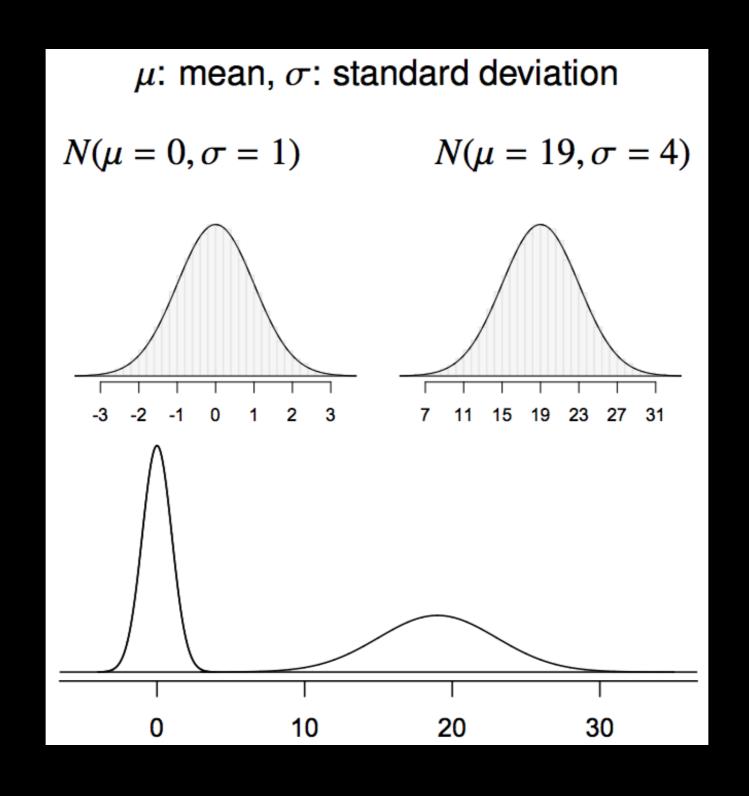
Welcome to Week #7!

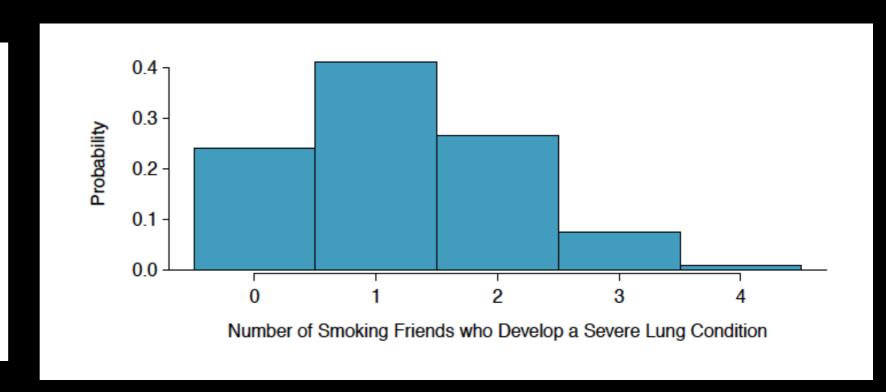
Normal distributions with different parameters



The Binomial distribution (cont.)

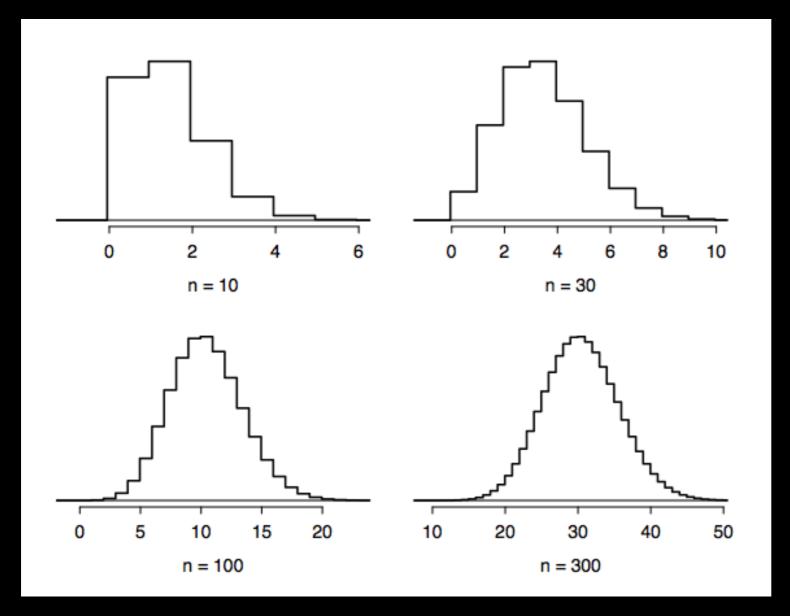
Once the probabilities of each value are calculated using the binomial formula, a probability histogram can be drawn in order to visualize the distribution. Like any distribution, the binomial distribution has a mean and a standard deviation.

$ \begin{array}{rcl} & a_1 & p_1 \\ \hline 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 \end{array} $	\boldsymbol{x}	n·
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 $\binom{4}{3}(0.3)^{3}(0.7)^{1} = 0.076$	$\frac{x_i}{0}$	$\frac{p_i}{\binom{4}{3}(0.3)^0(0.7)^4} = 0.240$
2 $\binom{4}{2}(0.3)^2(0.7)^2 = 0.265$ 3 $\binom{4}{3}(0.3)^3(0.7)^1 = 0.076$	1	(0)
$3 \qquad {4 \choose 3}(0.3)^3(0.7)^1 = 0.076$	_	(1)
	_	
4 $\binom{4}{4}(0.3)^4(0.7)^0 = 0.008$	3	
14.	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 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0.10}$ and $\mathbf{n} = 10$, 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:

$$\mu = np$$

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

Central Limit Theorem, informal description

If a sample consists of at least 30 independent observations and the data are not strongly skewed, then the distribution of the sample mean is well approximated by a normal model.

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Key Insights about how well we know the "average" number representing a sample:

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

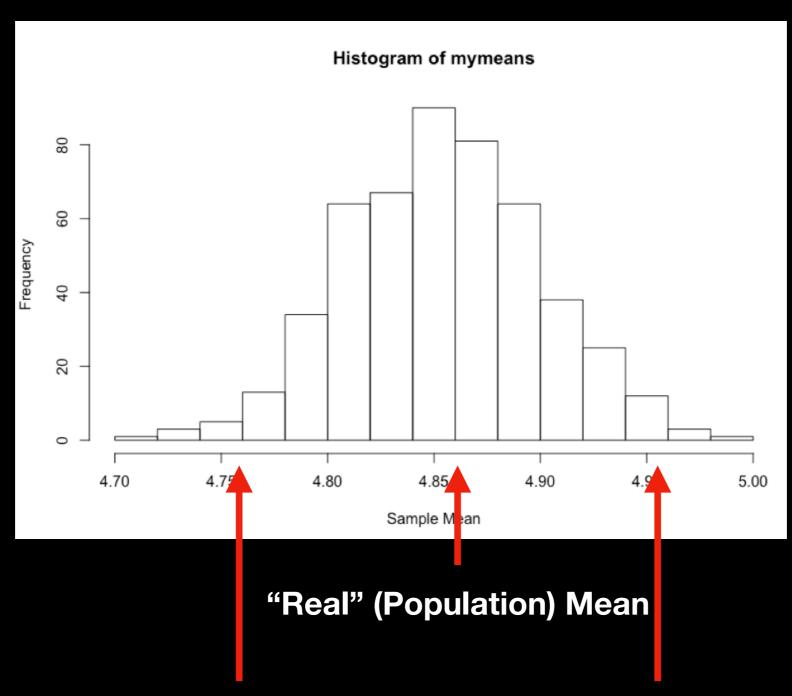
IF the samples are independent (e.g. randomly sampled) — "hand-wavy" and not *IF* the sample size is "large enough" (typically > 30 observations) rigorous *IF* the underlying population distribution is not strongly skewed (stay tuned for your future stats classes!)

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":

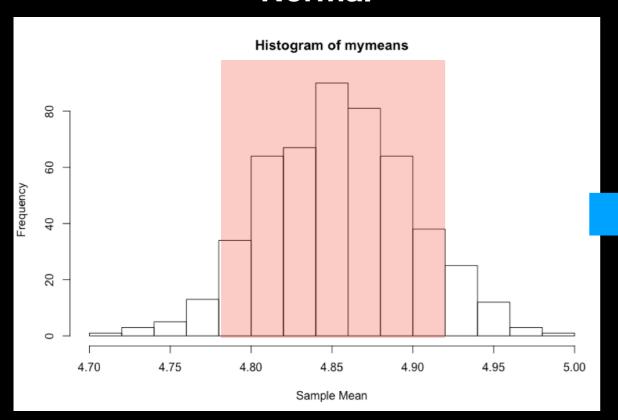
SE = s/n^{1/2} If you are curious, this comes from:
$$Var(\frac{1}{n}\sum X_i) = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum Var(X_i) = \frac{1}{n^2}\times\sum\sigma^2 = \frac{n}{n^2}\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

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



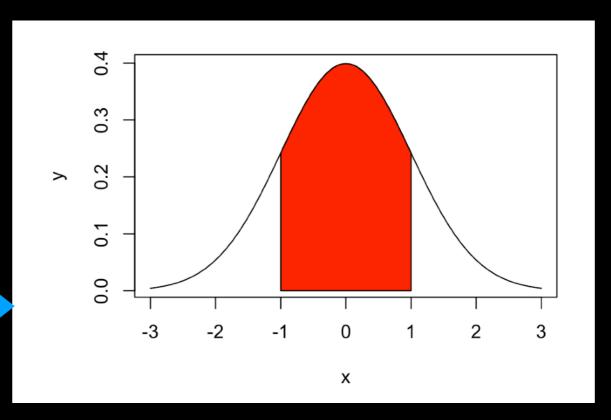
But I'm pretty sure the mean is somewhere in this interval

~Normal

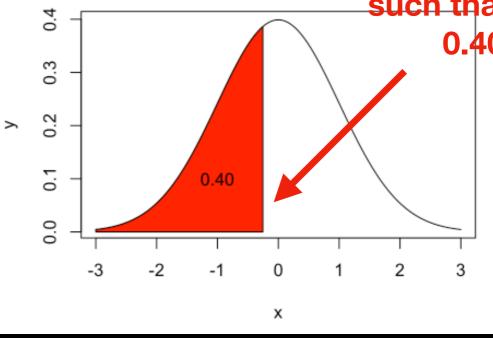


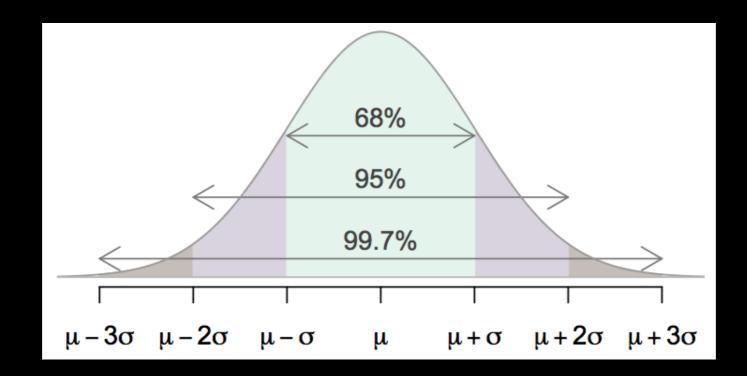
Where are we 95% confident the population mean is in between?

Recall:

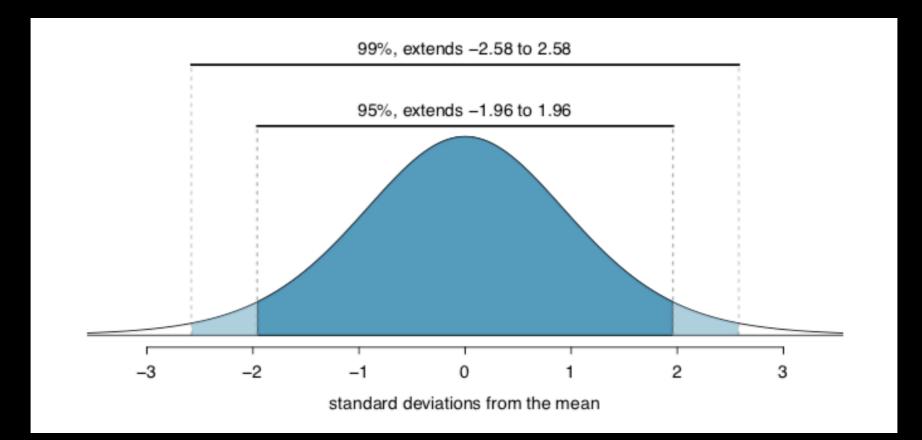


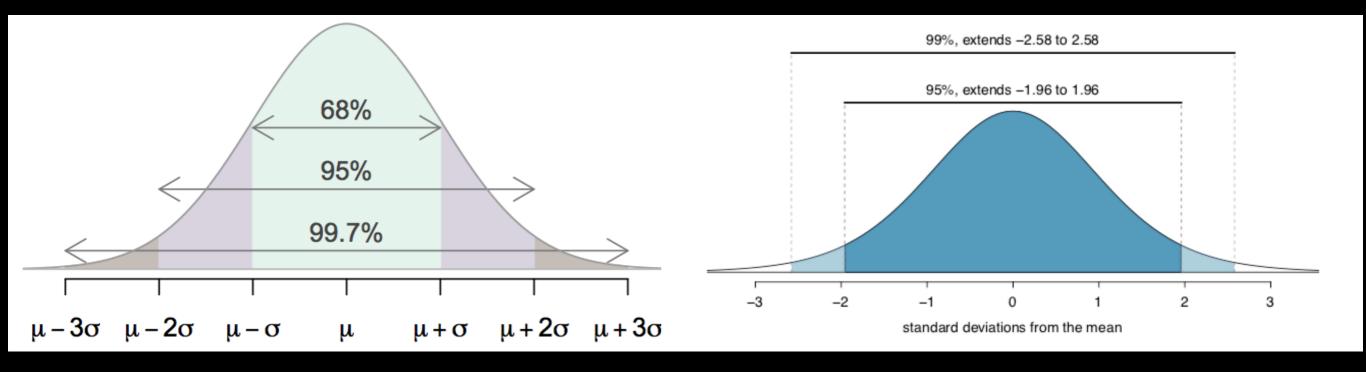
What is this number such that red area = 0.40 (40%)





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





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

sample mean +/- 1.96 X SE

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

Confidence Intervals: In general

point estimate ± z* x SE

- In a confidence interval, $z^* x SE$ 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

The general outline of the process:

1. Set the hypotheses.

For a single proportion this will look like:

H₀: μ = null value

H_A: µ < or > or ≠ 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 < α, reject H₀,
 there is sufficient evidence for [H₄]
- If p-value > α, do not reject H₀,
 there is not sufficient for evidence for [H₄]

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English

Provides a rigorous way to determine the answer with a specific level of confidence.



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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What distributions can we use to explore our sample?

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 4)? t-distribution (Ch 5)? 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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Lets look at some examples!

Hypotheses: Definition

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

H₀, 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_A, Alternative Hypothesis: the "research" hypothesis, or claim we need to test

Possible Outcomes:

- (1) We say we "reject the null hypothesis" i.e. H_A is *more* true than H₀
- (2) We say we "fail to reject the null hypothesis"

Note: we cannot say that H_A or H_0 is true, only that one is more likely to be true than the other.

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 H₀ and H_A? How do we write them in a statistical format?

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with math

 H_0 : $\mu = 5g$ H_A : $\mu \neq 5g$

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with math

Ho:
$$\mu = 5g$$

HA: $\mu \neq 5g$

population mean

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 H₀ and H_A?

Think on it for a moment!

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 H₀ and H_A?

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 H₀ and H₄?

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Note this is a proportion

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 H₀ and H₄?

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In this case, we are comparing two related sample means from different samples.

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

The general outline of the process:

Are we interested in a hypothesis about the population mean (µ)?

1. Set the hypotheses.

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 (more in examples)
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Proportion (p)? (Ch. 6)

Difference of 2 means and/ or paired data $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$? (Ch. 5)

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

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The general outline of the process:

- 1. Set the hypotheses.
 - For a single proportion this will look like. (c) observations & theory

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- (a) normal, large sample
- (b) normal?, small sample

The general outline of the process: (a) normal, large sample (b) normal?, small sample 1. Set the hypotheses. For a single proportion this will look like. (c) observations & theory H₀: µ = null value H_A : $u < or > or \neq null value$ 2. Check assumptions and conditions (a) Z-score -> P(Z) 3. Calculate a test statistic and a p-value (b) T-Score -> P(T) 4. Make a decision, and interpret it in context (c) $\chi^2 -> P(\chi^2)$ If p-value $< \alpha$, reject H_0 , there is sufficient evidence for [H_A]

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The general outline of the process: (a) normal, large sample (b) normal?, small sample 1. Set the hypotheses. For a single proportion this will look like. (c) observations & theory H₀: µ = null value H_A : $u < or > or \neq null value$ **Test Statistics** 2. Check assumptions and conditions (a) **Z**-score -> P(**Z**) 3. Calculate a test statistic and a p-value (b) **T-Score** -> P(**T**) 4. Make a decision, and interpret it in context (c) $\chi^2 -> P(\chi^2)$ If p-value $< \alpha$, reject H_0 , there is sufficient evidence for [H_A]

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Test Statistics

- (a) **Z-score -> P(Z)**
- (b) T-Score -> P(T)
- (c) $\chi^2 -> P(\chi^2)$

Compare Z-score, T-score or χ^2 to our <u>level of significance - α - to see if we can reject the null hypothesis (if the p-value of our test statistic < α)</u>

Anatomy of a test statistic

The general form of a test statistic is

point estimate – null value SE of point estimate

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.

Anatomy of a test statistic

Only tricks are:

The general form of a test statistic is (1) picking what the point and null values are based on our hypotheses

point estimate – null value SE of point estimate

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

This construction is based on

- identifying the difference between a point estimate and an expected value if the null hypothesis was true, and
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