### **SECTION 2.1: GRAPHICAL SUMMARIES** FOR QUALITATIVE DATA

### **OBJECTIVES**

- 1. Construct frequency distributions for qualitative data
- 2. Construct bar graphs
- 3. Construct pie charts

		Constr	UCT FREQUENCY	OBJECTIVE 1 DISTRIBUTIONS I	OR QUALITATIVI	Е <b>D</b> ATA	
The			of a category	is the number	of times it occi	urs in the data s	et. A
				is a table	that presents	the frequency f	or each category.
					•	. ,	σ ,
F.,,,,,,,	C						. the a last 50
EXAMPLE:						e types used by	the last 50
	custo		•	distribution fo			
		Discover	Visa	Visa	Am. Express	Visa	
		Visa	Visa	Am. Express	MasterCard	Visa	
		Am. Express	MasterCard	Visa	Visa	Visa	
		Visa	Am. Express	Am. Express	MasterCard	Visa	
		MasterCard	Visa	Discover	Am. Express	Discover	
		Visa	Am. Express	Discover	Visa	MasterCard	
		Visa	Visa	Visa	Visa	MasterCard	
		MasterCard	Am. Express	Visa	MasterCard	Visa	
		MasterCard	Discover	MasterCard	Visa	Visa	
		MasterCard	Discover	Am. Express	Discover	Visa	
SOLUTION:							
			Туре	F	requency		
		N	1asterCard			<u></u>	
			Visa				
		Ame	rican Express				
			Discover				
RELATIVE FRE	QUENCY						
Λ. (	de a cela	rea a desala a l				6	
A frequency	aistribu	ition displays r	now many obse	ervations are in	each category	. Sometimes, w	ve are interested
in the			of observat	tions in each ca	tegory. The pr	oportion of obs	ervations in a
category is o	called th	e		of the cate	gory. The rela	tive frequency (	of a category is
4h a fus	a., a£±l		و و والدين ما ام ما	f .ll f	-:		
the frequen	cy of the	e category divi	aea by the sun	n of all frequen	cies.		
		Relative Fre	equency =				

## SECTION 2.1: GRAPHICAL SUMMARIES FOR QUALITATIVE DATA

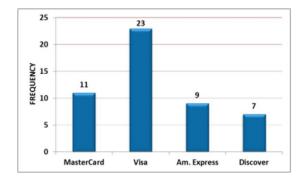
**EXAMPLE:** Construct a relative frequency distribution for the credit card data.

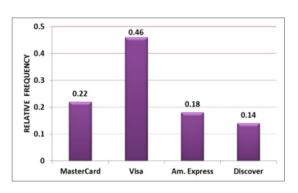
S	n	11	r	ΤI	O	N	•
•	_	ь,	•		v	ıv	٠

Туре	Frequency	Relative Frequency
MasterCard		
Visa		
American Express		
Discover		
Discover		

OBJECTIVE 2
CONSTRUCT BAR GRAPHS

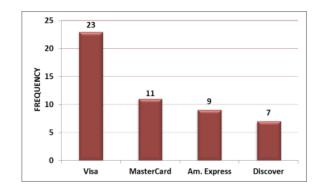
A \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ is a graphical representation of a frequency distribution. A bar graph consists of rectangles of equal width, with one rectangle for each category. The heights of the rectangles represent the frequencies or relative frequencies of the categories. Following are the frequency and relative frequency bar graphs for the credit card data.





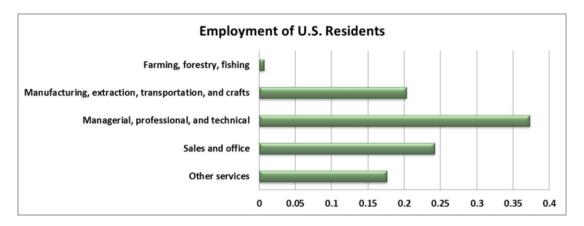
Sometimes it is desirable to construct a bar graph in which the categories are presented in order of frequency or relative frequency. Such a graph is called a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

These charts are useful when it is important to see clearly which are the most frequently occurring categories.



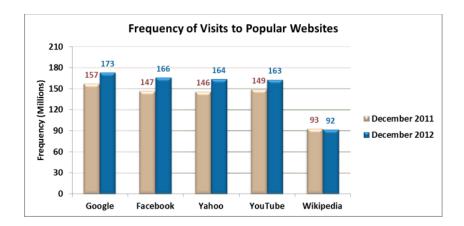
#### **HORIZONTAL BARS**

The bars in a bar graph may be either horizontal or vertical. Horizontal bars are sometimes more convenient when the categories have long names.



#### **SIDE-BY-SIDE BAR GRAPHS**

Sometimes we want to compare two bar graphs that have the same categories. The best way to do this is to construct both bar graphs on the same axes, putting bars that correspond to the same category next to each other. This is called a side-by-side bar graph.



OBJECTIVE 3
PIE CHARTS

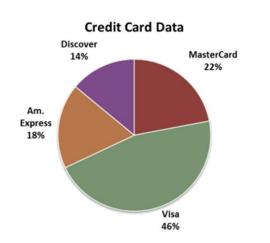
A \_\_\_\_\_\_ is an alternative to the bar graph for displaying relative frequency information. A pie chart is a circle which is divided into sectors, one for each category. The relative sizes of the sectors match the relative frequencies of the categories.

For example, if a category has a relative frequency of 0.25, then its sector takes up \_\_\_\_\_\_ of

the circle. Following is the pie chart for the credit card example at the beginning of this section.

## SECTION 2.1: GRAPHICAL SUMMARIES FOR QUALITATIVE DATA

Туре	Relative Frequency
MasterCard	0.22
Visa	0.46
Am. Express	0.18
Discover	0.14



### **Check Your Understanding**

The following table presents a frequency distribution for the number of cars and light trucks sold in the month of June 2013.

- a. Construct a bar graph.
- b. Construct a relative frequency distribution.
- c. Construct a relative frequency bar graph.

Type of Vehicle	Frequency
Small car	276,200
Midsize car	333,515
Luxury car	98,414
Minivan	81,355
SUV	112,328
Pickup truck	191,664
Cross-over truck	300,442

Source: The Wall Street Journal

- How to construct a frequency and relative frequency distribution
- How to construct and interpret bar graphs including:
  - Pareto charts
  - Bar graphs with horizontal bars
  - Side-by-side bar graphs
- How to construct and interpret pie charts

### **OBJECTIVES**

- 1. Construct frequency distributions for quantitative data
- 2. Construct histograms
- 3. Determine the shape of a distribution from a histogram
- 4. Construct frequency polygons and ogives

### **OBJECTIVE 1 CONSTRUCT FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS FOR QUANTITATIVE DATA**

To summarize quantitative data, we use a			just like those for
qualitative data. However, since these data l	nave no natural categories, w	e divide the data ir	nto
Classes are interval	s of equal width that cover a	ll values that are ob	served in the
data set.			
The	of a class is the	Lower	Upper
smallest value that can appear in that class.		Class Limits Class	Class Limits Frequency
The	of a class is the	0-4	2
largest value that can appear in that class.	_	10 - 14	9
TI	to the altification	15   19	3
The	_ is the difference	Class W	idth = 5 - 0 = 5
between consecutive lower class limits.		31333	

### **CHOOSING CLASSES**

- Every observation must fall into one of the classes.
- The classes must not overlap.
- The classes must be of equal width.
- There must be no gaps between classes. Even if there are no observations in a class, it must be included in the frequency distribution.

### **CONSTRUCTING A FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION**

Following are the general steps for constructing a frequency distribution:

- **Step 1:** Choose a class width.
- Step 2: Choose a lower class limit for the first class. This should be a convenient number that is slightly less than the minimum data value.
- Step 3: Compute the lower limit for the second class, by adding the class width to the lower limit for the first class:

Lower limit for second class = Lower limit for first class + Class width

- Step 4: Compute the lower limits for each of the remaining classes, by adding the class width to the lower limit of the preceding class. Stop when the largest data value is included in a class.
- **Step 5:** Count the number of observations in each class, and construct the frequency distribution.
- **EXAMPLE:** The emissions for 65 vehicles, in units of grams of particles per gallon of fuel, are given. Construct a frequency distribution using a class width of 1.

1.5	0.87	1.12	1.25	3.46	1.11	1.12	0.88	1.29	0.94	0.64	1.31	2.49
1.48	1.06	1.11	2.15	0.86	1.81	1.47	1.24	1.63	2.14	6.64	4.04	2.48
1.4	1.37	1.81	1.14	1.63	3.67	0.55	2.67	2.63	3.03	1.23	1.04	1.63
3.12	2.37	2.12	2.68	1.17	3.34	3.79	1.28	2.1	6.55	1.18	3.06	0.48
0.25	0.53	3.36	3.47	2.74	1.88	5.94	4.24	3.52	3.59	3.1	3.33	4.58

SOLUTION:			
	Class	Frequency	<u>-</u>
			_
			_
			-
			_
			-
			_

### **RELATIVE FREQUENCY**

Given a frequency distribution, a relative frequency distribution can be constructed by computing the relative frequency for each class.

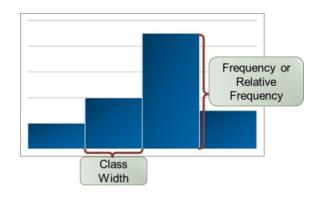
### **Relative Frequency =**

**EXAMPLE:** Construct a relative frequency distribution for the car emissions data in the last example.

SOLUTION:			
	Class	Frequency	Relative Frequency
	0.00 - 0.99		
	1.00 - 1.99		
	2.00 – 2.99		
	3.00 – 3.99		
	4.00 – 4.99		
	5.00 – 5.99		
	6.00 - 6.99		

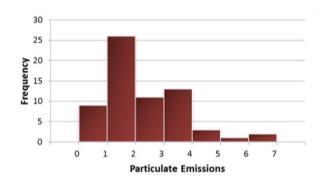
## OBJECTIVE 2 CONSTRUCT HISTOGRAMS

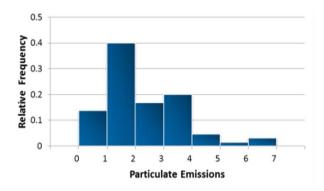
Once we have a frequency distribution or a relative frequency distribution, we can put the information in graphical form by constructing a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. A histogram is constructed by drawing a rectangle for each class. The heights of the rectangles are equal to the frequencies or the relative frequencies, and the widths are equal to the class width.



# Section 2.2: Frequency Distributions and Their Graphs

**EXAMPLE:** The frequency histogram and relative frequency histogram are given for the particulate emissions data.



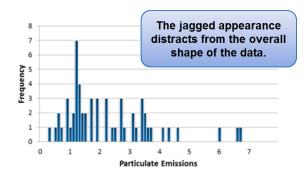


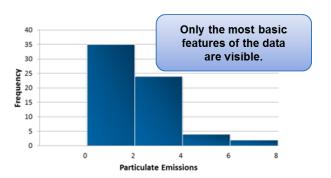
Note that the two histograms have the same shape. The only difference is the scale on the vertical axis.

### **CHOOSING THE NUMBER OF CLASSES**

There are no hard and fast rules for choosing the number of classes. In general, it is good to have more classes rather than fewer, but it is also good to have reasonably large frequencies in some of the classes. There are two principles that can guide the choice:

- produce a histogram lacking in detail.
- \_\_\_\_\_ produce a histogram with too much detail, so that the main features of the data are obscured.







### **HISTOGRAMS ON THE TI-84 PLUS**

The following steps will create a histogram for the particulate emissions data on the TI-84 PLUS.

**Step 1**: Enter the data in **L1**.

**Step 2**: Press **2nd,Y=**, then **1** to access the Plot1 menu.

Select **On** and the histogram plot type.

**Step 3**: Press **Zoom, 9** to view the plot.



#### **OPEN-ENDED CLASSES**

It is sometimes necessary for the first class to have no lower limit or for the last class to have no upper limit.

Such a class is called \_\_\_\_\_\_. The following frequency distribution presents the

number of deaths in the U.S. due to pneumonia for various age groups. Note that the last age group is "85 and

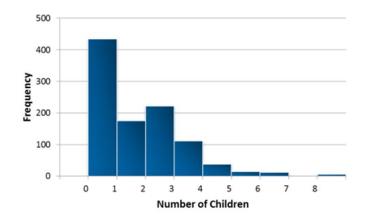
older", which is an open-ended class. When a frequency distribution contains an open-ended class, a histogram cannot be drawn.

Age	Number of Deaths
5 – 14	69
15 – 24	178
25 – 34	299
35 – 44	875
45 – 54	1872
55 – 64	3099
65 – 74	6283
75 – 84	17,775
85 and older	27,758

### **HISTOGRAMS FOR DISCRETE DATA**

When data are discrete, we can construct a frequency distribution in which each possible value of the variable forms a class. The following table and histogram presents the results of a hypothetical survey in which 1000 adult women were asked how many children they had.

Number of Children	Frequency
0	435
1	175
2	222
3	112
4	38
5	9
6	7
7	0
8	2

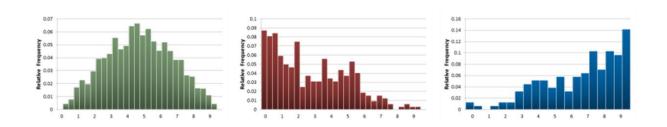


OBJECTIVE 3

DETERMINE THE SHAPE OF A DISTRIBUTION FROM A HISTOGRAM

A histogram gives a visual impression of the "shape" of a data set. Statisticians have developed terminology to describe some of the commonly observed shapes. A histogram is \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ if its right half is a mirror image of its left half. There are very few histograms that are perfectly symmetric, but many are approximately symmetric. A histogram with a long right-hand tail is said to be

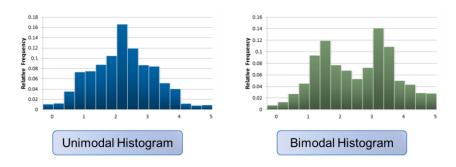
A histogram with a long left-hand tail is said to be \_\_\_\_\_\_.



### **Modes**

A peak, or high point, of a histogram is referred to as a mode. A histogram is \_\_\_\_\_\_

if it has only one mode, and \_\_\_\_\_\_ if it has two clearly distinct modes.



OBJECTIVE 4

CONSTRUCT FREQUENCY POLYGONS AND OGIVES

### **CLASS MIDPOINTS**

Some graphs used for representing frequency or relative frequency distributions require class midpoints. The midpoint of a class is the average of its lower class limit and the lower class limit of the next class.

Class Midpoint =

**EXAMPLE:** Consider the classes in the particulate emissions data from earlier in this section find the class midpoints.

#### **SOLUTION:**

Class	Class Midpoint	Frequency
0.00 - 0.99		9
1.00 - 1.99		26
2.00 – 2.99		11
3.00 – 3.99		13
4.00 – 4.99		3
5.00 – 5.99		1
6.00 – 6.99		2

### **FREQUENCY POLYGON**

Although histo	ograms are the most commonly used graphical display for	representing a frequency distribution
there are othe	ers. One of these is the	. A frequency polygon is constructed
by plotting a p	point for each class. The $oldsymbol{x}$ coordinate of the point is the cl	ass midpoint and the $oldsymbol{y}$ coordinate is
the frequency	v. Then, all points are connected with straight lines.	
Example:	Consider the classes in the particulate emissions data fro frequency polygon.	m earlier in this section. Construct a

### **OGIVES AND CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY**

Another type of graphical representation of frequency distributions is called an	·
Ogives plot values known as	The
cumulative frequency of a class is the sum of the frequencies of that class and all previous classes.	

**EXAMPLE:** Consider the classes in the particulate emissions data from earlier in this section compute the cumulative frequencies.

SOLUTION:			
	Class	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency
	0.00 - 0.99	9	
	1.00 - 1.99	26	
	2.00 – 2.99	11	
	3.00 – 3.99	13	
	4.00 – 4.99	3	
	5.00 - 5.99	1	
	6.00 – 6.99	2	

An ogive is constructed by plotting a point for each class.	The $x$ coordinate of the point is the upper class limit
and the $\boldsymbol{y}$ coordinate is the cumulative frequency. Then,	all points are connected with straight lines.

- How to construct a frequency and relative frequency distribution for quantitative data
- How to construct and interpret histograms
- The guiding principles for choosing the number of classes in a histogram
- How to construct a histogram on the TI-84 PLUS calculator
- Some possible shapes of a data set including:
  - Symmetric
  - Skewed to the right (positively skewed)
  - Skewed to the left (negatively skewed)
  - Unimodal
  - o Bimodal
- How to construct and interpret frequency polygons and ogives

### **OBJECTIVES**

- 1. Construct stem-and-leaf plots
- 2. Construct dotplots
- 3. Construct time-series plots

# OBJECTIVE 1 CONSTRUCT STEM-AND-LEAF PLOTS

Stem-and-leaf plots are a simple way	to display small data sets. In a stem-and-leaf plot, the
	digit is the leaf, and the remaining digits form
Consider the values 14.8 and 2,739:	

**EXAMPLE:** 

The following table presents the U.S. Census Bureau projection for the percentage of the population aged 65 and over for each state and the District of Columbia. Construct a stem-and-leaf plot.

Alabama	14.1	Rhode Island	14.1	Nevada	12.3	Kentucky	13.1
Arkansas	14.3	Tennessee	13.3	New Mexico	14.1	Maryland	12.2
Connecticut	14.4	Vermont	14.3	North Dakota	15.3	Minnesota	12.4
Florida	17.8	West Virginia	16	Oregon	13	Montana	15
Idaho	12	Alaska	8.1	South Carolina	13.6	New Hampshire	12.6
lowa	14.9	California	11.5	Texas	10.5	New York	13.6
Louisiana	12.6	Delaware	14.1	Virginia	12.4	Ohio	13.7
Massachusetts	13.7	Georgia	10.2	Wisconsin	13.5	Pennsylvania	15.5
Mississippi	12.8	Illinois	12.4	Arizona	13.9	South Dakota	14.6
Nebraska	13.8	Kansas	13.4	Colorado	10.7	Utah	9
New Jersey	13.7	Maine	15.6	D.C.	11.5	Washington	12.2
North Carolina	12.4	Michigan	12.8	Hawaii	14.3	Wyoming	14
Oklahoma	13.8	Missouri	13.9	Indiana	12.7		

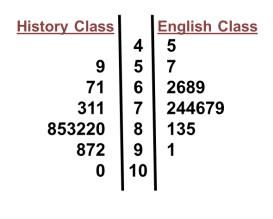
SOLUTION:		
	8	
	9	
	10	
	11	
	12	
	13	
	14	
	15	
	16	
	17	

### **BACK-TO-BACK STEM-AND-LEAF PLOTS**

When two data sets have values similar enough so that the same stems can be used, their shapes can be compared with a **back-to-back stem-and-leaf plot**.

**EXAMPLE:** Consider the following course averages from an English class and a History class. The classes can be compared with a back-to-back stem-and-leaf plot.

Course Averages in English Class						
45	57	62	66			
68	69	72	74			
74	76	77	79			
81	83	85	91			
Course A	Course Averages in History Class					
59	61	67	71			
71	73	80	82			
82	83	85	88			
92	97	98	100			



### OBJECTIVE 2 CONSTRUCT DOTPLOTS

A \_\_\_\_\_\_ is a graph that can be used to give a rough impression of the shape of a data set. It

is useful when the data set is not too large, and when there are some repeated values.

**EXAMPLE:** Consider the number of children had by each of the presidents of the U.S. and their wives.

0	2	10	2	5	3	6	2	2	4	1	5	4	15	3
4	5	3	2	3	4	2	6	0	0	0	8	3	3	6
2	4	2	0	4	6	4	7	2	0	1	2	6		

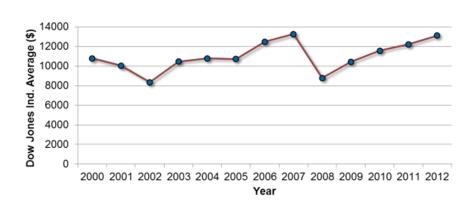
A dotplot gives a good indication of where the values are concentrated, and where the gaps are. For example, it is immediately apparent that the most frequent number of children is \_\_\_\_\_\_, and only presidents had more than 6.

## OBJECTIVE 3 CONSTRUCT TIME-SERIES PLOTS

A \_\_\_\_\_ may be used when the data consist of values of a variable measured at different points in time. In a time-series plot, the horizontal axis represents time, and the vertical axis represents the value of the variable we are measuring.

**EXAMPLE:** The following table and time-series plot display the closing value of the Dow Jones Industrial Average at the end of each year from 2000 to 2012.

Year	Average
2000	10,786.85
2001	10,021.50
2002	8,341.63
2003	10,453.92
2004	10,783.01
2005	10,717.50
2006	12,463.15
2007	13,264.82
2008	8,776.39
2009	10,428.05
2010	11,557.51
2011	12,217.56
2012	13,104.14





#### **TIME-SERIES PLOTS ON THE TI-84 PLUS**

The following steps will create a time-series plot for the Dow Jones Industrial Average data on the TI-84 PLUS.

**Step 1**: Enter the x-values into **L1** and the y-values into **L2**.

Step 2: Press 2nd, Y=, then 1 to access the Plot 1 menu. Select On and the Line Graph plot type. Make sure that L1 is entered in the Xlist field and L2 is entered in the Ylist field.



Mark: 6

**Step 3**: Press **Zoom, 9** to view the plot.

- How to construct and interpret:
  - Stem-and-leaf plots
  - Dotplots
  - Time-series plots

### **OBJECTIVES**

- 1. Understand how improper positioning of the vertical scale can be misleading
- 2. Understand the area principle for constructing statistical graphs
- 3. Understand how three-dimensional graphs can be misleading

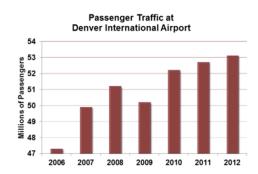
# OBJECTIVE 1 UNDERSTAND HOW IMPROPER POSITIONING OF THE VERTICAL SCALE CAN BE MISLEADING

Statistical graphs, when properly used, are powerful forms of communication. Unfortunately, when graphs are improperly used, they can misrepresent the data and lead people to draw incorrect conclusions. We discuss here three of the most common forms of misrepresentation.

- Incorrect position of the vertical scale
- Incorrect sizing of graphical images
- Misleading perspective for three-dimensional diagrams.

The \_\_\_\_\_\_ of a graph or plot is the value at which the horizontal axis intersects with the vertical axis. With graphs or plots that represent how much or how many of something, it may be misleading if the baseline is not at zero.

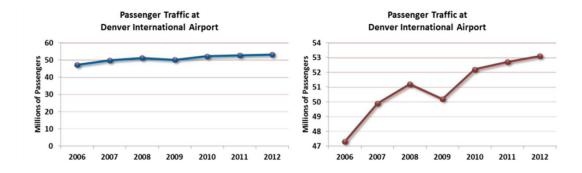




These graphs are based on the same data, but give different impressions. The graph on the right has a baseline at which exaggerates the differences between the bars.

#### **MISREPRESENTATION WITH TIME-SERIES**

The same misleading information can be created with time-series plots as well.

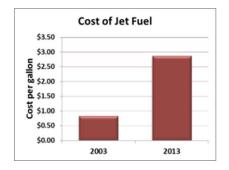


## OBJECTIVE 2 UNDERSTAND THE AREA PRINCIPLE FOR CONSTRUCTING STATISTICAL GRAPHS

We often use images to compare amounts. Larger images correspond to greater amounts. To use images properly in this way, we must follow a rule known as **The Area Principle**.

THE AREA PRINCIPLE:

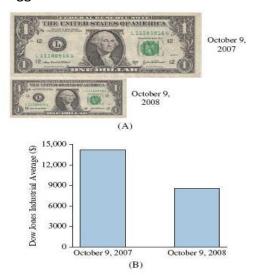
**EXAMPLE:** The cost of jet fuel in 2003 was \$0.83 per gallon and in 2013 it had risen to \$2.87. Note that the price in 2013 is about 3.5 times the price in 2003.



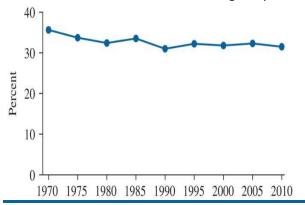


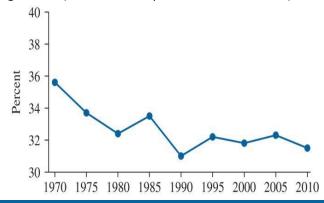
In the bar graph on the left, the area for the 2013 bar is about 3.5 times that of the 2003 bar. In the picture of the planes, the difference appears much larger. The reason is that both the height and width of the airplane have been increased by a factor of 3.5. Thus, the area of the larger plane is about 12 times the area of the smaller. The airplane graph violates the Area Principle and gives a misleading impression.

**Example:** Stock market crash: The Dow Jones Industrial Average reached its highest level ever on October 9, 2007, when it closed at \$14,164.53. One year later, on October 9, 2008, the average had dropped almost 40%, to \$8,579.19. Which of the following graphs accurately represents the magnitude of the drop? Which one exaggerates it?



**Example College degrees:** both of the following time-series plots present the percentage of u.s. bachelor degrees that were in science or mathematics during the years 1970 through 2010. (source: u.s. department of education)



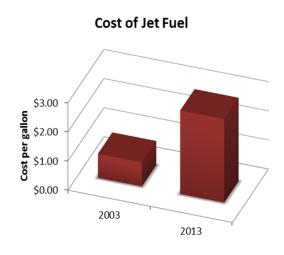


Which of the following statements is more accurate, and why?

- (i) The percentage of degrees that were in science or mathematics decreased considerably between 1970 and 2010
- (ii) The percentage of degrees that were in science or mathematics decreased somewhat between 1970 and 2010.

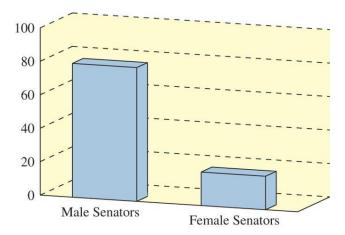
# OBJECTIVE 3 UNDERSTAND HOW THREE-DIMENSIONAL GRAPHS CAN BE MISLEADING

Newspapers and magazines often present **three-dimensional** bar graphs because they are visually impressive. Unfortunately, in order to make the tops of the bars visible, these graphs are often drawn as though the reader is looking down on them. This makes the bars look shorter than they really are.



### SECTION 2.4: GRAPHS CAN BE MISLEADING

**EXAMPLE** Female senators: Of the 100 members of the United States Senate in 2013, 80 were men and 20 were women. The following three-dimensional bar graph attempts to present this information.



- a. Explain how this graph is misleading.
- b. Construct a graph (not necessarily three-dimensional) that presents this information accurately.

- The common ways that graphs can be misleading including:
  - Incorrect positioning of the vertical axis
  - o Incorrect sizing of graphical images by not following the Area Principle
  - o How three-dimensional graphs can distort the perspective