

# CSCI 3022 Intro to Data Science

## Normals and the CLT

The four big functions (`scipy.stats` as `stats`):

1. `stats.normal.rvs(params, size=...)` generates random normals.
2. `stats.normal.pdf(x,params)` returns the pdf of the normal. It's the bell curve itself. It's **symmetric**: the pdf is the same height equal-amount left-right of 0.
3. `stats.normal.cdf(x,params)` returns the cdf of the normal. It's the area to the left of the input  $x$  value on the bell curve. It's also **symmetric**, but slightly different: the area to the *left* of an input value  $x$  is the same as the area to the *right* of negative  $x$ .
4. `stats.normal.ppf(p,params)` returns the *inverse* of cdf of the probability  $p$  value input as the function's first argument. This is the value of  $x$  that satisfies  $p = P(X \leq x)$ .

# Sketching areas on Normals

# Announcements and Reminders

- ▶ Exam due Friday.
- ▶ Practicum posted: it's 2 longer homework problems; due Mar 19. Then we get a week with no HW!

# The Normal Distribution

**Definition:** *Normal Distribution:*

A continuous r.v.  $X$  is said to have a *normal distribution* with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma > 0$ , if the pdf of  $X$  is:

$$f(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

Notation: We write \_\_\_\_\_

**Definition:** *Standard Normal Distribution:*

The normal distribution with parameter values  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$  is called the *standard normal distribution*.

# The Normal Distribution

**Definition:** *Normal Distribution:*

A continuous r.v.  $X$  is said to have a *normal distribution* with parameters  $\underline{\mu}$  and  $\underline{\sigma^2} > 0$ , if the pdf of  $X$  is:

$$f(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

Notation: We write  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

**Definition:** *Standard Normal Distribution:*

The normal distribution with parameter values  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$  is called the *standard normal distribution*.

# The Normal Distribution

**Definition:** *Normal Distribution:*

A continuous r.v.  $X$  is said to have a *normal distribution* with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2 > 0$ , if the pdf of  $X$  is:

$$f(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

Notation: We write \_\_\_\_\_

**Definition:** *Standard Normal Distribution:*

The normal distribution with parameter values  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$  is called the *standard normal distribution*.

## Non-Standard Normals

When  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , probabilities involving  $X$  are computed by “standardizing.” The standardized variable is:

Proposition: If  $X$  has a normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , then

$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$  is distributed standard normal.

## Non-Standard Normals

When  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , probabilities involving  $X$  are computed by “standardizing.” The standardized variable is:

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Proposition: If  $X$  has a normal distribution with mean  $\underline{\mu}$  and standard deviation  $\underline{\sigma}$ , then

is distributed standard normal.



## Standard Quantiles

The 99th *percentile* of the standard normal distribution is that value of  $z$  such that the area under the  $z$  curve to the left of the value is 0.99.

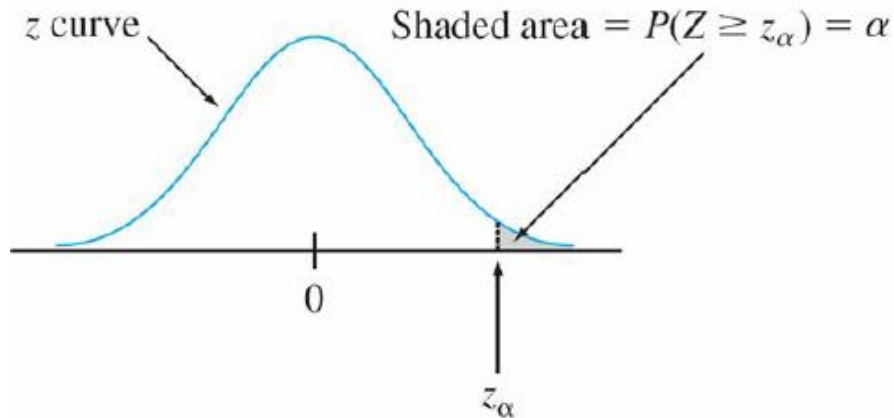
Tables and cdf functions give, for fixed  $z$ , the area under the standard normal curve to the left of  $z$ ; now we have the area and want the value of  $z$ .

This is the “inverse” problem to  $P(Z \leq z) = ?$

How can the table be used for this?

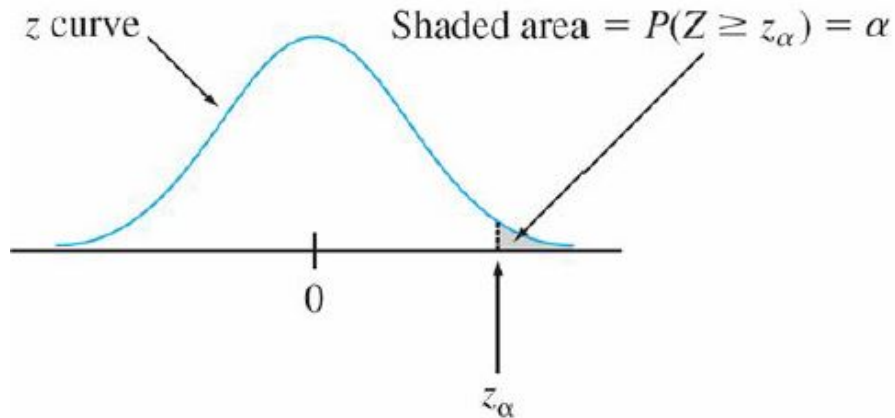
## Standard Quantiles

In statistical inference, we need the  $z$  values that give certain tail areas under the standard normal curve. There, this notation will be standard:  $z_\alpha$  will denote the  $z$  value for which  $\alpha$  of the area under the  $z$  curve lies to the right of  $z_\alpha$ .



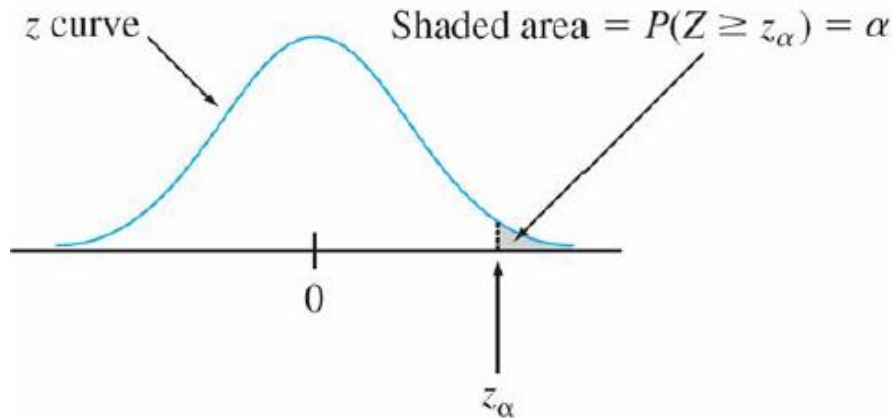
## Standard Quantiles

In statistical inference, we need the  $z$  values that give certain tail areas under the standard normal curve. There, this notation will be standard:  $z_\alpha$  will denote the  $z$  value for which  $\alpha$  of the area under the  $z$  curve lies to the right of  $z_\alpha$ .



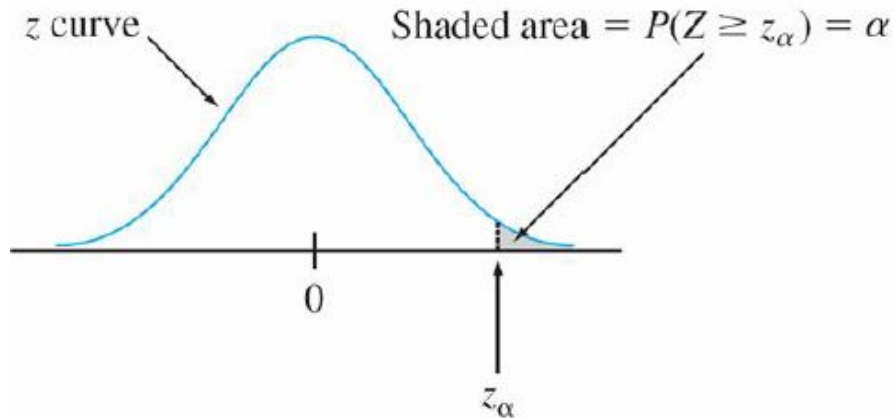
## Standard Quantiles

In statistical inference, we need the  $z$  values that give certain tail areas under the standard normal curve. There, this notation will be standard:  $z_\alpha$  will denote the  $z$  value for which  $\alpha$  of the area under the  $z$  curve lies to the right of  $z_\alpha$ .



## Standard Quantiles

In statistical inference, we need the  $z$  values that give certain tail areas under the standard normal curve. There, this notation will be standard:  $z_\alpha$  will denote the  $z$  value for which  $\alpha$  of the area under the  $z$  curve lies to the right of  $z_\alpha$ .



iid

**Definition:** *Random Sample:*

The r.v.'s  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are said to form a (simple) random sample of size  $n$  if:

1.

2.

We say that these  $X_i$ 's are:

iid

**Definition:** *Random Sample:*

The r.v.'s  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are said to form a (simple) random sample of size  $n$  if:

1.  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent.
2. No value in the population has a higher chance of being included than any other.

We say that these  $X_i$ 's are: *independent* and *identically distributed*.  
and we write:

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} f(x; \theta)$$

# Estimators and Their Distributions

We use estimators to summarize our i.i.d. sample.

Examples?



# Estimators and Their Distributions

We use estimators to summarize our i.i.d. sample.

Examples?

1. *Sample* Mean might estimate a population mean.
2. *Sample* Variances estimate population variance.
3. *Sample* Quantiles
4.  $\hat{p}$  for  $p$
5. etc., etc.

# Estimators and Their Distributions

We use estimators to summarize our i.i.d. sample.

Examples?

1. *Sample* Mean might estimate a population mean.
2. *Sample* Variances estimate population variance.
3. *Sample* Quantiles
4.  $\hat{p}$  for  $p$
5. etc., etc.

Why use one estimator over another?

## Estimators and Their Distributions

We use estimators to summarize our i.i.d. sample. Any estimator, including the sample mean \_\_\_\_, is a random variable (since it is based on a random sample).

This means that \_\_\_\_ has a distribution of its own, which is referred to as sampling distribution of the sample mean. This sampling distribution depends on:

**Definition:** The standard deviation of this distribution is called the *standard error* of the estimator.

## Estimators and Their Distributions

We use estimators to summarize our i.i.d. sample. Any estimator, including the sample mean  $\bar{X}$  is a random variable (since it is based on a random sample).

This means that  $\bar{X}$  has a distribution of its own, which is referred to as sampling distribution of the sample mean. This sampling distribution depends on:

1.  $n$

**Definition:** The standard deviation of this distribution is called the *standard error* of the estimator.

## Estimators and Their Distributions

We use estimators to summarize our i.i.d. sample. Any estimator, including the sample mean \_\_\_\_, is a random variable (since it is based on a random sample).

This means that \_\_\_\_ has a distribution of its own, which is referred to as sampling distribution of the sample mean. This sampling distribution depends on:

1.  $n$
2. population distribution

**Definition:** The standard deviation of this distribution is called the *standard error* of the estimator.

## Estimators and Their Distributions

We use estimators to summarize our i.i.d. sample. Any estimator, including the sample mean \_\_\_\_, is a random variable (since it is based on a random sample).

This means that \_\_\_\_ has a distribution of its own, which is referred to as sampling distribution of the sample mean. This sampling distribution depends on:

1.  $n$
2. population distribution
3. method of sampling

**Definition:** The standard deviation of this distribution is called the *standard error* of the estimator.

## 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.

## 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:

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

$$Var[\bar{X}] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

The standard deviation of the sample mean is:

This is also called the standard error of the mean.



## 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:

$$s.e.(\bar{X}) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

This is also called the standard error of the mean.

## Distribution of the Sample Mean

What does this mean? Why is it true?

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

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

**Theorem:** That  $\bar{X}$  approaches  $\mu$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  is known as *the law of large numbers*.

Also, what do we know about the \*distribution\* of the sample mean?

## Distribution of the Sample Mean

What does this mean? Why is it true?

$$E[\bar{X}] = E\left[\frac{\sum X_i}{n}\right] = \frac{\sum E[X_i]}{n} = \frac{n\mu}{n} = \mu$$

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

**Theorem:** That  $\bar{X}$  approaches  $\mu$  as  $n \rightarrow \text{infy}$  is known as *the law of large numbers*.

Also, what do we know about the \*distribution\* of the sample mean?

## Distribution of the Sample Mean

What does this mean? Why is it true?

$$E[\bar{X}] = E\left[\frac{\sum X_i}{n}\right] = \frac{\sum E[X_i]}{n} = \frac{n\mu}{n} = \mu$$

$$\text{Var}[\bar{X}] = \text{Var}\left[\sum X_i/n\right] = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum \text{Var}[X_i] = \frac{n\sigma^2}{n^2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

**Theorem:** That  $\bar{X}$  approaches  $\mu$  as  $n \rightarrow \text{infy}$  is known as *the law of large numbers*.

Also, what do we know about the \*distribution\* of the sample mean?

## Distribution of the Sample Mean (Normal Population)

Proposition:

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then

We know everything there is to know about the distribution of the sample mean when the population distribution is normal.

This happens to be a result of that “a sum of normal random variables is still normal.”

## Distribution of the Sample Mean (Normal Population)

Proposition:

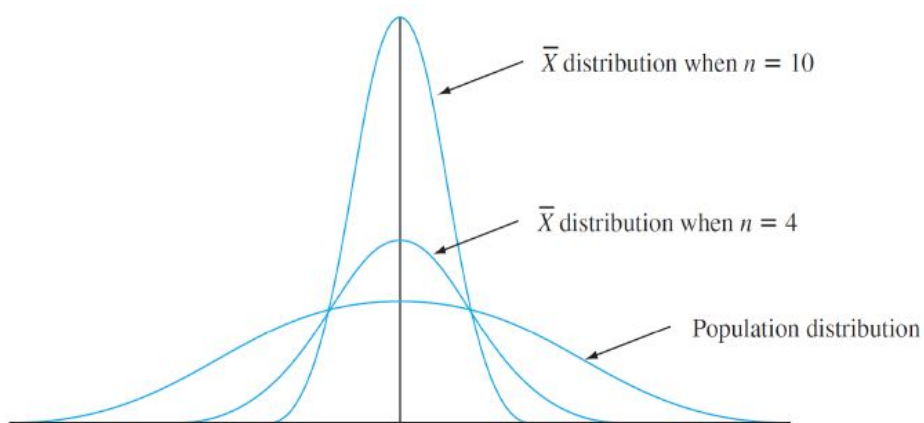
If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , then

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

We know everything there is to know about the distribution of the sample mean when the population distribution is normal.

This happens to be a result of that “a sum of normal random variables is still normal.”

## Distribution of the Sample Mean (Normal Population)



# Central Limit Theorem

But what if the underlying distribution of the  $X_i$ 's is not normal?



## Central Limit Theorem

**Important:** When the population distribution is nonnormal, averaging produces a distribution more bellshaped than the one being sampled.

A reasonable conjecture is that if  $n$  is large, a suitable normal curve will approximate the actual distribution of the sample mean.

The formal statement of this result is one of the most important theorems in probability:  
*Central Limit Theorem!*

# Central Limit Theorem

**Theorem:** *Central Limit Theorem:*

# Central Limit Theorem

**Theorem:** *Central Limit Theorem:*

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be iid from a distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then, for  $n$  *large enough*:

# Central Limit Theorem

**Theorem:** *Central Limit Theorem:*

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be iid from a distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then, for  $n$  *large enough*:

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

# Central Limit Theorem

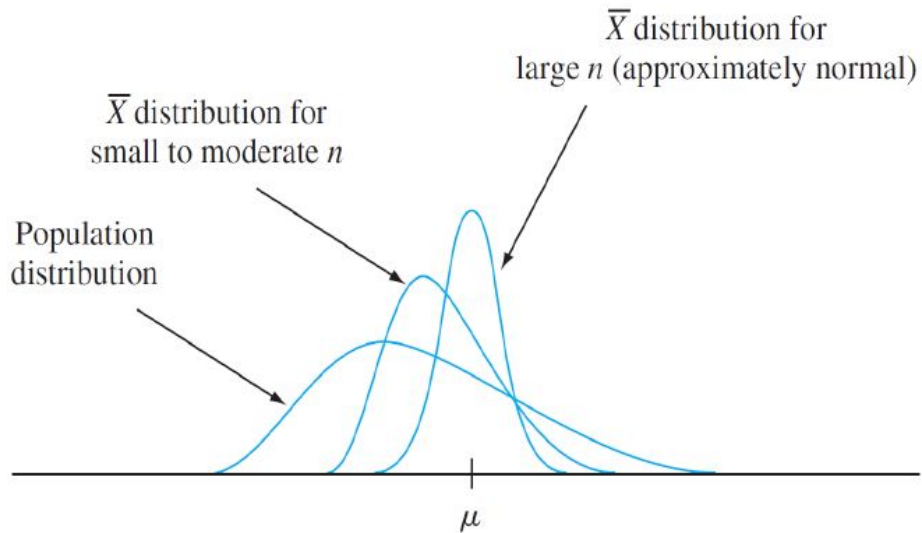
**Theorem:** *Central Limit Theorem:*

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be iid from a distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then, for  $n$  *large enough*:

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

The larger the value of  $n$ , the better the approximation! Typical rule of thumb:  
 $n > 30$ .

# Central Limit Theorem



## 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.

## 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  $\mu$  and with a *smaller* standard deviation  $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ .



## 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  $\mu$  and with a *smaller* standard deviation  $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ .

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

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

## 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  $\mu$  and with a *smaller* standard deviation  $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ .

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

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

This *always* works if the population is normally distributed and  $\sigma, \mu$  are known. If it's not 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 batches 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?

Example sol:

## 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!

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

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

$$\Phi\left(\frac{-2}{15/\sqrt{50}}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{-1}{3/\sqrt{50}}\right)$$

## 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.

and to data!

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

and to data!

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

1. Is the sample mean  $\bar{x}$  a good approximation of the population mean  $\mu$ ?
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?



and to data!

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

1. Is the sample mean  $\bar{x}$  a good approximation of the population mean  $\mu$ ?
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?
4. **If Yes**, how sure or confident are we?

and to data!

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

1. Is the sample mean  $\bar{x}$  a good approximation of the population mean  $\mu$ ?
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?
4. **If Yes**, how sure or confident are we?
5. How much data would we need to be sure or confident?

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

Because the area under the standard normal curve between  $-1.96$  and  $1.96$  is  $0.95$ , we know:

This is equivalent to:

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

Because the area under the standard normal curve between  $-1.96$  and  $1.96$  is  $0.95$ , we know:

$$.95 = P(-1.96 < Z < 1.96)$$

This is equivalent to:

$$.95 = P\left(-1.96 < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} < 1.96\right)$$

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

Because the area under the standard normal curve between  $-1.96$  and  $1.96$  is  $0.95$ , we know:

$$.95 = P(-1.96 < Z < 1.96)$$

This is equivalent to:

$$.95 = P\left(-1.96 < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} < 1.96\right)$$

We want to know things about  $\mu$ , however!

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

Because the area under the standard normal curve between  $-1.96$  and  $1.96$  is  $0.95$ , we know:

This is equivalent to:

We want to know things about  $\mu$ , however!

**The 95% confidence interval** for  $\mu$  is the values of  $X$  that satisfy this inequality.

Solving for  $\mu$ :

The interval:

$$.95 = P\left(-1.96 < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} < 1.96\right)$$

## Solving for $\mu$ :

The interval:

$$.95 = P \left( -1.96 < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} < 1.96 \right)$$

$$.95 = P \left( -1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \bar{X} - \mu < 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$



## Solving for $\mu$ :

The interval:

$$.95 = P \left( -1.96 < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} < 1.96 \right)$$

$$.95 = P \left( -1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \bar{X} - \mu < 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

$$.95 = P \left( 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} > \mu - \bar{X} > -1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

## Solving for $\mu$ :

The interval:

$$.95 = P \left( -1.96 < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} < 1.96 \right)$$

$$.95 = P \left( -1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \bar{X} - \mu < 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

$$.95 = P \left( 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} > \mu - \bar{X} > -1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

$$.95 = P \left( \bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

The interval

$$.95 = P\left(\bar{X} - 1.96\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

Is called a 95% confidence interval for the mean.

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?

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

The interval

$$.95 = P\left(\bar{X} - 1.96\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

Is called a 95% confidence interval for the mean.

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? The two copies of  $\bar{X}$

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

The CI is centered at \_\_\_ and extends \_\_\_\_\_ to each side in the  $x$  direction.

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

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

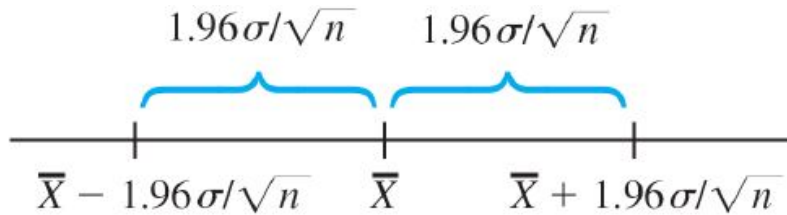
The CI is centered at  $\bar{X}$  and extends  $\underline{1.96 \cdot \sigma / \sqrt{n}}$  to each side in the  $x$  direction.

That width of  $\underline{1.96 \cdot \sigma / \sqrt{n}}$  is not random; only the location of the interval (its midpoint  $\bar{X}$ ) is random.

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

The CI is centered at  $\bar{X}$  and extends \_\_\_\_\_ to each side in the  $x$  direction.

That width of  $1.96 \cdot \sigma / \sqrt{n}$  is not random; only the location of the interval (its midpoint  $\bar{X}$ ) is random.



## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

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

$$.95 = P \left( \bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

A couple of concise expressions for the interval are

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



## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

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

$$.95 = P \left( \bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

A couple of concise expressions for the interval are

$$\left[ \bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

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

## Confidence Interval for the Mean (SD known)

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

$$.95 = P \left( \bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

A couple of concise expressions for the interval are

$$\bar{X} \pm 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

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

## Interpreting CIs

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

What does that mean??

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

## Interpreting CIs

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

What does that mean??

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

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

## Interpreting CIs

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

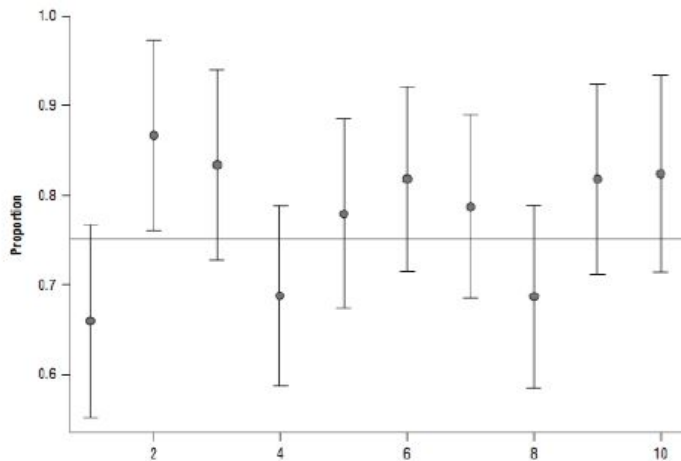
What does that mean??

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.

# Interpreting CIs

**Figure 1: Confidence Interval**



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 ten 95% confidence intervals used to estimate the

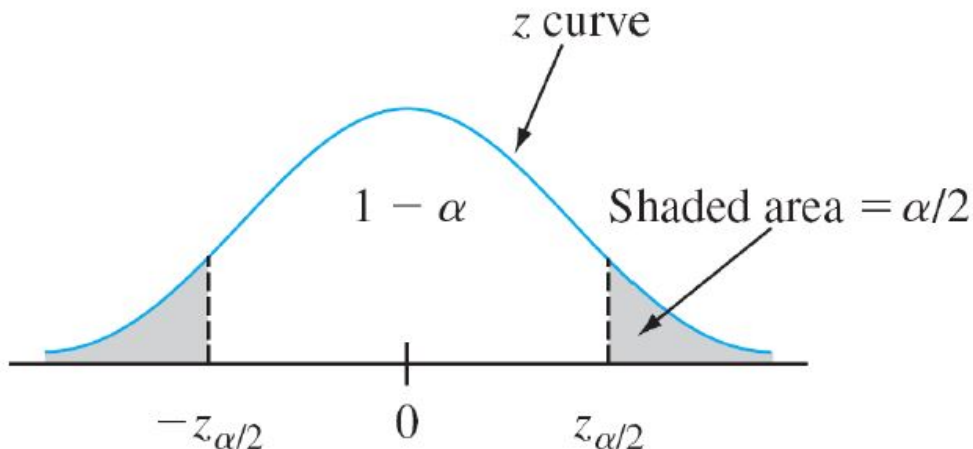
# Interpreting CIs

Some reading on the common misinterpretations of CIs:

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

## Other Levels of Confidence

A confidence level of  $1 - \alpha$  can be achieved by using another  $z_{\alpha/2}$  in place of  $z_{0.025} = 1.96$ :





## Other Levels of Confidence

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

Or, equivalently, by:

## Other Levels of Confidence

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

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

Or, equivalently, by:

## Other Levels of Confidence

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

Or, equivalently, by:

$$\bar{X} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

## 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?

## 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%.

$$5.426 \pm z_{.05} \frac{0.1}{\sqrt{40}}$$

2. What about the 99% confidence interval?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages to a wider confidence interval?

## 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%.

$$5.426 \pm z_{.05} \frac{0.1}{\sqrt{40}}$$

2. What about the 99% confidence interval?

$$5.426 \pm \text{scipy.stats.ppf}(.995) \frac{0.1}{\sqrt{40}}$$

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

## 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?

## 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?

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



## 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?

$$z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < 10$$

$$\implies z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{10} < \sqrt{n}$$

$$\implies \left( z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{10} \right)^2 < n$$

# Daily Recap

Today we learned

1. The Normal Distribution... and why we care!

Moving forward:

- nb day Friday!

Next time in lecture:

- Using Normals to estimate *population* means based on *sample* means