Concept	Examples
 Two Types of Data. I. Categorical data: is data that has been collected and recorded about some non-numerical attribute. For example: <i>color</i> is an attribute or variable (for which the categories or values could be red, green, blue etc.); <i>gender</i> is an attribute (for which the categories are male and female); <i>country</i> is an attribute (for which the categories might be U. S., Germany, etc.); <i>yes/no</i> are two categories of response. 	Example 1: Below is a bar graph of categorical data. The variable of interest is "Car color in 2005." The categories are red, green, grey, blue. The height of the bars indicates the frequency with which each color occurs. There is no scale on the vertical axis below, but there should be, in order to make sense of the graph. If there were a scale we could say exactly how many of each color was observed. Or, if the vertical axis were marked off to show percentages of some total, we would be able to say, for example, what percentage of all cars were grey. Distribution of Colors of Cars in 2005 (hypothetical data)
A bar graph that shows categorical data will have category names (red, green, blue etc) along the horizontal or independent axis. These names can be rearranged and sense can still be made of the graph. Summarizing Categorical Data:	red green grey blue Below are three bar graphs that use the same data about "Immigration from Mexico to U.S." Examples 2 and 3 are actually graphs over time , intended to show trends . <i>Example 2</i> : The graph shows numbers of Mexican immigrants in each decade, and we can see that the numbers are increasing quite dramatically.
Because the names can be arranged in a different order we do not talk about the "maximum color," for example, or the "mean color." A bar graph may show <i>how frequently</i> a particular category occurs. For example, suppose that "red" was counted 22 times, and "green" was counted 100 times and that	Number of Immigrants from Mexico
"green" was counted more often than any other category.	<i>Example 3</i> : The graph shows the same data, but this time as a percentage of total immigration. The graphs are not

Vocabulary: Data Distributions

Therefore we can use the **mode** to summarize the data. Or the bar graph may show information about *some value of the variable*, such as population in U.S., population in Germany etc., in which case we can say which country has the largest population, or note the gap between largest and smallest countries.

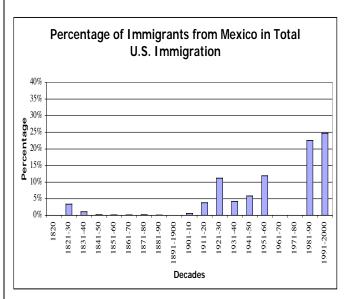
II. Numerical data: is data about some attribute that *must* be organized by numerical order to show how the data varies. For example:

- Number of pets
- Measure of a piece of lumber

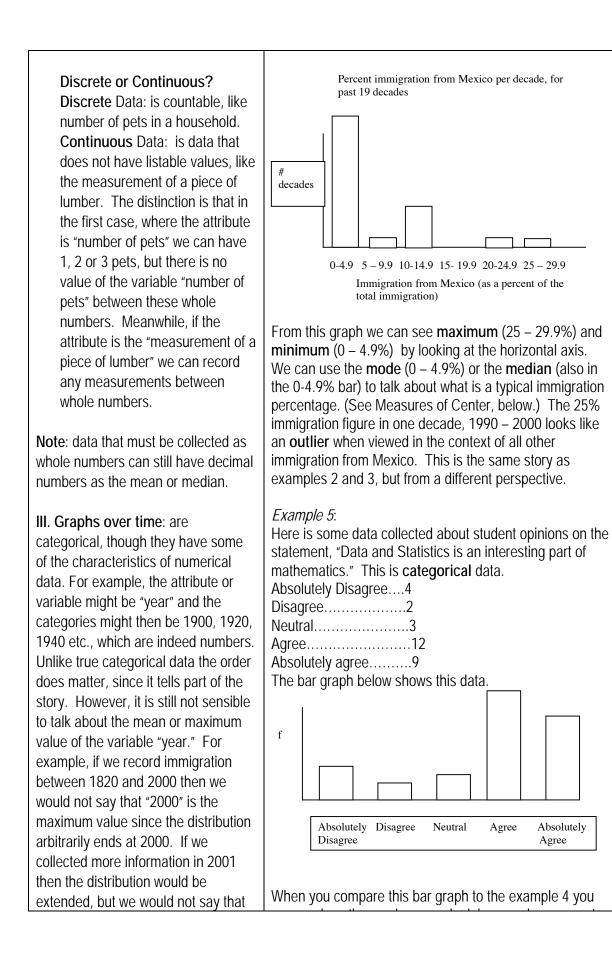
A **bar graph** that shows numerical data has the values of the data in a fixed order on the horizontal axis.

Summarizing Numerical Data: The maximum, minimum and center values of the attribute now make sense. For numerical data, the dot plot or bar graph always shows *how frequently* particular numerical values of the variable of interest occur, for example, how many times a value of "3 pets" was recorded, or how many times a value of 8.1 feet was recorded. We can now compute with the values of the variable, say "number of pets," and say what the mean or median number of pets might be, as well as the mode. (See Data About Us for a Dot Plot, also called a Line Plot.)

as a **percentage** of total immigration. The graphs are not exactly the same shape because immigration from other countries is another variable making up the total immigration picture. Thus, the bar for the decade 1821-30 shows about 4% of all immigration was from Mexico. This bar is almost invisible on the first graph because the total immigration numbers were much smaller, so 4% of a smaller number gives a result too small to show up on the scale used. From the second graph we can say that there is an increasing trend in immigration from Mexico, both in actual numbers, and as a percentage of the total. However, the greatest percentage that comprises Mexican immigrants is less than 25% of all immigration.



Example 4: The graph is a truly **numerical data** graph. The data is **continuous**; we might have ANY value between 0 and 100 for the immigration percentage. The Mexican immigration percentages have been organized along the horizontal axis to show how this variable, immigration percent, has varied, but not over time in this graph. Each piece of data is a numerical value, the immigration percent for a decade. (There are 19 decades represented in all. The actual percentages are: 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 3, 4, 4, 6, 11, 12, 14, 14, 23, 25.) There is no scale on the vertical axis, but *there should be*. Without a scale we can not say exactly how often a particular percentage of immigration from Mexico occurred. What we can see from the shape of the graph is which percentages occurred more often and which less often.



the data has become more variable solely because of this additional data. Graphs over time are good for indicating <i>trends</i> , rather than investigating variability or what is typical.	can see how the maximum and minimum values are not read from the horizontal axis. You can use the mode to say what a typical answer is. You can not calculate a mean opinion.
 Types of graphs.: Dot plot (or line plot): Each single piece of data is represented as a dot (or an "x") positioned over a labeled number line. (See Data About Us for examples.) Value bar graph: Each category is represented by a separate bar whose relative length corresponds to the magnitude or value of that category. Frequency bar graph: A bar's height is not the value of an individual category but rather the number (frequency) of pieces of data that all fit that category, or all have the same numerical value. 	 <i>Example 1</i> above is a frequency bar graph of categorical data. The frequency of the occurrence of each color is recorded. If the vertical axis were marked as percentages of all cars then this would be a relative frequency graph. <i>Example 2</i> above is a value bar graph over time. The value or amount of the immigration from Mexico is recorded for each decade. <i>Example 3</i> above is also a value bar graph over time. In this case changing the data to percentages did not signal a change to recording a frequency with which any category on the x-axis occurred. The graph does not say that a particular decade occurred with more frequency than another. Nor does it say (in this format) that a particular percentage of immigration occurred with more frequency than another.
	 <i>Example 4</i> above is a frequency bar graph of numerical data. The frequency with which different percentages of immigration occurred is recorded. Low percentages occurred often. <i>Example 5</i> above is a frequency bar graph of categorical data. The frequency of different responses is recorded.
Distributions : of data are just tables or graphs showing how the collected data varies. We are interested in the picture of the situation conveyed by	<i>Example 4</i> above can be summarized by saying that distribution of percentage immigration from Mexico is very variable; the minimum value is 0% and the maximum percentage is 25%. (The range is 0 – 25%.)

Variability: This property of numerical data distributions can beExample 6. Below is a value bar graph	ecades. These two st of the data that we al definition of an outlier as.) The most typical to is in the 0 – 4.9% of data. If we use the terval occurs most to say that the median the ordered list of his interval also. (The g for a balance point . 23 and 25% will have the mean may be in an ancy data). This can be ge is small, only 8 years in values, that ars is an outlier which of the data clusters st typical life expectancy -77.9, using the uch a good ice it is affected by the
seen visually on a graph. There are several ways to see, describe or measure variability, but in every case what we are looking for is how the recorded values of the attribute vary. For example, measurements of an object vary, not because of mistakes or inaccuracies in the process but because measurement results are inherently variable. A saw might cut a piece of lumber intended to be 8 feet long, but someone measuring it will say it is in fact 8 feet and _ inch, or 8 feet and $\frac{5}{16}$ of an inch etc. Another example is how samples	s The values are life lity make no sense for scale on the y-axis look like Andorrans live fact the difference is 5

vary: one sample might indicate that 48% will vote for candidate A, while a second sample from the same population might indicate that 51% will vote for candidate A. Variability is an inherent property of certain kinds of numerical data, not a sign of inexactness in the process of data collection.

Measures or descriptors of variability: In this unit students look at

- the **range** to determine if the gap from minimum to maximum is wide,
- where data cluster to determine if most data lie within a narrow range of values
- gaps in a distribution to determine if some values occur much less frequently than others
- outliers to determine if these are true representatives of wide variation in the data or perhaps errors

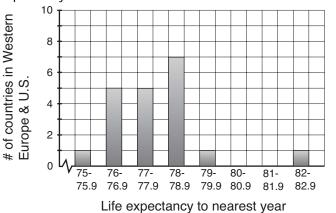
Note: the only *measure* of variability in the above list is *range*. In future units students learn to measure variability by using the *interquartile range*.

The shape of a distribution

whether the data is widely spread with only a relatively few pieces of data at

tells us

organized as a **frequency bar graph of numerical data**. The variable or attribute is life expectancy to nearest year, and the vertical axis indicates how frequently this life expectancy was observed.



Now it makes sense to say that the **range** for this variable, life expectancy, is quite small, only 8 years or 83 – 75 years, and even smaller if the **outlier**, 83 years (Andorra) is not included in the calculation. There is a **gap** in the graph from 80 – 82 years, making Andorra's 83 years look even more unusual. Most of the data clusters between 76 and 79 years.

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Example 8:
Below is a numerical data frequency graph, in which the
variable is # calories in a 6 ounce soft drink.

 many different values of the variable of interest, or <i>clustered</i> together at a few values of the variable. Whether there are <i>gaps</i> or <i>outliers</i> Whether the distribution is <i>symmetric</i> or not Where the <i>center</i> or most typical value of the variable is, and whether this is affected by the shape. 	The shape of the distribution tells us that the # calories varies widely, with no particular # calories being really typical. There is a large gap in the distribution. For some reason there were no soft drinks with calories between 5 and 59.9. If we tried to use mode to summarize what is typical we would have to give 3 different answers. If we used median we would use 80. If we used mean we would estimate approximately 60 calories, using the idea that the mean is the balance point of the distribution. None of these measures of center gives a satisfactory way to summarize this distribution because of the shape.
 Three measures of central tendency (center): Mode is the data value or category occurring with the highest frequency. It sometimes has more than one value and is unstable because a change in one or a few data values can lead to a very large change in the mode value. A distribution may be unimodal, bimodal, or multimodal. As a measure of "typical" mode is applicable to both categorical and numerical data, but not to araphe over time. 	 In <i>Example 1</i> above, the mode car color was grey. In some sense this is "most typical" but the other numbers were so close that it would be misleading to think that "grey" was "typical" but "red" was not. In <i>Example 5</i> above, "Agree" was the mode response. In <i>Example 4</i> above, 0 – 5% was the most frequently occurring, or mode, immigration figure for immigrants from Mexico. <i>In Examples 2 and 3, which were graphs over time, it makes no sense to talk of a particular decade occurring with more frequency than another. So mode is not applicable.</i>
 graphs over time. Median is the numerical value that marks the middle of a distribution. It is not influenced by extreme data values so is a good measure to use when working with distributions that are skewed. Graphically, the median marks the location that 	In <i>Example 4</i> above there were 19 decades represented, each with a particular immigration value associated. If we place these 19 immigration numbers in order from least to greatest we actually have a list of percentages: 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 3, 4, 4, 6, 11, 12, 14, 14, 23, 25. The middle of this list is the 10 th piece of data from either end, or 3%. So the median immigration figure is 3%. We can say that over the past 200 years the typical immigration from Mexico is 3% of the total. (Notice that the

 divides a distribution into two equal parts. As a measure of "typical," <i>median</i> is applicable only to numerical data. Mean is the numerical value that marks the balance point of a distribution; it is 	actual percentages are grouped on the graph for <i>Example 4</i> , so this list is not directly accessible from the graph. But even without the specific details we can see that over half the data is in the first bar on the graph, 0 – 4.9%.)
influenced by all values of the distribution, including extremes and outliers. It is a good measure to use when	order these to find a middle or median piece of data. We can't give a median color or a median opinion. In the graphs over time in Examples 2 and 3 we can not use a middle year as a typical year for immigration.
working with distributions that are roughly symmetric. As a measure of "typical," <i>mean</i> is applicable only to numerical data.	Since <i>mean</i> is applicable only to numerical data we can apply it to <i>Example 4</i> above. If we work from the list of percentages (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 3, 4, 4, 6, 11, 12, 14, 14, 23, 25) we have three ways to think of the mean:
Note: Students must learn to choose the measure of center that is appropriate to the situation and distribution. The goal is to choose the measure that gives the most useful information about what is "typical."	Strategy 1: we can think of "evening" these numbers out, trying to end up with a list of 19 identical values, yet the same overall value as the original list. There are different ways to effect this "evening" out. One way is to take the numbers in pairs. For example, the lowest and highest numbers are 0 and 25. If we replace one or these with a 12 and the other with a 13 the overall total value is not affected. We have <i>shared</i> out the total value of these two data points. The list would become: 12, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 3, 4, 4, 6, 11, 12, 14, 14, 23, 13. We can do the same with 0 and 23, making them into 11 and 12. The list would then be: 12, 11, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 3, 4, 4, 6, 11, 12, 14, 14, 13, 13. Now we could "even out" a 0 and a 14, to make two 7's. 12, 11, 7, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 3, 4, 4, 6, 11, 14, 7, 13, 13. If we continue like this we will eventually have a list with 6's and 7's. The mean is between 6 and 7.
	Strategy 2. Find the total value by adding all the values, and then "share out" this total value into 19 equal pieces by dividing. $(0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 1 + 1 + 3 + 4 + 4 + 6 + 11 + 12 + 14 + 14 + 23 + 25) \div 19 = 6.2.$ Therefore, the mean Mexican immigration over these 19 decades is 6.2% of the total immigration. Notice that this measure of center is influenced by the two unusually high values, and so is not as good a measure of "typical" as the median.
	Strategy 3: Looking at the graphical representation of the

data (See Ex 4) we can try to visualize where a balance point would be. This distribution is skewed right, so the high values pull the mean up. But there is a very large cluster of values between 0 and 5. Trying to visualize a fulcrum point that will allow this distribution to balance is
challenging.