# MATH 392 Problem Set 2

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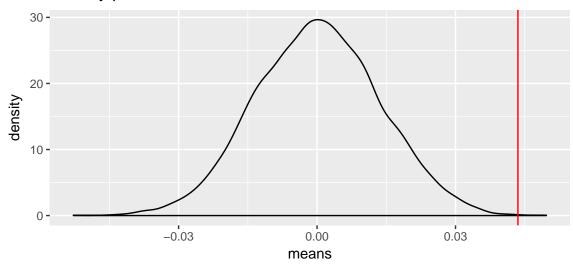
2 February 2018

#### 3.4

 $\mathbf{a}$ 

```
FlightDelays <- FlightDelays %>%
  mutate(Delayed20 = ifelse(Delay > 20, 1, 0))
# Calculating observed difference in the two groups' mean proportions
xobs <- mean(FlightDelays$Delayed20[FlightDelays$Carrier == "UA"] -</pre>
               mean(FlightDelays$Delayed20[FlightDelays$Carrier=="AA"]))
# Running simulation for hypothesis testing
nsim <- 10000
means <- rep(NA, nsim)
for(i in 1:nsim){
 perm <- sample(FlightDelays$Carrier, replace=F)</pre>
 means[i] <- mean(FlightDelays$Delayed20[perm=="UA"] -</pre>
                     mean(FlightDelays$Delayed20[perm=="AA"]))
}
simdf <- data.frame(means)</pre>
# Plotting the simulated null distribution
ggplot(simdf, aes(x = means)) +
  geom_density() +
  geom_vline(xintercept = xobs, col = "red") +
  ggtitle("Density plot of observed mean differences from 10000 simulations")
```

### Density plot of observed mean differences from 10000 simulations



The red vertical line indicates the difference in proportions observed in the actual dataset. The p-value for a two-tailed test is calculated below.

```
(sum(means > xobs) + 1)/(length(means) + 1) * 2
## [1] 0.0009999
```

We are testing to see if the variance in flight delays for United Airlines is greater than the variance for American Airlines. Thus, we are conducting a one-tailed significance test. Speicically,

```
H_0: \rho_{UA} \leq \rho_{AA}
```

```
H_A: \rho_{UA} > \rho_{AA}
```

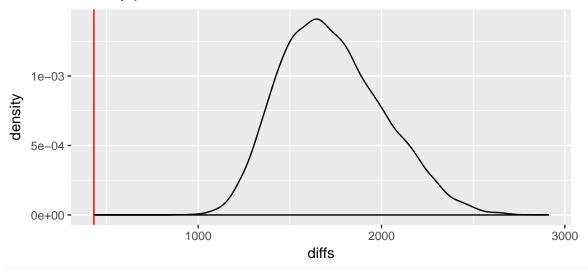
```
# Variance in flight delay lengths for each carrier
varUA <- var(FlightDelays$Delay[FlightDelays$Carrier == "UA"])
varAA <- var(FlightDelays$Delay[FlightDelays$Carrier == "AA"])
varUA
## [1] 2038</pre>
```

#### ## [1] 1606

b

varUA and varAA indicate the variances of United Airlines' and American Airlines' delay times, respectively. A simulation just like the last problem will be used to test if the difference in these variances is statistically significant.

## Density plot of observed variance differences from 10000 simulatic



```
(sum(diffs < obs.diff) + 1)/(length(diffs) + 1)</pre>
```

## [1] 9.999e-05

#### 3.16

 $\mathbf{a}$ 

#### table(GSS2002\$Gender,GSS2002\$Pres00)

b

```
gender <- GSS2002$Gender
pres <- GSS2002$Pres00
chisq.test(gender,pres)

## Warning in chisq.test(gender, pres): Chi-squared approximation may be
## incorrect

##
## Pearson's Chi-squared test
##
## data: gender and pres
## X-squared = 33, df = 4, p-value = 1e-06</pre>
c
```

```
# Remove NAs
GSS2002 <- GSS2002 %>%
```

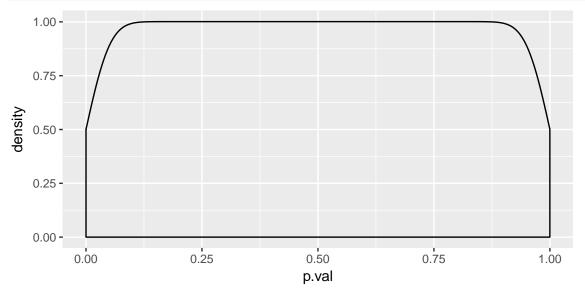
```
filter(!is.na(Gender),
     !is.na(Pres00))
# Chi-squared test using permutations
nsim <- 10000</pre>
```

3.22

### 3.31

#### **Empirical Solution**

```
nsim <- 10000
t.obs <- rnorm(nsim,0,1)
ts <- data.frame(t.obs)
ts <- ts %>%
    arrange(t.obs) %>%
    mutate(t.obs = abs(t.obs))
p.val <- rep(NA,nsim)
for(i in 1:nsim){
    p.val[i] <- (sum(ts$t.obs>ts$t.obs[i])+1)/(length(ts$t.obs)+1)
}
ts <- cbind(ts, p.val)
ggplot(ts, aes(x=p.val)) +
    geom_density()</pre>
```



As we'd expect, the simulated density plot follows a uniform distribution.

#### **Analytical Solution**

Consider a test statistic  $t = T(x_1, ..., x_n)$ . Its corresponding p-value is calculated by solving

$$p = Pr(T(X) \ge t|H_0).$$

This makes p a random variable as well, since its calculated probability depends on the random variable T(X). Thus the p-value follows some probability distribution P(T). Since the p-values are drawn from the

distribution of T(X), then the p-values have a one-to-one correspondence to each observed test statistic t. Thus,

$$Pr(P(T) \geq p) = Pr(T(X) \geq t) = p.$$

This shows that P(T) follows a uniform distribution, where Pr(p) = 1/n.

3.32