Introduction

In chapter 2, we discussed census and sample survey. The term population is used to mean the totality of items in an investigation. The population may be finite or infinite. If each and every unit in the population is considered in the enquiry, it is called census or complete enumeration. As the population in most enquires are quite large, complete enumeration is not practical or feasible. In such cases, a representative part of the population is taken into consideration. This method is called sampling. Each unit in the population is called a sampling unit. The list of all sampling units of the population is called sampling frame. It is basically, a list from which you can choose your sample

Activity

Look at the following situations. What is your population? What is a sampling unit? How would you develop a sampling frame?

- Monalisa health club wants to conduct a survey to see the facilities that customers expect?
- A chocolate manufacturing company has introduced a new variety of chocolates. They want to check the quality of those chocolates.

Census Survey

The traditional method of acquiring knowledge about an aggregate of individuals is to enumerate them all. Census of population of a country and study of total agricultural production of a country are examples of complete enumeration. The major statistics of agriculture production, distribution of labour force and unemployment have all been based on census approach.

Surveying male smokers between 20 and 40 age who had surgery for throat cancer in a particular hospital during last year, surveying number of printing mistakes in a book, surveying the number of accidents reported in a locality etc. are also examples for census study.

Figure 10.1: **Target Population** Sample

A pioneer in census taking was Pierre-Simon de Laplace. In 1780, he developed the Laplace method of estimating the population of a country. The principle behind his method was to take a census of a few selected communities and determine the ratio of the population to the number of births in these communities. This number would be used to multiply the number of births in the entire country to estimate the number of citizens in the country.

Know your progress

From chapter 2, recall the situations where census and sampling can be implemented.

10.1 Need and Importance of Sampling

In homes, we take out one or two rice grains (any other food item) from the cooking pan to examine whether the grains are fully cooked or not. In clinical laboratory, a few drops of blood are collected to test to know whether the blood has any abnormalities or not.



Whatever observed in the few drops of blood is true for whole blood of the body. In a bulb manufacturing company, one tests the life of few bulbs and comes to a conclusion about the average life of bulbs in the whole lot. Similarly, instead of examining the whole population, which may be difficult or impossible to do, one can examine a representative 3 part of the population. This is called sample. The process of drawing samples is called sampling. These examples reveal that sampling is an age old practice. Now-a-days, sampling methods are extensively used in socio-economic surveys to know the living condition, cost of living index etc of a class of people.

Let us consider the studies to get the following information

- The percentage of Keralites who have access to internet
- Opinion about selection of places for a study tour with the students of your class.
- Any opinion poll on various political leaders of Kerala

In first and third case, it is obvious that interviewing more than 3 crore people is not possible. The process is costly, time consuming and requires a lot of trained investigators. Due to these reasons it is convenient to use sampling method. But in second case, data may be collected through census

10.2 Census and Sampling - Advantages and Disadvantages

Table 10.1: Census:- Advantages and Disadvantages

	Advantages	Disadvantages				
(i)	100% perfect.	(i) If the population is infinite,				
		the study is impossible.				
(ii)	For an enquiry, if all the	(ii) Census method requires				
	units in the population are	more time, money, trained				
	to be inspected, census is	persons etc				
	the only method					
(iii)	The data obtained by	(iii) If the units are destroyed				
	census method may	in the course of inspection,				
	be used for further	census is not at all				
	investigations	desirable.				

	<u> </u>				
	Advantages	Disadvantages			
(i)	Saves time and money	(i)	Improper sampling		
			technique may lead to		
			misleading results		
(ii)	When population is	(ii)	If information is required		
	too large or items are		from each and every unit		
	destructive in nature,		of population, sampling is		
	sampling alone can be		inadequate (eg: Leprosy		
	adopted (eg. Testing the		test in school children)		
	strength of chalks)				
(iii)	More accuracy is expected				
(iv)	The expected error also can				
	be estimated				

Table 10.2: Sampling:- Advantages and disadvantages

Activity

Find out situations where sampling is preferred to census and vice versa

Errors in survey

The results obtained from statistical studies may not be free from errors. The errors involved in various stages of the study of data may be broadly classified under two heads viz (i) sampling error and (ii) non-sampling error.

Sampling and Non-Sampling Errors 10.3

Sampling errors are seen in sample surveys due to the fact that only a part of the population is used for enquiry. Clearly, sampling errors are absent in census. For example, the estimate of average income of people in certain region obtained on the basis of sampling will not be equal to the true average income.

282 Sampling Techniques

Sampling errors cannot be completely eliminated but may be minimized by choosing a proper sample of adequate size and a proper sample survey design. Sampling error decreases as sample size increases. Sampling errors can be detected, measured and controlled. Sampling errors arise due to the following

- (i) Lack of clarity about the coverage of the population
- (ii) Faulty selection of the sample
- (iii) Inadequate sample size
- (iv) Inappropriate questionnaire
- (v) Errors due to substitution

Errors other than sampling errors in a survey are called non-sampling errors. Non sampling errors arise at various stage of observation and processing of data, presentation and printing of tabulated results and are thus present in both census and sampling. Thus the data obtained in complete enumeration, although free from sampling errors would still be subject to non sampling errors. Data obtained in a sample survey would be subject to both sampling and non sampling errors. These errors can be minimized by choosing proper sampling designs, employing efficient investigators and better sampling. Non sampling errors usually increase with increase in sample size. Non sampling errors may arise due to

- 1. Irrelevant responses to questions
- 2. Errors in printing and publication of results
- 3. Errors in data processing



Distinguish between sampling and non sampling errors

Methods of Sampling

Consider a study about the spending habits of students in a class of 60. A sample of 10 students is selected for the study. The investigator can select the sample according to convenience. This type of samping is termed as Non Probability Sampling. On the other hand the investigator can select the sample randomly, in which each member of the population has some specified probability of being included in the sample. This method is termed as Probability Sampling.

Non Probability Sampling 10.4

In non probability sampling, members are selected from the population in some non-random manner. These include convenience sampling, judgment sampling and quota sampling. These methods are subjective.

Convenience Sampling

A convenience sample is obtained by selecting convenient population units. A sample obtained from readily available lists such as automobile registrations, telephone directories, etc. is a convenience sample, if the sample is drawn according to the convenience of the investigator. The results obtained by this method will not be a representative of the population. This method is very popular in online research and Traditional "man on the street" interviews conducted frequently by the visual media.

Judgment Sampling

The investigator exercises his judgment in the choice and includes those items in the sample which he thinks are most typical of the universe with regard to the characteristics under investigation. For example, if a sample of ten students is to be selected from a class of sixty for analyzing the spending habits of students, the investigator would select 10 students who, in his opinion, are

representative of the class. In this sampling the sample is selected with definite purpose in view. If the investigator is experienced and skilled and the sampling carefully applied, then the judgment samples may yield valuable results. This method is also very useful when you need to reach a targeted sample quickly.

Quota Sampling

In this method quotas are set up according to some specified characteristics such as several income groups. Within the quota the selection of sample items depends on personal judgment. For example in an income survey, the interviewers may be told to interview 100 people living in certain area in which 60 are housewives, 25 are regular employees and 15 are businessmen. Within these quotas the interviewer is free to select the people to be interviewed. This method often used in public opinion studies and personal interviews and people are systematically according to some fixed quota.

Activity

Find out similar situations where non probability sampling is appropriate

Probability Sampling 10.5

Probability sampling is the scientific method of selecting samples according to some laws of chance in which each unit in the population has some definite pre-assigned probability of being included in the sample. This method is purely objective.

Different types of probability sampling includes

- 1. Simple Random Sampling
- 2. Systematic Sampling
- 3. Stratified Random Sampling
- 4. Cluster Sampling

5. Multistage Sampling

There are many situations which demanded probability sampling or non probability sampling or a combination of both. Search them out.

Simple Random Sampling (SRS) 10.6

Simple Random Sampling is a probability sampling in which each unit in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. In this case the sampling units are selected at random. Simple random sampling overcome the drawbacks of non-probability sampling viz favouritism, subjectiveness etc. This method is applicable when population is homogeneous.

There are two types of Simple Random Sampling - Simple Random Sampling Without Replacement (SRSWOR) and Simple Random Sampling With Replacement (SRSWR). Suppose you are going to buy orange from a fruit shop. You are selecting five oranges one by one from a basket of oranges without replacing the selected ones. This type of sampling in which all units have an equal chance of being included in the sample is called as simple random sampling without replacement. If the sampling is done by replacing the selected unit it is called simple random sampling with replacement. If a population consists of N units and a sample of n units to be taken, the possible number of samples in SRSWOR is ${}^{N}C_{n}$ and in SRSWR is N^{n} .

Illustration 10.1

If a population consists of 5 numbers 2,3,6,8 and 11

Consider all simple random samples of size 2 that can be drawn

- 1. with replacement
- 2. without replacement

Samples: Using SRSWOR

(2,3), (2,6), (2,8), (2,11), (3,6), (3,8), (3,11), (6,8), (6,11), (8,11)

 $^5C_2 = 10$ samples

Samples: Using SRSWR

(2,2), (2,3), (2,6), (2,8), (2,11), (3,2), (3,3), (3,6), (3,8), (3,11), (6,2), (6,3), (6,6),(6,8), (6,11), (8,2), (8,3), (8,6), (8,8), (8,11), (11,2), (11,3), (11,6), (11,8), (11,11) $5^2 = 25$ samples

Activity

Solve the following questions.

- 1. Suppose we have 5 cards numbered from 1 to 5 and two cards are to be selected, write all possible samples using (i) SRSWOR and (ii) SRSWR
- 2. A bag contains 10 balls, how many samples of size 3 can be taken in (i) SRSWOR and (ii) SRSWR.

Methods of Sample Selection - SRS

Random samples can be obtained by any of the following methods

- (i) Lottery Method
- (ii) Random Number Table Method

Lottery Method

The Simplest method of selecting a simple random sample is the lottery method. Suppose we want to select n candidates out of N. We assign the numbers serially starting from 1 to N. Write these numbers (1 to N) on N slips. These slips are made as homogeneous as possible in shape, size, colour etc. These slips are folded and put in a bag and shuffled thoroughly and then n slips are drawn one by one. The n candidates corresponding to the numbers on the selected slips will constitute a random sample. For example, suppose we have to select five students out of 50 to visit an old age home. We assign numbers from 1 to 50 to the students. 50 identical slips are made for these students. These slips folded and put in a box and shuffle thoroughly. Then five slips are

drawn. Suppose the numbers drawn are 44, 6, 28, 39 and 25. Then the students bearing these numbers are selected for visiting the home.

Random Number Table Method

The limitation of lottery method is that it is quite time consuming if the population is large. The most practical and inexpensive method of selecting a random sample consists of the use of Random Number Tables. The random number table are in such a way constructed that each of the digits 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9 appears approximately in the same frequency. The digits are also independent. The method of drawing a random sample by this method consists of the following steps.

Let N be the population Size with k digits and n be the Sample Size to be drawn.

- Identify the N units in the population with the numbers from 1 to N
- Select at random, any page of the table and pickup the successive k digit numbers in any row or column or diagonal at random until we get nnumber of units.
- Discard numbers which are greater than N.
- The population units corresponding to the numbers selected constitute the random sample

Commonly used Random Number Tables are Tippetts Random Number Table, Fisher and Yates Table, Kendall and Babington Smith Table, Rand Corporation table, C.R. Rao, Mitra and Mathai Table. Random Number Generating Programmes are available in Internet, Computer and Calculator.

Know your progress

Explain the selection procedure of a sample of 20 units from a population containing 80 units using random number table.

Activity

Create similar situations in your class where lottery and random number table method can be applied and solve the same using these methods.

10.7 Systematic Sampling

A sampling method in which one unit is selected at random and the remaining units are selected at an interval of predetermined length is called systematic sampling.

Suppose we want to select a systematic sample of 8 units out of 48 units. To do this we first find the sampling interval $k=\frac{48}{8}=6$. The first unit in the sample is selected by a random number r between 1 and 6. Let it be 3. Then the third unit will be selected to the sample. There after every sixth unit will be selected automatically into the sample. Hence the resulting systematic sample will contain the units with the following serial numbers

3, 9, 15, 21, 27, 33, 39, 45

If the population contains 48 items and a sample of 8 items is to be taken, the selection of every 6^{th} $(48 \div 8)^{\text{th}}$ item will give the required sample. The first entry (random start) is determined by selecting a number at random between 1 and 6. If the first item obtained in this manner is 3^{rd} then 9^{th} , 15^{th} , 21^{st} , 27^{th} , 33^{rd} , 39^{th} and 45^{th} items will be picked up. This type of sampling in which n samples are taken out of N units and $k = \frac{N}{n}$. A random start is selected from 1 to k. Let it be i, where $1 \le i \le k$ then i^{th} , $(i+k)^{\text{th}}$, $(i+2k)^{\text{th}}$,... comprising of n items are included in the sample with sampling interval as k. This type of sampling is called Systematic Sampling. These type of sampling is done when a complete list of the population is available. In the above example, k = 6, the sampling interval and i = 3 is the random start. The pictorial representation of above example is given below

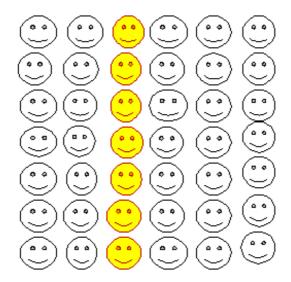


Illustration 10.2

In a class there are 100 students with Roll Numbers from 1 to 100. It is desired to take sample of 10 students. $K = \frac{100}{10} = 10$. From 1 to 100 roll numbers, the first student between 1 and k ie., 1 and 10, will be selected at random and then we will go on taking every k^{th} student. Suppose the first student comes out to be 4^{th} , the sample would then consist of the following Roll Numbers. 4, 14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64, 74, 84 and 94.

10.8 Stratified Random Sampling

Simple Random Sampling is suitable for homogeneous population. When the population is heterogeneous, it is first subdivided into non overlapping exhaustive homogeneous subgroups. These subgroups are called strata. From each stratum, units are selected at random. The number of items taken from each subgroup may be in proportion to its size. This type of sampling is called stratified random sampling. This method is applied so that units within each group are as homogeneous as possible and the group means are as widely different as possible.

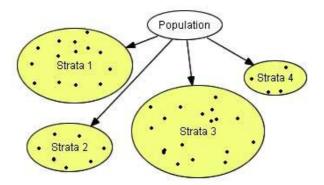


Illustration 10.3

Consider a population which consists of males and females who are smokers or non smokers. The researcher wants to include in the sample, people from all groups-that is, males who smoke, males who do not smoke, female who smoke and female who do not smoke. To accomplish their selection, the researcher divides the population into four subgroups and then selects a random sample from each sub group. This method ensures that the sample is representative on the basis of the characteristics of gender and smoking.

10.9 Cluster Sampling

If we are interested in obtaining the income data in a city, the whole city may be divided into different blocks (clusters) and a Simple Random Sample of required number of blocks is drawn. The individuals of these selected blocks constitute the Cluster Sample. In Cluster Sampling, the total population is divided into some recognizable subdivisions which are termed as clusters and a Simple Random Sample of these clusters is drawn. These clusters are examined completely. This sampling procedure is called Cluster Sampling.

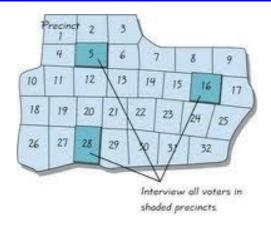
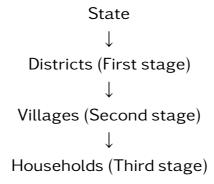


Illustration 10.4

Population	All school students in the District
Clusters	Each school in the district
Obtain SRS of clusters	Four schools from the district
Sample	Every student in the four schools

Multi-Stage Sampling 10.10

Selection of a sample of households from a particular State can be done through different stages. The first stage units may be districts, second stage units may be villages in the selected districts and third stage units may be households in the Villages, which are the ultimate units.



Such type of sampling is called Multi-stage Sampling. As the name indicates, multistage sampling refers to a sampling technique which is carried out in various stages. Multi stage sampling consists of sampling first stage units by

292 Sampling Techniques

some suitable method of sampling. From among the selected first stage units, a sub sample of secondary stage units is drawn by some suitable method of sampling which may be same as or different from the method used in selecting first stage units. Further stages may be added to arrive at a sample of desired sampling units. If the sampling is done only in two stages, it is called Subsampling.

Illustration 10.5

Suppose we have to study about the behaviour pattern of marketing of a product in households of a country. Divide the country into different States, States are divided into districts. Districts are divided into cities and towns. These are again divided into wards, and households are selected and study about the marketing of product.

Illustration 10.6

First Stage sampling unit for national surveys are often administrative districts, urban districts or parliamentary constituencies. Within the selected first stage unit one may go direct to the final sampling units, such as individuals, households or addresses, in which case we have a two-stage sample. It would be more usual to introduce intermediate sampling stages, i.e. administrative districts are sub-divided into wards, then polling districts etc.

Probability Sampling Methods and Strategies

Type of Sampling	Selection Strategy
Simple	Each member of the population has an equal probability
	of being selected.
Systematic	Each member of the population is either assembled or
	listed, a random start is designated, then members of
	the population are selected at equal intervals
Stratified	Each member of the population is assigned to a group
	or stratum, then a simple random sample is selected
	from each stratum
Cluster	Each member of the population is assigned to a group
	or cluster, then clusters are selected at random and all
	members of each selected cluster are included in the
	sample.
Two stage Sampling	Each member of the population is divided into sub
	groups, a sample of these groups are selected at
	random and then a sample of members of each
	selected subgroups are included in the sample
Multistage sampling	The above stage is extended to multi-levels

Let us sum up

Population is the collection of all observations about which conclusions are to be made. Sample is a part of population. While collecting and processing the data, there may arise two types of errors- sampling error and non-sampling error. Sampling can be done by using non probability or probability sampling. Some of the methods of non probability sampling are convenience sampling, judgment sampling and quota sampling. Some of the methods of probability sampling are simple random sampling with or without replacement, stratified sampling, systematic sampling, cluster sampling and multistage sampling.

Learning outcomes

After transaction of this unit, the learner:-

- - illustrates Census and sampling and their advantages and disadvantages.
 - recognises probability and non probability sampling.
 - identifies sampling and non sampling errors.
 - differentiates SRSWOR and SRSWR, methods of simple random sampling lottery method and random number table method.
 - describes different kinds of sampling simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling and multistage sampling.

Evaluation Items

- 1. Census study involves ——
 - (a) 50% subjects of the population
 - (b) Each and every subject comprising the population
 - (c) Any Number of subjects
 - (d) None of the above
- 2. If a doctor wants to assess the efficacy of a drug on the patients of gastroentitis, then which sampling procedure should he follow?
 - (a) Simple random sampling with replacement
 - (b) Simple random sampling without replacement
 - (c) Judgment sampling
 - (d) None of the above
- 3. From a well shuffled pack of cards, a card is drawn blindly. Its colour is noted and replaced. This process is continued 5 times. This type of sampling is known as
 - (a) Sampling with replacement
 - (b) Sampling without replacement
 - (c) Convenience sampling

- (d) Non random sampling
- 4. Sample study is inevitable because:
 - (a) It is not possible to study an infinite population
 - (b) It is not possible to test all units of the population if they are perished under observation
 - (c) A population study requires too much time and rewources
 - (d) All the above
- 5. There are more chances of Non sampling errors than sampling errors in case of
 - (a) Studies of large sample
 - (b) Inefficient investigators
 - (c) Complete enumeration
 - (d) All the above
- 6. Which type of sampling technique is used in following situations
 - (a) Trees in a forest
 - (b) Houses in blocks
 - (c) Entries in a register which are in serial order
- 7. Which of the following sampling designs will be categorized as nonprobability sampling?
 - (a) Quota sampling
 - (b) Convenience sampling
 - (c) Judgment sampling
 - (d) All the above
- 8. Errors other than sampling errors are termed as —

296 Sampling Techniques

- 9. The sampling procedure in which population is first divided into homogeneous groups and then a sample is drawn from each group is called—
- 10. Stratification is appropriate when population is —
- 11. A sample consists of— of population
- 12. If a10Cn investigator selects districts from a State, Panchayat Samities from districts and farmers from Panchayat Samities, then such a sampling procedure is known as—
- 13. Suppose there are 10 students in your class. You want to select 3 out of them. How many distinct samples are possible?
- 14. Discuss how you would you use the lottery method to select 3 students out of 25 in your class using simple random sampling with replacement and without replacement
- 15. Explain the procedure for selecting a random sample of 10 students out of 60 in your group by using random number tables
- 16. Do the errors in sample studies are always greater than that of complete enumeration? Justify your answer
- 17. A population consists of four numbers 3,7,11 and 15. consider all simple random samples of size 2 that can be drawn (i) with replacement & (ii) without replacement from this population
- 18. Suggest three situations when sampling is more suitable than census
- 19. Distinguish between sampling errors and Non sampling errors
- 20. If a survey is conducted to estimate the crop production in villages and on farms, which type of sampling is preferred?
- 21. For each of the following sampling plans, suggest methods of sampling plans

- (a) A librarian wants to estimate the proportion of the damaged books in the library. He decide to select a book per shelf as sample by measuring 12 inches from the left edge of each shelf and selecting the book in that location
- (b) Political surveyors visit 200 houses to collect the details of eligible voters in each house whom they intend to vote for
- 22. Give three situations where non sampling errors arise.

Answers:

- 3) a 4) d 5) d1) b 2) c
- 6 (a) systematic sampling (b) cluster sampling (c) systematic sampling
- 7) d 8) non sampling errors 9) stratified random sampling 10) hetrogeneous
- 11) representative part 12) multi-stage sampling $13\,10C_3$

Glossary

Arithmetic Mean : The sum of observations divided by

the number of observations.

Bar Diagram : Diagrammatic representation of

data using bars proportional to the

frequencies

Bivariate Frequency Table : Frequency distribution of a bivariate

data in rows and columns

Box plot : Box plot is the graphical

representation of data based on its quartiles. It is also known as box

and whisker plot.

Census : Data collected from each and every

unit of the populations

Central Tendency : Tendency of the observations in a

data to cluster around a central value

is called central tendency.

Chronological : Classification based on time.

Classification

Classification : Arrangement of items according to

some attributes

Cluster Sampling : Choosing a cluster of items as a unit.

Coefficient of QD : Relative measure of dispersion based

on Quartiles.

Coefficient of variation : Relative measure of dispersion based

on standard deviation.

Combined mean : The mean of a combined group two or

more sets taken together.

Conditional probability : Probability of an event conditioned by

another event

Continuous variables : Variables take any values within a

specified range.

Covariance : It indicates strength of

relationship between two variables.

CSO : Central Statistical Office

Cumulative Frequency : Number of observations less than or

greater than a particular value.

Cumulative Frequency Tabular representation of cumulative

Table

frequencies

Data : Any measurement, result, fact or

observation which gives information.

Deciles : The values of a data which divide the

distribution into ten equal parts are

called deciles.

Dichotomy : Classification into two disjoint groups

: Variables take countable number of Discrete variable

values.

Enumeration : The process of data collection by

enumerator.

Enumerator : The deputed person the

investigator to collect data from

field.

Equally likely events : Two or more events having an equal

chance of occurrence.

: Subset of a sample space. **Event**

: Number of repetitions of Frequency an

observation

: Joining the points of a frequency Frequency curve

polygon by a freehand smoothed

curve

Frequency polygon : Graphical device for understanding

the shapes of distributions.

Frequency Table : Tabular representation of frequencies Geographical : Classification based on location.

Classification

Geometric Mean : GM is the n th root of the product of n

observations in a data.

Harmonic Mean : HM of a number of observations is the

reciprocal of the AM of the reciprocals

of the observations.

Histogram : Graphical representation of frequency

distribution using adjacent vertical

bars.

Independent events : Occurrence of one event does not

affect the occurrence of the other

Investigator : The person authorised to make

investigation.

ISI : Indian Statistical Institution

Kurtosis : Measure of Peakedness

Lepto Kurtic : Highly peaked curve.

Manifold Classification : Classification by considering more

than one attribute at a time

Mean deviation : Arithmetic mean of the absolute

deviations of observations from their

average

Median : The middlemost observation in the

data which divides the distribution into two equal parts, when the data

is arranged in ascending or

descending order.

Meso Kurtic : Curve which is moderately peaked.

Mode : Mode of a data is the value that is

repeated most often in the data.

Moments : Represent a convenient and unifying

method of summarising certain

descriptive statistical measures

Multistage Sampling Sampling in various stages.

Mutually exclusive events : Events which cannot occur together.

Non Sampling Error : Errors other than sampling error.

NSSO National Sample Survey Office

Ogives : Curves obtained by plotting

cumulative frequencies.

Percentage Frequency : Frequency in terms of the percentage

of the total frequency

Percentage Frequency : Tabular representation of percentage

Table frequencies

Percentiles : The values of a data which divide the

distribution into hundred equal parts

are called deciles.

Pie diagram : Circle divided in to various segments

proportional to the frequencies.

Platy Kurtic : Curve which is flat topped.

: All elements whose characteristics Population

are being studied

Probability : A numerical measure of the possibility

of an event.

Probability Sampling : All units have specified probability of

being included in the sample

Qualitative Classification : Classification based on the quality

: Data which can be observed but Qualitative data

cannot be numerically measured.

Quantitative Classification : Classification based on quantity

Quantitative data : Variables which can be numerically

measured.

: Half of the difference between third Quartile deviation

quartile and first quartile

: The values of a data which divide the Quartiles

distribution into four equal parts are

called deciles.

Random experiment : Experiment having more than one

possible result.

Range : Difference between the highest and

lowest values.

Relative Frequency : Ratio of frequency to the total

frequency

Relative Frequency Table : Tabular representation of relative

frequencies

Sample : Representative part of the population

Sample space : The set of all possible outcomes of a

random experiment.

Sampling : Studying the population by using

samples.

Sampling Error : Errors due to sampling.

Scatter plots : Diagrammatic representation of

bivariate data

Simple event : The basic possible outcome of a

random experiment.

Simple Random Sampling : All units have equal chance or

probability of being included in the

sample

Skewness : Lack of symmetry

Standard deviation : Positive square root of the arithmetic

mean of the squares ofdeviations of the observations from their arithmetic

mean

Statistical Investigation : Collection, organization, analysis and

interpretation of data according to

well defined procedure.

Stratified Sampling : Sampling by dividing the population

into strata.

Symmetric distribution : Data distributed equally on either

sides of the mode.

Systematic Sampling Sampling by systematic manner.

: Presentation of data in rows and **Tabulation**

columns.

: Square of standard deviation Variance

Weighted AM : The AM that assign a weight to each

observation on its importance related

to other is called weighted AM.

References

- 1. Principles of Statistics, Dr. S M Shukla and Dr.Sahai, Sahitya Bhavan Publications, Delhi
- 2. Mathematics and Statistics for Economics, G.S Monga, Vikas Publishing House pvt ltd
- 3. Fundamentals of Mathematical Statistics, S.C Gupta & V K Kapoor, Sultan Chand & sons Educational Publishers.
- 4. Fundamentals of Statistics, D N Elhance, Veena Elhance & B.L. Agarwal, Kitab Mahal Publishers.
- 5. Statistical Methods, S. P. Gupta, Sultan Chand & Sons, New Delhi.
- 6. Applied General Statistics, Frederick E Croxton, Dudley J Cowden, Sidney Klein, Prentice Hall India.
- 7. Fundamentals of Mathematical Statistics: S C Gupta, V K Kapoor, Sulthan Chand & sons, New Delhi
- 8. Business Statistics, Naval Bajpai, Pearson Educational Publications
- 9. Practical Statistics ,R.S.N Pillai & Bagavathi
- 10. Programmed Statistics, B L Agarwal, New Age Publishers, Delhi
- 11. Elementary Statistical Methods, S.P. Gupta ,Sultan Chand & sons Publishing co.
- 12. Introduction to Statistics, R.P.Hooda
- 13. Elementary Statistics A step by step Approach, Allan G Bluman, McGraw Hill Publishers.
- 14. Elementary Statistics and Indian Economic development -T.R. Jain, V.K. Ohri, VK Publishers Delhi.

- 15. Statistics for Management and Economics, Gerald Keller & Brian Warrack, Eastern Economy Edition
- 16. Statistics for Management, Richard.J.Levin & David S Rubin, Eastern **Economy Edition**
- 17. Statistics, David Freedman, Robert Pisani & Roger Purves, w.w. Norton & Company Inc , Viva Books Pvt Ltd, Delhi
- 18. Probability and Statistics for Engineers, GS S Bhishma Rao, SCITECH Publishers.
- 19. Schaums Outlines, Statistics Murray R Spiegal & Larry J Stephens, Metric Editions, Schaums Publishing Company, New York
- 20. Head First Statistics, Dawn Griffiths, Shroft Publishers and Distributors Pv. Ltd.
- 21. Statistics an Introduction, Robert D Mason, Douglas A Lind, and William G Marchal, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc.

.1 Appendix-1



Many softwares are available in the market for statistical data analysis. Spreadsheet, SPSS, Statistica, Minitab, R etc.. are some examples. Among these R is free software programming language and software environment for statistical data analysis and graphics. Some of the R – Codes are given below.

Frequency Distribution of Qualitative Data Example 1

Following are school types of 54 schools in an education district.

A C CC H HH C C D DDDDD E A AA B BBB C E EEEE G G A AB A A D D E F FFF G D D A A B G GGG H

Obtain the frequency distribution of school types.

R Codes

>school=c("A","C", "C", "C", "H", "H", "H", "C",
"C", "D", "D", "D", "D", "D", "E", "A", "A",
"A", "B", "B", "B", "B", "C", "E", "E", "E",
"E","E","G", "G", "A", "A", "B", "A", "A", "D",
"D","E", "F", "F", "F", "F", "G", "D","D", "A",
"A", "B", "G", "G", "G", "G", "H") # Enter the raw
data as a vector
>table(school) # Prepare the frequency
distribution for school #type

Output:

School A B C D E F G H

10 6 6 10 7 4 7 4

Remark: To get a fancy output one can use the R Codes:

>mytable=table(school) # Prepare the frequency table

>cbind(mytable) Prepare a fancy frequency table(try!)

Bar Diagrams

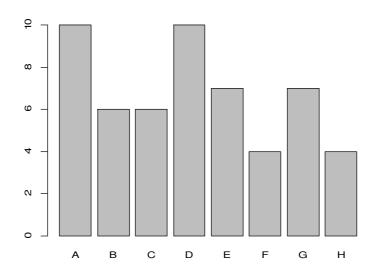
Example 2(Simple Bar Diagram)

Draw the bar graph of the variable school types in example 1.

R Codes

>school >mytable=table(school) >barplot(mytable)

Output:



Remark: To get a fancy output one can use the R Codes:

```
>mytable=table(school)
```

```
>barplot(mytable,xlab="School Type",ylab="No.of
Schools", main="BAR DIAGRAM",
col=c("red", "yellow", "green", "violet",
```

Example 3(Multiple and Subdivided Bar diagrams)

Following table shows the number of students admitted in different faculties in a university indifferent years:

Sl.Number	Year	Humanity	Science	Commerce
1	1996	2810	890	540
2	1997	3542	1363	471
3	1998	4301	1662	652
4	1999	5362	2071	895
5	2000	6593	2752	1113

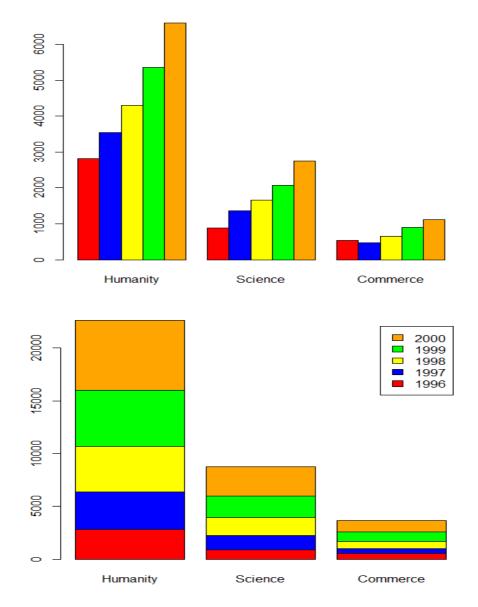
R Codes

```
>no.stud=matrix(c(2810,890,540,3542,1363,471,4301,
1662,652,5362,2071,895,6593,2752,1113), byrow=T,
ncol=3)
# Entries( that is number of students) into matrix
form; enter #values by row and number of columns
is 3;
>rownames (no.stud) =c ("1996", "1997", "1998", "1999", "
2000")
# define row names
>colnames(no.stud) = c("Humanity", "Science", "Commerc
e")
 # define column names
             # Print table in the matrix form
>no.stud
>barplot (no.stud,
col=c("red", "blue", "yellow", "green", "orange"),
legend = rownames(no.stud))
```

Gives subdivided bar diagram with legends as row names.

>barplot(no.stud,beside=T,col=c("red","blue","yell ow", "green", "orange")) # Gives multiple bar diagram in which bars side by #side.

Outputs



Pie Diagram

Example 4(For qualitative data)

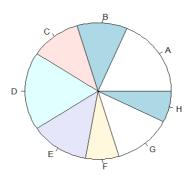
Draw Pie diagram for the school types in example 1.

```
>school #print the values of the qualitative
variable `school'
>mytable=table(school)
```

>pie(mytable) # pie diagram for the frequency
table of #school.

>pie(mytable,label=c("A","B","C","D","E","F","G","H"))

Output



Example 5 (For quantitative data)

The salesof an appliance in 5 cities in October, 2013 is given in lakhs(Rs.) is given bellow:

Kannur	Ko	zhikode Cochi	Kollam	
Thiru	vanathapu	ram		
78.5	98.75	135,75	65.5	82.45

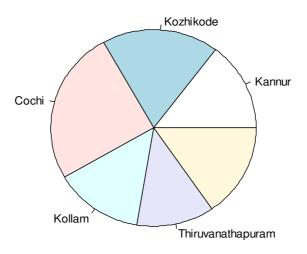
Draw the pie diagram for the sales data

Answer

R Codes

```
>sales.data=c(78.5, 98.75, 135,75, 65.5, 82.45)
>names=c("Kannur"," Kozhikode"," Cochi", "Kollam"
, "Thiruvanathapuram")
>pie(sales.data,label=names)
```

Output



Frequency Distribution of Quantitative variables

Example6: The daily numbers computer stoppages are observed over 30 days at a school computing center. Prepare the frequency distribution and draw the line diagram for the following data.

Daily Numbers of Computer Stoppages

3	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	2	2
0	0	0	1	2	1	2	0	0	1	6
4	3	3	1	2	1					

R Codes

>comp.stoppage=c(3,1,1,0,1,0,1,1,0,2,2,0,0,0,1,2,1
,2,0,0,1,6,4,3,3,1,2,1)

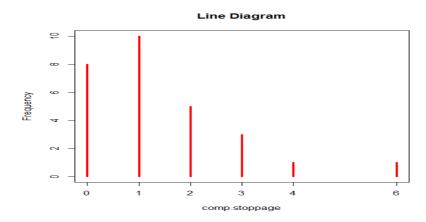
Enter the raw data as a vector
> stoppage=table(comp.stoppage)

#Prepare the frequency table(Try the table output!)
>plot(stoppage, type = "h", col = "red",
lwd=3,ylab=Frequency main="Line Diagram")

#Draw the line diagram;type="h" adds vertical
lines and lwd=3 #decides the thickness of vertical

Output

lines.



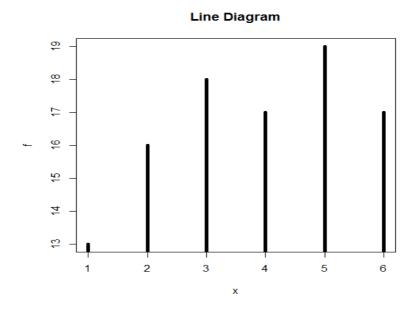
Example7.(When values and frequencies are directly given)

The number (X) obtained when a die is tossed 100 times. is tabulates as

X:	1	2	3	4	5	6
f:	13	16	18	17	19	17

R Codes

>x=c(1,2,3,4,5,6) >f=c(13,16,18,17,19,17) >plot(x,f,type="h",lwd=4,xlab="x",ylab="f",main="L ine Diagram")



Histogram

Example 8

Obtain the Histogram for the data

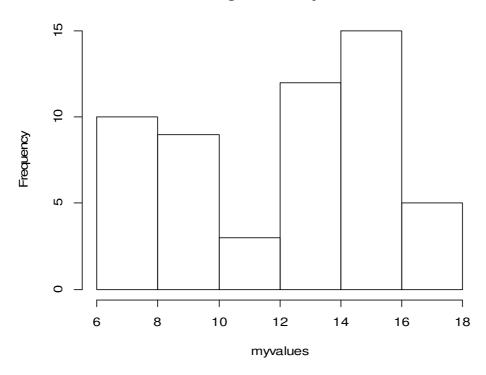
8	16	13	16	15	16	17	16	12	18	13	15
	15	14	14	15	15	14	10	12	15	15	8
	6	9	8	9	6	14	14	15	10	14	6
	13	17	10	13	17	10	10	15	6	10	8
	14	6	13	12	10	8	16	15	17		

R Codes

>myvalues=c(8,16,13,16, 15, 16, 17, 16, 12, 18, 13, 15, 15, 14, 14, 15, 15, 14, 10, 12, 15, 15, 8, 6, 9, 8, 9, 6, 14, 14, 15, 10, 14, 6, 13, 17, 10, 13, 17, 10, 10, 15, 6, 10, 8, 14, 6, 13, 12, 10, 8, 16, 15, 17)

>hist(myvalues) # Default output; break points set
automatically

Histogram of myvalues



>hist(myvalues,breaks=c(5,6.5,8,9.5,11,12.5,14,15.5,17,18.5),col="red") # Fancy; break points are manualy set.(Try!)

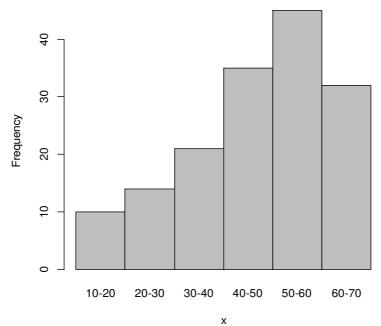
Example 8(a) Draw the histograms for the following frequency distributions

1. Class: 10-20 20-30 30-40 40-50 50-60 60-70 14 21 35 45 32 Freq.: 10

R Codes

>x=c("10-20","20-30","30-40","40-50","50-60", "60-70") > f=c(10,14,21,35,45,32)

barplot(f,names=x,space=0,xlab="x",ylab="Frequ ency") # It #is a trick of drwing bardiagram with 0 space between bars.



20 25 30 2. Midvalue: 5 10 15 14 21 32 Frequency: 1 8 18

R Codes

>x=c("5","10","15","20","25","30") >f=c(1,8,14,21,18,32)>barplot(f,names=x,space=0) # Try!

Probability Curve (probability Density Plot)

Example 9 Draw the probability curve for the data given in example 8

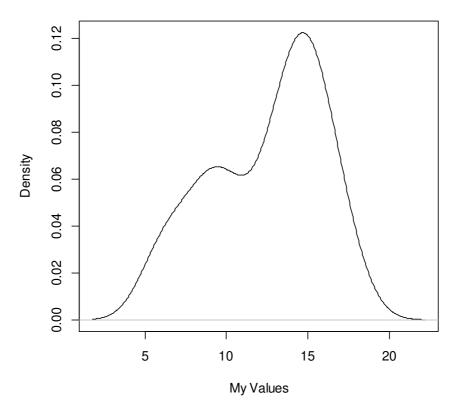
R Codes

>myvalues=c(8,16,13,16, 15, 16, 17, 16, 12, 18, 13, 15, 15, 14, 14, 15, 15, 14, 10, 12, 15, 15, 8, 6, 9, 8, 9, 6, 14, 14, 15, 10, 14, 6, 13, 17, 10, 13, 17, 10, 10, 6, 10, 8, 14, 6, 13, 12, 10, 8, 16, 15, 17)

>plot(density(myvalues))# default output(Try!)

>plot(density(myvalues),xlab="My
Values",main="Probability Curve")# Output shown

Probability Curve



Scattar Diagram

Example 10 Draw Ascattar diagram to the bivariate data given bellow and comment on the plot.

Height(Cm): 157 159 163 156 171 180 153 159

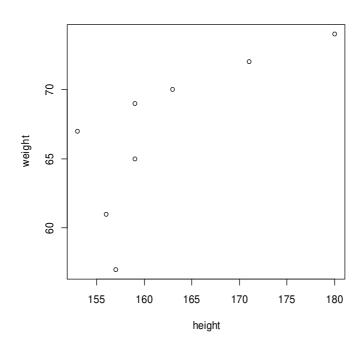
Weight(Kg): 57 65 70 61 72 74 67 69

R Codes/ Outputs

>height=c(157,159,163,156,171,180,153,159)

>weight=c(57,65,70,61,72,74,67,69)

>plot(height, weight)



Descriptive Statistics

Example 10 Find the common measures of central tendencies and dispersions for the data in example 9(myvalues)

R Codes/ Outputs

```
>mean(myvalues) # Arithematic Mean
[1] 12.46296
>median(myvalues) # Median
[1] 13.5
>sd(myvalues) # Standard Deviation
[1] 3.457084
var(myvalues)
[1] 11.95143
```

Quantiles(Quartiles, Deciles, Percentilesetc)

Example 11 Find the three quartiles, third and seventh deciles and 14th, 23rd and 72th percentiles for the data in example 9(myvalues)

R Codes/ Outputs

>quantile(myvalues) # Default is minimum, Q1, Q2, Q3 and maximum

0%	25%	50%	75%	100%
6.0	10.0	13.5	15.0	18.0

>quantile(myvalues,probs=c(.3,.7,.14,.23,.72))# deciles and #percentiles of specified order.

30%	70%	14%	23%	72%
10	15	8	10	15

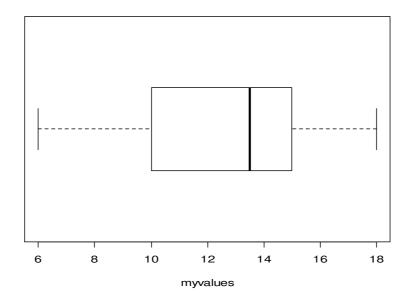
Box and Whisker Plot

Example 12Draw the box and whisker plot for the data in example 9(myvalues)

R Codes

>boxplot (myvalues, horizontal=T, xlab="myvalues")

Output



Try the code: >boxplot (myvalues)

Range and inter Quartile Range

Example 13Find the range and inter quartile range for the data in example 9(myvalues)

R Codes/ Outputs

```
>range(myvalues) # Wrong code!! See the output
     6 18
>range=max (myvalues) -min (myvalues)
>range
[1] 12
>IQR(myvalues) # Inter Quartile Range; IQR=Q3-Q1
[1] 5
```

.2 Appendix-2

CENSUS- 2011

POPULATION AND DECADAL GROWTH RATE

As per 2011 Provisional Population Figures, Rural Population in Kerala is 17,455,506. Out of this 8,403,706 are males and 9,051,800 are females whereas urban population in this state is 15,932,171. Out of this, 7,617,584 are males and 8,314,587 are females. The decadal decline of rural population was -25.96%, whereas the urban population has grown by 92.72%.

TRENDS IN RURAL AND URBAN CLASSIFICATION OF POPULATION IN KERALA

The State has now 52.30 percent rural population in 2011 Census as against 74.04 per cent in 2001 Census. The huge growth in urban population during the past decade 2001-2011(92.72 %) could be attributed squarely to the manifold increase in number of Towns in the State between 2001 & 2011 from 159 to 520. 47.72% of the total population of Kerala are from Urban. Ernakulam is the most urbanised district (68.07%) and Wayanad (3.87%) is the least urbanised district of the State.

POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 0-6 AGE

Total Population in the age group 0-6 is 3,322,247. Out of this males are 1,695,935 and females are 1,626,312. Rural Population in the age group 0-6 is 1,747,512. Males are 891,668 and females are 855,844. Urban Population of the age group 0-6 is 1,574,735. Out of this 804,267 are males and 770,468 are females. Percentage of rural population in the age group 0-6 to the total rural population is 10.01 and that of urban is 9.88

SEX RATIO (FEMALES PER 1000 MALES)

The Overall sex ratio of Kerala is 1084 females per 1000 males. Whereas, sex ratio of rural area is 1077 and that of urban area is 1091.

CHILD SEX RATIO (0-6 YEARS)

Child sex ratio in respect of 0-6 age population in Kerala is 959. In rural areas it is 960, whereas, sex ratio of 0-6 age population in urban areas is 958.

LITERACY

Total number of literates in Kerala is 28,234,227and total literacy rate is 93.91%. Among these, literates in Rural area is 14,595,727 and that in Urban area is 13,638,500. The numbers of male literates in Rural area is 7,158,427 and the number of male literates in Urban area is 6,597,461. Female literates in rural areas are 7,437,300 and that in urban area is 7,041,039. Literacy rate in the rural area is 92.92% and that of urban area is 94.99 %. The gender gap in literacy in rural area of the State is found to be 4.55%; whereas that in urban area is 3.5%

Figures at a glance and Data Sheet showing district level break up of Rural & Urban of the state is attached.

(See overleaf)

.3 Appendix-3

Distrubution of Population, Decadal Growth Rate, Sex-Ratio and Population Density

State/ Distric	ಕ	<u>~</u>	Population 2011	11	Perce decadal rata popul	Percentage decadal growth rate of population	Sex-F (Num Femal 1000 N	Sex-Ratio* (Number of Females per 1000 Males)	Population density per sq. km.	ation per sq. n.
		Persons	Males	Females	1991-01	1991-01 2001-11	2001	2011	2001	2011
2		က	4	2	9	7	œ	6	9	11
K erala		3,33,87,677	1,60,21,290	1,73,66,387	+9.43	+4.86	1058	1084	816	829
Kasaragod		13,02,600	6,26,617	6,75,983	+12.37	+8.18	1047	1079	604	654
Kannur		25,25,637	11,84,012	13,41,625	+6.98	+4.84	1090	1133	812	852
Wayanad		8,16,558	4,01,314	4,15,244	+16.14	14.60	362	1035	396	383
Kozhikode		30,89,543	14,73,028	16,16,515	+9.89	+7.31	1057	1097	1228	1318
Malappuram		41,10,956	19,61,014	21,49,942	+17.09	+13.39	1066	1096	1021	1158
Palakkad		28,10,892	13,60,067	14,50,825	+9.88	+7.39	1066	1067	584	627
Thrissur		31,10,327	14,74,665	16,35,662	+8.66	+4.58	1092	1109	981	1026
Ernakulam		32,79,860	16,17,602	16,62,258	+9.35	+5.60	1019	1028	1012	1069
Idukki		11,07,453	5,51,944	5,55,509	+7.03	-1.93	993	1006	259	254
Kottayam		19,79,384	9,70,140	10,09,244	+6.86	+1.32	1025	1040	885	968
Alappuzha		21,21,943	10,10,252	11,11,691	+5.39	+0.61	1079	1100	1492	1501
Pathanamthitta	a	11,95,537	5,61,620	6,33,917	+3.84	-3.12	1094	1129	468	453
Kollam		26,29,703	12,44,815	13,84,888	+7.38	+1.72	1069	1113	1038	1056
Thiruvananthapuram	apuram	33,07,284	15,84,200	17,23,084	+9.76	+2.25	1060	1088	1476	1509

*For calculation of sex ratio, others have been considered as males.

Appendix-4 .4

Sex-Ratio for State and Districts: 1901-2011

	2011	14	1084	1079	1133	1035	1097	1096	1067	1109	1028	1006	1040	1100	1129	1113	1088
	2001	13	1058	1047	1090	566	1057	1066	1066	1092	1019	993	1025	1079	1094	1069	1060
	1991	12	1036	1026	1049	996	1027	1053	1901	1085	1000	576	1003	1021	1062	1035	1036
(5:	1981	11	1032	1020	1040	949	1020	1052	1056	1100	266	963	1001	1043	1056	1022	1030
1000 male	1971	10	1016	866	1033	922	1004	1041	1056	1081	886	937	166	1025	1019	1000	1008
*Sex-ratio (Number of females per 1000 males)	1961	6	1022	1026	1048	903	1007	1057	1077	1093	666	914	886	1026	1011	966	1005
mber of fe	1921	8	1028	1046	1074	838	6101	1055	1085	1105	8001	606	286	1022	966	266	1010
ratio (Nur	1941	7	1027	1039	1110	835	1044	1062	1079	1082	994	875	996	1003	986	1013	1017
* Sex-	1931	9	1022	1040	1106	804	1032	1059	1079	1075	994	834	996	266	516	9001	1003
	1921	2	1011	1050	1121	786	1038	1037	1069	1021	696	850	947	986	646	686	981
	1161	4	1008	1053	6201	815	1022	1020	1057	1009	066	842	696	786	786	886	066
	1901	3	1004	1060	1060	805	1009	1017	1042	1004	586	839	596	986	986	286	966
State/ District		2	Kerala	Kasaragod	Kannur	Wayanad	Kozhikode	Malappuram	Palakkad	Thrissur	Ernakulam	Idukki	Kottayam	Alappuzha	Pathanamthitta	Kollam	Thiruvananthapuram
State/ District	Code	1	32	10	05	83	4	92	90	20	80	60	10	11	12	13	14

*For calculation of sex ratio, others have been considered as males.

.5 Appendix-5

Population in the Age-Group 0-6, Number of Literates and Literacy Rate for State and Districts: 2011

State/		TC	Total Population	uc	Pop	Population in age	Je Je	Nur	Number of literates	ates	Life	Literacy rate*	*9
District	State/ District			- Linear		group 0-6				NAME OF TAXABLE PARTY.			200
Code		Ь	Σ	ч	а	Σ	L.	d.	Σ	H.	۵	Σ	ш
-	2	e	4	2	9	7		6	9	11	77	E	14
32	Kerala	3,33,87,677	677 1,60,21,290 1,73,66,387	1,73,66,387	33,22,247	16,95,935	16,26,312	16,26,312 2,82,34,227	1,37,55,888 1,44,78,339	1,44,78,339	93.91	96.02	91.98
10	Kasaragod	13,02,600	6,26,617	6,75,983	1,49,280	76,149	73,131	10,36,289	5,17,031	5,19,258	89.82	93.93	86.13
02	Kannur	25,25,637	11,84,012	13,41,625	2,65,276	1,35,189	1,30,087	21,56,575	10,22,972	11,33,603	95.41	97.54	93.57
03	Wayanad	8,16,558	4,01,314	4,15,244	89,720	45,776	43,944	6,49,186	3,30,093	3,19,093	89.32	92.84	85.94
04	Kozhikode	30,89,543	14,73,028	16,16,515	3,23,511	1,64,800	1,58,711	26,34,493	12,76,384	13,58,109	95.24	75.79	93.16
90	Malappuram	41,10,956	19,61,014	21,49,942	5,52,771	2,81,958	2,70,813	33,28,658	16,08,229	17,20,429	93.55	95.78	91.55
90	Palakkad	28,10,892	13,60,067	14,50,825	2,88,366	1,46,947	1,41,419	22,32,190	11,19,360	11,12,830	88.49	92.27	84.99
07	Thrissur	31,10,327	14,74,665	16,35,662	2,89,126	1,48,428	1,40,698	26,89,229	12,86,141	14,03,088	95.32	96.98	93.85
08	Ernakulam	32,79,860	16,17,602	16,62,258	2,89,281	1,48,047	1,41,234	28,61,509	14,27,572	14,33,937	95.68	97.14	94.27
60	Idukki	11,07,453	5,51,944	5,55,509	1,00,107	51,132	48,975	9,28,774	4,74,988	4,53,786	92.20	94.84	89.59
10	Kottayam	19,79,384	9,70,140	10,09,244	1,68,563	86,113	82,450	17,45,694	8,59,038	8,86,656	96.40	71.76	29:67
11	Alappuzha	21,21,943	10,10,252	11,11,691	1,86,022	95,556	90,466	18,63,558	8,95,476	9,68,082	96.26	97.90	94.80
12	Pathanamthitta	11,95,537	5,61,620	6,33,917	91,501	46,582	44,919	10,70,120	5,03,171	5,66,949	96.93	97.70	96.26
13	Kollam	26,29,703	12,44,815	13,84,888	2,38,062	1,21,481	1,16,581	22,42,757	10,76,509	11,66,248	93.77	95.83	91.95
14	Thiruvananthapuram	33,07,284	15,84,200	17,23,084	2,90,661	1,47,777	1,42,884	27,95,195	13,58,924	14,36,271	95.66	94.60	90.89

#Literacy rate is the percentage of literates to total population aged 7 years and above

.6 Appendix-6

Random Number Table