1

Statistics or Sadistics?

It’s Up to You

Difficulty Scale ☺ ☺ ☺ ☺ (really easy)

WHAT YOU’LL LEARN ABOUT IN THIS CHAPTER

✦ What statistics is all about
✦ Why you should take statistics
✦ How to succeed in this course

WHY STATISTICS?

You’ve heard it all before, right? “Statistics is difficult,” “The math involved is impossible,” “I don’t know how to use a computer,” “What do I need this stuff for?” “What do I do next?” and the famous cry of the introductory statistics student, “I don’t get it!” Well, relax. Students who study introductory statistics find themselves, at one time or another, thinking at least one of the above and quite possibly sharing the thought with another student, their spouse, a colleague, or a friend.

And all kidding aside, some statistics courses can easily be described as sadistics. That’s because the books are repetitiously boring and the authors have no imagination.

That’s not the case for you. The fact that you or your instructor has selected Statistics for People Who (Think They) Hate Statistics, Excel 2016 Edition shows that you’re ready to take the right approach—one that is unintimidating, informative, and applied (and even a little fun) and that tries to teach you what you need to know about using statistics as the valuable tool that it is.
If you’re using this book in a class, it also means that your instructor is clearly on your side. He or she knows that statistics can be intimidating but has taken steps to see that it is not intimidating for you. As a matter of fact, we’ll bet there’s a good chance (as hard as it may be to believe) that you’ll be enjoying this class in just a few short weeks.

And Why Excel?

Simple. It’s the most popular, most powerful spreadsheet tool available today, and it can be an exceedingly important and valuable tool for learning how to use basic and some advanced statistics. In fact, many stats courses taught at the introductory level use Excel as their primary computational tool and ignore other computer programs, such as IBM® SPSS® Statistics (SPSS)* and Minitab. Although we are not going to teach you how to use Excel (see Appendix A for a refresher on some basic tasks), we will show you how to use it to make your statistics learning experience a better one.

But like any program that takes numbers and consolidates and analyzes them, Excel is not a magic bullet or a tool to solve all your problems. It has its limitations. Unless you are an expert programmer and you can program Excel to do just about anything other statistics programs can (the language you would use is Visual Basic Applications or VBA), Excel may not look as pretty as other programs dedicated to statistical analysis or offer as many options. But at the level of introductory statistics, it is a very powerful tool that can do an awful lot of very neat things.

A bit of terminology about Excel before we move on: The first ever Excel-like computer application was called VisiCalc (thank you, Dan Bricklin and Bob Frankston) and was known as a spreadsheet. Okay, the Excel application is known as a spreadsheet program as well, but each individual sheet is known as a worksheet. And worksheets, when combined, constitute what is known as a workbook. Fun, huh?

A 5-MINUTE HISTORY OF STATISTICS

Before you read any further, it would be useful to have some historical perspective about this topic called statistics. After all, almost every undergraduate in the social, behavioral, and biological sciences and every graduate student in education, nursing,

*SPSS is a registered trademark of International Business Machines Corporation.
psychology, social welfare and social services, anthropology, and... (you get the picture) is required to take this course. Wouldn't it be nice to have some idea from whence the topic it covers came? Of course it would.

Way, way back, as soon as humans realized that counting was a good idea (as in “How many of these do you need to trade for one of those?”), collecting information became a useful skill.

If counting counted, then one would know how many times the sun would rise in one season, how much food was needed to last the winter, and what amount of resources belonged to whom.

That was just the beginning. Once numbers became part of language, it seemed like the next step was to attach these numbers to outcomes. That started in earnest during the 17th century, when the first set of data pertaining to populations was collected. From that point on, scientists (mostly mathematicians, but then physical and biological scientists) needed to develop specific tools to answer specific questions. For example, Francis Galton (a half-cousin of Charles Darwin, by the way), who lived from 1822 to 1911, was very interested in the nature of human intelligence. He also speculated that hair loss was due to the intense energy that went into thinking. No, really. But back to statistics.

To explore one of his primary questions regarding the similarity of intelligence among family members, he used a specific statistical tool called the correlation coefficient (first developed by mathematicians), and then he popularized its use in the behavioral and social sciences.

You'll learn all about this tool in Chapter 5. In fact, most of the basic statistical procedures that you will learn about were first developed and used in the fields of agriculture, astronomy, and even politics. Their application to human behavior came much later.

The past 100 years have seen great strides in the invention of new ways to use old ideas. The simplest test for examining the differences between the averages of two groups was first advanced during the early 20th century. Techniques that build on this idea were offered decades later and have been greatly refined. And the introduction of personal computers and such programs as Excel has opened up the use of sophisticated techniques to anyone who wants to explore these fascinating topics.

The introduction of these powerful personal computers has been both good and bad. It's good because most statistical analyses no longer require access to a huge and expensive mainframe computer. Instead, a simple personal computer costing less than $250 or a cloud account can do 95% of what 95% of the people need. On the
other hand, less than adequately educated students (such as your fellow students who passed on taking this course!) will take any old data they have and think that by running them through some sophisticated analysis, they will have reliable, trustworthy, and meaningful outcomes—not true. What your professor would say is “Garbage in, garbage out”; if you don’t start with reliable and trustworthy data, what you’ll have after your data are analyzed are unreliable and untrustworthy results.

Today, statisticians in all different areas, from criminal justice to geophysics to psychology, find themselves using basically the same techniques to answer different questions. There are, of course, important differences in how data are collected, but for the most part, the analyses (the plural of analysis) that are done following the collection of data (the plural of datum) tend to be very similar, even if called something different. The moral here? This class will provide you with the tools to understand how statistics are used in almost any discipline. Pretty neat, and all for just three or four credits.

If you want to learn more about the history of statistics and see a historical time line, great places to start are Saint Anselm’s College at www.anseml.edu/homepage/jpitocch/biostatshist.html and the University of California–Los Angeles at www.stat.ucla.edu/history/.

Okay. Five minutes is up, and you know as much as you need to know about the history of statistics. Let’s move on to what it is (and isn’t).

STATISTICS: WHAT IT IS (AND ISN’T)

Statistics for People Who (Think They) Hate Statistics, Excel 2016 Edition is a book about basic statistics and how to apply them to a variety of different situations, including the analysis and understanding of information.

In the most general sense, statistics describes a set of tools and techniques that are used for describing, organizing, and interpreting information or data. Those data might be the scores on a test taken by students participating in a special math curriculum, the speed with which problems are solved, the number of side effects when patients use one type of drug rather than another, the number of errors in each inning of a World Series game, or the average price of a dinner in an upscale restaurant in Santa Fe, New Mexico (not cheap).
In all of these examples, and the million more we could think of, data are collected, organized, summarized, and then interpreted. In this book, you'll learn about collecting, organizing, and summarizing data as part of descriptive statistics. And then you'll learn about interpreting data when you learn about the usefulness of inferential statistics.

### What Are Descriptive Statistics?

Descriptive statistics are used to organize and describe the characteristics of a collection of data. The collection is sometimes called a data set or just data.

For example, the following list shows you the names of 22 college students, their major areas of study, and their ages. If you needed to describe what the most popular college major is, you could use a descriptive statistic that summarizes their most frequent choice (called the mode). In this case, the most common major is psychology. And if you wanted to know the average age, you could easily compute another descriptive statistic that identifies this variable (that one's called the mean). Both of these simple descriptive statistics are used to describe data. They do a fine job of allowing us to represent the characteristics of a large collection of data such as the 22 cases in our example.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Richard</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Elizabeth</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sara</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrea</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Hadley</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steven</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Buffy</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Chip</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pam</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Homer</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michael</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Margaret</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liz</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Courtney</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicole</td>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Leonard</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Jeffrey</td>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Emily</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part I ♦ Yippee! I’m in Statistics

So watch how simple this is. To find the most frequently selected major, just find the one that occurs most often. And to find the average age, just add up all the age values and divide by 22. You’re right—the most often occurring major is psychology (9 times), and the average age is 20.3 (actually 20.27). Look, Ma! No hands—you’re a statistician.

What Are Inferential Statistics?

Inferential statistics are often (but not always) the next step after you have collected and summarized data. Inferential statistics are used to make inferences based on a smaller group of data (such as our group of 22 students) about a possibly larger one (such as all the undergraduate students in the College of Arts and Sciences).

A smaller group of data is often called a sample, which is a portion, or a subset, of a population. For example, all the fifth graders in Newark (your author’s fair city of origin), New Jersey, would be a population (the population is all the occurrences with certain characteristics, in this case, being in fifth grade and attending school in Newark), whereas a selection of 150 of these students would be a sample.

Let’s look at another example. Your marketing agency asks you (a newly hired researcher) to determine which of several names is most appealing for a new brand of potato chip. Will it be Chipsters? FunChips? Crunchies? As a statistics pro (we know we’re moving a bit ahead of ourselves, but keep the faith), you need to find a small group of potato chip eaters who are representative of all potato chip fans and ask these people to tell you which one of the three names they like the most. Then, if you do things right, you can easily extrapolate the findings to the huge group of potato chip eaters.

Or let’s say you’re interested in the best treatment for a particular type of disease. Perhaps you’ll try a new drug as one alternative, a placebo (a substance that is known not to have any effect) as another alternative, and nothing as the third alternative to see what happens. Well, you find out that more patients get better when no action is taken and nature (and we assume that’s the only factor or set of factors that differentiate the groups) just takes its course! The drug does not have any effect. Then, with that information, you can extrapolate to the larger group of patients who suffer from the disease, given the results of your experiment.
Statistics is a tool that helps us understand the world around us. It does so by organizing information we’ve collected and then letting us make certain statements about how characteristics of those data are applicable to new settings. Descriptive and inferential statistics work hand in hand, and which statistic you use and when depends on the question you want answered.

And today, a knowledge of statistics is more important than ever because it provides us with the tools to make decisions that are based on empirical (observed) evidence and not our own biases or beliefs. Want to know whether early intervention programs work? Then test whether they work and provide that evidence to the court where a ruling will be made on the viability of a new school bond issue that could pay for those programs.

**TOOLING AROUND WITH THE DATA ANALYSIS TOOLS**

An awful lot of what you need to know about using Excel can be found in Appendix A. However, certain Excel procedures are available only if you have the Data Analysis tools installed (and we use those tools in several chapters throughout the book). Please note that this Excel add-in is sometimes called the Data Analysis Toolpak and sometimes the Data Analysis tool or Data Analysis tools and sometimes the Analysis Toolpak. These are all different names for the same thing. We’ll refer to it as Data Analysis tools to cover all the bases.

The Data Analysis tools are a spectacular Excel add-in. Add-ins are special sets of tools that are often not installed when Excel was originally installed.

How do you know whether Data Analysis tools are installed on the computer you are using? If the Data Analysis tools option doesn’t appear on your Data tab as Data Analysis tools (as you see it appears in Figure 1.1) in the Windows version, you need to install it. Either ask your instructor to have it installed on the network level where Excel is installed or install it on your own machine by doing the following. In the Mac version, it appears as the Data Analysis option on the Tools menu, so Mac users have no need for any installation steps.
1. Click the File tab and then click Options.

2. Click Add-Ins and then in the Add-Ins box, select Analysis Toolpak (see, it’s named different things in different places).

3. Click Go under Manage, at the bottom of the screen.

4. In the Add-Ins box, click the Analysis Toolpak check box and then click OK.

You are now ready to make your Excel activities even that much more productive and fun. You can learn how to use the Data Analysis tools in Little Chapter 1b.

**WHAT AM I DOING IN A STATISTICS CLASS?**

You might find yourself using this book for many reasons. You might be enrolled in an introductory statistics class. Or you might be reviewing for your comprehensive exams. Or you might even be reading this on summer vacation (horrors!) in preparation for a more advanced class.

In any case, you are a statistics student, whether you have to take a final exam at the end of a formal course or you’re just in it of your own accord. But there are plenty of good reasons to be studying this material—some fun, some serious, and some both.

Here’s the list of some of the things that my students hear at the beginning of our introductory statistics course:

1. Statistics 101 or Statistics 1 or whatever it’s called at your school looks great listed on your transcript. Kidding aside, this may be a required course for you to complete your major. But even if it is not, having these skills is definitely a big plus when it comes time to apply for a job or for further schooling. And with more advanced courses, your résumé will be even more impressive.
2. If this is not a required course, taking basic statistics sets you apart from those who do not. It shows that you are willing to undertake a course that is above average with regard to difficulty and commitment. And, as the political and economic (and sports!) worlds become more “accountable,” more emphasis is being placed on analytic skills. Who knows, this course may be your ticket to a job!

3. Basic statistics is an intellectual challenge of a kind that you might not be used to. There’s a good deal of thinking that’s required, a bit of math, and some integration of ideas and application. The bottom line is that all this activity adds up to what can be an invigorating intellectual experience because you learn about a whole new area or discipline.

4. There’s no question that having some background in statistics makes you a better student in the social or behavioral sciences, because you will have a better understanding not only of what you read in journals but also of what your professors and colleagues may be discussing and doing in and out of class. You will be amazed the first time you say to yourself, “Wow, I actually understand what they’re talking about.” And it will happen over and over again, because you will have the basic tools necessary to understand exactly how scientists reach the conclusions they do.

5. If you plan to pursue a graduate degree in education, anthropology, economics, nursing, sociology, or any one of many other social, behavioral, and biological pursuits, this course will give you the foundation you need to move further.

6. There are many different ways of thinking about, and approaching, different types of problems. The set of tools you learn about in this book (and this course) will help you look at interesting problems from a new perspective. And, while not apparent now, this new way of thinking can be brought to new situations.

7. Finally, you can brag that you completed a course that everyone thinks is the equivalent of building and running a nuclear reactor.
TEN WAYS TO USE THIS BOOK (AND LEARN STATISTICS AT THE SAME TIME!)

Yep. Just what the world needs—another statistics book. But this one is different. It is directed at the student, is not condescending, is informative, and is as basic as possible in its presentation. It makes no presumptions about what you should know before you start and proceeds in slow, small steps, which lets you pace yourself.

However, there has always been a general aura surrounding the study of statistics that it’s a difficult subject to master. And we don’t say otherwise, because parts of it are challenging. On the other hand, millions and millions of students have mastered this topic, and you can, too. Here are 10 hints to close this introductory chapter before we move on to our first topic.

1. **You’re not dumb.** That’s true. If you were, you would not have gotten this far in school. So, treat statistics as you would any other new course. Attend the lectures, study the material, do the exercises in the book and from class, and you’ll do fine. Rocket scientists know statistics, but you don’t have to be a rocket scientist to succeed in statistics.

2. **How do you know statistics is hard?** Is statistics difficult? Yes and no. If you listen to friends who have taken the course and didn’t work hard and didn’t do well, they’ll surely volunteer to tell you how hard it was and how much of a disaster it made of their entire semester, if not their lives. And let’s not forget—we always tend to hear from complainers. So, we’d suggest that you start this course with the attitude that you’ll wait and see how it is and judge the experience for yourself. Better yet, talk to several people who have had the class and get a good idea of what they think. Don’t base your expectations on just one spoilsport’s experience.

3. **Don’t skip lessons—work through the chapters in sequence.** *Statistics for People Who (Think They) Hate Statistics, Excel 2016 Edition* is written so that each chapter provides a foundation for the next one in the book. When you are all done with the course, you will (I hope) continue to use this book as a reference. So if you need a particular value from a table, you might consult Appendix B. Or if you need to remember how to compute the standard deviation, you might turn to Chapter 3. But for now, read each chapter in the sequence that it appears. It’s okay to skip around and see what’s offered down the road. Just don’t study later chapters before you master earlier ones.

4. **Form a study group.** This is a big hint and one of the most basic ways to ensure some success in this course. Early in the semester, arrange to study with friends or classmates. If you don’t have any friends who are in the same class as you, then make some new ones or offer to study with someone who looks as happy to be there as you are. Studying with others allows you to help them if you know the material better, or to benefit from those who know some material better than you. Set a specific time each week to get together for an hour and go over the exercises at the end of the chapter or...
ask questions of one another. Take as much time as you need. Studying with others is an invaluable way to help you understand and master the material in this course.

5. **Ask your teacher questions, and then ask a friend.** If you do not understand what you are being taught in class, ask your professor to clarify it. Have no doubt—if you don’t understand the material, then you can be sure that others do not as well. More often than not, instructors welcome questions. And especially because you’ve read the material before class, your questions should be well informed and help everyone in class to better understand the material.

6. **Do the exercises at the end of the chapters.** The exercises are based on the material and the examples in the chapter they follow. They are there to help you apply the concepts that were taught in the chapter and build your confidence at the same time. If you can answer these end-of-chapter exercises, then you are well on your way to mastering the content of the chapter. Correct answers to each exercise are provided in Appendix D.

7. **Practice, practice, practice.** Yes, it’s a very old joke:
   Q. How do you get to Carnegie Hall?
   A. Practice, practice, practice.
   Well, it’s no different with basic statistics. You have to use what you learn and use it frequently to master the different ideas and techniques. This means doing the exercises in the back of Chapters 1 through 17 and Chapter 20 as well as taking advantage of any other opportunities you have to understand what you have learned.

8. **Look for applications to make it more real.** In your other classes, you probably have occasion to read journal articles, talk about the results of research, and generally discuss the importance of the scientific method in your own area of study. These are all opportunities to see how your study of statistics can help you better understand the topics under class discussion as well as the area of beginning statistics. The more you apply these new ideas, the fuller your understanding will be.

9. **Browse.** Read over the assigned chapter first; then go back and read it with more intention. Take a nice leisurely tour of *Statistics for People Who (Think They) Hate Statistics* to see what’s contained in the various chapters. Don’t rush yourself. It’s always good to know what topics lie ahead as well as to familiarize yourself with the content that will be covered in your current statistics class.

10. **Have fun.** This might seem like a strange thing to say, but it all boils down to you mastering this topic rather than letting the course and its demands master you. Set up a study schedule and follow it, ask questions in class, and consider this intellectual exercise to be one of growth. Mastering new material is always exciting and satisfying—it’s part of the human spirit. You can experience the same satisfaction here—just keep your eye on the ball and make the necessary commitment to stay current with the assignments and work hard.
And a short note for Mac users. Over the years, the Excel people at Microsoft have become increasingly kind to users of the Macintosh version. The latest versions of Excel for a Windows operating system and a Macintosh operating system are almost identical. And, as we have mentioned before, for the first time in the history of the galaxy, the Mac version now comes with the Data Analysis tools, the great convenience that the Windows version has provided for years.

One big difference between the Windows and the Mac version (and it really isn’t that big) is the keystrokes that one uses to accomplish particular tasks. So, for example, instead of using the Ctrl+C key combination in Windows to copy highlighted text windows, the Mac uses the Apple or the Command key (the cool little key on the lower left of the keyboard with the four little squiggles) in combination with the C key to accomplish the same. This Apple key is also referred to (believe it or not) as the splat, the cloverleaf, the butterfly, the beanie, or the flower key. Using Excel in one operating system or the other (or both) requires a very similar set of tasks, and you should have no problem making the adjustment.

Plus, both the Windows and the Mac version of Excel can read each other’s files, so you are safe exchanging files between one operating system and the other. All that said, if they really want to impress their friends, Mac users can go to System Preferences and reconfigure the keyboard to ensure that Windows and Mac keystrokes are exactly the same!

**ICONS**

An icon is a symbol. Throughout *Statistics for People* . . . , you’ll see a variety of icons. Here’s what each one is and what each represents:

This icon represents information that goes beyond the regular text. At times we may want to elaborate on a particular point and find we can do so more easily outside of the flow of the usual material.

Here, we discuss some more technical ideas and tips to give you a sampling of topics beyond the scope of this course. You might find these interesting and useful.
Throughout *Statistics for People* . . . , you'll find a small-steps icon like the one you see here. This indicates that a set of steps is coming up that will direct you through a particular process. These steps have been tested and approved by whatever federal agency approves these things.

That finger with the bow is a cute icon, but its primary purpose is to help reinforce important points about the topic that you just read about. Try to emphasize these points in your studying, because they are usually central to the topic.

Many of the chapters in *Statistics for People* . . . provide detailed information about one or more statistical procedures and the computation that accompanies them. The computer icon is used to identify the “Using the Amazing Data Analysis Tools to . . .” section of the chapter.

The more Excel icon identifies additional information on the Excel feature that has just been mentioned or worked with in the text.

Appendix A, Excel-erate Your Learning: All You Need to Know About Excel, contains a collection of 50 basic and important (and time-saving) tasks that anyone who uses Excel should know.

Appendix B contains important tables you will learn about and need throughout the book.

And, in working through the exercises in this book, you will use the data sets in Appendix C. In the exercises, you’ll find references to data sets with names like “Chapter 2 Data Set 1,” and each of these sets is shown in Appendix C. You can either enter the data manually or download them from the publisher's site at http://edge.sagepub.com/salkindexcel4e or get them directly from the author. Just send a note to njs@ku.edu and don’t forget to mention the edition for which you need the data sets.

Appendix D contains answers to end-of-chapter questions, Appendix E contains a primer on math for those who could use a refresher, and Appendix F offers the long-sought-after brownie recipe.

**KEY TO DIFFICULTY ICONS**

To help you along a bit, we placed a difficulty index at the beginning of each chapter. This adds some fun to the start of each chapter, but
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It's also a useful tip to let you know what's coming and how difficult chapters are in relation to one another.

😊 (very hard)
😊 😊 (hard)
😊 😊 😊 (not too hard, but not easy either)
😊 😊 😊 😊 (easy)
😊 😊 😊 😊 😊 (very easy)

KEY TO “HOW MUCH EXCEL” ICONS

To help you along a bit more, we placed a “How Much Excel” index at the beginning of each chapter. This adds even more fun (groan) to the start of each chapter, but it also lets you know how much Excel material is contained in the chapter.

How much Excel?

📊 (just a mention)
📊 📊 (some)
📊 📊 📊 (lots)
📊 📊 📊 📊 (lots and lots)
📊 📊 📊 📊 📊 (a ton)

GLOSSARY

Bolded terms in the text are included in the glossary at the back of the book.

SUMMARY

That couldn’t have been that bad, right? We want to encourage you to continue reading and not worry about what’s difficult or time-consuming or too complex for you to understand and apply. Just take one chapter at a time, as you did this one.
Because there’s no substitute for the real thing, Chapters 1 through 17 and Chapter 20 each end with a set of exercises that will help you review the material that was covered in the chapter. As noted above, the answers to these exercises can be found near the end of the book in Appendix D.

For example, here is the first set of exercises (but don’t look for any answers for these because these are kind of “on your own” answers—each answer is highly tied to your own experiences and interest).

1. Interview someone who uses statistics in his or her everyday work. It might be your adviser, an instructor, a researcher who lives on your block, a market analyst for a company, a city planner, or . . . Ask the person what his or her first statistics course was like. Find out what the person liked and didn’t like. See if this individual has any suggestions to help you succeed. And most important, ask the person about how he or she uses these new-to-you tools at work.

2. We hope that you are part of a study group or, if that is not possible, that you have a telephone, e-mail, instant messaging, or web-cam study buddy (or even more than one). And, of course, plenty of Facebook friends. Talk to your group or a fellow student in your class about similar likes, dislikes, fears, etc. about the statistics course. What do you have in common? Not in common? Discuss with your fellow student strategies to overcome your fears.

3. Search through your local newspaper (or any other publication) and find the results of a survey or interview about any topic. Summarize the results and do the best job you can describing how the researchers who were involved, or the authors of the survey, came to the conclusions they did. Their methods and reasoning may or may not be apparent. Once you have some idea of what they did, try to speculate as to what other ways the same information might be collected, organized, and summarized.

4. Go to the library (either in person or online) and find a copy of a journal article in your own discipline. Then, go through the article and highlight the section (usually the “Results” section) where statistical procedures were used to organize and analyze the data. You don’t know much about the specifics of this yet, but how many different statistical procedures (such as t-test, mean, and calculation of the standard deviation) can you identify? Can you take the next step and tell your instructor how the results relate to the research question or the primary topic of the research study?
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5. Find five websites that contain data on any topic and write a brief description of what type of information is offered and how it is organized. For example, if you go to the mother of all data sites, the US Census (www.census.gov), you’ll find links to hundreds of databases, tables, and other informative tools. Try to find data and information that fit in your own discipline.

6. And the big extra-credit assignment is to find someone who actually uses Excel for daily data analysis needs. Ask why he or she uses Excel rather than a more specialized program such as SPSS or Minitab. Also, ask if there is anything specific about Excel that makes it stand out as a tool for data analysis. You may very well find these good folks in everything from political science to nursing, so search widely!

7. Finally, as your last in this first set of exercises, come up with five of the most interesting questions you can about your own area of study or interest. Do your best to come up with questions for which you would want real, existing information or data to answer. Be a scientist!
There may be nothing more valuable in your Excel magic tool box than formulas and functions. They both allow you to bypass (very) tedious calculations and get right to the heart of the matter. Both formulas and functions are shortcuts—and both work in different ways and do different things. Let’s start with formulas.

**WHAT’S A FORMULA?**

You probably already know the answer to that question. A *formula* is a set of mathematical operators that performs a particular mathematical task. For example, here’s a simple formula:

\[ 2 + 2 = \]
The operator + tells you to add certain values (a 2 and another 2) together to produce the outcome (4). This is a simple one.

Here’s one that’s a bit more advanced and one with which you will become more familiar in Chapter 16 of Statistics for People . . . :

\[ Y = bX + a \]  

(1A.1)

This is the formula that is used to predict the value of \( Y' \) from our knowledge of the values of \( b \), \( X \), and \( a \). We’ll worry about what all those symbols mean later. For now, just know this is a formula that contains a bunch of symbols and mathematical operators and helps us compute numbers we need to make decisions.

Excel is a formula engine just ready to help make your learning of statistics easier.

**Creating a Formula**

A formula is created through these steps:

1. Click on the cell in which you want the results of the formula to appear.
2. Enter an equal sign, which looks like this: =. All formulas begin with an equal sign, no matter what else they contain.
3. Enter the formula. No spaces in formulas please—Excel does not like them.
4. Press the Enter key, and voilà! The results of the formula will appear in the selected cell.

For example, let’s enter the formula that was shown earlier— 2 + 2—and see how these steps work.

As you can see in Figure 1A.1, we selected Cell A1.

**Figure 1A.1** Selecting a Cell Into Which a Formula Will Be Entered
1. The equal sign is entered, as shown in Figure 1A.2. And, as you can see, the formula bar at the top of the column becomes active. Everything we enter in Cell A1 will appear in the formula bar. Also, note that Excel automatically enters the name of the last function used (in this example it is AVERAGE—much more about functions soon).

![Figure 1A.2 Entering the Equal Sign to Indicate the Beginning of a Formula](image)

2. Enter the rest of the formula, which in this case is (2+4)/2, as you see in Figure 1A.3.

![Figure 1A.3 Entering the Formula in Cell A1](image)

3. Press Enter, and the value of the formula is returned to the cell, as you see in Figure 1A.4. And, if you click on cell A1 (as we did in Figure 1A.4), you can see the formula located in that cell. In all cases, when a formula is entered into a cell, you see the results of that formula in the cell and the formula itself in the formula bar. In this case, the formula (2+4)/2 (shown in the formula bar) returns the result of 3.

![Figure 1A.4 The Value of a Formula Being Returned to the Cell](image)
A few notes:

- A formula always begins with an equal sign, which tells Excel that what follows is the formula.
- The formula itself always appears in the formula bar.
- The results of the formula (and not the formula itself) are returned to the selected cell.

This is the simplest example of how to use a formula. Formulas can become as complex as you need them to be.

Want to see the formula behind the scenes in a worksheet? Just use the Ctrl+` key combination to toggle between formulas and the results of those formulas. The ` key is to the left of the number 1 key near the top of the keyboard.

**Operator, Operator—Get Me a Formula!**

You have just seen that even the simplest formulas consist of operators. In this case, the only operators are a plus (+) sign and a division (/) sign, which direct Excel to add the two values you see in Figure 1A.3, divide by 2, and return the sum to Cell A1.

Addition and division are just two of the operations you can perform. The most important operations and the symbols you use to accomplish them are shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>What It Does</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>+ (plus)</td>
<td>=2+5</td>
<td>Adds 2 and 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtraction</td>
<td>− (minus)</td>
<td>=5−3</td>
<td>Subtracts 3 from 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division</td>
<td>/ (slash)</td>
<td>=10/5</td>
<td>Divides 10 by 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiplication</td>
<td>* (asterisk)</td>
<td>=2*5</td>
<td>Multiplies 2 times 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power of</td>
<td>^ (caret)</td>
<td>=4^2</td>
<td>Takes 4 to the power of 2, or squares 4.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Beware the Parentheses**

When you create a formula that goes beyond a very simple one, it is critical for you to consider the order in which operations are carried out and the use of parentheses.
Let’s say that we want to find the average score on a weekly test given each Friday for a month and the scores range from 0 to 100.

Here are Willy’s scores:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We need to create a formula that will add all of the scores together and divide the sum by 4. We’ll name the scores \( w_1, w_2, w_3, \) and \( w_4 \). Here’s one way we might try it:

\[
\frac{w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + w_4}{4}
\]

Oops! This will work in the sense that it will produce a number, but it won’t give you the outcome you want. What this does is add \( w_1, w_2, \) and \( w_3 \) together and then adds that sum to the value of (only) \( w_4 \) divided by 4. This is not what we want.

Rather, take a look at this formula:

\[
\frac{(w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + w_4)}{4}
\]

This is more like it. Here, the four values are summed and then that sum is divided by 4. This one works. The lesson? Watch your parentheses!

**WHAT’S A FUNCTION?**

You know that a formula is a simple set of symbols (such as numbers and operators) that performs some calculation and results in an outcome in the cell where the formula lives.

A function is nothing other than a predefined formula. The good people who created Excel developed a whole bunch of functions that can do many different things, but throughout *Statistics for People* . . . , we deal only with those that are relevant to the things we do in these chapters. Functions fall under the general Formulas tab on the ribbon, as you see in Figure 1A.5.
Part I ♦ Yippee! I’m in Statistics

For example, there are groups of financial functions, logical functions, text functions, and others. But we’re going to focus (mostly) on the functions that fall in the category of statistical functions and a few database functions. The group of statistical functions are visible on your screen only when you click on the More Functions drop-down box, which you see in Figure 1A.5, and then click Statistical. The group of database functions must be the black sheep of Excel because they don’t have their own grouping on the Excel Ribbon. Instead, you have to click the Insert Function button on the left of the ribbon and then specify the group of database functions.

Functions that are relevant to the material covered in this book include AVERAGE (guess what that does) and T.TEST (guess, but you probably don’t yet know). Some are too advanced for us to bother with, such as FISHER and GAMALIN. We’ll leave those for the next course or for you to explore on your own.

Using a Function

Unlike a formula, a function is not created by you. You just tell it which values (located in which cells) you want to work with. Every formula contains two elements—the name of the function and the argument of the function. Argument doesn’t mean the function is quarrelling over whose turn it is to wash the dishes. To understand what an Excel argument is, let’s look at an example.

Here’s a very simple function that averages a given set of numbers. In this example, this function averages the numbers in Cells A1 through A3:

= AVERAGE(A1:A3)

The name of the function is AVERAGE, and the argument is A1:A3—the cells on which you want the function to perform its magic. And as you can see, functions (like formulas) always, always, always begin with an equal sign.

Here’s another function that produces the sum of a set of cells:

= SUM(A1:A3)

Simple, right? And, you may be thinking, “Well, why not just use a formula in this case?” and you could. But what if you need the sum of a set of 3,267 values like this?

= SUM(A1:A3267)
Chapter 1A ♦ All You Need to Know About Formulas and Functions

You really don’t want to type in =A1+A2+A3+A4 . . . until you get to A3267, right? We thought not. Or what if you need a fancy-schmancy calculation that includes formulas that are very complex? Functions to the rescue!

So, let’s get to the way that we use a function, and as an example, we’ll use the AVERAGE function.

To use this (or any other function), you follow three steps:

1. Enter the function in the cell where you want the results to appear.
2. Enter the range of cells on which you want the function to operate.
3. Press the Enter key, and voilà! There you have the result located in the cell in which the function was created.

However, there are several ways to accomplish these three steps, and let’s deal with those now.

Inserting a Function (When You Know the Function’s Name and How It Works)

Here’s the old-fashioned way.

1. Enter the function in the cell where you want the results to appear.

For example, in Figure 1A.6, you can see a data set of 10 values. We are going to find the average of those values using the AVERAGE function. And, to make things a bit clearer, we entered a text label in the cell to the left of where we want the sum to appear.

![Figure 1A.6 Creating a Data Set and the Location of the AVERAGE Function](image-url)
2. Type =AVERAGE(B2:B11) in Cell B12.

3. Press the Enter key, and presto: As you see in Figure 1A.7, the sum shows up in Cell B12, and in the formula bar, you can see the structure of the function.

Notice that the results of the function (3.3) are returned to the same cell (B12) where the function was entered. Pretty cool.

And not very difficult. And very convenient. Remember that you can do this with any function. But how do you know what the structure of the function is? That’s where the next step comes in.

Figure 1A.7 The Completed AVERAGE Function

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Okay—so how do you know what function to use? Well, certainly one way is through exploring different functions and finding out what they do (which you will do throughout *Statistics for People* . . .). Another is by using Excel Help (press F1 at any time and enter the terms on which you want help). And another way is to look at Table 1A.1 at the end of this little chapter, which gives you a heads-up on which functions we’ll be mentioning (some in great detail and others just in passing) throughout the book and what they do.
Inserting a Function Using the Insert Function (fx) Command

Let's use the same example, the AVERAGE function, and assume you haven't used it before but know this is the one you want to use. We're using the same data as shown in Figure 1A.6. First, erase the results of the function in Cell B12 by selecting the cell and hitting the space bar once and then Enter.

1. Select Cell B12.

2. Click the Formulas tab and the Insert Function command (fx). When you do this, you will see the Insert Function dialog box as shown in Figure 1A.8. In the Mac version, you see the Formula Builder dialog box, which does the same thing as the Insert Function dialog box in the Windows version.

A very nice shortcut to the function command (fx) can be found on the Formula bar just to the left of where you see any information that is entered into a cell. Just click that, and you get the Insert Function dialog box.
3. Now you can do one of two things:
   a. Type a brief description of what you want to do, such as *average*, and click the Go button; or
   b. Find the function you want in the list of functions and double-click on it.

We selected option (b), and when we did, the Function arguments dialog box appeared, as shown in Figure 1A.9. Notice that Excel automatically assumed that we wanted to average all of the values above the current cell, and it completed the cell range in the Number 1 box.

Don't get too excited. A function's argument is not really an argument like a disagreement. An argument in mathematical terms is a set of premises, and that's exactly what you need to provide within the parentheses of any function—a set of premises that the function is to carry out.

![Figure 1A.9 The Function Arguments Dialog Box](image)

Let's take a look at the different elements in this dialog box.

- There's the name of the function, AVERAGE.
- Then there are text boxes where you enter the range of cells (the argument) on which you want the function to perform its
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duty. Note that Excel is pretty smart and automatically enters the range of cells it thinks you want to average. Notice also that the actual numbers you want to average are listed to the right of the text box.

- In the middle of the dialog box is a description of what the function does, and above that is the value the function will return to the cell in which it is located (in this case, your average is 3.3).
- The syntax (or directions) of how to put the function together is given near the bottom, preceded by **Number 1**.
- The formula result is shown again at the bottom left.
- Finally, there is a link to a place to get help if you need it.

4. Click OK, and you will see the same result as you saw in Figure 1A.7. We entered the function using the Insert Function command instead of by typing its name, but we got the same result.

**Inserting a Function Using Formulas → More Functions → Statistical**

That really says it all. Just follow these three mouse clicks, and you will see a list of all the statistical functions that are available. Selecting any of them (such as AVERAGE) provides you with the same dialog box you see in Figure 1A.9.

Most functions can do a lot more than first appears. Excel functions are so useful because they are so flexible. For example, with the simplest of functions such as SUM, you can enter the following variations as arguments and get the following results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you enter the following formula . . .</th>
<th>Excel does this . . .</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=SUM(3,4)</td>
<td>Adds the values to get 7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=SUM(A2:A4)</td>
<td>Adds the values located in Cells A2 through A4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=SUM(A2:A4,6)</td>
<td>Adds the values located in Cells A2 through A4 and also adds the value of 6 to that sum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=SUM(A6:A8,4)</td>
<td>Adds the values located in Cells A6 to A8 and adds the value of 4 to that sum.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Now you know two ways to insert a function in a worksheet—by typing its name or selecting it through the Insert Function dialog box. And once a specific Function Arguments dialog box (like the one you see in Figure 1A.9) is open, you can just enter the cell addresses in the appropriate text box. However, you can also just click in the cell address box and then drag the mouse over the cell addresses you want to include in that box. This is good. But there’s another nifty way to go about this. You can click on the Collapse button (which looks like this ), which will shrink the entire dialog box and allow you to select the cells you want using the mouse directly on the worksheet. Then click the Expand button, and the dialog box returns to its normal size with the cell addresses included.

If you insert a function by typing it directly into a cell (or even by typing a partial name), the 2016 version of Excel provides a list of similarly spelled functions as well as a tip about how to use your function, as you see in Figure 1A.10. Here we typed in =aver, and as we typed, Excel provided a list of various average functions plus a tip as to what the AVERAGE function does.

**Figure 1A.10 Excel Helps You Choose the Right Function**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=aver</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE</td>
<td>Returns the average (arithmetic mean) of its arguments, which can be numbers or names, arrays, or references that contain numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGEA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGEE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGEP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Using Functions in Formulas**

It’s time to get a bit fancy. Now, formulas and functions are basically the same animal—they carry out instructions. There’s just no reason why you can’t include a function in a formula.

For example, let’s say that you have three job evaluation scores (Eval 1, Eval 2, and Eval 3) as you see in Figure 1A.11. You also have a Fudge Factor (in column E), which is a value you can use to increase or decrease an employee’s score at your discretion. For example, you want to increase employee GH’s score by 3%, so
you multiply the average evaluation score (from Eval 1, Eval 2, and Eval 3) by 1.03. Figure 1A.11 shows the formula that includes the AVERAGE function (which you will learn more about in Chapter 2).

As you can see in the formula bar shown in Figure 1A.11, the formula in Cell F2 looks like this:

\[ \text{=AVERAGE(B2:D2)*E2} \]

And it reads like this: The contents of Cells B2 through D2 are averaged, and then that value is multiplied by the contents of Cell E2. We copied the formula from Cell F2 to Cells F3 through F11, and the results are shown in Column F.

We're Taking Names: Naming Ranges

It's certainly easy enough to enter cell addresses such as A1:A3—not much work involved there.

But what if you're dealing with a really large worksheet with hundreds of columns and rows and thousands of cells? Wouldn't it be nice if you could just enter a name that represents a certain range of cells rather than having to remember all those cell addresses? Desire it no more. Excel allows you to name a range, or a collection of cells.
For example, in Figure 1A.11, if you want to average the employees’ second evaluations, instead of using the cell addresses C2:C11, why not just give the range of cells a name, such as eval2 or EVAL_2 (no spaces, please!)? Then, the average for that set of scores using the AVERAGE function would look like this—

\[ \text{=AVERAGE(EVAL}_2\text{)} \]

rather than like this—

\[ \text{=AVERAGE(C2:C11)} \]

And if you can believe it, this only gets better—you can just paste that name into any formula or function with a few clicks. You don’t even have to type anything!

Here’s how to assign a name to a range of cells:

1. Highlight the range of cells you want to name.
2. Click the Name box at the left end of the formula bar (in the Mac version, it’s the Define Name option on the Formulas bar).
3. Type the name that you want to use to refer to your selection, as shown in Figure 1A.12 (we used Eval_2). And again, no spaces please—Excel does not like them in name ranges.
4. Press Enter.
Using Ranges

Once a range is defined, you can use the name assigned instead of a cell range. If you remember that the data are named, you can just enter that name by using the drop-down menu now available in the Name Manager command area (on the Formulas tab), as shown in Figure 1A.13. Or you'll use the Apply Names option in the Mac version.

Let's use the ranges that were defined and compute the average of all the Fudge Factor scores.

1. Click on Cell F12, where the average will be placed.
2. Type =average(.
3. Click Formulas → Use in Formula, and you will see the Use in Formula drop-down menu, as shown in Figure 1A.14.
4. Click on Final_Score.
5. Type ).
6. Click Enter and take a look at Figure 1A.15, where you can see how the name was used in the function rather than the cell addresses of F2 through F11.
Part I ♦ Yippee! I’m in Statistics

Figure 1A.14 The Menu for Selecting a Range of Cells

![Selection Menu](image1)

Figure 1A.15 Inserting a Cell Range Into a Function

![Function Insertion](image2)

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REAL-WORLD STATS

Real-World Stats will appear at the end of every chapter and, hopefully, will provide you with a demonstration of how a particular method, test, idea, or some other aspect of statistics is used in the everyday work of scientists, physicians, policy makers, government folks, and others.

In this first such feature, we look at a very short paper in which the author shares the argument for the National Academy of Sciences (first chartered in 1863, by the way!) to “whenever called upon by any department of the Government, investigate, examine, experiment, and report upon any subject of science or art.” This charter, in turn, led to the formation of the National Research Council some 50 years later in 1916, another nonprofit that provides policy makers with information they need to make informed decisions. Often this “information” takes the form of quantitative data—also referred to as statistics—that assist people in evaluating alternative approaches to problems with a wide-ranging impact on the public. So, this article, as does your book and the class you are taking, points out how important it is to think clearly and use data to support your arguments.

Want to know more? Go online or go to the library, and look for . . .


SUMMARY

This may be a “little” chapter, but it contains some of the most useful tools that Excel has to offer. In fact, the uses of formulas and functions are limited only by your imagination. As you use Excel, you will find more and more ways to make these powerful tools work exactly the way you need them to.

TIME TO PRACTICE

1. Create formulas for the following in an Excel worksheet:
   a. Add the values of 3 and 5 to one another.
   b. Subtract the value of 5 from 10 and multiply the outcome by 7.
c. Average the values 5, 6, 7, and 8.

d. Find the sum of the squared values of 3, 4, and 5.

2. Use the AVERAGE function to add the values of 3, 5, and 7 and divide the total by 3.

3. What would the function look like for summing the values in Cells A1 through A5?

4. What would the function look like for averaging the values in Cells A1 through A5?

5. Create a worksheet with any five values in Cells A1 through A5, name the range of these cells Test_Scores, and enter a function in Cell A6 that computes the average. Can you think of another way to do this?

Table 1A.1 The Functions You’ll Love to Love*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Function Name</th>
<th>What It Does</th>
<th>The Chapter in Which You’ll Read About It</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AVERAGE</td>
<td>Returns the average of its arguments</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHISQ.DIST</td>
<td>Returns the one-tailed probability of the chi-square distribution</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHISQ.TEST</td>
<td>Returns the test for independence</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CORREL</td>
<td>Returns the correlation coefficient between two data sets</td>
<td>5 and 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COUNTIF</td>
<td>Counts the number of nonblank cells within a range given certain criteria</td>
<td>2 and 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAVERAGE</td>
<td>Returns the average for a set of entries contained in a database</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.DIST</td>
<td>Returns the $F$ probability distribution</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.TEST</td>
<td>Returns the result of an $F$-test</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORECAST</td>
<td>Returns a value along a linear trend</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREQUENCY</td>
<td>Returns a frequency distribution as a vertical array</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEOMEAN</td>
<td>Returns the geometric mean</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTERCEPT</td>
<td>Returns where a regression line crosses the $y$-axis</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KURT</td>
<td>Returns the kurtosis of a data set</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Chapter 1A ♦ All You Need to Know About Formulas and Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Function Name</th>
<th>What It Does</th>
<th>The Chapter in Which You’ll Read About It</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LINEST</td>
<td>Returns the parameters of a linear trend</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEDIAN</td>
<td>Returns the median of the given numbers</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODE.MULTI</td>
<td>Returns the most common values in a data set</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODE.SNGL</td>
<td>Returns the most common value in a data set</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NORM.S.DIST</td>
<td>Returns the standard normal cumulative distribution</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEARSON</td>
<td>Returns the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUARTILE.INC</td>
<td>Returns the quartile of a data set</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKEW</td>
<td>Returns the skewness of a distribution</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLOPE</td>
<td>Returns the slope of the linear regression line</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STANDARDIZE</td>
<td>Returns a normalized value</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STDEV.P</td>
<td>Calculates standard deviation based on the entire population</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STDEV.S</td>
<td>Estimates standard deviation based on a sample</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEYX</td>
<td>Returns the standard error of the predicted y value for each x in the regression</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.DIST</td>
<td>Returns the Student’s t distribution</td>
<td>11, 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.TEST</td>
<td>Returns the probability associated with a Student’s t-test</td>
<td>11, 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TREND</td>
<td>Returns values along a linear trend</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR.P</td>
<td>Calculates variance based on the entire population</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR.S</td>
<td>Estimates variance based on a sample</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z.TEST</td>
<td>Returns the probability of a one-tailed z value</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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*Some of the names of the functions that appeared in the Excel 2007 and 2010 versions (and earlier) have changed slightly. For example, TTEST became TEST (leaving the general Excel user, of course, clueless as to why the change occurred).*
All You Need to Know About Using the Amazing Data Analysis Tools

Difficulty Scale 😊😊 (a little tough, but invaluable to stick with)

How much Excel? 💼💻📱📱📱 (a ton)

WHAT YOU’LL LEARN ABOUT IN THIS CHAPTER

✦ What the Data Analysis tools are and what they do

(Almost) everything you need to know about Excel, you can learn in Appendix A. But certain Excel procedures are available only if you have the Data Analysis tools (which used to be called the Data Analysis Toolpak) installed, and we use those tools in several chapters in this book. Excel refers to this set of tools as the Data Analysis Tools, but you will see it on your screen as Data Analysis tools (and same for the Mac). No worries; the set of tools, no matter its name, does the same thing. And remember, for the Windows version, the Data Analysis tools is an Excel add-in—a special set of tools that may not have been installed when Excel was originally installed.

How do you know if this add-in is installed on the computer you are using? If the Data Analysis tools item doesn’t appear on the Data tab (usually at the right-hand side of the Data tab), you need to install it. Either ask your instructor to have this done on the network level where Excel may be installed or install it on your own machine as discussed in Chapter 1. For the Mac version, the Toolpak is automatically installed.

The Data Analysis tools are easy to use. You just follow the instructions and identify the analysis you want to perform and the data on
which you want it performed, and you're done. Throughout *Statistics for People* . . . , we will show you in detailed steps how this is done.

One more note: As you already know from Table 1A.1, there are many functions, and some of these have counterparts in the Data Analysis tools. For example, you can perform a test for the difference between the means of two groups using a function (T.TEST) or using the Data Analysis tools (using the t-test tool—say that three times fast). That's all for the better. You will often have more than one way to analyze your data—always a nice position to be in.

**A LOOK AT THE DATA ANALYSIS TOOLS**

For now, let's just look at some output where we took a random sample of 5 numbers from a group of 25 numbers. In Figure 1B.1, you see the data in Column A; the sample of 5 numbers in Column C; and the Sampling dialog box that we used from the Data Analysis tools to tell Excel what to sample, how many to sample, and where to put the results. Much more about this later in the book, but we thought you'd like to see how this cool set of tools works.

![Figure 1B.1 Using the Sampling Tool From the Data Analysis Tools](image-url)
For our purposes, we will be working with the following Data Analysis tools (we’ll be working with about three fourths of them—the others are more advanced than we need). And in the appropriate chapter (such as Chapter 2), you will learn about particular tools (such as Descriptive Statistics):

ANOVA
Correlation
Descriptive Statistics
Histogram
Moving Average
Random Number Generation
Rank and Percentile
Regression
Sampling
t-test
Z-test

Now take a look at Figure 1B.2 and you can see a side-by-side comparison of the Windows and Mac Excel output from using the
Descriptive Statistics options in the Data Analysis tools. As you can see, the output is virtually identical. The way each version is used is virtually identical as well.

**DON'T HAVE IT? (INSTALLATION AGAIN!)**

The Data Analysis tools is an Excel add-in for the Windows version. An add-in is a program that adds custom commands and features to Microsoft Office. Microsoft Office is Excel's mother ship. For the Mac version, there's no installation necessary.

To load the Data Analysis tools into Excel, follow these steps:

1. Click the File Tab and then click Options.
2. Click Add-Ins and then, in the Manage box, select Data Analysis tools.
3. Click Go.
4. In the Add-Ins dialog box, select the Data Analysis tools check box and click OK.

And you are done and ready to make your Excel activities even that much more productive and fun.
For Mac Lovers Who Are Still Using Version 2011

Rejoice!! And, for Mac Lovers Who Are New to Version 2016, Rejoice More!!!

A MAC ALTERNATIVE TO THE DATA ANALYSIS TOOLS

Mac users of Excel need no longer feel like second-rate citizens, because the 2016 version for the Mac does indeed offer the Data Analysis tools feature.

However, for those of you who have yet to upgrade to the newest 2016 version for the Mac, StatPlus (officially called StatPlus: Mac LE) from AnalystSoft is a free Excel add-in that performs many of the same types of analysis as do the Data Analysis tools. It is easy to install and easy to use, and it provides a valuable set of analytic tools. You can download it from http://www.analystsoft.com/en/products/statplusmacle/. An important note: There is a StatPlus Pro version that is not free of charge, and you may be asked to upgrade to that version. There are a good number of more advanced analytic procedures that you can only do using the Pro version, so while the free version gives you a good idea of how StatPlus works, to do everything, you'll need to upgrade. Ask your instructor to have your university buy a license for the Pro version so everyone can access it.

In previous editions of *Statistics for People . . .* (the Excel version), we have mentioned this tool, but this is the first time that we go into any detail about how it is used. And here's an early peek. In Figure 1C.1, you can see a set of sample data (10 test scores) and the results of a descriptive analysis using StatPlus—all on the same spreadsheet just the way the Data Analysis tools do it. And, of
course, like any Excel information, it can be manipulated to appear as you need it—lines or columns deleted, table templates used, font size and style adjusted, etc.

### Getting Started With StatPlus

There are many ways to use StatPlus, but here’s the most direct and pragmatic:

1. Open the worksheet of data you want to analyze in Microsoft Excel. If you have not already created a worksheet of data, then open a blank worksheet and enter the data you want to analyze.
3. Perform the analysis you want.

### Computing Descriptive Statistics

Here’s how we computed the output you see in Figure 1C.1.

1. Open the worksheet containing the Excel data as you see in Figure 1C.2.

3. Click Statistics → Basic Statistics and Tables → Descriptive Statistics. When you do this, you will see the Descriptive Statistics dialog box as shown in Figure 1C.3, where you will define the range that contains the data you want to analyze.

4. Select the range of data you want to analyze by either selecting the range in the worksheet (the easiest way), using the Collapse button, or entering the range using the keyboard. If you have column headings for the data, be sure to click the Labels in First Row check box in the Descriptive Statistics Window.

5. Click OK and you'll see results as shown in Figure 1C.1. Figure 1C.4 shows the same results after a good deal of cleanup using various Excel features.
As you can see in Figure 1C.3, there are both Advanced Options and Preferences buttons in the box where you define the range containing the data to be analyzed.

The Advanced options contain different options for different analytic tools. For the Descriptive Statistics tool, you can select such options as plotting a histogram, creating a normal curve (nice!), and defining the range of intervals. Options change with the analytic tool being used.

The Preferences button reveals preferences that are constant for all StatPlus analytic tools and allows you to change font design and size, number of decimal places used, and even how missing data are handled.

What StatPlus Can Do

Since you’re interested in StatPlus, here’s what’s covered in various chapters in the book and the corresponding StatPlus analytic tool. This should help you to figure out what to use when. You’ll need either the basic version of StatPlus or the Pro version depending upon the analysis you want to complete.
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