

Statistics

for Management and Economics

12th Edition

Gerald Keller



Identify Compute Interpret

Statistics

for Management and Economics

12e

GERALD KELLER



Australia • Brazil • Canada • Mexico • Singapore • United Kingdom • United States

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BRIEF CONTENTS

1	What Is Statistics?	1
2	Graphical Descriptive Techniques I	12
3	Graphical Descriptive Techniques II	53
4	Numerical Descriptive Techniques	97
5	Data Collection and Sampling	154
6	Probability	168
7	Random Variables and Discrete Probability Distributions	215
8	Continuous Probability Distributions	264
9	Sampling Distributions	307
10	Introduction to Estimation	330
11	Introduction to Hypothesis Testing	355
12	Inference about a Population	395
13	Inference about Comparing Two Populations	455
14	Analysis of Variance	550
15	Chi-Squared Tests	628
16	Simple Linear Regression and Correlation	671
17	Multiple Regression	731
18	Model Building	771
19	Nonparametric Statistics	798
20	Time-Series Analysis and Forecasting	874

21	Statistical Process Control	901
22	Decision Analysis	927
23	Conclusion	947
Appendix A	Data File Sample Statistics	A-1
Appendix B	Tables	B-1
Appendix C	A Guide to Statistical Techniques	C-1
Appendix D	Index of Excel Output and Instructions	D-1
Appendix E	Management and Economic Applications	E-1
Appendix F	Solutions to Even-Numbered Exercises (MindTap Reader)	F-1
Index		I-1

CONTENTS

1	What Is Statistics?	1
	Introduction	1
	1-1 Key Statistical Concepts	5
	1-2 Statistical Applications in Business	6
	1-3 Large Real Data Sets	6
	1-4 Statistics and the Computer	7
	Appendix 1 Material to Download	11
2	Graphical Descriptive Techniques I	12
	Introduction	13
	2-1 Types of Data and Information	14
	2-2 Describing a Set of Nominal Data	20
	2-3 Describing the Relationship between Two Nominal Variables and Comparing Two or More Nominal Data Sets	36
	Appendix 2.A XLSTAT Output and Instructions	49
	Appendix 2.B Stata Output and Instructions	51
3	Graphical Descriptive Techniques II	53
	Introduction	54
	3-1 Graphical Techniques to Describe a Set of Interval Data	54
	3-2 Describing Time-Series Data	67
	3-3 Describing the Relationship between Two Interval Variables	73
	3-4 Art and Science of Graphical Presentations	81
	Appendix 3.A XLSTAT Output and Instructions	93
	Appendix 3.B Stata Output and Instructions	95
4	Numerical Descriptive Techniques	97
	Introduction	98
	Sample Statistic or Population Parameter	98
	4-1 Measures of Central Location	99
	4-2 Measures of Variability	108
	4-3 Measures of Relative Standing	117

4-4	Measures of Linear Relationship	122
4-5	(Optional) Applications in Finance: Market Model	138
4-6	Comparing Graphical and Numerical Techniques	142
4-7	General Guidelines for Exploring Data	145
Appendix 4.A	XLSTAT Output and Instructions	149
Appendix 4.B	Stata Output and Instructions	150
Appendix 4.C	Review of Descriptive Techniques	152

5 Data Collection and Sampling 154

	Introduction	155
5-1	Methods of Collecting Data	155
5-2	Sampling	158
5-3	Sampling Plans	160
5-4	Sampling and Nonsampling Errors	165

6 Probability 168

	Introduction	169
6-1	Assigning Probability to Events	169
6-2	Joint, Marginal, and Conditional Probability	174
6-3	Probability Rules and Trees	186
6-4	Bayes's Law	196
6-5	Identifying the Correct Method	208

7 Random Variables and Discrete Probability Distributions 215

	Introduction	216
7-1	Random Variables and Probability Distributions	216
7-2	(Optional) Bivariate Distributions	227
7-3	(Optional) Applications in Finance: Portfolio Diversification and Asset Allocation	236
7-4	Binomial Distribution	243
7-5	(Optional) Poisson Distribution	252

8 Continuous Probability Distributions 264

	Introduction	265
8-1	Probability Density Functions	265
8-2	Normal Distribution	271
8-3	(Optional) Exponential Distribution	289
8-4	Other Continuous Distributions	294

9	Sampling Distributions	307
	Introduction	308
	9-1 Sampling Distribution of the Mean	308
	9-2 Sampling Distribution of a Proportion	320
	9-3 From Here to Inference	326
10	Introduction to Estimation	330
	Introduction	331
	10-1 Concepts of Estimation	331
	10-2 Estimating the Population Mean When the Population Standard Deviation Is Known	334
	10-3 Selecting the Sample Size	348
	Appendix 10.A XLSTAT Output and Instructions	353
	Appendix 10.B Stata Output and Instructions	354
11	Introduction to Hypothesis Testing	355
	Introduction	356
	11-1 Concepts of Hypothesis Testing	356
	11-2 Testing the Population Mean When the Population Standard Deviation Is Known	360
	11-3 Calculating the Probability of a Type II Error	379
	11-4 The Road Ahead	387
	Appendix 11.A XLSTAT Output and Instructions	391
	Appendix 11.B Stata Output and Instructions	393
12	Inference about a Population	395
	Introduction	396
	12-1 Inference about a Population Mean When the Standard Deviation Is Unknown	396
	12-2 Inference about a Population Variance	411
	12-3 Inference about a Population Proportion	418
	12-4 (Optional) Applications in Marketing: Market Segmentation	431
	Appendix 12.A XLSTAT Output and Instructions	446
	Appendix 12.B Stata Output and Instructions	450
13	Inference about Comparing Two Populations	455
	Introduction	456
	13-1 Inference about the Difference between Two Means: Independent Samples	456

13-2	Observational and Experimental Data	482
13-3	Inference about the Difference between Two Means: Matched Pairs Experiment	486
13-4	Inference about the Ratio of Two Variances	499
13-5	Inference about the Difference between Two Population Proportions	505
Appendix 13.A	XLSTAT Output and Instructions	534
Appendix 13.B	Stata Output and Instructions	540
Appendix 13.C	Review of Chapters 12 and 13	544

14 Analysis of Variance 550

	Introduction	551
14-1	One-Way Analysis of Variance	551
14-2	Multiple Comparisons	569
14-3	Analysis of Variance Experimental Designs	578
14-4	Randomized Block (Two-Way) Analysis of Variance	580
14-5	Two-Factor Analysis of Variance	588
14-6	(Optional) Applications in Operations Management: Finding and Reducing Variation	601
Appendix 14.A	XLSTAT Output and Instructions	614
Appendix 14.B	Stata Output and Instructions	618
Appendix 14.C	Review of Chapters 12 to 14	621

15 Chi-Squared Tests 628

	Introduction	629
15-1	Chi-Squared Goodness-of-Fit Test	629
15-2	Chi-Squared Test of a Contingency Table	637
15-3	Summary of Tests on Nominal Data	650
15-4	(Optional) Chi-Squared Test for Normality	652
Appendix 15.A	XLSTAT Output and Instructions	662
Appendix 15.B	Stata Output and Instructions	664
Appendix 15.C	Review of Chapters 12 to 15	665

16 Simple Linear Regression and Correlation 671

	Introduction	672
16-1	Model	673
16-2	Estimating the Coefficients	675
16-3	Error Variable: Required Conditions	684
16-4	Assessing the Model	686
16-5	Using the Regression Equation	703
16-6	Regression Diagnostics—I	708

Appendix 16.A	XLSTAT Output and Instructions	720
Appendix 16.B	Stata Output and Instructions	723
Appendix 16.C	Review of Chapters 12 to 16	724

17 Multiple Regression 731

	Introduction	732
17-1	Model and Required Conditions	732
17-2	Estimating the Coefficients and Assessing the Model	734
17-3	Regression Diagnostics—II	748
17-4	Regression Diagnostics—III (Time Series)	752
Appendix 17.A	XLSTAT Output and Instructions	762
Appendix 17.B	Stata Output and Instructions	763
Appendix 17.C	Review of Chapters 12 to 17	764

18 Model Building 771

	Introduction	772
18-1	Polynomial Models	772
18-2	Nominal Independent Variables	781
18-3	(Optional) Applications in Human Resources Management: Pay Equity	790
18-4	Model Building	795

19 Nonparametric Statistics 798

	Introduction	799
19-1	Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test	801
19-2	Sign Test and Wilcoxon Signed Rank Sum Test	815
19-3	Kruskal–Wallis Test and Friedman Test	830
19-4	Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient	841
Appendix 19.A	XLSTAT Output and Instructions	854
Appendix 19.B	Stata Output and Instructions	858
Appendix 19.C	Review of Statistical Inference (Chapters 12 to 19)	862

20 Time-Series Analysis and Forecasting 874

	Introduction	875
20-1	Time-Series Components	876
20-2	Smoothing Techniques	877
20-3	Trend and Seasonal Effects	886
20-4	Introduction to Forecasting	891
20-5	Forecasting Models	893

21	Statistical Process Control	901
	Introduction	902
	21-1 Process Variation	902
	21-2 Control Charts	904
	21-3 Control Charts for Variables: \bar{X} and S Charts	909
	21-4 Control Charts for Attributes: P Chart	922
22	Decision Analysis	927
	Introduction	928
	22-1 Decision Problem	928
	22-2 Acquiring, Using, and Evaluating Additional Information	934
23	Conclusion	947
	23-1 Twelve Statistical Concepts You Need for Life after the Statistics Final Exam	947
Appendix A	Data File Sample Statistics	A-1
Appendix B	Tables	B-1
	1 Binomial Probabilities	B-1
	2 Poisson Probabilities	B-6
	3 Cumulative Standardized Normal Probabilities	B-8
	4 Critical Values of the Student t Distribution	B-10
	5 Critical Values of the χ^2 Distribution	B-11
	6 Critical Values of the F -Distribution: $A = .05$	B-12
	7 Critical Values of the Studentized Range, $\alpha = .05$	B-20
	8 Critical Values for the Durbin-Watson Statistic, $\alpha = .05$	B-22
	9 Critical Values for the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test	B-24
	10 Critical Values for the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Sum Test	B-25
	11 Critical Values for the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient	B-26
	12 Control Chart Constants	B-27
Appendix C	A Guide to Statistical Techniques	C-1
Appendix D	Index of Excel Output and Instructions	D-1
Appendix E	Management and Economic Applications	E-1
Appendix F	Solutions to Even-Numbered Exercises (MindTap Reader)	F-1
Index	I-1	

PREFACE

Businesses are increasingly using statistical techniques to convert data into information. For students preparing for the business world, it is not enough merely to focus on mastering a diverse set of statistical techniques and calculations. A course and its attendant textbook must provide a complete picture of statistical concepts and their applications to the real world. *Statistics for Management and Economics* is designed to demonstrate that statistical methods are vital tools for today's managers and economists.

Fulfilling this objective requires the several features that I have built into this book. First, I have included data-driven examples, exercises, and cases that demonstrate statistical applications that are and can be used by marketing managers, financial analysts, accountants, economists, operations managers, and others. Many are accompanied by large and genuine data sets. Second, I reinforce the applied nature of the discipline by teaching students how to choose the correct statistical technique. Third, I teach students the concepts that are essential to interpret the statistical results.

Why I Wrote This Book

Business is complex and requires effective management to succeed. Managing complexity requires many skills. There are more competitors, more places to sell products, and more places to locate workers. As a consequence, effective decision making is more crucial than ever before. On the other hand, managers have more access to larger and more detailed data that are potential sources of information. However, to achieve this potential requires that managers know how to convert data into information. This knowledge extends well beyond the arithmetic of calculating statistics. Unfortunately, this is what most textbooks offer—a series of unconnected techniques illustrated mostly with manual calculations. This continues a pattern that goes back many years. What is required now is a complete approach to applying statistical techniques.

When I started teaching statistics in 1971, books demonstrated how to calculate statistics and, in some cases, how various formulas were derived. One reason for doing so was the belief that by doing calculations by hand, students would be able to understand the techniques and concepts. When the first edition of this book was published in 1988, an important goal was to teach students to identify the correct technique. Through the next 10 editions, I refined my approach to emphasize interpretation and decision making equally. I now divide the solution of statistical problems into three stages and include them in every appropriate example: (1) *identify* the technique, (2) *compute* the statistics, and (3) *interpret* the results. The compute stage can be completed in any or all of four ways: manually (with the aid of a calculator), using Excel, XLSTAT, or Stata. For those courses that wish to use the computer extensively, manual calculations can be played down or omitted completely. Conversely, those that wish to emphasize manual calculations may easily do so, and the computer solutions can be selectively introduced or skipped entirely. This approach is designed to provide maximum flexibility, and it leaves to the instructor the decision of if and when to introduce the computer.

I believe that my approach offers several advantages:

- An emphasis on identification and interpretation provides students with practical skills that they can apply to real problems they will face regardless of whether a course uses manual or computer calculations.
- Students learn that statistics is a method of converting data into information. With 1,283 data files and corresponding problems that ask students to interpret statistical results, students are given ample opportunities to practice data analysis and decision making.
- The optional use of the computer allows for larger and more realistic exercises and examples.

Placing calculations in the context of a larger problem allows instructors to focus on more important aspects of the decision problem. For example, more attention needs to be devoted to interpret statistical results. Proper interpretation of statistical results requires an understanding of the probability and statistical concepts that underlie the techniques and an understanding of the context of the problems. An essential aspect of my approach is teaching students the concepts. I do so by providing Excel worksheets that allow students to perform “what-if” analyses. Students can easily see the effect of changing the components of a statistical technique, such as the effect of increasing the sample size.

Efforts to teach statistics as a valuable and necessary tool in business and economics are made more difficult by the positioning of the statistics course in most curricula. The required statistics course in most undergraduate programs appears in the first or second year. In many graduate programs, the statistics course is offered in the first semester of a three-semester program and the first year of a two-year program. Accounting, economics, finance, human resource management, marketing, and operations management are usually taught after the statistics course. Consequently, most students will not be able to understand the general context of the statistical application. This deficiency is addressed in this book by “Applications in ...” sections, subsections, and boxes. Illustrations of statistical applications in businesses that students are unfamiliar with are preceded by an explanation of the background material.

- For example, to illustrate graphical techniques, we use an example that compares the histograms of the returns on two different investments. To explain what financial analysts look for in the histograms requires an understanding that risk is measured by the amount of variation in the returns. The example is preceded by an “Applications in Finance” box that discusses how return on investment is computed and used.
- Later when I present the normal distribution, I feature another “Applications in Finance” box to show why the standard deviation of the returns measures the risk of that investment.
- Thirty-five application boxes are scattered throughout the book.

Some applications are so large that I devote an entire section or subsection to the topic. For example, in the chapter that introduces the confidence interval estimator of a proportion, I also present market segmentation. In that section, I show how the confidence interval estimate of a population proportion can yield estimates of the sizes of market segments. In other chapters, I illustrate various statistical techniques by showing how marketing managers can apply these techniques to determine the differences that exist between market segments. There are five such sections and one subsection in this book.

The “Applications in ...” segments provide great motivation to the student who asks, “How will I ever use this technique?”

New in This Edition

The use of statistical software has been reorganized. First, Excel can be used for all statistical applications. Second, XLSTAT output and instructions, which were introduced in the 11th edition, have been placed in the appendixes to Chapters 2 to 4, and 10 to 19. Third, Stata has been included for the first time with output and instructions in appendixes similar to the treatment of XLSTAT.

The data from the last 10 General Social Surveys and the last five Surveys of Consumer Finances have been included, which produced hundreds of new exercises. Students will have the opportunity to convert real data into information. Instructors can use these data sets to create hundreds of additional examples and exercises.

Many of the examples, exercises, and cases using real data in the 11th edition have been updated. These include the data on wins, payrolls, and attendance in baseball, basketball, football, and hockey; returns on stocks listed on the New York Stock Exchange, NASDAQ, and Toronto Stock Exchange; and global warming.

I’ve created many new examples and exercises. Here are the numbers for the 12th edition: 137 solved examples, 2,573 exercises, 32 cases, and 1,283 data sets.

New! MindTap Courseware....

Assign this textbook through MindTap to provide online homework and assessment, study tools, and seamless access to the eBook—inside or outside of your campus Learning Management System. MindTap includes chapter quizzes, Exploring Statistics applets with teaching videos and activities, assignable exercises from the textbook with algorithmic versions and solutions, auto-graded Excel problems, an algorithmic test bank, and more! Contact your Cengage representative for more information about accessing MindTap.

Data Driven: The Big Picture

Solving statistical problems begins with a problem and data. The ability to select the right method by problem objective and data type is a **valuable tool for business**. Because business decisions are driven by data, students will leave this course equipped with the tools they need to make effective, informed decisions in all areas of the business world.



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Identify the Correct Technique

Examples introduce the first crucial step in this three-step (*identify–compute–interpret*) approach. Every example’s solution begins by examining the data type and problem objective and then identifying the right technique to solve the problem.

EXAMPLE 13.1*

DATA
Xm13-01

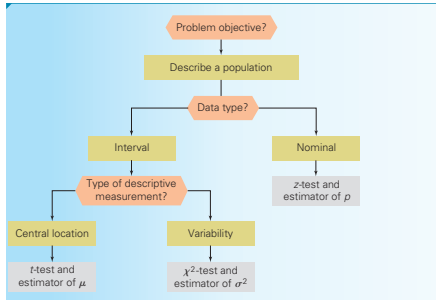
Direct and Broker-Purchased Mutual Funds

Millions of investors buy mutual funds (see page 175 for a description of mutual funds), choosing from thousands of possibilities. Some funds can be purchased directly from banks or other financial institutions whereas others must be purchased through brokers, who charge a fee for this service. This raises the question, Can investors do better by buying mutual funds directly than by purchasing mutual funds through brokers? To help answer this question, a group of researchers randomly sampled the annual returns from mutual funds that can be acquired directly and mutual funds that are bought through brokers and recorded the net annual returns, which are the returns on investment after deducting all relevant fees. These are listed next.

Direct					Broker				
9.33	4.68	4.23	14.69	10.29	3.24	3.71	16.4	4.36	9.43
6.94	3.09	10.28	-2.97	4.39	-6.76	13.15	6.39	-11.07	8.31
16.17	7.26	7.1	10.37	-2.06	12.8	11.05	-1.9	9.24	-3.99
16.97	2.05	-3.09	-0.63	7.66	11.1	-3.12	9.49	-2.67	-4.44
5.94	13.07	5.6	-0.15	10.83	2.73	8.94	6.7	8.97	8.63
12.61	0.59	5.27	0.27	14.48	-0.13	2.74	0.19	1.87	7.06
3.33	13.57	8.09	4.59	4.8	18.22	4.07	12.39	-1.53	1.57
16.13	0.35	15.05	6.38	13.12	-0.8	5.6	6.54	5.23	-8.44
11.2	2.69	13.21	-0.24	-6.54	-5.75	-0.85	10.92	6.87	-5.72
1.14	18.45	1.72	10.32	-1.06	2.59	-0.28	-2.15	-1.69	6.95

Can we conclude at the 5% significance level that directly purchased mutual funds outperform mutual funds bought through brokers?

*Source: D. Bergstresser, J. Chalmers, and P. Tufano, "Assessing the Costs and Benefits of Brokers in the Mutual Fund Industry."



Appendices 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 19 reinforce this problem-solving approach and allow students to hone their skills.

Flowcharts, found within the appendixes, help students develop the logical process for choosing the correct technique, reinforce the learning process, and provide easy review material for students.

APPENDIX 14.C / REVIEW OF CHAPTERS 12 TO 14

The number of techniques introduced in Chapters 12 to 14 is up to 20. As we did in Appendix 13.C, we provide a table of the techniques, a flowchart to help you identify the correct technique, and 34 exercises to give you practice in how to choose the appropriate method. The table and the flowchart have been amended to include the three analysis of variance techniques introduced in this chapter and the three multiple comparison methods.

TABLE A14.1 Summary of Statistical Techniques in Chapters 12 to 14

t-test of μ
Estimator of μ (including estimator of $N\mu$)
χ^2 test of σ^2
Estimator of σ^2
z-test of ρ
Estimator of ρ (including estimator of $N\rho$)
Equal-variances t-test of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$
Equal-variances estimator of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$
Unequal-variances t-test of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$
Unequal-variances estimator of $\mu_1 - \mu_2$
t-test of μ_D
Estimator of μ_D
F-test of σ_1^2/σ_2^2
Estimator of σ_1^2/σ_2^2
z-test of $\rho_1 - \rho_2$ (Case 1)
z-test of $\rho_1 - \rho_2$ (Case 2)
Estimator of $\rho_1 - \rho_2$
One-way analysis of variance (including multiple comparisons)
Two-way (randomized blocks) analysis of variance
Two-factor analysis of variance

Factors That Identify the t-Test and Estimator of μ_D

1. **Problem objective:** Compare two populations.
2. **Data type:** Interval
3. **Descriptive measurement:** Central location
4. **Experimental design:** Matched pairs

Factors That Identify ... boxes are found in each chapter after a technique or concept has been introduced. These boxes allow students to see a technique's essential requirements and give them a way to easily review their understanding. These essential requirements are revisited in the review chapters, where they are coupled with other concepts illustrated in flowcharts.

A **Guide to Statistical Techniques**, found in Appendix C of the text, pulls everything together into one useful table that helps students identify which technique to perform based on the problem objective and data type. Here is part of the guide.

		<i>A GUIDE TO STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES</i>		
		<i>Problem Objectives</i>		
		Describe a Population	Compare Two Populations	Compare Two or More Populations
DATA TYPES	Interval	Histogram Section 3-1 Line chart Section 3-2 Mean, median, and mode Section 4-1 Range, variance, and standard deviation Section 4-2 Percentiles and quartiles Section 4-3 t -test and estimator of a mean Section 12-1 Chi-squared test and estimator of a variance Section 12-2	Equal-variances t -test and estimator of the difference between two means: independent samples Section 13-1 Unequal-variances t -test and estimator of the difference between two means: independent samples Section 13-1 t -test and estimator of mean difference Section 13-3 F -test and estimator of ratio of two variances Section 13-4 Wilcoxon rank sum test Section 19-1 Wilcoxon signed rank sum test Section 19-2	One-way analysis of variance Section 14-1 LSD multiple comparison method Section 14-2 Tukey's multiple comparison method Section 14-2 Two-way analysis of variance Section 14-4 Two-factor analysis of variance Section 14-5 Kruskal-Wallis test Section 19-3 Friedman test Section 19-3
	Nominal	Frequency distribution Section 2-2 Bar chart Section 2-2 Pie chart Section 2-2 Z -test and estimator of a proportion Section 12-3 Chi-squared goodness-of-fit test Section 15-1	Z -test and estimator of the difference between two proportions Section 13-5 Chi-squared test of a contingency table Section 15-2	Chi-squared test of a contingency table Section 15-2
	Ordinal	Median Section 4-1 Percentiles and quartiles Section 4-3	Wilcoxon rank sum test Section 19-1 Sign test Section 19-2	Kruskal-Wallis test Section 19-3 Friedman test Section 19-3

More Data Sets

A total of 1,283 data sets available to be downloaded provide ample practice. These data sets contain real data, including stock market returns, climate change temperature anomalies and atmospheric carbon dioxide, baseball, basketball, football and hockey team payrolls, wins, and attendance.

homes. Each was asked how many minutes they spent reading their newspapers. Can we infer that the amount of time reading differs between the two groups?

13.228 *Xr13-228* In recent years, a number of state governments have passed mandatory seat-belt laws. Although the use of seat belts is known to save lives and reduce serious injuries, compliance with seat-belt laws is not universal. In an effort to increase the use of seat belts, a government agency sponsored a 2-year study. Among its objectives was to determine whether there was enough evidence to infer that seat-belt usage increased between last year and this year. To test this belief, random samples of drivers last year and this year were asked whether they always use their seat belts (2 = Wear seat belt, 1 = Do not wear seat belt). Can we infer that seat-belt usage has increased over the last year?

13.229 *Xr13-229* An important component of the cost of living is the amount of money spent on housing. Housing costs include rent (for tenants), mortgage payments and property tax (for home owners), heating, electricity, and water. An economist undertook a 5-year study to determine how housing costs have changed. Random samples of 200 households this year and 5 years ago were drawn and the percentage of total income spent on housing was recorded.

a. Conduct a test to determine whether the economist can infer that housing cost as a percentage of total income has increased over the last 5 years.

b. Use whatever statistical method you deem appropriate to check the required condition(s) of the test used in part (a).

13.230 *Xr13-230* In designing advertising campaigns to sell magazines, it is important to know how much time each of a number of demographic groups spends reading magazines. In a preliminary study, 40 people were randomly selected. All were asked how much time per week they spend reading magazines; additionally, each was categorized by gender (1 = Male, 2 = Female) and by income level (1 = Low, 2 = High).

a. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that

consisted of a female and a male student who were matched according to their GPA, age, and previous work experience. The salary offered (in thousands of dollars) was recorded.

a. Is there enough evidence to conclude that GPA is a factor in salary offers?

b. Discuss why the experiment was conducted the way it was.

c. Is the required condition for inference satisfied?

13.232 *Xr13-232* Refer to Exercise 13.229. The poll also asked whether respondents view (1) or not (0) of the federal government's 2016 and 2017 evidence that Americans in 2017 government less positively in 2017.

13.233 *Xr13-233* Before deciding which of two types of stamping machines should be purchased, the plant manager of an automotive parts manufacturer wants to determine the number of units that each produces. The two machines differ in cost, reliability, and productivity. The firm's accountant has calculated that machine A must produce 25 more non-defective units per hour than machine B to warrant buying machine A. To help decide, both machines were operated for 24 hours. The total number of units and the number of defective units produced by each machine per hour were recorded. These data are stored in the following way: column A = Total number of units produced by machine A; column B = Number of defectives produced by machine A; column C = Total number of units produced by machine B; column D = Number

EXAMPLE 13.9

Test Marketing of Package Designs, Part 1

The General Products Company produces and sells a variety of household products. Because of stiff competition, one of its products, a bath soap, is not selling well. Hoping to improve sales, General Products decided to introduce more attractive packaging. The company's advertising agency developed two new designs. The first design features several bright colors to distinguish it from other brands. The second design is light green in color with just the company's logo on it. As a test to determine which design is better, the marketing manager selected two supermarkets. In one supermarket, the soap was packaged in a box using the first design; in the second supermarket, the second design was used. The product scanner at each supermarket tracked every buyer of soap over a 1-week period. The supermarkets recorded the last four digits of the scanner code for each of the five brands of soap the supermarket sold. The code for the General Products brand of soap is 9077 (the other codes are 4255, 3745, 7118, and 8855). After the trial period, the scanner data were transferred to a computer file. Because the first design is more

CASE 3.2

What Is Happening to the Polar Ice Caps

DATA
C03-02a
C03-02b
C03-02c
C03-02d

The most serious consequence of possible rising temperatures is that the ice in one or both poles will melt, leading to a rise in the world's oceans with trillions of dollars in damages to coastal cities. This raises the question: Are the oceans rising? Since 1993, satellite measurements of the sea level have been recorded. These measurements allow for estimation

of the proportion of the year that has elapsed. The sea level is measured in millimeters and has been reset so that the value of the last days of 1992 is set to 0. We have recorded the monthly extent of Northern hemisphere (C03-02b) and Southern hemisphere (C03-02c) sea ice (measured in millions of kilometers squared) starting in January, 1979. The anomalies are

level. Describe what you have discovered.

b. For each hemisphere, use a suitable graph to display the trends in ice coverage.

c. For each hemisphere, use a graphical technique to determine whether the polar ice coverage is related to temperature anomalies (C03-02d).

d. What do the graphs you

APPENDIX A		
DATA FILE SAMPLE STATISTICS		
Chapter 10	12.52 $\bar{x} = 1.158, s = 396.5, n = 325$	13.20 Out bran: $\bar{x}_1 = 10.01, s_1 = 4.43, n_1 = 120$
10.14 $\bar{x} = 232.30$	12.53 $\bar{x} = 530.7, s = 97.17, n = 485$	Other: $\bar{x}_2 = 9.12, s_2 = 4.45, n_2 = 120$
10.15 $\bar{x} = 1,810.16$	12.77 $\bar{x} = 270.58, n = 25$	13.21 Regular income: $\bar{x}_1 = 208.5, s_1 = 30.86, n_1 = 177$
10.16 $\bar{x} = 12.10$	12.78 $\bar{x} = 22.56, n = 245$	Stimulus: $\bar{x}_2 = 217.5, s_2 = 37.17, n_2 = 177$
10.17 $\bar{x} = 0.221$	12.79 $\bar{x} = 4.25, n = 90$	
10.18 $\bar{x} = .510$	12.80 $\bar{x} = 174.47, n = 100$	
10.19 $\bar{x} = 26.61$	12.81 $\bar{x} = 19.68, n = 25$	

Appendix A provides summary statistics for many of the exercises with large data sets. This feature offers unparalleled flexibility allowing students to solve most exercises by hand or by computer!

Real Data Sets

The data from the last 10 General Social Surveys and the last five Surveys of Consumer Finances are included. These feature thousands of observations and dozens of selected variables. Solving more than 500 exercises associated with these surveys encourages students to uncover interesting aspects of the society. For example, students can determine the incomes, education, and working hours of people who are self-employed and compare them to people who work for someone else. They can see the effect of education on income, assets, investments, and net worth. Instructors can use the data to create their own examples and exercises.

Compute the Statistics

Once the correct technique has been identified, examples take students to the next level within the solution by asking them to compute the statistics.

COMPUTE

MANUALLY:

We need four values to construct the confidence interval estimate of μ . They are

$$\bar{x}, z_{\alpha/2}, \sigma, n$$

Using a calculator, we determine the summation $\sum x_i = 9,254$. From this, we find

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n} = \frac{9,254}{25} = 370.16$$

The confidence level is set at 95%;

thus, $1 - \alpha = .95$, $\alpha = 1 - .95 = .05$, and $\alpha/2 = .025$.

From Table 3 in Appendix B or from Table 10.1, we find

$$z_{\alpha/2} = z_{.025} = 1.96$$

The population standard deviation is $\sigma = 75$, and the sample size is 25. Substituting \bar{x} , $z_{\alpha/2}$, σ , and n into the confidence interval estimator, we find

$$\bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = 370.16 \pm 1.96 \frac{75}{\sqrt{25}} = 370.16 \pm 29.40$$

The lower and upper confidence limits are LCL = 340.76 and UCL = 399.56, respectively.

Excel Workbook

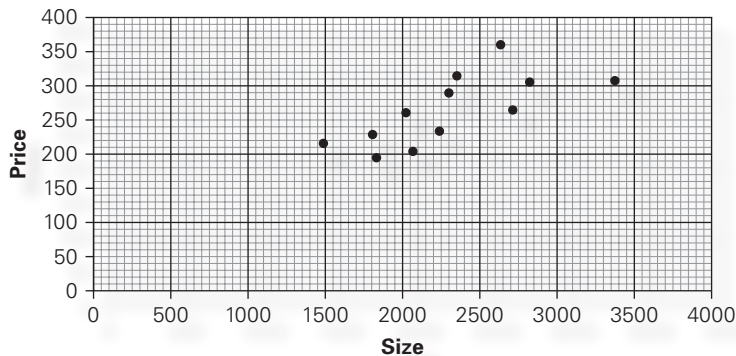
	A	B	C	D	E
1	z-estimate of a Mean				
2					
3	Sample mean	370.16	Confidence Interval Estimate		
4	Population standard deviation	75		± 29.40	
5	Sample size	25	Lower confidence limit	340.76	
6	Confidence level	0.95	Upper confidence limit	399.56	

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Type or import the data into one column. (Open Xm10-01.) In any empty cell, calculate the sample mean (=AVERAGE(A1:A26)).
2. Open the Estimators Workbook and click the z-Estimate_Mean tab. In cell B3, type or copy the value of the sample mean. If you use Copy also use Paste Special and Values. In cells B4–B6, type the value of σ (75), the value of n (25), and the confidence level (.95), respectively.

Manual calculation of the problem is presented first in each “Compute” section of the examples.

Step-by-step instructions in the use of Excel immediately follow the manual presentation. Instruction appears in the book with the printouts—there’s no need to incur the extra expense of separate software manuals. Additionally, instructions and printouts for XLSTAT and Stata are provided in the appendixes to most chapters.



Ample use of graphics provides students many opportunities to see statistics in all its forms. In addition to manually presented figures throughout the text, Excel graphic outputs are given for students to compare to their own results.

Interpret the Results

INTERPRET

In the real world, it is not enough to know *how* to generate the statistics. To be truly effective, a business person must also know how to **interpret and articulate** the results. Furthermore, students need a framework to understand and apply statistics **within a realistic setting** by using realistic data in exercises, examples, and case studies.

Examples round out the final component of the identify–compute–interpret approach by asking students to interpret the results in the context of a business-related decision. This final step motivates and shows how statistics is used in everyday business situations.

An Applied Approach

With **Applications in ...** sections and boxes, *Statistics for Management and Economics* now includes 42 **applications** (in finance, marketing, operations management, human resources, economics, and accounting) highlighting how statistics is used in those professions. For example, “Applications in Finance: Portfolio Diversification and Asset Allocation” shows how probability is used to help select stocks to minimize risk. Another optional section, “Applications in Marketing: Market Segmentation” demonstrates how to estimate the size of a market segment.

In addition to sections and boxes, **Applications in ... exercises** can be found within the exercise sections to further reinforce the big picture.

APPLICATIONS in OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT



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Quality

A critical aspect of production is quality. The quality of a final product is a function of the quality of the product's components. If the components don't fit, the product will not function as planned and likely cease functioning before its customers expect it to. For example, if a car door is not made to its specifications, it will not fit. As a result, the door will leak both water and air.

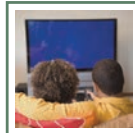
Operations managers attempt to maintain and improve the quality of products by ensuring that all components are made so that there is as little variation as possible. As you have already seen, statisticians measure variation by computing the variance.

Incidentally, an entire chapter (Chapter 21) is devoted to the topic of quality.

The Number of Unemployed

DATA
GSS2018

One of the most important economic statistics is the unemployment rate. Unfortunately, it is a very poor measure because it is misleading. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) defines the unemployment rate as the percentage of unemployed persons who are currently in the labor force. In order to be in the labor force, a person either must have a job or have looked for work in the last 4 weeks. This leaves out a lot of people. Some are left out because they have not done anything to find work in more than 4 weeks and as a result became discouraged, and some are left out because they are not available for work at the moment. Yet to leave this group out significantly underestimates the unemployment rate.



See page 423 for our answer.

(Continued)

Chapter-opening examples and solutions present compelling discussions of how the techniques and concepts introduced in that chapter are applied to real-world problems. These examples are then revisited with a solution as each chapter unfolds, applying the methodologies introduced in the chapter.

The Number of Unemployed: Solution

IDENTIFY

The problem objective is to describe the population of work status of American adults. The data are nominal. The combination of problem objective and data type make the parameter to be estimated the proportion of the entire population that is unemployed. The confidence interval estimator of the population is

$$\hat{p} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}}$$

COMPUTE

MANUALLY :

To solve manually we count the number of 3s and 4s in the WRKSTAT column. They are 53 and 84, respectively. The sample size is 2,346. (There are two blanks representing missing data.) Thus,

$$\hat{p} = \frac{53 + 84}{2,346} = .0584$$

The confidence level is $1 - \alpha = .95$. It follows that $\alpha = .05$, $\alpha/2 = .025$, $z_{\alpha/2} = z_{.025} = 1.96$. The 95% confidence interval estimate of p is

$$\hat{p} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}} = .0584 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{.0584(1 - .0584)}{2,346}} = .0584 \pm .0095$$

$$\text{LCL} = .0489 \quad \text{UCL} = .0679$$

EXCEL Workbook

	A	B	C	D	E
1	z-Estimate of a Proportion				
2					
3	Sample proportion	0.0584	Confidence Interval Estimate		
4	Sample size	2346		±	0.0095
5	Confidence level	0.95	Lower confidence limit		0.0489
6			Upper confidence limit		0.0679

INSTRUCTIONS

- Type or import the data into one column. (Open GSS2018.) (We copied column X into another spreadsheet.) In any empty cell, calculate the number of “successes” (=COUNTIF (A1:A2349,3) and =COUNTIF (A1:A2349,4)). Divide this number (53 + 84) by the sample size (2,346) to obtain the sample proportion.
- Open the **Estimators Workbook** and click the **z-Estimate_Proportion** tab. Type or copy the sample proportion. Type the value of the sample size and the value of α .

INTERPRET

We estimate that the proportion of unemployed American adults lies between 4.89% and 6.79%. To determine the number of unemployed people, multiply the lower and upper limits by the population size 255,200,373. Thus,

$$\text{LCL} = 255,200,373(.0489) = 12,479,298$$

$$\text{UCL} = 255,200,373(.0679) = 17,328,105$$

CASE 12.5 Bias in Roulette Betting

The game of roulette consists of a wheel with 38 colored and numbered slots. The numbers are 1 to 36, 0 and 00. Half of the slots numbered 1 to 36 are red and the other half are black. The two “zeros” are green. The wheel is spun and an iron ball is rolled, which eventually comes to rest in one of the slots. Gamblers can make several different kinds of bets. Most players bet on one or more numbers or on

DATA
C12-05

Many of the **examples, exercises, and cases** are based on **actual studies** performed by statisticians and published in journals, newspapers, and magazines, or presented at conferences. Many data files were recreated to produce the original results.

Chapter summaries briefly review the material and list important terms, symbols, and formulas.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The inferential methods presented in this chapter address the problem of describing a single population. When the data are interval, the parameters of interest are the population mean μ and the population variance σ^2 . The Student t -distribution is used to test and estimate the mean when the population standard deviation is unknown. The chi-squared distribution is used to make inferences about a population variance. When the data are nominal, the parameter to be

tested and estimated is the population proportion p . The sample proportion follows an approximate normal distribution, which produces the test statistic and the interval estimator. We also discussed how to determine the sample size required to estimate a population proportion. We introduced market segmentation and described how statistical techniques presented in this chapter can be used to estimate the size of a segment.

IMPORTANT TERMS :

- t -statistic 397
- Student t -distribution 397
- Robust 402
- Chi-squared statistic 412

SYMBOLS :

Symbol	Pronounced	Represents
ν	nu	Degrees of freedom
χ^2	chi squared	Chi-squared statistic
\hat{p}	p hat	Sample proportion
\tilde{p}	p tilde	Wilson estimator

FORMULAS :

- Test statistic for μ
$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$
- Confidence interval estimator of μ
$$\bar{x} \pm t_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$
- Test statistic for σ^2
$$\chi^2 = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2}$$
- Confidence interval estimator of σ^2
$$LCL = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi_{\alpha/2}^2}$$

$$UCL = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi_{1-\alpha/2}^2}$$
- Test statistic for p
$$z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{p(1-p)/n}}$$
- Confidence interval estimator of p
$$\hat{p} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})/n}$$
- Sample size to estimate p
$$n = \left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}}{B} \right)^2$$
- Wilson estimator
$$\tilde{p} = \frac{x + 2}{n + 4}$$
- Confidence interval estimator of p using the Wilson estimator
$$\tilde{p} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\tilde{p}(1-\tilde{p})/(n+4)}$$
- Confidence interval estimator of the total of a large finite population
$$N \left[\bar{x} \pm t_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$
- Confidence interval estimator of the total number of successes in a large finite population
$$N \left[\hat{p} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}} \right]$$

Instructor and Student Resources

Additional instructor and student resources for this product are available online. Instructor assets include an Instructor's Manual, Solutions and Answer Guide, Educator's Guide, PowerPoint® slides, and a test bank powered by Cognito®. New to this edition for instructors, Excel solutions files are now available for certain exercises in the book that require computer generated solutions. Student assets include Excel datasets, Excel workbooks, and more. Sign up or sign in at www.cengage.com to search for and access this product and its online resources.

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WHAT IS STATISTICS?

CHAPTER OUTLINE

- 1-1 *Key Statistical Concepts*
- 1-2 *Statistical Applications in Business*
- 1-3 *Large Real Data Sets*
- 1-4 *Statistics and the Computer*
- Appendix 1 *Material to Download*

INTRODUCTION

Statistics is a way to get information from data. That's it! Most of this textbook is devoted to describing how, when, and why managers and statistics practitioners* conduct statistical procedures. You may ask, "If that's all there is to statistics, why is this book (and most other statistics books) so large?" The answer is that students of applied statistics will be exposed to different kinds of information and data. We demonstrate some of these with a case and two examples that are featured later in this book.

The first may be of particular interest to you.

*The term *statistician* is used to describe so many different kinds of occupations that it has ceased to have any meaning. It is used, for example, to describe a person who calculates baseball statistics as well as an individual educated in statistical principles. We will describe the former as a *statistics practitioner* and the

(continued)

EXAMPLE 3.3

Business Statistics Marks (See Chapter 3)

Students enrolled in a business program are attending their first class of the required statistics course. The students are somewhat apprehensive because they believe the myth that the course is difficult. To alleviate their anxiety, the professor provides a list of the final marks, which are composed of term work plus the final exam. What information can students obtain from the list?

This is a typical statistics problem. The students have the data (marks) and need to apply statistical techniques to get the information they require. This is a function of **descriptive statistics**.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics deals with methods of organizing, summarizing, and presenting data in a convenient and informative way. One form of descriptive statistics uses graphical techniques that allow statistics practitioners to present data in ways that make it easy for the reader to extract useful information. In Chapters 2 and 3 we will present a variety of graphical methods.

Another form of descriptive statistics uses numerical techniques to summarize data. One such method that you have already used frequently calculates the average or mean. In the same way that you calculate the average age of the employees of a company, we can compute the mean mark of last year's statistics course. Chapter 4 introduces several numerical statistical measures that describe different features of the data.

The actual technique we use depends on what specific information we would like to extract. In this example, we can see at least three important pieces of information. The first is the "typical" mark. We call this a *measure of central location*. The average is one such measure. In Chapter 4, we will introduce another useful measure of central location, the median. Suppose that students were told that the average mark last year was 67. Is this enough information to reduce their anxiety? Students would likely respond "No" because they would like to know whether most of the marks were close to 67 or were scattered far below and above the average. They need a *measure of variability*. The simplest such measure is the *range*, which is calculated by subtracting the smallest number from the largest. Suppose the largest mark is 96 and the smallest is 24. Unfortunately, this provides little information since it is based on only two marks. We need other measures—these will be introduced in Chapter 4. Moreover, the students must determine more about the marks. In particular, they need to know how the marks are distributed between 24 and 96. The best way to do this is to use a graphical technique, the histogram, which will be introduced in Chapter 3.

latter as a *statistician*. A statistics practitioner is a person who uses statistical techniques properly. Examples of statistics practitioners include the following:

1. a financial analyst who develops stock portfolios based on historical rates of return;
2. an economist who uses statistical models to help explain and predict variables such as inflation rate, unemployment rate, and changes in the gross domestic product; and
3. a market researcher who surveys consumers and converts the responses into useful information.

Our goal in this book is to convert you into one such capable individual.

The term *statistician* refers to individuals who work with the mathematics of statistics. Their work involves research that develops techniques and concepts, which in the future may help the statistics practitioner. Statisticians are also statistics practitioners, frequently conducting empirical research and consulting. If you're taking a statistics course, your instructor is probably a statistician.

Case 12.1 Pepsi's Exclusivity Agreement with a University (see Chapter 12) In the last few years, colleges and universities have signed exclusivity agreements with a variety of private companies. These agreements bind the university to sell these companies' products exclusively on the campus. Many of the agreements involve food and beverage firms.

A large university with a total enrollment of about 50,000 students has offered Pepsi-Cola an exclusivity agreement that would give Pepsi exclusive rights to sell its products at all university facilities for the next year with an option for future years. In return, the university would receive 35% of the on-campus revenues and an additional lump sum of \$200,000 per year. Pepsi has been given 2 weeks to respond.

The management at Pepsi quickly reviews what it knows. The market for soft drinks is measured in terms of 12-ounce cans. Pepsi currently sells an average of 22,000 cans per week over the 40 weeks of the year that the university operates. The cans sell for an average of one dollar each. The costs, including labor, total 30 cents per can. Pepsi is unsure of its market share but suspects it is considerably less than 50%. A quick analysis reveals that if its current market share were 25%, then, with an exclusivity agreement, Pepsi would sell 88,000 (22,000 is 25% of 88,000) cans per week or 3,520,000 cans per year. The gross revenue would be computed as follows[†]:

$$\text{Gross revenue} = 3,520,000 \times \$1.00/\text{can} = \$3,520,000$$

This figure must be multiplied by 65% because the university would rake in 35% of the gross. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Gross revenue after deducting 35\% university take} \\ = 65\% \times \$3,520,000 = \$2,288,000 \end{aligned}$$

The total cost of 30 cents per can (or \$1,056,000) and the annual payment to the university of \$200,000 are subtracted to obtain the net profit:

$$\text{Net profit} = \$2,288,000 - \$1,056,000 - \$200,000 = \$1,032,000$$

Pepsi's current annual profit is

$$40 \text{ weeks} \times 22,000 \text{ cans/week} \times \$0.70 = \$616,000$$

If the current market share is 25%, the potential gain from the agreement is

$$\$1,032,000 - \$616,000 = \$416,000$$

The only problem with this analysis is that Pepsi does not know how many soft drinks are sold weekly at the university. Coke is not likely to supply Pepsi with information about its sales, which together with Pepsi's line of products constitute virtually the entire market.

Pepsi assigned a recent university graduate to survey the university's students to supply the missing information. Accordingly, the student organizes a survey that asks 500 students to keep track of the number of soft drinks they purchase in the next 7 days. The responses are stored in a file C12-01 available to be downloaded.

Inferential Statistics

The information we would like to acquire in Case 12.1 is an estimate of annual profits from the exclusivity agreement. The data are the numbers of cans of soft drinks consumed in 7 days by the 500 students in the sample. We can use descriptive techniques to

[†]We have created an Excel spreadsheet that does the calculations for this case. See Appendix 1 for instructions on how to download this spreadsheet from Cengage's website plus hundreds of data sets and much more.

learn more about the data. In this case, however, we are not so much interested in what the 500 students are reporting as in knowing the mean number of soft drinks consumed by all 50,000 students on campus. To accomplish this goal we need another branch of statistics: **inferential statistics**.

Inferential statistics is a body of methods used to draw conclusions or inferences about characteristics of populations based on sample data. The population in question in this case is the university's 50,000 students. The characteristic of interest is the soft drink consumption of this population. The cost of interviewing each student in the population would be prohibitive and extremely time consuming. Statistical techniques make such endeavors unnecessary. Instead, we can sample a much smaller number of students (the sample size is 500) and infer from the data the number of soft drinks consumed by all 50,000 students. We can then estimate annual profits for Pepsi.

EXAMPLE 12.5

Exit Polls (See Chapter 12)

When an election for political office takes place, the television networks cancel regular programming to provide election coverage. After the ballots are counted, the results are reported. However, for important offices such as president or senator in large states, the networks actively compete to see which one will be the first to predict a winner. This is done through **exit polls** in which a random sample of voters who exit the polling booth are asked for whom they voted. From the data, the sample proportion of voters supporting the candidates is computed. A statistical technique is applied to determine whether there is enough evidence to infer that the leading candidate will garner enough votes to win. Suppose that the exit poll results from the state of Florida during the year 2000 elections were recorded. Although several candidates were running for president, the exit pollsters recorded only the votes of the two candidates who had any chance of winning: Republican George W. Bush and Democrat Albert Gore. The results (765 people who voted for either Bush or Gore) were stored in file Xm12-05. The network analysts would like to know whether they can conclude that George W. Bush will win the state of Florida.

Example 12.5 describes a common application of statistical inference. The population the television networks wanted to make inferences about is the approximately 5 million Floridians who voted for Bush or Gore for president. The sample consisted of the 765 people randomly selected by the polling company who voted for either of the two main candidates. The characteristic of the population that we would like to know is the proportion of the Florida total electorate that voted for Bush. Specifically, we would like to know whether more than 50% of the electorate voted for Bush (counting only those who voted for either the Republican or Democratic candidate). It must be made clear that we cannot predict the outcome with 100% certainty because we will not ask all 5 million actual voters for whom they voted. This is a fact that statistics practitioners and even students of statistics must understand. A sample that is only a small fraction of the size of the population can lead to correct inferences only a certain percentage of the time. You will find that statistics practitioners can control that fraction and usually set it between 90% and 99%.

Incidentally, on the night of the U.S. election in November 2000, the networks goofed badly. Using exit polls as well as the results of previous elections, all four networks concluded at about 8 P.M. that Al Gore would win Florida. Shortly after 10 P.M., with a large percentage of the actual vote having been counted, the networks reversed course and declared that George W. Bush would win the state. By 2 A.M., another verdict was declared: The result was too close to call. Since then, this experience has likely been used by statistics instructors when teaching how *not* to use statistics.

Notice that, contrary to what you probably believed, data are not necessarily numbers. The marks in Example 3.3 and the number of soft drinks consumed in a week in Case 12.1, of course, are numbers; however, the votes in Example 12.5 are not. In Chapter 2, we will discuss the different types of data you will encounter in statistical applications and how to deal with them.

1-1 / KEY STATISTICAL CONCEPTS

Statistical inference problems involve three key concepts: the population, the sample, and the statistical inference. We now discuss each of these concepts in more detail.

1-1a Population

A **population** is the group of all items of interest to a statistics practitioner. It is frequently very large and may, in fact, be infinitely large. In the language of statistics, *population* does not necessarily refer to a group of people. It may, for example, refer to the population of ball bearings produced at a large plant. In Case 12.1, the population of interest consists of the 50,000 students on campus. In Example 12.5, the population consists of the Floridians who voted for Bush or Gore.

A descriptive measure of a population is called a **parameter**. The parameter of interest in Case 12.1 is the mean number of soft drinks consumed by all the students at the university. The parameter in Example 12.5 is the proportion of the 5 million Florida voters who voted for Bush. In most applications of inferential statistics, the parameter represents the information we need.

1-1b Sample

A **sample** is a set of data drawn from the studied population. A descriptive measure of a sample is called a **statistic**. We use statistics to make inferences about parameters. In Case 12.1, the statistic we would compute is the mean number of soft drinks consumed in the last week by the 500 students in the sample. We would then use the sample mean to infer the value of the population mean, which is the parameter of interest in this problem. In Example 12.5, we compute the proportion of the sample of 765 Floridians who voted for Bush. The sample statistic is then used to make inferences about the population of all 5 million votes—that is, we predict the election results even before the actual count.

1-1c Statistical Inference

Statistical inference is the process of making an estimate, prediction, or decision about a population based on sample data. Because populations are almost always very large, investigating each member of the population would be impractical and expensive. It is far easier and cheaper to take a sample from the population of interest and draw conclusions or make estimates about the population on the basis of information provided by the sample. However, such conclusions and estimates are not always going to be correct. For this reason, we build into the statistical inference a measure of reliability. There are two such measures: the **confidence level** and the **significance level**. The *confidence level* is the proportion of times that an estimating procedure will be correct. For example, in Case 12.1, we will produce an estimate of the average number of soft drinks to be consumed by all 50,000 students that has a confidence level of 95%. In other words,

estimates based on this form of statistical inference will be correct 95% of the time. When the purpose of the statistical inference is to draw a conclusion about a population, the *significance level* measures how frequently the conclusion will be wrong. For example, suppose that, as a result of the analysis in Example 12.5, we conclude that more than 50% of the electorate will vote for George W. Bush, and thus he will win the state of Florida. A 5% significance level means that samples that lead us to conclude that Bush wins the election will be wrong 5% of the time.

1-2 / STATISTICAL APPLICATIONS IN BUSINESS

An important function of statistics courses in business and economics programs is to demonstrate that statistical analysis plays an important role in virtually all aspects of business and economics. We intend to do so through examples, exercises, and cases. However, we assume that most students taking their first statistics course have not taken courses in most of the other subjects in management programs. To understand fully how statistics is used in these and other subjects, it is necessary to know something about them. To provide sufficient background to understand the statistical application, we introduce applications in accounting, economics, finance, human resources management, marketing, and operations management. We provide readers with some background of these applications by describing their functions in two ways.

1-2a Application Sections and Subsections

We feature five sections that describe statistical applications in the functional areas of business. In Section 4-5, we discuss an application in finance, the market model, which introduces an important concept in investing. Section 7-3 describes another application in finance that describes a financial analyst's use of probability and statistics to construct portfolios that decrease risk. Section 12-4 is an application in marketing, market segmentation. In Section 14-6, we present an application in operations management, finding and reducing variation. In Section 18-3, we provide an application in human resources, pay equity. A subsection in Section 6-4 presents an application in medical testing (useful in the medical insurance industry).

1-2b Application Boxes

For other topics that require less-detailed description, we provide application boxes with a relatively brief description of the background followed by examples or exercises. These boxes are scattered throughout the book. For example, in Section 4-1, we discuss the geometric mean and why it is used instead of the arithmetic mean to measure variables that are rates of change.

1-3 / LARGE REAL DATA SETS

The author believes that you learn statistics by doing statistics. For their lives after college and university, we expect graduates to have access to large amounts of real data that must be summarized to acquire the information needed to make decisions. We include the data from two sources: the General Social Survey (GSS) and the Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF). We have scattered examples, exercises, and cases for these surveys throughout the book.

1-3a General Social Survey

Since 1972, the GSS has been tracking American attitudes on a wide variety of topics. With the exception of the U.S. Census, the GSS is the most frequently used source of information about American society. The surveys are conducted every second year and feature hundreds of variables and thousands of observations. The data for the 10 most recent surveys are stored in files GSS2000, GSS2002, GSS2004, GSS2006, GSS2008, GSS2010, GSS2012, GSS2014, GSS2016, and GSS2018. The sample sizes are 2,817, 2,765, 2,812, 4,510, 2,023, 2,044, 1,974, 2,538, 2,868, and 2,348, respectively. We downloaded the variables that we think would be of interest to students of business and economics only. We removed the missing data codes representing “No answer,” and “Don’t know,” for most variables and replaced them with blanks.

A list of all the variables and their definitions is available as an online appendix.

1-3b Survey of Consumer Finances

The SCF is conducted every 3 years to provide detailed information on the finances of U.S. households. The study is sponsored by the Federal Reserve Board in cooperation with the Department of the Treasury. Since 1992, data have been collected by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) at the University of Chicago. The data for the five most recent surveys are stored in folders SCF2007, SCF2010, SCF2013, SCF2016, and SCF2019. The sample sizes are 4,417, 6,482, 6,015, 6,248, and 5,777, respectively. As we did with the General Social Surveys, we downloaded only a fraction of the variables in the original surveys. Because the samples are so large and the range of some of the variables so wide, there are problems summarizing and describing the data. To solve the problem, we have created subsamples based on percentiles of the net worth of the households being sampled. Here is a list of the subsamples.

L20: Lowest 20%

Lower Middle Class (LMC): 20%–40%

Middle Class (MC): 40%–60%

Upper Middle Class (UMC): 60%–80%

Upper Class (UC): 80%–90%

Wealthy (W): 90%–95%

Super Rich (SR): 95%–99%

T1: Top 1%

A complete list of the variables and their definitions is available as an online appendix.

1-4 / STATISTICS AND THE COMPUTER

In virtually all applications of statistics, the statistics practitioner must deal with large amounts of data. For example, Case 12.1 (Pepsi-Cola) involves 500 observations. To estimate annual profits, the statistics practitioner would have to perform computations on the data. Although the calculations do not require any great mathematical skill, the sheer amount of arithmetic makes this aspect of the statistical method time consuming and tedious. Fortunately, numerous commercially prepared computer programs are

available to perform the arithmetic. We have chosen to use Microsoft Excel in the belief that virtually all university graduates use it now and will in the future.

Additionally, we have included chapter appendixes (for Chapters 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 19) displaying output and step-by-step instructions for two popular statistical software packages, XLSTAT and Stata. This will allow instructors to use any one of Excel, XLSTAT, and Stata without requiring students to acquire instruction manuals.

1-4a Excel

Excel can perform statistical procedures in several ways.

1. **Statistical** (which includes probability) and other functions f_x : We use some of these functions to draw graphs and charts in Chapter 2, calculate statistics in Chapters 4 and 15, and to compute probabilities in Chapters 7 and 8.
2. **Analysis ToolPak**: This group of procedures comes with every version of Excel. The techniques are accessed by clicking Data and Data Analysis. One of its drawbacks is that it does not offer a complete set of the statistical techniques we introduce in this book. The methods not included with Data Analysis will be performed by Excel spreadsheets and Do It Yourself Excel.
3. **Spreadsheets**: We use statistical functions to create spreadsheets that calculate statistical inference methods in Chapters 10–16 and 19. These can be downloaded from Cengage’s website. Additionally, the spreadsheets can be used to conduct what-if analyses. The rationale for their use is described in subsection 1-4d.
4. **Do It Yourself**: We provide step-by-step instructions on how to use Excel to perform the remaining inference methods.

1-4b File Names and Notation

A large proportion of the examples, exercises, and cases feature large data sets. These are denoted with the file name next to the exercise number. The data sets associated with examples are denoted as X_m . To illustrate, the data for Example 2.2 are stored in file X_{m02-02} in the Chapter 2 folder. The data for exercises and cases are stored in files prefixed by X_r and C , respectively. The prefixes GSS and SCF designate data from the General Social Surveys and Surveys of Consumer Finances, respectively.

In many real applications of statistics, additional data are collected. For instance, in Example 12.5, the pollster often records the gender and asks for other information including race, religion, education, and income. In later chapters we will return to these files and require other statistical techniques to extract the needed information. Files that contain additional data are denoted by a plus sign on the file name.

1-4c Our Approach

The approach we prefer to take is to minimize the time spent on manual computations and to focus instead on selecting the appropriate method for dealing with a problem and on interpreting the output after the computer has performed the necessary computations. In this way, we hope to demonstrate that statistics can be as interesting and as practical as any other subject in your curriculum.

1-4d Excel Spreadsheets

Books written for statistics courses taken by mathematics or statistics majors are considerably different from this one. It is not surprising that such courses feature mathematical proofs of theorems and derivations of most procedures. When the material is covered in this way, the underlying concepts that support statistical inference are exposed and relatively easy to see. However, this book was created for an applied course in business and economics statistics. Consequently, we do not address directly the mathematical principles of statistics. However, as we pointed out previously, one of the most important functions of statistics practitioners is to properly interpret statistical results, whether produced manually or by computer. And, to correctly interpret statistics, students require an understanding of the principles of statistics.

To help students understand the basic foundation, we offer readers Excel spreadsheets that allow for *what-if* analyses. By changing some of the input value, students can see for themselves how statistics works. (The term is derived from *what* happens to the statistics *if* I change this value.)

CHAPTER SUMMARY

IMPORTANT TERMS:

Descriptive statistics	2
Inferential statistics	4
Exit polls	4
Population	5
Parameter	5

Sample	5
Statistic	5
Statistical inference	5
Confidence level	5
Significance level	5

CHAPTER EXERCISES

- 1.1 In your own words, define and give an example of each of the following statistical terms.
 - a. population
 - b. sample
 - c. parameter
 - d. statistic
 - e. statistical inference
- 1.2 Briefly describe the difference between descriptive statistics and inferential statistics.
- 1.3 A politician who is running for the office of mayor of a city with 25,000 registered voters commissions a survey. In the survey, 48% of the 200 registered voters interviewed say they plan to vote for the politician.
 - a. What is the population of interest?
 - b. What is the sample?
 - c. Is the value 48% a parameter or a statistic? Explain.
- 1.4 A manufacturer of computer chips claims that less than 10% of its products are defective. When 1,000 chips were drawn from a large production, 7.5% were found to be defective.
 - a. What is the population of interest?
 - b. What is the sample?
 - c. What is the parameter?
 - d. What is the statistic?
 - e. Does the value 10% refer to the parameter or to the statistic?
 - f. Is the value 7.5% a parameter or a statistic?
 - g. Explain briefly how the statistic can be used to make inferences about the parameter to test the claim.
- 1.5 Suppose you believe that, in general, graduates who have majored in *your* subject are offered higher salaries upon graduating than are graduates of other programs. Describe a statistical experiment that could help test your belief.