

Statistics for Data Science

Lecture 3

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September – October, 2025

Erasmus University Rotterdam



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Before next time

Assignment for next week

- Finish/Reread Chapter 2
- Read Chapter 3 on testing (skip ANOVA and Multi-Arm Bandits)
- Reconsider/finish the in-class assignments
- Look at examples in book
- You can already start working on the “final” assignment (will be on Canvas early next week)



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Hypothesis testing

Statistical testing – General idea

Common statistical question: are two “things” different?

- 1 Formulate hypotheses
 - Null hypothesis H_0 :
→ nothing special happens (no difference)
 - Alternative hypothesis H_a :
→ “something happened” (there is difference)

Hypothesis design

Hypotheses:

- need to be falsifiable
 - are often stated as “nothing interesting happens”
- See whether data provides evidence to reject (null) hypothesis (falsification)



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Statistical testing – General idea

- ② Collect data
- ③ Calculate some statistic (known as the *test statistic*)
- ④ See whether obtained value is “extreme” if H_0 would be true (so we assume that H_0 is correct)
 - if extreme → reject H_0
 - if not extreme → do not reject H_0

Notes:

- Can **never** conclude with certainty whether H_0 (or H_a) is correct!
- Never say “we accept H_0 ” or “ H_0 is true”
- Also keep economic/general significance in mind!



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What is extreme?

Decision rule: Reject H_0 when result is *extreme*!

→ what is extreme?

- Extreme = unlikely under H_0 (remember: H_0 codes some assumption(s))
- Need a “model” under H_0 to work out probabilities!
- How unlikely is “unlikely”?
 - Choice to be made by researcher

Significance level (α) to define “unlikely”

- Usually set at 5%
- Reject if statistic is in $\alpha\%$ tail of the distribution under H_0
- If H_0 correct: we still reject in $\alpha\%$ of cases!



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Potential errors in hypothesis testing

	Conclusion	
	Not reject	Reject
H_0 true		Type I error
H_0 not true	Type II error	

- $\Pr[\text{Type I error}] = \text{significance level} = \alpha\%$
- $\Pr[\text{Type II error}]$: not always the same, want to minimize this
- **Power** of test = $1 - \Pr[\text{Type II error}]$, depends on
 - sample size
 - true “state of the world” (values of parameters)
 - properties of test



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Strategies to perform tests

Central concept

- Calculate statistic
- Compare to distribution under H_0 (to check “extreme/not extreme”)

Strategy I: Critical values

- ① Choose significance level
- ② Obtain **critical values**
- ③ Calculate statistic
- ④ Reject if statistic is beyond critical value

Strategy II: p-values

- ① Calculate statistic
- ② Obtain probability of equal or more evidence against H_0 (if H_0 is true)
 - =p-value
- ③ Reject if p-value < significance level



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Strategies to perform tests

Strategy with p-values is preferred

- Report p-value
- Reader can choose own significance level and conclude
- Shows “size” of evidence



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Testing means: t-test

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t-test on mean

Given

- X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n independent and identically distributed $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- μ and σ^2 unknown

Hypothesis

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0, H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$$

(μ_0 is some **known** value, often 0)

From earlier we know (if H_0 true)

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} s^2}} \sim t_{n-1}$$



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Testing procedure

Calculate t-statistic $\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} s^2}}$

Strategy I: Critical values

- Compare t-statistic to percentiles of the t-distribution
- Reject if t-stat outside

$$[t^{\alpha/2}(n-1), t^{1-\alpha/2}(n-1)]$$

→ `stats.t(n-1).ppf([0.025, 0.975])`

Strategy II: p-values

- Calculate probability of *more extreme* outcome under H_0

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[t(n-1) > |\text{t-stat}|] + \Pr[t(n-1) < -|\text{t-stat}|] \\ &= 2 \Pr[t(n-1) < -|\text{t-stat}|] \end{aligned}$$

- `2*stats.t(n-1).cdf(-abs(tstat))`



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Python one-sample t-test (double sided): `stats.ttest_1samp()`

```
# Example of one-sample t test
from scipy import stats
data = stats.norm(0.2, 1.0).rvs(size=500) # Generate some test data
res = stats.ttest_1samp(data, popmean = 0.25) # Run the test
display(res) # Show the test result
res.confidence_interval() # Bonus: get a confidence interval around mean
```

μ_0

Example output (edited a bit)

```
TtestResult(statistic=np.float64(-3.11), pvalue=np.float64(0.0020),
df=np.int64(499))
and
ConfidenceInterval(low=np.float64(0.022), high=np.float64(0.198))
```

Compare to α (here: $0.002 < 0.05 \rightarrow$ reject $H_0 : \mu = 0.25$)

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Power of t-test

Test statistic:

$$\frac{(\bar{X} - \mu_0)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}s^2}}$$

If $\mu \neq \mu_0$

- Want to reject H_0
- Need test statistic to be extreme
- Want large **power** of test

Power is large if

- \bar{X} large (so μ very different from μ_0)
- n large
- s^2 small (so small σ^2)

\rightarrow only sample size (n) can be controlled

\rightarrow small differences are (of course) hard to detect

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Sample size determination

Given **standardized effect size** = $\frac{\mu - \mu_0}{\sigma}$, where

- $\mu - \mu_0$: considered difference
- σ^2 : variance

Can determine:

- power given n and standardized effect size

Example:

```
tp = sm.stats.TTestPower()
tp.power(stdeffect, nobs=., alpha=.)
```

- needed n for obtaining desired power and given std. effect size

Example: `tp.solve_power(effect_size=., power=., alpha=.)`

using `import statsmodels.api as sm`

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Assignment

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In-class assignment 3.1

- Generate 100 observations from $N(0.05, 1)$
- Calculate mean
- Perform t-test for $H_0 : \mu = 0$ using `stats.ttest_1samp()`
- What do you conclude? (repeat the above 3 steps a couple of times)
- Calculate the necessary sample size to have power=0.5 for the above situation using
- Advanced: Create a plot of power vs. sample size for different distances between true μ and tested μ (given $\sigma^2 = 1$). You can use `tp.plot.power(..)`



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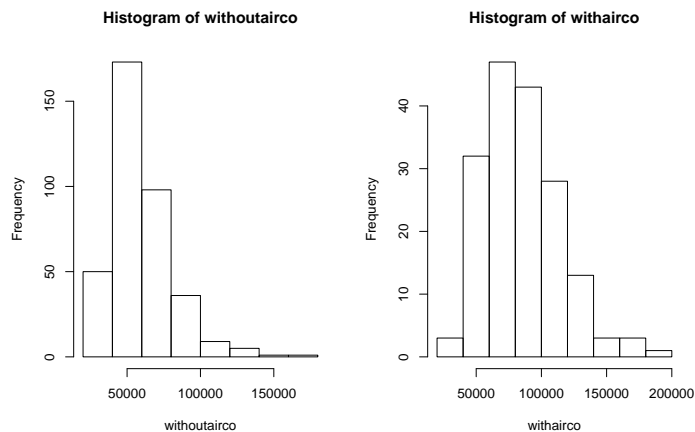
Comparing samples

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Comparing samples

Common research question:

Is there a difference between **two** samples?



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Comparing samples

- Make sure that you are observing what “needs to be observed” (\pm random treatment)
- Visually compare the two samples
- Focus on summary statistics first (eg. `.mean()` and `.var()`)

```
with_airco = df[df.airco == 1]
wo_airco = df[df.airco == 0]

print(f"Without: mean={wo_airco.price.mean()}, var={wo_airco.price.var()}")
print(f"With: mean={with_airco.price.mean()}, var={with_airco.price.var()}")
```

Output:

Without: mean=59884.85254691689, var=455341800.98626363

With: mean=85880.58959537573, var=810167352.2317516



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Perform statistical tests

Possible tests

- Is the variance the same?
- Is the mean the same?
 - Variant 1: independent observations
Sub-variants:
 - ▶ if variances are equal
 - ▶ if variances are unequal
 - Variant 2: matched/dependent observations

→ First consider variance



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Test on equal variance

Given:

- X_1, \dots, X_n independent and identically distributed $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$
- Y_1, \dots, Y_m independent and identically distributed $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$
- X_i and Y_j independent

→ μ_1, μ_2 and σ_1^2, σ_2^2 are all unknown!

Hypothesis to test:

$$H_0 : \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$$

against alternative

$$H_a : \sigma_1^2 > \sigma_2^2 \text{ (or } \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2 \text{)}$$



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Fisher's F test – theory

We know:

- $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sigma_1^2} \sim \chi^2(n-1)$
- $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^m (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}{\sigma_2^2} \sim \chi^2(m-1)$
- and both terms statistically independent (Q: why?)

Hence:

$$\frac{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})^2 / [\sigma_1^2(n-1)]}{\sum_i (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 / [\sigma_2^2(m-1)]} \sim F(n-1, m-1)$$

Under $H_0 : \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ we therefore have

$$\frac{s_X^2}{s_Y^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 / (n-1)}{\sum_{i=1}^m (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 / (m-1)} \sim F(n-1, m-1)$$



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Performing Fisher's F test

Steps within this procedure:

- Calculate ratio of (estimated) variances (hypothesised large/hyp. small)
- If true variances are equal → ratio should be close to 1
- Ratio $\sim F(n-1, m-1)$
- Check whether ratio is in 5% tail(s) of F-distribution
- p-value: probability of finding a more extreme statistic if H_0 is true

In Python:

```
pvalue = 1-stats.f(n1-1,n2-1).cdf(var1/var2)
```

Note: scipy has Bartlett's test and the Fligner-Killeen tests for equal variance: these are more robust to non-normality



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t-test for equal means

Consider

- X_1, \dots, X_n independent and identically distributed $N(\mu_1, \sigma_X^2)$
- Y_1, \dots, Y_m independent and identically distributed $N(\mu_2, \sigma_Y^2)$
- X_i and Y_j independent

Hypothesis

$$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

against

$$H_a : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$



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t-test for equal means

We know:

- $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu_1, \frac{1}{n}\sigma_X^2)$ and $\bar{Y} \sim N(\mu_2, \frac{1}{m}\sigma_Y^2)$
- \bar{X} and \bar{Y} independent
- Therefore $\bar{X} - \bar{Y} \sim N(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \frac{1}{n}\sigma_X^2 + \frac{1}{m}\sigma_Y^2)$

→ Need to estimate variance(s)!

Equal variance

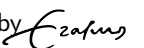
- Estimate pooled variance σ^2 : s^2
- t-statistic

$$\frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m})s^2}} \sim t(n + m - 2)$$

Unequal variance

- Separately estimate $\text{var}(X)$ and $\text{var}(Y)$
→ s_1^2 and s_2^2
- t-statistic

$$\frac{(\bar{X} - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}s_1^2 + \frac{1}{m}s_2^2}}$$

- Distribution is not exactly t, by  approximations exist

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Implementation

```
🔗 scipy.stats.ttest_ind(x, y, equal_var=True) or  
🔗 scipy.stats.ttest_ind(x, y, equal_var=False)
```



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More than 2 groups

What if more than 2 groups to compare?

- Translate the problem to a linear regression problem (see also next week)
- (Use ANOVA methods)



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Assignment

In-class assignment 3.2

Compare prices of **houses with airco** to **houses without airco**

- Test whether the variance of the prices is the same for both samples
- Test whether the mean of the prices is the same
 - Use t-test (which one?)
 - Use the result from the variance test
- Do the same for $\log(\text{price})$
 - Why could this be smart?

Dependent samples

Test for means for dependent samples

The two samples can be dependent/related

- Two observations for same individual over time
- Two different variables for sample of firms
- Two different measurements of same concept


→ The observations are **matched**

Consider

- X_1, \dots, X_n independent and identically distributed $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$
- Y_1, \dots, Y_n independent and identically distributed $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$
- X_i and Y_i (perhaps) dependent

→ Simply look at the differences $X_i - Y_i$ and apply t-test for mean=0!

In Python:

 `ttest_rel(X, Y)` (testing related samples)

Deviations from assumptions

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Deviations from assumptions

What if data **not** normal?

As before

- If n large
→ Central limit theorem:
 - t-stat approx. $N(0, 1)$
 - No problem!
- If n not large **and** data not normal
→ Do not use t-test!

Alternatives

- Bootstrap-based test (see book + later lecture)
How does the obtained mean compare to the bootstrap distribution?
- Permutation tests (see book)
- Other non-parametric tests

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Non-parametric tests

Try to avoid making assumptions

- + No worries about possibly incorrect assumptions
- Less powerful when assumptions are correct

General idea: use properties that should be true under H_0

Example Wilcoxon signed-rank test (to replace one-sample t-test)

- Sort |observation–hypothesized mean| and assign rank numbers $(1, 2, 3, \dots, n)$
- Look at the sum of ranks for observations above hyp. mean
- Does not assume a particular distribution
- Can also use it to test for differences across samples

 `scipy.stats.wilcoxon()`

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Two-sample case: Wilcoxon Rank-Sum test (aka Mann-Witney U test)

Given

- X_1, \dots, X_n independent and identically distributed
- Y_1, \dots, Y_m independent and identically distributed
- X_i and Y_j independent

Procedure

- 1 Merge X and Y and sort
- 2 Number obs from 1 to $n + m$
- 3 Sum all ranks corresponding to X observations $\rightarrow R(X)$
- 4 Sum all ranks corresponding to Y observations $\rightarrow R(Y)$

If H_0 (mean X equals mean Y) is true

- $R(X)$ should be close to $R(Y)$ (corrected for n vs m)
- Compare obtained results to known tables

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Mann-Witney U test in Python

Procedure in Python:

- `scipy.stats.mannwhitneyu(X,Y)`
- Automatically calculates p-values
- Also corrects for ties



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Non-parametric alternatives for paired taest

- Wilcoxon signed rank test
`scipy.stats.wilcoxon(x, y)`
- Binomial test
`scipy.stats.binomtest(failures, n)`
→ "Failures" = Count no. times $X_i > Y_i$: should have $\text{Bin}(n, 0.5)$ distribution



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Bivariate descriptives

Bivariate descriptive statistics

Up to now we have mainly discussed summary statistics on single variables
→ Does not show relations between variables

Simple bivariate measures

- Covariance
- Correlation

→ Indication of relation

Note

- Correlation \neq Causation
- Sometimes we find **spurious correlation**



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Covariance and correlation

Given

- Random variable X
- Random variable Y

The covariance is

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]$$

→ Scale depends on scale of X and Y !

Correlation is defined as

$$\text{Cor}[X, Y] = \frac{\text{Cov}[X, Y]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[X]\text{Var}[Y]}}$$

Notes

- Correlation is scale free
- $-1 \leq \text{correlation} \leq 1$
- If X and Y independent $\implies \text{Cor}[X, Y] = 0$
(not the other way around!)

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Estimation of correlation

The above definitions are population statistics

- Given data → Estimate the correlation (or covariance)
`scipy.stats.pearsonr(x,y)`
- .. or covariance
`np.cov(x,y)`: gives covariance matrix, look at $[0][1]$ element
- Also here: there is estimation uncertainty!

Can test hypothesis on correlation=0

- `scipy.stats.pearsonr(x,y)` for two-sided alternative
- `scipy.stats.pearsonr(x,y), alternative='less'` or
`scipy.stats.pearsonr(x,y), alternative='greater'` for one-sided alternatives

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Warning!

Be very careful when interpreting correlations

- Direction of effect not given
- Other variables may explain correlation (use partial correlations)

(we cover partial correlations in the context of the linear model)

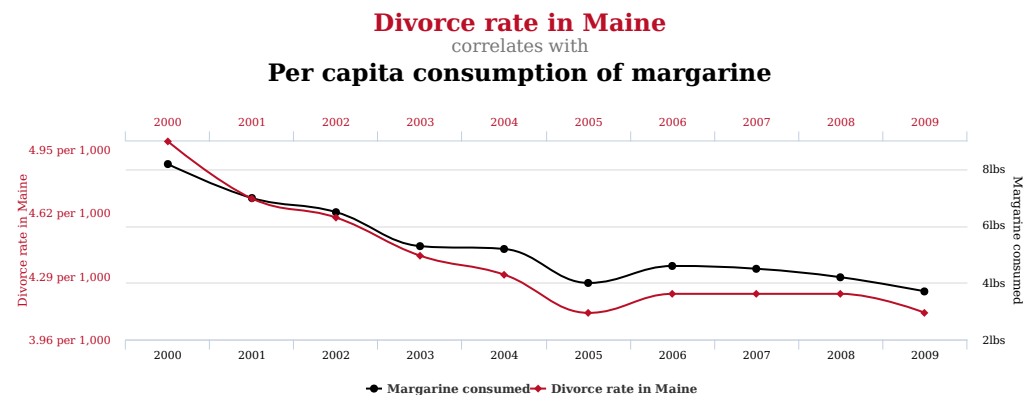
Advice:

- Correct for time trends
- Think about logical relation between variables
- Think about other related variables

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Some examples



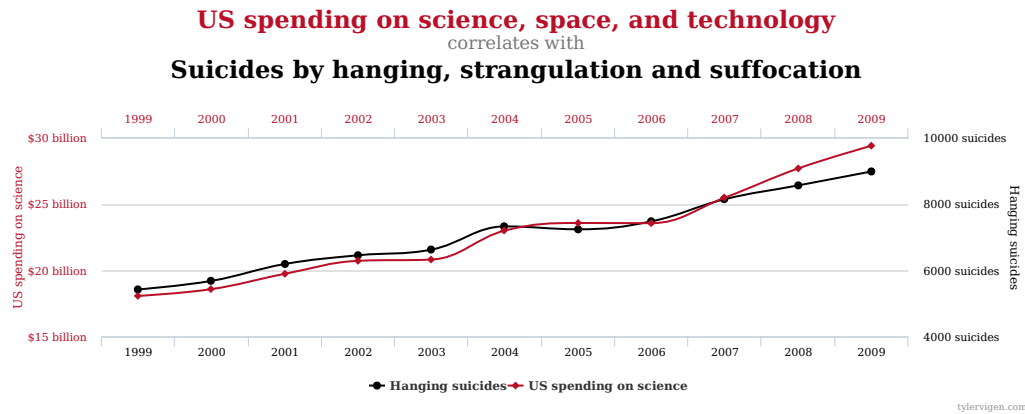
Correlation: 0.992558

Source: <http://www.tylervigen.com/spurious-correlations>

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Some examples



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Other types of correlation

The correlation is a measure of *linear dependence*

→ Also called **Pearson correlation**

Other measures (to relax the linearity assumption)

- Spearman rank-order correlation
→ Calculate correlation after rank-ordering
- Kendall's tau
→ Alternative measure based on ranks

Python function

- `scipy.stats.spearmanr(x, y)`
- `scipy.stats.kendalltau(x, y)`

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Before next time

Assignment for next week

- Reread Chapter 2 & 3 (if needed)
- Read Chapter 4 (main material for next week)
- Reconsider/finish the in-class assignments
- Examples in book
- Small new programming assignment
 - Visualize the correlation between some (continuous) variables in the houseprice data using a scatter plot
 - Calculate the correlation
 - Perform a hypothesis test on this correlation (clearly formulate the hypotheses and the conclusion)
- Work on final assignment

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