Unifications	of Techniques: See the Wholeness and Many-Fold ness		
Population	μ, σ^2 Expected value and Variance both unknown		
Continuous	Must be estimated with confidence.		
R.V.	Homogenous population		
Population	$\mu = \sum (xi \ pi) = E(x);$		
Discrete	$\sigma^{2} = (Ex^{2}) - (Ex)^{2} = \sum (xi^{2} pi) - \left[\sum (xi pi)\right]^{2};$	Dimensiol	· · · 1 · · 1 —
R.V.	$\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$	Binomial Probability	x success in n trial with π is probability success
Sample (s)	$\overline{x} = \frac{\Sigma x}{r}$; $s^2 = \frac{\Sigma (x - \overline{x})^2}{r} = \frac{SS}{r}$, $ss = Sum(x^2) - (Sum x)^2 / n$,	Distribution	P(x) =
	$C.V. = \frac{s}{x}$		$\frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!}\pi^{x}(1-\pi)^{n-x}$
Probability:	P(A given B)=P(A B) = P(A and B)/ P (B) = $\frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$		$\mu = n \pi; \sigma^2 = n \pi (1 - \pi)$
	$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$	Central limit	theorem: Sampling
	A and B are independent if $P(A B) = P(A)$	distribution o	f mean tends to be normal
		density as the	e (fixed) sample size

increases. $\mu = \mu_{\overline{x}}$ and $\sigma_{\overline{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ if σ is unknow, use s

CLT in Action:



For the parent population the **expected value** is:

 $\mu = \sum (xi \, pi) = E(x) = 1(1/6) + 2(1/6) + 3(1/6) + 4(1/6) + 5(1/6) + 6(1/6) = 21/6$ which the same for the other 3 sampling means distributions.

For the parent population the variance is:

$$\sigma^{2} = (Ex^{2}) - (Ex)^{2} = \sum (xi^{2} pi) - (Ex)^{2} = 1(1/6) + 4(1/6) + 9(1/6) + 16(1/6) + 25(1/6) + 36(1/6) - (21/6)^{2} = 4.04$$

The variance for the others is $\frac{\sigma^2}{n} = 4.04/2 = 2.02$, 4.04/3 = 1.37, 4.04/4 = 1.01, respectively, it get smaller as sample size increases.



	For Population	For sampling distribution with sample size $= n$
Z- statistic	$Z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \text{ to make}$ N(0,1)	$Z_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_{\bar{x}}}{\sigma_{\bar{x}}} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} \text{ (in that } \mu_{\bar{x}} = \mu \text{ and } \sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \text{ and large n, invoke}$ the CLT)
T- statistic	Normal	$T_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{s / \sqrt{n}}$ with small n, but population is Normal

Notice the difference: The Z-score, Z-transformation $=\frac{x-\bar{x}}{s}$, is used to make data dimensionless, often for comparison purposes. For example price of the houses and their sizes in Washington DC., and Tokyo.

Estimation with Confidence

	1 Population	2 Populations
Population mean μ	$\overline{\mathbf{x}} \pm \underline{\mathbf{z}}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sigma_{\overline{\mathbf{x}}} = \overline{\mathbf{x}} \pm \underline{\mathbf{z}}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ $\overline{\mathbf{x}} \pm \underline{t}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sigma_{\overline{\mathbf{x}}} = \overline{\mathbf{x}} \pm \underline{t}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \text{ (with } \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{n} - 1\text{)}$	$\overline{x_1} - \overline{x_2} \pm z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}} \\ \overline{x_1} - \overline{x_2} \pm t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sqrt{s_p^2 \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right)} \\ \text{(With pooled estimate for S: } s_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}) \\ \text{(v} = n_1 + n_2 - 2)$
Population proportion (probability) $(p=\frac{x}{n})$ Sample are sufficiently large	$\mu_p = \pi \text{ true population proportion of}$ success. $\sigma_p = \sqrt{\frac{\pi (1-\pi)}{n}}$ $P \pm z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{p (1-p)}{n}}$	$P_1 - P_2 \pm Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sigma_{(p1-p2)} = P_1 - P_2 \pm Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{p_1(1-p_1)}{n_1} - \frac{p_2(1-p_2)}{n_2}}$
Means: 2pops Matched pairs	Known also as the " <i>before-and-after</i> " test Large sample size (CLT) if the d is not normal	$\begin{split} \mu_{d} &= (\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}) \\ \overline{d} \pm z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{\sigma_{d}}{\sqrt{n}} &= \overline{d} \pm z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{S_{d}}{\sqrt{n}} (\text{if } \sigma_{d} \text{ unknown with large sample}) \\ \overline{d} \pm t z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{\sigma_{d}}{\sqrt{n}} &= \overline{d} \pm t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{S_{d}}{\sqrt{n}} (\text{if } \sigma_{d} \text{ unknown with small sample}) \end{split}$
Variance σ^2	$\frac{(n-1)s^2}{X_{\alpha/2}^2} \le \sigma^2 \le \frac{(n-1)s^2}{X_{(1-\frac{\alpha}{2})}^2}$	$\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2 F(n2-1,n1-1,\frac{\alpha}{2})} \le \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} \le \frac{s_1^2 F(n1-1,n2-1,\frac{\alpha}{2})}{s_2^2}$
Determination of sample size for Continuous and Discrete R.V.	with d margin of error: $n = \frac{z_{\alpha/2}^2 s^2}{d^2}$ With d margin of error for proportion: $n = \frac{z_{\alpha/2}^2 \pi (1-\pi)}{d^2}, you may use \pi = 0.5$	

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	1Population	2Populations
	1tailed: Ha: > or (<)	2tailed: Ha: ≠
	Rejection region: $Z > z_{\alpha}$ or ($Z < -z_{\alpha}$)	Rejection region: $Z > z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ or $Z < -z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$
Pop mean µ	Ho: $\mu = \mu o$ Ha: $\mu \neq \mu o$ For one-sided use $Z > z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ or $Z < -z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$) $Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu o}{\sigma_{\overline{x}}} \sim = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu o}{s/\sqrt{n}}$ Large sample size to invoke CLT.	Ho: $\mu 1 - \mu 2 = 0$ Ha: $\mu 1 - \mu 2 \neq 0$ $Z = \frac{\overline{x_1 - \overline{x_2}}}{\sigma_{\overline{x_1}} - \sigma_{\overline{x_2}}} \sim = \frac{\overline{x_1 - \overline{x_2}}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2 + s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2}}}$ If variances are almost the same, then use $t = \frac{\overline{x_1 - \overline{x_2}}}{\sqrt{s_p^2(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2})}}$ with table $v = n1 + n2 - 2$
Population proportion (probability) $(\pi \rightarrow p = \frac{x}{n})$ Sample are sufficiently large	Ho: $\pi = \pi o$ Ha: $\pi \neq \pi o$ $Z = \frac{P - \pi o}{\sqrt{\frac{\pi o (1 - \pi o)}{n}}}$ Large sample size to invoke CLT.	Ho: $\pi 1 - \pi 2 = 0$ Ha: $\pi 1 - \pi 2 \neq 0$ $Z = \frac{P1 - P2}{\sigma of_{(P1 - P2)}} = \frac{P1 - P2}{\sqrt{pq(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2})}}$ With $p = \frac{x1 + x2}{n1 + n2}$ and $q = 1$ -p, large sample size.
Population variance	Ho: $\sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2$ Ha: $\sigma^2 \neq \sigma_0^2$ 2tailed: $X^2 > X_{1-\alpha/2}^2$ or $X^2 < X_{\alpha/2}^2$ 1tailed: $X^2 > X_{1-\alpha}^2$ (or $X^2 < X_{\alpha}^2$) With v = n-1 $X^2 = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma_0^2}$ Population is normal	Ho: $\frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} = 1$ Itailed: Ha: $\frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} > 1$ $F = \frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$, critical value F_{α} (n1-1, n2-1) Itailed: Ha: $\frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} < 1$ $F = \frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$, critical value $1/F_{\alpha}$ (n2-1, n1-1) 2tailed: Ha: $\frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} \neq 1$, $\mathbf{F} = \frac{Larger \ variance}{Smaller \ variance}$, critical value $F_{\alpha/2}$ (n1-1, n2-1), Populations are normal
Population mean for Pair matched	There is dependency, known also as the <i>"before-and-after"</i> test. Large sample size (CLT) if the d is not normal	Ho: $\mu 1 - \mu 2 = 0$ Ha: $\mu 1 - \mu 2 \neq 0$, $\mathbf{Z} = \frac{\overline{a}}{\sigma_d / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{\overline{a}}{S_d / \sqrt{n}}$

ANOVA (analysis of SS's)

As with the *t*-test, you are computing the t-statistic to test the assertion that the means of the two populations are almost the same. In a similar but extended fashion you are testing H_0 : $\mu 1 = \mu 2 = \mu 3 = \mu 4$, typically with the hopes that you will be able to reject H_0 to provide evidence that the alternative hypothesis (H_a : at least one is different significantly than others) is more likely. To test H_0 , you take a sample of each population; you then construct the ANOVA table. It consists of the *F*-ratio which is a ratio of two variances, called Mean Squares. In the numerator of the *F*-ratio is the $MS_{treatment}$ (i.e., $MS_{between}$) and in the denominator is the MS_{Error} (i.e., MS_{Within}). Obviously, your *F*-ratio will become larger as the $MS_{Treatment}$ becomes

increasingly larger than the MS_{Error} . If F-statistic is large enough compare with critical value F_{α} (k-1, n-k), then one reject the null hypothesis.

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F-Statistic
Between	?3 = ?1-?2	k-1	?3/k-1	?
Within	?2	n-k	?2/n-k	
Total	?1 =?2 +?3	n-1		

ANOVA in Action (for demonstration purposes ONLY while saving space):

First compute **Total** Sum of Square (TSS), then compute SSW (**Within**), get SSB (**Between**) which will be readily available, after finding the first 2 SS's.

Samples from k = 3 populations (**original data**):

mean1 = 2	3	2	1	P1
mean1 = 3	6	5	4	P2
mean1 = 8	9	8	7	P3

Grand mean = (2 + 5 + 8) / 3 = 5

Step1. TSS: Total Sum of Squares

P1	$(1-5)^2 = 16$	9	4	Sum 1 = 29
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P2 (4	$(-5)^2 = 1$	0	1	Sum 2 = 3
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P3 $(7-5)^2 = 4$ 9 16 Sum 3 = 29

TSS = 29 + 3 + 29 = 61

d.f = (n1 + n2 + n3) - 1 = (3 + 3 + 3) - 1 = 9 - 1 = 8

Step2. SSW: Total Sum of Square Within

Original Data

P1	1	2	3	me	an1	= 2
P2	4	5	6	me	an1	= 5
P3	7	8	9	me	an1	= 8
SSW						
P1	(1-2)	² =1	()	1	Sum1 = 2, Variance1 = Sum1/(n1-1) = 2/(3-1) =1
P2	(4-5)	$^{2} = 1$	()	1	Sum2 = 2, Variance2 = Sum2/(n2-1) = $2/(3-1) = 1$
P3	(7 -8)	$^{2} = 1$	()	1	Sum3 = 2, Variance3 = Sum3/(n3-1) = $2/(3-1) = 1$

4

SSW = 2 + 2 + 2 = 6

 $\mathbf{d.f} = (n1 - 1) + (n2 - 1) + (n3 - 1) = 2 + 2 + 2 = \mathbf{6}$

Notice that we **compute variance** to check their equality condition.

Step3. SSB: Sum of Square Between

Therefore, SSB = TSS - SSW = 61 - 6 = 55, d.f. = 8 - 6 = 2 = 2

Number of populations -1 = 3 - 1 = 2

Sequential Conditions and the Check-list for Using ANOVA:

1. Samples are Random, use Runs test.

http://home.ubalt.edu/ntsbarsh/Business-stat/otherapplets/Randomness.htm

- 2. Populations are Normal (Use the Histogram), and
- 3. Variances are equal, use Bartlett's test:

http://home.ubalt.edu/ntsbarsh/Business-stat/otherapplets/BartletTest.htm

Simple Regression Analysis

Formulas and Notations:

- 1. $\Sigma x / n = \overline{x}$ this is just the mean of the x values.
- 2. $\Sigma y/n = \overline{y}$, this is just the mean of the y values.

3.
$$S_{xx} = SS_{xx} = \Sigma(x(i) - \frac{x}{y})^2 = \Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2 / n$$

4. $S_{yy} = SS_{yy} = \Sigma(y(i) - \frac{x}{y})^2 = \Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2 / n$

5. $S_{xy} = SS_{xy} = \Sigma(x(i) - \overline{x})(y(i) - \overline{y}) = \Sigma(x \cdot y) - (\Sigma x) \cdot (\Sigma y) / n$

- 6. Slope $b = SS_{xy} / SS_{xx}$
- 7. Intercept, a = y bx
- 8. Residual(i) = Error(i) = y(i) yhat(i)9. $SSE = S_{residuals} = SS_{residuals} = SS_{errors} = \Sigma[y(i) - yhat(i)]^2 = SS_{yy} - b SS_{xy}$ 10. Standard deviation of residuals = $s = s_e = S_{residal} = S_{errors} = [SS_{residual} / (n-2)]^{1/2}$ 11. Standard error of the slope (b) = $S_b = S_{residual} / SS_{xx}^{-1/2}$
- 12. Standard error of the intercept (a) = $S_a = S_{residual} [(SS_{xx} + n.^2) / (n \cdot SS_{xx}]]^{\frac{1}{2}}$

13. Test of hypothesis for slope:

H0: There is no linear relation, i.e. **slope = 0**, use a two sided t-test:

 $T_{n-2}(\alpha/2) = b / S_b$. with n-2 d.f., at the α level.

Overall Assessment of the model:

One may use F value of ANOVA, by using the relationship between T(slope) and F tables, i.e. $F_{1, n-2}(\alpha) = T_{n-2}^2(\alpha/2)$. The fit is considered "a good fit" when the F-value is at least five times of critical value of F table.

14. The Coefficient of Determination: The coefficient of determination is defined, and denoted by R^2 :

$$R^2 = (SS_{yy} - SSE) / SS_{yy} = 1 - (SSE / SS_{yy}), 0 \le R^2 \le 1$$

The numerical value of R^2 represents the proportion of the sum of squares of deviations of the y values about their mean that can be attributed to the linear relationship between y and x. R-squares is the percentage of variance [in fact, the sum of squares] in Y accounted for by variance in X captured by the model. The reminder, 1- R^2 depends on exclusion of other factors (not X alone).

16. Prediction of y for a given $x = X_0$, y-predicted = yhat = b· X_0 + a with confidence:

$$Y_p \pm S_e \cdot t_{n-2, \alpha/2} \{ 1 + 1/n + (X_0 - x)^2 / S_x \}^{1/2}$$

Sequential Conditions and the Check-list for Linear Models

Almost all statistical activity of reality, including regression models have conditions (assumptions) that must be verified in order that the model has to stand the test hypotheses and for it to be able to predict accurately.

1. The dependent variable Y is a linear function of the independent variable X. This can be checked by carefully examining all the points in the **Scatter Diagram**, and *see if it is possible to bound them all within two parallel lines.* Then the regression line is at the middle of these boundary lines.



Scattered Diagram to Check Linearity

2. The residuals constitute a set random variable, use the Run test:

http://home.ubalt.edu/ntsbarsh/Business-stat/otherapplets/Randomness.htm

3. The distribution of the residual must be normal. Use the Histogram of error terms.

4. The residuals should have a mean equal to zero, and a constant variance. You may check this condition by dividing the residuals data into two or more groups and then computing the mean (all must be close to zero) and variance. Use the Bartlett's test for equality of variances:

http://home.ubalt.edu/ntsbarsh/Business-stat/otherapplets/BartletTest.htm

Forecasting by Moving Averages: The best-known forecasting methods is the moving averages or simply takes a certain number of past periods and add them together; then divide by the number of periods.

An illustrative numerical example: The moving average of order five are calculated in the following table.

Week	Sales (\$1000)	MA(5)
1	105	-
2	100	-
3	105	-
4	95	-
5	100	101
6	95	99
7	105	100
8	120	103
9	115	107
10	125	117
11	120	120
12	120	120

Forecasting for period 13 and 14, first you **find the underlying trend** by e.g. Regression Linear fit and **then project it into future**. How good is your forecast? Exclude period 12 and forecast it, see how much error there is in there, to decide how good your real future forecast will be.

http://home.ubalt.edu/ntsbarsh/stat-data/Forecast.htm#rhowma