STAT 100: Week 9

Ricky's Section

Introductions and Attendance

Introduction: Name

Question of the Week: Were you able to do what you were looking forward to this semester (from Week 1)? If so, how was it?

Important Reminders

Anonymous Feedback

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSfKv FGvsoogm-IvtxKx3Vf6bBzSJE2jamK1gklAzL6Nk XE8w/viewform

Content Review: Week 9

A (Quick) Review of Probability and Random Variables

- **Probability**: A value between o and 1
- Random variable: An unknown value that "crystallizes" to a certain number AFTER an experiment
 - A **discrete r.v.** can crystallize to countable numbers (ex: 1, 2, 3)
 - A **continuous r.v.** can crystallize to any real number in an interval (ex: $-\sqrt{2}$, π , 102.74012...)
- **Probability distributions**: Functions that describe a **r.v.** through its **probabilities**
 - For **discrete r.v.s**, we use **PMFs**, which give the probability of the r.v. crystallizing to any specific number
 - For **continuous r.v.s**, we use **PDFs**, which are shapes whose area represents **probability** (thus giving the **probability** of the **r.v.** crystallizing to any number within a specific interval)

What is an example of a discrete r.v.? A continuous r.v.?

Question:

What is an example of a discrete r.v.? A continuous r.v.?

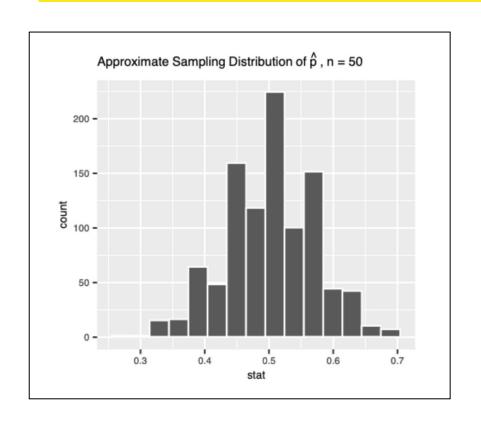
There are a bunch of different examples! The number of students in this room is **discrete** while a student's height is **continuous**.

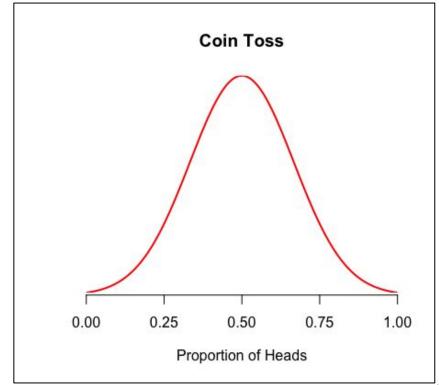
Moving forward, we'll be working mostly with **continuous r.v.s** (because we're recasting our **sample statistics** as **continuous r.v.s**).

A (Quick) Review of Probability and Random Variables

- Normal random variable: $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$
 - μ = mean, σ = SD
 - We use this for **proportions**
- Standard normal variable: $X \sim N(0, 1)$
- <u>t random variable</u>: X ~ t(df)
 - df = degrees of freedom
 - We use this for **means** and **linear regression**
- <u>Central Limit Theorem (CLT)</u>: For random samples and a large sample size, the sampling distribution of many sample statistics is approx. normal
 - When assumptions are met, we can conduct **inference** using the **normal distribution** as a good approximation

Null Distributions: Simulation-Based vs. Theory-based





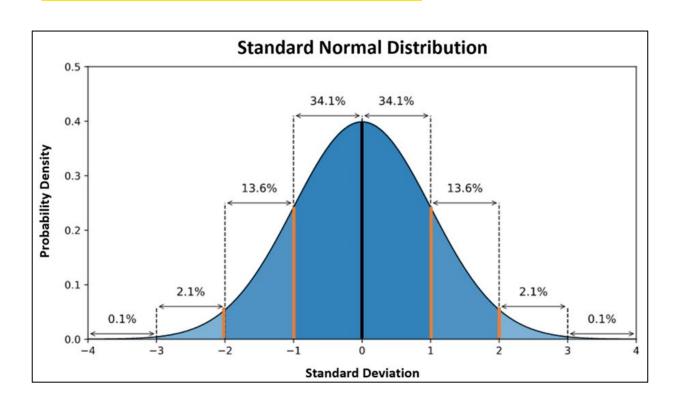
Theory-Based Inference

- Let's recast out sample statistics as random variables
- According to the **CLT**, when **assumptions** are met...
 - $\frac{\hat{p} \sim N(p, \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}})}{n}$, where p = population proportion
 - $-\frac{\bar{x} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})}{\sqrt{n}}$, where μ = population mean and σ = population SD
- We often **standardize** our **sample statistic** to use **z-score** as our **test statistic**
 - This is because **Standard Normal Dist.** is easy to use as our **Null Dist.**
 - $\mu = \frac{X \mu}{\sigma}$, where $\mu = \text{population mean and } \sigma = \text{population SD}$

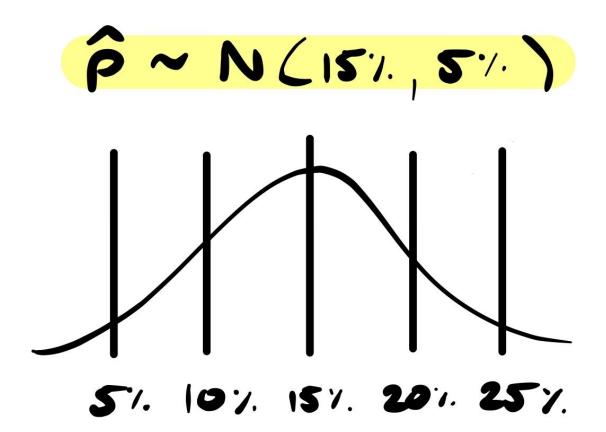
More on Test Statistic and Z-Score

- Up to now, we've been using our **(observed) sample** statistic as our test statistic
 - "The prob. we get our observed test stat. of 75% heads (or more extreme) is..."
- We can also use z-score, which is a standardized version of the sample statistic
 - "The prob. we get a z-score of 2.4 (or more extreme) is..."
 - It measures how many SDs the **sample statistic** is away from its **mean**
 - If sample statistic $\sim N(\mu, \sigma)$, then z-score $\sim N(0, 1)$ (Standard Normal)

Standard Normal Distribution



If $\hat{p} \sim N(15\%, 5\%)$ and I get a sample with $\hat{p} = 25\%$, what is its z-score, and what does it mean?



Question:

If $\hat{p} \sim N(15\%, 5\%)$ and I get a sample with $\hat{p} = 25\%$, what is its z-score, and what does it mean?

We're recasting our **sample stat.** (**ĵ**) as a **continuous r.v. (X)**.

We know $\hat{p} \sim N(15\%, 5\%)$. According to **CLT**, when assumptions are met, $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$. Thus, mean = 15%, and SD = 5%.

z-score = $(X - \mu)/\sigma$, so z-score = 2. We see 25% is 2 SDs away from 15%.

Theory-Based Hypothesis Tests (for Proportions)

- According to CLT, under the H_0 , $\hat{p} \sim N(p_0, \sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{n}})$
 - Remember $\hat{p} \sim N(p, \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}})$
- Our z-score (test statistic) follows a standard normal distribution
 - $z \sim N(0, 1)$
- $z = \frac{\hat{p} p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1 p_0)}{n}}}$
 - Remember z-score = $(X \mu)/\sigma$

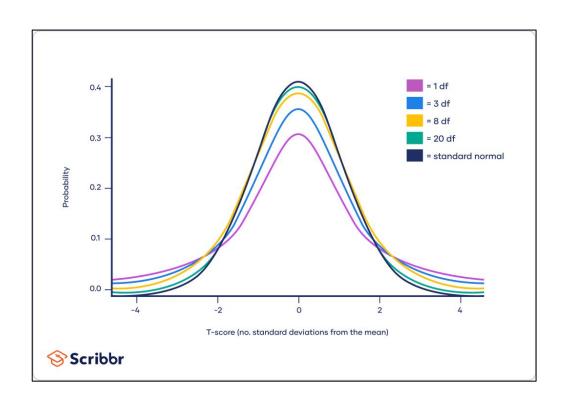
Theory-Based Confidence Intervals (for Proportions)

- A CI has the form of point estimate \pm (critical value \times SE)
 - Critical value is based on our desired confidence level
- According to CLT, $\hat{p} \sim N(p, \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}})$
 - **SE** is $\sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}}$
- Thus, our CI (substituting in $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$ for \mathbf{p}) is $\hat{\mathbf{p}} \pm (\mathbf{z}^* \times \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}})$
 - z* is critical value in norm. dist.

For Means, We Have a Problem

- By CLT, $\bar{x} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$, but we don't know σ (population SD), so we replace it with s (sample SD)
- When we use $\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ as our SD, our **standardized test statistic** will follow a **t-distribution** with df = n 1 rather than N(0, 1)
 - Using the *t*-distribution accounts for the extra variability introduced by using **s** as an estimate of σ
 - Our CI should be wider because we are now more uncertain

t-distribution



For a t-distribution, what happens as the degrees of freedoms increase?

Question:

For a t-distribution, what happens as the degrees of freedoms increase?

As **degrees of freedom** increase for a **t-distribution**, it looks more like a **normal distribution**.

Intuitively, as **degrees of freedom** increase, there is less uncertainty, so it becomes more appropriate to use **normal distribution**.

Theory-Based Hypothesis Tests (for Means)

- According to CLT, under the $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{0}}$, $\frac{\bar{x} \sim N(\mu_0, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})}{\sqrt{n}}$
 - Remember we don't have σ , so we replace it with s
- Thus, $\bar{x} \sim N(\mu_0, \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}})$
- Now, our *t*-score (standardized test statistic) follows a
 t-distribution
 - $t \sim t(df = n 1)$
- $t = \frac{\bar{x} \mu_0}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}}$
 - Remember z-score = $(X \mu)/\sigma$... This is the *t*-distribution analogue

Theory-Based Confidence Intervals (for Means)

- A CI has the form of point estimate \pm (critical value \times SE)
 - Critical value is based on our desired confidence level
- According to CLT and substituting in **s** for σ , $\bar{x} \sim N(\mu, \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}})$
 - **SE** is $\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$
- Thus, our CI is $\bar{\mathbf{x}} \pm (\mathbf{t}^* \times \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}})$
 - t* is critical value in *t*-distribution

The Important Functions for Normal Distribution

- pnorm(): Used to calculate probabilities on a normal distribution (often, for p-value during hypothesis test)
 - Ex: What is the **probability** a student scores an 1800 on the SAT if the scores are N(1500, 300)?
- pnorm(q = TEST-STAT, mean = MEAN, sd = STAN-DEV)
 - Ex: pnorm(q = 1800, mean = 1500, sd = 300) = 0.8413447
- **qnorm()**: Used to calculate **quantiles** on a **normal distribution** (often, for **critical value** during **confidence interval**)
 - Ex: What score on the SAT would put a student in the 99th quantile (percentile)?
- qnorm(p = QUANTILE, mean = MEAN, sd = STAN-DEV)
 - Ex: qnorm(p = 0.99, mean = 1500, sd = 300) = 2197.904

The Important Functions for *t*-distribution

- pt(): Used to calculate probabilities on a t-distribution (often, for p-value during hypothesis test)
 - Ex: What is the **probability** a student scores a 3 on an exam if the scores are $\sim t(301 1)$?
- pt(q = TEST-STAT, df = DEGREES-OF-FREEDOM)
 - Ex: pt(q = 3, df = 301 1) = 0.9985369
- **qt()**: Used to calculate **quantiles** on a **t-distribution** (often, for **critical value** during **confidence interval**)
 - Ex: What score would put a student in the 99th quantile (percentile)?
- qt(p = QUANTILE, df = DEGREES-OF-FREEDOM)
 - Ex: qt(p = 0.99, df = 301 1) = 2.338842

Let's Recap

- Want **probability**?
 - Use pnorm(), pt()
 - This is often done for **p-value** in **hypothesis testing**
- Want **quantile** (i.e. percentile)?
 - Use qnorm(), qt()
 - This is often done to find z* or t* in confidence intervals

Important Code for Theory-Based Inference

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1JVNT5p6ozFj-fs7 oNROXU3LEiXUwuUBo/view?usp=sharing

"Estimate" vs. "Statistic" in R

- **Estimate** is the **observed sample statistic** (i.e., the numeric quantity calculated with the dataset)
 - Here, the dataset had a sample correlation coefficient of -0.398
- **Statistic** is the **standardized test statistic** (i.e., z-score or *t*-score)
 - Here, that sample statistic is 7.07 standard errors below what we'd expect if the null hypothesis were true (i.e., if there is no correlation between age and vitamin D levels)
 - Here, the standardized test statistic is a t-score that's distributed t(266)

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 8

## estimate statistic p.value parameter conf.low conf.high method alternative

## <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <chr> <chr> ## 1 -0.398 -7.07 6.89e-12 266 -1 -0.309 Pearson'~ less
```

Sample Size Calculation

- This is performed **before collecting data** to determine an appropriate **sample size** to gain desired **precision** for a **CI**
 - If my CI for average amount of sleep is between 1 and 23 hours, how helpful is that?
- $CI = point estimate \pm (critical value \times SE)$, where margin of error = (critical value × SE)
 - For proportions, margin of error = $\mathbf{z}^* \times \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}}$
 - For means, margin of error = $\mathbf{t}^* \times \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$
- We want our **margin of error** to be no larger than **B**, a bound
 - For proportions, $z * \times \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}} \le B \implies \frac{(z*)^2 \hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{B^2} \le n$
 - For means, $t * \times \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \le B \Rightarrow \frac{(st*)^2}{B^2} \le n$

Questions?

P-Set 6

Have a great rest of your week!