STAT 305: Lecture 3

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Chapter 2: Data Collection

Quick Recap: Populations and Samples

Recap

Making Generalizations

When performing an experiment or gathering data in an observational study, the (main?) goal is to take the information you learn and apply it *outside* of your experiment - i.e., to make *generalizations*. For instance, we may wish to

- describe a relationship between two groups when we do not have the time or ability to gather information from from each member of the two groups,
- use the results of our experiment to predict the outcome of a scenario that has not yet occured,
- explain what part of a process are making the largest contribution to inconsistent results, and so on.

Our ability to make *valid* generalizations heavily depends on the validity of two parts of the study's setup: our **population** and our **sample**.

Recap

Populations

def: A **population** is the entire group of objects about which one wishes to gather information in a statistical study.

Important: A study's population should be *clearly described* - there should be no question about which objects are in the population and which are not. If a study's population is *not clearly described*, then regardless of how well you execute the mechanics of the study, you will be left with the following conclusion:

> In conclusion, after performing this study we can safely say that our results can be applied to ???

Quick question:

If our goal is to make statements about a population,
why don't we just study the population?

Recap

Recap

Populations

- Logistical issues
- Timeless
- Expensive
- Destructive to the objects under study
- ...

Recap

Samples

def: A **sample** is the group of objects on which one actually gathers data.

These should be members of the population about which one wishes to gather information in a statistical study.

Recap

Getting Samples

The purpose of the sample is to be a representation of the population that can actually be studied in depth. Thus, the goal when gathering the sample is to make sure that there is no question that the sample actually does represent the population. A good sampling tecnique gives your study a indisputable connection between the sample and the population.

The gold standard of sampling methods is **Simple Random Sampling**. Using SRS, every possible sample of the same size has the same likelihood of being the sample used in the study.

Recap

Getting Samples

However, real-world physical constraints may make simple random essentially impossible. In other words, there are "possible samples" from our population that are more likely to used in our study than others. The degree to which our study makes using some samples more likely than others is called **bias**.

In this case, we may have to make (or ask others to make) additional assumptions in order to minimize *the impact of the biased sampling* and still connect the sample we have with the population we are interested in.

Recap

Getting Samples

Example: In a study of lifetime of lightbulbs, we took 100 consecutive lightbulbs off the factory line and measured their effective lifetime. We found that approximately 95% of lightbulbs survived 2,000 hours of use. We determine that 95% of the lightbulbs produced by our plant will survive 2,000 of use.

- population:
- sample:
- hidden assumption connecting the sample and the population:
- highly biased?:

Recap

Getting Samples

Example: In a study of video games effects on emotions, 200 college students were asked how often they played video games and how often they felt angry. The researches found a strong positive correlation between the number of hours spent playing video games and the number of times the student felt anger. They concluded that video games led to increased anger.

- population:
- sample:
- hidden assumption connecting the sample and the population:
- highly biased?:

Recap

Getting Samples

Example: As part of a study of the health of animals on campus, a field worker set traps and captured 200 squirrels. Once captured, a squirrel was measured and weighed, had it's age estimated, and blood was drawn to test for disease. After being held for a day, the squirrel was chipped and returned to the wild. The researchers reported that squirrels on campus were underweight.

- population:
- sample:
- hidden assumption connecting the sample and the population:
- highly biased?:

Quick Overview of Chapter 2

What We Need To Know

Section 2.1:

General Principles in the Collection of Engineering Data

(Read on Your Own)

Section 2.2:

Sampling in Enumerative Studies

Recap

Data Collection

General Principles

Section 2.2: Data Collection in Enumerative Studies

- Enumerative studies: well defined population and sample taken from that population.

- Most useful way to create the sample: **Simple Random Sampling** - any group of n objects has the same chance of composing the sample as any other group of n objects.

- Suppose we have the alphabet (A, B, C, ..., Z) and wish to use simple random sampling to draw 3 letters. This means that the trio "F, M, Q" and the trio "A, B, C" have the same chance of being the letters that compose our sample.

- "Random" is tough to do correctly on your own. There are a few simple tools, like *random number tables* or *pseudo random number generators*, that help us.

Recap

Data
Collection

General
Principles

Get a SRS

Using Random Numbers to Get a Sample

- These tables are generated randomly - each place on the table is equally likely to be filled by any one of the numbers 0 - 9.

- The tables are created by taking advantage of some process that is physically random - radioactive decay or white noise for instance.

- RANDOM.org for example uses the amount of atmospheric static to generate the numbers.

- To use the randomly generated numbers to get a sample, simply assign a unique value to each item and take the items as they are generated.

Recap

Data
Collection

General
Principles

Get a SRS

Using a Random Number Table

For a simple random sample of size (n) from a population of size (N),

1. let m be the length in digits of N (for instance, if $N = 1032$ then $m = 4$
2. assign each item in the population a value between 1 and N
3. starting on the top left, box the first m digits. If the value is between 1 and N then take the item with that value assigned to it as part of your sample. Otherwise, box the next four letters.
4. continue until you have selected n items

Table 2.2

12159 66144 05091 13446 45653 13684 66024 91410 51351 22772
30156 90519 95785 47544 66735 35754 11088 67310 19720 08379
59069 01722 53338 41942 65118 71236 01932 70343 25812 62275
54107 58081 82470 59407 13475 95872 16268 78436 39251 64247
99681 81295 06315 28212 45029 57701 96327 85436 33614 29070

Recap

Data
Collection

General
Principles

Get a SRS

Ex: SRS tools

Using a Random Number Table

Take a simple random sample of size 3 from a set of 25 microprocessors using Table 2.2:

1. In this case $m = 2$, and we are given $n = 3$ and $N = 25$.
2. Each microprocessor gets given a number from 1 to 25.
3. Begin selecting the items

Table 2.2

12159	66144	05091	13446	45653	13684	66024	91410	51351	22772
30156	90519	95785	47544	66735	35754	11088	67310	19720	08379
59069	01722	53338	41942	65118	71236	01932	70343	25812	62275
54107	58081	82470	59407	13475	95872	16268	78436	39251	64247
99681	81295	06315	28212	45029	57701	96327	85436	33614	29070

4. **Result**: select the microprocessors labeled 12, 15, and 05

Recap

Data Collection

General Principles

Get a SRS

Ex: SRS tools

Using pseudo-random numbers

```
sample(1:25,3) # some R code to get SRS of size 3
```

R output

sample(LETTERS,3)

[1] "S" "D" "Y"

sample(letters, 3)

[1] "q" "m" "i"

sample(1:25, 3)

[1] 20 19 24

Section 2.3

Principles for Effective Experimentation

The Ideal Experiment Structure
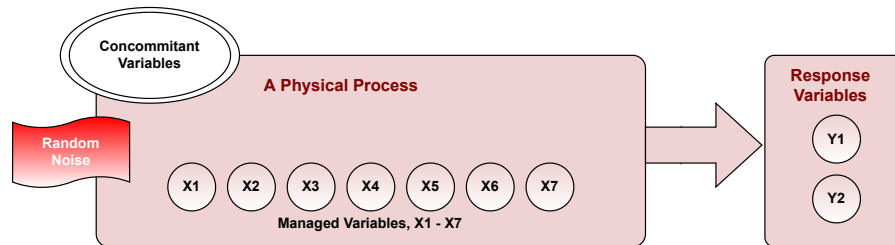

A few terms to help us make sense of the natural complexity of characteristics influencing system performance:

- **Response variable**: the characteristic indicating system performance which is being monitored.

- **Supervised** or **managed variable**: the characteristics of the system that the investigator can control.

  - **Controlled variable**: a supervised variable that is held constant throughout the experiment.

  - **Experimental variable**: a supervised variable that is given several different settings during the experiment.

Recap

Data
Collection

Exp.
Principles

Taxonomy

The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

- **Blocking variables**: characteristics of the system that can be manipulated to create homogeneous environments within which to compare the effects of the primary experimental variables.

  - This is essentially extending the idea of control variables - we just create several environments with different controls.
  - How to recognize - the comparisons are not made comparing results from one block to results from another but instead comparing results inside a block.

- A **block** of objects under study is a homogeneous group where different levels of experimental variables can be applied and compared in a relatively uniform environment.

The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

Example on blocking

Back to machine parts testing example in lecture 2, in a shipment of 5000 parts. The goal is to verify that the parts are as strong as we anticipated. Assume the hardness of the parts are pre-specified by the seller and come in separate batches. Assume there are four levels of hardness (3.0, 3.2, 3.4, 3.6)

- We might want to test the Rockwell Hardness test across specimens of various hardness levels.
  - We then take samples from each batch
  - Hardness level is the blocking variable

The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

- **Concomitant variable**: characteristics that are observed but are not managed or responses. Could be influenced by either experimental variables or unobserved causes. May or may not have an influence on the response.
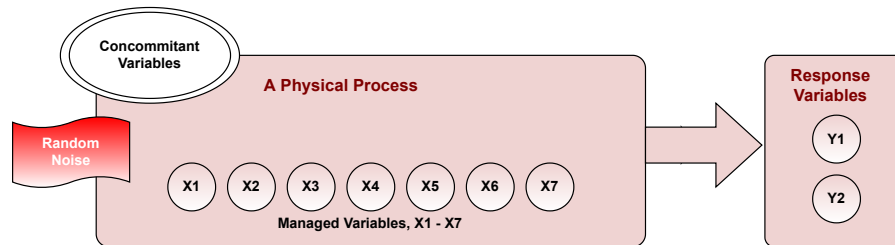
The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

Extraneous Variables

There are lots characteristics that could influence the response but are not of primary interest to the experimenter. For instance,

- The experimenter could be unaware of their importance,
- There may be no way to control them in the experimental setting,
- There may be no way to control them outside of the experimental setting,

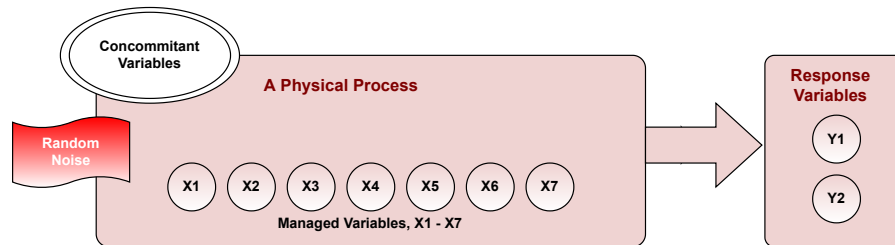However, if we ignore them completely, their effect won't just disappear - it could ruin our experiment.

The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

There are two common ways to attempt to account for these effects:

1. **Blocking**: Treat the extraneous variables as blocking variables

2. **Randomization**: assign runs of the experiment to the different levels of the extraneous variables randomly, with the hope that it balances out in the end.
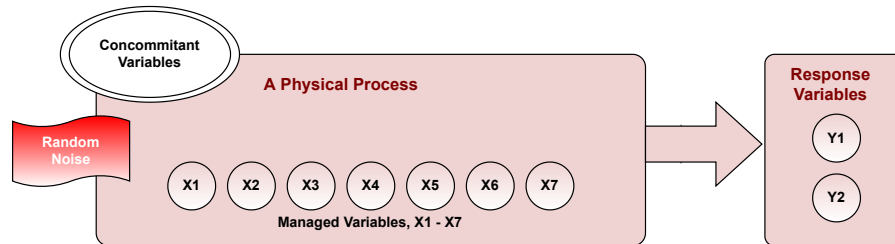
Recap

Data
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Exp.
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Taxonomy

Extraneous
Vars

The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

Example: In the heat treating example (example 1in Chapter 1), Loading method was the primary experimental variable. Extraneous variables **Steel Heat** and **Machining History** were controlled by experimenting on 78 gears from the same heat code, machined as a lot. Then 78 gears were randomly assigned to two groups (one group were laid and the other were hung from a bar). Without randomization, unintended changes in measurement techniqes would appear in the data as differences between the two loading methods.

Practice with measurement equipment might increase the precision and make the later measurements to be more uniform than the early ones.
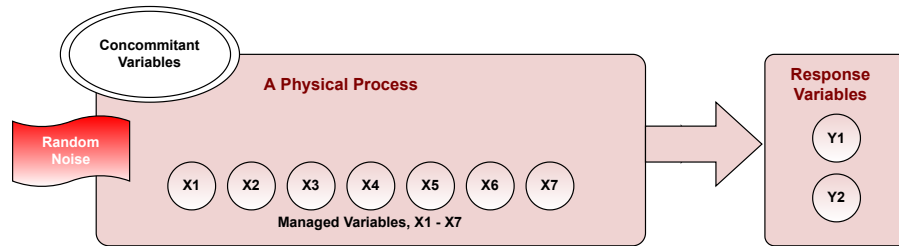
The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

Common Advice: Block what you can control and randomize the rest (common, not necessarily good though - what can be controlled not universal).

The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.
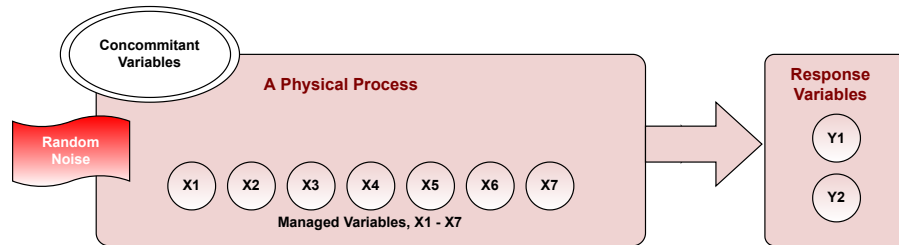

Comparative study: Need a valid point of reference - so if we want to know if the new is better than the old, you better try to get some comparable data on the old as well. Without comparison, there is no firm basis on which to say that any effects observed come from the new conditions under study rather than from unexpected extraneous sources.

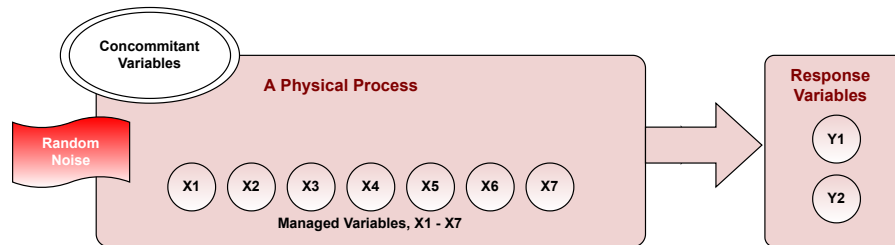**Repitition**: Multiple responses measured from the same conditions.

The Ideal Experiment Structure, cont.

Discussion: Example 7, pg. 39

- Three types of wood and three types of glue, two students sought to investigate joint strength.

- Issues: *drying time* and *pressure applied* during drying also important; smooth vs. rough wood; wood species have different moisture contents; the experiment is performed over two time periods.

- Approach: all wood/glue combinations dried 90 minutes with same pressure applied, moisture content of wood type measured before gluing.