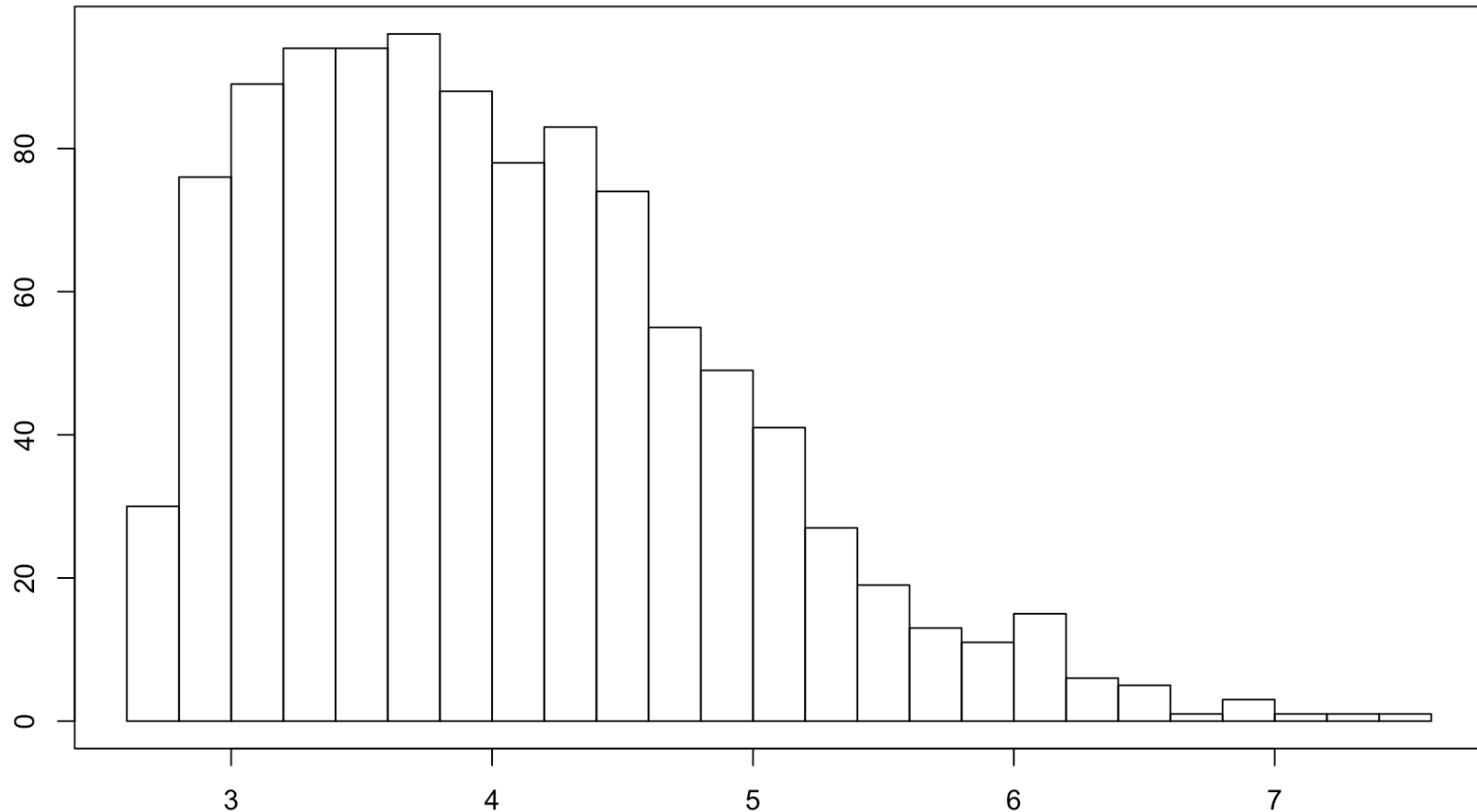


Week 2, January 20th 2017

What is this figure missing?



Which is correct?

Option A:

Figure 1 shows the histogram of the log-transformed radon concentrations.

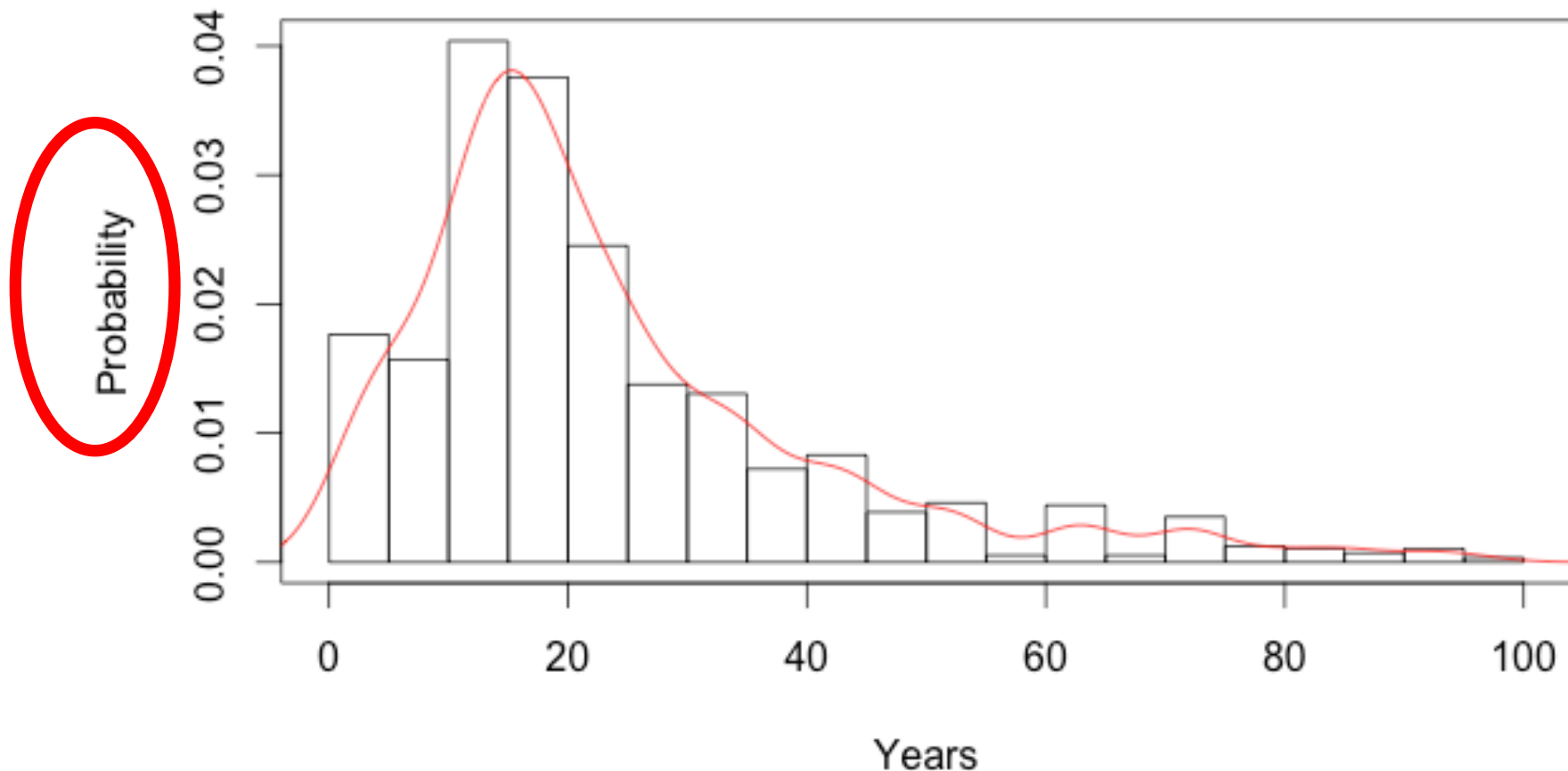
Option B:

The log-transformed radon distributions approximated a normal distribution (Figure 1).

Probability Distributions

- Frequency histograms (vertical bars) give you an general idea of the probability distribution of your data
- The density function (red line) gives the exact shape

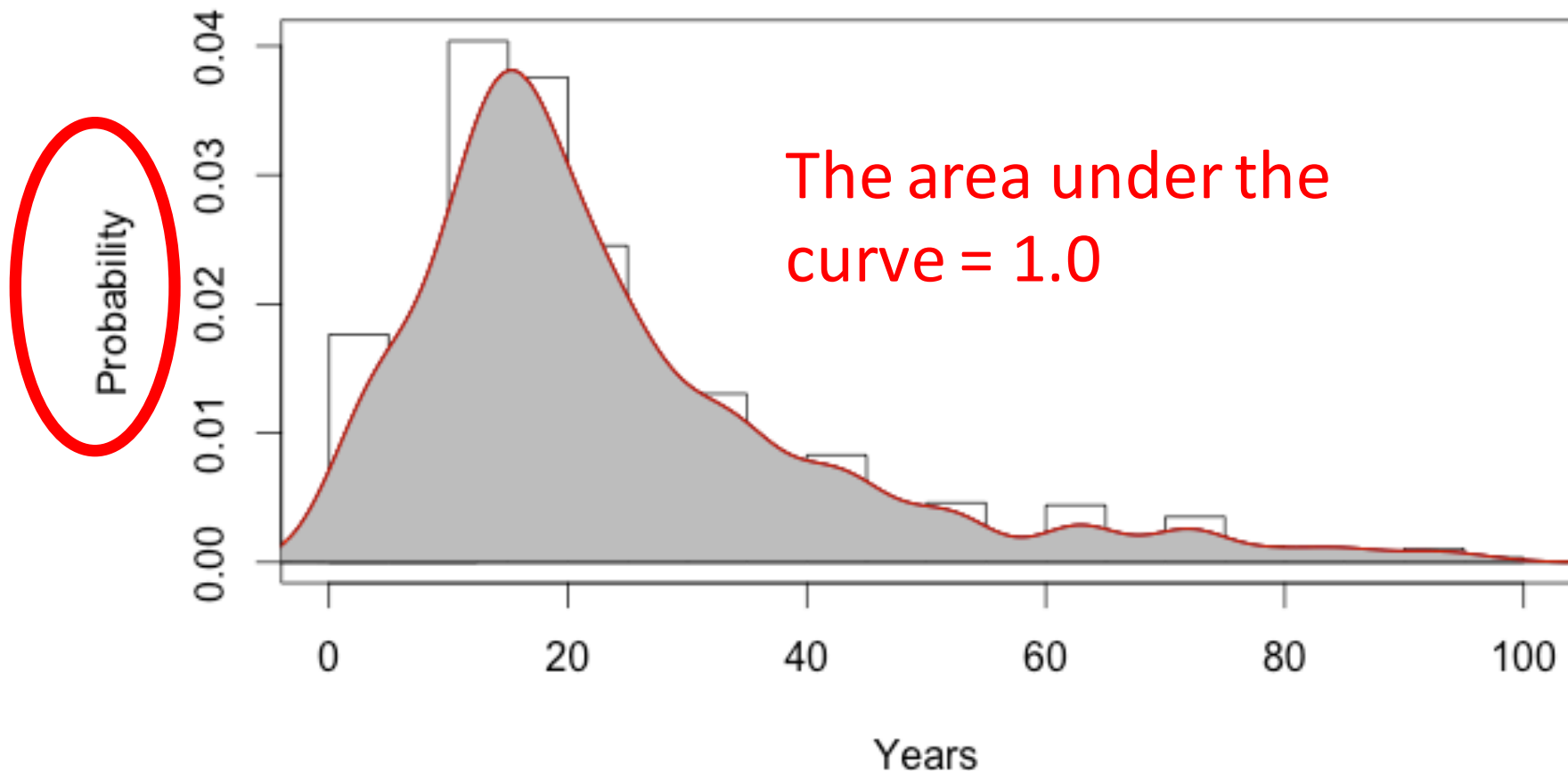
Home Age in 1990



Probability Distributions

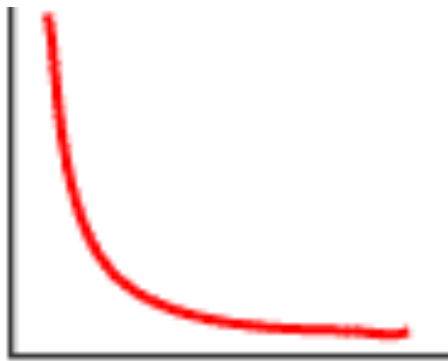
- Frequency histograms (vertical bars) give you an general idea of the probability distribution of your data
- The density function (red line) gives the exact shape

Home Age in 1990

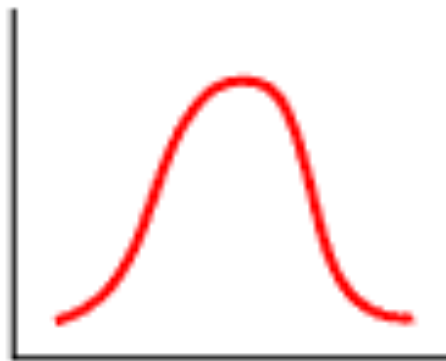


Probability Distributions

- Most continuous data approximate the shape of a STANDARD probability distribution, and this is why we can do statistics
- We will focus on PARAMETRIC methods that assume our data follow some type of normal distribution



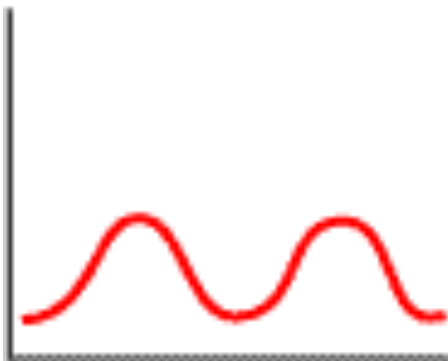
J-shaped



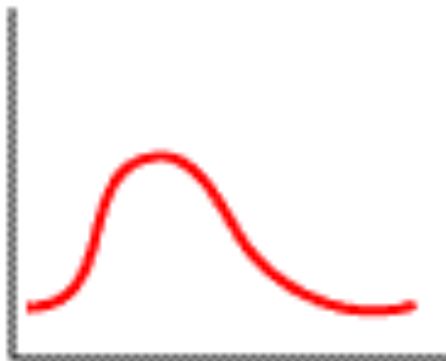
Normal



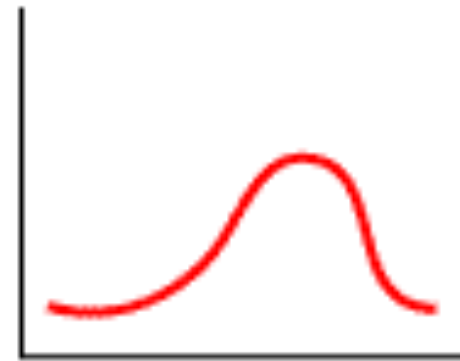
Rectangular



Bimodal



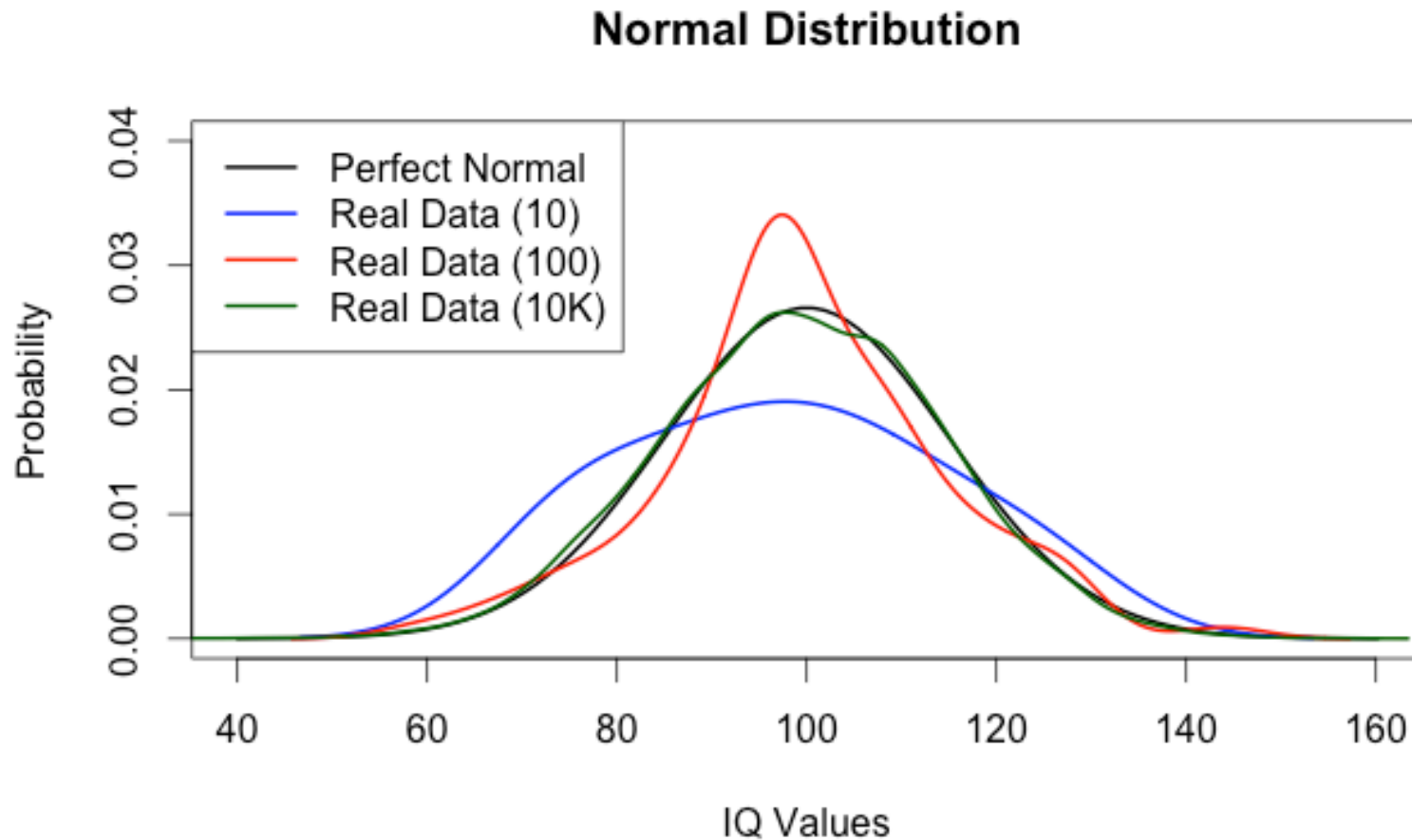
Positive (right) skew



Negative (left) skew

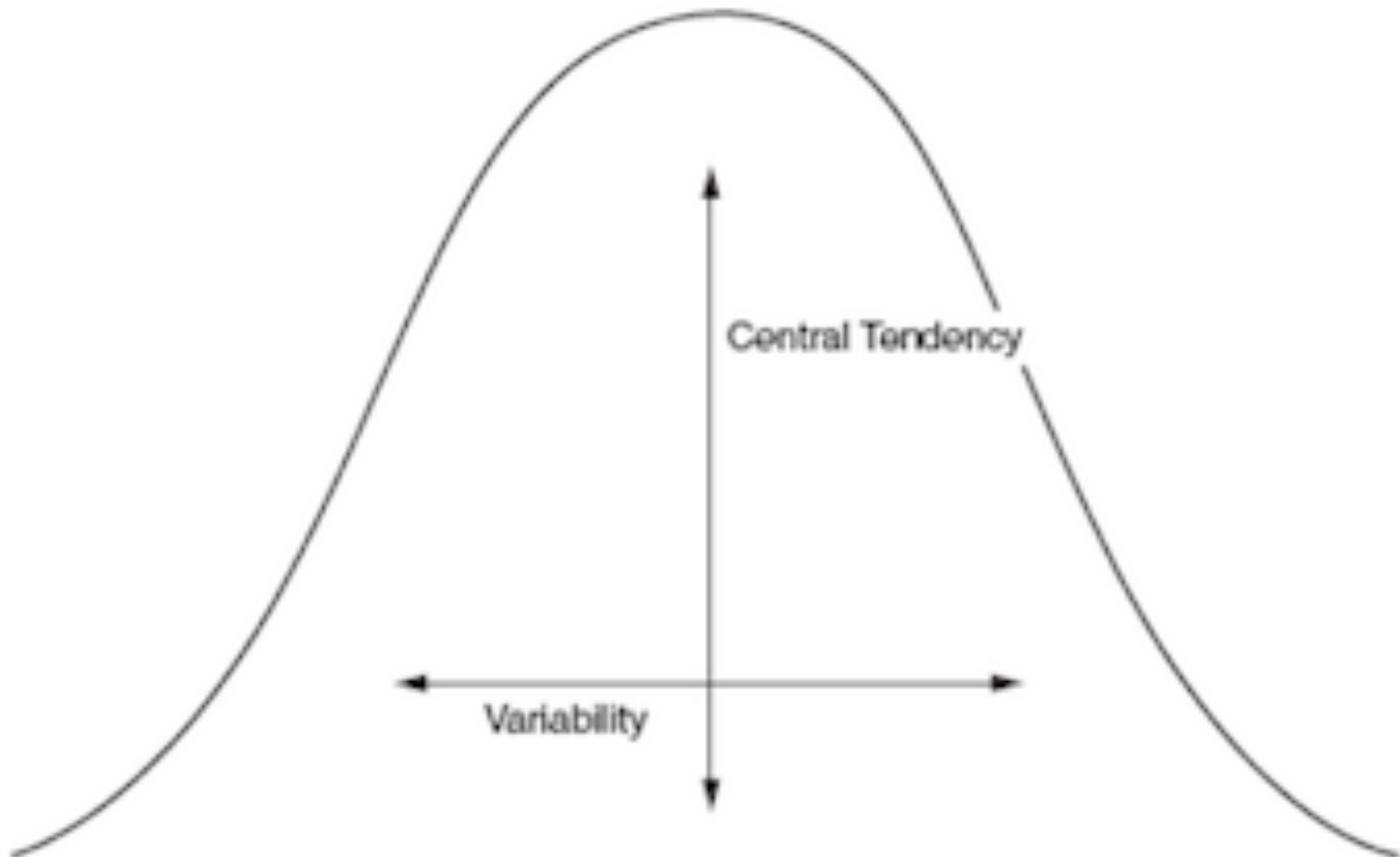
Normal Distribution

- IQ scores of children follow a normal distribution with a mean of 100 and standard deviation of 15
- Real data NEVER follow a hypothetical perfectly normal distribution. The more data you have, the better for characterizing the distribution.



Summary Statistics

- We use these to describe the CENTRAL TENDANCY and VARIABILITY of the data.
- What are the mean, median, and mode? Where are they on a perfectly normal distribution?



Calculate the Mean

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

[1] 94 115 127 110 102 103 92 82 75 83

NOTE: \bar{x} is the SAMPLE MEAN and μ is the POPULATION MEAN

Calculate the Standard Deviation

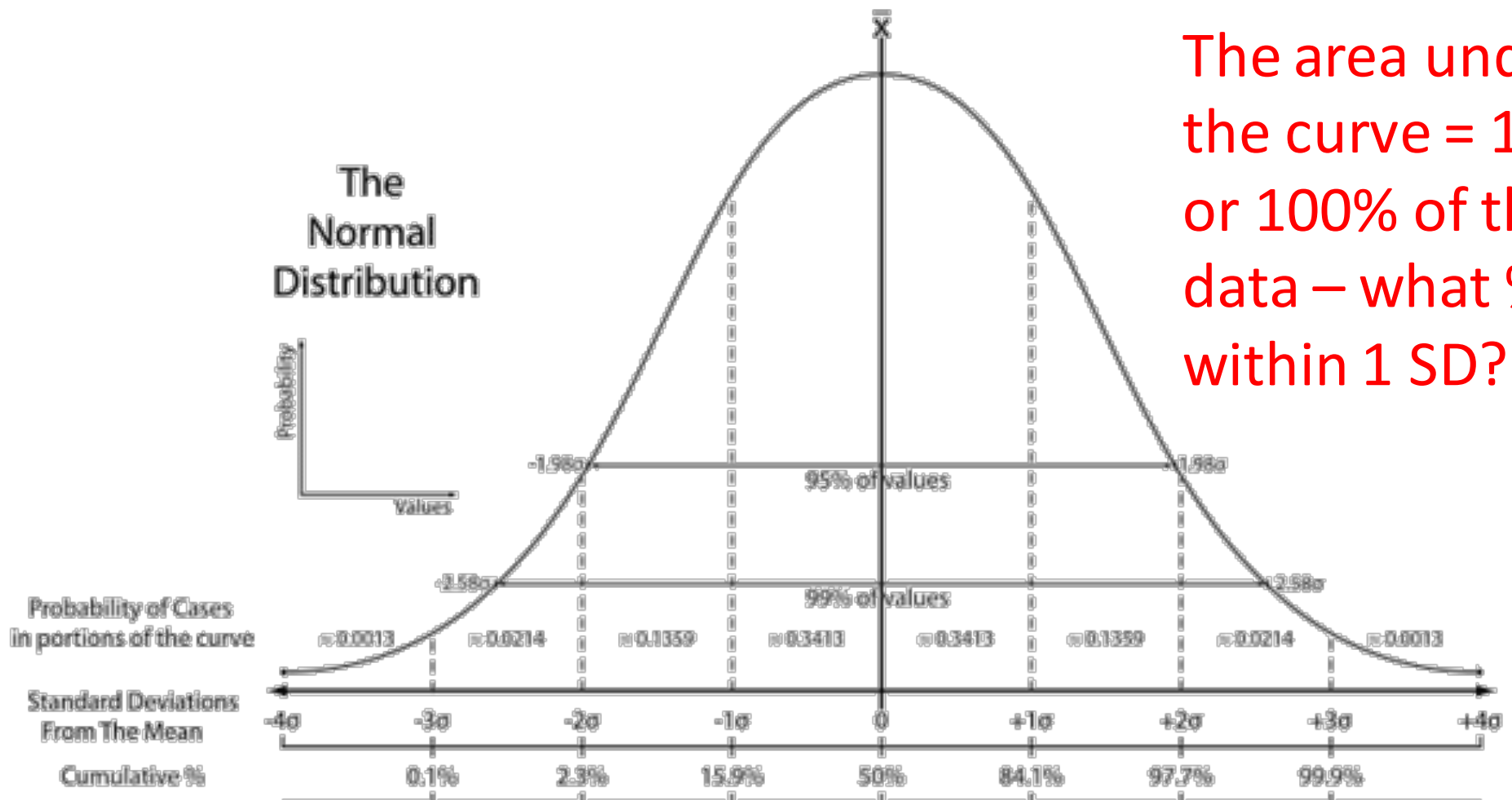
$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

[1] 94 115 127 110 102 103 92 82 75 83

NOTE: s is the SAMPLE SD and σ is the POPULATION SD

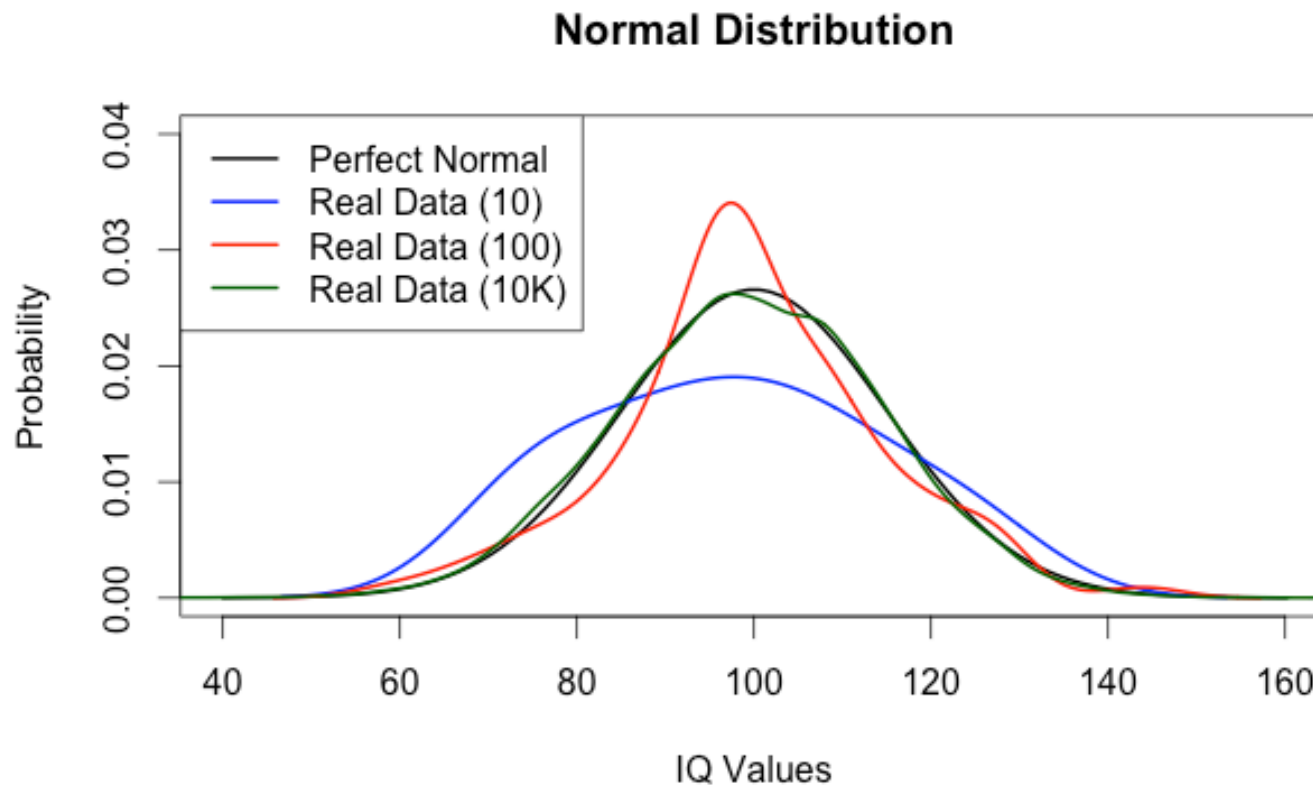
Percentiles / Quantiles

- Percentiles are the values below which a percentage of the data are distributed.
- The MEDIAN is also the 50th percentile
- The 75th percentile is the value below which 75% of the data can be found
- The INTERQUARTILE RANGE (IQR) is the range between the 25th and 75th percentiles



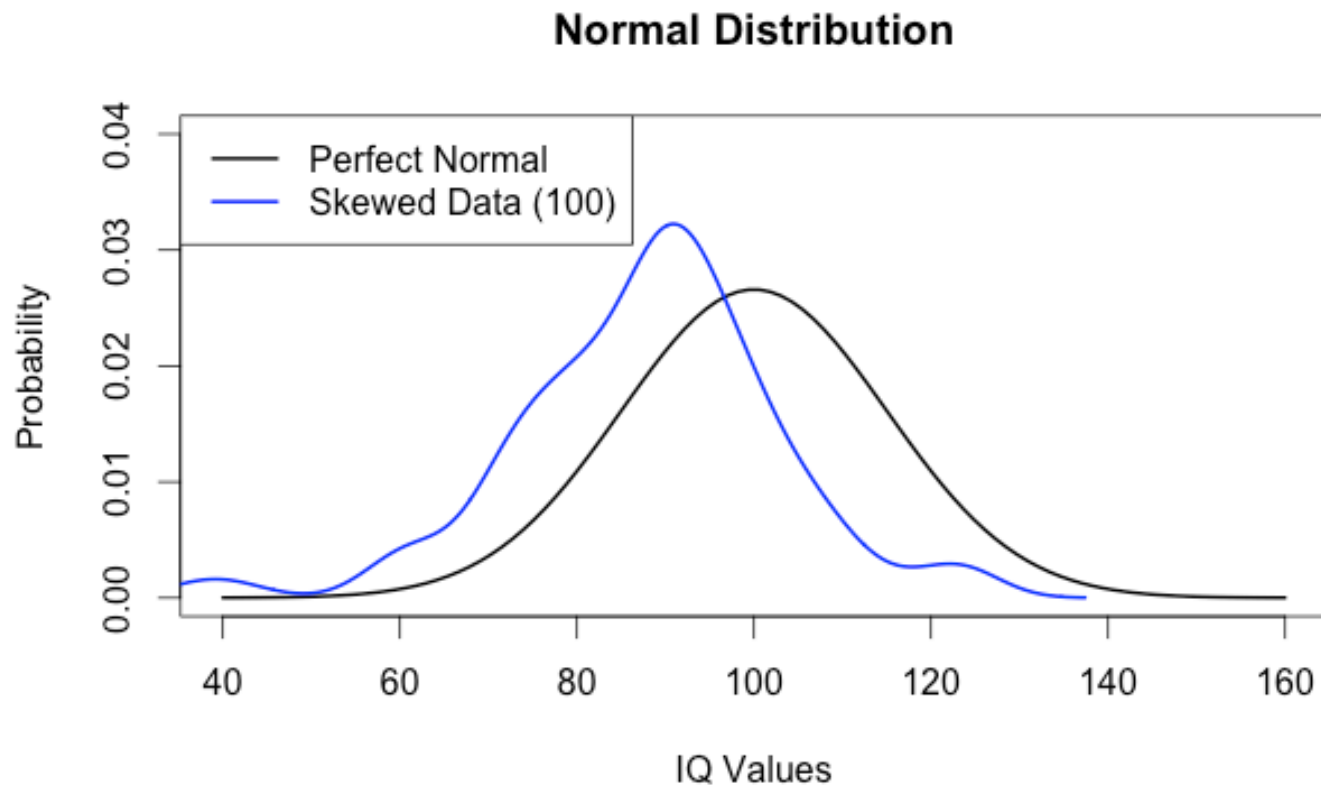
Are These Data Normal?

- We have different tools available to address this question:
 - Visual inspection of the density function of the sample compared with a standard normal curve. How do its skewness and kurtosis compare?
 - Visual inspection of the quantile-quantile plot (QQ plot)
 - Statistical tests for goodness-of-fit with data that follow a perfectly normal distribution, like the Shapiro-Wilk test



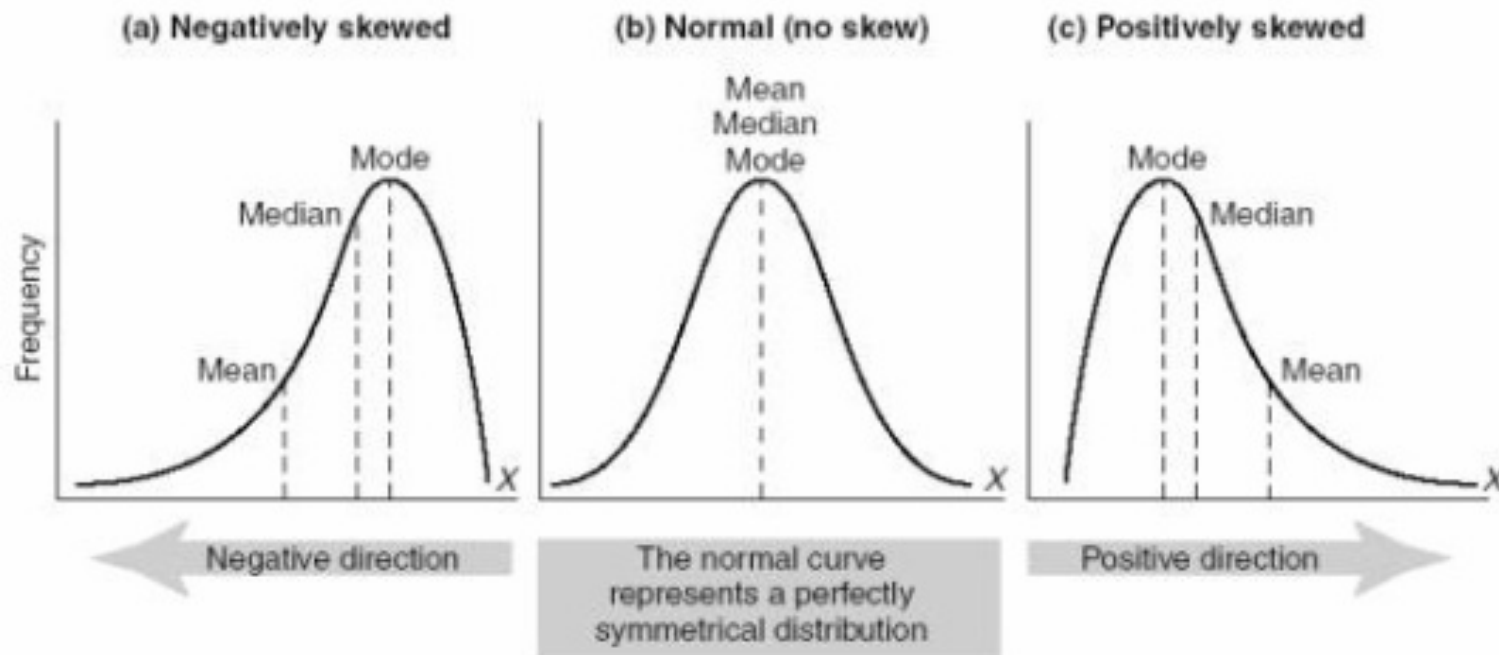
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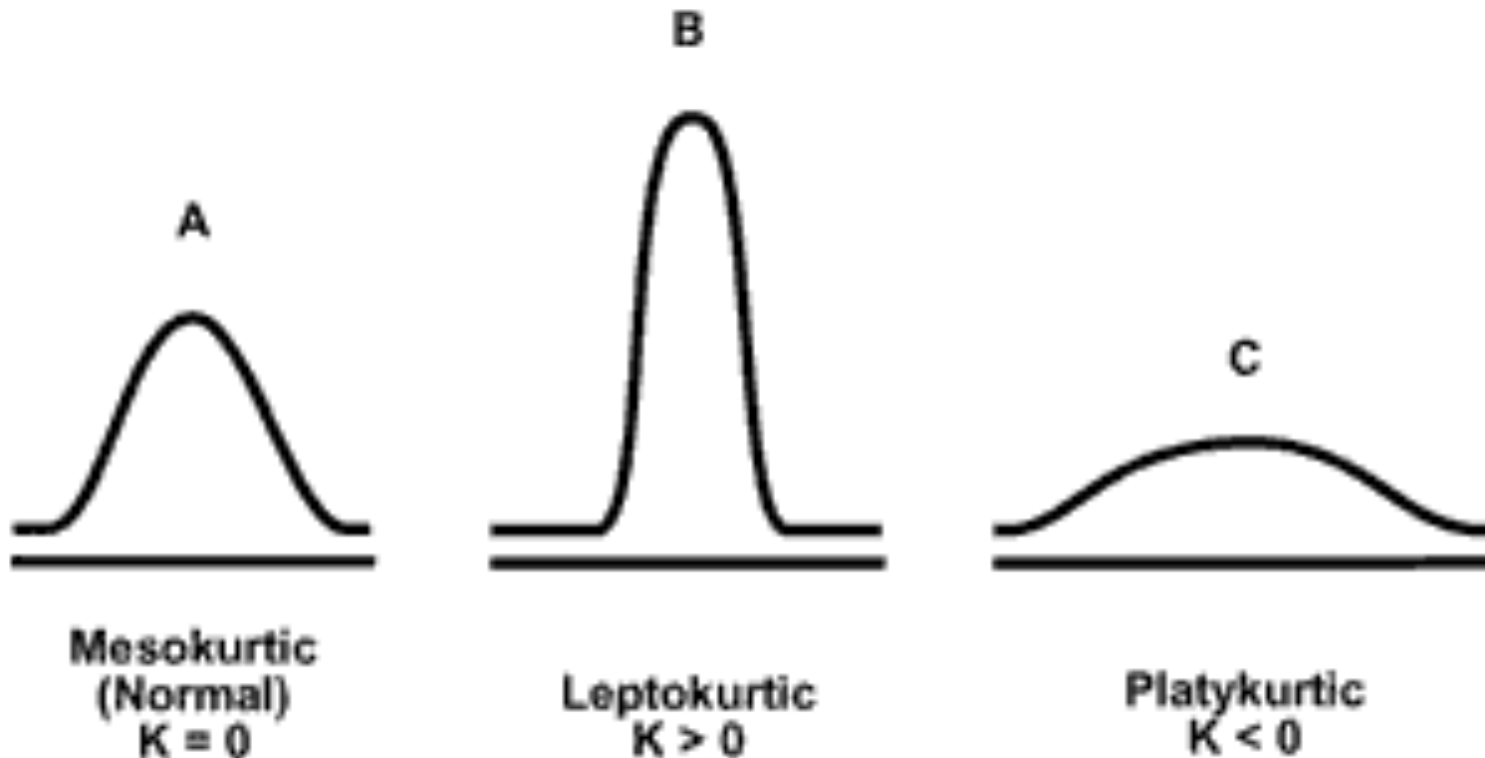
Skewness

- Skewness describes the shape of the distribution on the x-axis relative to the hypothetical normal
- A perfectly normal distribution will have the same MEAN and MEDIAN value
- If the distribution is POSITIVELY or RIGHT-SKEWED (longer right tail) the mean is higher than the median
- If the distribution is NEGATIVE or LEFT-SKEWED (longer left tail) the mean is lower than the median



Kurtosis

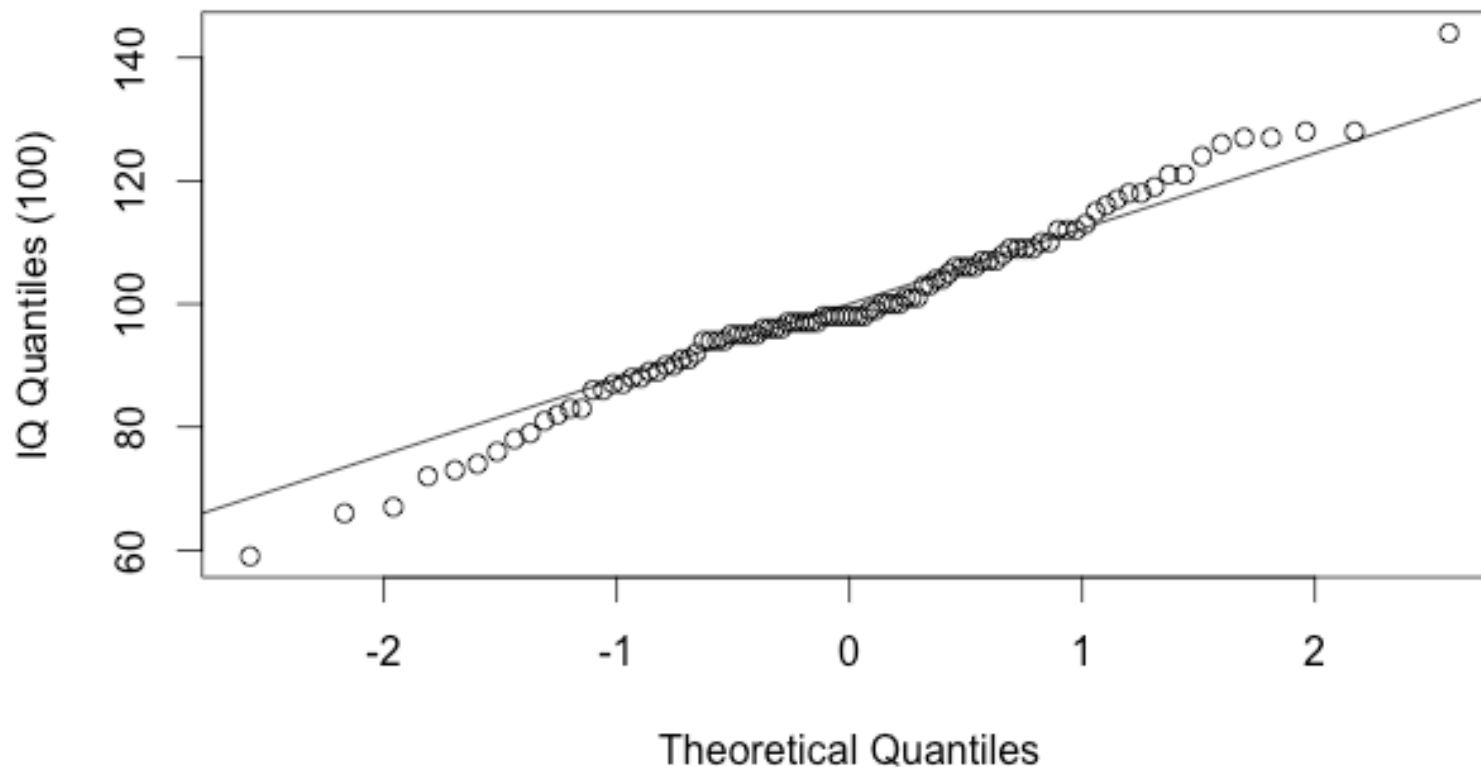
- Kurtosis describes the shape of the distribution on the y-axis relative to the hypothetical normal
- A perfectly normal distribution has a bell shaped
- A distribution with positive kurtosis is relatively taller and skinnier, a value >3 indicates critically non-normal kurtosis
- A distribution with negative kurtosis is relatively shorter and flatter, a value <-3 indicates critically non-normal kurtosis



Quantile-Quantile Plots

- QQ plots show the quantiles of the sample compared with the quantiles of a standard normal distribution
- This is basically a scatter plot of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd...98th, 99th, and 100th percentiles of the sample and the standard normal
- If the scattered of dots falls along a straight line, it is evidence that the data are normally distributed

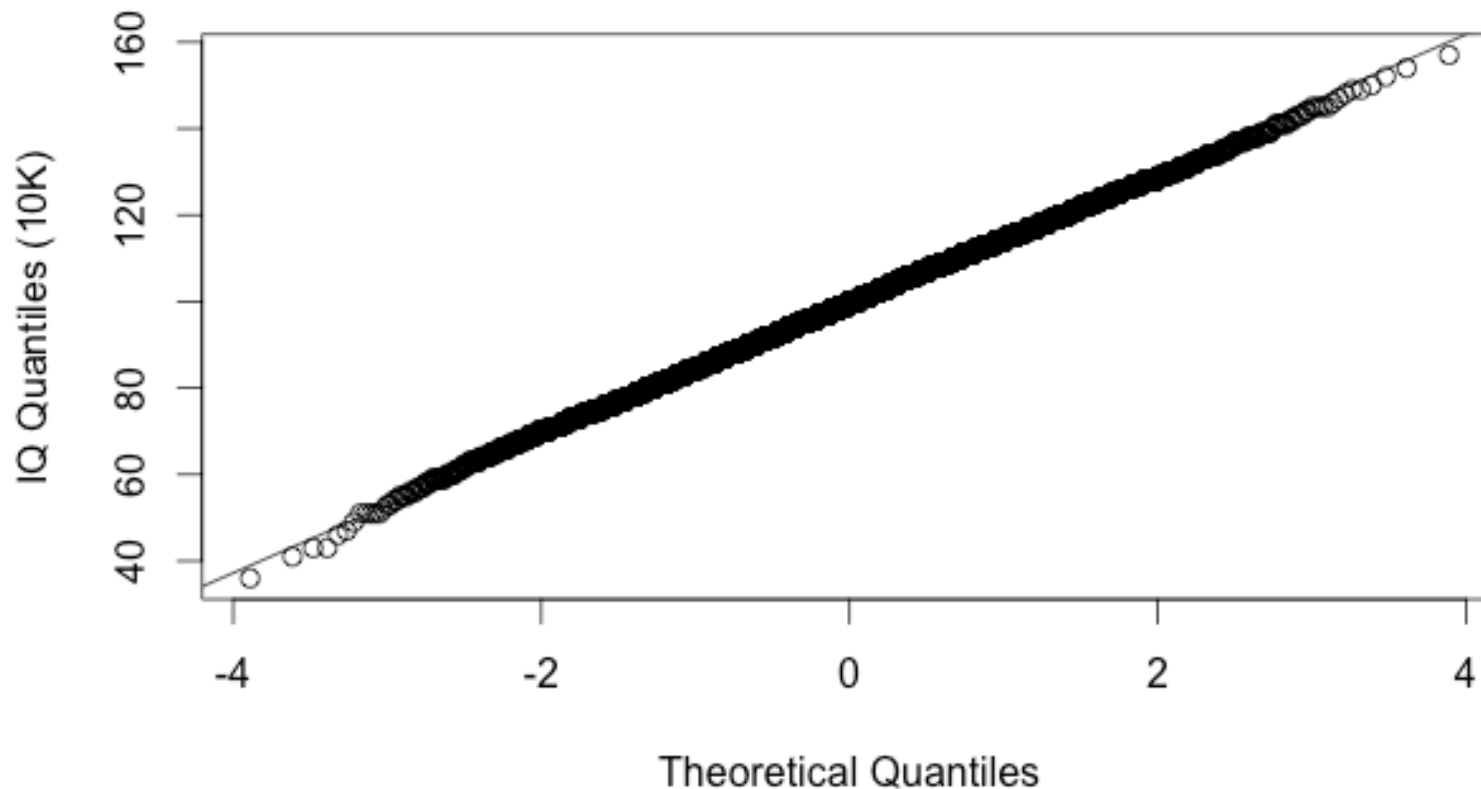
Normal Q-Q Plot



Quantile-Quantile Plots

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Normal Q-Q Plot



Statistical Hypothesis Testing

- You are always testing a NULL HYPOTHESIS (H_0)
- If the test passes, the H_0 is accepted
- If the test fails, the ALTERNATE HYPOTHESIS (H_1) is accepted
- We use the p-value to evaluate whether the test passed or failed
- Typically we use 0.05 as the critical value for p, which means we are willing to wrongly reject H_0 in 5% of cases.
- So, if the value of $p < 0.05$, the test fails and we:
 1. Reject the null hypothesis
 2. Accept the alternate hypothesis
 3. Have a statistically significant result!
- **A SIGNIFICANT result does not imply a MEANINGFUL result**

Significant vs. Meaningful

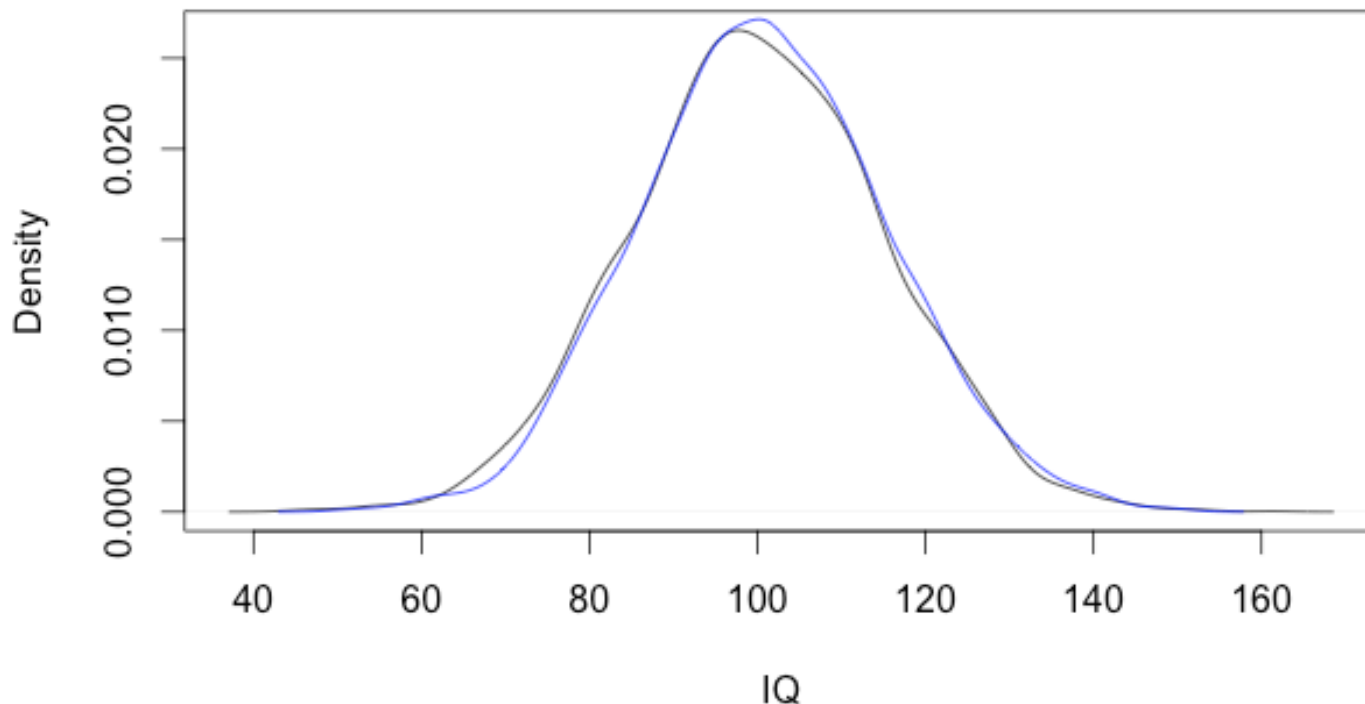
Welch Two Sample t-test

```
x = rnorm(5000, 100, 15)  
y = rnorm(5000, 101, 15)
```

```
data: x and y  
t = -2.4605, df = 9992.2, p-value = 0.01389  
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0  
95 percent confidence interval:  
-1.3171309 -0.1490637  
sample estimates:  
mean of x mean of y  
100.1030 100.8361
```

What is the null hypothesis?
Do we reject it?

Two IQ Samples



Shapiro-Wilk Test

- H_0 : the sample was drawn from a normal distribution
- H_1 : the sample was not drawn from a normal distribution
- Note that H_1 does not tell us ANYTHING about the distribution the sample was drawn from if H_0 is rejected. We would have to try another test for another distribution.

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: iq1  
W = 0.96356, p-value = 0.8256
```

Real Data, 10 values

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: iq2  
W = 0.98524, p-value = 0.3305
```

Real Data, 100 values

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

```
data: iq4  
W = 0.97049, p-value = 0.02412
```

Skewed Data, 100 values

Test Statistics

- Whenever you run a statistical test, the foundation of that test is called its **STATISTIC**
- The test statistic is calculated by the computer, but you should understand the concept
- The values of the test statistic, themselves, expected to follow some probability distribution
- The p-value represents the probability of observing the calculated test statistic **BY CHANCE ALONE**

$$W = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_{(i)}\right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

For Your Assignment / Always

Untransformed values =

use the continuous data as measured

Log-transformed values =

use the natural logarithm of the untransformed values

Arithmetic mean = mean of untransformed values

Arithmetic SD = SD of the untransformed values

Log mean = mean of the log-transformed values

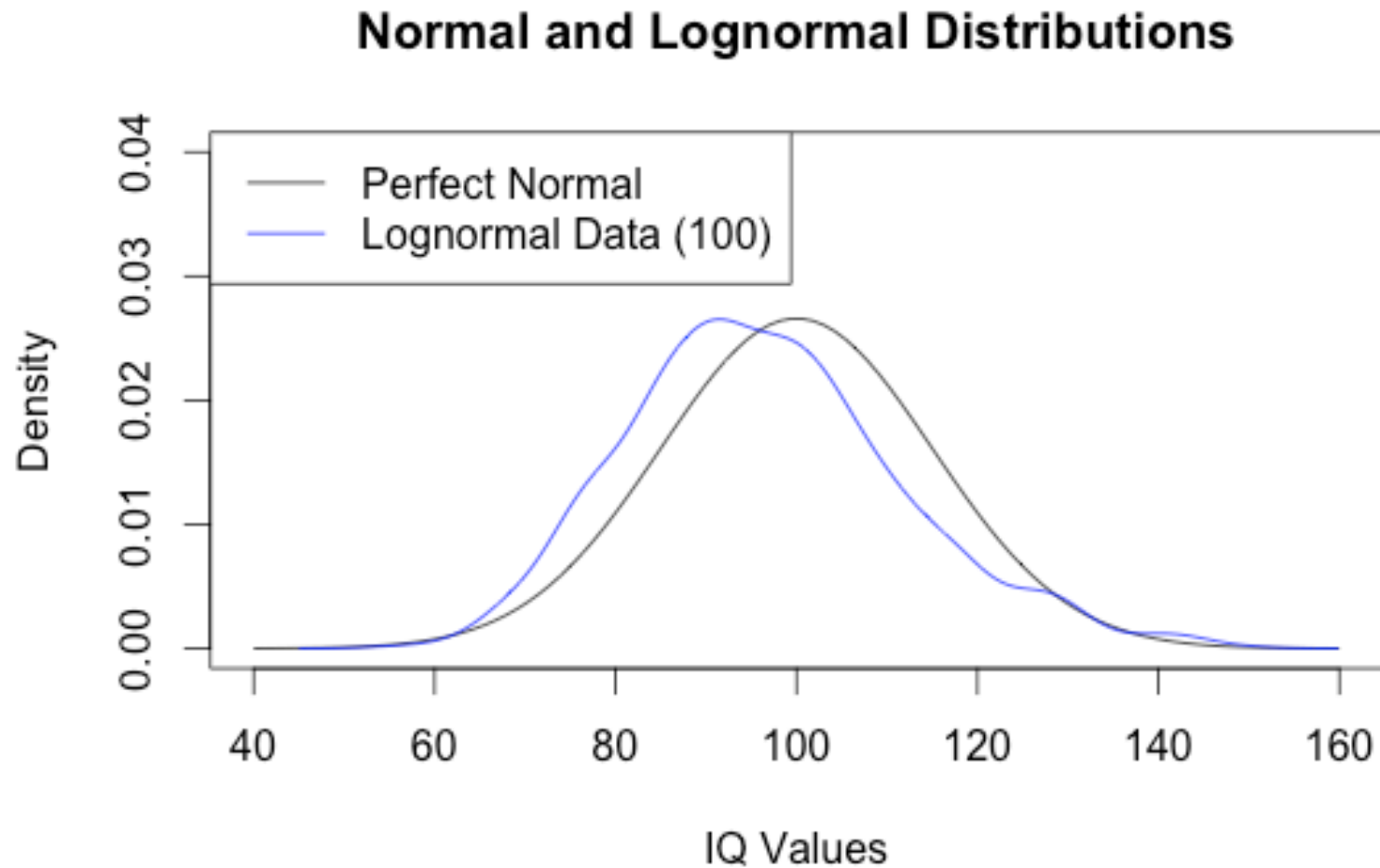
Log SD = SD of the log-transformed values

Geometric mean = $e^{(\text{mean of the log-transformed values})}$

Geometric SD = $e^{(\text{SD of the log-transformed values})}$

Log-Normal Distribution

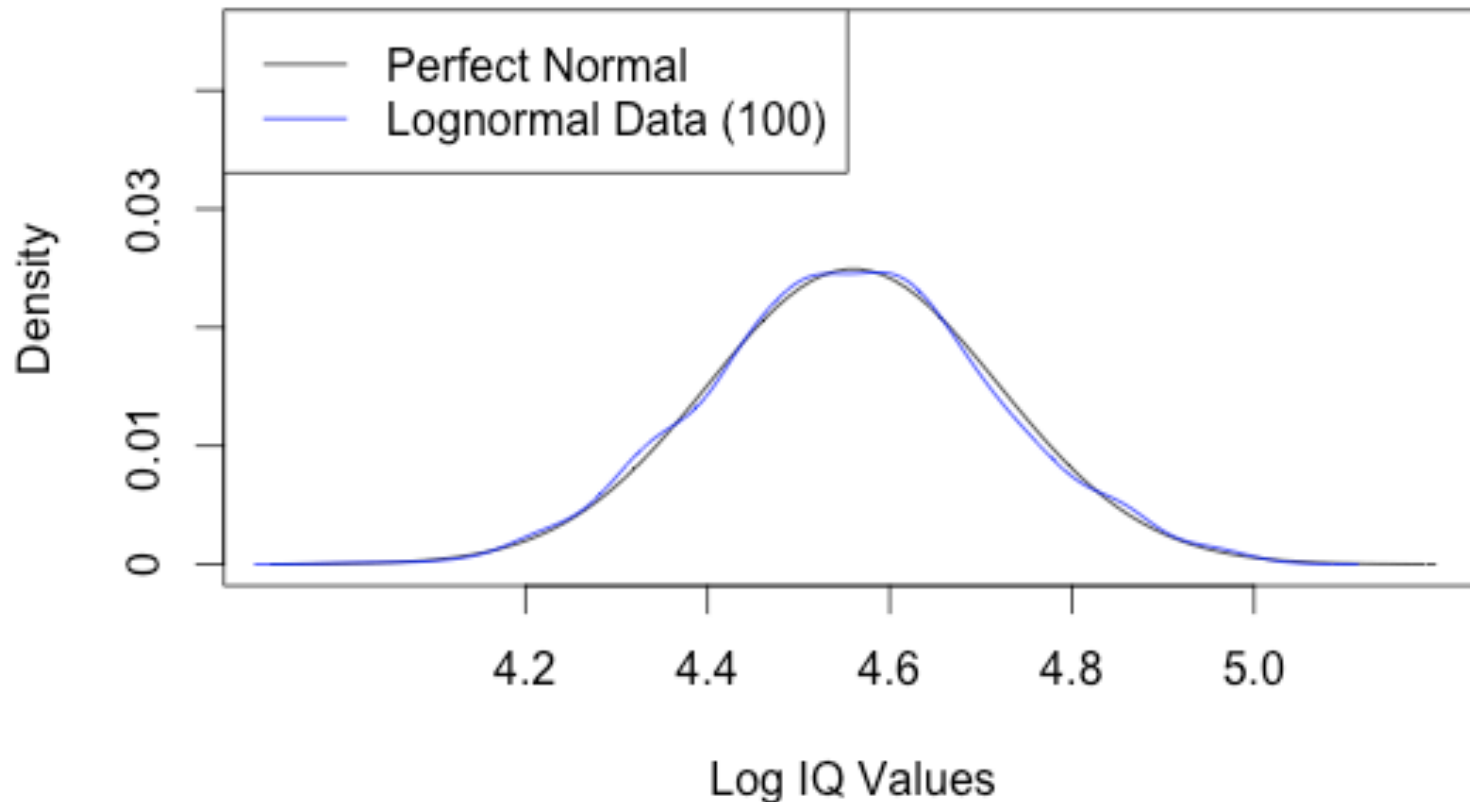
- Distribution of the sample is right-skewed
- Taking the natural logarithm of the sample yields a normal distribution



Log-Normal Distribution

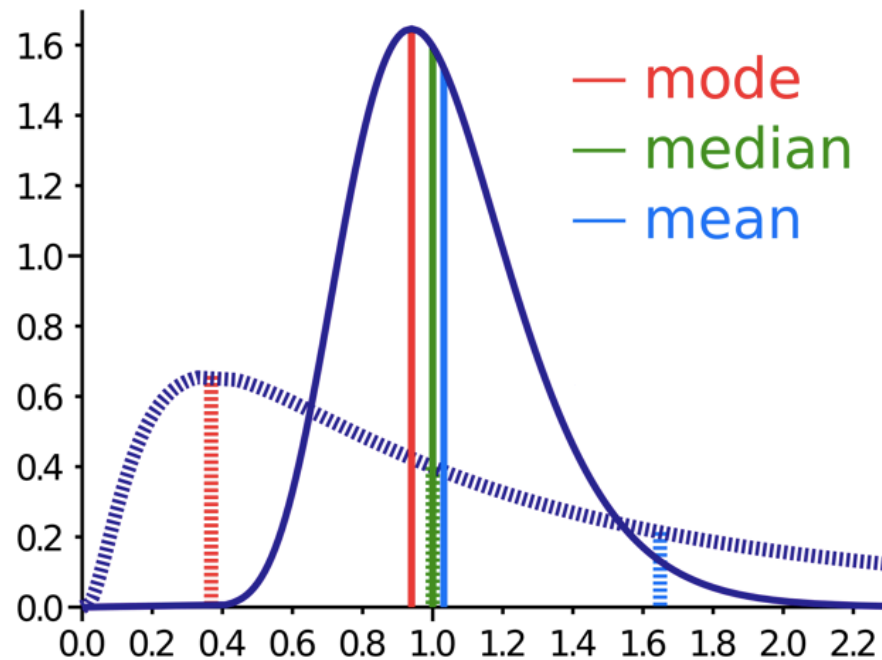
- Distribution of the sample is right-skewed
- Taking the natural logarithm of the sample (i.e. log-transforming the values) yields a normal distribution

Log Values of Lognormal Distribution



Summary Statistics

- We still use these to describe the CENTRAL TENDANCY and VARIABILITY of the data.
- What are the mean, median, and mode? Where are they on a lognormal distribution?
- The central tendency of lognormal distributions is better described by the GEOMETRIC mean than the ARITHMETIC mean
- The spread of lognormal distributions is better described by the GEOMETRIC standard deviation than the ARITHMETIC standard deviation



Calculate the Geometric Mean

- If you say “mean” people (including me) will assume that you are talking about the ARITHMETIC mean
- If you are reporting the GEOMETRIC mean, you must specify
- The GEOMETRIC mean will always be less than the ARITHMETIC mean

$$\bar{x}_g = \exp \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log X_i \right]$$

In other words, the antilog of the arithmetic mean of the log-transformed values

```
[1] 94 115 127 110 102 103 92 82 75 83
```

Calculate the Geometric SD

- The GEOMETRIC standard deviation is analogous to the ARITHMETIC standard deviation in the same way that the geometric mean is analogous to the arithmetic mean

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

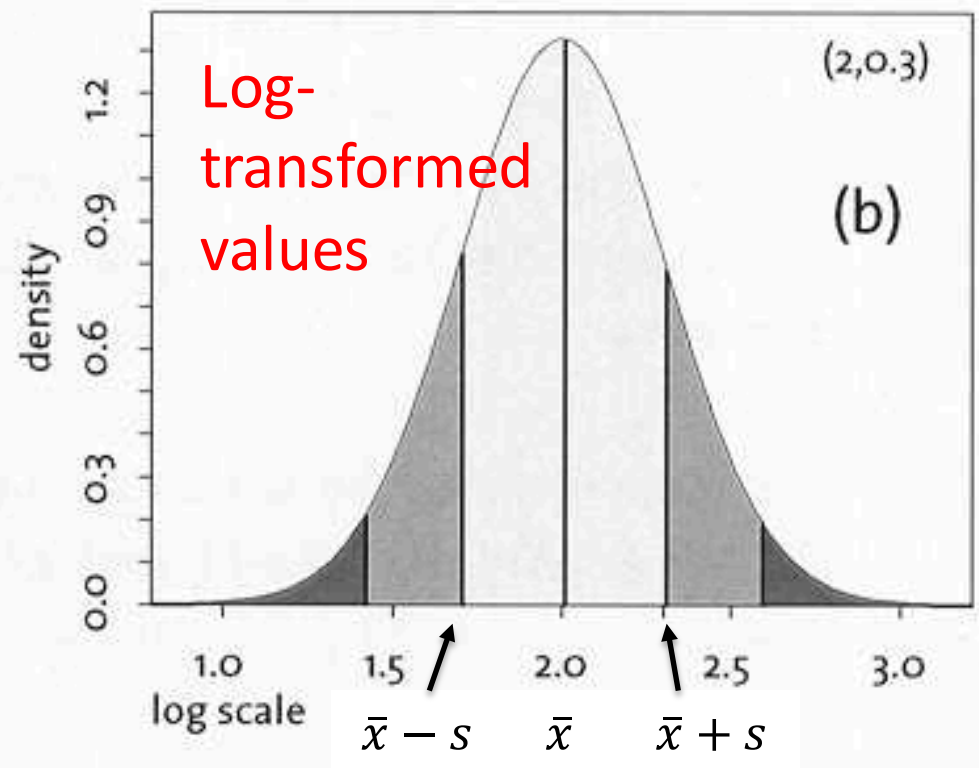
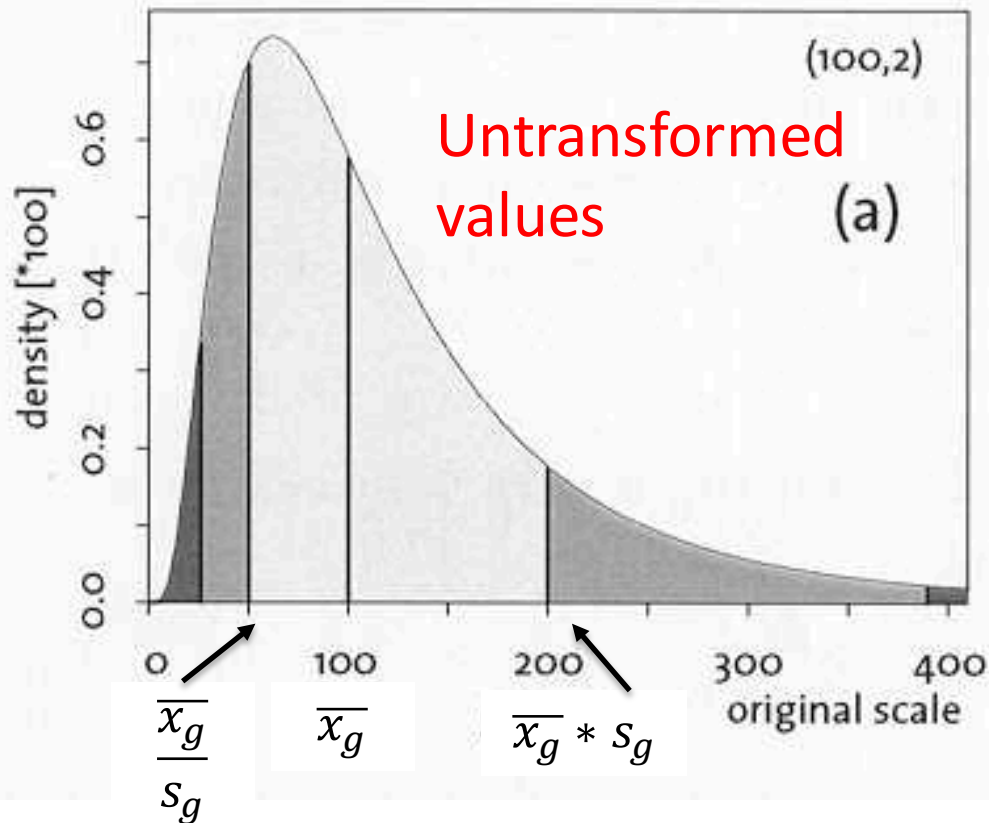
$$s_g = \exp \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (\log x_i - \log \bar{x}_i)^2} \right)$$

In other words, the antilog of the arithmetic standard deviation of the log-transformed values

[1] 94 115 127 110 102 103 92 82 75 83

Lognormal Curves

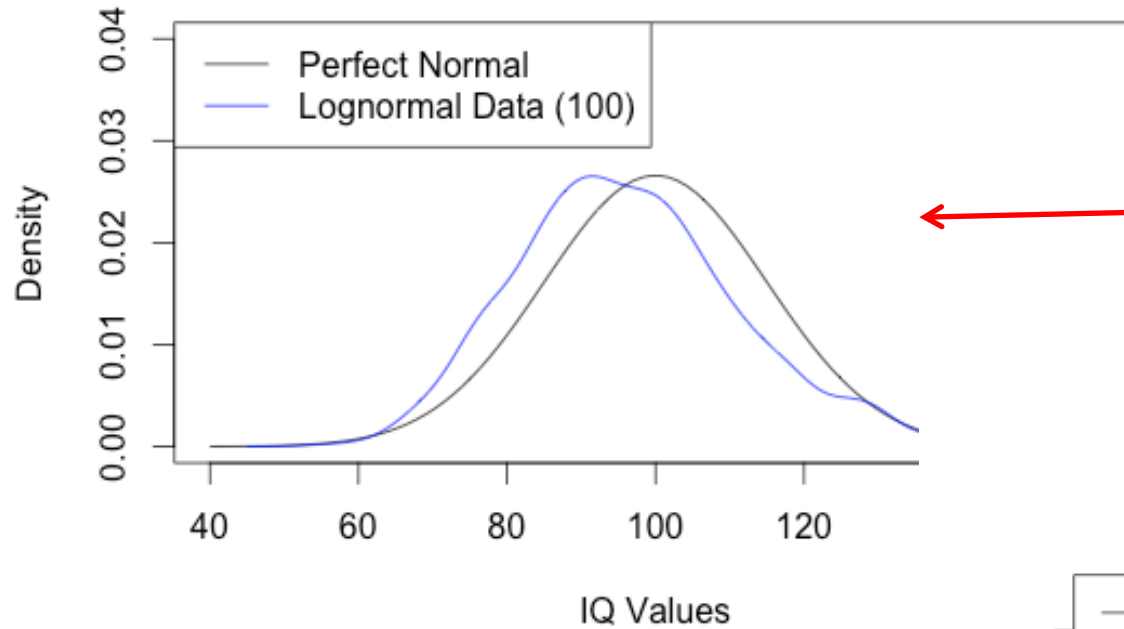
- In a perfect lognormal distribution the MEDIAN and the GEOMETRIC MEAN are exactly the same!
- Instead of adding the GEOMETRIC standard deviation to the geometric mean, you multiply to the right of the median and divide to the left



Question: how do we
test for log normality?

Plot Distributions

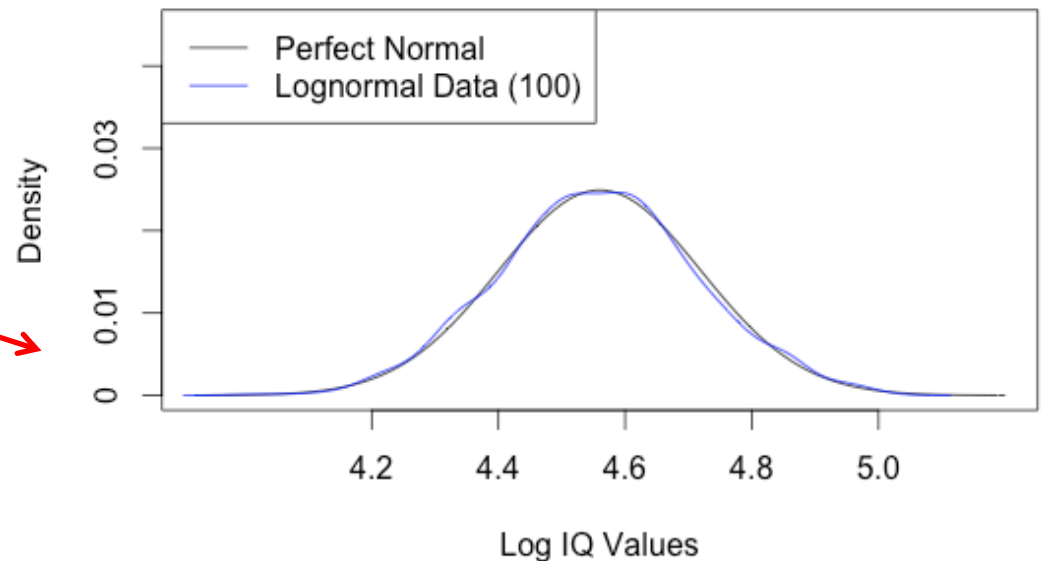
Normal and Lognormal Distributions



Sample data
untransformed

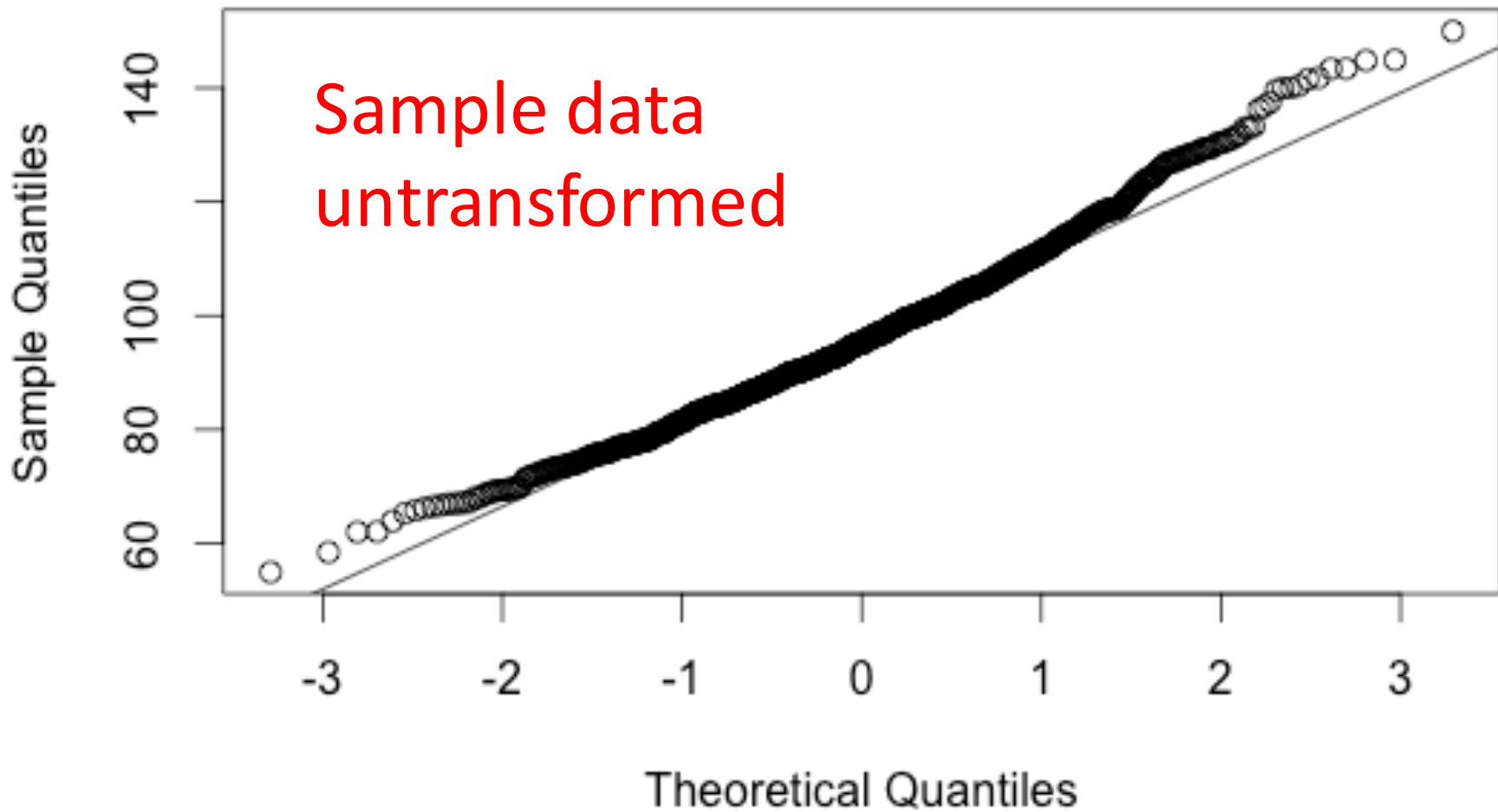
Sample data log-
transformed

Log Values of Lognormal Distribution



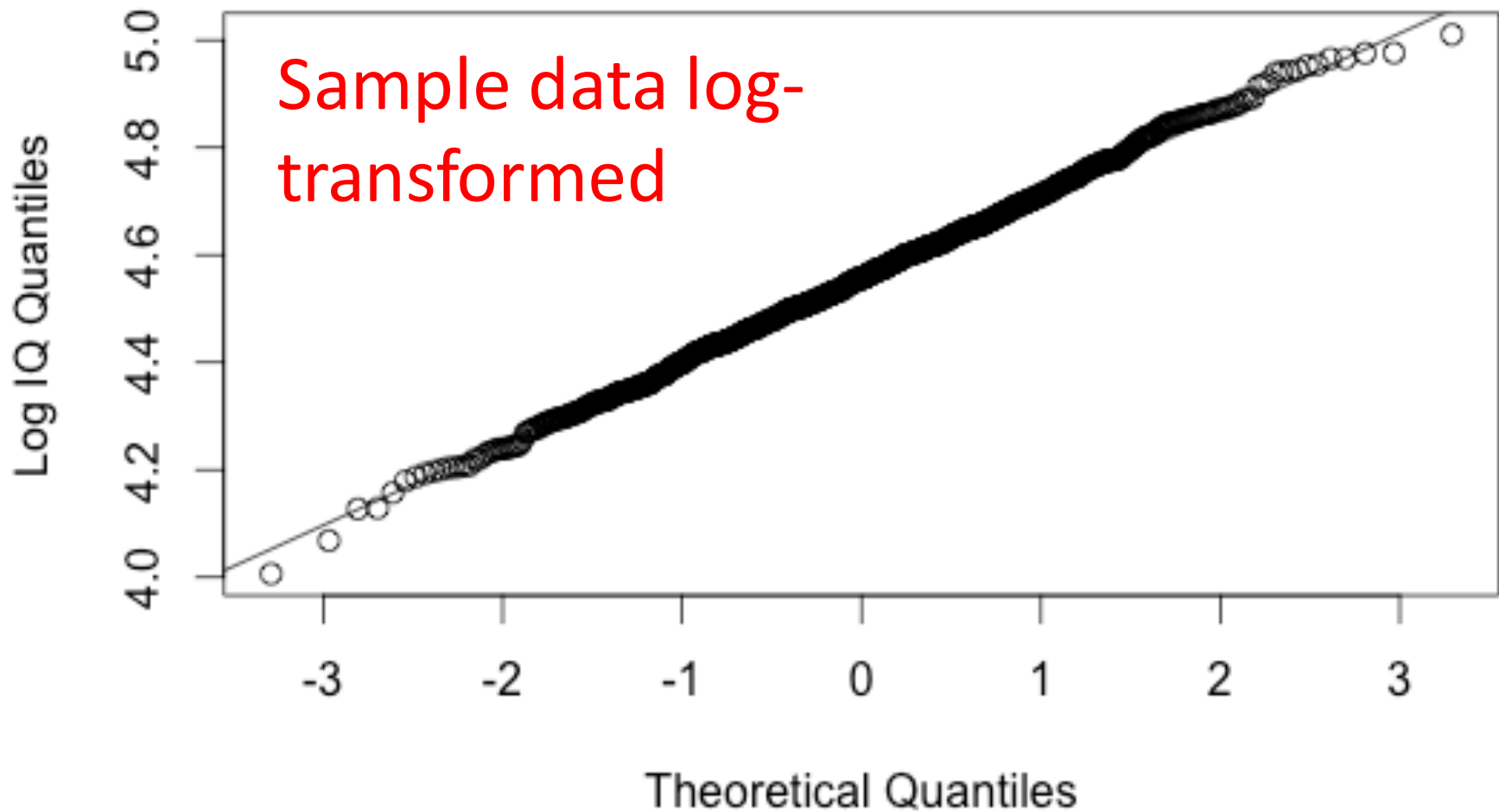
QQ Plots

Normal Q-Q Plot



QQ Plots

Normal Q-Q Plot



Shapiro-Wilk Test

```
> shapiro.test(iq4)
```

```
Shapiro-Wilk normality test
```

```
data: iq4
```

```
W = 0.9867, p-value = 6.962e-08
```

```
> shapiro.test(log(iq4))
```

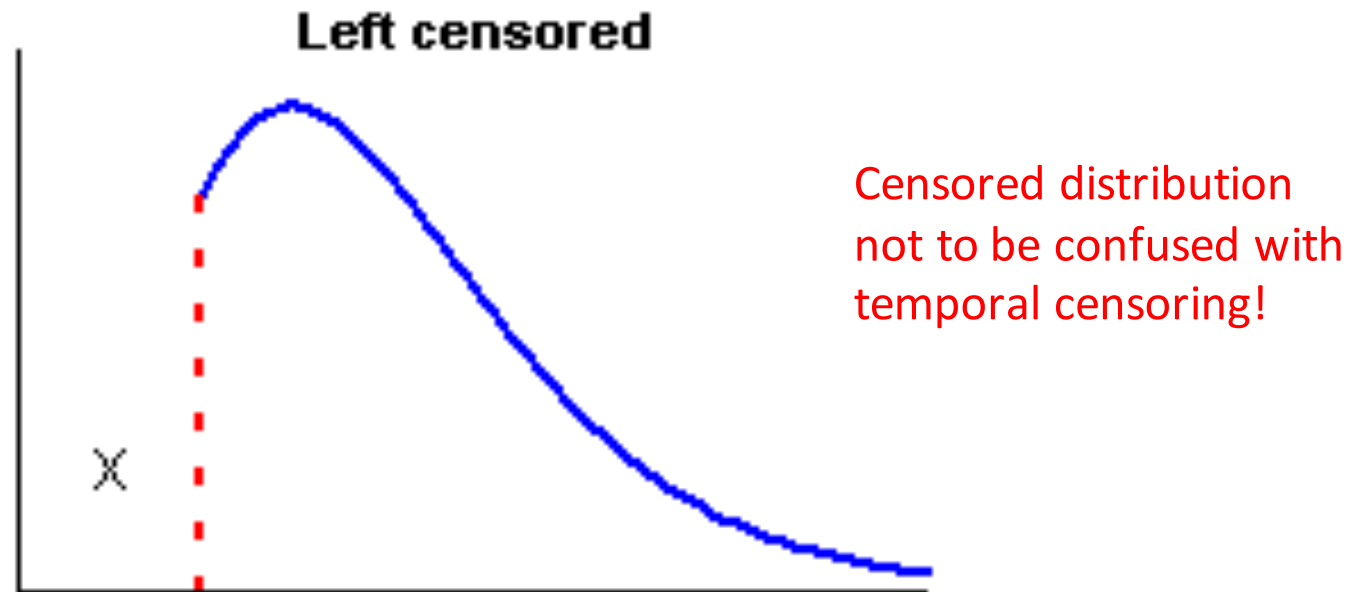
```
Shapiro-Wilk normality test
```

```
data: log(iq4)
```

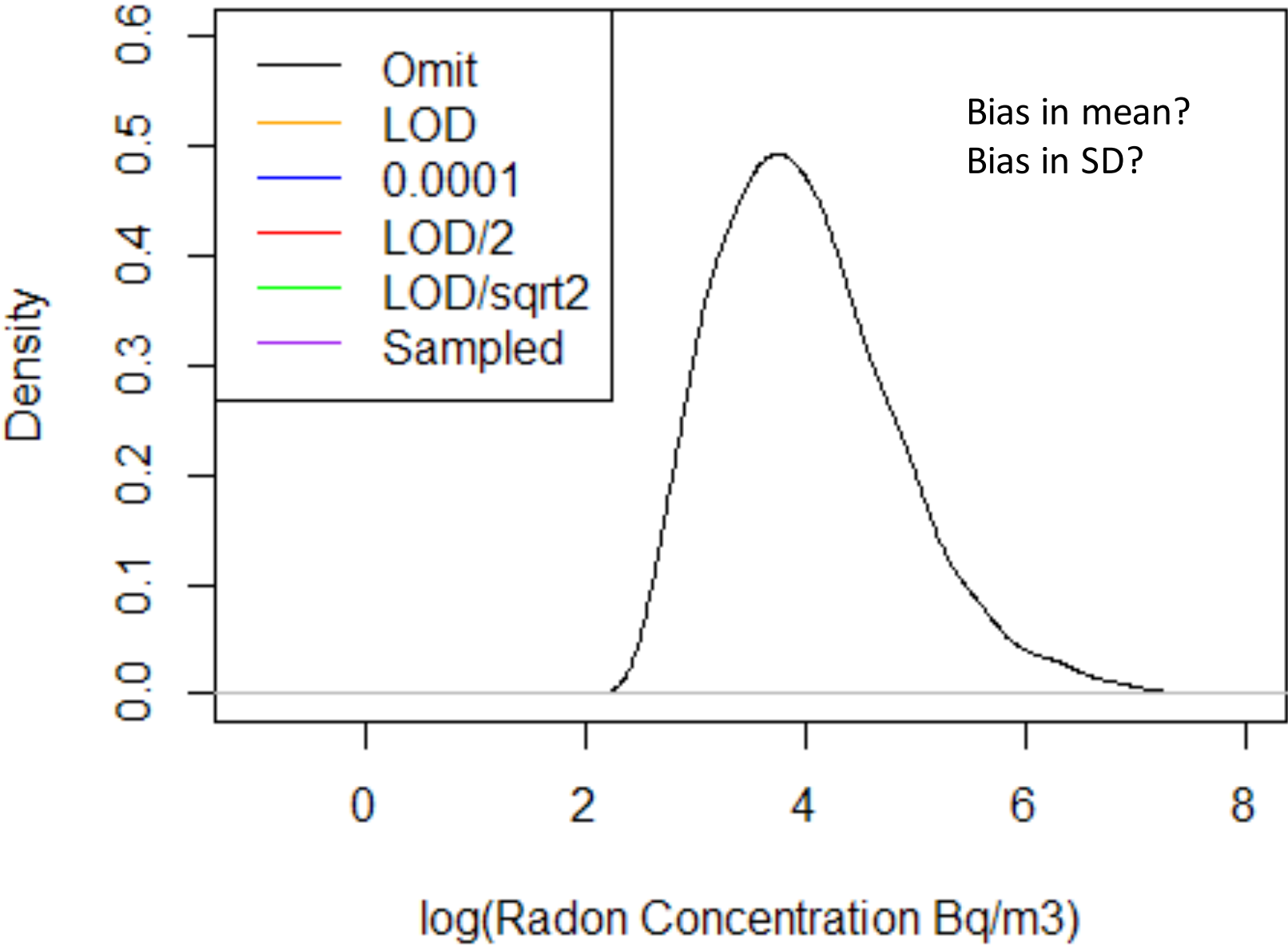
```
W = 0.9988, p-value = 0.7738
```

Values Below the LOD

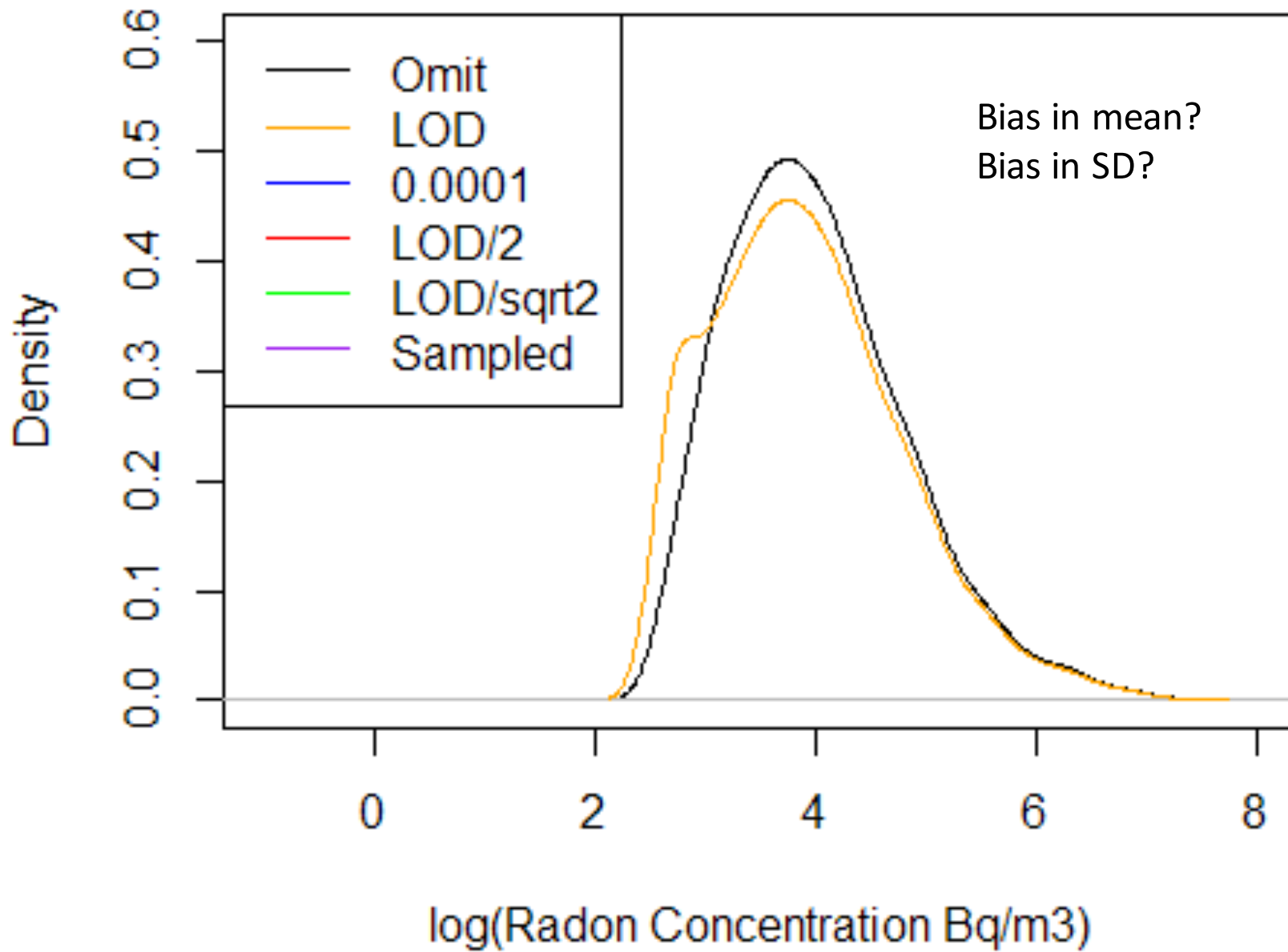
- What happens if we simply delete them from the dataset?
- What are the alternative strategies for dealing with them?
 - Use the measured values despite their lack of reliability
 - Use the LOD
 - Set them to 0 or something negligibly different from 0
 - Set them to the LOD/2
 - Set them to the LOD/sqrt(2)
 - Use some probabilistic technique based on the distribution of the values $> \text{LOD}$



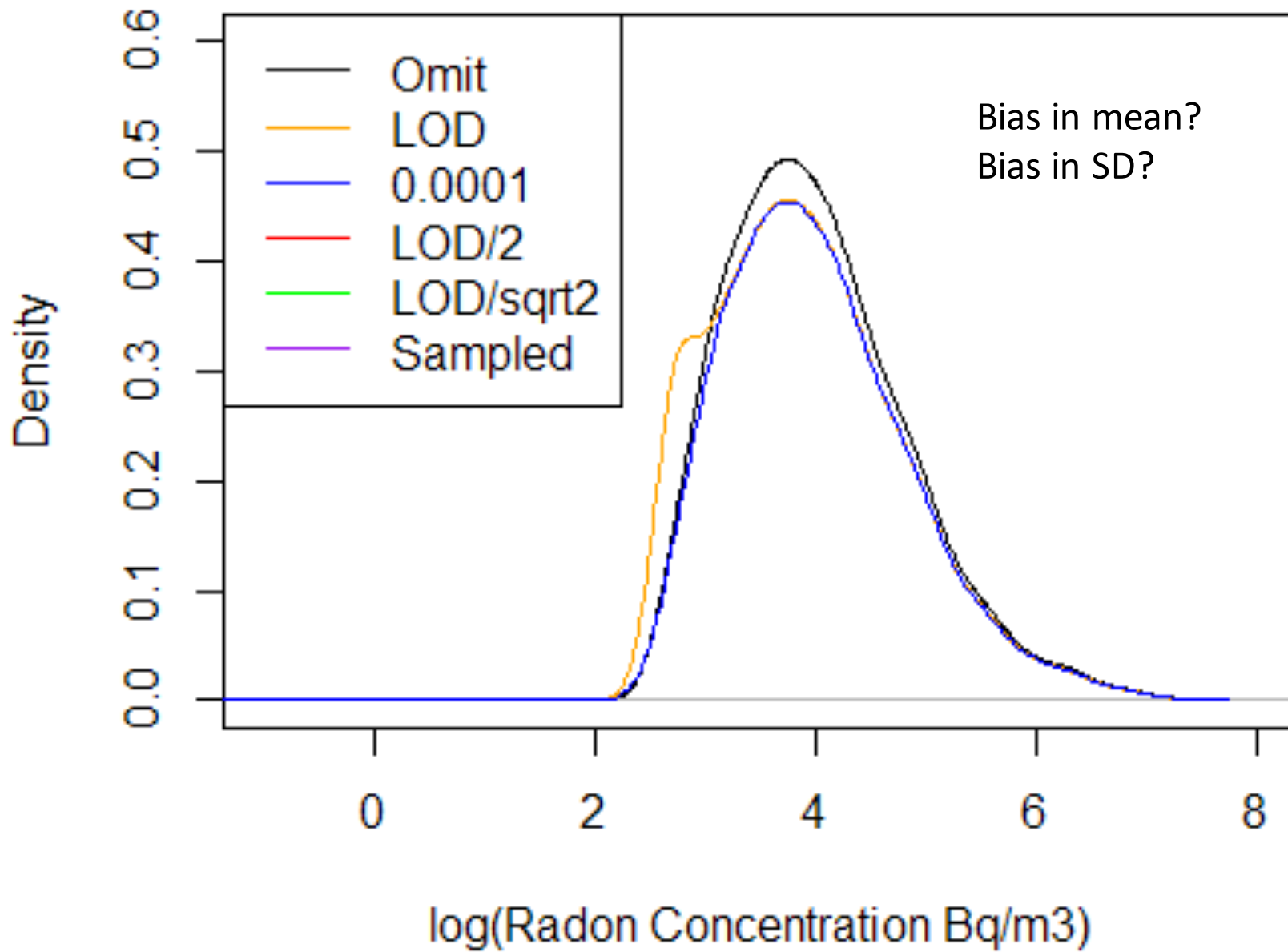
Radon Data



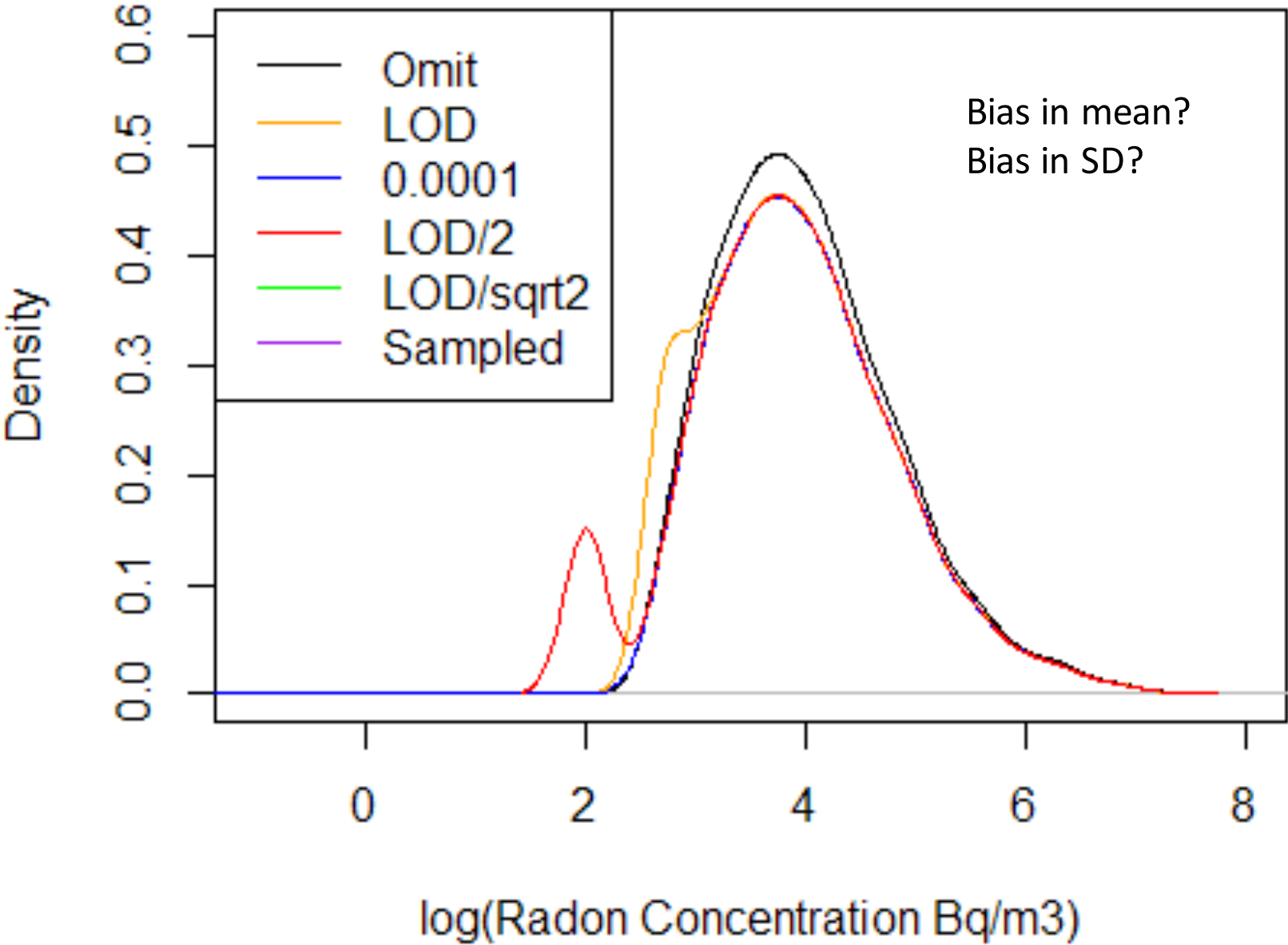
Radon Data



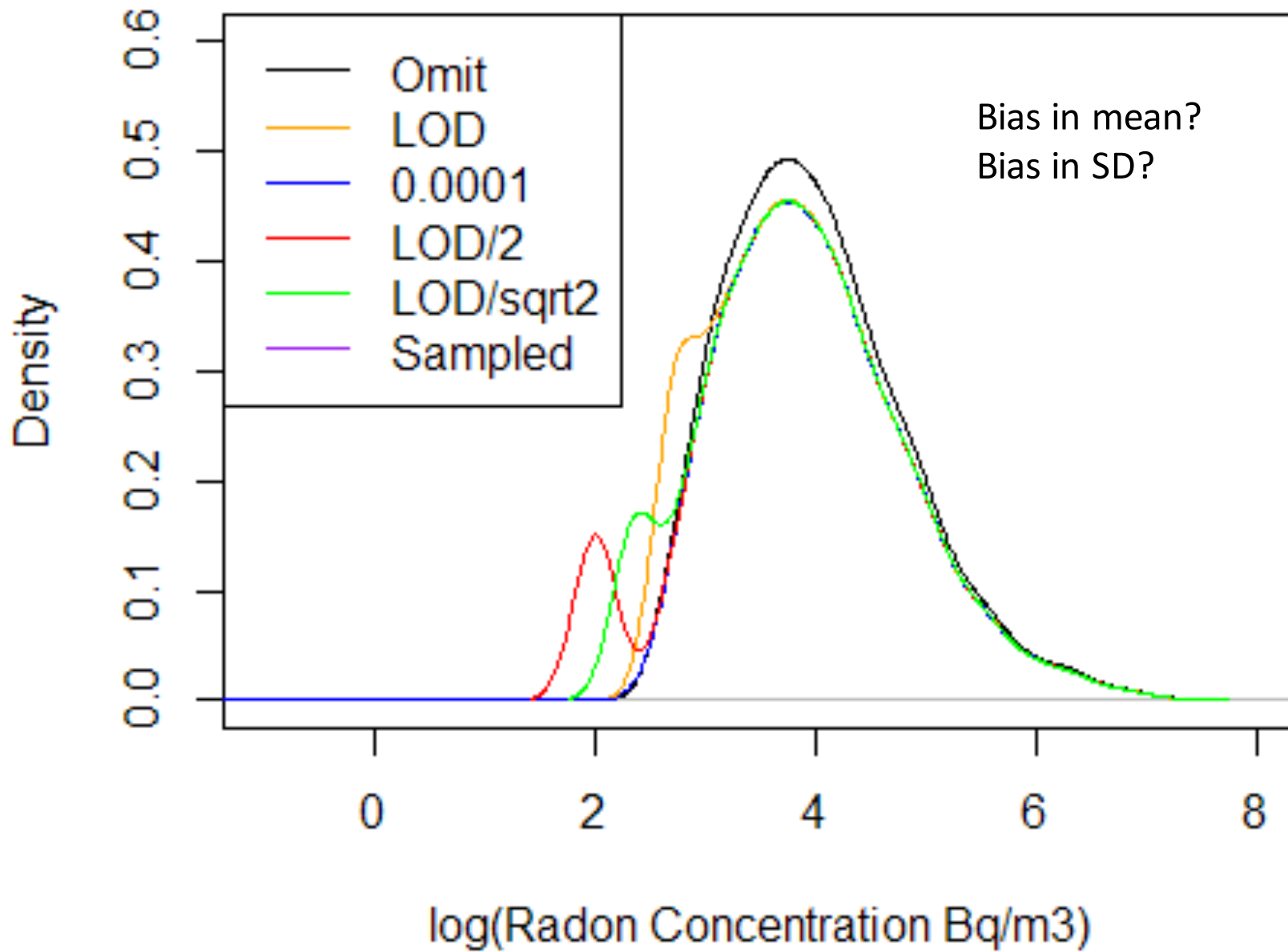
Radon Data



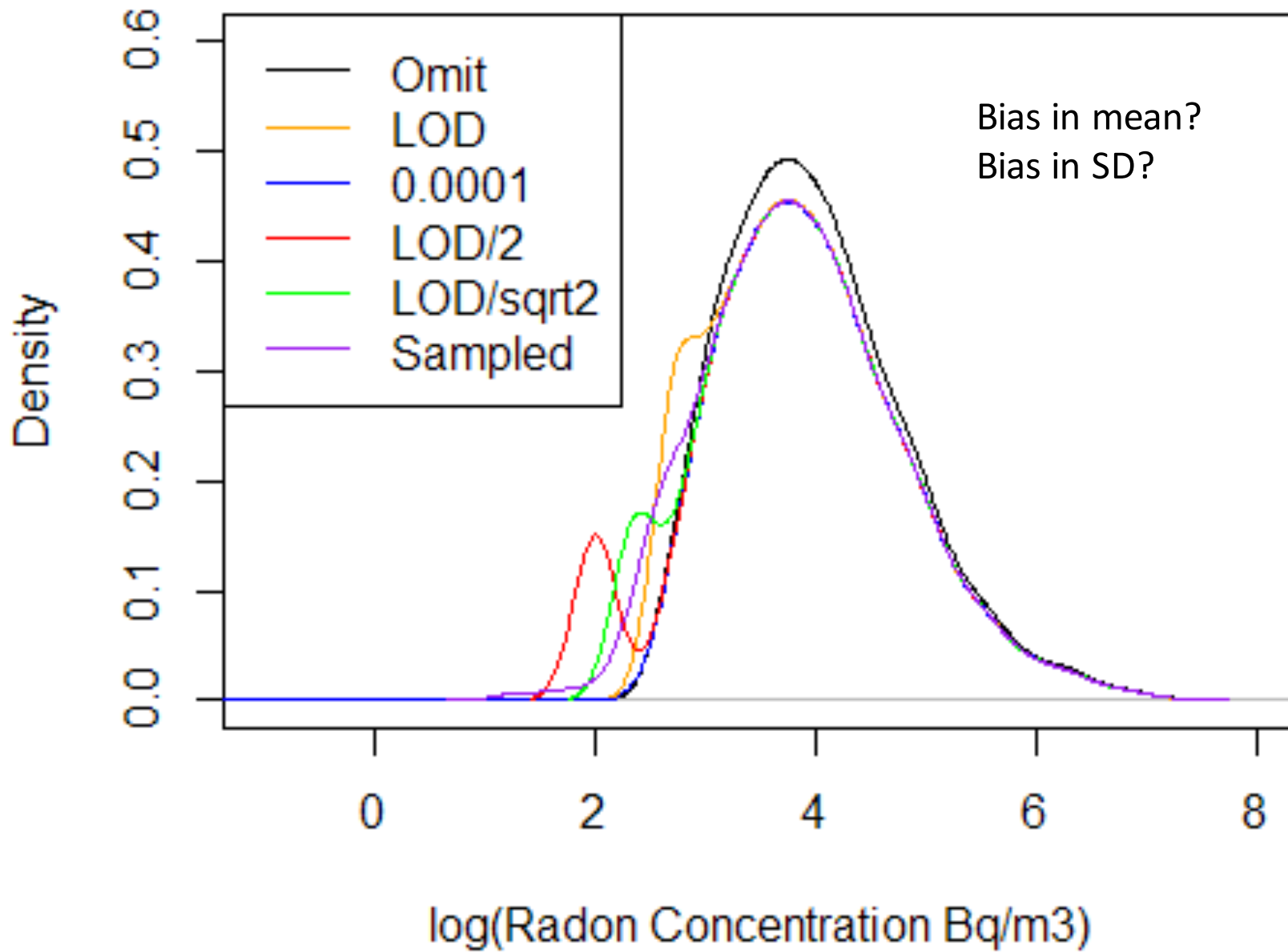
Radon Data



Radon Data



Radon Data



Maximum Likelihood Estimates

- An interactive statistical technique that attempts to estimate values below the LOD using what is know about values above the LOD
- Fits the most likely population mean and variance based on the observed data
- Uses that most likely distribution to estimate the unknown values
- Requires some very heavy mathematics that your computer can do for you!

What to Enter in Exposure Data Column	Exposure Data	Log Likelihood of Observation, given estimated mean & SD
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B17)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B18)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B19)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B20)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B21)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B22)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B23)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B24)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B25)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B26)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B27)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B28)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B29)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B30)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B31)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Enter Observed Data:		=LN((1/((2*PI())^0.5*F\$17))*EXP(-(1/2)*((LN(B32)-F\$16)/F\$17)^2))
Data Below LOD, Enter Detection Limit:		=LN(NORMDIST(LN(B33),F\$16,F\$17,TRUE))
Data Below LOD, Enter Detection Limit:		=LN(NORMDIST(LN(B34),F\$16,F\$17,TRUE))
Data Below LOD, Enter Detection Limit:		=LN(NORMDIST(LN(B35),F\$16,F\$17,TRUE))

Next Week

- Assessing the relationship between in dichotomous and continuous variable
- Box plots to visualize
- T-tests to test for differences in the means
- Hypothesis generation
- Simple linear regression
- Standard reporting

