

MATH 10

INTRODUCTORY STATISTICS

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Your friendly neighbourhood graduated student.

Homework 4

- You know what you have to do....



Good News About Final Exam

- It is “cumulative” but *tentatively*, only starting from sampling distributions and confidence intervals.
- Do note that many concepts like mean, standard deviation, Pearson’s r (in regression), and probability *are used* in later chapters.
- Will have a meeting to finalize this soon. Let you know on Tuesday.

Week 7

- **Chapter 12 – Test of Means**

More hypothesis testing!

- **Chapter 13 – Interestingly titled “Power”** ← today's lecture

The idea of the “power” of a test.

- **Chapter 14 – Regression** ← today's lecture

Aside : The Law of Large Numbers

- We have actually indirectly learned “The Law of Large Numbers”.
- Sampling distribution has true population mean.
- Standard errors have n in the denominator.

Aside : The Law of Large Numbers

- Sampling distribution has true population mean.
- Standard errors have n in the denominator.
- So, as sample size n become larger...
- ...the sample mean/proportion becomes closer to true population mean/proportion.

This is the law of large numbers!

Hypothesis Testing Example : Difference Between Means

- Textbook, Chapter 12, Exercise 8
- One group threw darts at a target with their preferred hand (sample 1), another group threw darts with their non-preferred hand (sample 2).

Hypothesis Testing Example : Difference Between Means

- Textbook, Chapter 12, Exercise 8
- One group threw darts at a target with their preferred hand (sample 1), another group threw darts with their non-preferred hand (sample 2).
- Assume you can treat both samples as independent simple random samples from the respective hypothetical population of the score of a single dart throw.
- Additional assumptions: populations have the same unknown variance, populations normally distributed, both groups consists of $n = 5$ participants.

Hypothesis Testing Example : Difference Between Means

- Additional assumptions: populations have the same unknown variance, populations normally distributed, both groups consists of $n = 5$ participants.
- Sample 1 (preferred) : $\bar{X}_1 = 10.6$, $S_1^2 = 5.3$
- Sample 2 (non-pref) : $\bar{X}_2 = 8.6$, $S_2^2 = 1.3$

- $H_0 : \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$ *i.e. no difference*
- $H_A : \mu_1 - \mu_2 > 0$ *i.e. better to throw with preferred hand*

Hypothesis Testing Example : Difference Between Means

- Populations normal, unknown variances => sampling dist. is t-dist.
- Mean of sampling dist. = $\mu_1 - \mu_2$

- Standard error = $\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2 + S_2^2}{n}} = \sqrt{\frac{5.3 + 1.3}{5}} \approx 1.1489.$

- Degrees of freedom = $(n - 1) + (n - 1) = 4 + 4 = 8.$

Hypothesis Testing Example : Difference Between Means

- Standard error = $\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2 + S_2^2}{n}} = \sqrt{\frac{5.3 + 1.3}{5}} \approx 1.1489$.
- Degrees of freedom = $(n - 1) + (n - 1) = 4 + 4 = 8$.
- $\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 = 10.6 - 8.6 = 2$.

- $P(\text{sample difference} \geq 2) = P\left(T \geq \frac{10.6 - 8.6}{1.1489}\right)$
- $P\left(T \geq \frac{10.6 - 8.6}{1.1489}\right) = P(T \geq 1.762) < P(T \geq 1.40) = 0.10$

Hypothesis Testing Example : Difference Between Means

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- $P\left(T \geq \frac{10.6 - 8.6}{1.1489}\right) = P(T \geq 1.762) < P(T \geq 1.40) = 0.10$
- The question does not specify a significance level α .
- But we know that the condition for rejecting H_0 is :

$$P(\text{sample difference} \geq 2) < \alpha$$

Hypothesis Testing Example : Difference Between Means

- But we know that the condition for rejecting H_0 is :

$$P(\text{sample difference} \geq 2) < \alpha$$

- Depends on what α is given, this condition may or may not be met.
- Condition met : **reject H_0 at α level of significance. Throwing with the preferred hand will *probably* give a higher score.**
- Condition not met : **we do not reject H_0 at α level of significance. Inconclusive.**

Example for $\alpha = 0.10$

$$P(\text{sample difference} \geq 2) = P(T \geq 1.762) < P(T \geq 1.40) = 0.10 = \alpha$$

So, condition for rejecting the null hypothesis has been met.

Reject H_0 at $\alpha = 0.10$ level of significance. Throwing with the preferred hand will *probably* gives a higher score.

Chapter 13 - Power

- Recall : Type I and II errors. → exact definition / lingo not required
- Probability of rejecting a true $H_0 = \alpha$ (*yes, the significance level*)

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- Recall : Type I and II errors. → exact definition / lingo not required
- Probability of rejecting a true $H_0 = \alpha$ (*yes, the significance level*)
- Probability of failing to reject a false $H_0 = \beta$.
- Remember these by realizing that H_0 is either true or false.

Chapter 13 - Power

- Probability of failing to reject a false null hypothesis = β .
- Power = $1 - \beta$.
- Cannot be calculated unless we specify a particular value for the true mean (which agrees with the alternative hypothesis).

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Example of power calculation

(in this course we will only do this for normal distributions)

$H_0 : \mu = 50$, $H_A : \mu > 50$, let's say the true mean is 65.

Chapter 13 - Power

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$H_0 : \mu = 50$, $H_A : \mu > 50$, let's say the true mean is 65.

Population variance given : $\sigma^2 = 25$.

Significance level $\alpha = 0.1587$. @__@

Sample size $n = 1$ (for illustration purposes)

Chapter 13, Section 6 – Factors Affecting Power

- Sample size - *larger sample size, higher power.*
- Standard deviation - *lower variance, higher power.*
- Difference between hypothesized and true mean.
- Significance level. → **interesting trade-off**
- One vs. Two-tailed tests.

Aside: Neyman-Pearson Lemma (not in exam!!!)

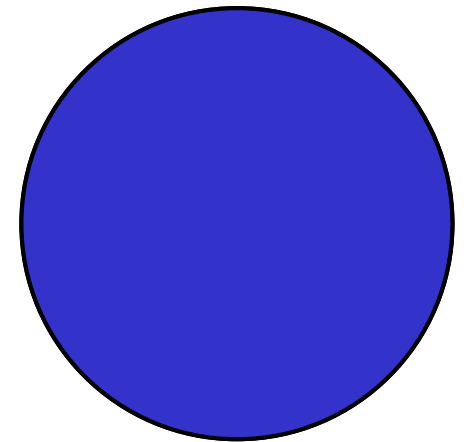
- One of the key ideas in statistical hypothesis testing. 1933~
- Given any significance level α , what is a hypothesis test that maximizes power $1 - \beta$?
- Neyman-Pearson proved that it is the Likelihood Ratio Test.
- Not the popular framework that we are learning now.

Break time!! \o/

- No exercise today! Go enjoy your break. ^__^
- There are only so many ways I can write hypothesis testing questions. ☹️
- Circle is a timer that becomes blue. O_o
(please ignore if it glitches)



12 minutes

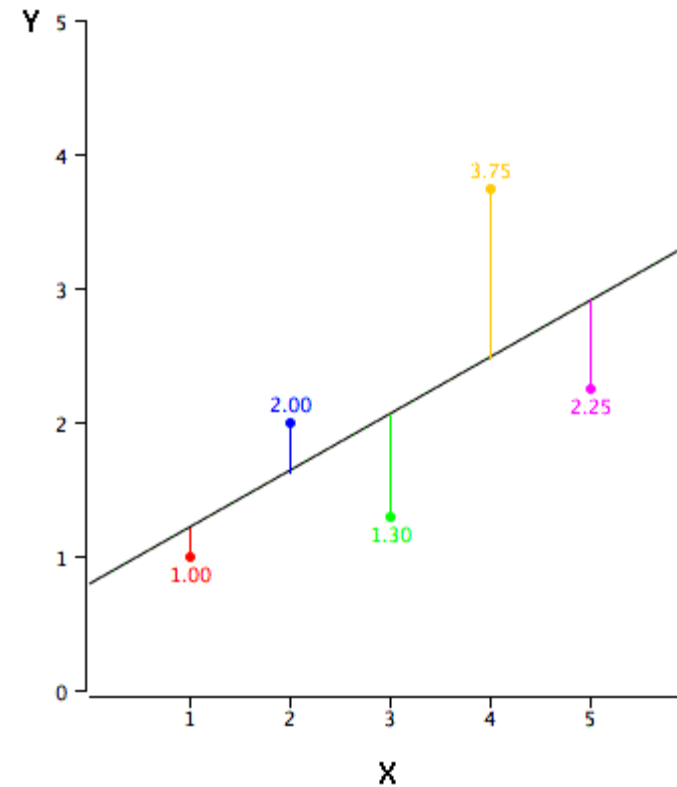
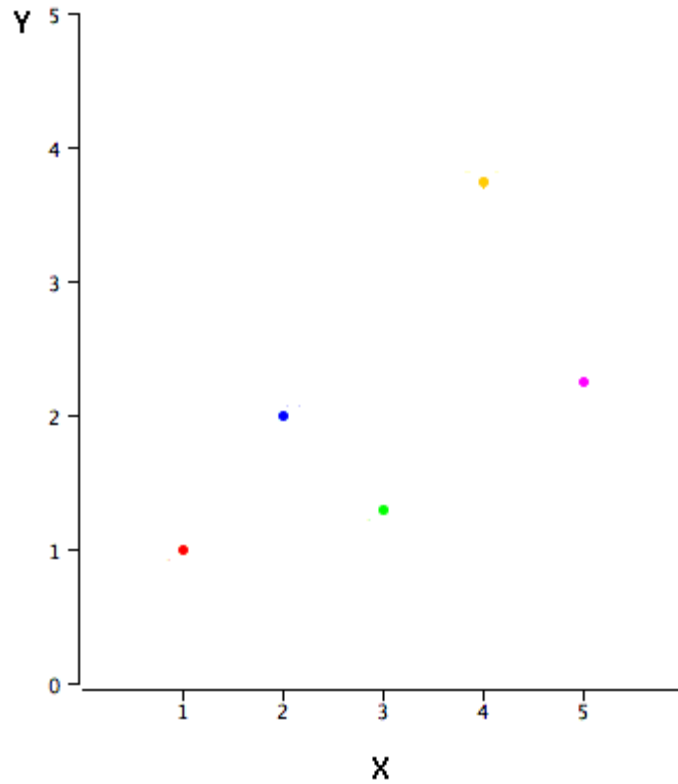


Chapter 14 - Regression

- Bivariate data (remember Pearson's r ?).
- Pick one to be the independent variable, X .
- Pick one to be the dependent variable, Y .

- One independent/predictor variable \Rightarrow simple linear regression.
- Want to plot predictions of Y as a function of X using a straight line.

Want to find the “best fit” line.



Errors of prediction (or residuals)

- Difference between observed and predicted : $e_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i$
- $\hat{Y}_i = bX_i + a$ \rightarrow recall the slope-intercept definition of a line.
- $Y_i = i$ th actual value.

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- $Y_i = i$ th actual value.
- We want to minimize the sum of squared errors $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2$.
- Remember how the mean is defined as the quantity that minimizes the sum of squares deviations?

Aside: Gauss-Markov Theorem (not in exam!!!)

- Why do we find the regression line this way?
- Because two dudes proved mathematically that this is very **BLUE** ... *under a stack of reasonable assumptions.*

Best

Linear

Unbiased

Estimator

Computing Regression Line

- Slope coefficient :

$$b = r s_Y / s_X$$

- r = Pearson correlation coefficient.

- Intercept (M_Y is the sample mean of all the Y values etc) :

$$a = M_Y - bM_X$$

Standardized Variables

- To standardize a variable, you subtract its mean from it and divide the result with the standard deviation. \rightarrow *mean zero, std dev one*

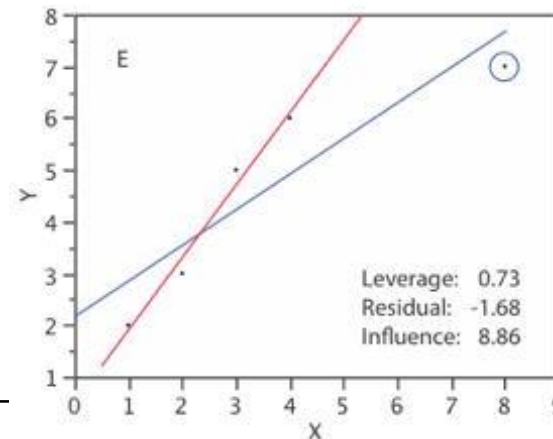
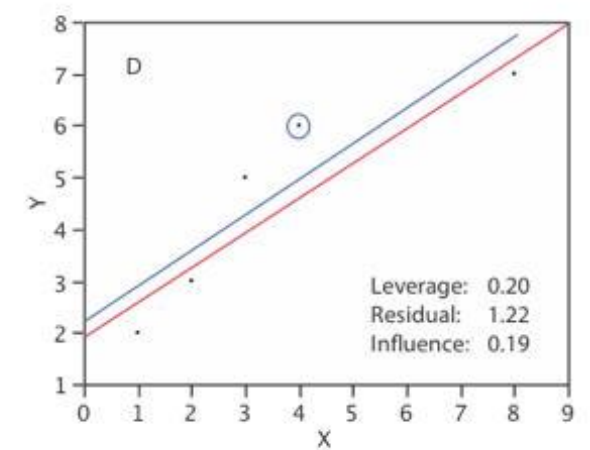
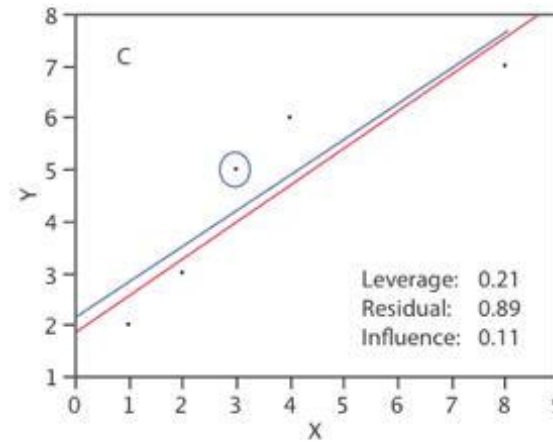
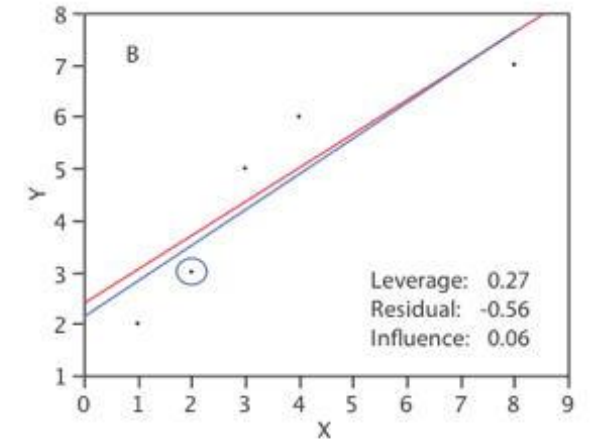
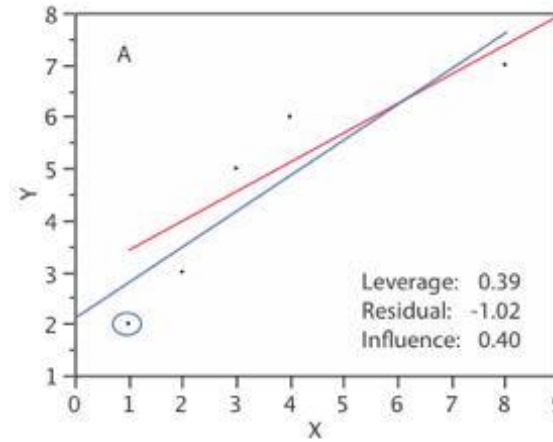
$$\frac{X - \text{mean}}{\text{standard deviation}}$$

- We have been doing this to turn variables into standard normal and standard t-dist.
- Then, regression line becomes :

$$\hat{Z}_Y = r Z_X$$

Chapter 14, Section 7 – Influential Observations

- Textbook : leverage and influence.
- Both not required.
- Just an intuitive understanding of what outliers do to the regression line.



Chapter 14, Section 8 – Regression towards the Mean

- Slope coefficient :

$$b = r s_Y / s_X$$

- A change in one standard deviation in X is predicted by the regression model to result in a change in r standard deviations in Y .

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- A change in one standard deviation in X is predicted by the regression model to result in a change in r standard deviations in Y .
- So, if X and Y are similar measurements, e.g. heights of children and parents, then higher than average X would appear to be associated with a Y that is less over the average.