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Statistics:

definition of statistics by different authors

1. Croxdale and Kreysig:

 "Statistics is the science of decision-making in the face of uncertainty."

2. Bowley:

• "Statistics is the science of counting and measuring."

3. Horace Secrist:

• "Statistics may be defined as the science of collection, presentation, analysis, and interpretation of numerical data."

4. Ronald A. Fisher:

• "To call in the statistician after the experiment is done may be no more than asking him to perform a

Characterstics of statistical data:

Statistical data, which is a collection of facts or information represented in a numerical form, possesses several characteristics that are essential for its interpretation and analysis. Here are some key characteristics of statistical data:

- 1. **Quantitativeness:** Statistical data is numerical in nature and can be expressed in terms of numbers. This allows for quantitative analysis and comparison.
- 2. **Objectivity:** Statistical data should be objective and free from personal bias. It should represent facts or observations without subjective interpretation.
- 3. **Accuracy:** Data accuracy is crucial for reliable statistical analysis. Errors or inaccuracies in data collection or recording can significantly impact the validity of results.
- 4. **Relevance:** The data collected should be relevant to the research or analysis being conducted. Irrelevant or extraneous information may hinder the accuracy and significance of the findings.
- 5. **Consistency:** Consistency refers to the uniformity and standardization of data collection methods. Consistent data collection methods ensure that the results are comparable over time and across different studies.
- 6. **Completeness:** Complete data includes all the relevant information needed for analysis. Incomplete data may lead to biased or inaccurate conclusions.
- 7. **Homogeneity:** Data should be homogeneous, meaning that it belongs to the same category or class. Mixing different types of data can lead to misinterpretation.
- 8. **Precision:** Precision refers to the level of detail or granularity in the data. Precise data allows for a more accurate and detailed analysis.

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- 9. **Reliability:** Reliable data can be depended upon for consistency and accuracy. Reliable data is collected using well-established and consistent methods.
- 10. **Representativeness:** For statistical data to be meaningful, it should represent the entire population or sample being studied. A representative sample ensures that the findings can be generalized to the larger population.
- 11. **Measurability:** Statistical data should be measurable using standard units. This allows for comparisons and quantitative analysis.
- 12. **Timeliness:** Timely data is relevant and useful. Out dated or obsolete data may not accurately reflect the current state of affairs.



Role Of Statistical Techniques In The Field Of Business And Industry:

Statistical techniques play a crucial role in the field of business and industry by providing valuable tools for decision-making, problem-solving, and improving overall efficiency. Here are several key roles that statistical techniques play in these domains:

1. Data Analysis and Interpretation:

 Statistical techniques help businesses analyze and interpret large datasets, allowing them to extract meaningful insights and trends. This information is essential for informed decision-making.

2. Forecasting and Predictive Modeling:

 Businesses use statistical methods for forecasting future trends and outcomes. This is particularly important for demand forecasting, financial planning, and inventory management.

3. Quality Control and Process Improvement:

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Statistical process control (SPC) and Six Sigma methodologies rely on • statistical techniques to monitor and improve the quality of products and processes. This ensures consistency and reliability in manufacturing and service delivery.

4. Market Research:

Statistical methods are employed in market research to analyze consumer behavior, preferences, and market trends. Businesses can make informed decisions based on these analyses, such as launching new products or targeting specific market segments.

5. Risk Management:

Statistical techniques help businesses assess and manage risks. This includes • analyzing financial risks, identifying potential issues in project management, and evaluating the likelihood of various outcomes.

6. Performance Measurement:

Key performance indicators (KPIs) are often analyzed using statistical methods to evaluate business performance. This allows organizations to identify areas of improvement and track progress toward strategic goals.

7. Employee Productivity and Human Resources:

Statistical techniques are applied in human resources for employee performance evaluations, workforce planning, and talent management. They help organizations make data-driven decisions about recruitment, training, and employee development.

8. Financial Analysis:

Businesses use statistical tools for financial analysis, including regression analysis, trend analysis, and variance analysis. This aids in budgeting, financial planning, and assessing the financial health of an organization.

9. Customer Relationship Management (CRM):

Statistical techniques are employed in CRM to analyze customer data, predict customer behavior, and improve customer satisfaction. This helps in tailoring marketing strategies and enhancing customer experiences.

10. Supply Chain Management:

Statistical methods are used to optimize supply chain processes, including • inventory management, demand forecasting, and logistics. This ensures efficient operations and minimizes costs.

LIMITATIONS OF STATISTICS:

Statistics, while a powerful tool for data analysis and decision-making, has its limitations. It's important to be aware of these limitations to use statistics effectively and interpret results accurately. Some of the key limitations include:

1. Assumption Dependence:



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Many statistical methods rely on specific assumptions about the data • distribution or characteristics. If these assumptions are violated, the results may be biased or inaccurate.

2. Sampling Bias:

• If the sample used in a study is not representative of the population, it can lead to sampling bias. This means that the results may not generalize well to the broader population.

3. Causation vs. Correlation:

Statistics can establish correlations between variables, but establishing causation requires additional evidence. Correlation does not imply causation, and it's crucial to avoid making unwarranted causal claims based solely on statistical associations.

4. Sensitive to Outliers:

• Outliers, extreme values in the data set, can significantly impact statistical measures such as the mean. These extreme values can distort the interpretation of results.

5. Measurement Errors:

Inaccuracies in measurement instruments or errors in data collection can introduce bias and affect the reliability of statistical analyses.

6. Confounding Variables:

Confounding variables are external factors that may influence the relationship • between the variables being studied. Failing to account for these variables can lead to incorrect conclusions.

7. Interpretation Challenges:

Statistical results require careful interpretation. Misinterpretation of statistical • findings can lead to incorrect conclusions or inappropriate decision-making.

8. Limited to Quantifiable Data:

Statistics primarily deal with quantifiable data and may not capture qualitative aspects or the full complexity of certain phenomena.

9. Ethical Considerations:

• The use of statistics involves making decisions and interpretations that can have ethical implications. Misuse of statistics or selective reporting can lead to misleading conclusions.

10. Inability to Prove Null Hypothesis:

Statistical tests can help reject a null hypothesis, but they cannot prove it. The failure to reject a null hypothesis doesn't provide evidence in favor of it; it simply means that there is not enough evidence to reject it.

CLASSIFICATION AND TABULATION OF STATISTICAL DATA:



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Classification and tabulation are essential processes in statistical analysis, helping to organize and present data in a meaningful way. Here's a brief overview of both:

Classification of Statistical Data:

1. Definition:

Classification involves grouping similar data into categories or classes based on certain characteristics or attributes.

2. Purpose:

- **Organization:** To systematically arrange data for better understanding.
- **Analysis:** Facilitates comparison and study of relationships within and between groups.

3. Types of Classification:

- **Geographical Classification:** Based on geographic location.
- Chronological Classification: Based on time periods.
- Qualitative Classification: Based on non-numeric attributes.
- Quantitative Classification: Based on numerical characteristics.

4. Steps in Classification:

- Selection of Basis: Choose the criteria for classification.
- Formation of Classes: Group data according to the chosen criteria.
- Naming of Classes: Assign suitable names or labels to the classes.

5. Examples:

- Age Group: 0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, etc.
- Income Class: Low-income, middle-income, high-income.

Tabulation of Statistical Data:

1. Definition:

Tabulation involves presenting classified data in a systematic and condensed form in the form of tables.

2. Purpose:

Simplification: Simplifies complex data for easy interpretation.

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- **Comparison:** Facilitates the comparison of different groups or categories.
- Analysis: Aids in the analysis of patterns and trends.

3. Components of a Table:

- **Title:** Describes the content or purpose of the table.
- Stub (Rows): Contains the categories or items being classified.
- Caption (Columns): Lists the characteristics or attributes being measured.

4. Types of Tables:

- Simple Tables: Present a single set of data.
- **Complex Tables:** Involve multiple sets of data for more comprehensive analysis.

5. Construction of Tables:

- Headings: Clearly label rows and columns.
- Units of Measurement: Include units for clarity.
- **Source:** Mention the source of the data.

6. Example:

Age Group	Number of Individuals			
0-5	150			
6-10	200			
11-15	180			

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION IN STATISTICS:

In statistics, a frequency distribution is a representation of the number of occurrences of different values in a dataset. It provides a summary of the distribution of values, showing how often each value or range of values occurs. This information is essential for understanding the underlying patterns and characteristics of a dataset.

Here are the key components and steps involved in creating a frequency distribution:

1. Data Collection:

• Collect the data you want to analyze. This could be a set of numerical or categorical values.

2. Data Organization:

• Organize the data in ascending or descending order, depending on your preference.

3. Range Determination:



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Determine the range of values in the dataset, which is the difference between • the maximum and minimum values. This helps in deciding the intervals or classes for the frequency distribution.

4. Number of Intervals (Classes):

Decide on the number of intervals or classes. The number of classes can impact the interpretation of the distribution. Too few classes may oversimplify the data, while too many may obscure patterns.

5. Interval Width:

• Calculate the width of each interval by dividing the range by the number of intervals. Ensure that each interval is of equal width.

6. Creating Intervals:

• Based on the interval width, create intervals or bins to group the data. Each value in the dataset falls into one of these intervals.

7. Tally and Count:

• Tally or count the number of data points falling within each interval. This count is called the frequency.

8. Constructing the Frequency Distribution Table:

Create a table that shows the intervals, their frequencies, and optionally, • cumulative frequencies. This table provides a clear summary of the distribution.

Example of a frequency distribution table:

Class Interval	Tally Marks	Frequency	Cumulative Frequency (cf)
20 - 30		2	2
30 - 40		4	6
40 - 50	J M I	6	12
50 - 60	Í II	2	14
60 - 70	JHT I	6	20
70 - 80		4	24

Digrammatical And Graphical Presentation Of Statistical Data:

Statistical data can be presented both diagrammatically and graphically to enhance understanding and facilitate interpretation. Here are some common methods for representing statistical data visually:

Diagrammatic Presentation:

1. Bar Diagram:

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Bar diagrams represent data using rectangular bars. The length of each bar • corresponds to the quantity it represents. Bar diagrams are suitable for both categorical and numerical data.

2. Pie Chart:

• Pie charts show the proportion of each category in a whole. The entire circle represents 100%, and each sector represents a percentage of the whole.

3. Pictograms:

Pictograms use pictures or symbols to represent data. Each symbol might represent a certain quantity, making it a visually appealing way to convey information.

Graphical Presentation:

1. Histogram:

Histograms display the distribution of numerical data. It consists of contiguous rectangles (bars) representing the frequencies of different intervals.

2. Line Chart:

Line charts connect data points with lines, illustrating trends or changes over time. They are especially useful for time-series data.

3. Scatter Plot:

Scatter plots show individual data points in a two-dimensional space. Each point represents the values of two variables, helping to identify relationships between them.

4. Box-and-Whisker Plot (Boxplot):

Boxplots summarize the distribution of numerical data. They provide information about the median, guartiles, and potential outliers in a dataset.

5. Frequency Polygon:

A frequency polygon is a line graph that represents the distribution of • numerical data. It is created by connecting the midpoints of the tops of the bars in a histogram.

6. Cumulative Frequency Curve (Ogive):

An ogive is a line graph that represents the cumulative frequencies of a dataset. It helps visualize the cumulative distribution of the data.

7. Heat Map:

Heat maps use color to represent values in a matrix. They are useful for • displaying the intensity of relationships or patterns in large datasets.

8. Radar Chart:

Radar charts (or spider charts) are used to display multivariate data in the form of a two-dimensional chart. Each variable is represented as an axis, and data points are connected to create a polygon.

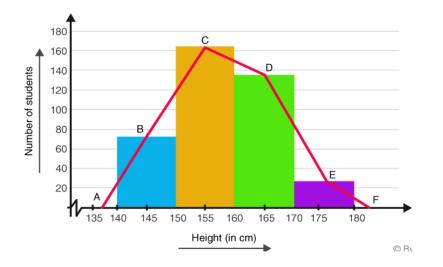


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Example 1: In a batch of 400 students, the height of students is given in the following table. Represent it through a frequency polygon.

Height (in cm)	Number of Students(Frequency)
140 – 150	74
150 - 160	163
160 - 170	135
170 - 180	28
Total	400

SOLUTION:

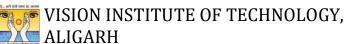


EX- In a firm of 400 employees, the percentage of monthly salary saved by each employee is given in the following table. Represent it through a bar graph.

Savings (in percentage)	Number of Employees(Frequency)
20	105
30	199
40	29
50	73
Total	400

Solution:

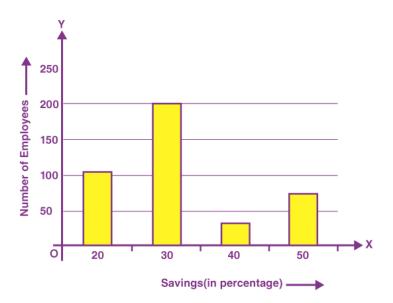
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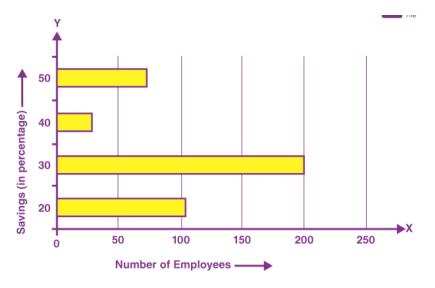
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The given data can be represented as



This can also be represented using a horizontal bar graph as follows:



EX- Uncle Bruno owns a garden with 30 black cherry trees. Each tree is of a different height. The height of the trees (in inches): 61, 63, 64, 66, 68, 69, 71, 71.5, 72, 72.5, 73, 73.5, 74, 74.5, 76, 76.2, 76.5, 77, 77.5, 78, 78.5, 79, 79.2, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 87. We can group the data as follows in a frequency distribution table by setting a range:

Height	Range	(ft)
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Number of Trees (Frequency)

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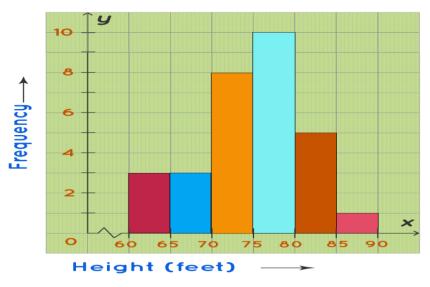
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Height Range (ft)	Number of Trees (Frequency)
60 - 75	3
66 - 70	3
71 - 75	8
76 - 80	10
81 - 85	5
86 - 90	1

This data can be now shown using a histogram. We need to make sure that while plotting a histogram, there shouldn't be any gaps between the bars.

Height of Black Cherry Trees



EX- Construct the more than cumulative frequency table and draw the Ogive for the below-given data.



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Frequency	3	8	12	14	10	6	5	2

Solution:

"More than" Cumulative Frequency Table:

Marks	Frequency	More than Cumulative Frequency
More than 1	3	60
More than 11	8	57
More than 21	12	49
More than 31	14	37
More than 41	10	23
More than 51	6	13
More than 61	5	7
More than 71	2	2

Plotting an Ogive:

Plot the points with coordinates such as (70.5, 2), (60.5, 7), (50.5, 13), (40.5, 23), (30.5, 37), (20.5, 49), (10.5, 57), (0.5, 60).

An Ogive is connected to a point on the x-axis, that represents the actual upper limit of the last class, i.e.,(80.5, 0)

Take x-axis, 1 cm = 10 marks

Y-axis = 1 cm - 10 c.f

More than the Ogive Curve:

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