

Assignment 1 - Foundations of Probability

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Exercise 1

- a) ♣ Under the binomial distribution assumption, let's note:

w : the number of students who answered "yes" (number of successes)

π : the probability of success

n : the number of students

Since $w = 0$ and $n = 25$, the "ML" estimate $\hat{\pi} = \frac{w}{n} = \frac{0}{25} = 0$. by using the Wald method, the 95% confidence interval for π is :

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\pi} & \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}} \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha = 5\% \\ & = 0 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{0(1-0)}{25}} \\ & = (0, 0)\end{aligned}$$

- ♣ NO! in this case the Wald interval doesn't work, we have just one value for $\pi = 0$. (When the observation falls at the boundary of the sample space, often Wald methods do not provide sensible answers.)

- b) ♣ Wilson confidence interval

the 95% ($\alpha = 5\%$) Wilson interval is:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\pi} & \pm \frac{Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{n}}{n + Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2} \sqrt{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi}) + \frac{Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2}{4n}} \quad \text{where } \tilde{\pi} = \frac{w + Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2/2}{n + Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2} \\ & = \frac{0 + 1.96^2/2}{25 + 1.96^2} \pm \frac{1.96\sqrt{25}}{25 + 1.96^2} \sqrt{0(1-0) + \frac{1.96^2}{4 * 25}} \\ & = (0, 0.133)\end{aligned}$$

- ♣ Agresti-Coull confidence interval

the 95% ($\alpha = 5\%$) Agresti-Coull interval is:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\pi} & \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\tilde{\pi}(1-\tilde{\pi})}{n + Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2}} \quad \text{where } \tilde{\pi} = \frac{w + Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2/2}{n + Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2} \\ & = \frac{0 + 1.96^2/2}{25 + 1.96^2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{\frac{0+1.96^2/2}{25+1.96^2} \left(1 - \frac{0+1.96^2/2}{25+1.96^2}\right)}{25 + 1.96^2}} \\ & = (-0.0244, 0.1576)\end{aligned}$$

Exercise 2

```
#####
# Basic computations
#####
> w<-0 # Sum(y_i)
> n<-25
> alpha<-0.05
> pi.hat<-w/n
```

```

> p.tilde<-(w + qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2)^2 /2) / (n + qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2)^2)

#####
# Wald C.I
#####
> var.wald<-pi.hat*(1-pi.hat)/n
> round(pi.hat + qnorm(p = c(alpha/2, 1-alpha/2)) * sqrt(var.wald),4)

#output
[1] 0 0

#####
# Wilson C.I
#####
> round(p.tilde + qnorm(p = c(alpha/2, 1-alpha/2)) * sqrt(n) / (n+qnorm(p
= 1-alpha/2)^2) * sqrt(pi.hat*(1-pi.hat) + qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2)^2/(4*
n)),4)

#output
[1] 0.0000 0.1332

#####
# Agresti-Coull C.I
#####
> var.ac<-p.tilde*(1-p.tilde) / (n+qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2)^2)
> round(p.tilde + qnorm(p = c(alpha/2, 1-alpha/2)) *sqrt(var.ac),4)

#output
[1] -0.0244 0.1576

```

Exercise 3

a) The binomial log likelihood function is :

$$l = \log(\mathcal{L}) = w \log(\pi) + (n - w) \log(1 - \pi)$$

Differentiating with respect to π

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \pi} = \frac{w}{\pi} - \frac{n - w}{1 - \pi} = \frac{w - n\pi}{\pi(1 - \pi)}$$

Equating this to 0 gives the likelihood equation, which has solution $\hat{\pi} = \frac{w}{n}$

b)

case 1:

$$\begin{aligned}
 w = 0 &\implies l = n \log(1 - \pi) \\
 &\implies \max_{\pi \in (0,1)} (l) = n \log(1 - 0) = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

case 2:

$$\begin{aligned}
 w = n &\implies l = n \log(1 - \pi) \\
 &\implies \max_{\pi \in (0,1)} (l) = n \log(1) = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

case 3:

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 < w < n &\implies \frac{\partial^2 l}{\partial \pi^2} = -\frac{w}{\pi^2} - \frac{n-w}{(1-\pi)^2} < 0 \\
 &\implies l \text{ is a concave function} \\
 &\implies l \text{ has a unique global maximum which is } \hat{\pi} = \frac{w}{n}
 \end{aligned}$$

As a conclusion $\hat{\pi} = \frac{w}{n} = \underset{(0,1)}{\operatorname{argmax}} l$ is indeed the value that maximizes the log likelihood function ' over the interval $0 \leq \pi \leq 1$.

Exercise 4 (Exercise 13 in Section 1.3 of the textbook)

a)

```

> w <- 4
> n <- 10
> alpha <- 0.05
> pi.hat <- w/n
> library(binom)
> binom.confint(x = w, n = n, conf.level = 1-alpha, methods = "lrt")

#output
  method x n mean lower upper
1 lrt 4 10 0.4 0.1456425 0.7000216

```

b)

```

#####
# Basic computations
#####
> alpha<-0.05
> n<-40
> w<-0:n
> pi.hat<- w/n
> pi.seq<-seq(from = 0.001, to = 0.999, by = 0.0005)
> save.true.conf <-0:(length(pi.seq)-1)

#####
# Loop over each pi that the true confidence level is calculated on
#####
> counter<-1
> for(pi in pi.seq) {
  pmf<-dbinom(x = w, size = n, prob = pi)
  LRT.int<-binom.confint(x = w, n = n, conf.level = 1-alpha,
    methods = "lrt")
  save.LRT<-ifelse(test=pi>LRT.int$lower, yes=ifelse( test=pi<
    LRT.int$upper, yes = 1, no = 0), no = 0)
  LRT<-sum(save.LRT*pmf)
  save.true.conf[counter]<- LRT
  counter<-counter+1
}

```

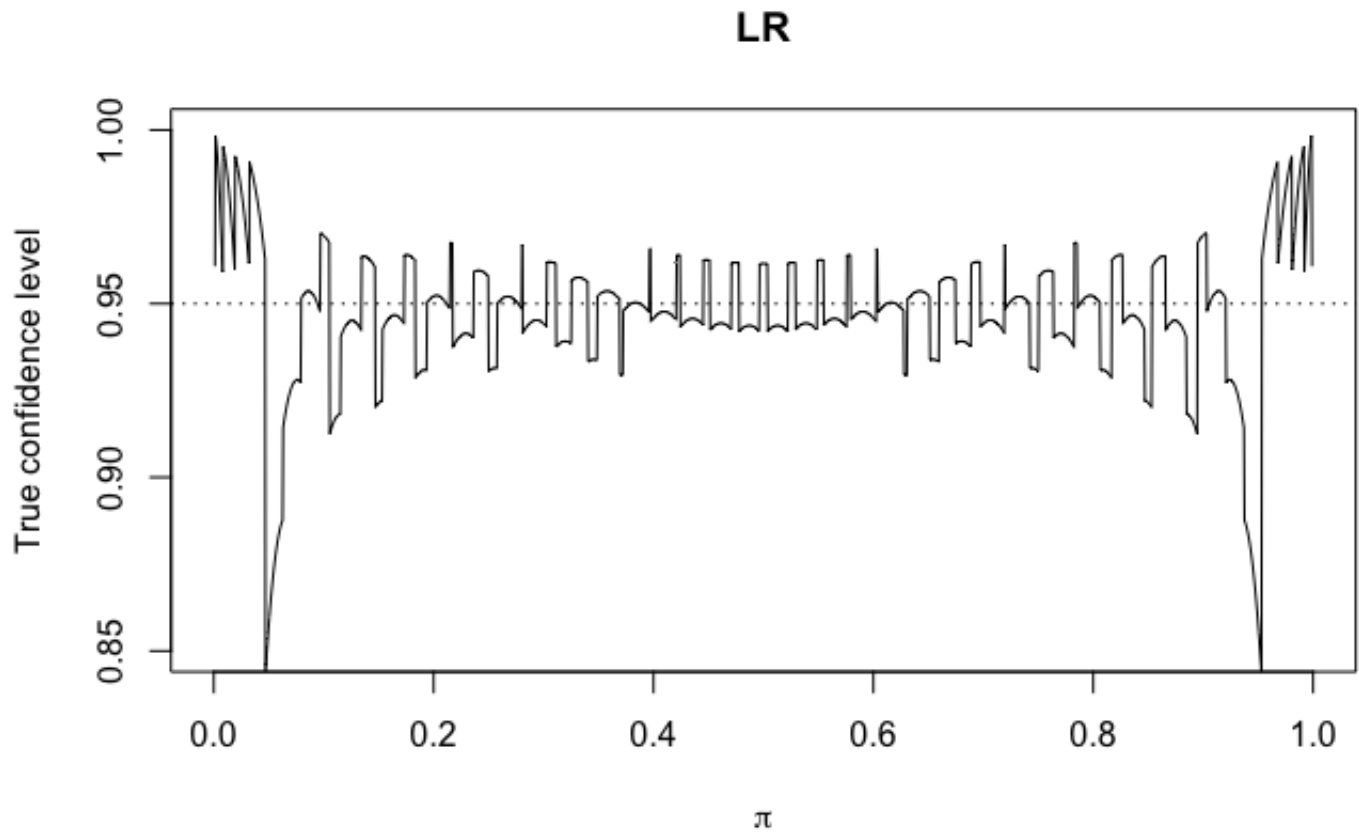


Figure 1: Plot of the true confidence levels

```
#####
# Plots
#####
> plot(x = pi.seq , y = save.true.conf, main = "LR", xlab =
      expression(pi), ylab = "True confidence level", type = "l",
      ylim = c(0.85,1))
> abline(h = 1-alpha, lty = "dotted")
```

c)

Figure below is taken from the textbook (figure 1.3), we can affirm that :

- the true confidence level for Wald interval is too low to be on the plot at extreme values of π , and also it's below the state value 0.95, so the Wald interval is excluded.
- The true confidence level interval's for LR is similar to the Wilson interval from values of approximately 0.2 to 0.8.
- We remark that close to 0 and 1 the true confidence LR level decreases, like the Wilson interval.
- the Wilson interval generally is a little better next to 0 and 1.
- The LR interval can be quite conservative, like the Agresti-Coull interval between 0.2 and 0.8, and π is close to 0 and 1 the Agresti-Coull is better.
- LR and Clopper-Pearson are quite similar on the extreme value 0 and 1.
- LR confidence intervals often are used in some more complicated contexts where better intervals are not available.

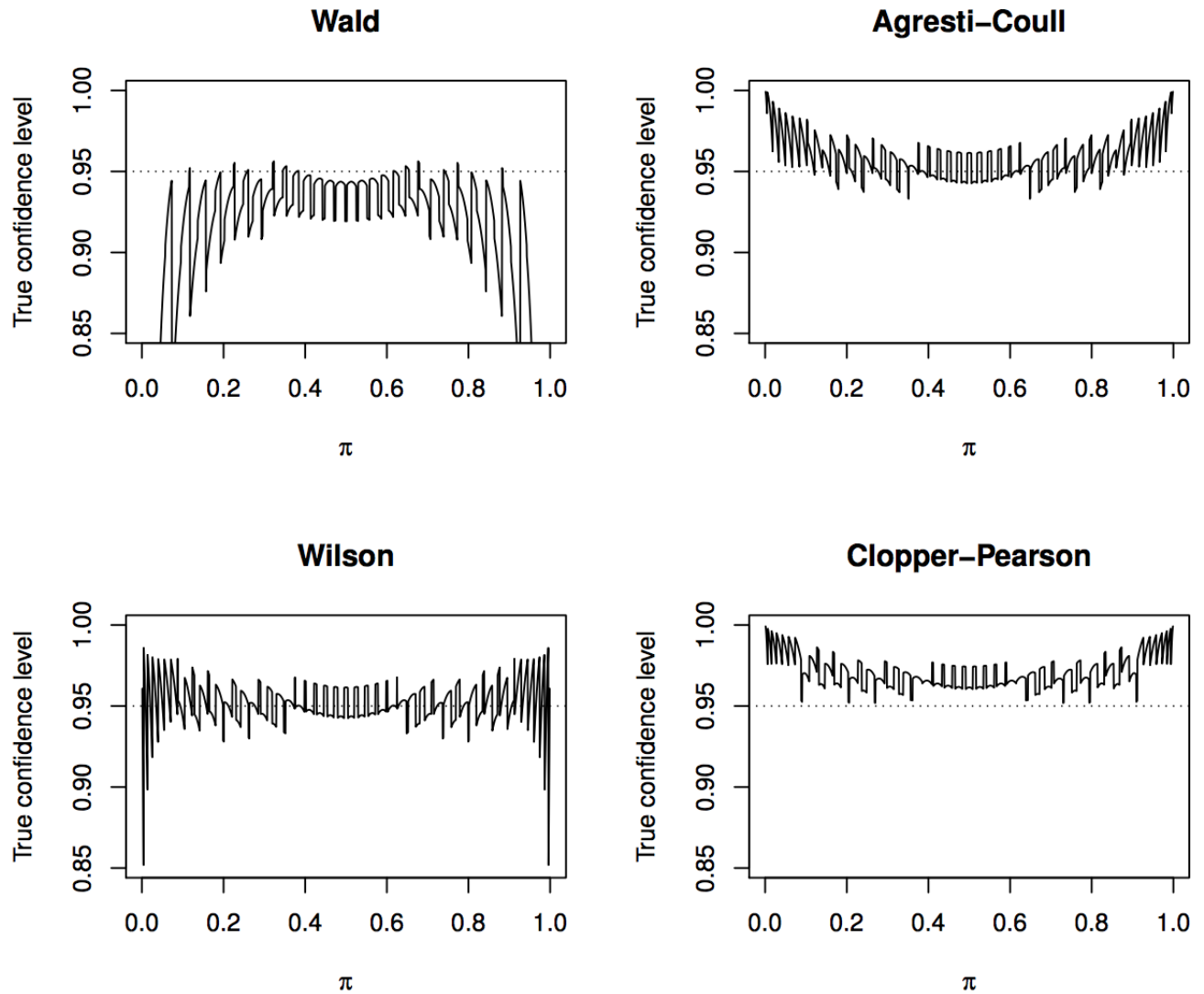


Figure 1.3: True confidence levels with $n = 40$ and $\alpha = 0.05$.

\Rightarrow we can choose the Clopper-Pearson interval as the a good interval because it's the more conservative.

Exercise 5 (Exercise 15 in Section 1.3 of the textbook)

- a) We want confidence intervals that place the parameter within as narrow a range as possible, while maintaining at least the stated confidence level. If we wanted intervals that had greater coverage, we would have stated a higher confidence level, but on the other hand we lose the brevity of the interval, it's a (Inverse relation)!
- b)

```
> alpha<-0.05
> pi<-0.16
> n<-40
> w<-0:n
> pi.hat<-w/n
```

```

> pmf<-dbinom(x = w, size = n, prob = pi)
> var.wald<-pi.hat*(1-pi.hat)/n
> lower<-pi.hat - qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2) * sqrt(var.wald)
> upper<-pi.hat + qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2) * sqrt(var.wald)
> Lenth.wald<-upper-lower
> sum(Lenth.wald*pmf)
[1] 0.2215248

```

c)

```

#####
# Basic calculations
#####
alpha <- 0.05
n <- 40
w <- 0:n
pi.hat <- w / n
p.tilde <- (w + qnorm(p = 1 - alpha/2) ^ 2 / 2) / (n + qnorm(1 - alpha/2)^2)
pi.seq <- seq(from = 0.001, to = 0.999, by = 0.0005)

#####
# Save true confidence levels in a matrix
#####
save.exp.lenght <- matrix(data = NA, nrow = length(pi.seq), ncol = 5)

#####
#Loop over each pi that the true confidence level is calculated on
#####
counter <- 1
for (pi in pi.seq) {
  pmf <- dbinom(x = w, size = n, prob = pi)

  #Wald
  lower.wald <- pi.hat - qnorm(p = 1 - alpha/2) * sqrt(pi.hat * (1 - pi.hat)/
    n)
  upper.wald <- pi.hat + qnorm(p = 1 - alpha/2) * sqrt(pi.hat * (1 - pi.hat)/
    n)
  save.wald <- upper.wald - lower.wald
  wald <- sum(save.wald * pmf)

  #Agresti-Coull
  lower.AC <- p.tilde - qnorm(p = 1 - alpha/2) * sqrt(p.tilde * (1 - p.tilde)
    /(n + qnorm(1 - alpha/2)^2))
  upper.AC <- p.tilde + qnorm(p = 1 - alpha/2) * sqrt(p.tilde * (1 - p.tilde)
    / (n + qnorm(1 - alpha/2)^2))
  save.AC <- upper.AC - lower.AC
  AC <- sum(save.AC * pmf)

  #Wilson
  lower.wilson <- p.tilde - qnorm(p = 1 - alpha/2) * sqrt(n) / (n + qnorm(1 -
    alpha/2)^2) * sqrt(pi.hat * (1 - pi.hat) + qnorm(1 -alpha/2)^2 / (4 *
    n))
  upper.wilson <- p.tilde + qnorm(p = 1 - alpha / 2) * sqrt(n) / (n + qnorm(1
    - alpha/2)^2) * sqrt(pi.hat * (1 - pi.hat) + qnorm(1 - alpha/2)^2/ (4

```

```

    * n))
save.wilson <- upper.wilson - lower.wilson
wilson <- sum(save.wilson * pmf)

#Clopper-Pearson / we use binom.confint()
library(package = binom)
lower.CP <- binom.confint(x = w, n = n, conf.level = 1 - alpha, methods = "
    exact" )$lower

upper.CP <- binom.confint(x = w, n = n, conf.level = 1 - alpha, methods = "
    exact" )$upper

#Find true confidence level
save.CP <- upper.CP - lower.CP
CP <- sum(save.CP * pmf)
save.exp.lenght[counter, ] <- c(pi, wald, AC, wilson, CP)
counter <- counter + 1
}
#####
#Plots
#####
plot( x = save.exp.lenght[, 1], y = save.exp.lenght[, 2], main = "Expected
    Length for different methods", xlab = expression(pi), ylab = "Expected
    Length", type = "l", ylim = c(0, 0.35), lty = 5 )

lines(x = save.exp.lenght[, 1], y = save.exp.lenght[, 3], lty = 1, col = "
    blue")

lines(x = save.exp.lenght[, 1], y = save.exp.lenght[, 4], lty = 2, col = "
    red")

lines(x = save.exp.lenght[, 1], y = save.exp.lenght[, 5], lty = 3, col = "
    forestgreen")

legend(x = 0, y = 0.07, legend = c("Wald", "Agresti-Caffo", "Wilson", "
    Clopper-Pearson"), lty = c(5, 1, 2, 3), bty = "n", col = c("black", "blue
    ", "red", "forestgreen"))

```

d)

- ♠ it is clear that the "Agresti-Caffo and Wilson" method is the most efficient in terms of (expected length and the true confidence level).
 - ♠ for a value of π between 0.2 and 0.8 the interval of wald and Clopper-Pearson is a little bigger compared to the others ("Agresti-Caffo" and "Wilson"), except that we see that for the wald true confidence level is quite weak, so there is still a bad choice.
- ⇒ As conclusion the best one is the wilson interval because it place the parameter within as narrow a range as possible, while maintaining at least the stated confidence level.

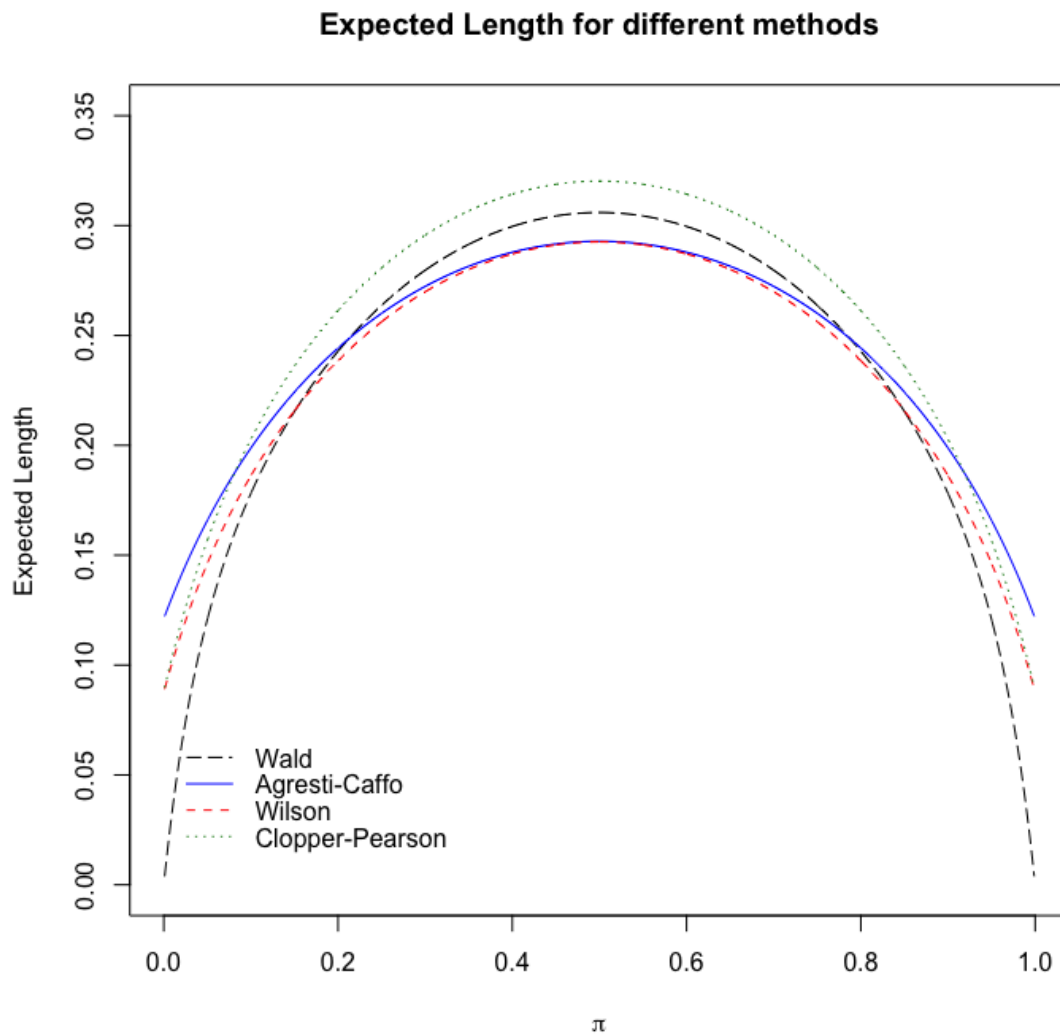


Figure 2: expected length for $n = 40$, $\pi = 0.16$

e)

Outline the steps that will be needed to find the length using Monte Carlo

- ♠ Simulate 1,000 samples using the `rbinom()` function with $n = 40$ and $\pi = 0.16$,
- ♠ Calculate the 95% Wald confidence interval for each sample.
- ♠ Calculate length of intervals
- ♠ Take the mean of those length

Below is the R code:

```
#####
# the estimated expected length using Monte Carlo simulation
#####

pi<- 0.16
alpha <- 0.05
```



```

n <- 40

#Number of binomial samples of size n
numb.bin.samples<-1000

set.seed(4716)
w<-rbinom(n = numb.bin.samples, size = n, prob = pi)
counts<-table(x = w)

pi.hat<-w/n
var.wald<-pi.hat*(1-pi.hat)/n
lower<-pi.hat - qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2) * sqrt(var.wald)
upper<-pi.hat + qnorm(p = 1-alpha/2) * sqrt(var.wald)

save<- upper - lower
exp.lenght <- mean(save)

> exp.lenght
[1] 0.2364643

```

Exercise 6 (Exercise 17 in Section 1.3 of the textbook)

a)

- ♣ **Wald confidence interval for the difference in probabilities of success $\pi_1 - \pi_2$**
the 95% ($\alpha = 5\%$) Wald interval is:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\pi}_1 - \hat{\pi}_2 \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}_1(1-\hat{\pi}_1)}{n} + \frac{\hat{\pi}_2(1-\hat{\pi}_2)}{n}} \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha = 5\% \\ = (-0.05362769, 0.49593538) \end{aligned}$$

- ♣ **R code**

```

c.table<-array(data = c(22, 10, 4, 6), dim = c(2,2), dimnames
  = list(First =c("No time-out", "Time-out"), Second = c("
    Success", "Failure")))

pi.hat.table<-c.table/rowSums(c.table)

alpha<-0.05
pi.hat1<-pi.hat.table[1,1]
pi.hat2<-pi.hat.table[2,1]

#Wald
var.wald<-pi.hat1*(1-pi.hat1) / sum(c.table[1,]) +
pi.hat2*(1-pi.hat2) / sum(c.table[2,])
pi.hat1 - pi.hat2 + qnorm(p = c(alpha/2, 1-alpha/2))*sqrt(var.
  wald)
#[1] -0.05362769 0.49593538

```

- ♣ **Agresti-Caffo confidence interval for the difference in probabilities of success $\pi_1 - \pi_2$**
the 95% ($\alpha = 5\%$) Wald interval is:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\pi}_1 - \tilde{\pi}_2 & \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\tilde{\pi}_1(1-\tilde{\pi}_1)}{n+2} + \frac{\tilde{\pi}_2(1-\tilde{\pi}_2)}{n+2}} \quad \text{where } \tilde{\pi}_i = \frac{w_i + 1}{n_i + 2} \quad i = 1, 2 \\ & = (-0.05584623, 0.47648115) \end{aligned}$$

♣ R code

```
c.table<-array(data = c(22, 10, 4, 6), dim = c(2,2),dimnames =
  list(First = c("No time-out", "Time-out"), Second = c("
  Success", "Failure")))

pi.hat.table<-c.table/rowSums(c.table)

alpha<-0.05
pi.hat1<-pi.hat.table[1,1]
pi.hat2<-pi.hat.table[2,1]

#Agresti-Caffo
pi.tilde1<-(c.table[1,1] + 1) / (sum(c.table[1,]) + 2)
pi.tilde2<-(c.table[2,1] + 1) / (sum(c.table[2,]) + 2)
var.AC<-pi.tilde1*(1-pi.tilde1) / (sum(c.table[1,]) + 2) + pi.
  tilde2*(1-pi.tilde2) / (sum(c.table[2,]) + 2)
pi.tilde1 - pi.tilde2 + qnorm(p = c(alpha/2, 1-alpha/2))*sqrt(
  var.AC)
#[1] -0.05584623 0.47648115
```

• Interpretation

the difference in time-out method success probabilities given no time-out method success is between " -0.05584623 & 0.47648115 " for Agresti-Caffo, and " -0.05362769 & 0.49593538 " for Wald.

Because this interval contains 0, we cannot detect if time-out method is successful or not. This means that either there is no difference, or there is a difference, but it was not detected in this sample.

b)

in this our case we have the data as binary observations, so the score statistic is the same as the chi-squared statistic in the Pearson's chi-squared test. Hence **we can calculate Pearson's chi-squared test only**.

♣ the Pearson's chi-squared test

The test statistic is formed by computing $(\text{observed count} - \text{estimated expected count})^2 / (\text{estimated expected count})$ over all observed counts, the Pearson chi-square test statistic is :

$$X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^2 \left(\frac{(w_i - n_i \bar{\pi})^2}{n_i \bar{\pi}} + \frac{(n_i - w_i - n_i(1 - \bar{\pi}))^2}{n_i n_i(1 - \bar{\pi})} \right)$$

♣ R code

```
> prop.test(x = c.table, conf.level = 0.95, correct =
  FALSE)

#OUTPUT
```

```
#2-sample test for equality of proportions without
continuity correction

#data: c.table
#X-squared = 2.6704, df = 1, p-value = 0.1022
#alternative hypothesis: two.sided
#95 percent confidence interval:
# -0.05362769 0.49593538
#sample estimates:
# prop 1 prop 2
# 0.8461538 0.6250000
```

♣ likelihood ratio test

The LRT test statistic can be shown to be

$$\begin{aligned}
 -2\log(\lambda) &= -2\log \left[w_1 \log \left(\frac{\tilde{\pi}}{\hat{\pi}_1} \right) + (n_1 - w_1) \log \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\pi}}{1 - \hat{\pi}_1} \right) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + w_2 \log \left(\frac{\tilde{\pi}}{\hat{\pi}_2} \right) + (n_2 - w_2) \log \left(\frac{1 - \tilde{\pi}}{1 - \hat{\pi}_2} \right) \right]
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

♣ R code

```
pi.bar <- colSums ( c.table ) [1]/sum( c.table )
log.Lambda <- c.table [1 ,1]*log ( pi.bar/pi.hat.table [1
,1]) +
c.table [1 ,2]*log ((1 - pi.bar ) / (1- pi.hat.table [1
,1]) ) + c.table [2 ,1] * log ( pi.bar/pi.hat.table [2
,1]) + c.table [2 ,2]*log((1 - pi.bar ) /(1 - pi.hat.
table [2 ,1]) )
test.stat <- -2* log.Lambda
test.stat
#Output
2.610628
```

c)

♣ R code for the estimated relative risk : $\widehat{RR} : \hat{\pi}_1/\hat{\pi}_2$

```
> cat("The sample relative risk is", round(pi.hat1/pi.hat2, 4)
, "\n \n")
#OUTPUT
The sample relative risk is 1.3538
```

• Interpretation

A Success is 1.3538 times as likely for those kickers with No time-out method than those with time-out method.

♣ R code for relative risk confidence interval

```

alpha<-0.05
n1<-sum(c.table[1,])
n2<-sum(c.table[2,])

ci<-exp(log(pi.hat1/pi.hat2) + qnorm(p = c(alpha/2, 1-alpha/2)
)* sqrt((1-pi.hat1)/(n1*pi.hat1) + (1-pi.hat2)/(n2*pi.hat2
)))

> round(ci, 4)
[1] 0.8954 2.0470

```

- **Interpretation**

The 95% confidence interval is $0.8954 < RR < 2.0470$. Therefore, with 95% confidence, the probability of having success with No time-out methods is between 0.8954 and 2.0470 times as large for those kickers who use time-out.

d)

- ♣ **R code for the estimated odds risk : $\widehat{OR} : \frac{\hat{\pi}_1/(1-\hat{\pi}_1)}{\hat{\pi}_2/(1-\hat{\pi}_2)}$**

```

> OR.hat<- c.table[1,1] * c.table[2,2] / (c.table[2,1] * c.
table[1,2])

> cat("The sample Odd risk is", round(OR.hat,4), "\n \n")
#OUTPUT
The sample Odd risk is 3.3

```

- **Interpretation**

The estimated odds of a success are 3.3 times as large as in group with No time-out method than in group using time-out method.

- ♣ **R code for Odd risk confidence interval**

```

> alpha<-0.05
> var.log.or<-1/c.table[1,1] + 1/c.table[1,2] + 1/c.table[2,1]
+ 1/c.table[2,2]
> OR.CI<-exp(log(OR.hat) + qnorm(p = c(alpha/2, 1-alpha/2))*
sqrt(var.log.or))
> round(OR.CI, 2)
[1] 0.76 14.34

```

- **Interpretation**

With 95% confidence, the odds of having success with No time-out methods are between 0.76 and 14.34 times as large when the kickers use time-out methods. throw is made.

e) Because 1 is within the interval, there is insufficient evidence to indicate if throwing the kicker is a good strategy to follow