

## **Section 2: Estimation and A/B Testing**

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Suggested Reading

OpenIntro Statistics, Chapters 4,5&6

## Last Section

How to deal with uncertainty?

- ▶ Random Variables and Probability Distributions
- ▶ Joint and Conditional (Happy/Rich), Independence (Sally Clark),
- ▶ Expectation and Variance (Bookies vs Bettors, Tortoise and Hare)
- ▶ Binomial Distribution (Patriot Coin Toss), Normal distribution (Crash of 1987)
- ▶ Decision Making under uncertainty (Marriage Problem and Probability and Decision Trees)
- ▶ Bayes Rule (Practice Hard  $\neq$  Play in NBA)

## This Section

- ▶ Estimating Parameters and Fitting Distributions
- ▶ Confidence and Prediction Intervals
- ▶ Means, Proportions, Differences
- ▶ A/B Testing

## Why R? R is free!

All the code for the course and assignments are in `Rexamples.R`!

- ▶ Most Data Scientists are using R.
- ▶ R's syntax is very simple.
- ▶ There are a large number of add-on statistical packages that can be installed and run in R. You don't need to code anything.

You can use your favorite software: Excel, Stata, Matlab.

## Statistics with R

You can download R and Rstudio for Windows, Linux, Mac at

<http://www.r-project.org/>

<http://www.rstudio.com/>

Rstudio is a very useful front-end interface to R.

- ▶ Links, code for class, video tutorials are up on the course-page.

A list of books on doing statistics in R is at

<http://www.r-project.org/doc/bib/R-books-html>

<http://www.r-bloggers.com>

Start by watching R videos for Libraries and Packages/Files and Data.

## Standard R Commands

Given vectors  $x$  and  $y$  we can apply

- `mean( ... )` computes the sample mean
- `median( ... )` computes the median
- `var( ... )` computes the sample variance
- `sd( ... )` computes the sample standard deviation
- `cov( ... )` computes the sample covariance
- `cor( ... )` computes the sample correlation
- `pnorm( ... )` calculates normal probabilities
- `hist( ... )` makes histograms
- `lm( ... )` for linear model (a.k.a regression)
- `summary( ... )` provides a summary analysis of the output

## Stats in Excel

`average( ... )` computes the sample mean

`median( ... )` computes the median

`var( ... )` computes the sample variance

`stdev( ... )` computes the sample standard deviation

`covar( ... , ... )` computes the sample covariance

`normsdist( ... )` calculates normal probabilities

`histogram( ... )` makes histograms

Regression commands include `linest(yrange,xrange)` for linear model (a.k.a multiple regression)

`slope(yrange,xrange)` provides the regression  $\beta$

Let  $X$  be daily returns. We assume that returns are independent and identically distributed as

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

**Question:** What are the values of  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ ? Let's assume that each observation in the random sample  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  is independent and distributed according to the model above,  $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then we use the sample mean,  $\bar{x}$ , and sample variance,  $s^2$ ,

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

efficient estimates

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

est + small value

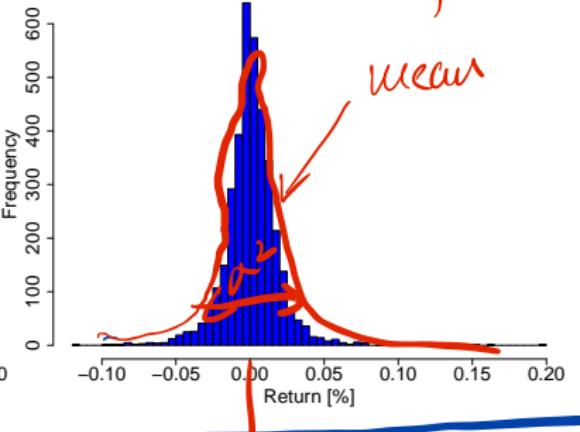
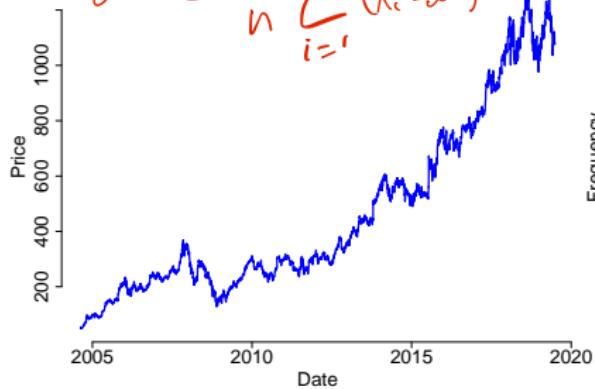
# Google 2019

## Prices and Returns

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$x_i$ : return of Good on day i

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2$$



EPL  
Poisson:  $\lambda = \text{avg. # of goals}$   
Estimation.

$$\hat{\mu}$$

Assume that I invest all my money in Google! Your job is to tell me the following:

1. What is my expected one year return?
2. How about the risk? Volatility?
3. What's the probability that I lose at least 3% in a day?

$$z \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$\hat{\mu} = \dots$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \dots$$

$$P(z \leq -0.03)$$

$$\text{proxm } 0.05$$

Empirically:

$$0.04$$

# Google 2019

We can use our model and R to answer our questions

```
>mean(ret) [1] 0.0007078  
>sd(ret)   [1] 0.01864
```

Annual expected return  $0.0007078 * 252 = 17.8\%$  a year Daily risk or volatility of 1.86% How about losing money?

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{-0.03 - 0.00070}{0.0186} = -1.65$$

```
>pnorm(-1.65,0,1)  
[1] 0.049
```

There's a 4.9% chance I can lose at least 3% in a day

## The Genius at the Royal Mint (Sir Isaac Newton, 1643-1727)

Std. Weight = 100g  
Allowed deviation is  $\pm 1\text{g}$

Bad money drives out the good:

1. English coins were worth less as currency in England than as precious metal in Europe.
2. Large variability in the weights of coins make it hard to stop coin clipping.

Trial of the Pyx was held by Newton to check whether the coins are good.

2500 coins in box  $\pm 1/2500$  pounds ?

Cancellation of  $t$  &  $k$  -

## Ineffectiveness of the Trial

Batches of  $n = 2,500$  coins, each supposed to weigh 100 grams with an allowable margin of error of  $\pm 1$  gram. Trial set the bounds for the average weight to be  $\pm 1$  gram! A bad mistake.

$$\text{Variability of an Average} = \frac{\text{Variability of a Single Measurement}}{\sqrt{\text{Sample Size}}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$2500$

According to modern statistics, the bound should be:

$$100 \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2500}} = 100 \pm 0.02$$

if each coin  $\pm 1$   
then avg  $\pm 0.02$

$$\text{Avg weight} = \frac{1}{2500} \sum_{i=1}^{2500} w_i$$

## Sampling Distribution of Sample Mean

Central limit

The sampling distribution explains how much our estimate  $\bar{X}$  will vary over different datasets of size  $n$

theorem.

- We'll use  $s^2$  to estimate  $\sigma^2$  and use

avg weight  $\rightarrow \bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{s^2}{n}\right)$

CLT

- The quantity  $s_{\bar{X}}^2 = \frac{s^2}{n}$  defines the standard deviation

$$s_{\bar{X}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \quad \mu = 100$$

Regardless the distribution of samples  
the avg always Normal.

## Confidence Intervals

In summary, our best guess at  $\mu$  is  $\bar{x}$

- ▶ How large a mistake can we make? The distribution is  $\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, s_{\bar{X}}^2\right)$  where  $s_{\bar{X}} = s/\sqrt{n}$ .
- ▶  $[\bar{x} \pm 1.96s_{\bar{X}}]$  give us a 95% range of plausible values for  $\mu$

We call it a 95% Confidence Interval (C.I.)

$$\left( \bar{x} - 1.96 \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

What if I want 90% or 99% confidence?

## Prediction intervals

1. A confidence interval estimates the mean,  $\mu$ .
2. A *prediction interval* answers the question:

“What range of values are plausible for a single future observation”?

100(1 –  $\alpha\%$ ) of the data lie in the interval

$$\bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} s \sqrt{1 + 1/n}$$

For example, if  $\alpha = 0.05$ , we have  $z_{0.05/2} = 1.96$ .

## Standard Error and Confidence Interval for a Proportion

When

Obs

$X_i$  is

$1 \sim 0$

$\hat{P} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i =$

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}$$

proportion  
of 1's in sample

of 1's in sample

$\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$

Suppose that we have a proportion  $\hat{p} = X/n$  rather than a mean

We can compute the standard error for the proportion:

$$s_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}{n}}$$

Then we can calculate a 95% Confidence Interval

$$\hat{p} \pm 1.96 \times s_{\hat{p}}$$

$$\hat{P} \sim N(\hat{P}, \frac{\hat{P}(1 - \hat{P})}{n})$$

$$s = \sqrt{\hat{P}(1 - \hat{P})}$$

$$\hat{P}(1 - \hat{P}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \hat{P})^2$$

## Example: Google Search Algorithm

# A/B testing

Google is testing a new search algorithm. 2,500 searches and check how often people clicked through. Here's our data:

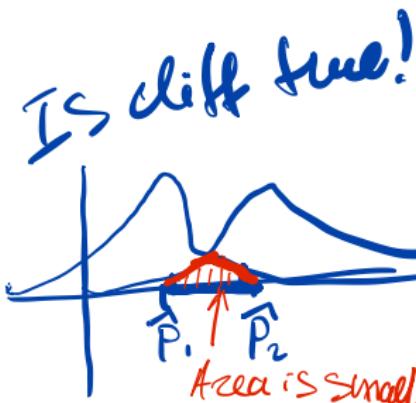


Table: Google Search Algorithm

	<u>Algo1</u>	<u>Algo2</u>
success	1755	1818
failure	745	682

2500      2500

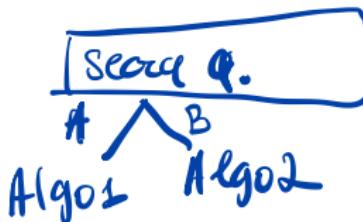
$$\hat{P}_1 = \frac{1755}{2500} = 0.702$$

$$\hat{P}_2 = \frac{1818}{2500} = 0.727$$

The probability of success is estimated to be  $\hat{p}_1 = 0.702$  for the current algorithm and  $\hat{p}_2 = 0.727$  for the new algorithm.

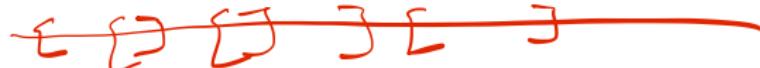
Is the new algorithm better? For sure??

Significant  $\Rightarrow$  result is the true signal



Example: Google Search

10 Algos.



We could calculate 95% confidence intervals separately

For Algo 1:

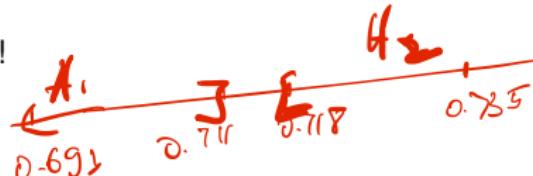
$$\underline{0.702} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{0.702 \times 0.298}{2500}} = (\underline{0.693}, \underline{0.711})$$

For Algo 2:

$$\underline{0.727} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{0.727 \times 0.273}{2500}} = (\underline{0.718}, \underline{0.735})$$

What do you think?

Maybe its more accurate to do the difference!!



We are 95% confident the Algo is better.

## Standard Error for the Difference in Means

$$P_1 \sim N \quad ; \quad P_2 \sim N$$

$$\hat{P}_1 - \hat{P}_2 \sim N(\hat{P}_1, \hat{P}_2)$$

Suppose that we have two samples

We can compute the standard error for the difference in means:

$$s_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{s_{\bar{X}_1}^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_{\bar{X}_2}^2}{n_2}}$$

We can compute the standard error for the difference in proportions:

$$s_{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_1(1 - \hat{p}_1)}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}_2(1 - \hat{p}_2)}{n_2}}$$

$X$  &  $Y$  are not correlated:

$$Var(aX + bY) = a^2 Var(X) + b^2 Var(Y)$$

$$Var(X - Y) = Var(X) + Var(Y)$$

## Confidence Interval for the Difference in Means & Proportions

We can now compute the confidence interval for the difference in means:

$$(\hat{X}_1 - \hat{X}_2) \pm 1.96 \times \underline{s_{\hat{X}_1 - \hat{X}_2}}$$

or the confidence interval for the difference in proportions:

$$(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) \pm 1.96 \times \underline{s_{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2}}$$

## Example: Google Search

if  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$  is outside  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$   
We are not 95% confident that  
 $\hat{p}_1 < \hat{p}_2$

Now we get

$$s_{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{0.702 \times 0.298}{2500} + \frac{0.727 \times 0.273}{2500}} = 0.0128$$

The Confidence Interval becomes  $(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) \pm 1.96 \times s_{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2}$

$$\frac{(0.702 - 0.727)}{1.72} \pm 1.96 \times 0.0128 = (-0.05, 0.00)$$

slightly neg.  
 $-10^{-8}$

What's our conclusion now?

$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$  is outside 95% CI  
 $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$  is outside 90% CI

Let's revisit the Patriots example ...

The data tells us that the Patriots have won 19 out 25 tosses.

Assume they were using the same coin the entire time and that the Patriots always choose heads...

What is the data telling us about the probability of heads in this coin?

## Patriots and Coin Tosses

Our best guess at  $p$  is  $\hat{p} = \frac{19}{25} = \underline{\underline{0.76}}$

We have a 95% Confidence Interval given by

$$\hat{p} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{25}} = 0.76 \pm 1.96 \times 0.0854$$

The interval is  $(0.592, 0.927)$ .

Why so wide? What do we conclude??

We are not 95%

Confident that fares were fair.

## Conclusions

avg.

There's a number of things:

1. Estimates ~~are~~ based on random samples and therefore random (uncertain) themselves

We need to account for this uncertainty!

2. Standard Error measures the uncertainty of an estimate
3. We construct 95% Confidence Intervals

This provides us with a plausible range for the quantity we are trying to estimate.

## A/B Testing

### Google Ago Example.

The **key elements** of hypothesis testing are:

1. Setting Up a Hypothesis Test
2. Significance Levels
3. p-values
4. Testing a Mean and Difference in Means
5. Testing a Proportion
6. Tests for Small Samples

Algo 1 is better.

Depends on app. 99% 90% 95%

Coke versus Pepsi

if  $p\text{-Val} \leq 0.05$

95% CI does not overlap with  $\mu_0$  favor Coke

The most famous hypothesis test in history in whether people can decide the

difference between Coke and Pepsi

Hypothesis is that

$p\text{-Value}$  is small  $\Rightarrow$  Low chance that  $p \leq 0.05$

95% confident

means we want  $p\text{-Val} \leq 0.05$

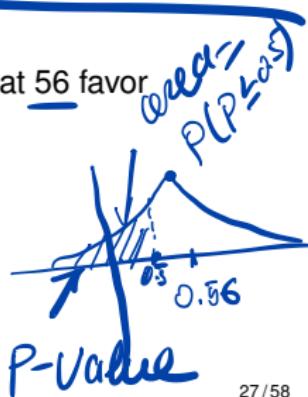
Stackwell.

Double Blind: neither the experimenter or subject know the allocation

- Pepsi claimed that more than  $\frac{1}{2}$  of Diet Coke drinkers said they preferred to drink Diet Pepsi
- Suppose we take a random sample of 100 drinkers and find that 56 favor Pepsi?

$$0.56 = \frac{56}{100}$$

prefer Pepsi compare to  $\frac{1}{2}$



## A/B Testing

$H_0$ : null hypothesis

$$P = \frac{1}{2}$$

Scientific Testing is the underpinning of many things ...

Controlled experiment (designed) or observational study

1. A Statistic: Sample mean, proportion, difference in means, ...
2. A Null hypothesis:  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0, H_0: p = p_0, \dots$  A level of significance  $\alpha$
3. Sampling distribution: The probability distribution of the statistics values

(Normal, t)

## Z and T-Score

How many **standard deviations** are you away from the mean? We'll address this with a  $Z$  or  $T$ -score

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

If  $\sigma$  is unknown, we'll use  $s$  instead

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s / \sqrt{n}}$$

For small samples, Student's  $t$  distribution with  $(n - 1)$  degrees of freedom.

**Guinness:** Testing the quality of beer in 1908.

## What is Hypothesis Testing?

A **hypothesis** is a statement about a population developed for the purpose of testing with data

- ▶ **Step 1: Null Hypothesis ( $H_0$ ):** assume to be true unless there is sufficient evidence to the contrary.

**Alternative Hypothesis ( $H_1$ ):** test against the null. If there is evidence that  $H_0$  is false, we accept  $H_1$ .

- ▶ **Step 2:** Select the significance level  $\alpha$ .  $\alpha = 0.05$  (the 5% level) is the most commonly used.  $\alpha = 0.01$  (the 1% level) is prevalent in medical and quality assurance examples.

# Hypothesis Testing

## Making a decision

- ▶ Step 3: Compute the Test Statistic ( $Z$  or  $T$ )
- ▶ Step 4: Formulate the Decision Rule

For example, reject the Null hypothesis if  $|Z| > 1.96$

- ▶ Step 5: Make a Decision, Compute the p-value.

p-value: The smallest significance level at which a null hypothesis can be rejected.

## Two Sided Test vs One Sided Test

Two sided test:  $H_0: \bar{X}_1 = \bar{X}_2$

We calculate sample statistic  $\bar{x}$  from data.

Are we sure that the true value  $x$  is different from some value  $\mu$ ?

It can be different in three ways: not equal, greater or less.

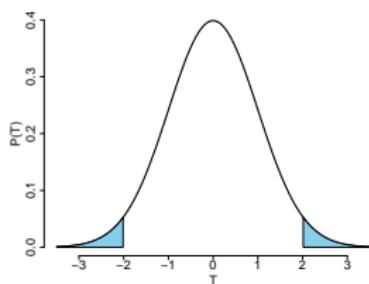
We calculate  $T$ -score.

One Sided:

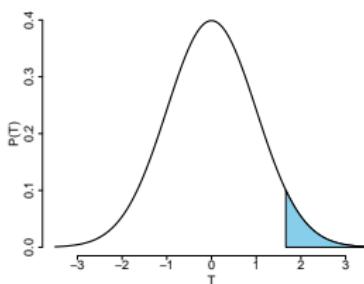
$H_1: \bar{X}_1 \neq \bar{X}_2$

$H_0: \bar{X}_1 > \bar{X}_2$

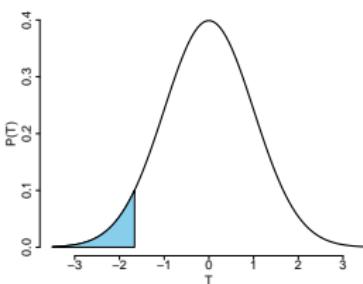
$H_1: \bar{X}_1 < \bar{X}_2$



$$H_0: x = \mu; H_1: x \neq \mu$$



$$H_0: x \leq \mu; H_1: x > \mu$$



$$H_0: x \geq \mu; H_1: x < \mu$$

If  $T$  score is inside the white area, cannot reject  $H_0$  at  $p = 0.05$ .

## Revisit Google Algorithm

	Algo1	Algo2
success	1755	1818
failure	745	682
	2500	2500

The statistic we are interested is the difference of proportions

$$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2 = 1755/2500 - 1818/2500 \text{ and } \mu = 0$$

The search team claims that new algorithms (Algo2) is better. Thus

$$\underline{H_0 : p_1 - p_2 \geq 0}, \underline{H_1 : p_1 - p_2 \leq 0}$$

$$P_1 < P_2$$

`prop.test(c(1755,1818),c(2500,2500), alternative = "less", correct = F)`

## Coke versus Pepsi

The most famous hypothesis test in history in whether people can decide the difference between Coke and Pepsi

**Double Blind:** neither the experimenter or subject know the allocation

- ▶ **Pepsi** claimed that more than  $\frac{1}{2}$  of Diet Coke drinkers said they preferred to drink Diet Pepsi
- ▶ Suppose we take a random sample of 100 drinkers and find that 56 favor **Pepsi**?

Coke versus Pepsi

# Cannot Reject $H_0$

This is a hypothesis test about the proportion of drinkers who prefer Pepsi

$$H_0 : p \leq \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } H_1 : p > \frac{1}{2}$$

My best estimate of the true  $p$

$$\hat{p} = X/n = 56/100 = 0.56.$$

Pepsi collected  
more data  
1000 people  
 $\hat{P} = 0.56$

The standard error of my statistic

$$\sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})/n} = 0.0496$$

The 95% confidence interval is then

$$0.56 \pm 1.96(0.0496) = 0.56 \pm 0.098 = (0.463, 0.657)$$

gs 0% chance  
that true value  
of  $P$  is inside  
this interval

## Testing

The  $T$ -score now with  $s_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)/n} = 0.05$

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{s_{\hat{p}}} = \frac{0.56 - 0.5}{0.05} = 1.2 < 1.64$$

Let's take the usual  $\alpha = 0.05$ . Don't reject  $H_0$  for a one-sided test at 5% level.

We need a larger  $n$  to come to a more definitive conclusion.

Common to take  $n = 1000$

As a **Hypothesis test**:

```
prop.test(56,100,alternative="greater", conf.level = 0.95)
```

## Type I and II Errors

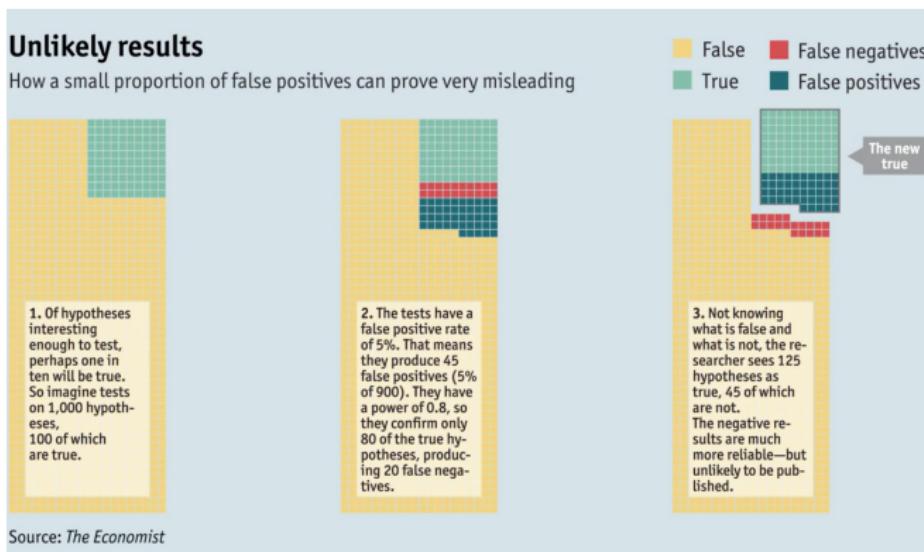
There are **two types of errors** you can make when testing

1. Type I Error: Rejecting a true  $H_0$ . *Fals discovery*
  2. Type II Error: Not rejecting a false  $H_0$ . *Miss discovery.*
- Significance Level:  $P(\text{reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ true}) = P(\text{type I error}).$

P - Value continues for false dise.

# Type I and II Errors

Economist



Source: <http://www.economist.com/blogs/graphicdetail/2013/10/daily-chart-2>

## Scientific Reporting

### Higgs Boson

The **five-sigma** concept is somewhat counter-intuitive. It has to do with a **one-in-3.5-million probability**.

That is not the probability that the Higgs boson doesn't exist. It is, rather, the inverse: If the particle doesn't exist, one in 3.5 million is the chance an experiment just like the one announced this week would nevertheless come up with a result appearing to confirm it does exist.

In other words, one in 3.5 million is the likelihood of finding a false positive a fluke produced by random statistical fluctuation that seems as definitive as the findings released by two teams of researchers at the CERN laboratory in Geneva.

**p-value** one-in-3.5-million and **T-score**  $Z = 5$ .

# Pfizer

Pfizer introduced Viagra in early 1998

- ▶ During 1998 of the 6 million Viagra users 77 died from coronary problems such as heart attacks.
- ▶ Pfizer claimed that this rate is no more than the general population.
- ▶ A clinical study found 11 out of 1,500,000 men who were not on Viagra died of coronary problems during the same length of time as the 77 Viagra users who died in 1998.

Is this statistically significant?

## Confidence Interval

A 95% confidence interval for a difference in proportions  $p_1 - p_2$  is

$$(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_1(1 - \hat{p}_1)}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}_2(1 - \hat{p}_2)}{n_2}}$$

1. Can do a confidence interval or a  $T$ -score test.
2. With Viagra,  $\hat{p}_1 = 77/6000000 = 0.00001283$  and without Viagra  
 $\hat{p}_2 = 11/1500000 = 0.00000733$ .
3. Need to test whether these are equal.

## Confidence Interval

With a 95% confidence interval for  $(p_1 - p_2)$  you get an interval

$$(1.06 \times 10^{-5}, 3.04 \times 10^{-7})$$

This doesn't contain zero. The evidence is that the proportion is higher.

1. Measured very accurately as  $n$  is large even though  $p$  is small.
2. With testing might use a one-sided test and an  $\alpha$  of 0.01.

Difference of proportions:

```
> prop.test(x=c(11, 77), n=c(1500000, 6000000),  
correct = F, alternative = "greater")
```

## Electronic Arts

**EA** SimCity 5, one of EA's most popular video games, sold 1.1 million copies in the first two weeks of its launch last year. 50% of digital sales due to a A/B testing strategy.

Promotion banner or not?

Surprising results: The variation with no offer messaging whatsoever drove 43.4% more purchases.

Confounding variables?

## R: abtest

Examine whether a black or pink background results in more purchases Run experiment for one week:

- ▶ Pink background: 40% purchase rate with 500 visitors
- ▶ Black background: 30% purchase rate with 550 visitors

abtest to see which is more effective

Purchase rate for the pink background is significantly higher

```
> abtestfunc(site1, site2)
[1] 37.2 42.8
[1] 27.5 32.5
```

# Google

Google offers A/B Testing

## Create an A/B test

Follow these steps to create a simple A/B test.

An A/B test is a randomized experiment using two or more variants of the same web page (A and B). Variant A is the original and variant B through n each contain at least one element that is modified from the original.

### *In this article:*



- [Create a hypothesis](#)
- [Create an A/B test](#)
- [The variants card](#)
- [The configuration card](#)
- [Start your experiment](#)
- [How long should your experiment run?](#)
- [Experiment management options](#)
- [Reports](#)
- [Related resources](#)

Figure: Steps to create A/B testing on Google

## Netflix

- ▶ Every product change Netflix considers goes through a rigorous A/B testing process before becoming the default user experience. Adaptive streaming and content delivery network algorithms.

## It's All A/Bout Testing: The Netflix Experimentation Platform



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Apr 29, 2016 · 11 min read

Ever wonder how Netflix serves a great streaming experience with high-quality video and minimal playback interruptions? Thank the team of engineers and data scientists who constantly A/B test their innovations to our adaptive streaming and content delivery network algorithms. What about more obvious changes, such as the complete redesign of our UI layout or our new personalized homepage? Yes, all thoroughly A/B tested.

## Discovering Argon

Lord Rayleigh won the Nobel Prize for **discovering Argon**.

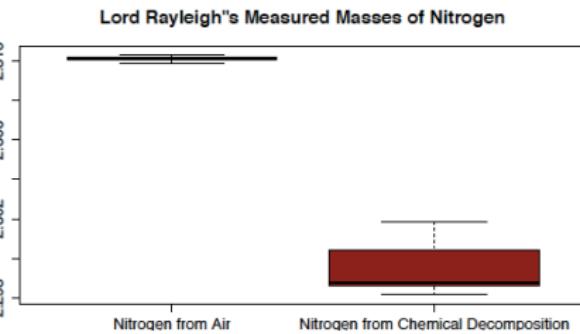
This discovery occurred when he noticed a small discrepancy between two sets of measurements on nitrogen gas that he had extracted from the air and one he had made in the lab.

1. **First**, he removed all oxygen from a sample of air. He measured the density of the remaining gas in a fixed volume at constant temperature and pressure.
2. **Second**, he prepared the same volume of pure nitrogen by the chemical decomposition of nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ) and nitric oxide  $NO$ .

Here's the results

# Data

Lord Rayleigh's data ...



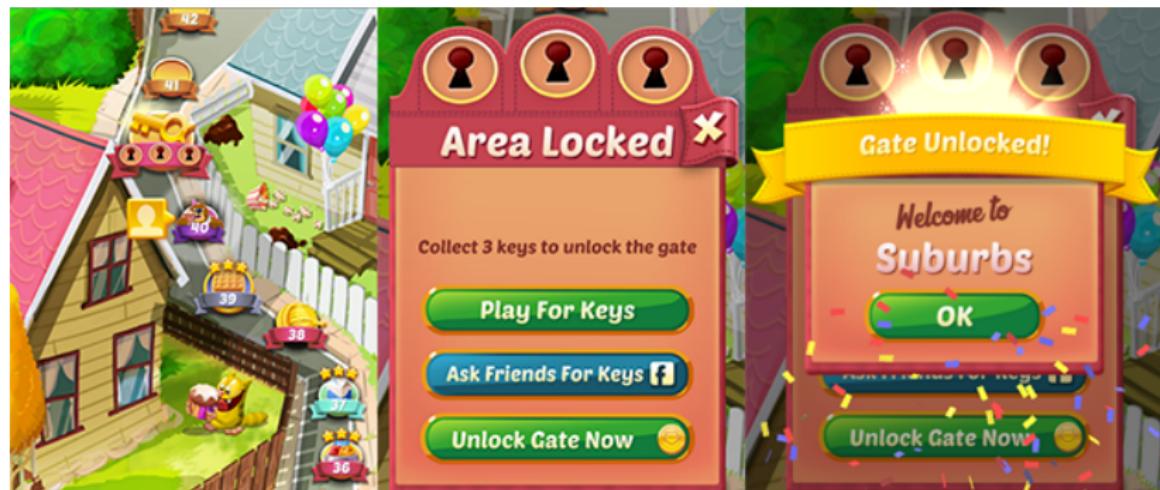
	From air	From chemical decomposition
2.31017		2.30143
2.30986		2.29890
2.31010		2.29816
2.31001		2.30182
2.31024		2.29869
2.31010		2.29940
2.31028		2.29849
—		2.29889
average		
2.31011		2.29947
st dev		
0.00014		0.00138

## Discovering Argon in R

```
t.test(a,b,var.equal=T)  
  
t = 20.2137, df = 13, p-value = 3.321e-11  
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0  
95 percent confidence interval:  
 0.009499327 0.011772816  
sample estimates:  
mean of x mean of y  
 2.310109 2.299473
```

- ▶ There's a  $T = 20.21$ ! We've found Argon!

# Cookie Cats



## Cookie Cats: AB Testing

	retention_1	retention_7	sum_gamerounds
gate_30	[0.444, 0.453]	[0.187, 0.194]	[50.076, 54.836]
gate_40	[0.438, 0.447]	[0.178, 0.186]	[50.350, 52.248]
Observation	Overlap	No Overlap	Overlap
Decision	No Difference	Difference	No Difference

## Observational Studies vs Field Experiments

Does owning a Tesla mean you have more money in the bank?

- ▶ I could go and buy a Tesla!

How do I test this? randomized experiment

- ▶ Randomly pick 100 and split into two groups 50/50
- ▶ Each person in the first group (treatment) gets a Tesla
- ▶ Each person in the second group (control) gets a Chevy
- ▶ In two years we compare average amount of money in each group

How to you test for difference between Booth and Kellogg?

## Randomized Controlled Trials: Nobel Prize 2019

On Oct 14, 2019 Duflo, Banerjee and Kremer got the prize for “for their experimental approach to alleviating global poverty.”

- ▶ Experiment-based approach has transformed development economics
- ▶ Three ingredients: Right question + carefully designed experiment + statistical hypothesis testing
- ▶ Most of the traditional economic models are based on observational data
- ▶ Randomized experiments are the gold standard for understanding causality.  
Otherwise hard to distinguish correlation from causation.

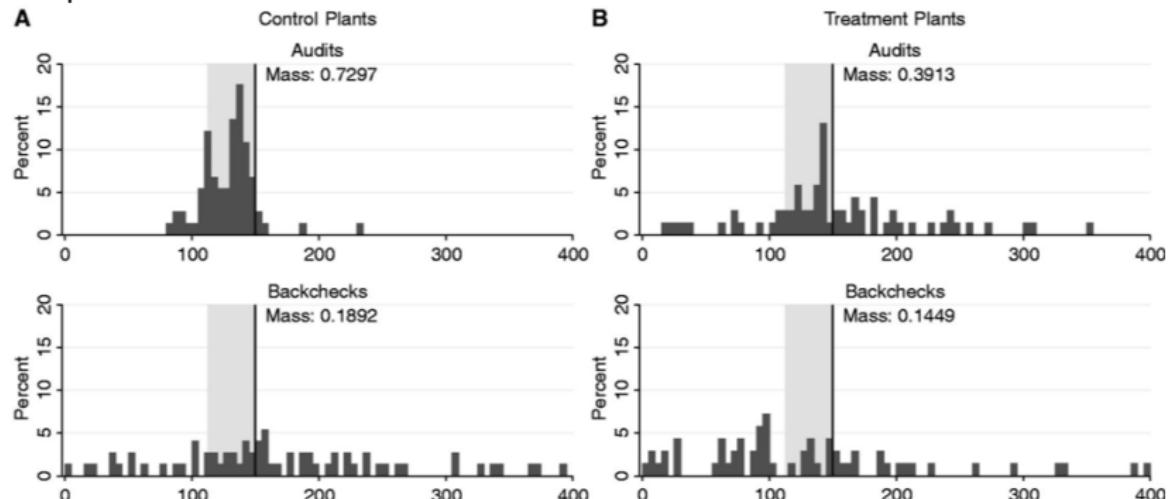
## How do we collect data: Field Experiment

Field experiments (a.k.a randomized experiments) are standard in natural sciences (medicine, agriculture,...)

- ▶ They are standard in many business applications (AB testing)
- ▶ Now standard in policy analysis (the prize)
- ▶ What are the issues when we do not randomize?

# Field Experiments: Pollution Reduction Policy in India

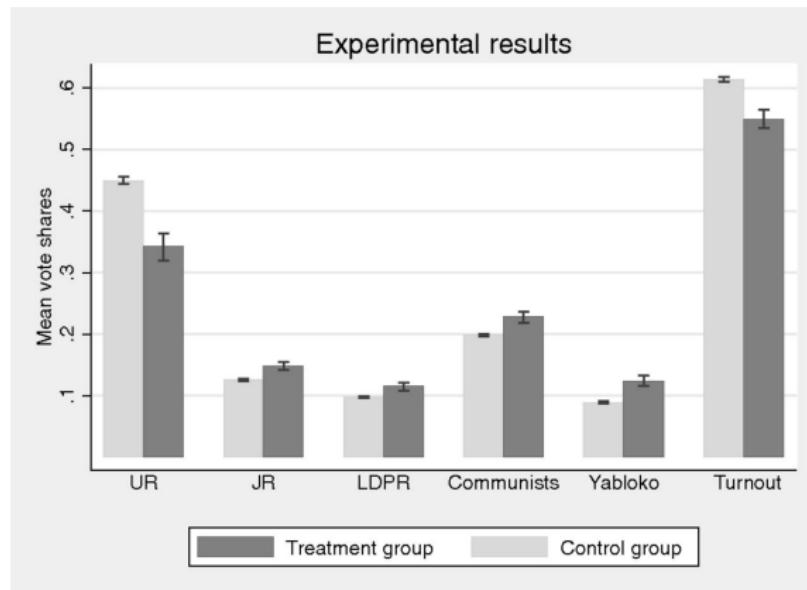
## Suspended Particulate Matter concentrations



Source: Duflo 2013: Truth-telling by Third-party Auditors and the Response of Polluting Firms: Experimental Evidence from India

## Field Experiments: Russian Election Fraud

Independent observers were randomly assigned to 156 of 3,164 polling stations in the city of Moscow



Source: Field experiment estimate of electoral fraud in Russian parliamentary elections

## Coming Next: The Predictive Culture

Making a good prediction is arguably the most valuable application of machine learning and statistics in business problems.

- ▶ Instead of building a causal/interpretable/intuitive model the goal is to build a model that predicts well.
- ▶ This leads to very complex functions  $f(x)$ , e.g. Deep Learning!

Coming soon to economics!

## Summary

- ▶ Estimating Parameters and Fitting Distributions
- ▶ Confidence and Prediction Intervals
- ▶ Means, Proportions, Differences
- ▶ A/B Testing