# Data analysis and Geostatistics - lecture V

Statistical testing

Correlation coefficients - indicator of covariance

Pearson -> normally distributed data, Spearman -> all others



# Correlation coefficients matrices - significance

### But are these r values meaningful?

In statistical terms: are they significantly different from r = 0there will be a critical r value above which it is significant



# Statistical testing: the student-t test of r

### What values of r are meaningful for a given confidence level

 $t = r \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}}$ 

When calculated t > critical t significant correlation

t depends on the number of samples and the desired confidence interval

- the more samples, the smaller the uncertainty on your r-value less uncertainty on deciding whether something is significant
- the confidence level governs how strong your statements will be: 95% - wrong conclusion in 1 out of 20 cases 98% - wrong in 1 out of 50 cases

### Have entered the field of statistical testing....

# Statistical testing - confidence intervals So why do we do statistical testing ? In general you want to make a statement about your data: these variables are correlated the stdev on the mean of this samples set is 10% However, in statistics we cannot make such statements as we can never be 100% sure: provide a confidence level: alpha alpha is up to the researcher to select! There are no "accepted" values and the choice depends strongly on the specific circumstances. e.g. when mining sector is up: alpha ~ 0.80

down: alpha ~ 0.05 why? at low alpha rarely wrong, but you don't find much.

at high alpha, will find everything, but are commonly wrong

### Confidence levels



# Statistical testing - hypothesis testing

### So in the case of our correlation analysis:

Setting the confidence interval at alpha = 0.05 (or 5%); if we conclude that there is a correlation: will be wrong in 5% of cases

but how do we conclude this?

Hypothesis testing: test at  $\alpha$ -level < reject accept

In statistics, we cannot prove anything, can only disprove things!

have to choose your hypotheses carefully

# Statistical testing - hypothesis testing

#### So in the case of our correlation analysis:

cannot test the presence of correlation but we can test for the **absence** of correlation between the variables:

r = 0 reject,  $r \neq 0$ , so there **is** a correlation between the vars accept, at this confidence interval there is no significant correlation between the variables

hypotheses:  $H_0$ : hypothesis to be tested r = 0 $H_a$ : alternative hypothesis  $r \neq 0$ 

In most cases you will be testing the negative conclusion; there is no correlation, there is no difference between two groups, etc.

Whe	n test	ing hypothe	eses there are	4 possible or	utcomes;
			r = 0	r ≠ 0	
	re	ject H₀	type I error	OK	
accept H <sub>0</sub>		OK	type II error		
type l	error:	we conclude this is the co	there is a correla infidence interva	ation where there I we select: alph	e is in fact none a
type l	l error:	no reason to reality there is	reject H <sub>0</sub> , so we s a correlation be	conclude r = 0, etween the varia	whereas in bles: beta

## Statistical testing - hypothesis testing

# we can only **disprove** statements in stats, so only a rejection of $H_0$ results in a strong conclusion

we're willing to accept a number of incorrect rejections and control that with the confidence interval we choose ( beforehand of course! )

but if we cannot reject our  $H_0$ , the conclusion is weak: there is clearly a possibility that the statement is wrong, but we have no control over that: type II error

mining company: H<sub>0</sub>: prospect = barren

H<sub>a</sub>: prospect  $\neq$  barren \$\$\$\$

	barren	non-barren
reject H <sub>0</sub>	alpha	\$\$\$\$
accept H <sub>0</sub>	OK	beta

## Statistical testing - degrees of freedom

#### statistical tests depend on the number of samples

However,

when testing we're always working with a sample and not the full population

#### this means;

the parameter that we are testing has been derived from our dataset it has been estimated from the same data that we use to test it

cannot use all the data, because then we would be using data double

#### Corrected by using the **degrees of freedom** instead:

degrees of freedom (d.f.) are the no of observations or data remaining after estimating the parameter(s) to be tested

# Statistical testing - degrees of freedom

#### some examples;

#### 1) the standard deviation;

5 data points: n = 5determine the mean of this dataset: now determine the variance:

∑(xi)/n ∑{(xi - mean)²}

this uses the mean that we estimated from the data, therefore only 4 independent values:  $x_5$  = 5\*mean -  $x_1$  -  $x_2$  -  $x_3$  -  $x_4$ 

so we have 4 degrees of freedom:

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\Sigma (\mathbf{x}_i - \mu)^2}{n} \qquad s^2 = \frac{\Sigma (\mathbf{x}_i - \overline{\mathbf{x}})^2}{n - 1}$$

### Statistical testing - degrees of freedom

#### some examples;

#### 2) testing of the correlation coefficient

calculated from both the mean in x and the mean in y, so to derive the correlation coefficient, two degrees of freedom have already been consumed:

test against n - 2 degrees of freedom

$$r = \frac{cov_{xy}}{s_x s_y} \qquad t = r \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}}$$

### Statistical testing - significance of r

#### an example of significance testing of the correlation coefficient:

 $t=r\sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}} \qquad \qquad \text{with d.f.}=n-2 \quad \text{and } t_{\alpha;d.f.}$ 

Our hypotheses:  $H_0$ : r = 0, if true, no significant correlation  $H_a$  r  $\neq$  0, cannot reject the absence of correlation

Let's say: n = 25, so d.f. = 23 a = 0.05r = -0.34

 $t_{calc} = -1.73$ t <sub>0.05;23</sub> =

When calculated t > critical t significant correlation

### Statistical testing - significance of r

an example of significance testing of the correlation coefficient:

n = 25, so d.f. = 23;  $\alpha = 0.05$ 

df	alpha = 0.1	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	0.001	0.0005
1	3.078	6.314	12.71	31.82	63.66	318.3	636.6
5	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	5.894	6.869
10	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169	4.144	4.587
15	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947	3.733	4.073
16	1.337	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921	3.686	4.015
17	1.333	1.740	2.110	2.567	2.898	3.646	3.965
18	1.330	1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878	3.610	3.922
19	1.328	1.729	2.093	2.539	2.861	3.579	3.883
20	1.325	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845	3.552	3.850
21	1.323	1.721	2.080	2.518	2.831	3.527	3.819
22	1.321	1.717	2.074	2.508	2.819	3.505	3.792
23	1.319	1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807	3.485	3.768
24	1.318	1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797	3.467	3.745
25	1.316	1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787	3.450	3.725

### Statistical testing - significance of r

an example of significance testing of the correlation coefficient:

$$t=r\sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}} \qquad \qquad \text{with d.f.}=n-2 \ \text{ and } t_{\alpha;\text{d.f.}}$$

Our hypotheses:  $H_0$ : r = 0, if true, no significant correlation

 $H_a$  r  $\neq$  0, cannot reject the absence of correlation

Let's say: n = 25, so d.f. = 23 a = 0.05r = -0.34

 $t_{calc} = -1.73$  $t_{0.05:23} = 1.71 = -1.71$ 

 $t_{calc}$  exceeds  $t_{0.05:23}$  -> reject H<sub>0</sub>

in this example we can reject the H<sub>0</sub>: so we can make the strong statement that at the 5% confidence level, there is a significant correlation between the vars



### Statistical testing - the steps

#### 1. Define a hypothesis to test

in statistics only a hypothesis rejection is a strong statement: have to choose your hypothesis carefully (example: white swans - black swans)

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#### 1. Define a hypothesis to test

in statistics only a hypothesis rejection is a strong statement: have to choose your hypothesis carefully (example: white swans - black swans)

#### 2. Decide on a confidence level

you cannot be 100% certain, because the chance of an unlikely event is small, but never zero; have to select a desired level of confidence

at  $\alpha = 5\%$ , you accept to reach the wrong conclusion in 1 out of 20 cases at  $\alpha = 2\%$ , it is 1 out of 50 cases

so what do you choose ? depends very much on the situation

identifying cheating schoolteachers: you have to be very certain !

### Statistical testing - confidence levels

#### For example: a mining company measures a property P (for example As content).

when P belongs to population  $\pi$ the prospect is barren

when P exceeds  $\pi$ : **\$\$\$\$** 

so, what does  $\pi$  look like ?

At P<sub>1</sub>: probability is high that this measured value belongs to the population  $\pi$ : barren

At P<sub>2</sub>: probability is much lower that this measured value belongs to the population  $\pi$ : **\$\$** more likely



P

 $P_2$ 

### Statistical testing - confidence levels

For example: a mining company measures a property P (for example As content).

when P belongs to population  $\pi$  the prospect is **barren** 

when P exceeds  $\pi$ : **\$\$\$\$** 

the confidence level specifies the domain(s) of  $\pi$  where we reject that P belongs to  $\pi,$  i.e. the cutoff level

Let's set alpha = 5%

If P has a value in the green domain: we assume that it does not belong to the red, barren distribution, but comes from a separate distribution that describes the ore deposit

However, there is a 5% chance that it is still part of the red distribution: type I error



# Statistical testing - confidence levels

For example: a mining company measures a property P (for example As content).

when P belongs to population  $\pi$  the prospect is  $\ensuremath{\text{barren}}$ 

when P exceeds  $\pi$ : **\$\$\$** 

the confidence level specifies the domain(s) of  $\pi$  where we reject that P belongs to  $\pi$ , i.e. the cutoff level

#### Let's set alpha = 5%

If P has a value in the red domain: we assume that it belongs to the red, barren distribution and will not drill it.

However, there is a chance that it is part of the ore distribution, because we don't know what it's distribution looks like: type II error



# Statistical testing - confidence levels

For example: a mining company measures a property P (for example As content).

when P belongs to population  $\pi$  the prospect is **barren** 

when P exceeds  $\pi$ : **\$\$\$** 

The cut-off level is controlled by the confidence level alpha and varies:

when mining is doing well: alpha = 80% when mining is under stress: alpha = 5%

why?

at low alpha rarely wrong, but you don't find much.

at high alpha, will find everything, but are commonly wrong



# Statistical testing - the steps

#### 3. Compare the test property against a certain probability distribution

the expected distribution defines the probability of finding a certain observation: can find these values in tables, for example the normal and student-t distributions



# Statistical testing - testing against the normal dist.

### every value or data point is derived from a population



# Statistical testing - population probability

### within a population there is a prob for occurrence of each value



# Statistical testing - population probability outliers are values that have a low probability of occurrence values beyond 3 stdev: highly unlikely prob of belonging to population less than 0.5%: regarded as outlier However, possibility is not zero !

Identical for populations A and B, but a given deviation from the mean will be less likely to be an outlier in case A where the spread is larger.





# Statistical testing - population probability



# Statistical testing - population probability



# Statistical testing - population probability

#### So to summarize these observations:

#### if we can exclude something from population A:

strong statement, exceeds our specified threshold of  $\alpha$  will be wrong sometimes, but at least we know and can control it

#### if we cannot exclude something from population A:

there is still a possibility that it belongs to another population (e.g. B), but because we know nothing of B, cannot specify the prob of this weak statement:

type II errors are worse

you know your chances of failure, but not those of success...

### Statistical testing - population probability

what if we know the properties of the other pop as well ?

#### for the ore sample example:

population A:  $\mu = 60$ , population B:  $\mu = 130$ population P:  $\mu = 110$ , SE<sub>A,B</sub> = 20 (SE because comparing means)

 $Z_i = (\mu_P - \mu) / SE$  at  $\alpha = 0.05$ : -1.96 < Z < 1.96

1) hypothesis: P part of A  $H_0$ ;  $\mu_P = \mu_A$ Z = 2.5, so it exceeds Z range: rejected

2) hypothesis: P part of B H<sub>0</sub>;  $\mu_P = \mu_B$ Z = -1.0, so it is within Z range: accepted

# Statistical testing - population probability what if we know the properties of the other pop as well ? another example: a well-established fossil population has length $\mu = 14.2 \pm 4.7$ mm now a researcher finds a mean of 30 mm from n = 10 can these belong to the same population? hypotheses: H<sub>0</sub>; $\mu_{new} = \mu$ H<sub>A</sub>; $\mu_{new} \neq \mu$ $Z = (\mu_{new}-\mu) / (\sigma/\sqrt{n})$ at $\alpha = 0.05$ : -1.96 < Z < 1.96

#### $Z = (30-14.2)/(4.7/\sqrt{10}) = 10.63$

X

### Statistical testing - the t-distribution

#### rarely know the population mean and stdev, rather sample stats

In the previous examples we presumed to know the mean and stdev of the population, but in reality we rarely do: estimate these from a sample

so, the test distribution should have a larger uncertainty and this has to depend on the number of samples (degrees of freedom): the t-distribution



### The curse of low sample numbers

The t-distribution elegantly shows the effect of small sample numbers on the probability of finding extreme values:

# the probability of finding a certain value depends on the number of samples: less samples means (ironically) a higher probability



### Statistical testing - t-distribution testing

#### testing against the t-distribution is identical to that of Z-scores

 $t = (\overline{x}-\mu) / (s/\sqrt{n})$  using the means and SE, so independent of the type of distribution !

Normally we do not test individual values against the t-distribution, but rather the mean derived from a sample against the mean of the population we think these values come from

has the added advantage that we can ignore distribution (multi-modality.....)

Can use it for two very useful properties:

- the confidence interval for a value or property by extracting  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ 

- required sample size for specified confidence by extracting n

## Statistical testing - t-distribution testing

Commonly, a company needs to guarantee certain specifications for a product. For example, that the concentration of the ore element is at a certain level, or the concentration of a contaminant below a certain level. Missing such targets can be very costly. So how do you decide what is a good, as in achievable, level ?



suppose  $\overline{x}$  from  $\mu_1$ : prob high from  $\mu_2$ : prob lower from  $\mu_3$ : prob lower from  $\mu_4$ : prob low

at some value of  $\mu$ , will exceed the confidence level: too unlikely to come from a population with this mean: this is the upper  $\mu$ 

similarly, will reach a lower  $\mu$  when working down from the mean

The confidence interval on the mean represent the range from this lower to the upper population mean for a given confidence level.

## Statistical testing - t-distribution testing



## Statistical testing - t-distribution testing example 1

#### the confidence interval for the concentration of phosphorus in iron ore

Say we are required to supply iron ore with a bulk phosphorus content of less than 250 ppm, or the company has to pay a fine. The mean P content that you have determined is 215  $\pm$  30.8 ppm based on 8 samples.

the specifics:	our mean: $215 \pm 30.8$ ppm from n = 8	d.f. = n - 1
	the limit: 250 ppm	a = 0.05
	desired confidence: 95%	$t_{a;df} = 2.365$

What is the 95% confidence interval on the bulk concentration?

$$\mu_{+} = \overline{x} + t_{\alpha;df} \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \qquad \qquad \mu_{+} = 215 + 2.365 \cdot \frac{30.8}{\sqrt{8}} \qquad \qquad 189 < \text{mean} < 241$$
$$\mu_{-} = \overline{x} - t_{\alpha;df} \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \qquad \qquad \mu_{-} = 215 - 2.365 \cdot \frac{30.8}{\sqrt{8}} \qquad \qquad \textbf{OK}$$



### Statistical testing - significance of r



# Statistical testing - significance of r

What values of r are meaningful for a given confidence level $t = r \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}}$ with d.f. = n - 2 and  $t_{\alpha;d.f.}$ Our hypotheses:Ho: r = 0, if true, no significant correlationHa $r \neq 0$ , cannot reject the absence of correlationLet's say:n = 25, so d.f. = 23 $t_{calc} = -1.73$  $\alpha = 0.05$  or 0.025 $t_{0.05;23} = 1.71 = -1.71$ r = -0.34 $t_{0.025;23} = 2.07 = -2.07$  $t_{calc}$  exceeds  $t_{0.025;23} ->$  reject Ho $t_{calc}$  doesn't exceeds  $t_{0.025;23} ->$ cannot reject Ho

# Statistical testing - significance of r

#### The effect of degrees of freedom (n) on the significance:

