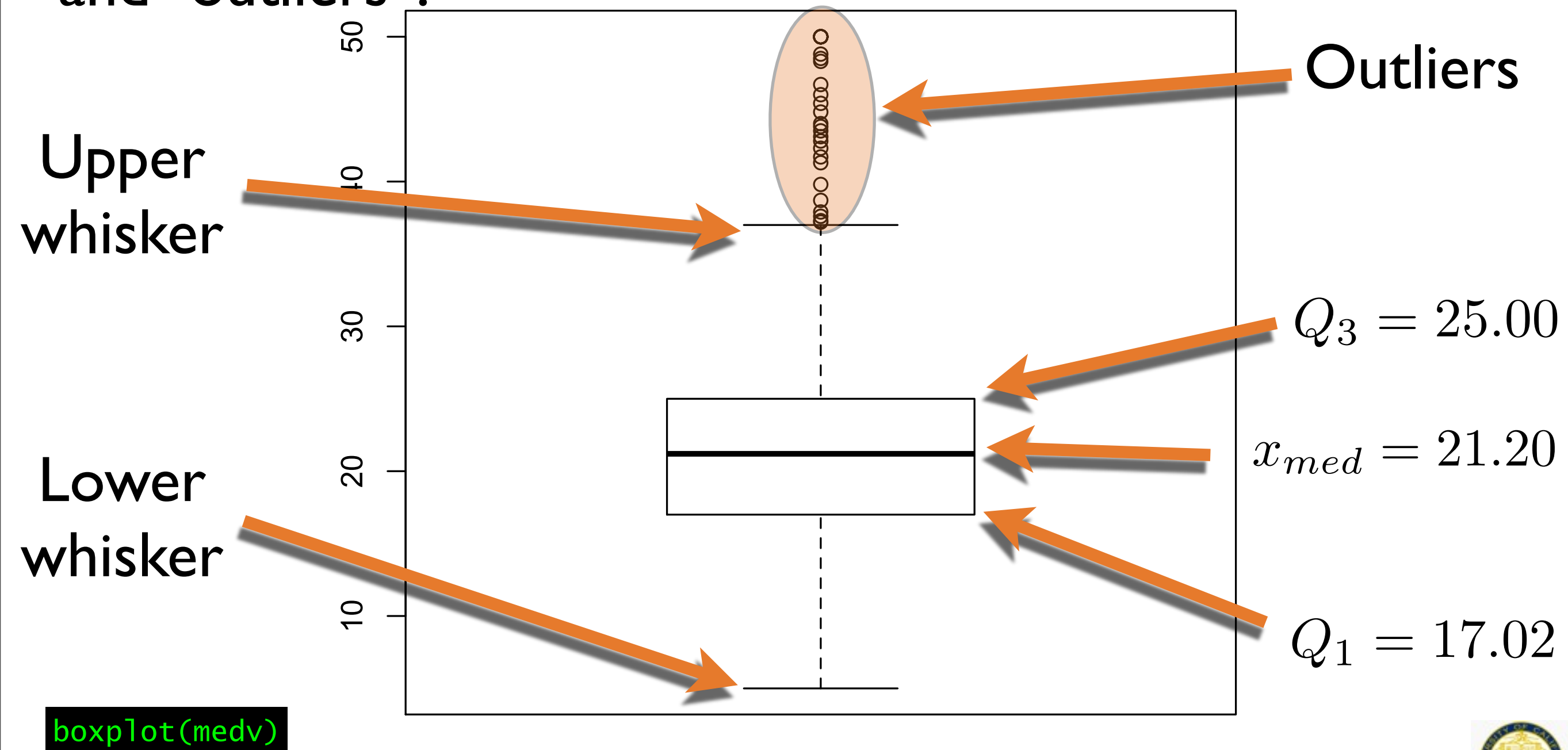
Is also a measure a dispersion.

Measure of location and dispersion say **nothing about shape**. Data x , y and z all have mean 0 and SD 1.



Boxplots and outliers

A **boxplot** is a plot that summarizes quartiles, median and “outliers”.



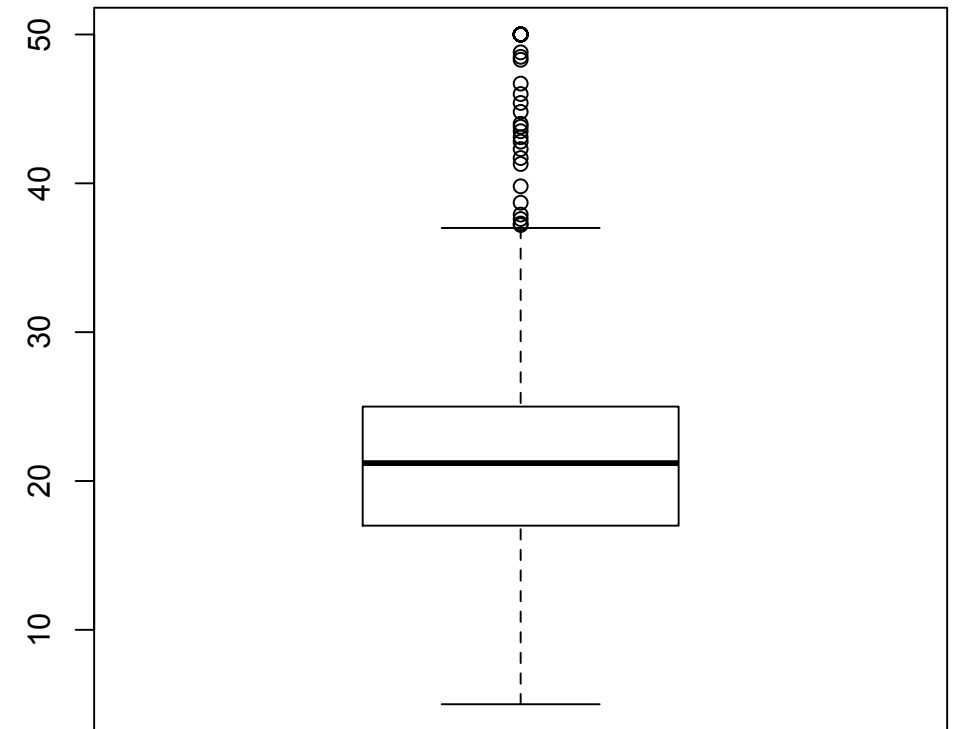
Boxplots and outliers

Upper
whisker

$$Q_3 + 1.5 \cdot IQR$$

Lower
whisker

$$Q_1 - 1.5 \cdot IQR$$



Outliers Observations outside of the whiskers

Note: The whiskers draw at the last observation that is not an outlier. This may differ from the exact value $Q_3 + 1.5 \cdot IQR$ or $Q_1 - 1.5 \cdot IQR$ significantly



Outliers

It is important to understand the data to identify why outliers are outliers. Possible sources:

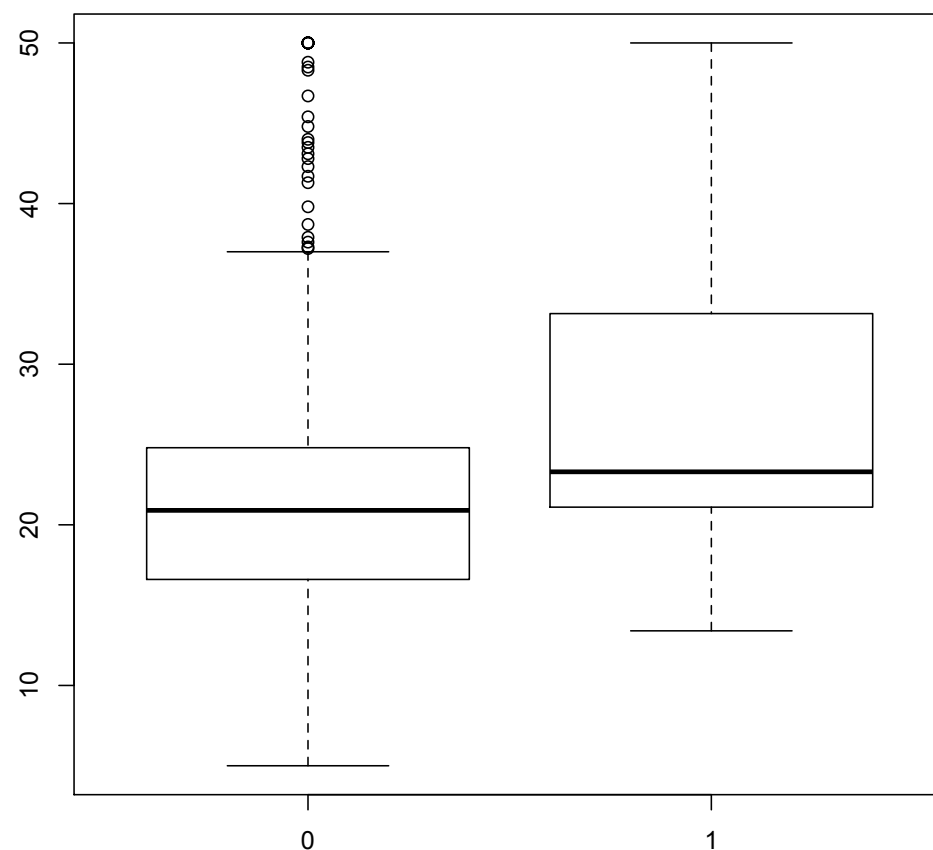
- Number incorrectly reported
- Heterogeneous data (several populations)

The median and IQR are **robust** to outliers.
The mean and SD are not.



Comparative boxplots

Boxplots become very useful when we want to **compare one variable across two categories**. For example, we want to know if census tracts along the Charles river have more expansive houses.

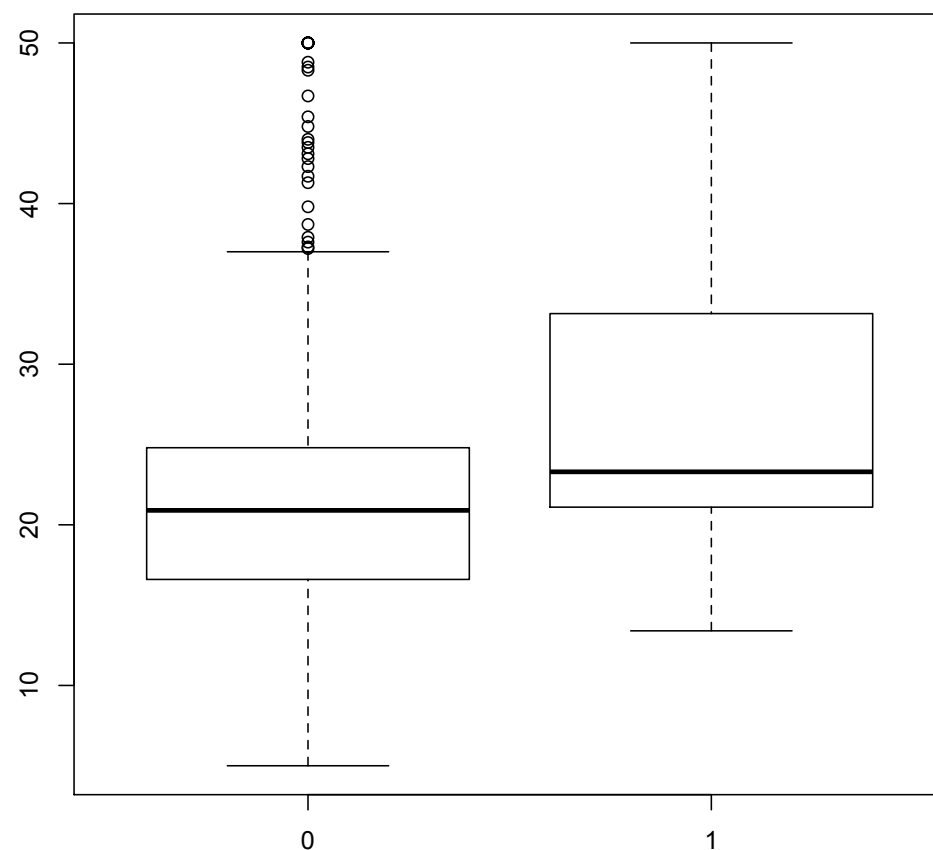


```
boxplot(medv[chas==0], medv[chas==1])
```



Comparative boxplots

Boxplots become very useful when we want to **compare one variable across two categories**. For example, we want to know if census tracts along the Charles river have more expansive houses.



```
boxplot(medv[chas==0], medv[chas==1])
```

```
plot(chas, medv)
```

This should be a scatter plot but R understands that comparative boxplots carry more information

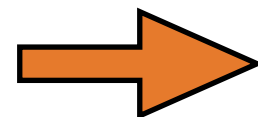


Contingency tables

- For **categorical data** we cannot compute the mean, variance, median, ...

town
Nahant
Swampscott
Swampscott
Marblehead
...
Winthrop
Winthrop

One way to summarize is to
count!



Contingency tables

Arlington	Ashland	Bedford	...	Winchester	Winthrop
7	2	2	...	5	5

Counts the number of
census tracts in each town

`table(town)`



Two-way contingency tables

For two variables, we can cross them.

Consider this dataset about 2,201 passengers of the RMS Titanic.

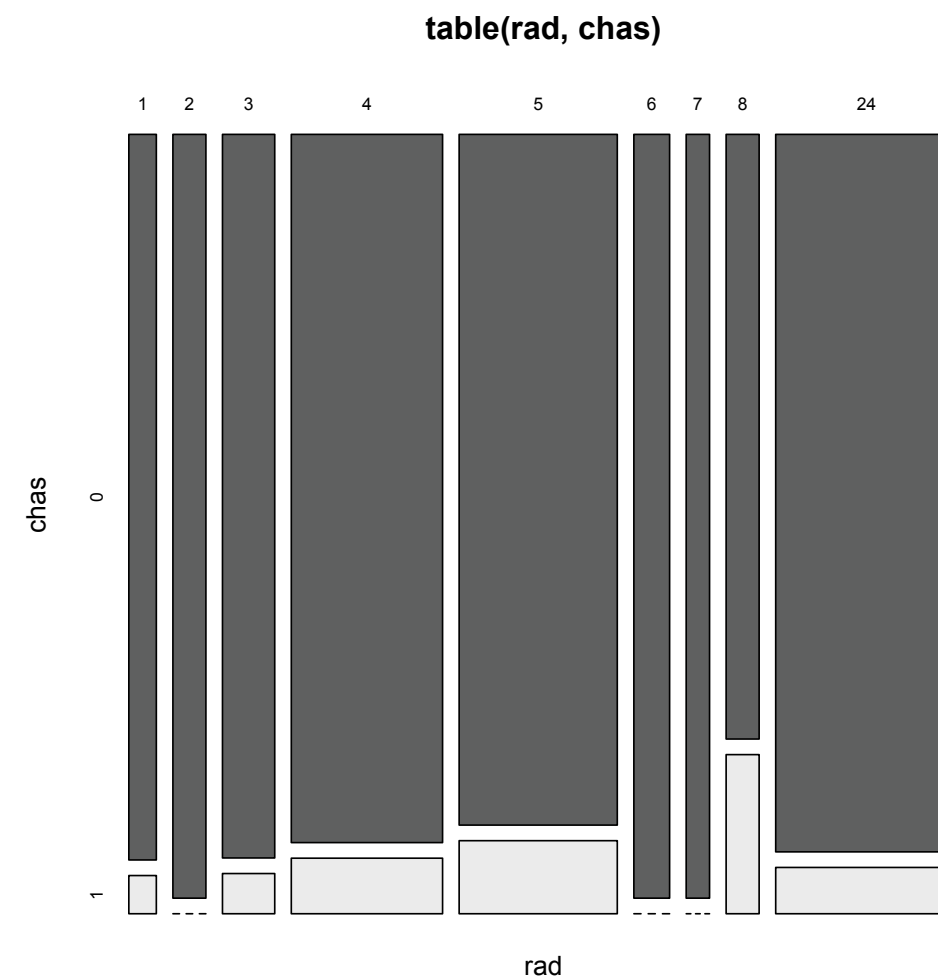
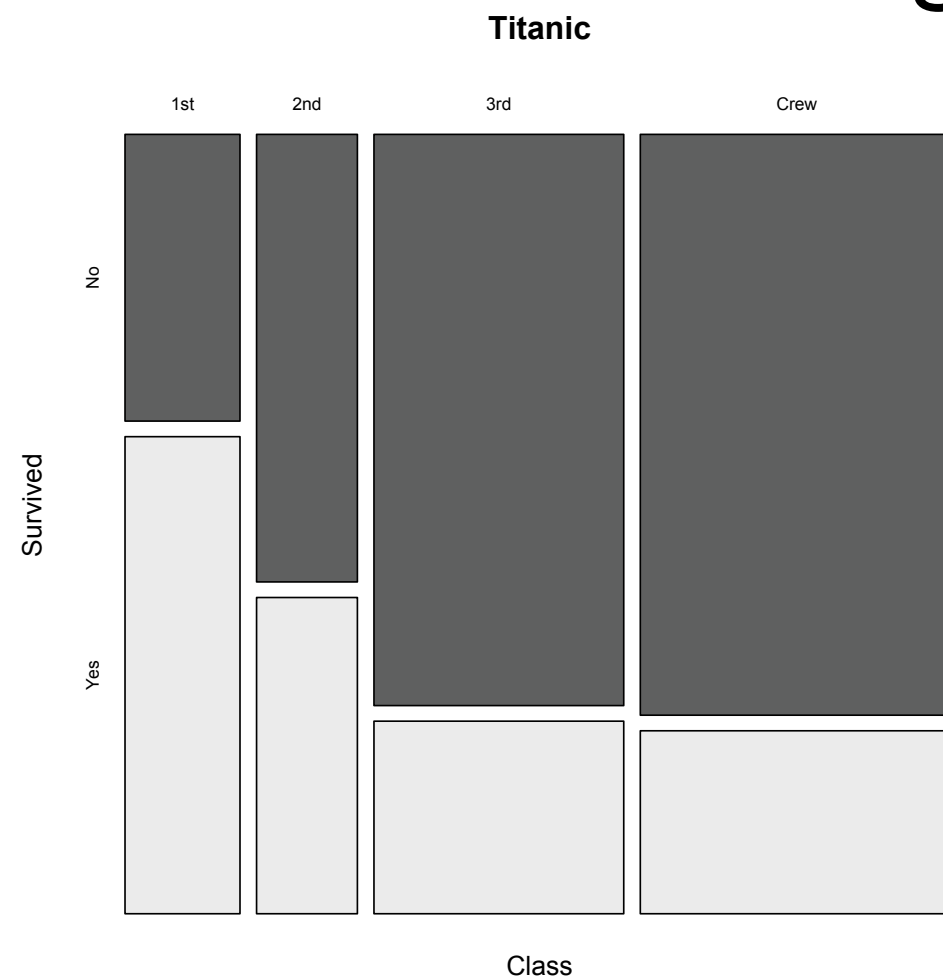
		Survived		
		No	Yes	Total
Class	1st class	122	203	325
	2nd class	167	118	285
	3rd class	528	178	706
	crew	673	212	885
	Total	1,490	711	2,201

```
ftable(Titanic, row.vars="Class", col.vars="Survived")
```



Mosaic plots

Useful represent categorical data. Displays the content of a contingency table.

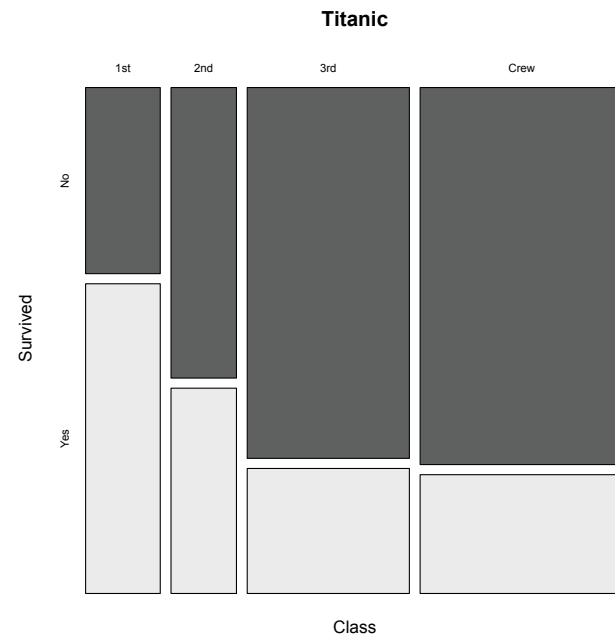


```
mosaicplot(~ Class + Survived, data = Titanic, color = TRUE)
```

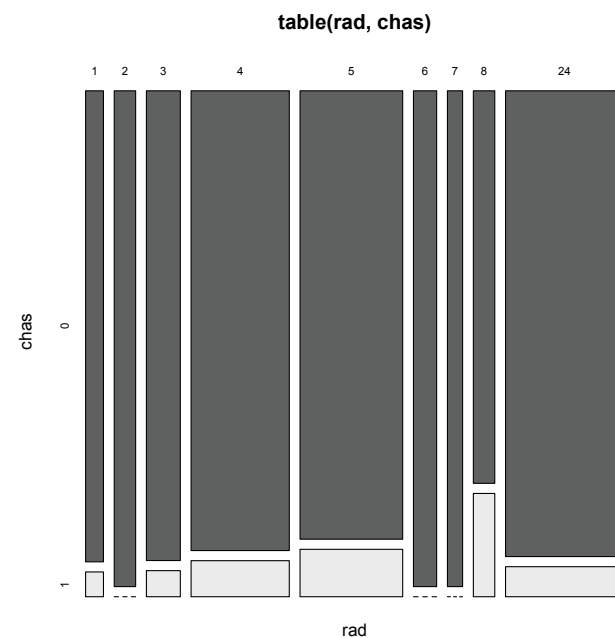
```
mosaicplot(table(rad, chas), color = TRUE)
```



Mosaic plots



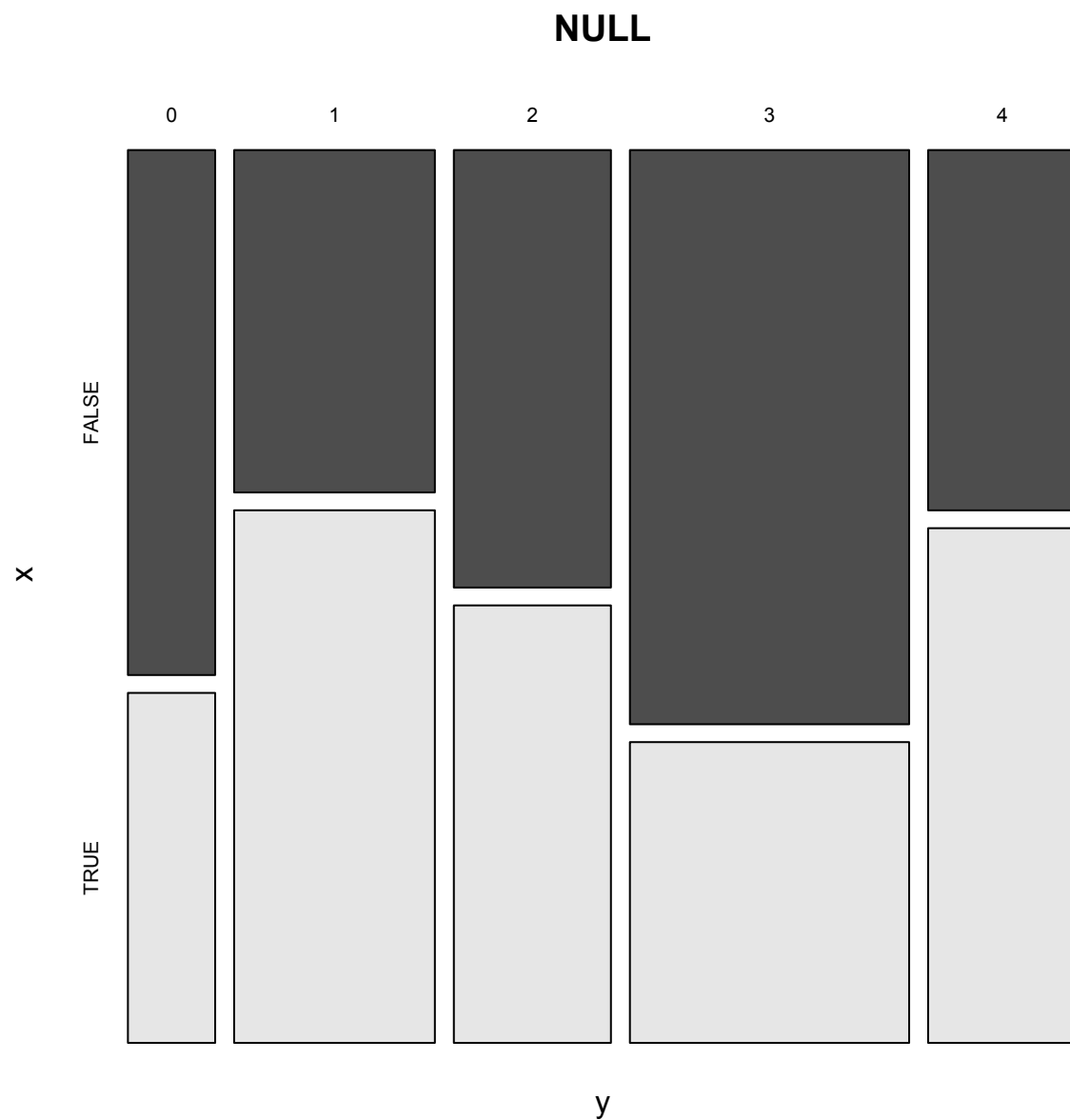
We can see that **Class** and **Survived** are associated variables.



chas and **rad** are associated variables



Mosaic plots

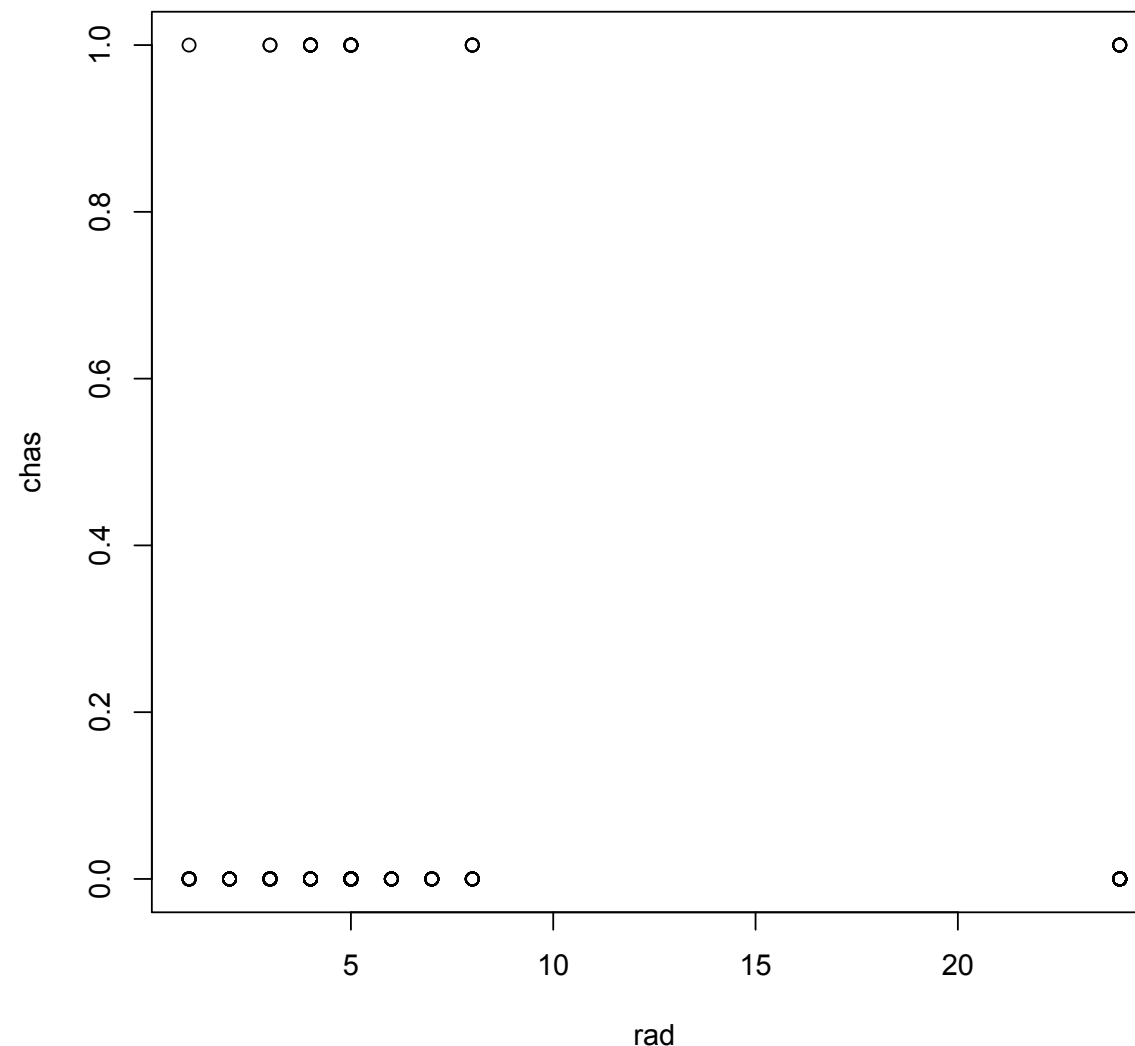


These variables seem
to be independent



Why mosaic plots?

Arguably, mosaic plots are not the most accurate plot to assess independence. But compare this to the following scatter plot of **chas** vs **rad**



Population and samples

- Our Boston Housing dataset is a **sample** of census tracts in the Boston area.
- All census tracts in the greater Boston area represent the **population**.
- The census tracts were selected **randomly** from the population.



Population and samples

- Our Boston Housing dataset is a **sample** of census tracts in the Boston area.
- All census tracts in the greater Boston area represent the **population**.
- The census tracts were selected **randomly** from the population.

It is important to trust the data collection process:
no census tract should be preferred over another in the selection.

This way we can extrapolate to other census tracts.

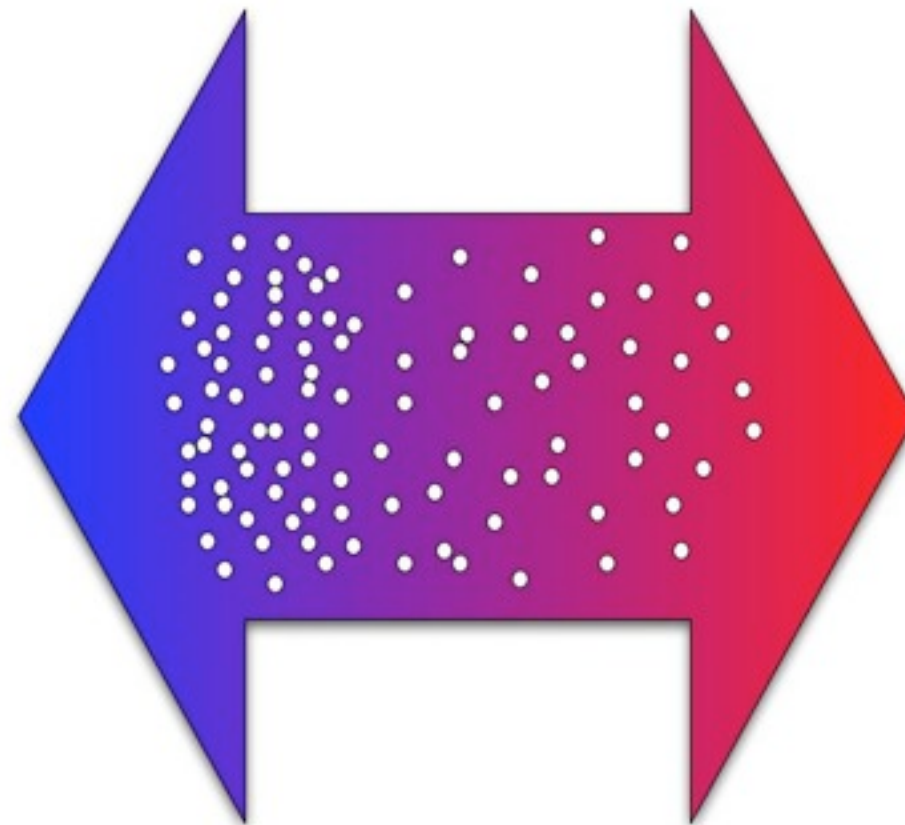


Population and samples

Without this **uniform sampling at random** things could go wrong.

For instance, if we selected US census tracts that vote republican, we could end up with mostly houses with high median value.

Democrat



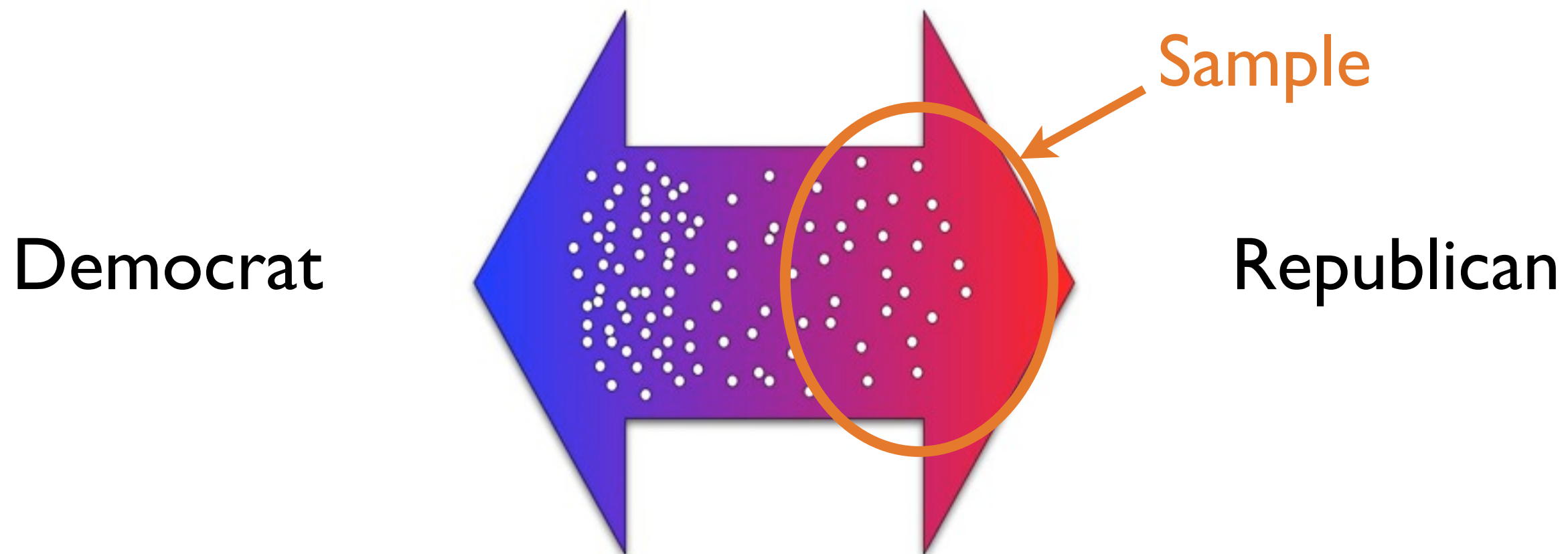
Republican



Population and samples

Without this **uniform sampling at random** things could go wrong.

For instance, if we selected US census tracts that vote republican, we could end up with mostly houses with high median value.



Representative sample

Thus, the sample should be **representative** of the population.

In this course, we will always assume that it is but if you design your own statistical experiment or if you use data that has been collected by someone else, you should make sure that you have a sample representative of the population that you are interested in.

Note: you can always consider a smaller population. For example, the population of republican voting census tracts.



Random sampling and probability

Assuming uniform sampling at random allows us to use probability.

For example, if we know that 10% of the census tracts are on the Charles river, probability tells us how many census tracts among the 506 sampled are on the Charles river (in average): 50.6

The idea of statistics is to replace this 10% by a variable p to be estimated. In our sample, there are 35 census tracts on the Charles river so we estimate p to be $35/506=6.9\%$.

Probability will allow us to do much more.

