

# Final cheat sheet data - Summary Data Science

Data Science (University of Sydney)

#### Module one

# <u>Cofounders</u>

-to deal with cofounders into sub groups into subgroups

# **Observational vs-controlled studies**

-controlled uses a treatment and control group and are allocated. Uses placebo(effect occurs when subject respond to the idea of the treatment) and bias. A observational study they two groups are not assigned, can establish association not causation.

### Simpsons paradox

Sometimes there is a clear trend in individual groups of data that disappears when groups are pooled together

# **Histogram**

Area of block = percentage of subjects
Height of block = % of block / length of class interval

# **Boxplot**

-box is 50 percent of data (Q3-Q1= IQR)

# <u>Centre</u>

Mean - good for symmetrical

<u>Medium</u>- robust therefore good for skewed data For symmetrical data mean and medium are the same

For left skewed data mean is smaller than medium For right skewed data mean is larger than medium

# **Spread**

- the mean gap must be 0 as the mean is the balancing point

# Sd

· The standard deviation measures the spread of the data.

$$SD_{pop} = RMS$$
 of (gaps from the mean)

Formally, 
$$SD_{pop} = \sqrt{Mean~of~(gaps~from~the~mean)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i - \bar{x}_i)^2}{n}}$$

The area 1 SD from mean 0.68%

The area 2SD from mean is 0.95%

The area 3SD out from men is 0.997%

Population RMS of gaps from the mean  $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(gaps)^{2}}$  | sd(data)\*sqrt((n-1)/n))

Sample Adjusted RMS of gaps from the mean  $s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_{i}aps)^{2}}$  sd(data)

### Shortcut

 $SD = (big - small) \sqrt{proportion of big \times proportion of small}$ 

#### Standard zscore

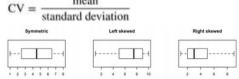
Standard unit of data = how many sds it is below or below the mean

$$Standard units = \frac{data point - mean}{standard deviation}$$

#### IOR

Range of middle 50 percent(Q3-Q1) Q3= 75% Q1= 25%

### Coefficient variant



# Module 2

## Normal curve

-use normal curve when histogram looked normal

Standard normal curve

-mean 0 and SD of 1

# **Special properties of curves**

-satisfy the 68%,95% and 99.7%
-any general curve can be rescaled to standard curve

# **Measurement error**

No matter how carefully any measurement is made, it could of turned out differently Individual measurement = exact value + chance error

### Chance error

The best way to estimate chance error is to replicate the measurement under the same conditions and calculate SD

# **Correlation coefficient**

Measures clusters around a line

-1 <r< 1 the closer to -1 or 1 the more tightly points cluster

R =0: points don't fit on a line

In R cor(x,y)

Properties

Symmetrical (changing variable wont effect) and scaling invariant (shifting variables wont effect)

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R population = mean of the product of the variables in. S=

$$\frac{\text{data pt - mean(x)}}{\text{SD(x)}} \mathbf{x} \frac{\text{data pt - mean(y)}}{\text{SD(y)}}$$

Misleading conclusions

- 1)outliers overly influence
- 2)non-linear associations
- 3)rates of av tends to inflate the cor-coef 4)association is not causation
- 5)small sd makes the correlation look bigger

# **SD** line

-on the point of av and plots line using SDs away from mean

# **Regression line**

lm(y~x)

SD Line	Regression Line	
$(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ to $(\bar{x} + SD_x, \bar{y} + SD_y)$	$(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ to $(\bar{x} + SD_x, \bar{y} + rSD_y)$	
SD,	SD,	
SD,	SD,	

- Predicting percentiles: pnorm[qnorm(0.9)\*cor(x,y)]
- Predicting y value: mean(y) + qnorm(0.9)\*cor(x,y)\*sd(y)

# Graph of av

-plots the average y for each x

-the regression line is a smooth version

# Predictions

- **1.** Baseline p, given a certain value for x a basic prediction of y would be the av of y over all the x values
- Prediction in a strip, given a certain value x, y would be the av of all the y values in the data corresponding to that x value
- 3. Regression line
- 4. Predicting percentile rates

Regression fallacy- test retest situations means changes in results is due to chance.

# **Residual plot**

a residual plot is the vertical distance gap of points above and below regression line

- error = actual value – predicted value

# <u>CLT</u>

The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) that a large sample size from a population with a finite level of

om the same ual to the mean

### RMS error

The RMS error represents the gap between points and the regression line

RMS Error (population)

RMS of (gaps from the line) = 
$$\sqrt{\text{mean of (gaps)}^2}$$

Baseline Prediction

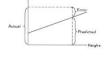
RMS 
$$error_{Pop} = SD_y$$

Normal Prediction

RMS error<sub>Pop</sub> = 
$$\sqrt{1 - r^2}SD_y$$

## Residual plot

Plots residuals vs x
If the linear fit is
appropriate it should



# show no pattern **Vertical strips**

equal spread in y direction data is homoscedastic and RMS can be used. unequal spread the data is heteroscedastic and RMS cannot be used

### Module 3 - chance

The prosecutor's fallacy

Assuming the prob of a random match is equal to the prob that the defendant is innocent

Basic properties of chance

- 1. Chances are between 0 100 %
- 2. The chance of something equals 100%-it's opposite

# **Conditional probability**

Chance something occurs, given something else has occurred

P(Event1|Event2)

# **Multiplication principal**

The prob that two things occur is the chance of the 1<sup>st</sup> event multiples by the chance of the second

# Addition rule

If the 2 things are mutually exclusive then the chance of at least 1 occurring is the sum of the individual chances

# Mutually exclusive

2 things are mutually exclusive when the occurrence of the 1<sup>st</sup> event prevents the other

What	When	Formula	Condition
Addition Rule	P(At least 1 of 2 events occurs)	P(Event1) + P(Event2)	if mutually exclusive
Multiplication Rule P(Both events occur)	P(Both events occur)	P(Event1) x P(Event2)	if independent
	P(Event1) x P(Event2, given Event 1)	if dependent	

# <u>Independence</u>

P(2nd event |  $1^{st}$  event) = p( $2^{nd}$  event), independent of the outcome of the  $1^{st}$  event

Drawing randomly with replacement is independent 2 things are independent if the product of their unconditional probabilities

### Dependence

2 things are dependent if the chance of the second given the 1<sup>st</sup> is not the same as the 2<sup>nd</sup>, dependent of the outcome of the 1<sup>st</sup> event

Drawing without replacement ensures dependence.

### Binomial model

$$\binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

binary trial is where 2 things can occur p = 1-p binomial theorem is p at every

trail is fixed and use equation

# In R dbinom(x,n,p) where,

- X = number of heads
- N = total number of tosses
- P = probability of events

# **Chance variability/error**

Observed = expected +chance error

As no. of tosses increase then the size of chance error increases and the absolute percentage size of chance decreases

# Law of average

-States that the proportion of heads becomes more stable as the length of the simulation increases and approaches a -fixed number called the relative frequency

The chance error in the number of heads is likely to be large in absolute size, but small relative to no. of tosses

### **Box model**

-mark1 on tickets you are counting

Replicate(N,sum(sample(box,n,rep=T) n=no.of draws N=replications

<u>Parameter=</u> fact about pop<u>Estimate = cal</u> of sample values which predicts parameter



Estimate:

 $EV_{sum} = sample size \times mean_{box}$ 

Chance Error:

 $SE_{sum} = \sqrt{\text{sample size}} \times SD_{box}$ 



Estimate:

EV<sub>proportion</sub> = population proportion = mean<sub>box</sub>

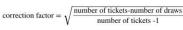
Chance Error:

$$SE_{proportion} = \frac{SD_{box}}{\sqrt{\text{sample size}}}$$



 $SE_{without replacement} = correction factor \times SE_{with replacement}$ 

where



 $correction \ factor = \sqrt{\frac{population \ size\text{-sample size}}{population \ size \ -1}}$ 

# bootstrapping

is estimating properties of pop by using the properties of the sample pop percentage ~ sample percentage chance error

$$SE_{proportion} \approx \frac{SD_{box (with sample proportions)}}{\sqrt{sample size}}$$

### Model 4

# Hypothesis testing

The null hypothesis h0 assumes that the difference between OV and EV is due to chance alone

 $\underline{\text{1 sided}}\text{, specifies the change in expected}$  by the treatment h1 p>0.5

<u>2 sided</u> does not specify the change expected by the treatment H1 cannot equal 0.5

Test statistic OV – EV / SE

### P- value

Small <0.05 statistically different The p value is a way of weighing up whether the sample is consistent with H0

### **Proportion test**

HO any participants in the treatment group reporting an improvement is due to chance alone(Ho = 0,5)H1 improvement is due to treatment

### Assumptions

Participants are independent of each other and chance of becoming desensitised is the same for all participants <u>P test</u> ->4.3

### Accuracy of means

Ev mean = ev sum divided by number of draws SE mean = Se sum divided by number of draws or sdbox divided by square root number of box

- -CLT popbox is normally distributed
- -The more skewed the bigger the sample size needs to be

<u>Gauss model</u> a measurement of error, different, tomake it unbiased we set the meanerrorbox = 0

### Z test

#### Hypothesis

2 sided → 2\*pnorm(x)

H:  $H_0$ : population mean = c vs  $H_1$ : population mean  $\neq c$ 

One sided

H:  $H_0$ : population mean = c vs  $H_1$ : population mean < c (or >)

Assumptions: Sample is random. Know the population SD or the sample SD can estimate the population SD.

ONLY APPROPRIATE FOR LARGE SAMPLE SIZES FOR the CLT.

#### Test Statistic: uses normal curve

T: Test statistic =  $\frac{\text{observed mean - population mean}}{\underset{s}{\underline{\text{population SD}}}}$ 

### T-test

#### -Ivpothesis

H:  $H_0$ : population mean = c vs  $H_1$ : population mean  $\neq c$ 

#### Test statistic

P: Use  $t_{n-1}$  curve to find tail area for observed test statistic.

T: Test statistic =  $\frac{\text{observed mean - population mean}}{\frac{\text{sample SD}}{z}}$ 

#### 2 Sample T-test

#### CODE: var.equal = T

#### Hypothesis:

Let  $\mu_1$  = mean heart rate of our control (no Red Bull)

Let  $\mu_2$  = mean heart rate of our treatment (Red Bull)

 $H_0$  : There is no difference:  $\mu_1=\mu_2$ 

 $H_1$ : There is a difference:  $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ 

#### Assumptions:

- Two samples are independent (eg. treatments not on same person)
- Normality:
  - Boxplot → symmetry (if not, then diff spread)
  - QQ Plot for Normality → line formed by points should be straight
  - Shapiro-Wilk Test for Normality → p > 0.05 is normality
- Same variation/spread
  - Levene's Test (F-test) for equal spread → p > 0.05 is equal variance
    - $H_0$ : There is no difference:  $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$
    - H<sub>1</sub>: There is a difference: σ<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> ≠ σ<sub>2</sub><sup>2</sup>

### T-statistic

test statistic =  $\frac{\mu_1 - \mu_2 - 0}{\text{standard error of the difference}}$ 

#### Paired T-test

#### CODE: paired = T

- Non-Independence between two groups
- Assumptions for paired t-test: data of difference is normal (check using QQ plot)

#### Hypothesis

 $H_0$ : The difference in means is zero :  $\mu_d=0$ 

 $H_1$ : The difference in means is not zero :  $\mu_d \neq 0$ 

#### Welch Sample T-test

#### CODE: var.equal = FALSE

- Assumptions: Unequal variance → Check variance by conducting Levene's Test (F-test)
  - o p < 0.05 is unequal variance

#### Chi-squared Tests

#### Hypothesis

H<sub>0</sub>: Model fits data vs H<sub>1</sub>: Model doesn't fit data.

#### Test Statistic

 $\chi^2 = \text{Sum off} \frac{(\text{Observed frequency - Expected frequency})^2}{\text{Expected frequency}}$ 

#### Types

 Goodness of Fit: distribution of qualitative variable in a population

CODE: pchisq(x2, degrees of freedom, lower.tail = F)

Deg of freedom = no. of catergories - 1

- Homogeneity: distribution of qualitative variable in several populations
- Independence: test a hypothesis about the relationship between 2 qualitative variables in a population

### CODE: chisq.test(data)

Deg of freedom = (m-1)\*(n-1) (m = row, n = columns)

