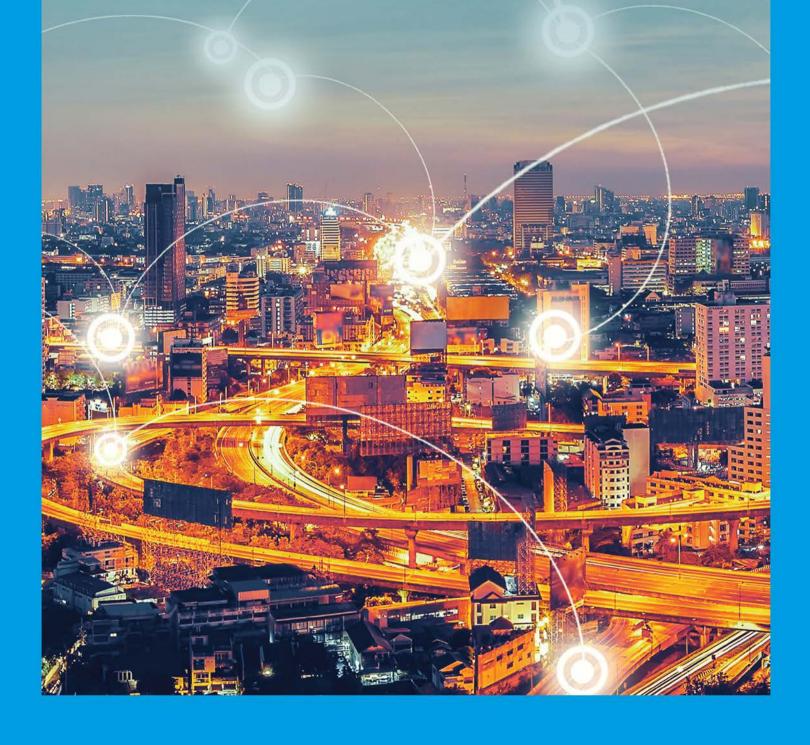
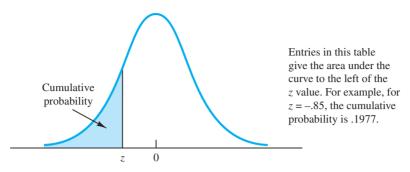


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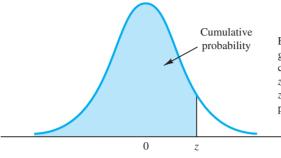


CUMULATIVE PROBABILITIES FOR THE STANDARD NORMAL DISTRIBUTION



z	.00	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09
-3.0	.0013	.0013	.0013	.0012	.0012	.0011	.0011	.0011	.0010	.0010
-2.9	.0019	.0018	.0018	.0017	.0016	.0016	.0015	.0015	.0014	.0014
-2.8	.0026	.0025	.0024	.0023	.0023	.0022	.0021	.0021	.0020	.0019
-2.7	.0035	.0034	.0033	.0032	.0031	.0030	.0029	.0028	.0027	.0026
-2.6	.0047	.0045	.0044	.0043	.0041	.0040	.0039	.0038	.0037	.0036
-2.5	.0062	.0060	.0059	.0057	.0055	.0054	.0052	.0051	.0049	.0048
-2.4	.0082	.0080	.0078	.0075	.0073	.0071	.0069	.0068	.0066	.0064
-2.3	.0107	.0104	.0102	.0099	.0096	.0094	.0091	.0089	.0087	.0084
-2.2	.0139	.0136	.0132	.0129	.0125	.0122	.0119	.0116	.0113	.0110
-2.1	.0179	.0174	.0170	.0166	.0162	.0158	.0154	.0150	.0146	.0143
-2.0	.0228	.0222	.0217	.0212	.0207	.0202	.0197	.0192	.0188	.0183
-1.9	.0287	.0281	.0274	.0268	.0262	.0256	.0250	.0244	.0239	.0233
-1.8	.0359	.0351	.0344	.0336	.0329	.0322	.0314	.0307	.0301	.0294
-1.7	.0446	.0436	.0427	.0418	.0409	.0401	.0392	.0384	.0375	.0367
-1.6	.0548	.0537	.0526	.0516	.0505	.0495	.0485	.0475	.0465	.0455
-1.5	.0668	.0655	.0643	.0630	.0618	.0606	.0594	.0582	.0571	.0559
-1.4	.0808	.0793	.0778	.0764	.0749	.0735	.0721	.0708	.0694	.0681
-1.3	.0968	.0951	.0934	.0918	.0901	.0885	.0869	.0853	.0838	.0823
-1.2	.1151	.1131	.1112	.1093	.1075	.1056	.1038	.1020	.1003	.0985
-1.1	.1357	.1335	.1314	.1292	.1271	.1251	.1230	.1210	.1190	.1170
-1.0	.1587	.1562	.1539	.1515	.1492	.1469	.1446	.1423	.1401	.1379
9	.1841	.1814	.1788	.1762	.1736	.1711	.1685	.1660	.1635	.1611
8	.2119	.2090	.2061	.2033	.2005	.1977	.1949	.1922	.1894	.1867
7	.2420	.2389	.2358	.2327	.2296	.2266	.2236	.2206	.2177	.2148
6	.2743	.2709	.2676	.2643	.2611	.2578	.2546	.2514	.2483	.2451
5	.3085	.3050	.3015	.2981	.2946	.2912	.2877	.2843	.2810	.2776
4	.3446	.3409	.3372	.3336	.3300	.3264	.3228	.3192	.3156	.3121
3	.3821	.3783	.3745	.3707	.3669	.3632	.3594	.3557	.3520	.3483
2	.4207	.4168	.4129	.4090	.4052	.4013	.3974	.3936	.3897	.3859
1	.4602	.4562	.4522	.4483	.4443	.4404	.4364	.4325	.4286	.4247
0	.5000	.4960	.4920	.4880	.4840	.4801	.4761	.4721	.4681	.4641

CUMULATIVE PROBABILITIES FOR THE STANDARD NORMAL DISTRIBUTION



Entries in the table give the area under the curve to the left of the z value. For example, for z = 1.25, the cumulative probability is .8944.

z	.00	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09
.0	.5000	.5040	.5080	.5120	.5160	.5199	.5239	.5279	.5319	.5359
.1	.5398	.5438	.5478	.5517	.5557	.5596	.5636	.5675	.5714	.5753
.2	.5793	.5832	.5871	.5910	.5948	.5987	.6026	.6064	.6103	.6141
.3	.6179	.6217	.6255	.6293	.6331	.6368	.6406	.6443	.6480	.6517
.4	.6554	.6591	.6628	.6664	.6700	.6736	.6772	.6808	.6844	.6879
.5	.6915	.6950	.6985	.7019	.7054	.7088	.7123	.7157	.7190	.7224
.6	.7257	.7291	.7324	.7357	.7389	.7422	.7454	.7486	.7517	.7549
.7	.7580	.7611	.7642	.7673	.7704	.7734	.7764	.7794	.7823	.7852
.8	.7881	.7910	.7939	.7967	.7995	.8023	.8051	.8078	.8106	.8133
.9	.8159	.8186	.8212	.8238	.8264	.8289	.8315	.8340	.8365	.8389
1.0	.8413	.8438	.8461	.8485	.8508	.8531	.8554	.8577	.8599	.8621
1.1	.8643	.8665	.8686	.8708	.8729	.8749	.8770	.8790	.8810	.8830
1.2	.8849	.8869	.8888	.8907	.8925	.8944	.8962	.8980	.8997	.9015
1.3	.9032	.9049	.9066	.9082	.9099	.9115	.9131	.9147	.9162	.9177
1.4	.9192	.9207	.9222	.9236	.9251	.9265	.9279	.9292	.9306	.9319
1.5	.9332	.9345	.9357	.9370	.9382	.9394	.9406	.9418	.9429	.9441
1.6	.9452	.9463	.9474	.9484	.9495	.9505	.9515	.9525	.9535	.9545
1.7	.9554	.9564	.9573	.9582	.9591	.9599	.9608	.9616	.9625	.9633
1.8	.9641	.9649	.9656	.9664	.9671	.9678	.9686	.9693	.9699	.9706
1.9	.9713	.9719	.9726	.9732	.9738	.9744	.9750	.9756	.9761	.9767
2.0	.9772	.9778	.9783	.9788	.9793	.9798	.9803	.9808	.9812	.9817
2.1	.9821	.9826	.9830	.9834	.9838	.9842	.9846	.9850	.9854	.9857
2.2	.9861	.9864	.9868	.9871	.9875	.9878	.9881	.9884	.9887	.9890
2.3	.9893	.9896	.9898	.9901	.9904	.9906	.9909	.9911	.9913	.9916
2.4	.9918	.9920	.9922	.9925	.9927	.9929	.9931	.9932	.9934	.9936
2.5	.9938	.9940	.9941	.9943	.9945	.9946	.9948	.9949	.9951	.9952
2.6	.9953	.9955	.9956	.9957	.9959	.9960	.9961	.9962	.9963	.9964
2.7	.9965	.9966	.9967	.9968	.9969	.9970	.9971	.9972	.9973	.9974
2.8	.9974	.9975	.9976	.9977	.9977	.9978	.9979	.9979	.9980	.9981
2.9	.9981	.9982	.9982	.9983	.9984	.9984	.9985	.9985	.9986	.9986
3.0	.9987	.9987	.9987	.9988	.9988	.9989	.9989	.9989	.9990	.9990



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A strong advocate for effective statistics and operations research education as a means of improving the quality of applications to real problems, Professor Cochran has organized and chaired teaching effectiveness workshops in Montevideo, Uruguay; Cape Town, South Africa; Cartagena, Colombia; Jaipur, India; Buenos Aires, Argentina; Nairobi, Kenya; Buea, Cameroon; Kathmandu, Nepal; Osijek, Croatia; Havana, Cuba; Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia; and Chişinău, Moldova. He has served as an operations research consultant to numerous companies and not-for-profit organizations. He served as editor-in-chief of *INFORMS Transactions on Education* from 2006 to 2012 and is on the editorial board of *Interfaces, International Transactions in Operational Research, and Significance*.

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Preface

This text is the 9th edition of ESSENTIALS OF STATISTICS FOR BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS. In this edition, we include procedures for statistical analysis using Excel 2016 and JMP Student Edition 14. In MindTap Reader, we also include instructions for using the exceptionally popular open-source language R to perform statistical analysis. We are excited to introduce two new coauthors, Michael J. Fry of the University of Cincinnati and Jeffrey W. Ohlmann of the University of Iowa. Both are accomplished teachers and researchers. More details on their backgrounds may be found in the About the Authors section.

The remainder of this preface describes the authors' objectives in writing ESSENTIALS OF STATISTICS FOR BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS and the major changes that were made in developing the 9th edition. The purpose of the text is to give students, primarily those in the fields of business administration and economics, a conceptual introduction to the field of statistics and its many applications. The text is applications-oriented and written with the needs of the nonmathematician in mind; the mathematical prerequisite is understanding of algebra.

Applications of data analysis and statistical methodology are an integral part of the organization and presentation of the text material. The discussion and development of each technique is presented in an application setting, with the statistical results providing insights to decisions and solutions to problems.

Although the book is applications oriented, we have taken care to provide sound methodological development and to use notation that is generally accepted for the topic being covered. Hence, students will find that this text provides good preparation for the study of more advanced statistical material. A bibliography to guide further study is included as an appendix.

The text introduces the student to the software packages of JMP Student Edition 14 and Microsoft® Office Excel 2016 and emphasizes the role of computer software in the application of statistical analysis. JMP is illustrated as it is one of the leading statistical software packages for both education and statistical practice. Excel is not a statistical software package, but the wide availability and use of Excel make it important for students to understand the statistical capabilities of this package. JMP and Excel procedures are provided in appendices so that instructors have the flexibility of using as much computer emphasis as desired for the course. MindTap Reader includes appendices for using R for statistical analysis. R is an open-source programming language that is widely used in practice to perform statistical analysis. The use of R typically requires more training than the use of software such as JMP or Excel, but the software is extremely powerful. To ease students' introduction to the R language, we also use RStudio which provides an integrated development environment for R.

Changes in the 9th Edition

We appreciate the acceptance and positive response to the previous editions of *Essentials of Statistics for Business and Economics*. Accordingly, in making modifications for this new edition, we have maintained the presentation style and readability of those editions. There have been many changes made throughout the text to enhance its educational effectiveness. The most substantial changes in the new edition are summarized here.

Content Revisions

 Software. In addition to step-by-step instructions in the software appendices for Excel 2016, we also provide instructions for JMP Student Edition 14 and R. This provides students exposure to and experience with the current versions of several of the most commonly used software for statistical analysis in business. Excel 2016 and JMP appendices are contained within the textbook chapters, while R appendices are provided in MindTap Reader. In this latest edition, we no longer provide discussion of the use of Minitab.

- Case Problems. We have added 12 new case problems in this edition; the total number of cases is now 42. One new case on graphical display has been added to Chapter 2. Two new cases using discrete probability distributions have been added to Chapter 5, and one new case using continuous probability distributions has been added to Chapter 6. A new case on hypothesis testing has been added to Chapter 11, and two new cases on testing proportions have been added to Chapter 12. The 42 case problems in this book provide students the opportunity to work on more complex problems, analyze larger data sets, and prepare managerial reports based on the results of their analyses.
- Examples and Exercises Based on Real Data. In this edition, we have added headers to all Applications exercises to make the application of each problem more obvious. We continue to make a substantial effort to update our text examples and exercises with the most current real data and referenced sources of statistical information. We have added more than 160 new examples and exercises based on real data and referenced sources. Using data from sources also used by *The Wall Street Journal*, *USA Today*, *The Financial Times*, and others, we have drawn from actual studies and applications to develop explanations and create exercises that demonstrate the many uses of statistics in business and economics. We believe that the use of real data from interesting and relevant problems helps generate more student interest in the material and enables the student to learn about both statistical methodology and its application. The 9th edition contains more than 350 examples and exercises based on real data.

Features and Pedagogy

Authors Anderson, Sweeney, Williams, Camm, Cochran, Fry, and Ohlmann have continued many of the features that appeared in previous editions. Important ones for students are noted here.

Methods Exercises and Applications Exercises

The end-of-section exercises are split into two parts, Methods and Applications. The Methods exercises require students to use the formulas and make the necessary computations. The Applications exercises require students to use the chapter material in real-world situations. Thus, students first focus on the computational "nuts and bolts" and then move on to the subtleties of statistical application and interpretation.

Margin Annotations and Notes and Comments

Margin annotations that highlight key points and provide additional insights for the student are a key feature of this text. These annotations, which appear in the margins, are designed to provide emphasis and enhance understanding of the terms and concepts being presented in the text.

At the end of many sections, we provide Notes and Comments designed to give the student additional insights about the statistical methodology and its application. Notes and Comments include warnings about or limitations of the methodology, recommendations for application, brief descriptions of additional technical considerations, and other matters.

Data Files Accompany the Text

Over 200 data files accompany this text. Data files are provided in Excel format and step-by-step instructions on how to open Excel files in JMP are provided in Appendix 1.1. Files

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for use with R are provided in comma-separated-value (CSV) format for easy loading into the R environment. Step-by-step instructions for importing CSV files into R are provided in MindTap Reader Appendix R 1.2.

The data files can be accessed from WebAssign within the resources section, directly within the MindTap Reader by clicking on the DATAfile icon, or online directly at www.cengage.com/decisionsciences/anderson/sbe/14e.

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Chapter 1

Data and Statistics

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STATISTICS IN PRACTICE

Bloomberg Businessweek*

NEW YORK, NEW YORK

Bloomberg Businessweek is one of the most widely read business magazines in the world. Along with feature articles on current topics, the magazine contains articles on international business, economic analysis, information processing, and science and technology. Information in the feature articles and the regular sections helps readers stay abreast of current developments and assess the impact of those developments on business and economic conditions.

Most issues of *Bloomberg Businessweek* provide an in-depth report on a topic of current interest. Often, the in-depth reports contain statistical facts and summaries that help the reader understand the business and economic information. Examples of articles and reports include the impact of businesses moving important work to cloud computing, the crisis facing the U.S. Postal Service, and why the debt crisis is even worse than we think. In addition, *Bloomberg Businessweek* provides a variety of statistics about the state of the economy, including production indexes, stock prices, mutual funds, and interest rates.

Bloomberg Businessweek also uses statistics and statistical information in managing its own business. For example, an annual survey of subscribers helps the company learn about subscriber demographics, reading habits, likely purchases, lifestyles, and so on. Bloomberg Businessweek managers use statistical summaries from the survey to provide better services to subscribers and advertisers. One North American subscriber survey indicated that 64% of Bloomberg Businessweek subscribers are involved with computer purchases at work. Such statistics alert Bloomberg

*The authors are indebted to Charlene Trentham, Research Manager, for providing the context for this Statistics in Practice.



Bloomberg Businessweek uses statistical facts and summaries in many of its articles. AP Images/Weng lei-Imaginechina

Businessweek managers to subscriber interest in articles about new developments in computers. The results of the subscriber survey are also made available to potential advertisers. The high percentage of subscribers involved with computer purchases at work would be an incentive for a computer manufacturer to consider advertising in Bloomberg Businessweek.

In this chapter, we discuss the types of data available for statistical analysis and describe how the data are obtained. We introduce descriptive statistics and statistical inference as ways of converting data into meaningful and easily interpreted statistical information.

Frequently, we see the following types of statements in newspapers and magazines:

- Unemployment dropped to an 18-year low of 3.8% in May 2018 from 3.9% in April and after holding at 4.1% for the prior six months (*Wall Street Journal*, June 1, 2018).
- Tesla ended 2017 with around \$5.4 billion of liquidity. Analysts forecast it will burn through \$2.8 billion of cash this year (*Bloomberg Businessweek*, April 19, 2018).
- The biggest banks in America reported a good set of earnings for the first three months of 2018. Bank of America and Morgan Stanley made quarterly net profits of \$6.9 billion and \$2.7 billion, respectively (*The Economist*, April 21, 2018).
- According to a study from the Pew Research Center, 15% of U.S. adults say they have used online dating sites or mobile apps (*Wall Street Journal*, May 2, 2018).

 According to the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, in the United States alone, at least 2 million illnesses and 23,000 deaths can be attributed each year to antibiotic-resistant bacteria (*Wall Street Journal*, February 13, 2018).

The numerical facts in the preceding statements—3.8%, 3.9%, 4.1%, \$5.4 billion, \$2.8 billion \$6.9 billion, \$2.7 billion, 15%, 2 million, 23,000—are called **statistics**. In this usage, the term *statistics* refers to numerical facts such as averages, medians, percentages, and maximums that help us understand a variety of business and economic situations. However, as you will see, the subject of statistics involves much more than numerical facts. In a broader sense, statistics is the art and science of collecting, analyzing, presenting, and interpreting data. Particularly in business and economics, the information provided by collecting, analyzing, presenting, and interpreting data gives managers and decision makers a better understanding of the business and economic environment and thus enables them to make more informed and better decisions. In this text, we emphasize the use of statistics for business and economic decision making.

Chapter 1 begins with some illustrations of the applications of statistics in business and economics. In Section 1.2 we define the term *data* and introduce the concept of a data set. This section also introduces key terms such as *variables* and *observations*, discusses the difference between quantitative and categorical data, and illustrates the uses of cross-sectional and time series data. Section 1.3 discusses how data can be obtained from existing sources or through survey and experimental studies designed to obtain new data. The uses of data in developing descriptive statistics and in making statistical inferences are described in Sections 1.4 and 1.5. The last four sections of Chapter 1 provide an introduction to business analytics and the role statistics plays in it, an introduction to big data and data mining, the role of the computer in statistical analysis, and a discussion of ethical guidelines for statistical practice.

1.1 Applications in Business and Economics

In today's global business and economic environment, anyone can access vast amounts of statistical information. The most successful managers and decision makers understand the information and know how to use it effectively. In this section, we provide examples that illustrate some of the uses of statistics in business and economics.

Accounting

Public accounting firms use statistical sampling procedures when conducting audits for their clients. For instance, suppose an accounting firm wants to determine whether the amount of accounts receivable shown on a client's balance sheet fairly represents the actual amount of accounts receivable. Usually the large number of individual accounts receivable makes reviewing and validating every account too time-consuming and expensive. As common practice in such situations, the audit staff selects a subset of the accounts called a sample. After reviewing the accuracy of the sampled accounts, the auditors draw a conclusion as to whether the accounts receivable amount shown on the client's balance sheet is acceptable.

Finance

Financial analysts use a variety of statistical information to guide their investment recommendations. In the case of stocks, analysts review financial data such as price/earnings ratios and dividend yields. By comparing the information for an individual stock with information about the stock market averages, an analyst can begin to draw a conclusion as to whether the stock is a good investment. For example, the average dividend yield for the S&P 500 companies for 2017 was 1.88%. Over the same period, the average dividend yield for Microsoft was 1.72% (Yahoo Finance). In this case, the statistical information on dividend yield indicates a lower dividend yield for Microsoft

than the average dividend yield for the S&P 500 companies. This and other information about Microsoft would help the analyst make an informed buy, sell, or hold recommendation for Microsoft stock.

Marketing

Electronic scanners at retail checkout counters collect data for a variety of marketing research applications. For example, data suppliers such as The Nielsen Company and IRI purchase point-of-sale scanner data from grocery stores, process the data, and then sell statistical summaries of the data to manufacturers. Manufacturers spend hundreds of thousands of dollars per product category to obtain this type of scanner data. Manufacturers also purchase data and statistical summaries on promotional activities such as special pricing and the use of in-store displays. Brand managers can review the scanner statistics and the promotional activity statistics to gain a better understanding of the relationship between promotional activities and sales. Such analyses often prove helpful in establishing future marketing strategies for the various products.

Production

Today's emphasis on quality makes quality control an important application of statistics in production. A variety of statistical quality control charts are used to monitor the output of a production process. In particular, an *x*-bar chart can be used to monitor the average output. Suppose, for example, that a machine fills containers with 12 ounces of a soft drink. Periodically, a production worker selects a sample of containers and computes the average number of ounces in the sample. This average, or *x*-bar value, is plotted on an *x*-bar chart. A plotted value above the chart's upper control limit indicates overfilling, and a plotted value below the chart's lower control limit indicates underfilling. The process is termed "in control" and allowed to continue as long as the plotted *x*-bar values fall between the chart's upper and lower control limits. Properly interpreted, an *x*-bar chart can help determine when adjustments are necessary to correct a production process.

Economics

Economists frequently provide forecasts about the future of the economy or some aspect of it. They use a variety of statistical information in making such forecasts. For instance, in forecasting inflation rates, economists use statistical information on such indicators as the Producer Price Index, the unemployment rate, and manufacturing capacity utilization. Often these statistical indicators are entered into computerized forecasting models that predict inflation rates.

Information Systems

Information systems administrators are responsible for the day-to-day operation of an organization's computer networks. A variety of statistical information helps administrators assess the performance of computer networks, including local area networks (LANs), wide area networks (WANs), network segments, intranets, and other data communication systems. Statistics such as the mean number of users on the system, the proportion of time any component of the system is down, and the proportion of bandwidth utilized at various times of the day are examples of statistical information that help the system administrator better understand and manage the computer network.

Applications of statistics such as those described in this section are an integral part of this text. Such examples provide an overview of the breadth of statistical applications. To supplement these examples, practitioners in the fields of business and economics provided chapter-opening Statistics in Practice articles that introduce the material covered in each chapter. The Statistics in Practice applications show the importance of statistics in a wide variety of business and economic situations.

1.2 Data **5**

1.2 **Data**

Data are the facts and figures collected, analyzed, and summarized for presentation and interpretation. All the data collected in a particular study are referred to as the **data set** for the study. Table 1.1 shows a data set containing information for 60 nations that participate in the World Trade Organization. The World Trade Organization encourages the free flow of international trade and provides a forum for resolving trade disputes.

Elements, Variables, and Observations

Elements are the entities on which data are collected. Each nation listed in Table 1.1 is an element with the nation or element name shown in the first column. With 60 nations, the data set contains 60 elements.

A **variable** is a characteristic of interest for the elements. The data set in Table 1.1 includes the following five variables:

- WTO Status: The nation's membership status in the World Trade Organization; this can be either as a member or an observer.
- Per Capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (\$): The total market value (\$) of all goods and services produced by the nation divided by the number of people in the nation; this is commonly used to compare economic productivity of the nations.
- Fitch Rating: The nation's sovereign credit rating as appraised by the Fitch Group¹;
 the credit ratings range from a high of AAA to a low of F and can be modified by
 + or -.
- Fitch Outlook: An indication of the direction the credit rating is likely to move over the upcoming two years; the outlook can be negative, stable, or positive.

Measurements collected on each variable for every element in a study provide the data. The set of measurements obtained for a particular element is called an **observation**. Referring to Table 1.1, we see that the first observation (Armenia) contains the following measurements: Member, 3615, BB-, and Stable. The second observation (Australia) contains the following measurements: Member, 49755, AAA, and Stable and so on. A data set with 60 elements contains 60 observations.

Scales of Measurement

Data collection requires one of the following scales of measurement: nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio. The scale of measurement determines the amount of information contained in the data and indicates the most appropriate data summarization and statistical analyses.

When the data for a variable consist of labels or names used to identify an attribute of the element, the scale of measurement is considered a **nominal scale**. For example, referring to the data in Table 1.1, the scale of measurement for the WTO Status variable is nominal because the data "member" and "observer" are labels used to identify the status category for the nation. In cases where the scale of measurement is nominal, a numerical code as well as a nonnumerical label may be used. For example, to facilitate data collection and to prepare the data for entry into a computer database, we might use a numerical code for the WTO Status variable by letting 1 denote a member nation in the World Trade Organization and 2 denote an observer nation. The scale of measurement is nominal even though the data appear as numerical values.

The scale of measurement for a variable is considered an **ordinal scale** if the data exhibit the properties of nominal data and in addition, the order or rank of the data is meaningful. For example, referring to the data in Table 1.1, the scale of measurement for

¹The Fitch Group is one of three nationally recognized statistical rating organizations designated by the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission. The other two are Standard & Poor's and Moody's.





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Slovenia	Member	21,650	A-	Negative
South Africa	Member	5,275	BBB	Stable
Spain	Member	26,617	Α-	Stable
Sweden	Member	51,845	AAA	Stable
Switzerland	Member	79,888	AAA	Stable
Thailand	Member	5,911	BBB	Stable
Turkey	Member	10,863	BBB-	Stable
United Kingdom	Member	40,412	AAA	Negative
Uruguay	Member	15,221	BB+	Positive
United States	Member	57,638	AAA	Stable
Zambia	Member	1,270	B+	Negative

the Fitch Rating is ordinal because the rating labels, which range from AAA to F, can be rank ordered from best credit rating (AAA) to poorest credit rating (F). The rating letters provide the labels similar to nominal data, but in addition, the data can also be ranked or ordered based on the credit rating, which makes the measurement scale ordinal. Ordinal data can also be recorded by a numerical code, for example, your class rank in school.

The scale of measurement for a variable is an **interval scale** if the data have all the properties of ordinal data and the interval between values is expressed in terms of a fixed unit of measure. Interval data are always numerical. College admission SAT scores are an example of interval-scaled data. For example, three students with SAT math scores of 620, 550, and 470 can be ranked or ordered in terms of best performance to poorest performance in math. In addition, the differences between the scores are meaningful. For instance, student 1 scored 620 - 550 = 70 points more than student 2, while student 2 scored 550 - 470 = 80 points more than student 3.

The scale of measurement for a variable is a **ratio scale** if the data have all the properties of interval data and the ratio of two values is meaningful. Variables such as distance, height, weight, and time use the ratio scale of measurement. This scale requires that a zero value be included to indicate that nothing exists for the variable at the zero point. For example, consider the cost of an automobile. A zero value for the cost would indicate that the automobile has no cost and is free. In addition, if we compare the cost of \$30,000 for one automobile to the cost of \$15,000 for a second automobile, the ratio property shows that the first automobile is \$30,000/\$15,000 = 2 times, or twice, the cost of the second automobile.

Categorical and Quantitative Data

Data can be classified as either categorical or quantitative. Data that can be grouped by specific categories are referred to as **categorical data**. Categorical data use either the nominal or ordinal scale of measurement. Data that use numeric values to indicate how much or how many are referred to as **quantitative data**. Quantitative data are obtained using either the interval or ratio scale of measurement.

A **categorical variable** is a variable with categorical data, and a **quantitative variable** is a variable with quantitative data. The statistical analysis appropriate for a particular variable depends upon whether the variable is categorical or quantitative. If the variable is categorical, the statistical analysis is limited. We can summarize categorical data by counting the number of observations in each category or by computing the proportion of the observations in each category. However, even when the categorical data are identified by a numerical code, arithmetic operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division do not provide meaningful results. Section 2.1 discusses ways of summarizing categorical data.

Arithmetic operations provide meaningful results for quantitative variables. For example, quantitative data may be added and then divided by the number of observations to compute the average value. This average is usually meaningful and easily interpreted. In

The statistical method appropriate for summarizing data depends upon whether the data are categorical or quantitative.

general, more alternatives for statistical analysis are possible when data are quantitative. Section 2.2 and Chapter 3 provide ways of summarizing quantitative data.

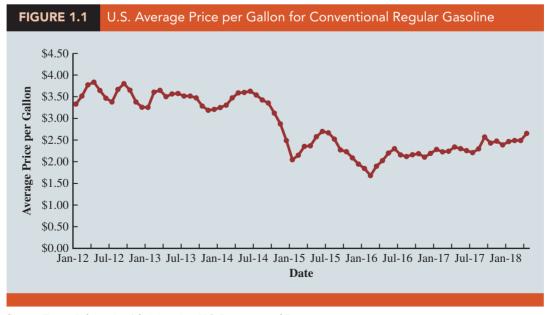
Cross-Sectional and Time Series Data

For purposes of statistical analysis, distinguishing between cross-sectional data and time series data is important. **Cross-sectional data** are data collected at the same or approximately the same point in time. The data in Table 1.1 are cross-sectional because they describe the five variables for the 60 World Trade Organization nations at the same point in time. **Time series data** are data collected over several time periods. For example, the time series in Figure 1.1 shows the U.S. average price per gallon of conventional regular gasoline between 2012 and 2018. From January 2012 until June 2014, prices fluctuated between \$3.19 and \$3.84 per gallon before a long stretch of decreasing prices from July 2014 to January 2015. The lowest average price per gallon occurred in January 2016 (\$1.68). Since then, the average price appears to be on a gradual increasing trend.

Graphs of time series data are frequently found in business and economic publications. Such graphs help analysts understand what happened in the past, identify any trends over time, and project future values for the time series. The graphs of time series data can take on a variety of forms, as shown in Figure 1.2. With a little study, these graphs are usually easy to understand and interpret. For example, Panel (A) in Figure 1.2 is a graph that shows the Dow Jones Industrial Average Index from 2008 to 2018. Poor economic conditions caused a serious drop in the index during 2008 with the low point occurring in February 2009 (7062). After that, the index has been on a remarkable nine-year increase, reaching its peak (26,149) in January 2018.

The graph in Panel (B) shows the net income of McDonald's Inc. from 2008 to 2017. The declining economic conditions in 2008 and 2009 were actually beneficial to McDonald's as the company's net income rose to all-time highs. The growth in McDonald's net income showed that the company was thriving during the economic downturn as people were cutting back on the more expensive sit-down restaurants and seeking less-expensive alternatives offered by McDonald's. McDonald's net income continued to new all-time highs in 2010 and 2011, decreased slightly in 2012, and peaked in 2013. After three years of relatively lower net income, their net income increased to \$5.19 billion in 2017.

Panel (C) shows the time series for the occupancy rate of hotels in South Florida over a one-year period. The highest occupancy rates, 95% and 98%, occur during the months



Source: Energy Information Administration, U.S. Department of Energy.

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