



Statistical Methods — Formula Sheet

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● Module I — Basic Concepts & Graphical Presentation

◆ Class Interval & Class Width

$$\text{Class Width} = \frac{\text{Range}}{\text{Number of Classes}}$$

$$\text{Range} = X_{\max} - X_{\min}$$

$$\text{Number of Classes (Sturges' Rule)} = 1 + 3.322 \times \log_{10}(n)$$

Where **n** = total number of observations. Class width should be a round number for ease of use. Equal class widths are preferred for histograms.

◆ Class Midpoint (Mid-Value)

$$\text{Mid-value} = \frac{\text{Lower Limit} + \text{Upper Limit}}{2}$$

Used as the representative value of a class in frequency polygon construction and further calculations like mean from grouped data.

◆ Frequency, Relative Frequency & Percentage Frequency

$$\text{Relative Frequency} = \frac{f}{N}$$

$$\text{Percentage Frequency} = \frac{f}{N} \times 100$$

Where **f** = frequency of a class, **N** = total number of observations. Relative frequency shows proportion, percentage frequency shows share out of 100.

◆ Cumulative Frequency

Cumulative Frequency = Sum of all frequencies up to and including that class

$$CF_i = f_1 + f_2 + f_3 + \dots + f_i$$

Cumulative frequency is used to construct **ogive curves** (less than and more than ogives) and to find median, quartiles, and percentiles graphically.

◆ Pie Diagram — Sector Angle

$$\text{Angle of Sector} = \frac{\text{Component Value}}{\text{Total Value}} \times 360^\circ$$

$$\text{Percentage of Component} = \frac{\text{Component Value}}{\text{Total Value}} \times 100$$

Example: If salary expense = ₹40,000 and total expense = ₹1,00,000 → Angle = $(40,000/1,00,000) \times 360^\circ = 144^\circ$

◆ Inclusive to Exclusive Class Conversion

$$\text{Correction Factor} = \frac{\text{Lower Limit of next class} - \text{Upper Limit of current class}}{2}$$

$$\text{New Lower Limit} = \text{Old Lower Limit} - \text{Correction Factor}$$

$$\text{New Upper Limit} = \text{Old Upper Limit} + \text{Correction Factor}$$

Example: Class 10-19 and 20-29 → Correction = $(20-19)/2 = 0.5$ → New class becomes **9.5 - 19.5**

◆ Less Than Cumulative Frequency Distribution

Class	Frequency (f)	Less Than CF
0 - 10	5	5
10 - 20	8	13
20 - 30	12	25
30 - 40	7	32

Less than CF adds frequencies from top down. **More than CF** adds from bottom up. Both are used to draw ogive curves for graphical median and quartile finding.

◆ Frequency Density (for unequal class widths)

$$\text{Frequency Density} = \frac{\text{Frequency}}{\text{Class Width}}$$

When class widths are unequal, the y-axis of a histogram must show **frequency density** (not frequency) so that the **area** of each bar correctly represents frequency. Equal class widths allow using frequency directly on y-axis.

● Module II — Measures of Central Tendency

◆ Concept of Central Tendency

A **measure of central tendency** is a single value that represents the center or typical value of a dataset. The three main measures are **Mean**, **Median**, and **Mode** — each defines "center" differently and is suitable for different data types and distributions.

◆ Arithmetic Mean (A.M.) — Ungrouped Data

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n}$$

Where $\sum X$ = sum of all values, n = number of observations. This is the simple mean — add all values and divide by count.

Weighted Mean:

$$\bar{X}_w = \frac{\sum wX}{\sum w}$$

Where w = weight assigned to each value X . Used when different values have different levels of importance.

◆ Arithmetic Mean — Grouped Data (Direct Method)

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum fm}{\sum f} = \frac{\sum fm}{N}$$

Where f = frequency of each class, m = midpoint of each class, N = total frequency. Multiply each midpoint by its frequency, sum them all, divide by total frequency.

◆ Arithmetic Mean — Grouped Data (Short Cut / Assumed Mean Method)

$$\bar{X} = A + \frac{\sum fd}{N}$$

Where **A** = assumed mean (any convenient value, usually middle class midpoint), **d** = (m - A) = deviation of midpoint from assumed mean, **N** = total frequency.

◆ Arithmetic Mean — Step Deviation Method

$$\bar{X} = A + \frac{\sum fu}{N} \times h$$

$$u = \frac{m - A}{h}$$

Where **h** = class width, **u** = step deviation. This simplifies calculation when class widths are equal — dividing deviations by h reduces numbers significantly.

Method	Formula	When to Use
Direct	$\sum fM/N$	Small values
Short Cut	$A + \sum fd/N$	Large values
Step Deviation	$A + (\sum fu/N) \times h$	Equal class widths

◆ Combined Mean

$$\bar{X}_{combined} = \frac{n_1 \bar{X}_1 + n_2 \bar{X}_2}{n_1 + n_2}$$

Used to find the overall mean when two groups with known means and sizes are combined. Can be extended to more than two groups.

◆ Merits and Demerits of A.M.

Merits — Based on all observations, easy to calculate, algebraically manageable, unique value, least affected by sampling fluctuations.

Demerits — Affected by extreme values (outliers), cannot be calculated for open-ended classes without assumption, may give non-integer result even for discrete data, may not

represent actual data point.

◆ Mode — Ungrouped Data

Mode = Value that occurs most frequently

If two values occur equally often → **Bimodal**. If more than two → **Multimodal**. If all values occur once → **No mode**.

◆ Mode — Grouped Data (Czuprow's Formula)

$$Z = L + \frac{f_1 - f_0}{(f_1 - f_0) + (f_1 - f_2)} \times h$$

Where:

- **L** = lower boundary of modal class (class with highest frequency)
- **f₁** = frequency of modal class
- **f₀** = frequency of class before modal class
- **f₂** = frequency of class after modal class
- **h** = class width

Example: If modal class is 20-30, f₁=15, f₀=8, f₂=10, h=10:

$$Z = 20 + \frac{15 - 8}{(15 - 8) + (15 - 10)} \times 10 = 20 + \frac{7}{12} \times 10 = 25.83$$

◆ Merits and Demerits of Mode

Merits — Not affected by extreme values, can be found graphically, applicable to qualitative data, represents actual data value.

Demerits — May not be unique (bimodal/multimodal), not based on all observations, not algebraically manageable, may not exist.

◆ Empirical Relationship Between Mean, Median & Mode

$$\text{Mode} = 3 \times \text{Median} - 2 \times \text{Mean}$$

This is Karl Pearson's empirical formula — very useful when one measure is unknown. Valid for moderately skewed distributions.

◆ Median — Ungrouped Data

For odd n:

$$\text{Median} = \text{Value at position } \frac{n+1}{2}$$

For even n:

$$\text{Median} = \frac{\text{Value at } \frac{n}{2} + \text{Value at } \frac{n}{2} + 1}{2}$$

Data must be arranged in **ascending or descending order** before finding median.

Median is the middle value that divides data into two equal halves.

◆ Median — Grouped Data

$$M = L + \frac{\frac{N}{2} - CF}{f} \times h$$

Where:

- **L** = lower boundary of median class
- **N** = total frequency
- **CF** = cumulative frequency of class before median class
- **f** = frequency of median class
- **h** = class width

Median class = class where cumulative frequency first exceeds $N/2$

Example: $N=50$, so $N/2=25$. Find class where CF first crosses 25 — that is the median class.

◆ Merits and Demerits of Median

Merits — Not affected by extreme values, can be found graphically (ogive), suitable for open-ended distributions, best for skewed data.

Demerits — Requires sorting data, not based on all values, not suitable for further algebraic treatment, affected by sampling fluctuations more than mean.

◆ Geometric Mean (G.M.) — Ungrouped Data

$$G. M. = \sqrt[n]{X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3 \times \dots \times X_n}$$

Using logarithms (easier for large n):

$$\log(G. M.) = \frac{\sum \log X}{n}$$

$$G. M. = \text{Antilog} \left(\frac{\sum \log X}{n} \right)$$

◆ Geometric Mean — Grouped Data

$$G. M. = \text{Antilog} \left(\frac{\sum f \log m}{N} \right)$$

Where **m** = midpoint of each class, **f** = frequency, **N** = total frequency. Take log of each midpoint, multiply by frequency, sum them, divide by N, take antilog.

◆ Merits, Demerits and Applications of G.M.

Merits — Suitable for averaging ratios, rates, and percentages. Less affected by extreme large values than A.M. Gives equal weight to equal ratios.

Demerits — Cannot be calculated if any value is zero or negative. More complex to calculate. Less intuitive to interpret.

Applications — Average growth rates (population, GDP), average rates of return on investments, index numbers, biological growth studies.

◆ Harmonic Mean (H.M.) — Ungrouped Data

$$H. M. = \frac{n}{\sum \frac{1}{X}} = \frac{n}{\frac{1}{X_1} + \frac{1}{X_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{X_n}}$$

◆ Harmonic Mean — Grouped Data

$$H. M. = \frac{N}{\sum \frac{f}{m}}$$

Where **f** = frequency, **m** = class midpoint, **N** = total frequency.

◆ Merits and Demerits of H.M.

Merits — Suitable for averaging rates and speeds (when same distance covered at different speeds). Gives highest weight to smallest values.

Demerits — Cannot be used if any value is zero. Difficult to calculate. Rarely used in practice. Always $\leq G.M. \leq A.M.$

◆ Relationship Between A.M., G.M. and H.M.

$$A.M. \geq G.M. \geq H.M.$$

$$G.M. = \sqrt{A.M. \times H.M.}$$

The arithmetic mean is always the largest, harmonic mean always the smallest, and geometric mean lies between them. Equality holds only when all values are identical.

◆ Quick Summary Table

Measure	Ungrouped Formula	Grouped Formula	Best Used For
A.M.	$\Sigma X/n$	$\Sigma fM/N$	Symmetric data
Mode	Most frequent	$L + [(f_1 - f_0) / ((f_1 - f_0) + (f_1 - f_2))] \times h$	Categorical, skewed
Median	Middle value	$L + [(N/2 - CF) / f] \times h$	Skewed, open-ended
G.M.	$\text{Antilog}(\Sigma \log X/n)$	$\text{Antilog}(\Sigma f \log M/N)$	Ratios, growth rates
H.M.	$n / \Sigma (1/X)$	$N / \Sigma (f/m)$	Rates, speeds

● Module III — Measures of Dispersion

◆ Concept of Dispersion

Dispersion measures how spread out or scattered the values in a dataset are around the central value. Two datasets can have the same mean but very different spreads — dispersion captures this difference. Higher dispersion = more variability = less consistency.

Absolute measures are in the same units as the data. **Relative measures** (coefficients) are unit-free — used for comparing two datasets.

◆ Range

$$\text{Range} = X_{\max} - X_{\min}$$

$$\text{Coefficient of Range} = \frac{X_{\max} - X_{\min}}{X_{\max} + X_{\min}}$$

Simplest measure of dispersion. Uses only two extreme values — highly affected by outliers. Quick to calculate but unreliable for detailed analysis.

Example: Data: 5, 8, 12, 20, 35 → Range = 35 - 5 = **30**, Coefficient = (35-5)/(35+5) = 30/40 = **0.75**

◆ Quartile Deviation (Q.D.) — Ungrouped Data

First find **Q1** (lower quartile) and **Q3** (upper quartile):

$$Q_1 = \text{Value at position } \frac{n+1}{4}$$

$$Q_3 = \text{Value at position } \frac{3(n+1)}{4}$$

$$Q.D. = \frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{2}$$

$$\text{Coefficient of Q.D.} = \frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{Q_3 + Q_1}$$

Q.D. is also called **Semi-Interquartile Range**. It measures the spread of the middle 50% of data. Not affected by extreme values — good for skewed distributions and open-ended classes.

◆ Quartile Deviation — Grouped Data

$$Q_1 = L + \frac{\frac{N}{4} - CF}{f} \times h$$

$$Q_3 = L + \frac{\frac{3N}{4} - CF}{f} \times h$$

$$Q.D. = \frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{2}$$

Where:

- **L** = lower boundary of quartile class
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- **N** = total frequency
- **CF** = cumulative frequency before the quartile class
- **f** = frequency of quartile class
- **h** = class width

Q1 class = class where CF first exceeds $N/4$ **Q3 class** = class where CF first exceeds $3N/4$

◆ Deciles and Percentiles (Extended Quartile Logic)

$$D_k = L + \frac{\frac{kN}{10} - CF}{f} \times h \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, 9)$$

$$P_k = L + \frac{\frac{kN}{100} - CF}{f} \times h \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, 99)$$

Deciles divide data into 10 equal parts, **Percentiles** into 100 equal parts. $D_5 = P_{50}$ = Median. Same formula structure as median and quartiles — only the fraction changes.

◆ Mean Deviation (M.D.) — Ungrouped Data

$$M.D.(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sum |X - \bar{X}|}{n}$$

$$M.D.(M) = \frac{\sum |X - M|}{n}$$

$$\text{Coefficient of M.D.} = \frac{M.D.(\bar{X})}{\bar{X}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{M.D.(M)}{M}$$

Mean deviation is calculated from mean **or** median. Always use absolute values (ignore negative signs). M.D. from median is always minimum compared to M.D. from any other value.

◆ Mean Deviation — Grouped Data

$$M.D.(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sum f|m - \bar{X}|}{N}$$

$$M.D.(M) = \frac{\sum f|m - M|}{N}$$

Where **m** = class midpoint, **f** = frequency, **N** = total frequency. Calculate deviation of each midpoint from mean/median, take absolute value, multiply by frequency, sum, divide by N.

Steps:

1. Find mean or median
 2. Find $|m - \text{mean}|$ for each class
 3. Multiply by frequency: $f \times |m - \text{mean}|$
 4. Sum all $\rightarrow \sum f|m - \text{mean}|$
 5. Divide by N
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◆ Standard Deviation (S.D.) — Ungrouped Data

Direct Method:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{n}}$$

Shortcut Method:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2}{n} - \left(\frac{\sum X}{n}\right)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2}$$

Assumed Mean Method:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{n} - \left(\frac{\sum d}{n}\right)^2}$$

Where $d = X - A$ (A = assumed mean). Standard deviation is the most important and widely used measure of dispersion — it uses all values and is algebraically manageable.

◆ Standard Deviation — Grouped Data

Direct Method:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f(m - \bar{X})^2}{N}}$$

Shortcut Method:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum fd^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum fd}{N}\right)^2}$$

Step Deviation Method:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum fu^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum fu}{N}\right)^2} \times h$$

Where $u = (m - A)/h$. Step deviation method is easiest for grouped data with equal class widths — reduces large numbers to small integers before squaring.

◆ Standard Deviation — Step by Step Table Method

Class	m	f	$u=(m-A)/h$	fu	fu^2
10-20	15	5	-2	-10	20
20-30	25	8	-1	-8	8
30-40	35	12	0	0	0
40-50	45	7	1	7	7
Total		32		-11	35

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{35}{32} - \left(\frac{-11}{32}\right)^2} \times 10$$

◆ Coefficient of Variation (C.V.)

$$C.V. = \frac{\sigma}{\bar{X}} \times 100$$

C.V. is a **relative measure** of dispersion expressed as a percentage. Used to compare variability of two or more datasets with different units or different means. **Lower C.V. = More consistent/stable**. Higher C.V. = More variable.

Example: Dataset A: mean=50, $\sigma=5 \rightarrow$ C.V.=10%. Dataset B: mean=200, $\sigma=15 \rightarrow$ C.V.=7.5%. Dataset B is **more consistent** despite having larger σ .

◆ Variance

$$\text{Variance} = \sigma^2$$

Different formulae for Variance:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{n} \quad (\text{Ungrouped, Direct})$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum X^2}{n} - \bar{X}^2 \quad (\text{Ungrouped, Shortcut})$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum f(m - \bar{X})^2}{N} \quad (\text{Grouped, Direct})$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum fd^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum fd}{N} \right)^2 \quad (\text{Grouped, Shortcut})$$

$$\sigma^2 = \left[\frac{\sum fu^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum fu}{N} \right)^2 \right] \times h^2 \quad (\text{Grouped, Step Deviation})$$

Variance is simply the **square of standard deviation**. It is always non-negative. Units of variance are the square of data units — which is why S.D. (square root of variance) is more interpretable.

◆ Combined Standard Deviation

$$\sigma_{combined} = \sqrt{\frac{n_1(\sigma_1^2 + d_1^2) + n_2(\sigma_2^2 + d_2^2)}{n_1 + n_2}}$$

Where:

- $d_1 = \bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_{combined}$
- $d_2 = \bar{X}_2 - \bar{X}_{combined}$
- $\bar{X}_{combined} = (n_1\bar{X}_1 + n_2\bar{X}_2)/(n_1+n_2)$

◆ Complete Summary Table — All Dispersion Measures

Measure	Ungrouped Formula	Grouped Formula	Relative Measure
Range	Xmax - Xmin	Xmax - Xmin	(L-S)/(L+S)
Q.D.	(Q3-Q1)/2	Use quartile formula	(Q3-Q1)/(Q3+Q1)
M.D.	$\sum X - \bar{X} /n$	$\sum f m - \bar{X} /N$	M.D./Mean
S.D.	$\sqrt{[\sum X^2/n - \bar{X}^2]}$	$\sqrt{[\sum fd^2/N - (\sum fd/N)^2]}$	$\sigma/\bar{X} \times 100$ (C.V.)
Variance	σ^2	σ^2	—

◆ Properties and Comparison of Dispersion Measures

Property	Range	Q.D.	M.D.	S.D.
Uses all values	✗	✗	✓	✓

Property	Range	Q.D.	M.D.	S.D.
Affected by outliers	✓ Very	✗ No	Slightly	Moderately
Algebraically manageable	✗	✗	✗	✓
Suitable for open-ended	✗	✓	✗	✗
Most reliable	✗	✗	✗	✓

Standard Deviation is the most reliable, most used, and mathematically most useful measure of dispersion. It is the foundation of many advanced statistical techniques including correlation, regression, and hypothesis testing.
