

Small Sample Proportion

➤ Paul the Octopus predicted 8 World Cup games, and predicted them all correctly. Does this provide convincing evidence that Paul actually has psychic powers, i.e. that he does better than just randomly guessing?

$$H_0: p = 0.5$$

 $H_A: p > 0.5$ $n = 8$, $\hat{p} = 1$

- 1. Independence:
 - we can assume that his guesses are independent
- 2. Sample size / skew: $8 \times 0.5 = 4 \rightarrow$ not met distribution of sample proportions cannot be assumed to be nearly normal



Statistical Inference

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Revisit: inference via simulation

- > The ultimate goal of a hypothesis test is a p-value
- \triangleright p-value = P(observed or more extreme outcome | H_0 true)
- ➤ Devise a simulation scheme that assumes the null hypothesis is true
- Repeat the simulation many times and record relevant sample statistic
- Calculate p-value as the proportion of simulations that yield a result favorable to the alternative hypothesis



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Small Sample Proportion

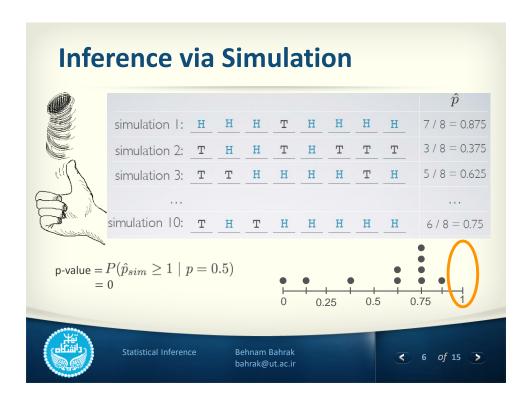
- Paul the Octopus predicted 8 World Cup games, and predicted them all correctly. Does this provide convincing evidence that Paul actually has psychic powers, i.e. that he does better than just randomly guessing? $H_0: p = 0.5$ $H_4: p > 0.5$
- Use a fair coin, and label head as success (correct guess)
- \succ One simulation: flip the coin 8 times and record the proportion of heads (correct guesses): \hat{p}_{sim}
- > Repeat the simulation many times, recording the proportion of heads at each iteration: $\hat{p}_{sim,1},\hat{p}_{sim,2},\cdots,\hat{p}_{sim,N}$
- ➤ Calculate the percentage of simulations where the simulated proportion of heads is at least as extreme as the observed proportion

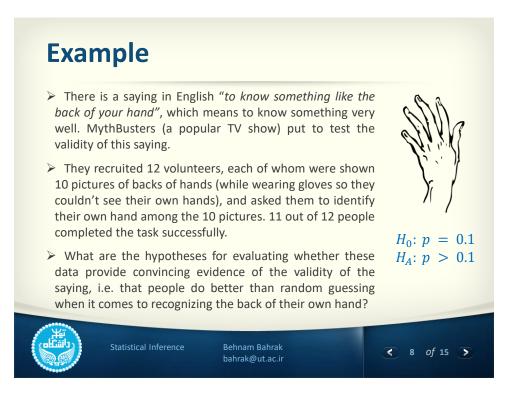


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Example

Fill in the blanks below:

- 1. Use a $\underline{10}$ -sided fair die to represent the sampling space, and call 1 a success (guessing correctly), and all other outcomes failures (guessing incorrectly).
- 2. Roll the die <u>12</u> times (each representing one of <u>12</u> people in the experiment), count the number rolls that resulted in <u>ones</u>, and calculate the proportion of correct guesses in one simulation of <u>12</u> rolls.
- 3. Repeat step (2) 100 times, each time recording the proportion of simulated successes in a series of $\frac{12}{12}$ rolls of the die.
- 4. Create a dot plot of the <u>simulated</u> proportions from step (3) and count the number of simulations where the proportion is <u>11/12 or greater</u> (the <u>observed</u> proportion).

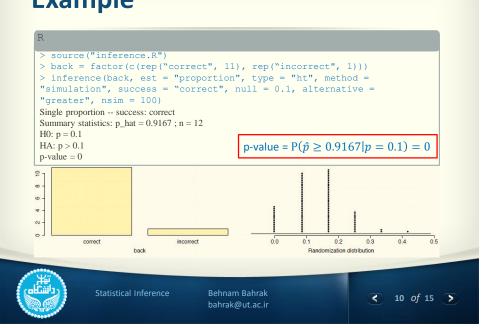


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Example



Comparing two small sample proportions

"to know something like the back of your hand"

	back	palm	total
correct	11	7	18
incorrect	1	5	6
total	12	12	24
\widehat{p}	0.9167	0.5833	0.75



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Example

> Do these data provide convincing evidence that there is a difference in how good people are at recognizing the backs and the palms of their hands?

$$H_0$$
: $p_{back} - p_{palm} = 0$ H_A : $p_{back} - p_{palm} \neq 0$

1. Independence:

√ within groups: within each group we can assume that the guess of one subject is independent of another.

√ between groups: no, same people guessing – assume to be met for illustrative purposes

2. Sample size / skew: $12 \times 0.75 = 9$ and $12 \times 0.25 = 3$ not met, use simulation methods



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Simulation Scheme

- 1. Use 24 index cards, where each card represents a subject.
- 2. Mark 18 of the cards as "correct" and the remaining 6 as "wrong".
- 3. Shuffle the cards and split into two groups of size 12, for back and palm.
- 4. Calculate the difference between the proportions of "correct" in the back and palm decks, and record this number.
- 5. Repeat steps (3) and (4) many times to build a randomization distribution of differences in simulated proportions.



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Interpreting the simulation results

- > Simulate the experiment under the assumption of independence, i.e. leaving things up to chance.
- ➤ Results from the simulations look like the data → the difference between the proportions of correct guesses in the two groups was due to chance.
- ➤ Results from the simulations do not look like the data → the difference between the proportions of correct guesses in the two groups was not due to chance, but because people actually know the backs of their hands better.



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