

**Welcome to Week #7!**

**Reminder: Midterm check-in due this Friday**

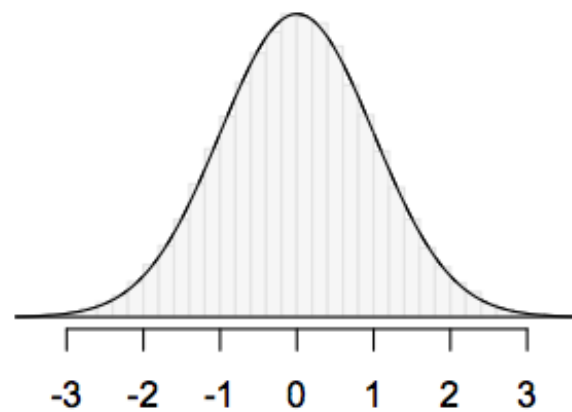
**Additionally: feedback survey**

**Also: Nov 3 office hours**

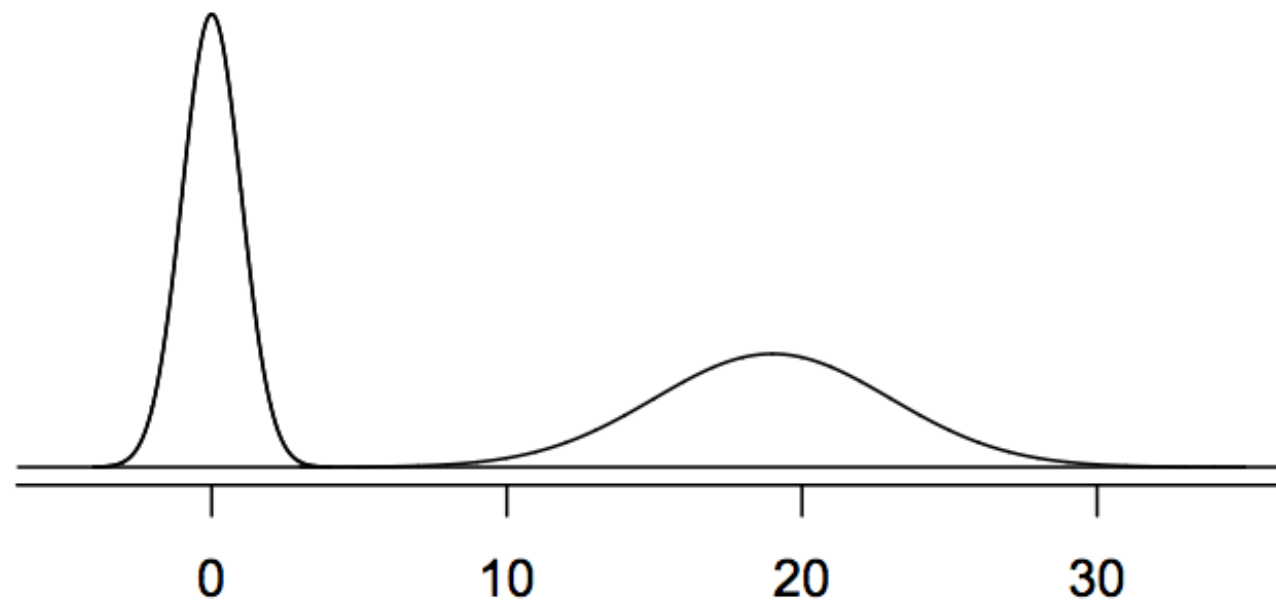
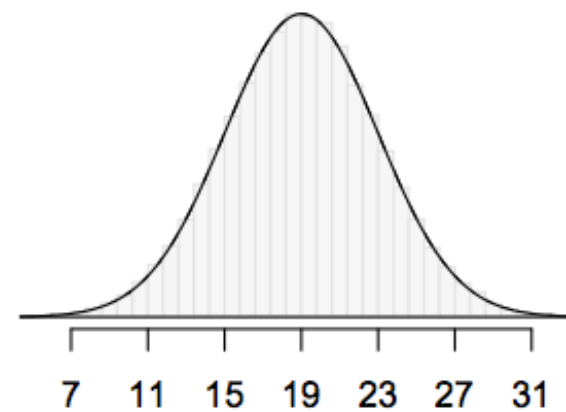
# Normal distributions with different parameters

$\mu$ : mean,  $\sigma$ : standard deviation

$$N(\mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$$



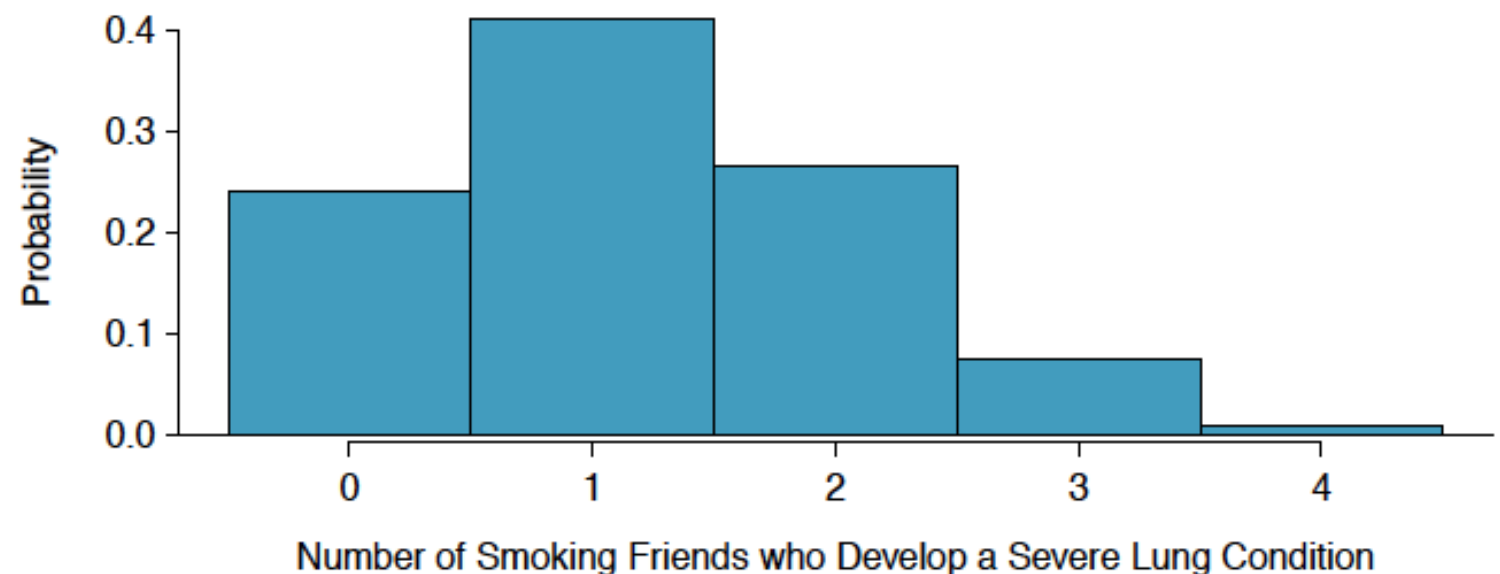
$$N(\mu = 19, \sigma = 4)$$



# The Binomial distribution (cont.)

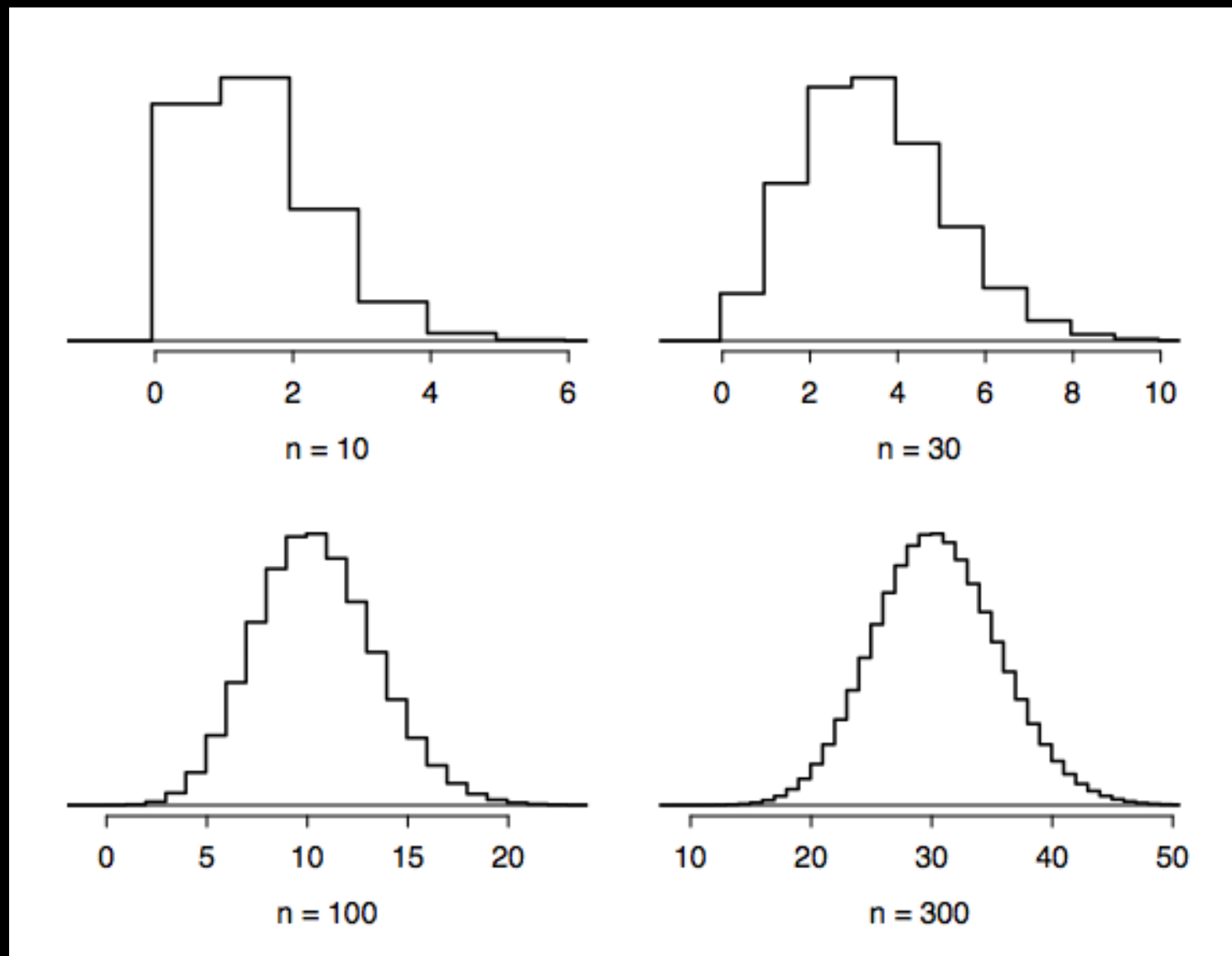
Once the probabilities of each value are calculated using the binomial formula, a probability histogram can be drawn in order to visualize the distribution. Like any distribution, the binomial distribution has a mean and a standard deviation.

$x_i$	$p_i$
0	$\binom{4}{0}(0.3)^0(0.7)^4 = 0.240$
1	$\binom{4}{1}(0.3)^1(0.7)^3 = 0.412$
2	$\binom{4}{2}(0.3)^2(0.7)^2 = 0.265$
3	$\binom{4}{3}(0.3)^3(0.7)^1 = 0.076$
4	$\binom{4}{4}(0.3)^4(0.7)^0 = 0.008$



# Distributions of number of successes

Hollow histograms of samples from the binomial model where  $p = 0.10$  and  $n = 10, 30, 100,$  and  $300$ . What happens as  $n$  increases?



See this applet with sliders for  $n$  and  $p$  to see how shape binomial distribution changes as  $n$  and  $p$  change:

<http://www.stat.berkeley.edu/~stark/Java/Html/BinHist.htm>

*Note: the scales on the histograms are different!*

**Foundations for Inference - How well can we really know anything?**

### Normal approximation of the binomial distribution

The binomial distribution with probability of success  $p$  is nearly normal when the sample size  $n$  is sufficiently large that  $np$  and  $n(1 - p)$  are both at least 10. The approximate normal distribution has parameters corresponding to the mean and standard deviation of the binomial distribution:

$$\mu = np \qquad \sigma = \sqrt{np(1 - p)}$$

### CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM AND THE SUCCESS-FAILURE CONDITION

When observations are independent and the sample size is sufficiently large, the sample proportion  $\hat{p}$  will tend to follow a normal distribution with the following mean and standard error:

$$\mu_{\hat{p}} = p \qquad SE_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1 - p)}{n}}$$

In order for the Central Limit Theorem to hold, the sample size is typically considered sufficiently large when  $np \geq 10$  and  $n(1 - p) \geq 10$ , which is called the **success-failure condition**.

## CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM FOR THE SAMPLE MEAN

When we collect a sufficiently large sample of  $n$  independent observations from a population with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , the sampling distribution of  $\bar{x}$  will be nearly normal with

$$\text{Mean} = \mu$$

$$\text{Standard Error (SE)} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

## RULES OF THUMB: HOW TO PERFORM THE NORMALITY CHECK

There is no perfect way to check the normality condition, so instead we use two rules of thumb:

**$n < 30$ :** If the sample size  $n$  is less than 30 and there are no clear outliers in the data, then we typically assume the data come from a nearly normal distribution to satisfy the condition.

**$n \geq 30$ :** If the sample size  $n$  is at least 30 and there are no *particularly extreme* outliers, then we typically assume the sampling distribution of  $\bar{x}$  is nearly normal, even if the underlying distribution of individual observations is not.

TO R!



# Key Insights about how well we know the “average” number representing a sample:

Let's say we want to know the average observation (sample mean) from a random sample taken from a population (usually the case, very rarely can we sample the entirety of the population):

- \*IF\* the samples are independent (e.g. randomly sampled)
  - \*IF\* the sample size is “large enough” (typically > 30 observations)
  - \*IF\* the underlying population distribution is not strongly skewed
- This is admittedly a bit “hand-wavy” and not rigorous (stay tuned for your future stats classes!)**

THEN

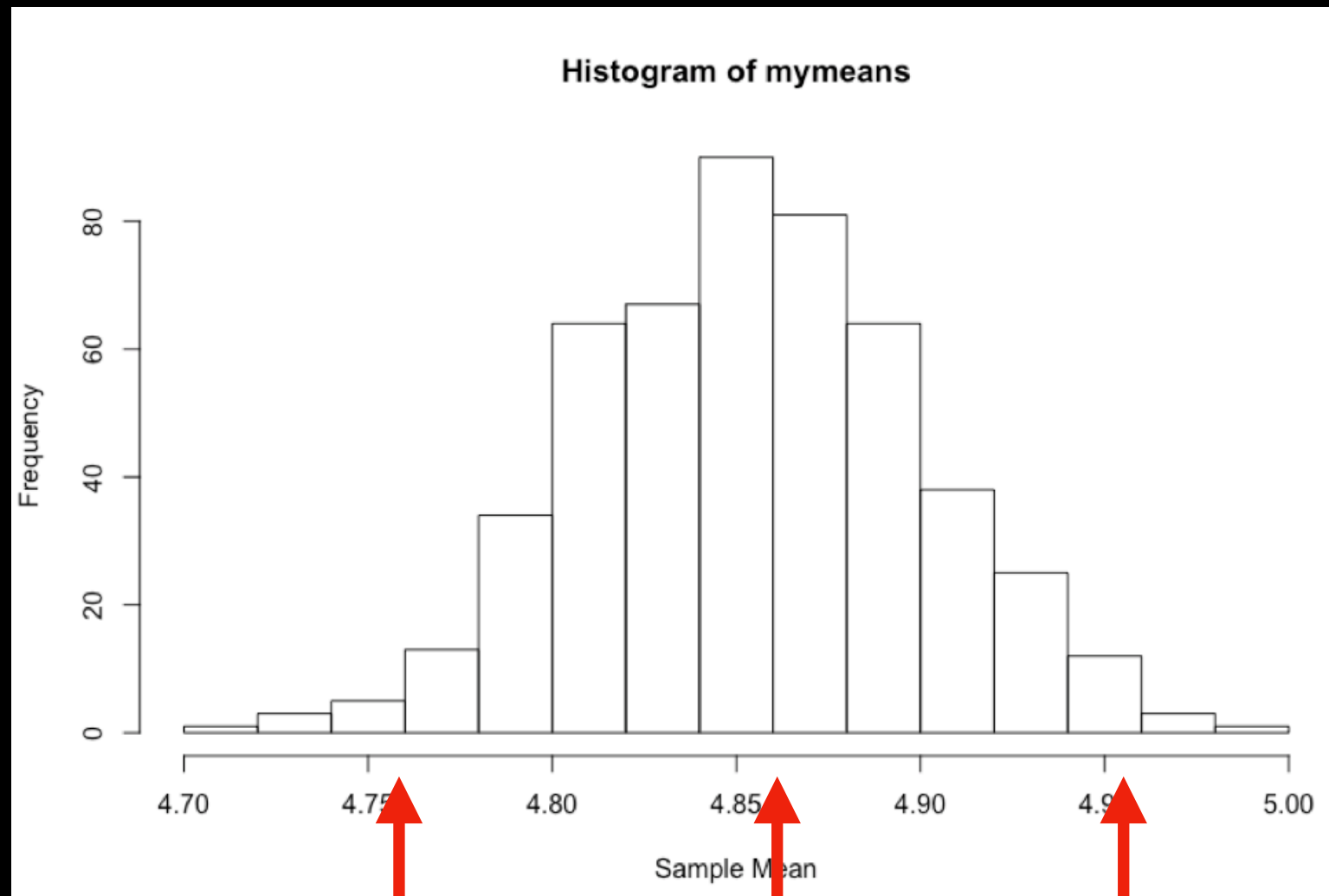
1. The “average” value of this population mean is the sample mean
2. The error on the measurement of the mean is given by the “standard error”:

$SE = s/n^{1/2}$  **If you are curious, this comes from:**

$$\text{Var}(\frac{1}{n} \sum X_i) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum \text{Var}(X_i) = \frac{1}{n^2} \times \sum \sigma^2 = \frac{n}{n^2} \sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

Where “s” is the standard deviation of the sample & n is the number of samples

# Confidence Intervals

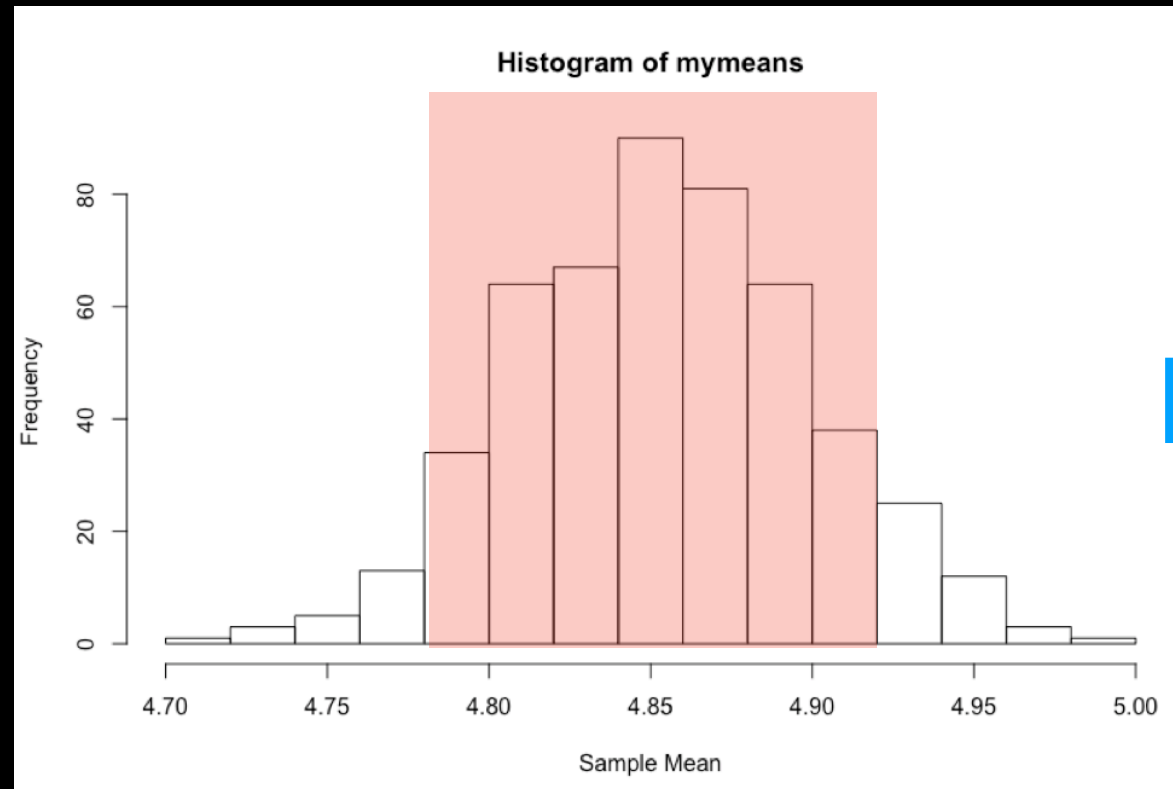


**“Real” (Population) Mean**

**But I’m pretty sure the mean is somewhere in this interval**

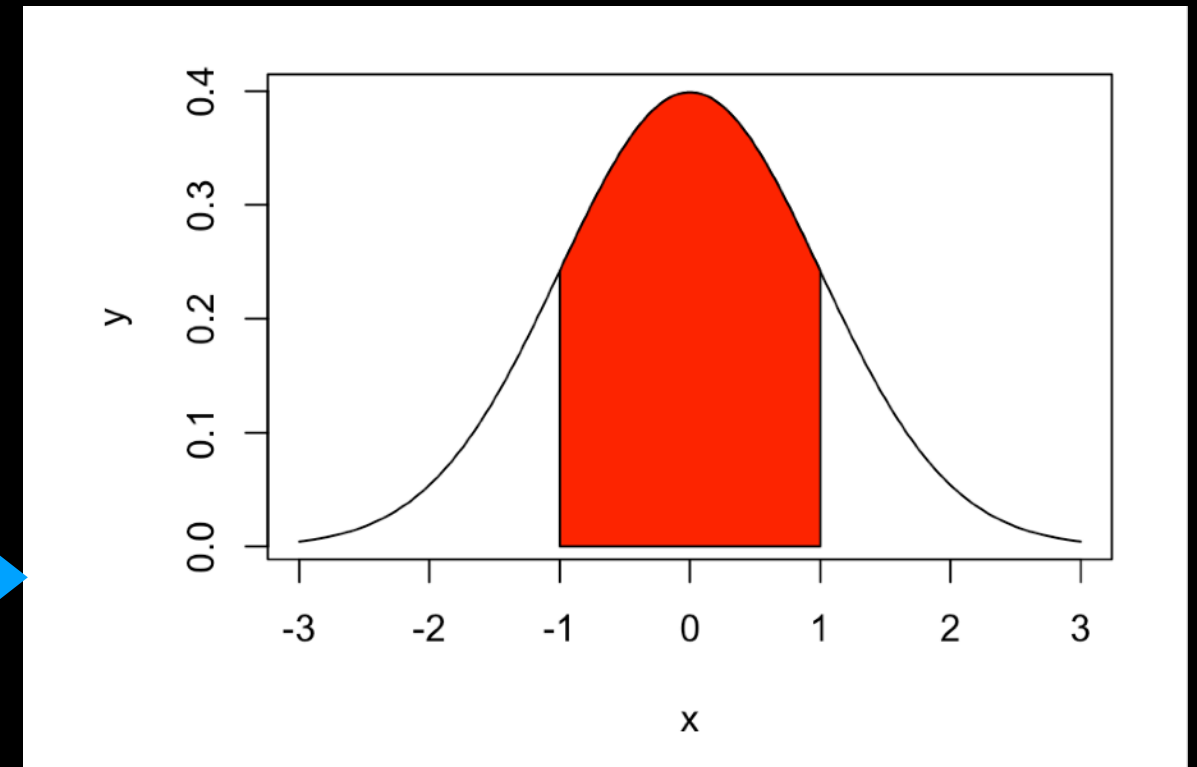
# Confidence Intervals

~Normal

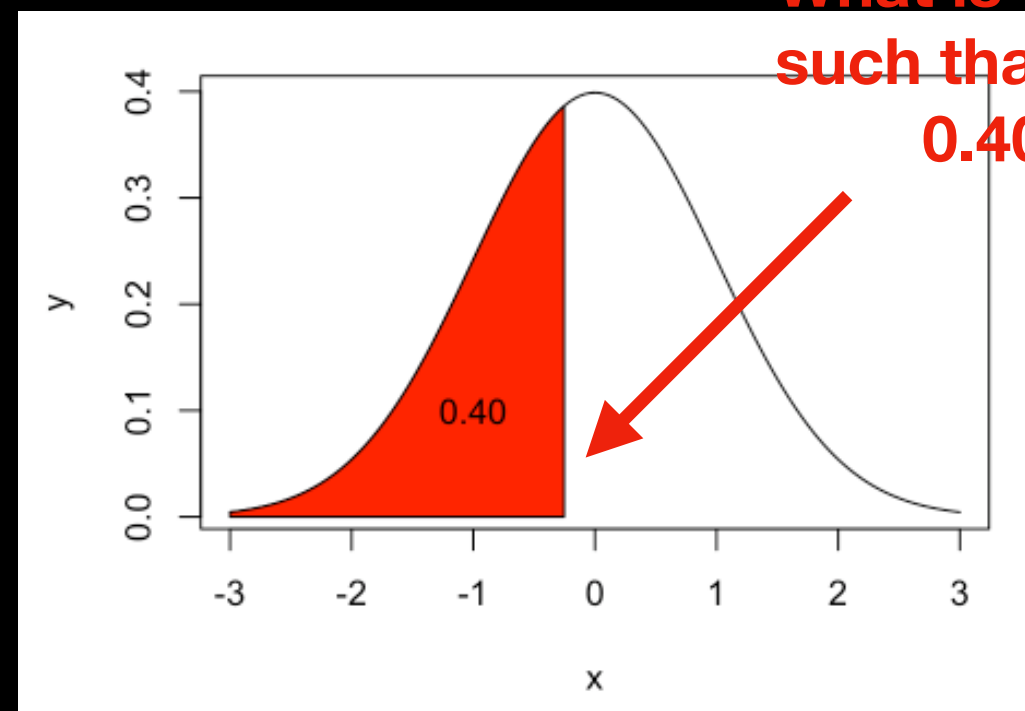


Where are we 95% confident  
the population mean is in  
between?

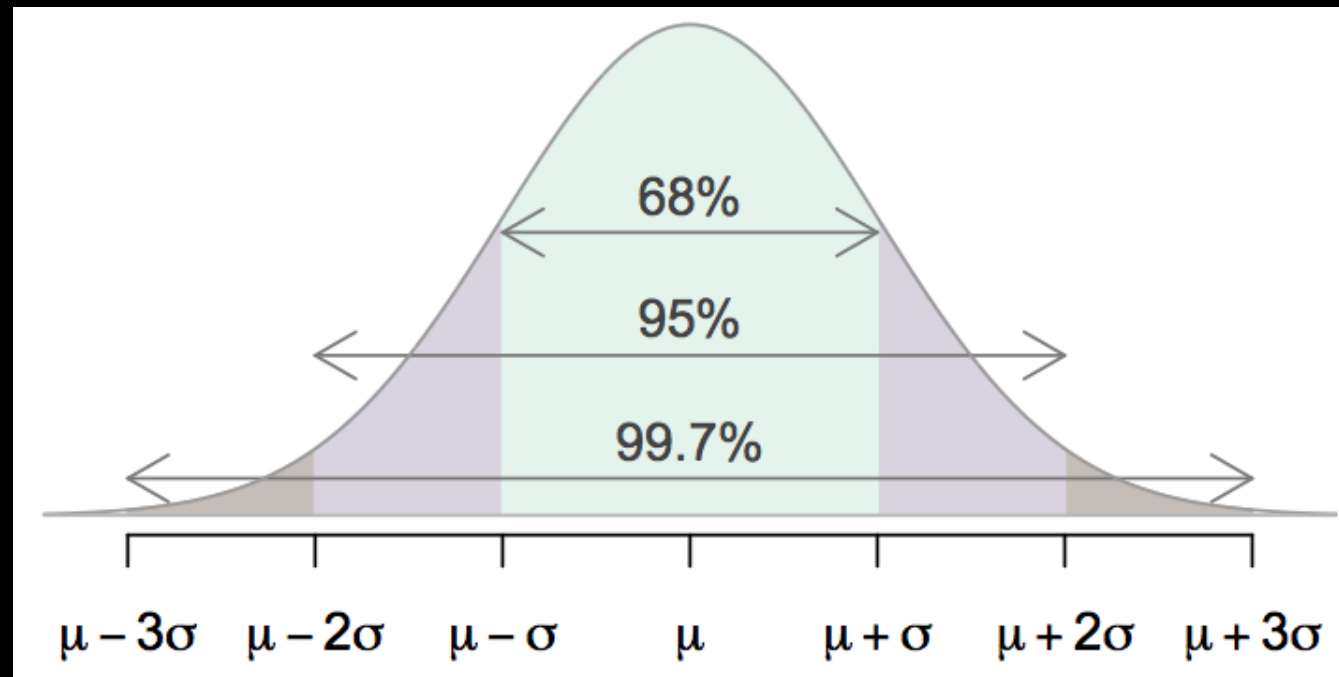
Recall:



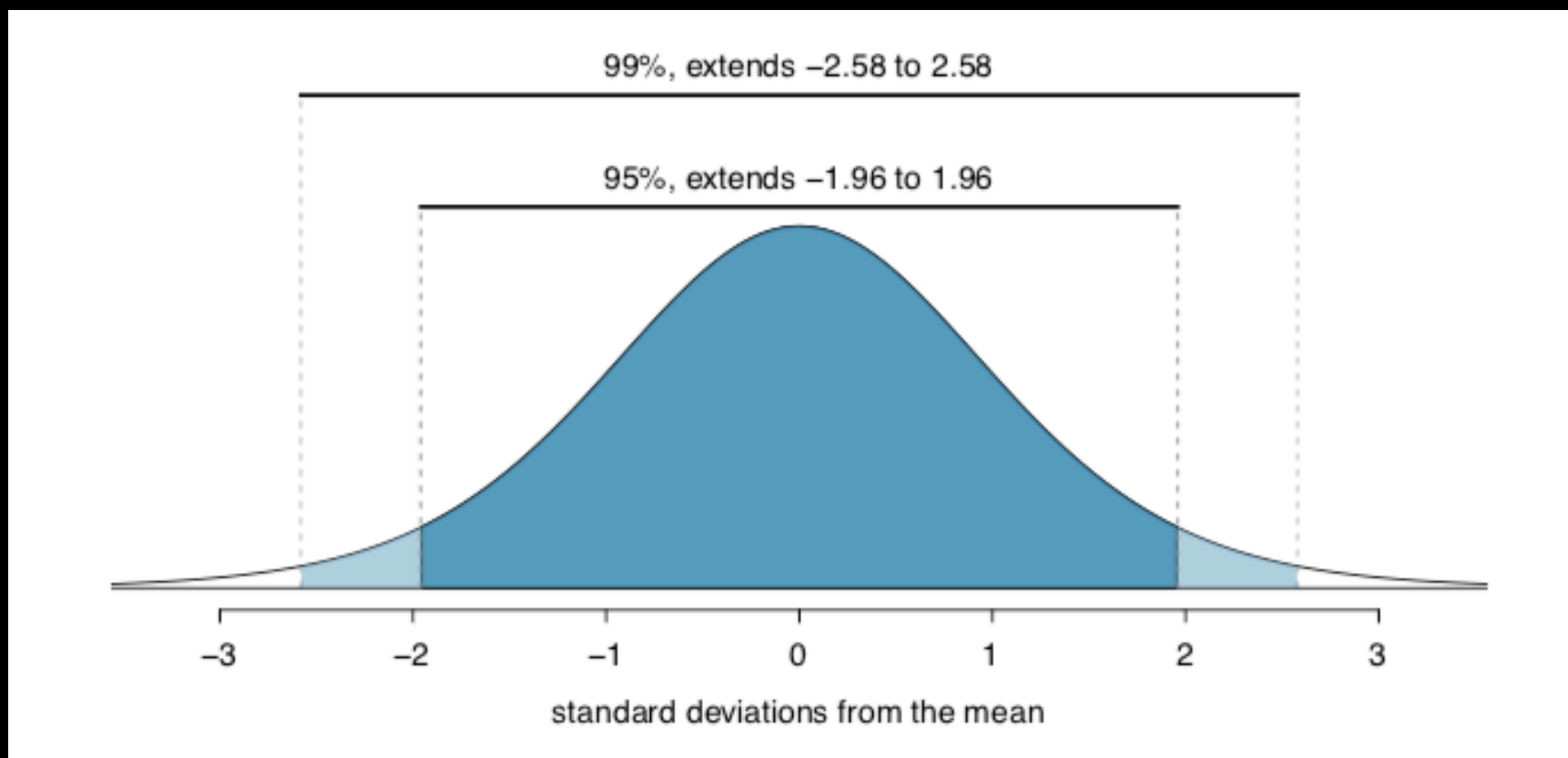
What is this number  
such that red area =  
0.40 (40%)



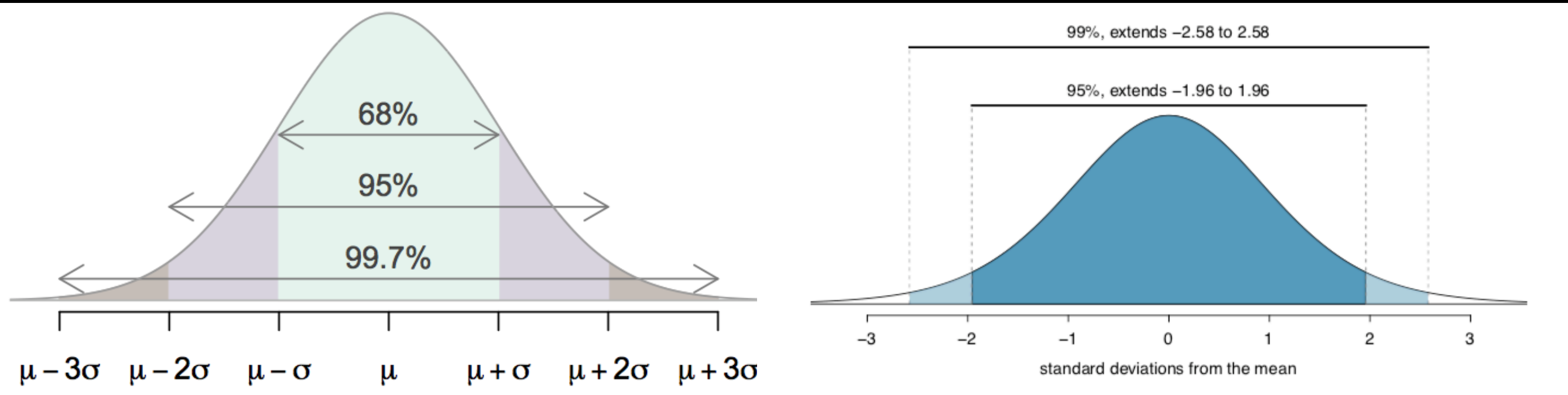
# Confidence Intervals



**95% of the distribution is within approximately 2 SE from the mean**



# Confidence Intervals



**Practically: We say the 95% confidence interval for a population's mean is:**

**sample mean  $\pm$  1.96 X SE**

**Indeed, we can do this for any confidence interval requested in R.**

# Confidence Intervals: In general

point estimate  $\pm z^* \times SE$

“Point estimate” can be a  
mean, proportion,  
difference of means...

- In a confidence interval,  $z^* \times SE$  is called the **margin of error**, and for a given sample, the margin of error changes as the confidence level changes.
- In order to change the confidence level we need to adjust  $z^*$  in the above formula.

# Confidence Intervals: In general

$$\text{point estimate} \pm z^* \times SE$$

- In a confidence interval,  $z^* \times SE$  is called the **margin of error**, and for a given sample, the margin of error changes as the confidence level changes.
- In order to change the confidence level we need to adjust  $z^*$  in the above formula.
- Commonly used confidence levels in practice are 90%, 95%, 98%, and 99%.
- For a 95% confidence interval,  $z^* = 1.96$ .
- However, using the standard normal ( $z$ ) distribution, it is possible to find the appropriate  $z^*$  for any confidence level.

# Overview of next 2 Classes



# Hypothesis Testing Framework (Ch. 5-7)

The general outline of the process:

1. Set the hypotheses. ?

For a single mean this will look like:

?  $H_0: \mu = \text{null value}$  ?

?  $H_A: \mu < \text{or } > \text{ or } \neq \text{ null value}$

2. Check assumptions and conditions

3. Calculate a test statistic and a p-value ?

4. Make a decision, and interpret it in context

- If p-value  $< \alpha$ , reject  $H_0$ ,  
? there is sufficient evidence for  $[H_A]$
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Provides a rigorous way  
to determine the answer  
with a specific level of  
confidence.

English



Math



English

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How do we frame our question into the “null” and “alternative” hypothesis framework? What are these different hypotheses?

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# Hypothesis Testing Framework (Ch. 5-7)

What distributions can we use to explore our sample?

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Is our sample large or small?

e.g. if we are asking a question about sample means, do we expect our sample means to be normally distributed?

Use a normal distribution (Ch 5)?  
t-distribution (Ch 7)?  
Chi-square (Ch 6)?

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**Calculate a number using our chosen distribution (e.g. the normal distribution) to see how “weird” a parameter of our sample is.**

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**Draw a “hard line” to determine if we can reject or we fail to reject the “null hypothesis”**

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**We have actually been  
doing this mathematically  
already, you just didn't  
know!**



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Let's look at some examples!

2. Check assumptions and conditions

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# Hypotheses: Definition

In statistics a hypothesis means a very specific thing (slightly different then, for example, a science definition): it is a claim to be tested

H<sub>0</sub>, Null Hypothesis: the “default”, “standard” or currently accepted claim, the currently accepted value for a parameter. We start this process by assuming this is true.

H<sub>A</sub>, Alternative Hypothesis: the “research” hypothesis, or claim we need to test

## Possible Outcomes:

- (1) We say we “reject the null hypothesis” - i.e. H<sub>A</sub> is *more* true than H<sub>0</sub>
- (2) We say we “fail to reject the null hypothesis”

Note: we *cannot* say that H<sub>A</sub> or H<sub>0</sub> is true, only that one is *more likely* to be true than the other.

# Examples of stating Hypothesis: Practice #1

It is believed a candy machine makes peanut butter cups that are on average 5g. After maintenance, a worker claims the machine no longer makes the cups at a weight of 5g. What are  $H_0$  and  $H_A$ ? How do we write them in a statistical format?

The “default” or “previously assumed” claim is the null hypothesis

The alternative hypothesis is the claim to be tested

with math

$$H_0: \mu = 5g$$

$$H_A: \mu \neq 5g$$

population mean



# Examples of stating Hypothesis: Practice #2

**A company has stated their ping-pong machine makes ping-pongs that are 6mm in diameter. A worker believes the machine no longer makes ping-pongs of this size and samples 100 ping-pongs to perform a hypothesis test with 99% confidence. What are  $H_0$  and  $H_A$ ?**

**Think on it for a moment!**

# Examples of stating Hypothesis: Practice #3

Doctors believe that the average teen sleeps on average no longer than 10 hours per day. A researcher believes that teens on average sleep longer. What are  $H_0$  and  $H_A$ ?

# Examples of stating Hypothesis: Practice #4

**The school board claims that at least 55% of students bring an iPhone to school. A teacher believes this number is too high and randomly samples 25 students to test. What are  $H_0$  and  $H_A$ ?**

# Examples of stating Hypothesis: Practice #5

**A super fan of shopping says that on average buying socks on ebay is cheaper than in person at their local shop. A price comparison study has shown that prices for new socks are on average the same or more expensive on ebay as in their local store. Our shopper wants to setup a statistical test to see if their intuition is right. What are  $H_0$  and  $H_A$ ?**

# Summary: Set the hypothesis

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**tell us something about  
what tests we will perform  
(more in examples)**

2. Check assumptions and conditions

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Are we interested in a hypothesis about the population mean ( $\mu$ )?

Proportion (p)? (Ch. 5)

Difference of 2 means and/or paired data  
( $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ )? (Ch. 7)

Difference between observations and theorized results? (Ch. 6)  
(more in examples)

# Hypothesis Testing: Where we are going

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**Picking appropriate distributions and applying - Rest of Ch 5, and 6 & 7**

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(a) normal, large sample

(b) normal?, small sample

(c) observations & theory

## Test Statistics

(a) Z-score  $\rightarrow P(Z)$

(b) T-Score  $\rightarrow P(T)$

(c)  $\chi^2 \rightarrow P(\chi^2)$

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## Test Statistics

(a) Z-score  $\rightarrow P(Z)$

(b) T-Score  $\rightarrow P(T)$

(c)  $\chi^2 \rightarrow P(\chi^2)$

Compare Z-score, T-score or  $\chi^2$  to our level of significance -  $\alpha$  - to see if we can reject the null hypothesis (if the p-value of our test statistic  $< \alpha$ )

# Anatomy of a test statistic

The general form of a test statistic is

Only tricks are:  
(1) picking what the point and null values are based on our hypotheses

$$\frac{\text{point estimate} - \text{null value}}{\text{SE of point estimate}}$$

(2) what the form of the standard errors is based on what our underlying distribution looks like (normal, t-distribution,  $\chi^2$ )

This construction is based on

- identifying the difference between a point estimate and an expected value if the null hypothesis was true, and
- standardizing that difference using the standard error of the point estimate.

These two ideas will help in the construction of an appropriate test statistic for count data.