Statistical Data Analysis

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Statistical Inference for the Relationship **Between Two Variables**

Relationship Between a Numerical Variable and a Binary Variable

- In general, we can denote the means of the two groups as μ_1 and µ2.
- The null hypothesis indicates that the population means are equal, $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$.
- · In contrast, the alternative hypothesis is one the following: if we believe the mean for group 1 is greater than the mean for group 2. - if $H_{\rm A}: \mu_1 > \mu_2$,
 - if we believe the mean for group 1 is less than the mean for group 2. - if $H_{\rm A}$: $\mu_1 < \mu_2$,
 - if $H_{\rm A}$: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$, if we believe the means are different but we do not specify which one is greater.
- · We can also express these hypotheses in terms of the difference in the means:
- Then the corresponding null hypothesis is that there is no
- $H_{\rm A}: \mu_1 \mu_2 > 0, H_{\rm A}: \mu_1 \mu_2 < 0, \text{ or } H_{\rm A}: \mu_1 \mu_2 \neq 0$
- difference in the population means, $H_0: \mu_1 \mu_2 = 0$

Relationship Between a Numerical Variable and a Binary Variable

- Previously, we used the sample mean \overline{X} to perform statistical inference regarding the population mean μ .
- · To evaluate our hypothesis regarding the difference between two means, $\mu_1 - \mu_2$, it is reasonable to choose the difference between the sample means, $\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2$, as our statistic.
- We use μ_{12} to denote the difference between the population means μ_1 and μ_2 , and use \overline{X}_{12} to denote the difference between the sample means \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 :

 $\mu_{12} = \mu_{1} - \mu_{2}$ $\overline{X}_{12} = \overline{X}_{1} - \overline{X}_{2}$

Relationship Between a Numerical Variable and a Binary Variable

· By the Central Limit Theorem,

$$\overline{X}_1 \sim N\left(\mu_1, \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1}\right), \qquad \overline{X}_2 \sim N\left(\mu_2, \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}\right)$$

- where n_1 and n_2 are the number of observations.
- · Therefore,

$$\bar{X}_{12} \sim N\left(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}\right)$$

· We can rewrite this as

$$\bar{X}_{12} \sim N(\mu_{12}, SD_{12}^2)$$
 where $SD_{12} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$

Relationship Between a Numerical Variable and a Binary Variable

- We want to test our hypothesis that $H_A: \mu_{12} \neq 0$ (i.e., the difference between the two means is not zero) against the null hypothesis that $H_0: \mu_{12} = 0$.
- To use \overline{X}_{12} as a test statistic, we need to find its sampling distribution under the null hypothesis (i.e., its null distribution). If the null hypothesis is true thor

- Therefore, the null distribution of
$$\overline{X}_{12}$$
 is
 $\overline{X}_{12} \sim N(0, SD_{12}^2)$

· As before, however, it is more common to standardize the test statistic by subtracting its mean (under the null) and dividing the result by its standard deviation.

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X}_{12}}{SD_{12}}$$

- where Z is called the z-statistic, and it has the standard normal distribution: $Z \sim N(0, 1)$.

Two-sample z-test

• To test the null hypothesis $H_0: \mu_{12} = 0$, we determine the z-score,

$$z = \frac{x_{12}}{SD_{12}}$$

 Then, depending on the alternative hypothesis, we can calculate the p-value, which is the observed significance level, as:

 $\begin{array}{ll} - \mbox{ if } H_{\rm A}: \mu_{12} > 0, & p_{\rm obs} = P(Z \ge z), \\ - \mbox{ if } H_{\rm A}: \mu_{12} < 0, & p_{\rm obs} = P(Z \le z), \\ - \mbox{ if } H_{\rm A}: \mu_{12} \ne 0, & p_{\rm obs} = 2 \times P(Z \ge |z|), \end{array}$

• The above tail probabilities are obtained from the standard normal distribution.

Example

- Suppose that our sample includes $n_1 = 25$ women and $n_2 = 27$ men.
- The sample mean of body temperature is $\overline{x}_1 = 98.2$ for women and $\overline{x}_2 = 98.4$ for men.
- Then, our point estimate for the difference between population means is $\overline{x}_{12} = -0.2$.
- We assume that $\sigma_1^2 = 0.8$ and $\sigma_2^2 = 1$.
- The variance of the sampling distribution is (0.8/25)+(1/27) = 0.07, and the standard deviation is $SD_{12} = \sqrt{0.07} = 0.26$.
- The z-score is $z = \frac{\bar{x}_{12}}{SD_{12}} = \frac{-0.2}{0.26} = -0.76$

Example

- $H_{\rm A}: \mu_{12} \neq 0$ and z = -0.76. - Therefore, $p_{\rm obs} = 2P(Z \ge |-0.76|) = 2 \times 0.22 = 0.44$.
- For the body temperature example, $p_{obs} = 0.44$ is greater than the commonly used significance levels (e.g., 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1).
- Therefore, the test result is not statistically significant, and we cannot reject the null hypothesis (which states that the population means for the two groups are the same) at these levels.
 - That is, any observed difference could be due to chance alone.

Two-Sample t-test

- In practice, SD_{12} is not known since σ_1 and σ_2 are unknown.
- As before, we can use the sample variances S²₁ and S²₂ to estimate σ²₁ and σ²₂, and take this additional source of uncertainty into account by using *t*-distributions instead of the standard normal distribution.
- We use s²₁ and s²₂ (point estimates for population variances σ²₁ and σ²₂) to estimate the standard deviation,

$$SE_{12} = \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$$

where SE_{12} is the standard error of \overline{X}_{12} .

- Then, instead of the standard normal distribution, we need to use t-distributions to find *p-values*.
- For this, we can use R or R-Commander.

Two-Sample t-test

• Using the specific value of \bar{X}_{12} , which is denoted \bar{x}_{12} , as our point estimate for the difference between the two population means, $\mu_{12} = \mu_1 - \mu_2$, along with the standard error SE_{12} of \bar{X}_{12} , we find confidence intervals for μ_{12} as follows:

$$[\bar{x}_{12} - t_{crit} \times SE_{12}, \bar{x}_{12} + t_{crit} \times SE_{12}]$$

where t_{crit} is the *t*-critical value from a *t*-distribution for the desired confidence level *c*.

• When comparing the population means for two groups, the formula for finding the degrees of freedom is as follows: $(-2) = -2^{2} \sqrt{2}$

$$df = \frac{\left(\frac{S_1^{-}}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^{-}}{n_2}\right)}{\frac{1}{n_1 - 1}\left(\frac{S_1^{-}}{n_1}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n_2 - 1}\left(\frac{S_2^{-}}{n_2}\right)^2}$$

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Two-Sample t-test

• For testing a hypothesis regarding $\mu_{12} = \mu_1 - \mu_2$ when the population variances are unknown,

- we follow similar steps as above,

• but we use *SE*₁₂ instead of *SD*₁₂ and use the following *t*-statistic instead of the *z*-statistic to account for the additional source of uncertainty involved in estimating the population variances:

$$T = \frac{\bar{X}_{12}}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_1}{n_2}}}$$



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Two-Sample t-test

- Using the observed data, we obtain $\overline{x}_{12} = \overline{x}_1 \overline{x}_2$ as the observed value of \overline{X}_{12} .
 - We also use the observed data to obtain s_1 and s_2 as the observed values of sample variances.
 - Then, we calculate the observed value of the test statistic *T* as follows: $t = \frac{\bar{x}_{12}}{\sum_{r=1}^{n}} = \frac{\bar{x}_{12}}{SE_{12}}$

$$\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$$

which is called the t-score.

• Depending on the alternative hypothesis, we calculate p_{obs} as

 $\begin{array}{ll} - \mbox{ if } H_{\rm A}: \mu_{12} > 0, & p_{\rm obs} = P(T \ge t), \\ - \mbox{ if } H_{\rm A}: \mu_{12} < 0, & p_{\rm obs} = P(T \le t), \\ - \mbox{ if } H_{\rm A}: \mu_{12} \ne 0, & p_{\rm obs} = 2 \times P(T \ge |t|), \end{array}$

where T has a t -distribution with the degrees of freedom obtained as above

Example

- For the body temperature example, suppose that the sample variances based on our sample of $n_1 = 25$ women and $n_2 = 27$ men are $s_1^2 = 1.1$ and $s_2^2 = 1.2$, respectively.
- The standard error of \overline{X}_{12} is

$$SE_{12} = \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1.1}{25} + \frac{1.2}{27}} = 0.3$$

· Degrees of freedom is

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$$df = \frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2}{\frac{1}{n_1 - 1} \left(\frac{s_1^2}{n_1}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n_2 - 1} \left(\frac{s_2^2}{n_2}\right)^2} = \frac{\left(\frac{1.1}{25} + \frac{1.2}{27}\right)^2}{\frac{1}{26 - 1} \left(\frac{1.1}{25}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{27 - 1} \left(\frac{1.2}{27}\right)^2} = 49.9$$

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Example

- To find the corresponding t_{crit} , we follow similar steps as before.
- Suppose that we are interested in 95% confidence interval for μ_{12} .
- We find t_{crit} from the *t*-distribution with df = 49.9 degrees of freedom.
- In R-Commander,
 - click Distributions $\rightarrow t$ distribution $\rightarrow t$ quantiles.
 - Then enter (1 = 0.95)/2 = 0.025 for Probabilities, 49.9 for Degrees of freedom, and check the option Upper tail.
- The corresponding t-critical value is 2.01.

Example

- This results in the following 95% confidence interval: [\$\overline{x}_{12} - t_{crit} \times SE_{12}, \$\overline{x}_{12} + t_{crit} \times SE_{12}\$] [-0.2 - 2.01 \times 0.30, -0.2 + 2.01 \times 0.30] = [-0.80, 0.40].
- Therefore, at 0.95 confidence level, we believe that the true difference between the two means falls between -0.80 and 0.40.
- The t-score is

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_{12}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}} = \frac{\bar{x}_{12}}{SE_{12}} = \frac{-0.2}{0.3} = -0.67$$

Example

- The alternative hypothesis is $H_A: \mu_{12} \neq 0$.
- Using the *t*-distribution with df = 49.9 degrees of freedom, the upper tail probability of |-0.67| = 0.67 is P(T > 0.67) = 0.25.
- The observed significance level is $p_{obs} = 2 \times 0.25 = 0.50$, which is considered to be large (compared to commonly used significance levels).
- Therefore, the result is not statistically significant, and we cannot reject the null hypothesis,
 - which indicates that the two populations (men and women) have the same mean body temperature.