

Increasing Graphing Literacy and Graphing Ability in Undergraduate Psychology Majors
Through Active Learning Based Exercises
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This resource contains a series of activities designed to increase graphing literacy and graphing ability in undergraduate psychology majors. The activities involve an activity based approach to graphing, emphasizing the importance of being able to read/understand graphs and providing detailed instructions (including screen shots) of how to create a variety of types of graphs in Excel 2007 (v12.0).

This resource should be relevant to all psychology students and educators. However, it is primarily aimed at faculty who teach statistics and/or research methods. More specifically, all of the activities are designed to be completed in class thereby encouraging their inclusion in the graphing unit of a statistics and/or research methods class.

Outside of a statistics and/or research methods class, any instructor that teaches a class involving student consumption of journal articles (or other primary sources) might find the resource relevant as it contains information not only on how to create graphs, but also how to understand them. Additionally, each activity was designed as "stand alone" activity so they can be incorporated as individual activities in any class that deals with graphs or graphing.

## Types of Data

## Qualitative and Quantitative Data

Qualitative Data. Classified based on characteristics and not measured in amounts.
Quantitative Data. Measured in and indicates amounts (e.g., number present).
The graphic below illustrates how data are classified after being identified as qualitative or quantitative.


## Four Traditional Measurement Scales

Nominal scale. Scores are used for identification and classification with no quantitative properties. Each score represents belonging to a group, not an amount. For example, if a class were split into males and females, this would be a nominal scale.

The nominal scale represents qualitative data and is the most basic measurement scale. It is a discrete measurement meaning that membership in one category precludes membership in another group. For ease of understanding, nominal scales often assign numbers to the categories (e.g., Males $=1$, Females $=2$ ). However, the number has no inherent value associated with it and is only used for identification so a female (assigned a 2 ) is not any better or worse than a male (assigned a 1).

With nominal data, a bar graph is the best way to show the data.

Ordinal. Scores indicate rank order. Categories are more than merely different and can be rank ordered from highest to lowest or from best to worst. For example, if a class were split according to grade (i.e., A, B, C, D, F), this would be an ordinal scale. With ordinal scales, like with nominal scales, membership in one category precludes membership in another group.

There is some disagreement about whether ordinal data represent qualitative or quantitative data. Although ordinal data can be ranked, only the respective rankings can be discussed; nothing can be said about data between the ranks. That is to say, it is known that an A is higher than a B but it cannot be known by how much. It is possible the A (e.g., 90\%) may only differ from the B (e.g., 89\%) by one point. However, it is equally possible that the A (e.g., $99 \%$ ) differs from the B (e.g., $80 \%$ ) by 19 points.

With ordinal data, a bar graph is the best way to show the data.
Interval/Ratio. Interval scales have scores that represent an actual quantity with an equal distance between the scores (e.g., 100 is 10 points higher than 90 and 90 is 10 points higher than 80). Interval scores do not contain a true zero and thus do not measure the complete absence of a quantity. For example, if a class were organized based on IQ score, this would be an interval scale. There is not a true zero here because one cannot score a zero (indicating a complete lack of intelligence) on the IQ test and we cannot say that someone who scores a 100 is twice as smart as someone who scored a 50 .

Ratio scales, on the other hand, also have scores that represent an actual quantity with an equal distance between the scores. However, ratio scales contain a true zero. For example, if a class were organized based on the time it took to complete the first exam, this would be a ratio scale. There is a true zero here because it is possible to take no time to complete the exam (e.g.,
the student did not attempt the exam at all), and a student who spends 60 minutes takes twice as long as a student who spends 30 minutes to complete the exam.

The appropriate way to present data and the statistical tests are identical for interval and ratio scales. Additionally, both interval and ratio scales contain continuous data. Thus, the scores can have decimal places (e.g., 90.5), indicating that a score falls between two whole numbers. As such, with Interval/Ratio data, either a histogram or a frequency polygon, both of which show the continuous nature of the data, is the best way to show the data. A histogram, which is appropriate when there are fewer scores, contains bars that abut one another. A frequency polygon, which is appropriate when there are a larger number of scores, contains an unbroken line.

It is worth noting one special case of interval and ratio scales in which the data are discrete. Namely, when one presents counts (e.g., the number of babies born a year) the data are discrete but also ratio. In this case, even though the data cannot technically be a decimal (e.g., 2.3 babies), a histogram or a frequency polygon is still the appropriate way to show the data.

## Research Methods and Variables

Psychological research commonly uses three methods: descriptive, correlational, and experimental.

## Descriptive

Of the three commonly used types of research, descriptive research is the most basic. Descriptive research does exactly what it sounds like; it describes a data set. All of the information presented in descriptive research can be directly verified by the data. In other words, no inferences are drawn about other data or other situations.

All of the following (made up) examples represent descriptive research: The average statistics grade on the first exam was 71.43 , two thirds of the students enrolled in general psychology are women, and only one first-year student is enrolled in research methods. As you can see, all of these examples describe something about a group of people and can be verified by examining the data. None of the examples make claims about other groups or do anything beyond conveying basic information about the data set.

With descriptive research, three types of graphs are typically used: bar graphs, histograms, and frequency polygons.

## Correlational

Correlational research is sometimes classified as descriptive and sometimes classified as its own separate category. This ambiguity arises because a correlation can be used to merely describe the strength of a relationship or it can be used to test for the presence of a relationship. In either situation, the purpose of correlational research is to examine the relationship between two variables. The difference between descriptive research and correlational research is that correlational research emphasizes relationships whereas descriptive research does not.

All of the following (made up) examples represent correlational research: There is a positive relationship between the number of hours studied and the grade earned on the first statistics exam, increased amounts of estrogen are related to higher levels of empathy, and the amount of beer a person consumes is negatively related to the person's ability to drive well.

With correlational research, only one type of graph is typically used: a scatterplot.

## Experimental

Experimental research is the most complicated of the three types of research.
Consequently, it provides the richest data. Experimental research separates itself from other
types of research in that the experimenter has control over one (or more) variable(s). For example, if researchers want to examine whether consuming caffeine makes someone more alert, they will need to conduct an experiment. One potential (although simplistic) way of examining this effect would be to give participants different amounts of caffeine (e.g., $50 \mathrm{mg}, 100 \mathrm{mg}$, and 150 mg ) in a between-subjects design and test for alertness. In this case, the experimenters control the amount of caffeine a person consumes and it is this control that makes the study an experiment. Additionally, because the experimenters are giving different amounts of caffeine to different participants, they are manipulating the amount of caffeine received. Manipulation is a key component of experimental research. Although experiments are powerful and frequently used, they may be less realistic because the experimenter controls and manipulates the situation.

Experimental research has two types of variables unique to experiments. One is the variable that is under the control of and deliberately manipulated by the experimenter. This variable is called the independent variable (IV). The independent variable will always have at least two discrete (nonoverlapping) levels. In the example described above, the experimenter created three levels: $50 \mathrm{mg}, 100 \mathrm{mg}$, and 150 mg of caffeine. Often, experiments will consist of more than one independent variable. Multiple independent variables allow for the study of complex human behavior. For example, with the caffeine study discussed above, it is entirely possible that the time of day the caffeine is consumed may have an effect on a person's ability to focus. Therefore, the experiment can create two levels corresponding to the time of day the caffeine is consumed: morning (10:00 am) or afternoon (3:00 pm). The experimenter would assign participants to either the morning group or the afternoon group, thereby manipulating the time of day the caffeine is consumed.

The second type of variable that all experimental research has is called the dependent variable (DV). The dependent variable is the variable being measured and is not controlled by the researcher. The DV is the data (D) the researcher collects. In the above example, the researcher measures each participant's level of alertness so the level of alertness is the DV. Another way of thinking of a DV is that it depends on the IV. That is to say, the person's level of alertness depends on the amount of caffeine consumed (assuming caffeine has an effect on alertness). As opposed to the IV, the DV in this example is continuous (the opposite of discrete data and includes all data that have the potential to include fractions or decimals).

A final quality of experimental research is that it is often inferential. That means it is used to make inferences about other similar situations and groups of people. Although it is interesting to know that caffeine has an effect on the level of alertness for a particular sample, the goal is to be able to apply that knowledge in other situations. In other words, the goal of the study is to be able to draw the inference that in general caffeine increases alertness, not just in the specific situation studied.

With experimental research, two types of graphs are typically used: bar graphs and line graphs.



The bars should be touching

Scores on the First Statistics Exam


> There should be a descriptive title for the graph


The height of each bar represents the frequency with which each category occurs in the data set
There should be
a descriptive title
for the Y -axis

Figure 3. Example of a frequency polygon.

The line needs to connect to the X -axis before the first interval and after the last interval

There should be a descriptive title for the X -axis

The X-axis labels should be centered under the axis tic marks (indicating the upper and lower real limits of the continuous data)

Each category on the X-axis should be labeled with the value in the middle of each interval - 73 is the middle of the 70 to 76 interval. If you are not graphing intervals then the X-axis should be labeled with whole numbers.


Figure 4. Example of a scatterplot.


Figure 5. Example of a line graph.

## Types of Data Questions

1. Social psychologists often use nominal variables in their research. What are some nominal variables you would expect a social psychologist to regularly use?
2. Cognitive psychologists often use interval/ratio variables in their research. What are some interval/ratio variables you would expect a cognitive psychologist to regularly use?
3. Provide an example of a research scenario where a psychologist would collect ordinal data.
a. Do you think rank data are better classified as quantitative or qualitative? Why?
4. In social science research, which do you think you will encounter more as a dependent variable: nominal, ordinal, or interval/ratio data? Why?
5. One controversy among social science researchers regards multiple-choice measures such as Likert-type questions (e.g., $1=$ Strongly Disagree, $2=$ Disagree, $3=$ Neither Agree nor Disagree, $4=$ Agree, $5=$ Strongly Agree). Some researchers consider these types of questions to be ordinal and some consider them to be interval. Which do you consider them to be, ordinal or interval? Why?
a. What are the possible ramifications of classifying the measure as ordinal?
b. What are the possible ramifications of classifying the measure as interval?

## Fix the Graph

Below are two flawed graphs. Determine what is wrong with each graph and fix it. If you need to draw a new graph, you can.

Age of Students Enrolled in Statistics



## Graph Questions 1

Use the graph below to answer the following questions:

Percent of Participants who Helped a Person in Need as a Function of Sex and Status


1. What kind of graph is it?
2. What is the Dependent Variable (DV)?
3. How many Independent Variables (IVs) are there?
a. How can you tell?
b. What are they?
4. When are people the most likely to help, when they are alone or in a group?

Graph Questions 2
Use the graph below to answer the following questions:

Quiz Scores
(Range 1-10)


1. What kind of graph is it?
2. What kind of data (nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio) were used to make the graph? How do you know?
3. Are there any other graph types that would be appropriate to use? If so, what kind?
4. How many students scored a 6 ?
5. Which score was the most frequently occurring score in the class?
6. How many students are enrolled in the class?

## M\&Ms Activity*

For this activity, you will need a pack of M\&Ms and access to a computer with Microsoft Excel. Using the M\&Ms, you will need to do the following:

1. Divide the candies by color.
2. Count the number of each color.
3. Create a graph in Microsoft Excel** that shows the breakdown by color.
a. Make sure to select the most appropriate type of graph.
b. Don't forget to include labels and a descriptive title!
*NOTE: Although this activity was not taken from a specific source, there are many versions of it in use by a variety of people. However, none of the existing versions were consulting when making this activity.
**See the "How-to" guides at the end of this workbook for step-by-step instructions on how to make each of the five main types of graphs (i.e., bar, histogram, frequency polygon, scatterplot, and line graph)

## Wadded Up "Paperball" Toss Activity

For this activity, you will need a sheet of paper, a yardstick or tape measure, and access to a computer with Microsoft Excel. Using the sheet of paper and the ruler, you will need to do the following:

1. Wad up a sheet of paper to make a "paperball."
2. Mark a spot on the floor from which everyone will throw their paperball.
3. Each person in the class should throw a paperball and then measure the number of inches it flew.
a. To ensure consistency in the measurement, each person should measure from the tips of their toes (at the time of the toss) to the final resting place of the "paperball"
i. Try to measure the most direct route possible.
b. All measurements should be in inches
4. Create a graph in Microsoft Excel* that shows the paperball distances
a. Make sure to select the most appropriate type of graph.
b. Don't forget to include labels and a descriptive title!
*See the "How-to" guides at the end of this workbook for step-by-step instructions on how to make each of the five main types of graphs (i.e., bar, histogram, frequency polygon, scatterplot, and line graph)

## Survey Activity

For this activity, you will need the survey that is included with this workbook on the next page and access to a computer with Microsoft Excel. You will need to do the following:

1. Have each person in the class complete a survey.
2. Collect and enter the data into Microsoft Excel*.
3. Select a question that interests you and that uses nominal data.
a. Create the appropriate type of graph in Microsoft Excel.
b. Don't forget to include labels and a descriptive title!
4. Select a question that interests you and that use ordinal data.
a. Create the appropriate type of graph in Microsoft Excel.
b. Don't forget to include labels and a descriptive title!
5. Select a question that interests you and that uses interval/ratio data.
a. Create the appropriate type of graph in Microsoft Excel.
b. Don't forget to include labels and a descriptive title!
*See the "How-to" guides at the end of this workbook for step-by-step instructions on how to make each of the five main types of graphs (i.e., bar, histogram, frequency polygon, scatterplot, and line graph)

## Survey

1. How old (in years) are you?
2. Are you working? $\quad$ Yes

If yes, how many hours a week do you work? (Provide a number from 0 to 40)
3. What is your sex?

Male
4. Student Status?

Full-time
Female

Part-time
5. What is your current residence as a student?

On-campus
Off-campus
6. What year are you in school?
Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior
7. Are you a psychology major?

Yes
No
8. What percentage do you hope to earn in this class?
(Provide a percent from 0\% to 100\%)
9. How many hours a week do you plan to study for this class?
(Provide a number from 0 to 40)
10. Approximately, how many miles away from campus did you grow up?

| 0 to 20 miles | 61 to 80 miles |
| :--- | :---: |
| 21 to 40 miles | 81 to 100 miles |
| 41 to 60 miles | More than 100 miles |

11. What do you think is the best thing about your university?
12. What do you think is the worst thing about your university?

## Survey (Types of Data) Questions

1. Which of the questions on the survey resulted in nominal data?
a. Sketch an example of the type of graph that should be used to show the data.
2. Which of the questions on the survey resulted in ordinal data?
a. Sketch an example of the type of graph that should be used to show the data.
3. Which of the questions on the survey resulted in ratio data?
a. Sketch an example of the two types of graphs that should be used to show the data.
4. In addition to the survey's nominal questions, the open-ended questions at the end are also qualitative questions. How do you think the data collected from these qualitative questions will differ from the data collected from the other questions?
a. Which type of data do you think you would prefer to work with, qualitative or quantitative? Why?

How to Create a Bar Graph




INCREASING GRAPHING LITERACY AND GRAPHING ABILIT

Undergraduate Student Enrollment in the College of Social and Behavioral Sciences




## How to Create a Histogram

There should be a descriptive title for the graph


Scores on the First Statistics Exam



The X-axis labels should be centered under the axis tick marks (indicating the upper and lower real limits of the continuous data)

You will need to gather the frequencies of each score. To do this you will need to write a "countif" function for each score. The "countif" function tells Excel to count all of the specified values in a specified range. Since there are 11 scores ( $0,10,20,30,40,50,60,70,80,90, \& 100$ ) you will write 11 "countif" functions.





Double click on "Chart Title" to add a descriptive title

Chart Title




## How to Create a Frequency Polygon



Before creating the graph, you will need to create intervals. Intervals group the data into manageable categories. A general rule of thumb is to have approximately 10 intervals per data set. Therefore, the easiest way to determine the appropriate interval size for a data set is to take the range (i.e., highest score - lowest score) of the data set and divide it by 10 . (NOTE: It is also possible to create a polygon using ungrouped data. If you are using ungrouped data you can skip following grouping steps.)

After determining the interval size, you will need to write a "countif" function for each interval. The "countif" function tells Excel to count all of the specified values in a specified range. You will need to specify each value in the interval that is to be counted. Since there are 10 intervals you will write 10 "countif" functions.


Once you have determined the interval size, the next step is to create your intervals. This will involve a few steps. However, the first step is to list the intervals. A few tips (Pagano, 2007):

- The width of the interval is 7 units
- Formatting purposes, start with the smallest interval and work to the largest interval
- The lower limit of the lowest interval must contain the lowest score in the data set
- The lower limit of the lowest interval (i.e., 28) should be evenly divisible by the interval size (i.e., 7)
- Although it may seem like the intervals are only 6 units wide, they are indeed 7 units (i.e., 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, and 34)
- There are blank cells above the smallest interval and below the largest interval for formatting reasons
- It is easiest to just type the intervals into Excel. In this case, you want to be sure to NOT include an "=" sign.

The range is 68. As described above, the general rule of thumb is 10 intervals per data set. So, if you divide the range by ten $(68 / 10=6.8)$ you will get the interval size.

NOTE: round to the nearest whole number.




Now you're finally ready to create the graph ©



To label the X-axis, while the graph is selected, click on "Layout" under chart tools and then select "Primary Horizontal Axis Title" and "Title
below the Axis"
To add a title, while the graph is selected, click on "Layout" under chart tools and then select "Chart Title" and "Above Chart"
1.







How to Create a Scatterplot







How to Create a Line Graph




This function can either be written by clicking on any empty cell or by clicking on an empty cell and
writing it into the function $\left(f_{x}\right)$ bar


Review



Type =AVERAGE and then highlight or type in the range of data. For this example there are 9 participants all located in the $A$ column so the range is $\mathrm{A} 2: \mathrm{A} 10$.





## Reference

Pagano, R. R. (2007). Understanding statistics in the behavioral sciences (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

