## Lecture 2

Describing data with graphs and numbers. Normal Distribution. Data relationships.

## Describing distributions with numbers

- Mean
- Median
- Quartiles
- Five number summary. Boxplots
- Standard deviation


## Mean

- The mean
- The arithmetic mean of a data set (average value)
- Denoted by

$$
\bar{x}=\frac{x_{1}+x_{2}+\ldots+x_{n}}{n}=\frac{1}{n} \sum x_{i}
$$

TABLE 1.8 Fuel economy (miles per gallon) for model year 2001 cars

| Minicompact cars |  |  | Two-seater cars |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Model | City | Highway | Model | City | Highway |
| Audi TT Coupe | 22 | 31 | Acura NSX | 17 | 24 |
| BMW 325CI Convertible | 19 | 27 | Audi TT Roadster | 22 | 30 |
| BMW 330CI Convertible | 20 | 28 | BMW Z3 Coupe | 21 | 28 |
| BMW M3 Convertible | 16 | 23 | BMW Z3 Roadster | 20 | 27 |
| Jaguar XK8 Convertible | 17 | 24 | BMW Z8 | 13 | 21 |
| Jaguar XKR Convertible | 16 | 22 | Chevrolet Corvette | 18 | 26 |
| Mercedes-Benz CLK320 | 20 | 28 | Dodge Viper | 11 | 21 |
| Mercedes-Benz CLK430 | 18 | 24 | Ferrari Modena | 11 | 16 |
| Mitsubishi Eclipse | 22 | 30 | Ferrari Maranello | 8 | 13 |
| Porsche 911 Carrera | 17 | 25 | Honda Insight | 61 | 68 |
| Porsche 911 Turbo | 15 | 22 | Honda S2000 | 20 | 26 |
|  |  |  | Lamborghini Diablo | 10 | 13 |
|  |  |  | Mazda Miata | 22 | 28 |
|  |  |  | Mercedes-Benz SL500 | 16 | 23 |
|  |  |  | Mercedes-Benz SL600 | 13 | 19 |
|  |  |  | Mercedes-Benz SLK320 | 21 | 27 |
|  |  |  | Plymouth Prowler | 17 | 23 |
|  |  |  | Porsche Boxster | 19 | 27 |
|  |  |  | Toyota MR2 | 25 | 30 |

- Mean highway mileage for 19 2-seaters:

Sum: $24+30+\ldots+30=490$
Divide by $n=19$
Average: 25.8 miles/gallon

## Problem: Honda Insight 68miles/gallon! If we exclude it, mean mileage: 23.4 miles/gallon

- Mean can be easily influenced by outliers. It is not a robust measure of center.


## Median

- Median is the midpoint of a distribution.
- Median is a resistant or robust measure of center.
- Not sensitive to extreme observations
- In a symmetric distribution mean=median
- In a skewed distribution the mean is further out in the long tail than is the median.
- Example: house prices: usually right skewed
- The mean price of existing houses sold in 2000 in Indiana was 176,200. (Mean chases the right tail)
- The median price of these houses was 139,000.


## Measure of center: the median

The median is the midpoint of a distribution-the number such that half of the observations are smaller and half are larger.

| 1 | 1 | 0.6 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 2 | 2 | 1.2 |
| 3 | 3 | 1.6 |
| 4 | 4 | 1.9 |
| 5 | 5 | 1.5 |
| 6 | 6 | 2.1 |
| 7 | 7 | 2.3 |
| 8 | 8 | 2.3 |
| 9 | 9 | 2.5 |
| 10 | 10 | 2.8 |
| 11 | 11 | 2.9 |
| 12 | 12 | 3.3 |
| 13 |  | 3.4 |
| 14 | 1 | 3.6 |
| 15 | 2 | 3.7 |
| 16 | 3 | 3.8 |
| 17 | 4 | 3.9 |
| 18 | 5 | 4.1 |
| 19 | 6 | 4.2 |
| 20 | 7 | 4.5 |
| 21 | 8 | 4.7 |
| 22 | 9 | 4.9 |
| 23 | 10 | 5.3 |
| 24 | 11 | 5.6 |
| 25 | 12 | 6.1 |

1. Sort observations by size.
$n=$ number of observations
2.a. If $n$ is odd, the median is observation $(n+1) / 2$ down the list

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \leftarrow n=25 \\
& (n+1) / 2=26 / 2=13 \\
& \text { Median }=3.4
\end{aligned}
$$

2.b. If $n$ is even, the median is the mean of the two middle observations.
$n=24 \rightarrow$
$n / 2=12$
Median $=(3.3+3.4) / 2=3.35$

| 1 | 1 | 0.6 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 2 | 2 | 1.2 |
| 3 | 3 | 1.6 |
| 4 | 4 | 1.9 |
| 5 | 5 | 1.5 |
| 6 | 6 | 2.1 |
| 7 | 7 | 2.3 |
| 8 | 8 | 2.3 |
| 9 | 9 | 2.5 |
| 10 | 10 | 2.8 |
| 11 | 11 | 2.9 |
| 12 |  | 3.3 |
| 13 |  | 3.4 |
| 14 | 1 | 3.6 |
| 15 | 2 | 3.7 |
| 16 | 3 | 3.8 |
| 17 | 4 | 3.9 |
| 18 | 5 | 4.1 |
| 19 | 6 | 4.2 |
| 20 | 7 | 4.5 |
| 21 | 8 | 4.7 |
| 22 | 9 | 4.9 |
| 23 | 10 | 5.3 |
| 24 | 11 | 5.6 |

## Comparing the mean and the median

The mean and the median are the same only if the distribution is symmetrical. The median is a measure of center that is resistant to skew and outliers. The mean is not.


Mean and median for skewed distributions

Mean
Right skew

## Mean and median of a distribution with outliers

Disease X: percent of people dying over time


The mean is pulled to the right a lot by the outliers (from 3.4 to 4.2).

The median, on the other hand, is only slightly pulled to the right by the outliers (from 3.4 to 3.6).

## Impact of skewed data

## Mean and median of a symmetric

Disease X:

$$
x=3.4
$$

$$
M=3.4
$$

Mean and median are the same.

... and a right-skewed distribution

Multiple myeloma:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \bar{x}=3.4 \\
& M=2.5
\end{aligned}
$$

The mean is pulled toward the skew.


## Measures of spread: Quartiles

- Quartiles: Divides data into four parts
- $p$-th percentile - $p$ percent of the observations fall at or below it.
- Median - 50 -th percentile
- Q1-first quartile - 25 -th percentile (median of the lower half of data)
- Q3-third quartile - 75-th percentile (median of the upper half of data)


## Using R :

- First thing first: import the data. I prefer to use Excel first to save data into a .csv file (comma separated values).
- Read the file TA01_008.XLS from the website and save it as TA01_008.csv
- Now R: I like to use tinn-R as the editor. Open tinn-R and save a file in the same directory that you pot the .csv file.
- Now go to R/Rgui/ and click Initiate preferred. If everything is configured fine an R window should open
- Now type and send line to R:
- table1.08=read.csv("TA01_008.csv",header=TRUE)
- This will import the data into R also telling R that the first line in the data contains the variable names.
- Table1.08 has a "table" structure. To access individual components in it you have to use table1.08\$nameofvariable, for example:
- table1.08\$CarType
- Produces:
- [1] Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two Two
- [16] Two Two Two Two Mini Mini Mini Mini Mini Mini Mini Mini Mini Mini Mini
- Levels: Mini Two
- This is a vector and notice that $R$ knows it is a categorical variable.
- mean $(x)$ calculates the mean of variable $x$ - median(x) will give the median
- In fact you should read section 3.1 in the $R$ textbook for all the functions you will need
- summary(data.object) is another useful function. In fact:
- summary(table1.08)
- CarType City Highway
- Mini:11 Min. : 8.00 Min. :13.00
- Two :19 1st Qu.:16.00 1st Qu.:22.25
» Median :18.00 Median :25.50
» Mean :18.90 Mean :25.80
" 3rd Qu.:20.75 3rd Qu.:28.00
» Max. :61.00 Max. :68.00
- Lastly if you wish to apply functions only for the part of the dataframe that contains Mini cars:
- tapply(table1.08\$City,table1.08\$CarType,mean)
- Mini Two
- 18.3636419 .21053
- The tapply call takes the table1.08\$City variable, splits it according to table1.08\$CarType variable levels and calculates the function mean for each group.
- In the same way you can try:
- tapply(table1.08\$City,table1.08\$CarType,summary)


## Doing it by hand:

The first quartile, $Q_{1}$, is the value in the sample that has $25 \%$ of the data at or below it ( $\Leftrightarrow$ it is the median of the lower half of the sorted data, excluding $M$ ).

The third quartile, $Q_{3}$, is the value in the sample that has $75 \%$ of the data at or below it ( $\Leftrightarrow$ it is the median of the upper half of the sorted data, excluding $M$ ).


## Five-number summary and boxplot

| 25 | 6 | 6.1 | Largest $=$ max $=6.1$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: |
| 24 | 5 | 5.6 |  |
| 23 | 4 | 5.3 |  |
| 22 | 3 | 4.9 |  |
| 21 | 2 | 4.7 |  |
| 20 | 1 | 4.5 | $Q_{3}=$ third quartile |
| 19 | 6 | 4.2 | $=4.35$ |
| 18 | 5 | 4.1 |  |
| 17 | 4 | 3.9 |  |
| 16 | 3 | 3.8 |  |
| 15 | 2 | 3.7 |  |
| 14 | 1 | 3.6 |  |
| 13 |  | 3.4 | $M=$ median $=3.4$ |
| 12 | 6 | 3.3 |  |
| 11 | 5 | 2.9 |  |
| 10 | 4 | 2.8 |  |
| 9 | 3 | 2.5 |  |
| 8 | 2 | 2.3 |  |
| 7 | 1 | 2.3 | $Q_{1}=$ first quartile |
| 6 | 6 | 2.1 | 2 |
| 5 | 5 | 1.5 | $=2.2$ |
| 4 | 4 | 1.9 |  |
| 3 | 3 | 1.6 |  |
| 2 | 2 | 1.2 | and |
| 1 | 1 | 0.6 | Smallest $=$ min $=0.6$ |



Five-number summary: $\min Q_{1} M Q_{3} \max$

## Five-Number Summary

- Minimum Q1 Median Q3 Maximum
- Boxplot - visual representation of the fivenumber summary.
- Central box: Q1 to Q3.
- Line inside box: Median
- Extended straight lines: lowest to highest observation, except outliers
- Outliers marked as circles or stars.
- To make Boxplots in R use function
- boxplot(x)


## Boxplots for skewed data



Comparing box plots for a normal and a right-skewed distribution


Boxplots remain true to the data and depict clearly symmetry or skew.

## R code:

- boxplot(table1.08\$City)
- boxplot(table1.08\$Highway)
- boxplot(table1.08\$City-table1.08\$CarType)
- boxplot(table1.08\$Highway-table1.08\$CarType)
- par(mfrow=c(1,2))
- boxplot(table1.08\$City-table1.08\$CarType)
- boxplot(table1.08\$Highway-table1.08\$CarType)
- par(mfrow=c(1,1))


Figure 1-17
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## The criterion for suspected outliers

- Outliers are troublesome data points, and it is important to be able to identify them.
- The interquartile range - IQR=Q3-Q1
- An observation is a suspected outlier if it falls more then $1.5^{*}$ IQR above the third quartile or below the first quartile.
- This is called the "1.5 * IQR rule for outliers."

| 25 | 6 | 7.9 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 24 | 5 | 6.1 |
| 23 | 4 | 5.3 |
| 22 | 3 | 4.9 |
| 21 | 2 | 4.7 |
| 20 | 1 | 4.5 |
| 19 | 6 | 4.2 |$Q_{3}=4.35$



Individual \#25 has a value of 7.9 years, which is 3.55 years above the third quartile. This is more than 3.225 years, 1.5 * IQR. Thus, dividual \#25 is a suspected outlier.

## Measure of spread: the standard deviation

The standard deviation " $s$ " is used to describe the variation around the mean. Like the mean, it is not resistant to skew or outliers.

| 69 | Women's Heig |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 68 |  |  |
| 67 |  |  |
| 66 |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| 61 |  |  |
| 60 |  |  |
| 59 |  |  |
|  |  |  |

1. First calculate the variance $s^{2}$.

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

2. Then take the square root to get the standard deviation $s$.

$$
s=\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}
$$

## Calculations ...

$$
s=\sqrt{\frac{1}{d f} \sum_{1}^{n}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}\right)^{2}}
$$

Mean $=63.4$
Sum of squared deviations from mean $=85.2$
Degrees freedom $(\mathrm{df})=(n-1)=13$
$s^{2}=$ variance $=85.2 / 13=6.55$ inches squared
$s=$ standard deviation $=\sqrt{ } 6.55=2.56$ inches

Women height

| $\mathbf{i}$ | $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}}$ | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | $\left(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}}-\mathbf{x}\right)$ | $\left(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}}-\mathbf{x}\right)^{\mathbf{2}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 59 | 63.4 | -4.4 | 19.0 |
| 2 | 60 | 63.4 | -3.4 | 11.3 |
| 3 | 61 | 63.4 | -2.4 | 5.6 |
| 4 | 62 | 63.4 | -1.4 | 1.8 |
| 5 | 62 | 63.4 | -1.4 | 1.8 |
| 6 | 63 | 63.4 | -0.4 | 0.1 |
| 7 | 63 | 63.4 | -0.4 | 0.1 |
| 8 | 63 | 63.4 | -0.4 | 0.1 |
| 9 | 64 | 63.4 | 0.6 | 0.4 |
| 10 | 64 | 63.4 | 0.6 | 0.4 |
| 11 | 65 | 63.4 | 1.6 | 2.7 |
| 12 | 66 | 63.4 | 2.6 | 7.0 |
| 13 | 67 | 63.4 | 3.6 | 13.3 |
| 14 | 68 | 63.4 | 4.6 | 21.6 |
|  | Mean <br> 63.4 |  | Sum <br> 0.0 | Sum <br> 85.2 |

## Properties of the standard deviation

- Standard deviation is always non-negative
- $s=0$ when there is no spread
- $s$ is not resistant to presence of outliers
- The five-number summary usually better describes a skewed distribution or a distribution with outliers.
- Mean and standard deviation are usually used for reasonably symmetric distributions without outliers.


## Linear Transformations: changing units of measurements

- $x_{\text {new }}=a+b x_{\text {old }}$
- Common conversions
- $\mathrm{X}_{\text {miles }}=0.62 \mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{km}}$

Distance $=100 \mathrm{~km}$ is equivalent to 62
miles

- $x_{g}=28.35 x_{o z}$,

$$
x_{\text {celsius }}=\frac{5}{9}\left(x_{f a h r}-32\right)=-\frac{160}{9}+\frac{5}{9} x_{f a h r}
$$

- Linear transformations do not change the shape of a distribution.
- They however change the center and the spread e.g: weights of newly hatched pythons (Example 1.21)

| Python <br> Weight | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| oz | 1.13 | 1.02 | 1.23 | 1.06 | 1.16 |
| g | 32 | 29 | 35 | 30 | 33 |

- python.oz=c(1.13, 1.02,1.23,1.06,1.16)
- python.g=28.35*python.oz
- mean(python.oz)
- mean(python.g)
- sd(python.oz)
- $\quad$ sd(python.g)
- You could of course calculate the mean in g by multipying the mean in oz with 28.35


## Effect of a linear transformation

- Multiplying each observation by a positive number $\mathbf{b}$ multiplies both measures of center (mean and median) and measures of spread (interquartile range and standard deviation) by $\mathbf{b}$.
- Adding the same number a to each observation adds a to measures of center and to quartiles and other percentiles but does not change measures of spread (IQR and s.d.)
- Your Transformation: $x_{n e w}=a+b * x_{\text {old }}$
- mean $_{\text {new }}=a+b *$ mean $_{\text {old }}$
- median $_{\text {new }}=a+b *$ median $_{\text {old }}$
- $s . d_{\text {new }}=|b| * s . d_{\text {old }}$
- $I Q R_{\text {new }}=|\mathrm{b}| * \mid Q R_{\text {old }}$ $|b|=$ absolute value of $b$ (value without sign)


## The normal distribution



Normal density curve


Median and mean

## A right skewed density curve




## Mean

 MedianFigure 1-24b
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- $\mu$ - mean of the idealized distribution (of the density curve)
- $\sigma$ - standard deviation of the idealized distribution
- $\bar{X}$ - mean of the actual observations (sample mean)
- $s$ - standard deviation of the actual observations (sample standard deviation)


## Mean is the balance point of the density curve.



Figure 1-25
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- Symmetric, unimodal, bell-shaped
- Characterized by mean $\mu$ and s.d. $\sigma$.
- Mean is the point of symmetry
- Can visually speculate $\sigma$
- Good description of many real variables (test scores, crop yields, height)
- Approximates many other distributions well


Figure 1-26
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Figure 1-27
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## Normal quantile plots R-qqnorm()

- Also named Q-Q plots (quantile-quantile plots)
- USED to determine if the data is close to the normal distribution
- Arrange the data from smallest to largest and record corresponding percentiles.
- Find z-scores for these percentiles (for example z-score for 5 -th percentile is $z=-1.645$.)
- Plot each data point against the corresponding $z$.
- If the data distribution is close to normal the plotted points will lie close to the 45 degree straight line.

Newcomb's data


Newcomb's data without outliers.



(a)

(c)

(b)


Figure 1-40
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## Looking at Data-Relationships

This is on data with two or more variables:

- Response vs Explanatory variables
- Scatterplots
- Correlation
- Height and weight of same individual
- Smoking habits and life expectancy
- Age and bone-density of individuals
- Gender and political affiliation
- Gender and Smoking
- Association: Some values of one variable tend to occur more often with certain values of the other variable
- Both the variables measured on same set of individuals
- Caution: Often spurious, other variables lurking in the background
- Shorter women have lower risk of heart attack
- Countries with more TV sets have better life expectancy rates
- Just explore association or investigate a causal relationship?
- Who are the individuals observed?
- What variables are present?
- Quantitative or categorical?
- Association measures depend on types of variables.
- We will assume Quantitative in this chapter.
- Response (Y) measures outcome of interest. Explanatory ( X ) explains and sometimes causes changes in response variable.
- Different amount of alcohol given to mice, body temperature noted (belief: drop in body temperature with increasing amount of alcohol)
Response: ? Explanatory: ?
- SAT scores used to predict college GPA Response:? Explanatory: ?
Y: dependent variable
X:independent variable

Here, we have two quantitative variables for each of 16 students.

1) How many beers they drank, and
2) Their blood alcohol level (BAC)

We are interested in the relationship between the two variables: How is one affected by changes in the other one?

| Studen <br> t | Beers | Blood <br> Alcohol |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 5 | 0.1 |
| 2 | 2 | 0.03 |
| 3 | 9 | 0.19 |
| 6 | 7 | 0.095 |
| 7 | 3 | 0.07 |
| 9 | 3 | 0.02 |
| 11 | 4 | 0.07 |
| 13 | 5 | 0.085 |
| 4 | 8 | 0.12 |
| 5 | 3 | 0.04 |
| 8 | 5 | 0.06 |
| 10 | 5 | 0.05 |
| 12 | 6 | 0.1 |
| 14 | 7 | 0.09 |

## Scatterplots

In a scatterplot, one axis is used to represent each of the variables, and the data are plotted as points on the graph.

| Student | Beers | BAC |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 5 | 0.1 |
| 2 | 2 | 0.03 |
| 3 | 9 | 0.19 |
| 6 | 7 | 0.095 |
| 7 | 3 | 0.07 |
| 9 | 3 | 0.02 |
| 11 | 4 | 0.07 |
| 13 | 5 | 0.085 |
| 4 | 8 | 0.12 |
| 5 | 3 | 0.04 |
| 8 | 5 | 0.06 |
| 10 | 5 | 0.05 |
| 12 | 6 | 0.1 |
| 14 | 7 | 0.09 |
| 15 | 1 | 0.01 |
| 16 | 4 | 0.05 |

Blood Alcohol Content as a function of Number of Beers


## Explanatory and response variables

A response variable measures or records an outcome of a study. An expl natory variable explains changes in the response variable.

Typically, the explanatory or independent variable is plotted on the $x$ axis, and the response or dependent variable is plotted on the $y$ axis.


## Explanatory (independent) variable: number of beers

Some plots don't have clear explanatory and response variables.


## Interpreting scatterplots

- After plotting two variables on a scatterplot, we describe the relationship by examining the form, direction, and strength of the association. We look for an overall pattern ...
- Form: linear, curved, clusters, no pattern
- Direction: positive, negative, no direction
- Strength: how closely the points fit the "form"
- ... and deviations from that pattern.
- Outliers


## Form and direction of an association



Positive association: High values of one variable tend to occur together with high values of the other variable.

Negative association: High values of one variable tend to occur together with low values of the other variable.


No relationship: $X$ and $Y$ vary independently. Knowing $X$ tells you nothing about $Y$.



One way to think about this is to remember the following: The equation for this line is $y=5$. $x$ is not involved.

## Strength of the association

The strength of the relationship between the two variables can be seen by how much variation, or scatter, there is around the main form.


With a strong relationship, you can get a pretty good estimate of $y$ if you know $x$.


With a weak relationship, for any $x$ you might get a wide range of $y$ values.



This is a weak relationship. For a particular state median household income, you can't predict the state per capita income very well.

This is a very strong relationship. The daily amount of gas consumed can be predicted quite accurately for a given temperature value.

## How to scale a scatterplot

Same data in all four plots
Pulse Rate vs Time Spent Swimming


Pulse Rate vs Time Spent Swimming


Pulse Rate vs Time Spent Swimming


Pulse Rate vs Time Spent Swimming


Using an inappropriate scale for a scatterplot can give an incorrect impression.

Both variables should be given a similar amount of space:

- Plot roughly square
- Points should occupy all the plot space (no blank space)


## Outliers

An outlier is a data value that has a very low probability of occurrence (i.e., it is unusual or unexpected).



In a scatterplot, outliers are points that fall outside of the overall pattern of the relationship.



## Outliers

The upper right-hand point here is not an outlier of the relationship-It is what you would expect for this many beers given the linear relationship between beers/weight and blood alcohol.

This point is not in line with the others, so it is an outlier of the relationship.

## IQ score and

Grade point average
a) Describe in words what this plot shows.
b) Describe the direction, shape, and strength. Are there outliers?
c) What is the deal with these
 people?

## R Graphical system

- R is one of the most powerful programs when it comes to drawing and customizing plots. Learning the tricks is not immediate like it is the case with some MS programs, but the rewards are much more significant.
- To make (scatter)plots in R use the function $\operatorname{plot}(x, y)$ where $x$ is the vector of explanatory values and $y$ is the vector of responses
- Section 1.3 in the R manual details the basics of making plots
- In addition read about the lines() command that adds lines to an existing plot
- One can also make 3D plots using commands: - persp, scatterplot3d, and wireframe


Figure 2-1
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Example 2: Adding categorical variable/grouping (region): $\mathbf{e}$ is for northeastern states and $\mathbf{m}$ is for midwestern states (others excluded). May enhance understanding of the data.


- Plotting different categories via different symbols may throw light on data
- Existence of a relationship does not imply causation. (SAT math and SAT verbal scores)
- The relationship does not have to hold true for every subject, it is random.


## Categorical variables in scatterplots

Often, things are not simple and one-dimensional. We need to group the data into categories to reveal trends.

What may look like a positive linear relationship is in fact a series of negative linear associations.

Plotting different habitats in different colors allows us to make that important distinction.


Number of native species


Comparison of men and women racing records over time.
Each group shows a very strong negative linear relationship that would not be apparent without the gender categorization.

Relationship between lean body mass and metabolic rate in men and women. Both men and women follow the same positive linear trend, but women show a stronger association. As a group, males typically have larger values for both variables.


## Categorical explanatory variables

When the exploratory variable is categorical, you cannot make a scatterplot, but you can compare the different categories side by side on the same graph (boxplots, or mean +/- standard deviation).

Comparison of income (quantitative response variable) for different education levels (five categories).

But be careful in your interpretation: This is NOT a positive association, because education is not quantitative.


## Example: Beetles trapped on boards of different colors

Beetles were trapped on sticky boards scattered throughout a field. The sticky boards were of four different colors (categorical explanatory variable). The number of beetles trapped (response variable) is shown on the graph below.


What association? What relationship?


When both variables are quantitative, the order of the data points is defined entirely by their value. This is not true for categorical data.

## Correlation Coefficient

- Linear relationships are quite common.
- Correlation coefficient r measures strength and direction of a linear relationship between two quantitative variables $X$ and Y.
- Data structure: $(X, Y)$ pairs measured on $n$ individuals
- (weight, blood pressure) or (age, bonedensity) measured on a set of subjects


## The correlation coefficient "r"

The correlation coefficient is a measure of the direction and strength of a relationship. It is calculated using the mean and the standard deviation of both the x and y variables.

$$
\mathrm{r}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{n}-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{x_{i}-\bar{x}}{s_{x}}\right)\left(\frac{y_{i}-\bar{y}}{s_{y}}\right)
$$

Time to swim: $\bar{x}=35, s_{x}=0.7$
Pulse rate: $\bar{y}=140 \mathrm{~s}_{\mathrm{y}}=9.5$

Correlation can only be used to describe quantitative variables. Categorical variables don't have means and standard deviations.




## Standardization:

Allows us to compare correlations between data sets where variables are measured in different units or when variables are different.

For instance, we might want to compare the correlation between [swim time and pulse], with the correlation between [swim time and breathing rate].

## "r" does not distinguish x \& y

The correlation coefficient, $r$, treats $x$ and $y$ symmetrically.

$$
\mathrm{r}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{n}-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{x_{i}-\bar{x}}{s_{x}}\right)\left(\frac{y_{i}-\bar{y}}{s_{y}}\right)
$$



"Time to swim" is the explanatory variable here, and belongs on the x axis. However, in either plot $r$ is the same $(r=-0.75)$.

## "r" has no unit

Changing the units of variables does not change the correlation coefficient "r", because we get rid of all our units when we standardize (get z-scores).

$$
\mathrm{r}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{n}-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{x_{i}-\bar{x}}{s_{x}}\right)\left(\frac{y_{i}-\bar{y}}{s_{y}}\right)
$$



## "r" ranges from -1 to +1

"r" quantifies the strength and direction of a linear relationship between 2 quantitative variables.

Strength: how closely the points follow a straight line.

Direction: is positive when individuals with higher $X$ values tend to have higher values of $Y$.


When variability in one or both variables decreases, the correlation coefficient gets stronger ( $\rightarrow$ closer to +1 or -1 ).


Pulse: mean $=140.0, s=9.5$
Time: mean $=35.0, s=0.7$
$\mathrm{r}=-0.75$


## Correlation only describes linear relationships

No matter how strong the association, $r$ does not describe curved relationships.


Note: You can sometimes transform a non-linear association to a linear form, for instance by taking the logarithm. You can then calculate a correlation using the transformed data.

## Influential points

Correlations are calculated using means and standard deviations, and thus are NOT resistant to outliers.

Just moving one point away from the general trend here decreases the correlation from -0.91 to -0.75


## Review examples

1) What is the explanatory variable?

Describe the form, direction and strength of the relationship? Estimate r.

2) If women always marry men 2 years older than themselves, what is the correlation of the ages between husband and wife?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { age }_{\operatorname{man}}=\operatorname{age}_{\text {woman }}+2 \\
& \text { equation for a straight line }
\end{aligned}
$$

Age of Women

## Thought quiz on correlation

1. Why is there no distinction between explanatory and response variable in correlation?
2. Why do both variables have to be quantitative?
3. How does changing the units of one variable affect a correlation?
4. What is the effect of outliers on correlations?
5. Why doesn't a tight fit to a horizontal line imply a strong correlation?
