

**STA 442: Methods of Applied
Statistics**

**STA1008: Applications of
Statistics**

Data File

- Rows are **cases**
- Columns are **variables**

1	2	2	0	78.0	65	80	39	English	Female	3	3	1
2	2	6	2	66.0	54	75	57	English	Female	3	3	1
3	2	4	4	80.2	77	70	62	English	Male	5	6	1
4	2	5	2	81.7	80	67	76	English	Female	2	2	1
5	2	4	4	86.8	87	80	86	English	Male	5	5	1
6	2	3	1	76.7	53	75	60	English	Male	3	3	1
7	2	3	2	85.8	86	81	54	Other	Female	2	2	1
8	2	4	3	73.0	75	77	17	English	Male	4	5	1
9	2	6	2	72.3	63	60	2	English	Male	4	4	1
10	2	8	6	90.3	87	88	76	English	Male	4	4	1
11	2	8	3	.	.	.	60	English	Male	1	2	1
12	2	6	4	.	.	.	61	Other	Female	1	1	1
13	.	.	.	87.2	84	83	54	English	Male	3	3	1
14	2	2	5	91.0	90	91	84	English	Male	5	5	1
15	2	3	1	72.8	53	74	.	English	Female	3	3	1
16	.	.	.	80.7	72	84	14	English	Male	3	3	1
17	2	5	0	82.5	82	85	75	Other	Female	2	2	1
18	2	4	6	91.5	95	81	94	English	Female	3	3	1
19	2	3	2	78.3	77	74	60	English	Female	3	3	1
20	.	.	.	74.5	0	85	.	English	Male	4	4	1
21	2	3	3	80.7	71	78	53	Other	Female	1	3	1
22	2	5	3	88.3	80	85	63	English	Female	3	3	1
23	2	4	2	76.8	82	64	82	Other	Female	2	2	1

Skipping

570	2	5	4	84.8	88	68	80	English	Male	1	1	1
571	2	4	3	78.3	83	84	56	English	Male	4	2	1
572	2	6	3	88.3	81	90	70	English	Female	5	5	1
573	2	3	1	English	Male	3	3	1
574	2	5	9	77.0	73	79	60	English	Female	2	2	1
575	.	.	.	78.7	80	73	.	English	Female	6	3	1
576	2	5	2	80.7	80	70	50	Other	Male	1	1	1
577	2	4	2	80.7	56	81	50	English	Female	2	2	1
578	2	4	3	.	.	.	78	Other	Female	4	4	1
579	1	6	1	82.2	80	86	61	English	Female	2	2	1

id	mcg	r	day	AML	AMS	AMld	PML	PMS	PMld	AMslp	PMslp	SWeight
1	198	1	1	0.6	.	.	0.8
2	198	1	2	1.8	.	.	2.8
3	198	1	3	4.7	1	.	6.1	1
4	198	1	4	7.8	4	2.0	8.7	5	2.1	.	.	.
5	198	1	5	11.2	6	1.8	12.1	7	2.0	.	.	.
6	198	1	6	14.3	12	1.9	15.0	11	1.4	.	.	.
7	198	1	7	17.5	12	2.1	18.5	13	1.6	.	.	.
8	198	1	8	20.9	19	1.1	21.9	19	1.7	.	.	.
9	198	1	9	24.0	22	1.6	25.2	22	1.3	.	.	.
10	198	1	10	27.2	26	2.1	28.4	26	1.2	.	.	.
11	198	1	11	30.7	28	1.4	32.3	28	1.5	.	.	.
12	198	1	12	.	31	.	.	31
13	198	1	13	.	37	.	.	36
14	198	1	14	.	37	.	.	38	.	3.11	3.18	0.5996
15	198	2	1	0.5	.	.	0.6
16	198	2	2	1.4	.	.	2.3
17	198	2	3	4.15	1	.	5.6	1
18	198	2	4	7.4	2	2.0	8.7	4	2.1	.	.	.
19	198	2	5	10.8	5	2.2	12.0	8	2.0	.	.	.
20	198	2	6	14.2	10	1.7	15.3	13	1.6	.	.	.
21	198	2	7	17.1	13	2.2	18.1	16	1.7	.	.	.
22	198	2	8	21.3	18	1.1	22.2	18	1.4	.	.	.
23	198	2	9	24.4	27	1.4	25.6	24	1.2	.	.	.
24	198	2	10	27.6	26	2.1	28.8	28	1.2	.	.	.
25	198	2	11	31.2	29	1.9	32.5	29	1.3	.	.	.
26	198	2	12	.	33	.	.	36
27	198	2	13	.	38	.	.	41
28	198	2	14	.	42	.	.	42	.	3.21	3.26	0.6040

Variables can be

- Quantitative - representing amount of something, like Income, BP, BMI, GPA (?)
- Categorical - Codes represent category membership, like Gender, Nationality, Marital status, Alive vs. dead

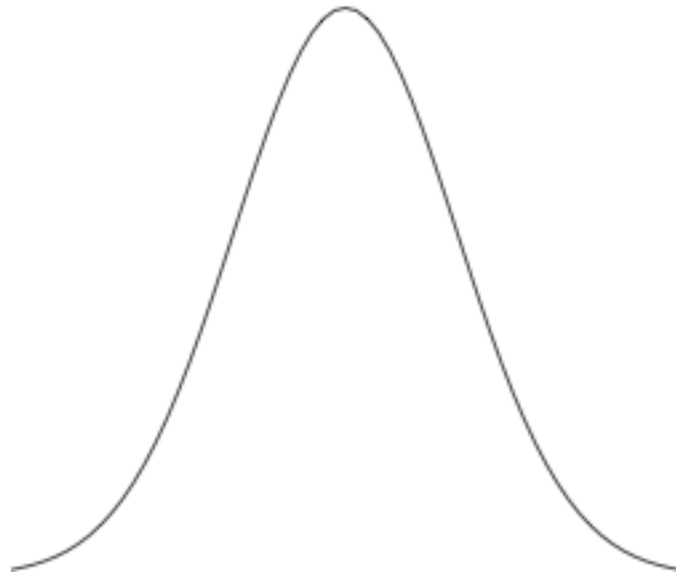
Variables can be

- Independent: Predictor or cause (contributing factor)
- Dependent: Predicted or effect

We will often pretend that our data represent a **random sample** from some **population**. We will carry out formal procedures for making inferences about this (usually fictitious) population, and then use them as a basis for drawing conclusions about the data.

- **Statistics:** Numbers that can be calculated from sample data
- **Parameters:** Numbers that could be calculated if we knew the whole population

Distribution = Population Histogram



Conditional Distribution

For each value x of the independent variable X , there is a separate distribution of the dependent Variable Y . This is called the conditional distribution of Y given $X=x$.

Example: Conditional distribution of height given
Gender = F.

Definition of “Related”

- We will say that the independent and dependent variables are **unrelated** if the conditional distribution of the dependent variable is identical for each value of the independent variable.
- If the distribution of the dependent variable does depend on the value of the independent variable, we will describe the two variables as **related**.

Testing Statistical Significance

- Are IV and DV “really” related?
- **Null Hypothesis:** They are unrelated in the population

Reasoning

Suppose that the independent and dependent variables are actually unrelated in the population. If this null hypothesis is true, what is the probability of obtaining a sample relationship between the variables that is as strong or stronger than the one we have observed? If the probability is small (say, $p < 0.05$), then we describe the sample relationship as **statistically significant**, and it is socially acceptable to discuss the results.

P-value

- The probability of getting our results (or better) just by chance.
- The minimum significance level at which the null hypothesis can be rejected.

We can be wrong

- Type I error: H_0 is true, but we reject it
- Type II error: H_0 is false, but we fail to reject it

Power is the probability of *correctly* rejecting H_0

- Power = $1 - P(\text{Type II Error})$
- Power increases with true strength of relationship, and with sample size
- Power can be used to select sample size in advance of data collection

Confidence Interval: Pair of numbers chosen so that the probability they will enclose the parameter (or function of parameters) is large, like 0.95

Should we Accept H_0 ?

- When the results are not statistically significant, usually we will say that the data do not provide enough evidence to conclude that the variables are related.
- See text for more details

Many statistical methods assume **Independent Observations**

- Simple random sampling
- Cases are not linked, do not “communicate”
- If the design involves non-independence, allow for it

Elementary Tests

- Independent (two-sample) t-test
- Matched (paired) t-test
- One-way ANOVA
- Simple regression and correlation
- Chi-square test of independence

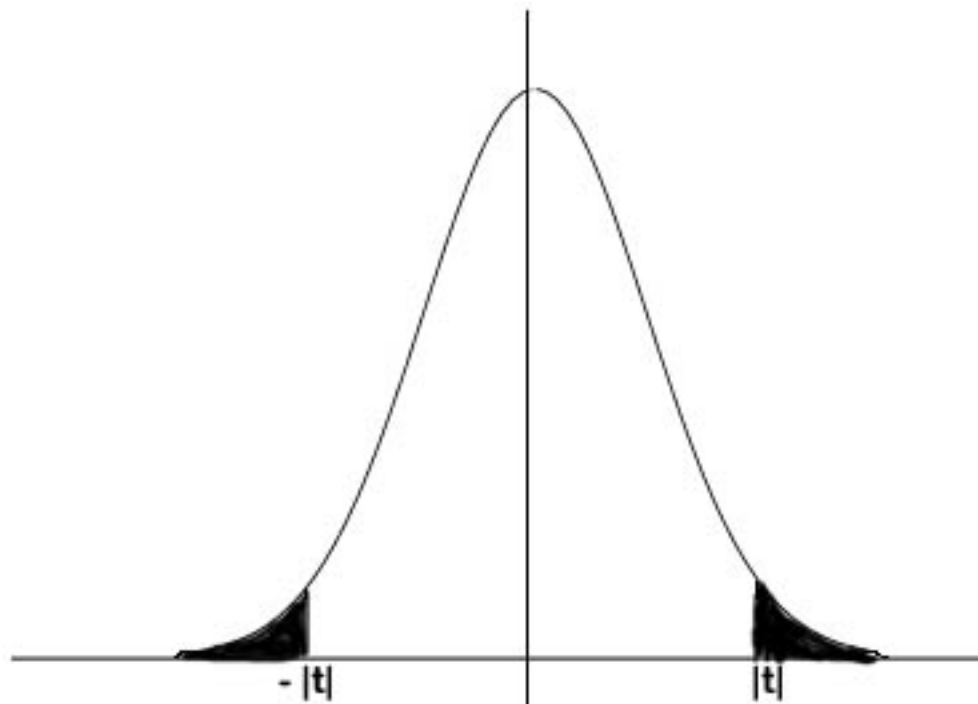
Independent t-test: Compare two means

Screen	Productivity Rating
CRT	6.2
CRT	2.7
Flat	5.9
CRT	7.4
Flat	1.5
...	...

Model (Assumptions) for the independent t-test

- Random sampling, independently from two normal populations
- Possibly different population means
- Same population variance
- Null hypothesis: Population means equal

Two-tailed tests and p-values only!



Robustness of the two-sample t-test

- Normality does not matter much if both samples are large
- Equal variance does not matter much if both samples are large and nearly equal in size
- Independent observations: Important

Matched (paired) t-test

Taste1	Taste2	Difference
10	8	2
7	7	0
3	4	-1
7	8	-1
6	5	1
...

Within versus between cases

- Between: A case contributes exactly one IV and one DV value
- Within: A case contributes several pairs (IV,DV) - usually one pair for each value of the Independent variable

Model assumptions for matched t-test

- Random sampling of pairs
- Differences are normally distributed (satisfied if both measurements are normal)

Matched t-test

- Null Hypothesis: Mean difference equals zero
- Just a one-sample t-test applied to differences
- Can have more power than an inappropriate independent t-test

Robustness of matched t-test

- For large samples, normality does not matter
- Independent observations matter a lot

One-way analysis of variance

- Could call it “one-factor”
- Could call it “ANOVA”
- Extension of independent t-test: More than two values of the IV
- There are several within-cases versions
- not elementary

Simple regression and correlation

- Simple means one IV
- DV quantitative
- IV usually quantitative too

Simple regression and correlation

High School GPA

University GPA

88

86

78

73

87

89

86

81

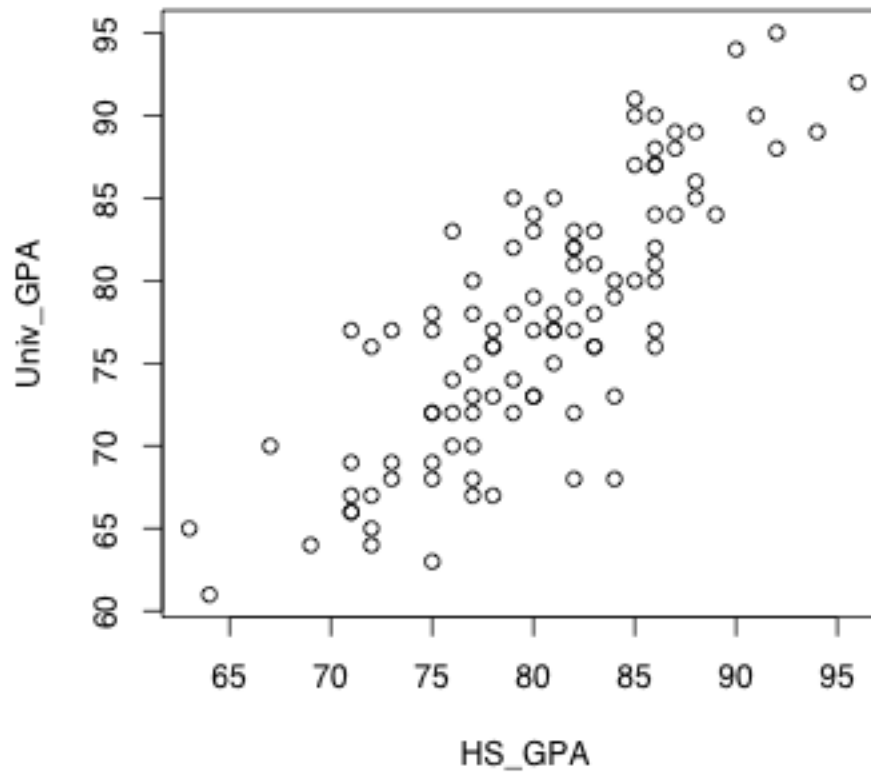
77

67

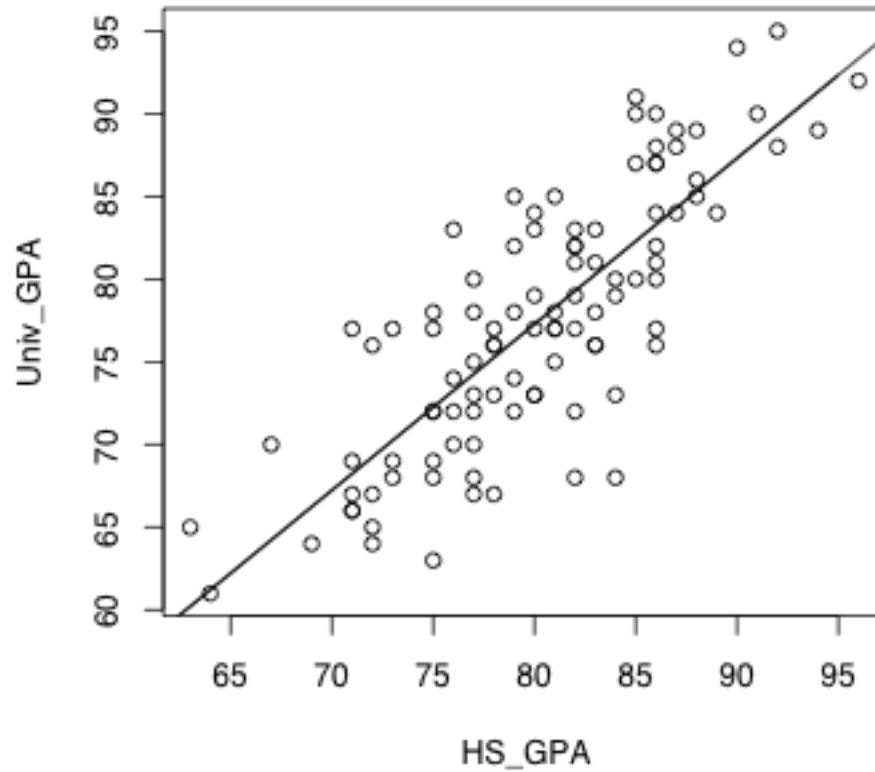
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Scatterplot



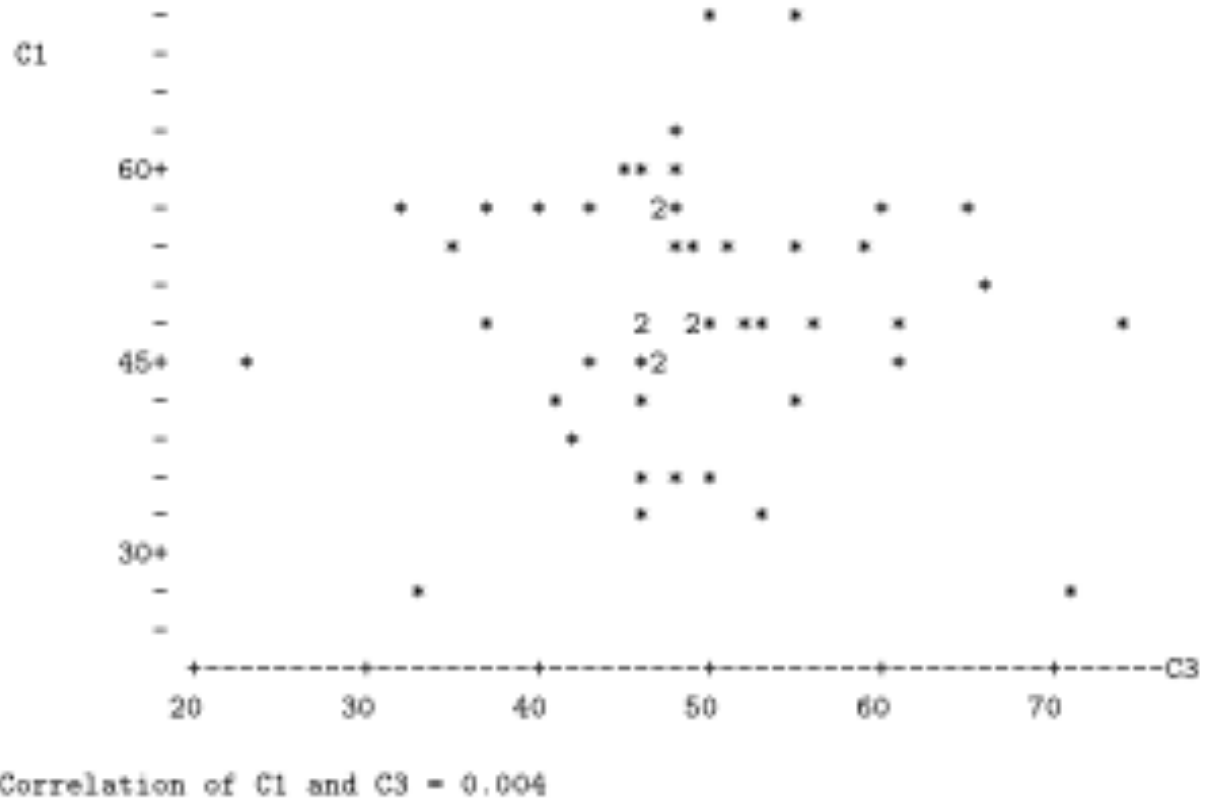
Least squares line



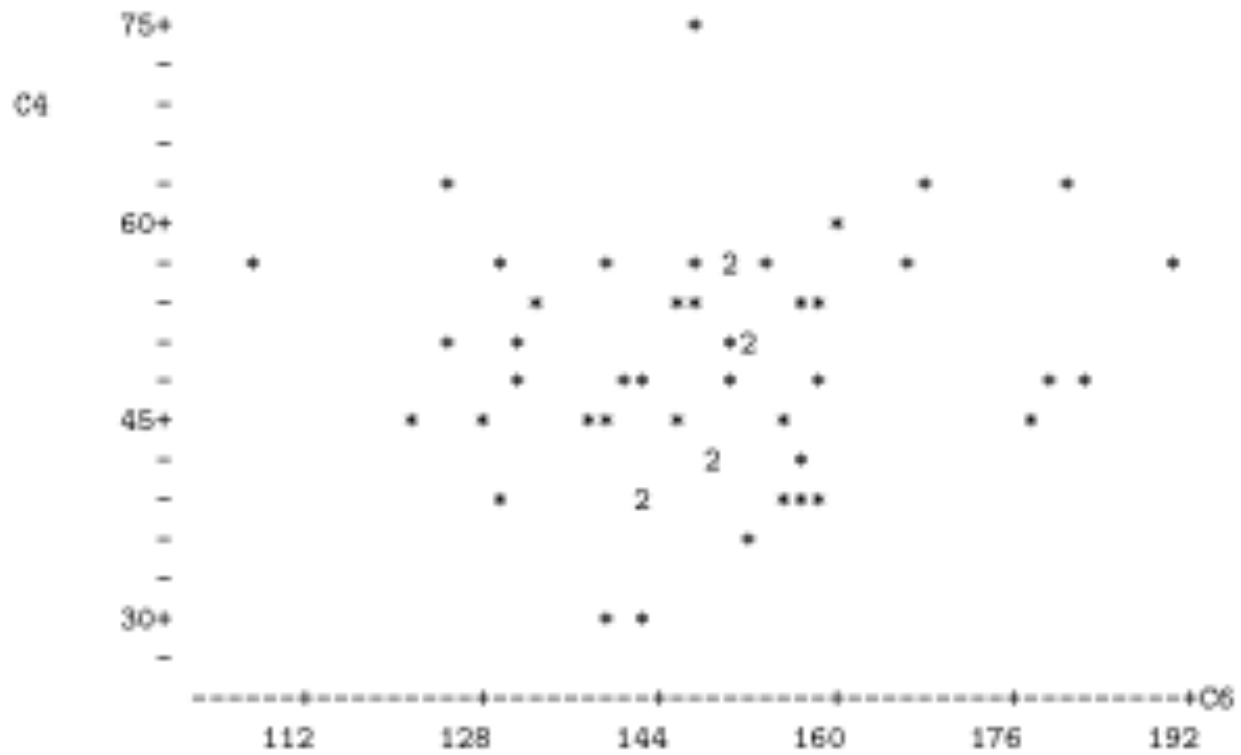
Correlation coefficient r

- $-1 \leq r \leq 1$
- $r = +1$ indicates a perfect positive linear relationship. All the points are exactly on a line with a positive slope.
- $r = -1$ indicates a perfect negative linear relationship. All the points are exactly on a line with a negative slope.
- $r = 0$ means no *linear* relationship (curve possible). Slope of least squares line = 0
- $r^2 =$ proportion of variation explained

$r = 0.004$

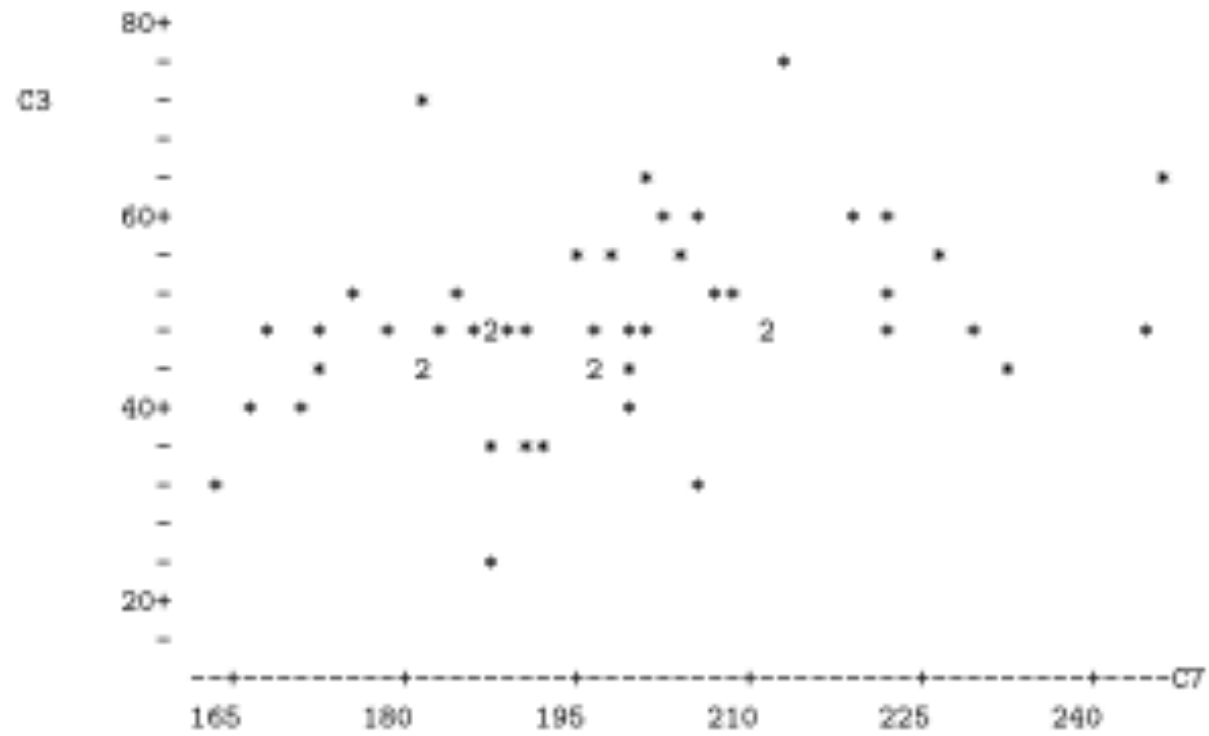


$r = 0.112$



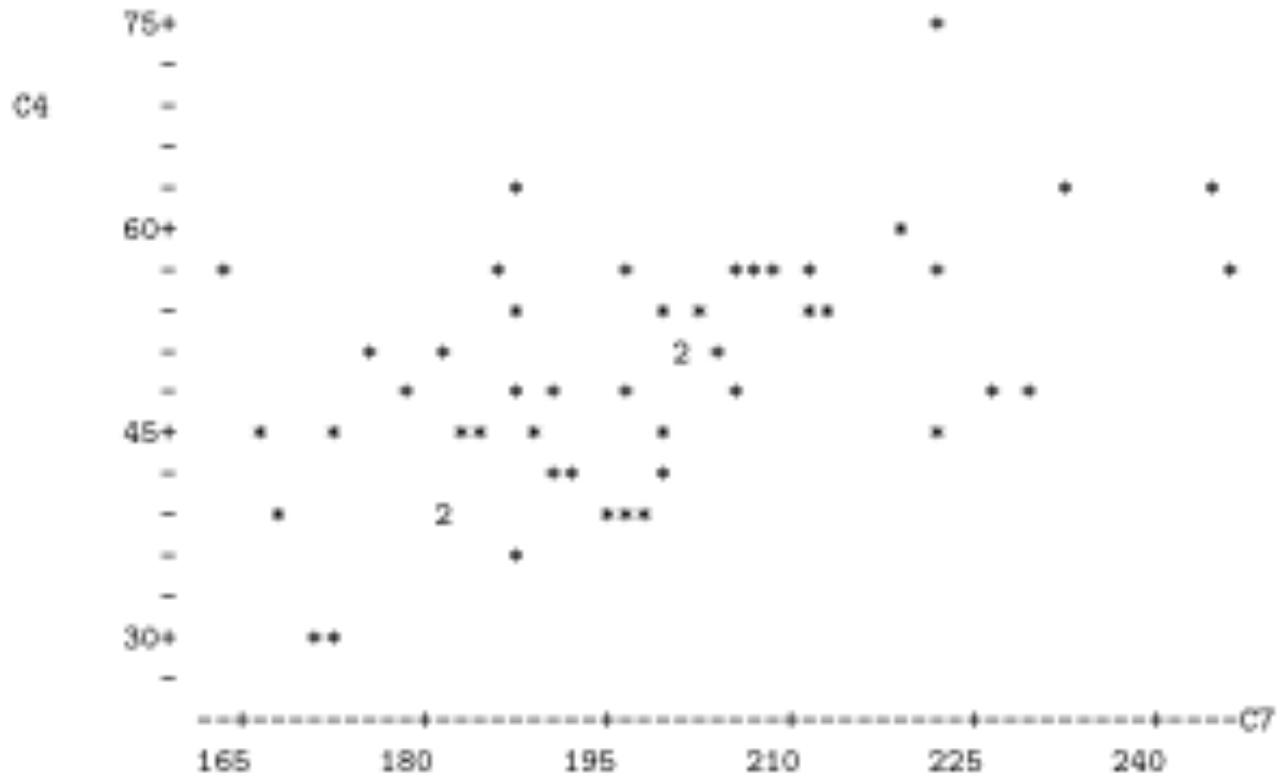
Correlation of C4 and C6 = 0.112

$$r = 0.368$$



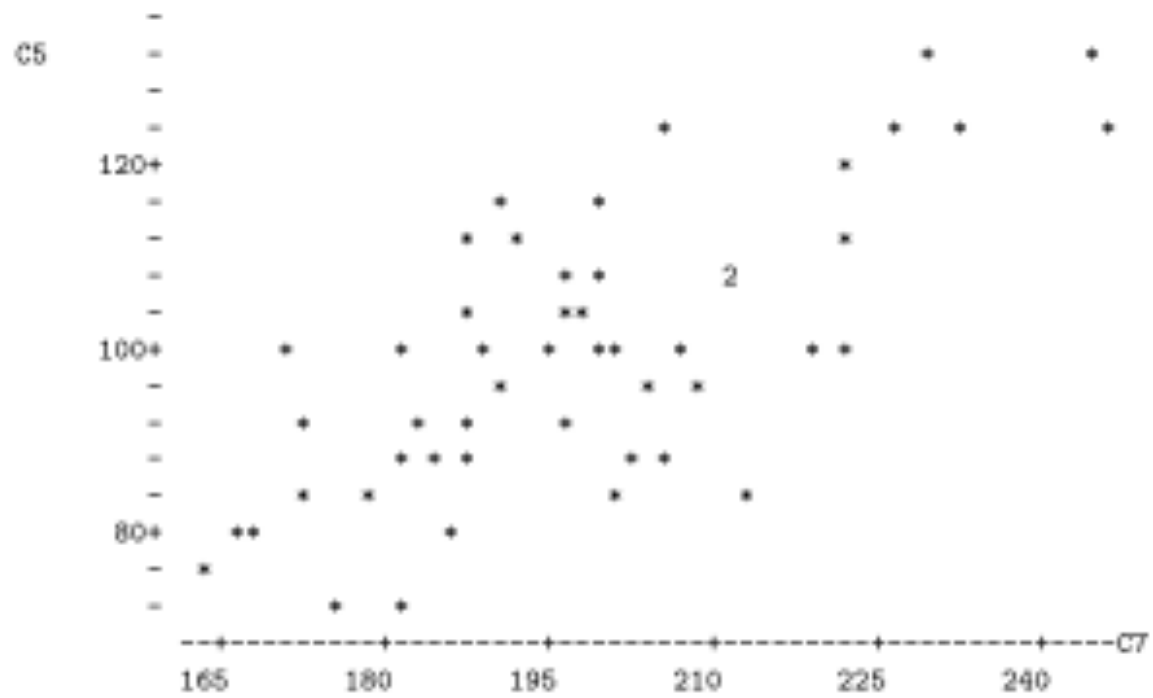
Correlation of C3 and C7 = 0.368

$$r = 0.547$$



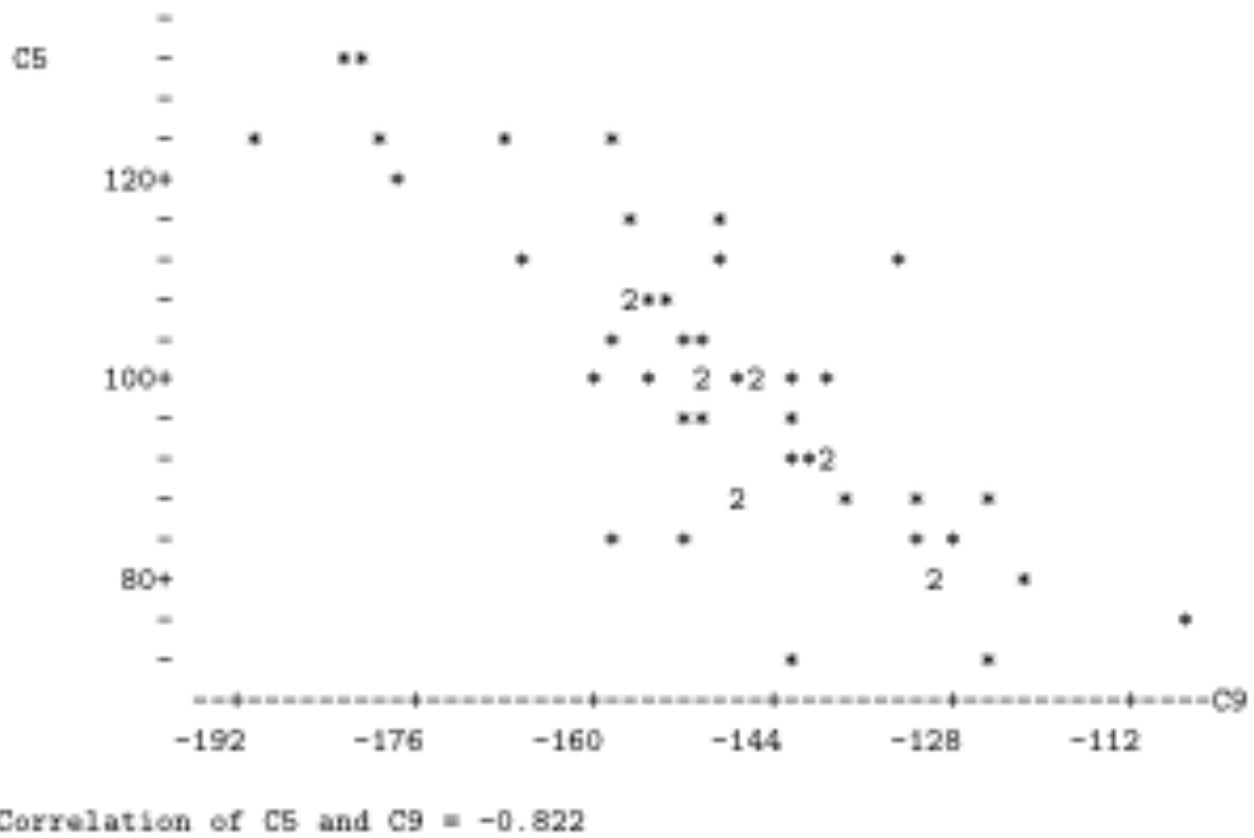
Correlation of C4 and C7 = 0.547

$$r = 0.733$$

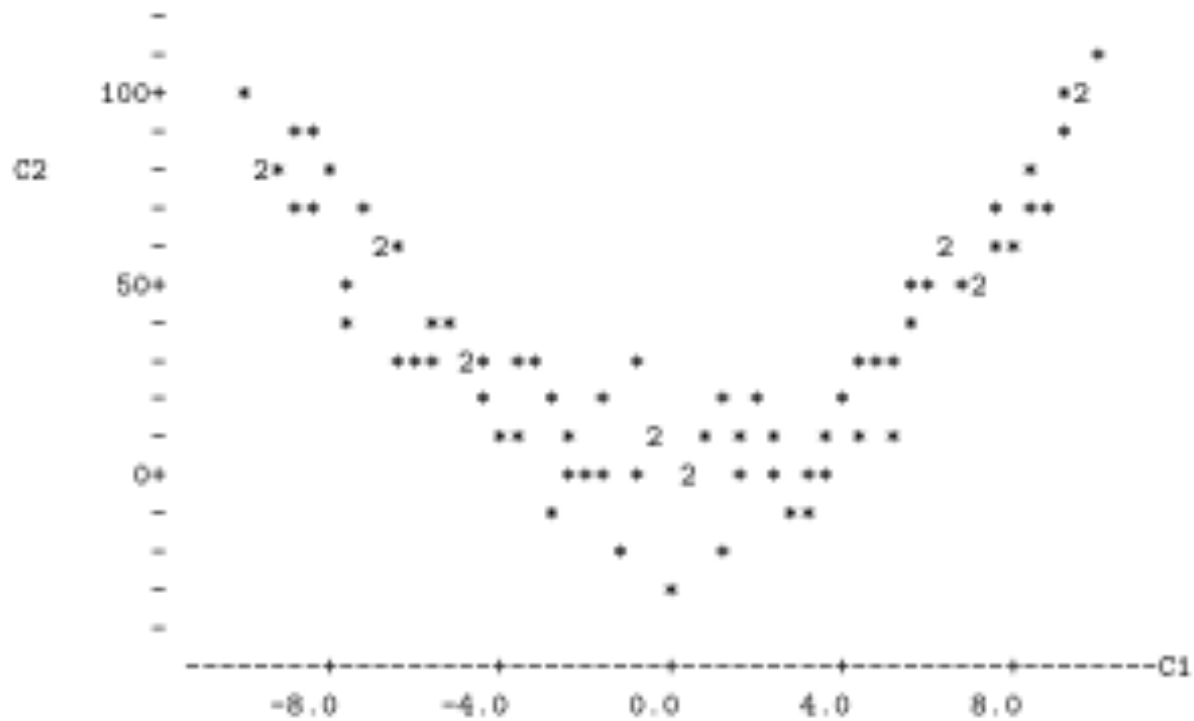


Correlation of C5 and C7 = 0.733

$$r = -0.822$$

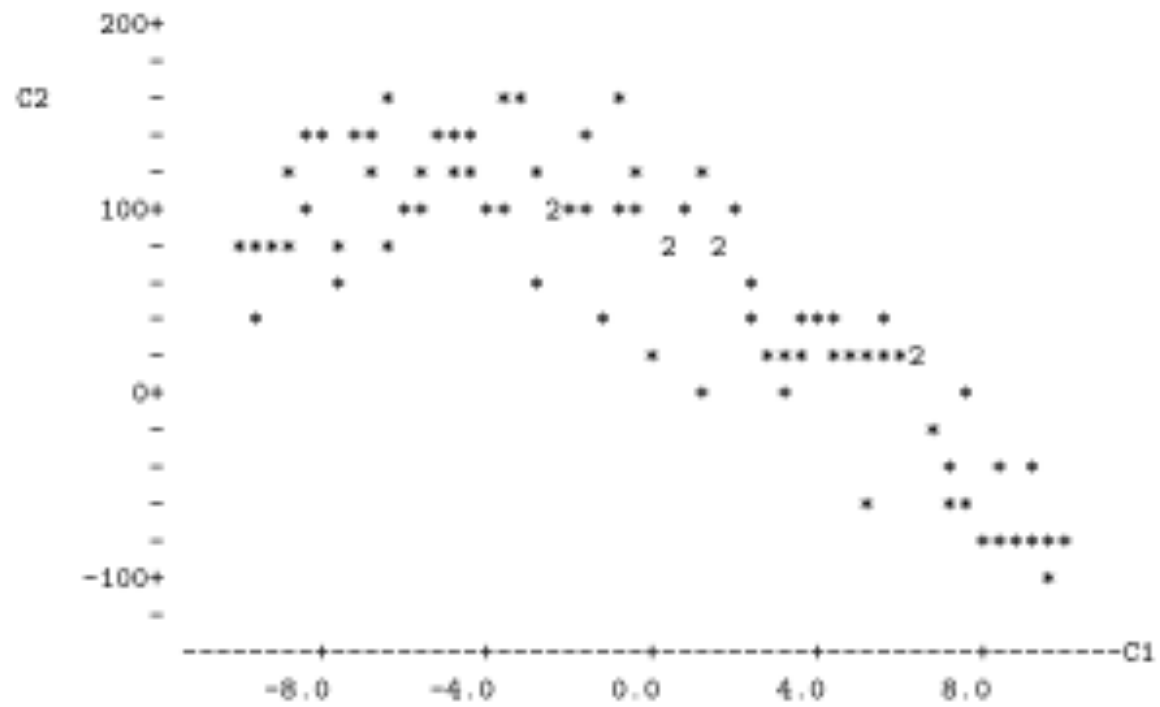


$r = 0.025$



Correlation of C1 and C2 = 0.025

$$r = -0.811$$



Correlation of C1 and C2 = -0.811

Zero correlation = Horizontal
least-squares line

$$\hat{Y} = b_0 + b_1 X$$

$$b_1 = r \frac{s_y}{s_x} \text{ and } b_0 = \bar{Y} - b_1$$

Model assumptions for simple regression

- Random sampling of (X, Y) pairs
- Conditional distribution of DV is normal for each IV value
- Maybe different mean, related to IV by equation of a straight line
- Variances all equal

Testing simple regression

- Null hypothesis: population slope = 0
- (This would make all the conditional distributions identical)
- Same as testing the significance of b_1
- Same as testing the significance of r

Robustness of simple regression test

- Normality does not matter much for large samples if the most influential observations are not too influential.
- Equal variance does not matter much if the number of observations at EACH value of X is large.
- Independent observations: Matters a lot

Chi-square test of independence: Both variables categorical

Music Type

Stay on Hold?

A

Yes

A

No

C

Yes

B

Yes

A

No

...

...

“Joint frequency distribution” or
“contingency table” or “cross-
tabulation” or “crosstab”

	Music Type			
	A	B	C	D
Yes	41	15	38	45
No	9	35	12	5

Model assumptions for the chi-squared test of independence

- The variable consisting of combinations of IV, DV has a multinomial distribution
- “**Large**” random sample
- Rule of thumb: Lowest expected frequency no more than 5
- Independent observations: Important and often violated in practice.

Formula for the chi-square test

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{\text{cells}} \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$$

- Even one very small expected frequency can make chisquare huge
- Smallest expected frequency no less than one (not 5) controls Type I error

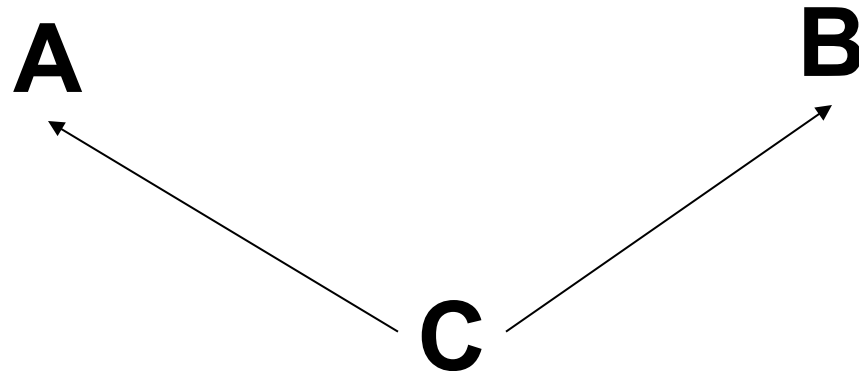
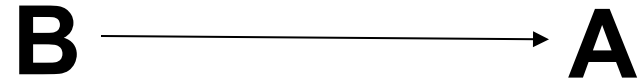
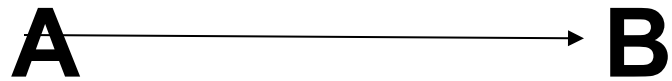
Why predict DV from IV?

- There may be a practical reason for prediction (buy, make a claim, price of wheat).
- It may be “science.”

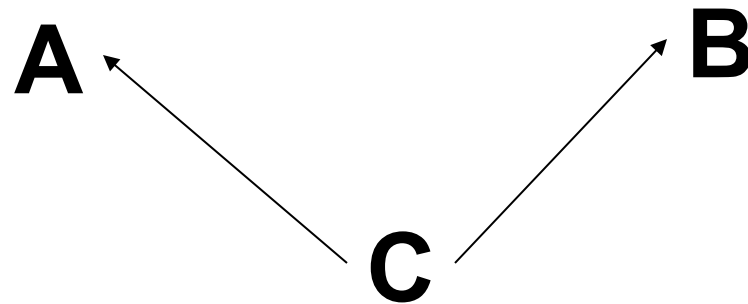
Young smokers who buy contraband cigarettes tend to smoke more.

- What is IV, DV?

Correlation is not the same as causation



Confounding variable: A variable that contributes to both IV and DV, causing a misleading relationship between them.



Mozart Effect

- Babies who listen to classical music tend to do better in school later on.
- Does this mean parents should play classical music for their babies?
- **Please comment.** (What is one possible confounding variable?)

Hypothetical study

- Subjects are babies in an orphanage (maybe in Haiti) awaiting adoption in Canada. All are assigned, but waiting for the paperwork to clear.
- They all wear headphones 5 hours a day. Randomly assigned to classical, rock, hip-hop or nature sounds. Same volume.
- Adoptive parents not informed.
- Assess academic progress in JK, SJ, Grade 4.
- Suppose there is a significant difference? What are some potential confounding variables?

Experimental vs. Observational studies

- **Observational:** IV, DV just observed and recorded
- **Experimental:** Cases randomly assigned to values of IV
- Only a true experimental study can establish a causal connection between IV and DV
- Maybe we should talk about observational vs experimental variables.
- Watch it: Confounding variables can creep back in.