

| <u>KEY WORDS &amp; DEFINITIONS</u>  | <u>/ WHAT DO I NEED TO KNOW?</u>                                |
|---|---|
| / I. Daily Mean Temperature   | I. What the Large Data Set is about                             |
| The average of hourly temperature readings in a 24hour period, in Celsius.                | The Edexcel LDS has samples on weather data in different        |
| 2. Daily Total Rainfall   | locations for certain time periods. The data is provided by the |
| The depth of precipitation as a liquid. All precipitation is included, not just rainfall, | Met Office.   |
| but it is melted if necessary for the measurement. Heights less than 0.05mm               | The LDS contains the weather data for 5 UK weather              |
| are recorded as a "trace" or "tr".  | stations and 3 weather stations overseas.                       |
| 3. Daily Total Sunshine   | 2. How to clean the data  |
| Recorded to the nearest 10th of an hour (6 minutes).                                      | N/A should be removed before calculations                       |
| 4. Daily Mean Wind Direction  | tr (trace) should be turned to O                                |
| Given as a bearing and/or in cardinal (compass) directions.                               | 3. Locations  |
| 5. Daily Mean Windspeed   | Learn maps and understand geographical significance of          |
| Averaged over 24 hours of a day (midnight to midnight), in Knots, nautical miles          | North, South, Coastal etc,                                      |
| per hour where I Knot = 1.15mph. Can also be categorised by the Beaufort                  | 4. Dates  |
| Scale.  | Remember the Large Data Set only has information from           |
| 6. Daily Maximum Gust   | May—October 1987 and May—October 2015 Anything                  |
| The highest instantaneous windspeed recorded, in Knots.                                   | between November and April is outside the range of our          |
| 7. Daily Maximum Gust Direction   | <u>data</u>   |
| The direction of the maximum gust of wind recorded.                                       | 5. Understand OKTAS   |
| 8. Daily Maximum Relative Humidity  | A measure of the fraction of the celestial dome covered by      |
| A percentage of air saturation with water vapour. Relative humidities above               | l cloud, measured in  |
| 95% result in mist or fog.  | eighths. O oktas represents a clear sky,                        |
| 9. Daily Mean Cloud Cover   | while a value of 8 indicates complete overcast.                 |
| Measured in eighths of the sky that is covered (Oktas).                                   | 6. How to convert units   |
| IO. Daily Mean Visibility   | l knot = 1.:151 mph   |
| The greatest horizontal distance at which an object can be seen in daylight,              | 7. Limitations  |
| measured in decametres (Dm).  | These stations do not tell us about the whole UK                |
| II. Daily Mean Pressure   |   |
| Measured in hectopascals (hPa)  |   |
|   |   |

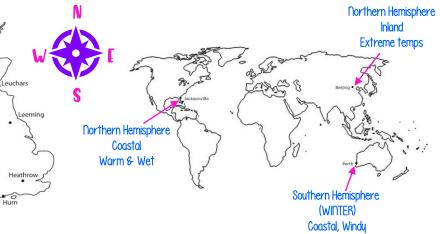
### THE BEAUFORT SCALE

| Beaufort Scale | Description | Av. Wind Speed<br>IOm above ground |
|----------------|-------------|------------------------------------|
| 0              | Calm        | <   Knot                           |
| I-3            | Light       | I — 10 Knots                       |
| ц              | Moderate    | II — 16 Knots                      |
| 5              | Fresh       | 17 — 21 Knots                      |

# Ν Leuchars emina Camborne

#### UK DATA

| Location<br>(N to S) | Temp Range<br>(℃) | Wind Speed<br>Range (kn) |
|----------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| Leuchars             | 4 – 9             | 3 – 23                   |
| Leeming              | 4 – 23            | 3 – 17                   |
| Heathrow             | 8 - 29            | 3 – 19                   |
| Hurn                 | 6 - 24            | 2 – <b>I</b> 9           |
| Camborne             | 10 - 20           | 3 – I8                   |



# DATA COLLECTION

# KEY WORDS & DEFINITIONS

### I. Population

Whole set of items that could be sampled.

2. Census

Observations taken from the entire population.

# 3. Sample

Observations taken from a subset of the population.

4. Sampling Unit

One individual observation set from the population.

### 5. Sampling Frame

A numbered (or named) list of individual

sampling units.

- 6. Strata
- A subset of the population.

# TYPES OF DATA

# I. Quantitative Data

Variables or data associated with a numerical value.

### 2. Qualitative Data

Variables or data associated with a non-numerical value.

### 3. Continuous

Variables that can take any value.. Measured

4. Discrete

Variables that can only take specific values.. Counted

# <u>TYPES OF SAMPLING</u>

### I. Simple Random Sampling

Every sample of a specified size has an equal chance of being selected from a sampling frame.

### 2. Systematic Sampling

Items are chosen at regular intervals from a sampling frame.

### 3. Stratified Sampling

Random samples are taken proportionally from mutually exclusive groups or strata.

### 4. Quota Sampling

Non-random sample is taken to fulfil predetermined quotas for different categories.

### 5. Opportunity Sampling

Non-random sample is selected from available sampling units.

# CENSUS VS SAMPLE

|               | Census  | Sample   |
|---------------|---|--|
| Advantages    | Includes every member<br>of the population to<br>give a fully<br>representative set of<br>data              | Less time consuming<br>to collect and process<br>data. Fewer people<br>needed therefore<br>cheaper to conduct. |
| Disadvantages | Time consuming &<br>expensive. Cannot be<br>used when testing<br>process destroys the<br>item being tested. | May not be fully<br>representative of<br>population. Outliers or<br>whole subgroups<br>possibly excluded.      |

# <u>WHAT DO I NEED TO KNOW?</u>

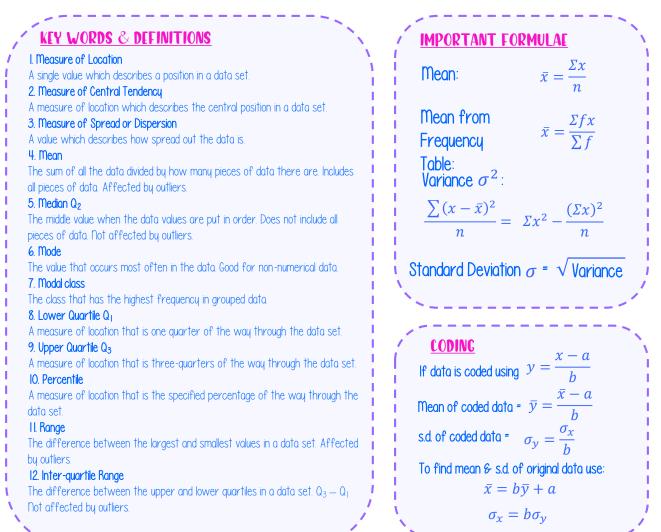
### I. Advantages & Disadvantages

Why is one type of sampling more appropriate than another. Consider time, cost, bias, ease, accuracy of

### population representation.

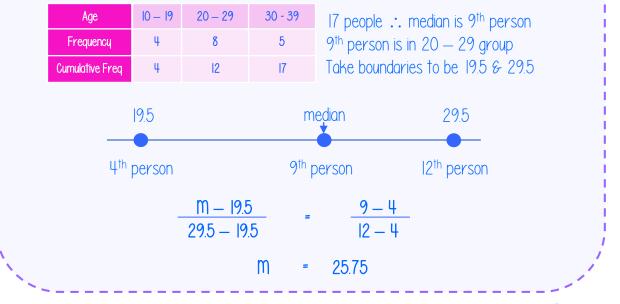
- 2. How to work with Grouped Data
- Understand inequalities. Find maximum, minimum & midpoint of each group.
- 3. How to use the Large Data Set
- Be able to clean data, take samples and comment on findings.

# **MEASURES OF LOCATION & SPREAD**



#### **INTERPOLATION**

Assume data values are evenly distributed within each class then estimate median or percentile values using proportional reasoning.



# **REPRESENTATIONS OF DATA**

# **KEY WORDS & DEFINITIONS**

#### 1 Outlier

A data value that lies beyond expected extremities. These are usually calculated as a multiple of the interquartile range above the upper quartile or below the lower quartile. i.e. either greater than  $Q_3 + k(Q_3 - Q_1)$ or less than  $Q_1 - k(Q_3 - Q_1)$ 

### 2. Cleaning

The process of removing anomalies from the data set

# **BOX PLOTS**

Box plots are rarely symmetrical

25% of the data lies within each section

Always use the same scale when comparing box plots



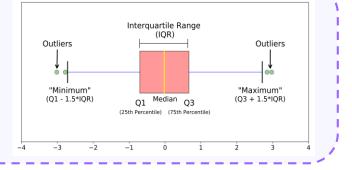
### Comparing 2 sets of data:

Calculate & compare the measures of location Calculate & compare the measures of spread Compare outliers if applicable Mean & s.d go together Median & IQR go together.

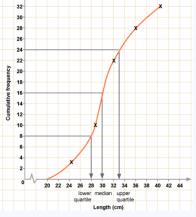
Ensure all comparisons are done IN CONTEXT

### Histograms

Area of bar  $\infty$  Frequency so Area of bar =  $k \times Frequency$ Area does NOT always = Frequency





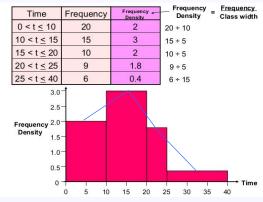


Plot points at the upper limits of group boundaries

Ensure it makes sense to extrapolate the curve at the beginning

Be careful of questions that ask "How many are more than..."

### HISTOCRAMS



Histograms are used to represent grouped continuous data Area of bar =  $k \times frequency$ frequency If k = 1, then frequency density class width

You may need to find the areas of parts of bars if questions don't use the class boundaries.

Joining the middle of the tops of each bar in a histogram forms a frequency polygon

# **CORRELATION & REGRESSION**

# KEY WORDS & DEFINITIONS

I. Correlation A description of the linear relationship between two variables. 2. Bivariate data Pairs of values for two variables 3 Causal relationship Where a change in a variable causes a change in another. Not always true. 4 Least squares regression line A type of line of best fit which is a straight line in the form y = a + bx5 'b' of a regression line The gradient of the line; indicating positive correlation if it is positive and negative correlation if it is negative. 6 Independent or Explanatory variable The variable which occurs regardless of the other variable (e.g. time passing). Plotted on the x axis. 7 Dependent or Response variable The variable whose value depends on the independent variable's data points. 8 Interpolation Estimating a value within the range of the data. Reliable. 9 Extrapolation Estimating a value outside of the range of the data. NOT reliable. **IO Product Moment Correlation Coefficient** A measure of the strength and type of correlation.

# WHAT DO I NEED TO KNOW

Interpreting 'b' of a regression line: Refer to the change in the variable y for each unit change of the variable x  $\underline{IN CONTEXT}$ 

PMCC, r is the PMCC for a population sample

PMCC,  ${\ensuremath{\rho}}$  is the PMCC for the entire population

Range of PMCC, r:  $-1 \le r \le 1$ 

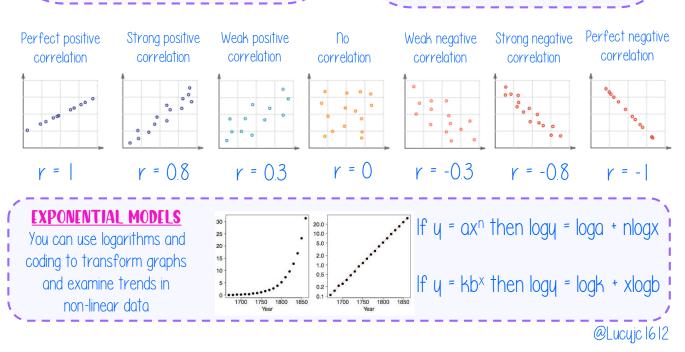
Hypotheses for one tailed test on PMCC: H\_0:  $\rho = 0$ H\_0:  $\rho > 0$  or H\_0:  $\rho < 0$ 

Hypotheses for two tailed test on PMCC: H<sub>0</sub>:  $\rho = 0$ H<sub>1</sub>:  $\rho \neq 0$ 

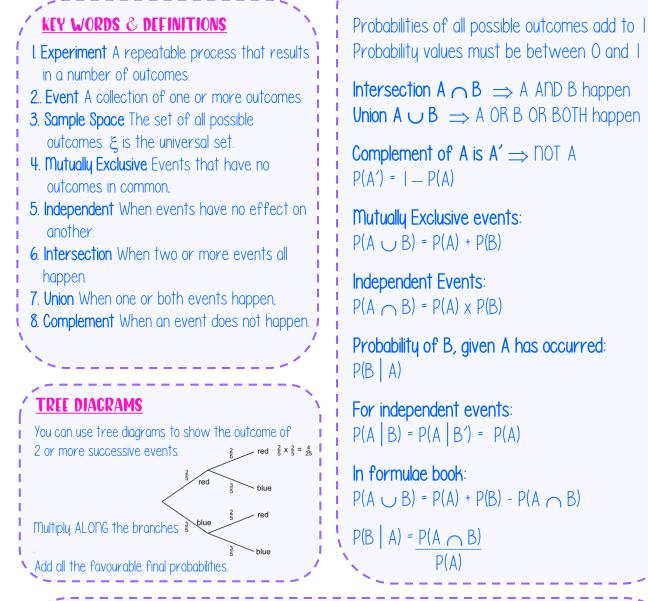
Check <u>sample size</u> is big enough to draw a valid conclusion and comment on it if not.

A regression line is only a <u>valid</u> model when the data shows linear correlation.

Only make <u>predictions</u> for the dependent variable using the regression line of y on x <u>within</u> the range of the original data



# PROBABILITY

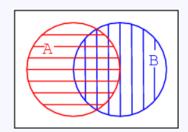


# VENN DIACRAMS

Venn diagrams can be used to show either probabilities or the number of outcomes. n(A) is the number of outcomes while P(A) is the probability of an outcome e.g. n(Aces) = 4 P(Ace) = 4/52

Use cross hatch shading to help you work out probabilities.

Focus on one condition at a time, ignoring the other condition completely when you shade.



If P(A) = // and  $P(B) = \backslash \land$   $P(A \cap B) = #$  $P(A \cup B) = // + \backslash \land + #$ 

WHAT DO I NEED TO KNOW

# STATISTICAL DISTRIBUTIONS

# KEY WORDS & DEFINITIONS

I Random variable A variable whose outcome depends on a random event.2 Sample space The range of values a variable can take.

**3 Discrete variable** A variable that can only take specific values.

4 Probability Distribution A full description of the probability of all possible outcomes in a sample space.
5 Uniform distribution When the probabilities in a distribution are all equal.

**6 Binomial Distribution** A distribution where the random variable, X, represents the number of successful trials in an experiment.

7 Cumulative probability distribution The sum of probabilities up to and including the given value.

# **BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION**

#### Conditions for a binomial distribution B(n, p)

- Only two possible outcomes (success/failure)
- Fixed number of trials, n
- Fixed probability of success, p
- Trials are independent of each other

Probability mass function of a Binomial distribution

$$p(X = r) = \binom{n}{r} p^r (1 - p)^{n - r}$$

#### Binomial Cumulative Probability Function

The sum of all the individual probabilities up to and including the given value of x in the calculation for P( X  $\leq$  x )

| These values can be found in the tables or on a calculato | These | values | can b | e four | nd in 1 | the | tables | Oľ | on | Q | calculato |
|---|-------|--------|-------|--------|---------|-----|--------|----|----|---|-----------|
|---|-------|--------|-------|--------|---------|-----|--------|----|----|---|-----------|

| Phrase         | Means     | Calculation      |
|----------------|-----------|------------------|
| Greater than 5 | X > 5     | $I - P(X \le 5)$ |
| No more than 3 | $X \le 3$ | $P(X \le 3)$     |
| At least 7     | $X \ge 7$ | $I - P(X \le 6)$ |
| Fewer than 10  | X < 10    | $P(X \le 9)$     |
| At most 8      | $X \le 8$ | $P(X \le 8)$     |

# WHAT DO I NEED TO KNOW

Probabilities of all possible outcomes add to I  $\sum P(X = x) = 1$  for all x

Probability distributions can be described in different ways. E.g. if X = the score when a fair die is rolled

Table:

| X      | I             | 2             | 3             | 4             | 5             | 6             |
|--------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| P(X=x) | $\frac{1}{6}$ | $\frac{1}{6}$ | $\frac{1}{6}$ | $\frac{1}{6}$ | $\frac{1}{6}$ | $\frac{1}{6}$ |



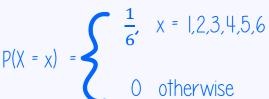


Diagram:

P(X = x)

 $\frac{1}{6}$ 



2

3

5

4

6

Casio fx-991 EX: Menu 7 — Binomial CD or Binomial PD

Casio CG50:

Menu 2 - F5 Dist - F5 Binomial - Bpd or Bcd

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# HYPOTHESIS TESTING

# <u>KEY WORDS & DEFINITIONS</u>

### I Hypothesis Test

A process that considers the probability of an observed (or calculated) value occurring.

# 2 Null Hypothesis, H<sub>0</sub>

The hypothesis about the parameter that is assumed to be correct.

# 3 Alternative Hypothesis, $H_{\rm I}$

The hypothesis about the parameter if the assumption is not correct. **4 Test Statistic** 

The result of an experiment, or the value calculated from a sample. 5 One-tailed Test

A hypothesis test that involves the alternative hypothesis describing the parameter as being less than or greater than the null hypothesis value.

# 6 Two-tailed test

A hypothesis test that involves the alternative hypothesis describing the parameter as taking any value that is not the null hypothesis value.

### 7 Critical Region

The region of the probability distribution where the test statistic value would result in the null hypothesis being rejected.

# 8 Critical value

The first value of the test statistic that could fall in the critical region. 9 Significance Level

The total probability of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis.

# WHAT DO I NEED TO KNOW

To carry out a Hypothesis Test, assume  $H_0$  is true, then consider how likely the observed value of the test statistic was to occur. Remember we need it to be **even more unlikely** than the significance level in order to be 'significant' and to reject  $H_0$ .

If the test is two-tailed there are two critical regions, one at each end of the distribution. We therefore need to halve the significance level at the end we are testing.

If the test statistic is X  $\sim$  B ( n , p ) then the expected outcome is np

If the observed value lies in critical region we say there is sufficient evidence to reject  ${\rm H}_0$  and conclude that  ${\rm H}_1$  is correct.

If observed value is not in critical region we say there is insufficient evidence to reject  $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{0}}$ 

ALWAYS add a final line in your conclusion in the context of the question

Beware of questions that say 'The probability in the tail should be as close as possible to the significance level'. In these cases we may choose a value that is actually *slightly* more likely than the significance level.

# THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION,

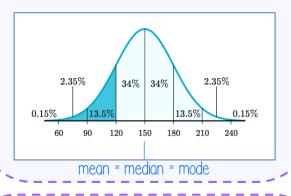
# KEY WORDS & DEFINITIONS

# The Normal Distribution

A continuous probability distribution that can be used to model variables that are more likely to be grouped around a central value than at extremities.

# THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION CURVE

Symmetrically bell-shaped, with asymptotes at each end. 68% percent of data is within one s.d. of  $\mu$ 95% percent of data is within two s.d. of  $\mu$ 99.7% percent of data is within three s.d. of  $\mu$ 



# THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION TABLE

To find z-values that correspond to given probabilities, i.e. P(Z > z) = p use this table:

| р      | Z      | р      | Z      |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 0.5000 | 0.0000 | 0.0500 | 1.6449 |
| 0.4000 | 0.2533 | 0.0250 | 1.9600 |
| 0.3000 | 0.5244 | 0.0100 | 2.3263 |
| 0.2000 | 0.8416 | 0.0050 | 2.5758 |
| 0.1500 | 1.0364 | 0.0010 | 3.0902 |
| 0.1000 | 1.2816 | 0.0005 | 3.2905 |

# CALCULATORS FOR NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

Casio fx-991EX:

 ${\rm Menu} \,\, 7 - {\rm Normal} \,\, {\rm PD}, \, {\rm Normal} \,\, {\rm CD} \,\, {\rm or} \,\, {\rm Inverse} \,\, {\rm Normal}$ 

### Casio CG50:

Menu 2 - F5 Dist — F1 Normal — Npd, Ncd or InvN

Choose extremely large or small values for upper or lower limits as appropriate

# WHAT DO I NEED TO KNOW

I. The area under a continuous probability distribution curve = 1

2. If X is a normally distributed random variable, with population mean,  $\mu$ , and population variance,  $\sigma^2$  we say X ~ N(  $\mu$  ,  $\sigma^2$  )

3. To find an unknown value that is a limit for a given probability value, use the inverse normal distribution function on the calculator.

4. The notation of the standard normal variable Z is Z  $\sim$  N( 0, 1  $^2$  )

5. The formula to standardise X is  $z = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$ 

6. The notation for the probability P(Z < a) is  $\varphi(a)$ 

7. To find an unknown mean or standard deviation use coding and the standard normal variable, Z.

8. Conditions for a Binomial distribution to be approximated by a Normal distribution: n must be large p must be close to 0.5

9. The mean calculated from an approximated Binomial distribution is  $\mu$  = np

10. The variance calculated from an approximated Binomial distribution is  $\sigma^2 = np(1-p)$ 

11. Apply a continuity correction when calculating probabilities from an approximated Binomial distribution using limits so that the integers are completely included or excluded, as required.

12. The mean of a sample from normally distributed population, is distributed as:

$$\overline{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$
 then  $Z = \frac{X-\mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$ 

I3. Skewed data is NOT 'Normal' Negatively skewed Normal (ino skew) Positively skewed Mean Median Mode Median Mode Median

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