

1 Population vs Sample

Population

- The **entire group** you want to learn about
- Usually large, varied, hard to measure

Sample

- A **subset of the population** actually observed

Example:

- Population: *All UT undergraduates*
 - Sample: *10 UT students surveyed*
-

2 Parameters vs Statistics

Parameter

- A **numerical value describing a population**
- Usually unknown

Statistic

- A **numerical value calculated from a sample**
- Used to estimate parameters

Quantity	Population (Parameter)	Sample (Statistic)
----------	------------------------	--------------------

Mean	μ (mu)	\bar{x} (sample mean)
------	------------	-------------------------

Std Dev	σ (sigma)	s
---------	------------------	---

Proportion	p	\hat{p}
------------	---	-----------

Example:

- μ = true average GPA of all UT students
 - \bar{x} = average GPA of 10 surveyed students
-

3 Research Question

- Clearly states **what you want to learn**
- Defines the **population of interest**
- Should not be **too broad or too narrow**

Example (Good): What factors impact attendance at UT home volleyball games?

4 Random Sampling

Random Sample

- Every individual in the population has an **equal chance** of being selected

Why it matters:

- Reduces bias
- Makes results more representative

Important: Humans are **bad** at choosing randomly → use random number generators.

5 Bias vs Sampling Error (Large and Random Samples are Good)

Bias

- Systematic error in sampling
- Comes from *how* data is collected
- **Does NOT go away** with larger samples

Sampling Error

- Natural variation from taking a sample
- **Decreases with larger sample size**

Examples:

- Bias: Surveying only TikTok users to represent all Austinites
 - Sampling error: Two random samples give slightly different means
-

6 Variables & Observations

Variables

- Characteristics measured
- Go in **columns (x axis)**

Observations

- Individual units measured
- Go in **rows (y axis)**

Example:

- Variables: GPA, age, major
 - Observation: One student's responses
-

7 Types of Variables

Numeric (Quantitative)

- Numbers with meaningful magnitude

Examples: Age, Number of texts per day

Categorical (Qualitative)

Describe group membership

Nominal (No order)

- No natural ranking

Examples: Race, Can do a handstand (Yes/No)

Ordinal (Ordered)

- Categories have an order

Examples: Exercise frequency (Never → Often), Education level

8 Independent vs Dependent Variables

Independent (Predictor)

- Variable that explains or predicts

Dependent (Outcome)

- Variable being explained

Example:

- Predictor: Weather
 - Outcome: Attendance at UT volleyball games
-

9 Confounding Variables

Confounder

- A variable that **distorts or masks** the relationship between two variables
- Related to both predictor and outcome

Classic Example:

- Panhandlers ↑ and traffic accidents ↑
- Confounder: **Busy intersections**

→ Panhandlers don't cause accidents — traffic volume does.

10 Data Cleaning (Conceptual)

Before analysis:

- Remove impossible values (out of range)
 - Fix inconsistent text
 - Handle missing data
 - Look for typos and entry errors
-

2 Categorical Data: Describing & Displaying

Frequency

- **Count** in each category

Relative Frequency

- **Proportion** in each category

Relative Frequency = Category Count / Total Observations

Example:

28 “Yes” responses out of 97 → $28/97 = 0.2887 = 28.87\%$

Frequency Table (Example)

Category	Frequency	Relative Frequency
Yes	28	28.87%
No	62	63.92%
It's complicated	7	7.22%

Bar Plot

- Used for **categorical data**
 - Bars **do not touch**
 - X-axis: categories
 - Y-axis: frequency or proportion
-

3 Numeric Data: Describing & Displaying

Measures of Center

Mean (average)

$\bar{x} = 1/n \sum x_i$ sum of x divided by the number of x's

Median

- Middle value when data are **ordered**

Example:

Data: 2, 4, 4, 5, 6, 6, 8, 9, 12

- Mean ≈ 5.9 , Median = 6
-

Measures of Spread

Variance

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

Standard Deviation

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

Interquartile Range (IQR)

$$\text{IQR} = Q3 - Q1$$

Quartiles

Q1: 25th percentile, **Q2**: Median, **Q3**: 75th percentile

Five-Number Summary

(Min, Q1, Median, Q3, Max)

Example:

Texts per day: (0, 15, 30, 70, 500)

4 Visualizing Numeric Data

Histogram

- Used for **numeric data**
- Bars **touch**
- X-axis: value ranges (bins)
- Y-axis: frequency or proportion

Boxplot

- Shows **5-number summary**
 - Box = IQR
 - Line = median
 - Whiskers = range (or up to $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$)
-

5 Shape of a Distribution

Symmetric

- Left and right sides are mirror images
- Mean \approx Median

Right-Skewed (Positive Skew)

- Long tail to the **right**
- Mean $>$ Median

Left-Skewed (Negative Skew)

- Long tail to the **left**
- Mean $<$ Median

6 Choosing the Right Center & Spread

Distribution	Center	Spread
Symmetric	Mean	Standard Deviation
Skewed / Outliers	Median	IQR

7 How to Describe a Numeric Variable (EXAM RULE)

Always mention **ALL THREE**:

1. **Center** (mean or median)
2. **Spread** (SD or IQR)
3. **Shape** (symmetric / skewed)

8 Example Full Description

The distribution of texts sent per day is **right-skewed**, with a **median of 30 texts** and an **IQR of 55 texts**.



Describing Bivariate Data

1 Two Categorical Variables

Contingency Table

- Table of **counts** for category combinations

Marginal Distribution

- Distribution of **one variable alone** (row or column totals)

Conditional Distribution

- Distribution of **one variable given a category of the other (inside tables)**

Example:

Among students who **don't exercise**, what % are in a relationship?
count in category / (row/column total)

Graphs

- **Grouped bar plot**
 - **Mosaic plot**
-

2 One Categorical + One Numeric Variable

Summary Statistics

- Compare **mean / median / SD / IQR** by category

Graphs

- **Grouped boxplots**
- **Grouped histograms**

Example: Median texts sent per day by relationship status

3 Two Numeric Variables

Scatterplot

- X-axis: predictor

- Y-axis: outcome

◆ Pearson Correlation (r)

What it measures

- Strength and direction of **linear** relationship

$$-1 \leq r \leq 1$$

Value of r	Meaning
$r \approx 1$	Strong positive
$r \approx -1$	Strong negative
$r \approx 0$	Weak/no linear relationship

When NOT to Use r

- Relationship is **nonlinear**
- **Outliers** strongly affect data

Interpretation Example

The correlation between BMI and systolic blood pressure is $r = 0.62$, indicating a **moderate positive linear relationship**. Moderate, strong, weak correlation

◆ Probability Basics

Probability

$$0 \leq P(\text{event}) \leq 1$$

Sample Space (S)

- Set of all possible outcomes

Event

- A subset of the sample space

Example (fair die):

- $P(\text{rolling a 4}) = 1/6$ $P(\text{not rolling a 4}) = 5/6$

◆ Probability Distribution

- Lists **all possible outcomes** and their probabilities
- Probabilities must **sum to 1**

◆ OR Rule (Addition Rule)

General Addition Rule

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

Mutually Exclusive Events

- Cannot occur together

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = 0 \quad P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

Example:

60% have high cholesterol 70% have high blood pressure 50% have both
 $P(\text{HC or BP}) = 0.6 + 0.7 - 0.5 = 0.8$

♦ AND Rule (Multiplication Rule)**General Multiplication Rule**

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A) \times P(B|A)$$

♦ Conditional Probability**Definition**

$$P(B|A) = P(A \text{ and } B) / P(A)$$

Interpretation: Probability that **B** occurs given **A** already happened

♦ Independence

Events A and B are **independent if and only if**:

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

Equivalent test:

$$P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A) \times P(B)$$

♦ Complement Rule

$$P(\text{not } A) = 1 - P(A)$$

♦ Law of Total Probability

If event A can happen under different scenarios B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1 \text{ to } k} P(B_i) \cdot P(A|B_i)$$

Tiny Example (mice survival):

Environments:

- Low: $P(L) = 0.30$, $P(S|L) = 0.80$
- Mod: $P(M) = 0.20$, $P(S|M) = 0.30$
- High: $P(H) = 0.50$, $P(S|H) = 0.10$

$$P(S) = 0.30(0.80) + 0.20(0.30) + 0.50(0.10)$$

$$P(S) = 0.24 + 0.06 + 0.05 = 0.35$$

♦ Bayes' Theorem

Flips conditional probability:

$$P(A|B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A) / P(B)$$

Where:

- $P(A)$ = prior
- $P(B|A)$ = likelihood
- $P(B)$ = normalizing constant (often from Law of Total Probability)

Tiny Example (surviving mouse from high-stress):

$$P(H|S) = P(S|H) \cdot P(H) / P(S) = 0.10 \cdot 0.50 / 0.35 \approx 0.143$$

Interpretation: About **14.3%** of surviving mice came from the high-stress environment.