

Stats Medic Ultimate Interpretations Guide

CED Unit 1: Exploring One-Variable Data

Standard Deviation: The context typically varies by SD from the mean of mean.

Example: The height of power forwards in the NBA typically varies by 1.52 inches from the mean of 80.1 inches.

Percentile: percentile % of context are less than or equal to value.

Example: 75% of high school student SAT scores are less than or equal to 1200.

z-score: Specific value with context is z-score standard deviations above/below the mean.

Example: A quiz score of 71 is 1.43 standard deviations below the mean. ($z = -1.43$)

Describe a distribution: Be sure to address shape, center, variability, and outliers (in context).

Example: The distribution of student height is unimodal and roughly symmetric. The mean height is 65.3 inches with a standard deviation of 8.2 inches. There is a potential upper outlier at 79 inches and a gap between 60 and 62 inches.

CED Unit 2: Exploring Two-Variable Data

Correlation (r): The linear association between x-context and y-context is weak/moderate/strong (strength) and positive/negative (direction).

Example: The linear association between student absences and final grades is fairly strong and negative. ($r = -0.93$)

Residual: The actual y-context was residual above/below the predicted value when x-context = #.

Example: The actual heart rate was 4.5 beats per minute above the number predicted when Matt ran for 5 minutes.

y-intercept: The predicted y-context when x = 0 context is y-intercept.

Example: The predicted time to checkout at the grocery store when there are 0 customers in line is 72.95 seconds.

Slope: The predicted y-context increases/decreases by slope for each additional x-context.

Example: The predicted heart rate increases by 4.3 beats per minute for each additional minute jogged.

Standard Deviation of Residuals (s): The actual y-context is typically about s away from the value predicted by the LSRL.

Example: The actual SAT score is typically about 14.3 points away from the value predicted by the LSRL.

Coefficient of Determination (r^2): About r^2 % of the variation in y-context can be explained by the linear relationship with x-context.

Example: About 87.3% of variation in electricity production is explained by the linear relationship with wind speed.

Describe the relationship: Be sure to address strength, direction, form and unusual features (in context).

Example: The scatterplot reveals a moderately strong, positive, linear association between the weight and length of rattlesnakes. The point at (24.1, 35.7) is a potential outlier.

CED Unit 4: Probability, Random Variables and Probability Distributions

Probability $P(A)$: After many many context, the proportion of times that context A will occur is about $P(A)$.

Example: $P(\text{heads}) = 0.5$.

After many many coin flips, the proportion of times that heads will occur is about 0.5.

Conditional Probability $P(A|B)$: Given context B, there is a $P(A|B)$ probability of context A.

Example: $P(\text{red car} | \text{pulled over}) = 0.48$.

Given that a car is pulled over, there is a 0.48 probability of the car being red.

Expected Value (Mean, μ): If the random process of **context** is repeated for a very large number of times, the average number of **x-context** we can expect is expected value. (decimals OK).

Example: *If the random process of asking a student how many movies they watched this week is repeated for a very large number of times, the average number of movies we can expect is 3.23 movies.*

Binomial Mean (μ_x): After many, many trials the average # of **success context** out of n is μ_x .

Example: *After many, many trials the average # of property crimes that go unsolved out of 100 is 80.*

Binomial Standard Deviation (σ_x): The number of **success context** out of n typically varies by σ_x from the mean of μ_x .

Example: *The number of property crimes that go unsolved out of 100 typically varies by 1.6 crimes from the mean of 80 crimes.*

CED Unit 5: Sampling Distributions

Standard Deviation of Sample Proportions ($\sigma_{\hat{p}}$): The sample proportion of **success context** typically varies by $\sigma_{\hat{p}}$ from the true proportion of p .

Example: *The sample proportion of students that did their AP Stats homework last night typically varies by 0.12 from the true proportion of 0.73.*

Standard Deviation of Sample Means ($\sigma_{\bar{x}}$): The sample mean amount of **x-context** typically varies by $\sigma_{\bar{x}}$ from the true mean of μ_x .

Example: *The sample mean amount of defective parts typically varies by 5.6 parts from the true mean of 23.2 parts.*

CED Unit 6, 7, 8 & 9: Inference for Proportions, Means, and Slope

Confidence Interval (A, B): We are $\%$ confident that the interval from A to B captures the true parameter context.

Example: *We are 95% confident that the interval from 0.23 to 0.27 captures the true proportion of flowers that will be red after cross-fertilizing red and white.*

Confidence Level: If we take many, many samples of the same size and calculate a confidence interval for each, about confidence level % of them will capture the true **parameter in context**

Example: If we take many, many samples of size 20 and calculate a confidence interval for each, about 90% of them will capture the true mean weight of a soda case.

p-value: Assuming **H_0 in context** (H_0), there is a p-value probability of getting the observed result or less/greater/more extreme, purely by chance.

Example: Assuming the mean body temperature is 98.6 °F ($H_0: \mu = 98.6$), there is a 0.023 probability of getting a sample mean of 97.9 °F or less, purely by chance.

Conclusion for a Significance Test: Because p-value p-value $\leq / > \alpha$ we reject / fail to reject H_0 . We do / do not have convincing evidence for **H_a in context**.

Example: Because the p-value 0.023 ≤ 0.05 , we reject H_0 . We do have convincing evidence that the mean body temperature is less than 98.6 °F ($H_a: \mu < 98.6$).

Type 1 Error: The **H_0 context** is true, but we find convincing evidence for **H_a context**.

Example: The mean body temperature is actually 98.6 °F, but we find convincing evidence the mean body temperature is less than 98.6 °F.

Type II Error: The **H_a context** is true, but we don't find convincing evidence for **H_a context**.

Example: The mean body temperature is actually less than 98.6 °F, but we don't find convincing evidence that the mean body temperature is less than 98.6 °F.

Power: If **H_a context is true at a specific value** there is a power probability the significance test will correctly reject H_0 .

Example: If the true mean body temperature is 97.5 °F, there is a 0.73 probability the significance test will correctly reject $H_0: \mu = 98.6$

Standard Error of the Slope (SE_b): The slope of the sample LSRL for **x-context** and **y-context** typically varies from the slope of the population LSRL by about SE_b .

*Example: The slope of the sample LSRL for **absences** and **final grades** typically varies from the slope of the population LSRL by about 1.2 points/absence.*