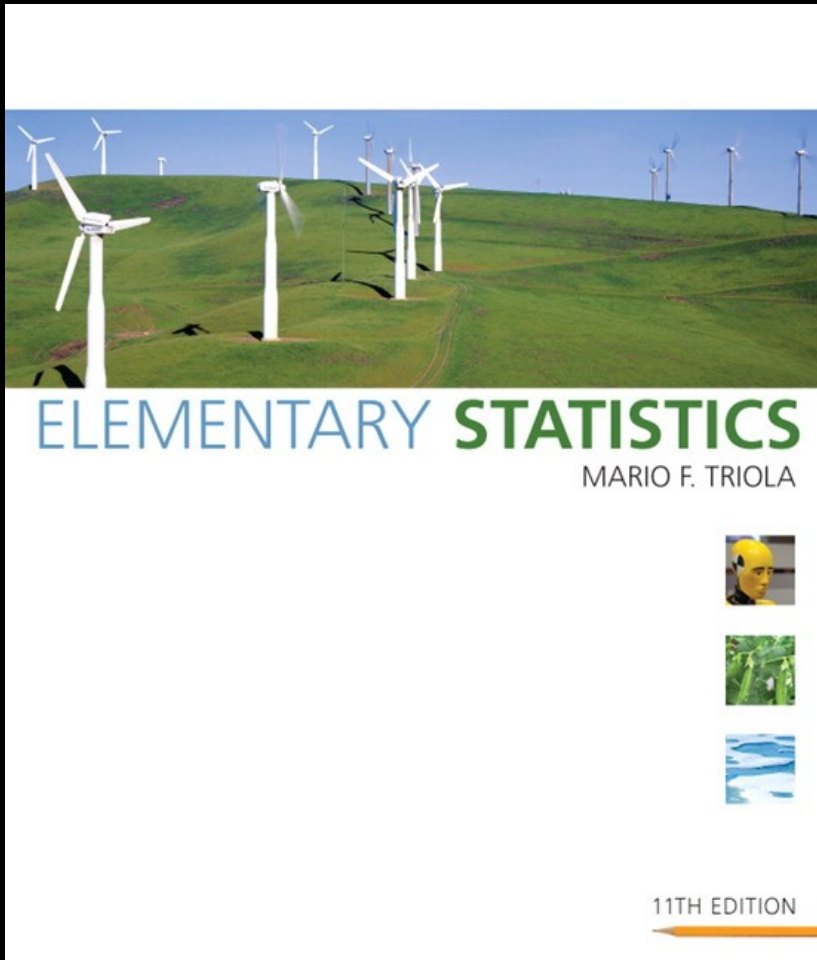


Lecture Slides



Elementary Statistics Eleventh Edition

and the Triola Statistics Series

by Mario F. Triola

PEARSON

Chapter 2

Summarizing and Graphing Data

2-1 Review and Preview

2-2 Frequency Distributions

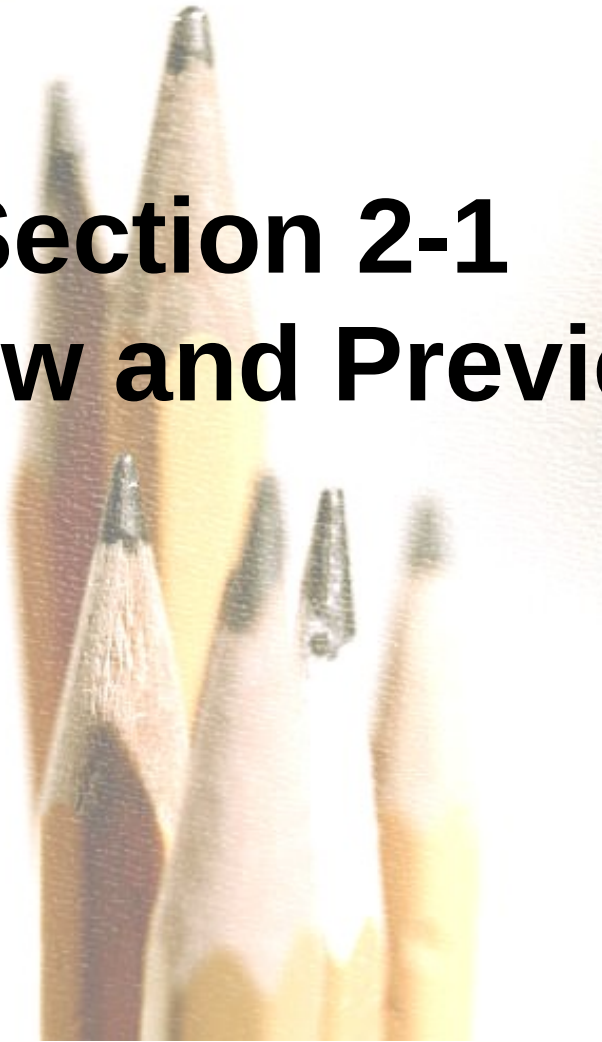
2-3 Histograms

2-4 Statistical Graphics

2-5 Critical Thinking: Bad Graphs

Section 2-1

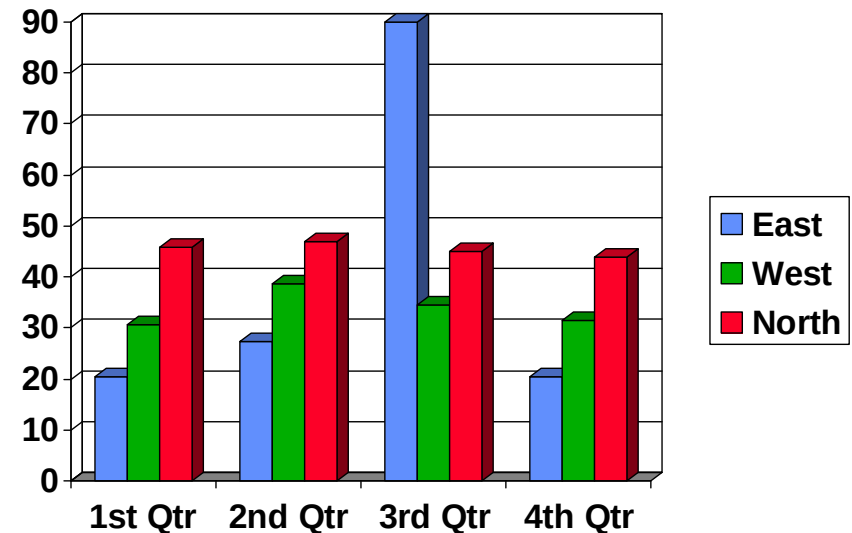
Review and Preview



Preview

Important Characteristics of Data

1. **Center:** A representative or average value that indicates where the middle of the data set is located.
2. **Variation:** A measure of the amount that the data values vary.
3. **Distribution:** The nature or shape of the spread of data over the range of values (such as bell-shaped, uniform, or skewed).
4. **Outliers:** Sample values that lie very far away from the vast majority of other sample values.
5. **Time:** Changing characteristics of the data over time.





Section 2-2

Frequency Distributions

Key Concept

When working with large data sets, it is often helpful to organize and summarize data by constructing a table called a **frequency distribution**, defined later. Because computer software and calculators can generate frequency distributions, the details of constructing them are not as important as what they tell us about data sets. It helps us understand the nature of the *distribution* of a data set.

Definition

❖ **Frequency Distribution (or Frequency Table)**

shows how a data set is partitioned among all of several categories (or classes) by listing all of the categories along with the number of data values in each of the categories.

Pulse Rates of Females and Males

Original Data

Table 2-1 Pulse Rates (beats per minute) of Females and Males

Females																			
76	72	88	60	72	68	80	64	68	68	80	76	68	72	96	72	68	72	64	80
64	80	76	76	76	80	104	88	60	76	72	72	88	80	60	72	88	88	124	64
Males																			
68	64	88	72	64	72	60	88	76	60	96	72	56	64	60	64	84	76	84	88
72	56	68	64	60	68	60	60	56	84	72	84	88	56	64	56	56	60	64	72

Frequency Distribution Pulse Rates of Females

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates
of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

The *frequency* for a particular class is the number of original values that fall into that class.

Frequency Distributions

Definitions

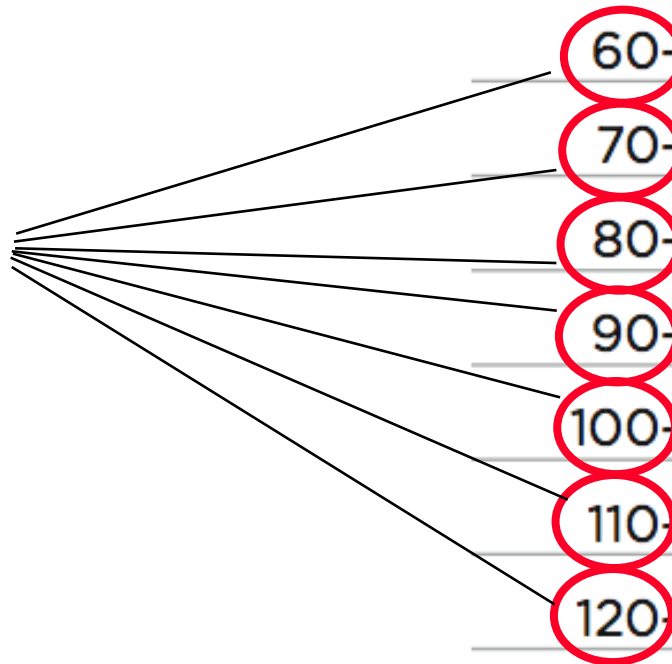
Lower Class Limits

are the smallest numbers that can actually belong to different classes

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

Lower Class Limits



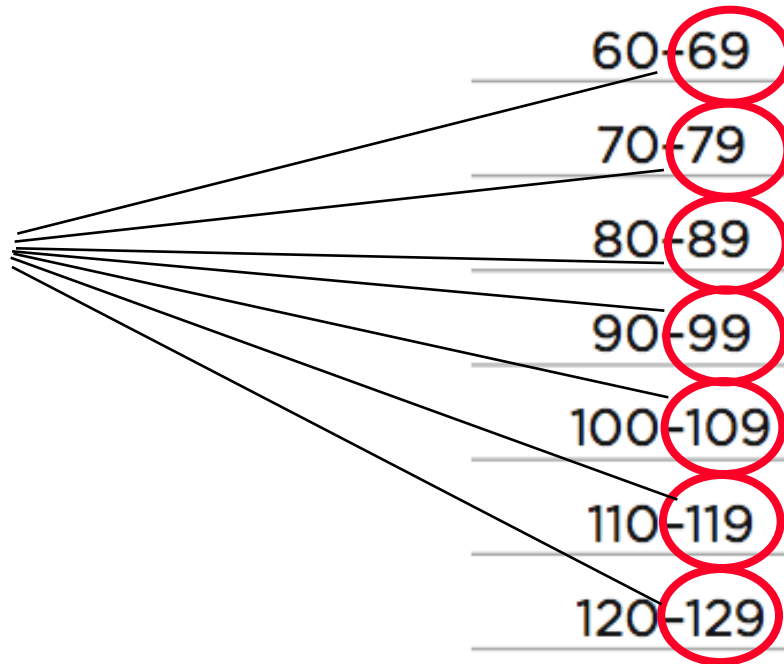
Upper Class Limits

are the largest numbers that can actually belong to different classes

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

Upper Class Limits



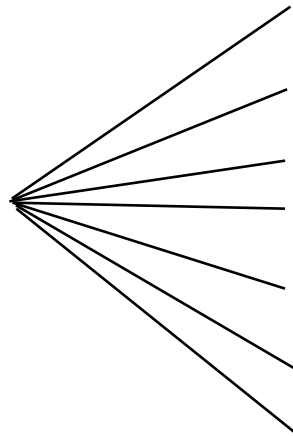
Class Boundaries

are the numbers used to separate classes, but without the gaps created by class limits

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

**Class
Boundaries**



59.5

69.5

79.5

89.5

99.5

109.5

119.5

129.5

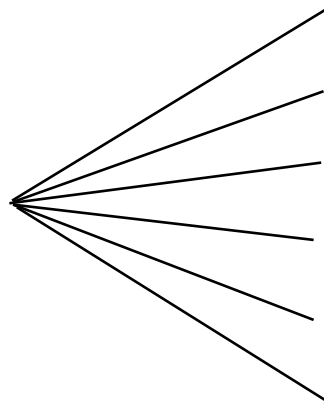
Class Midpoints

are the values in the middle of the classes and can be found by adding the lower class limit to the upper class limit and dividing the sum by two

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

**Class
Midpoints**



64.5

74.5

84.5

94.5

104.5

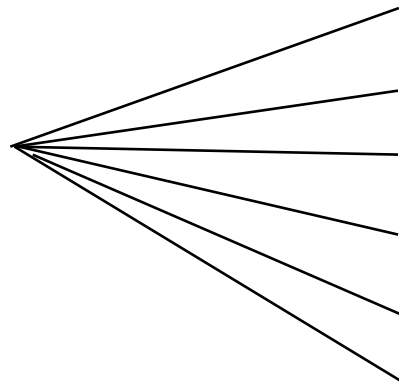
114.5

124.5

Class Width

is the difference between two consecutive lower class limits or two consecutive lower class boundaries

**Class
Width**



10
10
10
10
10
10

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

Reasons for Constructing Frequency Distributions

- 1. Large data sets can be summarized.**
- 2. We can analyze the nature of data.**
- 3. We have a basis for constructing important graphs.**

Constructing A Frequency Distribution

1. Determine the number of classes (should be between 5 and 20).
2. Calculate the class width (round up).

$$\text{class width} \approx \frac{(\text{maximum value}) - (\text{minimum value})}{\text{number of classes}}$$

3. Starting point: Choose the minimum data value or a convenient value below it as the first lower class limit.
4. Using the first lower class limit and class width, proceed to list the other lower class limits.
5. List the lower class limits in a vertical column and proceed to enter the upper class limits.
6. Take each individual data value and put a tally mark in the appropriate class. Add the tally marks to get the frequency.

Relative Frequency Distribution

includes the same class limits as a frequency distribution, but the frequency of a class is replaced with a relative frequencies (a proportion) or a percentage frequency (a percent)

$$\text{relative frequency} = \frac{\text{class frequency}}{\text{sum of all frequencies}}$$

$$\text{percentage frequency} = \frac{\text{class frequency}}{\text{sum of all frequencies}} \times 100\%$$

Relative Frequency Distribution

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

Total Frequency = 40

Table 2-3 Relative Frequency Distribution of Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Relative Frequency
60-69	30% *
70-79	35%
80-89	27.5%
90-99	2.5%
100-109	2.5%
110-119	0
120-129	2.5%

*** $12/40 \times 100 = 30\%$**

Cumulative Frequency Distribution

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

Table 2-4 Cumulative Frequency Distribution of Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Cumulative Frequency
Less than 70	12
Less than 80	26
Less than 90	37
Less than 100	38
Less than 110	39
Less than 120	39
Less than 130	40

Cumulative Frequencies

Frequency Tables

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1

Table 2-3 Relative Frequency Distribution of Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Relative Frequency
60-69	30%
70-79	35%
80-89	27.5%
90-99	2.5%
100-109	2.5%
110-119	0
120-129	2.5%

Table 2-4 Cumulative Frequency Distribution of Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Cumulative Frequency
Less than 70	12
Less than 80	26
Less than 90	37
Less than 100	38
Less than 110	39
Less than 120	39
Less than 130	40

Critical Thinking Interpreting Frequency Distributions

In later chapters, there will be frequent reference to data with a **normal distribution**. One key characteristic of a normal distribution is that it has a “bell” shape.

- ❖ The frequencies start low, then increase to one or two high frequencies, then decrease to a low frequency.
- ❖ The distribution is approximately symmetric, with frequencies preceding the maximum being roughly a mirror image of those that follow the maximum.

Gaps



Gaps

The presence of gaps can show that we have data from two or more different populations. However, the converse is not true, because data from different populations do not necessarily result in gaps.

Recap

In this Section we have discussed

- ❖ **Important characteristics of data**
- ❖ **Frequency distributions**
- ❖ **Procedures for constructing frequency distributions**
- ❖ **Relative frequency distributions**
- ❖ **Cumulative frequency distributions**

Section 2-3

Histograms



Key Concept

We use a visual tool called a **histogram to analyze the shape of the distribution of the data.**

Histogram

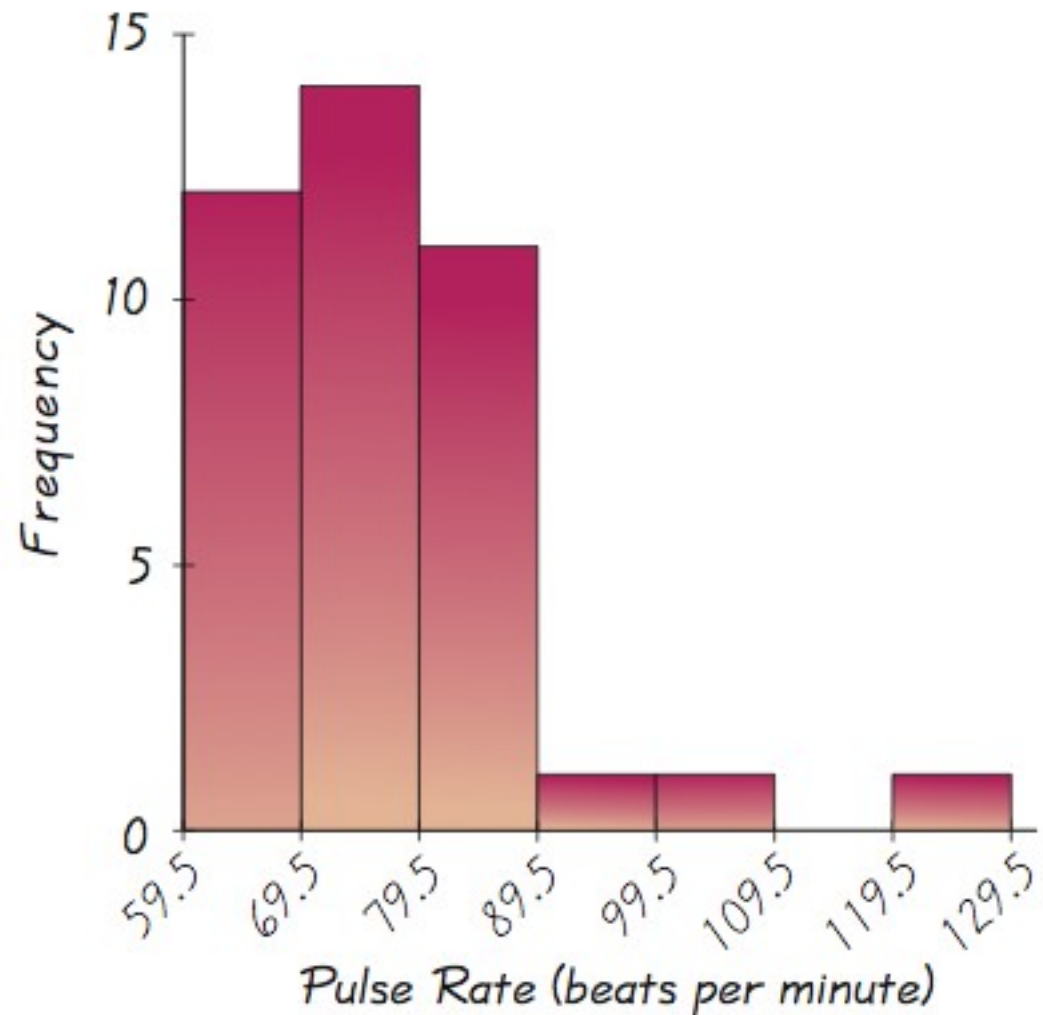
A graph consisting of bars of equal width drawn adjacent to each other (without gaps). The horizontal scale represents the classes of quantitative data values and the vertical scale represents the frequencies. The heights of the bars correspond to the frequency values.

Histogram

Basically a graphic version of a frequency distribution.

Table 2-2 Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Frequency
60-69	12
70-79	14
80-89	11
90-99	1
100-109	1
110-119	0
120-129	1



Histogram

The bars on the horizontal scale are labeled with one of the following:

- (1) Class boundaries**
- (2) Class midpoints**
- (3) Lower class limits (introduces a small error)**

Horizontal Scale for Histogram: Use class boundaries or class midpoints.

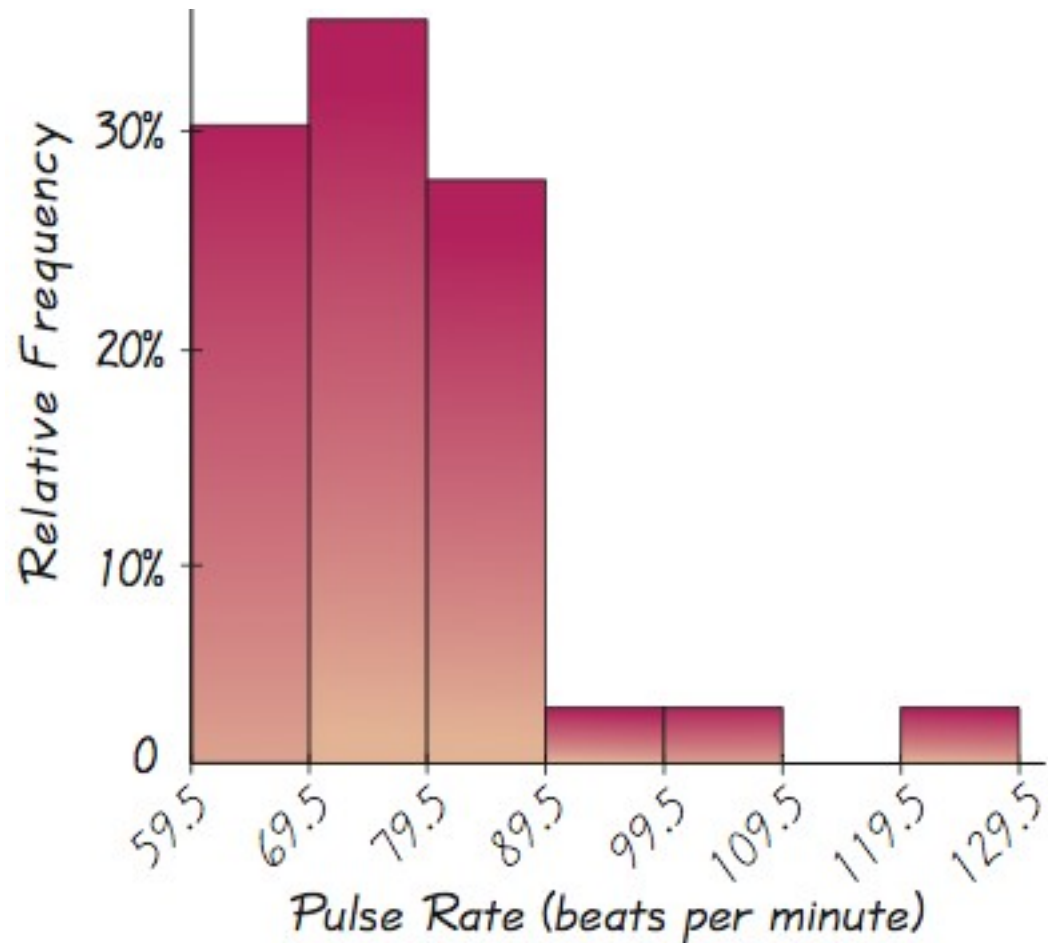
Vertical Scale for Histogram: Use the class frequencies.

Relative Frequency Histogram

Has the same shape and horizontal scale as a histogram, but the vertical scale is marked with relative frequencies instead of actual frequencies

Table 2-3 Relative Frequency Distribution of Pulse Rates of Females

Pulse Rate	Relative Frequency
60-69	30%
70-79	35%
80-89	27.5%
90-99	2.5%
100-109	2.5%
110-119	0
120-129	2.5%



Critical Thinking

Interpreting Histograms

Objective is not simply to construct a histogram, but rather to *understand* something about the data.

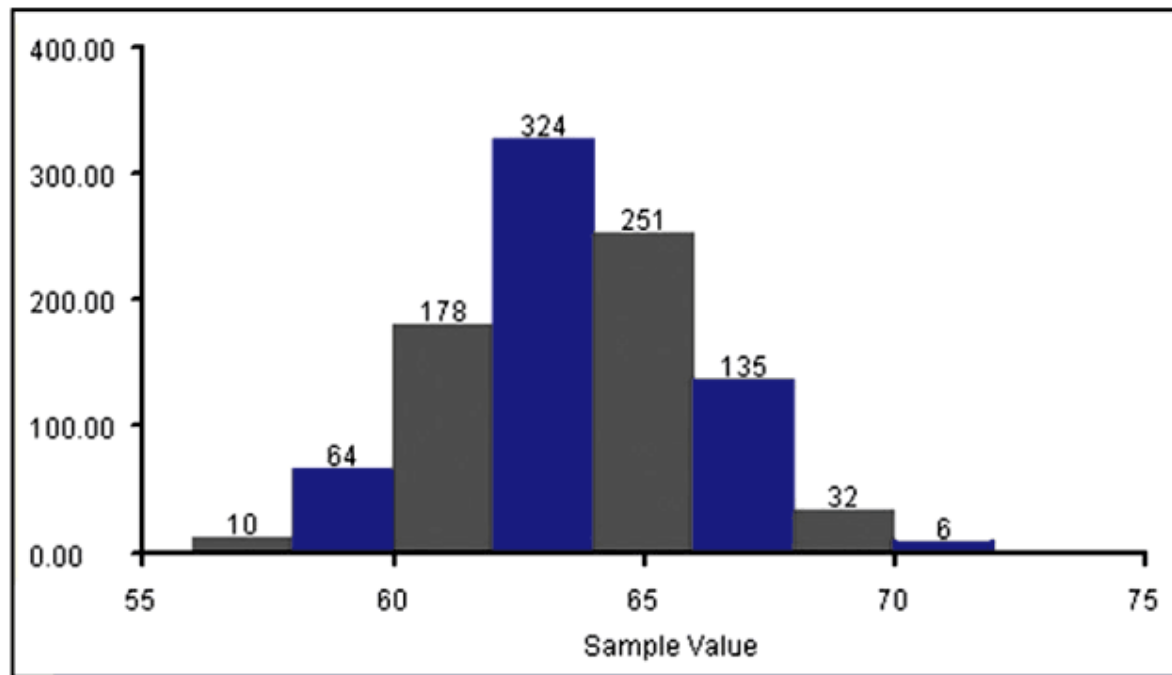
When graphed, a normal distribution has a “bell” shape. Characteristic of the bell shape are

- (1) The frequencies increase to a maximum, and then decrease, and
- (2) symmetry, with the left half of the graph roughly a mirror image of the right half.

The histogram on the next slide illustrates this.

Critical Thinking

Interpreting Histograms



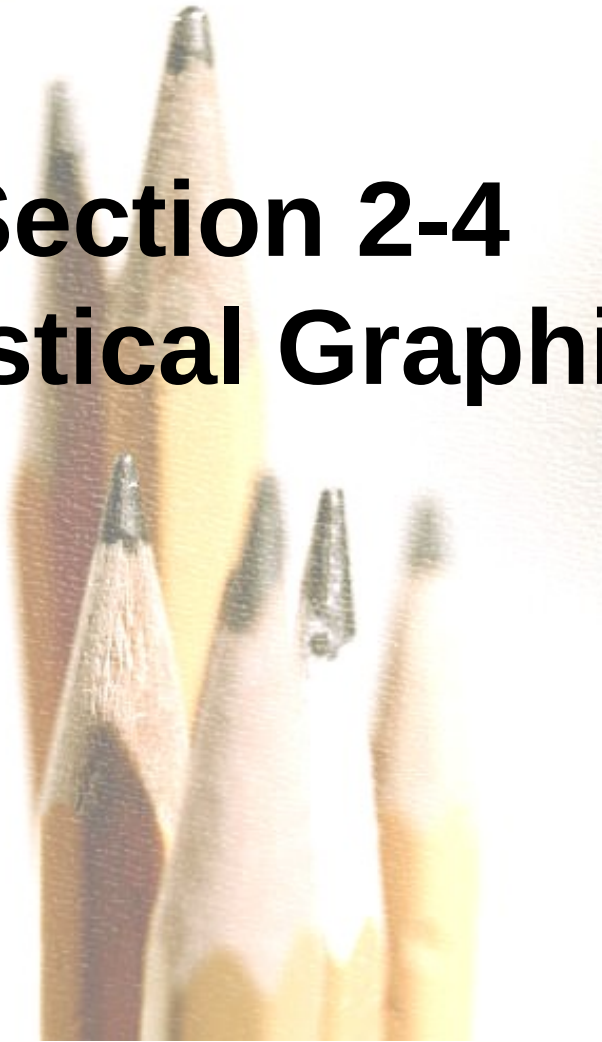
Recap

In this Section we have discussed

- ❖ **Histograms**
- ❖ **Relative Frequency Histograms**

Section 2-4

Statistical Graphics



Key Concept

This section discusses other types of statistical graphs.

Our objective is to identify a suitable graph for representing the data set. The graph should be effective in revealing the important characteristics of the data.

Frequency Polygon

Uses line segments connected to points directly above class midpoint values

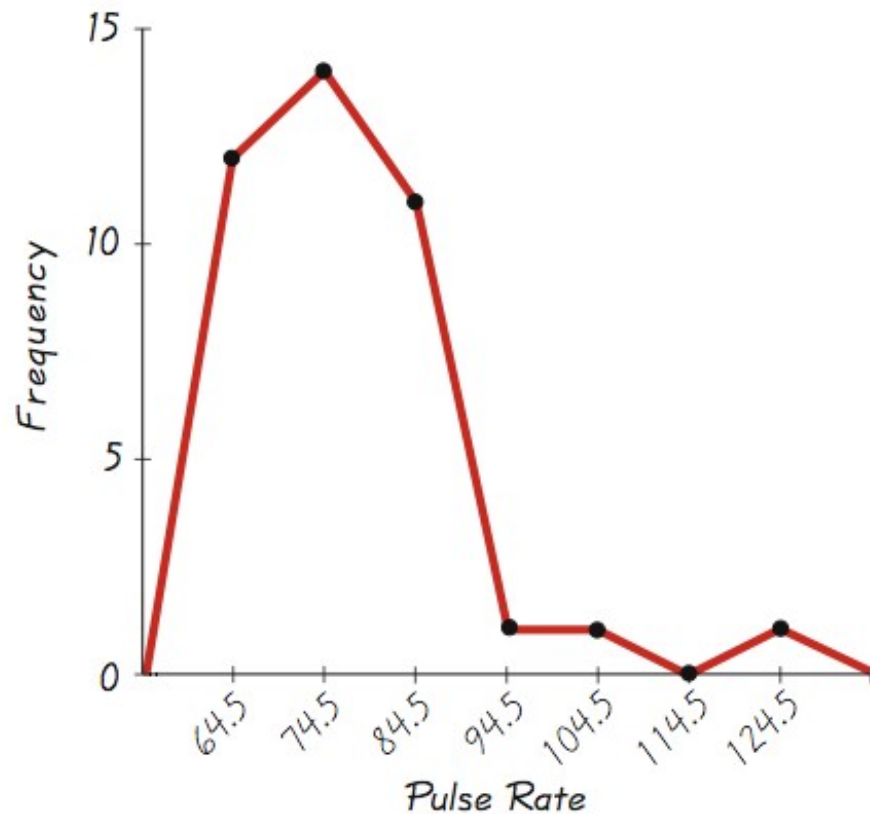


Figure 2-5 Frequency Polygon: Pulse Rates of Women

Relative Frequency Polygon

Uses relative frequencies (proportions or percentages) for the vertical scale.

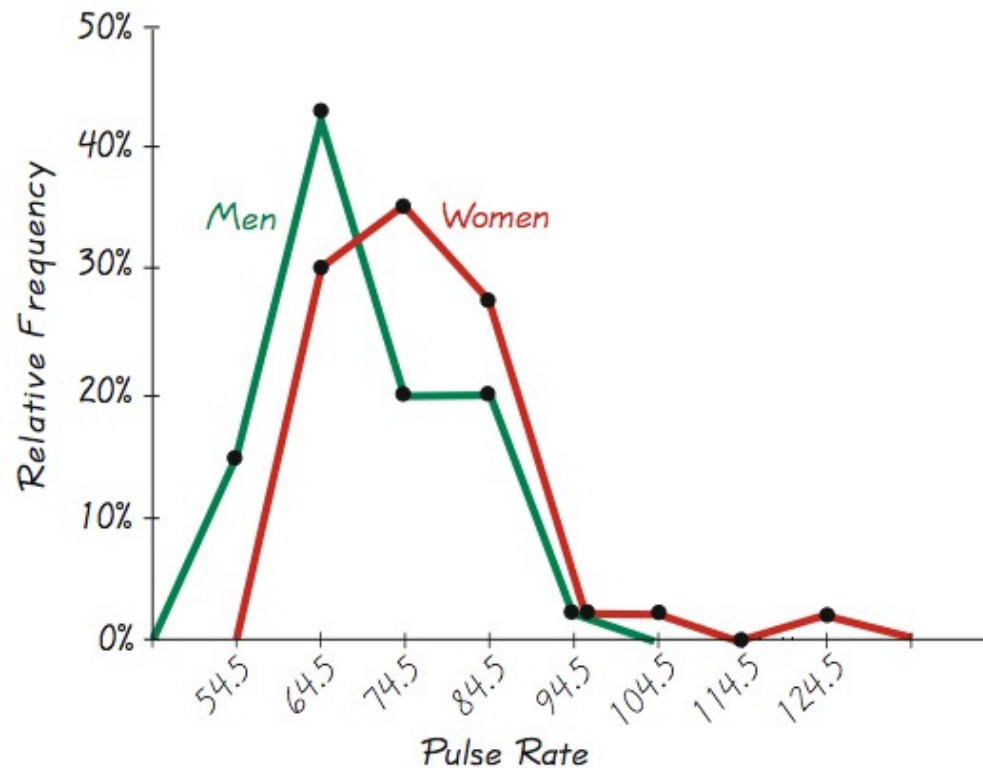


Figure 2-6 Relative Frequency Polygons: Pulse Rates of Women and Men

Ogive

A line graph that depicts **cumulative** frequencies

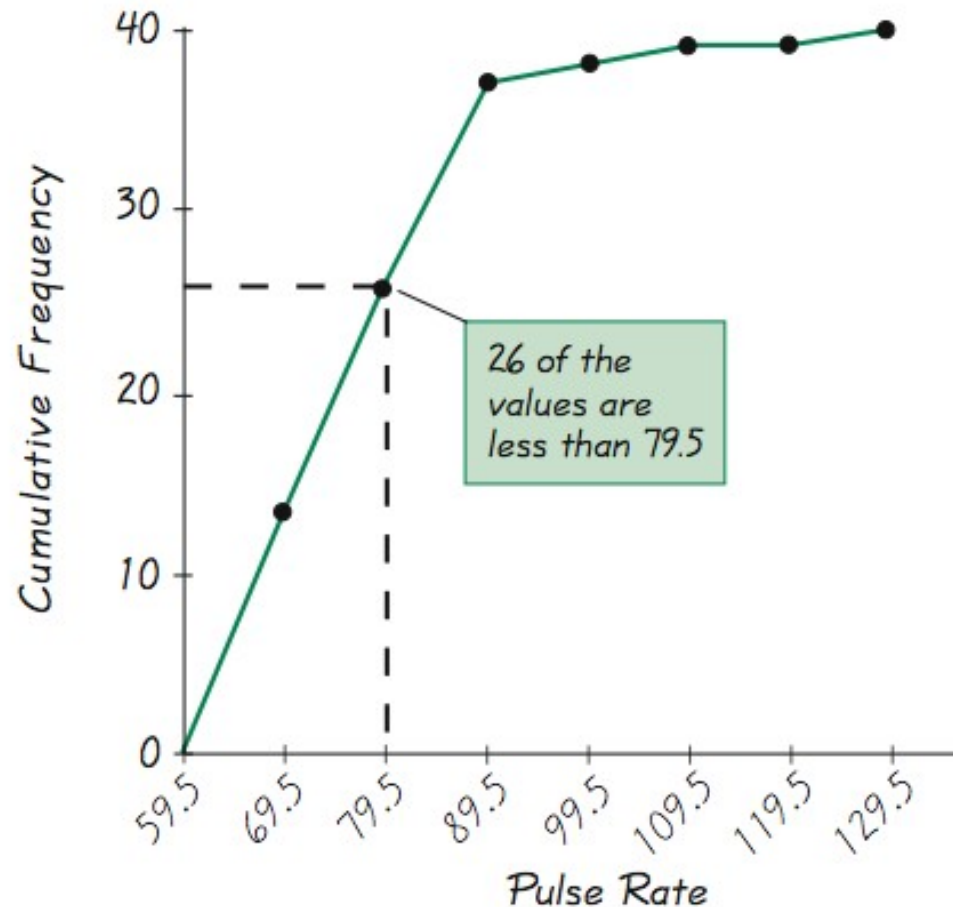
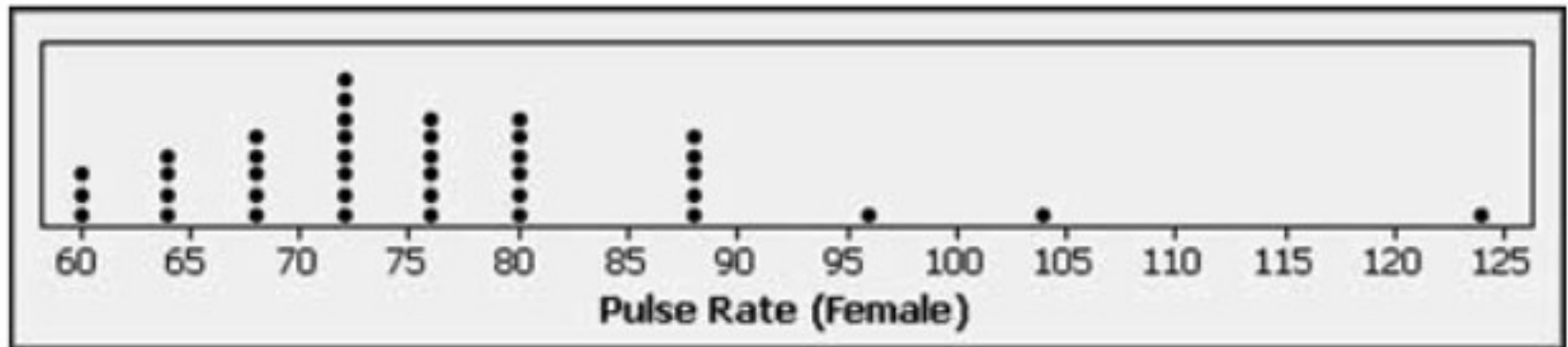


Figure 2-7 Ogive

Dot Plot

Consists of a graph in which each data value is plotted as a point (or dot) along a scale of values. Dots representing equal values are stacked.



Stemplot (or Stem-and-Leaf Plot)

Represents quantitative data by separating each value into two parts: the stem (such as the leftmost digit) and the leaf (such as the rightmost digit)

Stemplot	
Stem (tens)	Leaves (units)
6	000444488888 ← Data values are 60, 60, 60, 64, . . . , 68.
7	22222222666666
8	00000088888
9	6 ← Data value is 96.
10	4 ← Data value is 104.
11	
12	4

Pulse Rates of Females

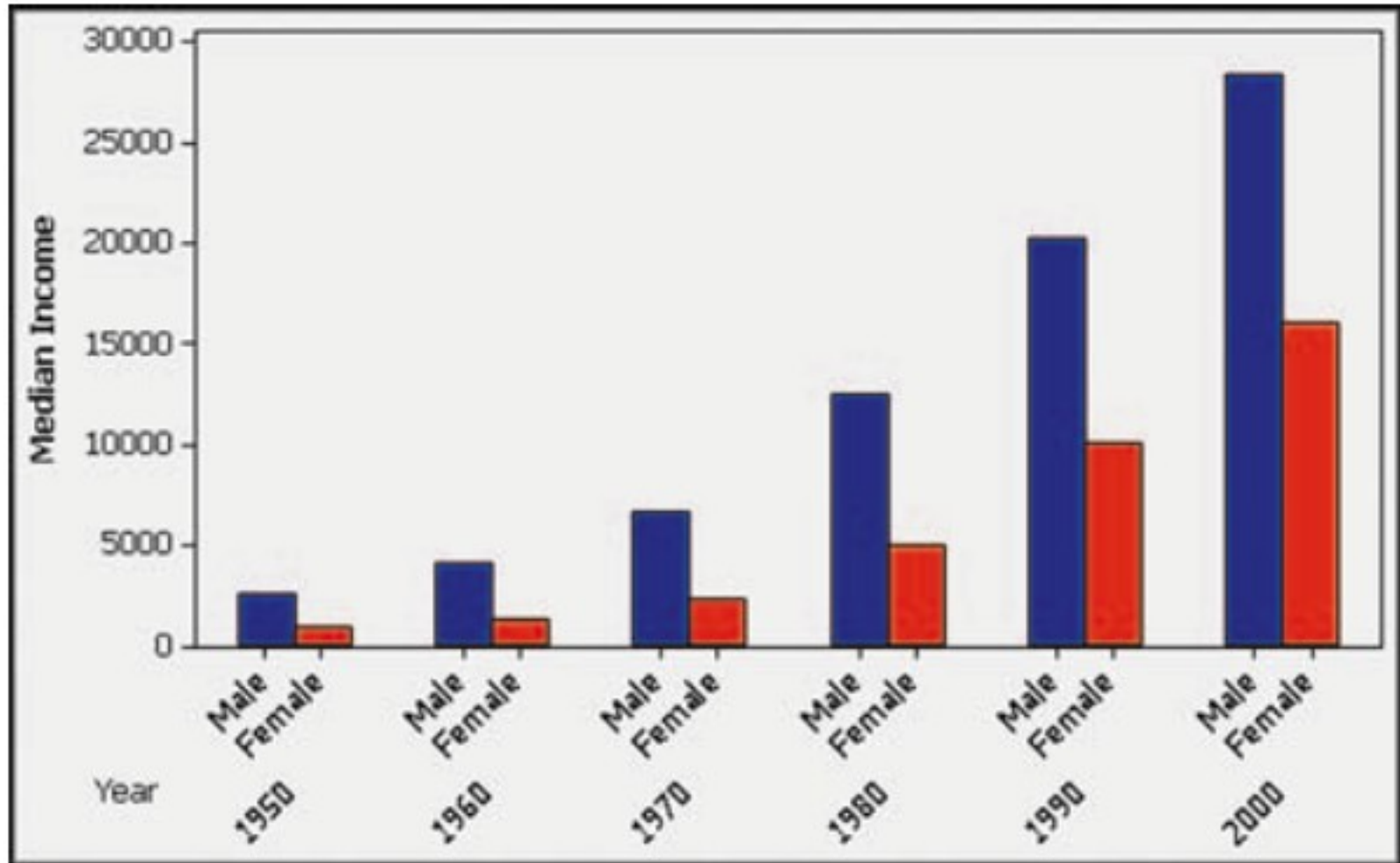
Bar Graph

Uses bars of equal width to show frequencies of categories of qualitative data. Vertical scale represents frequencies or relative frequencies. Horizontal scale identifies the different categories of qualitative data.

***A multiple bar graph* has two or more sets of bars, and is used to compare two or more data sets.**

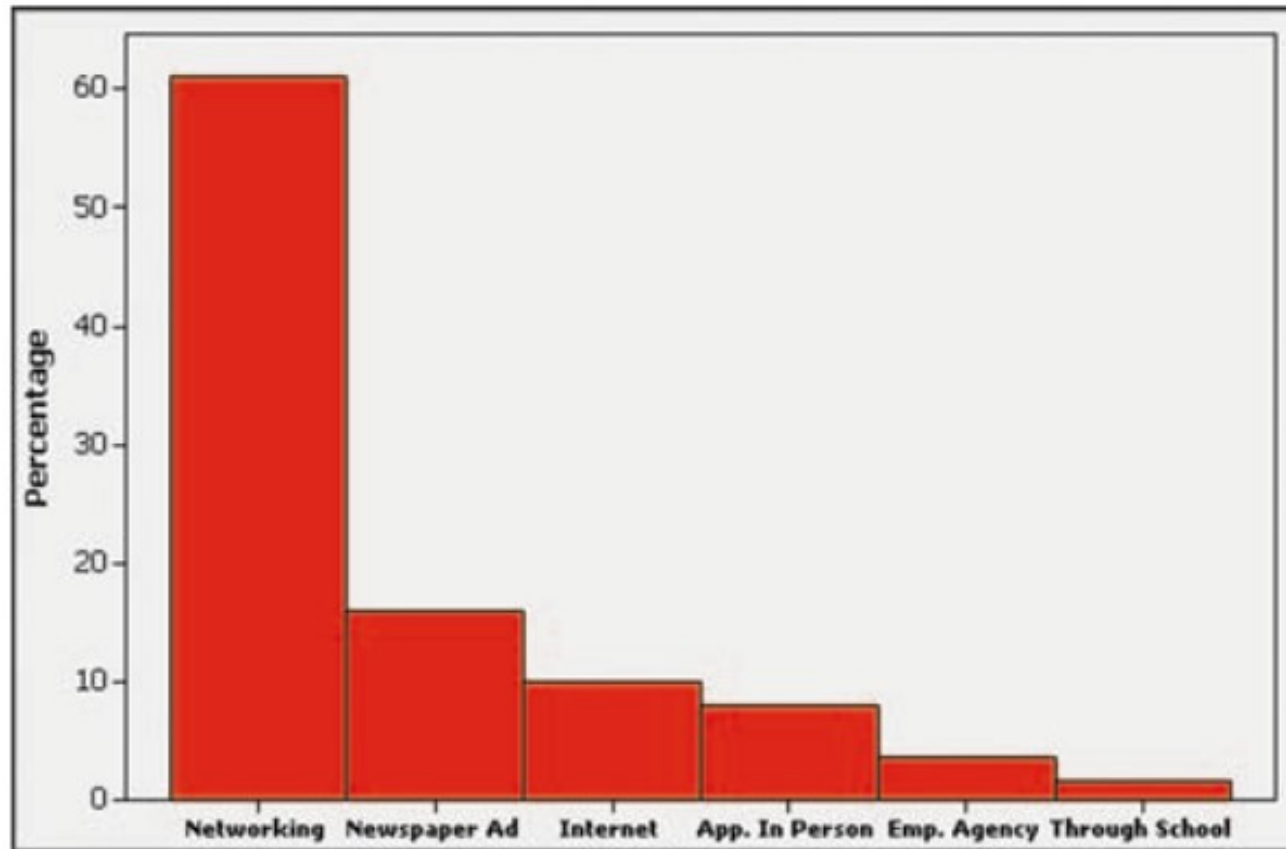
Multiple Bar Graph

Median Income of Males and Females



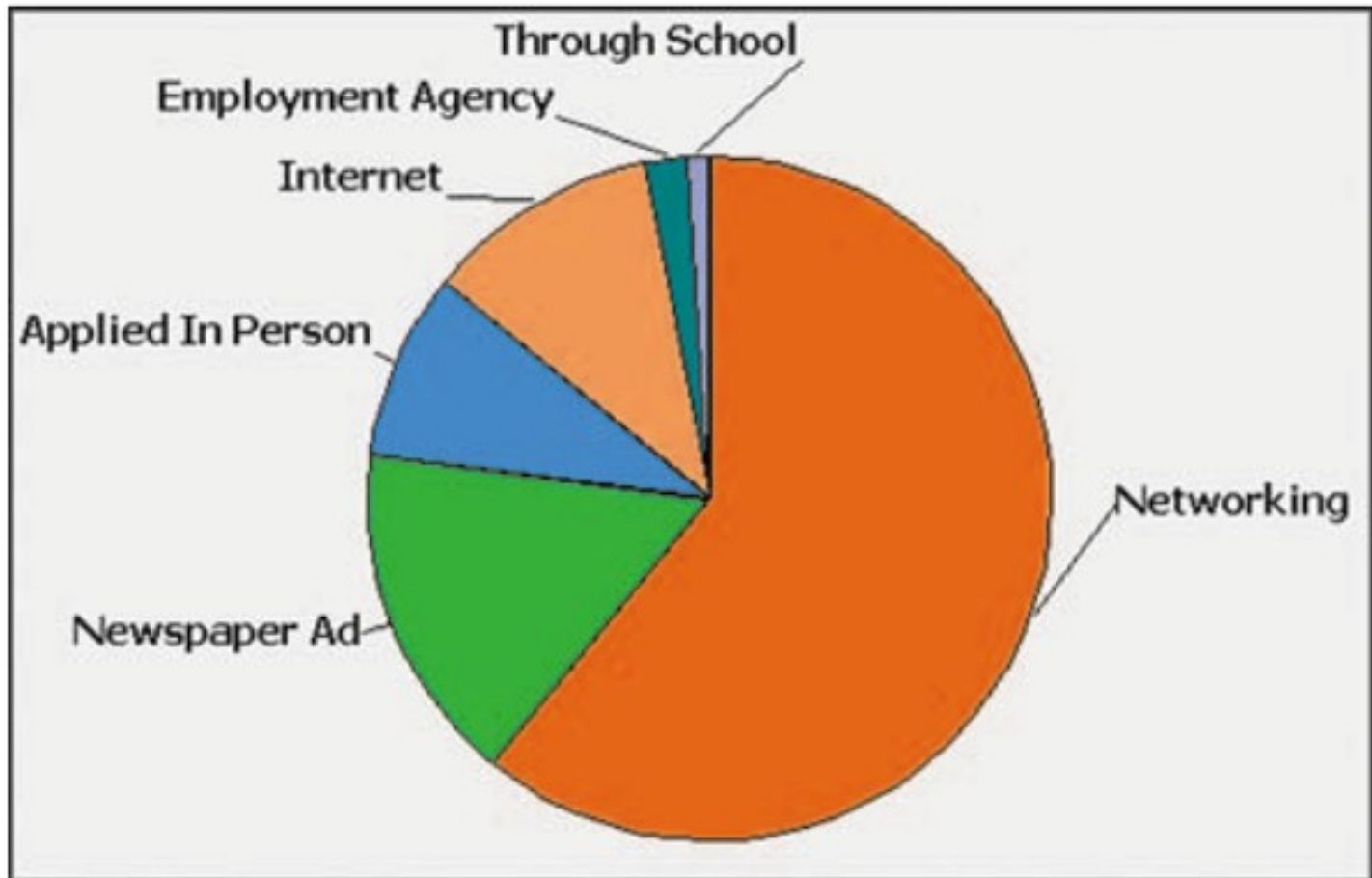
Pareto Chart

A bar graph for qualitative data, with the bars arranged in descending order according to frequencies



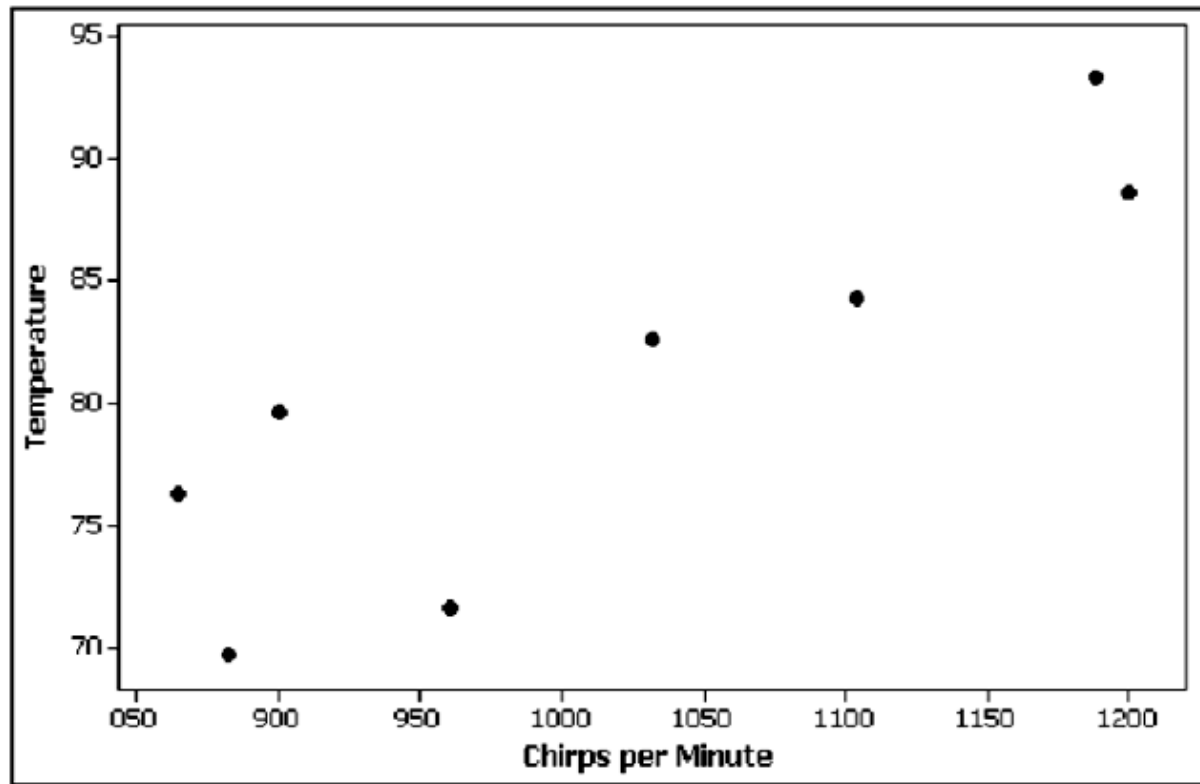
Pie Chart

A graph depicting qualitative data as slices of a circle, size of slice is proportional to frequency count



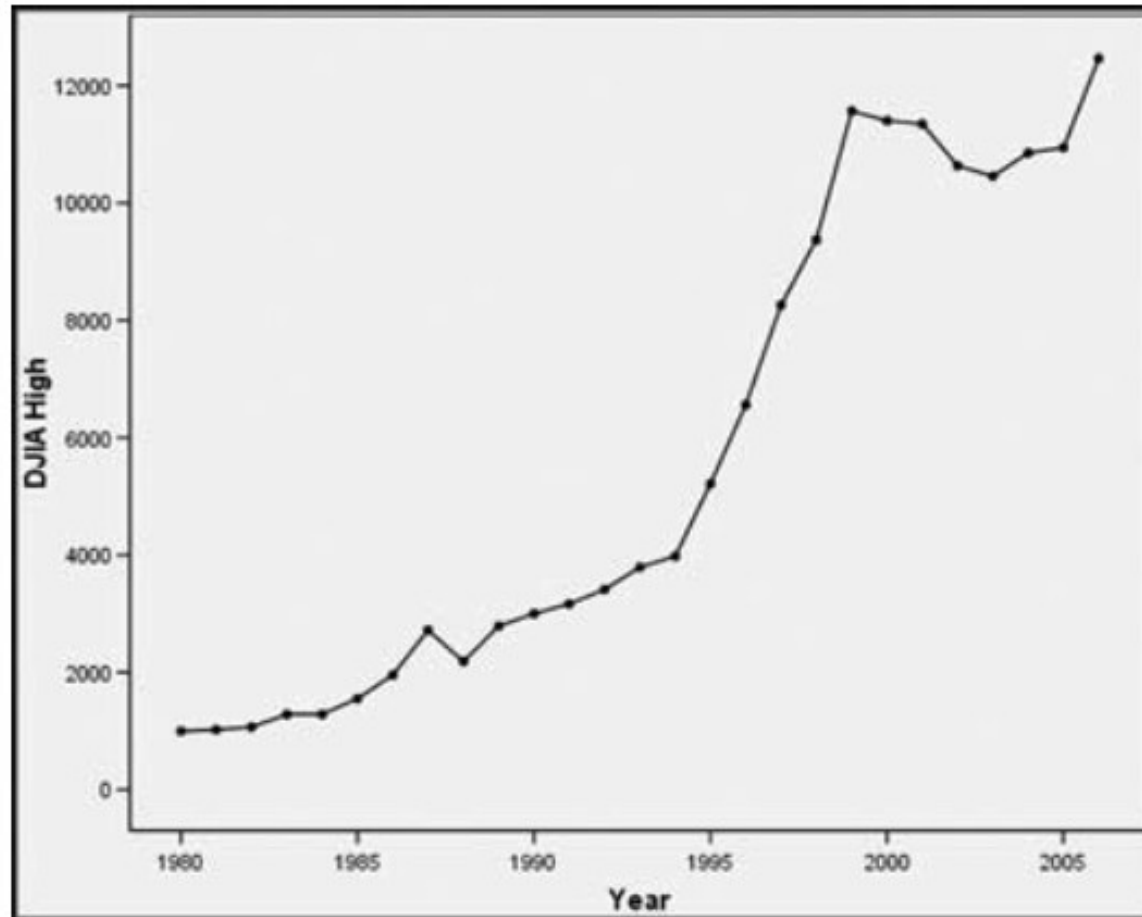
Scatter Plot (or Scatter Diagram)

A plot of paired (x,y) data with a horizontal x -axis and a vertical y -axis. Used to determine whether there is a relationship between the two variables



Time-Series Graph

Data that have been collected at different points in time: *time-series data*



Important Principles Suggested by Edward Tufte

For small data sets of 20 values or fewer, use a table instead of a graph.

A graph of data should make the viewer focus on the true nature of the data, not on other elements, such as eye-catching but distracting design features.

Do not distort data, construct a graph to reveal the true nature of the data.

Almost all of the ink in a graph should be used for the data, not the other design elements.

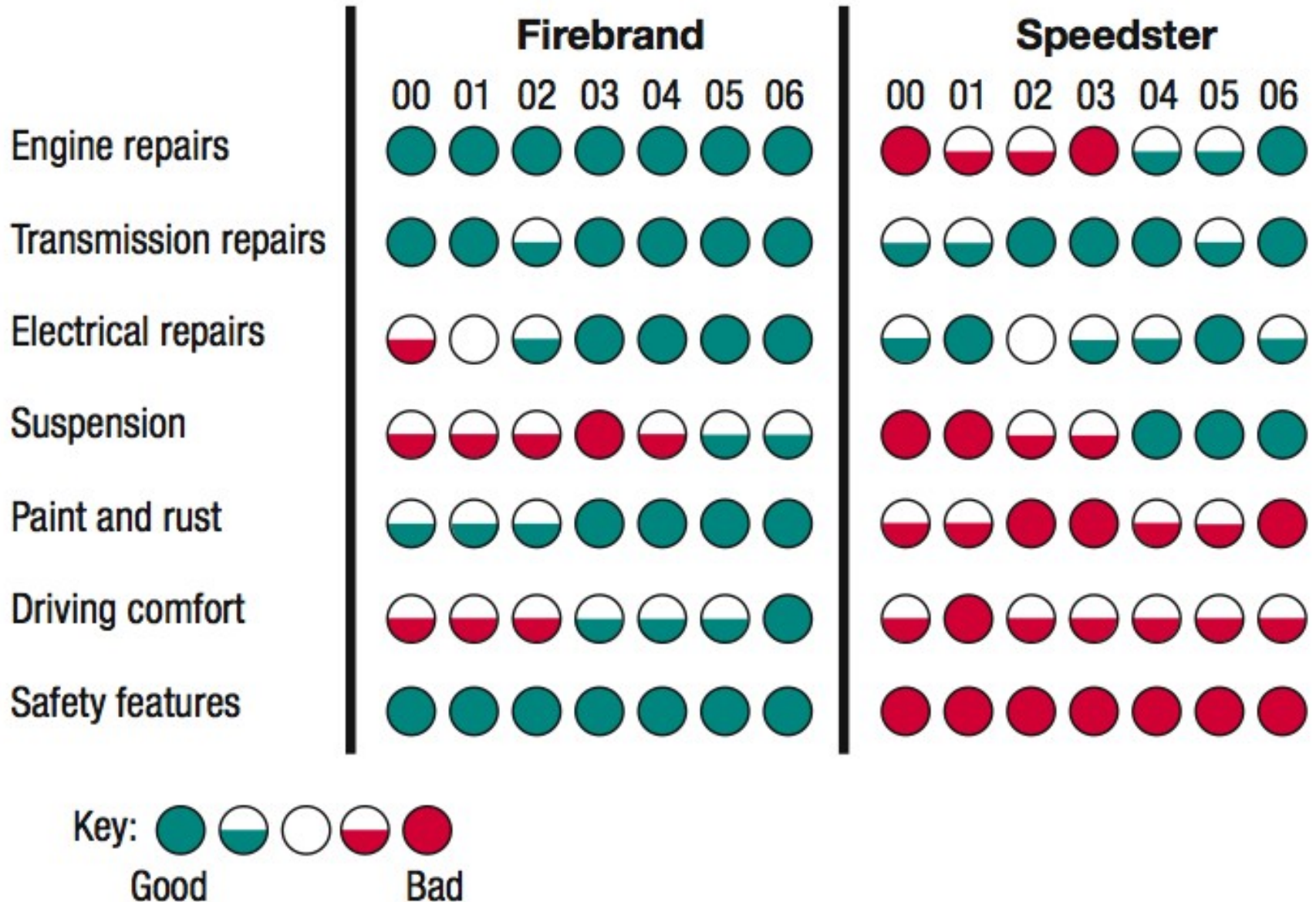
Important Principles Suggested by Edward Tufte

Don't use screening consisting of features such as slanted lines, dots, cross-hatching, because they create the uncomfortable illusion of movement.

Don't use area or volumes for data that are actually one-dimensional in nature. (Don't use drawings of dollar bills to represent budget amounts for different years.)

Never publish pie charts, because they waste ink on nondata components, and they lack appropriate scale.

Car Reliability Data



Recap

In this section we saw that graphs are excellent tools for describing, exploring and comparing data.

***Describing data:* Histogram - consider distribution, center, variation, and outliers.**

***Exploring data:* features that reveal some useful and/or interesting characteristic of the data set.**

***Comparing data:* Construct similar graphs to compare data sets.**



Section 2-5

Critical Thinking: Bad Graphs

Key Concept

Some graphs are bad in the sense that they contain errors.

Some are bad because they are technically correct, but misleading.

It is important to develop the ability to recognize bad graphs and identify exactly how they are misleading.

Nonzero Axis

Are misleading because one or both of the axes begin at some value other than zero, so that differences are exaggerated.

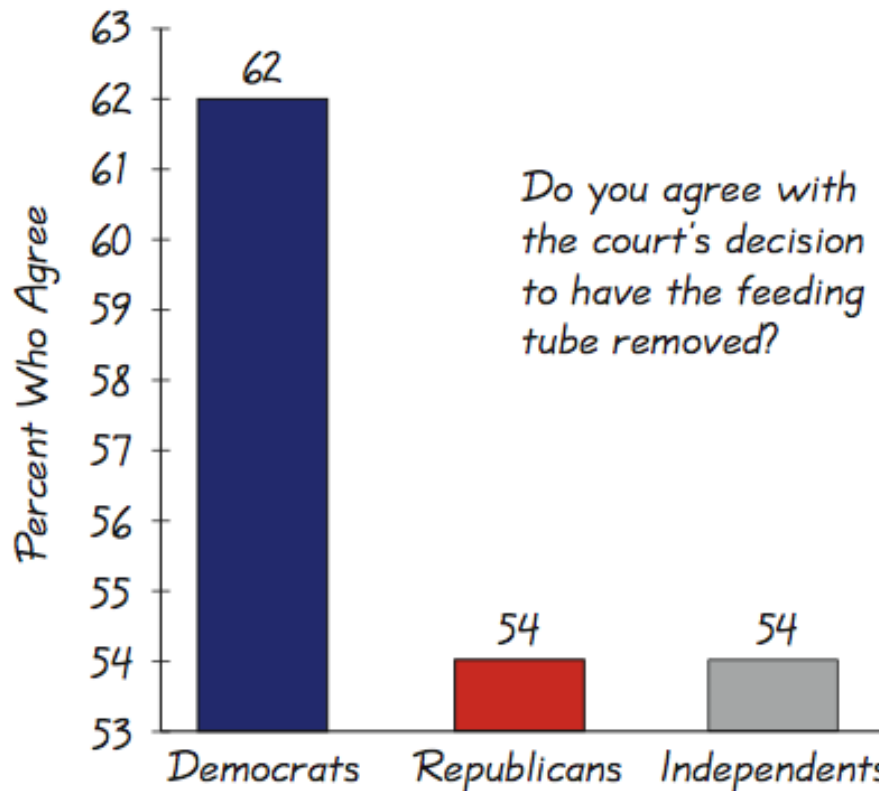


Figure 2-1 Survey Results by Party

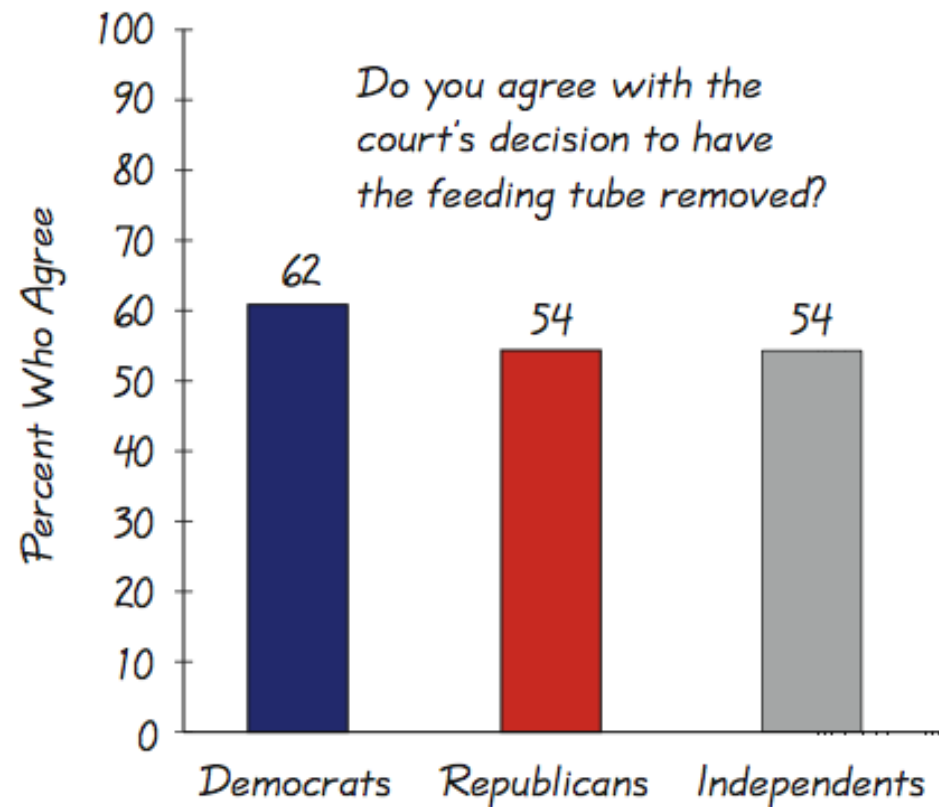


Figure 2-9 Survey Results by Party

Pictographs

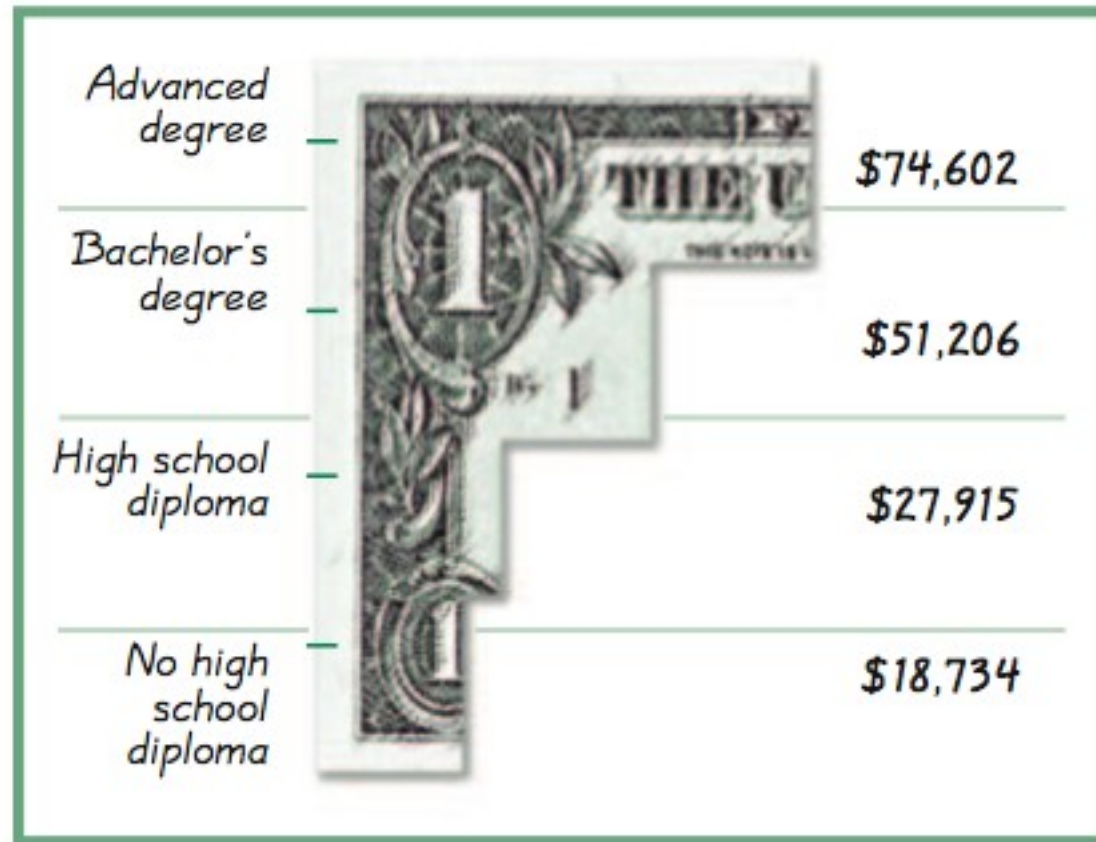
are drawings of objects. Three-dimensional objects - money bags, stacks of coins, army tanks (for army expenditures), people (for population sizes), barrels (for oil production), and houses (for home construction) are commonly used to depict data.

These drawings can create false impressions that distort the data.

If you double each side of a square, the area does not merely double; it increases by a factor of four; if you double each side of a cube, the volume does not merely double; it increases by a factor of eight.

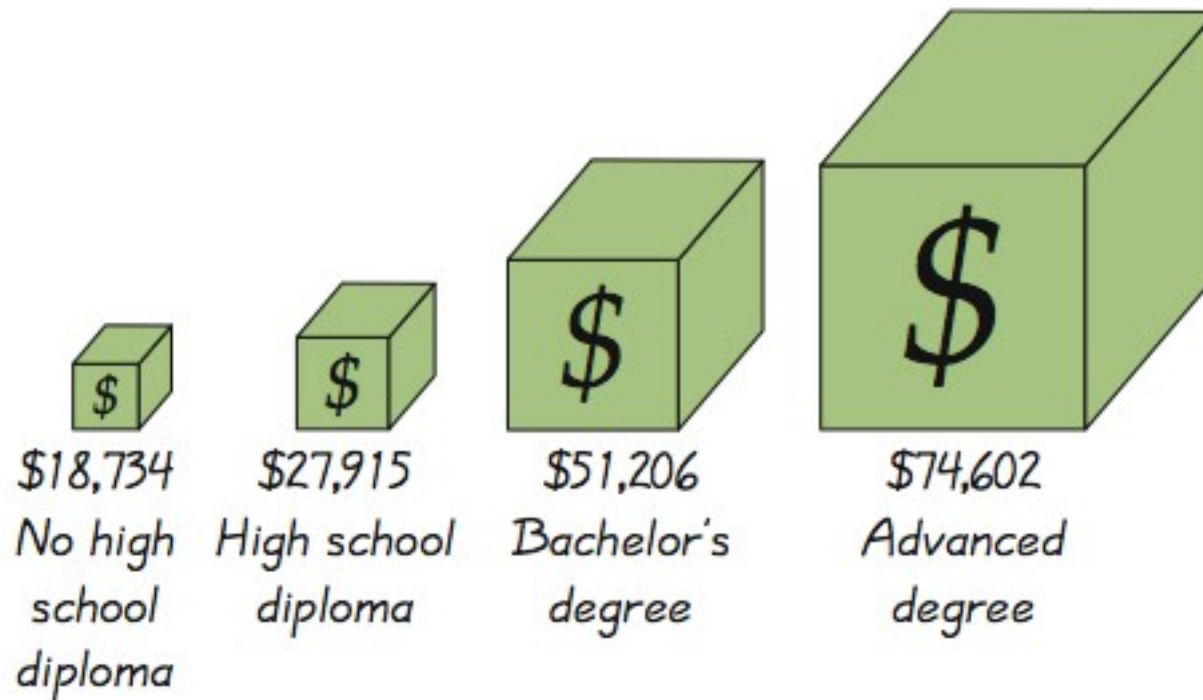
Pictographs using areas and volumes can therefore be very misleading.

Annual Incomes of Groups with Different Education Levels



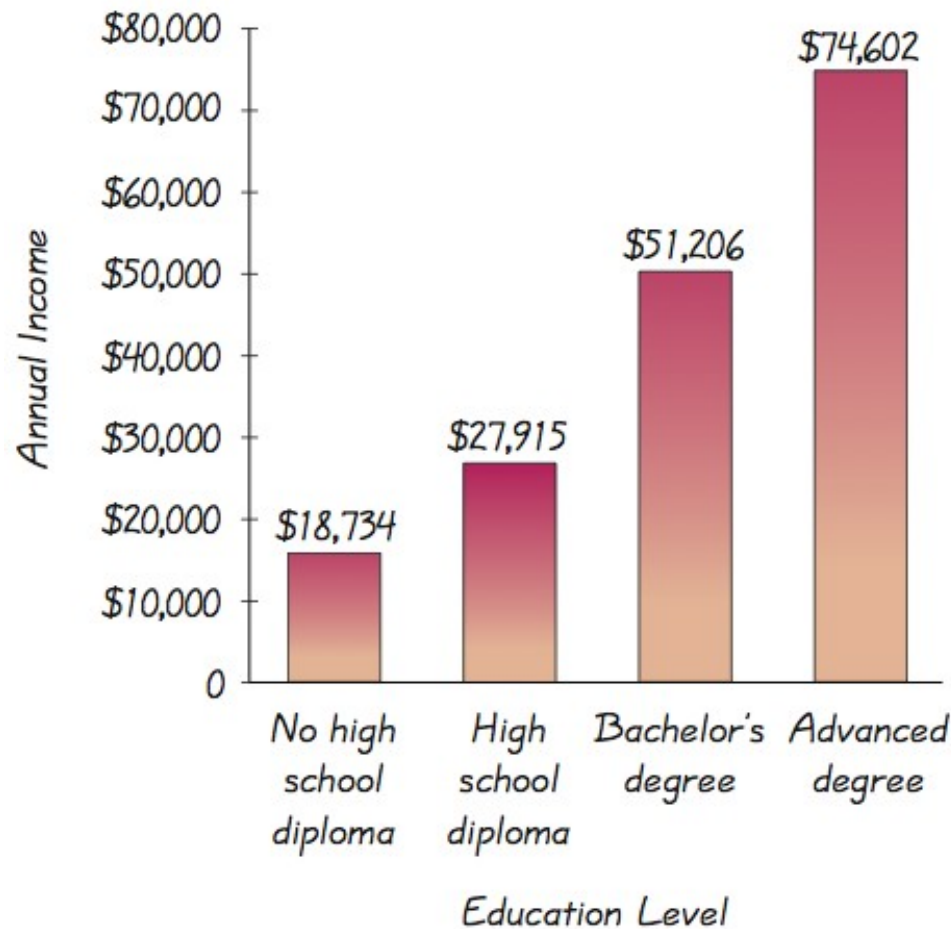
Bars have same width, too busy, too difficult to understand.

Annual Incomes of Groups with Different Education Levels



Misleading. Depicts one-dimensional data with three-dimensional boxes. Last box is 64 times as large as first box, but income is only 4 times as large.

Annual Incomes of Groups with Different Education Levels



Fair, objective, unencumbered by distracting features.