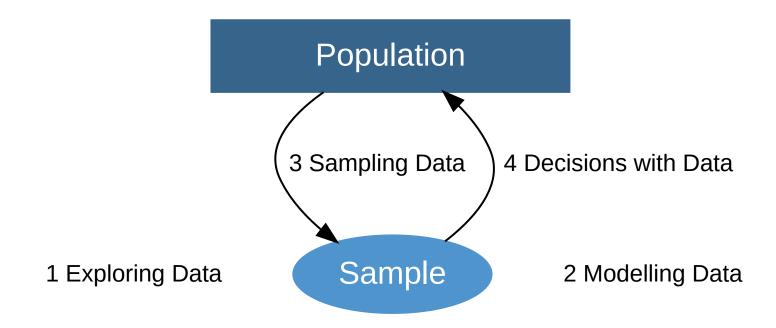
# **Normal Curve**

Modelling data | Normal Model

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## **Unit Overview**



# Module2 Modelling Data

#### **Normal Model**

What is the Normal Curve? How can we use it to model data?

#### **Linear Model**

How can we describe the relationship between 2 variables? When is a linear model appropriate?



Data Story | How likely is to find an elite netball goal player in Australia?

The Normal Curve

Area under a Standard Normal Curve

Area under a General Normal Curve

**Special Properties** 

Modelling using the Normal Curve

**Summary** 

# **Data Story**

How likely is to find an elite netball goal player in Australia?





"A total of 10 goal shooters, goal keepers, goal attacks and goal defenders ... were all over 189cm in height".



### Statistical Thinking

How could you investigate the proportion of Australian women who are over 189cm in height?

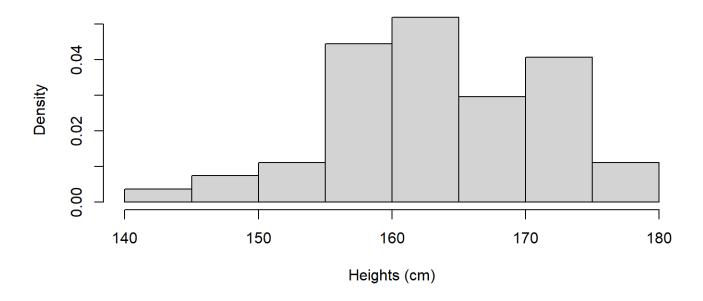
- Collect the heights of Australian female students in DATA1001 and produce a histogram: studentheights.csv.
- Investigate the ABS data which tells us that the mean is 161.8 (cm): ABSFemaleHeights.xlsx.

## **Investigation1: Data from DATA1001**

The following data is the heights of 53 female students from DATA1001 in 2018.

```
data = read.csv("data/studentheights.csv", header = T)
hist(data$heights, main = "Histogram of Female students", xlab = "Heights (cm)",
    freq = F)
```

#### **Histogram of Female students**



 mean(data\$heights)

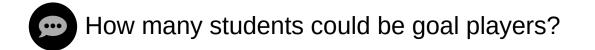
 ## [1] 163.6204

 sd(data\$heights)

 ## [1] 7.657661

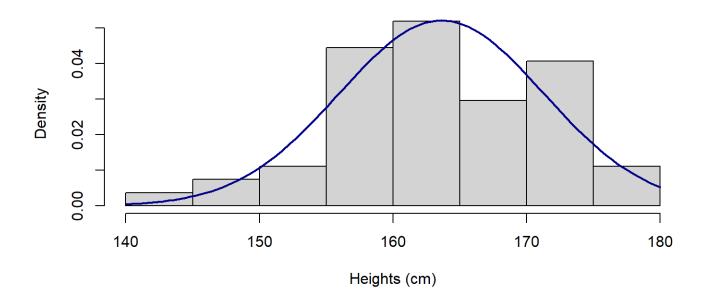
 length(data\$heights[data\$heights > 189])/length(data\$heights)

 ## [1] 0



• In this sample, none!

#### **Histogram of Female students**



If we drew a smooth curve as an approximation of the histogram, how would you describe it's shape?

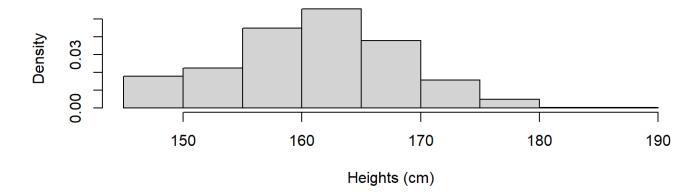
Fairly symmetric and bell-shaped.

## **Investigation2: Data from ABS**

From the Australian Health Survey (2011), we get the following (simulated) data for the heights of 7,154 women.

```
data1 = read.csv("data/ABSFemaleHeights.csv", header = T, sep = "") # Unfortuntately this is summarised data, not raw.
set.seed(1)
data2 = c(sample(145:155, 7154 * 0.166, replace = T), sample(155:160, 7154 * 0.215,
    replace = T), sample(160:165, 7154 * 0.286, replace = T), sample(165:170, 7154 *
    0.209, replace = T), sample(170:175, 7154 * 0.09, replace = T), sample(175:180,
    7154 * 0.029, replace = T), sample(180:190, 7154 * 0.005, replace = T)) # Simulation of data1 (Ext)
hist(data2, main = "Histogram of Females (ABS)", xlab = "Heights (cm)", freq = F)
```

#### **Histogram of Females (ABS)**



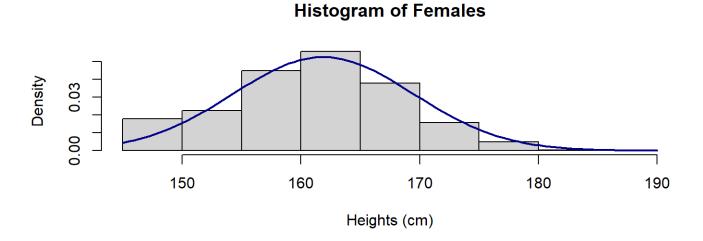
```
mean(data2)
## [1] 161.8665
sd(data2)
## [1] 7.610036
data2[data2 > 189]
## [1] 190 190 190
length(data2[data2 > 189])/length(data2)
## [1] 0.0004195217
```



How many women could be goal players?

• In this sample, there are 3 women, which is 0.04%.

```
hist(data2, main = "Histogram of Females", xlab = "Heights (cm)", freq = F)
m2 = mean(data2)
sd2 = sd(data2)
curve(dnorm(x, mean = m2, sd = sd2), col = "darkblue", lwd = 2, add = TRUE)
```



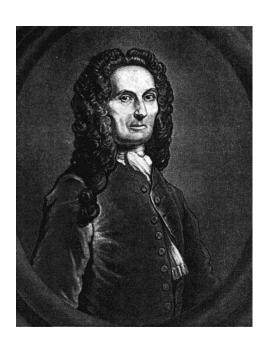
If we drew a smooth curve as an approximation of the histogram, how would you describe it's shape?

Again fairly symmetric and bell-shaped. Is there something special about this curve?

# **The Normal Curve**

## **Origins of the Normal Curve**

The Normal curve was discovered around 1720 by Abraham de Moivre, also famous for the beautiful de Moivre's formula.



## Why is the Normal curve famous?

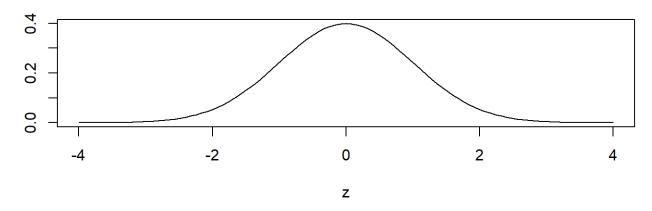


- The Normal curve approximates many natural phenomemon.
- The Normal curve can model data caused by combining a large number of independent variables. (Coming up in Normal Approximation.)

## **General & Standard Normal curves**

- The **General** Normal Curve (X) has any mean and SD.
- The **Standard** Normal Curve (Z) has mean 0 and SD 1.

#### **Standard Normal Curve**



## The Normal curve formula (Ext)

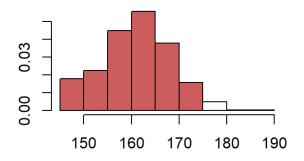
- It turns out the Normal curve has a simple formula, although you won't need to use it directly.
- The formula for the General Normal Curve is

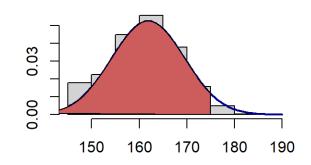
$$f(x) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-rac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad ext{ for } x \in (-\infty,\infty).$$

where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the (population) mean and SD respectively.

# Approximating histogram by a Normal curve

If the Normal curve seems to fit the histogram, then we can use the **area under the Normal curve** as an approximation to the **area under the histogram**.



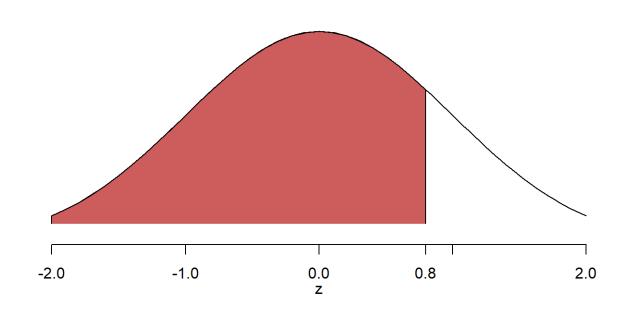




# Area under a Standard Normal Curve

# **Example**

Suppose we want to find out the area up to 0.8.



## **Method1: Integration**

Mathematically, we could use integration:

$$ext{area} = \int_{-\infty}^{0.8} rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-rac{y^2}{2}} dy$$

But this does not have a closed form!

# Method2: Normal Tables (old school!)

TABLE 1. Lower tail areas of the Standard Normal distribution (CDF) The point tabulated is  $\Phi(z) = P(Z \le z)$ , where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

	$\overline{z}$	.00	.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09
	0.0	.5000	.5040	.5080	.5120	.5160	.5199	.5239	.5279	.5319	.5359
	0.1	.5398	.5438	.5478	.5517	.5557	.5596	.5636	.5675	.5714	.5753
	0.2	.5793	.5832	.5871	.5910	.5948	.5987	.6026	.6064	.6103	.6141
0.	0.3	.6179	.6217	.6255	.6293	.6331	.6368	.6406	.6443	.6480	.6517
	3	.72	.6591	.6628	.6664	.6700	.6736	.6772	.6808	.6844	.6879
	_		\$950	.6985	.7019	.7054	.7088	.7123	.7157	.7190	.7224
	7	.75	$80^{91}$	.7324	.7357	.7389	.7422	.7454	.7486	.7517	.7549
	_		01	.7642	.7673	.7704	.7734	.7764	.7794	.7823	.7852
I U.	8	.78	811	.7939	.7967	.7995	.8023	.8051	.8078	.8106	.8133
	_	0.1	- A	.8212	.8238	.8264	.8289	.8315	.8340	.8365	.8389
W.	9	.81	5988	.8461	.8485	.8508	.8531	.8554	.8577	.8599	.8621
	_	0.4	3665	.8686	.8708	.8729	.8749	.8770	.8790	.8810	.8830
	1	_8.9	.8869	.8888	.8907	.8925	.8944	.8962	.8980	.8997	.9015
	1.3	.9032	.9049	.9066	.9082	.9099	.9115	.9131	.9147	.9162	.9177

## Method3: Use R

- The pnorm command works out the lower tail area.
- The pnorm (x,lower.tail=F) works out the right tail area.

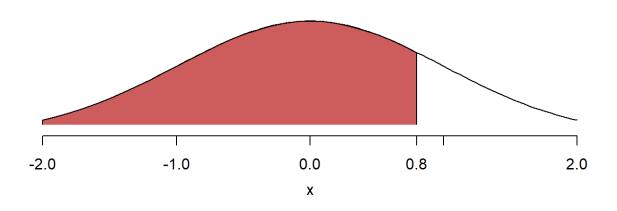


Remember

Always sketch the Normal curve and the relevant area ... and then use R!

### Lower tail

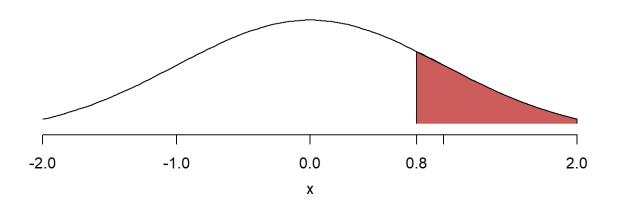




pnorm(0.8)

## Upper tail

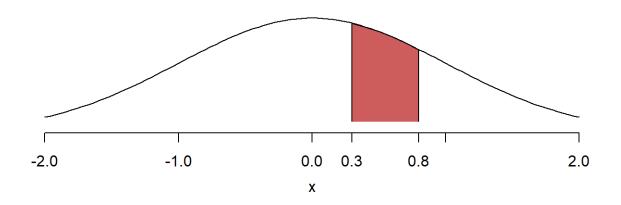




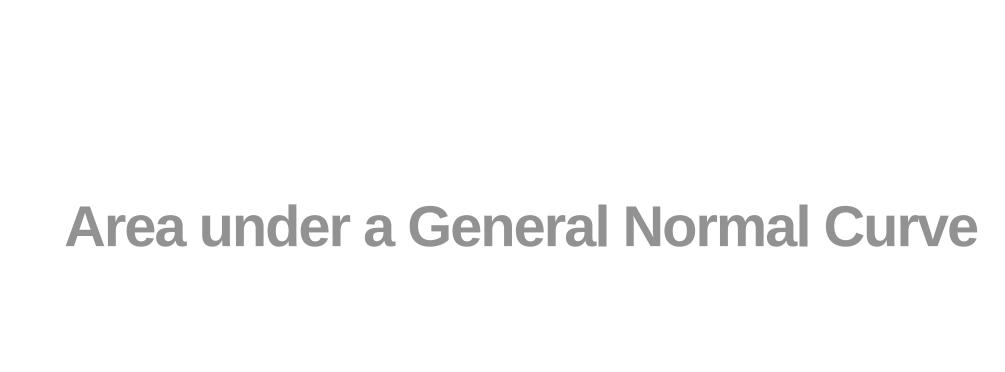
pnorm(0.8, lower.tail = F)

#### Interval

area = 
$$P(Z < 0.8) - P(Z < 0.3) \approx 0.17$$

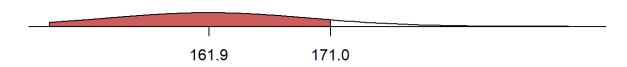


pnorm(0.8) - pnorm(0.3)



#### Lower tail

#### $area \approx 0.88$

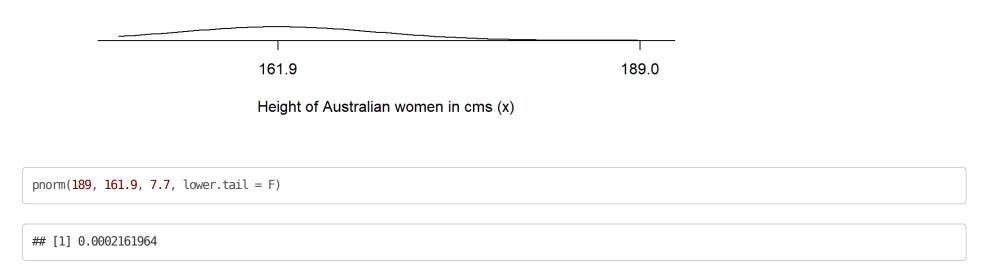


Height of Australian women in cms (x)

pnorm(171, 161.9, 7.7) #pnorm(x, mean, sd)

### Upper tail

#### $area\approx 0.0002$

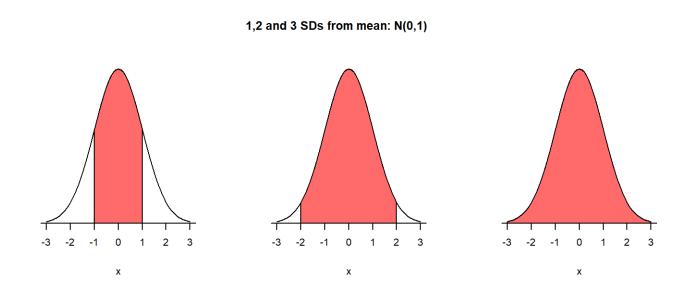


So using the Normal curve approximation, how likely is to find an elite netball goal player in Australia?

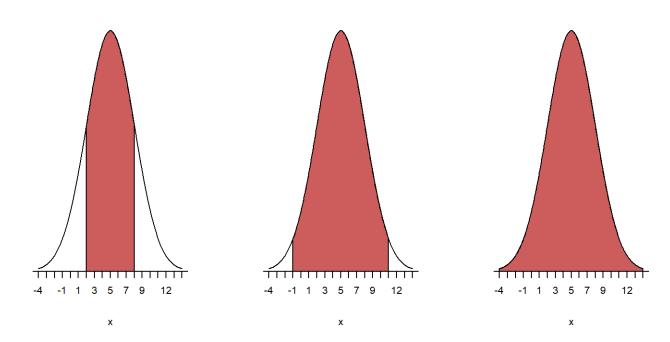
# **Special Properties of the Normal**

# 1. All Normal curves satisfy the "68%-95%-99.7% Rule.

- The area **1** SD out from the mean in both directions is **0.68** (68%).
- The area **2** SDs out from the mean in both directions is **0.95** (95%).
- The area **3** SDs out from the mean in both directions is **0.997** (99.7%).



1,2 and 3 SDs from mean: N(5,9)



# 2. Any General Normal can be rescaled into the Standard Normal

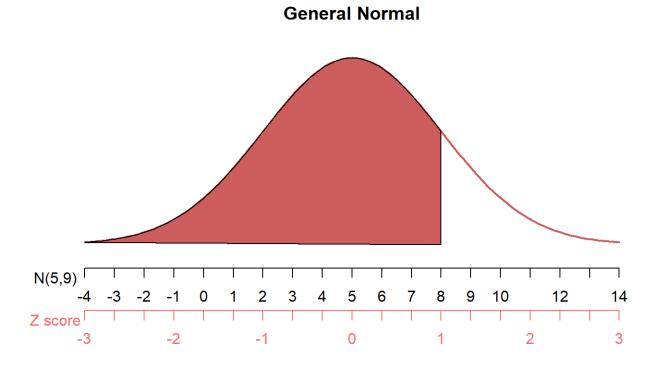


#### Standard units

For any point on a Normal curve, the standard units (or z score) is how many standard deviations that point is above (+) or below (-) the mean.

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

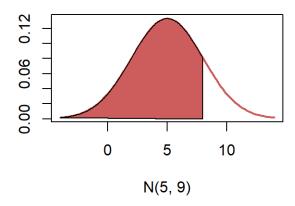
## Example1



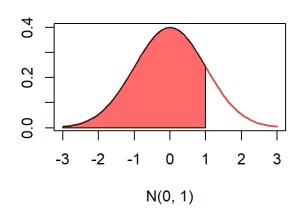
- Consider the point = 8.
- ' So the z score is  $\frac{8-5}{3}=1$ .

### The following 2 areas are equivalent.

#### General Normal: area from 8 down

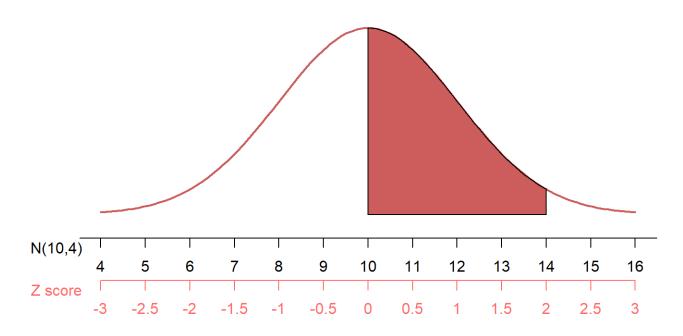


#### Standard Normal: area from 1 down



### Example2

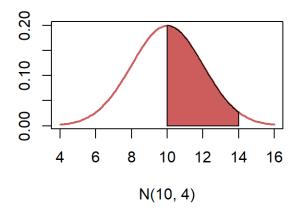
#### **General Normal: interval**



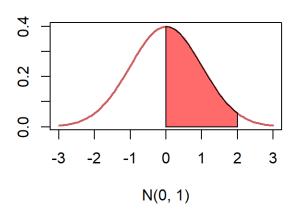
- Here the lower point is 10 and the upper point is 14.
- ' So the z scores are  $z_1=\frac{10-10}{2}=0$  and  $z_2=\frac{14-10}{2}=2$ .

### The following 2 areas are equivalent.

#### General Normal: between 10 and 14



#### Standard Normal: between 0 and 1





## Limitations of using any model

All models are approximations. Assumptions, whether implied or clearly stated, are never exactly true. All models are wrong, but some models are useful. So the question you need to ask is not "Is the model true?" (it never is) but "Is the model good enough for this particular application?"

Box, G., Luceno, A. & del Carmen Paniagua-Quiñones, M. (2009) Statistical Control By Monitoring and Adjustment, p61.

## How do we know when to use the Normal curve?

#### 1. Does the histogram look Normal?

Is the histogram basically balanced without long tails or many outliers?

#### 2. Do the proportions look right?

```
sum(data2[data2 > mean(data2) - sd(data2) & data2 < mean(data2) + sd(data2)])/sum(data2)

## [1] 0.6859907

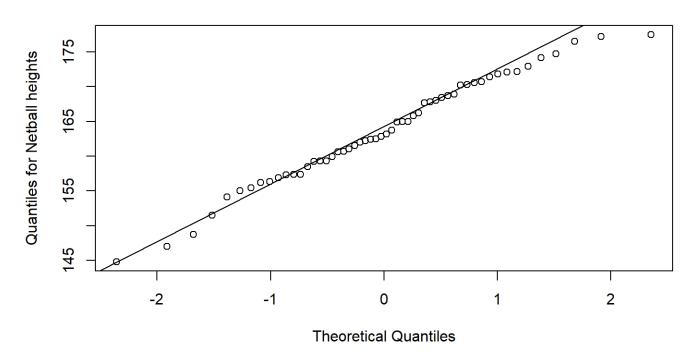
sum(data2[data2 > mean(data2) - 2 * sd(data2) & data2 < mean(data2) + 2 * sd(data2)])/sum(data2)

## [1] 0.955145</pre>
```

## 3. Does the quantile-quantile (QQ) plot look like a straight line?

qqnorm(data\$heights, ylab = "Quantiles for Netball heights")
qqline(data\$heights)

#### **Normal Q-Q Plot**



#### 4. Shapiro test (Ext)

## data: data\$heights

## W = 0.98237, p-value = 0.6067

```
##
## Shapiro-Wilk normality test
##
```

Note: The Shapiro test tests the hypothesis that the Normal curve fits the data. A p-value less than 0.05 suggests that the Normal curve may not fit. So here the Normal curve appears to be an adequate fit. More of this in Hypothesis Testing.

## **Summary**

The Normal curve naturally describes many histograms, and so can be used in modelling data. It has many useful properties, including the 68/95/99.7% rule and that any General Normal can be rescaled into a Standard Normal.

#### **Key Words**

de Moivre, Standard Normal curve, General Normal curve, standard unit (z score), diagnostics

#### **Further Thinking**