CSCI 3022-002 Intro to Data Science

 $\widecheck{\times} \rightarrow_{\mathcal{M}}$ N-ECX7

100 times Var(X) decreases companied 2100 to Var(Xi) individual values

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BUT, THAT MEANS HIS CHANCE OF WINNING ALL THREE IS 60% OF 60% OF 60%. WHICH 15 21.6%



SINCE PROBABILITIES HAVE TO





Smbc-comics com

- Practicum done!

- Practicum done:
- Exam next: just pen -> following and paper problems. 3x mustan example exams are

posted! (Au 5) Sole next mording)
DC+ 19

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Distribution of the Sample Mean

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be a random sample from a distribution with known mean value and standard deviation . Then:

$$E[\bar{X}] =$$

$$Var[\bar{X}] =$$

The standard deviation of the sample mean is:

This is also called the standard error of the mean.

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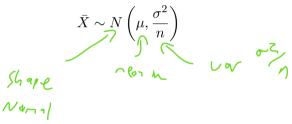
$$E[X] = \mu$$

$$Var[\bar{X}] = \frac{\sigma^2 V}{n}$$
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Theorem: Central Limit Theorem:

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The larger the value of n, the better the approximation! Typical rule of thumb: n > 30. It's all normal? Always has been.

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The Normal cdf

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Central Limit Theorem: Theorem:

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Stats nom (de

We use the cdf $\Phi(z) = P(Z \le z)$ to calculate probabilities on normal distributions. The Normal cdf inverse (ppf) 5 + e+c, note 3p

We use the inverse of the cdf to calculate z values that correspond to specific probabilities.

Notation: $\alpha = P(Z > \widehat{z_{\alpha}})$, so α is the probability value to the **right** of the x-value z_{α} .

So, what?

The CLT tells us that as the sample size n increases, the sample mean \bar{X} is close to normally distributed with expected value of the true population mean μ and with a *smaller* standard deviation σ/\sqrt{n} .

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Standarding the sample mean by first subtrating the expected value and then dividing by the standard deviation yields a standard normal random variable.

$$Z = \underbrace{\left(\bar{X} - \mu\right)}_{\text{O}/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

$$\text{Od. Vide by } S.J.\left(\tilde{X}\right) = SJ = 1.$$

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This always works if the population is normally distributed and (σ, μ) are known. If it's not normally distributed we reside to normally distributed, we needed a large enough sample size.

Using the Central Limit Theorem

Example: The amount of impurity in a batch of a chemical product is a random variable with mean value 4.0 g and standard deviation 1.5 g. (unknown distribution)

If 50 patches are independently prepared, what is the (approximate) probability that the average amount of impurity in these 50 batches is between 3.5 and 3.8 g?

find
$$P(3.5 \le X \le 3.8)$$

(maybe small? the

Z~N(0,1).

Example sol: want:
$$P(3.5 \leq X \leq 3.8)$$
 for $A = 4.6$
 $X : N = 4 = 0.5$

Re(all: $X = 0.5$

Normal $X = 0.5$

Normal $X = 0.5$
 $X =$

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P(3.55x 53.8)

 $= \left(\frac{3.5 - 4.0}{1.5/\sqrt{50}} \le \frac{3.8 - 4.0}{1.5/\sqrt{50}} \le \frac{3.8 - 4.0}{1.5/\sqrt{50}} \right)$

= P(a < Z 5 b) = \$\pi(b) - \pi(a)\$

Example sol:

We want the probability $P(3.5 < \bar{X} < 3.8)$ for $X \sim N(4.0, 1.5)$. Again we normalize... but \bar{X} has much smaller standard deviation than each one of the individual data values!

$$\begin{split} P(3.5 < \bar{X} < 3.8) &= P\left(\frac{3.5 - 4.0}{1.5/\sqrt{50}} < \frac{\bar{X} - 4.0}{1.5/\sqrt{50}} < \frac{3.8 - 4.0}{1.5/\sqrt{50}}\right) \\ &= P\left(\frac{-1}{3/\sqrt{50}} < Z < \frac{-2}{15/\sqrt{50}}\right) \end{split}$$
 which is

for $Z \sim N(0,1)$ which is

is
$$\Phi\left(\frac{-2}{15/\sqrt{50}}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{-1}{3/\sqrt{50}}\right)$$
 Stats now, coff ()

Central Limit Theorem

The CLT provides insight into why many random variables have probability distributions that are approximately normal.

For example, the measurement error in a scientific experiment can be thought of as the sum of a number of underlying perturbations and errors of small magnitude.

A practical difficulty in applying the CLT is in knowing when n is sufficiently large. The problem is that the accuracy of the approximation for a particular n depends on the shape of the original underlying distribution being sampled.

What was the point of all this? We want the extract or infer properties of populations (like μ !) by analyzing samples. To do this, we ask:

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- 1. Is the sample mean \bar{x} a good approximation of the population mean μ ?
- 2. Is the sample proportion \hat{p} a good approximation of the population proportion p?
- 3. Are two samples coming from populations with different means?

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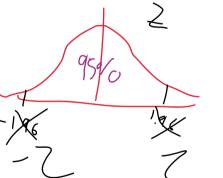
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- 3. Are two samples coming from populations with different means?
- 4. **If Yes,** how sure or confident are we?
- 5. How much data would we need to be sure or confident?

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This is equivalent to:



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This is equivalent to:

$$.95 = P\left(-1.96 < \sqrt{\overline{X} - \mu} < 1.96\right) \sqrt{\sqrt{n}}$$
 is between \$\frac{1}{\sigma} \sqrt{1.96} \right) \rightarrow \left(\frac{1.96}{\sigma} \right) \right) \right\righ

Wort result to be about M (given X).

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This is equivalent to:

$$\frac{1}{2} = P \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$
Sout μ, however!

Reneaber: $\frac{1}{2}$ is root.

We want to know things about μ , however!

The 95% confidence interval for μ is the values of X that satisfy this inequality.

The interval:

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 Is called a 95% confidence interval for the mean.
$$x - v = 0.95\%$$

This interval varies from sample to sample, as the sample mean varies. So, the interval itself is a random interval.

Which parts of the interval are random?

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Which parts of the interval are random $/\!\!\!/$ The two copies of \bar{X}

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ls



That width of ______ is not random; only the location of the interval (its midpoint \bar{X}) is random.

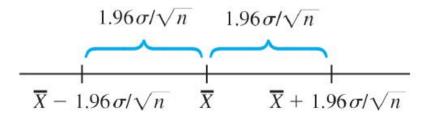
The CI is centered at \underline{X} and extends $1.96 \cdot \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ to each side in the x direction.

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As we showed, for a given sample, the CI can be expressed as

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A couple of concise expressions for the interval are

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \overline{X} - 1.96 \% \overline{n}, \overline{X} + 1.96 \% \overline{n} \\ \overline{X} + 1.96 \% \overline{n} \end{array} \right]$$

where the left endpoint is the lower limit and the right endpoint is the upper limit.

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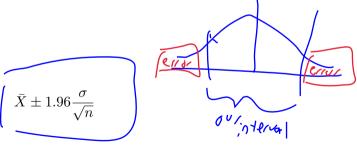
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Interpreting CIs

We are "95% confident" that the true parameter is in this interval.

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A correct interpretation of "95% confidence" relies on the long-run relative frequency interpretation of probability.

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In **repeated** sampling, 95% of the confidence intervals obtained from all samples will actually contain. The other 5% of the intervals will not.

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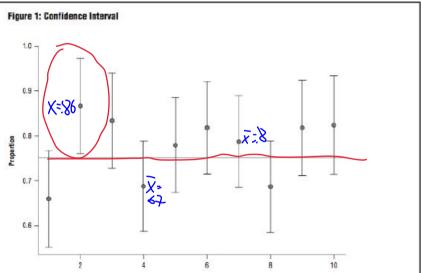
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A correct interpretation of "95% confidence" relies on the long-run relative frequency interpretation of probability.

The confidence level is not a statement about any particular interval instead it pertains to what would happen if a very large number of like intervals were to be constructed using the same CI formula.

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Note: Suppose that the true proportion of believers in climate change among French citizens is 0.75, as represented by the horizontal black line near the middle. This figure shows the CPC confidence intervals used to estimate the

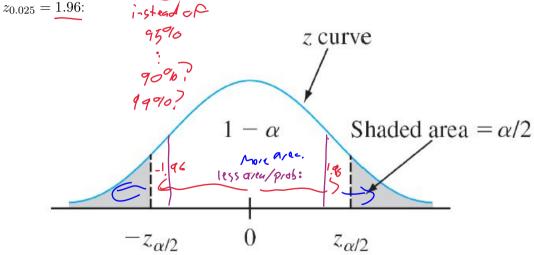
Some reading on the common misinterpretations of CIs:

http://www.ejwagenmakers.com/inpress/HoekstraEtAlPBR.pdf

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Other Levels of Confidence

A confidence level of $1-\alpha$ can be achieved by using another $z_{\alpha/2}$ in place of



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Other Levels of Confidence

Cls

900%

Or, equivalently, by:

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Cls

Other Levels of Confidence



A $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval for the mean when the value of α is known is given by:

$$1 - \alpha = P\left(\bar{X} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

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[Real: $z = 5\%$ $z = 1.96$

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Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

Example:

A sample of 40 units is selected and diameter measured for each one. The sample mean diameter is 5.426 mm, and the standard deviation of measurements is 0.1mm.

1. Calculate a confidence interval for true average hole diameter using a confidence level of 90%.

2. What about the 99% confidence interval?

3. What are the advantages and disadvantages to a wider confidence interval?

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Sample Size Calculations

For a desired confidence level and interval width, we can determine the necessary sample size.

Example: For a given computer model, memory fetch response time is normally distributed with standard deviation of 25 milliseconds. A new computer has been purchased, and we wish to estimate the true average response time. What sample size is necessary to ensure that the resulting 95% CI has a width of (at most) 10 units?

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The width is $W=z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$. We want:

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$$\begin{aligned} z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < 10 \\ &\implies z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{10} < \sqrt{n} \\ &\implies \left(z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{10} \right)^2 < n \end{aligned}$$

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A difficulty in using our previous equation for confidence intervals is that it uses the value σ of which will rarely be known.

Also, we may want a CI for a mean from some other non-normal distribution.

In this instance, we need to work with the sample standard deviation s. Remember from our first lesson that the standard deviation is calculated as:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}}$$

With this, we instead work with the standardized random variable:

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



Previously, there was randomness only in the numerator of Z by virtue of the estimator X.

In the new standardized variable, both \overline{X} and \underline{S} vary in value from one sample to another.

When n is large, the substitution of s for σ adds little extra variability, so nothing needs to change. $5 \approx \sigma$

When n is smaller, the distribution of this new variable should be wider than the normal to reflect the extra uncertainty. (We talk more about this in a week or two.)

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Large Sample CI: If n is sufficiently large $(n \ge 30)$, the standardized random variable

has approximately a standard normal distribution. This implies that

is a large-sample confidence interval for μ with confidence level approximately $100(1-\alpha)\%$. This formula is valid regardless of the population distribution for sufficiently large n.

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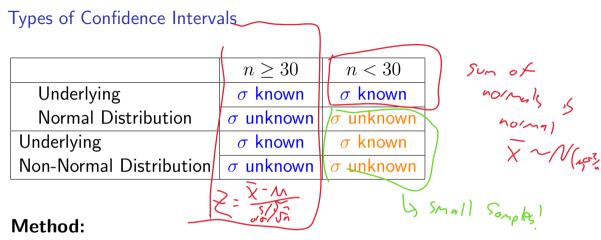
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Z or approximately Z by Central Limit Theorem

Let p denote the proportion of "successes" in a population (e.g., individuals who graduated from college, computers that do not need warranty service, etc.). A random sample of n individuals is selected, and X is the number of successes in the sample.

Then, X can be modeled as a rv with mean of a	and
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variance of _____

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variance of np(1-p)

If both np > 10 and n(1-p) > 10, X has approximately a normal distribution.

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Standardizing the estimator yields:

and a resulting CI is:

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$$E[\hat{p}] = p$$
 $Var[\hat{p}] = \frac{1}{n^2} np(1-p) = \frac{p(1-p)}{n}$

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Standardizing the estimator yields:

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}} \sim N(0,1)$$

and a resulting CI is:

$$\hat{p} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$$

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Example:

The EPA considers indoor radon levels above 4 picocuries per liter (pCi/L) of air to be high enough to warrant amelioration efforts. Tests in a sample of 200 homes found 127 (63.5%) of these sampled households to have indoor radon levels above 4 pCi/L. Calculate the 99% confidence interval for the proportional of homes with indoor radon levels above 4 pCi/L.

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$$\hat{p}\pm z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}};$$
 stats.norm.ppf(0.995) = 2.57; use \hat{p} where we must;
$$=0.635\pm 2.57\sqrt{\frac{0.635(1-0.635)}{200}}$$
 = $[0.548,0.722]$

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Now what?

We used the central limit theorem to compute **confidence intervals**, which gave us an idea as to how close our *sample* mean is to the *population* mean. This worked:

- 1. If the population was normal.
- 2. If the population was non-normal with large n.
- 3. If the population was binomial with "enough" failures and successes.

Those are not all the things we care about! Next time, we use the idea of confidence to ask questions like "are A and B different?" We eventually also want to start building up what to do with smaller samples, and estimating things that aren't normally distributed (like estimating σ^2)!