An R Companion to Introduction to Statistical Investigations Preliminary Edition

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Preliminaries

0.0 Getting Started with R and RStudio

R is divided up into packages. A few of these are loaded every time you run R, but most have to be selected. This way you only have as much of R as you need.

In the Packages tab, check the boxes next to the following packages to load them:

- mosaic (a package from Project MOSAIC)
- Tintle1 (data sets)

RStudio provides several ways to create documents that include text, R code, R output, graphics, even mathematical notation all in one document. The simplest of these is R Markdown.

To create a new R Markdown document, go to "File", "New", then "R Markdown."

When you do this, a file editing pane will open with a template inserted. If you click on "Knit HTML", RStudio will turn this into an HTML file and display it for you. Give it a try. You will be asked to name your file if you haven't already done so. If you are using the RStudio server in a browser, then your file will live on the server ("in the cloud") rather than on your computer.

If you look at the template file you will see that the file has two kinds of sections. Some of this file is just normal text (with some extra symbols to make things bold, add in headings, etc.) You can get a list of all of these mark up options by selecting the "Mardown Quick Reference" in the question mark menu.



The second type of section is an R code chunk. These are colored differently to make them easier to see. You can insert a new code chunk by selecting "Insert Chunk" from the "Chunks" menu:



(You can also type ``` $\{r\}$ to begin and ``` to end the code chunk if you would rather type.) You can put any R code in these code chunks and the results (text output or graphics) as well as the R code will be displayed in your HTML file.

There are options to do things like (a) run R code without displaying it, (b) run R code without displaying the output, (c) controlling size of plots, etc., etc. But for starting out, this is really all you need to know.

R Markdown files are self-contained, meaning they do not have access to things you have done in your console. (This is good, else your document would change based on things not in the file.) This means that you must explicitly load data, and require packages *in the R Markdown file* in order to use them. For this text, this means that most of your R Markdown files will have a chunk near the beginning that includes

```
require(mosaic) # load the mosaic package
```

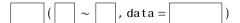
Functions in R use the following syntax:

```
functionname(argument1, argument2, ...)
```

The arguments are always surrounded by (round) parentheses and separated by commas.

Some functions (like data()) have no required arguments, but you still need the parentheses.

Most of what we will do in the subsequent chapters makes use of a single R template:



It is useful if we name the slots in this template:

$$[goal](y \sim x, data = mydata)$$

However, there are some variations on this template:

```
### Simpler version
goal(~x, data = mydata)
### Fancier version:
goal(y ~ x | z, data = mydata)
### Unified version:
goal(formula, data = mydata)
```

To use the template, you just need to know what goes in each slot. This can be determined by asking yourself two questions:

- 1. What do you want R to do?
 - this determines what function to use (goal).
- 2. What must R know to do that?
 - this determines the inputs to the function
 - for describing data, must must identify which data frame and which variable(s).

Further, if you begin a command and hit the TAB key, R will show you a list of possible ways to complete the command. If you hit TAB after the opening parenthesis of a function, it will show you the list of arguments it expects. The up and down arrows can be used to retrieve past commands.

Additional R funcitonality will be introduced as we go along. The mosaic package includes several vignettes with additional information about using the package and using R.

0.1 Introduction to the Six-Step Method

Example P.1: Organ Donations

Now that we've explained a few basics for using R, let's take a look at a data set.

Data sets in R are usually stored as **data frames** in a rectangular arrangement with rows corresponding to **observational units** and columns corresponding to **variables**. A number of data sets are built into R and its packages. The package for our text is **Tintle1** which comes with a number of data sets.

```
require(Tintle1) # tell R to use the package for our textbook
data(OrganDonor) # load the OrganDonor dataset
```

If you want a list of all data sets available to you in loaded packages, use data() without any arguments. If you want to view the entire data set, just typing the name will show the details in the console.

```
data() # list all datasets available in loaded packages
OrganDonor # show entire dataset in console
```

For large data sets, it may be more practical to look at different types of summaries or subsets of the data.

```
head(OrganDonor)
                      # first six cases of the dataset
 default choice
1 opt-in donor
2 opt-in donor
3 opt-in donor
4 opt-in donor
5 opt-in donor
6 opt-in donor
summary(OrganDonor)
                    # summary of each variable
   default
               choice
 opt-in:55 donor:108
 opt-out:50
             not : 53
 neutral:56
```

```
str(OrganDonor)  # structure of the dataset

'data.frame': 161 obs. of 2 variables:
    $ default: Factor w/ 3 levels "opt-in", "opt-out", ...: 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 ...
    $ choice : Factor w/ 2 levels "donor", "not": 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 ...

dim(OrganDonor)  # number of rows and columns

[1] 161    2

nrow(OrganDonor)  # number of rows

[1] 161

ncol(OrganDonor)  # number of columns

[1] 2
```

Now that we have a general sense of how the data is structured, we can take a more detailed look by using the R template. Let's say we want a count of observational units of each variable. We can tally the number by using the tally() function.

```
tally(~choice, data = OrganDonor)

donor not
   108   53

tally(~default, data = OrganDonor)

opt-in opt-out neutral
   55   50   56
```

This didn't really show us any more information than the summary() from above so instead, let's tally the variables together.

```
tally(~choice + default, data = OrganDonor)
       default
choice opt-in opt-out neutral
           23
 donor
                   41
                            44
           32
                     9
                            12
 not
tally(~choice + default, data = OrganDonor, margins = TRUE)
      default
choice opt-in opt-out neutral Total
 donor
           23
                    41
                            44
                                108
            32
                    9
                            12
                                  53
 not
 Total
           55
                    50
                           56
                                 161
```

Notice that the default for tally() was to exclude the total counts of each row and column. You could have used either tab completion or search tally() in the help section to find margins and set margins=TRUE. There will be many instances where you will need to change the default settings of a function.

Moreover, we can change the organization of the variables for a slightly different output:

This may be a little confusing now (proportions will be covered in chapter 2) but let's focus more on the the changed organization of the variables in the tally() function. This version of tallying calculated the proportions (and percentages) of participants who agreed and did not agree to become organ donors (choice) in each of the groups opt-in, opt-out, and neutral (default).

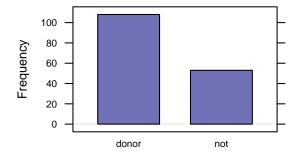
R also has many tools to visualize data. The general syntax for making a graph of one variable in a data frame is

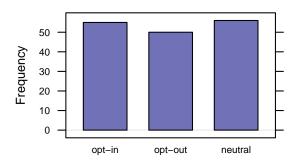
```
plotname(~variable, data = dataName)
```

In other words, there are three pieces of information we must provide to R in order to get the plot we want:

- The kind of plot (histogram(), bargraph(), densityplot(), bwplot(), etc.)
- The name of the variable
- The name of the data frame this variable is a part of.

```
bargraph(~choice, data = OrganDonor)
bargraph(~default, data = OrganDonor)
```

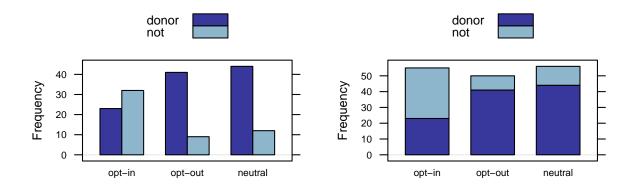




Notice that the bargraph() uses the frequency, or counts.

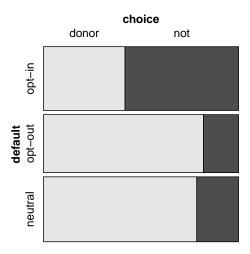
In order to graph the variable default and show what choice each option made, we can utilize the argument groups=.

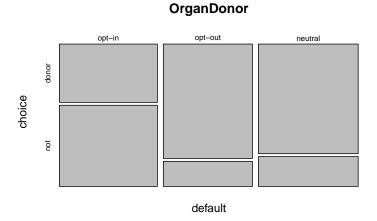
```
bargraph(~default, groups = choice, data = OrganDonor, auto.key = TRUE)
bargraph(~default, groups = choice, data = OrganDonor, auto.key = TRUE, stack = TRUE)
```



Although the bargraph is useful, the y-axis shows counts and not the percentages as in the text. The function mosiac() or mosaicplot() plots the variables relative to each other, in a way that reveals porportions, or percentages.

```
mosaic(choice ~ default, data = OrganDonor)
mosaicplot(default ~ choice, data = OrganDonor)
```





0.2 Exploring Data

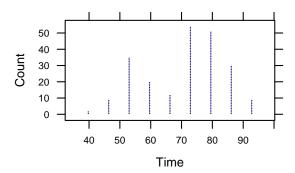
Example P.2: Old Faithful

Everytime you use a new data set, it is beneficial to look at a some key summary statistics.

```
head(0ldFaithful1)
  Time
    55
2
    58
3
   56
    50
    51
    60
summary(OldFaithful1)
     Time
 Min. :42
 1st Qu.:60
 Median :75
 Mean :71
 3rd Qu.:81
 Max. :95
```

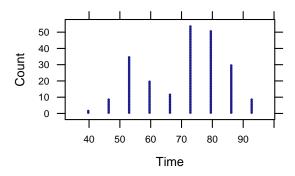
Another useful graph for examining the **shape**, **center**, and **variability** is the **dotplot**:

dotPlot(~Time, data = OldFaithful1)



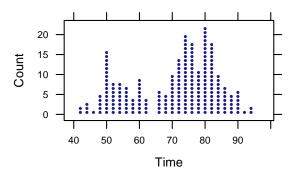
The dots in this plot are a bit small. The defaults for dotPlot() may not be the best way to examine a particular data set. We can increase the size of the dots using the cex argument. (cex stands for "character expansion" and is used to scale up or down the size of plotting characters – in this case the dots.)

dotPlot(~Time, data = OldFaithful1, cex = 2)



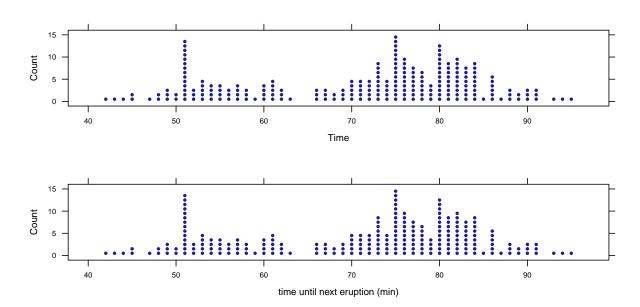
Or we can change the distance between columns of dots

dotPlot(~Time, data = OldFaithful1, width = 2)



Notice that the dots have been automatically resized when we do this.

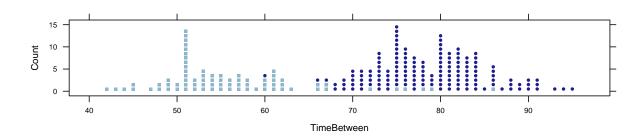
The appropriate choice may depend on the intended size and shape of the plot. The plots below are much wider, allowing us to present a finer view of the data. In the second plot, we have also added a more informative label.



Similar to the bargraph, we can organize the variables a little differently for the dotplot to graph them in relation to one another.

```
head(01dFaithful2)
  EruptionType TimeBetween
         short
                        55
1
2
         short
                        58
3
         short
                        56
4
         short
                        50
5
                        51
         short
6
                        60
         short
summary(OldFaithful2)
 EruptionType TimeBetween
 long :146
              Min. :42
              1st Qu.:60
 short: 76
              Median :75
              Mean :71
              3rd Qu.:81
              Max. :95
```

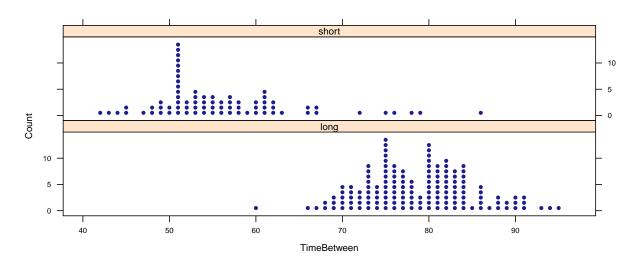
```
dotPlot(~TimeBetween, groups = EruptionType, data = 0ldFaithful2, width = 1)
```



The formula for a lattice plot can be extended to create multiple panels (sometimes called facets) based on a "condition", often given by another variable. This is another way to look at multiple groups simultaneously. The general syntax for this becomes

```
plotname(~variable | condition, data = dataName)
```

```
dotPlot(~TimeBetween | EruptionType, data = OldFaithful2, width = 1, layout = c(1, 2))
```



For more key numerical summaries of the data set, we can use the favestats() for "favorite" statistics.

```
favstats(~TimeBetween, data = OldFaithful2)

min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing
42 60 75 81 95 71.01 12.8 222 0

favstats(TimeBetween ~ EruptionType, data = OldFaithful2)

.group min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing
1 long 60 75 78.5 83.00 95 78.69 6.252 146 0
2 short 42 51 54.0 60.25 86 56.25 8.457 76 0
```

Here are ways to find the mean and the standard deviation separately:

```
mean(~TimeBetween, data = OldFaithful2)

[1] 71.01

sd(~TimeBetween, data = OldFaithful2)

[1] 12.8
```

```
mean(TimeBetween ~ EruptionType, data = OldFaithful2)

long short
78.69 56.25

sd(TimeBetween ~ EruptionType, data = OldFaithful2)

long short
6.252 8.457
```

```
mean(~TimeBetween | EruptionType, data = OldFaithful2)

long short
78.69 56.25

sd(~TimeBetween | EruptionType, data = OldFaithful2)

long short
6.252 8.457
```

0.3 Exploring random Processes

Exploration P.3: Cars or Goats

The mosaic package has a function rflip() that simulates coin tosses. We define arguments n (the number of flips) and prob (the probability of heads).

```
rflip(n = 1, prob = 0.5)
Flipping 1 coin [ Prob(Heads) = 0.5 ] ...

T
Number of Heads: 0 [Proportion Heads: 0]

rflip(n = 5, prob = 0.5)
```

```
Flipping 5 coins [ Prob(Heads) = 0.5 ] ...

T T H H T

Number of Heads: 2 [Proportion Heads: 0.4]
```

Although rflip() simulates coin tosses, where the probability of heads should be 0.5, we can also simulate any **random process** by changing the **probability**.

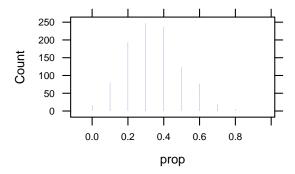
This is equivalent to the playing 15 games (flips), each game having a 1/3 chance of picking the car (heads).

Further, we can repeat each simulation many times by multiplying it by do(). When using do(), you should assign the simulation a name by using an arrow (<-) so that you are creating a new data set with all of the repetitions. In this case, we are naming the simulation GameSims.

```
# 1000 samples, each of size 200 and proportion 1/3
GameSims \leftarrow do(1000) * rflip(n = 10, prob = 1/3)
Loading required package: parallel
head(GameSims)
  n heads tails prop
1 10
      7
           3 0.7
2 10
        4
             6 0.4
3 10
           4 0.6
        6
        3 7 0.3
4 10
5 10
            8 0.2
        2
6 10
             7 0.3
```

Now we can create a dotplot of the proportion of wins but note that because of there are so many observations (1000), we will not be able to see the individual dots.

```
dotPlot(~prop, data = GameSims, width = 0.1)
```

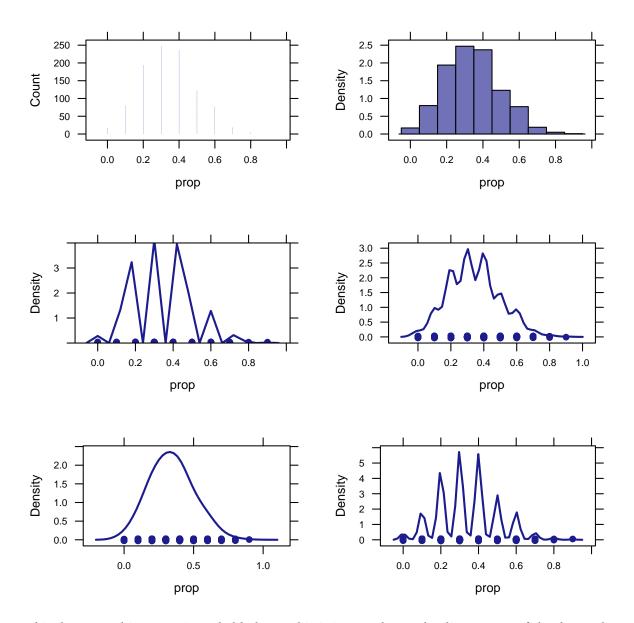


0.4 Other Visualizations

Several other types of plots can be used in place of dot plots to visualize the distribution of a single quantitative variable. The most familiar of these is the histogram, which replaces the dots of a histogram with rectangles and stacks them up touching each other to form bars. If instead we draw lines connecting the tops of each bar in a histogram (and then erase the bars), the result in a frequency polygon. A density plot is a smoother version of this idea.

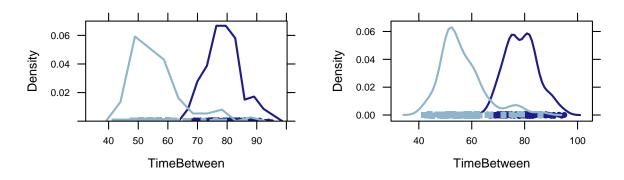
Notice that to create these plots (and various numerical summaries), all we have to change is the name of the R function – all of them follow the same general template.

```
dotPlot(~ prop, data = GameSims, width = 0.1)
 histogram(~ prop, data = GameSims, width = 0.1)
freqpolygon(~prop, data = GameSims, width = 0.1, ylim=c(0,4))
densityplot(~ prop, data = GameSims)
densityplot(~ prop, data = GameSims, adjust=2)
                                               # "smoother"
densityplot(~ prop, data = GameSims, adjust=0.5) # less "smooth"
  favstats(~ prop, data = GameSims)
min Q1 median Q3 max mean
                                 sd
                                        n missing
           0.3 0.4 0.9 0.3416 0.1544 1000
      mean(~ prop, data = GameSims)
[1] 0.3416
        sd(~ prop, data = GameSims)
[1] 0.1544
```



For this data set, a histogram is probably best. This is in part due to the discreteness of the data – there are only 11 possible values for prop.

Compared to dot plots, histograms, frequency polygons, and density plots handle a wider range of data sizes. The "sweet spot" for dot plots is around 100–1000 observations. Also, frequency polygons and density plot have the advantage that they can be overlaid.



(The current version of freqpolygon() is not too clever about choosing the limits for the y-axis – sometimes you need to give it a hand.)

1

Significance: How strong is the evidence?

1.1 Introduction to Chance Models

Example 1.1: Can Dolphins Communicate?

The Chance Model

```
rflip(n = 16, prob = 0.5) # a sequence of 16 coin flips
Flipping 16 coins [ Prob(Heads) = 0.5 ] ...
T H T T T H H T H T T T T

Number of Heads: 6 [Proportion Heads: 0.375]
```

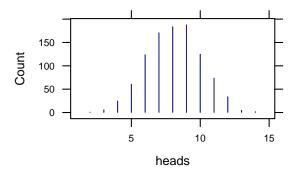
```
rflip(n = 16, prob = 0.5) # another sequence of 16 coin flips
Flipping 16 coins [ Prob(Heads) = 0.5 ] ...
H H T H T H H H H T T T T

Number of Heads: 9 [Proportion Heads: 0.5625]
```

Using and evaluating the coin flip chance model

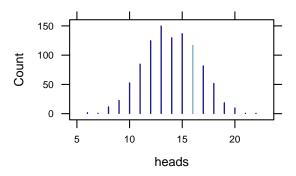
```
sim <- do(1000) * rflip(16, 0.5) # 1000 samples, each of size 16 and proportion 0.5

Loading required package: parallel
```



Another Doris and Buzz study

```
sim2 <- do(1000) * rflip(28, 0.5)
                                                                                                   Figure1.6
Loading required package: parallel
head(sim2, 3)
   n heads tails
                   prop
1 28
        18
              10 0.6429
2 28
         9
              19 0.3214
3 28
        13
              15 0.4643
dotPlot(~heads, data = sim2, width = 1, cex = 3, groups = (heads == 16))
```

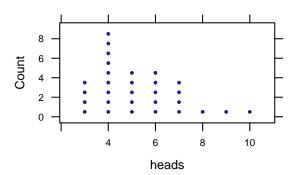


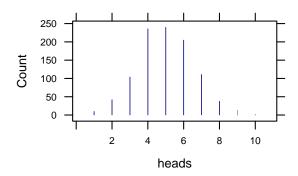
Notice the way we defined groups as (groups = (heads == 16)) in order to differentiate the observations where heads equals 16. The == operator means "are equal to". (We could also have used groups = (heads != 16) and the colors would be reversed.)

Exploration 1.1: Can Dogs Understand Human Cues?

The Chance Model

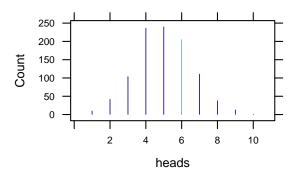
```
Exploration1.1.13
sim.harley \leftarrow do(1) * rflip(10, 0.5)
sim.harley
  n heads tails prop
1 10 8 2 0.8
sim.class <- do(30) * rflip(10, 0.5)
head(sim.class, 3)
  n heads tails prop
      4 6 0.4
1 10
               6 0.4
2 10
         4
3 10
               3 0.7
         7
dotPlot(~heads, data = sim.class, width = 1, cex = 0.5)
```





Another Study

```
dotPlot(~heads, data = sim.harley2, width = 1, cex = 3, groups = (heads == 6))
Exploration1.1.23
```



1.2 Measuring the Strength of Evidence

Example 1.2: Rock Paper Scissors

```
1. H_0: \pi = 1/3

H_a: \pi < 1/3
```

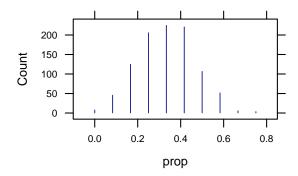
Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.167$ (the sample proportion of 1/6)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 1/3$:

```
sim.sci <- do(1000) * rflip(12, 1/3)
head(sim.sci, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 12    7    5 0.5833
2 12    4    8 0.3333
3 12    3    9 0.2500

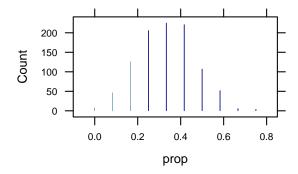
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.sci, width = 1/12, cex = 3)</pre>
```



3. Strength of evidence:

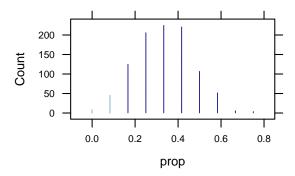
For the **p-value**, you can use the prop() function and input ($prop \le 1/6$) to find the proportion of samples that is less than or equal to the observed proportion in the data set sim.sci.

```
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.sci, cex = 3, width = 1/12, groups = (prop <= 1/6))
prop(~(prop <= 1/6), data = sim.sci)</pre>
TRUE
0.179
```



Conclusions

```
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.sci, cex = 3, width = 1/12, groups = (prop <= 1/12))
prop(~(prop <= 1/12), data = sim.sci)</pre>
TRUE
0.054
```



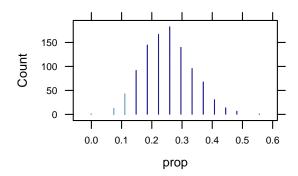
Exploration 1.2: Tasting Water

1. H_0 : $\pi = 1/4$ H_a : $\pi < 1/4$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.111$ (the sample proportion of 3/27)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 1/4$:

```
Exploration1.2.18
sample.tap \leftarrow do(1) * rflip(27, 1/4)
sample.tap
   n heads tails
                   prop
               21 0.2222
         6
sim.tap <- do(1000) * rflip(27, 1/4)
head(sim.tap, 3)
   n heads tails
                    prop
1 27
         4
               23 0.1481
2 27
               22 0.1852
         5
3 27
         10
               17 0.3704
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.tap, width = 1/27, cex = 3, groups = (prop <= 3/27))</pre>
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop <= 3/27), data = sim.tap)

TRUE
0.056</pre>
Exploration1.2.20
```

Alternate Analysis

1. H_0 : $\pi = 3/4$ H_a : $\pi > 3/4$

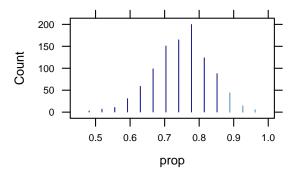
Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.889$ (the sample proportion of 24/27)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 3/4$:

```
sim.bottled <- do(1000) * rflip(27, 3/4)
head(sim.bottled, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 27     21     6 0.7778
2 27     22     5 0.8148
3 27     20     7 0.7407

dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.bottled, width = 1/27, cex = 3, groups = (prop >= 24/27))
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 24/27), data = sim.bottled)

TRUE
0.062
Exploration1.2.26b
```

1.3 Alternative Measure of Strength of Evidence

Example 1.3: Heart Transplant Operations

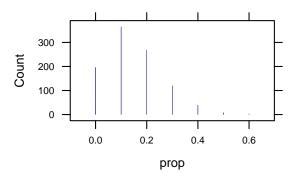
1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.15$

 H_a : $\pi > 0.15$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.80$ (the sample proportion of 8/10)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.15$:

```
Figure1.10
sim.heart <- do(1000) * rflip(10, 0.15)
head(sim.heart, 3)
   n heads tails prop
1 10
              10 0.0
2 10
         1
               9 0.1
                 0.2
3 10
         2
               8
mean(~prop, data = sim.heart)
[1] 0.1477
sd(~prop, data = sim.heart)
[1] 0.1128
favstats(~prop, data = sim.heart)
 min 01 median 03 max
                         mean
                                  sd
                                         n missing
            0.1 0.2 0.6 0.1477 0.1128 1000
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.heart, width = 0.1, cex = 3, groups = (prop >= 8/10))
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 8/10), data = sim.heart)
TRUE
0
```

Digging deeper into the St. George's mortality data

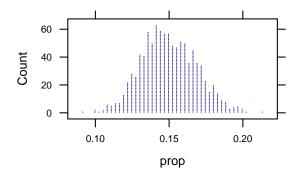
1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.15$

 H_a : $\pi > 0.15$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.197$ (the sample proportion of 71/361)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.15$:

```
Figure1.11
sim.1986 \leftarrow do(1000) * rflip(361, 0.15)
head(sim.1986, 3)
   n heads tails
                    prop
1 361
      39 322 0.1080
2 361
        44 317 0.1219
3 361
         64
            297 0.1773
favstats(~prop, data = sim.1986)
             Q1 median
                            Q3
     min
                                  max
                                                         n missing
                                        mean
                                                   sd
0.09141\ 0.1357\ 0.1496\ 0.1634\ 0.2133\ 0.1498\ 0.01851\ 1000
dotPlot("prop, data = sim.1986, width = 1/361, groups = (prop >= 71/361))
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 71/361), data = sim.1986)
TRUE
0.01
```

An alternative to the p-value: Standardized value of a statistic

R can be used as a calculator so we can compute the **z-score** manually:

```
z <- (71/361 - 0.15) / 0.018; z # z-score for sample size 361

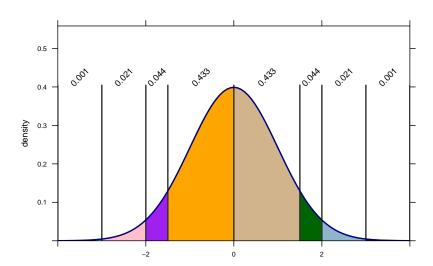
[1] 2.593

z <- (8/10 - 0.15) / 0.113; z # z-score for sample size 10

[1] 5.752
```

A very simple way to calculate the standardized statistic, find the p-value, and plot the bell-shaped curve is with the xpnorm() function. We'll examine xpnorm() in more detail later but for now, we just define a vector of quantiles (z-scores), mean, and sd.

```
Figure1.12
xpnorm(c(-3, -2, -1.5, 0, 1.5, 2, 3), mean = 0, sd = 1)
If X \sim N(0,1), then
P(X \le -3) = P(Z \le -3) = 0.0013
  P(X \le -2) = P(Z \le -2) = 0.0228
  P(X \le -1.5) = P(Z \le -1.5) = 0.0668
 P(X \le 0) = P(Z \le 0) = 0.5
 P(X \le 1.5) = P(Z \le 1.5) = 0.9332
 P(X \le 2) = P(Z \le 2) = 0.9772
  P(X \le 3) = P(Z \le 3) = 0.9987
P(X > -3) = P(Z > -3) = 0.9987
  P(X > -2) = P(Z > -2) = 0.9772
  P(X > -1.5) = P(Z > -1.5) = 0.9332
  P(X > 0) = P(Z > 0) = 0.5
  P(X > 1.5) = P(Z > 1.5) = 0.0668
  P(X > 2) = P(Z > 2) = 0.0228
  P(X > 3) = P(Z > 3) = 0.0013
[1] 0.00135 0.02275 0.06681 0.50000 0.93319 0.97725 0.99865
```



In the example above, we input standardized values. However, we can input non-standardized statistics (observed statistic) with a new mean and sd in order to calculate the z-score.

```
 \begin{array}{c} \textbf{xpnorm}(71/361, \text{ mean = 0.15, sd = 0.018, plot = FALSE}) \\ \\ \textbf{If X} & & \textbf{N}(0.15, 0.018), \text{ then} \\ \\ \textbf{P}(\textbf{X} <= 0.196675900277008) & = \textbf{P}(\textbf{Z} <= 2.593) & = 0.9952 \\ \textbf{P}(\textbf{X} > 0.196675900277008) & = \textbf{P}(\textbf{Z} > 2.593) & = 0.0048 \\ \end{array}
```

```
[1] 0.9952

xpnorm(8/10, mean = 0.15, sd = 0.113, plot = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.15,0.113), then

P(X <= 0.8) = P(Z <= 5.752) = 1
P(X > 0.8) = P(Z > 5.752) = 0
[1] 1
```

We'll ignore the p-values and plots for now and just realize that xpnorm() has computed the z-score for us so that we do not need to manually compute z by using R as a calculator.

Exploration 1.3: Do People Use Facial Prototyping?

1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$ H_a : $\pi > 0.5$

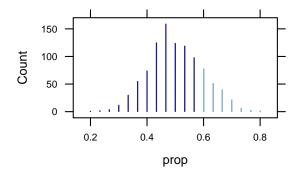
Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.6$ (the sample proportion of 18/30 for a fictitious class)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
sim.tim <- do(1000) * rflip(30, 0.5)
head(sim.tim, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 30    16    14 0.5333
2 30    13    17 0.4333
3 30    14    16 0.4667

dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.tim, width = 1/30, cex = 3, groups = (prop >= 18/30))
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 18/30), data = sim.tim)

TRUE
0.197
Exploration1.3.7b
```

```
mean(~prop, data = sim.tim)

[1] 0.5004

sd <- sd(~prop, data = sim.tim)
sd # assign the standard deviation to sd

[1] 0.0946

z <- (0.6 - 0.5)/sd
z # z-score using the assigned sd

[1] 1.057
```

Again, we can input the observed statistic, mean, and standard deviation to xpnorm() for the standardized statistic:

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{xpnorm}(0.6, \text{ mean = 0.5, sd = sd, plot = FALSE}) \\ \\ \textbf{If X} & N(0.5, 0.094598037975366), \text{ then} \\ \\ P(X <= 0.6) &= P(Z <= 1.057) = 0.8548 \\ P(X > 0.6) &= P(Z > 1.057) = 0.1452 \\ \textbf{[1] 0.8548} \\ \end{array}
```

1.4 What Impacts Strength of Evidence?

Example 1.4: Predicting Elections from Faces?

```
1. H_0: \pi=0.5 H_a: \pi>0.5 Test statistic: \hat{p}=0.719 (the sample proportion of 23/32)
```

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

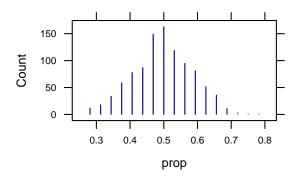
```
sim.senate <- do(1000) * rflip(32, 0.5)
head(sim.senate, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 32    19    13 0.5938
2 32    15    17 0.4688
3 32    15    17 0.4688

favstats(~prop, data = sim.senate)</pre>
Figure1.14
```

```
min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing
0.2812 0.4375  0.5 0.5625 0.7812 0.4968 0.08796 1000  0

dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.senate, groups = (prop >= 23/32), width = 1/32, cex = 3)
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 23/32), data = sim.senate)

TRUE
0.006
```

Strength of evidence with the standardized statistic:

```
mean(~prop, data = sim.senate)

[1] 0.4968

sd <- sd(~prop, data = sim.senate)
sd

[1] 0.08796

xpnorm(23/32, 0.5, sd, plot = FALSE)

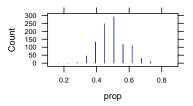
If X ~ N(0.5,0.0879625447806297), then

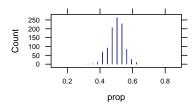
P(X <= 0.71875) = P(Z <= 2.487) = 0.9936
P(X > 0.71875) = P(Z > 2.487) = 0.0064
[1] 0.9936
```

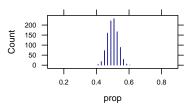
What impacts strength of evidence?

```
senate.32 <- do(1000) * rflip(32, 0.5)
dotPlot(~prop, data = senate.32, xlim = c(0.1, 0.9), cex = 5)
senate.128 <- do(1000) * rflip(128, 0.5)</pre>
```

```
dotPlot(~prop, data = senate.128, xlim = c(0.1, 0.9), cex = 5)
senate.256 <- do(1000) * rflip(256, 0.5)
dotPlot(~prop, data = senate.256, xlim = c(0.1, 0.9), cex = 5)</pre>
```







```
sd(~prop, data = senate.32)

[1] 0.08524

sd(~prop, data = senate.128)

[1] 0.04626

sd(~prop, data = senate.256)
```

```
prop(~(prop >= 23/32), data = senate.32)

TRUE
0.01

prop(~(prop >= 23/32), data = senate.128)

TRUE
0

prop(~(prop >= 23/32), data = senate.256)

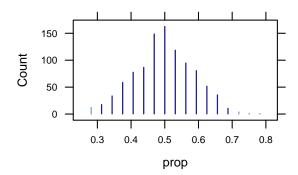
TRUE
0
```

1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$ H_a : $\pi \neq 0.5$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.719$ (the sample proportion of 23/32)

2. We use the simulated world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
dotPlot(~ prop, data = sim.senate, groups = (prop >= 23/32 | prop <= 9/32),
    width = 1/32, cex = 3)</pre>
```



Notice that because we are doing a two-sided test, we differentiate the samples with proportions greater than or equal to 23/32 and proportions less than or equal to 9/32 (the proportion that is as extreme as 23/32) by using the bar |.

3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop <= 9/32 | prop >= 23/32), data = sim.senate)
TRUE
0.018
```

Follow-up Study

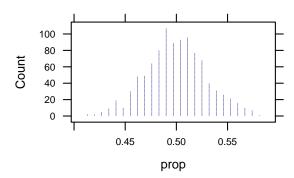
1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$

 H_a : $\pi \neq 0.5$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.677$ (the sample proportion of 189/279)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
Figure1.17
sim.house <- do(1000) * rflip(279, 0.5)
head(sim.house, 3)
    n heads tails
                     prop
1 279
             135 0.5161
        144
2 279
        153
              126 0.5484
3 279
        138
              141 0.4946
favstats(~prop, data = sim.house)
            Q1 median
                           03
                                 max
                                        mean
 0.4122 0.4803 0.4982 0.5197 0.5842 0.4994 0.02986 1000
dotPlot(\ \tilde{p}rop, data = sim.house, groups = (prop >= 189/279 \mid prop <= 90/279), width = 0.007)
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 189/279 | prop <= 90/279), data = sim.house)</pre>
TRUE
0
```

Strength of evidence with the standardized statistic:

```
mean(~prop, data = sim.house)

[1] 0.4994

sd <- sd(~prop, data = sim.house)

sd

[1] 0.02986

xpnorm(189/279, 0.5, sd, plot = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0298637127792574), then

P(X <= 0.67741935483871) = P(Z <= 5.941) = 1
P(X > 0.67741935483871) = P(Z > 5.941) = 0

[1] 1
```

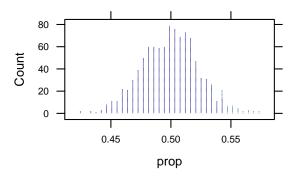
Exploration 1.4: Competitive Advantage to Uniform Colors?

```
1. H_0: \pi=0.5 H_a: \pi>0.5 Test statistic: \hat{p}=0.543 (the sample proportion of 248/457)
```

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
sim.red <- do(1000) * rflip(457, 0.5)
head(sim.red, 3)
```

```
n heads tails
                     prop
1 457
        230
              227 0.5033
2 457
        232
              225 0.5077
              220 0.5186
3 457
        237
favstats(~prop, data = sim.red)
            Q1 median
                           Q3
    min
                                 max
                                       mean
                                                  sd
                                                        n missing
 0.4245\ 0.4836\ 0.5011\ 0.5164\ 0.5733\ 0.5005\ 0.02387\ 1000
dotPlot("prop, data = sim.red, groups = (prop >= 0.543), width = 2/457)
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 0.543), data = sim.red)

TRUE
0.036
Exploration1.4.3b
```

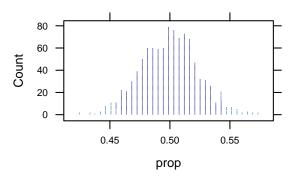
1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$

 H_a : $\pi \neq 0.5$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.543$ (the sample proportion of 248/457)

2. We use the simulated world in which $\pi = 0.5$ from the one-sided test:

```
\frac{\text{dotPlot}(\text{prop, data = sim.red, groups = (prop <= 0.457 | prop >= 0.543), width = 2/457)}{\text{Exploration1.4.5}}
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop <= 0.457 | prop >= 0.543), data = sim.red)

TRUE
0.069
```

Difference between statistic and null hypothesis parameter value

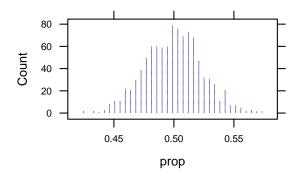
1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$

 H_a : $\pi > 0.5$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.57$ (the sample proportion)

2. We use the simulated world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.red, groups = (prop >= 0.57), width = 2/457)
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 0.57), data = sim.red)

TRUE
0.003
Exploration1.4.6b
```

Sample size

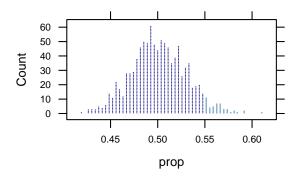
1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$

 H_a : $\pi > 0.5$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.551$ (the sample proportion of 150/272)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
sim.box <- do(1000) * rflip(272, 0.5) head(sim.box, 3)
```



3. Strength of evidence

```
prop(~(prop >= 0.551), data = sim.box)
TRUE
0.047
```

1.5 Inference on a single proportion: Theory-based approach

Example 1.5: Halloween Treats

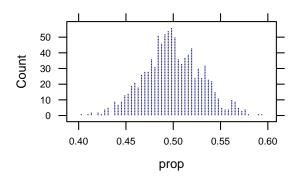
```
1. H_0: \pi = 0.5
H_a: \pi \neq 0.5
```

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.523$ (the sample proportion of 148/283)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
sim.candy <- do(1000) * rflip(283, 0.5)
head(sim.candy, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 283 137 146 0.4841
2 283 157 126 0.5548
3 283 132 151 0.4664
```



Theory-based approach (One proportion z test)

Calculating predicted standard deviation:

```
mean <- 0.5

n <- 283

sd <- sqrt(mean * (1 - mean)/n)

sd
```

Calculating z-score:

```
Z <- (0.523 - mean)/sd

Z [1] 0.7738

xpnorm(148/283, 0.5, sd, plot = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0297219149138882), then

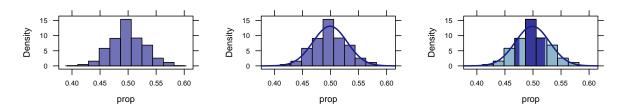
P(X <= 0.522968197879859) = P(Z <= 0.773) = 0.7802

P(X > 0.522968197879859) = P(Z > 0.773) = 0.2198

[1] 0.7802
```

To overlay a normal approximation, let's graph a histogram using histogram() instead of a dotplot:

```
histogram(~prop, data = sim.candy)
histogram(~prop, data = sim.candy, fit = "normal")
histogram(~prop, data = sim.candy, fit = "normal", group = (prop <= 135/283 | prop >= 148/283))
prop(~(prop <= 135/283 | prop >= 148/283), data = sim.candy)
TRUE
0.472
```



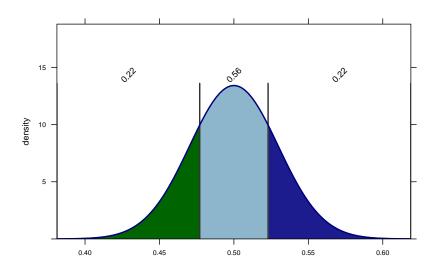
Now that we've covered normal approximation, we can examine the rest of the output from xpnorm(). Because it's a two-sided test, we can input both the observed statistic (148/283) and the statistic that is as extreme as the observed (135/283).

```
xpnorm(c(135/283, 148/283), 0.5, sd)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0297219149138882), then

P(X <= 0.477031802120141) = P(Z <= -0.773) = 0.2198
   P(X <= 0.522968197879859) = P(Z <= 0.773) = 0.7802
   P(X > 0.477031802120141) = P(Z > -0.773) = 0.7802
   P(X > 0.522968197879859) = P(Z > 0.773) = 0.7802
   P(X > 0.522968197879859) = P(Z > 0.773) = 0.2198

[1] 0.2198 0.7802
```



The output gives the z-scores for both statistics and the p-value. We know now that this p-value is found using

the predicted standard deviation and normal approximation. The p-value for the two-sided test is the sum of $P(Z \le -0.773)$ and P(Z > 0.773).

We can also use the just observed statistic as we have done before but only we will need to change the lower.tail to FALSE.

```
xpnorm(148/283, 0.5, sd, lower.tail = FALSE, plot = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0297219149138882), then

P(X <= 0.522968197879859) = P(Z <= 0.773) = 0.7802
P(X > 0.522968197879859) = P(Z > 0.773) = 0.2198
[1] 0.2198

2 * xpnorm(148/283, 0.5, sd, lower.tail = FALSE, plot = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0297219149138882), then

P(X <= 0.522968197879859) = P(Z <= 0.773) = 0.7802
P(X > 0.522968197879859) = P(Z > 0.773) = 0.2198
[1] 0.4397
```

This results in the p-value of the alternative hypothsis that π is greater than the observed statistic (the default is the alternative hypothsis that π is less than the observed statistic). For the two-sided test, we have multiplied the resulting p-value by two.

The function pnorm() can be used just to find the p-value:

```
2 * pnorm(148/283, 0.5, sd, lower.tail = FALSE)

[1] 0.4397
```

Further, we can input the standardized statistic (z-score) to find the p-value:

```
2 * pnorm(z, 0, 1, lower.tail = FALSE)

[1] 0.439
```

The most convenient way to find the p-value for a proportion using normal approximation is to use prop.test() by inputing the number of sucesses and the number of samples:

```
prop.test(148, n = 283)

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction
```

```
data: x and n
X-squared = 0.5088, df = 1, p-value = 0.4756
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.4631 0.5822
sample estimates:
    p
0.523
```

Note that the default for the prop test is with a $\pi = 0.5$, two-sided test, and a continuity correction. The continuity correction results in a more accurate p-value but if you want the p-value found with pnorm() we can change the default.

```
prop.test(148, 283, correct = FALSE)

1-sample proportions test without continuity correction

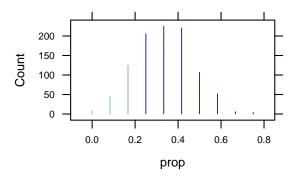
data: x and n
X-squared = 0.5972, df = 1, p-value = 0.4397
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.4649    0.5805
sample estimates:
    p
0.523
```

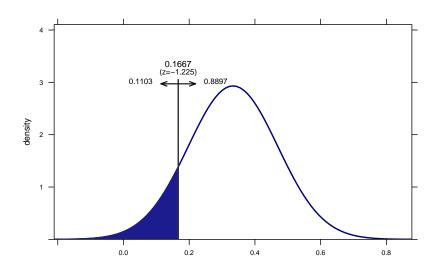
A situation where a theory-based approach doesn't work

```
mean <- 1/3
n <- 12
sd <- sqrt(mean * (1 - mean)/n)
sd

[1] 0.1361
```

```
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.sci, group = (prop <= 1/6), width = 1/12, cex = 3)
prop(~(prop <= 1/6), data = sim.sci)</pre>
TRUE
0.179
```





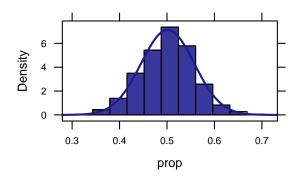
Exploration 1.5: Calling Heads or Tails

1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$ H_a : $\pi > 0.5$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.651$ (the sample proportion of 54/83)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
sim.heads <- do(1000) * rflip(83, 0.5) head(sim.heads, 3)
```



3. Strength of evidence

```
prop(~(prop >= 54/83), data = sim.heads)

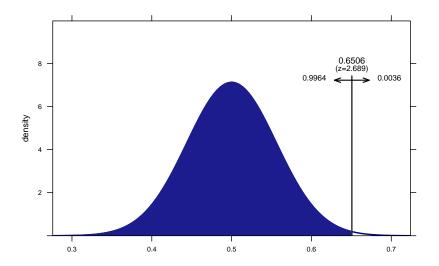
TRUE
0.005
Exploration1.5.5b
```

Normal approximation using simulated sd:

```
sd <- sd(~prop, data = sim.heads)
xpnorm(54/83, 0.5, sd, lower.tail = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0560149681052275), then

P(X <= 0.650602409638554) = P(Z <= 2.689) = 0.9964
P(X > 0.650602409638554) = P(Z > 2.689) = 0.0036
[1] 0.003588
```



Formulas

```
sd <- sqrt(0.5 * (1 - 0.5)/83)
sd
```

```
Exploration1.5.9
xpnorm(54/83, 0.5, sd, plot = FALSE, lower.tail = FALSE)
If X ^{\sim} N(0.5,0.0548821299948452), then
P(X \le 0.650602409638554) = P(Z \le 2.744) = 0.997
P(X > 0.650602409638554) = P(Z > 2.744) = 0.003
[1] 0.003034
prop.test(54, 83, alt = "greater", correct = FALSE)
1-sample proportions test without continuity correction
data: x and n
X-squared = 7.53, df = 1, p-value = 0.003034
alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
0.561 1.000
sample estimates:
     р
0.6506
```

Follow-up Analysis #1

```
1. H_0: \pi = 0.5

H_a: \pi \neq 0.5

Test statistic: \hat{p} = 0.70 (the sample proportion)
```

2. Normal approximation using predicted sd:

```
sd <- sqrt(0.5 * (1 - 0.5)/83)

sd

[1] 0.05488

2 * xpnorm(0.7, 0.5, sd, plot = FALSE, lower.tail = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0548821299948452), then

P(X <= 0.7) = P(Z <= 3.644) = 0.9999

P(X > 0.7) = P(Z > 3.644) = 1e-04

[1] 0.0002683
```

Approximate test for proportions without continuity correction:

```
prop.test(58.1, 83, correct = FALSE) # 58.1 = 0.70 * 83
1-sample proportions test without continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 13.28, df = 1, p-value = 0.0002683
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
0.5944 0.7879
sample estimates:
p
0.7
```

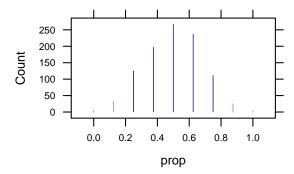
Follow-up Analysis # 2

```
1. H_0: \pi=0.5

H_a: \pi\neq0.5

Test statistic: \hat{p}=0.875 (the sample proportion of 7/8)
```

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop <= 0.125 | prop >= 0.875), data = sim.small)
TRUE
0.063
```

Approximate test for proportions without continuity correction:

```
prop.test(7, 8, correct = FALSE)

1-sample proportions test without continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 4.5, df = 1, p-value = 0.03389
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.5291    0.9776
sample estimates:
    p
0.875
```

There is also another test that will compute the p-value for a proportion and that the binomial test. binom.test() utilizes a binomial probability distribution while prop.test() utilizes a normal probability distribution. The tests are similar but the binomial test will result in the most accurate p-value.

```
binom.test(58, 83)

Exact binomial test

data: x and n
number of successes = 58, number of trials = 83, p-value = 0.0003783
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.5882 0.7947
sample estimates:
probability of success
    0.6988
```

2

Generalization: How Broadly Do the Results Apply?

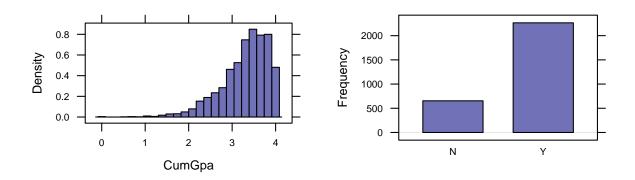
2.1 Sampling from a Finite Population

Example 2.1A: Sampling Students

```
Table2.1
head(CollegeMidwest, 8)
 OnCampus CumGpa
        N 2.92
1
2
        N 3.59
3
        N 3.36
        N 2.47
        N 3.46
        Y 2.98
7
        Υ
           3.07
            3.79
```

In chapter one, we used **histograms** a few times instead of dotplots and changed their widths. You can also control the number of bins by defining nint, or n for short.

```
histogram(~CumGpa, data = CollegeMidwest, n = 24)
bargraph(~OnCampus, data = CollegeMidwest)
```



Simple Random Samples

For a **simple random sample** of a data set, we use sample() and define the size of the same we want.

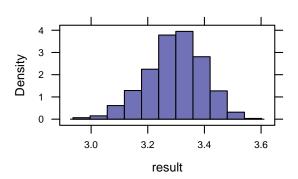
```
Table2.2
sample1 <- sample(CollegeMidwest, 30)</pre>
sample1
     OnCampus CumGpa orig.ids
1054
                  3.90
                             1054
940
              Υ
                  3.40
                              940
1828
              Υ
                  3.33
                             1828
              Υ
                  3.85
1668
                             1668
2161
              Υ
                  3.76
                             2161
2637
              Υ
                  2.91
                             2637
1364
              Υ
                  3.91
                             1364
818
              Υ
                  2.66
                              818
1233
             Υ
                  3.91
                             1233
1817
             Ν
                  3.69
                             1817
1147
             Υ
                  3.59
                             1147
398
              Υ
                  3.51
                              398
2495
              Υ
                  3.54
                             2495
2516
              Υ
                  3.05
                             2516
1486
             Ν
                  3.74
                             1486
1837
              Υ
                  2.58
                             1837
1798
              Υ
                  3.35
                             1798
2571
              Υ
                  2.86
                             2571
2099
              Υ
                  3.51
                             2099
1980
              Υ
                  3.23
                             1980
698
              Υ
                  4.00
                              698
616
              Υ
                  2.36
                              616
70
             Ν
                  3.58
                               70
1313
              Υ
                  3.25
                             1313
1952
              Υ
                  2.12
                             1952
1345
              Υ
                  3.95
                             1345
1503
             Ν
                  3.39
                             1503
2115
              Υ
                  3.98
                             2115
2652
             Υ
                  2.76
                             2652
783
             Ν
                  3.71
                              783
sample2 <- sample(CollegeMidwest, 30)</pre>
sample3 <- sample(CollegeMidwest, 30)</pre>
```

```
sample4 <- sample(CollegeMidwest, 30)</pre>
sample5 <- sample(CollegeMidwest, 30)</pre>
                                                                                                    Table2.3
mean(~CumGpa, data = sample1)
[1] 3.379
mean(~CumGpa, data = sample2)
[1] 3.379
mean(~CumGpa, data = sample3)
[1] 3.318
mean(~CumGpa, data = sample4)
[1] 3.262
mean(~CumGpa, data = sample5)
[1] 3.112
prop(~OnCampus, level = "Y", data = sample1)
0.8333
prop(~OnCampus, level = "Y", data = sample2)
     Υ
0.7667
prop(~OnCampus, level = "Y", data = sample3)
0.6667
prop(~OnCampus, level = "Y", data = sample4)
Υ
0.8
prop(~OnCampus, level = "Y", data = sample5)
```

Y 8.0 Notice the level in order to find the proportion of students who said "yes" instead of the default "no".

Similar to the simulation of random processes in chapter one, we can repeat taking different simple random samples. Conveniently, R will let you set data= to a simple random sample so we can repeat finding the mean or the proportion of a different simple random sample many times.

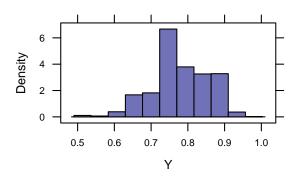
```
Figure 2.2
sample.gpa <- do(1000) * mean(~CumGpa, data = sample(CollegeMidwest, 30))
Loading required package: parallel
head(sample.gpa)
 result
1 3.212
2 3.269
3 3.382
4 3.087
5 3.268
6 3.239
favstats(~result, data = sample.gpa)
          Q1 median
                       Q3
                            max mean
                                           sd
                                                 n missing
 2.965 3.233
                3.3 3.366 3.571 3.295 0.09986 1000
histogram(~result, data = sample.gpa)
```



```
Figure 2.2b

sample.campus <- do(1000) * prop(~OnCampus, level = "Y", data = sample(CollegeMidwest, 30))

representation of the sample of the
```



Exploration 2.1A: Sampling Words

```
head(GettysburgAddress)

[1] "Four" "score" "and" "seven" "years" "ago"

words <- sample(GettysburgAddress, 10)
nchar(words[1:10])

[1] 6 5 7 7 3 6 10 6 4 3</pre>
```

Example 2.1B: Should Supersize Drinks be Banned?

1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$ H_a : $\pi < 0.5$

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.46$ (the sample proportion of 503/1093)

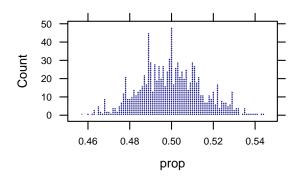
2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
sim.ban <- do(1000) * rflip(1093, 0.5)
head(sim.ban, 3)

    n heads tails prop
1 1093 542 551 0.4959
2 1093 553 540 0.5059
3 1093 506 587 0.4629

favstats(~prop, data = sim.ban)</pre>
```

```
min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing 0.4575 0.4895 0.5096 0.5444 0.4997 0.01502 1000 0 dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.ban, groups = (prop <= 0.46), width = 0.001)
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop <= 0.46), data = sim.ban)

TRUE
0.001</pre>
```

Normal approximation using predicted standard deviation:

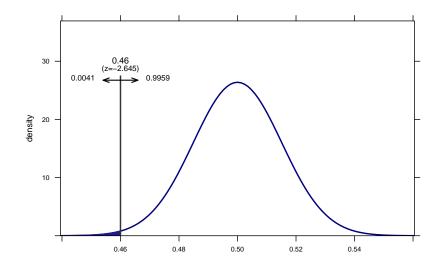
```
sd <- sqrt(0.5 * (1 - 0.5)/1093)
sd

[1] 0.01512

xpnorm(0.46, 0.5, sd)

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0151237651004726), then

P(X <= 0.46) = P(Z <= -2.645) = 0.0041
P(X > 0.46) = P(Z > -2.645) = 0.9959
[1] 0.004086
```



Approximate test for proportions with continuity correction:

```
prop.test(503, 1093, alt = "less")

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n

X-squared = 6.767, df = 1, p-value = 0.004644
alternative hypothesis: true p is less than 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
0.0000 0.4855
sample estimates:
p
0.4602
```

Exact test for proportions:

```
binom.test(503, 1093, alt = "less")

Exact binomial test

data: x and n
number of successes = 503, number of trials = 1093, p-value = 0.004628
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is less than 0.5

95 percent confidence interval:
0.0000 0.4855
sample estimates:
probability of success
0.4602
```

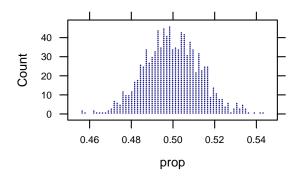
Exploration 2.1B: Banning Smoking in Cars?

```
1. H_0: \pi = 0.5
H_a: \pi > 0.5
```

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.55$ (the sample proportion)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
Exploration 2.1B.10
sim.smoke <- do(1000) * rflip(1421, 0.5)
head(sim.smoke, 3)
     n heads tails prop
1 1421
         730
               691 0.5137
2 1421
               751 0.4715
         670
3 1421
               726 0.4891
         695
favstats(~prop, data = sim.smoke)
   min
           Q1 median
                          Q3
                                                       n missing
                                max
                                      mean
                                                sd
 0.456 0.4905 0.4996 0.5088 0.5426 0.4999 0.01359 1000
dotPlot(~prop, data = sim.smoke, groups = (prop >= 0.55), width = 0.0014)
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 0.55), data = sim.smoke)
TRUE
0
```

Normal approximation using predicted standard deviation:

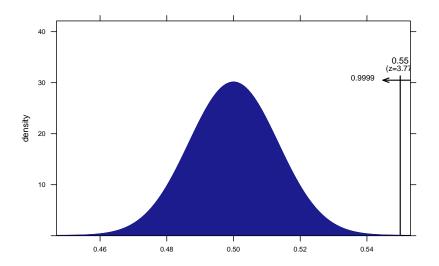
```
sd <- sqrt(0.5 * (1 - 0.5)/1421)
sd

[1] 0.01326

xpnorm(0.55, 0.5, sd, lower.tail = FALSE, )

If X ~ N(0.5,0.0132639527269323), then

P(X <= 0.55) = P(Z <= 3.77) = 0.9999
P(X > 0.55) = P(Z > 3.77) = 1e-04
[1] 8.175e-05
```



Approximate test for proportions with continuity correction:

```
prop.test(782, 1421, alt = "greater") # 782 = 1421 * 0.55
1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 14.19, df = 1, p-value = 8.262e-05
alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
0.5282 1.0000
sample estimates:
    p
0.5503
```

Exact test for proportions:

```
binom.test(782, 1421, alt = "greater")

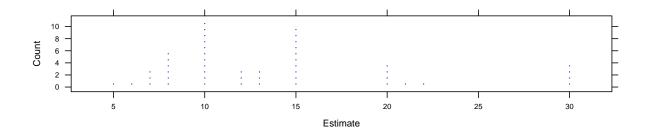
Exact binomial test

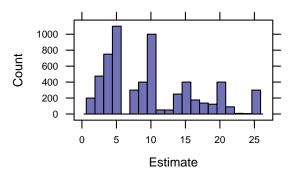
data: x and n
number of successes = 782, number of trials = 1421, p-value = 8.166e-05
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is greater than 0.5

95 percent confidence interval:
0.5282 1.0000
sample estimates:
probability of success
0.5503
```

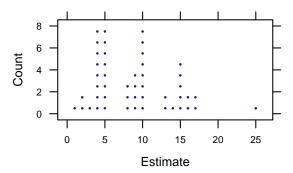
2.2 Inference for a Single Quantitative Variable

Example 2.2: Estimating Elapsed Time





```
Figure 2.7
sample1 <- sample(TimePopulation, 48)</pre>
head(sample1, 3)
     Estimate orig.ids
1708
                   1708
            4
            10
2188
                   2188
5403
           25
                   5403
favstats(~Estimate, data = sample1)
       Q1 median Q3 max mean
                                   sd n missing
   1 4.75
               9 13 25 8.875 5.168 48
dotPlot("Estimate, data = sample1, width = 1, cex = 0.3)
```

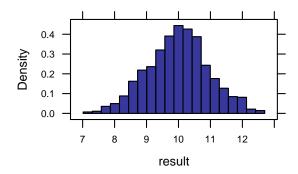


```
1. H_0: \mu = 10
H_a: \mu \neq 10
```

Test statistic: $\bar{x} = 13.71$ (the sample mean)

2. We simulate random samples from a finite population:

```
sim.time <- do(1000) * mean(~Estimate, data = sample(TimePopulation, 48))
head(sim.time, 3)</pre>
```



3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(result <= 6.29 | result >= 13.71), data = sim.time)

TRUE
    0
```

Strength of evidence with the standardized statistic:

```
mean(~result, data = sim.time)

[1] 9.994

sd <- sd(~result, data = sim.time)
sd

[1] 0.9617

xpnorm(13.71, 10, sd, lower.tail = FALSE, plot = FALSE)

If X ~ N(10,0.961742964079301), then

P(X <= 13.71) = P(Z <= 3.858) = 0.9999
P(X > 13.71) = P(Z > 3.858) = 1e-04
[1] 5.726e-05
```

Theory-based approach: One-sample t-test

```
xbar <- 13.71

mu <- 10

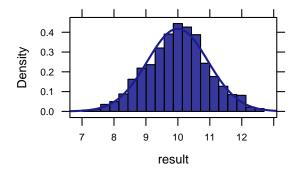
s <- 6.5

n <- 48

t <- (xbar - mu)/(s/sqrt(n))

t
```

```
Figure 2.9
histogram(~result, data = sim.time, groups = (result <= 6.29 | result >= 13.71), nint = 20,
    center = 10, fit = "t")
Warning:
         NaNs produced
         NaNs produced
Warning:
Warning:
         NaNs produced
Warning:
         NaNs produced
Warning: NaNs produced
Warning: NaNs produced
Warning: NaNs produced
Warning: NaNs produced
Warning:
         NaNs produced
Warning:
         NaNs produced
         NaNs produced
Warning:
Warning:
         NaNs produced
Warning: NaNs produced
```



```
2 * pt(t, df = 47, lower.tail = FALSE)

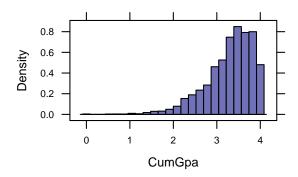
[1] 0.0002571
```

Alternative Analysis: What about the median?

```
sim.median <- do(1000) * median(~Estimate, data = sample(TimePopulation, 48))
head(sim.median, 3)

result
1     9
2     8
3     10

histogram(~result, data = sim.median, groups = (result < 8 | result > 12), width = 0.5, type = "count")
prop(~(result < 8 | result > 12), data = sim.median)
TRUE
0.111
```



Exploration 2.2: Sleepless Nights?

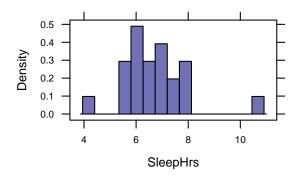
```
head(SleepTimes, 3)

SleepHrs
1 7.0
2 5.5
3 8.0
```

Shape

```
histogram(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes, nint = 15)

Exploration2.2.10
```



Center

```
mean(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes)

[1] 6.705

median(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes)

Exploration2.2.16

Exploration2.2.16
```

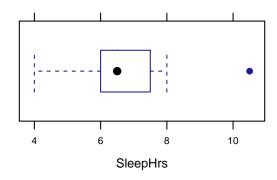
Variability

```
sd(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes)
[1] 1.297
```

Unusual observations

We could examine the entire data set to find any outliers but there is a quicker way to see if there potential outliers. The bwplot() function plots a box-and-whisker plot which identifies *possible* outliers with a dot beyond the whiskers.

```
bwplot(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes)
```



2.3 Errors and Significance

Example 2.3: Heart Transplant Operations (continued)

Exploration 2.3: Parapsychology Studies

```
1. H_0: \pi = 0.25
H_a: \pi > 0.25
```

Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.333$ (the sample proportion of 709/2124)

2. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.25$:

```
sim.esp <- do(1000) * rflip(2124, 0.25)
head(sim.esp, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 2124 539 1585 0.2538
2 2124 551 1573 0.2594
3 2124 535 1589 0.2519
```

3. Strength of evidence:

```
prop(~(prop >= 0.333), data = sim.esp)
TRUE
0
```

Approximate test for proportions:

```
prop.test(709, 2124, p = 0.25, alt = "greater")

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 79.11, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16</pre>
Exploration2.3.5
```

```
alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.25
95 percent confidence interval:
0.317 1.000
sample estimates:
p
0.3338
```

Approximate test for $\hat{p} = 15/50$ if $\pi = 0.25$:

```
prop.test(15, 50, p = 0.25, alt = "greater")

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n

X-squared = 0.4267, df = 1, p-value = 0.2568
alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.25
95 percent confidence interval:
0.1974 1.0000
sample estimates:
p
0.3
```

Approximate test for $\hat{p} = 15/50$ if $\pi = 0.33$:

```
prop.test(15, 50, p = 0.33, alt = "greater")

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 0.0905, df = 1, p-value = 0.6182
alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.33
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.1974 1.0000
sample estimates:
    p
0.3
```



Estimation: How Large is the Effect?

3.1 Statistical Inference - Confidence Intervals

Example 3.1: Can Dogs Sniff Out Cancer?

```
1. H_0: \pi = 0.20; H_a: \pi > 0.20
```

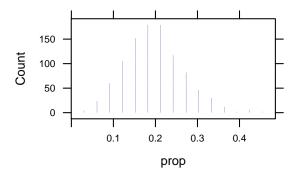
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.909$ (the sample proportion of 30/33)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.20$:

```
simulation.cancer <- do(1000) * rflip(33, 0.2)

Loading required package: parallel
head(simulation.cancer, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 33  8  25 0.2424
2 33  4  29 0.1212
3 33  10  23 0.3030

dotPlot(~prop, data = simulation.cancer, groups = (prop >= 0.909), width = 0.001)
```

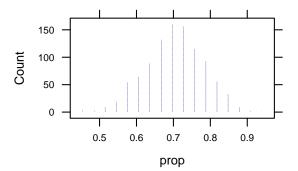


- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.70$; H_a : $\pi \neq 0.70$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.909$ (the sample proportion of 30/33)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.70$:

```
simulation.cancer2 <- do(1000) * rflip(33, 0.7)
head(simulation.cancer2, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 33     23     10 0.6970
2 33     27     6 0.8182
3 33     25     8 0.7576

dotPlot(~prop, data = simulation.cancer2, groups = (prop <= 0.491 | prop >= 0.909), width = 0.001)
```



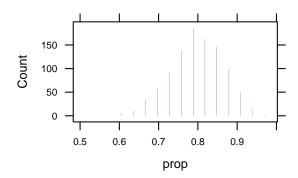
- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.80$; H_a : $\pi \neq 0.80$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.909$ (the sample proportion of 30/33)

3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.80$:

```
simulation.cancer3 <- do(1000) * rflip(33, 0.8)
head(simulation.cancer3, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 33     27     6 0.8182
2 33     25     8 0.7576
3 33     28     5 0.8485

dotPlot(~prop, data = simulation.cancer3, groups = (prop <= 0.691 | prop >= 0.909), width = 0.001)
```



Results of testing different values of probabilities under the null hypothesis:

```
pval(binom.test(30, 33, p = 0.93))

p.value
    0.5007

pval(binom.test(30, 33, p = 0.94))

p.value
    0.4474

pval(binom.test(30, 33, p = 0.95))
```

```
p.value
    0.2272

pval(binom.test(30, 33, p = 0.96))

p.value
    0.1442

pval(binom.test(30, 33, p = 0.97))

p.value
    0.07564

pval(binom.test(30, 33, p = 0.98))

p.value
    0.02793

pval(binom.test(30, 33, p = 0.99))

p.value
    0.02436
```

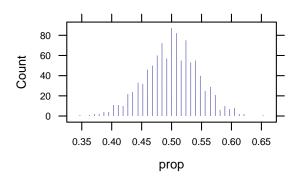
Exploration 3.1: Kissing Right?

- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$; H_a : $\pi > 0.5$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.645$ (the sample proportion of 80/124)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
simulation.kiss <- do(1000) * rflip(124, 0.5)
head(simulation.kiss, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 124 66 58 0.5323
2 124 65 59 0.5242
3 124 63 61 0.5081

dotPlot(~prop, data = simulation.kiss, groups = (prop >= 0.645), width = 0.001)
```



4. Approximate test for proportions:

```
prop.test(80, 124, alt = "greater")

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 9.879, df = 1, p-value = 0.0008359
alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.568    1.000
sample estimates:
    p
0.6452
```

5. Exact test for proportions:

```
binom.test(80, 124, alt = "greater")

Exact binomial test

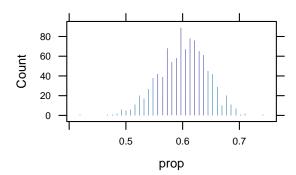
data: x and n
number of successes = 80, number of trials = 124, p-value = 0.0007824
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is greater than 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
0.5684 1.0000
sample estimates:
probability of success
0.6452
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.6$; H_a : $\pi \neq 0.6$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.645$ (the sample proportion of 80/124)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.6$:

```
simulation.kiss2 <- do(1000) * rflip(124, 0.6)
head(simulation.kiss2, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 124 78 46 0.6290
2 124 81 43 0.6532
3 124 82 42 0.6613

dotPlot(~prop, data = simulation.kiss2, groups = (prop <= 0.555 | prop >= 0.645), width = 0.001)
```



4. Approximate test for proportions:

```
prop.test(80, 124, p = 0.6)

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n

X-squared = 0.874, df = 1, p-value = 0.3499
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.6

95 percent confidence interval:
0.5536 0.7276
sample estimates:
    p
0.6452
```

5. Exact test for proportions:

```
binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.6)

Exact binomial test

data: x and n

number of successes = 80, number of trials = 124, p-value = 0.3151

alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.6

95 percent confidence interval:
    0.5542 0.7290

sample estimates:
probability of success
    0.6452
```

```
Exploration3.1.11
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.54))
p.value
0.01915
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.55))
p.value
0.03757
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.56))
p.value
0.05778
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.57))
p.value
0.1024
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.58))
p.value
0.1465
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.59))
p.value
0.2355
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.6))
p.value
0.3151
```

```
Exploration3.1.11b
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.7))
p.value
 0.2024
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.71))
p.value
  0.114
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.72))
p.value
0.07146
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.73))
p.value
0.04242
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.74))
p.value
 0.0185
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.75))
 p.value
0.009269
pval(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.76))
 p.value
0.004281
                                                                                                   Exploration3.1.13
confint(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.6))
probability of success
                                           lower
                                                                    upper
                 0.6452
                                          0.5542
                                                                   0.7290
                  level
                 0.9500
                                                                                                    Exploration3.1.15
```

confint(binom.test(80, 124, p = 0.6, conf.level = 0.99))

probability of success	lower 0.5265	upper 0.7524
0.6452 level	0.5265	0.7524
0.9900		

3.2 2SD and Theory-Based Confidence Intervals for a Single Proportion

Example 3.2: The Afforable Care Act

An easy way to find a confidence interval in R is to use prop.test() or binom.test() which by default calculates a 95% confidence interval in its results.

```
binom.test(713, 1034) # 713 = 1034 * 0.69

Exact binomial test

data: x and n
number of successes = 713, number of trials = 1034, p-value < 2.2e-16
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.6604 0.7177
sample estimates:
probability of success
    0.6896</pre>
```

Theory-Based Approach

```
xpnorm(c(-1.645, 1.645), 0, 1)
Figure3.8

If X \(^{\text{N}}(0,1)\), then

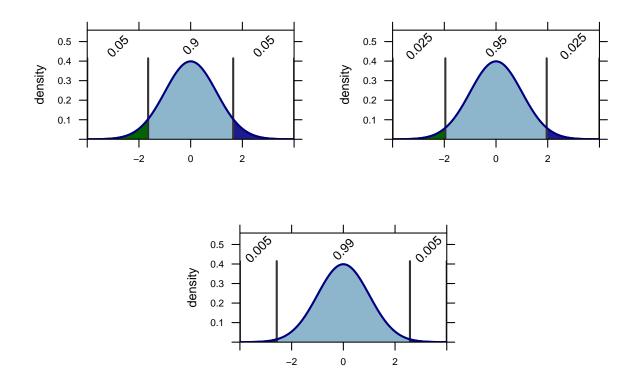
P(X <= -1.645) = P(Z <= -1.645) = 0.05
    P(X <= 1.645) = P(Z > -1.645) = 0.95
    P(X > -1.645) = P(Z > -1.645) = 0.95
    P(X > 1.645) = P(Z > 1.645) = 0.05
[1] 0.04998 0.95002

xpnorm(c(-1.96, 1.96), 0, 1)

If X \(^{\text{N}}(0,1)\), then

P(X <= -1.96) = P(Z <= -1.96) = 0.025
    P(X <= 1.96) = P(Z <= 1.96) = 0.975
    P(X > -1.96) = P(Z > -1.96) = 0.975
    P(X > 1.96) = P(Z > 1.96) = 0.025
[1] 0.025 0.975
[1] 0.025 0.975
```

```
 \begin{split} & \text{xpnorm}(\mathbf{c}(-2.576,\ 2.576),\ 0,\ 1) \\ & \text{If } X \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} N(0,1),\ \text{then} \\ & P(X <= -2.576) = P(Z <= -2.576) = 0.005 \\ & P(X <= 2.576) = P(Z <= 2.576) = 0.995 \\ & P(X > -2.576) = P(Z > -2.576) = 0.995 \\ & P(X > 2.576) = P(Z > 2.576) = 0.005 \\ & [1] \ 0.004998 \ 0.995002 \end{split}
```



Using 2SD method and standard error of the observed sample proportion (Theory-Based Inference applet):

```
n <- 1034
p.hat <- 0.69
p.hat # 0.69 = 713 / 1034

[1] 0.69

SE <- sqrt(p.hat * (1 - p.hat)/n) # standard error
MoE <- 1.96 * SE
MoE # margin of error

[1] 0.02819

p.hat - MoE # lower limit of 95% CI</pre>
```

```
[1] 0.6618

p.hat + MoE # upper limit of 95% CI

[1] 0.7182
```

Exploration 3.2: American Exceptionalism

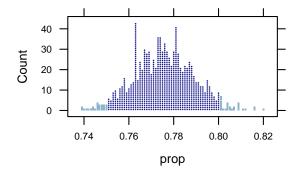
- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.775$; H_a : $\pi \neq 0.775$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.80$ (the sample proportion of 85/1019)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.775$:

```
simulation.amer <- do(1000) * rflip(1019, 0.775)

Loading required package: parallel
head(simulation.amer, 3)

    n heads tails    prop
1 1019    797    222 0.7821
2 1019    787    232 0.7723
3 1019    783    236 0.7684

dotPlot(~prop, data = simulation.amer, groups = (prop <= 0.75 | prop >= 0.8), width = 0.001)
```



4. Approximate test for proportions:

```
prop.test(815, 1019, p = 0.775)

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n

X-squared = 3.454, df = 1, p-value = 0.06308
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.775
95 percent confidence interval:
0.7736 0.8237
sample estimates:
p
0.7998
```

5. Exact test for proportions:

```
binom.test(815, 1019, p = 0.775)

Exact binomial test

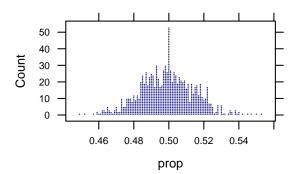
data: x and n
number of successes = 815, number of trials = 1019, p-value = 0.06064
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.775
95 percent confidence interval:
0.7739 0.8240
sample estimates:
probability of success
0.7998
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.5$; H_a : $\pi \neq 0.5$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.80$ (the sample proportion of 815/1019)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.5$:

```
simulation.amer2 <- do(1000) * rflip(1019, 0.5)
head(simulation.amer2, 3)

    n heads tails    prop
1 1019    521    498    0.5113
2 1019    486    533    0.4769
3 1019    491    528    0.4818

dotPlot(~prop, data = simulation.amer2, groups = (prop <= 0.2 | prop >= 0.8), width = 0.001)
```



4. Approximate test for proportions:

```
prop.test(815, 1019)

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: x and n

X-squared = 365.2, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.5
95 percent confidence interval:
0.7736 0.8237
sample estimates:
p
0.7998
```

5. Exact test for proportions:

Finding the standard deviation using simulated deviation:

```
sd <- sd(~prop, data = simulation.amer)
sd

[1] 0.01316

z <- (0.8 - 0.775)/sd

z

[1] 1.899

xpnorm(0.8, 0.775, sd, lower.tail = FALSE, plot = FALSE)

If X ~ N(0.775,0.0131649627564318), then

P(X <= 0.8) = P(Z <= 1.899) = 0.9712
P(X > 0.8) = P(Z > 1.899) = 0.0288
[1] 0.02878
```

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard deviation of the null distribution:

```
p.hat <- 0.80  # given sample proportion
sd  # previously found simulated standard deviation

[1] 0.01316

MoE <- 2 * sd; MoE  # margin of error for 95% CI

[1] 0.02633

p.hat - MoE  # lower limit of 95% CI

[1] 0.7737

p.hat + MoE  # upper limit of 95% CI

[1] 0.8263</pre>
```

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard error of the observed sample proportion:

```
n <- 1019
p.hat <- 0.80  # given sample proportion
SE <- sqrt(p.hat * (1 - p.hat) / n); SE

[1] 0.01253</pre>
```

```
MoE <- 2 * SE; MoE  # margin of error for 95% CI

[1] 0.02506

p.hat - MoE  # lower limit of 95% CI

[1] 0.7749

p.hat + MoE  # upper limit of 95% CI

[1] 0.8251
```

Determining a 95% confidence interval using more accurate multipliers and standard error of the observed sample proportion (Theory-Based Inference applet):

```
n <- 1019
p.hat <- 0.80  # given sample proportion
SE <- sqrt(p.hat * (1 - p.hat) / n); SE

[1] 0.01253

MoE <- 1.96 * SE; MoE # margin of error for 95% CI with more accurate multiplier

[1] 0.02456
p.hat - MoE  # lower limit of 95% CI

[1] 0.7754
p.hat + MoE  # upper limit of 95% CI

[1] 0.8246</pre>
```

Another way to create a 95% confidence interval is to use the middle 95% of the simulated null distribution. This is not exactly the same as the interval found by the 2SD Method, but it is very close.

The binom.test() calculates the exact confidence interval for any confidence level:

```
binom.test(815, 1019, p = 0.775, conf.level = 0.95)
Exact binomial test
```

```
data: x and n
number of successes = 815, number of trials = 1019, p-value = 0.06064
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.775
95 percent confidence interval:
0.7739 0.8240
sample estimates:
probability of success
                0.7998
binom.test(815, 1019, p = 0.775, conf.level = 0.99)
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 815, number of trials = 1019, p-value = 0.06064
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.775
99 percent confidence interval:
0.7656 0.8311
sample estimates:
probability of success
               0.7998
binom.test(815, 1019, p = 0.775, conf.level = 0.9)
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 815, number of trials = 1019, p-value = 0.06064
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is not equal to 0.775
90 percent confidence interval:
0.7781 0.8203
sample estimates:
probability of success
         0.7998
```

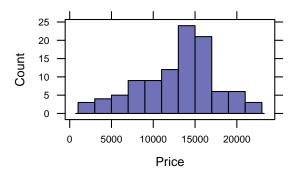
Note that the specified π , the p = 0.775, only matters in calculating the p-value and does not affect the confidence interval.

3.3 2SD and Theory-Based Confidence Intervals for a Single Mean

Example 3.3: Used Cars

```
head(UsedCars)

Price
1 21990
2 21990
3 21987
4 20955
```



Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard error of the sample population:

```
n <- nrow(UsedCars); n</pre>
[1] 102
mean <- mean(~ Price, data = UsedCars); mean</pre>
[1] 13292
sd <- sd(~ Price, data = UsedCars); sd</pre>
[1] 4535
SE <- sd / sqrt(n)
MoE <- 2 * SE; MoE
                       # margin of error for 95% CI
[1] 898
mean - MoE
                       # lower limit of 95% CI
[1] 12394
mean + MoE
                        # upper limit of 95% CI
[1] 14190
```

Theory-based approach

```
confint(t.test(~Price, data = UsedCars))
                                                                                                   Figure3.10
mean of x
                                   level
              lower
                        upper
13292.33 12401.66 14183.01
                                    0.95
                                                                                                   Figure3.11
confint(t.test(~Price, data = UsedCars, conf.level = 0.9))
mean of x
                                   level
              lower
                        upper
  13292.3
            12547.0
                       14037.7
                                     0.9
confint(t.test(~Price, data = UsedCars, conf.level = 0.99))
mean of x
              lower
                        upper
                                   level
13292.33 12113.56 14471.10
                                    0.99
```

Exploration 3.3: Sleepless Nights? (continued)

```
head(SleepTimes)
                                                                                             Exploration3.3.1
 SleepHrs
      7.0
1
2
       5.5
3
       8.0
4
       7.0
5
       7.5
6
       6.0
favstats(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes)
 min Q1 median
                  Q3 max mean
                                   sd n missing
  4 6 6.5 7.375 10.5 6.705 1.297 22 0
```

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard error of the sample population:

```
n <- nrow(SleepTimes); n

[1] 22

mean <- mean(~ SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes); mean

[1] 6.705

sd <- sd(~ SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes); sd</pre>
```

```
[1] 1.297

SE <- sd / sqrt(n)
MoE <- 2 * SE; MoE  # margin of error for 95% CI

[1] 0.5531

mean - MoE  # lower limit of 95% CI

[1] 6.151

mean + MoE  # upper limit of 95% CI

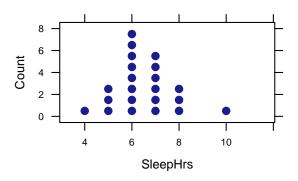
[1] 7.258</pre>
```

Theory-based approach

```
confint(t.test(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes))

mean of x lower upper level
6.705 6.129 7.280 0.950

dotPlot(~SleepHrs, data = SleepTimes, width = 1) # to check the distribution
Exploration3.3.9
```



3.4 Factors That Affect the Width of a Confidence Interval

Example 3.4: The Afforable Care Act (continued)

```
confint(binom.test(713, 1034, conf.level = 0.9)) # 1034 * 0.69 = 713
                                                                                                    Table3.5
probability of success
                                         lower
                                                                 upper
                                        0.6650
                                                                0.7133
                0.6896
                 level
                0.9000
confint(binom.test(713, 1034, conf.level = 0.95))
probability of success
                                         lower
                                                                 upper
                                        0.6604
                0.6896
                                                                0.7177
                 level
                0.9500
confint(binom.test(713, 1034, conf.level = 0.99))
probability of success
                                         lower
                                                                 upper
                0.6896
                                        0.6512
                                                                0.7262
                 level
                0.9900
```

Sample size

```
Figure3.12
confint(binom.test(70, 100))
probability of success
                                          lower
                                                                  upper
                0.7000
                                         0.6002
                                                                 0.7876
                 level
                 0.9500
confint(binom.test(140, 200))
probability of success
                                          lower
                                                                  upper
                                         0.6314
                                                                 0.7626
                 0.7000
                 level
                 0.9500
confint(binom.test(280, 400))
probability of success
                                          lower
                                                                  upper
                 0.7000
                                         0.6525
                                                                 0.7445
                 level
                 0.9500
```

Optional: Effect of sample proportion

Sample proportions will affect confidence intervals calculated by using accurate multipliers and the standard error of the observed sample proportion (Theory-Based Inference applet). However, the sample proportions will not affect confidence intervals found by using the exact test for proportions, binom.test().

```
Figure3.13
confint(binom.test(838, 1034))
probability of success
                                         lower
                                                                  upper
                0.8104
                                         0.7852
                                                                 0.8339
                 level
                 0.9500
MoE838 <- 0.8339078 - 0.7852004
MoE838
[1] 0.04871
confint(binom.test(196, 1034))
probability of success
                                         lower
                                                                  upper
                                         0.1661
                                                                 0.2148
                0.1896
                 level
                 0.9500
MoE196 <- 0.2147996 - 0.1660922
MoE 196
[1] 0.04871
```

Exploration 3.4: Holiday Spending Habits

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard error of the sample population:

```
n <- 1039
mean <- 704
sd <- 150
SE <- sd / sqrt(n)
MoE <- 2 * SE; MoE  # margin of error for 95% CI

[1] 9.307

mean - MoE  # lower limit of 95% CI

[1] 694.7

mean + MoE  # upper limit of 95% CI

[1] 713.3</pre>
```

```
n <- 1039
mean <- 704
sd <- 300
SE <- sd / sqrt(n)
MoE <- 2 * SE; MoE  # margin of error for 95% CI

[1] 18.61

mean - MoE  # lower limit of 95% CI

[1] 685.4

mean + MoE  # upper limit of 95% CI

[1] 722.6</pre>
```

The impact of sample size

```
n <- 477
mean <- 704
sd <- 300
SE <- sd / sqrt(n)
MoE <- 2 * SE; MoE  # margin of error for 95% CI

[1] 27.47

mean - MoE  # lower limit of 95% CI

[1] 676.5

mean + MoE  # upper limit of 95% CI
```

Exploration 3.4B: Reese's Pieces

Simulate 1 sample proportion and calculate the 95% confidence interval:

Simulate 100 sample proportions and calculate the 95% confidence intervals:

```
simulation.CI <- CIsim(100, samples = 100, rdist = rbinom, args = list(size = 1, prob = 0.5), method = binom.test, method.args = list(success = 1), verbose = FALSE, estimand = 0.5)
```

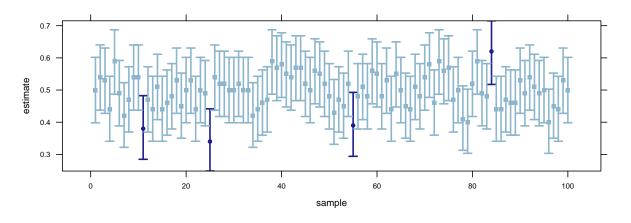
Proportion of intervals produced that do not contain $\pi = 0.5$:

```
prop(~cover, data = simulation.CI)

No
0.04
```

Plot the 95% confidence intervals of the simulation of 100 sample proportions:

```
require(Hmisc)
xYplot(Cbind(estimate, lower, upper) ~ sample, data = simulation.CI, par.settings = col.mosaic(),
    groups = cover)
```



Simulate 1000 sample proportions and calculate the 95% confidence intervals:

```
simulation.CI2 <- CIsim(100, samples = 1000, rdist = rbinom, args = list(size = 1, prob = 0.5),
method = binom.test, method.args = list(success = 1), verbose = FALSE, estimand = 0.5)</pre>
```

Proportion of intervals produced that do not contain $\pi = 0.5$:

```
prop(~cover, data = simulation.CI2)

No
0.024
```

Simulate 1000 sample proportions and calculate the 90% confidence intervals:

```
simulation.CI3 <- CIsim(100, samples = 1000, rdist = rbinom, args = list(size = 1, prob = 0.5), conf.level = 0.9, method = binom.test, method.args = list(success = 1), verbose = FALSE, estimand = 0.5)
```

Proportion of intervals produced that do not contain $\pi = 0.5$:

```
prop(~cover, data = simulation.CI3)

No
0.097
```

Simulate 1000 sample proportions and calculate the 90% confidence intervals (sample size = 400):

```
simulation.CI4 <- CIsim(400, samples = 100, rdist = rbinom, args = list(size = 1, prob = 0.5),
conf.level = 0.9, method = binom.test, method.args = list(success = 1), verbose = FALSE,
estimand = 0.5)</pre>
```

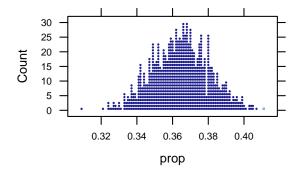
Proportion of intervals produced that do not contain $\pi = 0.5$:

```
prop(~cover, data = simulation.CI4)

No
0.11
```

3.5 Cautions When Conducting Inference

- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.3645$; H_a : $\pi > 0.3645$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.41$ (the sample proportion)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.3645$:



Exploration 3.5A: Voting for President

Finding the 99% confidence interval using the exact test for proportions:

Another famous case of problems in Presidential election polling

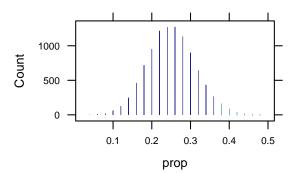
Finding the 99% confidence interval using the exact test for proportions:

Example 3.5B: Parapsychology Studies (continued)

probability of success	lower	upper
0.3338	0.3076	0.3607
level		
0.9900		

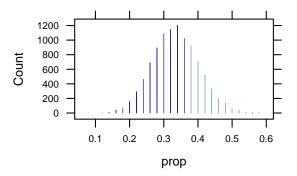
- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.25$; H_a : $\pi > 0.25$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.38$ (the sample proportion of 19/50)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.25$:

```
simulation.esp2 <- do(10000) * rflip(50, 0.25)
head(simulation.esp2, 3)
  n heads tails prop
1 50
        18
              32 0.36
2 50
        11
              39 0.22
3 50
              41 0.18
         9
dotPlot(\text{prop}, data = simulation.esp2}, groups = (prop >= 0.38), width = 0.01, cex = 10)
prop(~(prop >= 0.38), data = simulation.esp2)
 TRUE
0.0296
```



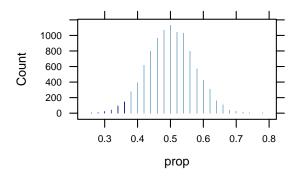
- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 1/3$; H_a : $\pi > 1/3$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.38$ (the sample proportion of 19/50)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 1/3$:

```
simulation.esp3 <- do(10000) * rflip(50, 1/3)
head(simulation.esp3, 3)
   n heads tails prop
1 50
        19
              31 0.38
2 50
        14
              36 0.28
3 50
        17
              33 0.34
dotPlot(\text{~prop, data = simulation.esp3, groups = (prop >= 0.38), width = 0.01, cex = 10)}
prop((prop >= 0.38)), data = simulation.esp3)
 TRUE
0.2912
```



- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 1/2$; H_a : $\pi > 1/2$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.38$ (the sample proportion of 19/50)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 1/2$:

```
simulation.esp4 <- do(10000) * rflip(50, 1/2)
head(simulation.esp4, 3)
   n heads tails prop
1 50
        27
              23 0.54
2 50
        28
              22 0.56
3 50
        23
              27 0.46
dotPlot(\tilde{p}rop, data = simulation.esp4, groups = (prop >= 0.38), width = 0.01, cex = 10)
prop(~(prop >= 0.38), data = simulation.esp4)
 TRUE
0.9689
```



3.5.1 Exploration 3.5B: Cat Households

- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 1/3$; H_a : $\pi < 1/3$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.324$ (the sample proportion of 15228/47000)
- 3. Exact test for proportions:

```
binom.test(15228, 47000, p = 1/3, conf.level = 0.999, alt = "less")
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 15228, number of trials = 47000, p-value = 8.654e-06
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is less than 0.3333
99.9 percent confidence interval:
0.0000 0.3307
sample estimates:
probability of success
                 0.324
binom.test(15228, 47000, p = 1/3, alt = "less")
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 15228, number of trials = 47000, p-value = 8.654e-06
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is less than 0.3333
95 percent confidence interval:
0.0000 0.3276
sample estimates:
probability of success
                 0.324
```

4. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 1/3$:

```
simulation.pets <- do(1000) * rflip(100, 1/3)
head(simulation.pets, 3)

n heads tails prop
1 100 36 64 0.36
2 100 39 61 0.39
3 100 37 63 0.37
```

We could use trial-and-error to determine values of the sample proportion that would produce a p-value of less than 0.05. R can quickly calculate try possible values that would result in the significance level of 0.05 but we can also have R calculate them for us.

```
cdata(0.95, prop, data = simulation.pets)

low    hi central.p
0.23    0.43    0.95
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi = 0.30$; H_a : $\pi < 0.30$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p} = 0.243$ (the sample proportion)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi = 0.30$:

```
simulation.pets2 <- do(1000) * rflip(100, 0.3)
head(simulation.pets2, 3)
```

```
cdata(0.9, prop, data = simulation.pets2)

low     hi central.p
     0.22     0.38     0.90
```

```
confint(binom.test(33, 100, p = 1/3))
probability of success
                                        lower
                                                               upper
                                       0.2392
                                                              0.4312
                0.3300
                level
                0.9500
binom.test(24, 100, p = 0.3, alt = "less")
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 24, number of trials = 100, p-value = 0.1136
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is less than 0.3
95 percent confidence interval:
0.0000 0.3206
sample estimates:
probability of success
                  0.24
confint(binom.test(33, 100, p = 1/3, conf.level = 0.9))
probability of success
                                       lower
                                                              upper
                0.3300
                                       0.2523
                                                              0.4155
                level
                0.9000
binom.test(25, 100, p = 0.3, alt = "less", conf.level = 0.9)
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 25, number of trials = 100, p-value = 0.1631
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is less than 0.3
90 percent confidence interval:
```

```
0.000 0.314
sample estimates:
probability of success
                  0.25
confint(binom.test(167, 500, p = 1/3))
probability of success
                                        lower
                                                               upper
                                       0.2927
                                                               0.3772
                0.3340
                 level
                0.9500
binom.test(146, 500, p = 0.3, alt = "less")
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 146, number of trials = 500, p-value = 0.3685
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is less than 0.3
95 percent confidence interval:
0.0000 0.3273
sample estimates:
probability of success
                 0.292
confint(binom.test(33, 100, p = 1/3))
probability of success
                                        lower
                                                               upper
                0.3300
                                       0.2392
                                                               0.4312
                 level
                0.9500
binom.test(24, 100, p = 0.2, alt = "less")
Exact binomial test
data: x and n
number of successes = 24, number of trials = 100, p-value = 0.8686
alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is less than 0.2
95 percent confidence interval:
0.0000 0.3206
sample estimates:
probability of success
                  0.24
```

4

Causation: Can We Say What Caused the Effect?

4.1 Association and Confounding

Example 4.1: Night Lights and Near-Sightedness

Often, when a dataset has only categorical variables, it may come in the form of a table and not a frame. Here is a way to create a data frame in R.

```
NightLight1
     Darkness NightLight RoomLight
Near
                                 41
           18
                      78
          154
                                  34
Not
                      154
NightLight <- rbind(</pre>
  do(18) * data.frame(light = "Darkness", nearsight = "Near"),
  do(154) * data.frame(light = "Darkness", nearsight = "Not"),
  do(78) * data.frame(light = "NightLight", nearsight = "Near"),
  do(154) * data.frame(light = "NightLight", nearsight = "Not"),
 do(41) * data.frame(light = "RoomLight", nearsight = "Near"),
do(34) * data.frame(light = "RoomLight", nearsight = "Not")
head(NightLight)
     light nearsight .row .index
1 Darkness
                Near
                       1
                                1
2 Darkness
                Near
                       1
                                 2
3 Darkness
                                 3
                Near
                       1
4 Darkness
                 Near
                         1
                                 4
                                 5
5 Darkness
                 Near
                         1
6 Darkness
                Near
```

```
head(NightLight)

light nearsight .row .index
1 Darkness Near 1 1
```

```
2 Darkness Near 1 2
3 Darkness Near 1 3
4 Darkness Near 1 4
5 Darkness Near 1 5
6 Darkness Near 1 6
```

```
Table4.1
tally(nearsight ~ light, data = NightLight)
        light
nearsight Darkness NightLight RoomLight
    Near 0.1047 0.3362 0.5467
           0.8953
                     0.6638
    Not
                                0.4533
tally(~nearsight | light, data = NightLight)
        light
nearsight Darkness NightLight RoomLight
           0.1047
                     0.3362
                                0.5467
    Not
           0.8953
                      0.6638
                                0.4533
tally(~nearsight + light, data = NightLight, margins = TRUE)
        light
nearsight Darkness NightLight RoomLight Total
   Near
              18
                         78
                                   41 137
   Not
              154
                         154
                                    34
                                         342
   Total
              172
                         232
                                    75
```

Exploration 4.1: Home Court Disadvantage?

4.2 Observational studies versus experiments

Example 4.2: Lying on the Internet

Exploration 4.2: Have a Nice Trip

```
sim <- do(2) * rflip(12, 16/24)
sim

n heads tails prop
1 12  6  6  0.5
2 12  6  6  0.5</pre>
```

Comparing Two Proportions

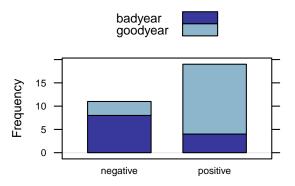
5.1 Comparing Two Groups: Categorical Response

Example 5.1: Good and Bad Perceptions

```
head(GoodandBad, 30)
                                                                                        Table5.1
   Wording Perception
1 goodyear positive
2 goodyear negative
3 badyear positive
4 goodyear positive
5 goodyear negative
6 badyear positive
7 goodyear positive
8 goodyear positive
9 goodyear positive
10 badyear
            negative
11 goodyear
            negative
12 badyear
            negative
13 goodyear
            positive
14 badyear negative
15 goodyear positive
16 goodyear positive
17 badyear positive
18 goodyear positive
19 goodyear positive
20 goodyear
            positive
21 badyear
            negative
22 goodyear
            positive
23 badyear
            negative
24 goodyear
            positive
25 badyear
            negative
26 goodyear
            positive
27 badyear
            negative
28 goodyear
            positive
29 badyear
            positive
30 badyear
            negative
```

```
Table5.2
tally(~Perception + Wording, data = GoodandBad, margins = TRUE)
          Wording
Perception badyear goodyear Total
 negative
                 8
                          3
                               11
                               19
 positive
                 4
                         15
 Total
                12
                         18
                               30
tally(Perception ~ Wording, data = GoodandBad)
          Wording
Perception badyear goodyear
 negative 0.6667
                     0.1667
 positive 0.3333
                     0.8333
prop(Perception ~ Wording, data = GoodandBad)
negative.badyear negative.goodyear
           0.6667
                             0.1667
prop(Perception ~ Wording, level = "positive", data = GoodandBad)
positive.badyear positive.goodyear
           0.3333
```



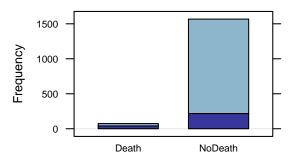


Summarizing the data

Exploration 5.1: Murderous Nurse?

```
tally(~patient + shift, data = Nurse, margins = TRUE)
        shift
patient Gilbert NoGilbert Total
                 34 74
 Death
             40
 NoDeath
            217
                     1350 1567
            257
                     1384 1641
 Total
tally(patient ~ shift, data = Nurse) # conditional prop
        shift
patient Gilbert NoGilbert
 Death 0.15564 0.02457
 NoDeath 0.84436 0.97543
```

```
Exploration 5.1.10
bargraph(~patient, groups = shift, data = Nurse, stack = TRUE)
```



Further Analysis

```
Exploration 5.1.
tally(~patient + shift, data = Nurse2, margin = TRUE)
        shift
patient Gilbert NoGilbert Total
 Death
          100 357 457
             157
                      1027 1184
 NoDeath
 Total
             257
                      1384 1641
tally(patient ~ shift, data = Nurse2)
        shift
patient Gilbert NoGilbert
 Death
        0.3891
                    0.2579
 NoDeath 0.6109
                    0.7421
diff(prop(patient ~ shift, data = Nurse2)) # diff in conditional prop
Death.NoGilbert
       -0.1312
# relative risk
```

5.2 Comparing Two Properties: Simulation-Based Approach

Example 5.2: Swimming with Dolphins

```
head(Dolphin)

Swimming Response

1 Dolphin Improve

2 Dolphin Improve

3 Dolphin Improve

4 Dolphin Improve

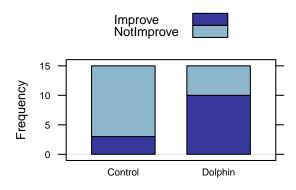
5 Dolphin Improve

6 Dolphin Improve

tally("Response + Swimming, data = Dolphin, margin = TRUE)
```

```
Swimming
            Control Dolphin Total
Response
  Improve
                 3
                         10
 NotImprove
                 12
                          5
                               17
  Total
                  15
                         15
                               30
tally(Response ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin)
           Swimming
            Control Dolphin
Response
             0.2000 0.6667
 Improve
 NotImprove 0.8000 0.3333
```

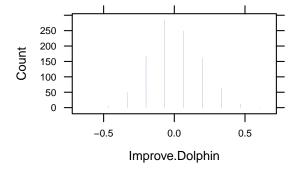
```
bargraph(~Swimming, data = Dolphin, groups = Response, stack = TRUE, auto.key = TRUE)
```



```
Figure5.4
tally(~shuffle(Response) + Swimming, data = Dolphin, margins = TRUE)
                 Swimming
shuffle(Response) Control Dolphin Total
       Improve
                       5
                                8
                                   13
                       10
                                7
                                     17
       NotImprove
                       15
                               15
                                     30
       Total
tally(~shuffle(Response) + Swimming, data = Dolphin, margins = TRUE)
                 Swimming
shuffle(Response) Control Dolphin Total
                       5
                                8
       Improve
                                     13
                       10
                                7
       NotImprove
                                     17
                                     30
       Total
                       15
                               15
tally(~shuffle(Response) + Swimming, data = Dolphin, margins = TRUE)
```

```
Swimming
shuffle(Response) Control Dolphin Total
       Improve
                       7
                                6
       NotImprove
                        8
                                9
                                     17
       Total
                       15
                               15
                                     30
diff(prop(Response ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin))
Improve.Dolphin
        0.4667
diff(prop(shuffle(Response) ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin))
Improve.Dolphin
      -0.06667
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{dolphins} \pi_{control} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{dolphins} \pi_{control} > 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{dolphins} \hat{p}_{control} = 0.4667$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{dolphins} \pi_{control} = 0$:



- 4. Normal approximation:
- 5. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Response ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin)

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 4.887, df = 1, p-value = 0.02706
alternative hypothesis: two.sided
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.84620 -0.08713
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.2000 0.6667
```

Estimation

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and simulated standard deviation of the null distribution:

```
# given difference in sample proportions
diff <- diff(prop(Response ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin))</pre>
# simulated standard deviation
sd <- sd(~Improve.Dolphin, data = simulation.dol)</pre>
# margin of error for 95% CI
MoE < -2 * sd
MoE
[1] 0.3639
# lower limit of 95% CI
diff - MoE
Improve.Dolphin
         0.1027
# upper limit of 95% CI
diff + MoE
Improve.Dolphin
       0.8306
```

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the approximate test for proportions:

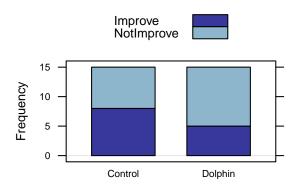
```
confint(prop.test(Response ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin))
prop 1 prop 2 lower upper level
0.20000 0.66667 -0.84620 -0.08713 0.95000
```

Follow-up Analysis

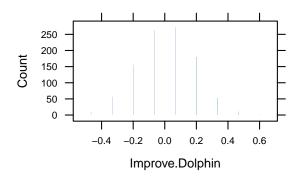
```
Dolphin2 <- rbind(
  do(8) * data.frame(Response = "Improve", Swimming = "Control"),
  do(5) * data.frame(Response = "Improve", Swimming = "Dolphin"),
  do(7) * data.frame(Response = "NotImprove", Swimming = "Control"),
  do(10) * data.frame(Response = "NotImprove", Swimming = "Dolphin")
  )</pre>
```

```
tally("Response + Swimming, data = Dolphin2, margin = TRUE)
            Swimming
Response
             Control Dolphin Total
 Improve
                   8
                           5
                                 13
                   7
                                 17
 NotImprove
                           10
                           15
                                 30
 Total
                  15
diff(prop(Response ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin2))
Improve.Dolphin
           -0.2
```

```
bargraph(~Swimming, data = Dolphin2, groups = Response, stack = TRUE, auto.key = TRUE)
```



- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{dolphins} \pi_{control} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{dolphins} \pi_{control} > 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{dolphins} \hat{p}_{control} = 0.20$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{dolphins} \pi_{control} = 0$:



4. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Response ~ Swimming, data = Dolphin2, alt = "greater")

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 0.543, df = 1, p-value = 0.2306
alternative hypothesis: greater
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.1582    1.0000
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.5333    0.3333
```

or, without having to create a dataframe:

```
success <- c(8, 5)
n <- c(15, 15)
prop.test(success, n, alt = "greater")

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 0.543, df = 1, p-value = 0.2306
alternative hypothesis: greater
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.1582    1.0000
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.5333    0.3333</pre>
```

Relative Risk

Exploration 5.2: Is Yawning Contagious?

```
Exploration5.2.9
head(Yawning, 3)
  YawnSeed Response
   Seeded
                Yawn
    Seeded
                Yawn
    Seeded
                Yawn
tally(~Response + YawnSeed, data = Yawning, margin = TRUE)
        YawnSeed
Response Control Seeded Total
                      23
  NoYawn
              13
               3
                             14
  Yawn
                      11
 Total
               16
                      34
                            50
```

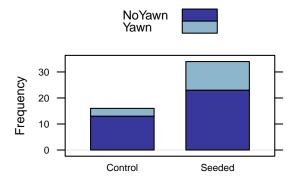
```
tally(Response ~ YawnSeed, data = Yawning)

YawnSeed
Response Control Seeded
NoYawn 0.8125 0.6765
Yawn 0.1875 0.3235

diff(prop(Response ~ YawnSeed, level = "Yawn", data = Yawning))

Yawn.Seeded
0.136
```

```
bargraph(~YawnSeed, data = Yawning, groups = Response, stack = TRUE, auto.key = TRUE)
```



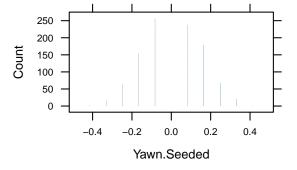
```
tally(~shuffle(Response) + YawnSeed, data = Yawning, margins = TRUE)

YawnSeed
shuffle(Response) Control Seeded Total
NoYawn 10 26 36
Yawn 6 8 14
Total 16 34 50
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} > 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{seeded} \hat{p}_{control} = 0.136$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} = 0$:

```
simulation.yawn <-
    do(1000) * diff(prop(shuffle(Response) ~ YawnSeed, level = "Yawn", data = Yawning))
head(simulation.yawn, 3)

Yawn.Seeded
1    -0.23162
2    0.04412
3    0.04412
dotPlot(~Yawn.Seeded, data = simulation.yawn, groups = (Yawn.Seeded >= 0.136))
```



4. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Response ~ YawnSeed, data = Yawning, alt = "greater")

Warning: Chi-squared approximation may be incorrect

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 0.4379, df = 1, p-value = 0.2541
alternative hypothesis: greater
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.1177    1.0000
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.8125    0.6765
```

```
Yawning2 <- rbind(
do(12) * data.frame(Response = "NoYawn", YawnSeed = "Control"),
do(24) * data.frame(Response = "NoYawn", YawnSeed = "Seeded"),
do(4) * data.frame(Response = "Yawn", YawnSeed = "Control"),
do(10) * data.frame(Response = "Yawn", YawnSeed = "Seeded")
)</pre>
```

```
head(Yawning2, 3)
 Response YawnSeed .row .index
1 NoYawn Control 1
2 NoYawn Control
                 1
                         2
3 NoYawn Control
                 1
                         3
tally(~Response + YawnSeed, data = Yawning2, margin = TRUE)
      YawnSeed
Response Control Seeded Total
 NoYawn 12 24
           4
                 10
 Yawn
Total 16 34 50
```

```
tally(Response ~ YawnSeed, data = Yawning2)

YawnSeed
Response Control Seeded
NoYawn 0.7500 0.7059
Yawn 0.2500 0.2941

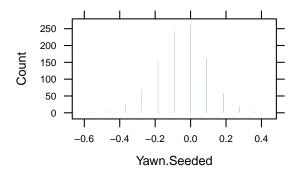
diff(prop(Response ~ YawnSeed, level = "Yawn", data = Yawning2))

Yawn.Seeded
0.04412
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} > 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{seeded} \hat{p}_{control} = 0.0441$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} = 0$:

```
simulation.yawn2 <-
    do(1000) * diff(prop(shuffle(Response) ~ YawnSeed, level = "Yawn", data = Yawning2))
head(simulation.yawn2, 3)

Yawn.Seeded
1    -0.32353
2    -0.04779
3    -0.04779
dotPlot(~Yawn.Seeded, data = simulation.yawn2, groups = (Yawn.Seeded >= 0.0441))
```



4. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Response ~ YawnSeed, data = Yawning2, alt = "greater")

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 0, df = 1, p-value = 0.5
alternative hypothesis: greater
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.2196    1.0000
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.7500    0.7059
```

or, without having to create a dataframe:

```
success <- c(4, 10)
n <- c(16, 34)
prop.test(success, n, alt = "greater")

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 0, df = 1, p-value = 0.5
alternative hypothesis: greater
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.3078    1.0000
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.2500    0.2941</pre>
```

Estimation

```
sd <- sd(~Yawn.Seeded, data = simulation.yawn2)
sd

[1] 0.1413</pre>
Exploration5.2.24c
```

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and simulated standard deviation of the null distribution:

```
Exploration 5.2.24d
# given difference in sample proportions
diff <- diff(prop(Response ~ YawnSeed, level = "Yawn", data = Yawning2))</pre>
# previously found simulated standard deviation
sd
[1] 0.1413
# margin of error for 95% CI
MoE \leftarrow 2 * sd
MoE
[1] 0.2827
# lower limit of 95% CI
diff - MoE
Yawn. Seeded
    -0.2386
# upper limit of 95% CI
diff + MoE
Yawn.Seeded
   0.3268
```

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the approximate test for proportions:

```
confint(prop.test(Response ~ YawnSeed, data = Yawning2))
prop 1 prop 2 lower upper level
0.7500 0.7059 -0.2617 0.3499 0.9500
```

Effect of Sample Size

```
Yawning3 <- rbind(
  do(240) * data.frame(Response = "NoYawn", YawnSeed = "Control"),
  do(120) * data.frame(Response = "NoYawn", YawnSeed = "Seeded"),
  do(100) * data.frame(Response = "Yawn", YawnSeed = "Control"),
  do(40) * data.frame(Response = "Yawn", YawnSeed = "Seeded")
  )</pre>
```

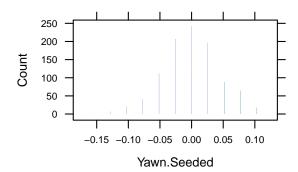
```
head(Yawning3, 3)
 Response YawnSeed .row .index
1 NoYawn Control 1 1
  NoYawn Control
                          2
                   1
3 NoYawn Control
                    1
                          3
tally(~Response + YawnSeed, data = Yawning3, margin = TRUE)
      YawnSeed
Response Control Seeded Total
 NoYawn 240 120 360
           100
                 40 140
 Yawn
 Total 340 160 500
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} > 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{seeded} \hat{p}_{control} = 0.0441$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{seeded} \pi_{control} = 0$:

```
simulation.yawn3 <-
    do(1000) * diff(prop(shuffle(Response) ~ YawnSeed, level = "Yawn", data = Yawning3))
head(simulation.yawn3, 3)

Yawn.Seeded
1    -0.14522
2    -0.02574
3    -0.01654

dotPlot(~Yawn.Seeded, data = simulation.yawn3, groups = (Yawn.Seeded >= 0.0441))
```



4. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Response ~ YawnSeed, data = Yawning3, alt = "greater")

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 0.843, df = 1, p-value = 0.8207
alternative hypothesis: greater
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.1182    1.0000
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.7059    0.7500
```

or, without having to create a dataframe:

```
success <- c(40, 100)
n <- c(160, 340)
prop.test(success, n, alt = "greater")

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 0.843, df = 1, p-value = 0.8207
alternative hypothesis: greater
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.1182    1.0000
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.2500    0.2941</pre>
```

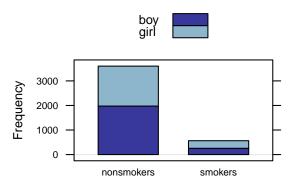
Relative risk

5.3 Comparing Two Proportions: Theory-Based Approach

Example 5.3: Smoking and Birth Gender

```
head(Smoking, 3)
 Parents Child
1 smokers girl
2 smokers girl
3 smokers girl
summary(Smoking)
      Parents
                 Child
 nonsmokers:3602 boy:2230
 smokers : 565 girl:1937
tally(~Parents + Child, data = Smoking, margin = TRUE)
           Child
Parents
            boy girl Total
 nonsmokers 1975 1627 3602
 smokers
            255 310
                      565
 Total 2230 1937 4167
```

```
bargraph(~Parents, data = Smoking, groups = Child, stack = TRUE, auto.key = TRUE)
```



```
tally(Child ~ Parents, data = Smoking)

Parents
Child nonsmokers smokers
boy     0.5483     0.4513
girl     0.4517     0.5487
```

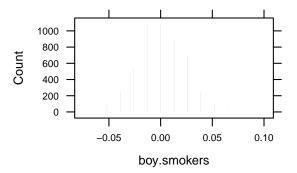
```
diff(prop(Child ~ Parents, data = Smoking))
boy.smokers
  -0.09698
```

- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{smoker} \pi_{nonsmoker} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{smoker} \pi_{nonsmoker} \neq 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{smoker} \hat{p}_{nonsmoker} = -0.097$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{smoker} \pi_{nonsmoker} = 0$:

```
simulation.smoke <- do(5000) * diff(prop(shuffle(Child) ~ Parents, data = Smoking))
head(simulation.smoke, 3)

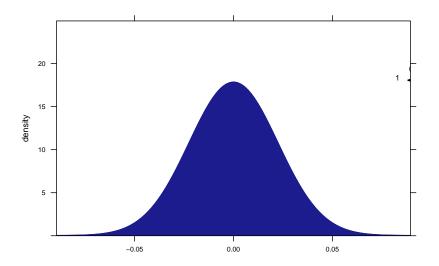
boy.smokers
1   -0.01303
2   0.00335
3   0.02587

dotPlot(~boy.smokers, data = simulation.smoke)</pre>
```



4. Normal approximation (using simulated standard deviation):

```
sd <- sd(~boy.smokers, data = simulation.smoke) 
 2 * xpnorm(0.097, 0, sd, lower.tail = FALSE) # 2 times because two-sided 
 If X ~ N(0,0.022375248845317), then 
 P(X <= 0.097) = P(Z <= 4.335) = 1 
 P(X > 0.097) = P(Z > 4.335) = 0 
 [1] 1.457e-05
```



5. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Child ~ Parents, data = Smoking)

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 18.08, df = 1, p-value = 2.122e-05
alternative hypothesis: two.sided
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.05182    0.14214
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
    0.5483    0.4513
```

Estimation

```
confint(prop.test(Child ~ Parents, data = Smoking))

prop 1 prop 2 lower upper level
0.54831 0.45133 0.05182 0.14214 0.95000

confint(prop.test(Child ~ Parents, data = Smoking, conf.level = 0.99))

prop 1 prop 2 lower upper level
Figure5.14
```

Formulas

 $0.54831 \ 0.45133 \ 0.03795 \ 0.15600 \ 0.99000$

```
prop(Child ~ Parents, data = Smoking)
                   boy.smokers
boy.nonsmokers
        0.5483
                      0.4513
p.1 < -0.548
p.2 < -0.451
p.hat <- prop(~Child, data = Smoking)</pre>
p.hat # pooled prop of success
   boy
0.5352
n.1 <- 565
n.2 <- 3602
z \leftarrow (p.1 - p.2)/sqrt((p.hat * (1 - p.hat) * (1/n.1 + 1/n.2)))
  boy
4.298
SE \leftarrow sqrt(p.1 * (1 - p.1)/n.1 + p.2 * (1 - p.2)/n.2)
SE
[1] 0.02252
MoE < - 2 * SE
MoE
```

Exploration 5.3: Donating Blood

[1] 0.04504

```
Year Response orig.ids
1361 2002 did.not 1361
416 2004 donated 416
1487 2002 did.not 1487
2405 2004 did.not 2405
20 2002 donated 20

tally(Response ~ Year, data = Blood, format = "count", margin = TRUE)

Year
```

```
Response 2002 2004
did.not 1152 1106
donated 210 230
Total 1362 1336
```

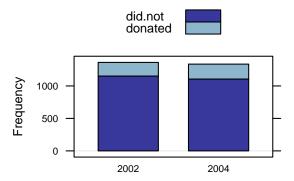
```
tally(Response ~ Year, data = Blood)

Year
Response 2002 2004
    did.not 0.8458 0.8278
    donated 0.1542 0.1722

diff(prop(Response ~ Year, level = "donated", data = Blood))

donated.2004
    0.01797
```

```
Exploration5.3.4
bargraph(~Year, groups = Response, data = Blood, stack = TRUE, auto.key = TRUE)
```

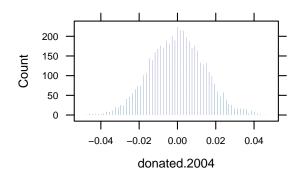


- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{2004} \pi_{2002} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{2004} \pi_{2002} \neq 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{2004} \hat{p}_{2002} = 0.0180$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{2004} \pi_{2002} = 0$:

```
simulation.blood <-
    do(5000) * diff(prop(shuffle(Response) ~ Year, level = "donated", data = Blood))
head(simulation.blood, 3)

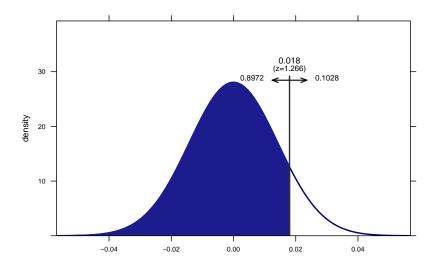
donated.2004
1    0.025384
2    0.007592
3    -0.004270

dotPlot(~ donated.2004, data = simulation.blood,
    groups = (donated.2004 <= -0.018 | donated.2004 >= 0.018), width = 0.0001)
```



4. Normal approximation (using simulated standard deviation):

```
 \begin{array}{l} \text{Sd} <- \text{ sd}(\text{``donated.2004'}, \text{ data = simulation.blood'}) \\ 2 * \text{xpnorm}(0.018, 0, \text{ sd, lower.tail = FALSE}) & \textit{# 2 times because two-sided} \\ \\ \text{If X ``N(0,0.0142186374869083)', then} \\ P(X <= 0.018) = P(Z <= 1.266) = 0.8972 \\ P(X > 0.018) = P(Z > 1.266) = 0.1028 \\ [1] 0.2055 \\ \end{array}
```



5. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Response ~ Year, data = Blood)

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 1.467, df = 1, p-value = 0.2258
alternative hypothesis: two.sided
95 percent confidence interval:
    -0.01066    0.04660
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.8458    0.8278
```

```
confint(prop.test(Response ~ Year, data = Blood))

prop 1 prop 2 lower upper level
0.84581 0.82784 -0.01066 0.04660 0.95000
```

```
success <- c(230, 210)
n <- c(1336, 1362)
prop.test(success, n)

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: x and n
X-squared = 1.467, df = 1, p-value = 0.2258
alternative hypothesis: two.sided
95 percent confidence interval:
-0.01066  0.04660
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
0.1722  0.1542
```

```
Blood2 <- rbind(
do(239) * data.frame(Response = "donated", Sex = "Male"),
do(201) * data.frame(Response = "donated", Sex = "Female"),
do(1032) * data.frame(Response = "did.not", Sex = "Male"),
do(1226) * data.frame(Response = "did.not", Sex = "Female")
)
```

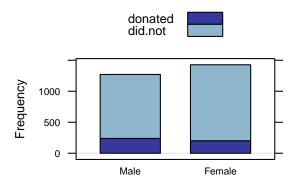
```
tally(~Response + Sex, data = Blood2, margin = TRUE)

Sex
Response Male Female Total
donated 239 201 440
did.not 1032 1226 2258
Total 1271 1427 2698
```

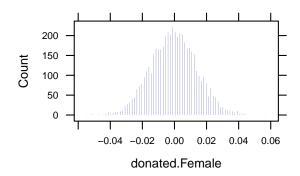
```
Sex
Response Male Female
  donated 0.1880 0.1409
  did.not 0.8120 0.8591

diff(prop(Response ~ Sex, data = Blood2))

donated.Female
  -0.04719
```



- 1. H_0 : $\pi_{female} \pi_{male} = 0$; H_a : $\pi_{female} \pi_{male} \neq 0$
- 2. Test statistic: $\hat{p}_{female} \hat{p}_{male} = -0.0472$ (the difference in the conditional sample proportions)
- 3. We simulate a world in which $\pi_{female} \pi_{male} = 0$:



4. Normal approximation (using simulated standard deviation):

```
sd <- sd(\text{``donated.Female'}, \text{ data = simulation.blood2})

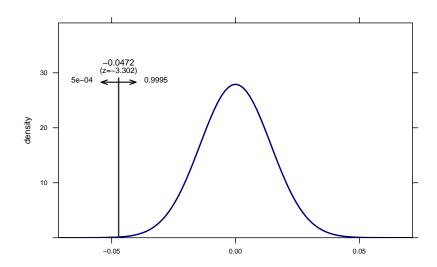
2 * xpnorm(-0.0472, 0, sd, xlim = 0 + c(-5, 5) * sd) # 2 times because two-sided

If X \sim N(0,0.0142927015599229), then

P(X <= -0.0472) = P(Z <= -3.302) = 5e-04

P(X > -0.0472) = P(Z > -3.302) = 0.9995

[1] 0.0009587
```



5. Approximate test for difference in proportions:

```
prop.test(Response ~ Sex, data = Blood2)

2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity correction

data: t(table_from_formula)
X-squared = 10.62, df = 1, p-value = 0.001117
alternative hypothesis: two.sided
95 percent confidence interval:
    0.01838    0.07599
sample estimates:
prop 1 prop 2
    0.1880    0.1409
```

6

Comparing Two Means

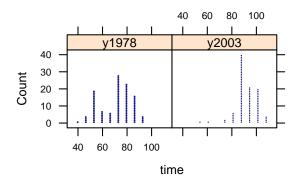
6.1 Comparing Two Groups: Quantitative Response

Example 6.1: Geyser Eruptions

```
head(OldFaithful, 3)

year time
1 y1978    78
2 y1978    74
3 y1978    68

dotPlot(~time | year, data = OldFaithful)
```



```
fivenum(~time, data = OldFaithful)

[1] 42 73 84 91 110

fivenum(time ~ year, data = OldFaithful)
```

```
y19781 y19782 y19783 y19784 y19785 y20031 y20032 y20033 y20034 y20035
42.0 59.0 75.0 80.5 95.0 56.0 87.0 91.0 97.0 110.0
```

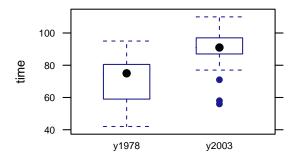
```
IQR(~time, data = OldFaithful)

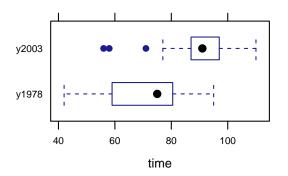
[1] 18

IQR(~time | year, data = OldFaithful)

y1978 y2003
20.75 10.00
```

```
bwplot(time ~ year, data = OldFaithful)
bwplot(year ~ time, data = OldFaithful, horizontal = TRUE)
```





Exploration 6.1A: Haircut Prices

```
head(Haircuts)

Sex Cost

1 Female 50

2 Male 20

3 Female 60

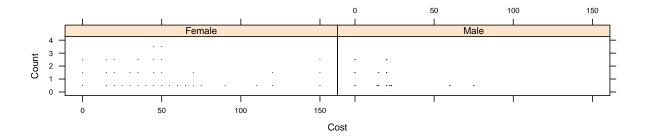
4 Male 75

5 Female 150

6 Male 23
```

```
Exploration6.1A.4

dotPlot(~Cost | Sex, data = Haircuts, width = 1, cex = 0.1)
```



```
favstats(~Cost | Sex, data = Haircuts)

.group min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing
1 Female 0 25 45 70 150 54.05 41.61 37 0
2 Male 0 14 20 22 75 21.85 22.14 13 0
```

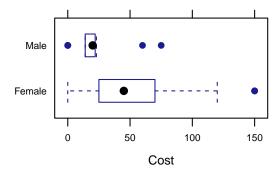
```
diff(mean(Cost ~ Sex, data = Haircuts))

Male
-32.21
Exploration6.1A.10
```

Further Analyses

```
median(Cost ~ Sex, data = Haircuts)
Female Male
45 20
```

```
bwplot(Sex ~ Cost, data = Haircuts, horizontal = TRUE)
```



```
IQR(Cost ~ Sex, data = Haircuts)
Female Male
45 8
```

Exploration 6.1B: Cancer Pamplets

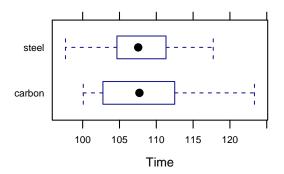
6.2 Comparing Two Means: Simulation-Based Approach

Example 6.2: Bicycling to Work

```
head(BikeTimes)

Frame Time
1 steel 115.8
2 steel 115.7
3 steel 108.7
4 steel 117.7
5 steel 112.6
6 steel 109.6
```

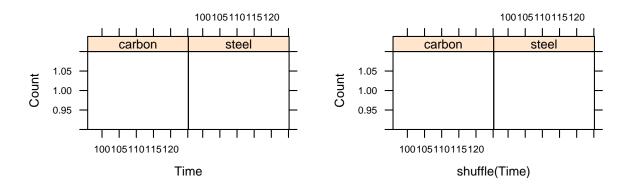
```
bwplot(Frame ~ Time, data = BikeTimes, horizontal = TRUE)
```



```
dotPlot(~Time | Frame, data = BikeTimes, width = 0.05, cex = 0.05, ylim = c(0.9, 1.1))
diff(mean(Time ~ Frame, data = BikeTimes))

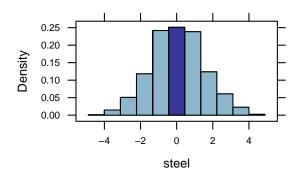
steel
-0.5347

dotPlot(~shuffle(Time) | Frame, data = BikeTimes, width = 0.05, cex = 0.05, ylim = c(0.9, 1.1))
diff(mean(shuffle(Time) ~ Frame, data = BikeTimes))
```



```
1. H_0: \mu_{carbon} - \mu_{steel} = 0
H_a: \mu_{carbon} - \mu_{steel} \neq 0
Test statistic: \bar{x}_{carbon} - \bar{x}_{steel} = 0.53 (the difference in the sample means)
```

2. We simulate a world in which $\mu_{carbon} - \mu_{steel} = 0$:



3. Strength of evidence:

Estimating a confidence interval

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard deviation of the null distribution:

```
diff <- -diff(mean(Time ~ Frame, data = BikeTimes)) # note the negative sign
sd <- sd(~steel, data = simulation.bike)
diff - 2 * sd # lower limit of 95% CI</pre>
```

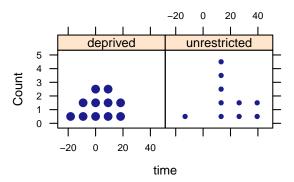
```
steel
-2.372

diff + 2 * sd # upper limit of 95% CI

steel
3.442
```

Exploration 6.2: Lingering Effects of Sleep Deprivation

```
sleep time
1 unrestricted -7.0
2 unrestricted 11.6
3 unrestricted 12.1
4 unrestricted 12.6
5 unrestricted 14.5
6 unrestricted 18.6
```



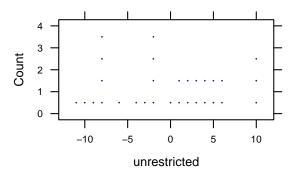
```
diff(mean(shuffle(time) ~ sleep, data = Sleep))

unrestricted
    -15.1

sample <- do(30) * diff(mean(shuffle(time) ~ sleep, data = Sleep))
head(sample, 3)

unrestricted
1    -1.720
2    -7.715
3     3.988

dotPlot(~unrestricted, data = sample, width = 1, cex = 0.1)</pre>
```



1. H_0 : $\mu_{unrestricted} - \mu_{deprived} = 0$

 H_a : $\mu_{unrestricted} - \mu_{deprived} > 0$

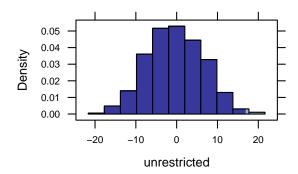
Test statistic: $\bar{x}_{unrestricted} - \bar{x}_{deprived} = 15.92$ (the difference in the sample means)

2. We simulate a world in which $\mu_{unrestricted} - \mu_{deprived} = 0$:

```
simulation.sleep <- do(1000) * diff(mean(shuffle(time) ~ sleep, data = Sleep))
head(simulation.sleep, 3)

unrestricted
1    -1.5291
2    0.7045
3    -5.5000

histogram(~ unrestricted, data = simulation.sleep,
    groups = (unrestricted >= 15.92))
```



3. Strength of evidence:

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard deviation of the null distribution:

Another statistic

```
median(time ~ sleep, data = Sleep)

deprived unrestricted
4.50 16.55
```

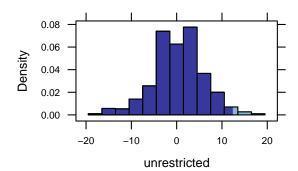
```
diff(median(time ~ sleep, data = Sleep))
unrestricted
    12.05
```

1. H_0 : median_{unrestricted} - median_{deprived} = 0

 H_a : median_{unrestricted} - median_{deprived} > 0

Test statistic: $median_{unrestricted}$ - $median_{deprived} = 12.05$ (the difference in the sample medians)

2. We simulate a world in which median unrestricted - median deprived = 0:



3. Strength of evidence:

```
favstats(~unrestricted, data = simulation.med)

min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing
-19 -2.8 -0.5 3.45 17.8 0.1648 5.591 1000 0

prop(~(unrestricted >= 12.05), data = simulation.med)

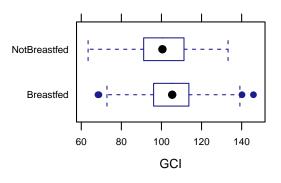
TRUE
0.018
```

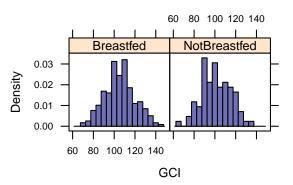
6.3 Comparing Two Means: Theory-Based Approach

Example 6.3: Breastfeeding and Intelligence

```
head(BreastFeedIntell)
                                                                                                 Table6.4
    Feeding
               GCI
1 Breastfed 126.70
2 Breastfed 124.69
3 Breastfed 99.79
4 Breastfed 104.97
5 Breastfed 97.25
6 Breastfed 131.28
favstats(GCI ~ Feeding, data = BreastFeedIntell)
                        Q1 median
                                     Q3
                 min
                                          max mean
     Breastfed 68.33 96.08 105.4 113.7 145.9 105.3 14.5 237
2 NotBreastfed 63.41 91.13 100.5 111.2 133.2 100.9 14.0 85
diff(mean(GCI ~ Feeding, data = BreastFeedIntell))
NotBreastfed
       -4.4
```

```
bwplot(Feeding ~ GCI, horizontal = TRUE, data = BreastFeedIntell)
histogram(~GCI | Feeding, data = BreastFeedIntell, width = 5)
```





```
1. H_0: \mu_{breastfed} - \mu_{not} = 0
```

 H_a : $\mu_{breastfed} - \mu_{not} \neq 0$

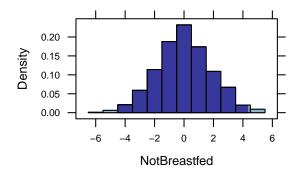
Test statistic: $\bar{x}_{breastfed} - \bar{x}_{not} = 4.40$ (the difference in the sample means)

2. We simulate a world in which $\mu_{breastfed} - \mu_{not} = 0$:

```
simulation.GCI <- do(1000) * diff(mean(shuffle(GCI) ~ Feeding, data = BreastFeedIntell))
head(simulation.GCI, 3)

NotBreastfed
1     0.481
2     -2.402
3     3.240

histogram(~ NotBreastfed, data = simulation.GCI,
     groups = (NotBreastfed <= -4.40 | NotBreastfed >= 4.40), width = 1)
```



3. Strength of evidence:

Determining a 95% confidence interval using the 2SD Method and standard deviation of the null distribution:

```
diff + 2 * sd # upper limit of 95% CI
NotBreastfed
    8.076
```

```
t.test(GCI ~ Feeding, data = BreastFeedIntell)

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: GCI by Feeding
t = 2.462, df = 153, p-value = 0.01491
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
0.8699 7.9302
sample estimates:
mean in group Breastfed mean in group NotBreastfed
105.3 100.9

stat(t.test(GCI ~ Feeding, data = BreastFeedIntell))

t
2.462
```

Exploration 6.3: Close Friends

```
head(CloseFriends)
                                                                                             Exploration6.3.1
  Sex Friends
1 Men
2 Men
            0
            0
3 Men
4 Men
            0
            0
5 Men
            0
6 Men
tally(~Friends + Sex, data = CloseFriends, margin = TRUE)
       Sex
Friends Men Women Total
  0
         196
               201 397
  1
         135
               146
                     281
  2
         108
               155
                     263
  3
         100
                     232
               132
  4
         42
               86
                     128
  5
         40
               56
                      96
  6
         33
               37
                     70
Total 654 813 1467
```

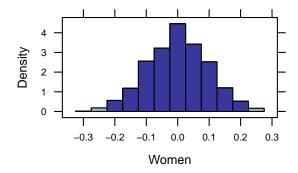
```
favstats(Friends ~ Sex, data = CloseFriends)

.group min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing
1 Men 0 0 1 3 6 1.861 1.777 654 0
2 Women 0 1 2 3 6 2.089 1.760 813 0

diff(mean(Friends ~ Sex, data = CloseFriends))

Women
0.2277
```

- 1. H_0 : $\mu_{men} \mu_{women} = 0$ H_a : $\mu_{men} \mu_{women} \neq 0$ Test statistic: $\bar{x}_{men} \bar{x}_{women} = -0.228$ (the difference in the sample means)
- 2. We simulate a world in which $\mu_{men} \mu_{women} = 0$:



3. Strength of evidence:

```
t.test(Friends ~ Sex, data = CloseFriends)

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: Friends by Sex
t = -2.45, df = 1393, p-value = 0.01442
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
-0.41004 -0.04537
sample estimates:
mean in group Men mean in group Women
1.861 2.089

stat(t.test(Friends ~ Sex, data = CloseFriends))

t
-2.45
```

```
pval(t.test(Friends ~ Sex, data = CloseFriends))

p.value
0.01442
Exploration6.3.17
```

Validity Conditions

```
confint(t.test(Friends ~ Sex, data = CloseFriends))

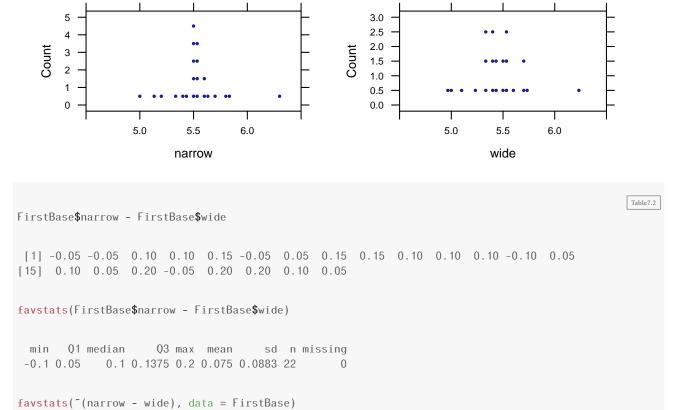
mean in group Men mean in group Women lower upper
    1.86086    2.08856   -0.41004   -0.04537
    level
    0.95000
```

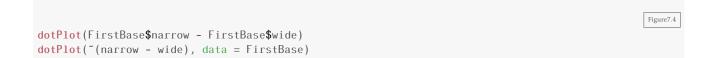
Paired Data: One Quantitative Variable

7.1 Paired Designs

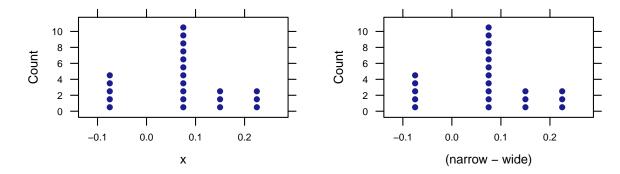
7.2 Simulation-Based Approach for Analyzing Paired Data

Example 7.2: Rounding First Base (continued)





sd n missing



We simulate a world in which $\mu_d = 0$:

Q1 median

Q3 max mean

Exploration 7.2: Exercise and Heart Rate

```
head(JJvsBicycle)

JJ bicycle
1 118 118
2 146 124
3 134 92
4 94 80
5 146 111
6 114 112
```

- 1. H_0 : $\mu_d = 0$ H_a : $\mu_d \neq 0$ Test statistic: $\bar{x}_d =$ (the mean difference in sample)
- 2. We simulate a world in which $\mu_d = 0$:
- 3. Strength of evidence:

Standarized statistic:

95% confidence interval using 2SD Method:

7.3 Theory-Based Approach to Analyzing Data from Paired Samples

Example 7.3: How Many M&Ms Would You Like?

```
head(BowlsMMs)

Small Large
1 33 41
```

```
2 24 92
3 35 61
4 24 19
5 40 21
6 33 35
```

```
favstats(~Small, data = BowlsMMs)

min 01 median 03 max mean sd n missing
24 26 34 40 88 38.59 16.9 17 0

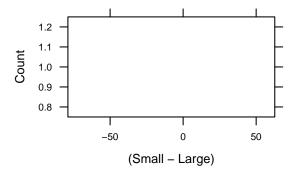
favstats(~Large, data = BowlsMMs)

min 01 median 03 max mean sd n missing
11 33 42 62 104 49.47 27.21 17 0

favstats(BowlsMMs$Small - BowlsMMs$Large)

min 01 median 03 max mean sd n missing
-69 -28 -8 14 54 -10.88 36.3 17 0
```

```
\frac{\text{Figure 7.9}}{\text{dotPlot}(\text{``(Small - Large)}), \text{ data = BowlsMMs, nint = 100, ylim = c(0.75, 1.25), cex = 0.05)}
```



- 1. H_0 : $\mu_d = 0$
 - H_a : $\mu_d < 0$

Test statistic: $\bar{x}_d = -10.88$ (the mean difference in paired samples)

- 2. We simulate a world in which $\mu_d = 0$:
- 3. Strength of evidence:

Theory-based approach

Exploration 7.3: comparing Auction Formats

```
head(Auction)

dutch FP
1 25 26.25
2 24 25.25
3 26 27.00
4 20 20.75
5 20 20.75
6 15 15.25
```

```
Summary (Auction)

dutch FP

Min.: 0.15 Min.: 0.10
1st Qu.: 2.00 1st Qu.: 1.19

Median: 3.00 Median: 2.27

Mean: 5.16 Mean: 4.78
3rd Qu.: 7.00 3rd Qu.: 6.05

Max.: 26.00 Max.: 27.00

favstats (Auction $ dutch - Auction $ FP )

min Q1 median Q3 max mean sd n missing
-1.25 0 0.25 0.5 2.4 0.3835 0.6752 88 0
```

```
1. H_0: \mu_d=0 H_a: \mu_d\neq 0 Test statistic: \bar{x}_d=0.384 (the mean difference in paired samples)
```

2. We simulate a world in which $\mu_d = 0$:

- 3. Strength of evidence:
- 4. t-test for paired samples (theory-based approach):

```
Exploration7.3.7
t.test(Auction$dutch, Auction$FP, paired = TRUE)
Paired t-test
data: x and Auction$FP
t = 5.328, df = 87, p-value = 7.692e-07
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
0.2405 0.5266
sample estimates:
mean of the differences
                 0.3835
t.test(~(dutch - FP), data = Auction)
One Sample t-test
data: data$(dutch - FP)
t = 5.328, df = 87, p-value = 7.692e-07
alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to {\bf 0}
95 percent confidence interval:
0.2405 0.5266
sample estimates:
mean of x
0.3835
```

95% confidence interval using the t-test:

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