DIAGRAMATIC AND GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATION

Introduction:

We need to arrange the raw data to make them understandable. For this we use the techniques of classification and tabulation that help in summarizing the collected data and presenting them in a systematic manner. However, these forms of presentation do not always prove to be interesting to the common man. One of the most convincing and appealing ways in which statistical results may be presented is through diagrams and graphs. Just one diagram is enough to represent a given data more effectively than thousand words. Moreover even a layman who has nothing to do with numbers can also understands diagrams. Evidence of this can be found in newspapers, magazines, journals, advertisement, etc. An attempt is made in this chapter to illustrate some of the major types of diagrams and graphs frequently used in presenting statistical data.

Diagrams:

A diagram is a visual form for presentation of statistical data, highlighting their basic facts and relationship. If we draw diagrams on the basis of the data collected they will easily be understood and appreciated by all. It is readily intelligible and save a considerable amount of time and energy.

Significance of Diagrams and Graphs:

Diagrams and graphs are extremely useful because of the following reasons.

1. They are attractive and impressive.
2. They make data simple and intelligible.
3. They make comparison possible
4. They save time and labour.
5. They have universal utility.
6. They give more information.
7. They have a great memorizing effect.

General rules for constructing diagrams:

The construction of diagrams is an art, which can be acquired through practice. However, observance of some general guidelines can help in making them more attractive and effective. The diagrammatic presentation of statistical facts will be advantageous provided the following rules are observed in drawing diagrams.

1. A diagram should be neatly drawn and attractive.
2. The measurement of geometrical figures used in diagram should be accurate and proportional.
3. The size of the diagrams should match the size of the paper.
4. Every diagram must have a suitable but short heading.
5. The scale should be mentioned in the diagram.
6. Diagrams should be neatly as well as accurately drawn with the help of drawing instruments.
7. Index must be given for identification so that the reader can easily make out the meaning of the diagram.
8. Footnote must be given at the bottom of the diagram.
9. Economy in cost and energy should be exercised in drawing diagram.

Types of diagrams:

In practice, a very large variety of diagrams are in use and new ones are constantly being added. For the sake of convenience and simplicity, they may be divided under the following heads:

1. One-dimensional diagrams(Bar diagrams)
2. Two-dimensional diagrams(Pie diagram)
3. Three-dimensional diagrams(Cubic diagram, cylinders, spheres, prisms)
4. Pictograms and Cartograms

One-dimensional diagrams:

In such diagrams, only one-dimensional measurement, i.e height is used and the width is not considered. These diagrams are in the form of bar or line charts and can be classified as

1. Line Diagram
2. Simple Bar Diagram
3. Sub-divided Bar Diagram
4. Percentage Bar Diagram
5. Multiple Bar Diagram

Line Diagram:

Line diagram is used in case where there are many items to be shown and there is not much of difference in their values. Such diagram is prepared by drawing a vertical line for each item according to the scale. The distance between lines is kept uniform. Line diagram makes comparison easy, but it is less attractive.

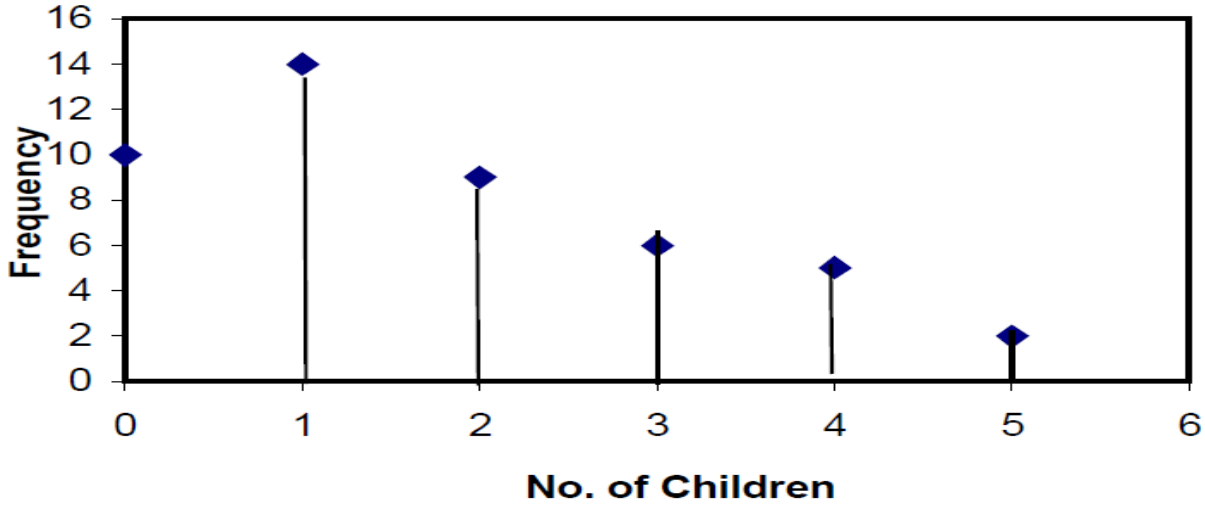
Example:

Show the following data by a line chart:

No. of children	0	1	2	3	4	5
Frequency	10	14	9	6	4	2

Solution:

Line Diagram



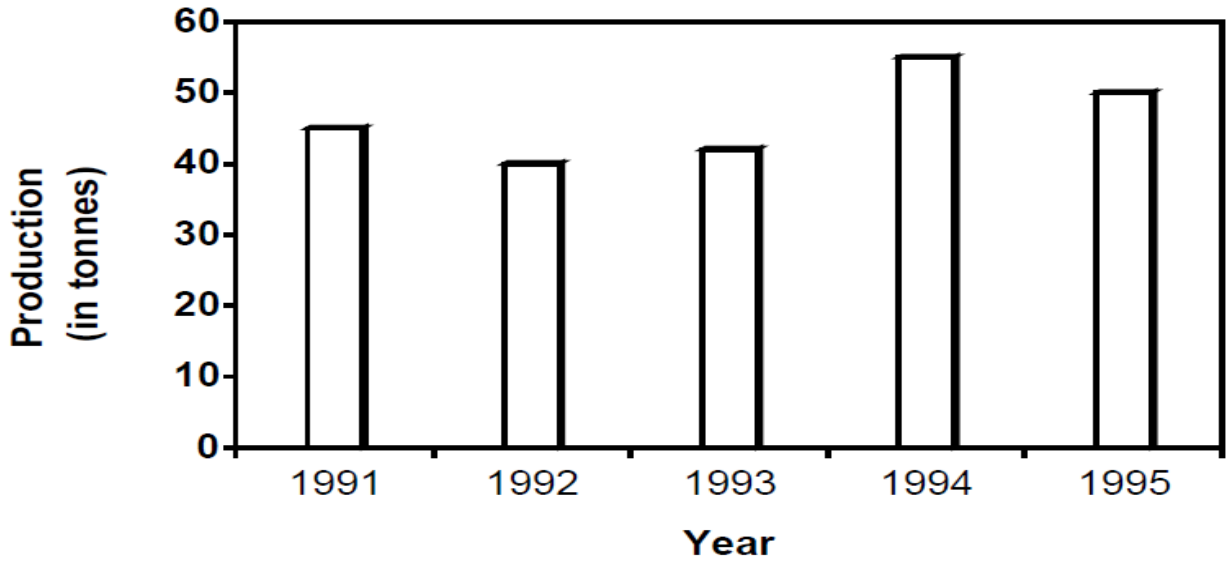
Simple Bar Diagram:
Simple bar diagram can be drawn either on horizontal or vertical base, but bars on horizontal base more common. Bars must be uniform width and intervening space between bars must be equal. While constructing a simple bar diagram, the scale is determined on the basis of the highest value in the series. To make the diagram attractive, the bars can be coloured. Bar diagram are used in business and economics. However, an important limitation of such diagrams is that they can present only one classification or one category of data. For example, while presenting the population for the last five decades, one can only depict the total population in the simple bar diagrams, and not its sex-wise distribution.

Example:
Represent the following data by a bar diagram.

Year	Production (in tones)
1991	45
1992	40
1993	42
1994	55
1995	50

Solution

Simple Bar Diagram



Sub-divided Bar Diagram:

In a sub-divided bar diagram, the bar is sub-divided into various parts in proportion to the values given in the data and the whole bar represent the total. Such diagrams are also called Component Bar diagrams. The sub divisions are distinguished by different colours or crossings or dottings. The main defect of such a diagram is that all the parts do not have a common base to enable one to compare accurately the various components of the data.

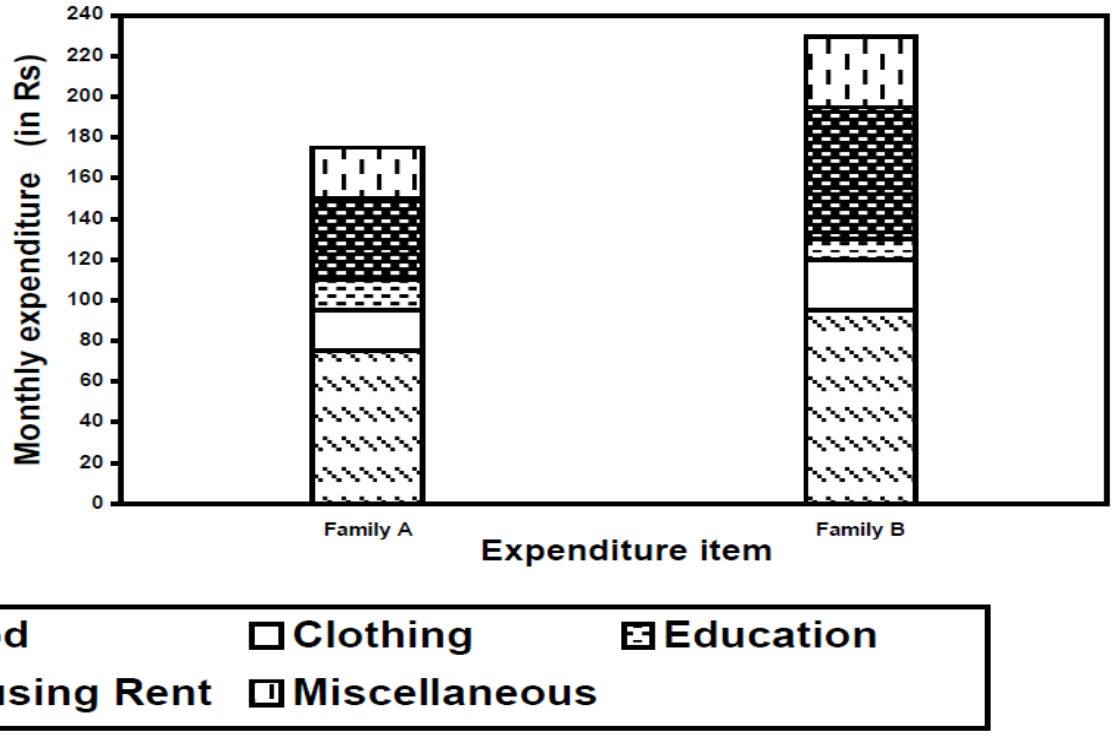
Example :

Represent the following data by a bar diagram.

Expenditure items	Monthly expenditure (in Rs.)	
	Family A	Family B
Food	75	95
Clothing	20	25
Education	15	10
Housing Rent	40	65
Miscellaneous	25	35

Solution

Sub-divided Bar Diagram



Percentage bar diagram:

This is another form of component bar diagram. Here the components are not the actual values but percentages of the whole. The main difference between the sub-divided bar diagram and percentage bar diagram is that in the former the bars are of different heights since their totals may be different whereas in the latter the bars are of equal height since each bar represents 100 percent. In the case of data having sub-division, percentage bar diagram will be more appealing than sub-divided bar diagram.

Example:

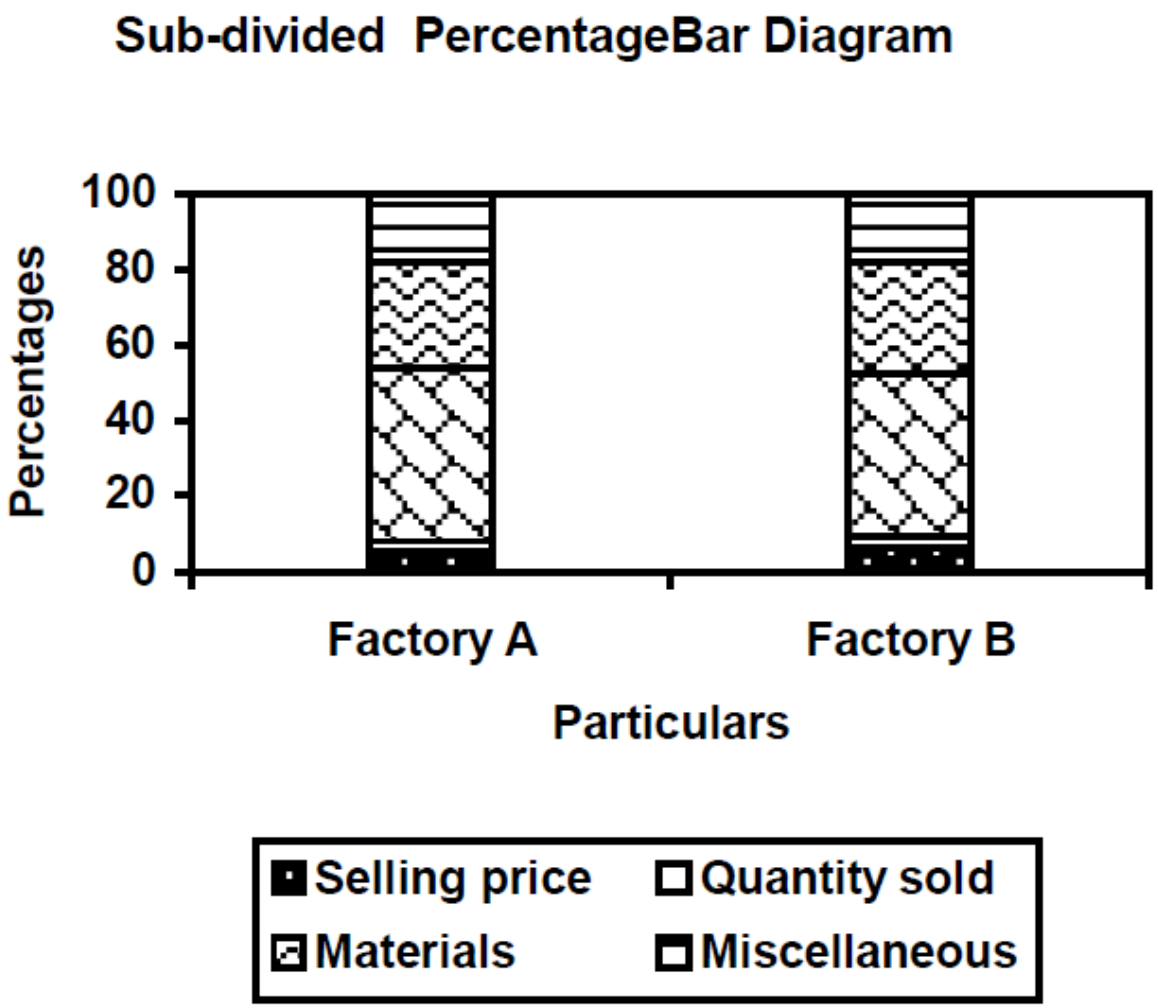
Represent the following data by a percentage bar diagram.

Particular	Factory A	Factory B
Selling Price	400	650
Quantity Sold	240	365
Wages	3500	5000
Materials	2100	3500
Miscellaneous	1400	2100

Solution:

Convert the given values into percentages as follows:

Particulars	Factory A		Factory B	
	Rs.	%	Rs.	%
Selling Price	400	5	650	6
Quantity Sold	240	3	365	3
Wages	3500	46	5000	43
Materials	2100	28	3500	30
Miscellaneous	1400	18	2100	18
Total	7640	100	11615	100



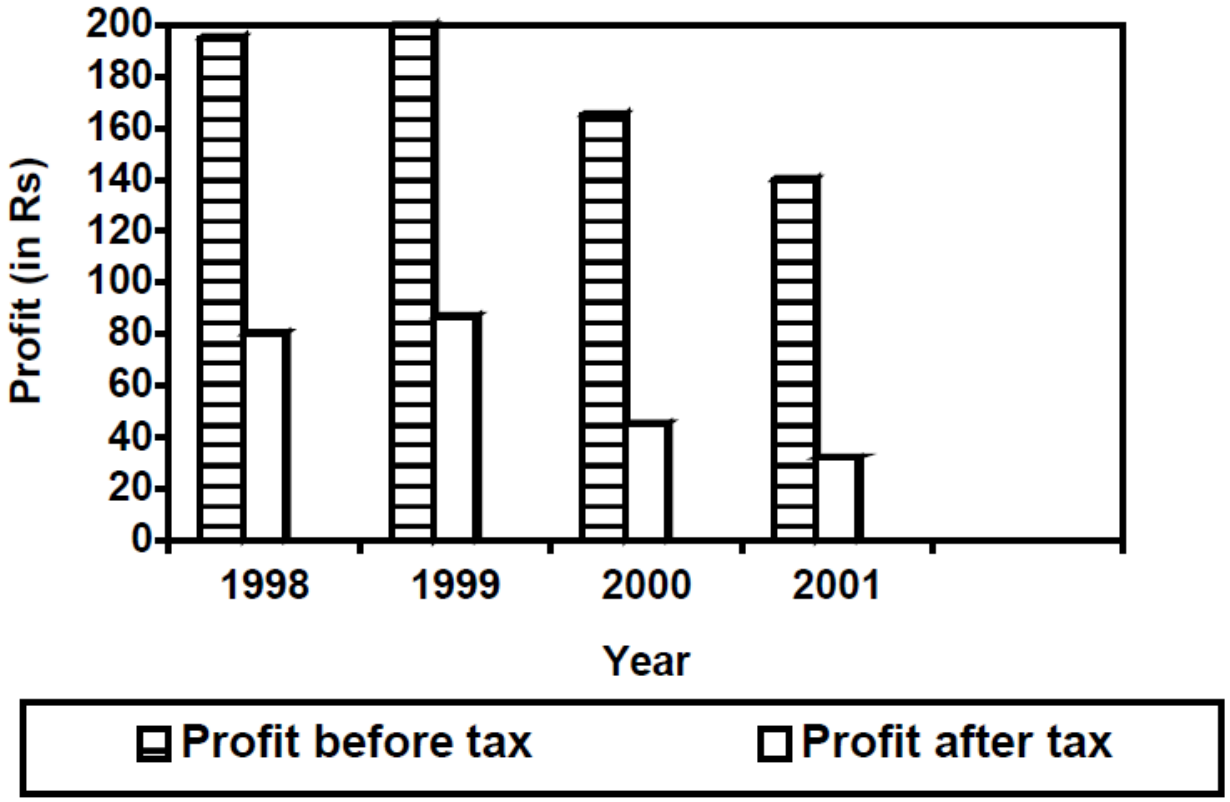
Multiple Bar Diagram:

Multiple bar diagram is used for comparing two or more sets of statistical data. Bars are constructed side by side to represent the set of values for comparison. In order to distinguish bars, they may be either differently coloured or there should be different types of crossings or dotting, etc. An index is also prepared to identify the meaning of different colours or dottings.

Year	Profit before tax (in lakhs of rupees)	Profit after tax (in lakhs of rupees)
1998	195	80
1999	200	87
2000	165	45
2001	140	32

Solution:

Multiple Bar Diagram



Pie Diagram or Circular Diagram:

Another way of preparing a two-dimensional diagram is in the form of circles. In such diagrams, both the total and the component parts or sectors can be shown. The area of a circle is proportional to the square of its radius. While making comparisons, pie diagrams should be used on a percentage basis and not on an absolute basis. In constructing a pie diagram the first step is to prepare the data so that various components values can be transposed into corresponding degrees on the circle.

The second step is to draw a circle of appropriate size with a compass. The size of the radius depends upon the available space and other factors of presentation. The third step is to measure points on the circle and representing the size of each sector with the help of a protractor.

Example:

Draw a Pie diagram for the following data of production of sugar in quintals of various countries.

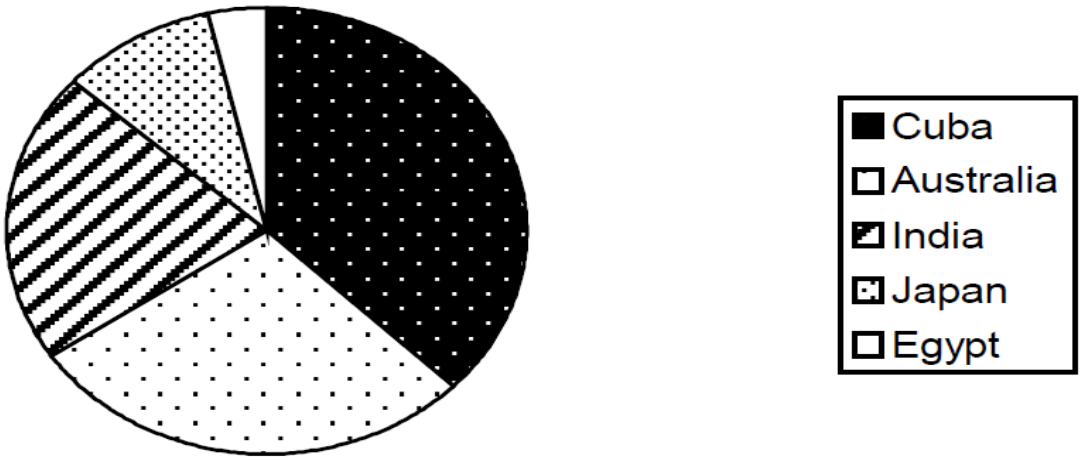
Country	Production of Sugar (in quintals)
Cuba	62
Australia	47
India	35
Japan	16
Egypt	6

Solution:

The values are expressed in terms of degree as follows.

Country	Production of Sugar	
	In Quintals	In Degrees
Cuba	62	134
Australia	47	102
India	35	76
Japan	16	35
Egypt	6	13
Total	166	360

Pie diagram



Graphs:

A graph is a visual form of presentation of statistical data. A graph is more attractive than a table of figure. Even a common man can understand the message of data from the graph. Comparisons can be made between two or more phenomena very easily with the help of a graph. However here we shall discuss only some important types of graphs which are more popular and they are

1.Histogram 2. Frequency Polygon 3.Frequency Curve 4. Ogive 5. Lorenz Curve

Histogram:

A histogram is a bar chart or graph showing the frequency of occurrence of each value of the variable being analyzed. In histogram, data are plotted as a series of rectangles. Class intervals are shown on the 'X-axis' and the frequencies on the 'Y-axis'. The height of each rectangle represents the frequency of the class interval. Each rectangle is formed with the other so as to give a continuous picture. Such a graph is also called staircase or block diagram.

However, we cannot construct a histogram for distribution with open-end classes. It is also quite misleading if the distribution has unequal intervals and suitable adjustments in frequencies are not made. While constructing histograms, we should know that exclusive type of classification is to be converted if we are given inclusive type of classification and we should form the class in case mid values are given.

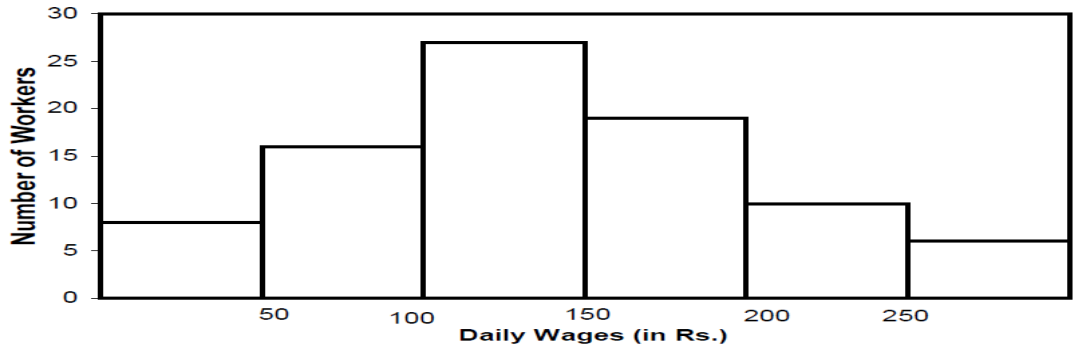
Example:

Draw a histogram for the following data.

Daily Wages	Number of Workers
0-50	8
50-100	16
100-150	27
150-200	19
200-250	10
250-300	6

Solution

Histogram



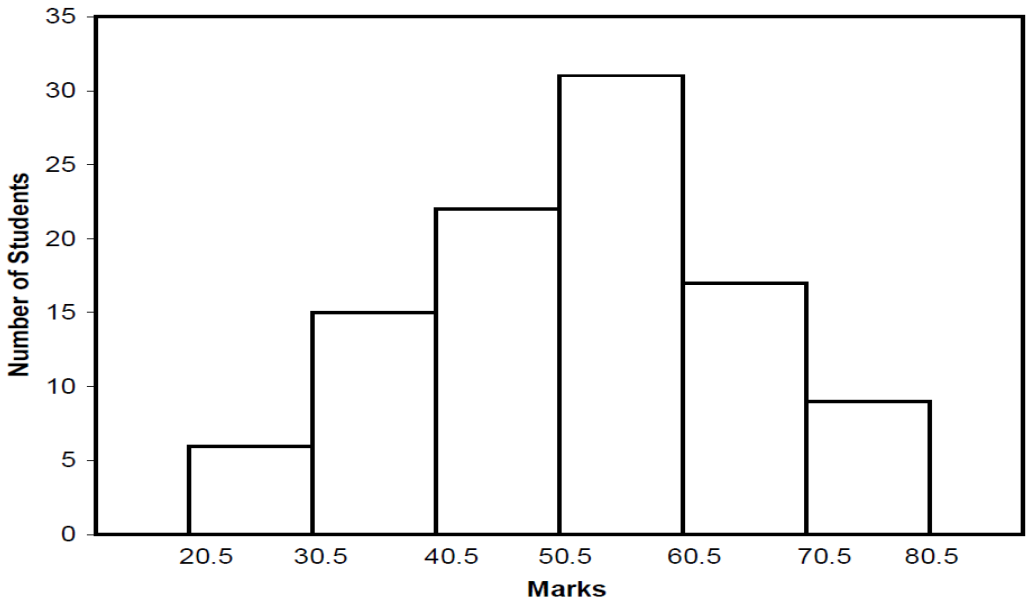
Example:
For the following data, draw a histogram.

Marks	Number of Students
21-30	6
31-40	15
41-50	22
51-60	31
61-70	17
71-80	9

Solution:
For drawing a histogram, the frequency distribution should be continuous. If it is not continuous, then first make it continuous as follows. Here Correction Factor = (31-30)/2 = 0.5

Marks	Number of Students
20.5-30.5	6
30.5-40.5	15
40.5-50.5	22
50.5-60.5	31
60.5-70.5	17
70.5-80.5	9

Histogram

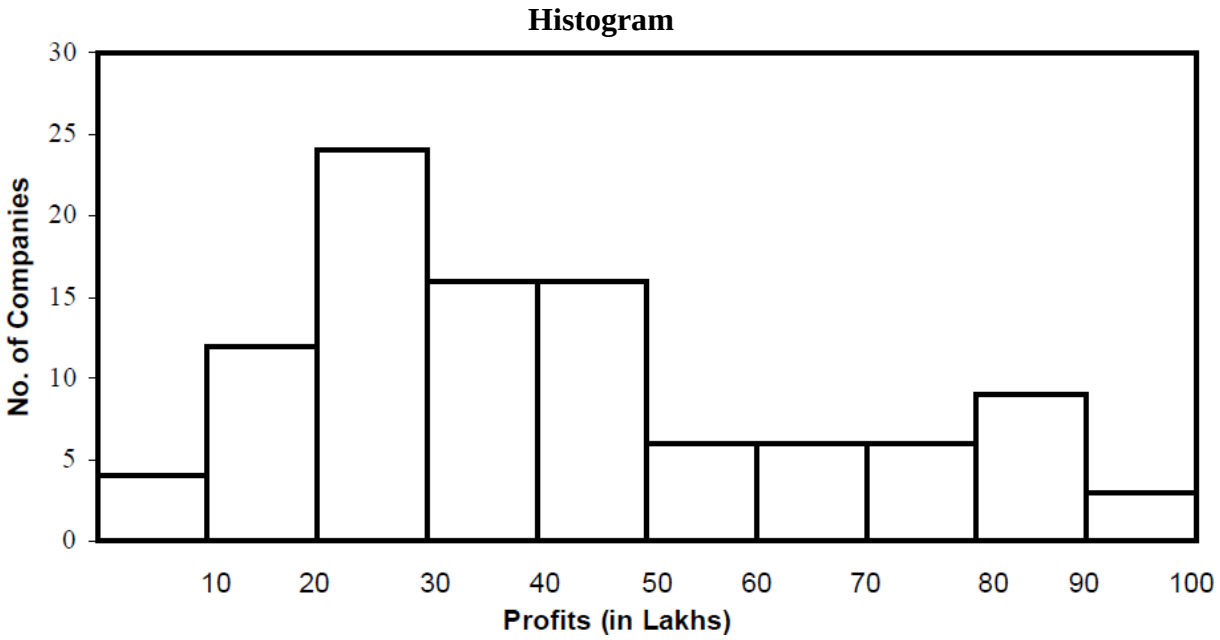


Example:
Draw a histogram for the following data.

Profits (in lakhs)	Number of Companies
0-10	4
10-20	12
20-30	24
30-50	32
50-80	18
80-90	9
90-100	3

Solution:
When the class intervals are unequal, a correction for unequal class intervals must be made. The frequencies are adjusted as follows: The frequency of the class 30-50 shall be divided by two since the class interval is in double. Similarly the class interval 50- 80 can be divided by 3. Then draw the histogram.

Profits (in lakhs)	Number of Companies
0-10	4
10-20	12
20-30	24
30-40	16
40-50	16
50-60	6
60-70	6
70-80	6
80-90	9
90-100	3



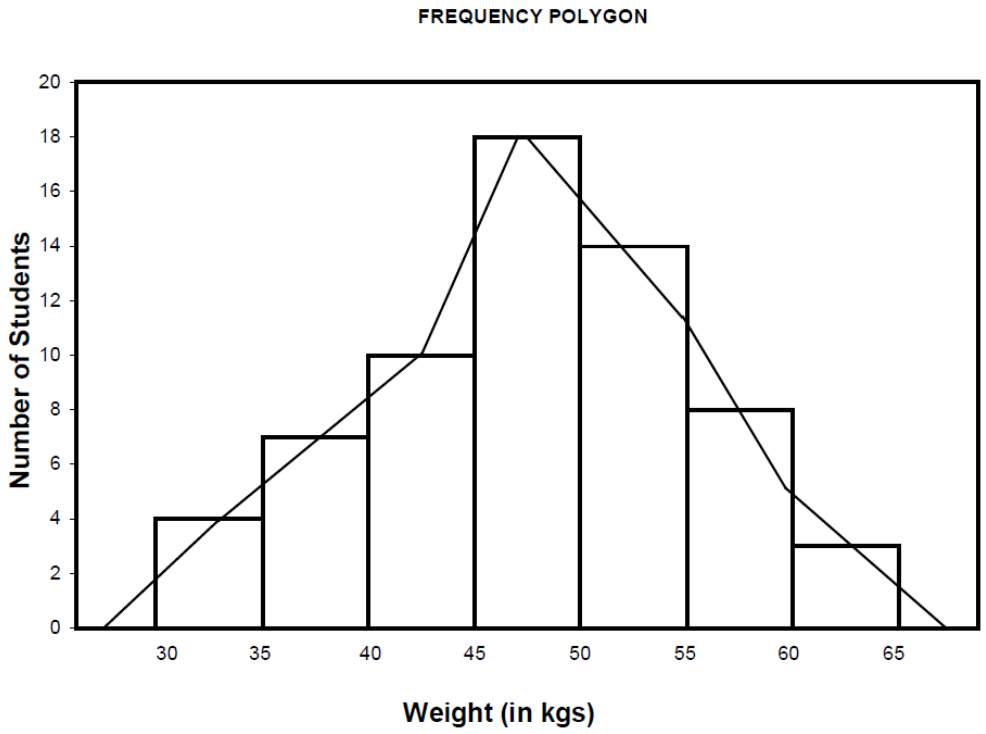
Frequency Polygon:

If we mark the midpoints of the top horizontal sides of the rectangles in a histogram and join them by a straight line, the figure so formed is called a Frequency Polygon. This is done under the assumption that the frequencies in a class interval are evenly distributed throughout the class. The area of the polygon is equal to the area of the histogram, because the area left outside is just equal to the area included in it.

Example:

Draw a frequency polygon for the following data.

Weight (in kg)	Number of Students
30-35	4
35-40	7
40-45	10
45-50	18
50-55	14
55-60	8
60-65	3



Frequency Curve:

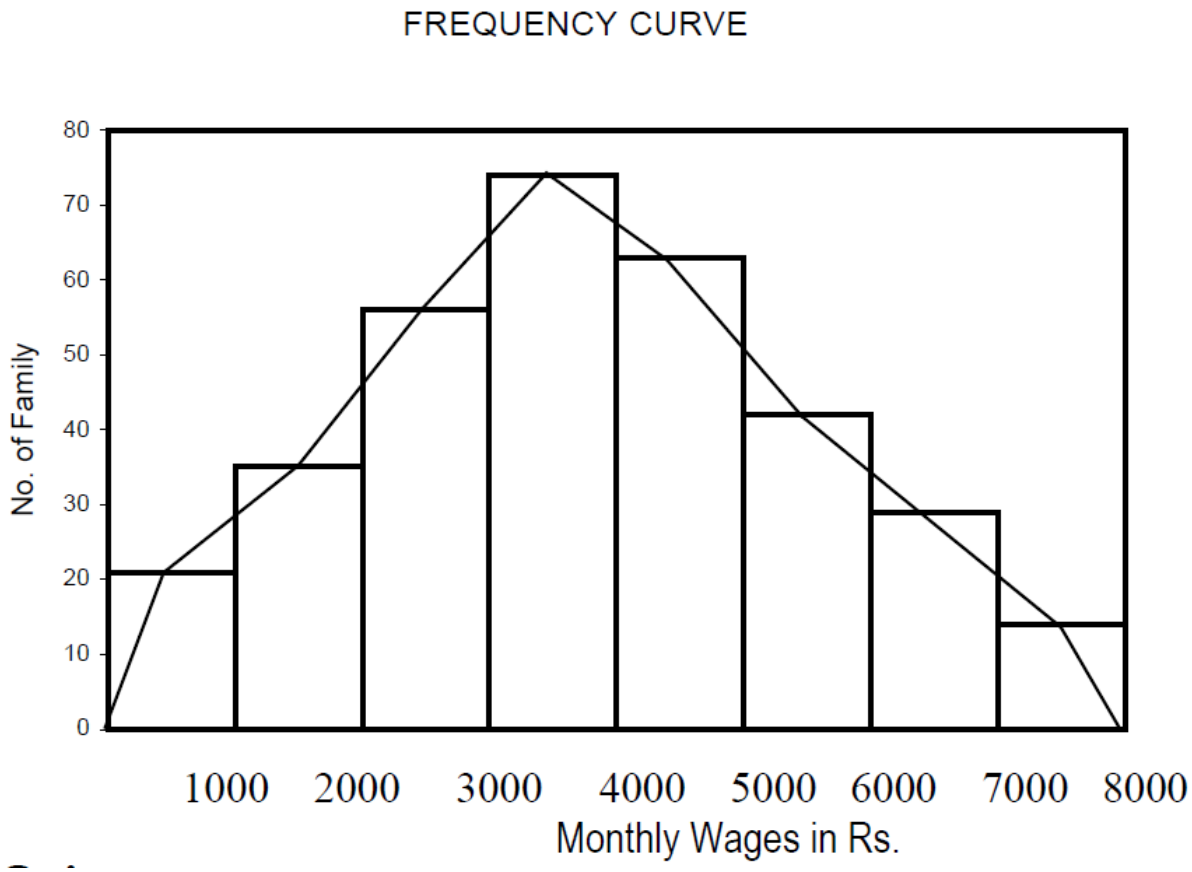
If the middle point of the upper boundaries of the rectangles of a histogram is corrected by a smooth freehand curve, then that diagram is called frequency curve. The curve should begin and end at the base line.

Example:

Draw a frequency curve for the following data.

Monthly Wages (in Rs.)	No. of family
0-1000	21
1000-2000	35
2000-3000	56
3000-4000	74
4000-5000	63
5000-6000	40
6000-7000	29
7000-8000	14

Solution



Ogives:

For a set of observations, we know how to construct a frequency distribution. In some cases we may require the number of observations less than a given value or more than a given value.
This is obtained by a accumulating (adding) the frequencies upto (or above) the give value. This accumulated frequency is called cumulative frequency. These cumulative frequencies are then listed in a table is called cumulative frequency table. The curve table is obtained by plotting cumulative frequencies is called a cumulative frequency curve or an ogive.

There are two methods of constructing ogive namely:
1. The ‘ less than ogive’ method
2. The ‘more than ogive’ method.

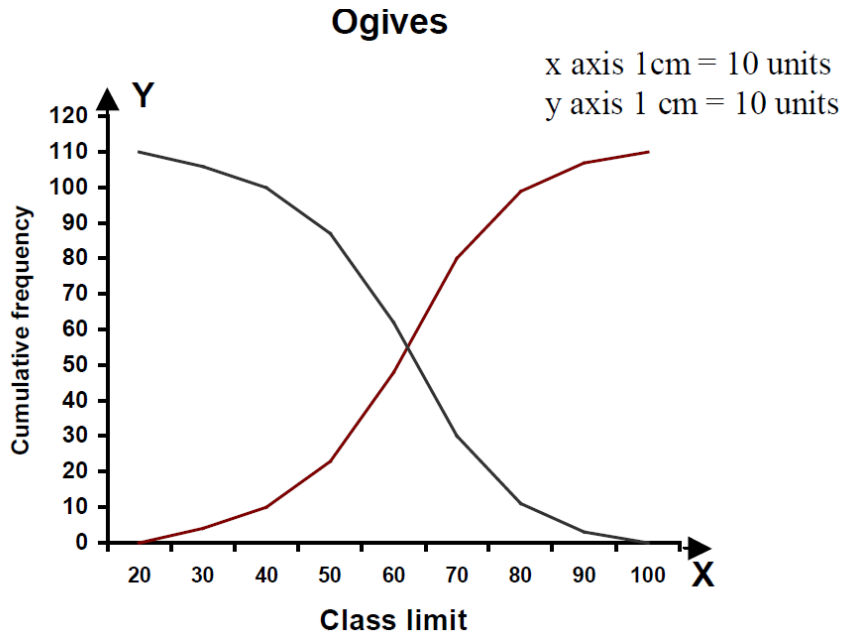
In less than ogive method we start with the upper limits of the classes and go adding the frequencies. When these frequencies are plotted, we get a rising curve. In more than ogive method, we start with the lower limits of the classes and from the total frequencies we subtract the frequency of each class. When these frequencies are plotted we get a declining curve.

Example:
Draw the Ogives for the following data.

Class interval	Frequency
20-30	4
30-40	6
40-50	13
50-60	25
60-70	32
70-80	19
80-90	8
90-100	3

Solution:

Class limit	Less than ogive	More than ogive
20	0	110
30	4	106
40	10	100
50	23	87
60	48	62
70	80	30
80	99	11
90	107	3
100	110	0



Lorenz Curve:

Lorenz curve is a graphical method of studying dispersion. It was introduced by Max.O.Lorenz, a great Economist and a statistician, to study the distribution of wealth and income. It is also used to study the variability in the distribution of profits, wages, revenue, etc.

It is specially used to study the degree of inequality in the distribution of income and wealth between countries or between different periods. It is a percentage of cumulative values of one variable in combined with the percentage of cumulative values in other variable and then Lorenz curve is drawn.

The curve starts from the origin (0,0) and ends at (100,100). If the wealth, revenue, land etc are equally distributed among the people of the country, then the Lorenz curve will be the diagonal of the square. But this is highly impossible.

The deviation of the Lorenz curve from the diagonal, shows how the wealth, revenue, land etc are not equally distributed among people.

Example:

In the following table, profit earned is given from the number of companies belonging to two areas A and B. Draw in the same diagram their Lorenz curves and interpret them.

Profit earned (in thousands)	Number of Companies	
	Area A	Area B
5	7	13
26	12	25
65	14	43
89	28	57
110	33	45
155	25	28
180	18	13
200	8	6

Solution:

Profits			Area A			Area B		
In Rs.	Cumulative profit	Cumulative percentage	No. of companies	Cumulative number	Cumulative percentage	No. of companies	Cumulative number	Cumulative percentage
5	5	1	7	7	5	13	13	6
26	31	4	12	19	13	25	38	17
65	96	12	14	33	23	43	81	35
89	185	22	28	61	42	57	138	60
110	295	36	33	94	65	45	183	80
155	450	54	25	119	82	28	211	92
180	630	76	18	137	94	13	224	97
200	830	100	8	145	100	6	230	100