# Data Analysis III 

CU- Boulder<br>CHEM-4181<br>Instrumental Analysis Laboratory

Prof. Jose-Luis Jimenez
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## Linear Regression II

- Standard regression minimizes sum of squared residuals
- Residual $=\underline{\text { vertical distance }}$ between datapoint and line
- Depending how much scatter there is in the data, the slope and intercept will have more or less error
$-y=\left(m \pm s_{m}\right) * x+\left(b \pm s_{b}\right)$
- Not displayed in simple regression in Excel
- Only gives $y=m^{*} x+b$
- Need to used advanced reg.




## Linear Regression IV

- A wealth of information!
- (Displayed with excessive sigfigs)

SUMMARY OUTPUT


## The Trouble w/ Standard Regression

- Every point pulls the line towards itself
- With a weight equal to the squared residual
- Noisy points, outliers, can seriously distort fit



## Even More Complete Regression

- Nonparametric regression
- Does not assume a distribution
- Typical linear regression assumes no errors on X, Gaussian errors on Y
- More robust in the presence of outliers
- http://www.chem.uoa.gr/Applets/AppletTheil/Appl Theil2.html
- Regression with errors in X and Y
- Weighted linear regression
- Different points have more or less error
- Numerical recipes for explanations
- Chapters 14 \& 15
- http://www.nr.com
- Different regressions in many programs



## Confidence Intervals

- In most situations $\mu$ cannot be determined
- Can't afford to make lots and lots of measurements
- We will never know the true value
- Cannot make deterministic statements: - "Pb concentration is 4.7 ppb "
- Can and need to make probabilistic statements
- We can say "the probability that the Pb concentration is between 4.5 and 4.9 ppb is $95 \%$ "
- Known as "confidence intervals"
- Confidence: 95\%
- Interval: 4.5 to 4.9
- Also expressed as $4.7 \pm 0.2$


## Determining Confidence Intervals

- Width of interval is related to precision $(s, \sigma)$
- If measurements are:
- Highly precise: small interval - 0.482, 0.479, 0.488...
- Very imprecise: large interval
$-0.482,0.310,0.650 .$. TABLE a1-3 Confidence Levels for Various Values of $z$
- Confidence interval when $\sigma$ is known
- Just use the distrib. of $\bar{x}, \mathrm{~N}\left(\bar{x}, \sigma_{m}\right)$
- CI for $\mu=\bar{x} \pm \frac{z \sigma}{\sqrt{N}}$

Confidence Level, \% $\quad z$

| 99 |  | 2.58 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 99.7 |  | 3.00 |
| 99.9 | 3.29 |  |

## Size of CI vs. Number of Measurements

TABLE a1-4 Size of Confidence Interval as a Function of the Number of Measurements Averaged

| Number of <br> Measurements <br> Averaged | From Skoog | Relative Size <br> of Confidence <br> Interval |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  | 1.00 |
| 2 | $\rightarrow$ as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$ | 0.71 |
| 3 | 0.58 |  |
| 4 |  | 0.50 |
| 5 |  | 0.45 |
| 6 |  | 0.41 |
| 10 |  |  |

- 2001 Therasan rister Levatoon
- Greatest benefit with first few measurements, then diminishing returns


## Example

- From 10 measurements, we determine that the $68 \%$ CI of average glucose in the blood of CU students is $1100 \pm 9 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{L}$
- Assuming that we have a good estimate of $\sigma$
- CQ: how many measurements do we need for the size of the $95 \%$ CI to be $4.5 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{L}$ ?
A. 25
B. 100
C. 160
D. 225
E. I don't know


## Which Confidence Interval to Report?

- Various confidence intervals
$\pm 1 \sigma(67 \%) \pm 2 \sigma, 95 \%$ CI, $99 \%$ CI...
- You have to choose
- Statistics doesn't answer this question, it depends on the value and use of the information
- E.g.
- You are a chemist in a steel factory, analyzing for Mn (related to hardness). You add very expensive elements to steel based on this analysis. You get a raise based on how small the confidence interval is $\Rightarrow$ choose $+/-s$
- If you are wrong, you are fired $\Rightarrow$ choose 99\% CI
- Uncertainty in temperature rise for a given increase of $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ emissions $\Rightarrow$ depends on evaluation of risks vs. costs


## How to Estimate $\sigma$

- Perform preliminary experiments
- Repeat exp. When developing method, just to estimate $\sigma$

- E.g. COD, do one sample 15 times, then do other samples 3 times
- Pooling data

$$
s_{\text {pooled }}=\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{1}}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}_{1}\right)^{2}+\sum_{j=1}^{N_{2}}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}_{2}\right)^{2}+\ldots \sum_{p=1}^{N_{n_{t}}}\left(x_{i}-\bar{x}_{n_{t}}\right)^{2}}{N_{1}+N_{2}+\ldots N_{p}-n_{t}}}
$$

## CIs when $\sigma$ is not known

- Often we only have e.g. 3 measurements
- More common situation
- Limitation of time, of available sample, etc.
- All we know about $\sigma$ is $s$ estimated from 3 meas.
- Can be very uncertain
- Confidence intervals will be LARGER
- In this situation, we will use $t$
- For a single measurement $\longrightarrow t=\frac{x-\mu}{s}$
- For the mean of N measurements
- Look up in table, or use Excel
$-t \rightarrow z$ as $\mathrm{N} \rightarrow \infty$
- Comparison:
http://www.econtools.com/jevons/java/Graphics2D/tDist.html


## Student's t vs Normal Distribution

- The $t$ distribution has wider tails
- We are less sure about CI, because we don't really know $\sigma$
- As N increases, we know more and more about $\sigma$, and $t \rightarrow N$



## Table for Student's $t$ Distribution

- TDIST( $t, v, 2$ ) in Excel

From Skoog
TABLE a1-5 Values of $t$ for Various Levels of Probability
$-t$ from previous page
$-v$ is degrees of freedom - = N-1

- "2" means prob. of both tails
- TDIST(1.89,2,2) = 20\%
- TDIST(2.36,7,2) = 5\%
- Also TINV(prob, $v$ )
$-\operatorname{TINV}(0.2,2)=1.89$
$-\operatorname{TINV}(0.05,7)=2.36$

| Degrees of <br> Freedom | $\mathbf{8 0 \%}$ | $\mathbf{9 0} \%$ | $\mathbf{9 5} \%$ | $\mathbf{9 9 \%}$ | $\mathbf{9 9 . 9} \%$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 3.08 | 6.31 | 12.7 | 63.7 | 637 |
| 2 | 1.89 | 2.92 | 4.30 | 9.92 | 31.6 |
| 3 | 1.64 | 2.35 | 3.18 | 5.84 | 12.9 |
| 4 | 1.53 | 2.13 | 2.78 | 4.60 | 8.61 |
| 5 | 1.48 | 2.02 | 2.57 | 4.03 | 6.87 |
| 6 | 1.44 | 1.94 | 2.45 | 3.71 | 5.96 |
| 7 | 1.42 | 1.90 | 2.36 | 3.50 | 5.41 |
| 8 | 1.40 | 1.86 | 2.31 | 3.36 | 5.04 |
| 9 | 1.38 | 1.83 | 2.26 | 3.25 | 4.78 |
| 10 | 1.37 | 1.81 | 2.23 | 3.17 | 4.59 |
| 15 | 1.34 | 1.75 | 2.13 | 2.95 | 4.07 |
| 20 | 1.32 | 1.73 | 2.09 | 2.84 | 3.85 |
| 40 | 1.30 | 1.68 | 2.02 | 2.70 | 3.55 |
| 60 | 1.30 | 1.67 | 2.00 | 2.62 | 3.46 |
| $\infty$ | 1.28 | 1.64 | 1.96 | 2.58 | 3.29 |

## Example

- Three measurements give
- $\overline{\mathrm{x}}=1000$
- $s=17.3$
- CQ: The 99\% CI for $\mu$ is:
A. $1000 \pm 100$
B. $1000 \pm 17.3 / \sqrt{2}$
C. $1000 \pm 34.6$
D. $1000 \pm 50$
E. I don't know


## Outlier Rejection

- Is this data point reasonable?
- It may seem too large or too small compared to the others
- You CANNOT just remove it because "it looks wrong"
- Use statistical test to check whether it can be rejected as an "outlier"
- Include this in lab report
- Dixon's Q test
$-\mathrm{Q}=$ gap / range
- Gap: |outlier - next closest value|
- Range: max - min
- $\mathrm{Q}>\mathrm{Q}_{\text {crit }} \Rightarrow$ datapoint can be reject with $95 \%$ confidence


## Outlier Rejection Example

- You've measured the following 8 values for Pb in soil (ppb):
- 3.073 .00
3.03
3.05
$3.10 \quad 3.20$
$3.11 \quad 3.02$
- CQ: Can you reject the 3.20 datapoint?
A. Yes
B. No
C. It depends
D. I don't know

| N | $\mathrm{Q}_{\text {orit }}$ <br> $(\mathrm{CL}: 90 \%)$ | $\mathrm{Q}_{\text {orit }}$ <br> $(\mathrm{CL}: 95 \%)$ | $\mathrm{Q}_{\text {orit }}$ <br> $(\mathrm{CL}: 99 \%)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 0.941 | 0.970 | 0.994 |
| 4 | 0.765 | 0.829 | 0.926 |
| 5 | 0.612 | 0.710 | 0.821 |
| 6 | 0.560 | 0.625 | 0.740 |
| 7 | 0.507 | 0.568 | 0.680 |
| 8 | 0.468 | 0.526 | 0.634 |
| 9 | 0.437 | 0.493 | 0.598 |
| 10 | 0.412 | 0.466 | 0.568 |

Table of critical values of $\mathbf{Q}$

