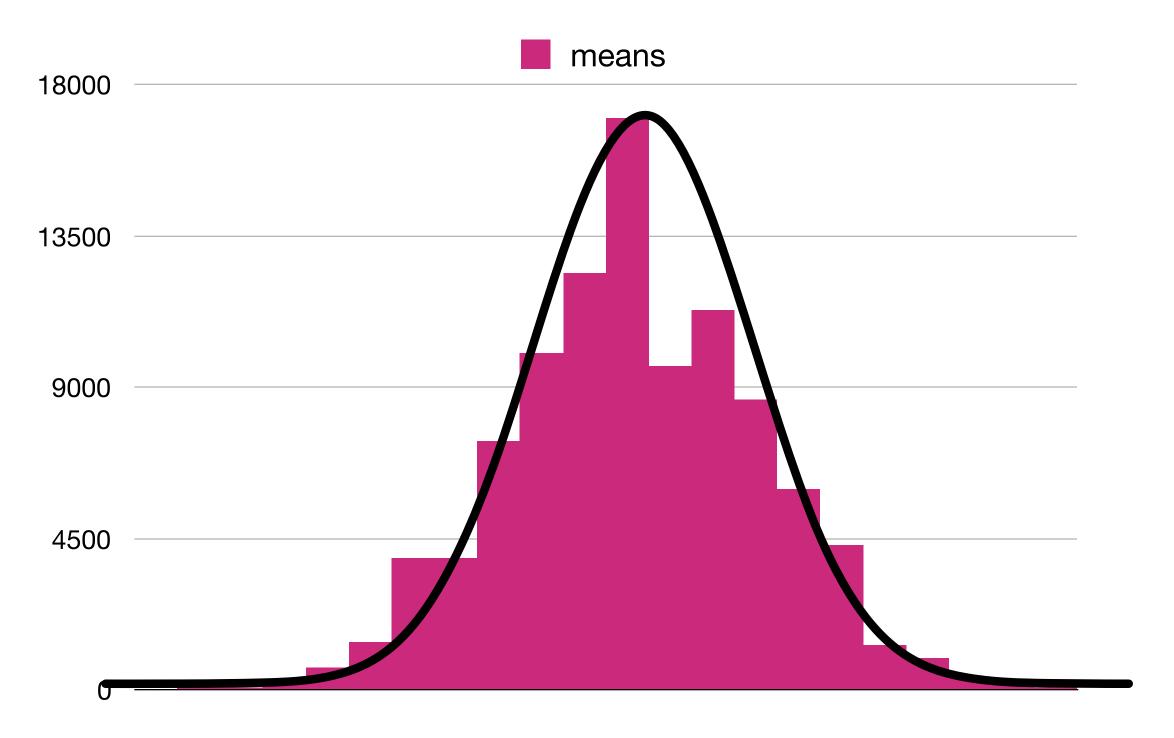
# ECE 20875 Python for Data Science

Milind Kulkarni and Chris Brinton

confidence intervals and hypothesis testing

## sampling distribution



Each data point is the  $\bar{x}$  of one experiment

- Recall that by the central limit theorem, sample means approach a normal distribution
- Can we use this to draw conclusions about our data?

## asking questions about data

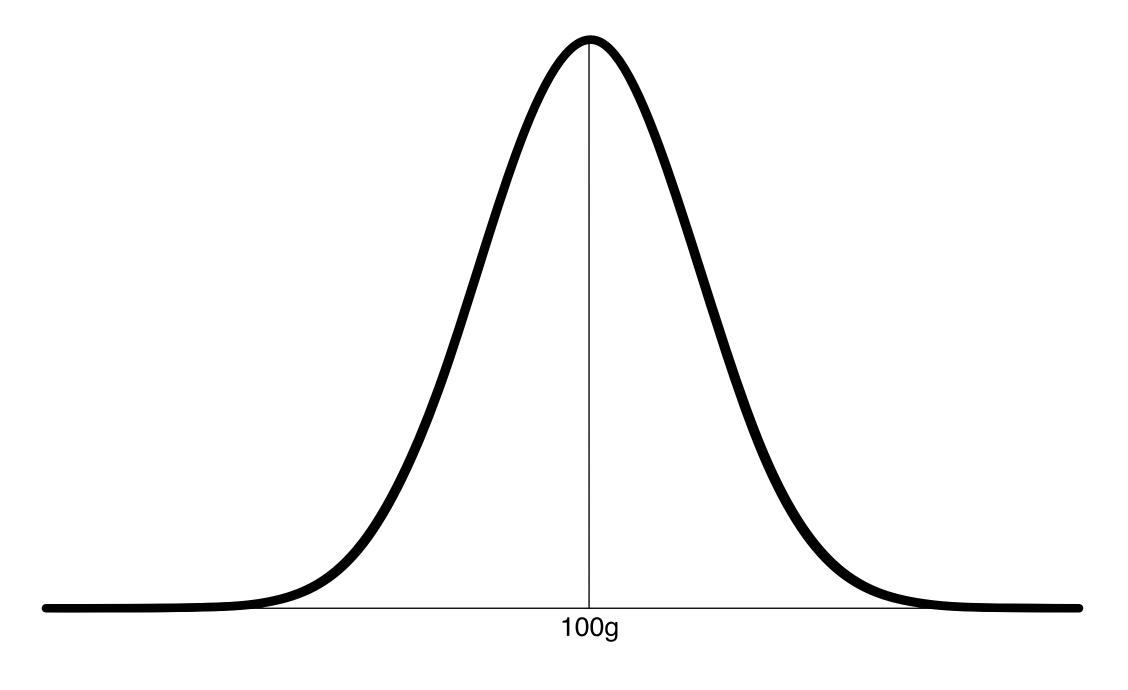
- Suppose a factory claims to produce widgets with an average weight of 100g and a standard deviation of 22g
- We receive a new shipment of widgets which seem off, and we want to see whether the factory has shifted
- Form two hypotheses:
  - Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): The factory is producing according to specification, i.e.,  $\mu = 100g$ .
  - Alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): The factory is not producing according to specification, i.e.,  $\mu \neq 100g$ .
- Suppose we weigh 100 of the new widgets (i.e., sample n=100 widgets) and find their average weight is  $\bar{x}=95g$ 
  - What can we conclude?

## asking questions about data

- Are the widgets in spec?
- Not as simple as it seems!
- We have picked one sample of widgets, but it could just be a bad sample!
- Can we use our sampling distribution to help?



## hypothesis testing

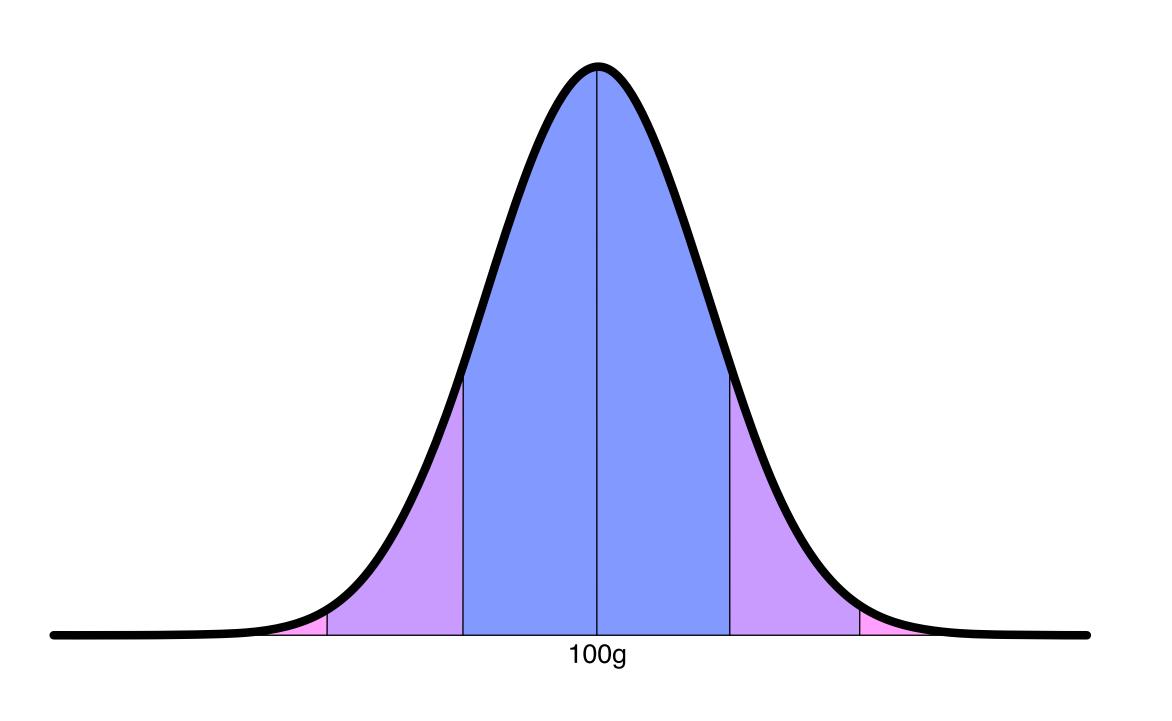


- Suppose the null hypothesis is true (new widgets are from the same distribution as the original widgets)
- Then the sampling distribution should have its mean at 100g
- And the sampling distribution should have a standard deviation of:

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{22}{10} = 2.2$$

- This is called the standard error (SE)
- Remember,  $\sigma$  is from the population, which we sometimes have to estimate with s (and use a different distribution)

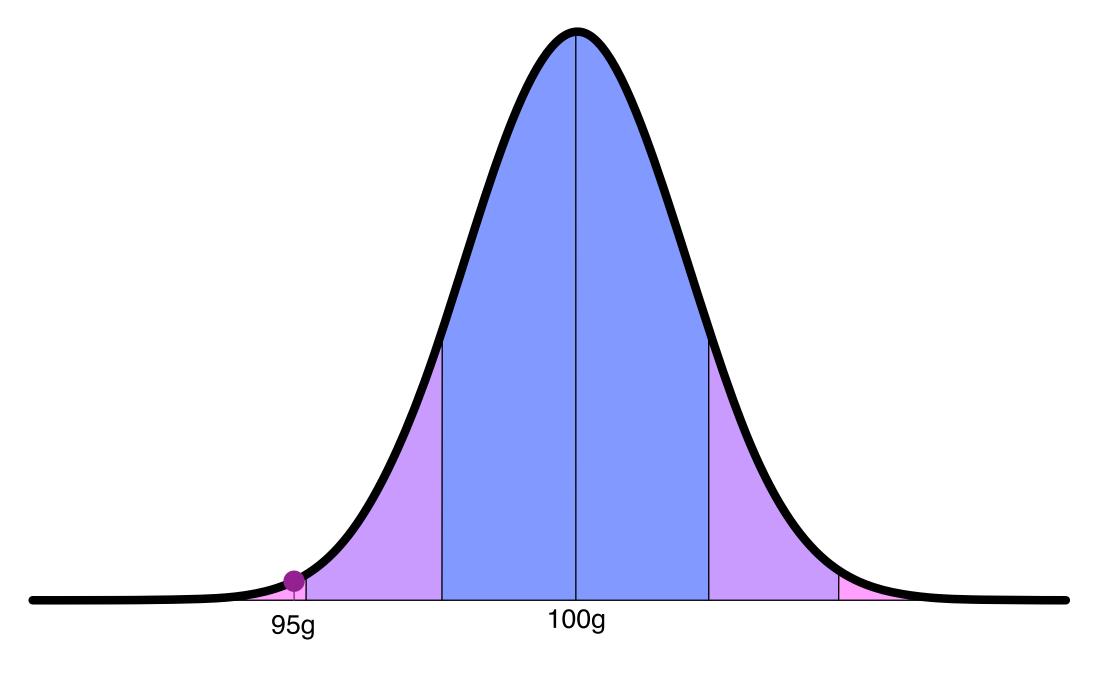
## hypothesis testing



- Remember properties of normal distribution:
  - ~68% of points within one  $\sigma$  of  $\mu$
  - ~95% of points within two  $\sigma$  of  $\mu$
  - ~99.7% of points within three  $\sigma$  of  $\mu$

## hypothesis testing

• So what about our sample  $\bar{x}$  of 95g?



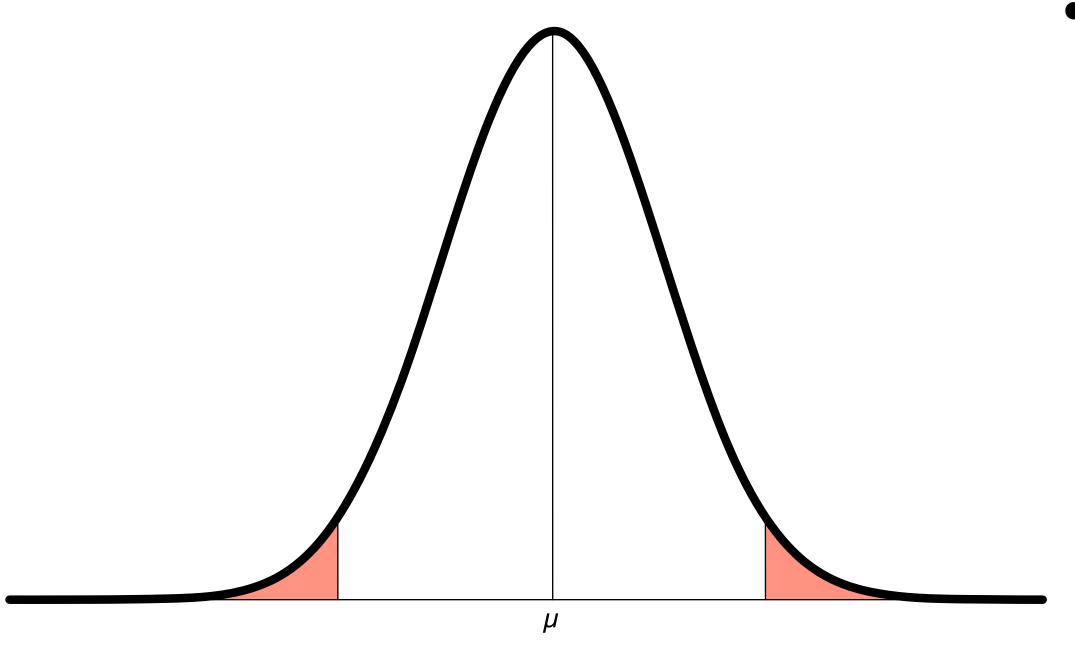
 Very unlikely for it to have come from this distribution!

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#### z-test

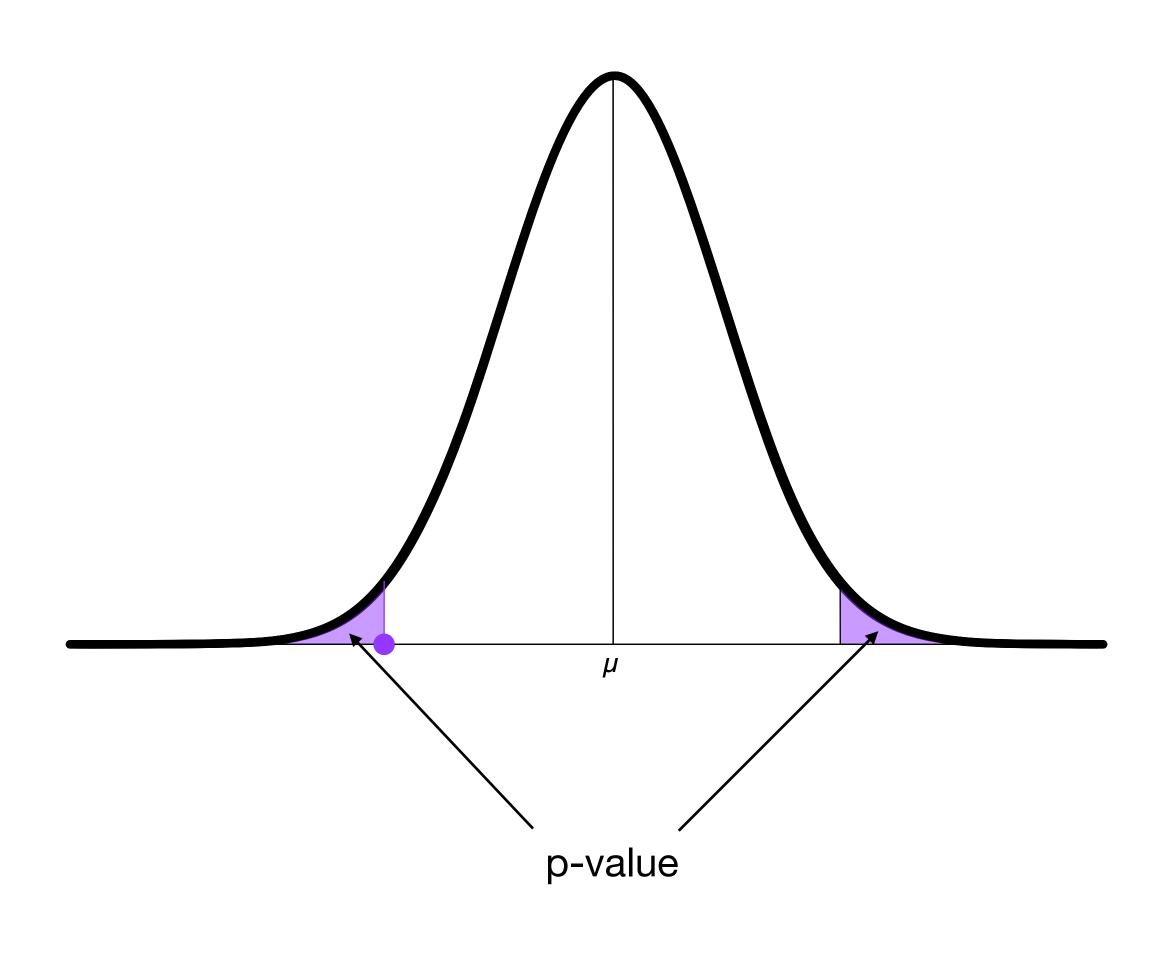
- Common way of dealing with these types of hypotheses is the z-test
  - Reasoning about μ
  - When we know  $\sigma$  or if n is large enough (if we don't know  $\sigma$  and n is large enough, we can estimate with s)
  - Can construct sampling distribution assuming null hypothesis is true
- Set a significance level  $\alpha$  for the test
  - Fraction of distribution in "tails" considered anomalous is  $2\alpha$
  - See whether sample  $\bar{x}$  falls in that tail
  - If so, **reject** null hypothesis  $H_0$  in favor of alternative  $H_1$ ; otherwise, **do not reject** (but this does not prove that  $H_0$  is true)

#### z-test



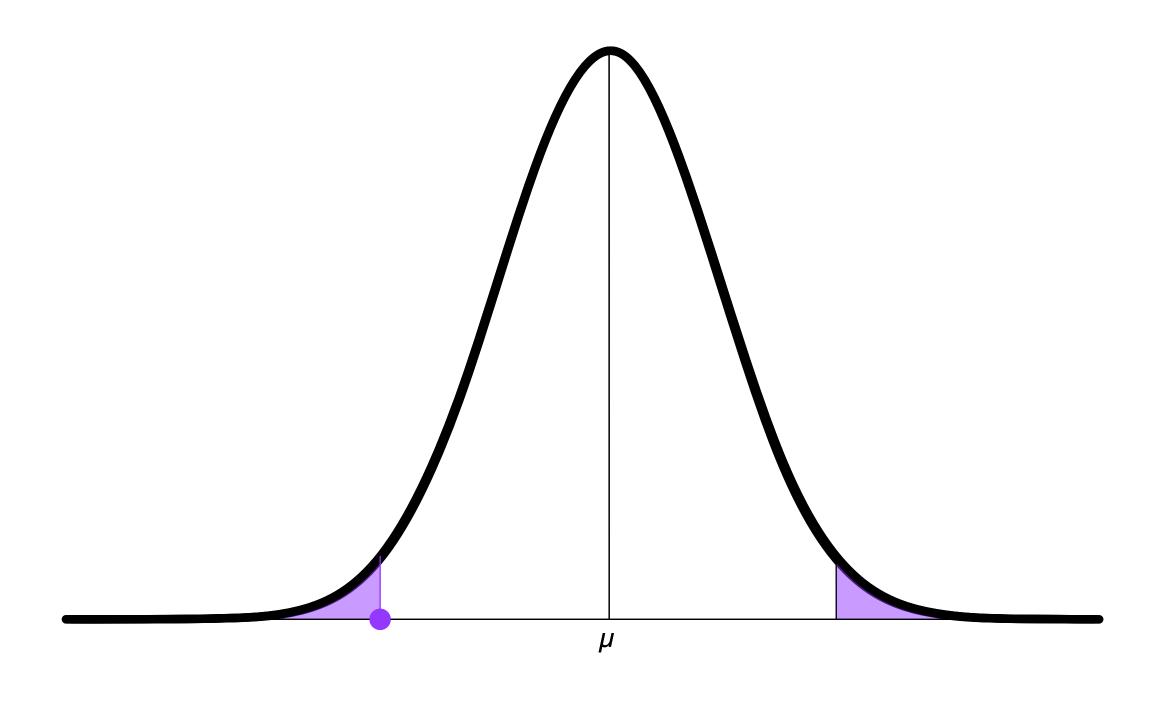
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## p-value for z-test



- Slightly different way of thinking about the problem
- Place sample  $\bar{x}$  on distribution
- Ask what fraction of distribution is farther from the mean  $\mu$  than the sample  $\bar{x}$
- This is your **p-value** 
  - Usually ask for p-value < 0.05 or 0.01</li>
  - Sometimes p-value < 0.1 is OK</li>

## p-value for z-test



- Procedure:
  - Compute sample mean  $\bar{x}$
  - Compute standard deviation of sampling distribution (standard error)

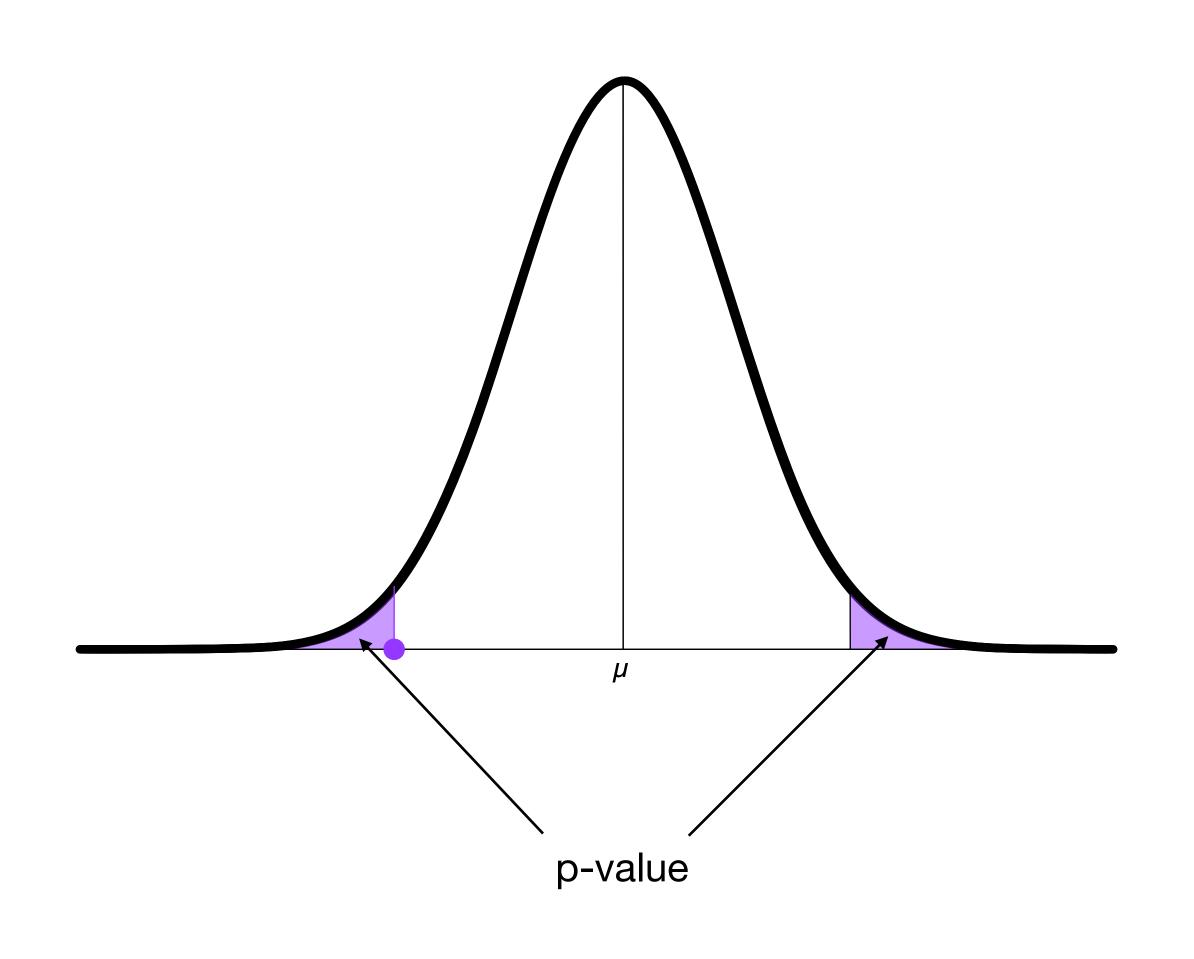
$$SE = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

• Compute **z-score** 

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{SE}$$

- Normalizing the sample to the standard normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$
- Compute p-value from z-score

## computing p-value from z-score



- One way: look up in a standard table
- In Python:

```
import scipy as sp
# compute z = (x - mu) / SE
p = 2 * sp.stats.norm.cdf(z)
```

## comparing two means

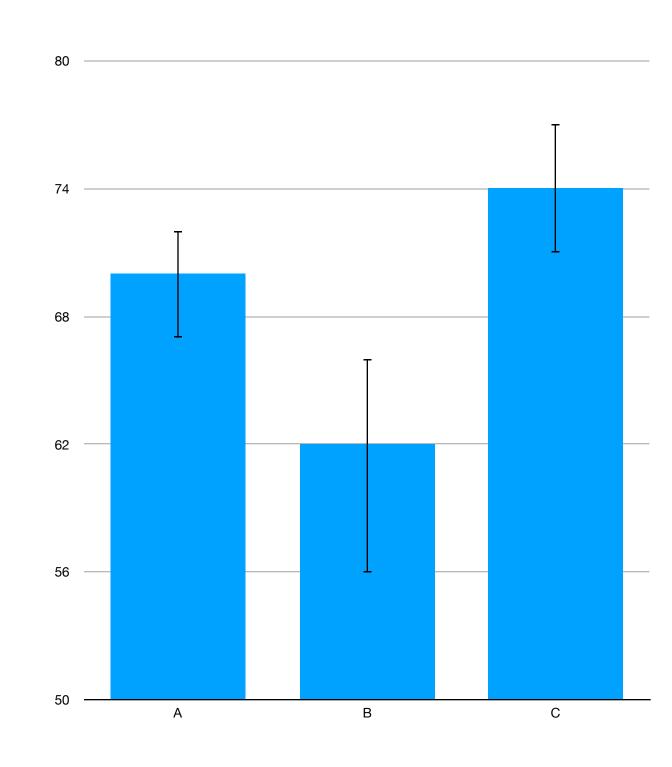
- What if you have *two* sample means and you want to know if their difference is statistically significant?
  - Sample 1: Sample size  $n_0$ , mean  $\mu_0$ , variance  $\sigma_0$
  - Sample 2: Sample size n<sub>1</sub>, mean μ<sub>1</sub>, variance σ<sub>1</sub>
- Hypotheses
  - $H_0$ : The means are the same, i.e.,  $\mu_0=\mu_1$
  - $H_1$ : The means are different, i.e.,  $\mu_0 \neq \mu_1$
- Can use two-sample z-test
- Sampling distribution of difference between two means has:

$$\mu = \mu_0 - \mu_1 \qquad \qquad \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_0^2}{n_0} + \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1}}$$

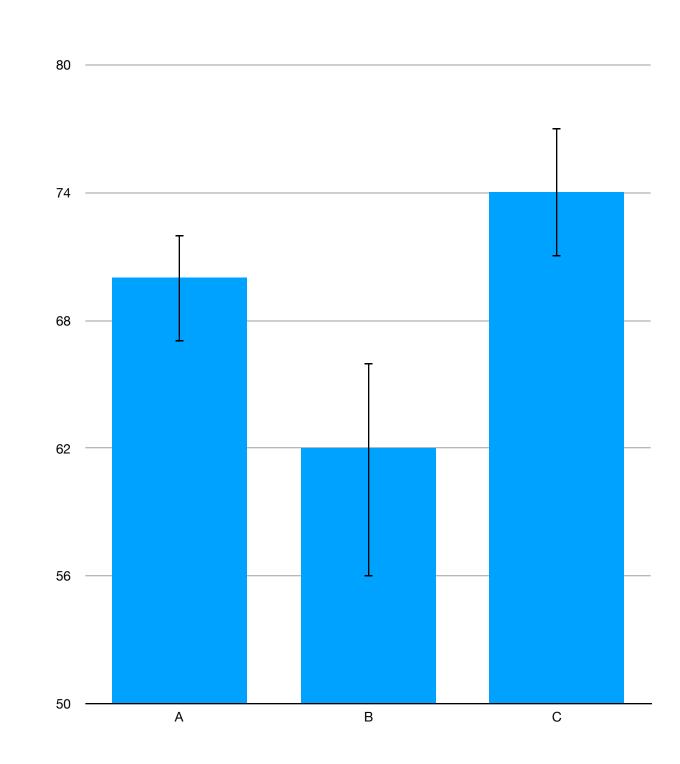
• Test point is 
$$\bar{x} = \bar{x}_0 - \bar{x}_1$$

• z-score is 
$$(\bar{x} - \mu)/\sigma$$

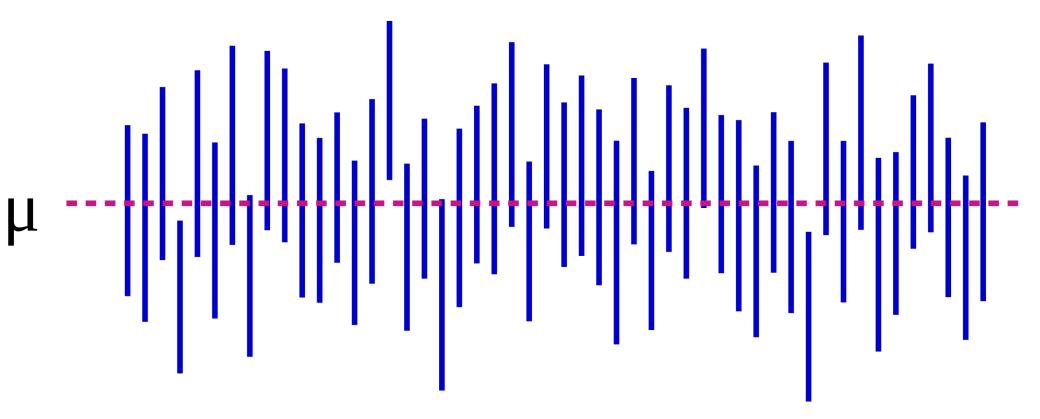
- We see these a lot: ranges above and below values
  - What do they mean?
- Surprisingly tricky question to answer



- A confidence interval is a range around the mean which says something about how "good" your estimation procedure is
  - How "good" is your choice of number of samples, given the variance in the population
- Interpretation of a confidence interval:
  - if I were to repeat the experiment a large number of times,
     95 percent of confidence intervals would contain the population mean or
  - when I run the experiment, there is a 95 percent chance that the population mean will fall within the confidence interval or
  - if the population mean is inside the confidence interval, it would not be statistically significant (informally, you wouldn't be surprised!)

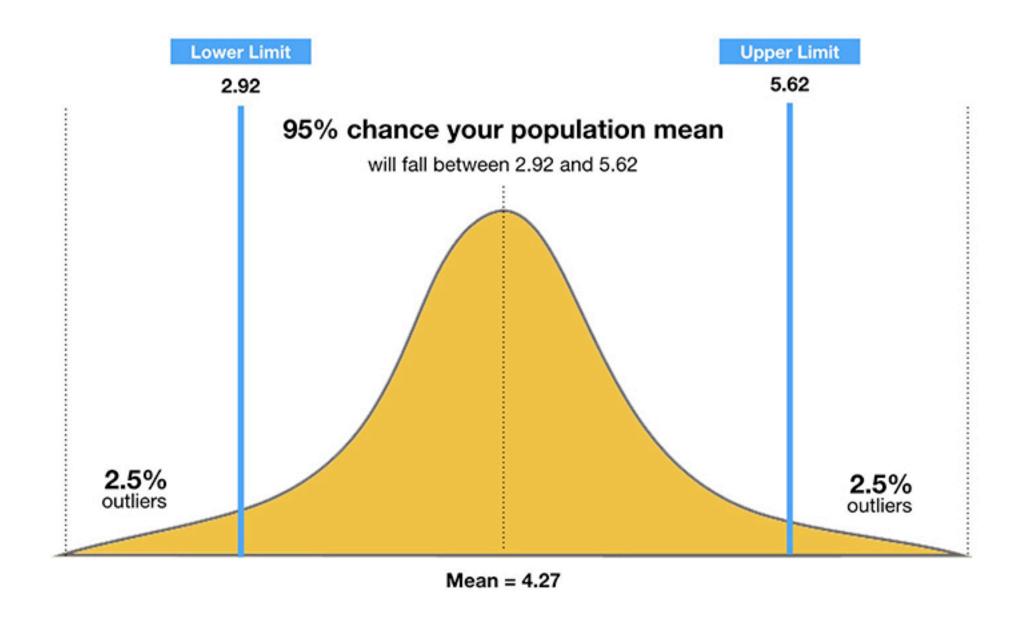


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source: NYW-confidence-interval.svg Wikipedia user Tsyplakov

- If the population parameter is outside the c%
  confidence interval, then an event occurred that had
  a probability of less than (100 c)% of happening
- Note that we are setting c ahead of time (unlike with hypothesis testing, where we figure out how likely/ unlikely something is after the fact)
  - Wide confidence interval: The variance of your data is high (and/or your sample size is small), so we need a wide interval to make the above statement true.
  - Narrow confidence interval: The variance of your data is small (and/or your sample size is large), so we don't need a wide interval to make the above statement true.

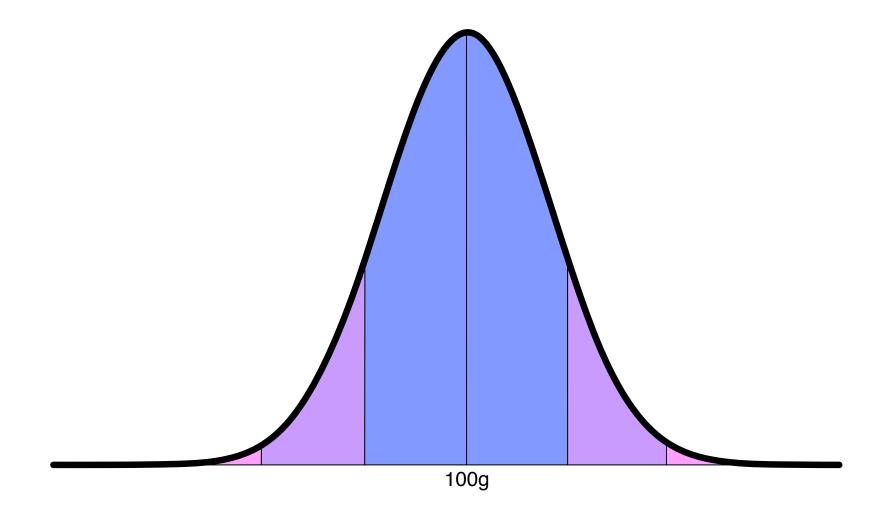


## computing confidence intervals

- Conceptually similar to z-tests, except now the sampling distribution is centered around the sample mean (instead of the hypothesized population mean
- Remember definition of z-score:

$$z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}}$$

And p-value:p = 2 \* sp.stats.norm.cdf(z)



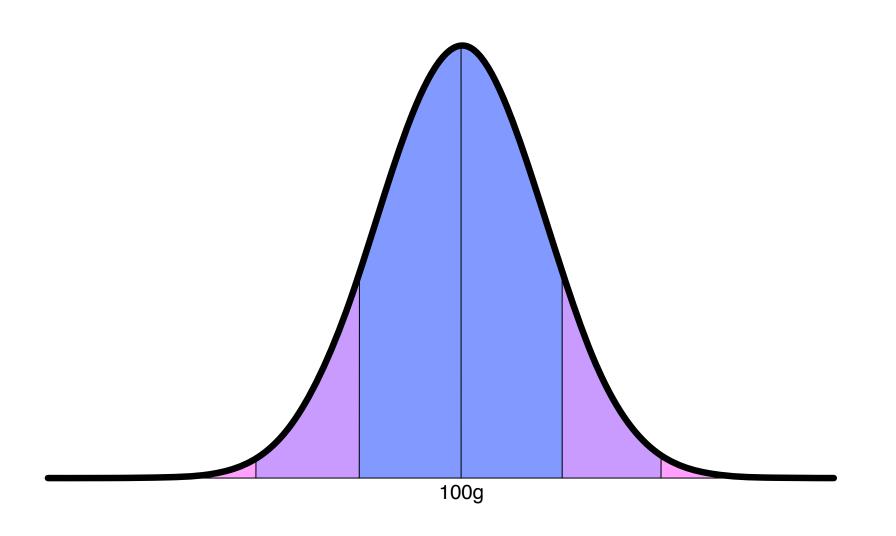
## computing confidence intervals

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- Remember definition of z-score:

$$z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}}$$

And p-value:

• If c is the desired confidence level, what z do we need so that  $p \le (1 - c)$ ?



## what z do we need?

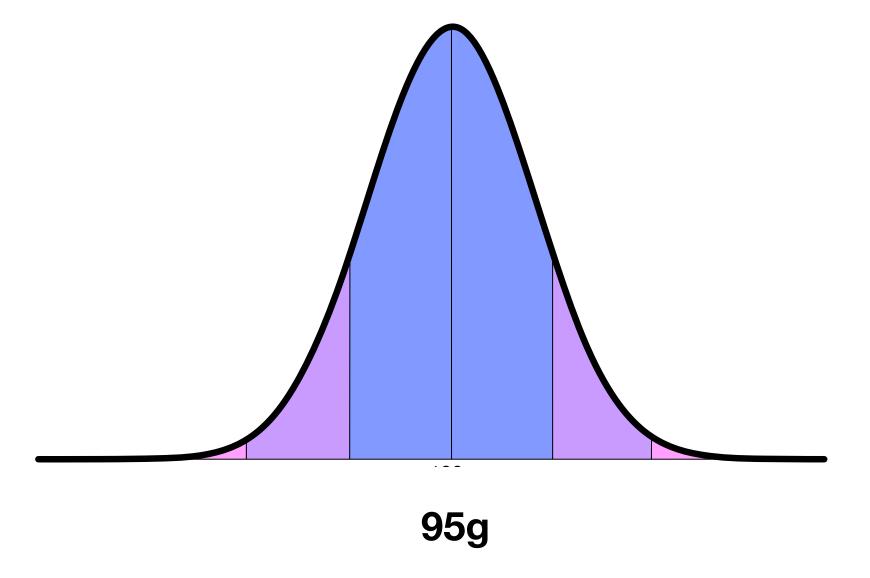
"Inverse" of the

**CDF** function

- Call this  $z_c$
- Compute like so:
   z\_c = sp.stats.norm.ppf(1 (1 c)/2)
- Now we can answer the question: What range of μ would be "unsurprising" at c% confidence level?

$$z_c = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}} \rightarrow \mu = \bar{X} \pm \frac{z_c \cdot \sigma}{\sqrt{N}}$$

This is your c% confidence interval



Back to our original example ...

$$\bar{x} = 95g, \sigma = 22g, n = 100$$

90%: (92.42, 97.58)

95%: (91.38, 98.62)

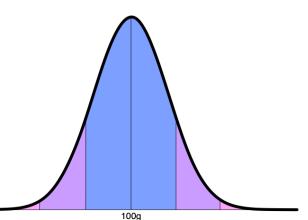
99%: (90.69, 99.31)

# we've been fudging

- Recall that to use the z-distribution, we must either know  $\sigma$  or have large enough n
- The student's t-distribution and t-test is used when the normal approximation does not hold
  - Also used to reason about  $\mu$ , including building confidence intervals
  - When we don't know  $\sigma$  and when n < 30

#### computing confidence intervals

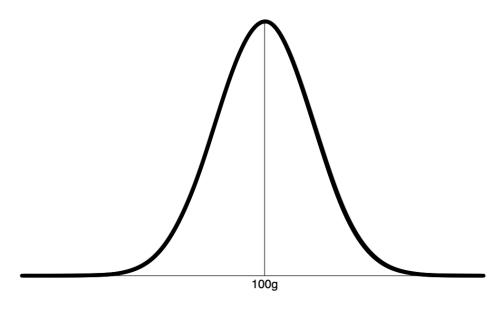
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• Remember definition of z-score:

$$z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}}$$

#### hypothesis testing



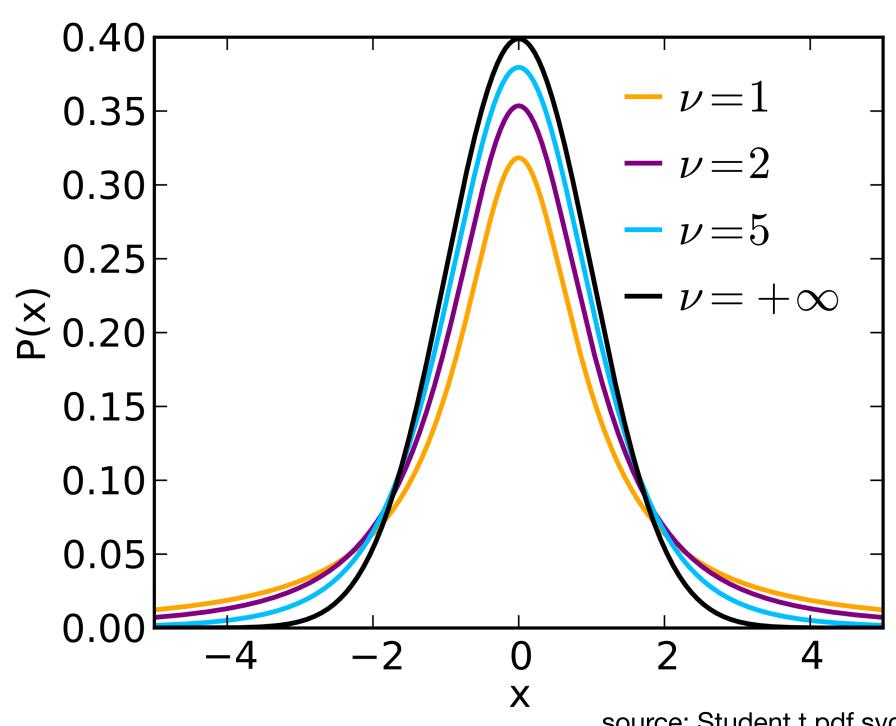
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- And the sampling distribution should have a standard deviation of:

 $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{22}{10} = 2.2$ 

Remember: this is  $\sigma$  of the population Can estimate with s (or use a different distribution)

#### student's t distribution

- Similar to the standard normal distribution
  - Symmetric about mean
  - Bell curve shaped
- But has **fatter tails**, i.e., more weight of the distribution away from the mean
  - Accounts for outliers better
- Parameter on the distribution is the degrees of freedom v
  - v = n 1: One less than the number of samples
  - Looks more and more like the standard normal as  $n \to \infty$



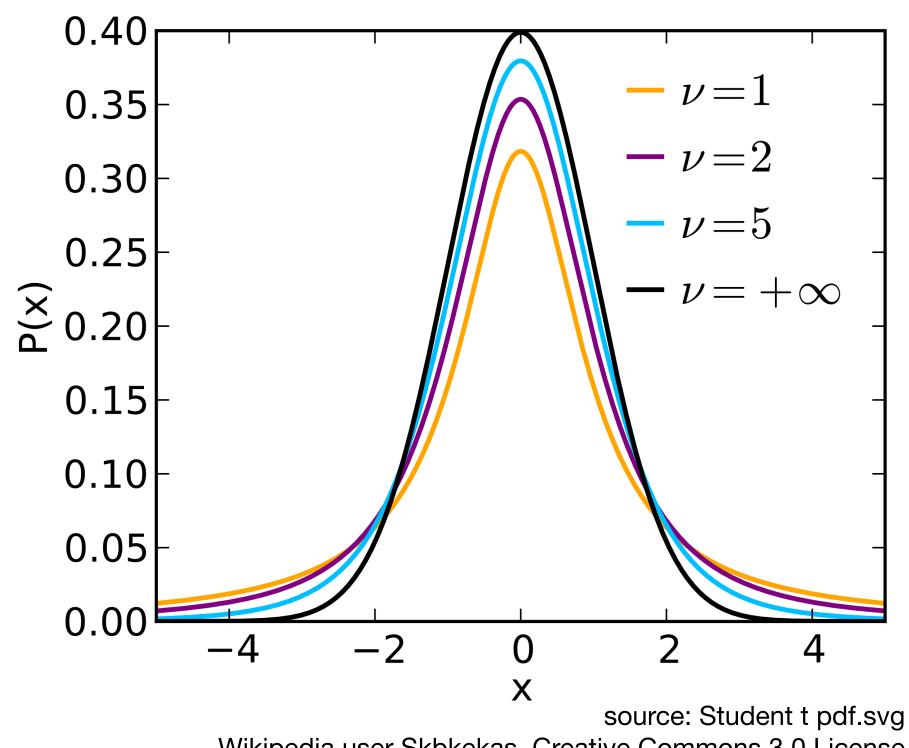
source: Student t pdf.svg Wikipedia user Skbkekas. Creative Commons 3.0 License

#### t-test

- Works the same as the z-test, except
  - use s instead of  $\sigma$
  - compare to the t-distribution
- Computing the test statistic:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{N}}$$
Compare to the formula for z



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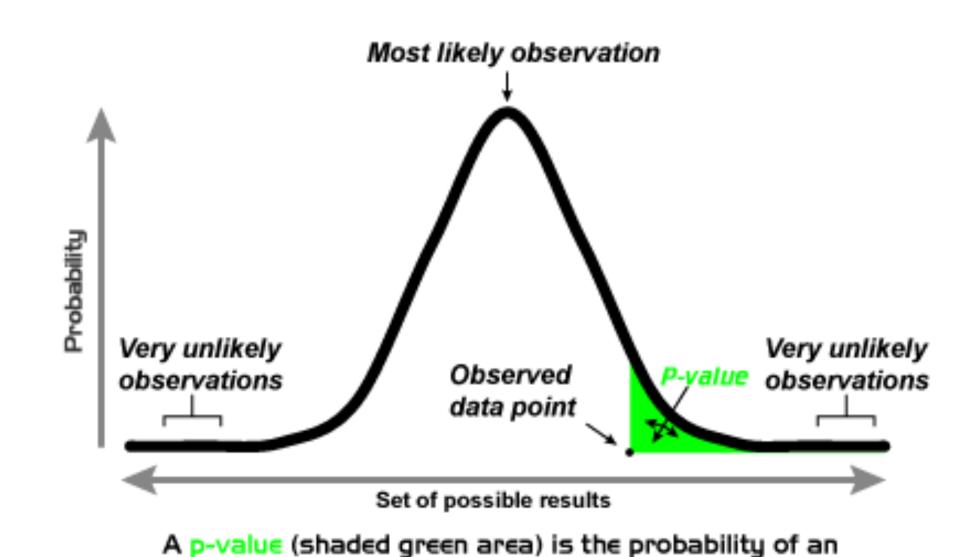
$$p = 2 * sp.stats.t.cdf(t, df)$$

$$t_c = sp.stats.t.ppf(1 - (1 - C)/2, df)$$

#### one-sided tests

- Sometimes we are only interested in values departing from the mean in one direction
  - This is a one-sided or one-tailed test
- For example, suppose we want to assess whether our widgets are being produced at a significantly *higher* weight:

- $H_1: \mu > 100g$
- How does the p-value compare between one and two-sided tests?



observed (or more extreme) result arising by chance

 Any given datapoint has half the p-value in a one-sided test than it does in a two-sided test

## simple extensions

- What do we do in a two-sample test when one of the samples violates the normal approximation assumptions?
  - Use a two-sample t-test
- Can we build a confidence interval around a mean when the normal approximation is violated?
  - Yes, just use the t-statistic in place of the z-score
- What if we are only interested in a confidence interval on one side (e.g., a lower bound or an upper bound)?
  - Can use a **one-sided interval**, where one of the bounds is replaced by  $-\infty$  or  $+\infty$