Summary Statistics

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SCI 2000-Introduction to Data Science

- Use the Central Limit Theorem to construct confidence intervals for means
- Manipulate data using tidyverse functions

- It's one of the great paradoxes of statistics:
 - To better understand data, summarise it.
- The mean/average occupies a special place, because of its nice properties.
- But looking at multiple summaries gives us a fuller picture.

• Recall the definition: if we have n observations X_1, \ldots, X_n , their mean (or average) is their sum divided by n:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i.$$

- The mean is a measure of *central tendency*, i.e. where the bulk of the observations tend to fall.
- In **R**, we can compute the mean using the function **mean**.

Examples i

- We'll use the dataset mtcars, which comes with R by default.
- Datasets are usually stored in data.frames.
 - We can inspect data.frames using str or head/tail.

str(mtcars)

```
## 'data.frame': 32 obs. of 11 variables:
## $ mpg : num 21 21 22.8 21.4 18.7 18.1 14.3
24.4 22.8 19.2 ...
## $ cyl : num 6 6 4 6 8 6 8 4 4 6 ...
## $ disp: num 160 160 108 258 360 ...
```

\$ hp : num 110 110 93 110 175 105 245 62 95
123 ...

- ## \$ drat: num 3.9 3.9 3.85 3.08 3.15 2.76 3.21
 3.69 3.92 3.92 ...
- ## \$ wt : num 2.62 2.88 2.32 3.21 3.44 ...

\$ qsec: num 16.5 17 18.6 19.4 17 ...

- ## \$ vs : num 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 ...
- ## \$ am : num 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ...
- ## \$ gear: num 4 4 4 3 3 3 3 4 4 4 ...
- ## \$ carb: num 4 4 1 1 2 1 4 2 2 4 ...

- There are many ways to compute the average miles per gallon (mpg) for this dataset. I will demonstrate two ways.
 - Extract column
 - Use summarise

Extract column with \$ and use mean function mean(mtcars\$mpg)

[1] 20.09062

Use summarise library(tidyverse) summarise(mtcars, mean(mpg))

- ## mean(mpg)
- ## 1 20.09062
 - In the second approach, we use the function summarise. The first argument is the data.frame; the second argument is the summary statistic we want to compute. One advantage is that we can compute many summaries in one function call.

Both mean and standard deviation
summarise(mtcars, mean(mpg), sd(mpg))

mean(mpg) sd(mpg)

1 20.09062 6.026948

Average mpg and average qsec
summarise(mtcars, mean(mpg), mean(qsec))

mean(mpg) mean(qsec)

1 20.09062 17.84875

Central Limit Theorem i

- The sample mean gives us some idea about the *population* mean.
 - "What if we could measure the height of all Canadians, instead of a sample?"
- But how certain can we be that the mean of our data is close to the true population mean?
- The Central Limit Theorem tells us that, whatever the distribution of the data, its *sample mean* behaves like a normal random variable.

Central Limit Theorem ii

• More precisely, if we have n independent observations that come from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then the sample mean is approximately normal:

$$\bar{X} \approx N(\mu, \sigma^2/n).$$

- The most important consequence: we can construct confidence intervals for the *population* mean.
 - + For 95% CI: $\bar{X}\pm 1.96\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}$, where $\hat{\sigma}$ is the standard deviation of the data (use the function sd).

Central Limit Theorem iii

- Important observations:
 - As we collect more data, the standard deviation of the data can go up or down. On the other hand, the confidence interval will become narrower and narrower.
 - In practice, we don't really know if our data is independent, or if it all comes from the same distribution. This uncertainty has to be reflected in the strength of our conclusions about the data.

Recall
summarise(mtcars, mean(mpg), sd(mpg))

- ## mean(mpg) sd(mpg)
 ##
- ## 1 20.09062 6.026948

```
# 95% Confidence interval
c(20.09062 - 1.96*6.026948/sqrt(32),
    20.09062 + 1.96*6.026948/sqrt(32))
```

```
## [1] 18.00239 22.17885
```

```
# Alternative: save values in variables
# and use variables
mean_mpg <- mean(mtcars$mpg)
sd_mpg <- sd(mtcars$mpg)
n <- nrow(mtcars)</pre>
```

```
c(mean_mpg - 1.96*sd_mpg/sqrt(n),
mean_mpg + 1.96*sd_mpg/sqrt(n))
```

```
## [1] 18.00239 22.17886
```

Compute the average and standard deviation for **qsec**, which is the quarter-mile time (i.e. the time it takes the car to travel a quarter mile starting from a standstill).

Compute a 95% confidence interval for the average quarter-mile time.

Solution

```
mean gsec <- mean(mtcars$gsec)</pre>
sd_qsec <- sd(mtcars$qsec)</pre>
n <- nrow(mtcars)</pre>
mean_qsec
## [1] 17.84875
sd gsec
## [1] 1.786943
c(mean_gsec - 1.96*sd_gsec/sqrt(n),
  mean_gsec + 1.96*sd_gsec/sqrt(n))
```

[1] 17.22961 18.46789

Transforming your data

- Sometimes, you want to look at a subset of the data. Or perhaps you want to compute the mean of another variable, not defined in your dataset.
 - In other words, we need to transform the data first!
- All **tidyverse** functions take a **data.frame** as the first argument.
- A data.frame is a collection of vectors, all of the same length, but could be of different types.
 - This is the main way of organizing data in **R**.

• **mutate**: Create a new variable as a function of the other variables

Switch to litres per 100km
mutate(mtcars, litres_per_100km = 235.215/mpg)

• filter: Keep only rows for which some condition is TRUE

Only keep rows where cyl is equal to 6 or 8
filter(mtcars, cyl %in% c(6, 8))

• Let's say we want to compute a 95% confidence interval for litres per 100km.

```
## avg_lit sd_lit
## 1 12.75506 3.863251
```

avg_lit sd_lit low_bd up_bd
1 12.75506 3.863251 11.41651 14.09361

- One of the important features of the tidyverse is the pipe operator %>%
- It takes the output of a function (or of an expression) and uses it as input for the next function (or expression)

library(tidyverse)

```
count(mtcars, cyl)
```

- ## cyl n
- ## 1 4 11
- ## 2 6 7
- ## 3 8 14

```
# Or with the pipe
# mtcars becomes the first argument of count
mtcars %>% count(cyl)
```

• In more complex examples, with multiple function calls, the pipe operator improves readability.

```
# Without pipe operator
fit_model(prepare_data(dataset))
# With pipe operator
dataset %>%
   prepare_data %>%
   fit_model
```

Let's convert our previous example to use the pipe
mtcars %>%
 mutate(litres_per_100km = 235.215/mpg) %>%
 summarise(avg_lit = mean(litres_per_100km),
 sd_lit = sd(litres_per_100km)) %>%
 mutate(low_bd = avg_lit - 1.96*sd_lit/sqrt(n),
 up_bd = avg_lit + 1.96*sd_lit/sqrt(n))

avg_lit sd_lit low_bd up_bd
1 12.75506 3.863251 11.41651 14.09361

- We didn't need intermediate datasets data1, data2 and data3.
- · It's easier to read.

Summaries by group

• We can combine **summarise** and **group_by** to create summaries for each group individually.

```
# Average mpg for each value of cyl
mtcars %>%
  group_by(cyl) %>%
  summarise(avg_mpg = mean(mpg))
```

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 2
## cyl avg_mpg
## * <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 4 26.7
## 2 6 19.7
## 3 8 15.1
```

```
# Average mpg for each value of cyl + 95% CI
mtcars %>%
group_by(cyl) %>%
summarise(avg_mpg = mean(mpg),
        sd_mpg = sd(mpg),
        n = n()) %>%
mutate(low_bd = avg_mpg - 1.96*sd_mpg/sqrt(n),
        up_bd = avg_mpg + 1.96*sd_mpg/sqrt(n))
```

Examples ii

```
## # A tibble: 3 x 6
      cyl avg_mpg sd_mpg n low_bd up_bd
##
## * <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <int> <dbl> <dbl><</pre>
                         11
## 1
       4
            26.7 4.51
                              24.0 29.3
## 2
       6 19.7 1.45
                          7
                             18.7 20.8
## 3
       8
                         14
            15.1 2.56
                              13.8 16.4
```

- Very important: The number of observations in each group is different!
- This is why we computed the number of observations in each group using the function n().

Examples iii

- When we compute the confidence interval, the variable **n** refers to the column **n** in the dataset, i.e. what we computed using summarise.
- Here, the "word" **n** refers to three different things:
 - A function, **n()**, which counts the number of observations.
 - A column in the dataset that we created using the function ${\bf n}$ ().
 - The number of rows of **mtcars** that we computed earlier.
- R keeps track of all of these (using something called "scoping rules"), but for a human this can be confusing... It's best to avoid it if we can.

- It may not be obvious at first, but proportions are means!
- If I want the proportion of apples among fruits, I can take the mean of binary observations:
 - $X_i = 1$ if the *i*-th fruit is an apple.
 - $X_i = 0$ otherwise.
- This means we can use the CLT for proportions too.
 - Note: It doesn't work well when the proportion \hat{p} and the number of observations n are small.

summarise(mtcars, prop = mean(cyl == 6))

prop ## 1 0.21875

• Note: If \hat{p} is the proportion, then $\hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}$.

prop sigma low_bd up_bd
1 0.21875 0.4133986 0.07551468 0.3619853

```
# For all values of cyl
mtcars %>%
  group_by(cyl) %>%
  summarise(nobs = n(), prop = nobs/n) %>%
  mutate(sigma = sqrt(prop*(1 - prop)),
        low_bd = prop - 1.96*sigma/sqrt(n),
        up bd = prop + 1.96*sigma/sqrt(n))
```

##	#	A tib	ole: 3	x 6			
##		cyl	nobs	prop	sigma	low_bd	up_bd
##	*	<dbl></dbl>	<int></int>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>
##	1	4	11	0.344	0.475	0.179	0.508
##	2	6	7	0.219	0.413	0.0755	0.362
##	3	8	14	0.438	0.496	0.266	0.609