

Data Analysis II

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Data Science – ITWS/CSCI/ERTH-4350/6350 Module 5, October 2nd, 2025

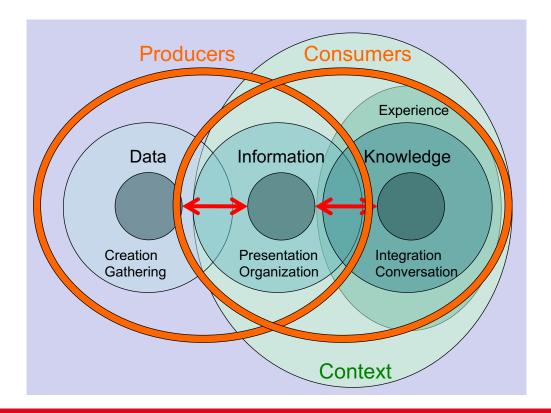
Contents

- Data Analysis I review
- Errors and uncertainty...
- Visualization as an information tool and analysis tool
- Visualization methods
- Use, citation, attribution and reproducibility





Data-Information-Knowledge Ecosystem







Review: Data Analysis I





Types of Data

Type of data	Level of measurement	Examples	
Categorical	Nominal (no inherent order in categories)	Eye colour, ethnicity, diagnosis	
	Ordinal (categories have inherent order)	Job grade, age groups	
	Binary (2 categories – special case of above)	Results of some tests, e.g. positive/negative	
Quantitative	Discrete (usually whole numbers)	Size of household (ratio)	
(Interval/Ratio) (NB units of measurement used)	Continuous (can, in theory, take any value in a range, although necessarily recorded to a predetermined degree of precision)	Temperature °C/°F (no absolute zero) (interval) Height, age (ratio)	





Mean and standard deviation

• The mean, m, of n values of the measurement of a property z (the average).

$$ar{x}=rac{1}{n}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i
ight)=rac{x_1+x_2+\cdots+x_n}{n}$$

• The standard deviation *s* of the measurements is an indication of the amount of spread in the measurements with respect to the mean.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(x_i-\mu)^2}, ext{ where } \mu = rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}x_i.$$

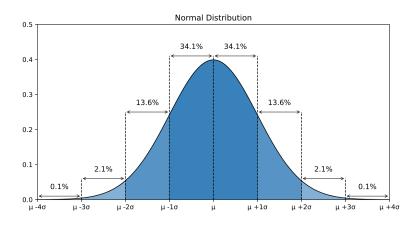
• The quantity σ^2 is known as the variance of the measurements.





Normal Distribution

• The normal distribution implies tight bounds on the probability of lying far from the mean. 68% of the values must lie within one sigma (standard deviation) of the mean, and 95% within two times the sigma (standard deviation) and 99.7% lie within the three the sigma (standard deviation)



- Roughly 68.3% of the data is within 1 standard deviation of the average (from μ -1 σ to μ +1 σ)
- Roughly 95.5% of the data is within 2 standard deviations of the average (from μ -2 σ to μ +2 σ)
- Roughly 99.7% of the data is within 3 standard deviations of the average (from μ -3 σ to μ +3 σ)

Image Credit: W3C school: https://www.w3schools.com/statistics/statistics_normal_distribution.php





Visualizing Distributions

• How you visualize the distribution of a variable will depend on whether the variable is categorical or continuous.

A variable is categorical if it can only take one of a small set of values.

• To examine the distribution of a categorical variable, use a bar chart.

A variable is continuous if it can take any numeric value within an interval.

• To examine the distribution of a categorical variable, use a histogram.

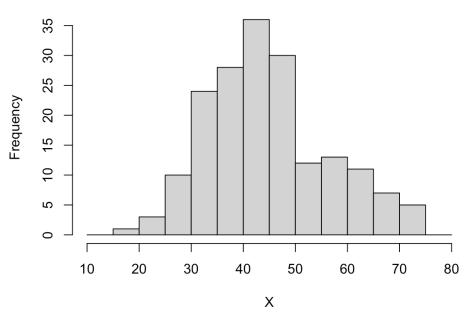
Resource: R for Data Science, Garrett Grolemund, Hadley Wickham, Chapter 5, https://r4ds.had.co.nz/





Grouped Frequency Distribution aka binning

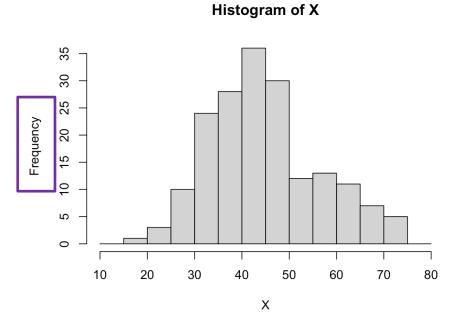




Bin size = 5



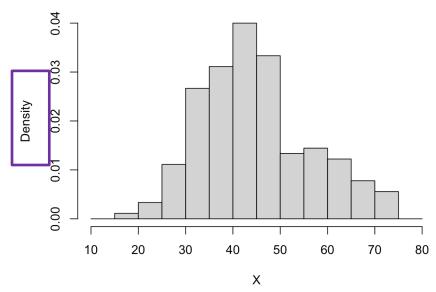
Frequency vs. Density





-36/180 (total) = 0.2 or 20%

Histogram of X

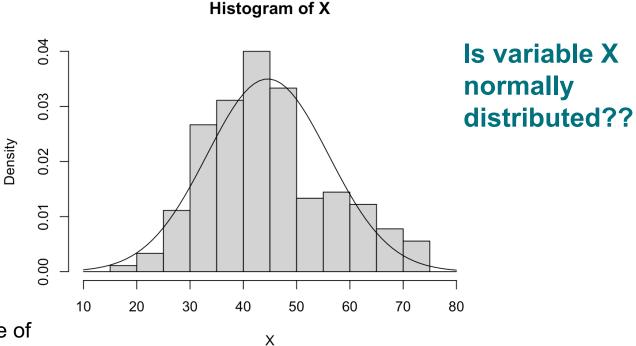


- density at bar = 0.04 where 40 < x < 45
- area of bar = 0.04 * 5 (width of bar) = 0.2 or 20%





Empirical vs. Theoretical

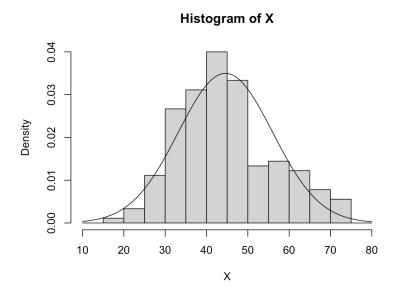


 Probability density curve of normal distribution overlayed





Empirical vs. Theoretical



Is variable X normally distributed??

No!!

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

Less than 0.05!





Empirical vs. Theoretical

Let's generate 180 numbers drawn at random from a normal distribution with the same mean and sd as X

> **Histogram of Xnorm** 0.030 Density 0.010 **Xnorm**

Is variable X normally distributed??

Yes!!

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: Xnorm

W = 0.99517, p-value = 0.8308

greater than 0.05!





Correlation

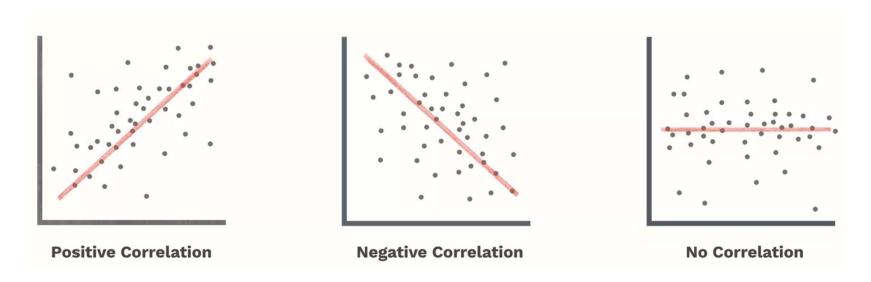
- One measure of the strength of the association between two numerical variables is correlation.
- Correlation describes the strength of the linear association between two variables.
- Correlation coefficient is between -1 and +1
- -1 indicates a perfect negative linear association and +1 indicates a perfect positive linear association. The correlation coefficient of 0, indicates that there is no linear relationship in the two variables. -0.1 and +0.1, indicates no linear relationship *or a very weak* linear relationship
- Correlation coefficient is sensitive to outliers.
- Correlation coefficient is unitless.

Reference(s): https://www.investopedia.com/terms/c/correlationcoefficient.asp
https://www.investopedia.com/ask/answers/032515/what-does-it-mean-if-correlation-coefficient-positive-negative-or-zero.asp





Correlation...



Image/Photo Credit: https://www.investopedia.com/ask/answers/032515/what-does-it-mean-if-correlation-coefficient-positive-negative-or-zero.asp





Input/Output

• Input: input go by different names, input: covariates, features, predictors, independent/explanatory variables, sometimes just variables

$$X = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$$

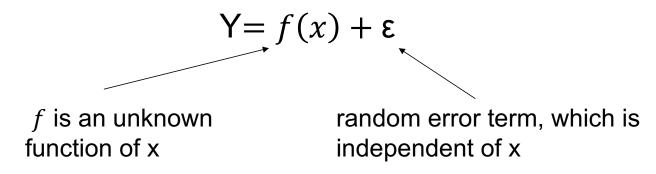
 Output: The output variable called response or dependent/predicted variable, typically denoted by Y



• Suppose that we observe quantitative response Y with *p* different predictor variables,

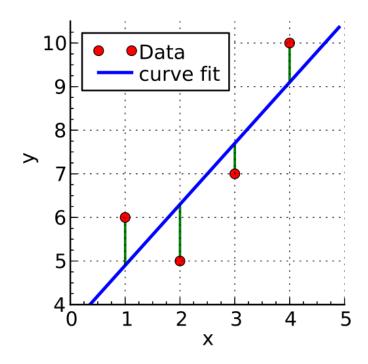
$$X_1, X_2, ... X_p$$
.

• We assume some relationship between Y and X =(x_1 , x_2 ,... x_p), which can be written as:





Regression

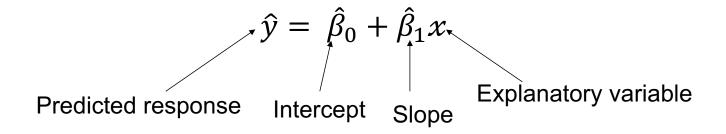






Simple Linear Regression

- The most commonly used approach is the *Least Squares*
- Least Squares approach chooses $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ to minimize the RSS



- \hat{y} = Predicted value of the response variable
- •x = Explanatory variable (x)
- $\hat{\beta}_0$ = Intercept
- $\hat{\beta}_1$ = Slope





Residuals ...

• The residual is defined as the difference between the observed value and the predicted value. (Difference between the observed value and the predicted value of the response variable for a given data point).

 $ei = yi - \hat{y}i$ represents the *ith* residual,

this is the difference between the ith observed response value and the ith response value that is predicted

by the linear model.

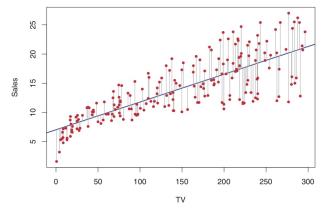


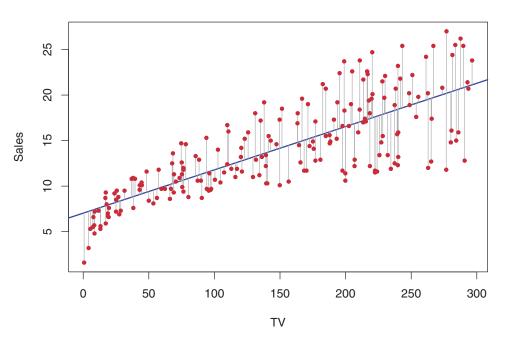
Image Credit: Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R, 7_{th} Edition, Chapter 3 – Linear Regression Reference: Introduction to Statistical Learning with Applications in R, 7_{th} Edition, Chapter 3 - Linear Regression





Linear Model

- Sales vs. TV ad spending
- Sales in 1000s of units
- TV ad spending in 1000s of \$





Evaluating Linear Models

Values of coefficients >> their Std. errors

High t-statistic

	Coefficient	Std. error	t-statistic	p-value
Intercept	7.0325	0.4578	15.36	< 0.0001
TV	0.0475	0.0027	$\bigcirc 17.67$	< 0.0001

Very low p-value

Hypothesis (more TV ads → more sales)

HO: There is no relationship between X and Y

Ha: There is some relationship between X and Y

$$t_{\widehat{eta}} = rac{\widehat{eta} - eta_0}{ ext{SE}(\widehat{eta})}$$

Reject the null hypothesis!





Residual Standard Error

• Mean sales $\approx 14,000$ units

 R^2

- measures the proportion of the variability in Y that can be explained using X
- has a value between 0,1

Quantity	Value
Residual standard error	3.26
R^2	0.612
F-statistic	312.1

RSE =
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}}$$
RSS = $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}$

$$R^2 = \frac{TSS - RSS}{TSS} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}$$

$$TSS = \sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$





Data Analysis II





Errors & Uncertainty





Errors

- Personal errors are mistakes on the part of the experimenter. It is your responsibility to make sure that there are no errors in recording data or performing calculations
- Systematic errors tend to decrease or increase all measurements of a quantity, (for instance all the measurements are too large). E.g. calibration
- Random errors are also known as statistical uncertainties, and are a series
 of small, unknown, and uncontrollable events



Errors

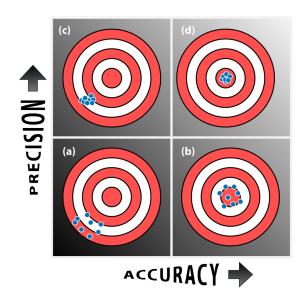
 Statistical uncertainties are much easier to assign, because there are rules for estimating the value

e.g. If you are reading a ruler, the statistical uncertainty is half of the smallest division on the ruler. Even if you are recording a digital readout, the uncertainty is half of the smallest place given. This type of error should always be recorded for any measurement



Standard measures of error

- Absolute deviation
- is simply the difference between an experimentally determined value and the true value
- Relative deviation
- is a more meaningful value than the absolute deviation because it accounts for the relative size of the error. The relative percentage deviation is given by the absolute deviation divided by the true value and multiplied by 100%
- Standard deviation







Some considerations

- Possibly more important than our answer is our confidence in the answer.
- Our confidence is quantified by uncertainties.
- Once we combine numbers, we need to be able to assess how the uncertainties change for the combination.
- This is called propagation of errors or more correctly the propagation of our understanding/ estimate of errors in the result we are looking at...



Resolution

Accuracy and Generalization



Actual soil interdigitation



Generalization on map

Different soil type boundaries are generalized when mapping an area, but are actually vague and graduated. Differences in scale allow finer resolution, but only if the original data was collected at a finer resolution.





Reliability

- Changes in data over time
- Non-uniform coverage
- Map scales
- Observation density
- Sampling theorem (aliasing)
- Surrogate data and their relevance
- Round-off errors in computers









Propagating errors

• This is an unfortunate term – it means making sure that the result of the analysis carries with it a calculation (rather than an estimate) of the error.

e.g. if
$$x = y + z$$
 (your analysis), then $\Delta x = \Delta y + \Delta z$ e.g. if $x = y + z$ (your analysis), then $\Delta x = \Delta y + \Delta z$!

- It's not as simple for other calculations.
- When the function is not merely addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division, the error propagation must be defined by the total derivative of the function.



Error propagation

Errors arise from data quality, model quality and data/model interaction.

- We need to know the sources of the errors and how they propagate through our model.
- The simplest representation of errors is to treat observations/attributes as statistical data – use mean and standard deviation.

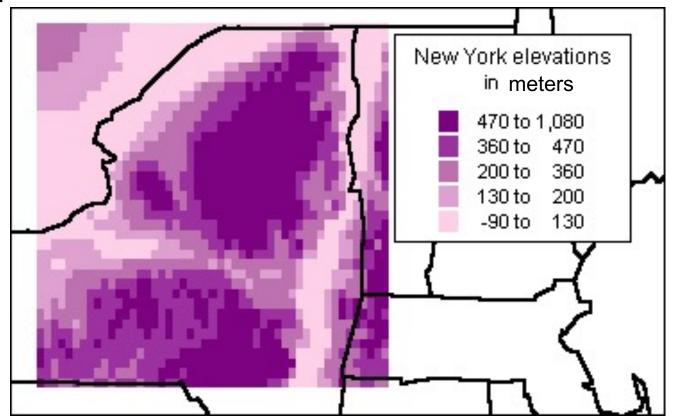


Dealing with errors

- In analyses:
 - Report on the statistical properties.
 - Does it pass tests at some confidence level?
- In visualizations:
 - Exclude data that are not reliable (plot only a subset of data).
 - Annotate the figure with some measure of confidence.



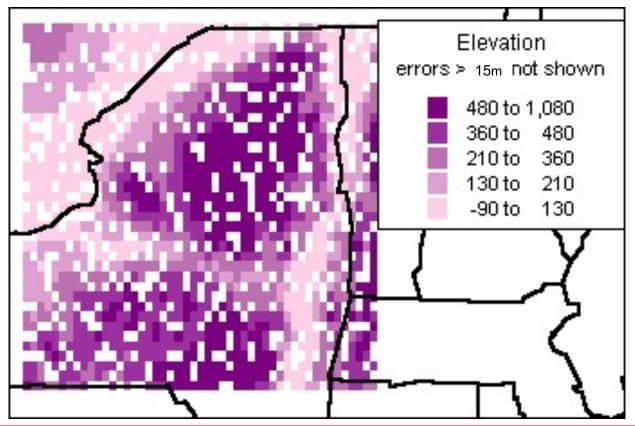
Elevation map





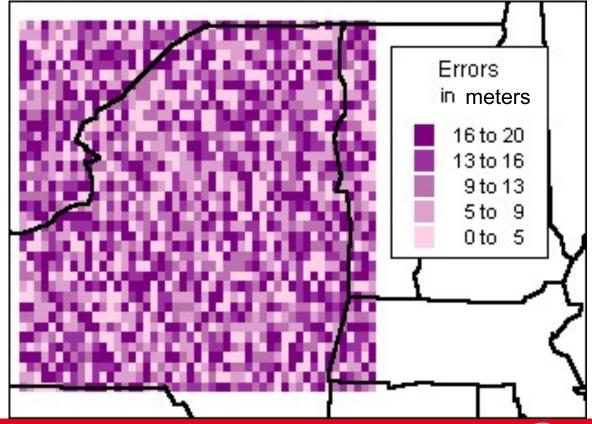


Larger errors 'whited out'





Elevation errors







Reporting results/ uncertainty

- Consider the number of significant digits in the result which is indicative of the certainty of the result.
- The number of significant digits depends on the measuring equipment you use and the precision of the measuring process - do not report digits beyond what was recorded.
- The number of significant digits in a value defines the precision of that value



Reporting results...

- In calculations, it is important to keep enough digits to avoid round off error.
- In general, keep at least one more digit than is significant in calculations to avoid round off error.
- It is not necessary to round every intermediate result in a series of calculations, but it is very important to round your final result to the correct number of significant digits.



Uncertainty

- Results are usually reported as result ± uncertainty (or error).
- The uncertainty is given to one significant digit, and the result is rounded to that place.
- For example, a result might be reported as 12.7 ± 0.1 m/s². A more precise result would be reported as 12.745 ± 0.004 m/s². A result should not be reported as 12.70361 ± 0.2 m/s².
- Units are very important to any result!



Secondary analysis

- Depending on where you are in the data analysis.
- Having a clear enough awareness of what has been done to the data (either by you or others) prior to the next analysis step is very important – it is very similar to sampling bias.
- Read the metadata (or create it) and documentation.







Considerations for visualizations as analysis

- What is the improvement in the understanding of the data as compared to the situation without visualization?
- Which visualization techniques are suitable for one's data?
 - e.g. Are direct volume rendering techniques to be preferred over surface rendering techniques?

Why visualization?

- Reducing amount of data, quantization
- Patterns
- Features
- Events
- Trends
- Irregularities
- Leading to presentation of data, i.e. information products
- Exit points for analysis





Types of visualization

- Color coding (including false color)
- Classification of techniques is based on
 - Dimensionality
 - o Information being sought, i.e. purpose
- Line/scatter/bar plots
- Networks
- Contours
- Volume rendering techniques
- Animation techniques
- Non-realistic, including 'cartoon/ artist' style



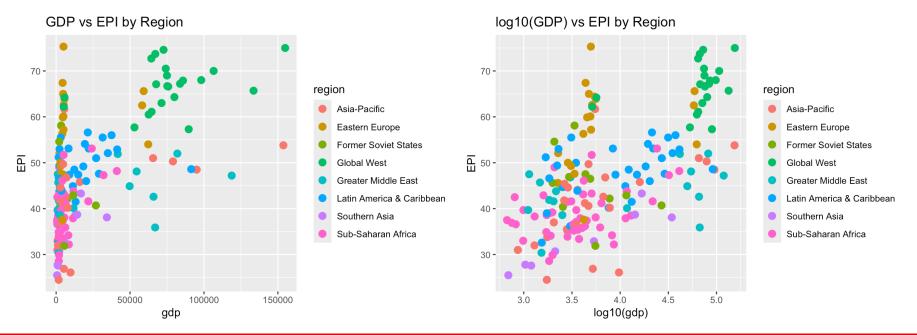


- Scatter Plot Paired data (x,y)
- Describe the relationship between numerical variables.
- Make a note on the direction of the data points
 - Positive direction
 - Negative Direction
- Check for unusual observations
- See the relationship Linear or Non-linear





Scatter Plot – Paired data (x,y)





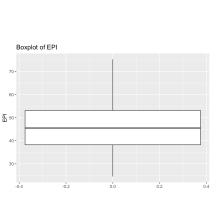


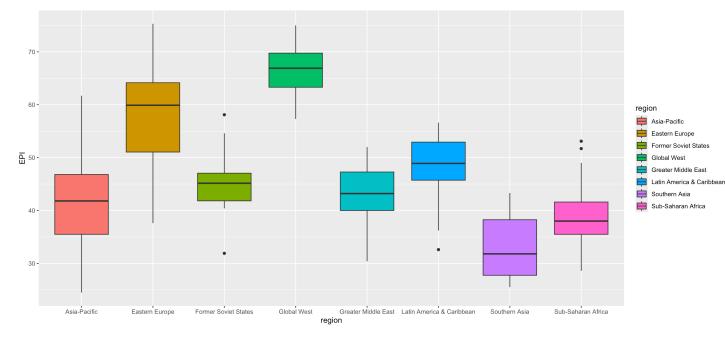
- Boxplot box-and-whisker of a variable x
- Gives an overview of the range of the variable and where most of the observations are exist along that range
- Make a note of the minimum, maximum, quartiles
- Check for unusual observations (outliers)





• Boxplot - box-and-whisker of a variable x







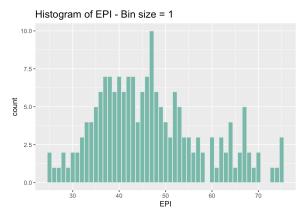


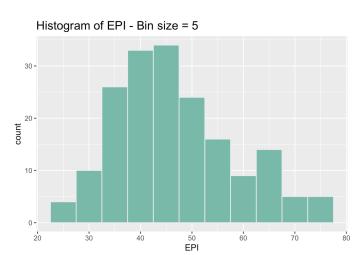
- Histogram Distribution of variable X
- Describe frequency of occurrence of values or ranges of values (bins) of x
- Tune bin size parameter
- Observe overall shape
- Check for mixed distributions

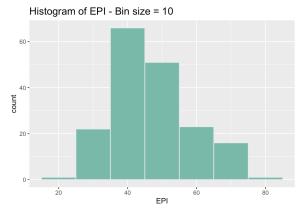




Histogram – Distribution of variable X









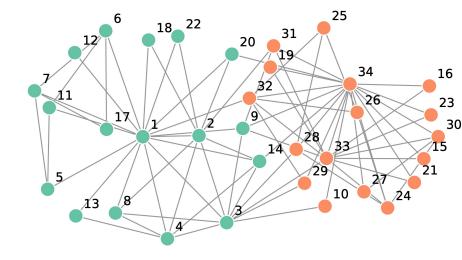


- Network Diagram (Graph) Relationships between entities
- Represents entities as vertices and the connections between them as edges.
- High-dimensional representation.
- Layout must be computed (e.g. force-directed layout)
- Annotations add information (node sizes/colors, etc.)



Network Diagram (Graph) – Relationships between entities

- Network of karate club members
- Colors represent a factional split between the instructor and administrator



credit: Paresnah - license CC BY-SA 4.0 (no changes)





More network diagrams (that I worked on)!

https://dtdi.carnegiescience.edu/





A PERIODIC TABLE OF VISUALIZATION METHODS

> 🌣 < G continuum	Data Visualization Visual representations of quantitative data in schematic form (either with or without axes)							Strategy Visualization The pstemetic use of complementary visual representa- tions in the analysis, development, formulation, communi- cation, and implementation of strategies in organizations.									G graphic facilitation
>©< Tb table	cartesian coordinates		The use of plify cogniti an image, i	mation Visualization interactive visual representations of data to am- tion. This means that the data is transformed into it is mapped to screen space. The image can be y users as they proceed working with It				Visual Meta ganize and s insight about	Metaphor Visualization Visual Metaphors position information graphically to organize and structure information. They also convey on insight about the represented information through the key characteristics of the metaphor that is employed				> 🌣 < Mm metro map	Tm temple	St story template	> Tr tree	Et cartoon
>¤< Pi pie chart	> 🌣 < L line chart		Methods to	ept Visualization elaborate (mostly) qualitative concepts, s, and analyses.				Compound Visualization The complementary use of different graphic representation formats in one single schema or frame				>::>- Co communication diagram	> 🌣 < flight plan	> < ES concept sceleton	Br bridge	>-☆-< Funnel	Ri rich picture
> 🌣 < B bar chart	> : <	> : < R radar chart cobweb	>©< Pa parallel coordinates	>©< Hy hyperbolic tree	>->->->->->->->->->->->->->->->->->->-	> A <	> : < Ve venn. diagram	<>> Mi mindmap	Sq square of oppositions	> > <	> : < AP argument slide	>©< SW swim lane diagram	>:>< GC gantt chart	<>>> Pm perspectives diagram	>©< D dilemma diagram	<∴>> PP parameter ruler	Kn knowledge map
> 🌣 < Hi histogram	> < SC scatterplot	> > < Sa sankey diagram	>©< In information lense	>¤< E entity relationship diagram	>&< Pt petri net	>©< flow chart	<☆> EI clustering	>	>©< Py minto pyramid technique	> :> < Ee cause-effect chains	> * <	>©< Dt decision tree	>¤< cpm critical path method	<÷> Cf concept fan	>©< Eo concept map	IC iceberg	Lm learning map
> : < TK tukey box plot	> • < Sp spectogram	>#< Da data map	>©< Tp treemap	>©< En cone tree	> > < Sy system dyn./ simulation	>©< Df data flow diagram	<>>> Se semantic network	>©< So soft system modeling	Sn synergy map	<>>> Fo force field diagram	>¤< Ib ibis argumentation map	> < < Pre>process event chains	>#< PC pert chart	evocative knowledge map	>©< V Vee diagram	<>>> Hh heaven 'n' hell chart	infomural
Cy	Process Visualization Note: Depending on your location and connection speed it can take some time to load a pop-up picture. version 1.5 © Ralph Lengler & Martin J. Eppler, www.visual-literacy.org																
Hy	Structure Visualization			>☆<	<u>></u> ⊚<	>¤<	>☆<	<¤>	>☆<	п	>☆<	>☆<	>⋭<	<¤>	>☆<	0	≎
≎	Overview Detail			Su supply demand curve	PG performance charting	St strategy map	OC organisation chart	house of quality	feedback diagram	Ft failure tree	magic quadrant	life-cycle diagram	Po porter's five forces	s-cycle	Sm stakeholder map	IS ishikawa diagram	technology roadmap
0	Detail AND Overview			≎	>⊚<	≎	>☆<	<u>></u>	<∅>	п	>☆<	>☆<	>☆<	<¤>	>☆<	>☆<	<n></n>
< > > <	Divergent thinking Convergent thinking			edgeworth box	Pf portfolio diagram	strategic game board	mintzberg's organigraph	zwicky's morphological box	affinity diagram	decision discovery diagram	Bm bcg matrix	StC strategy canvas	value chain	hype-cycle	SP stakeholder rating map	Ta taps	Sd spray diagram

https://www.visual-literacy.org/periodic table/periodic table.html





Managing visualization products

- The importance of a 'self-describing' product
- Visualization products are not just consumed by people
- How many images, graphics files do you have on your computer for which the origin, purpose, use is still known?
- How are these logically organized?





Motivation: Art of Data Visualization



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AdSZJzb-aX8





Use, citation, attribution

- Think about and implement a way for others (including you) to easily use, cite, attribute any analysis or visualization you develop
- This must include suitable connections to the underlying (aka backbone) data
 and note this may not just be the full data set!
- Naming, logical organization, etc. are key
- Make them a resource, e.g. URI / URL

See http://commons.esipfed.org/node/308



Reproducibility

- The documentation around procedures used in the analysis and visualization are very often neglected – DO NOT make this mistake
- Treat this *just* like a data collection (or generation) exercise
- Follow your management plan
- Despite the lack or minimal metadata/ metainformation standards, capture and record it
- Get someone else to verify that it works





Thanks!



