

# Chapter 1

## Variables, Data and Graphs

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### Section 1.3

#### Distribution of Data Values for One Variable

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- Distribution of Data Values for One Variable
  - Bar Chart and Pie Chart
  - Histogram
  - Histogram Artifacts and Issues
  - Cumulative Histogram
  - Pareto Chart

# 1.3a

## Bar Chart and Pie Chart

# How Often Does Each Value Occur?

## First statistical analysis: Counting

- ▶ One basic understanding of the values of a categorical variable is **how often each value occurs**
- ▶ There are many examples of ongoing interest for the manager
  - Number of cars sold by each salesperson last week
  - Number of each size of blue jeans in inventory at the current time
  - Number of patients in the emergency room at the beginning of each hour throughout the day
  - Number of patients classified according to the urgency of their needed care, urgent or non-urgent
  - Number of applicants by gender for a job opening

# A Basic Statistical Analysis

Count the number of times each value occurs

- ▶ **Count** or frequency of occurrence: Number of times a specific value occurs, which directly depends on the size of the sample
- ▶ **Proportion** ( $p$ ) or relative frequency: A value's frequency of occurrence divided by the total number of values
- ▶ Proportion of occurrence for the  $j^{\text{th}}$  value, category:  $p_j = \frac{n_j}{n}$
- ▶ Ex: Proportion of employees who call in sick on Friday is the count or number of such employees divided by the total number of employees
- ▶ The proportion expresses the concept of frequency independent of the sample size,  $n$ , by literally “dividing by  $n$ ”
- ▶ **Distribution**: Display a distribution with a table or a graph of each value of a variable and its frequency and/or proportion

# Illustration: Frequencies of a Categorical Variable

## Sales by SalesPerson at a Car Dealership

- ▶ Sales Report: **How many** cars are each of the four salespeople selling each week?
- ▶ For each sale, **record** the salesperson
- ▶ The **variable is salesperson**, or just **Person**
- ▶ Here are the **sales** for a specific week, organized as a data table with only a single variable named Person
- ▶ **How many** cars does each salesperson sale for this week?
- ▶ Read the data, a **csv file**, into R with the `lessR` function `Read()`, or just `rd()`

```
> d <- Read("http://lessRstats.com/data/CarSales.csv")
```

Person
Bill
Cindy
Don
Andy
Don
Bill
Cindy
Cindy
Andy
Bill
Cindy
Cindy
Cindy
Bill
Bill
Andy
Bill
Bill
Bill
Andy
Andy
Don
Cindy
Bill
Cindy
Bill

# Frequency Table

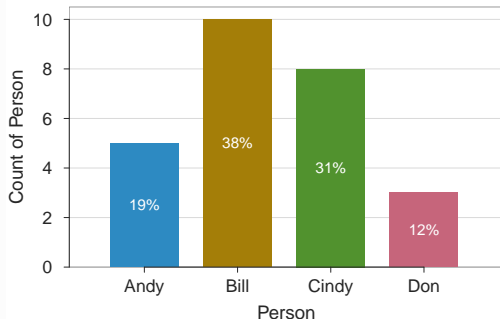
Obtain the table and the graph with one function call

- ▶ **Bar chart:** Display the frequencies of the values of a categorical variable with the height of each bar proportionate to its frequency, with spaces between the bars
- ▶ The `lessR Chart()` function counts the values, and then displays the table and graph
  - > `Chart(Person)`
- ▶ The table of the counts and proportions, the frequency table

	Andy	Bill	Cindy	Don	Total
Frequencies:	5	10	8	3	26
Proportions:	0.192	0.385	0.308	0.115	1.000

# Bar Chart: Example

> Chart(Person)

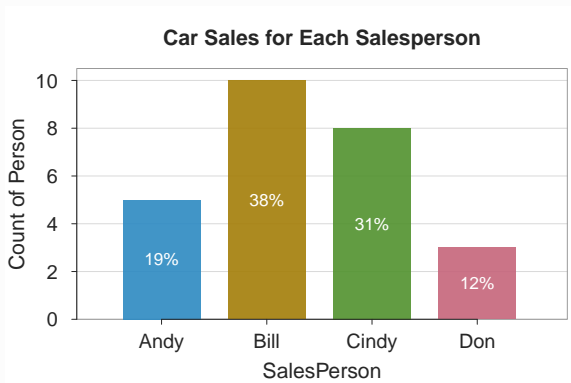


- **Key Concept:** The spaces between the bars of a bar chart indicate the lack of continuity of the categorical data values



## Bar Chart with Title

- Use `main` and `xlab` options for title and new axis label
  - > `Chart(Person, main="Car Sales for Each Salesperson", xlab="SalesPerson")`

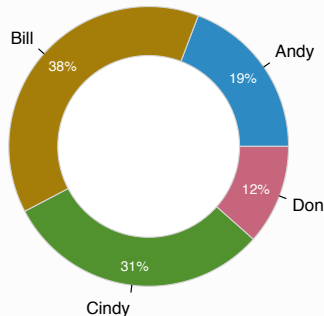


# Pie Chart

Calculate the pie (ring) chart from the frequencies

- **Pie chart:** Display the frequencies of a categorical variable in which each frequency corresponds to a proportionate slice of a circle (i.e., pie)

```
The lessR function is Chart(), setting type="pie"  
> Chart(Person, type="pie")
```



# Illustration: Interpretation and Conclusion

## Identify the sales performance for each sales person

- ▶ Bill and Cindy are the two top sales people for this week in which the data were analyzed, with Bill the overall leader with 10 sales
- ▶ Don was the least effective with only 3 sales

## Qualify the results with the limitations of the data

- ▶ The data are only for a single week, so generalizing to long term performance on this basis is not appropriate
- ▶ The data provide one aspect of sales performance, but the data do not consider net profit per sale

## 1.3b

# The Histogram

# Measurements of a Continuous Variable

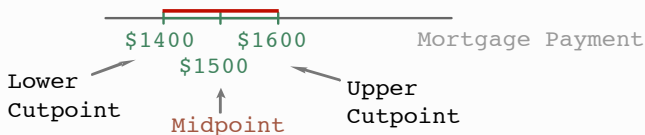
The issue is that there are typically many individual values

- ▶ Measurement Problem #1: Too many resulting data values to effectively plot on a single graph
  - Consider mortgage payment, where each single value to the nearest penny must be considered from \$300 to \$4000 or so
- ▶ Measurement Problem #2: Too many data values with a frequency of zero
  - Few specific mortgage payments such as \$924.79 would occur at all unless the sample size was extremely large
- ▶ **Key Concept:** Group similar data values from a continuous variable together and then assign a single count to each group

# Bins (or Classes)

## Partition the range of values

- ▶ **Bins (classes):** A sequence of adjacent, non-overlapping intervals, each generally of the same size
- ▶ Each bin contains approximately equal data values



- ▶ **Cutpoints:** Lower and upper boundaries of each bin
- ▶ **Bin width:** Distance between cutpoints
  - In this example, bin width = \$200
- ▶ **Midpoint:** Single summary of all values within the bin
  - In this example, midpoint = \$1500

# Bin Assignment

Place data values into the bins



- ▶ Assign each data value to its corresponding bin
  - Assign mortgage payment of \$1658 to bin: \$1600 to \$1800
  - Assign mortgage payment of \$2336 to bin: \$2200 to \$2400
- ▶ Consistently assign values exactly equal to a cutpoint to either the adjacent lower bin or the adjacent higher bin
  - By default, R assigns a value equal to a cutpoint to the **lower bin**
  - With R, all values in the bin are larger than the lower cutpoint and smaller than or equal to the upper cutpoint

# The Histogram

## Graphical display of the variation of a continuous variable

- ▶ Usually present the frequency distribution as a graph
- ▶ **Histogram:** Place each data value for a continuous variable into its corresponding bin represented by a bar with its height proportional to the frequency of its values
- ▶ **Key Concept:** Adjacent bars of a histogram share a common side, no gaps between bars to indicate the underlying continuity
- ▶ **Ex:** The data consists of the mortgage payments of 14 different home owners randomly sampled from one zip code:
- ▶ Read the data from the file `mortgage.csv`  

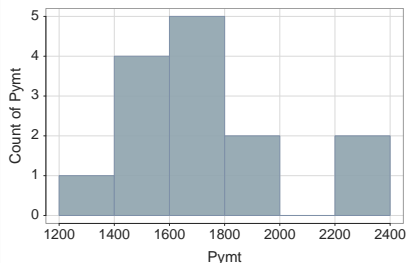
```
> d <- Read("http://lessRstats.com/data/mortgage.csv")
```



## Example Histogram

- ▶ The `lessR` function `X()`, for plotting a single variable on the x-axis, here generates the histogram for a variable named `Pymt`, the Monthly Mortgage Payment

```
> X(Pymt)
```

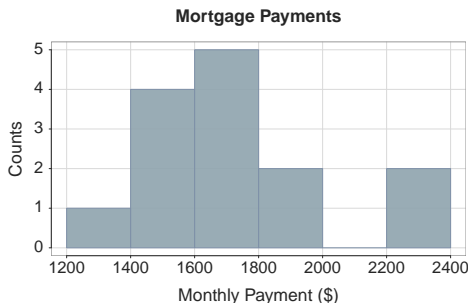


- ▶ **Interpretation:** The range of monthly mortgage payments varies from about \$1200 to \$2400, with the most common values between \$1400 and \$2000. Only a few values are above \$2000.

# Histogram, title and axes labels

- Use the `xlab`, `ylab` and `main` options in virtually any R graphics routine to label the x and y axes and provide a title

```
> X(Pynt, xlab="Monthly Payment ($)",  
    ylab="Counts", main="Mortgage Payments")
```



# Frequency Table of Bins

Distribution can be presented as a graph or as a table

- ▶ A frequency distribution for a variable can also be presented as a table, which includes each bin and corresponding Count, Proportion, Cumulative Count and Cumulative Proportion
- ▶ The `lessR X()` function also provides the frequency distribution as a table

Bin	Midpoint	Count	Prop	Cumul.c	Cumul.p
1200 > 1400	1300	1	0.07	1	0.07
1400 > 1600	1500	4	0.29	5	0.36
1600 > 1800	1700	5	0.36	10	0.72
1800 > 2000	1900	2	0.14	12	0.86
2000 > 2200	2100	0	0.00	12	0.86
2200 > 2400	2300	2	0.14	14	1.00

## 1.3c

# Histogram Artifacts and Issues

# The Arbitrariness of a Histogram: Bin Width

Choice of optimal bin width is partially subjective

- ▶ **Bin Width artifact:** Change the bin width of a histogram, and the shape of the histogram likely changes
- ▶ The final choice of bin width is subjective, so different bin widths should generally be explored beyond whatever default bin width is provided by the computer
- ▶ The most efficient way to set bin width manually is to first obtain a histogram with the default bin width, then manually modify the bin width
- ▶ **Key Concept:** Select a bin width to display as much detail as possible for the sample size without excessive random noise

# The Problem of Oversmoothing for Bin Width

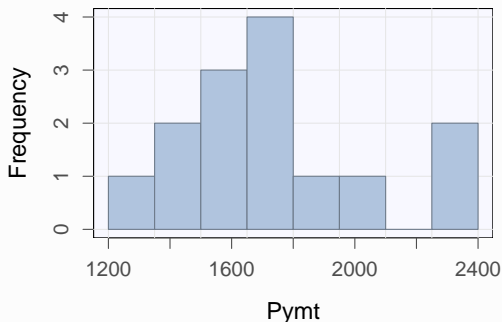
## Bin width too large

- ▶ **Oversmoothing:** Not enough bins results in the bin width too large, obscuring properties of the underlying distribution
- ▶ An oversmoothed histogram provides insufficient detail relative to the available data
- ▶ Exploring different bin widths with the previous histogram of Pymt reveals that the default bin width of 200 is somewhat too large, resulting in an oversmoothed histogram
- ▶ To demonstrate, re-generate the histogram for Pymt by explicitly specifying bins with a smaller width
- ▶ Many possibilities to explicitly specify the bins, *optionally* enter `?Histogram` to view the options
- ▶ The easiest method that applies here is to invoke the `bin_width` option for the `lessR X()` function

# Histogram, with Specified Bins

Bin width set at 150

```
> X(Pymt, bin_width=150)
```



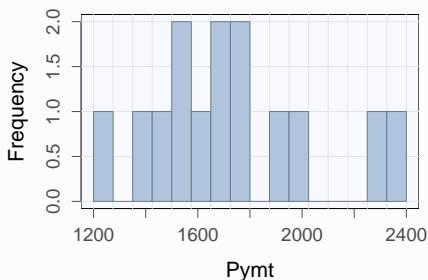
- ▶ This histogram with a bin width of 150 provides **more meaningful detail** than the default bin width of 200

# The Problem of Undersmoothing for Bin Width

## Bin width too small

- **Undersmoothing:** The bin width is too small relative to the available data so that too many bins result in too much detail

```
> X(Pymt, bin_width=75)
```



- This histogram reflects too much random sampling variability – too many random ups and downs – relative to the likely **much smoother true shape** of the underlying distribution



# The Arbitrariness of a Histogram: Bin Shift

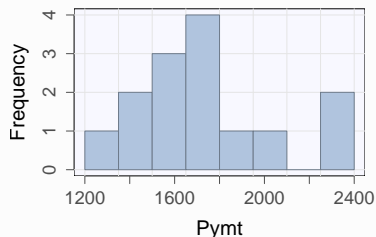
## Bin Shift

- ▶ **Bin Shift artifact:** Change the starting point of a histogram, and the shape of the histogram likely changes
- ▶ There are several possibilities, but the easiest method that applies here is to invoke the `bin_start` option for the `lessR X()` function
- ▶ If `bin_start` is specified without `bin_width`, then the **default bin width** is used
- ▶ Specifying `bin_start` and `bin_width` together is one way to achieve complete control over the specification of the bins
- ▶ There is also a `bin.end` option to provide an ending point for the bins, useful if to have several histograms of different variables share common starting and ending points

# The Arbitrariness of a Histogram: Bin Shift

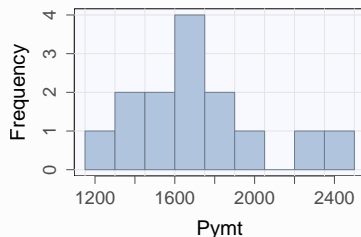
Same data, two different starting points

```
> X(Pyamt,  
    bin_start=1200,  
    bin_width=150)
```



Histogram with bins starting at 1200, with a width of 150

```
> X(Pyamt,  
    bin_start=1150,  
    bin_width=150)
```



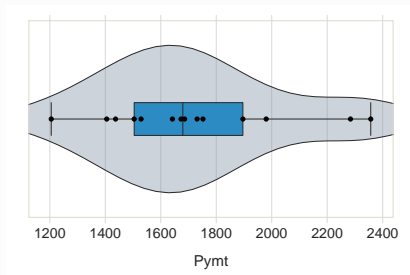
Histogram with bins starting at 1150, with a width of 150

# VBS Plot: Integrated Violin, Box, Scatter Plot

More informative alternative to the histogram

- ▶ Consider again the 14 Monthly Mortgage Payments
- ▶ Use the `lessR` function `X()` with `type="vbs"`  

```
> X(Pymt, type="vbs")
```



- ▶ This plot is three plots in one: a violin (density) plot, a box plot, and a 1-dimensional scatter plot, or a dot plot

## 1.3d

# The Cumulative Histogram

# Cumulative Distribution

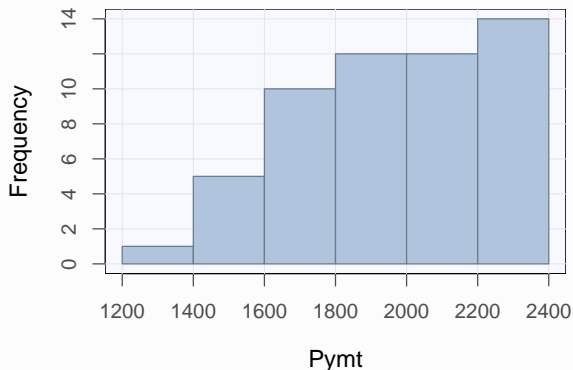
## “At least” or “at most” questions

- ▶ The values of a continuous distribution are ordered, so it is **meaningful to ask questions regarding order**
  - How many students got **at least** 90% on the midterm?
  - How many monthly mortgage payments **are below** \$1500?
- ▶ **Cumulative frequency** of a value: **Sum of frequencies for all values up to and including the specified value**
- ▶ **Cumulative proportion** of a value: **Sum of proportions for all values up to and including the specified value**
- ▶ **Frequencies are never negative**, so as the values of the variable increase, a cumulative distribution always increases in value or stays the same
- ▶ **Cumulative histogram**: **A histogram of the cumulative distribution of the values of a continuous variable**

# Cumulative Histogram

## Example of a cumulative histogram

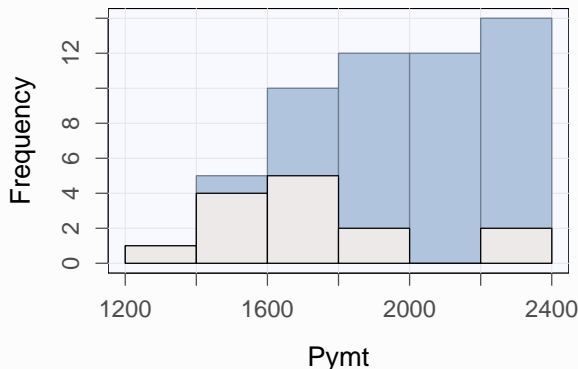
- ▶ `lessR` function `X()` with `cumulate` option set to `"on"`  
> `X(Pynt, cumulate="on")`



# Cumulative and Regular Histograms Together

Regular histogram superimposed on cumulative histogram

- ▶ `lessR` function `X()` with `cumulate` option set to `"both"`  
> `X(Pymt, cumulate="both")`



## 1.3e

# The Pareto Chart



# Introducing the Pareto Chart

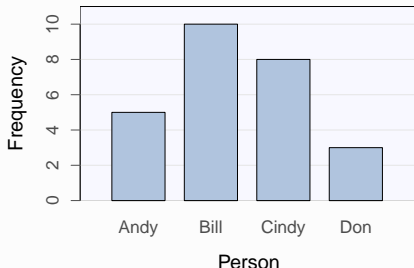
A combination of the bar chart and cumulative distribution

- ▶ **Pareto Chart:** Bar chart of categories listed in order of their underlying frequencies, with the plot of the cumulative frequencies superimposed over the corresponding bars
- ▶ The Pareto chart is often used in quality control in which the categories ...
  - represent different types of defects
  - are listed in order from the most frequently occurring defect to the least frequently occurring
- ▶ Use the Pareto chart in place of the traditional bar chart in any application in which the ordered frequencies of the values of a categorical variable are of interest

## Previous Example of a Bar Chart

Pareto chart provides more information than the bar chart

- ▶ Consider, again, the **example** of sales for a week by the four salespeople at a car dealership
- ▶ Data File: <http://lessRstats.com/data/CarSales.csv>
- ▶ **Bar chart:**



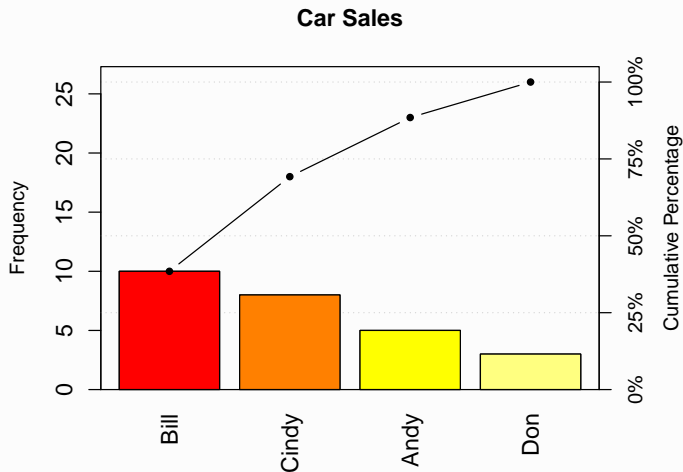
- ▶ Now obtain the **more informative Pareto chart**

# qcc Pareto Chart, from Data

## Count the values of a categorical variable

- ▶ Obtain the Pareto chart from the `pareto.chart()` function in the `qcc` package, not initially provided in R
- ▶ One time only, first `download` the package,  
`> install.packages("qcc")`
- ▶ Then, for any one R session, `load` the functions contained in the package into memory  
`> library(qcc)`
- ▶ First invoke `lessR` function `Chart()` to calculate and then store the counts, here in the object called `myCount`  
`> myCount <- Chart(Person)`  
Refer to the stored counts in `mycount` as `myCount$freq`  
`> pareto.chart(myCount$freq, main="Car Sales")`

## qcc Pareto Chart



# qcc Pareto Chart, from Counts Entered Directly

## Car sales by salesperson, once again

- ▶ The Pareto chart is computed from the **table of counts**, which either can be
  - **computed from the data**, as in the previous example, or
  - **entered directly**
- ▶ Enter the counts directly using the **c()** or “combine” function, illustrated here for Sales by salesperson

```
> myCount <- c(5,10,8,3)
```
- ▶ Next specify the category **labels**

```
> names(myCount) <- c("Andy","Bill","Cindy","Don")
```
- ▶ Then call the **pareto.chart()** function

```
> pareto.chart(myCount, main="Car Sales")
```

▶ The End