



BC COMS 1016: Intro to Comp Thinking & Data Science

Lecture 20 – Standard Deviation Normal Distributions Correlation

BARNARD COLLEGE OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY



- Project 2:
 - due Monday 04/18
- No Lab this week
- Homework 7 - Confidence Intervals, Resampling, the Bootstrap, and the Central Limit Theorem
 - Due Thursday 04/07
- Dropping 1 homeworks and 1 lab
- Speak up!!
 - More posts on ed-stem – great job!



- Exploration
 - Discover patterns in data
 - Articulate insights (visualizations)

- Inference
 - Make reliable conclusions about the world
 - Statistics is useful

- Prediction
 - Informed guesses about unseen data

A blue-tinted photograph of a statue of a woman holding a torch aloft in her right hand. The statue is the central focus, with its head tilted slightly upwards. The background shows the silhouettes of trees against a bright sky. Two horizontal white lines are positioned above and below the main text.

Center & Spread



- How can we quantify natural concepts like “center” and “variability”?
- Why do many of the empirical distributions that we generate come out bell shaped?
- How is sample size related to the accuracy of an estimate?

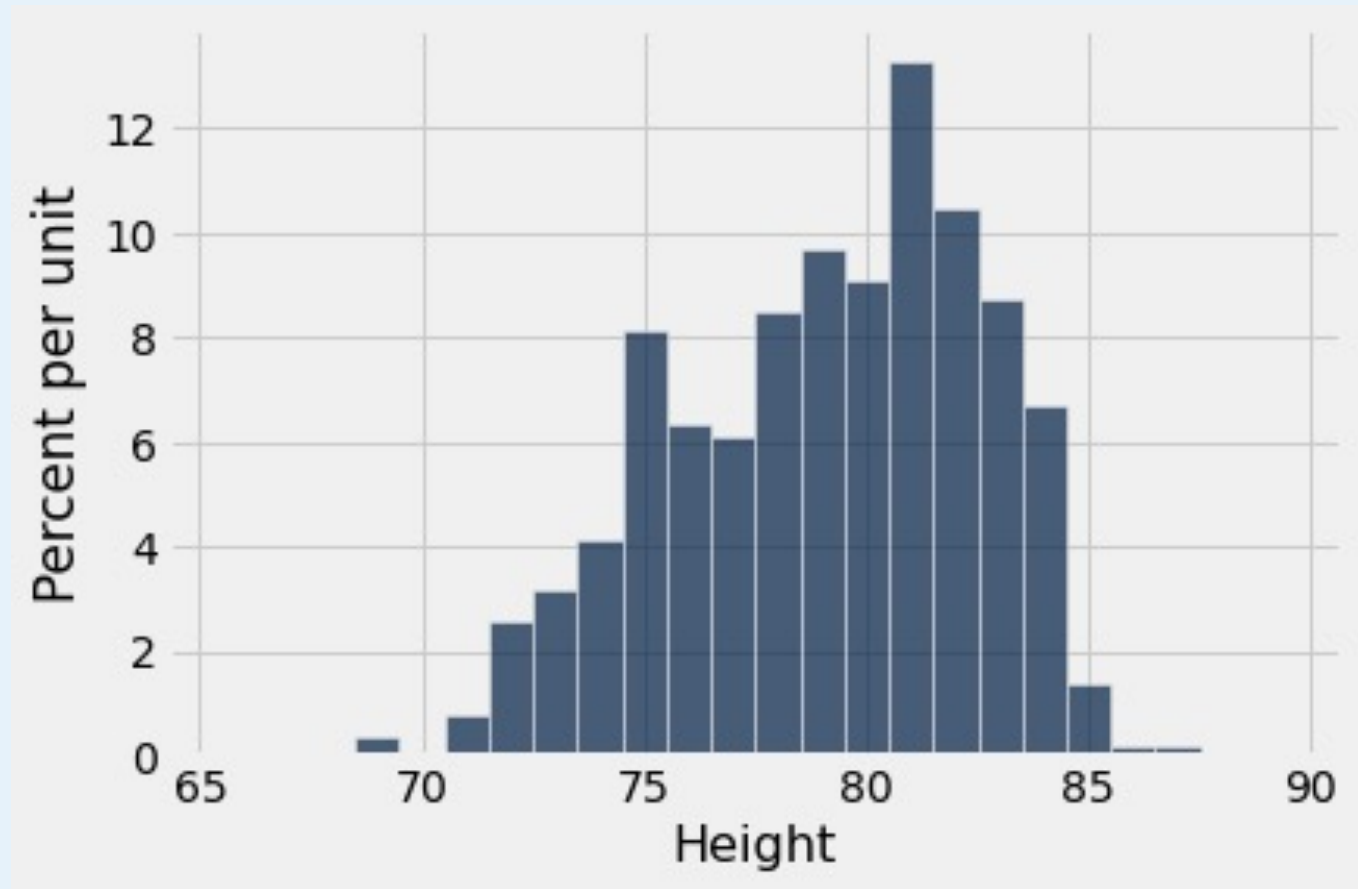


Average and Median

Question



- Which is bigger, median or mean?





- **Mean:** Balance point of the histogram
- **Median:** Half-way point of data; half the area of histogram is on either side of median
- If the distribution is symmetric about a value, then that value is both the average and the median.
- If the histogram is skewed, then the mean is pulled away from the median in the direction of the tail.



Standard Deviation



- **Plan A:** “biggest value - smallest value”
 - Doesn't tell us much about the shape of the distribution
 - In other words, doesn't tell us where most values are
- **Plan B:**
 - Measure variability around the mean
 - Need to figure out a way to quantify this

How far from the average?



- Standard deviation (SD) measures roughly how far the data are from their average
- SD = root mean square of deviations from average

Steps: 5 4 3 2 1

- SD has the same units as the data



- There are two main reasons.
- **The first reason:**
 - No matter what the shape of the distribution, the bulk of the data are in the range “average plus or minus a few SDs”
- **The second reason:**
 - Relation with the bellshaped curve
 - Discuss this later



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Q: How big are most values?

A: Chebyshev's Inequality

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How big are most values?



No matter what the shape of the distribution, the bulk of the data are in the range “average \pm a few SDs”

Chebyshev’s Inequality

No matter what the shape of the distribution, the proportion of values in the range “average $\pm z$ SDs” is

at least $1 - 1/z^2$

Chebyshev's Bounds



Range

Proportion

Chebyshev's Bounds



Range	Proportion
average \pm 2 SDs	at least $1 - 1/4$ (75%)

Chebyshev's Bounds



Range	Proportion
average \pm 2 SDs	at least $1 - 1/4$ (75%)
average \pm 3 SDs	at least $1 - 1/9$ (88.888...%)

Chebyshev's Bounds



Range	Proportion
average \pm 2 SDs	at least $1 - 1/4$ (75%)
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average \pm 4 SDs	at least $1 - 1/16$ (93.75%)

Chebyshev's Bounds



Range	Proportion
average \pm 2 SDs	at least $1 - 1/4$ (75%)
average \pm 3 SDs	at least $1 - 1/9$ (88.888...%)
average \pm 4 SDs	at least $1 - 1/16$ (93.75%)
average \pm 5 SDs	at least $1 - 1/25$ (96%)

True no matter what the distribution looks like

Understanding HW05 Results



Statistics:

Minimum: 7.5

Maximum: 29.0

Mean: 24.55

Median: 25.0

Standard Deviation: 3.96

- At least 50% of the class had scores between 20.59 and 28.51
- At least 75% of the class had scores between 16.62 and 32.47



Standard Units



- How many SDs above average?
- **$z = (\text{value} - \text{average})/\text{SD}$**
 - Negative z : value below average
 - Positive z : value above average
 - $z = 0$: value equal to average
- When values are in standard units:
average = 0, SD = 1
- Chebyshev: At least 96% of the values of z are between -5 and 5

Question



What whole numbers are closest to

(1) Average age

(2) The SD of ages

Age in Years	Age in Standard Units
27	-0.0392546
33	0.992496
28	0.132704
23	-0.727088
25	-0.383171
33	0.992496
23	-0.727088
25	-0.383171
30	0.476621
27	-0.0392546



- (1) Average age is close to 27 (standard unit here is close to 0)
- (2) The SD is about 6 years (standard unit at 33 is close to 1. $33 - 27 = 6$)

Age in Years	Age in Standard Units
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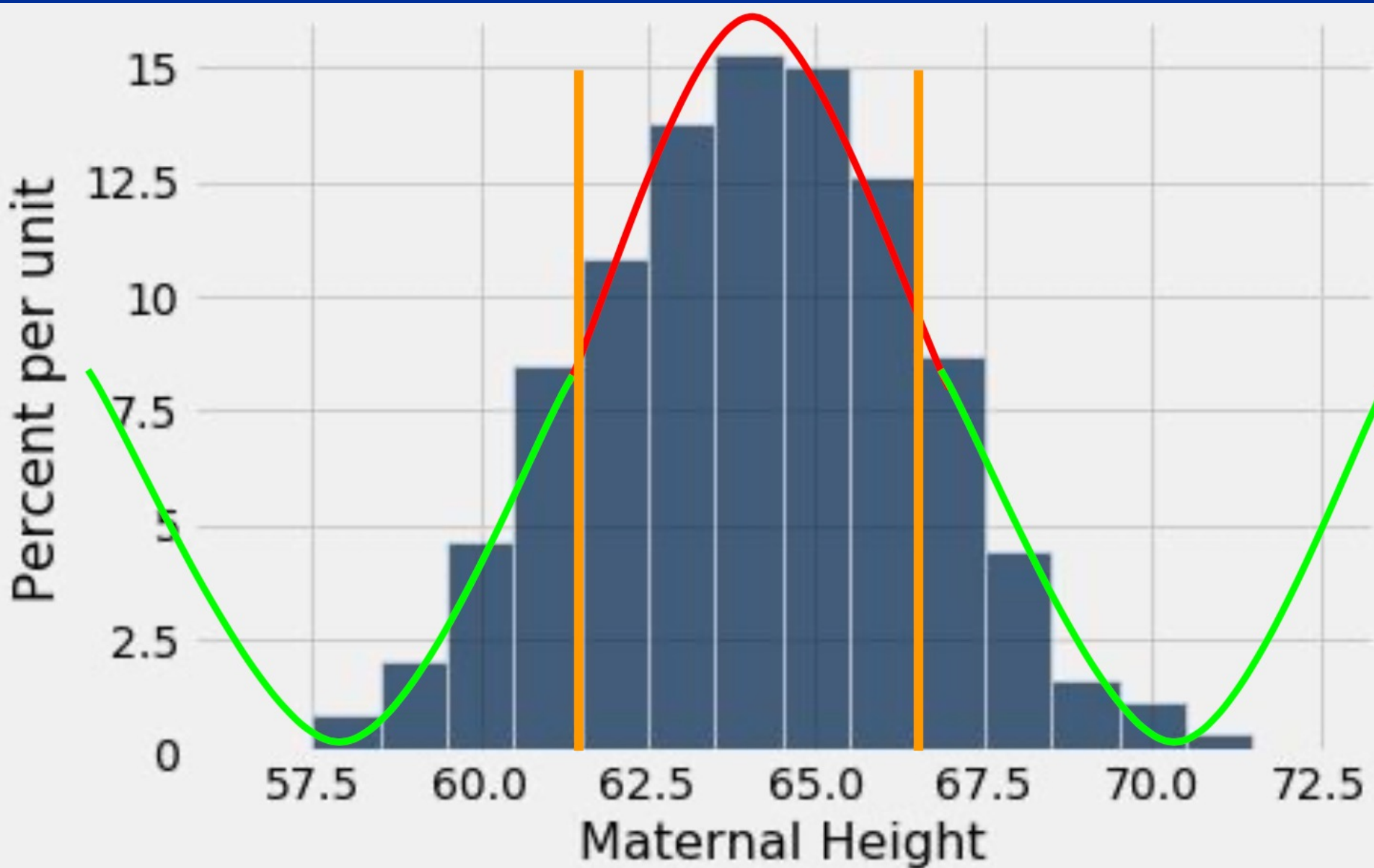
- Usually, it's not easy to estimate the SD by looking at a histogram.
- But if the histogram has a bell shape, then you can



If a histogram is bell-shaped, then

- the average is at the center
- the SD is the distance between the average and the points of inflection on either side

Points of Inflection



A blue-tinted photograph of a statue of a woman holding a torch aloft in her right hand. The statue is the central focus, with its head tilted slightly upwards. The background shows the silhouettes of trees against a clear sky. Two horizontal white lines are positioned above and below the main title text.

Normal Distribution

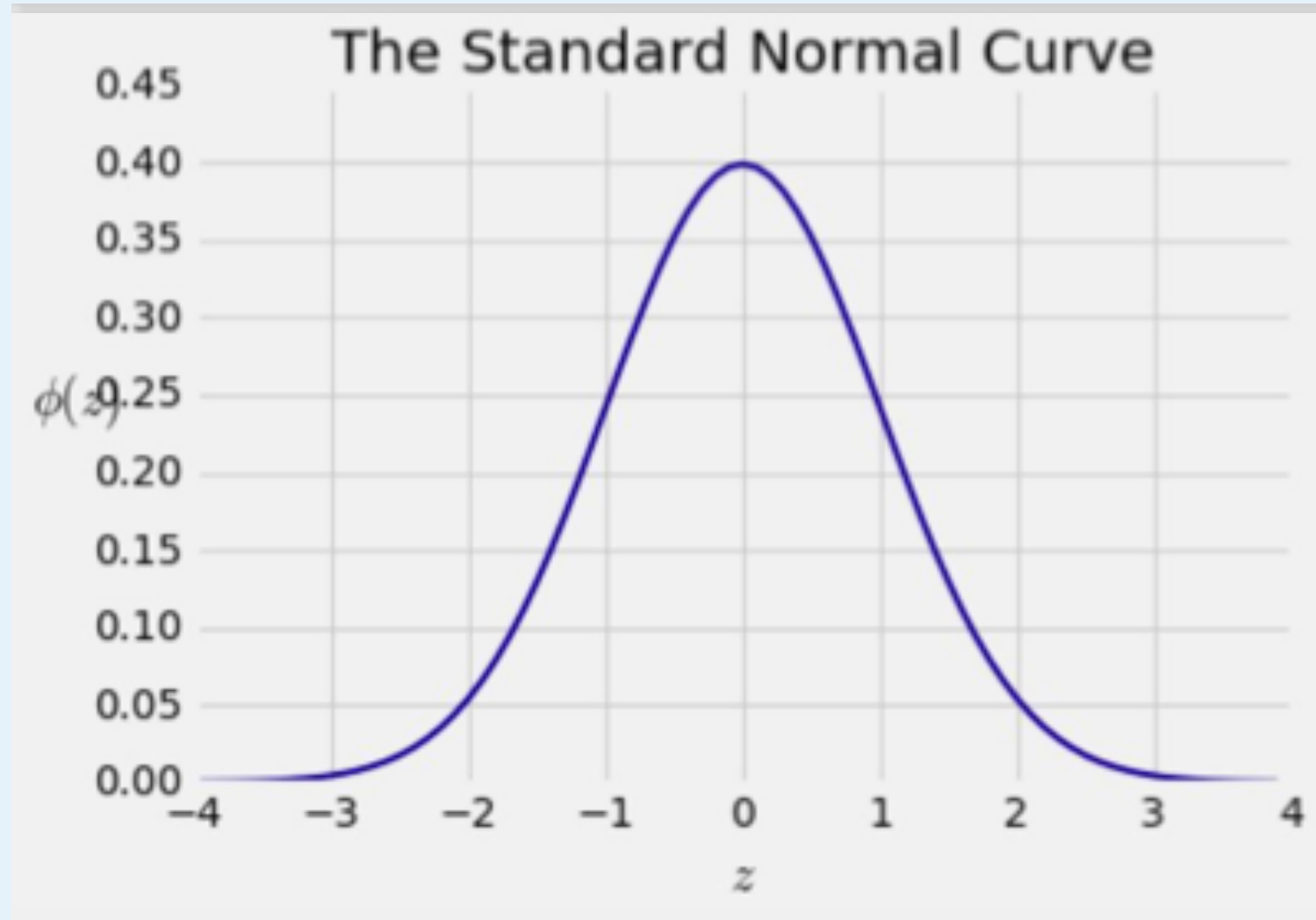
Standard Normal Curve



Equation for the normal curve

$$\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2}, \quad -\infty < z < \infty$$

Bell Curve





No matter what the shape of the distribution,
the bulk of the data are in the range “average \pm a few SDs”

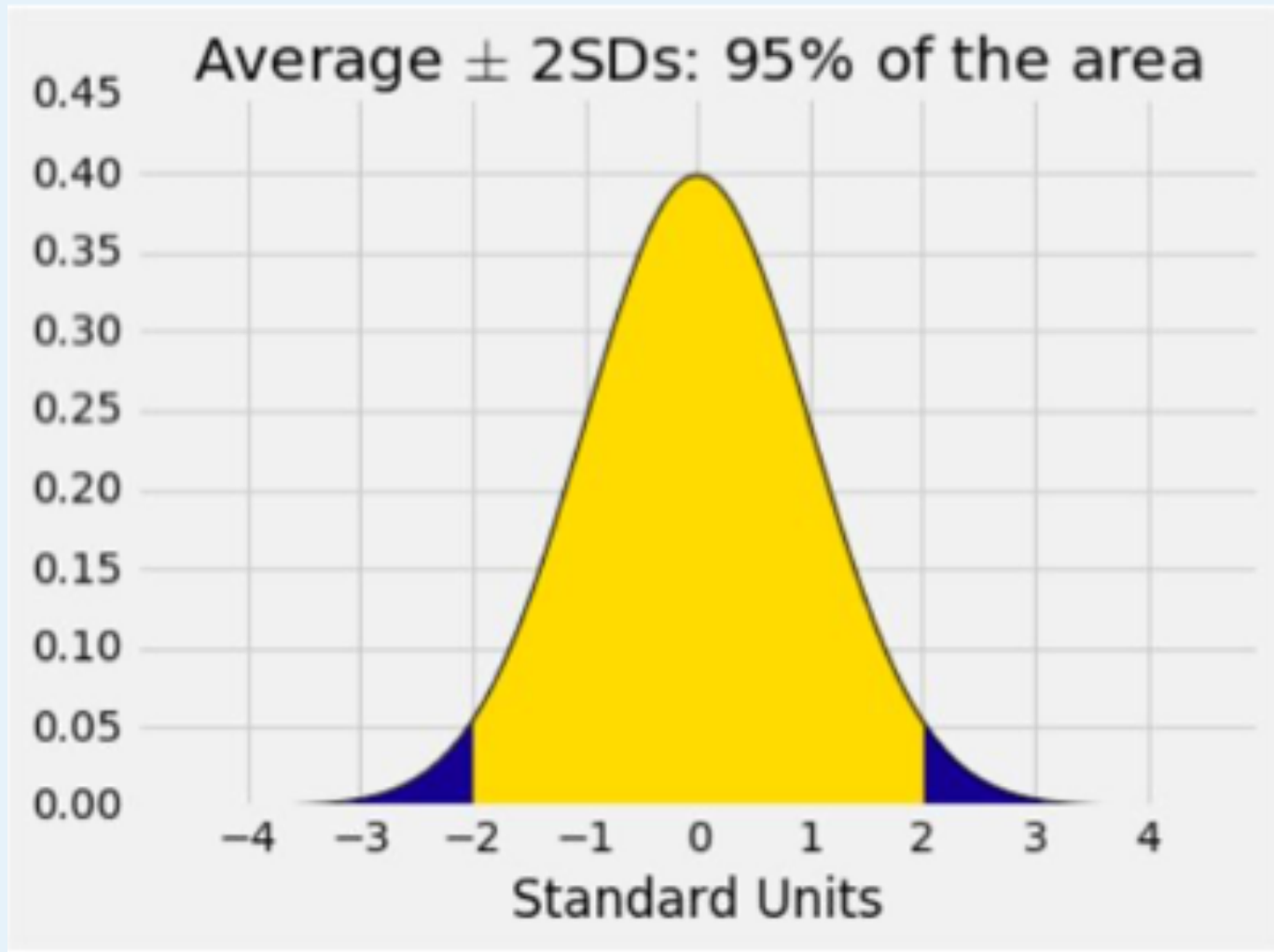
If a histogram is bell-shaped, then

- Almost all of the data are in the range “average \pm 3 SDs”



Percent in Range	All Distributions	Normal Distributions
Average +/- 1 SD	At least 0%	About 68%
Average +/- 2 SDs	At least 75%	About 95%
Average +/- 3 SDs	At least 88.888...%	About 99.73%

A “Central” Area





Central Limit Theorem



If the sample is

- large, and
- drawn at random with replacement,

Then, *regardless of the distribution of the population,*

**the probability distribution of the sample sum
(or the sample average) is roughly normal**



- We often only have a sample
- We care about sample averages because they estimate population averages.
- The Central Limit Theorem describes how the normal distribution (a bell-shaped curve) is connected to random sample averages.
- CLT allows us to make inferences based on averages of random samples



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Correlation

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- To predict the value of a variable:
 - Identify (measurable) attributes that are associated with that variable
 - Describe the relation between the attributes and the variable you want to predict
 - Then, use the relation to predict the value of a variable



- Trend
 - Positive association
 - Negative association

- Pattern
 - Any discernible “shape” in the scatter
 - Linear
 - Non-linear

Visualize, then quantify



- Measures **linear** association
- Based on standard units
- $-1 \leq r \leq 1$
 - $r = 1$: scatter is perfect straight line sloping up
 - $r = -1$: scatter is perfect straight line sloping down
- $r = 0$: No linear association; *uncorrelated*



Correlation Coefficient (r) =

average of product of standard(x) and standard(y)

Steps: 4 3 2 1

Measures how clustered the scattered data are around a straight line



R is not affected by:

- Changing the units of the measurement of the data
 - Because r is based on standard units
- Which variable is plotted on the x- and y-axes
 - Because the product of standard units is the same



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Interpreting *r*

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Be careful ...

- Correlation measures linear association
- Association doesn't imply causation
- Two variables might be correlated, but that doesn't mean one causes the other



Both can affect correlation

- Draw a scatter plot before computing r



- Correlations based on groups or aggregated data
- Can be misleading:
 - For example, they can be artificially high

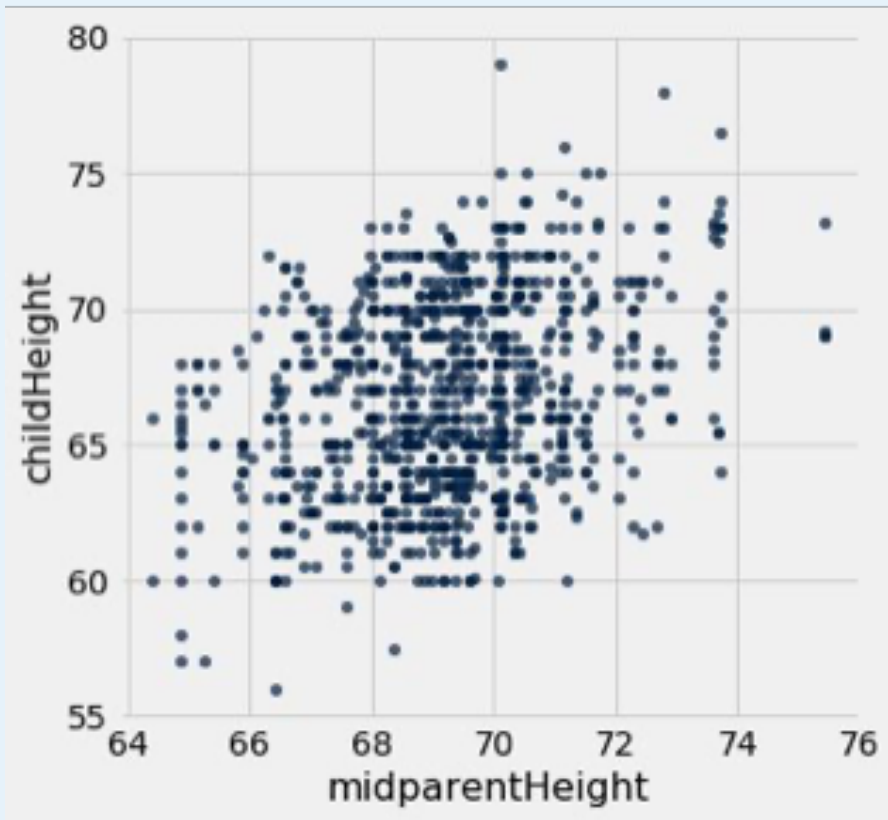
A blue-tinted photograph of a statue of a woman holding a torch, with the word "Prediction" overlaid in white text. The statue is the central focus, with its right arm raised holding a torch. The background shows some foliage and a building. The text "Prediction" is centered in a large, white, sans-serif font, flanked by two horizontal white lines.

Prediction



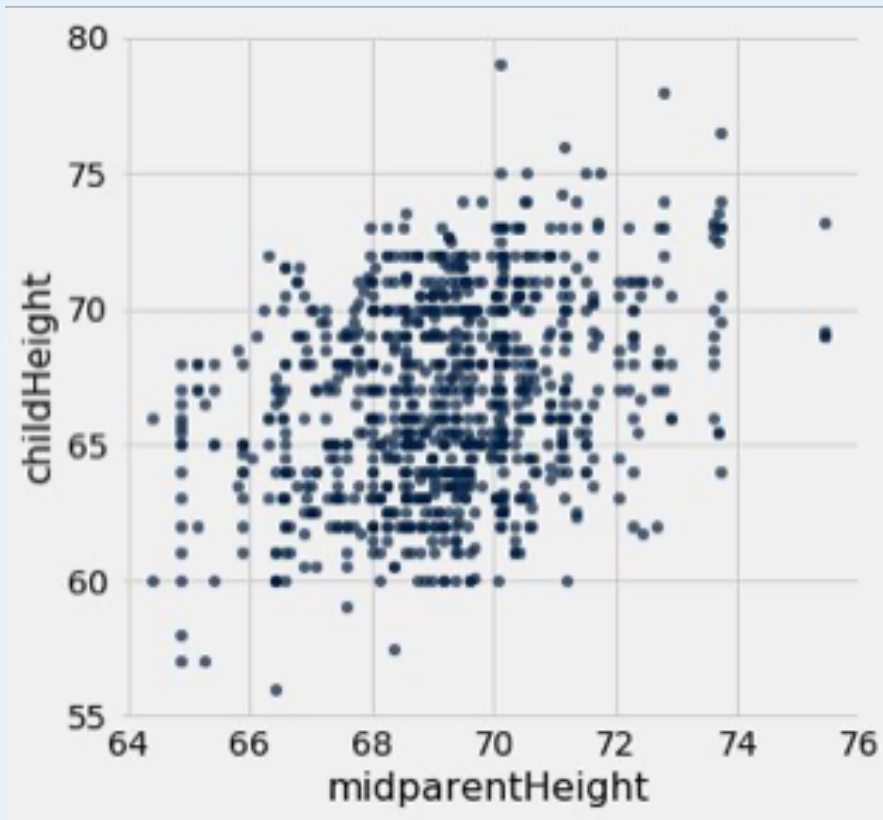
- Based on incomplete information
- One way of making predictions:
 - To predict an outcome for an individual,
 - find others who are like that individual
 - and whose outcomes you know.
 - Use those outcomes as the basis of your prediction.

Galton's Heights



Goal: Predict the height of a new child, based on that child's midparent height

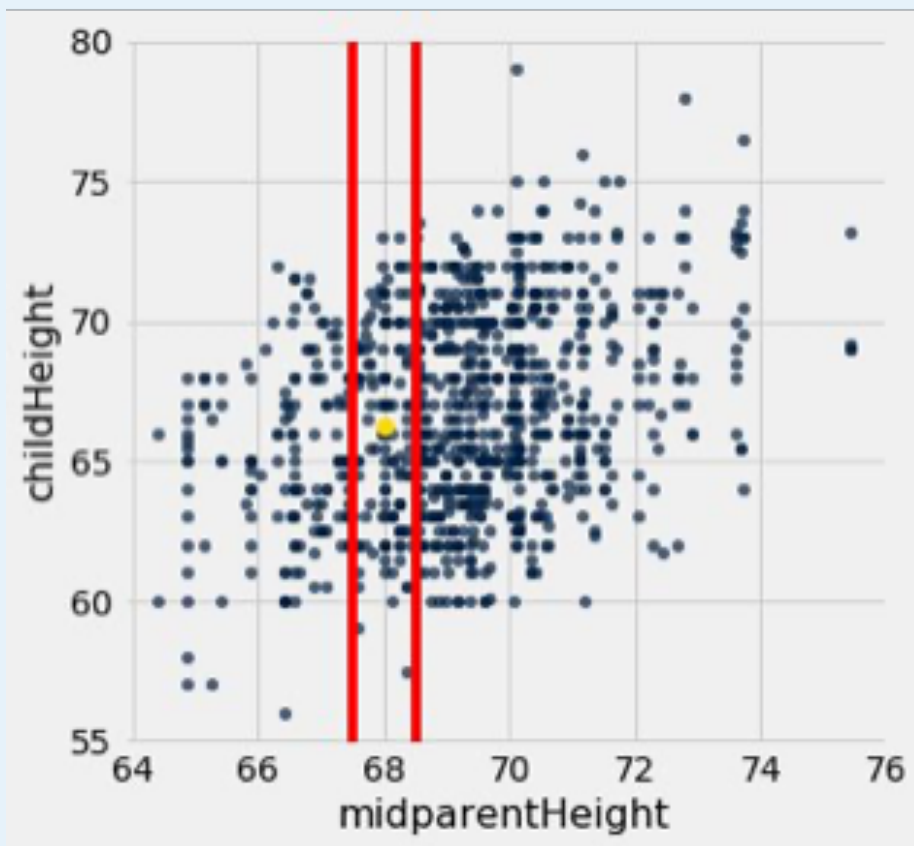
Galton's Heights



How can we predict a child's height given a midparent height of 68 inches?

Idea: Use the average height of the children of all families where the midparent Height is close to 68 inches

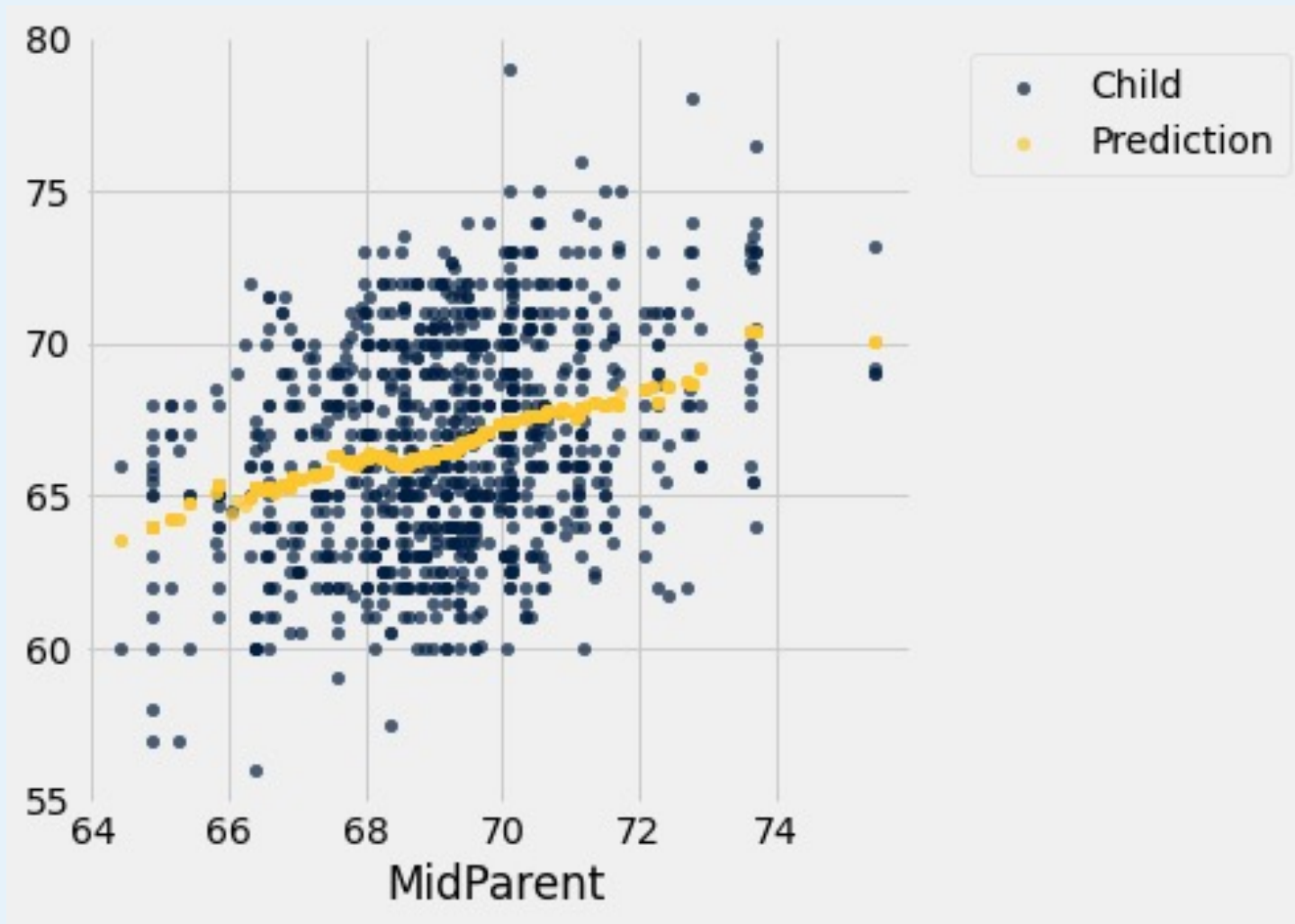
Galton's Heights



How can we predict a child's height given a midparent height of 68 inches?

Idea: Use the average height of the children of all families where the midparent Height is close to to 68 inches

Predicted Heights





For each x value, the prediction is the average of the y values in its nearby group.

The graph of these predictions is the
graph of averages

If the association between x and y is linear, then points in the graph of averages tend to fall on a line. The line is called the **regression line**



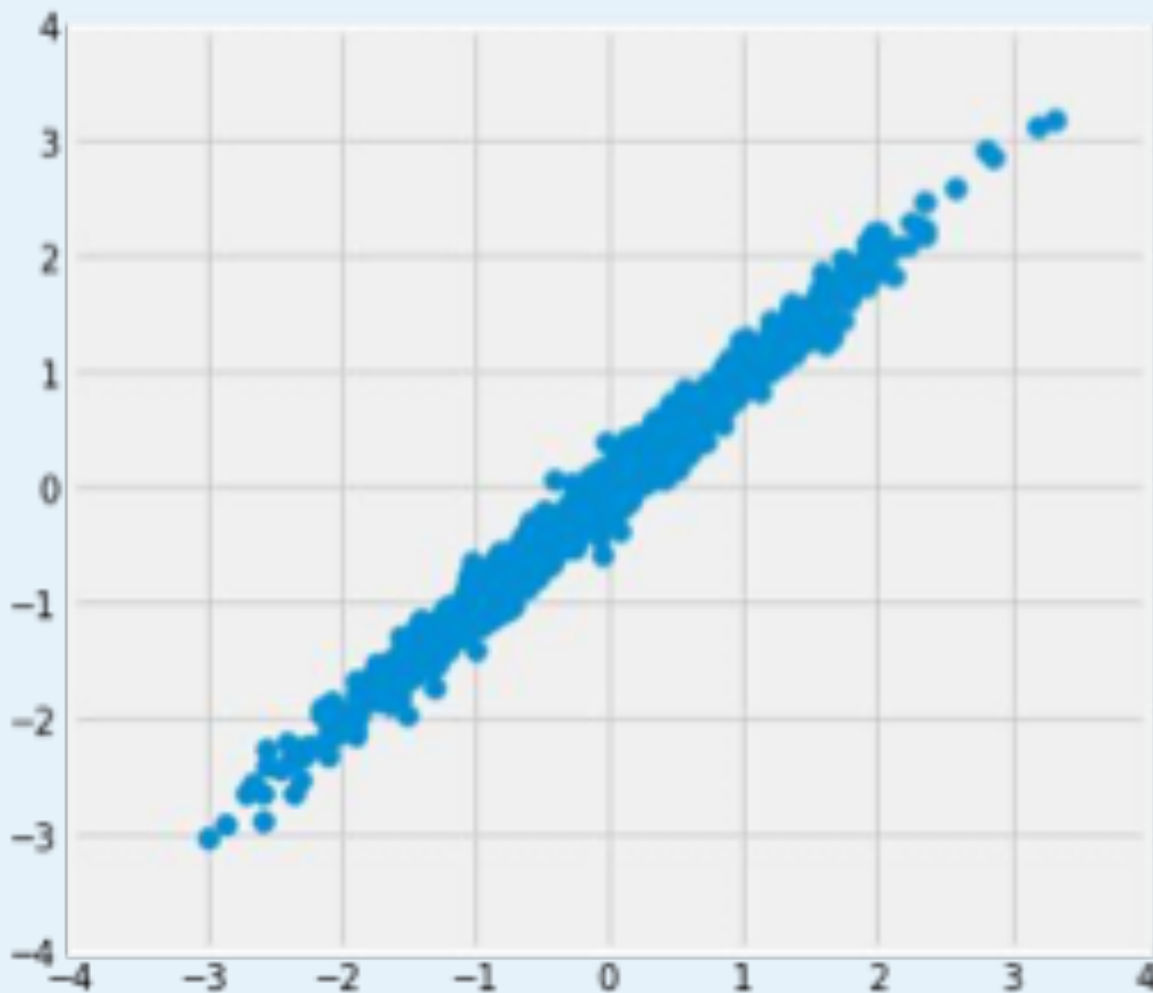
A method for predicting a numerical y , given a value of x :

- Identify the group of points where the values of x are close to the given value
- The prediction is the average of the y values for the group



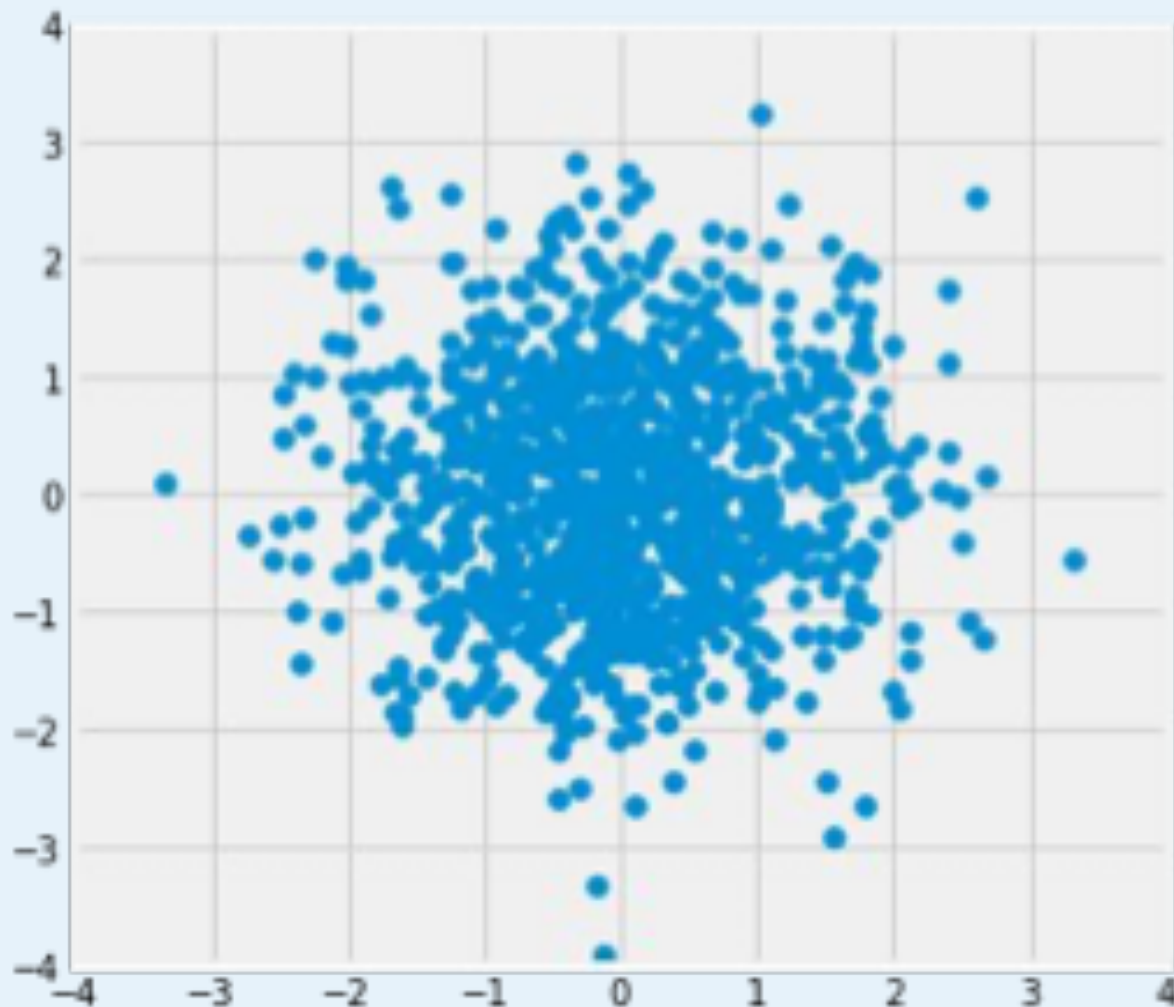
— Linear Regression —

Where is the prediction line?



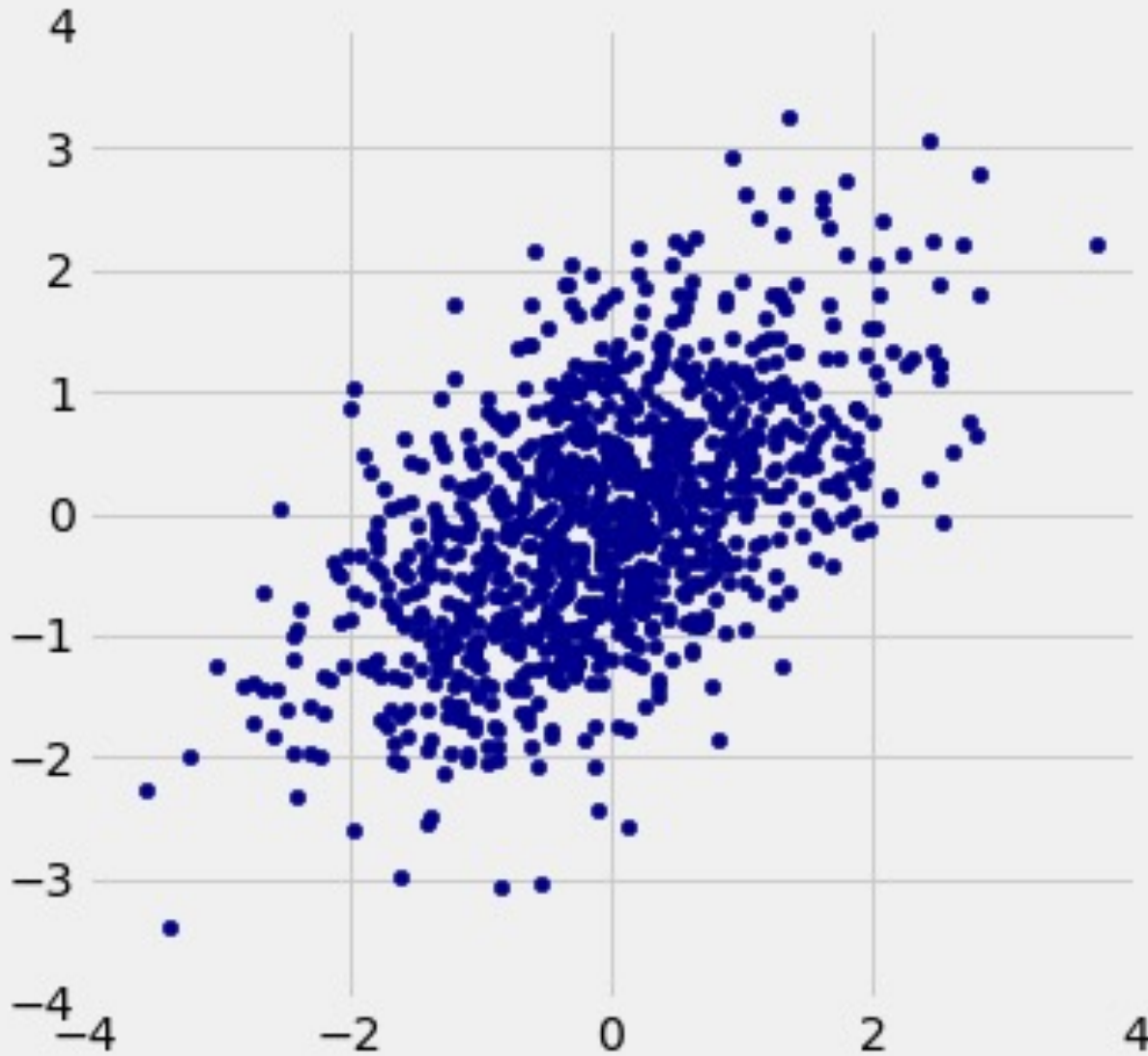
$$r = 0.99$$

Where is the prediction line?



$$r = 0.0$$

Where is the prediction line?



$$r = 0.5$$



- If the scatter plot is oval shaped, then we can spot an important feature of the regression line



A statement about x and y pairs

- Measured in *standard units*
- Describing the deviation of x from 0 (the average of x 's)
- And the deviation of y from 0 (the average of y 's)

On average,

y deviates from 0 less than x deviates from 0

$$y_{su} = r \times x_{su}$$



Slope and Intercept



In original units, the regression line has this equation:

$$\frac{\textit{estimate of } y - \textit{mean}(y)}{\textit{SD of } y} = r \times \frac{\textit{given } x - \textit{mean}(x)}{\textit{SD of } x}$$

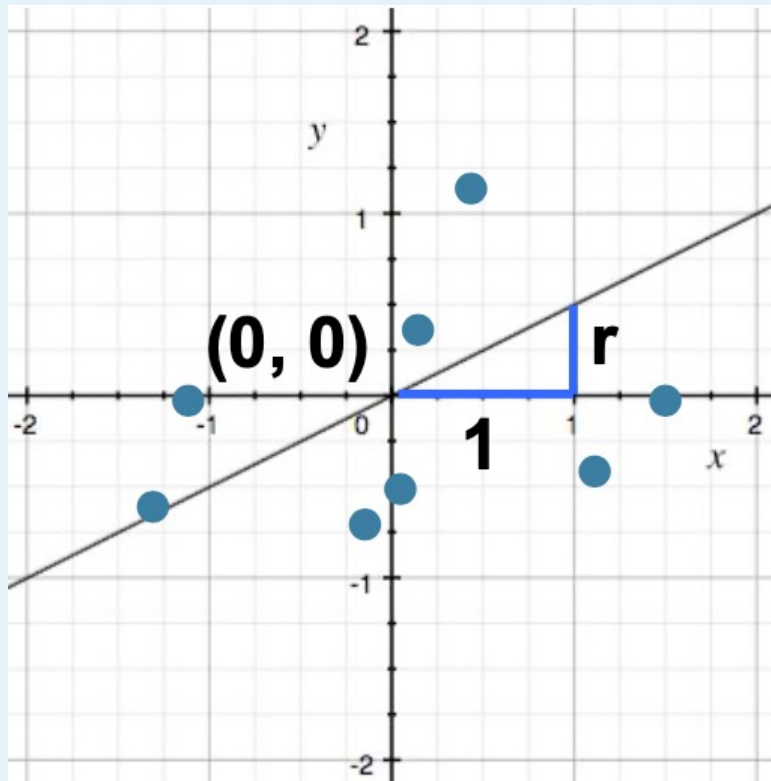
Lines can be expressed by *slope & intercept*

$$y = \textit{slope} \times x + \textit{intercept}$$

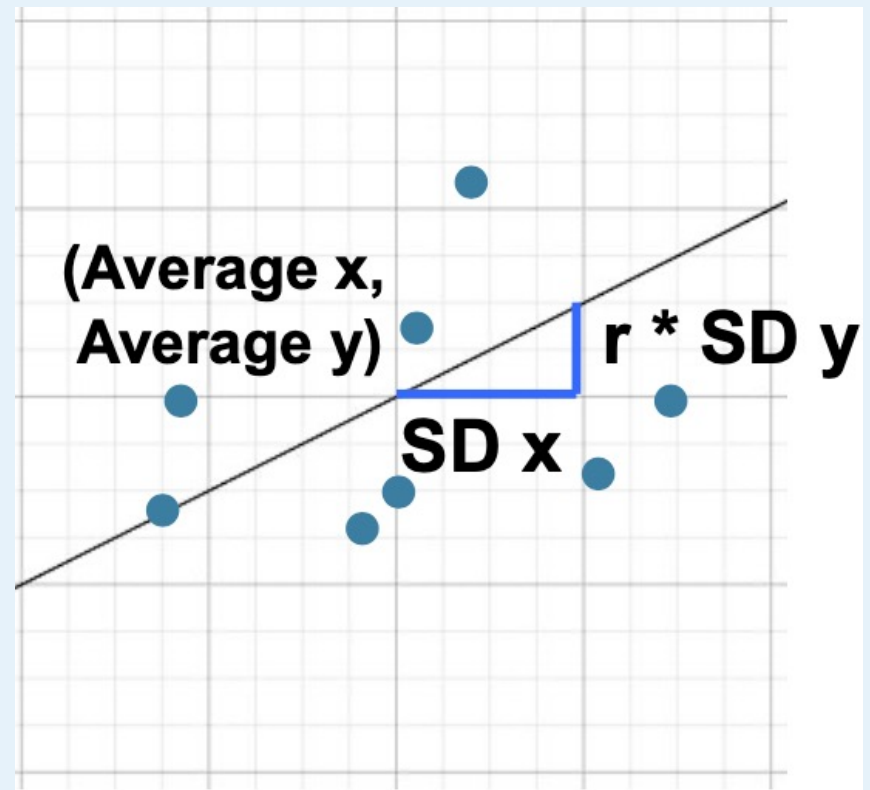
Regression Line



Standard Units



Original Units





*estimate of $y = \text{slope} * x + \text{intercept}$*

slope of the regression line

$$r * \frac{SD \text{ of } y}{SD \text{ of } x}$$

intercept of the regression line

$$\text{mean}(y) - \text{slope} \times \text{mean}(x)$$