

A SunCam online continuing education course

# Engineering Methods in Microsoft Excel

## Part 3: Data Analysis in Excel

by

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#### Abstract

This course is the part of a series on engineering methods in *Microsoft Excel;* tailored to practicing engineers. It features *Microsoft Excel* tools that can be used for a wide range of engineering analyses and data management. This course covers introductory topics on engineering data analyses. Each topic includes a review of the fundamental principles, followed by a real-life example encountered by a practicing engineer. The real-life examples are then formulated and implemented in *Microsoft Excel* and worked using the various *Excel* tools, spreadsheet techniques, and built-in functions. Examples from various engineering fields are used to demonstrate the concepts and methods learned throughout this course. Upon completion of this course, practitioners will be able to apply the methods learned to a variety of engineering problems, and identify situations in their fields of specialty where the innovative application of these tools and methods will be advantageous to their output and to their work product.



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## **1. INTRODUCTION**

## 1.1 Overview

In their fields of specialty, Engineers are constantly challenged with solving a wide range of complex analytical and computational problems. These problems involve analysis methodologies and the management of data. The application of computers enables repetitive, time-consuming and often tedious calculations to be conducted rapidly, efficiently, and less prone to errors. The application of computer tools also enables the results and outputs of such engineering analyses to be readily transferred and incorporated into reports and other engineering documents. An even greater advantage—in terms of productivity and efficiency—is realized when these calculations and outputs are replicated across numerous projects. Competence in computer skills predisposes engineers to pursue and develop more creative and innovative solutions to problems than otherwise.

*Microsoft Excel* is an electronic spreadsheet program developed by the *Microsoft* company, and part of the *Microsoft Office* suite of products. A spreadsheet is a grid that organizes data and calculations into columns and rows. The intersection of a column and a row is called a cell. An electronic spreadsheet enables users to store, organize, manipulate, and analyze data in the cells of the spreadsheet. As of this publication, the software is into the 2016 release.

*Microsoft Excel* is widely and increasingly being used as a tool to assist engineers in conducting and replicating intricate calculations and analysis, designing complex systems, and managing large data sets. This course presents a selection of engineering analysis topics and how to formulate, implement and solve them within *Microsoft Excel*.

This course presents fundamental principles and engineering applications of engineering data analysis—and demonstrates the *Excel* tools, methods, and strategies that can be used to formulate and solve them.

Upon completion of this course, participants will have gained insight into applying *Excel* tools, methods, and strategies in analyzing, formulating and implementing a variety of engineering related problems, as well as managing large sets of complex data. Participants will also be able to identify professional situations where the application of innovative *Excel* techniques will be of great benefit and advantage, as it will enable practitioners to significantly improve their productivity, efficiency, and the quality of their work product.



## 2. DATA ANALYSIS

#### **2.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, we shall cover some of the tools for statistical analysis that are part of the *Excel Data Analysis Tools* Add-in. Statistical analysis involves organizing, summarizing, analyzing, interpreting, manipulating etc., data. In this presentation, data from various fields of engineering shall be used for illustrative purposes.

## 2.2 Data

Data (singular **datum**) are observations or results that have been gathered. For example, measurements, experimental results, survey responses, test scores, etc. In a study, if data is collected on every single eligible member of the subject population, such a study is called a **census**. A **sample** is a subset of a population. The field of statistics involves using data from a sample—collected in an appropriate manner—to make valid inferences and conclusions about a population.

A numerical measure that describes a population is a called a **parameter**. A numerical measure that describes a sample is called a **statistic**. For example, the average speed of all vehicles that use a roadway over a given period would be a parameter; whereas the average speed of a randomly selected sample of vehicles on this roadway would be a statistic.

**Quantitative data** consists of numerical values representing counts, measurements etc. For example, traffic volumes, or number of units produced by an industrial process. **Qualitative data**, also called categorical data or attribute data are nonnumeric in nature. For example, gender, hair color, hobby.

Quantitative data may be discreet or continuous. **Discrete data** consists of countable numeric values or integer values. For example, the number of packages processed by a mail service (e.g. 10, 15, 250, 681, etc.). **Continuous data** consists of integer and decimal values. For example, the volume in liters of a chemical product manufactured per day by a chemical plant (e.g. 4.8, 4.0, 9.85, 15.655, etc.). With continuous data, for any specified range of values, there are infinitely many possible values that may be obtained.



Qualitative data may be described as **ordinal** or **nominal**. Ordinal data is such that the nonnumeric values express order, ranking, or scale. For example, letter grades (A, B, C, D, E, F) earned by students on a test; or the seniority of positions in a police department (corporal, lieutenant, captain, major, chief etc.). Nominal data on the other hand do not express a scheme of ordering. For example, eye color (brown, blue, green etc.) does not express a scale or order or ranking.

## 2.3 Organizing and Summarizing Data

The number of times a value occurs in a data set is called the **frequency** of the value. For grouped data (data arranged in groups, or intervals also known as **classes**), the frequency of an interval is the number of data values that fall within the interval. A **frequency distribution**, also called a frequency table, summarizes a data set by listing data values—individually or as intervals—along with their corresponding frequencies.

Consider the following speeds (in miles per hour) of vehicles on a highway: 53, 56, 72, 59, 63, 59, 56, 67, 59, 63. The values may be tallied and the frequencies appended as follows:

Speed (mph)	Tally	Frequency (f)
53	/	1
56	//	2
59	///	3
63	//	2
67	/	1
72	/	1
		$\Sigma f = 10$

Note that the total frequency must always equal the number of observations (the sample size).

For a larger dataset, however, tallying individual values is tedious and cumbersome—therefore the use of intervals (also called classes) is preferred. An example of a frequency table using intervals is as follows:



Speed (mph)	Frequency (f)
[20, 30)	2
[30, 40)	8
[40, 50)	30
[50, 60)	40
[60, 70)	15
[70, 80)	5
	$\Sigma f = 100$

The interval convention used in the above table, [a, b) means that the lower limit a is included in the interval, and the upper limit b is not included in the interval, and will be included in the subsequent interval.

#### Frequency Distributions

The procedure for constructing the frequency distribution (or frequency table) using intervals is as follows:

- 1. Compute the range of the data—which is the difference of the high value and the low value.
- 2. Select the number of intervals to be used—typically between 5 and 20 depending on the nature of the data.
- 3. Compute the interval width—which is the range divided by the number of intervals, and rounded to a convenient number to work with; typically, a multiple of 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 etc., depending on the nature of the data.
- 4. Select the lower limit of the first interval such that it encloses the low value of the data. The upper limit of the interval is the lower limit plus the interval width. The upper limit is not included in the interval per our convention, but becomes the lower limit (and included) of the next interval. This step is repeated until the last interval encloses the high value of the data.
- 5. Tally the frequency for each interval.
- 6. Record the frequency for each interval



Cumulative Frequency

Another way of expressing frequency is the **cumulative frequency**. The cumulative frequency of an interval (or value) is the summation of the frequencies from the beginning of the distribution up to that interval (or value). The cumulative frequency table (or cumulative frequency distribution) of our sample speed interval data will therefore be as follows:

Speed (mph)	Frequency (f)	Cumulative Frequency (cf)
[20, 30)	2	2
[30, 40)	8	10
[40, 50)	30	40
[50, 60)	40	80
[60, 70)	15	95
[70, 80)	5	100
	$\Sigma f = 100$	

Note that the cumulative frequency of the last interval will always be equal to the total frequency.

#### **Relative Frequency**

The **relative frequency** of an interval (or value), is the frequency of the interval (or value), divided by the total frequency. Just like cumulative frequency, the **cumulative relative frequency** of an interval (or value) is the summation of the relative frequencies from the beginning of the distribution up to that interval (or value).

#### Class Mark

The class mark, or **class midpoint,** is the midpoint of an interval. It is the average of the lower limit and the upper limit of an interval (even though by our convention the upper limit value does not belong to the interval).

We may now update our distribution to show: the relative frequency, the cumulative relative frequency, and the class mark for each interval.



Speed (mph)	Class Mark	Frequency (f)	Cumulative Frequency (cf)	Relative Frequency	Cumulative Relative Frequency
[20, 30)	25	2	2	0.02	0.02
[30, 40)	35	8	10	0.08	0.10
[40, 50)	45	30	40	0.30	0.40
[50, 60)	55	40	80	0.40	0.80
[60, 70)	65	15	95	0.15	0.95
[70, 80)	75	5	100	0.05	1.00
		$\Sigma f = 100$			

Note that the relative frequencies will always add up to unity; and the cumulative relative frequency of the last interval will be equal to unity.

#### **2.4 Frequency Diagrams**

A frequency diagram is a graphical representation of a frequency distribution. There are many types of frequency diagrams in use. In this section, we shall review a selection of frequency diagrams commonly used by engineers.



Frequency Polygon

A frequency polygon is a plot of frequency versus the data values. For grouped data, it is the frequency versus the class midpoint (class mark).





## <u>Histogram</u>

This is constructed by plotting a bar graph of frequency versus each interval.





<u>Ogive</u>

The ogive ("oh-jive"), or **cumulative frequency curve,** is a plot of cumulative relative frequency (in %) versus the class upper limits (or alternately, the class midpoints).



Note that an ogive based on class upper limits compared to an ogive based on class midpoints will have the exact same shape and values on the vertical axis; however, the latter will be shifted horizontally to the left—relative to the former.



<u>Dotplot</u>

In a dotplot (also called a dot diagram), the data values (or intervals) are plotted on a number line, and the frequency of each value (or interval) is represented by the corresponding number of stacked markers—typically dots, in the vertical plane.



#### Stem and Leaf Diagram

In a stem-and-leaf plot, the data values are broken up such that all digits—except the last digit of the value—form a "stem"; and the last digit represents the data value in the "leaf". Once a leaf is complete, the digits in the leaf are then rearranged in ascending numerical order. For grouped data, an alternative strategy is to have the stem formed by the intervals (classes); and each individual value is represented on the diagram by its last digit.

Stem	Leaf
2	5 8
3	0 1 5 5 7 8 8 9
4	0 0 0 1 2 2 3 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9
5	0 0 0 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 7 7 8 8 8 9 9 9
6	0 0 0 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 6 9
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Thus, in the example below, the arrows point to values 39, 66, and 75.



We see that the stem-and-leaf diagram graphically depicts the entire data arranged in numerical order.



#### 2.5 Excel Data Analysis Tools

The *Data Analysis Tools* Add-in consists of a suite of tools for probability and statistics computations and analyses. As an Add-in, *Data Analysis Tools* is not readily available with a regular *Excel* install and must be specifically activated from the Add-in window. Once activated, however, *Data Analysis Tools* remains available for use; unless or until the user deactivates the add-in or resets their computer to a setting that predates the *Data Analysis Tools* activation.

Let us perform the following steps to activate Data Analysis Tools.

#### Click on FILE





#### Click on **Options**





## Click on Add-Ins.

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The Add-Ins window is dismissed.



Return to your main *Excel* window and go to the **DATA** tab. Notice that the **Analysis** palette now has the **Data Analysis Tools** icon.

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Click on Data Analysis Tools.

In the **Data Analysis** window review the various statistical tools available. Use the scrollbar to review tools towards the bottom of the list.

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Click on Cancel to close the Data Analysis window.

## 2.6 Data Analysis in Excel

In this section, we shall work through a real-life example with the *Excel Data Analysis Tools*—using the speed data provided with your course packet.

Open your speed data file and review the data which consists of 100 vehicles speeds measured on a rural highway by a municipal traffic engineer.



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Let us go through the process to set up the frequency distribution (or frequency table):

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The Range of the data is the maximum value minus the minimum value.

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Hit **Enter** on your keyboard.

The range of the data is computed.

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2. Select the number of intervals to be used—typically between 5 and 20, depending on the nature of data.

Let us pick 6 intervals to use for our data.

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3. Compute the interval width—which is the range divided by the number of intervals—and round to a convenient number to work with; typically, a multiple of 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 etc., depending on the nature of the data.

Enter the division formula by point-and-click.

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So, for convenience, we shall round up and use a class width of 10. Note that this rounding may result in a change in the number of intervals than originally selected, but that is fine; it will have no adverse impacts on our analysis.



4. Select the lower limit of the first interval so that it encloses the low value of the data. The upper limit of the interval is the lower limit plus the interval width. The upper limit is not included in the interval per our convention; but becomes the lower limit (and included) of the next interval. This step is repeated such that the upper limit of the last interval encloses the high value of the data.

For our data, let us pick a lower limit of 20 for the first interval. The upper limit will therefore be 30. However, based on our [a, b) convention, the first interval will be [20, 30)—where the value 30 is not included in the interval. In other words, our interval is effectively from 20 through 29.9999999... We shall use this format of the upper limit of the intervals in the *Excel* manipulations.

The last interval is therefore [70, 80)—which is effectively 70 through 79.9999999... In *Excel*, the intervals are referred to as **bins**. Our intervals (or bins) for *Excel* purposes are therefore:

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- 5. Tally the frequency for each interval.
- 6. Record the frequency for each interval

We shall use the *Excel Data Analysis Tools* to tally and record the frequency of each interval (bin).

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Click on the **DATA** tab. Click on **Data Analysis**.

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In the **Data Analysis** window, select **Histogram**. Press **OK**.

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The Histogram window opens.

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With the cursor flashing in the **Input Range:** textbox, go to the spreadsheet and select your data. (Alternately, type in the range of cells holding the data directly into the **Input Range:** textbox).

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# Click in the **Bin Range:** textbox.

Go to the spreadsheet and select the bins. The upper limits only are needed.

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For the **Output options**, we would like to place all outputs on a range of cells on the current worksheet.

Select the option button for the **Output Range:**.

Click in the Output Range textbox.

Select a range of cells on the current worksheet where you want your results to be posted.

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We want a **Chart Output** and a **Cumulative Frequency** (in percentage) to be recorded and displayed on the chart.

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# Hit OK.

The frequency table and the histogram, with an ogive superimposed on it, are displayed.

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On the copied chart click and hold down the cursor on the bottom right corner. Drag the cursor to resize the chart.



We shall perform some manipulations on the chart to "clean it up". These manipulations apply to all types of charts in *Excel* and not specifically to charts created via the *Data Analysis Tools*.



On the copied chart, we would like to focus on the histogram only. Click anywhere on the ogive to select it.

Hit **Delete** on your keyboard.

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Notice the ogive and its associated vertical axis are deleted.



#### Select the legend to the right.





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Click on the "Bin" label on the horizontal axis to select it.





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Notice that the text update appears in the formula bar.



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Right click over any of the bars of the histogram. Click on **Format Data Series**.

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#### This opens the Format Data Series in a pane to the right.





Manipulate the **Gap Width** value until the histogram bars are barely touching, to obtain a more professionally looking histogram.



#### Close the Format Data Series pane.

Click on any cell to take the cursor off the data series.



Now, click on the border of the chart to select it. Notice the **CHART TOOLS** tab becomes available. Under the **CHART TOOLS** tab, click on the **DESIGN** tab.





Click on Add Chart Elements, and review the available options.



To keep it simple, we shall not add any new elements to the histogram; but review the available elements under the various options by hovering over them.



For example, let us look at the options for adding gridlines to the chart. Notice that any option hovered over provides a preview of what the chart will look like if that chart element is added.

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Click on the Add Chart Elements to close it.



Let's go to the frequency table. Note that the table has an interval named "More". Since there are no data values beyond the bins we defined the "More" interval has a frequency of zero.

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We may therefore remove it from the table—which will also remove it from the histogram, and any charts on the worksheet that pull their data from this frequency table.



Select all elements on the "More" row on the frequency table. Hit **Delete** on your keyboard.

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Notice that the "More" interval is removed from the histogram and any chart that is connected to the frequency table.



We have completed our work with the histogram.



We shall now focus on the ogive.

Resize and reposition the original chart accordingly.





Click on any of the bars of the histogram to select it. Hit **Delete** on your keyboard. Click on the legend to select it. Hit **Delete** on your keyboard.





Change the label on the horizontal axis to "Speed (mph)".

Change the Chart title from "Histogram" to "Ogive" or "Cumulative Frequency Curve" in the same way as the horizontal axis label was changed.





Make sure the chart is selected (by clicking in its border). Go to **CHART TOOLS**. Click on **DESIGN**. Click on **Add Chart Elements**. Hover over **Gridlines**. Click on **Primary Major Horizontal**.





The gridlines are added to the chart.

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Repeat the process to add **Primary Minor Vertical** gridlines.



The scale on the vertical axis shows: the values with tick marks in steps of 20 and ending at 120%. We would like to change that to show: steps of 10 labeled, with intermediary marks for every 5 units—but not labelled—and ending at 100% (as any percentage on an ogive in excess of 100%, is meaningless). We shall also change the number format on the vertical axis to have no decimal places.



Click on any of the values on the vertical axis to select the vertical axis.





## Right click. Select **Format Axis**.





#### The Format Axis pane opens to the right.





Under **Bounds** – **Maximum**, change the value to 1.0. Under **Units** – **Major**, change the value to 0.1 Under **Units** – **Minor**, change the value to 0.05.

Observe the axis values and the graph shifting accordingly.





Click on **TICK MARKS** to expand it to view the available options. (You may have to scroll down the **Format Axis** pane to see the **TICK MARKS** option).

Change the **Major type** to **Cross**. Change the **Minor type** to **Inside**.

Observe how the tick marks on the vertical axis have changed accordingly.





Click on **NUMBER** to expand it to view the available options. Change the **Decimal places** value to zero.

Observe how the number formatting on the vertical axis has changed accordingly.





Close the Format Axis pane.

Click away from the chart.



Cumulative frequency curve complete!



Alternate Method for Histograms (Excel 2016 and beyond users only)

This sub-section can be performed only if you have the 2016 version and above, of *Excel*, otherwise move on the next section. \*There is no penalty for not completing this section if you do not have the software upgrades and/or updates for it.\*

Starting with the 2016 release, *Excel* provides a built-in functionality for plotting histograms directly from the general tools for creating charts.

Select the data. Click on the **Insert** tab. Click on **See All Charts**.

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The Insert Chart window opens.

Click on the tab **All Charts**. Click on **Histogram**.



Click OK.


A histogram is inserted on the spreadsheet.

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Notice that we did not have the opportunity to set the intervals (bins). The program inspected the data and chose appropriate bins for us. Let us change the bins.



Double click anywhere on the horizontal axis. The **Format Axis** pane opens to the right.





Click on the **Bin width** option button, change the value to 10. Hit Enter on your keyboard.

Notice that the **Number of Bins** adjusts automatically. The histogram is reconfigured automatically.

Alternately, you may change the **Number of Bins**, and see the **Bin width** adjust automatically.



We shall see how to adjust other general features of charts as we proceed through this section. This is the end of the Alternate Method for Histograms (*Excel* 2016 and beyond users only).



#### Frequency Polygon

The frequency polygon can be plotted using the general chart tools available in *Excel*. It is simply the frequency versus the class mark (interval midpoint).

Update your frequency table or bins table to include the class mark for each interval.

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In the **Charts** palette, hover over the chart types and settle over the **Scatter or Bubble Chart** type.

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## Click on the Scatter or Bubble Charts drop down to view available options.

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## Select the option Scatter with Smooth Lines and Markers.

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If any data was selected at the time the Scatter chart was created, that data will automatically be grabbed and plotted on the chart. We shall edit the chart to get it to show our correct data.

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Make sure the chart is selected, by clicking on it. Go to **CHART TOOLS**. Click on **DESIGN** Click on **Select Data**.





The Select Data Source window opens.

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Delete the entry in the **Chart data range:** textbox.



This clears the window. We shall now add our new data,

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## Click in the Series X values: textbox.

Go to the spreadsheet and select your X values; in our case, the class mark values.

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## Click in the Series Y values: textbox.

Go to the spreadsheet and select your Y values; in our case, the frequency values.

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Hit **OK** to exit out of the **Edit Series** window. Hit **OK** to exit out of the **Select Data Source** window.

View your frequency polygon.





On your own, use the **Add Chart Elements** tools to add labels on the vertical and horizontal axes.

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On your own, if desired, you may change the axes formats, and gridlines. You may also add a title and a legend to the chart.

Reposition (and resize) your chart elsewhere on the spreadsheet.

Frequency polygon complete!



#### <u>Dotplot</u>

A dotplot is usually drawn vertically. In this exercise, we shall draw one horizontally—but set it up such that it can be rotated to the vertical upon pasting in reports etc. In *Excel*, the dot plot can be drawn directly on the spreadsheet with the innovative use of built-in functions—without using any graphing or chart functionality.

Set up the frequency table for the speed data we have been working on as shown:

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We shall use the built-in REPT function to repeat the dots the requisite number of times. The REPT function repeats a text string a specified number of times. The dot (".") is *Excel* character number 149. We can specify this using the built-in CHAR function. So we shall repeat CHAR(149) a certain number of times based on the frequency.

For the first interval of the speed distribution type in the formula as follows:

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#### Hit Enter.

Two (2) dots are plotted representing the frequency of 2 for the interval.

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Click on the **HOME** tab. Select the cell holding the dots. Increase font size to 18. Align the contents vertically to the center.

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Fill handle for the rest of the intervals of the frequency distribution.

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If necessary, increase the width of the column containing the dots. The reason we drew our dotplot with a horizontal orientation is because widening a column has more flexibility than increasing the height of a row—which has an upper limit of 409 units. For small datasets, this may not be relevant; however, for larger datasets, the horizontal orientation is advantageous.

We shall now copy the dotplot into a report.



Select all cells of the dotplot. Click on the **HOME** tab. Click on **Copy**.

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Open a *Word* document. Click on the **HOME** tab. Click on the **Paste** drop down. Click on **Paste Picture**.





The dot plot is pasted over.

Speed (mph)	Freq									
20 - 29.99	2									
30 - 39.99	8	 								
40 - 49.99	30	 	 •••	 	 	 	•••	•		
50 - 59.99	40	 	 ••	 	 	 	• •		 	
60 - 69.99	15	 	 • •	 ••						
70 - 79.99	5	 • • •								



In the *Word* document, click on the dotplot to select it. Got to **PICTURE TOOLS**. Click on **FORMAT**. Click on the **Rotate** drop down. Click on **Rotate Left 90**°.



The diagram is rotated accordingly.



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Speed (mph)	20 - 29.99	30 - 39.99	40 - 49.99	50 - 59.99	60 - 69.99	70 - 79.99



Successful completion of the dotplot!

#### Stem-and-Leaf Diagram

We shall apply the innovative use of built-in spreadsheet functions to construct the stem-and-leaf diagram for our speed data on the spreadsheet—without using any chart or graphing functionality.

The COUNTIF function counts the number of cells that meet a given condition. The function is of the form:

#### COUNTIF(range of cells, condition)

We shall use the REPT function to repeat a given string a specified number of times. The string to be repeated will be the digit representing a data value in the leaf, and the number of times it will be repeated will be obtained from the COUNTIF function.

Based on our speed data we shall adopt the following stem structure for our stem-and-leaf diagram:



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Let us use the stem values (and their cell references) to define (or identify) a data value. For example, the value 25 can be represented as:

(stem value)\*10 + 5, or in our spreadsheet:

D7\*10 + 5

For our speed data, the number of times this value occurs in the data is given by:

COUNTIF(A2:A101, D7\*10 + 5)

We then use this number of occurrences to drive the number of times the digit "5" (representing 25 in the leaf) will be repeated in the leaf. Therefore:

REPT("5", COUNTIF(A2:A101, D7\*10+5))

For the value 26, we would have:

REPT("6", COUNTIF(A2:A101, D7\*10 + 6)),

and so on.

To set up any row of the stem-and-leaf diagram we will therefore "weld" together the (REPT) strings for each value in that range. The text function "&" (ampersand) can do this "welding" called concatenation of strings, for us.

So, the output string for the bracket 20 through 29 on the stem-and-leaf diagram will be:

REPT("0", COUNTIF(A2:A101, D7\*10 + 0)) & REPT("1", COUNTIF(A2:A101, D7\*10 + 1)) & REPT("2", COUNTIF(A2:A101, D7\*10 + 2)) & ..... & REPT("9", COUNTIF(A2:A101, D7\*10 + 9))



To implement this on the spreadsheet, we may use point-and-click -or- type in the cell references. Be sure to apply absolute referencing (F4) to the speed data range of cells, so if we use fill handle later—the range of cells holding the original data stays fixed.

The value 20 is implemented as follows:

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Note that when typing the "0", and a space or two before the closing parenthesis ("0"). This spaces out the digits and will improve the visual appearance of the digits in the leaf on the output diagram.



Continuing with the other values in the range 20 through 29, we may continue typing -or- we may copy and paste, and then modify as we move through the range of values. Thus, we obtain:

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9	53		4	REPT("4 ",	COUNTIF(	\$A\$2:\$A\$1	01,D7*10+	4))&REPT(	"5 ",COUN	<b>FIF(</b> \$A\$2:\$A\$1	.01,D7*10	+5))&	
10	55		5	REPT("6",	COUNTIF(	\$A\$2:\$A\$1	01,D7*10+	6))&REPT(	"7 ",COUN	<b>FIF(</b> \$A\$2:\$A\$1	.01,D7*10	+7))&	
11	56		6	REPT("8",	COUNTIF(	\$A\$2:\$A\$1	01,D7*10+	8))&REPT(	"9 ",COUN	<b>FIF(</b> \$A\$2:\$A\$1	01,D7*10	+9))	
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#### Hit Enter.

We obtain the first leaf for the values 20 through 29 that are present in the data.

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Click away from the diagram.

Now we see that the stem-and-leaf diagram is essentially a depiction of the data sorted in numerical order. This is advantageous, and enables the stem-and-leaf diagram to assist us in conducting other statistical analyses we shall discuss later in this course. However, we must keep in mind that the stem-and-leaf diagram may become complicated and tedious to construct when the data involves decimal values.

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Stem-and-leaf diagram complete!

In later sections of this course, we shall see some of the uses of some of the frequency diagrams and how engineers use them to make decisions.


### 2.7 Descriptive Statistics

In the previous section, we saw how the frequency distribution (table) and the frequency diagrams provide a tabular summary and graphical summary of a dataset respectively. Another way of summarizing data is by using numerical measures called **descriptive statistics**. One group of such measures, represents the center or middle of the data (or distribution). These are called **measures of central tendency** or **measures of center**.

#### Mode

The first measure of center we shall look at is called the **mode**. The mode is the data value with the highest frequency.

Using our speed data as an example, we can determine the mode directly by looking at the stemand-leaf diagram.

Stem	Leaf
2	5 8
3	0 1 5 5 7 8 8 9
4	0 0 0 1 2 2 3 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9
5	0 0 0 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 <mark>5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5</mark> 6 6 6 6 7 7 8 8 8 9 9 9
6	0 0 0 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 6 9
7	0 2 2 5 9

The mode of this data is 55 mph, with the high frequency of 11.

In some cases, a dataset may have more than one value with the high frequency. If there is a twoway-tie, the data has two modes, and the distribution is described as being bimodal. If there are multiple values tied for the high frequency, then the data is said to be multimodal. However, if all values in the data have equal frequency, then the data has no mode.

#### Median

The **median** is the value at the middlemost position when the data are arranged in order from smallest to largest. In other words, the median value has an equal number of data values above it and below it.



In general, if *n* is the number of observations (sample size),

Then if *n* is an odd number, then the median  $(\tilde{x})$  is the observation at position  $\frac{n+1}{2}$ 

If n is an even number, then the median is the average of the observations at positions  $\frac{n}{2}$ 

and 
$$\frac{n+2}{2}$$

For our speed data, we have n = 100, which is even.

Position 
$$\frac{n}{2} = \frac{100}{2} = 50$$

Position  $\frac{n+2}{2} = \frac{102}{2} = 51$ 

Recall that the stem-and-leaf diagram shows the entire data arranged in increasing numerical order. We can therefore find the values at the relevant positions for determining the median by inspecting the stem-and-leaf diagram.



### Mean

The **mean** or **arithmetic mean** is defined as the summation of the data values in the dataset, divided by the number of values in the dataset.



Let  $x_i$  denote a data value in our dataset, then the mean  $(\bar{x})$  is:

$$\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$
.....(2.1)

Thus, for our speed data, the mean speed:

 $\overline{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n} = \frac{52 + 51 + 53 + 54 + \dots}{100} = 51.87$ mph

#### Median versus Mean

In many applications, the question arises as to which measure of center is the better one to use. Unfortunately there is no simple answer to this question. It depends on your data and what you are doing with it. In many cases the values will coincide for a dataset. The median is more of a descriptive measure and is considerably less computationally intensive. The median is also less impacted by the presence of anomalous data, data errors etc. (commonly called outliers), than the mean.

#### Measures of Dispersion

Another group of descriptive statistics are called **measures of dispersion**, or **measures of variability** (or variation). Measures of dispersion measure the amount of variability (or variation) of the values in the data.

For a data value  $x_i$ , let us define the difference of the data value and the mean of the data as the **deviation** of the value  $x_i$  from the mean. So:

Deviation =  $(x_i - \bar{x})$  .....(2.2)



Let us define the **sample variance**  $(s^2)$  as:



If we take the square root of the sample variance, we obtain the **sample standard deviation** (*s*):

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2}{n-1}}$$
....(2.4)

In other words, the sample standard deviation is the "average" of the deviations of all of the values in the data. The sample variance and the sample standard deviation involve some computational effort, even for small samples, and they cannot be pulled from any chart or graph as we saw with measures of center and frequency diagrams.

It is pertinent to note that the formula for the sample variance has a denominator of (n - 1). This is used when the variance of a sample is being computed. If the data is for a population then the denominator used is *n*, resulting in a population variance being computed, and hence a population standard deviation.

### 2.8 Quartiles and Percentiles

Quartiles are data values that split the distribution into four quarters—when the data values are arranged in increasing order. The 1<sup>st</sup> quartile (also called the lower quartile) (Q<sub>1</sub>) has one-fourth or 25% of the data below it, and three quarters or 75% of the data above it—when the data is arranged in ascending order. The 2<sup>nd</sup> quartile (also called the middle quartile) (Q<sub>2</sub>) has two-fourths or 50% of the data below it, and two-fourths or 50% of the data above it—when the



data is arranged in ascending order. It therefore follows that that the  $2^{nd}$  quartile is the median of the data. The **3<sup>rd</sup> quartile** (also called the **upper quartile**) (Q<sub>3</sub>) corresponds to 75% of the data below it and 25% of the data above it—when the data is arranged in ascending order.

As the name suggests, **percentiles** divide the data into hundredths. The 90<sup>th</sup> percentile (P<sub>90</sub>) has 90% of the distribution below it and 10% above it—when the data is arranged in increasing order, and so on and so forth. Therefore the  $75^{th}$  percentile is the same as the upper quartile, the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile is the same as the second quartile which is the same as the median, and so on.

The procedure for determining quartiles and percentiles is the same.

Step1: Arrange data from smallest to largest Step 2: Determine the product np where n is sample size of the data and p the  $p^{th}$ percentile (or  $p^{th}$  quartile) expressed as a decimal. Step 3: Round off the np value to the next integer if it is not an integer, and find the data value at that position. Step 4: If np is an integer, say k, calculate the mean of the values at the  $k^{th}$  and the  $(k+1)^{th}$ positions.

Example: Let us use our speed data to illustrate the calculation of quartiles and percentiles.

Step1: We know that the stem-and-leaf diagram depicts the distribution arranged in increasing order. We shall use the stem-and-leaf diagram to assist us in the computations.

Step 2:

Lower quartile (which is also the  $25^{\text{th}}$  percentile): np = 100\*0.25 = 25, which is an integer, so we go to Step 4.

Step 4: We need the average of the values at the 25<sup>th</sup> and 26<sup>th</sup> positions.



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 $Q_1 = \frac{45+45}{2} = 45 mph$ 

Upper quartile (which is also the  $75^{\text{th}}$  percentile): 100\*0.75 = 75, so we average the values in the  $75^{\text{th}}$  and  $76^{\text{th}}$  positions.

Stem	Leaf	
2	5 8	<b>7</b> 6 <sup>th</sup>
3	0 1 5 5 7 8 8 9	
4	0 0 0 1 2 2 3 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 6 6 7 7 8 8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9 9	
5	0 0 0 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 6	8999
6	0 0 0 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 6 9	
7	0 2 2 5 9	
	75 <sup>th</sup>	

$$Q_3 = \frac{58 + 58}{2} = 58 \, mph$$



 $85^{\text{th}}$  percentile: 100\*0.85 = 85, so we average the values in the  $85^{\text{th}}$  and  $86^{\text{th}}$  positions.



$$P_{85} = \frac{61+62}{2} = 61.5 \, mph$$

In the field of traffic engineering, the 85<sup>th</sup> percentile speed is of importance. The 85<sup>th</sup> percentile speed is the baseline used to set the posted speed limit on a roadway. For example, in Florida, the 85<sup>th</sup> percentile must be obtained for a sample of at least 100 vehicles on the roadway. Vehicle speeds recorded during traffic congestion, inclement weather, traffic incidents, and nighttime conditions must not be included in the data. The 85<sup>th</sup> percentile value obtained is rounded up or down to the nearest 5 mph based on engineering judgment and knowledge of local conditions. For example, the nature of the abutting land use – schools, hospitals etc., or for example, heavy pedestrian traffic, may warrant rounding down versus rounding up. The posted speed limit, however, cannot exceed the geometric design speed of the roadway.

The quartiles and percentiles may be estimated from the ogive, if the vertical axis (cumulative frequency) is expressed in percent. A horizontal line is drawn from the 85% point on the vertical axis to cut the ogive. The speed value at the point the horizontal line cuts the ogive is the 85<sup>th</sup> percentile speed.

For our speed data example:





Comparing the estimation of the percentile from the ogive with the 4-step process for determining quartiles and percentiles, we notice that estimating the percentile from the ogive is equivalent to completing Step 1 and Step 2 of the 4-step procedure. In other words, it is the *np* position that is being used to determine the value of the quartile or percentile—without interpolating as required in Step 3 or Step 4. Therefore, using the ogive is an approximate method. However, for many engineering purposes, particularly with larger samples, any discrepancies introduced by this approximation are generally negligible for all intents and purposes.

### **Outliers**

An **outlier** is a data value that is distant from other data points. An outlier may be due to variability in the measurement process or it may be due to some experimental error or anomaly. Outliers have the potential to bias the results, and should be identified and removed from the data before moving on to conduct any further statistical analysis with the data.



By convention, an outlier is any data value *x* such that:

 $x > Q_3 + 1.5*IR$ , or  $x < Q_1 - 1.5*IR$  (2.3)

where  $Q_1$  is the lower quartile  $Q_3$  is the upper quartile *IR* is the interquartile range, which is defined as

$$IR = Q_3 - Q_1 \tag{2.4}$$

Example: Let us conduct the outlier test on our data.

We previously determined  $Q_1 = 45$  mph, and  $Q_3 = 58$  mph.

From Equation (2.4), IR = 58 - 45 = 13 mph

From Equation (2.3)

 $Q_3 + 1.5*IR = 58 + 1.5*13 = 77.5$ And  $Q_1 - 1.5*IR = 45 - 1.5*13 = 25.5$ 

Thus, for any value in the data (x), if x > 77.5 mph, or if x < 25.5 mph, then x is an outlier.

Therefore, the speed data contains two outliers, 25 mph, and 79 mph.

The outliers should be removed from the data. The outlier test is then conducted again on the new data set. If there are new outliers, they shall be removed, and the test repeated as many times as necessary until there are no outliers.



### 2.9 Descriptive Statistics in *Excel*

Copy your speed data over to a new spreadsheet,

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Let us calculate some of the descriptive statistics in *Excel*.



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The Function Arguments window opens.

Click in the **Number1** textbox.

Point-and-click to select the speed data on the spreadsheet.

Note that a preview of the formula result is displayed.



Click **OK** to dismiss the window.



The mode of the data is displayed on the spreadsheet at the selected cell location.

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Incidentally, the function **MODE.MULT** function will produce an array of the multiple modes for multimodal data,



Repeat the procedure to look up the function call for the Median.

Or, as with any other function begin typing "=" followed by the first few letters of the name of the function in the destination cell on the spreadsheet to pull up a shortlist of candidate functions.

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# Double click on **MEDIAN**.

Point-and-click to select the data.

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# The *Excel* function for the mean is **AVERAGE**.

# Apply the **AVERAGE** function to the data.

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The *Excel* function for the sample standard deviation is **STDEV.S**. Apply the **STDEV.S** function to the data.

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We shall now work on quartiles and percentiles.

To find the quartiles, look up "Quartiles" in the statistical functions list, or type "=quartile".

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# Double click on the option **QUARTILE.EXC**.

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Click on the function  $(f_x)$  button to review further details of this function.

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The Function Arguments window opens.

Click in the Array textbox

Point-and-click to select your data on the spreadsheet.

For **Quart**, enter "1" to compute the 1<sup>st</sup> quartile ("3" to compute the 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile, and so on and so forth).

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Review the result preview.



### Hit **OK** to complete the computation.

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Repeat the process to compute the 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile, or simply fill handle the 1<sup>st</sup> quartile formula and then update it to ensure the correct **Array** is selected (use of absolute reference for the 1<sup>st</sup> quartile computation would eliminate the need for this update step), and update the **Quart** argument to "3".

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Hit the **Enter** key to complete the calculation.

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Note that in the quartile computations we saw three available functions in the *Excel* statistical functions library, namely: QUARTILE.EXC, QUARTILE.INC, AND QUARTILE.

QUARTILE is the function call for pre-2010 versions of the *Excel* program and has been maintained to enable backwards compatibility. QUARTILE.INC uses a zero-based position numbering system to perform the calculations, e.g. the lowest value in the data is position zero, the next highest value is position 1 and so on and so forth. QUARTILE.EXC uses a one-based position numbering system to perform the calculations, e.g. the lowest value in the data is position zero, the next highest value is position 1 and so on and so forth. QUARTILE.EXC uses a one-based position numbering system to perform the calculations, e.g. the lowest value in the data is position 1, the next highest value is position 2 and so on and so forth.



QUARTILE.INC and QUARTILE.EXC also differ in the way interpolations are conducted. Participants in this course who are interested in these computational nuances are referred to the *Microsoft* website for further information on this discussion.

The computation of percentiles follows that of quartiles.

Select the **PERCENTILE.EXC** function from the statistical functions library, or simply type it in the destination cell (with the "=:" prefix).

Point-and-click to select the data.

For the **K** value, enter the percentile you are seeking, as a decimal.

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#### Hit **OK** to complete the computations.

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We notice that we get a slightly different value from what we calculated manually earlier in this course. Also (and you may test this on your own), the PERCENTILE.INC function yields yet another slightly different result. As we discussed under quartiles, these discrepancies are due to the position numbering systems and/ or the different interpolation algorithms applied for each function in *Excel*. However, from fundamental principles, recall that any percentile (or quartile) must have a certain number of the data values below it and above it. So long as this is satisfied, the numerical discrepancies in the percentile (or quartile) value—due to these different interpolation strategies built into these *Excel* functions—may be considered negligible.



### Descriptive Statistics from the Data Analysis Tools

The *Excel Data Analysis Tools* Add-in presents a one-button-click function that produces a summary of some descriptive statistics in a tabular output.

Click on the **DATA** tab. Go to the **Analysis** palette. Click on **Data Analysis**.

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In the **Data Analysis** window, select **Descriptive Statistics**. Hit **OK**.



The **Descriptive Statistics** window opens.

Under **Input**, select the data,

This data is grouped Columns.

The selection of the data that we made does not include any labels.



# For the **Output options:** select the **Output Range** option.

### Click in the **Output Range** textbox.

Select a range of cells on the current spreadsheet.

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Check Summary statistics.

Check **kth Smallest**, and enter 85, to display the value at the 85<sup>th</sup> position when the data is arranged in increasing order.

In other words, a rounded estimate of the 85<sup>th</sup> percentile value. (Note that 85 was obtained from  $n^*p = 100^*0.85$ , for other sample sizes, the *np* value shall be computed accordingly).

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Hit OK.



The result is displayed on the spreadsheet at the designated range of cells location(s).

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Review the results and compare to those obtained by previous methods.

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Mode	55	
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Sample Variance	99.18495	
Kurtosis	0.452502	
Skewness	-0.08357	
Range	54	
Minimum	25	
Maximum	79	
Sum	5187	
Count	100	
Smallest(85)	61	


#### Box and Whisker Plot (Excel 2016 and beyond users only)

A Box and Whisker Plot also called simply a **box plot** provides a graphical summary of a distribution in terms of its quartiles.

In *Excel*, a box plot can be created by the innovative use of spreadsheet functions. However, starting with the 2016 release, *Excel* provides a built-in functionality for plotting box plots directly from the general tools for creating charts.

Select your speed data. Click on the **Insert** tab. Go the **Charts** palette. Click on **See All Charts**.

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The Insert Chart window opens.

Click on the tab **All Charts**. Click on **Box and Whisker**.

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## Click OK.



The box plot is inserted on the spreadsheet.





Hover over the line features and the point features of the chart to identify,

### 1. the lower quartile





#### 2. the median





### 3. the upper quartile





#### 4. the mean (an "X" marker)





#### 5. the threshold values for outliers





### 6. The outliers in the data (if any) (circular point markers).



The box plot enables us to see the spread of the data in terms of the quartiles. It enables us to visually see the difference between the mean and median, hence the skew of the distribution. We are also able to immediately see any outliers.

Descriptive Statistics complete! Congratulations.



# **3. CONCLUSION**

This course is part of a series on engineering methods in *Excel*. This course presented a broad overview of fundamental principles and engineering applications of engineering data analysis, and how to use *Excel* tools to analyze and solve these types of problems.

In this course, we looked at statistical methods used to organize and summarize data sets—such as frequency distributions, frequency diagrams and descriptive statistics. We learned how to use the built-in functions of *Excel* to implement these methods, strategies and computations.

This course has enabled participants to identify professional situations where the innovative application of techniques learned in this course are relevant and of benefit to the productivity, efficiency, and quality of the work output of a practitioner.

Practitioners are strongly encouraged to look out for situations in their domains of expertise where engineering methods in *Excel* are applicable and will be of benefit to their work and their organization.

A successful application of engineering methods in *Excel* requires a careful and meticulous approach; and can only be mastered and retained by practice and repetition.

It has been my utmost pleasure presenting this topic to you. Thank you.



### REFERENCES

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Images were all drawn/ prepared by Kwabena. Ofosu