# 7 More One-Sample Confidence Intervals and Tests, Part 1 of 2

We already have a Z confidence interval (§5) and a Z test (§6) for an unknown mean  $\mu$  for when we know  $\sigma$  and have a normal population or large n. In this unit we study:

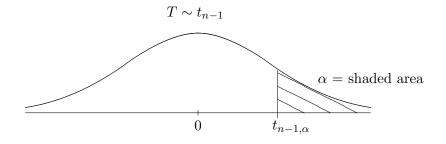
- the *Student's*  $t_{n-1}$  distribution of  $T = \frac{\bar{X} \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$ , useful with \_\_\_\_\_\_ (compare T to  $Z = \frac{\bar{X} \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ ); and a T CI and test for  $\mu$  for a normal population or large n and an unknown  $\sigma$
- the relationship between a two-sided confidence interval and a \_\_\_\_\_
- $power = P(reject H_0|_)$
- a *bootstrap* CI and test for  $\mu$  requiring only a simple random sample
- a sign test for an unknown \_\_\_\_\_\_ M requiring only a simple random sample
- a Z CI and test for an unknown proportion  $\pi$
- extra examples (if time allows)

#### The Student's t Distribution

Now suppose we have a normal  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$  are interested in  $\mu$  but don't know  $\sigma$ . Define the random variable  $T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$ . T's distribution isn't normal; it's the *Student's t distribution with* n-1 degrees of freedom, denoted  $t_{n-1}$ . ("Student" is a pseudonym for William Gosset, a statistician at .)

- Properties of  $T \sim t_{n-1}$ :
  - T is a sample version of a \_\_\_\_\_\_, estimating how far  $\bar{X}$  is from \_\_\_\_\_\_, in \_\_\_\_\_
  - $-t_{n-1}$  looks like N(0,1): symmetric about \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_-peaked, and \_\_\_\_\_-shaped
  - *T*'s variance is \_\_\_\_\_\_ than *Z*'s because estimating  $\sigma$  (\_\_\_\_\_) by *S* (\_\_\_\_\_) gives *T* more variation than *Z*:  $t_{n-1}$  is shorter with thicker tails (draw N(0, 1) and  $t_{6-1}$ )
  - As *n* increases,  $t_{n-1}$  gets closer to \_\_\_\_\_\_ (S becomes a \_\_\_\_\_\_ of  $\sigma$ ); in the limit as  $n \to \infty$ , they're \_\_\_\_\_\_
- t table:

Let  $t_{n-1,\alpha}$  = the critical value t cutting off a \_\_\_\_\_\_ area of  $\alpha$  from  $t_{n-1}$  (draw). The posted Student's t table gives \_\_\_\_\_\_ tail probabilities.



e.g. Use the t table to find the critical value t

- cutting off a right tail area of .05 from the  $t_{6-1}$  distribution:  $t_{5,.05} =$
- such that the area under the  $t_{22-1}$  curve between -t and t is 98%
- such that the area under the  $t_{25-1}$  curve left of t is .025

#### Confidence interval using the Student's t distribution

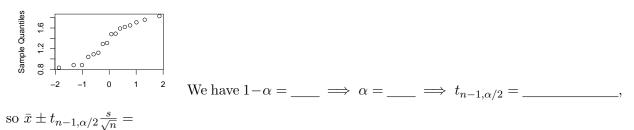
Theorem:

If  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is a simple random sample, from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  or where *n* is large (say n > 30), then  $\bar{X} \pm t_{n-1,\alpha/2} \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$  contains  $\mu$  for a proportion  $1 - \alpha$  of random samples.

Proof:

e.g. Recall §5 example with a warehouse of thousands of painted engine blocks; a random 16 have paint thickness measured, with  $\bar{x} = 1.348$  and s = .339. Make a 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$ , the unknown population mean thickness (supposing now we don't know  $\sigma$ ).

n =; Is *n* large enough or is sample from normal population? Try qqnorm(paint):



With what probability does our interval contain  $\mu$ ?

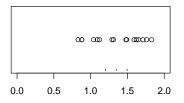
e.g. In a sample of 100 boxes of a certain type, the average compressive strength was 6230 N, and the standard deviation was 221 N.

a. Find a 95% confidence interval for the mean compressive strength.

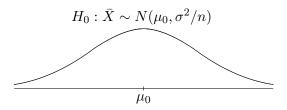
b. Find a 99% confidence interval for the mean compressive strength.

#### Hypothesis test using the Student's t distribution

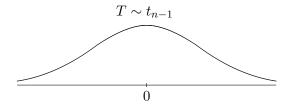
Now suppose an engine design specification says the paint thickness should be 1.50 mil. We want to know whether the device is off this mark on average, so that it should be re-calibrated to correct its population mean thickness,  $\mu$ . We test  $H_0$ : \_\_\_\_\_\_ vs.  $H_A$ : \_\_\_\_\_.



If the population is normal or n is large enough that the CLT applies, and if  $H_0$  is true, then  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu_0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})(\approx)$ , where  $\mu_0$  is the value of  $\mu$  under \_\_\_\_\_



That means 
$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$$



Values of  $\bar{X}$  far from  $\mu_0$  (in \_\_\_\_\_\_), or equivalently, values of t far from \_\_\_\_\_\_), or equivalently, values of t far from \_\_\_\_\_\_)

Let's use significance level  $\alpha = .05$ . We have three options for completing the test.

• Find the rejection region corresponding to a chosen significance level  $\alpha = P(\text{type I error}) = \frac{1}{(\text{draw})}$ . This region is  $T < -t_{n-1,\alpha/2}$  or  $T > t_{n-1,\alpha/2}$  (draw). Compute t and reject  $H_0$  if it is in the region.

For the paint, we have n = 16, so we need  $t_{16-1,0.025} =$ \_\_\_\_\_. Our rejection region is \_\_\_\_\_. Our observed t is  $t_{obs} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} =$ \_\_\_\_\_\_

Conclusion:

• Compute the p-value and compare it to  $\alpha$ .

We have  $t_{obs} = -1.796$ , so our p-value is (draw)

p-value =  $P(T \text{ is as extreme or more extreme than } t_{obs}|H_0 \text{ is true}) = \_$ 

- from the *t* table, \_\_\_\_\_, or

- from R, use 2 \* pt(q = -1.796, df=15) = \_\_\_\_\_

Conclusion:

• Compute a confidence interval and check whether  $\mu_0$  is in it (below).

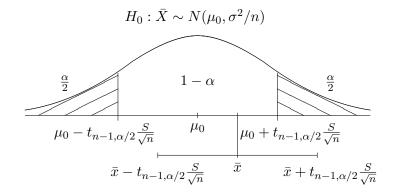
 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Suppose } X_1, \cdots, X_n \text{ is a simple random sample from } N(\mu, \sigma^2) \text{ or } n \text{ is large.} \\ \bullet \text{ To test that } \mu \text{ has a specified value, } H_0: \mu = \mu_0, \\ 1. \text{ State null and alternative hypotheses, } H_0 \text{ and } H_A \\ 2. \text{ Check assumptions} \\ 3. \text{ Find the test statistic, } T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S/\sqrt{n}} \\ 4. \text{ Find the } p\text{-value, which is an area under } t_{n-1} \text{ depending on } H_A: \\ H_A: \mu > \mu_0 \implies p\text{-value} = P(T > t), \text{ the area right of } t \text{ (where } T \sim t_{n-1}) \\ H_A: \mu < \mu_0 \implies p\text{-value} = P(T < t), \text{ the area left of } t \\ H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0 \implies p\text{-value} = P(T < -|t|) + P(T > |t|), \text{ the sum of areas } \\ \text{ left of } -|t| \text{ and right of } |t| \\ 5. \text{ Draw a conclusion: } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} p\text{-value} \leq \alpha \text{ (where } \alpha \text{ is the level, .05 by default)} \implies \text{ reject } H_0 \\ p\text{-value} > \alpha \implies \text{ retain } H_0 \text{ as plausible} \end{array} \right. \\ \bullet \text{ A (100\%)(1 - \alpha) confidence interval for } \mu \text{ is } \bar{X} \pm t_{n-1,\alpha/2} \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}. \end{array} \right.$ 

## The relationship between a two-sided test and a confidence interval

Recall our 95% CI for  $\mu_{\text{paint}}$ ,  $\bar{x} \pm t_{n-1,\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \approx 1.348 \pm .181 = (1.167, 1.529)$ . A CI is a range of for  $\mu$  in light of the data. Our interval contains  $\mu_0 = 1.5$ , so  $H_0: \mu = 1.5$  is \_\_\_\_\_\_, and we would \_\_\_\_\_\_  $H_0$ . More generally, these two statements are equivalent:

- A level- $\alpha$  test of  $H_0$ :  $\mu = \mu_0$  vs.  $H_A$ :  $\mu \neq \mu_0$  \_\_\_\_\_  $H_0$  (because it's \_\_\_\_\_ that  $\mu = \mu_0$ , in light of the sample mean  $\bar{x}$ ).
- $\mu_0$  falls \_\_\_\_\_\_ a 1  $\alpha$  confidence interval for  $\mu$  (a range of \_\_\_\_\_\_ values for  $\mu$ , in light of the sample mean  $\bar{x}$ ).

Here's a picture from §5 (well, I added " $H_0$ :", changed  $\mu$  to  $\mu_0$ ,  $\sigma$  to S, and  $z_{\alpha/2}$  to  $t_{n-1,\alpha/2}$ ):



On the other hand, for an  $\bar{x}$  in the tails, we \_\_\_\_\_  $H_0$  and  $\mu_0$  would be \_\_\_\_\_ the CI.

- e.g. Two-sided CI vs. test
  - 1. A researcher interested in the aluminum recycling market collects 20 cans that he regards as a simple random sample from the local population of cans. He finds a 99% confidence interval for  $\mu$ , the population mean weight of cans, as  $14.2 \pm .04$  g.

(a) What decision should he make about  $H_0: \mu = 14.3$  vs.  $H_A: \mu \neq 14.3$  at level  $\alpha = .01$ ?

(b) What decision should he make about  $H_0: \mu = 14.22$  vs.  $H_A: \mu \neq 14.22$  at level  $\alpha = .01$ ?

- 2. The P-value for a two-sided test of  $H_0: \mu = 10$  vs.  $H_A: \mu \neq 10$  is 0.06.
  - (a) Does the 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  include 10? Why?

(b) Does the 90% confidence interval for  $\mu$  include 10? Why?

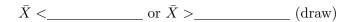
#### Power (for the known- $\sigma$ case)

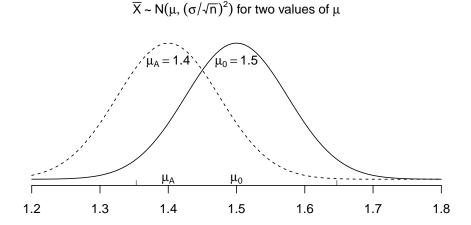
Recall:

- $\beta = P(\text{type } \_ \text{error}) = P(\text{do not reject } H_0 | H_0 \text{ is false})$
- power =  $1 \beta = P$ (reject  $H_0 | H_0$  is false)

Neither is well-defined until we choose a particular value, \_\_\_\_\_, in the region specified by  $H_A$ . e.g. For the paint test of  $H_0: \mu = 1.5$  vs.  $H_A: \mu \neq 1.5$ , suppose we know  $\sigma_{\text{paint thickness}} = 0.30$  mil. Find power<sub> $\mu_A=1.4$ </sub>.

1. Use  $H_0: \mu = 1.5$  and  $\alpha = .05$  to find the rejection region: By unstandardizing from  $Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ , find the equivalent rejection region in  $\bar{X}$  as





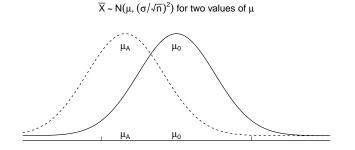
2. Now use the particular  $H_A$  value  $\mu_A$  to find power<sub> $\mu_A=1.4$ </sub> = \_\_\_\_\_

This power is \_\_\_\_\_: if the true mean were  $\mu = 1.4$ , we would probably \_\_\_\_\_  $H_0$  based on a sample of size 16, even though  $H_0$  is \_\_\_\_\_. To increase power,

- \_\_\_\_\_  $|\mu_0 \mu_A|$
- \_\_\_\_\_ the type-I error rate,  $\alpha$
- \_\_\_\_\_ the sample size, n
- \_\_\_\_\_ the population standard deviation,  $\sigma$

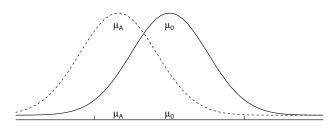
Here we find formulas to do similar power calculations more generally.

• For a one-sided test,  $H_A: \mu < \mu_0$  (or  $H_A: \mu > \mu_0$ ), power = \_\_\_\_\_



• For a two-sided test,  $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$  power = \_\_\_\_\_

 $\overline{X} \sim N(\mu, (\sigma/\sqrt{n})^2)$  for two values of  $\mu$ 

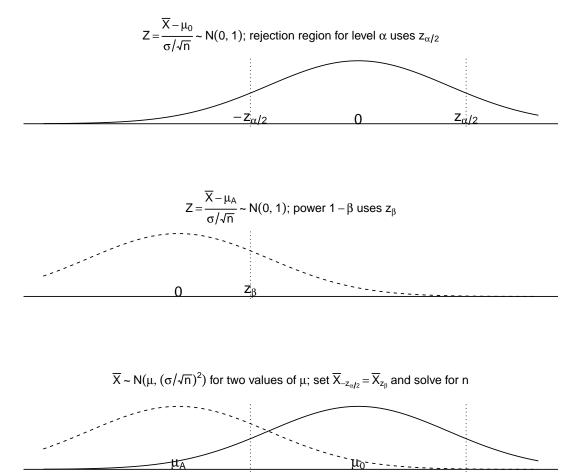


Power of a test of  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  when  $H_0$  is false because  $\mu = \mu_A$ : • For a one-sided test,  $H_A: \mu < \mu_0$  or  $H_A: \mu > \mu_0$ , power $_{\mu_A} = P\left(Z < \frac{|\mu_0 - \mu_A|}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} - z_\alpha\right)$ . • For a two-sided test,  $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$ , power $_{\mu_A} \approx P\left(Z < \frac{|\mu_0 - \mu_A|}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} - z_{\alpha/2}\right)$ .

e.g. Check that the formula gives the same power for the paint test as we found earlier.

#### Power and sample size

Now we find the sample size n required to achieve power  $1 - \beta$  to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha$  when a particular  $H_A$  is true:



For a test of  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  vs.  $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$  at level  $\alpha$ , the sample size n required to have power  $1 - \beta$  when the true  $\mu$  is  $\mu_A$  is  $n \approx \left(\frac{\sigma(z_{\alpha/2} + z_\beta)}{\mu_0 - \mu_A}\right)^2$ .

e.g. For the paint, suppose  $\sigma = 0.30$  is known, and we seek the sample size *n* required to have power 0.8 to reject  $H_0$  at level  $\alpha = .05$  when the true mean is  $\mu_A = 1.4$ . We need  $n = \_$ 

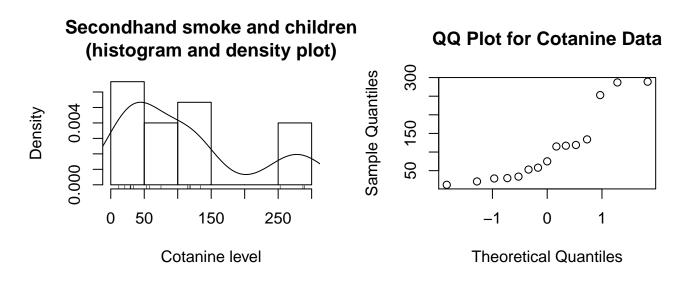
## 7 More One-Sample Confidence Intervals and Tests, Part 2 of 2

#### Bootstrap for a confidence interval or test for $\mu$

So far, our discussion of estimating the population mean  $\mu$  has assumed either the population is normal, so that  $\bar{X}$  is also \_\_\_\_\_\_, or the sample size is \_\_\_\_\_\_ for the CLT to indicate that  $\bar{X}$  is approximately normal. What if neither is true?

e.g. Secondhand smoke presents health risks, especially to children. A SRS was taken of 15 children exposed to secondhand smoke, and the amount of cotanine (a metabolite of nicotine) in their urine was measured. The data were: 29, 30, 53, 75, 34, 21, 12, 58, 117, 119, 115, 134, 253, 289, 287. Are these data strong evidence the mean cotanine is above 75 units in kids exposed to secondhand smoke? (It is below 75 in unexposed kids.)

First, check graphs to see whether an assumption of a normal population is \_\_\_\_\_\_ :



This looks pretty bad, so we worry about a normality assumption. The sample is small, so the CLT may not help. Without a normal  $\bar{X}$ , the quantity

$$T=\frac{\bar{X}-\mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$$

will not have a \_\_\_\_\_ distribution. The *bootstrap* is a sneaky way to estimate the true distribution of this T. It estimates the \_\_\_\_\_ of a statistic by sampling with replacement from a simple random sample from a population. e.g. Here's a hand-waving account ...

To use the bootstrap to make a confidence interval or do a hypothesis test for a mean  $\mu$ ,

- 1. Collect one simple random sample of size n from the population. Compute the sample mean,  $\bar{x}$  (an estimate of the population mean,  $\mu$ ) and the sample standard deviation, s (an estimate of the population standard deviation,  $\sigma$ ).
- 2. Draw a random sample of size n, \_\_\_\_\_\_, from the data. Call these observations  $x_1^*, x_2^*, ..., x_n^*$ . Some data may appear more than once in this resampling, and some not at all.
- 3. Compute the \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_ of the resampled data. Call these  $\bar{x}^*$  and  $s^*$ .
- 4. Compute the statistic  $\hat{t} = \frac{\bar{x}^* \bar{x}}{s^* / \sqrt{n}}$
- 5. Repeat steps 2-4 a large number of times, accumulating many  $\hat{t}$ 's. They approximate the (unknown) sampling distribution of  $T = \frac{\bar{X} \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$ .
- 6. To find a  $(100\%)(1-\alpha)$  confidence interval for  $\mu$ , find the  $1-\alpha/2$  and  $\alpha/2$  upper critical values of the approximate sampling distribution, calling them  $\hat{t}_{(1-\alpha/2)}$  and  $\hat{t}_{(\alpha/2)}$ . The bootstrap  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval is  $\left(\bar{x}-\hat{t}_{(\alpha/2)}\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x}-\hat{t}_{(1-\alpha/2)}\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ .
- 7. To test  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ , compute  $t_{obs} = \frac{\bar{x} \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$ . Find the *p*-value, an area under the approximate sampling distribution density curve given by \_\_\_\_\_\_, where *m* depends on  $H_A$ :

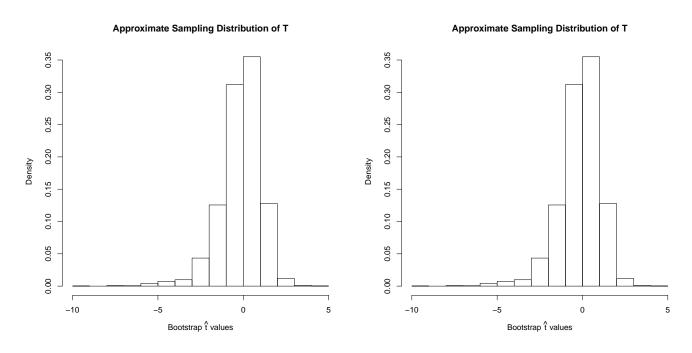
 $H_A: \mu > \mu_0 \implies m$  is the number of values of  $\hat{t}$  for which  $\hat{t}$ \_\_\_\_\_tobs

 $H_A: \mu < \mu_0 \implies m$  is the number of values of  $\hat{t}$  for which  $\hat{t} < t_{obs}$ 

 $H_A: \mu \_ \mu_0 \implies m$  is the number of values of  $\hat{t}$  for which  $\hat{t} < -|t_{\rm obs}|$  or  $\hat{t} > |t_{\rm obs}|$ 

Draw a conclusion as usual:  $\begin{cases} p-\text{value} \leq \alpha \text{ (where } \alpha \text{ is the level, .05 by default)} \implies \text{reject } H_0 \\ p-\text{value} > \alpha \implies \text{retain } H_0 \text{ as plausible} \end{cases}$ 

e.g. For the second and smoke data, we find  $\bar{x} = 108.4$  and s = 95.6. Bootstrapping 5000 times yields the following approximate distribution of t (draw for interval on left and for test on right):



Unlike a t or normal distribution, this distribution is \_\_\_\_\_\_ symmetric.

#### Make a bootstrap confidence interval for $\mu$ = population mean cotanine in smoky kids

The upper critical values, from R, are  $\hat{t}_{(1-\alpha/2)} = -3.56$  and  $\hat{t}_{\alpha/2} = 1.86$  (draw, above left), so the interval is

$$\left(108.4 - (\underline{\qquad})\frac{95.6}{\sqrt{15}}, 108.4 - (\underline{\qquad})\frac{95.6}{\sqrt{15}}\right) \approx (62.5, 196.3).$$

This interval is not symmetric about  $\bar{x}$ . It would \_\_\_\_\_\_ on bootstrapping again.

#### Run a bootstrap test for $\mu$

We wish to know whether  $\mu$  is greater than 75, so we test  $H_0: \mu = 75$  vs.  $H_A:$  \_\_\_\_\_.

Find  $t_{obs} =$ \_\_\_\_\_.

Draw the p-value, above right.

Here (from R) m = 348 of the bootstrap values were greater than 1.353, so the p-value is \_\_\_\_\_\_, and, at level  $\alpha = .05$ , we would \_\_\_\_\_\_  $H_0$ .

Here is one way to do this bootstrap using R:

```
# Create a new function, bootstrap(x, n.boot), having two inputs:
#
  - x is a data vector
   - n.boot is the desired number of resamples from x
# It returns a vector of n.boot t-hat values.
bootstrap = function(x, n.boot) {
 n = length(x)
 x.bar = mean(x)
 t.hat = numeric(n.boot) # create vector of length n.boot zeros
 for(i in 1:n.boot) {
   x.star = sample(x, size=n, replace=TRUE)
   x.bar.star = mean(x.star)
   s.star = sd(x.star)
   t.hat[i] = (x.bar.star - x.bar) / (s.star / sqrt(n))
 }
 return(t.hat)
}
# Use the bootstrap() function to get an approximate sampling
# distribution of T for the smoke data.
data = c(29, 30, 53, 75, 34, 21, 12, 58, 117, 119, 115, 134, 253, 289, 287)
B = 5000
t.hats = bootstrap(data, B)
# Plot the approximate sampling distribution.
hist(t.hats, freq=FALSE, xlab = "Bootstrap t-hat values",
     main = "Approximate Sampling Distribution of T")
n = length(data) # Get summary statistics.
x.bar = mean(data)
s = sd(data)
cat(sep="", "n=", n, ", x.bar=", x.bar, ", s=", s, "\n")
# Make a CI for mu. First find quantiles for a 95% interval.
t.lower = quantile(t.hats, probs=.025) # This is our t_{1 - alpha.2}.
t.upper = quantile(t.hats, probs=.975) # This is our t_{alpha/2}.
cat(sep="", "t.lower=", t.lower, ", t.upper=", t.upper, "\n")
ci.low = x.bar - t.upper * s / sqrt(n) # This is our lower interval endpoint.
ci.high = x.bar - t.lower * s / sqrt(n) # This is our upper interval endpoint.
cat(sep="", "confidence interval: (", ci.low, ", ", ci.high, ")\n")
# Run a test of H_0: mu = m_0. First find t_{obs}.
mu.0 = 75
t.obs = (x.bar - mu.0) / (s / sqrt(n))
```

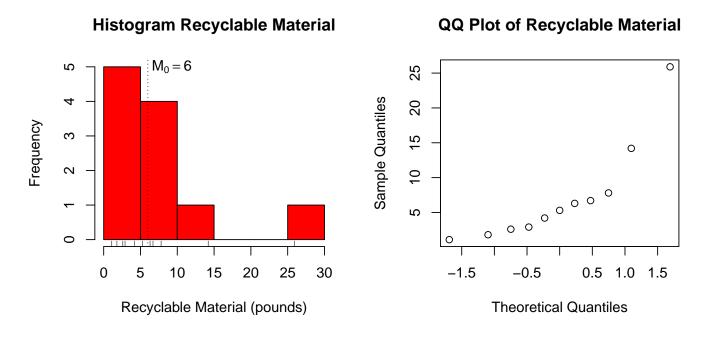
#### Sign test for an unknown median M

If the data do not seem to be from a normal population and the sample size is small, an alternative to the bootstrap is the sign test. It is a test for a \_\_\_\_\_\_. If the population is roughly \_\_\_\_\_\_, the sign test is equivalent to a test for a \_\_\_\_\_\_.

e.g. A city trash department is considering separating recyclables from trash to save landfill space and sell the recyclables. Based on data from other cities, if more than half the city's households produce 6 lbs or more of recyclable material per collection period, the separation will be profitable. A random sample of 11 households yields these data on material per household in pounds:

14.2, 5.3, 2.9, 4.2, 1.8, 6.3, 1.1, 2.6, 6.7, 7.8, 25.9

We start with plotting. Here are a histogram and QQ plot:



Neither plot suggests a normal population: both show \_\_\_\_\_\_. Since we have n = 11, the CLT is \_\_\_\_\_\_, and, in any case, our question is really about a \_\_\_\_\_\_. So, letting M be the population \_\_\_\_\_\_, we test:

$$H_0: M = 6$$
$$H_A: \_$$

We need a test statistic. If  $H_0$  is true, the sample should have about \_\_\_\_\_\_ of the observations greater than 6 and \_\_\_\_\_\_ less than 6. The probability of observing a value greater than 6 in the sample should be \_\_\_\_\_. A natural choice of test statistic is the number, B,

of observations greater than 6. Under  $H_0$ ,  $B \sim$  \_\_\_\_\_\_. (Note: *n* is the number of observations \_\_\_\_\_\_ the null value of the median. If any of the observations were equal to 6, we would \_\_\_\_\_\_.) The value of the test statistic is b = \_\_\_\_\_\_

(Equivalently, this is the number of positive differences from  $M_0$ . These differences are:

 $\_, \_, -3.1, -1.8, -4.2, 0.3, -4.9, -3.4, 0.7, 1.8, \_$ 

Of these differences, \_\_\_\_\_ are positive. The sign test counts the number of "+" signs.)

The p-value is \_\_\_\_\_

R can find this p-value via sum(dbinom(x=5:11, size=11, prob=.5)).

Our conclusion is:

For a two-sided test, find  $P(B \ge b)$  and  $P(B \le b)$  and use \_\_\_\_\_

Summary:

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is a simple random sample from a population with median M. To test that M has a specified value,  $M_0$ ,

- 0. (First discard any data equal to  $M_0$ , reducing *n* accordingly.)
- 1. State null and alternative hypotheses,  $H_0: M = M_0$  and  $H_A$
- 2. Check assumptions
- 3. Find differences from the median,  $X_1 M_0, \ldots, X_n M_0$ , and the test statistic, B = number of positive differences
- 4. Find the *p*-value, which is a probability for  $B \sim Bin(n, .5)$  depending on  $H_A$ :

 $H_A: M > M_0 \implies p\text{-value} = P(B \ge b)$   $H_A: M < M_0 \implies p\text{-value} = P(B \le b)$   $H_A: M \ne M_0 \implies p\text{-value} = \min \{2P(B \le b), 2P(B \ge b), 1\}$ 5. Draw a conclusion:  $\begin{cases} p\text{-value} \le \alpha \text{ (where } \alpha \text{ is the level, } .05 \text{ by default)} \implies \text{ reject } H_0 \\ p\text{-value} > \alpha \implies \text{ retain } H_0 \text{ as plausible} \end{cases}$ 

#### Estimation of an unknown population proportion $\pi$

e.g. An accounting firm has a large list of clients (the population), with an information file on each client. The firm has noticed errors in some files and wishes to know the proportion of files that contain an error. Call the population proportion of files in error  $\pi$ . An SRS of size n = 50 is taken and used to estimate  $\pi$ . Now the firm will decide whether it is worth the cost to examine and fix all the files. Each file sampled was classified as containing an error (call this 1), or not (call this 0). The results are:

Files with an error: 10; files without errors, 40.

To develop an estimator of  $\pi$ , recall the binomial distribution:  $X \sim Bin(n, \pi)$  is the \_\_\_\_\_\_ in \_\_\_\_\_\_ independent trials, each having \_\_\_\_\_\_ possible outcomes (success and failure), and each having probability \_\_\_\_\_\_ of success. We found E(X) =\_\_\_\_\_, VAR(X) =

Our estimator of the population proportion is the sample proportion P = - Here are some of its properties:

- E(P) =
- VAR(P) =

• 
$$SD(P) = \sqrt{\frac{\pi(1-\pi)}{n}}$$

This tells us our estimator P is \_\_\_\_\_ for  $\pi$ , and gives a measure of precision. As in the discussion of  $\overline{X}$ , we can estimate the standard deviation by plugging in our estimator of  $\pi$ :

To make a confidence interval or do a test for  $\pi$ , we need the distribution of P. Its exact distribution is related to the binomial distribution, which is difficult to use in this context. However, the CLT can help. If n is large enough, the conditions of the CLT are met, because  $X = \sum Y_i$  (where  $Y_i$  is a Bernoulli trial, either 0 or 1), so  $P = \frac{X}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum Y_i$  is a \_\_\_\_\_\_. Thus, for large samples, P is approximately \_\_\_\_\_\_ distributed:

$$P \sim N\left(\pi, \left[\sqrt{\frac{\pi(1-\pi)}{n}}\right]^2\right) (\approx)$$

We want to use this distribution to make a confidence interval for  $\pi$  and do a test on  $\pi$ , but we don't know  $\pi$ , so we have to estimate the standard deviation,  $\sqrt{\frac{\pi(1-\pi)}{n}}$ .

For the interval, use the sample proportion P to estimate π, so the standard deviation of P is about S<sub>P</sub> = √(P(1-P))/n . A rule of thumb says we need the numbers of successes and failures, \_\_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, each to be greater than 5 for the CLT approximation to be reasonable. The 100%(1 − α) confidence interval for π is then P ± z<sub>α/2</sub>√(P(1-P))/n . Proof:

e.g. Find a 95% CI for the unknown proportion  $\pi$  of defective files.

• The test comes with a null hypothesis,  $H_0 : \pi = \pi_0$ , so we should use  $\pi_0$  for  $\pi$  in the standard deviation of P and say, if  $H_0$  is true, then  $P \sim N\left(\pi, \left[\sqrt{\frac{\pi_0(1-\pi_0)}{n}}\right]^2\right)$  ( $\approx$ ). A rule of thumb says we need the expected numbers of successes and failures, \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, each to be greater than 5 for the CLT approximation to be reasonable. Standardizing gives  $Z = \frac{P-\pi_0}{\sqrt{\frac{\pi_0(1-\pi_0)}{n}}} \sim N(0,1)$ , which we can use as a test statistic.

e.g. The CEO decides that if  $\pi > .12$ , it will be worthwhile to review and fix every file. Run a test to help the CEO decide.

We test:  $H_0: \pi = (\pi_0 = 0.12)$  vs.  $H_A:$  \_\_\_\_\_.

In our example we have $n\pi_0 =$	and $n(1-\pi_0) =$	·
-----------------------------------	--------------------	---

We observed  $z_{obs} =$  \_\_\_\_\_

Our p-value = \_\_\_\_\_ Our conclusion is Summary:

Let X be the number of successes in a large number n of independent Bernoulli trials, each having probability  $\pi$  of success. Let  $P = \frac{X}{n}$ . • To test that  $\pi$  has a specified value,  $\pi_0$ , where  $n\pi_0 > 5$  and  $n(1 - \pi_0) > 5$ , 1. State null and alternative hypotheses,  $H_0: \pi = \pi_0$  and  $H_A$ 2. Check assumptions 3. Find the test statistic  $Z = \frac{P - \pi_0}{\sqrt{\pi_0(1 - \pi_0)/n}}$ 4. Find the p-value, which depends on  $H_A:$   $H_A: \pi > \pi_0 \implies p$ -value = P(Z > z), the area right of z  $H_A: \pi < \pi_0 \implies p$ -value = P(Z < z), the area left of z  $H_A: \pi \neq \pi_0 \implies p$ -value = P(Z < |z|) + P(Z > |z|), the sum of the ares left of -|z| and right of |z|5. Draw a conclusion:  $\begin{cases} p$ -value  $\leq \alpha$  (where  $\alpha$  is the level, .05 by default) \implies reject H\_0 p-value  $> \alpha \implies$  retain  $H_0$  as plausible • An approximate  $100\%(1 - \alpha)$  confidence interval for  $\pi$  is  $P \pm z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{P(1-P)}{n}}$ , provided X > 5and n - X > 5.

### **Demonstrate that** $P \sim N(\ldots)$

Our CI and test for  $\pi$  relied on the CLT to say  $P = \frac{X}{n} \sim N(\ldots)(\approx)$  because P is a sample mean. X is a sample sum, which is also  $N(\ldots)$ . In particular,  $X \sim \operatorname{Bin}(n, \pi) \approx N(n\pi, n\pi(1-\pi))$ .

Here is a graphical comparison of  $Bin(n, \pi)$  with  $N(n\pi, n\pi(1-pi))$  for n = 20 and several values of  $\pi$  to help with understanding the CLT claim and our rule-of-thumb requiring  $n\pi > 5$  and  $n(1-\pi) > 5$ . (You may ignore the code. I'll run it and discuss it.)

```
n=20
delta.p=.1
for (p in seq(from=delta.p, to=1-delta.p, by=delta.p)) {
   Sys.sleep(3)
   y=dbinom(x=0:n, size=n, prob=p)
   curve(dnorm(x, mean=n*p, sd=sqrt(n*p*(1-p))), 0, n, ylab="",
        main=bquote("n=" * .(n) * ", " * pi * "=" * .(p) *
        ", " * n * pi * "=" * .(n) * ", " * pi * "=" * .(p) *
        ", " * n * pi * "=" * .(n*p) * ", " * n * (1- pi) *
        "=" * .(n*(1-p))))
   segments(x0=0:n, y0=0, y1=y)
}
```

In §8, we compare \_\_\_\_\_ populations via independent samples.

#### Extra examples (if time allows)

## Extra confidence intervals for $\mu$ with known or unknown $\sigma$

The basal diameter of a sea anemone indicates its age. Suppose the population mean  $(\mu)$  and standard deviation  $(\sigma)$  are unknown.

1. Here are the diameters of a simple random sample of 40 anemones: 4.3, 5.7, 3.9, 4.8, 3.5, 3.5, 1.3, 4.6, 4.4, 3.7, 4.9, 5.6, 5.1, 2.3, 2.3, 6.9, 5.4, 3.6, 4.3, 4.1, 3.2, 4.6, 2.8, 4.9, 4.5, 4.4, 5.8, 3.6, 5.6, 2.6, 1.5, 4.1, 4.7, 6.5, 5.4, 3.8, 3.4, 4.9, 5.5, 7.2. These data have  $\bar{x} = 4.33$  and s = 1.329. Find a 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  or explain why you cannot.

2. Here is a simple random sample of 12 anemone diameters: 5.3, 2.8, 5.2, 2.9, 2.5, 2.9, 3.0, 2.9, 5.2, 4.3, 3.7, 2.7. Find a 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  or explain why you cannot.

3. Here is a simple random sample of 12 anemone diameters: 3.5, 6.5, 3.6, 2.8, 4.2, 4.2, 1.8, 5.7, 2.6, 4.7, 4.9, 4.4. Find a 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  or explain why you cannot.

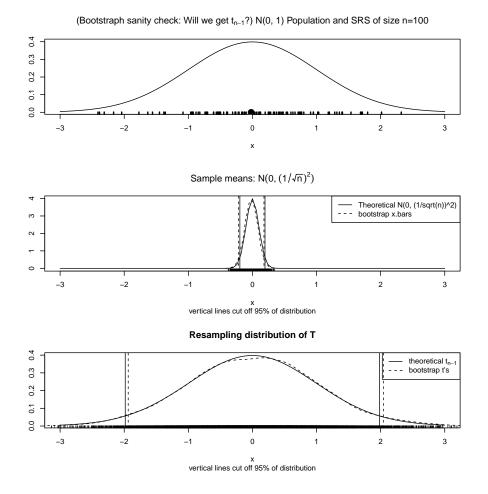
4. (Inference) Now suppose the population mean ( $\mu$ ) is unknown but  $\sigma = 1.4$  cm is known. What changes in the intervals above?

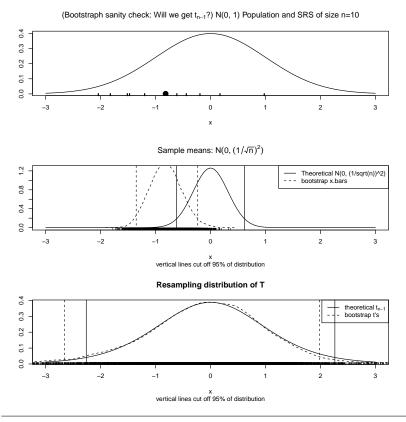
#### Extra bootstrap sanity check

• Bootstrap confidence interval for an unknown mean

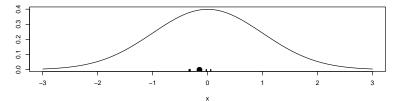
Let's do "sanity check" computer simulations to see whether the bootstrap does something reasonable when we know what to expect. Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is a SRS from  $N(0, 1^2)$ , a normal population. In this case, we know that  $T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$ .

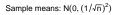
- Do a bootstrap to get an approximate sampling distribution (labeled "bootstrap t's" in the graphs) for T and see whether it looks like  $t_{n-1}$ .
- How do the results depend on n?
  - \* Resampling with replacement from a large sample seems like a good approximation to repeated sampling from the population.
  - \* Resampling with replacement from a small sample seems like a lousy approximation to repeated sampling from the population.

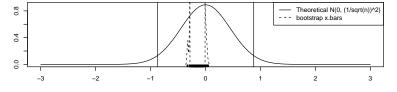


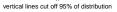


(Bootstraph sanity check: Will we get tn-1?) N(0, 1) Population and SRS of size n=5

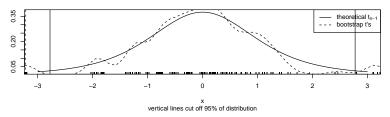












#### Extra sign test for M

e.g. A clinical trial measured survival time in weeks for 10 lymphoma patients as 49, 58, 75, 110, 112, 132, 151, 276, 281, 362+, where "+" indicates a patient still alive at the end of the study. Are these data strong evidence the population median survival time M for lymphoma patients is is different than 200?

## Extra inference for one proportion $\pi$

e.g. Monica learned in first grade that about 71% of Earth's surface is covered in water. To see whether this made sense, she asked her brother to toss her a spinning inflatable globe 100 times. For 66 of her catches, her right pointer finger tip was on water, while for 34 it was on land. Now she's stuck. Help her by finding and interpreting a 99% confidence interval for the proportion of Earth covered by water in light of her data.

e.g. Do children prefer vanilla or chocolate ice cream? To test this, a teacher gave a random sample of 33 students the choice. 24 of 33 chose chocolate, and the other 9 chose vanilla. Use these data to test the hypothesis that, in the population, students have no preference.

Here is a supplement to §7 on hypothesis testing and power. It's p. 10.5 or p. 25 in the §7 notes.

Suppose the engine painter sells engines to General Motors (GM), promising mean thickness  $\mu = 1.5$  for a truckload of engines. GM doesn't want to use the engines if  $\mu = 1.4$  because they will rust too quickly. (GM wants the engines for  $\mu = 1.5$  and for very close values; it doesn't want them for values far from 1.5. This page focuses on the fact that GM doesn't want them if  $\mu = 1.4$ .)

An independent lab measures the paint thickness for a random sample of n of the engines. It tests  $H_0: \mu = 1.5$  vs.  $H_A: \mu \neq 1.5$ . There are four possible outcomes:

	reject $H_0$	do not reject $H_0$
$H_0$ is true because $\mu = \mu_0$	$P(type \ I \ Error) = \alpha$	$P(correct) = 1 - \alpha$
$H_0$ is false because $\mu = \mu_A$	$P(correct) = power_{\mu_A} = (1 - \beta_{\mu_A})$	$P(type II Error) = \beta_{\mu_A}$

- Suppose the engine painter ships a good truckload with  $\mu = 1.5$ .
  - $-\alpha = P(\text{type I error}) = P(\text{reject } H_0 | H_0 \text{ is true})$  is the engine painter's risk, due to an unlucky sample, of having the lab say it's a bad truckload, so the engine painter does not get paid. The engine painter wants  $\alpha$  \_\_\_\_\_\_.
  - $-1 \alpha = P(\text{do not reject } H_0 | H_0 \text{ is true})$  is probability of the lab result matching reality. GM pays for and uses correctly-painted engines.
- Suppose the engine painter ships a bad truckload with  $\mu = 1.4$ .
  - $-\beta_{\mu=1.4} = P(\text{type II error}) = P(\text{do not reject } H_0|H_0 \text{ is false because } \mu = 1.4)$  is GM's risk, due to an unlucky sample, of having the lab say there's no strong evidence the truckload is bad, so GM pays for and uses the bad truckload. GM wants  $\beta_{\mu=1.4}$
  - power<sub> $\mu=1.4$ </sub> = 1  $\beta_{\mu=1.4}$  = P(reject  $H_0|H_0$  is false because  $\mu = 1.4$ ) is the probability of the lab result matching reality. GM does not pay for or use bad engines.
- There is tension between the painter's desire for low  $\alpha$  and GM's desire for low  $\beta$ . A contract could specify a lower  $\alpha$  and a higher  $\beta$  in exchange for GM paying the painter \_\_\_\_\_; or a higher  $\alpha$  and a lower  $\beta$  would require GM to pay the painter \_\_\_\_\_.
- The conflict between  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  can be resolved by increasing the sample size.

$$H_A: \bar{X} \sim N(\mu_A, \sigma^2/n) \qquad H_0: \bar{X} \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma^2/n)$$

