# INTRODUCTION TO DATA SCIENCE

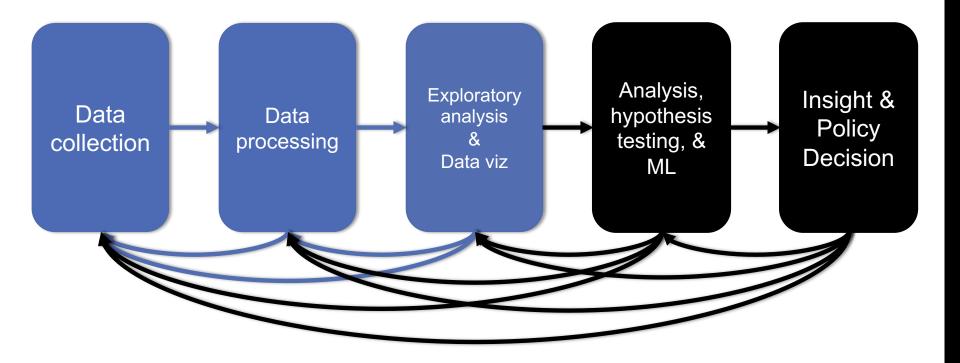
#### **JOHN P DICKERSON**

Lecture #10 - 10/01/2020 Lecture #11 - 10/06/2020

CMSC320 Tuesdays & Thursdays 5:00pm – 6:15pm (... or anytime on the Internet)



### **TODAY'S LECTURE**



### EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS

#### Seen so far:

- · Manipulations that prepare datasets into tidy form
- Join tables and compute summaries
- Form relationships between different entities

#### **EDA** is the last step before Big Time Statistics and ML<sup>™</sup>:

- Want to quickly "get a feel" for the data through summary statistics, visualization, et cetera
- Spot nuances like skew, how distributed the data is, trends, how pairs of variables interact, problems
- Suggests which Stats/ML assumptions to make and approaches to take



### **NEXT WEEK'S LESSON**

Having a really big sample does not assure you of an accurate result.

It may assure you of a really solid, really bad (inaccurate) result.

Not all randomness is create equal when it comes to random sampling of a population:

- Ask why data are missing! MCAR, MAR, MNAR.
- Ask how the data were collected.

### TODAY'S LESSON: SUMMARY STATISTICS

#### Part of descriptive statistics, used to summarize data:

• Convey lots of information with extreme simplicity

#### **Descriptive statistics for a variable:**

- Measures of location: mean, median, mode
- Measure of dispersion: variance, standard deviation

#### Measuring correlation of two variables:

- Understanding correlation
- Measuring correlation
- Scatter plots and regression

LO

### **MEASURES OF LOCATION**

These are 30 hours of average defect data on sets of circuit boards. Roughly what is the typical value?

1.45	1.65	1.50	2.25	1.65	1.60	2.30	2.20	2.70	1.70
2.35	1.70	1.90	1.45	1.40	2.60	2.05	1.70	1.05	2.35
1.90	1.55	1.95	1.60	2.05	2.05	1.70	2.30	1.30	2.35

#### Location and central tendency

- There exists a distribution of values
- We are interested in the "center" of the distribution

Two measures are the sample mean and the sample median

They look similar, and measure the same thing

They differ systematically (and predictably) when the data are not symmetric

### THE MEAN OF AGGREGATE DATA

State	Listing	IncomePC	State	Listing	IncomePC	State	Listing	IncomePC
Hawaii	896800	24057	Rhode Island	432534	22251	Texas	266388	19857
California	713864	22493	Delaware	420845	22828	Mississippi	255774	15838
New York	668578	25999	Oregon	417551	20419	Tennessee	255064	19482
Connecticut	654859	29402	Idaho	415885	18231	Wisconsin	243006	21019
Dist.Columbia	577921	31136	Illinois	377683	23784	Michigan	241107	22333
Nevada	549187	24023	New Hampshire	361691	23434	Missouri	221773	20717
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Virginia	443618	22594	Louisiana	280631	17651	North Dakota	173977	18546
Washington	440542	22610	Alabama	269135	18010	Nebraska	164326	20488

### Average list price: 1/51 (\$898,800 + \$713,864 + ... + \$164,326) = \$369,687

### **AVERAGING AVERAGES?**

- Hawaii's average listing
- Hawaii's population
- Illinois' average listing
- Illinois' population

- = \$896,800
  - = 1,275,194
- = \$377,683
- = 12,763,371



Illinois and Hawaii each get an equal weight of 1/51 = .019607 when the mean is computed.

Looks like Hawaii is getting too much influence ...



### WEIGHTED AVERAGE

Simple average = 
$$\overline{\text{Listing}}$$
 =  $\sum_{\text{States}} \text{Weight}_{\text{State}}$  Listing<sub>State</sub>  
Weight =  $\frac{1}{51}$  = .019607

Illinois is 10 times as big as Hawaii. Suppose we use weights that are in proportion to the state's population. (The weights sum to 1.0.) Weight<sub>State</sub> varies from .001717 for Wyoming to .121899 for California

New average is \$409,234 compared to \$369,687 without weights, an error of 11%

# Sometimes an unequal weighting of the observations is necessary

State population data: http://www.factmonster.com/ipka/A0004986.html

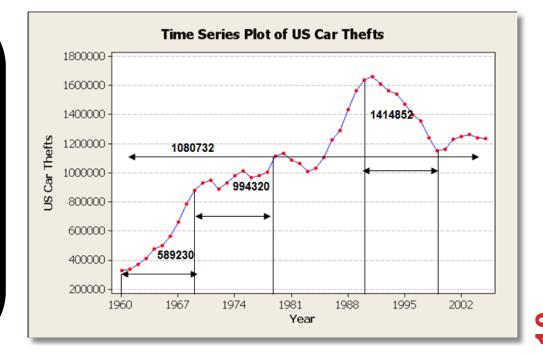
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### **AVERAGES & TIME SERIES**

Averaging trending time series is usually not helpful Mean changes completely depending on time interval What about periodic time series data ??????????

#### Ask yourself:

- Does the mean over the entire observation period mean anything?
- Does it estimate anything meaningful?



### THE SAMPLE MEDIAN

#### Median:

- Sort the data
- Take the middle point\*

#### Odd number:

• Central observation: Med[1,2,4,6,8,9,17]

#### Even number:

 Midpoint between the two central observations Med[1,2,4,6,8,9,14,17] = (6+8)/2=7

\* CMSC351 will show you how to find the median in linear time!

### WHAT IS THE CENTER?

The mean and median measure the central tendency of data

Generally, the center of of a dataset is a point in its range that is close to the data.

**Close?** Need a **distance metric** between two points x and x<sub>2</sub>

We've talked about some already!

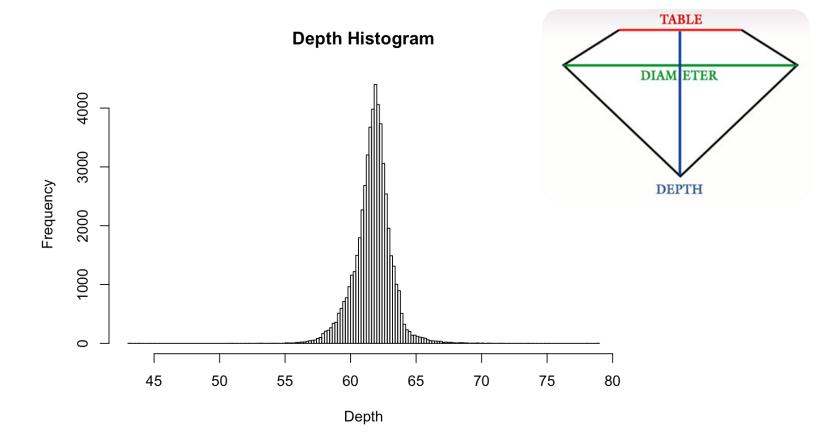
- Absolute deviation: | x<sub>1</sub> x<sub>2</sub> |
- Squared deviation:  $(x_1 x_2)^2$

We'll define the center based on these metrics



### **DATASET FOR THIS PART**

#### 53,940 measurements of diamonds



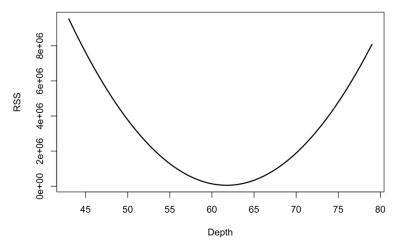
More info: <u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diamond (gemstone)#Gemological characteristics</u>

# Define a center point $\mu$ based on some function of the distance from each data point to that center point

• Residual sum of squares (RSS) for a point µ:

$$RSS(\mu) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2$$



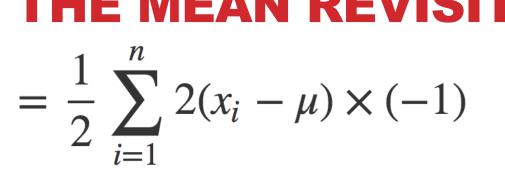


#### 

• Find the derivative of RSS and set it to zero, solve for μ!

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial\mu}\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i}-\mu)^{2} = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{\partial}{\partial\mu}(x_{i}-\mu)^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2(x_i - \mu) \times (-1)$$



n

 $\overline{i=1}$ 

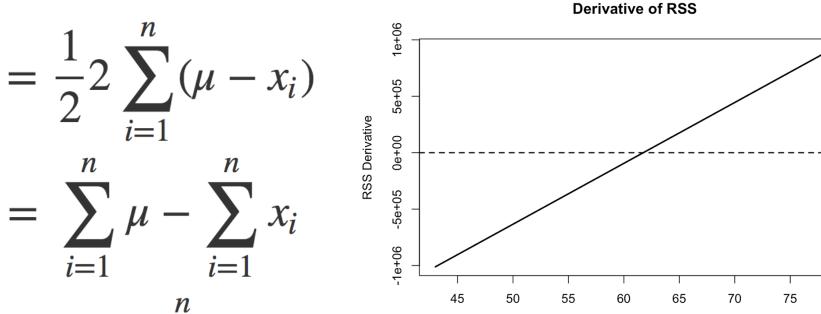
 $x_i$ 

n

 $x_i$ 

n

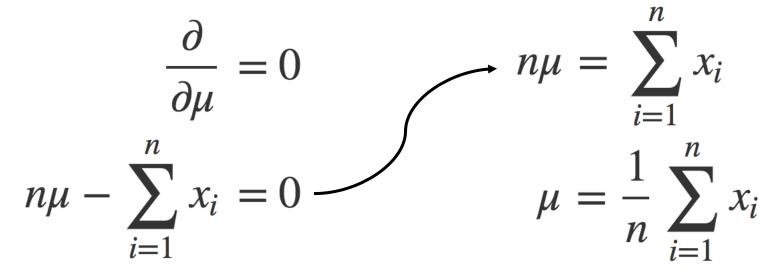
 $= n\mu$  ·



Depth

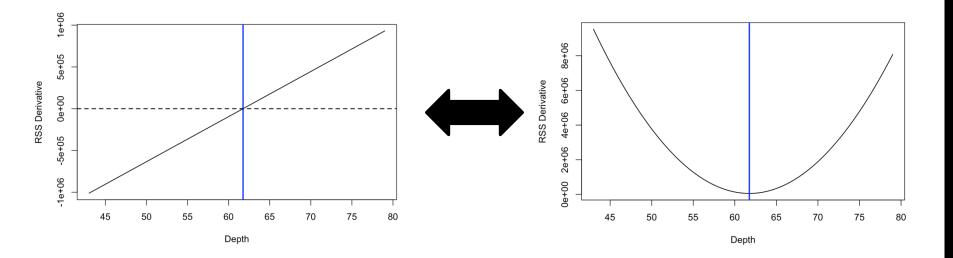
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Set the derivative to zero and solve for  $\mu$ :



The mean is the point  $\mu$  that minimizes the RSS for a dataset.

THE MEAN REVISITED What about a weighted average ???????

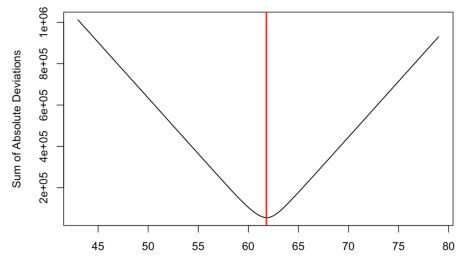


The mean is the point  $\mu$  that minimizes the RSS for a dataset.

Define a center point *m* based on some function of the distance from each data point to that center point

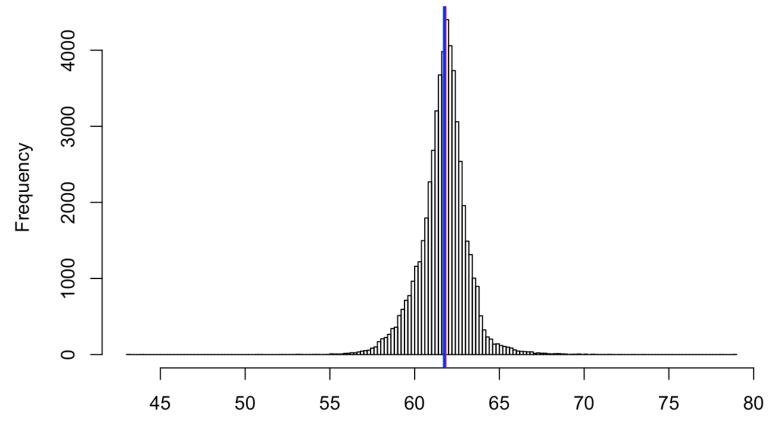
• The median *m* minimizes the sum of absolute differences:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i - m|$$



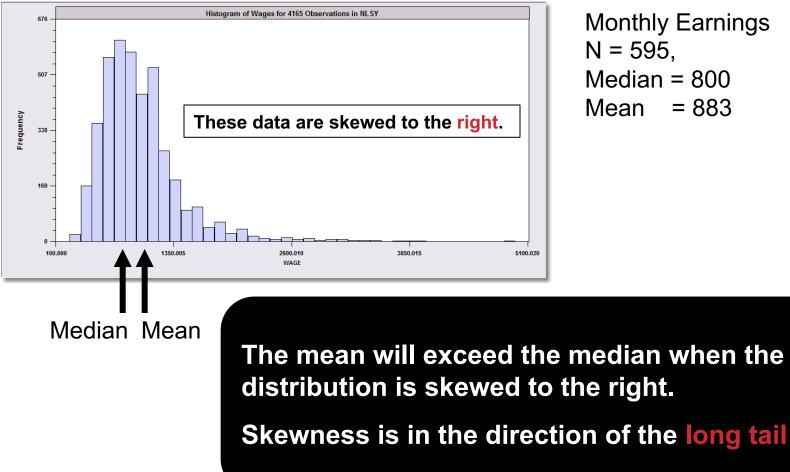
#### **MEAN != MEDIAN**

**Depth Histogram** 



Depth

### **SKEWED DATA**



Monthly Earnings N = 595,Median = 800Mean = 883

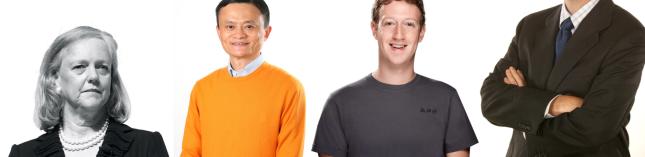
### **SKEWNESS**

Extreme observations distort means but not medians.

#### **Outlying observations distort the mean:**

- Med [1,2,4,6,8,9,17] = 6
- Mean[1,2,4,6,8,9,17] = 6.714
- Med [1,2,4,6,8,9,17000] = 6 (still)
- Mean[1,2,4,6,8,9,17000] = 2432.8 (!)

Typically occurs when there are some outlying observations, such as in cross sections of income or wealth and/or when the sample is not very large.



#### HOME PAGE TODAY'S PAPER VIDEO MOST POPULAR U.S. Edition ▼

#### The New York Times

#### **Business Day**

#### Income Gap Grows Wider (and Faster)

By ANNA BERNASEK Published: August 31, 2013

INCOME inequality in the United States has been growing for decades, but the trend appears to have accelerated during the Obama administration. One measure of this is the relationship between median and average wages.

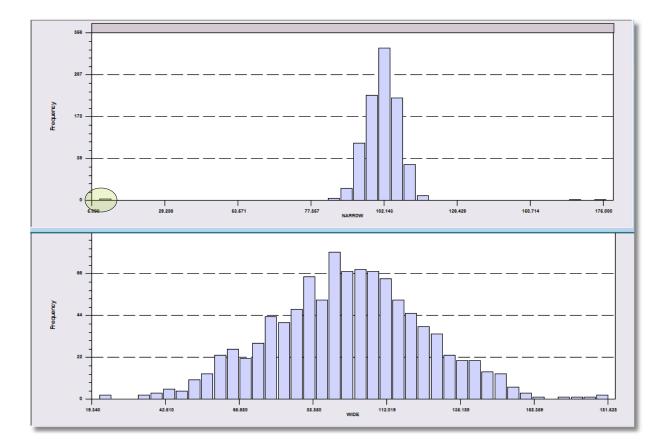
1.7% Increase in median annual wage 3.9% Increase in average annual wage 2009 through 2011

The median wage is straightforward: it's the midpoint of everyone's wages. Interpreting the average, though, can be tricky. If the income of a handful of people soars while everyone else's remains the same, the entire group's average may still rise substantially. So when average wages grow faster than the median, as happened from 2009 through 2011, it

means that lower earners are falling further behind those at the top.

One way to see the acceleration in inequality is to look at the ratio of average to median annual wages. From 2001 through 2008, during the George W. Bush administration, that ratio grew at 0.28 percentage point per year. From 2009 through 2011, the latest year for which the data is available, the ratio increased 1.14 percentage points annually, or roughly four times faster.

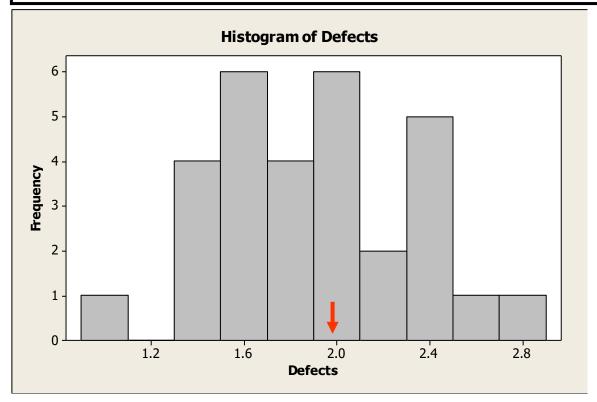
### **MORE INFORMATION NEEDED!**



Both data sets have a mean of about 100.

### DISPERSION OF THE OBSERVATIONS

30 hours of average defect data on sets of circuit boards.										
1.45	1.65	1.50	2.25	1.65	1.60	2.30	2.20	2.70	1.70	
2.35	1.70	1.90	1.45	1.40	2.60	2.05	1.70	1.05	2.35	
1.90	1.55	1.95	1.60	2.05	2.05	1.70	2.30	1.30	2.35	



We quantify the variation of the values around the mean.

Note the range is from 1.05 to 2.70. This gives an idea where the data lie.

The mean plus a measure of the variation do the same job.

#### RANGE AS A MEASURE OF DISPERSION

**Problems** ???????? 287 Frequency 178 63.671 128.429 160.714 28.288 77.867 102.143 Frequency 112.019 66.880 88,860 135,189 168,369 181.628 18 240 42 510 WIDE

These two data sets both have 1,000 observations that range from about 10 to about 180.

#### VARIANCE & STDEV: UNIVARIATE MEASURES OF DISPERSION

Variance = 
$$\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{X}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$
 or  $\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$   
Standard deviation =  $\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{X}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$ 

#### The variance is commonly used statistic for spread

Standard deviation "fixes this," can be used as an interpretable unit of measurement

Why n-1? http://nebula.deanza.edu/~bloom/math10/m10divideby\_nminus1.pdf

### VARIANCE, ASIDE: WHY DIVIDE BY N-1?

Remember: we are typically calculating the mean / median / variance / etc of a sample of a population

• Want that {mean, median, variance, ...} to be an "unbiased" estimate of the true population's {mean, median, variance, ...}

#### **Unbiased? Consider variance ...**

- 1. Look at every possible sample of the population
- 2. Compute sample variance of each population
- 3. Is the average of those variances equal to the population variance? If so, then this is an "unbiased" estimator.

### VARIANCE, ASIDE: WHY DIVIDE BY N-1?

Dividing by n-1 in the sample variance computation leads to an unbiased estimate of the population variance

Intuition. Fix a sample ...

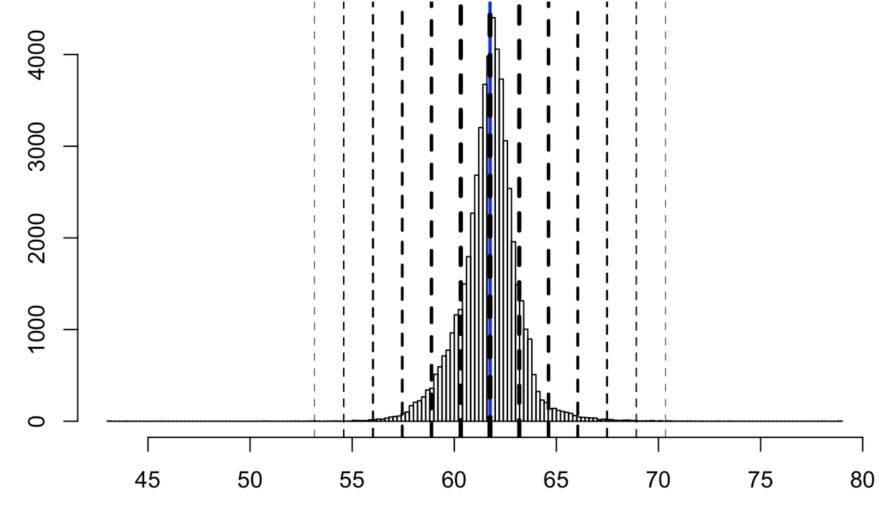
- Variance measures distribution around a mean
- Sampled values are, on average, closer to sample mean than to true population mean
- So, we will underestimate the true variance slightly
- Using n-1 instead of n makes our variance calculation bigger

#### This "embiggening" impacts smaller *n* more than larger *n*

- Larger samples are better estimates of population
- If sample is the population, just divide by *n* ...

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

Frequency



#### **Depth Histogram**

Depth

30

#### USING "STANDARD DEVIATIONS FROM THE MEAN" AS A UNIT

SDs	Proportion	Interpretation
1	0.68	68% of the data is within ± 1 sds
2	0.95	95% of the data is within ± 2 sds
3	0.9973	99.73% of the data is within ± 3 sds
4	0.999937	99.9937% of the data is within ± 4 sds
5	0.9999994	99.999943% of the data is within ± 5 sds
6	1	99.9999998% of the data is within ± 6 sds

# PAIRS OF DATA POINTS?



OUY



### CORRELATION

Variables Y and X vary together

Causality vs. correlation: Does movement in X "cause" movement in Y in some metaphysical sense?

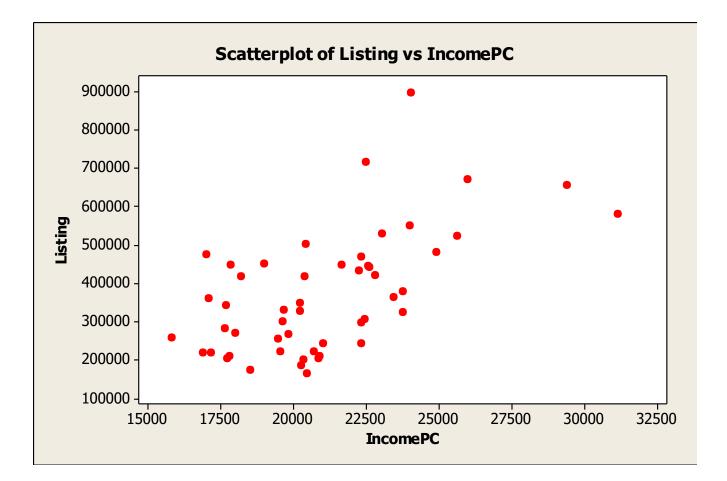
#### Correlation

- Simultaneous movement through a statistical relationship
- Simultaneous variation "induced" by the variation of a common third effect

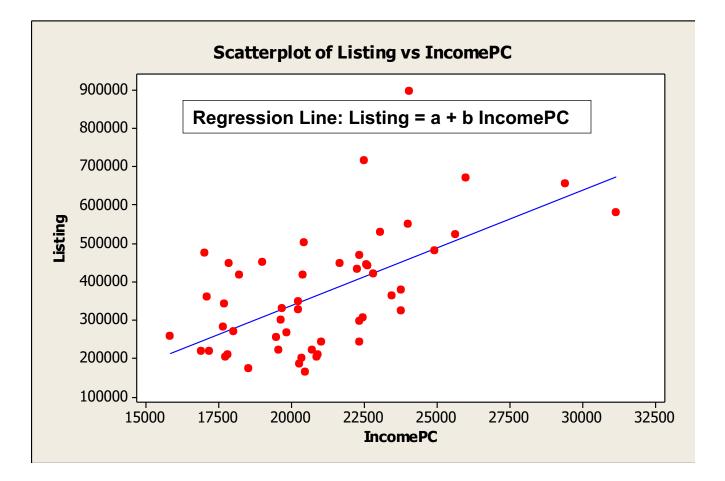
### HOUSE PRICES & PER CAPITA INCOME

State	Listing	IncomePC	State	Listing	IncomePC	State	Listing	IncomePC
Hawaii	896800	24057	Rhode Island	432534	22251	Texas	266388	19857
California	713864	22493	Delaware	420845	22828	Mississippi	255774	15838
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Virginia	443618	22594	Louisiana	280631	17651	North Dakota	173977	18546
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### SCATTER PLOT SUGGESTS POSITIVE CORRELATION

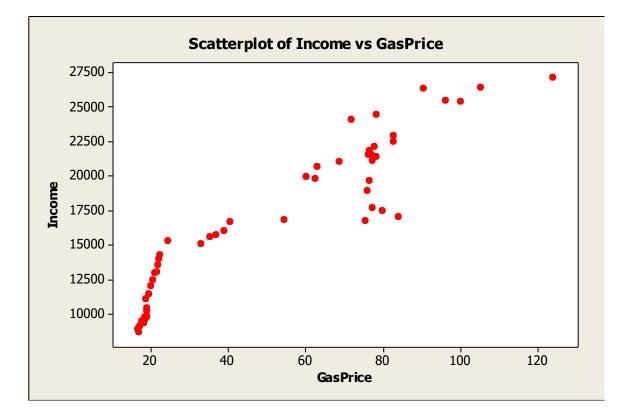


#### LINEAR REGRESSION MEASURES CORRELATION



### CORRELATION IS NOT CAUSATION

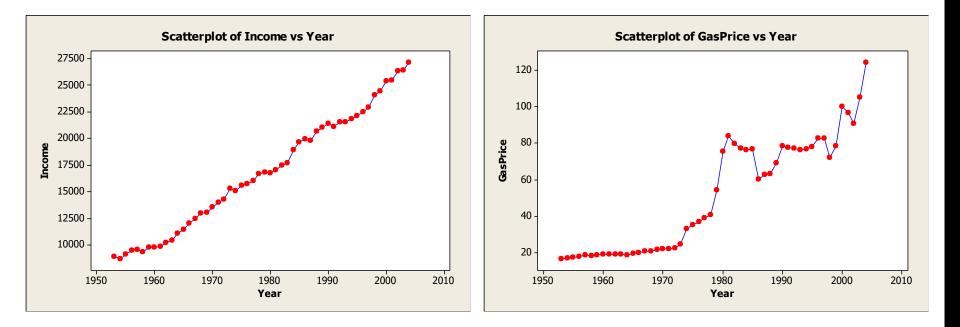
#### Price and income seem to be **positively** correlated.



US gasoline prices, 1953-2004, plotted against per-capita US income

### **A HIDDEN RELATIONSHIP**

Not positively "related" to each other; both positively related to "time."





Want to capture: some variable X varies in the same direction and at the same scale as some other variable Y

$$cov(x,y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})$$

#### What happens if:

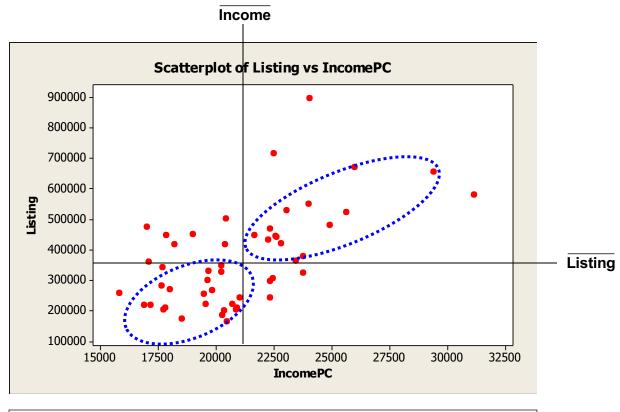
- X varies in the opposite direction as Y ????????
- X varies in the same direction as Y ???????

What are the units of the covariance ????????

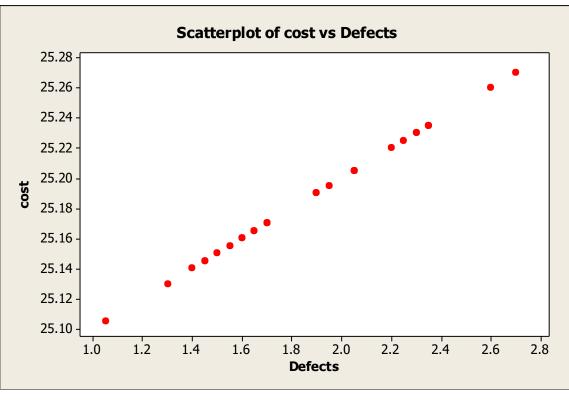
Pearson's correlation coefficient is unitless in [-1,+1]:

$$cor(x, y) = \frac{cov(x, y)}{sd(x)sd(y)}$$

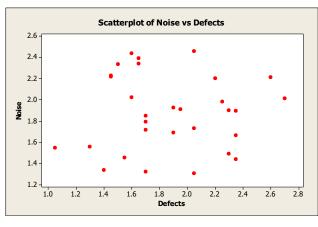
### CORRELATION



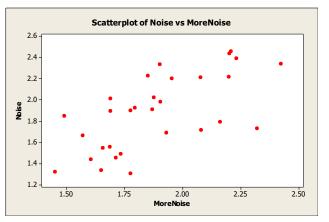
### **CORRELATIONS**



r = +1.0

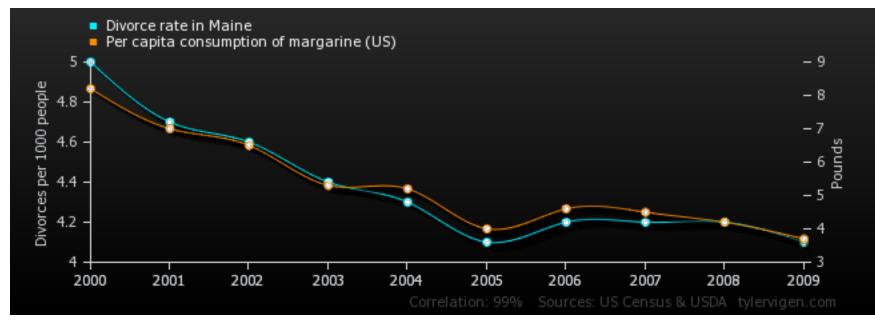


r = 0.0



r = +0.5

### CORRELATION IS NOT CAUSATION!!!



	<u>2000</u>	<u>2001</u>	<u>2002</u>	<u>2003</u>	<u>2004</u>	<u>2005</u>	<u>2006</u>	<u>2007</u>	<u>2008</u>	<u>2009</u>
Divorce rate in Maine Divorces per 1000 people (US Census)	5	4.7	4.6	4.4	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1
Per capita consumption of margarine (US) Pounds (USDA)	8.2	7	6.5	5.3	5.2	4	4.6	4.5	4.2	3.7

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			_

### ??????????

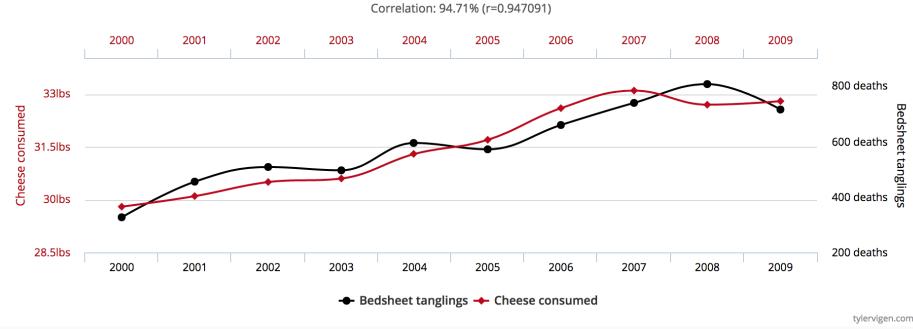
http://tylervigen.com/spurious-correlations

## JUST TO DRIVE THE POINT HOME ...

#### Per capita cheese consumption

correlates with

#### Number of people who died by becoming tangled in their bedsheets



Data sources: U.S. Department of Agriculture and Centers for Disease Control & Prevention



### **TRANSFORMATIONS**

### TRANSFORMATIONS

#### So, you've figured out that your data are:

- Skewed
- Have vastly different ranges across datasets and/or different units

### What do you do?

Transform the variables to:

- ease the validity and interpretation of data analyses
- change or ease the type of Stat/ML models you can use



## **STANDARDIZATION**

#### Transforming the variable to a comparable metric

- known unit
- known mean
- known standard deviation
- known range

#### Three ways of standardizing:

- P-standardization (percentile scores)
- Z-standardization (z-scores)
- D-standardization (dichotomize a variable)



### WHEN YOU SHOULD ALWAYS STANDARDIZE

When averaging multiple variables, e.g. when creating a socioeconomic status variable out of income and education.

When comparing the effects of variables with unequal units, e.g. does age or education have a larger effect on income?





### **P-STANDARDIZATION**

Every observation is assigned a number between 0 and 100, indicating the percentage of observation beneath it.

Can be read from the cumulative distribution

In case of knots: assign midpoints

The median, quartiles, quintiles, and deciles are special cases of P-scores.



	rent	cum %	percentile
room 1	175	5,3%	5,3%
room 2	180	10,5%	10,5%
room 3	185	15,8%	15,8%
room 4	190	21,1%	21,1%
room 5	200	26,3%	26,3%
room 6	210	31,6%	36,8%
room 7	210	36,8%	36,8%
room 8	210	42,1%	36,8%
room 9	230	47,4%	47,4%
room 10	240	52,6%	55,3%
room 11	240	57,9%	55,3%
room 12	250	63,2%	65,8%
room 13	250	68,4%	65,8%
room 14	280	73,7%	73,7%
room 15	300	78,9%	81,6%
room 16	300	84,2%	81,6%
room 17	310	89,5%	89,5%
room 18	325	94,7%	94,7%
room 19	620	100,0%	100,0%

Slides adapted from Maarten Buis

49

### **P-STANDARDIZATION**

- Turns the variable into a ranking, i.e. it turns the variable into a ordinal variable.
- It is a non-linear transformation: relative distances change
- Results in a fixed mean, range, and standard deviation; M=50, SD=28.6, This can change slightly due to knots
- A histogram of a P-standardized variable approximates a uniform distribution



## **CENTERING AND SCALING**

#### Transform your data into a unitless scale

- Put data into "standard deviations from the mean" units
- This is called standardizing a variable, into standard units

#### Given data points $x = x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ :

$$z_i = \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})}{\mathrm{sd}(x)}$$

Translates *x* into a scaled and centered variable *z* 

### **CENTERING OR SCALING**

Maybe you just want to center the data:

$$z_i = (x_i - \overline{x})$$

$$z_i = \frac{x_i}{\mathrm{sd}(x_i)}$$

# DISCRETE TO CONTINUOUS VARIABLES

#### Some models only work on continuous numeric data

#### 

• health\_insurance = {"yes", "no"}  $\rightarrow$  {1, 0}

#### Why not {-1, +1} or {-10, +14}?

- 0/1 encoding lets us say things like "if a person has healthcare then their income increases by \$X."
- Might need {-1,+1} for certain ML algorithms (e.g., SVM)

### DISCRETE TO CONTINUOUS VARIABLES

What about non-binary variables?

My main transportation is a {BMW, Bicycle, Hovercraft}

One option: { BMW  $\rightarrow$  1, Bicycle  $\rightarrow$  2, Hovercraft  $\rightarrow$  3 }

• Problems ??????????

**One-hot encoding**: convert a categorical variable with N values into a N-bit vector:

BMW → [1, 0, 0]; Bicycle → [0, 1, 0]; Hovercraft → [0, 0, 1]

```
# Converts dtype=category to one-hot-encoded cols
cols = ['my_transportation']
df = df.get_dummies( columns = cols )
```

# CONTINUOUS TO DISCRETE VARIABLES

Do doctors prescribe a certain medication to older kids more often? Is there a difference in wage based on age?

Pick a discrete set of bins, then put values into the bins

#### **Equal-length bins:**

- Bins have an equal-length range and skewed membership
- Good/Bad ???????

#### Equal-sized bins:

- Bins have variable-length ranges but equal membership
- Good/Bad ???????



### **SKEWED DATA**

#### Skewed data often arises in multiplicative processes:

• Some points float around 1, but one unlucky draw  $\rightarrow$  0

#### Logarithmic transforms reduce skew:

- If values are all positive, apply log<sub>2</sub> transform
- If some values are negative:
  - Shift all values so they are positive, apply log<sub>2</sub>
  - Signed log:  $sign(x) * log_2(|x| + 1)$





### **SKEWED DATA**

