

Mid-Term Review

March 3, 2014

1. Explanations and Evidence

- a. Correlation and Causality
- b. Selection bias
- c. Confounding: endogeneity/exogeneity
 - i. Confounding factors: it is difficult to decouple what is driving what
- d. Natural Experiments
 - i. Ex: Israeli school policy allowed for no confounders
 - 1. Y-variable: test performance
 - 2. X-variable: class size
- e. Randomize and Intervene
 - i. Multiple explanations for correlative data
 - ii. What is wrong with simple observation?
 - 1. Ex: Smaller classes have higher performance rates—difficult to test

2. Exploring Multivariate Data

- a. Basic plots/Summaries
 - i. Contingency table (titanic example)
 - ii. Boxplots/histograms/dot plots
 - iii. Scatter plots
 - iv. Lattice plots (GPA:SAT example)
- b. Group wise Models
 - i. Group means
 - ii. Coefficients/parameters of the model
 - iii. Fitted/model values
 - iv. Residuals – Actual Value = Fitted Value + Residual
 - v. Taking the “x-ness” out of y
 - vi. Regression: least squares (know least squares equation)
 - vii. Nonlinear transformations: logs, power laws, polynomial fits: adding x^2 , x^3 , etc.
- c. Have y and want to adjust for x, simply take residuals
- d. Reducing Uncertainty
 - i. Standard deviation is the average error
 - ii. Adding information will always reduce your error
 - iii. Squished data—take log of both sides
 - 1. Power law is the reverse
 - a. Don't forget extra step of undoing log by exponentiating!

- iv. When fitting polynomials remember it is a tradeoff between fit and simplicity

3. Predictable and Unpredictable Variation

- a. Coverage intervals
- b. Standard deviation = “average error”
- c. Remember $R^2 = PV/TV$
 - i. Closer to 1 means more predictive variation
 - ii. Closer to 0 means bad fit
- d. Naïve prediction intervals (Level 2 prediction incorporate some magnitude of error, better than plug-in)
 - i. Says that future error will be like my past error
 - ii. Naïve prediction intervals do not take in to account the unpredictability of the estimates or the predictable variation

4. Quantifying Uncertainty (parameter/prediction)

- a. Definition of a sampling distribution
- b. Standard error (standard deviation of sampling distribution)
- c. Confidence intervals
 - i. Informal/intuitive
 - ii. Formal/mathematical version
- d. Frequentist Coverage Property (Truth in advertising: what you see is what you get)

Q: How do you estimate these things? (since really they can't exist)

A: Bootstrapping/ Normal Linear Regression Model

- e. Bootstrapping
 - i. Taking repeated samples of my sample with replacement, omission, and ties
 - ii. Bootstrapped confidence interval to estimate parameter uncertainty
- f. Normal Linear Regression Model
 - i. Know equation structure and assumption about data generating process which says that residuals are drawn from a normal distribution---the residual is an aggregation of nudges (or other forces we have left out of the model)
 - ii. Be able to use assumptions and *Read Output
- g. Cross-Validation
 - i. Another resampling based method
 - ii. Split data set into 2 sets arbitrarily—make one set training and one set testing
 - 1. Can be used to determine how well we estimated
 - 2. It is necessary to do multiple cross validation splits
 - a. This helps us estimate general error of model

5. Grouping Variables in Regression

- a. Having both quantitative and qualitative predictors
 - i. Dummy variables (baseline offset format)
 - ii. Interaction terms (change slope by group)
 - 1. Dummy variable*quantitative variable
 - 2. Slope: rate of change of y as x changes

6. Multiple Regression

- a. Partial slope (holds other variables constant or statistically adjusts)
- b. Statistical adjustment
- c. Criteria for model choice
- d. Structure of multiple regression equation
- e. How do I know what I need to add to a regression model?
 - i. Look at R^2 for precision of predictions
 - ii. Look at practical effect size

7. Hypothesis Testing

- a. Neyman-Pearson Test (6 steps)
 - 1. Formulate a null hypothesis
 - 2. Choose a discrepancy measure (ex: t statistic)
 - 3. Compute (or simulate) a sampling distribution
 - 4. Choose R, your rejection region
 - 5. Calculate alpha = size of rejection region as a fraction (e.g. 0.05)
 - 6. Look at actual value of t for your data set and determine if t falls into rejection region or not
- ii. Permutation test: shuffling the cards (shuffled cards become null hypothesis)