

Call for more graphical elements in statistical teaching and consultancy

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SUMMARY

This paper suggests that, all too often, graphical elements are discounted in statistical practice. Properly constructed graphs can greatly help understand data and statistical analysis, so the more of them used in statistical teaching and consultancy, the better. We present an example of the usefulness of graphs in studying associations among six soil properties.

Key words: correlation, graphical statistics, information graphics, scatterplot matrix, visualization.

1. Introduction

Statistics is not an easy matter for non-statistical students and researchers. This includes not only the most difficult and complex methods, but also quite regular ones. Populations and samples, distributions, point and interval estimation, hypothesis testing, analysis of variance, regression and so on, are all difficult topics for anyone who is just beginning his or her statistical education. Hence a teacher must do everything that is possible to facilitate the understanding of statistics by students. This applies equally to consultations with non-statistical researchers.

We claim that this might be done by incorporating many more graphical elements into statistics teaching and consultancy than is normally done.

Of course, it is difficult to estimate how much graphics is taught and used, mainly because each teacher has his or her own approach towards statistics and methods of teaching. It is rather unlikely to find two teachers who teach in exactly the same way. This is a good rather than a bad thing, simply because statistics is a kind of art, and no art should be taught in a single uniform way. Nonetheless, graphical elements seem to be far too rare in statistics courses. This can be seen in numerous textbooks on statistics, both international and Polish, where graphs serve only as an insignificant addition. Of course, graphics are an essential element of some statistical methods, including regression and multivariate analysis. However, all too often these methods are reported and – unfortunately – analysed without any use of graphs, which may result in very poor performance of statistical models, and especially in incorrect interpretation.

This paper is a call for the use of more graphics in biological, environmental and agricultural statistics at the elementary level of teaching and consultancy. Thanks to graphs, many statistical issues that are too difficult to understand for non-statisticians can become friendlier, and even more importantly, interpretation and conclusions may become more correct and more conclusive. This is because with graphs one pays more attention to the data rather than just focusing on numerical output from statistical software. We will illustrate these issues with a very simple example of correlation analysis, which is so commonly applied in biological and agricultural literature. If so simple a problem may be misinterpreted, then what is to be said about genuinely difficult ones, those which call for much more sophisticated and complex statistical methods?

This paper, then, aims to discuss how graphs can cure the illness of statistical teaching and consultancy: the lack of communication between a teacher and his or her students, or between a consultant and his or her client.

2. Example: Correlations

Merely focusing on statistical hypothesis testing and forgetting about the data one studies can provide nonsensical results. Consider correlation, for example. Kozak (2008) showed that with a huge sample, a correlation coefficient even smaller than 0.05 can be significant. Does this make any sense? Not much, if one understands this as an indication of the significant linear association between the two variables. Going further, an extremely common way of presenting associations among traits is based on a correlation matrix, which merely reports Pearson's correlation coefficients among all the variables along with their significance indicated by asterisks. (Kozak, 2009 discusses why asterisks should not be used to show significance of correlation and statistical estimates in general.) This standard approach may be very misleading for several reasons. First is the reason mentioned above — testing of correlation may have little sense (see the discussion in Kozak, 2008). Second, the reader is offered no information (or opportunity to obtain it) as to whether there is any nonlinearity among the variables. Third, no information about outliers is offered. Fourth, the reader cannot grasp the whole picture of the associations among the variables. Hence not only can such a correlation matrix provide an unclear picture of the associations among the variables, but the matrix can be incorrectly interpreted.

Table 1 lists Pearson's correlations among six soil traits, taken from the "soil" dataset of the "agricolae" package (de Mendiburu, 2008) of R (R Development Core Team, 2009). The soil traits considered in our analysis are pH, EC (electric conductivity), CaCO₃, MO (organic matter), CIC (cation exchange capacity) and P content (the original abbreviations from the dataset are retained). The 13 observations come from different locations. Only two coefficients are significant in Table 1: those between pH and CaCO₃ ($P \leq 0.01$), and between P and MO ($P \leq 0.05$); note that the small sample size has quite an impact on this result. One might decide to present only significant correlations,

as is sometimes done (e.g. Kobierski, 2004) – see Table 2. Such a table stresses the importance of hypothesis testing, and discards all correlations that may be high although insignificant or close to significant (see the discussion by Kozak, 2008). Table 3, on the other hand, is much better presented than Tables 1 and 2 – instead of asterisks to indicate significance, or providing only significant coefficients, each coefficient is accompanied by the corresponding p -value. In this way the reader has more information about the strength of the relationship.

Table 1. Correlation matrix for six soil traits. All correlations are given with the significance indicated with asterisks. Source: “soil” data set, package agricolae of R.

	pH	EC	CaCO ₃	MO	CIC
EC	0.55				
CaCO ₃	0.73**	0.32			
MO	-0.33	-0.39	-0.23		
CIC	0.26	0.00	0.30	0.53	
P	0.14	0.46	0.05	0.56*	0.55

*, ** Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ and $p \leq 0.01$, respectively

Table 2. Correlation matrix for six soil traits. Only significant correlations are given, which in this case gives only two coefficients. Source: “soil” data set, package agricolae of R.

	pH	EC	CaCO ₃	MO	CIC
EC	ns				
CaCO ₃	0.73**	ns			
MO	ns	ns	ns		
CIC	ns	ns	ns	Ns	
P	ns	ns	ns	0.56*	ns

*, ** Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ and $p \leq 0.01$, respectively; ns—nonsignificant

Table 3. Correlation matrix for six soil traits. The corresponding p -values are provided in parentheses. Source: “soil” data set, package agricolae of R.

	pH	EC	CaCO ₃	MO	CIC
EC	0.55 (0.053)				
CaCO ₃	0.73 (0.005)	0.32 (0.294)			
MO	-0.33 (0.278)	-0.39 (0.187)	-0.23 (0.456)		
CIC	0.26 (0.386)	0.00 (0.988)	0.30 (0.315)	0.53 (0.06)	
P	0.14 (0.651)	0.46 (0.111)	0.05 (0.874)	0.56 (0.045)	0.55 (0.051)

But is the information provided in Table 3 – let alone Tables 1 and 2 – sufficient to get the whole picture of the associations among the variables? It might be, but only under the assumption that only linear relations are possible among the variables within this dataset. Can we make such an assumption? Probably not – we had no prior information that would justify this (even if we did have this information, outliers may occur, sometimes heavily influencing the estimates). Instead, let us draw a set of scatterplots for each pair of variables – this very useful technique is called the scatterplot matrix (Cleveland, 1993, 1994). See Figure 1 for a scatterplot matrix of our six variables; it was constructed with the `splom` function of the `lattice` package (Sarkar, 2008) of R (R Development Core Team, 2009). In addition, we have added to each panel a locally weighted regression (*loess*) curve (Cleveland, 1979, 1993, 1994), which aims to show a robust relationship between a row (in terms of a scatterplot matrix) and a column variable; the *loess* curves were fitted with the re-descending M estimator with Tukey’s biweight function. Clearly it would be difficult to claim that all relationships are approximately linear. Of course, besides the intrinsic characteristics of this association, the smallness of the sample and the obvious outliers may have an impact on this problem, but can we simply ignore this fact and choose linear relationships?

See Figure 2. To each panel of the same scatterplot matrix we have added a straight least-square line representing a linear relationship between a row and a column variable. Thus these lines portray the relationships which the correlations in Tables 1 and 3 represent. Clearly, claiming that all these relations are linear would rather be a crude approach to data analysis. Our aim is not to suggest using *loess* for such types of data (besides, there are other nonparametric regression methods), but rather to recommend careful examination of data using graphical methods before applying statistical analysis.

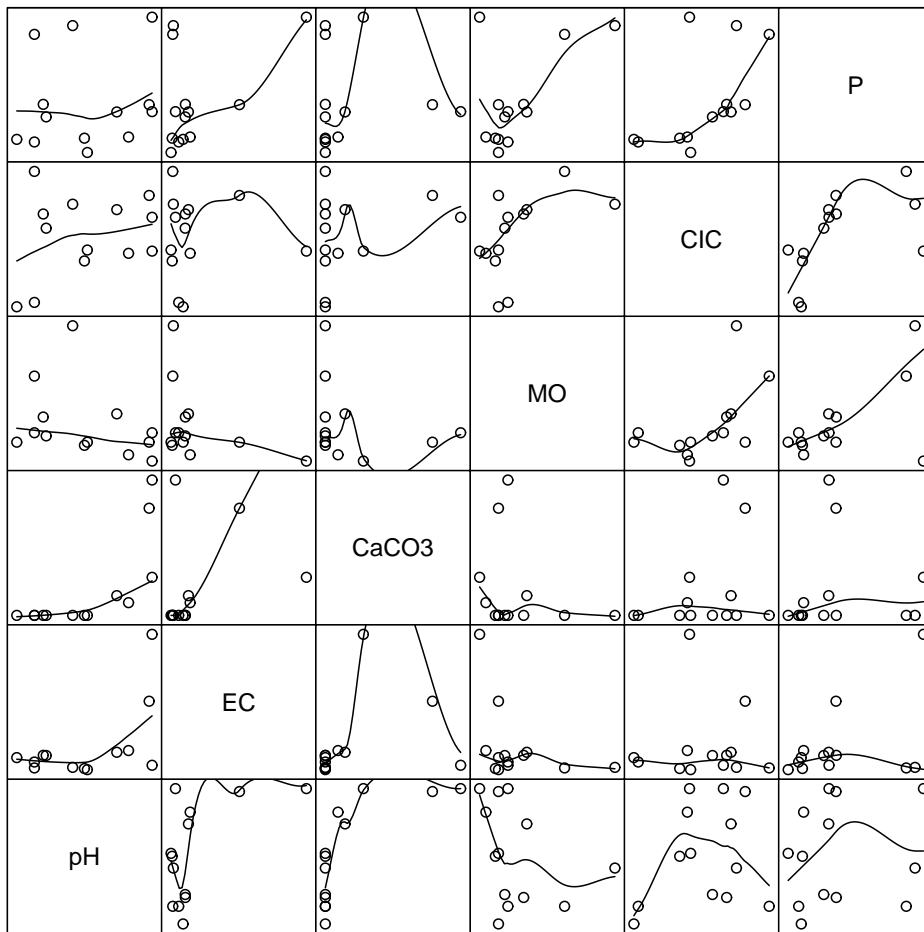


Figure 1. Scatterplot matrix for six soil traits. A locally weighted regression (*loess*) curve has been added to each panel to provide a rough association between the row and column variables. In some panels one can see outliers as well as nonlinearity.

3. Discussion

Graphs have been present in statistics since the very beginning. However, a real milestone in graphical statistics probably came with John W. Tukey's ingenious book on exploratory data analysis (Tukey, 1977). Since then, graphs have been

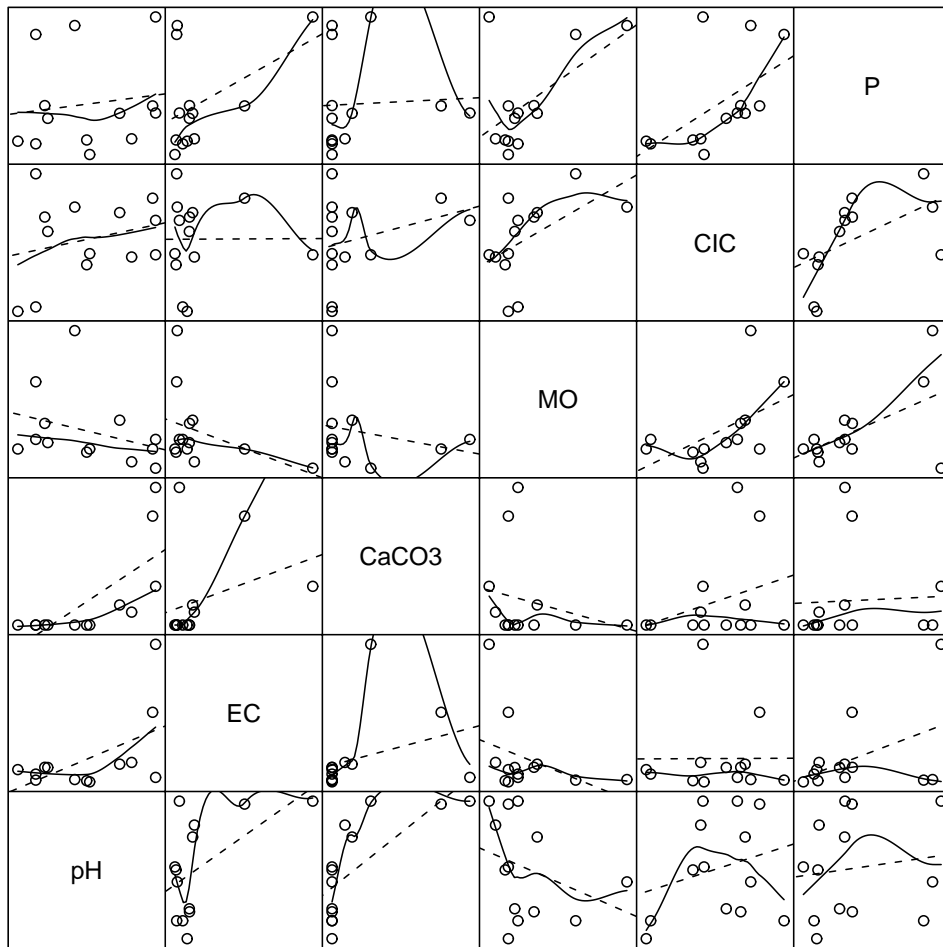


Figure 2. Scatterplot matrix with a locally weighted regression (*loess*) curve from Figure 1, with a superposed dashed least-square line representing a linear relationship between a row and a column variable.

more and more appreciated in statistics and gained more and more interest, including biological, environmental and agricultural applications. Examples include the GGE (Yan, Kang, 2002, Fan et al., 2007) and AMMI (Gauch, 1992) methods for studying genotype-by-environment interactions, which are based on various biplots; various methods of visualization of proteomics and genomics data (e.g., Saldanha, 2004, Brouwer et al., 2009, Carver et al., 2009); PCA

(e.g., Nuijten, van Treuren, 2007, Lattoo et al., 2008, Ursem et al., 2008, van Berloo et al., 2008, Xie et al., 2008, Asare et al., 2009, Nicholls, 2009); cluster analysis (e.g., Eisen et al., 1998, Crossa, Franco, 2004); genetic diversity (e.g., Stępień et al., 2007, D'hoop et al., 2008, Lattoo et al., 2008, Yonemori et al., 2008); gene expression (e.g., Mehrian-Shai et al., 2007); multi-trait and multi-environmental QTL analysis (e.g., Malosetti et al., 2008); multidimensional scaling (e.g., van Wezel, Kusters, 2004, Venna, Kaski, 2006, Salmela et al., 2008, Žilinskas, Žilinskas, 2006, Tzeng et al., 2008); and many other multivariate methods (e.g., Debat et al., 2008, Hepperger et al., 2008, Rabelo et al., 2008). Of course, there can be no spatial statistics without graphs (e.g., Ripley, 1981, Grego et al., 2006, Gozdowski et al., 2008, Molin, de Castro, 2008). Other efficient and interesting applications of graphs in various fields of agricultural sciences include Lammel et al. (2007), de Melo et al. (2007), Miele et al. (2007), Bünemann et al. (2008), Ribeiro et al. (2008), Rawlings et al. (2009), and Ribeiro Jr et al. (2009).

The aforementioned articles use some intricate and complex methods and/or graph types for data visualization and analysis. One must nonetheless start with basic methods to learn how graphing works for data analysis. Still, however, some books, even excellent from a statistical point of view, fail to direct readers' attention to graphical approaches. Of course there are other books that stress this very important topic, for example for checking model assumptions and goodness-of-fit (e.g., Quinn and Keough, 2002).

We believe that the above simple example with correlations should convince the reader that data visualization may be a powerful tool for understanding the data and phenomena one wants to study. We also believe that there should be no statistics without visualization, except in rare cases. Of course, graphing is not all roses. One has to spend time on learning useful tools, and the construction of good graphs itself takes time. In addition, Cook and Weisberg (1999) write, “useful graphs must have a *context* induced by associated theory, and... a graph without the well-understood statistical context is hardly worth drawing” (*italics original*). Of course, Cook and Weisberg have

intricate statistical graphics in mind, including residual plots and scatterplot matrices used in the context of multiple regression. Their note is of importance for general data visualization, though — whatever one visualizes, it does have to be set up in the appropriate statistical context, even if this is just exploratory visualization.

Graphing requires some knowledge of relevant software, and not all software is good for this purpose. In this paper, we used R, which is excellent for graphing, but requires quite a bit of time to learn. However, after some time even quite complex graphs become easy to construct. Therefore to what Kozak et al. (2004) wrote about the usefulness of R in biometrical computing, we could add the enormous possibilities it offers in graphical terms.

In this paper we have focused on selected graphs and problems. Visualization, however, offers many more graphical tools to explore data — see for example Cleveland's books (1993, 1994) to learn about various methods of data visualization, and Tufte (1983, 1990, 1998, 2001, 2006) to learn what can be done with graphs.

Understanding statistics is often very difficult. Graphs can make it easier.

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