

# Understanding Basic Statistics

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**Statistics** is the study of how to collect, organize, analyze, and interpret numerical information from data.

Statistics is both the science of uncertainty and the technology of extracting information from data.

Decision making is an important aspect of our lives. We make decisions based on the information we have, our attitude, and our values. Statistical methods help us examine information. Moreover, statistics can be used for making decisions when we are faced with uncertainties.

## Variables

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Variables are characteristics of the individuals to be measured or observed. Individuals are the people or objects on which we need to study.

For example: if we want to do a study about the people who have suffered from coronavirus, then the individuals in this study are all people, and their characteristics like age, height, weight, gender, ..., etc. become variables.

## Types of variables

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There are two types of variables: Quantitative (numerical) and Qualitative (categorical) variables.

**Quantitative Variables:** A quantitative variable is a value or numerical measurement on which we can perform mathematical operations like add, subtract, divide and multiplication.

**Qualitative variable:** A qualitative variable describes an individual by placing the individual into a category or group, such as male or female.

## Data sets

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# Population

Population is a dataset which contains the every individual of interest from the selected area or region. a numerical measure that describes an aspect of the population is called **population parameter**.

## Sample

Sample is a dataset which only contains a small amount of individual of interest from population. a numerical measure that describes an aspect of sample is called sample statistics.

## Levels of measurement

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we have categorized data as either qualitative or quantitative. Another way to classify data is according to one of the four levels of measurement. These levels indicate the type of arithmetic that is appropriate for the data, such as ordering, taking difference, or taking ratios.

1. **Nominal**: The nominal level of measurement applies to data that consist of names, labels or categories, There are no implied criteria by which the data can be ordered from smallest to largest.
2. **Ordinal**: The ordinal level of measurement applies to data that can be arranged in order, However, differences between data values either cannot be determined or are meaningless.
3. **Interval**: The interval level of measurement applies to data that can be arranged in order. In addition, differences between data values are meaningful.
4. **Ratio**: The ratio level of measurement applies to data that can be arranged in order. In addition, both differences between data values and ratios of data values are meaningful. Data at the ratio level has a true zero.

The level of measurement tells us which arithmetic processes are appropriate for the data. This is important because different statistical processes require various kinds of arithmetic. In some instances all we need to do is count the number of data that meet specified criteria. In such a case nominal (and higher) data would

not be suitable. Many other statistical processes require division, so data need to be at the ratio level.

# Types of Statistics

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## Descriptive Statistics

**Descriptive statistics** involves method of organizing, picturing, and summarizing information from sample or population.

**Inferential Statistics** involves methods of using information from a sample to draw conclusion regarding the population.

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# Random Samples

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## Simple Random Sample

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A **simple random sample** of  $n$  measurements from a population is a subset of the populations selected in such a manner that every sample of size  $n$  from the population has an equal chance of being selected.

### Important Features of Simple Random Sample

For a simple random sample

- Every sample of specified size  $n$  from the population has an equal chance of being selected.
- No researcher bias occurs in the items selected from the sample.
- A random sample may not always reflects the diversity of the population.

# Sampling Techniques

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## Random Sampling

Use a simple random sample from the entire population.

## Stratified sampling

Divide the entire populations into distinct subgroups called strata. The strata are based on a specific characteristic such as age, income, education level, and so on. All members of a stratum share the specific characteristic. Draw random samples from each stratum.

## Systematic sampling

Number all members of the populations sequentially. Then, from a starting point selected at random, include every  $k$ th member of the population in the sample.

## Cluster sampling

Divide the entire population into pre-existing segments or clusters. The clusters are often geographic. Make a random selection of clusters. Include every members of each selected cluster in the sample.

## Multistage sampling

Use a variety of sampling methods to create successively smaller groups at each stage. The final sample consists of cluster.

## Convenience sampling

Create a sample by using data from population members that are readily available.

### Points to Sampling

- **Sampling Frame:** a sampling frame is a list of individuals from which a sample is actually selected.
- **Undercoverage:** results from omitting population members from the sample frame.

### Errors during sampling

- **Sampling Error:** A sampling error is the difference between measurements from a sample and corresponding measurements from the respective population. it is caused by the fact that the sample does not perfectly represent the population.

- **Nonsampling error:** A nonsampling error is the result of poor sample design, sloppy data collection, faulty measuring instruments, bias in questionnaires, and so on.
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# Organizing Data

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## Frequency Tables

When we have a large set of quantitative data, it's useful to organize it into smaller intervals or classes and count how many data values fall into each class. We can do that by using the frequency table.

A **Frequency table** partitions data into classes or intervals of equal width and shows how many data values are in each class. The classes or intervals are constructed so that each data value falls into exactly one class.

### class limits & width

- The **lower class limit** is the lowest data value that can fit in a class.
- The **upper class limit** is the highest data value that can fit in a class.
- The **class width** is the difference between the lower class limit of one class and the lower class limit of the next class.

## Histogram and Relative-Frequency Histograms

Histograms and relative-frequency histograms provide effective visual display of the data organized into frequency tables. In these graphs, we use bars to represent each class, where the width of the bar is the class width. For histograms, the height of the bar is the class frequency, whereas for relative-frequency histograms, the height of the bar is the relative frequency of that class.

## Distribution Shapes

Histograms are valuable and useful tools. If the raw data came from a random sample of population values, the histogram constructed from the sample values should have a

distribution shape that is reasonably similar to that of the population. Several terms are commonly used to describe histograms and their associated population distribution.

- **Mound-shaped symmetric:** This term refers to a mound-shaped histogram in which both sides are (more or less) the same when the graph is folded vertically down the middle.
- **Uniform or rectangular:** These terms refer to a histogram in which every class has equal frequency. From one point of view, a uniform distribution is symmetric with the added property that the bars are of the same height.
- **Skewed left or skewed right:** These terms refer to a histogram in which one tail is stretched out longer than the other. The direction of skewness is on the side of the longer tail. So, if the longer tail is on the left, we say the histogram is skewed to the left.
- **Bimodal:** This term refers to a histogram in which the two classes with the largest frequencies are separated by at least one class. The top two frequencies of these classes may have slightly different values. This type of situation sometimes indicates that we are sampling from two different populations.