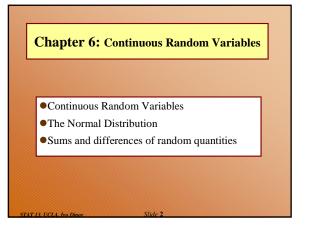
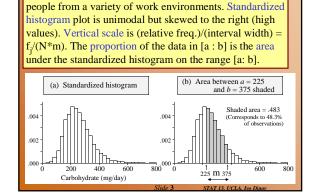
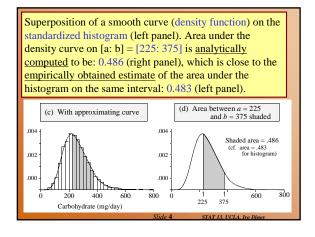
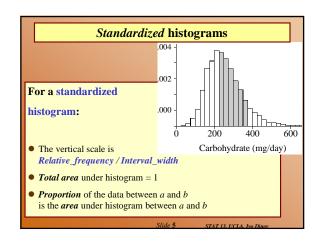
# UCLA STAT 13 Introduction to Statistical Methods for the Life and Health Sciences •Instructor: IVO Dinov, Asst. Prof. In Statistics and Neurology •Teaching Assistants: Sovia Lau, Jason Cheng UCLA Statistics University of California, Los Angeles, Fall 2003 http://www.stat.ucla.edu/~dinov/courses\_students.html

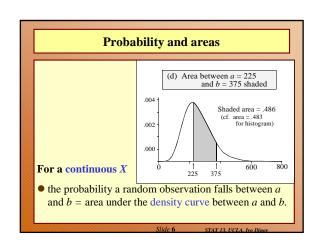


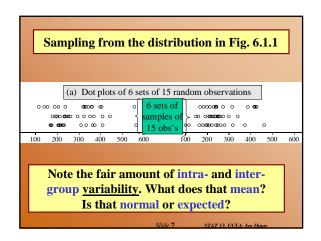


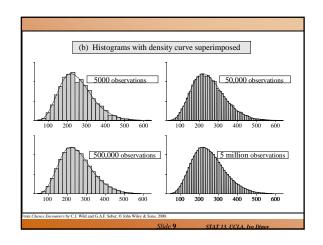
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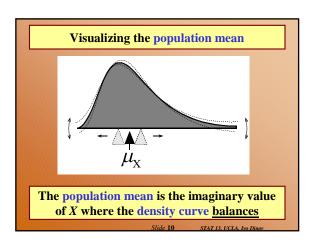


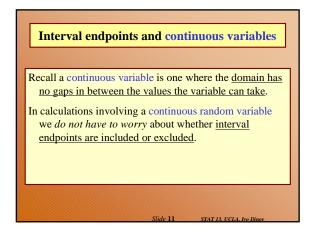








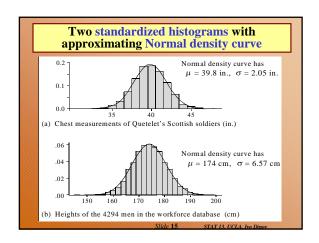


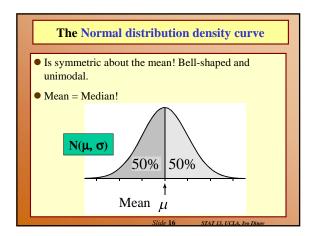


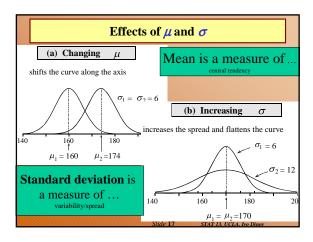
# ■ How does a standardized histogram differ from a relative-frequency histogram? raw histogram? (t<sub>f</sub>/mn) ■ What graphic feature conveys the proportion of the data falling into a class interval for a standardized histogram? for a relative-frequency histogram? (area=width . height = m t<sub>f</sub>/mn=t<sub>f</sub>/n) ■ What are the two fundamental ways in which random observations arise? (Natural phenomena, sampling experiments - choose a student at random and use the lottery method to record characteristics, scientific experiments - blood pressure measure) ■ How does a density curve describe probabilities? (The probability that a random obs. falls in [a:b] is the area under the PDF on the same interval.)

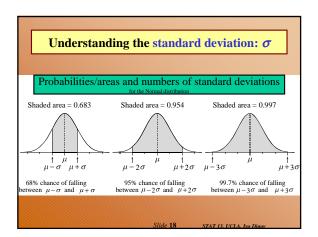
# Review What is the total area under both a standardized histogram and a probability density curve? (1) When can histograms of data from a random process be relied on to closely resemble the density curve for that process? (targe sample size, small histogram bin-size) What characteristic of the density curve does the mean correspond to? (imaginary value of X, where the density curve balances)

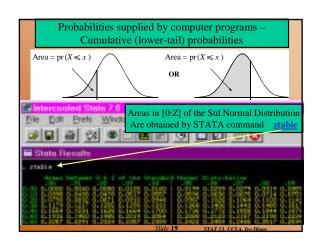
# Review Does it matter whether interval endpoints are included or excluded when we calculate probabilities for a continuous random variable from the area? (No) Why? (Area[a:b] == Area(a:b)) Are discrete variables the same or different in this regard, interval endpoint not effecting the area? (Different) Slide 14 STATIS UCLA to Diagram

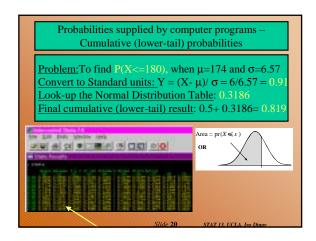


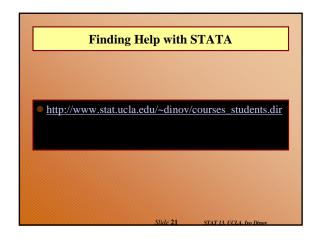




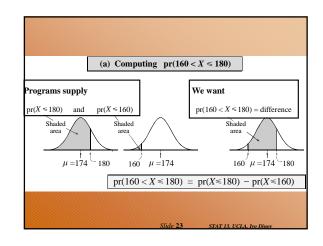


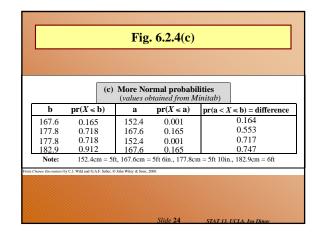


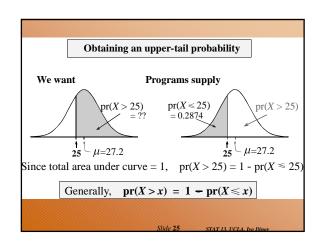




# Basic method for obtaining probabilities Sketch a Normal curve, marking the mean and other values of interest. Shade the area under the curve that gives the desired probability. Devise a way of getting the desired area from lowertail areas. Obtain component lower-tail probabilities from a computer program Slide 22 STAT IS COLA, by Dinger.







### **Review**

- What features of the Normal curve do μ and σ visually correspond to? (point-of-balance; width/spread)
- What is the probability that a random observation from a normal distribution is smaller than the mean?

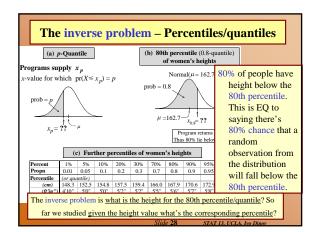
  (85) larger than the mean? (85) exactly equal to the mean? (80) Why?

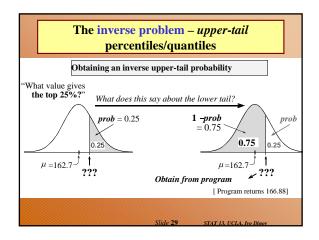
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### Review

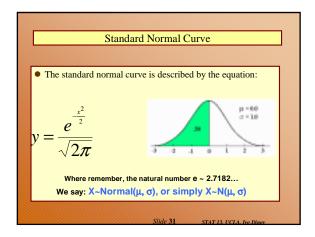
- Approximately, what is the probability that a random observation from a normal distribution falls within 1 standard deviation (SD) of the mean? (0.68) 2 SD's? (0.95) 3 SD's? (0.997)
- Computer programs may provide cumulative or partial probabilities for the normal distribution. What is a the difference between these? Can we get one from the other?

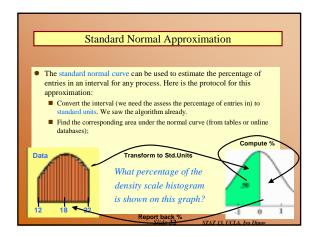
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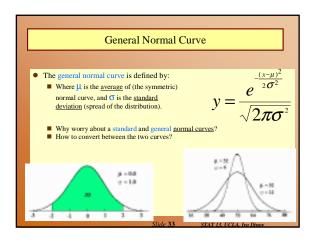


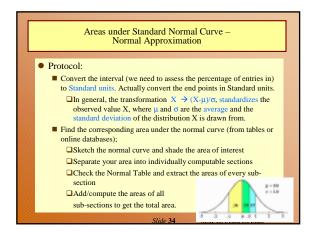


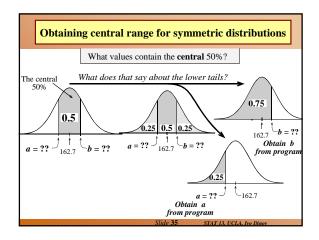
# What is meant by the 60th percentile of heights? What is the difference between a percentile and a quantile? (percentile used in expressing results in %, whereas quantiles used to express results in term of probabilities) The lower quartile, median and upper quartile of a distribution correspond to special percentiles. What are they? express in terms of quantiles. (25%, 50%, 75%) Quantiles are sometimes called inverse cumulative probabilities. Why?

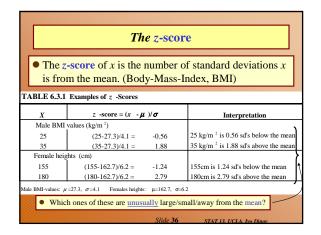


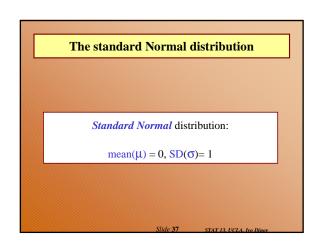


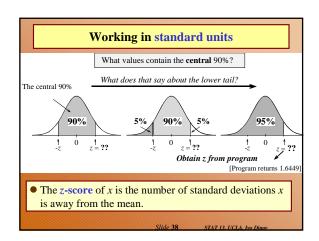


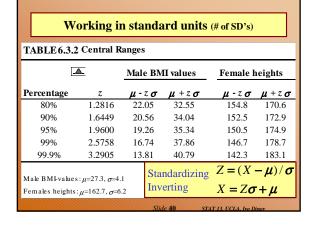




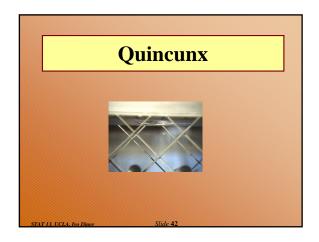








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Append	lix A4 (	reprod	uced be	elow).							
Step 1:	Correct the z -value to two decimal places, that is, use $z = 1.14$ .										
Step 2:	Look down the z column until you find 1.1. This tells you which row to										
	look it	1.									
Step 3:	The second decimal place, here 4, tells you which column to look in.										
Step 4:	The entry in the table corresponding to that row and column is										
	$pr(Z \le 1.14) = 0.873$										
						$\vdash$					
						<b>*</b>					
	z	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	1.0	.841	.844	.846	.848	.851	.853	.855	.858	.860	.862
		.864	.867	.869	.871	.873	.875	.877	.879	.881	.883
<b>→</b>	1.1				901	.893	.894	.896	.898	.900	.901
-	1.1	.885	.887	.889	.891	.093	.02 .				
->		.885 .903	.887	.889	.908	.910	.911	.913	.915	.916	.918



# **Continuous Variables and Density Curves**

- There are no gaps between the values a continuous random variable can take.
- Random observations arise in two main ways: (i) by sampling populations; and (ii) by observing processes.

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# The density curve

- The probability distribution of a continuous variable is represented by a density curve.
  - *Probabilities* are represented by *areas under the curve*,

    □the probability that a random observation falls between *a* and *b* equal to the area under the density curve between *a* and *b*.
  - The total area under the curve equals 1.
  - The population (or distribution) mean  $\mu_X = E(X)$ , is where the density curve balances.
  - When we calculate probabilities for a continuous random variable, it does not matter whether interval endpoints are included or excluded.

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# For any random variable X

 $\bullet$  E(aX + b) = a E(X) +b and SD(aX + b) = |a| SD(X)

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## The Normal distribution

 $X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_x = \mu, \sigma_x = \sigma)$ 

### Features of the Normal density curve:

- The curve is a symmetric bell-shape centered at  $\mu$ .
- The standard deviation  $\sigma$  governs the spread.
- 68.3% of the probability lies within 1 standard deviation of the mean
  - 95.4% within 2 standard deviations
  - 99.7% within 3 standard deviations

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### **Probabilities**

- Computer programs provide lower-tail (or cumulative) probabilities of the form  $pr(X \le x)$ 
  - We give the program the *x*-value; it gives us the probability.
- Computer programs also provide inverse lower-tail probabilities (or quantiles)
  - We give the program the probability; it gives us the *x*-value.
- When calculating probabilities, we shade the desired area under the curve and then devise a way of obtaining it via lower-tail probabilities.

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### Standard Units

### The z-score of a value a is ....

- the number of standard deviations a is away from the mean
- positive if *a* is above the mean and negative if *a* is below the mean.

The *standard Normal* distribution has  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 0$ .

• We usually use Z to represent a random variable with a standard Normal distribution.

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# Ranges, extremes and z-scores

### Central ranges:

■ P(-z ≤ Z ≤ z) is the same as the probability that a random observation from an arbitrary Normal distribution falls within z SD's either side of the mean.

# **Extremes:**

- $P(Z \ge z)$  is the same as the probability that a random observation from an arbitrary Normal distribution falls more than z standard deviations above the mean.
- P(Z ≤ -z) is the same as the probability that a random observation from an arbitrary Normal distribution falls more than z standard deviations below the mean.

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# **Combining Random Quantities**

## Variation and independence:

- No two animals, organisms, natural or man-made objects are ever identical.
- There is always variation. The only question is whether it is large enough to have a practical impact on what you are trying to achieve.
- Variation in component parts leads to even greater variation in the whole.

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# Independence

### We model variables as being independent ....

- if we think they relate to physically independent processes
- and if we have no data that suggests they are related.

Both sums and differences of independent random variables are more variable than any of the component random variables

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### **Formulas**

- For a constant number a, E(aX) = aE(X)and SD(aX) = |a| SD(X).
- Means of sums and differences of random variables act in an obvious way
  - the mean of the sum is the sum of the means
  - the mean of the difference is the difference in the means
- For independent random variables, (cf. Pythagorean theorem),  $SD(X_1 + X_2) = SD(X_1 - X_2) = \sqrt{SD(X_1)^2 + SD(X_2)^2}$

 $E(X_1 + X_2) = E(X_1) + E(X_2)$ 

[ASIDE: Sums and differences of independent Normally distributed random variables are also Normally distributed]

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### **Example**

- Assumption: Crime rate for individuals is independent of family relations!
- Let X = RV representing the number of crimes an average individual commits in a 5 yr span.
- Let X1 and X2 be the crime rates of a husband and the wife in one family. What is the expected crime rate for this family given that E(X) = 1.4 and SD(X) = 0.7?

$$SD(X_1 + X_2) = SD(X_1 - X_2) = \sqrt{SD(X_1)^2 + SD(X_2)^2}$$
  
 $E(X_1 + X_2) = E(X_1) + E(X_2)$ 

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## Example

- Assumption: Crime rate for individuals is independent of family relations!
- If X1+X2 = 3X-1, dependent case
- X1 and X2 are independent (family relation)
- Suppose X1+X2 = 5, is this atypical?

$$SD(X_1 + X_2) = SD(X_1 - X_2) = \sqrt{SD(X_1)^2 + SD(X_2)^2}$$
  
 
$$E(X_1 + X_2) = E(X_1) + E(X_2)$$

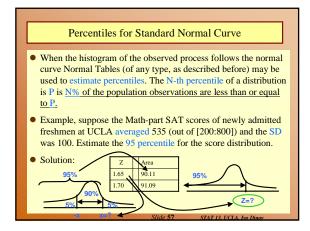
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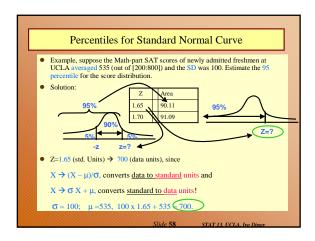
### Areas under Standard Normal Curve – Normal Approximation

- Protocol
  - Convert the interval (we need to assess the percentage of entries in) to Standard units. Actually convert the end points in Standard units.
    - $\Box$  In general, the transformation  $X \to (X \mu)/\sigma$ , standardizes the observed value X, where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the average and the standard deviation of the distribution X is drawn from.
  - Find the corresponding area under the normal curve (from tables or online databases):
    - □Sketch the normal curve and shade the area of interest
    - □Separate your area into individually computable sections
    - □Check the Normal Table and extract the areas of every subsection
    - ☐ Add/compute the areas of all sub-sections to get the total area

area.

Areas under Standard Normal Curve -Normal Approximation, Scottish Army Recruits • The mean height is 64 in and the standard deviation is 2 in Only recruits shorter than 65.5 in will be trained for tank operation. What percentage of the incoming recruits will be trained to operate t vehicles (tanks)?  $X \rightarrow (X-64)/2$ 65.5 → (65.5-64)/2 = 3/4 Percentage is 77.34% ■ Recruits within 1/2 standard deviations of the mean will have no restrictions on duties. About what percentage of the recruits will ha training/duties?  $X \rightarrow (X-64)/2$ 65 → (65-64)/2 = 1/2 63 → (63-64)/2 = -1/2 62 63 64 65 66 68 Percentage is





### Summary

- 1. The Standard Normal curve is symmetric w.r.t. the origin (0,0) and the total area under the curve is 100% (1 unit)
- 2. Std units indicate how many SD's is a value below (-)/above (+) the mean
- 3. Many histograms have roughly the shape of the normal curve (bell-shape)
- If a list of numbers follows the normal curve the percentage of entries falling within each interval is estimated by: 1. Converting the interval to StdUnits and, 2. Computing the corresponding area under the normal curve (Normal approximation)
- 5. A histogram which follows the normal curve may be reconstructed just from  $(\mu,\sigma^2),$  mean and variance=std\_dev^2
- 6. Any histogram can be summarized using percentiles
- 7. E(aX+b)=aE(X)+b,  $Var(aX+b)=a^2Var(X)$ , where E(Y) the the mean of Y and Var(Y) is the square of the StdDev(Y),

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