

FUNDAMENTALS OF STATISTICS

INFORMED DECISIONS USING DATA 5e

Michael Sullivan, III



Sullivan's Pathway to Making an Informed Decision

Begin your journey...

- **Making an Informed Decision** projects at the start of each chapter allow you to work with data in order to make informed decisions that impact your life.
- **Putting It Together** overviews show how material you are about to cover relates to prior material.

Preparation is key...

- **Preparing for This Section** lists all of the skills needed to be successful.
- **Preparing for This Section Quizzes** are available online to help you check your mastery.
- **Each Objective** is listed at the beginning of the section and then repeated in the text for easy reference.

Look at the model then practice, practice, practice...

- **Step-by-Step Annotated Examples** illustrate new concepts and methods in 3 steps:
 1. Problem
 2. Approach
 3. Solution
- **Examples** point to **Now Work Exercises** so you can solve similar exercises on your own.

Exercise Sets...

- **Putting It Together** exercises use skills you've acquired in various chapters. *(See facing page)*
- **You Explain It!** exercises ask you to provide an interpretation of statistical results.
- **Retain Your Knowledge** exercises help you to maintain the skills you have acquired earlier in the course.

Check where you've been and test your mastery...

- **Putting It Together Sections** require you to decide which technique to use. *(See facing page)*
- **End-of-Chapter Objectives** are listed with page references for easy review.
- **Chapter Tests** provide an opportunity to test your knowledge.

Apply yourself...

- **In-Class Activities** in the Student Activity Workbook allow you to experience statistics in a fun and exciting way by experiencing the process firsthand. *(See facing page for a list of applet activities)*
- **Making an Informed Decision** projects require you to use data and statistical techniques learned in the chapter to make important life decisions.
- **End-of-Chapter Case Studies** tie statistical concepts together within an interesting application.

Sullivan's Guide to Putting It Together

Sullivan's Guide to Putting It Together			
Putting It Together Sections	Objective		Page(s)
5.6 Putting It Together: Which Method Do I Use?	① Determine the appropriate probability rule to use		284–285
	② Determine the appropriate counting technique to use		285–287
9.3 Putting It Together: Which Method Do I Use?	① Determine the appropriate confidence interval to construct		420–421
10.4 Putting It Together: Which Method Do I Use?	① Determine the appropriate hypothesis test to perform (one sample)		460–461
11.4 Putting It Together: Which Method Do I Use?	① Determine the appropriate hypothesis test to perform (two samples)		502–503
Putting It Together Exercises	Skills Utilized	Section(s) Covered	Page(s)
1.2.24 Passive Smoke	Variables, observational studies, designed experiments	1.1, 1.2	21
1.4.37 Comparing Sampling Methods	Simple random sampling and other sampling techniques	1.3, 1.4	36
1.4.38 Thinking about Randomness	Random sampling	1.3, 1.4	36
2.1.29 Online Homework	Variables, designed experiments, bar graphs	1.1, 1.2, 1.6, 2.1	73
2.2.53 Time Viewing a Webpage	Graphing data	2.2	93
2.2.54 Which Graphical Summary?	Choosing the best graphical summary	2.1, 2.2	93
2.2.55 Shark!	Graphing data	2.2	93–94
3.1.41 Shape, Mean, and Median	Discrete vs. continuous data, histograms, shape of a distribution, mean, median, mode, bias	1.1, 1.4, 2.2, 3.1	123
3.5.17 Earthquakes	Mean, median, range, standard deviation, relative frequency histogram, boxplots, outliers	2.2, 3.1, 3.2, 3.4, 3.5	164
3.5.18 Paternal Smoking	Observational studies, designed experiments, lurking variables, mean, median, standard deviation, quartiles, boxplots	1.2, 1.6, 3.1, 3.2, 3.4, 3.5	164–165
4.2.29 Housing Prices	Scatter diagrams, correlation, linear regression	4.1, 4.2	201
4.2.30 Smoking and Birth Weight	Observational study vs. designed experiment, prospective studies, scatter diagrams, linear regression, correlation vs. causation, lurking variables	1.2, 4.1, 4.2	201–202
4.3.15 A Tornado Model	Explanatory and response variables, scatter diagrams, correlation, least-square regression, interpret slope, coefficient of determination, residual plots, residual analysis	4.1, 4.2, 4.3	207–208
4.3.16 Exam Scores	Building a linear model	4.1, 4.2, 4.3	208
5.1.54 Drug Side Effects	Variables, graphical summaries of data, experiments, probability	1.1, 1.6, 2.1, 5.1	243
5.2.44 Speeding Tickets	Contingency tables, marginal distributions, empirical probabilities	4.4, 5.1	254
5.2.45 Red Light Cameras	Variables, relative frequency distributions, bar graphs, mean, standard deviation, probability, Simpson's Paradox	1.1, 2.1, 3.1, 3.2, 4.4, 5.1, 5.2	254–255
6.1.35 Sullivan Statistics Survey I	Mean, standard deviation, probability, probability distributions	3.1, 3.2, 5.1, 6.1	308
6.2.53 Beating the Stock Market	Expected value, binomial probabilities	6.1, 6.2	323
7.2.52 Birth Weights	Relative frequency distribution, histograms, mean and standard deviation from grouped data, normal probabilities	2.1, 2.2, 3.3, 7.2	350
8.1.33 Playing Roulette	Probability distributions, mean and standard deviation of a random variable, sampling distributions	6.1, 8.1	378–379
9.1.47 Hand Washing	Observational studies, bias, confidence intervals	1.2, 1.5, 9.1	405
9.2.49 Smoking Cessation Study	Experimental design, confidence intervals	1.6, 9.1, 9.2	419
10.2.38 Lupus	Observational studies, retrospective vs. prospective studies, bar graphs, confidence intervals, hypothesis testing	1.2, 2.1, 9.1, 10.2	449
10.2.39 Naughty or Nice?	Experimental design, determining null and alternative hypotheses, binomial probabilities, interpreting P -values	1.6, 6.2, 10.1, 10.2	449
11.1.36 Salk Vaccine	Completely randomized design, hypothesis testing	1.6, 11.1	480
11.2.18 Glide Testing	Matched pairs design, hypothesis testing	1.6, 11.2	490

(continued)

Putting It Together Exercises	Skills Utilized	Section(s) Covered	Page(s)
11.3.23 Online Homework	Completely randomized design, confounding, hypothesis testing	1.6, 11.3	501–502
12.1.27 The V-2 Rocket in London	Mean of discrete data, expected value, Poisson probability distribution, goodness-of-fit	6.1, 6.3, 12.1	526
12.1.28 Weldon's Dice	Addition Rule for Disjoint Events, classical probability, goodness-of-Fit	5.1, 5.2, 12.1	526
12.2.21 Women, Aspirin, and Heart Attacks	Population, sample, variables, observational study vs. designed experiment, experimental design, compare two proportions, chi-square test of homogeneity	1.1, 1.2, 1.6, 11.1, 12.2	541
12.4.17	Scatter diagrams; correlation; least-squares regression; hypothesis tests on the slope; confidence and prediction intervals	4.1, 4.2, 12.3, 12.4	561

Updated for this edition is the Student Activity Workbook. The Activity Workbook includes many tactile activities for the classroom. In addition, the workbook includes activities based on statistical applets. Below is a list of the applet activities.

Applet	Section	Activity Name
Mean versus Median	3.1	Understanding Measures of Center
Standard Deviation	3.2	Exploring Standard Deviation
Correlation by Eye	4.1	Exploring Properties of the Linear Correlation Coefficient
Regression by Eye	4.2	Minimizing the Sum of the Squared Residuals
Regression Influence	4.2	Understanding Influential Observations
Rolling a Single Die	5.1	Demonstrating the Law of Large Numbers
Binomial Distribution	6.2	Exploring a Binomial Distribution from Multiple Perspectives
Baseball Applet	6.2	Using Binomial Probabilities in Baseball
Sampling Distributions	8.1	Sampling from Normal and Non-normal Populations
Sampling Distributions Binary	8.2	Describing the Distribution of the Sample Proportion
Confidence Intervals for a Proportion	9.1	Exploring the Effects of Confidence Level, Sample Size, and Shape I
Confidence Intervals for a Mean	9.2	Exploring the Effects of Confidence Level, Sample Size, and Shape II
Political Poll Applet	10.2	The Logic of Hypothesis Testing
Hypothesis Tests for a Proportion	10.2	Understanding Type I Error Rates
Cola Applet	10.2	Testing Cola Preferences
Hypothesis Tests for a Mean	10.3	Understanding Type I Error Rates
Randomization Test Warts	11.1	Making an Inference about Two Proportions
Randomization Test Basketball	11.2	Predicting Basketball Game Outcomes
Randomization Test Sentence	11.2	Considering the Effects of Grammar
Randomization Test Kiss	11.2	Analyzing Kiss Data
Randomization Test Algebra	11.3	Using Randomization Test for Independent Means
Randomization Test Market	11.3	Comparing Bull and Bear Markets
Randomization Test Zillow	12.3	Using a Randomization Test for Correlation
Randomization Test Brain Size	12.3	Using a Randomization Test for Correlation

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To My Wife Yolanda
and My Children
Michael, Kevin, and Marissa

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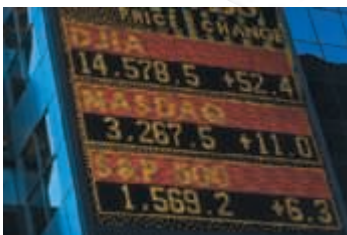
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Preface to the Instructor

Capturing a Powerful and Exciting Discipline in a Textbook

Statistics is a powerful subject, and it is one of my passions. Bringing my passion for the subject together with my desire to create a text that would work for me, my students, and my school led me to write the first edition of this textbook. It continues to motivate me as I reflect on changes in students, in the statistics community, and in the world around us.

When I started writing, I used the manuscript of this text in class. My students provided valuable, insightful feedback, and I made adjustments based on their comments. In many respects, this text was written by students and for students. I also received constructive feedback from a wide range of statistics faculty, which has refined ideas in the book and in my teaching. I continue to receive valuable feedback from both faculty and students, and this text continues to evolve with the goal of providing clear, concise, and readable explanations, while challenging students to think statistically.

In writing this edition, I continue to make a special effort to abide by the Guidelines for Assessment and Instruction in Statistics Education (GAISE) for the college introductory course endorsed by the American Statistical Association (ASA). The GAISE Report, which has been updated in 2016, gives six recommendations for the course:

1. Emphasize statistical literacy and develop statistical thinking
2. Use real data in teaching statistics
3. Stress conceptual understanding
4. Foster active learning
5. Use technology for developing conceptual understanding
6. Use assessments to improve and evaluate student learning

Changes to this edition and the hallmark features of the text reflect a strong adherence to these important GAISE guidelines.

Putting It Together

When students are learning statistics, often they struggle with seeing the big picture of how it all fits together. One of my goals is to help students learn not just the important concepts and methods of statistics but also how to put them together.

At the front of the text, you'll see a pathway that provides a guide for students as they navigate through the process of learning statistics. The features and chapter organization in the fifth edition reinforce this important process.

New to This Edition

- **Over 350 New and Updated Exercises** The fifth edition makes a concerted effort to require students to write a few sentences that explain the results of their statistical

analysis. To reflect this effort, the answers in the back of the text provide recommended explanations of the statistical results. In addition, exercises have been written to require students to understand pitfalls in faulty statistical analysis.

- **Over 100 New and Updated Examples** The examples continue to engage and provide clear, concise explanations for the students while following the Problem, Approach, Solution presentation. Problem lays out the scenario of the example, Approach provides insight into the thought process behind the methodology used to solve the problem, and Solution goes through the solution utilizing the methodology suggested in the approach.
- **Videos** The suite of videos available with this edition has been extensively updated. Featuring the author and George Woodbury, there are both instructional videos that develop statistical concepts and example videos. Most example videos have both by-hand solutions and technology solutions (where applicable). In addition, each Chapter Test problem has video solutions available.
- **Retain Your Knowledge** A new problem type. The Retain Your Knowledge problems occur periodically at the end of section exercises. These problems are meant to assist students in retaining skills learned earlier in the course so that the material is fresh for the final exam.
- **Big Data Problems** Data is ubiquitous today. The ability to collect data from a variety of sources has resulted in very large data sets. While analysis of data sets with tens of thousands of observations with thousands of variables is not practical at the introductory level, it is important for students to analyze data sets with more than fifty observations. These problems are marked with a 📊 icon and the data is available at www.pearsonhighered.com/sullivanstats.
- **Technology Help in MyStatLab** Problems in MyStatLab that may be analyzed using statistical packages now have an updated technology help feature. Marked with a ? icon, this feature provides step-by-step instructions on how to obtain results using StatCrunch, TI-84 Plus/TI-84 Plus C, and Excel.
- **Instructor Resource Guide** The Instructor Resource Guide provides an overview of the chapter. It also details points to emphasize within each section and suggestions for presenting the material. In addition, the guide provides examples that may be used in the classroom.

Hallmark Features

- **Student Activity Workbook** The updated activity workbook contains many in-class activities that may be used to enhance your students' conceptual understanding of statistical concepts. The activities involve many tactile and applet-based simulations. Applets for the activities may be found at www.pearsonhighered.com/sullivanstats. In addition, the activity workbook

includes many exercises that introduce **simulation** and **randomization methods** for statistical inference.

- Chapter 10 has simulation techniques that are powerful introductions to the logic of hypothesis testing. There are two activities that utilize simulation techniques. It also contains an activity on using Bootstrapping to test hypotheses for a single mean.
- Chapter 11 has randomization techniques for analyzing the difference of two proportions and the difference of two means. There are four activities for analyzing the difference of two proportions and two activities for analyzing the difference of two means.
- Chapter 12 has randomization techniques for analyzing the strength of association between two quantitative variables. There are two activities for a randomization test for correlation.

The workbook is accompanied by an instructor resource guide with suggestions for incorporating the activities into class.

- Because the use of **Real Data** piques student interest and helps show the relevance of statistics, great efforts have been made to extensively incorporate real data in the exercises and examples.
- **Putting It Together** sections appear in Chapters 5, 9, 10, and 11. The problems in these sections are meant to help students identify the correct approach to solving a problem. Many new exercises have been added to these sections that mix in inferential techniques from previous sections. Plus, there are new problems that require students to identify the inferential technique that may be used to answer the research objective (but no analysis is required). For example, see Problems 23 to 25 in Section 10.4.
- **Step-by-Step Annotated Examples** guide a student from problem to solution in three easy-to-follow steps.
- **“Now Work”** problems follow most examples so students can practice the concepts shown.
- Multiple types of **Exercises** are used at the end of sections and chapters to test varying skills with progressive levels of difficulty. These exercises include **Vocabulary and Skill Building**, **Applying the Concepts**, and **Explaining the Concepts**.
- **Chapter Review** sections include:
 - **Chapter Summary**.
 - A list of key chapter **Vocabulary**.
 - A list of **Formulas** used in the chapter.
 - **Chapter Objectives** listed with corresponding review exercises.
 - **Review Exercises** with all answers available in the back of the book.
 - **Chapter Test** with all answers available in the back of the book. In addition, the Chapter Test problems have **video solutions** available.

Integration of Technology

This book can be used with or without technology. Should you choose to integrate technology in the course, the following resources are available for your students:

- Technology Step-by-Step guides are included in applicable sections that show how to use Minitab®, Excel®, the TI-83/84, and StatCrunch to complete statistics processes.
- Any problem that has 12 or more observations in the data set has a 📊 icon indicating that data set is included on the companion website (<http://www.pearsonhighered.com/sullivanstats>) in various formats. Any problem that has a 📊 icon, which also indicates that the data set is included on the companion website. These data sets have many observations and often many variables.
- Where applicable, exercises and examples incorporate output screens from various software including Minitab, the TI-83/84 Plus C, Excel, and StatCrunch.
- Twenty new Applets are included on the companion website and connected with certain activities from the Student Activity Workbook, allowing students to manipulate data and interact with animations. See the front inside cover for a list of applets.
- Accompanying Technology Manuals are available that contain detailed tutorial instructions and worked out examples and exercises for the TI-83/84 and TI-89 and Excel.

Companion Website Contents

- Data Sets
- Twenty new Applets (See description on the insert in front of the text.)
- Formula Cards and Tables in PDF format
- Additional Topics Folder including:
 - Review of Lines
 - Estimating a Population Standard Deviation
 - Hypothesis Tests for a Population Standard Deviation
 - Inference about Two Population Proportions: Dependent Samples
 - Inference about Two Population Standard Deviations
 - Comparing Three or More Means (One-Way Analysis of Variance)
- A copy of the questions asked on the Sullivan Statistics Survey I and Survey II
- Consumer Reports projects that were formerly in the text
- Case Studies for each chapter

Key Chapter Content Changes

Chapter 1 Data Collection

The chapter now includes an expanded discussion of confounding, including a distinction between lurking variables and confounding variables.

Chapter 4 Describing the Relation between Two Variables

The conditional bar graphs in Section 4.4 have been drawn so that each category of the explanatory variable is grouped. This allows the student to see the complete distribution of each category of the explanatory variable. In addition, the material now includes stacked (or segmented) conditional bar graphs.

Chapter 6 Discrete Probability Distributions

The graphical representation of discrete probability distributions no longer is presented as a probability histogram. Instead, the graph of a discrete probability distribution is presented to emphasize that the data is discrete. Therefore, the graph of discrete probability distributions is drawn using vertical lines above each value of the random variable to a height that is the probability of the random variable.

Chapter 7 The Normal Probability Distribution

The assessment of normality of a random variable using normal probability plots has changed. We no longer rely on normal probability plots drawn using Minitab. Instead, we utilize the correlation between the observed data and normal scores. This approach is based upon the research of S.W. Looney and T. R. Gullidge in their paper, “Use of the Correlation Coefficient with Normal Probability Plots,” published in the *American Statistician*. This material may be skipped without loss of continuity (especially for those who postponed the material in Chapter 4). Some problems from Chapter 9 through 13 may need to be skipped or edited, however.

Chapter 9 Estimating the Value of a Parameter

The Putting It Together section went through an extensive renovation of the exercises. Emphasis is placed on identifying the variable of interest in the study (in particular, whether the variable is qualitative or quantitative). In addition, there are problems that simply require the student to identify the type of interval that could be constructed to address the research concerns.

Chapter 10 Hypothesis Testing Regarding a Parameter

The Putting It Together section went through an extensive revision. Again, emphasis is placed on identifying the variable of interest in the study. The exercises include a mix

of hypothesis tests and confidence intervals. Plus, there are problems that require the student to identify the type of inference that could be constructed to address the research.

Chapter 11 Inference on Two Samples

The material on inference for two dependent population proportions is now covered in Section B.4 utilizing the chi-square distribution. As in Chapter 9 and Chapter 10, the Putting It Together section’s exercises were revised extensively. There is a healthy mix of two-sample and single-sample analysis (both hypothesis tests and confidence intervals). This will help students to develop the ability to determine the type of analysis required for a given research objective.

Chapter 12 Comparing Three or More Means

In Section 12.2, we now emphasize how to distinguish between the chi-square test for independence and the chi-square test for homogeneity of proportions.

Flexible to Work with Your Syllabus

To meet the varied needs of diverse syllabi, this book has been organized to be flexible.

You will notice the “Preparing for This Section” material at the beginning of each section, which will tip you off to dependencies within the course. The two most common variations within an introductory statistics course are the treatment of regression analysis and the treatment of probability.

- **Coverage of Correlation and Regression** The text was written with the descriptive portion of bivariate data (Chapter 4) presented after the descriptive portion of univariate data (Chapter 3). Instructors who prefer to postpone the discussion of bivariate data can skip Chapter 4 and return to it before covering Section 12.3.
- **Coverage of Probability** The text allows for light to extensive coverage of probability. Instructors wishing to minimize probability may cover Section 5.1 and skip the remaining sections. A mid-level treatment of probability can be accomplished by covering Sections 5.1 through 5.3. Instructors who will cover the chi-square test for independence will want to cover Sections 5.1 through 5.3. In addition, an instructor who will cover binomial probabilities will want to cover independence in Section 5.3 and combinations in Section 5.5.

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Approximating the Mean and Standard Deviation from Grouped Data

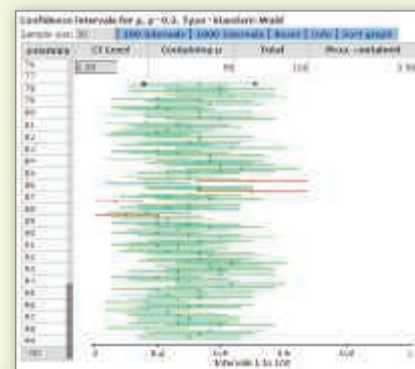
1. If necessary, enter the summarized data into the spreadsheet. Name the columns.
2. Select Stat, highlight Summary Stats, and select Grouped/Binned data.
3. Choose the column that contains the class under the "Bins in:" drop-down menu. Choose the column that contains the frequencies in the "Counts in:" drop-down menu. Select the "Consecutive lower limits" radio button for defining the midpoints. Click Compute!

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Full access to StatCrunch is available with a MyStatLab kit, and StatCrunch is available by itself to qualified adopters. StatCrunch Mobile is also now available; just visit www.statcrunch.com from the browser on your smart phone or tablet. For more information, visit our website at www.statcrunch.com, or contact your Pearson representative.

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(ISBN-10: 0-13-450992-7; ISBN 13: 978-0-13-450992-1)

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PART

1

Getting the Information You Need

CHAPTER 1

Data Collection

Statistics is a process—a series of steps that leads to a goal. This text is divided into four parts to help the reader see the process of statistics.

Part 1 focuses on the first step in the process, which is to determine the research objective or question to be answered. Then information is obtained to answer the questions stated in the research objective.

1

Data Collection

Outline

- 1.1 Introduction to the Practice of Statistics
- 1.2 Observational Studies versus Designed Experiments
- 1.3 Simple Random Sampling
- 1.4 Other Effective Sampling Methods
- 1.5 Bias in Sampling
- 1.6 The Design of Experiments

Making an Informed Decision



It is your senior year of high school. You will have a lot of exciting experiences in the upcoming year, plus a major decision to make—which college should I attend? The choice you make may affect many aspects of your life—your career, where you live, your significant other, and so on, so you don't want to simply choose the college that everyone else picks. You need to design a questionnaire to help you make an informed decision about college. In addition, you want to know how well the college you are considering educates its students. See *Making an Informed Decision* on page 57.

PUTTING IT TOGETHER

Statistics plays a major role in many aspects of our lives. It is used in sports, for example, to help a general manager decide which player might be the best fit for a team. It is used in politics to help candidates understand how the public feels about various policies. And statistics is used in medicine to help determine the effectiveness of new drugs.

Used appropriately, statistics can enhance our understanding of the world around us. Used inappropriately, it can lend support to inaccurate beliefs. Understanding statistical methods will provide you with the ability to analyze and critique studies and the opportunity to become an informed consumer of information. Understanding statistical methods will also enable you to distinguish solid analysis from bogus “facts.”

To help you understand the features of this text and for hints to help you study, read the *Pathway to Success* on the front inside cover of the text.

1.1 Introduction to the Practice of Statistics

- Objectives**
- 1 Define statistics and statistical thinking
 - 2 Explain the process of statistics
 - 3 Distinguish between qualitative and quantitative variables
 - 4 Distinguish between discrete and continuous variables
 - 5 Determine the level of measurement of a variable

1 Define Statistics and Statistical Thinking

What is statistics? Many people say that statistics is numbers. After all, we are bombarded by numbers that supposedly represent how we feel and who we are. For example, we hear on the radio that 50% of first marriages, 67% of second marriages, and 74% of third marriages end in divorce (Forest Institute of Professional Psychology, Springfield, MO).

Another interesting consideration about the “facts” we hear or read is that two different sources can report two different results. For example, a November 10, 2015 poll by CBS News and the *New York Times* indicated that 62% of Americans believed the country was on the wrong track. However, a November 17, 2015 poll by *Bloomberg* indicated that 69% of Americans believed the country was on the wrong track. Is it possible that the percent of Americans who believe the country is on the wrong track could increase by 7% in one week, or is something else going on? Statistics helps to provide the answer.

Certainly, statistics has a lot to do with numbers, but this definition is only partially correct. Statistics is also about where the numbers come from (that is, how they were obtained) and how closely the numbers reflect reality.

Definition **Statistics** is the science of collecting, organizing, summarizing, and analyzing information to draw conclusions or answer questions. In addition, statistics is about providing a measure of confidence in any conclusions.

Let’s break this definition into four parts. The first part states that statistics involves the collection of information. The second refers to the organization and summarization of information. The third states that the information is analyzed to draw conclusions or answer specific questions. The fourth part states that results should be reported using some measure that represents how convinced we are that our conclusions reflect reality.

What is the information referred to in the definition? The information is **data**, which the *American Heritage Dictionary* defines as “a fact or proposition used to draw a conclusion or make a decision.” Data can be numerical, as in height, or nonnumerical, as in gender. In either case, data describe characteristics of an individual.

Analysis of data can lead to powerful results. Data can be used to offset anecdotal claims, such as the suggestion that cellular telephones cause brain cancer. After carefully collecting, summarizing, and analyzing data regarding this phenomenon, it was determined that there is no link between cell phone usage and brain cancer. See Examples 1 and 2 in Section 1.2.

Because data are powerful, they can be dangerous when misused. The misuse of data usually occurs when data are incorrectly obtained or analyzed. For example, radio or television talk shows regularly ask poll questions for which respondents must call in or use the Internet to supply their vote. Most likely, the individuals who are going to call in are those who have a strong opinion about the topic. This group is not likely to be representative of people in general, so the results of the poll are not meaningful. Whenever we look at data, we should be mindful of where the data come from.

In Other Words

Anecdotal means that the information being conveyed is based on casual observation, not scientific research.

Even when data tell us that a relation exists, we need to investigate. For example, a study showed that breast-fed children have higher IQs than those who were not breast-fed. Does this study mean that a mother who breast-feeds her child will increase the child's IQ? Not necessarily. It may be that some factor other than breast-feeding contributes to the IQ of the children. In this case, it turns out that mothers who breast-feed generally have higher IQs than those who do not. Therefore, it may be genetics that leads to the higher IQ, not breast-feeding.* This illustrates an idea in statistics known as the *lurking variable*. A good statistical study will have a way of dealing with lurking variables.

A key aspect of data is that they vary. Consider the students in your classroom. Is everyone the same height? No. Does everyone have the same color hair? No. So, within groups there is variation. Now consider yourself. Do you eat the same amount of food each day? No. Do you sleep the same number of hours each day? No. So even considering an individual there is variation. Data vary. One goal of statistics is to describe and understand the sources of variation. Variability in data may help to explain the different results obtained by the CBS News/*New York Times* and *Bloomberg* polls described at the beginning of this section.

Because of this variability, the results that we obtain using data can vary. In a mathematics class, if Bob and Jane are asked to solve $3x + 5 = 11$, they will both obtain $x = 2$ as the solution when they use the correct procedures. In a statistics class, if Bob and Jane are asked to estimate the average commute time for workers in Dallas, Texas, they will likely get different answers, even though both use the correct procedure. The different answers occur because they likely surveyed different individuals, and these individuals have different commute times. Bob and Jane would get the same result if they both asked *all* commuters or the same commuters about their commutes, but how likely is this?

So, in mathematics when a problem is solved correctly, the results can be reported with 100% certainty. In statistics, when a problem is solved, the results do not have 100% certainty. In statistics, we might say that we are 95% confident that the average commute time in Dallas, Texas, is between 20 and 23 minutes. Uncertain results may seem disturbing now but will feel more comfortable as we proceed through the course.

Without certainty, how can statistics be useful? Statistics can provide an understanding of the world around us because recognizing where variability in data comes from can help us to control it. Understanding the techniques presented in this text will provide you with powerful tools that will give you the ability to analyze and critique media reports, make investment decisions, or conduct research on major purchases. This will help to make you an informed citizen, consumer of information, and critical and statistical thinker.

2 Explain the Process of Statistics

Consider the following scenario.

You are walking down the street and notice that a person walking in front of you drops \$100. Nobody seems to notice the \$100 except you. Since you could keep the money without anyone knowing, would you keep the money or return it to the owner?

Suppose you wanted to use this scenario as a gauge of the morality of students at your school by determining the percent of students who would return the money. How might you do this? You could attempt to present the scenario to every student at the school, but this would be difficult or impossible if the student body is large. A second possibility is to present the scenario to 50 students and use the results to make a statement about all the students at the school.

NOTE

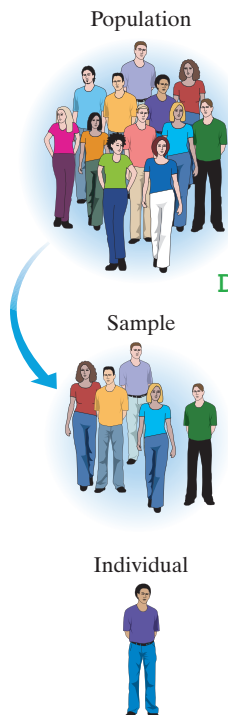
Obtaining a truthful response to a question such as this is challenging. In Section 1.5, we present some techniques for obtaining truthful responses to sensitive questions. •

*In fact, a study found that a gene called FADS2 is responsible for higher IQ scores in breast-fed babies. Source: Duke University, "Breastfeeding Boosts IQ in Infants with 'Helpful' Genetic Variant," *Science Daily* 6 November 2007.

Definitions

The entire group to be studied is called the **population**. An **individual** is a person or object that is a member of the population being studied. A **sample** is a subset of the population that is being studied. See Figure 1.

Figure 1

**Definitions**

A **statistic** is a numerical summary of a sample. **Descriptive statistics** consist of organizing and summarizing data. Descriptive statistics describe data through numerical summaries, tables, and graphs.

So 78% is a statistic because it is a numerical summary based on a sample. Descriptive statistics make it easier to get an overview of what the data are telling us.

If we extend the results of our sample to the population, we are performing *inferential statistics*.

Definition

Inferential statistics uses methods that take a result from a sample, extend it to the population, and measure the reliability of the result.

The generalization contains uncertainty because a sample cannot tell us everything about a population. Therefore, inferential statistics includes a level of confidence in the results. So rather than saying that 78% of all students would return the money, we might say that we are 95% confident that between 74% and 82% of all students would return the money. Notice how this inferential statement includes a *level of confidence* (measure of reliability) in our results. It also includes a range of values to account for the variability in our results.

One goal of inferential statistics is to use statistics to estimate *parameters*.

Definition

A **parameter** is a numerical summary of a population.

EXAMPLE 1 Parameter versus Statistic

Suppose 48.2% of all students on your campus own a car. This value represents a parameter because it is a numerical summary of a population. Suppose a sample of 100 students is obtained, and from this sample we find that 46% own a car. This value represents a statistic because it is a numerical summary of a sample.

• **Now Work Problem 7**

The methods of statistics follow a process.

CAUTION!

Many nonscientific studies are based on *convenience samples*, such as Internet surveys or phone-in polls. The results of any study performed using this type of sampling method are not reliable.

The Process of Statistics

1. *Identify the research objective.* A researcher must determine the question(s) he or she wants answered. The question(s) must clearly identify the population that is to be studied.
 2. *Collect the data needed to answer the question(s) posed in (1).* Conducting research on an entire population is often difficult and expensive, so we typically look at a sample. This step is vital to the statistical process, because
- (continued)

if the data are not collected correctly, the conclusions drawn are meaningless. Do not overlook the importance of appropriate data collection. We discuss this step in detail in Sections 1.2 through 1.6.

3. *Describe the data.* Descriptive statistics allow the researcher to obtain an overview of the data and can help determine the type of statistical methods the researcher should use. We discuss this step in detail in Chapters 2 through 4.
4. *Perform inference.* Apply the appropriate techniques to extend the results obtained from the sample to the population and report a level of reliability of the results. We discuss techniques for measuring reliability in Chapters 5 through 8 and inferential techniques in Chapters 9 through 12.

EXAMPLE 2 The Process of Statistics: Minimum Wage

CBS News and the *New York Times* conducted a poll September 12–15, 2014, and asked, “As you may know, the federal minimum wage is currently \$7.25 an hour. Do you favor or oppose raising the minimum wage to \$10.10?” The following statistical process allowed the researchers to conduct their study.

1. *Identify the research objective.* The researchers wanted to determine the percentage of adult Americans who favor raising the minimum wage. Therefore, the population being studied was adult Americans.
2. *Collect the data needed to answer the question posed in (1).* It is unreasonable to expect to survey the more than 200 million adult Americans to determine how they feel about the minimum wage. So the researchers surveyed a sample of 1009 adult Americans. Of those surveyed, 706 stated they favor an increase in the minimum wage to \$10.10 an hour.
3. *Describe the data.* Of the 1009 individuals in the survey, 70% (= 706/1009) believe the minimum wage should be raised to \$10.10 an hour. This is a descriptive statistic because it is a numerical summary of the data.
4. *Perform inference.* CBS News and the *New York Times* wanted to extend the results of the survey to all adult Americans. Remember, when generalizing results from a sample to a population, the results are uncertain. To account for this uncertainty, researchers reported a 3% *margin of error*. This means that CBS News and the *New York Times* feel fairly certain (in fact, 95% certain) that the percentage of *all* adult Americans who favor an increase in the minimum wage to \$10.10 an hour is somewhere between 67% (70% – 3%) and 73% (70% + 3%).

• Now Work Problem 49

3 Distinguish between Qualitative and Quantitative Variables

Once a research objective is stated, a list of the information we want to learn about the individuals must be created. **Variables** are the characteristics of the individuals within the population. For example, recently my son and I planted a tomato plant in our backyard. We collected information about the tomatoes harvested from the plant. The individuals we studied were the tomatoes. The variable that interested us was the weight of a tomato. My son noted that the tomatoes had different weights even though they came from the same plant. He discovered that variables such as weight may vary.

If variables did not vary, they would be constants, and statistical inference would not be necessary. Think about it this way: If each tomato had the same weight, then knowing the weight of one tomato would allow us to determine the weights of all tomatoes. However, the weights of the tomatoes vary. One goal of research is to learn the causes of the variability so that we can learn to grow plants that yield the best tomatoes.

Variables can be classified into two groups: *qualitative* or *quantitative*.

Definitions

Qualitative, or categorical, variables allow for classification of individuals based on some attribute or characteristic.

Quantitative variables provide numerical measures of individuals. The values of a quantitative variable can be added or subtracted and provide meaningful results.

Many examples in this text will include a suggested **approach**, or a way to look at and organize a problem so that it can be solved. The approach will be a suggested method of *attack* toward solving the problem. This does not mean that the approach given is the only way to solve the problem, because many problems have more than one approach leading to a correct solution.

EXAMPLE 3 Distinguishing between Qualitative and Quantitative Variables

Problem Determine whether the following variables are qualitative or quantitative.

- (a) Gender
- (b) Temperature
- (c) Number of days during the past week that a college student studied
- (d) Zip code

Approach Quantitative variables are numerical measures such that meaningful arithmetic operations can be performed on the values of the variable. Qualitative variables describe an attribute or characteristic of the individual that allows researchers to categorize the individual.

Solution

- (a) Gender is a qualitative variable because it allows a researcher to categorize the individual as male or female. Notice that arithmetic operations cannot be performed on these attributes.
- (b) Temperature is a quantitative variable because it is numeric, and operations such as addition and subtraction provide meaningful results. For example, 70°F is 10°F warmer than 60°F .
- (c) Number of days during the past week that a college student studied is a quantitative variable because it is numeric, and operations such as addition and subtraction provide meaningful results.
- (d) Zip code is a qualitative variable because it categorizes a location. Notice that, even though zip codes are numeric, adding or subtracting zip codes does not provide meaningful results.

• Now Work Problem 15

Example 3(d) shows us that a variable may be qualitative while having numeric values. Just because the value of a variable is numeric does not mean that the variable is quantitative.

4 Distinguish between Discrete and Continuous Variables

We can further classify quantitative variables into two types: *discrete* or *continuous*.

Definitions

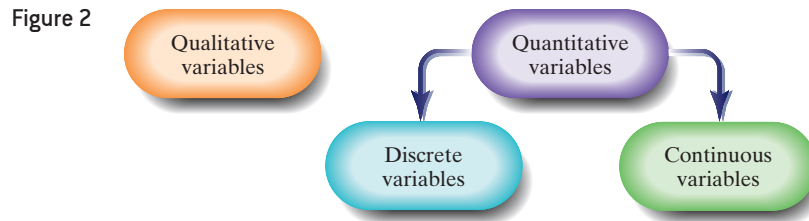
A **discrete variable** is a quantitative variable that has either a finite number of possible values or a countable number of possible values. The term *countable* means that the values result from counting, such as 0, 1, 2, 3, and so on. A discrete variable cannot take on every possible value between any two possible values.

A **continuous variable** is a quantitative variable that has an infinite number of possible values that are not countable. A continuous variable may take on every possible value between any two values.

In Other Words

If you count to get the value of a quantitative variable, it is discrete. If you measure to get the value of a quantitative variable, it is continuous.

Figure 2 illustrates the relationship among qualitative, quantitative, discrete, and continuous variables.



EXAMPLE 4 Distinguishing between Discrete and Continuous Variables

Problem Determine whether the quantitative variables are discrete or continuous.

- (a) The number of heads obtained after flipping a coin five times.
- (b) The number of cars that arrive at a McDonald's drive-thru between 12:00 P.M. and 1:00 P.M.
- (c) The distance a 2015 Toyota Prius can travel in city driving conditions with a full tank of gas.

Approach A variable is discrete if its value results from counting. A variable is continuous if its value is measured.

Solution

- (a) The number of heads obtained by flipping a coin five times is a discrete variable because we can count the number of heads obtained. The possible values of this discrete variable are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.
- (b) The number of cars that arrive at a McDonald's drive-thru between 12:00 P.M. and 1:00 P.M. is a discrete variable because we find its value by counting the cars. The possible values of this discrete variable are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, and so on. Notice that this number has no upper limit.
- (c) The distance traveled is a continuous variable because we measure the distance (miles, feet, inches, and so on).

• Now Work Problem 23



Continuous variables are often rounded. For example, if a certain make of car gets 24 miles per gallon (mpg) of gasoline, its miles per gallon must be greater than or equal to 23.5 and less than 24.5, or $23.5 \leq \text{mpg} < 24.5$.

The type of variable (qualitative, discrete, or continuous) dictates the methods that can be used to analyze the data.

The list of observed values for a variable is **data**. Gender is a variable; the observations male and female are data. **Qualitative data** are observations corresponding to a qualitative variable. **Quantitative data** are observations corresponding to a quantitative variable. **Discrete data** are observations corresponding to a discrete variable. **Continuous data** are observations corresponding to a continuous variable.

EXAMPLE 5 Distinguishing between Variables and Data

Problem Table 1 presents a group of selected countries and information regarding these countries as of July, 2015. Identify the individuals, variables, and data in Table 1.

Table 1

Country	Government Type	Life Expectancy (years)	Population (in millions)
Australia	Federal parliamentary democracy	82.15	22.8
Canada	Constitutional monarchy	81.76	35.1
France	Republic	81.75	66.6
Morocco	Constitutional monarchy	76.71	33.3
Poland	Republic	77.40	38.6
Sri Lanka	Republic	76.56	22.1
United States	Federal republic	79.68	321.4

Source: CIA World Factbook

Approach An individual is an object or person for whom we wish to obtain data. The variables are the characteristics of the individuals, and the data are the specific values of the variables.

Solution The **individuals** in the study are the countries: Australia, Canada, and so on. The **variables** measured for each country are *government type*, *life expectancy*, and *population*. The variable *government type* is qualitative because it categorizes the individual. The variables *life expectancy* and *population* are quantitative.

The quantitative variable *life expectancy* is continuous because it is measured. The quantitative variable *population* is discrete because we count people. The **observations** are the data. For example, the data corresponding to the variable *life expectancy* are 82.15, 81.76, 81.75, 76.71, 77.40, 76.56, and 79.68. The following data correspond to the individual Poland: a republic government with residents whose life expectancy is 77.40 years and population is 38.6 million people. Republic is an instance of qualitative data that results from observing the value of the qualitative variable *government type*. The life expectancy of 77.40 years is an instance of quantitative data that results from observing the value of the quantitative variable *life expectancy*.

• Now Work Problem 45

5 Determine the Level of Measurement of a Variable

Rather than classify a variable as qualitative or quantitative, we can assign a level of measurement to the variable.

Definitions

A variable is at the **nominal level of measurement** if the values of the variable name, label, or categorize. In addition, the naming scheme does not allow for the values of the variable to be arranged in a ranked or specific order.

A variable is at the **ordinal level of measurement** if it has the properties of the nominal level of measurement, however the naming scheme allows for the values of the variable to be arranged in a ranked or specific order.

A variable is at the **interval level of measurement** if it has the properties of the ordinal level of measurement and the differences in the values of the variable have meaning. A value of zero does not mean the absence of the quantity. Arithmetic operations such as addition and subtraction can be performed on values of the variable.

A variable is at the **ratio level of measurement** if it has the properties of the interval level of measurement and the ratios of the values of the variable have meaning. A value of zero means the absence of the quantity. Arithmetic operations such as multiplication and division can be performed on the values of the variable.

In Other Words

The word *nominal* comes from the Latin word **nomen**, which means to name. When you see the word **ordinal**, think order.